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An R Package for Modelling Actual, Potential and Reference Evapotranspiration

Danlu Guo[a], Seth Westra[a], Holger R. Maier[a]

[a]School of Civil, Environmental & Mining Engineering, The University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia, 5005

Danlu.Guo@adelaide.edu.au

Abstract: Evapotranspiration (ET) is a vital component of the hydrological cycle and there are a large number of alternative models for representing ET processes. However, implementing ET models in a consistent manner is difficult due to the significant diversity in process representations, assumptions, nomenclature, terminology, units and data requirements. An R package is therefore introduced to estimate actual, potential and reference ET using 17 well-known models. Data input is flexible, and customized data checking and pre-processing methods are provided. Results are presented as summary text and plots. Comparisons of alternative ET estimates can be visualized for multiple models, and alternative input data sets. The ET estimates also can be exported for further analysis, and used as input to rainfall-runoff models.

***Keywords**:* evapotranspiration (ET), evaporation, ensemble modelling, R package, Evapotranspiration software

HIGHLIGHTS

An R package has been developed to implement multiple ET models in a consistent way

The package features flexibility in ET model choice and climate data input

The package can greatly assist ensemble modelling of ET

SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

Description: Package *Evapotranspiration*

Developers: Danlu Guo, Seth Westra

Year First Available: 2014

E-mail: Danlu.guo@adelaide.edu.au

Website: http://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/Evapotranspiration/index.html

Hardware Requirement: General-purpose computer

Software Requirement: R version 2.10 or later

Programming Language: R

Licensing: This software is made freely available under the terms and conditions of the GNU General Public License

1 INTRODUCTION

Evapotranspiration (ET) is defined as the transfer of liquid water to the atmosphere as water vapor from bare soil and water bodies such as rivers and lakes (evaporation), as well as vegetated surfaces through plants' leaves (transpiration) (Allen et al., 1998; Dingman, 2015). ET is often one of the largest fluxes of water from catchments (Baumgartner et al., 1975), so that estimating its magnitude is critical for many applications. Factors that influence ET include: 1) the state of climate variables, such as temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and solar radiation, which influences the potential ET rate; 2) the water availability, which determines if actual evapotranspiration (AET) occurs at its potential rate (potential evapotranspiration, or PET) where sufficient water is present, or whether it occurs at a lower rate due to moisture limitations; and 3) the evaporative surface, with commonly modelled surfaces including natural catchments, 'reference' crops (ET_0), and open water bodies.

Understanding the dominant ET processes and quantifying ET rates provide useful information for diverse applications. For example, catchment management makes use of information on AET over the land surface, reservoir management requires information on open-water evaporation (e.g. McJannet et al., 2008), rainfall-runoff modelling often requires estimates of catchment-averaged PET (e.g. Andréassian et al., 2004; Oudin et al., 2005), and agricultural studies often require information on ET_0 (e.g. Doorenbos, 1977; Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009). However, obtaining observations of these specific ET rates can be challenging. This is because the measurement of AET is difficult, typically involving sophisticated spatial and temporal scaling techniques from sap flow observations to represent the entire canopy, or using expensive micrometeorological eddy flux instrumentation that is generally not available for most practical applications; furthermore, PET is a conceptual quantity that cannot be 'measured' directly (Gasca-Tucker et al., 2007; Fisher et al., 2011). Therefore, these rates are usually estimated using models, so that the selection and implementation of ET process models becomes critical.

There are multiple models available for estimating ET rates. According to McMahon et al. (2013), alternative ET models can represent the same ET processes differently by: (1) placing emphasis on different sub-processes, such as mass transfer and energy balance processes; (2) focussing on the dominant processes that occur in different environments, including humid and arid climates; (3) having different requirements for inputting climate data and different interpretations of the constants' values; and (4) conforming to different hierarchies for handling missing data and adjusting biased estimates.

In order to provide better information on the selection of an appropriate model, guidance on ET model formulation and related issues was provided by McMahon et al. (2013). However, the implementation of these and other formulations is complicated by the significant diversity in process representations, assumptions, nomenclature, terminology, units and data requirements, which can make it difficult to implement the mathematical representations of these ET models, and can lead to coding inconsistencies and errors. This has a number of potentially negative implications on ET modelling studies, such as reducing confidence in the results presented, and providing difficulties for objectively comparing the results from different studies.

A practical aspect that can benefit from a more standardized approach to ET model implementation is the use of ensemble ET models. Applications of ensemble modelling can lead to a better understanding of ET model structural uncertainty (e.g. Beven and Freer, 2001; Duan et al., 2007; Kavetski and Fenicia, 2011; Velázquez et al., 2012), by:

1) assessing the impact of multiple ET models based on historical climate assumptions, to quantify PET and AET uncertainty (Xu and Singh, 2000; Xu and Singh, 2002; Tabari et al., 2013), and determine the effect of ET estimates on hydrologic modelling, water resource assessments (Yin and Brook, 1992; Oudin et al., 2005; Kannan et al., 2007; Rosenberry et al., 2007; Horváth et al., 2010), ecological and agricultural studies (Nichols et al., 2004; Gasca-Tucker et al., 2007; Fisher et al., 2011), and;

2) assessing the impact of using multiple ET models under a changing climate, considering potential changes in both the ET-related processes and climate variables (McKenney and Rosenberg, 1993; Kay and Davies, 2008; Kingston

et al., 2009; Donohue et al., 2010; Bormann, 2011; Prudhomme and Williamson, 2013; Thompson et al., 2014).

To further support a range of ET modelling studies, there is a need to facilitate the implementation of different ET models in a convenient, consistent and efficient manner. There are some existing software packages focussing on specific ET modelling needs and aspects: such as the 'ET_0 Calculator' (Raes and Munoz, 2008) to calculate ET_0 using the FAO-56 Penman-Monteith model, the Fortran code 'Morton WREVAP' (McMahon et al., 2013) to implement the Morton ET models, and the R package 'SPEI' (Beguería et al., 2013), which includes multiple ET models and several drought indices to estimate the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI). However, to our knowledge, there has not been a freely available tool which enables the implementation of a large number of alternative ET models in a consistent manner.

This paper presents an R software package to estimate ET from 17 alternative models: fifteen of the models are based on those summarize in McMahon et al. (2013), as well as the Jensen-Haise and the McGuinness-Bordne models, sourced from (Prudhomme and Williamson, 2013). These estimate a range of ET quantities (AET, PET and ET_0), take a range of climate processes and variables into account, and run at daily or monthly time-steps. Data input is flexible and data checking and pre-processing options are included. The availability of such a consistent software framework for implementing modelling approaches is important from the perspective of ensemble modelling, comparison among different models and data sets (for examples see Dawson et al., 2007; Galelli et al., 2014), as well as analysis of model and input uncertainty (Leavesley et al., 2006; Clark et al., 2008; Andrews et al., 2011).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The package is described in Section 2, including the evapotranspiration models included, as well as the package structure and core functions. In Section 3, two different Australian catchments are used to demonstrate various features of the package including: (1) data pre-processing; (2) estimation of ET and producing summaries and plots of results; and (3) comparison of estimates with ensemble ET models and input data sets. In Section 4, some potential further analyses with the package and limitations are discussed, which are followed by the conclusions in Section 5.

2 THE EVAPOTRANSPIRATION PACKAGE

2.1 Evapotranspiration Models

The R package *Evapotranspiration* includes 17 models, which use one or several climate variables to estimate PET, AET and ET_0 at a single location using input data at sub-daily, daily and monthly resolutions. Although the models consist of different process representations, they are all based on the two fundamental components that drive ET:

1) Energy balance, which determines the latent heat of vaporization; and
2) Mass transfer, which influences the rate of movement of water vapor away from the evaporating surface.

The latent heat can be estimated considering the energy balance as:

$$\lambda E = R - H - G + A_d \quad (1)$$

where λ is the latent heat of vaporization, E is the rate of evapotranspiration, R is the net incoming radiation received at the soil/plant surfaces (which is determined by the total incoming solar radiation R_s), H is the sensible heat exchange with the atmosphere through convection (which is determined by the air temperature T), G is the heat exchange with the ground, and A_d is the net input of water advected energy, such as water inflow to a lake, which only applies for open-water bodies.

The mass transfer of water vapor is influenced by the vapor gradient (i.e. the difference between saturated and actual vapor pressure, which is related to relative humidity RH and temperature T) and wind speed u_z. Next to the evaporative surface, a thin non-turbulent layer of air provides resistance to evaporation flux, known as the aerodynamic resistance (Penman, 1948). For plant leaves, surface resistance is also important, as transpiration is regulated by the degree of stomatal opening in leaves (Monteith, 1991). Combining the energy balance and mass transfer components, the four key climate variables related to ET are T, RH, R_s and u_z (as illustrated in Figure 1).

Over the past decades, a large number of ET models have been developed by representing these processes in different ways. In this package, 17 of these models are included, which are based on different relationships among the ET processes and the four climate variables, and thus having different data requirements of climate variables and corresponding units (which are detailed in Table 1).

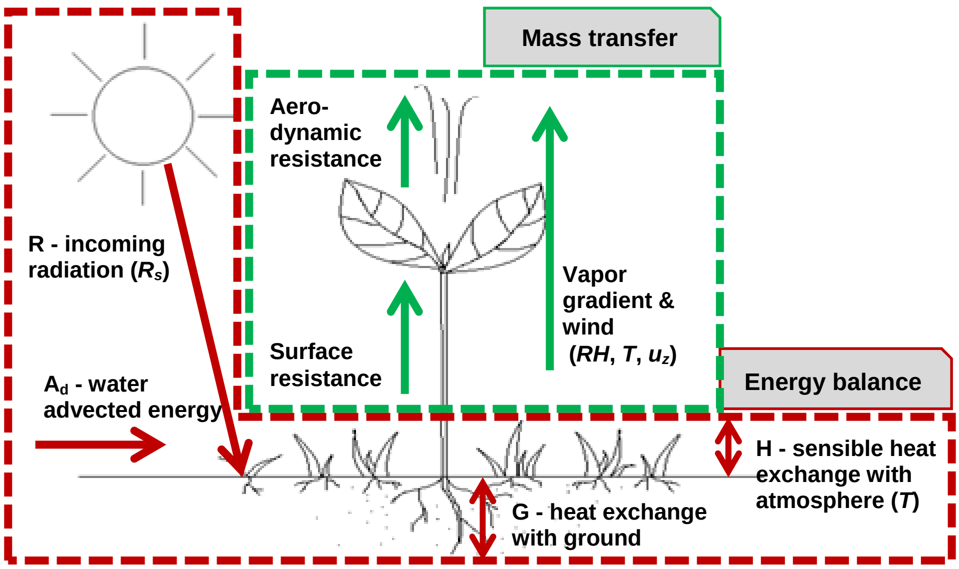

Figure 1 ET-related processes accounted for by the mass transfer and energy balance, with the relevant atmospheric variables in brackets: T = air temperature, R_s = incoming solar radiation, RH = relative humidity, u_z = wind speed.

The various models included in the package *Evapotranspiration* are detailed in Table 1. The PET and ET_0 models consider different sets of ET sub-processes and associated climate variables, including incoming radiation, vapor gradient, the heat exchanges with the atmosphere and the ground, advection processes and the surface resistance of vegetation (see the references in Table 1 for further details). The five AET models (i.e. Brutsaert-Strickler, Granger-Gray, Szilagyi-Jozsa, Morton CRAE and Morton CRWE) are all based on an observed complementary relationship (CR, first raised by Bouchet, 1963) between PET and AET, which states that as the evaporating surface dries, the decrease in AET is complemented by an equal increase in PET. The two Morton models (Morton, 1983b, 1983a) can estimate both the PET and AET explicitly at the equilibrium temperature (i.e. the temperature at the evaporating surface), by following the energy-balance and vapor transfer equations, respectively. Alternatively, the Brutsaert-Strickler, Granger-Gray and Szilagyi-Jozsa methods estimate AET by integrating the Penman and Priestley-Taylor models within the CR framework in different ways (Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979; Granger and Gray, 1989; Szilagyi, 2007). Note that these quantities are equivalent under special conditions: technically, when sufficient water is present, the rate of PET and AET are equivalent to each other, and for a defined vegetated surface, the rate of PET and ET_0 are equivalent.

The equations for 15 ET models included in the package (all models except for Jensen-Haise and McGuinness-Bordne) are sourced from McMahon et al. (2013), which have all been verified with examples presented in their original paper. The availability of reliable verification is the key reason that we select the majority of ET models within this package from McMahon et al. (2013). For the other two structurally simple models, Jensen-Haise and McGuinness-Bordne, which are sourced from Prudhomme and Williamson (2013), there are no published examples of implementation available for verification. We have ensured that the equations are correct by verifying their formulae in a number of alternative references including Jensen and Haise (1963), Xu and Singh (2000) and Oudin et al. (2005).

Table 1 Data requirements for different models. D = daily, M = monthly.

ET model name and corresponding function name in package	Time step	Climate input data required*					Quantity estimated		
		T_{max}, T_{min}	RH_{max}, RH_{min}	R_s	U_z	T_{dew}	*PET*	ET_0	*AET*
Penman 1948 (Penman, 1948) and Penman 1956 (Penman, 1956) *ET.Penman*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓(open water)
Penman-Monteith FAO-56 (Allen et al., 1998) and ASCE-EWRI (Allen et al., 2005) *ET.PenmanMonteith*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓(short crop)	
Matt-Shuttleworth (Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009) *ET.MattShuttleworth*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓(well-watered)	
Priestley-Taylor (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) *ET.PriestleyTaylor*	D	✓	✓	✓			✓ (advection -free)		
PenPan** (Rotstayn et al., 2006) *ET.PenPan*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		
Brutsaert-Strickler (Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979) *ET.BrutsaertStrickler*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓(areal)
Granger-Gray (Granger and Gray, 1989) *ET.GrangerGray*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓(areal)
Szilagyi-Jozsa (Szilagyi, 2007) *ET.SzilagyiJozsa*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓
Makkink (De Bruin, 1981) *ET.Makkink*	D	✓		✓				✓	
Blaney-Criddle (Allen and Pruitt, 1986) *ET.BlaneyCriddle*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓(well-watered)	
Turc (Turc, 1961) *ET.Turc*	D	✓		✓				✓	
Hargreaves-Samani (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985) *ET.HargreavesSamani*	D	✓						✓	
Chapman Australian*** (Chapman, 2001) *ET.ChapmanAustralian*	D	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		

Jensen-Haise (Jensen and Haise, 1963; Xu and Singh, 2000; Prudhomme and Williamson, 2013) *ET.JensenHaise*	D	✓		✓			✓		
McGuiness-Bordne (Oudin et al., 2005; Prudhomme and Williamson, 2013) *ET.McGuinnessBordne*	D	✓					✓		
Morton CRAE (Morton, 1983a) *ET.MortonCRAE*	M	✓		✓		✓	✓		✓
Morton CRWE (Morton, 1983b) *ET.MortonCRWE*	M	✓		✓		✓	✓		✓(shallow lake)

***T_{max}/T_{min} = maximum/minimum temperature (°C), R_s = incoming solar radiation (MJ.m^{-2}), RH_{max}/RH_{min} = maximum/minimum relative humidity (%), u_z = wind speed (m.s^{-1}), T_{dew} = dew point temperature (°C).**

****The original PenPan model estimates the actual evaporation from a Class-A Pan (i.e. a circular pan with diameter of 1.2 m and depth of 0.25 m, which is constructed of galvanised iron and supported on a wooden frame at 30 to 50 mm above the ground). This rate of evaporation is closely related to the PET, so that is it possible to approximated PET from pan evaporation by adjustment using a pan coefficient (McMahon et al., 2013).**

*****The original Chapman model (Chapman, 2001) uses only the measurements of Class-A Pan evaporation and is therefore fully empirical. However, in the *Evapotranspiration* package, it has been adapted to utilize the outputs of the PenPan model so it can be considered to capture the same set of ET sub-processes as the PenPan model.**

2.2 Structure and Core Functions

The functions, data inputs and outputs, and graphical features of the package are summarized in Figure 2. The data pre-processing function *ReadInputs()* is developed for loading and processing sub-daily and daily raw climate data. The processed data are then ready to feed into the generic function *ET…()*, where each of the 17 different methods can be called by substituting the '…' by the function name (e.g. '*ET.Penman ()*' to call the Penman model). The function performs calculations for the relevant ET model and generates a calculation summary.

Having calculated the ET quantity, the function *ETPlot()* can then be called to plot the original estimates, as well as aggregations and averages at different time scales. Function *ETComparison()* facilitates comparison of results and visualization of uncertainties from using different models and/or different input data. Finally, *ETForcing()* enables the association between estimated ET and different climate variables to be plotted.

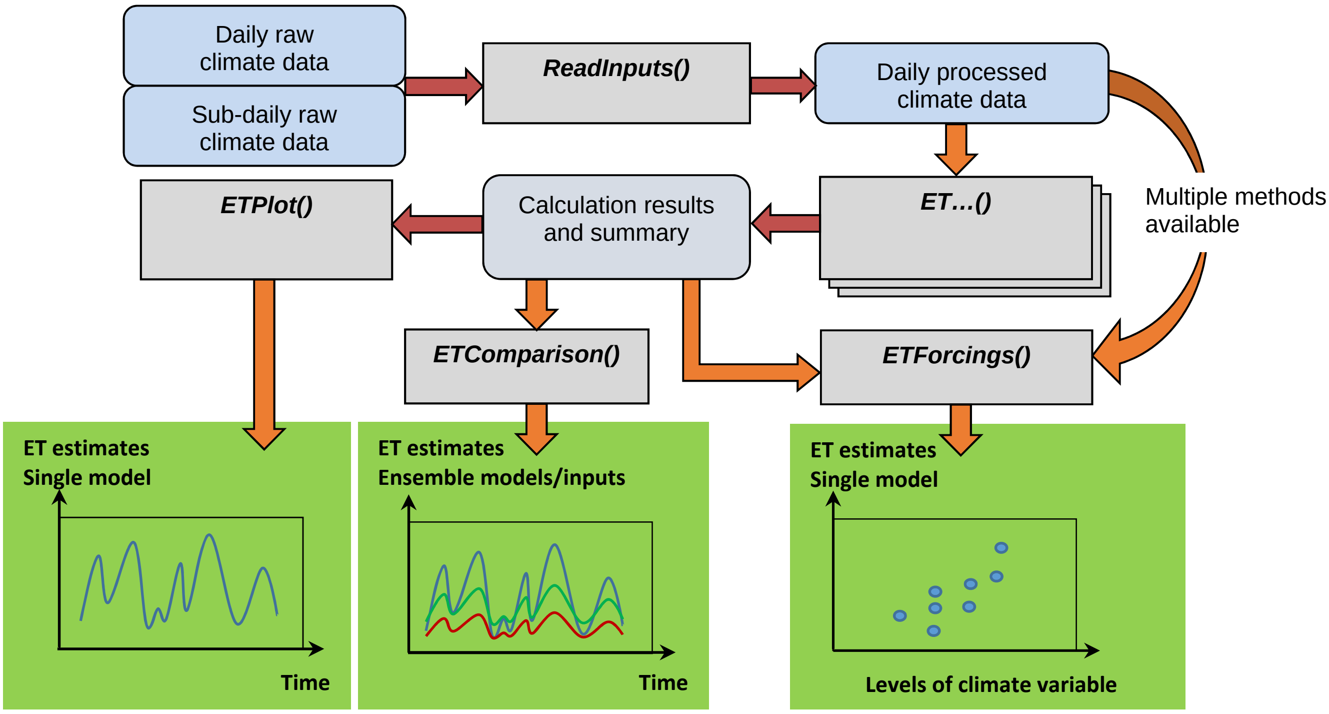

Figure 2 Schematic diagram of the features of the package *Evapotranspiration:* the blue boxes represent data or results that are produced and/or processed by the functions, represented in the grey boxes; the green boxes represent expected results.

Function *ReadInputs()* is designed for checking data availability, and identifies missing entries and errors from the input sub-daily or daily raw climate data. The availability of the date data (i.e. year, month and date) is checked first, since these data are compulsory for the function to read the time-series-like climate data. *ReadInputs*() then reads through the raw climate data presented, and reports all input variables that are available to use. Specific data requirements for the individual models (see Table 1) are checked prior to performing the calculations in function *ET…()*. A specific format of the input data is required in terms of variable names and units, as well as the input data file format, which is different for daily and sub-daily raw data (see Section 1.1 of the supplementary material, within which Table 1 provides the detailed format requirements for the raw climate data). To assist users with preparing the raw input data, a summary of the relevant unit conversions is also provided in Table 2 of the supplementary material.

Next, *ReadInputs()* checks for missing entries in each of the available climate variables, and the quality of the data is assessed against two user-defined threshold values for: (1) the maximum acceptable percentage of missing data; (2) the maximum acceptable duration of continuous missing data as a percentage of total data duration. If the data quality is not acceptable (i.e. either of the percentage and/or duration of missing data has exceeded the user-defined threshold values), the program will be terminated with a warning message.

For data with acceptable quality but still containing some missing values, a warning is given with a default of assigning 'NA' for the missing values (which leads to 'NA's in the output estimates if they are used in *ET…()*). The user can also use the in-built gap-filling routine to interpolate for the missing values, with four alternative gap-filling methods (see Table 3 in the supplementary material for details) including:

1) Replacement with same-month average (adapted from Narapusetty et al., 2009);
2) Replacement with same-season average (adapted from Narapusetty et al., 2009);
3) Replacement with same day-of-the-year average (Narapusetty et al., 2009);
4) Interpolation between the two bounding values, which is only suitable for missing time increments in which values are available at adjacent increments (McMahon et al., 2013). When there is more than one consecutive missing entry, this interpolation fails, with a warning given.

The function also includes simple primary checks for abnormal values in each climate variable: for example, any temperature data greater than 100ºC are considered as abnormal. Warnings are issued for the abnormal values detected, and again, the users can choose if the abnormal values will be corrected in the function, using one of the four interpolation methods mentioned previously. Details of the four interpolation methods and definitions of abnormal values for each climate variable are presented in Table 4 and 5 in the supplementary material.

After completing the quality checks, all sub-daily raw data are aggregated to a daily time-step, as required by most ET models; such temporal aggregation is not performed for raw climate data that are already available at a daily time-step.

As already discussed, *ET...()* is a generic function, which includes 17 different specific methods that are all named following the format of *ET.methodname()*, as detailed in Table 1. If a specific ET model is selected by user, the function first performs a specific check for the data requirement, which is different for each of the 17 models in *ET...()* (see Table 1 for details). If a certain input variable required by the ET model is not available, the function will search for whether there are alternative ways to estimate the missing variable from other available variables; however, if no alternative data or methods are available, the function will be terminated with a warning. The available methods to estimate missing input variables are summarized in Table 3 in the supplementary material.

In the case where a specific ET model is not specified (i.e. the generic function *ET()* is called directly instead of *ET.methodname()*), the first task *ET…()* performs is to estimate as many missing climate variables as possible. Then a default method to estimate ET is selected based on all the available input variables, which include both the original input variables presented, as well as the variables estimated from them. Wherever data are available, the ET model that has the highest data requirements (and thus provides the most detailed physically-based process representation) is selected as default. The detailed selection of default models for different data availability is in Table 6 of the supplementary material.

Besides the input climate data, a list of constants is also required in *ET…()*. The definitions and suggested values of all constants are summarized in Table 7 in the supplementary material. A number of arguments are included in each ET model to allow additional user decisions in modelling ET. A common argument in all models is the choice of time-step for the output. The default time-step of the output ET estimates is daily for all models running at a daily time-step (i.e. all models except for Morton, as shown in Table 1), however, monthly and annual outputs can also be produced when specified; the two Morton models by default produce monthly output, while the user can also choose to obtain annual output. For models with multiple versions (e.g. the Penman 1948 and 1956 models, which have different wind functions) and requiring additional user decisions (e.g. calculation options, assumptions) there are additional individual arguments to enable flexible choices among different pathways. The complete details on the use of constants and available arguments for different ET models are presented in Table 8 in the supplementary material.

Once being called with sufficient data, and provided all constants and arguments have been specified, function *ET…()* performs calculations for individual ET models. A user-friendly summary of the results is printed on the screen, which confirms the choice of model and sub-model, along with the corresponding versions, the quantities calculated, as well as options for alternative calculations and assumptions. A basic statistical summary of the entire output time-series is also presented (as illustrated with an example in Figure 3). The full results are stored as an R list file, as well as a csv file, which is automatically saved to the working directory. It contains both the calculation summary and the entire time series of the output, in which the ET estimates are organized in rows for different time increments.

A number of plotting tools are available to analyse the outputs. Function *ETPlot()* uses the estimated daily ET from individual ET models to generate aggregation plots and average plots at daily, monthly and annual time steps. Function *ETComparison()* produces comparison plots of different sets of ET estimates, to compare the outputs from (1) different ET models; (2) different versions of the same ET model (e.g. the 1948 and 1956 versions of the Penman model); (3) the same ET model with different calculation options, such as alternative approaches for data infilling and/or; (4) different sets of input climate data. For each quantity, three types of plots, including time series plots, non-exceedance probability plots and box plots, can be produced. Plots of uncertainty ranges can also be produced for daily estimates, monthly and annual aggregates and monthly and annual averages. Finally, the function *ETForcing()* is an additional plotting tool for visualizing the association between estimated ET and different climate variables within existing data.

3 CASE STUDIES

Two case studies have been used to demonstrate the core utilities of the package *Evapotranspiration*, using sub-daily climate data from meteorological sites at Adelaide (34.9290° S, 138.6010° E) and Alice Springs (23.7000° S, 133.8700° E) in Australia for the common period from 01/01/1989 to 30/03/2005.

3.1 Basic Features: Pre-processing Input Data, Calculating and Visualizing Estimates

ReadInputs() is called first with the raw sub-daily data from the Adelaide case study, and the maximum percentage of acceptable number and duration of missing data set to 10% and 3%, respectively. The function displays a summary of data quality when checking through each input variable. The raw sub-daily data are then aggregated to a daily timescale. The missing values and abnormal values in each input variable are corrected with the corresponding averages from the same days of the year (i.e. day-of-the-year average). The processed data are then ready for the ET models to use.

The Penman open-water ET is estimated for the Adelaide case study using function *ET.Penman()*. The arguments are set so that (1) the time-step for calculation is daily; (2) the actual sunshine hours are used for calculating solar radiation; (3) the actual wind data are used; (4) the Penman 1948 wind function (Penman, 1948) is used to estimate the mass transfer component in the Penman model; and (5) the evaporative surface is open water (albedo = 0.08, roughness height = 0.001m). The calculated time series of Penman ET from *ET.Penman()* has been saved in an R data list, while output is printed to the screen, which confirms the choice of model and the selection of alternative calculation options, and also gives a basic statistical summary of the entire time-series of ET estimates.

Figure 3 is a screenshot of data processing and ET estimation with *ReadInputs()* and *ET.Penman()* for this case study.

```
> data <- ReadInputs(climatedata,constants,stopmissing=c(10,3), timestep = "subdaily",
+                    interp_missing = T, interp_abnormal = T,
+                    missing_method = "DoY average", abnormal_method = "DoY average")
The maximum acceptable percentage of missing data is 10 %
The maximum acceptable percentage of continuous missing data is 3 %
Warning: missing data of 'Tmax.daily'(daily maximum temperature), calculated from subdaily 'Temp.subdaily'
Warning: missing data of 'Tmin.daily'(daily minimum temperature), calculated from subdaily 'Temp.subdaily'
Warning: missing data of 'u2.subdaily', calculated from 'uz.subdaily
Number of missing values in uz.subdaily:  3
% missing data:  0.03 %
Maximum duration of missing data as percentage of total duration:  0.02 %
Warning: missing data of 'RHmax.daily'(daily maximum relative humidity), calculated from subdaily 'RH.subdaily'
Warning: missing data of 'RHmin.daily'(daily minimum relative humidity), calculated from subdaily 'RH.subdaily'
> Results <- ET.Penman(data, constants, solar="sunshine hours", wind="yes", windfunction_ver = "1948", alpha = 0.08, z0 = 0.001)
Penman Open-water Evaporation
Evaporative surface: water, albedo = 0.08 ; roughness height = 0.001 m
Sunshine hour data have been used for calculating incoming solar radiation
Wind data have been used for calculating the Penman evaporation. Penman 1948 wind function has been used.
Timestep: daily
Units: mm
1280 ET estimates obtained
Time duration: 2001-03-01 to 2004-08-31
Basic stats
Mean: 4.86
Max: 12.78
Min: 1.03
```

Figure 3 Example of a typical session of data processing with *ReadInputs()* and ET estimation with *ET.Penman()* for the Adelaide case study.

The plots of estimated daily ET and monthly averaged daily ET have been produced for the Adelaide case study using function *ETPlot()* (Figure 4). Although it is difficult to detect any trend from the highly fluctuating daily estimates (Figure 4a), there is a very strong seasonal pattern, displayed in the monthly average plot (Figure 4b). The ET peaks during the summer months, as would be expected due to the higher temperature and solar radiation during this time of the year.

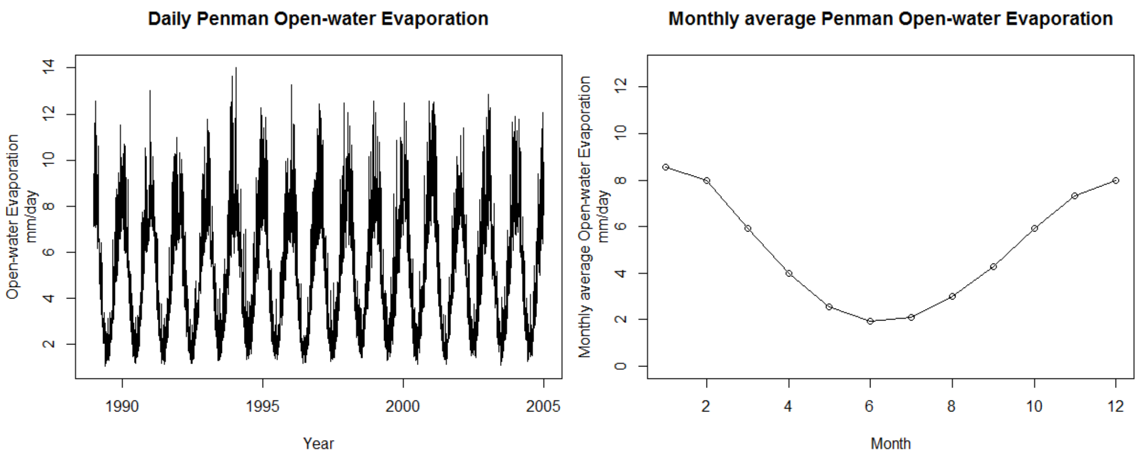

Figure 4 a) Daily estimates of Penman open-water ET (left panel); b) Monthly averaged daily Penman open-water ET (right panel) for the Adelaide case study, generated by *ETPlot().*

3.2 Advanced Features: Analyses with Ensemble Models and Different Input Data Sets

The features of function *ETComparison()* are demonstrated for both the Adelaide and Alice Springs case studies. First, plots of the time series and the non-exceedance probabilities for monthly ET estimates have been produced to compare estimates from the Penman-Monteith FAO56 and Priestley-Taylor models during 1989-1991 (Figure 5). From Figures 5a and 5b we observed that:

1) When comparing across the two case study sites, the inter-model differences in estimates are greater at Alice Springs, with the Priestley-Taylor model producing consistently lower estimates than the Penman-Monteith, and;
2) When comparing the seasonal patterns, the inter-model differences in estimates are most significant for the peak estimates, which occur in every summer (for example, at the start of 1990).

Figure 5c shows the distribution of the monthly estimates within the period and from the different models, which is consistent with previous observations: the ET estimates from the Priestley-Taylor model are consistently lower compared with those obtained using the Penman-Monteith model, with the greatest difference of approximately 100mm for the peak estimates at Alice Springs. These results reflect the structural differences in the two models, as the Penman-Monteith model explicitly takes the mass transfer for evapotranspiration into account, which is higher during summer periods and for arid and windy conditions (as reported in McKenney and Rosenberg, 1993; Yin et al., 2010), such as those experienced in Alice Springs.

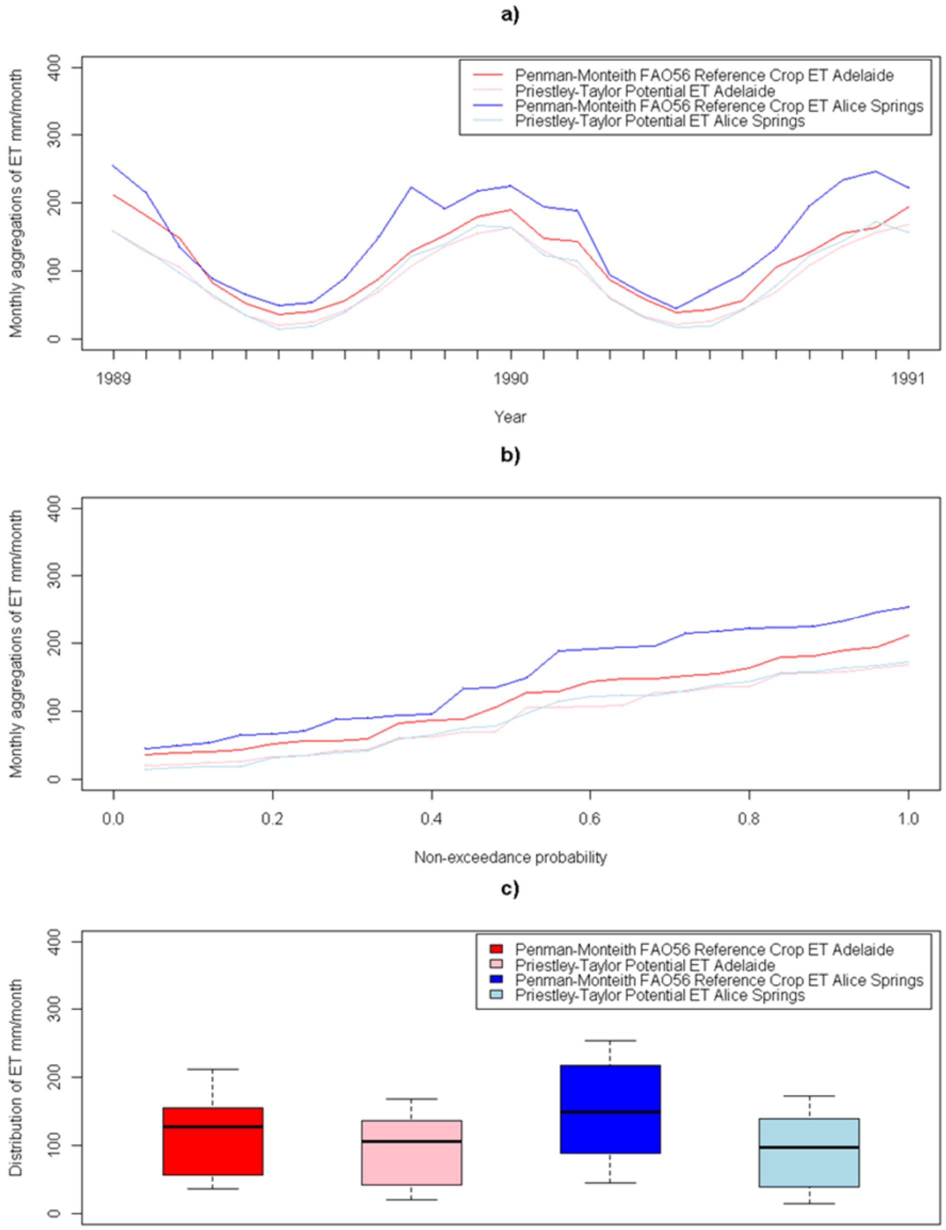

Figure 5 Comparison of monthly ET estimates from two models (Penman-Monteith FAO56 and Priestley-Taylor) and two locations (Adelaide and Alice Springs) using *ETComparison()* for a) time-series; b) non-exceedance probability, and; c) distribution.

Another application of *ETComparison()* is demonstrated in Figure 6, in which the effect of uncertainties in input climate data under climate changes are shown for the Adelaide case study, together with the model uncertainty. To maintain the simplicity and clarity of the example, we focus only on the potential uncertainties in the future temperature due to climate change, without considering the probability of individual changes or potential variations in other climate variables. We perturb the existing temperature data within a range of 0 to +8°C, which is considered to encompass all plausible future changes in temperature in Australia by 2100 (Stocker et al., 2013). Within this range, 500 random samples have been drawn and the corresponding perturbations are applied to the historical time series of T_{max} and T_{min}, resulting in 500 sets of input climate data. These 500 sets were then fed into *ETComparison()* to generate the corresponding ET outputs using both the Penman-Monteith and Priestley-Taylor models. The resulting ranges of the monthly ET estimates for the period between 1989 and 1999 are shown in Figure 6. As can be seen, there is a greater range in ET estimates from the Penman-Monteith model. Since both ET models use the same temperature data as inputs, this indicates that temperature has a greater impact on the ET estimates obtained using the Penman-Monteith model—a pattern also observed in McKenney and Rosenberg (1993). This difference can be due to the structural differences between the two models: as the Penman-Monteith explicitly considers the mass transfer processes that are related to temperature, the importance of temperature is higher in the Penman-Monteith model.

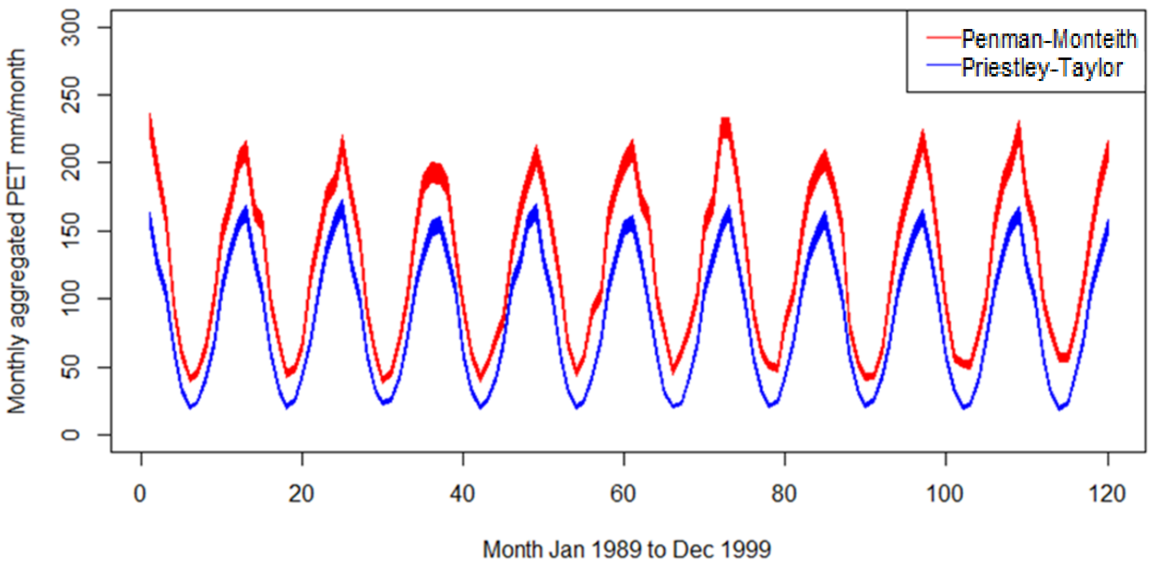

Figure 6 Uncertainties in monthly ET estimates from two models (Penman-Monteith FAO56 and Priestley-Taylor) at Adelaide, each executed for 500 sets of input data sampled with 0 to +8°C uncertainty in temperature, generated by *ETComparison()*.

It is worth mentioning that all climate variables other than temperature (i.e. *RH*, R_s and u_z) are kept at their current levels in this example, which is unrealistic under future conditions. Therefore, the results should only be considered as illustrative of the key feature of function *ETComparison()*, as a tool to compare ET estimates from multiple input data sets and ET models. In a formal assessment of the impact of climate-related input uncertainty, it is necessary to consider the potential uncertainty in the full set of climate variables that influence ET (Goyal, 2004; Whateley et al., 2014).

4 DISCUSSION

4.1 Further analyses with other software packages

The output from this package is formatted as time-series-like data in the *zoo* format (in which every data point is linked to a specific time point, see Zeileis et al., 2015), so it can be easily extracted and used as an input to other R-based software packages for a range of further analysis. Examples include using ET estimates as input to hydrologic models in *hydromad* (Andrews et al., 2011), and to investigate the sensitivity of ET estimates to changes in the input climate data using *sensitivity* (Pujol et al., 2014). Since the output is also saved to a csv file (as detailed in Section 2.2), it can also be imported to external software packages.

4.2 Limitations

Although the package provides features for checking missing values and errors in the input climate data, as well as interpolation methods for these problematic data, caution is required to minimize the risk of misuse. In developing this package, we have tested the data processing tools with our own test data sets, as well as a number of user-provided data sets, and we have ensured that the package runs free of errors with these existing data sets. However, since every data set is different, it is recommended that users should exercise their own quality-control procedure prior to using the package, to ensure that best-quality data are provided for ET estimation and the impact of data quality on the estimates is minimized.

Users should also be aware of the full assumptions and limitations prior to using any ET model in this package. Almost every ET model contains assumptions relating to the specific climate conditions under which the models apply. For example, some models assume that sub-processes related to ET are negligible, while other models are only calibrated to the climate of a specific region (a full list of assumptions and limitations for each individual model is given in Table 9 in the supplementary material, which is summarized from the existing literature). These assumptions limit the models' ability to generalize to a wider range of climate zones, leading to varying performance of ET models under different climate settings (Rosenberry et al., 2007; Tabari et al., 2013). A further problem arises if the models are to be applied to estimate ET under climate change conditions, which can mean that existing ET processes and related climate variables are likely to be different to those for which the models are best suited, potentially causing deteriorating model performance (Prudhomme and Williamson, 2013; Thompson et al., 2014).

5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents an R package *Evapotranspiration* for the estimation of actual, potential and reference crop ET using 17 models in a consistent, convenient and efficient manner. The pre-processing tool provides flexible methods for checking and processing raw input climate data, which are then fed into user-selected ET models. The presentation of results is in the form of both summary text and plots. Comparison between multiple ET models and input data sets is also supported. Estimates from the package can be conveniently extracted for further analysis, such as rainfall-runoff modelling and sensitivity analyses. It is hoped that this package will increase consistency in the results presented in ET studies, and increase our ability to investigate the impact of structural uncertainty in ET model formulations via the use of ensemble modelling.

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Supplementary Material – Specification for Package ‘Evapotranspiration’

1. PREPARING INPUT DATA

1.1. Name, unit and format requirements

The raw data to be used for function *ReadInputs()* should be saved in a csv file to be read in R, or directly as an R data frame, with every input variable in a column and every time step in a row. The input variables that can be processed within the package are listed in Table 2, with corresponding naming and unit requirements. Some relevant unit conversion formulae are presented in Table 3. Note that although the three variables defining the time of data records (i.e. year, month and day) are essential, it may not be necessary to supply all other input variables, as the specific data requirements vary across different ET models. Please refer to Table 9 for details.

Table 2 Supported input variables, and variable naming and unit requirements

Input data variable	Required variable name	Units
Year	*Year*	-
Month	*Month*	-
Day	*Day*	-
Daily maximum temperature	*Tmax.daily*	°C
Daily minimum temperature	*Tmin.daily*	°C
Sub-daily temperature	*Temp.subdaily*	°C
Daily dew point temperature	*Tdew.daily*	°C
Sub-daily dew point temperature	*Tdew.subdaily*	°C
Daily maximum relative humidity	*RHmax.daily*	%
Daily minimum relative humidity	*RHmin.daily*	%
Sub-daily relative humidity	*RH.subdaily*	%
Daily incoming solar radiation	*Rs.daily*	$MJ.m^{-2}$
Sub-daily incoming solar radiation	*Rs.subdaily*	$MJ.m^{-2}$
Daily sunshine hours	*n.daily*	hour
Daily cloud cover	*Cd.daily*	Okta
Daily precipitation	*Precip.daily*	mm
Daily wind speed	*uz.daily*	$m.s^{-1}$
Daily wind speed at 2m	*u2.daily*	$m.s^{-1}$
Sub-daily wind speed	*uz.subdaily*	$m.s^{-1}$
Sub-daily wind speed at 2m	*u2.subdaily*	$m.s^{-1}$
Daily Class-A pan evaporation	*Epan.daily*	mm
Daily vapor pressure	*Vp.daily*	hPa
Sub-daily vapor pressure	*Vp.subdaily*	hPa

Table 3 Unit conversion relevant to input variables

Input data variable	**Relevant unit conversions**
Temperature	1 F = (F – 32) * 5/9 °C 1 K = K – 273.2 °C
Incoming solar radiation	1 W.m^{-2}= 10^{-6} MJ.m^{-2}.s^{-1}= 0.0036 MJ.m^{-2}.h^{-1}= 0.0864 MJ.m^{-2}.day^{-1}
Precipitation/evaporation	1 in = 25.4 mm
Wind speed	1 km.h^{-1} = 0.2777 m.s^{-1} 1 mph = 0.4470 m.s^{-1} 1 ft.s^{-1} = 0.3048 m.s^{-1}
vapor pressure	1 Pa = 0.01 hPa 1 bar = 100,000 Pa = 1000 hPa 1 atm = 101,325 Pa = 1013.25 hPa 1 mmHg = 133.3 Pa = 1.333 hPa

1.2. Alternative estimation methods for missing variables

In the situation where a climate variable is entirely missing, it may either be estimated via temporal aggregation from sub-daily data, or a specific model involving other climate variables. The methods available to estimate missing input variables are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4 Methods to estimate missing input variables from other variables, via either temporal aggregation or specific models

Estimation via temporal aggregation		
Missing input variable	**Alternative input variable required**	
Daily maximum temperature	Sub-daily temperature	
Daily minimum temperature	Sub-daily temperature	
Daily maximum relative humidity	Sub-daily relative humidity	
Daily minimum relative humidity	Sub-daily relative humidity	
Daily incoming solar radiation	Sub-daily incoming solar radiation	
Daily wind speed	Sub-daily wind speed	
Daily wind speed at 2 meters	Sub-daily wind speed at 2 meters	
Daily dew point temperature	Sub-daily dew point temperature	
Estimation via models		
Missing input variable	**Alternative input variable required**	**Equation**
Daily dew point temperature (T_{dew}) in °C	Daily vapor pressure (v_a) in hPa	$T_{dew} = \frac{116.9 + 237.3\ln(v_a)}{16.78 - \ln(v_a)}$ (McJannet et al., 2008)
Sub-daily dew point temperature (T_{dew}) in °C	Sub-daily vapor pressure (v_a) in hPa	
Daily incoming solar radiation (R_s) in (three methods available) MJ.m^{-2}	Daily sunshine hours (n) in hours	$R_s = \left(a_s + b_s \frac{n}{N}\right) R_a$ where, a_s is the raction of extraterrestrial reaction reading earth on sunless days (dimensionless), which ideally require locally calibrated values (McMahon et al., 2013). See (Roderick, 1999) and also (McVicar et al.,

		2007) for regional examples for Australian applications. When no calibrated values are available, use: a_s = 0.25 (Allen et al., 1998) and; a_s = 0.23 for Australia (Roderick, 1999) $a_s + b_s$ is the fraction of extraterrestrial reaction reading earth on full-sun days (dimensionless), which ideally require locally calibrated values (McMahon et al., 2013). See (Roderick, 1999) and also (McVicar et al., 2007) for regional examples for Australian applications. When no calibrated values are available, use: b_s = 0.5 (Allen et al., 1998; Roderick, 1999) R_a is the extraterrestrial solar radiation in $MJm^{-2}day^{-1}$; N is the maximum possible duration of daylight hours in hours, $N = \frac{24}{\pi}\varpi_s$ And ϖ_s is the sunset hour angle in radians. (as in McMahon et al., 2013)
	Daily cloud covers (C_0) in Okta	$R_s = \left(a_s + b_s \frac{n}{N}\right) R_a$ $n = a_0 + b_0 C_0 + c_0 {C_0}^2 + d_0 {C_0}^3$ Where a_s, b_s, R_a and N are explained in the same way as above
	Monthly precipitation (P_j) in mm	$C_D = 1 + 0.5 log P_j + (log P_j)^2 \ where \ P_j \geq 1$ $C_D = 1 \ where P_j < 1$ (Linacre, 1993)
Daily wind speed at 2 meters (u_2) in $m.s^{-1}$	Daily wind speed (u_z) in $m.s^{-1}$	$u_2 = u_z \frac{\ln(\frac{z}{z_0})}{\ln(\frac{z}{z_0})}$ Where z_0 is the roughness height in meters (as in McMahon et al., 2013)

1.3. Definition for abnormal values

For quality control purposes, the package performs primary checks on the values of the climate data and generates warnings for any abnormal values detected. The ‘abnormal’ values for each climate variable are given in Table 5.

Table 5 Definitions of abnormal values for primary check of data quality

Input data variable	Definition of abnormal values
Daily maximum temperature	> 100 °C
Daily minimum temperature	> Daily maximum temperature
Sub-daily temperature	> 100 °C
Daily dew point temperature	> 100 °C
Sub-daily dew point temperature	> 100 °C
Daily maximum relative humidity	> 100%
Daily minimum relative humidity	> Daily maximum relative humidity
Sub-daily relative humidity	> 100%
Daily incoming solar radiation	< 0 $MJ.m^{-2}$
Sub-daily incoming solar radiation	< 0 $MJ.m^{-2}$
Daily sunshine hours	< 0 hour
Daily cloud cover	< 0 Okta
Daily precipitation	< 0 mm
Daily wind speed	< 0 $m.s^{-1}$
Daily wind speed at 2m	< 0 $m.s^{-1}$
Sub-daily wind speed	< 0 $m.s^{-1}$
Sub-daily wind speed at 2m	< 0 $m.s^{-1}$
Daily Class-A pan evaporation	< 0 mm
Daily vapor pressure	< 0 hPa
Sub-daily vapor pressure	< 0 hPa

1.4. Interpolation methods available for missing/abnormal data entries

Wherever missing/abnormal entries are detected within the input climate data, the user can choose if these entries should be automatically filled/corrected. Four interpolation methods are available for gap-filling and correction of abnormal entries (

Table 6). Due to the scope of application of the package, only point-based temporal interpolation methods are included.

Table 6 Interpolation methods available for gap-filling and correction of abnormal entries

Interpolation method and corresponding arguments	**Equation and explanation**
Long-term mean of the same day of year (DoY) *"DoY average"*	The missing entry of variable *V*, at day *i* in year *j*, $V_{missing,ij}$, is approximated by the mean value of its values for the *i*th day from all other years. T is the total number of years data are available. $$V_{missing,ij} = \frac{\sum_{y\in(1,2,\dots,j-1,j+1,\dots,T)} V_{avail.,iy}}{(T-1)}$$ (Narapusetty et al., 2009)
Long-term mean of the same month *"monthly average"*	The missing entry of variable *V* at any day in month *k*, $V_{missing,k}$, is approximated by the mean value of all other available values from month *k*. $$V_{missing,k} = \overline{V_{avail.,k}}$$ (adapted from Narapusetty et al., 2009)
Long-term mean of the same season *"seasonal average"*	The missing entry of variable *V* at any day in season s $V_{missing,s}$, is approximated by the mean value of all other available values from season *s*. $$V_{missing,s} = \overline{V_{avail.,s}}$$ (adapted from Narapusetty et al., 2009)
Mean of the adjacent two data entries *"neighboring average"*	The missing entry of variable *V* at time *t* of the entire times series, is approximated by the average of its two adjacent entries. $$V_{missing,t} = \frac{(V_{avail.,t-1} + V_{avail.,t+1})}{2}$$ (McMahon et al., 2013)

2. ESTIMATING ET

2.1. Default ET model when not specified

When the ET model selection is not specified by users, function *ET…()* determines the default model to use based on the availability of climate data presented. Wherever data are available, the more comprehensive, physically-based models are always preferred over the empirical models, as detailed in Table 7.

Table 7 Default ET models for different climate data availability

Climate data available				**Default ET model**
T_{max}, T_{min}	RH_{max}, RH_{min}	R_s	U_z	
✓	✓	✓	✓	If short crop surface is specified in argument - > Penman-Monteith FAO56; If long crop surface is specified in argument - > Penman-Monteith ASCE-EWRI; If no surface is specified -> Penman.
✓	✓	✓		Priestley-Taylor
✓		✓		Makkink
✓				Hargreaves-Samani

2.2. Constants

The constants required to estimate ET consist of two parts: the universal constants are included in the data file '*defaultconstants.RData*' within the package, which should remain unchanged for most conditions; the case-specific constants should be prepared by individual users, which vary with case studies and are related to geographic locations and climatic/hydrologic conditions. Table 7 provides details for all constants, as well as a summary of the default values for the universal constants, and recommended values for the case-specific constants.

Please note that not all constants are used for every single ET model – refer to Table 9 for the list of required constants used for individual ET models. After obtaining all constants required, they should be compiled in a list variable named "*constants*" in R, which is ready to be used for the ET models.

Table 8 Summary of constants required to estimate ET

Universal constants		
Names	**Definitions**	**Default values**
lambda	Latent heat of vaporization ($MJ.kg^{-1}$)	2.45 at 20◦C
sigma	Stefan-Boltzmann constant ($MJ.m^{-2}.day^{-1}.◦K^{-4}$)	$4.903*10^{-9}$
Gsc	Solar constant ($MJ.m^{-2}.min^{-1}$)	0.0820
Roua	Mean density of air ($kg.m^{-3}$)	1.2 at 20◦C
Ca	Specific heat of air ($MJ.kg^{-1}.K^{-1}$)	0.001013
G	Soil heat flux ($MJ.m^{-2}$)	0, as this is assumed to be negligible for daily time-step (Allen et al., 1998)
alphaA	Albedo for Class-A pan (dimensionless)	0.14 (Rotstayn et al., 2006)
alphaPT	Priestley-Taylor coefficient (dimensionless)	Three default values depending on the model used: 1) 1.26 for Priestley-Taylor model (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) 2) 1.31 for Szilagyi-Jozsa model (Szilagyi, 2007) 3) 1.28 for Brutsaert-Strickler model (Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979)
ap	Constant in PenPan formula (dimensionless)	2.4
b0	Constant in Morton's procedure (dimensionless)	1 (Morton, 1983a)
b1	Constant in Morton's procedure ($W.m^{-2}$)	14 (Morton, 1983a)
b2	Constant in Morton's procedure (dimensionless)	1.2 (Morton, 1983a)
e0	Constant for Blaney-Criddle formula (dimensionless)	0.81917 (Frevert et al., 1983)
e1	Constant for Blaney-Criddle formula (dimensionless)	-0.0040922 (Frevert et al., 1983)

e2	Constant for Blaney-Criddle formula (dimensionless)	1.0705 (Frevert et al., 1983)	
e3	Constant for Blaney-Criddle formula (dimensionless)	0.065649 (Frevert et al., 1983)	
e4	Constant for Blaney-Criddle formula (dimensionless)	-0.0059864 (Frevert et al., 1983)	
e5	Constant for Blaney-Criddle formula (dimensionless)	-0.0005967 (Frevert et al., 1983)	
EpsilonMo	Land surface emissivity in Morton's procedure (dimensionless)	0.92 (Morton, 1983a)	
sigmaMo	Stefan-Boltzmann constant in Morton's procedure ($W.m^{-2}.K^{-4}$)	5.67e-08 (Morton, 1983a)	
Case-specific constants			
Names	**Definitions**	**Recommended values**	**Examples**
lat	Latitude (degree)	Use the actual latitude of case study	-34.9211 for Kent Town station, Adelaide
lat_rad	Latitude in radians (radians)	Use the actual latitude of case study	-0.6095 for Kent Town station, Adelaide
as	Fraction of extraterrestrial reaction reading earth on sunless days (dimensionless)	Ideally locally calibrated values should be used (McMahon et al., 2013). See (Roderick, 1999) and also (McVicar et al., 2007) for regional examples for Australian applications. When no calibrated values are available, use 0.25 (Allen et al., 1998).	0.23 for Australia (Roderick, 1999)
bs	*as* + *bs* is the fraction of extraterrestrial reaction reading earth on full-sun days (dimensionless)	Ideally locally calibrated values should be used (McMahon et al., 2013). See (Roderick, 1999) and also (McVicar et al., 2007) for regional examples for Australian applications. When no calibrated values are available, use 0.5 (Allen et al., 1998).	0.5 for Australia (Roderick, 1999)
Elev	Site elevation (m)	Use the actual elevation of study site	48 for Kent Town station, Adelaide
z	Wind instrument height (m)	Use the actual height of wind instrument or assume	Assumed to be 10
fz	Constant in Morton's procedure ($W.m^{-2}.mbar^{-1}$)	4 alternative values depending on the model used and the baseline temperature at study site: 1) 28.0 for CRAE model for *T* >= 0◦C 2) 28.0*1.15 for CRAE model for *T* < 0◦C 3) 25.0 for CRWE model for *T* >= 0◦C 4) 28.75 for CRWE model for *T* < 0◦C (Morton, 1983a, 1983b)	2 default values depending on the model used: 28.0 for CRAE model for Adelaide 25.0 for CRWE model for Adelaide
a_0	Constant for estimating sunshine hours from cloud cover data (dimensionless)	Depending on locations, see Chiew and McMahon (Chiew and McMahon, 1991) for Australian applications.	11.9 for Adelaide (Chiew and McMahon, 1991)
b_0	Constant for estimating sunshine hours	Depending on locations, see Chiew and	-0.15 for Adelaide

	from cloud cover data (dimensionless)	McMahon (Chiew and McMahon, 1991) for Australian applications.	(Chiew and McMahon, 1991)
c_0	Constant for estimating sunshine hours from cloud cover data (dimensionless)	Depending on locations, see Chiew and McMahon (Chiew and McMahon, 1991) for Australian applications.	-0.25 for Adelaide (Chiew and McMahon, 1991)
d_0	Constant for estimating sunshine hours from cloud cover data (dimensionless)	Depending on locations, see Chiew and McMahon (Chiew and McMahon, 1991) for Australian applications.	-0.0107 for Adelaide (Chiew and McMahon, 1991)
gammaps	Product of Psychrometric constant and atmospheric pressure as sea level (mbar. $\circ C^{-1}$)	2 alternative values depending on the model used and the baseline temperature at study site: 1) 0.66 for *T* >= 0◦C 2) 0.66/1.15 for *T* < 0◦C (Morton, 1983a)	0.66 for Adelaide
PA	Annual precipitation (mm)	Use the actual annual precipitation of case study	285.8 for Kent Town station, Adelaide
alphaMo	Constant in Morton's procedure (dimensionless)	2 alternative values depending on the baseline temperature at study site: 1) 17.27 when *T* >= 0◦C 2) 21.88 when *T* < 0◦C (Morton, 1983a)	17.27 for Adelaide
betaMo	Constant in Morton's procedure (◦C)	2 alternative values depending on the baseline temperature at study site: 1) 237.3 when *T* >= 0◦C 2) 265.5 when *T* < ◦C (Morton, 1983a)	237.3 for Adelaide
lambdaMo	Latent heat of vaporization in Morton's procedure (W.day.kg^{-1})	2 alternative values depending on the baseline temperature at study site: 1) 28.5 when *T* >= 0 ◦C 2) 28.5*1.15 when *T* < 0◦C (Morton, 1983a)	28.5 for Adelaide

2.3. ET models

The specifications of all ET models included in this package are summarized in Table 9, including the names of corresponding functions, the available time steps for ET estimation, the ET quantities estimated, the requirements of input climate data and constants, and the actual equation and options available for calculation. The assumptions and known limitations of each ET model are summarized from existing literature and presented in Table 10.

Table 9 Specifications of available ET models within the package

ET model name and corresponding function name in package	Time step	Quantity estimated				Climate input data required					Constants required[1]	Equation[2]	Calculation options with corresponding arguments
		PET	ET_0	AET	Pan ET	T_{max}, T_{min} (°C)	RH_{max}, RH_{min} (%)	R_s (MJ. m^{-2})	U_z (m. s^{-1})	T_{dew} (°C)			
Penman 1948 (Penman, 1948) and Penman 1956 (Penman, 1956) *ET.Penman*	D	✓		✓ (open water)		✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = \frac{\Delta}{\Delta+\gamma}\frac{R_n}{\lambda}+\frac{\gamma}{\Delta+\gamma}E_\alpha$ Where *Δ* is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2 in °C; *γ* is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where *P* is the pressure at elevation *z* meters; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at the evaporative surface in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}; E_a is the $E_\alpha = f(u)(v_a^*-v_a)$ in mmday^{-1}; $f(u) = 2.626+1.381u_2$ for Penman model version 1948, and; $f(u) = 1.313+1.381u_2$ for Penman model version 1956; v_a^* is the daily saturation vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a^* = \frac{v_a^*(T_{max})+v_a^*(T_{min})}{2}$ and $v_a^*(T_{max})$ and are the vapor pressures at temperatures T_{max} and T_{min} in °C; v_a is the mean daily actual vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a = 0.6108\exp\left[\frac{17.27T_d}{T_d+237.3}\right]$ and T_d is the dew point temperature in °C	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *wind* – if actual wind data is used in the model or alternative estimation method without wind data is used[3]. Default is to use wind data. *windfunction_ver* – if the 1948 version of the 1956 version of the Penman model is used. Default is 1948. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface[4]. Default is 0.08 for open water. *z0* – user-defined roughness height of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.001 for open water.
Penman-Monteith FAO-56 (Allen et al., 1998) and ASCE-EWRI (Allen et al., 2005) *ET.PenmanMonteith*	D		✓ (short crop /tall			✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma, G;*	For FAO-56 model: $ET = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n-G)+\gamma\frac{900}{T_a+273}u_2(v_a^*-v_a)}{\Delta+\gamma(1+0.34u_2)}\frac{R_{nw}}{\lambda}$	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data

			crop)								In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	For ASCE model: $ET = \dfrac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{1600}{T_a + 273} u_2 (v_a^* - v_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.38u_2)}$ Where *Δ* is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2 in °C; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at the evaporative surface in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}; *γ* is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where *P* is the pressure at elevation *z* meters; *G* is negligible for daily time step; v_a^* is the daily saturation vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a^* = \frac{v_a^*(T_{max}) + v_a^*(T_{min})}{2}$ and $v_a^*(T_{max})$ and are the vapor pressures at temperatures T_{max} and T_{min} in °C; v_a is the mean daily actual vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a = 0.6108 \exp\left[\frac{17.27T_d}{T_d+237.3}\right]$ and T_d is the dew point temperature in °C	is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *wind* – if actual wind data is used in the model or alternative estimation method without wind data is used[5]. Default is to use wind data. *crop* – user-defined crop type, can be either for short crop (results in use of FAO-56 version of this model) or tall crop (results in use of ASCE-EWRI version of this model). Default is for short crop.
Matt-Shuttleworth (Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009) *ET.MattShuttleworth*	D		✓ (wel l- wat ered)			✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma, Roua (as* ρ_a in equation)*, Ca (as* c_a *in equation);* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine	$ET = \dfrac{1}{\lambda}\dfrac{\Delta R_n + \gamma \frac{\rho_a c_a u_2 (VPD_2)}{r_c^{50}} (\frac{VPD_{50}}{VPD_2})}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + \frac{(r_s)_c u_2}{r_c^{50}})}$ Where *Δ* is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2 in °C; *γ* is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where *P* is the pressure at elevation *z* meters; $(r_s)_c$ is the surface resistance of evaporative surface in	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface.

											hours are used to estimate solar radiation	sm^{-1}, which is a user-defined value through argument *r_s*; $r_c^{50} = \frac{1}{0.41^2} \ln\left[\frac{(50-0.67h)}{(0.123h)}\right] \ln[\frac{(50-0.67h)}{(0.0123h)}] \frac{\ln[\frac{(2-0.08)}{0.0148}]}{\ln[\frac{(50-0.08)}{0.0148}]}$ and *h* is the crop height in meters; $\frac{VPD_{50}}{VPD_2} = \left(\frac{302(\Delta+\gamma)+70\gamma u_2}{208(\Delta+\gamma)+70\gamma u_2}\right) + \frac{1}{r_{clim}}[\left(\frac{302(\Delta+\gamma)+70\gamma u_2}{208(\Delta+\gamma)+70\gamma u_2}\right)\left(\frac{208}{u_2}\right) - (\frac{302}{u_2})]$ In which $r_{clim} = 86400 \frac{\rho_a c_a (VPD)}{\Delta R_n}$; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at the evaporative surface in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}	Default is 0.23 for short reference crop. *r_s* – user-defined surface resistance of the evaporative surface (s.m^{-1}). Default is 70 for short reference crop. *CH* – user-defined crop height (m) at the evaporative surface. Default is 0.12 for short reference crop.
Priestley-Taylor (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) *ET.PriestleyTaylor*	D	✓ (advection-free)				✓	✓	✓			*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, sigma, alphaPT (as α_{PT} in equation), G;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = \alpha_{PT} * [\frac{\Delta}{\Delta+\gamma}\frac{R_n}{\lambda} - \frac{G}{\lambda}]$ Where *Δ* is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2 in °C; *γ* is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where *P* is the pressure at elevation *z* meters; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at the evaporative surface in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}; *G* is negligible for daily time step	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.23 for short grass.
PenPan (Rotstayn et al., 2006) *ET.PenPan*	D	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma, alpha, alpha*	$E_{PenPan} = \frac{\Delta}{\Delta+\alpha_p\gamma}\frac{R_{NPan}}{\lambda} + \frac{\alpha_p\gamma}{\Delta+\alpha_p\gamma} f_{Pan}(u)(v_a^* - v_a)$ Where *Δ* is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2 in °C;	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly

										(as α_p in equation), lat; In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	γ is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where *P* is the pressure at elevation *z* meters; R_{NPAN} is the net incoming solar radiation received at the Class-A Pan in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}; $f_{Pan}(u_2) = 1.201 + 1.621u_2$; v_a^* is the daily saturation vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a^* = \frac{v_a^*(T_{max})+v_a^*(T_{min})}{2}$ and $v_a^*(T_{max})$ and are the vapor pressures at temperatures T_{max} and T_{min} in °C; v_a is the mean daily actual vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a = 0.6108\exp\left[\frac{17.27T_d}{T_d+237.3}\right]$ and T_d is the dew point temperature in °C	from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.23 for short grass. *est* – if the Pan evaporation or potential evaporation is estimated. Default is potential evaporation. *pan_coeff* – user-defined pan coefficient if potential evaporation is to be estimated. Default is 0.71 which is calibrated for Australia (McMahon et al., 2013). *overest* – if overestimation adjustment is made on the original results, which is divided by 1.078 (McMahon et al., 2013). Default is no adjustment.
Brutsaert-Strickler (Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979) *ET.BrutsaertStrickler*	D			✓ (are al)		✓	✓	✓	✓	*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma, alphaPT (as α_{PT} in equation);* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = (2\alpha_{PT} - 1)\frac{\Delta}{\Delta+\gamma}\frac{R_n}{\lambda} - \frac{\gamma}{\Delta+\gamma}f(u_2)(v_a^* - v_a)$ Where Δ is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$ in °C; γ is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where *P* is the pressure at elevation *z* meters; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at evaporative surface in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}; $f(u_2) = 2.626 + 1.381u_2$ v_a^* is the daily saturation vapor pressure in kPa,	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.23 for short grass.

												$v_a^* = \frac{v_a^*(T_{max})+v_a^*(T_{min})}{2}$ and $v_a^*(T_{max})$ and are the vapor pressures at temperatures T_{max} and T_{min} in °C; v_a is the mean daily actual vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a = 0.6108 \exp\left[\frac{17.27T_d}{T_d+237.3}\right]$ and T_d is the dew point temperature in °C	
Granger-Gray (Granger and Gray, 1989) *ET.GrangerGray*	D			✓ (areal)		✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma, G;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = \frac{\Delta G_g}{\Delta G_g + \gamma}\frac{R_n - G}{\lambda} - \frac{\gamma G_g}{\Delta G_g + \gamma}E_a$ Where Δ is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$ in °C; γ is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where P is the pressure at elevation z meters; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at evaporative surface in MJm^{-2}day^{-1}; G is negligible for daily time step; $G_g = \frac{1}{0.793+0.20e^{4.902Dp}} + 0.006D_p$ $D_p = \frac{E_a}{E_a + \frac{R_n - G}{\lambda}}$ E_a is the $E_\alpha = f(u)(v_a^* - v_a)$ in mmday^{-1}; $f(u) = 2.626 + 1.381u_2$ for Penman model version 1948, and; $f(u) = 1.313 + 1.381u_2$ for Penman model version 1956; v_a^* is the daily saturation vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a^* = \frac{v_a^*(T_{max})+v_a^*(T_{min})}{2}$ and $v_a^*(T_{max})$ and are the vapor pressures at temperatures T_{max} and T_{min} in °C; v_a is the mean daily actual vapor pressure in kPa, $v_a = 0.6108 \exp\left[\frac{17.27T_d}{T_d+237.3}\right]$ and T_d is the dew point temperature in °C	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *windfunction_ver* – if the 1948 version of the 1956 version of the Penman model is used. Default is 1948. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.23 for short grass.

Szilagyi-Jozsa (Szilagyi, 2007) *ET.SzilagyiJozsa*	D			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, sigma, alphaPT;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = 2E_{PT}(T_e) - E_{Pen}$ Where, E_{PT} is Priestley-Taylor ET and E_{Pen} is Penman ET, T_e is the equilibrium temperature in °C, evaluated using $\frac{R_n}{\lambda E_{Pen}} = 1 + \frac{\gamma(T_e - T_a)}{(v_e^* - T_a)}$ Where v_e^* is the saturated vapor pressure at T_e; T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$ in °C.	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *wind* – if actual wind data is used in the model or alternative estimation method without wind data is used *windfunction_ver* – if the 1948 version of the 1956 version of the Penman model is used. Default is 1948. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.23 for short grass. *z0* – user-defined roughness height of the evaporative surface (m). Default is 0.2 for short grass (McMahon et al., 2013).
Makkink (De Bruin, 1981) *ET.Makkink*	D		✓			✓		✓			*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = C_1\left(\frac{\Delta}{\Delta + \gamma}\frac{R_s}{2.45}\right) - C_2$ Where Δ is the slope of vapor pressure curve in kPa°C^{-1}, $\Delta = \frac{4098[0.6108\exp(\frac{17.27*T_a}{T_a+237.3})]}{(T_a+237.3)^2}$ where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$ in °C; γ is the psychrometric constant in kPa°C^{-1}, $\gamma = 0.00163\frac{P}{\lambda}$ where P is the pressure at elevation z meters; $C_1 = 0.61$ (dimensionless), $C_2 = 0.12$ mmday^{-1}	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours.

Blaney-Criddle (Allen and Pruitt, 1986) *ET.BlaneyCriddle*	D		✓ (well-watered)			✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, z, e0, e1, e2, e3, e4, e5.*	$ET = \left(0.0043RH_{min} - \frac{n}{N} - 1.41\right) + b_{var}p_y$ Where, *N* is the maximum possible duration of daylight hours in hours, $N = \frac{24}{\pi}\varpi_s$ And ϖ_s is the sunset hour angle in radians; $b_{bar} = e_0 + e_1RH_{min} + e_2\frac{n}{N} + e_3u_2 + e_4RH_{min}\frac{n}{N} + e_5RH_{min}u_2$ $e_0 = 0.81917$ $e_1 = -0.0040922$ $e_2 = 1.0705$ $e_3 = 0.065649$ $e_4 = -0.0059684$ $e_5 = -0.005967$ p_y is the percentage of actual daytime hours for the day compared to the day-light hours for the entire year	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *height* – if adjustment on the original results is made for the elevation of study site following: $ET_{adj} = ET\left[1 + 0.1\frac{Elev}{1000}\right]$ (Allen and Pruitt, 1986) Default is no adjustment.
Turc (Turc, 1961) *ET.Turc*	D		✓			✓		✓			*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = 0.013(23.88R_S + 50)(\frac{T_a}{T_a + 15}) + (1 + \frac{50 - RH}{70})$ Where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})$ /2 in °C; *RH* is the average daily relative humidity calculated as $(RH_{max} + RH_{min})$ /2 in %.	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *humid* – if adjustment on the original results is made for low-humidity conditions where RH < 50, following: $ET_{adj} = ET\left[1 + \frac{50 - RH}{70}\right]$ (Alexandris et al., 2008) Default is no adjustment.
Hargreaves-Samani (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985) *ET.HargreavesSamani*	D		✓			✓					*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation),*	$ET = 0.0135C_{HS}\frac{R_a}{\lambda}(T_{max} - T_{min})^{0.5}(T_a + 17.8)$ Where, $C_{HS} =$	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is

											lat_rad, Gsc	$0.00185(T_{max}-T_{min})^2 - 0.0433(T_{max}-T_{min}) + 0.4023$; T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$ in °C.	daily.
Chapman Australian (Chapman, 2001) *ET.ChapmanAustralian*	D	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc, lat, ap;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = (0.17 + 0.011Lat)E_{pan} + 10^{(0.66-0.211Lat)}$ Where Epan is the Class-A Pan evaporation in mmday^{-1}.	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *PenPan* – if Penpan model is used to estimate pan evaporation, or actual pan evaporation data is used. Default is to use Penpan model. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *alpha* – user-defined albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is 0.23 for short grass.
Jensen-Haise (Jensen and Haise, 1963; Xu and Singh, 2000; Prudhomme and Williamson, 2013) *ET.JensenHaise*	D	✓				✓		✓			*Elev, lambda (as λ in equation), lat_rad, Gsc;* In addition: *as, bs* – only If sunshine hours are used to estimate solar radiation	$ET = \frac{0.025}{\lambda}(R_s * (T_a + 3))$ Where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$ in °C.	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily, monthly or annual. Default is daily. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours.
McGuiness-Bordne (Oudin et al., 2005; Prudhomme and	D	✓				✓					*Elev, lambda (as λ in*	$ET =$	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be daily,

Williamson, 2013) *ET.McGuinnessBordne*											*equation), lat_rad, Gsc*	$$\frac{1}{68\lambda}(R_a * (T_a + 5))$$ Where T_a is the average daily temperature calculated as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2 in °C; R_a is the extraterrestrial solar radiation in $MJm^{-2}day^{-1}$	monthly or annual. Default is daily.
Morton CRAE (Morton, 1983a) *ET.MortonCRAE*	M	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓	*lat_rad, epsilonMo (as ε_s in equation), fz (as f_z in quantion), b0 (as b_0 in quantion), b1, b2, lat, Elev, alphaMo, betaMo, sigmaMo (as σ in equation), Gsc, gammaps (as γp in equation), lambdaMo (as λ in equation)*	$$ET = \frac{1}{\lambda}(R_n - [\gamma p f_v + 4\varepsilon_s\sigma(T_e + 273)^3](T_e - T_a))$$ Where T_a is the mean air temperature in °C, as (T_{max} + T_{min}) /2; R_n is the net incoming solar radiation at the evaporative surface in Wm^{-2}; f_v is the vapor transfer coefficient in $Wm^{-2}mbar^{-1}$, $$f_v = (\frac{p_s}{p})^{0.5}\frac{f_z}{\xi}$$ Where p_s and p are the sea-level atmospheric pressure (in mbar) and at-site atmospheric pressure (in mbar) respectively; ξ is a stability factor (dimensionless) given as: $\xi = \frac{1}{0.28\left(1+\frac{v_D^*}{v_a^*}\right)+\frac{R_n\Delta}{\gamma p(\frac{p_s}{p})^{0.5}b_0 f_z(v_a^*-v_D^*)}}$ while ξ should always > 1; Δ is the slope of vapor pressure curve in mbar°C^{-1} v_a^* is the saturation vapor pressure at air temperature (in mbar), v_D^* is the saturation vapor pressure at dew temperature T_{dew} (in mbar); T_e is the equilibrium temperature which can be estimated in °C, estimated iteratively by assuming a trial value T_e', and using: $\delta T_e = \frac{\frac{R_n}{f_v}+v_a^*-v_e^{*\prime}+\lambda_e(T_a-T_e')}{(\Delta_e'+\lambda_e)}$ and $$\lambda_e = \gamma p + \frac{4\varepsilon\sigma(T_e + 273)^3}{f_v}$$	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be monthly or annual. Default is monthly. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. est – ET quantity to be estimated, either for potential ET, wet areal ET or actual areal ET. Default is potential ET. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. *Tdew* – if actual Tdew data is used, or alternative estimation is made[6]. Default is to use data. alpha – only required when actual solar radiation data is used, to define albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is NULL in line with the default value for *solar*.
Morton CRWE (Morton, 1983b) *ET.MortonCRWE*	M	✓		✓ (shal low lake		✓		✓		✓	*lat_rad, epsilonMo (as ε_s in equation), fz*	Same equation as above (i.e. Morton CRAE) but with different values for constants – see Table 7 for details	*ts* – time-step for ET estimation, can be monthly or annual. Default is monthly. *solar* – how solar radiation data

				)							*(as f_z in quantion), b0 (as b_0 in quantion), b1, b2, lat, Elev, alphaMo, betaMo, sigmaMo (as σ in equation), Gsc, gammaps (as γp in equation), lambdaMo (as λ in the equation)*		is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation). Default is using sunshine hours. est – ET quantity to be estimated, either for potential ET or shallow lake ET. Default is potential ET. *solar* – how solar radiation data is obtained (either directly from actual data, or through estimation using sunshine hours, cloud cover or monthly precipitation) *Tdew* – if actual Tdew data is used, or alternative estimation is made. Default is to use data. alpha – only required when actual solar radiation data is used, to define albedo of the evaporative surface. Default is NULL in line with the default value for *solar*.

Note:

1. See Table 7 for interpretations and suggested values of the constants with corresponding names.

2. Only key steps for each ET model are summarised in the table, please refer to the corresponding reference for detailed calculations.

3. See Equation 33 in (Valiantzas, 2006) for the original equation.

4. See Table S3 in the supplementary material of (McMahon et al., 2013) for a list of albedo values for different evaporative surfaces.

5. See Equation 39 in (Valiantzas, 2006) for the original equation.

6. See Table 3 in this document for the equation.

Table 10 Assumptions and known limitations of each ET model

ET model name	Assumptions	Known issues and limitations
Penman 1948/1956	Temperature of evaporative surface is unknown (McMahon et al., 2013). No heat storage or heat exchange with the ground, no advected energy, and hence the actual evaporation does not affect the overpassing air (Dingman, 2002).	Applies to most practical situations , but excludes extreme conditions, cases with high aerodynamic resistance, high humidity, and low temperature, which can lead to under-estimation by about 10% (Slatyer and Mcllroy, 1961; Gao, 1988).
Penman-Monteith FAO-56/ASCE-EWRI	Temperature of evaporative surface is unknown (McMahon et al., 2013). G is negligible for daily time step (Allen et al., 1998). The FAO-56 model assumes an evaporative surface is covered with short grass of height 0.12m, with a surface resistance of 70s.m^{-1} and albedo of 0.23 (Allen et al., 1998). The ASCE-EWRI model assumes an evaporative surface is covered with short grass of height 0.5m, with a surface resistance of 45s.m^{-1} and albedo of 0.23 (Allen et al., 2005).	FAO-56 Reference Crop method should not be applied to the irrigation areas within semi-arid and windy regions, such as Australia (Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009).
Matt-Shuttleworth	Evaporative surface is covered with short grass of height 0.12m, with a surface resistance of 70s.m^{-1} and albedo of 0.23 (Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009). Evaporative surfaces are well-watered in semi-arid and windy areas (Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009).	Only calibrated to irrigation (well-watered) areas that are semi-arid and windy (Shuttleworth and Wallace, 2009).
Priestley-Taylor	Evaporative surface is saturated (Priestley and Taylor, 1972).	Suitable for advection-free saturated surface. Performance can be improved by using seasonal-varying values of α_{PT} values depending on the seasons (Castellvi et al., 2001), evaporative surfaces as well as different observational periods (McMahon et al., 2013) Adjustments for vapour pressure deficit and available Energy should also be used to improve

		performance (Castellvi et al., 2001).
PenPan	Evaporative surface is a Class-A evaporation pan (Rotstayn et al., 2006).	The performance of the PenPan model in estimating Class-A pan evaporation are biased towards slightly higher values at lower evaporations (McMahon et al., 2013).
Brutsaert-Strickler	The actual ET and potential ET follow a Complementary Relationship (Brutsaert and Stricker, 1979).	The model sometimes generates negative ET values at daily time step (McMahon et al., 2013).
Granger-Gray	Evaporative surface is non-saturated lands (Granger and Gray, 1989).	No report in literature.
Szilagyi-Jozsa	The actual ET and potential ET follow a Complementary Relationship (Szilagyi, 2007).	Negative ET estimates can be obtained for days with very low net radiation (McMahon et al., 2013).
Makkink	Evaporative surface is covered by reference crop (De Bruin, 1981)	Calibrated only to cool climate conditions in the Netherlands (Xu and Singh, 2000).
Blaney-Criddle	Evaporative surface is covered with alfafa (Allen and Pruitt, 1986). Evaporative surface is within an adequately watered dry area where advection effects are strong (Allen and Pruitt, 1986; Yin and Brook, 1992).	This model should be used with caution in equatorial regions (with relatively constant air temperature are relatively constant), small island and coastal areas (where air temperature is affected by sea temperature), high elevations (as environmental lapse rate induced low mean daily air temperature) and monsoonal and mid-latitude regions (as sunshine hours display large variety) (Doorenbos, 1977).
Turc	Evaporative surface is covered by reference crop(McMahon et al., 2013). Evaporative surface is within a humid region (Turc, 1961).	Adjustment may be used for non-humid conditions (RH < 50%) to improve performance (Alexandris et al., 2008).
Hargreaves-Samani	Evaporative surface is covered Alta fescue grass (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985).	Calibrated only to cool seasons in California (Xu and Singh, 2000).
Chapman Australian	Potential Evapotranspiration is well correlated with pan evaporation in Australia (Chapman, 2001).	Calibrated to Australia, so only applicable to Australia case studies (McMahon et al., 2013). Also only recommended if no other data than temperature are available to estimate ET (McMahon et al., 2013).
Jensen-Haise	Evaporative surface is within an adequately watered arid/semi-arid area (Jensen and Haise, 1963)..	Calibrated to arid/semi-arid regions in western US (Jensen and Haise, 1963).
McGuiness-Bordne	Evaporative surface is within a humid area (McGuinness and Bordne, 1972).	Calibrated only to Florida (Xu and Singh, 2000).
Morton CRAE	Vapour transfer is	Accurate measurements of humidity data are

	independent of wind speed (McMahon et al., 2013). The actual ET and potential ET follow a Complementary Relationship. Evaporative surface is a vegetated surface (Morton, 1983a).	required (Morton, 1983a; McMahon et al., 2013). The model is not recommended for intervals of no longer than three days (Morton, 1983a). The model is not recommended for near edge conditions (e.g. edge of an oasis) (Morton, 1983a). Estimation for areal potential ET should only be used for large area (>1km^2) with unlimited water supply, while the potential ET should be used for a point, ideally a small irrigation area with unlimited water supply and surrounded by unirrigated area (Meteorology and Wang, 2001).
Morton CRWE	Vapour transfer is independent of wind speed (McMahon et al., 2013). The actual ET and potential ET follow a Complementary Relationship. Evaporative surface is a shallow lake-size water surface (Morton, 1983a).	The model is not recommended for deep lakes (>30m) (Morton, 1983a).

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