

Article

# Physical Interpretation of the Complementary Relationship for Evapotranspiration

Sha Zhou <sup>1,2,\*</sup> and Bofu Yu <sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> State Key Laboratory of Earth Surface Processes and Disaster Risk Reduction, Faculty of Geographical Science, Beijing Normal University, Beijing 100875, China

<sup>2</sup> Institute of Land Surface System and Sustainable Development, Faculty of Geographical Science, Beijing Normal University, Beijing 100875, China

<sup>3</sup> School of Engineering and Built Environment, Griffith University, Nathan, QLD 4111, Australia

\* Correspondence: shazhou21@bnu.edu.cn

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**Abstract:** The complementary relationship (CR) between actual evapotranspiration (ET) and apparent potential evapotranspiration ( $PET_a$ ) is widely adopted as a simple yet powerful approach for ET estimation over land. However, most existing CR formulations remain empirical, largely due to a lack of clear physical interpretation of its key parameter. In this study, we show that the CR naturally emerges from the surface energy balance and clarify the physical meaning of its parameter: the wet Bowen ratio, defined as the Bowen ratio when the surface becomes saturated. Fundamentally, the CR originates from the partitioning of available energy: ET is directly linked to the latent heat flux, while  $PET_a$  is proportional to the sensible heat flux. Additionally, the CR can be interpreted as the atmospheric response (encapsulated by  $PET_a$ ) to ET dynamics across wet and dry conditions. In contrast, ET exhibits a positive relationship with the energy-based potential evapotranspiration ( $PET_e$ ), which controls and drives ET over land. This physically grounded relationship among ET,  $PET_a$ , and  $PET_e$  advances our understanding of the spatial and temporal variations in ET, as well as its critical role in land-atmosphere interactions, thereby facilitating the practical application of the CR for ET estimation across diverse environments.

**Keywords:** Evapotranspiration, complementary relationship, surface energy partitioning, Bowen ratio

## 1. Introduction

Terrestrial evapotranspiration (ET) is critical to land-atmosphere exchanges of water, energy, and carbon fluxes and serves as a key nexus linking hydrological, ecological, and climate systems, with profound implications for water resource management, agricultural productivity, and climate change projections [1–4]. However, both direct observation and indirect estimation of ET remain challenging and highly uncertain [5–7]. This uncertainty primarily arises from the complex interactions of soil moisture dynamics, vegetation physiological traits (e.g., stomatal conductance) and structural characteristics (e.g., leaf area index, canopy architecture)—coupled with the inherent challenges of parameterizing these complex land surface processes [8–10]. To address this complexity, the complementary relationship (CR) for ET, first proposed by Bouchet [11] and operationalized by Morton [12], offers a simple conceptual framework for ET estimation. Its core advantage is that it relies solely on routine meteorological observations and requires no detailed knowledge of land surface properties, making it highly practical for large-scale applications or regions with limited land surface data by indirectly inferring ET dynamics from readily available atmospheric variables [13–16].



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The CR essentially describes the relationship between three types of ET over land surface [17]. The first type is the actual ET, which is the water vapor flux from open water, wet soil and vegetation over an area. The second type is the potential ET (PET), i.e., the ET that would occur from the same area with the same net radiation, but with unlimited water supply, i.e., a saturated evaporative surface. As the PET is limited by available energy, it is termed as  $PET_e$  in this study. The third type is the apparent potential ET ( $PET_a$ ), which is the ET that would occur from a small, saturated surface within a large and unsaturated area, with abundant energy supply from the net radiation and the surrounding environment [18]. It is assumed that the saturated evaporative surface is too small to affect aerodynamic conditions, i.e., air temperature, humidity, and wind speed.  $PET_a$  therefore depends on the prevailing aerodynamic conditions over the large dry area. In practice,  $PET_e$  is represented by the actual ET over a large lake or reservoir, while  $PET_a$  by the actual ET measured with an evaporation pan placed in an otherwise dry environment [19]. These three types of ET converge when the large area is saturated everywhere. As the large area dries up, ET is limited by available water and falls below  $PET_e$ . Simultaneously, a lower ET reduces the moisture content of the atmosphere and reduced evaporative cooling increases air temperature, resulting in a warmer and drier atmosphere with a higher  $PET_a$  than  $PET_e$ . These processes lead to a complementary relationship between ET and  $PET_a$  when water supply is limited.

Based on the conceptual framework above, a series of CR formulations have been developed [11,17,20–27] and applied to large-scale ET estimation [14–16,28–30]. However, most CR formulations remain empirical due to a lack of physical interpretation of parameters involved in CR formulations [13]. These parameters thus require calibration using site-specific observations, which limits their broader application in ET estimation. Calibration-free CR formulations [15,25,27] essentially rely on an assumed non-linear relationship between ET,  $PET_e$ , and  $PET_a$ , yet the intrinsic mechanisms driving the hypothesized non-linearity remain unclear [17,23,26]. Additionally, the absence of definitive methods for estimating  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  further hinders development of physically-based, calibration-free CR formulations. Previous studies generally use the Priestley-Taylor equation [31] to approximate  $PET_e$ , and pan evaporation or the Penman equation [32] to approximate  $PET_a$ . However, these estimates do not align with the strict definitions of  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  [18,23,27]. An in-depth understanding of the physical processes underlying the complementary relationship, coupled with accurate estimation of  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ , is therefore crucial for developing a physically sound CR formulation.

Zhou and Yu [33] disentangled the original Penman equation into an energy-based PET ( $PET_e$ ) and an aerodynamics-based PET ( $PET_a$ ). They further established a theoretical relationship between ET,  $PET_e$ , and  $PET_a$  based on land-atmosphere interactions [33]. This theoretical relationship closely resembles the CR framework, yet it remains unclear whether the proposed methods for estimating  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ —along with their distinct relationships with ET—align with the core concept and mechanism of the CR framework. Nevertheless, this work offers a fresh perspective for revisiting the CR framework and advancing our understanding of its underlying physical processes.

The aim of this study is to formulate a physically-based CR and gain a deeper insight into its mechanistic foundations. We first revisit the core concepts of the CR framework and outline the practical challenges associated with the existing CR formulations. Leveraging energy-based and aerodynamics-based approaches to estimate  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ , respectively, we demonstrate that a CR with a parameter of clear physical meaning naturally emerges from the surface energy balance. We further show the consistency of this physically-based CR with the theoretical relationship derived from land-atmosphere interactions [33]. This work advances our understanding of the CR's underlying physical processes, i.e., the surface energy balance and land-atmosphere interactions, thereby supporting its practical application for ET estimation over land.

## 2. Concept of the Complementary Relationship

When the land surface is adequately supplied with water (moisture-unlimited conditions), the three key ET terms are equal in magnitude (i.e., representing wet-surface evaporation):

$$ET = PET_e = PET_a \quad (1)$$

The magnitude of these terms is determined solely by energy supply and aerodynamic conditions.

As surface moisture supply decreases, available water becomes insufficient to meet the atmospheric evaporative demand, i.e.,  $PET_e$ . The energy that would otherwise be consumed by ET is redirected to sensible heat flux ( $H$ ), resulting in a drier and warmer atmosphere. This atmospheric adjustment causes  $PET_a$ , defined as the evaporation from an arbitrarily small, wet area (e.g., an evaporation pan) within a dry environment, to exceed  $PET_e$ . For moisture-limited conditions, we have

$$ET < PET_e < PET_a \quad (2)$$

The original CR proposed by Bouchet [11] assumes symmetry between the decrease in  $ET$  and the increase in  $PET_a$ , relative to the wet-surface evaporation ( $PET_e$ ), from wet to dry conditions.

$$PET_e - ET = PET_a - PET_e \quad (3)$$

This symmetry is predicated on the assumption of constant available energy (i.e., net radiation minus ground heat flux) between wet and dry conditions. Under this premise, the decrease in latent heat flux equals the increase in sensible heat flux, i.e.,  $\lambda PET_e - \lambda ET = H - H_w$ , where  $\lambda$  is the latent heat of vaporization and  $H_w$  the sensible heat flux under wet conditions. In reality, variations in energy transfer processes (e.g., the relationship between changes in  $H$  and  $\lambda PET_a$ ) may deviate from strict symmetry. Thus, it is more realistic to assume a proportional relationship between the left and right hand-sides of Equation (3) [22], resulting in a generalized linear CR:

$$PET_e - ET = k(PET_a - PET_e) \quad (4)$$

Rearranging Equation (4) yields an explicit expression for  $ET$ :

$$ET = (1 + k)PET_e - kPET_a \quad (5)$$

where  $k$  is the coefficient of proportionality, and it can be interpreted as a measure of asymmetry for CR. When  $k = 1$ , Equations (4) and (5) are reduced to Bouchet's original symmetric CR, i.e., Equation (3). For  $k \neq 1$ , the CR becomes asymmetric—a characteristic widely noted and validated with observational evidence [19,22,24,34]. This asymmetry primarily arises from additional energy inputs to the small wet surface (e.g., evaporation pans) from the surrounding environment, such as lateral/bottom heat transfer and local energy advection. These processes cause  $PET_a$  to increase more substantially than the corresponding decrease in  $ET$ , leading to  $k < 1$  in most practical scenarios [19,24]. Given the uncertainty in energy transfer from the surrounding environment, pan evaporation rates are highly sensitive to pan characteristics (e.g., size, material, and exposure), rendering  $PET_a$  inherently indeterminate and uncertain in practice.

Building on the above conceptual framework of CR, its distinct characteristics can be outlined as follows: (1) a fundamental assumption of constant available energy between wet and dry conditions; (2) two boundary conditions (Equations (1) and (2)) that constrain the quantitative relationships between  $ET$ ,  $PET_e$ , and  $PET_a$  under wet and dry conditions; (3) physical basis for the complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  originates from the shift in surface energy partitioning (latent vs. sensible heat flux) and associated land-atmosphere feedbacks as surface moisture changes.

The generalized form (Equation (5)) unifies most existing CR formulations, with the corresponding  $k$  values for different formulations summarized in Table 1. Despite its generality, existing CR formulations face notable practical limitations. First, uncertainties in the estimation of  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  often violate the boundary conditions, i.e., Equations (1) and (2).  $PET_e$  is commonly estimated using the Priestley-Taylor equation [31]. However, this empirical method yields results that diverge substantially from observed oceanic  $ET$ , indicating its inability to adequately quantify wet-surface evaporation [18,35,36].  $PET_a$  is typically measured via an evaporation pan or estimated using the Penman equation [32]. However, pan evaporation rates are inherently uncertain in practical applications: they are highly sensitive to pan characteristics, and the Class A evaporation pan, being sufficiently large, alters air temperature and humidity around the pan, which does not conform with the definition of  $PET_a$ . Furthermore,  $PET_a$  derived from the original Penman equation or its variants tends to be underestimated because the equation neglects energy transfer from the surrounding environment [18]. Second, the physical interpretation and quantitative derivation of  $k$  remain inconsistent across different formulations (Table 1). These uncertainties hinder the reliable application of CR for  $ET$  estimation in diverse climatic and surface conditions. In the following section, we demonstrate how these uncertainties can be minimized by accurately estimating  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  in accordance with their definitions and boundary conditions, while clarifying the physical meaning of the coefficient of proportionality,  $k$ .

**Table 1.** The coefficient of proportionality ( $k$ ) and its interpretation for different CR formulations.

CR Formulation	Coefficient of Proportionality ( $k$ )	Interpretation of $k$	References
$ET = 2PET_e - PET_a$	$k = 1$	Asymmetric, physically unrealistic	[11]
$ET = \left(1 + \frac{1}{b}\right)PET_e - \frac{1}{b}PET_a$	$k = \frac{1}{b}$	An empirical site-specific, fitted parameter	[20]
$ET = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{\Delta}\right)PET_e - \frac{\gamma}{\Delta}PET_a$	$k = \frac{\gamma}{\Delta}$	A special case with limited general applicability	[21,22]

Table 1. Cont.

CR Formulation	Coefficient of Proportionality ( $k$ )	Interpretation of $k$	References
$ET = \left(\frac{PET_e}{PET_a}\right)^2 (2PET_e - PET_a)$	$k \approx 0.22$	A special case with limited general applicability	[17]
$ET = \left(1 + \frac{X_{min}}{1 - X_{min}}\right) PET_e - \frac{X_{min}}{1 - X_{min}} PET_a$	$k = \frac{X_{min}}{1 - X_{min}}$	An empirical site-specific, fitted parameter	[23]
$ET = (1 + \beta_w) PET_e - \beta_w PET_a$	$k = \beta_w$	Physically meaningful and applicable across varying conditions	This study

### 3. Derivation and Validation of a Physically-Based Complementary Relationship

Here we show that the complementary relationship naturally emerges from the surface energy balance through clear definition and robust estimation of  $PET_e$  for fully saturated conditions and  $PET_a$  from a small, saturated surface in an otherwise dry environment, respectively.

#### 3.1. Definition and Estimation of $PET_e$ and $PET_a$

$PET_e$  represents the rate of ET that would occur when water supply is unlimited at the evaporative surface (i.e., the entire surface is fully saturated).  $PET_e$  cannot be directly measured unless the entire surface is saturated and must be estimated, typically using observations from dry conditions. Among available methods, the energy-based approach is deemed the most reliable for  $PET_e$  estimation [18],

$$\lambda PET_e = \frac{R_n}{1 + \beta_w} \quad (6)$$

where  $R_n$  ( $J \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ ) is the available energy (i.e., net radiation minus ground heat flux) and equals the sum of latent and sensible heat fluxes;  $\beta_w$  is the wet Bowen ratio, i.e., the ratio of sensible over latent heat fluxes when the evaporative surface is saturated.

$PET_a$  represents the ET rate from a small, saturated surface (e.g., a tiny evaporation pan placed in a desert) within a larger, unsaturated surrounding area. The saturated area is assumed to be sufficiently small that its presence has no practical effect on the surrounding dry environment, ensuring identical prevailing meteorological condition over the small, wet area and the larger dry area. In this context, the energy available for evaporation at the small saturated surface originates from two sources: net radiation at the surface and heat advection from the surrounding dry environment. This dual energy input renders  $PET_a$  inherently indeterminate and uncertain if not constrained by additional assumptions. To address this challenge, we estimate the upper limit of  $PET_a$  by assuming that the surface temperature of the small, saturated area approximates its maximum value, i.e., the surface temperature of the surrounding dry area ( $T_s$ ). Under this assumption,  $PET_a$  can be quantified using the aerodynamics-based approach:

$$\lambda PET_a = \frac{\rho c_p (e_s^* - e_a)}{\gamma r_a} \quad (7)$$

where  $\rho$  is the air density ( $kg \cdot m^{-3}$ ),  $c_p$  the specific heat of air at constant pressure ( $J \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$ ),  $\gamma$  the psychrometric constant ( $Pa \cdot K^{-1}$ ),  $r_a$  the aerodynamic resistance ( $s \cdot m^{-1}$ ) that depends on wind speed and land surface characteristics, and the term  $e_s^* - e_a$  is the difference in vapor pressure ( $Pa$ ) between the saturated evaporative surface and the air above.

The assumption of equivalent surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) implies that the sensible heat flux ( $H$ ) of the small, saturated area is maximized and equal to that of the surrounding large dry area. Thus,  $PET_a$  can also be directly estimated as the ratio of  $H$  to the wet Bowen ratio ( $\beta_w$ ) of the small, saturated area:

$$\lambda PET_a = \frac{H}{\beta_w} \quad (8)$$

$$\beta_w = \frac{\gamma (T_s - T_a)}{e_s^* - e_a} \quad (9)$$

where  $T_s - T_a$  is the difference between surface ( $T_s$ ) and air ( $T_a$ ) temperatures ( $K$ ). Previous studies have validated that  $\beta_w$  estimated from surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) and meteorological variables ( $T_a$  and  $e_a$ ) of the large dry area (consistent with those of the small wet area) remains relatively constant when the entire surface is saturated [18,33].



This constancy arises from the coupled changes in temperature and humidity at the evaporative surface and of the overlying air. Consequently,  $\beta_w$  derived from Equation (9) is applicable to both  $PET_a$  estimation (Equation (8)) and  $PET_e$  estimation (Equation (6)).

The energy-based  $PET_e$  estimation relies on two core assumptions: (1) constant available energy ( $R_n$ ) under both wet and dry surface conditions; (2) constant wet Bowen ratio ( $\beta_w$ ) for both the small, saturated area and the large area when fully saturated. The first assumption is widely adopted in  $PET_e$  estimation and aligns with the fundamental assumption of the CR framework. The second assumption has been rigorously validated in prior work [18,33] and addresses the critical limitation of the widely used Priestley-Taylor equation. Specifically, the implicit wet Bowen ratio in the Priestley-Taylor equation is highly sensitive to temperature variations between wet and dry conditions, leading to systematic biases in  $PET_e$  estimation [18,33,37]. This critical issue is resolved by invoking the constancy of  $\beta_w$  regardless of surface moisture changes, enabling accurate estimation of the wet Bowen ratio using readily available surface temperature observations and routine meteorological data.

### 3.2. Derivation of the Complementary Relationship

For a given large area, the surface energy balance equation is expressed as

$$R_n = \lambda ET + H \quad (10)$$

where the available energy,  $R_n$ , imposes a constraint on  $PET_e$  and the sensible heat flux,  $H$ , is directly related to  $PET_a$ . With  $R_n$  from Equation (6) and  $H$  from Equation (8), the energy balance equation can be re-written as:

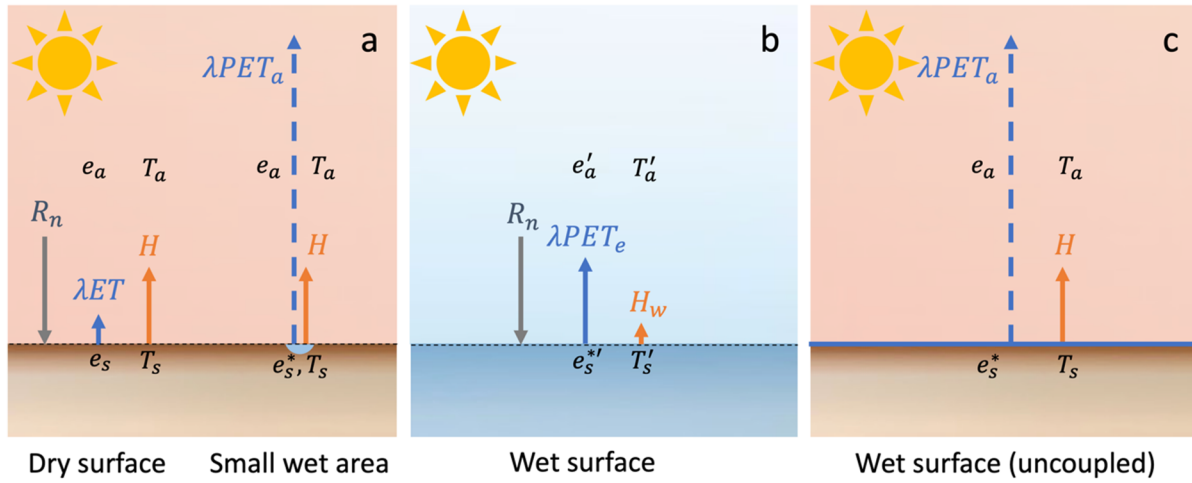
$$ET = (1 + \beta_w)PET_e - \beta_w PET_a \quad (11)$$

The structural consistency between Equations (5) and (11) confirms that the coefficient of proportionality  $k$  equals the wet Bowen ratio  $\beta_w$ , i.e.,  $k = \beta_w$ . This derivation also aligns with the boundary conditions of the CR framework:  $ET = PET_e = PET_a$  for saturated surfaces (Equation (1)) and  $ET < PET_e < PET_a$  for unsaturated surfaces (Equation (2)). Given that the partitioning of available energy ( $R_n$ ) into latent heat flux ( $\lambda ET$ ) and sensible flux ( $H$ ) is governed by the actual Bowen ratio ( $\beta$ ), defined as  $\beta = H/\lambda ET$ , the key relationships among  $ET$ ,  $PET_e$ , and  $PET_a$ , all of which depend on this energy partitioning mechanism, are summarized in Table 2. These relationships demonstrate that the relative magnitudes of  $ET$ ,  $PET_e$ , and  $PET_a$  are determined by surface wetness, as quantified by the difference between  $\beta$  and  $\beta_w$ .

**Table 2.** Estimation of the three types of ET and their relationships.

Equation	Range
$\lambda ET = \frac{R_n}{1 + \beta}$	$\left[0, \frac{R_n}{1 + \beta_w}\right]$
$\lambda PET_e = \frac{R_n}{1 + \beta_w}$	$\frac{R_n}{1 + \beta_w}$
$\lambda PET_a = \frac{H}{\beta_w}$	$\left[\frac{R_n}{1 + \beta_w}, \frac{R_n}{\beta_w}\right]$
$\frac{ET}{PET_e} = \frac{1 + \beta_w}{1 + \beta}$	$[0, 1]$
$\frac{ET}{PET_a} = \frac{\beta_w}{\beta}$	$[0, 1]$
$\frac{PET_e}{PET_a} = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{\beta}}{1 + \frac{1}{\beta_w}}$	$\left[\frac{\beta_w}{1 + \beta_w}, 1\right]$

Equation (11) clarifies the physical mechanism underlying the complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$ , which essentially reflects the dynamic redistribution of  $R_n$  between latent and sensible heat fluxes under varying surface wetness conditions. As the land surface dries up,  $ET$  falls below its energy-constrained upper limit,  $PET_e$ , and the excess energy not partitioned to latent heat flux is redirected to sensible heat flux, thereby driving  $PET_a$  to increase relative to  $PET_e$  (Figure 1a,b). Notably, the magnitude of  $PET_a$ 's increase relative to the decrease in  $ET$  is scaled by  $1/\beta_w$ , a term representing the ratio of latent over sensible heat flux for the small, saturated surface. This key finding explains the observed asymmetric relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  and clarifies the physical meaning of the coefficient of proportionality ( $k$ ) in the generalized linear CR framework. In essence,  $\beta_w$  is the source and a quantitative measure of the degree of asymmetry in the complementary relationship.



**Figure 1.** Schematic illustration of the relationships between actual *ET* and two potential *ET* ( $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ ) under wet and dry conditions. (a) In a dry environment, the available energy ( $R_n$ ) is partitioned into latent heat flux ( $\lambda ET$ ) and sensible heat flux ( $H$ ). For an arbitrarily small wet area within this dry environment, the surface temperature ( $T_s$ ), air temperature ( $T_a$ ), and vapor pressure ( $e_a$ ) remain the same as the surrounding dry environment. The only difference is the vapor pressure at the evaporative surface ( $e_s$  versus  $e_s^*$ ). Consequently,  $H$  over the small wet area is identical to that of the surrounding dry environment, while latent heat flux ( $\lambda PET_a$ ) is substantially larger than  $\lambda ET$ , as both water and energy supply are not limiting over the small wet area. (b) When the entire area becomes saturated, both surface and atmospheric conditions cool down ( $T_s'$  and  $T_a'$ ) and become more humid ( $e_s'$  and  $e_a'$ ) relative to the dry environment. As a result, latent heat flux ( $\lambda PET_e$ ) increases while sensible heat flux ( $H_w$ ) decreases, with both constrained by  $R_n$ . (c) The dry surface in (a) is hypothetically converted to a wet surface while remaining decoupled from the atmosphere. The surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) and atmospheric conditions ( $T_a$  and  $e_a$ ) are identical to those in (a). In this hypothetical scenario,  $\lambda PET_a$  is constrained by aerodynamic conditions, consistent with the small wet area in (a), with unlimited water and energy supply.

### 3.3. Validation of the Complementary Relationship

The Fluxnet2015 dataset, which provides meteorological measurements and observed land-atmosphere exchanges of water and energy fluxes based on the eddy covariance technique from 212 sites (>1500 site-years) around the globe [38], were used to validate the physically-based CR in Equation (11). These sites cover a wide range of climate conditions and vegetation types and were used to examine the relationship between the actual *ET* and potential *ET*, i.e.,  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ . Data were included in this analysis for site-years where measured or high-quality gap-filled data of air temperature, surface soil temperature, sensible and latent heat fluxes were available. To reduce uncertainties in *ET* measurements, days with air temperature less than 5 °C or negative sensible/latent fluxes were excluded. Finally, we selected 146 Fluxnet sites with effective records of more than 90 days (see Table S1). To validate the complementary relationship for different sites and seasons, we used data from 7352 site-months, with effective records of more than 15 days for each month. For each site-month, the net radiation minus ground heat flux ( $R_n$ ) was calculated as the sum of latent and sensible heat fluxes.  $\beta_w$  was estimated from Equation (9) subject to two constraints:  $\beta_w \geq 0.24 \frac{\gamma}{\Delta}$  (where  $\Delta$  denotes the slope of saturation vapor pressure-temperature curve and  $\gamma$  is the psychrometric constant) and  $\beta_w \leq \beta$ , following previous studies [18,33,37].  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  were estimated from Equations (6) and (8), respectively.

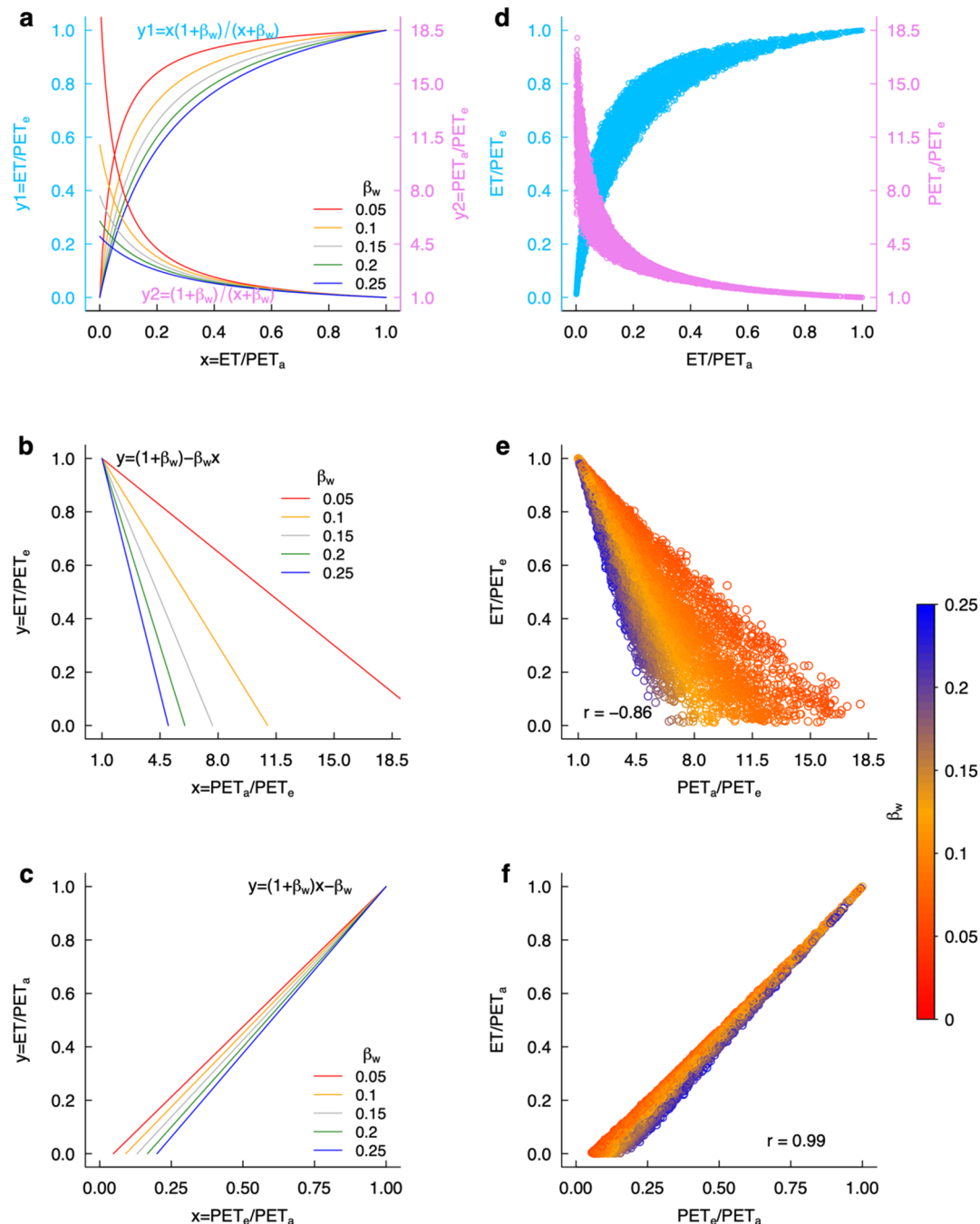
To illustrate the complementary relationship between *ET* and  $PET_a$  and the proportional relationship between *ET* and  $PET_e$ , Equation (11) can be scaled and re-written as

$$\frac{ET}{PET_e} = 1 + \beta_w - \beta_w \frac{PET_a}{PET_e} \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{ET}{PET_a} = (1 + \beta_w) \frac{PET_e}{PET_a} - \beta_w \quad (13)$$

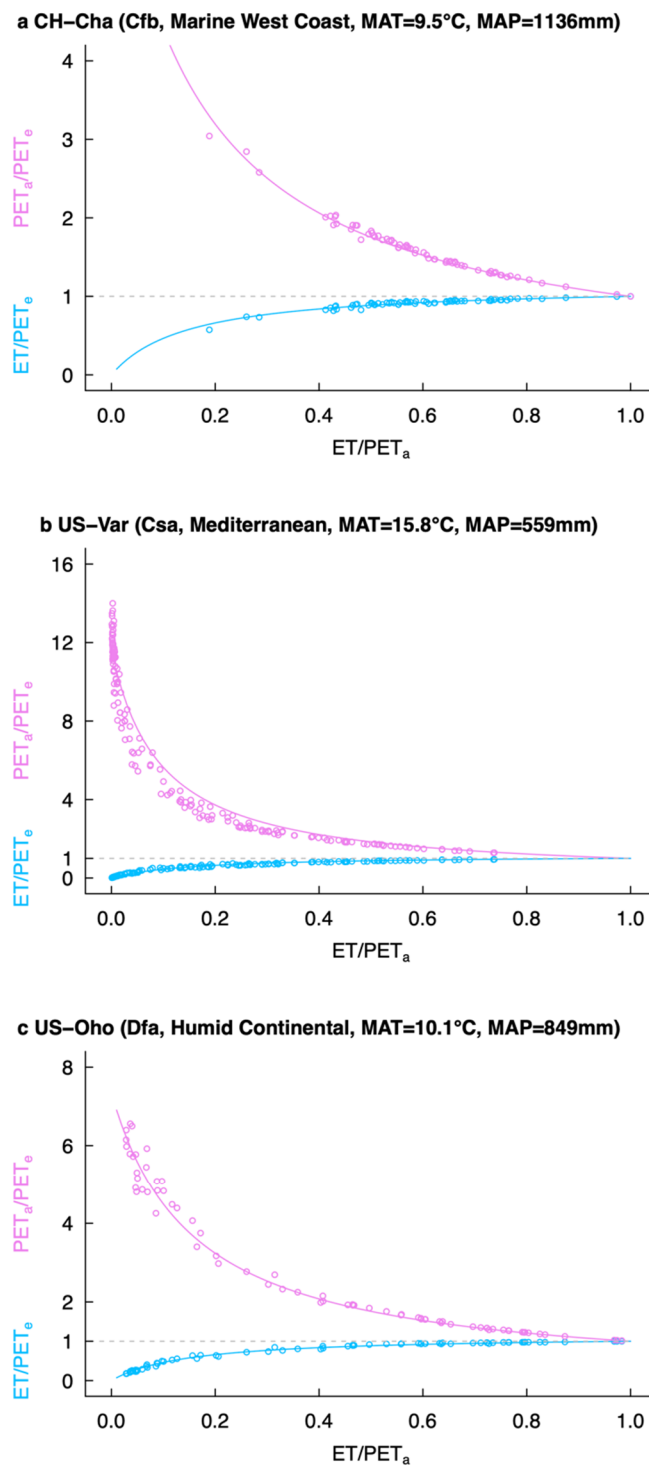
Estimation of the three types of *ET* and their relationships are shown in Table 2 and Figure 2a–c. Based on observations from the 146 Fluxnet sites (7352 site-months), the complementary relationship between *ET* and  $PET_a$  and the proportional relationship between *ET* and  $PET_e$  across wide-ranging climate conditions are clearly evident (Figure 2d–f). The scaled *ET* with  $PET_e$  increases from 0 to 1 and the scaled  $PET_a$  decreases from 18

to 1 from the driest to the wettest site-months. This provides observational evidence for the complementary principle that  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  converge towards  $PET_e$  and they closely match each other ( $ET = PET_e = PET_a$ ) under wet conditions, while  $ET$  falls below  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  rises above  $PET_e$  ( $ET < PET_e < PET_a$ ) in a dry environment. As implied by Equation (12), a strong negative correlation ( $r = -0.86$ ) is observed between the scaled  $ET$  and  $PET_a$ , with a low level of nonlinearity induced by variations in  $\beta_w$  (0.05–0.25) across the 7352 site-months (Figure 2e). The scaled  $ET$  and  $PET_e$  with  $PET_a$  in Equation (13), on the other hand, are positively correlated ( $r = 0.99$ , Figure 2f), indicating the strong positive control of energy-based  $PET_e$  on  $ET$  across a wide range of climate environments.



**Figure 2.** The complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  and the positive relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_e$ . (a–c) Relationships among  $ET$ ,  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  with a constant value of  $\beta_w$  ranging from 0.05 to 0.25 at an increment of 0.05. (d–f) Relationships among monthly  $ET$ ,  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  estimated using meteorological and flux measurements from the Fluxnet2015 dataset (146 sites and 7352 site-months in total, see Table S1).  $\beta_w$  is shown as variations in color for each site-month (e,f). Since  $\beta_w$  ranged from 0.05 to 0.25 across the 7352 site-months, the slope ( $\beta_w$ ) would vary by a factor of 5 in Figure 2e, while for Figure 2f the range in slope ( $1 + \beta_w$ ) varies by 19% only.

While the combined site-month patterns robustly confirm the universality of the complementary and proportional relationships, they may obscure the nuanced, climate-specific modulation of the complementary relationship. To unpack these context-dependent behaviors and validate the framework's mechanistic consistency across divergent hydroclimatic regimes, we conducted a targeted, process-level analysis focused on three Fluxnet sites representing distinct Köppen climate zones. Figure 3 confirms that the complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  holds for both wet and dry climates, yet its magnitude, sensitivity to soil moisture availability, and seasonal expression exhibit pronounced climate-specific characteristics.



**Figure 3.** The complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  at three Fluxnet sites. (a–c) Scaled monthly  $ET$  ( $ET/PET_e$ ) and scaled monthly  $PET_a$  ( $PET_a/PET_e$ ) plotted as functions of the moisture index ( $ET/PET_a$ ) for the CH-Cha (a), US-Var (b), and US-Oho (c) sites. For each site, the Köppen climate classification, mean annual temperature (MAT), and mean annual precipitation (MAP) are shown.

At the CH-Cha site (Marine West Coast Climate), persistent maritime influence leads to high annual precipitation and relative humidity, rendering the majority of months hydrologically wet. In this energy-limited regime, the complementary relationship exhibits near-linear divergence between the scaled  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  across the moisture gradient. From the driest to the wettest months, the scaled  $PET_a$  declines gradually from 3 to 1, while the scaled  $ET$  rises concurrently from 0.57 to 1, with tight coordination across the entire moisture gradient. In contrast, the US-Var site (Mediterranean Climate) exhibits a water-limited regime marked by a pronounced seasonal imbalance between hot, dry summers and cool, wet winters. With most months characterized by soil moisture depletion, the complementary relationship is amplified to an extreme degree. During the driest months, the scaled  $PET_a$  surges to a maximum of 14, while the scaled  $ET$  drops to just 0.012. This pattern highlights the dry-climate amplification of complementarity: the relationship becomes highly sensitive to small changes in moisture availability, with  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  diverging sharply under water-limited conditions.

The US-Oho site (Humid Continental Climate) represents a transitional, energy-water co-limited regime, with distinct seasonal shifts between wet and dry periods. This duality yields a bimodal expression of the complementary relationship that integrates features of both wet and dry climates. During wet months, the scaled  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  converge to values close to 1, mirroring the complementary relationship observed at CH-Cha. In contrast, during dry months, the two variables diverge significantly: the scaled  $PET_a$  rises to 6.6 and the scaled  $ET$  drops to 0.17. This bimodal behavior demonstrates that the complementary relationship adapts dynamically to seasonal shifts in limiting factors in transitional climates, with the framework capturing both the moderation of complementarity in wet periods and its amplification in dry periods within a single site.

Collectively, these site-specific patterns show that the complementary relationship is not a static hydrometeorological phenomenon but a climate-dependent process shaped by the dominant constraints on  $ET$ . In energy-limited wet climates, complementarity is near-linear; in water-limited dry climates, it is amplified and highly nonlinear; in transitional co-limited climates, it shifts dynamically between these states seasonally. These findings validate the proposed framework, demonstrating its ability to capture the full spectrum of complementary relationship behaviors across divergent climate types.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. $ET$ – $PET_e$ – $PET_a$ Relationship within the Land-Atmosphere System

The derivation of the CR expressed as Equation (11) confirms that the complementary relationship is essentially determined by how the available energy ( $R_n$ ) is partitioned between latent and sensible heat fluxes under wet and dry conditions. Given the fundamental assumption of constant energy availability, alterations in the partitioning of latent and sensible heat fluxes manifest themselves as a complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$ , as the latent heat flux is directly related to  $ET$  and the sensible heat flux proportional to  $PET_a$  with the wet Bowen ratio,  $\beta_w$ , as the coefficient of proportionality. This physical mechanism and the core assumption are consistent with the concept of the original CR and the existing CR formulations [11,17,20–27]. However, the new physically-based CR formulation offers a clearer understanding of the nature of the complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  and provides new insights into the physical basis underlying the complementary relationship.

The complementary relationship expressed in Equation (11) is highly consistent with the quantitative interactions among  $ET$ ,  $PET_e$ , and  $PET_a$  derived from land-atmosphere coupling processes [33]. A notable distinction, however, lies in the definition of  $PET_a$ . According to Zhou and Yu [33],  $PET_a$  is defined as the maximum  $ET$  permissible under prevailing aerodynamic conditions for a hypothetical wet surface—decoupled from the atmosphere and supported by unlimited water and energy supply (Figure 1c). In this study,  $PET_a$  quantifies the upper limit of evaporation from a small, saturated surface that exerts no practical influence on the atmosphere, while relying on unrestricted water and energy to sustain evaporation, and its surface temperature remains identical to that of the surrounding environment. In essence, these two definitions of  $PET_a$  are conceptually consistent: both represent the maximum  $ET$  constrained solely by the prevailing aerodynamic conditions across the entire surface, with unlimited water and energy supply, regardless of the evaporative surface size. Thus,  $PET_a$  reflects the aerodynamic limit of  $ET$ , shaped by the temperature and moisture conditions of both the surface and the overlying air. It differs fundamentally from  $ET$  (constrained by water, energy, and aerodynamic conditions) and  $PET_e$  (constrained by energy and aerodynamic conditions). These distinct constraints give rise to the boundary conditions of the CR:  $ET \leq PET_e \leq PET_a$ .

From the perspective of land-atmosphere interactions [33,39], the aerodynamic conditions encapsulated by  $PET_a$  are inherently dependent on  $ET$  magnitude.  $ET$  regulates evaporative cooling effects and moisture input to the atmosphere, thereby modifying temperature and moisture dynamics of the land-atmosphere system, factors

that directly shape  $PET_a$ . Specifically, the rise in  $PET_a$  relative to  $PET_e$  is an atmospheric response to reduced  $ET$  under surface water limitation, reflecting the feedback of  $ET$  on atmospheric conditions. This land-atmosphere feedback mechanism underpins the negative correlation between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$ . In contrast,  $ET$  exhibits a positive relationship with  $PET_e$ , which represents the maximum  $ET$  constrained by both energy and aerodynamic conditions that control and drive  $ET$  over land.

The theoretically sound complementary relationship also merits further interpretation of the relationship between  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ . Equation (11) can be re-arranged as:

$$PET_a = \left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta_w}\right) PET_e - \frac{1}{\beta_w} ET \quad (14)$$

$PET_a$  that is related to the atmospheric conditions can be seen to depend on the energy-constrained  $PET_e$  and moisture-constrained  $ET$ . Let us consider two extreme cases: (1) where  $ET = PET_e$  for saturated areas, such as the ocean and large lakes, we have the minimum of  $PET_a$  as  $PET_e$ ; (2) where  $ET = 0$  for surfaces of maximum dryness without supply of water vapor to the air, we have the maximum of  $PET_a$  as  $\left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta_w}\right) PET_e$  and the largest difference between  $PET_a$  and  $PET_e$ , i.e.,  $\frac{PET_e}{\beta_w}$ . This interpretation reinforces the notion that  $PET_a$  responds to water vapor supply via  $ET$  in addition to the energy constraint. The drier the air with reduced  $ET$ , the greater the difference between  $PET_a$  and  $PET_e$ .

#### 4.2. Comparison with Previous Formulations of the Complementary Relationship

Table 1 shows that most of existing CR formulations share the same structure as Equation (11). This is because these CR formulations are developed based on the same physical principles, i.e., partitioning of the available energy shifting from latent to sensible heat flux from wet to dry conditions, from which the complementary relationship originates [11]. The physically-based CR is identical to the two empirical CRs [20,23], each involving an empirical parameter, and can be used to interpret and give meaning to these parameters. For the asymmetric CR of Brutsaert and Parlange [20], we have  $b = \frac{1}{\beta_w}$ , and  $X_{min} = \frac{\beta_w}{1+\beta_w}$  for the rescaled CR of Crago et al. [23]. In particular, the physical meaning of  $X_{min}$  in the rescaled CR, i.e., the minimum value of  $\frac{PET_e}{PET_a}$  when  $ET$  reaches zero, is consistent with our estimation of  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  (Table 2).

For the existing CR formulations without any parameters, or the so-called calibration-free formulations, they are essentially special cases of the physically-based CR. For example, when the air is saturated ( $e_a = e_a^*$ ), we have  $\beta_w = \frac{\gamma(T_s - T_a)}{(e_s^* - e_a)} = \frac{\gamma}{\Delta}$ , the CR of Szilagyi [22] becomes identical to the physically-based CR. However, this special case rarely occurs, even for saturated surfaces like oceans and lakes.

The non-linear CR formulation is also similar to the physically-based CR when  $\beta_w \approx 0.22$  [17]. While the non-linear CR formulation has been validated with experimental data, it is not realistic, however, under the driest conditions, i.e.,  $\frac{PET_e}{PET_a} < \frac{\beta_w}{1+\beta_w}$ . This is because the boundary condition of the non-linear CR, i.e.,  $\frac{PET_e}{PET_a} \rightarrow 0$  when  $ET \rightarrow 0$ , is not physically sound, as  $PET_a$  cannot be infinitely large and in fact  $PET_a$  is limited by  $\frac{R_n}{\beta_w}$  as  $ET$  reaches zero and  $H$  equals  $R_n$  (Table 2). To overcome this problem, the non-linear CR has been combined with the rescaled CR to develop yet another calibration-free CR [25]. However, this formulation still represents a special case without physically meaningful parameters such as  $\beta_w$  to account for variations in CR under different conditions.

Compared with these earlier formulations, the physically-based CR has many distinct advantages. First,  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  are clearly defined based on physical processes and can be estimated using observed data. Second, the basis for this new CR is physically sound and its derivation is purely based on shifts in the surface energy balance under wet and dry conditions. Third, the physical meaning of the coefficient of proportionality is clarified as the wet Bowen ratio  $\beta_w$ , which accounts for the degree of asymmetry in the complementary relationship across a wide range of environmental conditions. Moreover,  $\beta_w$  can be directly estimated from observed data without any calibration (Equation (9)). This physically-based CR can therefore be widely applied for estimating  $ET$  across different regions at various time scales. Finally, the physically-based CR clearly quantifies the complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  and the positive relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_e$ , i.e., Equations (12) and (13). This provides an enhanced understanding of the relationships among the three types of ET over land.

Differences between the physically-based CR in Equation (11) and other CR formulations essentially arise from the definition and estimation of  $PET_e$  and particularly  $PET_a$ .  $PET_a$  is commonly estimated using either pan evaporation or inferred from the Penman equation. While both approaches yield plausible  $PET_a$  estimates, neither captures the theoretical upper limit of  $PET_a$  as defined in Equation (7). In practice, the surface temperature of a

small wet area (e.g., a Class A evaporation pan) is typically lower than that of the surrounding dry area ( $T_s$ ), with a corresponding reduction in saturation vapor pressure. A lower  $PET_a$  based on pan evaporation measurements would increase the empirically fitted parameter  $k$  in Equation (4), bringing it closer to unity and reducing the observed asymmetry of the CR. Concurrently, the pan's Bowen ratio becomes lower than  $\beta_w$ , when its surface temperature is lower than  $T_s$  of the surrounding dry area. This is because  $\beta_w$  is positively related to  $T_s$ , as evident from rearranging Equation (9) into the following form:

$$\beta_w = \frac{\gamma}{\Delta + \frac{e_a^* - e_a}{T_s - T_a}} \quad (15)$$

where  $\Delta$  is the slope of the saturation vapor pressure-temperature curve evaluated between  $T_s$  and  $T_a$ . Thus, the coefficient of proportionality,  $k$ , estimated from observations would deviate from the pan's Bowen ratio. These two only converge to and give physical meaning to the parameter  $k$ , i.e.,  $k = \beta_w$ , when the pan's surface temperature equals that of its surrounding environment. This explains why previous CRs and their associated parameters have remained largely empirical (Table 2).

#### 4.3. Implications for Practical Applications of the Complementary Relationship

Application of the physically-based CR for ET estimation requires values for  $\beta_w$ ,  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ , all of which can be calculated using observations of meteorological variables and surface temperature data. However, the limited accessibility of surface temperature data may restrict a broader application of this method for ET estimation. To address this limitation,  $\beta_w$  can be approximated as

$$\beta_w = \alpha \cdot \frac{\gamma}{\Delta} \quad (16)$$

where  $\frac{\gamma}{\Delta}$  can be estimated as a function of air temperature, and the coefficient  $\alpha$  typically varies from 0.15 to 0.3, with a common approximation of  $\alpha \approx 0.24$  [18,35].

While  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  are estimated based on energy balance and aerodynamic principles, respectively, they can also be derived using modified versions of the Penman equation with introduction of an adjustment parameter  $k'$  [18]. For a saturated evaporative surface, the original Penman equation can be used to estimate both  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ , i.e.,  $ET = PET_e = PET_a$  [32]. However, direct application of the Penman equation tends to overestimate  $PET_e$  [37,40,41] while underestimating  $PET_a$  in a dry environment [18]. This dual bias arises from two key factors: (1)  $PET_e$  is defined for a large, saturated surface (Figure 1b), so using meteorological variables corresponding to dry surface conditions inflates its aerodynamic component; (2)  $PET_a$  applies to a small, saturated surface (Figure 1a), but the Penman equation does not account for energy transfer from the surrounding dry environment, leading to underestimated energy supply for evaporation. These issues can be resolved with the adjustment parameter  $k'$ , yielding the modified Penman equations for  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$ :

$$\lambda PET_e = \frac{\Delta R_n + k' \frac{\rho c_p (e_a^* - e_a)}{r_a}}{\Delta + \gamma} \quad (17)$$

$$\lambda PET_a = \frac{\Delta R_n / k' + \frac{\rho c_p (e_a^* - e_a)}{r_a}}{\Delta + \gamma} \quad (18)$$

where  $e_a^*$  is the saturation vapor pressure at air temperature ( $P_a$ ), and  $e_a^* - e_a$  is the vapor pressure deficit. The parameter  $k'$  can be determined by equating  $PET_e$  from Equations (6) and (17), and  $k'$  so determined can be used to compute  $PET_a$  via Equation (18). This approach enables estimation of  $\beta_w$ ,  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  using only routine meteorological variables, thereby expanding the practical applications of the physically-based CR for ET estimation.

## 5. Conclusions

In this study, we demonstrate that the complementary relationship naturally emerges from surface energy balance, achieved by estimating  $PET_e$  and  $PET_a$  using energy balance and aerodynamic principles, respectively. The complementary relationship between  $ET$  and  $PET_a$  fundamentally originates from the partitioning of available energy between latent and sensible heat fluxes, with  $ET$  directly related to the latent heat flux and  $PET_a$  proportional to the sensible heat flux. Furthermore, the complementary relationship is reinforced by the atmospheric response, characterized by  $PET_a$ , to  $ET$  dynamics as surface moisture changes. In contrast,  $ET$  is

positively related to  $PET_e$ , which represents the atmospheric evaporative demand that controls and drives  $ET$  over land. The wet Bowen ratio ( $\beta_w$ ), defined as the Bowen ratio when the surface becomes saturated, quantifies the asymmetry of the complementary relationship. By clarifying the quantitative relationship between the three types of  $ET$ , this study advances mechanistic understanding of the complementary relationship and would promote and facilitate practical application of the complementary relationship for  $ET$  estimation across different regions and time scales.

### Supplementary Materials

The additional data and information can be downloaded at: <https://media.scilit.com/articles/others/2601291058148163/HWR-25110094-Author-SI-of-CR-1.pdf>. Table S1. List of the 146 Fluxnet sites used in this study.

### Author Contributions

S.Z. conceived the study, performed the data analysis, and wrote the initial manuscript. B.Y. provided critical revisions and edits. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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### Data Availability Statement

The Fluxnet2015 dataset is publicly available from <https://fluxnet.org/data/fluxnet2015-dataset/> (accessed on 27 January 2026).

### Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

### Use of AI and AI-Assisted Technologies

No AI tools were utilized for this paper.

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