

# Sub-pixel analysis to enhance the accuracy of evapotranspiration determined using MODIS images

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**Abstract:** A study was carried out to estimate the actual evapotranspiration (ET) over a 1074 km<sup>2</sup> of the humid area of Perak State (Malaysia), where water and evaporation cycle deeply influences the climate, natural resources and human living aspects. Images from both Terra and Aqua platforms of the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor were used for ET estimation by employing the Surface Energy Balance Algorithm for Land (SEBAL) model. As a part of the accuracy assessment process, in-situ measurements on soil temperature and reference ET (ET<sub>0</sub>) were recorded at the time of satellite overpass. In order to enhance the accuracy of the generated ET maps, MODIS images were subjected to sub-pixel analysis by assigning weights for different land surface cover (urban, agriculture and multi-surface areas) reflections. The weighting process was achieved by integrating ET from pure pixels with the respective site-specific ET<sub>0</sub> of each land cover. The enhanced SEBAL model estimated ET exhibited a good correlation with the in-situ measured Penman-Montieth ET<sub>0</sub>, with R<sup>2</sup> values for the Aqua and the Terra platforms of 0.67 and 0.73, respectively. However, the correlation of the non-enhanced ET maps resulted in R<sup>2</sup> values of 0.61 and 0.68 for the Aqua and the Terra platforms, respectively. Hence, the results of this study revealed the feasibility of employing the sub-pixel analysis method for an accurate estimation of ET over large areas.

**Keywords:** evapotranspiration, sub-pixel analysis, MODIS image, MODIS sensor, remote sensing, land surface cover

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## 1 Introduction

Evaporation and transpiration are two processes that concurrently take place and cannot be differentiated. The amount of evaporation from croplands is principally

based on the solar radiation fraction that hits the soil surface. This fraction is decreasing as the crop evolves and grows, where the crop canopy increasingly shades the ground surface beneath the plant. Water is mainly lost through soil evaporation at germination and early stages of plant growth. When the crop is well toned and totally covers the soil surface, the transpiration, which acts at the plants' leaves and stomata, becomes the dominant water losses process from croplands<sup>[1]</sup>.

Investigating ET at regional scale becomes an important matter as it helps in understanding the global changes in the environment as well as when planning to develop water supplies for agricultural schemes or/and other related activities. In addition, ET analysis is always required to develop a hydrological model at any scale for a specific region<sup>[2-7]</sup>.

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Since the fundamental of satellite remote sensing is based on knowledge of the spectral response of surface entities, reflectance from vegetation cover and surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) are considered as the most important two parameters obtained from the optical and the thermal spectral portions of the spectrum, respectively. However, no intensive work has been devoted to study the relationship between vegetation and  $T_s$  with respect to land use/cover. This is because these two parameters are tightly correlated to both the moisture availability and the vegetation condition. Price<sup>[8]</sup> pointed out that there would be no advantage of using sophisticated simulation model for the estimation of ET, if the required surface parameters are not available for the region.

Studies of remote sensing in estimating ET usually include four basic common methods. The first one is known as the simplified energy balance method, which is the basic formula initially extracted at field scale by Jackson<sup>[9]</sup>, and later employed successfully by Pinker<sup>[10]</sup> for mapping daily ET over large areas via surface temperature measurements. This method was also found to be very successful in estimating crop water use in irrigated areas<sup>[11]</sup>. However, the estimation of energy balance components from the remotely sensed data requires series of computations and site-specific meteorological data such as reference ET ( $ET_0$ ), vapor pressure deficit, wind speed, relative humidity, net radiation, etc.<sup>[12]</sup> The second one is the empirical method, which is an empirical relationship between the spectral variables measured from satellites and the ET. As examples, Idso<sup>[13]</sup> developed a linear relationship between evaporation and the net thermal radiation. In another study, Menenti<sup>[14]</sup> determined ET as a linear function of the remote sensing estimated  $T_s$  and the surface albedo. Seguin and Itier<sup>[15]</sup> demonstrated that, at a specific location, there is a strong relationship between the midday  $T_s$  and the daily ET. Also, Kerr<sup>[16]</sup> identified a detailed relationship between the Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) extracted from the NOAA High Resolution Picture Transmission (HRPT) data and the actual ET. Although the empirical methods are widely and successfully applied for ET estimation, most of them are site-specific and can't be used for areas with different

climatic conditions. The third one is the deterministic method, which usually depends on more complicated models such as Soil-Vegetation-Atmosphere Transfer models (SVAT). This model has been designed to simulate the interaction between plant canopy processes and the environment, and to calculate different elements of energy budget<sup>[17]</sup>. The fourth method is the energy balance equation, which is used for ET estimation (equivalent to the latent heat flux LE) using various surface properties such as albedo, leaf area index, vegetation indices and  $T_s$ <sup>[18]</sup>.

The most issue hindering the measurement of ET at ground stations is its dependency on some surface parameters that are so difficult to measure over large and heterogeneous areas<sup>[2,19-22]</sup>. Thus, the effectiveness of such methods will not exceed the areas where parameters are measured. In addition, the ground-based estimation of ET is considered as a vegetation-type-specific, and the estimation accuracy is affected by surface resistance, which introduces more difficulties in applying the ground-based ET on a regional scale.

On the other hand, the estimation of ET from the multi-temporal resolution sensors such as MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) and NOAA (National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration) does not represent the real signature of surface features, because of the coarse spatial resolution. As a result, the value of ET is always produced from a holistic land surface cover within the image pixel, what leads to over/under estimations of ET.

This study aimed particularly at providing an enhanced and cost-effective qualitative estimation of ET through the sub-pixel analysis. The study employed the weighting approach on ET maps of three different land covers generated through the Surface Energy Balance Algorithm for Land (SEBAL). The three land cover classes included cultivated area (agriculture) represented by Seberang Perak's paddy field (SP), urban area represented by Sitiawan (SITI) city and multi-cover area represented by a weather station allocated at the field of Universiti Teknologi PETRONAS (UTP). The study also intended to enhance the value of the MODIS satellite extracted  $T_s$  through a correlation process against the soil

temperature measured in-situ at the time of satellite overpass.

## 2 Materials and methods

### 2.1 Study area

The study area covered two distinctive districts of Perak state (Malaysia), which were Perak Tengah and Manjung. The two neighbor districts lie between latitudes 4°00'-4°30'N and longitudes 100°30'-101°00'E (Figure 1) and separated by Sungai Perak (Perak River) which ran along the study area from the north to the south

and surrounded Manjung district from the southern side to the coast downstream.

Perak Tengah district encompassed an area of 1282.05 km<sup>2</sup> comprised 11 localities. This district was located in the center of the state of Perak, in an elongated shape from north to south, where the Sungai Perak River spited it into two halves on the left and right. Manjung was surrounded by only two districts Kerian from the north and Perak Tengah from the east, while the coastline occupied the remaining directions. The total area under the study was about 1074 km<sup>2</sup>[23].

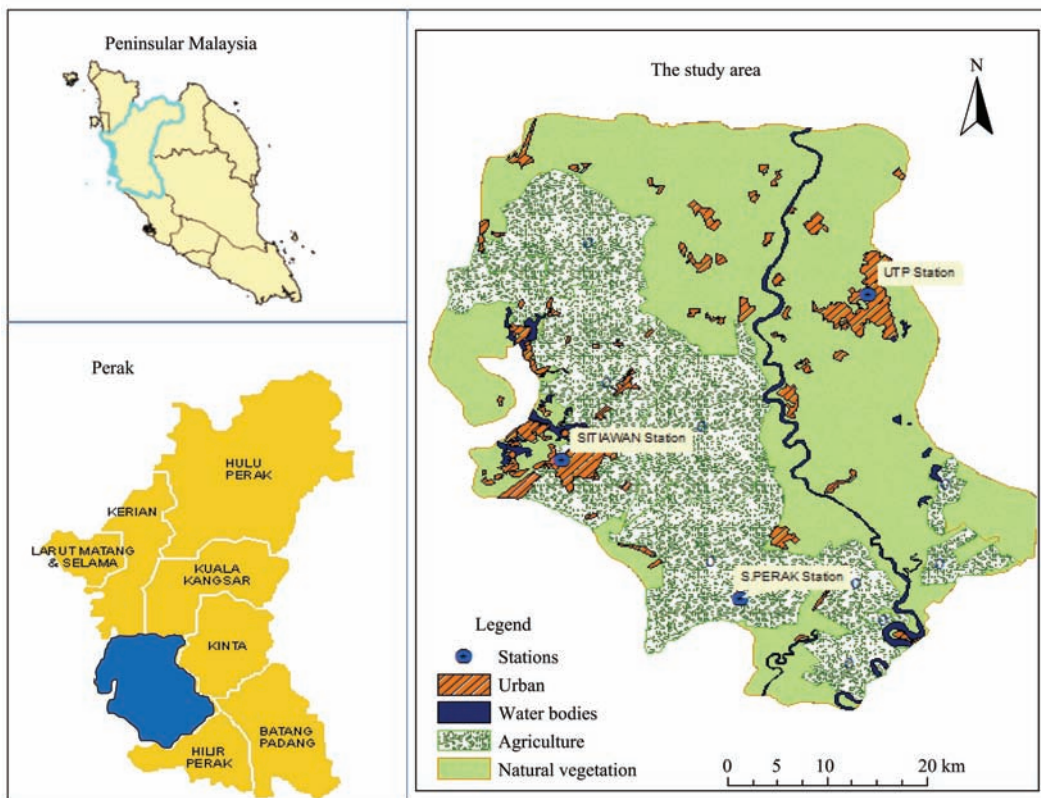


Figure 1 The study area with classified land use land cover map for surface representation

### 2.2 Topography, climate & Land use/land cover

The study area was occupied mainly by four types of land use/cover which were the urban areas represented by some cities and rural areas scattered along the river (Sungai Perak). Some villages lie inside agricultural lands and forest areas.

Other part of the area was sort of bare soils scattered beside the residential areas and some hilly areas. The vegetation cover took the bigger portion of the area and was divided into two types: The first portion was the natural vegetation cover, which included the jungles, natural trees, grassland and some pasture lands. The second portion of the vegetation cover was agricultural

fields of paddy, oil palm and coconut managed by some agricultural companies. The last type of the land surface cover was the water bodies, which was represented mainly by Perak River beside a random distribution of some lakes over the area as abandoned Tin mines.

The weather at the study area was warm and sunny, although at night was cool the entire year through, with periodic rains in the evenings. Temperature was relatively constant, which varied from 23°C to 33°C, with humidity typically greater than 80%. Annual rainfall mostly measured at about 3200 mm<sup>[24]</sup>. The periodic wind flow patterns along with the local topographic characteristics determined the rainfall distribution patterns

across the country.

### 2.3 MODIS satellite images

MODIS (Level 1B) images were acquired from the Level-1 and Atmosphere Archive and Distribution System website (LAADS; <http://ladsweb.nascom.nasa.gov>) for the estimation of ET. The MODIS (Level 1B) products included daily composites of land surface temperature ( $T_S$ ; Bands 31 and 32) of MOD11A1 and MYD11A1 products (1 km resolution). In addition, surface reflectance products (MOD09 and MYD09) comprised red (RED), near infrared (NIR), and blue (B) bands (500 m resolution). The quantity and period of acquired MODIS products are listed in Table 1.

**Table 1 Web-based MODIS images downloaded for the study area**

Sensor	Quantity	Period of acquisition	Processing level	Type
MODIS	22	1 <sup>st</sup> June – 30 <sup>th</sup> August 2012	(Level 1B)	Daily
Terra/Aqua	14	1 <sup>st</sup> February – 30 <sup>th</sup> April 2011		

### 2.4 Ancillary data collection

For calculating  $ET_0$ , maximum and minimum daily air Temperature data (February-April 2011 and June-September 2012), mean daily wind speed and mean daily relative humidity, for Sitiawan and Seberang Perak station, were collected from the Malaysian Meteorological Department (MMD)<sup>[23]</sup>. UTP station in turn, provided a temperature gauge for measuring temperature, an anemometer for measuring wind speed, a hygrometer for measuring humidity, a barometer for measuring atmospheric pressure, a rain gauge for measuring liquid-equivalent precipitation and a pyranometer for measuring solar radiation, in addition to the facilities of measuring evaporation, soil temperature and soil moisture at a depth of 0.3 m. The weather parameters, required for the calculation of  $ET_0$ , were collected for the entire study period.

### 2.5 In-situ measurements

Soil temperature was measured close to the meteorological stations at three variable depths in the soil (5 cm), which was assumed to represent surface temperature, 10 cm represented the near surface and 15 cm which was achieved at agricultural fields only. The objective behind measuring soil temperature was to produce an enhanced satellite  $T_S$  through applying in-situ

measurements of soil temperature at the same time of the satellites overpass on the study area. This kind of application was made to simulate the absolute atmospheric correction. In which, the path radiance was corrected using calibration target, where, regression was used to predict the correct value of the image<sup>[25,26]</sup>. Moreover, the application also meant to correlate the measured  $T_S$  within three different depths on the soil to examine the workability of the split window technique in the retrieval of  $T_S$ , thus, more accurate  $T_S$  value can be used for ET extraction.

### 2.6 Formulae for ET extraction

MODIS Land surface temperature ( $T_S$ ), which is a product of Aqua MODIS (e.g. MYD11A1 products) and Terra-MODIS (e.g. MOD11A1 products), is offered per-pixel temperature values every day. In order to predict the  $T_S$  and Emissivity ( $\epsilon_s$ ) from the acquired images, a mean value of  $5 \times 5$  pixels corresponding to the location of weather station was extracted and considered as pure pixel. The simulation and execution of algorithms were performed on the pure-pixel and correlated with the ground measured  $ET_0$  during the accuracy assessment. In addition, in-situ measurements on soil temperature also collected on times of satellite overpass using a mini thermometer with a measurement rang of  $-50^\circ\text{C}$  to  $+250^\circ\text{C}$  and an accuracy of  $\pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$ .

### 2.7 Split-window algorithm for deriving MODIS $T_S$

The general form of the split-window equation can be written as shown in Equation (1)<sup>[27]</sup>:

$$T_S = T_{31} + A(T_{31} - T_{32}) + B \quad (1)$$

where,  $T_S$  is the land surface temperature, K;  $T_{31}$  and  $T_{32}$  are the brightness temperature from channel 31 and 32 respectively, K;  $A$  and  $B$  are the coefficients determined by the impact of atmospheric conditions responsible for the thermal radiance transmission in channels 31 and 32.

### 2.8 Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI)

The NDVI layer was generated from the spectral reflectance of the red (0.62-0.67  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and near-infrared, NIR (0.841-0.876  $\mu\text{m}$ ) regions of the spectrum, as it is shown in Equation (2)<sup>[28]</sup>.

$$\text{NDVI} = \frac{(\text{NIR} - \text{RED})}{(\text{NIR} + \text{RED})} \quad (2)$$

## 2.9 Temperature enhancement

Satellite  $T_S$  was used in conjunction with soil temperature recorded at three depths (5 cm, 10 cm, and 15 cm) measured in-situ. A linear regression sketch between  $T_S$  and the soil temperature was used, in order to apply the absolute atmospheric correction for the path radiance removal. This procedure was confirmed and suggested by Jensen<sup>[25]</sup> as a method for  $T_S$  calibration in optical sensors. Since satellite-based  $T_S$  gives a mixed signature and reflects a combined temperature of soil and vegetation, such kind of ground truthing which contains measurements of soil temperature was used to surpass the vegetation's signal attenuation of emissivity. Thus, a linear regression between satellite-based  $T_S$  and ground

measurements of soil temperature was conducted to enhance the resultant surface temperature where the temperature from satellites were extracted and unified by the bulk averaging method to enable a good comparison with the point nature of ground  $T_S$  measurements. Figure 2 shows an example of the resultant correlation between the three  $T_S$  sets for UTP location. The values of soil temperature at the three soil depths were correlated against the corresponding  $T_S$  value extracted from satellite image ( $T_S$  as a single value after bulk averaging). The satellite extracted  $T_S$  was found to be highly resemble to the measured soil temperature at 5 cm depth, which was thus used along with the NDVI to estimate ET.

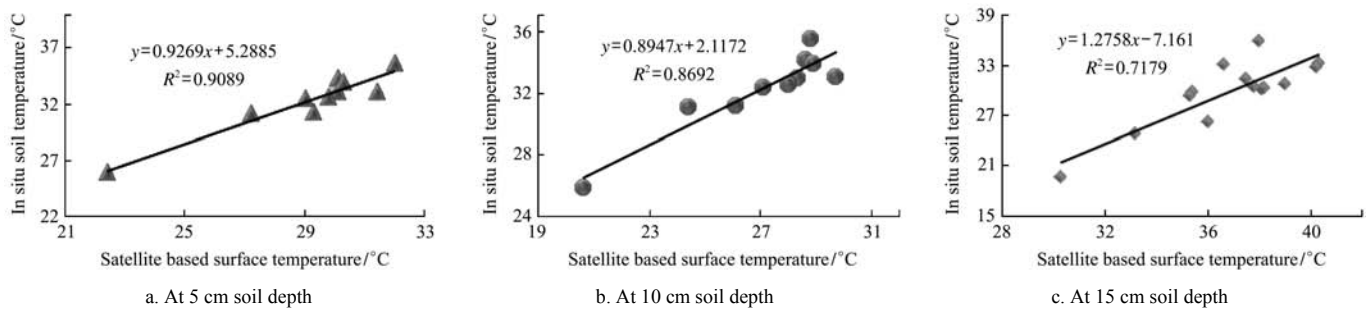


Figure 2 Correlation between in-situ soil temperature and satellite  $T_S$  for accuracy enhancement along the three depths of MODIS over UTP location

## 2.10 Estimation of ET using SEBAL

ET estimation (equivalent to the latent heat flux LE) by remote sensing is dependent on evaluating various surface properties of the energy balance equation such as albedo, leaf area index, vegetation cover, and  $T_S$ . When thinking about instantaneous conditions, the energy balance formula is written as shown in Equation (3)<sup>[29]</sup>:

$$\lambda ET = R_n - G - H \quad (3)$$

where,  $\lambda ET$  is the latent heat flux calculated as a residual of the energy budget,  $W/m^2$ ;  $R_n$  is the net radiation,  $W/m^2$ ;  $G$  is the soil heat flux,  $W/m^2$ ;  $H$  is the sensible heat flux to the air,  $W/m^2$ .

The net radiation is estimated spatially as the difference between the incoming shortwave radiation ( $R_s$ ) and the outgoing long wave radiation ( $RL$ , in the form of air transmissivity ( $\varepsilon_a$ ) and temperature ( $T_a$ )) as expressed in Equation (4):

$$R_n = (1 - \alpha)R_{s\downarrow} + \varepsilon_a \sigma T_a^4 - \varepsilon_s \sigma T_s^4 \quad (W \cdot m^{-2}) \quad (4)$$

where,  $R_s$  represents the solar or shortwave radiation,

$MJ/m^2 \cdot d$ ;  $\alpha$  is the albedo or canopy reflection coefficient, which is 0.23 for the hypothetical grass reference crop [dimensionless];  $T_a$  is the air temperature, K;  $T_s$  is the surface temperature, K;  $\varepsilon_s$  is the surface emissivity calculated as the logarithmic value of NDVI from the relation  $\varepsilon_s = 1.0094 + 0.047 \times \ln(NDVI)$ <sup>[28]</sup>;  $\sigma$  is the Stefan-Boltzman constant ( $5.67 \times 10^{-8} W/m^2 \cdot K^4$ ) and  $\varepsilon_a$  is the air transmissivity taken as in [30].

$G$  is the soil heat flux ( $W/m^2$ ), and was calculated from the relation given in Equation (5)<sup>[31]</sup>:

$$G = R_n \left[ \frac{T_s}{\infty} \right] (0.0038 \infty + 0.0074 \infty^2) (1 - 0.98NDVI^4) \quad (5)$$

$H$  is the sensible heat flux ( $W/m^2$ ), which was calculated from the relation presented in Equation (6)<sup>[32]</sup>:

$$H = \frac{\rho c_p dT}{r_{ah}} \quad (6)$$

where,  $\rho$  is the air density,  $kg/m^3$ ;  $c_p$  is the specific heat of air,  $29.3 J/kg \cdot ^\circ C$ ;  $dT$  is the near surface temperature difference, K;  $r_{ah}$  is the aerodynamic resistance to heat

transport, s/m.

### 2.11 Assessment of daily ET from satellites

The obtained latent heat flux ( $\lambda ET$ ) for the time of satellite overpass ( $W/m^2$ ) as a residual of energy budget algorithm was converted to hourly instantaneous value of the evapotranspiration ( $ET_{inst}$ ) as given in Equation (7)<sup>[33]</sup>:

$$ET_{inst} = 3600 \frac{\lambda ET}{\lambda} \quad (7)$$

where,  $ET_{inst}$  is the instantaneous ET, mm/h; 3600 is a time conversion from seconds to hours;  $\lambda$  is the latent heat of vaporization or the absorbed heat when a kilogram of water evaporates, J/kg.

Finally, the daily  $ET_d$  was estimated in the form of temporal integration of the resultant instantaneous ET ( $ET_{inst}$ ), as proposed by Sobrino<sup>[34]</sup>, and was used to estimate the daily ET using satellite potentials in collaboration with the terrestrial data (Equation (8)). This integration was based on the assumption that the evaporative fraction at the daily scale is mostly resemble to the one that derived instantaneously at the time of satellite's data acquisition<sup>[35,36]</sup>.

$$ET_d = \int_0^{24} ET_{inst}(t) dt \quad (8)$$

where,  $ET_{inst}(t)$  was used in hourly time base and  $ET_d$  is the daily  $ET_0$ .

The evaporative fraction  $A$  was computed from the instantaneous surface energy balance at time of satellite overpass for each pixel (Equation 9)<sup>[37,38]</sup>.

$$A = \frac{\lambda E}{R_n - G_o} = \frac{\lambda E}{\lambda E + H_o} \quad (9)$$

where,  $\lambda E$  is the energy assigned for water evaporation. It is reliant on the atmospheric and soil moisture conditions balance.

### 2.12 Daily $ET_0$ from meteorological data

In order to verify and validate the ET extracted from satellite images, reference ET ( $ET_0$ ) was computed utilizing three classical/well-known methods, Penman-Monteith (PM)<sup>[2]</sup>, Hargreaves<sup>[39,40]</sup> and Turc<sup>[41]</sup>. Because Penman-Monteith (PM) approach has successfully combined the aerodynamic approach with the energy balance method to estimate  $ET_0$ , it is considered as a global standard for estimating  $ET_0$  based on four meteorological data (temperature, wind speed,

radiation and relative humidity)<sup>[42]</sup>. Thus, it was used as the reference for  $ET_0$  estimates throughout the whole ET findings. Then, all meteorological parameters collected from the ground stations were applied in PM, Hargreaves and Turc methods with daily bases considering the satellite's overpassing time chronology. The PM<sup>[2]</sup>, Hargreaves<sup>[39,40]</sup> and Turc<sup>[41]</sup> formulae are shown below in Equations (10)-(12), respectively.

$$ET_0 = \frac{0.408 \Delta (R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u_2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma (1 + 0.34 u_2)} \quad (10)$$

where,  $ET_0$  is the reference evapotranspiration, mm/d;  $R_n$  is the net radiation at the crop surface,  $MJ/m^2 \cdot d$ ;  $G$  is the Soil heat flux density,  $MJ/m^2 \cdot d$ ;  $T$  is the mean daily air temperature at 2 m height, °C;  $u_2$  is the wind speed at 2 m height, m/s;  $e_s$  is the saturation vapour pressure, kPa;  $e_a$  is the actual vapour pressure, kPa;  $(e_s - e_a)$  is the saturation vapour pressure deficit, kPa;  $\Delta$  is the slope of the vapour pressure curve,  $kPa/^\circ C$ ;  $\gamma$  is the psychometric constant,  $kPa/^\circ C$ .

$$ET = 0.0023 \left( \frac{R_a}{\lambda} \right) (T + 17.8) (T_{max} - T_{min})^{0.5} \quad (11)$$

where, ET is the daily potential evapotranspiration rate, mm/d;  $R_a$  is the extraterrestrial radiation in the hour period,  $MJ/m^2 \cdot d$ ;  $T$  is the mean temperature, °C;  $\lambda$  is the latent heat of vaporization, kJ/kg,  $T_{max}$  is the daily maximum temperature, °C; and  $T_{min}$  is the daily minimum temperature.

$$ET_p = \alpha [(23.9001 R_s) + 50] \left( \frac{T}{T + 15} \right) \quad (12)$$

where,  $\alpha$  is a constant, 0.01333;  $R_s$  is measured radiation,  $MJ/m^2 \cdot d$ .

### 2.13 Implementation strategy

The study intended to generate a suitable ET estimation algorithm for the study area concerning the influence of the  $T_S$  extracted from the thermal bands of satellite sensors. The  $T_S$  enhancement was made through an empirical equation obtained by linear correlation relationships among the  $T_S$  and soil temperature collected from ground measurements. The following flow chart (Figure 3) shows the steps achieved towards the generation and the validation of the analyzed sub-pixel ET from MODIS.

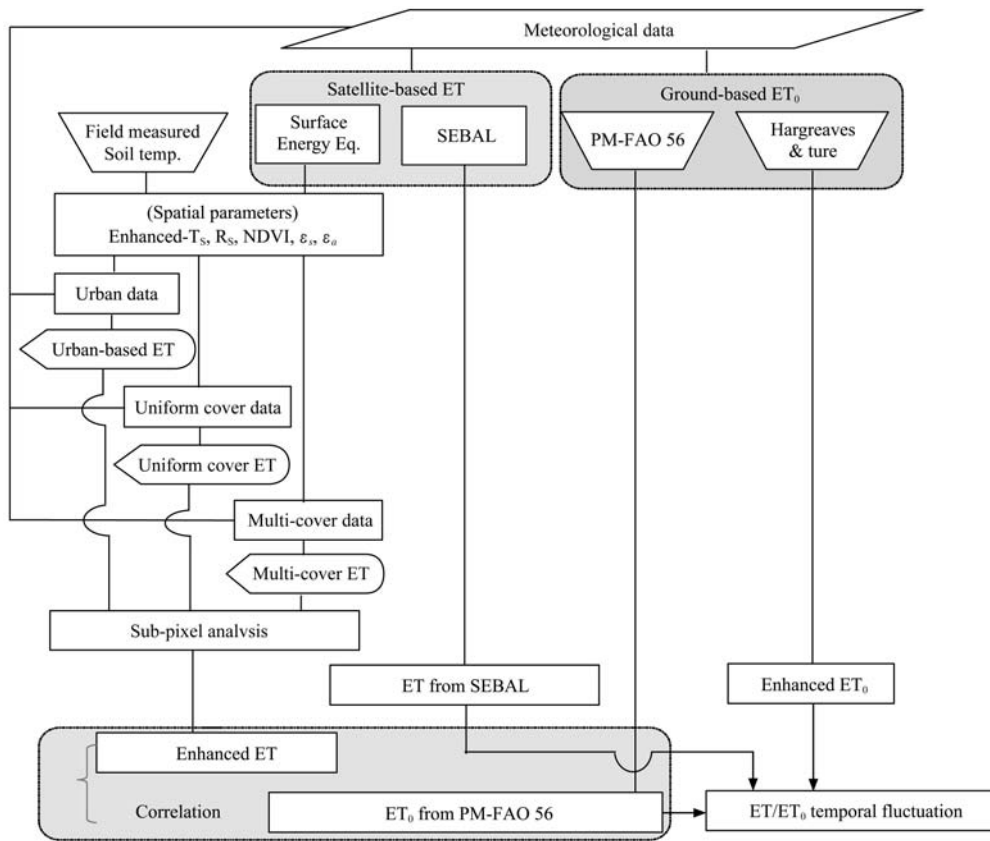


Figure 3 Flow chart of the energy budget equation application for assessing ET

### 2.14 Derivation of weighted ET map

The total ET map of the pixel-based image was finally calculated as a summation of the three ET values at the pixel base ( $ET_{SUM_i}$ ). Then, the fraction ( $Fr_i$ ) of each ET value shared the single pixel was calculated as a percentage of the pixel ET value of the particular station (UTP, Sitiawan and S. Perak) to the total ET at the pixel. Equations (13)-(20) describe mathematically the steps towards the calculation of ET fractions over the study area.

$$ET_{SUM_i} = \sum_{i=1}^n (ET_{UTP_i}, ET_{SITI_i}, ET_{SP_i}) \quad (13)$$

$$Fr_{UTP_i} = \frac{ET_{UTP_i}}{ET_{SUM_i}} \quad (14)$$

$$Fr_{SITI_i} = \frac{ET_{SITI_i}}{ET_{SUM_i}} \quad (15)$$

$$Fr_{SP_i} = \frac{ET_{SP_i}}{ET_{SUM_i}} \quad (16)$$

The weighting ( $Wi$ ) of each land surface cover type at the pixel base was determined by applying the fraction of each station to the corresponding full ET pixel. Finally, the sub-pixel analyzed evapotranspiration ( $ET_i$ ) at the image pixel base was calculated as a summation of the three different weights of ET pixels.

$$W_{UTP_i} = Fr_{UTP_i} \times ET_{UTP_i} \quad (17)$$

$$W_{SITI_i} = Fr_{SITI_i} \times ET_{SITI_i} \quad (18)$$

$$W_{SP_i} = Fr_{SP_i} \times ET_{SP_i} \quad (19)$$

$$ET_i = W_{UTP_i} + W_{SITI_i} + W_{SP_i} \quad (20)$$

More clarification is shown in (Figure 4), in which ET was extracted according to the weights of the land surface cover types available within this pixel as a result of the sub-pixel analysis as in (a) in Figure 4. On the other hand, task (b) shows the same image pixel in its ordinary extraction process which produced ET value from the holistic features of the land surface cover.

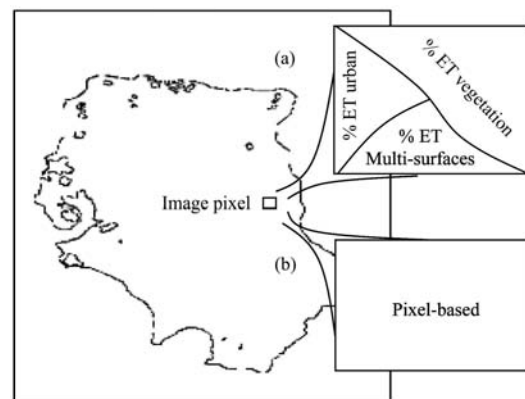


Figure 4 ET extraction based on (a) sub-pixel analysis and (b) the ordinary pixel-based ET

### 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Spatial ET versus ground ET<sub>0</sub>

Comparative plots of the resultant satellite ET (enhanced pixel/generalized reflection pixel) from SEBAL model beside the ground-based values of ET<sub>0</sub> calculated using three ground estimators are shown in Figure 5. The SEBAL approach used to assess ET was produced from satellite based-T<sub>S</sub> and satellite enhanced-T<sub>S</sub> and analyzed sub-pixel. MODIS Terra images were captured at morning time (10:30 AM), where temperature and solar radiation values were relatively low. For the mid-day session, MODIS Aqua images which have an overpass time around (2:20 PM) were acquired and analyzed to extract ET and then plotted against the measured ET<sub>0</sub> from Penman-Monteith, Hargreaves and Turc methods.

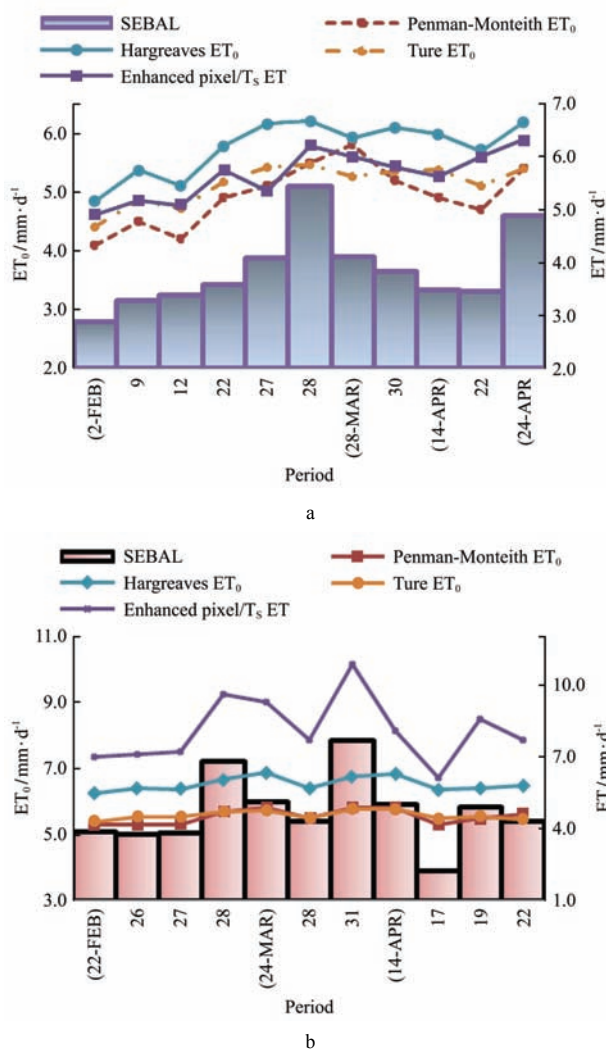


Figure 5 Scatterplots of satellite-estimated ET and ordinary-measured ET<sub>0</sub> at study locations from (a) MODIS Terra and (b) Aqua

Due to the tremendous interference between the different vegetation species and surface entities within the multi-surface and the urban portion of the study area, and because of the inconsistency of assigning crop coefficients to ET<sub>0</sub> of all these variable types of vegetation, the study intended to correlate the satellite ET with the reference ET<sub>0</sub>. It could be seen in Figure 5 below, the alteration in satellite's ET values and attitudes are very noticeable with correspondence to the ordinary ones.

It can be noticed that, the extracted ET produced better results when the enhanced pixel/T<sub>S</sub> was used along with the NDVI, this could be seen obviously from the validation of the resultant ET using the reserved satellite images with reference to the ET<sub>0</sub> from FAO Penman-Monteith method.

The extracted ET from the images was found to be resembled to the FAO-56 ET<sub>0</sub> to a very far extent, particularly from MODIS Terra images which overpasses the area at morning times with an average ET of 6 mm/day. On the other hand, an overestimation of the spatial ET values was observed over parts of the study area from MODIS Aqua images. This might be due to the high dose of T<sub>S</sub> and solar radiation coming in the form of short waves and the high surface albedo captured by this sensor during the mid-day. Simple justification is that, the field-based measurements of ET<sub>0</sub> involved the incorporation of wind speed and relative humidity found to be very effective parameters that influence the evaporative fraction of land surface cover. On the other hand, the wind speed in the spatial assessment of ET was only considered for assessing the ground heat flux which was a small portion of the energy flux which is mostly neglected for daily ET.

The normal-pixel ET produced from SEBAL model showed relatively low values (underestimation compared to FAO ET<sub>0</sub>) over locations where images from MODIS satellite were used (both Terra and Aqua). This might be attributed to the scale disparity between the thermal bands used for T<sub>S</sub> estimation (1 km×1 km) and the optical bands used for NDVI extraction (250 m×250 m). For SEBAL model, the course resolution may have dominated the vegetation signature causing more



representation of the cold temperature ( $T_{cold}$ ). Figure 6 shows examples of the resultant ET maps extracted from MODIS Terra and Aqua images.

The spatial distribution of ET revealed a great variation in ET values along the three different land

surface covers, where the least ET values (the gray and blue colors of Figures 6a and 6b, respectively) were observed to be over the urban areas, while the agricultural land sector produced the highest ET, illustrated by the brown color for both (a) and (b).

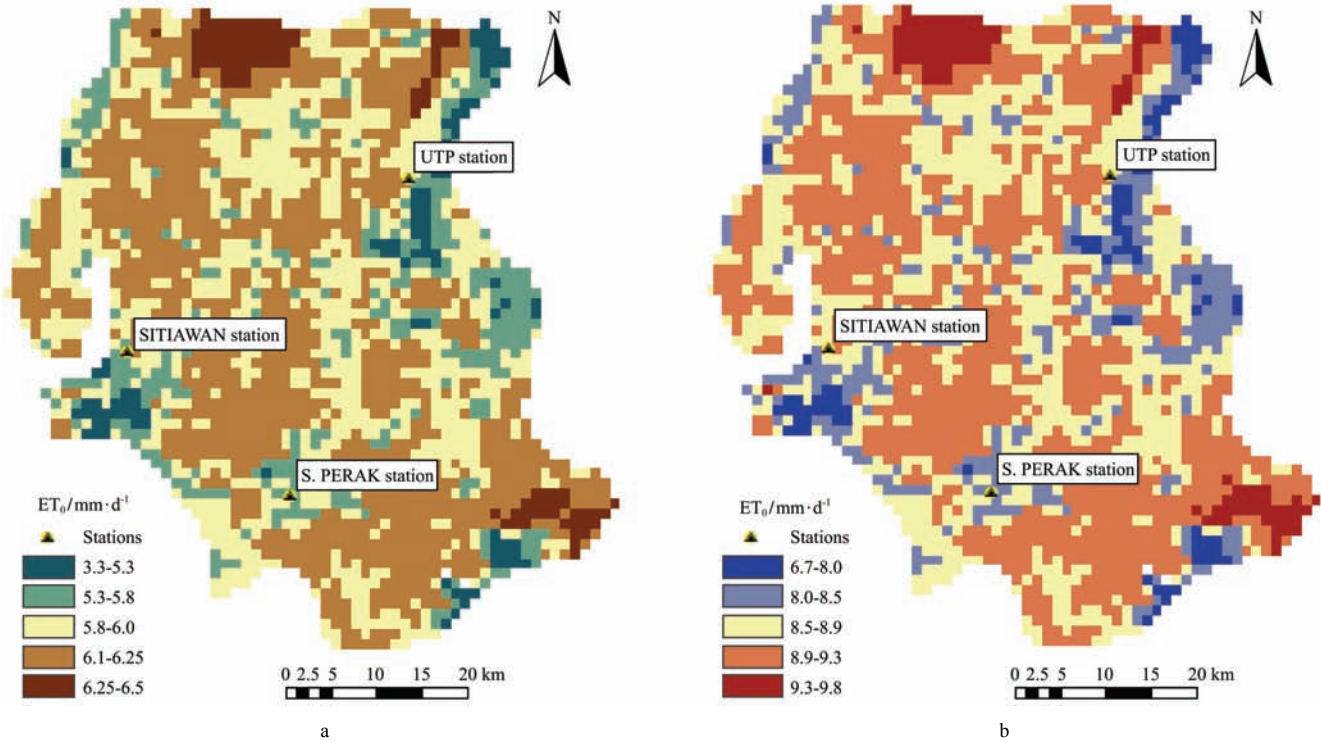


Figure 6 ET extracted from (a) Enhanced-pixel ET of MODIS Terra, and (b) Enhanced-pixel ET of MODIS Aqua

### 3.2 Algorithms validation

The study intended to examine the accuracy of the generated ET from the analyzed sub-pixel qualitatively through validating the ET values calculated using the weighting approach for all cells in the study area with the generalized-pixel ET. In which, the reserved datasets of MODIS Terra and field measurements of morning times were used. While, MODIS Aqua images were used for the mid-day session where temperature and radiation

intensity are slightly high. Figure 7 shows the validation of MODIS Terra and Aqua satellites over the study area for ET estimations under the sub-pixel analysis and generalized pixel versus FAO 56  $ET_0$  as a reference value. All ET values, which were estimated from the sub-pixel analysis (weighting approach) produced better results when compared to the ordinary estimated ET with high  $R^2$  values (67%-73%).

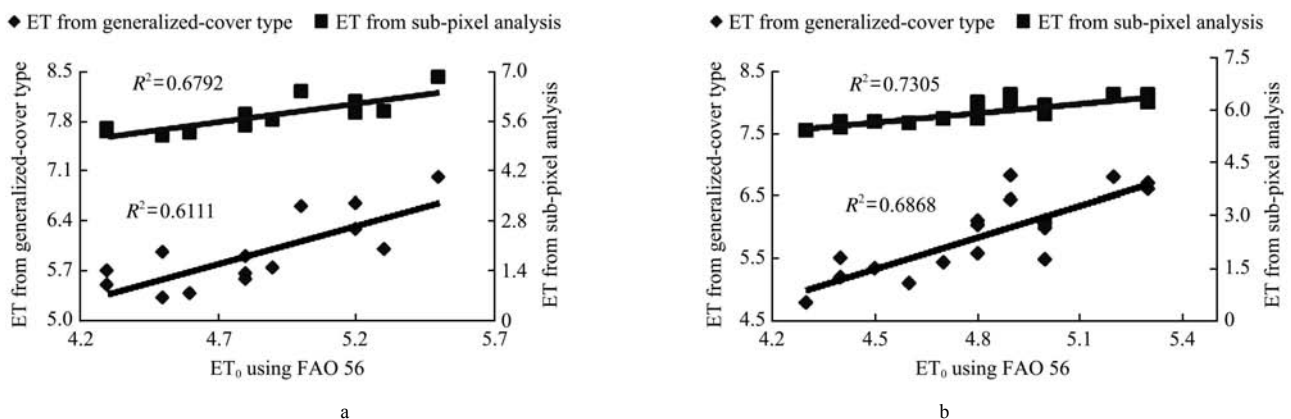


Figure 7 ET validation using generalized land surface cover and sub-pixel analysis from MODIS Aqua (a) and MODIS Terra images (b)

The represented validation achieved by the two spatial ET types, assured the usefulness of the sub-pixel analysis (weighting approach) in producing a valuable estimation of the ET from the coarse image's pixel compounds; specially for producing values closer to the  $ET_0$  measured at three ground stations with different meteorological aspects. It could be distinguished from the browsed accuracies that, the applied sub-pixel analysis is mostly in a good agreement with the concept of point-measurement of ET with regard to its spatial and temporal distribution along the variable surface cover lands.

#### 4 Conclusions

A study was carried out to provide a satellite-based cost-effective method to estimate the actual evapotranspiration (ET) over a humid area using optical/thermal infrared images of MODIS sensors. The study employed the weighting approach in order to produce a type-specific land surface cover ET from three dissimilar surface cover types. The specific conclusions of the study are as follows:

1) The average ET from MODIS Terra was found to be 6 mm/d over the study area; however, MODIS Aqua images provided overestimated spatial ET values over parts of the study area. The overestimation ranged from 16% to 54%.

2) An experimental validation of satellite estimated ET and calculated  $ET_0$  produced  $R^2$  values of 0.73 for the sub-pixels analyzed ET and 0.68 for ET derived from generalized-cover pixel of MODIS Terra images. For MODIS Aqua data, the  $R^2$  values were determined at 0.67 for the sub-pixels analyzed ET and 0.61 for ET obtained from generalized-cover pixel.

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