

Summary of major revisions

We have carefully considered all the comments and made point-to-point modifications in the revised manuscript.

Firstly, we have more precisely described the datasets as “the first data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land-surface radiation and heat fluxes”.

Secondly, following the reviewers’ suggestions, we have additionally incorporated 44 test sites to validate and compare the performance of the CoSEB-based datasets with mainstream products (Section 4.2) and with the ERA5-Land datasets (Figs. S6 and S7).

Thirdly, we have (1) added a new table (Table S3) summarizing the mean accuracy of the training datasets of the renewed CoSEB model to evaluate potential overfitting; (2) briefly described the optimization of hyperparameters for the renewed CoSEB model (Section 3); and (3) added a new table (Table S4) presenting the importance scores of different feature variables for estimating daily surface radiation and heat fluxes.

Fourthly, we have included new experiments to (1) illustrate the relationship between the energy (radiation) imbalance ratio derived from RF-based uncoordinated models and three critical input variables (Fig. S1); (2) investigate the impact of lagged effects of input variables on model performance (Fig. S4); (3) demonstrate the effects of incorporating additional radiation components in the renewed CoSEB model (Fig. S5) compared with the original version by Wang et al. (2025).

Lastly, in Section 5, we have discussed the selection of 19 input feature variables, the uncertainty introduced by the downscaling of ERA5-Land datasets, the consistent spatial patterns between CoSEB-based datasets and CESM Large Ensemble Project (Fig. S8) while noting that a more detailed analysis of their spatial-temporal patterns and variability could be conducted in future work.

Accordingly, the texts, figures, and tables have been updated throughout the manuscript. We believe our manuscript has been greatly improved by following the reviewers’ comments and suggestions.

Responses to the Comments and Suggestions

Reviewer #1:

This paper presents an energy conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000 to 2020. The dataset is generated by the model of Coordinated estimates of land Surface Energy Balance components (CoSEB), with a combination of GLASS and MODIS remote sensing data, ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets, topographic data, CO₂ concentration data, and observations at 258 eddy covariance sites worldwide from the AmeriFlux, FLUXNET, EuroFlux, OzFlux, ChinaFLUX and TPDC. The primary merit of this new model is energy-conservation. Although the dataset might be useful, this dataset is not the first energy conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes as claimed by the authors. Therefore, major revisions are required before the paper is accepted.

Ans: Thank you very much for your valuable comments and suggestions. We sincerely appreciate your recognition of the dataset and the CoSEB model's merit in ensuring energy conservation. We would like to clarify that our initial statement, which described the datasets as “the first energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes,” may not have been entirely accurate. After careful consideration, we have revised the manuscript to more precisely describe the datasets as “**the first data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land-surface radiation and heat fluxes**”. Besides, we have carefully considered all the comments and suggestions from you and another reviewer and made corresponding modifications and clarifications in the revised manuscript. More detailed information of our revisions can be found in the item-by-item response below.

Specific comments:

1. The authors claim that “This study presents the first energy conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes”, but reanalysis datasets, such as ERA5 which is used as inputs of this new dataset, also provide energy conservation surface fluxes for these energy fluxes. Maybe the authors want to say that this is the first remote sensing-based dataset? But the ERA5 radiative fluxes, which are not remote sensing-based, are used to generate surface fluxes in this paper, so this dataset is neither the first remote sensing-based dataset.

Ans: We sincerely thank the reviewer for this insightful comment. We acknowledge that reanalysis datasets, such as ERA5-Land, can in principle calculate these fluxes based on surface energy conservation. However, these reanalysis datasets rarely include all eight flux components directly. For example, ERA5-Land does not explicitly provide upward shortwave radiation, upward longwave radiation, net radiation or soil heat flux. Additionally, we would also like to clarify that the CoSEB-based datasets were developed by integrating both remote sensing products (e.g., PTC from MOD44B, LAI and FVC from GLASS, DEM, slope, and aspect from GMTED2010) and meteorological reanalysis data as inputs. It should be noted that widely used surface radiation and heat flux products, commonly referred to as remote sensing-based datasets, generally require meteorological reanalysis data as

inputs, e.g., the MOD16 ET product (Mu et al., 2011), SSEBop ET product (Senay et al., 2020), and GLASS radiation products (Wang et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2022), rather than relying solely on remote sensing data. Therefore, although our CoSEB-based datasets incorporate meteorological data from ERA5-Land in addition to remote sensing data, we believe it appropriate to refer to them as remote sensing-based datasets.

After careful consideration, we have revised the manuscript to more precisely describe the datasets as “the first data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land-surface radiation and heat fluxes”. We have revised this in the new manuscript as follows:

Abstract:

“This study presents the first data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000 to 2020 ... The developed CoSEB-based datasets are strikingly advantageous in that [1] they are the first data-driven global datasets that satisfy both surface radiation balance ($SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and heat balance ($LE + H + G = Rn$) among the eight fluxes,...”

5 Discussion

“The main advantages of our CoSEB-based datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes lie in that [1] they are the first data-driven global datasets that satisfy both surface radiation balance ($SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and heat balance ($LE + H + G = Rn$) among the eight fluxes, as demonstrated by both the RIR and EIR of 0, ...”

“Despite these uncertainties, it is worth emphasizing that our work was the first attempt to innovatively develop data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes with high accuracies.”

7 Summary and Conclusion

“This study for the first time developed data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes...”

“The CoSEB-based datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes are the first data-driven global datasets that satisfy both surface radiation balance ($SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and heat balance ($LE + H + G = Rn$) among the eight fluxes.”

2. The merit of this new dataset is still unclear to me. According to Lines 171-180, ERA5 downward solar radiation and net thermal radiation at the surface is used in this paper, but why not simply use ERA5 fluxes if someone need to surface fluxes? The new dataset might be more accurate than ERA5 in places where ground-based observations are used to generate the new dataset, but the ground sites are sparse. To solve this problem, the authors should compare in-situ measurements with both the new data and ERA5 data in independent sites (i. e., sites that are not used in the generation of the new dataset).

Ans: We sincerely appreciate the reviewer's insightful comment and suggestion. We would like to clarify that the ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets do not explicitly provide upward shortwave radiation, upward longwave radiation, net radiation, or soil heat flux, although these components can theoretically be computed using surface radiation and heat balance principles. The purpose of our work was to innovatively provide energy-conservation surface radiation and heat fluxes based on data-driven technique. This is motivated by the fact that existing data-driven products (e.g., FLUXCOM and GLASS) estimate each energy component separately, leading to obvious energy imbalance among these components (Wang et al., 2025).

To further address the reviewer's concern, we have compared estimates from CoSEB-based datasets and ERA5-Land datasets with in-situ observations from 44 sites (collected from recently published JapanFlux and updated AmeriFlux, see the sites for "test" in Table S1), which are independent from the 258 sites that are used for model construction and datasets generation. As demonstrated by the comparison results (see Figs. S6 and S7), the CoSEB-based datasets exhibit higher accuracy than the ERA5-Land datasets in estimating surface energy fluxes, especially in estimating SW_{OUT} , H and G. We have discussed this in the third paragraph of Section 5 in the revised manuscript with the following sentences:

“Furthermore, the CoSEB-based datasets outperformed the ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets in estimating surface energy fluxes (where SW_{OUT} , LW_{OUT} , Rn and G for the ERA-Land were inferred from surface radiation balance and heat balance), particularly for SW_{OUT} , H and G, with RMSE reductions of 0.13-8.15 W/m² when validated against in situ observations at the 44 test sites (Figs. S6 and S7 in the Supplementary Material).”

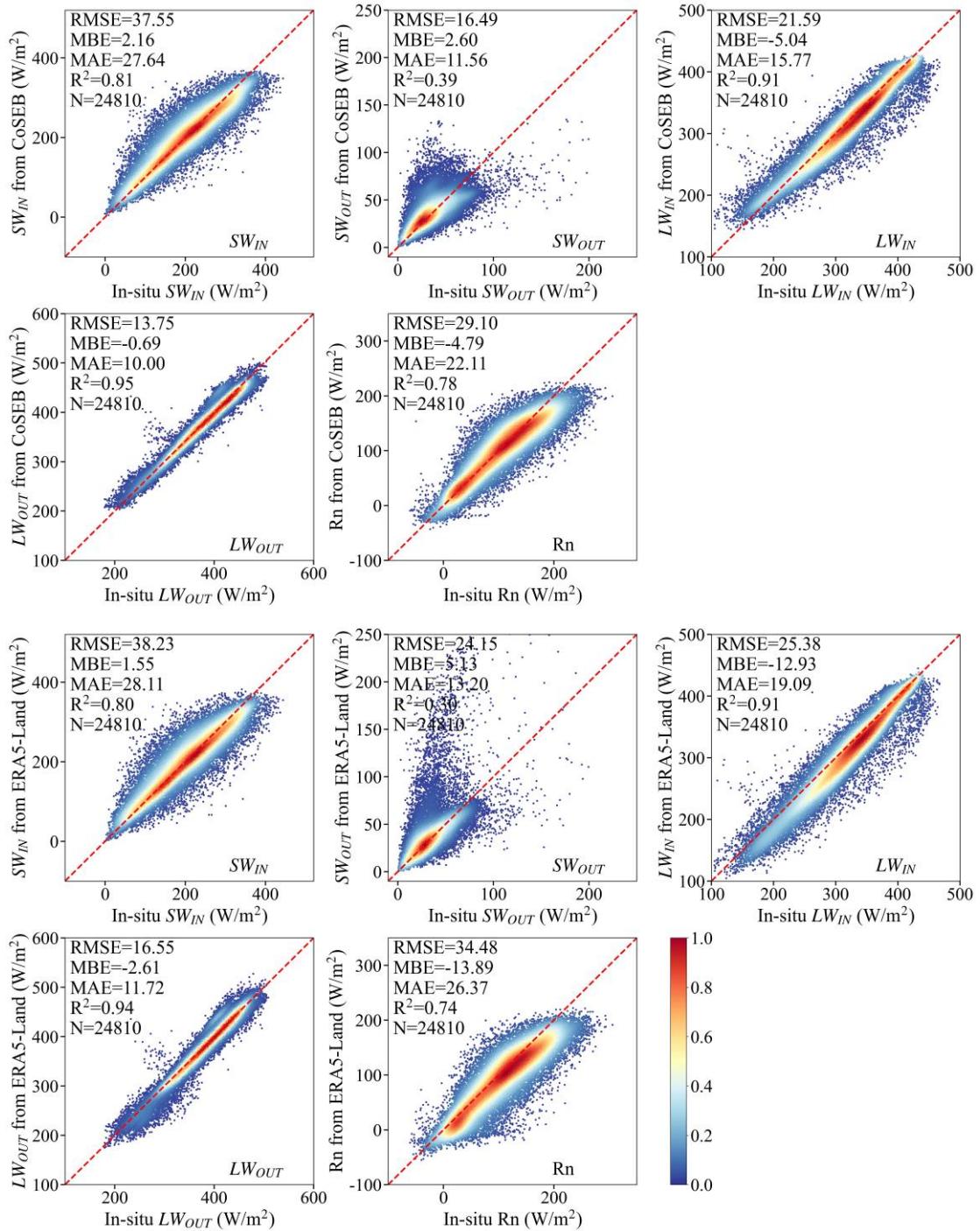


Fig. S6 Comparison of the daily downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN}), upward shortwave radiation (SW_{OUT}), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN}), upward longwave radiation (LW_{OUT}) and net radiation (Rn) from the CoSEB-based datasets (upper 5 panels) and ERA5-Land (lower 5 panels) with the in-situ observed SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} at 44 test sites. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.

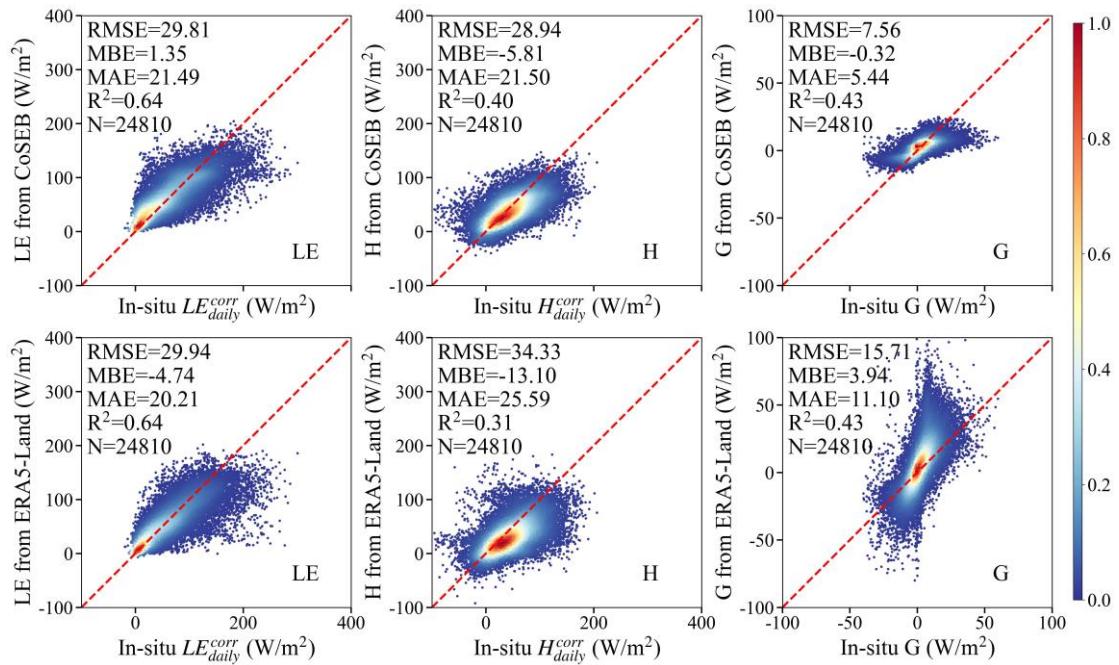


Fig. S7 Comparison of the daily latent heat flux (LE), sensible heat flux (H) and soil heat flux (G) from the CoSEB-based datasets (first row) and ERA5-Land (second row) with the in-situ energy imbalance-corrected LE (LE_{daily}^{corr}) and H (H_{daily}^{corr}), as well as observed G at 44 test sites. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.

3. The abstract is not well formatted. An abstract usually provides a brief and comprehensive summary, so trivial details in brackets [including downward shortwave radiation (SWIN), downward longwave radiation (LWIN), upward shortwave 15 radiation (SWOUT), upward longwave radiation (LWOUT) and net radiation (Rn)], [including latent heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G) and sensible heat flux (H)], and (SWIN - SWOUT + LWIN - LWOUT = Rn) might be deleted. Internet links <https://doi.org/10.11888/Terre.tpdc.302559> and citations (Tang et al., 2025a) should be removed from the abstract. On the other hand, the authors should briefly describe how these data sources are used to generate the new dataset.

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer's suggestion. We would like to clarify that the latter part of the Abstract describes the accuracy of each of the eight surface radiation and heat flux components, as well as the overall surface radiation balance and energy balance among them. Therefore, to ensure consistency and readability, we chose to retain the introduction of all eight fluxes and their corresponding abbreviations at the beginning of the Abstract. However, the two equations, ($SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and ($LE + H + G = Rn$), were deleted in the Abstract, as suggested by the reviewer. Furthermore, the links and citations of the datasets are mandatorily required by the journal and editors in the Abstract, and therefore cannot be removed. Besides, following the reviewer's suggestion, we have briefly explained how multiple data sources were integrated to generate the CoSEB-based datasets in the revised manuscript as follows:

“This study presents the first data-driven energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000 to 2020, generated by our model of Coordinated estimates of land Surface Energy Balance components (CoSEB). The model integrates GLASS and MODIS remote sensing data, ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets, topographic data, CO₂ concentration data as independent variables and in situ radiation and heat flux observations at 258 eddy covariance sites worldwide as dependent variables within a multivariate random forest technique to effectively learn the physics of energy conservation.”

Reviewer #2:

Review of Energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000-2020 generated by CoSEB

Summary and recommendation- In this paper, the authors apply a model of Coordinated estimates of land surface energy balance components (CoSEB) to generate estimates of surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000 to 2020. An advantage of the CoSEB based approach is that estimates of radiation and heat are in “harmony” as opposed to generating independent estimates of each. The authors compare their estimates against observations from eddy covariance sites, other individual estimates and other individual observations. The paper is generally well written, and the results are presented clearly. However, I had several questions about the CoSEB framework itself and also the validations applied here in the manuscript. Hence I recommend major revisions. I have presented major comments and specific comments below.

Ans: Thank you very much for your thoughtful and constructive comments. We sincerely appreciate your recognition of the CoSEB model and the datasets, particularly the advantage of generating global surface radiation and heat fluxes that adhere to energy conservation. We have carefully considered all the comments and suggestions from you and another reviewer, especially your concerns regarding the CoSEB framework and the validation of the datasets, and have made corresponding modifications and clarifications in the revised manuscript. More detailed information of our revisions can be found in the item-by-item response as below.

Major comments-

1. **Explanation of updates to the CoSEB framework-** While reading the manuscript I realized that it is not only a paper that applies the existing CoSEB framework that is already published but also updates this framework to estimate to estimate radiation (previously this model estimated only land surface energy components and not short wave and long wave radiation). Therefore, authors need to discuss the effect of the addition of additional predicted variables on the equations and the results of the random forest. In particular, can the authors discuss which of the predictors were found to be the most important and also discuss how this differed with their previous publication? Also, can authors discuss generic details such as how many splits were generated by the random forest before and after the updates. Authors should also discuss the directionality of effects of different predictor variables based on the revised random forest.

Ans: We thank the reviewer for these insightful comments and questions. Indeed, the renewed CoSEB model extends beyond the original version (Wang et al., 2025) by jointly estimating both radiation components (SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} and Rn) and heat fluxes (LE, H, G), thereby ensuring that both radiation and energy balance are simultaneously satisfied.

(1) To illustrate the effect of including additional radiation components (SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT}) in the renewed CoSEB model compared with the original

version by Wang et al. (2025), we have tested the performance of a reconstructed model that estimated only Rn, LE, H and G using the same independent variables and samples as those in the renewed CoSEB model. The results (Fig. S5 in the supplementary material) showed no significant differences from those produced by the renewed CoSEB model, indicating that the expansion of radiation components did not compromise the model's overall performance. We have discussed this in the second paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentences:

“Furthermore, to better illustrate the effect of including additional radiation components (SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT}) in the renewed CoSEB model compared with the original version by Wang et al. (2025), we have tested the performance of a reconstructed model that estimated only Rn, LE, H and G using the same independent variables and samples as those in the renewed CoSEB model. The results (Fig. S5 in the supplementary material) showed no significant differences in accuracy compared with those of the renewed CoSEB model, indicating the expansion of radiation components did not compromise model performance.”

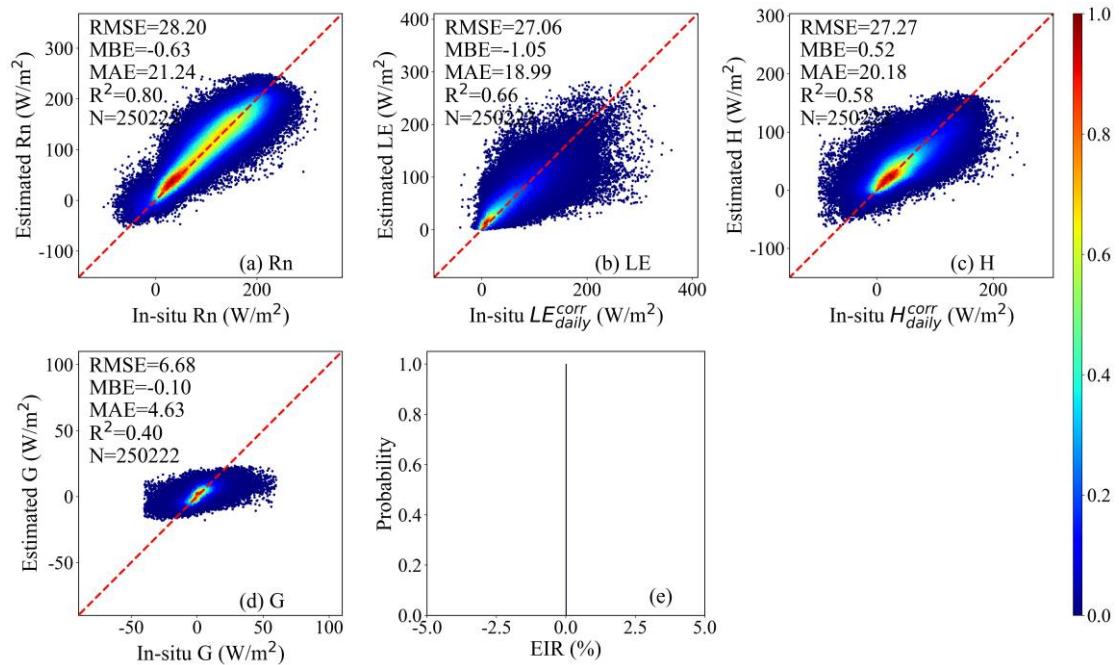


Fig. S5 Scatter density plots of the site-based 10-fold cross-validation of daily net radiation (Rn), soil heat flux (G), latent heat flux (LE) and sensible heat flux (H) derived by a reconstructed model within the CoSEB framework against in-situ observed Rn, G, and energy imbalance-corrected LE (LE_{daily}^{corr}) and H (H_{daily}^{corr}), where the model was designed to estimate only four of the eight flux components. The EIR in the subfigure (e) represents the energy imbalance ratio, which are defined as $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.

(2) Regarding your concern about the importance of the feature variables to the renewed CoSEB model, we have added a new table (Table S4 in the Supplementary Material) to show the importance scores of different feature variables using the built-

in method of the random forests. The results showed that solar radiation reaching the surface of the earth is the most important variable, which is consistent with the results from our previous study (Wang et al., 2025). We have discussed this in the second paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentences:

“The importance scores of the 19 different feature variables are exhibited in Table S4 in the Supplementary Material, and downward solar radiation, the primary source of the energy at the earth surface, is the most important input variable, consistent with the results from our previous study (Wang et al., 2025).”

Table S4 Importance scores of the 19 different feature variables in the construction of the renewed CoSEB model for estimating daily downward shortwave and longwave radiation (SW_{IN} and LW_{IN}), upward shortwave and longwave radiation (SW_{OUT} and LW_{OUT}), net radiation (Rn), latent heat flux (LE), sensible heat flux (H) and soil heat flux (G).

Types	Features Variables	Abbreviation	Importance Score	Cumulative Percentage (%)
Climate/meteorology	solar radiation reaching the surface of the earth	SW_{IN}^{ERA5}	0.5724	57.24
Climate/meteorology	2 m air temperature	T_a	0.2338	80.62
Vegetation and soil	Fractional tree cover	FVC	0.0292	83.54
Climate/meteorology	net thermal radiation at the surface	LW_{net}	0.0241	85.95
Vegetation and soil	Leaf area index	LAI	0.0241	88.36
Vegetation and soil	Percent tree cover	PTC	0.0177	90.13
Vegetation and soil	soil temperature in surface layer	T_{SI}	0.0107	91.20
Climate/meteorology	surface air pressure	PA	0.0097	92.17
Topography	Surface slope	$Slope$	0.0093	93.10
Climate/meteorology	precipitation	P_r	0.0091	94.01
Others	inverse relative distance from the Earth to the Sun	dr	0.0089	94.9
Others	latitude	Lat	0.0075	96.65
Climate/meteorology	Relative air humidity	RH	0.0074	96.39
Topography	Digital elevation model	DEM	0.0072	97.11
Vegetation and soil	soil volumetric moisture content in surface layer	SMI	0.007	97.81
Others	longitude	Lon	0.0067	98.48
Climate/meteorology	Carbon dioxide concentration	CO_2	0.0056	99.04
Topography	Surface aspect	$Aspect$	0.005	99.54
Climate/meteorology	Wind speed	WS	0.0046	100

(3) We have added a brief description of the optimization of hyperparameters for the renewed CoSEB model using the random search method and grid search method. Specifically, the number of decision trees, the max depth, min samples split, and min samples leaf of the MRF are set to 281, 21, 8, and 8, respectively, compared to 295, 20, 12, and 8 in our previous study of Wang et al. (2025). The corresponding details have been added at the beginning of the third paragraph of Section 3 in the revised manuscript with the following sentences:

“To enhance model generalization, the renewed CoSEB model was reoptimized using random and grid search methods, resulting in different hyperparameters of 281 decision trees, a maximum depth of 21, and minimum samples split and leaf of 8 from those of Wang et al. (2025).”

(4) We would like to emphasize that the main focus of this study was to develop the data-driven energy-conservation global datasets using multiple input variables that have certain influences on surface radiation and heat fluxes, rather than to explore the directionality of effects of each input variable on surface radiation and heat fluxes. Since directionality analysis does not alter model parameters, affect

model construction, or impact the generation of the CoSEB-based datasets, in almost no articles (Jung et al., 2019; Mu et al., 2011; Ryu et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022) focusing on models and algorithms for surface radiation fluxes and heat fluxes have we seen anyone conduct directionality analysis; therefore, conducting directionality analysis is not necessary within the scope of our study.

2. Multi-collinearity amongst predictor variables- Authors should also discuss how multi-collinearity is handled amongst predictor variables given the large number of predictors. As far as I understand, random forests do not explicitly deal with multi collinearity unlike a PCA based approach for example. This can affect variable importance significantly. I would suggest authors explore this in detail.

Ans: We thank the reviewer for this comment. While random forests do not explicitly eliminate multi-collinearity among input variables, they randomly select subsets of input features at each split (Breiman, 2001) and are generally considered robust in terms of performance even when multi-collinearity exists among some inputs (Drobnič et al., 2020). Besides, in selecting the input variables, prior knowledge derived from previous studies was employed to identify factors that exert significant influence on surface radiation and heat flux while maintaining relative inter-independence. This practice is widely adopted in data-driven models for estimating land surface water, energy, and carbon fluxes (Bai et al., 2024; Elghawi et al., 2023; Han et al., 2023; O. & Orth, 2021), and few studies specifically perform multicollinearity analysis before modeling. Although some of the selected variables may exhibit a certain degree of multi-collinearity, each carries unique characteristic information, making it inappropriate to consider only a single dominant variable during model construction. Moreover, we acknowledge that variable importance should be interpreted with caution, since the importances may not be accurate in the presence of multicollinearity. However, we would also like to clarify that the primary aim of this study was to improve the accuracy of the developed datasets rather than to interpret the individual contributions of each input variable. We have discussed this in second paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentence:

“In selecting the 19 input variables to accommodate the additional target variables, prior knowledge derived from previous studies was employed to identify factors that exert significant influence on surface radiation and heat flux while maintaining relative inter-independence as much as possible (Jung et al., 2019; Mohan et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; Xian et al., 2024). This practice is commonly adopted in data-driven models for estimating land surface water, energy, and carbon fluxes (Bai et al., 2024; Elghawi et al., 2023; Han et al., 2023; O. & Orth, 2021). The importance scores of the 19 different feature variables are exhibited in Table S4 in the Supplementary Material, and downward solar radiation, the primary source of the energy at the earth surface, is the most important input variable, consistent with the results from our previous study (Wang et al., 2025). Although some of the selected variables may exhibit a certain degree of multi-collinearity, each contributes unique and physically meaningful information, supporting the inclusion of all variables in model construction. Note that the variable importance, derived from the built-in

method of the random forests and potentially affected by multicollinearity among the input variables, is presented only as a reference. Retaining all 19 feature variables ensures the model's flexibility and generalization capability, enabling future incorporation of additional representative ground-based observations for further training and improvement.”

3. Effect of autocorrelation- Given the temporal nature of several predictor variables, can authors confirm that autocorrelation does not exist or is minimized in their framework? What tests were performed to check for this? In particular I would recommend authors add lagged variables to the model to make sure that this is not the case. I believe several models constructed for earth system variables tend to ignore aspects such as autocorrelation and therefore this is an important point to address.

Ans: Thanks for your question and suggestion. We agree that several predictor variables may exhibit autocorrelation. To investigate the impact of lagged effects of input variables on model performance, we specifically conducted an experiment by including lagged air temperature (i.e., the air temperature of the previous day, because air temperature, identified alongside downward solar radiation as one of the two most influential variables in the model based on the importance scores in Supplementary Table S4, exhibits a more pronounced lagged effect than solar radiation) as additional predictor. The results (Fig. S4 in the Supplementary Material) showed no noticeable improvement in model accuracy, suggesting that lagged effects were negligible in the CoSEB framework for estimates of daily surface radiation and heat fluxes. We speculate that lagged effects may have a more pronounced influence on flux estimates at higher temporal resolutions (e.g., half-hourly), but this is beyond the scope of the present study. We have discussed this in the second paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentence:

“Besides, to investigate the impact of lagged effects of input variables on model performance, experiments were also conducted by adding lagged variables (e.g., the air temperature of the previous day) to the 19 input features. The results (Fig. S4 in the Supplementary Material) showed almost no improvement in model accuracy, suggesting that lagged effects on model performance were negligible within the CoSEB framework for estimates of daily surface radiation and heat fluxes.”

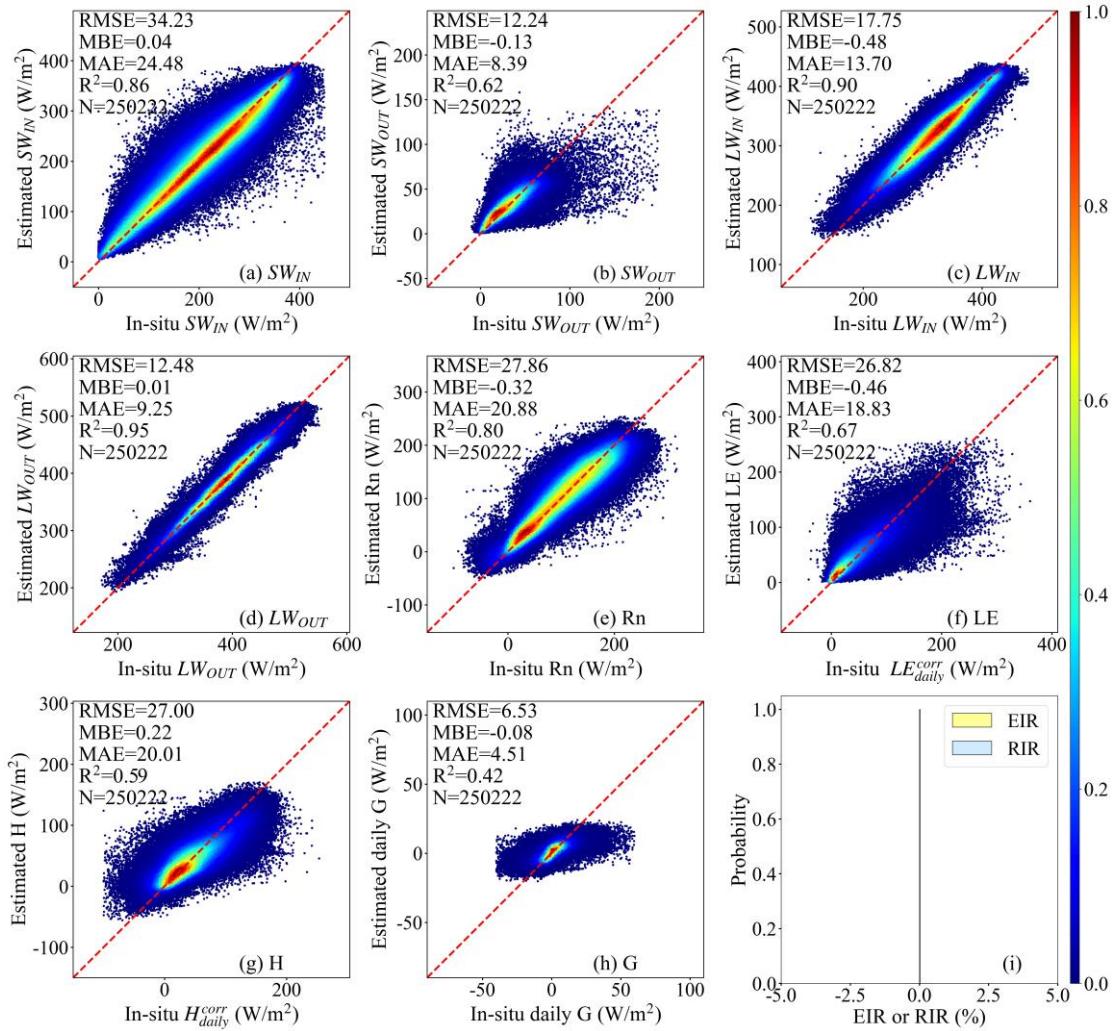


Fig. S4 Scatter density plots of the site-based 10-fold cross-validation of daily downward shortwave and longwave radiation (SW_{IN} and LW_{IN}), upward shortwave and longwave radiation (SW_{OUT} and LW_{OUT}), net radiation (Rn), soil heat flux (G), latent heat flux (LE) and sensible heat flux (H) derived by a reconstructed model within the CoSEB framework against in situ observed SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{OUT} , Rn, G, and energy imbalance-corrected LE (LE^{corr}) and H (H_{daily}^{corr}), where the air temperature of the previous day was additionally added to the 19 input feature variables of the model as the lagged variable. The EIR and RIR in the subfigure (i) represent the energy imbalance ratio and radiation imbalance ratio, which are defined as $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$ and $100\% \times (SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT})/Rn$, respectively. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.

4. Effect of downscaling ERA5- Land datasets- The authors note on lines 195-197 that the ERA 5 land datasets used here have been downscaled from a resolution of ~9 kms to ~500m. This is a significant level of downscaling performed using a rather simple cubic convolution method. There are several variables related to the land cover (such as the LAI for example) that are used as predictor variables in the author's framework. Can the authors address the uncertainty caused by

such large downscaling between scales on their results? On the one hand, based on the results, it seems that the model has produced reliable results compared to observations and other datasets even after such large downscaling. Is it that the land cover related variables do not play an important role in the predictions?

Ans: Thanks for your comment and question. We would like to clarify that the ERA5-Land datasets used in this study mainly include meteorological reanalysis variables (e.g., solar radiation, pressure of the atmosphere, wind speed and relative air humidity), which were downscaled from their original ~9 km spatial resolution to 500 m. In contrast, the land cover-related vegetation variables, including LAI, FVC, and PTC, were directly obtained from remote sensing products such as MODIS and GLASS (see Section 2.2), which already have an original spatial resolution of ~500 m and therefore did not require spatial downscaling.

Besides, we acknowledge that downscaling ERA5-Land datasets from ~9 km to ~500 m using a cubic convolution method may introduce certain uncertainties. However, this resampling was necessary to match the footprint of the site-based measurements of turbulent heat fluxes, which is a common practice in the generation of remote sensing products (Mu et al., 2011; Ryu et al., 2018; Senay et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2022). Moreover, the machine learning framework of the CoSEB model can partially mitigate such uncertainties introduced by the downscaling during training by learning complex relationships among multiple inputs and in situ observed energy components. This is reflected in the good agreement of the CoSEB-based estimates with both in-situ observations and other mainstream products. Our previous studies (Wang et al., 2025, the last paragraph of Section 5.1) also have demonstrated that the differences in meteorological reanalysis data caused by spatial downscaling have a relatively small impact on the estimates by the machine-learning-based CoSEB model.

Furthermore, it is also important to note that this does not imply that land-cover-related variables do not play an important role in the estimations. As shown by the variable importance scores presented in the newly added Table S4 in the Supplementary Material, vegetation and surface-related parameters such as FVC and LAI have high importance scores. These variables can partially compensate for the spatial heterogeneity and localized variations not captured by the coarse-resolution ERA5-Land datasets, thereby enhancing the performance of the model.

We have discussed this in the last paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentence:

“Another potential source of uncertainty arises from differences in meteorological reanalysis data caused by spatial downscaling, which, as demonstrated in our previous study (Wang et al., 2025, the last paragraph of Section 5.1), has a relatively small impact on model estimates by the machine-learning-based CoSEB model combined with finer-resolution surface-related variables that partially compensate for the spatial heterogeneity and localized variations not captured by the coarse-resolution datasets.”

5. In sample vs out of sample testing- While the authors present significant

comparisons with observations and other datasets to validate their model (e.g. Figure 3, Figure 4 and Figure 5), it seems the authors have not checked for overfitting of their approach by splitting the dataset into a training vs testing dataset. This is especially important since as mentioned in Major comment 1., the CoSEB framework itself has been updated. Authors should address this in detail. In fact, looking at Figure 3, it seems that the R squared values for G and H are on the lower side. I am curious as to what the values look like when out of sample testing is conducted?

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer's insightful comments and questions. We would like to clarify that the out-of-sample testing of the updated CoSEB model has already been evaluated using site-based 10-fold cross-validation. In this approach, all sites were divided into ten folds, where the samples from each fold of sites in turn served as validation datasets while the remaining folds were used for training. This ensures that the validation datasets are spatially independent from the training datasets, effectively serving as out-of-sample testing. The results shown in Figure 3, corresponding to the site-based 10-fold cross-validation, showed that the R^2 values for H and G are 0.59 and 0.42, respectively. We have already described the site-based 10-fold cross-validation in the third paragraph of Section 3 with the following sentence:

“Site-based 10-fold cross-validation was employed to evaluate the transferability and generalization of the CoSEB model by randomly dividing all sites into ten folds, where the samples from each fold of sites in turn served as validation datasets while the remaining folds were used as training datasets, ensuring that the validation was conducted on sites spatially independent from the training data.”

Furthermore, to evaluate potential overfitting, the mean RMSE and R^2 values along with their standard deviations across the ten folds of the site-based cross-validation have been presented in Table S3 of the Supplementary Material. Comparisons between the training results (Table S3) and validation results (Fig. 3) indicate that, although the CoSEB model performs better on the training datasets than on the validation datasets, the overall performance remains stable. This stability, particularly given that the validation is conducted on spatially independent sites, demonstrates that the model is not affected by overfitting. We have illustrated this in the first paragraph of Section 4.1.1 with the following sentence:

“Comparisons with the corresponding training results (Table S3 in the Supplementary Material) indicated that although the CoSEB model performed better on the training datasets, its overall performance remained stable, suggesting that the CoSEB model was not affected by overfitting.”

Table S3 The mean root mean square error (RMSE) and coefficient of determination (R^2) along with their standard deviations across the ten folds of the site-based cross-validation for the renewed CoSEB model.

	RMSE (W/m ²)	R^2
SW _{IN}	28.56±0.09	0.91±0.001
SW _{OUT}	9.83±0.10	0.79±0.003
LW _{IN}	12.41±0.08	0.95±0.001
LW _{OUT}	8.52±0.07	0.97±0.001
Rn	22.49±0.08	0.85±0.001
LE	19.75±0.15	0.82±0.003
H	19.36±0.12	0.76±0.003
G	5.39±0.04	0.60±0.004

Specific comments-

1. Abstract lines 31-36- The RMSEs presented here do not make any sense at this point since the reader has no sense of scale of values to expect. I recommend authors report the R^2 values here instead. Also make sure to report whether the R^2 is based on pooled data or just the testing data (See Major comment 5)

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer's constructive suggestion. We would like to clarify that RMSE remains a key metric for evaluating the accuracy of the model and datasets, particularly for energy flux estimations (Bisht & Bras, 2011; Comini De Andrade et al., 2024; Kalma et al., 2008; Ryu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2019), as it directly quantifies prediction errors in physical units (W/m²), making it an indicator of significant interest to both model developers and product users. However, R^2 indeed is another important metric, indicating the degree to which the model predictions align with the reference truth. Therefore, in the revised Abstract, we have reported both RMSE and R^2 values for the CoSEB-based datasets. In addition, we have clarified that the reported RMSE and R^2 values of the CoSEB-based datasets are derived from validation at independent test datasets across 44 sites (see Section 2.1). The revised sentences are as follows:

“(1) the RMSEs (R^2) for daily estimates of SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn, LE, H and G from the CoSEB-based datasets at 44 independent test sites were 37.52 W/m² (0.81), 14.20 W/m² (0.42), 22.47 W/m² (0.90), 13.78 W/m² (0.95), 29.66 W/m² (0.77), 30.87 W/m² (0.60), 29.75 W/m² (0.44) and 5.69 W/m² (0.44), respectively,”

2. Introduction lines 74-75- Can the authors differentiate the citations between those for physical vs those for statistical methods.

Ans: Thanks for your valuable suggestion. We have clearly differentiated the citations between those for physical vs those for statistical methods in the revised manuscript as follows:

“In past decades, numerous RS-based products/datasets of global surface radiation and heat fluxes have significantly advanced, which were generally generated by physical (Li et al., 2023; Mu et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2022) or statistical methods (Jiao et al., 2023; Jung et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2020).”

3. Introduction line 92- “impending” is an awkward word here. I would just say “It was imperative”.

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer’s suggestion. We have revised this sentence to “It was imperative to develop global datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes characterized by high accuracies, radiation balance as well as heat balance, to better meet the requirements in practical applications of various fields.” in the new manuscript.

4. Data lines 131-132- Why could a simple interpolation not be applied for missing half hourly data? Is the data extremely sensitive to time? Some clarification is needed here.

Ans: Thank you for your comments and questions. The half-hourly surface radiation and heat fluxes are sensitive to short-term temporal variations caused by rapid changes in meteorological conditions, but their intraday dynamics are often nonlinear, particularly due to the intermittent effects of cloud cover. Therefore, applying simple interpolation methods (e.g. linear interpolation) could introduce considerable uncertainties. To ensure data quality, we only retained directly observed values (data quality flag=0) and good-quality gap-filled data (data quality flag=1) provided by the official gap-filling algorithms, and then computed daily averages only when more than 80% of half-hourly observations were available, as already described in the first paragraph of Section 2.1 with the following sentence:

“(3) the half-hourly ground-based observations with quality-control flag of 2 or 3 (bad quality) were removed but quality-control flag of 0 and 1 (good quality) were maintained; (4) a daily average of the half-hour observations was calculated for each day with greater than 80% good-quality data, further reducing the 472 sites to 355 sites;”

Besides, we have already discussed the uncertainties caused by the daily averages of surface radiation and heat fluxes in the last paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentence:

“Specifically, daily averages of surface radiation and heat fluxes for each day were obtained for analysis from good-quality half-hourly observations when the fraction of these good-quality half-hourly observations was greater than 80% in a day, due to the lack of consensus on the method for aggregating gapped half-hourly observations to daily data (Tang et al., 2024a; Yao et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2022).”

Following your suggestion, we have also further clarified the simple temporal interpolation in the last paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentence:

“Simple temporal interpolation of half-hourly in situ observations, which could therefore introduce substantial uncertainties, was not applied, because surface radiation and heat fluxes are sensitive to short-term variations in meteorological conditions and their intraday dynamics are often complex.”

5. Data lines 138-139- Can the authors clarify why this criteria was applied for screening outliers?

Ans: Thank you for your valuable question. We would like to clarify that the energy balance ratio (EBR) of 0.2-1.8 and the 1st-99th quantiles of the daily evaporation fraction was both applied to remove physically implausible measurements, such as cases where the available surface energy ($R_n - G$) is close to zero while LE and H remain comparatively large, where the threshold of 0.2-1.8 was adopted following our previous study (Wang et al., 2025), which has demonstrated that nearly all available data fall within this range and that the accuracy of the CoSEB model showed no significant differences when applying different EBR thresholds, while the percentile-based screening was employed following common practice in flux and remote sensing studies (Bartkowiak et al., 2024; Ghorbanpour et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023). We have clarified this in the first paragraph of Section 2.1 with the following sentence:

“(5) the aggregated daily LE and H were corrected for energy imbalance using the Bowen ratio method when the daily energy balance closure [defined as $(LE + H) / (R_n - G)$] varied between 0.2 and 1.8 following Wang et al. (2025) to exclude physically implausible measurements; (6) extreme outliers in the daily evaporative fraction were further removed by excluding values outside the 1st–99th percentile range, a common practice in flux and remote sensing studies (Bartkowiak et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2023), further reducing the 355 sites to 337 sites.”

6. Mainstream datasets/products for inter comparison- I was curious as to why the authors so not compare their estimates with heat and radiation estimates from popular earth system modelling systems such as CESM and CTSM (<https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/>). In fact, if the authors approach can produce estimates similar to earth system models, this would be a huge benefit to the community (since these models are laborious to run)

Ans: Thanks for your comment. The outputs of Earth system models generally have coarse spatial resolutions (e.g., the CESM Large Ensemble Project has a spatial resolution of $\sim 1^\circ$). Due to the surface heterogeneity, these model outputs cannot be directly validated using radiation and heat flux observations from ground sites with limited spatial representativeness. This is the main reason why both we and others usually do not compare the outputs of Earth system models with remote sensing-based datasets.

Although we believe that comparing the outputs of Earth system models with remote sensing-based datasets (including our CoSEB-based datasets and others' PML_V2, MOD16A2, FLUXCOM, BESSV2.0, GLASS) and validating them against ground-based observations is not appropriate, following the reviewer's suggestion, we compared the global spatial distributions of mean annual estimates from CoSEB-based datasets with the outputs from the CESM Large Ensemble project. The results (see Section 4.3 and Fig. S8) show that, overall, the global spatial patterns of the estimated SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , R_n , LE and H are consistent,

though numerical differences exist. Considering the scope and length of the current manuscript, a more detailed analysis of the spatial-temporal distribution patterns, trends, and variability between Earth system model outputs and remote sensing-based datasets could be conducted in future work. We have discussed this in the third paragraph of Section 5 with the following sentences:

“Preliminary analysis indicates that the CoSEB-based datasets exhibit spatial patterns consistent with those of mainstream RS-based datasets and Earth system model outputs (see Fig. S8 in the supplementary material). More detailed analysis about their similarities and differences can be further conducted in future work.”

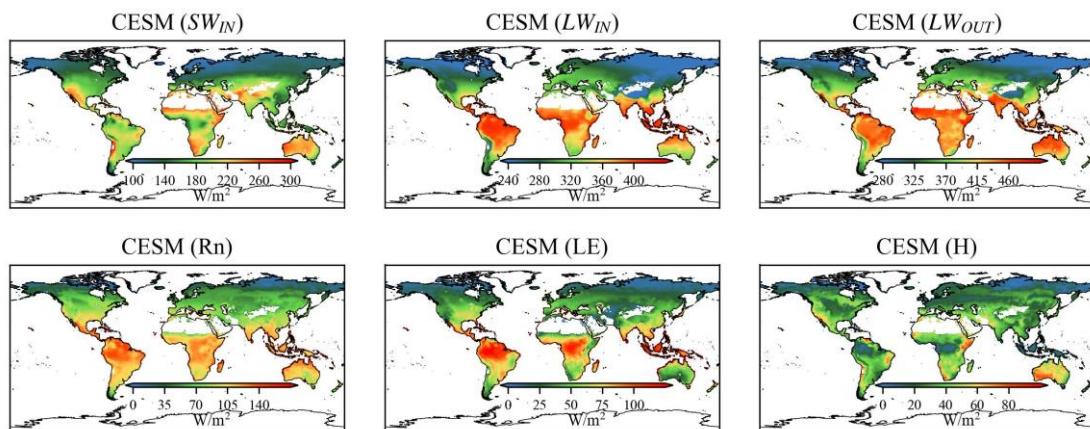


Fig. S8 Spatial patterns of global mean annual downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN}), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN}), upward longwave radiation (LW_{OUT}), net radiation (Rn), latent heat flux (LE) and sensible heat flux from 2001 to 2018 by Community Earth System Model (CESM) Large Ensemble project, where LW_{OUT} and Rn were inferred from surface radiation balance and heat balance.

7. Methods lines 243-244- Once again the usage of RMSEs here does not make much sense. Can the authors just report the R squared values instead.

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer’s suggestion. We would like to clarify that RMSE remains an essential metric for evaluating the accuracy of the model and datasets, particularly for energy flux estimations (Bisht & Bras, 2011; Comini De Andrade et al., 2024; Kalma et al., 2008; Ryu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2019), as it directly quantifies prediction errors in physical units (W/m^2), making it an indicator of significant interest to both model developers and product users. Nevertheless, R^2 indeed is another important metric, indicating the degree to which the model predictions align with the reference truth. After careful consideration, we have additionally reported R^2 values in the revised manuscript to more comprehensively demonstrate the model performance. The revised sentence is as follows:

“The CoSEB model was demonstrated to be able to produce high-accuracy estimates of land surface energy components, with the RMSE of $<17 W/m^2$ and R^2 of >0.83 for estimating 4-day Rn, LE and H, and the RMSE of $<5 W/m^2$ and R^2 of 0.55 for estimating 4-day G.”

8. Methods lines 269-270- Just to confirm, the RF based uncoordinated models are models where only individual variables are estimated rather than the simultaneous calculation of several variables? This should be clarified.

Ans: Thanks for your valuable question. Your understanding is correct. We have more clearly clarified this in the third paragraph of Section 3 of the revised manuscript with the following sentence:

“Furthermore, to benchmark the coordinated estimates from the renewed CoSEB model, eight RF-based uncoordinated models were constructed, each separately estimating one of SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn , LE , H or G using the same inputs as those in the renewed CoSEB model.”

9. Results Lines 306-309- I was curious looking at Figure 4 whether there were correlations or relationships between the EIR or RIR values and any of the other predictor variables? Is the shape of that distribution affected by any particular variables?

Ans: Thanks for your question. We would like to clarify that our CoSEB model showed no energy imbalance, with the RIR and EIR of 0, as shown in Figure 3. The distributions of RIR and EIR in Figure 4 were derived from RF-based uncoordinated models, which were used only for comparison with our CoSEB model and were not the focus of our study.

However, considering your concern about whether the distributions of the RIR and EIR values are affected by specific predictor variables, we further conducted a binned statistical analysis, where the three most critical input variables identified in Table S4 (i.e. SW_{IN}^{ERA45} , T_a and FVC) were divided into equal-width bins, and for each bin the mean and standard deviation for positive and negative RIR conditions were calculated. Besides, the Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between RIR (EIR) and each input variable were computed to quantify their overall relationships. The results showed that lower levels of solar radiation, air temperature, or FVC are associated with larger RIR (EIR), while the predominance of low values of these three variables tends to result in decreased kurtosis correspondingly, implying flatter and broader probability shapes of RIR and EIR. We have also briefly illustrated this in the end of the second paragraph of Section 4.1.1 with the following sentence:

“Furthermore, the RIR as well as EIR tended to be higher under lower solar radiation, air temperature, or FVC, with more frequent low values of these three variables leading to a broader and less peaked distribution of RIR and EIR (see Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Material).”

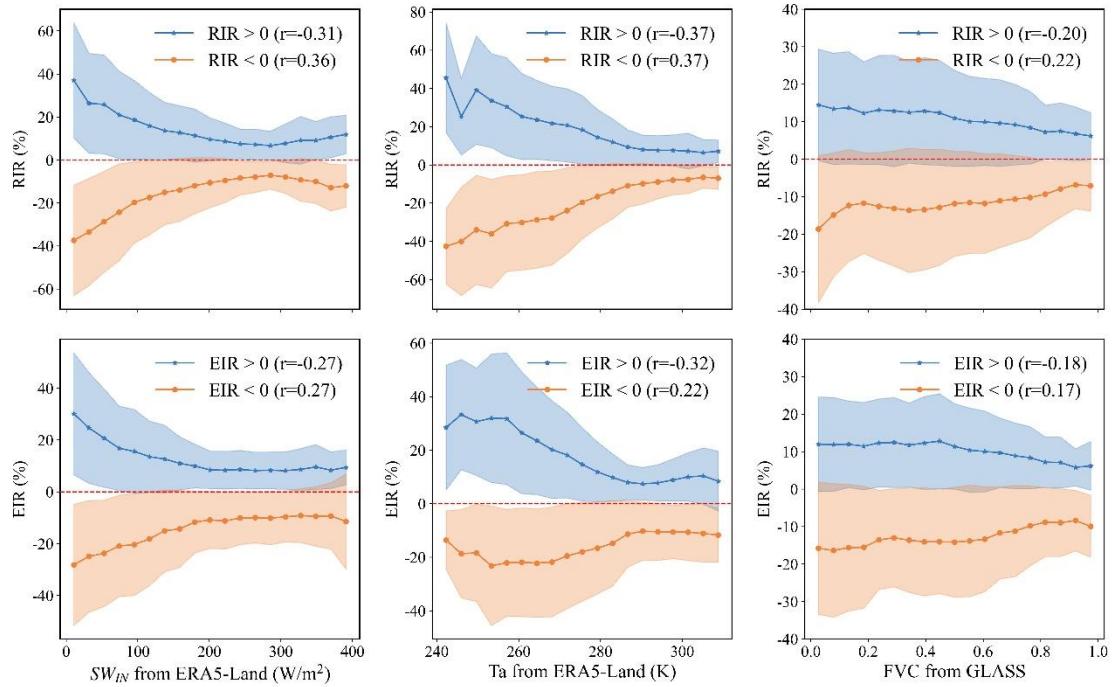


Fig. S1 Relationships between radiation imbalance ratio [RIR, $100\% \times (SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT})/Rn$] and energy imbalance ratio [EIR, $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$] derived from RF-based uncoordinated models and three critical input variables identified in Table S4, including solar radiation reaching the surface of the earth from ERA5-Land (SW_{IN}^{ERA5} , the first column), 2 m air temperature from ERA5-Land (T_a , the second column) and fraction vegetation cover from GLASS (FVC, the third column). The mean and standard deviation were calculated within equal-width bins of SW_{IN}^{ERA5} , T_a , and FVC under positive and negative EIR (RIR) conditions, where the solid lines represent the mean values, and the shaded area represents the corresponding variation of standard deviations. The r values in legends indicate the Pearson correlation coefficients.

10. Results Lines 311-312- Can the authors clarify the differences between site-based validation vs sample-based validation?

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer's insightful comment. Sample-based 10-fold cross-validation refers to randomly splitting all available samples from all sites into ten folds, with each fold in turn serving as the validation dataset while the remaining folds are used for training. This approach allows samples from the same site to appear in both the training and validation datasets. In contrast, site-based 10-fold cross-validation was performed by randomly dividing all sites into ten folds, with the samples from each fold of sites used for validation in turn. This strategy ensures that the validation datasets are spatially independent from the training datasets, thereby providing a more rigorous assessment of the model's spatial generalization capability. We have already described the site-based 10-fold cross-validation in the third paragraph of Section 3 with the following sentences:

“Site-based 10-fold cross-validation was employed to evaluate the transferability and

generalization of the CoSEB model by randomly dividing all sites into ten folds, where the samples from each fold of sites in turn served as validation datasets while the remaining folds were used as training datasets, ensuring that the validation was conducted on sites spatially independent from the training data.”

Furthermore, after careful consideration, site-based 10-fold cross-validation was deemed to be more suitable for assessing the performance of the model than sample-based 10-fold cross-validation, as the validation datasets in site-based cross-validation are spatially independent from the training datasets. To make the main focus of the manuscript clearer and more concise, we retained only the site-based 10-fold cross-validation and removed the sample-based 10-fold cross-validation in the revised manuscript.

11. Results lines 381-382- Once again, the RMSE values don't make a lot of sense here. Authors should report the R squared values instead.

Ans: We appreciate the reviewer's suggestion. We would like to clarify that RMSE remains an essential metric for evaluating the accuracy of the model and datasets, particularly for energy flux estimations (Bisht & Bras, 2011; Comini De Andrade et al., 2024; Kalma et al., 2008; Ryu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2019), as it directly quantifies prediction errors in physical units (W/m^2), making it an indicator of significant interest to both model developers and product users. However, R^2 indeed is another important metric, indicating the degree to which the model predictions align with the reference truth. After careful consideration, we have additionally incorporated the R^2 values into the revised manuscript. The revised sentence is as follows:

“Results indicated that the CoSEB-based datasets could provide good estimates of SW_{OUT} , H and G, with the RMSEs (R^2) of 14.20 W/m^2 (0.42), 29.75 W/m^2 (0.44) and 5.69 W/m^2 (0.44) at daily scale, respectively, and the RMSE (R^2) of 12.19 W/m^2 (0.39) and 4.60 W/m^2 (0.47) for 8-day SW_{OUT} and G, respectively.”

12. Section 4.2- When discussing the differences between the CoSEB model estimates vs other estimates, can authors also describe why the differences occur? A detailed discussion is not warranted here. Rather, I was interested in the author's perspective as to why the author's approach produces some differences over existing approaches.

Ans: Thanks for your constructive comments. The possible reasons for the differences between estimates from the CoSEB-based datasets and the mainstream products/datasets are complex and may arise from differences in both methodological frameworks and input datasets. Specifically, the discrepancies may result from the simplification of physical processes and the uncertainties in parameterization within the physics-based products (e.g., MOD16A1, BESSV2.0, PML_V2, and ETMonitor). In contrast, the differences between the CoSEB-based datasets and other machine-learning-based products (e.g., BESS-Rad, GLASS, and FLUXCOM) may be attributed to the limited sample sizes of training data, the

incomplete consideration of influencing factors (e.g., CO₂ concentration, surface aspect), and the lack of physical constraints among energy balance components in existing machine-learning frameworks. We have briefly discussed this in the last paragraph of Section 4.2 of the revised manuscript with the following sentence:

“The differences between the estimates from the CoSEB-based datasets and mainstream datasets are likely multifactorial, arising from the simplification and parameterization uncertainties in physics-based models, as well as the lack of physical constraints, limited training samples, and incomplete consideration of influencing factors in other machine-learning-based models.”

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1 **Energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation**
2 **and heat fluxes from 2000-2020 generated by CoSEB**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Accurately estimating global land surface radiation [including downward
14 shortwave radiation (SW_{IN}), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN}), upward shortwave
15 radiation (SW_{OUT}), upward longwave radiation (LW_{OUT}) and net radiation (Rn)] and heat
16 fluxes [including latent heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G) and sensible heat flux (H)] is
17 essential for quantifying the exchange of radiation, heat and water between the land and
18 atmosphere under global climate change. This study presents the first data-driven

19 energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000

20 to 2020, generated by our model of Coordinated estimates of land Surface Energy

21 Balance components (CoSEB). The model that integrates GLASS and MODIS remote

22 sensing data, ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets, topographic data, CO₂ concentration data

23 as independent variables and in situ radiation and heat flux observations at 258 eddy

24 covariance sites worldwide as dependent variables within a multivariate random forest

25 technique to effectively learn the physics of energy conservation was renewed with a

26 combination of GLASS and MODIS remote sensing data, ERA5 Land reanalysis

27 datasets, topographic data, CO₂ concentration data, and observations at 258 eddy

28 ~~co~~variance sites worldwide from the AmeriFlux, FLUXNET, EuroFlux, OzFlux,
29 ChinaFLUX and TPDC. The developed CoSEB-based datasets are strikingly
30 advantageous in that [1] they are the first ~~RS-based data-driven~~ global datasets that
31 satisfy both surface radiation balance ($SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and heat
32 balance ($LE + H + G = Rn$) among the eight fluxes, as demonstrated by both the
33 radiation imbalance ratio [RIR, defined as $100\% \times (SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT})/Rn$]
34 and energy imbalance ratio [EIR, defined as $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$] of 0, [2] the
35 radiation and heat fluxes are characterized by high accuracies, where (1) the RMSEs
36 (R^2) for daily estimates of SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn , LE , H and G from the
37 CoSEB-based datasets at 44 independent test sites were 28.5137.52 W/m² (0.81),
38 10.394.20 W/m² (0.42), 14.2922.47 W/m² (0.90), 10.623.78 W/m² (0.95), 22.409.66
39 W/m² (0.77), 24.3830.87 W/m² (0.60), 22.679.75 W/m² (0.44) and 6.775.69 W/m²
40 (0.44), respectively, as well as for 8-day estimates were 12.81 W/m², 7.08 W/m², 9.22
41 W/m², 8.34 W/m², 13.38 W/m², 19.99 W/m², 17.44 W/m² and 4.25 W/m², respectively,
42 (2) the CoSEB-based datasets, in comparison to the mainstream products/datasets (i.e.
43 GLASS, BESS-Rad, BESSV2.0, FLUXCOM, MOD16A2, PML_V2 and ETMonitor)
44 that generally separately estimated subsets of the eight flux components, better agreed
45 with the in situ observations. Our developed datasets hold significant potential for
46 application across diverse fields such as agriculture, forestry, hydrology, meteorology,
47 ecology, and environmental science, which can facilitate comprehensive studies on the
48 variability, impacts, responses, adaptation strategies, and mitigation measures of global
49 and regional land surface radiation and heat fluxes under the influences of climate
50 change and human activities. The CoSEB-based datasets are open access and available
51 through the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (TPDC) at
52 <https://doi.org/10.11888/Terre.tpdc.302559> (Tang et al., 2025a) and through the Science
53 Data Bank (ScienceDB) at <https://doi.org/10.57760/sciencedb.27228> (Tang et al.,
54 2025b).

55 **Key words:** Surface energy balance; Surface radiation balance; Shortwave/Longwave

56 radiation; Net radiation; Sensible/Latent heat flux; Evapotranspiration; CoSEB

57 **1 Introduction**

58 Land surface radiation balance and heat balance play important roles in Earth's
59 climate system, representing the physical processes by which the surface-atmosphere
60 absorbs and redistributes radiation and heat fluxes (Berbery et al., 1999; Betts et al.,
61 1996; Mueller et al., 2009; Sellers et al., 1997; Xu et al., 2022a), and facilitating the
62 exchange of water, energy, carbon, and other agents essential to climatic and ecological
63 systems and human society (Jia et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012; Wild, 2009; Wild et al.,
64 2012; Xia et al., 2006). Accurately monitoring the spatial and temporal variations of
65 global land surface radiation [including downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN}),
66 downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN}), upward shortwave radiation (SW_{OUT}), upward
67 longwave radiation (LW_{OUT}) and net radiation (Rn)] and heat fluxes [including latent
68 heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G) and sensible heat flux (H)] is indispensable for
69 quantifying the exchange of radiation, heat and water between the land and atmosphere
70 under global climate change (Ersi et al., 2024; Liang et al., 2019; Rios & Ramamurthy,
71 2022; Tang et al., 2024a; Wang et al., 2021), and for studying solar energy utilization
72 (Tang et al., 2024b; Zhang et al., 2017), hydrological cycle (Huang et al., 2015; Wild &
73 Liepert, 2010), ecosystem productivity (Nemani et al., 2003), agricultural management
74 (De Wit et al., 2005) and ecological protection (Tang et al., 2023). Remote sensing (RS)
75 technology, with its high spatial-temporal resolution and applicability over large areas,
76 is considered to be the most effective and economical means for obtaining global land
77 surface radiation and heat fluxes (Liu et al., 2016; Van Der Tol, 2012; Zhang et al.,
78 2010).

79 In past decades, numerous RS-based products/datasets of global surface radiation
80 and heat fluxes have significantly advanced, which were generally generated by
81 physical (Li et al., 2023; Mu et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2022) or statistical methods (Jiao et
82 al., 2023; Jung et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2020). However, two key limitations still exist
83 in these products. Firstly, most available products provide only a single component of

84 land surface radiation or heat fluxes, e.g. ETMonitor (Zheng et al., 2022) and
85 MOD16A2 (Mu et al., 2011) only estimating LE, leading to the failure to satisfy surface
86 radiation balance and heat balance when the single radiation or heat flux is utilized in
87 conjunction with products containing other radiation and heat components (Wang et al.,
88 2025), and further posing significant uncertainties to understand the interactions and
89 redistributions of surface radiation and energy in the Earth-atmosphere system.
90 Secondly, a few products, e.g., FLUXCOM (Jung et al., 2019) and GLASS (Jiang et al.,
91 2015; Zhang et al., 2014), generated datasets for multiple components of surface
92 radiation and heat fluxes by using independent-separate estimates from the
93 uncoordinated models, which make them difficult to abide by surface radiation and heat
94 conservation. These energy-imbalanced and radiation-imbalanced estimates among
95 multiple components from previous products/datasets severely limit their in-depth
96 applications in analyzing the spatial and temporal trends, simulating the physical
97 processes of radiation, heat and water cycles as well as revealing the attributions and
98 mechanisms in Earth-surface system under global climate change. It was impending
99 and-imperative to develop global datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes
100 characterized by high accuracies, radiation balance as well as heat balance, to better
101 meet the requirements in practical applications of various fields.

102 Our proposed data-driven model/framework of Coordinated estimates of land
103 Surface Energy Balance components (CoSEB) (Wang et al., 2025), which effectively
104 learns the underlying physical interrelations (i.e., surface energy conservation law)
105 among multiple targeted variables, provides an unprecedented opportunity to develop
106 global datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes that can not only
107 simultaneously provide high-accuracy estimates of these components but also adhere
108 to surface radiation- and heat-conservation laws.

109 The objectives of this study are twofold: (1) to develop high-accuracy datasets of
110 global land surface radiation and heat fluxes, which comply with the principles of
111 radiation balance and heat balance, using our CoSEB model renewed based on in situ

112 observations, remote sensing data and reanalysis datasets; (2) to validate the
113 datasets/model estimates against data from in situ observations, mainstream products
114 as well as estimates from uncoordinated random forest (RF) techniques. Section 2
115 introduces the data resources used in this study. Section 3 briefly describes the method
116 we used to estimate global surface radiation and heat fluxes. Section 4 presents the
117 evaluation of the datasets/model estimates generated by our renewed CoSEB model.
118 Section 5 discusses the superiority, potential applications and uncertainties of the
119 developed datasets. Data availability is given in Section 6, and a summary and
120 conclusion is provided in Section 7.

121 **2 Data**

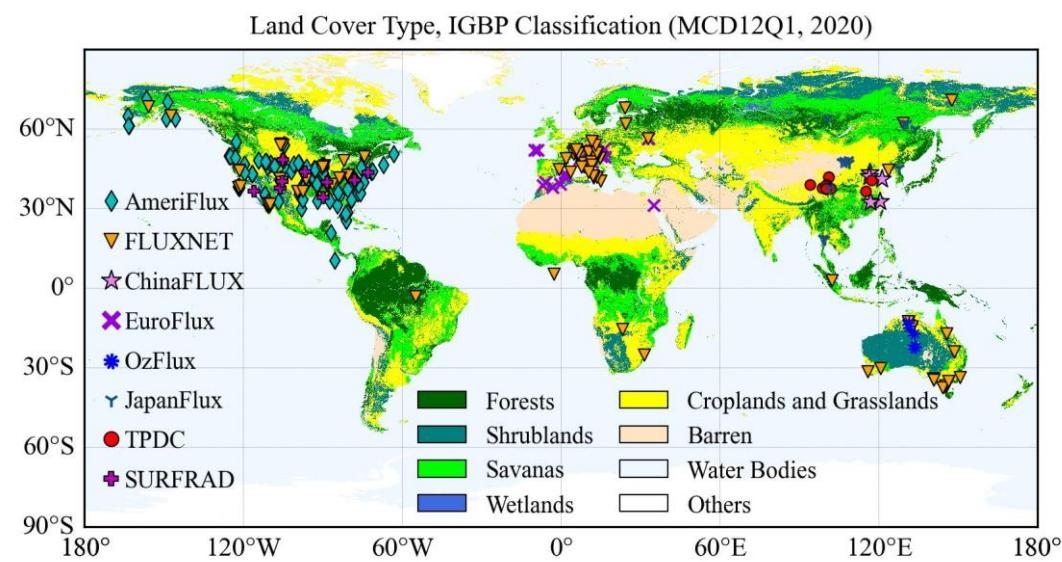
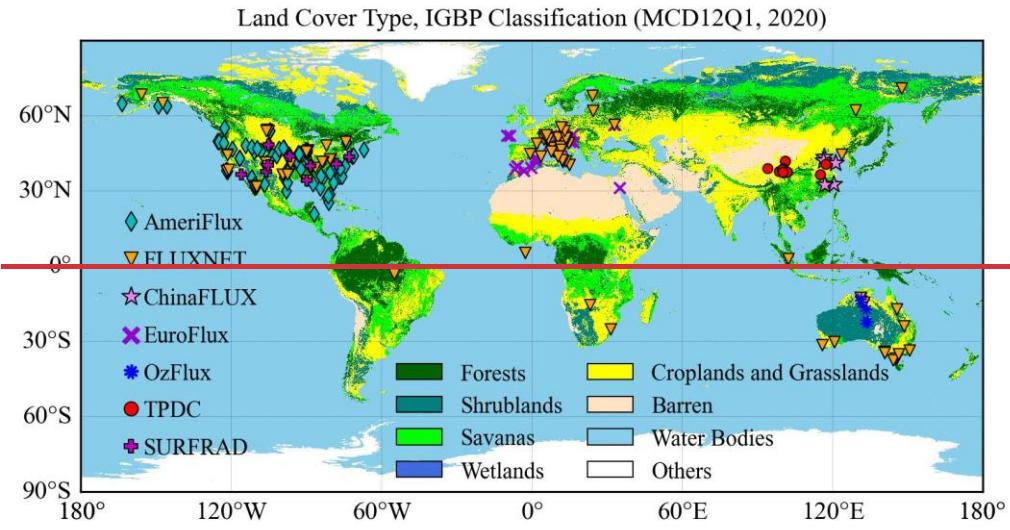
122 **2.1 Ground-based observations**

123 In this study, the in situ observations of land surface radiation and heat fluxes at
124 258-302 eddy covariance (EC) sites from the networks of AmeriFlux (145-174 sites,
125 2000–2020, <https://AmeriFlux.lbl.gov/Data/>, last access: 6 August 2024), EuroFlux (72
126 sites, 2000-2020, <http://www.europe-fluxdata.eu/>, last access: 6 August 2024), OzFlux
127 (5 sites, 2007-2012, <https://data.ozflux.org.au/>, last access: 6 August 2024), FLUXNET
128 (108 sites, 2000–2014, <https://FLUXNET.org/Data/download-Data/>, last access: 6
129 August 2024), JapanFlux (15 sites, 2001-2020, https://ads.nipr.ac.jp/japan-flux2024/,
130 last access: 10 October 2025), ChinaFLUX (5 sites, 2005-2020,
131 <http://www.chinaflux.org/>, last access: 6 August 2024) and National Tibetan
132 Plateau/Third Pole Environment Data Center (TPDC, 13 sites, 2012–2020,
133 <https://Data.tpdc.ac.cn/en/Data>, last access: 6 August 2024) were used (Fig. 1), where
134 37, 48 and 5 sites in FLUXNET were also shared in AmeriFlux, EuroFlux and OzFlux,
135 respectively. These 258-302 sites were filtered out from all collected 1008-1098 sites
136 by following the quality-assurance and quality-control steps, including: (1) any site
137 with a missing component of any of the SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , LE, H and G was
138 excluded, reducing the 1008-1098 sites to 388-472 sites for further analysis; (2) any

139 half-hour period with missing data for any of these components was excluded; (3) the
140 half-hourly ground-based observations with quality-control flag of 2 or 3 (bad quality)
141 were removed but quality-control flag of 0 and 1 (good quality) were maintained; (4) a
142 daily average of the half-hour observations was calculated for each day with greater
143 than 80% good-quality data, further reducing the 388-472 sites to 286-355 sites; (5) the
144 aggregated daily LE and H were corrected for energy imbalance using the Bowen ratio
145 method when the daily energy balance closure [defined as $(LE + H) / (Rn - G)$] varied
146 between 0.2 and 1.8 following Wang et al. (2025) to exclude physically implausible
147 measurements; (56) extreme outliers in the daily evaporative fraction were further
148 removed by excluding values outside the 1st–99th percentile range, a common practice
149 in flux and remote sensing studies (Bartkowiak et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2023), further
150 reducing the 355 sites to 337 sites. outliers were discarded, corresponding to the 1 and
151 99 quantiles of the daily evaporation fraction, further reducing the 286 sites to 268 sites.
152 Besides, the RS data products/datasets involved in this study collocated at the sites
153 should not be missing, finally reducing the 268-337 sites to 258-302 sites for analysis.
154 Note that the Rn at these sites used in this study was calculated from the sum of net
155 longwave radiation (LW_{IN} minus LW_{OUT}) and net shortwave radiation (SW_{IN} minus
156 SW_{OUT}), rather than using the observed Rn directly, to ensure surface radiation balance
157 in training datasets.

158 These 258-302 sites used in this study cover a wide range of global climate regimes
159 across 14 land cover types, including (1) evergreen needleleaf forests (ENF, 54-55 sites);
160 (2) evergreen broadleaf forests (EBF, 11-12 sites); (3) deciduous needleleaf forests
161 (DNF, 1-7 sites); (4) deciduous broadleaf forests (DBF, 39-40 sites); (5) mixed forests
162 (MF, 8 sites); (6) closed shrublands (CSH, 5 sites); (7) open shrublands (OSH, 9-11
163 sites); (8) woody savannas (WSA, 6 sites); (9) savannas (SAV, 10 sites); (10) grasslands
164 (GRA, 54-62 sites); (11) permanent wetlands (WET, 16-22 sites); (12) croplands (CRO,
165 43-59 sites); (13) water bodies (WAT, 1 sites); (14) cropland/natural vegetation mosaics
166 (CVM, 1-4 sites). Among them, 44 sites (~15% of the total, see Table S1) were isolated

167 to serve as spatially independent sites to test the generated datasets and they did not
168 participate in the development of the model/datasets.



172 Fig. 1 Spatial distribution of the 258-302 eddy covariance sites from AmeriFlux, FLUXNET,
173 EuroFlux, OzFlux, JapanFlux, ChinaFLUX and TPDC, and nine radiation sites from
174 SURFRAD involved for analysis in this study.

175 Furthermore, ground-based radiation observations from nine sites that are located
176 in large flat agricultural areas covered by crops and grasses from SURFRAD were also
177 introduced to validate land surface radiation estimates. Similar to the preprocessing
178 performed on the observations of the 258-302 EC sites, the SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT}
179 and Rn from the SURFRAD were also quality-controlled and aggregated to daily data.

180 Spatial distribution of the 258–302 EC sites and nine radiation sites from SURFRAD
 181 are shown in Fig. 1, with site details (latitude, longitude, land cover types, digital
 182 elevation model and temporal coverage) provided in Supplementary Tables S1 and S2.

183 **Table 1 Summary of mainstream datasets/products for inter-comparison used in this study**

Products/ datasets	Reso- lution	Time- coverage	Variables	Algorithms	References
GLASS	0.05°/ daily	2000– 2018	SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn	Machine- learning, direct estimation algorithm	Wang et al. (2015); Xu et al. (2022b); Jiang et al. (2015)
BESS_Rad	0.05°/ daily	2000– 2020	SW_{IN}	BESS process- model	Ryu et al. (2018)
BESSV2.0	0.05°/ daily	2000– 2020	Rn , LE	BESS process- model	Li et al. (2023)
FLUXCOM	0.0833°/ 8-day	2000– 2020	Rn , LE , H	Model tree- ensembles	Jung et al. (2019)
MOD16A2	500 m/ 8-day	2000– 2020	Rn , LE	Modified Penman- Monteith equation Penman Monteith- Leuning model,	Mu et al. (2011)
PML_V2	500 m/ 8-day	2002– 2020	LE	Priestly Taylor- equation and Gash model Shuttleworth- Wallace two- source scheme,	Zhang et al. (2019)
ETMonitor	1 km/ daily	2000– 2020	LE	Gash model and Penman equation	Zheng et al. (2022)

184 **2.2 Climate/meteorology and remote sensing data**

185 To generate global datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes from 2000 to
 186 2020, five types of climate/meteorology and remote sensing data were used in this study,
 187 including:

188 (1) ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>, last access: 6
 189 August 2024) with the spatial resolution of ~9 km from 1950 (Muñoz-Sabater et
 190 al., 2021). Following our previous work (Wang et al., 2025), this study used

variables from the ERA5-Land datasets to drive the model, including near-surface 2 m air temperature (T_a), soil temperature in layer 1 (0-7 cm, T_{s1}), soil volumetric moisture content in layer 1 (0-7 cm, $SM1$), solar radiation reaching the surface of the earth (SW_{IN}^{ERA5}), net thermal radiation at the surface (LW_{net}), pressure of the atmosphere (PA), 10 m wind speed (WS), precipitation (P_r) and the 2 m dewpoint temperature, daily minimum and maximum air temperature [for calculating relative air humidity (RH)].

(2) GLASS datasets (<https://glass.bnu.edu.cn/>, last access: 6 August 2024), which provide the 500 m 8-day leaf area index (LAI) and fractional vegetation cover (FVC) from February 2000 to December 2021.

(3) MOD44B product (<https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/>, last access: 6 August 2024), which offers yearly 250 m percent tree cover (PTC) since 2000, representing the percentage (0~100%) of a pixel covered by tree canopy.

(4) NOAA/GML atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) concentration data, providing monthly global marine surface mean data since 1958 (ftp://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/products/trends/co2/co2_mm_gl.txt, last access: 6 August 2024).-

(5) GMTED2010 topographic data (https://topotools.cr.usgs.gov/gmted_viewer/gmted2010_global_grids.php, last access: 6 August 2024), providing 500 m digital elevation model (DEM), slope, and aspect.

The ~9 km ERA5-Land datasets were spatially interpolated to 500 m using the cubic convolution method, and the 250 m PTC was resampled to 500 m using the arithmetic averaging method.

2.3 Mainstream datasets/products for inter-comparison

Mainstream RS-based datasets/products of moderate-resolution global land surface radiation and heat fluxes were collected for inter-comparison (Table 1),

218 including (1) the daily 0.05° GLASS SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} and Rn products from 2000 to
219 2018 (<https://glass.bnu.edu.cn/>, last access: 6 August 2024), (2) the daily 0.05°
220 Breathing Earth System Simulator Radiation (BESS-Rad) SW_{IN} products from 2000 to
221 2020 (<https://www.environment.snu.ac.kr/bess-rad>), (3) the daily 0.05° BESS
222 Version2.0 (BESSV2.0) Rn and LE products from 2000 to 2020
223 (<https://www.environment.snu.ac.kr/bessv2>), (4) the 8-day 0.0833° FLUXCOM Rn, LE
224 and H products from 2001 to 2020 (<https://fluxcom.org/>, last access: 6 August 2024),
225 (5) the daily 1 km ETMonitor LE product from 2000 to 2020 (<https://data.casearth.cn/>,
226 last access: 6 August 2024), (6) the 8-day 500 m Penman-Monteith-Leuning Version2
227 (PML_V2, <https://www.tpdc.ac.cn/>, last access: 6 August 2024) LE product from 2000
228 to 2020; and (7) the 8-day 500 m MOD16A2 (<https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/>, last access: 6
229 August 2024) LE product from 2000 to 2020.

230 The GLASS SW_{IN} products are derived from a combination of the GLASS
231 broadband albedo product and the surface shortwave net radiation estimates, where the
232 surface shortwave net radiation is estimated using linear regression with MODIS top-
233 of-atmosphere (TOA) spectral reflectance (Wang et al., 2015). The GLASS LW_{IN} and
234 LW_{OUT} products are generated using densely connected convolutional neural networks,
235 incorporating Advanced Very High-Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) TOA reflectance
236 and ERA5 near-surface meteorological data (Xu et al., 2022b). The GLASS Rn
237 products are estimated from the meteorological variables from MERRA2 and surface
238 variables from GLASS using the multivariate adaptive regression splines model (Jiang
239 et al., 2015). The BESS-Rad and BESSV2.0 estimate SW_{IN} and Rn using a radiative
240 transfer model (i.e., Forest Light Environmental Simulator, FLiES) with an artificial
241 neural network based on MODIS and MERRA2 reanalysis datasets, and using FLiES
242 based on MODIS products and NCEP/NCAR reanalysis data, respectively (Li et al.,
243 2023; Ryu et al., 2018). Moreover, the BESSV2.0 (Li et al., 2023), MOD16A2 (Mu et
244 al., 2011), PML_V2 (Zhang et al., 2019) and ETMonitor (Zheng et al., 2022) generated
245 global LE by physical models, such as Penman-Monteith equation, Priestley-Taylor

246 equation and/or Shuttleworth-Wallace two-source scheme. The FLUXCOM Rn, LE and
 247 H datasets are obtained through multiple machine learning methods based on in situ
 248 observations from FLUXNET and remote sensing and meteorological data (Jung et al.,
 249 2019). For better consistency, RF-based 8-day 0.0833° Rn and Bowen ratio-corrected
 250 LE and H for the periods of 2000 to 2020 from the FLUXCOM were used in this study.

251 **Table 1 Summary of mainstream datasets/products for inter-comparison used in this study**

Products/ datasets	Reso- lution	Time coverage	Variables	Algorithms	References
<u>GLASS</u>	<u>0.05°/</u> <u>daily</u>	<u>2000-</u> <u>2018</u>	<u>SW_{IN},</u> <u>LW_{IN},</u> <u>LW_{OUT}, Rn</u>	<u>Machine</u> <u>learning, direct</u> <u>estimation</u> <u>algorithm</u>	<u>Wang et al. (2015);</u> <u>Xu et al. (2022b);</u> <u>Jiang et al. (2015)</u>
<u>BESS-Rad</u>	<u>0.05°/</u> <u>daily</u>	<u>2000-</u> <u>2020</u>	<u>SW_{IN}</u>	<u>BESS process</u> <u>model</u>	<u>Ryu et al. (2018)</u>
<u>BESSV2.0</u>	<u>0.05°/</u> <u>daily</u>	<u>2000-</u> <u>2020</u>	<u>Rn, LE</u>	<u>BESS process</u> <u>model</u>	<u>Li et al. (2023)</u>
<u>FLUXCOM</u>	<u>0.0833°/</u> <u>8-day</u>	<u>2000-</u> <u>2020</u>	<u>Rn, LE, H</u>	<u>Model tree</u> <u>ensembles</u>	<u>Jung et al. (2019)</u>
<u>MOD16A2</u>	<u>500 m/</u> <u>8-day</u>	<u>2000-</u> <u>2020</u>	<u>LE</u>	<u>Modified Penman-</u> <u>Monteith equation</u> <u>Penman Monteith-</u> <u>Leuning model,</u>	<u>Mu et al. (2011)</u>
<u>PML_V2</u>	<u>500 m/</u> <u>8-day</u>	<u>2002-</u> <u>2020</u>	<u>LE</u>	<u>Priestly Taylor</u> <u>equation and Gash</u> <u>model</u> <u>Shuttleworth-</u> <u>Wallace two-</u> <u>source scheme,</u> <u>Gash model and</u> <u>Penman equation</u>	<u>Zhang et al. (2019)</u>
<u>ETMonitor</u>	<u>1 km/</u> <u>daily</u>	<u>2000-</u> <u>2020</u>	<u>LE</u>	<u>Penman equation</u>	<u>Zheng et al. (2022)</u>

252

253 **3 Methods**

254 The method used to generate global datasets of land surface radiation and heat
 255 fluxes is based on the CoSEB model/framework, which was developed by our recently

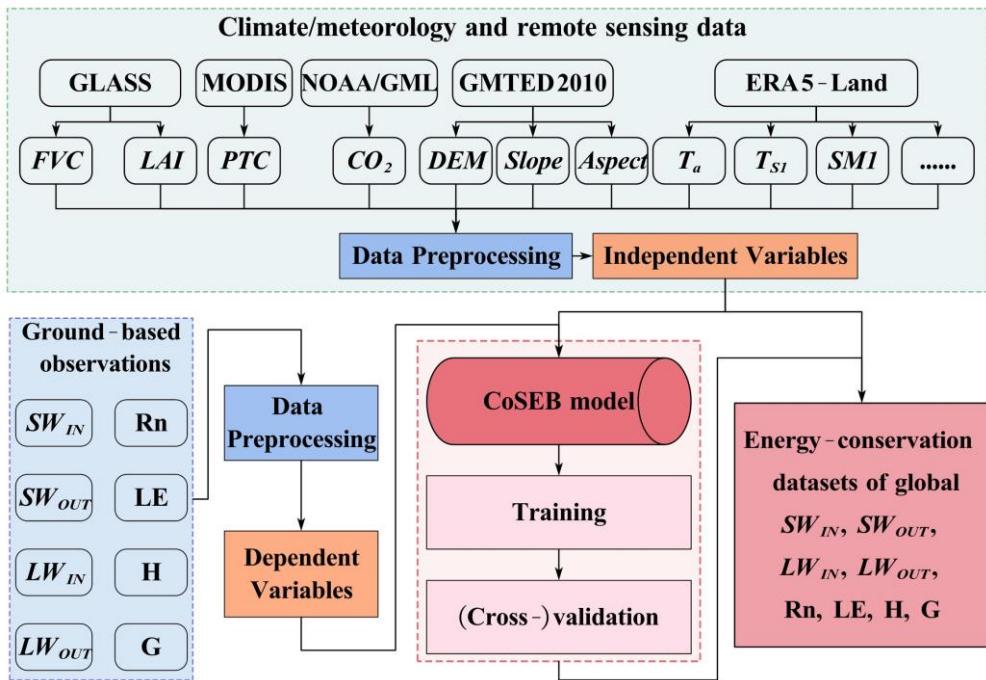
256 previously published work (Wang et al., 2025), to coordinately estimate global land
 257 surface energy balance components (including Rn, LE, H and G) using the multivariate
 258 random forest technique, with a combination of MODIS and GLASS products, ERA5-
 259 Land reanalysis datasets, and in situ observations at 336 EC sites ~~from the FLUXNET, AmeriFlux, ChinaFLUX, EuroFlux, OzFlux and Heihe River Basin flux network~~. The
 260 CoSEB model was demonstrated to be able to produce high-accuracy estimates of land
 261 surface energy components, with the RMSE of $<17 \text{ W/m}^2$ and R^2 of > 0.83 for
 262 estimating 4-day Rn, LE and H, and the RMSE of $<5 \text{ W/m}^2$ and R^2 of 0.55 for
 263 estimating 4-day G. The most praiseworthy superiority of the CoSEB model lies in its
 264 ability to balance the land surface energy components, with an energy imbalance ratio
 265 [EIR, defined as $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H) / Rn$] of 0.

267 To coordinately estimate land surface radiation and heat fluxes that comply with
 268 both radiation balance and heat balance, one of the key procedures in the construction
 269 of the CoSEB model was to prepare training datasets that satisfy surface radiation and
 270 heat balance. For this purpose, the energy-imbalance corrections on daily in situ
 271 observed LE and H were conducted by the most widely applied Bowen ratio method
 272 [$H^{corr} = \frac{H}{H+LE} \times (Rn - G)$, $LE^{corr} = \frac{LE}{H+LE} \times (Rn - G)$, where H^{corr} and LE^{corr}
 273 represent the sensible heat flux and latent heat flux after energy-imbalance correction,
 274 respectively] with the aid of Rn and G observations, and the in situ Rn was calculated
 275 from the sum of in situ observed net longwave radiation (LW_{IN} minus LW_{OUT}) and net
 276 shortwave radiation (SW_{IN} minus SW_{OUT}). The input variables to renew the CoSEB
 277 model include: (1) climate/meteorology: T_a , SW_{IN}^{ERA5} , LW_{net} , WS , PA , P_r , RH ,
 278 CO_2 concentration; (2) vegetation and soil: LAI , FVC , PTC , $T_{SI} - T_{S1}$, $SM1 - SM1$; (3)
 279 topography data: *DEM*, *Slope* and *Aspect*, in addition to longitude (*Lon*), latitude (*Lat*),
 280 and inverse relative distance from the Earth to the Sun (*dr*), in which the *dr* was
 281 calculated as $dr = 1 + 0.033 \times \cos\left(\frac{2\pi \times DOY}{365}\right)$, where *DOY* represents the day of year.

282 Considering that the footprint of the site-based measurements of turbulent heat fluxes
283 is generally at a scale of hundreds of meters, to reduce the effect of differences of spatial
284 scales between ground-based measurements (dependent variables) and remotely
285 sensed/reanalysis datasets (independent variables), we renewed the CoSEB model at a
286 spatial scale of 500 m for coordinately estimating global daily land surface radiation
287 and heat fluxes, which can be expressed as follows:

288
$$\begin{pmatrix} SW_{IN}, SW_{OUT}, LW_{IN}, \\ LW_{OUT}, Rn, LE, H, G \end{pmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} Lon, Lat, T_a, T_{s1}, SM1, SW_{IN}^{ERA45}, LW_{net}, PA, WS, P_r, dr \\ RH, LAI, FVC, PTC, DEM, Slope, Aspect, CO_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

289 To enhance model generalization, the renewed CoSEB model was reoptimized
290 using random and grid search methods, resulting in different hyperparameters of 281
291 decision trees, a maximum depth of 21, and minimum samples split and leaf of 8 from
292 those of Wang et al. (2025). Site-based 10-fold cross-validation was employed to
293 evaluate the transferability and generalization of the CoSEB model by randomly
294 dividing all sites into ten folds, where the samples from each fold of sites in turn served
295 as validation datasets while the remaining folds were used as training datasets, ensuring
296 that the validation was conducted on sites spatially independent from the training data.
297 For comparison, eight RF-based uncoordinated models for separate estimates of SW_{IN}
298 SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn , LE , H and G were also constructed using the same inputs as
299 those in the renewed CoSEB model. Site-based 10-fold cross-validation was employed
300 to assess the transferability and generalization of the CoSEB model by randomly
301 dividing all sites into ten folds, where each fold in turn serves as validation datasets
302 while the other folds as the training datasets, ensuring the validation of the estimates of
303 the CoSEB was conducted at sites that are spatially independent from those selected for
304 the training datasets. Furthermore, to benchmark the coordinated estimates from the
305 renewed CoSEB model, eight RF-based uncoordinated models were constructed, each
306 separately estimating one of SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn , LE , H or G using the same
307 inputs as those in the renewed CoSEB model. Fig. 2 illustrates the flowchart for
308 generating global datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes by the CoSEB model.



309

310 **Fig. 2 Flowchart for generating energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation**
311 [including downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN}), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN}),
312 upward shortwave radiation (SW_{OUT}), upward longwave radiation (LW_{OUT}) and net radiation
313 (Rn) and heat fluxes [including latent heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G) and sensible heat flux
314 (H)] by the CoSEB model renewed from in situ observations at 258 sites worldwide and
315 collocated remote sensing and reanalysis datasets.

316 **4 Results**317 **4.1 Validation of the CoSEB model**318 **4.1.1 Site-based 10-fold cross-validations at 258 EC sites**

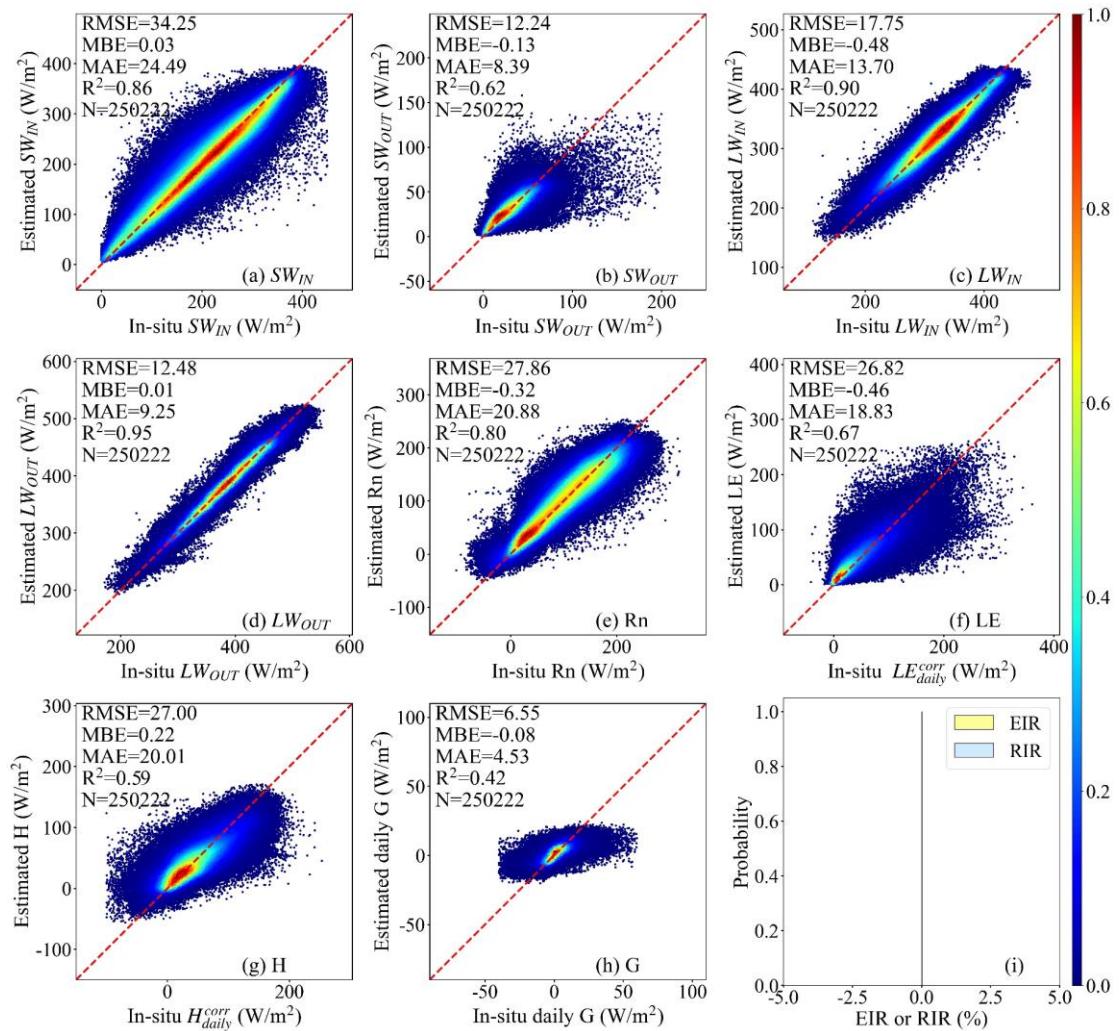
319 Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 present the scatter density plots of the site-based 10-fold cross-
320 validation of daily SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{OUT} , Rn , LE , H and G estimated from the
321 renewed CoSEB model and the RF-based uncoordinated models, respectively, by using
322 the validation datasets collected at 258 EC sites worldwide. Results indicated that the
323 estimates from both the CoSEB model and the RF-based uncoordinated models agreed
324 well with the in situ observations, with the coefficient of determination (R^2) varying
325 between 0.80 and 0.95 for SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} and Rn , and between 0.59 and 0.67 for
326 SW_{OUT} , LE and H . The CoSEB model, with the root mean square error (RMSE) of 26.82
327 to 34.25 W/m^2 and mean absolute error (MAE) of 18.83 to 24.49 W/m^2 for SW_{IN} , Rn ,
328 LE and H , the RMSE of 12.24 to 17.75 W/m^2 and the MAE of 8.39 to 13.70 W/m^2 for

329 SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , demonstrated comparable accuracies to the RF-based models,
330 with the RMSE of 27.07 to 33.34 W/m² and MAE of 19.29 to 23.64 W/m² for SW_{IN} ,
331 Rn, LE and H, the RMSE of 12.12 to 16.93 W/m² and the MAE of 8.68 to 12.99 W/m²
332 for SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} . In the validation of daily G, both the CoSEB and RF-based
333 models yielded RMSEs below 7 W/m². Comparisons with the corresponding training
334 results (Table S3 in the Supplementary Material) indicated that although the CoSEB
335 model performed better on the training datasets, its overall performance remained stable,
336 suggesting that the CoSEB model was not affected by overfitting.

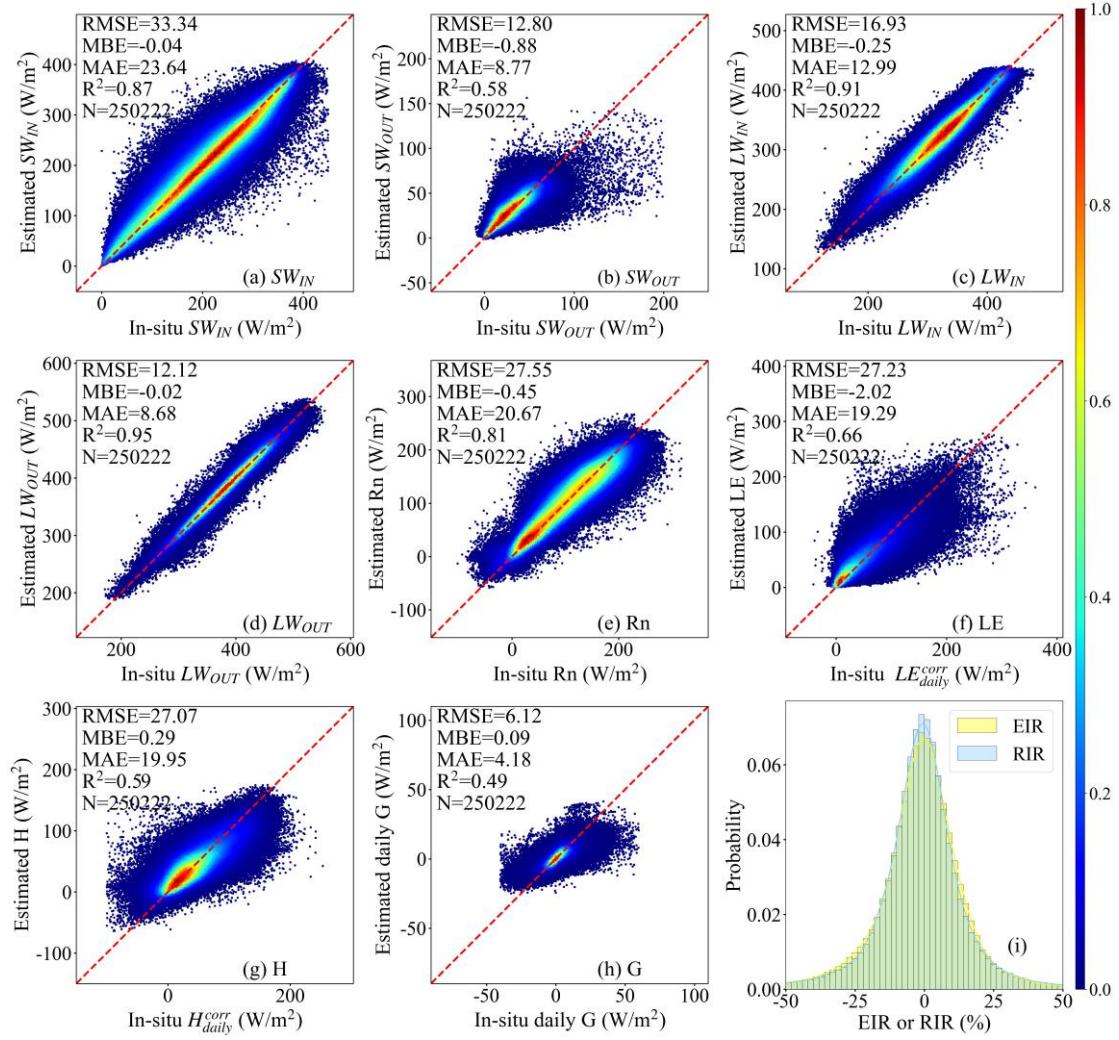
337 Strikingly, the CoSEB model exhibited large superiority in balancing the surface
338 radiation and heat fluxes, with the radiation imbalance ratio [RIR, defined as $100\% \times$
339 $(SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT})/Rn$
340 $100\% \times (SW_{IN} + LW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} - LW_{OUT} - Rn)/Rn$] and energy imbalance ratio [EIR,
341 defined as $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn - 100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$] of 0, while
342 the RF-based uncoordinated models showed substantial imbalances of the surface
343 radiation and heat fluxes, with RIR and EIR that were approximately normally
344 distributed, having absolute mean values of 38.84% and 31.22%, respectively, and
345 reaching as high as 50% in some cases. Furthermore, the RIR as well as EIR tended to
346 be higher under lower solar radiation, air temperature, or FVC, with more frequent low
347 values of these three variables leading to a broader and less peaked distribution of RIR
348 and EIR (see Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Material).

349 ~~It should be pointed out that the performances of both the renewed CoSEB model~~
350 ~~and the RF based models could be further improved if the site based 10 fold cross~~
351 ~~validation was replaced with the sample based 10 fold cross validation (Figs. S1 and~~
352 ~~S2 in the Supplementary Material). Specifically, for the CoSEB model, using the~~
353 ~~sample based 10 fold cross validation decreased the RMSE by 0.61 to 3.92 W/m² for~~
354 ~~five radiation components and G, and by 6.25 W/m² and 5.50 W/m² for LE and H,~~
355 ~~respectively, in comparison to using the site based 10 fold cross validation. Likewise,~~
356 ~~for the RF based models, the RMSE decreased by 1.41 to 5.25 W/m² for five radiation~~

357 components and G, and by 9.63 W/m^2 and 7.43 W/m^2 for LE and H, respectively. The
 358 R^2 of both the CoSEB model and the RF based models using the sample-based 10-fold
 359 cross-validation increased by 0.02 to 0.28 compared to the R^2 using the site-based 10-
 360 fold cross-validation.



361
 362 **Fig. 3 Scatter density plots of the site-based 10-fold cross-validation of daily downward**
 363 **shortwave and longwave radiation (SW_{IN} and LW_{IN}), upward shortwave and longwave**
 364 **radiation (SW_{OUT} and LW_{OUT}), net radiation (Rn), soil heat flux (G), latent heat flux (LE) and**
 365 **sensible heat flux (H) derived by the CoSEB model against in situ observed SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} ,**
 366 **LW_{OUT} , Rn, G, and energy imbalance-corrected LE (LE_{daily}^{corr}) and H (H_{daily}^{corr}). The EIR and RIR**
 367 **in the subfigure (i) represent the energy imbalance ratio and radiation imbalance ratio, which**
 368 **are defined as $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$ and $100\% \times (Rn - G - LE - H)/Rn$ and $100\% \times$**
 369 **$(SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT})/Rn$** and $100\% \times (SW_{IN} + LW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} - LW_{OUT} - Rn)/Rn$,
 370 **respectively. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.**



371

372

Fig. 4 Same as Fig. 3, but for estimates from RF-based uncoordinated models.

373

4.1.2 Validation at nine radiation sites from SURFRAD

374

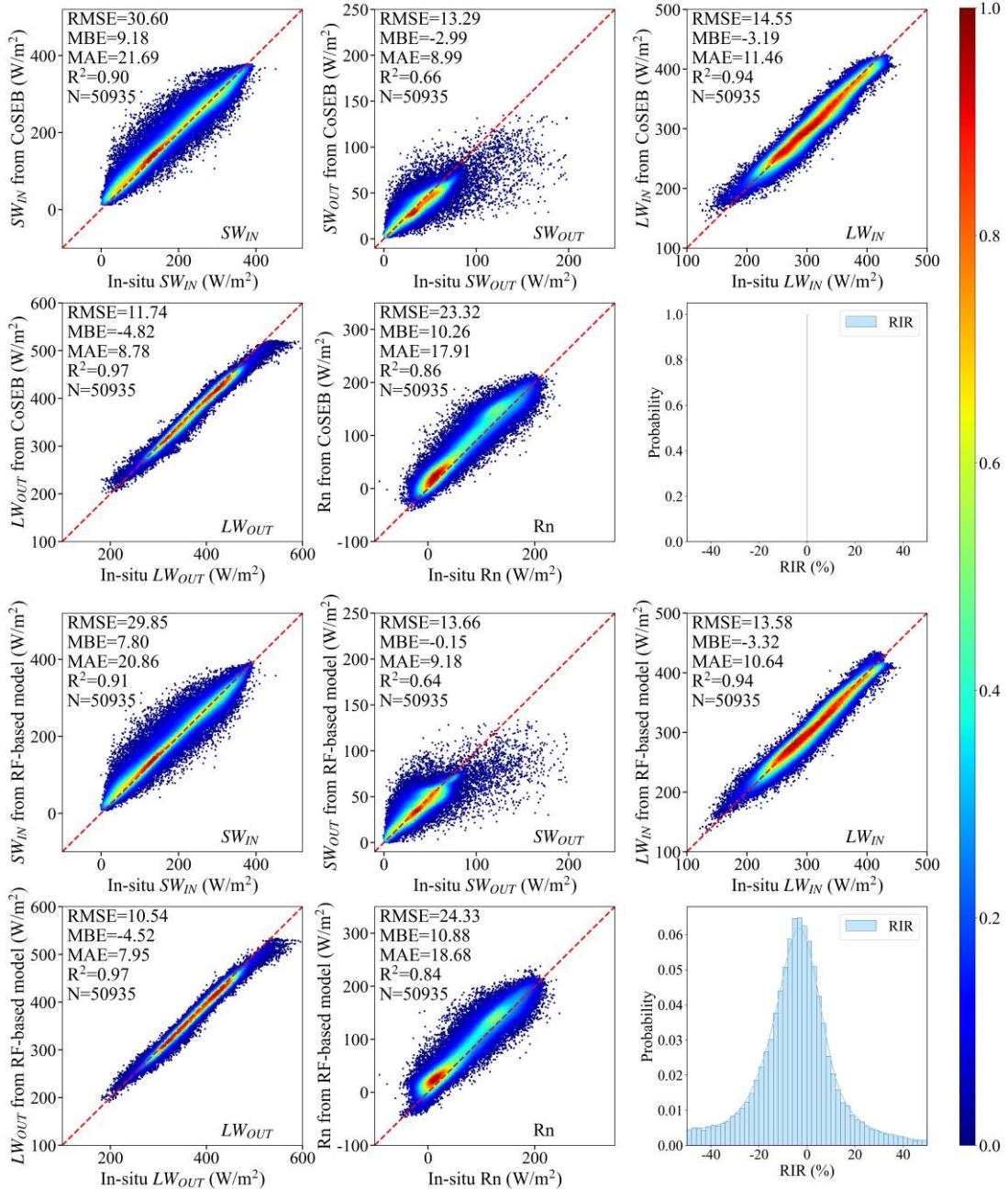
To further illustrate the generality and transferability of the renewed CoSEB model, the validation of estimates of the five radiation components (including SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn) derived from both the CoSEB model and RF-based uncoordinated models against observations at nine radiation sites from SURFRAD was performed, as shown in Fig. 5. The results showed that both the CoSEB model and the RF-based models achieved high accuracy in estimating daily SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} and Rn , with the RMSE of ~ 30 W/m^2 for SW_{IN} , ~ 14 W/m^2 for SW_{OUT} and LW_{IN} , ~ 12 W/m^2 for LW_{OUT} and ~ 24 W/m^2 for Rn , with the $R^2 > 0.9$ for SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , ~ 0.65 for SW_{OUT} and ~ 0.85 for Rn . Compared to the results of the site-based 10-fold cross-validation at 258 EC sites, the performances at nine radiation sites showed slight

384 improvements, with the RMSE decreasing by 0.74 to 4.54 W/m² for SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT}
385 and Rn in the CoSEB model, but a slight degradation with the RMSE increasing by
386 ~ 1.05 W/m² for SW_{OUT} , suggesting the robust performance of the CoSEB model.
387 Furthermore, the CoSEB model demonstrated a large superiority in maintaining surface
388 radiation balance among the five radiation components, with the RIR of 0, in contrast
389 to the RF-based models, which failed to meet this balance, exhibiting significant RIR
390 exceeding 50%.

391 **4.2 Validation and inter-comparisons of the CoSEB-based datasets**

392 As demonstrated in Section 4.1, the renewed CoSEB model with a spatial scale of
393 500 m achieved comparable accuracies to the RF-based uncoordinated models but
394 outperformed them in balancing surface radiation and heat fluxes. Evidenced by the
395 validation for its superiority, the renewed CoSEB model was then applied to the
396 spatially aggregated input datasets to generate our developed global daily datasets with
397 a spatial resolution of 0.05°. To further assess the performance of the developed
398 CoSEB-based datasets, in situ observations from another 44 spatially independent test
399 sites (see Section 2.1), which were not involved in model construction and datasets
400 generation, were used for validation. Mainstream products (i.e. GLASS, BESS-Rad,
401 BESSV2.0, FLUXCOM, PML_V2, MOD16A2 and ETMonitor) were also involved for
402 inter-comparison at the 44 test sites.

403 Note that due to the lack of moderate-resolution global RS-based products/datasets
404 of daily and/or 8-day SW_{OUT} , H and G, the intercomparison between different
405 products/datasets was impossible. Instead, we conducted a validation of these
406 components from the CoSEB-based datasets against in situ observations at 44 test sites,
407 as shown in Figs S2 and S3 in the Supplementary Material. Results indicated that the
408 CoSEB-based datasets could provide good estimates of SW_{OUT} , H and G, with the
409 RMSEs (R^2) of 14.20 W/m² (0.42), 29.75 W/m² (0.44) and 5.69 W/m² (0.44) at daily
410 scale, respectively, and the RMSE (R^2) of 12.19 W/m² (0.39) and 4.60 W/m² (0.47) for
411 8-day SW_{OUT} and G, respectively.



413
 414 **Fig. 5 Scatter density plots of the validation of daily downward shortwave and longwave**
 415 **radiation (SW_{IN} and LW_{IN}), upward shortwave and longwave radiation (SW_{OUT} and LW_{OUT})**
 416 **and net radiation (Rn) from the renewed CoSEB model (upper two rows) and RF-based**
 417 **uncoordinated models (lower two rows) -based datasets- against in situ observations at nine**
 418 **radiation sites from SURFRAD. The RIR represents the radiation imbalance ratio, defined as**
 419 **$100\% \times (SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT})/Rn - 100\% \times (SW_{IN} + LW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} - LW_{OUT})/Rn$.**

420 The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.

421 **4.2 Validation and inter-comparisons of the CoSEB-based datasets**

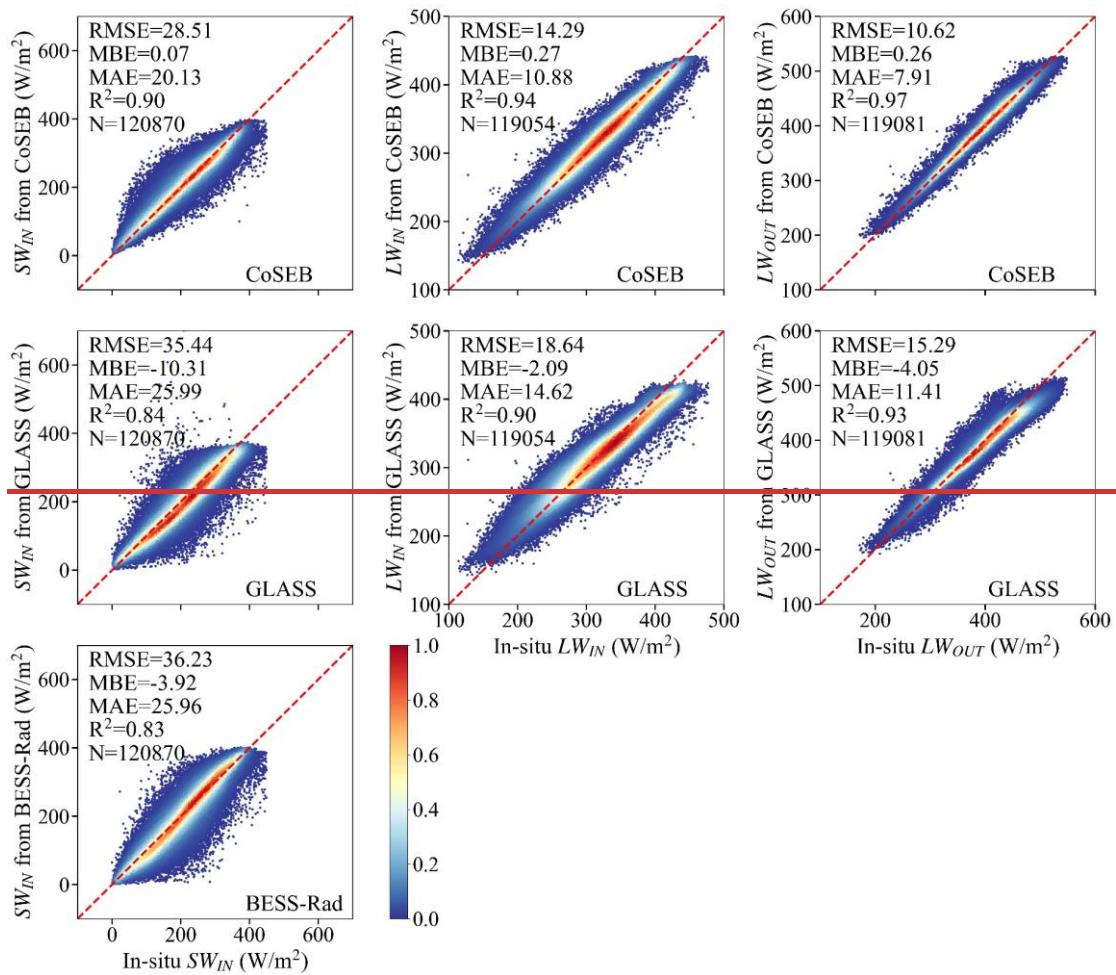
422 As demonstrated in Section 4.1, the renewed CoSEB model with a spatial scale of

423 500 m achieved comparable accuracies to the RF-based uncoordinated models but
424 outperformed them in balancing surface radiation and heat fluxes. Evidenced by the
425 validation for its superiority, the renewed CoSEB model was then applied to the
426 spatially aggregated input datasets to generate our developed global daily datasets with
427 a spatial resolution of 0.05°. To further assess the performance of the developed datasets,
428 in situ observations at 134 sites out of the 258 EC sites were further used to test the
429 performance of the CoSEB-based datasets, where the 134 sites were selected based on
430 the commonly applied criterion (Salazar Martinez et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2024a) that
431 the fraction of the dominant land cover types (from the 500 m MCD12Q1 product)
432 exceeded 80% within the 0.05° grid, ensuring surface homogeneity and spatial
433 representativeness of the observations. Mainstream products (i.e. GLASS, BESS-Rad,
434 BESSV2.0, FLUXCOM, PML_V2, MOD16A2 and ETMonitor) were also involved for
435 inter-comparison at the 134 EC sites.

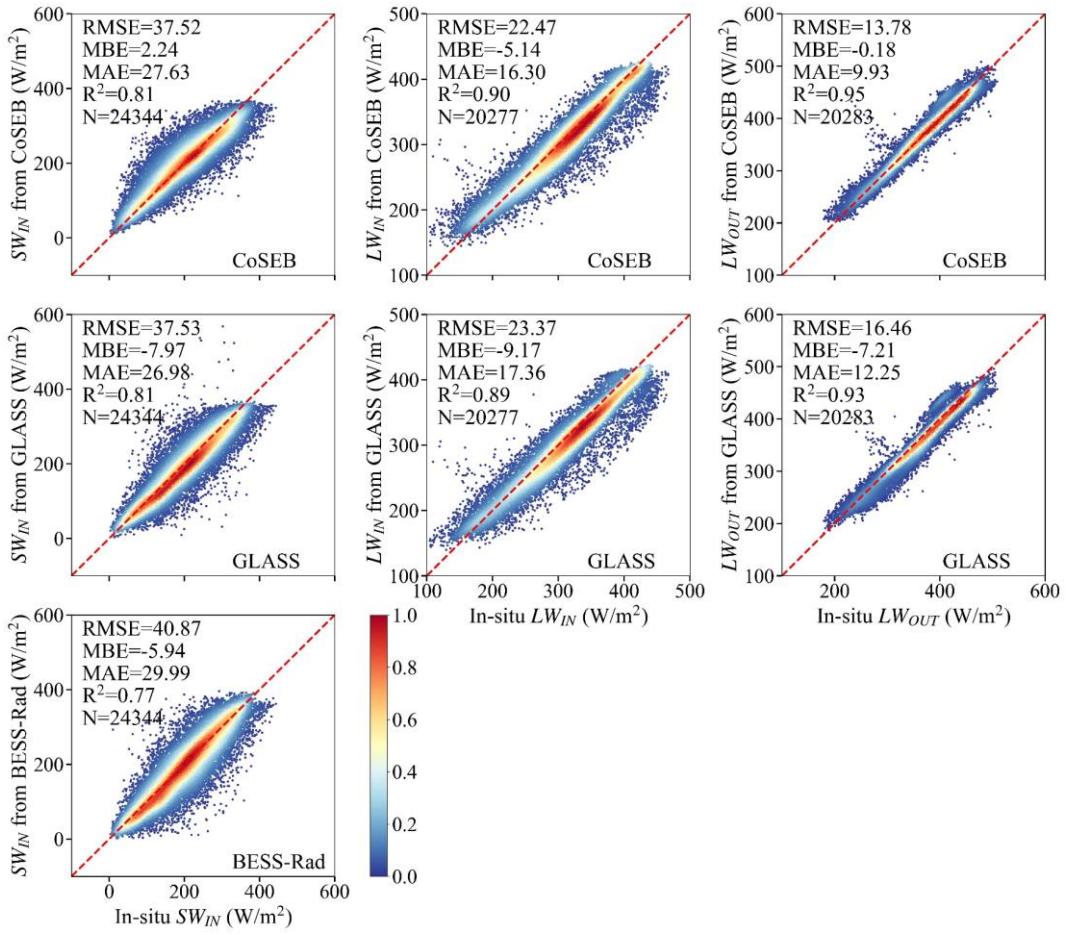
436 Note that due to the lack of moderate resolution global RS-based products/datasets
437 of daily and/or 8-day SW_{OUT} , H and G, the intercomparison between different
438 products/datasets was impossible. Instead, we conducted a validation of these
439 components from the CoSEB-based datasets against in situ observations at 134 EC sites,
440 as shown in Figs S3 and S4 in the Supplementary Material. Results indicated that the
441 CoSEB-based datasets could provide good estimates of SW_{OUT} , H and G, with the
442 RMSE of 10.39 W/m^2 , 22.67 W/m^2 and 6.77 W/m^2 at daily scale, respectively, and the
443 RMSE of 7.08 W/m^2 and 4.25 W/m^2 for 8-day SW_{OUT} and G, respectively.

444 Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 present the comparison of daily SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , as well
445 as Rn and LE from the CoSEB-based datasets and mainstream products/datasets
446 (including GLASS, BESS-Rad, BESSV2.0 and ETMonitor), with in situ observations
447 at 134 EC test sites, respectively. Overall, the estimates from the CoSEB-based
448 datasets exhibited a closer agreement with in situ observations than those from
449 mainstream products/datasets, where the CoSEB-based datasets reduced the RMSE by
450 4.350.01 W/m^2 to 11.464.58 W/m^2 and increased the R^2 by 0.0401 to 0.309 compared

451 to mainstream products. Specifically, the RMSE for the SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} increased
 452 from 28.5137.52 W/m², 14.2922.47 W/m² and 10.6213.78 W/m² in the CoSEB-based
 453 datasets to 35.447.53 W/m², 18.6423.37 W/m² and 15.2916.46 W/m² in the GLASS,
 454 respectively, and for SW_{IN} from 28.5137.52 W/m² in the CoSEB-based datasets to
 455 36.2340.87 W/m² in the BESS-Rad. Likewise, the RMSEs for daily Rn and LE were
 456 22.409.66 W/m² and 24.3830.87 W/m² in the CoSEB-based datasets, which were lower
 457 than those of 29.8034.24 W/m² and 35.754.36 W/m² in BESSV2.0, respectively, as well
 458 as those of 27.4430.60 W/m² for Rn in GLASS and 35.843.62 W/m² for LE in
 459 ETMonitor.

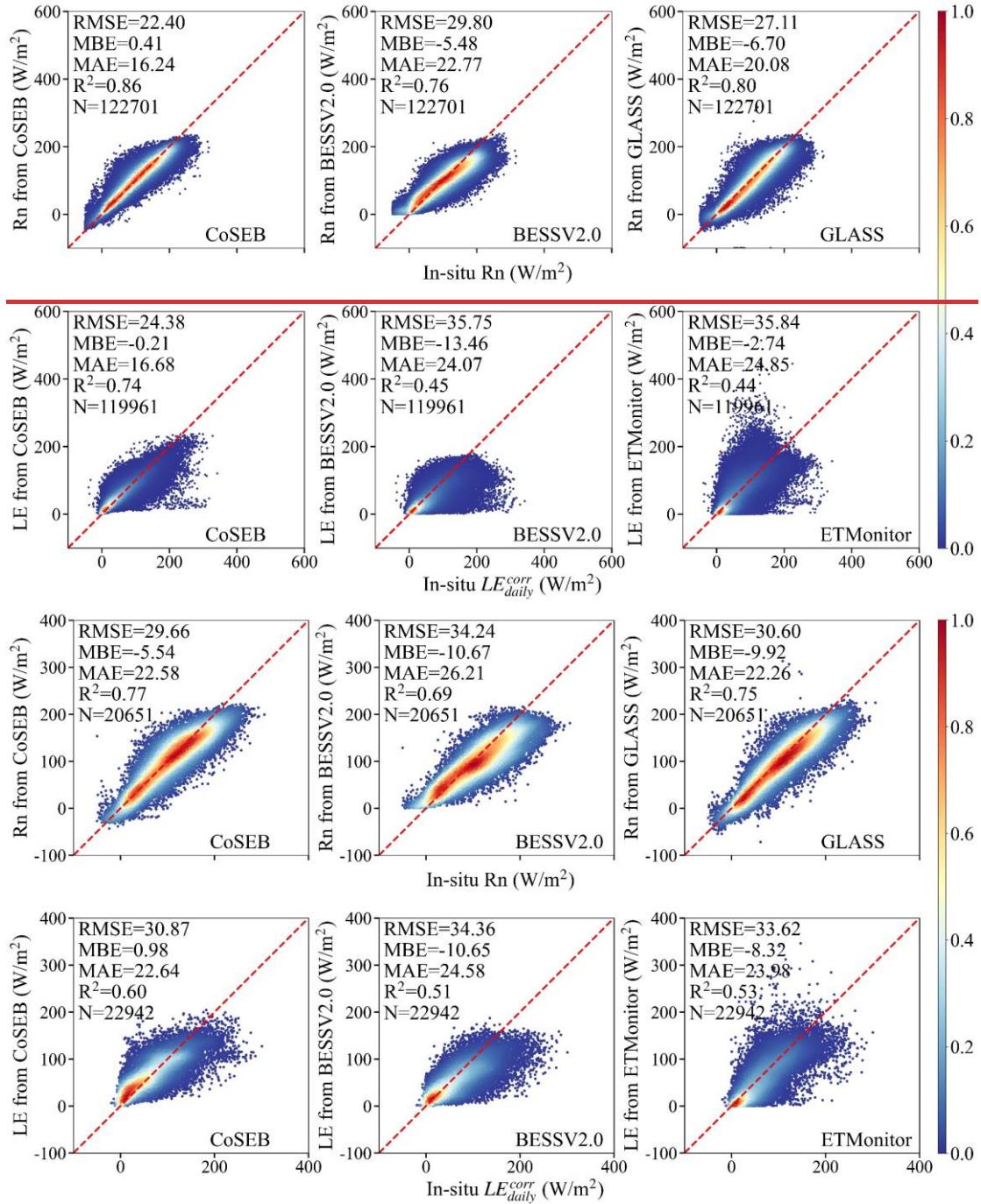


460



461

462 **Fig. 6 Comparison of the daily downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN} , the first column),**
463 **downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN} , the second column) and upward longwave radiation**
464 **(LW_{OUT} , the third column) from the CoSEB-based datasets, GLASS and BESS-Rad with the**
465 **in situ observed SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} at [134-44 eddy covariance test](#) sites. The colorbar**
466 **represents the normalized density of data points.**



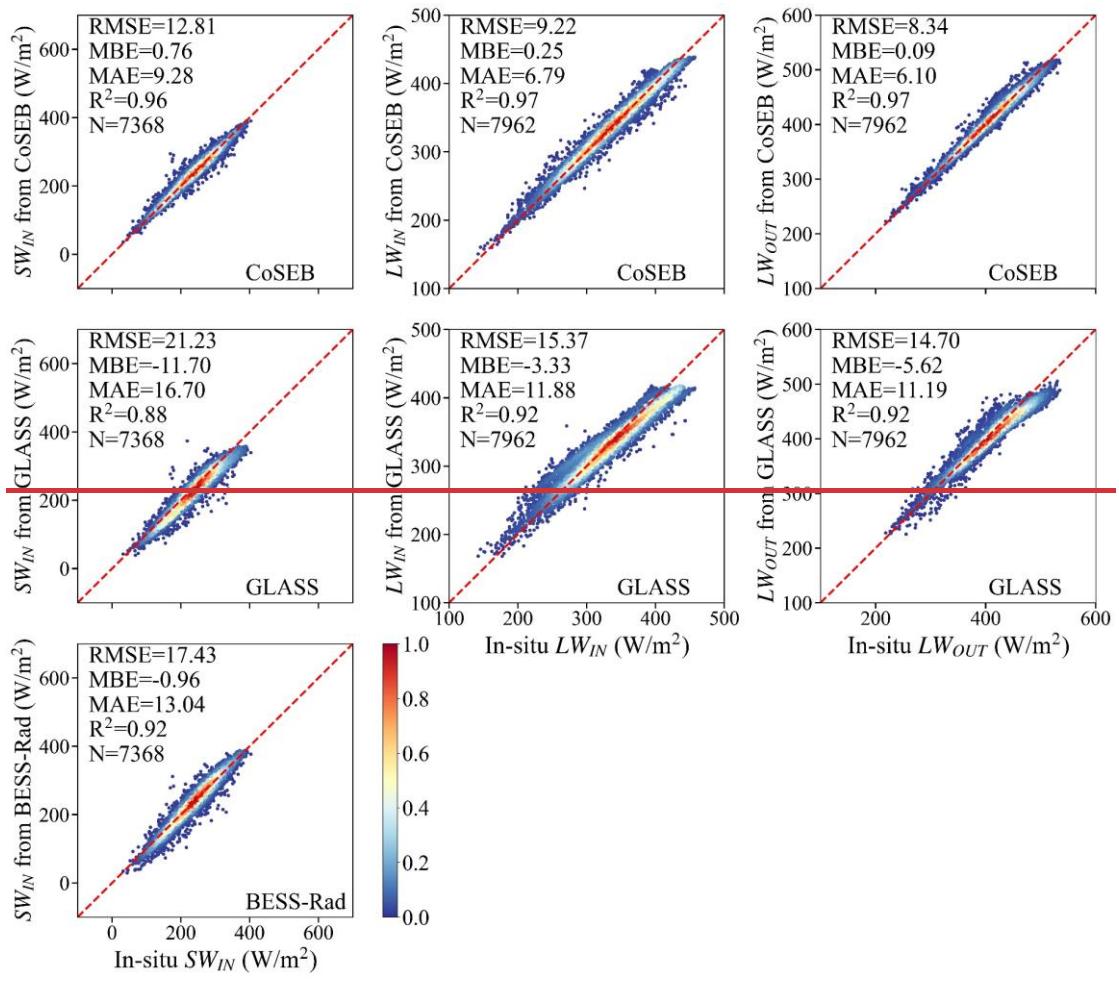
469 **Fig. 7 Comparison of the daily net radiation (Rn, the upper row) and latent heat flux (LE, the**
470 **lower row) from the CoSEB-based datasets, BESSV2.0, GLASS and ETMonitor with the in**
471 **situ observed Rn, and energy imbalance-corrected LE (LE^{corr}_{daily}) at [134_44 eddy covariance test](#)**
472 **sites. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.**

473 Figs. 8, 9 and 10 compare the 8-day SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , Rn and LE, as well as
474 H from the CoSEB-based datasets and mainstream products, with in situ observations
475 at [44 test134 EC](#) sites, respectively. Overall, the CoSEB-based datasets outperformed

476 the mainstream products/datasets for all surface radiation and heat fluxes, where the
477 CoSEB-based datasets reduced the RMSE by 4.620.24 W/m² to 14.640.48 W/m² and
478 increased the R² by 0.0401 to 0.4138 compared to mainstream products. Specifically,
479 for SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , the RMSE increased from 12.818.54 W/m², 9.2218.50 W/m²
480 and 8.349.41 W/m² in the CoSEB-based datasets to 21.2335 W/m², 15.3720.39 W/m²
481 and 14.7048 W/m² in the GLASS, respectively, and for SW_{IN} from 12.8118.54 W/m²
482 in the CoSEB-based datasets to 17.4318.78 W/m² in the BESS-Rad. For Rn, the RMSE
483 increased from 13.389.12 W/m² in the CoSEB-based datasets to ~23 W/m² in the
484 FLUXCOM and GLASS and to >27 W/m² in the BESSV2.0 18.64 W/m² in the GLASS
485 and to >23 W/m² in the FLUXCOM and BESSV2.0, while the R² decreased from 0.91
486 82 in the CoSEB-based datasets to 0.75 in the FLUXCOM and GLASS and to 0.8262
487 in the GLASS BESSV2.0 and to <0.72 in the FLUXCOM and BESSV2.0. Likewise, for
488 LE, the RMSE increased from 19.9922.31 W/m² in the CoSEB-based datasets to
489 ~26.1625 W/m² in the FLUXCOM, PML_V2, BESSV2.0 and ETMonitor, and
490 to >28.1732 W/m² in BESSV2.0, MOD16A2, PML_V2 and ETMonitor, while the R²
491 decreased from 0.867 in the CoSEB-based datasets to ~0.6560 in the FLUXCOM,
492 PML_V2, BESSV2.0 and ETMonitor FLUXCOM, and to <0.63 in the remaining
493 products MOD16A1. For H, the RMSE increased from 17.4421.63 W/m² in the CoSEB-
494 based datasets to 23.962.64 W/m² in the FLUXCOM.

495 The differences between the estimates from the CoSEB-based datasets and
496 mainstream datasets are likely multifactorial, arising from the simplification and
497 parameterization uncertainties in physics-based models, as well as the lack of physical
498 constraints, limited training samples, and incomplete consideration of influencing
499 factors in other machine-learning-based models.

500



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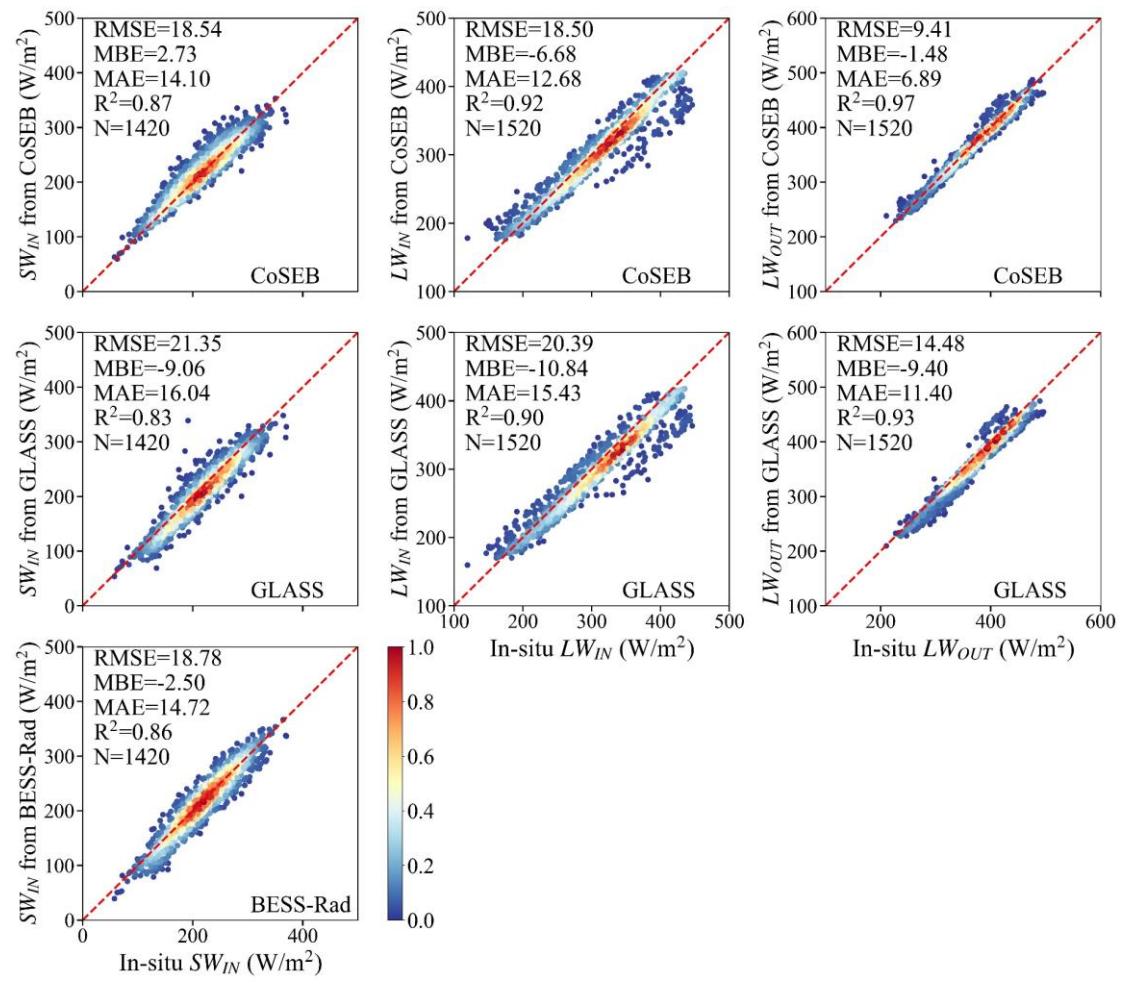
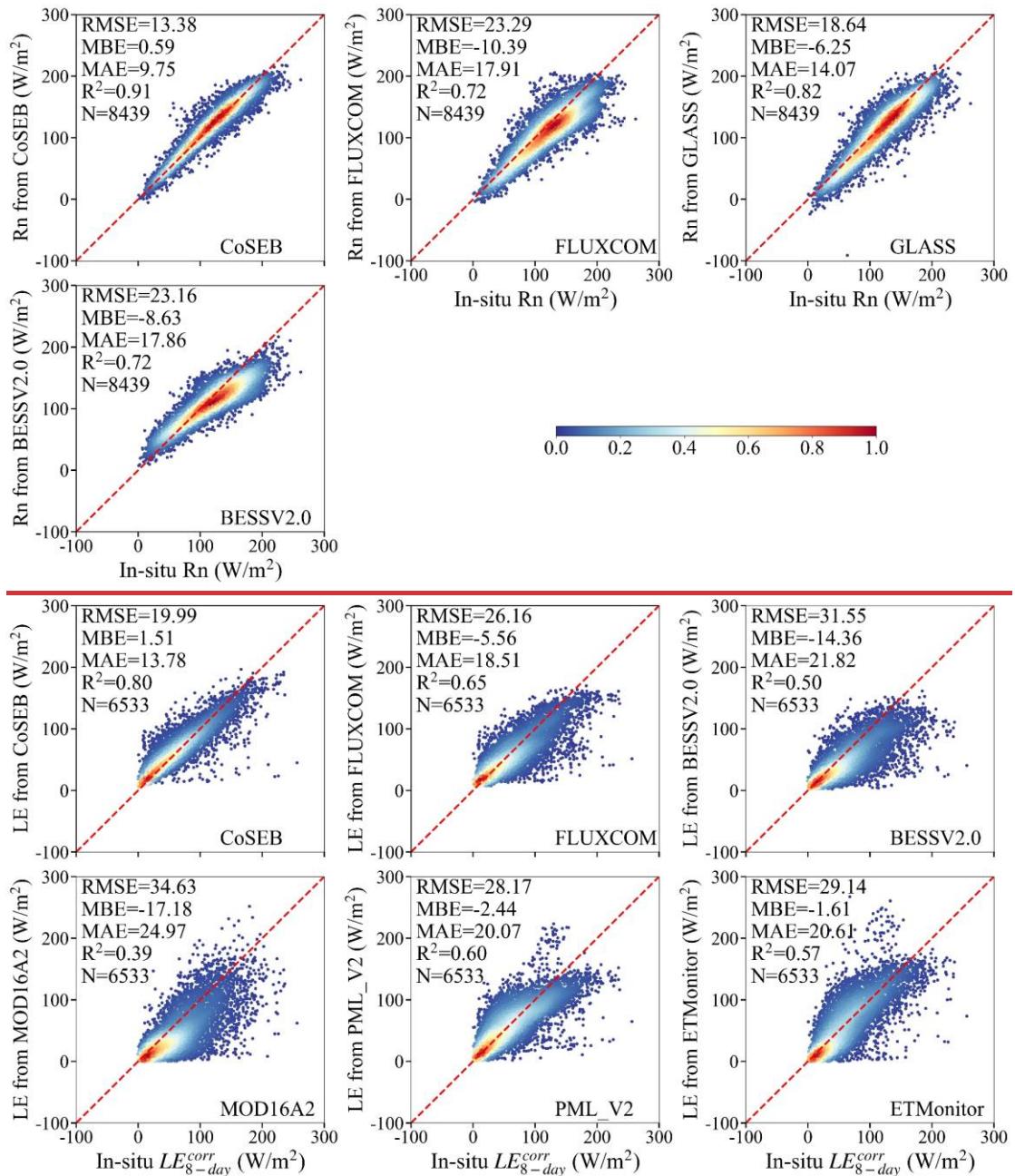
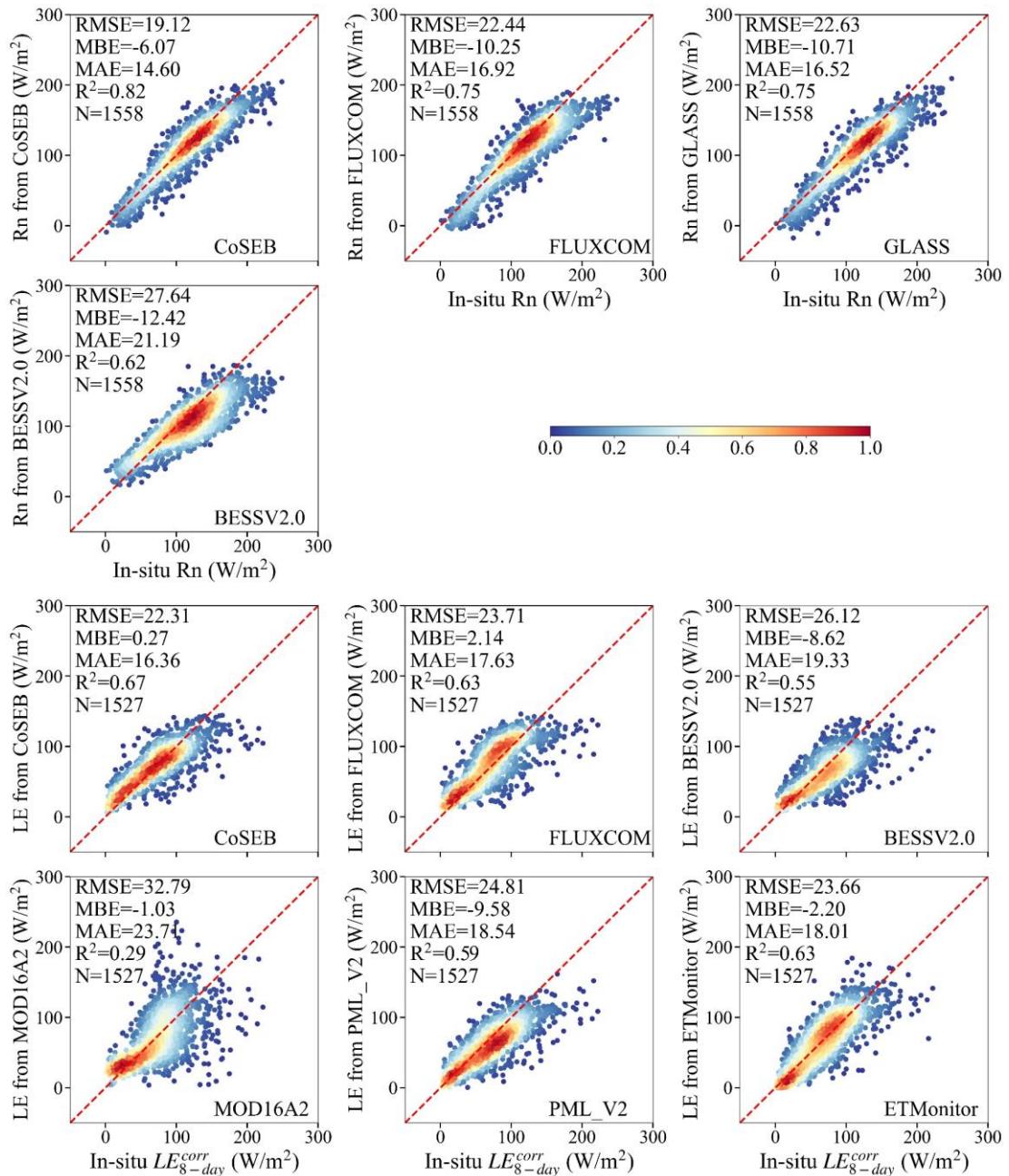


Fig. 8 Same as Fig. 6, but for the comparison at 8-day scale.





505

506

Fig. 9 Comparison of the 8-day net radiation (Rn, the upper two rows)

507

and latent heat flux (LE, the lower three rows) from the CoSEB-based datasets, FLUXCOM,

508

BESSV2.0, GLASS, MOD16A2, PML_V2 and ETMonitor with in situ observed Rn, and energy imbalance-

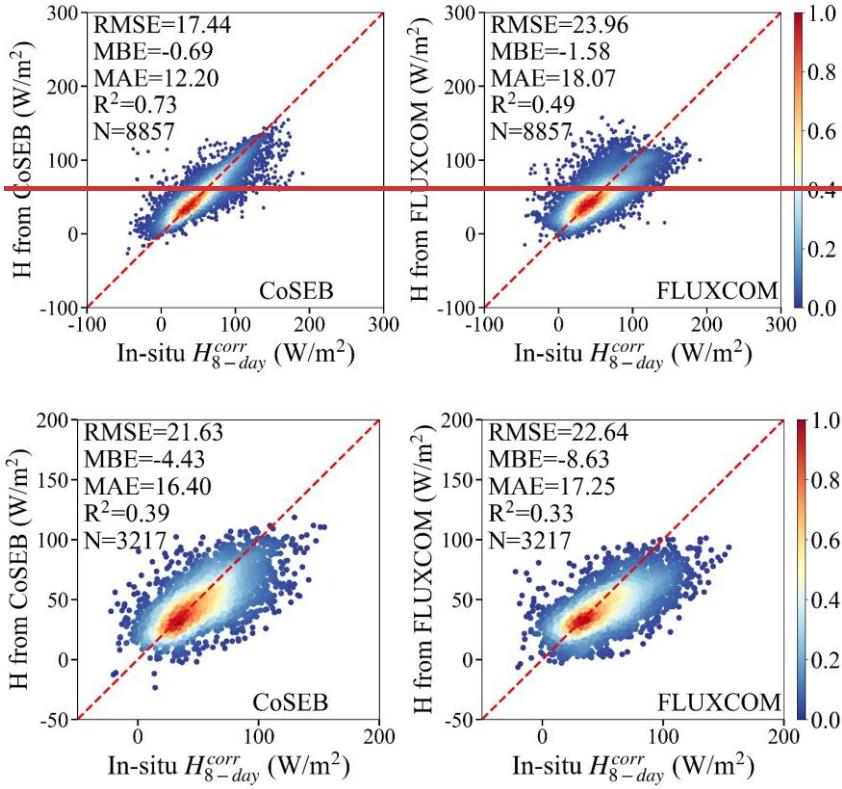
509

corrected LE (LE^{corr}) at ~~134-44 tested~~ ~~44~~ covariance sites. The colorbar represents the

510

normalized density of data points.

511



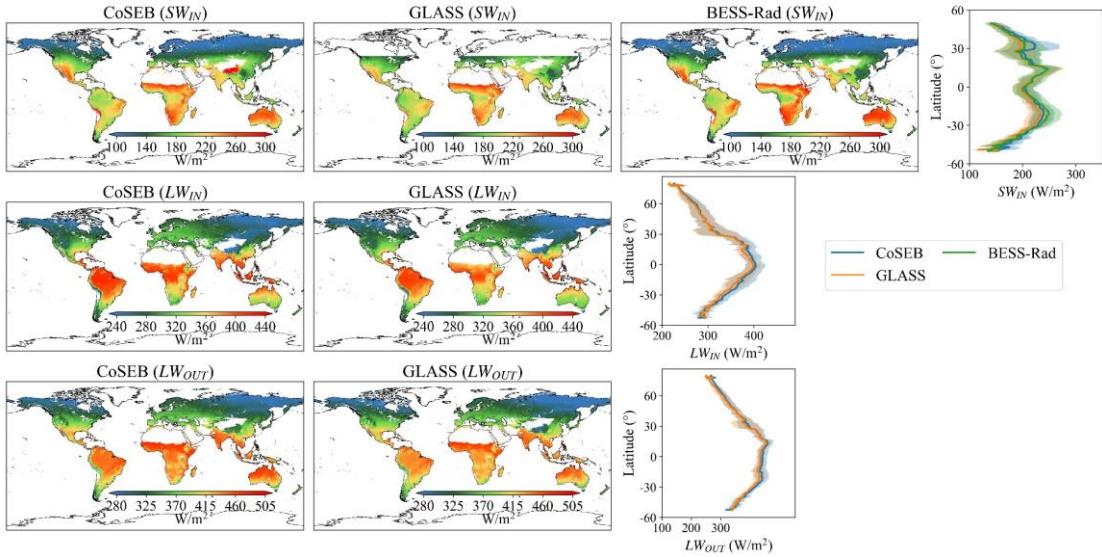
512
513
514 **Fig. 10 Comparison of the 8-day sensible heat flux (H) from the CoSEB-based datasets and**
515 **the FLUXCOM with the in situ energy imbalance-corrected H (H_{8-day}^{corr}) at 134-44 eddy**
516 **covariance test sites. The colorbar represents the normalized density of data points.**

517 **4.3 Spatial-temporal patterns of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes**

518 In addition to the validation and inter-comparison of the CoSEB-based datasets at
519 the global site scales, we further inter-compared the estimates of land surface radiation
520 and heat fluxes from the CoSEB-based datasets and the mainstream products/datasets,
521 in terms of their global spatial and temporal patterns.

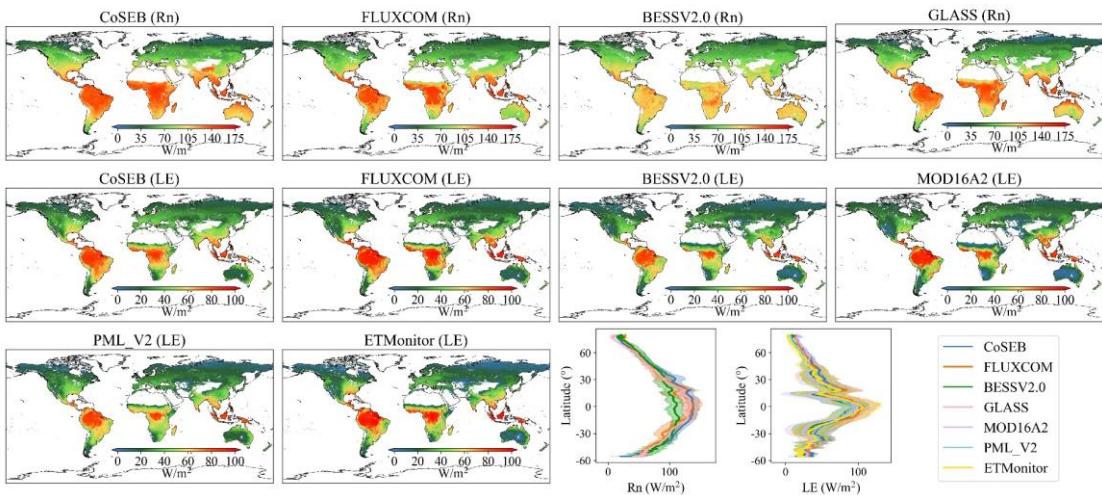
522 Figs. 11, 12 and 13 show the spatial distributions (excluding Greenland, Antarctic
523 continent, deserts, water bodies and permanent snow) and latitudinal profiles of the
524 global 0.05° mean annual SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , Rn and LE, as well as H from 2001
525 to 2018, respectively, as derived from the CoSEB-based datasets and mainstream
526 products/datasets [i.e. GLASS, BESS-Rad, BESSV2.0, FLUXCOM, MOD16A2,
527 PML_V2 and ETMonitor, resampled to 0.05° using arithmetic averaging method or
528 cubic convolutional method if necessary]. Overall, the spatial patterns of the estimates

529 from the CoSEB-based datasets aligned well with those observed in these mainstream
530 products/datasets, though regional discrepancies were present. Specifically, the mean
531 annual LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn, and LE generally exhibited decreasing trends from the equator
532 towards higher latitudes, peaking in regions such as the Amazon Rainforest, Congo
533 Rainforest, and the Malay Archipelago. In contrast, the higher mean annual SW_{IN} and
534 H were mainly found in the Tibetan Plateau, southwestern U.S., mid-west Australia,
535 Sahel and Southern Africa, while the lower values were found in high-latitude regions
536 of $>50^{\circ}\text{N}$. In the region with of high values, the mean annual estimates of SW_{IN} from
537 the CoSEB-based datasets were higher than those from GLASS but lower than those
538 from BESS-Rad, the estimates of LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} from the CoSEB-based datasets were
539 both higher than those from GLASS, the estimates of Rn from the CoSEB-based
540 datasets were significantly higher than those from BESSV2.0, and comparable to or
541 slightly higher than those from FLUXCOM and GLASS, the estimates of LE from the
542 CoSEB-based datasets were close to those from BESSV2.0 and PML_V2, but slightly
543 lower than those from FLUXCOM, MOD16A2 and ETMonitor. Besides, the estimates
544 of H from the CoSEB-based datasets were higher than those from FLUXCOM in
545 regions with high values, while lower than those from FLUXCOM in regions with low
546 values.



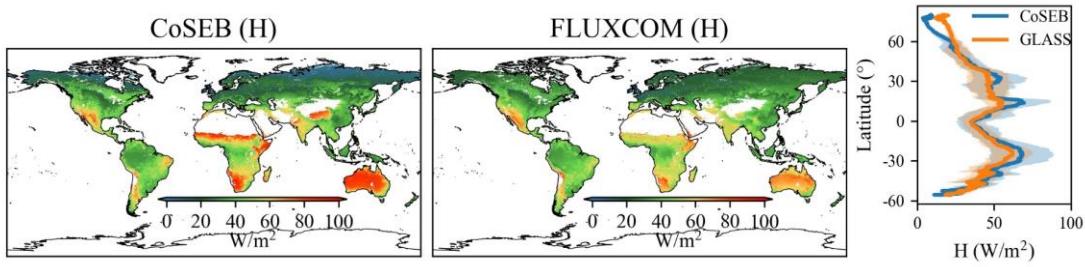
547

548 **Fig.11** Spatial patterns of global mean annual downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN} , the first
 549 row), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN} , the second row) and upward longwave radiation
 550 (LW_{OUT} , the third row) from 2001 to 2018 by CoSEB-based datasets, GLASS and BESS-Rad.
 551 The rightmost subfigure of each row represents the latitudinal profiles of mean annual SW_{IN} ,
 552 LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} from CoSEB-based datasets, GLASS and BESS-Rad, where the shaded area
 553 represents the variation of standard deviation for each product.



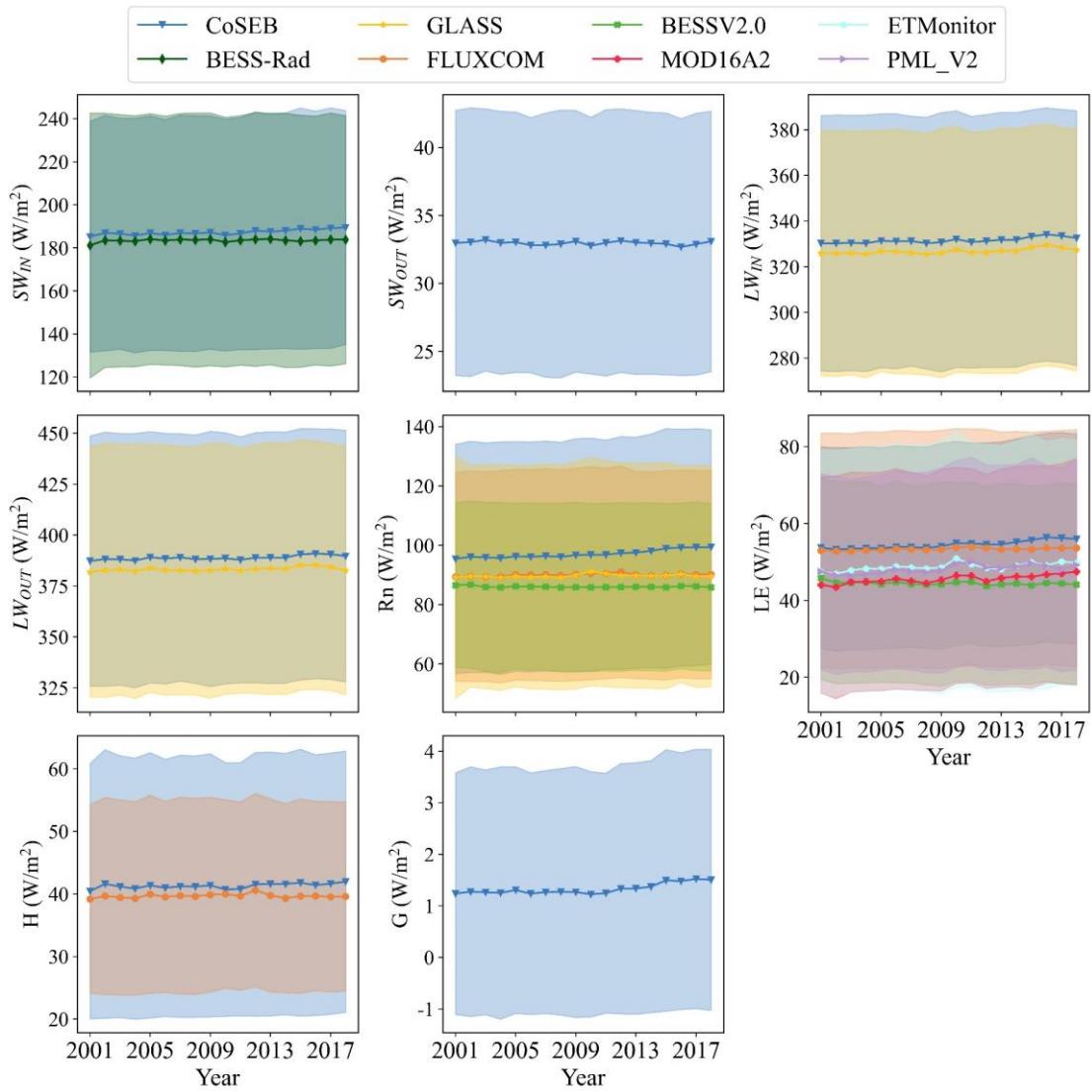
554

555 **Fig.12** Spatial patterns of global mean annual net radiation (Rn , the first row) and latent heat
 556 flux (LE , the second and third rows) from 2001 to 2018 by CoSEB-based datasets, FLUXCOM,
 557 BESSV2.0, MOD16A2, PML_V2, ETMonitor and GLASS. The last two subfigures of the third
 558 row represent the latitudinal profiles of mean annual Rn and LE from CoSEB-based datasets
 559 and these mainstream products/datasets, where the shaded area represents the variation of
 560 standard deviation for each product.



561
 562 **Fig.13 Spatial patterns of global mean annual sensible heat flux (H) from 2001 to 2018 by**
 563 **CoSEB-based datasets and FLUXCOM. The rightmost subfigure represents the latitudinal**
 564 **profiles of mean annual H from CoSEB-based datasets and FLUXCOM, where the shaded**
 565 **area represents the variation of standard deviation for each product.**

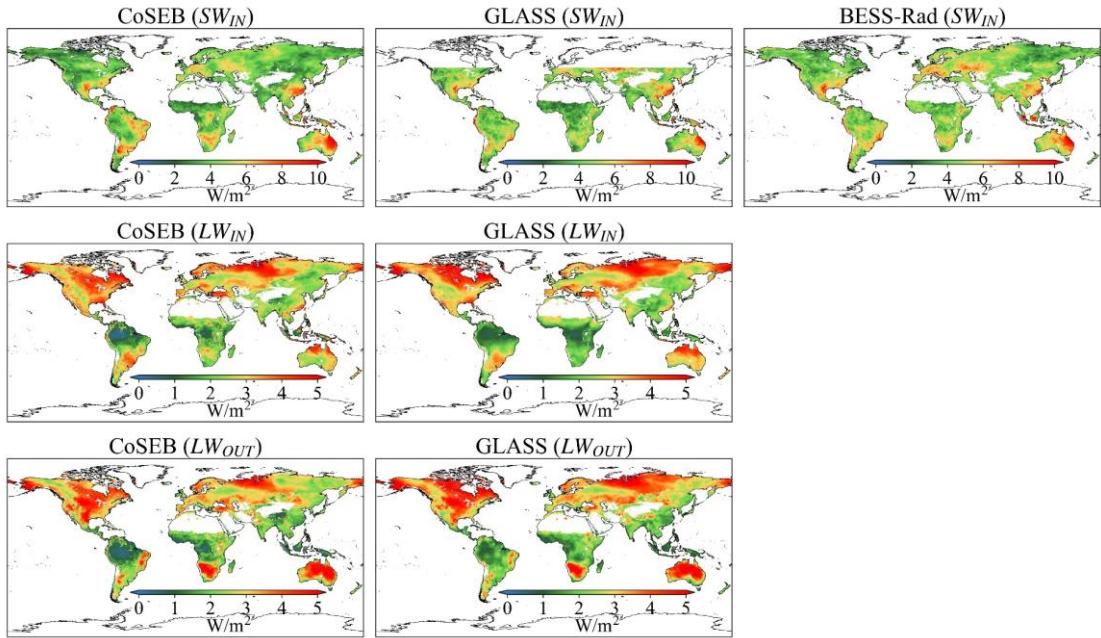
566 The temporal evolutions of the global (excluding Greenland, Antarctic continent,
 567 deserts, water bodies and permanent snow) land surface radiation and heat fluxes
 568 derived from the CoSEB-based datasets and mainstream products/datasets from 2001
 569 to 2018 were also investigated, as shown in Fig. 14. The results indicated that the
 570 temporal variation of each flux from the CoSEB-based datasets generally agreed well
 571 with those from mainstream products/datasets, exhibiting relatively stable trends. The
 572 global annual mean estimates using area weighting average by the CoSEB-based
 573 datasets from 2001 to 2018 varied between ~ 185.22 and ~ 189.50 W/m^2 with the mean
 574 of ~ 187.23 W/m^2 for SW_{IN} , between ~ 32.67 and ~ 33.20 W/m^2 with the mean of ~ 32.96
 575 W/m^2 for SW_{OUT} , between ~ 330.24 and ~ 334.14 W/m^2 with the mean of ~ 331.50 W/m^2
 576 for LW_{IN} , between ~ 387.25 and ~ 390.82 W/m^2 with the mean of ~ 388.81 W/m^2 for
 577 LW_{OUT} , between ~ 95.41 and ~ 99.39 W/m^2 with the mean of 97.11 W/m^2 for Rn ,
 578 between ~ 53.24 and ~ 56.37 W/m^2 with the mean of ~ 54.53 W/m^2 for LE , between
 579 ~ 40.44 and ~ 41.96 W/m^2 with the mean of ~ 41.29 W/m^2 for H , and between ~ 1.22 and
 580 ~ 1.52 W/m^2 with the mean of ~ 1.33 W/m^2 for G . For each radiation or heat flux, the
 581 annual mean estimates from the CoSEB-based datasets were overall higher than those
 582 from the mainstream products/datasets. In particular, the annual mean Rn estimates
 583 from the CoSEB-based datasets were higher than those from FLUXCOM, GLASS and
 584 BESSV2.0 sequentially, and the annual mean LE estimates from the CoSEB-based
 585 datasets were marginally higher than those from FLUXCOM, but substantially
 586 exceeded those from ETMonitor, PML_V2, MOD16A2 and BESSV2.0 sequentially.



587

588

589 **Fig. 14 Temporal variation of annual mean downward shortwave radiation (SW_{IN}), upward**
 590 **radiation (SW_{OUT}), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN}), upward longwave**
 591 **radiation (LW_{OUT}), net radiation (Rn), latent heat flux (LE), sensible heat flux (H) and soil heat**
 592 **flux (G) from 2001 to 2018 from the CoSEB-based datasets, BESS-Rad, GLASS, FLUXCOM,**
 593 **BESSV2.0, PML_V2, MOD16A2 and ETMonitor. The shaded area represents the variation of**
standard deviation for each product.

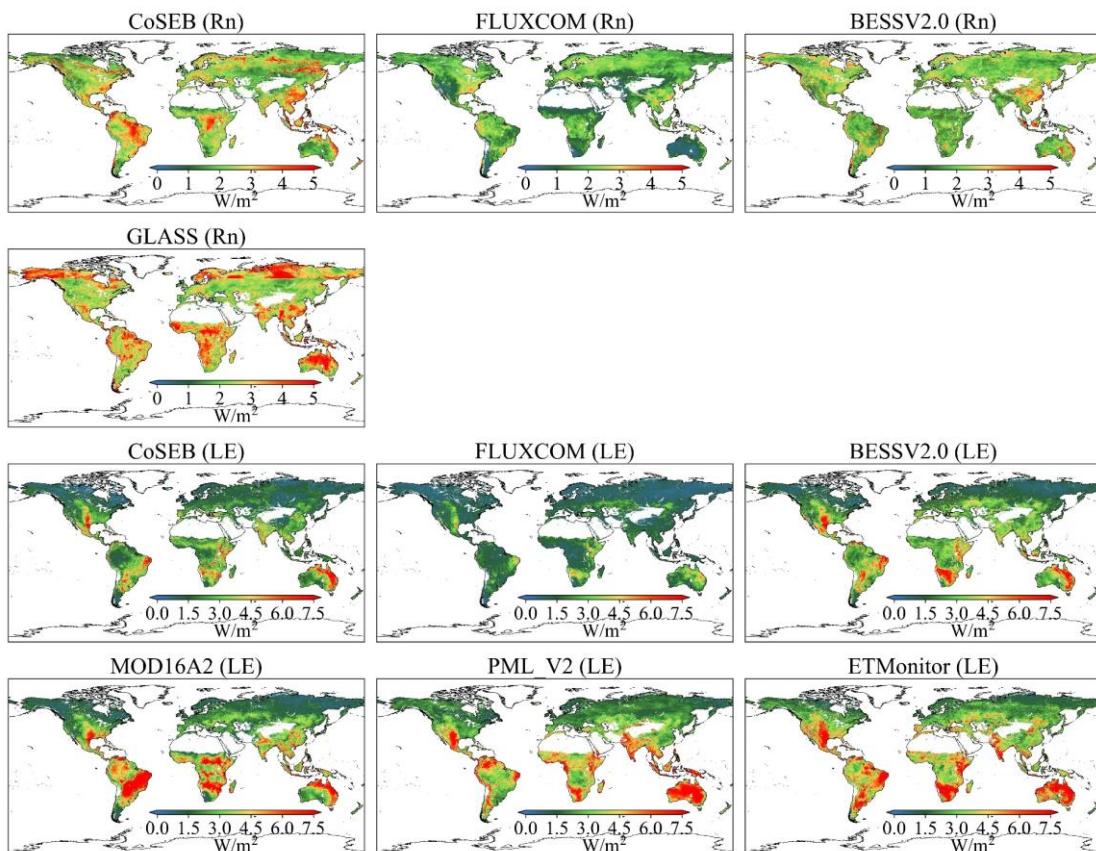


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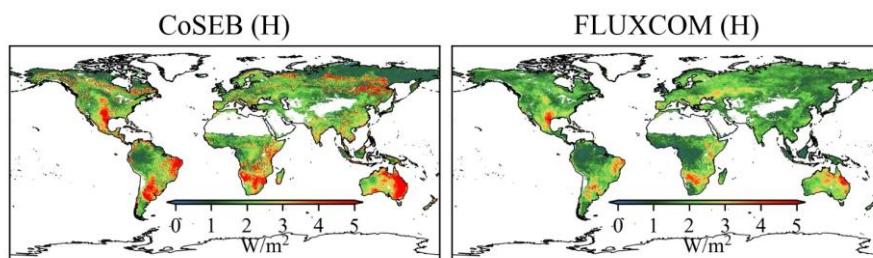
595 **Fig. 15 Spatial distribution of interannual variability (standard deviation) of downward**
 596 **shortwave radiation (SW_{IN} , the first row), downward longwave radiation (LW_{IN} , the second**
 597 **row) and upward longwave radiation (LW_{OUT} , the third row) from 2001 to 2018 by the CoSEB-**
 598 **based datasets, GLASS and BESS-Rad.**

599 Figs. 15, 16 and 17 show the spatial patterns (excluding Greenland, Antarctic
 600 continent, deserts, water bodies and permanent snow) of interannual variability of SW_{IN} ,
 601 LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT} , Rn and LE, as well as H from 2001 to 2018, respectively, derived
 602 from the CoSEB-based datasets and mainstream products/datasets. In general, the
 603 estimates from the CoSEB-based datasets displayed similar interannual variability in
 604 space with those from the mainstream products/datasets. Specially, the estimates of
 605 SW_{IN} from the CoSEB-based datasets, BESS-Rad, and GLASS exhibited a significant
 606 interannual variability mainly in northeastern Australia, eastern South America,
 607 Southeast China, and Southwest North America. The interannual variability of LW_{IN}
 608 and LW_{OUT} by the CoSEB-based datasets and GLASS displayed high values primarily
 609 at middle-to-high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere and parts of Africa and
 610 Australia. The interannual variability of Rn observed by the CoSEB-based datasets was
 611 generally lower than that of GLASS, but higher than that of BESSV2.0 and FLUXCOM.
 612 The CoSEB-based datasets missed the strong interannual variability of LE as observed
 613 in MOD16A2, PML_V2 and ETMonitor in parts of Africa, Australia and eastern South

614 America. Furthermore, FLUXCOM exhibited the weakest interannual variability of LE
 615 in almost all regions. The interannual variability of H derived from the CoSEB-based
 616 datasets was higher than ~~those that~~ from FLUXCOM, with stronger interannual
 617 variabilities mainly observed in parts of eastern South America, southern Africa, and
 618 northeastern Australia.



619
 620 **Fig. 16 Spatial distribution of interannual variability (standard deviation) of net radiation (Rn,**
 621 **the first and second rows) and latent heat flux (LE, the third and fourth row) from 2001 to**
 622 **2018 by the CoSEB-based datasets, FLUXCOM, BESSV2.0, MOD16A2, PML_V2,**
 623 **ETMonitor and GLASS.**



624
 625 **Fig. 17 Spatial distribution of interannual variability (standard deviation) of sensible heat flux**
 626 **(H) from 2001 to 2018 by the CoSEB-based datasets and FLUXCOM.**

627 **5 Discussion**

628 Accurately monitoring the spatial and temporal variations of global land surface
629 radiation and heat fluxes is crucial for quantifying the exchange of radiation, heat and
630 water between the land and atmosphere under global climate change (Chen et al., 2020;
631 Du et al., 2024; Kim et al., 2023; Liang et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2020). However,
632 although numerous global RS-based products/datasets of land surface radiation and
633 heat fluxes have been developed using physical and/or statistical methods, they
634 typically provide either merely a single flux or multiple fluxes (see Table 1) that are
635 estimated separately from uncoordinated models (Huang et al., 2024; Jung et al., 2019;
636 Sun et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2019), leading to noticeable radiation imbalance and/or
637 heat imbalance when these products are combined for practical applications. To address
638 these limitations, we generated high-accuracy global datasets of land surface radiation
639 and heat fluxes from 2000 to 2020 that adhere to both radiation and heat conservation
640 laws, using our proposed CoSEB model (Wang et al., 2025).

641 Our CoSEB model, integrating underlying physical principles of training datasets
642 into machine learning technique to effectively learn the interrelations among multiple
643 targeted outputs, was originally designed for coordinating estimates of global land
644 surface energy balance components (Rn, LE, H and G) to satisfy the energy
645 conservation (Wang et al., 2025). Inspired by the idea of constructing the original
646 CoSEB model, we further incorporated land surface radiation fluxes into our model to
647 simultaneously consider the physical constraints of both surface radiation and heat
648 conservation principles, by renewing the CoSEB using multiple remote sensing
649 products and reanalysis datasets, as well as in-situ observations of SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} ,
650 LW_{OUT} , Rn, LE, H and G. In selecting the 19 input variables to accommodate the
651 additional target variables, prior knowledge derived from previous studies was
652 employed to identify factors that exert significant influence on surface radiation and
653 heat flux while maintaining relative inter-independence as much as possible (Jung et al.,
654 2019; Mohan et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; Xian et al., 2024). This practice is

commonly adopted in data-driven models for estimating land surface water, energy, and carbon fluxes (Bai et al., 2024; Elghawi et al., 2023; Han et al., 2023; O. & Orth, 2021). The importance scores of the 19 different feature variables are exhibited in Table S4 in the Supplementary Material, and downward solar radiation, the primary source of the energy at the earth surface, is the most important input variable, consistent with the results from our previous study (Wang et al., 2025). Although some of the selected variables may exhibit a certain degree of multi-collinearity, each contributes unique and physically meaningful information, supporting the inclusion of all variables in model construction. To comprehensively account for the main factors influencing surface radiation and heat fluxes (Mohan et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; Xian et al., 2024) [JW1], the renewed CoSEB model utilized 19 easily accessible parameters/variables from ERA5 Land reanalysis datasets, GLASS products, MODIS products, GMTED2010 and NOAA/GML as input, which were readily available to generate datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes in a practical and operational manner. (Wang et al., 2025) Note that the variable importance, derived from the built-in method of the random forests and potentially affected by multicollinearity among the input variables, is presented only as a reference. Retaining all 19 feature variables ensures the model's flexibility and generalization capability, enabling future incorporation of additional representative ground-based observations for further training and improvement. Besides, to investigate the impact of lagged effects of input variables on model performance, experiments were also conducted by adding lagged variables (e.g., the air temperature of the previous day) to the 19 input features. The results (Fig. S4 in the Supplementary Material) showed almost no improvement in model accuracy, suggesting that lagged effects on model performance were negligible within the CoSEB framework for estimates of daily surface radiation and heat fluxes. Furthermore, to better illustrate the effect of including additional radiation components (SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} and LW_{OUT}) in the renewed CoSEB model compared with the original version by Wang et al. (2025), we have tested the performance of a reconstructed model that

683 estimated only Rn, LE, H and G using the same independent variables and samples as
684 those in the renewed CoSEB model. The results (Fig. S5 in the supplementary material)
685 showed no significant differences in accuracy compared with those of the renewed
686 CoSEB model, indicating the expansion of radiation components did not compromise
687 model performance.

688 The main advantages of our CoSEB-based datasets of land surface radiation and
689 heat fluxes lie in that [1] they are the first ~~RS-based~~data-driven global datasets that
690 satisfy both surface radiation balance ($SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$
691 $SW_{IN} - SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and heat balance ($LE + H + G = Rn$
692 $LE + H + G = Rn$) among the eight fluxes, as demonstrated by both the RIR and EIR
693 of 0, [2] the radiation and heat fluxes are characterized by high accuracies when
694 validated against in-situ measurements at ~~134 “homogeneous”~~44 independent test sites
695 (see the ~~first~~second paragraph in Section 4.22.1), where (1) the RMSEs for daily
696 estimates of SW_{IN} , SW_{OUT} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn, LE, H and G from the CoSEB-based
697 datasets were 28.5137.52 W/m², 10.394.20 W/m², 14.2922.47 W/m², 10.623.78 W/m²,
698 22.409.66 W/m², 24.3830.87 W/m², 22.679.75 W/m² and 6.775.69 W/m², respectively,
699 as well as for 8-day estimates were 12.818.54 W/m², 7.0812.19 W/m², 9.2218.50 W/m²,
700 8.349.41 W/m², 13.389.12 W/m², 19.9922.31 W/m², 17.4421.63 W/m² and 4.254.60
701 W/m², respectively, (2) the CoSEB-based datasets, in comparison to the mainstream
702 RS-based products/datasets (i.e. GLASS, BESS-Rad, FLUXCOM, BESSV2.0,
703 MOD16A2, PML_V2 and ETMonitor), better agreed with the in situ observations at
704 ~~134 EC~~the 44 test sites, showing the RMSE reductions ranging from 4.350.01 W/m² to
705 11.464.58 W/m² for SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn and LE at daily scale, and 4.620.24 W/m²
706 to 14.640.48 W/m² for SW_{IN} , LW_{IN} , LW_{OUT} , Rn, LE and H at 8-day scale. Furthermore,
707 the CoSEB-based datasets outperformed the ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets in
708 estimating surface energy fluxes (where SW_{OUT} , LW_{OUT} , Rn and G for the ERA-Land
709 were inferred from surface radiation balance and heat balance), particularly for SW_{OUT} ,
710 H and G, with RMSE reductions of 0.13-8.15 W/m² when validated against in situ

711 observations at the 44 test sites (Figs. S6 and S7 in the Supplementary Material).
712 Preliminary analysis indicates that the CoSEB-based datasets exhibit spatial patterns
713 consistent with those of mainstream RS-based datasets and Earth system model outputs
714 (see Fig. S8 in the supplementary material). More detailed analysis about their
715 similarities and differences can be further conducted in future work.

716 Our developed datasets could be potentially applied in many fields, including but
717 not limited to (1) exploring the spatial-temporal patterns of global land surface radiation
718 and heat flux (es) and their driving mechanisms over the past decades under global
719 change (e.g., rising CO₂ concentration, greening land surface and increasing air
720 temperature), (2) investigating the variability of land surface radiation and heat fluxes
721 caused by extreme events and human activities, e.g. afforestation or deforestation,
722 wildfire, air pollution, weather extremes and urbanization, (3) assessing the resources
723 of solar energy, geothermal energy, surface and ground water at regional and global
724 scales, (4) monitoring natural hazards, e.g. drought in agriculture and forestry.

725 The uncertainties of our datasets are relevant to (1) the data preprocessing, and (2)
726 the application of the CoSEB ~~at model across~~ different spatial scales. Specifically, ~~the~~
727 ~~daily averages~~ of surface radiation and heat fluxes for each day ~~were~~ obtained for
728 analysis from good-quality half-hourly observations when the fraction of these good-
729 quality half-hourly observations was greater than 80% in a day, due to the lack of
730 consensus on the method for aggregating gapped half-hourly observations to daily data
731 (Tang et al., 2024a; Yao et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2022). Simple temporal interpolation
732 of half-hourly in situ observations, which could therefore introduce substantial
733 uncertainties, was not applied, because surface radiation and heat fluxes are sensitive
734 to short-term variations in meteorological conditions and their intraday dynamics are
735 often complex. Likewise, since there was no agreement on how to correct for the energy
736 imbalance of turbulent heat fluxes, we adopted the most widely applied Bowen ratio
737 method to enforce energy closure between $Rn - G$ and $LE + H$ (Castelli et al., 2018;
738 Twine et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2021). Another potential source of uncertainty arises

739 from differences in meteorological reanalysis data caused by spatial downscaling,
740 which, as demonstrated in our previous study (Wang et al., 2025, the last paragraph of
741 Section 5.1), has a relatively small impact on model estimates by the machine-learning-
742 based CoSEB model combined with finer-resolution surface-related variables that
743 partially compensate for the spatial heterogeneity and localized variations not captured
744 by the coarse-resolution datasets.(Wang et al., 2025, the last paragraph of Section 5.1)
745 (Wang et al., 2025, the last paragraph of Section 5.1)These data preprocessing had an
746 effect on the construction of the renewed CoSEB model, which may further affect the
747 global datasets. Moreover, the renewed CoSEB model was constructed at the spatial
748 scale of 500 m to match the footprints of the in situ EC observations, but applied at the
749 spatial resolution of 0.05° to generate global datasets, mainly limited by the computing
750 and storage capabilities in-of our personal computers. However, the CoSEB-based
751 datasets have also been validated and inter-compared at 134 EC44 independent test sites
752 to demonstrate that the difference in spatial scale would not much affect the
753 performance of the datasets. Despite these uncertainties, it is worth emphasizing that
754 our work was the first attempt to innovatively develop data-driven energy-conservation
755 datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes with high accuracies.
756

757 **6 Data availability**

758 The energy-conservation datasets of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes
759 generated by the CoSEB model with spatial-temporal resolutions of daily and 0.05°
760 from Feb.26, 2000 to Dec.31, 2020 are freely available through the National Tibetan
761 Plateau Data Center at <https://doi.org/10.11888/Terre.tpdc.302559> (Tang et al., 2025a)
762 and through the Science Data Bank (ScienceDB) at
763 <https://doi.org/10.57760/sciencedb.27228> (Tang et al., 2025b).-----

764 **7 Summary and Conclusion**

765 This study for the first time developed data-driven energy-conservation datasets
766 of global land surface radiation and heat fluxes using our CoSEB model renewed based
767 on GLASS and MODIS products, ERA5-Land reanalysis datasets, topographic data,
768 CO₂ concentration data, and observations at 258 EC sites worldwide ~~from the~~
769 ~~FLUXNET, AmeriFlux, EuroFlux, OzFlux, ChinaFLUX and TPDC~~.

770 The CoSEB-based datasets of land surface radiation and heat fluxes are the first
771 ~~RS-based data-driven~~ global datasets that satisfy both surface radiation balance ($SW_{IN} -$
772 $SW_{OUT} + LW_{IN} - LW_{OUT} = Rn$) and heat balance (LE
773 $+ H + G = Rn$) among the eight fluxes. Meanwhile, the CoSEB-based
774 datasets outperformed the mainstream products/datasets in accuracy. Specifically, at
775 ~~134 44 EC independent test sites, the RMSEs (R²) for daily estimates of SW_{IN}, SW_{OUT},~~
776 ~~LW_{IN}, LW_{OUT}, Rn, LE, H and G from the CoSEB-based datasets were 37.52 W/m² (0.81),~~
777 ~~14.20 W/m² (0.42), 22.47 W/m² (0.90), 13.78 W/m² (0.95), 29.66 W/m² (0.77), 30.87~~
778 ~~W/m² (0.60), 29.75 W/m² (0.44) and 5.69 W/m² (0.44), respectively~~~~the RMSEs for~~
779 ~~daily estimates of SW_{IN}, SW_{OUT}, LW_{IN}, LW_{OUT}, Rn, LE, H and G from the CoSEB-based~~
780 ~~datasets were 28.51 W/m², 10.39 W/m², 14.29 W/m², 10.62 W/m², 22.40 W/m², 24.38~~
781 ~~W/m², 22.67 W/m² and 6.77 W/m², respectively~~, as well as for 8-day estimates were
782 ~~12.81 18.54 W/m² (0.87), 7.08 12.19 W/m² (0.39), 9.22 18.50 W/m² (0.92), 8.34 9.41~~
783 ~~W/m² (0.97), 13.38 9.12 W/m² (0.82), 19.99 22.31 W/m² (0.67), 17.44 21.63 W/m² (0.39)~~
784 ~~and 4.25 4.60 W/m² (0.47)~~, respectively. Moreover, the estimates from the CoSEB-
785 based datasets in comparison to those from the mainstream products/datasets reduced
786 the RMSE by ~~4.35~~ 0.01 W/m² to ~~11.46~~ 4.58 W/m² and increased the R² by ~~0.04~~ 0.01 to 0.3
787 ~~09~~ for SW_{IN}, LW_{IN}, LW_{OUT}, Rn and LE at daily scale, and reduced the RMSE by ~~4.62~~ 0.24
788 W/m² to ~~14.64~~ 0.48 W/m² and increased the R² by ~~0.04~~ 0.01 to 0.41 38 for SW_{IN}, LW_{IN},
789 LW_{OUT}, Rn, LE and H at 8-day scale, when these estimates were validated against in
790 situ observations at ~~134 44 EC independent test~~ sites. Furthermore, the CoSEB-based
791 datasets effectively captured the spatial-temporal variability of global land surface

792 radiation and heat fluxes, aligning well with those from the mainstream products.

793 Our developed datasets hold significant potential for application across diverse
794 fields such as agriculture, forestry, hydrology, meteorology, ecology, and environmental
795 science. They can facilitate comprehensive studies on the variability, impacts, responses,
796 adaptation strategies, and mitigation measures of global and regional land surface
797 radiation and heat fluxes under the influences of climate change and human activities.
798 These datasets will provide valuable insights and data support for scientific research,
799 policy-making, and environmental management, advancing global solutions to address
800 climate change.

801 **Author contribution**

802 JW: Writing – original draft, Visualization, Software, Formal analysis, Data
803 curation. RT: Writing – original draft, Validation, Supervision, Methodology, Funding
804 acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. ML: Writing – review & editing,
805 Validation. ZL: Writing – review & editing.

806 **Competing interests**

807 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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816

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