Summary of major revisions: (1) The manuscript was rewritten following the reviewers' suggestions. all the symbols used are consistent. Four figures were removed and about 1800 words were removed from main text of the revised manuscript. (2) The manuscript has been edited by two senior English editors from Nature Springer Language editing services.

Response to Reviewer #1

1. General Comments

This is an important paper with interesting Figures on the regional variation of surface temperature trends over China, and their relation to regional precipitation and SSR. The biggest challenge for this reviewer is that I unsure exactly what the elegant Figures show. There are critical gaps between the methods section and the Figures. The legends rather than the text try to explain the content of the Figures, and they are written for the authors, not for a global audience, which will struggle to follow the missing steps in the logic. The reader cannot connect the symbols in Methods to the symbols in the Figures, and the description of the Figures.

Reply: Thank you for the high recommendation and constructive comments. We have carefully checked and revised logical structure of paper and unified the symbols for Methods and Figures. As a result, four figures were removed and about 1800 words were removed from main text of the revised manuscript. Below please find our point to point response to your comments.

2. Technical details

Comments: Methods uses T_{raw} and $T_{adjusted}$ and monthly anomalies, as well as 'z' for a regression fit to monthly anomalies of *T*. Do all the graphs show anomalies? Which ones show $T_{adjusted}$? Which ones show regression fits 'z'?

Reply: In this study, all of trends and regression analyses are based on the monthly anomalies of temperatures (T, including T_{s-max} , T_{s-min} , T_{a-max} , T_{a-min}), surface solar

radiation (R_s) and precipitation (P) during 1960-2003. We explicitly claimed in Lines 222-223: "The linear trends reported in this study were calculated via linear regression based on the monthly anomalies of T, R_s , and P" and in Lines 239-240: "The effect of Rs/P on Ts-max/Ta-max was determined via a multiple linear regression (Roy and Haigh, 2011) of the monthly anomalies using the following equation:".

In this revised paper, we deleted the Eqs. (1) and (3) and revised Eq. (2) into:

$$T = S_{R_s} \cdot R_s + S_P \cdot P + c + \varepsilon$$

All the confusing symbols including T_{raw} , $T_{adjusted}$, and 'z' were removed from the revised paper. After revision, the main manuscript and figure captions are consistent. We further revised the figure captions to make them clearer and more concise.

Comments: Eq (1), 2 and 5 are just textbook definitions, which are poorly defined for this specific analysis. They use 'a' and 'b' as symbols for different coefficients in 1, 2 and 5. The values for these (a, b) in this analysis may appear in later figures, but the reader has to guess how they were actually computed. Which Figures show which coefficients or adjusted variables is unclear, because they are largely labeled the same: e. g Ts-max or Ta-min, or just 'PC'.

Reply: In this revised paper, we deleted the Eqs. (1) and (3) and revised Eq. (2) (see our response to your last comment). The symbols of 'a', 'b', and 'PC' were removed from the revised paper. Following comments from the other reviewers, the figures of partial correlation coefficients were moved from main text to the supplementary material section with full names labelled.

Comments: Relabel PCa, PCb, PCc, PCd etc with a clear connection to a numbered equation coefficient. Use the same specific language to describe the coefficient in both methods and text introducing the Figure.

Reply: See our response to your last comment. We have removed the symbols of 'PC' and relabeled partial correlation coefficients with full names.

Comments: Consider adding a simple label to distinguish $T_{adjusted}$ from *T* in the Figures. **Reply:** In the revised paper, we used 'Adjusted temperatures' (e.g. 'Adjusted T_{s-max}') instead of $T_{adjusted}$ (see Figs 7, Figs 8, Figs 9d and Figs S10 in new version).

Comments: L177-180 Comment that the number of sunshine duration stations (105 in Wang et al. 2015a) is still small compared with the T_a data. How well are they distributed in western China?

Reply: Wang et al. (2015a) only used the sunshine duration data where direct observations of surface solar radiation are available to make comparison. Sunshine duration and T_a have been observed at each weather station and their numbers are the same for T_a and sunshine duration. In this study, we used the recently released daily meteorological data at ~2000 stations, which is the best data one can obtained now. Its spatial distribution was shown in Figure 1.

Comments: L242 What are the coefficients 'a' and 'b'; and their uncertainties? Cross-reference where you show these. When you reach Figs 5 and 6, it is unclear how they relate to Eq (2)

Reply: We revised the equation (see also our response to your comment No. 1). After revision, the main text and figure captions are consistent in the symbols. We have added the 95% confidence intervals to S_{Rs} and S_P based on two tailed t-test, e.g. in lines 342-345: "As shown in Fig S7 shows, T_{s-max} was the most sensitive to R_s , followed by T_{a-max} , and the national means for T_{s-max} was 0.092 ± 0.018 °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹ (95% confidence level) and T_{a-max} was 0.035 ± 0.010 °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹ (95% confidence level)." and Lines 379-381: "The national mean sensitivities of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} to P were -0.321 ± 0.098 °C 10 mm⁻¹ and -0.064 ± 0.054 °C 10 mm⁻¹ (95% confidence level), respectively.".

Comments: L245 There are no equations 3 and 4.

Reply: The equation 5 is the third equation in original manuscript. In this revised paper,

we deleted the Eqs. (1) and (3), and one equation was kept.

Comments: L251 and Figs 2 and 3. Are these *T_{raw}* or *T_{adjusted}*?

Reply: Both Fig 2 and Fig 3 are yearly anomalies of original data of temperatures without adjusting impacts of R_s and P. Only Fig. 7, 8, 9d, and S10 were adjusted temperature and they were explicitly claimed in the figure captions.

Comments: Section 3.1.1 and Table 1, all these results are presented as mean trends with no estimate of uncertainty. Add some error estimates.

Reply: We have added the 95% confidence intervals for all of trends in new version.

Comments: Section 3.2.1 You need an explicit explanation of Fig 5 and then 6, The reader cannot see clearly how they were constructed. What are these partial correlation coefficients using precipitation as control? Do they relate to the $T_{adjusted}$ in (5) or the sensitivities in (2)? Nothing has been defined or connected logically (and Eq (3) and (4) are missing? Same issues for Figure 8 and 9.

Reply: We have added an explicit explanation of partial correlation coefficients and the logical connection between partial correlation analysis and multilinear regression analysis in Methods: "The coefficients of determination (R^2) for the multilinear regression equation (Eq (1)) are shown in Fig S3, and they indicate the portion of the variance of *T* that could be attributed to that of R_s and *P*. High coefficients of determination were obtained, which showed that the linear regression performed well, particularly for South China and the North China Plain. To separate the contributions of R_s and P, we further calculated the partial correlation coefficients between R_s and *T* (or *P* and *T*), which are shown in Fig S4 and Fig S5." (Lines 244-250).

In addition, we have added explicit introduction in the caption of Figs 5 (Figs S4 in new version): "The linear partial correlation coefficients calculated based on the monthly anomalies of R_s and T after avoiding the effect of precipitation (P), which indicates the proportion of variances of T that are attributed to the variation of R_s .".

We have added similar introduction in the caption of Figs 8 (Figs S5 in new

version).

Comments: Fig 6 Is this the coefficient 'a' in Eq (2)? Where do you show coefficient 'b'? Is it in Fig9?

Reply: Figs 6 (Figs S7 in new version) show the coefficient '*a*' (' S_{R_s} ' in new version) and Figs 9 (Figs S9 in new version) show the coefficient '*b*' (' S_P ' in new version). We have replaced '*a*' with ' S_{R_s} ' and '*b*' with ' S_P ' and used the same symbols in Methods and Figures.

Comments: Fig 11 Is this the first time *T_{adjusted}* is plotted?

Reply: Yes, it is. We have added the label('adjusted') in all Figures of adjusted temperatures (see Fig 7, Fig 8, Fig 9 and Fig S10 in new version), e.g. 'Adjusted T_{s-max} ' in Fig 7.

Comments: L136 and L770 cite different references for the dataset.

Reply: We make it consistent and cited Cao et al.

3. Language issues

The structuring of sentences is generally very good, but verbs and tenses need occasional editing, but I will leave this to later editing. An example is 106 LST... plays an important role in climate change 107 research because it directly relates to the land surface energy budget. Previously, Ts 108 values used in regional climate research were primarily derived.

Reply: We have carefully checked English usage of this, and tried to make it more concise and clearer. As a result, more than 1400 words was reduced. The manuscript has been edited by two senior English editors from Nature Springer Language editing services.

Response to Reviewer # 2

1. General Comment:

This paper analyzed the spatial patterns of Ts and Ta and their relations with SSR and precipitation using the observations. It is important to study the mechanism of T changes in the warming climate in regional scales. I think this article is publishable after major corrections.

Reply: Thanks for your highly recommendation and the insightful comments, which substantially improve the paper. Below please find our point to point response to your comments.

2. Major

Comment: Eq (1) is not needed, "linear trend" or "Linear regression" should be enough. **Reply:** We have replaced the Eq (1) to a statement in Lines 222-223 that "The linear trends reported in this study were calculated via linear regression based on the monthly anomalies of *T*, R_s , and *P*. ".

Comment: Please discuss why the $T_{adjusted}$ is calculated? State its actual meaning and applications.

Reply: Thanks for your positive comments. We have added the description in Lines 251-256: "To determine the effect of R_s/P on the analyzed temperatures, we removed their effects from their original time series of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} based on the multilinear relationship calculated in Eq (1). Then, we calculated the trends from both the original and adjusted time series. By comparing the derived trends of the original and adjusted time series, we quantitatively assessed the effect of R_s/P on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} , particularly for the spatiotemporal pattern of their trends.".

Comment: The detailed descriptions are not necessary in Figure captions and can be moved to the text.

Reply: Following the reviewer's suggestion, we substantially reduced the figure

captions.

3. Minor

Comment: Line 54: Hegerl and Zwiers is missing in the references **Reply:** We have added this literature to references. (Lines 537)

Comment: Is that 1990?

Reply: Yes, it is 1990. We have changed the 1900 to 1990.

Comment: Please check T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} trends. By eye, both values should be close. **Reply:** We have checked the results of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} trends. The results in paper is right.

Comment: Line 277-281: Mechanism of the difference should be mentioned here.

Reply: We have added the mechanism analysis of those difference as followed in main text. "Although previous studies have indicated that the microclimate (e.g. urban heat island) has a larger effect on minimum temperatures because of the lower and more stable boundary layer at night (Zhou and Ren, 2011; Christy et al., 2009), many investigators argue that variability in R_s is the primary reason for the daily contrast in warming rates (Sanchez-Lorenzo and Wild, 2012; Makowski et al., 2009)." (Lines 288-292).

Comment: Line 284: greater than **Reply:** Corrected as suggested.

Comment: Line 294: Significant difference. Can you clarify how significant it is please? **Reply:** We deleted this sentence from the revised paper. In the revised paper, 95% confidence intervals were added to all the trends.

Comment: Line 374: along the coast **Reply:** Corrected as suggested.

Comment: Line 534: References **Reply:** Corrected as suggested.

Comment: Line 570: Eastling et al and Line. 638: Ohmura; They are not referenced in the text, please check.

Reply: Both references were cited in the main text. 'Eastling et al' is cited in Lines 285-288: "The warming rate of T_{s-min} (T_{a-min}) was significantly faster than that of T_{s-max} (T_{a-max}) and the warming rates of all temperatures in the cold seasons were substantially greater than those in the warm seasons (Li et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2004; Easterling et al., 1997).". 'Ohmura et al' is cited in Lines 351-354: "Our rate of decrease was considerably less than the global average diminishing rate (form approximately –2.3 to –5.1 W m⁻² 10yr⁻¹) between the 1960s and the 1990s (Gilgen et al., 1998; Liepert, 2002; Stanhill and Cohen, 2001; Ohmura, 2006)"

Comment: Ta-min in Figs 5,6,8,9 can be removed, since they don't give much information. They can be briefly discussed in the text.

Reply: Corrected as suggested. We have moved the Figs 5, 6, 8, 9 to the supplementary material and their discussion in main text was substantially reduced.

1	Contributions of Surface Solar Radiation and Precipitation to the Spatiotemporal
2	Patterns of Surface and Air Temperature Warming in China from 1960 to 2003
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12	Submitted to Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics
13	November February 168, 20162017
14	

15 Abstract

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16	Although the global warming has been successfully attributed to the
17	elevated increases in atmospheric greenhouses gases, the reasons for mechanisms
18	underlying spatiotemporal patterns the of warming rates trends are still remain.
19	under debate. In this paper<u>Herein</u>, we report analyszed surface and air warming
20	based on observations <u>recorded collected at 1.977</u> stations in China from 1960 to
21	2003. Our results show <u>ed that a significant spatial pattern for</u> the warming of <u>the</u>
22	daily maximum surface (T_{s-max}) and air (T_{a-max}) temperatures showed a significant
23	spatial pattern , <u>and the pattern was s</u> tronger in the -northwest China and weaker
24	in South China and the North China Plain. These warming spatial patterns are
25	were attributed to surface shortwave solar radiation (R_{s} SSR) and precipitation (P),
26	which represent the key parameters of the surface energy budget. During the
27	study period, <u>R</u> _s SSR decreased by -1.50 <u>±0.42</u> W m ⁻² 10yr ⁻¹ in China, <u>and which</u>
28	caused the trends of <u>in</u> , T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} to decreased by 0.139 and 0.053 °C 10yr ⁻¹ ,
29	respectively. More importantly, <u>the decreasing rates in South China and the North</u>
30	China Plain had an extremely<u>were much</u> higher dimming rates than <u>those in o</u>ther
31	regions. The spatial contrasts of in the trends of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in China are were.
32	significantly reduced after adjusting for the impact effect of R_s and PSSR and
33	precipitation . For example, <u>after adjusting for the effect of <i>R_s and P</i>, the difference</u>

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34	in warming rates the T _{s-max} and T _{a-max} values between the North China Plain and
35	the Loess Plateau was reduced by 97.8% and 68.3% for Ts-max and Ta-max,
36	respectively , <u>After adjusting</u> for the impact of SSR and precipitation, the seasonal
37	contrast of in Ts-max and Ta-max decreased by 45.0% and 17.2%, respectively, and
38	the daily contrast of in the warming rates of the surface and air temperature
39	decreased by 33.0% and 29.1% over China<u>, respectively</u>. This study <u>shows showed</u>
40	<u>that the an essential role of land energy budget in determiningplays an essential</u>
41	role in the identification of regional warming patterns,

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42 **1. Introduction**

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43 With the rapid development of Increases in observational data and the rapid developments in simulation abilities capacity of climate models have provided evidence 44 45 for the phenomenon of ,-global warming-has been regarded as undeniable (Hartmann et 46 al., 2013), and the increases in anthropogenic greenhouse gases and other 47 anthropogenic impacts effects are believed to beconsidered the primary causes of global warming. However, there are significant spatial and temporal heterogeneities in climate 48 49 warming have been observed, -. i.e. For example, faster warming rates occur in semiarid regions and a "warming hole" has been identified in the central United States (Boyles 50 51 and Raman, 2003; Huang et al., 2012). These spatiotemporal heterogeneities , which

52 represents a major barrier to the reliable detection and attribution of global warming 53 (Tebaldi et al., 2005; Mahlstein and Knutti, 2010). Furthermore, the-uncertainties in 54 model simulations generally increase from the global to the regional scales because of 55 uncertainty in regional climatic responses to global change (Hingray et al., 2007; 56 Mariotti et al., 2011). Therefore, it is crucial to research not only investigations of the 57 spatial and temporal patterns of regional climate changes but alsoand regional climatic 58 response mechanisms to global change are crucial for increasing the accuracy of models 59 designed to detect and explain the causes of. This approach can improve confidence in 60 the detection and attribution of global climate change and predictions of future regional 61 climate change.

62 The spatial heterogeneity of climate warming can be attributed to local climate 63 factors and anthropogenic factors (Karl et al., 1991). For the former local climate factors, 64 local determining factors such as cloud amounts cover and precipitation (P) can significantly influence the speed of regional warming speeds (Hegerl and Zwiers, 2007; 65 66 Lauritsen and Rogers, 2012). Those sSpatial heterogeneities in climate-factor trends make important contributions to have an important influence on various changes in the 67 land-surface energy balance. Existing sStudies have indicated demonstrated that an 68 69 increase in cloud covers can diminishes the surface solar radiation (Rs) downward 70 shortwave solar radiation to the land surface, thusand therefore reducing reduces the

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daytime temperature (Dai et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2011), <u>although</u>
<u>it has the potential to increase night-time</u> <u>while potentially increasing nighttime</u>
temperatures by intercepting outgoing longwave radiation (Shen et al., 2014; Campbell
and VonderHaar, 1997).

75 Precipitation (P) can alter the proportion of surface absorbed energy partitioned 76 into sensible heat flux-and latent heat flux-: therefore and thereforeit has an 77 inevitable impact effect on both land-surface and near-surface air temperatures (Wang 78 and Dickinson, 2012; Wang and Zhou, 2015). In additionAdditionally, precipitation P 79 plays has a key rolesignificant effect in on the soil thermal inertia and the response of 80 surface vegetation, eausing which results in an important feedback to for regional and 81 global warming (Wang and Dickinson, 2012; Seneviratne et al., 2010; Ait-Mesbah et 82 al., 2015; Shen et al., 2015).

In addition to local climate factors, <u>regional climate systems are significantly</u> affected by the anthropogenic emissions of aerosols-have a significant effect on the regional climate system. Studies <u>have</u> indicated that <u>improving improvements in</u> air quality in recent decades <u>has led to brightening</u> over North America and Europe <u>have</u> led to brightening effect (Wild, 2012; Vautard et al., 2009), whereas surface shortwave solar radiation (SSR) has declined in East Asia and India with increasing air

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89	pollutionhave led to declines in R _s (Xia, 2010; Menon et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2012;
90	Wang et al., 2015a). Consequently, the variations in $\frac{SSR_{Rs}}{Rs}$ may have an impact effect
91	on both local and global climate change (Wild et al., 2007; Wang and Dickinson, 2013b).

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92 Changes in Land cover change can also alter the energy exchange between the 93 land surface and the atmosphere; moreover, it has and such changes have the potential 94 to impact affect regional climates (Falge et al., 2005; Bounoua et al., 1999; Zhou et al., 95 2004). Previous studies have suggested that urbanization and other land-use changes 96 contribute to promoting the warming effect caused by greenhouse gases (Kalnay and 97 Cai, 2003; Lim et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2015). Overall, the impacts effects of these 98 factors on climate change may be very important on at the regional scale, leading and could lead to a-marked spatial differences in regional climate change, ; whereas 99 100 however, they are usually omitted from the detection and attribution of climate change 101 on-at the global scale (Karoly and Stott, 2006).

102 China has is a vast territory and abundant types that has an abundance of climactic 103 zones stretching from tropical to cold temperate, with and a special alpine climate is 104 observed_over the Tibet Plateau. In additionAdditionally, the dramatic economic 105 development and explosive population growth in <u>China in recent decades has have</u> 106 caused significant changes in land cover change and serious sever air pollution, **带格式的:** 字体: 倾斜 **带格式的:** 字体: 倾斜, 下标

107	including frequent haze events (Yin et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016).
108	The climatic diversity and intensive human activity in this region will likely lead to a
109	unique response to global warming with obvious spatial differences in climate change.

110 Karl et al. (1991) had analyzed the observational records for the period 1951-1989 111 and, finding found that China's temperature warming trends in China were faster than 112 those of the United States but slower than those of the former Soviet Union. Several 113 studies had have revealed that the warming rate in Northwest China had been was 114 approximately 0.33-0.39 °C 10yr⁻¹ during the second half of the last century (Li et al., 115 2012; Zhang et al., 2010), which was significantly higher than the average warming 116 rate over China (of 0.25 °C 10yr⁻¹) (Ren et al., 2005) or that on a global scale the average 117 <u>global rate of (0.13 °C 10yr⁻¹)</u> (Hegerl and Zwiers, 2007). <u>The Air air</u> temperatures (T_{ρ}) 118 over the Tibet Plateau have has increased by 0.44 °C 10yr⁻¹ over the last 30 years (Duan 119 and Xiao, 2015), which wasand this rate is considerably faster than the overall warming 120 rate in the Northern Hemisphere (0.23 °C 10yr⁻¹) and worldwide (0.16 °C 10yr⁻¹) 121 (Hartmann et al., 2013). To provide insights on global warming and improve the 122 accuracy of future climate change predictions, uUnderstanding the characteristics and 123 mechanisms of regional climate change is critical-to advancing the knowledge and 124 predication of future climate change.

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125	T_{a} is a common metric for judging determining climate change on the global or
126	regional scales However, I the land surface temperature (T_{δ}) is beginning to play an
127	increasinglyalso important role in climate change research because of it has the distinct
128	advantage of being its directly related relationship to with the land surface energy
129	budget. Previously, T_s values used in regional climate research are primarily derived
130	from satellite retrievals or reanalysis datasets (Weng et al., 2004; Peng et al., 2014),
131	both of which both have good satisfactory global coverage but questionable accuracy
132	and integrity. Furthermore, satellite-derived T_s values are only available under clear sky
133	conditions, thus limiting their application applicability to in climate change studies.
134	In China, both T_s and T_a has been are measured as a conventional meteorological
135	observation item parameters by nearly all weather stations, as is T_a . An analysis of the
136	spatiotemporal patterns of these parameters identified a close relationship between T_s
137	and T_a , which indicates that T_s and T_a present equivalent accuracy when used to
138	determine This study found that observations of T_a have a good relationship with T_a in
139	terms of spatial-temporal patterns and can equally accurately reflect the characteristics
140	of climate change. More importantly, T_s is more sensitive than T_a to the local land
141	surface energy budget, particularly surface solar radiation (SSR) and precipitation.

2 From the perspective of energy, bBoth $\underline{R_s}$ and \underline{P} SSR and precipitation are key

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143 factors controlling the land surface energy budget; therefore, their changes in these two 144 <u>factors</u> most likely cause regional differences in the warming rate of T_{a} (Wild, 2012; Manara et al., 2015; Hartmann et al., 1986). For the first time To our knowledge, this 145 146 study analyzed presents the first analysis of the relationship between R_s (and P) and 147 <u> T_a/T_s between SSR (and precipitation) and T_a or T_s in terms of based on their spatial-</u> 148 otemporal patterns and we further quantified the impact effect of the variations of $R_{\underline{s}}$ 149 and P on T_a/T_s SSR and precipitation on T_a and T_s in China for the period of 1960-150 2003.

151 This paper-article is organized as follows: ... Section 2 introduces the data and 152 methods used in the study. Section 3 includes three parts: the first part describes the 153 spatial and temporal patterns of climate warming over China,: the second part analyzes 154 analyses the impact effect of the variation in <u> R_s and P on T_a/T_{sa} SSR and precipitation</u> 155 on T_{a} and T_{a} ; and the third part illustrates examines the spatial and temporal patterns of 156 the warming trend of $T_a/T_s T_a$ and T_s after adjusting for the impact effects of R_s and 157 PSSR and precipitation, which eliminated the The adjustment removed impact effects of Rs and P land atmosphereon warming interaction on the warming, leaving impact 158 159 ofand highlighted the effects of large-scale warming caused by the elevated 160 concentrations of atmospheric greenhouse gases-substantially. Moreover, Our results 161 show that adjustment substantially reduced the spatial contrast of in the warming trends

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162 of T_a/T_s Ta and Ts in China was substantially reduced after adjusting for the effect of R_s

and P₅, and this result is consistent with the expectations under global warming. Finally,

164 Section 4 presents a summary and discussion. which is agree with the expectation of

165 global warming. A summary and discussion are presented in Section 4.

166 2. Data and methods

167 2.1. Data

168 The meteorological observational data used in this study are included recently 169 released daily meteorological datasets, including such as the China National Stations' 170 Fundamental Elements Datasets V3.0 (CNSFED V3.0), which can be and they were 171 downloaded from the China's National Meteorological Information Center Centre 172 (http://data.cma.gov.cn/data) (Cao et al., 2016). This These datasets includes included 173 observations of T_s , T_a , the barometric pressure, relative humidity, and sunshine duration. 174 All of the observational records of the climate variables include-were subjected to 175 quality control measures, and homogenization of the processes of data acquisition and 176 compilation.

177 <u>As shown in Figure 1, shows that</u> the number of stations used in this study (1,977 178 <u>selected</u> stations <u>selected</u> from a total of 2,479 stations) is <u>abundant</u> and <u>was</u> ─ **带格式的:** 字体: 倾斜
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179	significantly greater higher than in that of previous studies (i.e., 57-852 stations) (Kukla	
180	and Karl, 1993; Shen and Varis, 2001; Liu et al., 2004; Li et al., 2015); (Kukla and Karl,	
181	1993; Shen and Varis, 2001; Liu et al., 2004; Li et al., 2015). therefore Therefore, the	
182	observational data have provided better spatial coverage and higher confidence of in	
183	the detection of detecting regional climate change than in previous studies (Fig. 1). Our	
184	study is the first to use the observations of T_s observation as a parameter for identifying	
185	for research into regional climate change.	
186	Observations of T_s at from weather stations are different from T_s data retrieved via	
187	other approaches, such as satellitedataimages and reanalysis. All of the observational	
188	fields of T_s are The T_s observations were performed in 4 - m-× 2 m square bare land plots	
189	proximal to the in-a-weather stations. The surface of the observational fields must be	
190	keptwas loose, grassless, <u>and</u> flat, and at the same level as the ground surface of the	
191	weather station. Three thermometers, are placed on the surface of the observational	
192	field, including a surface thermometer, a surface maximum thermometer, and a surface	
193	minimum thermometer were placed. The thermometers are deposited on the surface of	
194	the observational field horizontal to the surface of the observational field, withly: half	
195	of each thermometer is embedded in the soil and the other half is exposed to the air.	
196	When the observational field is was covered by snow, the thermometers are were	
197	removed from the snow and placed on the snow surface. In additionAdditionally, the	

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exposed parts of the thermometers must be were kept cleaned clean to remove from
dust and dew.

To We verifiedy the reliability of the Ts observational records by analyzing, we 200 201 analyzed the the relationship between T_a and T_s in the observed records for during 1960–2003. As shown in Figures. S1, the 202 mean Pearson Correlation Coefficients between daily maximum land surface 203 <u>temperature (T_{s-max}) and <u>daily maximum air temperature (T_{a-max})</u> calculated from the</u> 204 monthly anomalies were 0.775, 0.843, and 0.806 for the annual, warm, and cold 205 seasonal scales, respectively, and these values were statistically significant (99% 206 confidence<u>level</u>) for all stations. The mean correlation coefficients between the daily 207 minimum land surface temperature (T_{s-min}) and daily minimum air temperature (T_{g-min}) 208 T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} -were 0.861, 0.842, and 0.865 for the annual, warm, and cold seasonal 209 scales, respectively, and these values were statistically significant (99% confidence 210 level) for all stations. The high high correlations indicated between T_a and T_s indicates 211 that the observations of either T_s or T_e could be used for are reliable for detecting climate 212 change detection.

213 SSR is tThe most fundamental energy resource for T_s and T_a is R_s . In mMost 214 previous studies, had used the observed R_s have been usedSSR to analyze the 215 relationship between the variation in R_s SSR and T_a over Mainland China. However, 一 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
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216 <u>fewer sites were used</u> for <u> R_s SSR</u> observation<u>s</u> than were far less numerous than those 217 for other climatic variables, i.e.; for example, only 85 sites were used for <u> R_s SSR</u> 218 observation<u>s</u> in Liu et al. (2004) and only; 90 sites were used in Li et al. (2015).

More i<u>I</u>mportantly, it was found that-sensitivity drifting of the instruments used for the <u> R_sSSR </u> observations led to a faster dimming rate before 1990, and that instrument replacements from 1990 to 1993 had resulted in a falsely sharp increase in <u> SSR_s </u> (Wang, 2014; Wagt 2015) The <u>metric</u> that in an analyze the transformation of transformation of transformation of transformation of transformation of transformation of transfor

223 <u>impeded the wide scientific application of this parameter</u>.

224 We tTherefore, we used sunshine duration-derived \underline{SSRR}_{c} in this study, which is 225 based on an effective hybrid model developed by Yang et al. (2006). This model has 226 subsequently been improved (Wang et al., 2015a; Wang, 2014) and it has proved to be 227 performed well in regional and global applications (Tang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012). 228 Sunshine duration-derived solar radiation Rs not only can accurately reflects the impact 229 effects of clouds and aerosols on the SSRRs but also ean more exactly reveals long-term 230 SSR trends (Wang et al., 2015a; Wang, 2014). Additionally, Sunshine sunshine 231 duration-derived Rs- values are has a better correlation correlated with the satellite 232 retrievals-derived SSR, reanalysisreanalyzes, and climate model simulations of SSR 233 than the observed SSRRs values observed in Chinafrom observation (Wang et al.,

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234 2015a).

235 The data are collected by a total ofre are 2,474 meteorological stations reporting data; however, the lengths of the effective observation records for the stations are 236 237 different. In additionAdditionally, only a small number of stations were installed before 238 existed prior to 1960, and the observational records of T_s at many stations became 239 significantly abnormal-were anomalous after 2003 because of automation. Therefore, 240 in our analysis, we selected 1,977 meteorological stations (see Fig-1) that for which 241 the valid data of observation records with valid data were must be longer than 30 years 242 during the period of 43 years between 1960 and 2003.

243 The monthly anomaly anomalies relative to the 1961-1990 climatology was were 244 calculated based on a monthly mean value of the daily observation-values, and if when 245 a month has was missing more than 7 daily missing values, it that month was classified 246 as a missing value (Sun et al., 2016; Li et al., 2015). The For the annual anomalies, are 247 the average of the monthly anomalies were averaged for the entire year. The anomalies 248 in the warm seasons are-were the averages of the monthly anomalies from May to 249 October, and the anomalies in the cold seasons are were the averages of the monthly 250 anomalies from November to the next April.

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A linear regression model (see Eq. (1)) was used to calculate the trend of the

(1)

253 climate variables and can be expressed as:

254

Where where x is time, y is the time series of the monthly anomalies of climate variables, and a and b are the trend and intercept, respectively, regressed using the least-squares method.

258 As shown in Fig-1, the spatial distribution of the weather stations over 259 Mainlandthroughout China is extraordinarily asymmetric and the density of weather 260 stations in East east China is far greater than that in West west China. We used the area-261 weight average method to reduce these biases when calculating the national mean. First, 262 we divided the study region into $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grids (see Fig. S2) for a total ; there are 953 263 grids covering China. Second, we assigned all selected stations to the grids; there are, 264 and this resulted in 627 grids with containing stations, accounting which accounted for 265 65.79% of the total. Finally, the grid box value is taken to bewas the average of all of the stations on in the grid, and the national mean is was the area-weight average of all 266 of the effective grids (Jones and Moberg, 2003). 267

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268	The linear trends reported in this study were calculated byvia a-linear regression
269	based on the monthly anomalies of T, R _s , and P. Two national mean trends were
270	calculated from the anomalies of the grids. In the first method (Method I), the least
271	square method. Based on the anomalies of grids, there are two common ways to
272	calculate the national mean trends of the variables in China. The first method (Method
273	I) calculates the national mean monthly anomalies by were calculated ustaking the area-
274	weight of every each grid first, and then calculates the national mean trend based on the
275	time series of the national average anomalies was calculated. The In the second method
276	(Method II), calculates the trend at every each grid was calculated first, and then the
277	national mean trend over China is the area-weighted average value of the was calculated
278	from the grid trends on all of the grids.

279 In our study, we calculated the national mean trends of the temperatures using 280 Method I and II because both methods as both methods are widely have been used in 281 the existingprevious studies (Gettelman and Fu, 2008). Same The results for the two 282 methods are derived from those two methods if expected to be the same when the time series of all grids is integral-integrated and have no missing data are not missing (Zhou 283 284 et al., 2009): - Howeverhowever, when data are missing, small differences may occur 285 (See Table 1). As shown in Table 1, the absolute value of the difference between Method I and Method II ranged from 0.011 to 0.033 °C 10yr⁻¹, which represented 3.4% to 14.3% 286

287	of the trends (using the results of Method I as the reference). For purposes of
288	clarification, the trends derived from Method I are discussed in the main text, whereas
289	the results from both methods are shown in Table 1.as noted, we selected 1,977 stations
290	(see Fig. 1) that the valid data of observation records are longer than 30 years during
291	the period 1960-2003, which is a reasonable compromise between the integrity of the
292	observation records and the spatial coverage. The missing data in the time series for
293	some grids results in a little difference between the results of these two methods. To
294	avoid misunderstanding, the trends derived from Method I was discussed in the main
295	text, but results from two methods were shown in Table 1.
296 297	Hitdan Hurgsin (a F. A. and the sign has the sign has the sign of the following equation . This can be expressed as:
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296 297 298 299	Hitdgm Hargei (eEQ) case believe it an hpet flags 65 Repairing the part of flowing equation. This can be expressed as: $T = S_{R_S} \cdot R_S + S_P \cdot P + c + \varepsilon_{T} = a \cdot x + b \cdot y + c + \varepsilon_{T}$ (21)
296 297 298 299 300	Hitdgm Hargei (eEQ) case believe it and put the general sector of the following equation. This can be expressed as: $T = S_{R_s} \cdot R_s + S_P \cdot P + c + \varepsilon_{\Xi} = a \cdot x + b \cdot y + c + \varepsilon_{\Xi}$ (21) where $= \underline{T}$ represents the monthly anomalies of T_{s-max} , T_{s-min} , T_{a-max} , and T_{a-min} ; \underline{S}_{R_s} and \underline{S}_P
296 297 298 299 300 301	Hitdm Hargei (eEQ) as the life if and put the get SP repeited by the part of the following equation. This can be expressed as: $T = S_{R_S} \cdot R_S + S_P \cdot P + c + \varepsilon_{T} = a \cdot x + b \cdot y + c + \varepsilon_{T}$ (21) where = T represents the monthly anomalies of T _{s-max} , T _{s-min} , T _{a-max} , and T _{a-min} ; S _{RS} and S _P are the sensitivities of the temperatures to R _s and P are the monthly anomalies
296 297 298 299 300 301 302	Hitdm Hargei (eEQ) case believe if and put flags 6SP repairing the following equation. This can be expressed as: $T = S_{R_s} \cdot R_s + S_P \cdot P + c + \varepsilon_{\Xi} = a \cdot x + b \cdot y + c + c -$ (21) where $= T_r$ represents the monthly anomalies of T_{s-max} , T_{s-min} , T_{a-max} , and T_{a-min} ; S_{Rs} and S_P are the sensitivities of the temperatures to R_s and P_X and y are the monthly anomalies of the SSR and precipitation, respectively; a and b are the corresponding sensitivities
296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303	Hitdyn Hlwgsin (#F.Q) vas tek life eigen hydringer SPR eigen interpreter in the following equation. This can be expressed as: $T = S_{R_S} \cdot R_S + S_P \cdot P + c + \varepsilon_{T} = a \cdot x + b \cdot y + c + \varepsilon_{-}$ (21) where = T_represents the monthly anomalies of T_s-max, T_s-min, T_a-max, and T_a-min; S_{R_S} and S_P are the sensitivities of the temperatures to R_s and P_x and y are the monthly anomalies of the SSR and precipitation, respectively; a and b are the corresponding sensitivities of the temperatures to SSR and precipitation, respectively; c is constant term; and c

305	multilinear regression equation (Eq (1)) are shown in Fig S3, and they indicate the
306	portion of the variance of T that could be attributed to that of R _s and P. High coefficients
307	of determination were obtained, which showed that the linear regression performed well,
308	particularly for South China and the North China Plain. To separate the contributions
309	of R_s and P , we further calculated the partial correlation coefficients between R_s and T
310	(or <i>P</i> and <i>T</i>), which are shown in Fig S4 and Fig S5.
311	To adjust determine the effect of R_s/P for the impact of SSR and precipitation on
312	the analyzed temperatures, we removed their effects from their original time series of
313	<u>T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} based on the multilinear relationship calculated in Eq (1). Then, we</u>
314	calculated the trends from both the original and adjusted time series. By comparing the
315	derived trends of the original and adjusted time series, we quantitatively assessed the
316	effect of R_s/P on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} , particularly for the spatiotemporal pattern of their
317	trends.we took x as a time series of SSR and y as a time series of precipitation, while a
318	and b are the sensitivities of the climate variables to changes in SSR and precipitation,
319	respectively. The method of adjusting for the impact of SSR and precipitation is
320	expressed as
321	
322	where T _{adjusted} indicates the value of the climate variables after adjusting for the

323 impact of SSR and precipitation and T_{raw} is the value of the climate variables in the raw data.

324 3. Results

325 **3.1. Trends of surface temperature and air temperature**

326 **3.1.1** The temporal patterns in the variabilities of the temperature variabilitys

Figs. 2 and Figs. 3 show t<u>T</u>he long-term changes in T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} and T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} from 1960 to 2003 are shown in Fig 2 and Fig 3, respectively. In addition to the annual variability (Figs. 2a and Figs. 3a), we analyzed the variabilities of the temperature variabilitys in both the warm seasons (May-October) (; Figs. 2b and Figs. 3b) and the cold seasons (November to the following April) (; Figs. 2c and Figs. 3c) were analyzed. In the annual records, all of the temperatures showed exhibited an obvious warming trend over throughout China (Figs. 2a and Figs. 3a).

As shown in Table 1, the national mean warming rate from 1960 to 2003 for T_{s-max}

was 0.227 ± 0.091 °C 10 yr^{-1} (95% confidence level) and the rate for T_{a-max} was

 0.167 ± 0.068 °C 10yr⁻¹ (95% confidence level) from 1960 to 2003. The warming rate of

B37 T_{a-max} based on the 1,977 stations examined in this paper the current study was a

³³⁸ littleslightly higher than both that of the global average (0.141 °C 10yr⁻¹) from 1950 to

339 2004 (Vose et al., 2005) and that the rate obtained from of a previous analysis of China

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341 (Liu et al., 2004). <u>Additionally, the increases in</u>

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The seasonal contrasts of warming of T_{a-max} and T_{s-max} are important. T_{s-max} had an average rate of 0.172 °C 10yr⁻¹ in the warm seasons and 0.354 °C 10yr⁻¹ in the cold seasons. For T_{a-max} , it was 0.091 °C 10yr⁻¹ and 0.294 °C 10yr⁻¹ in the warm and cold seasons, respectively. The increases in T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in the cold seasons were much

(0.127 °C 10yr⁻¹) of temperatures from 1955 to 2000 based on 305 stations in China

larger than those in the warm seasons, which is consistent with previous studies ofChina and other regions (Shen et al., 2014; Vose et al., 2005; Ren et al., 2005).

Similarly, the warming rates of T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} in the warm seasons were clearly

also clearly lower than those in the cold seasons too. As shown in Fig 3, *T_{s-min}* increased

by 0.315 ± 0.058 °C $10yr^{-1}$ (95% confidence level) and T_{a-min} increased by

351 <u>0.356±0.0057 °C 10yr⁻¹ (95% confidence level) (see Fig 3a) from 1960 to 2003.</u>As

shown in Figs. 3, *T_{s-min}* increased by 0.315 °C 10yr⁻¹ and *T_{a-min}* increased by 0.356 °C

353 10yr⁻¹ (see Figs. 3a) from 1960 to 2003. The warming trend of T_{a-min} is generally

354 consistent with earlier studies (Shen et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2004);

bowever, it-these trends is are considerably larger than that the rates reported for the

global average (0.204 °C 10yr⁻¹) (Vose et al., 2005). For the seasonal scales, the

357 <u>warming rate of T_{s-min}/T_{a-min} increased at a rate of 0.221 °C 10yr⁻¹ in the warm seasons</u>

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and 0.447 °C 10yr⁻¹-in the cold seasons from was almost double that of the warm
 seasons from 1960 to 2003 (see Table 1). T_{a-min} increased at rates of 0.245 °C 10yr⁻¹
 and 0.505 °C 10yr⁻¹ in the warm and cold seasons, respectively.

361 On a national average scale, all temperatures increased from 1960 to 2003. The 362 warming rate of T_{s-min} (T_{a-min}) was significantly faster than that of T_{s-max} (T_{a-max}) and the 363 warming rates of all temperatures in the cold seasons were generally substantially 364 higher greater than those in the warm seasons. These basic characteristics of the 365 temperature changes are consistent with previous studies on global or regional scales 366 (Li et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2004; Easterling et al., 1997). (Hartmann et al., 2013). 367 Although previous studies have indicated that the microclimate (e.g. urban heat island) 368 has a larger effect on minimum temperatures because of the lower and more stable 369 boundary layer at night (Zhou and Ren, 2011; Christy et al., 2009), many investigators 370 argue that variability in R_s is the primary reason for the daily contrast in warming rates 371 (Sanchez-Lorenzo and Wild, 2012; Makowski et al., 2009). (Liu et al., 2004; Karl et al., 372 1993)However, there remain slight differences between our results and previous studies 373 with respect to the temperature warming rates, which might have several causes. 374 The number of stations used in our study is much greater in previous studies, which 375 has led to better spatial coverage and a better representation of our analytical result. In

377 **3.1.2. The sS**patial patterns in the variabilities for the temperature variabilitys

As shown in Figs. 4, demonstrates a clear spatial heterogeneity was demonstrated in the warming

 $\frac{1}{380}$ at high rate and the trends of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} were statistically significant higher in for

rates for T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} over in China from 1960-to 2003. Transmit and T_{a-max} increased

the Tibet Plateau, and Northwest and Northeast China (see Figs S36). However, T_{s max}

382 and T_{a max} had a relative lower warming rate in the <u>compared with the</u> North China Plain

and South China, <u>and T_s and the showed cooling Cooling</u> trends in <u>T_s and the second sec</u>

384 <u>detected for the Sichuan PlainBasin</u>, the Yangtze River Delta, and the Pearl River Delta.

Lower warming rates of warming of $T_{\mu-max}$ in South China and the North China Plain

³⁸⁶ had have also been previously reported in multiple previous studies (Liu et al., 2004;

387 Li et al., 2015).

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379

For <u>The warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} ; the warming rates of <u>in</u> South China and the North China Plain in the warm seasons were considerably lower than those in the cold seasons, <u>resulting which resulted</u> in <u>a more obviousstronger</u> spatial heterogeneity in the warm seasons (Figs. 4b and 4h). <u>However, the warming rates of</u> both T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in the Sichuan Basin and the Pearl River Delta were lower in the cold seasons than in the warm seasons. Despite of <u>T</u> the spatial and seasonal patterns of</u>

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 T_{a-max} were similar, although they were <u>not as</u> elearly similar to as the those patterns. 395 of T_{s-max} . The spatial contrast in the trends between <u>For T_{a-max} both the seasonal</u> *asymmetry and the spatial heterogeneity of the warming trend were less than those of* T_{s-max} -

398	For T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} was much less than that between T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} , although
399	a strong dependence on latitude was observed the warming rates were highest in North
400	China and generally decreased from north to south (Figs. 4d and 4j). The average
401	warming rates of T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} in the cold seasons (Figs. 4f and 4l) were faster than
402	those in the warm seasons (Figs. 4e and 4k). This variation of warming rate with
403	latitudes have This dependence has been successfully -been-attributed to amplified
404	dynamics amplification (Wallace et al., 2012; Ding et al., 2014). In this study, we focus
405	on the spatial heterogeneity of the warming rates at similar latitudes and diurnal contrast
406	of the warming rates.
407	By contrasting the annual variation and spatial pattern of trends, we found that The
408	<u>correlation between T_s and T_a was highly had an extremely significant correlation with</u>

409 each other. Based on the time series of the national mean yearly anomalies (see Figs. 2

410 and Figs. 3), the correlation <u>coefficients</u> between T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} were was 0.877_

411 0.799, and 0.921 on the annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales, respectively. The

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412	correlations-and between Ts-min and Ta-min were-was_0.976_, 0.969, and 0.977-on the	
413	annual, warm, and cold seasonal scale. s, respectively. In the spatial pattern of the	
414	trendsIn the spatial pattern of the trends (Figs. 4), the correlation coefficients between	
415	T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} were was 0.488 and , 0.465, and 0.522 on the annual, warm, and cold	_
416	seasonal scales, respectively. Those-between T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} were-was 0.638, 0.670,	_
417	and 0.594-on the annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales, respectively. All of these	
418	correlations between T_{δ} and T_{a} were significant at the 95% significance level, which	
419	indicated a close relation between T_s and T_a for both interannual fluctuations and secular	
420	trends	
421	In summary, T _s -had a significant correlation with Ta both in annual variation (Figs.	
422	2 and Figs. 3) and in long-term trends (Figs. 4), indicating that T _s observational records	
423	are reliable for climate change research. However, $t_{\underline{T}}$ he correlation between \underline{T}_{s-min} and	/
424	T_{a-min} was significantly higher than that between T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} . T_{s-min} is closely related	\langle
425	to the landatmosphere longwave wave radiation balance during the nighttime at night,	
426	which is closely related associated to with the atmospheric greenhouse effect (Dai et al.,	
427	1999). During the day time, T_s is directly determined by the land surface energy balance,	/
428	i.e., the incoming energy (including $SSRR_{s}$ -) and atmospheric longwave radiation	
429	(Wang and Dickinson, 2013a), and it is partitions-partitioned into latent and sensible	
430	heat fluxes (Zhou and Wang, 2016). Despite <u>Although</u> its <u>T_a is dependence dependent</u> on the land-atmosphere	_

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431	sensible heat flux, <u>it T_{α} is also impacted affected</u> by local and/or large-scale circulation.	/
432	So Thus, the changes of in the land surface energy balance caused by $SSR_{R_{\delta}}$ and	/
433	<i>precipitation</i> <u><i>P</i></u> have different levels of effect on T_s and T_a during the day, which most	<
434	likely <u>causes caused</u> a the lower correlation between T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} than that between	<
435	T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} .	<
436	3.2. The impact of<u>Effect of</u> <i>surface solar radiationR_s</i> and <i>precipitation_P</i> on	<
437	temperatures	

438 **3.2.1 Effect of** *R*_s**Impact of surface solar radiation**

439 -<u>As shown in Figs. S4, shows that SSR_{R_s} had is closely an important</u>

440 relationshiplinked with T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} but not with T_{s-min} and T_{a-min_3} and the correlation

441 and T_{a-min} between T_{s-max} - and R_s was higher than that between T_{a-max} and R_s The national

442 mean of the partial correlation coefficients between SSR and T_{s-max} is 0.552 and 98.9%

443 of the stations are statistically significant at the 1% level. Meanwhile, the national mean

44 of the partial correlation coefficients between SSR and T_{a-max} is 0.441, and 95.4% of

the stations are statistically significant at the 1% level. This relationship is stronger in

446 South China and on the North China Plain, i.e., it reaches 0.810 for T_{s-max} and 0.765 for

447 T_{a-max}. –

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449	warm seasons is was higher than that in the cold seasons, and this correlation was			
450	stronger in South China and the North China Plain, the national mean partial correlation			
451	coefficients for the warm and cold seasons are 0.579 and 0.498 for T_{s-max} and 0.544 and			
452	0.386 for T_{a-max} , respectively, consisting with the seasonal cycle of SSR intensity over			
453	China.			
454	Spatially, overall, the partial correlation coefficients between T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} and			
455	SSR are higher in South China than in North China (see Figs. 5a 5c and 5g 5i). South			
456	of 35° N, the national mean of the partial correlation coefficients between T _{s-max} (T _{a-max})			
457	and SSR is 0.654 (0.552), whereas that between T_{s-max} (T_{a-max}) and SSR is just 0.417			
458	(Shen et al., 2014) north of 35° N. During daytime, T_s and T_a is largely determined by			
459	how much energy is used to evapotranspiration. SIn south China has highwhere soil			
460	moisture-is-high,; therefore, the relationship between the energy used for			
461	evapotranspiration and is near linearly related to SSRRs is approximately linear (Wang	/	带格式的:下	标
462	and Dickinson, 2013b; Zhou et al., 2007). However, northwest China presents dry soil			
463	over most of the year; thus the energy used for evapotranspiration is more dependent			
464	on precipitation in the northwest China where the soil is dry during most time of a		带格式的:字	体: 倾斜
465	yearP. As a result, the energy available for heating the surface and air temperatures is			
466	not asso closely correlated with SSRRs. Therefore, the correlation coefficients between	_	带格式的: 字 带格式的: 下	体: 倾斜 标



468	To quantify the impact effect of $SSR_{\underline{R}_{\underline{\delta}}}$ on temperature, the sensitivity of the	/
469	<u>studied</u> temperatures to changes in <u>SSRR_s has been was</u> calculated (Eq. (21)). As <u>shown</u>	
470	in Figs. 6Fig S7 shows, T_{s-max} was the most sensitive to SSR R_s , followed by T_{a-max} , and	\langle
471	their national means were for T_{s-max} was 0.092±0.018 °C (W m ⁻²) ⁻¹ (95% confidence	<
472	<u>level</u>) and <u>T_{a-max} was 0.035±0.010</u> °C (W m ⁻²) ⁻¹ (95% confidence level), respectively.	
473	T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} were insignificantly not sensitive to SSR R_s because these temperatures	<
474	are primarily affected by they primarily depend on atmospheric longwave radiation	
475	during the nighttimenight.	
476	Based on the above analysis, we calculated the impact effect of changes in $\frac{SSR_{x}}{R_{x}}$	/
477	on the studied temperatures (see the Method Section). From 1960 to -2003, the	
478	calculations of the monthly anomalies at 1,977 stations indicated that the national mean	
479	<u>rate of decreasing ratee</u> of <u>SSRR</u> was -1.502 ± 0.42 W m ⁻² 10yr ⁻¹ (95% confidence)	
480	level), as calculated from monthly anomalies at 1,977 stations, and the trend was	
481	significant in most regions over of China (see Figs. S4Fig S8) Our results rate of	
482	decrease was are considerably less than the global average dimming diminishing rate	
483	(<u>form approximately</u> $-2.3 - to -5.1 \text{ W m}^{-2} 10 \text{ yr}^{-1}$) between the 1960s and the 1990s	
484	(Gilgen et al., 1998; Liepert, 2002; Stanhill and Cohen, 2001; Ohmura, 2006) and the	

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national mean dimming rate across China (<u>from approximately</u> -2.9 to- -5.2 W m⁻²
10yr⁻¹) between the 1960s and the 2000s based on radiation station observations (Che
et al., 2005; Liang and Xia, 2005; Shi et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2015a).

488 As noted in the data section, the sensitivity drifting and replacement of the 489 instruments used for the SSRRs observations results resulted in a significant 490 homogenization in of the stations observation records (Wang, 2014; Wang et al., 2015a), 491 which eauses introduced considerable a great uncertainty in to the trend_estimations. 492 Tang et al. (2011) used quality-controlled observational data from 72 stations and two 493 radiation models based on 479 stations to determine both that the dimming rate inover China is decreased from approximately -2.1 -to -2.3 W m⁻² 10yr⁻¹ during 1961-2000, 494 495 and that thethey also showed that SSRRs values has have remained been essentially 496 unchanged since 2000.; this These findings is are generally consistent with our results. 497 Due to Because of the decreasing trend in $\frac{SSR_{R_s}}{R_s}$, the national mean warming 498 trends of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} decreased by 0.139 °C 10yr⁻¹ and 0.053 °C 10yr⁻¹ respectively, in the national mean. Spatially, the decreasing rate of SSRRs in South 499 500 China and the North China Plain was significantly higher than that in other regions,

501 especially <u>particularly</u> in the warm seasons (Figs. 7Fig 5b). Therefore, the cooling effect

of decreasing $\frac{SSR_{R_s}}{r_s}$ on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} was more significant in South China and the

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503	China North Plain, and it resulted ing in significantly lower warming rates of T_{s-max} and	
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504	T_{a-max} in those regions there—than in the other regions (see Figs. 4). The spatial	
505	consistency between the decreasing $\frac{SSRR_s}{r_s}$ trend and the warming slowdown of T_{s-max}	
506	(\underline{T}_{a-max}) implies warming implied that variations in SSRRs is were the primary reason	
507	for the spatial heterogeneity of the warming rate in T_{s-max} (T_{a-max}).	

508 3.2.2 Effect of P Impact of Precipitation

509	<u>As shown in Fig S5, Figs. 8a a shows that there is a significant negative correlation</u>
510	was detected between <i>T_{s-max}</i> and <i>precipitationP</i> , and; the national correlation was more
511	significant in the warm seasons than in the cold seasons. Pmean of the partial
512	correlation coefficients is -0.323, and 99.3% of the stations are statistically significant
513	at the 1% level. Seasonally, the correlation is stronger in the warm seasons (regional
514	mean: -0.405) than in the cold seasons (regional mean: -0.276). In warm seasons, the
515	correlation in North China (regional mean: -0.459) is clearly stronger than in South
516	China (regional mean: -0.365). In cold seasons, the correlation is highest on the
517	Southwestern Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau and in most regions of North China (regional
518	mean: -0.305) (Figs. 8b and 8c), whereas it was is relatively weak in Southeastern
519	China, the Tibet Plateau, Dzungaria, the Tarim Basin, and some regions of Northeastern
520	China (regional mean: -0.117). The correlations between T _{a max} and precipitation had

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have similar spatial and seasonal patterns (Figs. 8g 8i) too, and 35.4% of the stations
had a correlation between T_{a-max} and the precipitation that wasare statistically
significant at the 1% level; these were are primarily concentrated in arid and semiarid
regions of China (regional mean: -0.167) (Figs. 8e 8f and 8j 8l).

525Precipitation has a negatively relationship correlated with temperature because526precipitation P can reduces temperatures by increasing the surface evaporative cooling527(Dai et al., 1997; Wang et al., 2006). The impact of precipitation on temperature was528is higher in the warm seasons over China, which is consistent with seasonal changes in529the correlation between T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} and precipitation (see Figs. 8b - 8e and 8h - 8i). T

530	The national mean sensitivities of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} to <u>precipitation</u> were
531	-0.321 ± 0.098 °C 10 mm ⁻¹ and -0.064 ± 0.054 °C 10 mm ⁻¹ (95% confidence level),
532	respectively. As shown in Figs. 9Fig S9, there were apparent seasonal and spatial
533	changes in the sensitivity of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} to precipitation <u>P</u> were apparent (Figs.
534	9 <u>Fig S9</u> a–9c and <u>Fig S9</u> 9g–9i). In warm seasons, these sensitivities were highest in the
535	Tibet Plateau, the Loess Plateau, the Inter Mongolia Plateau, Dzungaria, and the Tarim
536	Basin (Figs. 9b and 9h). In cold seasons, the distribution of regions with high sensitivity
537	extended to all of North China and Southwest China (Figs. 9c and 9i). Overall, tThe
538	sensitivities of T_{s-max} were significantly higher in arid regions (dry seasons)

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539	than in-humidity regions (rainy seasons) (Wang and Dickinson, 2013b). In contrastAs	
540	expected, T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} were both less sensitive to variations in the <u>precipitation P</u> .	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
541	As Figs. 10 shows, during 1960-2003, tThe trend in the precipitation P from 1960_	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
542	to 2003 over the 1.977 stations had showed obvious spatial heterogeneities. China's	
543	precipitation during this period showed a A slight increasing trend in P was observed in	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
544	China during this period at with an increasing-rate of 0.112±0.718 mm 10yr ⁻¹ _(95%)	
545	confidence level). An increasing Precipitation P trend was observed in Northwestern	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
546	northwestern_China and Southeastern_southeastern_China-experienced an increasing	
547	trend, whereas a decreasing trend was observed in the precipitation in the North China	
548	Plain, the Sichuan Basin, and parts of Northeastern-northeastern China-experienced a	
549	decreasing trend. However, the <i>trend of precipitation</i> P trends was were not insignificant	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
550	in most regions (see Figs. S4Fig S8). Variations in precipitation Phad significantly	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
551	differed by seasonal differences (see Figs. 10Fig 6b and Fig 610c). The seasonal and	
552	spatial characteristics variations in of these precipitation variations P are consistent with	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
553	those identified inof previous studies (Zhai et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015b).	
554	Therefore, $f\underline{F}$ or T_{a-max} and T_{s-max} , the reduction in precipitation aggravated the	
555	warming trend in the North China Plain, the Sichuan Basin, and parts of Northeastern	
556	northeastern China was aggravated by the reduction in <i>P</i> , whereas the warming trend	带格式的: 字体: 倾斜

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557	increase in precipitation primarily slowed the warming trend in Nnorthwestern China		
558	and on in the Mongolian Plateau were slowed by increases in <u>P (Figs. 10Fig 6</u> d). On		带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
559	For the national average, the impact effect of increasing precipitation P resulted in		带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
560	decreases in the warming trends of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} being decreased by -0.007 °C		 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
561	10yr ⁻¹ and -0.002 °C 10yr ⁻¹ , respectively. However, compared to SSR, the impact		
562	<u>effect</u> of <u>precipitation P</u> on T_{s-max} was smaller by approximately an order of magnitude	_	 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
563	less than that of $R_{\underline{s}}$. For $T_{\underline{s}$ -min- and $T_{\underline{a}$ -min, the impact of changes in precipitation was		
564	insignificant.		
565 566	3.3. Trends of surface and air temperature after adjusting for the effect of <u>SSRR</u> s and <u>precipitationP</u>	/	(带格式的: 下标 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
567	Based on the above analysis of the impact <u>effect</u> of <u>SSR_R</u> and <u>precipitation P</u> on	_	 【 带格式的: 下标 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
568	temperatures, we found that the variations of in <u>SSRR</u> and <u>precipitation P</u> had little	_	 (带格式的: 下标 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
569	effect on T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} . However, R_s and P had important effect on the trends of T_{s-}	_	 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
570	max and T_{a-max} (see Fig S3), particularly in central and South China, where <u>T</u> was more		带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
571	closely related to R_s (see Fig S4). Therefore Therefore, we only the effects of R_s and P		
572	on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} were analyzed analyzed their impact on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} . After		
573	adjusting for the impact effect of SSRRs and precipitation P (Figs. 11Fig 7), the		(带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
574	warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} increased by 0.146 °C 10yr ⁻¹ (64.3%) and 0.055 °C		带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜

575 10yr⁻¹ (33.0%), respectively.

576	After adjustingAdditionally, the increasing amplitude of warming rates in the
577	warm seasons was significantly higher than that in the cold seasons, which resulted in
578	the <u>a</u> seasonal contrast <u>in</u> warming rates, with <u>of</u> T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} decreasinged by 45.0%
579	and 17.2% respectively (see Table 1). The national mean warming rate of T _{s-max}
580	increased by 0.178 °C 10yr ⁻¹ (103.1%) in the warm seasons and 0.086 °C 10yr ⁻¹ (27.2%)
581	in the cold seasons. For T _{a-max} , the warming rate increased by 0.069 °C 10yr ⁻¹ (76.4%)
582	in the warm seasons and 0.034 °C 10yr ⁻¹ (11.7%) in the cold seasons
583	After adjusting for the impact of SSR and <i>precipitation</i> , the difference in warming
584	rates between T_{a-max} and T_{a-min} changed from 0.190 to 0.134 °C 10yr ⁻¹ , a decrease of
585	29.1%, and the difference between $T_{s\mbox{-max}}$ and $T_{s\mbox{-min}}$ changed from 0.088 to 0.058 °C
586	10yr⁻¹, a decrease of 33.0%.
587	More importantly, after adjusting for the impact <u>effect</u> of $SSRR_{s}$ and
588	<i>precipitation</i> <u>P</u> , the spatial coherence of the warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in South
589	China and the North China Plain clearly improved (Figs. 12Fig 8). The regional
590	differences between among the North China Plain, South China, and other regions in
591	China shrank significantly due to decreased because of the increase in the warming rates
592	in South China and the North China Plain. In additionAdditionally, the warming trends

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593 of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} became more statistically significant in the North China Plain and 594 South China (see Figs. S510).

To further prove thisclearly illustrate these changes, we selected two regions in China for further investigation: R1 primarily includes included the North China Plain and R2 primarily includes included the Loess Plateau, as shown in(see _ Figs. 13Fig 9a). Although tThese regions share the same latitudes, However, the trend for SSR_{R_g} were showed substantially different (see Fig 9b), contrasting trends in the two regions (see Figs. 13b).

After adjusting for the impacts <u>effect</u> of <u>SSRRs</u> and <u>precipitationP</u>, the annual trends <u>of for</u> T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in R1 increased by 0.304 and 0.118 °C 10yr⁻¹, <u>respectively</u>, whereas <u>while</u> those in R2 just increased by <u>only</u> 0.025 and 0.016 °C 10yr⁻¹, respectively. <u>Therefore</u>, following the adjustment, <u>The the</u> differences in <u>the</u> warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} between R1 and R2 <u>reduced-were</u> significantly <u>reduced after</u> adjusting (see Figs. 13Fig 9d).

MeanwhileFollowing the adjustment – in R1, the seasonal and diurnal differences in the warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} decreased – significantly_decreased. After adjusting, in R1, tThe differences in warming rates between the warm seasons and cold seasons decreased by 68.7% for T_{s-max} and decreased by 50.8% for T_{a-max} after the **带格式的:** 下标

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611	<u>adjustment</u> . <u>Additionally</u> , the differences in the warming rates between T_{s-max} and T_{s-max} .	_	【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
612	min decreased by 93.4% and that between T_{a-max} and T_{a-min} decreased by 59.6% in R1. In	_	 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
613	R2, the adjustment did not significantly change the seasonal and diurnal differences in		
614	temperatures. The seasonal and diurnal difference of temperatures in R2 had no		
615	significant changes after adjusting. All in allOverall, the trends of for R1 and R2 became		
616	more consistent with each other after adjusting the <u>for</u> difference in SSR_{R} and <u>precipitation P between them</u> (see Figs. 13 Fig. 9d).	_	 (带格式的: 下标 (带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
617	4. Conclusions and Discussion		
618	In China, despite the Although a general warming trends has been observed		
619	throughout China, over the entire country, the regional warming trends showed		
620	significant spatial and temporal heterogeneity. In this paperstudy, we analyzed the		
621	spatial and temporal patterns of T_s and T_a from 1960 to 2003 and further analyzed and		
622	quantified the impact effects of $SSRR_{s}$ and precipitation P on these temperatures. The	_	 (帶格式的: 下标 (帶格式的: 字体: 倾斜
623	main-primary results of the study are as follows.		
624	The national mean warming rates from 1960 to 2003 of T_{s-max} , T_{s-min} , T_{a-max} , and		
625	T_{a-min} were 0.227 \pm 0.091, 0.315 \pm 0.058 $-$ °C 10yr ⁻¹ , 0.167 \pm 0.068 $-$ °C 10yr ⁻¹ , and		【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
626	0.356 ± 0.057 °C 10yr ⁻¹ , respectively. from 1960 to 2003. The he warming rates of T_{s-1}		【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
627	min and T_{a-min} were significantly greater than those of T_{a-max} and T_{a-max} (see Figs. 2 and		【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜
628	Figs. 3). Warming warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in South China and on-the North	_	 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜 【 带格式的: 字体: 倾斜

629 China Plain were significantly lower than <u>those in the</u> other regions (see Figs. 4)., and The the spatial

630 heterogeneity in the warm seasons was greater than <u>that</u> in the cold seasons.

During the study period, the <u>SSRRs</u> value_decreased by -1.502 ± 0.042 W m⁻² 10yr⁻¹ (95% confidence level)in China, with and higher dimming-diminishing rates were observed in South China and the North China Plain. Using a partial regression analysis, we found that <u>SSRRs</u> was the primary cause of the spatial patterns in the warming rates of <u>T_s-max</sub> and <u>T_a-max</sub>.</u></u>

636 After adjusting for the effect of R_s and P, the warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in 637 South China and the North China Plain significantly increased and the regional 638 differences in warming rates in China clearly decreased (see Fig 8). After the 639 adjustments, the warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in the North China Plain increased 640 by 0.304 and 0.118 °C 10yr⁻¹, respectively, whereas those on Loess Plateau increased 641 only by 0.025 and 0.016 °C 10yr⁻¹, respectively. Therefore, the differences in warming 642 rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} between the North China Plain and the Loess Plateau were 643 almost eliminated (see Fig 9d).

After adjusting for the effect of R_s and P, the warming trend of T_{s-max} increased by 0.146 °C 10yr⁻¹ and that of T_{a-max} increased by 0.055 °C 10yr⁻¹. In addition, the trends of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} became 0.373±0.068 and 0.222±0.062 °C 10yr⁻¹ respectively. 带格式的: 下标

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647	Reduction in R_s resulted in decreases in the warming rates of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} by
648	0.139 °C 10yr ⁻¹ and 0.053 °C 10yr ⁻¹ , respectively, which accounted for 95.0% and 95.8%
649	of the total effect of R_s and P , respectively. For the seasonal contrast, the warming rates
650	of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} decreased by 45.0% and 17.2%, respectively. For the daily contrast,
651	the warming rates of T_s and T_a decreased by 33.0% and 29.1%, respectively. After
652	adjusting for the impact of SSR and precipitation, the warming trend of T _{s-max} increased
653	by 0.146 °C 10yr ⁻¹ and that of T _{a-max} -increased by 0.055 °C 10yr ⁻¹ . After adjustments,
654	the trends of T _{s max} , T _{s min} , T _{a max} , and T _{a min} became 0.373 °C 10yr ⁼¹ , 0.315 °C 10yr ⁻¹ ,
655	0.222 °C 10yr ⁻¹ , and 0.356 °C 10yr ⁻¹ . The reduction of SSR resulted in the warming
656	rates of T _{s max} and T _{a max} decreasing by 0.139 °C 10yr ⁻¹ and 0.053 °C 10yr ⁻¹ , accounting
657	for 95.0% and 95.8%, respectively, of the total impact of SSR and precipitation.
658	In addition to <u>SSR_{Rs}</u> and <u><i>precipitationP</i></u> , temperatures ² warming rates may be
659	affected by many other factors, such as land cover and land use changes, ; that however
660	those factors have not been discussed in this study due tobecause of lack of data; i.e.,
661	land cover and land use (Liu et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2016). After adjusting for the
662	impact effect of changes in <u>SSRR</u> and <i>precipitation</i> P changes, the spatial differences
663	in the warming trends clearly decreased; however, some certain regional differences
664	remained. The warming rate of T_{s-max} in the Sichuan Basin remained significantly lower
665	than <u>that</u> in other regions after adjusting for these <u>impactseffects</u> . In

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666	additionAdditionally, the differences north-south difference in the warming rates of T_{s} .
667	min and T_{a-min} between the northern and southern areas were not cannot be explained by
668	the impacts effects of SSRRs and precipitation P:- Further further study is
669	neededrequired.
670	Acknowledgements This study was funded by tThe National Natural Science
671	Foundation of China (41525018 and 91337111) and the National Basic Research
671 672	Foundation of China (41525018 and 91337111) and the National Basic Research Program of China <u>funded this study</u> The latest day and night precipitation datasets,
671 672 673	Foundation of China (41525018 and 91337111) and the National Basic Research Program of China <u>funded this study</u> The latest day and night precipitation datasets, collected at approximately 2,100 meteorological stations in China from 1979 to

675 <u>approximately 2,400 meteorological stations in China from 1960 to 2003, are obtained</u>

676 from the China Meteorological Administration (CMA, <u>http://data.cma.gov.cn/data</u>).

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942 Figs.ure 3. National mean yearly anomalies of daily minimum land surface temperature (T_{s-min} , blue line) and daily minimum air temperature (T_{a-min} , red line) T_{s-min} (blue line) 943 944 and T_{a-min} (red line) on for the annual (a), warm (b), and cold (c) seasonal scales for the 945 reference period 1961-1990. The trends and fluctuations in the annual anomalies of T_s-946 min and Tamin are extremely similar to each other. Compared to the similarity in 947 maximum temperatures (see Fig. 3), the similarity between T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} is greater 948 and has no obvious seasonal differences. This is consistent with the near-surface 949 atmosphere being more stable during the night. T_{s-min} and T_{a-min} have little relationship 950 with the precipitation and SSR on the seasonal scale.



953	Figures. 4. Maps of the trends of the monthly anomalies for daily maximum land
954	surface temperature (T_{s-max} , a–c), daily minimum land surface temperature (T_{s-min} , d–f),
955	daily maximum air temperature (T_{a-max} , g-i), and daily minimum air temperature (T_{a-max})
956	min, j–l) for the annual, warm (May–October), and cold (November–next April) seasonal
957	scales. All trends reported in these figures were calculated using a linear regression
958	based on the least square method. T _{s-max} (a-c), T _{s-min} (d-f), T _{a-max} (g-i), and T _{a-min} (j-l)
959	on annual, warm (May-October), and cold (November-next April) seasonal scales. For
960	the maximum temperatures (Ts max and Ta max), the warming rates on the North China
961	Plain and in South China are significantly lower than in other regions. For T _{s-min} and T _{a-}
962	min, the warming rates are the highest in North China and generally diminish from north
963	to south. The warming rates of the temperatures are higher in the cold seasons than in
964	the warm seasons, whereas the spatial difference in the warming rates of the
965	temperatures is higher in the warm seasons than in the cold seasons.



967 Figs. 5. Maps of the partial correlation coefficients (PCs) between the surface solar 968 radiation (SSR) and the temperatures on annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales. The 969 PCs are the linear partial correlation coefficients calculated based on the monthly 970 anomalies of the SSR and temperatures, taking the precipitation as a control variable. 971 Both T_{s max} and T_{a max} have a significant correlation with SSR. The correlations between 972 T_{s-max} and SSR in 99.7% of the stations are statistically significant at the 1% level on 973 the seasonal scale. The correlations between Tamax and SSR in 95.4% of the stations 974 are statistically significant at the 1% level. Both Ts-min and Ta-min have no significant 975 correlation with SSR.



977 Figs. 6. Maps of the sensitivity of the temperatures to the surface solar radiation (SSR) 978 variation on annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales. The sensitivity of T_{s-max} to SSR is 979 largest because solar radiation directly heats the land surface during the day. After land 980 surface warming, part of the energy from the SSR will heat the near-surface air via the 981 sensitive heat flux; therefore, Ta-max also has significant sensitivity to SSR. Ta-min and 982 Tamin primarily depend on the atmospheric longwave radiation during the night; therefore, they are not significantly sensitive to SSR. In addition, Ts-max and Ta-max's 983 sensitivities to SSR are higher in the cold seasons than in the warm seasons, probably 984 985 because of seasonal differences in the soil moisture.



992	secular variations of R_s on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} . Eq (1) was used to strip away the effect of
993	<u>R_s on temperatures</u> , and we calculated the trend difference (Δ Trend, d-i) between the
994	time series of temperatures before and after adjusting for the effect of R_s . Finally, the
995	effect of R_s on the trends of T_{s-max}/T_{a-max} was quantified and analyzed (section
996	3.2.1). Maps of the trends in surface solar radiation (SSR) (a c) and its impact on the
997	warming rates of T _{s-max} (d-f) and T _{a-max} (g-i).
998	The decreasing rate of SSR is highest on the North China Plain and in South China. The
999	reduction of SSR resulted in the decreasing trends of $T_{\text{s-max}}$ and $T_{\text{a-max}}$ on the North
1000	China Plain and in South China, which is consistent with the lower warming rates of
1001	T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} in the North China Plain and South China than in other regions (see
1002	Figs. 4). The decreasing rate of SSR is higher in the warm seasons than in the cold
1003	seasons, which results in the spatial difference between the North China Plain and the
1004	South China Plain and other regions being more significant in the warm seasons than
1005	in the cold seasons.



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1007 Figs. 8. The partial correlation coefficients (PCs) between the precipitation and the 1008 temperatures on annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales. The PCs are the linear partial 1009 correlation coefficients calculated based on the monthly anomalies of the precipitation and temperatures, taking SSR as a control variable. Ts-max has a significant correlation 1010 with precipitation. The correlations between T_{s-max} and precipitation in 99.3% of the 1011 1012 stations are statistically significant at the 1% level. The correlation between Tamax and 1013 precipitation is significant at the 1% level in some regions (for 35.1% of China). Both 1014 $T_{\text{s-min}}$ and $T_{\text{a-min}}$ have no significant correlation with SSR.





1016 Figs. 9. Maps of the sensitivity of the temperatures to precipitation variation on annual, 1017 warm, and cold seasonal scales. The sensitivity of T_{3-max} to precipitation is highest 1018 because the soil thermal capacity and evaporative cooling effect of the land surface 1019 depends on soil moisture resulting from precipitation. In addition, the precipitation 1020 determines the fraction of SSR generating sensitive heat flux by altering the soil 1021 moisture and has an important effect on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max}. In arid and semi-arid areas, 1022 the soil moisture is far less than the potential evapotranspiration, and precipitation has 1023 a greater effect on evapotranspiration and further affects T_{s-max} and T_{a-max}. Therefore, 1024 sensitivities of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} are higher in arid and semiarid areas than in others.



1032	on the temperatures, then calculated the trend difference (Δ Trend, d-i) between the time
1033	series of temperatures before and after adjusting for the effect of P. Finally, the effect
1034	of P on the trends of T_{s-max}/T_{a-max} was quantified and analyzed (section 3.2.2). Maps of
1035	the trends in precipitation (Prec) (a - c) and their impact on the warming rates for T_{s-max}
1036	$(d-f)$ and T_{a-max} $(g-i)$.
1037	
1038	Globally, precipitation in China has a slight increasing trend (0.112 mm 10yr ⁻¹) during
1039	the period of 1960-2003 (a). Precipitation in Northwestern and Southeastern China had
1040	an increasing trend, whereas precipitation in the North China Plain, the Sichuan Basin,
1041	and parts of Northeastern China had a decreasing trend. The variation in precipitation
1042	in the warm seasons is more significant than in the cold seasons. For T_{s-max} and T_{s-max} ,
1043	the reduction in precipitation aggravated the warming trend in the North China Plain,
1044	the Sichuan Basin, and parts of Northeastern China, while the increase in precipitation
1045	primarily slowed the warming trend in Northwestern China and on the Mongolian
1046	Plateau. However, the impact of precipitation on T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} is far smaller than
1047	that of SSR.



1051	average anomalies of daily maximum land surface temperature (T_{s-max} , blue line) and
1052	daily maximum air temperature (T_{a-max} , red line) for the annual (a), warm (b), and cold
1053	(c) seasonal scales for the reference period from 1961 to 1990. We used Eq (1) to
1054	simultaneously adjust for the effects of surface solar radiation (R_s) and precipitation (P)
1055	on T_{s-max}/T_{a-max} and then analyzed the changes in the interannual variation of $T_{s-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-max}/T_{a-ma$
1056	max (section 3.3). T _{s-max} (blue line) and T _{a-max} (red line) on annual (a), warm (b), and cold
1057	(c) seasonal scales for the reference period of 1961-1990. After adjustments, the trends
1058	and fluctuations of T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} changed significantly, especially in the warm
1059	seasons. The fluctuation of T_{s-max} remains similar to that of T_{a-max} , whereas the amount
1060	of the increase in the warming rate of T_{s-max} (0.146 °C 10yr ⁻¹) is higher than that of T_{a-1}
1061	$_{max}$ (0.055 °C 10yr ⁻¹) because T _{s-max} is more sensitive to the variation of SSR. In
1062	addition, this difference in the amount of the increase primarily occurred in the warm
1063	seasons, which is consistent with the greater reduction of SSR in the warm seasons (see
1064	Figs. 7a-c).


1067	Figure 8. Maps of the trends of the monthly anomalies for the daily maximum land
1068	surface temperature (T_{s-max} , a, c, e) and daily maximum air temperature (T_{a-max} , b, d, f)
1069	for the annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales after adjusting for the effects of surface
1070	solar radiation (R_s) and precipitation (P). We used Eq (1) to simultaneously adjust the
1071	effects of R_s and P on T_{s-max}/T_{a-max} and then analyzed the changes in the secular trends
1072	of T_{s-max}/T_{a-max} (section 3.3). Figs. 12. After correcting for the impact of solar radiation
1073	and precipitation, maps of the trends of the monthly anomalies for T _{s max} (a, c, e) and
1074	T _{a max} (b, d, f) on the annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales. After correcting for the
1075	impact of SSR and precipitation using multiple linear regression (see the Method
1076	Section), the warming rates of T _{s-max} and T _{a-max} in the North China Plain and South
1077	China are enhanced significantly, and the difference between them and other regions of
1078	China is clearly reduced. The difference between Figs. 4 and Figs. 12 indicates that the
1079	impact of SSR and precipitation is an important cause of the spatial heterogeneity of
1080	the warming rates in T_{s-max} and T_{a-max} . Combined with Figs. 7, we find that the impact
1081	of SSR plays a primary role in generating this spatial difference.



1085	regions selected for further analysis: R1 (latitude: 30°-40° N; longitude: 110°-120° W)
1086	and R2 (latitude: 30°-40° N; longitude: 100°-110° W). (b) National mean trends for
1087	R1 and R2. (c) Annual, warm, and cold seasonal scale trends calculated based on the
1088	data before adjustment. (d) Annual, warm, and cold seasonal scale trends calculated
1089	based on the adjusted data (Wang et al., 2015a), which did not include the effect of the
1090	R_{s} variations. All error bars indicate the 95% confidence interval.
1091	
1092	<u>Table 1. Warming rates (unit: °C 10yr⁻¹) of the temperatures (T_{s-max}, T_{s-min}, T_{a-max}, T_{a-min})</u>
1093	for the annual, warm and cold seasonal scales. Raw and Adjusted represent the warming
1094	rates calculated for the data before and after adjusting for the effect of surface solar
1095	radiation (R_s) and precipitation (P) , respectively. In Method I, the national mean
1096	anomalies were calculated first and then the national mean trend based on this time
1097	series was calculated. In Method II, the trend of each grid was calculated first and then
1098	the national mean value of the trends of all grids was calculated using the area-weight
1099	average method. We calculated the national mean trends of the temperatures using both
1100	methods.

			<u>T_{s-max}</u>	<u>T_{s-min}</u>	<u>T_{a-max}</u>	<u>T_{a-min}</u>
Mathad I	<u>Raw</u>	<u>Annual</u>	<u>0.227±0.091</u>	<u>0.315±0.058</u>	<u>0.167±0.068</u>	0.356±0.057
<u>Ivietilou I</u>		Warm	<u>0.172±0.103</u>	0.221±0.054	<u>0.091±0.056</u>	0.245±0.049

		Cold	0.354±0.149	0.447±0.101	0.294±0.123	0.505±0.098
		<u>Annual</u>	0.373±0.068	2	0.222±0.062	2
	Adjusted	Warm	0.350±0.064	±	<u>0.160±0.046</u>	2
		Cold	<u>0.450±0.119</u>	_	0.329±0.114	<u>-</u>
		<u>Annual</u>	0.254 ± 0.197	0.328 ± 0.094	0.183±0.103	0.368±0.082
	<u>Raw</u>	Warm	<u>0.193±0.285</u>	<u>0.235±0.095</u>	0.104 ± 0.109	<u>0.256±0.081</u>
Mothod II		Cold	<u>0.321±0.267</u>	<u>0.415±0.159</u>	<u>0.264±0.167</u>	<u>0.476±0.139</u>
<u>Method II</u>	Adjusted	Annual	0.401 ± 0.137	_	0.239 ± 0.086	2
		Warm	0.374 ± 0.173	z -	0.174 ± 0.082	± 1
		Cold	0.432 ± 0.208	2	0.304±0.152	2
Units: °C 10yr ⁻¹ . ±95% Confidence interval.						

1102	Figs. 13. (a) Maps of the trends of the surface solar radiation (SSR) and the location of
1103	the selected regions, R1 (latitude: 30° N-40° N; longitude: 110° N-120° N) and R2
1104	(latitude: 30° N-40° N; longitude: 100° N-110° N). (b) The national mean trends of R1
1105	and R2. (c) The trends on the annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales calculated based
1106	on the raw data (Raw). (d) The trends on the annual, warm, and cold seasonal scales
1107	calculated based on the adjusted data (Wang et al., 2015a), which does not include the
1108	impact of the surface solar radiation variation.
1109	
1110	
1111	

1112	Table 1. The warming rates (units: °C 10yr ⁻¹) of the temperatures on annual, warm, and
1113	cold seasonal scales. Raw and Adjusted represent the warming rates calculated for the
1114	data before and after adjusting for the impact of solar radiation and precipitation.
1115	Method I represents the first method, which calculates the national mean anomalies first
1116	and then calculates the national mean trend based on this time series; Method II
1117	represents second method, which calculates the trend of every grids first and then
1118	calculates the national mean value of the trends of all grids using the area-weight
1119	average method. We calculated the national mean trends of the temperatures using both
1120	methods.