An assessment of land energy balance over East Asia from multiple lines of evidence and the roles of Tibet Plateau, aerosols, and clouds

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Qiuyan Wang^{1,2,6}, Hua Zhang^{1,2}, Su Yang³, Qi Chen², Xixun Zhou², Bing Xie⁴, Yuying
Wang¹, Guangyu Shi^{1,5}, Martin Wild⁶

² State Key Laboratory of Severe Weather, Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences, Beijing 100081,
 China

³ National Meteorological Information Center, China Meteorological Administration, Beijing 100081, China

⁴Laboratory for Climate Studies of China Meteorological Administration, National Climate Center, Beijing
 100081, China

⁵ State Key Laboratory of Numerical Modeling for Atmospheric Sciences and Geophysical Fluid Dynamics,
 Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China

- ⁶Institute for Atmospheric and Climate Science, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland
- 18

 ¹ Collaborative Innovation Center on Forecast and Evaluation of Meteorological Disasters, Nanjing University
 of Information Science and Technology, Nanjing 210044, China

¹⁹ *Corresponding to*: Hua Zhang (huazhang@cma.gov.cn)

21 Abstract. With high emissions of aerosols and the known world's "Third Pole" of the Tibet Plateau (TP) in 22 East Asia, knowledge on the energy budget over this region is widely concerned. This study first attempts 23 to estimate the present-day land energy balance over East Asia by combining surface and satellite 24 observations, as well as the atmospheric reanalysis and Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 25 (CMIP6) simulations. Compared to the global land budget, a substantially larger fraction of atmospheric 26 shortwave radiation of 5.2% is reflected, highly associated with the higher aerosol loadings and more clouds 27 over East Asian land. While a slightly smaller fraction of atmospheric shortwave absorption of 0.6% is 28 unexpectedly estimated, possibly related to the lower water vapor content effects due to the thinner air over 29 the TP to overcompensate for the aerosol and cloud effects over East Asian land. The weaker greenhouse 30 effect and fewer low clouds due to the TP are very likely the causes for the smaller fraction of East Asian-31 land surface downward longwave radiation. Hence, high aerosol loadings, clouds, and the TP over East Asia 32 play vital roles in the shortwave budgets, while the TP is responsible for the longwave budgets during this 33 regional energy budget assessment. The further obtained cloud radiative effects suggest that the presence of 34 clouds results in a larger cooling effect on the climate system over East Asian land than that over globe. This 35 study provides a perspective to understand fully the roles of potential factors in influencing the different 36 energy budget assessments over regions.

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Current patterns of Earth's weather and climate are largely determined by the spatiotemporal 40 distributions of energy exchanges between the surface, atmosphere, and space. Theoretically, the outgoing 41 longwave radiation (OLR) is balanced by the incoming and reflected solar radiation at the top of the 42 atmosphere (TOA) to produce an equilibrium climate. The incoming solar radiation can be scattered by 43 clouds and aerosols or absorbed by the intermediary atmosphere, thereby contributing to the diverse energy 44 transformation at the surface (Trenberth et al., 2009; Wild et al., 2013a). The Earth's surface energy balance 45 is of particular significance because it is the key driver of atmospheric and oceanic circulations, hydrological 46 cycles, and various surface processes (Wild et al., 2008; Mercado et al., 2009; Wild et al., 2013a; L'Ecuyer 47 et al., 2015). Anthropogenic influences on climate change are driven by the uneven distribution of the TOA 48 net radiation caused by forcings perturbed by variations of the atmospheric composition of greenhouse gases 49 and aerosols as well as aerosol-cloud interactions (Trenberth et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2012; Wild et al., 50 2013a; Trenberth et al., 2014; L'Ecuyer et al., 2015; Wild et al., 2019).

51 Many efforts have been made to quantify the magnitudes of different radiative components or energy 52 budgets in the climate system over a range of time-space scales, such as on global scales (Lin et al., 2008; 53 Trenberth et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2012; Wild et al., 2013b; Wild et al., 2015; L'Ecuyer et al., 2015; 54 Wild et al., 2019; Wild, 2020), over land and ocean domains or the energy transport between them (Fasullo 55 and Trenberth, 2008a, b; Trenberth et al., 2009; Wild et al., 2015; L'Ecuyer et al., 2015), over the Arctic 56 (Previdi et al., 2015; Christensen et al., 2016), and over individual continents and ocean basins (L'Ecuyer et 57 al., 2015; Kim and Lee, 2018; Thomas et al., 2020). The energy balance at the TOA can be accurately 58 monitored by satellites from the most advanced Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) 59 Energy Balanced and Filled (EBAF) data product (Loeb et al., 2018), while considerably larger uncertainties 60 appear at the surface fluxes owing to weaker observational constraints (Raschke et al., 2016; Kato et al., 61 2018; Huang et al., 2019). These assessments mostly build upon complementary approaches from a 62 combination of space and surface observations, climate models, and reanalyses. To date, the discrepancies 63 of independent global mean surface radiative fluxes have estimated to be within a few W m⁻² (Wild, 2017a, 64 b), enabling the accurate quantification of global surface budgets. In addition, the surface radiative 65 components simulated by various climate models vary substantially in a range of around 10-20 W m⁻² on 66 global scales, but exhibit greater inter-model discrepancies on regional scales (Li et al., 2013; Wild et al., 67 2013a; Boeke and Taylor, 2016; Wild et al., 2015; Wild, 2017a, b, 2020). Existing challenges on the surface 68 energy estimates include considerable uncertainties from surface albedo and skin temperature, as well as the 69 partitioning of surface net radiation into sensible and latent heat (SH; LH) (Wild, 2017a, b).

70 Due to the large population and the largest emission source of aerosols and their precursors, East Asia, 71 especially China, has long been a hotpot in climate change research. Aerosols can interact with radiation 72 directly by scattering and absorbing solar/thermal radiation (Ghan et al., 2012) and indirectly by modifying 73 cloud microphysical properties and lifetimes (Li et al., 2011), thereby influencing Earth's radiation balance. 74 As the world's largest and highest plateau, the Tibet Plateau (TP) covers nearly one fifth of the East Asian 75 land area, significantly affecting the atmospheric circulation, energy budget, and water cycles of climate 76 system through its orographic and thermal effects (Liu et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2008a, b; Wu et al., 2015). 77 Deeper insights into the energy budget differences over East Asian and global land under the background of 78 high aerosol emissions and the role of the TP in East Asia are of the meaningful and essential attempts. 79 Moreover, clouds play a key role in modulating global and regional energy budgets and hydrological cycles 80 through increasing the reflected solar radiation and also the downward thermal radiation, leading to a cooling 81 and warming of climate system (Stephens, 2005; Wild et al., 2013a; Li et al., 2015; H. Wang et al., 2021). 82 Therefore, our emphasis in this study is on the regional characterization of the East Asian energy balance 83 under both all-sky and clear-sky conditions based on a combination of surface observations, satellite-derived 84 products, reanalysis, and Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6) models. The cloud 85 influence on the radiative energy budgets at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface is further 86 quantified over this region. Section 2 introduces the different data sources used in this study, including 87 surface and satellite observations, climate models, and reanalysis. Sections 3 and 4 provide detailed analyses 88 of the all-sky and clear-sky estimates of the energy balance components. The inferred cloud radiative effects 89 (CREs) at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface are presented in Section 5. Summary and 90 conclusions are given in Section 6. The present-day in this study represents years of 2010–2014, which 91 corresponds to the last five years of the historical simulations in CMIP6 climate models. East Asian land as 92 considered in this study consists of five countries, including China, Japan, South and North Korea, as well 93 as Mongolia.

95 **2. Data sources**

96 2.1. Surface observations

97 Considering the efforts to diminish the inhomogeneities in the measurement of ground-based surface 98 (downward) solar radiation (SSR) (Tang et al., 2011; Wang, 2014; Wang et al., 2015; Wang and Wild, 2016; 99 He et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018, 2019) and the large amount of observational stations over China, the 100 homogenized monthly all-sky and clear-sky SSR datasets from the China Meteorological Administration 101 (CMA) National Meteorological Information Center (NMIC) are used in this study (http://data.cma.cn/enl) 102 (Yang et al., 2018, 2019). In this dataset, the clear-sky condition at observational sites is defined based on 103 the measured cloud fraction per day of no more than 15% (Yang et al., 2018). Taking clear-sky data (with 104 relatively complex missing months compared to the all-sky dataset) as an example, sites with more than one 105 year of > 2 missing months were deleted to ensure \geq 4 years of available data during the period 2010-2014, 106 then the spline interpolation was performed on the missing months of the selected sites. As a consequence, 107 99 and 76 sites are available for the all-sky and clear-sky studies, respectively. Besides, to further explore 108 the anthropogenic influence on SSR, 84 (62) urban and 15 (14) rural stations for all-sky (clear-sky) 109 conditions are defined according to the administrative divisions of China (Wang et al., 2017).

110 For the remaining East Asian sites, we use the monthly Global Energy Balance Archive (GEBA) dataset 111 (http://www.geba.ethz.ch) (Wild et al., 2017), which contains a worldwide widespread distribution of 112 monthly data from many sources, e.g., from the World Radiation Data Center (WRDC), the Baseline Surface 113 Radiation Network (BSRN), etc. Among these data sources, the BSRN dataset has a much higher precision 114 and temporal resolution (up to 1 min) compared to the GEBA, but its site number is very limited over East 115 Asia (only a few sites located in Japan and one site in Xianghe, China, but with no data available during this 116 study period). Moreover, the relative random error of the monthly SSR from the GEBA data evaluated by 117 Gilgen et al. (1998) is 5%.

118 In order to retain as many sites as possible during the study period, we widen the selection criterion of 119 the GEBA data, i.e., sites with data \geq 4 years and missing months \leq 3. Eventually, 8, 2, 4, and 14 sites are 120 selected from GEBA in China, Mongolia, South and North Korea, and Japan, respectively. Especially, 121 among the 14 sites in Japan, five pairs of the duplicate sites are obtained from the WRDC and BSRN sources, 122 respectively, and the left 4 sites are only from the WRDC (9 sites available). For China, only one site from 123 Hongkong out of 8 GEBA sites is not repetitive from the above-mentioned CMA sites (1 site available). 124 Therefore, 16 out of 28 GEBA sites are available under all-sky conditions (including 15 sites over regions 125 outside China and 1 site over Hongkong, China) by taking the average of these duplicate sites in Japan 126 instead, while the clear-sky reference sites are obtained from the interpolated CERES EBAF clear-sky 127 estimates at the GEBA sites (also 16 sites) due to the limited numbers of observational sites over these 128 regions. Additionally, we regard four island sites in Japan as rural stations (not shown in the figures), while 129 the sites in Mongolia as well as South and North Korea are all urban sites.

As shown in Fig. S1, there are 99 (rural/total: 15/99) and 16 (rural/total: 4/16) sites from the CMA and GEBA available under all-sky conditions, respectively, whereas 76 (rural/total: 14/99) and 16 (from the CERES-interpolated data at the 16 GEBA sites) sites are considered for clear-sky conditions, respectively. More detailed station information is given in Table S1.

134

135 2.2. Satellite observation

136 Owing to the excellent temporal and spatial coverage of satellite instruments, CERES data products are 137 widely used to track variations of Earth's energy budgets. The newly released CERES EBAF Edition 4.1 138 with a monthly $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ latitude-longitude resolution is used in this study (https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/). In 139 this dataset, the TOA radiation components are adjusted within their uncertainty ranges based on the 140 independent observational ocean estimates of global heating rate (Loeb et al., 2018). Unlike the directly 141 measured TOA energy budget, the EBAF-surface energy fluxes are calculated by the cloud and aerosol 142 properties from satellite-derived products as well as the atmospheric profiles from reanalysis, with a lower 143 accuracy than their TOA counterparts (Kato et al., 2018). The uncertainty ranges in $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ regional monthly 144 all-sky and clear-sky longwave (LW) and shortwave (SW) radiation fluxes at the TOA are also documented 145 by Loeb et al. (2018).

146

147 2.3. Climate models and reanalysis

148 Data from 40 CMIP6 climate models are used for the analyses in this study with their model 149 abbreviations, modeling groups, and resolutions in Table S2. A detailed description of the modeling groups 150 participating in CMIP6 is provided at https://pcmdi.llnl.gov/CMIP6/. The CMIP6 model-calculated radiation 151 fluxes under investigation for this study include energy budgets under both all-sky and clear-sky conditions 152 from 'historical all forcings' experiments covering the period 2010-2014. In these historical simulations, 153 both natural (e.g., solar variability and volcanic aerosols) and anthropogenic (e.g., greenhouse gases, aerosols, 154 and land use) forcings are considered to reproduce the climate change and evolution since preindustrial times 155 as accurately as possible (Eyring et al., 2016). Only the first ensemble member of each model is selected for 156 the analysis and the model numbers vary slightly among different available energy components.

157 In the long history of the European Center for Medium-range Weather Forecast (ECMWF), ERA5 is 158 the fifth generation product. It is a comprehensive reanalysis from 1959 to near real time, which assimilates 159 observations possible in surface as many as the upper air and near 160 (https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-

161 means?tab=form). Monthly means of the radiative components from ERA5 are used in this study with a

162 resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ (regridded to $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$). Compared to previous reanalyses (such as ERA-Interim), a

163 major strength of ERA5 is the much higher temporal and spatial resolutions, as well as a higher vertical

ingor suchgar of Little is are marringher temporal and spatial resolutions, as wer as a mener vertical

164 resolution with 137 levels (Hersbach et al., 2020). Several independent studies have evaluated the

165 performance of ERA5 since its release. For example, excellent closure of the Arctic energy budget based on

166 ERA5 atmospheric data has been assessed by Mayer et al. (2019). The representation of surface irradiance

- 167 of ERA5 has been compared with other reanalyses and with ground and satellite observations (Trolliet et al.,
- 168 2018; Urraca et al., 2018). Specifically, Trolliet et al. (2018) found that the surface solar irradiance over the
- 169 tropical Atlantic Ocean from ERA5 exhibits fewer biases than the second version of the Modern-Era
- 170 Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA-2). Urraca et al. (2018) reported that ERA5
- 171 can be a valid alternative for satellite-derived products in terms of surface irradiance in most inland stations
- 172 compared to ERA-Interim or MERRA-2. Furthermore, based on BSRN station data, Tang et al. (2021)
- 173 pointed out that the accuracy of the ERA5 over land in terms of surface downward longwave radiation is
- 174 higher than CERES-derived product on average both at hourly and monthly times scales.

175 **3.** Assessment of land energy balance budgets under all-sky conditions

176 3.1. Shortwave components

177 Under all-sky conditions, the present-day annual land-mean anomalies of TOA incident solar radiation 178 as well as the SW net radiation at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface regarding to their 179 respective multi-model means as simulated by various CMIP6 models over East Asia are shown in Fig. 1a. 180 A summary of the CMIP6 model statistics (such as available model number, model spread, and the standard 181 deviation (SD)), along with the corresponding multi-model mean, ERA5-, and CERES-derived estimates of 182 different energy balance components are listed in Table 1. As shown in Fig. 1a, with the exception of the 183 BCC-CSM2-MR and BCC-CESM1 models, all models give an estimate around 334 W m⁻² for TOA 184 incoming solar radiation with a very small SD of 0.2, closely matching the multi-model mean as well as the 185 CERES and ERA5 estimates (Table 1). The multi-model means of solar absorption at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface are 217, 73, and 144 W m⁻², respectively, all within 2 W m⁻² of the biases 186 187 against the CERES-derived estimates, while they are 3-4 W m⁻² larger for those from ERA5 at the TOA and within the atmosphere, yielding 1 W m⁻² of bias against the CERES-based estimate at the surface (Table 1). 188 189 However, the individual models vary significantly in their simulated annual East Asian land-mean solar 190 absorption both at the TOA and surface (Fig. 1a), with SDs of around 6 W m⁻² and inter-model spreads of 191 more than 20 W m⁻² (Table 1). Considering the smaller absolute amount of atmospheric and surface solar 192 absorption compared to the TOA counterpart (73 and 144 vs. 217 W m⁻²; Table 1), the relative (percentage) 193 differences relative to their respective multi-model means (relative (percentage) difference = $\frac{\text{range}}{\text{multi-model mean}} \times 100\%$) indicate that the uncertainties within the atmosphere and at the surface are larger 194 than that at the TOA (i.e., TOA: $\frac{22}{217} \times 100\% = 10\%$; Atmosphere: $\frac{19}{73} \times 100\% = 26\%$; Surface: 195 $\frac{23}{144} \times 100\% = 16\%$). 196

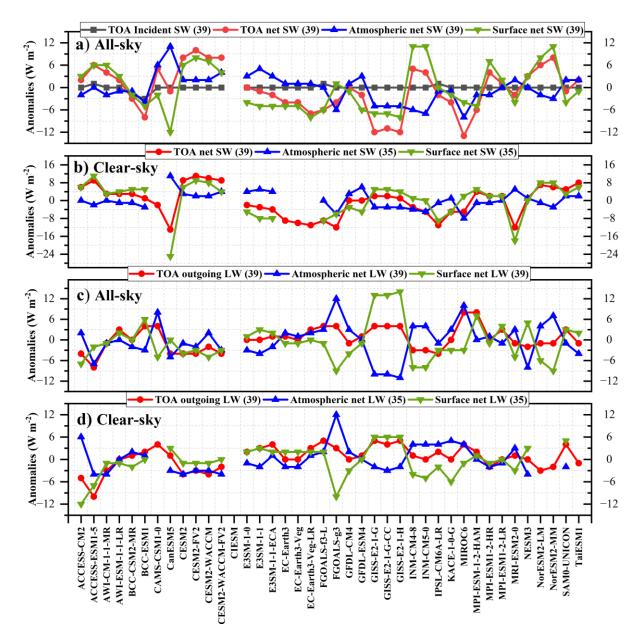


Figure 1. Annual land mean anomalies of (a, b) shortwave (SW) and (c, d) longwave (LW) budgets
 (Units: W m⁻²) with regard to their respective multi-model means for present-day climate under (a, c) all sky and (b, d) clear-sky conditions over East Asia as simulated by various CMIP6 models. The black, red,
 blue, and green lines represent the TOA incoming solar radiation, as well as the net SW/LW radiation at

- the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface, respectively.
- 204

Table 1. Annual land mean estimates (Units: W m⁻²) of the magnitudes of various energy balance components and cloud radiative effects (CREs) over East Asia under all-sky and clear-sky conditions at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface, respectively. The CMIP6 model statistics (e.g., available model number, spread, standard deviation (SD)), as well as the corresponding multi-model mean, ERA5-, and CERES-derived estimates are also given in the Table.

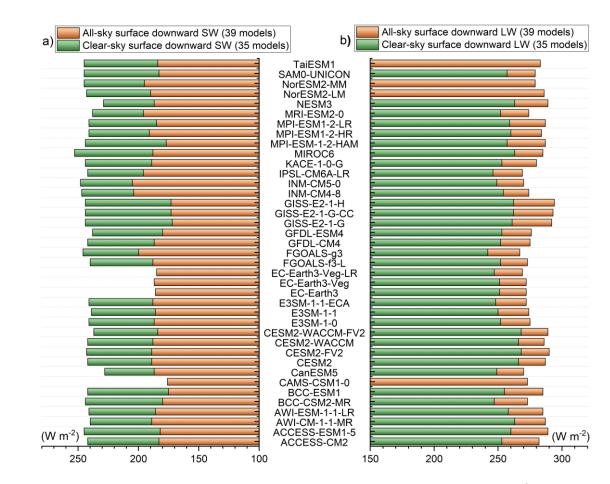
Component (W m ⁻²)		CMIP6			ERA5	CERES
	models	spread	SD	mean		
ТОА						
Solar down	39	4	0.2	334	334	334
Solar up all-sky	39	23	6	-117	-115	-118

Solar net all-sky	39	22	6.1	217	219	216
Solar up clear-sky	39	24	7	-76	-78	-72
Solar net clear-sky	39	24	6.9	258	256	262
SW CRE	39	26	6.5	-41	-37	-46
Thermal up all-sky	39	12	3.5	-224	-225	-226
Thermal up clear-sky	39	15	3.2	-247	-246	-250
LW CRE	39	12	2.4	23	21	24
Net CRE	39	24	5.8	-18	-16	-22
Atmosphere						
SW absorption all-sky	39	19	3.8	73	78	74
SW absorption clear-sky	35	19	3.8	69	77	71
SW CRE	32	33	6.9	4	2	3
LW net all-sky	39	22	5.1	-152	-150	-157
LW net clear-sky	35	16	3.6	-151	-151	-154
LW CRE	32	14	3.3	-2	1	-3
Net CRE	32	35	7.8	1	2	0
Surface						
SW down all-sky	39	33	7.6	186	191	178
SW up all-sky	39	24	6.5	-43	-50	-36
SW absorbed all-sky	39	23	6.1	144	141	142
SW down clear-sky	35	25	4.6	242	238	236
SW up clear-sky	35	27	6.8	-53	-59	-45
SW absorbed clear-sky	32	36	7.8	189	179	191
SW CRE	35	28	6.6	-46	-38	-49
LW down all-sky	39	27	7.9	280	273	285
LW up all-sky	39	23	7.1	-352	-347	-354
LW net all-sky	39	23	5.7	-71	-74	-69
LW down clear-sky	35	26	6.8	256	253	256
LW up clear-sky	35	23	7.1	-351	-347	-353
LW net clear-sky	35	18	4.1	-95	-94	-97
LW CRE	35	12	3.5	24	20	27
net CRE	32	31	6	-21	-18	-22
net radiation	39	20	5.3	72	67	73
LH	40	26	4.7	-43	-38	
SH	40	21	5.2	-31	-29	

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The simulated SSR, however, shows the largest spread of more than 30 W m⁻² (ranging from 172–205 W m⁻²) among all the substantially differing all-sky surface radiation components, with a large SD of 7.6 W m⁻² (Fig. 2a; Table 1). The multi-model mean SSR is estimated to be 186 W m⁻², suggesting positive and negative deviations of 8 and 5 W m⁻² from the CERES- and ERA5- derived estimates, respectively (Table 1). Interestingly, although the discrepancy between them is very large (8 or 5 W m⁻²), both the resulting surface solar absorption differences are very small (within 3 W m⁻²), indicating that a higher SSR goes

- together with a higher surface albedo (Table 1), which agrees well with that on a global mean level (Wild et
- 218 al., 2015).
- 219



220

Figure 2. Annual land mean surface downward (a) SW and (b) LW radiation (Units: W m⁻²) under both
 all-sky (orange bars) and clear-sky (green bars) conditions over East Asia as calculated by various CMIP6
 models.

225 3.2. Best estimates for the surface downward SW radiation

226 As a major component of Earth's energy balance, the solar radiation reaching the Earth's surface 227 governs a wide range of surface physical and chemical processes. The spatial distributions of the site-based 228 annual mean SSR from the CMA and GEBA (Section 2.1) over East Asia under all-sky conditions are 229 presented in Fig. 3a, together with the classified rural and urban sites. In short, the high values are mainly 230 located at the high elevation stations over western China and a few island sites in Japan (e.g., 231 Minamitorishima, Japan; not shown in the figure), especially over the TP, with the largest value reaching 232 263 W m⁻² (Geer, Tibet), which is associated with the high atmospheric transparency over these regions. 233 However, the low annual mean values are primary over southwestern China, with the smallest value of 103 234 W m⁻² (Shapingba, Chongqing), which is possibly caused by the higher aerosol loadings (Liao et al., 2015;

de Leeuw et al., 2018) and more clouds (Li et al., 2017; You et al., 2019; Lei et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020)

over these regions. This distribution pattern is highly consistent with that over China documented by Q.Wang et al. (2021).

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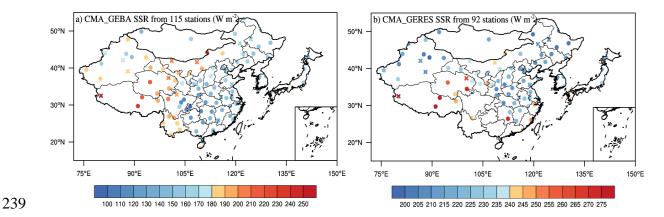


Figure 3. Spatial distributions of annual mean surface downward solar radiation (SSR) (Units: W m⁻²) under
(a) all-sky and (b) clear-sky conditions over East Asia. The all-sky sites are available from 99 CMA (China)
and 16 GEBA (remaining regions outside China and one site in Hongkong, China) stations, while there are
76 CMA and 16 CERES-interpolated sites for clear-sky conditions. The cross and circle symbols indicate
rural (19 vs. 18 for all-sky and clear-sky conditions) and urban stations (96 vs. 74), respectively.

245

246 Figure 4 shows the distributions of annual mean SSR biases derived from the CERES, CMIP6 multi-247 model mean, and ERA5 against the surface observations, as well as the comparisons of their respective 248 annual land means at the surface sites with their observed counterparts. The corresponding quantifications 249 of the magnitudes of station-mean biases are also given in Table 2. According to the comparisons, they all 250 correlate well with the ground-based observations, with their respective high correlation coefficients of 0.93, 251 0.87, and 0.89, indicative of the highest accuracy in the CERES-derived estimate (Figs. 4b, d, and f). To 252 quantify their SSR mean biases against the corresponding observed counterparts, the CERES-based bias at 253 all sites is the smallest, with a station-mean bias of 3.8 W m⁻², followed by the CMIP6 multi-model mean 254 and the ERA5 reanalysis (with respective station-mean biases of 13.8 and 16.5 W m⁻²) (Table 2). 255 Additionally, among all the aforementioned SSR estimates, the East Asian urban sites are in general more 256 significantly overestimated than the rural sites on average compared to the surface observations (Figs. 4b, d, 257 and f; Table 2). This further supports the argument that rural stations might be more representative for larger 258 scale comparisons (e.g., the general circulation model grid scales) than the urban stations (which are 259 vulnerable to local pollution) (Wang et al., 2018). The overestimations are mainly located in the high-latitude 260 regions over East Asia for CERES-derived estimates (among them the underestimations mostly from rural 261 sites), while the underestimates are primarily located in lower-latitude and eastern coastal regions (Figs. 4a 262 and b). The CMIP6 multi-model mean and ERA5-derived SSR generally greatly overestimate the surface-263 based observations both at urban and rural sites, except for the regions over northern and northeastern Inner 264 Mongolia, northwestern Heilongjiang (located in the northeastern China), and some individual sites over southwestern China (Figs. 4c-f). The annual land-mean area-weighted average SSR over East Asia derived 265

from CERES is estimated to be 178 W m⁻², which is closest to the surface observational estimate of 174 W m^{-2} , compared to the much higher overestimations of both the CMIP6 multi-model mean and ERA5 (186 and 191W m^{-2}) against the surface observations (Table 3), which shows a high consistency with their bias distributions and the collocated quantifications (Fig. 4; Table 2).

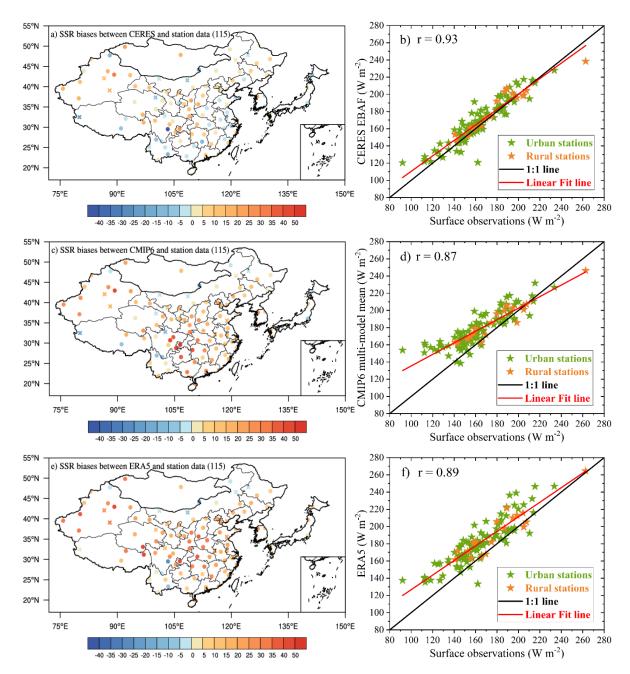




Figure 4. Spatial distributions of annual mean SSR biases (Units: W m⁻²) derived from (a) CERES-EBAF, (c) CMIP6 multi-model mean, and (e) ERA5 reanalysis at a combination of the CMA and GEBA sites under all-sky conditions over East Asia. The corresponding comparisons of their respective annual means at the surface sites with their observed counterparts are displayed in (b), (d), and (f), respectively. The cross and circle symbols in Figs. **a**, **c**, **e** as well as the orange and green stars in Figs. **b**, **d**, **f** indicate rural and urban stations, respectively.

279 Table 2. Annual station-mean SSR biases (Units: W m⁻²) derived from CERES-EBAF, CMIP6 multi-model

mean, and ERA5 compared to the surface observational sites under all-sky and clear-sky conditions during
 2010-2014 over East Asian land, together with the separate station averages of biases at urban and rural sites.

The values in parentheses represent the percentages of SSR biases relative to their respective station-mean averages with the largest percentages around 10% and 4% for all-sky and clear-sky conditions

205	averages with the largest p	ercentages around 10% and 4% for an	-sky and clear-sky conditions.
	Station maan SSD biggas		

Station-mean SSK blases		All-sky			Clear-sky	
(Unit: W m ⁻²)	all	urban	rural	all	urban	rural
CERES-EBAF	3.8 (2.3%)	4.2 (2.6%)	1.7 (0.9%)	0.4 (0.2%)	0.5 (0.2%)	-0.3 (-0.1%)
CMIP6	13.8 (8.3%)	15 (9.2%)	7.4 (4.1%)	9.1 (4%)	9.7 (4.3%)	6.4 (2.8%)
ERA5	16.5 (10%)	17.2 (10.5%)	12.7 (7%)	5.7 (2.5%)	6.2 (2.7%)	3.6 (1.5%)

²⁸⁴

Table 3. Annual land mean area-weighted average SSR (Units: W m⁻²) from a combination of the CMA and
 GEBA (CERES-interpolated) site observations under all-sky (clear-sky) conditions during the period 2010 2014 over East Asia, together with the corresponding estimates from the CERES-EBAF, CMIP6 multi model means, and ERA5, respectively.

Average annual mean SSR during 2010-2014 over East Asia (Units: W m ⁻²)	Surface observations	CERES-EBAF	CMIP6	ERA5
All-sky	174	178	186	191
Clear-sky	230	236	242	238

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290 However, the ground-based observations are spatially limited with sparse stations in some remote 291 regions and are thus inadequate for many applications, as they may be not representative for real situations. 292 To better constrain the large spread in the model-based SSR outlined above, we combine the ground-based 293 observations to obtain the best estimate referring to the approach introduced in (Wild et al., 2013a). Figure 294 5a gives various CMIP6 model biases of all-sky SSR at all the surface sites and their respective East Asian 295 land means. The higher overestimations relative to surface observations generally correspond to higher 296 model-based East Asian land means, with a much higher correlation coefficient of 0.96 than that of 0.88 on 297 the global scale (Wild et al., 2015). Thus, the best estimate of the annual East Asian land-mean SSR is 298 deduced to be 174.2 \pm 1.3 W m⁻² (2 σ uncertainty) in light of the linear regression analysis. The corresponding 299 estimates from CERES and ERA5 are also labeled in the figure, at 178 and 191 W m⁻², respectively, implying 300 a slight and substantial overestimation for CERES and ERA5 estimates. There is an overall tendency that 301 most models overestimate the surface downward SW fluxes (36 out of 39 sites) compared to the ground-302 based observations, with a multi-model mean overestimation relative to site observations of 13.8 W m⁻², 303 which is also a longstanding issue in climate modelling (Wild et al., 1995; Wild et al., 2015). 304

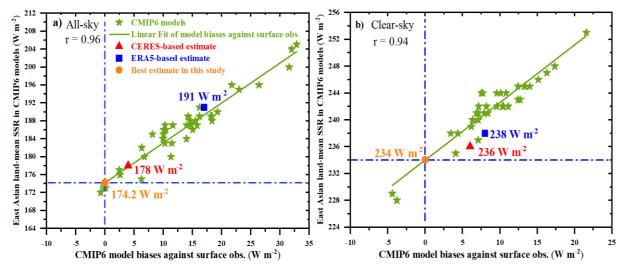


Figure 5. Annual land mean SSR (Units: W m⁻²) of various CMIP6 models as well as their respective model
biases relative to an average over surface sites (99 CMA and 16 GEBA for all-sky; 76 CMA and 16 CERESinterpolated sites for clear-sky) under (a) all-sky and (b) clear-sky conditions during 2010-2014 over East
Asia. Green stars represent various CMIP6 models. Best estimate here (orange circle) can be inferred from
the intersection between the linear regression line (green solid lines) and the zero-bias line (blue dotted lines).
Furthermore, the corresponding estimates from CERES-EBAF and ERA5 are also given by red triangle and
blue square, respectively.

305

314 3.3. Longwave components

315 Similar to the all-sky SW counterparts, obvious discrepancies can still be noted in the annual land-mean 316 LW radiation over East Asia among models, especially for those within the atmosphere and at the surface 317 (Fig. 1c). Correspondingly, the simulated TOA OLR varies in a range of 12 W m⁻², which is almost 10 W 318 m⁻² lower than that within the atmosphere (22 W m⁻²) and at the surface (23 W m⁻²) (Table 1). The estimated 319 annual East Asian land-mean TOA OLR from the CMIP6 multi-model mean is -224 W m⁻², within 2 W m⁻² 320 of the deviations from the CERES- and ERA5-inferred estimates. The model spread of the simulated annual 321 land-mean net LW radiation becomes larger from the TOA to the surface, with SDs of 3.5, 5.1, and 5.7 W 322 m^{-2} , respectively, which shows the same tendency as the relative (percentages) differences with respect to 323 their multi-model means (5.4%, 14.5%, and 32.4%).

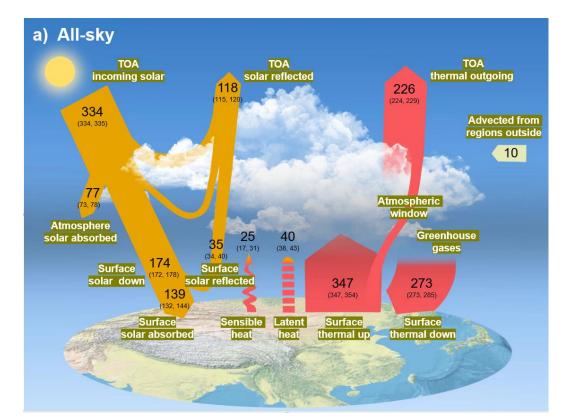
324 These large discrepancies in surface net LW radiation between models are particularly evident in the 325 surface downward LW radiation (Fig. 2b; Table 1), with a range up to 27 W m⁻² (from 267 to 294 W m⁻²) 326 and a SD of 7.9 W m⁻², which is also the largest deviation among all components under all-sky conditions. 327 Compared to the CERES estimates, the slightly lower surface upward LW radiation (-352 vs. -354 W m⁻²) 328 and much lower surface downward LW radiation (280 vs. 285 W m⁻²) from the multi-model means are the 329 major reason for the small deviation (within 2 W m⁻²) of the surface net LW radiation between them (Table 330 1). It's interesting to note that the annual East Asian land-mean surface upward LW radiation estimated from 331 the ERA5 is the lowest among all these estimates, at -347 W m⁻², suggesting the lowest surface skin 332 temperature of the ERA5 product according to the Stefan-Boltzmann law, followed by the estimates from 333 the multi-model mean and CERES (Table 1). In addition, the annual land-mean surface downward LW 334 radiation estimated by ERA5 is 273 W m⁻², approximately 7 and 12 W m⁻² lower than the estimates by the

- 335 CMIP6 multi-model mean and CERES, respectively (Table 1). Therefore, both the lower surface upward 336 and downward LW radiation fluxes result in the small deviation in the estimated surface net LW radiation 337 from ERA5 compared to those from the multi-model mean and CERES (Table 1). Since the reanalysis 338 products take as many observed atmospheric parameters with global coverage as possible into consideration 339 during the radiative transfer calculations, they are widely used to obtain more accurate surface LW radiation 340 (Simmons et al., 2004; Wild et al., 2015). We also examined the corresponding surface LW fluxes from 341 another reanalysis, namely MERRA-2, and found much lower annual land means than those from ERA5, in 342 particular for the surface downward LW radiation (not shown), which arrives at the similar conclusions with 343 that documented by Urraca et al. (2018). Thus, considering the limited observational surface LW radiation 344 data over East Asia, ERA5 might be the best reference for the estimates of the annual land-mean surface 345 upward and downward LW radiation, at -347 and 273 W m⁻², respectively (Table 1).
- 346

347 3.4. Discussion of land energy balance over East Asia under all-sky conditions

348 3.4.1. Radiative components

349 Figure 6a displays the schematic diagram of the all-sky land mean energy balance over East Asia, 350 including the above-mentioned SW and LW radiation budgets and other radiative components discussed in 351 the following. The estimated annual East Asian land-mean incoming, reflected, and net SW radiation as well as the OLR at the TOA are therefore 334, -118, 216, and -226 W m⁻² (Table 1), respectively, based on the 352 353 CERES EBAF dataset. The corresponding uncertainties are obtained from the uncertainty of 2.5 (1 σ 354 uncertainty) W m⁻² for both SW and LW fluxes given by (Loeb et al., 2018). The annual East Asian land-355 mean TOA OLR in CERES-EBAF is estimated to be 10 W m⁻² larger than the TOA absorbed SW radiation, 356 implying an energy loss of 10 W m⁻² at the TOA under all-sky conditions, which should be compensated by 357 the LH and SH transported from regions outside East Asia (Fig. 6a).



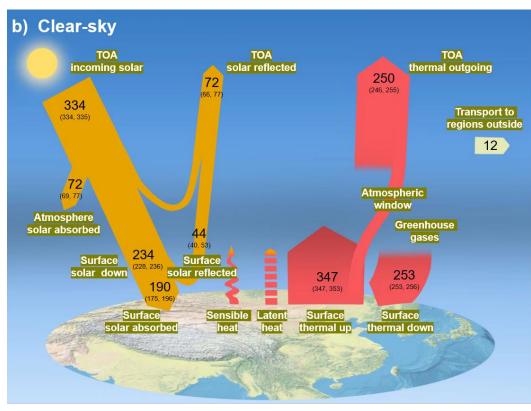


Figure 6. Diagrams of the annual land mean energy balance (Units: W m⁻²) over East Asia under (a) all sky and (b) clear-sky conditions for present-day climate. The uncertainty ranges are also given in
 parentheses.

365 For the SSR, the annual East Asian land-mean best estimate based on the CMIP6 multi-model 366 simulations and surface observations is 174.2 W m^{-2} (Fig. 5a and Fig. 6a). Considering the abnormally high overestimation by ERA5 compared to surface observation, the high value of the uncertainty range is given 367 368 by the estimate from CERES EBAF (178 W m⁻²), while its low value is from the lowest model estimate (172 369 W m⁻²; Fig. 2a) (Fig. 6a). The all-sky surface albedo information is derived from the ratio between the 370 CERES-derived surface upward and downward solar radiation, with a radiation weighted average of around 371 0.2 (36.4/178.3) over East Asian land. However, the corresponding surface albedos estimated by the CMIP6 372 multi-model mean and ERA5 are substantially higher than that from the CERES, with respective averages 373 of around 0.23 (42.7/186.4) and 0.26 (49.6/191). Considering the large spatial coverage of remote sensing 374 measurement to map albedo globally, the CERES-derived annual East Asian land-mean surface albedo is 375 adopted as the best estimate in this study. Therefore, considering the rounded best SSR estimate of 174 W 376 m⁻², the calculated surface reflected and absorbed SW radiation fluxes are around -35 and 139 W m⁻², 377 respectively. As shown in Table 1, the uncertainty range of the surface absorbed SW radiation is 132–144 378 W m⁻² according to the lowest value of CMIP6 models and the highest estimate among the aforementioned 379 estimates, which gives rise to an uncertainty range of the surface reflected solar radiation of 34-40 W m⁻². 380 Together with the annual East Asian land-mean SW absorption at the TOA and surface of 216 and 139 W m⁻², the best estimate for the atmospheric SW absorption is therefore to be 77 W m⁻², which is within 4 W 381 382 m⁻² of the differences between those estimated from the CMIP6 multi-model mean and CERES and closes 383 to the ERA5-derived estimate of 78 W m⁻² (Table 1). The uncertainty range of the atmospheric SW 384 absorption is also determined by the estimates from different data sources as shown in Fig. 6a.

385 The downward LW radiation emitted by the atmosphere is mainly sensitive to the near-surface 386 temperature, water vapor, and cloud properties, while the surface emission is in proportion to the skin 387 temperature according to the Stefan-Boltzmann law. As analyzed in section 3.3, the best estimates of the 388 East Asian annual land-mean surface upward and downward LW radiation amount to -347 and 273 W m⁻², 389 respectively, with uncertainty ranges coming also from the above-discussed different data sources (Fig. 6a). 390 The surface net LW radiation is then estimated to be -74 W m⁻² based on the surface upward and downward 391 LW radiation outlined above. Combined with TOA outgoing thermal radiation of -226 W m⁻², the estimated 392 atmospheric net LW radiation is -152 W m⁻², which is close to the collocated estimates from the multi-model 393 mean (-152 W m⁻²) and ERA5 (-150 W m⁻²) but deviates substantially from the CERES-derived estimate of 394 -157 W m⁻² (Table 1). Considering the surface absorbed SW radiation of 139 W m⁻², a best estimate for 395 surface net radiation is 65 W m⁻², suggesting that around 65 W m⁻² of energy is available for the non-radiative 396 SH and LH. Besides, the ERA5 estimate of 67 W m⁻² is very close to the best estimate of 65 W m⁻², while 397 much higher estimates of 72 and 73 W m⁻² are obtained from the multi-model mean and CERES (Table 1), 398 respectively.

400 3.4.2. Nonradiative components

401 The surface net radiation is mainly balanced by the non-radiative components of SH and LH in addition 402 to a very small proportion of ground heat flux and melt (less than 1%) (Ohmura, 2004). However, due to the lack of constraints from in-situ and space observations, this partitioning of the surface net radiation into SH 403 404 and LH is still subject to considerable uncertainties. As shown in Fig. S2, the simulated annual East Asian 405 land-mean LH and SH vary greatly between different models, with a range of 26 and 21 W m⁻², respectively, as well as the relative discrepancies relative to their respective multi-model means of 60% ($\frac{26}{43} \times 100\%$) and 406 68% ($\frac{21}{31}$ ×100%), respectively, showing larger discrepancies between models with larger uncertainties in SH 407 408 (Table 1). The best SH estimate can therefore be obtained from the residual of the LH. To obtain a more 409 accurate surface LH from available datasets of the multi-model mean and ERA5, we take an average of them 410 as the best estimate, namely -40 W m⁻², the uncertainty ranges of which are also given according to these 411 estimates (Fig. 6a). Note that all the values in this study are calculated on the basis of one decimal point, 412 which may result in 1 W m⁻² of bias during the rounding process. Combined with the surface net radiation 413 and LH of 65 and -40 W m⁻², respectively, the surface SH is estimated to be -25 W m⁻², the uncertainty range 414 of which is also given by the existing estimates from various CMIP6 models and ERA5 (Fig. 6a). In addition, 415 although the annual land-mean SH estimated from the MERRA-2 is much higher than the estimates from 416 multi-model mean and ERA5 (not shown), the estimated LH is around -39 W m⁻² (not shown), very close to 417 the best estimate of -40 W m⁻², which increases our confidence in the estimation of this quantity.

418

419 3.4.3. Comparisons with global annual land-mean estimates

420 Notable discrepancies exist in the global land-mean energy budgets reported by Wild et al. (2015) and 421 the regional land-mean estimates over East Asia in this study (Fig. S3; Table 4). For the SW budgets, the 422 estimated annual land-mean TOA incident solar radiation over East Asia is 9 W m⁻² higher than that over global land (334 vs. 325 W m⁻²), implying a slightly lower land-mean solar zenith angle over East Asia. 423 424 Comparisons also show a slightly higher relative percentage of TOA reflected solar radiation of 0.8% despite 425 of the much lower surface reflected SW radiation of 4.3% over East Asian land compared to global land with 426 respect to their respective TOA incident solar radiation (thereafter call 'relative percentage' for short). This 427 suggests much more relative atmospheric SW reflection of 5.2% over East Asian land, which agrees fairly 428 well with more aerosols (Wei et al., 2019) and clouds (King et al., 2013; Fan et al., 2018; also see Fig. S4) 429 over this region compared to global land. However, the annual land-mean solar radiation reaching the East Asian surface is around 10 W m⁻² lower than that over global land (174 vs. 184 W m⁻²), approximately 430 431 accounting for 52.1% and 56.6% of their respective incident solar radiation at the TOA, respectively, 432 indicating lower fraction of solar energy arriving at the East Asian surface compared to global land. Together 433 with the lower annual land-mean surface albedo over East Asian land compared to global land (20% vs. 434 26%), this leads to the similar relative percentages of surface absorptions (41.6% vs. 41.9%). Although the 435 magnitude of the atmospheric SW absorptions over East Asian and global land are nearly the same (both 436 around 77 W m⁻²), the corresponding relative percentage over East Asian land is a little bit lower than that 437 over global land (around 0.6%). This is somewhat unexpected due to the fact of more clouds and aerosol

- 438 loadings over East Asian land, which is possibly offset by the lower water vapor contents caused by the
- 439 higher altitudes and thinner air over the TP.
- 440

441 **Table 4.** Comparisons of the annual mean SW/LW energy balance components (Units: W m⁻²) over East

Asian land (this study) and global land (Wild et al., 2015) as well as the corresponding relative percentages
with regard to their respective TOA incident solar radiation/surface LW emissions, along with the relative
percentage differences between them.

	East A	Asian land	Glob	oal land	Doroontogo
Component	Annual	Relative	Annual	Relative	Percentage difference
	mean	percentage	mean	percentage	unterence
SW budget					
TOA solar down	334	1	325	1	
TOA solar up	-118	35.3%	-112	34.5%	0.8%
Atmospheric SW absorption	77	23.1%	77	23.7%	-0.6%
Atmospheric SW reflection	-83	24.9%	-64	19.7%	5.2%
Surface solar down	174	52.1%	184	56.6%	-4.5%
Surface solar up	-35	10.5%	-48	14.8%	-4.3%
Surface solar absorption	139	41.6%	136	41.9%	-0.3%
LW budget					
TOA LW up	-226	65.1%	-232	62.4%	2.7%
Atmospheric LW absorption	-152	43.8%	-166	44.6%	-0.8%
surface LW down	273	78.7%	306	82.3%	-3.6%
Surface LW up	-347	1	-372	1	

445

446 For the LW budgets, the regional surface LW emission over East Asia is estimated to be much lower 447 than the global land-mean estimates in Wild et al. (2015) (Fig. S3), which mainly results from the lower 448 temperature over the TP induced by high altitudes. The relative percentage of land mean surface downward 449 LW radiation with respect to the surface emission over East Asia is about 78.7 %, which is lower than the 450 global estimate of 82.3%, corresponding well to a reduction in greenhouse effect and fewer low clouds due 451 to the TP (Fig. S4) considering its coverage over East Asian land. Ultimately, a higher percentage of LW 452 radiation is emitted to space over East Asian land compared to global land (65.1% vs. 62.4%). Our estimates 453 also indicate approximately similar amounts of LH (40 vs. 38 W m⁻²) and much lower SH (25 vs. 32 W m⁻ 454 ²) over East Asia compared to the global land-mean estimates (Fig. S3), which is possibly related to the 455 lower East Asian-land surface temperature.

456 In general, as can be concluded from Table 4, although much less surface SW radiation of 4.3% is 457 reflected over East Asian land compared to global land, a slightly more SW reflection of 0.8% is estimated 458 at the TOA, indicating much larger atmospheric SW reflection of 5.2% due to the stronger scattering from 459 aerosols and clouds over East Asian land than global land. However, the SW absorption within the 460 atmosphere over East Asian land is 0.6% lower than that over global land despite of the more absorption 461 from clouds and aerosols, which is possibly offset by the lower water vapor contents caused by the thinner 462 air over the TP. The lower surface temperature, weaker greenhouse effect and fewer low clouds due to the 463 high altitudes and the thinner air over the TP in East Asian land are the major reasons for the relative lower surface LW emission, less and more fractions of surface downward LW radiation of 3.6% and the OLR of2.7% over East Asian land compared to global land, respectively.

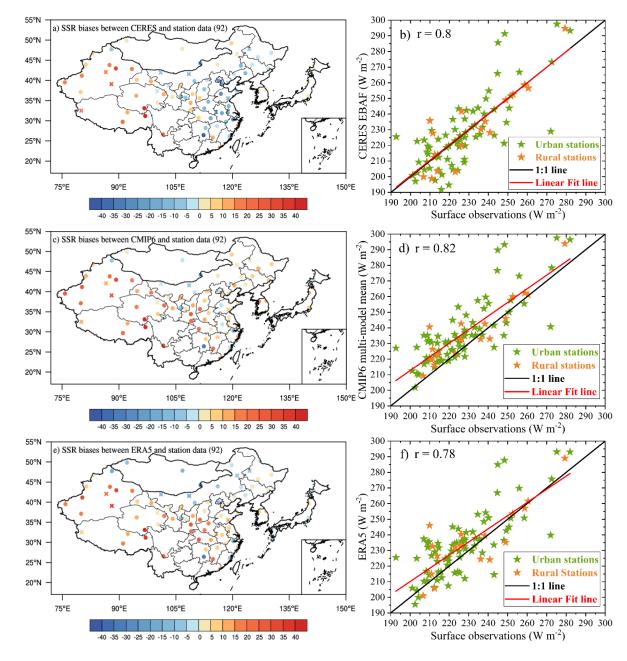
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467

4. Assessment of land energy balance budgets under clear-sky conditions

468 The clear-sky land energy balance budgets over East Asia are similarly evaluated as all-sky conditions. 469 Detailed analyses are given in Supplemental material if interested. The annual land-mean SW clear-sky 470 absorptions at the TOA and surface over East Asia show larger variations among different models than that 471 under all-sky conditions (Fig. 1a and b; Table 1), which is consistent with that reported by Wild et al. (2019) 472 but is amazingly in contrast to the recognition that the representation of clouds is the largest uncertainties in 473 climate models (Dolinar et al., 2015). Specially, the surface SW clear-sky absorptions simulated by various 474 models still exhibit a larger uncertainty than the TOA counterparts despite of the lower absolute values (Fig. 475 1b; Table 1). Contrary to the all-sky counterparts, the simulated clear-sky SSR among different models, 476 shows notably smaller inter-model spread and SD than the surface SW absorptions (Table 1), with much 477 smaller model discrepancy compared to the all-sky conditions (Fig. 2a; Table 1).

478 To further constrain the outlined inter-model discrepancy of the simulated clear-sky SSR, surface 479 observations from the CMA and CERES-interpolated estimates at the GEBA sites are utilized in this study. 480 The high values of the station-based clear-sky SSR are mainly located in the TP, but with an abnormally 481 high value located at the southern China (Fig. 3b). All the East Asian land-mean clear-sky SSR estimates 482 from CERES, CMIP6 multi-model mean, and ERA5 agree reasonably well with the surface observations, 483 but with smaller correlation coefficients ranging from 0.78 to 0.82 compared to the all-sky conditions (Figs. 484 7 b, d, and f). The CERES-derived clear-sky SSR is mainly overestimated in central and western China, but 485 with slight underestimations mainly located in northeastern, eastern, and southern China (Fig. 7a). Similar 486 bias patterns can also be found in the clear-sky SSR from the CMIP6 multi-model mean and ERA5 compared 487 to the surface observations, except for some individual sites over northeastern Inner Mongolia, eastern China, 488 western Mongolia, and Japan (Figs. 7c and e), but with relatively smaller overestimations than the all-sky 489 counterparts (Figs. 4c and e; Table 2). Specifically, the smallest station mean bias in CERES-derived SSR 490 compared to the multi-model mean and ERA5 (Table 2) can be attributed to its even distributed surface sites 491 of overestimations and underestimations (Figs. 7b, d, f). Again, among all the aforementioned clear-sky SSR 492 biases, more overestimations exist in urban stations than the rural stations (b, d, f in Figs. 4 and 7; Table 2). 493 Consequently, all East Asian land-mean area-weighted averages of clear-sky SSR from CERES, CMIP6 494 multi-model mean, and ERA5 show higher overestimations of around 6, 12, and 8 W m⁻², respectively, 495 compared to the surface observed counterpart of 230 W m⁻² (Table 3). Based on the similar method 496 introduced in Wild et al. (2015), the best estimate for the East Asian land-mean clear-sky SSR is determined 497 to be 234±1.1 W m⁻² (2σ uncertainty), with a slightly smaller correlation coefficient of 0.94 and smaller 498 deviations from the CERES and ERA5 estimates compared to the all-sky counterparts (Fig. 5b; Table 3). 499 Besides, the overestimations still exist in the observed land-mean clear-sky SSR for most climate models 500 over East Asia, with a smaller multi-model mean overestimation of 9.1 W m⁻² than the all-sky counterparts.



503 Figure 7. Spatial distributions of annual mean SSR biases derived from (a) CERES-EBAF, (b) CMIP6 504 multi-model mean, and (c) ERA5 reanalysis against surface observations from a combination of the CMA 505 and CERES-interpolated sites under clear-sky conditions over East Asia. The corresponding comparisons of 506 their respective annual land means at the surface sites with their observed counterparts are displayed in (b), 507 (d), and (f), respectively. The cross and circle symbols in Figs. a, c, e as well as the orange and green stars 508 in Figs. **b**, **d**, **f** indicate rural and urban stations, respectively.

502

510

This clear-sky energy budget only represents the removal of cloud but maintains the same atmospheric 511 conditions as the all-sky conditions, which is not balanced because it is not the equilibrium state the Earth 512 would achieve when no clouds could form. Ultimately, the clear-sky East Asian land-mean energy budget is 513 not closed and with no quantifications of SH and LH as displayed in Fig. 6b. In addition to the analyses 514 above, the clear-sky TOA energy budgets are derived from CERES-derived product, with uncertainty ranges

515 referred to Loeb et al. (2018), while the surface LW budgets are again from ERA5 reanalysis. Also,

516 additional clear-sky radiation weighted surface albedo of 0.19 from CERES is obtained to estimate the

- 517 surface reflected and absorbed SW radiation. Apart from the TOA budget, all the rest uncertainty ranges are
- 518 given by different data sources from various CMIP6 models, as well as the multi-model mean, CERES-, and
- 519 ERA5-derived estimates.

520 We doublecheck the energy balance components evaluated in this study by referring to the uncertainty 521 ranges from CERES-derived product given by Kato et al. (2018) (Table 5), which indicates that all estimated 522 energy components fall within these uncertainty ranges, except for the all-sky surface downward LW 523 radiation, with about 3 W m⁻² lower than the corresponding lowest CERES range. This is in line with its 524 much higher CERES-derived estimate compared to that of the ERA5 (285 vs. 273 W m⁻²) (Table 1).

525

526 **Table 5.** Uncertainties (Units: W m⁻²) in $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ regional monthly surface SW, LW, and net (SW + LW)

527 fluxes under all-sky and clear-sky conditions for the CERES-EBAF Edition 4.1 product (referring to Kato 528 et al. (2018)), as well as its corresponding estimates of various surface fluxes.

en espenang estimat		
Uncertainties(1σ)	All-sky	Clear-sky
SW down	178 ± 14	236±6
SW up	36±11	45±11
SW net	142±13	191±13
LW down	285±9	256±8
LW up	354±15	353±15
LW net	69±17	97±17
SW + LW net	73±20	95±20

529

530 Overall, around 21.6% and 56.9% of the TOA incoming solar radiation are absorbed by the atmosphere 531 and surface, respectively, for clear-sky conditions, while these absorptions are 23.1% and 41.6% for all-sky 532 conditions. This implies that the existence of clouds results in more atmospheric SW absorption of around 533 1.5% and much less surface solar absorption of around 15.3% with respect to the TOA incoming solar 534 radiation.

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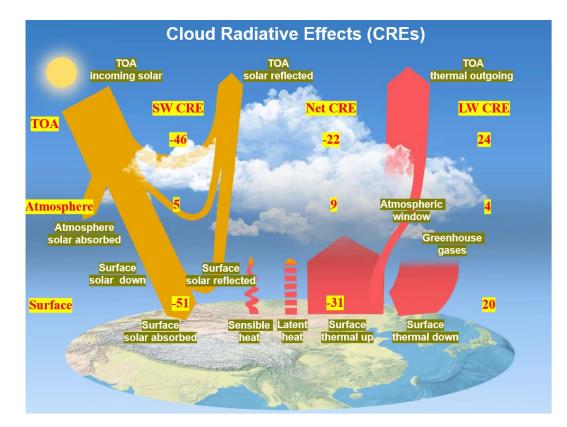
536 5. The cloud radiative effects (CREs)

According to the annual land-mean best estimates of radiative components over East Asia under all-sky and clear-sky conditions obtained in previous sections, the present-day CREs can be inferred quantitively over this region. The calculated SW, LW, and net CREs at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface are therefore presented in Fig. 8. Moreover, the corresponding calculation formulas are also given in the followings:

542

543 TOA SW CRE = TOA outgoing $SW_{all-skv}$ - TOA outgoing $SW_{clear-skv}$

544	TOA LW CRE = TOA outgoing LW _{all-sky} - TOA outgoing LW _{clear-sky}
545	TOA Net CRE = TOA SW CRE + TOA LW CRE
546	
547	Surface Net SW CRE = Surface Net SW _{all-sky} - Surface Net SW _{clear-sky}
548	Surface Net LW CRE = Surface Net LW _{all-sky} - Surface Net LW _{clear-sky}
549	Surface Net total CRE = Surface Net SW CRE + Surface Net LW CRE
550	
551	Atmospheric SW CRE = TOA SW CRE - Surface Net SW CRE
552	Atmospheric LW CRE = TOA LW CRE - Surface Net LW CRE
553	



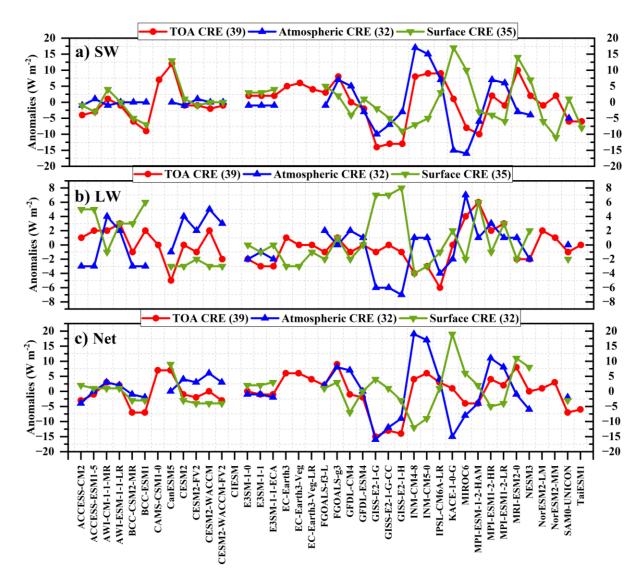
555	Figure 8. Diagram of the annual land mean SW, LW, and net (SW + LW) cloud radiative effects (CREs)
556	(Units: W m ⁻²) at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface over East Asia, calculated by the
557	differences between all-sky and clear-sky radiation budgets as given in Fig. 7.

558

559 Best estimates for the annual East Asian land-mean reflected solar radiation at the TOA under all-sky 560 and clear-sky conditions are -118 and -72 W m⁻², respectively, differing by -46 W m⁻², indicating that the 561 clouds give rise to an extra 46 W m⁻² solar reflection at the TOA, thus cooling the Earth-atmosphere system. 562 Similarly, the TOA LW CRE, obtained as the difference between the TOA thermal radiation under all-sky 563 and clear-sky conditions, is 24 W m⁻², suggesting a warming effect of clouds on the system. Thus, the 564 estimated TOA net CRE is -22 W m⁻², pointing out that the overall effects of clouds result in an energy loss 565 and net cooling to the system, not only in the global mean, but also over East Asian land.

566 At the Earth's surface, the shading effects of clouds are estimated to reduce the surface solar radiation 567 by 60 W m⁻², from 234 to 174 W m⁻², while the surface solar absorption differs by 51 W m⁻², from 190 to 139 W m⁻², namely the surface net SW CRE is -51 W m⁻². On cloudy skies, the estimated surface downward 568 569 LW radiation increases from 253 to 273 W m⁻², with an increase of 20 W m⁻², illustrating that the surface 570 net LW CRE is 20 W m⁻² and therefore leads to a surface warming. Thus, the surface net CRE, i.e., the sum 571 of the surface net SW and LW CRE, is then -31 W m⁻², indicating that clouds contribute more to the SW energy budgets. Eventually, the clouds lead to the enhancement of the SW and LW absorption within the 572 573 atmosphere of around 5 and 4 W m⁻², respectively, thus resulting in an atmospheric net CRE of 9 W m⁻² over 574 East Asian land.

575 The above CRE best estimates are compared with the corresponding estimates from different data 576 sources (Fig. 9; Table 1). Generally, compared to the LW CREs (Fig. 9b), the simulated SW CREs show 577 larger spreads and SDs amongst models (Fig. 9a; Table 1). For the SW CREs at the TOA, within the 578 atmosphere, and at the surface, the CERES-derived estimates match perfectly with the best estimates 579 mentioned above, within 2 W m⁻² of the biases, followed by the estimates from the multi-model means and 580 ERA5 (Table 1). For the LW CREs, the calculated TOA LW CREs from the CMIP6 multi-model mean and CERES differ by no more than 1 W m⁻² compared to the best estimate, while large differences are noted at 581 582 the surface LW CREs, thereby leading to their opposite signs in the atmospheric LW CREs (Fig. 9b; Table 583 1). Specifically, since the ERA5-based TOA LW CRE deviates by no more than 3 W m⁻² with the best 584 estimate of 24 W m⁻² with nearly the same surface LW CRE, the estimated atmospheric LW CRE is therefore 585 the closest to the best estimate (Table 1). This is owing to the fact that we make use of the ERA5 data as the 586 reference to estimate the surface LW radiation. Thus, the major reason for the large discrepancies in the 587 atmospheric and surface LW CREs estimated from different data sources with respect to the best estimates 588 in this study is the determination of the surface downward and upward LW radiation, which is also the reason 589 for the large deviations in their net CREs (Fig. 9c).



591

592 Figure 9. Annual land mean anomalies of (a) SW, (b) LW, and (c) net (SW + LW) CREs (Units: W m⁻²) at 593 the TOA (red line), within the atmosphere (blue line), and at the surface (green line) with regard to their 594 respective multi-model means over East Asia, respectively, as represented by various CMIP6 models. The 595 numbers in the parentheses indicate the available CMIP6 climate models for the corresponding radiation 596 components.

598 A better comparison with the global annual mean best estimates of CREs by Wild et al. (2019) is given 599 in Fig. S5. At the TOA, a slightly lower and much lower East Asian land-mean SW and LW CREs of 1 W 600 m⁻² and 4 W m⁻² result in 3 W m⁻² more energy loss at the TOA compared to the globe. At the surface, much 601 lower annual East Asian land-mean SW and LW CREs by 3 W m⁻² and 8 W m⁻² are estimated compared to 602 the values over the globe, leading to a net CRE deviation of 5 W m⁻², indicative of 5 W m⁻² more energy loss 603 at the surface. However, lower and higher annual East Asian land-mean SW and LW CREs of 2 and 4 W m⁻ 604 2 within the atmosphere contribute to the nearly close net CRE with a deviation of no more than 2 W m⁻² 605 compared to the global mean estimates. On the whole, lower annual East Asian land-mean best estimates in 606 the absolute values of surface SW and LW CREs as well as the TOA LW CRE compared to their global

607 mean counterparts give rise to the CRE differences between them.

608 6. Summary and conclusions

This study aims to explore how the energy budgets are interrupted by the complex orographic and thermal effects of the TP, as well as the high anthropogenic aerosol emissions over East Asian land compared to global land, based on complementary data sources from space and surface observations, as well as the CMIP6 climate models and ERA5 reanalysis. A further quantitative investigation of CREs at the TOA, within the atmosphere, and at the surface is also conducted.

614 Comparisons between all-sky and clear-sky energy budgets indicate that the overall effects of clouds 615 greatly reduce the surface solar absorption by about 15.3% and enhance that within the atmosphere by 1.5%. 616 Compared to the global land energy budget estimates from Wild et al. (2015), for the SW budgets, notably 617 more atmospheric SW reflection of 5.2% but with a slightly less atmospheric SW absorption of 0.6% with 618 respect to their respective TOA incident solar radiation are estimated over East Asian land, possibly indicating that the lower water vapor content effects due to TP overcompensate for the aerosol and cloud 619 620 effects over East Asian land. For the LW budgets, a substantially lower surface LW emission of around 25 621 W m⁻² and smaller relative surface downward LW radiation of around 3.6% with respect to their respective 622 surface emissions can be noticed over East Asian land compared to global land, which possibly result from 623 the lower regional surface skin temperature, as well as the weaker greenhouse effect and fewer low clouds 624 mainly induced by the high altitude and thinner air over TP, thus leading to a higher percentage of regional 625 OLR of 2.7%.

626 The CREs over East Asian land are inferred through the energy budget differences between all-sky and 627 clear-sky conditions. The clouds reduce the solar absorption at the TOA by 46 W m⁻² and enhance the TOA 628 thermal radiation by 24 W m⁻², respectively, leading to a TOA net CRE of -22 W m⁻², a more cooling effect 629 on the regional climate system than that over globe (-19 W m⁻²). At the surface, the net CRE is estimated to 630 be -31 W m⁻² according to less solar absorption of 51 W m⁻² and more downward thermal radiation of 20 W 631 m⁻², indicative of larger cloud impacts on SW radiation. Within the atmosphere, the estimated net CRE is 9 632 W m⁻² due to an increase of 5 W m⁻² of solar absorption and 4 W m⁻² of the net thermal radiation, respectively. 633 Compared to the global mean best estimates of CREs as introduced by Wild et al. (2019), relatively lower 634 East Asian land-mean best estimates of surface SW and LW CREs as well as the TOA LW CRE contribute 635 to the CRE differences between them.

636 On the whole, all the estimated land-mean energy balance components over East Asia in this study fall 637 within the uncertainty ranges of the CERES-derived assessments, except for the all-sky surface downward 638 LW radiation. More accurate and reliable datasets should be utilized to reduce the substantial uncertainties 639 in the regional energy balance estimates, particularly in the surface budgets, and more widespread temporal 640 and spatial representations of energy budget research are recommended for more comprehensive 641 comparisons in future. For example, newly published surface radiation products with high resolutions based 642 on satellite datasets (e.g., Letu et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2022) are expected to make sense in improving the 643 accuracy of the regional/global surface radiation budget studies.

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- 648
- 649 Data Availability. The CERES SYN1deg data is available at https://ceres-tool.larc.nasa.gov/ord-
- tool/jsp/SYN1degEd41Selection.jsp; The AIRS data is accessible from
- 651 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/AIRS3STM_006/summary?keywords=AIRS; The MODIS data is from
- 652 https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/archive/allData/61/MYD08_M3/?process=ftpAsHttp&path=allDat
- 653 a%2f61%2fMYD08_M3; The CloudSat data is from http://www.cloudsat.cira.colostate.edu/data-
- 654 products/level-2b/2b-cwc-ro; The MERRA-2 dataset is obtained at
- 655 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/M2IMNPANA_5.12.4/summary?keywords=merra-2. The ERA-Interim
- 656 is from https://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/interim-full-moda/levtype=sfc.
- 657

658 Author contributions. HZ, MW, and QW proposed the main ideas of this study. QW designed and wrote the

659 manuscript. SY provided the homogenized ground-based surface solar radiation data. QC, XZ, and GS 660 contributed to the interpretation of the results. BX and YW assisted with the figures. All co-authors

controlled to the interpretation of the results. DX and Tw assisted with the figures. All co-autors

- 661 participated in discussions and provided constructive suggestions.
- 662
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- 664

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