

1 **HiTIC-Monthly: A Monthly High Spatial Resolution (1** 2 **km) Human Thermal Index Collection over China during** 3 **2003–2020**

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30 **Abstract**

31 Human-perceived thermal comfort (also known as human-perceived temperature) measures the
32 combined effects of multiple meteorological factors (e.g., temperature, humidity, and wind speed) and
33 can be aggravated under the influences of global warming and local human activities. With the most
34 rapid urbanization and the largest population, China is being severely threatened by aggravating human
35 thermal stress. However, the variations of thermal stress in China at a fine scale have not been fully
36 understood. This gap is mainly due to the lack of a high-resolution gridded dataset of human thermal
37 indices. Here, we generated the first high spatial resolution (1 km) dataset of monthly human thermal
38 index collection (HiTIC-Monthly) over China during 2003–2020. In this collection, 12 commonly-used
39 thermal indices were generated by the Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM) learning algorithm
40 from multi-source data, including land surface temperature, topography, land cover, population density,
41 and impervious surface fraction. Their accuracies were comprehensively assessed based on the
42 observations at 2419 weather stations across the mainland of China. The results show that our dataset
43 has desirable accuracies, with the mean R^2 , root mean square error, and mean absolute error of 0.996,
44 0.693°C, and 0.512°C, respectively, by averaging the 12 indices. Moreover, the data exhibit high
45 agreements with the observations across spatial and temporal dimensions, demonstrating the broad
46 applicability of our dataset. A comparison with two existing datasets also suggests that our high-
47 resolution dataset can describe a more explicit spatial distribution of the thermal information, showing
48 great potentials in fine-scale (e.g., intra-urban) studies. Further investigation reveals that nearly all
49 thermal indices exhibit increasing trends in most parts of China during 2003–2020. The increase is
50 especially significant in North China, Southwest China, the Tibetan Plateau, and parts of Northwest
51 China, during spring and summer. The HiTIC-Monthly dataset is publicly available from Zenodo at
52 <https://zenodo.org/record/6895533> and the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (TPDC) of China at
53 <https://data.tpdc.ac.cn/disallow/036e67b7-7a3a-4229-956f-40b8cd11871d> (Zhang et al., 2022a).

54

55 **1 Introduction**

56 Global climate change has brought significant challenges to human society and natural systems (Arias et
57 al., 2021; Haines and Ebi, 2019) by inducing higher air temperature and more frequent extreme weather
58 and climate events around the world (Arias et al., 2021; Schwingshackl et al., 2021). Heat-related
59 disasters, e.g., heatwaves, droughts, and wildfires, are occurring more frequently and becoming more
60 intense (Tong et al., 2021; Arias et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2022), exacerbating the thermal environment
61 and threatening the tolerance limits of humans, animals, and plants (Raymond et al., 2020). Substantial
62 warming and increasing extreme weather and climate events aggravate human thermal comfort and
63 increase the exposures to uncomfortable thermal environments (Brimicombe et al., 2021), thus posing
64 adverse impacts on public health, socio-economy, and agricultural productivities (Budhathoki and
65 Zander, 2019; Moda et al., 2019; Tuholske et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2017).

66
67 The thermal stress that human beings actually perceive is not only related to air temperature, but also
68 jointly influenced by other environmental variables such as humidity, wind, and/or direct sunlight (Mistry,
69 2020; Djongyang et al., 2010). These variables alter the heat balance that maintains the core temperature
70 of human bodies by influencing the heat exchange (e.g., radiation, convection, conduction, and
71 evaporation) between humans and the surrounding environment (Periard et al., 2021; Stolwijk, 1975).
72 High atmospheric humidity can exacerbate the thermal stress on human bodies by reducing evaporation
73 from the skin through sweating when the air temperature is high (Li et al., 2018; Rogers et al., 2021; Luo
74 and Lau, 2021). Furthermore, abnormal weather with a combination of extremely high air temperature,
75 humidity, and/or wind can reduce labor capacity and human performance (Roghanchi and Kocsis, 2018;
76 Lazaro and Momayez, 2020; Enander and Hygge, 1990), leading to temperature-related discomfort,
77 stress, morbidity, and even death (Di Napoli et al., 2018; Kuchcik, 2021; Nastos and Matzarakis, 2011),
78 particularly during heatwaves. For example, in the summer of 2017, 2018, and 2019, there were 1489,
79 1700, and 161 heatwave-related deaths, respectively, in the United Kingdom (Rustemeyer and Howells,
80 2021). Additionally, vulnerable groups including children, the elderly, chronic patients, and poor
81 communities are at higher risk of being affected by thermal stress (Patz et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2019),
82 which is likely to be further exacerbated as global population aging and climate warming (United Nations,
83 2017).

84

85 The changes and impacts of human thermal stress have attracted increasing attention in recent years
86 (Schwingshackl et al., 2021; Krzysztof et al., 2021; Li et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2022; Ren et al., 2022;
87 Luo and Lau, 2021). For instance, Szer et al. (2022) estimated the impact of heat stress on construction
88 workers based on the Universal Thermal Climate Index (UTCI). Ren et al. (2022) and Luo and Lau (2021)
89 quantified the contribution of urbanization and climate change to urban human thermal comfort in China.
90 Schwingshackl et al. (2021) assessed the future severity and trend of global heat stress based on Coupled
91 Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6). These studies were mainly based on meteorological
92 stations or coarse-gridded data. However, the meteorological stations are sparsely distributed (Peng et
93 al., 2019), particularly in undeveloped and mountainous areas, which cannot reveal continuously spatial
94 distributions of air temperature and thermal stress conditions (He et al., 2021). Additionally, existing low
95 spatial resolution image products (Mistry, 2020; Di Napoli et al., 2020) cannot be applied to fine-scale
96 studies because they cannot provide information with spatial details and variations. However, the changes
97 in human thermal stress at a fine scale (e.g., 1 km×1 km) remain much less understood. This research
98 gap is mainly inhabited by the unavailability of a high spatial resolution (high-resolution) gridded dataset
99 of human thermal stress.

100

101 Although extensive studies have been conducted to generate high-resolution land surface temperature
102 (LST) [such as the Land Surface Temperature in China (LSTC; (Zhao et al., 2020) and the global
103 seamless land surface temperature dataset (Zhang et al., 2022b; Hong et al., 2022)], or near surface air
104 temperatures (SAT) products [such as ERA5 (ECMWF, 2017), TerraClimate (Abatzoglou et al., 2018),
105 and GPRChinaTemp1km (He et al., 2021)], human thermal stress datasets were generally produced at
106 low-resolution levels, such as ERA5-HEAT (Di Napoli et al., 2020), HDI_0p25_1970_2018 (hereafter,
107 HDI) (Mistry, 2020), and HiTiSEA (Yan et al., 2021). ERA5-HEAT was derived from ERA5 and
108 includes two global hourly human thermal stress indices (UTCI and mean radiant temperature (MRT))
109 from January 1979 to the present (Di Napoli et al., 2020). The HDI dataset was generated using 3-hourly
110 climate variables of the global land data assimilation system (GLDAS), and it contains ten daily indices
111 with a spatial resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$, covering 90°N – 60°S from 1970 to 2018 (Mistry, 2020).
112 HiTiSEA contains ten daily human thermal stress indices from 1981 to 2017, with a spatial resolution of

113 0.1° × 0.1° over South and East Asia (Yan et al., 2021), which was derived from the ERA5-Land and
114 ERA5 reanalysis products. However, these existing thermal index datasets have very coarse spatial
115 resolutions. There is an urgent need for a high-resolution (e.g., 1 km) data collection of multiple human
116 thermal stress indices.

117

118 Various indices have been proposed to measure human thermal stress, but there is no universal thermal
119 stress index that works in all climate zones (Schwingshackl et al., 2021; Brake and Bates, 2002;
120 Roghanchi and Kocsis, 2018; Luo and Lau, 2021). Existing human thermal stress indices considered
121 different climate conditions, direct or indirect exposures to weather elements, human metabolism, and
122 the local working environment (Di Napoli et al., 2020), which were designed to evaluate or quantify the
123 comprehensive environmental pressure of meteorological factors (e.g., temperature, humidity, wind) on
124 human bodies (Epstein and Moran, 2006). These indices are based on the thermal exchange between the
125 human and surrounding environments or empirical relationships gained by studying human responses to
126 various environmental factors, varying in complexity, applicability, and capacity (Staiger et al., 2019).
127 For example, the heat index (HI) is used for meteorological service (NWS, 2011); wet-bulb temperature
128 (WBT) is used to measure the upper physiological limit of human beings (Raymond et al., 2020);
129 physiologically equivalent temperature (PET) and UTCI are used to estimate human thermal comfort
130 (Varentsov et al., 2020). Therefore, a high-resolution dataset that contains different commonly used
131 human thermal stress indices is urgently called for in global and regional studies, particularly for those
132 with complex climate conditions (e.g., China).

133

134 China has been threatened by deteriorating thermal environments under global climate change and rapid
135 local urbanization over the past decades (Ren et al., 2022; Luo and Lau, 2019). The changes and
136 characteristics of human thermal stress across China have attracted extensive attention in recent years
137 (Yan, 2013; Tian et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022). Wang et al. (2021) found that the frequency of extreme
138 human-perceived temperature events increases in summer and decreases in winter in most urban
139 agglomerations (UAs) of China. Li et al. (2022) showed that the frequency of thermal discomfort days
140 in China exhibits a significant increasing trend from 1961 to 2014, and there will be more threats from
141 thermal discomfort in the future. Therefore, a long-term and high-resolution dataset with multiple human

142 thermal stress indices in China is of great importance for investigating detailed spatial and temporal
143 variations of human thermal stress across the country. Such a dataset has the potential to (1) assess
144 population exposure to extreme thermal conditions and heat-related health risks, (2) reveal the
145 spatiotemporal evolution of human thermal stress and its influence on public health, tourism, industries,
146 military, epidemiology, and biometeorology at a fine scale, and (3) provide policymakers with data in
147 manipulating targeted strategies to mitigate heat stress and protect vulnerable people.

148

149 In this study, we produced a high-resolution ($1 \text{ km} \times 1 \text{ km}$) thermal index collection at a monthly scale
150 (HiTIC-Monthly) in China over a long period (2003–2020). This collection contains 12 widely-used
151 human thermal indices, including Surface Air Temperature (SAT), indoor Apparent Temperature (AT_{in}),
152 outdoor shaded Apparent Temperature (AT_{out}), Discomfort Index (DI), Effective Temperature (ET), Heat
153 Index (HI), Humidex (HMI), Modified Discomfort Index (MDI), Net Effective Temperature (NET),
154 Wet-Bulb Temperature (WBT), simplified Wet Bulb Globe Temperature (sWBGT), and Wind Chill
155 Temperature (WCT). The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Sections 2 and 3 describe the
156 data sources and the methodology, respectively. Section 4 presents a comprehensive analysis of the
157 accuracies and trends of the human thermal indices. Comparisons on our products with two existing
158 datasets are in Section 5, data availability is provided in Section 6. The main findings of this paper are
159 summarized in Section 7.

160

161 **2 Data**

162 **2.1 Meteorological data**

163 Daily mean surface air temperature, relative humidity, and wind speed recorded at the 2419 weather
164 stations across China (Figure 1) during 2003–2020 were collected from the China Meteorological Data
165 Service Center (CMDC) at <http://data.cma.cn/en>. All station records were subjected to strict quality
166 control and evaluation, including homogenization based on a statistical approach (Xu et al., 2013) and
167 evaluation of temporal inhomogeneity based on the Easterling-Peterson method (Li et al., 2004).

168 2.2 Covariates

169 Human thermal stress is related to temperature, topography, land cover, population density, surface water,
170 and vegetation (Wang et al., 2020; Rahman et al., 2022; Krzysztof et al., 2021). In this study, eight
171 variables reflecting the changes and spatial distribution characteristics of temperature were used to
172 predict human thermal indices (Table 1) in addition to the meteorological variables. As LST is one of the
173 most essential parameters for predicting human thermal indices, the seamless LST dataset created by
174 Zhang et al. (2022b) was introduced into our model training. This LST dataset used a spatiotemporal
175 gap-filling algorithm to fill the missing or invalid value caused by clouds in the Moderate Resolution
176 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) LST dataset (MOD11A1 and MYD11A1). It includes daily mid-
177 daytime (13:30) and mid-nighttime (01:30) LST with 1 km spatial resolution. The mean root mean
178 squared errors (*RMSEs*) of daytime and nighttime LST are 1.88°C and 1.33°C, respectively. We used
179 monthly LST as one of the inputs to predict the spatial distribution of 12 thermal indices. Monthly LST
180 values were calculated by averaging daily LST, which was obtained by averaging four observations in a
181 day, including mid-daytime and mid-nighttime observations from ascending and descending orbits of
182 MOD11A1 (Terra) and MYD11A1 (Aqua). More details about the LST data are described in Zhang et al.
183 (2022b). The land cover dataset (MCD12Q1 Version 6) developed by Sulla-Menashe and Friedl (2019)
184 based on a supervised classification method was downloaded via Google Earth Engine (GEE). The Multi-
185 Error-Removed Improved-Terrain (MERIT) elevation dataset developed by Yamazaki et al. (2017) was
186 downloaded from GEE. This dataset was generated after removing the errors from existing Digital
187 Elevation Models (DEMs), such as SRTM3 and AW3D-30m, based on multi-source satellite data and
188 filtering algorithms. The spatial resolution of this dataset is 3" (i.e., ~90 meters at the equator). In addition,
189 the slope was also extracted from the elevation data to act as the topography predictor. As the artificial
190 surface is closely related to human activities (Zhao and Zhu, 2022), the dataset of global artificial
191 impervious area (GAIA) produced by Gong et al. (2020) from the Google Earth Engine (GEE) was used
192 to delineate human footprints. The overall accuracy of GAIA is greater than 90% (Gong et al., 2020).
193 The population dataset was downloaded from the WorldPop Project (Gaughan et al., 2013). Then, the
194 abovementioned eight datasets were pre-processed to have the same spatial extend, projection, and spatial
195 resolution (1 km) through image mosaicking, reprojection, resampling, clipping, aggregating, and
196 monthly synthesizing. Moreover, year and month of the year were also used as covariates. Note that we

197 did not include precipitation as a covariate because the precipitation data are not normally distributed.
198 More importantly, they exhibit many zero values in many regions of China (especially in the dry season),
199 which would increase the uncertainty of the spatial prediction.

200

201 **3 Methodology**

202 **3.1 Calculation of human thermal indices**

203 In addition to SAT, the calculation of human thermal indices used in this study is described in Table 2.
204 These indices are first calculated based on SAT (also simply denoted as T), relative humidity (RH), wind
205 speed (V), and actual vapor pressure (E_a) at daily scale. E_a is derived from T and RH rather than directly
206 observed at meteorological stations (Eqs. 1~2; (Bolton, 1980)). Furthermore, monthly human thermal
207 indices were derived by averaging daily values in each month.

$$208 \quad E_s = 6.112 \times \exp^{(17.67 \times T / (T + 243.5))} \quad (1)$$

$$209 \quad E_a = \frac{RH}{100} \times E_s \quad (2)$$

210 Here E_s is saturation vapor pressure (hPa) near the surface, T (°C) is air temperature at 2 m above the
211 ground, and RH (%) is relative humidity at 2 m above the ground.

212

213 **3.2 Prediction of human thermal indices using LGBM**

214 The Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM) algorithm was employed to predict human thermal
215 indices during 2003–2020. LGBM is one of the gradient boosting decision tree (GBDT) algorithms
216 developed by Microsoft Research (Ke et al., 2017). This algorithm has become a very popular nonlinear
217 machine learning algorithm due to its superior performance in machine learning competitions and
218 efficiency (Candido et al., 2021). Its performance has been evaluated and shows desirable results in
219 different applications, such as evapotranspiration estimation (Fan et al., 2019), land cover classification
220 (Candido et al., 2021; Mccarty et al., 2020), air quality prediction (Su, 2020; Zeng et al., 2021; Tian et
221 al., 2021), subsurface temperature reconstruction (Su et al., 2021), and above-ground biomass estimation
222 (Tamiminia et al., 2021).

223

224 Furthermore, LGBM adopts the Gradient-based One-Side Sampling (GOSS) and Exclusive Feature
 225 Bundling (EFB) algorithms to improve the training speed (Su et al., 2021). Here, GOSS is used to select
 226 data instances with larger gradients and to exclude a considerable proportion of small gradient data
 227 instances (Ke et al., 2017), and EFB is used to merge features (Ke et al., 2017). Compared with traditional
 228 GBDT algorithms including eXtreme gradient boosting (XGBoost) and Stochastic Gradient Boosting
 229 (SGB), LGBM effectively decreases the training time without reducing the accuracy (Los et al., 2021;
 230 Ke et al., 2017).

231

232 We used the Python package *Scikit-Learn* to perform the LGBM training, and hyperparameters of LGBM
 233 were tuned based on Grid Search Methods. The observed monthly human thermal indices at the 2419
 234 weather stations across the mainland of China during 2003–2020 were randomly classified into a training
 235 set (80%) for hyperparameters tuning and model training and a testing set (20%) for model evaluation.

236

237 3.3 Accuracy assessment

238 Four statistic metrics, namely, determination coefficient (R^2), Mean Absolute Error (MAE), $RMSE$, and
 239 $Bias$ (Rice, 2006), were used to evaluate the prediction accuracy of the human thermal indices. Ranging
 240 from 0 to 1, R^2 measures the proportion of variance explained by the model, representing how well the
 241 human thermal indices were predicted compared to the observations. MAE represents the average
 242 absolute error between the predictions and the observations. $RMSE$ is the standard deviation of the
 243 residuals and is sensitive to outliers. $Bias$ describes the differences between the predictions and the
 244 observations. These metrics are computed as follows.

$$245 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{i=1}^N |y_i - \hat{y}| \quad (3)$$

$$246 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y})^2} \quad (4)$$

$$247 \quad R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (5)$$

$$248 \quad Bias = \frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}) \quad (6)$$

249 where \hat{y} is the predicted value of human thermal indices, \bar{y} is the mean of the observed human thermal
 250 indices calculated from meteorological stations, and N is the number of samples.

251

252 **4 Results**

253 **4.1 Evaluation of the predicted human thermal indices**

254 **4.1.1 Overall accuracy**

255 The prediction accuracies of the 12 human thermal indices were evaluated based on the validation data
256 introduced in Section 3.2. All predicted human thermal indices exhibit high accuracies. Figure 2 shows
257 the scatter plots of the observed versus the predicted values of the 12 human thermal indices. As the
258 figure displays, the data points of all indices are concentrated around the corresponding 1:1 line,
259 indicating a good consistency between the observed and the predicted values. Figure 3 and Table 3
260 present the R^2 , MAE , $RMSE$, and $Bias$ values of 12 thermal indices during 2003–2020. The R^2 values of
261 the 12 indices are all higher than 0.99, and their $RMSE$, MAE , and $Bias$ are lower than 0.9 °C, 0.7 °C,
262 and 0.003 °C, respectively. Particularly, HMI has the largest $RMSE$ (0.859 °C) and MAE (0.645 °C),
263 while ET shows the smallest $RMSE$ (0.377 °C) and MAE (0.281 °C). The larger errors of NET are likely
264 caused by the incorporation of wind speed during the computation (see Table 2). Overall, the accuracy
265 metrics demonstrate that the 12 predicted human thermal indices are of good quality.

266

267 The spatial distributions of R^2 , MAE , $RMSE$, and $Bias$ at individual stations across the mainland of
268 China are depicted in Figure 4–7, respectively. The predicted indices have high R^2 values (i.e., >0.98,
269 Figure 4) at almost all stations across China, demonstrating the superiority of LGBM. Better
270 predictions (with higher R^2) are distributed in eastern China, particularly in the North China Plain
271 (NCP) and the Yangtze River Delta (YRD), while southwestern China (e.g., the Yunnan-Guizhou
272 Plateau (YGP)) has relatively lower R^2 values (<0.98). For MAE and $RMSE$, all indices have small
273 values <1 °C at most stations across China. HMI has the largest MAE and $RMSE$ values (Figure 5g
274 and 6g), followed by NET and WCT, and ET has the smallest MAE and $RMSE$ values (i.e., < 0.4 °
275 C, Figure 5e and 6e). The MAE and $RMSE$ of NET and WCT decrease from northwestern to
276 southeastern China (Figure 5i, 5l, 6i, 6l). For other indices, small MAE and $RMSE$ values are mainly
277 observed in plains including NCP, while large values tend to appear in regions with complex
278 topography, such as arid Northwest China, mountainous Northeast and South China, and the

279 Hengduan Mountains. These differences are related to the uneven distribution of weather stations,
280 i.e., dense in plains and coarse in complex terrain areas. The *Bias* values range from $-0.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $0.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$
281 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Figure 7). Positive *Bias* values tend to distribute in northern China while negative values are
282 mainly located in the south. This spatial variability is likely caused by the generally lower
283 temperatures in the north and higher temperatures in the south. In particular, the extremely small
284 values in the north and the extremely large values in the south may be overestimated and
285 underestimated to some extent, respectively, due to limited samples of extremely small and large
286 values (compared with the rest of the samples) when training the machine learning model. The
287 overestimation and underestimation issues caused by limited training samples of extreme values are
288 quite common in machine learning (Wu et al., 2022; Li et al., 2020; Uddin et al., 2022; Cho et al.,
289 2020).

290

291 **4.1.2 Annual and monthly accuracies**

292 The annual accuracies regarding *RMSE*, *MAE*, and *Bias* of the 12 human thermal indices during 2003–
293 2020 are shown in Figure 8. *RMSEs* and *MAEs* of all indices in nearly all years are less than $1.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$
294 (Figure 8a-b). Yearly *RMSE* (*MAE*) of ET fluctuates around $0.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) during 2003–2020. *RMSEs*
295 (*MAEs*) of other indices range from 0.5 to $1.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (0.4 – $0.8\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) with marginal variations from year to year.
296 *Biases* vary between $-0.04\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $0.04\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ across all years. This temporal variability of the *Bias* is related
297 to the yearly climate variations, and is characterized by a marginal overestimation of lower temperatures
298 that mainly appeared in early periods (e.g., 2003–2005) and the underestimation of higher temperatures
299 mostly in recent periods (e.g., 2016–2019). Under climatic warming over the past decades, the lower
300 temperatures tended to appear in early periods while relatively higher temperatures more likely occurred
301 in more recent periods. Extremely small values of temperature in earlier periods and the large values in
302 the later periods may be slightly overestimated (i.e., with positive *Bias* values) and underestimated (i.e.,
303 with negative *Bias* values), respectively, thereby characterizing the temporal variations of the *Bias*.
304 Moreover, Figure S1 displays the monthly *RMSEs*, *MAEs*, and *Biases* of all human thermal indices. For
305 *RMSE*, all the indices in 12 months are lower than $1.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, and their *MAEs* are less than $1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. HI and HMI
306 have relatively higher *RMSE* and *MAE* values in summer than in other seasons; whereas, other indices
307 tend to have larger errors in winter than in summer. Additionally, the magnitude of *Bias* is smaller than

308 0.03 °C for all the indices in 12 months.

309

310 **4.1.3 Accuracies in major urban agglomerations**

311 More than half of the national population in China lives in cities, particularly in UAs (i.e., also known as
312 city clusters). Here we assessed the prediction accuracies in 20 major UAs in China, which hold 62.83%
313 and 80.57% of the total population and gross domestic product (GDP) of the country (Fang, 2016). These
314 accuracy assessments are presented in Tables S1–S4. As shown in Table S1, all UAs have R^2 values
315 higher than 0.9837, with an average of 0.9947. Table S2 also shows that these UAs have small *RMSE*
316 values, most of which are smaller than 1 °C, except for the UA of North Tianshan Mountain in arid
317 Northwest China. As the biggest UA in China, YRD has the lowest *RMSE* of 0.288 °C among all 20 UAs.
318 The *MAEs* of the thermal indices in all UAs are smaller than 1 °C and with an average value of 0.477 °C
319 (Table S3). The *Biases* in the 20 UAs range from -0.160 °C to 0.123 °C (Table S4). These results suggest
320 that all predicted human thermal indices in different UAs across China are of good quality at the local
321 scale. It implies that our prediction model and results have great potential in evaluating local thermal
322 environment changes (e.g., in urban areas or cities).

323

324 **4.2 Spatial variations of the human thermal indices**

325 The abovementioned assessments show that our model based on LGBM can yield high-accuracy
326 predictions at both national and local scales. Therefore, this model is employed to generate a high-
327 resolution human thermal index collection at a monthly scale over China (HiTIC-Monthly) during 2003–
328 2020. By taking monthly ET in 2020 as an example, we examined the monthly evolution of spatial
329 patterns of the HiTIC-Monthly dataset in this subsection.

330

331 Figure 9 shows the monthly distribution of the predicted ET in 2020, which exhibits obvious seasonality
332 with higher temperatures in summer and lower in winter. The temperature shows a significant zonal
333 difference with colder temperatures in northern than in southern China. The temperature has a close
334 relationship with topography and decreases with elevation, varying from plateaus to plains. The Qinghai-
335 Tibet Plateau (TP) has the lowest temperature, while southern China, the Sichuan Basin, and the Gobi

336 regions in Northwest China witness the highest temperature. The distribution of temperature exhibits
337 different patterns among the four seasons, especially between winter (e.g., January) and summer (e.g.,
338 July). In winter, the temperature increases from northern to southern areas and is the coldest in Northeast
339 and Northwest China and the warmest on the Hainan Island. In summer, the hottest temperature appears
340 in the Tarim and Jungar Basins of Xinjiang. The NCP region also has a high temperature in summer,
341 which might be related to local urbanization (Liu et al., 2008) and irrigation (Kang and Eltahir, 2018).

342

343 The spatial variations of the predicted human thermal indices in summer (which is often characterized
344 by severe heat stress) are examined in Figure 10 by taking July 2020 as an example. As it shows, the 12
345 indices exhibit similar distribution patterns. There are significant differences in temperature among
346 northwest, northeast, and southeast China. Generally, the temperature decreases from the southeast to the
347 northwest, and the southeast and northwest parts have the highest and lowest temperatures, respectively.

348

349 HMI exhibits the highest temperature while NET shows the lowest in July 2020. The dominant modes of
350 these indices are further examined by applying the empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis (Figures
351 S10–S13). As Figure S10 shows, the leading EOF (EOF1) of all 12 thermal indices exhibit highly
352 consistent spatial distribution with higher values in the northern region and lower values in the south.
353 Their temporal variations are also similar to each other (Figure S11). The second and third EOF modes
354 (EOF2 and EOF3) are also similar among different thermal indices (except EOF3 of NET, Figures S11–
355 S13). These results demonstrate the desirable quality of our products.

356

357 **4.3 Temporal changes in the human thermal indices**

358 The yearly evolutions of the annual mean human thermal indices during 2003–2020 are displayed in
359 Figure 11. Despite the interannual fluctuation in the time series, all indices exhibit upward trends except
360 for NET and WCT, of which the decreasing trends are mainly affected by the recovering wind speed in
361 the recent decade (Zeng et al., 2019). The fastest warming appears in HMI (0.303 °C/decade), and the
362 slowest is in ET (0.111 °C/decade). These warming trends are stronger than the rising rate of global mean
363 near surface temperature (IPCC, 2021), demonstrating China as one of the severest hotspots suffering
364 from dramatic climate warming under global change. The detailed spatial variations regarding the trends

365 of the human thermal indices across China are further depicted in Figure 12. Most parts of China
366 experience are seen with increases in nearly all the indices during 2003–2020. These increases are
367 especially more profound in North China, Southwest China, TP, and parts of Northwest China. The
368 possible reasons for the prominent warming trends in North China are explained as follows. The
369 urbanization process has been prevailing in this area, with rapid growth in the economy and population.
370 This process is accompanied by dramatic increases in impervious surfaces and decreases in green spaces.
371 These changes lead to warmer surface and near surface air temperature, known as urban heat islands
372 (UHI), thus increasing thermal stress in this region. The urbanization effects on local heat stress have
373 also been reported by (Luo and Lau, 2021). Moreover, North China has a large amount of croplands with
374 prominent irrigation activities, which may increase air humidity near the surface and exacerbate the
375 combined effects of temperature and humidity, leading to increased heat stress (Kang and Eltahir, 2018).
376 In addition, this area has experienced a weakening of surface wind speed (Zhang et al., 2021), which also
377 exacerbates thermal stress, especially in NET and WCT.

378

379 Furthermore, different indices have different degrees of increasing trends. HMI has the largest
380 increasing magnitude (Figure 12h), and ET is seen with relatively slight increases across China
381 (Figure 12f). The trends of NET and WCT have similar spatial distribution patterns, with large
382 proportions having cooling trends since 2003 (Figure 12j&l). Most parts of Xinjiang, northeastern
383 and southern China have obvious decreasing trends, and the Inner Mongolia Plateau (IMP), NCP,
384 eastern TP, YRD, and YGP have slightly increasing trends.

385

386 The temporal trends of the human thermal indices in different seasons were also examined (Figure 13).
387 The fastest warming tendency is observed in the spring season. The rising trends of spring HMI, HI, MDI,
388 AT_{in} , and AT_{out} exceed $0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$, and the trends of other indices (except ET and NET) are larger
389 than $0.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ (Figure S2). Summer also has been experiencing significant increasing trends in all
390 indices, i.e., at a rate of $> 0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ (except ET and NET). The trends in summer HMI, HI, WBT,
391 MDI, DI, sWBGT, AT_{in} , and AT_{out} exceed $0.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ (Figure S3). Differing from spring and summer,
392 the human thermal indices (except WCT and NET) in the autumn season show slightly cooling trends
393 (Figure S4). Autumn WCT and NET have significantly strong decreasing trends, i.e., -0.349 and -

394 0.507 °C/decade, respectively. Similar strong cooling trends of WCT and NET appear in winter, i.e., -
395 0.661 and -0.453 °C/decade, respectively, while other indices experience marginal long-term changes
396 (Figure S5).

397

398 Figure S6 maps the spatial patterns of the trends of summer mean human thermal indices over the
399 mainland of China during 2003–2020. All indices show warming trends in most parts of China,
400 particularly in NCP and TP. As one of the most densely populated regions in China, the prominent
401 increases in thermal indices in NCP indicate that the local has been experiencing increasing threats of
402 intensifying heat stress. Among the 12 indices, AT_{out}, HI, NET and WCT tend to have a slight cooling
403 trend in southeastern China. This cooling trend is consistent with the corresponding summer SAT.

404

405 The spatial distributions of the changing trends in winter across the mainland of China during 2003–2020
406 are depicted in Figure S7. The trend patterns in winter are similar to that in summer to some degree. The
407 warming trends are concentrated in Southwest China, most parts of Northwest China, and parts of East
408 China (e.g., YRD). The cooling trends are located in TP, parts of Northeast and South China. The cooling
409 tendencies are especially significant in Northeast China, and most parts of Northwest and South China
410 (Figures S7 j&m). Parts of central China are seen with even stronger cooling thermal comfort.

411

412 In spring, increases in all thermal indices are observed in most parts of China (Figure S8), particularly in
413 northern regions, such as central Inner Mongolia, parts of NCP, and Northeast China, while parts of
414 southern China have slight decreases. These decreases are noticeable in NET and WCT (Figures S8 j&m).

415 In contrast to spring, the autumn season is observed with decreased thermal temperature in the north and
416 increases in the south (e.g., Southwest China, Figure S9).

417

418 **5 Discussion**

419 **5.1 Comparison with existing human thermal index datasets**

420 We compared our HITIC-Monthly with two existing datasets, i.e., HDI (Mistry, 2020) and HiTiSEA (Yan
421 et al., 2021), which have coarser spatial resolutions of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ and $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$ (Table 4), respectively.

422 We derived monthly mean AT_{in} in July 2018 from HDI and HiTiSEA and compared them with HITIC-
423 Monthly over the mainland of China, with a particular highlight in the four largest UAs, including
424 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH), YRD, middle Yangtze River Valley (mYRV) and Pearl River Delta (PRD)
425 (Figure 14). The summer of 2018 was selected because it was included in all three datasets and frequent
426 heat events occurred in this summer (Zhou et al., 2020). Generally, the three datasets depict similar spatial
427 patterns. However, our HiTIC-Monthly dataset obviously provides more detailed and clearer spatial
428 information on human thermal stress than the other two. Additionally, the observed AT_{in} values at
429 individual weather stations are also compared (Figure 14). It can be seen that HDI and HiTiSEA
430 overestimate AT_{in} , and such overestimation is especially severe for HDI, while our dataset is in good
431 agreement with the observed AT_{in} at individual weather stations. Therefore, our predicted temperature
432 can describe the spatial variations in the city areas well, thereby providing fundamental support for fine-
433 scale climate studies, such as urban climate research.

434 **5.2 Limitations and future works**

435 There are 12 commonly used human thermal indices in the HiTIC-Monthly dataset produced in this study.
436 Nine of these indices were computed from temperature and humidity (or water vapor) and the other three
437 (i.e., AT_{out} , NET, and WCT) were derived from temperature, humidity, and wind speed. In addition, other
438 indices considering the combined effect of environmental variables such as sunlight (Blazejczyk, 1994;
439 Fanger, 1970; Höppe, 1999; Yaglou and Minaed, 1957) were proposed, including wet bulb globe
440 temperature (WBGT), predicted mean vote (PMV), UTCI, physiological equivalent temperature (PET),
441 etc. These thermal indices were not included in our study due to the lack of sunshine and radiative flux
442 data.

443
444 Since LST is the most important variable for predicting the 11 human thermal indices, the uncertainty in
445 the LST dataset may influence the accuracy of the human thermal indices. The LST variable in our
446 prediction is collected from a global seamless 1 km resolution daily LST dataset (Zhang et al., 2022b).
447 This dataset was generated based on spatiotemporal gap-filling algorithms and the MODIS LST data. It
448 may overestimate LST in some cases because the LST under cloudy weather was filled based on the data
449 in clear sky conditions (Zhang et al., 2022b). A high-quality LST dataset would further improve the
450 prediction accuracy of the human thermal indices.

451

452 The human thermal indices dataset is at a monthly scale, but the temporal resolution may not be sufficient
453 for the research of extreme weather events (e.g., heatwaves and cold spells) and related environmental
454 health (e.g., heat-related mortality). A daily high-resolution human thermal index collection (HiTIC-
455 Daily) will be produced and released in our future studies. In the current study, we provided the first
456 national-level dataset over the mainland of China with multiple high-resolution human thermal indices
457 in a monthly interval, which shows high prediction accuracies in all climate regimes across China. A
458 global dataset of multiple human thermal indices dataset is also expected in the near future.

459

460 **6 Data availability**

461 The high spatial resolution monthly human thermal index collection (HiTIC-Monthly) generated in
462 this study is freely available to the public in network common data form (NetCDF) from Zenodo at
463 <https://zenodo.org/record/6895533> and the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (TPDC) of China at
464 <https://data.tpdc.ac.cn/disallow/036e67b7-7a3a-4229-956f-40b8cd11871d> (Zhang et al., 2022a). The
465 human thermal indices include surface air temperature (SAT), indoor Apparent Temperature (AT_{in}),
466 outdoor shaded Apparent Temperature (AT_{out}), Discomfort Index (DI), Effective Temperature (ET),
467 Heat Index (HI), Humidex (HMI), Modified Discomfort Index (MDI), Net Effective Temperature
468 (NET), simplified Wet Bulb Globe Temperature (sWBGT), Wet-Bulb Temperature (WBT), and
469 Wind Chill Temperature (WCT). This dataset has a spatial resolution of $1\text{ km} \times 1\text{ km}$ and covers the
470 mainland of China from 2003 to 2020, stacking by year. Each stack is composed of 12 monthly
471 images. The unit of the dataset is 0.01 degree Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), and the values are stored in an integer
472 type (Int16) for saving storage space, and need to be divided by 100 to get the values in degree
473 Celsius when in use. The projection coordinate system is Albers Equal Area Conic Projection. The
474 naming rule and other detailed information can be found in “README.pdf”.

475

476 **7 Conclusions**

477 A long-term and high-resolution dataset of multiple human thermal indices is of great significance for

478 monitoring detailed spatiotemporal changes of human thermal stress in different climate regions across
479 China and assessing the health risks of people exposed to extreme heat at a fine scale. However, the
480 current datasets of human thermal indices (e.g., HDI and HiTiSEA) only have coarse spatial resolutions
481 ($> 0.1^\circ$). In this study, we generated a dataset of monthly human thermal index collection with a high
482 spatial resolution of 1 km over the mainland of China (HiTIC-Monthly). In this collection, 12 human
483 thermal indices from 2003 to 2020 were predicted, including SAT, AT_{in} , AT_{out} , DI, ET, HI, HMI, MDI,
484 NET, sWBGT, WBT, and WCT.

485

486 The HiTIC-Monthly dataset was produced by LGBM based on multi-source data, including MODIS LST,
487 DEM, land cover, population density, and impervious surface fraction. This dataset shows a desirable
488 performance, with mean R^2 , $RMSE$, MAE , and $Bias$ of 0.996, 0.693°C , 0.512°C , and 0.003°C ,
489 respectively. Our predictions also exhibit good agreements with the observations in both spatial and
490 temporal dimensions, demonstrating the broad applicability of our dataset. Moreover, the comparison
491 with two existing datasets (i.e., HDI and HiTiSEA) suggests that HiTIC-Monthly has more detailed
492 spatial information, indicating that our dataset can well support fine-scale studies. Further investigation
493 shows that almost all the indices show warming trends in most parts of China during 2003–2020,
494 particularly for North China, Southwest China, TP, and parts of Northwest China. Additionally, the
495 warming tendency is faster in spring and summer. WCT and NET show similar and strong cooling trends
496 in autumn and winter, while other indices exhibit slight long-term changes.

497

498 **Author contribution**

499 H.Z.: Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing – original draft preparation;

500 M.L.: Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Supervision

501 Writing – review & editing; Y.Z.: Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Investigation, Supervision,

502 Writing – review & editing; L.J.: Investigation, Writing – review & editing; E.G.: Investigation, Writing

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508

509 **Competing interests**

510 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
511

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519

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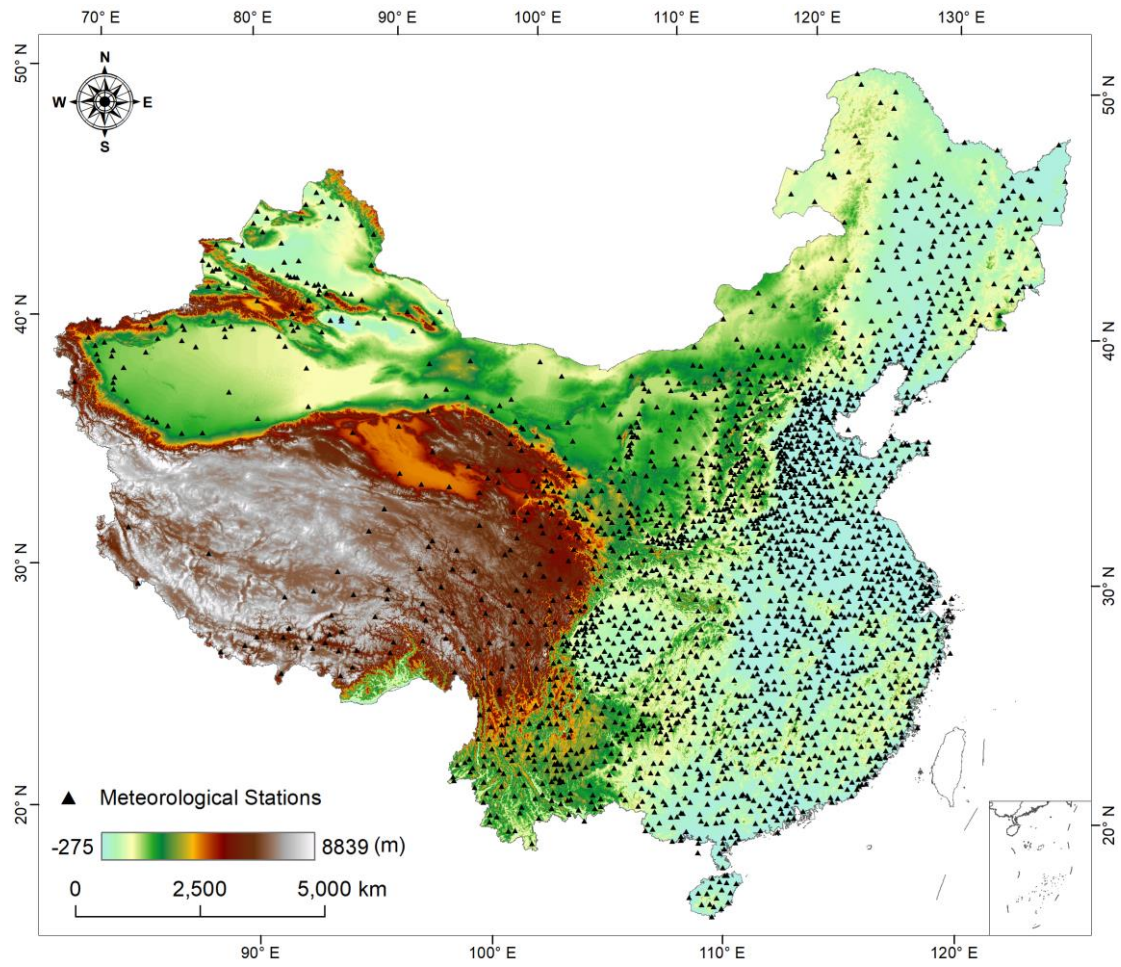
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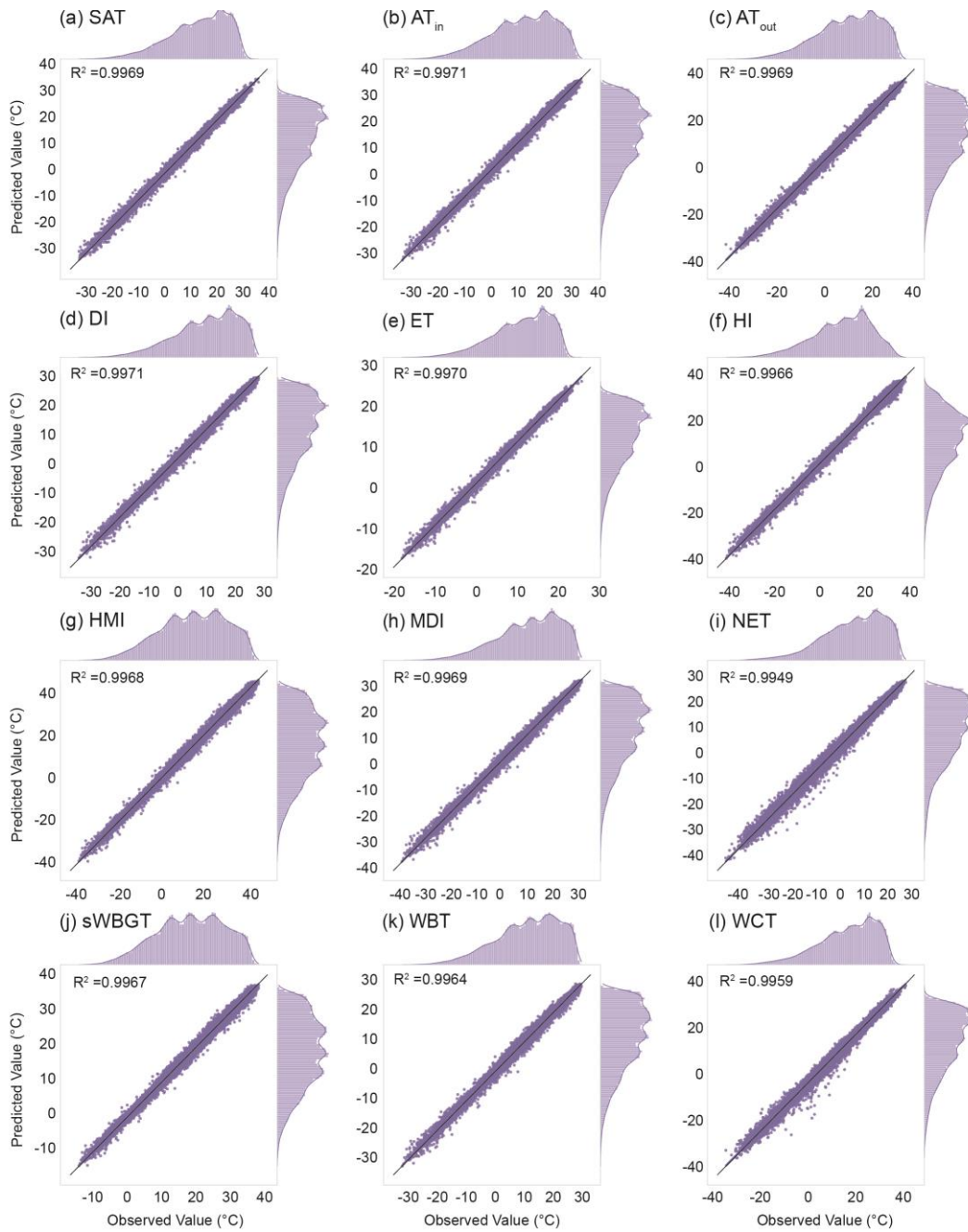
803 **Figures**



804

805 **Figure 1. Spatial distribution of meteorological stations in the mainland of China, with color shadings**
806 **indicating the elevation in meters.**

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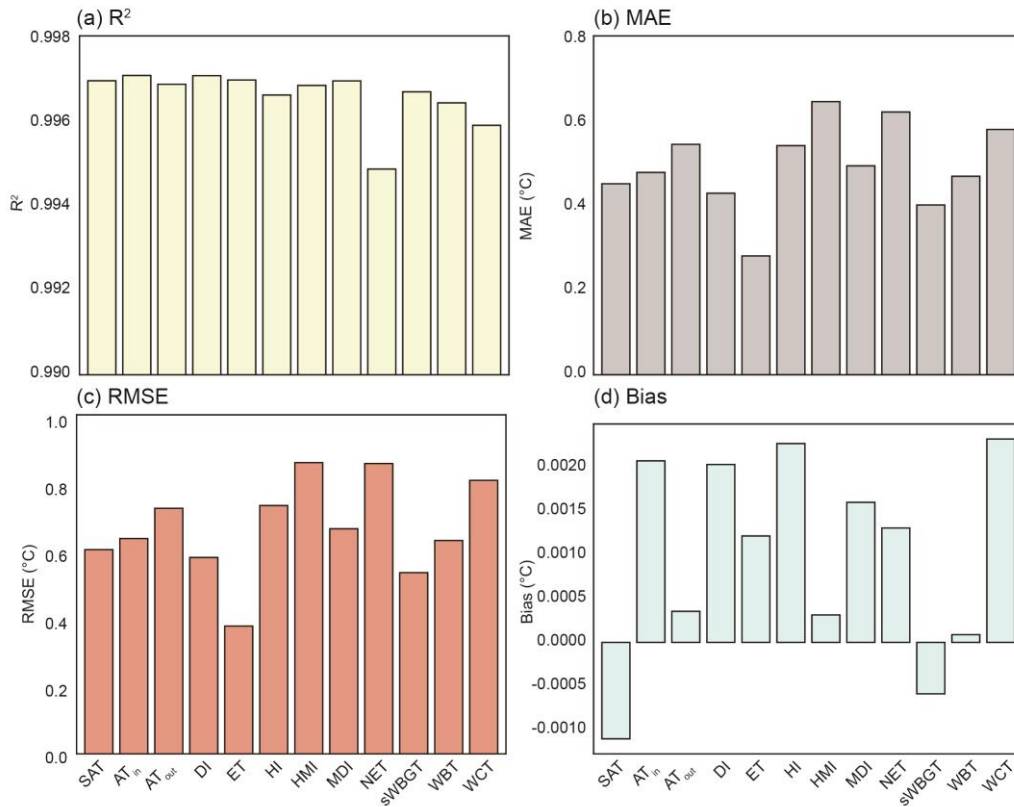
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Figure 2. Scatter plots of predictions versus observations of the 12 human thermal indices over the mainland of China during 2003–2020. (a) SAT, (b) AT_{in} , (c) AT_{out} , (d) DI, (e) ET, (f) HI, (g) HMI, (h) MDI, (i) NET, (j) sWBGT, (k) WBT, and (l) WCT.

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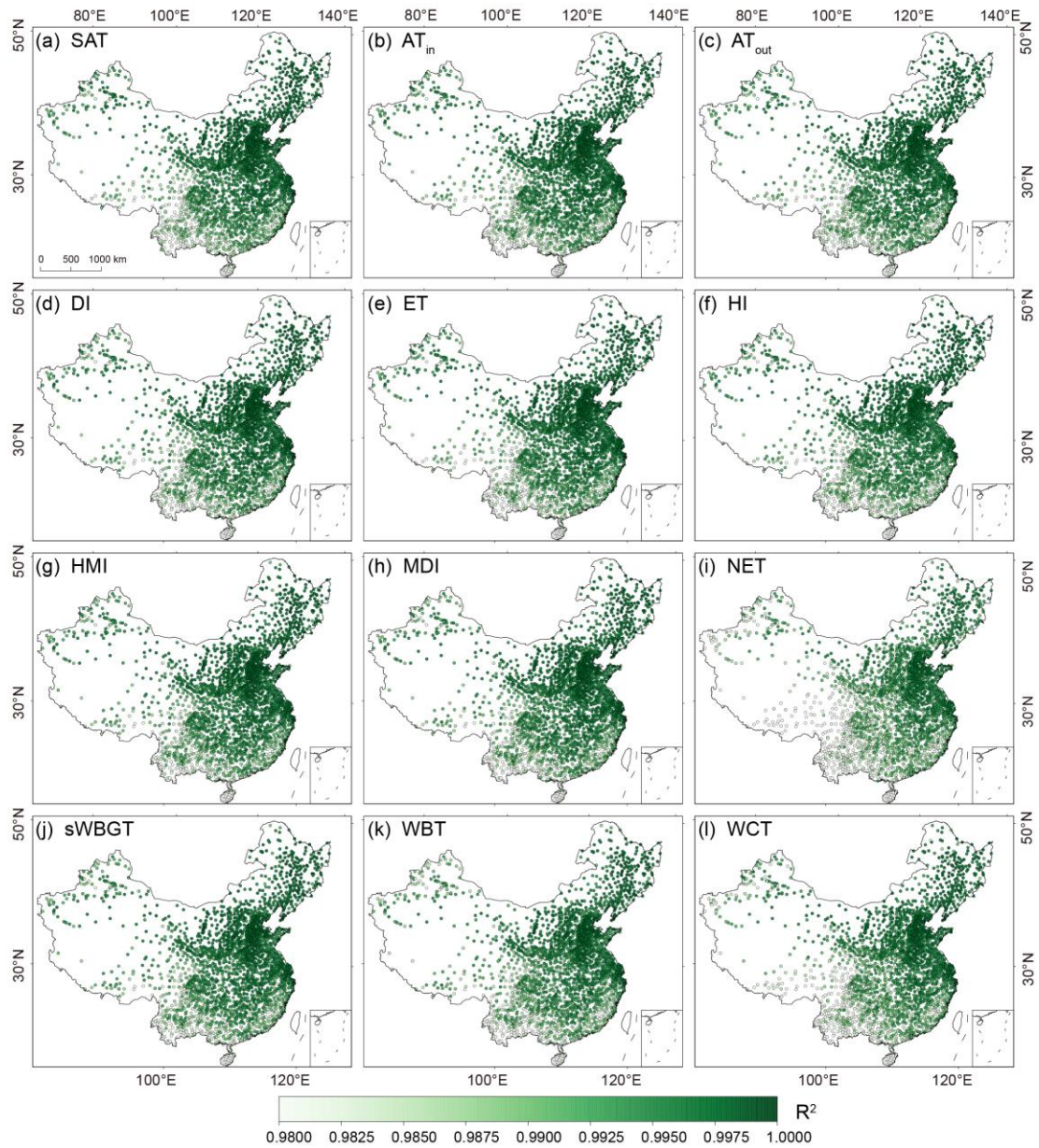
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Figure 3. Overall prediction accuracies of the 12 human thermal indices over the mainland of China during 2003–2020. (a) R^2 , (b) MAE, (c) RMSE, (d) Bias.

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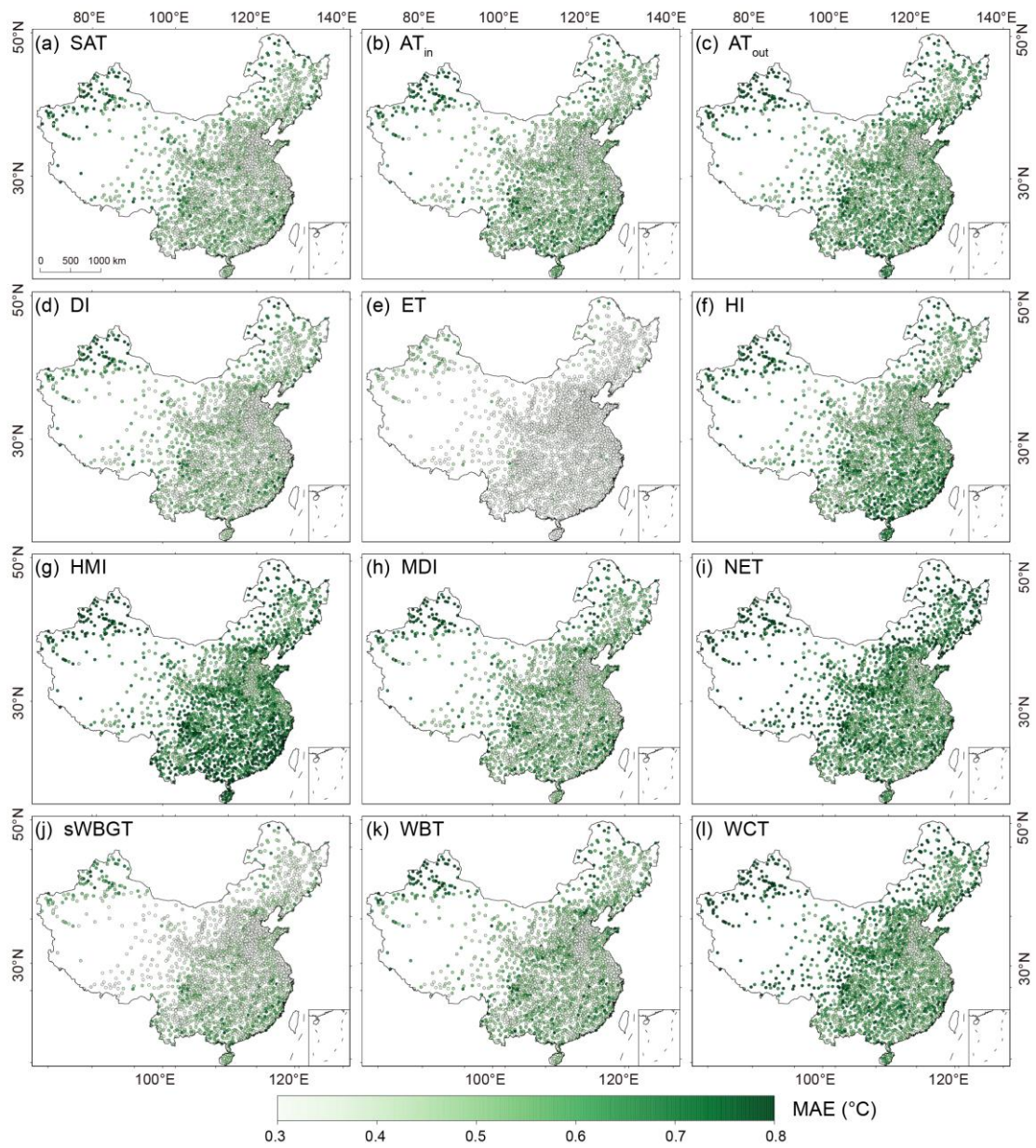
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818 **Figure 4. Spatial distribution of R^2 of the 12 human thermal index predictions at individual meteorological**
 819 **stations over the mainland of China during 2003–2020.**

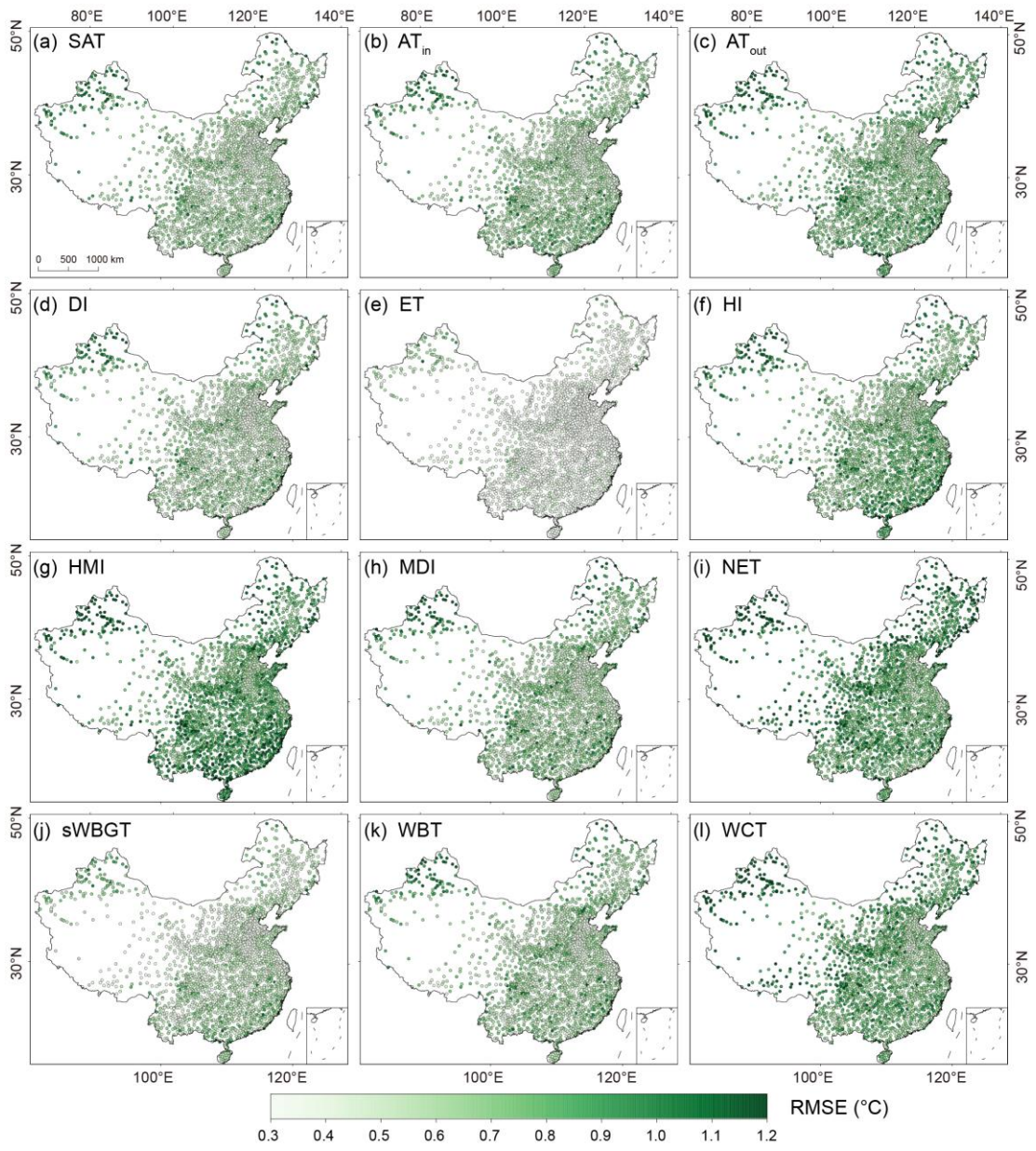
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822 **Figure 5. As Figure 4 but for MAE.**

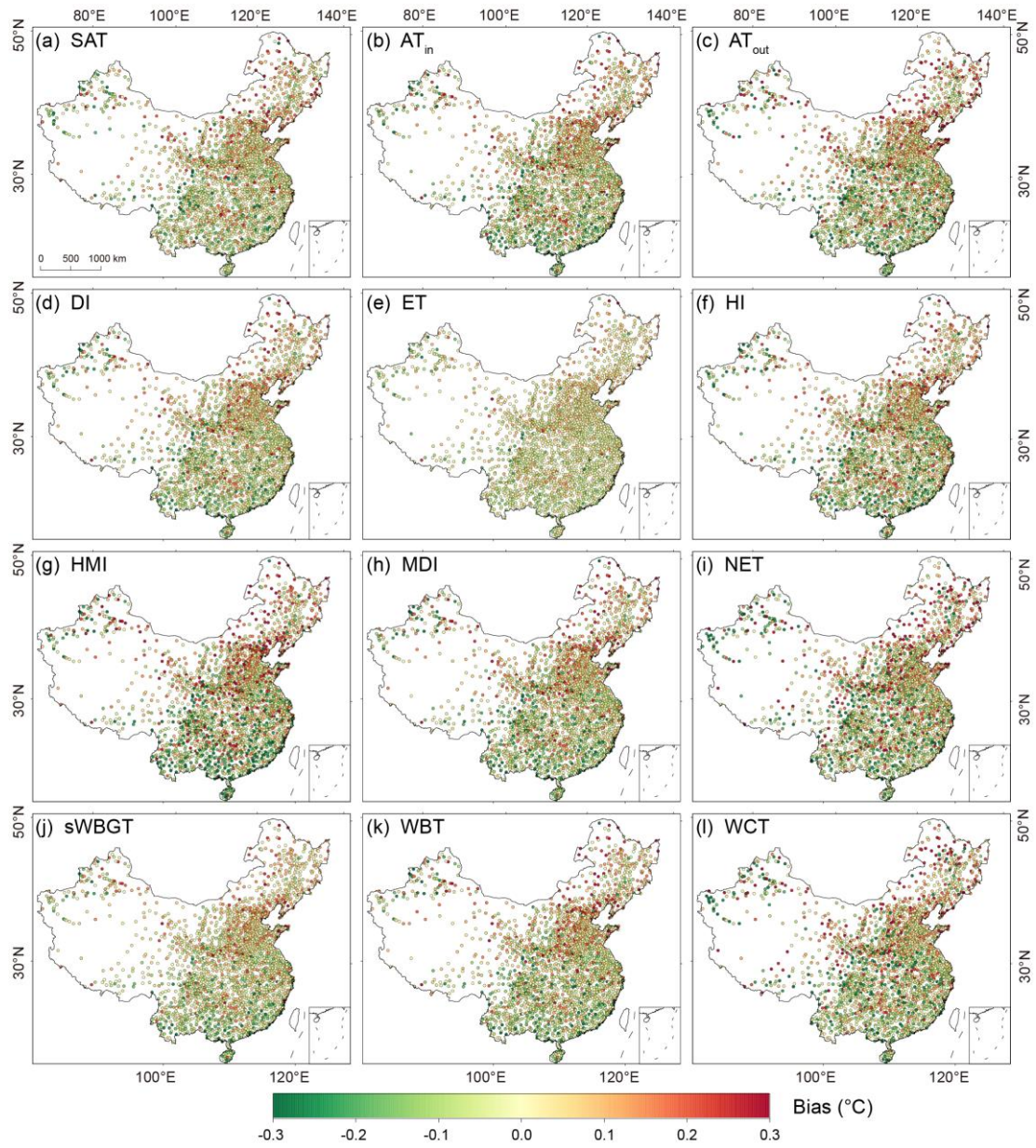
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825 **Figure 6. As Figure 4 but for RMSE.**

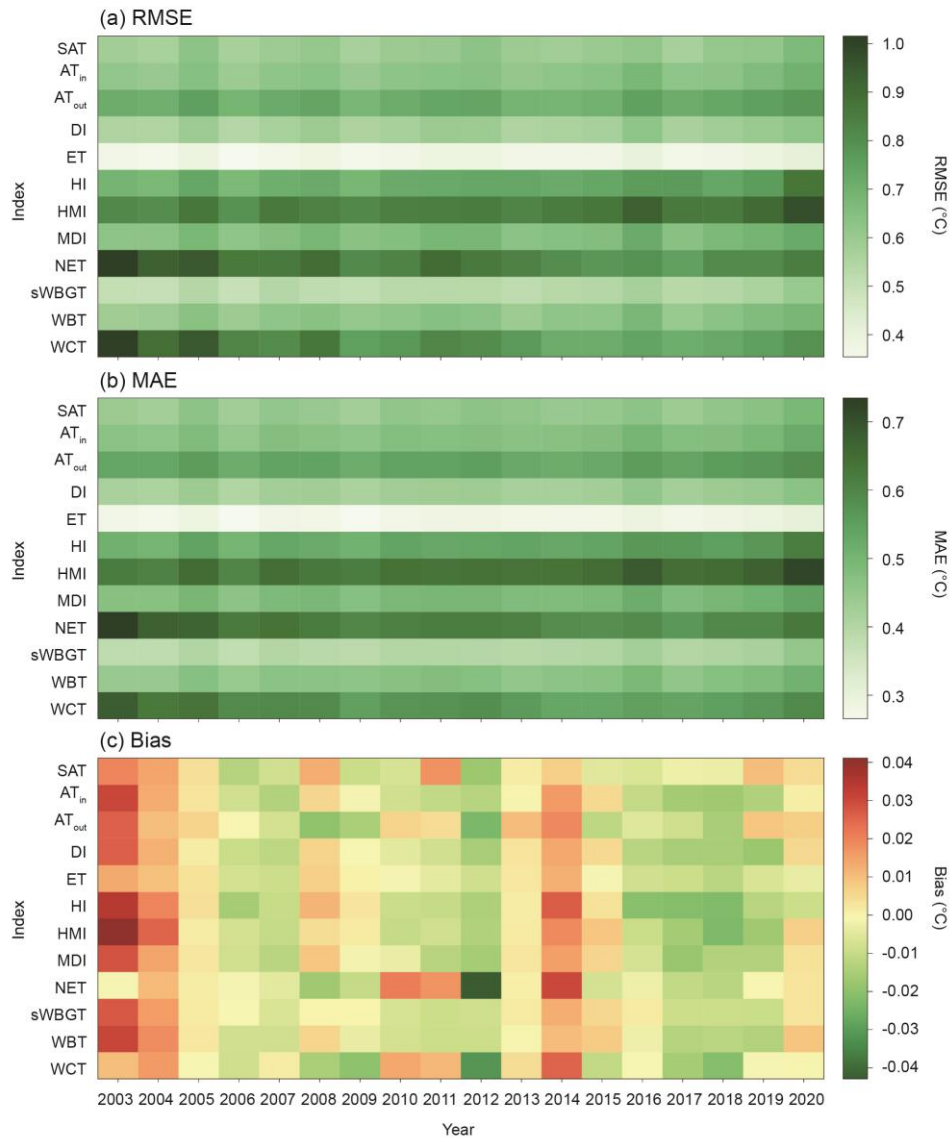
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828 **Figure 7.** As Figure 4 but for *Bias*.

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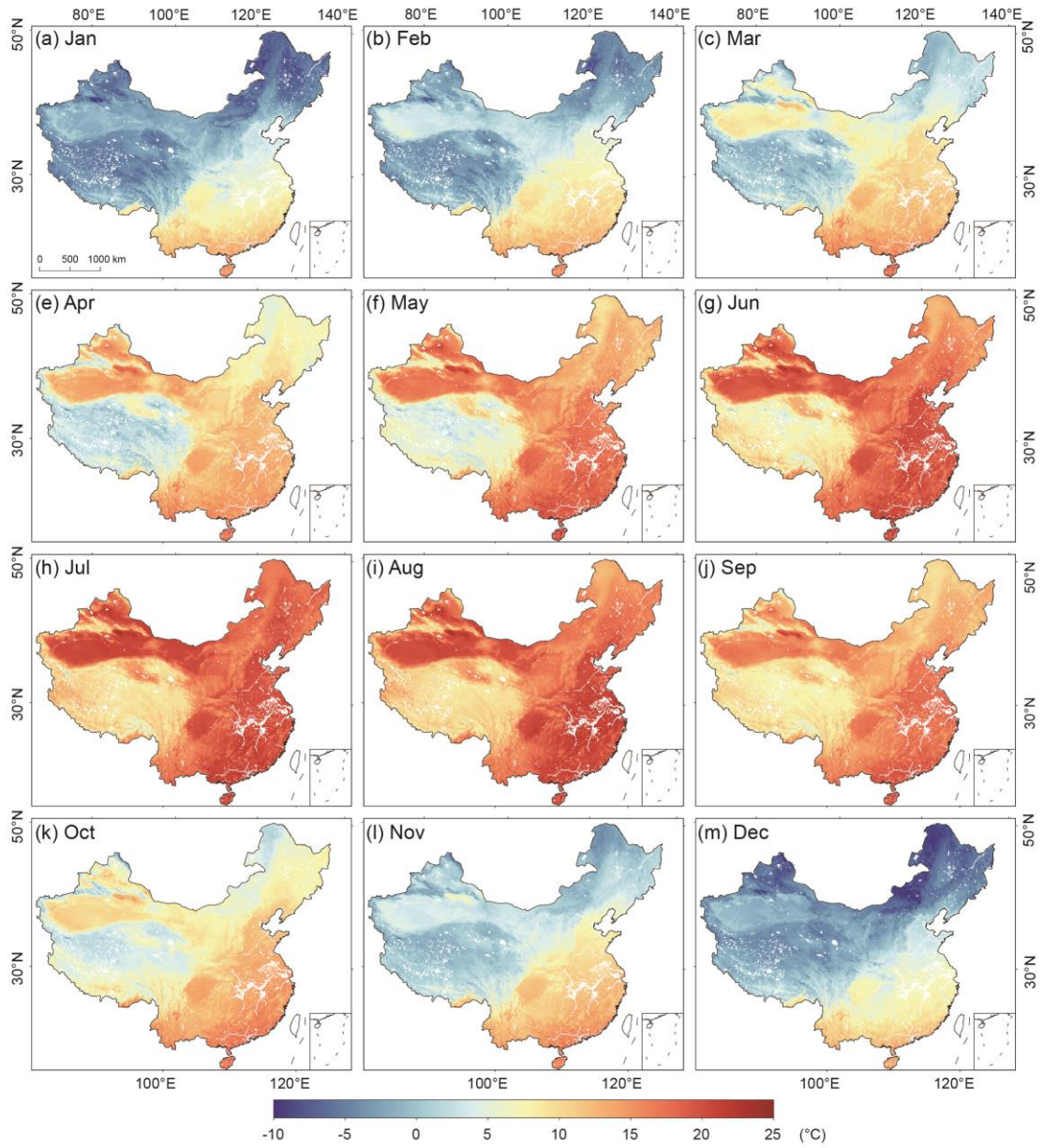


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831 **Figure 8. Annual prediction accuracies of the 12 human thermal indices over the mainland of China during**

832 **2003–2020: (a) *RMSE*, (b) *MAE*, (c) *Bias*.**

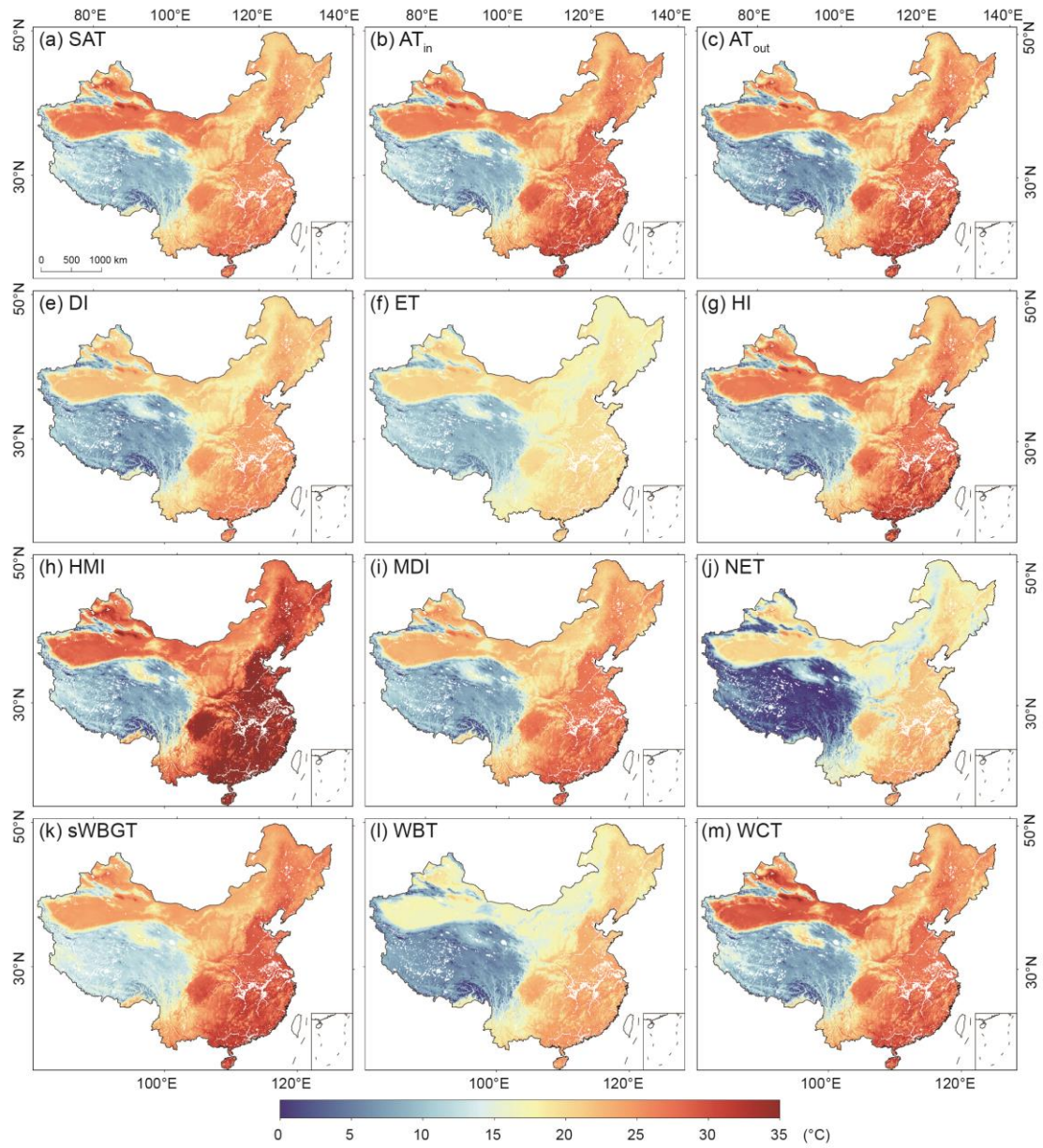
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835 **Figure 9. Spatial distributions of the monthly mean ET over the mainland of China in 2020.**

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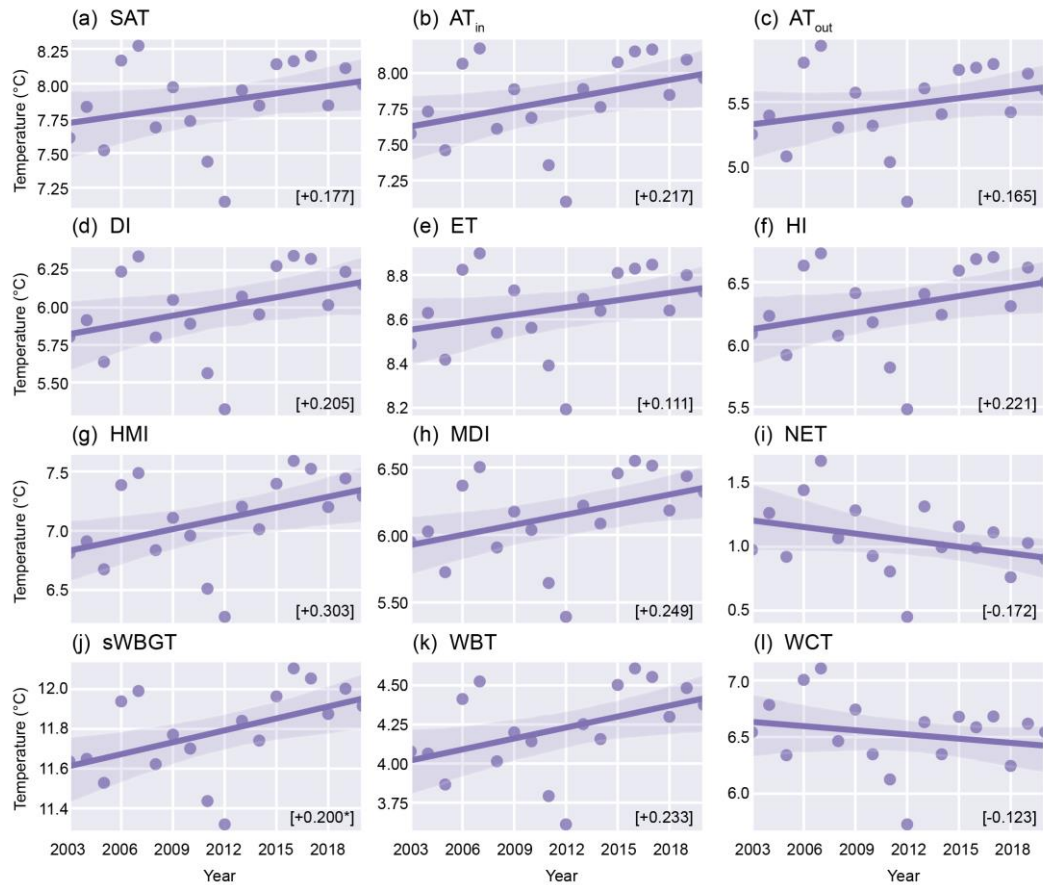


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838 **Figure 10. Spatial distributions of the 12 human thermal indices over the mainland of China in July 2020.**

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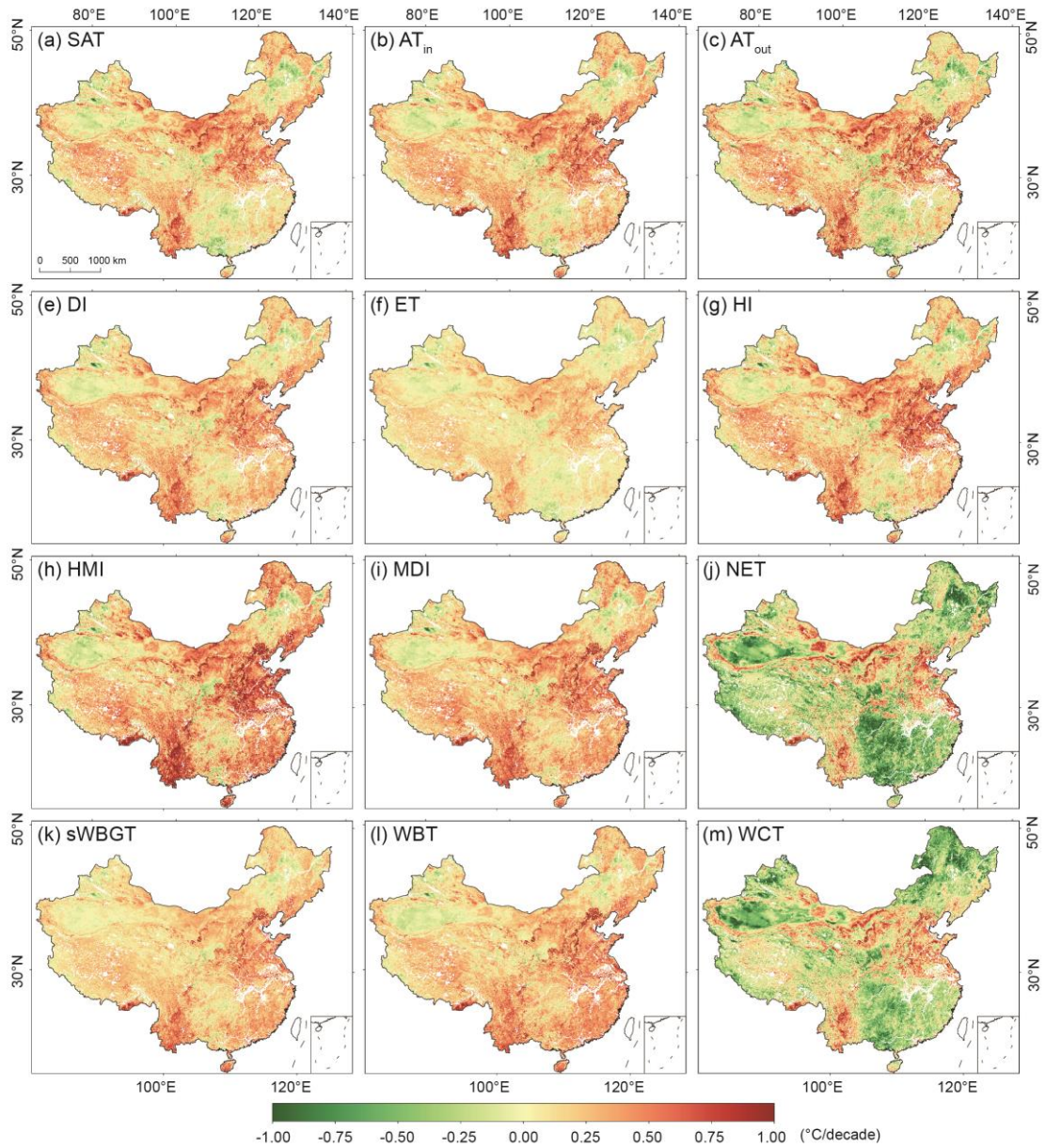
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Figure 11. Temporal changes of the 12 annually-averaged human thermal indices over the mainland of China during 2003–2020. The line illustrates the linear trend, the number in the square bracket means the corresponding trend per decade, and the asterisk next to the number indicates that the trends are significant at the 0.05 level.

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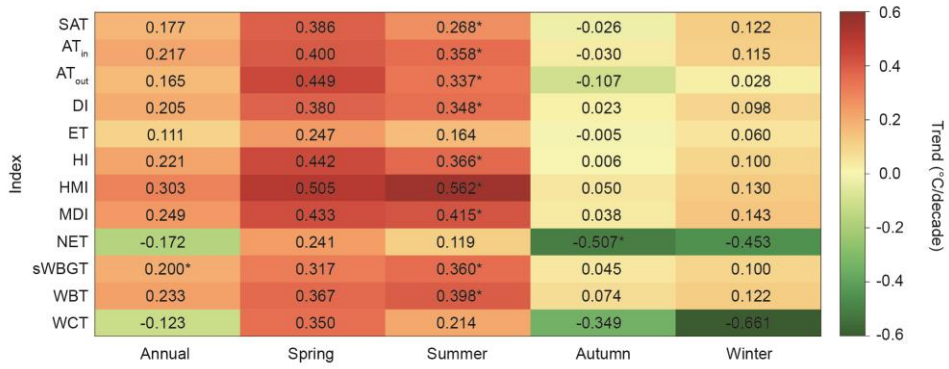
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Figure 12. Spatial distributions of the linear trends (unit: °C per decade) in the 12 annually-averaged human thermal indices over the mainland of China during 2003–2020.

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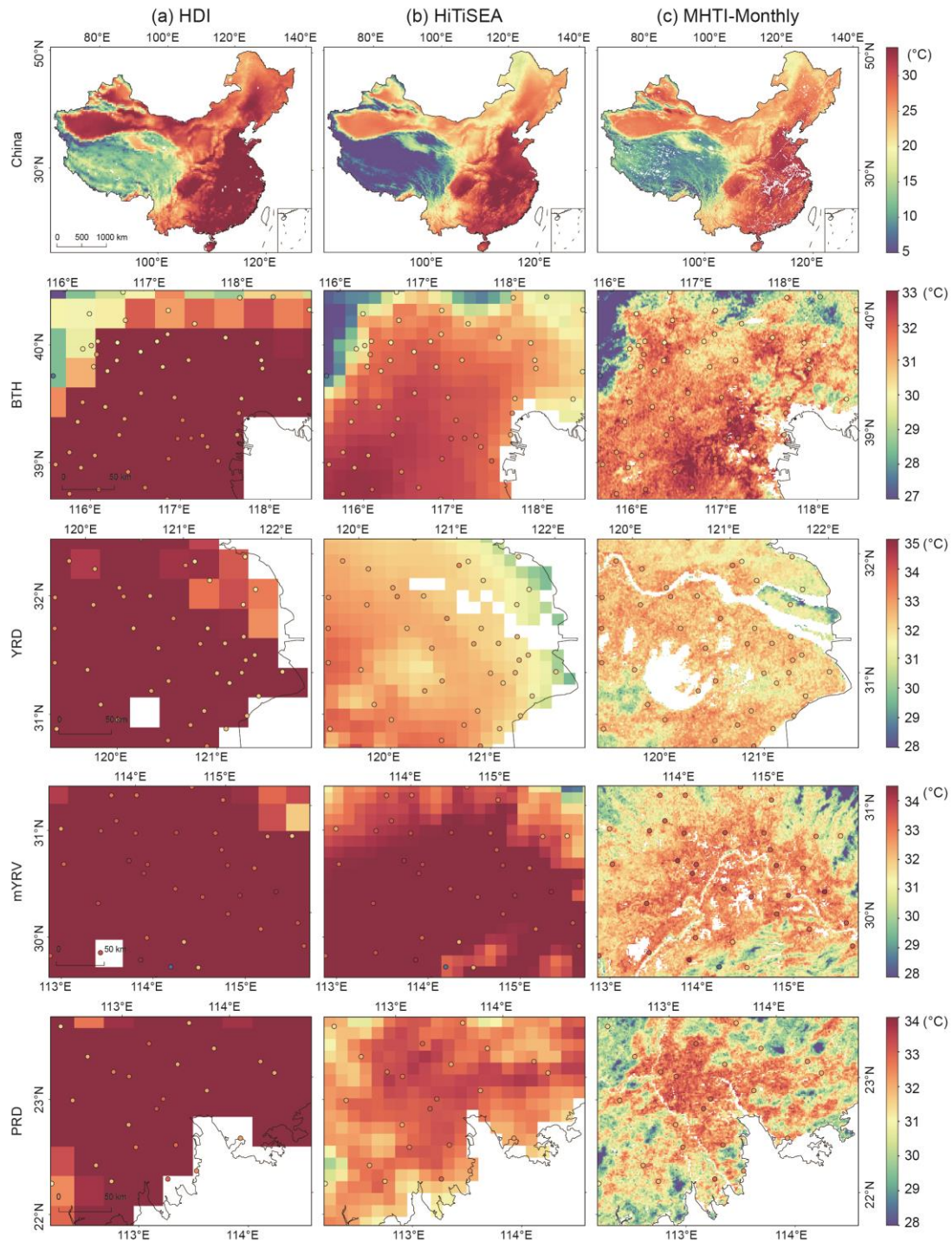
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851

852 **Figure 13. Temporal trends of the 12 annually- and seasonally-averaged human thermal indices over the**
 853 **mainland of China during 2003–2020. The number means linear trend per decade. The asterisk indicates that**
 854 **the trends are significant at the 0.05 level.**

855



856

857 **Figure 14. Comparison of the spatial patterns among HDI_0p25_1970_2018 (HDI), HiTiSEA, and HiTiC-**

858 **Monthly for AT_{in} over the mainland of China and its four largest UAs in July 2018: Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei**

859 **(BTH), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), middle Yangtze River Valley (mYRV) and Pearl River Delta (PRD).**

860 **Colored circles indicate the observed AT_{in} values at individual meteorological stations.**

861

862 **Tables**863 **Table 1. Grided datasets used in this study.**

| Category | Dataset | Spatial Resolution | Temporal Resolution | Variables | Data Source |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------|---------------------|--|---------------------------------|
| Land surface temperature | A global seamless 1 km resolution daily land surface temperature dataset (2003-2020) | 1 km | Daily | Land surface temperature | Zhang et al. (2022b) |
| Land cover | MCD12Q1.006 | 500 m | Annual | Land cover classes in 1 km grids | Sulla-Menashe and Friedl (2019) |
| Elevation | MERIT DEM: Multi-Error-Removed Improved-Terrain DEM | 90 m | / | Aggregated elevation and slope in 1 km grids | Yamazaki et al. (2017) |
| Impervious surface | Tsinghua/FROM-GLC/GAIA/v10 | 30 m | Annual | Proportion of impervious surface in 1 km grids | Gong et al. (2020) |
| Population density | WorldPop | 1 km | Annual | Population density | Gaughan et al. (2013) |
| Temporal variation | / | / | / | Year, Month | / |

864

Table 2. Equations of the human thermal indices for each station.

| Abbreviation | Human thermal index | Computation model | Reference |
|-------------------|---|--|---------------------------------|
| AT _{in} | Apparent Temperature (indoors) | $AT_{in} = -1.3 + 0.92 \times SAT + 2.2 \times E_a$ | Steadman (1979) |
| AT _{out} | Apparent Temperature (outdoors, in the shade) | $AT_{out} = -2.7 + 1.04 \times SAT + 2 \times E_a - 0.65 \times V$ | Steadman (1984) |
| DI | Discomfort Index | $DI = 0.5 \times WBT + 0.5 \times SAT$ | Sohar et al. (1963) |
| ET | Effective Temperature | $ET = SAT - 0.4 \times (SAT - 10) \times (1 - 0.001 * RH)$ | Gagge et al. (1972) |
| HI | Heat Index* | $HI^* = -8.784695 + 1.61139411 \times SAT - 2.338549 \times RH$ $- 0.14611605 \times SAT \times RH$ $- 1.2308094 \times 10^{-2} \times SAT^2$ $- 1.6424828 \times 10^{-2} \times RH^2$ $+ 2.211732 \times 10^{-3} \times SAT^2 \times RH$ $+ 7.2546 \times 10^{-4} \times SAT \times RH^2$ $+ 3.582 \times 10^{-6} \times SAT^2 \times RH^2$ | Rothfus and Headquarters (1990) |
| HMI | Humidex | $HMI = SAT + 0.5555 \times (0.1 \times E_a - 10)$ | Masterton et al. (1979) |
| MDI | Modified discomfort index | $MDI = 0.75 \times WBT + 0.38 \times SAT$ | Moran et al. (1998) |
| NET | Net Effective Temperature | $NET = 37 - \frac{37 - SAT}{0.68 - 0.0014 \times RH + \frac{1}{1.76 + 1.4 \times V^{0.75}}}$ $- 0.29 \times SAT \times (1 - 0.01 \times RH)$ | Houghton and Yaglou (1923) |
| sWBGT | simplified Wet Bulb Globe Temperature | $sWBGT = 0.567 \times SAT + 0.0393 \times E_a + 3.94$ | Gagge and Nishi (1976) |
| WBT | Wet-bulb Temperature | $WBT = SAT \times atan(0.151977 \times (RH + 8.313659)^{0.5})$ $+ atan(T + RH) - atan(RH - 1.676331)$ $+ 0.00391838 \times RH^{1.5}$ $\times atan(0.02301 \times RH) - 4.686035$ | Stull (2011) |
| WCT | Wind Chill Temperature | $WCT = 13.12 + 0.6215 \times SAT - 11.37 \times (V \times 3.6)^{0.16}$ $+ 0.3965 \times SAT \times (V \times 3.6)^{0.16}$ | Osczevski and Bluestein (2005) |

866 SAT is observed air temperature (°C), RH is relative humidity (%), V is wind speed (m/s), and E_a is
867 actual water vapor pressure (kPa). Asterisk means that an adjustment is needed. All units of human
868 thermal indices in this study are in degrees Celsius (°C).

869

870 **Table 3. Overall prediction accuracies of the 12 human thermal indices over the mainland of China during**
 871 **2003–2020.**

| Indices | R^2 | $RMSE$ (°C) | MAE (°C) | $Bias$ (°C) |
|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| SAT | 0.9969 | 0.603 | 0.451 | -0.001 |
| AT _{in} | 0.9971 | 0.635 | 0.478 | 0.002 |
| AT _{out} | 0.9969 | 0.724 | 0.544 | 0.000 |
| DI | 0.9971 | 0.579 | 0.429 | 0.002 |
| ET | 0.9970 | 0.377 | 0.281 | 0.001 |
| HI | 0.9966 | 0.733 | 0.541 | 0.002 |
| HMI | 0.9968 | 0.859 | 0.645 | 0.000 |
| MDI | 0.9969 | 0.664 | 0.493 | 0.002 |
| NET | 0.9949 | 0.856 | 0.620 | 0.001 |
| sWBGT | 0.9967 | 0.535 | 0.401 | -0.001 |
| WBT | 0.9964 | 0.629 | 0.469 | 0.000 |
| WCT | 0.9959 | 0.807 | 0.579 | 0.002 |

872

873 **Table 4. Comparisons of the four thermal index datasets.**

| | ERA5-HEAT | HDI | HiTiSEA | HiTIC- Monthly |
|---------------------|--|--|---|--|
| Spatial Resolution | 0.25°×0.25° | 0.25°×0.25° | 0.1°×0.1° | 1 km×1 km |
| Temporal Resolution | Hourly | Daily | Daily | Monthly |
| Spatial Coverage | Global | Global | South and East Asia | Mainland of China |
| Period | 1979–present | 1970–2018 | 1981–2019 | 2003–2020 |
| Thermal Indices | Mean Radiant Temperature (MRT), Universal Thermal Climate Index (UTCI) | Apparent Temperature indoors (ATind), two variants of Apparent Temperature outdoors in shade (ATot), Heat Index (HI), Humidex (HDEX), Wet Bulb Temperature (WBT), two variants of Wet Bulb Globe Temperature (WBGT), Thom Discomfort Index (DI), Windchill Temperature (WCT) | UTCI, indoor UTCI, outdoor shaded UTCI, MRT, Environment Stress Index (ESI), HI, Humidex, WBGT, WBT, WCT, AT, | SAT, ATin, ATout, DI, ET, HI, HMI, MDI, NET, sWBGT, WBT, WCT |

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