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# Updates of C-LSAT 2.1 and the development of high-

## resolution LSAT and DTR datasets

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10 Abstract. High-resolution climate datasets are of critical importance for the comprehension of spatial and temporal variations in climate and hydrology. However, 11 12 their development is significantly influenced by the availability, density, and quality of 13 observational data. Using the China global Land Surface Air Temperature 2.0 (C-LSAT 14 2.0) station data as a foundation, we collected and integrated nearly 3000 additional 15 station observations and conducted the quality control and homogenization processing 16 to complete the update of the C-LSAT 2.1 dataset. The coverage of Tavg, Tmax, and 17 Tmin in the C-LSAT 2.1 dataset has been significantly enhanced, further enhancing the representativeness of global land diurnal temperature range (DTR) data with greater 18 19 spatial heterogeneity. Compared to C-LSAT 2.0, C-LSAT 2.1 shows consistent overall 20 trends, except for a slight increase in LSAT anomaly observed in the Southern 21 Hemisphere after 2010. Furthermore, we employ a "Thin Plate Spline (climatology) + 22 Adjust Inverse Distance Weighted (anomaly fields)" technical framework to develop a high-resolution (0.5° × 0.5°) LSAT (C-LSAT HRv1) and DTR (C-LDTR HRv1) dataset 23 24 from January 1901 to December 2023. Except for some differences existing during the 25 period of 1901-1950 due to the limited number of observational stations, the C-LSAT 26 HRv1 and C-LDTR HRv1 datasets effectively capture the corresponding variation 27 patterns at both global and regional scales for the other periods. The C-LSAT 2.1 dataset can be downloaded from https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28255394.v1 (Wei et al., 28 29 2025a), while the C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LDTR HRv1 datasets are available at 30 https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28255505.v1 (Wei al., 2025c) et and 31 https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28255568.v1 (Wei et al., 2025b), respectively.

32 These can also be accessed at <u>http://www.gwpu.net</u> (last accessed: December 2024).





### 33 1 Introduction

34 Global Surface Temperature (GST) is one of the most important elements in the Earth's 35 climate system, it serves as a key indicator for monitoring and understanding climate change and directly reflects global warming (IPCC, 2007, 2013, 2021). Similarly, Land 36 37 Surface Air Temperature (LSAT), which is closely related to GST, is also of critical importance. Since global industrialization, the rising emissions of greenhouse gases, 38 39 such as carbon dioxide, have driven a rapid increase in LSAT, causing profound 40 consequences on ecosystem stability, human health, and economic production (Jones et al., 2023; Loucks, 2021). The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has 41 42 systematically summarized and assessed climate change research through its 43 assessment reports. These reports reveal the current state, future change, impacts, and 44 adaptation measures of climate change, providing the scientific foundation for policy-45 making by governments worldwide. IPCC AR6 (2021) indicates that the global land 46 temperature during 2011-2020 increased by 1.59 °C (1.34-1.83 °C) relative to preindustrial levels. 47

48 The diurnal temperature range (DTR) indicates the difference between day and 49 night temperatures, influenced by factors such as greenhouse gases, aerosols, and 50 changes in land use (Kalnay and Cai, 2003; Stjern et al., 2020). DTR exhibits significant 51 spatial heterogeneity and seasonal variations. In the latter half of the twentieth century, 52 the increase in global land surface temperature at night was greater than during the day. This trend led to the narrowing of the global DTR (Zhong et al., 2023). Furthermore, 53 54 the DTR change is strongly correlated with the probability of extreme high and low 55 temperature events. According to IPCC AR6 (2021), global DTR has been decreasing 56 since 1950, with the majority of the reduction occurring between 1960 and 1980.

57 Meteorological observation stations vary significantly in spatial distribution, 58 particularly in high-altitude mountainous areas or regions with complex terrain. 59 Additionally, disparities in temporal coverage and incomplete homogenization affect 60 the accuracy of climate change analysis (Kumar et al., 2022; Sokol et al., 2021; Viviroli et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2020). The major representative LSAT benchmark 61 62 observational datasets worldwide used in IPCC AR6 include the CRUTEM (Osborn et 63 al., 2021), GHCN (Menne et al., 2018), GISTEMP (Lenssen et al., 2024), Berkeley Earth (Rohde and Hausfather, 2020) and C-LSAT (Li et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2021), etc. 64 65 Global land DTR datasets comprise CRU TS (Harris et al., 2020), GHCNDEX (Menne et al., 2018) and the recently released C-LDTR (Xu et al., 2025), etc. Some datasets 66





provide Tmax and Tmin, enabling the calculation of DTR, such as Berkeley Earth
(Rohde and Hausfather, 2020), HadEX3 (Dunn et al., 2024), and HadGHCND (Caesar
et al., 2006).

70 Improving spatial resolution is essential for investigating regional climate change, 71 especially in quantifying the effects of topography and supporting climate research at 72 medium and small scales, which can provide more accurate support for climate 73 prediction, regional model refinement, and climate risk evaluation (Beck et al., 2018; 74 Harris et al., 2014, 2020; Kotlarski et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2018). Global high-resolution 75 LSAT datasets have been continuously developed in recent years. However, they remain 76 constrained in capturing climate change in some regions (Karger et al., 2017; Li et al., 77 2021; Wang et al., 2024; Li B et al., 2024). Therefore, it is essential to systematically 78 integrate supplementary observational networks to enhance the accuracy of datasets and 79 their capacity to capture climate change, especially at regional scales (Haylock et al., 80 2008; Li et al., 2017, 2020; Menne et al., 2012; Wu and Gao, 2013; Xu et al., 2013). 81 Long-term series datasets are conventionally generated by separately interpolating the 82 climatology field and the anomaly field, and then combining them into a complete dataset (Cheng et al., 2020; Harris et al., 2020; New et al., 1999, 2000; Schamm et al., 83 84 2014). For climatology field interpolation, common methods include the Thin Plate Spline (TPS) method (Wahba, 1990), Precipitation-elevation Regressions on 85 86 Independent Slopes Model (PRISM) method (Daly et al., 1994), and the Kriging 87 method (Cressie, 1990). When interpolating the anomaly field, the Inverse Distance 88 Weighted (IDW) method, Multiple Regression method, and Bilinear Interpolation 89 method are frequently employed. Among the above mentioned datasets, the Climatic 90 Research Unit (CRU) developed a  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$  high-resolution global LSAT dataset by 91 interpolating the climatology field and anomaly field using the TPS method and 92 Angular Distance Weighting (ADW) method (New et al., 1999, 2000). The Berkeley 93 Earth team employed the Kriging method and IDW method to construct a highresolution global LSAT dataset with a  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  resolution (Rohde et al., 2013). Fick et 94 al. (2017) developed a global 1km LSAT dataset through application of the TPS method. 95 The C-LSAT dataset integrates observational datasets from over ten global, 96 97 regional, and national sources, continuously improving data completeness and accuracy (Li, 2019; Li et al., 2021; Li Z 2023, 2024b; Sun et al., 2021, 2022; Sun and Li, 2021a, 98 99 b; Xu et al., 2018; Xu Q 2024, 2025; Yun et al., 2019). Currently, the C-LSAT group only provides datasets at  $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$  resolution (C-LSAT 2.0, including Tavg, Tmax, and 100





101 Tmin) (http://www.gwpu.net) and recently released C-LDTR (Xu et al., 2025). This 102 study aims to utilize the recently updated C-LSAT 2.1 station data for updating the C-103 LSAT 2.1 ( $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ ) gridded data (Wei et al., 2025a), and to develop corresponding 104 global high-resolution LSAT (C-LSAT HR) and DTR (C-LDTR HR) datasets at a 0.5° 105  $\times 0.5^{\circ}$  resolution (Wei et al., 2025b, c). Consequently, this study is organized into seven main sections. Section 2 details the updates and pre-processing of the C-LSAT 2.1 106 107 station data. Section 3 introduces the C-LSAT 2.1 update ( $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ ). The development and validation of the C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LDTR HRv1 datasets are presented in Sect. 108 109 4. Section 5 analyzes the spatiotemporal patterns of global and regional LSAT and DTR using high-resolution datasets  $(0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ})$ . Section 6 discusses the availability of these 110 datasets. The concluding section summarizes the key findings of the study. 111

### 112 2 Update and pre-processing of C-LSAT 2.1 station data

#### 113 2.1 Data sources and update

#### 114 2.1.1 Data integration

115 This study utilizes C-LSAT 2.0 station data (Xu et al., 2018; Yun et al., 2019), combined 116 with additional station data integrated from various countries, regions, and global 117 sources, covering the period from 2013 to 2023. Compared to the C-LSAT 2.0 station 118 data, the C-LSAT 2.1 station data significantly increased the number of observation 119 stations (Tavg increased from 15936 to 25085 stations, Tmax from 13648 to 25086 120 stations, and Tmin from 13629 to 25083 stations, as shown in Fig. 1 of Xu et al.(2025)). 121 Various data sources commonly assign different station IDs to the same station. Therefore, how to match the data from various sources with the corresponding stations 122 123 in the C-LSAT station data is a problem that requires urgent resolution. Typically, most 124 stations have a core five-digit ID. For example, the core ID for the "JAN MAYEN" 125 station is 01001. In the GSOD, it appears as 01001099999, in the CLIMATE Report as 126 01001, and in the C-LSAT station data as 601001001000. However, some stations don't 127 follow this principle, so we employ the station name or identify nearby stations to locate 128 the corresponding stations and complete the update. Notably, when the sequence of a 129 station is derived from multiple data sources, there may be homogenization 130 discrepancies, which necessitate applying calibration procedures for the specific station.

#### 131 2.1.2 Eliminating Duplicate Stations

132 When updating data from multiple sources, duplicate stations are inevitable. They





133 primarily originate from different station IDs in the data sources referring to the same 134 station, or emerge through new duplicates produced during iterative updates of the C-135 LSAT station data. Duplicate stations can affect the interpolation of both the climatology field and anomaly field, causing deviations in the interpolation results. To 136 137 address this issue, it is essential to eliminate duplicate stations. The process initiates with filtering the C-LSAT 2.1 station data to identify any duplicate stations. 138 139 Subsequently, the corresponding update sources and time series from nearby stations are plotted for comparison. A reference station is selected based on exhibiting a longer 140 141 or more reliable data continuity. The data from the duplicate stations are selectively 142 merged with the reference station or retained unmodified, ensuring the retention of a 143 single representative station for each group of duplicates (Rennie et al., 2014; Xu et al., 144 2018).

#### 145 2.1.3 Update of Climatology

146 The Tavg variable contains climatology (1961–1990) in the C-LSAT 2.1 station data including 13756 stations. Among these 11907 stations calculate Tavg using the 147 148 average of Tmax and Tmin. The remaining 1849 stations, which lacking Tmax or Tmin 149 data, are primarily derived from datasets such as CRUTEM4, HISTALP, and SCAR. 150 Compared to other datasets, the C-LSAT 2.1 station data demonstrates substantial improvements in station coverage in multiple regions, especially in East Asia. Figure 1 151 152 illustrates the C-LSAT 2.1 station data updates, compared to C-LSAT 2.0 station data, 153 the number of stations has significantly increased for Tmax, Tmin, and Tavg, 154 particularly after the 1970s. These additional stations substantially expand spatial 155 coverage, thereby enhancing the accuracy of data and reducing uncertainty after 156 gridding.







### 157



#### 159 2.2 Data pre-processing

#### 160 2.2.1 Quality control

Data quality control is a crucial step to ensure the accuracy and reliability of datasets.
By identifying and eliminating outliers, invalid data, and measurement errors, this
process reduces the influence of observational biases, ensuring the consistency and
integrity of the data.

First, when updating station data, if a station has a data record exceeding 15 years,
the newly updated data is subjected to this quality control process. Any anomaly—
defined as the difference between the updated data and the previously averaged monthly
data—that exceeds five times the standard deviation is classified as an outlier and will
be treated as missing data.
Subsequently, when generating gridded data, we should do quality control on all

station data. We follow the methods proposed by Lawrimore et al. (2011) and Menne et al. (2009) to implement the necessary quality control steps for the C-LSAT 2.1 station data. The results of the quality control process are shown in Table 1.

Climatic outlier check: Stations with monthly records exceeding 10 years
 were selected, with the period from 1961 to 1990 as the climatology. The





176	climatological mean value was subtracted from the selected stations to calculate
177	anomalies for each station. The standard deviation (STD) for each month
178	during the climatology period was subsequently calculated. Any data that
179	exceeded five times the STD for the corresponding month was flagged as an
180	outlier and excluded.
181 2.	Spatial consistency check: Based on Equation (1), the anomaly data were
182	evaluated by examining all stations. For each station i, all stations located
183	within a 500 km radius were identified, up to a maximum of 20 neighboring
184	stations (n≤20). The mean $(\bar{X})$ and standard deviation $(\sigma)$ of the anomalies for
185	these $n\!+\!1$ stations were calculated. If the absolute value of the difference
186	between the value at station i and $\bar{X}$ exceeded three times the $\sigma$ , this value
187	was classified as an outlier and removed.
188	$ X_i - \bar{X}  > 3\sigma \tag{1}$
189 3.	Internal consistency check: The Tmax, Tmin, and Tavg of station data were
190	assessed. If Tavg was larger than Tmax or Tavg was smaller than Tmin, these
191	values were identified as outliers and removed.

0.	Results of QC		
Steps	Tavg	DTR	
First step (check for outliers)	19046(0.15%)	19671(0.21%)	
Second step (spatial consistency check)	161753(1.31%)	94022(0.99%)	
Third step (internal consistency check)	6469(0.05%)	0(0%)	

192 Table 1. Quality control results for C-LSAT 2.1 station data (unit: station month).

#### 193 2.2.2 Homogenization

Data homogenization is crucial for understanding climate change. Although its influence on a global or large scale may be limited, its impacts on local regions are often substantial (Peterson et al., 1998; Ribeiro et al., 2016). It removes data discontinuities caused by non-climatic factors such as station relocations, instrument changes, and environmental transformations (e.g., urbanization), ensuring that the data accurately reflects signals of climate change (Eccel et al., 2012; Jiao et al., 2023). Homogenized data enhances reliability and reduces the influence of errors.

The homogenization process of C-LSAT station data follows the work of Xu et al. (2025). Using the method proposed by Peterson and Easterling (1994), a reference series was constructed by selecting 3–5 neighboring stations with correlation





204 coefficients greater than 0.8 relative to the target station. Based on the spatial distances 205 of these stations, a reference LSAT series was generated through a weighted average of 206 first-order differences. Subsequently, the RHTest V4 software was used to detect and 207 correct discontinuities in the target series (Wang and Feng, 2010). The PMTred 208 algorithm (derived from the Penalized Maximal t-test, PMT) in RHTest V4 served as the primary algorithm to detect discontinuities in the target station's monthly average 209 210 Tmax and Tmin series at a significance level of 5%. For any confirmed breakpoints, the 211 differences between the target series and the reference series were uniformly allocated 212 using the mean adjustment (Wang, 2008a, b). According to this procedure, we adjusted 213 726 breakpoints (in 420 stations) for the 25086 Tmax stations and 1276 breakpoints (in 214 754 stations) for the 25083 Tmin stations of the C-LSAT station data. The homogenized 215 Tmax and Tmin data were then combined into the LSAT and DTR datasets (Table 2).

216 **Table 2.** The number of breakpoints adjusted at each step of homogenization.

Breaks	Tmax	Tmin
One	244	440
Two	106	195
Three	48	67
Four or more	22	52
Total breaks	726	1276
Total adjusted stations	420	754
Total stations	25086	25083

### 217 **3 Update of C-LSAT 2.1**

Based on the C-LSAT 2.1 station data, we first applied the Climate Anomaly Method (CAM) for gridding, and reconstructed the gridded data with high and low-frequency component decomposition and empirical orthogonal telecorrelation (EOT) reconstruction methods (Sun et al., 2021), which significantly enhancing the coverage of early-period grid data. Subsequently, observational constraints were applied to increase the reliability of the data, ultimately resulting in a high-coverage, highaccuracy C-LSAT 2.1 dataset ( $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ ).

Figure 2 shows a comparison of the LSAT anomaly time series among the updated C-LSAT 2.1, C-LSAT 2.0, and other LSAT datasets, covering the global, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere regions. C-LSAT 2.1 exhibits strong





228 consistency with other LSAT datasets in the long-term trend, with all showing a 229 significant warming trend, especially the accelerated warming since the 1970s. The warming rates of C-LSAT 2.0 are 0.133±0.014, 0.145±0.016, and 0.098±0.011 °C 230 231 decade<sup>-1</sup> for the global, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere, respectively, whereas C-LSAT 2.1 shows rates of 0.131±0.015, 0.141±0.017, and 0.101±0.011 °C 232 decade<sup>-1</sup>. In C-LSAT 2.1, the warming rates in the global, Northern Hemisphere, and 233 234 Southern Hemisphere present slight changes. C-LSAT 2.1 has made optimization 235 adjustments over version 2.0. For the global, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern 236 Hemisphere, C-LSAT 2.1 is higher than C-LSAT 2.0 both before 1950 and after 2000 237 (particularly pronounced in the Southern Hemisphere). The increase before 1950 is primarily driven by improved data coverage, while changes in other periods may stem 238 239 from our eliminating duplication process and updates to new data sources. These results 240 suggest that C-LSAT 2.1 more accurately reflects the trends in LSAT changes.







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Figure 2. LSAT anomaly of C-LSAT 2.1 and other datasets from 1901 to 2023.





### 243 4 Development of C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LDTR HRv1

- 244 Building upon Cheng et al. (2020), this study also uses the TPS and Adjusted Inverse
- 245 Distance Weighted (AIDW) methods to interpolate the climatology field and anomaly
- 246 field of the C-LSAT 2.1 station data, ultimately generating the C-LSAT HRv1 and C-
- 247 LDTR HRv1 datasets with a resolution of  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ .

#### 248 4.1 Interpolation and validation of the climatology field

#### 249 4.1.1 Interpolation and region division

250 This study employs the TPS method to interpolate the climatology field (1961– 1990) of LSAT and DTR. The TPS method was initially proposed by Wahba (1990) and 251 later optimized and improved by Hutchinson et al. (Hutchinson, 1998a, 1991, 1995, 252 253 1998b; Hutchinson and Gessler, 1994), evolving into the partial TPS method, which integrates covariate-dependent interpolation, extending the previous method that was 254 255 limited to calculations based on independent variables. Based on the TPS method, Hutchinson et al. designed and developed the software ANUSPLIN, which enables 256 257 multivariable data interpolation. This software has been widely adopted for 258 meteorological data interpolation. The interpolation conducted in this study relies on it. 259 Due to the strong correlation between temperature and elevation, we selected 260 longitude, latitude, and elevation as variables for interpolating LSAT and DTR. The elevation data used in this study was obtained from the ETOPO2022 published by 261 262 NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) (available at 263 https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/etopo-global-relief-model). This dataset integrates 264 topography, bathymetry, and coastline data from regional and global datasets, providing a comprehensive and high-resolution representation of the Earth's geophysical features. 265 266 Due to the Earth's spherical shape, the TPS method is unable to achieve a unified 267 fit for the entire globe. Therefore, we must divide the globe into regions for separate 268 interpolation. This study draws on the global partitioning scheme from the CRU (New et al., 1999) and WorldClim2 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017) datasets, dividing the globe into 269 270 20 regions for interpolation. The spatial distribution is shown in Fig. 3. In terms of 271 station density, the highest density is observed around  $40^{\circ}$  N and  $40^{\circ}$  S, while the lowest 272 density occurs at the poles and the equator. After interpolating the data for each region, 273 the data from the 20 regions are merged into the global dataset. Nevertheless, one issue 274 encountered is that when using ANUSPLIN to interpolate each region, the errors at the boundaries are typically larger. To address this, when interpolating the 20 regions, the 275





- 276 boundaries of each region are extended (by 5° latitudinally and 10° longitudinally).
- 277 After interpolation, the extended areas are clipped, and the data are then merged into
- the global dataset. This approach effectively minimizes errors in the dataset.



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280 Figure 3. Spatial distribution of global LSAT (a), DTR (b) meteorological

281 observational stations and the division of 20 global regions.

### 282 4.1.2 Validation of the climatology field

283 When interpolating meteorological variables, we typically set longitude and 284 latitude as independent variables. However, whether elevation should be treated as an 285 independent variable or a covariate demands careful evaluation. There are three main indicators for evaluating the interpolation accuracy of the climatology field: the square 286 287 root of generalized cross-validation (RTGCV), mean square residual (RTMSR), and the 288 data error variance estimate (RTVAR). RTGCV quantifies the overall error of data 289 fitting during the cross-validation process, measuring the model's generalization 290 capability. RTMSR reflects how well the model fits the input data, and RTVAR 291 evaluates the uncertainty in the data. Another indicator, Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR), 292 is typically used to indicate the complexity of the fitted surface. It represents the ratio





between the Signal and the Error value in the ANUSPLIN software output file. This
value generally needs to be less than 1 to indicate that the chosen interpolation scheme
is feasible.

The parameter schemes are detailed in Table 3, and the results are illustrated in Fig. 296 297 4–5. The overall error for DTR is higher than for LSAT. Experimental results revealed that the interpolation error exhibited a marked increase when the spline order was set 298 299 to 4, compared with orders of 2 and 3. As a result, schemes A3 and B3 were excluded. In the Antarctic (region 20), the 4 indicators of LSAT demonstrated substantial 300 301 increases, indicating that our data exhibit a large error in this area. Moreover, during 302 interpolation in the Antarctic, we found that the station density is notably low and 303 unevenly distributed. Considering the increased error mentioned before, both LSAT and 304 DTR for the Antarctic were excluded from this study. Future research will conduct a 305 more detailed and comprehensive investigation of the data in the Antarctic. Thus, the 306 subsequent contents of this study exclude the Antarctic (region 20). Following the 307 exclusion of the Antarctic, we compared the SNR, RTGCV, RTMSR, and RTVAR for the remaining 19 regions. It was found that both LSAT and DTR attained the best results 308 309 with scheme B2 (Table 4). We adopted this scheme for interpolating the climatology fields of LSAT and DTR. 310

Experiments	Independent spline variables	Covariates	Order of spline
A1	Lat, Lon	Ele	2
A2	Lat, Lon	Ele	3
A3	Lat, Lon	Ele	4
B1	Lat, Lon, Ele	/	2
B2	Lat, Lon, Ele	/	3
B3	Lat, Lon, Ele	/	4

311 **Table 3.** Climatology field interpolation schemes.

312





	Variables	Experiments	SNR	RTGCV	RTMSR	RTVAR
		A1	0.41	0.98	0.70	0.82
		A2	0.28	1.00	0.79	0.89
	ICAT	A3	0.21	1.05	0.88	0.96
	LSAI	B1	0.27	0.98	0.77	0.87
		B2	0.36	0.91	0.68	0.78
		B3	0.35	0.91	0.68	0.78
		A1	0.37	1.65	1.23	1.42
		A2	0.33	1.67	1.28	1.45
	ртр	A3	0.23	1.72	1.43	1.57
	DIK	<b>B</b> 1	0.42	1.65	1.21	1.41
		B2	0.36	1.62	1.22	1.40
		B3	0.34	1.63	1.24	1.42
2.5		SNR		2.5	RTG	CV
				2		A
00	5	10 15	20	0	5 10 DTV	15
2.5 2 1.5 0.5		RTMSR		2.5 2 1.5 1 0.5	RTV	AR
0	5	10 15	20	0	5 10	15
		A1	A2 — A3	3 — B1 —	B2 — B3	ca.

313 **Table 4.** Results of the climatology field interpolation schemes.



315 Figure 4. Cross-validation results of LSAT climatology field.

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318 Based on the cross-validation results, we evaluate the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) 319 and Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) of the climatology fields for the C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LDTR HRv1 datasets (Fig. 6). For C-LSAT HRv1, the MAE and RMSE in the 320 321 Southern Hemisphere are smaller than the global average, whereas in the Northern 322 Hemisphere are greater than that in the global. In contrast to C-LSAT HRv1, the MAE 323 and RMSE of the C-LDTR HRv1 dataset show an opposite trend. The MAE and RMSE 324 reveal more significant asymmetries in both seasonal and regional performance, with 325 larger variability.







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Figure 6. MAE and RMSE validation results of the climatology fields for C-LSAT
HRv1 (a–b) and C-LDTR HRv1 (c–d).

#### 329 4.2 Interpolation and validation of the anomaly field

In this study, the Adjusted Inverse Distance Weighting (AIDW) method (Cheng et
al., 2020) was employed for spatial interpolation of the monthly anomalies from 1901
to 2023.

IDW assumes that spatially neighboring data points exhibit higher spatial autocorrelation, and the closer a sample point is to the prediction point, the greater its influence on the predicted value. The IDW method assigns weights to sample points based on the inverse of the distance and then calculates the weighted average of the values from each sample point. The equation is as follows:

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i T_i$$
(2)

339

$$W_i = \frac{d_i^{-\alpha}}{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i^{-\alpha}}$$
(3)

341 T represents the value at the prediction point,  $T_i$  is the value at a given sample 342 point,  $W_i$  is the weight of the sample point, n is the number of selected sample points, 343  $d_i$  is the distance from the sample point to the prediction point, and  $\alpha$  is the parameter 344 that controls how the weight decays with distance. When using traditional IDW





interpolation, the weight exhibits rapid increase, even reaching infinity, as the distance
between two points approaches zero. This leads to the sample point having an
excessively high weight, which distorts the final estimated value. Building upon the
ADW method (New et al., 2000), this study modifies the weight calculation method of
the original IDW. The equation is as follows:

350 
$$W_i = \frac{\left(e^{d_i/d_0}\right)^{-\alpha}}{\sum_{i=1}^n (e^{d_i/d_0})^{-\alpha}}$$
(4)

 $d_0$  is the decay distance. Following the CRU05 (New et al., 2000), we adopted values of 1200 km for LSAT interpolation and 750 km for DTR interpolation. Empirical testing revealed that the optimal results were achieved when n = 6 and  $\alpha$  = 4 (Cheng et al., 2020). The AIDW method introduces an exponential decay relationship between distance and weight, ensuring that the maximum weight does not exceed 1. The decay curve is moderated, leading to a more reasonable distribution of weights.

357 After interpolating the anomaly fields of LSAT and DTR data, we analyze their 358 MAE and RMSE (Fig. 7). The results demonstrate that the trends of LSAT and DTR exhibit strong coherence, both showing initial declines, reaching a minimum during the 359 360 1960–1990 period, and rebounding thereafter. This is strongly correlated with the 361 number of stations, and their trends are essentially opposite. The trend in the Northern 362 Hemisphere is largely consistent with the global trend. For LSAT, the Southern Hemisphere is lower than the Northern Hemisphere and globe from 1901 to 1960, but 363 364 become slightly higher after 1960. Regarding DTR, the variability in MAE and RMSE in the Southern Hemisphere are significantly higher than those in the Northern 365 Hemisphere and globe. During the 1901-1960 period, the three series are almost 366 identical, but after 1960, the MAE and RMSE in the Southern Hemisphere remain 367 consistently higher than those in the Northern Hemisphere and globe. 368









Figure 7. MAE and RMSE validation results of the anomaly fields for C-LSAT HRv1
(a-b) and C-LDTR HRv1 (c-d).

### 372 5 Spatiotemporal analysis of global LSAT and DTR

### 373 5.1 C-LSAT HRv1 climatology field

After interpolating the C-LSAT HRv1 climatology field, we assessed its performance 374 375 across the globe, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere. The highest LSAT for the globe and Northern Hemisphere are observed in July, reaching 20.3 °C and 376 21.3 °C, respectively, while the lowest are recorded in January at 5.3 °C and -1.4 °C, 377 378 respectively. The Southern Hemisphere exhibits the opposite pattern, with the highest 379 and lowest LSAT observed in January (24.6 °C) and July (17.4 °C), respectively (Fig. 380 8). After excluding the Antarctic data, the Southern Hemisphere contains a smaller land 381 area, thus resulting in less influence on the global LSAT weight. As for the spatial distribution, LSAT shows a dependency on both latitude and elevation, with 382 383 significantly lower in high-latitude regions (such as Northern North America and 384 Northern Asia) and high-elevation areas (such as the Tibetan Plateau and the Andes) 385 compared to other regions (Fig. 9).







386

387 Figure 8. The LSAT for the C-LSAT HRv1 climatology field.



388

389 Figure 9. Spatial distribution of the LSAT for the C-LSAT HRv1 climatology field.

#### 390 5.2 C-LSAT HRv1 anomaly field

#### 391 5.2.1 Global and hemispheric scales

The LSAT anomaly variations of C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LSAT 2.1 from 1901 to 2023 for the globe, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere are presented in Fig. 10. The anomaly trends obtained in C-LSAT HRv1 are largely consistent with C-





395 LSAT 2.1, with warming rates of  $0.131 \pm 0.015$ ,  $0.140 \pm 0.017$ , and  $0.107 \pm 0.012$  °C 396 decade<sup>-1</sup> for the globe, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere, respectively. 397 The LSAT change trends for the globe and Northern Hemisphere demonstrate comparable patterns, with warming predominantly concentrated in two periods: the 398 399 1900–1930s and the 1970–2020s, with accelerated warming in the latter period. A slight cooling trend emerges in the middle period, from the 1940s to the 1960s. The warming 400 401 in the Southern Hemisphere is relatively slower and continues throughout the entire 1901-2023 period without experiencing the cooling trend observed in the global and 402 403 Northern Hemisphere during the 1940-1960s. Its warming rate also undergoes a 404 pronounced acceleration after the 1970s.

Table 5 presents the annual warming rates of the C-LSAT HRv1 for different periods. The change is most gradual during 1901–1950, but after 1951, the warming rate sharply increase, peaking in 1979, followed by a moderate decline in 1998. This suggests that during the 1998–2014 hiatus, although no cooling is detected, the warming rate is reduced.

410 Spatially, the LSAT across the globe, northern, and southern hemispheres show a steady upward trend from 1901 to 2023, with recent years frequently establishing new 411 412 highest records for LSAT (with the Southern Hemisphere exhibiting a more gradual increase). The LSAT change trend indicates continuous warming globally from 1901 to 413 414 2023, with the fastest warming occurring in regions such as Northern North America, 415 Eastern South America, Eastern Europe, and Eastern Asia (Fig. 11). Regarding different 416 periods, the fastest warming was observed between 1998-2023 (particularly in areas 417 north of 60° N), while the slowest warming occurred during 1901–1950 (Fig. 12).







418

419 **Figure 10.** The LSAT anomaly in the globe (a), Northern Hemisphere (b), and

420 Southern Hemisphere (c) from 1901 to 2023 for both C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LSAT 2.1.







421

### 422 Figure 11. Spatial distribution of the LSAT change rate for the C-LSAT HRv1

423 anomaly field from 1901 to 2023.



424

425 Figure 12. Spatial distribution of the LSAT change rates for the C-LSAT HRv1

- 426 anomaly field during 1901–1950 (a), 1951–2023 (b), 1979–2023 (c), and 1998–2023
- 427 (d).





428 Table 5. The LSAT change rates and their 95% confidence intervals for C-LSAT

429 HRv1 in the globe, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere over five

430 different periods (°C decade<sup>-1</sup>).

	1901–1950	1901–2023	1951–2023	1979–2023	1998–2023
Globe	$0.096 \pm 0.033*$	0.131 ± 0.015*	$0.243 \pm 0.026*$	$0.329 \pm 0.041*$	$0.303 \pm 0.086*$
Northern Hemisphere	$0.108 \pm 0.037*$	$0.140 \pm 0.017*$	$0.265 \pm 0.030*$	$0.371 \pm 0.047*$	$0.330 \pm 0.091 *$
Southern Hemisphere	$0.063 \pm 0.034*$	$0.107 \pm 0.012*$	$0.179 \pm 0.022*$	$0.208 \pm 0.041*$	0.228 ± 0.110*

### 431 **5.2.2 Continental scale**

432	At the continental scale, both C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LSAT 2.1 show a warming
433	trend across all six continental domains since the early 20th century, with this trend
434	intensified after the 1970s and manifesting regional differences (Fig. 13). The warming
435	is pronounced in Asia, Europe, and North America, whereas it remains comparatively
436	moderated in South America, Africa, and Oceania, reflecting the different responses of
437	the climate system to global warming. Both datasets are consistent in their long-term
438	trends; however, differences in short-term fluctuations may stem from variations in
439	spatial resolution and processing methods.







440

441 Figure 13. The LSAT anomaly for C-LSAT HRv1 and C-LSAT 2.1 in different

442 continents from 1901 to 2023.

### 443 5.3 C-LDTR HRv1 climatology field

444 Figure 14 shows that the monthly average DTR of the C-LDTR HRv1 climatology 445 field reverse in May for the globe, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere. The global DTR reaches its maximum in April (11.8 °C) and attains its minimum in 446 447 December (10.8 °C). In the Northern Hemisphere, the DTR peaks in April (12.0 °C) 448 and reaches its minimum in November (10.6 °C), while in the Southern Hemisphere, 449 the peak occurs in August (13.2 °C) and the minimum in February (11.0 °C). The 450 Southern Hemisphere shows the largest DTR variation, significantly larger than that of 451 the global and Northern Hemispheres, primarily attributed to the smaller land area in 452 the Southern Hemisphere, resulting in higher sensitivity. This difference reflects the 453 combined impact of solar radiation, surface characteristics, and seasonal changes on the 454 climate system. Spatially, DTR depends not only on elevation but also is influenced by





455 land use and land cover in the region. DTR is higher in mountainous, plateau areas, and





458 Figure 14. The DTR for the C-LDTR HRv1 climatology field.



459

457

460 Figure 15. Spatial distribution of the DTR for the C-LDTR HRv1 climatology field.

### 461 **5.4 C-LDTR HRv1 anomaly field**

#### 462 5.4.1 Global and hemispheric scales

463 The DTR anomaly changes of C-LDTR HRv1 for the globe, Northern Hemisphere,





464 and Southern Hemisphere from 1901 to 2023 are presented in Fig. 16. During 1950-465 2010, C-LDTR HRv1 remains highly consistent with the C-LDTR, with change rates of  $-0.031 \pm 0.006$ ,  $-0.038 \pm 0.006$ , and  $-0.011 \pm 0.011$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> for the globe, 466 Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere, respectively. However, there are 467 notable discrepancies before 1950 and after 2010. From 1901 to 1950, the station 468 number is limited, leading to greater uncertainty, which is why the differences between 469 470 the two datasets are more pronounced. This is particularly apparent in the Southern Hemisphere, where the DTR fluctuations and the differences between the two datasets 471 472 are significantly larger than those in the globe and Northern Hemisphere. After 2010, 473 the reduction in DTR (or Tmax and Tmin) station data lead to the differences between 474 C-LDTR HRv1 and C-LDTR, which is further reflected in other DTR datasets (Xu et 475 al., 2025). The DTR is stable during the 1900–1940s and 1980–1990s, declines during 476 the 1950–1970s, and shows a slight increase after the 2000s. Table 6 shows the DTR change rates of C-LDTR HRv1 for different periods. The 477 478 change rate is stable from 1901 to 1950, then initiates a decline in 1951, stabilizes again 479 in 1979, and peaks at 1998. The DTR change rate in the Southern Hemisphere is more pronounced than that in the globe and Northern Hemisphere. 480 481 It is noteworthy that there is no obvious spatial pattern in the changes in the DTR.

482 During the period of most significant change: 1998–2023, the regions with the most
483 rapid DTR increases are North America, Europe, and Oceania, whereas other regions,
484 including Africa, East Asia, South Asia, and the Middle East, demonstrate a pronounced
485 downward trend (Fig. 17–18).







486

487 Figure 16. The DTR anomaly in the globe (a), Northern Hemisphere (b), and
488 Southern Hemisphere (c) from 1901 to 2023 for both C-LDTR HRv1 and C-LDTR.







489

490 Figure 17. Spatial distribution of the DTR change rate for the C-LDTR HRv1

491 anomaly field from 1901 to 2023.



492

493 **Figure 18.** Spatial distribution of the DTR change rates for the C-LDTR HRv1

494 anomaly field during 1901–1950 (a), 1951–2023 (b), 1979–2023 (c), and 1998–2023
495 (d).



.



496 **Table 6.** The DTR change rates and their 95% confidence intervals for C-LDTR

497 HRv1 in the globe, Northern Hemisphere, and Southern Hemisphere over five

498 different periods (°C decade<sup>-1</sup>).

	1901–1950	1901–2023	1951-2023	1979–2023	1998–2023	
Globe	$0.007\pm0.022$	$-0.031 \pm 0.006*$	$-0.023 \pm 0.013*$	$0.044 \pm 0.018*$	$0.097 \pm 0.032*$	
Northern	$0.011 \pm 0.020$	$0.038 \pm 0.006*$	$0.021 \pm 0.012*$	0.022 + 0.020*	0.088 ± 0.035*	
Hemisphere	$0.011 \pm 0.020$	$-0.038 \pm 0.000^{\circ}$	$-0.031 \pm 0.013$	$0.032 \pm 0.020^{\circ}$	$0.088 \pm 0.033^{\circ}$	
Southern	0.004 ± 0.050	0.011 + 0.011	0.001 ± 0.022	0.021 + 0.024*	0 124 + 0 085*	
Hemisphere	-0.004 ± 0.030	-0.011 ± 0.011	$0.001 \pm 0.022$	$0.081 \pm 0.034^{\circ}$	$0.124 \pm 0.085^{\circ}$	

### 499 5.4.2 Continental scale

500	Based on the C-LDTR HRv1 and C-LDTR datasets, Fig. 19 illustrates the complex
501	variation characteristics and significant regional differences of DTR across six
502	continents between 1901 and 2023. DTR in Asia, Africa, and South America shows a
503	downward trend, whereas the changes in Europe, North America, and Oceania remain
504	relatively stable. Europe demonstrates a general upward trend throughout the entire
505	1901-2023 period, while DTR in the remaining five continents declines before the
506	1970s but rebounds after 2010.







507

Figure 19. The DTR anomaly for C-LDTR HRv1 and C-LDTR in different continentsfrom 1901 to 2023.

### 510 6 Data availability

website at 511 The C-LSAT 2.1 dataset is publicly available on the https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28255394.v1 (Wei et al., 2025a). The C-LSAT 512 HRv1 can be downloaded at https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28255505.v1 (Wei et 513 514 al., 2025c). The C-LDTR HRv1 be downloaded can at https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28255568.v1 (Wei et al., 2025b). They can also be 515 516 accessed at http://www.gwpu.net (last accessed: December 2024) for free.

### 517 7 Conclusions

518 This study provides a comprehensive overview of the updates made to the C-LSAT 2.1

519 station data and grid data ( $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ ). On this basis, the high-resolution ( $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ ) LSAT





(C-LSAT HRv1) and DTR (C-LDTR HRv1) datasets are developed. The key
characteristics of the C-LSAT 2.1 station data, C-LSAT 2.1, C-LSAT HRv1, and CLDTR HRv1 datasets are summarized below:

1. C-LSAT 2.1 station data supplemented and integrated meteorological observational data from various sources, resulting in a substantial enhancement in global station coverage. After filtering based on the reference period (1961–1990), the number of stations for LSAT and DTR is 13756 and 11907, respectively. The number of stations peaks in the 1970–1980s, followed by a slight decline.

528 2. The updated station data was utilized for gridded interpolation and EOT
529 reconstruction (C-LSAT 2.1). Compared to C-LSAT 2.0, the LSAT change trends at the
530 global and hemispheric scales exhibit no significant change in C-LSAT 2.1.

531 3. Comparative analysis of C-LSAT HRv1 with other LSAT datasets. The results 532 show minor discrepancies in the period from 1901 to 1950, but the trends thereafter 533 demonstrate strong coherence. During the climatology period (1961–1990), the highest 534 LSAT in C-LSAT HRv1 are 20.3 °C (July) for the globe, 21.3 °C (July) for the Northern Hemisphere, and 24.6 °C (January) for the Southern Hemisphere. The lowest LSAT are 535 5.3 °C (January) globally, -1.4 °C (January) in the Northern Hemisphere, and 17.4 °C 536 537 (July) in the Southern Hemisphere. The 1901–2023 warming rates for C-LSAT HRv1 are  $0.131 \pm 0.015$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> globally,  $0.140 \pm 0.017$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> for the Northern 538 539 Hemisphere, and  $0.107 \pm 0.012$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> for the Southern Hemisphere.

540 4. By comparing C-LDTR HRv1 with other DTR datasets, we find differences between the datasets before 1950 and after 2010, with the former showing pronounced 541 542 discrepancies, especially in the Southern Hemisphere. Notably, strong consistency is 543 observed in other periods. The monthly variation of the DTR during the climatology period differs significantly from LSAT, with the highest DTR reaching 11.8 °C (April) 544 545 globally, 12.0 °C (April) in the Northern Hemisphere, and 13.2 °C (August) in the Southern Hemisphere. Whereas the lowest values are 10.8 °C (December) globally, 546 547 10.6 °C (November) in the Northern Hemisphere, and 11.0 °C (February) in the 548 Southern Hemisphere. Over the 1901-2023 period, the C-LDTR HRv1 shows the change rates of  $-0.031 \pm 0.006$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> globally,  $-0.038 \pm 0.006$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> for the 549 Northern Hemisphere, and  $-0.011 \pm 0.011$  °C decade<sup>-1</sup> for the Southern Hemisphere. 550 551 In summary, C-LSAT HRv1 maintains high consistency with other LSAT datasets. 552 In contrast, there are some differences between C-LDTR HRv1 and various DTR

553 datasets. Early-period discrepancies are primarily attributable to the limited number of





- 554 stations. The reduction in DTR (or Tmax and Tmin) station data lead to differences
- between C-LDTR HRv1 and other DTR datasets in later periods.
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- 558 original draft preparation, writing review & editing. QL: conceptualization, funding
- 559 acquisition, investigation, methodology, project administration, resources, software,
- 560 supervision, writing review & editing. QX: data curation, formal analysis, resources,
- 561 visualization. ZL: data curation, formal analysis, resources. HZ: resources, validation.
- 562 JL: resources, validation.
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