



1 HiMIC-Daily: A high-resolution (daily and 1 km) multi-indicator 2 atmospheric moisture collection over China, 2003–2020

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14

15 Abstract

16 Near-surface atmospheric moisture is a fundamental component of the hydrological
17 cycle and plays a key role in regulating land-atmosphere exchanges and surface energy
18 partitioning. Reliable daily high-resolution moisture data are essential for regional
19 climate analysis and fine-scale applications, particularly for capturing short-term
20 variability and extreme moisture dynamics. With complex terrain and a dense
21 population, China is highly vulnerable to extreme hydro-meteorological extremes, yet
22 existing moisture products over China are largely constrained by coarse temporal
23 resolution, insufficient spatial detail, and limited indicators. Here, we present HiMIC-
24 Daily, a seamless daily 1-km-resolution near-surface atmospheric moisture dataset for
25 China, 2003–2020. HiMIC-Daily provides a comprehensive suite of six widely used
26 indicators that characterize atmospheric moisture from different perspectives: actual
27 vapor pressure (AVP), dew point temperature (DPT), mixing ratio (MR), relative
28 humidity (RH), specific humidity (SH), and vapor pressure deficit (VPD). This dataset
29 is generated using the Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LightGBM) framework,



30 which integrates in-situ observations from 2419 meteorological stations with multiple
 31 environmental and temporal covariates, including ERA5-Land derived near-surface
 32 temperature and DPT, AVP, land surface temperature, topography, and day of year.
 33 Validation against observations shows that HiMIC-Daily achieves robust performance
 34 across all six indicators, with R^2 values ranging from 0.877 to 0.989. The strongest
 35 performance is obtained for AVP, DPT, MR, and SH, with R^2 values exceeding 0.985,
 36 and error metrics remain within acceptable ranges for all indicators (e.g., mean absolute
 37 error of 0.677 hPa and a root mean square error of 0.933 hPa for AVP). Compared with
 38 two existing coarse resolution products, HiMIC-Daily provides finer spatial detail,
 39 higher accuracy, and more realistic temporal variability across different climatic
 40 regions. These capabilities support spatially explicit studies of climate variability and
 41 environmental processes. The HiMIC-Daily dataset is publicly available at
 42 <https://doi.org/10.11888/Atmos.tpd.303449>.

44 1. Introduction

45 Near-surface atmospheric moisture is a key component of the atmospheric branch
 46 of the hydrological cycle, directly regulating the exchange of heat and energy between
 47 the surface of the Earth and the lower atmosphere (Baker et al., 2015; Sherwood et al.,
 48 2018; Angert et al., 2008), and exerts profound effects on hydrological processes,
 49 weather systems, ecosystems, agriculture, and human living environments (Bengtsson,
 50 2010; Wood et al., 2019; Harpold and Brooks, 2018; Yuan et al., 2019; Grossiord et al.,
 51 2020). Variations in near-surface atmospheric moisture can modulate the spatial and
 52 temporal patterns of precipitation and droughts (Laskar et al., 2014; Fujita and Sato,
 53 2017; Angert et al., 2008), regulate the initiation and evolution of convective weather
 54 systems (Wang, 2003; Tomassini, 2020), and alter evapotranspiration and soil moisture
 55 conditions across heterogeneous landscapes (Lengfeld and Ament, 2012; Rosolem et
 56 al., 2013). Atmospheric moisture also interacts with temperature and wind to regulate
 57 human thermal comfort, heat stress, and building energy consumption (Mekis et al.,
 58 2015; Davis et al., 2016; Cui et al., 2024; Fischer and Knutti, 2012). Therefore,



59 accurately quantifying and characterizing near-surface atmospheric moisture is
60 essential for understanding climate change, diagnosing land-atmosphere feedbacks,
61 assessing environmental and public health risks, and supporting climate adaptation
62 strategies.

63 The spatial and temporal variability of atmospheric moisture and its associated
64 impacts has attracted growing attention in recent years (Zhou et al., 2026; Wood et al.,
65 2019; Wang et al., 2021; Sobolewski et al., 2021; Chia and Lim, 2022; Jain et al., 2021).
66 Existing studies largely rely on meteorological station observations or coarse-resolution
67 gridded datasets. For example, Wood et al. (2019) explored moisture variability using
68 station networks in complex mountainous regions. Sobolewski et al. (2021) assessed
69 human thermal adaptation under hot and humid conditions based on meteorological
70 observations. In addition, Jain et al. (2021) further investigated global trends in extreme
71 fire weather using the ERA5 reanalysis dataset at a spatial resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$.
72 Although these data sources have substantially advanced our understanding of
73 atmospheric moisture variability and its environmental impacts, they remain
74 insufficient for resolving fine-scale daily moisture dynamics. Meteorological stations
75 provide direct observations but are often sparsely and unevenly distributed, particularly
76 in mountainous regions, limiting their ability to capture spatially continuous moisture
77 patterns. (Peng et al., 2019). Station measurements may also be influenced by local
78 topography, land cover, and surface conditions, introducing uncertainties in spatially
79 explicit analyses (Wood et al., 2019). In contrast, gridded reanalysis products provide
80 spatially complete moisture fields, but their coarse spatial resolutions tend to smooth
81 local variability associated with terrain, surface heterogeneity, and regional
82 hydroclimatic contrasts. These limitations hinder their applicability in studies such as
83 urban climate analysis, heat-humidity risk assessments, and wet-dry abrupt transitions,
84 which require high-resolution daily moisture information.

85 Although a variety of atmospheric moisture datasets have been developed in recent
86 decades, most of them remain limited in spatial resolution, temporal resolution, and
87 indicator coverage (Table 1). For example, ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) provides
88 global hourly moisture variables at a spatial resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ from 1940



89 onward. Other widely used global reanalysis products, such as NCEP/NCAR (Kalnay
 90 and Kanamitsu, 2018) and MERRA-2 (Gelaro et al., 2017), provide moisture indicators
 91 at spatial resolutions of $1.875^\circ \times 1.875^\circ$ and $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$, respectively. Regional
 92 datasets have also been developed for China. For instance, the China Meteorological
 93 Forcing Dataset (CMFD) (He Jie, 2024) provides 3-hourly moisture variables at a 0.1°
 94 $\times 0.1^\circ$ resolution since 1951, while the China Daily Meteorological Dataset (CDMet)
 95 (Zhang et al., 2024b) offers daily RH at a spatial resolution of 4 km during 2000–2020.
 96 However, these existing moisture datasets are limited by coarse spatial resolution or
 97 short temporal coverage. There is an urgent need to develop a daily near-surface
 98 atmospheric moisture dataset to support fine-scale climate and environmental studies.

99 Atmospheric moisture can be characterized in both relative and absolute terms.
 100 Commonly used indicators include relative humidity (RH), actual vapor pressure
 101 (AVP), vapor pressure deficit (VPD), dew point temperature (DPT), mixing ratio (MR),
 102 and specific humidity (SH) (Murray, 1996; Buck, 1981; Bolton, 1980; Wallace and
 103 Hobbs, 2006). These indicators are physically related but differ in their sensitivity to
 104 temperature, pressure, and water vapor content, and are therefore suited to distinct
 105 scientific and practical applications (Grossiord et al., 2020; Davis et al., 2016; Gamelin
 106 et al., 2022; Jain et al., 2021; Baldwin et al., 2023; Wood et al., 2019). For example,
 107 RH has been widely used in human comfort assessment and weather forecasting (Buzan
 108 et al., 2015; Guarnieri et al., 2023; Wolkoff and Kjaergaard, 2007). AVP provides a
 109 direct measure of atmospheric water vapor content and is essential for water vapor
 110 transport and budget analyses (Kimball et al., 1997; Qiu et al., 2021). VPD quantifies
 111 atmospheric drying demand and serves as a key indicator of assessing vegetation water
 112 stress, drought impacts, and fire risk (Sangines De Carcer et al., 2018; Gamelin et al.,
 113 2022; Silvestrini et al., 2011). DPT provides an intuitive measure of air moisture
 114 content and has been applied in frost prediction and evaporative cooler design
 115 (Lawrence, 2005; Choińska et al., 2017; Snyder and Melo-Abreu, 2005). MR describes
 116 the mass of water vapor relative to dry air and has been used for hydrograph separation
 117 and identification of groundwater recharge sources (Carrera et al., 2004). SH is a
 118 fundamental variable for atmospheric moisture diagnostics and supports assessments



119 of precipitable water and longwave radiation (Rangwala, 2012; Ruckstuhl et al., 2007;
 120 Wood et al., 2019). Since no single indicator fully captures all aspects of atmospheric
 121 moisture and most existing datasets cover only one or a few indicators, a high-
 122 resolution dataset integrating multiple moisture indicators is urgently needed,
 123 particularly for regions with complex climates and topography like China.

124 Changes in atmospheric moisture across China have received increasing attention
 125 in recent years (Peng et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2026). Peng et al. (2024)
 126 noted that increased water vapor may exacerbate the risk of extreme winter cold events,
 127 particularly in northern China. Chen et al. (2022) demonstrated that rising atmospheric
 128 moisture can intensify heat stress and increase the frequency of extreme compound
 129 heat-humidity events, most prominently in eastern China and the Sichuan Basin.
 130 Beyond characterizing mean moisture conditions, daily high-resolution moisture
 131 information is also essential for abrupt wet-dry transitions and urban moisture
 132 variability. Therefore, accurate, fine-scale atmospheric moisture data are essential for
 133 advancing understanding of regional climate extremes, assessing public health risks,
 134 and maintaining regional ecological and environmental stability. However, high-
 135 resolution atmospheric moisture datasets that integrate multiple moisture indicators
 136 remain scarce over China.

137 To address this gap, we develop HiMIC-Daily—a daily 1 km multi-indicator
 138 atmospheric moisture dataset for China covering 2003–2020. HiMIC-Daily is
 139 generated using the LightGBM algorithm by integrating meteorological station
 140 observations with multiple high-resolution environmental and temporal covariates,
 141 including land surface temperature (MOD11A1/MYD11A1, Zhang et al. (2022)), land
 142 cover (MCD12Q1, Friedl and Sulla-Menashe (2019)), topographic variables (MERIT
 143 DEM, Yamazaki et al. (2017)), column water vapor (MCD19A2, Lyapustin and Wang
 144 (2022)), vapor pressure (TerraClimate, Abatzoglou et al. (2018)), 2-m near-surface air
 145 temperature and dewpoint temperature (ERA5-Land, Muñoz-Sabater et al. (2021)), and
 146 population density (WorldPop, Gaughan et al. (2013)). LightGBM is selected for its
 147 higher efficiency and robustness compared to other tree-based machine-learning
 148 algorithms, such as XGBoost and CatBoost (Guo et al., 2023; Daoud, 2019; Su et al.,



2021). By providing spatially continuous daily estimates of six atmospheric moisture indicators, HiMIC-Daily offers a reliable data foundation for research in meteorology, ecology, environmental science, and human health. The aims of this study are: (1) to construct a seamless daily high-resolution (~ 1 km) multi-indicator atmospheric moisture dataset over China (HiMIC-Daily) during 2003–2020, covering six indicators (RH, AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH); (2) to evaluate the accuracy and spatial variation of HiMIC-Daily through validation against in situ measurements; (3) to interpret the dataset and validate its reliability across geographical regions and temporal periods. The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the data sources and the methodology. Section 3 presents a comprehensive analysis of the accuracy and spatial variation of the atmospheric moisture indicators. Section 4 discusses covariate importance, dataset comparison, the temporal dynamics of HiMIC-Daily, and potential limitations. Data availability is given in Sect. 5, and the main findings are summarized in Sect. 6.

163

164 Table 1. Existing datasets of near-surface atmospheric moisture.

Datasets (Ref.)	Coverage	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Temporal coverage	Variables
GSOD (Huang et al., 2017)	Global	Site	Daily	1929–present	DPT
ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020)	Global	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$	Hourly	1940–present	DPT
ERA5-Land (Muñoz-Sabater et al., 2021)	Global	$0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$	Hourly	1950–present	DPT
NCEP/NCAR (Kalnay and Kanamitsu, 2018)	Global	$1.875^\circ \times 1.875^\circ$	6-hour	1948–present	RH, SH
MERRA-2 (Gelaro et al., 2017)	Global	$0.625^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$	Hourly	1980–present	SH,
JRA-3Q (Kosaka et al., 2024)	Global	$0.375^\circ \times 0.375^\circ$	3-hour	1947–present	RH, DPT, SH
HadISDH (Willett et al., 2014)	Global	$5^\circ \times 5^\circ$	Monthly	1973–2024	RH, DPT, SH
GLDAS (Rodell et al., 2004)	Global	$0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$	3-hour	2000–present	SH
NLDAS-2 (Xia et al.,	North	$0.125^\circ \times 0.125^\circ$	Hourly	1979–present	SH



2012)	America				
CMFD (He Jie, 2024)	China	$0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$	3-hour	1951–2024	RH, SH
CDMet (Zhang et al., 2024b)	China	$4\text{km} \times 4\text{km}$	Daily	2000–2020	RH

165

166 **2. Data and methods**

167 We develop the high-resolution atmospheric moisture dataset by integrating
168 meteorological station observations and multiple remote sensing and reanalysis
169 products. The flowchart for dataset construction based on the LightGBM model is
170 illustrated in Fig. 1, which consists of three major procedures.

171 First, all gridded datasets are unified at a 1 km spatial resolution and a consistent
172 coordinate reference system (i.e., WGS84), and spatiotemporally matched across China.
173 We then extract grid values at meteorological station locations to construct candidate
174 samples, which contain both observed moisture variables and corresponding spatially
175 consistent environmental covariates. Second, these daily samples are randomly split
176 into training and validation subsets, which account for 80% and 20% of the samples,
177 respectively. Annual LightGBM models (one for each moisture indicator in a year) with
178 optimized parameters are trained separately for each moisture indicator, and model
179 performance is assessed using the validation subset. Third, the trained annual models
180 are applied spatially across China to generate daily estimates of six daily near-surface
181 atmospheric moisture indicators for 2003–2020.

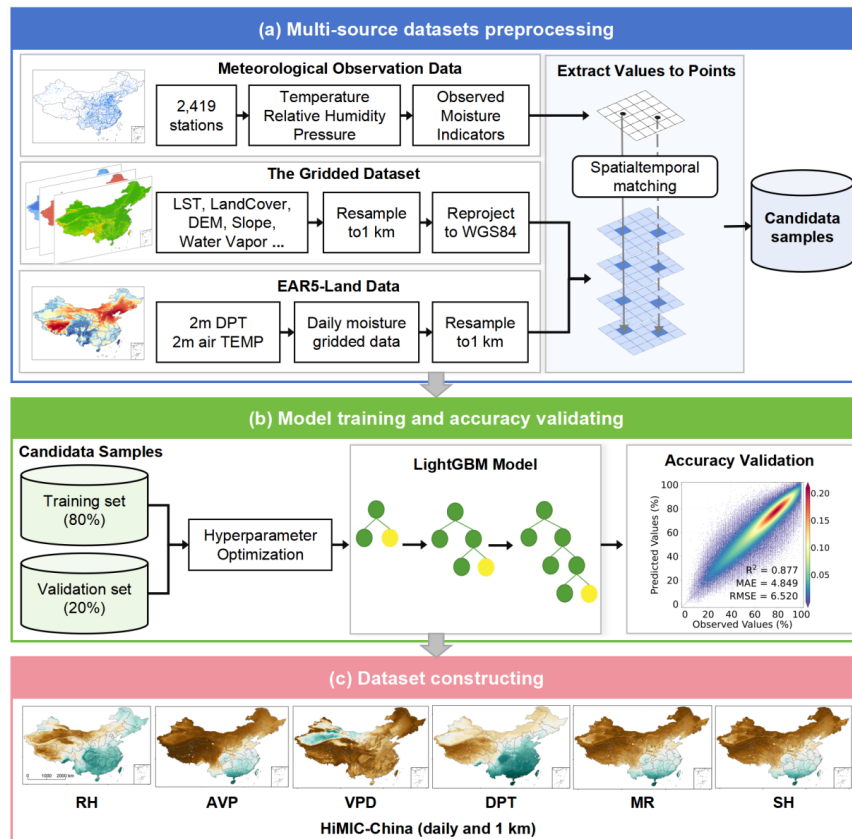


Figure 1. Flowchart of the HiMIC-Daily dataset construction. LST: Land surface temperature; TEMP: Temperature; LightGBM: Light Gradient Boosting Machine.

2.1 Data and preprocessing

2.1.1 Station Observations

Daily meteorological data from 2419 stations across mainland China (Fig. 2) during 2003–2020 are collected from the China Meteorological Data Service Center (CMDSC, <http://data.cma.cn/>) of the China Meteorological Administration (CMA). The station dataset includes daily mean near-surface air temperature (SAT), RH, and surface pressure (PRS). All raw observations are strictly quality-controlled and verified by the CMA. In line with CMA’s data usage terms, the station data used in this research cannot be redistributed, and direct access to the data requires a formal application via CMA’s official platform.

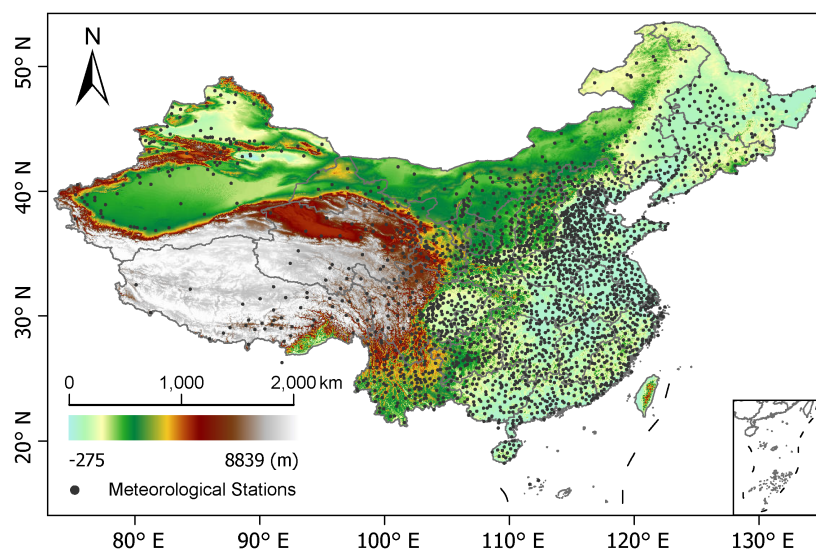


Figure 2. Spatial distribution of meteorological stations (dots) and elevation (shading) in China.

2.1.2 Covariates

The spatiotemporal variability of near-surface atmospheric moisture is jointly influenced by land surface properties, topography, meteorological conditions, human activities, and temporal factors (Taheri et al., 2022; Ige et al., 2017; Antonoglou et al., 2022; Dyer, 2012; Sterling et al., 2012). Accordingly, we select a set of environmental and temporal covariates to support the construction of atmospheric moisture, including land surface temperature (LST), DPT and SAT from ERA5-Land, landcover, elevation and slope, column water vapor, vapor pressure, population density, day of year, month of year, and day of month (Table 2).

LST is closely linked to surface water status and surface energy balance, and therefore serves as a critical boundary condition for land-atmosphere interactions, making it a valuable indicator for predicting atmospheric moisture (Taheri et al., 2022; Chen and Liu, 2020). As LST reflects thermal conditions associated with evapotranspiration, energy partitioning, and water vapor transport, it has been widely utilized in remote sensing-based estimation studies to characterize the spatiotemporal dynamics of atmospheric moisture (Kalma et al., 2008; Duffour et al., 2016; Zhang et



al., 2024a). In this study, we use a daily 1 km $\times$ 1 km LST dataset derived from the MODIS LST products (MOD11A1 and MYD11A1), covering both daytime and nighttime observations (Zhang et al., 2022). Spatiotemporal gap-filling and quality control procedures have been applied to improve data completeness and reliability (Zhang et al., 2022). Comparisons with observations show good agreement, with root mean squared errors (RMSE) of 1.80–1.88°C and 1.23–1.45°C for daytime and nighttime LSTs, respectively (Zhang et al., 2022). Daily mean LST was calculated by averaging the daytime and nighttime values to represent daily surface thermal conditions. The 2-m DPT and SAT are obtained from the ERA5-Land dataset (Muñoz-Sabater et al., 2021) and are used to generate daily gridded data for six near-surface moisture indicators. The detailed calculation procedures are described in Section 2.2.1. An “index-matching” strategy is adopted during model development, in which the ERA5-Land derived RH is used as a covariate when predicting the corresponding 1-km RH.

Land cover is included to represent surface characteristics that regulate water and energy exchanges between the land surface and the lower atmosphere (Kalma et al., 2008; Ige et al., 2017). We derive land cover information from the MODIS Land Cover Type product (MCD12Q1.006; Friedl and Sulla-Menashe (2019)). Topography can also influence atmospheric conditions, particularly in regions with complex terrain (Antonoglou et al., 2022; Castino et al., 2020). Elevation data are thus fetched from the Multi-Error-Removed Improved-Terrain Digital Elevation Model (MERIT DEM; Yamazaki et al. (2017)), from which slope was subsequently derived. To characterize atmospheric water availability (Reber and Swope, 1972; Dyer, 2012), column water vapor from the MCD19A2.061 product (Lyapustin and Wang, 2022) and vapor pressure from the TerraClimate dataset (Abatzoglou et al., 2018) are incorporated as moisture-related predictors. Population density from the WorldPop dataset (Gaughan et al., 2013) is included to account for potential anthropogenic influences on near-surface moisture conditions (Liu et al., 2008; Sterling et al., 2012). In addition, temporal variables including day of year, month of year, and day of month are incorporated to capture the seasonal and interannual variability in atmospheric moisture. All covariate



245 datasets are accessed through Google Earth Engine (GEE). They are then harmonized
 246 to a consistent spatial extent, coordinate reference system (WGS84), and spatial
 247 resolution (1 km) using mosaicking, reprojection, resampling, clipping, and
 248 aggregation.

249

250 Table 2. Gridded datasets and covariates used in this study.

Category	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	DOI
Land surface temperature	1 km	daily	https://doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MYD11A1.061
Landcover	500 m	yearly	https://doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MCD12Q1.061
Elevation and slope	3arc-second	/	https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL072874
Column water vapor	1 km	daily	https://doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MCD19A2.061
Vapor pressure	4 km	monthly	https://doi.org/10.1038/sdata.2017.191
2-m dewpoint temperature	11132 m	daily	https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.e9c9c792
2-m temperature	11132 m	daily	https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.e9c9c792
Population density	100 m	yearly	https://doi.org/10.5258/SOTON/WP00645
Day of year, month of year, day of month	/	/	/

251

252 2.2 Methods

253 2.2.1 Calculation of atmospheric moisture indicators

254 Six daily near-surface atmospheric moisture indicators including RH (%), AVP
 255 (hPa), VPD (hPa), DPT (°C), MR (g kg⁻¹), and SH (g kg⁻¹) are produced in this study.
 256 The corresponding calculation procedures are summarized in Table 3. For the
 257 meteorological station observations, daily mean SAT (°C), RH, and PRS (hPa) are
 258 directly obtained from the station measurements. SVP (hPa) is calculated from SAT
 259 using the Magnus-Tetens equation (Eq. 1); AVP is derived from RH and SVP; VPD is



260 calculated as the difference between SVP and AVP; and DPT is estimated from AVP.
 261 The pressure-dependent indicators, MR and SH, are further calculated using AVP and
 262 PRS observations:

$$SVP = 6.112 \times \exp^{\frac{17.67 \times SAT}{SAT + 243.5}} \quad (1)$$

263 Based on the ERA5-Land dataset, AVP is derived from the 2-m dew point
 264 temperature (T_d , °C), while SVP is calculated from the 2-m air temperature (Eq. 1). The
 265 resulting AVP and SVP values are subsequently used to derive the six atmospheric
 266 moisture indicators (Table 3).

267

268 Table 3. Equations of six near-surface atmospheric moisture indicators.

Indicators (Ref.)	Equation	Unit
RH (Murray, 1996)	$RH = 100 \times AVP \div SVP$ $AVP = RH \times SVP \div 100$	%
AVP (Murray, 1996)	$AVP = 6.112 \times \exp^{\frac{17.67 \times T_d}{T_d + 243.5}}$	hPa
VPD (Buck, 1981)	$VPD = SVP - AVP$	hPa
DPT (Bolton, 1980)	$DPT = \frac{\log(AVP / 6.112) \times 243.5}{17.67 - \log(AVP / 6.112)}$	°C
MR (Wallace and Hobbs, 2006)	$MR = \frac{0.62197 \times AVP}{PRS - AVP} \times 1000$	g kg ⁻¹
SH (Wallace and Hobbs, 2006)	$SH = \frac{MR}{1 + MR} \times 1000$	g kg ⁻¹

269

269 2.2.2 Prediction of atmospheric moisture indicators

271 The Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LightGBM) algorithm (Ke et al., 2017) is
 272 employed to predict atmospheric moisture indicators. LightGBM is an efficient
 273 gradient boosting decision tree (GBDT) framework that has been widely applied
 274 meteorological variable simulation, air quality prediction, and hydrological modeling
 275 (Li et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2021; Fan et al., 2019; Ju et al., 2019), due to its high
 276 computational efficiency and strong predictive performance. Compared with other
 277 commonly used tree-based machine learning algorithms, such as eXtreme Gradient
 278 Boosting (XGBoost), Categorical Boosting (CatBoost), and Random Forest,



279 LightGBM improves training efficiency and predictive capability through several
280 optimized learning strategies (Daoud, 2019; Guo et al., 2023), including a leaf-wise tree
281 growth, Gradient-based One-Side Sampling (GOSS), and Exclusive Feature Bundling
282 (EFB) (Ke et al., 2017). These strategies enable the LightGBM model to capture
283 complex nonlinear relationships between atmospheric moisture and environmental
284 variables while maintaining relatively fast training speed (Su et al., 2021). In addition,
285 LightGBM provides feature importance metrics that can be used to assess the relative
286 contributions of different predictors to the reconstruction of atmospheric moisture fields
287 (Ke et al., 2017).

288 The LightGBM model is implemented using the Python LightGBM library
289 (<https://lightgbm.readthedocs.io>). To ensure robust model training and evaluation, the
290 observed atmospheric moisture indicators are randomly divided into training (80%) and
291 validation (20%) subsets. Hyperparameter tuning is performed using a grid search
292 combined with 5-fold cross-validation within the training subset, and the final
293 hyperparameter combination is selected by minimizing RMSE (Sarker, 2021). To
294 account for possible year-to-year variations in the relationships between atmospheric
295 moisture and its predictors, a separate LightGBM model is developed for each moisture
296 indicator and each year. The trained models are then applied to the daily gridded
297 datasets to generate atmospheric moisture predictions (Fig. 1).

298

299 **2.2.3 Assessment of accuracy**

300 The accuracy of the trained LightGBM models is evaluated by comparing model
301 predictions with the corresponding station-derived moisture indicators in the validation
302 subset. Three standard statistical metrics are used, including the coefficient of
303 determination (R^2), mean absolute error (MAE), and RMSE. These metrics have been
304 widely used in previous studies to assess the predictive performance of environmental
305 and atmospheric variables (Zhou et al., 2026; Zhang et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023; Peng
306 et al., 2019). R^2 measures the proportion of observed variance explained by the model
307 and reflects the overall goodness of fit. MAE quantifies the average magnitude of



prediction errors, providing an intuitive measure of model accuracy. RMSE assigns greater weight to larger errors and is therefore sensitive to extreme deviations, making it useful for evaluating prediction reliability. The three metrics are computed as follows (Eqs. 2–4):

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_{oi} - \hat{y}_{pi})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_{oi} - \bar{y}_o)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_{oi} - \hat{y}_{pi})^2} \quad (3)$$

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |y_{oi} - \hat{y}_{pi}| \quad (4)$$

where n is the total number of samples, y_{oi} and $\hat{y}_{pi}$ are the i_{th} observed and predicted moisture index values, respectively; and $\bar{y}_o$ is the mean of the observed moisture index values.

3. Results

3.1 Evaluation of atmospheric moisture indicators

3.1.1 Overall accuracy

The overall predictive accuracy of HiMIC-Daily is evaluated using the validation subset, in which model predictions are compared with the corresponding station-derived moisture indicators. All six indicators achieve high accuracy, with R^2 values exceeding 0.877 (Table 4). In particular, AVP, DPT, MR, and SH exhibit R^2 values greater than 0.985. As shown in Fig. 3, the predicted and observed atmospheric moisture values are closely distributed around the 1:1 line for all indicators, demonstrating strong agreement between the LightGBM model predictions and station measurements. MAE and RMSE for each indicator are within acceptable ranges, with RH recording an MAE of 4.849% and an RMSE of 6.520%, followed by AVP with an MAE of 0.677 hPa and an RMSE of 0.933 hPa, VPD with an MAE of 0.983 hPa and an RMSE of 1.411 hPa, DPT with an MAE of 1.120°C and an RMSE of 1.608°C, MR with an MAE of 0.459 g kg⁻¹ and an RMSE of 0.633 g kg⁻¹, and SH with an MAE of



0.451 g kg⁻¹ and an RMSE of 0.620 g kg⁻¹ (Table 4). These evaluation metrics collectively confirm the model's reliability in estimating atmospheric moisture conditions across China.

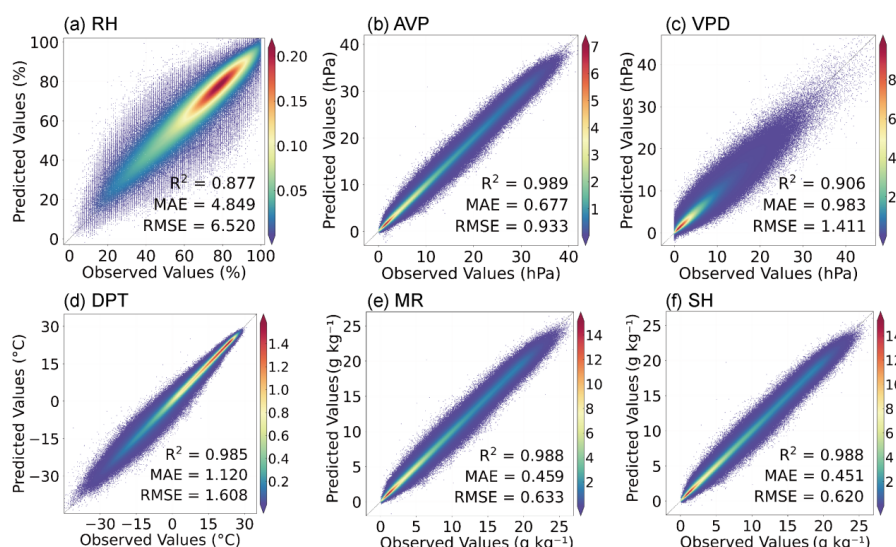


Figure 3. Scatter plots of predicted and observed atmospheric moisture indicators over China during 2003–2020: (a) RH, (b) AVP, (c) VPD, (d) DPT, (e) MR, and (f) SH. Colors indicate the density of data points, with red representing higher density and blue representing lower density. The black dashed line is the 1:1 line.

3.1.2 Validation on yearly, monthly, and daily scales

We further evaluate the predictive performance of the LightGBM model at annual, monthly, and daily scales (Fig. 4). At the annual scale, all six moisture indicators maintain consistently high prediction accuracy throughout all years from 2003 to 2020. AVP, DPT, MR, and SH exhibit particularly strong performance, with annual R^2 values consistently exceeding 0.980 across all years. RH and VPD also demonstrate reliable accuracy, with annual R^2 values ranging from 0.850 to 0.900 for RH and from 0.890 to 0.910 for VPD (Fig. 4a). The annual MAE and RMSE values for all indicators remained relatively stable throughout the study period (Fig. 4d, g). Slight interannual variations are observed, with relatively higher accuracy in 2017 for most indicators and lower accuracy in 2004 for AVP, DPT, MR, and SH, and in 2018 and 2020 for VPD.



352 At the monthly scale, prediction accuracy shows clear seasonal variations (Fig. 4b,
 353 e, and h). AVP, DPT, MR, and SH maintain robust performance throughout the year,
 354 with monthly R^2 values consistently above 0.950 and reaching their highest levels in
 355 autumn and winter. In contrast, RH and VPD exhibit more pronounced seasonal
 356 variations. RH reaches its highest accuracy in summer, with an R^2 of 0.910 in June, and
 357 declines to its lowest in winter. VPD shows a similar pattern, with values increasing
 358 from winter to summer. The monthly error metrics further confirm these seasonal
 359 patterns. For RH and DPT, MAE and RMSE values are substantially lower in summer
 360 than in winter, whereas AVP, VPD, MR, and SH show the opposite seasonal pattern,
 361 with lower errors in winter and higher in summer. These seasonal variations in
 362 prediction accuracy suggest seasonal variability in climatic conditions and their
 363 influence on atmospheric moisture dynamics across China.

364 At the daily scale, the LightGBM model maintains robust predictive performance
 365 across all six atmospheric moisture indicators (Fig. 4c, f and i). AVP, DPT, MR, and
 366 SH show consistently high accuracy, with daily R^2 values exceeding 0.977 and minimal
 367 day-to-day fluctuations. RH reaches its highest accuracy around day 30 and its lowest
 368 around days 26–27. VPD performs best in early-month to mid-month. The daily MAE
 369 and RMSE values are consistent with the R^2 results, showing lower prediction errors
 370 for AVP, DPT, MR, and SH, and slightly larger variability for RH and VPD. These
 371 results further demonstrate the model's capability to capture atmospheric moisture
 372 variations at daily resolution.

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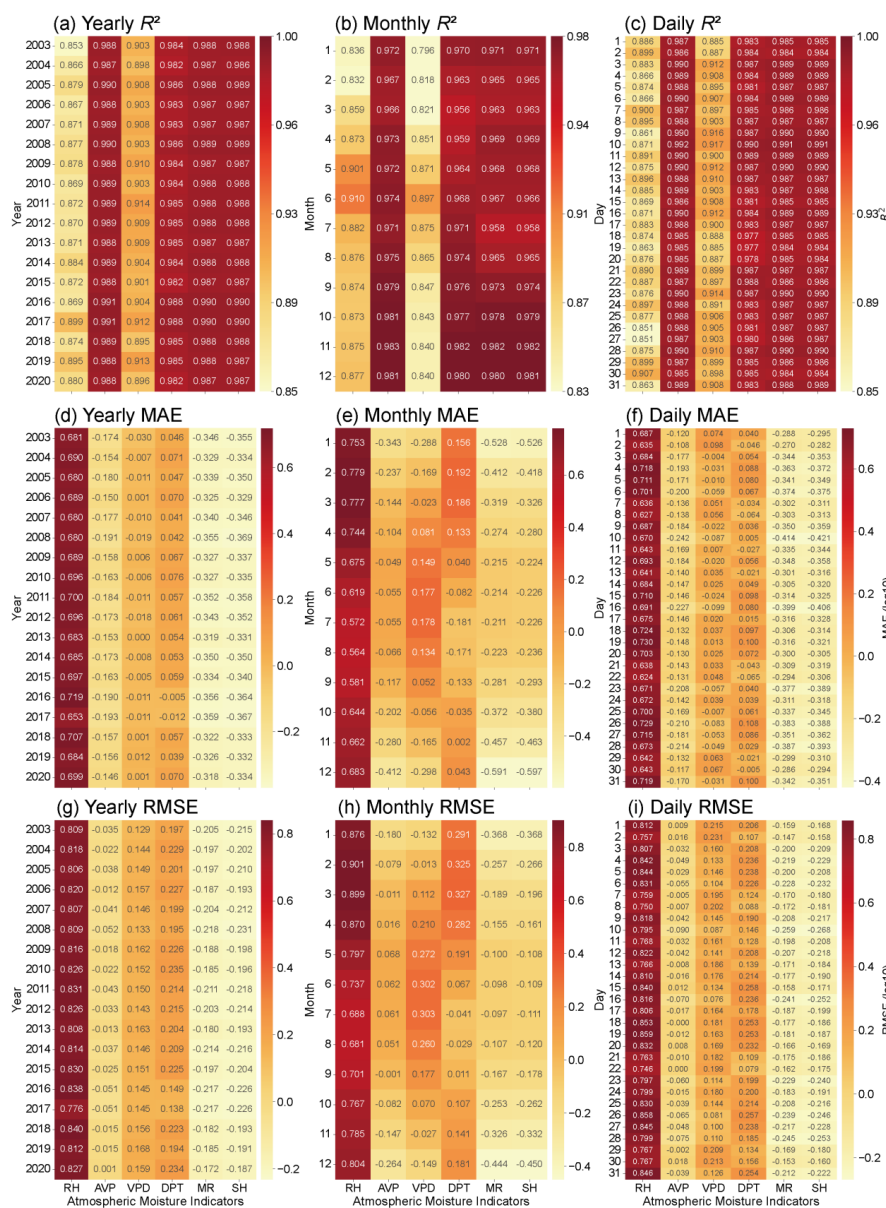


Figure 4. Annual, monthly, and daily R^2 , MAE, and RMSE of six atmospheric moisture indicators over China during 2003–2020. Colors represent values, with red for higher values and yellow for lower. MAE and RMSE values are shown on a logarithmic scale, i.e., $\log(10)$.

3.1.3 Spatial variation in prediction accuracy

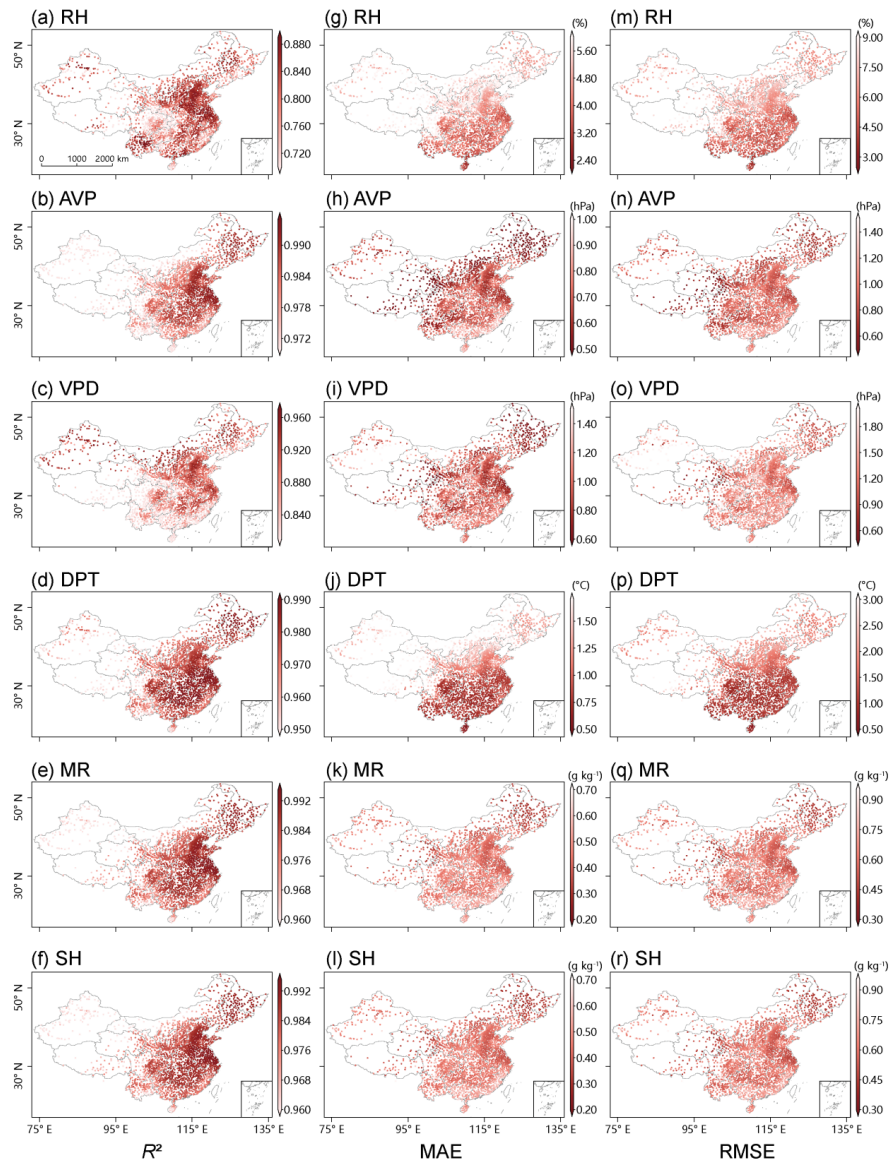
To further assess the predictive performance of the LightGBM model at the spatial scale, we analyze the spatial distributions of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE for the six moisture



382 indicators across individual stations (Fig. 5). The results show that the model
383 reproduces the moisture variability well at most stations, although the accuracy varies
384 among indicators and regions. Regarding the spatial distribution of R^2 , all indicators
385 demonstrate strong explanatory power across most stations (Fig. 5a–f). Specifically,
386 AVP, DPT, MR, and SH exhibit a similar spatial pattern, with R^2 values exceeding 0.900
387 at most stations. Higher prediction accuracy is concentrated in northern China, the
388 North China Plain (NCP) and the Yangtze River Plain, whereas relatively lower
389 accuracy appears in parts of southwestern China. In contrast, RH and VPD exhibit high
390 R^2 values in the NCP, with lower values in southwestern China. In terms of error metrics,
391 MAE and RMSE exhibit consistent spatial distributions within each indicator (Figure
392 5g–r). RH and DPT exhibit similar spatial patterns, with lower errors concentrated
393 south of the Yangtze River Plain and higher errors in northern China. In contrast, AVP,
394 VPD, MR, and SH display the opposite pattern, characterized by lower errors in
395 northern China and relatively higher errors in southern China.



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Figure 5. Spatial distribution of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE values for six atmospheric moisture indicators at meteorological stations over China during 2003–2020: Each row corresponds to one moisture indicator (from top to bottom: RH, AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH), while (a-f), (g-l), and (m-r) correspond to R^2 , MAE, and RMSE, respectively. Deeper red indicates larger values, reflecting better model performance.



404 3.2 Spatial variations of the atmospheric moisture indicators

405 The validation results above demonstrate that the LightGBM model provides
 406 reliable predictions of near-surface atmospheric moisture across multiple spatial and
 407 temporal scales. Based on this robust performance, a high-resolution atmospheric
 408 moisture dataset for China is generated at a daily and 1-km resolution from 2003 to
 409 2020. To illustrate the spatial characteristics and event-scale applicability of the dataset,
 410 we examine the 2003–2020 climatological mean conditions and the spatial patterns on
 411 two representative extreme days: an extreme cold event on 3 January 2008 (Zhou et al.
 412 (2011)) and an extreme heat event on 13 August 2013 (Sun et al. (2014)).

413 The long-term mean shows consistent spatial patterns across five atmospheric
 414 moisture indicators excluding VPD (Fig. 6). RH is highest in southeastern China and
 415 decreases gradually toward northwestern China, reflecting the transition from humid to
 416 arid climates and the influence of complex terrain (Fig. 6a–f). VPD shows an opposite
 417 spatial pattern, with high values in arid inland basins, such as the Turpan and Tarim
 418 Basins, and low values in humid and high-altitude regions. AVP, DPT, MR, and SH
 419 show similar spatial structures, with higher values over warm and humid low-latitude
 420 regions, such as the Pearl River Delta, and lower values over the Tibetan Plateau and
 421 regions north of the Qinling Mountains-Huaihe River line. These patterns reflect the
 422 combined effects of temperature, moisture availability, elevation, and large-scale
 423 climatic conditions on near-surface atmospheric moisture.

424 The two representative extreme days further demonstrate HiMIC-Daily's ability to
 425 capture event-scale spatial variability (Fig. 6g–r). During the cold event on 3 January
 426 2008, most moisture indicators show lower values across large parts of China, with
 427 particularly evident reductions in DPT (Fig. 6g–l). During the 2013 heat event on 13
 428 August, AVP, MR, and SH increased markedly across eastern China (Fig. 6m–r),
 429 indicating enhanced atmospheric water vapor content under hot and humid conditions.
 430 Overall, the HiMIC-Daily dataset reveals fine-scale spatial variability that is difficult
 431 to detect using coarser products. The enhanced spatial detail advances our



understanding of hydrological cycles, atmospheric dynamics, ecological systems,
agricultural activities, and human settlements.

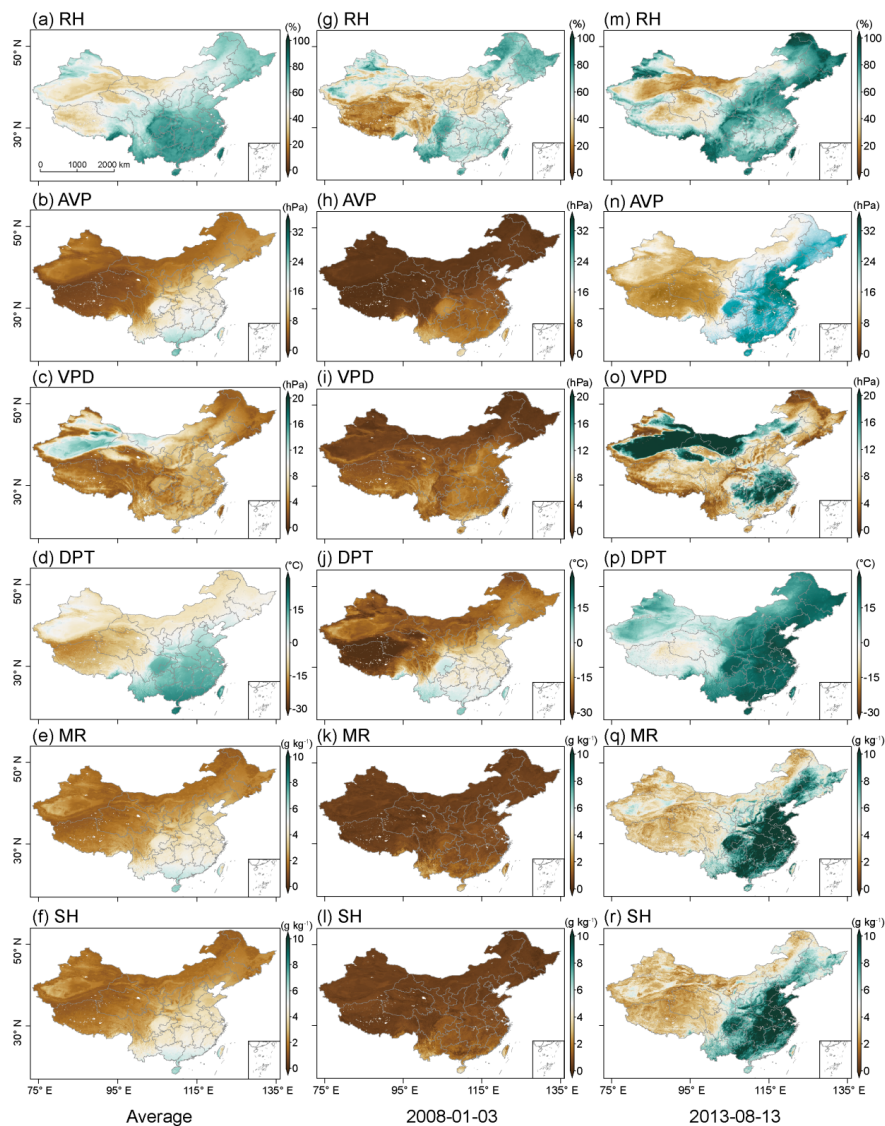


Figure 6. Spatial patterns of six moisture indicators over China during 2003–2020: Each row corresponds to one moisture index (from top to bottom: RH, AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH). (a–f) annual mean values during 2003–2020, (g–i) distributions on 3 January, 2008, and (m–r) distributions on 13 August, 2013.



4. Discussion

4.1 Covariate importance

To examine the relative contribution of individual covariates to atmospheric moisture prediction, feature importance is quantified for the six moisture indicator models based on the mean information gain derived from LightGBM ensemble trees. Across all predictor variables, moisture indicators derived from ERA5-Land emerge as the most influential predictors (Fig. 7). This result is expected because these predictors are physically closest to the moisture indicators and retain large-scale atmospheric moisture variability derived from ERA5-Land 2-m SAT and DPT (Muñoz-Sabater et al., 2021). Vapor pressure serves as the second most influential feature in most models except for VPD, given that it directly represents the actual water vapor content in the atmosphere and underpins the calculation of most moisture indicators (Dyer, 2012). LST also contributes to model performance, as variations in LST influence evaporation, surface energy balance, and land-atmosphere moisture exchange (Wang et al., 2017). DEM further improves the model by modulating local moisture conditions via moisture convergence, cold air drainage, and evapotranspiration, thereby enabling effective capture of spatial heterogeneity in moisture (Dobrowski, 2011).

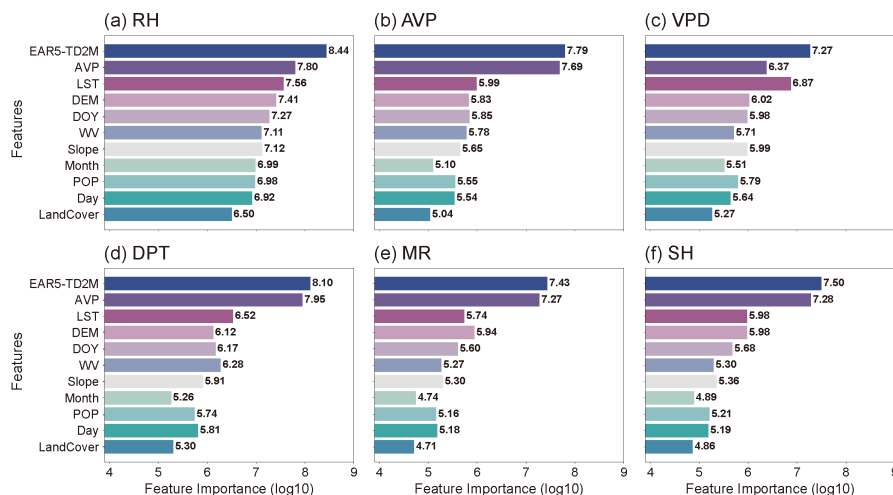


Figure 7. Relative importance of eleven covariates in predicting moisture indicators: (a) RH, (b) AVP, (c) VPD, (d) DPT, (e) MR, (f) SH. The covariates include ERA5-TD2M (near-surface temperature and DPT from ERA5-Land), AVP (water vapor pressure), LST (land surface



temperature), DEM (elevation), DOY (day of year), WV (column water vapor), Slope, POP (population density), LandCover, Month of year, and Day of month. The feature importance values are shown on a logarithmic scale, i.e., $\log(10)$.

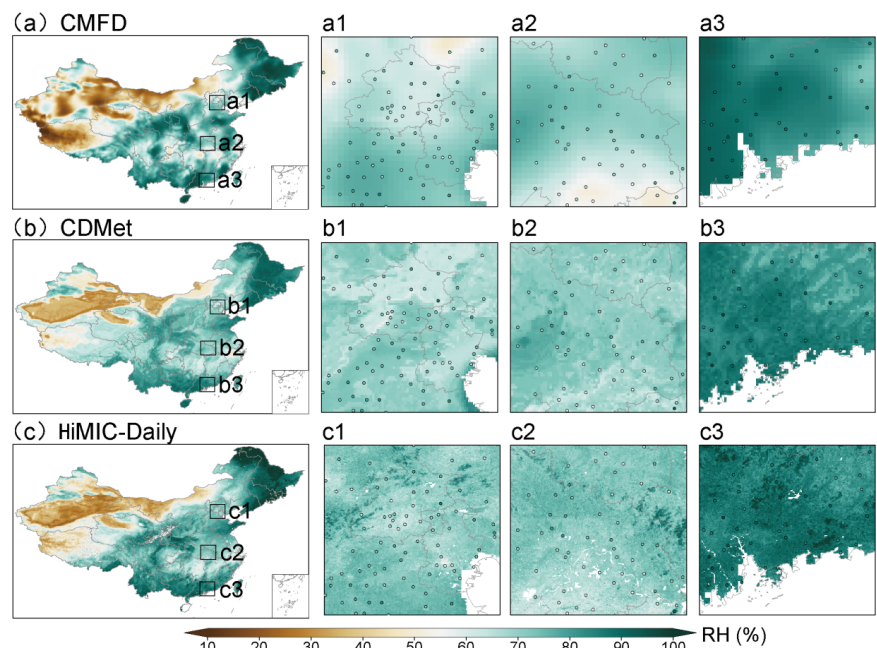
4.2 Comparison with existing atmospheric moisture datasets

We compare our HiMIC-Daily with two existing atmospheric moisture datasets: the China Meteorological Forcing Dataset (CMFD) developed by He et al. (2024), and the 4-km daily gridded meteorological dataset for China (CDMet) produced by Zhang et al. (2024b). CMFD and CDMet have coarser spatial resolutions of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ and $4 \text{ km} \times 4 \text{ km}$, respectively (Table 1). Since RH is available in all three datasets, the comparison focuses on daily RH over China on July 28, 2013, with particular attention to three representative urban agglomerations: Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH), the middle Yangtze River Valley (mYRV), and the Pearl River Delta (PRD) (Fig. 8). This date is selected because it is available across all three datasets and represents a prolonged 2013 extreme heat event when moisture conditions exhibit substantial variability.

All three datasets capture the broad national-scale RH variability, with lower values in northwestern China and higher values in eastern China (Fig. 8, left). However, clear differences emerge at finer spatial scales. Compared with CMFD and CDMet, HiMIC-Daily can capture more detailed RH variations associated with terrain, land-surface heterogeneity, and urban-rural contrasts, particularly within the BTH, mYRV, and PRD regions. These fine-scale informations are substantially smoothed in the coarser-resolution products. The comparison with station observations further demonstrates the improved performance of HiMIC-Daily (Fig. 8, right panels). CMFD and CDMet show larger deviations from the station measurements, with CMFD underestimating RH across most regions. In contrast, HiMIC-Daily shows closer agreement with observations, indicating that integrating station measurements, reanalysis data, and high-resolution environmental covariates improves the representation of local moisture variability. Our HiMIC-Daily provides finer spatial detail and better station-level consistency than existing coarse-resolution products, supporting its use in fine-scale applications such as intra-urban climate analysis, heat-humidity risk assessment, and localized moisture assessment.



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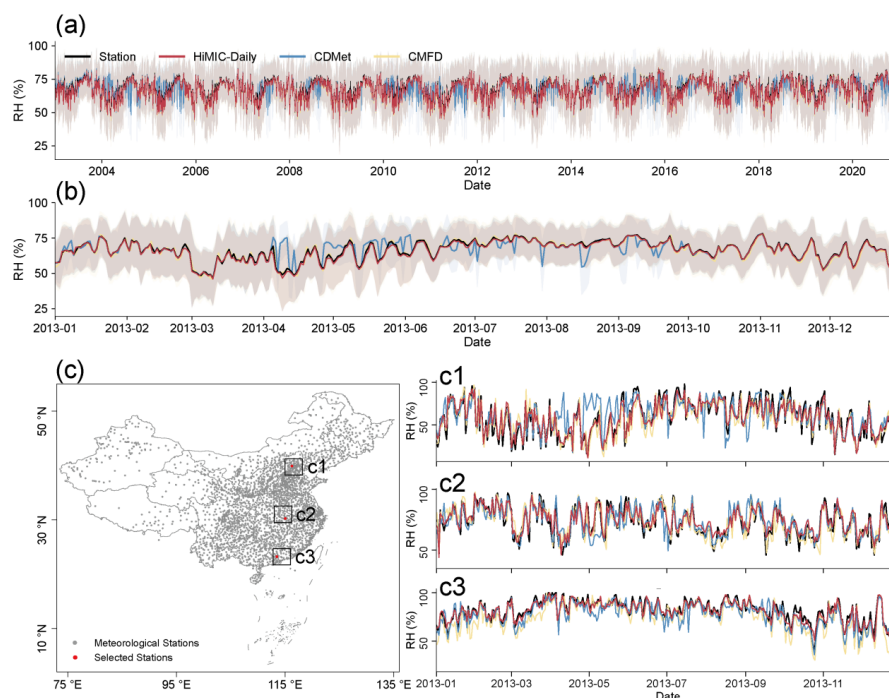
509

Figure 8. Comparison of spatial patterns among CMFD, CDMet, and HiMIC-Daily for RH over the mainland of China and its three largest urban agglomerations on July 28, 2013 (1: Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, 2: middle Yangtze River Valley, and 3: Pearl River Delta). Station observations appear as colored circles, shaded according to measured RH (%).

To further evaluate the temporal performance of HiMIC-Daily, we compare daily RH time series from the three datasets with station observations in 2013 (Fig. 9a). HiMIC-Daily shows the closest agreement with the station observations, accurately capturing both the magnitude and day-to-day variability of RH. CMFD captures the seasonal evolution of RH but shows larger deviations in the magnitude, whereas CDMet exhibits clear seasonal biases, with overestimation in spring and underestimation in summer and autumn. A representative station from each urban agglomeration (BTH, mYRV, PRD) is selected for further detailed comparison (Fig. 9b). HiMIC-Daily maintains the best agreement with observed RH, while CMFD closely follows the observed temporal variations but with noticeable biases. CDMet shows larger seasonal deviations again. These results confirm the robustness of HiMIC-Daily in capturing



510 daily RH dynamics, highlighting its advantage for applications requiring temporally
 511 resolved near-surface moisture information.



512
 513 Figure 9. Comparison of daily RH (%) time series among HiMIC-Daily, CMFD, CDMet, and station
 514 observations: (a) Time series over China from 2003 to 2020, (b) Time series over China in 2013,
 515 (c) Representative station comparison in three major urban agglomerations of China (C1: Beijing-
 516 Tianjin-Hebei, C2: middle Yangtze River Valley, and C3: Pearl River Delta).
 517

518 4.3 Temporal response of HiMIC-Daily to extreme events

519 We further assess the capability of HiMIC-Daily to represent temporal variations
 520 in atmospheric moisture response to extreme events. A representative cold extreme, the
 521 2008 Chinese ice storm, which severely struck the densely populated and economically
 522 developed region of south-central China (Zhou et al., 2011). During the 2008 ice storm,
 523 Guiyang station is selected as one of the most severely affected cities, where radial ice
 524 thickness exceeded 80 mm (Zhou et al., 2011). Air temperature plunged below freezing
 525 on January 11 and remained subfreezing throughout the event. This rapid cooling
 526 reduced the saturation water vapor capacity of the atmosphere and substantially altered
 527 near-surface moisture conditions. HiMIC-Daily captures these abrupt changes well. RH



528 increases sharply within one day, showing close agreement with station observations,
529 while AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH all decrease rapidly and remain at low levels
530 throughout the event. These responses are physically consistent with the combined
531 effects of lower air temperature, reducing saturation vapor pressure, and weakening
532 atmospheric water vapor content under persistent cold conditions.

533 Pudong New Area in Shanghai is selected to represent the July 2013 extreme heat
534 event, where air temperature began to rise on June 27 and increased by $\sim 10^{\circ}\text{C}$ within
535 one week (Sun et al., 2014). This rapid warming substantially enhanced the atmospheric
536 demand for water vapor. During this heat event, RH fluctuates and declines, agreeing
537 well with station observations, while AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH all rise. The
538 sharpest increase is seen in VPD, reflecting the strong increase in atmospheric drying
539 demand under rapid warming. These two contrasting extreme events demonstrate that
540 HiMIC-Daily effectively captures temporal moisture dynamics under both cold and
541 heat extremes, showing rapid and physically consistent agreement with station
542 observations for RH. The dataset maintains robust performance without degradation
543 under extreme conditions, confirming its reliability for analysing event-scale moisture
544 dynamics short-term hydroclimatic processes across China.

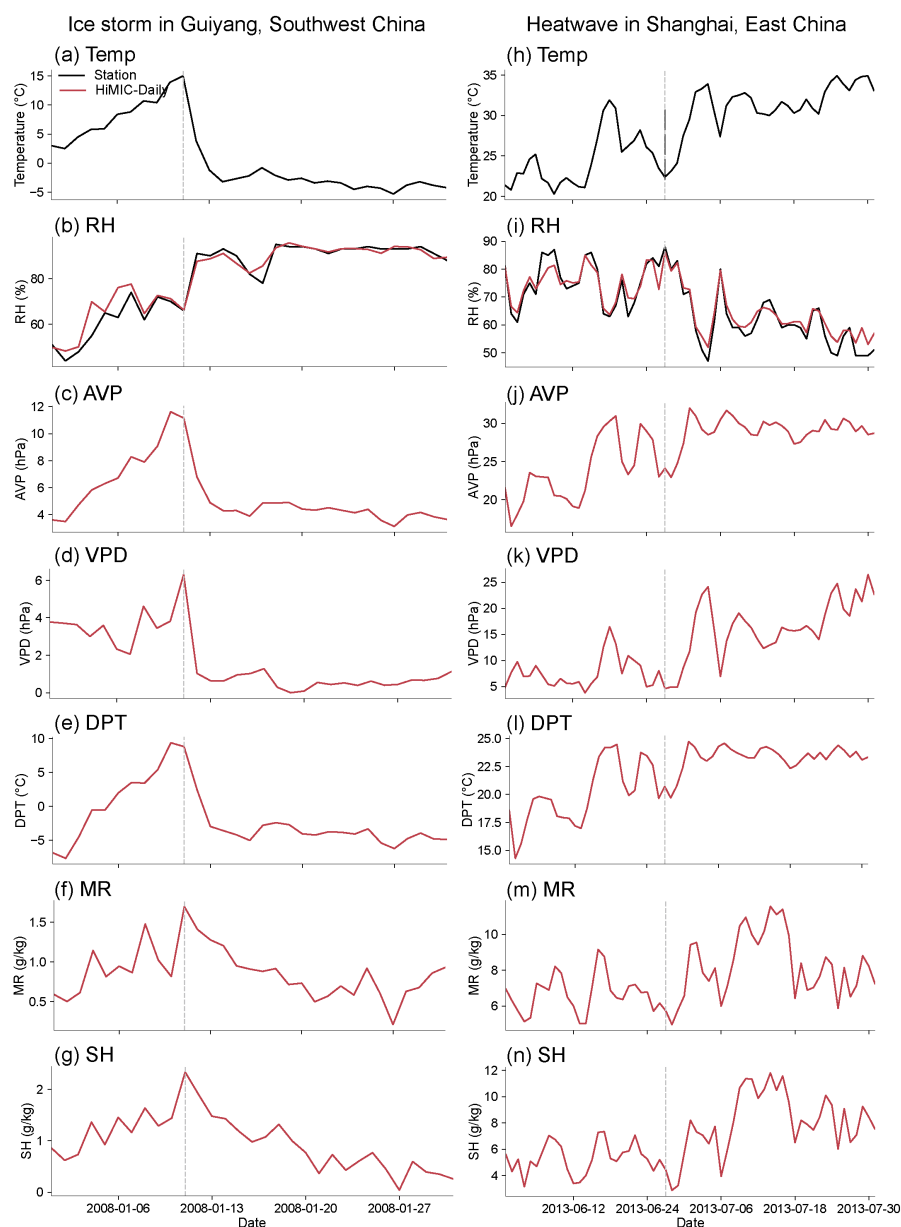


Figure 10. Temporal response of HiMIC-Daily to two extreme events: **(a-g)** the 2008 ice storm at the Guiyang station in Southwest China, **(h-n)** the 2013 summer heatwave in Pudong New Area, Shanghai in East China. Panels from top to bottom in each group show air temperature, RH (%), AVP (hPa), VPD (hPa), DPT (°C), MR (g/kg), and SH (g/kg). Gray dashed vertical lines mark the onset dates of the events.



552 4.4 Limitations and future works

553 HiMIC-Daily offers new capabilities for studying rapidly evolving hydroclimatic
 554 processes at fine spatial and temporal scales. In particular, the dataset can advance
 555 research on wet-dry abrupt transitions, urban moisture island variability, and rapid
 556 moisture changes during heat extremes (He et al., 2025; Huang et al., 2026; Gu et al., 2025).
 557 Nevertheless, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, meteorological
 558 stations used for model training are unevenly distributed across China, with dense
 559 coverage in eastern China but sparse coverage in western mountainous regions such as
 560 the Tibetan Plateau. This spatial imbalance may affect model training and validation,
 561 particularly in areas with complex terrain and limited ground observations (Sonak and
 562 Patankar, 2015; Jafarigol and Trafalis, 2023). In regions with sparse station coverage,
 563 the model may rely more largely on remote sensing and reanalysis covariates, which
 564 could increase the potential uncertainty of the reconstructed moisture fields.

565 Second, our model's performance is partly constrained by uncertainties in the input
 566 datasets. For instance, ERA5-Land 2-m SAT and DPT are subject to biases inherited
 567 from precipitation forcing and underestimated uncertainties from the land surface
 568 model (Muñoz-Sabater et al., 2021). These uncertainties may propagate through the
 569 machine-learning framework and affect the final estimates of atmospheric moisture
 570 indicators. Similarly, uncertainties in remote sensing products, topographic data, and
 571 ancillary covariates may affect local predictions. Future improvements in the quality,
 572 spatial resolution, and temporal consistency of input datasets would further enhance the
 573 reliability of HiMIC-Daily.

574 Third, the temporal coverage of HiMIC-Daily is partly constrained by the
 575 availability of a temporally consistent land cover product. In this study, MCD12Q1.006
 576 is used as the land cover covariate spanning 2001–2020 (Friedl and Sulla-Menashe,
 577 2019), which limits the current version of the dataset to this period. Future work can
 578 incorporate land cover datasets with longer temporal coverage to extend HiMIC-Daily
 579 to more recent years and earlier decades. In addition, the framework developed here



580 could be transferred to other regions and expanded toward a global-scale atmospheric
 581 moisture product.

582

583 **5. Data availability**

584 The high-resolution (daily and 1 km) multi-indicator atmospheric moisture dataset
 585 over China during 2003–2020 (HiMIC-Daily) is publicly available through the National
 586 Tibetan Plateau Data Center (TPDC) of China at
 587 <https://doi.org/10.11888/Atmos.tpdc.303449> (last access: May 2026; (Su et al., 2026b)).
 588 HiMIC-Daily provides six atmospheric moisture indicators: relative humidity (RH, %),
 589 actual vapor pressure (AVP, hPa), vapor pressure deficit (VPD, hPa), dew point
 590 temperature (DPT, °C), mixing ratio (MR, g kg⁻¹), and specific humidity (SH, g kg⁻¹).
 591 The dataset has a high spatial resolution of 1 km × 1 km and covers mainland China at
 592 a daily temporal resolution. All indicators demonstrate high predictive accuracy, with
 593 R^2 values exceeding 0.877 and MAE and RMSE values within acceptable ranges. The
 594 dataset is organized by moisture indicator and year. Six main folders correspond to the
 595 six moisture indicators, and each folder contains 18 annual files in ‘.zip’ format,
 596 covering 2003–2020. Each ‘.zip’ file contains one annual NetCDF file, in which daily
 597 data are stored along the time coordinate. To balance storage efficiency with numerical
 598 precision, all variables are scaled by a factor of 100 and saved as 16-bit integer (int16)
 599 values. Users can recover the original values by dividing the stored data by 100. The
 600 naming rule for each ‘.zip’ file follows
 601 “HiMIC_China_Daily_{Indicator}_{Year}.zip”, where “Indicator” denotes one of the
 602 six moisture variables (RH, AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH) and “Year” ranges from
 603 2003 to 2020. Further details can be found in the “README.pdf” file.
 604



605 6. Code availability

606 The codes for generating the HiMIC-Daily dataset are available from Zenodo at
 607 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20124067> (last access in May 2026; (Su et al., 2026a))
 608 and are compatible with Python 3.10. The repository contains a folder named
 609 “Codes_HiMIC_Daily” that includes three Python scripts: “Input Data
 610 Preprocessing.py”, “HiMIC-Daily Model.py”, and “Result Visualization.py”. In
 611 addition, “DataSamples_HiMIC_Daily” provides the sample data required to run the
 612 codes. The complete repository supports reproducible implementation and independent
 613 validation of the proposed framework.

614

615 7. Conclusion

616 Accurate atmospheric moisture data at daily and 1-km scales are essential for
 617 advancing the understanding of regional climate variability and hydro-meteorological
 618 extremes, assessing public health risks, and maintaining regional ecological and
 619 environmental stability. However, existing atmospheric moisture datasets over China
 620 remain limited in spatial and temporal resolutions and in indicator coverage. The
 621 commonly used products, such as CMFD and CDMet, suffer from coarse spatial
 622 resolution and limited coverage of moisture variables, which constrain fine-scale
 623 applications. In this study, we develop HiMIC-Daily, a seamless daily 1-km-resolution
 624 atmospheric moisture dataset for China spanning 2003–2020, covering six key moisture
 625 indicators: RH, AVP, VPD, DPT, MR, and SH.

626 HiMIC-Daily is generated using the LightGBM framework by integrating
 627 meteorological station observations with multiple high-resolution datasets, including
 628 land surface temperature (MOD11A1/MYD11A1), land cover (MCD12Q1),
 629 topographic variables (MERIT DEM), column water vapor (MCD19A2), vapor
 630 pressure (TerraClimate), 2-m SAT and DPT (ERA5-Land), and population density
 631 (WorldPop). The dataset demonstrates reliable performance, with R^2 values exceeding
 632 0.877 and MAE and RMSE within acceptable ranges. Compared with CMFD and
 633 CDMet, HiMIC-Daily provides finer spatial detail and closer agreement with station



634 observations, thus better capturing variations in moisture indicators. The HiMIC-Daily
 635 dataset also captures temporal moisture responses during both cold and heat extremes,
 636 highlighting its value for event-scale analyses. The fine spatial and temporal detail of
 637 this dataset makes it suitable for a wide range of studies in meteorology, ecology,
 638 environmental science, and human health, supporting applications that require fine-
 639 scale atmospheric moisture information.

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