

# Estimation of Heating-Up Effecting in the Yellow River Basin Based on MODIS Data

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## Research Article

**Keywords:** Modis, Air temperature, GWR method, Heating-up effect

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# 1 Estimation of heating-up effecting in the Yellow 2 River Basin based on MODIS data

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9 **Abstract:** Using MODIS land surface temperature data, air temperature data and elevation  
10 data from 2000 to 2015 in the Yellow River Basin. The GWR analysis method with high  
11 accuracy was chosen to establish the regression model of plateau air temperature, land surface  
12 temperature and altitude. In the 12-month GWR regression model, the determination  
13 coefficient (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>) was above 0.95 or more (0.959-0.980) and the root-mean-square error  
14 (RMSE) was between 0.740 and 1.029°C. Depending on the model, the air temperature of the  
15 Yellow River Basin is estimated and the accuracy is verified. On this basis, the average  
16 monthly air temperature in the basin is converted to altitudes of 4500m and 5000m, and the  
17 heating-up effects of various shapes in the basin are compared and discussed. The results  
18 show that: (1) Using the GWR method, combined with the observation data of the ground  
19 station, the accuracy of the air temperature estimation in the Yellow River Basin can be  
20 increased to 0.740°C; (2) According to the estimated annual variation of the spatial distribution  
21 of the 12-month average temperature, in the upper of the Tibet Plateau, the Huangshui Valley  
22 and the Gannan Plateau have lower annual air temperatures and less spatial distribution.  
23 While the air temperature in the northeast of the upstream Inner Mongolia plateau was  
24 higher, which was related to the rapid drying temperature rise near the desert. The change of  
25 mean monthly temperature in the middle and lower reaches is relatively high and the change  
26 is small, which is closely linked to the fact that it is located in the low-elevation area of the  
27 basin plain and has perennial light and heat.(3) The heating-up effect in the Yellow River Basin  
28 is outstanding. It is preliminaries estimated that at the same altitude, the Tibet Plateau is about  
29 1.5~8°C higher than the Loess Plateau, and about 6~13°C higher than the North China Plain.

30 **Keywords:** Modis; Air temperature ; GWR method; Heating-up effect

## 38 1 Introduction

39 Heating-up effect has long been the focus of scholars, referring to the thermal effects of  
40 the bulging mountain, leading to the temperature-dependent vertical boundary of the  
41 mountain (timberline, snow line) in the inland giant mountain or mountain center than the

42 peripheral area or coastal. The phenomenon of high regional distribution is the main factor  
43 affecting the distribution of altitudinal zones on a large scale, and is an important mechanism  
44 for the spatial pattern and dynamic change of the geographic surface system[1-4]. The  
45 thermal effect of the mountain produces a temperature space pattern that the internal  
46 temperature of the mountain is higher than the outside at the same altitude, which the  
47 essence is that the mountain or plateau uplift has increased the temperature effect on the  
48 surrounding atmosphere [5-7]. The Yellow River Basin has a large geographical span and  
49 flows through most of northwest and north China, which has a major impact on the Asian  
50 climate. The Yellow River Basin is bounded by the Bayan Kala Mountain in the west, the  
51 Yinshan Mountain in the north, the Qinling Mountains in the south, and the Bohai Sea in the  
52 east. Topography within the basin is with large differences that is high in the west and low in  
53 the east, while it has crossed the three-level ladder of China from west to east. The terrain in  
54 the area is complex and diverse, but the stations across the meteorological observatory are  
55 very rare as well as the temperature data is scarce. So it is difficult to conduct in-depth and  
56 quantitative research on the temperature heating-up effect [8-10]. The air temperature in the  
57 Yellow River Basin is mainly obtained through a series of statistical analyses and spatial  
58 interpolation basing on the observation data of discrete meteorological stations. For example,  
59 Pan Pan et al. used the statistical analysis method based on observation data from 142 stations  
60 in the Yellow River Basin to study the interdecadal variations of the Yellow River Basin in the  
61 past 50 years, revealing the temporal and spatial distribution as well as variation  
62 characteristics of the Yellow River basin [11]; Huang Xing et al. used the data from 52 stations  
63 in the Inner Mongolia section of the Yellow River Basin from 1951 to 2012 to study the air  
64 temperature variability and warming stagnation of the Yellow River Basin in the past 60 years,  
65 while studied the trend of air temperature variation in the typical region of the Yellow River  
66 Basin [12]; These studies all focused on the use of statistical methods to study the interannual  
67 variation of temperature in the Yellow River Basin, which the results can reflect the temporal  
68 variation of temperature and the overall variation of the region to a certain extent, but it  
69 cannot accurately reflect the detailed spatial distribution of air temperature [13-15].

70 At present, the most common way to get the air temperature of a certain spatial location  
71 is to obtain the data from the existing meteorological stations [16]. In the Yellow River Basin,  
72 on the one hand, due to the scarcity of meteorological stations, on the other hand, because the  
73 plateau types and plains are interlaced in the basin and the types of landforms are diverse,  
74 the spatial position of these stations cannot fully reflect the spatial variability of air  
75 temperature[17,18]. Yao Yonghui et al. conducted a detailed discussion on the variation  
76 characteristics and regional differences of annual average temperature and precipitation from  
77 1960 to 2008 in the Hengduan Mountains, with selecting the 27 weather stations with the  
78 longest measured data sequence in the region. It is proposed that the air temperature in the  
79 Hengduan Mountains showed a statistically warming trend in the past 50 years[19]. In order  
80 to obtain more accurate interpolation results, Hwang et al. (2005) generated high-precision  
81 global temperature and precipitation interpolation by of longitude, latitude and altitude as  
82 variables based on global 1950-2000 meteorological observation data and 90m resolution  
83 SRTM topographic data, which , however, because the samples are very rare, there is a large  
84 uncertainty in the data in the mountains[20]. Factors affecting temperature such as soil  
85 temperature and humidity, vegetation cover, mountain heating-up effect, slope topographic

86 conditions, precipitation, etc. [21], it is difficult to obtain detailed data at the same scale,  
87 which has become the bottleneck of air temperature space interpolation. [22-24].

88 With the development of thermal infrared remote sensing technology, it provides a more  
89 efficient and effective way to obtain spatial data of air temperature [25]. Han Fang et al.  
90 combined MOD11C3 land surface temperature products and the measured temperature data  
91 from 144 meteorological stations on the ground to estimate the air temperature difference at  
92 the same height inside and outside the Tibet Plateau. It shows that the air temperature  
93 difference between the inner and outer parts of the data point is closely related to the height  
94 of the local base surface. While height of the base surface increases by 100 m, the air  
95 temperature difference increases by about 0.051°C [26, 27]. Hongmei Zhang developed a  
96 method for estimating the daily average near-surface air temperature by using estimating  
97 daily maximum and minimum air temperatures from time series observed with Moderate  
98 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS).  
99 The advantage is that it can obtain reasonable near-surface air temperature data from remote  
100 sensing data, with mean absolute error (MAE) and root-mean-square error (RMSE) of 1.2°C  
101 and 1.6 °C respectively [14]. Didari et al. used a stepwise linear model to estimate the  
102 minimum LST<sub>5cm</sub> for the period 2003-2011, by using land surface temperature (LST) data  
103 and normalized differential vegetation index (NDVI) from MODIS Aqua and Terra satellites,  
104 as well as geometric temperature and elevation information. The results show that the  
105 accuracy of winter estimation is lower than other seasons (RMSE=3.55°C), and the errors in  
106 summer and winter are greater than the rest of the season [28]. Zhang, F. et al. estimated the  
107 ground observation of four glaciers on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. The daily temperature  
108 indicates that the RGS model based on MODIS nighttime data is significantly better than the  
109 model based on MODIS daytime data in estimating the daily average, minimum and  
110 maximum temperatures, which is effective to limit the MODIS daily four observations data to  
111 non-cloudy [29]. Yulin Cai et al. connected the daily maximum surface temperature (T<sub>max</sub>),  
112 surface temperature, and five major land cover types in the growing and non-growing stages  
113 of the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River by using the medium-resolution  
114 imaging spectrometer surface temperature (LST) product. Statistical models were developed  
115 to show that the modeling performance of the T<sub>max</sub>-LST relationship is highly dependent  
116 on land cover and seasonal variation [30]. Bo-Hui Tang et al. compare the use of the medium  
117 resolution imaging spectrometer product MOD11\_L2/MYD11\_L2 and in situ LST in the field  
118 of the Hailar field in northeastern China, showed that the LST retrieval accuracy can be  
119 improved by 0.4K by reparameterizing the GSW coefficients using an ATI profile from a  
120 thermodynamic initial guess to retrieve a cloudless database [31]. Based on MODIS land  
121 surface temperature data, 137 meteorological observatory data and ASTERGDEM data, Yao  
122 Yonghui established a regression model of plateau air temperature, land surface temperature  
123 and altitude, estimated the air temperature of the Tibet Plateau, and made comparative  
124 analysis of the heating-up effect inside the plateau relative to the peripheral areas [32]. This  
125 study shows that using MODIS land surface temperature can accurately estimate mountain  
126 air temperature. The air temperature estimation based on MODIS land surface temperature  
127 also shows that the land surface temperature obtained by thermal infrared remote sensing  
128 has a good linear relationship with the air temperature [33-36]. The air temperature can be  
129 estimated accurately by land surface temperature (RMSE is basically around 1~3°C), which

130 can get more detailed information on air temperature and space changes [37-40].

131 Studying the heating-up effect of the mountain and estimating the difference between  
132 the mountains at the same altitude is the key to quantifying the mountain effect. The LST data  
133 provided by the MODIS sensor has medium spatial and temporal resolution, which has been  
134 widely used in station temperature estimation for sparse mountainous areas. Although many  
135 studies have estimated the air temperature of different regional types, however, the accuracy  
136 needs to be improved. Based on Modis data and air temperature data, this paper estimates  
137 the air temperature of the Yellow River Basin with high precision and obtains the air  
138 temperature difference between different terrain heights in the region, thus realizing the  
139 quantification of the mountain effect in the Yellow River Basin. The research purposes of this  
140 paper are as follows: (1) To analyze the time series changes of air temperature and land  
141 surface temperature, and to reflect the difference between air temperature and land surface  
142 temperature by detecting and characterizing Breaks For Additive Seasonal and Trend  
143 (BFAST). (2) Using the geo-weighted regression analysis method based on spatial  
144 heterogeneity theory, estimate the average monthly air temperature of the Yellow River Basin  
145 with the long-term sequence of MODIS land surface temperature data combining with air  
146 temperature data and DEM data. (3) Taking the special topography of the Yellow River Basin,  
147 draw strips across the Tibet Plateau, the Loess Plateau and the North China Plain, focusing on  
148 the air temperature distribution and heating-up effect in the Yellow River Basin.

149

## 150 **2 Study area and data**

### 151 2.1 Study area

152 The Yellow River Basin traverses East and West China, most of which are situated in the  
153 northwest of China (Fig.1). Located between  $95^{\circ}53' \sim 119^{\circ}05'$  E and  $32^{\circ}10' \sim 41^{\circ}50'$  N, it is  
154 1900km long from east to west and 1100km wide from north to south, with a drainage area of  
155 795,000 square kilometers. The Yellow River Basin has a vast territory and a huge difference  
156 in topography. The drainage area is high in the west and low in the east. The average  
157 elevation of the western Heyuan area is above 4000m. It consists of a series of lofty mountains,  
158 with snow all over the year and glacial landforms. The elevation of the central area is between  
159 1000 and 2000m, which is the loess landform with serious soil erosion. Not more than 50  
160 meters are mainly composed of the alluvial plains of the Yellow River, where the river  
161 overhangs the ground, posing a great flood threat. The distribution of meteorological stations  
162 in the study area is uneven, and the detailed data of meteorological elements such as  
163 temperature and precipitation are scarce. The estimation of temperature by means of thermal  
164 infrared remote sensing can provide an important means for climate research in this region.

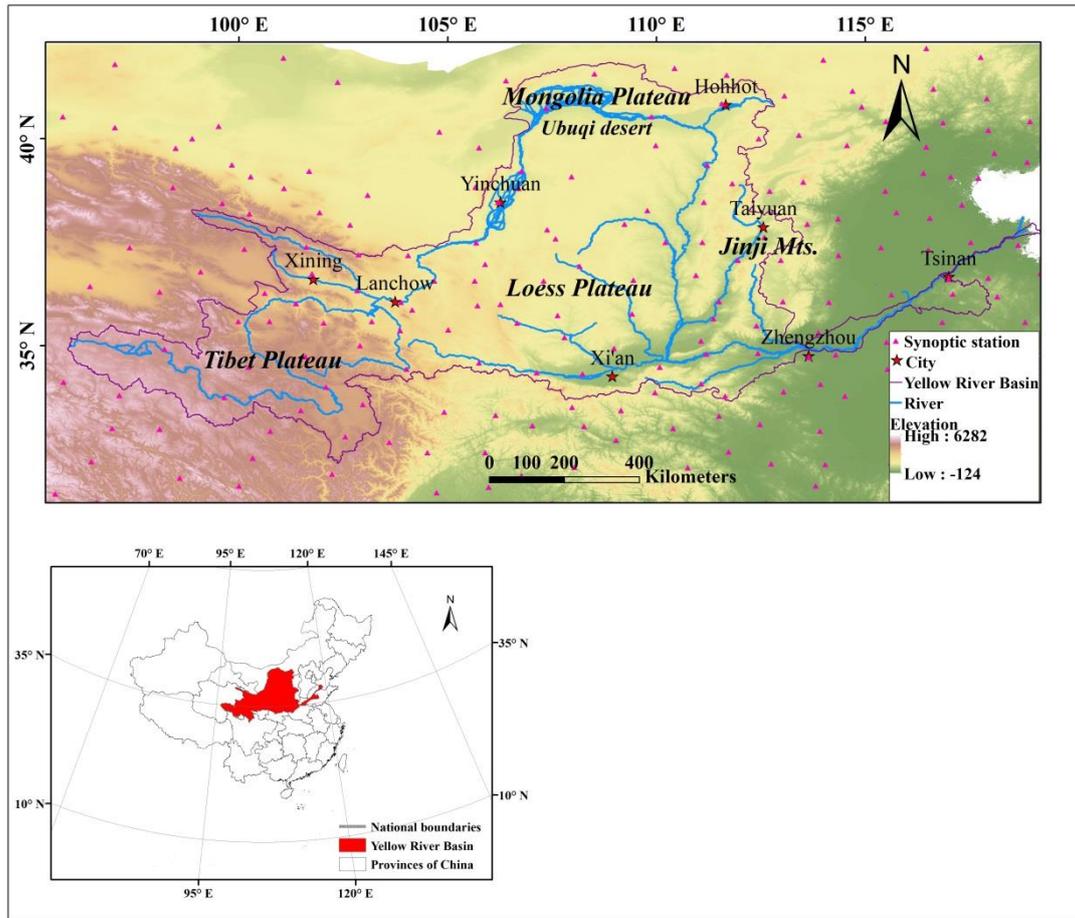


Fig.1 Study area and weather station distribution map

165  
166  
167

## 2.2 Data

168  
169 Land Surface Temperature data are MODIS Terra/Aqua global monthly mean surface  
170 temperature/emissivity data with a spatial resolution of 1 km, from 2000 to 2015. The data  
171 product is Terra/Aqua Monthly Land Surface Temperature & Emissivity (MODLT1T), and the  
172 data is from the International Scientific & Technical Data Mirror Site (Computer Network  
173 Information Center, Chinese Academy of Sciences.). Owing to the influence of clouds, there  
174 are some missing values in these MODIS surface temperature data, mainly distributed in the  
175 middle of the Loess Plateau. We replace these missing values with the nearest neighbor  
176 method with elevation.

177 The air temperature data used in this paper are the average monthly temperature data  
178 from 2000 to 2015, taken from the China Meteorological Information Center China Land  
179 Climate Data Monthly Value Data Set (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn/index.jsp>). After strict quality  
180 control and screening, the data using the 1km resolution topographic map DEM of the Yellow  
181 River Basin as a covariance, using the AUSPLIN software spline method (TPS, Thin Plate  
182 Spline) for spatial interpolation, the generated ground horizontal resolution of 1km × 1km of  
183 monthly grid data.

184 ASTERGDEM data is downloaded from <http://www.gdem.aster.ersdac.or.jp>. The spatial  
185 resolution is 30 m. In order to estimate the temperature together with the MODIS land surface

186 temperature data, re-sampling is performed in a grid unit of 1 km x 1 km.

### 187 3 Method

188 Average monthly land surface temperature data of MODIS Terra/Aqua 2000-2015 are  
189 compared with the average monthly air temperature data of meteorological data. The average  
190 monthly land surface temperature data of day and night in Terra surface temperature data set  
191 are averaged to obtain the monthly mean surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) of the Yellow River Basin  
192 from 2000 to 2015 and a corresponding database is established; on this basis, the following  
193 analysis is performed:

194 (1) ① BFAST algorithm

195 This method [41] decomposes the integrated time series into three parts: trend,  
196 seasonality and residual, and detects and characterizes the sudden changes in the trend and  
197 seasonal parts according to a certain method. Suppose an additive decomposition model can  
198 iterate to a piecewise linear model that matches the trend and seasonality. The algorithmic  
199 form of the model is:

$$200 Y_t = T_t + S_t + e_t, t = 1, \dots, n \quad (1)$$

201 where  $Y_t$  is the value observed at time  $t$ ;  $T_t$  is the trend component; all is the seasonal  
202 component.  $e_t$  is the residual part, that is, the variable component outside the seasonality and  
203 the trend. Suppose the change of  $T_t$  is piecewise linear and there are  $t_1^*, \dots, t_m^*$ , and define  $t_0^*$ :

$$204 T_t = \alpha_j + \beta_j t \quad (2)$$

205 where the range of  $t$  is  $t_{j-1}^* < t \leq t_j^*$ , and  $j=1, \dots, m$ ;  $\alpha_j$  and  $\beta_j$  are the intercept and slope of  
206 the continuous linear model, respectively, which can be obtained from the magnitude and  
207 direction of the sudden change. It is the slope of the gradual change between the detection  
208 breakpoints. The change size of each mutation point is the difference of  $T_t$  between  $t_{j-1}^*$  and  
209  $t_j^*$ .

210 The seasonal trend can be expressed as:

$$211 S_t = \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} \gamma_{i,j} (d_{t,i} - d_{t,0}) \quad (3)$$

212 where  $s$  is the seasonal duration (such as the number of observations per year);  $\gamma_{i,j}$  is the  
213 influence factor of the  $i$ -th period. When time  $t$  is the  $i$ -th observation,  $d_{t,i}=1$ , otherwise 0.  
214 Therefore, when  $t$  is the seasonal zero period,  $d_{t,i} - d_{t,0} = -1$ . When  $t$  is other seasonal period,  
215  $d_{t,i} - d_{t,0} = 1$ .  $d_{t,i}$  usually considered as seasonal dummy variable, it has two available  
216 values of 0 and 1 to explain the seasonal period in the regression model.

217 ② Iterative Algorithms

218 Before fitting the piecewise linear model and estimating the mutation point, first test  
219 whether any mutation point appears in the time series. The ordinary least squares OLS  
220 (ordinary least squares) residual based on the moving sum (moving sum) test is used to test  
221 whether there are one or more mutation points. If a significant change is tested ( $P < 0.05$ ), Bai  
222 and Perron's method is used to estimate the mutation points, and the number of mutation  
223 points, as well as the time and confidence interval of the mutation points, are determined  
224 according to the Bayesian information criterion.

225 The iterative algorithm starts with the STL method to estimate  $\hat{S}_t$ , where  $\hat{S}_t$  is estimated  
226 from the mean of all seasonal subsequences. After that, the iterative algorithm follows the  
227 following 4 steps:

228 1) If the OLS-MOSUM test shows that there are mutation points in the trend component,

229 the number and location (time) information of these mutation points  $(t_1^*, \dots, t_m^*)$  can be  
 230 estimated from the corrected seasonal data to get  $Yt - \hat{S}_t$ .

231 2) The trend coefficients  $\alpha_j, \beta_j$ , in the interval  $j=1, \dots, m$  are calculated by the robust  
 232 regression equation (2) based on the M estimation method. The trend estimate is:

$$233 \quad \hat{T}_t = \hat{\alpha}_j + \hat{\beta}_j t, t = t_{j-1}^* + 1, \dots, t_j^* \quad (4)$$

234 3) If the OLS-MOSUM test shows that the mutation point appears in the seasonal  
 235 component, the number of seasonal mutation points  $(t_1^\#, \dots, t_p^\#)$  and the location (time) can be  
 236 estimated from the trend data  $Yt - \hat{T}_t$ .

237 4) The seasonal coefficient  $\gamma_{i,j}(i=1, \dots, s-1; j=1, \dots, m)$  can be calculated from the regression  
 238 equation based on the M estimation method. The seasonal estimation formula is:

$$239 \quad \hat{S}_t = \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} \hat{\gamma}_{i,j} (d_{t,i} - d_{t,0}), t = t_{j-1}^\# + 1, \dots, t_j^\# \quad (5)$$

240 (2)The GWR method is used to estimate the regression equation of air temperature and  
 241 MODIS land surface temperature and altitude at each given location in the study area  
 242 (formula (5)), and generate the land surface temperature coefficient surface, the altitude  
 243 coefficient surface and the constant term coefficient surface. Establish a GWR regression  
 244 model for temperature estimation.

$$245 \quad T\alpha_i(u) = \beta_{0i}(u) + \beta_{1i}(u)Ts_i(u) + \beta_{2i}(u)h_i(u) \quad (5)$$

246 Where  $T\alpha$  represents air temperature;  $Ts$  represents MODIS land surface temperature;  $h$   
 247 represents the altitude;  $u$  represents a certain spatial position;  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , represents the number  
 248 of spatial positions;  $\beta$  is the corresponding coefficient term. Gaussian and bi-square  
 249 kernel functions are two common kernel types for GWR. The Gaussian kernel weights  
 250 continuously and gradually decrease from the center of the kernel; however, the weights  
 251 never reach zero. The adaptive Gaussian kernel function is as follows:

$$252 \quad \omega_{ij} = \exp\left(-\left(\frac{d_{ij}}{b}\right)^2\right) \quad (6)$$

253 Where  $d_{ij}$  is the distance between the sites and  $b$  is an adaptive bandwidth size that is  
 254 defined as the nearest neighbour distance.

255 The bi-square kernel function has a clear-cut range where the weighting is non-zero. In  
 256 this study, the adaptive bi-square kernel function was used to describe the spatial dependence  
 257 of the data:

$$258 \quad w_{ij} = \begin{cases} \left[1 - \left(\frac{d_{ij}}{b}\right)^2\right]^2 & d_{ij} \leq b \\ 0 & d_{ij} > b \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

259 The selection of an appropriate bandwidth requires care and in some instances may  
 260 benefit from a measure of how well the model fits the data. An interval search was used  
 261 to determine the optimal bandwidth of the adaptive bi-square kernel function.

262 (3)The high-precision GWR model is used to estimate the average monthly air  
 263 temperature of the basin for 12 months. In this paper, the air temperature is converted into  
 264 sea level temperature for related research [42], and the average monthly air temperature of  
 265 the plateau is converted to the average altitude of the Tibetan Plateau within the basin, which

266 was 4,500m and 5000m respectively, so as to compare the differences of geomorphic units  
 267 within the basin:

$$268 \quad T_{ah} = T_a + (\text{elevation} - h) \times 0.006 \quad (8)$$

269 Where  $h$  is the specified altitude, in this paper 4,500 m and 5000 m;  $T_{ah}$  and  $T_a$  are the air  
 270 temperature and the actual temperature at a specified altitude,  $h$ , respectively. Vertical decline  
 271 rate of temperature still uses the average vertical temperature decline rate of 0.006°C/m.

## 272 4 Results and discussion

### 273 4.1 Data analysis results

274 Through the time series analysis of MODIS land surface temperature and air temperature  
 275 data in different months of the study area, the average monthly temperature of MODIS land  
 276 surface temperature is generally consistent with the air temperature change regularity, and  
 277 the root mean square error of each month is statistically analyzed (Table 1). The RMSE  
 278 of 48%~82% is lower than 4°C, and the RMSE of about 2%~19% is higher than 6°C. The  
 279 location of the root mean square error is mainly concentrated in the upper reaches of the Tibet  
 280 Plateau in the upper reaches of the Yellow River Basin, the eastern and western parts of the  
 281 Loess Plateau and in the middle of the Inner Mongolia Plateau, there are mountains such as  
 282 Qilian Mountain, Helan Mountain, Yin Mountain and Taihang Mountain. The reasons for this  
 283 analysis are: (1) The complex and diverse topographical conditions of the Yellow River Basin,  
 284 such as altitude and surface roughness and undulation, will have a strong influence on the  
 285 temperature. (2) The impact of vegetation covers during the growing season. Existing  
 286 research has also shown that different types of ecosystems and land cover have a greater  
 287 impact on temperature. During the growing season, different types of vegetation return to  
 288 green and grow, which has a greater impact on surface temperature [43-45], which may be  
 289 the main reason for the significant difference between  $T_s$  and  $T_a$  in the growth period of the  
 290 Yellow River Basin. (3) The complex geography, climate, ecology and natural environment in  
 291 the basin will have a certain degree of influence on the inversion accuracy of the surface  
 292 temperature, thus increasing the error of temperature estimation accuracy.

293 **Table 1** The result of RMSE between  $T_a$  and  $T_s$

Month	Extent(°C)	Less than 2 °C(%)	2 °C ~ 4 °C (%)	4 °C ~ 6 °C (%)	Greater than 6 °C(%)
Jan.	0.433-12.139	44.047	44.431	9.401	2.121
Feb.	0.507-11.382	25.172	53.005	18.071	3.752
Mar.	0.553-12.501	17.534	37.321	33.953	11.182
Apr.	0.451-14.704	19.015	31.212	35.220	14.553
May	0.628-14.220	19.354	29.562	34.431	16.653
Jun.	0.404-13.188	23.856	30.640	28.102	17.402
Jul.	0.425-13.511	31.973	27.462	22.334	18.231
Aug.	0.431-13.851	34.047	27.310	21.981	16.662
Sep.	0.396-13.431	29.402	34.153	25.921	10.524
Oct.	0.402-13.051	20.313	48.754	24.962	5.971
Nov.	0.464-14.750	32.024	50.123	14.272	3.581

295 **4.2 GWR analysis**

296 Although the air temperature in the basin has a linear relationship with the land surface temperature, the air temperature is still spatially different.  
297 Therefore, the altitude factor is introduced into the GWR regression analysis method to estimate the air temperature. The GWR regression analysis results  
298 (Table 2) show that, from the estimation, the 12-month decision coefficient (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>) is higher than 0.95 (0.959-0.980), and the RMSE of each month is  
299 between 0.740 and 1.029°C, the accuracy is higher.

300

301

**Table 2** Results of GWR analysis for each month

Statistical Index	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Sigma	0.811	0.915	0.992	1.089	1.132	1.073	1.012	0.988	0.900	0.829	0.876	0.990
R <sup>2</sup>	0.981	0.965	0.960	0.961	0.970	0.980	0.981	0.979	0.977	0.976	0.971	0.971
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.980	0.964	0.959	0.959	0.969	0.979	0.980	0.978	0.976	0.975	0.970	0.970
RMSE(°C)	0.760	0.940	0.967	1.000	1.029	0.989	0.980	0.915	0.777	0.740	0.899	1.015

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305

306 4.3 Air Temperature estimation and heating-up effect analysis

307 4.3.1 Air Temperature estimation and precision evaluation

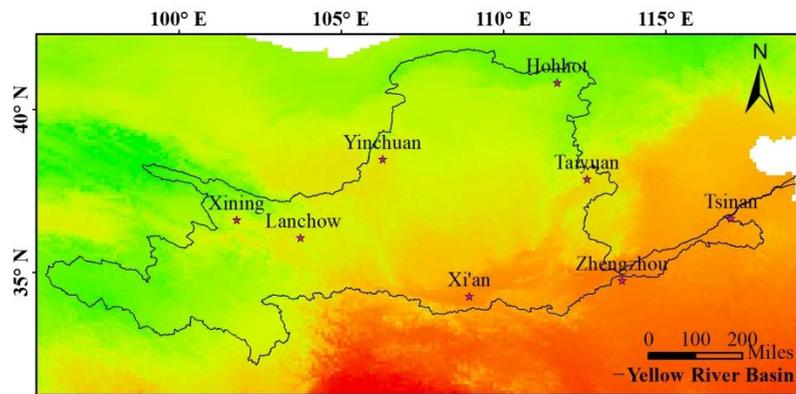
308 Using the GWR method to generate the land surface temperature coefficient and air  
309 temperature surface coefficient , the surface of the altitude coefficient and the surface of the  
310 constant term coefficient, and establish a GWR regression model to estimate the monthly  
311 mean air temperature of the Yellow River Basin. To further evaluate the accuracy of the model  
312 estimates, 225 meteorological stations were used as verification points in the study area. The  
313 results of the error verification show that (Table 3), except for the maximum error from April  
314 to August, which is 1.043-1.109°C, the estimation error of extra months is less than 1°C. The  
315 verification results show that the estimation accuracy of the GWR method can be controlled  
316 within 1.2°C. Accuracy analysis results show that the accuracy of the temperature in the  
317 Yellow River Basin based on MODIS land surface temperature, meteorological data and DEM  
318 is very high.

319

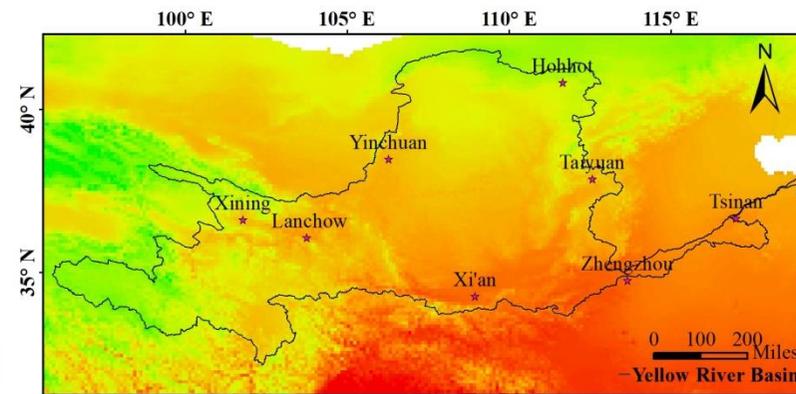
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**Table 3** Site verification error

Month	Residual		Local R <sup>2</sup>	RMSE(°C)
	Range(°C)	-1.2°C~1.2°C(%)		
Jan.	-3.194-1.328	92.445	0.003-0.867	0.631-0.804
Feb.	-2.949-3.653	82.667	0.002-0.909	0.770-0.906
Mar.	-3.057-3.964	77.778	0.001-0.945	0.831-0.983
Apr.	-2.738-4.567	74.111	0.001-0.945	0.911-1.067
May	-3.597-4.713	66.222	0.001-0.953	0.946-1.109
Jun.	-6.086-3.508	68.444	0.003-0.959	0.899-1.063
Jul.	-5.914-4.004	66.222	0.001-0.963	0.867-1.068
Aug.	-5.334-4.056	68.444	0.001-0.952	0.846-1.043
Sep.	-3.760-3.605	75.556	0.007-0.953	0.755-0.892
Oct.	-2.161-2.543	83.556	0.003-0.942	0.696-0.821
Nov.	-2.350-3.463	84.889	0.004-0.936	0.739-0.868
Dec.	-2.868-3.801	81.778	0.004-0.921	0.843-0.981



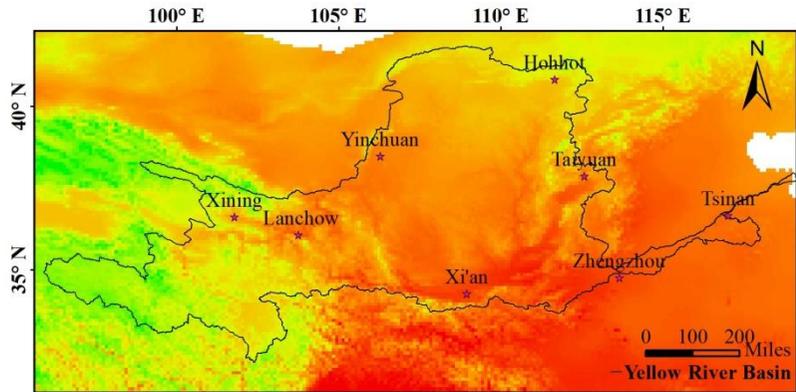
Monthly mean Ta in Jan.(Celsius)  
 6.499 1.077 -4.345 -9.768 -15.190 -20.612



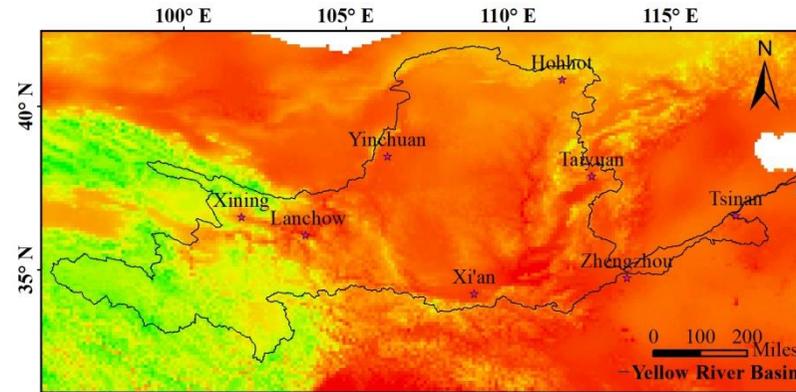
Monthly mean Ta in Feb.(Celsius)  
 10.703 4.304 -2.096 -8.495 -14.895 -21.295

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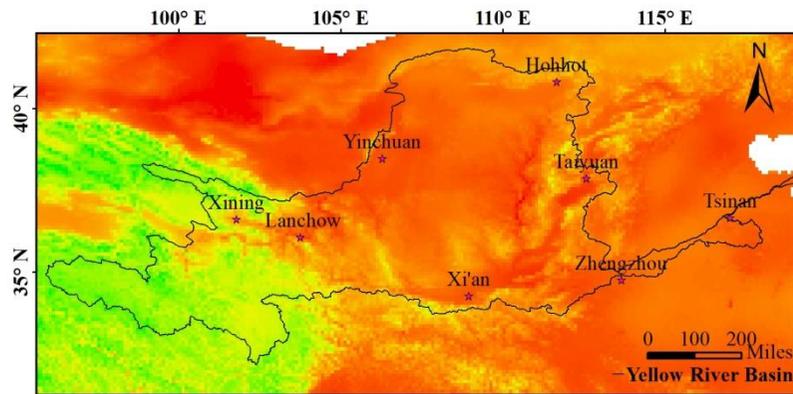
Monthly mean Ta in Mar.(Celsius)  
 16.087 9.502 2.918 -3.666 -10.251 -16.835



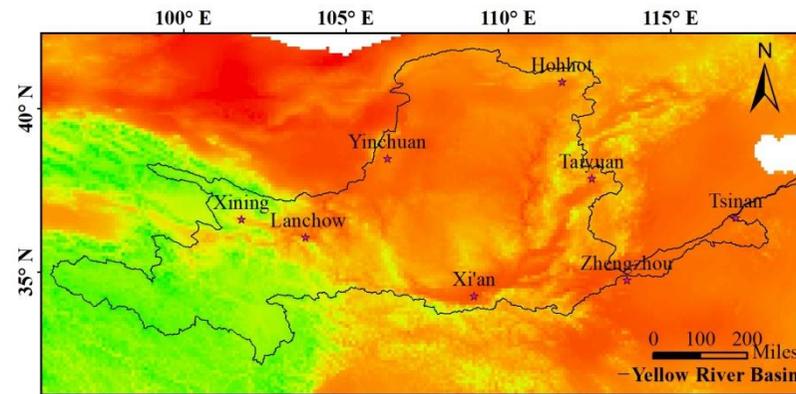
Monthly mean Ta in Apr.(Celsius)  
 20.042 13.902 7.763 1.624 -4.515 -10.654

323

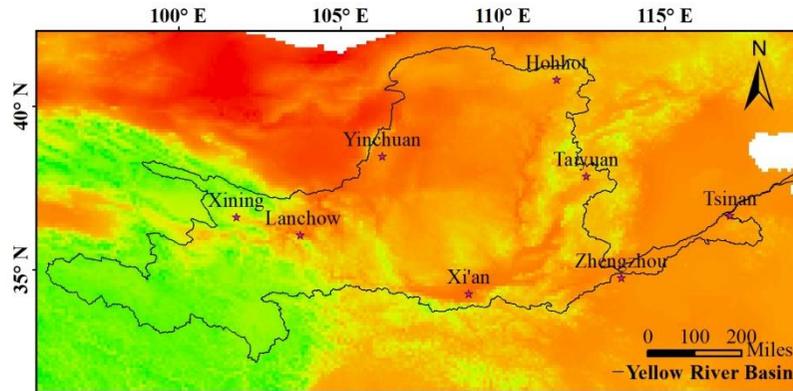
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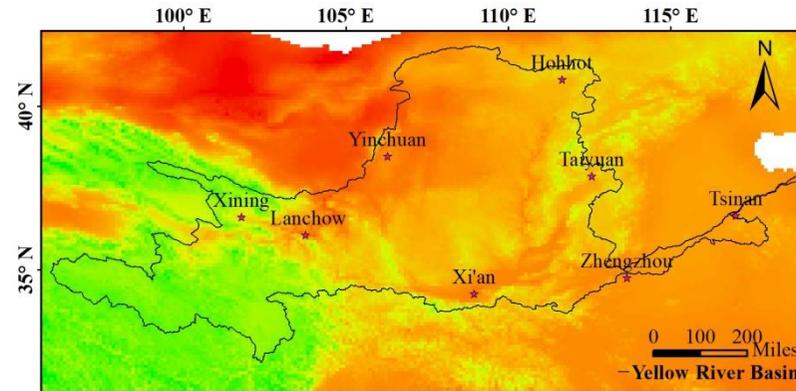
Monthly mean Ta in May(Celsius)  
 26.564 19.803 13.042 6.280 -0.481 -7.243



Monthly mean Ta in Jun.(Celsius)  
 33.130 25.913 18.696 11.479 4.262 -2.955



Monthly mean Ta in Jul.(Celsius)  
 35.704 28.744 21.785 14.825 7.866 0.906

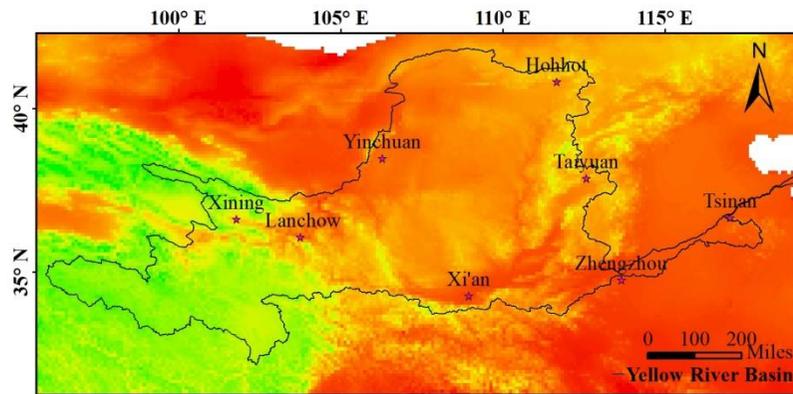


Monthly mean Ta in Aug.(Celsius)  
 33.402 27.028 20.654 14.280 7.906 1.531

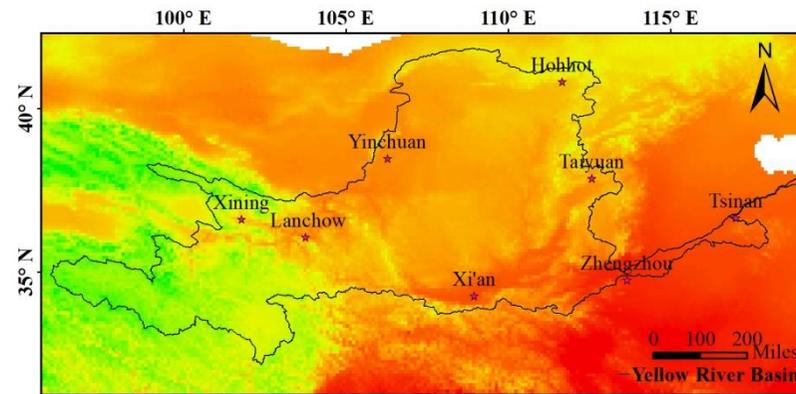
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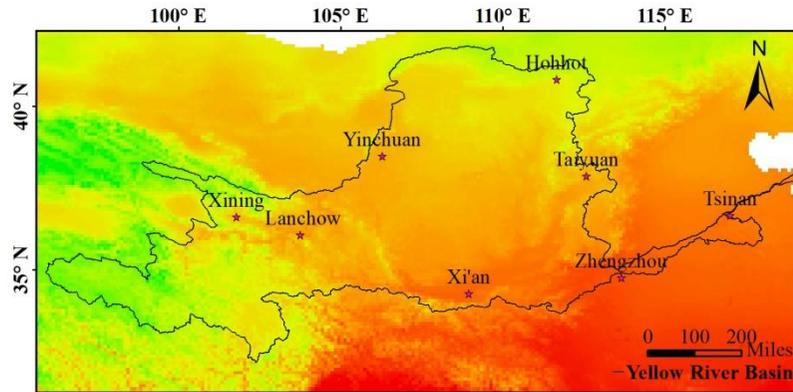
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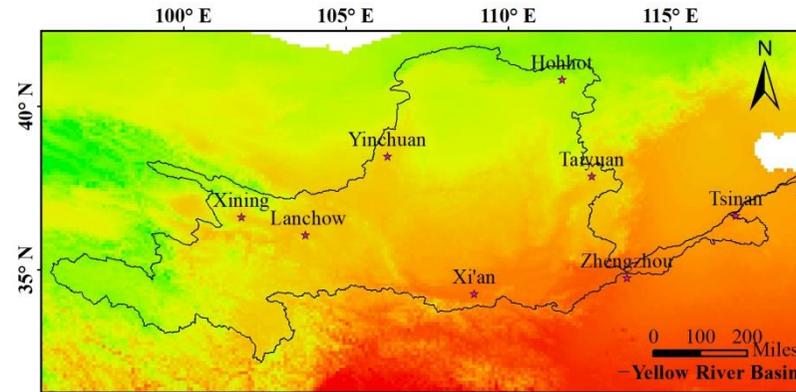
Monthly mean Ta in Sep.(Celsius)  
 25.857 19.817 13.778 7.738 1.698 -4.342



Monthly mean Ta in Oct.(Celsius)  
 20.748 14.356 7.963 1.571 -4.821 -11.214



Monthly mean Ta in Nov.(Celsius)  
 14.756 7.860 0.965 -5.931 -12.827 -19.722



Monthly mean Ta in Dec.(Celsius)  
 8.756 2.232 -4.292 -10.817 -17.341 -23.865

Fig.2 Spatial distribution of monthly mean Ta in the study area

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332 4.3.2 Analysis of heating-up effect in the Yellow River basin

333 According to the spatial distribution of the estimated air temperature(Fig. 2), it can be  
334 seen that the air temperature range in January (the coldest month) is  $-20.612\sim 6.499^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and the  
335 air temperature range in July (the hottest month) is  $0.906\sim 35.704^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; The air temperature in  
336 each month is generally low in the west and high in the east, followed by the north-central  
337 characteristics, and the reason is that the west is located in high altitude areas such as  
338 plateaus and mountains, and the annual air temperature is low. The central and northern  
339 parts are mainly the central Long, the eastern Long of Loess Plateau and the Inner Mongolia  
340 Plateau and it has a deep inland rainfall and a dry climate; the downstream is located in the  
341 plain area and has a low latitude, and accept quantity of heat sufficient all the year round, so  
342 the temperature is high. According to the estimated annual variation of the spatial distribution  
343 of the 12-month average air temperature, in the upper of the Tibet Plateau, the Huangshui  
344 Valley and the Gannan Plateau have lower annual air temperatures and less spatial  
345 distribution. While the air temperature in the northeast of the upstream Inner Mongolia  
346 plateau was higher, especially The Wula Mountain, the YinshanNantun and the Daqingshan  
347 area are the most typical, which was related to the rapid drying temperature rise near the  
348 desert. The change of average monthly air temperature in the middle and lower reaches is  
349 relatively high and the change is small, which is closely linked to the fact that it is located in  
350 the low-elevation area of the basin plain and has perennial light and heat.

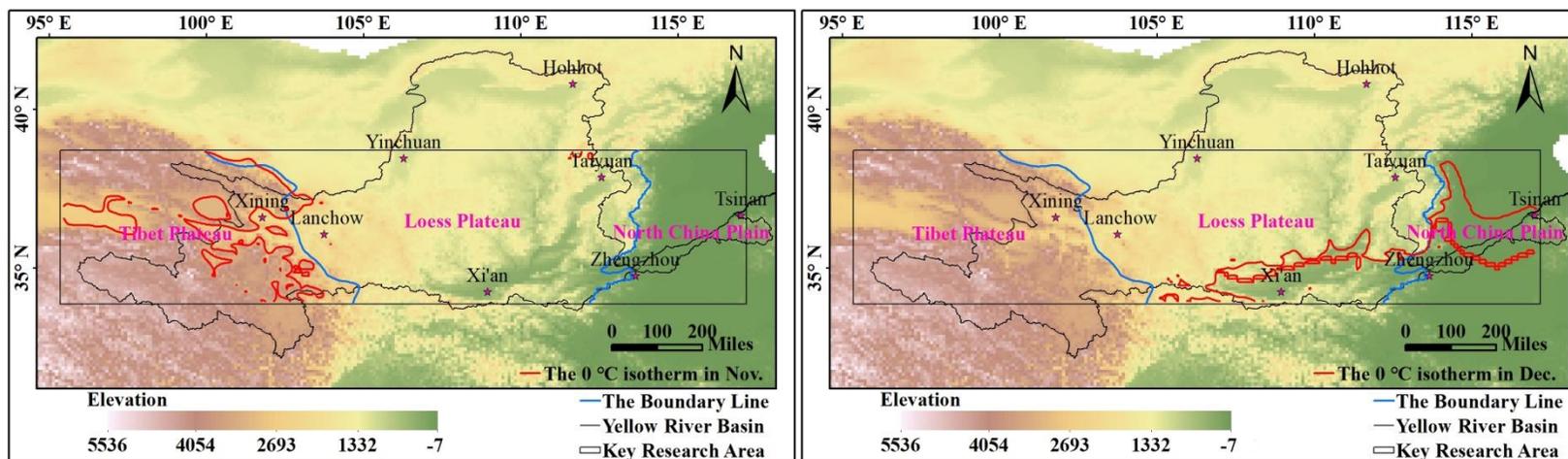
351 In addition, in order to further compare the spatial distribution and difference of the air  
352 temperature inside the basin, the special terrain of the Yellow River Basin is used to draw the  
353 distribution of temperature across the Tibet Plateau, the Loess Plateau and the North China  
354 Plain to focus on the study of the air temperature distribution regulation and heating-up  
355 effect in the region (Fig. 3 Fig. 4), the air temperature inside the strip has the following  
356 characteristics:

357 a) From May to September in the summer half year, the  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm is mainly  
358 distributed in height of  $3000\sim 4700\text{m}$  in the Tibet Plateau. The  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm in October is  
359 mainly distributed at the height of  $900\sim 2700\text{m}$  in the Loess Plateau. The Tibet Plateau also has  
360 scattered distribution. In the summer half year, the  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm has gradually increased  
361 from  $3432\text{m}$  to the highest value of  $4276\text{m}$  (July) since May, and then gradually decreased to  
362 the lowest value of  $2002\text{m}$  (October); the winter half year refers to November to April of the  
363 following year. The  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherms in March and April are mainly distributed at the altitude of  
364  $3000\sim 3900\text{m}$  on the Tibet Plateau. The  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherms in other months of the winter months are  
365 mainly distributed at the height of  $600\sim 3000\text{m}$  on the Loess Plateau and  $30\sim 600\text{m}$  in the North  
366 China Plain. In the winter half year, the  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  isotherm has gradually decreased from  $2933\text{m}$   
367 to the lowest value of  $170\text{m}$  (January) since November. Since then, the  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  temperature line has  
368 gradually recovered and reached the highest value of  $4338\text{m}$  in April. Distribution height of  
369 the isotherm in the area gradually rises from the North China Plain to the Loess Plateau to the  
370 Tibet Plateau, the lowest in the North China Plain and the highest in the Tibet Plateau.  
371 Therefore, it can be seen from the elevation of the isotherm that it gradually rises from the  
372 east to the west of the Yellow River Basin.

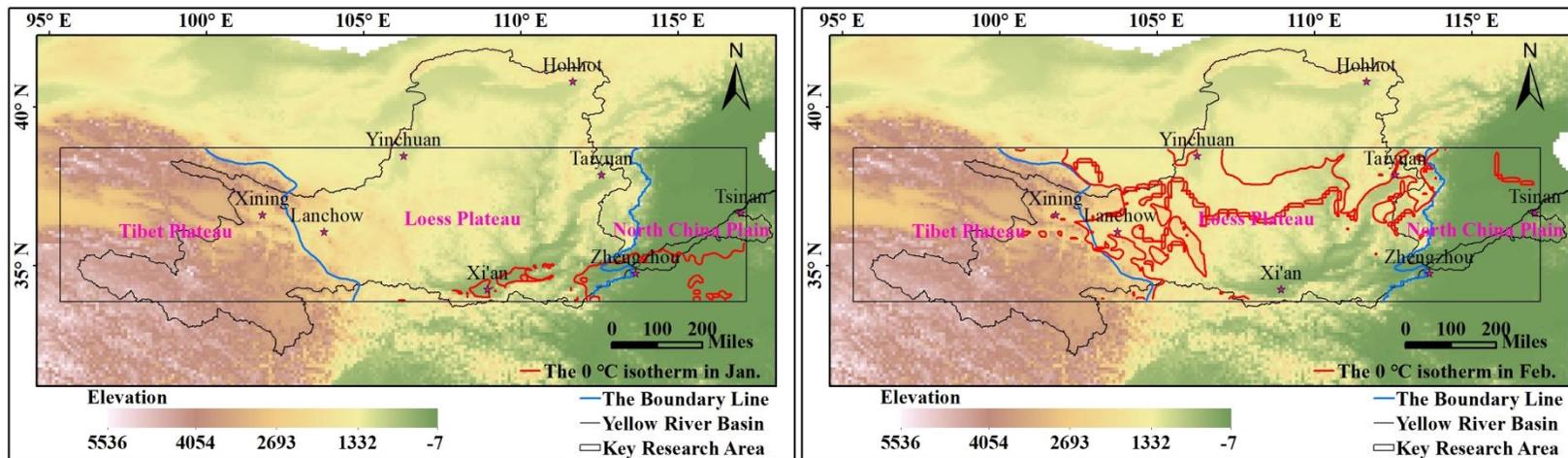
373 b) In terms of air temperature, the plateau heating-up effect is manifested in the same  
374 altitude. The air temperature of different geomorphic units in the Yellow River basin at the

375 same altitude is compared, and the air temperature difference of different geomorphic units  
376 at the same altitude is calculated. The average monthly air temperature was converted to the  
377 altitude of the Yellow River basin in accordance with equation (5), which was 4500m and  
378 5000m, and the air temperature profile was made along the east-west direction (Fig. 5, Fig. 6).  
379 From the air temperature at the same altitude in the Tibet Plateau, the Loess Plateau and the  
380 North China Plain, the air temperature in the Tibet Plateau is higher than that in the Loess  
381 Plateau and North China, and the Loess Plateau is higher than the North China Plain,  
382 regardless of the coldest month (January) or the hottest month (July). The air temperature  
383 difference from the altitude of 4500m can be seen (Table 4, Figure 7). The air temperature  
384 difference between the Loess Plateau and the North China Plain in January (the coldest  
385 month) is 3.020°C, and the air temperature difference in July (the hottest month) is 5.783°C,  
386 the annual air temperature difference is 3.020°C (January)~6.705°C (April); the temperature  
387 difference between the Tibet Plateau and the Loess Plateau in January (the coldest month) is  
388 7.285°C, and the temperature in July (the hottest month) The difference is 3.141°C, the annual  
389 temperature difference is 1.515°C (June)~7.724°C (December); the temperature difference  
390 between the Tibet Plateau and the North China Plain in January (the coldest month) is  
391 10.305°C, July (the hottest month) The temperature difference is 8.924°C, and the annual  
392 temperature difference is 6.333°C (June)~12.355°C (February). It can be seen from the above  
393 analysis that at the same altitude, the Loess Plateau is higher than the North China Plain, and  
394 the temperature of the Tibet Plateau is higher than that of the Loess Plateau and the North  
395 China Plain. This shows that the Tibet Plateau has a large temperature heating up effect,  
396 followed by the Loess Plateau. Not only does it have a higher temperature heating-up effect  
397 in the hottest month, but also has a heating-up effect on the near-surface atmosphere in the  
398 coldest plateau. Due to the influence of heating-up effect, the Tibet Plateau is about 1.5~8°C  
399 higher than the Loess Plateau and about 6~13°C higher than the North China Plain at the  
400 same altitude.

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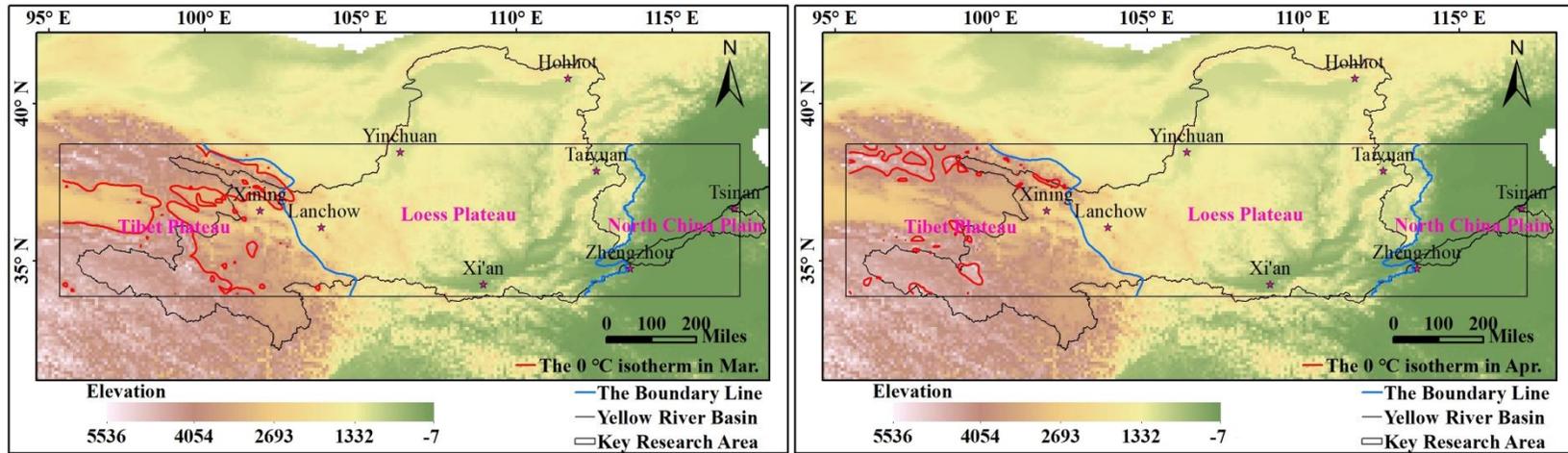
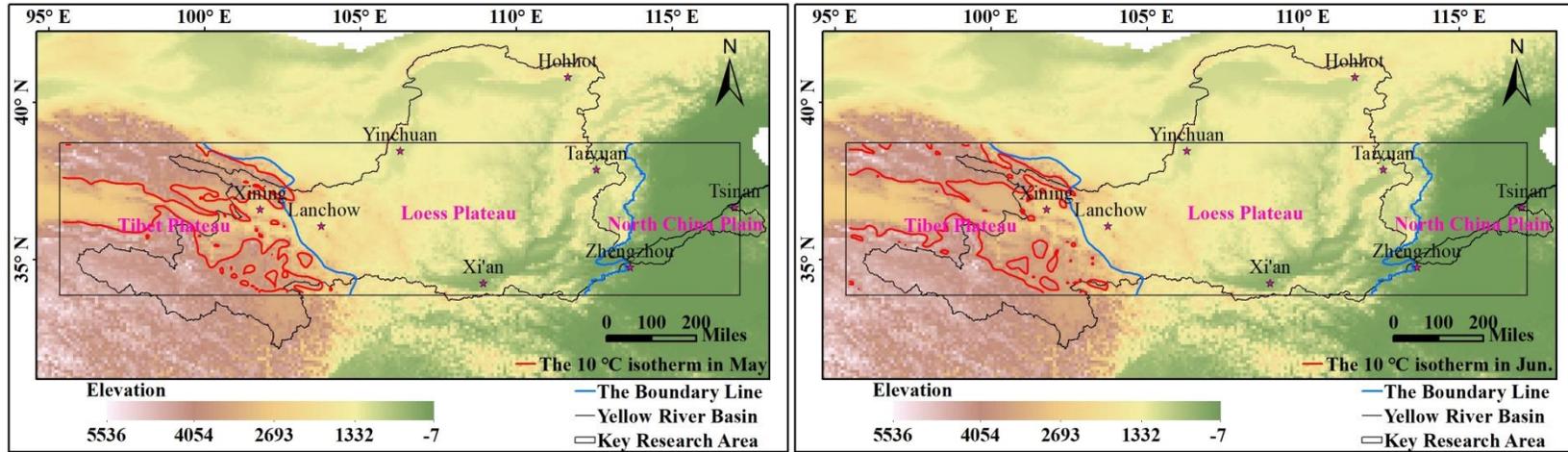
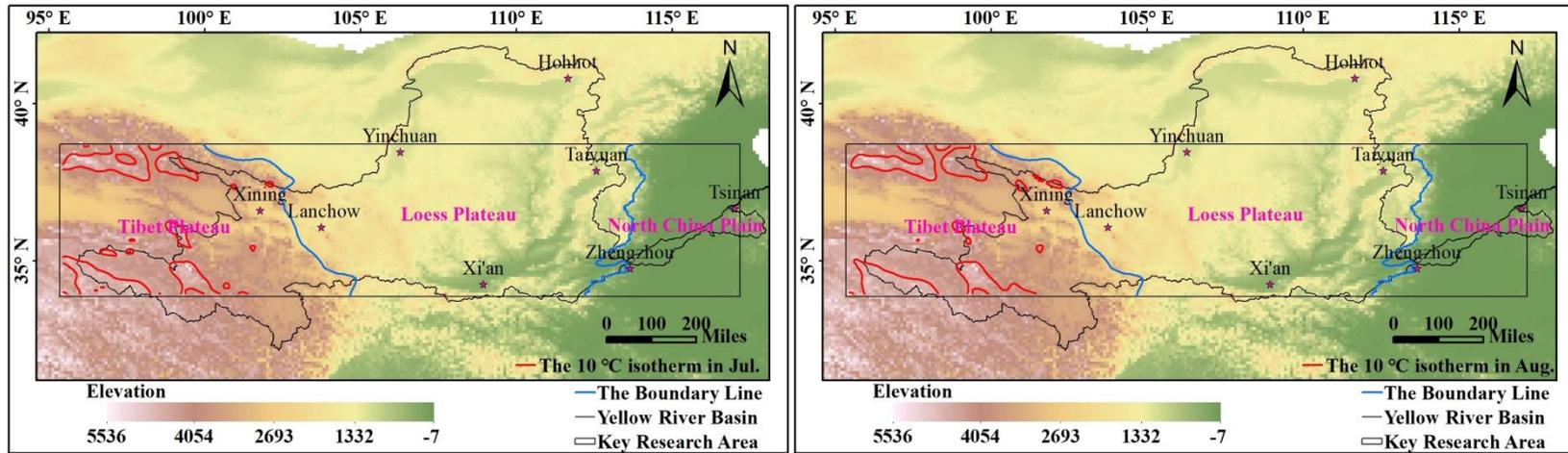


Fig.3 Distribution pattern of 0°C isotherms in the key research area of the Yellow River Basin in the winter half year

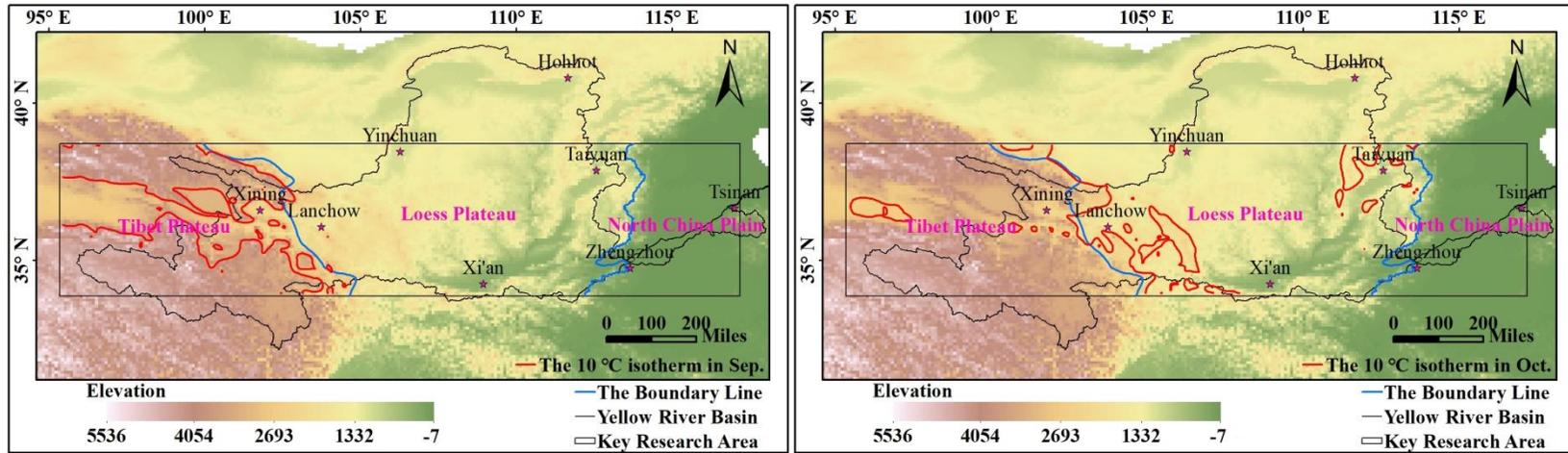
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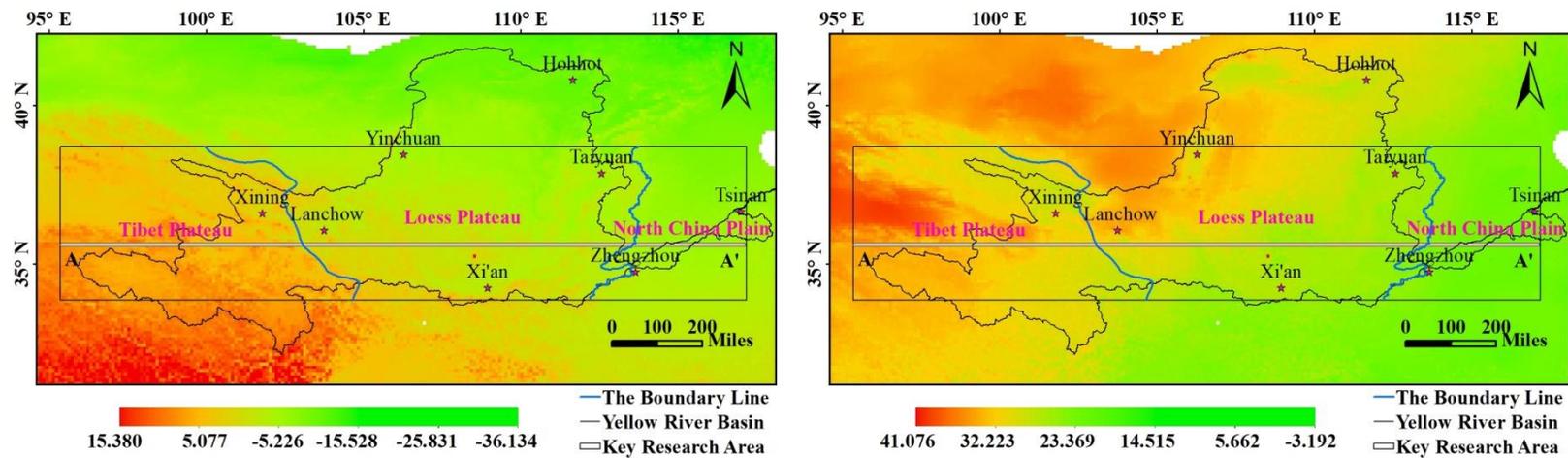


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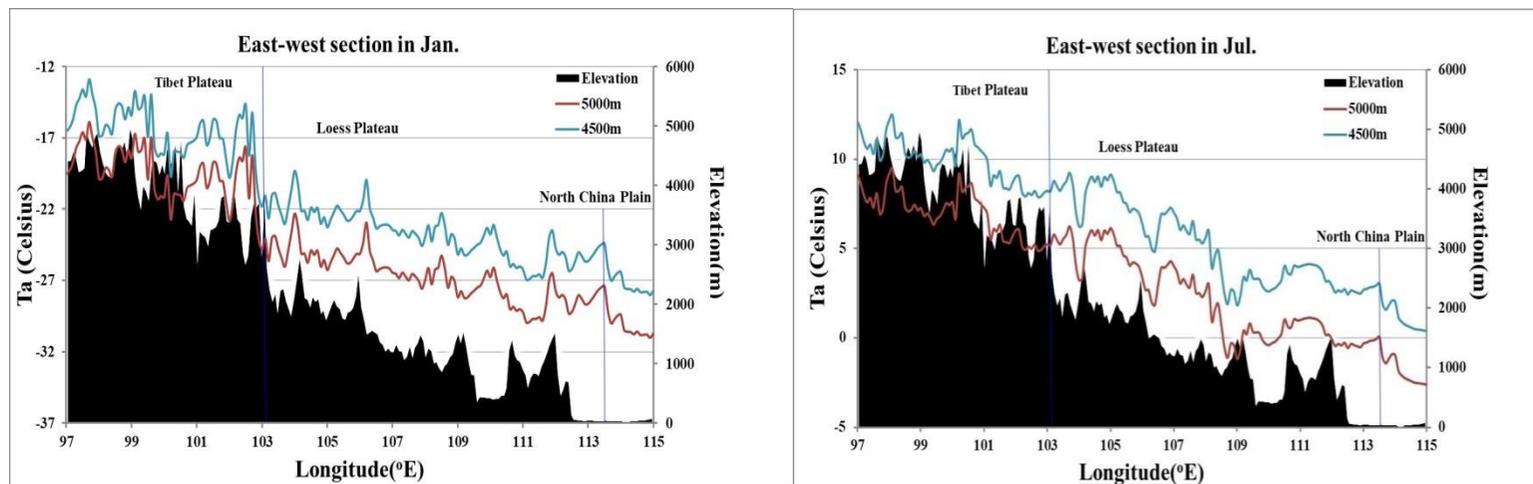
Fig.4 Distribution pattern of 10°C isotherms in the key research area of the Yellow River Basin in the summer half year



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Fig. 5 Temperature distribution map of the 4500m altitude in the Yellow River Basin (left: January;right: July)



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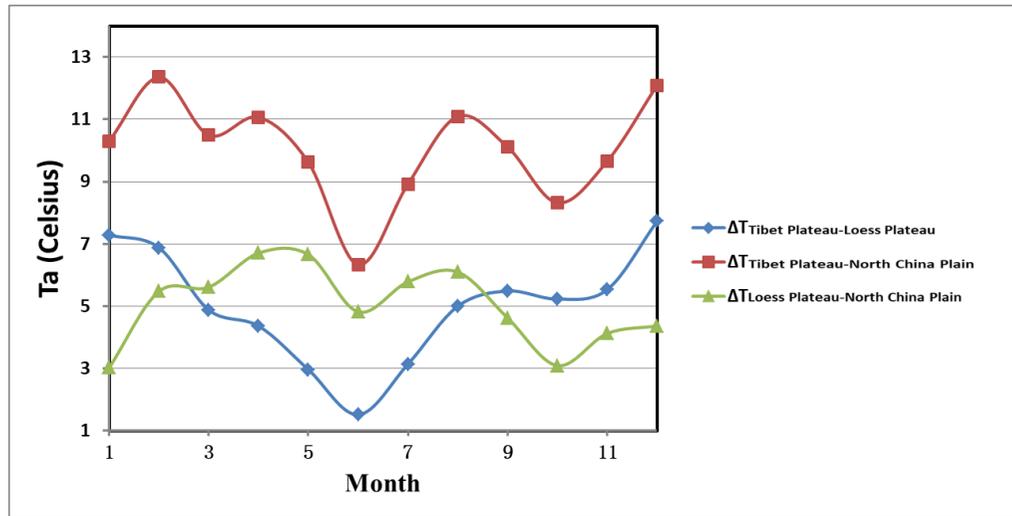
Fig. 6 Temperature profile of the plateau at 4500m and 5000m in the Yellow River Basin (AA', left: January; right: July)

414

**Table 4** Temperature and temperature difference between the Tibet Plateau, the Loess Plateau and the North China Plain at an altitude of 4500

Area	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Tibet Plateau	-17.577	-11.265	-5.753	-2.628	4.218	6.924	9.681	9.297	4.850	-1.315	-8.964	-14.161
Loess Plateau	-24.862	-18.144	-10.632	-6.992	1.254	5.409	6.540	4.298	-0.64	-6.543	-14.498	-21.885
NorthChinaPlain	-27.882	-23.620	-16.244	-13.697	-5.403	0.591	0.757	-1.799	-5.263	-9.635	-18.621	-26.253
$\Delta T_{\text{Loess Plateau-NorthChinaPlain}}$	3.020	5.476	5.612	6.705	6.657	4.818	5.783	6.097	4.623	3.092	4.123	4.368
$\Delta T_{\text{Tibet Plateau-Loess Plateau}}$	7.285	6.879	4.879	4.364	2.964	1.515	3.141	4.999	5.490	5.228	5.534	7.724
$\Delta T_{\text{Tibet Plateau-NorthChinaPlain}}$	10.305	12.355	10.491	11.069	9.621	6.333	8.924	11.096	10.113	8.320	9.657	12.092

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416

417

**Fig.7** Temperature difference in each month at an altitude of 4500m

418 4.4 Discussion

419 The relationship between topography and temperature is very complicated. The  
420 macroscopic influence of huge terrain can have a significant effect on the distribution and  
421 change of temperature in a wide range. The influence of local topography can also make the  
422 temperature at short distances greatly different. The annual average temperature in the  
423 Yellow River Basin is generally high in the south, low in the north, high in the east and low in  
424 the west. The areas in Henan and Shandong below Sanmenxia are the highest in the whole  
425 basin, and the upper reaches are the lowest in the whole basin. It can be seen from the annual  
426 average temperature contour map of the Yellow River Basin that the annual average  
427 temperature decreases with increasing latitude and decreases with elevation, that is, the  
428 higher the terrain, the lower the temperature. The lowest temperature in January in the basin  
429 is the lowest in January. Except for the average temperature of the individual stations in  
430 Sanmenxia to Huayankou, the average temperature is above 0°C, and the rest of the area is  
431 below 0°C. At this time, the Mongolian high pressure is particularly strong, and the  
432 temperature distribution varies with latitude. Especially prominent, the temperature in Inner  
433 Mongolia in the upper reaches of the Yellow River is significantly lower, becoming another  
434 low-temperature zone in the basin. As a result, the temperature of the Lanzhou to Linhe  
435 section of the Yellow River is higher than that of the upstream. This is the climate of the  
436 winter in the Ningmeng section. In the lower reaches of the Yellow River, in Shandong and  
437 Shandong, although the terrain is relatively flat, the main stream is in the  
438 southwest-north-east direction, and the influence of the cold air in the southeast of the East  
439 China Sea on the coastal area is better than that in the inland. Therefore, the temperature  
440 distribution also shows the upstream and downstream. The low characteristics have formed  
441 the ridge of the downstream river section. Mainly due to the effects of the terrain and the  
442 influence of atmospheric circulation, the average temperature in January is generally low  
443 compared with other parts of the world in the same latitude. Because the Yellow River Basin  
444 is greatly affected by the East Asian winter monsoon, the whole year is the coldest in January;  
445 the temperature rises in February, and the highest temperature of the whole year in July.  
446 Later, as the summer monsoon weakened, the temperature began to decline in August. Thus,  
447 the annual variation of temperature is steep and symmetrical, with spring temperatures  
448 slightly higher than autumn.

449 According to the time series analysis of MODIS land surface temperature, the  
450 interannual variation of air temperature data and land surface temperature is basically similar.  
451 Due to the influence of underlying surface information or cloud and the complex topography,  
452 vegetation and climate change in the alpine valley area, there are partial RMSE between land  
453 surface temperature data and air temperature data is large. Therefore, in order to obtain  
454 mountain temperature data with higher estimation accuracy, it is necessary to further  
455 improve the inversion accuracy of MODIS land surface temperature data [46, 47], especially  
456 the extraction algorithm of MODIS land surface temperature in the alpine valley area may  
457 need further optimization and improvement [48]. In addition, the spatial resolution of  
458 MODIS land surface temperature data used in this paper is 1km. For small-scale fine  
459 mountain temperature estimation, the resolution is not high enough, and thermal infrared  
460 remote sensing data with higher spatial resolution (such as TM, OLI, etc.) can be used for

461 more detailed mountain temperature estimates.

462 The model of the GWR method used in this study is highly accurate. The geographically  
463 weighted regression analysis method is based on the spatial variability hypothesis model,  
464 considering the spatial variability of the relationship between variables, by estimating any  
465 given location in the study area. The regression model is built between the relevant variables  
466 and the parameters of the explanatory variables, which is very suitable for the temperature  
467 estimation in this study area. At the same time, the altitude is also introduced into the GWR  
468 estimation model as a variable, which further improves the estimation accuracy of the model.  
469 In addition, using the real-time and continuity of thermal infrared remote sensing data to  
470 estimate the temperature, it can also generate air temperature data in time series, so that the  
471 air temperature can be analyzed in time series, which helps to dynamically grasp the changes  
472 of mountain climate.

473 In fact, due to the influence of heating-up effect, the vertical decline rate of different  
474 regions is different. Since the vertical decline rate of temperature varies with latitude, the  
475 distance from the sea will change. In this paper, the temperature of the basin is converted to  
476 the specified altitude (4500m, 5000m) according to the vertical decreasing rate of  $0.006^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{m}$ ,  
477 and the temperature difference in the basin is analyzed. This may cause uncertainty in air  
478 temperature estimation. Factors affecting temperature such as soil temperature and humidity,  
479 vegetation cover, mountain heating-up effect, slope topographic conditions, precipitation, etc.,  
480 at the corresponding scale, we will obtain the corresponding detailed data in the next step to  
481 accurately estimate the heating-up effect.

## 482 **5 Conclusion**

483 (1) The time series analysis and regression analysis of MODIS surface temperature and  
484 temperature show that the temporal variation of MODIS surface temperature and  
485 temperature is similar, and the two have good correlation. Therefore, MODIS surface  
486 temperature can be used as an important factor for mountain temperature estimation. The  
487 results of geographically weighted regression analysis with MODIS surface temperature and  
488 altitude as independent variables show that the GWR method, combined with meteorological  
489 data and MODIS surface temperature, DEM, etc., can accurately estimate the temperature of  
490 the Yellow River Basin.

491 (2) Through the estimation of the temperature of the Yellow River Basin for 12 months,  
492 the variation of temperature and time in the study area was obtained. According to the spatial  
493 distribution of the estimated air temperature, the temperature in each month is generally low  
494 in the west and high in the east, followed by the north-central characteristics, and the reason  
495 is that the west is located in high altitude areas such as plateaus and mountains, and the  
496 annual temperature is low. The central and northern parts are mainly the central Long, the  
497 eastern Long of Loess Plateau and the Inner Mongolia Plateau and it has a deep inland  
498 rainfall and a dry climate; the downstream is located in the plain area and has a low latitude,  
499 and the annual temperature is high, so the temperature is high. It can be seen that the  
500 temperature range in January (the coldest month) is  $-20.612\sim-6.499^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and the temperature  
501 range in July (the hottest month) is  $0.906\sim35.704^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The Yellow River Basin has  
502 aobvious temperature heating-up effect, and the isotherm altitude changes can also be seen  
503 that the Yellow River Basin has gradually increased from the east to the west. The

504 temperature of the Tibet Plateau is higher than that of the Loess Plateau and the North China  
505 Plain, and the highest temperature appears in the western part of the plateau. At the same  
506 altitude, the Tibet Plateau is about 1.5~8°C higher than the Loess Plateau and about 6~13°C  
507 higher than the North China Plain. In summary, the use of meteorological data and  
508 corresponding MODIS surface temperature data, regression analysis of DEM data and  
509 weather station data verification results show that this type of data can be used to estimate  
510 the temperature of the Yellow River Basin fairly accurately and to study the difference in  
511 temperature increase effect in the region, which lays a foundation for revealing the plateau  
512 ecological effect quantitatively .

513 Although the focus of this paper is on the estimation of the mean value, the method  
514 proposed in this paper can also be applied to determine the daily maximum, minimum and  
515 average temperature. In addition, more variables (such as NDVI, precipitation, albedo, etc.)  
516 will be considered in the future to explore whether they improve the accuracy of model  
517 estimation.

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525 Lower Yellow River Region (<http://henu.geodata.cn>).

526 **Author Contributions:**All authors conceived, designed, and implemented the study. Conceptualization:  
527 Z.P.; methodology: F.Q.; software: F.Q., Z.P.; validation: J.Z. and F.Q.; formal analysis: F.Q.J.Z.;  
528 investigation and resources: J.Z.; data curation: J.Z.; original draft preparation: Z.P., F.Q.;and review and  
529 editing: F.Q..

530 **Conflicts of Interest:**The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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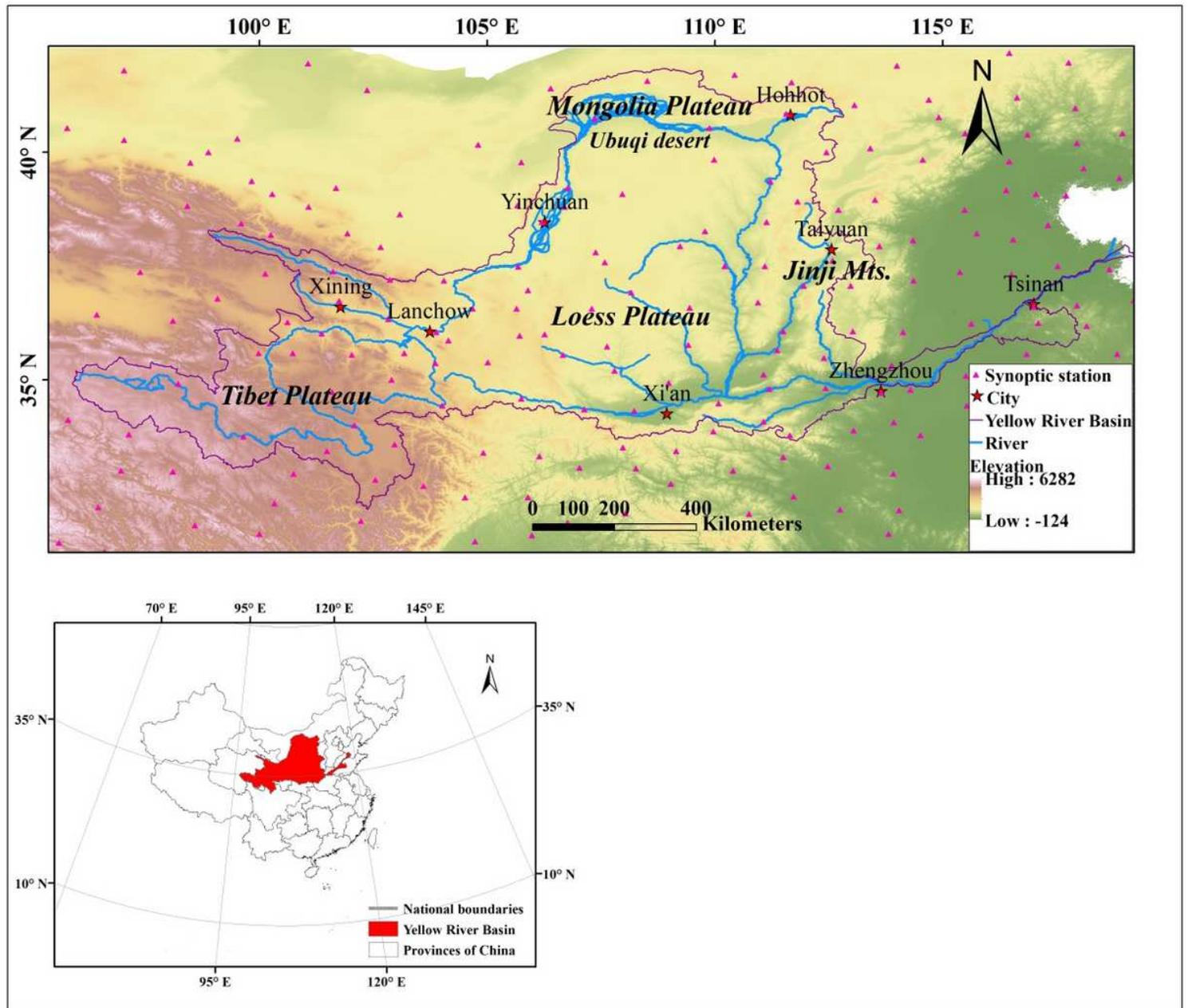
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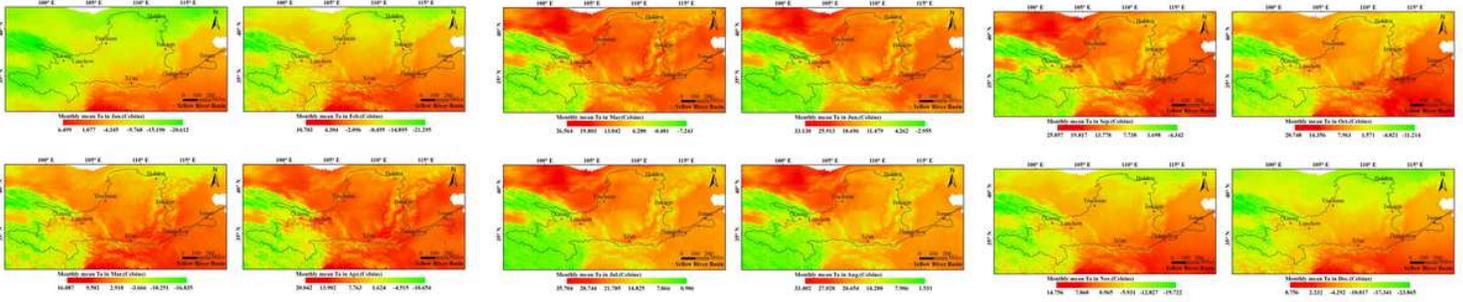
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# Figures



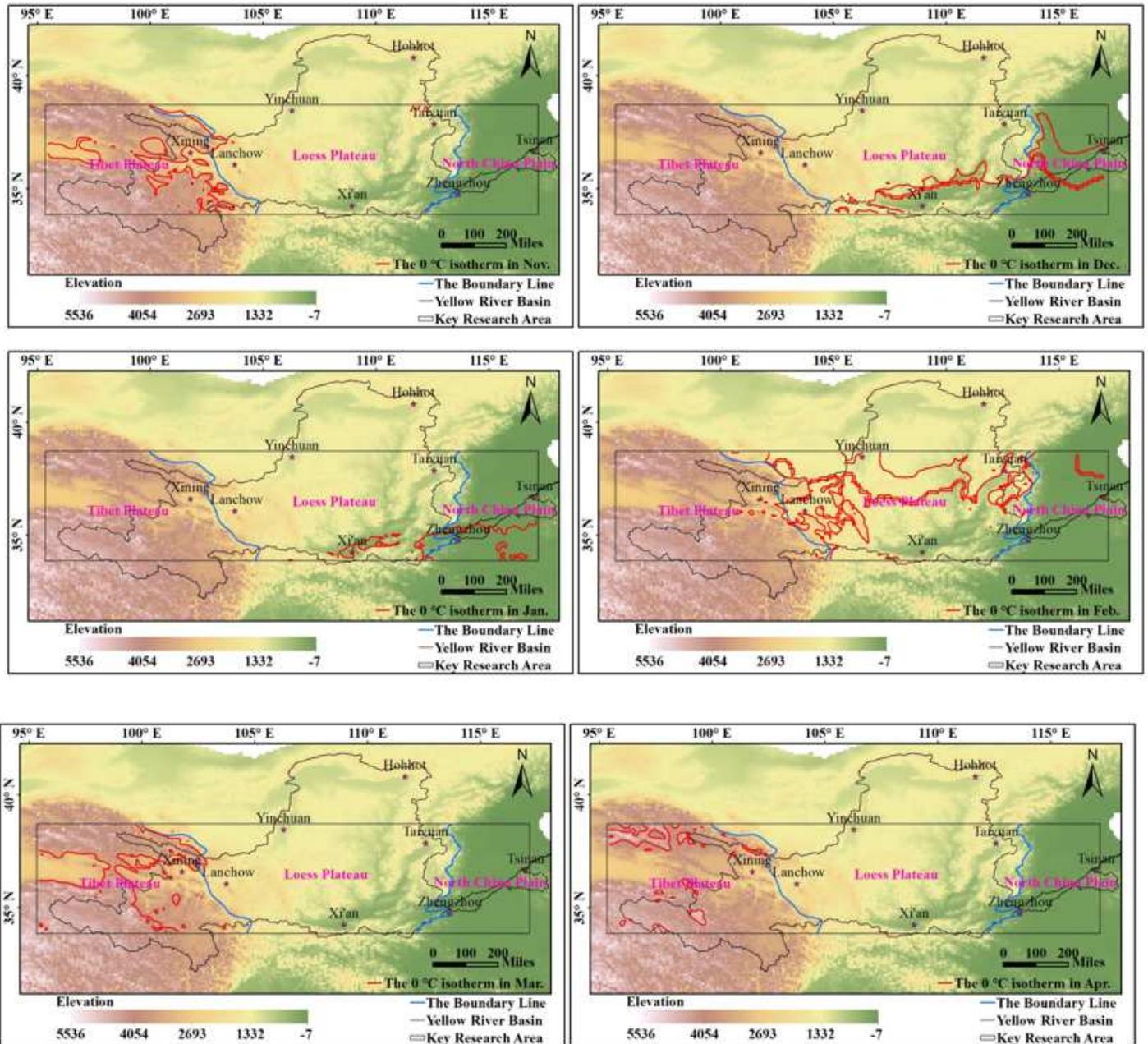
**Figure 1**

Study area and weather station distribution map. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



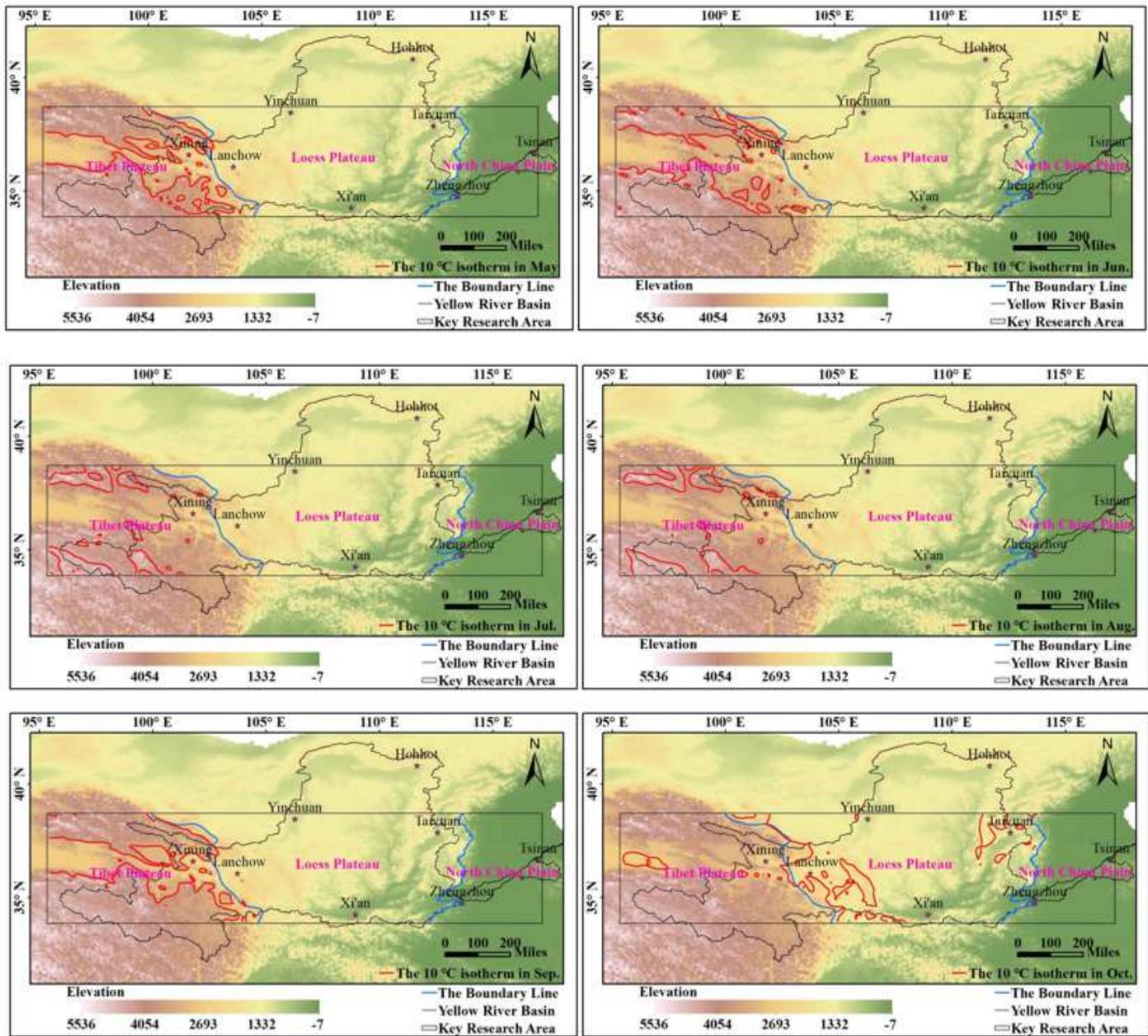
**Figure 2**

Spatial distribution of monthly mean Ta in the study area. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



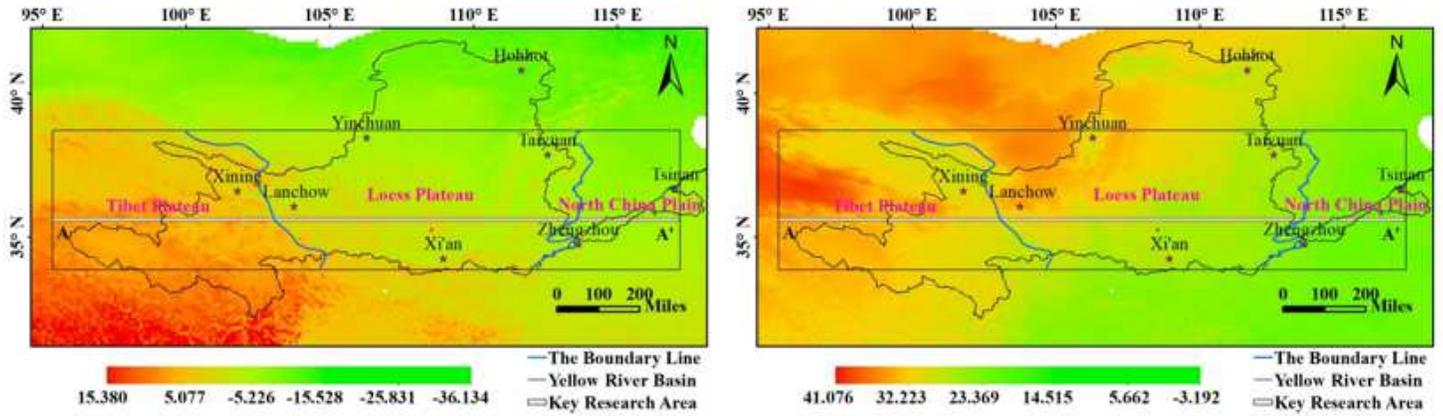
**Figure 3**

Distribution pattern of 0°C isotherms in the key research area of the Yellow River Basin in the winter half year. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



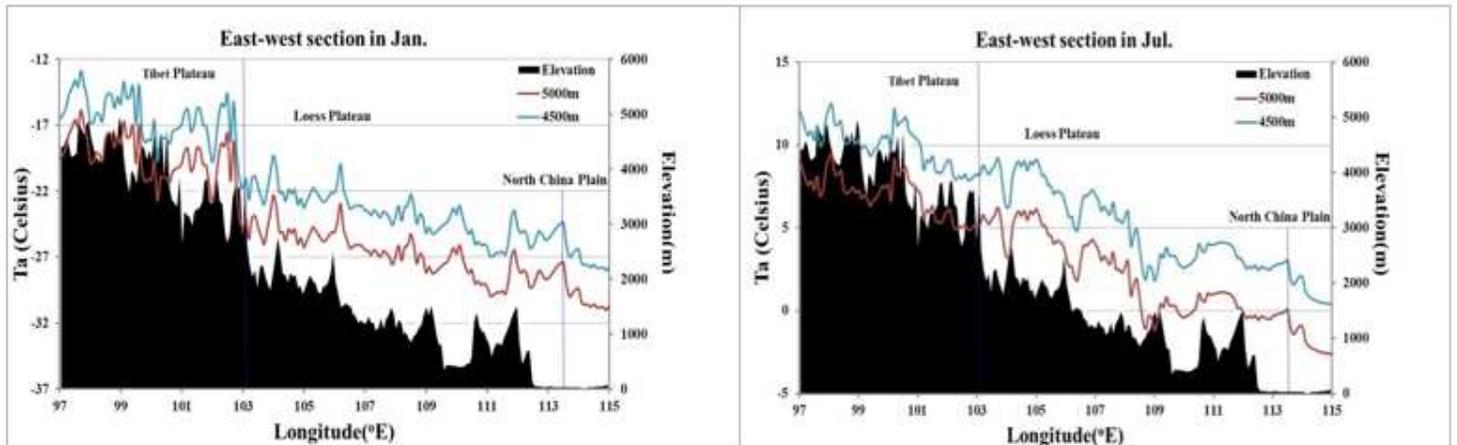
**Figure 4**

Distribution pattern of 10°C isotherms in the key research area of the Yellow River Basin in the summer half year. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



**Figure 5**

Temperature distribution map of the 4500m altitude in the Yellow River Basin (left: January;right: July). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



**Figure 6**

Temperature profile of the plateau at 4500m and 5000m in the Yellow River Basin (AA', left: January; right: July)

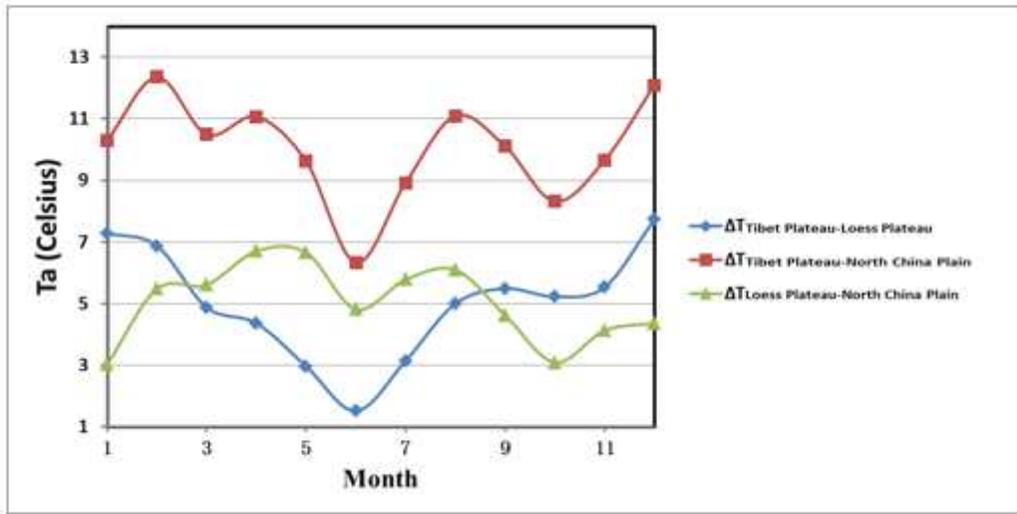


Figure 7

Temperature difference in each month at an altitude of 4500m