

1 Changes in Temperature and Rainfall as a Result of Local Climate Change in Pasadena, California

2

3 David Eugene Kimbrough, Water Quality Manager, City of Pasadena, Water & Power Department, 150

4 S. Robles Ave., Suite 200, Pasadena, CA, 91101, USA, V 626.744.7315

5 [dkimbrough@cityofpasadena.net](mailto:dkimbrough@cityofpasadena.net)

6 Abstract: The City of Pasadena is located in southern California; a region which has a

7 Mediterranean climate and where the vast majority of rainfall occurs between October and

8 April with the period between January and March being the most intense. A significant amount

9 of the local water supply comes from regional rainfall, therefore any changes in precipitation

10 patterns in the area has considerable significance. HYPOTHESIS: Local climate change has

11 been occurring in the Pasadena area over the last 100 years resulting in changes in air

12 temperature and rainfall. AIR TEMPERATURES: Between 1886 and 2016 the air temperature

13 in Pasadena, California has increased significantly, from a minimum of 23.8°C in the daytime

14 and 8.1°C at night between 1911 and 1920 to 27.2°C and 13.3°C between 2011 and 2016.

15 The increase in nighttime temperature was uniform throughout the year, however daytime

16 temperatures showed more seasonal variation. There was little change in the daytime

17 temperatures May through July but more change the rest of the year. For example, the median

18 daytime temperature for June between 1911 and 1920 was 27.9°C but was 28.7°C between

19 2011 and 2016, a difference of 0.8°C. In contrast, for October for the same periods the median

20 daytime temperatures were 25.6°C and 28.9°C, a difference of 3.3°C. RAINFALL: There has

21 been a change in local rainfall pattern over the same period. In comparing rainfall between

22 1883 – 1949 and 1950 – 2016, there appeared to be less rainfall in the months of October,

23 December, and April while other months seemed to show no change in rainfall. For example,

24 between the two periods mentioned above, the median rainfall in October was 12.4 mm and  
25 8.9 mm respectively while for December they were 68.6 mm and 40.4 mm. There was  
26 comparatively a smaller change in the median volume of rainfall in April (18.8 mm vs. 17.5  
27 mm). However, between 1883 and 2016 there were 13 with less than 1 mm of rain, 12 of which  
28 occurred after 1961. In the same line of logic, no measureable amount of rain occurred for 23  
29 Octobers, 15 of those occurred after 1961. CONCLUSION: As air temperatures increased over  
30 the last 100 years in the Pasadena area, rainfall may have decreased in October, December,  
31 and April.

32

33 Keywords: local climate change; spring drying; rainfall pattern changes

34

## 35 **Introduction**

36 In a recently published study, it has been shown that median air temperatures have increased  
37 significantly in the City of Pasadena over the last 100 years, (Kimbrough 2017) which resulted in  
38 significant stream flow changes in the Arroyo Seco. The paper argued that these changes in air  
39 temperature and stream flow were the result of Anthropogenic Climate Change (ACC). It would not be  
40 too surprising to speculate that rainfall in the Pasadena area would also be affected by ACC. Some  
41 models project changes in rainfall as a result of ACC in the southern California region (United States  
42 Bureau of Reclamation 2016). This paper examines how increasing air temperatures in the Pasadena  
43 region correlate with changes in rainfall patterns.

44

## 45 **Pasadena and Its Environment**

46           The City of Pasadena is located in Los Angeles County, at the southern, windward side of the  
47 San Gabriel Mountains, which are approximately 1,700 m high, and 40 km from the Pacific Ocean.  
48 Pasadena is located 15 km north-east of downtown Los Angeles and sits atop of the Raymond Basin, an  
49 alluvial aquifer in the north-west corner of the highly urbanized San Gabriel Valley. The area has a  
50 Mediterranean climate with the overwhelming majority of rainfall occurring between October and April.  
51 Most of Pasadena is approximately 260 m (780 ft) above mean sea level but it ranges from 180 m (540  
52 ft) to 460 m (1380 ft).

53

## 54 **Study Design**

### 55       1. Hypothesis

56           Southern California has been experiencing ACC and as a result, rainfall patterns have been and  
57 continue to be altered in the Pasadena area. The change in climate is shifting air temperatures unevenly  
58 which results in daytime and nighttime temperatures deviating at different rates and during different  
59 seasons. As a result, any changes in rainfall would not be uniform.

### 60       2. Study Periods

61           There are two parts to this study. The first part involves air temperatures in the City of Pasadena for  
62 evidence of local climate change. If the daytime or nighttime temperatures increase or decrease  
63 significantly between 1885 and 2016 that would be an indication that climate change has been occurring.  
64 The second component involves measuring rainfall in the Pasadena area between 1883 and 2016 to  
65 determine if there has been a significant change in rainfall. In both parts, the data is divided first into  
66 two halves of approximately equal sizes and the median values for each are compared. In this study the

67 two periods were divided at December 31, 1949, the period ending on this day and is the **Control**  
68 **Period** and the period beginning on the next day and ending on December 31, 2016 is the **Test Period**.  
69 These two periods were selected to divide the rainfall data into two equal halves and the air temperatures  
70 into two approximately equal populations. If there is not a statistically significant difference between  
71 the two periods, these periods will be divided into smaller sub-sets to assess why there was no change.  
72 Furthermore, for the rainfall portion of the study, the 100 wettest and 100 driest months will be  
73 identified in the entire study period. The rainfall data was then divided by months for both the Control  
74 Period and the Test Period and the ten wettest and driest months were determined and compared. If  
75 there is no significant change in rainfall over the study period, there should approximately be equal  
76 numbers of the driest and wettest months in the Control Period as in the Test Period, both overall and on  
77 a month by month basis.

78

### 79 3. Statistical Procedures

80 The normality of each data set was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Air temperatures  
81 and rainfall in all study periods were non-normally distributed ( $P < 0.001$ ); the results were strongly  
82 skewed and kurtotic. This means that rather than distribute in a normal bell-shaped curve with data  
83 evenly balanced on both sides of the mean, more data was on one side than the other and the shape of  
84 the curve was wider than expected.

85 The rainfall and air temperature data were compared pair wise by using the Mann-Whitney Rank  
86 Sum Test (MWRST) and the non-parametric equivalent to the Student's t-test. The data grouped based  
87 on decade and were compared to the most recent decade using the Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of  
88 Variance on Ranks (KW). If a significant difference was determined to be present, i.e. if the Kruskal-  
89 Wallis Statistic (H) is above the critical value, then each group was compared against a control group

90 using Dunn's Test. Dunn's Test produces a Studentized Range value,  $q$ , which is assessed in the same  
91 fashion as the Student's  $t$ -test critical values with probabilities critical values corresponding to levels of  
92 probability,  $\alpha$ , of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis.

93 The rainfall data was also assessed for extremes. The number of driest and wettest months were  
94 calculated for each period using the Fisher Exact (FE) Test.

95 The critical value for this study for  $\alpha$  was 0.05 for both KW, MW, and FE tests.

#### 96 4. Data Acquisition and Assessment

97 A. Air - PWP has extensive written records of atmospheric temperatures in Pasadena dating back to  
98 the 1880's collected mostly by the employees of the City of Pasadena but the records from 1882  
99 to 1890 were collected by a private resident of Pasadena, Dr. Thomas Rigg. However, there are  
100 two significant gaps in the temperature records; one between 1890 and 1893 and the other  
101 between 1895 and 1908. The first gap is the time between when Dr. Rigg stopped collecting  
102 data and when the City started collecting data. The second gap was caused in part by the loss of  
103 paper records stored by the Department of Commerce in San Francisco following the earthquake  
104 and fire of 1906. The records were supplemented by and checked against records from the  
105 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's National Climatic Data Center (NOAA-  
106 NCDC). A database of the daily maximum temperature (all maximum temperatures occurred  
107 during the daylight hours are referred as "daytime temperatures"), minimum temperatures (all  
108 minimum temperatures occurred during the nighttime hours are referred as "nighttime  
109 temperatures"), and precipitation were created and checked for accuracy (paper records vs.  
110 electronic, missing data, and obvious outliers). A database of air temperatures was created with  
111 both the daytime ( $n = 41,201$ ) and nighttime temperatures ( $n=45,964$ ) for Pasadena (most of the

112 data was collected at City Hall, +34.15, -118.14 while other data were all collected within a  
113 kilometer of it).

114 B. Rainfall – The City of Pasadena began officially collecting rainfall data with its own staff in  
115 1883 near the same location used for measuring temperature. Later, this site was coordinated  
116 with NOAA. Rainfall data was downloaded from the same webpage as the temperature data and  
117 the two databases were crosschecked.

## 118 **Results**

### 119 1. Atmospheric Temperatures

120 All of the daily maximum (daytime) and minimum (nighttime) temperatures recorded in Pasadena  
121 between March of 1885 and December 31, 2016, the Study Period, are summarized in the first line of  
122 Table 1 and Table 2 respectively. The Study Period was the divided into two periods, the first between  
123 1885 and 1949, the Control Period, and the other including 1950 until 2016, the Test Period. The two  
124 groups were tested using MW. Table 1 shows the number of daily maximum readings for the entire  
125 Study Period, the Control Period, and the Test Period for all years and each month as well as the mean,  
126 median, 25<sup>th</sup> percentile, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, and the results of the MWRST. Table 2 shows the same results  
127 for daily minimum readings for the entire year and for each month separately. Both the daytime and  
128 nighttime results were non-normally distributed. In all cases but one, (November daytime temperatures)  
129 the Test Period had significantly higher temperatures than the Control Period. The data was then  
130 divided up by decades, 1881 – 1890, 1891 – 1990, &c and plotted against the month and are shown in  
131 Figures 1 and 2 for daytime and nighttime temperatures respectively. The November daytime  
132 temperature divided by decade was tested using the KW test and it was shown that there was a  
133 significant difference ( $H = 97$  with 13 degrees of freedom  $P = <0.001$ ). Using Dunn's Test and using  
134 the 2011 – 2016 as a control, the q value for the decade of 1881 – 1890 was 6.8 ( $p < 0.001$ ), for 1891 –

135 1900 it was 4.1 ( $p < 0.005$ ), for 1901 – 1910 it was 3.5 ( $p < 0.01$ ) and all other decades had a  $q$  value of 2.5  
136 or less which was not significant ( $p > 0.05$ ). The mean daytime temperatures for the decade of 1881 –  
137 1890 was 20.0 °C ( $n = 150$ ), for 1891 – 1900 it was 20.0 °C ( $n = 60$ ), for 1901 – 1910 it was 21.7 °C ( $n =$   
138 90), and for 2011 – 2016 it was 23.9 °C ( $n = 171$ ).

139 Overall, the daytime median temperatures increased by 5% between the Control Period and the Test  
140 Period (24.4 °C to 25.6 °C, a difference of 1.2 °C) however, the amount of that increase varied  
141 considerably for different months. Generally colder months showed larger increases than warmer  
142 months. Figure 1 show that the median temperatures in the winter, such as January, were considerably  
143 greater than in the summer, such as July. In Table 1, the median air temperature increased 9% in  
144 January between the Control Period and the Test Period but in July, the median air temperature only  
145 increased 2% while in November there was no measurable increase at all.

146 The nighttime air temperatures showed a much larger and more consistent increase. The median  
147 nighttime temperatures increased by 24% (9.4 °C to 11.7 °C or 2.3 °C) which is larger both in absolute  
148 terms and as a percentage. In Table 2 and Figure 2, every month showed large increases in the median  
149 nighttime temperature as compared to daytime temperatures. However, there were still considerable  
150 variations between months. Colder months showed greater increases than warmer months. January  
151 showed the largest difference between the Control Period and the Test Period, 2.8 °C or a 64% increase,  
152 while July only showed a 2.3 °C change or a 16% increase in median air temperature.

153 To further assess the nature of these temperature changes, the same data used in Figure 1 and 2 were  
154 recalculated as a frequency. The percentage of days within a given range of temperatures was calculated  
155 and plotted in Figure 3. For clarity, only two decades are shown, the period between 1911 and 1920 and  
156 the period between 2011 and 2016. There is little change in the frequency distribution of hotter days  
157 while there has been much more of a change during colder days. For example, in the 1911 – 1920

158 period, there are substantial number of days with a maximum temperature of less than 10 °C while in the  
159 2011 – 2016 period there are almost none. In contrast, the number of days with a maximum daytime  
160 temperature above 40 °C has hardly changed at all. This would create the impression that there is a  
161 maximum daytime temperature that is generally not exceeded.

162 Figure 4 shows a very different pattern. The entire distribution has shifted toward higher  
163 temperatures with the frequency of colder nights changing as much as warmer nights. For example, in  
164 the 1911 – 1920 period there are a substantial number of nights with a minimum temperature below 0 °C  
165 while in the 2011 – 2016 period there were none at all. Similarly, in the 1911 – 1920 period there were  
166 almost no nights with a temperature greater than 20 °C but in the 2011 – 2016 period there were a great  
167 many. This would not suggest any sort of maximum nighttime temperature in the same way that the  
168 daytime temperature distribution does.

169

## 170 2. Rainfall

171 Table 3 provides a summary of the rainfall in Pasadena for the entire Study Period, in the Test  
172 Period, and the Control Period for the entire year and for the months of October through April. All of  
173 the data in all of the periods examined were non-normally distributed. Table 3 provides the number of  
174 results, the mean, median, 25<sup>th</sup> percentile, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, the number of driest and wettest months, and  
175 the results of the MWRST and FE tests. In every case except one (November), the mean, median, 25<sup>th</sup>  
176 percentile, and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile values are lower in the Test Period than the Control Period. In none of  
177 those cases was the degree of difference statistically significant although in three cases the probability  
178 that the difference was caused by other effects was 0.2 or less: the entire year, October, and December  
179 (p-value for the November MWRST result was also less than 0.2 but the median November rainfall was  
180 higher in the Test Period as compared to the Control Period). The percent change in the median value



181 for these three study groups was 11%, 28%, and 42% respectively (November was 183%). March  
182 showed a 25% decrease in median rainfall between the Control and Test Periods but the p-value was  
183 0.338. There were 23 months that were equally the driest in the Study Period for October, 15 of those  
184 were in the Test Period. Conversely eight of the ten wettest Octobers were in the Control Period and the  
185 p-value for the FET were 0.2 or less for both the wettest and driest months in October. In December,  
186 like October, eight of the ten wettest months occurred in the Control Period, but only five of the driest  
187 months occurred in the Control Period, which is similar to March. April showed only a small decrease  
188 in the median rain fall (7%), however of the 13 driest months, 12 occurred during the Test Period. This  
189 was a statistically significant deviation from the overall all pattern using the FET. It is important to note  
190 that the years 2011 through 2016 were marked by the most severe drought in California's history  
191 (Kimbrough 2017) and three of the driest periods in April occurred in that time span.

## 192 **Discussion**

193 Daytime temperatures in Pasadena have increased significantly since records were first collected in  
194 1885 but only for certain times of the year. This is consistent with local climatic models which predict  
195 increases in local temperatures (Sun et al 2015). Since nighttime temperatures are rising more rapidly  
196 than daytime temperatures, the difference between the two should be decreasing; the data on Table 1 is  
197 suggestive of this, but it is not conclusive.

198 This difference between June and January temperatures is likely due to the Marine Layer in southern  
199 California (Edinger 1963). The Marine Layer consists of low altitude stratus clouds that form over the  
200 Pacific Ocean coast which is then advected by on shore winds over large areas of coastal California.  
201 These clouds form a sheet like deck which is rather uniform in depth of 500 to 2000 m and extends for  
202 large distances inland. Further inland motion is generally prevented by the line of very high coast  
203 mountain ranges, such as the San Gabriel Mountains. It is thus not unusual for there to be many

204 continuous days and weeks between April and June when the weather in Pasadena is cool and overcast  
205 (informally locally known as “*May Gray*” or “*June Gloom*”), although this sort of weather can occur at  
206 any time of year. The marine layers may last a few hours or an entire day but typically “burns off” by  
207 mid-afternoon (Edinger 1963). This greatly reduces incoming solar radiation, including both incoming  
208 incident shortwave radiation (ISR) and longwave radiation (ILR) as they are reflected back into space by  
209 the surface of the clouds. The ISR and ILR that do reach the ground are reflected or absorbed and re-  
210 emitted as outgoing shortwave radiation (OSR) and longwave radiation (OLR) with an increased ratio of  
211 longwave to shortwave radiation. Furthermore, the low cloud deck reflects both OSR and OLR back  
212 towards earth and are likewise both emitted and reflected by the earth’s surface. Greenhouse Gases  
213 (GHGs), e.g. carbon dioxide, absorb ILR and OLR but not ISR and OSR so as the concentrations of  
214 GHGs increase, the amount of energy captured by the atmosphere increases. However, the Marine  
215 Layer creates a well buffered environment which minimizes significant increases in atmospheric  
216 daytime temperatures. Nevertheless in the winter and summer, these conditions do not prevail nearly as  
217 much because as more sunlight reaches the surface, more OLR will be emitted and less OLR will be  
218 reflected back toward the surface, so GHGs can capture more OLR hence atmospheric temperatures can  
219 increase. The Marine Layer has both an energy reflecting effect and an energy trapping effect. This  
220 dynamic does not occur the same way at night since there is no ISR or ILR, only OSR and OLR and as a  
221 result, the Marine Layer only has an energy trapping effect but no energy reflecting effect. This  
222 explains why the nighttime temperatures have increased faster than daytime temperatures and why there  
223 is less variability between seasons at night as compared to during the daylight hours (Hatzianastassiou et  
224 al 2004).

225 Additionally there is the Urban Heat Island (UHI) effect (Terjung & O’Rourke, 1980). Urban areas  
226 with their large masses of concrete, asphalt, steel, and glass can absorb much more heat than agricultural

227 and rural areas. Therefore as an area becomes more urbanized, air temperatures will increase separately  
228 from climatic changes caused by GHGs and the absorption of OLR. However, it is not very likely that  
229 the UHI effect is a major contributor to the atmospheric effects as the location of the temperature  
230 measuring equipment has always been in a significantly urbanized area even in the 1880's. The city was  
231 largely as urbanized as it is today, especially near the measuring equipment since the 1920's. Further, as  
232 can be seen in all four Figures, temperatures have increased since the 1920's when there was no  
233 appreciable increase in the degree of urbanization in Pasadena.

234 This change in atmospheric temperatures appears to have had some measureable impact on local  
235 rainfall. While the median rainfall declined in all months studied except November, the differences  
236 were generally not large or statistically significant with two exceptions. The months of October and  
237 April did appear to show measurable differences in rainfall as measured by changes in median rainfall,  
238 the frequency of extremely dry months and extremely wet months. Most rainfall in the Pasadena area  
239 occurs in the colder months of the year, October through April, and generally arrives in the form of front  
240 storms generated in the Bering Sea thousands of kilometers to the northwest. Local climatic changes in  
241 Pasadena undoubtedly cannot have any direct impact on the pattern of storm formation and movement  
242 into southern California. However, since October and April are months characterized by the least  
243 amount of rainfall in general, the "edges" of the rainy season as it were, it could be possible that the  
244 higher temperatures could impact smaller storm events. Pasadena is located on the windward side of the  
245 San Gabriel Mountains creating conditions for orographic lift with associated adiabatic cooling and  
246 increasing relative humidity and vapor pressure. With smaller cold fronts, local warming may raise the  
247 temperature in the clouds, reducing vapor pressure and inhibiting droplet formation.

248 **Conclusions**

249 It is very clear that there is ACC on a local scale in the Pasadena area since air temperatures have  
250 been increasing over the last 100 years to a measurable and statistically significant degree. Nighttime  
251 temperatures have increased much more than daytime temperatures and temperatures in the colder  
252 months have increased more than warmer months. The data suggests that there is a maximum daytime  
253 temperature of approximately 40 °C, which limits the amount of increase possible during daylight hours.  
254 It would appear that this change in air temperature may be having some limited impact on rainfall in the  
255 months of April and October.

256  
257 Acknowledgements: The author would like to thank Dr. Onderdonk of the California Institute of  
258 Technology for his assistance on this paper, Dr. Robert Haw of the Jet Propulsion Laboratories, and  
259 Peter Kalmus of the University of California, Los Angeles. The author would also like to thank Diana  
260 Hsueh and Mercedes Acevedo of PWP for their assistance in the preparation of this manuscript.

261 **Literature Cited**

- 262 Barsugli, J.J., Guentchev, G., Horton, R.M., Wood, A., Mearns, L.O., Liang, X-Z, Winkler, J.A.,  
263 Dixon, K., Hayhoe, K., Rood, R.B., Goddard, L., Ray, A., Buja, L., Ammann, C., “The  
264 Practitioner's Dilemma: How to Assess the Credibility of Downscaled Climate Projections”; Eos  
265 Trans. AGU, V 94, N 46, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/2013EO460005>
- 266  
267 De Muth, J.E., “Basic Statistics and Pharmaceutical Statistical Applications, Third Edition”,  
268 April 28, 2014 by Chapman and Hall/CRC, pg 242 – 244, ISBN 9781466596733
- 269  
270 Edinger, J.G. “Modification of Marine Layer over Southern California”, Journal of Applied  
271 Meteorology, December 1963, pp 706 - 712
- 272
- 273 Hall, A., “Projecting regional change”, *Science* 19 December 2014: Vol. 346 no. 6216 pp. 1461-  
274 1462 DOI: 10.1126/science.aaa0629
- 275  
276 Hatzianastassiou, N., Fotiadi, A., Matsoukas, C., Pavlakis, K.G., Drakakis, E., Hatzidimitriou,  
277 D., Vardavas, I., “Long-term global distribution of Earth’s shortwave radiation  
278 budget at the top of atmosphere”, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 4, 1217–1235, 2004
- 279  
280 IPCC, 2014: Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and  
281 III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Core  
282 Writing Team, R.K. Pachauri and L.A. Meyer (eds.)]. IPCC, Geneva, Switzerland, 151 pp.
- 283  
284 Kimbrough, D.E., Local Climate Change in Pasadena California and the Impact on Stream Flow,  
285 Journal of the American Water Works Association, October 2017, In Press
- 286

- 287 Kowalchuk, G.A., Stephen, J.R., Ammonia-Oxidizing Bacteria: A Model for Molecular  
288 Microbial Ecology Annual Review of Microbiology Vol. 55: 485-529 DOI:  
289 10.1146/annurev.micro.55.1.485
- 290  
291 Maurer, E.P., Hidalgo, H.G., Das, T., Dettinger, M.D., Cayan, D.R.; The utility of daily large-  
292 scale climate data in the assessment of climate change impacts on daily streamflow in California,  
293 *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 14, 1125–1138, 2010 [www.hydrol-earth-syst-sci.net/14/1125/2010/](http://www.hydrol-earth-syst-sci.net/14/1125/2010/)  
294 doi:10.5194/hess-14-1125-2010
- 295  
296
- 297 Melillo, J. M., Richmond, T.C., Yohe, G.W. Eds., 2014:  
298 *Climate Change Impacts in the United States: The Third National Climate Assessment*. U.S.  
299 *Global Change Research Program*, 841 pp. doi:10.7930/J0Z31WJ2
- 300
- 301 Napton, D.E., “Southern and Central California Chaparral and Oak Woodlands Ecoregion”, in  
302 *Status and Trends of Land Change in the Western United States—1973 to 2000*  
303 Edited by Benjamin M. Sleeter, Tamara S. Wilson, and William Acevedo  
304 U.S. Geological Survey Professional Paper 1794–A, 2012
- 305
- 306 Ndiongue, S., Huck, P.M., Slawson, R.M.,; “Effects of temperature and biodegradable organic matter on  
307 control of biofilms by free chlorine in a model drinking water distribution system”, *Water Research*,  
308 Volume 39, Issue 6, March 2005, Pages 953–964
- 309

310 Sun F, D Walton, Hall, A., : “A hybrid dynamical–statistical downscaling technique, part II: End-of-  
311 century warming projections predict a new climate state in the Los Angeles region”. *Journal of Climate*,  
312 2015, 28(12): 4618–4636. DOI: 10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00197

313

314 Terjung, W.H., O’Rourke, P.A., “Influences of Physical Structures on Urban Energy Budgets”,  
315 *Boundary-Layer Meteorology*, December 1980, Volume 19, Issue 4, pp 421-439

316

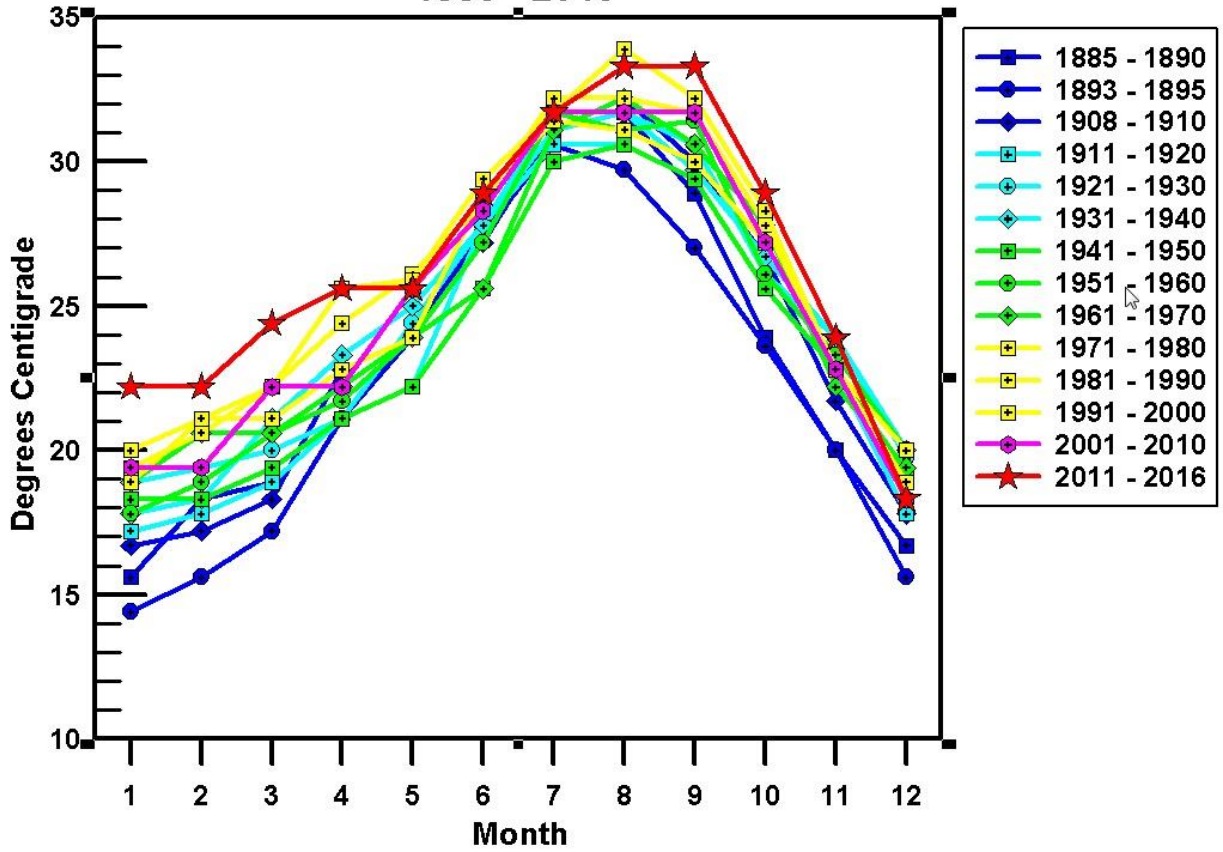
317 United States Bureau of Reclamation, “Los Angeles Basin Stormwater Conservation Study”, 2016,  
318 <https://www.usbr.gov/lc/socal/basinstudies/LABasin.html>

319

320  
321

# Figure 1

## Median Daytime Temperatures by Decade and Month 1885 - 2016

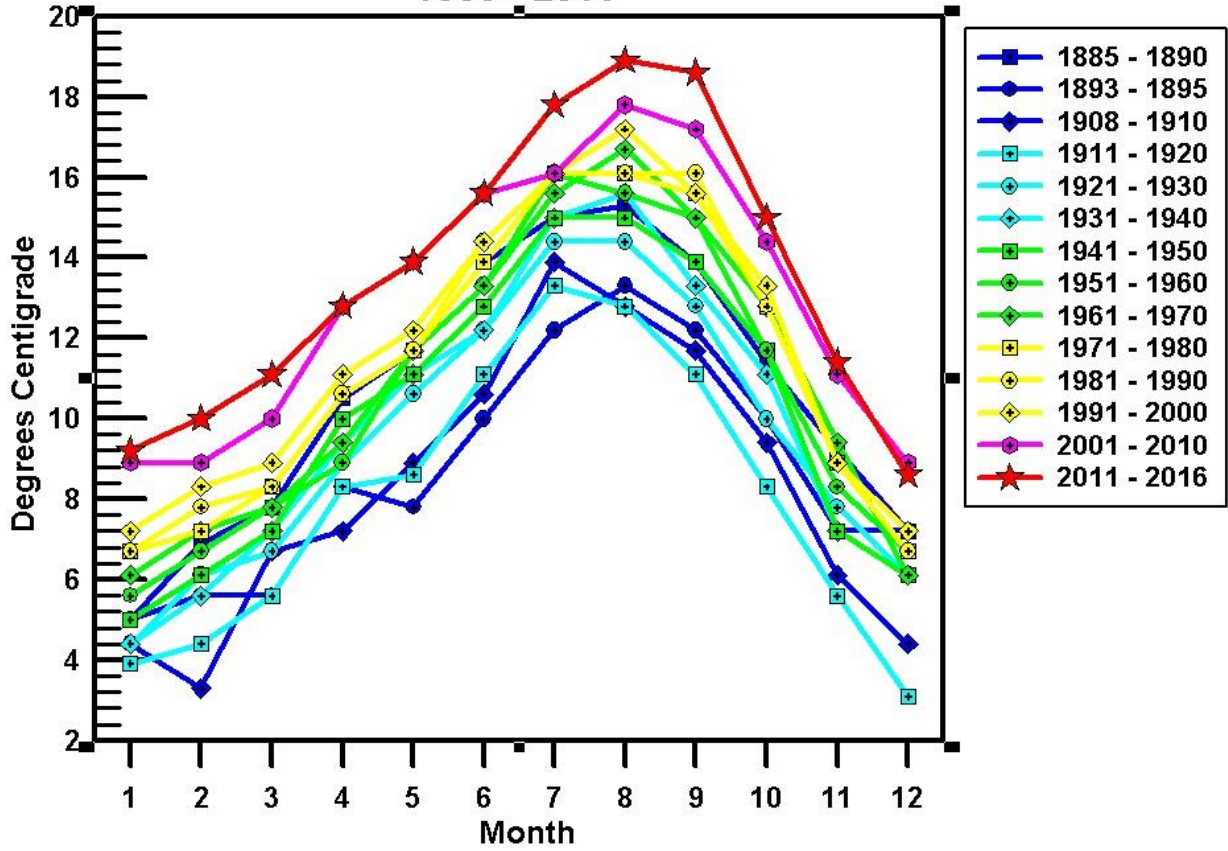




322

# Figure 2

## Median Nighttime Temperatures by Decade and Month 1885 - 2016



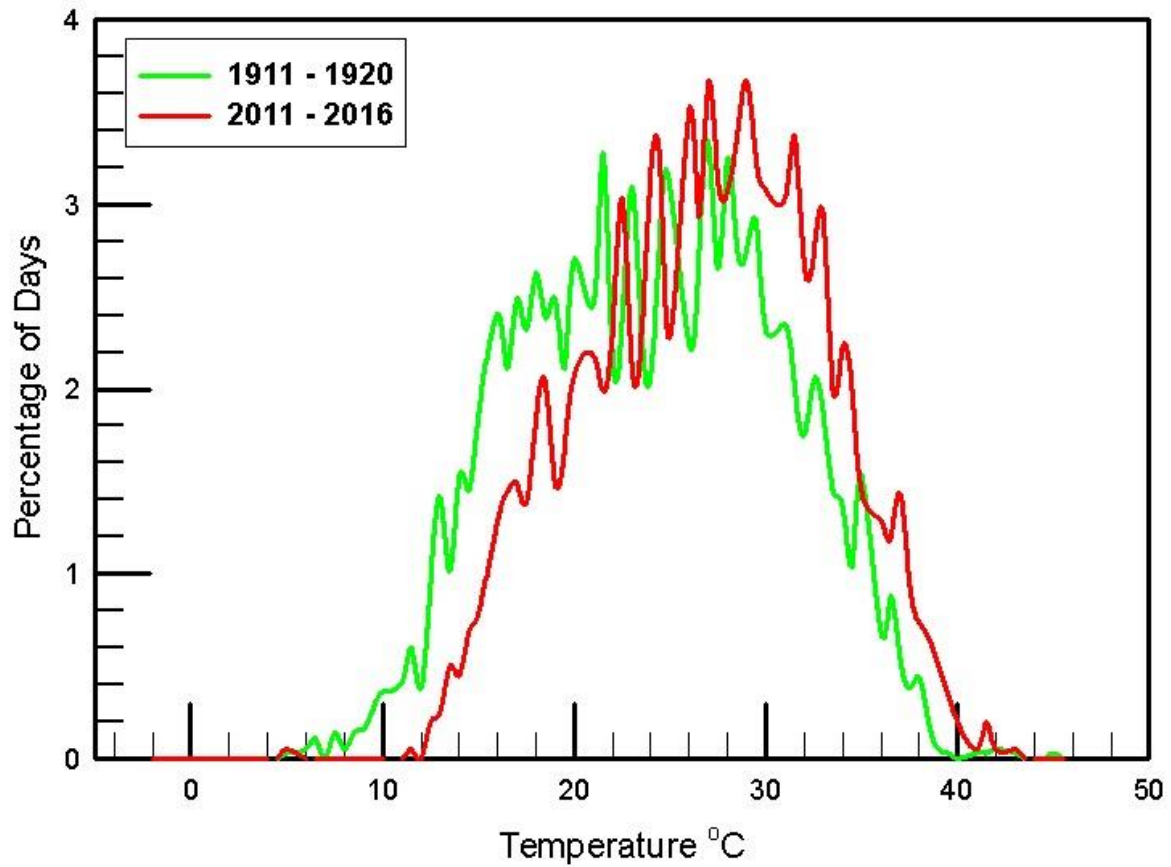
323

324

325

## Figure 3

Frequency of Daytime Temperatures in Pasadena  
by Decade 1911 - 2016

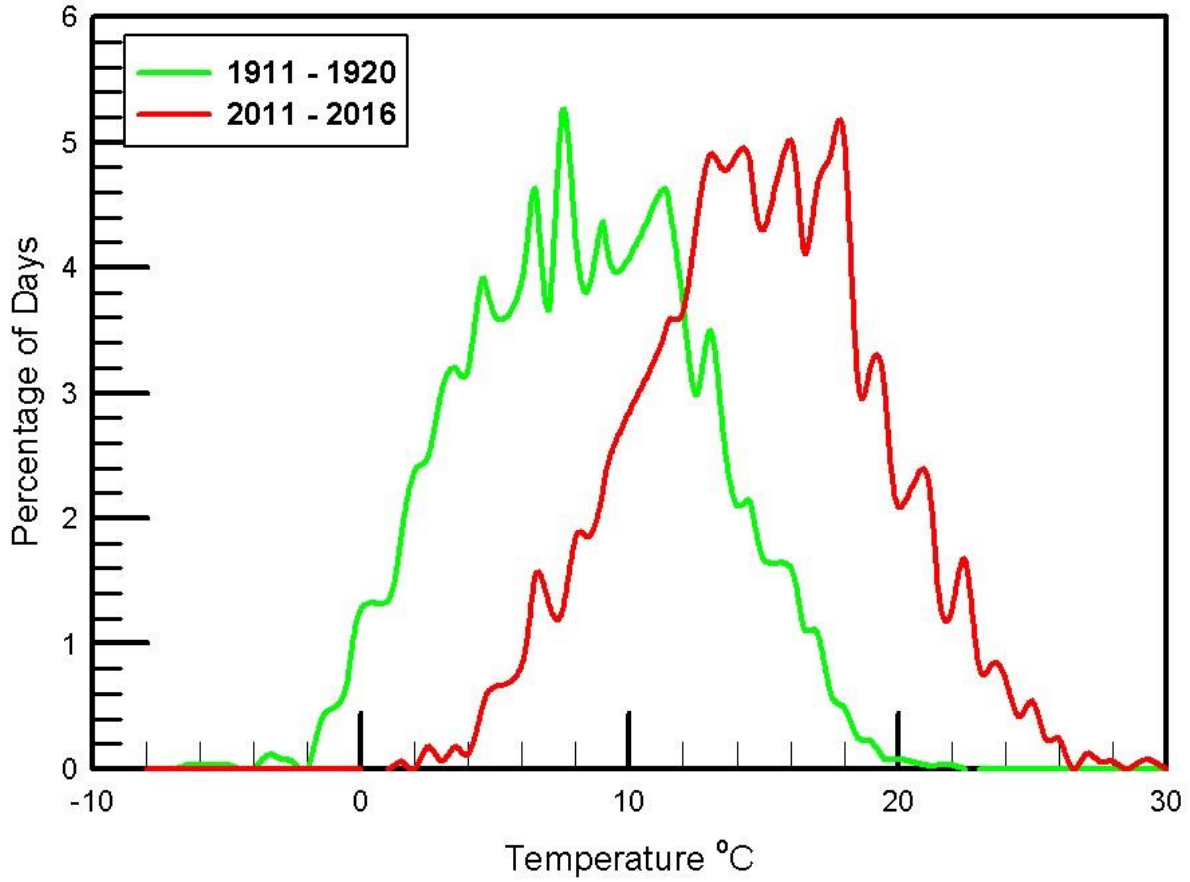


326

327  
328

# Figure 4

## Nighttime Temperatures in Pasadena by Decade 1911 - 2016



329  
330