



1 **Merging ground-based sunshine duration**  
2 **with satellite cloud and aerosol data to**  
3 **produce high resolution long-term surface**  
4 **solar radiation over China**

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## Abstract

22           Although great progress has been made in estimating surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
23 from meteorological observations, satellite retrieval and reanalysis, getting best  
24 estimated of long-term variations in  $R_s$  are sorely needed for climate studies. It has been  
25 shown that sunshine duration (SunDu)-derived  $R_s$  data can provide reliable long-term  
26  $R_s$  variation. Here, we merge SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data with satellite-derived cloud  
27 fraction and aerosol optical depth (AOD) data to generate high spatial resolution ( $0.1^\circ$ )  
28  $R_s$  over China from 2000 to 2017. The geographically weighted regression (GWR) and  
29 ordinary least squares regression (OLS) merging methods are compared, and GWR is  
30 found to perform better. Whether or not AOD is taken as input data makes little  
31 difference for the GWR merging results. Based on the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  from 97  
32 meteorological observation stations, the GWR incorporated with satellite cloud fraction  
33 and AOD data produces monthly  $R_s$  with  $R^2 = 0.97$  and standard deviation = 11.14  
34  $\text{W/m}^2$ , while GWR driven by only cloud fraction produces similar results with  $R^2 =$   
35 0.97 and standard deviation = 11.41  $\text{w/m}^2$ . This similarity is because SunDu-derived  $R_s$   
36 has included the impact of aerosols. This finding can help to build long-term  $R_s$   
37 variations based on cloud data, such as Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer  
38 (AVHRR) cloud retrievals, especially before 2000, when satellite AOD retrievals are  
39 not unavailable. The merged  $R_s$  product at a spatial resolution of  $0.1^\circ$  in this study can  
40 be downloaded at <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921847> (Feng and Wang,  
41 2020).

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52 **Keywords:** surface solar radiation; data fusion; cloud fraction; AOD

53 **Key Points:**

54 (1) We merge SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data with cloud fraction and AOD data to generate

55 high spatial resolution ( $0.1^\circ$ )  $R_s$  over China from 2000 to 2017.

56 (2) Whether or not AOD is taken as inputs makes little difference for the GWR merging

57 results because the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  have included the AOD's impact.

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## 59 1. Introduction

60 A clear knowledge of variations in surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) is vitally important  
61 for an improved understanding of the global climate system and its interaction with  
62 human activity (Jia et al., 2013; Myers, 2005; Schwarz et al., 2020; Wang and Dickinson,  
63 2013; Wild, 2009, 2017; Zell et al., 2015). Widespread direct measurements have shown  
64 that  $R_s$  has significant decadal variability, namely, a decrease (global dimming) from  
65 the 1950s to the late 1980s and subsequent increase (global brightening) (Wild, 2009).  
66 The variation in  $R_s$  is closely related to Earth's water cycle, the whole biosphere, and  
67 the amount of available solar energy. This situation emphasizes the urgency to develop  
68 reliable  $R_s$  products to obtain the variability in  $R_s$ .

69 Great progress has been made in the detection of variability in  $R_s$  by  
70 meteorological observations, satellite retrieval and radiation transfer model simulations  
71 or reanalysis  $R_s$  products in previous studies (Rahman and Zhang, 2019; Wang et al.,  
72 2015). However, each estimation has its advantages and disadvantages. Direct observed  
73 data provide accurate  $R_s$  records; however, careful calibration and instrument  
74 maintenance are needed. Previous studies have reported that direct observed  $R_s$   
75 measurements over China may have major inhomogeneity problems due to sensitivity  
76 drift and instrument replacement (Wang, 2014a; Wang et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2018).  
77 Before 1990, the imitations of the USSR pyranometers had different degradation rates  
78 of the thermopile, resulting in an important sensitivity drift. To overcome radiometer  
79 ageing, China replaced its instruments from 1990 to 1993. However, the new solar  
80 trackers failed frequently and introduced a high missing data rate for the direct radiation  
81 component of  $R_s$  (Lu and Bian, 2012; Mo et al., 2008). After 1993, although the  
82 instruments were substantially improved, the Chinese-developed pyranometers still had  
83 high thermal offset with directional response errors, and the stability of these



84 instruments was also worse than that of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO)  
85 recommended first-class pyranometers (Lu et al., 2002; Lu and Bian, 2012; Yang et al.,  
86 2010).

87 Sunshine duration observations collected at weather stations in China have been  
88 used to reconstruct long-term  $R_s$  (Feng et al., 2019; He and Wang, 2020; He et al., 2018;  
89 Yang et al., 2020). Based on the global SunDu-derived  $R_s$  records, He et al. (2018)  
90 found that SunDu permitted a revisit of global dimming from the 1950s to the 1980s  
91 over China, Europe, and the USA, with brightening from 1980 to 2009 in Europe and  
92 a declining trend  $R_s$  from 1994 to 2010 in China. Wang et al. (2015) also found that the  
93 dimming trend from 1961 to 1990 and nearly constant zero trend after 1990 over China,  
94 as calculated from the SunDu-derived  $R_s$ , was consistent with independent estimates of  
95 AOD (Luo et al., 2001); they also observed changes in the diurnal temperature range  
96 (Wang and Dickinson, 2013; Wang et al., 2012a) and the observed pan evaporation  
97 (Yang et al., 2015). Although direct observations and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  can provide  
98 accurate long-term variations in  $R_s$ , both direct observations and sunshine duration  
99 records are often sparsely spatially distributed.

100 Satellite  $R_s$  retrieval and radiation transfer model simulation or reanalysis  $R_s$   
101 products can provide  $R_s$  estimation with large spatial coverage. Model simulations and  
102 reanalysis  $R_s$  products have substantial biases due to the deficiency of simulating cloud  
103 and aerosol quantities (Feng and Wang, 2019; Zhao et al., 2013). Previous comparative  
104 studies have shown that the accuracies of  $R_s$  from reanalyses are lower than those of  
105 satellite products (Wang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016) due to the good capability of  
106 capturing the spatial distribution and dynamic evolution of clouds in satellite remote  
107 sensing data.

108 **Table 1** lists the current satellite-based  $R_s$  products, which have been widely



109 validated in previous studies. Zhang et al. (2004) found that the monthly International  
110 Satellite Cloud Climatology Project-Flux Data (ISCCP-FD)  $R_s$  product had a positive  
111 bias of  $8.8 \text{ w/m}^2$  using Global Energy Balance Archive (GEBA) archived data as a  
112 reference. By comparing 1151 global sites, Zhang et al. (2015) evaluated four satellite-  
113 based  $R_s$  products, including ISCCP-FD, the Global Energy and Water Cycle  
114 Experiment-Surface Radiation Budget (GEWEX-SRB), the University of  
115 Maryland/Shortwave Radiation Budget (UMD-SRB) and the Earth's Radiant Energy  
116 System energy balanced and filled product (CERES EBAF), and concluded that CERES  
117 EBAF shows better agreement with observations than other products. A similar overall  
118 good performance of CERES EBAF can also be found (Feng and Wang, 2018; Ma et  
119 al., 2015).

120 **Table 1.** Current satellite-derived surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) products

Satellite $R_s$ product	Source	Spatial resolution	Time range
ISCCP-FD	ISCCP	$2.5^\circ$	1983-2009
GEWEX-SRB	ISCCP-DX	$1^\circ$	1983-2007
UMD-SRB	METEOSAT-5	$0.5^\circ$	1983-2007
GLASS-DSR	Terra/Aqua, GOES, MSG, MTSAT	$0.05^\circ$	2008-2010
CLARA-A2	AVHRR	$0.25^\circ$	1982-2015
MCD18A1	Terra/Aqua, MODIS	5.6 km	2001-present
Himawari-8 SWSR	Himawari-8	5 km	2015-present
SSR-tang	ISCCP-HXG, ERA5, MODIS	10 km	1982-2017
Cloud_cci AVHRR-PMv3	AVHRR/CC4CL	$0.05^\circ$	1982-2016

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122 Although CERES EBAF uses more accurate input data to provide  $R_s$  data, its  
123 spatial resolution is only  $1^\circ$  (Kato et al., 2018). Since 2010, new-generation  
124 geostationary satellites have provided opportunities for high temporal and spatial  
125 resolution  $R_s$  data, such as Himawari-8 (Hongrong et al., 2018; Letu et al., 2020).  
126 However, the time span of the new-generation satellite-based  $R_s$  product is short. The  
127 long-term AVHRR records provide the possibility of building long-term radiation



128 datasets. The CCloud, Albedo and RAdiation dataset, the AVHRR-based data-second  
129 edition (CLARA-A2), covers a long time period, but the spatial resolution is only  $0.25^\circ$   
130 (Karlsson et al., 2017). Recently, Tang et al. (2019) built a satellite-based  $R_s$  (SSR-tang)  
131 dataset using ISCCP-HXG cloud data. By using a variety of cloud properties derived  
132 from AVHRR, Stengel et al. (2020) presented the Cloud\_cci AVHRR-PMv3 dataset  
133 generated within the Cloud\_cci project. However, the long-term cloud records also  
134 contain uncertainties. For example, ISCCP cloud products, which directly combine  
135 geostationary and polar orbiter satellite-based cloud data, have large inhomogeneity due  
136 to different amounts of data from polar orbit and geostationary satellites and their  
137 different capabilities for detecting low-level clouds (Dai et al., 2006; Evan et al., 2007).  
138 This inhomogeneity of the cloud products might introduce significant inhomogeneity  
139 to the  $R_s$  values calculated from the cloud products (Montero-Martín et al., 2020;  
140 Pfeifroth et al., 2018b), and  $R_s$  long-term variability estimation still needs improvement.

141 Efforts have been made to further improve  $R_s$  products. Merging multisource data  
142 has become an effective empirical method for improving the quality of  $R_s$  products  
143 (Camargo and Dorner, 2016; Feng and Wang, 2018; Hakuba et al., 2014; Journé et al.,  
144 2012; Lorenzo et al., 2017; Ruiz-Arias et al., 2015). For instance, to produce  
145 spatiotemporally consistent  $R_s$  data, multisource satellite data are used in Global LAnd  
146 Surface Satellite (GLASS)  $R_s$  products (Jin et al., 2013). By merging reanalysis and  
147 satellite  $R_s$  data by the probability density function-based method, the reanalysis  $R_s$   
148 biases can be substantially reduced (Feng and Wang, 2018). This finding suggests that  
149 fusion methods are effective ways to improve the estimation of  $R_s$ , especially when  $R_s$   
150 impact factors are considered (Feng and Wang, 2019). Although linear regression  
151 fusion methods can produce  $R_s$  data incorporated with  $R_s$  impact factors, the stable  
152 regression parameters might have negative effects on the final fusion results due to the



153 complex characteristics of  $R_s$  spatial-temporal variability.

154 On the other hand, the spatial resolution of  $R_s$  data is crucial for regional  
155 meteorology studies, as the minimum requirement of the spatial resolution of  $R_s$  data,  
156 as suggested by the Observing Systems Capabilities Analysis and Review of WMO  
157 OSCAR), is 20 km (Huang et al., 2019). Interpolation methods are often included in  $R_s$   
158 fusion methods to further improve the spatial resolutions of  $R_s$  data (Loghmari et al.,  
159 2018). For example, Zou et al. (2016) estimated global solar radiation using an artificial  
160 neural network based on an interpolation technique in southeast China. By integrating  
161  $R_s$  data from 13 ground stations with Meteosat Second Generation satellite  $R_s$  products,  
162 Journé and Bertrand (2010) found that kriging with the external drift interpolation  
163 method performed better than mean bias correction, interpolated bias correction and  
164 ordinary kriging with satellite-based correction. However, interpolation results have  
165 uncertainties due to the lack of detailed high spatial resolution information. Although  
166 traditional linear regression fusion methods can incorporate high spatial resolution data  
167 during the fusion process, the impacts of the stable regression parameters need further  
168 investigation.

169 Geographically weighted regression (GWR) is an extension of the traditional  
170 regression model by allowing the relationships between dependent and explanatory  
171 variables to vary spatially. Researchers have examined and compared the applicability  
172 of GWR for the analysis of spatial data relative to that of other regression methods (Ali  
173 et al., 2007; Gao et al., 2006; Georganos et al., 2017; LeSage, 2004; Sheehan et al.,  
174 2012; Zhou et al., 2019a). Due to the large spatial heterogeneity of  $R_s$  over China, the  
175 GWR method might produce accurate  $R_s$  variability estimations with an improved  
176 spatial resolution.

177 This study is established to merge SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data with satellite-derived





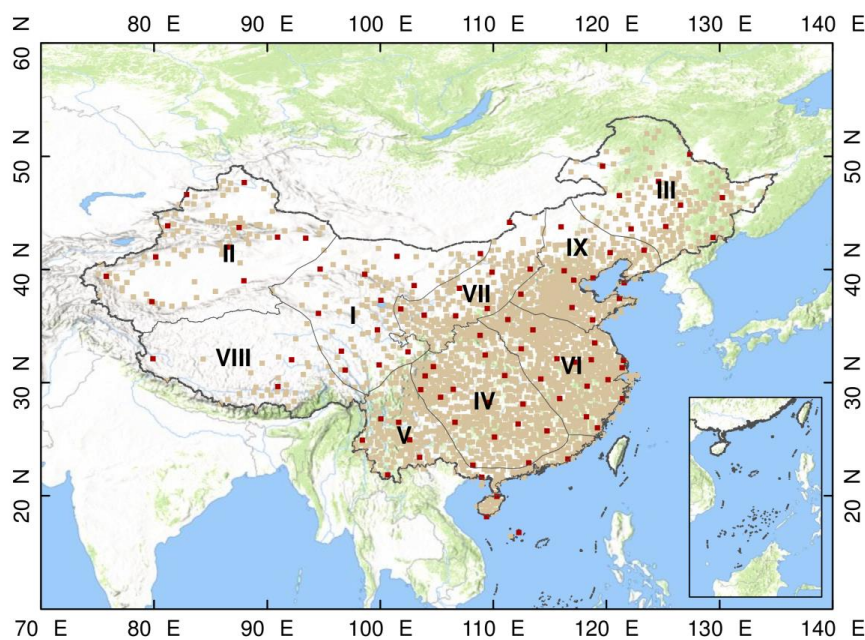
178 cloud fraction (CF) and AOD data to generate high spatial resolution (0.1)  $R_s$  over China  
179 from 2000 to 2017. The GWR and ordinary least squares (OLS) regression merging  
180 methods are compared. CF and AOD are important  $R_s$  impact factors. In this study,  
181 whether much improvement is made in merging  $R_s$  by incorporating AOD is also  
182 evaluated. The output of this study can provide guidance to merge multisource data to  
183 generate long-term  $R_s$  data over China. Direct  $R_s$  observations and sunDu data records  
184 from CMDC cannot be easily downloaded for the researchers from outside China due  
185 to the authentication of the China data use policy. This further demonstrate the  
186 importance of our merged  $R_s$  product.

## 187 **2. Data and Methodology**

### 188 **2.1. Ground-based observations**

#### 189 **2.2.1 Direct observations**

190  $R_s$  direct observations from 2000 to 2016 are obtained from the China  
191 Meteorological Data Service Center (CMDC, <http://data/cma/cn/>) of the China  
192 Meteorological Administration (CMA). TBQ-2 pyranometers and DFY4 pyranometers  
193 have been used to measure  $R_s$  since 1993. Daily  $R_s$  values from 97  $R_s$  stations are  
194 collected, and we calculated monthly  $R_s$  values by averaging daily  $R_s$  values when daily  
195 observed data are available for more than 15 days for each month at each radiation  
196 station. These monthly  $R_s$  values from direct measurements and collocated SunDu-  
197 derived  $R_s$  are used as independent reference data to investigate the performances of the  
198 fusion methods (**Fig. 1**). The whole area over China is further divided into nine zones  
199 by the K-mean cluster method based on geographic locations and multiyear mean  $R_s$   
200 using 97  $R_s$  direct observation sites, as shown in **Figure 1**. The download instructions  
201 of the  $R_s$  direct observations can be found in **table 2**.



202

203 **Figure 1.** The 2,400 sunshine duration (SunDu) merging sites are shown as light brown  
204 points, and 97 independent validation sites, including  $R_s$  direct measurements and  
205 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  measurements, are shown as brown red points. The whole region is  
206 classified into nine subregions (I to IX) by the K-mean cluster method based on  
207 geographic locations and multiyear mean  $R_s$  using 97  $R_s$  direct observation sites. The  
208 base hillshade map was produced by an elevation map of China using the global digital  
209 elevation model (DEM) derived from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission 30  
210 (SRTM30) dataset.

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220 **Table 2.** Summary of availability information for all source data used in this study.  
 221 CMDC is the China Meteorological Data Service Center. SunDu is the sunshine  
 222 duration data.  $R_s$  is surface solar radiation and AOD is the aerosols optical depth.

Data Source	Derived Parameters used in this Study	Version Number	Access Point	Notes
Direct $R_s$ measurement data from CMDC	$R_s$	Version 1.0	<a href="http://data/cma/cn/">http://data/cma/cn/</a>	Authentication is required for the China data use policy
SunDu observations and other meteorological data	$R_s$	Version 1.0	<a href="http://data/cma/cn/">http://data/cma/cn/</a>	Authentication is required for the China data use policy
CERES EBAF	$R_s$	Ed4.1	<a href="https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/#ebaf-level-3b">https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/#ebaf-level-3b</a>	A email address to order the data
CERES SYN1deg	AOD	Ed4A	<a href="https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/#syn1deg-level-3">https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/#syn1deg-level-3</a>	A email address to order the data
MODAL2 M CLD	cloud fraction	-	<a href="https://neo.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/view.php?datasetId=MODAL2_M_CLD_FR">https://neo.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/view.php?datasetId=MODAL2_M_CLD_FR</a>	Directly download

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### 224 2.2.2 SunDu-derived $R_s$ observations

225 Sunshine duration observations (SunDu) and other meteorological data (e.g., air  
 226 temperature, relative humidity and surface pressure) from 1980 to 2017, which were  
 227 collected from approximately 2,400 meteorological stations (<http://data/cma/cn/>) from  
 228 the CMA, are used to calculate the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  (**Fig. 1**).  $R_s$  values are calculated  
 229 following the method of the revised Ångström-Prescott equation (Eq. (1-2)) (He et al.,  
 230 2018; Wang, 2014a; Wang et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2006).

$$231 \quad \frac{R_s}{R_c} = a_0 + a_1 \frac{n}{K} + a_2 \left(\frac{n}{K}\right)^2 \quad (1)$$

$$232 \quad R_c = \int (\tau_{c,dir} + \tau_{c,dif}) \times I_0 dt \quad (2)$$

233 where n represents the measured SunDu, and K represents the theoretical value of the

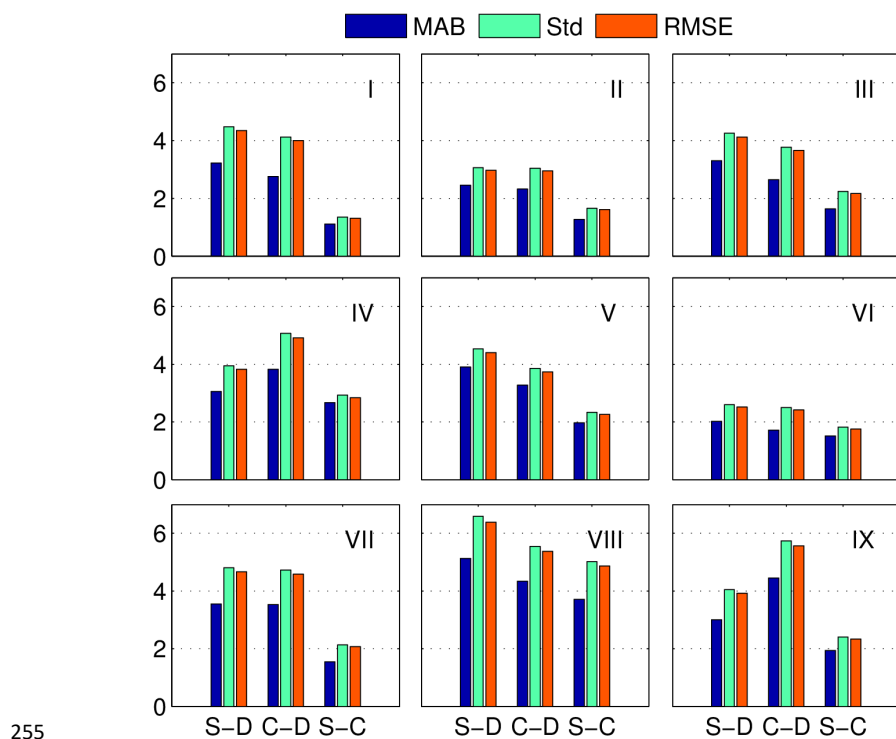


234 SunDu.  $a_0$ ,  $a_1$ , and  $a_2$  are the station-dependent parameters (Wang, 2014a).  $R_c$  is the  
235 daily total solar radiation at the surface under clear-sky conditions (Eq. 2).  $\tau_{c\_dir}$  and  $\tau_{c\_dif}$   
236 represent the direct radiation transmittance and the diffuse radiation transmittance under  
237 clear-sky conditions.  $I_0$  is the solar irradiance at the top of the atmosphere (TOA).

238 SunDu data are relatively widely distributed and have a long-term record  
239 (Sanchez-Lorenzo et al., 2009; Wild, 2009). Existing studies have also confirmed that  
240 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data are reliable  $R_s$  data, which can capture long-term trends of  $R_s$   
241 and reflect the impacts of both aerosols and clouds at time scales ranging from daily to  
242 decadal (Feng and Wang, 2019; Manara et al., 2015; Sanchez-Lorenzo et al., 2013;  
243 Sanchezromero et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012b; Wild, 2016).

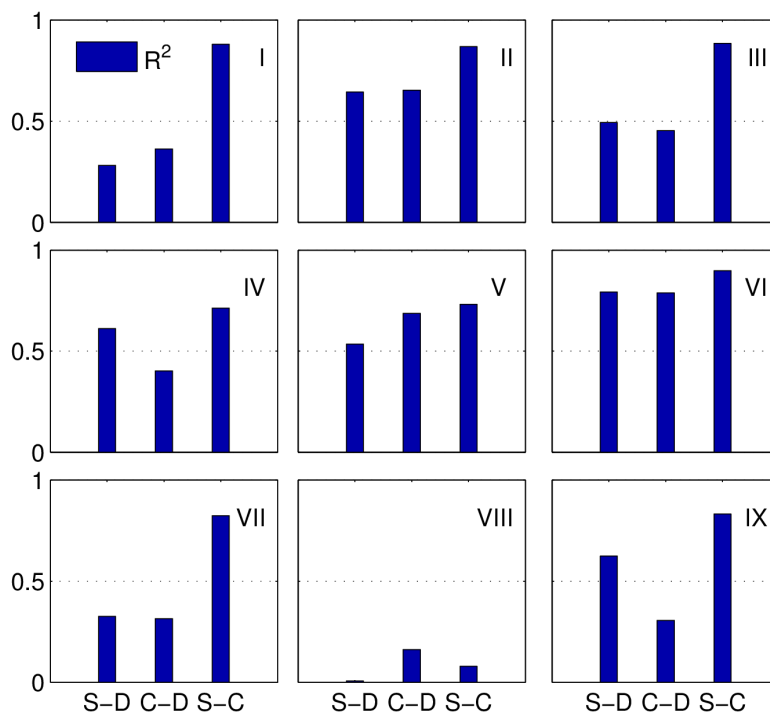
244 Based on the classified subregions using 97 direct  $R_s$  observations in **Figure 1**, the  
245 intercomparison results in **Figure 2** and **Figure 3** show that the agreement between  
246 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and CERES EBAF  $R_s$  estimates is better than that between the direct  
247 observations and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  estimates, which is likely due to the inhomogeneity  
248 issue of direct  $R_s$  observations over China, as mentioned in many previous studies  
249 (Wang, 2014b; Yang et al., 2018). These results indicate that SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data can  
250 be used to analyse the variation in  $R_s$  over China.

251 The SunDu-derived  $R_s$  observations, excluding SunDu observations located at  
252 direct observation sites, are used for merging. Ten percent merging observations are  
253 randomly selected for GWR parameter optimization. The download instructions of the  
254 SunDu observations can be found in **table 2**.



255

256 **Figure 2.** Statistical summary of annual anomaly  $R_s$  from direct observed  $R_s$ , SunDu-  
 257 derived  $R_s$  and CERES EBAF  $R_s$  estimates in different subregions. The statistics include  
 258 the mean absolute bias (MAB), standard deviation (Std) and root mean square error  
 259 (RMSE). We use MAB due to the cancelling out effect of positive bias and negative  
 260 bias. Nine subregions (I to IX) over China are shown in Figure 1. S-D represent  
 261 comparisons between SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and directly observed  $R_s$ . C-D represent  
 262 comparison between CERES EBAF  $R_s$  and directly observed  $R_s$ . S-C represent  
 263 comparisons between SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and CERES EBAF  $R_s$ .



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265 **Figure 3.** Similar to Figure 2, but this statistical summary is for  $R^2$ .

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## 267 2.2. Satellite data

268  $R_s$  data from the Clouds and Earth's Radiant Energy System energy balanced and  
 269 filled product (CERES Synoptic (CERES) EBAF) surface product (edition 4.1) (Kato  
 270 et al., 2018), cloud fraction from MODAL2 M CLD data product (Platnick et al., 2017)  
 271 and AOD from the CERES SYN1deg) edition 4A product (Doelling et al., 2013) are  
 272 collected in this study. CERES EBAF  $R_s$  data are used as reference data. AOD from  
 273 CERES SYN1deg and cloud fraction from MODAL2 M CLD are used as input data for  
 274 fusion methods.

275 CERES is a 3-channel radiometer measuring three filtered radiances, including  
 276 shortwave (0.3-5  $\mu\text{m}$ ), total (0.3-200  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and window (8-12  $\mu\text{m}$ ).  $R_s$  from CERES  
 277 EBAF are adjusted using radiative kernels, including bias correction and Lagrange



278 multiplier processes. The input data of CERES EBAF are adjusted during the product  
279 generating process constrained by CERES observations at the TOA. The biases in  
280 temperature and specific humidity from the Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS)  
281 reanalysis are adjusted by atmospheric infrared sounder (AIRS) data. Cloud properties,  
282 such as optical thickness and emissivity, from MODIS and geostationary satellites are  
283 constrained by cloud profiling radar, Cloud-Aerosol Lidar, and Infrared Pathfinder  
284 Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) detectors and CloudSat. The uncertainties of  
285 CERES EBAF data, reported by (Kato et al., 2018), in all sky global annual mean  $R_s$  is  
286  $4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . Previous studies (Feng and Wang, 2019; Feng and Wang, 2018; Ma et al.,  
287 2015; Wang et al., 2015) have shown that the CERES EBAF surface product provides  
288 reliable estimations of  $R_s$ .

289 CERES SYN1deg AOD derived from an aerosol transport model, named  
290 Atmospheric Transport and Chemistry Modelling (MATCH) (Collins et al., 2001),  
291 which assimilates MODIS AOD data, is used to obtain spatiotemporally consistent  
292 AOD data. Different aerosol constituents, including small dust ( $<0.5 \mu\text{m}$ ), large dust  
293 ( $>0.5 \mu\text{m}$ ), stratosphere, sea salt, soot and soluble, are used to compute the optical  
294 thickness for a given constituent optical thickness for a given constituent.

295 Cloud fraction data from MODAL2 M CLD are collected as input cloud fraction  
296 data with a spatial resolution of  $0.1^\circ$  and time span from 2000 to 2017 (Platnick et al.,  
297 2017). The MODAL2 M CLD data are synthesized based on the cloud data from  
298 MOD06. Cloud fraction data from MOD06 are generated by the cloud mask product of  
299 MOD35 with a spatial resolution of 1 km. The MOD35 cloud mask is determined by  
300 applying appropriate single field of view (FOV) spectral tests to each pixel with a series  
301 of visible and infrared threshold and consistency tests. Each land type has different  
302 algorithms and thresholds for the tests. For each pixel test, an individual confidence



303 flag is determined and then combined to produce the final cloud mask flag. The three  
304 confidence levels included in the cloud mask flag output are (i) high confidence for  
305 cloudless pixels (Group confidence values  $> 0.95$ ); (ii) low confidence for unobstructed  
306 views on the surface (Group confidence values  $Q \leq 0.66$ ); and (iii) values between 0.66  
307 and 0.95, and spatial and temporal continuity tests are further applied to determine  
308 whether the pixel is absolutely cloudless. Then, the cloud fraction is calculated from  
309 the 5 x 5-km cloud mask pixel groupings, i.e., given the 25 pixels in the group, the  
310 cloud fraction for the group equals the number of cloudy pixels divided by 25.

### 311 **2.3. Methods**

#### 312 **2.3.1 Fusion models**

313 OLS regression and GWR are used to build fusion methods for estimating  $R_s$  data.  
314 Clouds fraction and AOD have been important factors that affect variations in  $R_s$ . We  
315 compare different combinations of input data for the fusion methods, which can be  
316 classified into two types. The first type only contains cloud fraction data. The second  
317 type contains clouds fraction and AOD (Feng and Wang, 2020).

318 GWR is a regression model that allows the relationships between the independent  
319 and dependent variables to vary by locality (Brunsdon et al., 2010; Brunsdon et al.,  
320 1998). GWR deviates from the assumption of homoskedasticity or static variance but  
321 calculates a specific variance for data within a zone or search radius of each predictor  
322 variable (Brunsdon et al., 1998; Fotheringham et al., 1996; Sheehan et al., 2012). The  
323 regression coefficients in GWR are not based on global information; rather, they vary  
324 with location, which is generated by a local regression estimation using subsampled  
325 data from the nearest neighbouring observations. The principle of GWR is described as  
326 follows:

$$y_i = \delta(i) + \sum_k \delta_k(i)x_{ik} + \varepsilon_i \quad (3)$$





327 where  $y_i$  is the value of  $R_s$  unit  $i$ ;  $i=1,2,\dots,n$ ,  $n$  denotes location  $i$ ,  $x_{ik}$  indicates the value  
328 of the  $x_{ik}$  variable, such as cloud fraction and AOD, and  $\varepsilon$  denotes the residuals.  $\delta_{(i)}$  is  
329 the regression intercept.  $\delta_{k(i)}$  is the vector of regression coefficients determined by  
330 spatial weighting function  $w_{(i)}$ , which is the weighting function quantifying the  
331 proximities of location  $i$  to its neighbouring observation sites;  $X$  is the variable matrix,  
332 and  $b$  is the bias vector.

$$\delta_k(i) = (X^T w(i)X)^{-1} X^T w(i)b \quad (4)$$

333 The weighting functions are generally determined using the threshold method,  
334 inverse distance method, Gauss function method, and Bi-square method. Due to the  
335 irregular distribution of observation sites and computer ability, the adaptive Gaussian  
336 function method is selected as a weighting function that varies in extent as a function  
337 of  $R_s$  observation site density.

$$w_{ij} = \exp(-(d_{ij}/b)^2) \quad (5)$$

338 where  $w_{ij}$  is the weighting function for observation site  $j$  that refers to location  $i$ ;  $d_{ij}$   
339 denotes the Euclidian distance between  $j$  and  $i$ ; and  $b$  is the size of the neighbourhood,  
340 the maximum distance away from regression location  $i$ , called “bandwidth”, which is  
341 determined by the number of nearest neighbour points (NNPs).

### 342 2.3.2 GWR parameter comparison

343 To perform the local regression for every local area, the numbers of NNPs are  
344 required to estimate spatially varying relationships between CF, AOD and  $R_s$  in the  
345 GWR-based fused method. To identify the best combination of parameter values, we  
346 test the numbers of NNPs ranging from 29 to 1000. Ten percent of merging SunDu-  
347 derived  $R_s$  data are randomly selected to validate these GWR parameters (**Fig. 1**). The  
348 results show that  $R^2$  increases and bias decreases when the number of NNPs decreases.  
349 However, when the NNP is smaller than 30, the GWR-based fusion method produces



350 spatially incomplete  $R_s$  data due to the local collinearity problem with large spatial  
 351 variability. Therefore, 30 is selected as the NNP parameter (**Table 3**).

352

353 **Table 3.** Statistical summary of GWR parameter optimization. NNP is the number of  
 354 nearest neighbour points. GWR-CF presents the GWR-based fused method using only  
 355 cloud fraction (CF) input, and GWR-CF-AOD presents that of using both CF and  
 356 aerosol optical depth (AOD) as input. MAB is the mean absolute bias. Std is the  
 357 standard deviation. RMSE is the root mean square error.

NNP	GWR-CF					GWR-CF-AOD				
	R <sup>2</sup>	Bias	MAB	Std	RMSE	R <sup>2</sup>	Bias	MAB	Std	RMSE
29	0.91	-0.21	7.45	9.90	9.90	0.91	-0.13	7.47	9.93	9.92
30	0.91	-0.23	7.45	9.90	9.90	0.91	-0.14	7.47	9.92	9.91
31	0.91	-0.24	7.45	9.90	9.90	0.91	-0.14	7.47	9.91	9.91
32	0.91	-0.25	7.46	9.91	9.91	0.91	-0.14	7.47	9.91	9.90
33	0.91	-0.26	7.47	9.92	9.92	0.91	-0.15	7.46	9.90	9.90
34	0.91	-0.27	7.47	9.93	9.93	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.90	9.89
35	0.91	-0.28	7.48	9.94	9.94	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.89	9.88
36	0.91	-0.28	7.49	9.94	9.94	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.89	9.88
37	0.91	-0.29	7.49	9.95	9.95	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.88	9.87
38	0.91	-0.30	7.50	9.96	9.96	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.88	9.87
39	0.91	-0.31	7.51	9.98	9.98	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.87	9.87
40	0.91	-0.32	7.52	9.99	9.99	0.91	-0.14	7.46	9.87	9.87
50	0.90	-0.38	7.62	10.12	10.12	0.91	-0.12	7.51	9.91	9.91
100	0.89	-0.57	8.20	10.90	10.91	0.90	-0.02	7.86	10.31	10.30
500	0.81	-1.08	10.89	14.50	14.54	0.86	0.20	9.55	12.45	12.45
1000	0.75	-1.13	12.60	16.57	16.61	0.82	0.26	10.68	13.84	13.85

358

### 359 **3. Results**

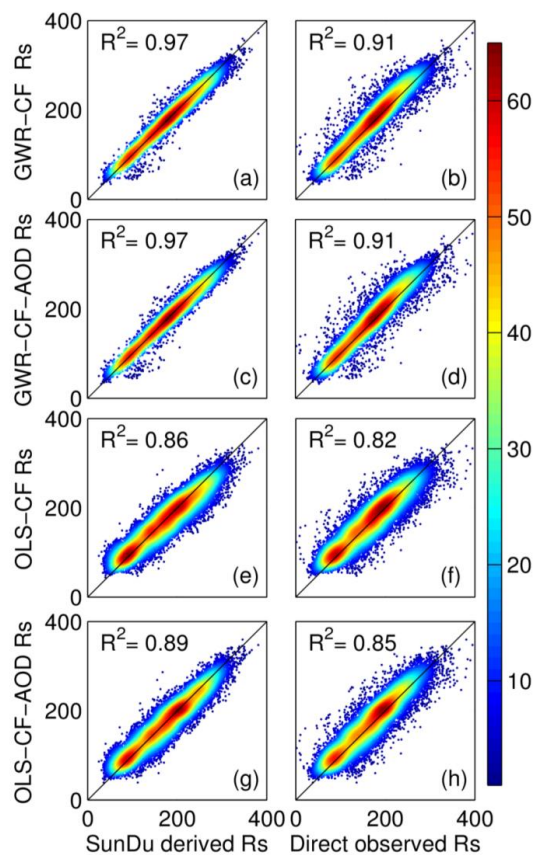
#### 360 **3.1 Site validation**

361 Based on the independent SunDu validation sites, both the GWR and OLS  
 362 methods explain 97%~86% of  $R_s$  variability (**Fig. 4**). The GWR method generally  
 363 shows an improved performance compared with the OLS method due to the  
 364 representativeness of the spatial heterogeneity relationship between  $R_s$  and its impact  
 365 factors in GWR. Both the GWR and OLS methods produce better simulations of  $R_s$  if



366 satellite and AOD data are incorporated.

367 Direct observations from 2000 to 2016 are also used to further evaluate the  
368 performance of the fusion methods (**Fig. 4**). The comparative result shows that both  
369 fusion methods show slightly reduced performances when using direct  $R_s$  observations  
370 rather than the SunDu-derived  $R_s$ . Both the GWR and OLS methods explain 91%~82%  
371 of  $R_s$  variability by using direct observations as reference data. Similarly, the GWR  
372 method exhibits better performances than the OLS-based fusion method, with an  $R^2$  of  
373 0.91 and root mean square error (RMSE) ranging from 19.89 to 19.97  $\text{W/m}^2$  at the  
374 monthly time scale (**Table 4**).



375

376 **Figure 4.** Comparison of surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) derived from the GWR method



377 and the OLS method. Subplots (a, c, e, g) represent validation results using SunDu-  
 378 derived  $R_s$  data as a reference, while that of subplots (b, d, f, h) use directly observed  
 379  $R_s$  data. Subplots (a, b, c, d) denote the GWR validation results, and subplots (e, f, g, h)  
 380 denote the OLS validation results.

381

382 **Table 4.** Validation of fusion methods driven by cloud fraction (CF) and AOD. GWR-  
 383 CF and OLS-CF represent the GWR fusion method and OLS fusion method driven only  
 384 by CF. GWR-CF-AOD and OLS-CF-AOD represent GWR and OLS fusion methods  
 385 driven by CF and AOD, respectively.

	Time scale	Ref	R2	Bias	Std	RMSE
GWR-CF	monthly	SunDu $R_s$	0.97	-1.17	11.41	11.47
GWR-CF-AOD	monthly	SunDu $R_s$	0.97	-0.82	11.14	11.17
OLS-CF	monthly	SunDu $R_s$	0.86	-3.80	25.03	25.32
OLS-CF-AOD	monthly	SunDu $R_s$	0.89	-1.37	22.10	22.15
GWR-CF	monthly	Direct Obs	0.91	4.88	19.29	19.89
GWR-CF-AOD	monthly	Direct Obs	0.91	5.24	19.27	19.97
OLS-CF	monthly	Direct Obs	0.82	2.18	26.73	26.82
OLS-CF-AOD	monthly	Direct Obs	0.85	4.64	24.71	25.15
GWR-CF	spring	SunDu $R_s$	0.95	-1.3	11.5	11.57
GWR-CF-AOD	spring	SunDu $R_s$	0.95	-0.86	11.2	11.23
OLS-CF	spring	SunDu $R_s$	0.77	-4.97	23.65	24.16
OLS-CF-AOD	spring	SunDu $R_s$	0.84	-1.35	19.85	19.9
GWR-CF	summer	SunDu $R_s$	0.9	-2.09	14.08	14.23
GWR-CF-AOD	summer	SunDu $R_s$	0.9	-1.38	13.76	13.82
OLS-CF	summer	SunDu $R_s$	0.65	-6.49	26.18	26.97
OLS-CF-AOD	summer	SunDu $R_s$	0.77	-1.37	21.17	21.22
GWR-CF	autumn	SunDu $R_s$	0.95	-1.27	9.48	9.56
GWR-CF-AOD	autumn	SunDu $R_s$	0.96	-1.04	9.17	9.23
OLS-CF	autumn	SunDu $R_s$	0.67	-3.22	25.62	25.82
OLS-CF-AOD	autumn	SunDu $R_s$	0.71	-1.97	23.79	23.87
GWR-CF	winter	SunDu $R_s$	0.94	0.01	9.87	9.86
GWR-CF-AOD	winter	SunDu $R_s$	0.94	0.04	9.78	9.78
OLS-CF	winter	SunDu $R_s$	0.63	-0.37	24.16	24.16
OLS-CF-AOD	winter	SunDu $R_s$	0.65	-0.78	23.41	23.42
GWR-CF	annual	Direct Obs	0.37	5.62	4.73	10.42
GWR-CF-AOD	annual	Direct Obs	0.37	5.98	4.79	10.53
OLS-CF	annual	Direct Obs	0.30	3.06	5.01	15.01
OLS-CF-AOD	annual	Direct Obs	0.33	5.45	4.89	13.34
GWR-CF	annual	SunDu $R_s$	0.57	-1.19	4.30	6.76
GWR-CF-AOD	annual	SunDu $R_s$	0.58	-0.84	4.30	6.68
OLS-CF	annual	SunDu $R_s$	0.35	-3.58	5.63	15.17

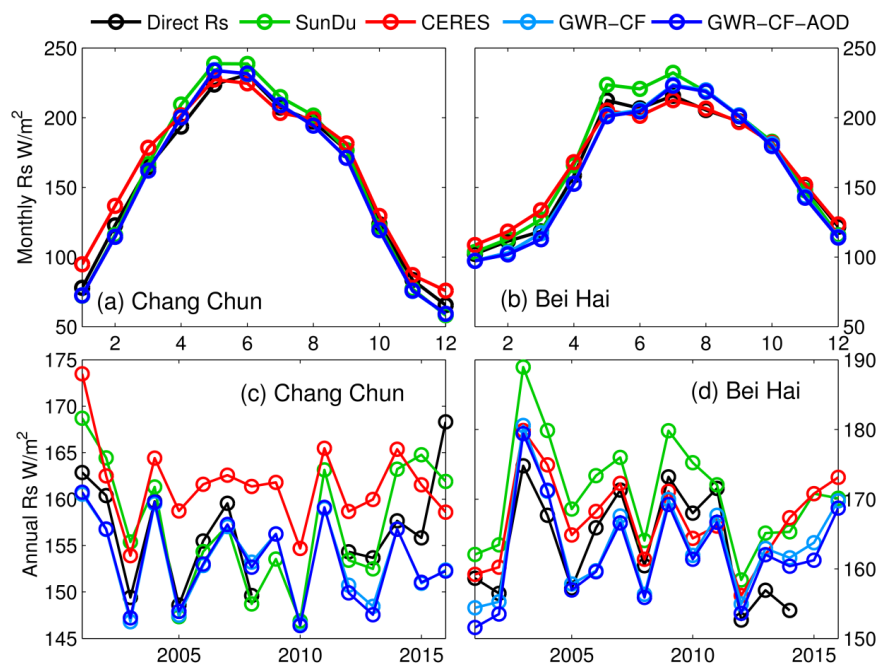


OLS-CF-AOD	annual	SunDu $R_s$	0.39	-1.23	5.44	13.40
GWR-CF	annual mean	SunDu $R_s$	0.94	-1.50	6.63	6.76
GWR-CF-AOD	annual mean	SunDu $R_s$	0.95	-1.15	6.41	6.47
OLS-CF	annual mean	SunDu $R_s$	0.62	-3.90	17.11	17.46
OLS-CF-AOD	annual mean	SunDu $R_s$	0.71	-1.58	14.90	14.90
GWR-CF	annual mean	Direct Obs	0.89	5.08	9.85	11.03
GWR-CF-AOD	annual mean	Direct Obs	0.89	5.43	9.75	11.11
OLS-CF	annual mean	Direct Obs	0.70	2.57	16.31	16.42
OLS-CF-AOD	annual mean	Direct Obs	0.77	4.88	14.00	14.75

386

### 387 3.2 Seasonal and annual variations in $R_s$

388 To analyse the impacts of AOD on the GWR fusion results, the GWR driven with  
389 only CF (GWR-CF) and GWR driven with CF and AOD (GWR-CF-AOD) are  
390 compared. Two validation sites (Chang Chun, 43.87°N 125.33°E and Bei Hai, 21.72°N  
391 109.08°E) are randomly selected to evaluate the seasonal and annual variations in  $R_s$   
392 derived from the GWR method (**Fig. 5**). As shown in **subplots (a and b)**, both GWR-  
393 CF and GWR-CF-AOD produce similar seasonal variation patterns compared with  
394 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and CERES EBAF  $R_s$  data. Small differences are found in the  
395 seasonal variation in  $R_s$  derived from GWR regardless of whether AOD was  
396 incorporated. Examination of the annual variation  $R_s$  from the GWR-CF and GWR-CF-  
397 AOD are shown in **subplots (c and d)** of **Figure 5**. The two fusion methods also  
398 produce similar annual  $R_s$  variations. The similar performances of the GWR-CF and  
399 GWR-CF-AOD might suggest that the impacts of AOD have already been included in  
400 the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  site data.



401  
402 **Figure 5.** Seasonal and annual variations in  $R_s$  at two sites: Chang Chun (a and c,  
403 43.87°N and 125.33°E) and Bei Hai (b and d, 23.50°N, 99.72°E). SunDu  $R_s$  is the  
404 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data, and GWR-CF  $R_s$  is  $R_s$  produced by the GWR method  
405 incorporating only the cloud fraction. GWR-CF-AOD is  $R_s$  produced by the GWR  
406 method incorporating cloud fraction and AOD.

407

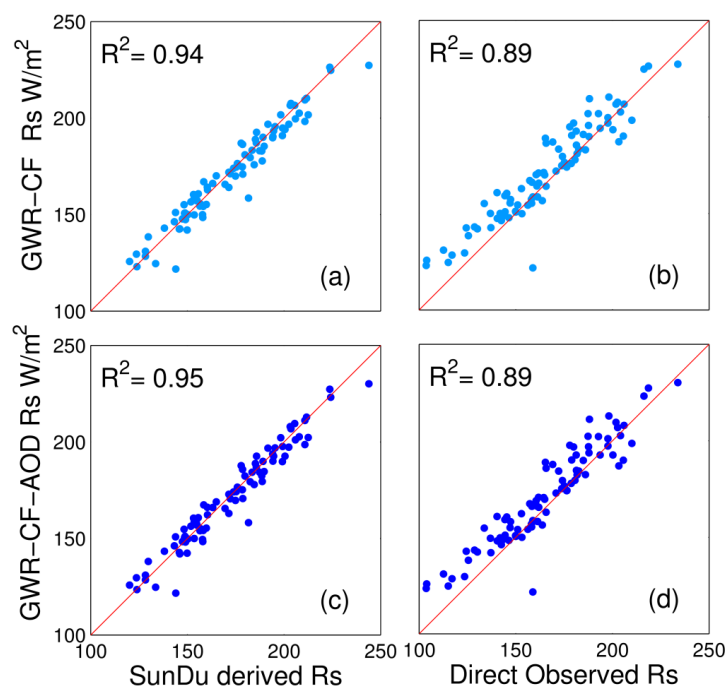
408 We also analysed the performances of fusion methods for different seasons at all  
409 validation sites, as shown in **Table 4**. At seasonal scales, both the GWR-CF and GWR-  
410 CF-AOD methods have high  $R^2$  values ranging from 0.94 to 0.96, compared with direct  
411  $R_s$  measurement or SunDu-derived  $R_s$ . GWR-CF and GWR-CF-AOD show slight  
412 differences, indicating that both fusion methods produce consistent  $R_s$  seasonal  
413 variation patterns, which might be because the impacts of AOD have already been  
414 included in the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  site data at seasonal time scales. Comparatively, the  
415 GWR methods perform best in autumn, with RMSEs ranging from 9.23W/m<sup>2</sup> to 9.56



416  $\text{W/m}^2$  followed by winter, spring and summer. Both the GWR-CF and GWR-CF-AOD  
417 methods produce similar annual variations in  $R_s$  from 2000 to 2016, with  $R^2$  values  
418 ranging from 0.57 to 0.58 (**Table 4**). The statistics indicate that the GWR can produce  
419 reasonable seasonal and annual variations in  $R_s$ .

### 420 3.3 Multiyear mean and long-term variability in $R_s$

421 **Figure 6** shows the performance of GWR-CF and GWR-CF-AOD on simulating  
422 the multiyear mean  $R_s$  by using 97 direct  $R_s$  observation sites and independent SunDu-  
423 derived  $R_s$  sites. Based on direct  $R_s$  measurements, both GWR-based methods show  
424 good performances with high  $R^2$  (0.89~0.95) and low RMSE (11.03~11.11  $\text{W/m}^2$ ), and  
425 few differences are found for the GWR merging results, whether or not AOD is taken  
426 as input data (**Table 4**).

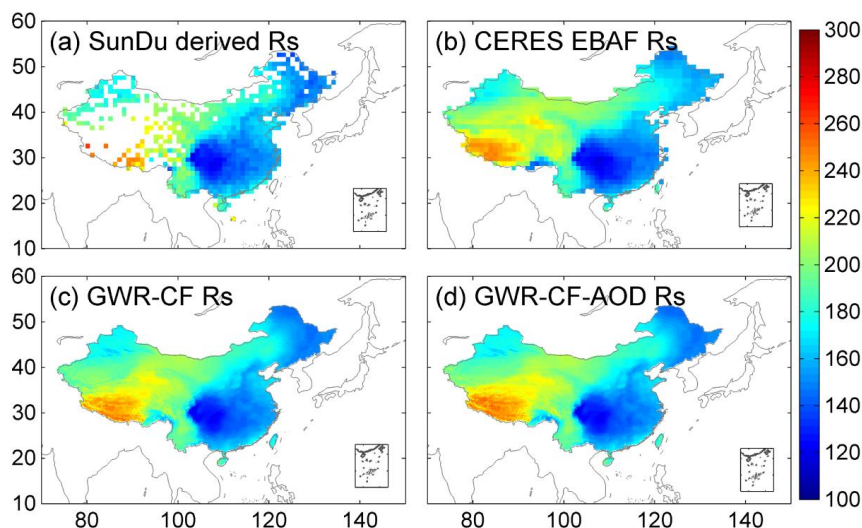


427  
428 **Figure 6.** Comparison of multiyear mean surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) derived from the  
429 GWR method. Subplots (a, c) represent validation results using SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data



430 as a reference, while that of subplots (b, d) use direct observed  $R_s$  data.

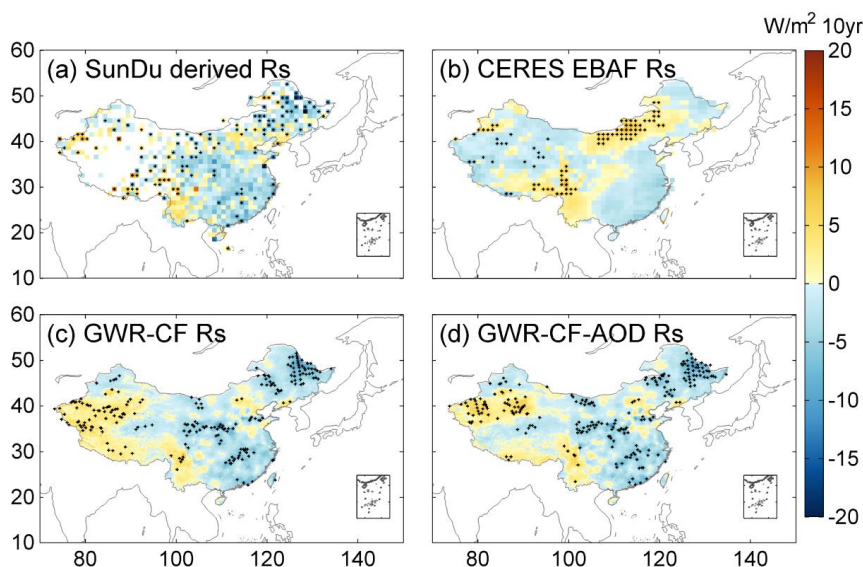
431 The spatial distributions of the multiyear means of  $R_s$  from 2000 to 2017 are shown  
432 in **Figure 7**. The SunDu sites show that  $R_s$  is high in northwest China, ranging from 180  
433 to 300  $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$ , and low in eastern China, ranging from 120 to 180  $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$ . Both the GWR-  
434 CF and GWR-CF-AOD methods show consistent  $R_s$  spatial patterns with SunDu-  
435 derived  $R_s$  observations and CERES EBAFs, indicating that the relationship between  
436  $R_s$  and impact factors is not linearly stable and is closely related to spatial position. The  
437 spatial distribution of the  $R_s$  trend derived from the GWR method is also consistent with  
438 the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  trend, especially in western China (**Fig. 8**).



439

440 **Figure 7.** Spatial distribution of multiyear mean monthly surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
441 from 2000 to 2017. The first line (a, b) shows the observed multiyear mean monthly  $R_s$   
442 from SunDu and CERES EBAF; the multiyear mean monthly  $R_s$  derived from the GWR  
443 method are shown in the second line (c, d), respectively.





444

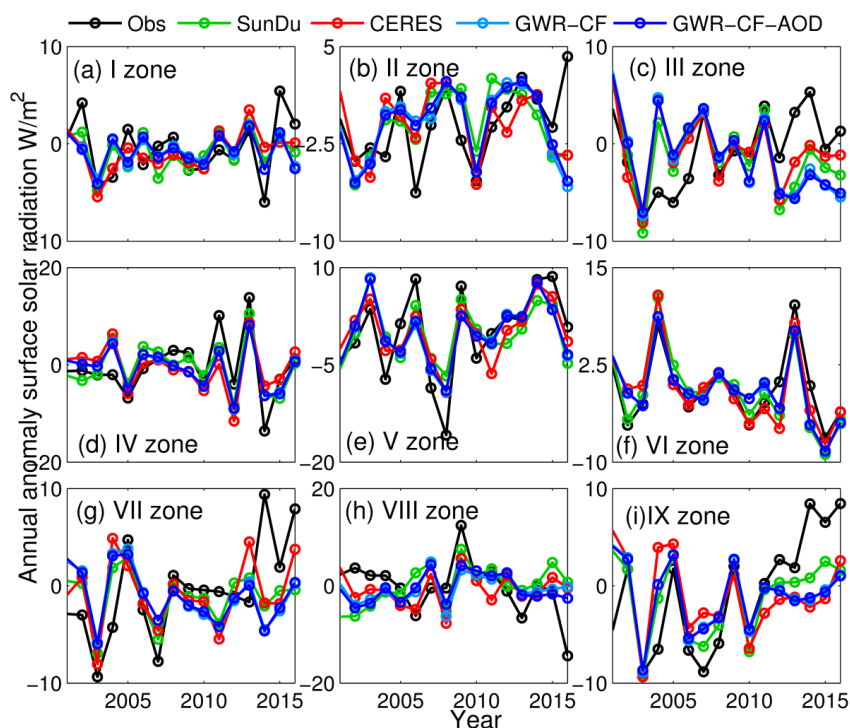
445 **Figure 8.** Spatial distributions of monthly anomaly trends of surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
446 from 2000 to 2017. The first line (a, b) shows the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and CERES EBAF  
447  $R_s$ ; the  $R_s$ -derived GWR fusion methods are shown in the second line (c, d). Subplots  
448 (c) incorporate only CF, and subplots (d) incorporate CF and AOD. The black dots on  
449 the maps represent significant trends ( $P < 0.05$ ).

450 Based on the classified subregions using 97 direct  $R_s$  observations in **Figure 1**, the  
451 regional means of  $R_s$  annual anomaly variation from 2000 to 2016 are shown in **Figure**  
452 **9**. Compared with observations, both the GWR-CF and GWR-CF-AOD methods  
453 produce consistent long-term  $R_s$  trends with SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and CERES EBAF  $R_s$   
454 (**Figures 2, 3 and 9**), indicating that the GWR-CF and GWR-CF-AOD methods can  
455 produce reasonable annual  $R_s$  variations over China.

456 In zones I and II, located in northern arid/semiarid regions, the annual anomaly  $R_s$   
457 variation shows small fluctuations ranging from -10 to 10  $W/m^2$ . In contrast, zones IV,  
458 V, VIII and IX covering the Sichuan Basin, Yunnan-Guizhu Plateau, Qinghai-Tibet  
459 Plateau and North China Plain show large  $R_s$  variation trends. Li et al. (2018) found a



460 sharply increasing  $R_s$  trend over East China, especially in the North China Plain, which  
461 is due to controlling air pollution and reducing aerosol loading. However, our results  
462 indicate that the increased surface solar radiation in North China is not confirmed by  
463 satellite retrieval (CERES) and SunDu-derived  $R_s$ .



464

465 **Figure 9.** The regional mean of the annual anomaly of the surface solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
466 for different subregions. Nine subregions (I to IX) over China are shown in Figure 1.  
467 Direct  $R_s$  observations, SunDu-derived  $R_s$ , and CERES EBAF are shown as black lines,  
468 green lines and red lines, respectively. Light and dark blue represent the  $R_s$  variation  
469 derived from the GWR-CF and the GWR-CF-AOD methods.

470



## 471 **4. Discussion**

### 472 **4.1 Impact factors of $R_s$**

473 In this study, we merged more than 2400 sunshine duration-derived  $R_s$  site data  
474 with MODIS CF and AOD data to generate high spatial resolution (0.1)  $R_s$  over China  
475 from 2000 to 2017. The results show that the GWR method incorporated with CF and  
476 AOD (GWR-CF-AOD) performs best, indicating the non-neglected role of clouds and  
477 aerosols in regulating the variation in  $R_s$  over China.

478 Clouds and aerosols impact the solar radiation reaching the surface by radiative  
479 absorption and scattering (Tang et al., 2017). Recent  $R_s$  trend studies over Europe  
480 suggest that CF may play a key role in the positive trend of  $R_s$  since the 1990s (Pfeifroth  
481 et al., 2018a). In terms of input data, our results also indicate that the cloud fraction  
482 might be a major factor affecting  $R_s$ , which is consistent with our previous studies (Feng  
483 and Wang, 2019).

484 Changes in aerosol loading have also been reported to be an important impact  
485 factor (Che et al., 2005; Li et al., 2018; Liang and Xia, 2005; Qian et al., 2015; Xia,  
486 2010; Zhou et al., 2019b). The atmospheric visibility data show that the slope of the  
487 linear variation in surface solar radiation with respect to atmospheric visibility is  
488 distinctly different at different stations (Yang et al., 2017), implying that the relationship  
489 between  $R_s$  and aerosols varies with location.

### 490 **4.2 Performances of the fusion methods**

491 The good overall performances of the GWR model have been reported in many  
492 previous studies, including geography (Chao et al., 2018; Georganos et al., 2017),  
493 economics (Ma and Gopal, 2018), meteorology (Li and Meng, 2017; Zhou et al., 2019a),  
494 and epidemiology (Tsai and Teng, 2016). Chao et al. (2018) used the GWR method to  
495 merge satellite precipitation and gauge observations to correct biases in satellite



496 precipitation data and downscale satellite precipitation to a finer spatial resolution at  
497 the same time. Zhou et al. (2019a) used GWR to analyse haze pollution over China and  
498 found that the GWR estimate was better than the OLS estimate, with an improvement  
499 in correlation coefficient from 0.20 to 0.75.

500 Compared with other traditional interpolation methods, such as optimal  
501 interpolation (OI), GWR can theoretically integrate geographical location and  $R_s$  impact  
502 factors for spatial  $R_s$  estimations and reflect the non-stationary spatial relationship  
503 between  $R_s$  and its impact factors. The thin plate spline method can include CF and  
504 AOD as covariates to simulate the approximately linear dependence of these impact  
505 factors on  $R_s$ , but this linear function cannot fully describe the relationship among CF,  
506 AOD and  $R_s$  (Hong et al., 2005). Comparison results from Wang et al. (2017) also  
507 indicate that the GWR method is better than the multiple linear regression method and  
508 spline interpolation method for near surface air temperature.

## 509 **5. Data availability**

510 The merged  $R_s$  product by GWR methods with cloud fraction and AOD data as  
511 input in this study are available at <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921847>  
512 (Feng and Wang, 2020).

## 513 **6. Conclusions**

514 Accurate estimation of  $R_s$  variability is crucially important for regional energy  
515 budget, water cycle and climate change studies. Recent studies have shown that SunDu-  
516 derived  $R_s$  data can provide reliable long-term  $R_s$  series. In this study, we merged  
517 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data with satellite-derived cloud fraction (CF) and aerosol optical  
518 depth (AOD) data to generate high spatial resolution (0.1)  $R_s$  over China from 2000 to



519 2017 (Feng and Wang, 2020). The GWR and OLS merging methods were also  
520 compared.

521 Our results show that the spatial resolutions of all fusion results are improved to  
522 0.1 °by incorporating MODIS cloud fraction data. The GWR shows better performance  
523 than OLS, with increases in  $R^2$  by 9.21%~12.81% and RMSEs reduced by  
524 49.56%~54.68%, indicating that  $R_s$  has complex characteristics of spatial variability  
525 over China, which has also indicated the necessity of the high spatial resolution of  $R_s$   
526 data. As clouds and aerosols play vital roles in the variability in  $R_s$ , apparent  
527 improvements in the results of SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data merging are found if both cloud  
528 fraction and AOD are incorporated. Based on the merging results incorporating only  
529 cloud fraction, cloud fraction is suggested to be the major factor impacting  $R_s$ , which  
530 explained approximately 86%~97% of  $R_s$  variability. Generally, SunDu-derived  $R_s$  data  
531 merging results derived from GWR show more consistent multiyear mean  $R_s$  and long-  
532 term  $R_s$  trends compared with those from OLS. Our results show that the improvement  
533 in  $R_s$  variability estimation is closely related to  $R_s$  impact factors and  $R_s$  spatial  
534 heterogeneity. The merged  $R_s$  products derived from GWR-CF-AOD can be  
535 downloaded at <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921847>. We also plan to  
536 expand our  $R_s$  dataset from 1983 to 2017 by using AVHRR based cloud retrievals.

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545 The cloud data can be downloaded from

546 [https://neo.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/view.php?datasetId=MODAL2\\_M\\_CLD\\_FR](https://neo.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/view.php?datasetId=MODAL2_M_CLD_FR). The

547 CERES SYN data can be downloaded from <https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/data/>.

548

549



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