

1           **Homogenized century-long surface incident solar radiation**  
2                                   **over Japan**

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Abstract

20

21 Surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) plays a key role in climate change on Earth.  $R_s$  can  
22 be directly measured, and it shows substantial variability on decadal scales, i.e., global  
23 dimming and brightening.  $R_s$  can also be derived from the observed sunshine duration  
24 (SunDu) with reliable accuracy. The SunDu-derived  $R_s$  has been used as a reference to  
25 detect and adjust the inhomogeneity in the observed  $R_s$ . However, both the observed  $R_s$   
26 and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  may have inhomogeneity. In Japan, SunDu has been measured  
27 since 1890, and  $R_s$  has been measured since 1961 at ~100 stations. In this study, the  
28 observed  $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  were first checked for inhomogeneity independently  
29 using a statistical software RHtest. If confirmed by the metadata of these observations,  
30 the detected inhomogeneity was adjusted based on the RHtest-quantile matching  
31 method. Second, the two homogenized time series were compared to detect further  
32 possible inhomogeneity. If confirmed by the independent ground-based manual  
33 observations of cloud cover fraction, the detected inhomogeneity was adjusted based  
34 on the reference dataset. As a result, a sharp decrease of more than  $20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in the  
35 observed  $R_s$  from 1961 to 1975 caused by instrument displacement was detected and  
36 adjusted. Similarly, a decline of about  $20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in SunDu-derived  $R_s$  due to steady  
37 instrument replacement from 1985 to 1990 was detected and adjusted too. After  
38 homogenizations, the two estimates of  $R_s$  agree well. The homogenized SunDu-derived  
39  $R_s$  show an increased at a rate of  $0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade ( $p < 0.01$ ) from 1961 to 2014,  
40 which was caused by a positive aerosol-related radiative effect ( $2.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade)

41 and a negative cloud cover radiative effect ( $-1.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade). The brightening  
42 over Japan was the strongest in spring, likely due to a significant decline in aerosol  
43 transported from Asian dust storms. The observed raw  $R_s$  data and their homogenized  
44 time series used in this study are available at  
45 <https://doi.org/10.11888/Meteoro.tpsc.271524> (Ma et al., 2021).

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47 Surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) plays a vital role in atmospheric circulation,  
48 hydrologic cycling and ecological equilibrium; therefore, its decrease and increase  
49 termed as global dimming and brightening (Wild et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2008), have  
50 received widespread interest from the public and scientific community (Allen et al.,  
51 2013; Xia, 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Tanaka et al., 2016; Ohmura, 2009; He et al., 2018).

52 In addition, the impact factors such as clouds and aerosols on the variation in  $R_s$  have  
53 been widely studied (Wild et al., 2021; Qian et al., 2006; Feng and Wang, 2021a).

54 Ground-based observations of  $R_s$  are the first recommendation for detecting global  
55 dimming and brightening. However, observational data may be inevitably ruined by  
56 artificial shifts, which may lead to the variability in  $R_s$  with large uncertainties. Wang et  
57 al. (2015) point out that instrument replacements and reconstruction of observational  
58 network introduced substantial inhomogeneity into the time series of observed  $R_s$  over  
59 China for 1990-1993. Manara et al. (2016) also show the instrument changes from the  
60 Robitzsch pyranograph to the Kipp & Zonen CM11 pyranometer before 1980 caused  
61 no clear dimming in Italy. Until recently, Wild et al. (2021) use a well-maintained data  
62 series at a site in Germany with long time duration to investigate the dimming and  
63 brightening in central Europe under clear sky condition, and point out that the aerosol  
64 pollutants are likely major drivers in the  $R_s$  variations. Augustine and Hodges (2021)  
65 use Surface Radiation Budget (SURFRAD) Network observations to explore the

66 variability in  $R_s$  over the U.S. from 1996 to 2019, and find that cloud fraction can  
67 explain 62% of the variation of  $R_s$ , while aerosol optical depth (AOD) only accounts  
68 for 3%. Both studies also indicate the measurement instruments have been changed  
69 over the observational time periods, which may introduce non-climatic shifts and  
70 inhomogeneity in the raw data series.

71 Homogenizing the observed  $R_s$  has been attempted in China (Wang et al., 2015;  
72 Tang et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2018), Italy (Manara et al., 2016), Spain (Sanchez-  
73 Lorenzo et al., 2013) and Europe (Sanchez-Lorenzo et al., 2015). It is essential to find  
74 a homogeneous reference station to compare with the possible inhomogeneous station  
75 to test and adjust the inhomogeneity in the observed time series, as done for the  
76 homogenization of air temperature (Du et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2021). However, this  
77 process is difficult for  $R_s$  because the instrument replacement of  $R_s$  generally occurs  
78 nearly simultaneously throughout a country. Therefore, the sunshine duration (SunDu)  
79 derived  $R_s$  (Yang et al., 2006) has been used as a homogeneous reference dataset to  
80 detect and adjust the inhomogeneity of  $R_s$  in China (Wang et al., 2015).

81 The SunDu records the hours of surface direct solar radiation exceeding  $120 \text{ W m}^{-2}$   
82 and provides an alternative way to estimate  $R_s$  (Yang et al., 2006; Stanhill and Cohen,  
83 2008). SunDu-derived  $R_s$  is capable of capturing the variability in  $R_s$ . He et al. (2018)  
84 use the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  at  $\sim 2600$  stations to revisit the global dimming and  
85 brightening over different continents, and restate the dimming over China and Europe  
86 is consistent with the increasing trends of clouds and aerosols. Feng and Wang (2021b)

87 and Feng and Wang (2021a) merge the satellite retrievals with SunDu-derived  $R_s$  to  
88 produce a high-resolution long-term solar radiation over China, and indicate cloud  
89 fraction could explain approximately 86%–97% of  $R_s$  variation. Zeng et al. (2020)  
90 demonstrate that SunDu plays a dominant role in determining  $R_s$  based on a random  
91 forest model framework across China. Stanhill and Cohen (2005) indicate the high  
92 correlation between SunDu and  $R_s$  at the 26 stations in the United States. Sanchez-  
93 Lorenzo et al. (2008) show the variation in SunDu is consistent with that in  $R_s$  over  
94 western Europe for 1938-2004, and the SunDu time evolution in Spring can partly be  
95 explained by clouds and that in Winter can be related to the anthropogenic aerosol  
96 emissions. Stanhill and Cohen (2008) establish a simple linear relationship between  $R_s$   
97 and SunDu to determine the long-term variation in  $R_s$  over Japan. Manara et al. (2017)  
98 highlight that the atmospheric turbidity should be considered when using SunDu for  
99 investigating multidecadal evolution of  $R_s$ .

100 Artificial shifts in SunDu observations may come from the replacement of  
101 instruments. It has been revealed that the Jordan recorder is 10% more sensitive than  
102 the Campbell-Stokes recorder for SunDu measurements (Noguchi, 1981). The  
103 homogenization of SunDu has been carried out in Iberian Peninsula (Sanchez-Lorenzo  
104 et al., 2007), Switzerland (Sanchez-Lorenzo and Wild, 2012), and Italy (Manara et al.,  
105 2015).

106 The measurement of  $R_s$ , which started in 1961 in Japan, has a long history (Tanaka  
107 et al., 2016), and a data record more than half a century-long has been accumulated.

108 The dataset has been widely used to study decadal variability (Wild et al., 2005; Stanhill  
109 and Cohen, 2008) and to evaluate model simulations (Allen et al., 2013; Dwyer et al.,  
110 2010). The Eppley and Robitzsch pyranometers used to measure  $R_s$  over Japan were  
111 replaced by the Moll-Gorczyński thermopile pyranometers in the early 1970s (Tanaka  
112 et al., 2016). However, the possible inhomogeneity of the observed  $R_s$  over Japan has  
113 not been well quantified, and most existing studies directly used raw  $R_s$  data (Wild et  
114 al., 2005; Tanaka et al., 2016; Tsutsumi and Murakami, 2012; Allen et al., 2013; Wild  
115 and Schmucki, 2011; Kudo et al., 2012; Ohmura, 2009). Some studies have had to  
116 abandon data from the early years and focused on only  $R_s$  data collected after 1975  
117 (Tsutsumi and Murakami, 2012; Dwyer et al., 2010). Therefore, the observed decadal  
118 variability in  $R_s$  over Japan is questionable, especially for the 1961-1975 time period.

119 In Japan, SunDu observations started in 1890, and more than a century-long data  
120 were recorded. They cannot be too precious for the climate change detection on a  
121 century scale. It is reported that the Jordan recorders used to measure SunDu were  
122 replaced by EKO rotating mirror recorders in approximately 1986 (Inoue and  
123 Matsumoto, 2003; Stanhill and Cohen, 2008). Therefore, SunDu observations over  
124 Japan themselves may suffer inhomogeneity issues.

125 Non-climatic shifts in the observations may severely influence the climate  
126 assessment, therefore rigorous homogenization are required. The world Meteorological  
127 Organization (WMO) Climate Program guidelines on climate metadata and  
128 homogenization list 14 data homogenization assessment techniques developed and

129 applied by different groups/authors (Aguilar et al., 2003). Reeves et al. (2007)  
130 compared eight representative homogenization methods and provided guidelines for  
131 which procedures work best in different situation, for example the standard normal  
132 homogeneity (SNH) test (Alexandersson, 1986) works best if good reference series are  
133 available and two-phase regressions of Wang procedure (Wang, 2003) is optimal for  
134 good reference series unavailable condition. Based on the comparison work, RHtest  
135 method was improved by detecting multiple changepoints in the climate data no matter  
136 the reference series are available (Wang, 2008b; Wang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2007;  
137 Wang, 2008a). This method, which first detects the changepoints in a series using  
138 penalized maximal tests and then tunes the inhomogeneous data segments to be  
139 consistent with other segments in empirical distributions, has been widely used in  
140 homogenizing climate variables (Dai et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2010; Du et al., 2020;  
141 Zhou et al., 2021).

142 Discontinuities are inevitably occurred in the long-term observation system which  
143 are required to be checked out and adjusted in the raw data. The homogenized series  
144 pose a significant role in realistic and reliable assessment of climate trend and  
145 variability. The main objective of this study is to detect and adjust the inhomogeneity  
146 in  $R_s$  estimates over Japan. The metadata were first extracted from website information  
147 and related records at each site. The SunDu observations were converted into  $R_s$ . The  
148 RHtest method was applied to homogenize the observed  $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$ , and  
149 finally, the century-long homogenized  $R_s$  data were produced over Japan. Furthermore,



150 the impacts of cloud cover and aerosols on  $R_s$  variation over Japan in recent decades  
151 were explored.

## 152 **2. Data and methods**

### 153 **2.1 Surface incident solar radiation and sunshine duration**

154 The monthly observed  $R_s$  at 105 stations and SunDu at 156 stations were  
155 downloaded from the Japanese Meteorology Agency (JMA) website (see Table S1 and  
156 Figure 1).  $R_s$  records were available from 1961. During the 1960s, two  $R_s$  measurements  
157 were conducted in parallel by both Eppley and Robitzsch pyranometers. In the early  
158 1970s (see Figure 2 and Table S2), these instruments were replaced by Moll-Gorczyński  
159 thermopile pyranometers. This replacement occurred at approximately 12.4% of  $R_s$   
160 stations in 1971, followed by 22.9%, 24.8%, 3.8% and 30.5% in the next four years,  
161 which may have caused severe data discontinuity problems (Tanaka et al., 2016).

162 SunDu has been routinely measured since 1890. Jordan recorders were replaced  
163 by EKO rotating mirror recorders at 49.4% of SunDu stations in 1986. Until 1990,  
164 nearly all of the SunDu stations used new instruments for observations. 4.5% of SunDu  
165 stations before 1985 and 9.0% of SunDu stations after 2000 were moved away from the  
166 original sites (see Figure 2 and Table S2) (Stanhill and Cohen, 2008).

167 In this study, SunDu was used to derive  $R_s$  based on the following equation (Yang  
168 et al., 2006):

$$169 \quad R_s / R_c = a_0 + a_1 \cdot n/N + a_2 \cdot (n/N)^2 \quad (1)$$

170 where  $n$  is sunshine duration hours;  $N$  is the maximum possible sunshine duration;  $R_c$   
171 is surface solar radiation under clear skies; and  $a_0$ ,  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are coefficients. This  
172 method was recommended in many studies (Wang et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2011).

## 173 **2.2. Homogenization method**

174 Both  $R_s$  and SunDu measurements over Japan suffer severe inhomogeneity  
175 problems, which require rigorous data homogenization. RHtest  
176 (<http://etccdi.pacificclimate.org/software.shtml>) is a widely used method to detect and  
177 adjust multiple changepoints in a climate data series, such as in surface temperature  
178 (Du et al., 2020), radiosonde temperature (Zhou et al., 2021), precipitation (Wang et al.,  
179 2010) and surface incident solar radiation (Yang et al., 2018) . Two algorithms were  
180 provided to detect changepoints based on the penalized maximal T (PMT) test (Wang  
181 et al., 2007) and the penalized maximal F (PMF) test (Wang, 2008b). The problem of  
182 lag-1 autocorrelation in detecting mean shifts in time series was also resolved (Wang,  
183 2008a). The PMT algorithm requires the base time series to be no trend, and hence a  
184 reference series is needed. It is invalid when a reference series is not often available or  
185 its homogeneity is not sure, also the trend in the base and reference series are probably  
186 different. The PMF algorithm allows the time series in a constants trend and thus is  
187 applicable without a reference series. Both algorithms have higher detection power and  
188 the false alarm rate can be reduced by empirically constructed penalty function.

189 As the change of instrument in  $R_s$  and SunDu observation nearly happened  
190 nationwide and simultaneously, it is difficult to find reference data series to match the

191 base data series and hence the PMF algorithm was used to detect the changepoints in  
192 this study. Multiple changepoints were detected including climate signals and artificial  
193 shifts, and only the ones confirmed by discontinuity information from metadata in Table  
194 S2 were left to be adjusted. Then two homogenized series based on direct measurement  
195 of  $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  were obtained.

196 Large uncertainties may still exist in both homogenized data series as the  
197 discontinuities in the raw observations may not be sufficiently and correctly recorded  
198 in the metadata. Further changepoints can be detected by considering the impact of the  
199 variation of independent climate variables such as clouds and aerosols on the  $R_s$   
200 variation. If these uncertainties were found, further changepoint detections were needed  
201 based on the PMT or PMF algorithm.

202 To diminish all significant artificial shifts caused by the changepoints, a newly  
203 developed Quantile-Matching (QM) adjustments in the RHtest (Vincent et al., 2012;  
204 Wang et al., 2010) were performed to adjust the series so that the empirical distributions  
205 of all segments of the detrended base series agree with each other. The corrected values  
206 are all based on the empirical frequency of the datum to be adjusted.

207 Another independent homogenization method proposed by Katsuyama (1987),  
208 which was developed due to the replacement of the Jordan recorders with EKO rotating  
209 mirror recorder during the late 1980s, is denoted as follows:

$$210 \quad S_R = 0.8 S_J (S_J < 2.5 \text{ h/day}) \quad (2)$$

$$211 \quad S_R = S_J - 0.5 \text{ h/day} (S_J \geq 2.5 \text{ h/day}) \quad (3)$$

212 where  $S_J$  is the daily SunDu observed by the Jordan recorders before replacement; and  
213  $S_R$  is the daily SunDu adjusted to be consistent with the values observed with the EKO  
214 rotating mirror recorders.

215 These two homogenization methods were compared in this study and yielded  
216 nearly the same SunDu-derived  $R_s$  variation, as shown in Figure 3. Although the  
217 second method proposed by Katsuyama (1987) is simple and efficient, we just use it  
218 to cross validate the accuracy of the RHtest method. For the following analysis, the  
219 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  homogenized by RHtest was used as RHtest method provides  
220 higher power to detect the changepoints in a data series no matter the metadata are  
221 available. Since most artificial shifts in observation system were undocumented  
222 worldwide, the statistical methods including RHtest are optimal to identify these non-  
223 climatic signals and reduce the discontinuities in the data series.

### 224 **2.3 Clouds**

225 Clouds play an important role in  $R_s$  variation (Norris and Wild, 2009). Monthly  
226 cloud cover observations at 155 stations were also available on the JMA website. The  
227 observation time for cloud amount has been 08:00-19:00 since 1981 at 9.0% of cloud  
228 amount stations and 08:30-17:00 from 1990 to 1995 at another 15.4% of cloud amount  
229 stations (see Figure 2 and Table S2). However, the difference between annual raw and  
230 homogenized cloud data is trivial, as cloud data are relatively homogeneous in space  
231 compared with  $R_s$  and SunDu observations. A site observation of cloud amount can  
232 represent the value over a large spatial scale, likely leading to few inhomogeneity issues

233 for cloud data.

234 To explore the impact of the cloud cover anomaly on the  $R_s$  variation, the cloud  
235 cover radiative effect (CCRE), defined as the change in  $R_s$  produced by a change in  
236 cloud cover, was proposed by (Norris and Wild, 2009):

$$237 \quad CCRE' (lat, lon, y, m) = CC' (lat, lon, y, m) \times CRE(g, m) / \overline{CC}(g, m) \quad (4)$$

238 where  $lat$  is the latitude,  $lon$  is the longitude,  $y$  is the year,  $m$  is the month,  $CCRE'$   
239 is the cloud cover radiative effect anomaly,  $CC'$  is the cloud cover anomaly,  $\overline{CC}$  is  
240 the climatology of cloud cover in 12 months and  $CRE$  is the cloud radiative effect  
241 calculated by the  $R_s$  difference under all sky and clear sky conditions.

242 The residual radiative effect was determined by removing the CCRE anomalies  
243 from the  $R_s$  anomalies. It is noted that a part of the cloud albedo radiative effect  
244 proportional to the cloud amount was contained in the CCRE, as a large cloud amount  
245 tends to yield enhanced cloud albedo, whereas another part of the cloud albedo radiative  
246 effect due to the aerosol first indirect effect (more aerosols facilitating more cloud  
247 condensation nuclei may enhance cloud albedo) may be included in the residual  
248 radiative effect, which mainly contains the aerosol radiative effect.

249 The Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) provides a reliable  
250 surface incident solar radiation (Ma et al., 2015) primarily based on the Moderate  
251 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) cloud and aerosol products (Kato et  
252 al., 2012). The cloud amount in CERES agrees well with the observations, and the  
253 annual CRE in CERES is well correlated with the annual cloud amount in Figure 10.

254 The regional average cloud amount over Japan in Figure 10 (blue line) increases at a  
255 rate of 0.7% per decade from 1960 to 2015, which is consistent with the previous results  
256 (Figure 4 in Tsutsumi and Murakami (2012)).

257 In this study, long-term observations of cloud amount and monthly cloud radiative  
258 effect (CRE) data in the CERES EBAF edition were used following Equation (4) to  
259 distinguish the cloud cover radiative effect from  $R_s$  variation.

## 260 **2.4 Data Processing**

261 We first interpolated the monthly observational data at sites into  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid data,  
262 and then calculated the area average of the climate variables. As the brightening and  
263 dimming over Japan were the main concern in this study, monthly values were  
264 converted into annual values for calculation. If there are missing values in any month  
265 in a specific year, the annual value for that year is set to a missing value. The linear  
266 regression was used for trend calculation.

## 267 **3. Results**

268 In this section, we first compared the observed  $R_s$  and sunshine duration derived  
269  $R_s$  before and after adjustment to demonstrate the necessity and feasibility of the  
270 homogenization procedure in Section 3.1. As artificial shifts may not be sufficiently  
271 and correctly documented by metadata, uncertainties may still exist in the homogenized  
272 series. We then tried to explore these uncertainties by considering the influence of other  
273 independent climate variables such as clouds, aerosols on the  $R_s$  variation, and

274 ultimately informed a more reasonable homogenized  $R_s$  series in Section 3.2. In Section  
275 3.3, we claimed the significant correction in trend analysis of  $R_s$  in Japan and quantified  
276 the influence of clouds and aerosols on the  $R_s$  variation.

### 277 **3.1 Homogenization of observed $R_s$ and sunshine duration derived $R_s$**

278 The comparisons between raw data and homogenized data at each site were  
279 shown in Figure 4 and their difference were illustrated in Figure 5. Compared with  
280 raw data, the absolute values of biases between  $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  at 74 stations  
281 decrease after homogenization, of which the absolute values of biases decrease by  
282 more than  $4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  at 42 stations and more than  $10 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  at 8 stations. The root mean  
283 square errors at 80 stations were reduced after homogenization, of which reduces are  
284 more than  $4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  at 40 stations. After adjustments, the correlation coefficients  
285 between the annual observed  $R_s$  and annual SunDu-derived  $R_s$  are improved at 68  
286 stations, including greater than 0.2 improvement at 31 stations. There are 41 stations  
287 (marked with red in Table S1, Figure 6) at which the correlation coefficients were  
288 greater than 0.5, and the biases and the root mean square errors generally decrease  
289 after homogenization.

290 Figure 7, as an example, shows the time series of surface incident solar radiation  
291 ( $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$ ) at the HAMADA site (WMO-ID: 47755, Lat: 34.9, Lon:  
292 132.07) before and after homogenization. Details in the improvements after  
293 homogenization at most stations can be traced back to Figures 4, 5 and 6. The  
294 improved patterns of time series of surface incident solar radiation after

295 homogenization highlights the necessity and feasibility of the RHtest method. The  
296 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  variation over Japan during recent decades inferred from these  
297 “perfect” data at 41 sites (Figure 8) was nearly identical to that from all available data  
298 at 156 sites (as shown in Table 1 and Figure 9).

### 299 **3.2 Uncertainties in $R_s$ observations**

300 Figure 9 displays the change in  $R_s$  during the last 5 decades, while Figure 10 shows  
301 the variation in observed clouds over Japan. The sharp decrease in  $R_s$  in 1963 caused  
302 by the volcanic eruption of Agung in Indonesia (Witham, 2005) can be clearly found.  
303 The sharp decreases in  $R_s$  in 1991 and 1993 are due to the combined effect of the  
304 volcanic eruption of Mount Pinatubo in the Philippines in 1991 (Robock, 2000) and the  
305 simultaneous significant increases in clouds (Figure 8 in Tsutsumi and Murakami  
306 (2012)). The volcanic eruption of El Chichón in Mexico in 1982 exerted little impact  
307 on the decline in  $R_s$  and may have been compensated by the decrease in clouds, as shown  
308 in Figure 10. The pronounced  $R_s$  decline in 1980 coincides with the significant increase  
309 in clouds, while the lightening of  $R_s$  in 1978 and 1994 encounters abrupt decreases in  
310 cloud covers.

311 As shown in Figure 9, no major modifications were found in  $R_s$  observations  
312 before and after homogenization (comparison between the light blue and dark blue  
313 lines). However, the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  series are smoother after adjustment by the QM  
314 method, as the sharp decrease from 1983 to 1993 caused by the replacement of sunshine  
315 duration instruments (Jordan recorders were replaced with EKO rotating mirror



316 recorders) (Stanhill and Cohen, 2008) was repaired (comparison between the light red  
317 line and dark red lines). Despite the identical increase in  $R_s$  via both the homogenized  
318 direct measurements of  $R_s$  and the homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  during the 1995-  
319 2014 period, their variations in  $R_s$  from 1961 to 1994 are different (dark red line and  
320 dark blue line).

321 Large discrepancies in  $R_s$  variation were found during the time period of 1961-  
322 1970, although homogenizations were performed on the direct measurements of  $R_s$  and  
323 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  (dark blue line and dark red line in Figure 9). Existing study noted  
324 the inaccurate instruments used at the beginning of operation in the  $R_s$  observation  
325 network in approximately 1961, and the parallel use of two different types of  
326 instruments during the 1960s may result in the large variability in observed  $R_s$  (Tanaka  
327 et al., 2016). At this time, the clouds fluctuated gently, as shown in Figure 10, and the  
328 change in volcanic aerosols from 1965 to 1966 was nearly the same as that from 1962  
329 to 1963 (Table 2 in Sato et al. (1993)), so the sudden decline in the direct observations  
330 of  $R_s$  from 1965 to 1966, which was twice as large as that from 1962 to 1963, is  
331 suspicious. It is inferred that anthropogenic aerosols play a subtle role in the significant  
332 reduction in  $R_s$ , as this type of phenomenon is common for both polluted and pristine  
333 stations in Japan (Figure 22 in (Tanaka et al., 2016)).

334 Figure 11 shows the correlation coefficients between homogenized  $R_s$  (observed  
335 and SunDu-derived) and cloud amount. In general, the observed  $R_s$  (-0.45) is less  
336 correlated than the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  (-0.67), particularly from 1961 to 1970, -0.21

337 compared with -0.64. This in turn supports the reliability of homogenized SunDu-  
338 derived  $R_s$ , especially during the time period of 1961-1970. The false variability of the  
339 observed  $R_s$  from 1961 to 1970 was modified by the RHtest method against the  
340 homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  as shown in Figure 12.

341 General decreases in stratospheric aerosol optical depth (AOD) were reported in  
342 Sato et al. (1993) from 1965 to 1980, and clouds fluctuated slightly, as shown in Figure  
343 10; both of these factors contributed to a brightening of  $R_s$ . This is in agreement with  
344 the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  and contrasts with the direct measurements of  $R_s$ .

345 During the 1985-1990 period, clouds varied slightly, as shown in Figure 10, and  
346 the observed atmospheric transmission under cloud-free conditions increased (Wild et  
347 al., 2005), which suggests that the large declines in directly observed  $R_s$  and SunDu-  
348 derived  $R_s$  are defective and reinforce the reliability of the adjusted SunDu-derived  $R_s$   
349 (dark red line in Figure 9).

350 From the above analysis, it can be inferred that fewer uncertainties exist in  
351 homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$ , which was confirmed by another work that utilized a  
352 different data adjusted method (Stanhill and Cohen, 2008).

### 353 **3.2 Trends of $R_s$ over Japan**

354 The trends of  $R_s$  during specific time periods for different types of datasets are  
355 listed in Table 1. Direct measurements of  $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  from 41 selected  
356 stations and all available stations reveal similar variations in  $R_s$  over Japan, which  
357 demonstrates that the sample number has a subtle impact on the estimation of global

358 brightening and dimming over Japan.

359 A revisit of global dimming and brightening was list in Table 1. Major differences  
360 were found in the time periods of 1961-1980, ranging from -11.2 (-12.0) to -8.4 (-4.8)  
361  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  per decade before and after  $R_s$  homogenizations for all available stations (41  
362 selected stations) over Japan; significant repairs occurred during the 1981-1995 period,  
363 ranging from -10.6 (-11.3) to -1.2 (-1.3)  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  per decade before and after SunDu-  
364 derived  $R_s$  homogenizations for all available stations (41 selected stations) over Japan.  
365 Both corrections were mainly attributed to the homogenization of corrupted raw data  
366 caused by the replacement of instruments for  $R_s$  and SunDu measurements. After  
367 careful checking and adjustment of the SunDu-derived  $R_s$  series, the decadal variation  
368 in  $R_s$  over Japan, which was totally different from former studies (Wild et al., 2005;  
369 Norris and Wild, 2009), was remedied. Direct measurements of  $R_s$  display nearly zero  
370 trend from 1961 to 2014 over Japan, while their homogenization series report a positive  
371 change of 0.8-1.6  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  per decade; SunDu-derived  $R_s$  decrease at a rate of 1.9  $\text{W m}^{-2}$   
372 per decade, while its homogenized series reveals a brightening of 0.9  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  per decade.

373 The combined effects of clouds and aerosols on  $R_s$  make the global dimming and  
374 brightening complicated. The CCRE can explain 70% of global brightening from 1961  
375 to 2014 at monthly and interannual time scales, while the residual radiative effect  
376 dominates the decadal variation in  $R_s$ , as shown in Figure 13 and Table 1, which is in  
377 agreement with Wang et al. (2012). Homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  show an increase  
378 of 1.6  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  per decade from 1961 to 1980; however, persistent increase in cloud

379 amount yields a CCRE decrease of  $1.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade. The residual radiative effect  
380 accounts for an increase of  $2.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade for this time period. The cloud  
381 radiative effect ( $-1.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade) modulates  $R_s$  variation of  $-1.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade  
382 for the 1981-1995 period, while the residual radiative effect ( $1.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade)  
383 dominates  $R_s$  variation of  $1.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade from 1996 to 2014.

384 Homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  shows a slight increase of  $0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade  
385 from 1961 to 2014 with a 90% confidence interval. However, the CCRE accounts for a  
386 decreased  $R_s$  of  $1.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade, which implies that cloud cover changes are not  
387 the primary driving forces for the  $R_s$  trend over Japan. Meanwhile, the residual radiative  
388 effect exhibits an increase of  $2.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade, which surpasses the negative CCRE.

389 Several studies demonstrate a generally cleaner sky over Japan from the 1960s to  
390 the 2000s (except for the years impacted by volcanic eruptions) based on atmospheric  
391 transparency and aerosol optical properties (Wild et al., 2005; Kudo et al., 2012), which  
392 supports the dominant role of aerosols in  $R_s$  brightening over Japan, as revealed by the  
393 residual radiative effect here. Furthermore, the residual radiative effect in this study is  
394 stronger than that in Norris and Wild (2009), as raw data were remedied and more  
395 accurate satellite data from CERES were adopted to quantify the radiative effect.  
396 Tsutsumi and Murakami (2012) demonstrate that cloud amount categories exert an  
397 important effect on  $R_s$  variation.  $R_s$  enhancement by the increased appearance of large  
398 cloud amounts is superior to  $R_s$  decline by the decreased appearance of small cloud  
399 amounts during 1961-2014, which yields increased  $R_s$  with increasing total cloud

400 amount. They also pointed out that the decrease in cloud optical thickness due to the  
401 large emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and black carbon from East Asia through the aerosol semi-direct  
402 effect (absorption of more energy by aerosols results in the evaporation or suppression  
403 of clouds) may have facilitated the increased  $R_s$  over Japan.

404 The decrease in spring dust storms in March-May during the last 5 decades from  
405 China (Qian et al., 2002; Zhu et al., 2008), which may travel to neighboring  
406 countries(Uno et al., 2008; Choi et al., 2001), could also have triggered the increase in  
407  $R_s$  over Japan. The  $R_s$  variation and radiative effect in different seasons are categorized  
408 in Figure 14 and Table 2, in which an increasing trend of 1.5 W m<sup>-2</sup> per decade in the  
409 homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  prevails in spring for the whole time period, dominated  
410 by a dramatic increase of 2.8 W m<sup>-2</sup> per decade in the residual effect and even larger  
411 increase for 1961-1980 (3.1 W m<sup>-2</sup> per decade) and 1996-2014 (3.4 W m<sup>-2</sup> per decade).

#### 412 **4. Data availability**

413 Monthly observed surface incident solar radiation, sunshine duration and cloud  
414 amount data were provided by Japan Meteorological Agency  
415 (<https://www.data.jma.go.jp/obd/stats/data/en/smp/index.html>), and monthly cloud  
416 radiative effect (CRE) data were derived from Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy  
417 System for CERES EBAF data ([https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/order\\_data.php](https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/order_data.php)). The  
418 homogenized observed  $R_s$  and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  used in this study are available at  
419 [https://doi.org/10.11888/Meteoro.tpdc.271524\\_\(Ma et al., 2021\)](https://doi.org/10.11888/Meteoro.tpdc.271524_(Ma et al., 2021)).

## 420 **5. Conclusions**

421 The homogenization of raw observations related to  $R_s$  can significantly improve  
422 the accuracy of global dimming and brightening estimation and provide a reliable  
423 assessment of climate trends and variability. In this study, we for the first time  
424 homogenized the raw  $R_s$  observations and obtained a more reliable  $R_s$  data series over  
425 Japan for century-long.

426 Documented artificial shifts in metadata play an important role in regulating the  
427 raw observations. If changepoints were confirmed by metadata or other independent  
428 climate variables, RHtest method was applied to remove the discontinuities. In this  
429 study, shifts in the homogenized raw  $R_s$  were further checked by exploring the  
430 relationship with the ground-based cloud amount and tuned again using homogenized  
431 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  as the reference data. By comparing the variations in independent  
432 climate variables of cloud and aerosol, the homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  were proved  
433 to be more reliable in detecting  $R_s$  variability over Japan.

434 A revisit of global dimming and brightening is made based on the homogenized  
435  $R_s$  series.  $R_s$  over Japan increases at a rate of  $1.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade for 1961-1980, which  
436 is contrary to the trend ( $-4.8 \sim -12.0 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade) in the unreasonable  $R_s$   
437 observation. A slight decrease of  $1.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade for 1981-1995 in homogenized  
438 SunDu-derived  $R_s$  accounts for only 1/10 of the trend in its unadjusted series. This  
439 directly contributes a brightening of  $0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  per decade (with a 99% confidence

440 interval) for the last 5 decade in homogenized series, which is totally contrary to the  
441 variation in its original series. Global brightening since 1961 over Japan is consistent  
442 with that in Stanhill and Cohen (2008), except that the magnitude is not as large.

443 We also explored how the clouds and aerosols mediate the transformation of  $R_s$ .  
444 The brightening in Japan for 1961-1980 was the combined effect of cloud cover  
445 (negative effect) and aerosols (positive effect). The dimming for 1981-1995 was  
446 governed by reduced cloud amounts, while the increase in  $R_s$  for 1996-2014 was  
447 controlled by decreased aerosols. These results are different from those in Norris and  
448 Wild (2009), as homogenization was performed on the raw data and more accurate  
449 cloud radiative effect data series from CERES were utilized in our study. During the  
450 entire period of 1961-2014, cloud amounts dominated seasonal and interannual  $R_s$   
451 variations, while aerosols (including aerosol-cloud interactions) drove decadal  $R_s$   
452 variations over Japan, noted by other studies, in response to general cleaner skies and a  
453 reduction in spring Asian dust storms (Wang et al., 2012; Kudo et al., 2012).

454

## 455 **Author contributions**

456 QM and KW designed the research and wrote the paper. LS collected the raw data. YH  
457 homogenized the raw data. QW provided the technical support. YZ and HL checked the  
458 data.

459

460 **Competing interests**

461 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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473 ([https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/order\\_data.php](https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/order_data.php)). We thank the Expert Team on Climate

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475 package (<http://etccdi.pacificclimate.org/software.shtml>).

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663

664 Table 1. Trends of Surface Incident Solar Radiation ( $R_s$ ) in Japan during Specific Time  
665 Periods for Different Types of Datasets<sup>a</sup>. Unit: W m<sup>-2</sup> per decade  
666

Case <sup>b</sup>	Datasets <sup>c</sup>	1961-1980	1981-1995	1996-2014	1961-2014
Selected 41 Stations	OBS-raw	-12.0**	-2.1	2.4	-0.3
	OBS_HM	-4.8*	-2.1	2.4	1.5**
	OBS_2HM	-0.8*	-2.1	2.4*	0.9**
	SunDu-derived	1.4	-11.3**	1.4	-2.1**
	SunDu-derived_HM	1.4	-1.3*	1.5	0.9**
All Stations	OBS-raw	-11.2**	-1.3	2.2	0.2
	OBS_HM	-8.4**	-1.3	2.2	0.8
	OBS_2HM	0.7	-1.3	2.2	1.6**
	SunDu-derived	2.3*	-10.6**	1.2	-1.9**
	SunDu-derived_HM	1.6	-1.2	1.4	0.9*
Radiative Effect	CCRE series	-1.1	-1.4	-0.0	-1.4**
	Residual series	2.4**	-0.1	1.2*	2.2**

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669

670 <sup>a</sup>The trend calculations were based on the linear regression method. Values with two  
671 asterisks (\*\*) imply  $p < 0.01$ , and those with one asterisk (\*) imply  $0.01 < p < 0.1$ .

672 <sup>b</sup> $R_s$  trends were calculated by different numbers of observations, including all stations  
673 that are available on the JMA website and 41 stations (marked with red in Table S1,  
674 detailed in Section 3.1) that are significantly improved after homogenization. This  
675 implies that the sample number has a subtle impact on the trend calculation over Japan.  
676 Radiative effects from clouds and aerosols were also explored.

677 <sup>c</sup>Trend calculations were based on the raw measurements of surface incident solar  
678 radiation (OBS-raw), their homogenized series (OBS\_HM), derived incident solar  
679 radiation from sunshine duration hours (SunDu-derived) and their homogenized series  
680 (SunDu-derived\_HM). OBS\_HM from 1961 to 1970 was further homogenized by  
681 using SunDu-derived\_HM as reference data, termed OBS\_2HM. It is found that

682 homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  have the lowest uncertainties among these five  
683 datasets in Section 3.1. The cloud cover radiative effect (CCRE) was denoted as the  
684 change in  $R_s$  produced by a change in cloud cover, and the CCRE calculations were  
685 performed following Equation (4) by observed cloud amounts and the cloud radiative  
686 effect (CRE) from CERES satellite retrieval. Residual effect series were obtained by  
687 removing the CCRE from homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  anomalies.  
688

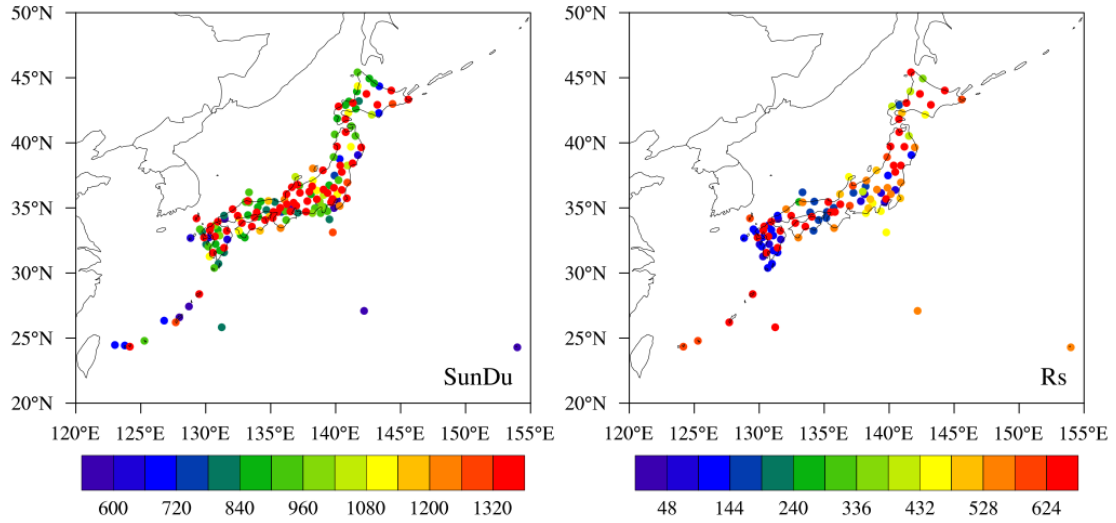


689

690 Table 2. Trends of Surface Incident Solar Radiation ( $R_s$ ) in Japan during Specific Time691 Periods for Different Types of Datasets for All Seasons. Unit:  $W m^{-2}$  per decade

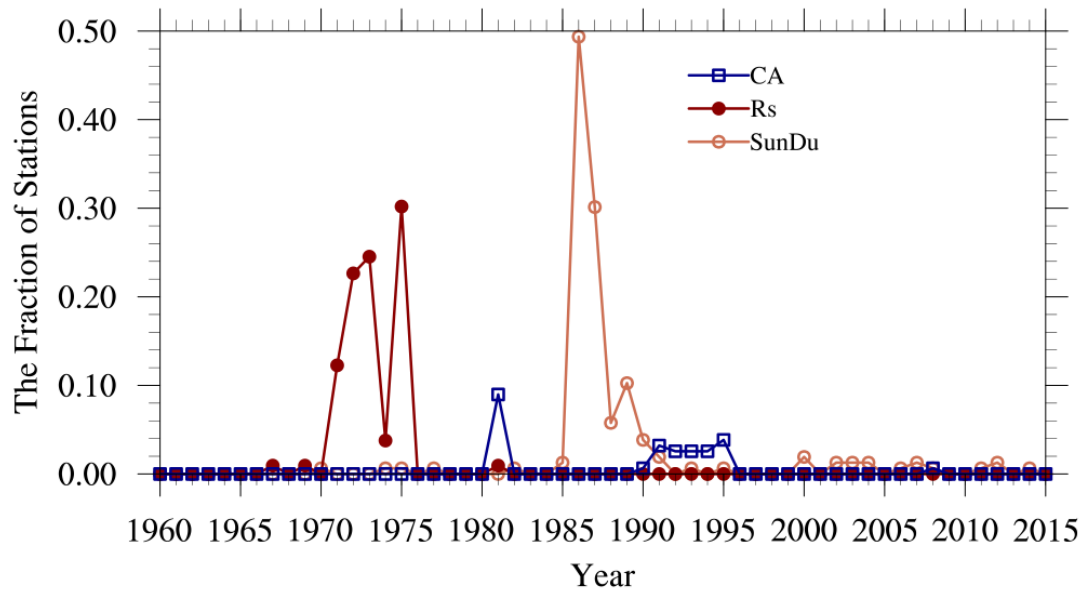
Season	Datasets	1961-1980	1981-1995	1996-2014	1961-2014
Spring	SunDu-derived_HM	3.1	-1.5	3.4*	1.5
	CCRE series	-0.7	-1.6	-1.6	-0.9
	Residual series	4.9**	-0.5**	2.2**	2.8*
Summer	SunDu-derived_HM	1.4	-3.4	0.6	0.4
	CCRE series	-1.9	-2.1	-4.4**	-2.7
	Residual series	2.0**	-1.8	1.5**	2.8
Autumn	SunDu-derived_HM	0.6	1.5	3.3**	1.0*
	CCRE series	-1.3**	1.6	1.6	-0.9
	Residual series	1.8**	0.8**	2.1**	2.0*
Winter	SunDu-derived_HM	0.6	-1.5	-1.6	0.5
	CCRE series	-0.6	-3.3	-0.6	-0.7
	Residual series	1.1**	0.9**	-0.9**	1.2**

692



693

694 Figure 1. The spatial distribution of stations over Japan with observed sunshine duration  
 695 (SunDu, 156 stations) and surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ , 105 stations) data. The  
 696 colours indicate the data length of the SunDu records from 1890 to 2015 and  $R_s$  records  
 697 from 1961 to 2015. Unit: month.

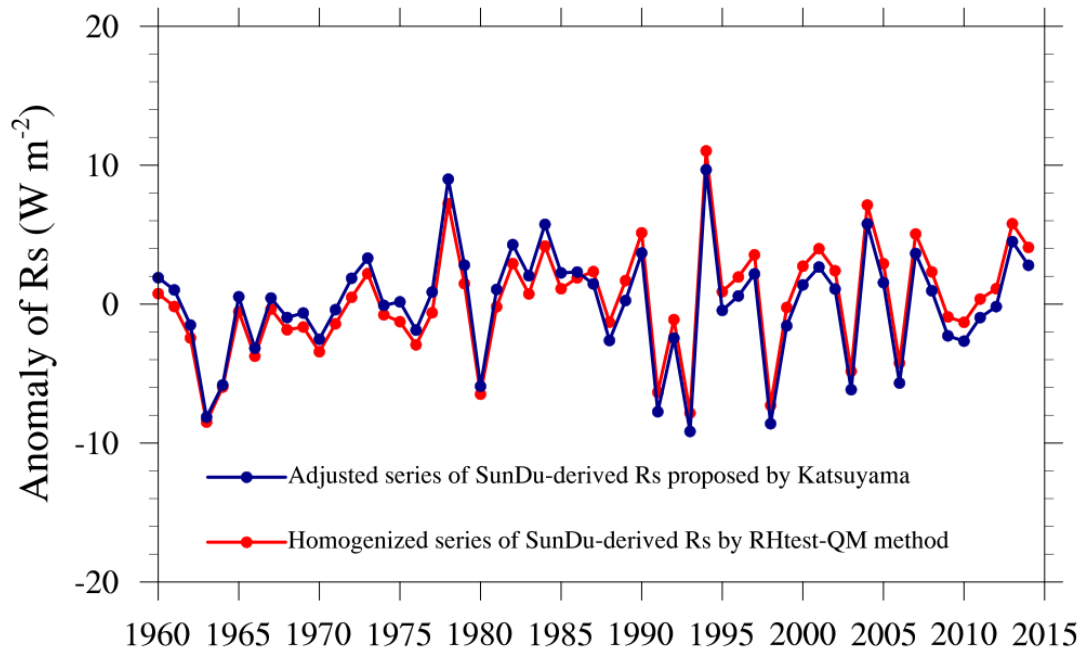


698

699 Figure 2. The fraction of stations that suffer from data inhomogeneity due to site  
700 relocation, change of instruments and measurement method for sunshine duration  
701 (SunDu) records, cloud amount (CA) records and surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
702 records. In total, there were 156 stations with SunDu records, 105 of which had  $R_s$   
703 records and 155 of which had CA records. The inhomogeneity information shown here  
704 was derived from metadata from  
705 <https://www.data.jma.go.jp/obd/stats/data/en/smp/index.html>, and was used as primary  
706 information to perform the inhomogeneity adjustment in the RHtest method detailed in  
707 Section 2.2.

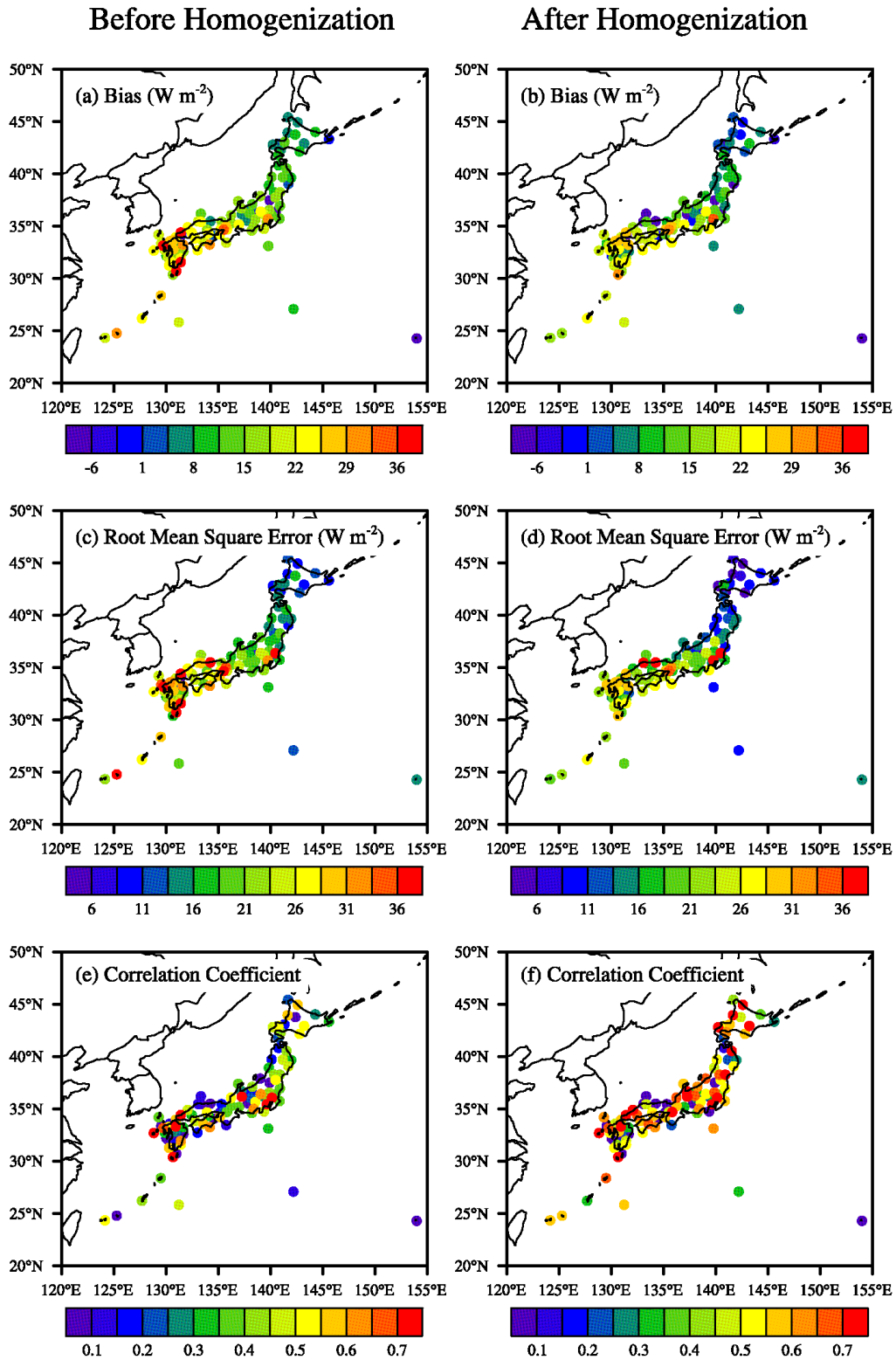
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711 Figure 3. The anomalies of surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) derived from  
 712 homogenized sunshine duration (SunDu) data (red line) by the RHtest-QM method  
 713 and other independent data (blue line) adjusted by the method in (Katsuyama, 1987).  
 714 Both of the homogenized datasets yield nearly the same  $R_s$  variation.



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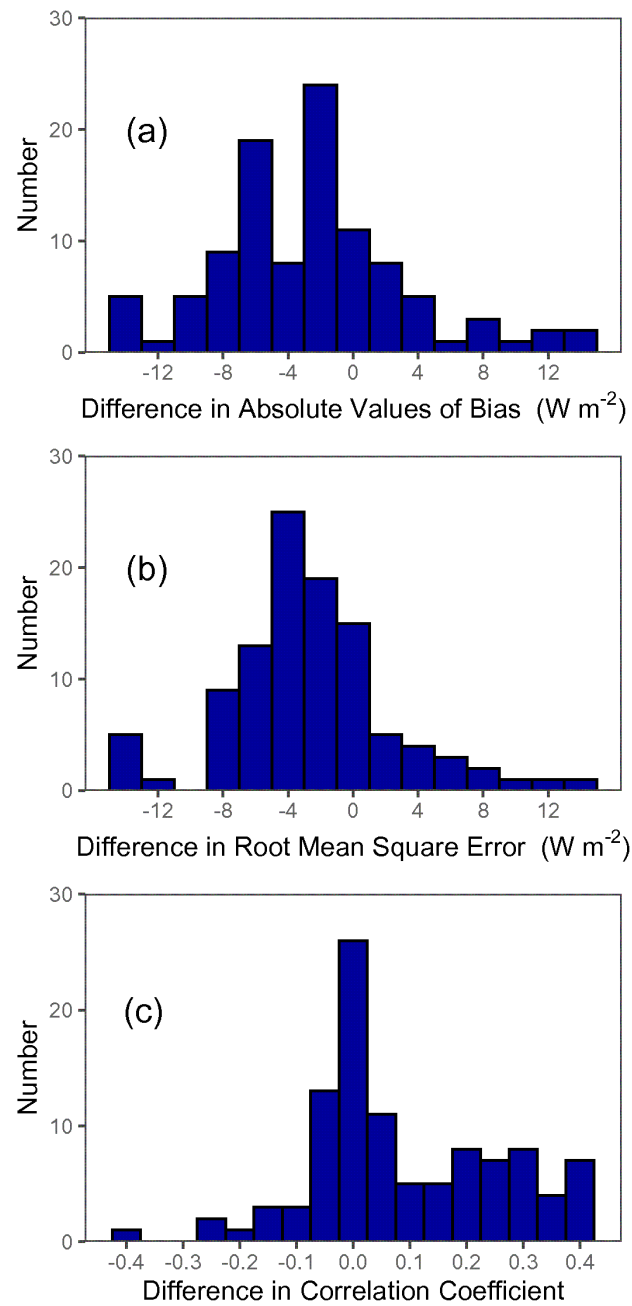
716

Figure 4. The spatial distribution of bias, root mean square error and correlation

717

coefficient between SunDu-derived surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) and observed

718  $R_s$  before (a, c, e) and after (b, d, f) homogenization. Improvements were made at  
719 most sites after homogenization.  
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722

723 Figure 5. Histograms of the difference in absolute values of bias, root mean square

724 error and correlation coefficient between SunDu-derived surface incident solar

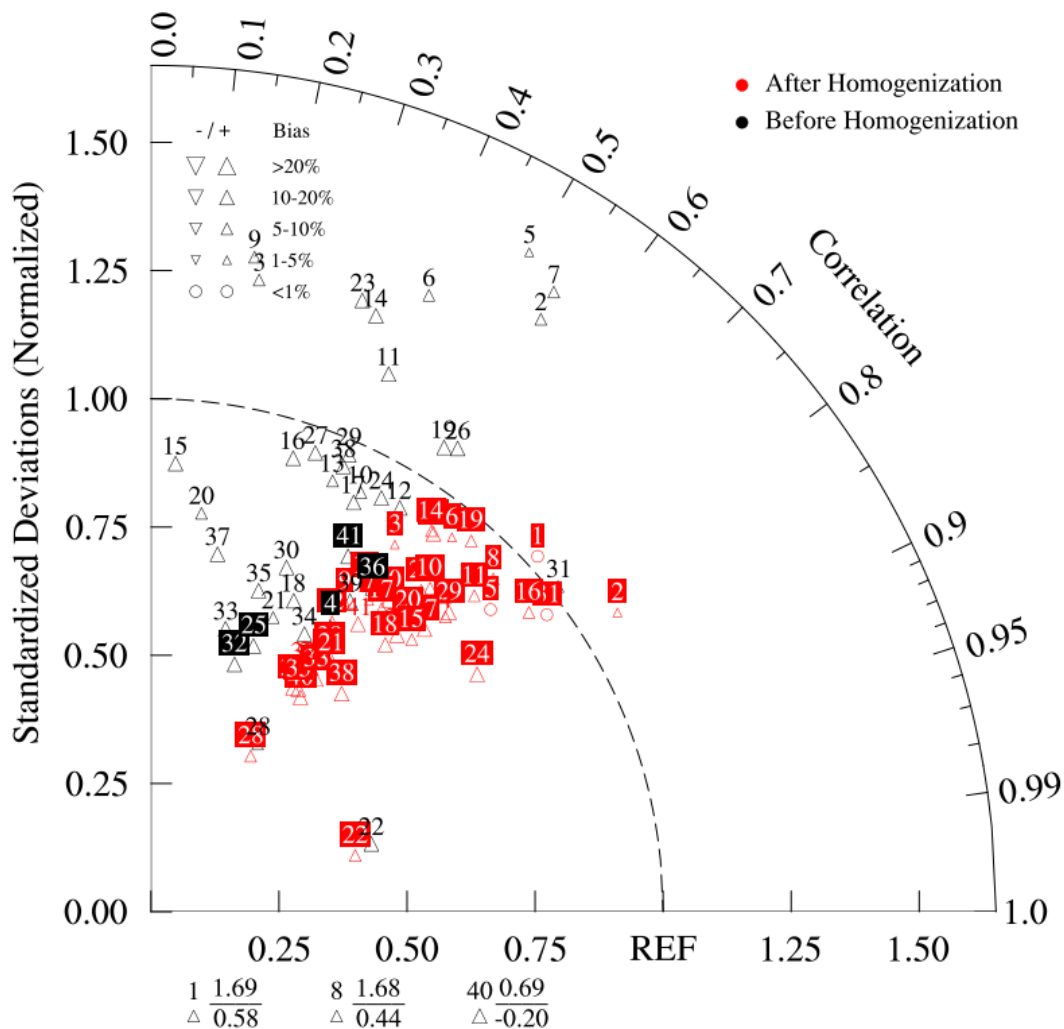
725 radiation ( $R_s$ ) and observed  $R_s$  before and after homogenization. Their differences

726 decrease after homogenization.

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732 Figure 6. Taylor diagram describing the relative biases, standardized deviations and

733 correlation coefficients between the annual observed surface incident shortwave

734 radiation (Rs) and annual sunshine duration (SunDu) derived Rs before and after

735 homogenization at 41 selected stations (Numbered 1-41 here). “REF” can be treated as

736 the perfect point, where values the closer to this point indicate a better evaluation. The

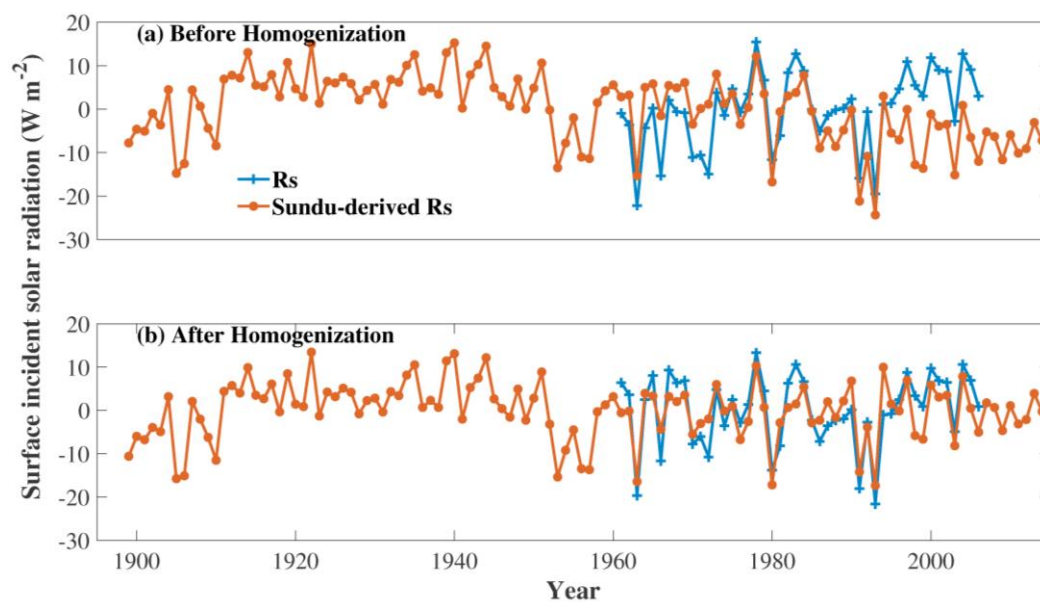


737 size and direction of the triangles denote the magnitude and negative or positive of  
738 biases, respectively. The boxes indicate the smaller bias in Raw (black color) or HM  
739 (red color) series. This figure shows that biases decrease at most sites (in red boxes)  
740 after homogenization, except for the 5 stations numbered 4, 25, 32, 36 and 41 (in black  
741 boxes). Three stations (numbered 1, 8 and 40 in black color) listed below the panel are  
742 beyond the scope of the figure, with bias (triangle), ratio of standardized deviation  
743 (above the “---” line) and correlation coefficient (below the “---” line) shown. In  
744 addition to the improvements in the correlation coefficients after homogenization, the  
745 biases and the standard deviations generally become small in this Taylor diagram.

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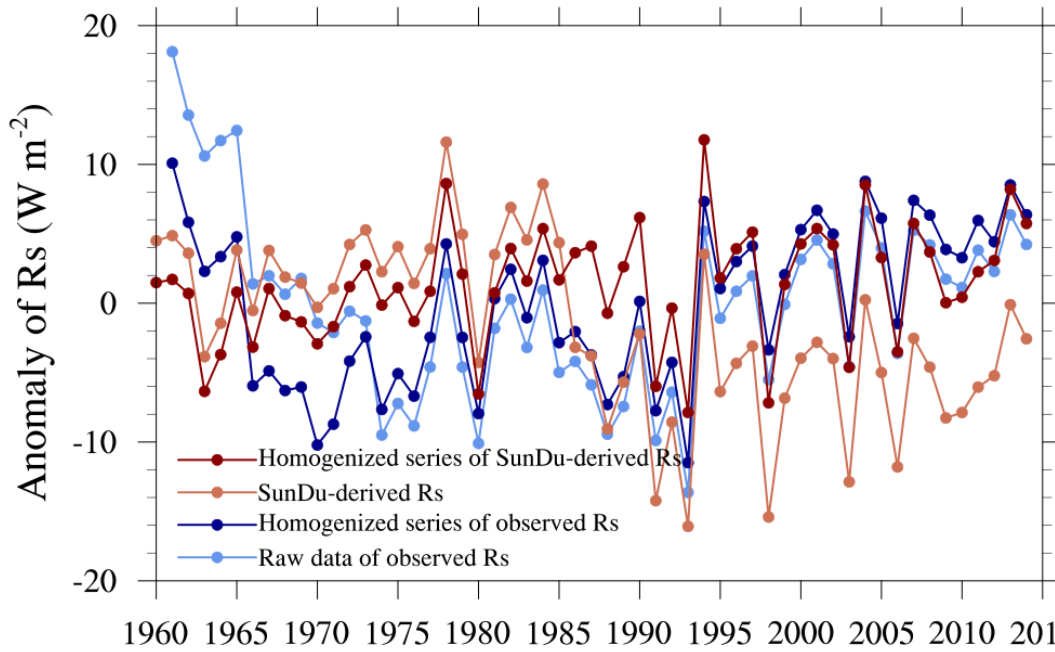
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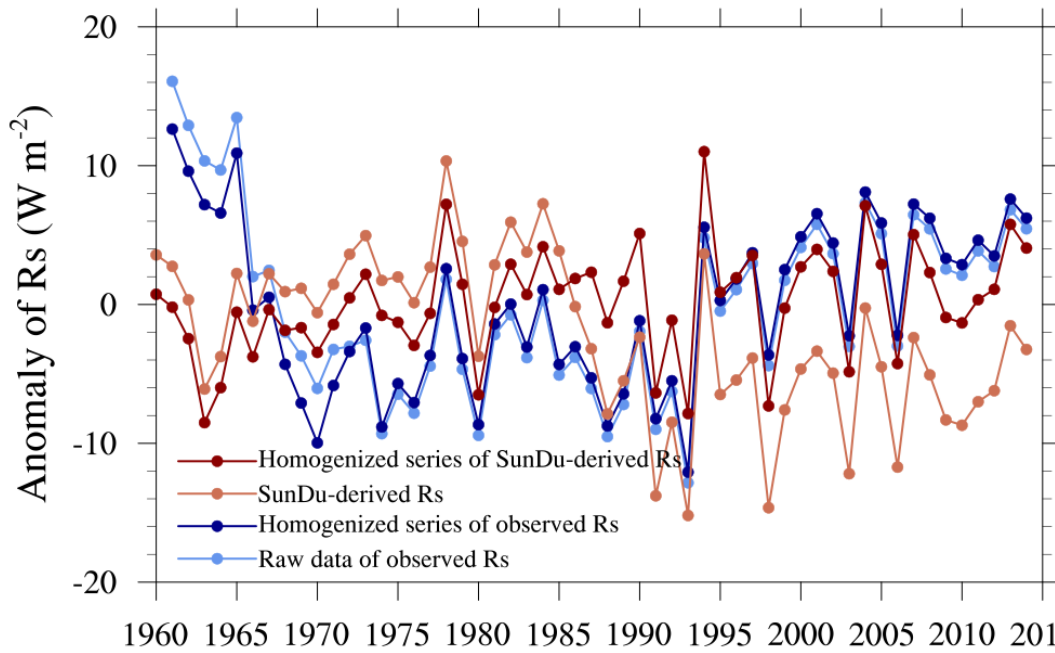
Figure 7. Time series of annual anomalies of observed surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  at HAMADA site (WMO-ID: 47755, Lat:  $34.9^\circ$ , Lon: 132.07) before and after homogenization.



758

759 Figure 8. Time series of annual anomalies of surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ ) based  
 760 on direct  $R_s$  observations (light blue line) and their homogenized series (dark blue line)  
 761 and sunshine duration (SunDu) derived  $R_s$  (light red line) and their homogenized series  
 762 (dark red line). All of the lines were calculated based on observations at 41 sites. Details  
 763 on how these 41 sites were selected are given in Section 3.1. The  $R_s$  variations are nearly  
 764 the same as those shown in Figure 7, which were calculated based on all available  
 765 observations.

766

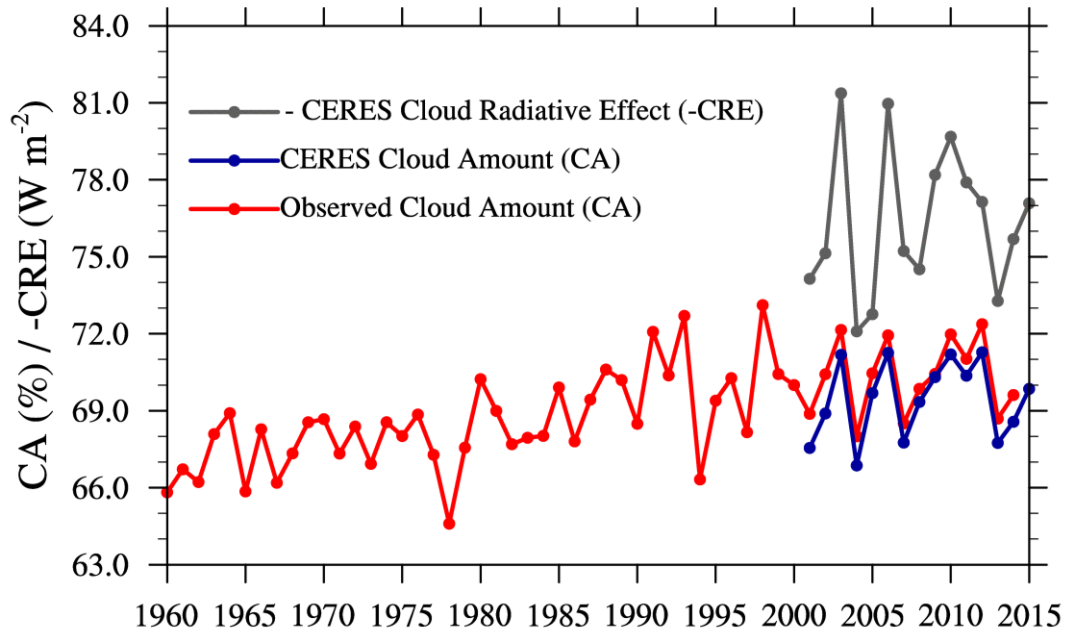


767

768 Figure 9. Time series of annual anomalies of the surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
 769 based on direct observations (light blue line) and their homogenized series (dark blue  
 770 line) and sunshine duration (SunDu) derived  $R_s$  (light red line) and their homogenized  
 771 series (dark red line). All of the lines were calculated based on as many observations as  
 772 possible. The light blue line and dark blue line were calculated from the  $R_s$  observations  
 773 at 105 sites, while the light red line and dark red line were derived from the SunDu-  
 774 derived  $R_s$  at 156 sites. The  $R_s$  variations are nearly the same as those shown in Figure  
 775 6, which were calculated based on the 41 selected sites in Section 3.1. Large  
 776 discrepancies were found in the homogenized data series (dark blue and dark red lines).

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779

780 Figure 10. The cloud amount (CA) from CERES (blue line) agrees well with that  
 781 derived from surface observations (red line) over Japan. At the annual time scale, the  
 782 negative cloud radiative effect (-CRE, grey line) in CERES correlated well with the  
 783 cloud amount.

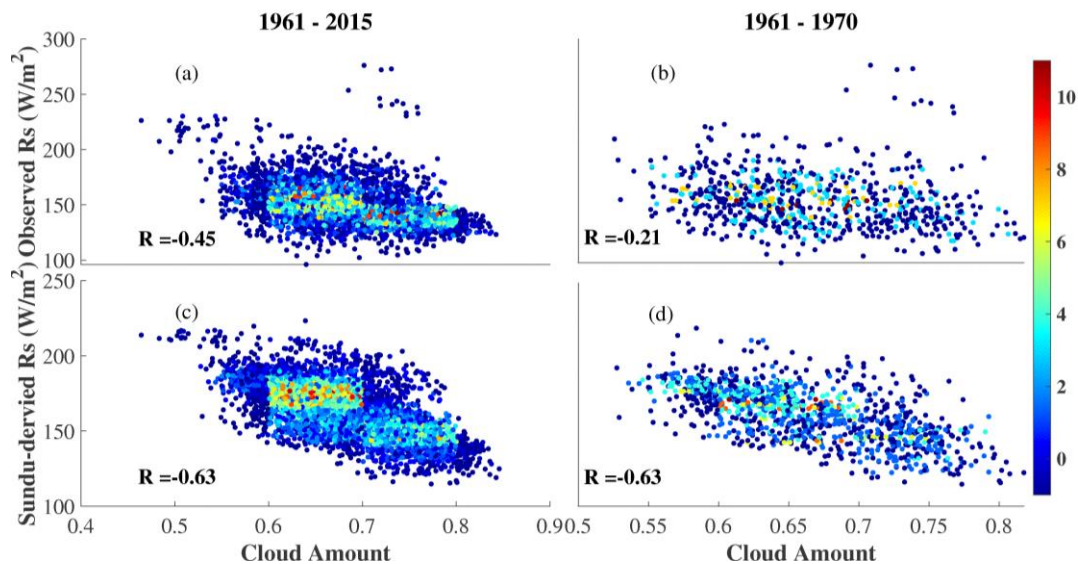
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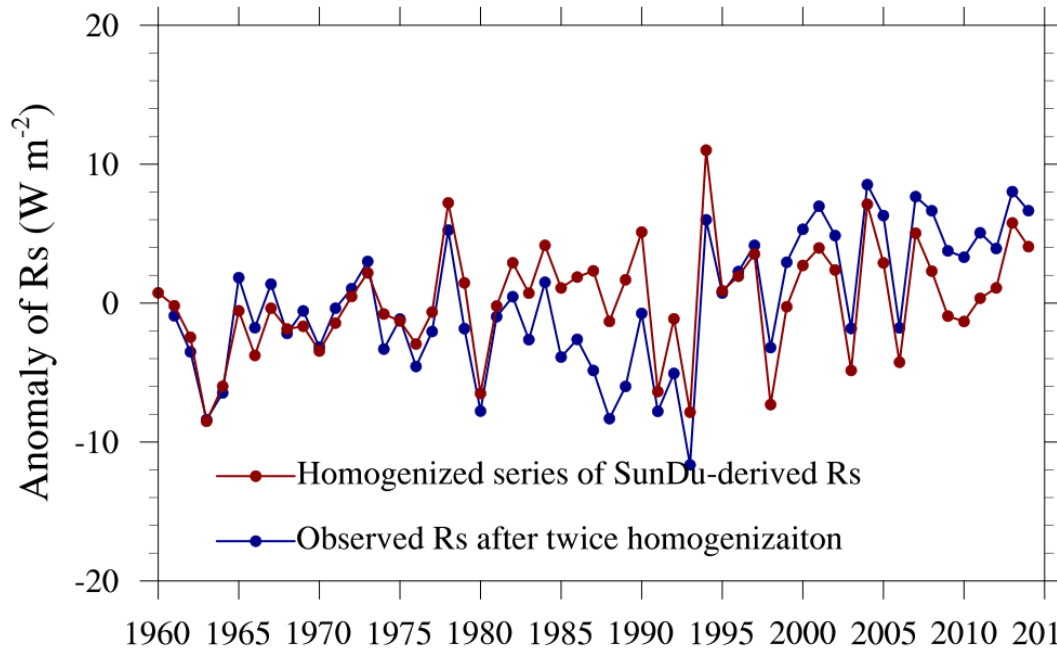
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790 Figure 11. Scatter plot of homogenized monthly surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ )  
791 (observed and SunDu-derived solar radiation) as a function of ground-based  
792 observations of cloud amount over Japan at all stations only when both cloud amount  
793 data and observed  $R_s$  data are available. (a) and (c) for 1961-2015, (b) and (d) for  
794 1961-1970. The smallest correlation coefficient in (b) indicates that the observed  $R_s$   
795 data are spurious for 1961-1970, and SunDu-derived  $R_s$  are more convincing.  
796



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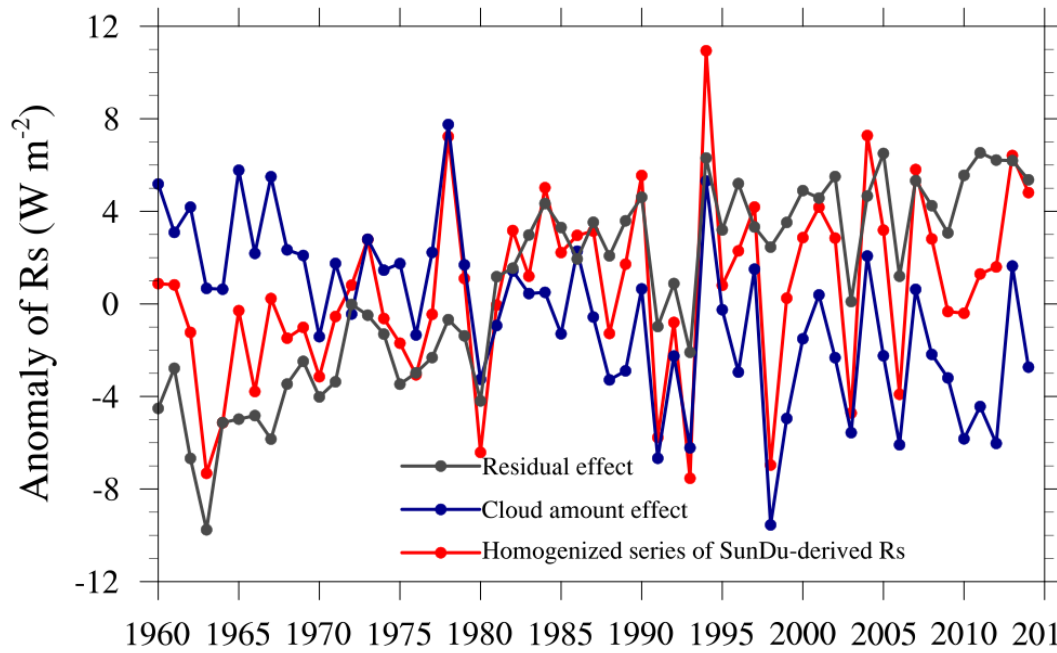
798 Figure 12. Time series of annual anomalies of the surface incident solar radiation ( $R_s$ )

799 based on  $R_s$  observations after two homogenizations (dark blue line). The homogenized

800 series of observed  $R_s$  from 1961 to 1970 shown in Figure 7 was tuned by RHtest method

801 again using the homogenized series of SunDu-derived  $R_s$  (dark red line in Figure 7 and

802 Figure 10) as a reference.

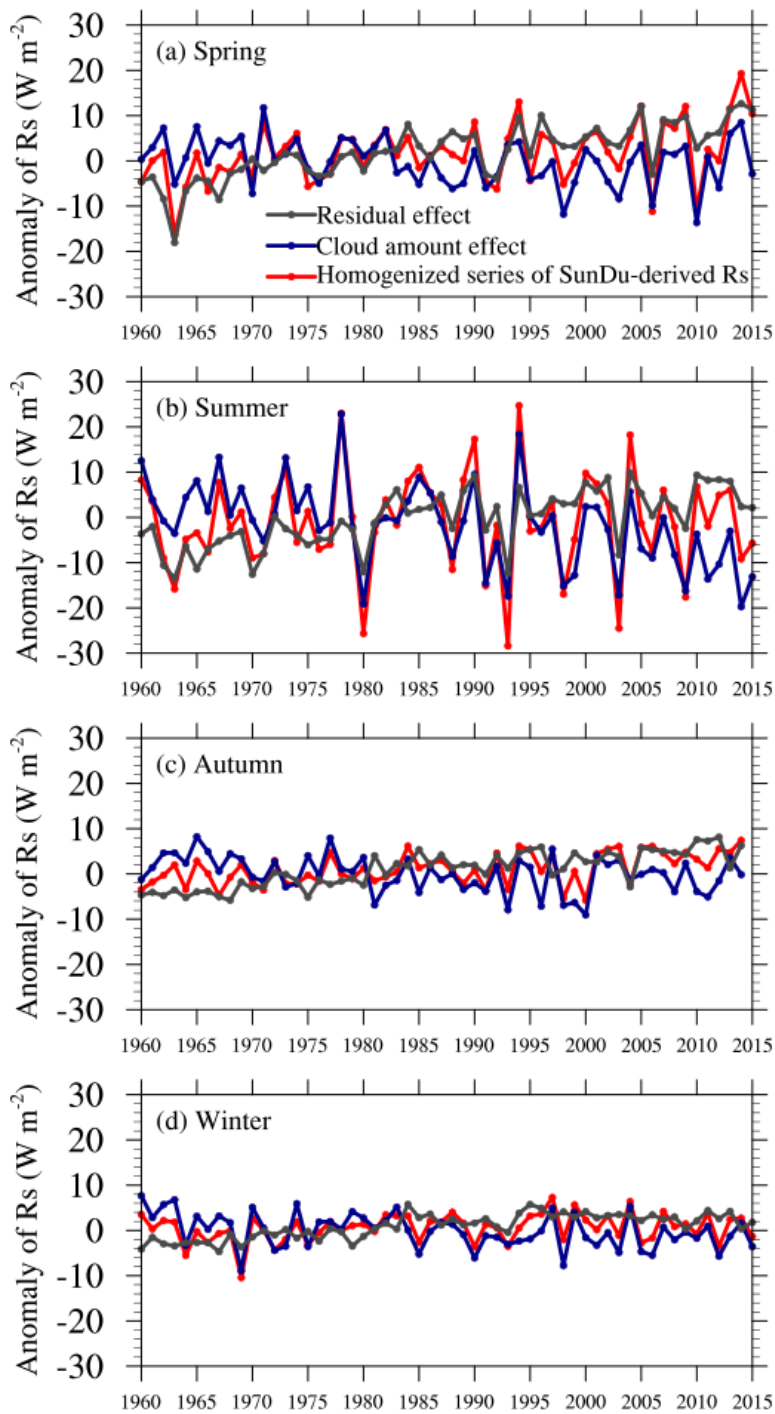


803

804 Figure 13. Area-averaged anomalies of homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  (red line) over  
 805 Japan. The cloud cover radiative effect (CCRE, blue line) was denoted as the change in  
 806  $R_s$  produced by a change in cloud cover and calculated following Equation (4) by  
 807 observed cloud amounts and cloud radiative effect (CRE) from the CERES satellite  
 808 retrieval. The residual effect (grey line) was obtained by removing the cloud cover  
 809 radiative effect (CCRE) from the homogenized SunDu-derived  $R_s$  anomalies.

810





811

812 Figure 14. Same as Figure 12 but for the four seasons. The decrease in Asian spring

813 dust may have triggered the brightening over Japan for 1961-2015, as the  $R_s$  in spring

814 increases most among the seasons.