



# 1 A daily sunshine duration (SD) dataset in China from 2 Himawari AHI imagery (2016-2023)

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9

10 **Abstract.** Monitoring global radiation resources relies on sunshine duration (SD) as a significant  
11 indication, but there is a scarcity of research that have examined high-resolution SD data. This study  
12 established a daily 5-km SD dataset in China from 2016 to 2023 using Himawari's Advanced Himawari  
13 Imager (AHI) Level 3 shortwave radiation fitted with the Ångström-PreScott model based on time series.  
14 We used ground-measured SD at 2380 Chinese Meteorological Administration (CMA) stations to verify  
15 the accuracy of SD dataset. The results of the testing set indicated that the average correlation coefficient  
16 ( $R$ ) between the SD from estimation and the ground-measurement is 0.88. We investigated the effects of  
17 wind speed, vapor pressure (VAP), precipitation and aerosol optical depth (AOD) on the estimated  
18 performance of SD, and the results showed that temperature had the greatest effect on SD estimation. We  
19 also found that both too low AOD and too high wind speed also affected the SD estimation. This high-  
20 resolution SD data can provide important support for accurate radiation resource assessment in China.  
21 The SD dataset is freely accessible at <https://doi.org/10.57760/sciencedb.10276> (Zhang et al., 2024).

22

## 23 1. Introduction

24 Solar radiation is a major driver of photosynthesis and evapotranspiration, plays an indispensable  
25 role in regulating temperature and supporting agricultural production, and also has effects on  
26 photovoltaic power generation, making it critical to the Earth's ecosystem and to productive human life  
27 (Yu et al., 2022; Feng et al., 2021). Because of the high cost of using and maintaining ground radiation-  
28 measuring instruments, which are fewer than 200 in mainland China and unevenly distributed over short  
29 time spans, there are lacking or unavailable long-term solar radiation data in most areas (Liang et al.,



30 2006; Zhang et al., 2015). Therefore, it is difficult to accurately verify the estimated long-term and high-  
31 precision solar radiation indicators with information provided by ground radiation measurement  
32 compared with conventional meteorological measurement (Zhang et al., 2017; Chukwujindu et al., 2017).

33 Sunshine duration (SD) is a readily available and cost-effective indicator for monitoring the  
34 condition of global radiation resources, and the variability of which is determined by a combination of  
35 regional factors as well as the solar constant, cloud cover, water vapor, and atmospheric pollutants. SD  
36 is a key element of solar radiation that affects many areas of human life, such as tourism activities,  
37 planning power plants and agricultural production (Ghanghermeh et al., 2022). The SD measured from  
38 conventional meteorological observation has the advantages of long observation time, good continuity,  
39 high spatial density and high reliability, and is considered the best alternative to solar radiation (Xia,  
40 2010). Accurate inversion of SD is therefore an important reference for agricultural production, solar  
41 resource utilization and global climate change analysis. The Ångström-Prescott model (Angstrom, 2007)  
42 is the dominant and most widely used model based on SD and solar radiation. The quadratic and cubic  
43 forms of the Ångström-Prescott model have been improved by researchers and applied to different  
44 meteorological conditions (Rietveld, 1978; Bahel et al., 1987; Chen et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2007; Liu et  
45 al., 2012), and other forms of the model (e.g., logarithmic and exponential) have also been proposed and  
46 applied worldwide to estimated SD or solar radiation (Ampratwum et al., 1999; Elagib et al 2000).

47 Studies on SD estimation have mostly been based on limited ground stations (Vivar et al., 2014;  
48 Fan et al., 2018; Yao et al., 2018), while SD is affected by atmospheric conditions, and it is difficult for  
49 a single station to represent this over a large area, so there is a great need for a high-resolution SD data  
50 based on satellite remote sensing for studies on solar radiation. The Advanced Himawari Imager (AHI)  
51 instrument, carried on board the Himawari-8 and 9 satellite, can be considered to observe and invert solar  
52 radiation indicator. However, despite the release of a short-wave radiation product by Himawari, the  
53 product does not adequately consider the effect of aerosols on solar radiation under clear sky, nor does it  
54 consider the effect of different cloud phases on solar radiation under cloudy conditions, and thus the  
55 accuracy of solar radiation estimated under heavy aerosol-polluted backgrounds or cloudy sky conditions  
56 is limited.

57 In this study, we generate a daily SD dataset in China at a spatial resolution of 5-km using Himawari  
58 AHI L3 shortwave radiation data from 2015 to 2023 fitted with Ångström-Prescott model at different  
59 days of year (DOY). We validated and assessed the accuracy of the daily SD data by the ground-measured



60 SD and other meteorological data (Wind speed, vapor pressure (VAP) and precipitation) at 2380 Chinese  
61 Meteorological Administration (CMA) stations, as well as the aerosol optical depth (AOD) from MODIS.  
62

## 63 **2. Data and method**

### 64 **2.1 Remote sensing data**

65 The geostationary meteorological satellites, Himawari, was launched on 7 October 2014 from the  
66 Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) in Tane Ashima, Japan, with its hypocenter located at 0.0°N and  
67 140.7°E, approximately 35,800 km above the land surface. The AHI from Himawari-8 and 9 has 16  
68 spectral channels covering the visible to infrared range, with wavelengths ranging from 0.47  $\mu\text{m}$  to 13.3  
69  $\mu\text{m}$ , providing a wealth of spectral information (Bessho et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2019).  
70 The temporal resolution of the land surface products provided by Himawari AHI is 10 minutes, which is  
71 important for understanding the spatiotemporal variations on short time scales (Sawada et al., 2019).

72 In this study, the Himawari AHI level 3 hourly shortwave radiation (5 km resolution) data from 1  
73 January 2016 to 31 December 2023 was used for SD dataset construction, which calculated by  
74 considering the difference between the 300-3000 nm incident solar flux absorbed by the atmosphere and  
75 the solar flux reflected back to space by the atmosphere and the surface (Frouin et al., 2007). For imagery  
76 with a missing interval of one hour in a day, linear interpolation is performed on each pixel of the missing  
77 imagery based on the time series, and for imagery missing for more than one hour the day is excluded.  
78 We calculate the daily average shortwave radiation in China based on China Standard Time (CST) using  
79 this hourly shortwave radiation data.

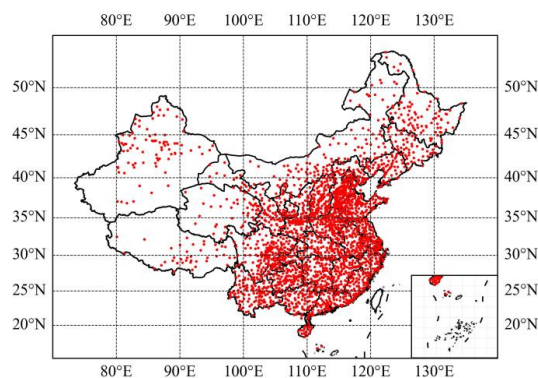
80 The MCD19A2 is a MODIS Terra and Aqua combined multi-angle Implementation of Atmospheric  
81 Correction (MAIAC) Land AOD gridded Level 2 product produced daily at 1 km pixel resolution, which  
82 corrected for atmospheric gases and aerosols using a new MAIAC algorithm that is based on a time series  
83 analysis and a combination of pixel- and image-based processing (Lyapustin et al., 2022). In this study,  
84 the daily, monthly and annual AOD at 550 nm in MCD19A2 from 2016 to 2023 were collected using  
85 Google Earth Engine (GEE) (Gorelick et al., 2017).

### 86 **2.2 Ground Measurements data**

87 The ground measurements in CMA from 1 July 2015 to 31 December 2023 used to perform SD  
88 estimation. The spatial coverage of Himawari covers 2380 CMA automatic meteorological stations in  
89 China. The CMA performs quality control of the data, including spatiotemporal consistency checks and



90 manual corrections and adjustments before releasing the meteorological data (Moradi, 2009; Tang et al.,  
91 2010). Although the quality of the ground-based measurements should have been controlled before  
92 acquisition, there was still a need for a more stringent check on the quality of the data based on the  
93 methodology of daily meteorological data reconstruction from CMA (Zhang et al., 2015). Figure 1 shows  
94 the spatial distribution of 2380 meteorological. In this study, daily SD, vapor pressure (VAP), temperature,  
95 wind speed and precipitation from the CMA automatic meteorological stations were used to fit and  
96 validate the grid-dataset as well as to analyze the factors influencing the estimated performance,  
97 respectively. In this study, March-May was classified as spring, June-August as summer, September-  
98 November as autumn and December-February as winter.



99  
100 Figure 1. Spatial distribution of the 2380 automatic meteorological stations of the China  
101 Meteorological Administration (CMA).

102  
103 **2.3 Model overview**

104 The Ångström-Prescott model is an empirical model which based on the relationship between SD  
105 and solar radiation, and is widely used in meteorology and agricultural science. The model was proposed  
106 by Ångström on the basis of total solar radiation on clear days and improved by Prescott on the basis of  
107 astronomical radiation (Angstrom, 2007) with the following equations:

$$R_s = \left(a + b \frac{n}{N}\right) R_a \quad (1)$$

108 where  $R_s$  is the total solar radiation reaching the surface,  $R_a$  is the astronomical radiation, a and b are



109 empirical coefficients,  $n$  is the actual SD, and  $N$  is the maximum SD available.  $R_a$  and  $N$  counts are  
110 calculated with reference to Liu et al. (2009):

$$R_a = 37.6d_r(\omega_s \sin\phi \sin\delta + \cos\phi \cos\delta \sin\omega_s) \quad (2)$$

$$d_r = 1 + 0.033 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{365} \text{DOY}\right) \quad (3)$$

$$\delta = 0.4093 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{365} \text{DOY} - 1.39\right) \quad (4)$$

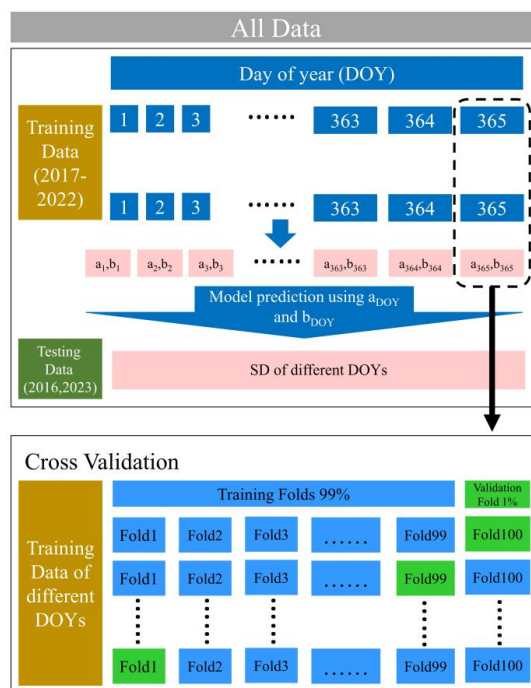
$$\omega_s = \arccos(-\tan\phi \tan\delta) \quad (5)$$

$$N = \frac{24}{\pi} \omega_s \quad (6)$$

111 where  $d_r$  is the eccentricity of the Earth's orbit around the Sun,  $\omega_s$  is the angle at sunset,  $\phi$  is the latitude,  
112  $\delta$  is the angle of inclination of the sun, and DOY is the days of a year. We considered Himawari AHI  
113 level 3 hourly shortwave radiation as the  $R_s$  in this model, and SD of ground-based observation as a  
114 validation of  $n$ , and the parameters  $a$  and  $b$  of Ångström-Prescott model were fitted using the least-squares  
115 method.

#### 116 2.4 Validation

117 We divided the original data into a training set (more than  $5 \times 10^6$  grid cells during 2017-2022) and  
118 a testing set (2016 and 2023). In order to identify the best Ångström-Prescott model and its corresponding  
119 parameters, the performance of the Ångström-Prescott model on the training set (2017-2022) was  
120 evaluated using a 100-fold cross-validation (CV) approach, using a DOY-based CV strategy. In each  
121 iteration of each DOY, 99 folds were used as the training set and the remaining folds as the validation  
122 set, and the training and validation process was repeated 100 times to obtain the best model parameters  
123  $a$  and  $b$  for each DOY. In addition, the 2016 and 2023 ground-based SD data were used as the test data  
124 to evaluate the generalization capability of the best model parameters  $a$  and  $b$  at each DOY. The specific  
125 process is shown in Figure 2. pearson correlation coefficient ( $R$ ) and root mean square error (RMSE)  
126 were calculated to evaluate the performance of the model.



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Figure2. Detailed process of model cross-validation and testing.

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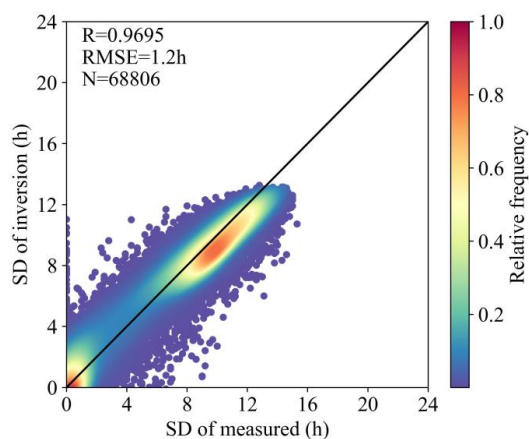
### 130 3. Results

#### 131 3.1 Evaluation of the training data

132 Figure 3 shows the estimation results of the CV sampling method for all DOYs in the training set  
 133 (N=68806), an R value of 0.9695 was obtained for the entire training set, with a corresponding RMSE  
 134 value of 1.2h. The measured and inverted SD converge to the 1:1 trend line, but overestimation occurs  
 135 in the dense region around 10h. Figure 4 discusses the inverse performance of the different seasons in  
 136 the training set separately. The SD is significantly higher in spring and summer than in autumn and winter,  
 137 which is more concentrated in the 0h and 10h regions in winter. From Figure 4 it can be seen that in  
 138 spring the highest R value is 0.9747 and RMSE value is 1.18h, while in winter the lowest RMSE value  
 139 is 1.13h. However, in summer the highest RMSE value is 1.3h, and it is obvious that the estimation in  
 140 summer performs the worst when the measured SD is 0h. The measured and inverted SD in spring most  
 141 converge to the 1:1 trendline, while overestimation of which occurs in the dense region around 10h in  
 142 winter.

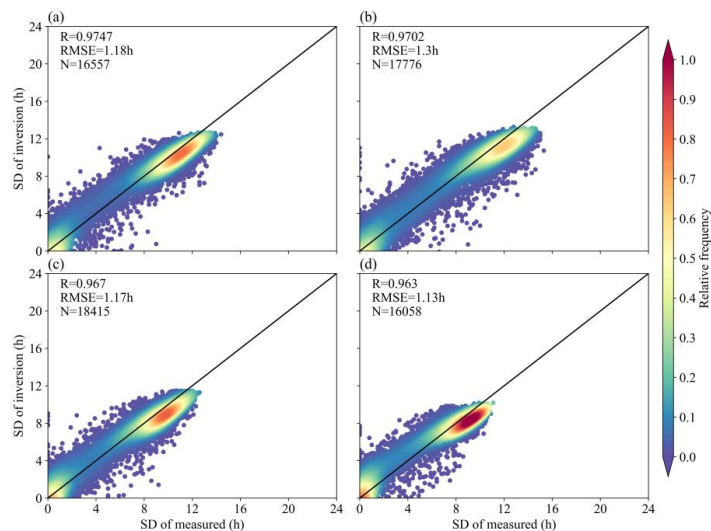


143 Figure 5 shows the optimal Ångström-Prescott model parameters  $a$  and  $b$  at different DOYs. The  
144 parameter  $a$  has an upward parabolic trend with DOY, with a local maximum value of 0.22 at DOY =  
145 306 and a local minimum value of 0.13 at DOY = 351. Parameter  $b$  showed a significant "W"-shaped  
146 variation with DOY, with a local maximum value of 0.74 at DOY = 146 and two local minimum values  
147 of 0.66 and 0.63 at DOY = 99 and 351. In general, parameters  $a$  and  $b$  of Ångström-Prescott model are  
148 characterized by more pronounced seasonal variations. Figure 6 shows the variation of the training set  
149 evaluation indicator ( $R$  and RMSE) with DOY. More than half of the DOYs had  $R$  values greater than  
150 the overall  $R$  value in Figure 3, but there were still 134 days with  $R$  values less than 0.97 and a minimum  
151 value of 0.94 at DOY = 193. Meanwhile more than half of the DOYs have RMSE values less than the  
152 overall RMSE values in Figure 3, but there are still 157 days with  $R$  values less than 1.2h, and again  
153 there is a maximum value of 2.1h for RMSE at DOY = 193. The evaluation indicator for the training set  
154 were not characterized by significant seasonal variations.



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Figure 3. Estimation results of the CV sampling method in training set



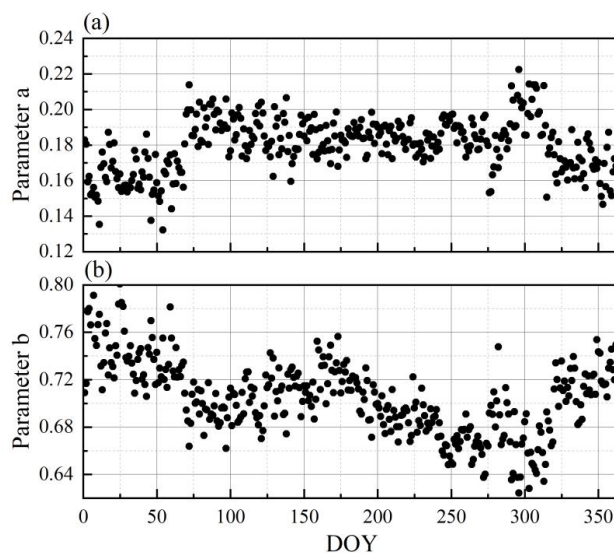
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Figure 4. Estimation results of the CV sampling method in training set from different seasons ((a)

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spring, (b) summer, (c) autumn, (d) winter).

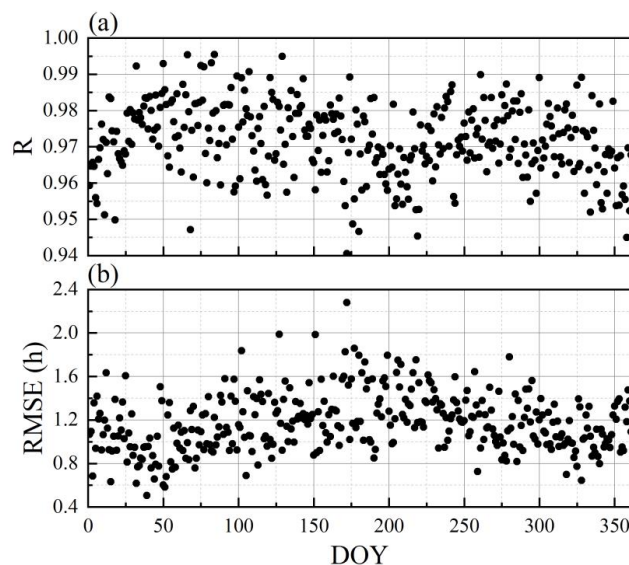


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Figure 5. The a and b coefficients of Ångström-Prescott model for different DOYs.





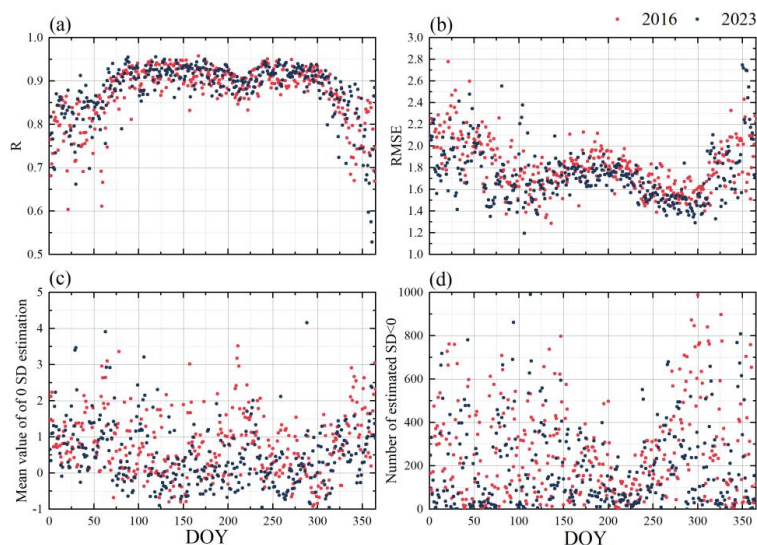
163  
164 Figure 6. The correlation coefficients (R) (a) and RMSE (b) of CV sampling method in training set for  
165 different DOYs.  
166

### 167 3.2 Evaluation of the testing data

168 The different evaluation indicator for the test set (2016 and 2023) are given in Figure 7, respectively.  
169 Figure 7(a) shows the R of 2016 and 2023, with the trends in these two years are essentially the identical,  
170 with an "M" shape. The average R value for 2016 is 0.88, which is generally consistent with 2023. The  
171 minimum R value of 0.52 in 2023 (DOY=361) was lower than that of 0.60 in 2016 (DOY=21), but both  
172 occurred in winter. The trend of RMSE values for 2016 and 2023 is opposite to the R value, with the  
173 maximum and minimum RMSE values occurring in 2023 at 2.77 (DOY=355) and 1.19 (DOY=106),  
174 respectively. Figures 7(c) and (d) show the estimated performance of the 0 SD (no sunshine for the whole  
175 day) for the CMA meteorological stations in 2016 and 2023. Figure 7(c) shows the estimated mean values  
176 of 0 SD for different DOYs in 2016 and 2023, where the mean value in 2023 (0.49h) is smaller than in  
177 2016 (0.75h), with the maximum and minimum mean values still occurring in 2023 at 3.42 (DOY=211)  
178 and -0.75 (DOY=134), respectively. Figure 7(d) gives the number of estimated SD less than 0 for  
179 different DOYs in 2016 and 2023, of which there were more average daily estimated SDs less than 0 in  
180 2016 than in 2023, at 267/day, with the lowest value also occurring in 2016, at 997 for DOY=294. It can  
181 be seen that the bias in the 0SD estimation is linked to the over- and under-representation of its number.

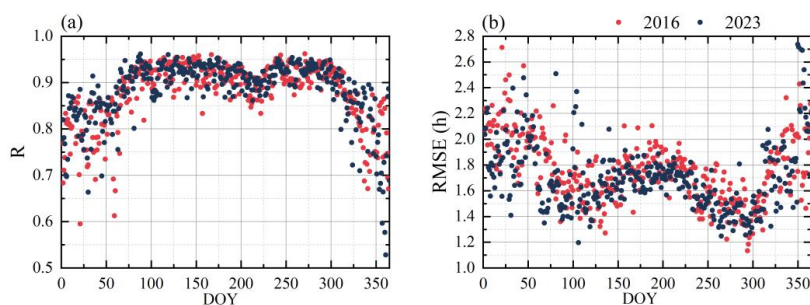


182 Changing all estimated SD less than 0 to 0 resulted in an improvement in their estimated performance  
183 (Figure 8), with 2016 having a greater improvement than 2023 and having the greatest improvement with  
184 DOY=285.  
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Figure 7. Estimated performance in testing set.



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Figure 8. Estimated performance by changing all estimated SD less than 0 to 0 in testing set.

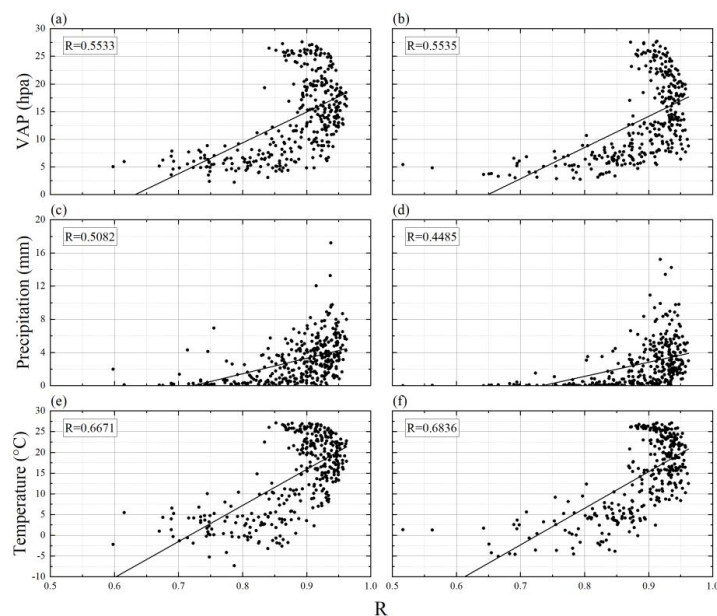
### 191 3.3 Effect of different environmental factors on SD estimation

192 Figure 9 shows the effect of national daily average VAP, precipitation, and temperature (based on  
193 CMA meteorological stations) on estimated performance. The R values (changing all estimated SD less  
194 than 0 to 0 in Figure 8) is exponentially related to both VAP and precipitation, and VAP has a greater  
195 effect on R than precipitation. Meanwhile the estimated performance in 2016 is more affected by



196 moisture conditions. Temperature has the greatest impact on R, with 2023 being affected to a greater  
 197 extent than 2016 (Figure 9 (e, f)). The influences on SD estimation are discussed by distinguishing the  
 198 different seasons (Table 1), with VAP, precipitation and temperature having the greatest influence on R  
 199 values in autumn and the least in winter. It is worth noting that R in summer were negatively correlated  
 200 with VAP and temperature.

201 Figure 10 shows the CMA meteorological station and Himawari estimated SD for 28 September  
 202 2016 (DOY=271, R=0.95), along with the AOD and wind speed at that moment. The consistency of sites  
 203 and estimated SD is strong in northwest, north and northeast China, while overestimation occurs in  
 204 eastern China. From Figure 10 (c, d), it can be found that the excessively low AOD and high wind speed  
 205 in East China affect the estimation of SD.



206  
 207 Figure 9. Estimated performance (R values) and different environmental factors (VAP (a, b),  
 208 Precipitation (c, d), Temperature (e, f)) correlations in 2016 (a, c and e) and 2023 (b, d and f).

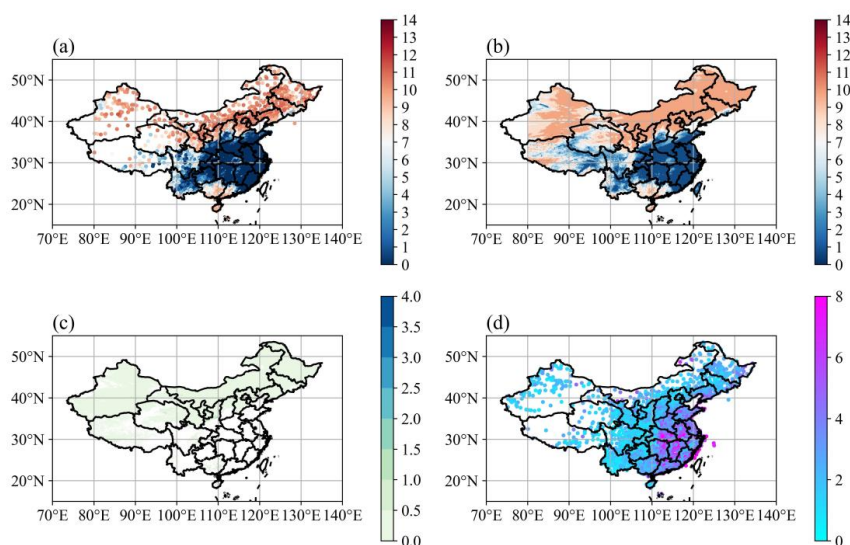
210 **Table 1.** Correlation coefficients between estimated performance and influencing factors in different  
 211 seasons (\* and \*\* refer to passing the  $p < 0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$  significance tests, respectively)

Time	Influencing Factors		
	VAP	Precipitation	Temperature



Spring	0.29*	0.43**	0.31*
Summer	-0.56*	0.28*	-0.53**
Autumn	0.59**	0.46**	0.62**
Winter	0.28*	0.26**	0.22**

212



213

214 Figure 10. Comparison of ground measurement (a) and Himawari (b) SD on 28 September 2016,

215

giving daily AOD of 550nm (c) and the wind speed (d).

216

#### 217 4. Discussion

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In this study, a 5km-resolution SD dataset in China from 2016-2023 has been established based on time series using Himawari imagery fitted with Ångström-Prescott model, which previous studies have not been conducted.

221

The time series-based Ångström-Prescott model was used to invert the SD in China, setting the coefficients of a and b to fixed values for the whole region at different DOYs. However, the suggested coefficients in this study are not comparable with the calibrated coefficients for other regions. Previous studies on the Ångström-Prescott model have confirmed that it is a reliable tool for estimating solar energy in practical applications, with no significant dependence of its accuracy on latitude (Paulescu et al., 2016). It has also been confirmed that the model's accuracy has a strong dependence on season

226



227 (Liu et al., 2023) according to the results of the present study (Figure 4-7), the cause of which can be  
228 attributed to differences in the length of day and night in different seasons. This work not only forms a  
229 more accurate evaluation standard for the level of radiation received on the ground, but also provides a  
230 better support for the estimation of surface short-wave radiation in the future by using the established  
231 Ångström-Prescott model, and more conventional meteorological stations will be established in the  
232 future to validate and improve the Ångström-Prescott model based on time-series. A fact that cannot be  
233 ignored is that the number of meteorological observation stations in southwestern China (especially in  
234 the Tibetan Plateau Region) is small and spatially distributed unevenly, and the snow in the plateau  
235 seriously affects the judgement of the reflectance data from the Himawari imagery, and we will consider  
236 the input of the land cover characteristics as the climatological data in the following to improve this poor  
237 performance.

238 The 0 SD accounts for a certain proportion of the data, and the Ångström-Prescott model still needs  
239 to be improved and optimized in determining this situation (Figure 7 c, d), which is presumed to be due  
240 to the low impact of cloudy and rainy days on the shortwave radiation observations, resulting in the low  
241 sensitivity of the shortwave bands to the SD estimation. Subsequently, the use of relevant physical  
242 precipitation models will be considered to simulate the precipitation process at different times of the day  
243 based on the radiometric data before proceeding to estimate SD.

244 In this study we found that temperature, moisture conditions, wind speed and atmospheric pollutants  
245 all have an effect on the SD estimation, with temperature having the greatest effect in temporal variation  
246 and wind speed having a stronger effect in spatial variation compared with AOD. However, we believe  
247 that the effects of these environmental factors are not independent, but are the result of interaction (Tang  
248 et al., 2022). In densely populated and economically developed areas (eastern and southern China), where  
249 pollutant levels are higher and increased wind speed accelerates their dispersion, this regulatory  
250 mechanism is enhanced with increasing pollutants (O'Dowd et al., 1993; Wang et al., 2014). An increase  
251 or decrease in wind speed affects the rate of diffusion of water vapor and pollutants in the air, which in  
252 turn affects atmospheric transparency and ultimately the SD estimation. However, the results of the effect  
253 of temperature on SD estimation in this study are not consistent with some previous studies (Tang et al.,  
254 2022; Feng et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2017), which suggests that the relationship between SD and  
255 temperature and relative humidity is complex and needs to be further determined in future studies.

## 256 **5. Data availability**



257 The SD dataset is freely accessible at <https://doi.org/10.57760/sciencedb.10276> (Zhang et al., 2024).

## 258 **6. Conclusion**

259 We have introduced a newly developed high-resolution dataset, which provides SD in China for the  
260 period 2016–2023. We calculated daily SD by Himawari Level 3 shortwave radiation fitted with the  
261 Ångström-Prescott model based on time series, and used ground-measured SD to evaluate the estimation  
262 performance. The validation of testing data from ground-measured SD gave favorable results, with R  
263 values greater than 0.5 and an average of 0.88 for all days in 2016 and 2023. We also found that  
264 temperature and wind speed dominate the Ångström-Prescott model estimating SD. A future direction  
265 for this study would be to divide the Chinese regions into suitable areas to independently estimate and  
266 synthesize a more accurate daily SD dataset in China.

267

268 **Author contributions.** ZZ and SF designed and organized the paper. ZZ and JH prepared the related  
269 materials and ran the dataset. ZZ evaluated the accuracy of the dataset. All authors discussed the results  
270 and commented on the paper.

271

272 **Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing  
273 interests.

274

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