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Re-construction of global solar radiation time series from 1933 to 2013 at the Izaña Atmospheric Observatory

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Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

Abstract

This paper presents the re-construction of the 80 year time series of daily global short-wave downward radiation (SDR) at the subtropical high-mountain Izaña Atmospheric Observatory (IZO, Spain). For this purpose, we combine SDR estimates from sunshine duration (SD) data using the Ångström–Prescott method over the 1933/1991 period, and SDR observations directly performed by pyranometers between 1992 and 2013. Since SDR measurements have been used as a reference, a strict quality control has been applied, when it was not possible data have been re-calibrated by using the LibRadtran model. By comparing to high quality SDR measurements, the precision and consistency over time of SDR estimations from SD data have successfully been documented. We obtain a overall root mean square error (RMSE) of 9.2 % and an agreement between the variances of SDR estimations and SDR measurements within 92 % (correlation coefficient of 0.96). Nonetheless, this agreement significantly increases when the SDR estimation is done considering different daily fractions of clear sky (FCS). In that case, RMSE is reduced by half, up to about 4.5 %, when considering percentages of FCS > 40 % (90 % of days in the testing period). Furthermore, we prove that the SDR estimations can monitor the SDR anomalies in consistency with SDR measurements and, then, can be suitable for re-constructing solar radiation time series. The re-constructed IZO global SDR time series between 1933 and 2013 confirms discontinuities and periods of increases/decreases of solar radiation at Earth's surface observed at a global scale, such as the early brightening, dimming and brightening. This fact supports the consistency of the IZO SDR time series presented in this work, which may be a reference for solar radiation studies in the subtropical North Atlantic region.

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



1 Introduction

Solar radiation controls the energy radiative balance in the Earth and, thus, our weather and climate. For this reason, its study has been one of the main objectives of the research community during the last decades. Recently, the focus is on evaluating the long-term trends of solar radiation reaching the Earth's surface (shortwave downward radiation, SDR) as well as on identifying the variability driven by climate change (Stanhill and Cohen, 2001; Sanroma et al., 2010; Wild, 2009). Observational evidences of changes on SDR trends have already been reported at a global scale. A decrease of the solar radiation at surface has been observed between the 1960s and the 1990s, effect known as *dimming*, with a general decline between 4 and 6% over 30 years considering worldwide distributed stations (e.g. Ohmura and Lang, 1989; Gilgen et al., 1998; Stanhill and Cohen, 2001; Liepert, 2002; Pinker et al., 2005; Wild et al., 2005; Wild, 2009). On the contrary, since the 1980s a partial recovery has been documented, with an increase of the solar radiation known as *brightening* (Wild et al., 2005, 2007, 2008, 2012; Gilgen et al., 2009). Trends between +1.0 and +10.7%/decade have been reported from the 1980s onwards (Wild, 2009, and references herein).

The causes of the *dimming/brightening* phenomena are not well understood yet (IPCC, 2007; Wild et al., 2012), but some authors link them to changes in the global cloud cover, on the atmospheric aerosol content (natural or anthropogenic), and on the interplay of direct and indirect aerosol effects (Stanhill and Cohen, 2001; Ramanathan et al., 2001; Wild et al., 2005; Wild, 2009). The relative importance of these factors may differ depending on region and pollution level (Wild, 2009). In this context, some authors point out that the *dimming* may only be a local effect, associated with urban environments (e.g. Alpert and Kishcha, 2008), or that tendencies over land and over ocean can differ in sign and in magnitude (e.g. Pinker et al., 2005). For a better understanding of these global effects and reduce the uncertainties that still remain, long-term SDR time series in regions representative of background signals are fundamental.

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Reliable solar radiation studies need of high-quality, long-term and worldwide distributed SDR measurements. Although the SDR instruments exist since the 1920s, regular and coordinated SDR observations are not well established until the 1950s within the framework of the International Geophysical Year (IGY) (Nicolet, 1982). In order to complete gaps in these SDR time series, to correct erroneous records, or to extend them over time, SDR estimations from other climate variables, such as sunshine duration (onwards, SD), cloud cover or visibility, are very valuable. For this purpose, the most extended approach is to estimate the global SDR from SD data (Iziomon and Mayer, 2002; Sivamadhavi and Selvaraj, 2012), since it combines long-term records available (SD measurements started in the 19th century, Butler and Hoskin, 1987; Pallé and Butler, 2001), simplicity and reliable results. The relation between SD and global SDR observations have been described by using several mathematical relations, including linear, the so-called Ångström–Prescott relation (Ångstrom, 1924; Prescott, 1940), cubic (Samuel, 1991), logarithmic (Ampratwum and Dorvlo, 1999) and exponential (Almorox and Hontoria, 2004) relations. In all of these equations, a set of coefficients are calculated in a simultaneous period of SD and global SDR measurements. The comparison of the aforementioned approaches conclude that the use of complex relations instead of the simple linear relation proposed by Ångström–Prescott does not significant improve the global SDR estimates (Almorox and Hontoria, 2004; Yorukoglu and Celik, 2006).

In this context, the goal of this work is to re-construct the time series of the global SDR between 1933 and 2013 at the Izaña Atmospheric Observatory (IZO), representative of subtropical North Atlantic free troposphere, by using the Ångström–Prescott method on SD measurements (1933/1991), and SDR observations performed by pyranometers (1992/2013). For this purpose, this work is divided in six sections. Section 2 describes the different instruments and measurements used (radiation and SD data) as well as the main characteristics of IZO. Section 3 shows the re-calibration of measured global SDR at IZO between 1992 and 2005, when no strict quality controls were applied on SDR measurements, by using the LibRadtran model. Section 4 explains

to Eq. (1):

$$H_d = \int_{sr}^{ss} I(t) \cdot dt \quad (1)$$

where $I(t)$ is the instantaneous values of the solar irradiance (Wm^{-2}) and the time (t) is computed from sunrise (sr) to sunset (ss), every 1 min.

There are short gaps in the long-term SDR time series at IZO. To complete these time intervals, we have used the SDR measurements taken at the Teide Observatory (OT, <http://www.iac.es>) managed by the Instituto de Astrofísica de Canarias (IAC). OT is only 1.3 km far away from IZO and at same altitude ($28.3^\circ N$, $16.5^\circ W$, 2371 m a.s.l.). The global SDR measurements at OT were performed with a Silicon Cell Pyranometer (SCP, Model 3120), with an expected uncertainty of $\pm 3\%$ for daily values (see <http://www.allweatherinc.com/>). The periods in which we used these measurements were April 2000–August 2000, January 2001–July 2002 and September 2003–July 2005. Nonetheless, a difference $< 0.5\%$ between the global SDR in the range 250–1500 nm and in the range 310–2800 nm are observed.

2.2 Radiation transfer model and input parameters

LibRadtran model is a complete free software package containing a suite of tools for radiative transfer calculations in the Earth's atmosphere (freely available from <http://www.libradtran.org>) (Mayer and Kylling, 2005).

The global and direct SDR estimations were computed as described in García et al. (2014). The radiative transfer calculation is addressed by a multi-stream discrete ordinates algorithm (Stamnes et al., 1988) (DISORT for $SZA \leq 70^\circ$ and SDISORT for $SZA > 70^\circ$) and the input model parameters (atmosphere gas composition, surface albedo, aerosol optical properties, ...) are directly measured at IZO.

The most significant changes with regard to García et al. (2014) are related to aerosol optical depth (AOD) and total precipitable water vapour (PWV) observations.

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

SD from the length of the burn when the card is removed from the instrument at the end of the day (Painter, 1981; WMO, 1996; Sanchez-Lorenzo et al., 2013). During the last years, this traditional sunshine recorder has been replaced by electronic devices. At IARC, the CS instrument was replaced by a Kipp and Zonen Sunshine Duration Sensor (CSD) in 2001, which operates until now. This instrument is formed by three detectors that cover part of sky, one detects all the direct and diffuse solar radiation, while the other two detectors only cover 1/3 of the sky (Kipp and Zonen, 2003).

The CS presents several disadvantages against CSD record, being the most important ones: (1) the instrument must be operated manually and a new card strip mounted every morning before sunrise, (2) the card strip responds in a different manner to solar irradiance whether the ambient air is humid or dry, (3) the burning of band are not well defined at sunrise and sunset, (4) different operators reading the same cards may get very different totals. As a consequence, Massen (2011) found the CS measurements suggest a systematic overestimation of sunshine hours by up to $\pm 10\%$ over a 11 year period.

Although the CSD measurements will not be used in the re-construction of global SDR time series, this work provides an excellent opportunity for documenting their quality and robustness for this kind of studies. For this reason, we present similar analysis and discussion for the two SD recorders.

In order to document the precision of the IZO SD measurements as observed by the two SD instruments, we have compared these measurements to those obtained from direct SDR data when exceed a threshold value of 120 W m^{-2} . As direct SDR measurements are not available during the CS time series, we have simulated them with the LibRadtran model (see Sect. 2.2 for details about the model and its inputs) for all the cloud-free days between 1997–1999 for CS and 2006–2008 for CSD. Notice that these periods have been selected throughout this work as testing periods (see Sect. 4.1). The comparison shows a good agreement between both datasets (see Fig. 1), obtaining correlation coefficients, RMSE and SEM (standard error of the mean) of 0.95, 0.52 MJ m^{-2} (4.8 %) and 0.06 MJ m^{-2} (0.53 %) respectively, for CS, and 0.99,

of hours measured by the SD recorder and the maximum daily SD, respectively, and a and b are coefficients to be determined by using regression fit.

The value of H_0 is calculated as:

$$H_0 = \frac{24}{\pi} I_{sc} E_o [\omega_s (\sin \delta \sin \phi) + (\cos \delta \cos \phi \sin \omega_s)] \quad (3)$$

where I_{sc} is solar constant (1367 W m^{-2} , Frohlich and Brusa, 1981), E_o is the eccentricity correction factor of the Earth's orbit (Eq. 4), ω_s is sunrise hour angle, δ is solar declination (Eq. 5) and ϕ is the geographic latitude.

$$E_o = 1 + 0.033 \cos[2\pi d_n / 365] \quad (4)$$

where d_n is the day number of the year.

$$\begin{aligned} \delta = & (0.006918 - 0.399912 \cos \eta + 0.070257 \sin \eta \\ & - 0.006758 \cos 2\eta + 0.000907 \sin 2\eta - 0.002697 \cos 3\eta \\ & + 0.000148 \sin 3\eta)(180/\pi) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where η is called the day angle and is represented by:

$$\eta = 2\pi(d_n - 1)/365 \quad (6)$$

In addition to meteorological variables (temperature, humidity ...), the SD mainly depends on the fraction of clear sky (FCS, see Fig. 3). The FCS, defined by Eq. (7), accounts for reductions of SD due to clouds and aerosols ((mainly mineral dust particles at IZO (Rodríguez et al., 2011; O. E. García et al., 2012)). In Fig. 3a five regions (in intervals of 20 %) can clearly be distinguished, with a very low overlapping among them. Similar stratification is observed in the measured global SDR time series (Fig. 3b). Therefore, the subsequent estimation of global SDR from SD records, by

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page	
Abstract	Introduction
Conclusions	References
Tables	Figures
◀	▶
◀	▶
Back	Close
Full Screen / Esc	
Printer-friendly Version	
Interactive Discussion	



Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

Table 4). However, when considering FCS values $> 40\%$, where $\sim 90\%$ of days are concentrated, the RMSE values are limited to 3.0% and 4.5% for the CSD and CS, respectively. These values perfectly agree with our theoretical error estimation and are comparable to previous studies. Several authors reported RMSE of 1.26 MJ m^{-2} in the city of Toledo, Spain (Almorox et al., 2005), between 1.49 and 1.65 MJ m^{-2} , in Ankara, Turkey (Yorukoglu and Celik, 2006), and between 1.39 and 3.08 MJ m^{-2} in 31 sites around China, between the observed global SDR and the estimated ones using Ångström–Prescott method.

4.2 Long-term consistency of SDR estimations

In order to reliably use our global SDR estimations from SD recorders for solar radiation trends studies, it is indispensable to document their homogeneity and long-term stability. To do so, we examine possible drifts and discontinuities in the times series of the differences between the SDR estimations and measurements in the common period (1992/2013). We defined a drift as the linear trend of the annual mean bias (estimations – measurements), while the change-points (changes in the median of the bias time series) are analysed by using a robust rank order change-point test (Lanzante, 1996). Note we have applied the Ångström–Prescott's coefficients obtained by separating the periods of SD records between 1992/2000 (CS) and 2001/2013 (CSD).

The straightforward comparison between the annual mean anomalies reveals a rather consistent agreement (correlation coefficient of 0.86 , Fig. 6a), which is translated into the bias time series. Thus, we observe that the bias time series is homogeneous (i.e. no change points were identified) as well as there is no significant drift (linear trend is $+0.03 \pm 0.05 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$) at 99% confidence level. Furthermore, no significant autocorrelation of the bias time series with itself was detected. These findings document that the SDR estimations are consistent over time with SDR measurements and, then, they are valid for re-constructing the global SDR time series and for trends studies.

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

dimming period and from the dimming period. This delay is generally observed throughout the whole anomalies time series and may be partly attributed to free troposphere conditions of IZO. Note that between 1933 and 1953 the cloudy and cloud-free anomalies time series show opposite trends, with an anti-correlation of $\sim 25\%$ (Fig. 7).

2. *Dimming*: from the 1950s to the ending of the 1990s a gradual decrease of SDR is observed, which is in accordance with the widespread period of reduced solar radiation at a global scale, extensively reported by the literature in the second half of the 20th century and known as the *dimming* (Stjern et al., 2009; Gilgen et al., 1998; Stanhill and Cohen, 2001; Wild et al., 2005; Ohmura, 2006; Wild, 2009).
3. *Brightening*: from the ending of the 1990s onwards, we document the partial recovery of SDR measurements, *brightening*, also reported at many globally distributed locations (Wild et al., 2005, 2008; Wild, 2009). The *dimming/brightening* phenomena have consistently been detected both under cloudy and also under cloud-free conditions, as shown in Fig. 7. This fact points out that the dimming and brightening phenomena might be associated with, among others, changes on atmospheric aerosols concentrations due to anthropogenic activities (Wild, 2009, and references herein). In accordance with previous studies, significant signatures of these events are not well recognized on global SDR anomalies time series (Ohmura, 2006; Wild, 2009). Note the cloudy and cloud-free anomalies time series show an acceptable agreement from the 1960s onwards, with a positive and significant correlation of $\sim 50\%$.

6 Summary and conclusions

The global SDR times series between 1933 and 2013 has been successfully re-constructed combining SDR estimates from SD measurements (1933/1991) using the

Ångström–Prescott method and SDR observations performed by different pyranometers (1992/2013) at IZO.

The quality of the SDR and SD databases have been assessed. Since 2005, the global SDR measurements taken at IZO are under strict quality controls in the framework of the CNR and BSRN networks. Nonetheless, before 2005, the re-calibration of the SDR measurements was needed. This re-calibration was made with the LibRadtran model, obtaining differences $< 7\%$ between the original and the re-evaluated calibration.

The SD measurements taken by Campbell–Stokes recorders (CS) between 1993 and 2000 and by Sunshine Duration Sensor recorders (CSD) between 2001 and 2013 were also validated against the LibRadtran model direct SDR simulations for cloud-free days. There is a good agreement between both datasets, with a RMSE of 0.52 MJ m^{-2} (4.8 %) for CS and 0.26 MJ m^{-2} (2.3 %) for CSD. Propagating these errors to SDR estimations from SD records, an expected precision of 4.0 % and 2.7 % for CS and CSD, respectively, have been found. By comparing with global SDR, we obtain a precision, given by the RMSE, of 2.16 MJ m^{-2} (9.2 %) for the CS and 1.33 MJ m^{-2} (5.5 %) for the CSD. Although the CSD observations were not used to re-construct the IZO global SDR time series, this study provides an excellent opportunity for documenting their quality and examining the dependence of the Ångström–Prescott method on the SD instruments. The consistency over time series of the SDR estimations has been documented by comparing these to SDR measurements on a 20 years period (1992/2013), obtaining that the bias time series is homogeneous as well as there is not present significant drift.

The resulting annual time series SDR confirms a period of *early brightening* from the 1930s to the early 1950s, a period of *dimming* from the 1950s to the ending of the 1990s followed by a period of *brightening* in the most recent decades. All of these findings demonstrate the consistency of the IZO SDR time series presented in this work, which may be a reference for solar radiation studies in the Subtropical North Atlantic Region. Future works will analyze in depth the long-term trends and their interplay

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



with variations of the solar constant, the cloud cover, and the atmospheric aerosols concentrations. The joint analysis with dust AOD is critical in our region since dust intrusions, which undergo interannual and decadal variations, modulate AOD and hence solar radiation.

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Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

- García, R. D., García, O. E., Cuevas, E., Cachorro, V. E., Romero-Campos, P. M., Ramos, R., and de Frutos, A. M.: Solar radiation measurements compared to simulations at the BSRN Izaña station, mineral dust radiative forcing and efficiency study, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 119, 179–194, doi:10.1002/2013JD020301, 2014. 4197, 4200
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**Re-construction of
global solar radiation
time series at Izaña
station**

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

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Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

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**Re-construction of
global solar radiation
time series at Izaña
station**

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

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Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

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Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Table 2. Calibration of the different pyranometers installed at IZO and OT between 1992 and 2005.

Time	Instrument (Station)	Original calibration*	Re-evaluated calibration Mean \pm Std*
Jan 1992–Jun 1999	CM-5 (IZO)	95.42	93.02 \pm 4.65
Jul 1999–Aug 2003	CM-11 (IZO)	193.05	195.05 \pm 6.61
Apr 2000–Aug 2000	SCP (OT)	73.50	75.29 \pm 1.04
Jan 2001–Jul 2002			
Sep 2003–Jul 2005			

* $\text{Wm}^{-2} \text{mV}^{-1}$.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Table 4. Statistics for the differences between simulations and measurements at IZO (in MJm^{-2}) between 1997 and 1999 (Campbell–Stokes Recorder, CS) and between 2006 and 2008 (Sunshine Duration Sensor, CSD) according to seasons and the fraction of clear sky (FCS). (RMSE: Root Mean Square Error; R : correlation coefficient. The statistics for the relative bias are in brackets (%)).

SEASONS	CS: 1997/1999				CSD: 2006/2008			
	Median	RMSE	R	% days	Median	RMSE	R	% days
DJF	0.43	2.06 (6.4 %)	0.91	23	−0.26	1.52 (4.6 %)	0.95	24
MAM	−0.14	2.71 (5.3 %)	0.91	26	−0.34	1.41 (2.5 %)	0.97	25
JJA	0.27	1.87 (3.1 %)	0.85	27	0.20	0.92 (1.5 %)	0.96	25
SON	0.61	1.84 (4.6 %)	0.95	25	0.49	1.38 (3.6 %)	0.98	26
FCS (%)	Median	RMSE	R	% days	Median	RMSE	R	% days
≤ 20	1.09	4.19 (12.1 %)	0.51	8	−0.41	2.63 (6.8 %)	0.59	5
20–40	0.84	3.33 (4.9 %)	0.69	4	−0.34	1.92 (3.5 %)	0.78	5
40–60	0.96	2.54 (3.6 %)	0.83	6	0.06	1.74 (2.8 %)	0.89	7
60–80	0.35	1.81 (4.2 %)	0.92	23	−0.18	1.84 (3.1 %)	0.93	12
≥ 80	0.17	1.65 (4.5 %)	0.96	59	0.04	0.93 (2.9 %)	0.99	71
Total	0.27	2.16 (9.2 %)	0.96	–	0.02	1.33 (5.5 %)	0.99	–

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

Table 5. Coefficients a and b between 1992 and 2000 (Campbell–Stokes Recorder, CS) at IZO as a function of the fraction of clear sky values (FCS). SEM as standard error of the mean.

FCS (%)	$a \pm \text{SEM}$	$b \pm \text{SEM}$	% days
≤ 20	0.304 ± 0.120	0.347 ± 0.012	9
20–40	0.449 ± 0.144	0.348 ± 0.050	5
40–60	0.516 ± 0.085	0.325 ± 0.048	8
60–80	0.402 ± 0.041	0.399 ± 0.033	23
≥ 80	0.475 ± 0.039	0.339 ± 0.038	55

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

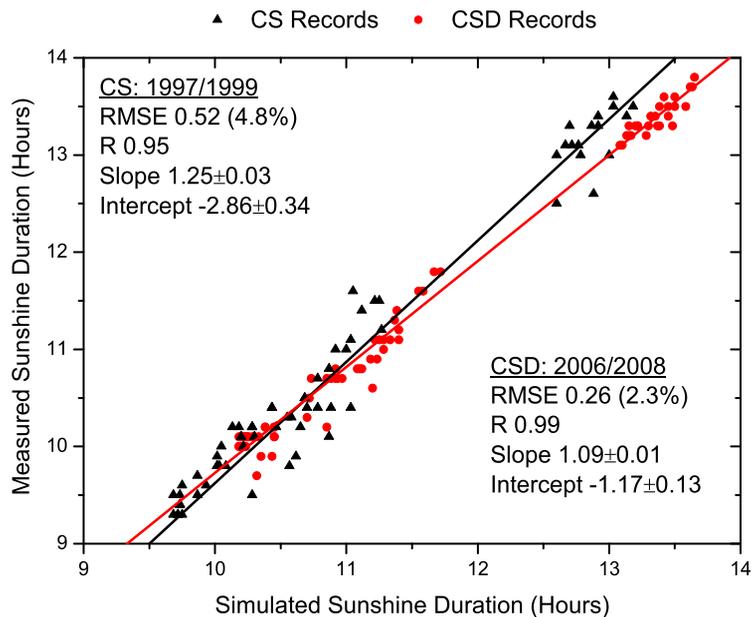


Fig. 1. Scatterplot of the measured SD from CS (black triangles) and CSD (gray dots) instruments vs. SD obtained from LibRadtran model when direct SDR exceeds a threshold value of 120 W m^{-2} . The root mean square error (RMSE), and least-square fit parameters are shown in the legend.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

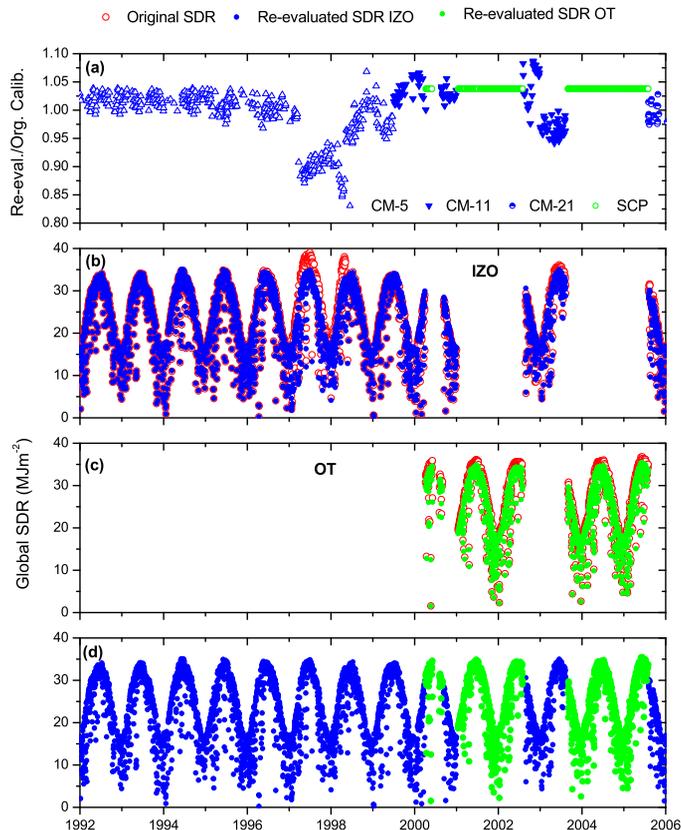


Fig. 2. (a) Evolution of ratio between the re-evaluated calibration and the original calibration for the different pyranometers installed at IZO (blue squares) and at OT (green squares). (b), (c) and (d) time series of the daily global SDR (MJm^{-2}) from 1992 to 2005 at IZO, at OT, and the whole re-calibrated time series, respectively (red squares represent original SDR, blue squares represent re-evaluated SDR at IZO and green squares represent re-evaluated SDR at OT).

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

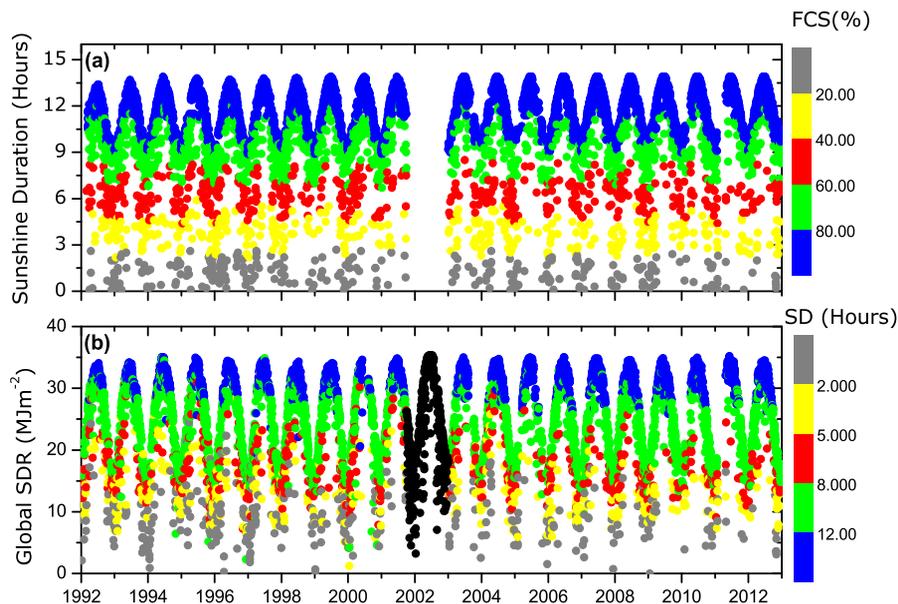


Fig. 3. Time series of (a) the sunshine duration (hours). The color scale indicates the fraction of clear sky values (FCS, %) (b) the global SDR from 1992 to 2013 at IZ0. The color scale indicates the sunshine duration (hours).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

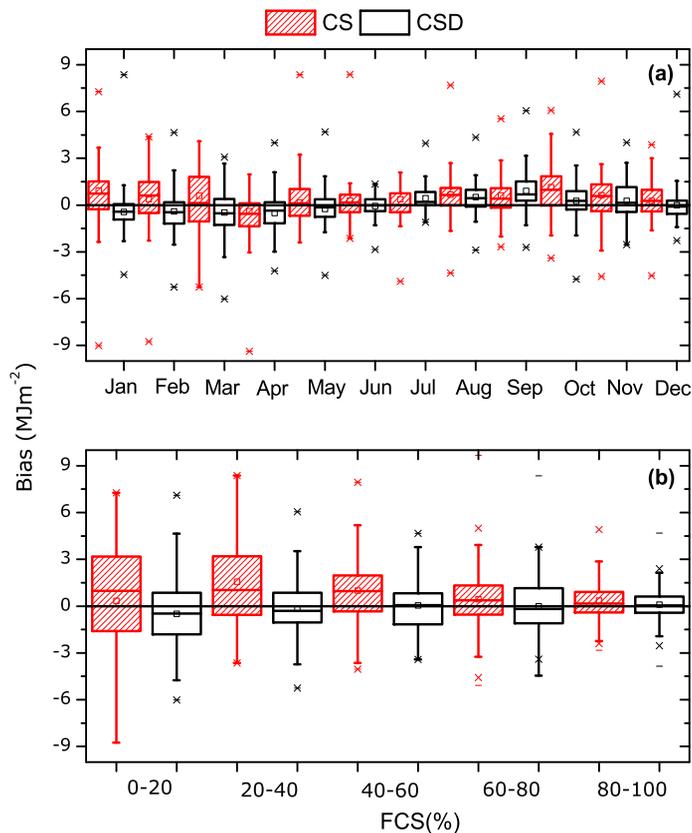


Fig. 4. Box plot of bias (MJm^{-2}) vs. **(a)** months from 1997 to 1999 (Campbell–Stokes Recorder, CS) and between 2006 and 2008 (Sunshine Duration Sensor, CSD) and **(b)** fraction of clear sky values (FCS) at IZO. Lower and upper boundaries for each box are the 25 and 75 percentiles, the solid line is the median value, the crosses indicate values out of the 1.5 fold box area (outliers).

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

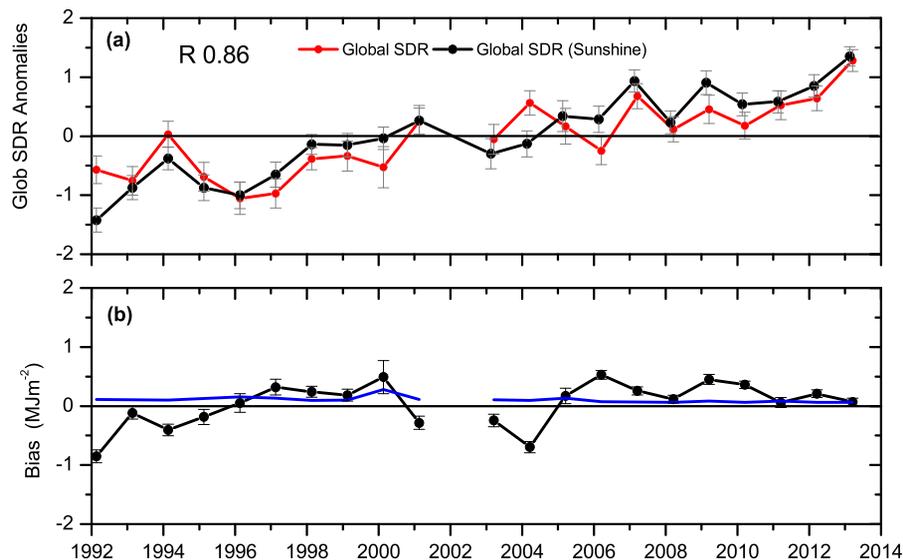


Fig. 5. Times series of annual means of **(a)** the deseasonalized anomalies of global SDR estimations (black line) and measurements (red line) and **(b)** difference between global SDR anomalies estimations and measurements (MJm^{-2}) from 1992 to 2013 at IZO. The blue solid line represent the linear trend and the error bars indicate ± 1 SEM (standard error of the annual means).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

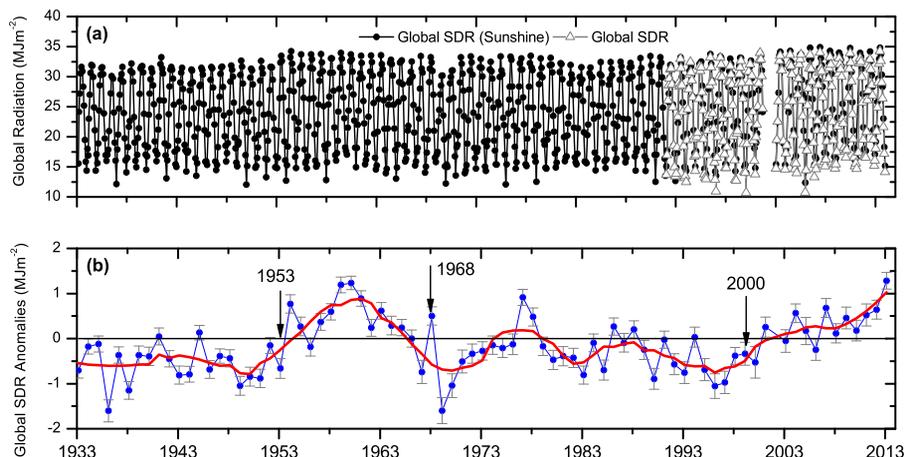


Fig. 6. Time series of the **(a)** monthly means of the global SDR (MJm^{-2}). The black dots represent the global SDR obtained from SD data and the gray triangles represent the global SDR measured between 1992 and 2013 **(b)** annual means of the global SDR anomalies. The arrows indicate the change-point dates. The error bars indicate ± 1 SEM (standard error of the mean). Five-year moving average is shown in red.

Re-construction of global solar radiation time series at Izaña station

R. D. García et al.

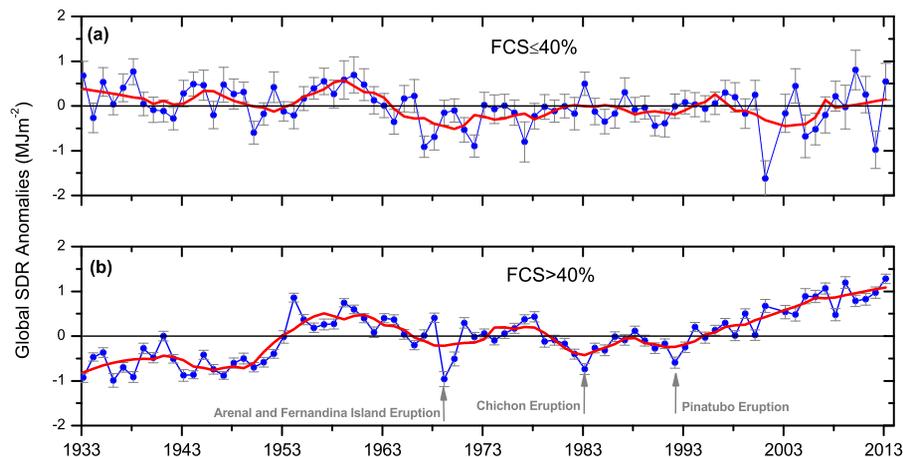


Fig. 7. Time series of the annual means of the global SDR anomalies as a function of **(a)** $FCS \leq 40\%$ (cloud conditions; 13 % days) and **(b)** $FCS > 40\%$ (cloud-free conditions; 87 % days) from 1933 to 2013 at IZO. The error bars indicate ± 1 SEM (standard error of the mean). Five-year moving average is shown in red. The arrows indicate the eruptions: Arenal and Fernandina Island (1968), Chinchón (1982) and Pinatubo (1991).