1	Estimation and long-term trend analysis of surface solar radiation in Antarctica:
2	A case study of Zhongshan Station
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ABSTRACT

Long-term, ground-based daily global solar radiation (DGSR) at Zhongshan 32 33 Station in Antarctica can quantitatively reveal the basic characteristics of Earth's surface radiation balance and validate satellite data for the Antarctic region. The fixed 34 station was established in 1989 and conventional radiation observations started much 35 later in 2008. In this study, a random forest (RF) model for estimating DGSR was 36 developed using ground meteorological observation data, and a high-precision, 37 long-term DGSR dataset was constructed. Then, the trend of DGSR from 1990 to 38 39 2019 at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica, was analyzed. The RF model, which performs 40 better than other models, shows a desirable performance of DGSR hindcast estimation with an R² of 0.984, root-mean-square error of 1.377 MJ/m², and mean absolute error 41 of 0.828 MJ/m². The trend of DGSR annual anomalies increased during 1990-2004 42 and then began to decrease after 2004. Note that the maximum value of annual 43 anomalies occurred during approximately 2004/05 and is mainly related to the days 44 with precipitation (especially those related to good weather during the polar day 45 period) at this station. In addition to clouds and water vapor, bad weather conditions 46 (such as snowfall, which can result in low visibility and then decreased sunshine 47 duration and solar radiation) were the other major factors affecting solar radiation at 48 this station. The high-precision, long-term estimated DGSR dataset enables us to 49 further study and understand the role of Antarctica in global climate change and the 50 interactions between snow, ice and atmosphere. 51

52 Keywords: meteorological variables, RF model, estimated historical DGSR,

- 53 long-term trend analysis
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- 56 Article Highlights:
- A thirty-year DGSR dataset, which was produced by combining in situ meteorological observation records with a random forest model, is presented.
- Among the considered models, the RF model shows the best performance for
 estimating historical DGSR with an R² of 0.984, root-mean-square error of 1.377
- MJ/m^2 , and mean absolute error of 0.828 MJ/m^2 .
- The long-term DGSR trend generally increased during 1990-2004 and then began
 to decrease after 2004 at Zhongshan Station.
- In addition to clouds and water vapor, abnormal weather in Antarctica (such as
 fog, blowing snow and snowstorms) was also a major factor affecting solar
 radiation.
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68 **1. Introduction**

Daily global solar radiation (DGSR, which includes direct and scattered radiation 69 and refers to the total amount of downward shortwave radiation received by the 70 surface each day) is the ultimate source of energy on Earth (Wild, 2009; Wild et al., 71 2005). Spatiotemporal variations in DGSR determine the climates and environments 72 on the Earth's surface and drive the water, heat and carbon cycles of the Earth system 73 (Che et al., 2005; Wang and Wild, 2016). Polar regions play a vital role in the Earth's 74 surface radiation balance and climate system because there are many important, 75 complex and interacting feedback mechanisms that closely bind the surfaces of polar 76 regions to the global climate system (Bintania, 1995; Braun and Hock, 2004; Park et 77 al., 2013; Soares et al., 2019; Stanhill and Cohen, 1997). As a result, solar radiation 78 observations and related research in the Antarctic region have received increasing 79 attention (Choi et al., 2019; Ding et al., 2020; Garbe et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). 80 To date, various types of data have been used to study the radiation balance in 81 Antarctica, including reanalysis data, satellite data, and ground station data (Ding et 82 al., 2020; Scott et al., 2017; Stanhill and Cohen, 1997; Yang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 83 2016). Scott et al. (2017) used the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System 84 (CERES) and CALIPSO-CloudSat-CERES-MODIS datasets to study the seasonal 85 changes and spatial distribution of solar net radiation and cloud radiative forcing in 86 87 southwestern Antarctica from only 2007 to 2010. Zhang et al. (2016) verified the DGSR of six reanalysis datasets by using surface stations around the Antarctic 88 continent and the given deviation value of each reanalysis product. However, 89

satellite-based and reanalysis-based radiation products often face the problem of 90 deviation between the products and trusted ground observations (Jaross and Warner, 91 92 2008). Stanhill and Cohen (1997) summarized solar radiation measurements across Antarctica (from 12 stations containing 2 to 36 years of data) since 1957. However, 93 the data from most stations used in the above study were very short-term and 94 nonhomogeneous, and it is difficult to gain a full understanding of the long-term 95 characteristics of DGSR in Antarctica (Lacelle et al., 2016; Stanhill and Cohen, 96 1997). In addition, ground-based DGSR observation sites are rare because the special 97 98 geographical location and harsh natural environment of Antarctica seriously hinder the study of surface radiation balance (Aun et al., 2020). 99

In fact, beyond Antarctica, DGSR observation sites are similarly sparse and 100 101 uneven across the world due to various problems, such as expensive instruments (He et al., 2018; He and Wang, 2020; Tang et al., 2013, 2011). However, meteorological 102 variables (especially sunshine duration) interact with DGSR, and the number of 103 conventional meteorological observation stations is greater than that of solar radiation 104 stations (Tang et al., 2010; Zeng et al., 2020). Therefore, to obtain long-term, 105 high-density, ground-based solar radiation products, many studies have estimated 106 DGSR from conventional surface meteorological observations using traditional 107 empirical formulas, physical models and machine learning methods (Chen et al., 108 2013; Huang et al., 2011; Jiang, 2009; Qin et al., 2011; Tang et al., 2018, 2013; Wang 109 et al., 2016). However, these methods have rarely been used in the Antarctic. 110

111 The Chinese Antarctic Zhongshan Station (69°22'24.76"S, 76°22'14.28"E) is

located on the southeast coast of Pritzker Bay in the Lasman Hills of East Antarctica 112 (Figure 1a) (Ai et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020). Its meteorological observation field is 113 15 m above sea level and approximately 300 m from the nearest coast (Dou et al., 114 2019; Yu et al., 2017). The local circulation (including valley breezes, land and sea 115 116 breezes, and katabatic winds) is complicated due to the multifarious landforms and special geographical location. The climate at the station is characterized by low 117 temperature, large temperature difference between winter and summer, low humidity 118 and strong wind; it has the obvious characteristics of an Antarctic continental climate 119 (Yu et al., 2017). Furthermore, as the station is located in front of the Antarctic inland 120 ice sheet, katabatic winds are very obvious, so the DGSR in this area is affected by 121 many factors (Ding et al., 2019). Note that the station was established in 1989, but the 122 DGSR observations began in 2008. Therefore, we aimed to address the lack of 123 radiation data and improve the understanding of Antarctic radiation and its response 124 to global climate change. This study takes the Chinese Zhongshan Station in 125 Antarctica as an example. Based on conventional ground meteorological observations 126 and existing ground radiation observation data, DGSR is estimated using the optimal 127 machine learning method, and then a long-term (~32 year) radiation dataset is 128 obtained. The long-term trend of DGSR and the effects of clouds, water vapor, and 129 visibility on DGSR were also analyzed in this study. 130

131 **2. Data and methods**

132 **2.1 Meteorological observation data**

Meteorological observations began in March 1989, and so far, 32 years of 133 conventional ground meteorological observation data have been accumulated at 134 Zhongshan Station, Antarctica. To ensure the accuracy and quality of observation 135 data, the observation instruments and methods and the accuracy of the ground 136 observation system have been operated in accordance with the ground meteorological 137 observation standards of the China Meteorological Administration [Ground 138 meteorological Observation Standards of China Meteorological Administration]. 139 Before February 2002, instrumental observations were recorded manually four times 140 per day (except sunshine duration, which was recorded hourly) at Zhongshan Station; 141 after February 2002, the observation mode changed to an hourly wired telemetry 142 143 automatic observation system. For more information on the meteorological variables and current sensor types, please see Table 1. All the sensor sampling intervals were 144 changed to 1-min intervals, and the observation data were recorded 24 hours per day. 145 During the instrument replacement period, parallel observations were performed for at 146 least three months. After filtering the abnormal values, homogenization and quality 147 control were also performed by the China Meteorological Administration. Then, the 148 149 quality controlled and homogeneous observation data were used for data processing and model construction. 150

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Previous work aims to establish a virtual network of DGSR datasets using the

random forest (RF) model and high-density ground meteorological observations at 152 ~2400 sites across China (Zeng et al., 2020). Due to the spatiotemporal heterogeneity 153 154 of DGSR, dummy variables including day of year (DOY), latitude, longitude and altitude at all paired stations were also used as input variables in the prediction model. 155 156 We used the RF model (as the optimal model) and calculated the relative importance of the variables in this study. This study aimed to construct a high-precision, 157 long-term DGSR dataset for Zhongshan Station, Antarctica. Some dummy variables 158 (latitude, longitude and altitude) and some meteorological variables (e.g., land surface 159 temperature, due to the lack of observations at this station) were not used in this 160 study. As suggested by previous studies (Wang et al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2020), 161 meteorological elements that are highly associated with DGSR were selected as the 162 input variables for the machine learning model. These variables include surface 163 pressure (SP), relative humidity (RH), temperature (Tem), wind speed (WS), and 164 sunshine duration (SSD) (corresponding short and full names are shown in Table 1). 165 The dummy variables (i.e., DOY and month) are also used as input variables in the 166 prediction model (similar to Zeng et al. (2020)). DGSR is affected by cloud cover, 167 water vapor, and aerosols before reaching the surface (Che et al., 2005). However, 168 aerosols over the Antarctic are relatively low, so they will not be discussed in this 169 study. In addition, bad weather events (fog, snowfall, blowing snow and snowstorms) 170 with low visibility are frequent at Zhongshan Station and also affect the DGSR. To 171 further analyze the potential causal factors of the DGSR variations, ground vapor 172 pressure (e, which is calculated by temperature and air pressure and represents water 173

vapor content), cloud cover (CF), low cloud cover (LCF) and visibility (Vis) data are
also used in this study (CF, LCF and Vis data were collected by manual visual
observation).

Solar radiation observations started relatively late (March 2008) at Zhongshan 177 Station, although short-term observations and research projects of solar radiation were 178 performed during the periods of January-February 1990 (Wang and Xiong, 1991) and 179 February 1993 to December 1994 (Bian et al., 1998). The solar radiation dataset for 180 2008 to 2020 was first used in this study. The observation site is located in the 181 meteorological field north of the station (as shown in Figure 1b), where the surface is 182 exposed rock from November to February, and there is snow for a short time in other 183 periods, although there is usually almost no snow. A TBQ-2-B pyranometer (Figure 184 1c) was used to measure global solar radiation with a wavelength range of 0.3 to 3 μ m 185 and a resolution of hours at this station. The measured signal range of the TBQ-2-B 186 pyranometer is 0-2000 W/m^2 , the output signal is 0-20 mV, and the annual stability is 187 $\pm 2\%$. To ensure the accuracy of observation data, the TBQ-2-B pyranometer passed 188 the verification and calibration of the China Meteorological Administration before 189 installation. 190

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192 **2.2 Model development**

193 **2.2.1 Data processing and time matching**

194 The meteorological observation data with a data quality code of 0 (passing all

quality control checks) were extracted and time matched. The meteorological data 195 observed at 00, 06, 12, and 18 hours (UTC) each day were then averaged to obtain the 196 197 daily mean values. The DGSR and SSD were obtained as the sums of 24 hours per day. The final available data include conventional meteorological data from March 198 199 1989 to March 2020 and radiation observations from March 2008 to March 2020. Figure 3 shows the statistical properties (minimum, maximum, mean, and standard 200 deviation) of the variables used for model training, testing and hindcast estimation at 201 Zhongshan Station during 2010-2020. The DGSR (SSD) ranges from 0 (0) to 36.27 202 MJ/m^2 (21.70 hours), and the annual average value is 10.04 MJ/m^2 (4.83 hours). The 203 annual average SP, Tem, RH, and WS are 985.08 hPa, -10.16 °C, 56.90%, and 6.49 204 0 m/s, respectively. 205

206 2.2.2 Model building

We evaluated the performances of machine learning models for estimating DGSR at 207 Zhongshan Station, including RF (Chen et al., 2018), Light Gradient Boosting 208 Machine (LightGBM) (Chen et al., 2019; Ke et al., 2017), decision tree (DT) 209 (Quinlan, 1986), back propagation neural network (BPNN) (Wen et al., 2002), 210 eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) (Zelterman, 2015), support vector machine 211 (SVM) (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995), multiple linear regression (MLR) (Zelterman, 212 2015) and Adaptive Boosting (AdaBoost) (Wang, 2012) models. The RF model is a 213 214 widely used machine learning model that has a highly flexible algorithm and the capacity to analyze complex interactions of data classifications with noise or missing 215 values (Chen et al., 2018). The RF model has also been used as a variable selection 216 tool to select the input variables for a final model (Zeng et al., 2020). The RF model 217 uses a bagging method to produce the training dataset. The out-of-the-bag (out-of-bag, 218 OOB) data were used to evaluate the veracity of the regression predicted by the RF 219

model. OOB estimation was an unbiased estimation when the number of trees was 220 sufficient. In common statistical methods, overfitting occurs frequently when the 221 methods have high degrees of freedom. In contrast to other models (e.g., the BPNN 222 and SVM models), the RF model is an ensemble of random trees and basically has no 223 issue of overfitting. LightGBM is a gradient promotion framework based on decision 224 trees and can model complex nonlinear functions. LightGBM has the advantages of 225 distributed and high performance in sorting, classification, and regression (Chen et al., 226 227 2019). The DT is a common and extensively researched solution to classification and prediction (Quinlan, 1986). The BPNN is a multilayer feedforward neural network 228 based on a mathematical technique named Bayesian regularization to convert 229 nonlinear regression into "well-posed" problems (Wen et al., 2002). The BPNN is 230 composed of three layers: an input layer (first layer), hidden layer (middle layer), and 231 output layer (last layer). XGBoost is a boosting algorithm with high performance for 232 various regression and classification issues. The XGBoost method requires less 233 training and time for prediction and can improve computing speed and accuracy (Gui 234 et al., 2020). The SVM was developed by Vapnik-Chervonenkis dimension theory 235 and structural analysis of the minimum risk principle. The SVM exhibits a unique 236 advantage in dealing with small-sample problems, nonlinear cases, 237 and high-dimensional pattern recognition problems by its kernel functions (Cortes and 238 Vapnik, 1995). MLR is the regression analysis involving two or more independent 239 variables. The MLR model can intuitively and quickly analyze correlations between 240 multiple variables and dependent variables (Zelterman, 2015). Hence, MLR has been 241 widely used in social science, economics, and technology. AdaBoost is an excellent 242 243 boosting algorithm that combines multiple weak classifiers into a strong classifier. The main purpose of AdaBoost is to train different learning devices on the same 244 training set and then combine these devices to construct a stronger final learning 245 246 device (Wang, 2012).

The model with the best estimated performance will be the final model in this study. As in previous work (Zeng, et al., 2020), to obtain the optimal machine learning model, the results of 10-fold cross-validation (10-fold CV) were used to

evaluate the model performances with different parameters (the final parameters of 250 the models are shown in Table 2). In 10-fold CV, the matched pairs were partitioned 251 into ten parts in equal proportion, with the first part as the testing subset and the other 252 nine parts as the training subsets. This step was repeated ten times until every subset 253 was tested, and the estimation results (mainly consisting of the coefficient of 254 determination, R², root-mean-square error, RMSE, and mean absolute error, MAE) of 255 the 10 parts were averaged and used as the accuracy of the final model. The accuracy 256 indicators, including the R², RMSE, MAE, and difference (estimated minus 257 observed), were used to assess the capabilities of the machine learning models and 258 then obtain an optimal model (Gui et al., 2020; Zeng et al., 2020). In this study, we 259 used the data from April 2010 to March 2020 for training, the 10-fold CV method for 260 testing, and the period from April 2008 to March 2010 for evaluating the historic 261 262 estimates.

263 2.2.3 Model application

The optimal model obtained from the above models was applied to estimate the DGSR using meteorological measurements recorded at Zhongshan Station from March 1989 to February 2020. The time variations in DGSR estimated by the optimal model were then compared with the observed DGSR. Finally, the long-term historical estimated DGSR at Zhongshan Station was analyzed, and then changes in the trend and the possible factors influencing these changes were further investigated.

270 **2.3 Methods for DGSR trend analysis**

Least squares regression has been applied to detect the linear trend in DGSR annual anomalies (Guo et al., 2017). Five-year running means of DGSR anomalies have been used to visually display the DGSR trend (Xue et al., 2019). In addition, the

sliding trend analysis method has been used to help examine the time nodes of 274 changes because trends often change with the span of the variable calculation period 275 (Che et al., 2019; Gui et al., 2019). According to the method from Gui et al. (2019), 276 we used Student's t tests to detect the robustness of each trend, and the criterion for 277 statistical significance was set at the 95% confidence level. Since the estimated DGSR 278 dataset and meteorological observation dataset have complete records of the whole 279 year for each year from 1990 to 2019, the study period is set as 1990-2019 for the 280 analyses of the monthly variations in meteorological variables and DGSR and the 281 282 long-term changes in the DGSR trend.

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284 **3. Results and discussion**

285 **3.1 Validation and comparison of models**

Figure 4a and 4b shows the scatterplots of the fitted model and 10-fold CV model 286 results of the RF model from April 2010 to March 2020 at Zhongshan Station, 287 Antarctica. Compared with those of other models, we found that the fitted and 10-fold 288 CV results of the RF model have higher R² values of 0.997 and 0.988 and lower 289 RMSE (MAE) values of 0.547 (1.189) MJ/m² and 0.278 (0.648) MJ/m², respectively. 290 To assess the performance of the hindcast estimated by the RF model, the hindcast 291 estimated results from April 2008 to March 2010 are shown in Figure 4c. We found 292 that the hindcast estimated DGSR presented good consistency with the observed 293 DGSR ($R^2 = 0.984$, RMSE = 1.377 MJ/m², and MAE=0.828 MJ/m²). To further 294 examine the hindcast performance of the DGSR estimated by the RF model, as an 295

example, we selected historical estimated DGSR in 2009 (obtained from hindcast 296 estimated results during April 2008-March 2010) for comparison with the ground 297 observed DGSR. Figure 5a shows the daily time series (Figure 5b depicts the 298 difference) of observed DGSR and estimated DGSR at Zhongshan Station. These two 299 time series are highly consistent with each other, and the higher daily (monthly) mean 300 difference values mainly occur in the summer, especially in the polar day period, but 301 do not exceed $\pm 5 \ (\pm 0.85) \ \text{MJ/m}^2$. Figure 5b also shows that approximately 96.7% 302 (343 days in 2009) of the difference values (observed DGSR minus estimated DGSR) 303 fell within the range of ± 2 MJ/m². The results indicate that the DGSR estimated by 304 the RF model closely fits the observed DGSR. Considering the CV results and the 305 accuracy of the historic estimates, the RF model is highly recommended for DGSR 306 estimation at Zhongshan Station in this study. The relative importance of the variables 307 in the RF model is illustrated in Figure S1. As shown in Figure S1, SSD plays a 308 dominant role in terms of the relative importance in the RF model and accounts for 309 60.3% of the overall importance. This result is consistent with previous studies 310 showing that SSD is significantly correlated with DGSR (Wang et al., 2016; Zeng et 311 al., 2020). The results also indicate two other dominant variables: DOY and Tem 312 (accounting for 16.8% and 16.1% of the overall importance, respectively). These 313 results suggest that DOY (seasonal effects) and Tem are also critical for DGSR 314 estimation. 315

In addition to evaluating the performance of the RF model, we also evaluated the performances of other commonly used machine learning models for estimating DGSR

at Zhongshan Station. From the results of the performance comparison in Table 3, the 318 RF model performs better than the other models, and the LightGBM, XGBoost, 319 320 BPNN, and gradient boosted regression tree (GBRT) models show similar historic estimation abilities, followed by those of the DT and AdBoost models. The SVM and 321 MLR models have the worst performances. In common statistical methods, overfitting 322 frequently occurs when the methods have high degrees of freedom. In contrast to 323 other models, the RF model is an ensemble of random trees and has no issue of 324 overfitting in this study. 325

Overall, these comprehensive results further confirm that the RF model has reliable performance in estimating historical DGSR. We can expect that it will be feasible to reconstruct the historical DGSR based on meteorological observation data and the RF model. Thus, the estimated historical dataset is used to accurately describe the comprehensive characteristics and changes in the long-term trend of DGSR. Therefore, we mainly use the DGSR estimated by the RF model for 1989 to 2020 in the following trend analysis.

333 **3.2 Monthly and annual variations in DGSR**

Before analyzing the changes in the DGSR trend, we calculated the monthly and annual characteristics of DGSR estimated by the RF model and the corresponding meteorological variables over the period of 1990-2019 (as shown in Figure 6). The estimated DGSR shows significant monthly and seasonal changes, in which the DGSR during the half-year of summer (October to March) is significantly higher than

that during the half-year of winter (April to September), and the higher DGSR values, 339 up to 30 MJ/m², are mainly during the polar day period, while the DGSR values are 0 340 MJ/m² during the polar night period. The monthly average humidity varies from 56% 341 to 61% from 1990 to 2019 and is higher in summer than in other seasons. The 342 343 monthly mean temperature varies from -2.90 to 0.24 °C in summer and from -14.74 to -16.12 °C in winter. The monthly average temperature is the highest in January (0.24 344 °C) and the lowest in July (-16.18 °C). Variations in surface pressure at Zhongshan 345 Station are characterized by half-year waves. From January to June, there are periods 346 of high pressure, and other months have periods of low pressure. The highest (lowest) 347 monthly average surface pressure occurs in June (October) and is greater than 988 348 hPa (lower than 981 hPa). The wind speed is the highest in winter, followed by that in 349 autumn, spring and summer. The highest (lowest) monthly average wind speed is 7.94 350 m/s (5.01 m/s) in August (January). 351

Zhongshan Station is located on the edge of the Antarctic continent and is near the 352 Antarctic ice sheet. The winds at this station are mainly affected by a combination of 353 the easterly airflow in the northern part of the Antarctic continent, polar cyclones and 354 katabatic winds. Easterly winds prevail over this station year round. In summer 355 (December, January and February), both the Antarctic continental cold high-pressure 356 system and the circumpolar low-pressure zone are weaker, and the smaller pressure 357 gradient between these two synoptic systems induces a lower wind speed. In winter 358 (April, May and June), the prevailing Antarctic continental high-pressure system 359 strengthens, and the circumpolar low-pressure zone moves southward, which causes a 360

larger pressure gradient and thus results in a higher wind speed. Additionally, the monthly variations in air pressure at Zhongshan Station are closely related to these two synoptic systems. Zhongshan Station is covered by snow and ice and the air has lower relative humidity in winter, while the snow and sea ice around this sation melt in summer and thus cause increased saturation of water vapor in the air and higher relative humidity. It is noted that the long sunshine duration and strong solar radiation in summer play key roles in the temperature increase at this station.

The monthly variation in SSD is basically consistent with that in DGSR, and the 368 R^2 between SSD and DGSR is 0.88, indicating that SSD is the main input variable for 369 DGSR in the machine learning models. Figures S2 and S3 show that the yearly 370 average value of the estimated DGSR coincides with that of the measured DGSR 371 from 2009 to 2019 (and also in 1994), and the differences (estimated DGSR -372 observed DGSR) were mainly distributed between -0.1 and 0.1 MJ/m². Furthermore, 373 the annual changes in the estimated DGSR and observed SSD trends are highly 374 consistent, suggesting that historical DGSR estimated by the RF model has high 375 accuracy for further analysis (such as annual anomaly trends and sliding trends). 376

377 3.3 DGSR trend

Note the continuous presence and absence of solar radiation during summer and winter, respectively, because the peculiar conditions of polar day (beginning on November 23 and ending on January 21 of the following year at Zhongshan Station) and polar night (beginning on May 27 and ending on July 18 each year at this station)

occur in Antarctica. In addition, the DGSR values were 0 MJ/m² during the polar 382 night period. Therefore, the DGSR trend analysis was divided into the following three 383 384 scenarios: all days of the year (annual, scenario 1), the polar day period (scenario 2), and the period of all days of the year except for polar day and polar night (scenario 3). 385 Figure 7a to Figure 7c shows the DGSR anomalies and their trends for the three 386 scenarios. It can be seen that the trend of the DGSR annual anomalies increased 387 during 1990-2004 and then began to decrease after 2004. However, obvious 388 differences in anomaly values exist among the three scenarios. The variation in DGSR 389 anomalies is the greatest during the polar day period (increasing linear trend of 0.175 390 MJ/m²/year and decreasing linear trend of -0.101 MJ/m²/year, which are significant at 391 the 95% confidence level), followed by that during all days of the year (increasing 392 linear trend of 0.039 MJ/m²/year and decreasing linear trend of -0.025 MJ/m²/year, 393 which are significant at the 95% confidence level), and is lowest during the period of 394 all days of the year except for polar day and polar night (increasing linear trend of 395 0.011 MJ/m²/year and decreasing linear trend of -0.001 MJ/m²/year, which are not 396 statistically significant). In general the trend of DGSR is similar to Europe (except for 397 China, with a decreasing trend between 1990 and 2000) during the period of 398 brightening, slightly ascend to the early 2005s, after which it shows a decrease to the 399 present (Che et al., 2005; Ohmura, 2009). 400

The DGSR is strongest during the polar day period, accounting for approximately 402 43% of the annual global solar radiation. The surface of Earth receives more solar 403 radiation because the sun always stays above the horizon during the polar day period.

In 1990-2019, the average DGSR during the polar day period varies between 26 404 MJ/m² and 31 MJ/m². However, the annual average DGSR varies from 9.6 MJ/m² to 405 10.8 MJ/m². Therefore, the anomaly values and the range of variation during the polar 406 day period are higher than those during all days of the year. The anomaly values 407 during the period of all days of the year except for polar day and polar night alternate 408 between positive and negative, indicating that the change in total solar radiation 409 during this period basically has no obvious trend. The maximum value of the annual 410 anomalies occurred during approximately 2004/05 and is mainly related to the days 411 with precipitation (such as snowfall, which can result in low visibility and then 412 decreased sunshine duration and solar radiation) at Zhongshan Station in Antarctica. 413 In contrast to scenario 3 (all days of the year except for polar day and polar night), 414 scenario 2 (the polar day period) and scenario 1 (annual) have similar trends in the 415 anomalies (and the sunshine duration during the polar day period accounts for 416 approximately 45% of the total sunshine duration of each year), indicating that the 417 changes in sunshine duration and DGSR during the polar day period play a leading 418 role in the changes in the trend of the DGSR annual anomalies. 419

Based on Student's t tests, the sliding trends of DGSR for all situations are shown in Figure 7d to Figure 7f to present a more comprehensive analysis of the annual trends. Sliding trends were calculated for the three scenarios, starting in each year from 1990 to 2015 and ending in 2019 with increments of at least 5 years. As shown in scenario 1 (all days of the year), the trend of DGSR increased from 1990 to 2003 (although an opposite trend was found during approximately 1993 and 1995), then declined sharply after 2004 (especially in scenario 2: the polar day period) and slightly increased in 2012. The sliding trends for scenario 3 (all days of the year except for polar day and polar night) were smaller and relatively stable compared with those for the other scenarios. When the running mean window was longer than 15 years, the DGSR trends first increased and then decreased in scenario 3 (all days of the year except for polar day and polar night), and most of the trends were statistically significant.

433 **3.4 The potential impact factors of DGSR**

DGSR is affected by cloud cover, water vapor, and aerosols before reaching the 434 surface (Che et al., 2005). However, aerosols are relatively low over the Antarctic, so 435 they will not be discussed in this study. In contrast, bad weather events (fog. snowfall, 436 blowing snow and snowstorms) with low visibility are frequent at Antarctic 437 Zhongshan Station and will also affect the DGSR. Therefore, the effects of cloud 438 fraction, low cloud fraction, ground vapor pressure (e, which represents atmospheric 439 water vapor content), and visibility (which represents bad weather events) on the 440 DGSR at this station are further detailed and explicitly analyzed. Note that the solar 441 radiation is greatly affected by the solar altitude angle in the polar region (which has 442 the phenomena of polar day and polar night). To avoid the effects of these phenomena 443 444 and analyze the influence of potential factors on solar radiation, we selected only the matched samples of April and September each year for discussion in this study. Here, 445 all the matched samples were divided into five subsets according to cloud cover 446

(0-20%, 20-40%, 40-60%, 60-80% and 80-100%), low cloud cover (0-20%, 20-40%,
40-60%, 60-80% and 80-100%) and ground vapor pressure (0-1 hPa, 1-2 hPa, 2-3
hPa, 3-4 hPa and >4 hPa), and then the average DGSR was calculated for each subset,
and the results are shown in Figure 8a, 8b and 8c, respectively. Similarly, the matched
samples were divided into six subsets according to visibility (0-5 km, 5-10 km, 10-15
km, 15-20 km, 20-25 km and >25 km), then the average DGSR was calculated for
each subset (see Figure 8d for the results).

We found that the DGSR significantly decreased (significantly increased) with 454 increasing cloud fraction and ground vapor pressure (visibility). This is because under 455 cloudy conditions, solar radiation reflects back to the top of the atmosphere, reducing 456 the amount of solar radiation reaching the Earth's surface. However, the DGSR did 457 not change much when the low cloud fraction was greater than 40%. We also found 458 that DGSR was generally low during severe weather with low visibility but 459 significantly higher under high visibility conditions. Overall, the DGSR decreases 460 with increasing cloud cover, low cloud cover and ground vapor pressure but increases 461 with increasing visibility. The change in DGSR with low cloud cover is not 462 significant with the change in cloud cover, ground vapor pressure and visibility. 463 Meanwhile, the times series of DGSR, LCF, CF, e, Vis, and SSD and their long-term 464 trends are examined in Fig. S4, respectively. The DGSR shows a small upward trend. 465 Accordingly, SSD and Vis exhibit upward trends (CF, LCF and e exhibit downward 466 trends), implying that the cloud cover, water vapor and abnormal weather (except as 467 solar altitude angle in the polar region) are the common factors that influence the 468

trend of DGSR at this station. To sum up, clouds and water vapor in the atmosphere
are the main factors affecting solar radiation. Bad weather conditions, such as fog,
blowing snow and snowstorms, are also a major factor affecting solar radiation at
Zhongshan Station, Antarctica.

473 **4. Concluding remarks**

474 Based on ground meteorological observation data, an RF model was developed to estimate DGSR, and a high-precision, long-term DGSR dataset was constructed for 475 1989 to 2020 at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica. Long-term trends and the potential 476 impact factors of DGSR were then analyzed in this study. Compared with those of 477 other models, we found that the fitted and 10-fold CV results of the RF model have 478 higher R² values and lower RMSE and MAE, and the hindcast estimated DGSR 479 presents good consistency with the observed DGSR ($R^2 = 0.984$, RMSE = 1.377 480 MJ/m², and MAE=0.828 MJ/m²). The RF model is better than other models for 481 reconstructing the historical DGSR based on the meteorological observations in this 482 483 study. The DGSR trends were very consistent in all situations, and DGSR generally increased during 1989-2004 and then began to decrease after 2004. The sliding trend 484 of DGSR in the all days of the year except for polar night period and the polar day 485 period increased from 1990 to 2003 (although an opposite trend was found during 486 approximately 1993 and 1995 for the all days of the year except for polar night 487 period), then declined sharply after 2004 and slightly increased in 2012, while the 488 sliding trends for the period of all days of the year except for polar day and polar 489 night were smaller and relatively stable. The DGSR decreases with increasing cloud 490 cover, low cloud cover and ground vapor pressure but increases with increasing 491 visibility. The results show that clouds and water vapor are the main factors affecting 492 solar radiation in Antarctica. Meanwhile, bad weather conditions, such as fog, 493 blowing snow and snowstorms, are also a major factor affecting solar radiation at 494 Zhongshan Station, Antarctica. Based on the DGSR estimation method in this study, 495

496 our plan for future work can be divided into two parts: the first part is to construct a 497 virtual DGSR observation network across the Antarctic region, and the second part is 498 to reconstruct historical site-scale DGSR concentrations through this newly 499 constructed virtual DGSR observation network. It is worth noting that some sites in 500 remote areas of Antarctica lack DGSR datasets. Therefore, these high-precision, 501 long-term DGSR datasets can be used to study the radiation balance and the ultimate 502 source of solar energy in Antarctica.

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Variable	Unit	Definition	Sensor type
SP	hPa	Atmospheric pressure	Vaisala PTB220
RH	%	Relative humidity	Vaisala HMP35D
Tem	°C	Surface air temperature	Vaisala HMP35D
WS	m/s	Wind speed	XFY3-1
SSD	h	Sunshine duration	Australia DSU12
GSR	MJ/m^2	Global solar radiation	TBQ-2-B
CF	%	Cloud fraction	-
LCF	%	Low cloud fraction	-
Vis	km	Visibility	-
WVP	hPa	Ground vapor pressure	-
DGSR	MJ/m^2	Sum of global solar radiation over a day	-
DOY	-	Day of year	-
Month	-	Month of year	-

678	Table 1. The short name,	definition and s	sensor type of	variables.

Model name	Parameter	Final value			
	n_estimators	500			
RF	oob_score	True			
	n_jobs	2			
	n_estimators	3500			
LightGBM	num_leaves	600			
	learning_rate	0.05			
	max_depth	18			
	max_depth	16			
XGBoost	learning_rate	0.1			
	n_estimators	700			
	n_estimators	750			
GBRT	Learning_rate	0.5			
	Max_depth	3			
	Solver	adam			
BP	Alpha	1e-5			
	hidden-layer-sizes	1000,500,100			
SVM	tol	0.000001			
AdBoost	n_estimators	500			
MLR					
DT	DT				

Table 2. The final selected values of the main parameters for each model.

--: Indicates the model parameter value was set as the default.

Table 3. The results of the fitted model, 10-fold CV model and historical estimation

Model	Fitted model			10-fold CV model			Historical estimation power		
name	\mathbb{R}^2	RMSE	MAE	\mathbb{R}^2	RMSE	MAE	\mathbb{R}^2	RMSE	MAE
RF	0.998	0.434	0.238	0.988	1.183	0.648	0.984	1.494	0.846
LightGBM	0.999	0.039	0.027	0.987	1.22	0.78	0.982	1.481	0.884
XGBoost	0.999	0.001	0.013	0.987	1.236	0.678	0.982	1.469	0.845
BP	0.982	1.581	1.132	0.982	1.604	1.151	0.978	1.861	1.370
GBRT	0.999	0.398	0.185	0.98	1.541	0.98	0.974	1.541	0.980
DT	0.998	0.533	0.314	0.976	1.692	0.919	0.967	1.999	1.146
AdBoost	0.962	3.487	3.063	0.959	3.535	3.097	0.961	3.417	3.097
SVM	0.892	5.561	4.755	0.892	5.498	4.687	0.897	3.865	2.980
MLR	0.895	3.498	2.773	0.895	3.500	2.777	0.882	3.778	2.988

684 power by different machine learning models.



687 Fig. 1. (a) Map showing the location of Zhongshan Station, (b) image of Zhongshan

688 Station area, and (c) the solar radiation instrument in the meteorological observation

689 field.



Fig. 2. Steps of historical estimation and long-term trend analysis of DGSR at
Zhongshan Station, Antarctica.



694 Fig. 3. The frequency distribution of (a) observed DGSR, (b) SP, (c) Tem, (d) RH, (e)

695 WS, and (f) SSD at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica during 2010-2020 for model

696 training and cross-validation.



699 Fig. 4. Scatterplots of the (a) fitted model, (b) CV model and (c) hindcast estimation

- results of the RF model at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica.
- 701



Fig. 5. The (a) time series of observed (blue) versus estimated (red) DGSR and the (b)

corresponding difference (observed DGSR - estimated DGSR) in 2009 at Zhongshan

- 705 Station, Antarctica. [-2, 2] indicates a difference within $\pm 2 \text{ MJ/m}^2$.
- 706



Fig. 6. The monthly variation in (a) DGSR (estimated), (b) SP, (c) Tem, (d) RH, (e)

WS, and (f) SSD at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica during 1990-2019.





Fig. 7. Time series of the annual mean anomalies of estimated DGSR: (a) annual mean but no polar night, (b) polar day and (c) no polar day and no polar night. The red lines indicate the 5-year running means of the DGSR anomalies. Sliding-window trend analyses of annual mean estimated DGSR at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica, from 1990 to 2019 for (d) all years but no polar night, (e) polar day and (f) no polar day and no polar night.



Fig. 8. The effect on the estimated DGSR by the different (a) CF, (b) LCF, (c) e, and

719 (d) Vis conditions at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica.

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Supplementary Information



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Figure S1. Evaluation of the relative importance of the variables used in the RF
models. SSD: sunshine duration; DOY: day of year; Tem: air temperature; WS: wind
speed; RH: relative humidity; SP: surface air pressure.

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Fig. S2. The (a) annual change in observed (blue) versus estimated (red) DGSR and the (b) corresponding difference (observed DGSR - estimated DGSR) from 2009 to

- 730 2019 at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica.
- 731



Fig. S3. The (a) annual change in observed (blue) versus estimated (red) DGSR and

- the (b) annual change in SSD from 1990 to 2019 at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica.
- 735





Fig. S4. The yearly series of (a) DGSR (estimated), (b) LCF, (c) CF, (d) e, (e) Vis, and (f) SSD at Zhongshan Station, Antarctica from 1990 to 2019 for no polar day and no polar night. The blue lines indicate their corresponding 5-year running mean values and straight lines indicate their corresponding linear trends.