

**Comparison of
MODIS-derived land
surface temperatures**

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Comparison of MODIS-derived land surface temperatures with near-surface soil and air temperature measurements in continuous permafrost terrain

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Abstract

In Arctic and sub-Arctic regions, meteorological stations are scattered and poorly distributed geographically; they are mostly located along coastal areas and are often unreachable by road. Given that high-latitude regions are the ones most significantly affected by recent climate warming, there is a need to supplement existing meteorological station networks with spatially continuous measurements such as those obtained by spaceborne platforms. In particular, land surface (skin) temperature (LST) retrieved from satellite sensors offer the opportunity to utilize remote sensing technology to obtain a consistent coverage of a key parameter for climate, permafrost, and hydrological research. The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor aboard the Terra and Aqua satellite platforms offers the potential to provide spatial estimates of near-surface temperature values. In this study, LST values from MODIS were compared to ground-based near-surface air and soil temperature measurements obtained at herbaceous and shrub tundra sites located in the continuous permafrost zone of northern Québec, Canada, and the North Slope of Alaska, USA. LST values were found to be better correlated with near-surface air temperature (1–2 m above the ground) than with soil temperature (3–5 cm below the ground) measurements. A comparison between mean daily air temperature from ground-based station measurements and mean daily MODIS LST, calculated from daytime and nighttime temperature values of both Terra and Aqua acquisitions, for all sites and all seasons pooled together reveals a high correlation between the two sets of measurements ($R > 0.93$ and mean difference of $-1.86\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). Mean differences ranged between $-0.51\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $-5.13\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ due to the influence of surface heterogeneity within the MODIS 1 km^2 grid cells at some sites. Overall, it is concluded that MODIS offers a great potential for monitoring surface temperature changes in high-latitude tundra regions and provides a promising source of input data for integration into spatially-distributed permafrost models.

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1 Introduction

The 2007 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reports a global temperature increase of 0.74 °C over the last 100 years. Observational records show that average temperature in the Arctic has risen at almost twice the rate as the rest of the world in the past few decades (Zhou et al., 2001; Hinzman et al., 2005). Near-surface air temperature trends in the Arctic have been shown to be greater for inland regions than coastal/ocean regions (Comiso, 2003). There are clear signs that change is ongoing in other environmental variables as well. In addition to air temperature, annual precipitation are increasing in many regions; spring snow cover extent is decreasing; lake and river ice freeze-up dates are occurring later and breakup dates earlier; glaciers are retreating rapidly; sea-ice extent is at record minimums and thinning; and permafrost temperatures are increasing and, in many cases, permafrost is thawing. In the context of greenhouse gas emissions, permafrost (i.e. soil or rock that has remained below 0 °C for a minimum of two consecutive years) thawing could contribute to the release of a significant amount of CH₄ and CO₂ stored in organic frozen soils (Christensen et al., 2004; Serreze et al., 2000).

Surface temperature is an essential measure for understanding biological, hydrological and climatological systems that operate through interaction and feedback mechanisms and which cannot otherwise be fully understood when considered separately. Surface temperature reflects the results of surface-atmosphere interactions and energy exchanges between the atmosphere and the ground (Williams and Smith, 1989). In regions underlain by permafrost, it is a critical variable for understanding the thermal regime of the ground. For that purpose, surface temperature is used in spatially-distributed models describing the thermal regime of permafrost (Sazonova and Romanovsky, 2003). To date, however, temperature fields used as input in such models have largely been derived through spatial interpolation of near-surface air temperature measurements from a limited number of geographically scattered meteorological stations (e.g. Hinzman et al., 1998; Shiklomanov and Nelson, 2002) or, more recently,

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have been provided by coarse resolution (e.g. 2.5° latitude × 2.5° longitude) atmospheric reanalysis data such as NCEP/NCAR (Shiklomanov et al., 2007). These data are either not spatially representative (field) or too coarse (reanalysis) for regional permafrost studies. Satellite remote sensing sensors operating in the thermal infrared part of the electromagnetic spectrum are of particular interest since they offer the potential to retrieve land surface skin temperatures (LST) on a daily basis over large areas at the 1 km² horizontal resolution.

Interest is currently being expressed by the permafrost science community to use satellite-derived LST either as a replacement or in conjunction with more spatially limited near-surface air temperature measurements from meteorological stations in permafrost models (Romanovsky, pers. comm., 2010). There has also been interest for some time already in using spaceborne LST measurements for climate monitoring at high latitudes. A few studies have utilized LST obtained from satellite sensors (NOAA AVHRR, GOES, and SSM/I) to observe temperature variability and trends in Boreal and Arctic regions (Comiso, 2003, Goïta et al., 1997; Han et al., 2004; Mialon et al., 2007, Traoré et al., 1997). LST products derived from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) are increasingly being used to study various land components and processes at northern latitudes. Recent applications include vegetated areas (Coops et al., 2009), CO₂ exchange (Schubert et al., 2010), and permafrost at regional (Hachem et al., 2009) and local scales (Langer et al., 2010; Westermann et al., 2011).

MODIS 1-km LST products have been verified (compared) or validated against ground-based temperature measurements over homogeneous areas such as lakes (Wan et al., 2002a, b; Wan et al., 2004; Hook et al., 2007; Wan, 2008; Crosman and Horel, 2009), rice crops (Coll et al., 2005, 2009; Wan et al., 2004; Galve et al., 2007), silt-playa (Snyder et al., 1997), and densely vegetated areas (Wan, 2008). The 1 km products have also been validated with the alternative radiance-based (R-based) method over a lake and rice crops (Wan and Li., 2008; Coll et al., 2009) and dense forest (Coll et al., 2009). In addition, comparisons have been conducted between near-

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surface air temperature measurements at meteorological stations and MODIS 5-km LST products, and upscaled to 25 km, around the globe (Bosilovitch, 2006). Most validations/comparisons have been made at mid- and low-latitude sites. Recently, Langer et al. (2010) and Westermann et al. (2011) compared summertime MODIS LST data with those obtained with a thermal imaging system installed on a mast 10 m above the ground at two permafrost sites. They report differences of less than 2 K between the two sets of measurements under clear-sky conditions, with occasionally larger differences when clouds are not properly detected in the MODIS LST product.

The objective of this research was to compare the 1-km LST product (i.e. the clear-sky “skin” temperatures) retrieved from the MODIS sensor aboard the Terra and Aqua satellite platforms to near-surface soil and air temperatures measured year-round at meteorological stations. In the same way as in Bosilovich (2006), the purpose of this study is to verify the correspondence between meteorological station and MODIS data as to establish a more general relation than through validation using thermal radiometers or imaging systems which, unlike near-surface air temperature measurements, are limited temporally (summer only) and to very few sites (e.g. Langer et al, 2010; Westermann et al., 2011). The sites are located in high latitude regions characterized by heterogeneous tundra surface types in the continuous permafrost zone of northern Québec, Canada, and the North Slope of Alaska, USA.

2 Data and methods

2.1 Rationale for the selection of MODIS on the terra and aqua platforms

2.1.1 Land surface temperature retrieval from various satellite sensors

Surface temperature can be retrieved from satellite sensors based on the use of the split-window method. This method is based on algorithms that utilize the differential absorption of two adjacent spectral windows (channels around 11 and 12 μm). The

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reason for choosing these windows is that the atmospheric attenuation is greater in the 12 μm channel than the 11 μm channel, and that the difference between radiances in these two channels augment with an increase in the atmospheric attenuation (Becker and Li, 1990a). Since the radiance of the surface being sensed does not change, the increased difference between the two radiances is related to atmospheric attenuation (Becker and Li, 1990a; Kerr et al., 1992; Ouaidrari et al., 2002). Hence, it should be possible to calculate surface temperature from satellite thermal infrared measurements acquired at 11 and 12 μm using a split-window equation.

However, two unknowns need to be determined using the split-window approach: the emissivity of the surfaces under consideration in both channels and the atmospheric transmission. The atmospheric transmission can be determined either using atmospheric transmission models (e.g. MODTRAN or LOWTRAN) for various atmospheric moisture conditions (Becker and Li, 1990a, 1995; Wan and Dozier, 1996; Goïta and Royer, 1997; Ouaidrari et al., 2002), derived from direct measurements of water content based on radiosondes (Goïta and Royer, 1997), or from sensors sensitive to atmospheric water content (e.g. HIRS/2 for the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer, AVHRR). The atmospheric transmission can also be derived directly from the same sensor such as the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectro-radiometer (MODIS) which acquires data in multiple channels; some of which are used to detect particles in suspension in the atmosphere (Wan and Dozier, 1996; Justice et al., 1998). The atmospheric concentrations are retrieved from the MODIS atmospheric product (MOD07.L2), (Wan, 2007). As for the emissivity of land surfaces, it usually varies between 0.9 and 1. Similarly to the correction of atmospheric attenuation, several methods have been developed to derive surface emissivity. As an example, its estimation from AVHRR can be done using the Temperature Independent Spectral Index (TISI) (Becker and Li, 1990b; Li and Becker, 1993). The TISI approach uses the bidirectional reflectance in channel 3 (at 3.7 μm) of AVHRR measured day and night, and assumes that the bidirectional reflectance distribution function (BRDF) and atmospheric profiles are known (Wan and Li, 1997). The MODIS LST products make use of other available

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MODIS-derived products. For example, emissivities are estimated by the classification based emissivity method (Snyder et al., 1998) according to land cover types in the pixel determined by the input data in the MODIS quarterly land cover (MOD12Q1) and daily snow cover (MOD10_L2) products (Wan, 2007). With the MODIS sensors aboard NASA's Aqua and Terra satellites, maximum surface temperature errors have been reported to range between 2 and 3 K, with a standard deviation of 0.009 due to emissivity errors in bands 31 and 32 (infrared region of 10 to 12.5 μm) (Wan and Li, 1997).

2.1.2 High temporal and spectral resolution, and moderate spatial resolution

The NOAA satellite series as well as the Terra and Aqua satellites possess a twice-daily repeat overpass and a 1 km spatial resolution in the thermal infrared. The twice-daily temporal resolution is of particular interest as it allows one to monitor the evolution of surface temperatures throughout the year. Regions of the Arctic are rather thermally homogenous on the scale of tens of kilometers, which makes the spatial resolution of 1 km² satisfactory and precise enough to cover vast territories. At the pixel scale (within a 1 km² grid-cell), however, variations in topography, surface materials, vegetation and snow cover can influence the temperatures measured from spaceborne thermal sensors.

The first NOAA satellites were launched in 1979, providing a long time series for studying Arctic climate change over a period of more than 25 years (Comiso, 2003). However, a temporal drift is known to occur during the lifetime of NOAA satellites which can result in a local overpass time variation of up to 4 h, especially in the afternoon (Traoré et al., 1997). This orbital drift results in a significant cooling of the LST measurements (Gleason et al., 2002; Jin and Treadon, 2003). The Terra and Aqua satellites, which have been active since 2000 and 2002, respectively, do not suffer from such drift. Although both the AVHRR and MODIS sensors possess the same 1-km² spatial resolution in the thermal infrared, the LST from the Terra and Aqua satellites were chosen for this study rather than those provided by NOAA AVHRR. This choice thus directs the research towards the evaluation of a relatively new product (MODIS LST)

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for land-surface temperature mapping in the Arctic rather than a time series analysis of trends and variability in surface temperatures with climate.

MODIS possesses another advantage over AVHRR in that it acquires data in 36 channels, which provides emissivity simultaneously with thermal infrared reflectivity (used to calculate surface temperatures) and short infrared (used to calculate atmospheric water contents), thus reducing errors in LST and cloud cover. In addition, the spatial resolution of 1 km allows the Earth's surface to be covered in 1 day with a frequency of acquisition of as much as 4 times per day if Terra and Aqua data are combined. Thus, the more frequent coverage can improve the calculation of a mean daily LST, which is of particular interest to permafrost mapping and modeling efforts.

2.2 Location of study sites and data description

All ground-based meteorological stations for this study were located in tundra areas underlain by continuous permafrost, north of treeline, in northern Québec (Canada) and northern Alaska (USA). The characteristics of each site for which near-surface soil and air temperature measurements were compared to MODIS LSTs are given in Table 1. The period of comparison was limited to the period 2000–2008 since MODIS LSTs from Terra are available starting in 2000. At some stations the air/soil temperatures from meteorological stations were only available until the end of 2003, for other stations until 2007 or 2008.

2.2.1 Nunavik stations (northern Québec, Canada)

Five meteorological stations within three Inuit villages recorded hourly soil (T_{soil}) (3–5 cm below ground) and air (T_{air}) (1–2 m above ground) temperatures corresponding to Terra and Aqua overpass times during the period 2000–2008 (Fig. 1). Three stations are located near the village of Salluit: Sila, Tiki (for Tikiraatsiaq), and the Salluit Airport (Sala in Table 1). The fourth station is situated in Kangiqsualujjuaq on the southeast coast of Ungava Bay and the fifth station, operated by Environment Canada, is located

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in Kuujjuaq.

Northern Québec sits on the Canadian Shield. The soils overlying the glacially eroded bedrock are generally thin. Landforms of glacial origin are characterized by till-overlain plateaus, coastlines with sands of marine origin, and coastal valley bottoms with glaciomarine clays. At Salluit, plateau vegetation is composed of mosses and lichens with herbaceous plants dominating the valleys with fine soils. Occasional scattered shrubs dot slopes that are sheltered from the wind and covered by snow in the winter. Aerial views show a predominance of mosses and lichens interspersed with islands of bare soil or low shrubs. The meteorological stations at Salluit (Sila, Tiki and SaA) are situated in environments exposed to wind, which reduces the accumulation of winter snow to a thin (5–10 cm) cover. The Sila tower is located 1.75 km from the coast at an altitude of 45 m. It is installed on a small till hill surrounded by clay soils. Tiki is located 110 m from the coast on a rocky promontory advancing into a fjord at an altitude of 35 m. The area surrounding the tower consists primarily of lichen-covered bedrock and thin gravelly soils. The Salluit airport meteorological station (SaA) is found on the top of a plateau surrounding the village at an altitude of 225 m. The area around the tower consists of bedrock covered with patches of till and close to the runway. Kangiqsualujjuaq is found at the limit between the continuous and discontinuous permafrost zones. Trees with upright growth forms become more prevalent on hill slopes in this area. Palsas are found at the southern edge of the village. The area immediately surrounding the Kangiqsualujjuaq meteorological station is composed of bedrock and till that support lichens and prostrate scrub, i.e. shrub birch of 20–30 cm (Bouchard, 1990; Gahé, 1987) colonizing a thin till overlying gneissic rock (Table 1).

2.2.2 Stations within the Kuparuk River watershed (North Slope of Alaska, USA)

Sites in the Kuparuk River watershed extend along a 250 km north-south transect (Fig. 1). The transect is characterized from north to south by moss and lichen vegetation at Betty Pingo, herbaceous vegetation at Franklin Bluff, and shrub vegetation at Sagwon. An in-depth description of the sites can be found on the Water and

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Environmental Research Center (WERC) website¹. In addition, Jia and Epstein (2004) provide a general description of Alaska's North Slope region in which the Kuparuk River basin is located.

2.3 Location of MODIS pixels corresponding to the meteorological stations

5 The LSTs from the MODIS sensor are derived using a day-night split-window technique that considers variations in emissivity as a function of time and measured in the same bands as those of the thermal infrared, i.e. channel 31 (10.78–11.28 μm) and channel 32 (11.77–12.27 μm) (Wan and Dozier, 1989, 1996; Wan et al., 2002; Wan, 2008). Surface temperatures calculated using this algorithm and with an already applied cloud cover mask are available from NASA's Warehouse Inventory Search Tool website².
10 The V5 level 3 MODIS LST (MOD11A1 and MYD11A1) products were used in this study.

MODIS pixels centered on or located close to the meteorological stations were selected for temperature comparisons. The presence of water bodies of different sizes in the proximity of certain stations can result in a mixed MODIS pixel over a given station. For example, a 1 km² pixel containing a higher water fraction than land can introduce some difficulties when comparing a satellite pixel with a measurement from the meteorological station which is located on land.

For meteorological stations located along the shore of water bodies that have an area greater than 1 km² (West Dock, Franklin Bluff, Western Kuparuk, Imnavait Basin, Tiki, and Kangiqsuallujuaq), two MODIS pixels, one which contains the geographic coordinates of the station ("1" is added after the station name) and another one within

¹WERC website: <http://www.uaf.edu/water/>

² Site homepage: <https://wist.echo.nasa.gov/api/>; names of products used: MODIS/TERRA LAND SURFACE TEMPERATURE / EMISSIVITY DAILY L3 GLOBAL 1KM SIN GRID V005 and MODIS/AQUA LAND SURFACE TEMPERATURE / EMISSIVITY DAILY L3 GLOBAL 1KM SIN GRID V005

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2 km of the station (“2” is added after the station name), were chosen (Table 2).

For the northern Québec sites, the water fraction within each MODIS pixel was determined using the Canada-wide 1-km water fraction data product from National Topographic Data Base Maps (NTDB) (Fernandes et al., 2002). This raster product gives a percentage for the fraction of water contained in each 1 km² pixel. The surface category types were established using NTDB maps at the scale of 1/50 000 and 1/250 000. “The majority of NTDB source maps was surveyed within the growing season (post snow-melt) and should therefore be relatively unbiased during the growing season in the absence of drought or severe precipitation events”³. Only the open water category was retained for the determination of water fraction within each 1-km grid cell (i.e. humid zones, wetlands, and small ponds are excluded). Thus, one must keep in mind that the MODIS LST for some sites may be influenced by variations in surface wetness/moisture (seasonally and annually) even if the water fraction given in the NTDB raster product corresponds to 0%. MODIS pixels corresponding to the coordinates of the stations Tiki, Sila and Salluit airport contained 100 %, 9.7 %, and 0 % of water, respectively. The pixel containing the Sila tower is called Sila1, the one that includes the Tiki station is referred to as Tiki1 and the one with Salluit airport station is called SalA1 (Table 2). The pixel named Tiki2 is situated one pixel south of Tiki1 and contains less water (17.5 %). At Kangiqsuallujuaq, the pixel centered on the station has a water fraction value of 10.4 % (Kangiq1). Hence, an adjacent pixel with 8.9 % water coverage was chosen (Kangiq2). At Kuujuaq, the pixel corresponding to the village coordinates had 0 % of water on the Water fraction map (site Kuujuaq1). Unfortunately, it had no LST values recorded from 2000 to 2008. Hence, two other pixels were chosen with also 0 % of water. One is situated at the pixel on the left and down of the original position (Kuujuaq2) whereas the second one is on the right (Kuujuaq3).

A map of land surface types of the North Slope of Alaska was used as an aid for selecting pixels corresponding to stations located in the Kuparuk River watershed. The map used is the Land-Cover Map of the North Slope of Alaska³ which represents soil

³This map is accessible via the NSIDC website : <http://nsidc.org/data/arcss020.html>

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and vegetation types. Nine categories were found in this map, one of them corresponded to “water”. The map was derived from the classification of a mosaic of Landsat MSS images resampled at 100 × 100 m spatial resolution. The Landsat images were acquired during the snow-free period of the growth season (i.e. July, August, or September, depending on the year). Water bodies could readily be identified and water fraction determined for each MODIS pixel (i.e. 100 Landsat pixels within one MODIS pixel). The water fraction, expressed in percent, was determined for each site: West Dock (WD1: 57.5 % – WD2: one pixel south with 28.1 % water), Betty Pingo Upland (BPU1: 1.5 %) and Wetland (BPW1: 17.9 %), Upper Kuparuk (UK1: 2.2 %), West Kupa-
paruk (WK1: no standing water; but as the vegetation is highly wet, another pixel with less percent of wet vegetation was taken – WK2: one pixel north with 7.2 % water). For the same reason (Table 2), two pixels were selected for Franklin Bluff (FB1 and FB2) even though both of them had 0 % water fraction reported. The digit “1” was added at the end of the names of the sites to indicate that the pixel extracted corresponded to a pixel that included the meteorological station location, while digit “2” (or “3”) was added for an immediately adjacent pixel containing less water.

2.4 Comparison between MODIS LST and near-surface soil/air temperature measurements at meteorological stations

T_{soil} and T_{air} measured at the northern Québec and Alaska stations were compared to the MODIS-derived LST. When hourly measurements from stations were available concurrent with the time of MODIS data acquisitions, it was possible to compare the ground-based T_{air} and T_{soil} measurements with those acquired at the time of Terra and Aqua overpasses above the stations. In fact, MODIS data are not continuous; it was found that many consecutive days were without retrieved LST values. This is due to the many days with cloudy conditions over the study areas (Table 3). For the period when only Terra was in orbit (2000–2001), cloudless days accounted for only 5 to 19 % (average of 12 %) and 23 to 32 % (average of 28 %) of the MODIS observations over northern Québec and Alaska, respectively, depending on the location of the

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meteorological stations. When MODIS observations from both Terra and Aqua became available, starting in 2002, the percentage of cloudless days increased to 20 % on average over the Québec stations and about 46 % over the stations located in Alaska.

Two statistical parameters were computed to compare MODIS LSTs with temperature measurements from meteorological stations: the Pearson correlation coefficient (R) and the mean difference (MD). The correlation coefficient was used as a measure of the temporal coherence/match (co-variation in time) between the satellite and station temperature measurements. The mean difference was utilized as a measure of the difference between the two sets of data. It is equal to zero when the mean LST is equal to the mean soil/air temperature. If the mean difference is positive, the mean LST is larger (warmer) than the mean soil/air temperature. Inversely, if the mean difference is negative, then the mean LST is colder than the mean station temperature measurement. It is important to note prior to analyzing the results that the MODIS LSTs are being verified/compared, not validated, against the temperature measurements from the meteorological stations. Strictly defined, validation would require the deployment of thermal infrared (TIR) radiometers within the 1-km² resolution of the MODIS pixels that encompass the field sites.

3 Results

Each MODIS LST data series (Aqua-day, Aqua-night, Terra-day, and Terra-night) was first compared with soil and air temperatures taken at each station within the hour of the satellite overpass. Firstly, correlation and mean difference values between MODIS LSTs and the hourly temperatures at stations, when available, were calculated. This allowed a verification of the mean morning (LST-day) and the mean evening (LST-night) LSTs for Aqua and Terra. Secondly, mean daily temperatures from the stations and from Terra and Aqua LSTs (LST-day/night) individually, and then combined (mean Terra and Aqua), were calculated (Figs. 2–4). Finally, comparisons were also made seasonally (winter and summer) and on an annual basis (Fig. 5).

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As indicated in Table 4, the two satellites pass more frequently over Alaska between 10:00 and 12:00 and over northern Québec between 11:00 and 13:00 at their ascending overpasses. Whereas, during their descending overpasses, Aqua passes over Alaska around 00:00 and 02:00 and over northern Québec between 02:00 and 03:00; and Terra passes over Alaska between 19:00 and 21:00 and over northern Québec between 21:00 and 22:00. In reality, overpass times are not on the hour. However, to simplify the comparison with station measurements a fixed hour, defined as the interval that includes the half-hour before and after an overpass, was given. As a result, satellite data acquired between 10:30 and 11:30 are used for comparison with hourly station measurements from 11:00.

3.1 Near-surface soil temperature

MODIS LST data were first compared with near-surface soil temperature measurements. The near-surface soil temperature is measured just under ground at around 3 cm deep (to be protected from bad weather and direct radiations). Six of the ground-based stations were equipped with data loggers measuring hourly soil temperatures (Sila, Tiki, Betty Pingo Upland, Betty Pingo Wetland, Franklin Bluff and Sagwon) while at two other stations (Ivotuk shrub and Ivotuk moss) soil temperatures were recorded every 3 h. At West Kuparuk, Upper Kuparuk and Imnavait Basin only average daily temperatures were recorded. There were no near-surface soil temperature measurements available at West Dock, Salluit Airport (SaLA), and Kuujjuaq (Table 1).

3.1.1 Comparison of daytime and nighttime temperatures

MODIS retrieved LSTs over Salluit and the Kuparuk River Basin are well correlated with T_{soil} within the hour of overpass for either the ascending (daytime overpass) or the descending mode (nighttime overpass) (Table 4). LSTs are in good agreement at daytime for Terra ($0.76 < R < 0.96$; $-8.72 < \text{MD} < 6.03$ with mean of -2.71) and for Aqua ($0.81 < R < 0.97$; $-8.10 < \text{MD} < 5.05$ with mean of -3.27). At nighttime, the correlation is

as good as at daytime but the differences are colder for Terra ($0.82 < R < 0.96$; $-10.47 < MD < -3.98$ with mean of -7.36) and for Aqua ($0.72 < R < 0.99$; $-13.02 < MD < -4.06$ with mean of -8.72) with soil temperatures. The mean difference is larger during nighttime; the LSTs being 3–4 °C colder than daytime for some Alaskan stations and for Sila and Tiki. 13:00 and 14:00 are the hours at which the mean differences between LST and T_{soil} are the smallest and the correlations are the highest, independently of the station in Alaska, while it is at 12:00 for the Québec stations.

3.1.2 Comparison with mean temperatures calculated from Terra and Aqua combined

The temperature measurements taken by Terra and Aqua are close to each other during daytime and nighttime for all stations over the entire study period, despite the different overpass times of the two satellites. The two overpass times for each satellite (daytime and nighttime) allow for the possibility of four temperature measurements over a 24-h period, providing for the calculation of a mean daily temperature that closely approaches the mean daily temperature measured at the ground stations. In order to calculate the mean daily temperature from the data of the two sensors, we first calculated separately the mean LST-daytime of Terra ($0.84 < R < 0.95$; $-6.97 < MD < 1.00$ with mean of -2.71) and Aqua ($0.85 < R < 0.95$; $-8.19 < MD < 0.62$ with mean of -3.27) and the mean LST-nighttime for Terra ($0.85 < R < 0.94$; $-9.15 < MD < -5.89$ with mean of -7.36) and Aqua ($0.85 < R < 0.94$; $-10.75 < MD < -7.42$ with mean of -8.72). When only one sensor had recovered a temperature for a given time period, that temperature alone was used. In other cases, the mean daily temperature was determined using the daytime LST retrieved by Aqua and the nighttime LST obtained by Terra, and vice-versa. The intent was to have the maximum number of LST measurements per day.

At Salluit, for the Terra and Aqua Day-Night the R value (0.96) is higher than the average in Alaska ($0.86 < R < 0.95$). At Salluit, the mean difference indicates that LSTs are 3 °C lower than T_{soil} (-2.83 at Tiki2 and -3.38 at Sila1). At the Alaskan stations,

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for the Terra and Aqua Day-Night average, the mean difference indicates that LSTs are 5–9°C colder than T_{soil} ($-8.56 < \text{MD} < -4.70$). Here, it can be established that the relation between T_{soil} and LST with mean LST-Day/Night increases only weakly the relation with R values ranging from 0.86 to 0.96.

In addition, the average LST-Day/Night and Aqua-Terra (AqTeDN) shows a better relation than the nighttime data but a worse relation than the daytime data. Even if the correlation looks very good at some hours of the day, when plotting the LSTs and T_{soil} against dates (Fig. 3), it appears that differences are larger in summer than in winter. Regionally, the relation between the T_{soil} and LST for the Alaskan stations is not as strong as the one for the Québec stations.

3.2 Near-surface air temperature

MODIS LST data are also compared with near-surface air temperature measurements (T_{air}). These data are measured at 1–2 m above the ground under shelter. Most of the stations (except Betty Pingo Wet and Imnavait Ridge) have such instrumentations (Table 1).

3.2.1 Comparison of daytime temperatures

The best relation between the two types of temperature measurements is obtained in the middle of the day in both Alaska and Québec. In Alaska, Terra overpasses between 10:00 and 15:00 giving R values ranging from 0.93 to 0.98 and MD between -3.07 and 0.29 (with mean of -0.70 over the 2000–2008 period), while Aqua overpasses between 9:00 and 14:00 resulting in R values between 0.93 and 0.99, and MD from -3.65 to 0.16 (with mean of -1.21). Over Québec, Terra overpasses between 10:00 and 13:00 leading to R values ranging from 0.93 to 0.97 and MD ranging from -1.18 and 1.65 (with mean of 0.39), while Aqua overpasses between 11:00 and 13:00 giving R values ranging from 0.91 to 0.98 and MD from -0.34 and 2.60 (with mean of 1.12) depending on the station (Table 5 and Fig. 4).

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In Figs. 6–7, the daytime LST (in red), the nighttime LST (in blue) and the mean LST-day/LST-night (in green) are superimposed on the 24-h mean air temperature curves of two different stations (Imnavait Basin and Kuujuaq). In these graphs, the LST-Day is situated slightly above T_{air} and is most pronounced during the summer period. In the positive areas of the graphs, where summer temperatures are found, clusters of LST-Day values are always at temperatures higher than those of LST-Night. In the negative areas, which correspond to winter, the clusters of LST-Day and LST-Night show similar temperatures. Figures 6 and 7 clearly show the tendency of the MODIS-derived temperatures to be warmer than near-surface air temperatures during the summer months.

3.2.2 Comparison of nighttime temperatures

At nighttime, Aqua passes between 00:00 and 05:00 and Terra between 18:00 and 23:00 over the Kuparuk River Basin, while over northern Québec (Nunavik), Aqua passes between 00:00 and 04:00 and Terra between 20:00 and 23:00. As revealed in the graphs (Figs. 6–7), the correspondence between the MODIS LST and near-surface air temperatures at the stations is overall weaker during nighttime (18:00 to 05:00) than during daytime (09:00 to 15:00). R values at nighttime fluctuate for Terra between 0.92 and 0.97 in Alaska, and between 0.87 and 0.96 in Québec, while for Aqua the R values fluctuate between 0.90 and 0.98 in Alaska and between 0.90 and 0.97 in northern Québec depending on the station. The mean differences during nighttime are much more negative than during daytime in both study areas (Alaska: $-6.39 < \text{MD Terra} < -1.30$ with mean of -2.87°C , and $-7.66 < \text{MD Aqua} < -2.65$ (mean of -4.57), and in Québec: $-5.95 < \text{MD Terra} < -3.83$ (mean of -5.43), and $-7.72 < \text{MD Aqua} < -4.21$ (mean of -6.11), pointing out an important variance between LST-Night and T_{air} night. LSTs are smaller (colder) than the T_{air} at night. In Figs. 6–7, the LST-Night is more often below the T_{air} either in summer or winter. These figures show that in winter the LST-night appears to follow the slope of the mean daily temperature curve fairly accurately. In contrast, in summer, although the LST-night is never above the mean daily temperature curve, a large number of the MODIS temperature measure-

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stations from Alaska and Northern Québec are pooled together).

4 Discussion

4.1 Temperature differences in winter and in summer

4.1.1 Comparison of MODIS LST with near-surface soil temperatures: large differences during the transition seasons

Differences between the low correlations of LST vs. T_{soil} at Kuparuk compared to those in Salluit can be explained by the fact that the temperatures derived from MODIS are clear-sky skin temperatures, i.e., the temperature at the air-soil (snow-free) or air-snow interface. They, as expected, do not correspond exactly to the temperatures measured at the stations where the temperatures were taken at 2–3 cm depths in order to provide protection from the elements and wildlife. However, it is in these first few centimeters that temperatures are the most variable in time and space (Figs. 3–4).

T_{soil} represents the heat transfer equilibrium related to molecules agitation between two systems, while the surface temperature obtained from satellite sensors is determined from surface brightness temperature and surface emissivity after atmospheric corrections have been applied. The soil can be covered by vegetation (low or high), an organic layer and snow which act as buffer layers which have an impact on thermal exchanges with the atmosphere above by decreasing or increasing the ground temperatures, depending on the season. During the freezing period, the energy transfer occurs in the form of latent heat. The soil temperature decreases only through the release of energy which takes some time (i.e. the time necessary to convert all water into ice), and inversely in spring, during the melting period. In winter, the “zero curtain” is strongly dependent on the arrival of snow. If it is early, before the first freeze, the snow insulates the ground from cold air temperatures. Then, to decrease the soil temperature, the air temperature must be sufficiently cold to be conducted through the

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snow layer before starting to freeze the ground. On the other hand, if snow arrival is late, the soil has already started to freeze before the snow starts to play its insulation effect. As seen in the regression plots of Fig. 3, the “zero curtain” associated with the effect of snow occurred when many field temperatures have values at 0 °C, while MODIS continues to measure temperatures between –20 and +10 °C. This effect is relatively long, as it persists for approximately one month at the Betty Pingo, Franklin Bluff and Western Kuparuk sites. The temperatures at Sila were also taken at a depth of 3 cm, and the “zero curtain” effect is also visible (Fig. 3), but to both a lesser extent and shorter period of time (less than one week). This is due, at Salluit, to a more rocky landscape with less water content in the soils and with the temperature probes being located in windy corridors where snow is blown; this factor results in less time required for water state changes at the beginning and ending of the thawing season. Furthermore, if the correlation at Sila is especially high (0.96) it is also because the satellites only acquired a few scattered measurements for the time period when this effect occurred (mid-October to mid-May). Thus, there were only a few measurements corresponding to the “zero curtain” period.

During spring, the insulation effect of snow is less efficient because of the denser snow cover and the likely presence of ice lenses/crusts due to diurnal freeze and thaw cycles. The transition period in spring takes less time, just 10 days for the Kuparuk River Basin stations and one week at Salluit.

4.1.2 Comparison of MODIS LST with near-surface air temperatures

There is a tendency for nighttime LST to be colder than T_{air} throughout the year by –1.96 to –6.94 °C (depending on stations), with a mean night difference of –1.86 °C (Fig. ??) which occurs as result of heat transfer (radiative cooling) from the ground surface to the air above at night. Also, the role of annual changes in day length is important in the Arctic. “LST-Day” during winter corresponds to days without sunlight. Actually, overpass times at 09:00, 10:00, and 15:00 are “nighttime” acquisitions for many of these stations. This, plus the low sun angle during daylight, explains why

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there is less difference between day and night temperatures in the winter. In the summer, even though the sun is above the horizon for much of the day, the sun zenith angle varies enough to make “day” temperatures warmer than “night” temperatures (which, for a part of the night hours, are sunlight hours). Therefore, the separation of the year into two parts (summer and winter periods) does not take into account the difference in day lengths. We considered the summer period to start on 1 June and end on 30 September, to include the growing season as determined by Zhou et al. (2001). This period includes the summer solstice (almost 20 h of daylight) and ends close to the autumn equinox (21 September), which means that during this period the maximum day length is reached for meteorological stations above 60° N. In turn, during this period, nights are very short. On the other hand, during the cold season (1 October–30 May, there are few hours of daylight, except in spring at the vernal equinox. For instance, the city of Fairbanks, Alaska (about 65° N) has 21 h of daylight 10 May–2 August and only 4 h between November 18 and 24 January.

There appear to be differences between the LST taken in summer and winter according to the shape of the distributions in the plots of Figs. 6–7. The transitional snow melt and frost periods, which last between ten days to a month at these high latitudes, were included in the winter season. Thus, in the middle of winter, the frozen snow-covered landscape is relatively homogeneous and, as a result, the complicating effects of soil and surface wetness are absent; the LST values represent those at the air-snow interface. However, it is different at the beginning and end of the defined winter season (1 October–30 May), in particular for the period corresponding to the beginning of snowmelt and active layer thaw when extensive areas of stagnant water form due to the impermeability of the underlying frozen soils. The presence of the stagnant water modifies the heat exchanges between the soil surface and the atmosphere at the soil interface, which the 2-m height air temperatures do not measure. Including the period of snowmelt it is one of the reasons why the temperature differences in summer are fluctuating around 0°C ($-1.34 < MD < .66$ with a mean of 0.52°C) (Fig. 5). During snowmelt the LST better represents the near-surface (melting snow) temperature than

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the T_{air} . As it has been seen previously, the temperature of undetected clouds is lower than that of air temperature and can lead to larger differences, which provides some of the explanation for the differences in winter ($-7.18 < \text{MD} < -1.11$ °C with a mean of -2.98 °C). Also, in summer, R values below 0.75 for 4 stations (6 pixels) – West Dock (WD1 and WD2), Tiki (Tiki2), Kangiqsuallujuaq (Kangiq1 and Kangiq2) and Kuujuaq (Kuujuaq2) show a weaker relation between LST and T_{air} (Fig. 5). As an example, in Fig. 8, the graphs for the WD1 site show the temperature differences in summer and winter. For the other stations, R values are all above 0.75 (up to 0.94). The presence of subgrid-scale water (see Table 2) within the MODIS pixels explains the more moderate relations between LSTs and 2-m height air temperature measurements at some of the sites. Globally, the temperature differences are larger in winter than in summer (Fig. 5). Summer differences are more frequently above 0 °C which means that LSTs are higher than T_{air} during this season ($-1.34 < \text{MD} < 1.66$ with a mean of 0.52 °C). In winter, differences show an opposite tendency. LSTs are colder than T_{air} ($-7.18 < \text{MD} < -1.11$ °C with a mean of -2.98 °C). In absolute term, the differences in summer are smaller than during winter (Fig. 5) for all stations.

Fluctuations in soil temperatures are dependent on fluctuations in surface temperatures, which are in turn influenced by atmospheric temperatures. Thus, at different time scales, it is possible to define different fluctuation periods. A period of one year corresponds to the annual solar radiation cycle while a period of one day corresponds to the diurnal solar radiation cycle (Williams and Smith, 1989). The difference between LST and T_{air} can be large over a diurnal cycle, while it diminishes over a monthly cycle. Seasonally, there is a slight tendency to yield a warmer summer temperature ($+0.52$ °C) and a colder winter temperature (-2.98 °C). The mean annual difference for all stations combined is -1.84 °C, with a propensity for the LST to be below T_{air} . Therefore, the LST are slightly warmer in summer and, to a greater magnitude, colder in winter.

It is clear from Fig. 5 that calculation of the mean annual LST removes the larger bias of the winter months by that of the summer months and that, as a result, LSTs become closer to T_{air} when averaged over the year but still, the differences observed

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show clearly that they are two different variables (clear-sky satellite “skin” surface-air interface temperature vs 2–3 m height air temperature). The differences are largely due to the nature and state of the surfaces being sensed within the MODIS pixels (e.g. vegetation, bare rock, surface water and wetness). Overall, regardless of surface type, LST and T_{air} show a high degree of temporal coherence and on broad spatial and temporal (over a year) scales they follow the same trajectory. Since mean annual air temperatures are very important for calculating the thermal regime of permafrost, the annual means of LST, similar to T_{air} , are seen as useful for permafrost studies.

5 Conclusions

The MODIS LST, as indicated by comparing with temperatures measured at meteorological stations, provides an excellent data source for regional monitoring of skin temperatures in Arctic regions at the resolution of 1 km^2 . Correlations were found to be generally weaker and mean differences higher in winter than in summer for most stations. The weaker relations obtained between T_{soil} and LST in winter as opposed to summer (or T_{air} and LST) are due to zero curtain effect during transition periods (seasons) and to snow cover effects.

The MODIS temperature data were shown to be close to hourly near-surface air temperature measurements and even more to daily average temperatures (mean of LST-Day and LST-Night). The relation between the two sets of measurements is stronger and mean differences are smaller when data are averaged on a seasonal and even better on an annual time scale. Given this, and recognizing that the presence of clouds does not permit a continuous temporal coverage throughout a full annual cycle, the MODIS-derived LSTs are nonetheless a promising means for monitoring and modeling the surface thermal regime of regions underlain by permafrost. Although the amount of clouds can be significant in the Arctic such that it is impractical to retrieve LSTs with thermal infrared satellite sensors for several days to several weeks of the year, procedures have recently been developed (e.g. sinusoidal regression model) to replace

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missing data due to the presence of clouds in MODIS time series (Hachem, 2009). Alternatively, it may be possible to combine MODIS LSTs with temperature values obtained with coarser resolution passive microwave satellite data (e.g. Kohn and Royer, 2010; Royer and Poirier, 2010).

5 Actually, in permafrost studies, it is possible to use the mean annual air or surface (it is even better) temperature as input into mathematical models which reproduce the thermal regime into the ground. MODIS LSTs can also be used to calculate the sum of positive degree-days (thawing index) and the sum of negative degree-days (freezing index) (Hachem et al., 2008; Hachem et al., 2009), and therefore enable to estimate the seasonal evolution of the active layer thickness (i.e. the soil layer above 10 permafrost which freezes and thaws seasonally). The LST can also be used to evaluate the surface temperature of large lakes to estimate their thermal regime and to verify against lake models used in numerical weather prediction and regional climate models (e.g. Kheyrollah Pour et al., 2011). Concerning vegetation, it has been shown that the 15 threshold of growing season for black spruce is 800 degree-days above mean annual air temperature of 5°C (Meunier et al., 2007). Using the LST, it is possible to evaluate above certain regions the growing season of black spruce. Other thresholds for other plant species could also make use of LST.

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Table 1. Characteristics of the study sites.

Station Name	Station coordinates		Height Tair (m)	Depth TsoI(cm)	Elevation(m)	Vegetation cover	Soil Characteristics
	Latitude (N)	Longitude (W)					
<i>Alaska</i>							
West Dock (WD)	70°22' 50"	148°33' 39"	1	-	7-6	Marshy drained lake basin tundra	Organic overlying layers of fine sands and silts
Betty Pingo wetland (BPW)			1	Surface/h		Wet sedge tundra and furb tundra	
Betty Pingo upland (BPU)	70°16'46.3"	148° 53' 44.5"	-	Surface/h	12	Marshy drier more tundra	Organic overlying layers of fine sand and silts
Franklin Bluff (FB)	69°53' 31.8"	148°46' 4.8"	1	Surface/h	78	Grasses and sedges rooted in mosses and lichens	Organic materials of variable thickness overlie silt loam textured mineral soils poorly drained
Sagwon (SAG)	69°25' 27.5"	148°41' 45.1"	1	Surface/d	299	Tussock tundra	Loamy with peaty surface layer poorly drained
West Kuparuk (WK)	69°25' 34.3"	150°20' 25.3"	1	2/d	158	Moist acidic tundra, tussock tundra	Loamy with peaty surface layer poorly drained
Upper Kuparuk (UK)	68°38' 24.5"	149°24' 23.4"	1	5/d	774	Tussock tundra	-
Imnavait Basin (IB)	68°36' 58.6"	149°18' 13.0"	1	Surface/d	937	Tussock mosses shrubs tundra lichens	Soils cold wet poorly drained sil loams with a high organic content and include many glacial erratic
Imnavait Ridge (IR)	68°37' 27.9"	149°19' 22.3"	-	Surface/d	-	-	-
Ivotuk Shrub (IvShrb)	68°29' 12"	155°44' 34"	1	2.5/3h	570	Shrub lichen tussock	-
Ivotuk Moss (Iv-Moss)	68°26' 58.6"	155°44' 71'	1	1/3h		Moss lichen tussock	-
<i>Québec</i>							
Sila	62°11' 41.9"	75°38' 12.8"	2	3/h	45	Moss lichen tussock	Organic overlying very shallow thickness of silt on till
Tiki	62°12' 14.1"	75°41' 11.6"	2	3/h	35	lichen	Bed rock, nor organic matter
Salluit airport (SalA)	62°11' 1.44"	75°39'54.9"	2	-	-	-	Rock, asphalt
Kangiqsuallujuaq (Kangiq)	58°41' 7.83"	65°55' 6.43"	2	3/h	110	Lichen and shrub of birch	Organic overlying shallow till on bed rock
Kuujuuaq (Env. Can.)	58°06' 31.62"	68°24' 42.44"	1.5	-	39	-	-

*h : measured each hour; d : mean daily temperature; - No Data

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Table 2. Correspondence between stations and MODIS pixels used for comparison.

Station Name	Time period of station measurements	Pixel Name	Pixel center coordinate Latitude (N) Longitude (W)	MODIS tile	Pixel position description
<i>Alaska</i>					
West Dock	Tair: 03/02/2000 to 29/10/2008	WD1 WD2	70°22' 50" 148°33' 39" 70°22' 20.33" 148°34' 16.24"	h13v01 h13v01	Near the coast (57.5% water) One pixel south of WD1 (28.1% water)
Betty Bingo (upland) – Tsoil	Tsoil: 01/01/2000 to 19/10/2008	BPU1	70°16' 46.3" 148°53' 44.5"	h12v01	One pixel of water (1.5% water), same pixel kept
Betty Pingo (wetland) – Tair	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2008	BPW1	70°16' 46.7" 148°53' 46"	h12v01	Twelve pixels of water (17.9% water), same pixel kept
Eastern Kuparuk (Franklin Bluff)	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2007 Tsoil: 29/04/2001 to 31/12/2007	FB1 FB2	69°53' 31.8" 148°46' 4.8" 69°53' 27.12" 148°46' 59.95"	h12v02 h12v02	Close to a river (60% of wet graminoid) One pixel east of FB1 (50% of wet graminoid)
Eastern Kuparuk (Sagwon)	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2008 Tsoil: 01/01/2003 to 28/12/2008	SAG1	69°25' 27.5" 148°41' 45.1"	h12v02	No water, same pixel kept
West Kuparuk	Tair: 25/04/2000 to 22/09/2008 Tsoil: 25/04/2000 to 16/09/2008	WK1 WK2	69°25' 34.3" 150°20' 25.3" 69°26' 09.62" 150°19' 47.70"	h12v02 h12v02	No water, same pixel kept One pixel north west of WK1 (7.2% water)
Upper Kuparuk	Tair: 01/03/2000 to 14/09/2008	UK1	68°38' 24.56" 149°24' 23.4"	h12v02	One pixel of water (2% water), same pixel kept
Imnavait Basin	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2008 Tsoil: 01/01/2000 to 25/10/2007	IB1 IB2	68°36' 58.6" 149°18' 13" 68°37' 2.7" 149°19' 2.3"	h12v02 h12v02	No water, same pixel kept One pixel north west of IB1 (no water)
Ivotuk Shrub	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2004	IvShrb1	68°29' 12" 155°44' 34"	h12v02	No water, same pixel kept
Ivotuk Moss	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2004	IvMoss1	68°28' 49.2" 150°44' 42.6"	h12v02	No water, same pixel kept
<i>Québec</i>					
Sila	Tair / Tsoil 05/08/2002 to 13/10/2003	Sila1	62°11' 41.9" 75°38' 12.8"	h14v02	Near the coast (9.7% water), same pixel kept
Tiki	Tair/Tsoil 30/07/2002 to 13/10/2003	Tiki1 Tiki2	62°12' 14.1" 75°41' 11.6"	h14v02 h14v02	In the water (100% water) One pixel south of Tiki (17.5% water)
Salluit airport	Tair: 28/07/2002 to 14/10/2007	SaIA1	62°11' 1.44" 75°39' 54.9"	h14v02	No water, same pixel kept
Kangiqsualujjuaq	Tair: 05/06/2001 to 02/11/2004	Kangiq1 Kangiq2	58°41' 28.2" 65°55' 23.16"	h14v03 h14v03	Near the coast (10.4% water) One pixel right (8.9% water)
Kuujuuaq	Tair: 01/01/2000 to 31/12/2008	Kuujuuaq1 Kuujuuaq2 Kuujuuaq3	58°06' 31.62" 68°24' 42.44"	h14v03 h14v03 h14v03	This pixel containing the station had no LST values: One pixel right and one down (no water) One pixel left (no water)

1: pixel including station; 2 or 3: other pixel

Table 3. Number of days (percentage) with clear-sky MODIS LST measurements (2000–2008).

Pixel Name	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
<i>Alaska</i>									
WD1	–	–	26 %	33 %	40 %	36 %	31 %	38 %	36 %
WD2	–	–	29 %	34 %	41 %	39 %	32 %	36 %	36 %
BPW1	23 %	24 %	37 %	41 %	54 %	50 %	47 %	49 %	44 %
FB1	27 %	24 %	39 %	40 %	52 %	40 %	43 %	53 %	41 %
FB2	27 %	27 %	39 %	42 %	53 %	39 %	43 %	54 %	40 %
SAG1	26 %	31 %	42 %	44 %	53 %	48 %	45 %	58 %	41 %
WK1	27 %	28 %	38 %	43 %	53 %	43 %	44 %	56 %	43 %
WK2	26 %	29 %	39 %	45 %	53 %	43 %	46 %	56 %	44 %
UK1	31 %	32 %	38 %	46 %	53 %	51 %	47 %	58 %	48 %
IB1	32 %	32 %	35 %	45 %	54 %	54 %	43 %	59 %	48 %
IB2	33 %	33 %	37 %	46 %	53 %	53 %	45 %	61 %	48 %
IvMoss	25 %	27 %	41 %	44 %	63 %	65 %	54 %	69 %	60 %
IvShrb	25 %	27 %	42 %	44 %	50 %	51 %	41 %	55 %	44 %
<i>Québec</i>									
Sila1	–	–	15 %	18 %	17 %	17 %	19 %	19 %	21 %
Tiki2	–	–	15 %	18 %	18 %	18 %	22 %	21 %	22 %
SalA1	–	–	17 %	19 %	18 %	16 %	22 %	21 %	23 %
Kangiq1	–	16 %	14 %	17 %	19 %	22 %	20 %	16 %	26 %
Kangiq2	–	16 %	16 %	17 %	18 %	21 %	19 %	14 %	24 %
Kujjuaq2	10 %	19 %	21 %	30 %	28 %	33 %	33 %	28 %	40 %
Kujjuaq3	5 %	9 %	13 %	16 %	14 %	15 %	15 %	14 %	18 %

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Table 4. Frequency of Aqua and Terra satellite overpasses within different hours above the field stations during the period of study (2000–2008). The most frequent overpass times for the different stations are given in bold.

Pixels Over	Aqua overpass hours											Terra overpass hours												
	Day Time					Night time						Day time					Night time							
	9	10	11	12	13	14	0	1	2	3	4	5	10	11	12	13	14	15	18	19	20	21	22	23
WD1	0.13	0.25	0.21	0.26	0.10	0.05	0.13	0.35	0.18	0.19	0.11	0.05	0.07	0.29	0.25	0.11	0.10	0.18	0.09	0.25	0.28	0.28	0.09	0.02
WD2	0.13	0.25	0.22	0.27	0.09	0.05	0.13	0.34	0.18	0.18	0.12	0.04	0.07	0.28	0.26	0.11	0.09	0.17	0.09	0.25	0.29	0.28	0.08	0.02
BPU1	0.13	0.30	0.20	0.21	0.11	0.04	0.14	0.36	0.18	0.18	0.11	0.04	0.07	0.27	0.23	0.10	0.13	0.19	0.10	0.25	0.29	0.27	0.08	0.01
BPW1	0.13	0.30	0.20	0.21	0.11	0.04	0.14	0.36	0.18	0.18	0.10	0.04	0.07	0.27	0.23	0.10	0.13	0.19	0.10	0.25	0.29	0.27	0.08	0.01
FB1	0.10	0.28	0.23	0.25	0.10	0.03	0.17	0.38	0.17	0.16	0.08	0.03	0.06	0.32	0.24	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.08	0.26	0.27	0.26	0.11	0.02
FB2	0.10	0.30	0.22	0.23	0.11	0.04	0.16	0.37	0.17	0.17	0.10	0.04	0.06	0.33	0.22	0.09	0.14	0.15	0.08	0.26	0.28	0.26	0.10	0.02
SAG1	0.06	0.30	0.29	0.22	0.09	0.04	0.18	0.39	0.16	0.15	0.08	0.03	0.07	0.35	0.24	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.05	0.29	0.30	0.25	0.10	0.02
WK1	0.06	0.29	0.28	0.20	0.10	0.06	0.19	0.40	0.15	0.15	0.07	0.03	0.07	0.35	0.20	0.10	0.17	0.12	0.06	0.30	0.30	0.24	0.09	0.01
WK2	0.07	0.29	0.27	0.21	0.11	0.06	0.18	0.40	0.15	0.16	0.07	0.04	0.07	0.35	0.20	0.09	0.16	0.12	0.06	0.31	0.29	0.24	0.09	0.01
UK1	–	0.30	0.35	0.22	0.09	0.04	0.18	0.41	0.15	0.16	0.08	0.02	0.11	0.44	0.23	0.08	0.11	0.03	–	0.27	0.36	0.26	0.10	0.02
IB1	–	0.30	0.36	0.21	0.10	0.02	0.17	0.41	0.16	0.16	0.08	0.02	0.10	0.44	0.23	0.08	0.12	0.03	–	0.27	0.37	0.25	0.09	0.02
IB2	–	0.31	0.37	0.20	0.10	0.02	0.16	0.40	0.17	0.16	0.08	0.02	0.10	0.43	0.25	0.09	0.11	0.03	–	0.26	0.37	0.26	0.09	0.02
lvShrb1	–	0.25	0.29	0.20	0.11	0.15	0.18	0.40	0.16	0.16	0.07	0.03	0.09	0.34	0.24	0.08	0.22	0.03	–	0.22	0.34	0.29	0.12	0.03
lvMoss1	–	0.25	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.15	0.18	0.41	0.16	0.16	0.06	0.03	0.08	0.34	0.24	0.08	0.23	0.03	–	0.21	0.34	0.31	0.12	0.02
Pixels Over Québec	9	10	11	12	13	14	0	1	2	3	4	5	10	11	12	13	14	15	18	19	20	21	22	23
Sila1	–	–	0.19	0.40	0.36	0.06	0.09	0.16	0.28	0.40	0.07	–	0.07	0.41	0.41	0.12	–	–	–	–	0.15	0.47	0.33	0.05
Tiki2	–	–	0.18	0.38	0.39	0.06	0.09	0.15	0.29	0.38	0.08	–	0.06	0.41	0.40	0.13	–	–	–	–	0.15	0.45	0.34	0.06
SaIA1	–	–	0.18	0.49	0.37	0.06	0.05	0.12	0.36	0.38	0.09	–	0.07	0.41	0.39	0.12	–	–	–	–	0.15	0.46	0.34	0.06
Kangiq1	–	–	0.07	0.38	0.43	0.12	0.07	0.12	0.35	0.37	0.08	–	0.09	0.44	0.37	0.10	–	–	–	–	0.09	0.45	0.38	0.08
Kangiq2	–	–	0.08	0.38	0.43	0.11	0.07	0.13	0.37	0.35	0.07	–	0.09	0.44	0.37	0.10	–	–	–	–	0.10	0.44	0.38	0.08
Kujuaq2	–	–	0.06	0.38	0.47	0.09	0.10	0.19	0.36	0.28	0.07	–	0.08	0.49	0.36	0.07	–	–	–	–	0.11	0.44	0.36	0.09
Kujuaq3	–	–	0.05	0.37	0.48	0.10	0.07	0.16	0.41	0.31	0.05	–	0.09	0.48	0.35	0.07	–	–	–	–	0.11	0.46	0.34	0.09

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Table 5. Mean difference and correlation for daytime, nighttime and daily average from Aqua and Terra separately, and Aqua/Terra combined.

			Daytime mean	Nighttime mean	Daily mean
Alaska (Ak)	Terra	Mean difference	-0.70	-2.87	-1.37
		<i>R</i>	0.96	0.94	0.97
	Aqua	Mean difference	-1.21	-4.57	-2.69
		<i>R</i>	0.97	0.96	0.98
	Terra/Aqua	Mean difference	-0.98	-3.48	-1.90
		<i>R</i>	0.97	0.96	0.98
Québec (Qc)	Terra	Mean difference	0.39	-5.43	-1.72
		<i>R</i>	0.96	0.91	0.95
	Aqua	Mean difference	1.12	-6.11	-1.28
		<i>R</i>	0.95	0.93	0.96
	Terra/Aqua	Mean difference	0.41	-5.93	-1.79
		<i>R</i>	0.96	0.91	0.96
Ak and Qc	Terra/Aqua	Mean difference	-0.54	-4.26	-1.86
		<i>R</i>	0.96	0.94	0.97

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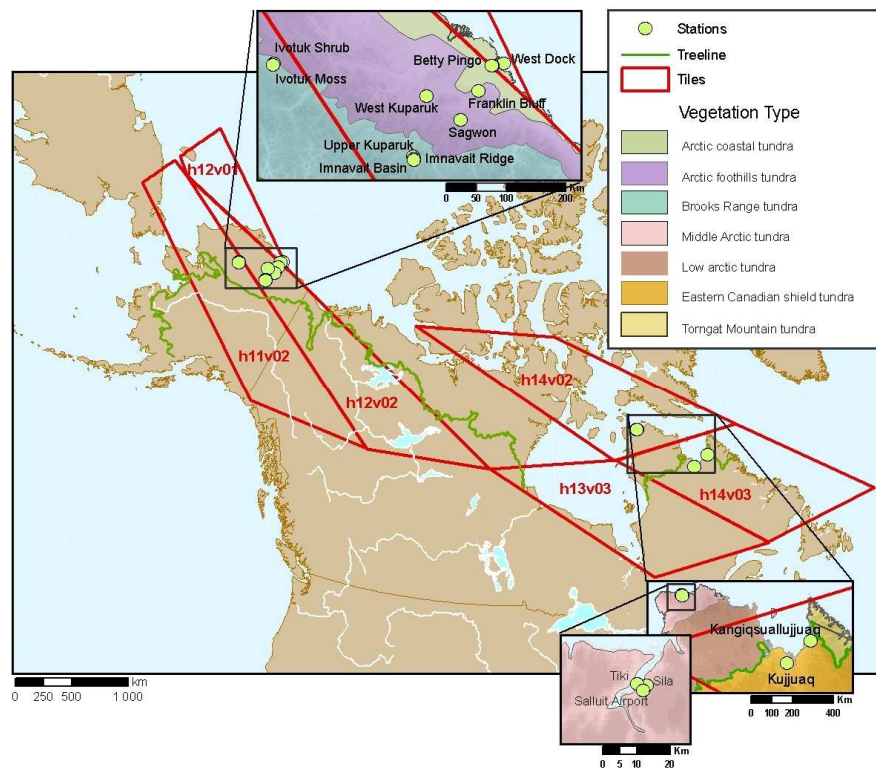


Fig. 1. Location of field sites and MODIS tiles for the North Slope of Alaska and Nunavik (Québec) in a Lambert conic conformal projection.

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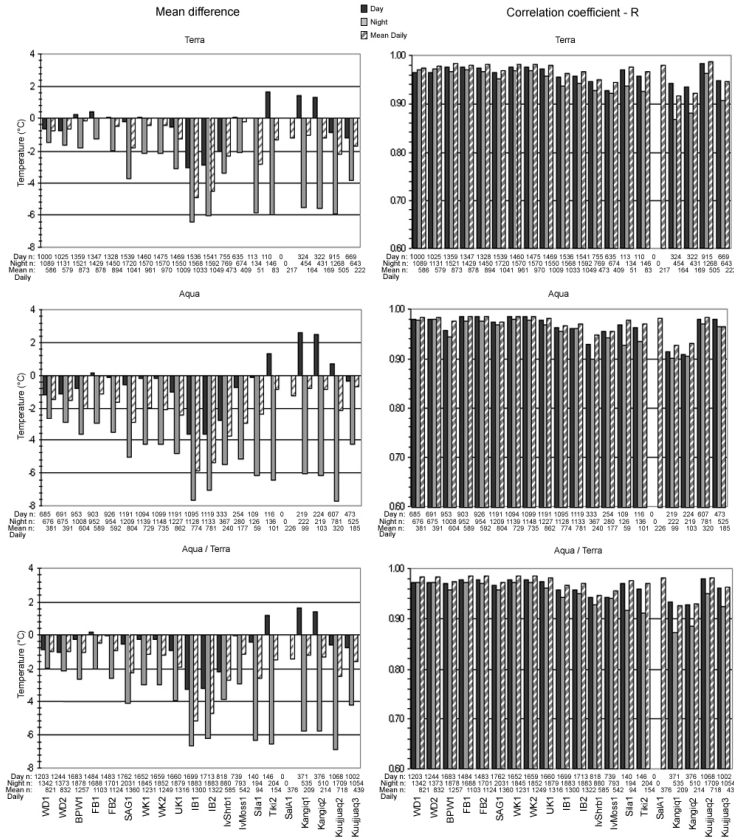


Fig. 2. Mean difference and correlation between T_{air} and LST from Aqua, Terra and average Aqua/Terra, for day, night and mean daily values (n : number of measurements).

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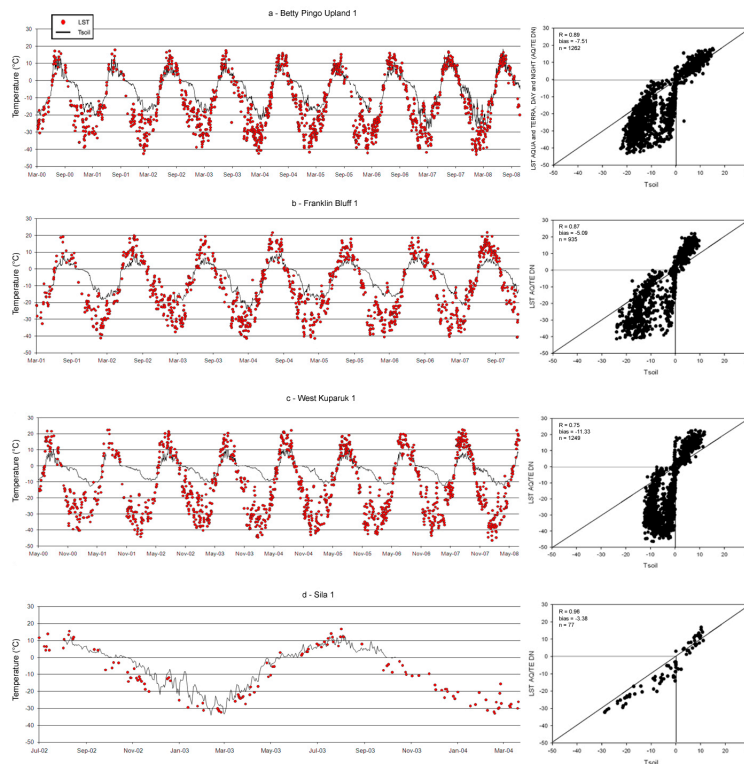


Fig. 3. Relation between mean daily MODIS LST (combined Terra and Aqua) and mean daily soil temperature at **(a)** Betty Pingo Upland (BPU1), **(b)** Franklin Bluff (FB1), **(c)** Western Kuparuk (WK1), and **(d)** Sila (Sila1).

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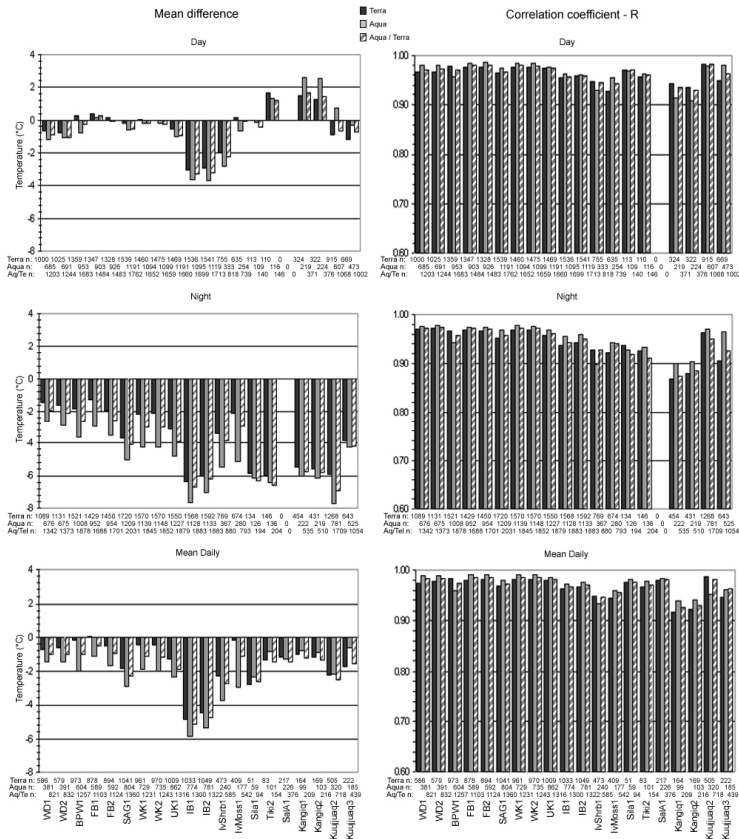


Fig. 4. Mean difference and correlation between T_{air} and LST at daytime, nighttime, and daily average for Terra, Aqua and Aqua/Terra combined.

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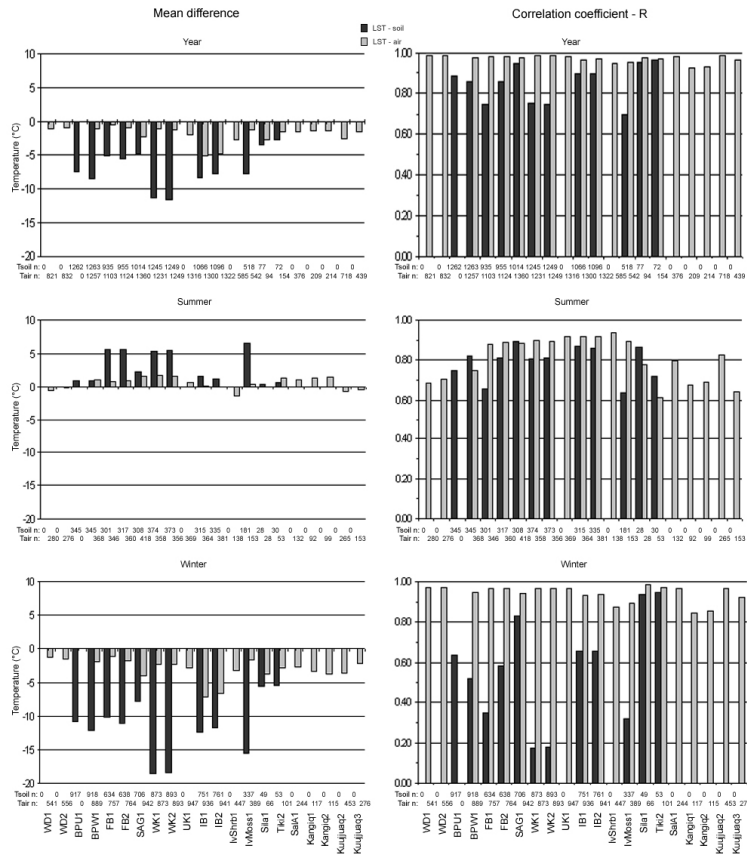


Fig. 5. Mean difference and correlation between daily average $T_{\text{soil}}/T_{\text{air}}$ and LST calculated from Aqua/Terra combined for full year, summer and winter periods.

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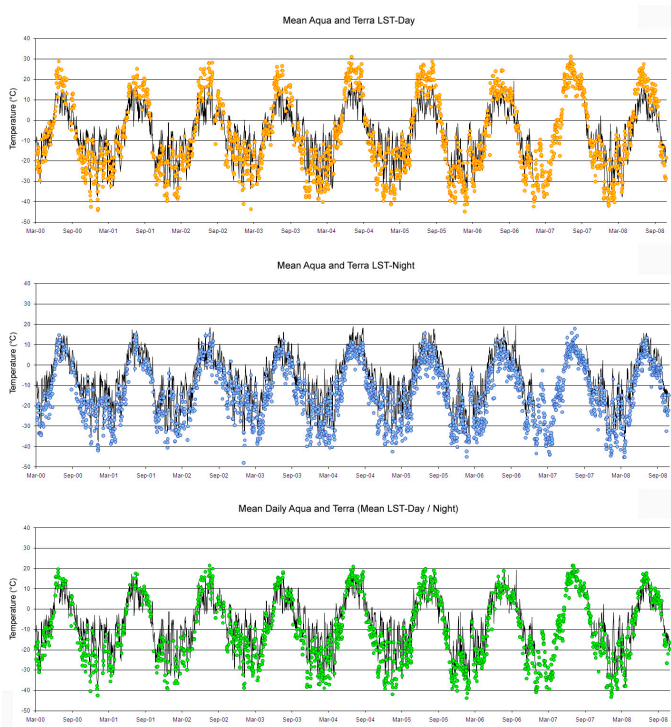


Fig. 6. Comparison between the mean LST (a) combined Terra/Aqua Day acquisitions, (b) combined Terra/Aqua Night acquisitions, and (c) combined Terra/Aqua Day/Night acquisitions for IB1 pixel on Imnavait Basin site.

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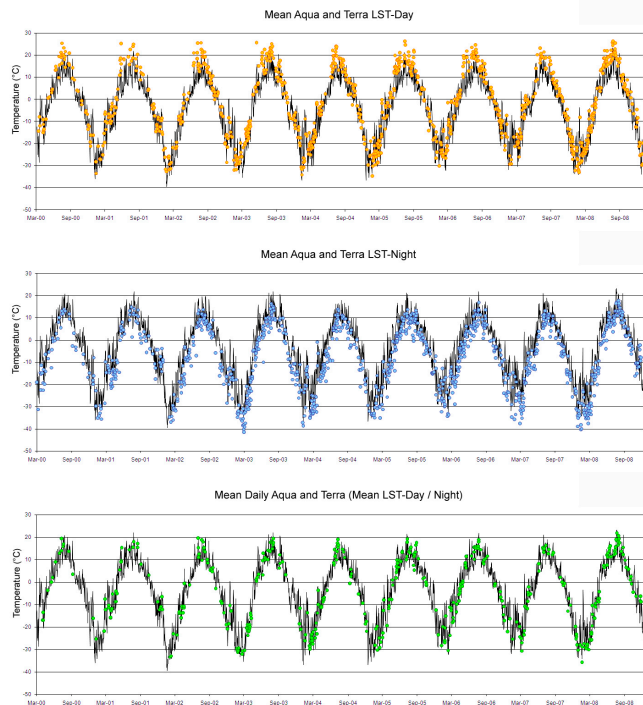


Fig. 7. Comparison between the mean LST **(a)** combined Terra/Aqua Day acquisitions, **(b)** combined Terra/Aqua Night acquisitions, and **(c)** combined Terra/Aqua Day/Night acquisitions for Kuujuaq2 on Kuujuaq site.

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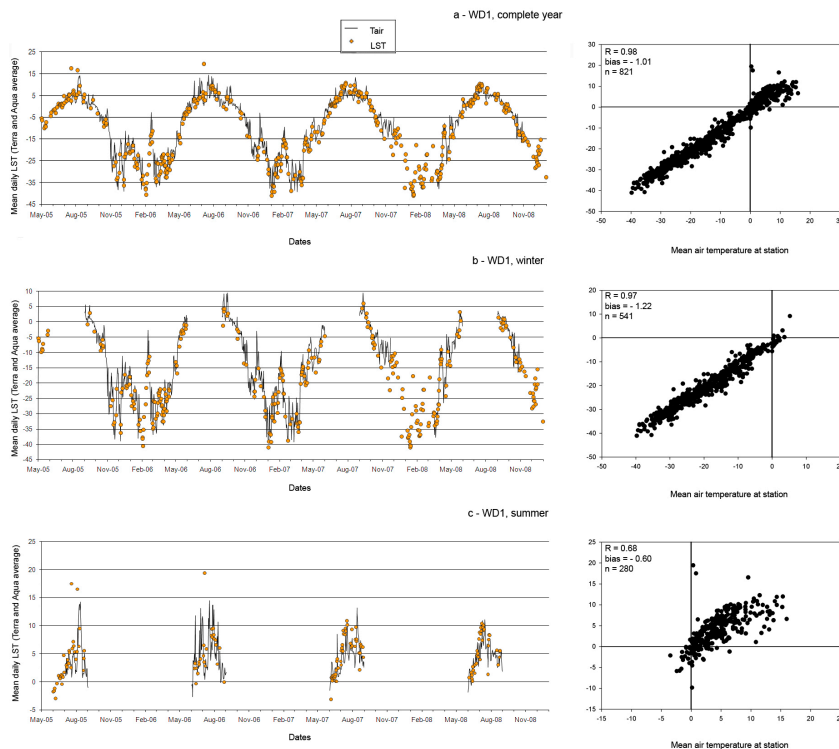


Fig. 8. Comparison between the mean daily LST (combined Day/Night/Terra/Aqua) and mean daily air temperature at West Dock (WD1) for **(a)** complete year, **(b)** winter, and **(c)** summer. On left, LST overlaid on meteorological station measurements, and on right relation between the two sets of measurements.

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