Data Fusion of AIRS and CrIMSS Near Surface Air Temperature

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Key Points:

- We demonstrate spatial statistical fusion for Level 2 remote sensing datasets which estimate the same observable
- We introduce a new daily and nightly fused near-surface air temperature product from satellite hyperspectral sounders over CONUS
- The fused product decreases bias and RMSE by 1 K and 25% respectively relative to input datasets, averaged over the domain of the study

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Abstract

We present a near surface air temperature (NSAT) fused data product over the contiguous United States using Level 2 data from the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS), on the Aqua satellite, and the Cross-track Infrared Microwave Sounding Suite (CrIMSS), on the Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership (SNPP) satellite. We create the fused product using Spatial Statistical Data Fusion (SSDF), a procedure for fusing multiple datasets by modeling spatial dependence in the data, along with ground station data from NOAA's Integrated Surface Database (ISD) which is used to estimate bias and variance in the input satellite datasets. Our fused NSAT product is produced twice daily and on a 0.25-degree latitude-longitude grid. We provide detailed validation using withheld ISD data and comparison with ERA5-Land reanalysis. The fused gridded product has no missing data; has improved accuracy and precision relative to the input satellite datasets, and comparable accuracy and precision to ERA5-Land; and includes improved uncertainty estimates. Over the domain of our study, the fused product decreases daytime bias magnitude by 1.7 K and 0.5 K, nighttime bias magnitude by 1.5 K and 0.2 K, and overall RMSE by 35% and 15% relative to the AIRS and CrIMSS input datasets, respectively. Our method is computationally fast and generalizable, capable of data fusion from multiple datasets estimating the same quantity. Finally, because our product reduces bias, it produces long-term datasets across multi-instrument remote sensing records with improved bias stationarity, even as individual missions and their data records begin and end.

Plain Language Summary

We have used a data fusion technique called spatial statistical data fusion (SSDF) to create an improved near surface air temperature (NSAT) dataset by fusing two separate satellite datasets. NSAT is important for a variety of applications, such as drought, wildfire, and extreme heat research and prediction. The two input NSAT datasets come from the AIRS instrument on the Aqua satellite, and the CrIMSS suite on the SNPP satellite. Our fused NSAT product is produced twice daily and on a 0.25-degree latitude-longitude grid. We also performed a detailed validation using withheld reference data (which was not included in the bias-correction data) and comparison with ERA5-Land reanalysis. The new SSDF product has no missing data; has improved accuracy and precision relative to the input satellite datasets, and comparable accuracy and precision to ERA5-Land; and includes improved uncertainty estimates. SSDF is computationally fast and generalizable, capable of data fusion from multiple datasets so long as they estimate the same quantity. Finally, because our product reduces bias, it provides a means of creating high-quality continuous long-term datasets across the years, as individual satellite missions and their data records begin and end.

1 Introduction

Data fusion is the combining of multiple datasets into a single dataset with improved properties relative to the input datasets (for a recent review, see Ghamisi et al. (2019)). Near-surface air temperature (NSAT, the air temperature at a height of 2 m above the surface) is a fundamental variable that critically affects life on the Earth's surface, and an Essential Climate Variable. Here, we describe the use of spatial statistical data fusion (SSDF) to fuse two Level 2 (L2) satellite NSAT datasets into a single product at 0.25-degree spatial resolution on a twice-daily basis (one daytime and one nighttime estimate per day) over the contiguous United States (CONUS) and adjacent parts of North America. SSDF utilizes spatial dependence within and between the datasets to improve estimates at any given point, including at locations not covered by the input data.

As the Earth continues to rapidly heat due to human emissions of greenhouse gases, NSAT remote sensing records are becoming increasingly important for a number of critical science and applied science areas such as health, urban planning, hydrology and water, ecology and conservation, and wildfire prediction. NSAT data records have been produced by a variety of methods which are suited for different purposes. One method is to collect NSAT measurements from ground stations; one example of this type of dataset is the Integrated Surface Database, or ISD (A. Smith et al., 2011). Ground station measurements are relatively accurate, but they are sparse point-source measurements with some regions of the planet having less coverage than others. These strengths and weaknesses make them suitable for use as reference data for validation purposes. Another type of NSAT dataset can be created by filtering and processing these raw NSAT ground measurements into space-filled, gridded climate records useful for climate analysis and climate model validation. These climate records are typically monthly mean products at low resolution, such as the 1-degree resolution Berkeley Earth Monthly Land+Ocean dataset (Rohde & Hausfather, 2020). Berkeley Earth is also experimenting with daily and 0.25-degree-resolution datasets. A third strategy for estimating NSAT is reanalysis, which uses multiple data sources (including satellite data) and dynamical weather models to create dynamically consistent gridded fields. As computational power and algorithm efficiencies have increased, so have the spatial resolutions of reanalysis datasets. An example is the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Reanalysis 5 (ERA5)-Land reanalysis NSAT dataset (Hennermann & Berrisford, 2019), which has hourly temporal resolution and a spatial resolution of 0.1 degrees, the highest available at the time of writing. Finally, NSAT can be estimated from satellite remote sensing. NSAT can be retrieved from imaging instruments which can estimate land surface temperature (LST) at high resolutions, although obtaining NSAT from LST requires regression modeling which introduces its own errors. An example of NSAT modeled from LST is the EUSTACE project (Good, 2015; Rayner et al., 2020), which produced global daily NSAT at 0.25-degree resolution. NSAT can also be estimated from atmospheric temperature profiles from infrared sounders using interpolation to the surface pressure level, such as the AIRS and CrIMSS products used in this study and described below in Section 2.1.

Our data-fusion methodology, SSDF, exists within a geostatistical framework which is a part of the broader area of spatial statistics. Specifically, SSDF is designed to provide the principled error characterization and error propagation within data fusion for massive remote sensing data (Nguyen et al., 2012). SSDF has been demonstrated previously in the context of data fusion of L2 satellite remote sensing datasets. L2 datasets are geophysical quantities inferred or "retrieved" from the primary observations of radiances by the orbiting instruments (known as "Level 1" data). The SSDF methodology we utilize here was first used to fuse L2 aerosol optical depth from the Multi-angle Imaging Spectroradiometer (MISR) and the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) aboard the Terra platform. It was subsequently demonstrated in the fusion of L2 total column CO_2 concentration (XCO2) from the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) aboard the Aqua platform and XCO2 from the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) (Nguyen et al., 2014). In addition, an SSDF variant called local kriging was used to produce fused estimates of XCO2 from GOSAT (Hammerling et al., 2012). In the current work, we describe the creation of the first long data record produced by SSDF, and the first data fusion of NSAT by any method.

L2 datasets can present certain challenges and limitations to end users which can be mitigated through data fusion. Instantaneous snapshots are obtained at a large number of spatial and temporal fields of regard determined by orbital and sensor geometry, and therefore do not fall on a regular grid. Data coverage is spatially and temporally incomplete due to clouds, gores (spaces between orbit tracks), and faults due to "single-event upsets" often attributed to cosmic rays. L2 data can have large errors relative for example to reanalysis datasets, and uncertainty estimates, if reported, may not accurately represent the true error.

Our SSDF NSAT product combines two input remote sensing datasets: L2 NSAT from AIRS, and L2 NSAT from the Cross-track Infrared Microwave Sounding Suite (CrIMSS) on the Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership (SNPP) platform. These L2 datasets are created using two independent retrieval algorithms with different first-guess strategies. We also use information content from in situ ground station networks from NOAA's Integrated Surface Database (ISD) to determine uncertainties in the two remote sensing datasets which are needed to perform fusion, and to validate the SSDF product and its associated uncertainty estimates. We randomly divide the ISD data into training and testing sets to perform these two separate functions.

Our fused SSDF NSAT product has the following key advantages over either of the input remote sensing datasets:

1. SSDF fills spatial gaps;
2. SSDF produces estimates on a regular 0.25-degree spatial grid;
3. SSDF reduces bias and variance relative to a reference in situ dataset;
4. SSDF produces improved uncertainty estimates;
5. SSDF improves long-term stationarity relative to the input datasets.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. We first describe the input datasets and methodology. Then we present the SSDF NSAT product, and the results of validation against withheld ISD surface station data. We also compare the SSDF fused NSAT product to the individual input remote sensing datasets, and to ERA5-Land reanalysis. In the process of validating our SSDF product, we also produce the most thorough validation study to date of the AIRS V7 and SNPP-CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS V2 NSAT products over CONUS. We conclude with a discussion of advantages, limitations, and potential future work.

2 Data and methods

Performing and evaluating SSDF involves five major steps: (1) Obtaining and filtering input remote sensing datasets that estimate the same quantity; (2) Matching the remote sensing datasets to a reference in situ dataset in space and time; (3) Using these matched data pairs ("matchups") to characterize the input datasets via estimation of their bias and variance relative to the reference estimate; (4) Performing the SSDF calculations; and (5) Validating the results using withheld data from the reference dataset. The method and the specific datasets used in our NSAT dataset are described in the following subsections.

2.1 Satellite NSAT data

The input satellite datasets come from two hyperspectral infrared sounders and retrieval algorithms. The Aqua platform that carries AIRS launched in 2002 in a sun-synchronous polar orbit, with equator crossing times of approximately 1:30 P.M. and 1:30 A.M. for ascending (south to north) and descending (north to south) nodes, respectively. AIRS is an infrared grating spectrometer with 2378 channels, spanning 3.7 to 15.4 μm (Chahine et al., 2006). Power to critical channels of the Aqua satellite's Advanced Microwave Sounding Unit (AMSU)-A2 was lost in September 2016 (Yue et al., 2017). AMSU-A2 complemented the AIRS instrument in atmospheric temperature and moisture profile retrievals, and was especially informative for moisture profiles. The Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS) and the Advanced Technology Microwave Sounder (ATMS) instruments launched onboard the SNPP platform in 2012. SNPP is in the same orbital plane as Aqua, but at a higher altitude (824 km as opposed to 705 km), with equator crossing times also approximately 1:30 P.M. and 1:30 A.M. Together, these two instruments are known as SNPP-CrIMSS (Cross-track Infrared Microwave Sounder Suite). SNPP-CrIS experienced an anomaly on May 21, 2021 which resulted in the loss of the longwave infrared channels. Another instance of CrIMSS is flying on the JPSS-1 (Joint Polar Satellite System, also known as J1 or NOAA-20) which launched on November 2017. Data from J1-CrIMSS is not used in this study, but could be used in future SSDF products.

For obtaining Aqua-AIRS temperature soundings, we use the AIRS-team Version 7 L2 "infrared-only" temperature retrieval algorithm (Susskind et al., 2014), a least squares estimate using singular value decomposition regularization and cloud-cleared radiances. Stochastic Cloud Clearing Neural Network (SCCNN) which is trained to ECMWF fields (Blackwell, 2005) as a first guess, then refines to a final estimate. We choose the "infrared-only" retrieval for our study due to the 2016 loss of AMSU-A2, but we note that this retrieval uses information from the satellite's other microwave sounder, AMSU-A1 (Yue et al., 2020). The retrieval uncertainty is estimated via a regression model using eleven retrieval diagnostic quantities as predictors; the regression coefficients are trained on two days of retrievals (9/29/04 and 2/24/07) using ECMWF 3-hour forecasts as a reference dataset (Susskind et al., 2014; Thrastarson et al., 2020). Each individual retrieval has a nominal horizontal resolution of 45 km comprised of nine 15 km fields of view in a 3x3 matrix, and each swath contains 30 retrievals across its width and 45 along track. The product is organized nominally in 240 "orbital granules" per day (AIRS Project, 2020).

For obtaining SNPP-CrIMSS temperature soundings, we use the Community Long-term Infrared Microwave Coupled Atmospheric Product System (CLIMCAPS) Version 2 L2 temperature retrieval, which uses a hybrid optimal estimation methodology with a first guess from the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA2) (N. Smith & Barnet, 2020), and information from both the CrIS and ATMS instruments. Like the AIRS-team retrieval, CLIMCAPS uses nine approximately 15 km fields of view in a 3x3 field of regard of 45 km, and performs cloud clearing using L1 radiances. CLIMCAPS uncertainty is estimated and propagated sequentially via error covariance matrices in stages (N. Smith & Barnet, 2019). CLIMCAPS produces a combined infrared and microwave retrieval at two spectral resolutions: Nominal Spectral Resolution (NSR) and Full Spectral Resolution (FSR). We use the CLIMCAPS-SNPP NSR product to create our SSDF product, since it begins in 2012 whereas the FSR record only begins on November 2, 2015. In what follows, we refer to this product as "CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS" or sometimes as "CrIMSS." An overview of the AIRS-team and CLIMCAPS retrievals is available online (AIRS team, n.d.), and a detailed comparison of the two retrievals applied to AIRS L1 data is available, including relative strengths and weaknesses can be found in (Yue et al., 2021).

NSAT is obtained from the vertically-resolved temperature profiles (with 100 pressure levels) via interpolation to the surface pressure for each field of regard (Olsen et al., 2017). The profile temperatures immediately above and below the surface are used for the interpolation, unless the level above is within 5 hPa of the surface pressure. In that case, the two levels above the surface are used. We include only L2 NSAT retrievals from AIRS V7 IR-only and CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS products with data quality flags 'good' or 'best.'

2.2 In situ NSAT data

The National Oceanic and Atmosphere Administration (NOAA) Integrated Surface Database (ISD) is a global database of near-surface meteorological observations compiled from over a hundred systems of ground stations (A. Smith et al., 2011). The record extends back to the 1950s, although new stations have been added on a continual basis as available, improving coverage over time. Today ISD consists of more than 35,000 surface weather stations globally, 14,000 of which remain active. Figure 1 shows the spatial coverage of ISD stations in North America.

We use sub-hourly NSAT measurements gathered from over 7000 stations in North America as our reference dataset, for bias and variance estimation and for validation. No data are perfect, but the ISD errors are small relative to the errors in the input remote sensing datasets (see Figure 7). Naturally ventilated screened surface station air temperature measurements are accurate to ± 0.1 K in most circumstances(Harrison & Burt, 2021). ISD data come with a set of ten data quality flags, indicating various problems and levels of quality. We only use ISD data flagged as highest quality, i.e., data must be flagged with either 1 ('Passed all quality control checks') or 5 ('Passed all quality control checks, data originate from an NCEI data source').

We chose ISD ground stations as our reference dataset for the following reasons: (1) it is not reanalysis, which assimilates AIRS and SNPP-CrIMSS information, as well as information from dynamical weather modeling; (2) ISD is among the most comprehensive ground station datasets available; (3) ISD NSAT estimates have low errors relative to remote sensing estimates.

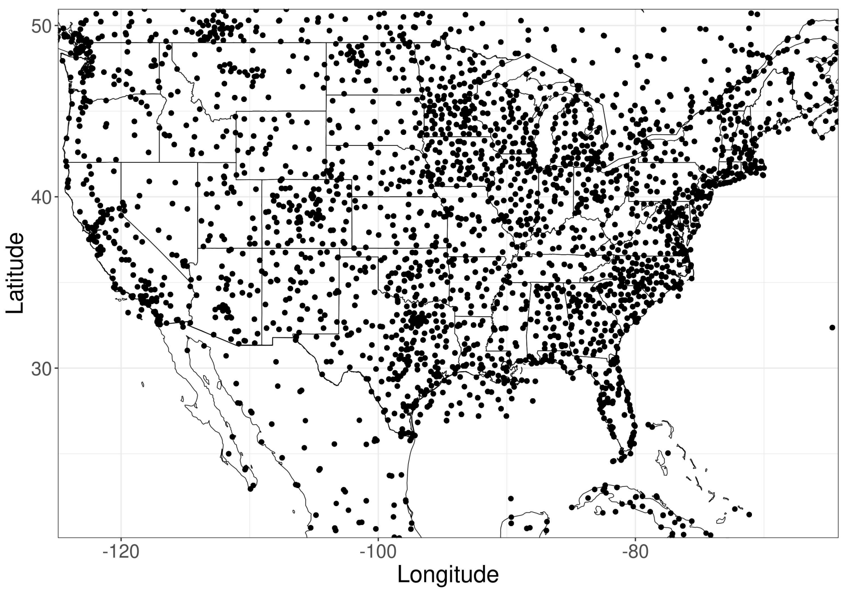

Figure 1: Spatial coverage of the ISD stations over North America. Note that ISD is a global dataset.

2.3 Reanalysis NSAT data

We also compare the SSDF NSAT results to ECMWF Reanalysis 5 (ERA5)-Land reanalysis data. The ERA5 is the fifth-generation global atmospheric reanalysis from ECMWF, replacing the ERA-Interim reanalysis which stopped being produced on August 31, 2019. Newly reprocessed datasets along with recent instruments have been assimilated into the ERA5 that could not be ingested into the ERA-Interim (Hennermann & Berrisford, 2019). We note that some AIRS spectral channels under clear conditions are incorporated into ECMWF reanalysis (Mcnally et al., 2006), but that ISD data are not.

We use hourly ERA5-Land output which is a high-resolution version of the land component of the ERA5 reanalysis. ERA5-Land 2 m air temperature was chosen over the full ERA5 reanalysis for its finer spatial resolution of 0.1x0.1 degrees and hourly temporal resolution.

2.4 Bias and variance estimation

Biases and variances of input data sources are the key to high-quality data fusion. SSDF assumes input data are unbiased, and weights them by the inverse of their respective variances. This minimizes output errors of the fused estimates. Therefore, data must be bias-corrected before SSDF ingestion, and the quality of the final fused product depends on the quality of uncertainty estimates for the inputs.

To estimate bias and variance for satellite footprints, we create an ensemble of "matchups": matched pairs of satellite and ISD station estimates that are close in space (less than 100 km apart) and time (less than an hour apart). For a given period, the matchups are sorted into 240 km (∼two-degree) diameter hexagonal spatial bins based on satellite footprint location, with three-day time bins (day of interest, along with preceding and following days). We empirically tested different time bins (monthly, seven days, and three days) for aggregating matchups for determining bias and variance, and the three-day time bins minimized the mean standard deviation of a sample SSDF product over CONUS, while allowing for adequate sample size. This binning is the basis for quantifying bias and variance for all satellite footprints in a given space-time cell. We randomly select 1% of the ISD matchup pairs to withhold for validation (we do not withhold entire ISD stations). We chose a relatively small amount to withhold in order to maximize the information content for the SSDF product.

To obtain the matchups we apply the following steps.

1. Given an ISD observation at location $\mathbf{s}$ and time $t^I(\mathbf{s})$, select the AIRS granule (1 of 240) with the closest time to $t^I(\mathbf{s})$.
2. Within this granule, select all L2 retrievals within 100 km of $\mathbf{s}$ and 1 hour of $t^I(\mathbf{s})$.
3. If Step 2 results in more than 1 retrieval, select the one closest in spatial distance.

Note that these steps will result in a one-to-one match between an ISD observation and a single AIRS footprint. Some ISD observations may have no corresponding AIRS match, in which case no matchup is returned. We next tessellate a fixed hexagonal spatial grid over CONUS and find the biases and variances using matchups aggregated over 3 days within each grid cell, as follows:

I. To compute a bias on day d and mode j (day or night) and in hexagonal grid cell i, we find the set of all valid (i.e., non-null) AIRS-ISD matchups from Steps 1 to 3 above such that,
   (a) the AIRS data come from mode j,
   (b) the AIRS footprint belongs within the grid cell i,
   (c) the ISD date is in $(d-1, d, d+1)$.

II. The bias and variance for day d, mode j, and grid cell i are then computed using the set of paired ISD-AIRS matchups.

Bias and variance estimation for CrIMSS follows the same procedure. For bias correction, given an instrument observation at location $\mathbf{s}$ on day d and mode j, we compute the corresponding bias within the grid cell which contains $\mathbf{s}$ for day d and mode j, and we subtract it from the instrument's NSAT value. For more detail on the bias and variance estimation process, please refer to Appendix A.

After the bias field is estimated for a given dataset relative to the ISD reference dataset, every datum in that dataset is then bias-corrected. After the variance field is estimated for a given dataset, every datum in that dataset is assigned a variance estimate which is then used in the SSDF algorithm to weight the datum.

2.5 Data fusion methodology

SSDF is an algorithm for fusing multiple remote sensing datasets by leveraging spatial dependence in the data, also known as kriging or optimal interpolation (Cressie, 1993). Remote sensing data from different instruments in general are heterogeneous. By this we mean that the input remote sensing data sets may have different spatial footprints, sampling patterns, and measurement error characteristics. SSDF accounts for these heterogeneities by using a spatial statistical model that expresses the relationships between the true quantity of interest at a particular location, and all the observations at all locations from all data sources.

We note that the main requirement of SSDF is that the different instruments in question (e.g., AIRS and CrIMMS) must be observing the same geophysical quantity of interest (e.g., NSAT). We assume that after bias correction, the retrievals from both instruments are unbiased relative to the true underlying process. We also assume that we have standard deviation estimates that characterize the relative informational content between the instruments.

One of the challenges encountered when applying spatial interpolation via traditional kriging to remote sensing data is the massive data sizes involved. In traditional kriging, the computational complexity of the algorithm is $O(N^3)$ due to the need to invert an $N \times N$ covariance matrix $\mathbf{C}$, where N is the number of data points. This inversion makes traditional kriging infeasible for datasets with N on the order of tens of thousands of data points or larger. To account for this, we use a scalable variant of kriging that employs a dimension-reduction technique (Spatial Random Effects modeling) to parameterize the matrix $\mathbf{C}$ as a rank-r update to a diagonal matrix, where $r << N$. This allows us to invert the covariance matrix $\mathbf{C}$ analytically using the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula with computational complexity $O(Nr^2)$ (Cressie & Johannesson, 2008). SSDF is essentially an extension of Fixed-Ranked Kriging (FRK) for combining multiple datasets. Indeed, SSDF works by concatenating all the datasets into a meta-dataset (with each data point encoded with a value, location, and variance estimate) and then applying the FRK algorithm. Therefore, SSDF can easily generalize to more datasets than two, and it can also be applied to a single dataset (a sub-case needed for the AIRS-only part of the multi-instrument record, from 2002-2012), without mathematical modification.

A second challenge with traditional kriging is handling arbitrary spatial footprints of the input datasets and those of the output grid. Gotway and Young (2002) identified this "change of support" problem of inferring a spatial process at one resolution from data at another resolution. However, their solution is computationally intensive, requiring integration over footprints and making it difficult to do parameter estimation for general non-linear covariance classes. In SSDF the SRE model is linear, which makes change of support and the associated parameter estimation straightforward (Nguyen et al., 2012).

As a scalable variant of Gaussian process prediction (Cressie, 1993), SSDF provides two other advantages over other non-statistical data fusion approaches such as binning or non-parametric methods such as machine learning. First, the standard errors are optimized because SSDF minimizes errors relative to the unknown true process; SSDF estimates are therefore "best linear unbiased estimates." Within the class of linear estimators, this method produces the smallest prediction errors. In addition, SSDF provides a statistically principled method for estimating uncertainties. Minimizing errors and quantifying uncertainties allows SSDF to create more accurate and usable data products from input datasets.

For the full mathematical formulation of SSDF, see Appendix B.

2.6 Dataset preparation for validation

We validate our SSDF product using a randomly chosen reserved 1% of the ISD dataset. We match up SSDF, AIRS, CrIMSS, and ERA5 estimates to withheld ISD data using a 100 km and 1 hour matchup criterion (see Section 2.4 for more detail). These matchup datasets generally differ in their coverage; for instance, an SSDF estimate might be matched to an ISD observation at a location where there are no nearby AIRS or CrIMSS estimates. Therefore, to mitigate the effect of biases due to differing spatial and temporal coverage in these matchup pairs, we also require that SSDF estimates are also close to (within the same matchup distance and time) of at least one datum from the comparison dataset. This matchup procedure generates multiple paired datasets: ISD-AIRS, ISD-CrIMSS, ISD-SSDF, and ISD-ERA5, allowing comparison, for example, of pairs of datasets such as AIRS and SSDF(AIRS) (i.e., a subset of the SSDF points matched up to AIRS points) which have the same number of samples, each of which is collocated in space and time within the matchup criterion. To put this another way, the reason we have separate plot traces for SSDF(AIRS) and SSDF(CrIMSS) is to allow an apples-to-apples comparison despite differing spatial coverage of the AIRS, CrIMSS, ERA5, and SSDF datasets.

The choices of a 1% test ISD dataset and this matchup scheme results in over 4000 AIRS-SSDF sample pairs and over 13,000 CrIMSS-SSDF sample pairs for 2013, a typical year.

3 Results

3.1 SSDF product overview

We produced fused NSAT using two satellite input datasets over North America between 25 N and 50 N. We chose to fuse the AIRS and SNPP-CLIMCAPS products because the orbits of these satellites have similar overpass times of approximately 1:30 and 13:30 local solar time, and the records extend back to at least 2013. We note that although we initially restrict our product to CONUS, the two input L2 retrievals provide global coverage, and that we plan to extend our SSDF product to global land surfaces in the future. We produce two products, a main product from both AIRS and SNPP-CrIMSS which runs from November 28 2012 through 2020 and which we will denote SSDF-AC; and a long-record product with just AIRS, which runs from August 31 2002 through 2020 and which we will denote SSDF-A. These two product lines were created identically, with the only difference being that the list of input data tuples (bias-corrected NSAT, latitude, longitude, and variance) fed to the SSDF algorithm consisted of tuples from either two remote sensing datasets or just one. Between 2013 and 2020 there were 32 days and 30 nights with no AIRS data, and 29 days and 24 nights with no SNPP-CLIMCAPS data. Because outages happened not to occur for both input datasets on the same day or night over this period, the SSDF-AC product was created from only the single dataset when necessary, thus creating a continuous record. The SSDF-A record has 74 missing daily files due to AIRS outages, often due to single event upsets (for a list of AIRS outages, see `https://airs.jpl.nasa.gov/data/outages/`). In what follows, if not otherwise specified, “SSDF” refers to SSDF-AC.

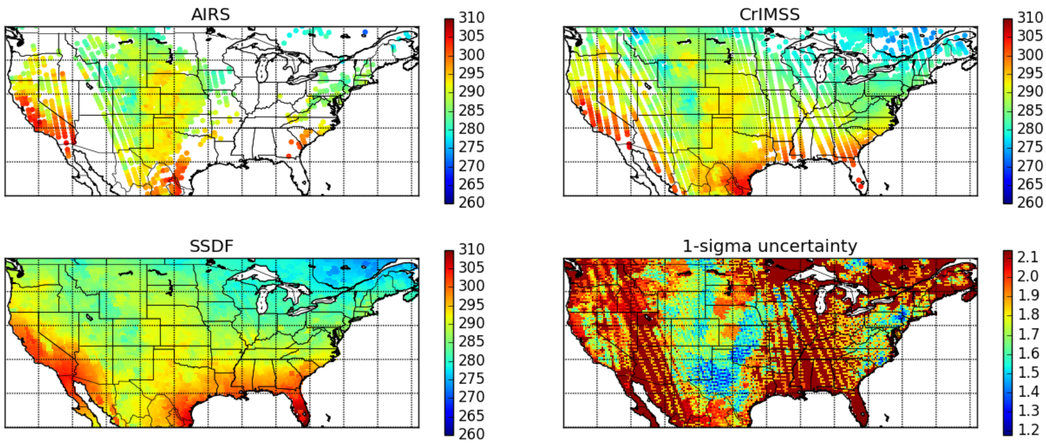

Figure 2: Sample data fusion satellite NSAT inputs, SSDF NSAT results, and uncertainty estimates for 2015 October 31, day. The top two plots show maps of the input satellite NSAT data ingested into the SSDF product (restricted to CONUS and neighboring regions), with AIRS on the left and SNPP-CrIMSS on the right. The bottom left plot shows the SSDF fusion results. The bottom right plot shows the uncertainty estimates on the SSDF fusion results at the 1-sigma level. All units are degrees K.

Figures 2 and 3 provide maps representing one arbitrarily chosen day and night of the SSDF-AC product. For both the day and night cases, the top two plots show maps of the input satellite data ingested into the SSDF product, with AIRS on the left and SNPP-CrIMSS on the right; the bottom left plot shows the SSDF fusion results; and the bottom right plot shows the uncertainty estimates on the SSDF fusion results at the 1-sigma level. These sample maps demonstrate how our SSDF method fills in missing data in the input datasets by exploiting spatial correlations to provide a complete gap-filled, gridded product. Note that the estimated uncertainties are higher in regions that contain no observations, contain observations from only a single input dataset, or in which the two input datasets have relatively poor agreement.

3.2 Comparison of bias, standard deviation, and RMSE

We now turn to validation against withheld ISD reference data to quantify improvement in the SSDF products. We emphasize that the ISD data used for validation were not the same as the ISD data used to estimate bias and variance in the course of creating the SSDF products, as we split the ISD matchup data into ‘training’ and ‘testing’ sets. We examine bias, standard deviation, and RMSE, calculated from the withheld matchups, of AIRS, CrIMSS, ERA5-Land, and the corresponding matched SSDF data. In what follows, we often analyze daytime and nighttime separately, as daytime and nighttime biases can differ significantly.

We first show maps of bias, RMSE, and standard deviation relative to the 1% of withheld (testing-only) ISD reference data, based on the matchups aggregated into the hexagonal bins. Figure 4 shows maps of bias (retrieval - ISD) for AIRS, CrIMSS, and SSDF, for the 2013-2020 period in total, and for day-only and night-only. Individual bias estimates for retrieval-ISD pairs are aggregated into 2-degree hexagonal cells.

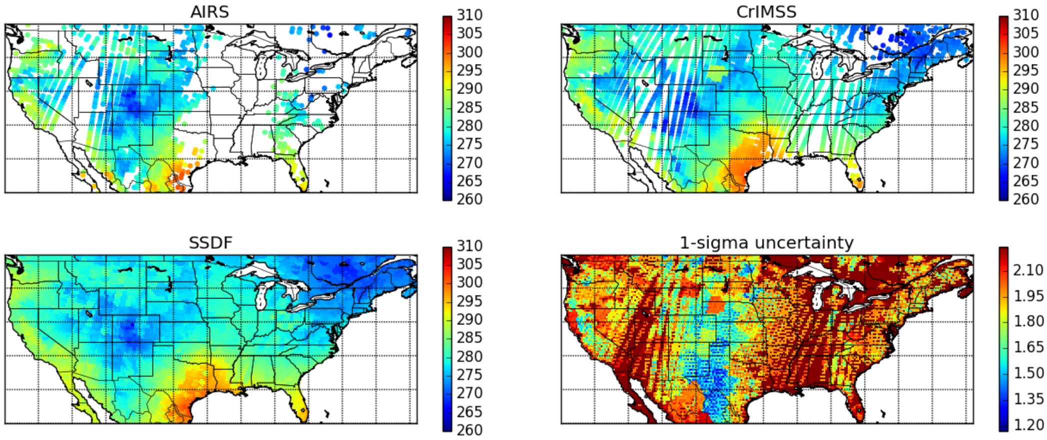

Figure 3: Same as Figure 2 but for night. All units are degrees K.

Overall, in the mean over CONUS and over the entire time period, SSDF provides a reduction in the magnitude of daytime bias of 1.7 K and 0.5 K relative to AIRS and CrIMMS, respectively. At night, SSDF is essentially unbiased in the mean over the domain and provides a reduction in the magnitude of bias of 1.5 K and 0.2 K relative to AIRS and CrIMMS, respectively.

AIRS shows a strong cold bias in daytime over the mountainous West, which is also present in CrIMSS, although less severe. AIRS shows a near-constant warm bias over the entire Eastern CONUS at night, while CrIMSS shows a sharp warm bias over small regions of the mountainous West at night. SSDF mitigates these biases (through the bias-correction procedure described above) and produces estimates with lower biases than either of its input satellite data sets over the domain.

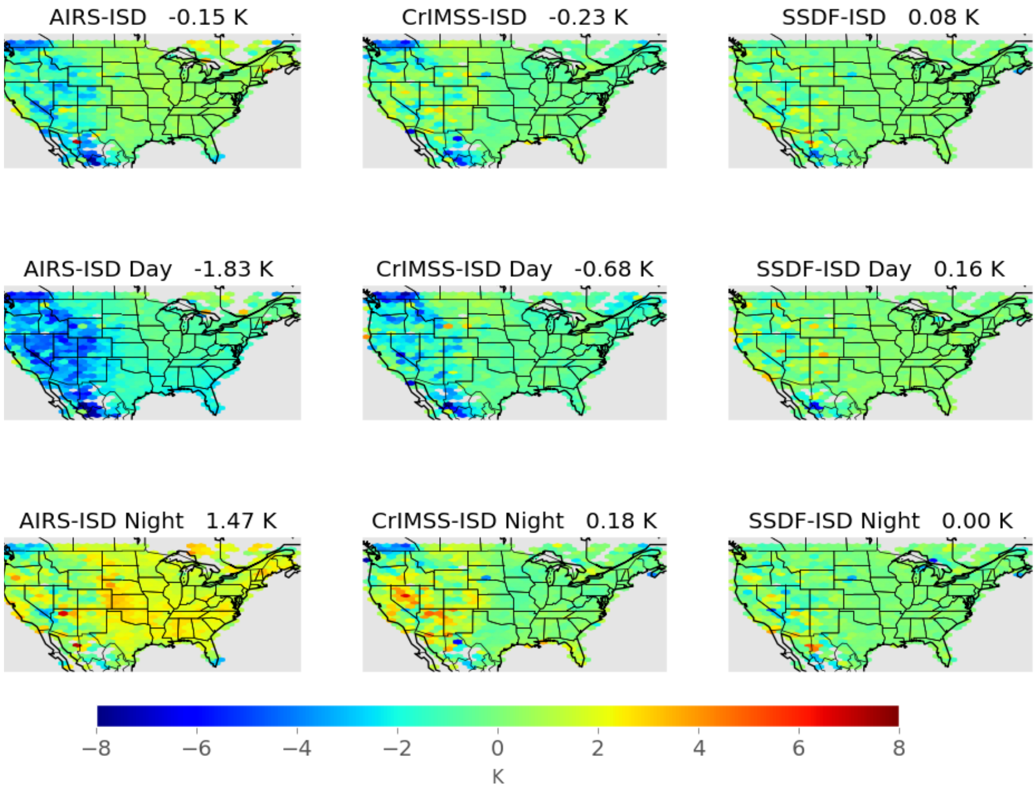

Figure 4: Maps of bias (retrieval - ISD) over the product period of 2013-2020, created against the withheld ISD test data, for AIRS (first column), CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS (second column) and SSDF (third column), for both day and night together (top row), for day only (second row) and for night only (third row). Individual bias estimates for retrieval-ISD matchup pairs are aggregated over 2-degree hexagonal cells. The mean bias over CONUS for the entire time period is shown in the title for each map.

Figures 5 and 6 show maps of standard deviation and RMSE for AIRS, CrIMSS and SSDF, for the 2013-2020 period, and for daytime only and nighttime only. Standard deviation and RMSE tell a similar story to that of bias. Overall, in the mean over CONUS and over the entire time period, SSDF provides a reduction in RMSE of 35% and 15% compared to AIRS and CrIMSS, respectively.

CrIMSS has high RMSE over the mountainous West in both day and night, but low RMSE over the eastern two-thirds of the continent. Similarly, AIRS has relatively high RMSE over the entire domain, but especially over the mountainous West. Mountainous regions pose particular challenges for remote sensing of surface quantities, and of NSAT in particular, which can vary greatly depending on e.g., north-facing versus south-facing mountain surfaces. Furthermore, variations in topographic features between ISD stations and their matched remote sensing retrievals can lead to random errors, increasing RMSE and variance estimates. However, SSDF NSAT shows a clear decrease in bias over all regions, including in the mountainous western CONUS, although there is potential for improvement in the SSDF product over the West.

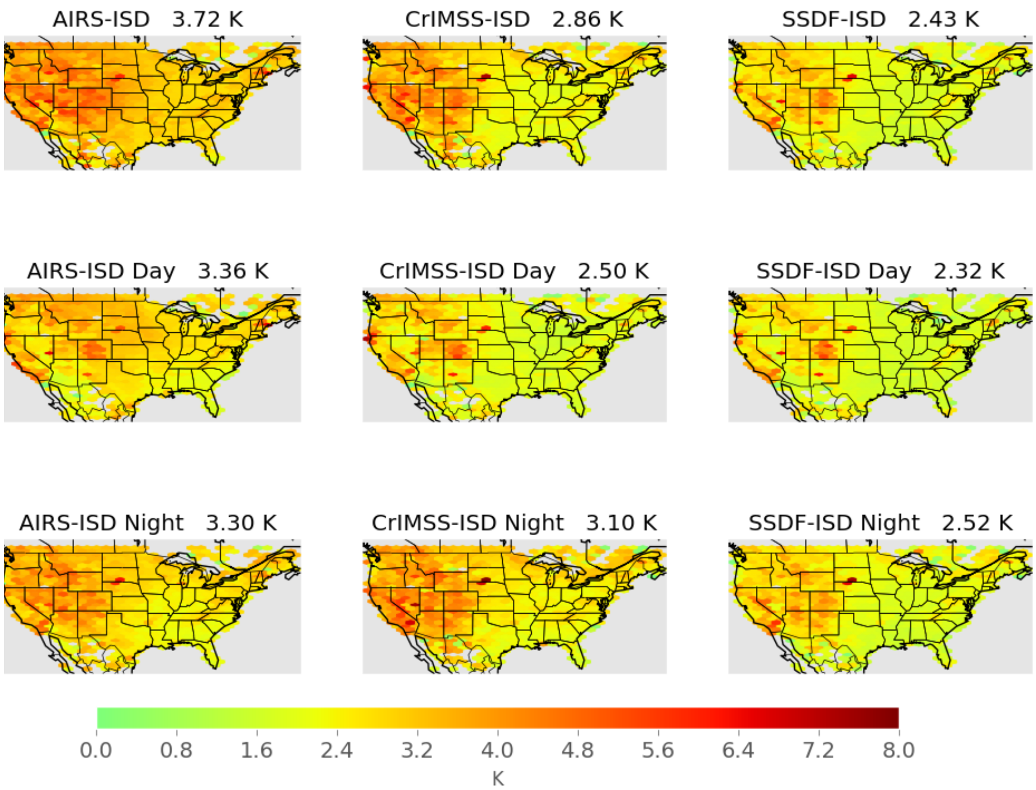

Figure 5: Standard deviation maps. The nine panels are similar to those in Figure 4 but for standard deviation.

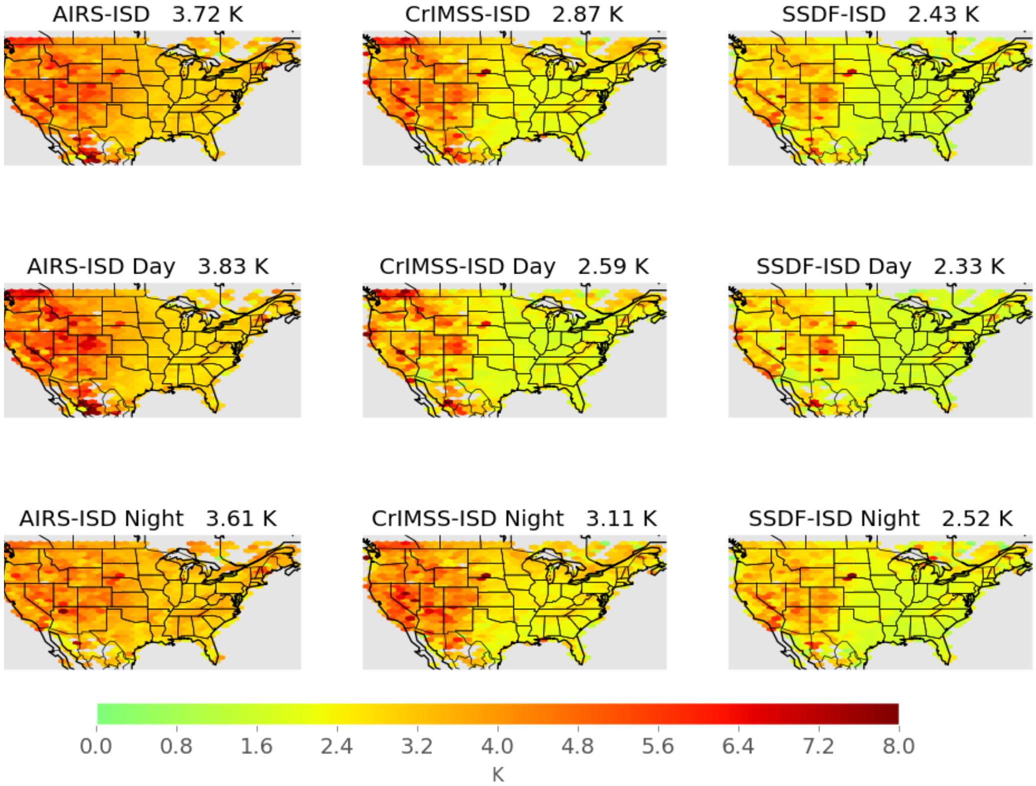

Figure 6: RMSE maps. The nine panels are similar to those in Figure 4 but for RMSE.

We repeated this analysis over CONUS and the 2013-2020 period for the SSDF-A product. We found similar improvements in bias, standard deviation, and RMSE. The mean bias of SSDF-A over the entire domain was -0.08 K for daytime only, and -0.03 K for nighttime only. The overall RMSE was 2.52 K, 4% higher than the overall RMSE of the SSDF-AC product.

Figure 7 shows histograms of the NSAT error (retrieval/reanalysis - ISD) for the year 2013, over CONUS only. The three comparison datasets (AIRS, CrIMSS, and ERA5-Land) were matched separately to SSDF outputs, to ensure that the SSDF product and each corresponding comparison dataset are considering the same scenes. The SSDF error histograms are symmetric with a single mode and peak at 0 for both day and night, which is consistent with the errors being unbiased relative to the ISD reference dataset. The AIRS histogram exhibits a cold bias during the day and a warm bias at night. CrIMSS has a similar day/night bias shift, but of a smaller magnitude. A cold bias over land, particularly at higher temperatures, has been previously noted for both input datasets (Yue et al., 2020, 2021), although there have been few validation studies (Ferguson & Wood, 2010; Sun et al., 2021). The SSDF product exhibits smaller mean biases and RMSEs than either input dataset. On average, over both input datasets, daytime and nighttime, SSDF decreases mean bias magnitude by 81% and mean RMSE by 23% relative to the input datasets.

Next, we examine the seasonality of bias and RMSE. Figure 8 shows the mean bias (retrieval/reanalysis – ISD) by month split into day/night to examine seasonality. There is a significant cold bias during the day for AIRS and CrIMSS that switches to a warm bias at night. During the day, AIRS has a smaller bias during winter months (Dec/Jan/Feb) and a larger bias during summer months (Jun/Jul/Aug). This is switched during nighttime where a larger warm bias is observed during winter and a smaller warm bias is observed during summer. These AIRS biases are of course also apparent in Figure 7. The SSDF product is relatively unbiased for both day and night. The SSDF bias magnitude is slightly larger during the day than night. From May to December, the SSDF product has a smaller bias at night than does ERA5-Land while during the day the reanalysis and the SSDF mean biases are of similar magnitude.

Figure 9 shows mean RMSE (retrieval/reanalysis – ISD) by month split by day/night, i.e., the mean RMSE values calculated in 2-degree spatial bins. RMSE is largest for AIRS, particularly during the day. Generally, RMSE is higher in winter and lower in summer. During the day, the ERA5-Land has the lowest RMSE. At night, the SSDF RMSE is comparable and sometimes lower than the ERA5-Land RMSE.

We next examine relative performance in hot and cold extremes. Figure 10 shows the mean bias (retrieval/reanalysis – ISD) by ISD percentile of the ISD matchups. The error bars indicate the standard error of the mean at the 95 percent confidence level. The lighter shade of every color is the matched SSDF corresponding to the comparison dataset. All retrievals and reanalysis do best in the mean state (25th to 75th percentile). At the extremes, each of the datasets being compared to ISD have warm biases for low values (1st through the 15th percentile) and cold biases for high values (85th through the 99th); in other words, all of the datasets understate cold or warm extremes represented in the ISD. The SSDF product captures the extremes better than both the AIRS and CrIMSS inputs. However, the reanalysis generally does best, having the smallest bias regardless of percentile, and is better at capturing the extremes.

We next examine performance at extremely high elevations. Figure 11 shows mean biases (retrieval/reanalysis – ISD) aggregated by ISD elevation. At around 2500 meters, mean biases increase with elevation in the SSDF product, AIRS, CrIMSS, and reanalysis. Daytime mean biases at these high elevations are larger in SSDF, although

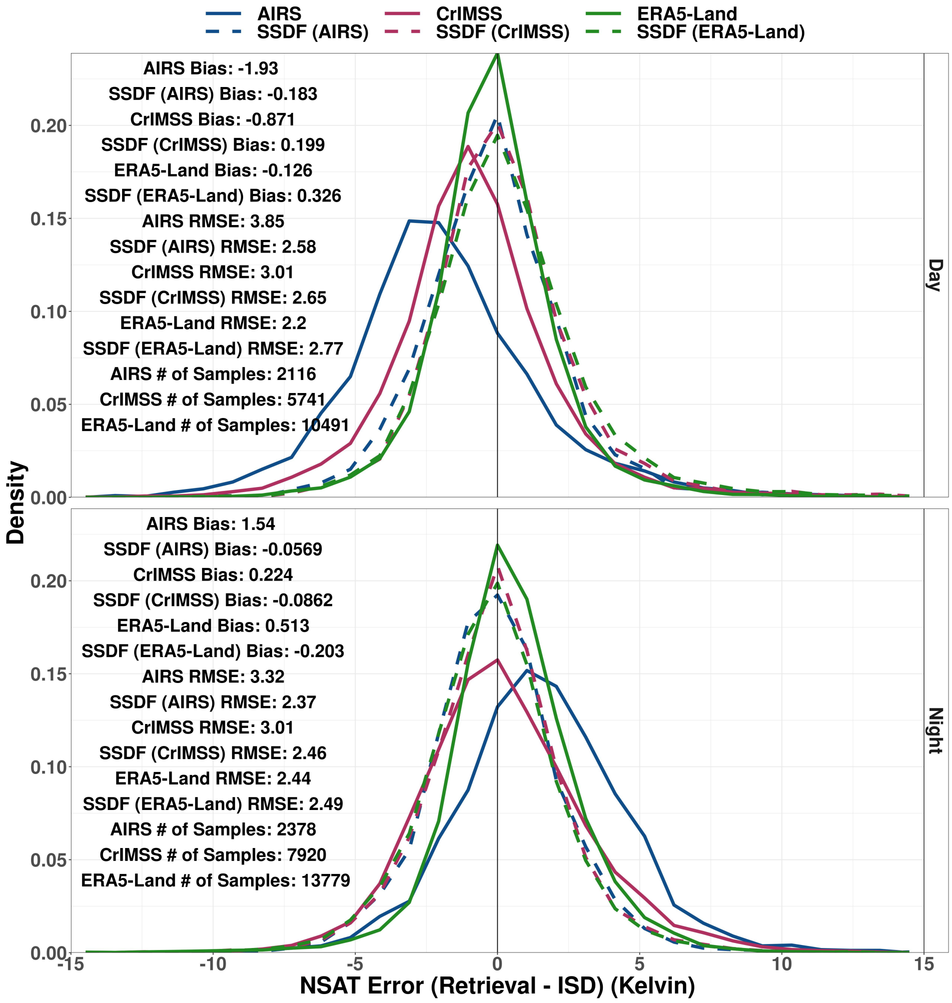

Figure 7: Histograms of errors for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS, for AIRS (blue), CrIMSS (red) and ERA5-Land (green). The dashed line is the SSDF-AC subset matched to the other datasets. Mean statistics of bias, RMSE, and the number of samples are provided.

we note that the sample size is small. At night, SSDF shows lower mean biases than AIRS, CrIMSS, or ERA5-Land at high elevations.

In order to increase the sample size for high-elevation cases, Figure 12 shows the mean biases aggregated by ISD elevation for elevations higher than 2000 meters over the period 2012-2020. During the day, the SSDF bias exceeds AIRS and CrIMSS, consistent with Figure 11. We hypothesize that this excess bias in SSDF for a very small number of data points at very high elevations is caused by the bulk-binning method for bias estimation. As Figure 11 shows, both remote sensing datasets exhibit a cold bias during the daytime at lower elevations. Because the two-degree hexagonal bins for bias estimation are dominated by lower elevations (as the problematic high elevations are high mountain surfaces), and because both remote sensing dataset biases switch signs from cold bias to warm bias at approximately 2500 m, the cold bias correction calculated from the bulk bins ends up exacerbating the warm bias from the input datasets at the highest elevations. In a future version of SSDF, we will improve the

Figure 8: Mean bias as a function of month for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS. Numbers at the bottom indicate the number of data points, and are color-coded according to dataset.

bias estimation of the input datasets, which could mitigate or eliminate this bias at the small number of estimates elevations above 2500 m.

Figure 9: Mean RMSE as a function of month for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS. Numbers at the bottom indicate the number of data points, and are color-coded according to dataset.

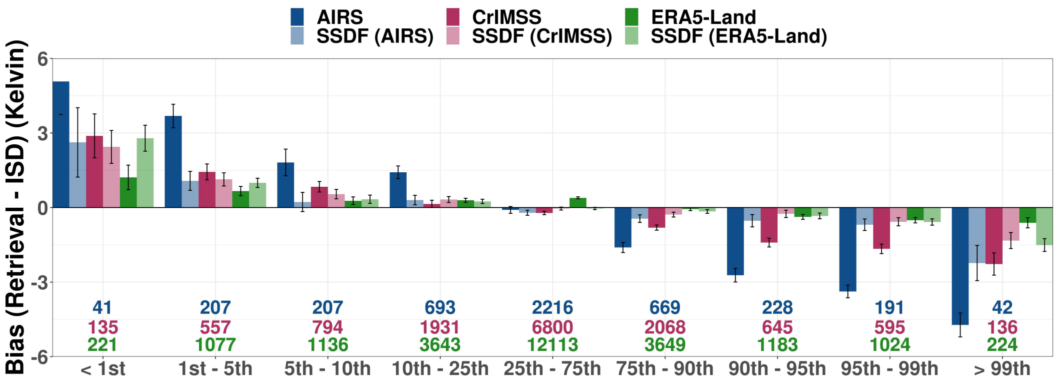

Figure 10: Mean biases as a function of ISD percentile for 2013 over CONUS. Numbers at the bottom indicate the number of data points, and are color-coded according to dataset.

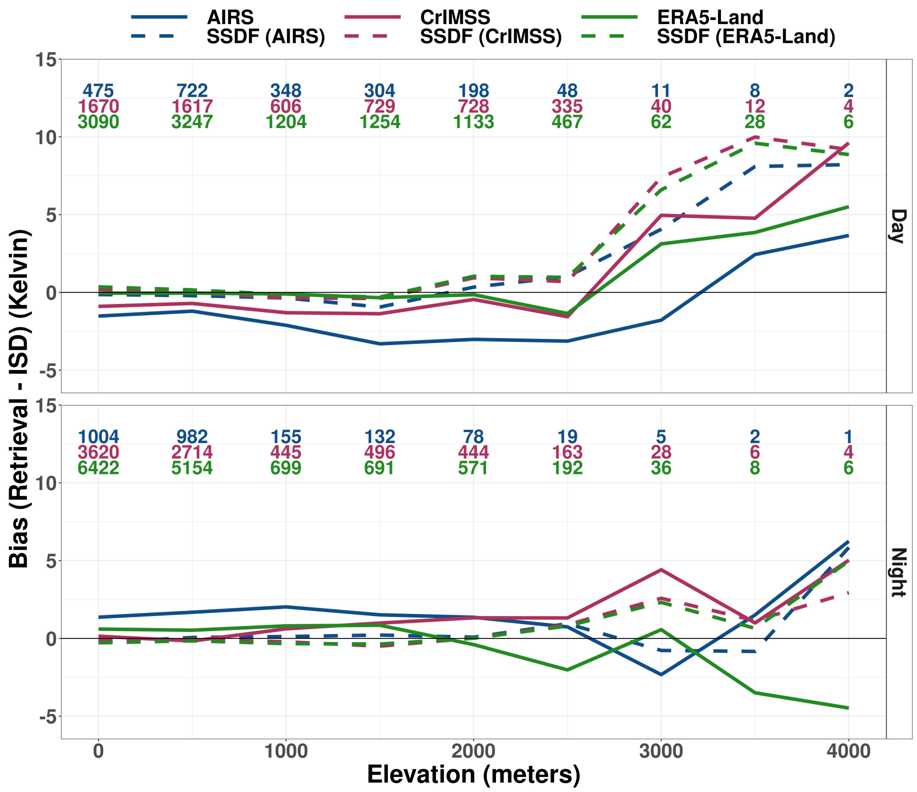

Figure 11: Mean biases as a function of ISD elevation for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS. Numbers at the top indicate the number of data points, and are color-coded according to dataset.

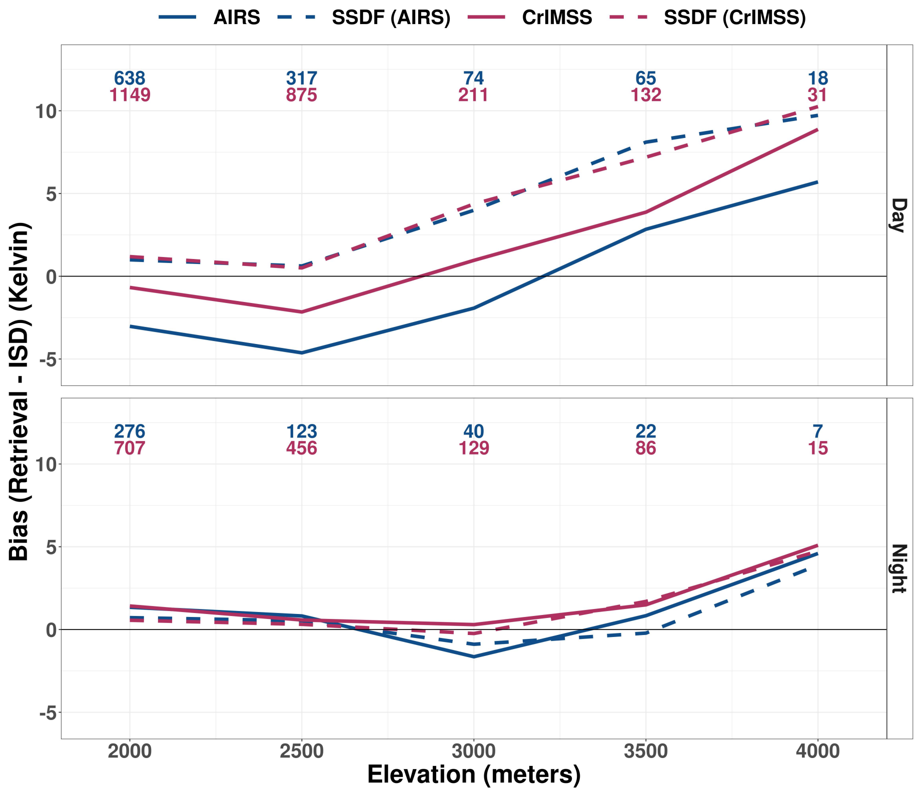

Figure 12: Mean biases as a function of ISD elevation for day (top) and night (bottom) over CONUS from 2012-2020 for AIRS, CrIMSS, and SSDF. Numbers at the top indicate the number of data points, and are color-coded according to dataset.

3.3 Comparison of uncertainty estimates

The SSDF algorithm provides a mean (prediction/estimate) and standard deviation (uncertainty) of the conditional distribution of true NSAT, given the available inputs; this distribution is termed the predictive distribution. In what follows, this is a Gaussian distribution, centered at the SSDF estimate. This information can be used to construct prediction intervals for the true NSAT. Here we provide a summary and probabilistic assessment of the SSDF predictive distribution along with related information from the AIRS V7 and CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS V2 products. In the notation that follows, we use the subscript i in place of the areal unit notation B_i.

- In addition to each SSDF NSAT estimate, $\hat{Y}_i$, the algorithm also provides the conditional standard deviation of the predictive distribution, denoted $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{Y},i}$.
- The AIRS V7 NSAT retrieval, $Z_{1,i}$, is accompanied by a corresponding uncertainty estimate, denoted $\hat{\sigma}_{Z,1,i}$ (Susskind et al., 2014). This estimate results from a regression model for predicting the absolute retrieval error given several predictors available from the retrieval.
- The CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS V2 retrieval, $Z_{2,i}$, also has a corresponding uncertainty estimate, denoted $\hat{\sigma}_{Z,2,i}$ (N. Smith & Barnet, 2020). This estimate results from a linear approximation of the posterior standard deviation of the true state given the observed radiances for a single footprint and is an output of the optimal estimation (OE) approach used in CLIMCAPS.

Figure 13 shows histograms of these uncertainty estimates: $\hat{\sigma}_{Z,1}$, $\hat{\sigma}_{Z,2}$, and $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{Y}}$ across the CONUS data record. The solid line shows uncertainty estimates from AIRS (blue) and CrIMSS (red) while the dashed shows the corresponding matched SSDF uncertainty estimates. CrIMSS has a peak around 1.2 K with a narrow distribution; AIRS V7 has a peak between 1.5 and 2 K with a wide distribution. SSDF uncertainty histograms peak around 2 K.

These uncertainty estimates are properties of distributions, whereas we define error e_i as a realization of a random variable that represents the difference between an estimate and the true state. For example, the error for SSDF is $e_{\hat{y},i} = \hat{Y}_i - Y_i$, where Y_i is the ISD validation for colocation i. If the predictive distribution is assumed to be Gaussian, the empirical coverage of intervals of the form

$$\hat{Y}_i \pm c\, \hat{\sigma}_{\hat{Y},i},$$

can be assessed for the ISD matchups. In the case of an unbiased estimate, "well-calibrated" uncertainty estimates, and a Gaussian distribution; intervals with $c = 1$ should cover the true state Y_i about 68% of the time, and about 95% of the time for $c = 2$.

Figure 14 shows scatterplots of the joint distribution of the uncertainty estimate (x-axis) and the observed error (retrieval-ISD). There are many cases for AIRS and CrIMSS where the uncertainty estimate grossly underestimates the true error; over 15% of the time for both datasets and for day and night, the true error is more than three times greater than the uncertainty estimate. However, this occurs about 3% of the time with SSDF in the day and fewer than 5% of the time at night. Overall, the CrIMSS uncertainty estimates are distributed too narrowly, and with a peak too low, to capture the true error. The AIRS uncertainty estimates also peak at a value below the peak of the error distribution, although the uncertainty estimate distribution is much wider, including a very long tail of high uncertainty estimates.

In general, SSDF uncertainty estimates are consistent with statistical expectations under Gaussian assumptions. For example, one would expect one-sigma uncertainty estimates to cover a standard error distribution 68% of the time, and we see

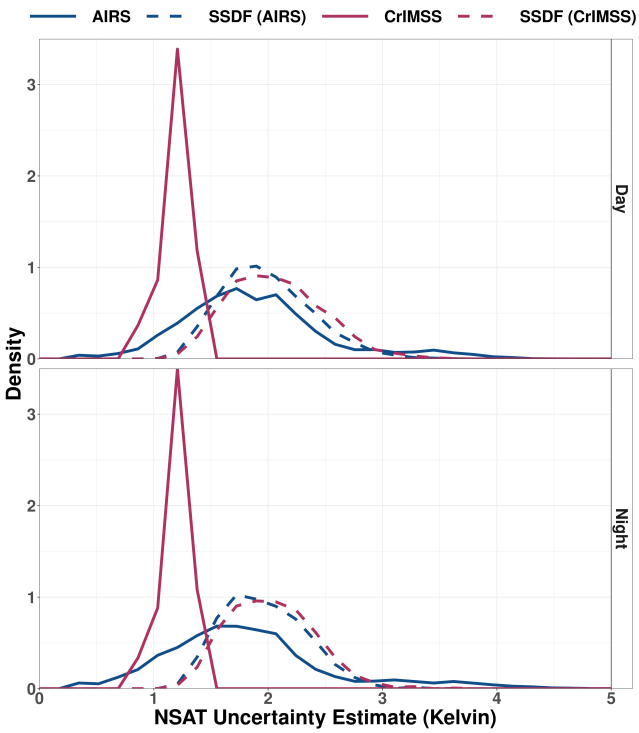

Figure 13: Histograms of uncertainty estimates for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS.

that the SSDF uncertainty estimates do so roughly 65% of the time in daytime. Similarly, one would expect the estimates to cover 95% and over 99% at the 2- and 3-sigma levels, with SSDF covering about 90% and 97% during daytime.

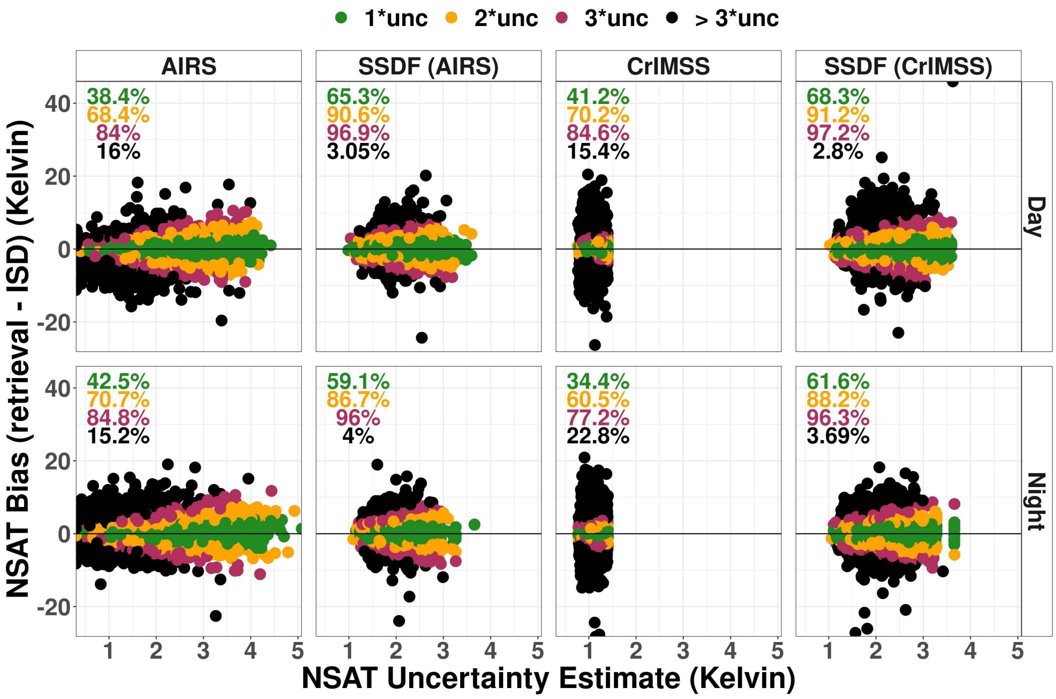

Figure 14: Observed errors (retrieval - ISD) versus uncertainty estimates for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS. The colors show whether the range of each observed error was within the uncertainty bound, as described in the text: 1×uncertainty (green, should cover the true state about 68% of the time), 2×uncertainty (orange, should cover the true state about 95% of the time), 3×uncertainty (red, should cover the true state about 99% of the time) or > 3×uncertainty (black).

3.4 Empirical distribution consistency

The ISD record provides a sample of the empirical distribution of NSAT over CONUS. Here, we assess the relative consistency of the SSDF empirical distribution versus the other products against the ISD reference distribution. Figure 15 shows an example of the empirical cumulative distribution (ECDF) for the ISD (pink) and AIRS (blue). While it is almost certainly the case that the products' ECDFs deviate from the ISD reference distribution in some subtle ways, we evaluate their relative consistency with ISD through a series of hypothesis tests. Figure 16 shows the difference between the ECDF of the retrieval/reanalysis to the ECDF of ISD. The AIRS ECDF has the largest difference to the ISD ECDF, particularly during the Day.

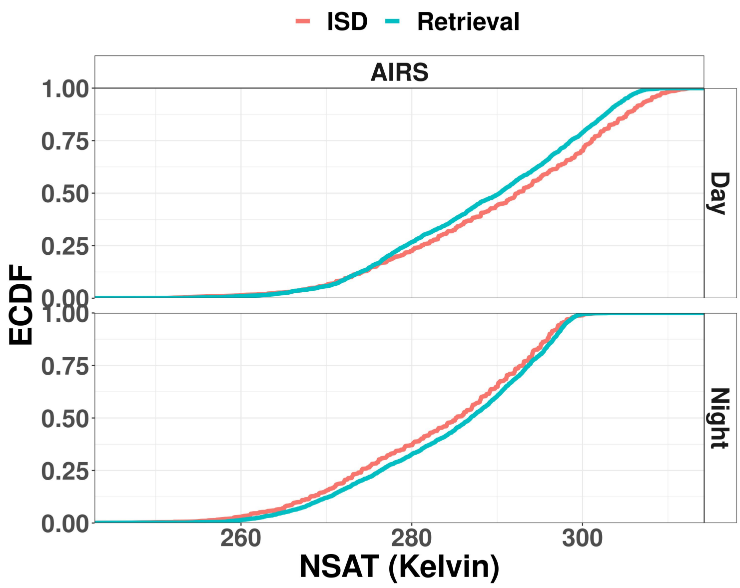

Figure 15: ECDF for AIRS (blue) and ISD (pink) for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS.

The SSDF estimates are tested against each of the other products (AIRS, CrIMSS, ERA5-Land) for night and day conditions. Each assessment is carried out using a randomization or resampling test (Wilks, 2006). For this test, the null hypothesis is that the empirical distributions of SSDF and the comparison product deviate equally from the ISD reference distribution. The alternative hypothesis is that either SSDF or the comparison product have an empirical distribution that is closer to the ISD reference distribution. For this procedure, the test statistic is computed as the difference in two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) statistics for the products versus ISD.

For each instance of the test, we have a collection of matched triples $\{\hat{\mathbf{Y}}, \mathbf{Z}_k, \mathbf{Y}\}$; where $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} \equiv \{\hat{Y}_i\}; i = 1, \ldots, n$ are the SSDF estimates, $\mathbf{Z}_k \equiv \{Z_{k,i}\}; i = 1, \ldots, n$ are the comparison products, and $\mathbf{Y} \equiv \{Y_i\}; i = 1, \ldots, n$ are the ISD NSAT. As above, $k = 1$ for AIRS, $k = 2$ for CrIMSS, and here $k = 3$ for ERA5-Land. Then, test k has a test statistic

$$\gamma_k = \delta(\hat{\mathbf{Y}}, \mathbf{Y}) - \delta(\mathbf{Z}_k, \mathbf{Y}),$$

where δ is the traditional two-sample KS statistic. The KS statistic is the maximum difference in the two ECDFs being compared. Thus, the test statistic γ_k for the current test is a *difference* of ECDF deviations. A negative value is an indication that the SSDF distribution is closer to ISD than the comparison product.

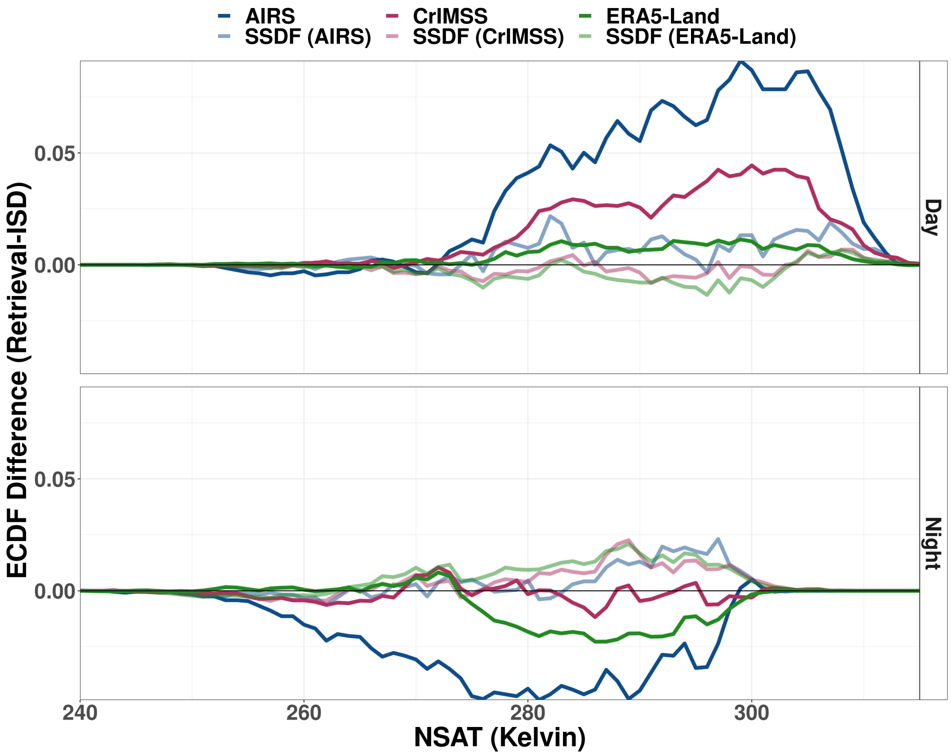

Figure 16: The ECDF difference between the retrieval/reanalysis and the ISD color coded for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS.

The distribution of the test statistic under the null hypothesis can be established through a resampling procedure. The procedure should preserve the inherent dependence of the matched triples, but the assignment of the two comparison groups can be shuffled randomly. A null distribution is generated by repeating these steps $m = 1, \ldots M$ times:

1. Define shuffled data vectors $\mathbf{W}_{m,1}$ and $\mathbf{W}_{m,2}$.
2. For each validation matchup ($i = 1, \ldots, n_k$), assign $W_{i,m,1} = \hat{Y}_i$ and $W_{m,2,i} = Z_{k,i}$ with probability 0.5; otherwise assign $W_{m,1,i} = Z_{k,i}$ and $W_{i,m,2} = \hat{Y}_i$. This effectively shuffles the labels for SSDF and the comparison product for each matchup.
3. Compute the test statistic for the randomized samples,

$$\gamma_{0,m,k} = \delta(\mathbf{W}_{m,1}, \mathbf{Y}) - \delta(\mathbf{W}_{m,2}, \mathbf{Y}),$$

The distribution of $\gamma_{0,m,k}$ provides the null distribution of the test statistic for each test. Figure 17 displays the test statistics γ_k along with density plots of the null distributions of test statistics $\gamma_{0,m,k}$ for $M = 20,000$ resampled datasets for each test. A two-sided p-value can be computed for each test as

$$p_k = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} I_\gamma(|\gamma_{0,m,k}| > |\gamma_k|),$$

where I_γ is an indicator function.

The p-values for each of the resampling tests of SSDF versus other products are displayed as text in Figure 17. All tests, except the night comparison of SSDF and CrIMSS, yield p-values of 0, indicating a significant difference in consistency with the ISD reference distribution. These results can also be seen visually as the observed test statistics γ_k, shown as vertical lines, lie well outside the corresponding null distributions. The tests indicate SSDF is more consistent with ISD than AIRS for both day and night conditions, as well as a favorable result for SSDF versus CrIMSS for day and versus ERA5-Land at night. The positive test statistic for SSDF versus ERA5-Land during the day indicates the reanalysis is more consistent with ISD in this case.

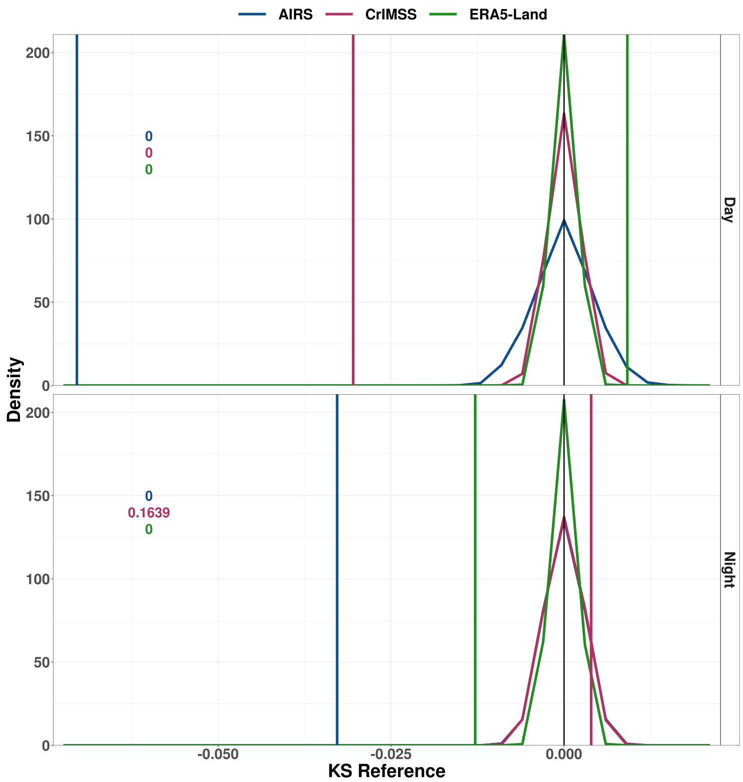

Figure 17: Histogram of the KS statistic for AIRS (blue), CrIMSS (maroon) and ERA5-Land (green), for day (top) and night (bottom) for 2013 over CONUS. The corresponding p-value is color-coded on the left side.

3.5 Stationarity

Long-term stationarity is a key characteristic for creating long, stable, multi-instrument Earth science data records. To assess long-term bias stationarity, we calculated mean annual biases over CONUS relative to the withheld ISD data for the two input datasets and SSDF. Figure 18 shows the annual mean bias for both the input datasets, as well as for SSDF-AC and SSDF-A. Shading shows two standard deviations of these annual bias estimates. We include full years only.

SSDF reduces the mean magnitude, the variance, and the trend in these annual bias time series, with the biases estimated relative to the ISD reference dataset. For AIRS and SSDF-A matched to AIRS from 2003-2020, the overall means of the annual bias time series were -0.10 K and -0.035 K and the standard deviations of the annual bias time series were 0.17 K and 0.035 K.

We estimated trends and trend uncertainties using the nonparametric technique called Thiel Sens Slope (Sen, 1968) which is based on the medians. We used the Mann-Kendall test to assess statistical significance (Mann, 1945; Kendall, 1948). Trends for AIRS and SSDF-A were -0.01 K/yr (p-value 0.08) and -0.003 K/yr (p-value 6e-8), respectively, over the 2003-2020 period. The AIRS trend was less statistically significant due to the high standard deviation in the time series.

For CrIMSS and SSDF-AC from 2013-2020, the overall means of the annual bias time series were -0.23 K and 0.076 K and the standard deviations of the annual bias time series were 0.059 K and 0.024 K respectively. Trends were 0.009 K/yr and -0.0007 K/yr, respectively; neither trend is statistically significant, with p-values of 0.6 and 0.8, respectively.

The annual mean biases also reveal a shift of about 0.1 K between the SSDF-AC and SSDF-A products. This shift is small compared to the biases in the input remote sensing datasets, but it is undesirable. We hypothesize that it could be an artifact of the bulk-binning bias estimation procedure, and subsequent bias correction, due to differing systematic error characteristics in the two input datasets. Future versions of SSDF will use improved uncertainty quantification methods to estimate input dataset biases, which could mitigate or eliminate this small difference mean bias between SSDF products created from different combinations of input datasets.

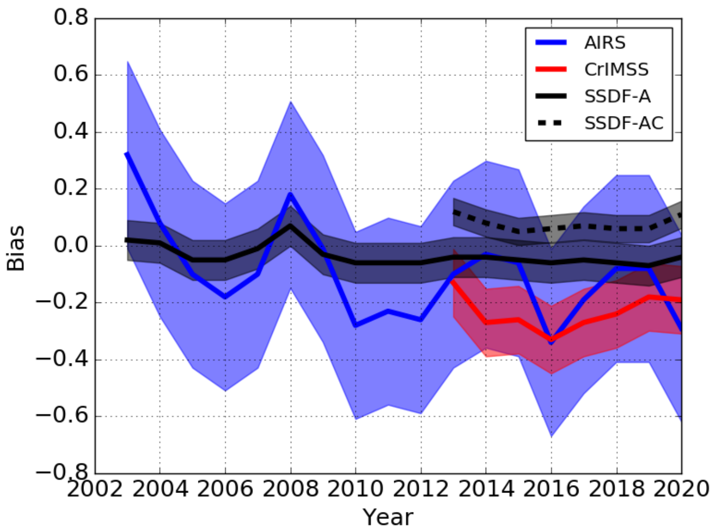

Figure 18: Annual mean bias for each year of the data record, for the SSDF product and each of the two remote sensing input products, relative to the withheld ISD data. Shading shows two standard deviations of these annual bias estimates. SSDF-A refers to the AIRS-only SSDF product; SSDF-AC refers to the SSDF product created from both the AIRS and SNPP-CLIMCAPS input datasets.

Figure 19 shows the histogram of the SSDF uncertainty estimates for 2011 (black) and 2013 (red). The mean uncertainty is provided as text. The histograms are comparable, although the SSDF-AC product in 2013 has mean uncertainties that are 4% lower on average than the SSDF-A product in 2011. This is to be expected as the additional information from CrIMSS provides greater certainty for SSDF.

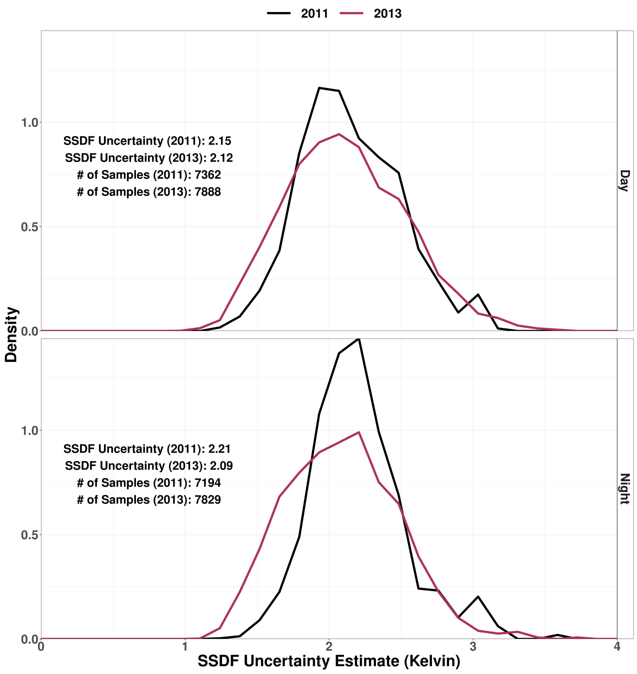

Figure 19: SSDF uncertainty histogram for 2011 (black) and 2013 (red) aggregated by day (top) and night(bottom). Summary statistics of mean SSDF uncertainty are provided as text on the upper left.

4 Discussion and conclusion

We have produced a new fused NSAT product over CONUS, from November 2012 through December 2020, using Spatial Statistical Data Fusion of Aqua-AIRS V7 and SNPP-CrIMSS CLIMCAPS V2 L2 NSAT datasets. Remote sensing data provides information to span the spatial domain, in situ data provides the information to correct the remote sensing data, and SSDF provides the means to fuse them into an improved dataset.

The SSDF NSAT product could be used for applications over CONUS that require NSAT data and that would benefit from the improvements we have demonstrated here from a detailed validation using withheld ISD data as a reference dataset. The SSDF method generates a fused gridded product that has no missing data; has improved accuracy and precision relative to the input satellite datasets; and includes uncertainty estimates that are more consistent with the observed errors relative to the ISD reference. The NSAT SSDF pilot product is comparable in precision and accuracy to the state-of-the-art ERA5-Land reanalysis, but unlike reanalysis it does not involve dynamical weather modeling, only spatial covariance modeling. Furthermore, unlike reanalysis it could in the future support a near-real-time version for operational applications.

SSDF is a general method and can be applied to one or more L2 datasets, so long as each dataset estimates the same observable. For example, fusion of Aqua-AIRS and SNPP-CrIMSS estimates of NSAT works because both satellites estimate NSAT at approximately 1:30 and 13:30 local solar time. However, it would not make sense to directly fuse NSAT estimates from Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) instruments on the MetOp satellites with the Aqua and SNPP datasets, as the MetOp satellites pass over at approximately 9:30 and 21:30 local solar time, when NSAT is at different points of the diurnal cycle. On the other hand, the details of instruments used to make the input datasets, and their spatial footprints and sampling, are immaterial. For example, it would be possible to fuse NSAT derived from the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) land surface temperature (LST) product via (for example) regression modeling (Good, 2015), since such a LST-derived NSAT product would also sample at approximately 1:30 and 13:30 local solar time. SSDF could be applied across a wide range of observables estimated as L2 satellite datasets, such as atmospheric composition, water vapor profiles, or vapor pressure deficit (the difference between the water vapour pressure and the saturation water vapour pressure). Bias and variance estimates of the input datasets are required, and we emphasize that the quality of the SSDF product depends on the quality of those error estimates.

Our plans for future work include improving the bias and variance estimation using simulation-based uncertainty quantification (Hobbs et al., 2017; Braverman et al., 2021). Simulation-based uncertainty quantification has the potential to further improve the overall quality of the SSDF product. It could also mitigate or eliminate the two issues our validation has uncovered, namely (1) increased bias at a small number of data points at elevations in excess of 2500 m, and (2) a $\sim$0.1 K shift in annual mean bias between the SSDF-AC and SSDF-A (AIRS-only) versions.

We also plan to create an NSAT SSDF product over global land areas, create a high spatial resolution NSAT SSDF product by including high spatial resolution input NSAT datasets in the fusion, and apply the SSDF method to other hyperspectral surface products, starting with near-surface specific humidity.

Open Research

The SSDF NSAT datasets described in this paper are available from the NASA GES DISC repository at
`https://doi.org/10.5067/CPXNAPA2WSQ8` (SSDF-AC) and `https://doi.org/10.5067/8AE9Y5TSXFX4` (SSDF-A).

Publicly available data were obtained from the NASA Atmospheric Infrared Sounder and the Suomi-NPP projects, the NOAA Integrated Surface Databse, and the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts reanalysis.

Aqua AIRS V7 is available from the NASA GES DISC repository (AIRS Project, 2019). The retrieved surface air temperature (TSurfAir), the corresponding error estimate for TSurfAir (TSurfAirErr), and the corresponding quality flag (QC) (TSurfAir_QC) were obtained for the standard IR-only product.

SNPP-CrIMSS-CLIMCAPS V2 is available from the NASA GES DISC repository (Barnet, 2019). Near surface temperature (surf_air_temp), the corresponding QC flag (surf_air_temp_qc), and the corresponding error estimate (surf_air_temp_err) were obtained from the NSR product.

NOAA ISD NSAT data is available using the rnoaa R package.

ECMWF ERA5-Land gridded hourly 2 m temperature means are available from the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (Copernicus 2017).

Acknowledgments
The research was carried out at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, under a contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (80NM0018D0004). We thank Evan Fishbein, Evan Manning, Erik Fetzer, and Bjorn Lambrigtsen for helpful discussions.

Appendix A Matchups and bias estimation

In this appendix, we will elaborate in detail our procedure for matching between ISD and the instruments' observations, and the consequent bias estimation process. For clarity, we establish the following notation. Let $\mathbf{s}$, $\mathbf{u}$, and $\mathbf{v}$ be latitude-longitude locations; e.g., $\mathbf{s} = (lat, lon)$. On a given day (or night) let $Z^k(\mathbf{u})$ be the value of the k-th instrument's near-surface temperature retrieval centered at $\mathbf{u}$. and focus on a single ISD station at location $\mathbf{s}$ during a single period. Let $t_1^I(\mathbf{s}), \ldots, t_M^I(\mathbf{s})$ be the times at which observations are acquired at this station during the period. These time points may be irregularly spaced, and M can change from station to station. The ISD measurements are $Z^I(\mathbf{s}, Z_m^I(\mathbf{s}))$, $m = 1, \ldots, M$.

Let $t^k(\mathbf{u})$ be the acquisition times associated with the k-th instrument's footprints centered at location $\mathbf{u}$. In principle, $\mathbf{u}$ ranges over all footprint locations for the appropriate instrument during the entire period, but in practice these locations are grouped by granules. We denote granule number during the current period by $g = 1, \ldots, 120$, and the set of footprints belonging to granule g by $\mathcal{G}_g^k$. The time associated with $\mathcal{G}_g^k$ is τ_g^k. To ease the computational burden, $\mathbf{u}$ ranges only over locations in the single granule with time that is closest to $t_m^I(\mathbf{s})$.

A matchup associates the location and time of an ISD value, $\big(\mathbf{s}, t^I(\mathbf{s})\big)$, with the location and time of the k-th instrument's footprint in the period: $\big(\mathbf{u}^*, t^k(\mathbf{u}^*)\big)$. The *matchup function* is,

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\mathbb{M}^k\left(\mathbf{s}, t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\right) = \left(\mathbf{u}^*, t^k(\mathbf{u}^*)\right),\\
&\mathbf{u}^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mathbf{u}} \left\{ ||\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{s}||,\ \mathbf{u} \in \left(\mathcal{G}_{g^*}^k \cap \mathcal{U}^{time} \cap \mathcal{U}^{space}\right) \right\},\\
&g^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{g} \left\{ \left|\tau_g^k - t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\right| \right\},\\
&\mathcal{U}^{time} = \left\{\mathbf{u} : \left|t^k(\mathbf{u}) - t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\right| \le 1 \text{ hour}\right\},\ \mathcal{U}^{space} = \left\{\mathbf{u} : ||\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{s}|| \le 100 \text{ km}\right\}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that, for a given instrument and period, there will only be one granule that satisfies the criterion provided by g^*.

For a given ISD station (indexed by location $\mathbf{s}$) in the current period, p, we create the sets of matchup values for the k-th instrument as follows,

$$
\mathcal{A}^k(p, \mathbf{s}) = \left\{ Z^I\left(\mathbf{s}, t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\right),\ Z^k\left(\mathbb{M}^k\left(\mathbf{s}, t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\right)\right) \right\}_{m=1}^{M(p,\mathbf{s})}
$$

for all ISD time points at $\mathbf{s}$ indexed by $m = 1, \ldots, M(p, \mathbf{s})$. p is identified by a date and a mode (day/night) indicator, e.g., $p = (d, j) = (2013\text{-}01\text{-}01, \text{day})$. $M(p, \mathbf{s})$ is the number of ISD station values in period p at location $\mathbf{s}$. There is at most one AIRS and one CrIMSS footprint associated with each station-time, but the same footprint can be associated with more than one station-time. Thus, $\mathcal{A}^k(p, \mathbf{s})$ may contain multiple elements if there is more than one ISD measurement during period p at location $\mathbf{s}$. They may also be empty if there are no matching AIRS or CrIMSS footprints.

After creating $\mathcal{A}^k(p, \mathbf{s})$ for all periods and ISD locations, we create supersets of matchup value pairs by combining across three-day moving windows, by mode:

$$
\mathcal{A}^{kj}(d, \mathbf{s}) = \mathcal{A}^k(d-1, j, \mathbf{s}) \cup \mathcal{A}^k(d, j, \mathbf{s}) \cup \mathcal{A}^k(d+1, j, \mathbf{s}),\ \ \mathcal{A}^{kj}(d) = \bigcup_{\mathbf{s}} \mathcal{A}^{kj}(d, \mathbf{s}).
$$

$j \in \{\text{day,night}\}$. We chose the three-day time window after experimenting with shorter and longer windows. Shorter windows did not provide adequate sample sizes while longer windows failed to capture weather-related changes. Ideally, window duration would be as short as possible since longer time windows result in larger variance estimates in the fused data, relative to withheld ISD data.

The final step before actually computing estimated bias and variance for each AIRS and CrIMSS footprint is to tessellate a 240 km (approximately two degrees), hexagonal spatial grid over CONUS. We do this by creating a discrete global grid using the DGGRID software package (Sahr et al., 2003; Sahr, 2019). One of the centers, for example, is at 87.72550324 W, 40.7908839 N, near Watseka, Illinois; this center uniquely determines the tessellated grid. All elements of $\mathcal{A}^{kj}(d)$ are sorted in to these grid cells based on the instrument's footprint locations. Formally, let $i \in 1, \ldots, L$ index grid cell centers, and let $1_i(\mathbf{u}) = 1$ if $\mathbf{u}$ lies inside cell i, and zero otherwise. For grid cell i, mode j, and date d, set

$$\mathcal{A}_i^{kj}(d) = \left\{ \left\{ Z^I\big(\mathbf{s}, t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\big),\ Z^k\big(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}, t^k(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}})\big)\ :\ 1_i(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}) = 1 \right\}_{m=1}^{M(d,j,\mathbf{s})} \right\}_{all\ \mathbf{s}},$$

where $M(d, j, \mathbf{s})$ is the number of time points acquired by the ISD station at $\mathbf{s}$ on day d in mode j, L is the total number of hexagonal grid cells, and we write $\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}$ to emphasize its dependence on m and $\mathbf{s}$ via the matchup functions.

The bias assigned to all footprints from the k-th instrument observed on day d in mode j belonging to grid cell i is,

$$\mathrm{b}_{dji}^k = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_i^{kj}(d)|} \sum_{all\ \mathbf{s}} \sum_{m=1}^{M(d,j,\mathbf{s})} \left[Z^k\big(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}, t^k(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}})\big) - Z^I\big(\mathbf{s}, t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\big) \right] 1_i\big(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}\big).$$

The corresponding variance assigned to all footprints observed on day d in mode j belonging to grid cell i is,

$$\mathrm{v}_{dji}^k = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_i^{kj}(d)|} \sum_{all\ \mathbf{s}} \sum_{m=1}^{M(d,j,\mathbf{s})} \left[Z^k\big(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}, t^A(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}})\big) - Z^I\big(\mathbf{s}, t_m^I(\mathbf{s})\big) - \mathrm{b}_{dji}^k. \right]^2 1_i\big(\mathbf{u}^*_{m\mathbf{s}}\big),$$

Subtracting the biases from the satellite footprints yields bias-corrected data. Denote an footprint acquired by the k-th instrument on day d in mode j, centered at location $\mathbf{u}$, by $Z_{dj}^A(\mathbf{u})$, where we suppress the argument $t^A(\mathbf{u})$ since, for a given date and mode, location and time are confounded. The bias-corrected value is denoted by $Z_{dj}^{k*}(\mathbf{u})$ as follow:

$$Z_{dj}^{k*}(\mathbf{u}) = Z_{dj}^A(\mathbf{u}) - \mathrm{b}_{dji^*}^A, \quad i^* = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}}\, 1_i(\mathbf{u}),$$

with associated variance $\mathrm{v}_{dji^*}^k$.

Appendix B SSDF methodology

Consider a discretized domain where $\{Y(\mathbf{s}) : \mathbf{s} \in D\}$ is a hidden, real-valued spatial observable. The domain of interest is $\cup\{A_i \subset \Re^d : i = 1, \ldots, N_D\}$, which is made up of N_D fine-scale, non-overlapping, areal regions $\{A_i\}$ with locations $D \equiv \{\mathbf{p}_i \in A_i : i = 1, \ldots, N_D\}$. Nguyen et al. (2012) call these fine-scale regions Basic Areal Units (BAUs), and they represent the smallest resolution at which we will make estimates with the model.

For a given day and mode (d and j using the notation of the previous subsection), denote the vector of NSAT data at all locations by $\mathbf{Z}^k$, where $k = 1$ for AIRS and $k = 2$ for CrIMSS:

$$\mathbf{Z}^k = (Z^k(B_{k1}), Z^k(B_{k2}), \ldots, Z^k(B_{kN_k}))',$$

where $\mathbf{Z}^k$ is N_k-dimensional, B_{kq} is the q-th footprint from the k-th dataset and is made up of BAUs with locations indexed by $D \cap B_{kq}$. We assume that data observed at an arbitrary areal region B follow the "data model" in which the true observable is averaged over the areal region plus an independent error term. That is,

$$Z^k(B) = \frac{1}{|D \cap B|} \left\{ \sum_{\mathbf{s} \in D \cap B} Y(\mathbf{s}) \right\} + \epsilon^k(B); \;\; B \subset \Re^d. \tag{B1}$$

where $Y(\cdot)$ is a geophysical observable (here, NSAT) that is common to both datasets, and $\epsilon^k(\cdot)$ is an independent but non-identically distributed Gaussian random variable. That is, we assume that the q-th error in the k-th dataset is distributed as $\epsilon_q^k \sim N(b_q^k, v_q^k)$. In general, b_q^k is not zero, however, in our case b_q^k is assumed to be zero because we performed bias correction as described in the previous subsection, and v_q^k are calculated from the hexagonal-cell-specific mean and variance estimates (see Appendix A for details).

Our fused estimate for a region centered at location B_0 is a linear combination of $\mathbf{Z}_1$ and $\mathbf{Z}_2$. That is,

$$\hat{Y}(B_0) \;\; = \;\; \mathbf{a}_1' \mathbf{Z}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2' \mathbf{Z}_2, \tag{B2}$$

where $\mathbf{a}_1$ and $\mathbf{a}_2$ are N_1 and N_2 dimensional vectors, respectively. These vectors are unknown and are estimated in a way that minimizes the expected squared error relative to the true observable. That is, we choose $\mathbf{a}_1$ and $\mathbf{a}_2$ to minimize,

$$\begin{aligned} E((Y(B_0) - \hat{Y}(B_0))^2) \;\; &= \;\; \mathrm{Var}(Y(B_0) - \mathbf{a}_1'\mathbf{Z}_1 - \mathbf{a}_2'\mathbf{Z}_2) \\ &= \;\; \mathrm{Var}(Y(B_0)) - 2\mathbf{a}_1'\mathrm{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}_1, Y(B_0)) \\ &\quad\; -2\mathbf{a}_2'\mathrm{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}_2, Y(B_0)) \\ &\quad\; -2\mathbf{a}_1'\mathrm{Cov}(\mathbf{Z}_1, \mathbf{Z}_2)\mathbf{a}_2 \\ &\quad\; +\mathbf{a}_1'\mathrm{Var}(\mathbf{Z}_1)\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2'\mathrm{Var}(\mathbf{a}_2)\mathbf{a}_2 \end{aligned}$$

subject to the unbiasedness constraint that the elements of $\mathbf{a}_1$ and $\mathbf{a}_2$ add up to 1. That is,

$$1 = \mathbf{a}_1'\mathbf{1}_{N_1} + \mathbf{a}_2'\mathbf{1}_{N_2}, \tag{B3}$$

where $\mathbf{1}_{N_k}$ is an N_k-dimensional vector of ones. The solution to the minimization problem in (B3) can be found via the method of Lagrange multipliers; but it requires knowledge of the spatial covariance structure $C(B_i, B_j)$, which can be expanded in terms of the BAU covariances:

$$C(B_i, B_j) = \frac{1}{|D \cap B_i||D \cap B_j|} \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in D \cap B_i} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in D \cap B_j} C(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}). \tag{B4}$$

Typically, the covariance structure in kriging-based approaches is estimated from the data, but the formulation in Equation B4 makes estimation intractable for non-linear covariance classes. We make use of the Spatial Mixed Effects model (SME; Cressie & Johannesson, 2008), which assumes that the true observable, here NSAT, can be written as the linear mixed model,

$$Y(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{t}(\mathbf{s})'\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{s})'\boldsymbol{\eta} + \xi(\mathbf{s}). \tag{B5}$$

where $\mathbf{t}(\cdot) \equiv (t_1(\cdot), \ldots, t_p(\cdot))'$ is a vector of p known covariates, such as geographical coordinates or other physical variables. The vector of linear coefficients, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$, is unknown and will be estimated from the data. The middle term captures the spatial dependence as the product of an r-dimensional vector of known spatial basis functions, $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{s})$, and an r-dimensional Gaussian random variable, $\boldsymbol{\eta}$. Here, we assume that with $\boldsymbol{\eta} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$. Similar to the implementation in Nguyen et al. (2012), we implement these using multi-resolution bisquare basis functions centered at different resolutions of the Inverse

Snyder Equal-Area Projection Aperture 3 Hexagon (ISEA3H) type within the Discrete Global Grid (DGGRID) software (specifically, resolutions 2, 3, and 5 of ISEA3H, for details see Sahr, 2019). The last term, $\xi(\cdot)$, describes the BAU-scale variability of the process. We assume that $\xi(\cdot)$ is an independent Gaussian process with mean zero and variance σ_ξ^2.

The SME model in Equation B5 has useful change-of-support properties, which makes computation of the spatial covariance function straightforward. In particular, Nguyen et al. (2012) shows that

$$\mathrm{cov}(Z(B_i), Z(B_j)) = \mathbf{S}(B_i)'\mathbf{K}\mathbf{S}(B_j) + \sigma_\xi^2 \frac{|D \cap B_i \cap B_j|}{|D \cap B_i||D \cap B_j|} + v_i^k I(i = j), \tag{B6}$$

where

$$\mathbf{S}(B_i) \equiv \frac{1}{|D \cap B_i|} \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in D \cap B_i} \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{u}).$$

Notice that Equation B6 allows us to express the covariance between spatial averages *explicitly* in terms of the spatial dependence parameter $\mathbf{K}$. This allows for straightforward estimation of it from footprint data.

Another advantage of the SME model is its scalability. For a general covariance structure, solving for $\mathbf{a}_1$ and $\mathbf{a}_2$ requires inverting a $(N_1 + N_2) \times (N_1 + N_2)$ covariance matrix, which has computational complexity $O((N_1 + N_2)^3)$. For large datasets such as AIRS and CrIMSS where the data size is on the order of tens of thousands, this matrix inversion is computationally infeasible. However, the model in Equation B5 implies the following full covariance matrix:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{\Sigma} &\equiv \mathrm{var}((\mathbf{Z}^{1\prime}, \mathbf{Z}^{2\prime})') \\ &= \mathbf{S}'\mathbf{K}\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{U},\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{S}$ is a matrix constructed by appending the spatial function $\mathbf{S}(\cdot)$ over all the footprints in both datasets, $\mathbf{U}$ is the *sparse* covariance matrix for the fine-scale processes $\xi(\cdot)$, and the measurement-error processes $\epsilon^k(\cdot)$ at the given data locations (for more details, see Equation 4 of Nguyen et al., 2012). Using the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula (e.g., Henderson & Searle, 1981), the matrix inverse is given by,

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^{-1} - \mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{S}' \left(\mathbf{K}^{-1} + \mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{S}'.\right)^{-1} \mathbf{S}\mathbf{U}^{-1},$$

Note that the inversion above, and hence the calculation of the coefficients $\mathbf{a}_1$ and $\mathbf{a}_2$ for the fused estimate, is very fast because it only requires inversion of the *sparse* $(N_1 + N_2) \times (N_1 + N_2)$ matrix $\mathbf{U}$, which is typically very sparse, and inversion of $\mathbf{K}$ and $(\mathbf{K}^{-1} + \mathbf{S}'\mathbf{U}^{-1}\mathbf{S})$, both of which are $r \times r$ matrices ($r << N_1 + N_2$).

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