



Special Observing Period (SOP) Data for the Year of Polar Prediction site Model Intercomparison Project (YOPPsiteMIP)

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26 **Abstract.** The rapid changes occurring in the polar regions require an improved understanding of the processes that are

- driving the changes. At the same time increased human activities, such as marine navigation, resource exploitation, aviation,
- 28 commercial fishing, and tourism, require reliable and relevant information. One of the primary goals of the World
- 29 Meteorological Organization's Year of Polar Prediction (YOPP) Project is to improve the accuracy of numerical weather
- 30 prediction (NWP) at high latitudes. During YOPP, two Canadian observatories were commissioned and equipped with new
- 31 ground-based instruments for enhanced meteorological and system process observations that are considered to be
- 32 "supersites" for addressing YOPP objectives, while other pre-existing supersites in Canada, the United States, Norway,
- 33 Finland and Russia provided data from ongoing long-term observing programs. Data from these seven supersites were
- 34 amalgamated and are being used to evaluate NWP systems from several international forecast centers and to perform
- 35 meteorological process studies with the aim of improving NWP performance in the Polar Regions. In order to increase data
- 36 useability and station interoperability, novel Merged Observatory Data Files (MODFs) have been created for these seven
- 37 international supersites over two Special Observing Periods (February to March 2018 and July to September 2018). All
- 38 observations collected at the seven supersites were compiled into this new standardized NetCDF MODF format, simplifying



the process of conducting pan-Arctic NWP verification and process evaluation studies. This paper describes the seven Arctic
YOPP supersites, data collection and processing methods, and the novel MODF format and output files, which together
comprise the observational contribution to the associated model intercomparison effort, termed YOPP supersite Model
Intercomparison Project (YOPPsiteMIP). All YOPPsiteMIP MODFs are publicly accessible via the YOPP Data Portal
(Whitehorse: https://doi.org/10.21343/a33e-j150, Iqaluit: https://doi.org/10.21343/a33e-j150, Iqaluit: https://doi.org/10.21343/yrnf-ck57, Sodankylä:
https://doi.org/10.21343/a32e-j150, Iqaluit: https://doi.org/10.21343/grnf-ck57, Sodankylä:
https://doi.org/10.21343/grnf-ck57, Sodankylä:
https://doi.org/10.21343/grnf-ck57, Tiksi: https://doi.org/10.21343/grnf-ck57, Sodankylä:
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https://doi.org/10.21343/grnf-ck57, Tiksi: https://doi.org/10.21343/grnf-ck57, Sodankylä:

46 Norway, with corresponding output from NWP models.

47 1 Introduction

48 In the Arctic there is a recognized lack of process-level information supplementing meteorological observations to characterize 49 the atmosphere and the cryosphere for operational forecasting (Cassano et al., 2011; Illingworth et al., 2015; Lawrence et al., 50 2019). As the climate continues to change, information on weather and climate is becoming more critical in ensuring the health 51 and safety of local communities. Unfortunately, climate models do a poor job of capturing key features of Arctic climate, such 52 as the Arctic amplification factor, likely as a result of inaccurate representation of key physical processes, as shown by 53 Rantanen et al. (2022). Similarly, the accuracy of weather forecasts in the Polar Regions is also lower than in mid-latitudes 54 (Jung et al., 2016) partly due to the scattered and limited availability of observing networks (Lawrence et al., 2019). Advances 55 in Polar prediction are expected to improve weather forecasts and climate predictions elsewhere (Jung et al., 2014 and Day et 56 al., 2019), but understanding the causes of poor model performance in the Arctic is limited by the availability of observatory 57 data. Data from observatories, where sometimes hundreds of parameters are measured, are needed for detailed investigations 58 into the cause of model error, such as boundary-layer processes and turbulent exchanges (e.g., Day et al., 2023).

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To address the need to improve Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) performance in the Polar Regions, the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) launched the international Polar Prediction Project with its flagship activity, the Year of Polar Prediction (YOPP). During YOPP's core phase, from mid-2017 to mid-2019, several intensive observing periods were conducted with close coordination between the international network of polar observatories and weather forecast centers. The aim was to produce highly-concentrated sets of observed and modelled data for supporting forecast evaluation and process studies (Koltzow et al., 2019; Goessling et al., 2016; Jung et al., 2016).

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One of the flagship activities of YOPP was the YOPP supersite Model Intercomparison Project (YOPPsiteMIP), an initiative to assess the performance of NWP systems at the process level by comparing with observatory data (Day et al., 2023). To achieve this, a dataset of weather forecasts was produced by various NWP centers for supersite locations. In the Arctic the





dataset covers two Special Observing Periods (SOPs), SOP1 (February 1 – March 31, 2018) and SOP2 (July 1 – September 30, 2018). During this period the number of routine observations (e.g. radiosonde launches, buoy deployments, etc.) were enhanced in the Arctic (doubled in the case of radiosondes), field campaigns were conducted, and enhanced observations from the designated YOPP "supersite" observatories were taken. This paper documents the efforts to compile the supersite data collected during this period as part of the YOPPsiteMIP. These supersites (Figure 1) are distributed over a diverse range of geographical locations capturing some of the diversity in the terrestrial high-latitude climate zones.

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77 Prior to YOPP, data collection, processing, geophysical variable reporting cadences, and file output type and format were not 78 standardized across the supersites, which are operated by different international agencies and consortiums. This lack of 79 interoperability made performing multi-site comparisons, evaluations, and process studies difficult and time consuming, 80 deterring potential users of supersite data (Wohner et al., 2022). In order to address this problem, the concept of standardized Merged Observatory Data Files (MODFs) was developed as part of the YOPPsiteMIP (Uttal et al., 2023). This concept is 81 82 based on combining measurements from multiple international research observatories' instruments into a single NetCDF file 83 that complies with established data management standards. Prior to MODFs, there generally existed no standardized 84 procedures for coordinated data management at these research sites such as those that have been developed for operational 85 datasets. Thus, the data from these sites' separate instruments were scattered between separate files with different authors, 86 formats, metadata, post-processing techniques, physical archive locations, and requirements for usage. As such, they could not 87 be amalgamated to provide a pan-Arctic observational dataset.

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89 MODF files bring together observations from different earth system components in a standardized NetCDF file format to 90 enable utilization of research-grade, process-level observations for model evaluation and parameterization development. At 91 the same time, MODFs are compatible with and mirror Merged Model Data Files (MMDFs) that are produced by each NWP 92 centre participating in YOPP (Day et al., 2023). Each geophysical variable observed at a site is matched to its corresponding 93 NWP model geophysical variable using identical data format, cadence, and file structure in order to facilitate improved 94 observation-model comparisons at the supersites (Gallagher and Tjernström, 2024). Uttal et al. (2023) provides a generalized 95 overview for the content and data structure of MODFs, i.e., a single NetCDF data file containing measurements from multiple 96 sources, and a series of tools to facilitate their creation. The purpose of the present work is to describe the construction and 97 contents of MODFs for seven of the YOPP-designated Arctic supersites during SOPs 1 and 2 (hereafter, "MODF_{vsm}"): 98 Whitehorse, Canada (60.71 °N, 135.07 °W, 682 m a.s.l.); Iqaluit, Canada (63.74 °N, 68.51 °W, 11 m a.s.l.); Sodankylä, Finland 99 (67.367 °N, 26.629 °E, 179 m a.s.l.); Utqiagvik (Barrow), Alaska (71.325 °N, 156.625 °W, 8 m a.s.l.); Tiksi, Russia (71.596 100 °N, 128.889 °E, 30 m a.s.l.); Ny-Ålesund, Norway (78.923 °N, 11.926 °E, 15 m a.s.l.); and Eureka, Canada (80.083 °N, 86.417 101 °W, 89 m a.s.l.). Table 1 provides information regarding the on-site facility location where measurements were collected and 102 their coordinates for reference. For some sites (e.g., Sodankylä), certain geophysical variables are measured at multiple





103 locations; these are all reported in the MODF with their corresponding measurement coordinates embedded within the file so 104 as to distinguish each measurement. These MODFs closely mirror the format used to archive the YOPPsiteMIP NWP data, in 105 order to enable model evaluation. Final DOIs for the $MODF_{yms}$ are listed in Table 2.

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107 Creating a standardized dataset such as MODF that contains observations from different meteorological and research agencies' 108 sites is an extremely complex, non-trivial task. For the sake of brevity and to reduce redundancy, this paper references site- or 109 instrument-specific publications in order to fully describe all of the aspects of the MODF dataset, including instrumentation, 110 quality control, and processing techniques. In the case where non-trivial aspects about the MODF data arise, the data's origin, 111 reference publications (e.g., dataset dois), and site contacts have been provided. Section 2 describes the data processing chain 112 conducted at each supersite, including information about the site's local topography, climate, and instrumentation in order to 113 provide site-specific context to aid the interpretation of model-observation comparisons. Section 3 describes the 114 instrumentation and calculated variables. Section 4 describes the standardized MODF dataset file format, quality control, and 115 post processing, which in some cases differed slightly from site-to-site. Section 5 describes the MODF data structure, attributes, 116 and example Figures that illustrate the available dataset. Data and code availability is provided in Section 6, and concluding 117 remarks are provided in Section 7.

118 **2 Site Descriptions**

119 It is important to properly contextualize and interpret the observations contained within the MODF since they come from 120 vastly different sites. A map of the distribution of the supersites is shown in Figure 1 and local maps showing the vicinity 121 around each supersite are found in Figure 2. For context, also shown in Figure 2, are native spatial grids of the forecast models 122 that participated in YOPPsiteMIP. While all supersites are also designated surface synoptic observation (SYNOP) stations, the 123 meteorological data provided in the MODFs is significantly more detailed and includes additional geophysical variables and 124 thus is not the same as the SYNOP data. Table 3 lists the geophysical variables observed at each site that are stored in the 125 standardized MODF format, their measurement location(s), and other attributes; the MODF featureType corresponds to the 126 type of geophysical variable being observed at each site (they are split up into broad categories).

127 2.1 Whitehorse, Canada

128 The Whitehorse supersite was commissioned as part of the Canadian Arctic Weather Science (CAWS) project (Mariani et al.,

129 2018; Joe et al., 2020). The supersite's instruments are installed on an elevated platform, all within a few meters of each other.

- 130 Whitehorse has a population greater than 26,000 inhabitants. It is the primary gateway for air traffic for all of the Yukon
- 131 Territories, parts of Alaska, and the Western Canadian Arctic. The supersite is located at the Erik Nielsen Whitehorse



132 International Airport, which is situated on a plateau ~50 m above the rest of the city. The city is located in a valley between 133 the Yukon Ranges to its West (~1.6 km a.s.l.) and East (~1.4 km a.s.l.); this complex mountainous terrain strongly influences 134 the weather systems that reach Whitehorse, which mostly originate from the Eastern Pacific or over Alaska. The primary 135 surface wind direction follows the valley (NNW) and the average roughness length is estimated to be 1.0 m (Pinard et al., 136 2005). The soil type at and around the site is a mixture of grained alluvial and colluvial slopes and, as part of the Boreal 137 Cordillera ecozone, the surface type is primarily Boreal Forest, including complex plateaus, mountains, valleys and Cordilleran 138 vegetation. Whitehorse experiences cold to temperate average monthly temperatures ranging from -15 to 14 °C and average 139 monthly precipitation ranging from 7 to 38 mm. Since the town is in the rain shadow of the Coast Mountains, precipitation 140 totals are relatively low year-round.

141 2.2 Iqaluit, Canada

142 Like Whitehorse, the Iqaluit supersite was commissioned as part of the CAWS project (Mariani et al., 2022). It is located ~200 143 m from the airport runway and all instruments are co-located to within no more than 140 m of each other on flat terrain. Co-144 located instrument evaluation studies were conducted for several remote sensing and upper air observations (Mariani et al., 145 2020, 2021), including preliminary model verification studies during the YOPP SOPs and beyond. Iqaluit has over 8,000 146 inhabitants and is the primary gateway for air and sea traffic for the central and Eastern Canadian Arctic. The city itself is 147 located along the coast in a valley that runs in the NW to SE direction; thus, the primary direction of surface winds, which are 148 frequently severe (> 15 m/s), follows this direction. The surrounding region is relatively flat Arctic tundra except for nearby 149 hills (~300 m a.s.l.) approximately two kilometers to the NE of the supersite. The average roughness length determined from 150 the variance of wind speed is 0.14 m (Gordon et al., 2010). The soil type at and around the site is cryosolic and the surface 151 type is ~70% tundra and ~30% ocean within a 10 km radius of the supersite. Most storm tracks that reach Iqaluit originate 152 over the Western Canadian Arctic or the Prairies; these storms can produce strong Easterly winds which frequently cause 153 blowing snow that severely reduces visibility during non-summer months. Given the site's proximity to Frobisher Bay (< 600 154 m), the site is influenced by sea surface conditions during onshore flow (NW). Iquit experiences an extreme range of average 155 monthly temperatures ranging from -28 to 8 °C and average monthly precipitation ranging from 18 to 70 mm.

156 2.3 Sodankylä, Finland

The Sodankylä supersite is managed by the Arctic Space Centre of the Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI-ARC) and is located in the Scandinavian taiga, which consists of a mix of spruces, pines and birches. The measurements at the Sodankylä supersite are distributed over seven main observational sites, each of them including several installations (48m, 24m, 20m or 16m towers, automatic weather stations (AWS), structures supporting snow and soil measurements) that cover an area of





approximately 1.5 km². The environment of the observational sites varies between dense forest, sparse forest, forest openings, and wetland, each of these environments having its own particular surface characteristics. The supersite is a calibration/validation site for numerous satellite products (such as snow water equivalent and snow extent (Luojus et al., 2021), and soil freeze-thaw (Cohen et al., 2021 and Rautiainen et al., 2016), hence the spatial distribution of the observational sites reflects the need of measuring the spatial variability of observed parameters over different spatial scales and satellite footprints (Hannula et al., 2016).

167 2.4 Utqiaġvik (formerly Barrow), USA

The Utqiaġvik supersite consists of observatories located ~3 km southeast from the coastline where the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas meet. The supersite is situated over tundra interspersed with thermokarst lakes having a coverage of up to 40% area (Sellmann et al., 1975). The climate in Utqiaġvik, and much of the Alaskan North Slope, is regulated by seasonal sea ice cover and the dominance of easterlies that circulate around the Beaufort High. This atmospheric pattern is punctuated by episodes of southerly advection of air masses from the north Pacific, which frequently arrive from the direction of the Bering Strait and are influential the timing of seasonal transitions of terrestrial snow cover and sea ice coverage in both autumn and spring (Cox et al., 2017).

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176 There are two primary observatories located outside of Utgiagvik (formerly Barrow), Alaska: The Atmospheric Radiation 177 Measurement (ARM) North Slope of Alaska (NSA) observatory operated by the Department of Energy, and the Barrow 178 Atmospheric Baseline Observatory facility operated by the NOAA Global Monitoring Laboratory (GML). These observatories 179 are located 8 km east of the town of Utgiagvik, and likely beyond the influence of a local heat island in town (Hinkel et al., 180 2007) and disturbance to snow cover by human activity (Stone et al., 2002). The site includes several towers and space for 181 guest instruments. The GML Barrow Atmospheric Baseline Observatory recently built a newly furnished on-site laboratory completed 182 2020. The 1972 that was in site's previous facility was constructed in 183 (https://gml.noaa.gov/obop/brw/history/index.html), and was deconstructed in 2021. The ARM NSA observatory was 184 established in 1997 (Verlinde et al., 2016). Together, the GML and ARM observatories provide an extensive set of long-term 185 measurements at this coastal location. Measurements include properties of aerosols, clouds, precipitation, trace gases, the 186 atmospheric state and the surface energy balance. Radiosondes were launched three times daily during the SOPs specifically 187 in response to a WMO YOPP organizational request.



188 **2.5 Tiksi, Russia**

189 The original Tiksi science station was established in 1932 and at its height had 60-80 staff and families that lived onsite with 190 a school and grocery store comprising an independent community. The current Tiksi observatory, in the same location, is 7 191 km away from the town of Tiksi, Russia, in the Sakha Republic of northern Siberia and is staffed by personnel that commute 192 from the town. In collaboration with the Russian Federal Service for Hydrometeorological and Environmental Monitoring 193 (Roshydromet), a partnership was established with the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and the 194 Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI) in 2005 to collect climate grade meteorological, surface energy budget, greenhouse 195 gases and aerosol data (Uttal et al., 2013). The Tiksi station is a coastal site, with facilities built in a high latitude tundra regime, 196 comprising several different types of tundra land classifications including shrub (most predominant), lichen, wet/dry fen, 197 grassy, bog, water, bare and meadow (Mikola et al., 2018).

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199 On-site, Tiksi hosts a 20-m flux tower, a clean air facility, a weather station, a Climate Reference Network (CRN) platform, 200 and a Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN) platform (Ohmura et al., 1998; Driemel et al., 2018). Radiosonde data 201 were incorporated into the Integrated Global Radiosonde Archive (IGRA) and are available through NOAA's National Centers 202 for Environmental Information (NCEI) portal (Durre et al., 2018). Radiosondes had twice daily launches during the SOPs 203 specifically in response to a WMO YOPP organizational request. Meteorologically, Tiksi is located in a boundary region 204 between Atlantic and Pacific air masses. The resulting variability in atmospheric conditions with air masses originating from 205 various source regions in Russia, Northern America, Europe and Central Asia require careful attention and interpretation of 206 in-situ measurements. Tiksi is also influenced by its location at the mouth of the Lena River, the second largest river draining 207 into the Arctic Ocean and the only major Russian river underlain by permafrost which has impacts on the processes and 208 evolution of surface fluxes. Tiksi is also situated on the coast of the Laptev Sea, which is historically a region of large sea-ice 209 production.

210 2.6 Ny-Ålesund, Norway

211 At Ny-Ålesund Research Station in Svalbard, Norway, multi-disciplinary observations are operated by several institutions of different nationalities. The settlement at 78.9°N, 11.9°E, is situated on the south coast of the Kongsfjord, which opens at the 212 213 west coast of Svalbard towards the Fram Strait. The fjord stretches in southeast-northwest direction from the large glacier 214 plateau to the open ocean, and is surrounded by glaciated mountains with altitudes up to 1 km. This geographical setting 215 impacts the local wind field in the lowermost kilometer, resulting in a mainly southeastern wind direction at Ny-Ålesund, 216 which is temporarily replaced by a north-westerly wind direction when large-scale synoptic wind is also coming from the 217 according direction. Only in calm conditions with wind speed < 2 m/s do katabatic winds from the glaciers south of Ny-Ålesund prevail. Ny-Ålesund may be located in the high Arctic, but due to its location in a coastal environment affected by 218





the West Spitsbergen Current, the local climate is quite maritime and relatively warm. During the summer months, air temperatures above freezing and the otherwise snow-covered landscape exhibits tundra ground and the active layer soil surface of permafrost. An overview of the climate conditions and changes in Svalbard is given by the Norwegian Centre for Climate Services (NCCS, 2018), while the specific atmospheric and radiation conditions in Ny-Ålesund are described by Maturilli et al. (2019).

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225 The Norwegian Meteorological Institute (aka MET Norway; www.met.no) is operating the standard meteorological surface 226 and synoptic observations reported to the WMO. For the YOPP SOPs, the radiosonde launch frequency was increased from 227 daily to 6-hourly. Radiosonde launches, four times daily, are contributed by the Alfred Wegener Institute (AWI), and carried 228 out by the German-French AWIPEV research base that AWI jointly operates with the French Polar Institute Paul-Émile Victor 229 (IPEV). The radiosondes and weekly ozone sondes are launched from a balloon platform about 200m west of the MET Norway 230 weather mast. Atmospheric trace gases and cloud condensation nuclei are observed at the Zeppelin Observatory at about 474 231 m a.s.l. on Zeppelin Mountain south of Ny-Ålesund, operated by the Norwegian Polar Institute (NPI), the Norwegian Institute 232 for Air Research (NILU), Stockholm University, the Japanese National Institute of Polar Research (NIPR), and others. The 233 full complement of atmospheric measurements at Ny-Ålesund highlights the interwoven research community that contributes 234 to making Ny-Ålesund an observational supersite. More information on the Ny-Ålesund Research Station is available at 235 https://nyalesundresearch.no.

236 2.7 Eureka, Canada

237 The CAnadian Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Change (CANDAC) runs the Polar Environment Atmospheric 238 Research Laboratory (PEARL) near the Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC) Eureka Weather Station (EWS) in 239 Nunavut, Canada. PEARL has three facilities: the Ridge Laboratory (RL), the Zero Altitude PEARL Auxiliary Laboratory 240 (0PAL), and the Surface and Atmospheric Flux Irradiance Extension (SAFIRE). PEARL collects a wide variety of 241 measurements across all three facilities, and in-depth details about the site including its instrumentation, dataset validation and 242 uncertainties, etc., can be found in Fogal et al. (2013) and at https://www.pearl-candac.ca/website/index.php/facilities. Only a 243 subset of the available measurements collected have been included in the $MODF_{vsm}$ (Akish & Morris, 2023a) due to time 244 constraints and processing resources.

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Details of Eureka's climatology are described in Lesins et al. (2010) and water vapor climatology in Weaver et al. (2017). For the period from 1954–2007, the monthly average dry bulb air temperature minimum occurs in February at approximately -37 °C, with the maximum in July at approximately 5 °C. ECCC also publishes climate normals for Eureka at https://climate.weather.gc.ca/climate_normals/results_1981_2010_e.html?stnID=1750&autofwd=1, which for a time period





250 of 1981–2010, report a minimum monthly average temperature of -37.4 °C in February and a maximum of 6.1 °C in July. 251 Average yearly precipitation is reported as 79.1 mm, with a yearly average snowfall of 60.3 cm and yearly average rainfall of 252 32.5 mm. The soils are mostly marine deposits, and the topography, apart from the stony ridges, is driven mostly by ground 253 ice (Pollard & Bell, 1998; Pollard et al., 2015). Eureka is generally colder and drier than Utgiagvik (Cox et al., 2012). Cloud 254 cover over Eureka is anomalous relative to other Arctic observatories, with generally higher cloud bases, a smaller proportion 255 of supercooled liquid, and a seasonal cycle offset from the typical pattern observed elsewhere (Shupe, 2011; Shupe et al., 256 2011). Ellesmere Island, where Eureka is situated, is characterized by complex topography that generates mesoscale 257 atmospheric circulations, such as downsloping winds (e.g., Persson and Stone, 2007). The local summertime atmosphere is 258 likely regulated also by nearby ice conditions (Persson and Stone, 2007; Tremblay et al., 2019), which vary between the 259 northern side of the island where multiyear pack ice persists (e.g., Alert) and other coastal areas, which are generally adjacent 260 to seasonal ice cover (e.g., Eureka). However, the general dryness of the atmosphere over Ellesmere is likely a regional 261 anomaly related to location relative to dominant pressure patterns over the Beaufort Sea and near the pole rather than being 262 local (Cox et al., 2012).

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The observations used from the Eureka station for the $MODF_{ysm}$ (Akish & Morris, 2023a) were primarily measured at the OPAL and SAFIRE on-site facilities. The OPAL lab is situated at approximately 10 m a.s.l. elevation to capture measurements in the lowermost atmosphere. The SAFIRE facility is located about 5 km from the EWS, and it is located away from any structures. At SAFIRE, there is a former BSRN station, a flux tower, and additional remote sensing instrumentation. Eureka increased their twice daily radiosonde launches to four daily launches during the SOPs, specifically in response to a WMO YOPP organizational request.

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271 **3 Instrumentation and Derived Variable Calculation**

Standard surface meteorological observations (winds, temperature, pressure, humidity, precipitation) were conducted by instruments of similar design, operation, and accuracy at the different sites. The MODF files have an attribute "Instrument," which specifies the exact instrument model used for each variable at each site. OTT Pluvio2 precipitation weighing gauges, which have a quoted precision of \pm 0.001 mm and uncertainty < 5%, were deployed at all sites to measure precipitation with a single Alter shield configuration (no under-catchment corrections were performed; see Section 4). The reported accuracy of the Campbell Scientific probes used at some of the sites to measure soil temperature and moisture is 0.3 K and 1.5%, respectively.



280 For Whitehorse and Iqaluit, a Vaisala WXT520 was used to measure wind, air temperature, pressure, and relative humidity 281 with an accuracy of ± 0.3 m/s, ± 0.3 °C, ± 0.5 hPa, and $\pm 3\%$, respectively. The other sites employed slightly different instruments to measure these variables; in general, their reported accuracy is similar or slightly better than the WXT520. Wind 282 283 observations were collected by an RM Young Model 43408/43482/3001 at Utqiagvik, Tiksi, and Ny-Ålesund, a Vaisala 284 WAA25 or METEK USA-1 sonic anemometer at Sodankylä, and a Lufft Anemometer at Eureka. Temperature and relative 285 humidity observations were collected by Vaisala HMP35D/HMP45D/HMP155/HMT337 sensors in aspirators at Utgiagvik, 286 Tiksi, Sodankylä, Ny-Ålesund, and Eureka; they were shielded/housed in the same way. Pressure was obtained from a Vaisala PT100/PTB110/PTB220/PTB201 at Utgiagvik, Tiksi, Ny-Ålesund, Sodankylä, and Eureka. 287

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For all sites, Vaisala RS92 or RS41 radiosondes were used to collect vertical profile observations from the surface up to the stratosphere. For Iqaluit and Whitehorse, however, the radiosonde manufacturer changed during SOP2 from Vaisala (RS92) to GRAW on September 12, 2018 (no impact on the data quality is anticipated). These radiosondes have a quoted uncertainty of $< \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C, 1.0 hPa, 0.15 m/s, and 5% for temperature, pressure, wind, and relative humidity, respectively, in the lower atmosphere.

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295 The radiation flux, cloud base height, and snowfall flux observations are the only derived variables that were explicitly 296 calculated in the MODF (as opposed to the direct observations described in the paragraphs above). The radiation flux 297 observations were processed using the eddy correlation and bulk method (see for instance Baldocchi, 2014). Kipp and Zonen 298 pyranometers and pyrgeometers (e.g., CMP22/CNR4/CM11/CMA11/CGR4 models) were used at Iqaluit, Utqiagvik, and 299 Sodankylä, whereas an Eppley PSP pyranometer and PIR pyrgeometer was used at Tiksi, Ny-Ålesund, and Eureka. In general, 300 these pyranometers and pyrgeometers have spectral ranges of 200 to 3600 nm (e.g., CMP22) and 4500 to 42000 nm (e.g., CGR4), respectively, a directional error $< \pm 5$ W/m², sensitivity of 5-15 μ V/W/m² and an offset of < 7 W/m² (night-time for 301 302 the pyranometer). All upwelling and downwelling, longwave and shortwave radiation measurements were collected at 1-303 minute intervals with instruments in aspirated housing units and no heating elements applied to the instruments. Additional 304 processing and quality control methods for these observations are discussed in Section 4. Cloud-base height observations were 305 output by the Vaisala CL51 ceilometer at most sites (where available) using a proprietary algorithm to determine the lowest 306 cloud base height; the uncertainty of this algorithm isn't reported but the ceilometer has a reported distance accuracy of ± 5 m 307 from the manufacturer. The snowfall flux data was derived from a Ka-band ARM Zenith Radar (KAZR) used at the ARM 308 facility, following ARM quality control measures (Widener et al., 2012). ARM technical reports, instrument validation / 309 evaluation, and quality control measures are linked and available within the Utqiagvik/Barrow MODF_{vsm} (Akish & Morris, 310 2023c).





312 For all observations, instantaneous time is reported at the instruments' raw sampling cadence in UTC. The typical temporal 313 cadence for most observations are around 1 minute or less. No temporal interpolation or averaging was performed on the data. 314 The only exception to this is for turbulent fluxes (the only calculated variable), where some averaging (1 to 30 minutes, 315 depending on the variable) is implicit in the calculation of fluxes. Heights are reported as above ground level (AGL), with the 316 exception of the soil thermistor string, which reports depths below the surface in units of cm. Note that the uncertainties 317 provided in this Section originate from the manufacturer and often depend on the meteorological conditions (e.g., relative 318 humidity observations are less accurate during very low temperatures); as such, the largest reported uncertainty was provided 319 for each geophysical variable in order to provide a conservative error estimate. For more information on the instrumentation 320 used or further details on the instrument accuracy, precision, and co-located validation studies for certain instruments, refer to 321 the site-specific references listed in Section 2 and/or the WMO Guide to Instruments and Methods of Observation (WMO, 322 2021).

323

324 4 Dataset Preparation, quality control, and post-processing

325 Guidelines for creating MODFs were published as a table in both human-readable (PDF file) and machine-readable (JSON 326 files) formats by Hartten and Khalsa (2022). This "H-K Table" adopts the standards and conventions commonly used in the 327 earth sciences, including NetCDF encoding with Climate and Forecast (CF) Conventions and following CMPI6 naming, as 328 agreed upon by the YOPP community (Uttal et al., 2023). This H-K standard facilitates the creation of MODFs using current 329 requirements and the creator's software of choice, with the MODF toolkits providing tools to assist the user in creating MODFs 330 (Section 6). For the present work, we used H-K Table version 1.3 to guide the criteria for the generation and standardization 331 of naming conventions, units, and global/variable attribute metadata. Observational datasets were collated and formatted for 332 each of the seven supersites into a set of NetCDF files in accordance with the table's criteria. The native variable name is saved 333 as an attribute in the MODFs and as previously discussed, no resampling was performed to harmonize different time stepping 334 (the instrument's instantaneous raw sampling frequency is reported, usually about minutely). Acceptance of data into the 335 MODF_{vsm} was generally determined by the variable list described in the table. The processing script is openly available and 336 described in Section 6.

337

Radiosonde (timeSeriesProfileSonde variables) data in the MODF were binned into 5-meter intervals (10 m for Iqaluit and Whitehorse) of geopotential height and all measurements within each bin were averaged. In the case of 5-meter intervals, this most often results in 0, 1, or 2 measurements in each bin: 8%, 82%, 9% respectively in SOP1 and 6%, 80%, 13% in SOP2. In both SOP1 and SOP2 at least 99.9% of the measurements have 2 or fewer measurements, but a given bin can have up to 14 measurements. The number of measurements per bin has been included in the dataset to filter for these situations, as have the





actual time and height of each measurement (though also averaged within each bin). For surface precipitation observations, no
 corrections for solid precipitation under-catchment were performed (the dataset is raw in the MODF); where appropriate, users
 are recommended to process under-catchment corrections via Kochendorfer et al. (2020).

346

347 The principal goal of the present phase of the MODF concept is to standardize data organization, metadata, and interoperability. 348 While data quality assurance and measurement operation procedures remain in the purview of the contributing stations, 349 considerable effort was undertaken to ensure MODF production followed a transparent, consistent, and standardized data 350 processing chain. This includes efforts to standardize post-processing and filtering techniques (e.g., quality control methods) 351 as much as possible for the same geophysical variable across the different sites. This consistent processing chain is another 352 unique feature of the MODF dataset as it enforces a level of consistency across vastly different observation sites that normally 353 follow their agencies' own data production procedures and methods. As identified in the below subsections, there are some 354 cases where site-specific data processing could not be avoided; data should be used cautiously and with due consideration to 355 each supersite's processing techniques and quality control (QC) methods for the MODF_{vsm}.

356 4.1 Whitehorse and Iqaluit, Canada

357 All geophysical variables observed at the Iqaluit and Whitehorse sites were processed in the same manner and included in the 358 MODF_{vsm} (Huang et al., 2023b; 2023a). For most geophysical variables, limited QC was performed on the raw dataset with 359 the intention to remove obvious outliers only. Surface variables were checked against climatology ranges and the rate of change 360 thresholds, which were based on hourly criteria. A very small number (<5%) of observations were flagged by the QC algorithm. 361 The radiation flux observations should be treated with caution since they typically require additional QC processing prior to 362 analysis; no additional QC was performed on these observations to account for potential frost or snow deposition on the 363 sensors, for instance. No additional QC was performed on the cloud base height data, which was processed by the Vaisala 364 software. Vaisala also processed the raw data feed from the radiosonde observations, which was obtained at 2 s resolution; no 365 additional QC was performed. When no data was available (due to the instrument being down, loss of power at the site, or 366 because it was flagged by the QC algorithm), a missing value (-9999.0) was reported in the MODF_{vsm} (Huang et al., 2023a; 2023b) and is notated via the missing value attribute associated with each variable. Mariani et al. (2020, 2021) provides 367 368 instrument validation studies and more detailed information on the quality control processing routines for the remote sensing 369 and upper air observations.



370 4. 2 Sodankylä, Finland

371 The Sodankylä observations included in the MODF_{vsm} (O'Connor, 2023) are automatically uploaded every day to the FMI 372 open access web site https://litdb.fmi.fi/ where the data are organized on the basis of platforms and stations. Before being 373 uploaded to the web page, the data undergo an automatic quality check to remove outliers. In the current $MODF_{vsm}$ version 374 (O'Connor, 2023), no further quality check was applied to the data, implying that errors from several sources (such as 375 snow/frost deposition on radiation and temperature sensors or absorption of solar radiation by unsheltered temperature sensors) 376 are occasionally included. In a future version of the MODF_{vsm}, a deeper quality check will be applied to some of the variables 377 included in the current MODF_{vsm} (O'Connor, 2023). This quality check is based on the comparison among the same variables 378 measured at different sites, on visual inspection and, in the case of global radiation, on the comparison with radiative transfer 379 model calculations. This processing will enable the identification of the shortwave data affected by the shadows casted by the 380 vegetation, of errors caused by frost formation on the domes of pyranometers, and of the error in unshaded thermometers 381 caused by the absorption of solar radiation. As in the case of the Eureka observatory, the radiosonde data in the MODF was 382 ingested and processed by IGRA and is available through NOAA's NCEI portal (Durre et al., 2018).

383 4. 3 Utqiaġvik (formerly barrow), USA

The Utqiaġvik/Barrow data within the $MODF_{ysm}$ (Akish & Morris, 2023c) originated from both Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (DOE/ARM) and the Global Monitoring Laboratory (NOAA GML) datasets, with GML proving datasets for ozone, snow thickness, skin temperature, soil temperature profile. Value added products were generated and disseminated to the users using the ARM Data Discovery interface. Both the ARM and GML datasets were ingested into a single $MODF_{ysm}$ with variable attribution detailing how each variable and data set was quality controlled, processed and accessed. The surface ozone data was collected in 1-minute intervals and was manually quality controlled and submitted to NCEI.

390

391 The measurements collected by the ARM facility were processed, QC analyzed, and archived at the ARM Data Center archive. 392 The radiation measurements were QC'd and processed following Long & Shi (2008). Heat fluxes were processed and QC'd 393 via Eddy correlation corrections including stability correction, Webb-Pearman correction, frequency correction, sensor 394 separation correction, filtering correction, line-averaging correction, and volume-averaging correction (Cook et al. 2008, 395 Fuehrer and Friehe 2002). Bulk corrections were also employed and utilized ARM data from the radiation, ground, met, and 396 tower. Radiosonde data were ingested and processed by NOAA's NCEI and was processed through IGRA, following their 397 standards (Durre et al., 2018) and is available through NOAA's NCEI portal. The IGRA 2 QA system processed the sonde 398 data, which is based largely on the QA procedures in the IGRA 1 system (Durre et al. 2006; Durre et al. 2008). Like the IGRA 399 1 system, it consists of a deliberate sequence of specialized algorithms, each of which makes a binary decision on the quality 400 of a value, level, or sounding; either the data item passes the check and remains available, or it is identified as erroneous and



401 thus set to missing. For all other observations' QC, a first level automated QC was established by climatology ranges in the 402 same way as for Whitehorse and Iqaluit. A second level of QC was performed whereby data was reviewed by instrument 403 mentors and assessed by the site scientist/data quality office.

404 4. 4 Tiksi, Russia and Eureka, Canada

405 Data collection and processing techniques for Eureka are the same as for the Tiksi site. The long-term Eureka and Tiksi datasets 406 (flux tower and radiation) are hosted by the NOAA Physical Sciences Laboratory (PSL), in collaboration with ECCC (Eureka 407 site only), and Roshydromet (Tiksi site only). All meteorological measurements within the MODF_{vsm} (Akish & Morris, 2023b), 408 i.e., air temperature, skin temperature, soil temperature, snow thickness, pressure, relative humidity, wind speed and direction, 409 were manually quality controlled first via an automated QC established by climatological ranges in the same way as for 410 Whitehorse et al. Following this, a manual/visual inspection was performed. This included removing non-physical values and 411 outliers, after confirming that they were either biased, incorrect, or collected during site maintenance periods. The radiation 412 measurements were validated and processed using the Long QCrad method (Long & Shi, 2008) and improved correction of 413 the infrared loss in diffuse shortwave measurements (Younkin & Long, 2004), and again, were visually inspected. The 414 radiosonde dataset was processed through IGRA's processing techniques and is based on the QC procedures in the IGRA 1 415 system (Durre et al., 2006; Durre et al., 2008). If data was not available for any of the collected measurements across any of 416 the variables, due to the instrument being down, loss of power at the site, or because it was flagged by the QC algorithm, a 417 missing value (-9999) was reported in the MODF_{vsm} (Akish & Morris, 2023b).

418 4. 5 Ny-Ålesund, Norway

419 The meteorological measurements used for the $MODF_{vsm}$ (Holt, 2023) are taken from the AWIPEV weather mast (Driemel et 420 al., 2018; Maturilli, 2020b). Except for precipitation, all other data used in the MODF_{vsm} for Ny-Ålesund originated from the 421 following data sets: Maturilli, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c, 2022. The precipitation data reported in the MODF_{ysm} are the direct 422 instrument output and no quality checks were applied; as such this data should be treated with caution (Holt, 2023). The Ny-423 Ålesund observations included in the MODF_{vsm} are a subset of those regularly uploaded in the PANGAEA data repository 424 (www.pangaea.de). Before being uploaded, all data undergo an automatic quality check established by climatological ranges 425 in the same way as for Whitehorse et al. Following this, additional manual/visual inspection was performed accounting for 426 e.g., physical plausibility. Surface radiation data were validated and have undergone all quality checks of BSRN before 427 archiving (Maturilli, 2020a). Automated QC was performed on the radiosonde data, established by climatological norms; a 428 second level of data was reviewed by the instrument mentor before storing the data at the PANGAEA repository.



429 **5 MODF Data Structure**

430 The data inside a MODF comprises of all the observations listed in Table 3 for a given observation site. The data itself follows 431 the same standardized format and structure for all observations and sites and is stored into a single NetCDF file using CF 432 conventions. NetCDF file formatting was chosen to best accommodate the high-level of metadata detail required for merging 433 such large quantities of individual measurements together, particularly given the need to be as transparent as possible when 434 reporting instrument-specific details for each observation. All MODF_{vsm} measurements provided in the data files maintained 435 their native time cadence (typically on the order of minutely) with no averaging undertaken, and details of the collection and 436 processing techniques can be found in the variable attributes within the files. Each DOI in Table 2 contains four (e.g., 437 Whitehorse) or six (e.g., Utqiagvik) files, depending on whether the site had timeSeriesProfile observations on a tower/mast. The filename convention for each MODF is as follows: site name + "obs" + MODF_featureType + start_date + end_date.nc. 438

439

440 Guidelines for creating inventories of variable and attribute information (metadata) necessary for the MODF file attributes 441 were published in spreadsheet format by Morris and Akish (2022). This "A-M Template" uses variable content criteria from 442 the H-K Table to generate a metadata matrix of attribute and variable information for each of the measurements contained 443 within the MODFs. The template has individual tabs for each of the corresponding CF metadata featureTypes (i.e., timeSeries 444 and timeSeriesProfile) of the MODF NetCDF files, as well as one tab for the Global Attributes of the MODFs. The CF 445 Conventions can be found here: https://cfconventions.org/cf-conventions/cf-conventions.html. The attributes within the 446 template are mandatory when applicable, and serve as a guideline for MODF creators. The A-M Template is machine-readable 447 and can be ingested into MODF software to create the final output.

448

449 The file content is well-illustrated in Table 3; other details of the MODF_{vsm} format and structure are outlined in Uttal et al. 450 (2023). MODFs can contain featureTypes such as timeSeries and timeSeriesProfile, which refer to time series having one and 451 two data dimensions, respectively. In cases where data subcategories exist, featureType modifications can be depicted in the 452 file name, for example timeSeriesProfileSonde exist for the MODF_{vsm}. Currently, more than one featureType can be used 453 within an individual MODF file, but all subscribe to the same formatting structure and nomenclature. To generate an MODF, 454 creators would first visit the H-K Table to determine the variables that will be included in their MODF, and then they should 455 utilize the A-M Template to fill in the needed attribute and variables information requested by existing MODF software. Once 456 the A-M Template has been completed, then users can ingest the template into their MODF software to create the final MODF 457 outputs. For the MODF_{vsm}, individual toolkits were developed by MODF makers for each YOPP supersite. Python code was 458 developed for Whitehorse, Iqaluit and Ny-Alesund, and MATLAB code for Utqiagvik, Tiksi, Eureka and Soldankyla (see 459 Section 6). After the generation of the $MODF_{ysm}$ outputs, the files were run through an MODF checker that identifies the 460 various inconsistencies or issues with the files before their upload to the MET Norway data portal. The $MODF_{vsm}$ checker 461 developed for the YOPPsiteMIP files is part of a larger toolkit being designed to continue the creation of MODFs.





462

463 As an example of the uniformity of the observations (in terms of data format, post-processing, temporal cadence, etc.) 464 contained within each supersite's MODF_{vsm} and their excellent data coverage during the two YOPP SOPs, Figures 3 and 4 465 provide the surface downwelling longwave radiation and near-surface temperature observations from each supersite's MODF_{vsm} during SOP1, respectively and Figures 5 and 6 show the same except for SOP2. The MET Norway data portal and 466 467 MODF maker toolkit (Sect. 6) also provides plotting tools that work with any MODF or MMDF and can produce similar 468 figures automatically. Periods of interest can be quickly identified by users and analyzed for further investigation and/or 469 comparison with their corresponding MMDFs. MODFs significantly simplify the process of analyzing observations from 470 multiple sites and multiple instruments, as analyses and Figures can be produced for each site using a single code that works 471 for any observed geophysical variable and (if desired) their corresponding NWP model output in the MMDF. In contrast, 472 without MODFs a user would have to contact each meteorological agency individually, find each sites' data repository, obtain 473 data access privileges, find the files they need from multiple instruments, reprocess and reformat multiple uniquely-formatted 474 datasets and file types, then develop several different codes (e.g., readers) specific to each instruments' dataset to ingest the 475 multi-variate datasets and plot them.

476

477 The MODF_{vsm} at Sodankylä are unique in that their measurements are collected across a series of sub-sites in the area; 478 therefore, it is important to describe here the possible methods for extracting the data for specific locations, or for co-located 479 measurements. The Sodankylä station comprises at least 25 distinct locations, the precise number of which is given by the 480 dimension 'site id' inside the MODF data file. Each distinct location is given a unique index key in the variable 'subsite name', 481 with these indices also identifying the 'lat', 'lon' and 'soil type' for each location. The corresponding FMI names for each 482 location are identified in the attribute 'flag meanings' for the variable 'subsite name' via their indices; for example, the index 483 value of 16 pointing to IOA003 spot 8, which is one of the automatic weather stations located in the Intensive Observations 484 Area (IOA). There may be multiple locations providing the same measurement. However, not all locations provide the same 485 set of measurements, and to keep the MODF compact, each measurement variable has the location dimension truncated to 486 include only locations which measure that variable; i.e., the location dimension for the measurement variables is 'nsubsites X', 487 where X is the number of locations making the particular measurement. This set of locations is accessed through the indices 488 given in the attribute 'subsite_name' for the measurement variable, which corresponds to the key given in the 'subsite_name' 489 variable; i.e., a subsite name attribute of "1, 3, 10" means that these measurements were made at the locations identified by 490 their indices, from which their locations (latitudes and longitudes) and soil_type can also be determined.

491

This method permits diverse options of collecting measurements for particular uses. All measurements, for example, at one location can be obtained by identifying the appropriate 'subsite_name' index inside the MODF data file, iterating through the 'subsite_name' attribute of each variable to see if it contains the selected index, and, if so, selecting the column or slice of data





for the data that matches the location of the index (i.e. if subsite_name = 10 and the subsite_name attribute for a timeSeries variable is "1, 3, 10", the measurement timeSeries for the requested location is in the third column, the next variable may have a subsite_name attribute of "1, 3, 5, 6, 10" and the measurement timeSeries for the requested location is in the fifth column). The user could also select a specific area of interest and identify all measurements made within this region as follows: select the indices for the locations within a specified latitude and longitude range, then iterate through the 'subsite_name' attribute of each variable to see if it contains the selected indices and return the columns or slices that match them.

501

Note that each supersite conducts additional observations not listed in table 3 that will be included in upcoming updates to the MODF_{ysm} with the intent to eventually incorporate all observations into the MODF_{ysm} for each supersite. This process of developing and appending to MODFs can be extended to other sites and/or research programs that wish to create MODFs of their observations. Given the standardized nature of the MODFs, reading and analyzing datasets from any of the YOPP supersites is simplified. Quick-look plotting tools have been developed via the MET Norway YOPP data portal and the MODF maker toolkit (Sect. 6), which enable near-instantaneous plotting of the observations contained within the MODF_{ysm}.

508

509 6 Data and Code Availability

- 510 The MODF_{ysm} for each supersite are available via the MET Norway YOPP Data Portal (<u>https://yopp.met.no/</u>) where they are
- 511 indexed through FAIR compliant discovery metadata and can be directly accessed at:
- 512 <u>https://thredds.met.no/thredds/catalog/alertness/YOPP_supersite/obs/catalog.html</u> (Whitehorse:
- 513 <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/a33e-j150</u>, Iqaluit: <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/yrnf-ck57</u>, Sodankylä: <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/m16p-</u>
- 514 pq17, Utqiaġvik: <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/a2dx-nq55</u>, Tiksi: <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/5bwn-w881</u>, Ny-Ålesund:
- 515 <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/y89m-6393</u>, Eureka: <u>https://doi.org/10.21343/r85j-tc61</u>).
- 516

517 Proper data citation ensures appropriate credits to authors of both input data sources and merged MODF_{vsm} datasets. Data from 518 each station has been assigned a DOI. The variable attributes of the merged data products contain information about the source 519 datastreams and their DOIs, to more clearly establish data provenance in a traceable manner. When using data from the 520 MODF_{vms}, it is expected that the user references the MODF_{vsm} DOI, and any subsidiary variable DOIs when available. 521 Assigning citations for merged data streams such as the MODF_{vsm} is a challenging and still evolving concept. For example, 522 the US Department of Energy (DOE) Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) Program uses a combination of DOI and 523 citation structure for continuous data streams, as outlined in Prakash et al. (2016). They recommend when registering DOIs 524 for derived and higher-order data, source DOIs in the metadata of the newly created DOI should be added and linked when

525 possible.





526

The source code used to produce the $MODF_{ysm}$ for each supersite (and MODFs in general) are available via gitlab: <u>https://gitlab.com/mdf-makers/mdf-toolkit</u>. This MODF toolkit is openly available for anyone interested in developing their own MODF file or generating quick-look plots of the data contents inside the MODFs. The toolkit is regularly updated as the MODF community grows and new geophysical variables and/or functions are added. Additional site-specific python and MATLAB codes that were used to prepare the observation data files for MODF ingestion are available upon request (e.g., contact the site principle investigator).

533

534 7 Concluding Remarks

535 The enhanced ground-based observations conducted at both Poles during the YOPP fill significant and identified gaps in our 536 current meteorological observation capabilities for the Polar Regions. YOPPsiteMIP MODFs (MODF_{vsm}) have been published 537 for seven of the YOPP Arctic supersites, whereby all geophysical variables are stored in an identical, standardized format in a 538 single NetCDF file following CF conventions, fulfilling a key objective of the program to perform single- or multi-variate 539 model-observation comparisons. These MODFs archive data in a manner as similar as possible to corresponding MMDF (see 540 Uttal et al., 2023) that contain high-resolution forecast variables from a single NWP model at and around a supersite (Figure 541 2). Thus, combined, MODFs and MMDFs greatly simplify integration of these complex datasets, enabling further scientific 542 study as demonstrated in the recent publications using the latest MODF_{vsm} and MMDF_{vsm} (Day et al., 2023).

543

544 Standardized geophysical variable nomenclature, cadences, metadata, basic QC, and file structure were employed to create 545 these files. MODFs provide the first standardized files for archiving all the different ground-based observation supersite 546 observations, containing a multitude of geophysical variables observed by (at times) different instruments. This amalgamation 547 of different sites' observations into a standardized, user-friendly MODF format enables easier analysis of the MODF dataset, 548 inter-site comparisons, and detailed NWP model validation, evaluation, intercomparisons, and process-based diagnostic 549 studies that are currently underway (see Figures 3 to 6 as an example). The further adoption, creation, and use of MODFs 550 outside of YOPP is encouraged; a suite of tools and documentation is openly available via Gitlab (see Sect. 6) for other site 551 managers, researchers, and users to develop and create their own site-specific MODFs outside of YOPP or to analyze an 552 observation sites' dataset.

553

The YOPP MODF_{ysm} discussed here provide novel access to datasets of enhanced meteorological observations collected at several supersites across the Arctic. The MODF concept is not limited for use in polar regions and could be exported elsewhere. Seven YOPP-designated supersites in the Arctic developed and published MODF_{ysm} covering both SOP periods (February –





557 March 2018 and July – September 2018), including Iqaluit, Whitehorse, and Eureka in Canada, Utgiagvik in the United States, 558 Tiksi in Russia, Sodankylä in Finland, and Ny-Ålesund in Norway. Additional geophysical variables observed at each of these 559 seven supersites will be included in a future update of their MODF_{vsm}, with the goal of having 100% of a site's observations 560 available. Observations at most of these sites continue today beyond YOPP and are available for subsequent analyses, in some cases using updated MODFs generated in near-real time. MODF_{vsm} for the other YOPP sites, including ship-based platforms 561 and supersites in the Antarctic, will be made available in the future to complete the YOPP dataset. The MODF_{vsm} described 562 563 here directly ties to process-oriented verification studies aiming to improve NWP predictions at the Poles by contributing and 564 enabling NWP inter-comparisons.

565

566 Author contributions

567 SM, ZM, and TU wrote the first draft of the manuscript. SM and ZM conducted scientific analyses and created tables and 568 figures with JD and JT. All authors managed data archiving, creation of the MODF_{ysm}, and publication to the MET Norway 569 YOPP Data Portal. All authors contributed to the writing and the editing of the manuscript.

570

571 Competing interests

572 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

573

574 Disclaimer

575 Use of specific instrument manufacturers/models and suppliers mentioned in the manuscript and/or used at the supersites is 576 not a commercial endorsement of their products.

577

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	Facility Name	Coordinates	Measured Variables
Whitehorse	Whitehorse	N60.71, W135.07	All
Iqaluit	Iqaluit	N63.74, W68.51	All
	Operative Sounding Station Area; Automatric Weather Station (LUOxxxx)	N67.366618 – N67.367220, E26.628253 - E26.63144	Pressure, Visibility
	CO2 Flux Mast Area (VUOxxxx)	N67.361883, E26.643003 - E26.64323	Total precipitation of water, all wind, vertical velocity, temperature, dew-point temperature, relative humidity, snow thickness, all radiation, cloud base height
	Intensive Observation Area (IOAxxxx)	N67.361654 - N67.361950, E26.633190 - E26.634191	Temperature, relative humidity, snow thickness, snowfall flux, snow water equivalent, all short-wave radiation, soil temperature profile, soil moisture, snow temperature
Sodankylä	Lichen Fence (JAKxxxx)	N67.36710 - N67.36716, E26.634740 - E26.63513	All radiation
	Micrometeorological Mast Area (METxxxx)	N67.361711 - N67.36216, E26.63726 - E26.65117	All wind, temperature, vertical velocity, relative humidity, snow thickness, all radiation, all heat fluxes, friction velocity, soil temperature profile, soil moisture, snow temperature
	Peatland Area (SUOxxxx)	N67.361903 - N67.36707, E26.633802 - E26.654067	Temperature, dew-point temperature, relative humidity, snow thickness, all short-wave radiation, soil temperature profile, soil moisture, snow temperature
Utaioàvik	ARM Facility	N71.19228, W156.3654	All except ozone concentration, snow thickness, and soil temperature profile
Utqtagvik	GML Barrow Atmospheric Baseline Observatory	N71.3230, W156.6114	Ozone concentration, snow thickness, and soil temperature profile
T '1 ·	Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN)	N71.5862, E128.9188	All radiation observations
1 iksi	Fluxtower	N71.595, E128.882	All except radiation observations
	Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN)	N78.92278, E11.92725	All radiation observations, pressure, cloud base height
Ny- Ålesund	AWIPEV Met.Tower	N78.92226, E11.92667	All wind, temperature, relative humidity, specific humidity
	Balloon Launch Facility	N78.92301, E11.92271	All timeSeriesProfileSonde observations
Eureka	Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN)	N79.989, W85.9404	All radiation observations



	Fluxtower	N80.083, W86.417	Pressure, all wind, temperature, relative humidity, snow thickness, ground heat flux, soil temperature profile
	Sonde Launch	N79.9833, W85.9333	All timeSeriesProfileSonde observations

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842 **Table 1.** List of facility coordinates for locations where $MODF_{ysm}$ measurements were collected at each of the supersite locations. The 843 variables (listed in Table 3) that are measured at each location are listed. In some cases, the same variable is measured at multiple locations 844 for a single site; these observations and their corresponding coordinates are embedded within the MODF.

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	DOI	Title	Citation
Whitehorse	https://doi.org/10.21343/a33e-j150	MODF for Erik Nielsen Airport, Whitehorse, Canada during YOPP SOP1 and SOP2	Huang et al., 2023a
Iqaluit	https://doi.org/10.21343/yrnf-ck57	MODF for Iqaluit Airport, Iqaluit, Nunavut, Canada during YOPP SOP1 and SOP2	Huang et al., 2023b
Sodankylä	https://doi.org/10.21343/m16p-pq17	Merged observation data file for Sodankylä	O'Connor, 2023
Utqiaġvik	https://doi.org/10.21343/a2dx-nq55	MODF for Utqiaġvik, Alaska, during YOPP SOP1 and SOP2	Akish & Morris, 2023c
Tiksi	https://doi.org/10.21343/5bwn-w881	MODF for Tiksi, Russia, during YOPP SOP1 and SOP2	Akish & Morris, 2023b
Ny-Ålesund	https://doi.org/10.21343/y89m-6393	Merged Observatory Data File (MODF) for Ny Ålesund	Holt, 2023
Eureka	https://doi.org/10.21343/r85j-tc61	MODF for Eureka, Canada, during YOPP SOP1 and SOP2	Akish & Morris, 2023a

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849 Table 2. List of final DOIs for each of the supersite's $MODF_{ysm}$.





		Whitehorse	Iqaluit	Sodankylä	Utqiaģvik	Tiksi	Ny-Ålesund	Eureka
MODF featureType	<u>Measured Variables</u>	lat: 60.71 N lon: 135.07 W	lat: 63.74 N lon: 68.51 W	lat: 67.367 N lon: 26.629 E	lat: 71.325 N lon: 156.625 W	lat: 71.596 N lon: 128.889 E	lat: 78.923 N lon: 11.926 E	lat: 80.083 N lon: 86.417 W
	Pressure (Pa)	surface	surface	surface, mean sea- level	surface	surface	surface	surface
	Total precipitation of water in all phases per unit area (kg m-2 s-1)	surface	surface	surface			surface	
	Eastward Wind (m s-1)	surface	near-surface	near-surface	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (4m)	near-surface (10m)	near-surface (6m)
	Northward Wind (m s-1)	surface	near-surface	near-surface	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (4m)	near-surface (10m)	near-surface (6m)
	*Wind gust (m s-1)			near-surface (10m)				
	Vertical velocity (m s-1)			near surface (2 m)				
	Temperature (K)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	skin, near-surface (2m)	skin, near-surface (2m)	skin, near- surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	skin, near- surface (2m)
	Dew-point Temperature (K)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)			
	Relative Humidity (1 or %)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)	near-surface (2m)
	Specific Humidity (1 or kg kg- 1)						near-surface (2m)	
	Ozone Concentration in Air (mole fraction)				surface			
	Snow thickness (m)		surface	surface	surface	surface		surface
	Snowfall Flux (kg m-1 s-2)				surface			
	Snow water equivalent (kg m-2)				surface			
timeSeries Variables	Upward Short-wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface	surface	surface	surface	surface	surface
uneseries variables	Downward Short-wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface	surface	surface	surface	surface	surface
	Upward Long-wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface	surface	surface	surface	surface	
	Downward Long-wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface	surface	surface	surface	surface	surface
	Net Short-wave Radiation at the Surface (W m-2)			surface				
	*Horizontal East-facing Long- wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface					
	*Horizontal West-facing Long- wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface					
	*Horizontal South-facing Long- wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface					
	*Horizontal North-facing Long- wave Radiation (W m-2)		surface					
	**Turbulent Latent Heat Flux (W m-2)			surface (EC)	surface (EC, bulk)			
	**Turbulent Sensible Heat Flux (W m-2)			surface (EC)	surface (EC, bulk)			
	**Turbulent time-average eastward stress (Pa)			surface (EC)	surface			
	**Turbulent time-average northward stress (Pa)				surface			
	*Friction Velocity (m s-1)			surface (EC)				
	Cloud Base Height (m)	ground-based remote sensing	ground-based remote sensing	ground-based remote sensing			ground-based remote sensing	



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	Ground Heat Flux (W m-2)			near-surface	near-surface	near-surface		near-surface
	Visibility (m)			near-surface				
	Atmospheric pressure (Pa)		near-surface (2m, 10m)					
	Total precipitation of water in all phases per unit area (kg m-2 s-1)		near-surface (2m, 10m)					
	Eastward Wind (m s-1)		near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (18m, 32m, 38m, 48m)	near-surface (2m, 10m, 20m, 40m)		near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (6m, 11m)
	Northward Wind (m s-1)		near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (18m, 32m, 38m, 48m)	near-surface (2m, 10m, 20m, 40m)		near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (6m, 11m)
	Temperature (K)		near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (3m, 8m, 18m, 32m, 48m)	near-surface (2m, 10m, 20m, 40m)	near-surface (2m, 6m, 10m)	near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (2m, 6m, 10m)
timeSeriesDrofile	Dew-point Temperature (K)				near-surface (2m, 10m, 20m, 40m)			
Variables	Relative Humidity (1 or %)		near-surface (2m, 10m)	near-surface (3m, 8m, 18m, 32m, 48m)	near-surface (2m, 10m, 20m, 40m)	near-surface (2m, 6m, 10m)		near-surface (2m, 6m, 10m)
	Soil Temperature Profile (K)			sub-surface (5cm, 30cm)	sub-surface (5cm, 10cm, 15cm, 20cm, 25cm, 30cm, 45cm, 70cm, 95cm, 120cm)	sub-surface (5cm, 10cm, 15cm, 20cm, 25cm, 30cm, 45cm, 70cm, 95cm, 120cm)		sub-surface (5cm, 10cm, 15cm, 20cm, 25cm, 30cm, 45cm, 70cm, 95cm, 120cm)
	Soil Moisture (kg m-2)			sub-surface (5cm, 30cm)				
	Snow Temperature (K)			near-surface (10cm, 20cm, 30cm, 40cm, 50cm, 60cm, 70cm, 80cm, 90cm, 100cm, 110cm)				
	Atmospheric pressure (Pa)	radiosonde	radiosonde		radiosonde		radiosonde	
	Eastward Wind (m s-1)	radiosonde	radiosonde		radiosonde		radiosonde	
	Northward Wind (m s-1)	radiosonde	radiosonde		radiosonde		radiosonde	
timeSeriesProfileSon	Temperature (K)	radiosonde	radiosonde		radiosonde		radiosonde	
de Variables	Dew-point Temperature (K)	radiosonde	radiosonde		radiosonde		radiosonde	
	Specific Humidity (1 or kg kg- 1)						Radiosonde	
	Relative Humidity (1 or %)	radiosonde	radiosonde		radiosonde		radiosonde	

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Table 3. List of the geophysical variables currently included in each supersite's MODF. Note that this table only includes variables currently in the existing $MODF_{ysm}$, and does not indicate the complete list of variables that are observed at each site. An asterisk (*) denotes a variable not included in the H-K table and a double asterisk (**) denotes a calculated variable.

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Figure 1. a) Locations of the MODF_{ysm} YOPP supersites (Antarctic supersites not shown). (b) Infographic depicting iconic building(s) at
 each supersite. The infographic is roughly centred around the North Pole (centre). All locations shown have generated a MODF_{ysm}, with the
 exception of Alert (in progress).





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Figure 2. Model grid points at and around each supersite (a) Eureka, (b) Ny-Ålesund, (c) Tiksi, (d) Utqiaģvik, (e) Sodankylä, (f) Iqaluit, and
(g) Whitehorse, displayed through the Google Earth web-platform: *Image Landsat / Copernicus, Image ©2023 Maxar Technologies*. Sites
are organized from highest latitude (Eureka) to lowest (Whitehorse). Yellow building icons represent the location of the facility on-site
which contains all co-located instruments. Similarly, icons for the AROME-Arctic model grid are indicated by a green pin, ARPEGE pins
are in white, DWD-ICON pins are light blue, ECCC-CAPS pins are yellow, ECMWF-IFS pins are dark blue, and SL-AV pins are in red.
All images are north-aligned, nadir view.

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Figure 3. Observations of downward surface long-wave radiation ("rlds") conducted during SOP1 at each supersite. Observations from
 Whitehorse and Iqaluit were not available during SOP1. Sodankylä conducts multiple observations of rlds; the mean (black line) and spread
 in observed rlds (grey) are shown.

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Figure 4. Similar to Figure 3, except for observations of near-surface (2 m) air temperature ("tas") conducted at each supersite during SOP1.
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Figure 5. Similar to Figure 3, except for observations of downward surface long-wave radiation ("rlds") conducted during SOP2 at each supersite. Observations from Whitehorse were not available during SOP2.



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894 **Figure 6.** Similar to Figure 3, except for observations of near-surface (2 m) air temperature ("tas") conducted at each supersite during SOP2.