

# **Global-scale Evaluation of SMAP, SMOS and ASCAT Soil Moisture Products using Triple Collocation**

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## **Abstract**

Global-scale surface soil moisture products are currently available from multiple remote sensing platforms. Footprint-scale assessments of these products are generally restricted to limited number of densely-instrumented validation sites. However, by taking active and passive soil moisture products together with a third independent soil moisture estimates via land surface modeling, triple collocation (TC) can be applied to estimate the correlation metric of satellite soil moisture products (versus an unknown ground truth) over a quasi-global domain. Here, an assessment of Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP), Soil Moisture Ocean Salinity (SMOS) and Advanced SCATterometer (ASCAT) surface soil moisture retrievals via TC is presented. Considering the potential violation of TC error assumptions, the impact of active-passive and satellite-model error cross correlations on the TC-derived inter-comparison results is examined at *in situ* sites using quadruple collocation analysis. In addition, confidence intervals for the TC-estimated correlation metric are constructed from moving-block bootstrap sampling designed to preserve the temporal persistence of the original (unevenly-sampled) soil moisture time-series. This study is the first to apply TC to obtain a robust global-scale cross-

assessment of SMAP, SMOS and ASCAT soil moisture retrieval accuracy in terms of anomaly temporal correlation. Our results confirm the overall advantage of SMAP (with a global average anomaly correlation of 0.76) over SMOS (0.66) and ASCAT (0.63) that has been established in several recent regional, ground-based studies. SMAP is also the best-performing product over the majority of applicable land pixels (52%), although SMOS and ASCAT each shows advantage in distinct geographic regions.

## 1. Introduction

As a key state variable in hydrological and meteorological modeling systems, the global observation of soil moisture has become a major priority. Currently, several remote sensing platforms provide continuous global surface (approximately 0-5 cm) retrievals: the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP, 2015-), the European Space Agency (ESA) Soil Moisture Ocean Salinity (SMOS, 2009-), the European Organisation for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites (EUMETSAT) Advanced SCATterometers (ASCAT, 2007-), and the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 (AMSR2, 2012-). The accuracy of the satellite soil moisture retrievals is typically described via their root-mean-squared-error (RMSE; e.g. Brocca *et al.* 2010; Jackson *et al.* 2010; Kerr *et al.* 2016) or de-biased/unbiased RMSE (ubRMSE; e.g. Colliander *et al.* 2017) versus ground-based observations at a footprint-scale. However, difficulty in obtaining viable estimates of ground truth soil moisture at the satellite footprint scale has limited past validation activities to a small number of locations (e.g., 603 core validation sites) and/or discrete time periods (e.g., field campaigns). The broader evaluation of satellite soil moisture products (across regional or continental scales) is typically based on comparisons with sparse ground soil moisture networks or modeled datasets (e.g., Paulik *et al.* 2014; González-Zamora *et al.* 2015; Piles *et al.* 2014; Al-Yaari *et al.* 2014; Polcher *et al.* 2016;

Kim *et al.* 2018). Naturally, such comparisons are unable to provide direct validation metrics relative to the ground truth, but rather metrics against a chosen reference dataset with unknown errors at the footprint-scale of satellite retrievals. For example, correlation coefficient metrics obtained from comparing with point-scale ground observations have been shown to underestimate the correlation between retrievals and true soil moisture values (Chen *et al.* 2017).

Initially designed for obtaining the calibration constants against a reference dataset in satellite wind speed products, the triple collocation (TC) (Stoffelen 1998) technique provides a solution to such challenge. In particular, TC can be applied to the estimate error variances of a geophysical measurement system and has become an important tool for satellite soil moisture assessments (e.g., Zwieback *et al.* 2012; Dorigo *et al.* 2010; Miralles *et al.* 2010; Draper *et al.* 2013). However, standard TC applications are limited to only providing relative error metrics. It requires a reference dataset to be chosen from the three collocated data products, and the resulting error variances are subject to the multiplicative and additive biases of the reference dataset (Chen *et al.* 2017). Recently developed TC-based solution  $\pm$  the Extended Triple Collocation, or ETC (McColl 2014)  $\pm$  IRUWKH3HDUVRQ $\nabla$ FRUUHODWLRQFRHIILFLHQWPHWULFRQ

other hand, does not require a reference dataset and yields an absolute estimate of the temporal correlation coefficient is a widely reported metric for satellite soil moisture and an appropriate metric for summarizing retrieval value in a data assimilation context (Reichle *et al.*, 2008). In this analysis, we adopt the ETC solution and conduct an assessment and inter-comparison of the SMAP Level 3, SMOS Level 3 and ASCAT Level 2 soil moisture products based on the correlation metric ( $R$ ). Until recently, relatively few studies have been conducted to evaluate satellite soil moisture products at a continental scale (e.g. Draper *et al.* 2013; Leroux *et al.* 2013) using TC. To the best

of our knowledge, this study is the first attempt to apply TC to obtain the footprint-scale correlation metric for SMAP observations at quasi-global scale, and compare it directly with soil moisture retrievals from SMOS and ASCAT.

Our basic strategy for applying TC is to employ soil moisture data triplets comprising a passive microwave product (SMAP or SMOS), an active remote sensing product (ASCAT), and a land surface model product. TC is based on a fundamental assumption that each of these products contain uncorrelated errors. However, recent works have identified non-negligible error correlation in soil moisture products acquired from active and passive microwave sources (Gruber *et al.* 2016b; Pierdicca *et al.* 2017). This suggests that it is necessary to examine the impact of violating this assumption on SMAP-ASCAT and SMOS-ASCAT-based TC analyses. Therefore, we also apply the least-squares quadruple collocation solution (QC, Pierdicca *et al.* 2015) to estimate the error cross-correlations at over 200 sparse ground observation sites to further evaluate the robustness of our global TC analysis strategy.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the TC and quadruple collocation (QC) methodologies and data-processing procedures as well as the use of moving-block bootstrap re-sampling to obtain confidence intervals for TC-derived  $R$ . Section 3 describes the remote sensing, land surface modeling and ground observation datasets used in the analysis. Section 4 presents the QC results at sparse network sites and discusses the sensitivity of the TC analysis to both non-zero error cross-correlation between active and passive satellite soil moisture products and our choice of a particular land surface model dataset. Results and discussions of global

comparison of SMAP, SMOS and ASCAT soil moisture via TC are presented in Sections 5 and 6, respectively.

## 2. Methodologies

### 2.1 Extended Triple Collocation

In soil moisture validation and comparison studies, TC has typically been applied to estimate the random error variance of a particular soil moisture dataset. In contrast, the extended triple collocation (ETC) approach (McColl 2014) solves for the correlation between a dataset and the unknown truth. As in TC, it requires three collocated, independent measurement systems ( $X$ ,  $Y$ ,  $Z$ , in our case representing: a passive satellite retrieval, an active satellite retrieval and a model product, respectively) that describe the same geophysical variable (in this case - average surface soil moisture of the satellite grid cell, which is approximately  $40 \times 40 \text{ km}^2$ ). ETC is based on the following assumptions: 1) all three datasets are linearly related to the true state ( $T$ ); 2) zero error cross-correlation exists between  $X$ ,  $Y$  and  $Z$ ; and 3) zero correlation exists between errors and  $T$  and 4) the stationary of signal and error statistics (Gruber *et al.* 2016a; Draper *et al.* 2013; Zwieback *et al.* 2012). If these assumptions hold, the correlation between  $X$  and the  $T$  can be estimated as

$$\frac{\text{Cov}(X, T)}{\text{Var}(X)} \quad (1)$$

where  $\text{Cov}(X, T)$  is the covariance of  $X$  and  $T$ , and  $\text{Var}(X)$  is the variance of  $X$ . Analytical details for deriving (1) from the classic TC method (Stoffelen 1998) can be found in McColl (2014).

To ensure consistency with the assumption listed above, seasonal signals are commonly removed from the raw time-series of each product prior to the application of TC (Gruber *et al.* 2016a; Dorigo *et al.* 2010; Su and Ryu, 2015). Here, anomaly time series are generated by removing the average value of a 30-day moving window centered upon the data point being treated (i.e. from day -14 to day +15). Given the potential temporally sparse nature of satellite retrievals, a minimum of 3 observations is required in each of the first and second halves of the 30-day window, in addition to the data point being treated itself. This particular anomaly definition, versus the alternative definition of deviations from a long-term seasonal climatology, has less stringent requirements regarding the length of datasets, which is usually the limiting factor in the application of TC in satellite products. While the removal of low-frequency variability has been shown to improve the robustness of TC results (Chen *et al.* 2017), it renders our particular ETC approach insensitive to (potentially-important) error in low-frequency and/or seasonal soil moisture dynamics. The implications of this will be discussed below.

ETC-based estimates of correlation are considered viable when: 1) the collocated triple time series is comprised of at least 50 data points; 2) positive correlation is found between each of the three input anomaly time-series, and 3) ETC correlation outputs are real and positive for each of the three datasets. All other ETC correlation estimates are masked. The positive correlation requirement between input datasets (#2 above) is necessary to avoid ambiguity since ETC is unable to resolve the sign of the output  $R$  values (McColl 2014). This limitation results in the exclusion of pixels in certain regions where active and passive soil moisture retrievals are negatively correlated (see additional discussion in Section 5).

## **2.2 Estimation of error cross-correlation: Quadruple collocation**

As noted above, a potential source of error for the TC analysis is the presence of error cross-correlation (ECC) between the soil moisture datasets, especially between active and passive remote sensing products. Non-zero ECC violates the underlying TC assumptions and can lead to biased TC results. In past studies, ECC was typically assumed to be zero between all products (e.g., Leroux *et al.* 2013). However, recent works have revealed the presence of non-zero ECC between active and passive soil moisture retrievals (Gruber *et al.* 2016b; Pierdicca *et al.* 2017). Therefore, it is prudent to re-examine ECC levels in SMAP-ASCAT and SMOS-ASCAT soil moisture data pairs utilized here.

The TC algorithm can be extended to include a fourth dataset (i.e., quadruple collocation, or QC) and the error variances can be estimated with a least squares solution (Pierdicca *et al.* 2015) with the same TC assumptions. Furthermore, the zero ECC assumption can be relaxed, and  $\pm$  on the condition that only one pair within of the four datasets have non-zero ECC  $\pm$  estimates of ECC can be obtained from the least-squares solution (Zwieback *et al.* 2012; Gruber *et al.* 2016b).

Here we adopt the formulation in Gruber *et al.* (2016b) to estimate the error cross-correlation between the active (ASCAT) and passive (SMAP, SMOS) soil moisture datasets and assess the impact of such cross-correlation on TC results. The QC analysis is conducted at sparse soil moisture network sites where ground observations can serve as the fourth soil moisture dataset. The QC formulation also provides estimates of the error variances of each dataset. In certain cases, such estimates will be more accurate than those obtained from TC since QC can account for the presence of non-zero ECC within a particular pair of collocated datasets (Yilmaz and Crow, 2014).

155 Given four soil moisture measurement systems  $X$ ,  $Y$ ,  $Z$ ,  $W$ , representing a passive remote sensing,  
 156 an active remote sensing, a model and point-scale ground observation, respectively, the least-  
 157 squares solution for the QC problem is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_Y^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_Z^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_W^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} \\
 & = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_Y^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_Z^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_W^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} \\
 & = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_Y^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_Z^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_W^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

159 where  $\mu$  is the true soil moisture signal, and  $V$  is the multiplicative bias of a given dataset as in  
 160  $\mu = V \cdot \mu$ , and  $\epsilon$  is the zero-mean random error.

161 And the least squares solution for the parameters in  $x$  is given as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \\ \mu_X & \mu_Y & \mu_Z & \mu_W \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_Y^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_Z^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_W^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \\ \mu_Z \\ \mu_W \end{pmatrix} \tag{3}$$


163 Note that this solution enables the TC approach described in section 2.1 to be slightly relaxed. In  
 164 particular, non-zero ECC is now allowed in one data pair (here between  $X$  and  $Y$ , where  $X$  is  
 165 SMAP or SMOS, and  $Y$  is ASCAT). ECC between any other data pairs are still required to be  
 166 zero (i.e.,  $\text{ECC}_{XZ} = 0$  and  $\text{ECC}_{XW} = 0$ ). As in Gruber *et al.*  
 167 (2016b), we consider these conditions generally satisfied in the active-passive-LSM-*in situ* data  
 168 quadruples in this study.



## 2.3 Confidence interval from moving block bootstrapping

Using collocated surface soil moisture retrievals from passive (SMAP or SMOS) and active (ASCAT) sensors and a land surface modeling product, the correlation metric of the three satellite products (versus an unknown truth) can be estimated via TC at a quasi-global scale. However, considerable sampling errors are expected in TC results, especially when the length of the analysis is shortened to accommodate new satellite products (e.g., the two years of SMAP considered here). Therefore, it is critical to account for sampling uncertainties when making comparisons between the satellite products.

Here, such uncertainties are quantified via bootstrap re-sampling at each pixel to construct the confidence interval (CI) of TC estimates. As noted earlier, auto-correlation in time-series will reduce the effective sample size and thus underestimate the probability that the original bootstrap confidence interval contains the true statistical property (Zwiers, 1990; von Storch and Zwiers, 1999). Since soil moisture time series typically contain large amounts of temporal auto-correlation, this effect should be considered when generating boot-strapped errors estimates for soil moisture TC results. Although mean 30-day signals have been removed from the original time-series, our analysis suggests the resulting anomaly time-series still contains significant first-order autocorrelation (not shown). This impact also applies for correlation estimated by ETC

 correlation coefficient

formula from two to three time series members (McColl, 2014). A solution is proposed in Mudelsee (2002, 2010) where a pair-wise moving block bootstrap (MBB) re-sampling technique is applied to obtain a robust estimate of the confidence intervals for the correlation coefficient in serially-correlated time-series.

Here, we have adapted the MBB method introduced in Ólafsdóttir and Mudelsee (2014) for the bi-variate correlation problem to the triple collocation problem to construct the confidence interval of the ETC correlation results. In each iteration of the re-sampling procedure, MBB is applied to draw blocks of data triplets from the original time series samples to form samples that preserve the temporal persistence of the original data. Block length is determined from the equivalent autocorrelation coefficient of the three anomaly time-series (i.e., ETC inputs) which is calculated from individual persistence time,  $\tau_i$ , of the three time-series. Persistence times are then estimated by minimizing the sum of squares:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x(i) - \bar{x})^2 = \min$$
 (4)

where  $n$  is the length of the time-series,  $x(i)$  is the  $i$ th data point (i.e. soil moisture anomaly) and  $t(i)$  is the linear time point (in unit of day) with uneven spacing, which is typical of satellite retrievals. Note that although the land surface model time-series are evenly spaced with sub-daily frequency, only the data points that temporally matched to the satellite retrievals are considered and thereby treated as an unevenly-spaced time series. The equivalent AR(1) autocorrelation coefficient is given by  $\rho = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x(i) - \bar{x})(x(i+1) - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x(i) - \bar{x})^2}$ , where  $\bar{x}$  is the average time spacing. The autocorrelation coefficient is then bias-corrected to approximate the AR(1) process with an even time-spacing:

$$\rho_{\text{corrected}} = \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho}$$
 (5)

A joint, bias-corrected equivalent autocorrelation coefficient for the triple collocation analysis is given by

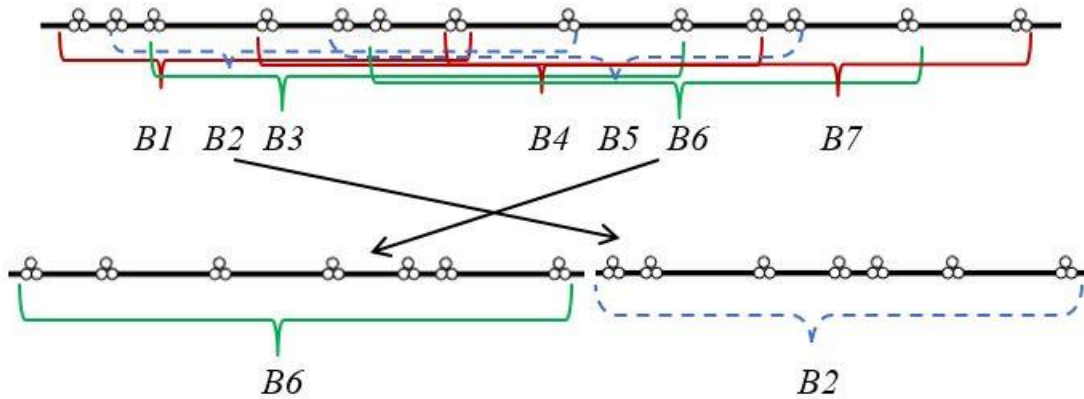
$$\rho_{\text{joint}} = \frac{\rho_1 + \rho_2 + \rho_3}{3}$$
 (6)

212

213 The optimal block length is then estimated as

$$214 \quad \ell = \text{NINT} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2}} \right) \quad (7)$$

215 where NINT denotes rounding to the nearest integer. Overlapping blocks of data triplets with the  
 216 length of  $\ell$  are then extracted from the match-up anomaly time-series and then randomly  
 217 drawn with replacement to be concatenated until the original data length is reached (see Figure 1  
 218 for an illustration of this procedure). Extra data points in the end of the newly-formed bootstrap  
 219 sample are trimmed. The re-sampling procedure is repeated 1000 times in each grid pixel.  
 220 Estimated 95% confidence intervals for each correlation coefficient are defined as the range  
 221 between 2.5th and 97.5th percentile of the bootstrapped sampling distribution.



222

223 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of moving block bootstrapping for the case  $\ell = 7$  applied to a temporally  
 224 sporadic time series of available soil moisture triplets. Overlapping data blocks from the original time  
 225 series (top) are drawn randomly with replacement and then concatenated to generate a new bootstrap  
 226 resample (bottom).

227

484 and ASCAT (averaged from SMAP- and SMOS-based TC) retrievals over common pixels are  
485 0.76, 0.66 and 0.63, respectively.

486

487

488 **Figure 9.** Comparison of TC-estimated correlation coefficients between the satellite retrieval products.  
489 Color shade indicates the product that obtains higher  $R$  in more than 95% of the bootstrap re-sampling

runs in a given grid cell. All areas of non-significant differences are masked. Plotted results are based on the following triplets: a) [SMAP-ASCAT-ECMWF] (for SMAP) vs. [SMOS-ASCAT-ECMWF] (for SMOS); b) [SMAP-ASCAT-ECMWF] (for SMAP and ASCAT); and c) [SMOS-ASCAT-ECMWF] (for SMOS and ASCAT).

As noted in Section 4, it is likely that  $R$  values in Figures 8 and 9 are uniformly biased high (on the order of 0.05 to 0.10 [-]) due to low amounts of ECC in SMAP-ASCAT and SMOS-ASCAT pairs. However, relative  $R$  comparisons between products are expected to be more robust. Qualitative comparisons between the satellite products are presented in Fig. 9, in which only pixels with 95% significance of comparison are shown. Superiority at 95% significance is achieved when one product has higher  $R$  value in more than 95% of the bootstrap re-samples. Each bootstrap replicate is treated as an independent sample and the  $i$ th sample TC result for SMAP is compared with the  $i$ th sample result for SMOS. In this way, approximately two-thirds of the pixel-wise  $R$  differences are identified as being significant (see Table 2).

The two L-band passive soil moisture products are compared in Fig. 9a. SMOS out-performs SMAP in areas of the Western United States, Southern Argentina, Central Asia and Eastern Africa. SMAP dominates the rest of the globe. Globally, the SMAP correlation is significantly higher than SMOS in 47% of the land pixels where comparisons are available, while SMOS is significantly higher in 14% of the pixels (Table 2). In areas of generally strong RFI pollution (e.g., Europe), the aggressive RFI mitigation efforts applied to SMAP retrievals (Mohammed *et al.* 2016; Johnson *et al.* 2016; Piepmeier *et al.* 2017) may explain their superior performance versus SMOS.

The SMOS ASCAT and SMAP versus SMOS  $\gamma$  correlation coefficients are somewhat  
SMOS  $\gamma$  correlation is significantly higher in most of the United States, Central Asia, and some  
the rest of the world. ASCAT is better SMOS data of Northern China, Western Europe, and  
SMOS suffers DOX threshold (0.04 m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup>) at the Argentine, and was SMOS DOX at the  
0.07 m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> product is applied extensively to validate and relatively small in the comparison Fig. 9c. TC. As  
suggested in Table 2, more than 5000 pixels (out of 44%) were firmly established physical DOX regions.  
The spatial pattern of the TC SMOS ASCAT by CMWFE analysis (2014) shows which  
definitely SMOS (DOX = ASCAT) with the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) for Research and  
Application (MERIS) and DOX of 0.04 m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> use except in the worst SMAP area (7% of Argentina  
where SMOS is a 10 m pixel) and better with MERIS and the frequency of SMOS better pixels  
as much (only ~2% pixels affected). In addition, only 0.3% of the common pixels change from a  
**Table 2.** Pair-wise comparisons between TC-estimated correlation coefficients for various satellite  
'SMOS better' to a 'SMAP better' category when the DOX threshold is relaxed from 0.04 m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup>  
products. The significance of differences is assessed using a 95% confidence threshold and the boot-  
strap approach described in Section 2.3. Percentages are out of all global land pixels with viable TC  
SMOS performance relative to SMAP.

C-band active scatterometer retrievals from ASCAT SMOS performed by SMAP in most areas					
except for Northeastern China, Southern Argentina, and Southern Australia, where ASCAT					
retrievals demonstrate higher $R$ (Fig. 9b). ASCAT $R$ is significantly higher than SMAP $R$ in only	47%	31%	14%	17%	28294
14% of the pixels where TC results are available, while SMAP is significantly better than	40%	23%	17%	20%	24614
ASCAT at more than 50% of the available global land pixels. Note that both SMOS and ASCAT	SMAP higher		ASCAT higher		
SMAP vs. ASCAT	53%	19%	14%	14%	39181
data used here were subject to processing errors due to grid transformation (to the SMAP native					
grid), which may cause slight under-performance and benefit SMAP in these comparisons.	SMOS higher		ASCAT higher		
SMOS* vs. ASCAT	35%	18%	29%	18%	36520
However, the slight global superiority of SMAP relative to SMOS is consistent with SMAP					
SMOS** vs. ASCAT	41%	19%	23%	17%	31264
validation results at core validation sites (Chan <i>et al.</i> 2016).					

4P <sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> 4P <sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup>

550

551

552

553 **Figure 10.** The satellite product (SMAP, SMOS or ASCAT) with the highest single-run TC-based  
554 correlation coefficient.

555

556 A map showing the best-performing satellite product is presented in Fig. 10. Note that regions  
557 with dense vegetation are largely masked due to a lack of successful retrievals. Likewise, in arid  
558 regions such as the Sahara Desert and Great Basin Desert, earlier studies have revealed poor or  
559 even negative correlation between active and passive products (de Jeu *et al.* 2008; Pierdicca *et*  
560 *al.* 2013; Burgin *et al.* 2017). This limits the area over which TC can be performed due to the  
561 masking of pixels where negative mutual correlation exists among the input datasets (see Section  
562 2.1). As indicated above, ASCAT *R* values obtained from SMAP- and SMOS-based TC analyses  
563 are averaged for comparison. Overall, SMAP and SMOS are superior to ASCAT in most areas of  
564 North America, Europe, Southern Asia and Eastern Australia. The significant overlap of

geographic regions where both passive and active satellite data are available, each grid pixel with the highest value of correlation between SMAP and SMOS is sampled by Burgin *et al.* (2017). On ASCAT, the correlation is then generally poor, the significance of SMAP and SMOS across high latitude SMAP, SMOS and ASCAT, parts of South America (including Argentina) and Southwestern Australia. As in Fig. 9, SMOS has higher  $R$  than SMAP in the Western United States, Central Asia and most inland pixels of Eastern Australia. Overall, SMAP ranks highest in 52% of the pixels with viable TC results (see Section 2.1) whereas SMOS and ASCAT each does in 24% of these pixels. collocation (QC) analysis conducted within available sparse network sites (Fig. 2). Slight

positive error cross-correlation is found to exist between ASCAT and both SMAP and SMOS

which suggests that TC-estimated  $R$  for the three satellite-based products may be positively

## 6. Summary

biased. However, since this bias is small and approximately equal for all three products, the In this analysis, a global assessment and comparison of SMAP (L2 passive), SMOS (L3) and relative evaluation against each other changes only slightly from QC to TC. Results also indicate ASCAT (L2) surface soil moisture products is performed based on the correlation metric ( $R$ ) limited impact associated with potential satellite-model error cross-correlations. Recent findings obtained via triple collocation (TC). In order to produce robust TC results,  $R$  is estimated by Pierdicca *et al.* (2017) using a novel extended QC algorithm and 15 months of satellite and following removal of low-frequency variability in the soil moisture time series and therefore model data reveals weak SMAP-SMOS ECC that is lower than the SMAP-ASCAT ECC found. reflects the  $R$  of soil moisture anomalies relative to a 30-day moving temporal average. Given Such findings suggest the further potential of using SMAP and SMOS together in TC in future that low-frequency error sources have been previously identified in certain remotely-sensed soil analyses. Finally, the sensitivity of SMOS TC results to the specification of the DQX threshold is moisture products (Wagner *et al.*, 2014), this focus on solely high-frequency noise represents a shown to be low.

limitation in our approach. Nevertheless, sensitivity experiments suggest that our global TC

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to present a global-scale triple collocation results are relatively insensitive to changing the size of the moving window from 30 to 60 days

analysis that compares the footprint-scale correlation metric of SMAP with SMOS and ASCAT (not shown).

soil moisture products. Results suggest that, out of these three products, SMAP has the highest

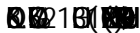
In addition, when comparing satellite products, it is critical to account for the sampling global average  $R$  (0.76, SMOS: 0.66, ASCAT: 0.63) and is the superior product for the majority

uncertainties due to sparse temporal availabilities or suboptimal retrieval conditions. To this end, (52%) of global land pixels with a viable TC result. This finding is consistent with several recent

a moving-block bootstrap re-sampling approach, with emphasis on preserving the temporal validation studies (e.g. Kumar *et al.* 2017; Montzka *et al.* 2017; Pierdicca *et al.* 2017; Kim *et al.*





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863 SMOS and ASCAT).

864 **Figure 10.** The satellite product (SMAP, SMOS or ASCAT) with the highest TC-based correlation  
865 coefficient (  $\frac{2}{3}$  bootstrap mean).







































