

1 **An assessment of remotely sensed surface and root zone soil moisture**
2 **through active and passive sensors in northeast Asia**

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27 **Abstract**

28 Active and passive microwave remote sensing techniques provide an effective way to observe
29 soil moisture contents. We validated Advanced Scatterometer (ASCAT) and Advanced
30 Microwave Scanning Radiometer – Earth Observing System (AMSR-E) sensor products
31 using estimations from nine different stations located in the Korean peninsula, in northeast
32 Asia from May 1 to September 30, 2010. The results of the surface soil moisture (SSM)
33 products showed reasonable agreement with the average correlation coefficient (R) values of
34 0.39, 0.42, and 0.53 for the National Snow and Ice Data Centre (NSIDC), Vrije Universiteit
35 Amsterdam – National Aeronautics and Space Administration (VUA-NASA) AMSR-E, and
36 ASCAT SSM datasets, respectively. The root zone soil moisture (RZSM) products, derived
37 using the NSIDC soil water index (SWI), the United States Department of Agriculture
38 (USDA) AMSR-E, and the ASCAT SWI datasets showed relatively high R values of 0.47,
39 0.72, and 0.75, respectively, with *in situ* soil moisture at a depth of 20 cm. In particular,
40 AMSR-E USDA RZSM data show best agreements with in-situ data at 20 cm, among the
41 four depths (10, 20, 30, and 50 cm). In this study, the ASCAT SSM and SWI were rescaled
42 based on the porosity and the effective saturation according to soil texture. Renormalized soil
43 moisture products using three renormalization methods: the linear regression correction
44 (REG), average-standard deviation ($\mu - \sigma$), and cumulative distribution function (CDF)
45 provided an improvement in biases and RMSEs, with SSM (SWI) RMSEs of 0.04 (0.02),
46 0.05 (0.03), and 0.05 (0.03) m³/m³ for REG, $\mu - \sigma$, and CDF matching, respectively. A
47 Taylor diagram was used to assess the accuracy of four satellite soil moisture products with *in*
48 *situ* data on a plot. Based on these results, ASCAT soil moisture products were potentially
49 proven to be more appropriate than AMSR-E products in northeast Asia. Remotely sensed
50 soil moisture datasets from passive (AMSR-E) and active (ASCAT) sensors are beneficial to

51 operational hydrological investigations and water management activities.

52 **Keywords**

53 Remotely sensed soil moisture, AMSR-E, ASCAT, root zone soil moisture, validation

54 **1. Introduction**

55 Soil moisture (SM) is an essential variable in the hydrological cycle, although it occupies
56 only 0.15% of the liquid freshwater on the earth (Western et al., 2002). It plays an important
57 role in hydrological and meteorological activity, together with weather, climate predictions,
58 water resources and irrigational management, as well as hazard analysis. Since 2010, it has
59 been considered an essential climate variable (ECV) by the World Meteorological
60 Organization (WMO, 2010). SM has strong spatio-temporal variability, caused by the
61 heterogeneity of soil properties, land cover, vegetation, and topography, as well as climate
62 conditions (Brocca et al., 2007; Cho & Choi, 2014; Choi & Jacobs, 2007; Famiglietti et al.,
63 2008; Jacobs et al., 2004; Schmugge et al., 2002; Sur et al., 2013). At present, ground-based
64 SM measurement methods, such as neutron probes, time-domain reflectometry (TDR), and
65 frequency-domain reflectometry (FDR), provide accurate moisture contents estimation at
66 point scale. With the growing need for large-scale observations of the spatial patterns of soil
67 moisture, there has been an increased focus on the use of remote sensing techniques
68 (Schmugge et al., 2002; Jackson et al., 2010).

69 Remote sensing instruments, including aircraft or satellites with active and passive
70 microwave sensors, have facilitated the measurement of the surface soil moisture for large
71 areas (Njoku & Entekhabi, 1996), including the spatial and temporal characterization of
72 surface fields (Njoku et al., 2002). Microwave sensors can observe SSM, as the effects of
73 moisture change on the emissivity or backscattering of the surface (Njoku et al., 2003). In
74 particular, satellites using passive or active microwave sensors have been demonstrated to
75 provide useful retrievals of near-surface soil moisture variations, at both regional and global
76 scales (Gruhler et al., 2010; Jackson et al., 2002; Wagner et al., 1999b). The inter-comparison
77 and validation of remotely sensed soil moisture products is a challenging task, because of the

78 differences between satellite and ground based measurements at both spatial and temporal
79 scales (Jackson et al., 1996, 2010).

80 Since the Scanning Multichannel Microwave Radiometer (SMMR), the first passive
81 microwave sensor on a satellite, was in operation from 1978 to 1987, there has been a series
82 of passive microwave sensors capable of providing soil moisture data. Most notable are the
83 Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) Microwave Imager (TMI; 1997-present), the
84 Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer for the Earth Observing System (AMSR-E;
85 2002-2011), WindSat (2003-present), and the Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity Mission
86 (SMOS; 2009-present). The most recent instrument is the Advanced Microwave Scanning
87 Radiometer 2 (AMSR2), which was launched by the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency
88 (JAXA) on the Global Change Observation Mission – Water (GCOM-W) in May 2012.

89 Active microwave instruments, such as the SCATterometer (SCAT) onboard European
90 Remote Sensing (ERS-1 and ERS-2; 1991-2000, 1995-2011), and Advanced SCATterometer
91 (ASCAT; 2007-present) onboard the Meteorological Operational satellite programme–A
92 (MetOp-A), have carried out SSM measurement (Wagner et al., 1999b, 2013). Recently
93 (September 2012), MetOp-B was developed as a joint undertaking between the European
94 Space Agency (ESA), and the European Organization for the Exploitation of Meteorological
95 Satellites (EUMETSAT). The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) has also
96 increasingly recognized the importance of the use of earth observation satellites for soil
97 moisture monitoring (WMO, 2013). Furthermore, the Soil Moisture Active and Passive
98 (SMAP) launch, headed by the NASA, is planned for January 2015. The SMAP measurement
99 approach uses two microwave instruments (an L-band synthetic aperture radar and an L-band
100 radiometer), integrating these data in order to make high resolution (9-km) and high-accuracy
101 measurements. This mission will provide global soil moisture measurements present at the

102 Earth's land surfaces and, in particular, will differentiate frozen from thawed land surfaces
103 (Entekhabi et al., 2010a). Moreover, MetOp-C, the third and final satellite from the MetOp
104 mission, will be launched in 2016, following MetOp-B, in order to provide continuous
105 measurements of high-quality data, monitoring long-term weather and climate conditions
106 until at least 2020. GCOM-W2, the 2nd flight unit of the GCOM-W program, is also
107 expected to contribute to the monitoring of hydrological variables in 2016 (available online at
108 <http://www.wmo-sat.info/oscar/satellites>). These continual satellite launches for the purpose of soil
109 moisture observations will enable researchers to accelerate the development of remote
110 sensing techniques.

111 Several studies demonstrated that blending observations taken from different satellite
112 sensors were known as a promising approach in various fields (Liu et al., 2012; Yilmaz et al.,
113 2012). Various researches using satellite soil moisture data have also consistently progressed
114 in terms of applications, such as drought (Bolten et al., 2010; Zhang and Jia, 2013), runoff
115 modeling (Brocca et al., 2010b, 2012), and flood forecasting (Bindlish et al., 2009). Recent
116 validation studies have been conducted for satellite SSM retrievals (AMSR-E, SMOS, and
117 ASCAT) comparing with *in situ* measurements for Europe, the United States and Australia
118 (Albergel et al., 2012; Brocca et al., 2011; Su et al., 2013; Gruhier et al., 2010; Parinussa et
119 al., 2013; Parrens et al., 2012). A few validation studies of the remotely sensed RZSM also
120 have been performed (Albergel et al., 2008; Brocca et al., 2010a; Paulik et al., 2014).

121 In the current study, we evaluate the remotely sensed SSM and RZSM data, derived from
122 active (ASCAT) and passive (AMSR-E) microwave sensors, by comparing it with ground
123 based soil moisture measurements (10, 20, 30, and 50 cm) in northeast Asia. The three kinds
124 of AMSR-E soil moisture retrievals were used for validation and inter-comparison: 1) NSIDC
125 AMSR-E Level 3 SSM retrievals from the National Snow and Ice Data Centre (NSIDC), 2)

126 VUA-NASA AMSR-E developed by the Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam (VUA) with the
127 National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), and 3) USDA AMSR-E RZSM data
128 using VUA-NASA SSM products. Moreover, ASCAT Level 3 SSM and SWI derived by the
129 Vienna University of Technology (TU-Wien) were used. Unfortunately, the SMOS satellite
130 data could not be used in this study, because of unavailability of the soil moisture data for
131 northeast Asia due to Radio Frequency Interference (RFI) (Kerr et al., 2012; Leroux et al.,
132 2013).

133 The main purpose of this study was to assess the accuracy of AMSR-E and ASCAT satellite-
134 based SSM and RZSM products, and to determine which sensor was in better agreement with
135 the ground based soil moisture patterns in northeast Asia. In particular, the satellite soil
136 moisture products were systematically compared with *in situ* observations from nine different
137 sites located in the Korean peninsula from May 1 to September 30, 2010. This research will
138 be helpful to determine the accuracy of remotely sensed SSM and RZSM retrieval, as well as
139 the expansion of various applications, such as drought monitoring, flood forecasting, and
140 hydrological modeling.

141 **2. Description of the study area and dataset**

142 **2.1. Ground Soil Moisture Measurement in the study area**

143 Ground soil moisture observations are routinely used to evaluate remotely sensed SSM and
144 RZSM. In the Korean peninsula, located in the middle (34-39°N and 126-130°E) of northeast
145 Asia, ground soil moisture data were periodically collected at four different depths (10, 20,
146 30, and 50 cm), approximately over twenty sites installed by the Korea Meteorological
147 Administration (KMA). On the basis of data quality and availability, eight sites, Suwon,
148 Seosan, Jeonju, Cheorwon, Chuncheon, Andong, Cheongju, and Jinju, were selected for this

149 validation study. We also selected an additional site, Seolmalcheon (SMC), operated by the
150 Hydrological Survey Center (HSC), for using the ground soil moisture (10 cm) measurements
151 (Fig. 1). Table 1 shows the main characteristics of each site: location (latitude, longitude and
152 elevation), climate (mean annual rainfall, temperature and relative humidity), and physical
153 characteristics (soil texture and land use). The climate is humid, and the annual rainfall
154 ranges from 1074 to 2014 mm in the northern Korean peninsula. The heaviest rainfall usually
155 occurs in summer, due to the East Asian monsoon (Kim et al., 2002; KMA, 2006). Most of
156 the soil types are sandy loam and loam, and the land uses are urban, cropland, and mixed
157 forest. In this study, the ground measured soil moisture data were collected by Frequency
158 Domain Reflectometry (FDR), on an hourly basis. FDR sensor sends an electromagnetic
159 wave along its probes, and measures the frequency of the reflected wave, which varies with
160 the soil water content. Compared to Time Domain Reflectometry (TDR), FDR has several
161 advantages. FDR is economical and requires lower electric power consumption and it enables
162 users to continuously monitor soil moisture at several remote locations using automated data
163 loggers (Veldkamp & O'Brien, 2000).

164 **2.2. Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer - Earth Observing System (AMSR-E)**

165 The AMSR-E instrument on board the Aqua satellite provided global microwave
166 measurements using different bands (56 km for the C band, 38 km for the X band, and 12 km
167 for the Ka band) from May 2002 to October 2011, with daily ascending (13:30, equatorial
168 local crossing time) and descending (01:30, equatorial local crossing time) overpasses, over a
169 swath width of 1445 km (Njoku et al., 2003, Njoku, 2010). We used different types of
170 AMSR-E soil moisture products (Table 2): 1. NSIDC's X-band based SSM and RZSM
171 products (Njoku et al., 2003), 2. VUA-NASA's C- and X-band based SSM products (Owe et
172 al., 2008), and 3. USDA's C-band based RZSM products (Bolten et al., 2010; Bolten & Crow,

173 2012).

174 The NSIDC soil moisture retrieval algorithm is based on an iterative multichannel inversion
175 procedure to compare the observed brightness temperatures, and the computed brightness
176 temperatures. It is mainly affected by the volumetric water content of the soil, vegetation
177 water content, and soil temperatures. For detailed descriptions of the algorithm, readers
178 referred to Njoku et al. (2003). In response to RFI in the C-band AMSR-E data across much
179 of North America and East Asia, the current version of NSIDC AMSR-E soil moisture was
180 applied only to the X-band (Njoku et al., 2005; Draper et al., 2009). The VUA-NASA soil
181 moisture products were retrieved using the Land Parameter Retrieval Model (LPRM). The
182 LPRM is based on a radiative transfer model that looks for geophysical variables (SSM,
183 vegetation water content, and soil/canopy temperature) to the brightness temperatures (T_b). It
184 uses the dual polarized channel (either C-band 6.9 or X-band 10.6 GHz) for the retrieval of
185 both SSM, and vegetation water content (VWC) (Owe et al., 2001, 2008). The vegetation
186 optical depth is parameterized as a function of the microwave polarization difference index
187 (MPDI):

$$188 \quad MPDI = (T_{b(v)} - T_{b(h)}) / (T_{b(v)} + T_{b(h)}) \quad (1)$$

189 where $T_{b(v)}$ and $T_{b(h)}$ are the vertical and horizontal brightness temperatures, respectively.
190 For frequencies less than 10 GHz, the MPDI has relevance to the canopy and soil emission,
191 and the soil dielectric properties. The soil emissivity is affected by soil moisture, by the effect
192 of moisture on the soil dielectric constant (Meesters et al., 2005; Owe et al., 2008; de Jeu et
193 al., 2014). We used an updated version of the AMSR-E soil moisture product derived by the
194 VUA in collaboration with NASA.

195 The USDA RZSM data was derived by the assimilation of Land Parameter Retrieval Model

196 (LPRM) SSM retrievals (C-band, descending time), into the 2-Layer Palmer Water Balance
197 Model (Bolten et al., 2010; Bolten & Crow, 2012). This data were downloaded from
198 ftp://hydro1.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/data/s4pa/WAOB/LPRM_AMSRE_D_RZSM3.001/. We
199 extracted the Level 3 soil moisture values directly from the AMSR-E L3 Daily Land data
200 files. The ground based soil moisture data were extracted at the Aqua satellite overpass time.

201 **2.3. Advanced Scatterometer (ASCAT)**

202 ASCAT is a real-aperture radar sensor measuring radar backscatter at C-band in VV
203 polarization, with a radiometric accuracy better than 0.3 dB (Verspeek et al., 2010). It has a
204 sun-synchronous orbit at 817 km, with equator crossing at 21:30 and 09:30. Measurements
205 occur on both sides of the sub satellite track; therefore, two 550 km wide swaths of data are
206 produced, with a spatial resolution of 25 km, resampled to a 12.5 km grid. Because ASCAT
207 operates continuously, more than twice of the European Remote-sensing Satellite (ERS)
208 scatterometer provided coverage (Bartalis et al., 2007). The C-band backscatter
209 measurements are converted to soil moisture estimates, by applying the Technische
210 Universität (TU) Wien soil moisture retrieval algorithm (Wagner et al., 1999b; Naeimi et al.,
211 2009). In this study, the ASCAT soil moisture products of the WARP version 5.5 (release 1.2)
212 of the retrieval algorithm were used (<https://rs.geo.tuwien.ac.at/products>).

213 Wagner et al. (1999b) proposed a method to calculate the SSM content from the
214 backscattering measurements at a reference angle of 40°, using the lowest (dry) and highest
215 (wet) values over a long period. The SSM content m_s is estimated by a processing step,
216 using

$$217 \quad m_s = \frac{\sigma^0 - \sigma_{dry}^0}{\sigma_{wet}^0 - \sigma_{dry}^0} \quad (2)$$

218 where σ_{dry}^0 and σ_{wet}^0 represent the backscattering values at completely dry and wet
 219 conditions, and σ^0 is the present backscatter measurement. Soil moisture variations are
 220 adjusted between the historically lowest (0%) and highest (100%) values, producing a time
 221 series of relative soil moisture for the topmost centimeters of the soil (Wagner et al., 1999b,
 222 2007). In order to estimate the root-zone profile soil moisture, the semi-empirical approach
 223 proposed by Wagner et al. (1999b), also called an exponential filter, is used to obtain the SWI
 224 values from the SSM, m_s .

$$225 \quad SWI(t) = \frac{\sum_i m_s(t_i) \cdot e^{-\frac{t-t_i}{T}}}{\sum_i e^{-\frac{t-t_i}{T}}} \quad \text{for } t_i < t \quad (3)$$

226 The SWI at time t, $m_s(t_i)$ is the SSM estimated from remote sensing at time t_i . T is the
 227 characteristic time length, in units of day. In this study, we used SWI values at T = 1, 5, 10,
 228 15, and 20 to compare with the root zone soil moisture contents (in situ data at 20, 30, and
 229 50cm and USDA AMSR-E) in Table 8. In particular, we compared the in situ data (20 cm)
 230 and SWI values at T=5 based on maximizing the correlation with in-situ root zone soil
 231 moisture measurements during the growing seasons (May 1 through September 30, 2010).

232 **3. Methods**

233 The passive (AMSR-E) and the active (ASCAT) sensor soil moisture products, the C- and
 234 X-band observations, represent a layer depth of 2cm (Naeimi & Wagner, 2010, Escorihuela et
 235 al., 2010), were compared with *in situ* observations at depths of 10, 20, 30, and 50 cm.
 236 ASCAT and AMSR-E soil moisture products are characterized by different measurement
 237 units. AMSR-E products are expressed as volumetric values (m^3m^{-3} or g/cm^3), in absolute

238 terms. On the other hand, ASCAT products are relative concept, represented by a degree of
 239 saturation between 0 and 100%. We suggested a simplistic equation to rescale the ASCAT
 240 product, based on the physical concept, the effective saturation (s_e), of the Green-Ampt
 241 infiltration model (Brooks & Corey, 1964; Rawls et al., 1983). To solve for the systematic
 242 differences between the remotely sensed SM and the *in situ* measurements, the linear
 243 regression correction (REG), mean/standard-deviation ($\mu - \sigma$) matching, and cumulative
 244 distribution function (CDF) matching approaches are implemented (Albergel et al., 2012;
 245 Brocca et al., 2011; Draper et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2010; Lacava et al., 2010; Liu et al.,
 246 2011; Su et al., 2013; Scipal et al., 2008).

247 **3.1 Effective saturation of soil texture classes**

248 The concept of effective saturation (s_e) (Brooks & Corey, 1964; Rawls et al., 1983) was
 249 employed in order to compare ASCAT soil moisture values (degree of saturation, %) with
 250 AMSR-E soil moisture contents (volumetric units, m^3/m^3). The ASCAT soil moisture data are
 251 relative values, which are estimated according to the degree of the difference between the
 252 saturated and residual water contents. In this study, the ASCAT SSM content was rescaled
 253 from the degree of saturation (%) to the volumetric units (m^3/m^3) by considering the soil
 254 porosity (Wagner et al., 2013). The ASCAT SWI was estimated by factoring in the residual
 255 water content (θ_r) as well, rather than just the total porosity (η). This is because SWI is one
 256 of the RZSM index which should consider the residual water content as a characteristic of the
 257 root zone soil.

$$258 \quad s_e = \frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\eta - \theta_r} = \frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_e} \quad (4)$$

259 where s_e = effective saturation, θ = soil moisture content, θ_r = residual water content,
 260 and η = total porosity. The effective saturation (s_e) is the ratio of the available moisture,
 261 $\theta - \theta_r$, to the maximum possible available moisture content, $\eta - \theta_r$, where $\eta - \theta_r$ is called
 262 the effective porosity θ_e . The effective saturation (s_e) has a range of $0 \leq s_e \leq 1.0$, provided
 263 $\theta_r \leq \theta \leq \eta$. If the specific area is saturated by rainfall, the *in situ* soil moisture content
 264 will become equal to the total porosity (η) at that time; while during completely dry time, the
 265 soil moisture becomes the residual water content (θ_r). Rawls et al. (1983) showed that the
 266 effective porosity (θ_e) depends on the soil texture class. We assumed that the ASCAT's
 267 historically lowest and highest values were the residual water content (θ_r) and effective
 268 saturation (s_e), respectively. The rescaled ASCAT values $\theta_{ASCAT_{rescaled}}$ were calculated by:

$$269 \quad \theta_{ASCAT_{rescaled}} = (\theta_{ASCAT_{original}} \cdot \theta_e + \theta_r) / 100 \quad (5)$$

270 where $\theta_{ASCAT_{original}}$ is the original ASCAT soil moisture data (degree of saturation, %), and
 271 $\theta_{ASCAT_{rescaled}}$ is the rescaled ASCAT soil moisture data (volumetric soil moisture contents,
 272 m^3/m^3). The rescaled values were able to compare between ASCAT and other passive sensor
 273 products or *in situ* measurements, expressed as volumetric soil moisture contents (m^3/m^3).
 274 The ASCAT data was rescaled from the percentage of saturation to the volumetric unit by
 275 considering the effective saturation and residual water contents. We selected a dominant soil
 276 texture within the each footprint from the Korean soil information system
 277 (<http://soil.rda.go.kr>). The rescaled ASCAT datasets applied by this method can be more
 278 accurately converted than the datasets using just total porosity, though there are somewhat
 279 uncertainties due to the wide range of the effective porosity and residual water contents, even
 280 amongst the same soil type. Therefore, we applied the concept of effective saturation to the

281 ASCAT SWI data, prior to the renormalization methods using the Green and Ampt infiltration
 282 parameters, with typical ranges of η , θ_r and θ_c according to the soil texture classes
 283 (Rawls et al., 1983).

284 3.2 Comparison metrics

285 A two-dimensional Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001) is used to represent multiple statistics for
 286 an inter-comparison between satellite soil moisture products and *in situ* data on a plot. The
 287 SDV and E are given by:

$$288 \quad SDV = \frac{stdev_{SM_{satellite}}}{stdev_{SM_{in-situ}}} \quad (6)$$

$$289 \quad E^2 = \frac{RMSE^2 - Bias^2}{stdev_{SM_{in-situ}}^2} \quad (7)$$

$$290 \quad E^2 = SDV^2 + 1 - 2 \cdot SDV \cdot R \quad (8)$$

291 *SDV* is the normalized standard deviation that indicates the ratio between the satellite data
 292 and *in situ* measurements. In this diagram, the *SDV* and *R* values are shown as a radial
 293 distance and an angle respectively, and the *in situ* observation is displayed as a point on the x
 294 axis at $R = 1$ and $SDV=1$. The centered root mean square error (*E*) between the satellite and *in*
 295 *situ* soil moisture, which is normalized by $stdev_{SM_{in-situ}}$, the standard deviation of the *in situ*
 296 observations, is the distance to this point. This diagram has been in previous researches for
 297 comparison and for validation studies related to satellite-based products (de Rosnay et al.,
 298 2009; Albergel et al., 2012; Liu & Xie, 2013).

299 The three following statistical indexes are used to estimate the satellite soil moisture product

300 accuracy:

$$301 \quad Bias = \overline{\sum SM_{satellite} - SM_{in-situ}} \quad (9)$$

$$302 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\overline{\sum (SM_{satellite} - SM_{in-situ})^2}} \quad (10)$$

$$303 \quad R = \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sum (SM_{satellite} - SM_{in-situ})^2}{\sum (SM_{in-situ} - SM_{in-situ})^2}} \quad (11)$$

304 where *Bias* is the mean value of the differences for each time, and *RMSE* is the root mean
305 squared error between the *in situ* soil moisture measurements, $SM_{in-situ}$, and the satellite soil
306 moisture product, $SM_{satellite}$. *R* is the correlation coefficient.

307 **3.3 Renormalization methods: Linear regression correction, $\mu - \sigma$ and CDF matching**

308 Three renormalization strategies are implemented in order to make inter-comparisons
309 between different satellite soil moisture products. The first approach, linear regression
310 correction (Jackson et al., 2010; Brocca et al., 2011), is based on a linear regression equation
311 between the satellite and *in situ* soil moisture values. Standard linear regression minimizes
312 the squared-differences between satellite-data and in situ data (i.e., providing the least-square
313 solution that minimizes the residual). It provides the match of the satellite data to the in situ
314 data in the least-square sense, under the assumption that measurement errors are absent in the
315 in situ data (Su et al., 2014). The second average - standard deviation ($\mu - \sigma$) matching
316 (Draper et al., 2009, Su et al., 2013), matches their means and variances using:

$$317 \quad \hat{v}_s = \mu_i + \frac{\sigma_i}{\sigma_s} (v_s - \mu_s) \quad (12)$$

318 where \hat{v}_s = Normalized satellite data, μ_i = mean values of the *in situ* data, σ_i = standard
319 deviations of the *in situ* data, σ_s = standard deviations of the satellite data, v_s = satellite
320 data, and μ_s = mean values of the satellite data. Lastly, the CDF matching (Reichle & Koster,
321 2004; Drusch et al., 2005; Scipal et al., 2008; Lacava et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011; Brocca et
322 al., 2011; Albergel et al., 2012; Su et al., 2013) is a non-linear method used to remove
323 systematic differences between two datasets, and to match the CDF of the satellite retrievals
324 to the CDF of the *in situ* soil moisture. The CDF matching approach was applied to each grid
325 individually, enabling us to efficiently remove the bias and variance error in the local grid.
326 Liu et al. (2011) applied a piece-wise linear CDF matching, dividing the CDF curve into 12
327 segments. In this study, CDF method is applied to the ASCAT and AMSR-E (NSIDC, VUA-
328 NASA, USDA) products using the EasyFIT application. This method was used as a data
329 analysis tool, allowing us to match one satellite data to *in-situ* data by using the
330 corresponding cumulative distributions, respectively. The user can select the best CDF model
331 depending on the chosen goodness of fit tests and use this CDF model to renormalize the
332 investigated satellite data (<http://www.mathwave.com/help/easyfit/index.html>).

333 It should be noted that these renormalization approaches have the possibility of generating
334 artificial biases and thus become regarded a sub-optimal works in order to remove the biases
335 (Yimaz and Crow, 2013; Su et al., 2014). If certain conditions for datasets were met (mutual
336 linear relationship, independence of errors, and long enough datasets), it would be optimal to
337 use the triple collocation analysis (TCA) based rescaling factors and the lagged variables (LV)
338 method in hydrological assimilation studies (Yilmaz and Crow, 2013; Su et al., 2014). In this
339 study, despite the fact that the three rescaling methods (REG, $\mu - \sigma$, and CDF) provide only
340 approximations as the sub-optimal estimation, they can be used to assess the accuracy of
341 satellite soil moisture retrievals and inter-compare between different satellite products,

342 proven by as previous studies (Brocca et al., 2011; Su et al., 2013).

343 **4. Results and discussion**

344 **4.1 Evaluation of AMSR-E surface soil moisture (NSIDC, VUA-NASA)**

345 The two AMSR-E soil moisture products developed by the NSIDC and VUA-NASA were
346 validated using the *in situ* measurements (10 cm) provided by the KMA and HSC for the
347 study period of 2010 (May 1 to September 30), at nine sites located on the Korean peninsula.
348 The pixel values representing each ground measurement site were extracted from satellite
349 based soil moisture products. Temporal variations of the SSM for the NSIDC, VUA-NASA
350 and ASCAT products and the RZSM for the NSIDC SWI, USDA and ASCAT SWI products
351 *in situ* data are given in Figs. 2a and b.

352 Fig. 2a shows that the NSIDC AMSR-E SSM products only reacted slightly to the rainfall
353 events, compared with the other soil moisture products and were underestimated. The NSIDC
354 soil moisture showed mean values ranging from 0.09 to 0.14 m^3/m^3 , and standard deviations
355 of the soil moisture ranging from 0.01 to 0.02 m^3/m^3 . This low temporal variability and
356 underestimated patterns of the NSIDC soil moisture had been previously found by several
357 NSIDC AMSR-E validation studies (Wagner et al., 2007; Gruhier et al., 2008; Jackson et al.,
358 2010; Choi, 2012). In particular, these results corresponded with those of Choi (2012), which
359 validated the AMSR-E product using ground based measurements and the Common Land
360 Model (CLM), for two major land cover types in Korea. The correlation coefficients between
361 the NSIDC products and *in situ* measurement values ranged from 0.11 to 0.61 (Average =
362 0.39). Table 3 shows that biases ranged from -0.14 to 0.02 (Average = $-0.05 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$), while the
363 RMSE ranged from 0.02 to 0.16 (Average = $0.08 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$).

364 We evaluated the accuracy of the VUA-NASA soil moisture products (C- and X-band), by
365 comparing them with ground based measurements, according to ascending / descending pass.
366 It is worthy of note that the C-band VUA-NASA data have higher correlation than the X-
367 band data for all of the sites (Table 4). This implies that the C-band soil moisture products
368 were more reliable than the X-band products, which are further recommended for use in
369 northeast Asia, where RFI was observed (Njoku et al., 2005). It is also worth noting that the
370 ascending AMSR-E data had good agreement with the ground-based measurements compared
371 with the descending data, regardless of the band type in this study (Table 4). These results
372 supported the findings of Loew et al. (2009) and Brocca et al. (2011). Brocca et al. (2011)
373 pointed out that ascending AMSR-E data provided higher correlations with site-specific data
374 in Europe because the ascending passes (day-time) data had the vegetation transparent effects
375 by high temperatures during the day.

376 Considering the results of Fig. 2a, the VUA-NASA soil moisture products (C-band and
377 descending pass) clearly responded to rainfall events and showed reasonable agreement with
378 the ground-based measurements in contrast to the NSIDC soil moisture products. In these
379 graphs, we can see the temporal variations, as the values increased during rainfall and
380 decreased after rainfall events. While the *in situ* soil moisture ranged from 0.11 to 0.27 m³/m³,
381 the VUA-NASA soil moisture showed higher average values, ranging from 0.33 to 0.44
382 m³/m³ (Table 3). The standard deviations of the *in situ* soil moisture measurements ranged
383 from 0.03 to 0.05 m³/m³. The VUA-NASA products had a higher standard deviation, ranging
384 from 0.07 to 0.13 m³/m³. The correlation coefficients ranged from 0.19 to 0.60 (Average:
385 0.42), the biases ranged from 0.10 to 0.27 (0.20 m³/m³), and the RMSE ranged from 0.13 to
386 0.29 (Average: 0.22 m³/m³).

387 These results match up with several recent studies that VUA-NASA products were better

388 correlated with ground soil moisture measurements than NSIDC products, and implied that
389 AMSR-E data was suited to VUA-NASA soil moisture retrieval, and that long wavelengths
390 (C-band) penetrated deeper into vegetation and soil than short wavelengths (X-band) (Choi,
391 2012; Draper et al., 2009; Rudiger et al., 2009; Wagner et al., 2007). In comparison with
392 previous studies, the correlation between the VUA-NASA soil moisture and *in situ*
393 measurements in this study area was lower than for other regions, such as America (Jackson
394 et al., 2010), Europe (Wagner et al., 2007), West Africa (Gruhier et al., 2010) and Australia
395 (Draper et al., 2009; Su et al., 2013). These results suggest that northeast Asia including the
396 Korean peninsula is more affected by RFI as well as relatively heterogeneous land cover
397 within the footprint than these validated sites (Choi, 2012).

398 **4.2 Evaluation of AMSR-E root zone soil moisture (NSIDC SWI, USDA)**

399 The NSIDC AMSR-E RZSM products were calculated using the exponential filter method
400 in order to compare other RZSM products (USDA and ASCAT SWI). The NSIDC SWI
401 showed that the average and standard deviation values ranged from 0.09 to 0.14 m³/m³, and
402 0.00 to 0.02 m³/m³, respectively (Table 5). The correlation coefficients between these
403 products and the *in situ* measurement values (20 cm) ranged from 0.16 to 0.72 (Average:
404 0.47). The NSIDC SWI products had higher correlation values than the NSIDC SSM
405 products (0.39) for all of the sites, with the exception of Suwon. These results are slightly
406 better than a previous study that was performed in Europe (Brocca et al., 2011), which
407 showed that the average R values of the NSIDC SWI products were equal to 0.45 and 0.20
408 with *in situ* measurements at 5 cm (surface) and 10-30 cm (root zone), although modified by
409 the application of CDF matching method, respectively.

410 The AMSR-E RZSM is derived by the USDA, via the assimilation of VUA-NASA soil

411 moisture retrievals into the 2-Layer Palmer Water Balance Model, using the Ensemble
412 Kalman filter (EnKF). We executed a correlation analysis between the *in situ* soil moisture
413 (10, 20, 30, and 50 cm) and USDA RZSM, in order to confirm which depth has the highest
414 correlation coefficients. As this dataset was designed to only use the C-band soil moisture at a
415 descending overpass time (1:30 am), *in situ* measurements were also extracted at the same
416 time. Fig. 2b shows that the USDA products overestimate the soil moisture, and have a large
417 bias, as compared to the *in situ* measurements. The biases ranged from 0.14 to 0.40 m³/m³
418 (Average: 0.28 m³/m³), and the RMSE ranged from 0.15 to 0.41 (Average: 0.29) in Table 5.
419 The USDA soil moisture showed that the average and standard deviations values ranged from
420 0.40 to 0.61 m³/m³, and 0.04 to 0.10 m³/m³, respectively. Table 8 shows the correlation
421 coefficient values between the USDA RZSM and the *in situ* soil moisture measurements at
422 nine sites. The average R values were equal to 0.70, 0.72, 0.64 and 0.52, at 10, 20, 30, and 50
423 cm depth, respectively. In particular, the R values at 20 cm depth ranged from 0.47 to 0.88
424 (Average: 0.72), showing the highest R-values of all of the AMSR-E products. Most of the
425 study sites had good correlation coefficients at depths of 10 and 20 cm. The highest R values
426 (r = 0.83 and 0.88) were obtained at 10 and 20 cm depths in the Cheongju site. Conversely,
427 the lowest R values (r = 0.37 and 0.45) were obtained at 30 and 50 cm depths in Seosan site.
428 This implied that there were differences in correlation coefficient values of the USDA RZSM
429 products according to the depths of the *in situ* measurements and land surface characteristics.
430 Furthermore, it can be inferred that the USDA RZSM products best correlate with the *in-situ*
431 measurements at about 20 cm depths.

432 **4.3 Evaluation of ASCAT surface and root zone soil moisture products**

433 The ASCAT surface soil moisture (SSM) was validated for nine sites in Korea. Fig. 2a shows
434 the time series of ASCAT SSM products versus the two AMSR-E and ground based data at a

435 10 cm depth for all of the sites. Notwithstanding the high temporal variability of the SSM, the
436 ASCAT products corresponded more accurately with the temporal patterns of the *in situ*
437 measurements than did the AMSR-E SSM products during the growing season. The ASCAT
438 products showed that the average and standard deviations values ranged from 0.14 to 0.34
439 m^3/m^3 , and 0.05 to 0.08 m^3/m^3 , respectively (Table 6). Correlation coefficients between these
440 products and the *in situ* measurement values (10 cm) ranged from 0.41 to 0.70 (Average:
441 0.53). The ASCAT SSM products had higher average correlation values than did the two
442 AMSR-E SSM products (NSIDC: 0.39, VUA-NASA: 0.42). These results correspond with
443 previous studies (Brocca et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011). The ASCAT soil water index (SWI) is
444 one of the RZSM values (Naeimi and Wagner, 2010; Brocca et al., 2011). We applied the
445 concept of effective saturation to the ASCAT SWI products according to soil texture. The
446 time series in Fig. 2b show that the temporal patterns of the rescaled ASCAT SWI are more
447 similar to those of the *in situ* measurements, than the AMSR-E products. Fig. 4 shows a
448 comparison between the ground measurements at 20cm depth and the ASCAT SWI products
449 with the average, standard deviation, bias and RMSE. The rescaled ASCAT SWI values
450 corresponded with the ground measurement as the average values of the *in situ* soil moisture
451 measurements for the nine sites were 0.21 m^3/m^3 during the growing season and the average
452 value for the ASCAT SWI is 0.27 m^3/m^3 . The average correlation coefficient value was equal
453 to 0.75. The biases ranged from -0.08 to 0.21 (0.06 m^3/m^3), and the RMSE ranged from 0.04
454 to 0.21 (0.11 m^3/m^3), as shown in Table 7. These results indicate that the rescaled ASCAT
455 product is more accurate than the AMSR-E products, nearly to the target value of 0.04 m^3/m^3 ,
456 which was the numerical goal of the SMAP mission (Entekhabi et al., 2010b). It is worthy to
457 note that the ASCAT SWI values should be evaluated so as to determine an effective
458 saturation concept with a renormalization method, as has been used in several previous
459 studies (Brocca et al., 2011; Draper et al., 2009; Su et al., 2013).

460 We also analyzed the correlation values between the *in situ* soil moisture measurements (10,
461 20, 30, and 50 cm) and the ASCAT SWI data, according to the characteristic time length, T
462 (Table 8). Generally, the ASCAT SWI has relatively good correlation coefficients with the *in*
463 *situ* RZSM at 10 and 20 cm, compared with 30 and 50 cm. The highest average R-value (0.75)
464 at T = 5 days was obtained for the depths of 10 and 20 cm. This may be due to the length of
465 time (T), which connotes the infiltration time. There are horizontal variations in the amount
466 of soil moisture contents after rainfall events, which are caused by the differences in
467 infiltration velocity, according to the type of soil texture. The differences in R-values among
468 the nine study sites were found in Table 8. In particular, the Suwon and Seosan sites had the
469 lowest R-values at T = 10, 15 and 20 days for the depth of 10 cm. This may be partly
470 explained by the spatial heterogeneity of land cover within the foot-print compared to other
471 sites (Fig. 1). Dominant land cover types in pixel may be the cause of the problematic
472 retrieval results (Lakhankar et al., 2009; Loew, 2008; van de Griend et al., 2003). Loew (2008)
473 mentioned that the quality of the soil moisture retrievals was influenced by the spatial
474 heterogeneity within a resolution pixel, especially concerning vegetation, urban, and open
475 water surfaces, and might ultimately result in significantly biased soil moisture retrievals.

476 **4.4 Inter-comparison of satellite soil moisture retrievals**

477 Fig. 2 shows the temporal profiles of the satellite based soil moisture products (SSM:
478 NSIDC, VUA-NASA, and ASCAT, RZSM: NSIDC SWI, USDA, and ASCAT SWI) for the
479 nine different locations. All of the products responded to the multiple rainfall events during
480 the growing season in 2010. However, there were significant differences between the three
481 satellite-based SSM datasets. The R-values of the satellite-based SSM datasets are in the
482 range of 0.11-0.61, 0.19-0.60 and 0.41-0.70, with average values of 0.39, 0.42, and 0.53, for
483 the NSIDC, VUA-NASA AMSR-E and ASCAT datasets, respectively (Fig. 3a). The ASCAT

484 had the highest mean correlation ($R=0.53$), compared to the other satellite datasets. Fig. 3b
485 shows the comparison of the RMSE between the satellite soil moisture products (AMSR-E
486 and ASCAT). The RMSE of the modified datasets are in the range of 0.02-0.16, 0.13-0.29,
487 and 0.06-0.22 m^3/m^3 , with average values of 0.08, 0.22, and 0.10 m^3/m^3 , for the NSIDC,
488 VUA-NASA AMSR-E and ASCAT datasets, respectively. NSIDC AMSR-E had lowest
489 RMSE values, followed by the ASCAT, and VUA-NASA AMSR-E, in spite of the locational
490 differences. The ASCAT products were applied with the concept of soil porosity (Wagner et
491 al., 2013). These results are different than the results of several previous studies, in that the
492 RMSE between the VUA-NASA and *in situ* data was smaller than the RMSE between the
493 NSIDC and *in situ* data (Wagner et al., 2007; Choi, 2012). However, these findings are
494 similar to those of Gruhier et al. (2010), as they showed that the RMSE of the NSIDC data
495 ($0.05 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$) was smaller than that of the VUA-NASA data ($0.06 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$) during monsoon
496 seasons; however, the RMSE of the NSIDC data ($0.07 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$) was bigger than that of the
497 VUA-NASA data ($0.02 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$) during dry seasons.

498 Fig. 4a shows that R-values of satellite based RZSM datasets. These average values were
499 0.47, 0.72, and 0.75, for the NSIDC SWI, USDA AMSR-E and ASCAT SWI datasets,
500 respectively. The RMSE of these datasets ranged from 0.02-0.20, 0.15-0.41, and 0.04-0.21
501 m^3/m^3 , with the average values of 0.10, 0.29, and 0.11 m^3/m^3 (Fig. 4b). The ASCAT also has
502 the highest mean correlation ($R=0.75$), compared to the other satellite datasets. The results of
503 the comparisons for the following sets were modified by the application of renormalization
504 approaches, REG, $\mu - \sigma$, and CDF matching, and were subsequently categorized according
505 to satellite products (SSM and RZSM) 1) NSIDC, VUA-NASA AMSR-E, and ASCAT SSM,
506 and 2) NSIDC SWI, USDA AMSR-E, and ASCAT SWI products. There are several causes of
507 various systematic differences (Bias, RMSE). These errors may be caused due to the fact that

508 the microwave sensor on board the satellite can detect only the soil moisture in the top soil
509 layer (2-5 cm), and satellite-derived soil moisture contents are easily affected by various
510 atmospheric forcing. Furthermore, the satellite data represents the spatial average value,
511 while the *in situ* measurement data reflect sites that were monitored at certain depths (Draper
512 et al., 2009).

513 Fig. 5 shows four Taylor diagrams that illustrate the statistics for the comparison between
514 NSIDC, VUA-NASA, and ASCAT SSM data and ground based measurement data (10 cm)
515 for the original and three renormalization methods, REG, $\mu - \sigma$, and CDF matching. On
516 average, for the nine sites, the R-values of the three renormalized satellite soil moisture
517 products were 0.39, 0.42 and 0.53 (REG and $\mu - \sigma$) and 0.38, 0.43, and 0.55 (CDF), for
518 NSIDC, VUA-NASA AMSR-E, and ASCAT datasets, respectively. All of the symbols
519 representing the NSIDC data (red dots) are located just below the SDV value of 1 (violet
520 dotted line in Fig. 5a). This implies that the temporal variability of the NSIDC data is lower,
521 than that of the other satellite products. Fig. 5b shows the Taylor diagram representing REG-
522 based rescaling. As seen in this figure, the average SDV values modified from 0.32, 2.43, and
523 1.56 to 0.36, 0.42, and 0.53 m^3/m^3 for all of the products. The REG method showed SDV
524 values less than one for all of the products, drawing a semicircle. The ASCAT data (Green
525 dots) presents relatively close to the x axis at $R = 1$ and $SDV=1$, followed by VUA-NASA,
526 and NSIDC. These obtained SDV values were equal to R-values. The results using the
527 Average – Standard deviation ($\mu - \sigma$) matching method showed that all of the SDV values
528 were equal to 1 (Fig. 5c). Therefore, this method enables us to compare three satellite
529 products only considering correlation coefficients. Fig. 5d shows the dispersion of statistics,
530 which were modified using the CDF matching method. This diagram depicts the fact that
531 most of the data points are close to the SDV value of 1, except for some of the NSIDC

532 products.

533 The four Taylor diagrams of the RZSM products, which illustrate the statistics of the
534 comparison between NSIDC SWI, USDA, and ASCAT SWI data and ground-based
535 measurement data (20 cm) for the original and three renormalization methods (REG, $\mu - \sigma$,
536 and CDF matching) are shown in Fig. 6. In general, the RZSM correlations had better results
537 than the SSM correlations. The R-values of the three satellite soil moisture products were
538 0.47, 0.72 and 0.75 for the NSIDC SWI, USDA, and ASCAT SWI datasets, respectively.
539 Throughout the three renormalization methods, the RMSE values improved from 0.10, 0.29,
540 and 0.11 to 0.03, 0.02, and 0.02 m^3/m^3 (REG), 0.03, 0.03, and 0.02 m^3/m^3 ($\mu - \sigma$), and 0.04,
541 0.03, and 0.02 m^3/m^3 (CDF), respectively. As seen in Fig. 6c, the $\mu - \sigma$ method showed
542 that all satellite RZSM products followed the curve, $\text{SDV} = 1$ (violet dotted line). The CDF
543 matching method was able to acquire the SDV values of three RZSM products close to 1 (Fig.
544 6d). Through four diagrams, we can assess that the ASCAT SWI and USDA RZSM products
545 outperform the NSIDC SWI products. Furthermore, the ASCAT SWI data are more accurate
546 than USDA RZSM data in Fig. 6d. Basically, the result may be due to the fine resolution of
547 the 0.125° grid of the ASCAT products, compared to the AMSR-E products, which have a
548 0.25° grid, and the application of the exponential filter which allows satellite products to be
549 comparable with *in situ* observations of near-surface soil moisture. Subsequent research is
550 required not only to assess the applicability of ASCAT with Advanced Microwave Scanning
551 Radiometer 2 (AMSR2) for the different regions in east Asia, but also to validate and
552 calibrate upcoming SMAP products.

553 **5. Summary and conclusions**

554 Several soil moisture datasets from active / passive microwave sensors have been provided to

555 users for diverse public purposes. The validation and evaluation of these products are
556 required on both a global and local scale. In this study, active (ASCAT) and passive (AMSR-
557 E) sensor products were estimated from nine stations located in the Korea peninsula, in
558 northeast Asia. Through this validation study, we were able to conclude that ASCAT, a type
559 of active microwave sensor, outperformed the three AMSR-E products (NSIDC, VUA-NASA
560 and USDA) in terms of both SSM and RZSM products in northeast Asia. We rescaled ASCAT
561 products considering the concept of effective saturation. In addition, the AMSR-E USDA
562 RZSM showed characteristics related to soil texture. Through the comparison of soil moisture
563 retrievals with three renormalization methods (REG, $\mu - \sigma$ and CDF matching) using a
564 Taylor diagram, the ASCAT satellite datasets proved their reliability in terms of both SSM
565 and RZSM. This study would play an important role in assessing global satellite-based soil
566 moisture under the circumstances, where other major satellite soil moisture products have
567 limitations such as the Soil Moisture Ocean Salinity (SMOS) due to the RFI in northeast Asia,
568 and the AMSR-E instrument onboard the Aqua satellite, which stopped producing data after
569 October 2011, due to an antenna problem. Furthermore, such research might lead to a better
570 understanding of operational hydrological investigations and water management activities, as
571 well as in validating and estimating remotely sensed soil moisture products derived by
572 Metop-B, AMSR2, and the upcoming SMAP mission.

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Table 1 The characteristics of study areas.

Area	Latitude (degree)	Longitude (degree)	Elevation (m a.s.l)	Annual rainfall (mm)	Temperature (°C)	Relative humidity (%)	Soil texture	Land use
Suwon	37° 16′ N	126° 59′ E	143 m	1470.6 mm	12.3 °C	73.5 %	Sandy loam	Urban
Seosan	36° 46′ N	126° 29′ E	30 m	2141.8 mm	11.7 °C	73.8 %	Loam	Cropland
Jeonju	35° 49′ N	127° 09′ E	53 m	1867.5 mm	13.6 °C	66.0 %	Loam	Urban
Cheorwon	38° 08′ N	127° 18′ E	156 m	1581.4 mm	10.1 °C	71.8 %	Sandy loam	Cropland
Chuncheon	37° 54′ N	127° 44′ E	79 m	1464.0 mm	11.0 °C	70.0 %	Silt loam	Urban
Andong	36° 34′ N	128° 42′ N	140 m	1073.8 mm	12.3 °C	66.6 %	Sandy loam	Grassland
Cheongju	36° 38′ N	127° 26′ N	58 m	1422.4 mm	13.1 °C	65.3 %	Loam	Urban
Jinju	35° 09′ N	128° 02′ N	29 m	1896.0 mm	13.2 °C	67.5 %	Loamy sand	Mixed forest
Seolmacheon	37° 56′ N	126° 57′ E	269 m	1827.2 mm	10.4 °C	73.6 %	Sandy loam	Mixed forest

Table 2 Specifications of the five datasets used in this study.

	FDR (In-situ)	AMSR-E (NSIDC)	AMSR-E (VUA-NASA)	AMSR-E (USDA)	ASCAT (TU-WIEN)
Observation period	Jan. 2008 ~ Dec. 2010	Jun. 2002 ~ Dec. 2010	Jun. 2002 ~ Oct. 2010	Jun. 2002 ~ Dec. 2010	Jan. 2007 ~
Spatial Resolution (grid)	Point	38 (25 km)	25 km	25 km	25 km (12.5 km)
Measurement interval	Hourly	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily
Overpass time (A , D)	-	13:30, 1:30	13:30, 1:30	13:30	11:30, 23:30
Penetration depth (sample size*)	10, 20, 30, 50 cm (3672)	Surface (226) Root zone (306)	Surface (214)	Root zone (304)	Surface (278) Root zone (304)

The sample size* is the mean at each site from the ascending and descending pass.

Table 3 Statistics of AMSR-E SSM for the NSIDC and VUA-NASA products with in-situ data at 10cm depth.

Area (10 cm)	NSIDC SSM (m ³ /m ³)					VUA-NASA SSM (m ³ /m ³)				
	Average	Stdev	R	Bias	RMSE	Average	Stdev	R	Bias	RMSE
Suwon	0.12	0.02	0.37**	-0.09	0.09	0.40	0.08	0.43**	0.18	0.20
Seosan	0.09	0.02	0.23**	-0.03	0.06	0.33	0.07	0.60**	0.19	0.20
Jeonju	0.14	0.02	0.61**	-0.07	0.07	0.39	0.08	0.31**	0.18	0.19
Cheorwon	0.13	0.01	0.57**	-0.08	0.09	0.35	0.11	0.43**	0.13	0.17
Chuncheon	0.13	0.01	0.54**	0.00	0.02	0.39	0.13	0.19*	0.26	0.29
Cheongju	0.13	0.01	0.13*	-0.14	0.16	0.37	0.08	0.56**	0.10	0.13
Jinju	0.13	0.02	0.41**	0.02	0.05	0.38	0.11	0.27**	0.26	0.27
Andong	0.14	0.02	0.11	0.00	0.06	0.40	0.13	0.43**	0.27	0.29
Seolmacheon	0.12	0.01	0.52**	-0.09	0.11	0.44	0.11	0.58**	0.22	0.24
Average	0.13	0.01	0.39	-0.05	0.08	0.38	0.10	0.42	0.20	0.22

* and ** indicates significance at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively.

Table 4 Statistics of the VUA AMSR-E data from C- and X-band for according to overpass time (descending / ascending).

Area	C-band (m ³ /m ³)						X-band (m ³ /m ³)					
	Ascending			Descending			Ascending			Descending		
	R	Bias	RMSE	R	Bias	RMSE	R	Bias	RMSE	R	Bias	RMSE
Suwon	0.43**	0.18	0.20	0.24*	0.21	0.24	0.36*	0.16	0.20	0.10	0.26	0.27
Seosan	0.60**	0.19	0.20	0.29**	0.23	0.24	0.32**	0.18	0.22	0.21*	0.26	0.27
Jeonju	0.31**	0.18	0.19	0.12	0.28	0.31	0.29**	0.12	0.15	0.07	0.23	0.26
Cheorwon	0.43**	0.13	0.17	0.19*	0.27	0.30	0.42**	0.16	0.20	0.13	0.30	0.33
Chuncheon	0.19*	0.26	0.29	0.05	0.33	0.36	0.13	0.25	0.31	0.07	0.35	0.38
Cheongju	0.56**	0.10	0.13	0.31**	0.14	0.18	0.43**	0.07	0.12	0.29**	0.19	0.21
Jinju	0.27**	0.26	0.27	0.04	0.34	0.35	0.24*	0.27	0.30	0.09	0.34	0.37
Andong	0.43**	0.27	0.29	0.11	0.35	0.41	0.24*	0.08	0.14	0.11	0.17	0.21
Seolmacheon	0.58**	0.22	0.24	0.31**	0.27	0.28	0.49**	0.19	0.24	0.27**	0.27	0.29
Average	0.42	0.20	0.22	0.17	0.27	0.30	0.29	0.17	0.21	0.09	0.26	0.29

* and ** indicates significance at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively.

Table 5 Statistics of AMSR-E RZSM for the NSIDC SWI and USDA RZSM products with in-situ data at 20cm depth.

Area (20 cm)	NSIDC SWI (m ³ /m ³)					USDA RZSM (m ³ /m ³)				
	Average	Stdev	R	Bias	RMSE	Average	Stdev	R	Bias	RMSE
Suwon	0.12	0.01	0.35**	-0.19	0.20	0.49	0.04	0.70**	0.17	0.18
Seosan	0.09	0.02	0.32**	-0.08	0.09	0.47	0.05	0.47**	0.30	0.31
Jeonju	0.14	0.02	0.72**	-0.11	0.11	0.59	0.08	0.79**	0.34	0.34
Cheorwon	0.13	0.00	0.68**	-0.08	0.08	0.61	0.06	0.69**	0.40	0.41
Chuncheon	0.13	0.01	0.66**	0.01	0.02	0.47	0.06	0.70**	0.34	0.35
Cheongju	0.13	0.01	0.16**	0.19	0.19	0.46	0.07	0.88**	0.14	0.15
Jinju	0.13	0.01	0.66**	0.02	0.02	0.44	0.05	0.82**	0.32	0.33
Andong	0.14	0.01	0.18**	-0.04	0.06	0.40	0.10	0.74**	0.22	0.24
Average	0.13	0.01	0.47	-0.04	0.10	0.49	0.06	0.72	0.28	0.29

* and ** indicates significance at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively.

Table 6

Comparison between (a) *in-situ* data at 10 cm depth and the rescaled ASCAT SSM products from May 1 to September 30.

Area	<i>In-situ</i> (m ³ /m ³)		<i>rescaled</i> ASCAT Surface Soil Moisture (m ³ /m ³)				
	Average	Stdev	Average	Stdev	R	Bias	RMSE
Suwon	0.21	0.03	0.19	0.07	0.64**	0.02	0.06
Seosan	0.13	0.05	0.14	0.08	0.62**	0.01	0.06
Jeonju	0.21	0.03	0.19	0.08	0.54**	-0.02	0.07
Cheorwon	0.21	0.04	0.30	0.05	0.51**	0.09	0.10
Chuncheon	0.12	0.03	0.34	0.06	0.48**	0.21	0.22
Cheongju	0.26	0.08	0.21	0.07	0.41**	-0.05	0.09
Jinju	0.11	0.05	0.20	0.07	0.44**	0.08	0.11
Andong	0.13	0.06	0.28	0.05	0.42**	0.15	0.16
Seolmacheon	0.22	0.05	0.25	0.06	0.70**	0.03	0.06
Average	0.18	0.05	0.23	0.07	0.53	0.06	0.10

* and ** indicates significance at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively.

Table 7

Comparison between *in-situ* data at 20 cm depth and the rescaled ASCAT SWI products (T=5) from May 1 to September 30.

Area	<i>In-situ</i> (m³/m³)		<i>rescaled ASCAT Soil Water Index</i> (m³/m³)				
	Average	Stdev	Average	Stdev	R	Bias	RMSE
Suwon	0.31	0.01	0.24	0.04	0.73 ^{**}	-0.08	0.08
Seosan	0.17	0.05	0.17	0.06	0.51 ^{**}	0.00	0.05
Jeonju	0.25	0.03	0.22	0.05	0.77 ^{**}	-0.03	0.04
Cheorwon	0.21	0.03	0.35	0.03	0.80 ^{**}	0.14	0.14
Chuncheon	0.14	0.02	0.35	0.03	0.85 ^{**}	0.21	0.21
Cheongju	0.32	0.04	0.24	0.04	0.80 ^{**}	-0.07	0.08
Jinju	0.12	0.02	0.23	0.05	0.84 ^{**}	0.12	0.12
Andong	0.18	0.05	0.32	0.03	0.67 ^{**}	0.12	0.13
Average	0.21	0.03	0.27	0.04	0.75	0.06	0.11

* and ** indicates significance at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively.

Table 8

Correlations of root zone soil moisture between ground based measurements (10, 20, 30, and 50 cm) and USDA AMSR-E and ASCAT satellite products.

	USDA AMSR-E	ASCAT soil water index				
		T=1	T=5	T=10	T=15	T=20
<i>10 cm</i>						
Suwon	0.62**	0.81**	0.66**	0.58**	0.53**	0.49**
Seosan	0.50**	0.70**	0.53**	0.44**	0.38**	0.34**
Jeonju	0.82**	0.75**	0.82**	0.80**	0.76**	0.72**
Cheorwon	0.67**	0.79**	0.77**	0.71**	0.66**	0.63**
Chuncheon	0.73**	0.74**	0.84**	0.85**	0.83**	0.81**
Cheongju	0.83**	0.68**	0.82**	0.84**	0.83**	0.81**
Jinju	0.79**	0.82**	0.81**	0.74**	0.70**	0.66**
Andong	0.71**	0.59**	0.65**	0.62**	0.60**	0.58**
Seolmacheon	0.61**	0.86**	0.83**	0.72**	0.66**	0.62**
Average	0.70	0.75	0.75	0.70	0.66	0.63
<i>20 cm</i>						
Suwon	0.70**	0.81**	0.73**	0.63**	0.57**	0.53**
Seosan	0.47**	0.66**	0.51**	0.43**	0.38**	0.33**
Jeonju	0.79**	0.71**	0.77**	0.75**	0.71**	0.67**
Cheorwon	0.69**	0.76**	0.80**	0.76**	0.72**	0.69**
Chuncheon	0.70**	0.72**	0.85**	0.87**	0.86**	0.85**
Cheongju	0.88**	0.62**	0.80**	0.84**	0.83**	0.81**
Jinju	0.82**	0.77**	0.84**	0.82**	0.79**	0.77**
Andong	0.74**	0.58**	0.67**	0.66**	0.65**	0.64**
Average	0.72	0.70	0.75	0.72	0.69	0.66
<i>30 cm</i>						
Suwon	0.70**	0.82**	0.70**	0.58**	0.52**	0.47**
Seosan	0.37**	0.53**	0.36**	0.30**	0.27**	0.24**
Jeonju	0.64**	0.68**	0.65**	0.61**	0.56**	0.52**
Cheorwon	0.63**	0.62**	0.77**	0.76**	0.74**	0.72**
Chuncheon	0.51**	0.52**	0.61**	0.57**	0.53**	0.49**
Cheongju	0.80**	0.35**	0.64**	0.78**	0.83**	0.84**
Jinju	0.80**	0.71**	0.80**	0.79**	0.77**	0.75**
Andong	0.68**	0.51**	0.58**	0.60**	0.62**	0.63**
Total	0.64	0.59	0.64	0.62	0.61	0.58
<i>50 cm</i>						
Suwon	0.61**	0.64**	0.49**	0.37**	0.31**	0.27**
Seosan	0.45**	0.59**	0.40**	0.32**	0.28**	0.23**
Jeonju	-0.23	-0.05	-0.11	-0.12	-0.09	-0.06
Cheorwon	0.58**	0.58**	0.74**	0.76**	0.76**	0.75**
Chuncheon	0.60**	0.53**	0.74**	0.81**	0.83**	0.83**
Cheongju	0.78**	0.69**	0.79**	0.81**	0.81**	0.80**
Jinju	0.71**	0.69**	0.71**	0.69**	0.66**	0.64**
Andong	0.66**	0.37**	0.49**	0.57**	0.64**	0.67**
Average	0.52	0.51	0.53	0.53	0.53	0.52

* and ** indicates significance at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively.

Figure 1. Korea Meteorological Organization (KMO) and Seolmacheon validation sites in Korean peninsula (each star mark indicates location of the sites).

Figure 2. Temporal patterns of (a) surface soil moisture (SSM) and (b) root zone soil moisture (RZSM) through AMSR-E, ASCAT and in situ soil moisture from 1 May to 30 September 2010 at the nine sites in northeast Asia.

Figure 3. Comparison results of surface soil moisture (SSM) retrievals of R and RMSE values at nine sites.

Figure 4. Comparison results of root zone soil moisture (RZSM) retrievals of R and RMSE values at eight sites.

Figure 5. Taylor diagram of surface soil moisture products (SSM) illustrating the statistics of comparison between according to three renormalizing methods, (a) original, (b) linear regression correction (REG), (c) average - standard-deviation ($\mu - \sigma$) and (d) cumulative distribution function (CDF).

Figure 6. Taylor diagram of root zone soil moisture products (RZSM) illustrating the statistics of comparison between according to three renormalizing methods, (a) original, (b) linear regression correction (REG), (c) average - standard-deviation ($\mu - \sigma$) and (d) cumulative distribution function (CDF).

Fig.1

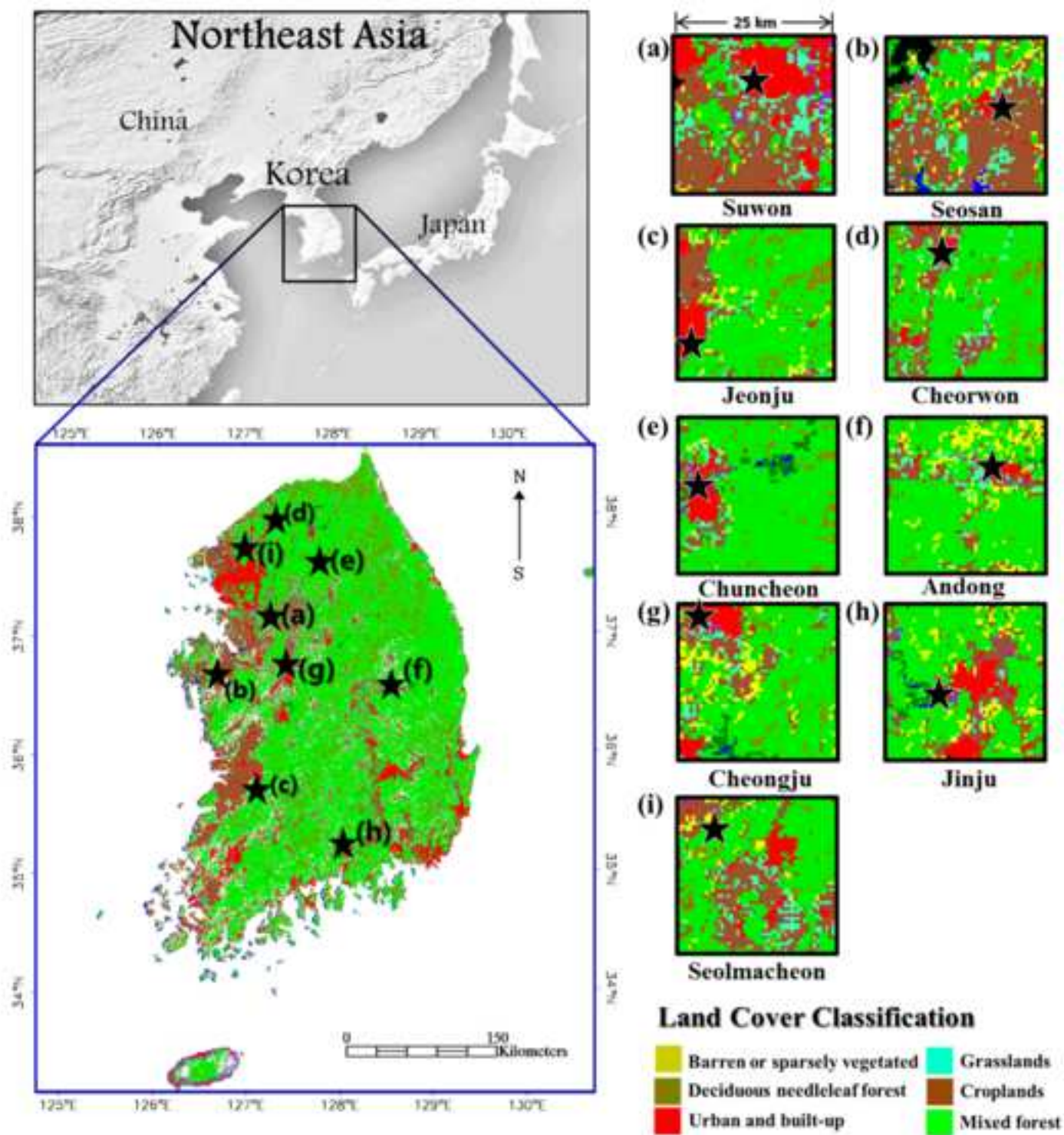


Fig.2a

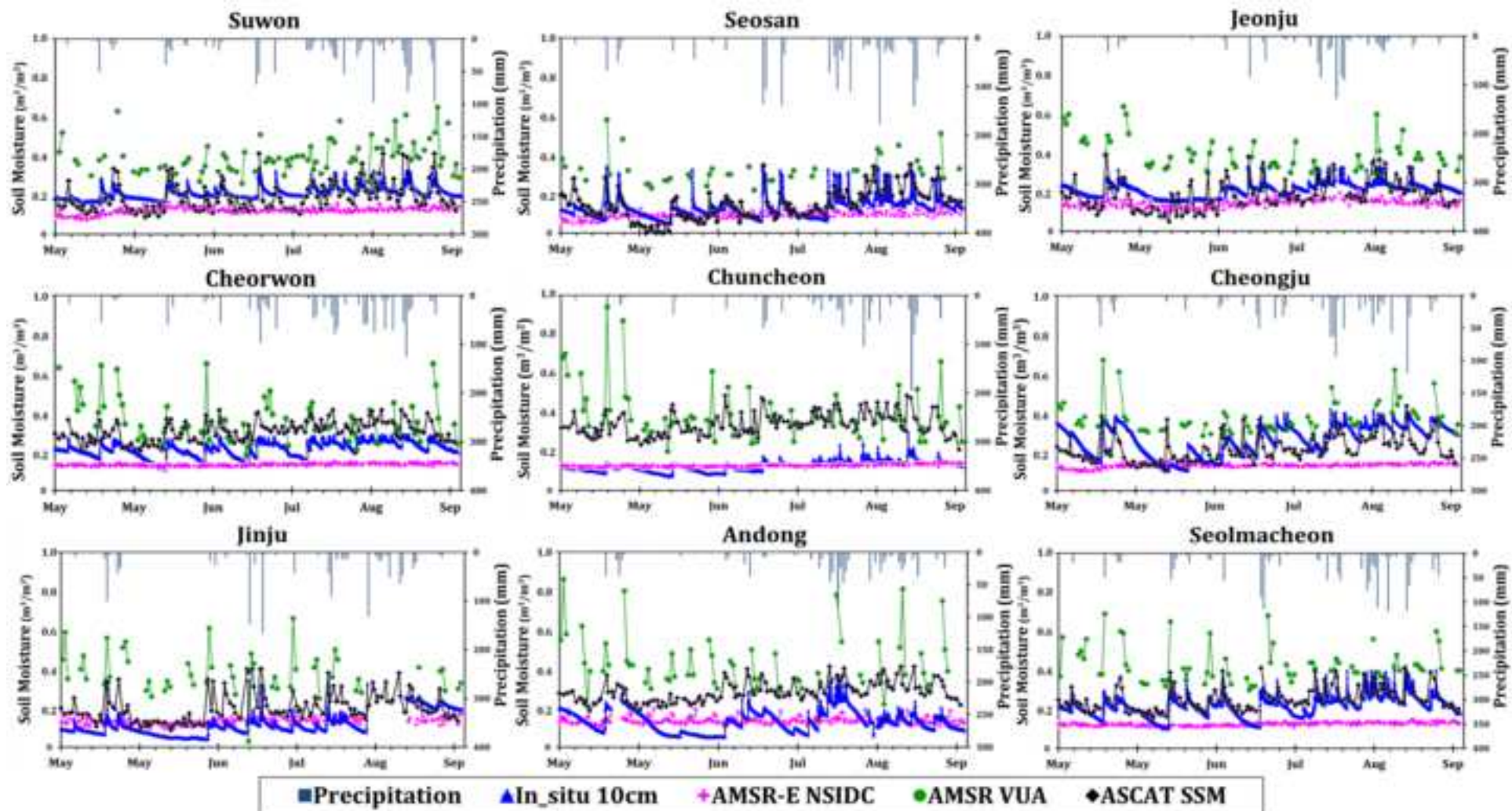


Fig.2b

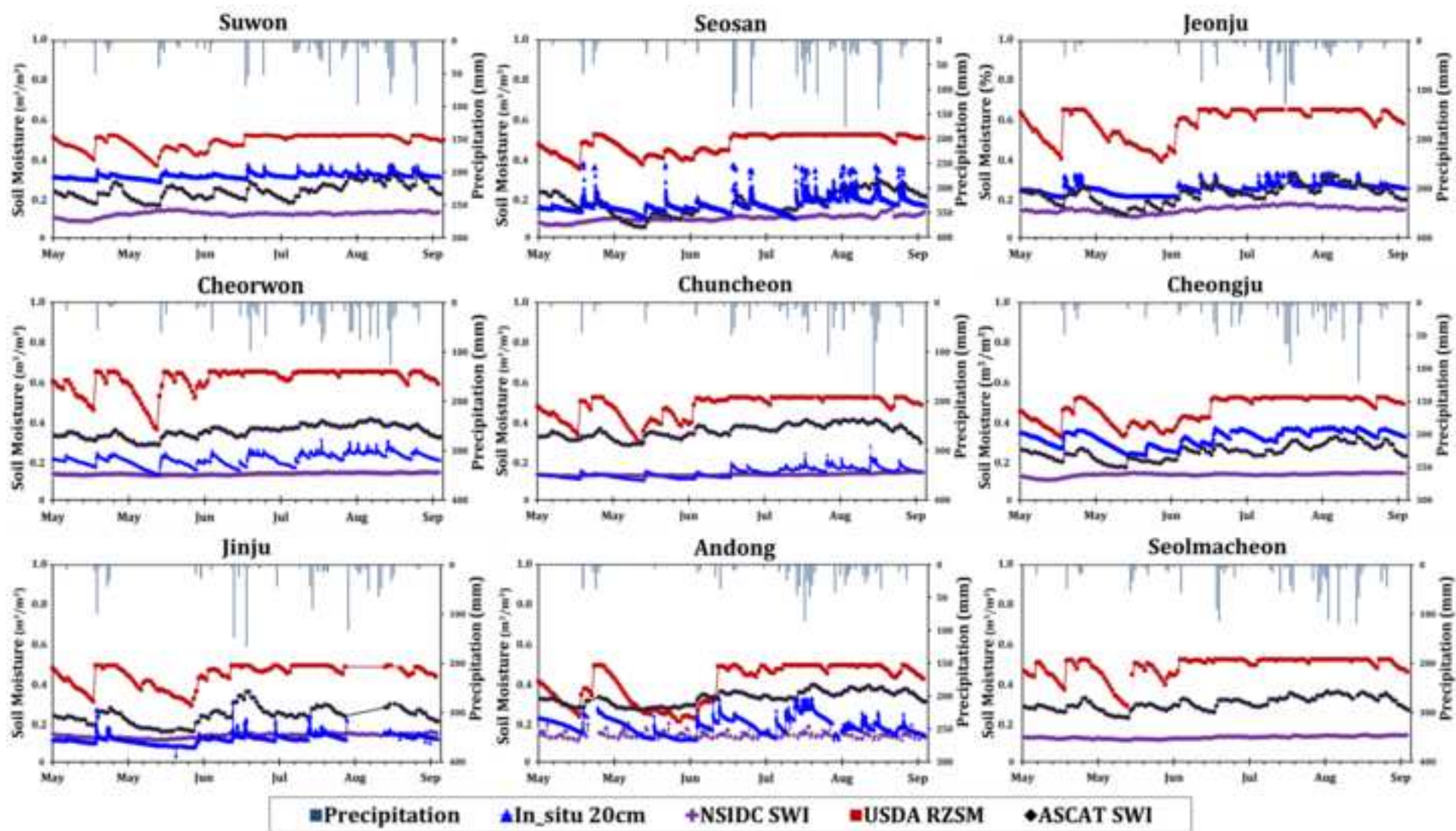


Fig.3a

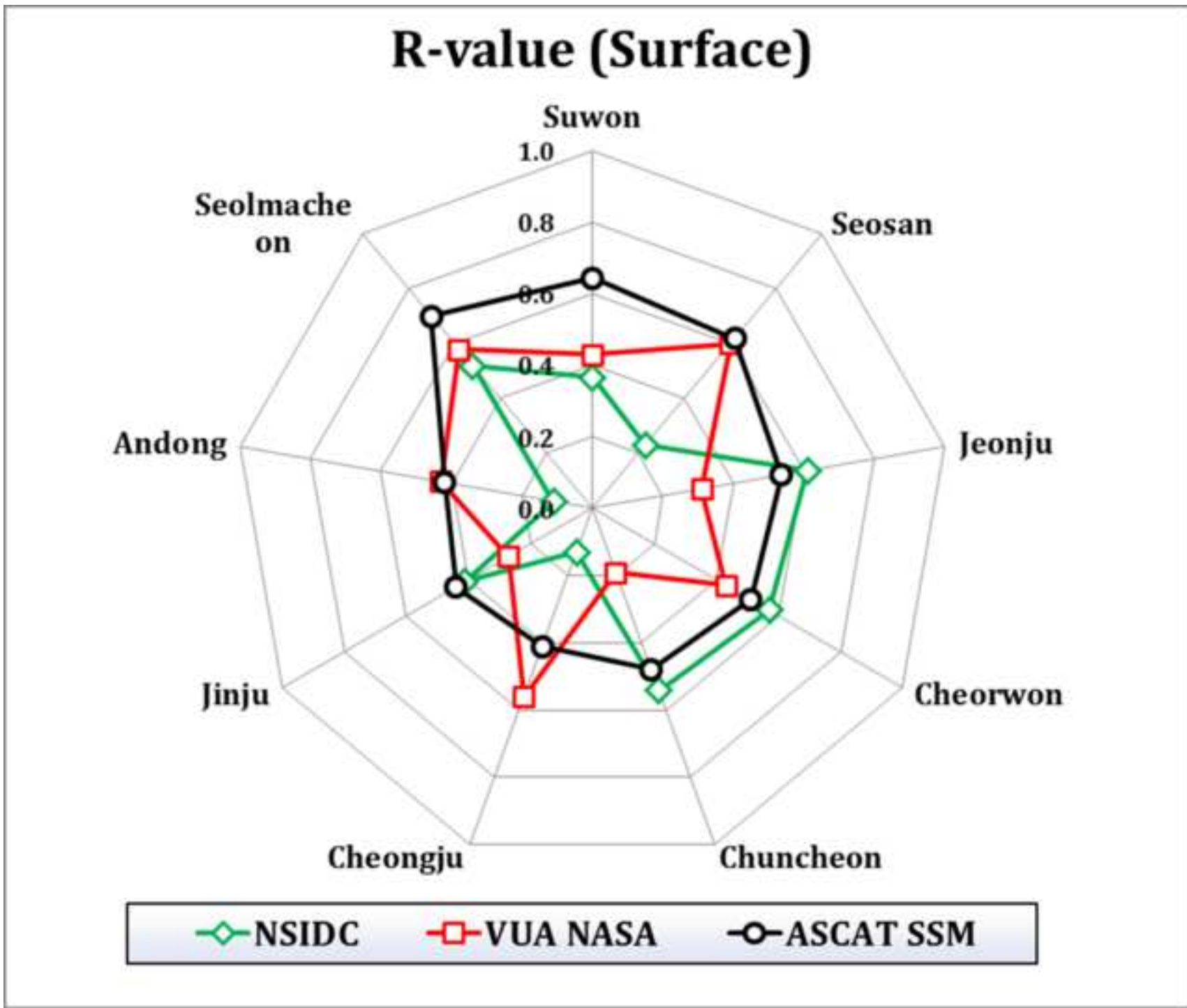


Fig.3b

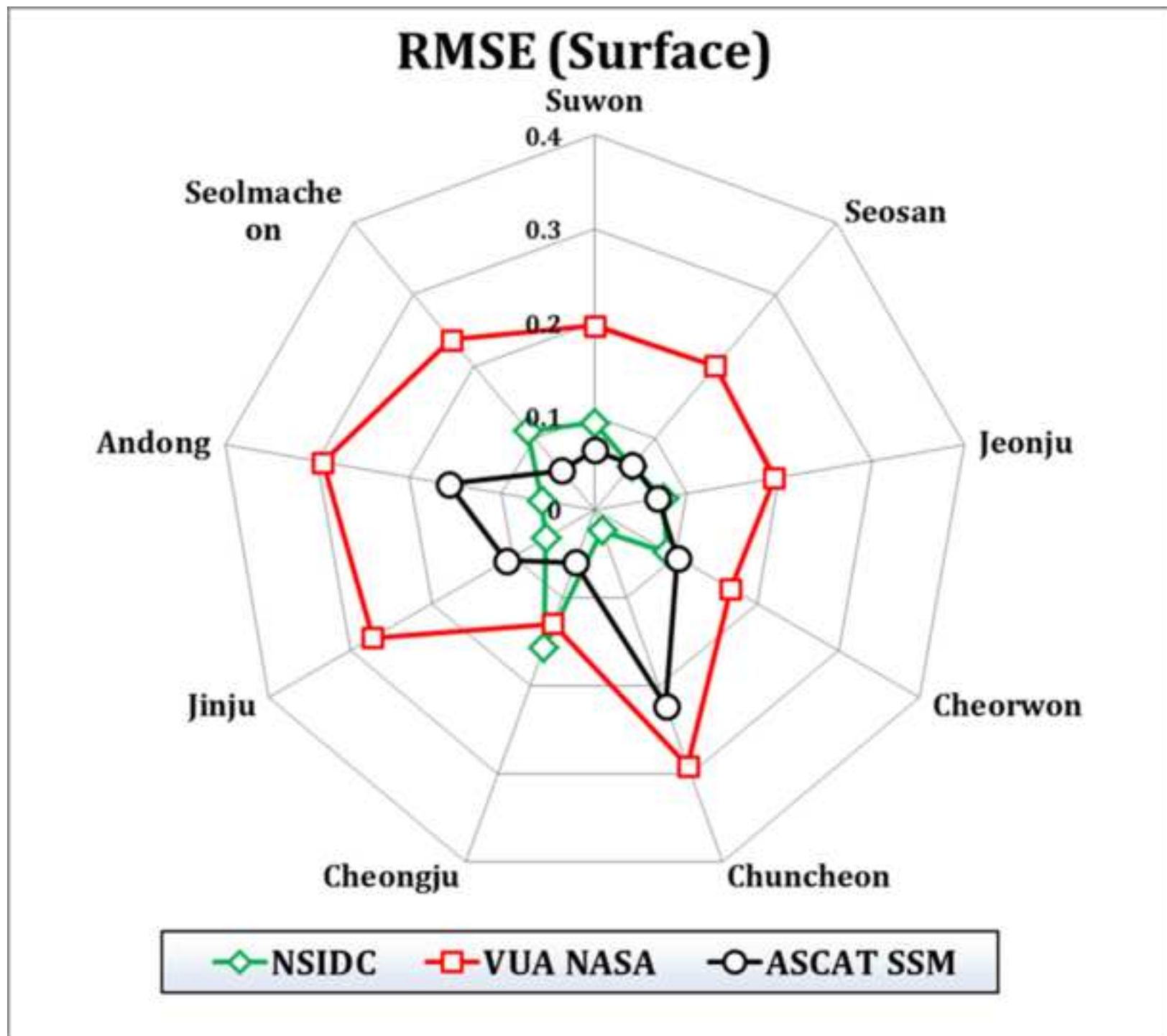


Fig.4a

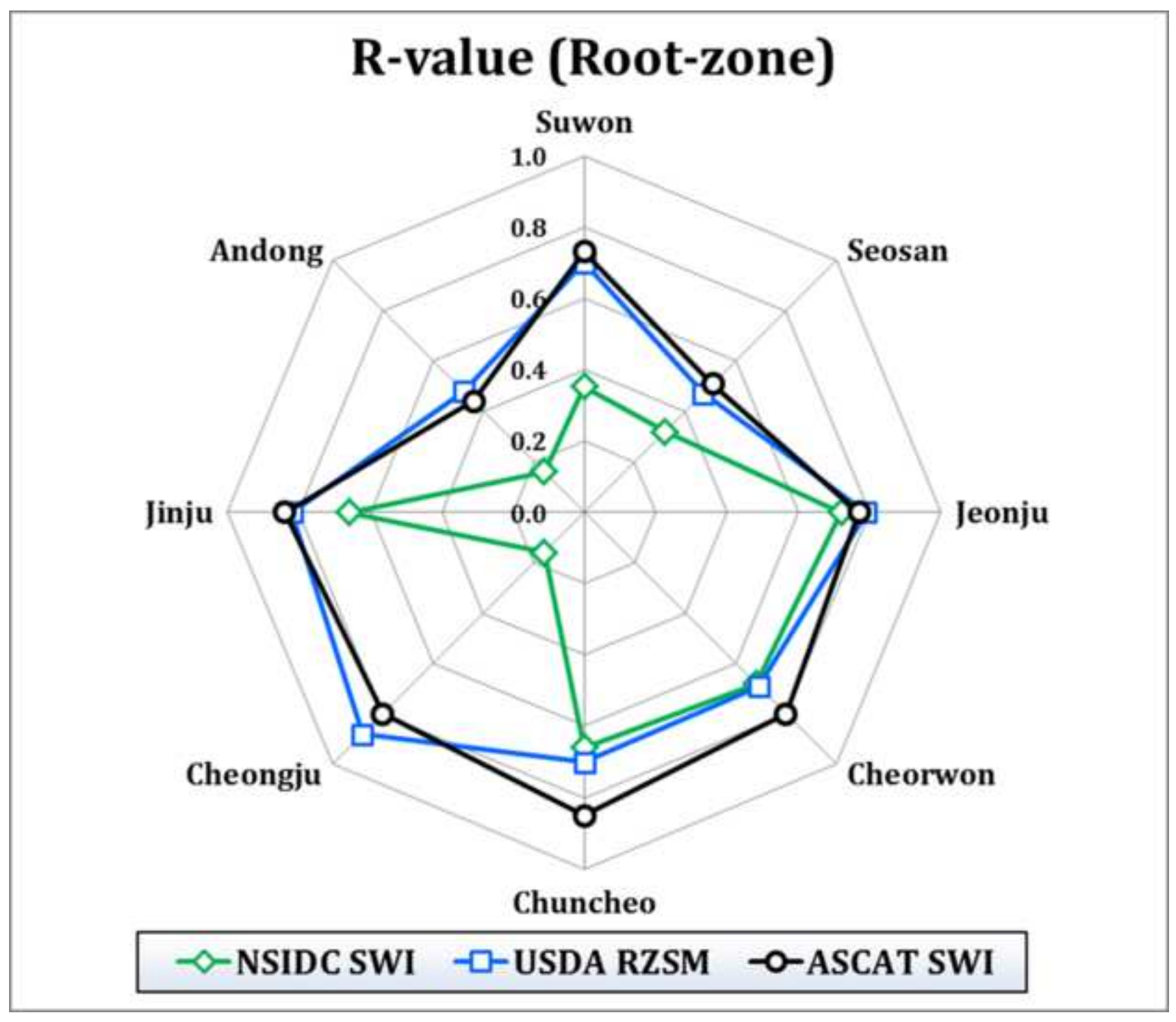


Fig.4b

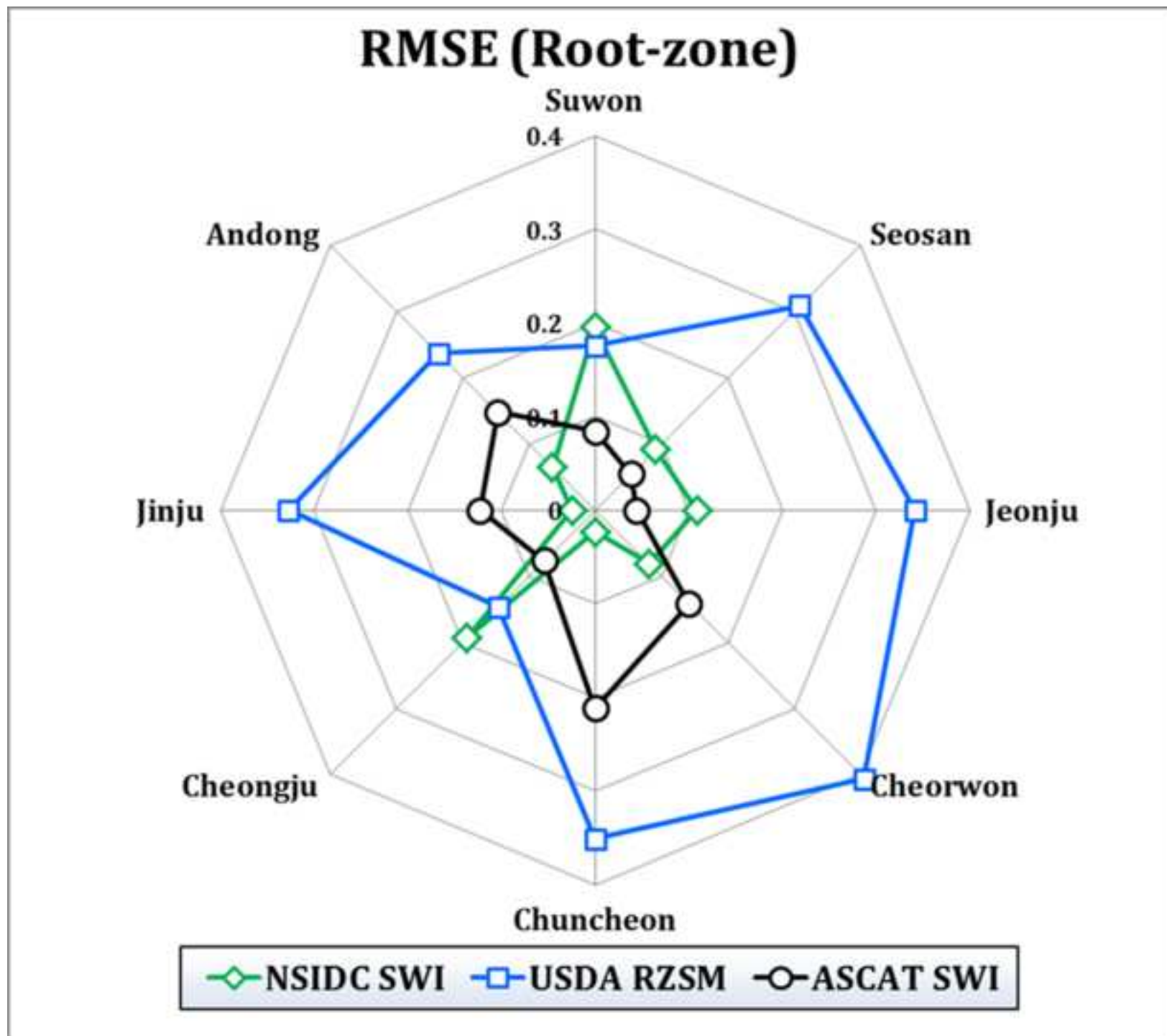


Fig.5a

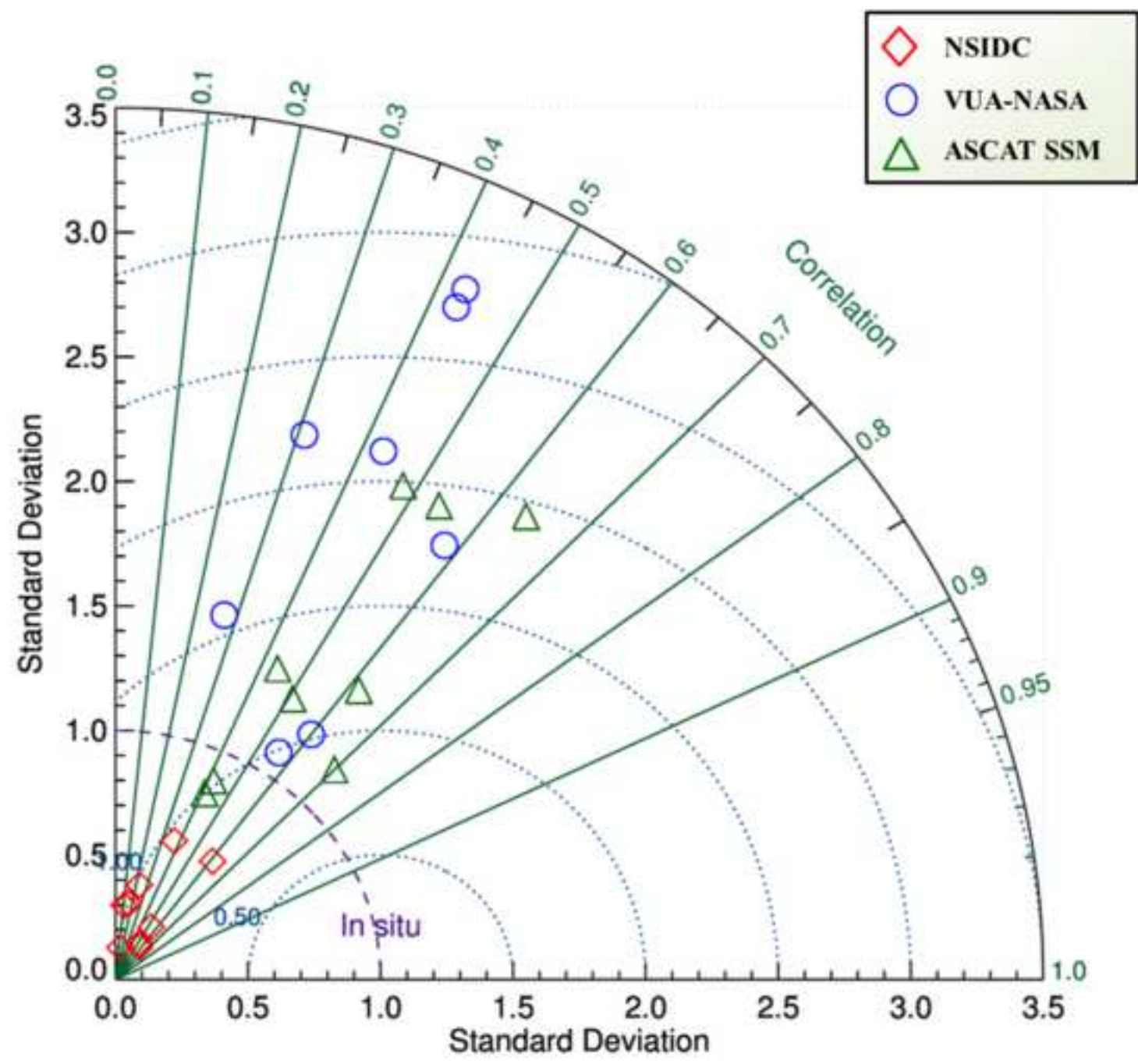


Fig.5b

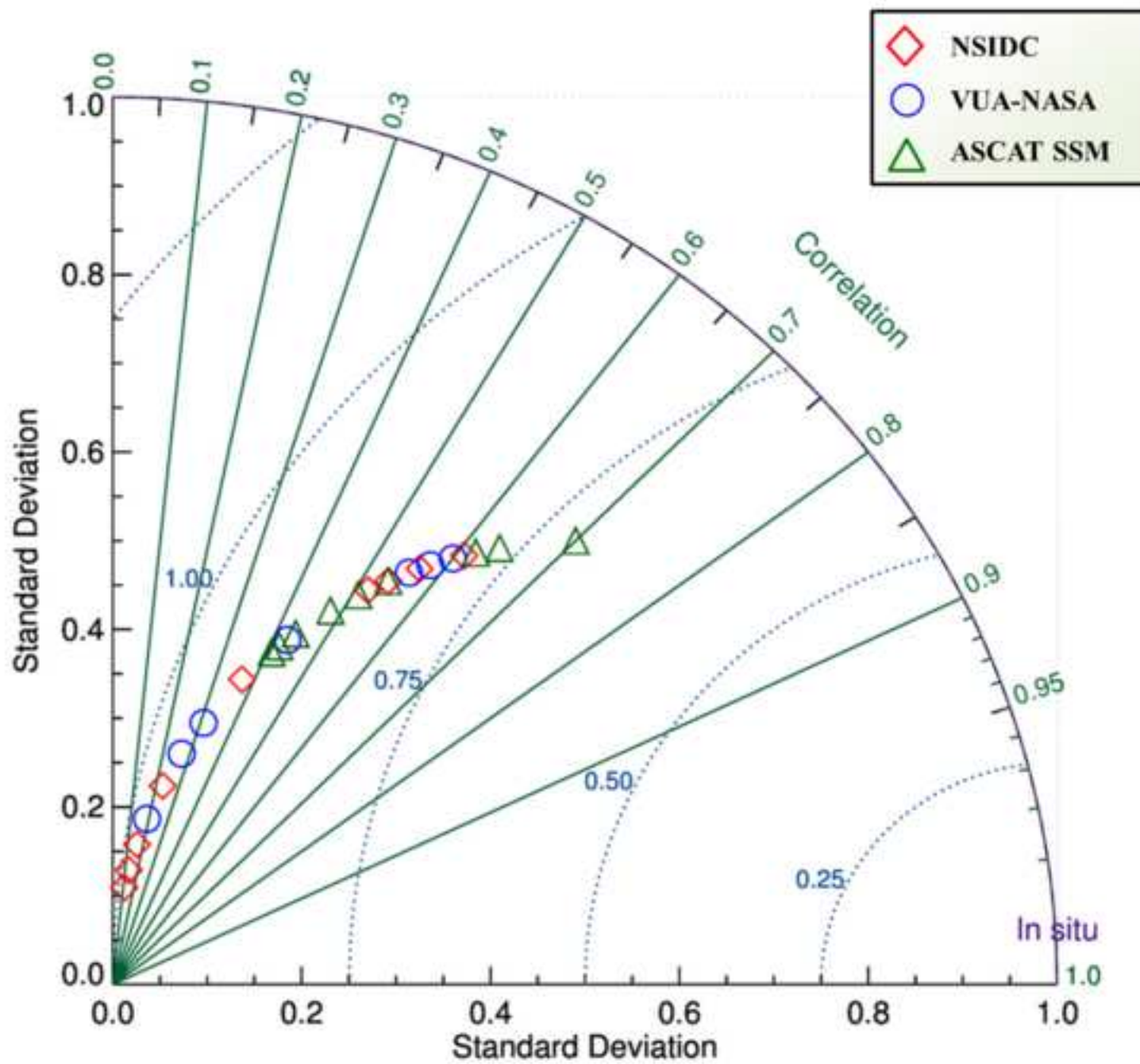


Fig.5c

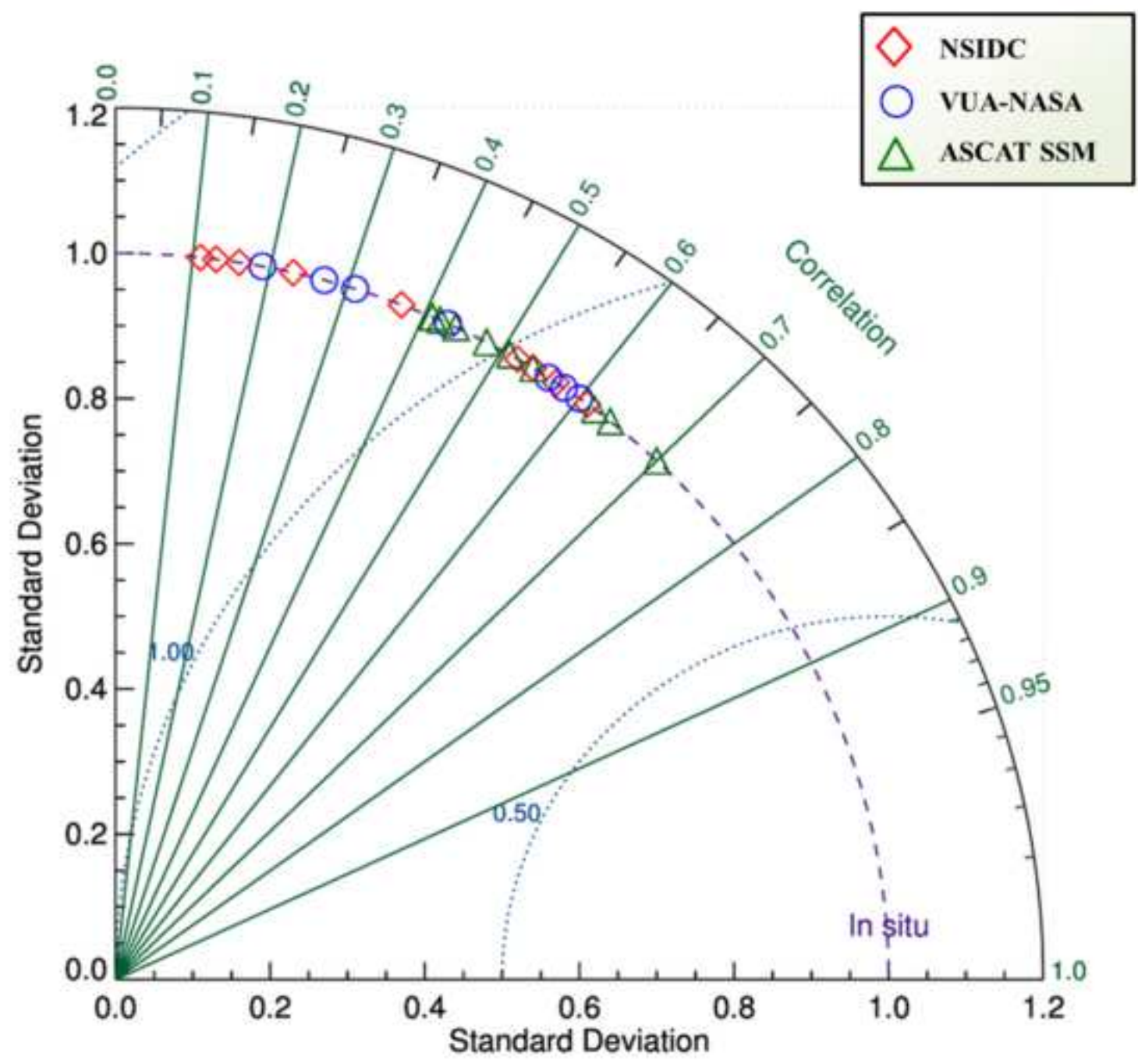


Fig.5d

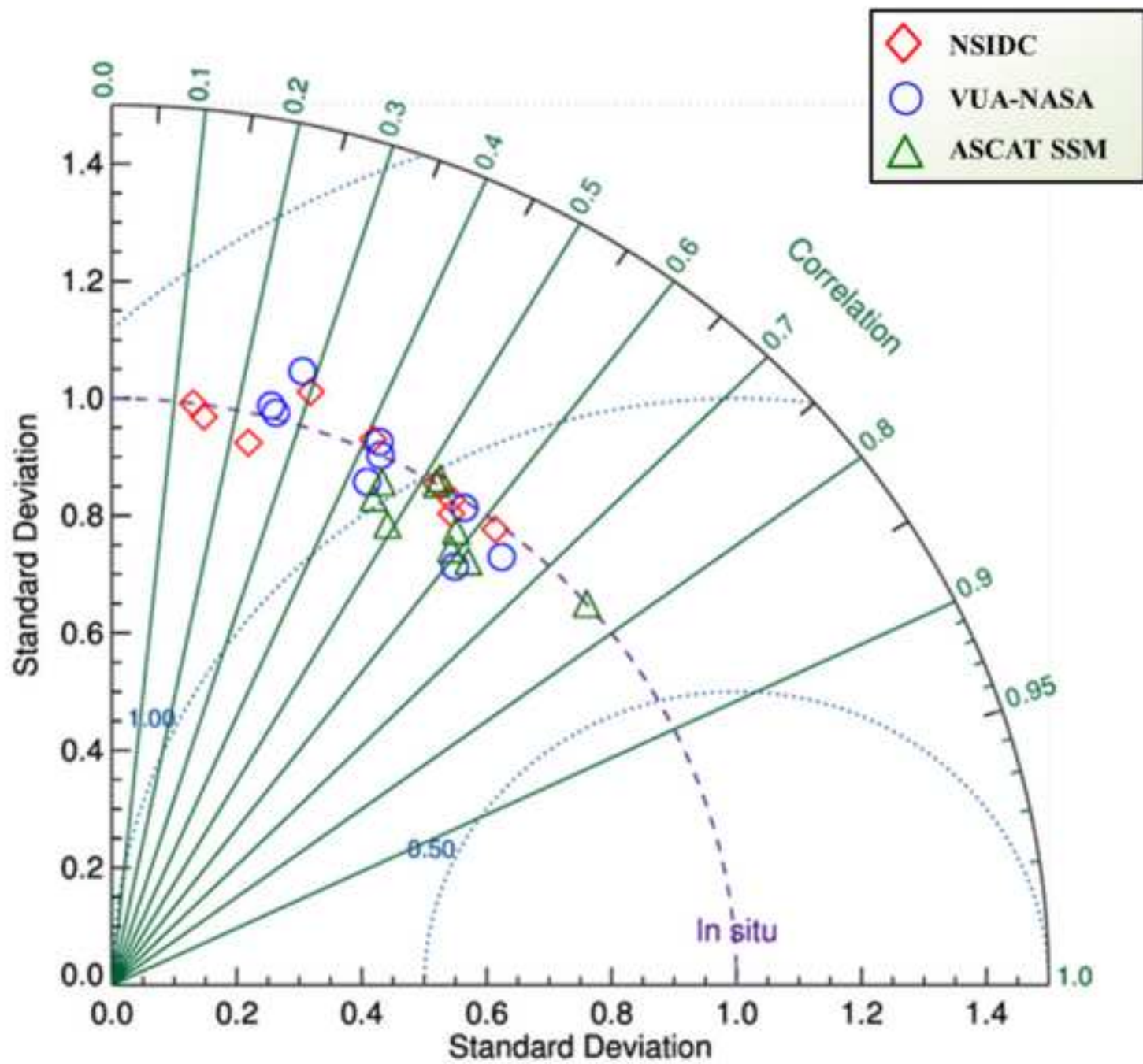


Fig.6a

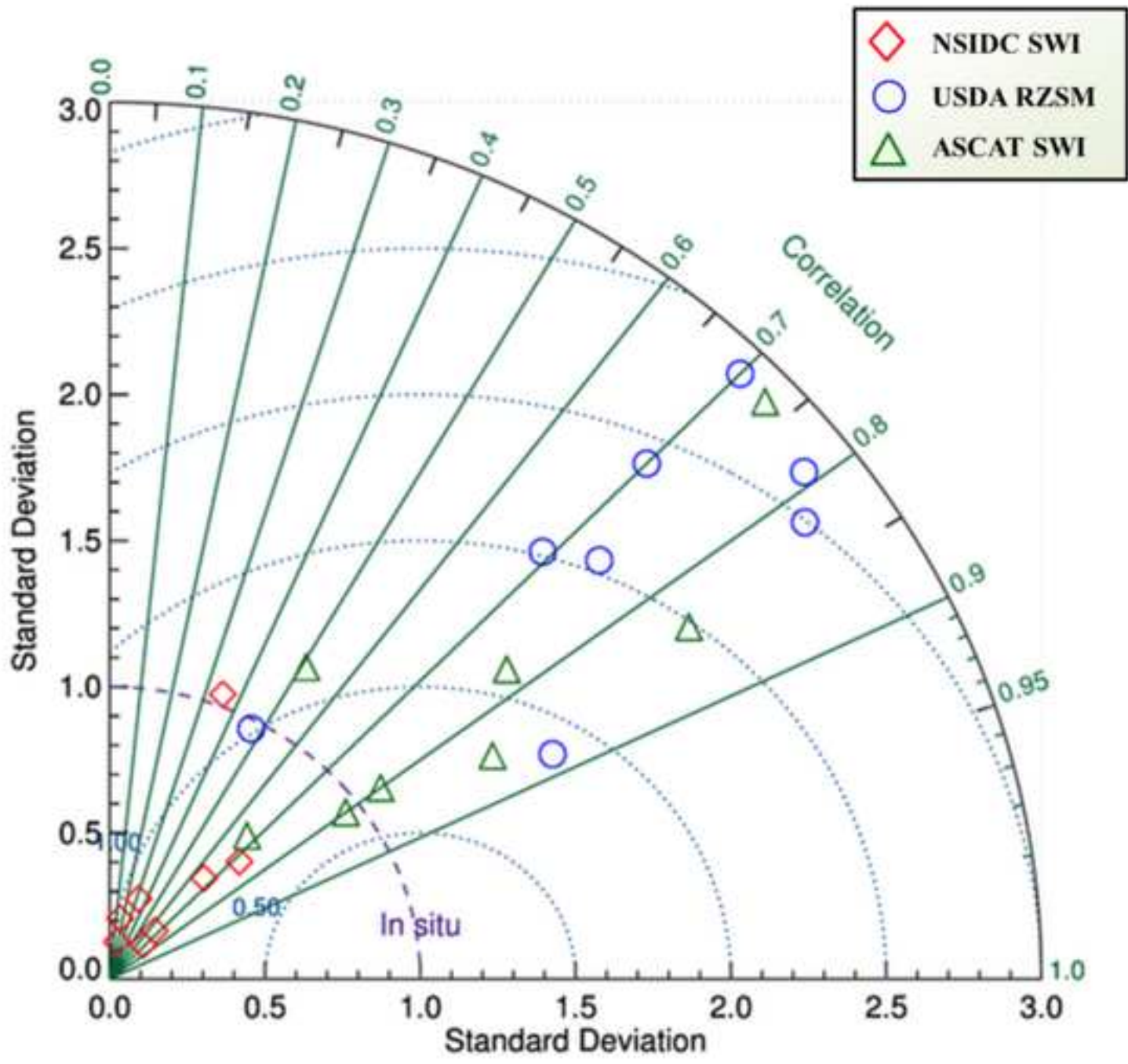


Fig.6b

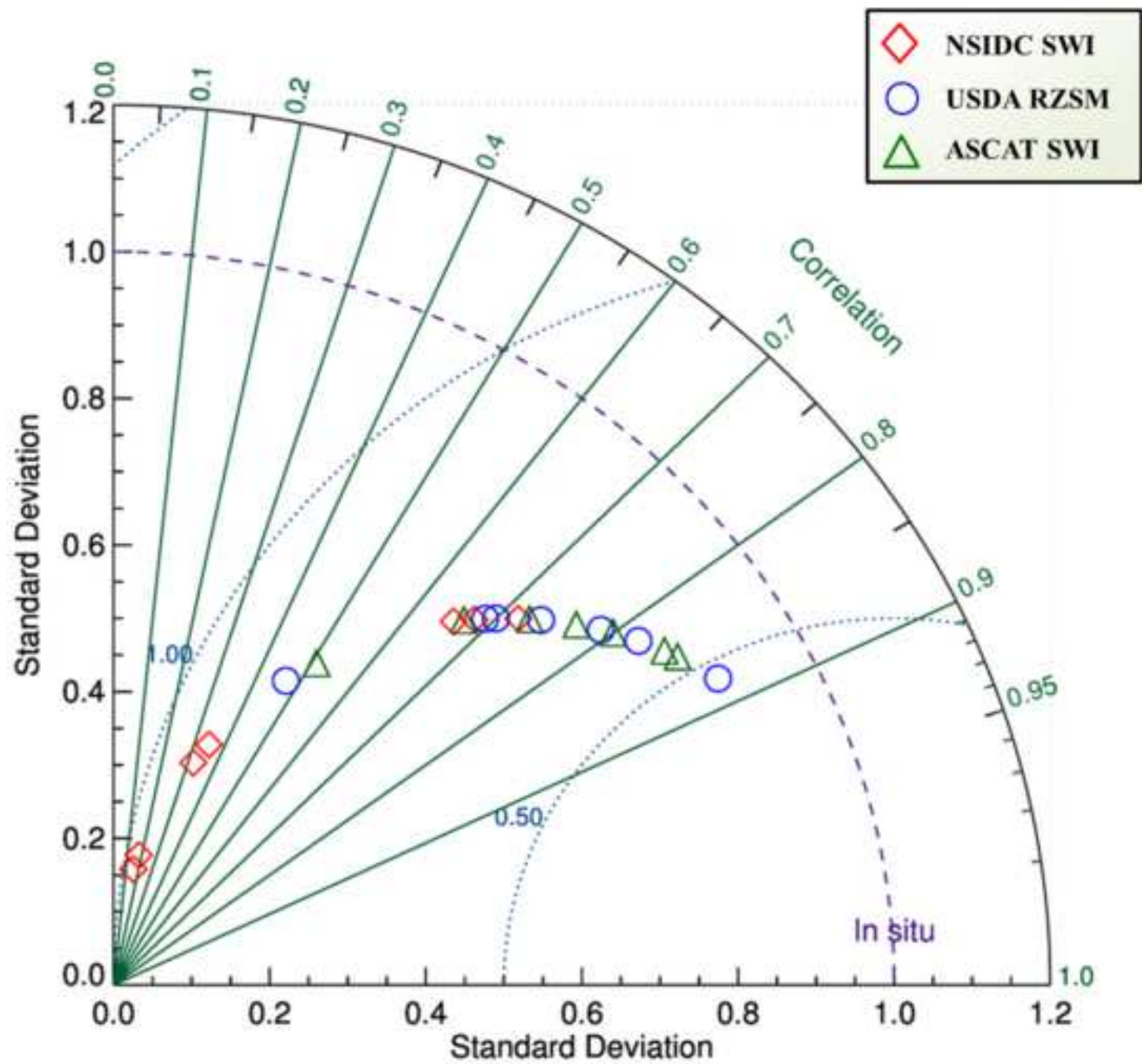


Fig.6c

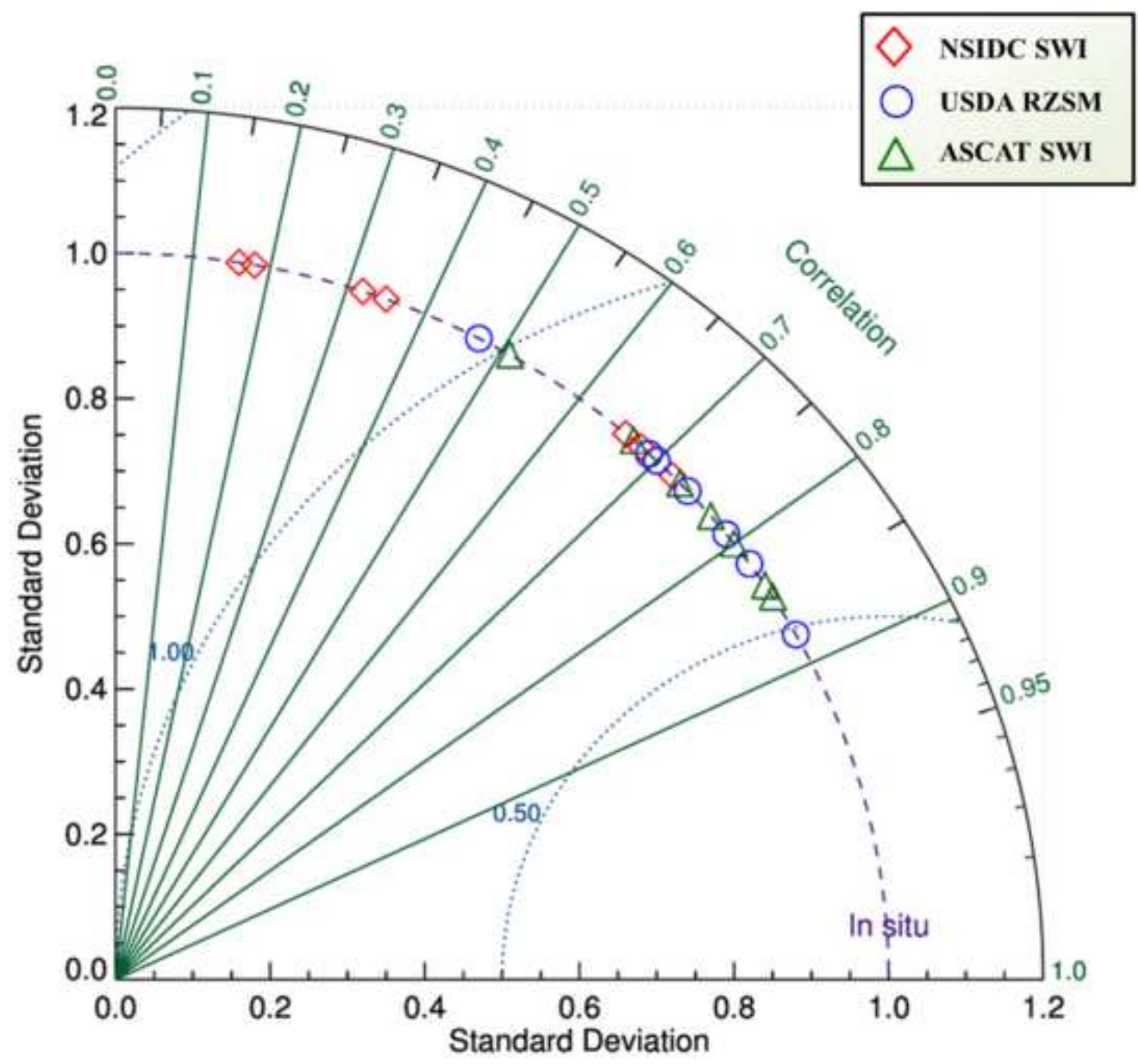


Fig.6d

