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# Data Assimilation to extract Soil Moisture Information from SMAP Observations

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**Abstract:** This study compares different methods to extract soil moisture information through the assimilation of Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) observations. Neural Network (NN) and physically-based SMAP soil moisture retrievals were assimilated into the NASA Catchment model over the contiguous United States for April 2015 to March 2017. By construction, the NN retrievals are consistent with the global climatology of the Catchment model soil moisture. Assimilating the NN retrievals without further bias correction improved the surface and root zone correlations against in situ measurements from 14 SMAP core validation sites (CVS) by 0.12 and 0.16, respectively, over the model-only skill and reduced the surface and root zone ubRMSE by  $0.005 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  and  $0.001 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ , respectively. The assimilation reduced the average absolute surface bias against the CVS measurements by  $0.009 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ , but increased the root zone bias by  $0.014 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ . Assimilating the NN retrievals after a localized bias correction yielded slightly lower surface correlation and ubRMSE improvements, but generally the skill differences were small. The assimilation of the physically-based SMAP Level-2 passive soil moisture retrievals using a global bias correction yielded similar skill improvements, as did the direct assimilation of locally bias-corrected SMAP brightness temperatures within the SMAP Level-4 soil moisture algorithm. The results show that global bias correction methods may be able to extract more independent information from SMAP observations compared to local bias correction methods, but without accurate quality control and observation error characterization they are also more vulnerable to adverse effects from retrieval errors related to uncertainties in the retrieval inputs and algorithm. Furthermore, the results show that using global bias correction approaches without a simultaneous re-calibration of the land model processes can lead to a skill degradation in other land surface variables.

**Keywords:** data assimilation; SMAP soil moisture; neural networks; bias correction

## 23 1. Introduction

24 The importance of soil moisture in hydrological and land surface boundary layer processes has  
25 long been recognized (e.g. *Seneviratne et al.* [1], *Bateni and Entekhabi* [2], *Assouline* [3], *Jung et al.* [4]), and  
26 the need for high quality soil moisture observations to enhance our understanding of these processes  
27 has been identified [5]. Direct observations of soil moisture can be obtained with in situ sensors, but  
28 these are constrained to point-scale measurements at a limited number of locations.

29 In contrast, satellite instruments are able to observe soil moisture globally with a local revisit  
30 time of 2-3 days. In particular L-band (1.4 GHz) microwave radiometers have a high soil moisture  
31 sensitivity and are able to penetrate the top 5 cm of the soil in sparsely to moderately vegetated areas  
32 [6,7]. Two passive L-band satellite missions have been launched in recent years, the European Space  
33 Agency's Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) mission in 2009 [8] and the National Aeronautics  
34 and Space Administration's Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) mission in 2015 [7]. Soil moisture  
35 retrieval products from SMOS and SMAP have been shown to have high skill in capturing soil moisture  
36 variations [9,10], however, many applications require observations of the complete soil moisture profile  
37 and with finer spatial and temporal resolutions than those of SMOS and SMAP.

38 Data assimilation (DA) can be used to interpolate and extrapolate the satellite observations by  
39 merging them with information from a dynamic land surface model. This generates higher horizontal  
40 resolution estimates of the full soil moisture profile with complete spatio-temporal coverage and often  
41 with a higher skill than that of the model or satellite observations alone [11–18].

42 The specific soil moisture skill improvements that can be obtained from an assimilation depend  
43 on the quality of the assimilated observations, the amount of complementary/novel information they  
44 provide, and the efficiency with which the DA system is able to extract this information. The latter is  
45 contingent on the specifics of the DA system, including (but not limited to) the type of observation  
46 assimilated (raw brightness temperatures (Tb) vs. soil moisture retrievals), the assimilation algorithm,  
47 the observation and model error estimates, and the bias correction scheme. Ultimately, the optimal  
48 choice for each factor and their combination depends on the specific application and a simultaneous  
49 comparison of all possible options is not trivial. Nevertheless, several studies have explored options  
50 for the individual factors in the context of DA for soil moisture estimation. For example, *De Lannoy*  
51 *and Reichle* [17] compared the assimilation of SMOS soil moisture retrievals against the assimilation  
52 of (two versions of) SMOS Tbs and showed that in each case different information was extracted  
53 from the observations resulting in locally different soil moisture estimates. *Crow and Van den Berg* [19]  
54 investigated the use of an independent triple collocation (TC) analysis to generate improved estimates  
55 of the model and observation errors. Finally, *Kumar et al.* [20] explored two methods to correct the  
56 observation bias, while *De Lannoy et al.* [21] investigated methods to correct the model forecast bias.

57 One key assumption for most DA algorithms, including the Ensemble Kalman Filter used here,  
58 is that all errors are purely random and thus that the observations are unbiased with respect to the  
59 model (e.g. *Kalnay* [22] Chapter 5). Realistically, biases in the model forcing data, differences in the soil  
60 texture or biases in the Tbs will generally result in biases between the observations and the model. To  
61 comply with the assumption of unbiased observations, DA systems typically rescale the observations  
62 to the model climatology (generally referred to as 'bias correction'). One common approach is to  
63 match the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the observations to that of the model estimates  
64 at each location [23,24]. Alternatively, *Reichle et al.* [18] rescale the assimilated Tbs such that their  
65 seasonally-varying climatology matches that of the simulated Tbs in each location. While such localized  
66 bias correction techniques fulfill the requirements of the DA system, they can considerably alter the  
67 spatial and temporal patterns of the observation mean and variability, thereby removing some of the  
68 independent information provided by the satellite instruments. With the availability of high quality  
69 soil moisture retrievals from SMOS and SMAP, it is desirable to retain as much of the independent  
70 satellite information as possible.

71 Our objective in this study is to compare different methods to rescale the observations and identify  
72 which approach results in the most efficient assimilation of SMAP soil moisture observations into

73 the NASA Catchment land surface model (CLSM). Specifically, we are interested in the potential of  
74 assimilating Neural Network (NN) based retrievals to reduce the need for further bias correction.  
75 Recently, *Kolassa et al.* [25] trained a NN on SMAP Tbs and CLSM soil moisture estimates to generate  
76 soil moisture retrievals that are, by design, consistent with the global climatology of the model. Here,  
77 we assimilate these SMAP NN retrievals without further bias correction and compare the skill of the  
78 resulting soil moisture estimates against (1) an assimilation of the SMAP NN retrievals using a standard  
79 localized rescaling and (2) an assimilation of the SMAP Level-2 passive soil moisture retrievals using a  
80 global rescaling. We additionally compare the skill of the above soil moisture assimilation estimates  
81 against that of the SMAP Level-4 soil moisture product, which is based on the assimilation of locally  
82 rescaled Tb observations.

## 83 2. Datasets

### 84 2.1. SMAP Soil Moisture Products

85 SMAP was launched in January 2015 and is equipped with an L-band (1.4 GHz) radiometer that  
86 observes horizontal and vertical polarization Tbs as well as the 3rd and 4th Stokes' parameters. Its  
87 sun-synchronous, near-circular, polar orbit has equator crossings at 6 AM and 6 PM local time and a  
88 revisit time of 2-3 days [7]. Level 1 Tbs have been collected since 31 March, 2015 and are provided on  
89 the 36-km resolution Equal-Area Scalable Earth version 2 (EASEv2) grid [26] as daily half-orbit files.  
90 Here we use the SMAP NN soil moisture retrieval product [25], the official SMAP Level-2 passive soil  
91 moisture retrieval product [10], and the SMAP Level 4 soil moisture analysis [18].

#### 92 2.1.1. SMAP Neural Network Retrieval Product (SMAP NN)

93 The details of the SMAP NN retrieval algorithm and product are discussed in *Kolassa et al.* [25]. In  
94 this subsection, we briefly summarize the key aspects, following some of their text. The SMAP NN  
95 product uses a statistical NN retrieval algorithm to compute surface soil moisture estimates for the  
96 2-year period from April 2015 to March 2017. The data are provided with a 2-3 day resolution and  
97 posted on the 36-km resolution EASEv2 grid. The inputs to the retrieval algorithm are brightness  
98 temperatures and Stokes' parameters from the SMAP Level-1C product [27], surface-layer soil  
99 temperature estimates from a CLSM simulation (section 3.1), and vegetation water content (VWC)  
100 estimated empirically from a MODIS-based NDVI climatology. Only observations from the morning  
101 (6 AM) overpass are used in order to minimize observation errors due to Faraday rotation and the  
102 difference between the soil and canopy temperatures [7,28]. Soil moisture estimates are computed  
103 for times and locations where the soil is unfrozen (GEOS-5 surface temperature is higher than 1°C),  
104 the VWC is less than 5 kg m<sup>-2</sup>, and the water fraction of the grid cell is less than 5% according to the  
105 GEOS-5 land mask.

106 Since the NN algorithm is calibrated using CLSM surface soil moisture estimates as the target  
107 data, the resulting SMAP NN soil moisture estimates are consistent with the global CLSM climatology,  
108 that is, the retrievals match the *global* mean, variability and higher moments of the model estimates.  
109 The spatial and temporal patterns of the retrieval product, however, are driven by the satellite input  
110 observations (e.g. *Jimenez et al.* [29]). The retrieval errors are estimated through a TC analysis using  
111 surface soil moisture retrievals from the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 (AMSR2; [30])  
112 and the Advanced Scatterometer (ASCAT; *Wagner et al.* [31]) as additional inputs [25]. Based on the  
113 TC results, the observation error standard deviations for the assimilation are specified as a spatially  
114 varying, temporally static error standard deviation map with a global mean value of 0.020 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>. For  
115 the assimilation experiment with localized bias correction (section 3.2), the observation error standard  
116 deviations are rescaled using the ratio of the local (grid cell) model and retrieval soil moisture time  
117 series standard deviations. The purpose of this local rescaling is to preserve the relative magnitude  
118 of the observations and their errors before and after the local CDF-matching, which matches the  
119 observation mean and standard deviation to those of the model.

### 120 2.1.2. SMAP Level-2 Passive Retrieval Product (SMAP L2P)

121 The SMAP Level-2 Passive (L2P) soil moisture estimates are computed from the SMAP radiometer  
122 Level-1C Tbs using the physically-based “tau-omega” model [32]. The ancillary input data include  
123 surface temperature estimates provided by the quasi-operational GEOS-5 Forward Processing system  
124 [33] with a 0.25 ° resolution and VWC estimated from a MODIS-based NDVI climatology using an  
125 empirical relationship established from prior observations. No retrieval is performed for frozen soil  
126 conditions (fraction of frozen soil based on GEOS-5 surface temperature larger than 5%) and soil  
127 moisture estimates are flagged as ‘not recommended’ for dense vegetation ( $VWC > 5 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ) [28].  
128 The soil moisture estimates are provided as daily half-orbit files on the 36-km resolution EASE v2 grid  
129 that is also used for the SMAP NN retrieval product.

130 Here, we used version 4 of the SMAP L2P ‘baseline’ retrieval product that is based on SMAP  
131 vertical polarization Tbs [34]. We assimilated only data points from the morning (6 AM) overpasses  
132 and for which the retrieval quality flag was set to ‘recommended’ (indicating unfrozen soils and a  
133 VWC below  $5 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ). Based on a TC analysis [25], the observation error standard deviations for  
134 the assimilation were specified as a static error standard deviation map with a global mean of 0.030  
135  $\text{m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ . For the assimilation of the L2P retrievals with global bias correction, the error standard  
136 deviations were rescaled using the ratio of the global model and observation standard deviations  
137 (computed over all times and locations).

### 138 2.1.3. SMAP Level-4 Soil Moisture Analysis (SMAP L4\_SM)

139 The SMAP L4\_SM data product is generated by assimilating SMAP Level-1C Tb anomalies into  
140 the CLSM using the DA system discussed in section 3.1 combined with a tau-omega radiative transfer  
141 model [18,35]. SMAP Tbs with an ‘acceptable’ quality flag - as defined in [36] - are assimilated when the  
142 model does not indicate active precipitation, frozen soil or snow cover. L-band brightness temperatures  
143 generally exhibit a spatially and temporally varying bias with respect to the CLSM (see e.g., Figure 2 of  
144 *De Lannoy and Reichle* [16]). To account for this, the SMAP observations are locally rescaled prior to the  
145 assimilation such that their seasonally-varying climatology (i.e., their long-term mean seasonal cycle)  
146 matches that of the model. SMAP L4\_SM estimates of the volumetric surface (0-5 cm) and root zone  
147 (0-100 cm) soil moisture are available globally on the 9-km EASEv2 grid with a 3-hourly resolution.

148 Here, we extracted surface and root zone soil moisture estimates from the Version 2 L4\_SM data  
149 [18,37] for our study period and study domain (section 3.2).

## 150 2.2. In Situ Data

151 We evaluate the model soil moisture estimates against in situ soil moisture measurements from  
152 the SMAP core validation sites and two sparse networks.

### 153 2.2.1. Core Validation Site Measurements

154 The SMAP core validation sites (CVS) are a diverse collection of calibration and validation sites  
155 across different watersheds that use dense arrays of soil moisture sensors distributed over so-called  
156 reference pixels at 3-km, 9-km and 36-km to represent the spatial scales of the different SMAP products  
157 [38]. The measurements from sensors within each reference pixel are combined into an area-weighted  
158 average using weights based on Voronoi polygons [38] to yield one in situ soil moisture time series per  
159 reference pixel that is representative of a SMAP grid cell. Here we use reference pixels at the 9-km  
160 scale (matching the resolution of the DA experiments) from a subset of CVS located in the contiguous  
161 United States. This includes 14 reference pixels (from 8 different watersheds) with surface soil moisture  
162 measurements and 8 reference pixels (from 5 different watersheds) that additionally provide root zone  
163 soil moisture measurements. These sites span a range of different climatic conditions, land cover and  
164 land use types (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Overview of the SMAP Calibration/Validation core sites. Shown are the site name, site key, reference pixel ID (RPID), location, climate, land cover and the availability of root zone measurements (from left to right). The measurement depth for surface soil moisture is 5 cm at all sites. The measurement depth for root zone soil moisture ranges from 30 cm to 75 cm depending on the station [18]

Site	site key	RPID	US state	climate	land cover	root zone
Walnut Gulch	WG1	16010906	Arizona	arid	shrub open	no
	WG2	16010907				no
	WG3	16010913				no
Little Washita	LW	16020907	Oklahoma	temperate	croplands and pasture	yes
Fort Cobb	FC1	16030911	Oklahoma	temperate	croplands and pasture	yes
	FC2	16030916				yes
Little River	LR	16040901	Georgia	temperate	croplands / natural mosaic	yes
St. Joseph's	SJ	16060907	Indiana	cold	croplands	no
South Fork	SF1	16070909	Iowa	cold	croplands	yes
	SF2	16070910				no
	SF3	16070911				yes
Tonzi Ranch	TR	25010911	California	temperate	woody savannas	no
TxSON	TX1	48010902	Texas	temperate	grasslands	yes
	TX2	48010911				yes

### 165 2.2.2. Sparse Network Measurements

166 We also evaluate the soil moisture estimates against in situ measurements from the Soil Climate  
 167 Analysis Network (SCAN; [39]) and the US Climate Reference Network (USCRN; [40,41]). Unlike the  
 168 CVS, these 'sparse' networks typically only have one sensor within each 9-km model grid cell and are  
 169 not necessarily representative of the grid-cell scale soil moisture estimated by the model. However, the  
 170 sparse networks span a more varied range of climatic conditions and land cover types than the CVS.  
 171 We use SCAN and USCRN measurements at 5 cm depth to validate the surface soil moisture from  
 172 the assimilation. The root zone soil moisture estimates are evaluated against an average of the in situ  
 173 measurements for the 0-100 cm layer with each measurement weighted by the vertical extent of the  
 174 represented layer. The SCAN and USCRN data were subjected to an extensive quality control process  
 175 as detailed, for example, in *De Lannoy et al.* [42] and Appendix C of *Reichle et al.* [43]. After quality  
 176 control, 181 stations were used from SCAN and 138 from USCRN.

## 177 3. Data Assimilation System and Experiments

### 178 3.1. Model and Data Assimilation System

179 The data assimilation experiments are performed using the CLSM driven with surface  
 180 meteorological forcing data at 0.25 ° resolution provided by the GEOS-5 Forward Processing system  
 181 [33]. The precipitation forcing data are corrected using global gauge-based observations from  
 182 the NOAA Climate Prediction Center Unified (CPCU) product, scaled to the Global Precipitation  
 183 Climatology Project (GPCP) v2.2 pentad precipitation product climatology [44,45]. The GEOS-5  
 184 background precipitation is also scaled to the GPCP v2.2 climatology.

185 The diagnostics used here to analyze the assimilation results are the surface (0-5cm) and root  
 186 zone (0-100cm) soil moisture, as well as the land evaporation and the overland runoff. Two different  
 187 configurations of the model are used in this study: (1) the Nature Run v4 (NRv4) configuration  
 188 used to generate the L4\_SM product and (2) the Nature Run v5 (NRv5) configuration used for the  
 189 SMAP soil moisture assimilation experiments presented here. The main differences between the two  
 190 configurations include an updated correction of the precipitation forcing data, an updated vegetation  
 191 height dataset as well as revised parameterizations of the heat capacity, the minimum snow water  
 192 equivalent and the turbulent roughness length. The DA system was run over the contiguous United

**Table 2.** Ensemble perturbations applied to the forcing variables - precipitation (P), downward shortwave (DSW) radiation and downward long wave (DLW) radiation - and to the Catchment model prognostic variables - surface excess (srfexc) and catchment deficit (catdef). Shown are the perturbation type, which is either multiplicative (M) sampled from a log-normal distribution or additive (A) sampled from a normal distribution, the perturbation standard deviation (std dev), the temporal and spatial correlation lengths as well as the cross-correlations of the forcing variables. Perturbations to the prognostic variables are not cross-correlated.

	type	std dev	temporal correlation	spatial correlation	cross correlation with		
					P	DSW	DLW
P	M	0.5	24 h	0.5 deg	-	-0.8	0.5
DSW	M	0.3	24 h	0.5 deg	-0.8	-	-0.5
DLW	A	20 W m <sup>-2</sup>	24 h	0.5 deg	0.5	-0.5	-
srfexc	A	0.24 kg m <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	3 h	0.3 deg			
catdef	A	0.16 kg m <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	3 h	0.3 deg			

**Table 3.** Overview of the soil moisture (SM) model and data assimilation experiments. \*global bias correction implicit

Experiment Name	Observations assimilated	Bias correction	Model configuration
OL	none	n/a	Nature Run v5
DA-NN	SMAP NN SM	n/a*	Nature Run v5
DA-NN-ICDF	SMAP NN SM	local CDF-matching	Nature Run v5
DA-L2P-gCDF	SMAP L2P SM	global CDF-matching	Nature Run v5
OL-L4	none	n/a	Nature Run v4
DA-L4	SMAP Tb	seasonal climatology matching	Nature Run v4

193 States from April 2015 to March 2017 producing 3-hourly analyses on the 9-km resolution EASEv2  
194 grid.

195 The assimilation was performed using an Ensemble Kalman Filter including non-zero horizontal  
196 correlations in the observation and model errors in order to distribute the observed information  
197 to nearby model grid cells (3D Ensemble Kalman Filter) [16,46]. This setup essentially uses the  
198 model information to downscale the 36-km SMAP observations to the 9-km model resolution. To  
199 translate the model state into surface soil moisture estimates with the same spatial support as the  
200 observations, the observation operator computes the spatial convolution of the model estimates with  
201 a two-dimensional Gaussian function that contains 50% of the signal within a circle with a radius of  
202 20 km [17]. Observation error maps were estimated using a TC analysis (section 2) and the spatial  
203 correlation between the observation errors was assumed to follow a Gaussian distribution with a 0.25°  
204 length scale in all directions. Following the SMAP L4\_SM setup, an ensemble of 24 members was used  
205 here. Moreover, model error correlations were localized to a radius of 1.25 ° (by reducing their value  
206 to zero beyond this radius) to avoid spurious spatial correlations as a result of the limited ensemble  
207 size [18,47]. The perturbations to the meteorological forcing and model prognostic variables follow the  
208 Version 2 L4\_SM system [18] and are summarized in Table 2.

### 209 3.2. Data Assimilation Experiments

210 Several data assimilation experiments were performed for April 2015 to March 2017 over the  
211 contiguous United States (CONUS), each with a different method to address bias between the  
212 observations and corresponding model forecasts. All experiments used the modeling and DA system  
213 introduced in section 3.1. Table 3 summarizes the main characteristics of all assimilation experiments  
214 and section 3.3 discusses limitations associated with each experiment.

## 215 Open Loop

216 For the open loop (OL) experiment, the model is run for the study period without assimilating  
217 any SMAP observations. The OL represents a baseline for the model skill against which potential skill  
218 improvements from the assimilation of SMAP observations are measured. The OL for the soil moisture  
219 assimilation experiments is generated using the NRv5 configuration, whereas the OL-L4 for the L4\_SM  
220 system is generated using the NRv4 configuration (section 3.1).

## 221 SMAP NN retrieval assimilation without bias correction (DA-NN)

222 In the DA-NN experiment, the NN retrievals are assimilated without further bias correction. By  
223 design, the NN retrievals are consistent with the global climatology of the model. The purpose of  
224 this experiment is thus to test whether the NN approach is sufficient to account for the systematic  
225 bias (related to factors other than disagreements about the soil moisture state) between the model  
226 and observations and thus reduce the need for further rescaling that would remove some of the  
227 independent satellite information.

## 228 SMAP NN retrieval assimilation with local CDF-matching (DA-NN-ICDF)

229 In the DA-NN-ICDF experiment, the NN retrievals are assimilated after applying a local  
230 CDF-matching that imposes the model's mean, variability and higher moments on the observations  
231 separately for each grid cell. To compute the CDF-matching statistics, we apply a spatial sampling with  
232 a 1.25° moving window to mitigate the effect of the relatively short study period [23]. The purpose of  
233 this experiment is to compare the assimilation using a local (grid cell level) rescaling in DA-NN-ICDF  
234 with the global rescaling implicit in the DA-NN experiment.

## 235 SMAP L2P retrieval assimilation with global CDF-matching (DA-L2P-gCDF)

236 In the DA-L2P-gCDF experiment, the L2P retrievals are assimilated after applying a global  
237 CDF-matching of the satellite soil moisture retrievals to the model estimates. The purpose of this  
238 experiment is to (1) compare the impact of the different retrieval algorithms and (2) assess whether  
239 applying a global CDF-matching to an existing retrieval product results in a different soil moisture  
240 skill than assimilating soil moisture estimates that are by design consistent with the global model  
241 climatology.

## 242 SMAP Level 4 brightness temperature assimilation product (DA-L4)

243 The SMAP L4\_SM product is generated by assimilating SMAP Tb observations (section 2.1.3) and  
244 is included here to relate the skill of the above soil moisture assimilation experiments to the skill that  
245 can be obtained from a Tb assimilation (bearing in mind that a local rescaling of the Tbs is applied  
246 (section 2.1.3)).

## 247 3.3. Limitations of the DA experiments

248 In the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF experiments, the soil moisture observations are globally  
249 matched to the climatology of the modeled soil moisture. However, local biases and differences in the  
250 local variability are retained (see e.g. Figure 3 of *Kolassa et al.* [25]). These can provide very valuable  
251 information on missing processes in the model (for example processes related to agricultural practices)  
252 or unrealistic process parameterizations. However, from a DA perspective, the retention of local  
253 biases violates the assumptions of the DA system, which is designed to deal with random rather than  
254 systematic errors. The experiments conducted here investigate whether - in practice - the benefit of  
255 retaining more of the independent satellite information can outweigh the adverse effects of violating  
256 the DA assumptions. This includes investigating the effect on the modeled soil moisture skill, but also  
257 the impact on related variables, such as evaporation or runoff estimates.

258 Another concern is the possible non-orthogonality of the observation and model errors as a result  
259 of the soil temperature information that is shared between the SMAP retrievals and the model. This  
260 issue might be exacerbated by the fact that for the global bias correction approaches, the dynamic  
261 range of the model and observations will not necessarily match locally and would represent another  
262 violation of the DA system assumptions.

263 Finally, the assimilation and validation periods here include the NN training period (April 2015 -  
264 March 2016), which violates the DA assumption of uncorrelated model and observation errors. Owing  
265 to the relatively short SMAP record to date, further investigation of this issue must be left for future  
266 study.

### 267 3.4. Evaluation

268 We compare the different soil moisture assimilation experiments in terms of (1) the statistics of  
269 the modeled soil moisture estimates, (2) the soil moisture estimate skill against in situ soil moisture  
270 measurements, (3) the consistency of the specified model and observation error statistics with the  
271 actual errors and (4) the impact on model fields related to soil moisture.

#### 272 3.4.1. Soil moisture statistics

273 To assess the impact of the assimilation on the climatology of the soil moisture estimates, we  
274 compare the statistics of the soil moisture fields generated with the assimilation experiments against  
275 those generated with the OL. The difference between the mean soil moisture fields highlights areas  
276 that experience a general wetting or drying as a result of the assimilation, whereas the difference of the  
277 mean soil moisture standard deviations assesses to what extent the assimilation of SMAP observations  
278 introduces (or removes) variability in the modeled soil moisture fields. The soil moisture mean values  
279 and standard deviations are computed using all model estimates, including times and locations when  
280 no SMAP observations were assimilated.

#### 281 3.4.2. Evaluation against in situ measurements

282 The soil moisture estimates from each assimilation experiment are evaluated against in situ  
283 measurements using the correlation ( $R$ ), absolute bias ( $|b|$ ) and unbiased root mean square error  
284 ( $ubRMSE$ ). The metrics are computed using all simulated soil moisture estimates, including time  
285 instances when no SMAP observations were assimilated. The correlation is computed as the Pearson  
286 correlation coefficient of the modeled and in situ soil moisture time series in each location and quantifies  
287 the skill in capturing soil moisture temporal variations across all time scales. The absolute bias is  
288 computed as the absolute value of the mean difference between the in situ and modeled soil moisture  
289 time series in each location. We use the absolute bias to better compare skill improvements and to  
290 avoid the effect of bias compensation when computing mean metrics. The  $ubRMSE$  is calculated to  
291 estimate errors in the soil moisture variability and is computed as the RMSE between the modeled and  
292 in situ soil moisture time series after removing their respective long-term mean values.

293 To assess the statistical significance of differences in the experiment evaluation metrics, we also  
294 estimate their 95% confidence intervals using the Student's T-test for the correlation and bias, and a  
295 chi-square test for the  $ubRMSE$ . All metrics and their confidence intervals are estimated accounting for  
296 auto-correlation in the soil moisture time series.

297 When computing average metrics (across all reference pixels for the CVS and across all networks  
298 for the sparse networks), we use a k-means clustering approach with a maximum cluster extent of  
299  $1^\circ$  to avoid the dominance of regions with a high sensor density and to ensure realistic confidence  
300 intervals [16].

#### 301 3.4.3. Assimilation diagnostics

302 The relative impact of the model forecasts and observations on the soil moisture estimates  
303 depends on the specified model and observation error statistics. To assess the consistency of the error



304 characterizations in our experiments with the actual model and observation errors, we analyze the  
305 standard deviation of the normalized observation-minus-forecast residuals (or ‘innovations’), which  
306 are computed as  $\frac{(O-F)}{\sqrt{\text{var}(e_O)+\text{var}(e_F)}}$ , where  $O$  and  $F$  are the observations and forecast estimates, and  
307  $\text{var}(e_O)$  and  $\text{var}(e_F)$  are the assumed observation and forecast error variances as prescribed ( $\text{var}(e_O)$ )  
308 or diagnosed from the ensemble ( $\text{var}(e_F)$ ) [18]. In a well-calibrated DA system, with correctly specified  
309 model and observation error statistics, this metric should be close to one. Values greater than one  
310 indicate that the DA system underestimates the actual errors, and values less than one indicate that the  
311 errors are overestimated. The standard deviation of the normalized observation-forecast differences is  
312 computed for times and locations when SMAP observations were assimilated.

#### 313 3.4.4. Impact on related model fields

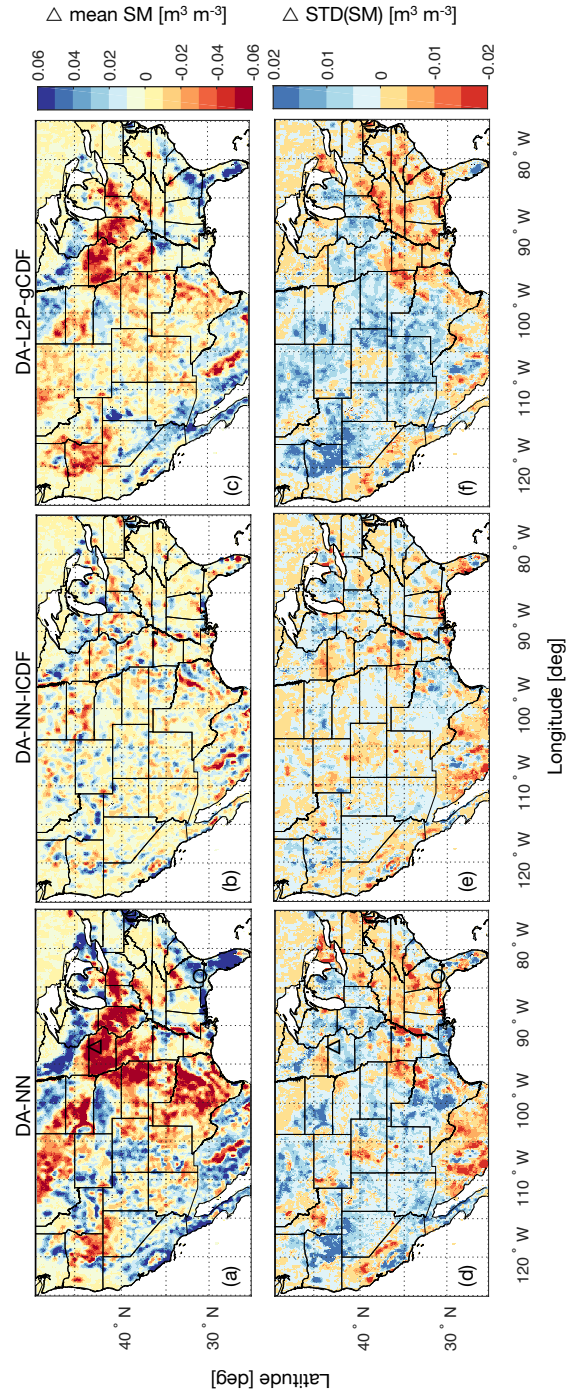
314 The assimilation of soil moisture estimates with a local bias could adversely affect model fields  
315 related to soil moisture, despite a potential improvement of the soil moisture estimates themselves  
316 (section 3.3). To investigate this possibility, we also analyze changes in the mean land evaporation and  
317 overland runoff resulting from the assimilation of SMAP observations. The analysis of the evaporation  
318 and runoff is qualitative, since no reliable reference data were available for our study period.

## 319 4. Results and Discussion

### 320 4.1. Assimilation with global vs. local bias correction

321 First, we compare the assimilation of the NN retrievals without further bias correction (DA-NN)  
322 to the assimilation of the same retrievals using a standard local CDF-matching bias correction  
323 (DA-NN-ICDF).

#### 324 4.1.1. Mean soil moisture statistics



**Figure 1.** Average soil moisture difference - computed as DA minus OL for the period April 2015 to March 2017 - for the (a) DA-NN, (b) DA-NN-ICDF and (c) DA-L2P-gCDF experiments. Red colors indicate that the assimilation decreases the mean soil moisture with respect to the OL. Panels (d)-(f) are the same, but for the difference of the standard deviation with respect to the OL. Red colors indicate that the assimilation decreases the variability relative to the OL. Panels (a) and (d) also show the location of the South Fork (triangle) and Little River (circle) watersheds discussed in the text.

325 In the DA-NN experiment, the retention of local biases between the model and observations  
326 results in 2-year mean soil moisture estimates that show distinct spatial differences (defined as DA-NN  
327 minus OL) with respect to the model (Figure 1 (a)). For example, DA-NN exhibits drier conditions in the  
328 predominantly agricultural areas of the Midwest and parts of the Northwest (eastern Montana, eastern  
329 Oregon and the Dakotas). In these regions, SMAP observes the effects of agricultural practices (e.g., tile  
330 drainage or tillage) that are not represented in the model (see e.g., *He et al. [48]*). For the agricultural  
331 areas subject to irrigation, these somewhat counter-intuitive results reflect the dry bias of the SMAP  
332 retrievals relative to the model (see e.g., Figure 4(d) in *Kolassa et al. [25]*). In areas with extensive  
333 tile drainage, such as large parts of Iowa, the results reflect the expected behavior. Additionally, the  
334 spatial patterns of the DA-NN soil moisture estimates depend on the SMAP brightness temperatures  
335 as well as the ancillary retrieval inputs and are thus not purely observational features. The local bias  
336 correction applied in the DA-NN-ICDF experiment removes systematic differences between the model  
337 and the observations prior to the assimilation and - by design - results in mean soil moisture differences  
338 without strong spatial features (Figure 1 (b)).

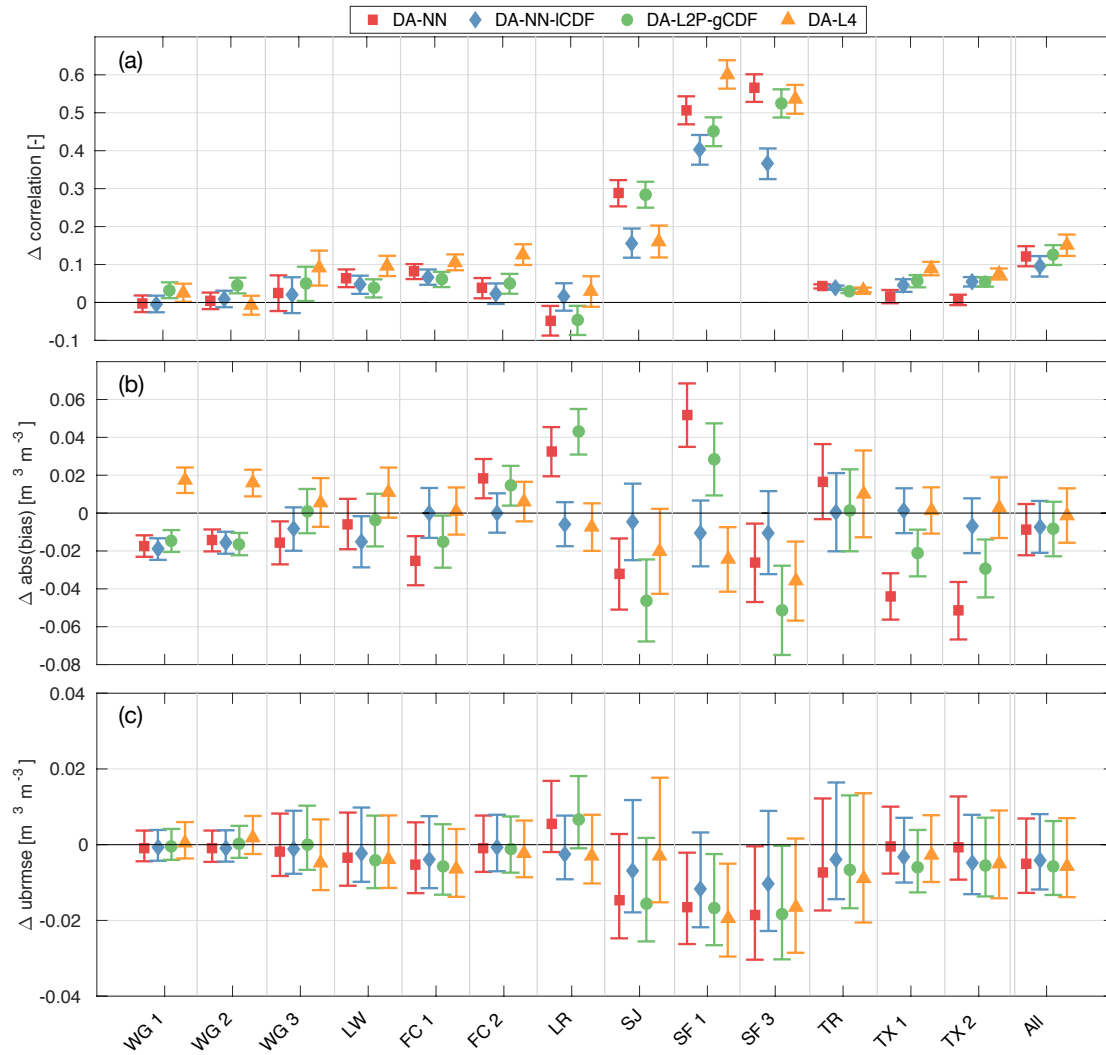
339 Differences in the soil moisture variability between DA-NN and OL (Figure 1 (d)) appear to be  
340 related to the soil moisture mean state and seasonal variability in a region. In humid regions with a  
341 more pronounced seasonal cycle, such as parts of the Eastern US, Northern Mexico or the California  
342 Central Valley, DA-NN decreases the soil moisture variability with respect to the OL. The reduced  
343 variability is possibly an artifact of the retrievals' reduced soil moisture sensitivity in regions that  
344 are more humid and more densely vegetated. One exception to this behavior is the corn belt, where  
345 DA-NN increases the soil moisture variability with respect to the OL. Here the NN retrievals capture  
346 the effects of agricultural practices that are not represented in the model and that tend to increase the  
347 soil moisture variability. The variability differences between the DA-NN-ICDF and the OL (Figure  
348 1 (e)) are generally small and have less distinct spatial features than those observed for the DA-NN  
349 experiment, as expected given the local scaling applied to the observations in the DA-NN-ICDF.

#### 350 4.1.2. Evaluation against in situ measurements

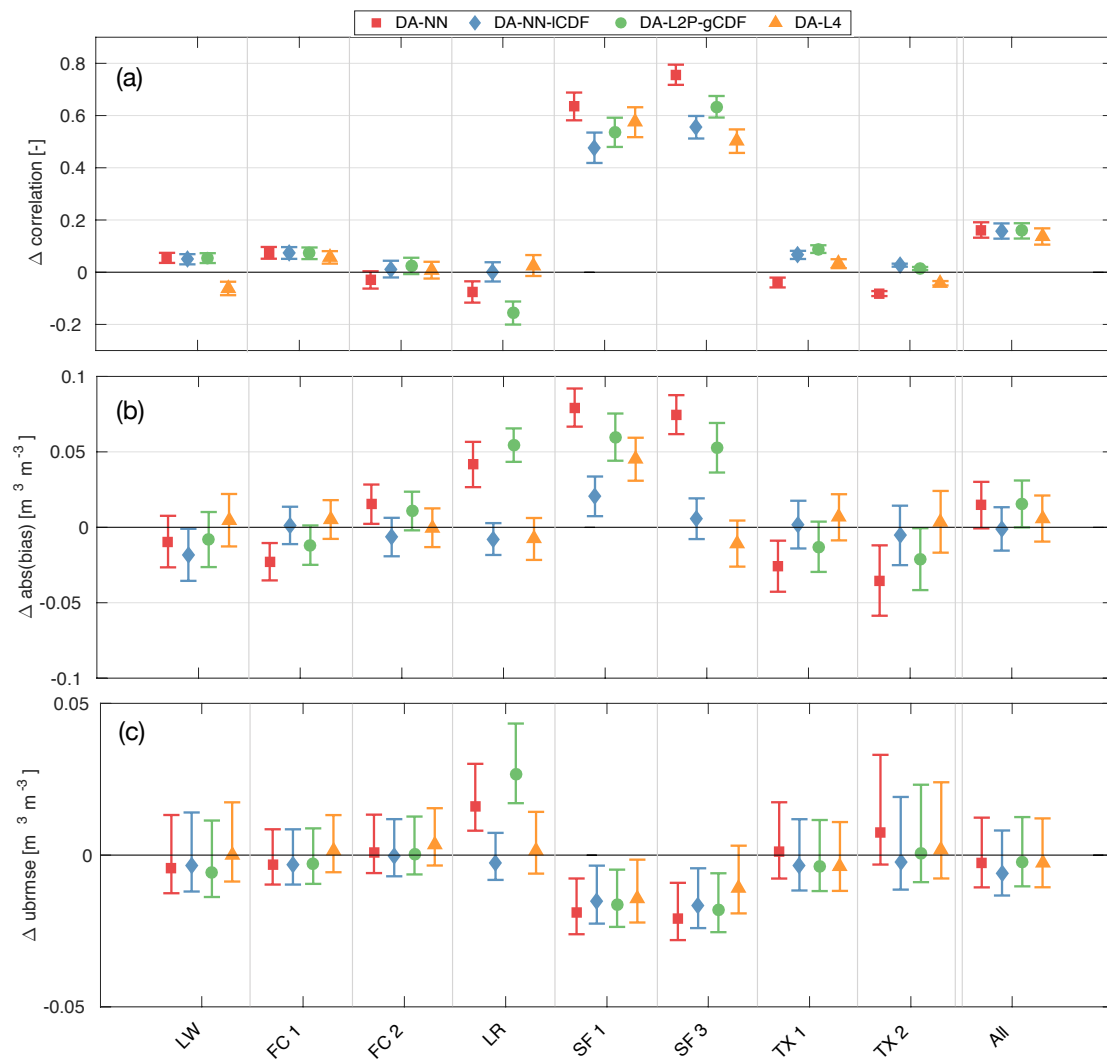
351 Evaluated against the surface CVS measurements (Figure 2), DA-NN and DA-NN-ICDF are able  
352 to improve the model skill over the OL. Both experiments yield comparable correlation (Figure 2 (a))  
353 and ubRMSE (Figure 2 (c)) improvements at most reference pixels (exceptions are LR, SF1 and SF3),  
354 resulting in similar average correlation increases of 0.12 and 0.10, and ubRMSE reductions of 0.005  
355  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  and 0.004  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN and DA-NN-ICDF. In terms of the bias (Figure 2 (b)), DA-NN  
356 generally yields the larger skill changes at individual pixels, including a bias degradation at four  
357 pixels, whereas DA-NN-ICDF yields smaller but consistent improvements. On average, this results in  
358 a similar bias reduction of 0.009  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  and 0.007  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN and DA-NN-ICDF. The small  
359 (albeit not statistically significant at the 5% level) bias reduction for the DA-NN-ICDF estimates with  
360 respect to their OL contradicts the intended behavior of the system and might point to issues with the  
361 DA system calibration.

362 Against the CVS root zone measurements (Figure 3), DA-NN-ICDF yields more consistent  
363 improvements than DA-NN in terms of the ubRMSE and correlations, but their magnitude is smaller  
364 than the less frequent improvements from DA-NN. As a result, the average correlation is improved  
365 by 0.16 for both experiments (Figure 3 (a)), but DA-NN-ICDF results in a larger ubRMSE reduction  
366 of 0.006  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  compared to 0.003  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN (Figure 3 (c)). In terms of the root zone bias  
367 (Figure 3 (b)), both experiments are only able to improve the model skill at approximately half of  
368 the reference pixels. The bias degradation at the remaining locations is smaller for the DA-NN-ICDF  
369 estimates, resulting in a slight bias reduction of 0.001  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  on average compared to the average  
370 bias increase of 0.015  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN.

371 At many stations, the skill changes with respect to the OL and skill differences between DA-NN  
372 and DA-NN-ICDF are small. Notable exceptions are the Little River (LR) and South Fork (SF)  
373 watersheds, both of which have previously been identified as sites with large discrepancies between



**Figure 2.** Change in surface soil moisture (a) correlation, (b) absolute bias and (c) ubRMSE versus CVS measurements for the DA-NN (red squares), DA-NN-ICDF (blue diamonds), DA-L2P-gCDF (green circles) experiments and the DA-L4 (orange triangles). Skill changes have been computed against the OL corresponding to each experiment as DA minus OL. Error bars denote the 95% confidence interval. Reference pixel abbreviations are listed in Table 1



**Figure 3.** Same as Figure 2, but for the root zone.

374 the SMAP retrievals and the in situ measurements [10,49]. At LR, DA-NN consistently degrades the  
375 model skill in both soil layers and across all metrics, whereas DA-NN-ICDF yields small or no skill  
376 changes. Bearing in mind that the NN retrievals and the OL model estimates have a comparable  
377 correlation and ubRMSE skill at LR [25], the results suggest that assimilating the NN retrievals only  
378 provides a small amount of novel information to the model, but likely introduces noise that degrades  
379 the model skill. For DA-NN-ICDF, the observations appear to have a smaller impact and the soil  
380 moisture estimates are less sensitive to retrieval product noise.

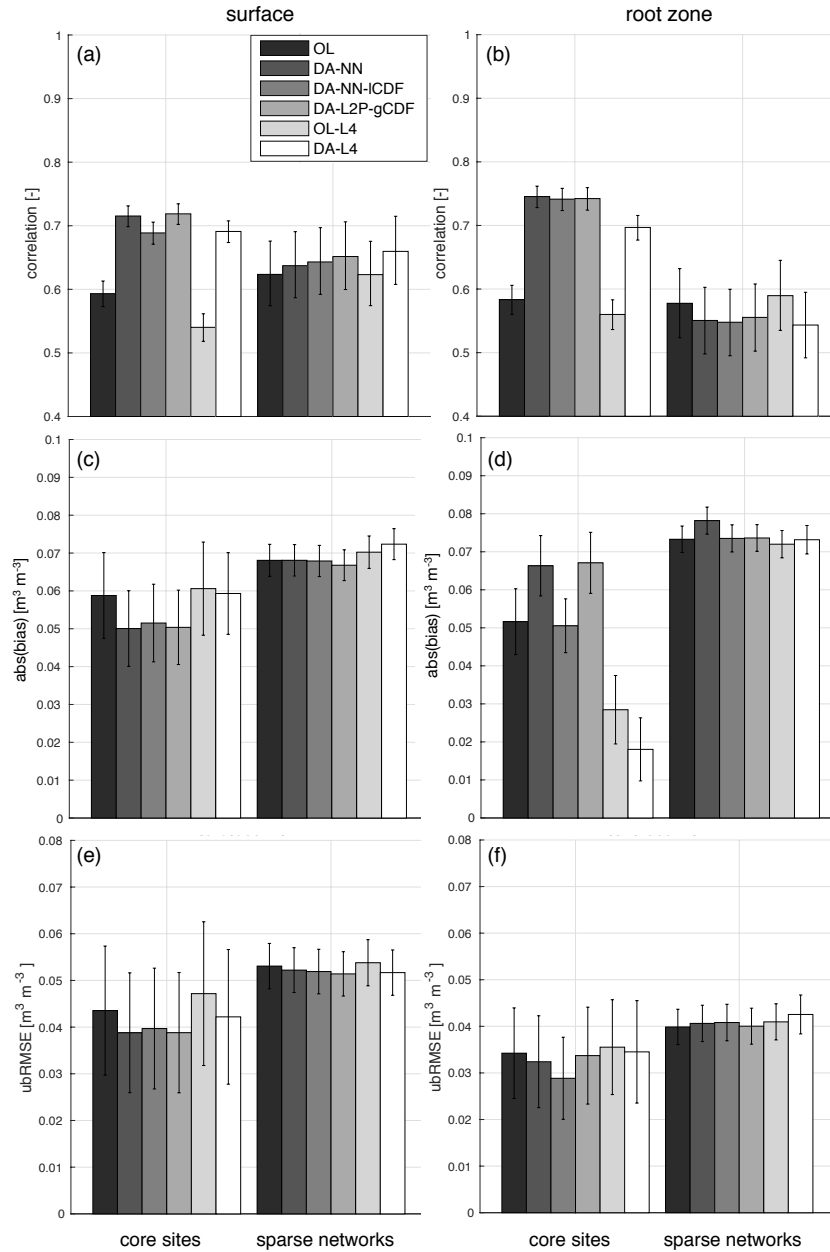
381 At the SF reference pixels, DA-NN improves the soil moisture dynamics, as evident from the  
382 significantly (at the 95% confidence level) larger correlation increases and larger (but not statistically  
383 significant) ubRMSE reductions in both soil layers compared to DA-NN-ICDF. Figure 1 (d) showed  
384 that DA-NN slightly increases the soil moisture variability at SF, likely by introducing the effects of  
385 agricultural processes not represented in the model. In contrast, the strong drying in DA-NN at SF  
386 (Figure 1 (a)) strongly increases the bias at one surface pixel and at both root zone pixels. Experiment  
387 DA-NN-ICDF - by design - only leads to small changes of the bias. This suggests that the observations  
388 have a stronger impact in the DA-NN experiment, because more independent satellite information is  
389 retained. Therefore, the (reliable) observation information on soil moisture dynamics is used more  
390 efficiently in DA-NN. However, the higher impact and the retention of local biases also make the soil  
391 moisture estimates more vulnerable to the adverse effects of bias in the retrievals.

392 When evaluated against sparse network in situ measurements (Figure 4), differences in the  
393 average metrics of both experiments are less pronounced than for the CVS evaluation. In the surface  
394 layer, both assimilation experiments increase the correlation and reduce the ubRMSE over the OL. For  
395 the root zone, both assimilation experiments slightly degrade the model skill compared to the OL for  
396 all metrics. However, compared to the error bars, the skill changes observed in the sparse network  
397 evaluation are nearly negligible.

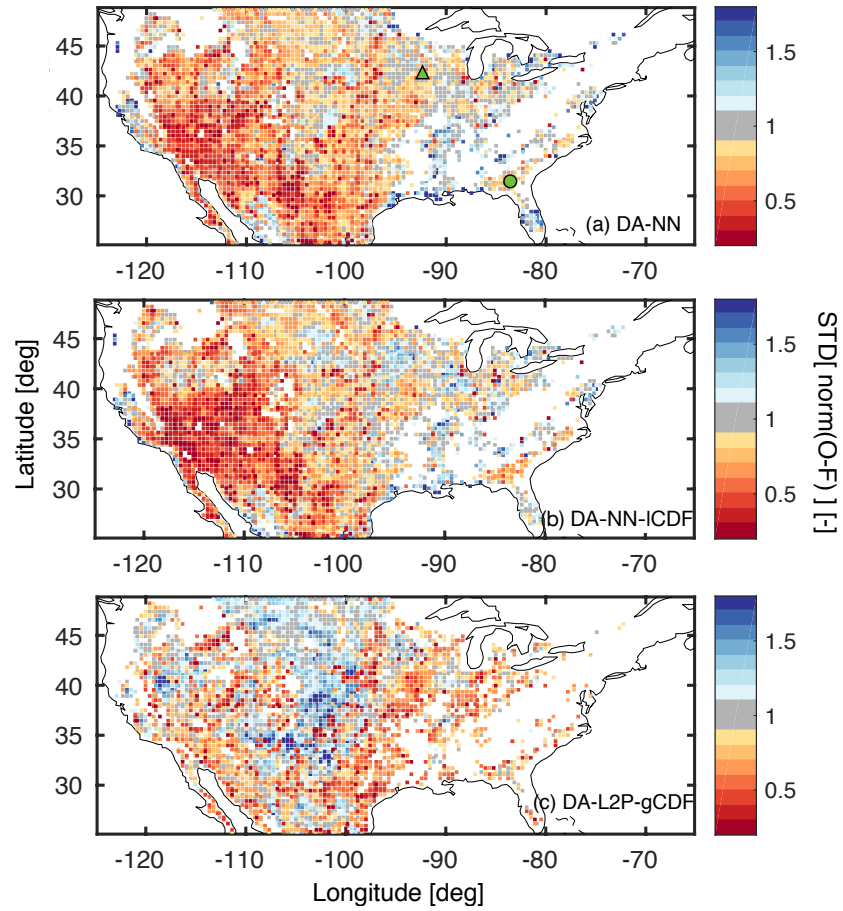
#### 398 4.1.3. Model and observation errors

399 The impact of the assimilated soil moisture observations on the model estimates is driven by  
400 (1) the difference between the rescaled observations and the forecast and (2) the relative weight  
401 given to the observations and the model during the assimilation. The latter depends on the specified  
402 model and observation errors through the Kalman gain. The standard deviation of the normalized  
403 observation-forecast differences (Figure 5) shows how accurately the DA system reflects the actual  
404 model and observation errors. For both experiments, the DA system tends to overestimate the actual  
405 errors (as indicated by values smaller than 1), which is also reflected by the domain average values of  
406 0.89 for DA-NN and 0.68 for DA-NN-ICDF. This more pronounced overestimation for DA-NN-ICDF  
407 could be one reason for the apparently smaller observation impact noted above. The inaccurate  
408 error characterization could be caused by (1) inaccurate observation errors estimated from the TC  
409 analysis (section 2), (2) uncertainties in the model or observation temporal standard deviations used to  
410 rescale the observation errors for DA-NN-ICDF or (3) inaccurate model errors - represented by the  
411 ensemble spread and driven by the forcing and prognostic perturbations. Points (1) and (3) would  
412 affect both assimilation experiments and are thus likely causes for the general error overestimation.  
413 Point (2) affects only DA-NN-ICDF and could explain the stronger error overestimation. The model  
414 perturbations used here were initially developed for the L4\_SM Tb assimilation and yield model  
415 standard deviations that might not be appropriate for the soil moisture assimilation conducted here.

#### 416 4.1.4. Impact on related model fields

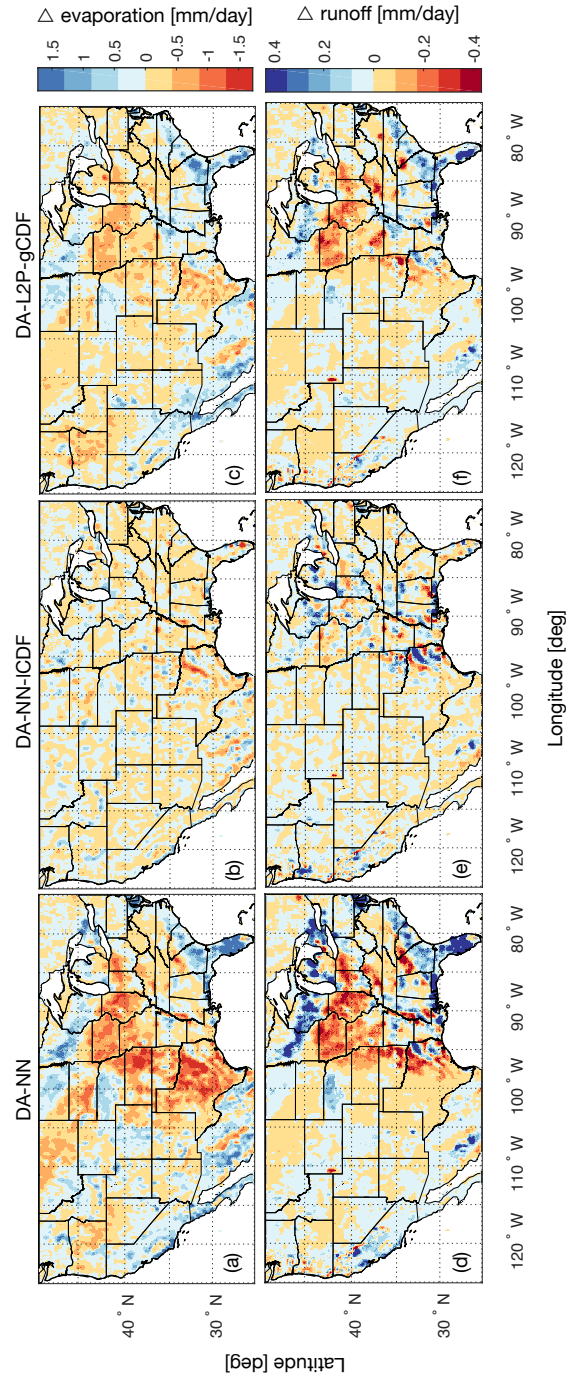


**Figure 4.** Average metrics for all experiments against core site and sparse network in situ measurements. Shown are the (a) surface correlation, (b) root zone correlation, (c) surface absolute bias, (d) root zone absolute bias, (e) surface ubRMSE and (f) root zone ubRMSE. The error bars indicate the 95% confidence interval.



**Figure 5.** Standard deviation of the normalized innovations (O minus F) for the (a) DA-NN, (b) DA-NN-ICDF and (c) DA-L2P-gCDF experiments. Red colors indicate that the assumed errors are overestimated with respect to the actual errors and blue colors indicate an underestimation. White areas indicate that less than 30 observations were assimilated and no metric was computed. Panel (a) also shows the location of the SF (green triangle) and LR (green circle) sites.





**Figure 6.** Average land evaporation difference - computed as DA minus OL for the period April 2015 to March 2017 - for the (a) DA-NN, (b) DA-NN-ICDF and (c) DA-L2P-gCDF experiments. Panels (d)-(f) are the same, but for the difference of overland runoff with respect to the OL. Red colors indicate that the assimilation reduces the evaporation and runoff with respect to the OL.

417 The soil moisture skill improvement in DA-NN over OL (with the root zone bias as the only  
418 exception) suggests that issues with the retention of local biases (see section 3.3) may in practice be  
419 outweighed by the benefit of retaining more of the independent SMAP information. It is important,  
420 however, to also assess how the assimilation without local bias correction affects the overland runoff  
421 and land evaporation.

422 The differences in mean land evaporation for DA-NN and DA-NN-ICDF (Figure 6 (a) and  
423 (b)) primarily reflect differences in the mean soil moisture state caused by assimilation of SMAP  
424 observations (Figure 1 ). For DA-NN, this includes a reduced evaporation in the region stretching  
425 from southeast of the Great Lakes to Texas, for which a strong drying was observed in Figure 1 (a),  
426 and an increased evaporation corresponding to the increased soil moisture in Florida. Generally, the  
427 land evaporation tends to be more sensitive to soil moisture in the Western US, however, owing to  
428 the smaller soil moisture changes introduced there, this increased sensitivity is not evident in the  
429 evaporation changes. For the DA-NN-ICDF experiment, the mean soil moisture state is - by design -  
430 not changed relative to the OL and as a result no notable changes in the mean land evaporation are  
431 introduced by the assimilation.

432 In terms of the runoff (Figure 6 (d) and (e)), the assimilation mostly introduces changes in regions  
433 where the runoff is large, such as the Eastern US and along the West Coast. For DA-NN, these changes  
434 mirror the spatial features of the mean soil moisture changes, resulting in a runoff increase in areas with  
435 increased soil moisture and vice versa. For DA-NN-ICDF, no notable spatial features were introduced  
436 in the mean soil moisture state and thus no spatial features are discernible in the changes to the runoff.

437 A quantitative validation of the evaporation and runoff changes introduced by DA-NN is difficult  
438 due to a lack of reliable reference data. The DA-NN experiment is able to reduce the known evaporation  
439 overestimation of the model [50], but the very large changes of  $\sim 1$  mm/day are likely unrealistic.  
440 Furthermore, the runoff reductions introduced by DA-NN intensify the known runoff underestimation  
441 of the model [50]. Thus, the soil moisture skill improvements observed for DA-NN do not readily  
442 translate into improvements in related water cycle variables. For applications aiming to obtain a  
443 comprehensive set of land surface estimates (rather than only improving soil moisture estimates), an  
444 additional re-calibration of the soil moisture dependent processes in the land model would be required  
445 in order to make the DA-NN approach fully viable.

#### 446 4.1.5. Discussion of DA-NN and DA-NN-ICDF results

447 Generally, the DA-NN and DA-NN-ICDF experiments are able to improve the model soil moisture  
448 skill over the OL. Particularly over CONUS, where the validation data are dense and where the model  
449 generally has a high skill, improving the model through data assimilation is more difficult than in  
450 data sparse regions. Additionally, using corrected precipitation forcing data (section 3.1) further limits  
451 the skill improvements that can be obtained from an assimilation. The consistent assimilation skill  
452 improvements are thus encouraging and demonstrate the great potential of SMAP observations to  
453 improve land surface model estimates, in particular in data sparse regions. Remaining differences  
454 between the modeled estimates and the in situ measurements are related to uncertainties in the  
455 assimilated observations and the model forcing data as well as differences in the ancillary data (for  
456 example the soil texture) used in the model and at the ground stations.

457 In the DA-NN experiment, which retains more of the independent satellite information, the  
458 observations have a larger impact on the soil moisture estimates than in the DA-NN-ICDF experiment.  
459 When the observation are of high quality and contain novel information, this can lead to larger  
460 improvements in the model soil moisture skill than is possible with a local bias correction. However,  
461 the larger observation impact also makes the DA-NN more vulnerable to the adverse effects of  
462 low-quality satellite observations. This means that the NN assimilation without bias correction can  
463 use the observation information more efficiently, but is also less reliable than an assimilation using a  
464 localized bias correction. To use the DA-NN approach it is thus crucial to accurately characterize the  
465 model and observation errors and to apply a rigorous quality control to the observations. Additionally,

466 to better isolate the reliable retrieval information, it might be beneficial to separately assimilate the  
467 different temporal components of the retrievals - i.e., the long-term mean, seasonal, sub-seasonal and  
468 interannual signatures [51] - with the DA-NN approach.

#### 469 4.2. Assimilation of NN vs. L2P retrievals

470 In this section, we compare the assimilation of the NN retrievals (DA-NN) to that of the L2P  
471 retrievals (DA-L2P-gCDF) to determine the impact of the different retrieval approaches. In both cases,  
472 the global climatology of the observations matches that of the corresponding model estimates.

##### 473 4.2.1. Mean soil moisture statistics

474 The spatial patterns of the mean soil moisture differences between DA-L2P-gCDF and OL (Figure  
475 1 (c)) are similar to those observed for the DA-NN experiment (Figure 1 (a)), but generally have  
476 a smaller magnitude. Notable discrepancies in the difference spatial patterns of the DA-NN and  
477 DA-L2P-gCDF experiments occur along parts of the Rocky Mountains (in Colorado, Wyoming and  
478 Idaho), where DA-NN causes a wetting relative to OL, whereas DA-L2P-gCDF introduces mostly  
479 small mean soil moisture changes relative to OL. As for DA-NN, the spatial patterns in the mean soil  
480 moisture difference between DA-L2P-gCDF and OL reflect the local biases between the L2P retrievals  
481 and the model.

482 The spatial patterns of the standard deviation difference between the DA-L2P-gCDF and OL  
483 experiments (Figure 1 (f)) are also very similar to those observed for the DA-NN experiment, but  
484 with a slightly smaller magnitude. In addition to the SMAP observations and the ancillary retrieval  
485 inputs (VWC and surface temperature), the differences between the L2P retrievals (and corresponding  
486 assimilation estimates) and the model are also driven by the ancillary parameter inputs, such as the  
487 soil texture. The L2P retrieval algorithm relies on more of these ancillary data than the NN retrievals,  
488 and as such the spatial features of the DA-L2P-gCDF estimates correspond less to SMAP observational  
489 features than those of the DA-NN estimates.

##### 490 4.2.2. Evaluation against in situ measurements

491 Evaluated against the surface CVS measurements (Figure 2), the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF  
492 experiments have a very similar skill at most reference pixels and across all metrics. This results in  
493 nearly identical average skill improvements for both experiments, with correlation increases of 0.12  
494 and 0.13, bias reductions of  $0.009 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  and  $0.008 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ , and ubRMSE reductions of  $0.005 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$   
495 and  $0.006 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF, respectively.

496 Similarly, the skill of the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF estimates against the root zone CVS  
497 measurements (Figure 3) is nearly identical at most reference pixels. This is also reflected in the average  
498 correlation improvements of 0.16 and ubRMSE reductions of  $0.003 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  for both experiments. Both  
499 assimilations are only able to reduce the root zone bias at about half of the reference pixels and the  
500 relatively large bias degradation at the remaining pixels results in an average bias increase of  $0.015 \text{ m}^3$   
501  $\text{m}^{-3}$  and  $0.016 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF.

502 As before, the LR and SF watersheds show more pronounced differences between the two  
503 assimilation experiments. At SF, DA-NN generally obtains larger correlation improvements than  
504 DA-L2P-gCDF in both soil layers, but DA-L2P-gCDF leads to smaller bias degradations (or larger bias  
505 reductions). Given that the NN and L2P retrievals have a similar skill at the SF pixels [25], the results  
506 suggest that the observations have a larger impact on the analysis for DA-NN than for DA-L2P-gCDF.

507 At LR, DA-L2P-gCDF shows the same consistent skill degradation as DA-NN, but the magnitude  
508 of the degradation is larger. Previously, *Kolassa et al.* [25] found that the L2P retrievals had a significantly  
509 better (at the 95% confidence level) correlation skill than the NN retrievals and the model at LR,  
510 indicating that at LR the L2P retrievals capture soil moisture information that is not represented in the  
511 other products. The DA-L2P-gCDF skill degradations thus suggest that at LR, the DA system is either  
512 not able to extract this independent information or is too sensitive to potential noise in the retrievals.

513 Against the sparse network measurements (Figure 4), the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF experiments  
514 have nearly identical correlation and ubRMSE skill in both soil layers. In terms of the bias,  
515 DA-L2P-gCDF is able to slightly reduce the bias in the surface and root zone layers, whereas DA-NN  
516 slightly increases the surface bias against the sparse network measurements.

#### 517 4.2.3. Model and observation errors

518 The specified model and observation errors of the DA-L2P-gCDF experiment (Figure 5 (c))  
519 underestimate the actual errors in some regions, particularly in the Central US. This is reflected in the  
520 higher domain average value of 1.01 for DA-L2P-gCDF compared to 0.89 for DA-NN. These differences  
521 can be caused by (1) different errors for the L2P retrievals compared to the NN retrievals generated with  
522 the TC analysis (section 2.1.2) and (2) the rescaling of the L2P errors in the DA-L2P-gCDF experiment  
523 with the ratio of the global standard deviations of the model and observations (section 2.1.2).

#### 524 4.2.4. Impact on related model fields

525 The impact of the DA-L2P-gCDF assimilation on the modeled land evaporation (Figure 6 (c)) has  
526 similar spatial patterns as the impact of the DA-NN assimilation and primarily reflects the changes in  
527 the mean soil moisture state. Generally, the magnitude of the evaporation changes is smaller for the  
528 DA-L2P-gCDF estimates because of the smaller impact of DA-L2P-gCDF on the mean soil moisture  
529 state compared to DA-NN.

530 Similarly, the spatial patterns of the overland runoff changes introduced by DA-L2P-gCDF (Figure  
531 6 (f)) are very similar to those introduced by DA-NN, but have a smaller magnitude as a result of the  
532 smaller soil moisture impact in DA-L2P-gCDF compared to DA-NN. The larger differences between the  
533 mean soil moisture state of DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF near the Rocky Mountains are not propagated  
534 into the runoff, as a result of the reduced runoff sensitivity to soil moisture in areas where the runoff  
535 magnitude is small (see also section 4.1.4).

#### 536 4.2.5. Discussion of DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF results

537 Overall, the skill of the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF experiments is very similar, suggesting  
538 that a global CDF-matching of an existing soil moisture retrieval product can yield a comparable  
539 soil moisture skill when a retrieval in the model climatology is not possible. Additionally, the skill  
540 differences between the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF experiments are related to (1) differences in the  
541 retrieval product skill and (2) differences in the amount of novel information that each retrieval product  
542 provides to the model. The skill of both retrieval products was extensively evaluated against in situ  
543 measurements in [25], who found it to be comparable with somewhat better correlations for the L2P  
544 retrievals and a lower ubRMSE for the NN retrievals. Our findings suggest that the impact of these  
545 retrieval skill differences on modeled soil moisture estimates generated here is negligible.

546 The amount of novel information that each data product provides to the model is more difficult  
547 to quantify. As a proxy, we compared the model skill from the DA-NN-ICDF experiment to the model  
548 skill from an assimilation of the L2P retrievals with a local CDF-matching (DA-L2P-CDF; not shown  
549 here). Since the bias correction and assimilation setup in both experiments are the same, differences in  
550 the resulting model skill are related to differences in the retrieval skill (which are small, see above)  
551 and differences in the independent information provided by both products. The DA-NN-ICDF and  
552 DA-L2P-CDF experiments were found to have a nearly identical average surface correlation against  
553 the core site measurements of 0.69 for both experiments, and a similar average absolute bias of 0.052  
554  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  and 0.051  $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$  for DA-NN-ICDF and DA-L2P-CDF, respectively. This suggests that the  
555 amount of independent information provided by each retrieval product is comparable.

#### 556 4.3. Assimilation of soil moisture vs. brightness temperatures

557 Finally, we evaluate the skill improvements from the soil moisture assimilation experiments  
558 presented in the previous sections against those obtained from the brightness temperature assimilation

559 implemented in the SMAP L4\_SM system. The L4\_SM system has been extensively tested and validated  
560 [18,52] and thus the skill of the L4\_SM estimates can be considered as somewhat of a baseline for the  
561 amount of information that a DA system can extract from the SMAP observations. To some extent,  
562 the comparison with the L4\_SM estimates also assesses the feasibility of the NN as a tool to project  
563 SMAP Tb into the modeled soil moisture space, which is similar to the projection of modeled soil  
564 moisture estimates into the SMAP Tb space by the L4\_SM RTM (although bearing in mind that the  
565 Tb observations are locally rescaled in the L4\_SM system). As before, we focus on comparing skill  
566 improvements to account for the fact that the soil moisture assimilation experiments and the L4\_SM  
567 estimates have a slightly different OL (section 2.1.3).

568 Evaluated against the surface CVS measurements (Figure 2), the L4\_SM estimates are able to yield  
569 higher correlation improvements than the soil moisture assimilation experiments at most stations,  
570 resulting in the largest average correlation improvement of 0.15. In terms of the ubRMSE, the skill  
571 improvements of the Tb and soil moisture assimilations are similar with an average ubRMSE reduction  
572 of  $0.006 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  for DA-L4. Like the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF experiments, DA-L4 leads to a surface  
573 bias degradation at several stations. However, these are smaller in magnitude than for DA-NN and  
574 DA-L2P-gCDF and are balanced by bias improvements, for example at the SF reference pixels. As a  
575 result, DA-L4 behaves as designed and does not significantly change the average bias with respect to  
576 its OL.

577 Against the root zone CVS measurements (Figure 3), DA-L4 has the lowest average correlation  
578 skill improvement of 0.14. The average ubRMSE reduction for DA-L4 of  $0.003 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  is similar to the  
579 reductions obtained from the soil moisture assimilation experiments. In terms of the bias, the DA-L4  
580 estimates behave as intended and only slightly change the bias relative to the OL at most reference  
581 pixels (an exception is the SF1 pixel). The resulting average bias increase of  $0.006 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  is small  
582 compared to the values for DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF, but slightly larger than the bias reduction of  
583  $0.001 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$  obtained with DA-NN-ICDF.

584 The DA-L4 and DA-NN-ICDF experiments are the most similar in terms of the observation  
585 rescaling applied prior to the assimilation (although different moments are rescaled locally in each  
586 case), but this is not necessarily reflected in a more comparable skill of both experiments. This is partly  
587 due to differences introduced by the retrieval algorithm, but *De Lannoy and Reichle* [17] also showed  
588 that the assimilation of locally rescaled SMOS Tbs or soil moisture estimates extracted very different  
589 information from the observations locally. Thus, it is not surprising that DA-NN-ICDF and DA-L4  
590 have different skills at individual reference pixels.

591 Similarities between the DA-L4 and DA-NN-ICDF experiments exist at the LR reference pixel,  
592 where both experiments generally improve the model skill, whereas the two experiments using a  
593 global observation rescaling (DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF) consistently degrade the model skill. These  
594 differences are not related to the retrieval product skill and could thus be related to (1) a higher level of  
595 retained observation noise or (2) an uncertain error characterization in the DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF  
596 experiments.

597 Evaluated against the sparse network measurements (Figure 4), the skill differences of DA-L4  
598 relative to its OL are very small and consistently within error bars. The Tb assimilation slightly  
599 improves the correlation and ubRMSE skill in the surface layer, but slightly degrades the skill in the  
600 root zone. For the bias, the behavior is inverted, with a slight bias improvement in the root zone.

601 Overall, the soil moisture assimilation experiments and DA-L4 are able to achieve very similar  
602 skill improvements over their respective open loops. This supports the finding of *De Lannoy and Reichle*  
603 [17] that the assimilation of SMOS Tbs and soil moisture estimates - while locally different - resulted in  
604 model estimates with a comparable average skill against in situ measurements. Taken together, the  
605 results suggest that the NN method could be a viable assimilation alternative when a Tb assimilation  
606 is not possible (e.g., due to issues with the RTM calibration or a too high complexity of the RTM).

607 Furthermore, the assimilation configuration used in the experiments here is very close to that  
608 of the SMAP L4\_SM system and as such might not represent the optimal configuration for soil

609 moisture retrieval assimilation. A better calibration of the model perturbations might further improve  
610 the observation impact and increase the skill improvements from the soil moisture assimilation  
611 experiments.

## 612 5. Conclusions and Perspectives

613 In this study we compared different methods to extract soil moisture information from SMAP  
614 observations through data assimilation. In particular, we focused on the potential of NN techniques  
615 to reduce the need for bias correction prior to an assimilation in order to maximize the amount of  
616 independent satellite information that is used to inform the model. We conducted three experiments  
617 to assimilate SMAP soil moisture retrievals into the NASA CLSM and evaluated the resulting soil  
618 moisture estimates against in situ measurements from the SMAP core validation sites as well as two  
619 sparse networks. For reference, we also compared our soil moisture assimilation experiments against  
620 the skill of the SMAP L4\_SM estimates generated through a SMAP Tb assimilation.

621 All of the SMAP data assimilation experiments included in our study were generally able to  
622 improve the surface and root zone soil moisture model skill over the respective open loop (model run  
623 without data assimilation) when evaluated against the CVS in situ measurements (with the exception  
624 of the root zone bias). This demonstrates the general potential of the SMAP observations to inform the  
625 model, irrespective of the data assimilation approach chosen, and confirms previous findings [18,52].  
626 For most reference pixels, the improvements over the OL were small and differences in the average  
627 metrics were mostly driven by a few pixels with large improvements. However, the improvement  
628 over the model skill in data-rich region such as the US is limited because the model skill is generally  
629 high. Larger improvements in the model skill can be expected in data-sparse regions. Measurements  
630 at the sparse network sites are less representative of the grid-cell scale estimates from the model and  
631 retrievals. Moreover, the sparse networks include many stations where microwave-based soil moisture  
632 retrievals are not reliable. Therefore, the skill improvements over the open loop were generally smaller  
633 or sometimes negative for the sparse networks.

634 Comparing the three soil moisture assimilation experiments showed that using a global  
635 observation rescaling (DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF) better retained the independent soil moisture  
636 information provided by the SMAP retrievals and led to a larger impact of the observations during  
637 the assimilation. This resulted in larger soil moisture skill improvements at many reference pixels  
638 compared to the improvements obtained when using a local rescaling (DA-NN-ICDF). However,  
639 it also made the soil moisture estimates more sensitive to a skill degradation in locations where  
640 the observations were uncertain. On average, the assimilation resulted in slightly higher skill  
641 improvements against the surface in situ measurements for DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF and slightly  
642 higher skill improvements in the root zone for DA-NN-ICDF. Overall, the results suggest that the  
643 global rescaling approaches could potentially be very beneficial for soil moisture estimation under the  
644 condition of (1) a good observation error characterization, (2) a rigorous observation quality control  
645 and (3) a potential component-wise assimilation [51] to better isolate the reliable satellite information.

646 The experiments using global observation rescaling introduced large changes in the land  
647 evaporation and runoff that were likely unrealistic in magnitude. This showed that using the NN  
648 assimilation method for purposes other than improving soil moisture estimates is not recommended  
649 without a careful re-calibration of the model processes translating soil moisture changes into changes  
650 of other model variables.

651 Instead of assimilating the NN retrievals without further bias correction (in DA-NN), similar  
652 results were obtained when assimilating physically-based retrievals after a global bias correction (in  
653 DA-L2P-gCDF). We previously showed that the retrieval product skill and amount of independent  
654 information provided by the NN and L2P retrievals is comparable and thus the similar skill of the  
655 DA-NN and DA-L2P-gCDF estimates indicates that the two rescaling methods are approximately  
656 equivalent. However, the relatively short record length of the SMAP observations implies that sampling

657 errors impact both the NN method and the two CDF-matching approaches used here and that the  
658 results might change as longer data records become available.

659 Finally, compared to the skill improvements obtained from the SMAP Tb assimilation  
660 implemented in the SMAP L4\_SM system, the soil moisture assimilation experiments had comparable  
661 average correlation and ubRMSE skill. Differences in the average bias changes between the L4\_SM  
662 estimates and the experiments using global observation rescaling exist as a result of the local Tb  
663 rescaling implemented in the L4\_SM system. Overall, the results suggest that on average there is no  
664 particular advantage to assimilating either Tbs or soil moisture estimates, although locally the choice  
665 could result in statistically significant skill differences.

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