

# Information theoretic evaluation of satellite soil moisture retrievals

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## Abstract

Microwave radiometry has a long legacy of providing estimates of remotely sensed near surface soil moisture measurements over continental and global scales. A consistent assessment of the errors and uncertainties associated with these retrievals is important for their effective utilization in modeling, data assimilation and end-use application environments. This article presents an evaluation of soil moisture retrieval products from AMSR-E, ASCAT, SMOS, AMSR2 and SMAP instruments using information theory-based metrics. These metrics rely on time series analysis of soil moisture retrievals for estimating the measurement error, level of randomness (entropy) and regularity (complexity) of the data. The results of the study indicate that the measurement errors in the remote sensing retrievals are significantly larger than that of the ground soil moisture measurements. The SMAP retrievals, on the other hand, were found to have reduced errors (comparable to

those of in-situ datasets), particularly over areas with moderate vegetation. The SMAP retrievals also demonstrate high information content relative to other retrieval products, with higher levels of complexity and reduced entropy. Finally, a joint evaluation of the entropy and complexity of remotely sensed soil moisture products indicates that the information content of the AMSR-E, ASCAT, SMOS and AMSR2 retrievals is low, whereas SMAP retrievals show better performance. The use of information theoretic assessments is effective in quantifying the required levels of improvements needed in the remote sensing soil moisture retrievals to enhance their utility and information content.

*Keywords:* soil moisture, remote sensing, information theory

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## 1. Introduction

Soil moisture plays an important role in modulating the exchanges of water and energy at the land atmosphere interface and profoundly influences the spatial and temporal variability of weather and climatic conditions (Koster et al. (2004); Seneviratne et al. (2010)). Accurate characterization of soil moisture is, therefore, important for applications such as flood/drought forecasting, weather and climate modeling, agricultural and water resources management. Observations of soil moisture from ground measurements tend to be sparse and are often not sufficient to capture the spatial heterogeneity and variability of soil moisture at larger spatial scales, required for such applications. Space-borne measurements of soil moisture, primarily from microwave (MW) remote sensing, provide an alternative for developing observations of soil moisture over larger spatial extents (Jackson (1993); Njoku and Entekhabi (1995)). In the past several decades, near surface soil moisture retrievals have become available from a number of low-frequency (C, X, Ku- and L-band) passive and active microwave sensors (Wagner et al. (2003); Njoku et al. (2003); Wen et al. (2003); Owe et al. (2008); Kerr et al. (2010); Entekhabi et al. (2010)).

Microwave soil moisture sensors exploit the fact that the emission of the land surface is affected by variables such as surface temperature, roughness, vegetation and soil moisture. The influence of soil moisture is most prominent at low frequencies ( $\sim 10^{-1}$  GHz, making it the ideal range of satellite remote sensing (Njoku and Kong (1977); Jackson et al. (1982); Ulaby et al. (1986)). Unlike the visible and infrared sensors, the microwave sensors are not limited by cloud cover and nighttime conditions. The observations can be made at any time of the day and are not dependent on solar illumination (Jackson et al. (1996)). Longer wavelengths (L-band; 1 -2 GHz) also

22 allow for deeper penetration into the soil and reduce the influence of vegetation in attenuating the  
23 soil moisture signal (Jackson et al. (1982)). The active instruments can provide measurements at  
24 higher spatial resolutions than the passive microwave instruments, though radar systems are more  
25 strongly affected by the local topography, roughness and vegetation than passive radiometer sys-  
26 tems (Entekhabi et al. (2010); Lakshmi (2013)). However, studies such as Brocca et al. (2011)  
27 have suggested that ASCAT can outperform passive microwave based retrievals over areas with  
28 moderate vegetation. Passive observations on the other hand, are more impacted by spatial hetero-  
29 geneity and scaling effects because of poor spatial resolution. The spatial resolution of the passive  
30 microwave soil moisture observations is typically coarse ( $\sim 25$  to  $50$  km), with the satellite foot-  
31 print size increasing with wavelength and altitude. The presence of snow cover, frozen soil and  
32 precipitation events also limits the skill of the soil moisture retrievals (Parinussa et al. (2011)).

33 Due to the differences in the spatial and temporal span of different MW instruments and due  
34 to the limited availability of reliable ground measurements, a consistent evaluation of soil mois-  
35 ture remote sensing datasets is difficult. Land surface model climatology has often been used the  
36 reference to address the climatological differences between different retrievals when developing  
37 multi-sensor products (Liu et al. (2011b)) and for consistent evaluations of multiple products. In  
38 a recent study, Kumar et al. (2015) has shown that such approaches lead to the loss of valuable  
39 signals and cause the statistical properties of the retrieval products to be similar to that of the ref-  
40 erence datasets. Therefore, performance measures not reliant on the availability of ancillary soil  
41 moisture data can be useful for characterizing and assessing the quality of the soil moisture re-  
42 trieval datasets. As a result, studies have used indirect approaches such as triple collocation (TC;

43 Stoffelen (1998); Dorigo et al. (2010)) and spectral fitting (SF; Su et al. (2014)) to assess the rela-  
44 tive quality of global soil moisture retrievals. TC comparisons involve three different soil moisture  
45 products (often a mix of satellite soil moisture retrievals and land surface model estimates), with  
46 assumptions of linearity (between the true soil moisture and observations), signal and error sta-  
47 tionarity, error orthogonality and independence of errors in the constituent datasets (Gruber et al.  
48 (2016b)). Recent studies have examined the applicability of these assumptions for soil moisture  
49 datasets (Yilmaz and Crow (2014)) and have proposed enhancements to address the limitations  
50 imposed by these assumptions, making it a powerful method for global soil moisture evaluation  
51 (Zwieback et al. (2013); Gruber et al. (2016b,a)). The SF error estimator, based on the method de-  
52 veloped by Su et al. (2013) for de-noising satellite soil moisture datasets, estimates the stochastic  
53 random errors by comparing the spectral properties of a given soil moisture time series and a lin-  
54 earized water balance model. This method also does not require ancillary datasets and was shown  
55 to provide error estimates comparable to those from TC.

56       Similar to these stand-alone assessment methods, here we present the use of information theo-  
57 retic and autoregressive analysis of time series data for quantifying errors and information content  
58 of remote sensing retrieval datasets from a number of recent soil moisture missions. Information  
59 theory measures, originally proposed by Shannon (1948), consider the stochasticity in time series  
60 data as sources of information. A key information theoretic measure is entropy, which quanti-  
61 fies the information content or randomness associated with the probability distribution of the data.  
62 Similarly, temporal measures of complexity rooted in information theory can be used to discrimi-  
63 nate datasets based on time series complexity. Entropy and complexity provide separate measures

64 of information by characterizing the randomness and state changes within a given time series of  
65 the data. Entropy is a measure of uncertainty, which is low for periodic sequences and high for  
66 random processes. On the other hand, complexity is a measure that is low for both periodic and  
67 random sequences, but high for sequences that are not easy to describe with a minimal set of pa-  
68 rameters (Lange (1999)). Such measures have been employed for comparing model outputs of soil  
69 moisture (Pachepsky et al. (2006)), space-borne soil moisture retrievals (Nearing et al. (2017)),  
70 runoff and precipitation measurements from different catchment systems (Lange (1999); Hauhs  
71 and Lange (2008)) and ecological systems (Parrott (2010)). A key advantage of information the-  
72 oretic methods is that they enable the quantification of hidden patterns and structures of the data  
73 without requiring ancillary or independent data.

74 In addition to the use of information theoretic measures, we also employ time series red noise  
75 spectrum analysis to develop estimates of accuracy. Vinnikov et al. (1996) employed a first-order  
76 Markov process model framework to evaluate observational soil moisture data, which was ex-  
77 tended by Dirmeyer et al. (2016) in a recent study to compare measurement errors from different  
78 in-situ soil moisture observational networks. Here we apply this method for comparing measure-  
79 ment errors associated with remote sensing soil moisture retrievals. Similar to the information  
80 theoretic measures, a key advantage of this approach is that it does not require specific validation  
81 or independent reference data. The simultaneous development of information theoretic and mea-  
82 surement error estimates allows the comparison of associated tradeoffs in accuracy, uncertainty  
83 and complexity.

84 The article is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the details of the datasets and the eval-

85 uation approaches. The application of the information theory methods to the remote sensing soil  
86 moisture retrievals is described in Section 3. Section 4 provides a summary and discussion of the  
87 major conclusions of this study.

## 88 **2. Approach**

### 89 *2.1. Methods*

90 The information theoretic measures are developed by treating the time series data as a symbol  
91 sequence with a finite number of states. The standard approach is to categorize the time series data  
92 into a binary string (“symbols”) (Lange (1999); Pachepsky et al. (2006)), by encoding values above  
93 and below the median (for time series at each grid point), as 1 and 0, respectively. The entropy  
94 and complexity measures are then computed based on the probabilities of observing patterns of  
95 states/words (a group of  $L$  consecutive symbols) within the sequence. In this article, we use three  
96 symbol states ( $L=3$ ), consistent with prior studies (Pachepsky et al. (2006); Pan et al. (2011)).  
97 These include the probability of occurrence of a given state  $i$  ( $p_{L,i}$ ) as well as the second order  
98 probability ( $p_{L,ij}$ ) of observing state  $i$  next to  $j$ . For binary symbol sequences, there are  $2^L$  possible  
99 words of length  $L$ . (For example, if an encoded symbol string starts as '0011', then the first word  
100 is '001', which transitions to the second word '011' and so on.)

101 Shannon entropy is the expected value of the information contained in a symbol sequence. The  
102 metric entropy is specified as the normalized measure of Shannon entropy for states of size  $L$  and

103 is defined as:

$$H(L) = -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{2^L} p_{L,i} \log_2 p_{L,i}}{L} \quad (1)$$

104  $H(L)$  ranges between 0 (for constant sequences) and 1 (for uniformly distributed random se-  
105 quences).

106 The fluctuation complexity (Bates and Shephard (1993)), which measures the spread between  
107 information within a symbol string between consecutive states is expressed as:

$$C(L) = \sum_{i,j}^{2^L} p_{L,ij} \left( \log_2 \frac{p_{L,i}}{p_{L,j}} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

108  $C(L)$  can be thought of as a measure of the ordering of states within a symbol sequence, with  
109 high and low values associated with complex and simple orderings, respectively. The fluctuation  
110 complexity, therefore, is a measure of the extent of the changes in information gain or loss in a  
111 time series and it approaches zero for signals with limited probable states (Pan et al. (2011)).

112 Note that both the choice of the classification and the length of the words have an impact on  
113 the metrics that are computed. The use of a finer classifications (rather than wet and dry) and the  
114 use of larger number of words enables a more granular detection of the entropy and complexity  
115 measures, but requires longer and consistent time series. Though the use of the three-symbol states  
116 in this study limits the granularity of the soil moisture changes detected by the information theory  
117 measures, they are helpful in examining the general trends across various remote sensing datasets.

118 The analysis of measurement errors used in this study is based on the fact that soil moisture,  
119 due to its memory, can be described as a first order Markov process (Delworth and Manabe (1988)).



120 The lagged autocorrelation of soil moisture ( $r(\tau)$ ) reduces exponentially with time:

$$r(\tau) = e^{-\lambda\tau} \quad (3)$$

121 where  $\lambda$  is decay frequency and  $\tau$  is the time lag. Due to the presence of measurement errors, a  
122 linear regression of  $\ln(r)$  vs  $\tau$  does not pass through  $\tau = 0, r=1$ . Therefore, the displacement term  
123  $a$  of the correlation at  $\tau = 0$  can be used to compute estimates of measurement error (Vinnikov et al.  
124 (1996)). The relative measurement error ( $\epsilon$ ) can be expressed as the square root of the fraction of  
125 the random error variance and the variance of soil moisture, as follows:

$$\epsilon = \sqrt{\left(\frac{a}{1+a}\right)} \quad (4)$$

126 In other words,  $\epsilon$  is the root mean square (RMS) of the measurement error normalized by the  
127 standard deviation of soil moisture. This statistical model assumes that soil moisture evolution  
128 can be represented by a first-order ordinary differential equation (ODE) driven by white-noise  
129 precipitation forcing (Delworth and Manabe (1988)). Essentially the model assumes that noise  
130 quantified here is that which does not fit the first order ODE. In the analysis below, the error  
131 estimates are generated using autocorrelations at lags of 1, 2 and 3 days.

## 132 2.2. Data

133 Retrievals from five recent satellite soil moisture microwave instruments are used in this study.  
134 They include: (1) the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer-Earth Observing System (AMSR-  
135 E) aboard the Aqua satellite, (2) the Advanced Scatterometer (ASCAT), a C-band active microwave  
136 remote sensing instrument aboard the Meteorological Operational (METOP) satellites, (3) the

137 Soil Moisture Ocean Salinity (SMOS) mission, (4) the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiome-  
138 ter 2 (AMSR2) onboard the Global Change Observation Mission-Water (GCOM-W) satellite, and  
139 (5) the Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) mission. Except for AMSR-E, which stopped func-  
140 tioning in October 2011, all these instruments are currently providing measurements of surface  
141 soil moisture. Soil moisture retrievals are generated from the raw measurements using differ-  
142 ent retrieval algorithms and systems. The AMSR-E retrievals with the Land Parameter Retrieval  
143 Model (LPRM) algorithm (Owe et al., 2008) is used here as prior studies have quantified better per-  
144 formance of AMSR-E LPRM data relative to other available AMSR-E retrieval products (Rudiger  
145 et al. (2009); Champagne et al. (2010); Liu et al. (2011a)). The Soil Moisture Operational Products  
146 System (SMOPS; Liu et al., 2012) of NOAA/NESDIS is used for obtaining soil moisture retrievals  
147 from the backscatter measurements acquired by ASCAT and the L-band radiometer measurements  
148 of SMOS. Note that the ASCAT retrievals available through SMOPS are the same as the Near  
149 Real Time (NRT) retrievals from EUMETSAT, designed to meet the latency requirements of the  
150 operational Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) community. The SMOS retrievals in SMOPS  
151 are produced through a single channel retrieval algorithm based on Jackson (1993). The SMOPS  
152 product is used for operational soil moisture data assimilation at several agencies around the world  
153 due to its NRT availability. The AMSR2 retrievals (Level 3 products) from the Japan Aerospace  
154 Exploration Agency (JAXA; Fujii et al., 2009; Koike, 2013) are used in this study as they have been  
155 shown to perform better compared to other available retrieval products (Bindlish et al. (2017)).

156 The SMAP mission consists of two instruments, a L-band high resolution radar (1 km) and a  
157 coarse-resolution radiometer (40 km). The SMAP radar encountered an anomaly a few months

158 after launch and is currently inoperable. As a result, in this study we use the level 3, coarse  
159 resolution (36 km) passive microwave measurements (L3\_SM\_P; O'Neill et al. (2012); Chan et al.  
160 (2016)) available through the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC). The temporal extents  
161 of the data sets used in this study are as follows: AMSR-E data from June 2002 to October 2011,  
162 ASCAT from January 2007 to December 2016, AMSR2 from July 2012 to December 2016, SMOS  
163 from April 2012 to December 2016 and SMAP from April 2015 to December 2016. To ensure a  
164 reasonable temporal continuity in these datasets, gaps of less than 3 days are filled using a 1-  
165 d discrete cosine transform Wang et al. (2012) method, consistent with the strategy used in Su  
166 et al. (2013). Unlike Dirmeyer et al. (2016), where interpolation was used to fill gaps of less than  
167 10 days, we used a shorter time window to ensure that the temporal interpolation itself does not  
168 significantly impact the computation of the metrics. As the temporal gaps and irregular sampling  
169 of remote sensing datasets are intrinsic to these product, we omit analyses that reconciles these  
170 differences to a common repeat period.

### 171 **3. Results**

172 Figure 1 shows the maps of relative measurement error and its distribution for soil moisture re-  
173 trievals from each sensor. The data quality flags provided with each sensor are employed in screen-  
174 ing the data values used in the comparisons. For example, a subset of data locations that conform  
175 to the recommended Quality Assessment (QA) classifications ('good retrievals') of the SMOPS  
176 system is employed in the comparisons. The spatial patterns in Figure 1 show a strong signal of  
177 vegetation density with larger errors over areas with thick vegetation (e.g., Amazon, Congo, East-  
178 ern U.S.) and smaller errors over Savannas and Arid regions (e.g., India, Western U.S.). Compared

179 to the SMOS retrievals, the ASCAT retrievals show larger errors over arid regions of the world  
180 (Sahara, Western U.S., deserts of Australia). This is consistent with prior studies (Wagner et al.  
181 (2007); Gruhier et al. (2010)) that also reported that the scatterometer retrievals are less accurate  
182 than the radiometer retrievals over dry regions. This is due to the fact that over dry environments  
183 when the soil dries out completely, the scattering contributions from surface inhomogeneities im-  
184 pact the soil moisture retrievals more than the soil moisture content itself (Wagner et al. (2012)).  
185 The relative measurement error computations in Figure 1 confirm these previous findings.

186 The relative measurement error of in-situ soil moisture datasets reported in Dirmeyer et al.  
187 (2016) showed a range of 0.1-0.3 for most measurement systems with larger errors for systems  
188 employing sensors just above the land surface. From Figure 1, it can be seen that the errors as-  
189 sociated with the satellite-based retrievals are generally larger, in the 0.4-0.6 range. The domain  
190 averaged relative measurement errors are 0.46, 0.44, 0.54, 0.47, and 0.42 for AMSR-E, ASCAT,  
191 SMOS, AMSR2 and SMAP, respectively. Across different sensors, SMAP based retrievals show  
192 better performance over different climatic zones and biomes, with relative measurement errors  
193 significantly reduced over areas with moderate vegetation. Some areas with notably low skill for  
194 SMAP are the Sahara and Western Australia deserts, which are likely due to factors such as the  
195 surface temperature biases used in the SMAP retrievals (SMAP science team, pers. comm.) and  
196 the deeper contributing depth of the microwave signal over arid areas. In addition, the limited  
197 dynamic range of soil moisture over deserts and forested areas also contributes to higher relative  
198 errors over these areas. Generally, the soil moisture dynamic ranges are higher over non-forested  
199 areas with moderate vegetation and SMAP retrievals show high skills over such regions. Note that

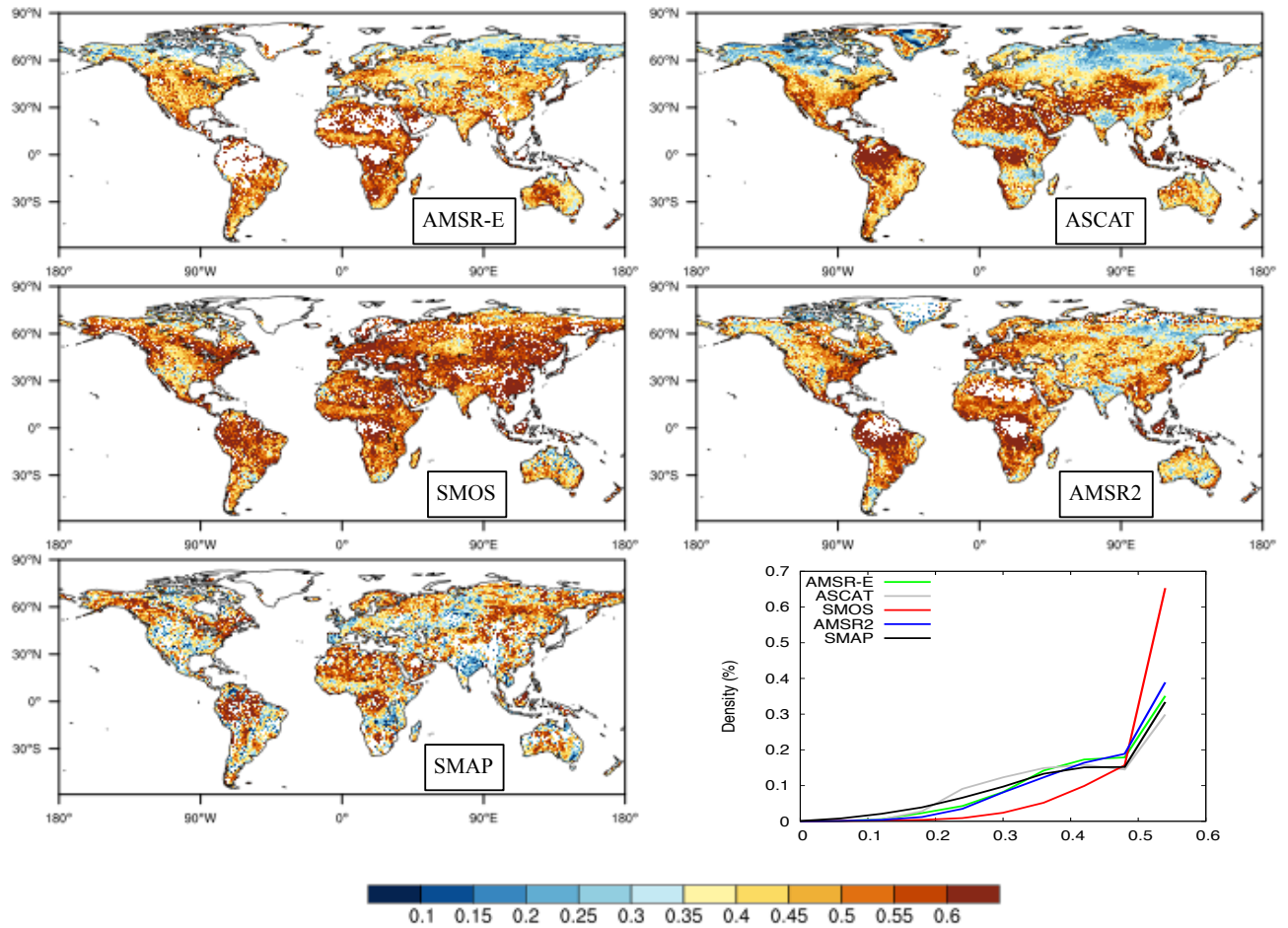


Figure 1: Relative measurement error ( $\epsilon$ ) for soil moisture retrievals from AMSR-E, ASCAT, SMOS, AMSR2 and SMAP. The lower right figure shows the distribution of  $\epsilon$  for each sensor.

200 such issues are also observed in retrievals from ASCAT, SMOS and AMSR-E. The comparison  
 201 of the distribution of measurement errors also confirms the fact that overall, SMAP retrievals are  
 202 improved relative to the skill of the retrievals from other MW sensors. The ASCAT retrievals show  
 203 reduced error levels in the high latitudes, which contribute to the increased span in the medium  
 204 error range (0.2-0.4) in the distribution comparisons.

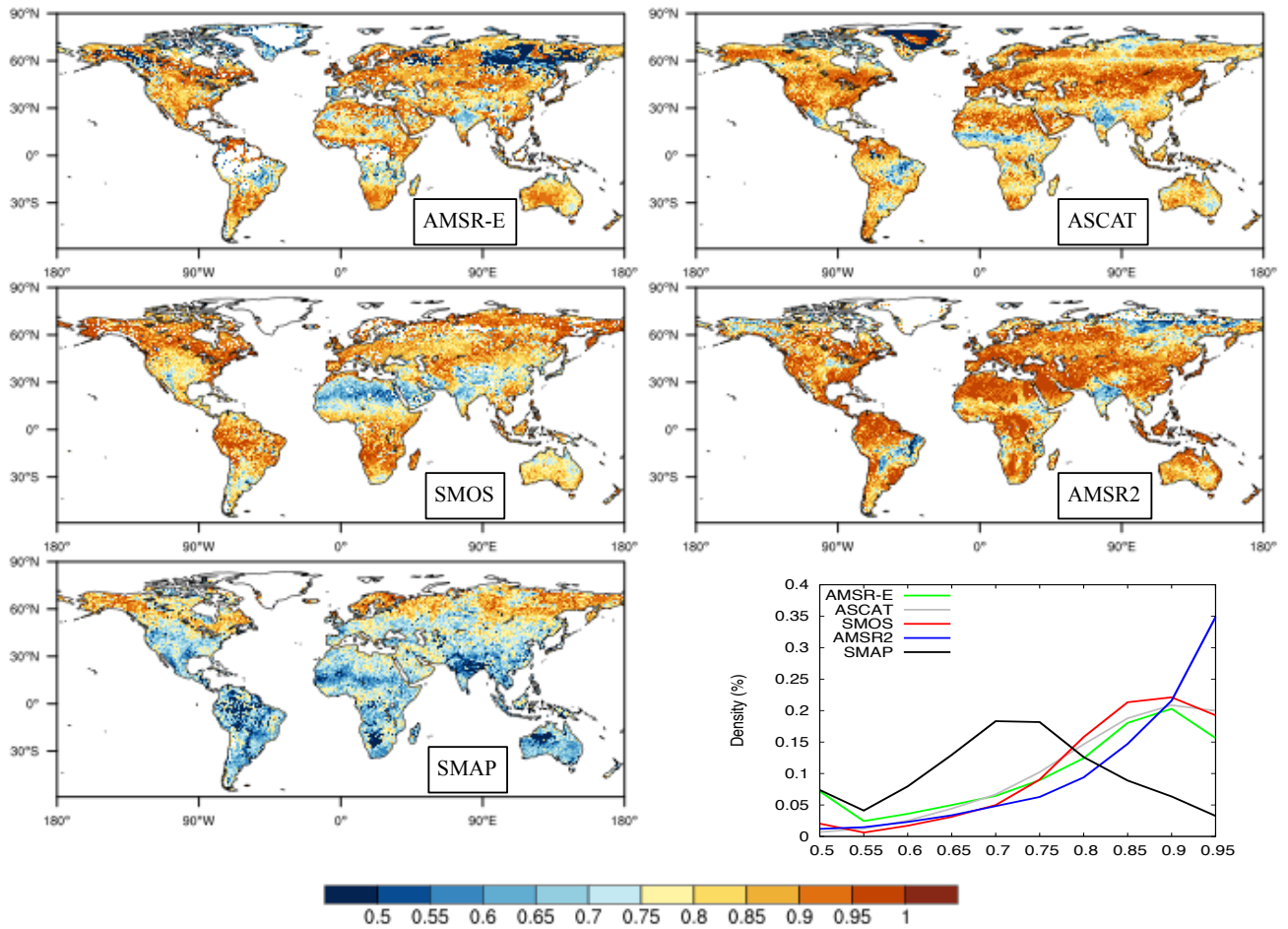


Figure 2: Similar to Figure 1, but for metric entropy ( $H$ )

205 Figures 2 and 3 show comparisons of the soil moisture retrievals from the 5 sensors based on

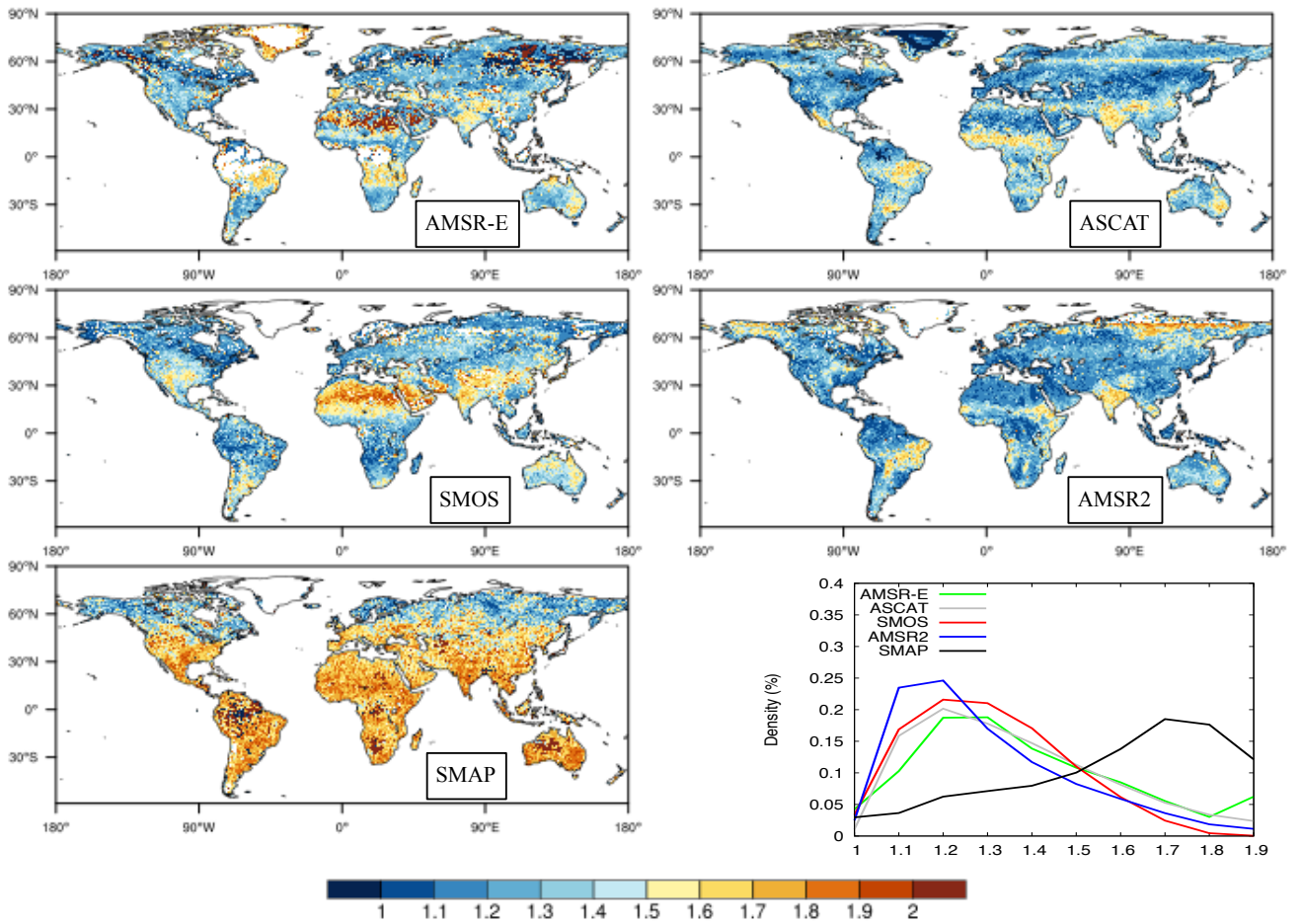


Figure 3: Similar to 2, but for fluctuation complexity ( $C$ )

206 metric entropy and fluctuation complexity, respectively. The maps of metric entropy show discrim-  
207 ination of areas with different levels of randomness in the retrievals. For example, areas of high  
208 vegetation density show up as areas with high randomness in the retrievals, as larger  $H$  values are  
209 seen over the Amazon, Eastern U.S. and Congo. Larger uncertainty is also seen over arid regions in  
210 the Western U.S., Sahara and Western Australia, especially in the ASCAT and AMSR2 retrievals.  
211 Conversely, the fluctuation complexity maps show reduced values over these regions with larger  
212 randomness, which are indicative of low information content in the time series at these locations.  
213 Similar to the trends seen in Figure 1, SMAP shows a distinctly different behavior in these com-  
214 parisons. Generally, the metric entropy values are significantly lower (reduced randomness in the  
215 SMAP time series) and fluctuation complexity values are higher (larger information content com-  
216 pared to a periodic or random noise signal). SMAP retrievals particularly show high information  
217 content (less noise) in the midlatitude regions in the comparisons in Figures 2 and 3. The plots of  
218 the distribution of the metric entropy and fluctuation complexity values across the whole domain  
219 also confirm these trends. The metric entropy and fluctuation complexity distributions for all sen-  
220 sors except SMAP are skewed to the high and low values, respectively, indicating that overall, the  
221 information content of the retrievals from these sensors have large amount of noise. The SMAP  
222 distribution spans an intermediate range, suggesting reduced levels of randomness and increased  
223 levels of complexity in the time series.

224 Note that the AMSR-E and AMSR2 retrieval algorithms are based on X-band passive mi-  
225 crowave observations, whereas ASCAT uses C-band radar observations. The observations based  
226 on these channels have lower sensitivity to soil moisture and are more influenced by the presence of



227 moderate to dense vegetation compared to the retrievals using lower frequency (L-band) channels.  
228 Nevertheless, the comparison of ASCAT versus SMOS/AMSR-E/AMSR2 presented in Figures 1  
229 to 3 indicates that in many parts of the world, the active and passive retrievals have comparable  
230 skills. It is interesting, however, that the SMAP retrievals show higher skill and increased infor-  
231 mation content compared to SMOS, though both are L-band based retrievals. Though the SMOS  
232 and SMAP instruments are similar, they use different technologies. The SMAP instrument is a real  
233 aperture radiometer whereas SMOS uses a synthetic aperture radiometer. Previous studies (Oliva  
234 et al. (2013)) have documented that the unique SMOS brightness temperature (T<sub>b</sub>) observations  
235 have a higher Noise Equivalent Delta Temperature (NEDT), which represents the temperature dif-  
236 ference that would produce a signal equivalent to the internal noise of the instrument. The SMOS  
237 retrieval algorithm attempts to reduce the impact of NEDT by using T<sub>b</sub> from all incidence angles.  
238 The error in the soil moisture retrieval is then minimized by the relationship between T<sub>b</sub> and the  
239 incidence angles. The quality and the number of T<sub>b</sub> samples, however, reduce as the distance from  
240 the center of the swath decreases. SMAP, on the other hand, provides observations of a particular  
241 location at a fixed incidence angle, which likely contributes to the reduced noise in the measure-  
242 ments, as confirmed in our analysis. Note also that though SMOS and SMAP both operate L-band  
243 radiometers, the SMOS retrievals suffer more from the man-made radio frequency interference  
244 (RFI) contamination, which were unknown before the SMOS launch. The SMAP mission, on the  
245 other hand, developed measures to mitigate the effect of RFI prior to launch, which has likely  
246 contributed to the improved performance of the SMAP retrievals relative to SMOS.

247 A comparison of the average values of the three metrics stratified by vegetation type is shown in

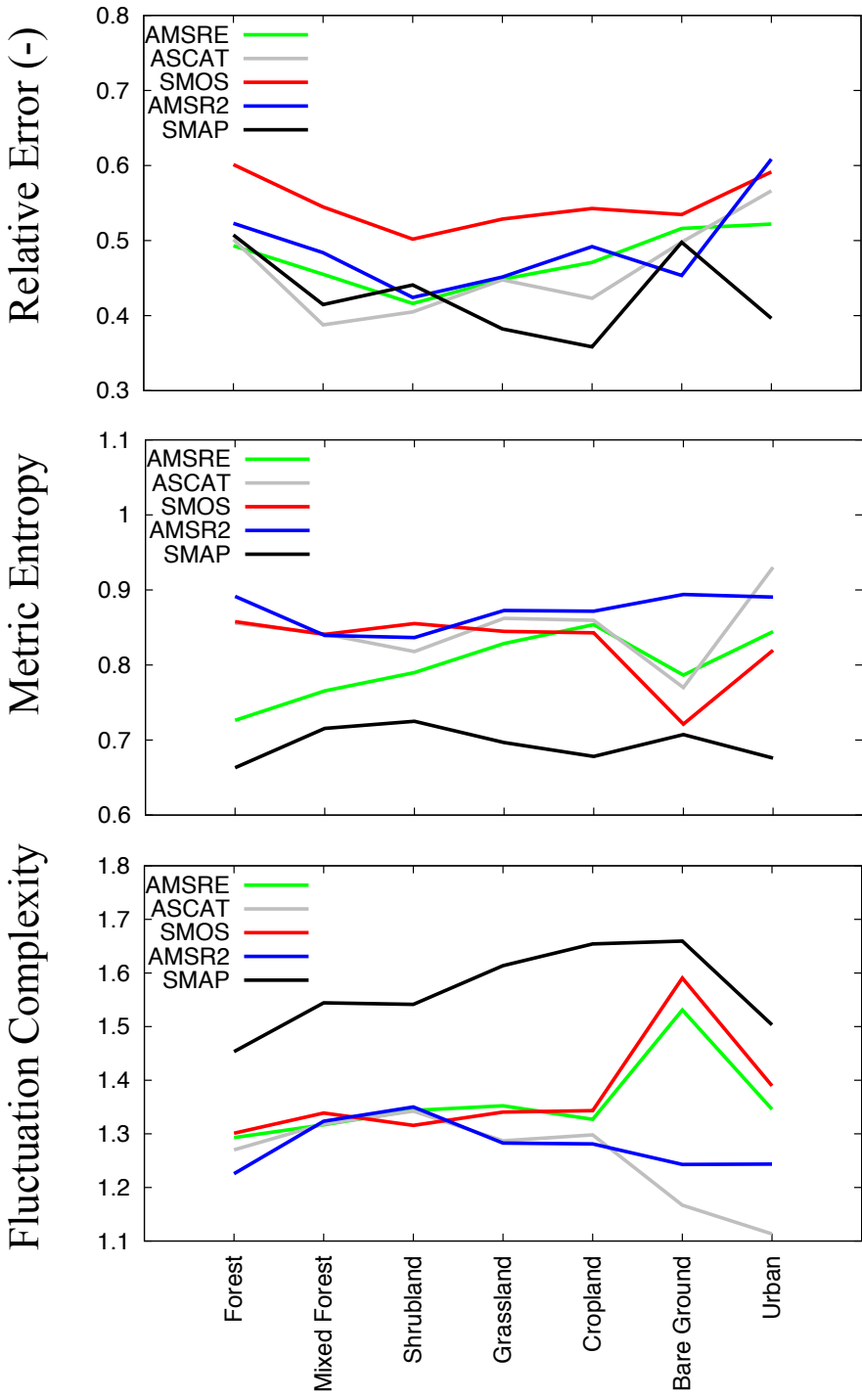


Figure 4: Stratification of metrics by vegetation type

248 Figure 4. The seven vegetation categories are derived from the modified International Geosphere-  
249 Biosphere Programme (IGBP) Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data  
250 (Friedl et al. (2010)). Similar to the patterns seen in the spatial maps, smaller errors are seen for  
251 moderate vegetation types and larger errors for bare ground and thick vegetation types. SMAP  
252 shows the smallest errors among different sensors across most vegetation types. In particular,  
253 SMAP retrievals show lowest errors over the Cropland and Grassland types. In the information  
254 theory comparisons, SMAP retrievals show reduced levels of randomness and high fluctuation  
255 complexity among the 5 sensors across all vegetation types. Generally, the stratification also in-  
256 dicates higher information content over moderate vegetation types compared to thick vegetation  
257 types. For other sensors, however, the obvious contrasts in the metrics between vegetation types  
258 are not always observed. For example, AMSR2 shows similar metric entropy values across all  
259 vegetation types. The performance of SMOS and ASCAT are comparable for different vegetation  
260 types, except for the low metric entropy values over bare ground areas.

261 Metric entropy is a measure of the amount of uncertainty inherent in a Markov process (Gray  
262 (2011)), but it does not characterize the state changes in a time series, which can be captured by  
263 complexity measures. As a result, joint consideration of the two measures is necessary to quan-  
264 tify the information content of a time series in terms of its randomness and state changes within  
265 the sequences. Previous studies have shown that the functional relationship between entropy and  
266 complexity generally follows an inverse parabolic relationship (Lange (1999)), as complexity is  
267 low for periodic (low entropy) and random noise (high entropy) signals, but high for time se-  
268 ries that are different from random or trivial sequences (intermediate entropy). Figure 5 shows

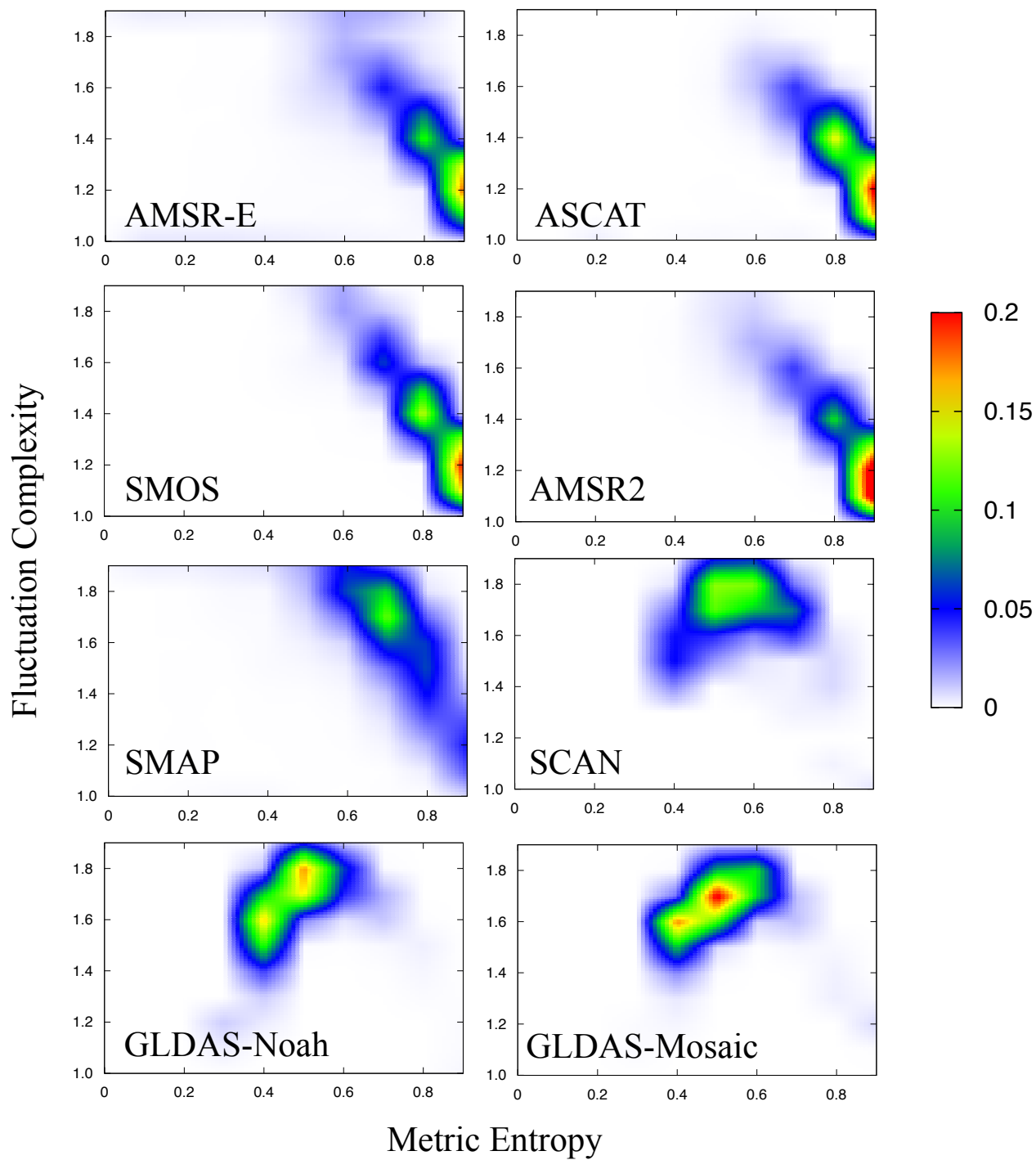


Figure 5: Density of grid points mapped as a function of metric entropy (x-axis) and fluctuation complexity (y-axis).

269 “heatmaps”/density of grid points as a function of these two variables, for the 5 remote sensing  
270 retrievals. In addition, Figure 5 also includes joint evaluations of the entropy and complexity from  
271 ground soil moisture measurements and outputs from two land surface model simulations. The  
272 ground soil moisture measurements are obtained from the U.S. Department of Agriculture Soil  
273 Climate Analysis Network (SCAN; Schaefer et al. (2007)), whereas the Noah (Ek et al. (2003))  
274 and Mosaic (Koster and Suarez (1996)) model soil moisture estimates from the Global Land Data  
275 Assimilation System (GLDAS; Rodell et al. (2004)) are used as the land surface model outputs.

276 The comparisons shown in Figure 5 indicate the different regions of the Entropy-Complexity  
277 (E-C) space spanned by each soil moisture dataset. The remote sensing measurements AMSR-E,  
278 ASCAT, SMOS and AMSR2 show high density of grid points in the lower right part of the E-C  
279 space, the area dominated by high randomness and low complexity. This suggests that the informa-  
280 tion content of these retrievals is low. Comparatively, SMAP shows improved performance, where  
281 the density of grid points is shifted to the area with high complexity and intermediate random-  
282 ness. The in-situ measurements from SCAN show high density in the E-C space in regions with  
283 high complexity, but with marginally reduced entropy (compared to SMAP). The heatmaps from  
284 GLDAS-Noah and GLDAS-Mosaic also indicate high complexity and intermediate randomness  
285 in their soil moisture time series. It can be observed that the land models, ground measurements  
286 and remote sensing datasets span different parts of the E-C space and together, they encompass  
287 the inverse parabolic relationship between entropy and complexity. Generally, entropy is lower in  
288 the land model estimates, increases marginally for the ground soil moisture measurements, and  
289 is highest for remote sensing datasets. On the other hand, complexity is comparable across land

290 surface model and ground soil moisture estimates, but significantly lower for remote sensing mea-  
291 surements (except those from SMAP). If ground measurements are considered as reference, the  
292 comparison in Figure 5 shows that significant improvements to the remote sensing retrievals are  
293 required for improving their information content, to improve their utility in modeling and data  
294 assimilation environments.

295 As the metric entropy and fluctuation complexity measures quantify the information of the  
296 signal and are not necessarily direct assessments of the skill of the measurement itself, they should  
297 be viewed as a complementary analysis to standard validation metrics. For example, in an arid  
298 region, the soil moisture signal may not have significant variability and as a result, the complexity  
299 and entropy of the natural signal may be low. Arguably, the utility of remote sensing measurements  
300 is higher over areas where soil moisture dynamics are inherently more variable and capturing them  
301 accurately is difficult. Over such areas, the information theory metrics are useful for providing both  
302 assessments of signal quality as well as for intercomparing model, satellite and ground reference  
303 data products. The information theory based discrimination can also be used for developing merged  
304 products with improved information content.

#### 305 **4. Summary**

306 Remote sensing based observations of soil moisture, primarily from passive and active mi-  
307 crowave remote sensing, are of great value as they provide measurements across a range of spatial  
308 and temporal scales and extents. A consistent evaluation of the accuracy and information con-  
309 tent of these products, however, is difficult since reliable, spatially coherent ground measurements  
310 of soil moisture are lacking in many parts of the world. In this article, we present a time series

311 based information theoretic analysis for an intercomparison of recent satellite-based soil moisture  
312 products.

313 Soil moisture retrievals from five recent microwave remote sensing instruments, including  
314 AMSR-E, ASCAT, SMOS, AMSR2 and SMAP are used in this study. Three measures that quantify  
315 the accuracy, randomness, and the complexity of the data are used to intercompare these retrieval  
316 products. An autoregressive analysis that models soil moisture as a first order Markov process is  
317 used to develop estimates of measurement errors. Information theory measures of metric entropy  
318 and fluctuation complexity that quantify the stochasticity in time series data are used to provide  
319 comparisons of information content in these retrievals. Metric entropy measures the amount of  
320 randomness inherent in a Markov process whereas fluctuation complexity provides a measure that  
321 evaluates the level of regularity and randomness in the time series data.

322 The information theory measures are developed by translating the soil moisture time series to  
323 binary symbol strings and by examining the probabilities of patterns of states defined by a sequence  
324 of consecutive symbols. The article uses three symbol states, consistent with previous literature  
325 and similar applications of the information theory measures for hydrological model evaluations.

326 The results of the red noise spectrum analysis provide an assessment of the strengths and limi-  
327 tations of the soil moisture retrieval products. Generally these products have reduced measurement  
328 errors over areas with moderate vegetation density and large errors over areas with thick vegeta-  
329 tion. In many instances, large measurement errors are also observed over bare soil areas. The  
330 estimates of measurement error also indicate that generally remote sensing retrievals have larger  
331 errors compared to that of in-situ measurements. Among the remote sensing retrieval datasets, the

332 SMAP-based products were found to have lower errors over different climatic regimes in the world.  
333 In particular, the SMAP retrieval errors were comparable to that of the in-situ measurements over  
334 areas with moderate vegetation density (relative errors in the range of 0.2-0.3).

335 Comparison of the metric entropy and fluctuation complexity measures from these retrieval  
336 products also indicates similar trends. The signature of vegetation density is prominent in these  
337 information theory evaluations as the evaluations indicate larger uncertainty and lower complexity  
338 over areas of the world with thick vegetation. Comparatively, the SMAP retrievals show improved  
339 information content relative to other retrievals. The level of randomness was generally lower in  
340 the SMAP retrievals, whereas the complexity of the SMAP time series data was generally higher,  
341 compared to the AMSR-E, ASCAT, SMOS and AMSR2 products. SMAP soil moisture product  
342 is based on L-band passive microwave observations (which are most sensitive to soil moisture).  
343 Other satellites use different frequencies, which are less sensitive to soil moisture (AMSR-E and  
344 AMSR2 use X-band radiometers, ASCAT uses a C-band radar). SMOS L-band observations are  
345 affected by the presence of RFI.

346 A joint comparison of the metric entropy and fluctuation complexity of the remote sensing re-  
347 trieval products is also presented in this study. Generally, it can be argued that a time series signal  
348 is of high information content, if it possesses intermediate entropy and high complexity. Combi-  
349 nations of high entropy and low complexity are symptomatic of random noise signals whereas low  
350 entropy and low complexity are indicative of periodic/trivial signals. The simultaneous assessment  
351 of entropy and complexity indicates that the majority of retrievals from AMSR-E, ASCAT, SMOS  
352 and AMSR2 have low information content. Comparatively, the performance of the SMAP re-



353 retrievals is better, with higher density of grid points with increased complexity and reduced entropy.  
354 A similar evaluation of in-situ soil moisture and land surface model output data is also presented  
355 in the article. The in-situ measurements encapsulate the region of high information content in the  
356 entropy-complexity space. The land surface models also indicate marginally lower randomness  
357 with high levels of complexity in their estimates. Together, the three sets of soil moisture estimates  
358 (remote sensing, in-situ and model) span the majority of the inverse parabolic space expected in the  
359 entropy complexity comparisons. Generally, the land surface model and remote sensing datasets  
360 span mutually exclusive regions of the E-C space. This suggests that improvements in the re-  
361 mote sensing retrievals are necessary before including them in data assimilation environments that  
362 rely on observational information to constrain model simulations and forecasts. The results also  
363 indicate that SMAP retrievals with low entropy and increased complexity can provide valuable  
364 information for hydrologic modeling studies.

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372 **6. References**

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