

Toward a Surface Soil Moisture Product at High Spatiotemporal Resolution: Temporally Interpolated, Spatially Disaggregated SMOS Data

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1	Towards a surface soil moisture product at high spatio-temporal resolution:
2	temporally-interpolated spatially-disaggregated SMOS data
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ABSTRACT

High spatial and temporal resolution surface soil moisture is required for 20 most hydrological and agricultural applications. The recently developed Dis-2 PATCh (DISaggregation based on Physical And Theoretical scale Change) al-22 gorithm provides 1-km resolution surface soil moisture by downscaling the 23 40-km SMOS (Soil moisture Ocean Salinity) soil moisture using MODIS 24 (MODerate-resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) data. However, the tem-25 poral resolution of DisPATCh data is constrained by the temporal resolution 26 of SMOS (a global coverage every 3 days) and further limited by gaps in 27 MODIS images due to cloud cover. This paper proposes an approach to over-28 come these limitations based on the assimilation of the 1-km resolution Dis-29 PATCh data into a simple dynamic soil model forced by (inaccurate) precip-30 itation data. The performance of the approach was assessed using ground 3. measurements of surface soil moisture in the Yanco area in Australia and the 32 Tensift-Haouz region in Morocco during 2014. It was found that the analyzed 33 daily 1-km resolution surface soil moisture compared slightly better to in situ 34 data for all sites than the original disaggregated soil moisture products. Over 35 the entire year, assimilation increased the correlation coefficient between es-36 timated soil moisture and ground measurement from 0.53 to 0.70, whereas 37 the mean ubRMSE slightly decreased from 0.07 m³ m⁻³ to 0.06 m³ m⁻³ 38 compared to the open-loop force-restore model. The proposed assimilation 39 scheme has significant potential for large scale applications over semi arid ar-40 eas, since the method is based on data available at global scale together with 41 a parsimonious land surface model. 42

43 1. Introduction

Soil moisture is an important variable of the terrestrial hydrosphere. Whereas precipitation 44 provides the amount of available water at the surface, soil moisture impacts the partitioning of 45 rainfall into runoff, evaporation and infiltration. Moreover, soil moisture is highly variable in 46 space and time, as a result of (1) the alternation between wetting and drying events, and (2)47 the heterogeneity in land cover, topography and soil properties. An accurate and continuous 48 description of soil moisture in space and time is therefore critical for understanding the continental 49 water cycle and for achieving efficient and sustainable water management (Entekhabi 1995; Gao 50 et al. 2014; Rodriguez-Iturbe 2000). 51

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Satellite remote sensing is often the most practical and effective method to observe the land 53 surface soil moisture over large geographical areas. The recent Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity 54 (SMOS) mission, launched in 2009, operates at L-band (the optimal microwave band to estimate 55 soil moisture (Kerr 2007; Njoku and Entekhabi 1996)) and provides near-surface soil moisture 56 (SSM) with a resolution of about 40 km (Kerr et al. 2012). This mission has been complemented 57 by the SMAP (Soil Moisture Active Passive) satellite mission launched in 2015; ensuring the 58 continuity of L-band passive microwave data for global SSM monitoring (Entekhabi et al. 2010b). 59 Recent studies, based on the temporal stability of soil moisture (Vachaud et al. 1985), have shown 60 that even coarse scale satellite soil moisture can add a benefit in hydrological modeling (Pauwels 61 et al. 2001; Draper et al. 2011; Brocca et al. 2012; Alvarez-Garreton et al. 2015; Chen et al. 62 2014; Massari et al. 2015; Lievens et al. 2015b). Nevertheless, the current spatial resolution 63 of microwave radiometers is too coarse for most hydrological and agricultural applications. 64 Therefore, downscaling methodologies have been developed to improve the spatial resolution of 65

passive microwave-derived SSM data (Das et al. 2014; Fang et al. 2013; Kim and Hogue 2012; 66 Merlin et al. 2008a; Piles et al. 2011; Sánchez-Ruiz et al. 2014; Srivastava et al. 2013). For 67 example, DisPATCh (DISaggregation based on Physical And Theoretical scale Change) estimates 68 the SSM variability within a 40 km resolution SMOS pixel at 1 km resolution using MODIS 69 (MODerate-resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) data (Merlin et al. 2012, 2013). However, the 70 temporal resolution of DisPATCh data based on SMOS and MODIS data is limited by 1) gaps 71 in MODIS images due to cloud cover, and 2) the 2-3 day temporal resolution of global SMOS 72 coverage (Djamai et al. 2016). 73

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A land surface model (LSM) forced by uncertain meteorological inputs and constrained with 75 discontinuous disaggregated soil moisture through data assimilation could both address the 76 issue of discontinuity in the soil moisture products and as well as improve the SSM estimate. 77 Several studies have been undertaken to assimilate the observed satellite brightness temperature 78 directly (Crow and Wood 2003; Dumedah et al. 2011; Margulis et al. 2002; Reichle et al. 2007; 79 Lievens et al. 2015a, 2017) and/or the satellite SSM retrieval (Reichle et al. 2008; Draper et al. 80 2011; Brocca et al. 2012; Dumedah and Walker 2014; Ridler et al. 2014; Kumar et al. 2014; 81 Wanders et al. 2014; Lievens et al. 2015b; Leroux et al. 2016) into LSMs. Others studies have 82 assimilated coarse scale SSM into a fine land surface models to produce fine model predictions 83 and consistently improve soil moisture and other land surface variables (Reichle et al. 2001b, 84 2010; Parada and Liang 2004; Pan et al. 2009a,b; De Lannoy et al. 2010, 2012; De Lannoy and 85 Reichle 2016; Sahoo et al. 2013; Lievens et al. 2016, 2017). These approaches are based on spatial 86 error correlations that are modeled within the assimilation system. Moreover, Djamai et al. (2016) 87 estimated SSM at 1 km resolution during cloudy days by combining DisPATCh data and the 88 Canadian Land Surface Scheme (CLASS), forced by a 30 km atmospheric re-analysis. However, 89

the SSM DisPATCh estimates were not improved by the combination of DisPATCh and CLASS when compared to *in situ* measurements of the SMAP Validation Experiments data set in 2012 over Winnipeg in Canada. In a similar context, Dumedah et al. (2015) assimilated DisPATCh data into the Joint UK Land and Environment Simulator (JULES) to estimate root zone soil moisture over the Yanco area in Australia. The assimilation of DisPATCh data into the JULES model had a limited positive impact on the SSM estimation accuracy compared to DisPATCh and open-loop JULES simulation.

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These results demonstrate that data assimilation remains one of the most promising approaches 98 to link satellite based SSM with LSMs, while accounting for uncertainties in the observation data 99 and the simulated output from the model (Calvet et al. 1998; Entekhabi et al. 1994; Jackson et al. 100 1981; Reichle et al. 2001a; Sabater et al. 2007). However, assimilation strategies still need to be 101 improved. Two aspects should be addressed when assimilating downscaled SSM data into a LSM: 102 1) the number of state variables in the LSM should be consistent with the available observations 103 in order to eliminate equifinality (Beven 1989; Franks et al. 1997), and 2) the accuracy in forcing 104 data at the application scale. Most of surface models developed since the 80s (Sellers et al. 1986; 105 Noilhan and Planton 1989) have a large number of variables which cannot be directly measured 106 at the model application scale (Demaria et al. 2007; Franks et al. 1997). As over-parameterization 107 is the main limitation for implementation of such complex models in an operational context, 108 there is a need to develop simplified modeling approaches that are forced by available remote 109 sensing and meteorological data (Allen et al. 1998). A number of studies have shown the potential 110 of this approach (Albergel et al. 2008; Ceballos et al. 2005; Pellarin et al. 2006; Wagner et al. 111 1999) for representing components of the surface water budget. One of the main issues is that 112 large-scale data sets of meteorological variables are currently unavailable at 1 km (or higher) 113

spatial resolution. Nevertheless, a disaggregation/assimilation coupling scheme is potentially
 capable of compensating errors in atmospheric (mainly precipitation) forcing data available at a
 coarse scale only (Merlin et al. 2006).

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Within this context, the objective of this study was to develop a new methodology based on 118 an assimilation scheme for interpolating DisPATCh SSM in a sub-optimal manner using global 119 (meteorological and soil map) datasets. Since DisPATCh is a physically-based method to provide 120 natively SSM at 1 km resolution using 1 km resolution MODIS data, the native resolution of the 121 DisPATCh SSM products developed is 1 km resolution. The approach was tested using ground 122 measurements of soil moisture and precipitation over two semi arid sites: 1) the Yanco area in 123 the Murrumbidgee river catchment, Australia and 2) the Tensift-Haouz basin located in central 124 Morocco. 125

126 2. Sites description

a. Yanco: Murrumbidgee catchment (Australia)

The Murrumbidgee catchment, located in southeastern of Australia, covers about 82,000 km² 128 $(34^{\circ}S \text{ to } 37^{\circ}S, 143^{\circ}E \text{ to } 150^{\circ}E)$ and is a part of the Murray Darling basin. The Yanco study site 129 is a 55 km x 55 km area located in the center of the Murrumbidgee western plains where the 130 topography is flat, with very few geological outcropping. The soil texture is predominantly sandy 131 loam. The climate is semi-arid, with an average annual precipitation of about 300 mm while 132 evaporative demand is about 1,200 mm per year, according to the reference evapotranspiration 133 (ET0), derived from the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) Penman Monteith equation 134 (Allen et al. 1998). The land use in the west of the site comprises irrigation, while elsewhere land 135

use is composed of rain-fed crops and native pasture with scattered trees. 136

137

The Yanco region has been intensively monitored for remote sensing studies since 2001 (Smith 138 et al. 2012). This area has been selected as a core site for the calibration/validation of the SMOS 139 (Peischl et al. 2012), SMAP (Panciera et al. 2014), and GCOM-W1 (Mladenova et al. 2011) mis-140 sions, and has also been the focus of field experiments dedicated to algorithm development studies 141 for the SMOS and SMAP missions: National Airborne Field Experiment 2006 (NAFE06; Merlin 142 et al. (2008b)); Australian Airborne Cal/Val Experiments for SMOS (AACES-1, -2; Peischl et al. 143 (2012)) and Soil Moisture Active Passive Experiments (SMAPex-1, -2, -3; Panciera et al. (2014)). 144 To assess the ERA-interim precipitation product, OzNet ground based precipitation measurements 145 using tipping bucket rain gauges were used (Smith et al. 2012). These data are available on the 146 World Wide Web at http://www.oznet.org.au/. Seven sites presenting the best data quality and 147 continuity were selected for this study (Yanco 1, 2, 8, 9, 10, 12 and 13). Table 1 displays the site 148 characteristics, and their locations are shown in Fig. 1. These sites are representative of the 3 main 149 land uses of the region (Fig. 1): irrigated crops (Yanco 9), rain-fed crops (Yanco 1 and 11; typi-150 cally wheat and fallow), and grazing (Yanco 2, 8, 10, 13; typically perennial grass type vegetation). 151

Fig. 1

152

153

b. Tensift-Haouz basin (Morocco) 154

The Tensift-Haouz basin covers about 24,000 km² (30.75°N 32.40°N and 7.05°E to 9.9°W) 155 around the city of Marrakech, in central Morocco (Fig. 2). The climate is semi-arid, typically 156 Mediterranean, with an average annual precipitation of about 250 mm (Chehbouni et al. 2008) 157 concentrated between November and April over the Haouz plain, where the study site is located. 158

¹⁵⁹ Evaporative demand is about 1,600 mm per year.

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In the Tensift-Haouz basin, the Sidi Rahal monitoring station was installed on a rain-fed wheat 161 field (Fig. 2) in December 2013, in the framework of the Joint International Laboratory TREMA 162 (a French acronym for Remote Sensing and Water Resources in the Semi-arid Mediterranean; 163 http://trema.ucam.ac.ma; Jarlan et al. (2015)). It is equipped with micro-meteorological instru-164 ments to estimate latent and sensible heat fluxes at the soil-vegetation-atmosphere interface, 165 and probes for the measurements of soil water content at different depths. The automatic 166 meteorological station installed in the vicinity was equipped with sensors for the measurement 167 of rainfall, global radiation, temperature, relative humidity, and wind speed at a half-hourly time 168 step. The soil texture is predominantly loams. Information about the monitoring stations is 169 provided in Table 1 and Fig. 2. 170

171

¹⁷² Fig. 2 and Table 1

3. Materials and method

174 a. Globally available data

175 1) SMOS SOIL MOISTURE DATA

The SMOS level 3 one day global SSM (MIR_CLF31A\D, version 7.72 in reprocessing mode RE04) product is used in this study as input to DisPATCh algorithm and assimilation scheme. These products are presented in NetCDF format on the EASE grid, with a grid spacing of \sim 25 x 25 km in cylindrical projection. Note that L3 data is a 25 km grid representation of the 40 km data. Details on the processing algorithms can be found in the Algorithm Theoretical Baseline ¹⁸¹ Document (Jacquette et al. 2013) and in the Level 3 data product description (Kerr et al. 2014). ¹⁸² For comparison purpose, the assimilation scheme was applied at 1 km resolution using the non-¹⁸³ disaggregated (25 km) SMOS L3 data by oversampling the 25-km product.

184 2) DISPATCH SOIL MOISTURE DATA

DisPATCh provided 1 km resolution SSM data from 40 km SMOS SSM and 1 km MODIS 185 LST (Land Surface Temperature), MODIS NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index) and 186 GTOPO30 DEM (Digital Elevation Model) data. MODIS-derived soil temperature was used 187 to estimate Soil Evaporative Efficiency (SEE), which is known to be relatively constant during 188 the day on clear sky conditions (Merlin et al. 2012). MODIS-derived 1 km resolution SEE was 189 finally used as a proxy for SSM variability within the low-resolution pixel using a first-order 190 series expansion around the SMOS observation. The disaggregated SSM products are expressed 191 in m³ m⁻³. The current version of the DisPATCh methodology is fully described in Molero et al. 192 (2016). Note that only ascending SMOS overpass (6 am) was used in this paper. 193

194

The DisPATCh product was derived from the average of an output ensemble for each SMOS 195 overpass time. This output ensemble was obtained by applying DisPATCh to 1) four SMOS 196 re-sampling grids by taking advantage of the Level 3 SMOS data oversampling, 2) three MODIS 197 overpass dates by taking into account the MODIS data collected within plus or minus one day 198 around the SMOS overpass, and 3) two daily MODIS observations aboard Terra and Aqua. 199 The number of elements used to compute this average (a maximum of 24 elements per SMOS 200 overpass) is called the DisPATCh count. Note that the DisPATCh count is often smaller than 24 201 due to gaps in MODIS data associated with cloud cover and/or limited overlap with the SMOS 202 swath. The error of the DisPATCh product is taken as the standard deviation from the output 203

²⁰⁴ ensemble computing. This error accounts for the downscaling and retrieval errors (more details in
²⁰⁵ Merlin et al. (2012); Malbéteau et al. (2016)).

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DisPATCh outputs have been validated mostly in semi-arid conditions where SEE is well constrained by the SSM: the Murrumbidgee catchment in Australia (Bandara et al. 2015; Malbéteau et al. 2016; Molero et al. 2016), the Little Washita watershed in Oklahoma, Walnut Gulch in Arizona over USA (Molero et al. 2016), the Tensift-Haouz basin in central Morocco (Merlin et al. 2015) and the Lleida area in Spain (Escorihuela and Quintana-Seguí 2016; Merlin et al. 2013).

212 3) VEGETATION INDEX

In order to estimate evapotranspiration, the vegetation cover (fv) was derived from the 1 km resolution MODIS NDVI data. The NDVI dataset was extracted from the version-5 MODIS/ Terra vegetation indices 16-day Level-3 global 1-km grid product (MOD13A2). Fractional fv was computed using the linear relationship between NDVI of the fully-covered vegetation and NDVI of the bare soil proposed by Gutman and Ignatov (1998).

218 4) METEOROLOGICAL DATASET

The ECMWFs (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) Interim re-analysis product (ERA-interim; Dee et al. (2011)) was used for meteorological (relative humidity, air temperature, wind speed, pressure, shortwave and longwave radiations and precipitation) forcing. ERA-Interim is produced at the highest resolution of about 0.125° with a 3-hourly time step covering the period from January 1979 to present, with product updates at approximately 1 month behind real-time. This study used the ERA-interim datasets provided daily at 0.125° spatial resolution. Note that the product is generated at a much coarser resolution (a spectral

T255 horizontal resolution, which corresponds to approximately 79 km spacing grid) and then 226 mapped to 0.125°. The ERA-Interim atmospheric re-analysis is built upon a consistent assimila-227 tion of an extensive set of observations distributed worldwide from satellite remote sensing, *in situ* 228 measurements, and radio-sounding. ERA-Interim data sets are free of charge and available via: 229 www.ecmwf.int/en/research/climate-reanalysis/era-interim. The environmental parameters simu-230 lated by ERA-Interim have been widely validated by *in situ* and remote sensing observations at 231 different spatio-temporal scales (Balsamo et al. 2015; Bao and Zhang 2013; Boisvert et al. 2015; 232 Mooney et al. 2011; Su et al. 2013; Szczypta et al. 2011; Wang and Zeng 2012). Several stud-233 ies (Belo-Pereira et al. 2011; Pfeifroth et al. 2013; Szczypta et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2013) have 234 reported an overestimation of ECMWF precipitation data, but Balsamo et al. (2010) have shown 235 that the original ERA-Interim products have reasonable skill for land applications at time scales 236 from daily to annual over the conterminous US. The total annual amount and daily distribution of 237 ECMWF precipitation is compared to meteorological stations in this study for the two test sites. 238

239 5) GLOBAL SOIL TEXTURE

The relative amounts of bound and free water are influenced by the soil texture (sand, clay and silt fractions) and bulk density. The map used for this study was a 0.01° resolution combination of the soil maps (Kim 2013) from 1) FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) and 2) HWSD (Harmonized World Soil Database), and the regional datasets 1) STATSGO (State Soil GeographicUS), 2) NSDC (National Soil Database Canada), and 3) ASRIS (Australian Soil Resources Information System). Note that this soil texture map is used by both SMOS (Kerr et al. 2012) and SMAP (Entekhabi et al. 2010b) level 2 SSM retrieval algorithms.

²⁴⁷ b. Land surface model (LSM)

In an effort to reduce as much as possible the number of model parameters, while attempting 248 to preserve the representation of the physics which controls the SSM dynamics, the LSM used in 249 this study was based on the force-restore method developed by Deardorff (1977). This scheme is 250 used in many LSMs including ISBA (Interactions between Soil Biosphere Atmosphere; Noilhan 251 and Planton (1989)). The force-restore method appears to be a good tradeoff between realism 252 (physics) and complexity (number of parameters) for calibration over large areas. In this semi-253 physical model, the dynamics of soil moisture is described within two layers: the SSM (noted Θ_1) 254 and the root zone soil moisture (noted Θ_2). In this study, only the SSM dynamics were simulated 255 with the root-zone soil moisture taken as a buffer variable to minimize possible biases between 256 DisPATCh SSM and the force restore prediction for compensating errors in meteorological (mainly 257 precipitation and irrigation) forcing data. The equation for SSM is: 258

$$\frac{\partial \Theta_1}{\partial t} = \frac{C_1}{\rho_w d_1} (P - E_g) - \frac{C_2}{\tau} (\Theta_1 - \Theta_{eq}), \tag{1}$$

with Θ_{eq} the equilibrium soil moisture, P the ERA-interim precipitation reaching the soil surface, 259 E_g the evaporation at the soil surface, ρ_w the density of liquid water, τ the time constant taken as 260 one day and d_1 an arbitrary normalization depth of 10 cm. C_1 and C_2 are empirical parameters 261 named force and restore coefficients, respectively representing the process of mass exchange be-262 tween the soil and the atmosphere, and the surface and the root-zone layer, respectively. The force 263 and restore coefficients C_1 and C_2 are dimensionless and highly dependent upon both the soil mois-264 ture content and the soil texture. Note that coefficients C_1 and C_2 are spatially distributed based on 265 Noilhan and Mahfouf (1996) and vary over time. They were calibrated against a multi-layer soil 266 moisture model (Noilhan and Mahfouf 1996) such that 267

$$C_1 = C_{1sat} \left(\frac{\Theta_{sat}}{\Theta_1}\right)^{\left(\frac{\beta}{2}+1\right)},\tag{2}$$

$$C_2 = C_{2ref} \left(\frac{\Theta_2}{\Theta_{sat} - \Theta_2 + \Theta_l} \right), \tag{3}$$

with Θ_{sat} being the saturated soil moisture for a given texture, β the slope of the retention curve, C_{1sat} and C_{1ref} hydraulic parameters and Θ_l a small numerical value equal to 0.001. Each parameter was estimated from clay/sand fractions and default empirical parameters (equations are detailed in Noilhan and Mahfouf (1996)). E_g in equation 1 is expressed as in Allen (2000) and Allen et al. (2005) by

$$E_g = ET_0 \times K_e,\tag{4}$$

with ET_0 being the reference evapotranspiration estimated according to the FAO Penman-Monteith equation (Allen et al. 1998) and the ERA-interim meteorological forcing data (relative humidity, air temperature, wind speed, pressure, shortwave and longwave radiations). K_e the soil evaporation coefficient computed from

$$K_e = (1 - f_v) K_r,\tag{5}$$

with K_r the soil evaporation reduction coefficient derived from the SSM. Soil evaporation from the exposed soil was assumed to take place in two stages: an energy limiting stage and a falling rate stage. After rain, evaporation was only determined by the energy available for evaporation, thus K_r was set to 1; then when the soil surface dried out, K_r decreased linearly and evaporation was reduced. K_r was equal to zero when no significant water was left for evaporation, being when SSM was smaller than $\frac{1}{2}\Theta_{wp}$ (where Θ_{wp} was the soil moisture at wilting point) as reported by Allen et al. (1998).

284 c. Assimilation scheme: A combined 2D variational and sequential approach

The purpose of assimilating DisPATCh data into a LSM was to combine the downscaled snap-285 shots of DisPATCh SSM with the continuous LSM predictions, in order to obtain the best estimate 286 of the SSM at 1 km every day. The simplified two-dimensional variational (2D VAR) method de-287 veloped by Balsamo et al. (2004) to analyze the root-zone soil moisture (as a buffer variable) was 288 combined to a simplified Kalman filter approach to update the SSM state. The relation between 289 surface and root-zone soil moisture is not physically based with the force-restore scheme. For that 290 reason a linear variational algorithm may not be well suited for updating surface soil moisture by 291 contrast with the root-zone. Moreover, the sequential approach is able to update the potentially 292 rapid changes related to irrigation that are not represented by the LSM but are observed in Dis-293 PATCh data. Thus, the two-scheme procedure has the advantage to consider the two temporal 294 dynamics, being (rapid) surface and (slow) root-zone soil moisture. 295

The 2D VAR method was initially designed to analyze the root zone soil moisture using 2 m 296 air temperature and humidity observations (Balsamo et al. 2004). It has been adapted by Sabater 297 et al. (2007) to analyze the root zone soil moisture from SSM observations, and to the analysis of 298 both above ground biomass and root zone soil moisture by Sabater et al. (2008). The simplified 299 2D VAR has also been applied to the analysis of above-ground biomass from satellite-derived leaf 300 area index products over West Africa (Jarlan et al. 2008). In the present study, Θ_2 was taken as 301 a buffer variable without any dynamic equation. Stated differently, this variable was left free to 302 adjust the model prediction to DisPATCh SSM through the simplified 2DVAR approach. This first 303

step of the assimilation algorithm was necessary to represent SSM dynamics with consistency to
 the restore parameter. The analyzed state is given by:

$$\Theta^a = \Theta^b + K(y - H\Theta^b), \tag{6}$$

where the superscripts *a* and *b* indicate the analysis and background, respectively; *y* is the Dis-PATCh SSM and **H** is the observation operator that allows the projection of the state vector in the observation space. In the 2D VAR approach, **H** is computed from a one side finite difference, while **H** is equal to 1 in the sequential approach. The SSM update step is close to that of the Kalman filter, but the propagation of the background error matrix was avoided here for simplicity purpose. **K** is called the gain and is calculated as:

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^T (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})^{-1}, \tag{7}$$

where **B** and **R** are the covariance matrices of the background and SSM observations errors, respectively. **R** is scalar values equal to σ_{obs} (DisPATCh error). **B** is calculated as

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{\Theta_2} & 0\\ 0 & \sigma_{\Theta_1} \end{pmatrix} \tag{8}$$

with σ_{Θ_1} is Θ_1 background error and σ_{Θ_2} is Θ_2 background error.

³¹⁵ Considering a 1-day assimilation window, **H** equals to :

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\Delta\Theta_1(t)}{\Delta\Theta_2(t-1)} & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(9)

³¹⁶ 1) Implementing and evaluating the data assimilation algorithm

317 (i) Background error covariance matrix

The parameters **B**, **P** and **R** determine the relative weight given to the background, forecast

and to the observations covariance, respectively, while σ_{obs} corresponds to the observation 319 (DisPATCh) error (see section DisPATCh soil moisture data). Observation errors are correlated 320 in space. An accurate estimation of the background error is likely to be the most difficult task 321 in the error prescription (Bouttier 1994; Reichle et al. 2002). Thus, a sensitivity analysis to 322 background error on SSM and root zone soil moisture was carried out; a set of σ_{Θ_1} and σ_{Θ_2} were 323 compared in order to estimate both background errors since there is no propagation equation of 324 the background error covariance matrix using variational assimilation. In practice, an ensemble of 325 10 perturbations from 0.02 to 0.1 m³ m⁻³ was built for both the background error terms and the 326 global statistics (correlation coefficient r, Root Mean Square Error RMSE, and mean bias) were 327 computed based on the analyzed and *in situ* SSM comparison. Results of the sensitivity study are 328 displayed in Fig. 3. The optimal choices obtained from this sensitivity study were about 0.04 329 m³ m⁻³ and 0.09 m³ m⁻³ for σ_{Θ_1} and σ_{Θ_2} , respectively. Note that the same sensitivity study 330 has been performed at 25 km, and the optimal choices obtained are 0.05 $m^3\ m^{-3}$ and 0.06 m^3 331 m^{-3} for σ_{Θ_1} and σ_{Θ_2} , respectively. Nevertheless, the range of bias and RMSE were low (about 332 $0.009 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$) for the whole range of potential values. This means that the sensitivity analysis 333 for both background errors presented limited choices. Interestingly, a Θ_1 background error lower 334 than that of Θ_2 seems also consistent with the objective of the study, since Θ_2 was considered as a 335 buffer variable to minimize biases on Θ_1 . Finally, this quite low value of background error on Θ_1 336 was also certainly to be attributed to the good quality of ERA-interim data, which were the main 337 forcing of the Θ_1 dynamics. Based on this analysis, the sub-optimal values of background error 338 were chosen for the implementation of the data assimilation algorithm. 339

340

341 Fig. 3

342 (ii) Statistical metrics

It was important to assess the performance of the method, not only in terms of linear dependency 343 and error, but also in terms of relative variability of the original and updated dataset. Therefore, r, 344 RMSE, ubRMSE (unbiased-RMSE) and the mean bias were used to fully assess the accuracy 345 of SSM (Entekhabi et al. 2010a). Moreover, a new metric called the Gain of DOWNscaling 346 (GDOWN), introduced by Merlin et al. (2015), was also used. The gain is a measure of the 347 statistical improvement dedicated to disaggregated SM products. The gain can range from -1 to 348 1, where positive values indicate better correspondence with *in situ* than low resolution products 349 such as SMOS data. One key advantage of GDOWN, with regards to other performance metrics, 350 is to provide an estimate of the overall improvement in soil moisture data with a single value. 351

4. Results and discussion

The DisPATCh/assimilation approach has been run over the entire year 2014 for both areas (Yanco in Australia and Tensift-Haouz in Morocco). First, ERA-interim precipitation products were assessed and validated using ground measurements. After, the analyzed SSM was evaluated at the time of DisPATCh availability. Finally, the analyzed SSM was assessed for the entire year datasets.

a. ERA-interim precipitation assessment

Although the assimilation scheme can compensate error on precipitation input data, a good agreement of ERA-Interim with ground rainfall in term of frequency (instead of quantity) is preferable to update the SSM state on a daily basis. A preliminary comparison between ERA-interim precipitation and the station data showed that ERA-interim presented too frequent low rainfall events (between 0.1 and 3 mm/day). This has already been observed by Ibrahim et al.

(2012) and Diaconescu et al. (2015) over another semi-arid region in the West African Sahel. The 364 general overestimation of wet days is due to the fact that precipitation in reanalyses is mainly 365 model generated, and therefore highly related to forecast-model physical parameterizations 366 (surface pressure, temperature and wind). In this study, the precipitation values during low rainfall 367 events (< 3 mm/day) were set to zero (Ibrahim et al. 2012; Diaconescu et al. 2015). After this 368 pre-processing, ERA-interim precipitation were in better agreement with local station data (not 369 shown). The daily ERA-interim precipitations were compared to the *in situ* data using 24-h 370 accumulation from the raw 30 minutes observations. Fig. 4 and Table 2 reported the annual 371 amounts and differences between the two precipitation data sets for each site. With an average 372 bias of 27 mm/year and a r of 0.48, ERA-interim annual amounts matched quite well the *in situ* 373 observations considering the large resolution of ERA-interim data and the high spatial variability 374 of precipitation in semi-arid regions. Apart from sites Yanco 10 and Sidi Rahal, biases remained 375 below 40 mm/year. Fig. 4 and Table 2 showed also that timing was well reproduced at ± 1 day, 376 based on the correlation coefficient value when using a 3-days accumulated precipitation. For 377 instance, daily ERA-interim precipitations at the Sidi Rahal site were really well correlated (r of 378 0.93) with the ground measurements. Regarding Yanco 10 site, the daily r was low; however it 379 increased greatly using the 3-days accumulated precipitation (from 0.18 to 0.51). These results 380 were similar to results found in Balsamo et al. (2010). In particular, none of the big storms events 381 recorded by the local stations were missed by ERA-interim. Both timing and event amount were 382 particularly well reproduced on Yanco 1 and 2. Two anomalies were noted at the Sidi Rahal site: 383 the ERA-interim precipitation was underestimated compared with in situ observations, whereas 384 the ERA-interim precipitation was overestimated at Yanco 10 station. For both sites, all events 385 were well detected but the amounts of water were under and overestimated for Sidi Rahal and 386 Yanco 10 sites, respectively. On average, ERA-interim precipitation data compared quite well 387

with *in situ* stations apart from moderated biases. The ERA-interim data set was thus used in the data assimilation algorithm in order to evaluate the performance of the approach when precipitation data are inaccurate, which is a very likely situation when no meteorological station is available.

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³⁹³ Fig. 4 and Table 2

³⁹⁴ b. Assimilation results

Herein, the performance of the approach was assessed by comparing SMOS, DisPATCh, open 395 loop and analyzed SSM with *in situ* measurements at the time of DisPATCh availability, in 396 order to check if the analyzed SSM shows an improvement with regards to disaggregated SSM. 397 All statistics were estimated on a yearly basis to evaluate the capability of a dynamical model 398 to interpolate and, potentially, to improve DisPATCh SSM data. Table 3 showed the yearly 399 statistics for each monitoring station and the number of comparison days. In this section, the 400 number of days used was strongly dependent on the number of SMOS overpasses and cloud 401 coverage. When comparing the statistics obtained over both areas, it was observed that the 402 disaggregation and the assimilation scheme reduced bias by approximately $0.02 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$, while 403 r was systematically higher after data assimilation. The disaggregation at 1 km (DisPATCh) 404 has the advantage to produce SSM at a spatial resolution closer to the representativeness scale 405 of ground measurements; it has been shown that this reduces the bias (Malbéteau et al. 2016). 406 The mean r over the Yanco area rose from 0.62 to 0.77 after disaggregation and up to 0.80 after 407 application of the assimilation scheme. Regarding Yanco 2, r improved from 0.69 to 0.79; bias 408 reduced from 0.03 to 0.01 m³ m⁻³ and ubRMSE decreased from 0.07 to 0.05 m³ m⁻³. Similar 409 results were observed for Sidi Rahal as r increased from 0.82 to 0.87 after assimilation while 410

bias was closer to 0, and ubRMSE decreased slightly from 0.05 to 0.04 m³ m⁻³. Across all sites, the assimilation scheme does not improve significantly SSM in terms of statistics when using a limited (DiPATCh) time series for validation. Differences can be appreciated more easily through qualitative inspection of scatter plots. Sidi Rahal (Fig. 5b), Yanco 9 (Fig. 6b) and Yanco 10 (Fig. 7b) illustrate the Table 3 results. In these three plots, the analyzed distribution appears closer and more symmetric around the 1:1 line than for both DisPATCh and open loop.

As illustrated in Table 4, GDOWN was approximately equal for both the disaggregated and the 418 analyzed data. Moreover the only site with negative values (meaning that SMOS shows better 419 results) was Yanco 12, because DisPATCh and the analyzed SSM had a larger mean bias than 420 SMOS (Table 3). However, r was slightly improved after assimilation, which means that the SSM 421 dynamics were better represented. Yanco 2 was the site with the best enhanced GDOWN, with 422 values going from 0.35 to 0.53 before and after assimilation, respectively. This was mainly due 423 to a large improvement of r (from 0.47 to 0.79) and of the bias (from -0.03 m³ m⁻³ to -0.01 m³ 424 m^{-3}). The assimilation scheme was also compared to the open loop estimates using the same 425 statistics (Table 3). The assimilation clearly outperformed the open-loop prediction at the time of 426 DisPATCh availability. 427

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As a summary, this new approach improved the r values and also reduced the ubRMSE with regards to either the satellite observations or the model open loop, indicating that the assimilation has the capability to improve the SSM estimates over the model results or DisPATCh alone.

⁴³³ Table 3, Table 4, Fig. 5, Fig. 6 and Fig. 7

434 c. Soil moisture analysis

In order to assess the potential of using the force-restore model and the assimilation scheme for 435 infilling disaggregated SSM, a conventional validation strategy was adopted, by comparing the 436 analyzed and *in situ* SSM datasets for the full time series. This strategy was useful to characterize 437 the overall quality of the analyzed SSM over both areas. The open loop estimate of SSM 438 estimates determined from the force restore-model forced by ERA-interim were also computed 439 for comparison purposes, along with the assimilation scheme applied to the original SMOS L3 440 product. This comparison evaluated the contribution of fine (instead of coarse) resolution soil 441 moisture data. Table 5 displays temporal statistics for open loop, analyzed 25 km and analyzed 442 1 km SSM estimates for all *in situ* stations. Overall results showed that r was about 0.7, while 443 mean bias was equal to 0.03 m³ m⁻³ and ubRMSE was 0.06 m³ m⁻³ for the analyzed SSM 444 estimates. The r values were found to be systematically higher after assimilation, whereas bias, 445 RMSE and ubRMSE were equivalent for both data sets. Regarding Sidi Rahal station (Fig. 5 446 and Table 5), r after data assimilation was about 0.83, while bias was close to 0.01 m³ m⁻³ and 447 the ubRMSE was around 0.06 m³ m⁻³. The time series exhibited the dominant seasonal cycle 448 very well and showed a similar dynamical response to precipitation events. Comparison between 449 analyzed 25 km and 1 km statistics showed that DisPATCh SSM improved results for all sites, 450 even though the original SMOS L3 data had a larger temporal repetition. In others words, the 451 spatial information provided by DisPATCh provide superior assimilation results despite the data 452 gaps associated with cloud coverage over the study sites. Figs. 6 and 7 illustrate time series for 453 two sites in the Yanco area. Regarding Yanco 10 (Fig. 7a), data assimilation enhanced r from 454 0.47 to 0.70, whereas the bias was larger by approximately 0.01 m³ m⁻³. The open loop SSM 455 estimates showed a threshold for dry conditions at around 0.1 m³ m⁻³ due to Θ_2 being forced 456

to 0.1 m³ m⁻³ by lack of information. The analyzed SSM was not constrained any more by this 457 artificial threshold. This demonstrated the importance of the analysis of Θ_2 for a correct estimate 458 of Θ_1 . Interestingly, the best improvement was observed for the irrigated site Yanco 9 (Fig. 6a) 459 where precipitation was supplemented by irrigation inputs that were not taken into account in the 460 model run. Consequently, the assimilation of DisPATCh data improved r (from 0.42 to 0.74), 461 while bias, RMSE and ubRMSE were similarly compared to open loop results. The time series 462 in Fig. 6a showed water input events at day 140 and day 325 (for example) that were certainly 463 due to irrigation. Thus this approach could be used to detect and retrieve irrigation information 464 that is very difficult to obtain over large areas on a daily basis. This information is requested 465 by managers to monitor and control irrigation, especially for the monitoring of groundwater (Le 466 Page et al. 2012). 467

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The coupled scheme has the advantage of combining the spatial (but static) information 469 provided by DisPATCh data with the temporal (but mono-dimensional) information provided by 470 the force-restore scheme, in order to get SSM estimates every day at 1 km (Merlin et al. 2006). 471 Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 showed the temporal average of SSM during one year over the Yanco area and 472 the Tensift-Haouz basin, respectively. The irrigated areas are indicated for comparison purposes. 473 Regarding the Australian case study, the Murrumbidgee river banks and irrigated areas appeared 474 wetter than the dry grassland. The wet area located in the south of the study area is the floodplain 475 of the Yanco Creek System, which is a tributary of the Murrumbidgee River downstream of 476 Narrandera, flowing south-west. Over the Tensift-Haouz basin, the wetter pixels were mainly 477 located in the irrigated areas. Nevertheless, it is important to keep in mind that the irrigated areas 478 indicated may be inaccurate since many boreholes have been dug since the beginning of the 479 2000s, and they are neither registered nor monitored. A wet zone was also shown in the south 480

east of the study area. This region corresponds to the Atlas Mountain and its piedmont. A large 481 amount of water in the piedmont is provided by the water from Atlas snowmelt (Boudhar et al. 482 2009). However, it is necessary to note that DisPATCh data may be unreliable in mountainous 483 areas as the illumination effect on LST can be significant in steep-sided valleys (Malbéteau et al. 484 2017), and no correction for such effects has been included in DisPATCh yet (Molero et al. 485 2016). Note that the disaggregation images (fig. 8 and 9) present a slight boxy artifact at low 486 (SMOS) resolution. Such an artifact is typical of downscaling methods like DisPATCh that apply 487 a conservation law at low resolution (meaning that the average of disaggregated SM at SMOS 488 resolution is set to SMOS observation). 489

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⁴⁹¹ Table 5, Fig. 8 and Fig. 9

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As a summary, the proposed downscaling/assimilation scheme showed systematically higher r values with regards to the open loop and with regards to DisPATCh alone, indicating that the dynamic of the SSM at a daily time scale has been improved. The maps of yearly average SSM were consistent with the main hydrological characteristics of both catchment (rivers, wetlands and irrigated areas). This opens perspectives for the retrieval of irrigation water inputs.

498 **5.** Conclusion

The DisPATCh algorithm has been developed to improve the spatial resolution of readily available passive microwave-derived SSM data that is too coarse for many hydrological and agricultural applications. However, the temporal resolution of DisPATCh data based on SMOS and MODIS data is limited by the data gaps in MODIS images due to cloud cover, and by the temporal resolution of SMOS. This paper evaluated the potential of assimilating DisPATCh data into the force-restore soil moisture model, forced by the ERA-interim precipitation data in order
to obtain daily SSM at 1 km resolution. A variational scheme was used for root-zone soil moisture
analysis taken as a buffer variable, together with a sequential approach for the update of SSM.
The approach was tested during a one year period (2014) over two semi arid regions: 1) the Yanco
zone in Australia and 2) the Tensift-Haouz basin in Morocco.

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The performance of the data assimilation was first evaluated at the time of DisPATCh availabil-510 ity in order to check if the analyzed SSM showed an improvement with regards to the original 511 products. Results showed that the analyzed SSM series were closer to the *in situ* measurement 512 than DisPATCh (1 km resolution), model open loop (12.5 km resolution) and L3 SMOS SSM 513 estimates (25 km resolution). The temporal statistics, when DisPATCh data were available, 514 indicate an increase of r from 0.61 to 0.77 for downscaled data and up to 0.81 after assimilation. 515 The bias was also reduced from 0.04 to 0.02 $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$ after downscaling, and ubRMSE decreased 516 from 0.07 to 0.06 m³ m⁻³ after assimilation of DisPATCh. The second step consisted in evaluating 517 the analyzed SSM for the full time-series in order to assess the potential of interpolating SSM 518 when the DisPATCh data was not available. The assimilation of DisPATCh data into the simple 519 LSM improved quasi systematically the dynamic of the SSM with respect to the open-loop, 520 as evidenced by enhanced r (from 0.53 to 0.70) and ubRMSE (from 0.07 to 0.06 m³ m⁻³). 521 These results showed that the disaggregated SSM was able to improve the representation of the 522 surface processes occurring at both fine and coarse scales, even when coarse scale and inaccurate 523 meteorological data including rainfall were used. These results corroborate the study of Merlin 524 et al. (2006), based on synthetic data showing that assimilation of a SSM downscaled product 525 can compensate error on precipitation input data for the monitoring of SSM. Another interesting 526 result was that the maps of yearly average SSM were consistent with the main hydrological char-527

acteristics of both catchment (rivers, wetlands and irrigated areas). As future work, this approach
 will be applied and evaluated using the entire time series of SMOS/DisPATCh (6 years) to capture
 the inter-annual variability, and on other validation sites covering different eco-climatic conditions.

This study opens perspectives for developing new remote sensing-based methods in order to 532 retrieve irrigation water inputs at 1 km resolution, and/or to improve precipitation estimates. In 533 particular, several studies have been undertaken to estimate and/or improve precipitation estimates 534 based on remotely sensed coarse-scale SSM (Brocca et al. 2013, 2014; Pellarin et al. 2008, 2013). 535 A continuous SSM data in space and time could allow the disaggregation of coarse-scale pre-536 cipitation data from re-analysis data sets at 1 km resolution for hydrological and agronomical 537 applications. Likewise, 1 km daily irrigation input data set could help improve knowledge on how 538 water is used for irrigation purposes. 539

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Country	Station	Longitude WGS84 (°)	Latitude WGS84 (°)	Elevation (m)	Land use	SM 0-5 cm (% of obs)	Precipitation (mm)	Irrigation
Morocco	Sidi Rahal	-7.3535	31.7035	767	Dryland crop/grazing	91.5	398	
	Yanco 1	145.8490	-34.6288	120	Dryland crop/grazing	67.7	294	
	Yanco 2	146.1103	-34.6547	130	Grazing	100.0	323	
	Yanco 8	146.4140	-34.8470	149	Grazing	98.6	374	
Australia	Yanco 9	146.0163	-34.9678	122	Crop	100.0	329	х
	Yanco 10	146.3099	-35.0054	119	Grazing	95.3	368	
	Yanco 12	146.1689	-35.0696	120	Crop/grazing	79.2	345	
	Yanco 13	146.3065	-35.0903	121	Gazing	66.0	368	

TABLE 1. Main characteristics of validation sites.

TABLE 2. Comparison between *in situ* and ERA-interim precipitation: annual bias and correlation coefficient

Country	Station	n	Precipitation in situ	Precipitation ECMWF	bias (mm)	r	r 3days	r 5days	r 10days
Morocco	Sidi Rahal	334	393	265.3	127.7	0.93	0.94	0.95	0.96
	Yanco 1	245	294.6	258.7	35.9	0.44	0.6	0.62	0.63
	Yanco 2	365	358.6	323.3	35.3	0.48	0.59	0.6	0.59
	Yanco 8	No data	No data	350.8	No data	No data	No data	No data	No data
Australia	Yanco 9	365	299.2	329.2	-30	0.5	0.64	0.67	0.66
	Yanco 10	342	187.6	327.3	-139.7	0.18	0.51	0.62	0.69
	Yanco 12	256	260.2	242.9	17.3	0.66	0.76	0.79	0.8
	Yanco 13	249	249.4	282.9	-33.5	0.59	0.69	0.72	0.74
	Average		274.9	302.2	-27.2	0.48	0.63	0.67	0.69

⁹¹⁴ r for accumulating precipitation of 1, 3, 5 and 10 days; n is the number of comparison days.

TABLE 3. Temporal statistics and their 95% confidence intervals are provided of all stations between SMOS

⁹¹⁶ L3, DisPATCh, open loop and analyzed SSM with respect to *in situ* measurement; r is the correlation coefficient,

RMSE is the root mean square error, ubRMSE is the unbiased-RMSE and n is the number of comparison days.

⁹¹⁸ With a p-value <0.01 for all sites, statistics are significant.

			r			bias (m ³ m ⁻³)			RMSE (m ³ m ⁻³)				ubRMSE (m ³ m ⁻³)					
Country	Stations	n	SMOS	DisPATCh	OL	Analysed	SMOS	DisPATCh	OL	Analysed	SMOS	DisPATCh	OL	Analysed	SMOS	DisPATCh	OL	Analysed
Morocco	Sidi Rahal	104	0.64(±0.12)	0.82(±0.06)	0.74(±0.06)	0.87(±0.05)	-0.01(±0.01)	-0.01(±0.01)	0.01(±0.01)	$-0.01(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)
Australia	Yanco 1	104	0.69(±0.10)	0.76(±0.08)	0.63(±0.12)	0.80(±0.07)	0.06(±0.01)	0.02(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.09(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)
	Yanco 2	111	0.47(±0.14)	0.69(±0.09)	0.65(±0.11)	0.79(±0.07)	-0.03(±0.01)	-0.03(±0.01)	0.03(±0.01)	$-0.01(\pm 0.01)$	$0.08(\pm 0.01)$	0.08(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	$0.07(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.05(\pm 0.01)$
	Yanco 8	100	0.62(±0.12)	0.84(±0.06)	0.46(±0.16)	$0.85(\pm 0.05)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.02(\pm 0.01)$	0.04(±0.01)	$0.02(\pm 0.01)$	$0.08(\pm 0.01)$	0.04(±0.01)	$0.07(\pm 0.01)$	$0.04(\pm 0.00)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.04(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.03(\pm 0.00)$
	Yanco 9	122	0.66±0.10)	0.82±0.06)	0.50±0.12)	0.84±0.05)	$-0.02(\pm 0.01)$	0.01(±0.01)	$-0.01(\pm 0.01)$	$0.01(\pm 0.01)$	$0.07(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	$0.05(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.06(\pm 0.01)$	$0.05(\pm 0.01)$	$0.05(\pm 0.01)$
	Yanco 10	114	$0.68(\pm 0.10)$	$0.84(\pm 0.05)$	0.69(±0.10)	$0.88(\pm 0.04)$	0.04(±0.01)	$0.02(\pm 0.01)$	0.04(±0.01)	0.03(±0.01)	$0.08(\pm 0.01)$	0.05(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	$0.04(\pm 0.00)$	0.07(±0.01)	$0.04(\pm 0.01)$	0.04(±0.01)	$0.03(\pm 0.00)$
	Yanco 12	79	0.65(±0.13)	0.66(±0.13)	$0.62(\pm 0.14)$	0.70(±0.12)	-0.04(±0.01)	$-0.08(\pm 0.01)$	$-0.04(\pm 0.01)$	-0.06(±0.01)	$0.07(\pm 0.01)$	0.10(±0.01)	$0.07(\pm 0.01)$	$0.08(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.06(\pm 0.01)$	0.06(±0.01)	$0.05(\pm 0.01)$
	Yanco 13	69	$0.52(\pm 0.17)$	$0.74(\pm 0.11)$	$0.52(\pm 0.17)$	$0.78(\pm 0.09)$	$0.04(\pm 0.02)$	0.01(±0.01)	$0.02(\pm 0.01)$	0.0(±0.01)	$0.09(\pm 0.02)$	$0.05(\pm 0.01)$	$0.06(\pm 0.01)$	$0.04(\pm 0.01)$	$0.08(\pm 0.02)$	$0.04(\pm 0.01)$	$0.05 (\pm 0.01)$	0.04(±0.01)
average		0.62	0.77	0.60	0.81	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.08	0.06	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.04	

Country	Site	DisPATCh	Analyzed		
Morocco	Sidi Rahal	0.232	0.330		
	Yanco 1	0.119	0.112		
	Yanco 2	0.352	0.530		
	Yanco 8	0.571	0.314		
Australia	Yanco 9	0.014	0.067		
	Yanco 10	0.108	0.235		
	Yanco 12	-0.111	-0.066		
	Yanco 13	0.282	0.220		
ave	erage	0.196	0.218		

TABLE 4. GDOWN results.

TABLE 5. Temporal statistics and their 95% confidence intervals of open loop and analyzed SSM at all stations with respect to *in situ* measurement; r is the correlation coefficient, RMSE is the root mean square error, ubRMSE is the unbiased-RMSE and n is the number of comparison days. With a p-value <0.01 for all sites, statistics are significant.

			r			bias (m ³ m ⁻³)				RMSE (m ³ m ⁻³)		ubRMSE (m ³ m ⁻³)		
Country	Station	n	OL	Analysed 25 km	Analysed 1 km	OL	Analysed 25 km	Analysed 1 km	OL	Analysed 25 km	Analysed 1 km	OL	Analysed 25 km	Analysed 1 km
Morocco	Sidi Rahal	334	0.73(±0.05)	0.66(±0.08)	0.83 (±0.03)	0.00(±0.01)	0.01(±0.01)	0.01(±0.01)	0.07(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)	0.07(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)
Australia	Yanco 1	247	0.60(±0.08)	0.49(±0.10)	0.64(±0.07)	0.08(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)	0.10(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)
	Yanco 2	365	0.66(±0.05)	0.30(±0.12)	0.71(±0.05)	0.03(±0.01)	0.01(±0.01)	0.03(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)
	Yanco 8	360	0.40(±0.08)	0.56(±0.09)	0.66(±0.06)	0.03(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.08(±0.00)	0.07(±0.01)	0.07(±0.00)	0.07(±0.00)	0.05(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)
	Yanco 9	365	0.42(±0.08)	0.52(±0.09)	0.74(±0.05)	0.02(±0.01)	0.03(±0.01)	0.02(±0.01)	0.07(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)	0.07(±0.00)	0.07(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)
	Yanco 10	348	0.47(±0.07)	0.63(±0.08)	0.70(±0.04)	0.03(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.08(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)	0.07(±0.00)	0.07(±0.00)	0.05(±0.00)	0.06(±0.00)
	Yanco 12	289	0.56(±0.07)	0.37(±0.13)	0.70(±0.06)	0.05(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.05(±0.01)	0.10(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.09(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)
	Yanco 13	241	0.35(±0.10)	0.41(±0.14)	0.61(±0.07)	0.02(±0.01)	0.02(±0.01)	0.04(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.07(±0.01)	0.08(±0.01)	0.06(±0.01)	$0.07(\pm 0.01)$
average			0.53	0.49	0.70	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.06

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FIG. 1. The experimental Yanco area located in southeastern Australia showing the SMOS L3 grid corner (red cross), DisPATCh grid (black cross), the selected OzNet stations, and the irrigated area.



FIG. 2. The Tensift Haouz basin located in central Morocco showing the SMOS L3 grid corner (red cross),
DisPATCh grid (black cross), Sidi Rahal station, and the irrigated area.



FIG. 3. Sensitivity analysis for background errors. An ensemble of 10 perturbations from 0.02 to 0.1 m³ m⁻³ was built for both the background error terms (Θ_1 and Θ_2). The global statistics (correlation coefficient, Root Mean Square Error RMSE, and mean bias) were computed based on the analyzed and in situ SSM comparison.



FIG. 4. Cumulative daily precipitation (mm) for all sites. The blue lines are the ERA-interim precipitation at 0.125° spatial resolution distributed by the ECMWF and the red lines are the *in situ* precipitation. Note that *in situ* data are not available for Yanco 8.



FIG. 5. (a) Time series evaluation of the DisPATCh (black circle) with the errors bars representing standard deviation of DisPATCh, open loop (blue dots), and the analyzed (red dots) SSM against *in situ* (black line) measurements and cumulative daily precipitation (blue bars) for Sidi Rahal station. (b) Scatterplot of DisPATCh (black dots), open loop (blue dots), analyzed (red dots) SSM versus *in situ* measurements.



FIG. 6. As for fig. 5 but for Yanco 9 station



FIG. 7. As for fig. 5 but for Yanco 10 station



FIG. 8. Image of yearly (2014) average of analyzed SSM over Yanco area. Black lines represent the irrigated fields.



FIG. 9. Image of yearly (2014) average of analyzed SSM over Tensift Haouz region. Black lines represent the irrigated fields.