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2   **Global change in terrestrial ecosystem detected by fusion of microwave and optical**  
3   **satellite observations**

4   **Running title: global land change by microwave and optical observations**

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15

16    **Abstract**

17    The detection and quantification of global land change by satellite observations are the  
18    grand challenges to improve the understanding of global environmental change. In this  
19    study, we develop a new vegetation index, which can be used as a proxy of the fractions  
20    of tree canopy and short vegetation, based on the simple linear regression between  
21    microwave vegetation optical depth (VOD) and optical leaf area index (LAI). Although  
22    we use no high-resolution reference data, the newly developed vegetation index  
23    successfully detects and quantifies the global land change which has been reported by  
24    the previous estimations based on high-resolution reference data. We find that the  
25    relationship between VOD and LAI is non-stationary and the temporal change in the  
26    VOD-LAI relationship is the important signal to detect and quantify global change in  
27    the terrestrial ecosystem.

28

29    **Plain language summary**

30    The detection and quantification of global land change, such as deforestation and  
31    afforestation, are crucially important to understand the effects of climate change and  
32    human activities on the terrestrial ecosystem. There are two major methodologies of  
33    satellite remote sensing of vegetation: optical and microwave remote sensing. While

34    photosynthetic activities of plants can be observed by optical remote sensing, total  
35    aboveground vegetation water content can be observed by microwave remote sensing.  
36    Here we find that the simple linear regression between two vegetation indices generated  
37    from optical and microwave satellite observations can accurately quantify the fractions  
38    of tree canopy and short vegetation in the observation pixels. We apply this finding to  
39    detect global land change from 2003 to 2019. We can detect several important land  
40    changes, such as tree canopy gain in Sahel and deforestation in southeastern Amazon.  
41

## 42    **Key Points**

43    **1. The simple linear regression between VOD and LAI can quantify the fractions of**  
44    **tree canopy and short vegetation/bare ground.**

45    **2. The relationship between VOD and LAI is non-stationary and its temporal**  
46    **change is the important signal to detect global land change.**

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48

## 49    **1. Introduction**

50    The detection and quantification of global change in the terrestrial ecosystem are  
51    crucially important to understand global environmental change. Vegetation indices  
52    generated from optical satellite observations (e.g., Zhu et al. 2013; Tucker et al. 2005)  
53    have been intensively used to monitor the change in the terrestrial ecosystem. For  
54    example, Song et al. (2018) developed a yearly global vegetation product, in which  
55    every land pixel is characterized by its per cent cover of tree canopy, short vegetation,  
56    and bare ground, from the optical-infrared Normalized Difference Vegetation Index  
57    (NDVI), and successfully detected the long-term global land change.

58

59 The limitation of the optical satellite observation is that it is sensitive only to a  
60 photosynthetically active part of terrestrial biomass (i.e. leaf) and it is not  
61 straightforward to retrieve the amount of a photosynthetically inactive part of  
62 aboveground biomass (i.e. woody biomass). To distinguish tree canopy and short  
63 vegetation from optical satellite observations, complex supervised machine learning  
64 with high-resolution reference data is usually required (e.g., Song et al. 2018). To  
65 overcome this limitation, microwave remote sensing has been recognized as an  
66 alternative approach to monitor global change in the terrestrial ecosystem. Microwave  
67 Vegetation Optical Depth (VOD) is sensitive to vegetation water content, which  
68 includes the information of both leaf and woody biomass (see Owe et al. (2001) and  
69 Jones et al. (2011) for the detailed description of VOD and the retrieval algorithms). Liu  
70 et al. (2015) successfully monitored the long-term change in global aboveground  
71 biomass carbon by microwave VOD data. Zhou et al. (2014) indicated that microwave  
72 VOD was more sensitive to the degradation of the Congo rainforest by drought than the  
73 optical vegetation index.

74

75 Combining the microwave and optical vegetation indices has the potential to improve  
76 the understanding of vegetation dynamics. Jones et al. (2013) found that the post-fire

77 recovery of NDVI was much faster than that of microwave VOD, which indicated the  
78 faster recovery of short vegetation than woody biomass after extreme wildfires in  
79 Alaska and Canada. Van Dijk et al. (2013) found that in the Australian millennium  
80 drought, no decreasing trend could be detected in the optical vegetation indices while  
81 microwave VOD significantly declined. By numerical simulation, Sawada and Koike  
82 (2016) attributed this difference to the higher resilience of short vegetation to drought  
83 than woody biomass. These studies showed the high potential of fusions of microwave  
84 and optical satellite observations to distinguish the dynamics of tree canopy and short  
85 vegetation.

86

87 We aim to develop a new method to detect global land change by combining microwave  
88 VOD and optical Leaf Area Index (LAI). We reveal that the simple linear regression  
89 between microwave VOD and optical LAI provides a useful proxy of the fractions of  
90 tree canopy and short vegetation. The proposed vegetation index successfully detects  
91 and quantifies global change in the terrestrial ecosystem from 2003 to 2019 without any  
92 additional reference data.

93

94

## 95    **2. Data**

96    We used the microwave VOD product based on the Land Parameter Retrieval Model  
97    (LPRM) provided by National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The  
98    description of the LPRM algorithm can be found in Owe et al. (2001) and Owe et al.  
99    (2008). Microwave VOD is retrieved from C-band (6.9 GHz) brightness temperature  
100    observed by Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer for Earth observation system  
101    (AMSR-E) and AMSR2. The VOD products from both AMSR-E (from June 2002 to  
102    September 2011) and AMSR2 (from July 2012 to December 2019) were used. We used  
103    only night scene data to reduce the effect of a surface temperature bias in the retrieval  
104    algorithm (Liu et al. 2011). The spatial resolution of this dataset is 0.25 degree. The  
105    temporal resolution of this dataset is approximately 2-daily, and we resampled it to  
106    8-daily.

107

108    We used the optical LAI product processed by Ichii et al. (2017). Ichii et al. (2017)  
109    applied detailed quality control to MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer  
110    (MODIS) onboard Terra and Aqua satellites LAI L4 data (MCD15A2H; Myneni et al.  
111    2015). The spatial and temporal resolutions are 0.25 degree and 8-daily, respectively.

112

113 As land cover data, we used the MODIS land cover climate modeling grid (MCD12C1)  
114 version 6 data product (Friedl et al. 2015). The temporal resolution of this dataset is  
115 yearly. The original spatial resolution of this dataset is 0.05 degree and we resampled it  
116 to 0.25 degree by the nearest neighbor approach.

117

118

### 119 **3. Method**

120 The Microwave and Optical Fusion Approach (MiOFA) was originally proposed by  
121 Sawada et al. (2017a) to improve the skill to retrieve surface soil moisture and  
122 vegetation water content from C-band brightness temperature. In the MiOFA, the  
123 relationship between VOD and total aboveground Vegetation Water Content (VWC) can  
124 be formulated as:

$$125 \quad VOD = b \times VWC + R \quad (1)$$

126 where b is a parameter and R quantifies the effect of surface soil roughness. Because it  
127 is difficult to distinguish the effects of vegetation and surface soil roughness on  
128 brightness temperature, the existing VOD data include the effect of surface soil  
129 roughness (e.g., Sawada et al. 2016, 2017a, 2017b; Wang et al. 2015; Njoku and Chan  
130 2006). The important assumption of the MiOFA is that b-parameter for C-band VOD is



131 time-invariant and species-independent. Sawada et al. (2016) and Sawada et al. (2017b)  
132 supported this assumption by a field experiment although Jackson and Schmugge  
133 (1991) originally formulated this parameter as a species-dependent variable.

134

135 Paloscia and Pampaloni (1988) proposed the empirical relationship between VWC and  
136 optical LAI, which was supported by the in-situ observations (e.g., Sawada et al.  
137 2017b):

$$138 \quad VWC = \exp\left(\frac{LAI}{y}\right) - 1 \cong \frac{LAI}{y} \quad (2)$$

139 where  $y$  is a species-dependent parameter which cannot be directly observed by satellite  
140 sensors. The  $y$ -parameter can be recognized as the contribution of leaf biomass to the  
141 total aboveground VWC. The lower  $y$  indicates the larger fraction of short vegetation  
142 since the small increase of LAI induces the large increase of total aboveground VWC.  
143 The higher  $y$  indicates that there is the larger amount of tree canopy. The  $y$ -parameter  
144 can be a good index of canopy biomass structure.

145

146 By substituting (2) to (1), we obtain the equation (3).

$$147 \quad VOD = \frac{b}{y} LAI + R \quad (3)$$

148 The MiOFA proposes to estimate the parameters of canopy biomass structure ( $b/y$ ) and  
149 surface soil roughness ( $R$ ) by the linear regression between microwave VOD and optical  
150 LAI. In the original paper of the MiOFA (Sawada et al. 2017a), the  $R$ -parameter was  
151 focused on to improve the retrieval of surface soil moisture. In this paper, we focused on  
152 the slope of the linear regression,  $b/y$ , as a vegetation index. Because we assumed that  $b$   
153 is a constant parameter, we hypothesized that tree canopy (short vegetation) is dominant  
154 in pixels with lower (higher)  $b/y$ .

155

156 By performing the linear regression between microwave VOD and optical LAI, we  
157 developed the yearly global  $b/y$  dataset from 2003 to 2019. Since we had no C-band  
158 brightness temperature observations in the transition period from AMSR-E to AMSR2,  
159 we did not estimate  $b/y$  in 2011 and 2012 (see also section 2). There are long-term and  
160 temporally continuous VOD datasets derived by merging the multi-sensor VOD  
161 products (e.g., Moesinger et al. 2020). However, the assumption of the constant  
162  $b$ -parameter is correct only in the lower frequencies such as C-band so that we avoided  
163 to use VOD retrieved by brightness temperature with higher frequencies in this first  
164 application. No significant inconsistency between AMSR-E and AMSR2 has been found  
165 in the previous calibration studies (e.g., Okuyama and Imaoka 2015; Parinussa et al.

166 2015; Du et al. 2017). We showed  $b/y$  in the pixels where the slope of the linear  
167 regression is positive and statistically significant with a 95% confidence level.

168

169

#### 170 **4. Results and discussion**

171 Figure 1 shows climatologic  $b/y$  from 2003 to 2019. We use all 8-daily data of  
172 microwave VOD and optical LAI in the study period to perform the linear regression,  
173 and the estimated slope is shown in Figure 1. Although the linear relationship between  
174 microwave VOD and optical LAI is statistically insignificant in the rainforest regions  
175 due to the saturation of the signals of VOD and/or LAI in the densely vegetated areas,  
176 we can retrieve  $b/y$  in most of the vegetated pixels. Generally,  $b/y$  tends to be low in the  
177 temperate and boreal forest areas. In semiarid grassland,  $b/y$  is relatively high indicating  
178 the large contribution of LAI to VWC. The spatial distribution of the retrieved  
179 R-parameter shown in Figure S1 is similar to the previous global estimation of a  
180 roughness parameter in a radiative transfer model (Wang et al. 2015).

181

182 To confirm that  $b/y$  can be used as the proxy of the fractions of tree canopy and short  
183 vegetation, we estimated yearly  $b/y$  and compared it with the yearly land cover type

184 data. Figures 2 and S2 indicate that we obtain low b/y in broadleaf and needleleaf forest  
185 areas. b/y increases in savannas, cropland, and grassland areas. In pixels with lower  
186 (higher) b/y, tree canopy (short vegetation) is dominant so that our proposed b/y can be  
187 a useful index to quantify the fractions of tree canopy and short vegetation. It is not  
188 straightforward to distinguish tree canopy dominant pixels from short vegetation  
189 dominant pixels by simply analyzing yearly optical LAI (Figure S3). Boxplots in Figure  
190 2 show the large variance of b/y in the specific land cover types probably due to the  
191 coarse resolution of microwave VOD, which prevents the direct matchup of b/y with the  
192 land cover data (see also section 2).

193

194 We can detect global land change by our yearly b/y. Figure 3 shows the linear trend of  
195 yearly b/y from 2003 to 2019. The decrease of b/y (shown in blue) indicates the increase  
196 of tree canopy, and the increase of b/y (shown in red) indicates the increase of short  
197 vegetation/bare ground. Most of the detected trends are consistent to the previous  
198 findings. We can detect the increase of tree canopy in the Sahel region, which previous  
199 studies attributed to the increase of rainfall (Brandt et al. 2017; Hickler et al. 2005). The  
200 increase of tree canopy in eastern Europe detected in our dataset is consistent to  
201 previous studies (e.g., Potapov et al. 2015; Hansen et al. 2013). We can detect the

202 widespread increase of tree canopy in China, which resulted from reforestation and  
203 afforestation programs (e.g., Piao et al. 2015). The decreasing trend of b/y is also  
204 detected in western India, which can be attributed to the transition from bare ground to  
205 short vegetation by agricultural activities (Tian et al. 2014). The decrease of tree canopy  
206 in southeastern Amazon and Siberia detected in our dataset is also consistent to the  
207 previous findings (e.g., Hansen et al. 2013).

208

209 The global land change detected by our newly developed b/y index is consistent to the  
210 state-of-the-art dataset provided by Song et al. (2018). Song et al. (2018) estimated the  
211 long-term trend of the fractions of tree canopy, short vegetation, and bare ground from  
212 NDVI by supervised machine learning with high-resolution reference data. It is  
213 promising that our proposed method can detect the similar change in the terrestrial  
214 ecosystem to Song et al. (2018) by the simple linear regression between microwave  
215 VOD and optical LAI without any reference data. However, there are some differences  
216 between changes detected by this study and Song et al. (2018). Song et al. (2018)  
217 detected the short vegetation gain in the Congo rainforest, which we do not detect. Song  
218 et al. (2018) detected the tree canopy gain in eastern U.S. while the long-term trend in  
219 this region is unclear in our dataset. Our estimated trend in Siberia is also inconsistent to

220 Song et al. (2018) although it is consistent to the other estimation which focused only  
221 on forest cover (Hansen et al. 2013). There are several reasons for these differences.  
222 First, the linear regression between microwave VOD and optical LAI is insignificant in  
223 densely vegetated areas as shown in Figure 1 so that our b/y index cannot accurately  
224 quantify vegetation dynamics in the dense rainforest. Second, the study period in this  
225 study (2003-2019) is different from that in Song et al. (2018) (1982-2016). The human  
226 influence on the terrestrial ecosystem in the 20<sup>th</sup> century cannot be detected in our  
227 dataset. Third, the spatial resolution of our b/y data (0.25 degree) is much lower than  
228 that of Song et al. (2018) (0.05 degree) so that many impacts of human activities on  
229 vegetation dynamics in small scales may be invisible in our data.

230

231 The results shown above imply that the empirical equations and assumptions of the  
232 MiOFA described in section 3 are accurate in the global scale. Since these empirical  
233 equations and assumptions are closely related to the algorithms to retrieve surface soil  
234 moisture and VOD from brightness temperature (e.g., Owe et al. 2001, 2008; Fujii et al.  
235 2009; Sawada et al. 2017a) and to assimilate brightness temperature into land surface  
236 models (e.g., Yang et al. 2007, 2009; Sawada and Koike 2014; Sawada et al. 2015), our  
237 retrieved b/y and R parameters may greatly contribute to improving these algorithms

238 and the understanding of microwave radiative transfer in the canopy. The most  
239 important implication of this study is that the relationship between microwave VOD (or  
240 VWC) and the optical vegetation index is non-stationary although it is assumed to be  
241 stationary in previous studies on the development and validation of the VWC retrieval  
242 algorithms (e.g., Gao et al. 2015). The temporal change in the VOD-LAI relationship is  
243 the important signal to quantify global environmental change so that it should not be  
244 neglected in the development, validation, and analysis of satellite land observation  
245 products.

246

247

## 248 **5. Conclusions**

249 We propose the new vegetation index by combining microwave VOD and optical LAI.  
250 Our new index can be the good proxy of the fractions of tree canopy and short  
251 vegetation and is useful to detect and quantify global change in the terrestrial ecosystem.  
252 The advantage of our new method is that the vegetation index can be obtained by the  
253 simple linear regression between microwave VOD and optical LAI so that no  
254 high-resolution reference data are required. The limitation is the lower spatial resolution  
255 than the other existing methods. Future work will focus on the applications of this new

256 vegetation index to deepen the understanding of vegetation dynamics in extreme climate  
257 conditions such as drought.

258

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263 microwave VOD data can be downloaded at

264 [https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/LPRM\\_AMSR2\\_A\\_SOILM3\\_001/summary](https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/LPRM_AMSR2_A_SOILM3_001/summary). The

265 optical LAI data can be downloaded at <ftp://modis.cr.chiba-u.ac.jp/ichii/DATA/MODIS/>.

266 The land cover data can be downloaded at

267 <https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mcd12c1v006/>.

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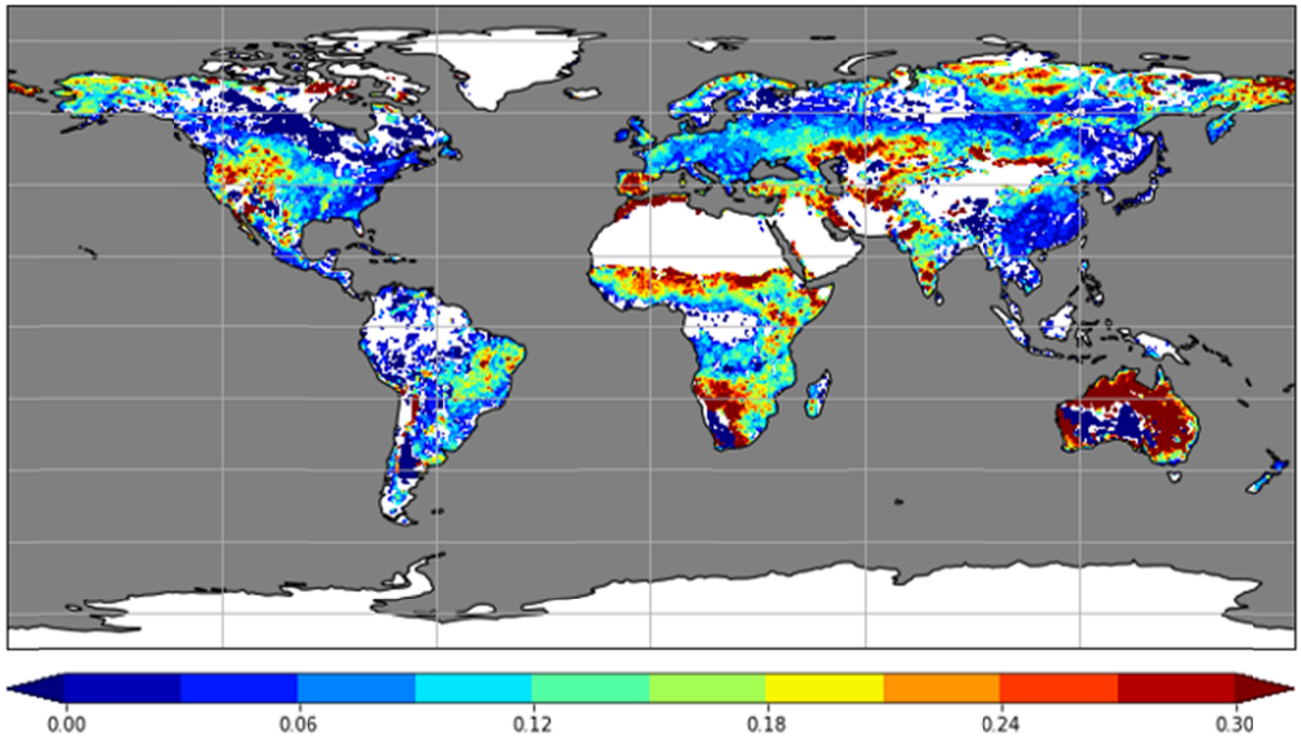
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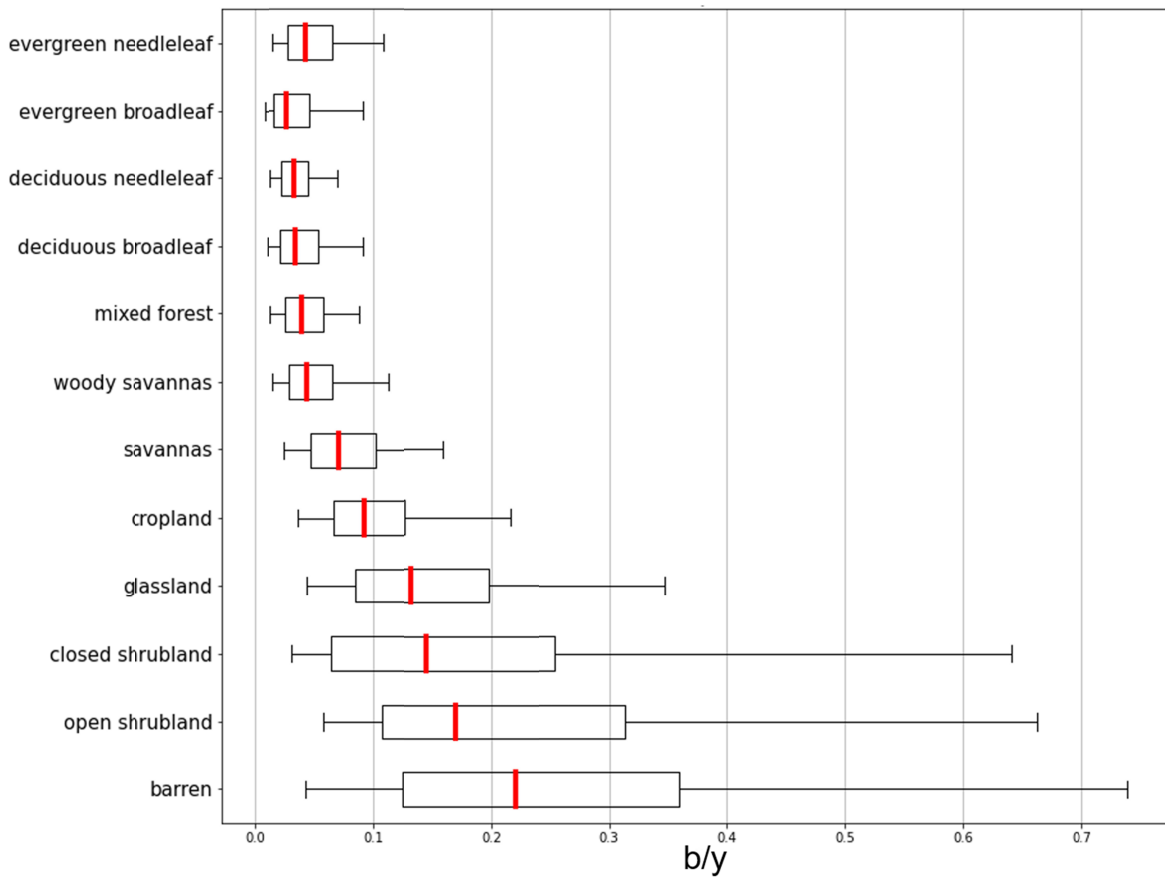
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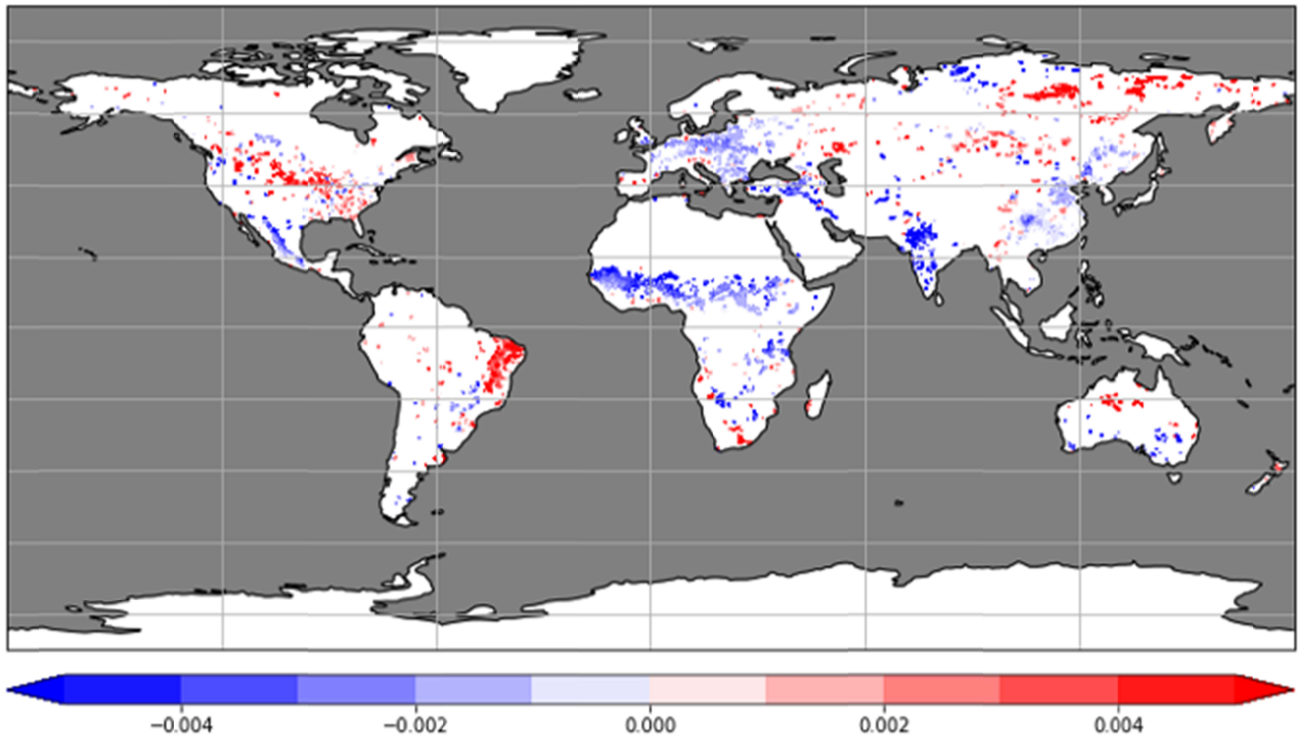
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**Figure 1.** Climatologic  $b/y$  [-] (see section 3). Pixels which show a statistically significant slope between microwave VOD and optical LAI (student's t-test,  $p < 0.05$ ) are depicted.



**Figure 2.** Boxplots of yearly  $b/y$  [-] (see section 3) stratified by land cover types. Pixels of water, wetland, urban, mosaic, and ice are excluded.



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**Figure 3.** Linear trend of  $b/y$  [-] (see section 3) from 2003 to 2019. Pixels which show a statistically significant trend (student's t-test,  $p < 0.05$ ) are depicted.