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

Hideharu Nara 1 and Yohei Sawada 2

¹the University of Tokyo ²The University of Tokyo

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Abstract

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

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3	satellite observations
4	Running title: global land change by microwave and optical observations
5	Hideharu Nara ¹⁺ , Yohei Sawada ²⁺ ,
6	¹ Department of Civil Engineering, the University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
7	² Institute of Engineering Innovation, the University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
8	+These authors have equally contributed and should be considered as co-first authors.
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12	Corresponding author: Y. Sawada, Institute of Engineering Innovation, the University of
13	Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, 2-11-6, Yayoi, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo, Japan,
14	yohei.sawada@sogo.t.u-tokyo.ac.jp
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16 Abstract

17The detection and quantification of global land change by satellite observations are the grand challenges to improve the understanding of global environmental change. In this 18study, we develop a new vegetation index, which can be used as a proxy of the fractions 1920of tree canopy and short vegetation, based on the simple linear regression between microwave vegetation optical depth (VOD) and optical leaf area index (LAI). Although 2122we use no high-resolution reference data, the newly developed vegetation index successfully detects and quantifies the global land change which has been reported by 23the previous estimations based on high-resolution reference data. We find that the 24relationship between VOD and LAI is non-stationary and the temporal change in the 25VOD-LAI relationship is the important signal to detect and quantify global change in 2627the terrestrial ecosystem.

28

29 Plain language summary

The detection and quantification of global land change, such as deforestation and afforestation, are crucially important to understand the effects of climate change and human activities on the terrestrial ecosystem. There are two major methodologies of 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

1. The simple linear regression between VOD and LAI can quantify the fractions of
 tree canopy and short vegetation/bare ground.
 2. The relationship between VOD and LAI is non-stationary and its temporal
 change is the important signal to detect global land change.

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49 **1. Introduction**

The detection and quantification of global change in the terrestrial ecosystem are 50crucially important to understand global environmental change. Vegetation indices 51generated from optical satellite observations (e.g., Zhu et al. 2013; Tucker et al. 2005) 5253have been intensively used to monitor the change in the terrestrial ecosystem. For example, Song et al. (2018) developed a yearly global vegetation product, in which 54every land pixel is characterized by its per cent cover of tree canopy, short vegetation, 55and bare ground, from the optical-infrared Normalized Difference Vegetation Index 5657(NDVI), and successfully detected the long-term global land change.

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.

Combining the microwave and optical vegetation indices has the potential to improvethe 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.

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

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95 **2. Data**

We used the microwave VOD product based on the Land Parameter Retrieval Model 96 (LPRM) provided by National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The 97 description of the LPRM algorithm can be found in Owe et al. (2001) and Owe et al. 98(2008). Microwave VOD is retrieved from C-band (6.9 GHz) brightness temperature 99 observed by Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer for Earth observation system 100(AMSR-E) and AMSR2. The VOD products from both AMSR-E (from June 2002 to 101September 2011) and AMSR2 (from July 2012 to December 2019) were used. We used 102only night scene data to reduce the effect of a surface temperature bias in the retrieval 103 algorithm (Liu et al. 2011). The spatial resolution of this dataset is 0.25 degree. The 104temporal resolution of this dataset is approximately 2-daily, and we resampled it to 105106 8-daily.



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.

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119 3. Method
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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
$$VOD = b \times VWC + R$$
 (1)

where b is a parameter and R quantifies the effect of surface soil roughness. Because it is difficult to distinguish the effects of vegetation and surface soil roughness on brightness temperature, the existing VOD data include the effect of surface soil roughness (e.g., Sawada et al. 2016, 2017a, 2017b; Wang et al. 2015; Njoku and Chan 2006). The important assumption of the MiOFA is that b-parameter for C-band VOD is time-invariant and species-independent. Sawada et al. (2016) and Sawada et al. (2017b)
supported this assumption by a field experiment although Jackson and Schmugge
(1991) originally formulated this parameter as a species-dependent variable.

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

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

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

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

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

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.

By performing the linear regression between microwave VOD and optical LAI, we 156developed the yearly global b/y dataset from 2003 to 2019. Since we had no C-band 157brightness temperature observations in the transition period from AMSR-E to AMSR2, 158we did not estimate b/y in 2011 and 2012 (see also section 2). There are long-term and 159160 temporally continuous VOD datasets derived by merging the multi-sensor VOD products (e.g., Moesinger et al. 2020). However, the assumption of the constant 161 b-parameter is correct only in the lower frequencies such as C-band so that we avoided 162to use VOD retrieved by brightness temperature with higher frequencies in this first 163164 application. No significant inconsistency between AMSR-E and AMSR2 has been found 165in 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.

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170 **4. Results and discussion**

Figure 1 shows climatologic b/y from 2003 to 2019. We use all 8-daily data of 171microwave VOD and optical LAI in the study period to perform the linear regression, 172and the estimated slope is shown in Figure 1. Although the linear relationship between 173microwave VOD and optical LAI is statistically insignificant in the rainforest regions 174due to the saturation of the signals of VOD and/or LAI in the densely vegetated areas, 175we can retrieve b/y in most of the vegetated pixels. Generally, b/y tends to be low in the 176177temperate and boreal forest areas. In semiarid grassland, b/y is relatively high indicating the large contribution of LAI to VWC. The spatial distribution of the retrieved 178R-parameter shown in Figure S1 is similar to the previous global estimation of a 179roughness parameter in a radiative transfer model (Wang et al. 2015). 180 181

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).

We can detect global land change by our yearly b/y. Figure 3 shows the linear trend of 194yearly b/y from 2003 to 2019. The decrease of b/y (shown in blue) indicates the increase 195196 of tree canopy, and the increase of b/y (shown in red) indicates the increase of short vegetation/bare ground. Most of the detected trends are consistent to the previous 197findings. We can detect the increase of tree canopy in the Sahel region, which previous 198 studies attributed to the increase of rainfall (Brandt et al. 2017: Hickler et al. 2005). The 199 increase of tree canopy in eastern Europe detected in our dataset is consistent to 200201previous 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).

The global land change detected by our newly developed b/y index is consistent to the 209 state-of-the-art dataset provided by Song et al. (2018). Song et al. (2018) estimated the 210211long-term trend of the fractions of tree canopy, short vegetation, and bare ground from NDVI by supervised machine learning with high-resolution reference data. It is 212213promising that our proposed method can detect the similar change in the terrestrial ecosystem to Song et al. (2018) by the simple linear regression between microwave 214VOD and optical LAI without any reference data. However, there are some differences 215between changes detected by this study and Song et al. (2018). Song et al. (2018) 216detected the short vegetation gain in the Congo rainforest, which we do not detect. Song 217218et al. (2018) detected the tree canopy gain in eastern U.S. while the long-term trend in 219this 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 th 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.

The results shown above imply that the empirical equations and assumptions of the MiOFA described in section 3 are accurate in the global scale. Since these empirical equations and assumptions are closely related to the algorithms to retrieve surface soil moisture and VOD from brightness temperature (e.g., Owe et al. 2001, 2008; Fujii et al. 2009; Sawada et al. 2017a) and to assimilate brightness temperature into land surface models (e.g., Yang et al. 2007, 2009; Sawada and Koike 2014; Sawada et al. 2015), our 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.

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248 **5.** Conclusions

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

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Figure 1. Climatologic b/y [-] (see section 3). Pixels which show a statistically significant slope between

411 microwave VOD and optical LAI (student's t-test, p<0.05) are depicted.



415 Figure 2. Boxplots of yearly b/y [-] (see section 3) stratified by land cover types. Pixels of water, wetland,

416 urban, mosaic, and ice are excluded.



419 Figure 3. Linear trend of b/y [-] (see section 3) from 2003 to 2019. Pixels which show a statistically

