

Influence of Surface Roughness Measurement Scale on Radar Backscattering in Different Agricultural Soils

Alex Martinez-Agirre, Jesús Álvarez-Mozos, Hans Lievens, and Niko E. C. Verhoest

Abstract—Soil surface roughness strongly affects the scattering of microwaves on the soil surface and determines the backscattering coefficient (σ^0) observed by radar sensors. Previous studies have shown important scale issues that compromise the measurement and parameterization of roughness especially in agricultural soils. The objective of this paper was to determine the roughness scales involved in the backscattering process over agricultural soils. With this aim, a database of 132 5-m profiles taken on agricultural soils with different tillage conditions was used. These measurements were acquired coinciding with a series of ENVISAT/ASAR observations. Roughness profiles were processed considering three different scaling issues: 1) influence of measurement range; 2) influence of low-frequency roughness components; and 3) influence of high-frequency roughness components. For each of these issues, eight different roughness parameters were computed and the following aspects were evaluated: 1) roughness parameters values; 2) correlation with σ^0 ; and 3) goodness-of-fit of the Oh model. Most parameters had a significant correlation with σ^0 especially the fractal dimension, the peak frequency, and the initial slope of the autocorrelation function. These parameters had higher correlations than classical parameters such as the standard deviation of surface heights or the correlation length. Very small differences were observed when longer than 1-m profiles were used as well as when small-scale roughness components (<5 cm) or large-scale roughness components (>100 cm) were disregarded. In conclusion, the medium-frequency roughness components (scale of 5–100 cm) seem to be the most influential scales in the radar backscattering process on agricultural soils.

Index Terms—Agriculture, rough surface, scattering, soil, synthetic aperture radar (SAR).

I. INTRODUCTION

SOIL surface roughness (SSR) is a variable that represents the microtopographic variations of soil surface elevations. As such, SSR greatly influences different processes at the

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soil–atmosphere interface including the partition of precipitation into infiltration or runoff [1], [2], the heat and energy balance at the soil surface [3], [4], and the occurrence of wind- and water-driven soil erosion [5], [6]. As a result, SSR has been approached from different fields of science, addressing different research questions and using different instruments, parameters, and analysis techniques [7].

SSR-measuring instruments can be grouped into contact and noncontact devices [8]. Noncontact devices have developed rapidly in the last years and offer a cost-effective way to survey the soil surface with unprecedented resolution and data [9], [10]. However, while different instruments have large differences in performance, versatility, comfort, etc., the resulting data can be considered very similar in terms of applications [11].

Different parameters have been proposed for measuring SSR ranging from very simple indices to more complex ones [12]. The simplest ones characterize the height variations of the surface elevation records in a data set (i.e., profile, point-cloud, or digital elevation model) and are normally referred to as vertical parameters. Some other parameters measure the spatial arrangement of surface heights; that is, whether height variations occur in short or long horizontal distance, these can be referred to as horizontal parameters. To combine both properties, hybrid or combined parameters have been proposed, normally as a ratio or product of two parameters, one of each category. Finally, parameters based on the fractal geometry have also been used in the context of SSR to measure the self-similarity or self-affinity of soil surface elevations.

In synthetic aperture radar (SAR) remote sensing, the backscattered signal over bare soils, as measured through the backscattering coefficient (σ^0), is influenced by a combination of factors including sensor configurations (frequency and polarization), surface characteristics [soil moisture (SM) and surface roughness], and the incidence angle of the incoming microwave pulse [13], [14]. The ability to obtain accurate SM estimations from SAR observations has received much interest from researchers across different disciplines [15]–[17]. However, for current spaceborne systems, the main sources of retrieval errors were due to issues related to the surface roughness parameterization [8], [18], [19].

Therefore, many research efforts in the SSR parameterization have focused on how to isolate its effect on SM retrieval techniques [8]. Earlier studies (see [20]), based on field radiometers and scatterometers, were conducted in different

TABLE I
DESCRIPTION OF THE DIFFERENT ROUGHNESS CLASSES CAUSED BY AGRICULTURAL TREATMENTS

Tillage class	Acronym	Fields	Profiles	Description
Mouldboard Plough	MP	04	16	Tillage operation performed with a plough with multiple mouldboards at a depth of 15-20 cm, resulting in soil inversion and a very rough surface
Harrowed Rough	HR	09	39	Operation performed normally with a tine harrow to break soil clods and provide a smoother surface suitable for seeding
Harrowed Smooth	HS	07	29	In cases where the first harrowing did not smoothen sufficiently the surface a second harrowing was applied
Planted	P	11	44	Seeding operation performed with conventional sowing machinery, normally seed drills
Planted Compacted	PC	01	04	In few cases farmers compacted the soil surface with a roller after sowing

81 experiments to understand the role of SSR in backscatter.
82 These data sets were also used to develop or to evaluate
83 mathematical models (physically based or empirical based)
84 describing the scattering of microwave pulses at the soil
85 surface [13], [21]–[23]. These models were later numerically
86 inverted to retrieve a variable of interest (mostly SM) from
87 σ^0 observations, based on the previous knowledge of the
88 other intervening variables (i.e., SSR parameters) or by making
89 simplifying assumptions.

90 When backscatter models were applied to observations
91 obtained from spaceborne platforms (SAR sensors), a problem
92 arose related to the scale of observation (spatial resolution
93 and wavelength) and the required roughness measurement
94 scale [8]. Roughness parameters especially the correlation
95 length were found to have multiscale properties, and their
96 values appeared very sensitive to the measurement range
97 (i.e., profile length) [24], [25]. Callens *et al.* [26] observed that
98 some parameters reached equilibrium with increasing profile
99 lengths. Other studies [24], [27], [28] defended the need for
100 long profiles to include all roughness components present on
101 the antenna-illuminated area (i.e., one pixel). However, this
102 recommendation can be very difficult (if not impossible) to
103 follow in practice because the spatial resolutions of SAR
104 sensors range from ~ 1 to ~ 1000 m depending on the sensors'
105 beam modes [29].

106 The spatial sampling of SSR measurements is also a key
107 element. In general, it has been related to the wavelength of
108 the SAR sensors. For example, Ulaby *et al.* [20] recommended
109 a sampling interval of $\sim 1/10$ the wavelength of observations.
110 Barber *et al.* [30] evaluated the influence of sampling interval
111 on the SSR statistics over agricultural soils and observed that
112 class differences were reduced as the measurement interval
113 increased. They also recommended intervals of 15 and 5 mm
114 for L- and C-bands, respectively.

115 These issues in SSR characterization caused some authors
116 to use effective or optimum roughness parameters rather than
117 real or measured ones [31], [32]. The effective roughness
118 parameters are those obtained by the optimization or inversion
119 of backscatter models (depending on whether SM measure-
120 ments are used or not). As such, they provide a good model
121 fit without necessarily producing realistic values of rough-
122 ness parameters (i.e., not comparable to field measurements).
123 In recent years, several studies successfully implemented the
124 effective roughness approach [33]–[37].

125 Recently, Fung [38] proposed that many natural surfaces
126 (e.g., agricultural surfaces and sea surfaces) have multiscale

roughness properties, but not all their roughness scales con-
tributed to backscatter. He proposed that only one specific
roughness spectral component $\kappa = (4\pi/\lambda) \sin \theta$ was responsi-
ble for microwave backscatter, where λ is the incident wave-
length and θ is the incidence angle. Therefore, at centimeter
wavelengths (typical of existing SAR sensors), meter-size
roughness components should not play a role in backscatter
from multiscale surfaces [38].

The aim of this paper was to analyze the influence of surface
roughness measurement scale on radar backscattering across
different agricultural soils. The objective was to determine
the roughness scales, which contribute to backscatter from
agricultural soils and to provide some guidelines on how
roughness should be characterized in these applications.

II. MATERIALS

A. Test Site

The data acquisition was carried out on the experimental
watershed of La Tejería (N42°44' 10.6" and W1°56' 57.2")
in the Spanish region of Navarre (Fig. 1). This watershed
is part of the experimental agricultural watershed network of
Navarre, created by the local Government of Navarre in 1993.
The watershed is used to study the impact of agriculture on
hydrological resources [39]. The total area of the watershed
is about 169 ha with homogenous slopes of $\sim 12\%$ and an
altitude range from 496 to 649 m. Its climate is humid sub-
Mediterranean with a mean annual temperature of 13 °C and
an average annual precipitation of ~ 700 mm distributed over
105 days. Ten agricultural fields were monitored (Fig. 1), and
their sizes ranged from 3 to 7.3 ha.

Soils have a silty-clay texture (approximately 43% clay,
5% sand, and 52% silt) and are relatively shallow (0.5–1 m
deep) except for swales where deeper soils can be found.
The monitored fields were cultivated with rain-fed winter
cereal crops (wheat, barley, or oats) sown at the end of
October and harvested at the end of June. Soil preparation
operations were performed sequentially during September and
October. The different tillage operations (considered as dif-
ferent roughness classes) were mouldboard plough (MP),
harrowed rough (HR), harrowed smooth (HS), planted (P),
and planted compacted (PC) (Table I).

B. Surface Roughness Data

Surface roughness was measured using a laser profilometer
with a total measurement range (profile length) of 5 m,
a resolution (sampling interval) of 5 mm, and a vertical

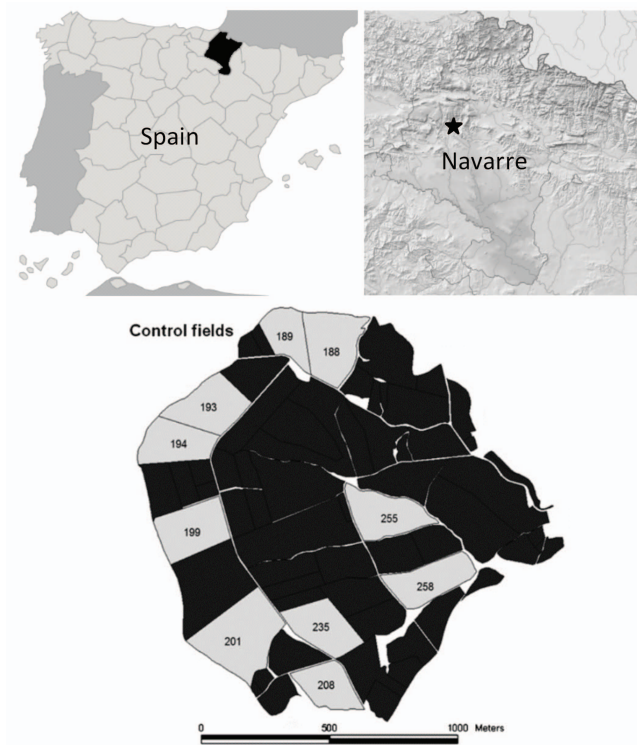


Fig. 1. Location of La Tejería experimental watershed and distribution of control fields. (Fields in black were not used in this paper.)

TABLE II
ROUGHNESS CLASSES CORRESPONDING TO EACH FIELD AND MEASUREMENT DATE. FOUR ROUGHNESS PROFILES WERE ACQUIRED PER FIELD, EXCEPT WHERE INDICATED

Field ID.	22/09/2004	08/10/2004	24/10/2004	17/12/2004
188	HR*	HR	-	P
189	HR*	HR	HS	P
193	HR*	HR	P	P
194	-	HR	HR	P
199	MP*	MP	MP	P
201	HS*	HS	-	P
208	MP**	-	-	PC
235	HS	HS	P	P
255	HS	HS	-	P
258	HR	-	-	P

- Fields not monitored on that particular day

* Fields with 5 profiles measured

** Fields with 3 profiles measured

171 accuracy of 1.25 mm [12], [40]. Profiles ($n = 132$) were
 172 measured under bare soil conditions in parallel to the tillage
 173 direction and spatially distributed over each field, so as to
 174 obtain field average roughness parameters representative of the
 175 spatial variability within the field; in most cases, four profiles
 176 were acquired per field and date of study (Table II). For six
 177 satellite acquisition dates (Table III), the surface roughness
 178 measurements were not available and the roughness data of
 179 the previous date were considered under the assumption of no
 180 roughness change between dates. This assumption was deemed
 181 plausible because roughness smoothening due to rainfall can
 182 be considered relevant only during the first precipitation events
 183 after tillage [41], [42], which was not the case. For the time,
 184 this assumption was applied a cumulative rainfall of 103.3 mm

185 had already been recorded since tillage, and besides subse-
 186 quent precipitation events were weak (intensity < 2 mm/h).

187 Profiles were processed using a code developed *ad hoc*, with
 188 the following steps:

- 189 1) correction of the buckling effect on the aluminum bar
 190 using a parabolic calibration function;
- 191 2) filtering the outliers corresponding to plant mater-
 192 ial or small holes eventually present in the soil, by delet-
 193 ing and linearly interpolating any records with height
 194 differences larger than a certain threshold (i.e., 2 cm)
 195 with the previous and subsequent records;
- 196 3) linear correction for the terrain slope.

197 Further information on profile processing can be found in [12].

C. Soil Moisture Data

198 The SM of the top 10 cm of the soil was mea-
 199 sured using a commercial time domain reflectometry (TDR)
 200 instrument (TRIME FM-3, IMKO GmbH) connected to a
 201 portable three-rod probe. On each field, five SM-measurement
 202 locations were monitored per date, and these were spatially
 203 distributed to cover the entire field. On each location, three
 204 TDR readings were taken. The TDR probe was calibrated
 205 with *in situ* SM data measured with the thermogravimetric
 206 method. Here, soil samples with a known volume (necessary
 207 for the calculation of the bulk density) were also collected reg-
 208 ularly. For four satellite acquisition dates (Table III), the TDR
 209 measurements were not available and the modeled SM values
 210 were used instead. For SM modeling, TOPMODEL-based land
 211 surface-atmosphere transfer scheme (TOPLATS) was used
 212 [43], [44] to calibrate and validate the surface SM per field
 213 using the available TDR measurements; this offered a root-
 214 mean-square error (RMSE) of $\sim 0.02 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$.

D. SAR Data

216 During the study period, ten ENVISAT/ASAR scenes
 217 (C-band) were acquired over La Tejería watershed (Table III).
 218 Scenes were ordered as VV polarization precision
 219 image products in swath IS2 (incidence angles around
 220 19° – 26°), multilooked (four looks), except for one scene
 221 (September 22, 2004) that was acquired in swath IS1 and
 222 alternate polarization (HH-VV) mode with two looks. In the
 223 latter, only the VV channel was used for consistency with the
 224 rest of data set. Half of the scenes were obtained in ascending
 225 pass, and the other half were obtained in descending pass.
 226 In all cases, the resolution was $30 \text{ m} \times 30 \text{ m}$. Scenes were:
 227 1) orthorectified (with an error < 1 pixel); 2) calibrated (using
 228 the local incidence angle); and 3) speckle filtered (gamma
 229 MAP filter with a window of 5×5). The digital
 230 elevation model used for preprocessing was obtained by
 231 photogrammetric techniques with a spatial resolution of 5 m.
 232 Mean backscatter coefficient values (σ^0) were calculated for
 233 each field per date.
 234

III. METHODS

235 The analysis presented here focused on the influence of sur-
 236 face roughness scale on backscatter. Roughness was character-
 237 ized through different parameters (explained in Section II-B)
 238 that were measured considering different scales. Here, three
 239

TABLE III
SUMMARY OF SAR DATA

Date	SAR data	θ_{Loc} (°)	Pass	Fields	Roughness data	SM data
22/09/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR*	7.2-16.2	Descending	9	Profilometer	TDR
08/10/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR	11.6-20.9	Descending	8	Profilometer	TDR
11/10/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR	20.9-31.4	Ascending	8	=	TOPLATS
24/10/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR	15.7-24.9	Descending	5	Profilometer	TDR
27/10/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR	16.9-27.2	Ascending	5	=	TOPLATS
17/12/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR	11.6-20.9	Descending	10	Profilometer	TDR
20/12/2004	ENVISAT/ASAR	20.8-31.2	Ascending	10	=	TOPLATS
02/01/2005	ENVISAT/ASAR	15.8-24.5	Descending	10	=	TDR
05/01/2005	ENVISAT/ASAR	16.8-26.9	Ascending	10	=	TDR
24/01/2005	ENVISAT/ASAR	20.9-31.3	Ascending	10	=	TOPLATS

* Scene acquired in Alternative Polarization (HH-VV) Mode with 2 looks in swath IS1

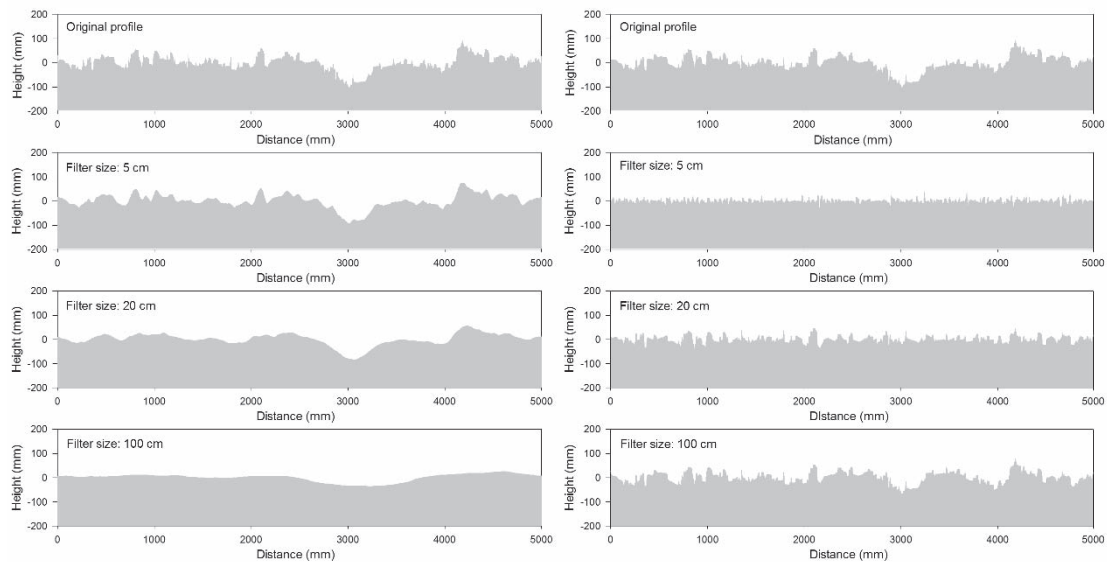


Fig. 2. Example of profile filtering. (Top) Original profile, (Left column) low-frequency roughness components, and (Right column) high-frequency roughness components for increasing filter sizes.

240 scaling issues were investigated: 1) the influence of measure-
241 ment range (profile length); 2) the influence of low-frequency
242 roughness components; and 3) the influence of high-frequency
243 roughness components.

244 To study the influence of the measurement range, each
245 roughness parameter was calculated with decreasing profile
246 lengths by dividing the original profile into 2, 3, ..., 10
247 profiles of equal length, leading to profiles of 2.5-,
248 1.66-, ..., 0.5-m length. Next, to study the low-frequency
249 components, profiles were smoothed using moving median
250 filters of increasing window size: 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50,
251 100, and 200 cm. This way, the high-frequency components
252 of increasing wavelengths were masked from the profiles.
253 Finally, to study the influence of high-frequency components,
254 the smoothed profiles obtained for increasing filter sizes
255 were subtracted from their corresponding original profiles such
256 that only the high-frequency components remained (Fig. 2).

257 For each of these three scaling issues, the following analyses
258 were carried out: 1) assessment of the behavior of roughness
259 parameters for the different scales investigated; 2) correlation
260 of SAR backscatter with roughness parameters obtained at

different scales; and 3) evaluation of the goodness-of-fit of
a backscatter model parameterized with roughness parameters
obtained from different scales.

A. Behavior of Roughness Parameters

In total, eight roughness parameters were analyzed
(Table IV). These parameters were selected after a detailed
analysis [12], where their ability to discriminate differ-
ent tillage classes was assessed. Some of these param-
eters were descriptors of the vertical roughness component
(vertical parameters), i.e., the standard deviation of surface
heights (s) [45] and the microrelief index (MI) [46]. Others
parameters measured the horizontal component (horizontal
parameters), i.e., the correlation length (l) [20], the initial
slope of the autocorrelation function [$\rho'(0)$] [20], and the
peak frequency (F) [46]. Some parameters combined both
components (combined parameters), i.e., parameter MIF [46]
and the tortuosity index of Saleh (T_S) [47]. Finally, fractal
dimension (D) [48] was also considered. The behavior of the
different roughness parameters was evaluated by comparing

TABLE IV
SUMMARY OF THE ROUGHNESS PARAMETERS ANALYZED

Type	Parameter	Description	Equations	Ref.
Vertical	s (cm)	Standard deviation of surface heights	$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (z_i^2 - \bar{z}^2)}{N-1}}$	[45]
	MI (cm)	Microrelief index	---	[46]
Horizontal	l (cm)	Correlation length	$\rho(h) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N(h)} z_i z_{i+h}}{\sum_{i=1}^N z_i^2}$	[20]
	$\rho'(0)$	Initial slope of the auto-correlation function	---	[20]
	F (cm ⁻¹)	Peak frequency	---	[46]
Combined	MIF	Combined parameter	$MIF = MI \cdot F$	[46]
	T_S	Tortuosity	$T_S = 100 \cdot \frac{(L_1 - L_0)}{L_1}$	[47]
Fractal	D	Fractal dimension (semivariogram method)	$\gamma(h) = l^{1-H} h^H; D = 2 - H$	[48]

s is the standard deviation of heights where N is the number of height records, z_i is the height of record i , and \bar{z} is the mean height of all records. $\rho(h)$ is the autocorrelation function, the correlation length l is then defined arbitrarily as the distance at which the heights of two points are considered independent; i.e., $\rho(h)$ is equal to $1/e$, so that $\rho(l) = 1/e$. Another parameter extracted from the autocorrelation function is its initial slope $\rho'(0)$. MIF is a combined parameter where MI represents the area per unit length between the measured surface profile and the regression line obtained through least squares, and F is the number of peaks per unit length. Tortuosity is a roughness index based on the ratio of the surface profile perimeter length (L_1) and its horizontal projection (L_0). Assuming a fractal Brownian motion (*fBm*) model, the experimental semivariogram can be described as a function of the lag, where l is the crossover length and H is the Hurst coefficient. Afterward, H was related to the fractal dimension as $D = 2 - H$.

280 the average and standard deviation of each roughness parame-
281 ter per class for the different scales under study.

282 B. Correlation of Backscatter With Roughness Parameters

283 To analyze the correlation between backscatter signal and
284 roughness parameters, a two-stage backscatter data normaliza-
285 tion was applied to remove the influence of factors other than
286 roughness on σ^0 values. First, the σ^0 values were normalized
287 toward a reference incidence angle based on the generalized
288 Lambert's law [49]

$$289 \sigma_{\theta_{\text{ref}}}^0 = \sigma^0 \frac{\cos^n \theta_{\text{ref}}}{\cos^n \theta} \quad (1)$$

290 with σ^0 being the linear backscatter observation at the inci-
291 dence angle θ , and $\sigma_{\theta_{\text{ref}}}^0$ being the linear backscatter normal-
292 ized to a reference incidence angle θ_{ref} set to 20° (which
293 corresponds to the average value of the observations). The
294 exponent n represents the degree of Lambertianity of the target
295 and was therefore optimized for each roughness class mini-
296 mizing the correlation between $\sigma_{\theta_{\text{ref}}}^0$ and the incidence angle.
297 (n values between 2 and 8 were obtained for the different
298 roughness classes.) A second normalization was performed to
299 compensate σ^0 variations due to SM fluctuations. With this
300 aim, a linear relation was assumed between $\sigma_{\theta_{\text{ref}}}^0$ and SM for
301 fields of different roughness classes observed on dates with
302 contrasting SM conditions. The resulting linear function was
303 used to detrend $\sigma_{\theta_{\text{ref}}}^0$ leading to σ_{norm}^0 . The linear regression
304 approach has offered good results in the past (see [50], [51]).
305 To assess the correlation between backscatter signal and rough-
306 ness parameters, the Spearman R coefficient was computed

between the field average σ_{norm}^0 and the roughness parameters
obtained for each field and date.

309 C. Goodness-of-Fit of Backscatter Model

310 In the last part, the empirical backscatter model of
311 Oh *et al.* [22] was considered. The Oh model was selected
312 because of its ample validity range including both rough
313 and smooth conditions and its adequate simulation of the
314 co-polarized backscatter [52], [53]. Other models (i.e., integral
315 equation model [21], geometrical optic model, and small
316 perturbation model [54]) were discarded because a signifi-
317 cant part of the measured fields was outside their validity
318 range. Model goodness-of-fit was evaluated by computing the
319 RMSE between simulated and observed σ^0 values (without
320 backscatter data normalization). It must be mentioned that
321 the Oh model was empirically built based on *in situ* data
322 with some particular roughness conditions (s values between
323 0.32 and 3.02 cm) and measurement techniques (1-m long
324 profiles with a 0.25-cm sampling interval), and this fact might
325 have influenced the results obtained here.

326 IV. RESULTS

327 A. Roughness Measurements Using Original Profiles

328 Prior to roughness scale analysis, the results obtained with
329 the original profiles (5-m length, 5-mm sampling interval)
330 were analyzed. The behavior of the different roughness para-
331 meters per roughness class is shown in the boxplots (Fig. 3).
332 The vertical parameters s and MI and the combined parameter
333 MIF presented a very similar behavior. The mean class values
334 and class variability decreased from the roughest class to the

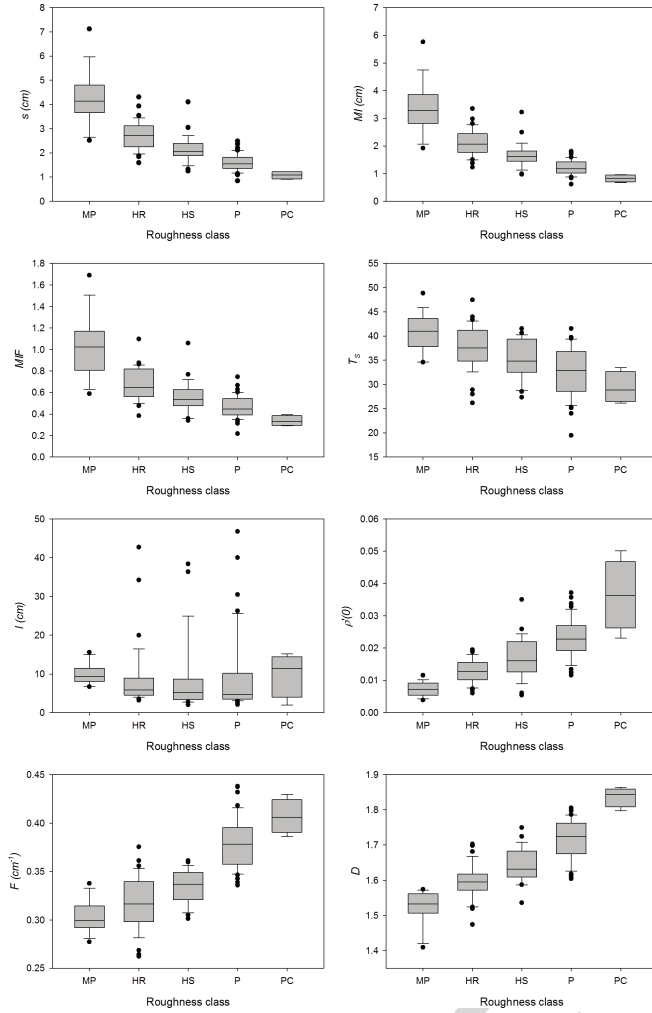


Fig. 3. Box plots of the different roughness parameter values per roughness classes.

smoothest class (MP and PC, respectively). The combined parameter T_S also showed decreasing mean class values but with similar variability in all classes. On the other hand, horizontal parameters $\rho'(0)$ and F and fractal parameter D had increasing mean class values and similar variability. Finally, the horizontal parameter l , i.e., the correlation length, behaved completely different with no clear trends and overlapping values for the different classes.

The correlation of the normalized backscatter coefficient (σ_{norm}^0) with the roughness parameters varied markedly depending on the parameter under study (Fig. 4). The fractal parameter D ($R = -0.651$) and the horizontal parameters F ($R = -0.641$) and $\rho'(0)$ ($R = -0.617$) showed the highest correlations followed by the vertical parameters MI ($R = 0.585$) and s ($R = 0.584$). The combined parameters MIF ($R = 0.528$) and especially T_S ($R = 0.433$) had a lower correlation. On the other hand, the horizontal parameter l had the lowest correlation ($R = 0.064$).

Regarding the goodness-of-fit of the Oh model (Fig. 5), the mean RMSE value between the simulated and observed backscatter was 1.323 dB. The fitting for the HS roughness class (RMSE < 1 dB) was very good. For the P, HR, and MP roughness classes, the RMSE values ranged from 1 to 1.5 dB.

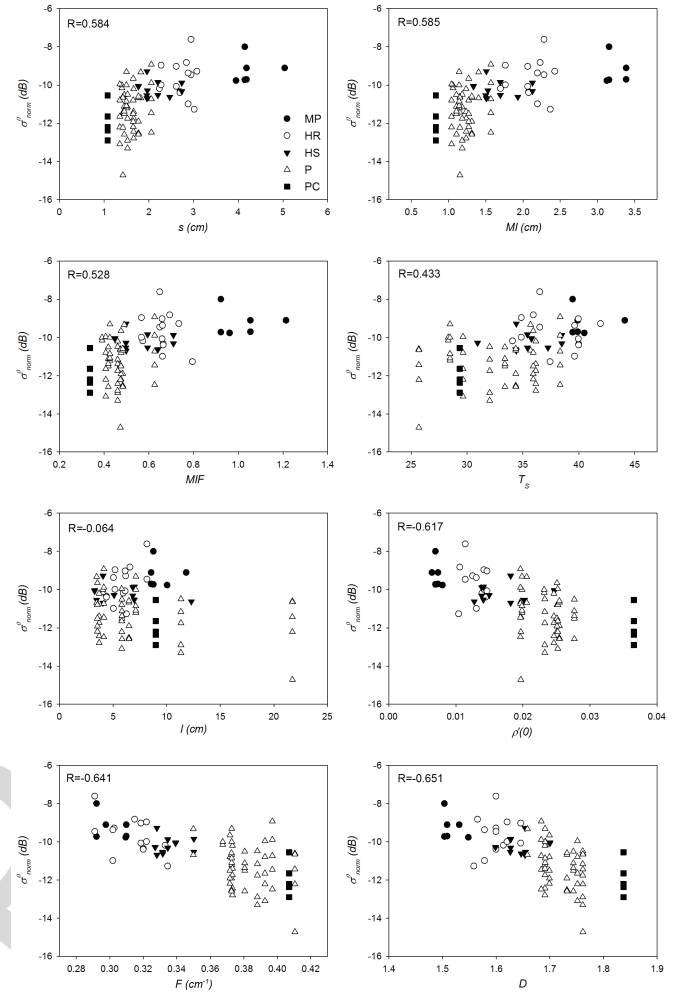


Fig. 4. Scatterplots between σ_{norm}^0 and the different roughness parameters by field. The Spearman correlation coefficient (R) is also given.

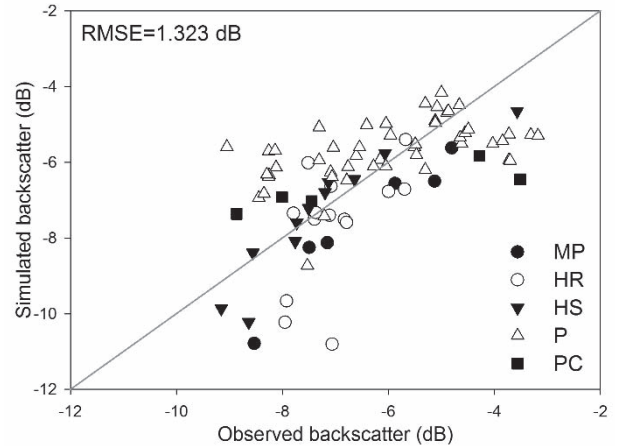


Fig. 5. Goodness-of-fit between simulated and observed backscatter coefficients per field.

Finally, for the PC roughness class (only one field at different dates), the RMSE value was close to 2 dB.

B. Influence of Profile Length

Fig. 6 depicts the behavior of the different roughness parameters per class depending on the profile length. Vertical parameters (s and MI) increased with increasing profile lengths

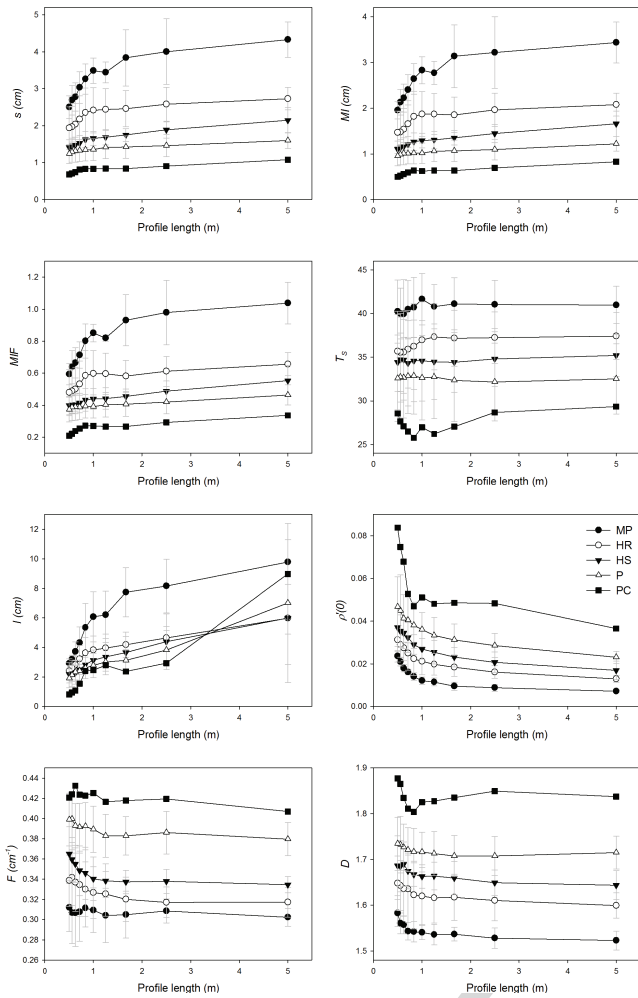


Fig. 6. Influence of profile length on roughness parameters. Mean values of roughness parameters and standard deviation (error bars) for the different roughness classes depending on the profile length.

364 especially for rough classes (e.g., MP). The variability per
 365 class (error bars in Fig. 6) of the vertical parameters normally
 366 decreased with increasing profile lengths. Horizontal param-
 367 eters did not exhibit a consistent trend, and different patterns
 368 were observed for the different parameters. For instance,
 369 parameters $\rho'(0)$ and F followed a generally decreasing trend,
 370 steeper in the shortest profile lengths and gentler at the longer
 371 profile lengths. There were some exceptions, particularly in
 372 the MP class. Furthermore, the $\rho'(0)$ and F values were quite
 373 different for the different classes regardless of the profile
 374 length. The variability per class of $\rho'(0)$ and F parameters
 375 normally decreased with increasing profile lengths, with the
 376 variability of $\rho'(0)$ being lower than that of F . The parameter l
 377 had different patterns and a growing trend for increasing
 378 profile lengths, although values at short profile lengths were
 379 quite erratic and variable. In this case, the variability per
 380 class seemed to increase for longer profiles. The combined
 381 parameters (MIF and T_s) had a similar trend as the vertical
 382 ones with slightly increasing values and decreasing class
 383 variabilities for increasing profile lengths. Finally, the fractal
 384 parameter D had a trend very similar to $\rho'(0)$ except for the
 385 MP class.

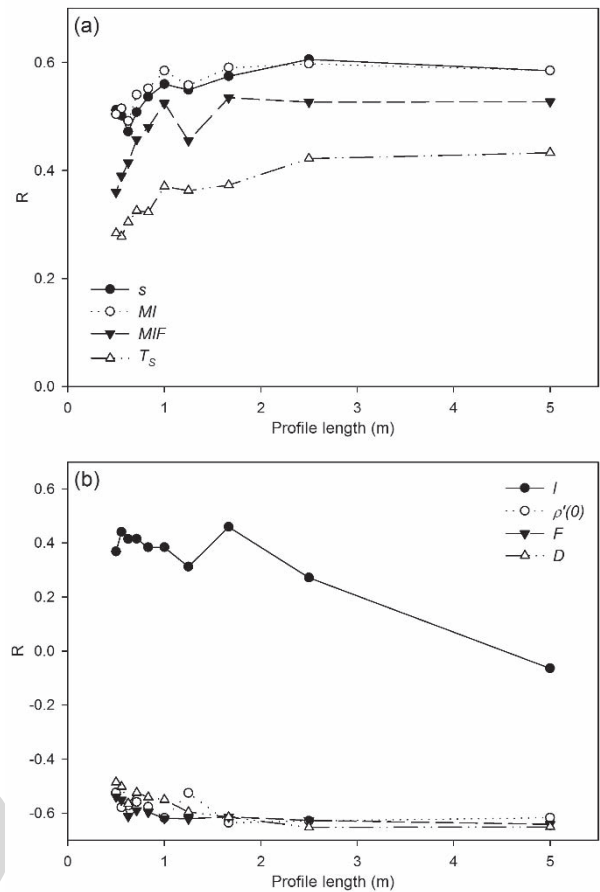


Fig. 7. Spearman's correlation coefficients (R) between σ_{norm}^0 and the different roughness parameters depending on the profile length. (a) Vertical and combined parameters. (b) Horizontal and fractal ones.

386 The correlation of σ_{norm}^0 with the different roughness para-
 387 meters depending on profile length is presented in Fig. 7.
 388 The Spearman correlation values (R) are given for a more
 389 straightforward interpretation of results. Vertical parameters
 390 showed a very similar correlation trend with R values ranging
 391 from 0.5 to 0.6. These increased at short profile lengths
 392 (from 0.5 to 1 m) and then stabilized for longer profiles
 393 (from 1 to 5 m). Horizontal parameters did not show a
 394 consistent pattern. On one hand, $\rho'(0)$ and F behaved similar
 395 to the vertical parameters (inverse correlation) with R values
 396 increasing for longer profile lengths. The R values achieved by
 397 these two parameters, especially F , were very high (~ -0.6).
 398 This was even higher than those for vertical parameters regard-
 399 less of the profile length. In contrast, l had maximum R values
 400 of ~ 0.4 with short profile lengths and very low correlations
 401 with longer profiles. The combined parameters also behaved
 402 very similar to the vertical ones, but with slightly lower
 403 correlation values. Parameter D also showed an increasing
 404 trend with high R values (< -0.6) for profiles longer than
 405 2–3 m and values dropping to ~ -0.5 for lengths below 1 m.

406 The Oh model showed a consistent trend of decreasing
 407 RMSE values for increasing profile lengths. This was true
 408 across all of the different roughness classes (Fig. 8) with
 409 RMSE values decreasing mostly between 0.5- and 1-m profile
 410 lengths and then stabilizing for longer profiles. With short

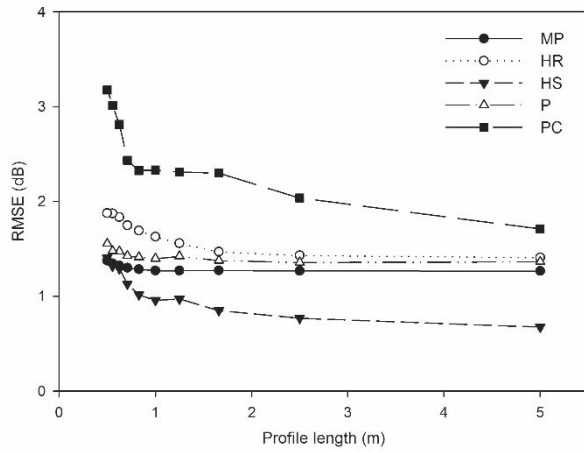


Fig. 8. Roughness class average RMSE between simulated (the Oh model) and observed field backscatter values depending on the profile length.

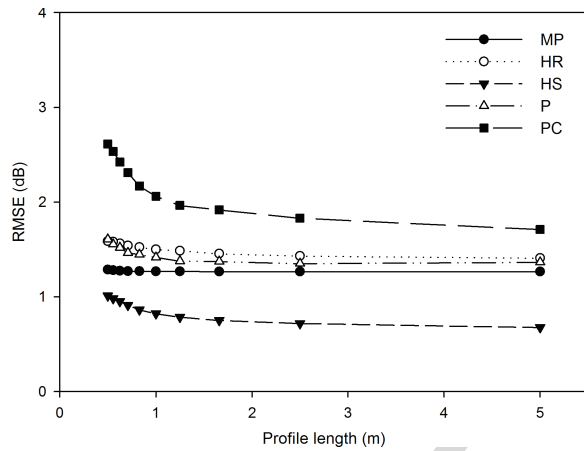


Fig. 9. Roughness class average RMSE between simulated (the Oh model) and observed field backscatter values depending on the profile length. The number of shorter profiles was increased so that the same soil surface sample was surveyed than that for longer profiles.

411 profiles, the errors were particularly large for class PC (the
 412 smoothest class and with only one field observed on different
 413 dates). On the other hand, the MP class showed a rather
 414 insensitive behavior with profile lengths.

415 The higher RMSE values observed for shorter profile
 416 lengths might be partly explained by the fact that the short
 417 profiles survey a much smaller soil surface sample than longer
 418 ones. That is, the field average roughness parameters computed
 419 using four 1-m profiles (with a sampling interval of 5 mm)
 420 are based on 800 surface height records, whereas four 5-m
 421 profiles are based on 4000 records. This sampling effect might
 422 hide the influence of different roughness scale components
 423 in Fig. 8. Therefore, Fig. 9 shows the same results but obtained
 424 by increasing the number of profiles at shorter lengths to
 425 the maximum allowed by the original 5-m length (i.e., one
 426 5-m profile, two 2.5-m profiles, and four 1.25-m profiles).
 427 This way, different profile lengths correspond to the same
 428 soil surface sample (same number of height records) and
 429 differences are only due to the influence of different roughness
 430 scale components. This time, the influence of profile length on
 431 the Oh model fit is much lower (Fig. 9). There were only slight
 432 increases in the RMSE values for profiles shorter than 1 m.

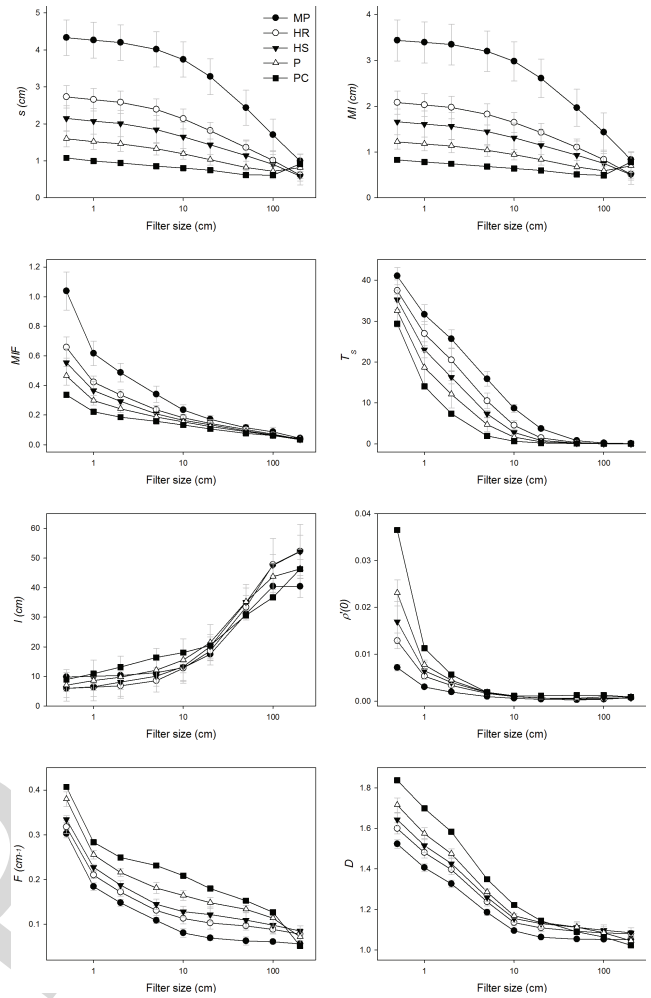


Fig. 10. Influence of profile smoothing on roughness parameters. Mean values of roughness parameters and standard deviation (error bars) for the different roughness classes for increasing a filter size. A filter size of 0.5 cm corresponds to original profiles.

C. Influence of Low-Frequency Roughness Components

434 Most parameters (except l) had decreasing values for all
 435 roughness classes (Fig. 10) as profiles were smoothed
 436 (i.e. short-frequency components discarded). However, this
 437 decreasing trend varied. Vertical parameters s and MI
 438 decreased gently at the beginning but were steeper after
 439 a filter size of 10 cm (except for PC). This indicates a
 440 higher sensitivity to larger scale components. Most horizontal,
 441 combined, and fractal parameters had an opposite trend with
 442 a strong decrease at small filter sizes and a stabilization for
 443 larger ones. This illustrates the higher influence of small-scale
 444 components on their values. The parameter l showed a very
 445 unique trend (among horizontal parameters) of steady growth
 446 as the filter size increased. But then took higher increasing
 447 rates for filter size between 20 and 100 cm. Therefore, it seems
 448 that l is more strongly influenced by larger-scale components
 449 than the other horizontal parameters.

450 Correlation values of vertical parameters (s and MI) with
 451 σ_{norm}^0 slightly decreased as the profiles were smoothed
 452 until a window size of 50 cm. It then sharply decreased
 453 until 200 cm (Fig. 11). Horizontal parameters did not show
 454 a unique behavior. Parameter l increased in correlation as

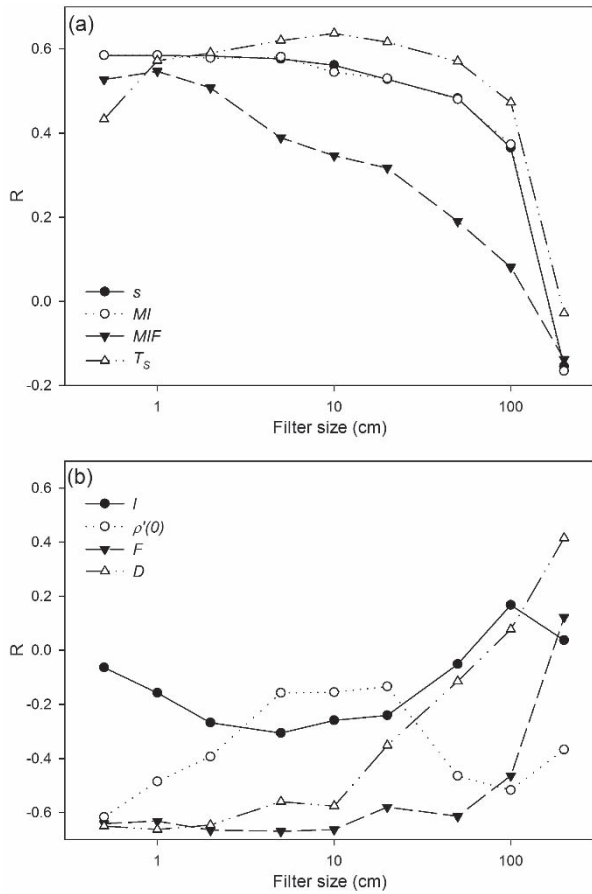


Fig. 11. Influence of profile smoothing on the correlation between σ_{norm}^0 and the different roughness parameters. The Spearman correlation coefficients (R) are represented for increasing filter sizes. A filter size of 0.5 cm corresponds to original profiles. (a) Vertical and combined parameters. (b) Horizontal and fractal ones.

455 the finest roughness components (until 5-cm window size)
 456 were discarded. It then peaked at $R \sim -0.35$ and took the
 457 opposite trend with R values ~ 0 for window sizes longer
 458 than 50 cm. On the contrary, $\rho'(0)$ had a strongly decreasing
 459 correlation as the finest components (<5 cm) were filtered
 460 out but then increased again with filter sizes of 50–100 cm
 461 ($R \sim -0.55$). Parameter F showed high correlation val-
 462 ues ($R \sim -0.6$) that were insensitive to the removal of
 463 high-frequency components until a filter size of 10 cm. After
 464 this point, correlation decreased as filter sizes increased. The
 465 combined parameter MIF quickly decreased in correlation for
 466 increasing filter sizes. In contrast, T_s showed a rather insen-
 467 sitive behavior as long as the roughness components below
 468 50 cm were maintained with maximum correlation values of
 469 $R \sim 0.65$ for a filter size of 10 cm. Finally, D had a similar
 470 pattern to F with maximum correlation values for profiles that
 471 maintained the small-scale roughness components (filter size
 472 below 2 cm).

473 The results obtained with the Oh model confirmed the
 474 observations above with RMSE values increasing consistently
 475 as high-frequency roughness components were removed from
 476 the original profiles (i.e., window size increasing in Fig. 12).
 477 Smooth classes (i.e., PC and P) were more sensitive than
 478 medium or rough classes, and RMSE values increased faster

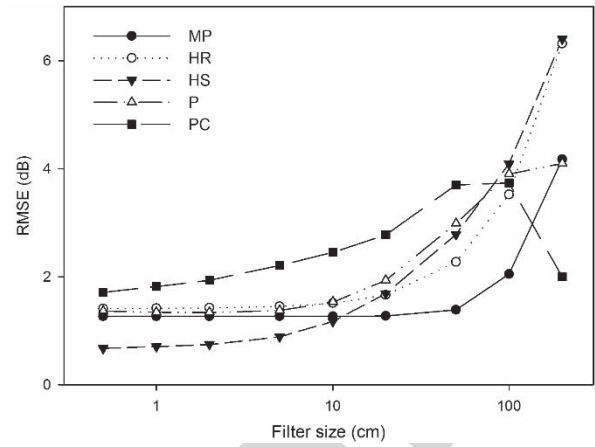


Fig. 12. Roughness class average RMSE between simulated (the Oh model) and observed backscatter values depending on profile smoothing (filter size). A filter size of 0.5 cm corresponds to original profiles.

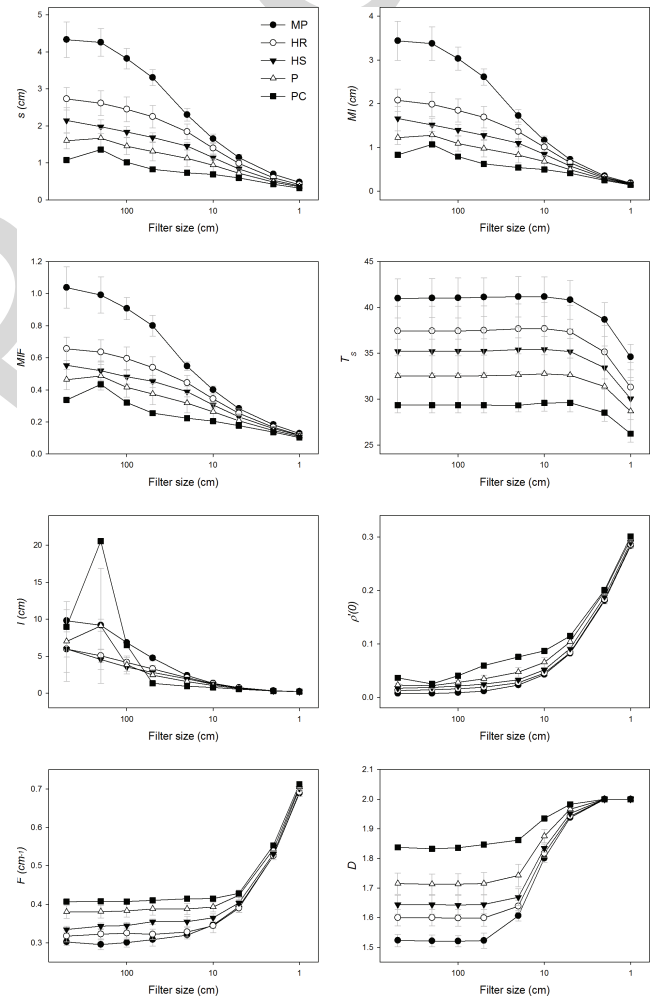


Fig. 13. Influence of high-frequency roughness components on parameter values and standard deviation (error bars) for the different roughness classes for increasing filter size. Parameter values are computed from profiles obtained as the subtraction of smoothed profiles for increasing filter sizes from the original profiles. A filter size of 500 cm corresponds to original profiles without filtering.

479 on the first. Rough classes (in particular MP) were more
 480 insensitive and had similar RMSE values until filter sizes
 481 of 20–50 cm.

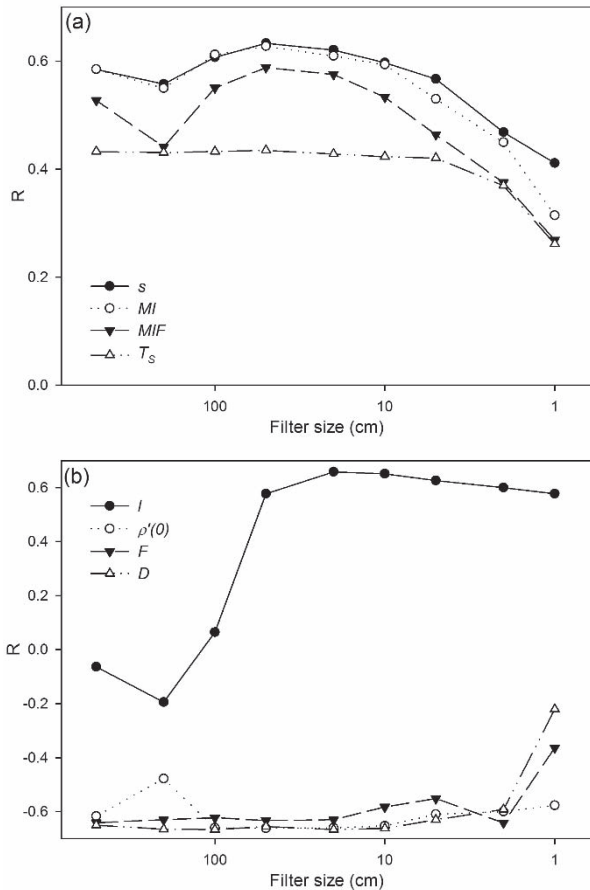


Fig. 14. Influence of high-frequency components on the correlation between σ_{norm}^0 and the different roughness parameters. Parameter values are computed from profiles obtained as the subtraction of smoothed profiles for increasing a filter size from the original profile. The Spearman correlation coefficients (R) are represented for increasing a filter size. A filter size of 500 cm corresponds to original profiles without filtering. (a) Vertical and combined parameters. (b) Horizontal and fractal ones.

D. Influence of High-Frequency Roughness Components

Most roughness parameters clearly varied when low-frequency components were subtracted from the roughness profiles. This variation was small when only roughness scale components larger than 1 m were subtracted (Fig. 13). In turn, when only the shortest components were left (filter window sizes below 10 cm), most parameters changed strongly, and the differences between tillage classes were reduced. Parameters s , MI , and MIF also had some sensitivity to the removal of the longer roughness components. They showed a linear decay as the frequencies were discarded. The others were quite stable at least until a filter size of 50 cm [for $\rho'(0)$ and D] or 20 cm (for F) was achieved. The T_s was quite exceptional, and its values only changed when roughness components shorter than 5 cm were removed. Finally, l had a decaying trend taking lower values, when longer-frequency components were discarded. However, this general pattern was altered by outliers particularly in smooth classes (PC and P).

Correlation values of vertical parameters with σ_{norm}^0 decreased when lower-frequency roughness components were subtracted (i.e., shorter filter window size) (Fig. 14). However, the decrease was only noticeable when the filter size was smaller than ~ 50 cm. Thus, the inclusion of roughness

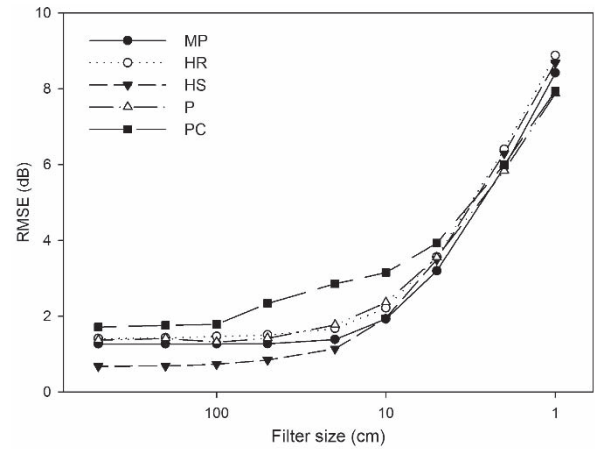


Fig. 15. Influence of high-frequency roughness components on the Oh model fit. Roughness class average RMSE between simulated and observed backscatter values are represented for increasing a filter size. s values are computed from profiles obtained as the subtraction of smoothed profiles for increasing filter sizes from the original profile. A filter size of 500 cm corresponds to original profiles without filtering.

frequencies longer than this value did not result in additional enhancements in correlation with σ_{norm}^0 . Parameters $\rho'(0)$, F , and D showed a low dependence on the removal of low-frequency components with correlation values decreasing when only scale components smaller than 1 cm remained. On the other hand, l showed a high sensitivity to roughness components longer than ~ 50 cm with correlation values dropping abruptly after this value. It is remarkable that when roughness components longer than 50 cm were discarded, l had R values ~ 0.6 , which is similar to those of other horizontal roughness parameters [i.e., F or $\rho'(0)$].

The Oh model simulations had a very clear pattern of increasing RMSE when roughness scales below 50 cm were subtracted (Fig. 15). They rose as high as 8–9 dB when only components smaller than 1 cm remained. However, for most classes, the inclusion of roughness components longer than 20 or 50 cm did not result in additional improvements in RMSE.

Only the smoothest class (PC) seemed to further improve when wavelengths of 100 cm or longer were included.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results confirm the clear dependence between roughness measurement scales (i.e., profile lengths) and parameter values. They demonstrate the multiscale behavior of surface roughness, as also observed in [8], [24]–[26], [55], and [56]. Thus, it is necessary to determine which roughness scales are relevant in the backscattering of microwaves over bare soils. Regarding the influence of small-scale components, the results demonstrate that eliminating these small-scale roughness components from the profiles caused a strong variation in the values of horizontal parameters, while vertical ones were more insensitive. This is in agreement with Barber *et al.* [30] who observed that when the sampling interval increased, s decreased slightly and l increased causing the separability between different roughness classes to decrease. The results also confirm that l values did not stabilize with long profiles, but showed rather an increase in their variability [19], [26]. However, the correlation

of most parameters with σ_{norm}^0 and the results obtained with the Oh model did not show great sensitivity to the elimination of these short roughness components until a scale of 2 or 5 cm.

Regarding the influence of large-scale roughness components, previous studies defended the need for long profiles so as to reflect all the roughness components present on a pixel [27], [28] or for a statistically robust estimation of roughness parameters [24]. However, this idea is not in agreement with the rather successful results obtained in studies based on short profiles, i.e., 1–2 m, [32], [57] or in some studies where best results were obtained when roughness parameters were computed after detrending the underlying topographic trend, i.e., removing large-scale roughness [18]. Fung [38] also proposed that meter-size roughness scales did not influence the backscattering process at centimeter-scale wavelengths. The results obtained here illustrate that incorporating roughness scales larger than 1–2 m to the measurements did not significantly improve the correlation with σ_{norm}^0 or in the goodness-of-fit of the Oh model simulations. These results support the idea that the low-frequency roughness components do not play an important role in backscattering and also distort different parameter values (especially l).

Based on these results, it can be suggested that roughness scales between 5 and 50 cm are the most relevant for C-band backscatter. When the high-frequency roughness components (scales below 5 cm) were smoothed, most roughness parameters only slightly decreased their correlation with observed backscatter. Similarly, few differences were observed in the Oh model results when profiles were smoothed up to a filter size of 5–10 cm. Roughness scales larger than 1–2 m might not be relevant in the backscattering of microwaves at C-band. The inclusion of these components in the profile did not provide additional enhancement to the correlation of roughness parameters with backscatter nor in the goodness-of-fit of the Oh model. In addition, large-scale roughness components had a distorting effect in some roughness parameters especially l . With regard to this, it is remarkable that some roughness parameters [i.e., D , F , and $\rho'(0)$] were more stable and showed a better correlation with backscatter. This could open new possibilities in backscatter modeling. It is important to note that this analysis was based solely on C-band SAR data, and any extrapolation of these results to other frequencies would require new data and analyses.

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