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# Evaluating global spectral unmixing techniques using imaging spectroscopy data for retrieval of green, non-photosynthetic vegetation, and soil fractional cover

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## Abstract

Global estimates of fractional cover of green vegetation (GV), non-photosynthetic vegetation (NPV), and soil provide valuable information about the Earth system. As the new generation of Earth visible-to-shortwave infrared (VSWIR) imaging spectrometers take orbit, global fractional cover data will be obtainable with new and improved spectral unmixing algorithms. Using an ASD Field Spectrometer and the spectral line point intercept (SLPIT) method, we estimate fractional cover from field measurements to compare to contemporaneous airborne (Airborne Visible/Infrared Imaging Spectrometer; AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>) and spaceborne (Earth surface Mineral dust source InvesTigation; EMIT) imaging spectroscopy data. Field data were collected in multiple biomes in the US Southwest at 84 validation sites. We used EndMember Combination Monte Carlo (E(MC)<sup>2</sup>) and Multiple-Endmember Spectral Mixture Analysis (MESMA) to derive fractional cover, two candidate spectral unmixing algorithms used by current (e.g., EMIT) and future imaging spectroscopy missions. Field data exhibited strong agreement between ground and spaceborne/airborne measurements. Our best spectral unmixing approach, E(MC)<sup>2</sup>, produced mean absolute error of  $\leq 0.06$  for NPV, GV, and soil with uncertainties  $\leq 0.08$  for all classes. We further investigated the performance of global vs. local endmember libraries and found that the global library outperformed the local endmember library. We investigated normalization techniques and their effectiveness with our ground and image fractions. Additionally, we calculated uncertainties from both ground and image fractions. Field results aligned well and within uncertainty predictions from previously reported simulation work. These findings support the use of E(MC)<sup>2</sup> to be used in current and future imaging spectroscopy missions.

## 1. Introduction

In the past three decades, imaging spectroscopy has been applied throughout the solar system, including the mapping of ancient lake beds on Mars (Amundson et al., 2008), mineral composition of the Moon's surface (Yan et al., 2010), and on Earth, mapping surface mineral features (Clark et al., 2022, 2003), methane sources (Thorpe et al., 2023), and vegetation (Angel et al., 2025; Ochoa et al., 2025b) with greater precision and accuracy than ever before.

43 On Earth, the quantification of global fractional cover of vegetation and soil at regular  
44 intervals via the visible-shortwave infrared (VSWIR, 350-2500 nm) portion of the  
45 electromagnetic spectrum would provide crucial information about terrestrial biomes.

46 Many studies have demonstrated the capability to derive fractional cover information  
47 using a variety of field measurements and remote observation. Spectral mixture analysis  
48 (SMA), also called spectral unmixing, is one of the fundamental methods for such fractional  
49 cover retrievals (Adams et al., 1986; Shimabukuro and Smith, 1991). In its simplest form,  
50 SMA uses a single spectrum of each ground component to unmix a remotely sensed spectrum  
51 of the surface. Multiple Endmember Spectral Mixture Analysis (MESMA) (Roberts et al.,  
52 1998) expanded SMA by allowing pixels to be unmixed by different endmember spectra,  
53 though each pixel could still be only unmixed by a single endmember spectrum for each  
54 ground cover component. Ochoa et al. (2025b) developed a global spectral unmixing  
55 algorithm to derive fractional cover, EndMember Combination Monte Carlo, E(MC)<sup>2</sup>, which  
56 allows each pixel to be unmixed by multiple endmembers of each ground cover component  
57 in a Monte Carlo framework that also provides estimates of uncertainty. Linear spectral  
58 unmixing approaches are not the only way to estimate surface fractions. For example, several  
59 studies have used machine learning algorithms to derive fractional cover of vegetation and  
60 urban environments (Dennison et al., 2023; Schug et al., 2020, 2018; Senf et al., 2020; Wang  
61 et al., 2022).

62 Validation of fractional cover derived from spaceborne and airborne sensors presents  
63 unique challenges. Challenges that accompany any type of field validation work include  
64 geographic inaccuracies, site access, and the Modulation Transfer Function (Townshend et  
65 al., 2000). Several attempts have been made to validate remotely sensed fractional cover  
66 estimates *in situ*. Multiple studies have relied on transects (or quadrats) in which the user  
67 classifies a point as belonging to a class (Guerschman et al., 2015; Guerschman and Hill, 2018;  
68 Rigge et al., 2019; Scarth et al., 2015; Sutton et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2019). Other studies  
69 have used photo and image based approaches in which users or algorithms classify an *in situ*  
70 RGB or high resolution orthorectified image (Dennison and Roberts, 2003; Guerschman et  
71 al., 2009; Liu et al., 2019; Mu et al., 2015; Okin et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 1993; Tsendbazar  
72 et al., 2018). Promisingly, recent studies have coupled ground based imaging spectroscopy  
73 with spectral unmixing to quantify *in situ* fractional cover, finding improved agreement with  
74 remote sensing estimates from various sensors (Chadwick et al., 2025; Fisk et al., 2019b,  
75 2019a; Meyer and Okin, 2015; Wang et al., 2019). The focus of this study is on the validation  
76 of linearly unmixed fractional cover estimates of green vegetation (GV), non-photosynthetic  
77 vegetation (NPV), and soil fractions from both spaceborne and airborne instruments using  
78 field measurements. The approach developed by Meyer and Okin (2015), the spectral line  
79 point intercept transect (SLPIT), was selected as the field measurement method of choice for  
80 our study as it enables a standardized and replicable method for validating fractional cover  
81 and has been successfully deployed in various global drylands (Fisk et al., 2019b, 2019a).

82 For this study, we use data from the Earth surface Mineral dust source InvestIgation  
83 (EMIT; Green et al., 2020; Thompson et al., 2024) imaging spectrometer (in orbit 2022 –  
84 present) and the Airborne Visible-InfraRed Imaging Spectrometer - Next Generation  
85 (AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>; Chapman et al., 2019). NASA's Surface Biology and Geology (SBG; Stavros et al.,  
86 2023; Thompson et al., 2020) mission is likely to incorporate a visible-shortwave infrared  
87 (VSWIR, 350-2500 nm) imaging spectrometer very similar to EMIT. Therefore, EMIT and

88 AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> are an excellent validation case for fractional cover products for the next  
89 generation of global, sun-synchronous imaging spectrometers.

## 90 2. Methods

91 In this study, we collected *in situ* validation data of GV, NPV, and soil fractional cover at  
92 84 field sites distributed throughout the Southwestern United States where airborne  
93 (AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>) and spaceborne (EMIT) imaging spectroscopy data were available. We describe  
94 a general approach of our field protocol in (Figure 1). We describe the collection and analysis  
95 of field data, as well as the approaches used to extract GV, NPV, and soil fractional cover from  
96 spaceborne and airborne imaging spectroscopy data. Error and uncertainty were then  
97 calculated between field and instrument derived estimates.

### 98 2.1 Field sites

99 A total of 84 field sites were visited in the southwest region of the United States (Figure  
100 2). Each one of these sites were situated along EMIT orbital tracks (Green et al., 2020) or the  
101 Surface Biology Geology High Frequency Time Series (SHIFT) domain box (Figure 2;  
102 (Chadwick et al., 2025)), where AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> data were acquired. 60 sites were in areas that  
103 were imaged by EMIT at ~60 m spatial resolution between February 2023 and November  
104 2023. 24 sites were in areas imaged by AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> at ~5 m spatial resolution between  
105 February 2022 and September 2022 as part of the SHIFT campaign (Chadwick et al., 2025).  
106 Due to the dynamic orbit pattern of the International Space Station, which hosts EMIT, field  
107 deployments were contingent upon the verification of a cloud-free scene, confirmed site  
108 accessibility, and favorable atmospheric and illumination conditions for field spectra  
109 collection. In most cases, field activities were conducted 0 to 10 days of data acquisition by  
110 either EMIT or AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>. Information on the sites' climate and vegetation can be found in  
111 Supplemental Table A.

### 112 2.2 Spectral line point intercept transects (SLPIT)

113 We used an approach for estimation of *in situ* fractional cover called spectral line point  
114 intercept transect (SLPIT) sampling, developed by Meyer and Okin (2015). SLPIT provides a  
115 way to estimate surface fractions of GV, NPV, and soil. SLPIT extends the line point intercept  
116 transect (LPIT) or point-based quadrat method. In LPIT, regularly spaced points along the  
117 transect (or in the quadrat) would be classified as belonging to GV, NPV, or soil. By definition,  
118 however, this approach struggles with mixtures at scales equivalent to the transect sampling  
119 interval, which are common in nature (Muir et al., 2011; Trevithick et al., 2012). These  
120 mixtures can result from spatial heterogeneity or physiological traits, such as plants with  
121 both GV and NPV tissues, green leaves with dead portions, or intermediate spectra from  
122 adaptations like sclerophyllous leaves or leaf hairs (Gitelson and Merzlyak, 1994; Okin,  
123 2007). Thus, it can be slow for personnel and indistinguishable without additional  
124 equipment in the field to tell whether (and at what scale) a point along a traditional LPITs  
125 (or in quadrats) is best classed as GV or NPV (Fisk et al., 2019b, 2019a). Ambiguities can lead  
126 to subjective quantification of fractional cover and subsequent data inconsistency and inter-  
127 comparability issues. The classification problem is not limited just to discriminating between  
128 GV and NPV. Soil and NPV are often intimately mixed in real environments: leaves may be

129 covered with soil particles and soil is often a mixture of mineral components with plant litter  
130 (NPV).

131 SLPIT was developed to mitigate these conceptual as well as practical problems with  
132 traditional LPIT data collection when using the GV, NPV, and soil cover classes. In short, a  
133 SLPIT involves unmixing spectra (from a hand-held field spectrometer) taken along transect  
134 at regular intervals. Endmember spectra for this unmixing can be from anywhere (e.g., a  
135 global library) or can be made up of leaf-clip and contact-probe spectra from plants and soils  
136 in the immediate vicinity of the transect measurements (e.g., a local library). Additionally,  
137 because each spectrum along the transect is unmixed to estimate its fractional composition  
138 of the three endmembers, rather than assigning each point to a single class, an effort had  
139 been made to account for the multi-scale mixed nature of the cover types. Meyer and Okin  
140 (2015) and Fisk et al. (2019b, 2019a) showed that in structurally complex landscapes there  
141 was very little relationship between LPIT-derived fractions and satellite-derived fractions,  
142 but that satellite-derived fractions agreed well with SLPIT-derived fractions, likely due to  
143 considerations mentioned above. Therefore, we decided to use a version of their approach  
144 for this study, modified for the spatial resolution of EMIT and AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> imagery.

145 The SLPIT method used here consisted of establishing three transects radiating from a  
146 central location (i.e., in a spoke arrangement) at each validation site. The spoke centers were  
147 at least 120 m from roads to minimize the potential for spectral contamination by unnatural  
148 surfaces. Each transect was 60 m long, and the orientation of the first transect was a  
149 perpendicular bearing to the sun's azimuth at the time of set up ( $\approx \pm 2$  hours from solar noon).  
150 The remaining two transects were then separated by  $120^\circ$ . Each transect was sampled every  
151 2.5 m with the bare fiber (FOV  $\sim 20^\circ$ ) using an ASD FieldSpec 4 Hi-Res NG Spectroradiometer  
152 (Malvern Panalytical, Malvern, hereafter referred to as "ASD") at approximately waist height  
153 ( $\approx 1$  m), taking care to ensure that the measuring tape was not in the FOV. This approach  
154 results in a ground instantaneous field of view (GIFOV) of approximately 35 cm ensuring no  
155 overlap between points. Each transect had 25 individual spectra and thus the resulting cover  
156 for each validation point (each with 3 transects) was derived from a total of 75 spectra.

157 Because AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> spatial sampling was much smaller than that of EMIT (5 m vs 60 m  
158 spatial resolution) and because we performed SLPIT immediately after the plant foliar trait  
159 sampling by Chadwick et al. (2025), we modified the spoked sampling strategy for these 24  
160 AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> sites. For AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>, we used two 8-m north-south transects with their origins  
161 placed 2 m and 6 m along the east-west edge of an 8 m x 8 m sample plots. Each transect was  
162 sampled from waist height ( $\approx 1$  m) every 0.33 m with the ASD fitted with an  $8^\circ$  FOV foreoptic,  
163 resulting in a GIFOV of approximately 14 cm ensuring no overlap between points. Each  
164 transect had 25 individual spectra and thus the resulting cover for each validation point  
165 (each with 2 transects) was derived from a total of 50 spectra.

166 A Spectralon™ (Labsphere, Sutton) panel was set up near the spoke center (e.g., for  
167 sites sampled with EMIT) or the edge of the 8 m x 8 m plot (e.g., for sites sampled with  
168 AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>) to collect white reference targets. White reference measurements were collected  
169 at the beginning and end of each transect to allow us to account for changes in illumination  
170 while sampling. Measurements always occurred within 2 hours of solar noon. Reflectance  
171 for SLPIT (for both EMIT and AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> sites) spectra ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) was obtained by dividing the  
172 radiance from the target measurements by radiance from the white reference targets. We  
173 also performed a temporal linear correction (independent for each wavelength) on  $\mathbf{r}$  using,

$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{\mathbf{s}}{\mathbf{w}_b + \mathbf{m}(t - t_b)} \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{\mathbf{w}_e - \mathbf{w}_b}{t_e - t_b}$$

174 where  $\mathbf{s}$  represents the uncorrected spectra from SLPIT taken at time  $t$ ,  $\mathbf{m}$  is the slope  
 175 calculated between changes of the white reference measurements collected at the beginning  
 176 ( $\mathbf{w}_b$ ) and end ( $\mathbf{w}_e$ ) of each transect taken each at time  $t_e$  and  $t_b$ . The average time between  
 177 measurements of  $\mathbf{w}_b$  and  $\mathbf{w}_e$  across all sites and transect lines was about 7 minutes.  
 178 Furthermore, we corrected for light being absorbed by the Spectralon™ panel by multiplying  
 179  $\mathbf{r}$  by a reference spectrum provided by the United States Geological Survey (Kokaly et al.,  
 180 2017). To enable an accurate comparison between field and airborne/orbital measurements,  
 181 SLPIT spectra were convolved to either EMIT or AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> wavelengths. The spectra collected  
 182 in this way were then unmixed using the approaches described below. Average fractional  
 183 cover for a validation point was calculated as the average fractions from all the spectra taken  
 184 at that point (75 for the EMIT spoked samples and 50 for the AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> parallel transect  
 185 samples). An example of spectra acquired from SLPIT can be found in (Figure 3).

### 186 2.3 Field endmember library collection

187 *In situ* spectral endmembers ( $\mathbf{r}_e$ ) of GV, NPV, and soil were collected along/as close as  
 188 possible to the SLPIT transects (Meyer and Okin, 2015) with an ASD contact probe (for NPV  
 189 and soil) or leaf clip attachment (for GV). For EMIT sites, soil endmembers were collected  
 190 using a contact probe every 2.5 m along the three 60 m spokes (75 total per site), and GV and  
 191 NPV were collected with a leaf clip attachment (30 each per site). For AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> sites, the  
 192 number of endmembers collected ranged between 5-10 total for each endmember class due  
 193 to the short length of the two 8 m transects and small area of the plot. Thus, for all AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>  
 194 sites, endmembers from the nearest sampled plots (either EMIT or AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>) were  
 195 incorporated to ensure that each *in situ* endmember library set contained 30 GV, 30 NPV, and  
 196 75 soil spectra. Similarly, for EMIT sites lacking the required endmembers, endmembers  
 197 from the nearest EMIT plots were used to meet the same criteria.

198 All *in situ* endmembers were visually inspected for known absorption features to avoid  
 199 contamination issues: GV spectra must show chlorophyll and water absorptions; NPV  
 200 spectra do not have strong chlorophyll absorptions and water absorption do not mask  
 201 cellulose and lignin absorption features in the SWIR; soil spectra do not show strong liquid  
 202 water or cellulose/lignin absorptions or also show some indication of absorption by iron  
 203 oxide and/or clay minerals or else show no spectral absorption features other than a general  
 204 increase in reflectance at longer wavelengths (Curran, 1989; Kokaly et al., 2017; Kokaly and  
 205 Skidmore, 2015). Spectra that did not conform to these criteria were omitted from further  
 206 use. These data served as local unmixing library set for their respective sites, resulting in 84  
 207 unique local endmember library sets (hereafter denoted with the subscript *local*).

### 208 2.4 Imagery data and global library

209 Each validation point was within a recent EMIT or AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> image. If multiple images  
 210 were available, we chose the closest in time (Supplemental Table A). We used the Level 2A

211 Surface Reflectance product derived from EMIT and AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> (Brodrick et al., 2025a; Green,  
 212 2022) and extracted a 3 x 3 pixel window centered on the pixel that contained the center of  
 213 the sampling plot (denoted below as  $\mathbf{r}_s$ ) following the methodology from Meyer and Okin  
 214 (2015). Surface reflectance and atmospheric corrections were derived using an Optimal  
 215 Estimation technique implemented through IsoFit (Brodrick et al., 2022; Thompson et al.,  
 216 2018) for both instruments.

217 Ochoa et al. (2025b) used convex hulls constructed across multiple principal  
 218 component space to build a globally representative spectral endmember library set for soils  
 219 and randomly selected NPV and GV spectra. We employed this library built with a 4  
 220 dimensional convex hull set to also test its performance in the field (Ochoa et al., 2025a,  
 221 2024). This endmember library set is hereafter denoted with subscript  $_{global}$ . An example of  
 222 imaging spectroscopy data used in this study can be found in (Figure 3).

## 223 2.5 Spectral unmixing

224 Two approaches were used for spectral unmixing of  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_s$ : MESMA (Roberts et al.,  
 225 1998) and E(MC)<sup>2</sup> (Ochoa et al., 2025b). Both were used to determine the fractional cover of  
 226 GV, NPV, and soil. For both approaches, bands where water vapor frequently obscures the  
 227 reflectance retrievals were omitted for unmixing in the deep-water absorption regions  
 228 (1320 – 1480 nm and 1780 – 2040 nm) as well as the longest wavelengths (> 2450 nm). This  
 229 resulted in 207 out of 285 total wavelengths ( $m$ ) for EMIT and 308 out of 425 for AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>  
 230 being used for unmixing. Ochoa et al. (2025b) found that adjustments for brightness using  
 231 brightness normalization minimized errors across GV, NPV, and soil. We implemented this  
 232 normalization technique by dividing each spectrum ( $\mathbf{r}$ ,  $\mathbf{r}_s$ ,  $\mathbf{r}_e$  and  $\mathbf{r}_g$ ) by the L2 norm. To  
 233 evaluate the impact of this normalization, unmixing (on both E(MC)<sup>2</sup> and MESMA) was done  
 234 without normalization as well. We also implemented the recommended 25 Monte Carlo  
 235 simulations associated with E(MC)<sup>2</sup> and MESMA for better performance and uncertainty  
 236 calculations (Ochoa et al., 2025b). Both of these approaches use an unmixing matrix,  $\mathbf{X}$ .

237 E(MC)<sup>2</sup> unmixed  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_s$  using an unmixing matrix ( $\mathbf{X}_{local}$  or  $\mathbf{X}_{global}$ ), constructed from  
 238 the endmember library set (section 2.3-2.4). The unmixing matrix was required to have at  
 239 least one type of each endmember (GV, NPV, and soil), but each type could be represented  
 240 more than once. We generated this unmixing library with 20 endmembers. In this 20-  
 241 endmember case, 6 endmembers from each of the three classes were randomly chosen, and  
 242 2 endmember spectra were chosen randomly from the respective unmixing library sets,  
 243 taking care to not include any endmember more than once.

244 MESMA differs from E(MC)<sup>2</sup> in that more combinations of fewer endmembers are  
 245 used in the unmixing process. In MESMA, each target spectrum,  $\mathbf{r}$  (or  $\mathbf{r}_s$ ), is unmixed by each  
 246 model,

$$247 \mathbf{X} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{f}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0^{(npv)} & x_0^{(gv)} & x_0^{(soil)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_m^{(npv)} & x_m^{(gv)} & x_m^{(soil)} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \hat{f}_{npv} \\ \hat{f}_{gv} \\ \hat{f}_{soil} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_0 \\ \vdots \\ r_m \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{r}, \quad (2)$$

248 where only one spectrum each of GV, NPV, and soil allowed in the unmixing matrix  $\mathbf{X}_{local}$  (or  
 249  $\mathbf{X}_{global}$ ). The best-fit model is chosen as the one which minimizes the spectral root mean  
 250 squared error (RMSE) (Roberts et al., 1998). Here, we set the number of models available ( $j$ )  
 or MESMA to 100 based on the recommendations by Ochoa et al. (2025b).

## 251 2.6 Error metrics

252 Mean Absolute Error (MAE) and RMSE were calculated from the ground fractions ( $\mathbf{f}$ ;  
253 derived from  $\mathbf{r}$ ) and spaceborne/airborne fractions ( $\hat{\mathbf{f}}$ ; derived from  $\mathbf{r}_s$ ). Mean uncertainty  
254 ( $M\bar{U}_T$ ; Equation 3) were calculated from the ground fractions ( $\bar{\mathbf{u}}_f$ ; derived from  $\mathbf{r}$ ) and  
255 spaceborne/airborne fractions ( $\bar{\mathbf{u}}_{\hat{f}}$ ; derived from  $\mathbf{r}_s$ ), from MESMA and E(MC)<sup>2</sup> using,  
256

$$M\bar{U}_T = \frac{1}{2N} \|\bar{\mathbf{u}}_{\hat{f},k} + \bar{\mathbf{u}}_{f,k}\|_1 \quad (3)$$

$$RMS\bar{U}_T = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{N}} \|\bar{\mathbf{u}}_{\hat{f},k} + \bar{\mathbf{u}}_{f,k}\|_2 \quad (4)$$

257 where N is the total number of sites and  $k$  refers to ground cover class (GV, NPV, soil).

## 258 3. Results

259 Overall, errors calculated between  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{f}}$  were low for each endmember cover class,  
260 with MAE  $\leq 0.09$  across all unmixing cases (Figure 4). Errors in GV fraction were lower than  
261 those for soil and NPV regardless of the unmixing case. For NPV and soil, sites that were  
262 unmixed with the global unmixing library set produced lower errors than their local  
263 unmixing library set counterpart, regardless of whether fractions were derived by E(MC)<sup>2</sup> or  
264 MESMA. All endmembers showed strong correlations between  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{f}}$  and values of  $M\bar{U}_T$   
265 were low (Table 1), though  $M\bar{U}_T$  was higher in the global unmixing cases than the local. No  
266 systematic differences between EMIT and AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> sites were observed (Table 1). The time  
267 between SLPIT data acquisition and coinciding airborne/spaceborne image acquisitions  
268 varied from -90 (e.g., days before overpass) to +65 (e.g., days after overpass) days with a  
269 mean of 6.5 days (e.g., days after overpass). There was no relationship between error and  
270 the number of days between SLPIT field sampling and image data acquisition (Supplemental  
271 Figure A). The performance of E(MC)<sup>2</sup> using the average of the 25 Monte Carlo runs showed  
272 better performance than the optimal solution (e.g., run with lowest spectral error)  
273 (Supplemental Figure B).

274 Brightness normalization had a minimal effect on estimated fraction retrievals of all  
275 classes. Differences in MAE between the two cases (brightness normalization and no  
276 normalization) were  $\approx \leq 0.01$  for all unmixing cases and linearity ( $R^2$ ) remained constant  
277 (not shown). Similarly, normalization did not impact  $\bar{U}$ . Because brightness normalization  
278 resulted in nearly identical error compared to no normalization for both E(MC)<sup>2</sup> and MESMA,  
279 further results display the result of unmixing using brightness normalization.

280 We investigated whether the agreement between SLPIT- and image-based fractions was  
281 because they were unmixed using the same approach (Figure 4) by comparing E(MC)<sup>2</sup>-  
282 derived image fractions with MESMA-derived SLPIT fractions (Figure 6). Although MAE and  
283 RMSE in this comparison is slightly higher (0.01 – 0.03), there is still excellent agreement  
284 between the two, however,  $\bar{U}$  was higher in E(MC)<sup>2</sup> than MESMA. We obtain the same result  
285 when comparing MESMA-derived image fractions with E(MC)<sup>2</sup>-derived SLPIT fractions (not  
286 shown).

287 We further investigated whether agreement for both  $E(MC)^2$  and MESMA was dependent  
 288 on normalization of either field or remote data (Figure 7-8).  $E(MC)^2$  MAE and RMSE showed  
 289 excellent agreement between the two (Figure 7), thus indicating that agreement between  
 290 field or remote data was not dependent on normalization. Furthermore,  $E(MC)^2$  MAE (Figure  
 291 7) was almost identical or slightly higher ( $< 0.01$ ) than the comparison when both image and  
 292 SLPIT fractions are normalized (Figure 4). In contrast, MESMA was more dependent on  
 293 normalization (Figure 8), as indicated by the slightly higher MAE and RMSE, particularly in  
 294 the soil and NPV classes. MESMA MAE (from MESMA normalized vs. MESMA not-normalized)  
 295 was also slightly higher ( $< 0.01$ ) than the comparison when both image and SLPIT fractions  
 296 were normalized.

297 We assessed whether the different solar geometries impact correspondence between  
 298 these SLPIT- and image-derived fractions. AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> is flown close to solar noon and  
 299 therefore does not have a wide range of solar zenith angles (SZA) and was not included in  
 300 this analysis but EMIT can acquire images with SZA up to 60°. However, no relationship was  
 301 observed between fractional cover absolute error and EMIT SZA (Figure 5).

302

Table 1: Fractional cover error and uncertainty of different unmixing cases.

Algorithm Case	Sensor*	NPV				GV				SOIL				
		MAE	RMSE	$M\bar{U}_T$	$RMS\bar{U}_T$	MAE	RMSE	$M\bar{U}_T$	$RMS\bar{U}_T$	MAE	RMSE	$M\bar{U}_T$	$RMS\bar{U}_T$	
$E(MC)^2$	<i>local</i>	EMIT	0.08	0.10	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.07	0.01	0.02	0.10	0.13	0.03	0.05
		AVIRIS <sub>ng</sub>	0.09	0.11	0.05	0.08	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.03	0.08	0.10	0.04	0.06
		Combined	0.08	0.10	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.03	0.09	0.12	0.03	0.06
	<i>global</i>	EMIT	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.11	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.10
		AVIRIS <sub>ng</sub>	0.04	0.05	0.09	0.14	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.09	0.13
		Combined	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.04	0.07	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.11
MESMA	<i>local</i>	EMIT	0.08	0.09	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.12	0.02	0.04
		AVIRIS <sub>ng</sub>	0.09	0.11	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.12	0.02	0.04
		Combined	0.08	0.10	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.12	0.02	0.04
	<i>global</i>	EMIT	0.08	0.09	0.06	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.09	0.06	0.08
		AVIRIS <sub>ng</sub>	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.10	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.10
		Combined	0.07	0.09	0.06	0.09	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.09

\*EMIT calculations are based on 60 sites. AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> calculations are based on 24 sites.

## 303 4. Discussion

304 As with many other unmixing studies using GV, NPV, and soil, GV fractions were retrieved  
 305 with lower error than NPV and soil (Figure 4; Dennison et al., 2023, 2019; Guerschman et al.,  
 306 2012; Meyer and Okin, 2015; Ochoa et al., 2025b; Okin et al., 2001). This results mainly from  
 307 the fact that GV has distinctive spectral features (e.g., chlorophyll absorption, red edge, water  
 308 absorptions) whereas NPV and soil tend have similar and potentially confounding spectral  
 309 features (Asner and Heidebrecht, 2002; Meyer and Okin, 2015; Numata et al., 2008; Okin et  
 310 al., 2001). NPV and soil can undergo spectral “coupling” when NPV endmembers lack the

311 distinct spectral features associated with GV, giving them a closer resemblance to soil and  
312 making a mixture of one spectra of each nearly indistinguishable from a different  
313 combination of spectra from each class (Okin et al., 2001).

314 Regardless, the results from this field study are slightly better and comparable to other  
315 studies that use imaging spectroscopy data for fractional cover estimation (Dennison et al.,  
316 2023, 2019; Ochoa et al., 2025b). The SZA collection window that Ochoa et al. (2025b)  
317 predicted was also verified by our studies, as no significant correlations between absolute  
318 error and SZA was found regardless of the unmixing cases for EMIT sites (Figure 5).

#### 319 **4.1 The use of SLPIT validation for fractional cover estimates**

320 SLPIT has several advantages over more traditional methods of estimating fractional  
321 cover (e.g., LPIT, quadrat sampling) as it fundamentally relies on explicit spectral  
322 absorptions. A traditional LPIT approach requires the user to make dozens of judgments, per  
323 transect, on whether a point belongs to the GV, NPV, or soil class, even when detailed  
324 protocols are in place to ensure that just a single point is being read (Fisk et al., 2019b, 2019a;  
325 Guerschman et al., 2015; Guerschman and Hill, 2018; Meyer and Okin, 2015; Muir et al.,  
326 2011; Okin et al., 2013; Trevithick et al., 2012). Even at a single point, judgments are  
327 necessarily subjective. Because GV and NPV are intermixed at a variety of scales, this  
328 subjectivity can bias results and lead to inconsistencies between measurements made by  
329 different people. Furthermore, because litter (NPV) is intermixed with soils, there can also  
330 be the potential for NPV and soil to be confused in the subjective judgments of individuals  
331 making measurements. The problem is only partly a scale problem (GV/NPV and NPV/soil  
332 are intermixed at a variety of scales). Humans can only see in the visible range of the  
333 electromagnetic spectrum, yet some of the spectral features that distinguish between GV,  
334 NPV, and soil are outside the visible range (e.g., water, cellulose/lignin absorptions, metal-  
335 hydroxide mineral absorption features). Thus, a field technician may make a determination  
336 on the basis of color in the visible that is contradicted by spectral information in the infrared.  
337 For example, a fragment of a leaf may lack chlorophyll due to water stress or disease and  
338 thus be classified as NPV, and yet due to the presence of leaf water, may not exhibit the  
339 cellulose and lignin absorption features, that are characteristic of NPV. Is this sample  
340 classified best as GV, NPV, or something in between? Our purpose here isn't to make this  
341 determination, but rather to suggest that by using different spectral ranges, a human and a  
342 VSWIR imaging spectrometer may disagree on what class best suits a particular sample and,  
343 further, that the human's visible-range determination is as likely to be 'wrong' in an objective  
344 sense as the determination using VSWIR range.

345 In truth, the definition of GV, NPV, and soil classes are abstractions and some locations  
346 defy straightforward classification (e.g., Okin, 2007). This is common in remote sensing  
347 retrievals but exacerbated by the fine-scale (sometimes sub centimeter) spatial variability of  
348 GV, NPV, and soil. Thus, SLPIT is well suited for field estimates of GV, NPV, and soil fractional  
349 cover; it helps mitigate the subjectivity from field measurement and creates an objective  
350 basis from which ground "truth" might be determined. Furthermore, in cases where careful  
351 comparison of field-based fractional cover using traditional methods has been tried (e.g.,  
352 Fisk et al. (2019b; Meyer and Okin (2015); Okin et al. (2013)), it was shown that these do not  
353 necessarily have any correspondence to what is seen by remote sensing instruments.

354 Due to the conceptual and practical difficulties of using traditional methods such as LPIT  
355 (or quadrat) for fractional cover ground validation, SLPITs are a reasonable option for

356 validating airborne- and space-based estimates of GV, NPV, and soil cover. Here, we validated  
357 two instruments (AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> and EMIT) with different spectral sampling (5 nm and 7.5 nm,  
358 respectively) and spatial resolutions (5 m and 60 m, respectively). Hereafter, SLPIT  
359 fractional covers will be treated as “ground truth.” An objection to the use of SLPIT may be  
360 the perceived circularity from using unmixing of ground spectra to validate unmixing of  
361 spectra from imaging spectrometers. We acknowledge the appearance of circularity here,  
362 but do not believe that it invalidates the utility of SLPITs for validation of GV, NPV, and soil  
363 fractions from unmixing of remotely sensed data. Fundamentally, we are conducting an  
364 instrument-to-instrument comparison where the SLPIT data are not subject to atmospheric  
365 correction and indirect reflectance inversion, while EMIT and AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> data are (Brodrick et  
366 al., 2022; Thompson et al., 2018). There is certainly room for evaluating SLPITs against more  
367 traditional methods, but it is outside the scope of the present study. To the knowledge of the  
368 authors, there is as of yet no standard method for acquisitions of fractional cover data.

#### 369 **4.2 Comparison to previous spectral unmixing studies (GV, NPV, Soil)**

370 Ochoa et al. (2025b), Dennison et al. (2019), and Dennison et al. (2023) used simulations  
371 to understand the efficacy of spectral unmixing algorithms. Using the equivalent of the  
372 ‘global’ library used here, Ochoa et al. (2025b) produced estimates of fractional cover with  
373 MAE of NPV, GV, and soil cover in a simulation context of 0.10, 0.06, and 0.10, respectively,  
374 for E(MC)<sup>2</sup> and slightly higher for MESMA. Our field results provided estimates with MAE  
375 <0.08, 0.04, and 0.09 for the same classes. Dennison et al. (2019) used a simulation approach  
376 reported an NPV RMSE of 0.16, GV RMSE of 0.15, and soil RMSE of 0.14 with MESMA. Using  
377 different endmembers as well as implementation of a Monte Carlo element, our study  
378 produced a lower RMSE for NPV (0.09-0.10), GV (0.06), and soil (0.08-0.12) for MESMA.

379 Although Ochoa et al. (2025b) investigated the impact of SZA, water vapor, and aerosols,  
380 they simulated spectra without any vegetation structural complexity (e.g., canopy). At the  
381 outset of this study, we expected that vegetation canopy effects in the field would lead to  
382 larger errors compared to those simulated by Ochoa et al. (2025b). However, the results  
383 from the present study indicate that it is possible to obtain errors that are as good (in fact,  
384 slightly lower) when comparing image-derived and *in situ* estimates of fractional cover for  
385 the three ground cover components of interest here (Figure 4). We believe that this observed  
386 result is likely due to: (1) a favorable agreement was observed between SLPIT and  
387 spaceborne/airborne surface reflectance (MAE for reflectance was not calculated in our  
388 study, however, low errors were observed by Coleman et al. (2024) using some of our SLPIT  
389 data) (2) vegetation canopy effects were minimal on both SLPIT and spaceborne/airborne  
390 fractions as the majority of SLPIT measurements were taken ~ 1m above the ground, thus,  
391 the path length of photons going through the canopy was relative small across the majority  
392 of plots (3) the endmembers collected in our study and those used by Ochoa et al. (2025b)  
393 were likely influenced by non-linear scattering effects (e.g., stacked vegetation material  
394 measured by a leaf clip/contact probe could be contributing to increased spectra  
395 magnitudes), therefore our imaging spectroscopy data (SLPIT and imagery) which likely has  
396 non-linear effects were unmixed with a spectral unmixing library that likely had non-linear  
397 effects.

398 The fractional cover estimates from Fisk et al. (2019b) and Meyer and Okin (2015) used  
399 SLPIT, but were constrained to MODIS and Landsat wavelengths. Therefore, these data are  
400 not directly comparable with imaging spectrometer data. However, Asner and Heidebrecht

401 (2002) used a similar field and unmixing approach with AVIRIS<sub>Classic</sub> and found that values  
402 of soil cover were overestimated by 20%. In contrast, we found a better agreement for soil  
403 in all of our spectral unmixing cases, though our estimates of soil were underestimated using  
404 the local unmixing library sets.

405 Daughtry & Hunt (2008) estimated NPV cover using the cellulose absorption index  
406 through spectra collected from an older ASD spectrometer and reported an RMSE of 0.14 by  
407 comparing estimates to field photographs collected data in agricultural regions. Similarly,  
408 Dennison et al. (2023) retrieved NPV cover using a series of indices and reported RMSE  
409 between 0.14-0.16 for only this class. Our field study produced a slightly lower NPV RMSE  
410 for E(MC)<sup>2</sup> (0.07-0.10) and MESMA (0.09-0.10). Ochoa et al. (2025b)'s study, though  
411 simulation based, produced a slightly higher NPV RMSE for E(MC)<sup>2</sup> (0.12) and MESMA  
412 (0.15). Gill & Phinn (2008) and Gill & Phinn (2009) provided an RMSE (0.10 and 0.04,  
413 respectively) for soil, based on 38 and 12 field sites, respectively and with Advanced Thermal  
414 Emission and Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) data. Our field study produced soil RMSE for  
415 E(MC)<sup>2</sup> (0.05-0.12) and MESMA (0.08-0.12). They do not provide information on the GV or  
416 NPV class.

417 These comparisons indicate that the results presented here are in family with previous  
418 work, though generally perform slightly better. We hypothesize this is due to some  
419 combination of EMIT's and AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> data quality, improvement in atmospheric correction,  
420 and the extent of the field work leveraged here.

### 421 **4.3 Global vs. local endmember libraries, normalization, and multiple** 422 **scattering**

423 Meyer and Okin (2015) found that unmixing spectra with a local library improved  
424 retrievals compared to using a more general 'global' library. In contrast, our results indicate  
425 that using a global library actually improved estimates (reduced errors) for fractional cover  
426 retrievals of GV, NPV, and soil. The 'global' library of soils and vegetation endmembers used  
427 in the present study expanded off of those Meyer and Okin (2015), and is now considerably  
428 more diverse, which may contribute to this difference in performance. Future studies will  
429 help determine how generally this pattern holds, as global libraries continue to grow and  
430 diversify.

431 Scale-dependent impacts of structure on apparent brightness in vegetated systems are  
432 well described in the literature (Asner et al., 2000; Dennison et al., 2004; Dennison and  
433 Roberts, 2003; Ochoa et al., 2025b). Spectra of individual leaves tend to be brighter than  
434 those of branches and canopies due to self-shading and shading of the soil by vegetation  
435 canopies tends to darken the IFOV. Normalization, these authors argued, would help account  
436 for this scale-dependent brightness, especially in structurally complex vegetation. We  
437 therefore anticipated that when compared against field data, brightness normalization  
438 would also result in better results (lower error). However, our results show that  
439 normalization had a minimal effect on error rates, at least when using SLPIT to compare  
440 against image retrievals derived with E(MC)<sup>2</sup>. We find this a somewhat surprising result  
441 given that our field sites span a range of vegetation structural complexity (Supplementary  
442 Table A). It is possible that this is a result of the dryland focus of this study, and that the  
443 presence of large trees in savannas or woodlands might alter the conclusion. The effect of  
444 normalization is slightly higher when using MESMA than E(MC)<sup>2</sup>, but still small (Figure 8).  
445 This decrease in agreement (higher error) between E(MC)<sup>2</sup> and MESMA (Figure 7 vs. Figure

446 8) is probably due to the spectral magnitude of soil and NPV used by MESMA models. In this  
447 work, spectral normalization stands in for the retrieval of a 'shade fraction' and is in many  
448 ways analogous to Roberts et al. (1998). This research raises the possibility that it may be  
449 possible to avoid spectral normalization altogether, given high quality remote  
450 measurements and a diverse enough endmember library, though we do not make this claim  
451 in the absolute.

452 Several studies have demonstrated that complex vegetation canopies can introduce  
453 errors due to non-linear mixing (Czekajlo et al., 2021; Ray and Murray, 1996; Roberts et al.,  
454 1993). Ray and Murray (1996) demonstrated with field experiments that linear mixtures  
455 could overestimate vegetation fractions of *Larrea tridentata* (vegetation we observed at  
456 multiple of our sites) by 60%. Similarly, Czekajlo et al. (2021) also found that complex  
457 vegetation canopies in urban areas influence the amount of GV fractions being produced by  
458 linear unmixing of multi-spectral imagery. Nonlinear mixing of the spectral signal (mainly  
459 due to multiple interactions between the light and complex surface) would be expected to  
460 lead to increased unmixing error. We did not observe any impact of this in our results,  
461 perhaps because non-linear interactions would be present in both SLPIT and image data, but  
462 more likely because the field sites here did not include vegetation with large canopies.

#### 463 4.4 Common sources of error

464 Comparing *in situ* and remote sensing data provides notorious scaling challenges. Our  
465 study had two different spatial scales: 60 m EMIT pixels and 5 m AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub>. Therefore, the  
466 scale and total number of measurements per spectral transect differed fundamentally  
467 between these two instruments. Geographic inaccuracies of ground and  
468 spaceborne/airborne measurements also account for other challenges, however, in this  
469 study the geolocation error was not calculated. While Townshend et al. (2000) demonstrated  
470 that the signal that composes a pixel includes a proportion of signal originating from  
471 surrounding pixels due to many factors such as optics, detector, electronics, and/or  
472 atmospheric effects (e.g., Modulation Transfer Function), our study did not quantify this  
473 effect. Our endmember spectrum classification method is based on using key visual  
474 diagnostic features to label NPV, GV, and soil. At the limit, small impurities may not be caught  
475 through visual inspection or through diagnostic features. In those cases, some small  
476 percentage of error might be present in the endmember themselves. Furthermore, we  
477 recognize that these three ground cover classifications (NPV, GV, and soil) are a good  
478 abstraction for arid lands, but this abstraction ignores the complexities of urban, ice, water,  
479 and burned cover areas.

## 480 5. Conclusion

481 Our study found that E(MC)<sup>2</sup> and MESMA, as implemented here, produce fractional cover  
482 estimates with errors below 0.09 MAE and 0.12 RMSE across multiple biomes of the US  
483 southwest for GV, NPV, and soil, with E(MC)<sup>2</sup> having slightly better performance than  
484 MESMA. Both algorithms showed excellent agreement regardless of the imagery's spatial  
485 scale or wavelength differences. Some amount of spectral confusion between NPV and soil  
486 remained and could be exacerbated in areas with more exposed surface rocks or different  
487 mineralogy. Brightness normalization and solar zenith angle were shown to have minimal  
488 impact on the fractional cover retrievals. Uncertainties ( $M\bar{U}_T$ ) originating from the Monte

489 Carlo runs also were below 0.09. The use of a global library forged by Ochoa et al. (2025b)  
490 performed slightly better than the use of *in situ* local endmembers. Even with these  
491 limitations, the errors, biases, uncertainties, and linearities were still found to be acceptable  
492 and aligned with the errors predicted in simulation (Ochoa et al., 2025b).

493 Our results also helped validate the spectral unmixing recommendations that Ochoa et  
494 al. (2025b) produced and helped forged our field protocols for SLPIT. Promisingly, it appears  
495 possible to obtain global fractional cover with EMIT using E(MC)<sup>2</sup>. As future imaging  
496 spectroscopy missions take orbit (e.g., Surface Biology Geology (SBG); (Green et al., 2022),  
497 Copernicus Hyperspectral Imaging Mission for the Environment (CHIME); (Nieke et al., 2023)),  
498 there is growing potential to achieve global quantification of fractional cover at a regular  
499 interval, providing better insight of multiple biomes across the Earth's surface. This validation  
500 set serves to better our understanding of Earth's ecosystems in complex vegetated sites. We  
501 remained committed to open-source science and have made all study data and code available  
502 (Brodrick et al., 2025b; Ochoa et al., 2026, 2025a).

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## 517 7. CRediT

518 **Francisco Ochoa:** Writing - Original Draft, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Visualization,  
519 Validation, Data curation, Software. **Philip G. Brodrick:** Conceptualization, Writing - Review  
520 & Editing, Methodology, Resources, Software. **Jorge A. Ochoa Gonzalez:** Investigation,  
521 Writing - Review & Editing. **Sandra LeGrand:** Investigation, Resources. **Madeline N.**  
522 **Gillespie:** Investigation. **Red Willow Coleman:** Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing.  
523 **Yoseline Angel:** Investigation. **Dana K. Chadwick:** Investigation, Resources. **Regina F.**  
524 **Eckert:** Investigation. **Kathleen Grant:** Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. **Thoralf**  
525 **Meyer:** Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. **David R. Thompson:** Investigation,  
526 Resources, Software. **Robert O. Green:** Supervision, Funding Acquisition, Resources.  
527 **Gregory S. Okin:** Conceptualization, Funding Acquisition, Writing - Review & Editing,  
528 Resources, Supervision.

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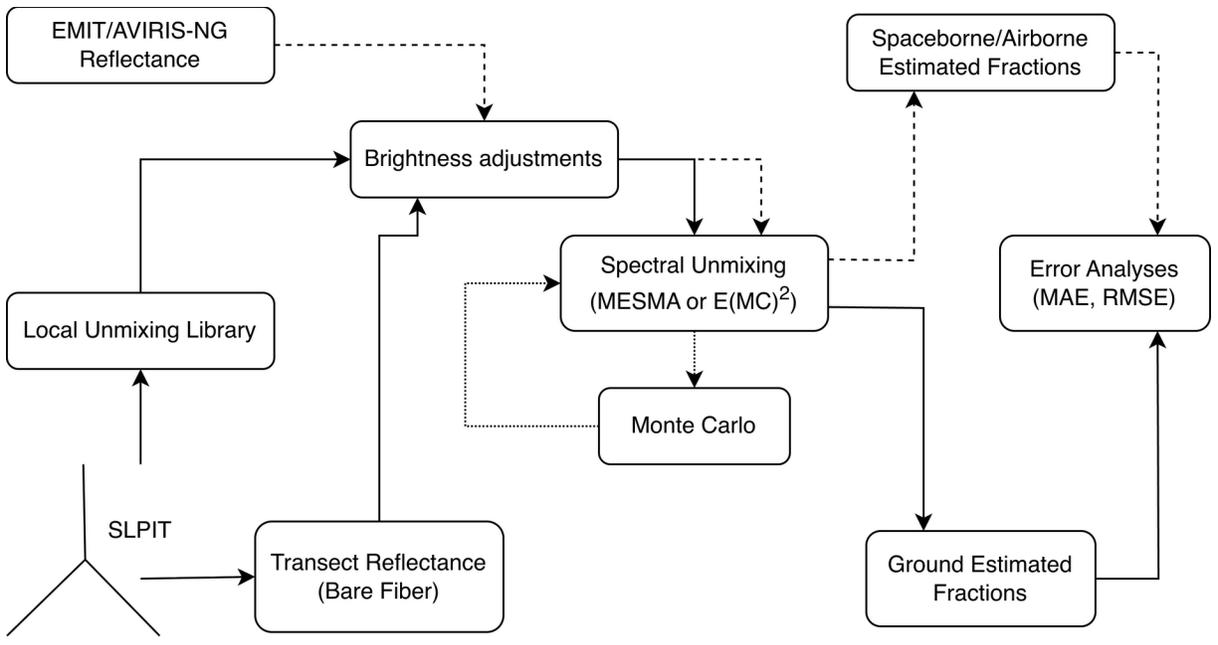


Figure 1: Workflow for calculating error of spectral unmixing from SLPIT field points and EMIT or AVIRIS-NG reflectance data.

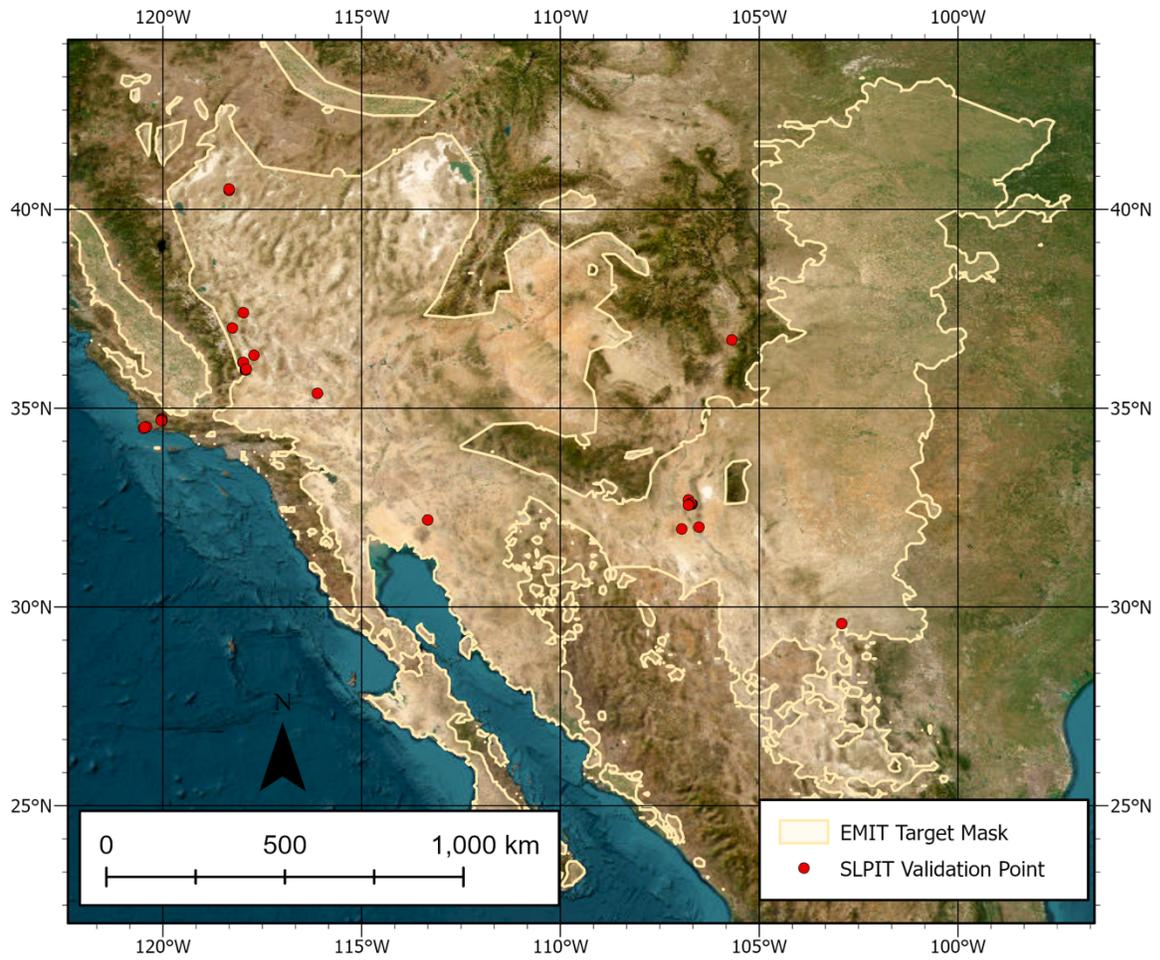


Figure 2: Location of SLPIT points used in this study. EMIT target acquisition mask from the prime mission (2022-2023) is shown by the yellow shaded polygon.

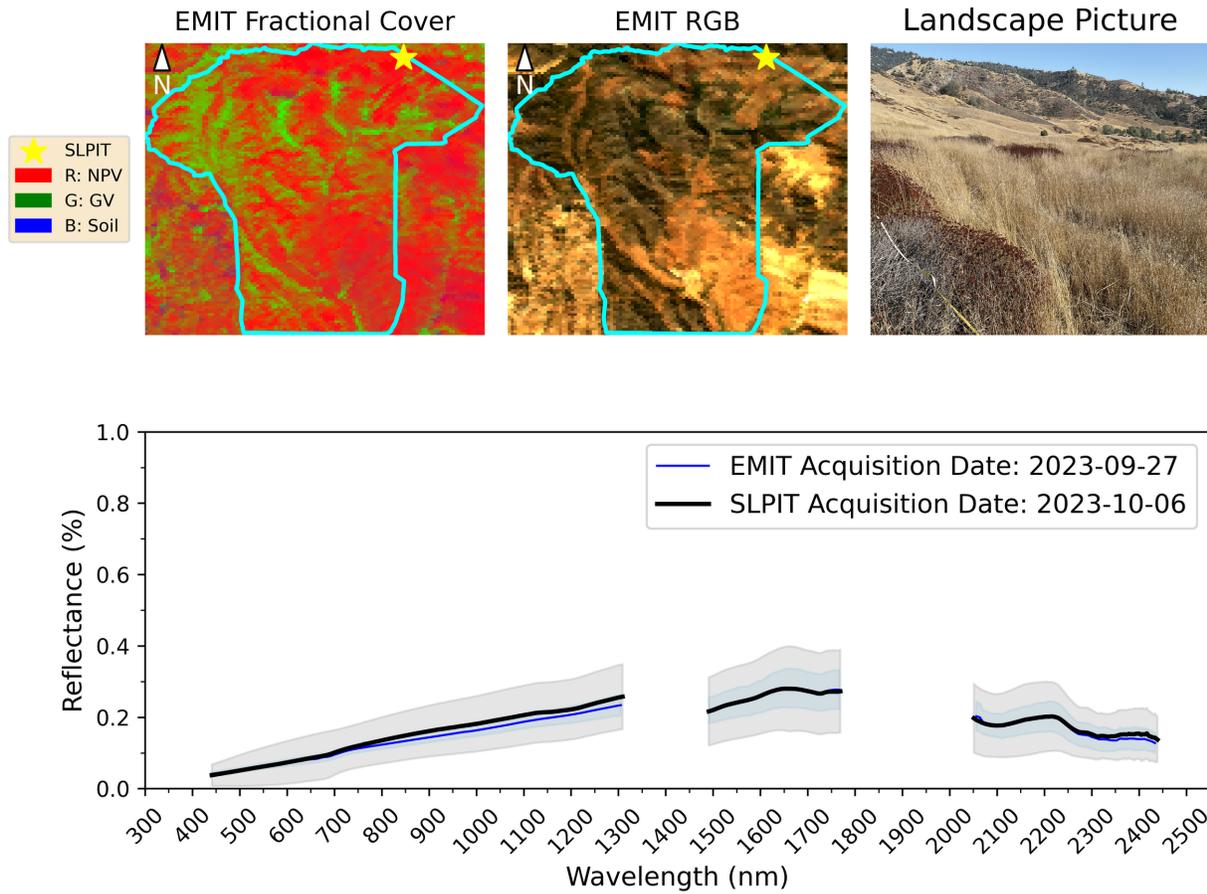


Figure 3: Top: EMIT fractional cover and true color RGB over Sedgwick Reserve, CA (acquired on 2023-09-27) with a corresponding selected SLPIT site ground view (acquired on 2023-10-06). Star symbol denotes selected SLPIT location. Bottom: Comparison of average reflectance measurements from SLPIT and EMIT.

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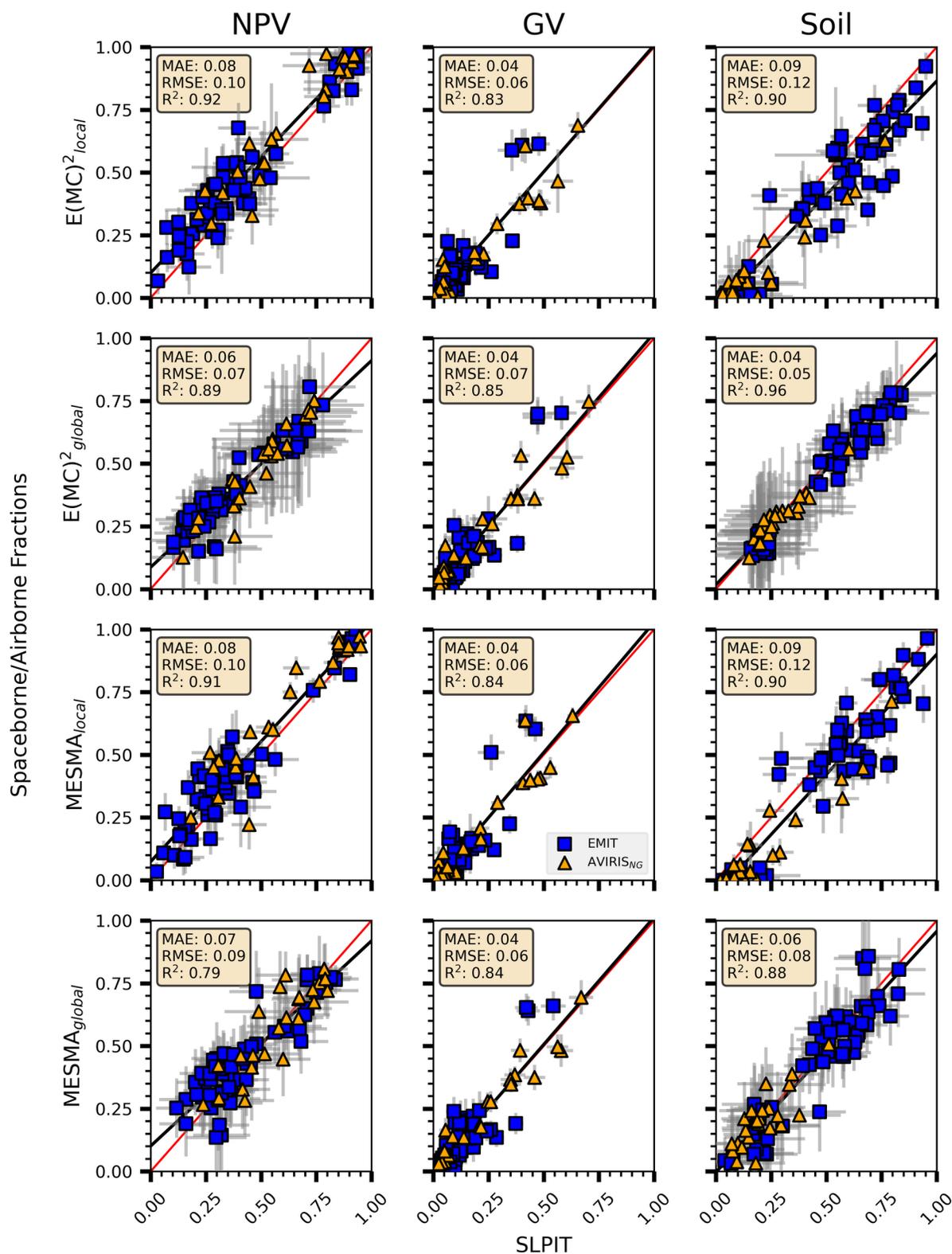


Figure 4: Comparison ( $n=84$ ) of NPV, GV, and soil fractions estimated from SLPIT and EMIT/AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> using MESMA and  $E(MC)^2$ . Results for 25 Monte Carlo runs, brightness normalization, 20  $E(MC)^2$  Endmembers, and 100 MESMA models are shown.

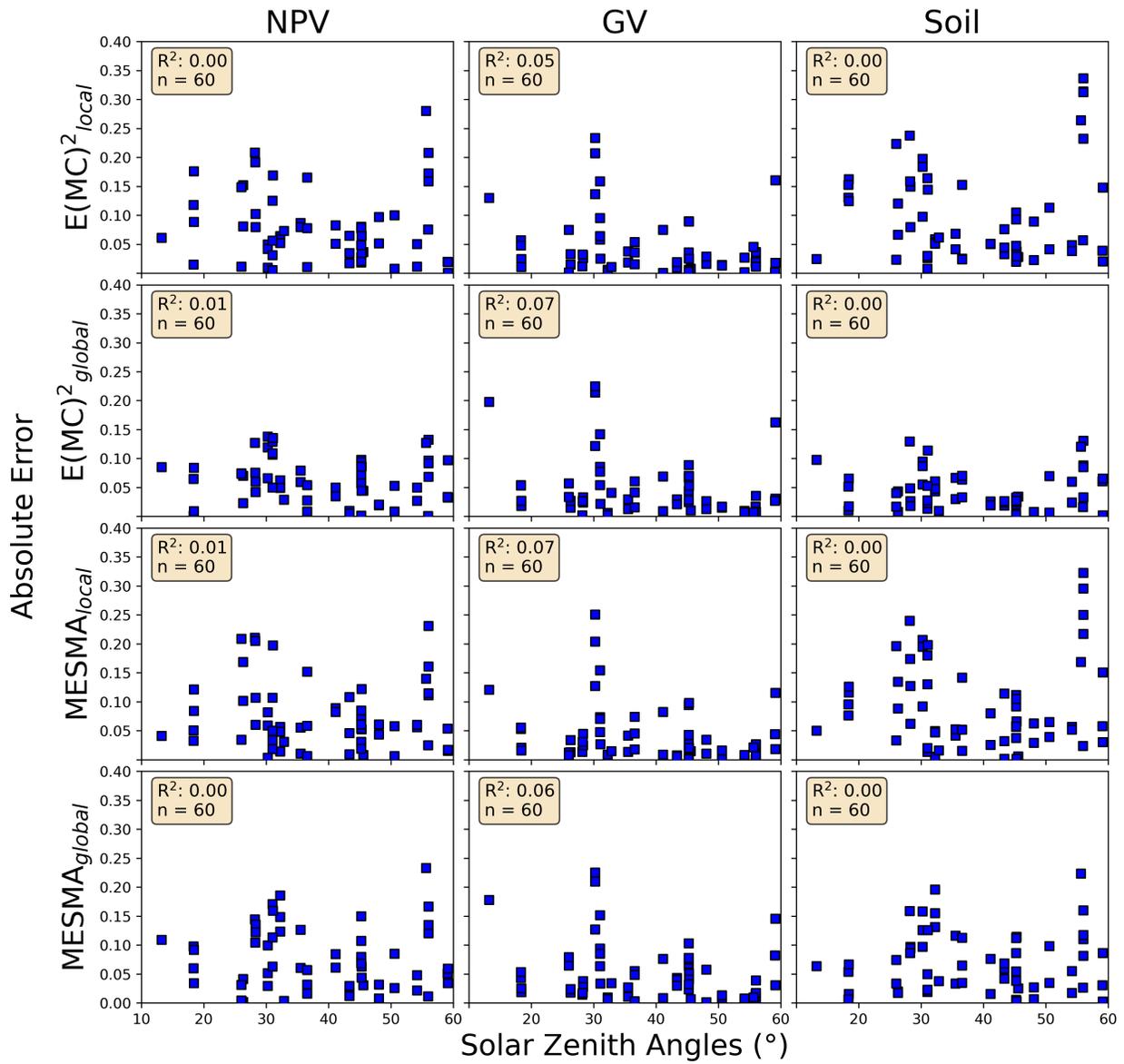


Figure 5: Comparison of NPV, GV, and soil absolute error and solar zenith angles. Results for 25 Monte Carlo runs, brightness normalization, 20  $E(MC)^2$  Endmembers, and 100 MESMA models are shown.

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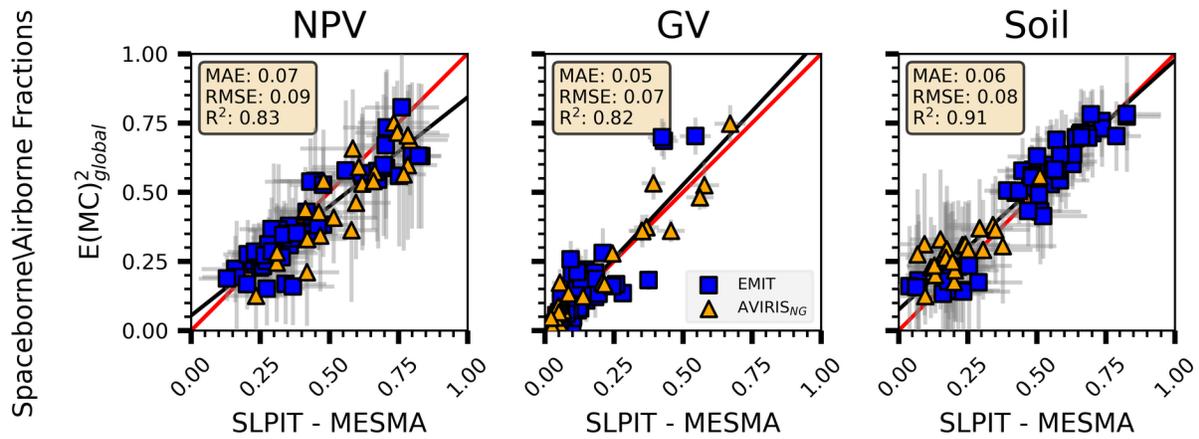


Figure 6: Comparison ( $n=84$ ) of NPV, GV, and soil estimated fractions from SLPIT using MESMA and Spaceborne/Airborne acquisitions using  $E(MC)^2$ . Retrievals use Monte Carlo runs, brightness normalization, 20  $E(MC)^2$  Endmembers, and 100 MESMA models.

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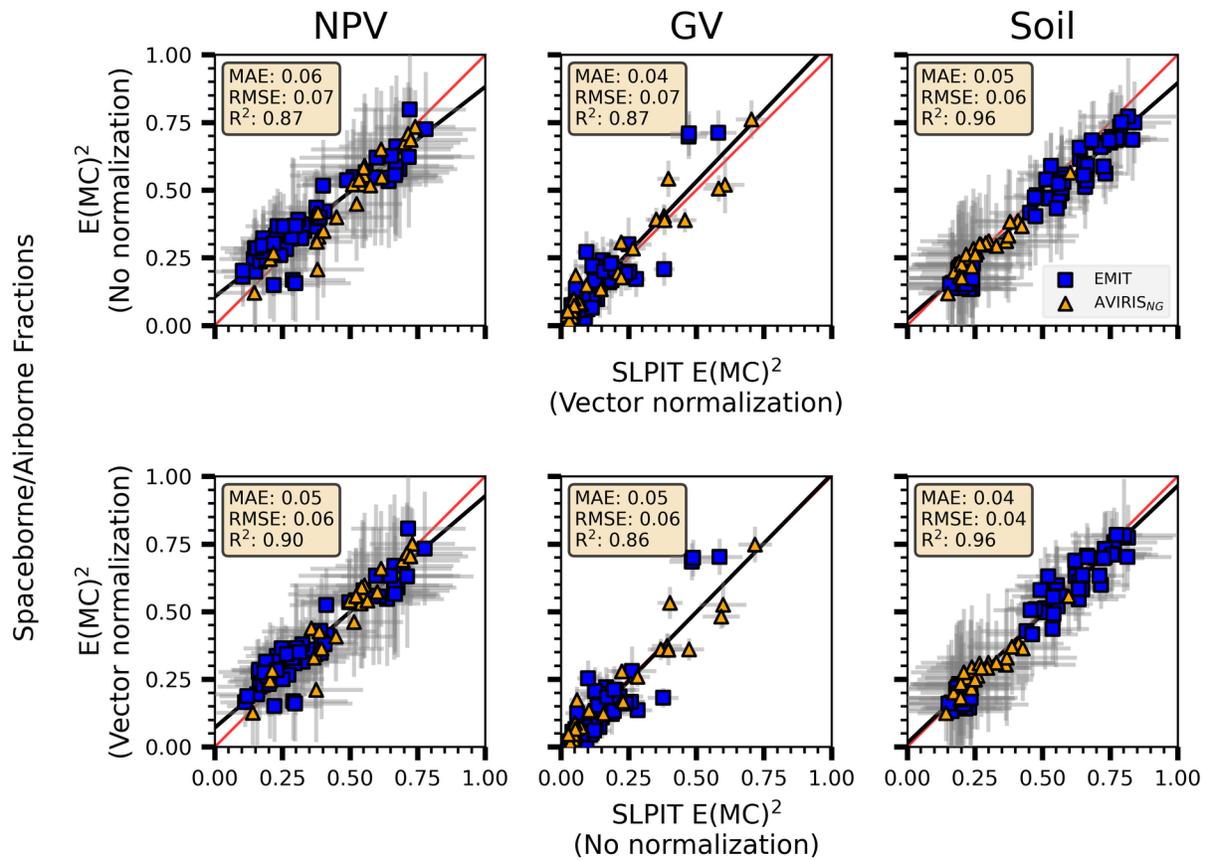


Figure 7: Cross normalization analysis of  $E(MC)^2$  between SLPIT and image derived fractions ( $n=84$ ). Results for 25 Monte Carlo runs and 20  $E(MC)^2$  Endmembers are shown.

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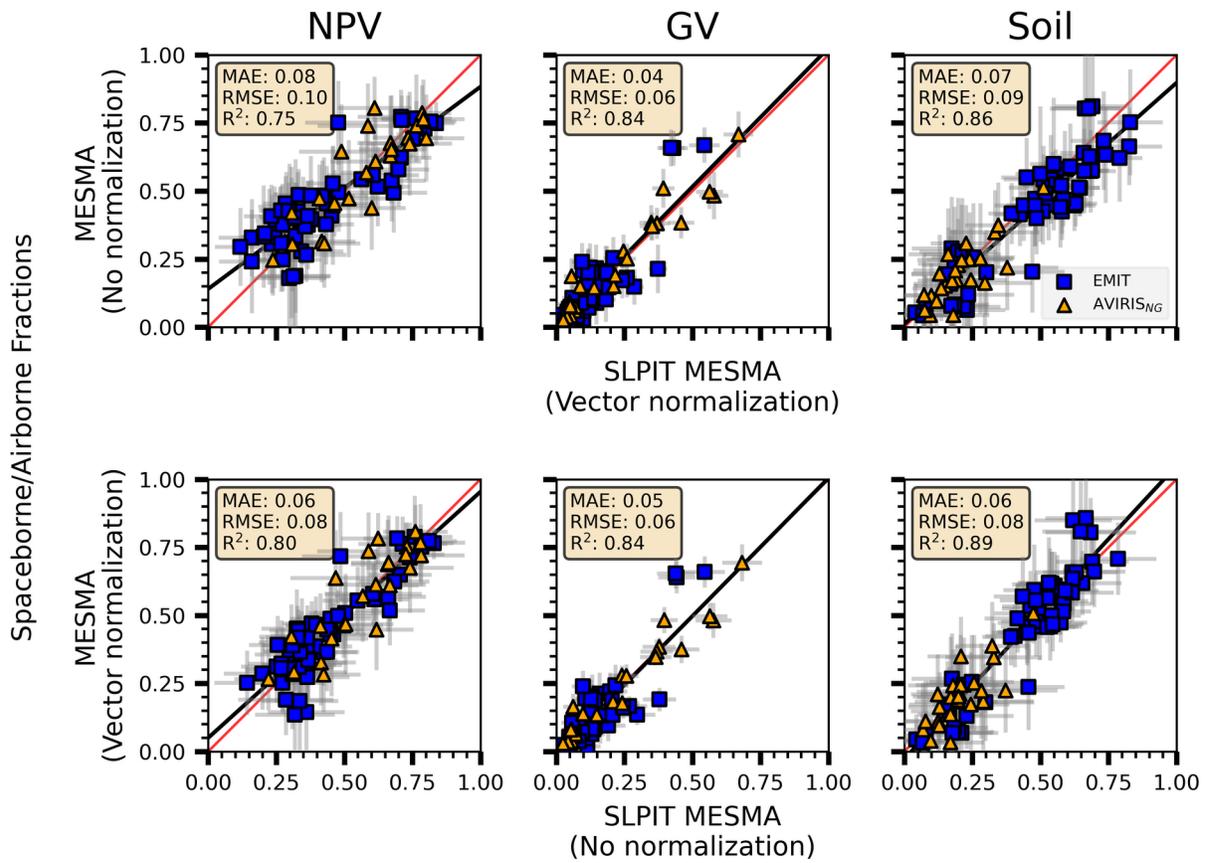


Figure 8: Cross normalization analysis of MESMA between SLPIT and image derived fractions ( $n=84$ ). Results for 25 Monte Carlo runs and 100 MESMA models are shown.

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## 8. Supplemental

Supplemental Table A: Research sites, names, dates, and coordinates.

Site ID <sup>1</sup>	Sensor	Lat, Long	Site Description	Site Information <sup>2</sup>	Ecoregion	SLPIT Date	EMIT/AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub> Overpass	Day Difference <sup>3</sup>	Landscape Picture <sup>4</sup>
SPEC - 001	EMIT	35.3748, -116.1116	Shrubland	Koehler et al. (2005)	Mojave	2023-03-11	2023-06-09 t170947	-90	
SPEC - 002	EMIT	35.3743, -116.1105	Shrubland	Koehler et al. (2005)	Mojave	2023-03-11	2023-06-09 t170947	-90	
SPEC - 003	EMIT	32.1915, -113.3387	Playa	Simmons (1966)	Sonoran	2023-03-24	2023-04-15 t222555	-22	
SPEC - 004	EMIT	29.5783, -102.9191	Shrubland	Van Auken and Bush (1992)	Chihuahuan	2023-03-31	2023-03-24 t221318	7	Unavailable
SPEC - 005	EMIT	29.5774, -102.9191	Shrubland	Van Auken and Bush (1992)	Chihuahuan	2023-03-31	2023-03-24 t221318	7	Unavailable
SPEC - 006	EMIT	36.3344, -117.7134	Shrubland	Jesus (2021)	Mojave	2023-04-08	2023-04-05 t190359	3	

SPEC - 007	EMIT	36.3335, -117.7138	Shrubland	Jesus (2021)	Mojave	2023-04-08	2023-04-05 t190359	3
SPEC - 008	EMIT	36.3338, -117.7122	Shrubland	Jesus (2021)	Mojave	2023-04-08	2023-04-05 t190359	3
SPEC - 009	EMIT	35.9612, -117.9217	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-04-15	2023-04-15 t222444	0
SPEC - 010	EMIT	35.9618, -117.9226	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-04-15	2023-04-15 t222444	0
SPEC - 011	EMIT	35.9620, -117.9208	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-04-15	2023-04-15 t222444	0



SPEC - 012	EMIT	31.9582, -106.9516	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-04-22	2023-04-16 t213858	6
SPEC - 013	EMIT	31.9566, -106.9519	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-04-22	2023-04-16 t213858	6
SPEC - 014	EMIT	34.6927, -120.0343	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-04-29	2023-04-26 t182152	3
SPEC - 015	EMIT	34.6933, -120.0338	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-04-29	2023-04-26 t182152	3
SPEC - 016	EMIT	34.6939, -120.0332	Grassland		California Chaparral	2023-04-29	2023-04-26 t182152	3



SPEC - 017	EMIT	37.4069, -117.9777	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-05-12	2023-04-23 t191045	19	
SPEC - 018	EMIT	37.4082, -117.9767	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-05-12	2023-04-23 t191045	19	
SPEC - 019	EMIT	37.0176, -118.2550	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-05-13	2023-04-23 t191045	20	
SPEC - 020	EMIT	37.0174, -118.2535	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-05-13	2023-04-23 t191045	20	
SPEC - 021	EMIT	36.1514, -117.9831	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-06-03	2023-05-28 t220455	6	

SPEC - 022	EMIT	32.5824, -106.6826	Playa	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-07-12	2023-06-27 t170824	15
SPEC - 023	EMIT	32.5710, -106.7710	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-07-29	2023-06-27 t170824	32
SPEC - 024	EMIT	32.5701, -106.7725	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-07-29	2023-06-27 t170824	32
SPEC - 025	EMIT	32.6503, -106.7586	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-08-03	2023-07-30 t200611	4
SPEC - 026	EMIT	32.6014, -106.7127	Playa	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-08-03	2023-06-27 t170824	37



SPEC - 027	EMIT	32.5788, -106.7749	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-08-05	2023-07-30	t200611	6
SPEC - 028	EMIT	32.5754, -106.7739	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-08-05	2023-07-30	t200611	6
SPEC - 029	EMIT	32.6932, -106.7824	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-08-10	2023-07-30	t200611	11
SPEC - 030	EMIT	40.4781, -118.3336	Shrubland	Cohen (1966)	Great Basin	2023-08-22	2023-08-07	t182831	15
SPEC - 031	EMIT	40.4759, -118.3326	Shrubland	Cohen (1966)	Great Basin	2023-08-22	2023-08-07	t182831	15



SPEC - 032	EMIT	40.4787, -118.3311	Shrubland	Cohen (1966)	Great Basin	2023-08-23	2023-08-07 t182831	16
SPEC - 033	EMIT	40.4766, -118.3301	Shrubland	Cohen (1966)	Great Basin	2023-08-23	2023-08-07 t182831	16
SPEC - 034	EMIT	40.5137, -118.3382	Shrubland	Cohen (1966)	Great Basin	2023-08-24	2023-08-07 t182831	17
SPEC - 035	EMIT	36.1514, -117.9831	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-08-25	2023-08-08 t173929	17
SPEC - 036	EMIT	36.1530, -117.9830	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-08-25	2023-08-08 t173929	17



SPEC - 037	EMIT	36.1531, -117.9816	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-08-25	2023-08-08 t173929	17
SPEC - 038	EMIT	35.9835, -117.9068	Shrubland	Elmore et al. (2003)	Mojave/ Great Basin	2023-08-26	2023-06-22 t193300	65
SPEC - 039	EMIT	32.6054, -106.7187	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-09-18	2023-08-31 t152735	18
SPEC - 040	EMIT	32.5753, -106.7738	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-09-19	2023-08-31 t152735	19
SPEC - 041	EMIT	32.5702, -106.7727	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-09-19	2023-08-31 t152735	19



SPEC - 042	EMIT	32.5639, -106.7789	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-09-20	2023-08-31	t152735	20
SPEC - 043	EMIT	32.5658, -106.7746	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-09-20	2023-08-31	t152735	20
SPEC - 044	EMIT	32.0103, -106.5180	Shrubland	Havstad et al. (2000)	Chihuahuan	2023-09-22	2023-08-31	t152747	22
SPEC - 045	EMIT	34.6927, -120.0342	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-09-29	2023-09-27	t214531	2
SPEC - 046	EMIT	34.6933, -120.0338	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-09-29	2023-09-27	t214531	2



SPEC - 047	EMIT	34.6939, -120.0332	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-09-29	2023-09-27 t214531	2	
SPEC - 048	EMIT	34.6971, -120.0309	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-04	2023-09-27 t214531	7	
SPEC - 049	EMIT	34.6988, -120.0295	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-04	2023-09-27 t214531	7	
SPEC - 050	EMIT	34.7402, -120.0279	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-05	2023-09-27 t214531	8	
SPEC - 051	EMIT	34.7408, -120.0253	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-06	2023-09-27 t214531	9	

SPEC - 052	EMIT	34.7044, -120.0376	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-08	2023-09-27 t214531	11
SPEC - 053	EMIT	34.7000, -120.0378	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-08	2023-09-27 t214531	11
SPEC - 054	EMIT	34.6959, -120.0402	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-10	2023-10-18 t210217	-8
SPEC - 055	EMIT	34.6895, -120.0392	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-11	2023-10-18 t210217	-7
SPEC - 056	EMIT	34.5281, -120.4152	Shrubland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-19	2023-10-14 t224006	5



SPEC - 057	EMIT	34.4975, -120.4922	Shrubland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-20	2023-10-14 t224006	6	
SPEC - 058	EMIT	34.5211, -120.4586	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2023-10-24	2023-10-14 t224006	10	
SPEC - 059	EMIT	36.7235, -105.6829	Shrubland	Fox et al. (2023)	Chihuahuan	2023-11-14	2023-10-17 t201616	28	
SPEC - 060	EMIT	36.7216, -105.6823	Shrubland	Fox et al. (2023)	Chihuahuan	2023-11-14	2023-10-17 t201616	28	
DPA-004-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.4985, -120.4907	Shrubland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-17	2022-09-15 t195816	2	

DPB-003-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.4993, -120.4921	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-17	2022-09-15 t195816	2	
DPB-004-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.4972, -120.4912	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-17	2022-09-15 t200714	2	
DPB-005-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.4972, -120.4900	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-17	2022-09-15 t195816	2	
DPB-020-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.5264, -120.3990	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-24	2022-03-22 t204749	2	
DPB-027-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.5375, -120.4578	Shrubland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-04-14	2022-04-12 t205405	2	

SRA-007-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6929, -120.0339	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-16	2022-09-14 t184300	2	
SRA-008-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7430, -119.9851	Shrubland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-16	2022-09-14 t184300	2	
SRA-019-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7428, -119.9847	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-10	2022-03-08 t204043	2	
SRA-020-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7029, -120.0414	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-10	2022-03-08 t205512	2	
SRA-021-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7033, -120.0423	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-10	2022-03-08 t204043	2	

SRA-033-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7049, -120.0383	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-18	2022-03-16 t210303	2	
SRA-034-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6866, -120.0340	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-18	2022-03-16 t210303	2	
SRA-056-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6867, -120.0349	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-16	2022-09-14 t184300	2	
SRA-109-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7419, -119.9855	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-05-13	2022-05-11 t190344	2	
SRB-010-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7054, -120.0379	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-15	2022-09-15 t203517	0	

SRB-021-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7424, -119.9840	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-10	2022-03-08 t205512	2	
SRB-026-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6990, -120.0373	Shrubland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-03-11	2022-03-08 t204043	3	
SRB-045-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7034, -120.0416	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-15	2022-09-15 t203517	0	
SRB-046-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6924, -120.0510	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-15	2022-09-15 t203517	0	
SRB-047-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6993, -120.0382	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-04-07	2022-04-05 t201359	2	

SRB-050-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7419, -119.9860	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-09-16	2022-09-14	t184300	2	
SRB-084-S	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.7001, -120.0369	Grassland	Chadwick et al. (2025)	California Chaparral	2022-05-13	2022-05-11	t191813	2	
SRB-100-F	AVIRIS <sub>NG</sub>	34.6997, -120.0369	Grassland	Chadwick et al. 2025	California Chaparral	2022-09-15	2022-09-15	t203517	0	

<sup>1</sup>F indicates Fall portion of SHIFT campaign, S indicates Spring portion of SHIFT 2022 campaign.

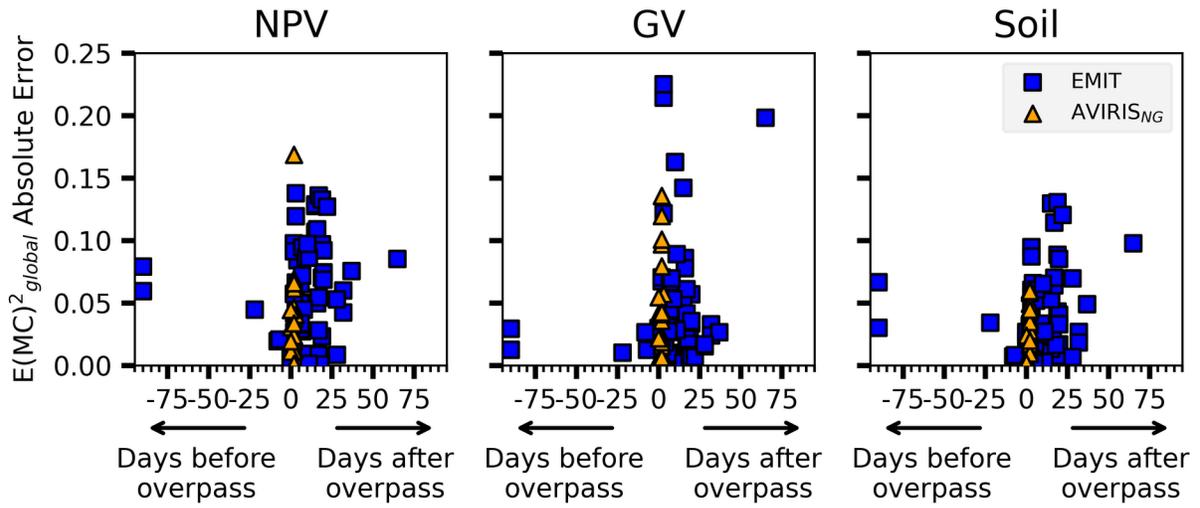
<sup>2</sup>Information about site climate and vegetation could be found in these studies.

<sup>3</sup>Positive values indicate days after overpass when SLPIT sampling occurred, negative values indicate days before overpass when SLPIT sampling occurred.

<sup>4</sup>Landscape pictures for AVIRISNG sites were sourced from Queally et al. 2024.

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Supplemental Figure A: Distribution of fractional cover unmixing error as function of time between SLPIT field sampling and associated EMIT or AVIRIS<sub>NG</sub> acquisition.

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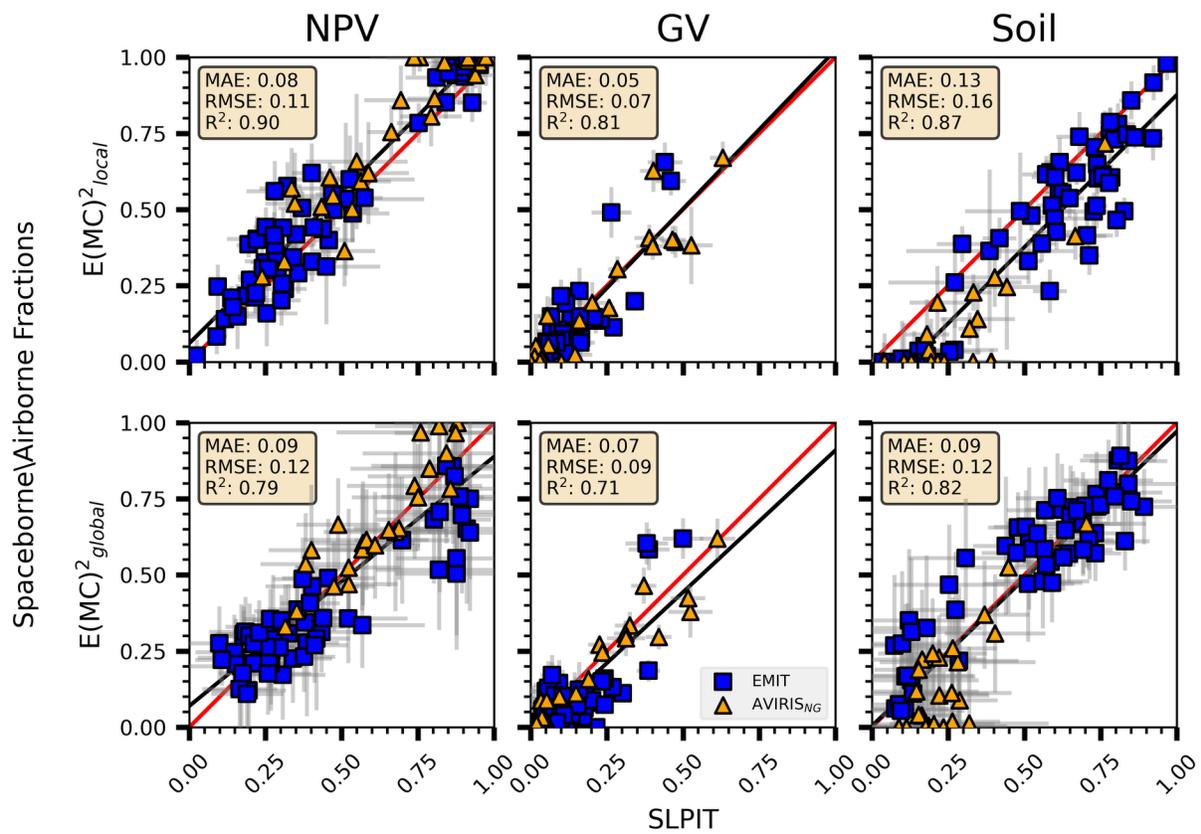
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Supplemental Figure B: Comparison of NPV, GV, and soil estimated fractions from SLPIT and EMIT using  $E(MC)^2$  ( $n=84$ ). Results for the “best” solution (e.g., lowest spectral error) of the 25 Monte Carlo runs, brightness normalization, 20  $E(MC)^2$  endmembers are shown.

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## 622 9. References

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