# Airborne measurements of surface albedo and leaf area index of snow-covered boreal forest

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#### Abstract

Helicopter based simultaneous measurements of broadband surface albedo and the effective leaf area index  $(LAI_{eff})$  were carried out in subarctic area of Finnish Lapland in spring 2008, 2009 and 2010 under varying illumination and snow cover conditions. Vertical profile measurements show that the found relationship between albedo and  $LAI_{eff}$  seems to be rather independent of the flight altitude and therefore the footprint scale. Actually, flights above 500 m in altitude revealed low variations of the surface albedo approaching an aerial average at 1 km, meaning that a footprint of 20 km is representative of the landscape. The albedo was in the area beta distributed and without  $LAI_{eff}$  values below 0.25 the average albedo value of the area would decrease from 0.49 to 0.44 showing the albedo sensitivity to sparse vegetation. The results agreed with the photon recollision probability based model PARAS and the MODIS satellite albedo product MCD43A3. However, differences between satellite based and airborne albedo values were noticed, which could be explained by a difference in footprint size and/or the strong local heterogeneity as certain flights were operated on specific targets.

Airborne measurements of surface albedo and leaf area index of snow-covered boreal 1 forest 2 Terhikki Manninen<sup>1</sup>, Jean-Louis Roujean<sup>2</sup>, Olivier Hautecoeur<sup>3†</sup>, Aku Riihelä<sup>1</sup>, Panu Lahtinen<sup>1</sup>, 3 Emmihenna Jääskeläinen<sup>1</sup>, Niilo Siljamo<sup>1</sup>, Kati Anttila<sup>1</sup>, Timo Sukuvaara<sup>1</sup> and Lauri Korhonen<sup>4</sup> 4 <sup>1</sup>Finnish Meteorological Institute, P.O. Box 503, FI-00101 Helsinki, Finland, 5 terhikki.manninen@fmi.fi. 6 <sup>2</sup>CESBIO 18 avenue Edouard Belin, 31401 Toulouse, France 7 <sup>3</sup>Météo-France, Toulouse, France 8 9 <sup>4</sup>University of Eastern Finland, School of Forest Sciences, P.O. Box 111, 80101 Joensuu, Finland. 10 <sup>†</sup>Currently at: Exostaff GmbH/EUMETSAT, Darmstadt, Germany 11 Corresponding author: Terhikki Manninen (terhikki.manninen@fmi.fi) 12 13 Key Points: 14 Surface albedo and effective leaf area index (LAI) can be measured at fine resolution and 15 landscape scale simultaneously using helicopter 16 Surface albedo and effective LAI are coherently retrieved based on a photon recollision 17 • probability based model 18 Airborne and satellite-based surface albedo show a good agreement 19 • 20

## 21 Abstract

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- area index (LAI<sub>eff</sub>) were carried out in subarctic area of Finnish Lapland in spring 2008, 2009 and
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- to 0.44 showing the albedo sensitivity to sparse vegetation. The results agreed with the photon
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- could be explained by a difference in footprint size and/or the strong local heterogeneity as
- 34 certain flights were operated on specific targets.

# 35 Plain Language Summary

- 36 Helicopter based measurements were used to assess how much a forest stand laying over a snow
- 37 slab reduces the surface albedo at high latitudes where the sun zenith angle is large and shadow
- cast is always important. The effect is amplified in the case of sparse vegetation as there is less
- 39 mutual shadowing. Model results and satellite observations are found in good agreement with the
- 40 airborne data sets.

# 41 1 Introduction

Surface albedo is an Essential Climate Variable (ECV) as it determines the net radiation 42 (GCOS, 2016). All changes in snow cover have a marked effect on the surface albedo, because 43 fresh snow is a particularly highly reflecting target in the visible – with a slow decrease in the 44 45 near infrared - compared to most land cover types with the exception of deserts. The boreal biome is characterized by tree stands laying above a snow layer about half a year today. 46 Vegetation attributes strongly influence the snow-melting when the sun elevation is rapidly 47 enhanced during springtime (Betts and Ball, 1997). Actually, leaf area index and snow form a 48 complex system with close interactions (Verseghy et al., 1993; Manninen and Stenberg, 2009; 49 Essery, 2013), Manninen and Jääskeläinen, 2018; Webster and Jonas, 2018; Jääskeläinen and 50 Manninen, 2021). In the visible range, surface albedo is quite high – especially with fresh snow – 51 and shadow cast by crown and trunk drives the landscape changes. In the infrared, radiation 52 absorption by woody material initiates the processes of snow melt around trunks. Due to climate 53 change, snow occurrence has reduced by several weeks in many areas in the boreal zone during 54 the last decades (Brown and Mote, 2009; Derksen and Brown, 2012; Anttila et al, 2018; 55 Bormann et al., 2018; Manninen et al., 2019). 56

57 Satellite based surface albedo products (Lucht et al, 2000; Schaaf et al., 2002; Govaerts et 58 al., 2008; Anttila et al., 2016; Karlsson et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2013; Carrer et al., 2021) are able 59 to provide global estimates of the surface albedo, but in regard to the sensitivity to several 60 environmental factors – wind and air temperature may accelerate the processes – the collection 61 of in situ measurements is mandatory to enhance our understanding and supports the validation 62 exercise.. Continuous *in situ* measurements from ground-based networks offer the suitable 63 temporal frequency to capture the dynamic of snow melt but they are not representative of the 64 processes occurring at landscape scale. On the other hand, satellite-based surface albedo can

offer a regional vision but with pixels of a moderate spatial resolution, thereby generating

<sup>66</sup> problems of representativity (Riihelä et al., 2010; Róman et al., 2010). It comes out that airborne

albedo measurements meet the requirements in offering the appropriate flexibility in terms of

time frequency, spatial resolution, and a large areal coverage.

Previously, airborne measurements have covered diverse sites: both ocean (Gatebe et al., 2005; Wendisch et al., 2004) and sea ice (Predoehl and Spano, 1965) and a wide variety of land cover types, both snow-covered (Ryan et al., 2017; Bergstrom et al., 2020) and snow-free (Gatebe et al., 2003; Webb et al., 2004; Wendisch et al., 2004; Cao et al., 2018). Seasonal variability of boreal forest albedo was investigated by Solantie (1988). The collected airborne albedo were used both for conducting modelling studies and for the validation of satellite-based albedo products.

Airborne measurements of broadband surface albedo covering large areas have mostly 76 77 been carried out using airplanes with up- and down-facing pyranometers (Predoehl and Spano, 1965). The flight altitude has varied in the range 300 m (Solantie, 1988) - 2300 m (Predoehl and 78 Spano, 1965). Spectral airborne albedo measurements have been carried out using airplanes with 79 wavelength-scanning spectroradiometers (Webb et al., 2000; Webb et al., 2004; Gatebe et al., 80 2005). The altitude varied within 200 m (Gatebe et al., 2005), 600 m (Gatebe et al., 2003) and 81 370 m - 1700 m (Webb et al., 2004), 200 m - 500 m (Wendisch et al., 2004) and 800 m - 8 km 82 (Román et al., 2011; Román et al., 2013). 83

84 Recently unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV) have become popular in measuring broadband surface albedo. First experiments were carried out using ordinary cameras (Ryan et al, 2017; Cao 85 et al., 2018), but later on a quadcopter UAV has been used to carry the downward looking 86 pyranometer, the upward looking pyranometer being at a fixed point in the flight area (Levy et 87 al., 2018). As fixed wing UAVs are typically able to carry more weight than average 88 quadcopters, they have also been used to carry both the up- and downward looking pyranometers 89 (Ryan et al., 2017). The possibility to program the flight route of an UAV in advance enables 90 carrying out very detailed flight plans. Fixed wing UAVs can in principle operate in a large area 91 (range about 140 km) and the altitude may be as large as 600 m. On the contrary, the pilot of the 92 quadcopter UAV has typically to keep eye contact to it and the maximum altitude is in practice 93 about 100 m (Cao et al., 2018). However, aviation regulations may restrict the flight area and 94 altitude allowed for the UAV. In addition, in winter conditions the practical limit for the flight 95 lengths of quadcopters comes typically from the frequent need of battery recharging. The smaller 96 UAVs can't carry very heavy loads, which also limits the choice of the instrument to use. On the 97 98 other hand, the quadcopters offer a very flexible possibility to study the reflectance characteristics of targets in three dimensions and will support modelling with data otherwise not 99 achievable. 100

Helicopters have been used less frequently as a platform for airborne surface albedo measurements, probably because of problems related to irradiance measurements, as placing an upwards looking pyranometer unoccluded above the helicopter is not possible in practice. Hence, calibration of the global radiation measurements is challenging. Bergström et al. (2020) had one pyranometer below the helicopter registering the reflected radiation and the irradiance was observed at meteorological stations. The advantages of a helicopter as the airborne platform are that 1) it is able to cover a large area over a short time, 2) the flight altitude is flexible enough to capture different footprint sizes, 3) vertical profiling is possible, 4) it can carry the expected payload to support the synergy of spectral data sets, 5) electricity is sufficiently available even in cold weather, 6) flight planning can be quickly adjusted to varying atmospheric conditions and 7) flight routes do not have to be linear as for an aircraft and it is possible to hover at a point and rotate 360° to sample

113 BRDF (Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function).

This study presents surface albedo data measured during the SNORTEX (SNOw 114 Reflectance Transition EXperiment) campaign from helicopter measurements acquired during 115 2008 – 2010 in Northern Finland (Manninen and Roujean, 2014, Manninen et al., 2012) using 116 two pairs of pyranometers for observing both the irradiance and the reflected radiation. The test 117 area belongs to northern boreal vegetation zone and subarctic climate zone. The data contains 118 119 snow cover situations corresponding to pre-melt conditions and various phases of the melting season. The leaf area index (LAI) was measured simultaneously to radiation measurements from 120 the helicopter (Manninen et al., 2009; Manninen et al., 2011). The goal of the whole study was to 121 observe the variation of surface albedo of a forested area in diverse phases of the snow cover 122 evolution. Of special interest was the relationship between the surface albedo and the effective 123 leaf area index LAI<sub>eff</sub>. Additional value comes from comparison with modelling and satellite 124 125 products.

- 126 2 Data and Methods
- 127 2.1 Helicopter instrumentation

Two pyranometers on either side of the helicopter were used for the global radiation 128 measurements and another two for reflected radiation measurements. The upwards and 129 downwards looking sensors were attached back to back by the helicopter landing gear. Black 130 plates between the pyranometers and the helicopter fuselage to prevent direct reflections from 131 the fuselage (Figure 1). Super ellipsoid descriptions of the helicopter fuselage and rotors were 132 used to analyze possible direct solar radiation reflections to the pyranometers. Mirror reflection 133 from the helicopter fuselage to the pyranometers was not possible for the solar zenith angle 134 values during the campaign. The pyranometers integrated and automatically stored the observed 135 radiation within 10 s in 2008 and 2009. In 2010 the radiation value was integrated within 10 s 136 and stored with an interval of 2 s. A time stamp and the latitude and longitude co-ordinates 137 provided by GPS were attached to every measured quartet of radiance values and stored to the 138 laptop, which also showed the measured values on the screen in real time. In 2009 also the 139 altitude co-ordinate provided by GPS was integrated in the system. 140

For airborne LAI measurements a Canon pocket camera A640 with a  $0.7 \times$  wide angle 141 conversion lens WC-D58N was attached to the helicopter landing gear so that it was looking 142 orthogonally downwards. The angle from the image center was about 41° at the corners of the 143 rectangular images and 35° and 28° at the middle of the image edges (Manninen et al., 2009; 144 Manninen et al., 2011). The images were taken by the Karhukamera system every three seconds 145 and the 3-D GPS coordinates with time stamps were registered for each image frame. The 146 images were stored in standard jpg format directly to a laptop used for operating the camera. 147 During the flight the latest image was repeatedly sent to the screen of the laptop to enable choice 148 of optimal route and altitude. Hence, two independent GPS-coordinate sets (pyranometer and 149

- 150 camera systems) were available for the flights to guarantee accurate temporal combination of the
- 151 pyranometer and LAI data sets. A pressure gauge and a thermometer were integrated in 2009 and
- 152 2010 to the pyranometer system to achieve better altitude accuracy at low altitudes.
- 153



Figure 1. Pyranometer (P), UV sensor (UV) and camera (C) attachment to the helicopter. The

- other pairs of pyranometers and UV sensors are attached to the opposite landing gear
- 157 symmetrically. The thermometer and the humidity sensor at attached at the back of the opposite
- 158 landing gear below the fuselage.

In addition there were two pairs of UV sensors and a Pt100 thermometer and a humidity sensor (humicap) attached to the helicopter, the UV sensors being between the pyranometers and the black plates (Figure 1). In all flights except the cloudy days, March 13, 2009 and April 24, 2009, there was also the shortwave multi-directional instrument OSIRIS (airPOLDER) beneath the back part of the fuselage (Manninen et al., 2012). See section 2.2 for a full listing of measurement flights undertaken with the helicopter.

165 2.2 Flights during the SNORTEX campaign

The studied area represents subarctic boreal forest (Figure 2) and the flights were carried 166 out within an area with corner co-ordinates (67.258°N, 26.2253°E) and (67.9263°N, 27.3897°E), 167 all co-ordinates are in WGS84 system. In order to capture the albedo variation from pre-melt 168 conditions to melting snow conditions and after melt snow-free conditions, the flights in 2009 169 were carried out in March, April, and May. Both cloudy and cloud-free conditions (Figure 3, 170 Figure S1 in Supplementary material) were available before and after the snow melt started. 171 Some of the horizontal flight routes were planned so that the helicopter was measuring in four 172 wind directions above a site of interest (mainly for the OSIRIS instrument), some routes 173 provided a grid over the intensive test area of ground measurements of 2009 and 2010 174 (Manninen and Roujean, 2014). Some longer transects were also flown. Since winters are not all 175 similar, flights were carried out in three years (2008, 2009 and 2010) to cover the natural 176 variation of the snow-covered area albedo. 177



Figure 2. Example photos of the study area showing varying forest density in April 24, 2009.

- 181 The flight altitude was about 880 m.
- 182 183





Figure 3. The global and diffuse radiation observed at the sounding station (solid curves) and the
global radiation observed at the Sodankylä Heikinheimo mast (dashed curves) on the flight days
March 13, 2009 and April 22, 2009. The times of the flights are shown in light gray bars.

The vertical flights were planned partly to test the airborne LAI retrieval quality and partly to study, how the altitude variation impacts the albedo variation, i.e. how the albedo varies with spatial resolution. Namely, when using pointwise *in situ* albedo measurements, the areal representativity of the ground based measurements is always an issue.

194

195

197	Table 1. The p	yranometer flights	carried out in the	SNORTEX cam	paign in 2	008 - 2009.

Date	Flight time [UTC hour]	Sky conditions during the flights	Flight altitude above ground [m]	Flight pattern	Comments
April 2, 2008	10.7 — 12.0	Clear/cloudy	20 - 280	Vertical profiles	
April 3, 2008	10.3 — 12.4	Clear	830	Horizontal line and wind rose	
April 7, 2008	13.7 — 14.9	Clear	50 — 800	Horizontal line and crosses	
April110, 2008	13.2 — 14.7	Clear	~ 120	Horizontal line and crosses	No LAI or altitude data
March 13, 2009	8.5 — 10.6	Cloudy	20 — 320	Vertical profiles	
March 17, 2009	11.1 — 14.2	Clear	280	Crosses over test sites	
March 18, 2009	8.9 — 9.0	Clear/cloudy	50 — 450	Crosses over test sites	No <i>LAI</i> <sub>eff</sub> data
April 22, 2009	7.7 — 9.0	Clear	280	Crosses over test sites	
	10.0 — 11.3	Clear	880	Grid over test area	Camera co-ordinates partly missing
April 24, 2009	7.5 — 8.8	Clear / cloudy	250, 120	Crosses over test sites	Missing camera co- ordinates
	10.4 — 10.7	Cloudy / clear	880	Grid over test area	
	11.2 — 11.9	Cloudy / clear	880	Grid over test area	
May 4, 2009	13.2 — 14.3	Clear -> cloudy	200	Crosses over test sites	
May 5, 2009	6.3 — 8.0	Cloudy -> clear	170	Long transect	Partly large difference in illumination conditions at the sounding station
March 18, 2010	11.4 — 12.2	Clear/cloudy	600	Horizontal North-South flight lines over lake and aapa mire	Co-ordinate matching of camera and pyranometer not possible due to GPS failure.
March 19, 2010	11.3 — 15.0	Clear/cloudy	20-300	Vertical profiles	

On some days more than one flight was planned, but occasionally a flight had to be interrupted because the helicopter was needed to rescue service. Sometimes also the flight was interrupted due to instrument failure. The flight route patterns are shown in Appendix A. The flights carried out in May 4 and May 5, 2009 were dedicated to partial snow measurements, since most of the snow cover had already melted during that area.

# 204 2.3 Airborne albedo data and its calibration

As the helicopter is far from being an ideal platform, besides the normal radiometric instrument calibration the measurement configuration has to be calibrated as well. All four pyranometers were radiometrically calibrated before the campaigns using the standard procedure of Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI).

The configuration calibration contains the following steps: 1) azimuthal calibration, 2) 209 first albedo magnitude calibration and 3) flight altitude correction, 4) final albedo magnitude 210 calibration. The azimuth effect has to be checked, because the illumination conditions of the 211 upwards looking pyranometers are different, when the helicopter is flying towards the sun (or the 212 opposite direction) or perpendicularly to the principal plane (the plane where the target and the 213 Sun are aligned). The effect of the atmospheric attenuation on the global and reflected radiation 214 depends on the flight altitude and must be corrected for. That process requires knowledge about 215 the surface albedo. Hence, we derive first an estimate of the surface albedo assuming no 216 atmospheric effect (Section 2.3.2) and use it as input for the atmospheric correction of the global 217 and reflected radiation (Section 2.3.3). After that correction the final surface albedo estimate is 218 calculated anew using the atmospherically corrected global and reflected radiation values 219 220 (Section 2.3.4).

# 221 2.3.1 Azimuthal calibration

The azimuthal dependence of the global and reflected radiation was measured in cloudy 222 and clear-sky conditions above forest at the immediate vicinity (67.3625°N, 26.6415°E) of the 223 Sodankylä Heikinheimo mast (67.361866°N, 26.637728°E) of the Arctic Space Centre of 224 Finnish Meteorological Institute, where the surface albedo is operationally measured at 45 m 225 226 height at 10 min interval. The helicopter hovered at that height in eight azimuth directions starting from direct view to the sun. The whole circle took about 5 minutes. This data was used 227 to check the azimuth dependence of the measured radiation data. In addition, it was used to 228 derive the shading correction coefficient for the reflected radiation. 229

First the time dependence coefficient  $k_g$  of the global radiation  $I_g$  measured at the mast was determined

232  
233 
$$k_g = \frac{(I_g - I_{g_0})}{\langle I_g \rangle}$$
, (1)

234

235 where  $I_{g0}$  refers to the value of  $I_g$  at the beginning of the time window and <> denotes the average. Since the time window was so short, it was sufficient to use linear approximation of the 236 time dependence of  $I_g$ . Either the variation was extremely small ( $k_g < 0.4\%$ ) or the  $R^2$  value for 237 the linear relationship of  $I_g$  was high, the variation range being 0.984 — 0.99997. Then the 238 variation of the airborne global radiation values of the left and right pyranometers (Igleft and 239  $I_{gright}$ ) multiplied by (1- $k_g$ ) was analyzed vs. the azimuth angle of the helicopter direction. A clear 240 241 sinusoidal dependence was observed for both pyranometers (Table 2) both in clear-sky and cloudy conditions, but understandably the variation range was markedly larger in clear-sky 242 conditions due to shadowing of the fuselage. The right and left pyranometer global radiation had 243 a phase difference of 180°, as expected, so that all the time either of the two upwards looking 244 pyranometers avoided shading of the fuselage. The variation of the reflected radiation did not 245

show as systematic time dependence (as it was really small), hence no temporal correction was
made to it in the azimuthal analysis.

The following combination of  $I_{gleft}$  and  $I_{gright}$  was rather insensitive to the azimuth angle and was used as the basis of deriving the calibrated airborne global irradiance

251 
$$I_{gc} = < \max(I_{gleft}, I_{gright}) + \frac{(I_{gleft} + I_{gright})}{2} > \qquad (2)$$

252

258

Essentially  $I_{gc}$  represents an estimate of the sum of the direct radiation and the diffuse radiation, but it must still be calibrated, as some of the diffuse radiation is occluded. For the completely cloudy day of March 13, 2009 the global radiation observed by the left and right pyranometers was practically identical (Figure 4), since the amount of direct radiation was then negligible.



259 260

Figure 4. The global radiation measured by the right pyranometer vs. that of the left pyranometer for the flight carried out in March 13, 2009 (Table 1) before calibration and removal of tilted data.

The reflected radiation observed by the left and right pyranometer was very similar for all flights, except when the helicopter was markedly tilting at turning points. Hence, there is no need to calibrate the right and left downwards looking pyranometers separately, and the reflected radiation  $I_r$  to be calibrated was chosen to be

269 
$$I_{rc} = \frac{(I_{rleft} + I_{rright})}{2}.$$
 (3)  
270







278

The variation of the airborne global and reflected radiation of the left and right pyranometers with the azimuth direction is characterized in (Table 2).

#### 279 The uncalibrated albedo $\alpha_{gc}$ was now derived to be

$$\alpha_{gc} = \frac{I_{rc}}{I_{gc}}$$

$$(4)$$

The variation of  $\alpha_{gc}$  as a function of the azimuth angle was very small for clear and cloudy conditions, but understandably slightly larger for the mixed case of March 19, 2010 (Table 2) due to varying cloudiness during the azimuthal circle. In addition, some of the variation of the albedo was due to the uneven helicopter motion between stabilized azimuth direction positions. Since the azimuth dependence is related to the measurement geometry, it is reasonable to assume that the azimuth effect on the albedo is of the same order for all flights in the same conditions.

In perfectly clear-sky conditions when the helicopter is perpendicularly to the sun the airborne pyranometer of the sunny side measures the direct radiation and a fraction of diffuse radiation, while the pyranometer on the opposite side of the helicopter measures just the same fraction of the diffuse irradiance. Comparing the ratio r' of the shaded and sunny side pyranometer irradiances,  $I_{shade}$  and  $I_{sunny}$  respectively, to the ratio of the diffuse irradiance to the global irradiance measured at the sounding station, r, one can derive the correct global radiation for the airborne measurements  $I_a$  to be

298 
$$I_a = \frac{(1-r')}{(1-r)} I_{sunny}$$
 (5)

Table 2. Azimuth dependence of the airborne radiation measured at the Sodankylä Heikinheimo

mast. The 80% variation range normalized with the mean value and the coefficient of

determination for the sinusoidal dependence of the global radiation on the azimuth angle for the

302 left and right airborne pyranometers. The ratio of the standard deviation and the mean of the

averaged airborne global and reflected radiation and mean and standard deviation of albedo,

304  $\sigma_{gc}/\langle I_{gc} \rangle$ ,  $\sigma_{rc}/\langle I_{rc} \rangle$ ,  $\langle \alpha_{gc} \rangle$  and  $\sigma_{\alpha_{gc}}$  respectively, measured at 45 m level beside the Sodankylä 305 Heikinheimo mast at the Arctic Space Centre of Finnish Meteorological Institute, where the

306 surface albedo is operationally measured above a forest. The azimuth directions of the helicopter

were  $0^{\circ}$ ,  $45^{\circ}$ ,  $90^{\circ}$ ,  $135^{\circ}$ ,  $180^{\circ}$ ,  $225^{\circ}$ ,  $270^{\circ}$ ,  $315^{\circ}$  and  $360^{\circ}$  between the sun and the helicopter fuselage.

309

Date	Sky	Solar	I <sub>diffs</sub>	Sinusoid	dal chara	cteristics		$\sigma_{gc}$	$\sigma_{rc}$	Albedo	
		zenith	Igs	$I_{gleft}(1$	$(-k_g)$	$I_{gright}$	$(1-k_g)$	$< I_{gc} >$	$< I_{rc} >$		
		angle	Ū.	80%	$R^2$	80%	$R^2$	[%]	[%]	$< \alpha_{gc} >$	$\sigma_{lpha gc}$
				range/		range/					
				mean		mean					
April	Clear	63.4°	0.31	122	0.971	115	0.980	11.7	9.4	0.185	0.009
2,											
2008											
March	Cloudy	70.1°	0.94	18	0.999	5.1	0.998	3.8	5.3	0.224	0.007
13,											
2009											
April	Perfectly	60.1°	0.14	143	0.926	158	0.827	7.3	1.9	0.166	0.015
22,	clear										
2009											
April	Cloudy/	60.1°	0.73	71	0.975	62	0.936	7.8	11.1	0.183	0.010
2 <del>4</del> ,	clear										
2009											
March	Clear/	80.3°	0.50	92	0.979	127	0.978	13.7	9.7	0.166	0.030
19,	cloudy										
2010											

310

311

For April 22 the calibration factor (1-r')/(1-r) was 1.037. The empirical ratio  $\langle I_g \rangle / \langle I_{gc} \rangle$ 312 was 1.039 for the same calibration time window. So, a good accuracy can be obtained carrying 313 out an empirical calibration of the global radiation using  $I_{gc}$ . This was the approach taken 314 (presented in the following Section), because measurements were carried out also in other 315 direction vs. the sun than perpendicular. Since  $I_{gc}$  was relatively independent of the azimuth 316 direction, the calibration should be reliable in all directions. It is noticeable that the airborne 317 global irradiance was underestimated only by 4%, but the reason is that the sky was perfectly 318 clear at that time and the solar zenith angle was not larger than 60.1°. In more cloudy sky and/or 319 larger solar zenith angle the fraction of diffuse irradiance would be larger and consequently also 320 the underestimation of the global irradiance would be larger. Therefore, it is essential to calibrate 321 322 the airborne global irradiance using simultaneously measured empirical values. 323

#### 324 2.3.2 First radiation magnitude calibration

The next step of the calibration was to correct the magnitudes of the global and reflected radiation. This is carried out by comparing the airborne measurements to global  $(I_g)$  and reflected  $(I_r)$  radiation measurements operationally carried out at the mast with 10 min interval and to global irradiance  $(I_{gs})$  measurements operationally carried out with 1 minute interval at the Tähtelä sounding station (67.36664°N, 26.628253° E). In the clearest sky conditions the

agreement between the global radiation values at the mast and at the sounding station were very

- similar (Table 3) in spite of the 667 m distance between the mast and the sounding station. Also,
- the airborne global irradiance  $I_{gc}$  had a good correlation with them. When the flight altitude varied markedly, the  $R^2$  values between  $I_{gc}$  and  $I_{gs}$  were taken separately for two or three patches
- and their mean value is shown in the table. Besides the weather conditions, also the distance
- between the helicopter and the sounding station and possible tilting of the helicopter (at turning
- points) could reduce the  $R^2$  value. The correlation between  $I_{gleft}$  and  $I_{gright}$  was high (Appendix B,
- Table B1), when the sky was cloudy, because then there was mainly diffuse radiation. At clear

sky conditions their correlation could be high only, if the helicopter was flying towards the sun(or vice versa).

339 340

- Table 3. The relationship between the global irradiance measured at the Sodankylä Heikinheimo
- mast ( $I_g$ ) and at the sounding station ( $I_{gs}$ ) for the flight times. The  $R^2$  values for the linear
- relationship between the airborne irradiance  $I_{gc}$  and  $I_{gs}$  are given as well. Notice that the  $R^2$

values were derived for a linear regression without allowing a constant.

345

Date	$I_g$ vs. $I_{gs}$		$I_{gc}$ vs. $I_{gs}$
	$  < I_a > - < I_{as} >  $	$R^2$	$R^2$
	$\frac{1}{\langle I_{ac} \rangle}$		
	[%]		
April 2, 2008	4.0	0.967	0.887
April 3, 2008	2.9	0.9998	0.968
April 7, 2008	2.7	0.9997	0.961
April110, 2008	0.4	0.983	0.927
March 13, 2009	5.6	0.989	0.963
March 17, 2009	3.7	0.9997	0.872
March 18, 2009	0.2	0.999	0.964
April 22, 2009	0.5	0.9999	0.993
April 24, 2009	3.3	0.980	0.957
May 4, 2009	4.9	0.972	0.896
May 5, 2009	11.2	0.932	0.929
March 18, 2010	2.5	0.995	0.933
March 19, 2010	4.3	0.985	0.946

346

The reflected radiation measured by the left and right pyranometers was practically identical unless the helicopter was tilted sideways. The fuselage of the helicopter did not shade the downwards looking pyranometers, but the skids of the helicopter and the black plates between the sensors and the fuselage occluded their view to some extent. As the configuration was the same for all flights, it was sufficient to determine the calibration coefficient  $c_r$  of the reflected radiation only once using the data of the best day, April 22, which was perfectly clear at the time window of the calibration. So,  $c_r$  was calculated from

354  
355 
$$c_r = \frac{\langle I_r \rangle}{\langle (I_{rleft} + I_{rright})/2 \rangle}$$
 (6)

356

where  $\langle I_r \rangle$  was the temporal mean of the reflected radiation observed at the mast during the time (UTC 7:42:15 – 7:47:35) the helicopter was hovering in its vicinity at the same altitude and  $\langle (I_{rleft} + I_{rleft})/2 \rangle$  was the mean of the reflected radiation of the left and right downwards

looking pyranometers of the helicopter, recorded at the same time window as  $\langle I_r \rangle$ . As the altitude of the pyranometers at the mast is 45 m above ground, they get 90% of the reflected

radiation from an area having a radius of 450 m. Hence, in direct illumination conditions it does

not matter much that the helicopter was hovering at a point about 140 m from the mast.

However, for diffuse radiation (March 13, 2009) the reflected radiation observed at the mast was

dominated by the snow-covered clearing right beneath the mast, hence causing somewhat larger albedo value than would be that of the forest. The global radiation  $I_{gc}$  was calibrated vs. the global radiation measured at the sounding station with an interval of 1 min, because at the mast it was recorded only as 10 min averages. The correction factor  $c_m$  was defined as the ratio of the median values of  $I_{gc}$  and  $I_{gs}$ 

 $371 c_m = \frac{f_{\widetilde{gs}}}{f_{\widetilde{gc}}} (7)$ 

372

where ~ denotes the median. The first estimate for the true airborne global radiation  $I_{ga}$  is then 374

$$\hat{I}_{ga} = c_m I_{gc} \tag{8}$$

where  $\wedge$  denotes an estimated value. Some flights had two or three distinct relatively constant flight altitudes. Then the value for  $c_m$  was derived separately for the patches of constant altitude. The  $c_m$  value of the lowest altitude was used for the rest of the data.

380

So far, the calibration of the airborne global radiation could be of high quality only, if the flight altitude were so small that atmospheric effect on it does not have to be taken into account. However, taking the atmosphere into account requires some knowledge of the surface albedo. Hence, we used the calibration derived so far to retrieve as input for the atmospheric calibration the temporary surface albedo estimates that are derived as follows

$$\hat{\alpha}_a = \frac{c_r (I_{rleft} + I_{rright})/2}{c_m I_{gc}} \qquad . \tag{9}$$

388

389 2.3.3 Flight altitude correction

The next step of the calibration was to take into account the effect of the flight altitude (Boers et al., 1998). The diffuse and global irradiance measured at the sounding station were used to retrieve the direct (but attenuated) solar radiation S, which is the difference of the global and diffuse irradiance. Then the optical thickness  $\tau$  of the atmosphere (at the surface) was derived from the equation (Sekera and Kahle, 1966; Kahle, 1968)

396 
$$S = \pi F_0 \mu_0 e^{-\tau/\mu_0}$$
 , (10)

397

395

where  $\pi F_0$  is the incident flux and  $\mu_0$  is the cosine of the solar zenith angle  $\theta_0$ . The variation of the airborne global and reflected radiation with flight altitude were taken into account by assuming that the optical thickness is linearly related to the flight altitude and the height of the tropopause was taken to be 8.5 km (which is a realistic value for the polar areas in winter (Geerts and Linacre, 1997). The linearity assumption is reasonable, as the flight altitude was relatively low (50 m ... 1 km). The global and reflected radiation values were transformed from the flight altitude values to surface values by the relationship of the upward  $H_d$  and downward  $G_d$  radiation dependence on the altitude and optical thickness of the atmosphere (Kahle, 1968)

407 
$$G_d = \pi F_0 \mu_0 \left[ \frac{\gamma_l(\mu_0) + \gamma_r(\mu_0)}{2(1 - A\bar{s})} \right]$$
(11)

408

406

409 
$$H_{u} = \pi F_{0} \mu_{0} \left[ 1 - (1 - A) \frac{\gamma_{l}(\mu_{0}) + \gamma_{r}(\mu_{0})}{2(1 - A\bar{s})} \right]$$
(12)  
410

411 where *A* is the ground reflectivity and the functions  $\gamma_l$ ,  $\gamma_r$  and  $\bar{s}$  are defined by Chandrasekhar 412 (Kahle, 1968). They are calculated using the table compiled by Natraj and Hovenier (2012). The 413 correction factors for  $c_a$  related to removal of the effect of the flight altitude is obtained from

414  
415 
$$c_a = \frac{\frac{\gamma_{la}(\mu_0) + \gamma_{ra}(\mu_0)}{2(1 - A\bar{s}_a)}}{\frac{\gamma_l(\mu_0) + \gamma_r(\mu_0)}{2(1 - A\bar{s})}}$$
(13)

416

420

422

417 where the values for  $\gamma_{l}$ ,  $\gamma_{r}$  and  $\bar{s}$  are calculated at the surface and for  $\gamma_{la}$ ,  $\gamma_{ra}$  and  $\bar{s}_{a}$  at the flight 418 altitude, which was available for each point from the pressure gauge. Here we used  $A = \hat{\alpha}_{a}$ . The 419 airborne global  $I_{ga}$  and reflected  $I_{ra}$  radiation corrected for the altitude are now

$$421 I_{ga} = c_a I_{gc} (14)$$

423 
$$I_{ra} = (I_{rleft} + I_{rright})/2 + (1 - c_a)I_{gc}$$
424 (15)

Since  $c_a \le 1$ , the reflected radiation is larger, the global radiation smaller and the surface albedo larger than the ones measured at higher altitudes. However, at this stage the measured radiation components are corrected only for the altitude and the configuration of the shading effect correction presented in the previous section must still be carried out.

#### 430 2.3.4 Final radiation magnitude calibration

The global radiation was now corrected for the configuration effects by requiring the median of the airborne altitude corrected global radiation to match the median of simultaneous global radiation measurements at the sounding station like in Eq. 7 so that the completely calibrated airborne global radiation  $I_{gt}$  is

$$I_{gt} = c_t I_{ga} (17)$$

439

The completely calibrated airborne reflected radiation  $I_{rt}$  is obtained from

442 443  $I_{rt} = c_r I_{ra}$  (18)

444 445 using the value  $c_r = 1.1697$  derived for the clearest day, April 22, for all flights, because it is only 446 due to the geometry of the measurement configuration. The airborne calibrated albedo  $\alpha$  is 447 finally

$$448 \qquad 449 \qquad \alpha = \frac{I_{rt}}{I_{gt}} \tag{19}$$

450

441

Values for the calibration parameters  $c_m$  and  $\langle c_a \rangle$  and  $c_t$  are given in Table 4 for all 451 flights. In addition, the ratio of the mean calibrated albedo and the mean uncalibrated albedo are 452 shown for each flight. Mostly the calibration coefficients are essentially of the same order in 453 similar sky conditions. However, in May 5, 2009 the first patch had a distinctly different 454 calibration coefficient  $c_m$  due to varying cloudiness. The timing of the cloud disappearance 455 differed at the helicopter and the mast, which showed then in more distinct discrepancy of the 456 airborne and sounding station global radiation level. For the same reason on that day also the 457 global radiation measured at the mast deviated markedly from that of the sounding station (Table 458 3). Hence, the first part of the data of May 5, 2009 was discarded, because the calibration of the 459 global radiation would not have been reliable. 460

461 462

Date	Sky conditions during the azimuthal calibration	C <sub>m</sub>	$\langle c_a \rangle$	C <sub>t</sub>	$\frac{\langle \alpha \rangle}{\langle \alpha_{gc} \rangle}$
April 2, 2008	Clear (mostly)	1.15	0.993	1.16	1.04
April 3, 2008	Clear	1.09	0.974	1.12	1.13
April 7, 2008	Clear	1.20, 1.11	0.989	1.13	1.06
April110, 2008	Clear	1.12	0.996	1.13	1.04
March 13, 2009	Cloudy	1.31	0.992	1.32	0.90
March 17, 2009	Perfectly clear	1.05	0.991	1.07	1.12
March 18, 2009	Clear/cloudy	1.11	0.993	1.12	1.06
April 22, 2009	Perfectly clear	1.09, 1.08	0.982	1.12	1.11
April 24, 2009	Clear -> cloudy	1.10, 1.35, 1.36	0.961	1.39	0.98
May 4, 2009	Clear -> cloudy	0.91	0.988	1.12	1.15
May 5, 2009	Cloudy -> clear	(2.02,) 0.96	0.992	(2.04,) 0.97	0.77
March 18, 2010	Clear/cloudy	0.92	0.989	0.93	0.86
March 19, 2010	Clear/cloudy	1.01	0.998	1.07	1.10

463 Table 4. Calibration coefficients for the global radiation derived for various flights. When there 464 were several constant altitudes, the coefficient  $c_m$  was derived separately for each of them.

465

466

467

468

469

- Table 5. The relationship between the airborne calibrated albedo and that measured at the
- 472 Sodankylä Heikinheimo mast. The *LAI*<sub>eff</sub> value previously measured at ground closest to the mast
- 473 was 0.41 (Manninen and Riihelä, 2009) and the airborne  $LAI_{eff}$  varied slightly at the calibration
- 474 points.
- 475

Date	Latitude	Longitude	Sky	I <sub>diffs</sub>	Solar	Albedo	at mast	Airborn	ne albedo	Airborn	ne LAI <sub>eff</sub>
				Ias	zenith	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Standard
				95	angle						deviation
April 2,	67.3617°	26.6367°	Clear	0.31	63.2°	0.185	0.184	0.206	0.204	1.17	0.11
2008											
March	67.3624°	26.6413°	Perfectly	0.94	70.1°	0.261	0.263	0.198	0.199	1.18	0.06
13, 2009			Cloudy								
April 22,	67.3622°	26.6409°	Perfectly	0.14	60.1°	0.184	0.184	0.179	0.174	1.32	0.11
2009			clear								
April 24,	-	-	Cloudy	0.73	60.1°	0.182	0.183	0.195	0.167	1.11	0.05
2009											
March	67.3621°	26.6401°	Clear	0.50	80.0°	0.211	0.211	0.221	0.224	0.72	0.09
19, 2010			/cloudy								

# 476 2.4 Airborne LAI data

The wide-optics camera data was used for LAI estimation essentially similarly as fish-eye 477 photos, the white snow serving as the background. The airborne LAI estimates were validated 478 with ground based measurements (Manninen et al., 2009; Manninen et al., 2012). The images 479 were thresholded automatically (Nobis and Hunziker 2005; Ridler and Calvard 1978) to separate 480 forest canopy pixels from the background snow. The resultant binary images were used to 481 compute canopy gap fractions for off-nadir angle ranges  $0-10^\circ$ , ...,  $10-40^\circ$ . The gap fractions 482 were used to compute LAI<sub>eff</sub> for each image using the well-known formula proposed by Miller 483 (1967). The results were compared with hemispherical fisheye images obtained in situ that were 484 analyzed in a similar manner. A simple linear regression fit between the estimates  $(LAI_{ground} =$ 485 1.03  $LAI_{eff}$  - 0.04) had an  $R^2$  of 0.96 (Manninen et al. 2012). 486

# 487 2.5 Operational radiation measurements

The global and diffuse radiation is operationally measured at Sodankylä at the FMI sounding station (67.36664°N, 26.628253°E) with a one minute interval using a Kipp & Zonen CM11 Pyranometer and a tracker. In addition, the global and reflected radiation is measured with a 10 minute interval at the Sodankylä Heikinheimo mast (67.361866°N, 26.637728°E) in a Scots pine dominated mature forest at an altitude of 45 m above the ground and well above the tree tops using a Kipp & Zonen CM11 Pyranometer.

494 2.6 Satellite data

The satellite based albedo values used in this study are the MODIS based MCD43A3 white sky and black sky albedo products (Schaaf et al. 2002). They are daily products that are based on 16 days of local solar noon data, temporally weighted to the ninth day. The data is in 500m resolution. The products include quality flags. Only data with the highest quality classification was used in this study. For March 13<sup>th</sup> and April 24<sup>th</sup> (cloudy days) the analysis is based on the WSA\_shortwave product (white sky albedo), and for the rest of the days the 501 BSA\_shortwave (black-sky-albedo) data was used. However, for the solar zenith angles of the 502 campaign the black-sky and white-sky albedo values are very similar.

503 2.7 Albedo modelling

Albedo modeling is performed using the vegetation dependent PARAS albedo model 504 (Rautiainen and Stenberg, 2005; Smolander and Stenberg, 2005; Stenberg et al., 2016). The basis 505 of the PARAS model albedo calculation is the photon recollision probability p. That is a 506 507 probability of an event in which a photon, after being scattered from a leaf in a canopy, interacts with that same canopy again. When p and leaf single scattering albedo ( $\omega_L$ ) are known, the total 508 amount of radiation scattered by the canopy is possible to estimate at any wavelength. The 509 PARAS albedo model was extended by Manninen and Stenberg (2009) by adding multiple 510 scattering between canopy and ground to include effect of highly reflective background (i.e. 511 snow). Extended PARAS model has been used to model boreal forest albedo (Manninen and 512 513 Stenberg, 2009; Manninen and Jääskeläinen, 2018; Jääskeläinen and Manninen, 2021). Detailed model formulas are presented in Appendix C. 514

The model was first compared with the vertical profile data of March 13, 2009, which 515 was a completely cloudy day. The model was used to simulate the albedo in visible and near 516 infrared bands. The broadband albedo was derived using the conversion formula by Liang 517 (2000). The broadband albedo of the forest floor was taken to be the mean of the values for 518 which LAI<sub>eff</sub> was 0, excluding one aapa mire related darker value. The corresponding spectral 519 albedo of visible and near infrared bands were obtained on the basis of the reflectance ratio of 520 those bands of the snow spectra measured in March 13, 2009 (Manninen et al., 2021). The leaf 521 single scattering albedo for the visible and near infrared bands,  $\omega_{red} = 0.068$  and  $\omega_{nir} = 0.697$ , 522 were taken to be 15% smaller than the smallest values measured by Hovi et al. (2017) for the 523 season May - October to take into account the seasonal difference. As the modelling result 524 looked convincing, those single scattering albedo values were used for all modelling 525 calculations. 526

The forest floor albedo for other days were derived similarly as for March 13, 2009. The spectral albedo ratio of March 13 was used for all pre-melt snow conditions (2008, March 2009 and 2010). For April 2009 the measured spectra of April 22, 2009 (Manninen et al., 2021) were used for deriving the forest floor spectral albedos from broadband albedo.

The model was used for normalizing the albedo values to match the solar zenith angle of 60° in order to make the albedo values of diverse days directly comparable and to be able to derive the total albedo distribution for analyzing the effect of  $LAI_{eff}$  on it. It should be noted that this could be done only for days, for which airborne  $LAI_{eff}$  data was available.

535 2.8 Analysis of airborne data

The pyranometer and camera measurements were co-registered with their independent time codes checking the match by comparison of their independent co-ordinate information. In 2008 only the camera GPS provided the altitude, which was then used for the vertical profiles, interpolating missing values linearly. In 2009 and 2010 the pressure gauge of the pyranometer system provided gap free vertical co-ordinates, which were used for the vertical profiles. The flight altitude was compared to the above sea level height of the helicopter station, which was 185 m. However, there are some hills in the flight area, so that the flight altitude is not exactly everywhere the same amount above the ground. The vertical profiles were equally high every
place and started from close to the tree top level (Figure S2 in Supplementary material). For
vertical profiles 10% difference was allowed for the left and right reflected radiation value to
have more data per profile. For other flights only a 5% difference was allowed.

The relationship between  $LAI_{eff}$  and albedo was first analyzed for each vertical profile of three individual days (April 2, 2008, March 13, 2009, and March 19, 2010). The results were compared to the PARAS modelling (Section 2.7) results. Then the PARAS model was used to normalize the albedo data to correspond to the solar zenith angle of 60° in order to be able to compare the diverse flight data with each other and to derive the albedo distribution for the region. This could be carried out only for data for which simultaneous  $LAI_{eff}$  values were available.

Finally, the airborne data was then co-registered with MODIS data by grouping the 554 airborne parameter values according to which pixel their horizontal co-ordinates were located. 555 For cloudy days (March 13, 2009 and April 24, 2009) airborne data was compared to the white-556 sky shortwave albedo product of MODIS, for the rest the black-sky shortwave albedo product 557 was used. As the MODIS product is normalized to local midday, the airborne data had to be 558 559 normalized to that. Since the scenery was very heterogeneous, it was not possible to use the PARAS model or a normalization scheme derived for a certain target (Yang et al., 2008; 560 Manninen et al., 2020). Using the whole data mass per day a statistical relationship was derived 561 by linear regression between the solar zenith angle and the albedo. Both the hyperbolic cosine of 562 563 the normalized azimuth (Manninen et al., 2020) and the cosine of the solar zenith angle using the functional form by Yang et al. (2008) were tested as predictors and the correction was the same 564 for both alternatives. This relationship was then used to normalize the airborne albedo values to 565 local noon. The comparison between the airborne and MODIS data was carried out using the 566 airborne data normalized this way. 567

- 568 3 Results
- 569 3.1 Variation of albedo with LAI

The simultaneously measured airborne albedo and LAI<sub>eff</sub> values of the three days of vertical 570 profiles (April 2, 2008, March 13, 2009 and March 19, 2010) were compared to each other and 571 572 modelling results (Figure 6). The individual outliers correspond to cases, where the area seen by the camera differs markedly from its near surroundings, which affect the albedo value. Since 573 March 13, 2009 was a completely cloudy day, there is no need to pay attention to the solar zenith 574 angle varying from profile to another. Contrarily, in April 2, 2008 and March 19, 2010, the day 575 was clear, and the solar zenith angle varied in the range  $62.6^{\circ} - 64.5^{\circ}$  and  $75.6^{\circ} - 82.6^{\circ}$ , 576 respectively. Because the sun elevation was so low, the albedo of the point in question could not 577 be accurately normalized to a fixed solar zenith angle value using only information related to 578 point itself, because the albedo would depend also on possible shading form the nearby region. 579 Hence, the data shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8 are not normalized and for 2008 and 2010 some 580 of the scatter of the points comes from varying solar zenith angle and shadows. Also, the varying 581 fraction of diffuse irradiance caused some scatter with respect to the mean modelled curve. The 582 outliers of the clear day of 2010 are clearly caused by heterogeneous surroundings. In Figure 9 583 left the LAI<sub>eff</sub> is measured at a lower altitude from the forest at the image center, but the open 584 area in its immediate vicinity increases the albedo value. In Figure 9 right the opposite effect 585

takes place, the surrounding forest decreases the albedo, but LAI<sub>eff</sub> measured at a lower altitude

has the value of the open area in the center.



- 590 Figure 6. Variation of the airborne albedo with the airborne  $LAI_{eff}$  of the vertical profiles
- 591 measured in March 13, 2009. The profile height was about 200 m. The black curve shows the

592 PARAS model result.





Figure 7. Variation of the airborne albedo with the airborne  $LAI_{eff}$  of the vertical profiles measured in April 2008. The vertical profile height was about 250 m. The solar zenith angle varied in the range  $62.6^{\circ} - 64.5^{\circ}$  and the fraction of diffuse irradiance in the range 0.21 - 0.80. The profile height was about 200 m. The dashed curve shows the PARAS model result for the mean fraction of diffuse radiation and the mean cosine of the solar zenith angle values. The forest floor broadband albedo was taken to be the mean of albedo values measured for  $LAI_{eff} = 0$ .



Figure 8. Variation of the airborne albedo with the airborne LAIeff of the vertical profiles measured in March 19, 2010. The solar zenith angle varied in the range  $75.6^{\circ} - 82.6^{\circ}$  and the fraction of diffuse irradiance in the range 0.27 - 0.63. The profile height was about 80 m. The

fraction of diffuse irradiance in the range 0.27 —0.63. The profile height was about 80 m. The
 dashed curve shows the PARAS model result for the mean fraction of diffuse radiation and the
 mean cosine of the solar zenith angle values. The forest floor broadband albedo was taken to be

the mean of albedo values measured for  $LAI_{eff} = 0$ .

609



610

Figure 9. Examples of the heterogeneity effect on the albedo, circled points of Figure 8 left (Plot



 $LAI_{eff}$  and the right image to the opposite situation.

614

The relationships between the airborne albedo and  $LAI_{eff}$  was studied also for all data, not 615 only the vertical profiles (Figure 10). All albedo values are now normalized to correspond to the 616 solar zenith angle of 60° using the PARAS model and the single scattering albedo values derived 617 from the model fit to the data of March 13, 2009. Then the spread of albedo values corresponding 618 to the same LAI<sub>eff</sub> was markedly larger than for the vertical profiles, because the albedo of the 619 snow cover beneath the canopy varied as well. To some extent the large variation may also be 620 caused by heterogeneity of the scenery, as the camera did not observe the whole area affecting 621 the reflected radiation value. It was also evident that the level of the surface albedo decreased 622 during the melting season so that at the end to if (April 24, 2009) the albedo was markedly lower 623 624 and consequently less strongly dependent on LAI<sub>eff</sub>.



626 Figure 10. The airborne albedo vs. airborne LAI<sub>eff</sub> for all data of flights in 2008, 2009 and 2010. 627 The albedo has been normalized to correspond to the solar zenith angle of  $60^{\circ}$ . 628

The whole albedo/LAIeff data set was also used to derive the relative albedo distribution, again 630 using albedo values normalized to the solar zenith angle of  $60^{\circ}$  (Figure 11). The distributions are 631 skewed to high values and beta distribution starting from the lowest value matches the shape 632 well. Beta distributions parameters were derived for the whole data and data for which LAIeff 633 exceeded 0.25 and 0.5. The mean values of the distributions are given in Table 6. This manifests 634 the effect of vegetation above snow layer on albedo. If the  $LAI_{eff}$  values smaller than 0.25 would 635 be missing (25% of all data), the albedo would decrease from 0.49 to 0.44. Further increasing the 636 minimum LAI<sub>eff</sub> to 0.5 would drop the mean albedo to 0.4. Examples of forests with these two 637 limit values are shown in Supplementary material (Figure S3). From the point of view of albedo, 638 it is not only the amount of forested area that matters, but changing an open area to vegetated has 639 a major effect. Here the effect is demonstrated with forests, but the same principle is valid for 640 shrubs and other vegetation above the snow cover. The effect of the change in LAIeff on albedo 641 decreases with increasing LAIeff. 642



645

Figure 11. The relative distribution of all airborne albedo values of 2008, 2009 and 2010 normalized to the solar zenith angle value  $60^{\circ}$  and for which airborne *LAI*<sub>eff</sub> values were

available. The yellow-gray shades are related to  $LAI_{eff}$ . The area below the red, blue, and green curves consist of albedo values for which  $LAI_{eff} = 0$ ,  $LAI_{eff} = 0.25$  and  $LAI_{eff} > 0.5$ , respectively.

650

Table 6. The beta distribution parameters for the albedo and the distribution means for the whole

data set and subsets with  $LAI_{eff}$  exceeding 0.25 and 0.5. The cumulative fractions of points with LAI<sub>eff</sub> smaller than the minimum in question are provided too.

Minimum	Cumulative fraction of values	Beta distributi	Distribution	
$LAI_{eff}$	smaller than minimum <i>LAI</i> <sub>eff</sub>	α β		mean albedo
0	0%	2.04	3.99	0.49
0.25	25%	2.11	5.14	0.44
0.5	53%	1.63	4.99	0.40

654

655

# 656 3.2 Variation of albedo with altitude / spatial resolution

The dynamic range of airborne albedo naturally decreased with increasing flight altitude 657 due to the heterogeneity of the scenery. Very large uniform forested areas just don't exist in the 658 region. On the other hand, also large open areas are rare. Already at 500 m altitude the variation 659 range of the albedo was only about half of the range achieved at very low altitudes. The albedo 660 would approach a constant value at about 1 km altitude. Since, the pyranometer response is 661 dominated by an area with a radius about 10 times the measurement altitude, this would mean 662 that a footprint of about 20 km would represent the areal average albedo. Some individual albedo 663 values were very high, close to unity. They may be related to uneven movement of the 664 helicopter, but it is also possible to get sun glints from large open areas with snow cover as 665 shown before (Manninen et al., 2019). 666



Figure 12. Albedo data from all flights vs. the flight altitude. The darkness of the point is relatedto the number of retrievals.

670 3.3 Comparison of measured albedo and satellite based albedo

The airborne albedo values were compared to the MODIS albedo product using the 671 white-sky albedo values for the cloudy days (March 13, 2009 and April 24, 2009) and black-sky 672 albedo values for the rest. Only the highest quality MODIS pixels were used. The reflected 673 radiation measured by the pyranometers comes dominantly from an area with a radius 10 times 674 the measurement altitude. Therefore, the comparison is made separately for different altitudes. 675 The airborne albedo values were directly linked with the overlapping MODIS pixels. The results 676 are shown in Figure 13 and Figures S4-S6 in the Supplementary material for the flights of years 677 2008, 2009 and 2010, respectively. For low flight altitudes the airborne measured area 678 679 represented by one albedo value could be markedly smaller than that of the MODIS pixel. Even when the spatial resolution of the airborne and MODIS albedo retrievals were about similar there 680 could be a mismatch in the albedo values due to the airborne co-ordinate being not quite at the 681 center of the MODIS pixel. Hence, in addition to direct comparison of albedo values, also daily 682 albedo distributions were compared (Figure 14 and Figures S7-S9 in the Supplementary 683 684 material).

In general, the airborne and MODIS albedo values have good agreement, but clearly 685 there is a wide variation range of airborne values corresponding to one MODIS pixel. In low 686 altitude flights the airborne albedo distribution is typically wider than the MODIS albedo 687 distribution, which is related to the larger dynamic variation of albedo in higher spatial 688 resolution. In some cases, the distributions differ, because during those flights the airborne 689 measurements have been focused for certain targets, so that the sampling does not cover the 690 whole MODIS pixel. The vertical profiles were flown above forests, hence in those days the 691 airborne distributions have more dark values (April 2, 2008; March 13, 2009 and March 19, 692 2010). In March 18, 2010, the focus was on bright targets, such as aapa mire and lake ice snow 693 cover. The darker distribution of the MODIS albedo product of April 24, 2009 as compared to 694 that of April 22, 2009 may be a result of more open water and bare soil due to the progress of 695 melting during the 16 days from which the MODIS product is compiled. In April 24, 2009 there 696 was not yet open water, hence the airborne albedo is brighter than that of the MODIS product. 697

#### The slightly brighter airborne distributions of May 4 and May 5, 2009 are due to their focus being on fractional snow cover, which was not a dominating feature at that time.

700



Figure 13. The airborne albedo values measured in April 3, 2008, March 13, March 17, and April 22, 2009 vs. the MODIS albedo value (MCD43A3, Albedo\_WSA\_shortwave for March 13 and Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave for the rest). The mean airborne value within a MODIS pixel is shown as a point and the variation range as a vertical line.

707

The large variation range of individual airborne albedo values corresponding to a MODIS pixel is to a large extent related to variation of  $LAI_{eff}$  measured from the helicopter simultaneously with the albedo (Figure 15). As the camera objective is wide optics, but not a fish-eye lens, the airborne  $LAI_{eff}$  presents the central part of the area affecting the reflected radiation value observed by the downwards looking pyranometers. If the surrounding area is completely different, then the  $LAI_{eff}$  does not correspond to the measured value well, which can be seen in individual points of Figure 15.







Figure 14. The relative distributions of airborne albedo values measured in April 2, 2008, April 717

3, 2008, April 22, 2009 and March 19, 2010 and the MODIS albedo values of corresponding 718 pixels (MCD43A3, Albedo BSA shortwave). 719

720





Figure 15. The airborne albedo values measured in March 13, 2009 vs. the MODIS albedo value 722 (MCD43A3, Albedo\_WSA\_shortwave). The individual point color is related to the 723



#### 726 4 Discussion

The presence of high vegetation at snow covered areas affects the scenery albedo in 727 different ways. Besides altering the snow microstructure and surface roughness, it casts shadows 728 on the snow surface and increases the multiple scattering of solar radiation (Manninen & 729 Stenberg 2009, Manninen & Jääskeläinen 2018; Jääskeläinen and Manninen, 2021). The large 730 effect of vegetation protruding above the snow surface on surface albedo comes from the 731 substantial spectral difference between the albedo of snow and the albedo of plant stands. 732 Therefore, the vegetation and snow scenery albedo evolves rapidly, depending closely on both 733 vegetation architecture and snow coverage and properties as a function of solar geometry. Small 734 changes in either of these can potentially have a significant effect on the albedo. 735

736 With a dense vegetation canopy the snow surface is already largely covered by vegetation, and thus the increase in LAI or vegetation coverage does not significantly affect the 737 albedo. With a sparse vegetation canopy and dominating open snow cover, increasing LAI 738 means increasing coverage and shadowing of the snow, and through that, lower wintertime 739 albedo. Even relatively small shrubs can have a significant effect in such case. For example, 740 Sturm et al. (2005) found that if shrubs protrude above the snow and cover 10% of the surface, 741 742 the albedo will decrease by 30%. With climate change also the treeline of subarctic forests has shown to move to higher altitudes (Sutinen et al., 2012), which will inevitably decrease the 743 wintertime albedo of hilly terrain. Also, in other forested parts of Finland the albedo has been 744 shown to have decreased since 1980's by 0.02 - 0.03 per decade due to increased stem volume 745 746 (Manninen et al., 2019). In the measured data of this study 25% had smaller LAI<sub>eff</sub> than 0.25, thus being targets of high risk of marked albedo change. 747

748 Several studies show changes in the vegetation of the Arctic (Piao et al. 2011, Berner et al. 2020, Buitenwerf 2015). In many places the sub-Arctic plant productivity has increased. The 749 tundra areas have witnessed a significant increase in shrub coverage and size (Forbes et al. 750 751 2010). Shrub abundance also enhances the melt in the spring causing earlier snow melt, which also decreases the albedo of the sub-Arctic and increases the absorption of solar energy to the 752 ground. This has a potentially significant effect on the surface albedo of the sub-Arctic areas, 753 754 were tundras are traditionally open areas and forest vegetation in the northern areas of the boreal forest zone is sparse. In the sub-Arctic the snow covers the ground until May, during which time 755 there is already considerable amount of sunlight. Consequently, any changes in albedo will 756 inevitably also affect the energy balance. 757

758

# 759 5 Conclusions

Helicopter can be used successfully to measure simultaneously airborne albedo and *LAI*<sub>eff</sub>. The

relationship of airborne albedo and *LAI*<sub>eff</sub> does not show a marked flight altitude dependence and

762 it agrees well with the PARAS model, which can be used for normalizing albedo to other solar

zenith angle values. The airborne albedo variation range decreases essentially, when the
 measurement altitude increases up to 500 m and reduces at about 1 km altitude to an aerial

 $^{764}$  ineastrement attrude increases up to 500 m and reduces at about 1 km attrude to an aerial average. The albedo of forested area with snow covered floor decreases with increasing  $LAI_{eff}$ ,

the change being markedly larger for smallest  $LAI_{eff}$  values. The mean albedo of the area as

presented by the measurements of this study would decrease from 0.49 to 0.44, if the points with

 $IAI_{eff}$  smaller than 0.25 (25% of all points) were removed.

The airborne albedo distributions agreed in general with those of the MODIS albedo product

MCD43A3. The differences between pixelwise values were explained by differences in spatial

resolution and representativity related to airborne measurements being focused on only certain

targets, such as forest and partial snow cover.

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- The data will be available in the FMI Research Data Repository:
- 789 https://fmi.b2share.csc.fi/.
- 790
- 791 References

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- 987 988

#### Appendix A: The flight routes during the SNORTEX campaign 989



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Figure A1. The flight routes of April 2, April 3, April 7, and April 10 in 2008. The lower left and 994

upper right corner co-ordinates are (67.25°N, 26.22°E) and (67.95°N, 27.39°E), respectively. 995

The crossroads of Sodankylä center are near the starting point of all flights. The background map 996

is provided by Wolfram Research. 997



Figure A2. The flight routes of March 13, March 17, March 18, April 22, April 24, May 4, and
May 5 in 2009. The lower left and upper right corner co-ordinates are (67.25°N, 26.22°E) and
(67.95°N, 27.39°E) for March 13; and (67.29°N, 26.55°E) and (67.5°N, 27.25°E) for the rest.

1001 The background map is provided by Wolfram Research.



Figure A3. The flight routes of April 2, April 3, April 7, and April 10 in 2008. The size of the point is related to the albedo value. The lower left and upper right corner co-ordinates are 

- (67.25°N, 26.55°E) and (67.5°N, 27.0°E). The background map is provided by Wolfram Research.

- 1010 Appendix B: Comparison of left and right pyranometer observations
- 1011

1012 Table B1. The coefficient of determination for linear relationships between the left and right

1013 global and reflected radiation measured from the helicopter for all data. Notice that the  $R^2$  values

1014 were derived for a linear regression without allowing an offset.

1015

Date	Sky conditions	$R^2$		
	azimuthal	Airborne	Airborne	
	calibration	Global	Reflected	
		Right vs. left	Right vs. left	
April 2, 2008	Clear	0.013	0.976	
April 3, 2008	Clear	0.152	0.978	
April 7, 2008	Clear	0.496	0.979	
April110, 2008	Clear	0.268	0.986	
March 13, 2009	Cloudy	0.944	0.989	
March 17, 2009	Perfectly clear	0.278	0.980	
March 18, 2009	Clear/cloudy	0.258	0.729	
April 22, 2009	Perfectly clear	0.402	0.989	
April 24, 2009	Clear -> cloudy	0.004	0.990	
May 4, 2009	Clear -> cloudy	0.006	0.995	
May 5, 2009	Cloudy -> clear	0.148	0.994	
March 18, 2010	Clear/cloudy	0.200	0.984	
March 19, 2010	Clear/cloudy	0.005	0.798	

1017 Appendix C: Albedo model formulas of the PARAS model

In the extended PARAS albedo model (Manninen and Stenberg, 2009), the black-sky spectral 1018 forest albedo ( $\alpha_{black}$ ) is a sum of four components: 1019 1020  $\alpha_{black} = \alpha_{tt} + \alpha_s + \alpha_{st} + \alpha_{ss}$ (C1) 1021 1022 where  $\alpha_{tt}$  is the pure forest floor scattering part,  $\alpha_s$  is the pure canopy scattering,  $\alpha_{st}$  denotes the 1023 multiple scattering between forest floor and canopy with the last hit from the floor, and  $\alpha_{ss}$  is the 1024 multiple scattering between forest floor and canopy with the last hit from the canopy. To achieve 1025 more compact version of the  $\alpha_{black}$ , the multiple scattering components  $\alpha_{st}$  and  $\alpha_{ss}$  are 1026 1027 reformulated: 1028  $\alpha_{black} = \alpha_{tt} + \alpha_s + \alpha'_{st} + \alpha'_{ss}$ (C2) 1029 1030 1031 1032 where  $\alpha_{tt} = k\alpha_b t_0^2 + (1-k)\alpha_b t_0 t_1$ 1033 (C3)1034  $\alpha_s = Q(1-t_0) \cdot \frac{\omega_L - p\omega_L}{1 - p\omega_L}$ 1035 (C4)1036  $\alpha'_{st} = \{\alpha_b(1-Q_b)[kt_0(1-t_0) + (1-k)t_0(1-t_1)]\} \cdot \frac{\omega_L - p\omega_L}{1-p\omega_L}$ 1037 (C5)1038  $\alpha_{ss}' = \left\{ \alpha_b \left[ (1-Q)(1-t_0) + Q_b \alpha_b t_0 \left( k(1-t_0) + (1-k)(1-t_1) \right) \right] \right\}$ 1039  $\cdot \frac{t_1(1-\omega_L+Q_b\omega_L-Q_bp\omega_L)+(1-Q_b)(\omega_L-p\omega_L)}{1-p\omega_L-Q_b\omega_L(1-t_1)(\omega_L-p\omega_L)} \cdot \frac{\omega_L-p\omega_L}{1-p\omega_L}$ 1040 (C6)1041 1042 1043 Now  $\alpha'_{st}$  consists of the portion of multiple scattering where radiation escapes upwards from 1044 canopy scattering after being first scattered from the forest floor, and  $\alpha'_{ss}$  contains the rest of the 1045 1046 multiple scattering (including radiation scattering several times between canopy and forest floor). 1047 1048 The uncollided canopy transmittance in direct  $(t_0)$  and diffuse  $(t_1)$  radiation conditions are: 1049  $t_0 = exp\left(-\frac{G \cdot LAI_{eff}}{\cos(\theta)}\right)$ 1050 (C7)1051 1052 and 1053  $t_1 = exp(-G \cdot LAI_{eff})(1 - G \cdot LAI_{eff}) - (G \cdot LAI_{eff})^2 Ei(-G \cdot LAI_{eff})$ 1054 (C8)1055 1056 where  $\theta$  is the solar zenith angle, G is the radiation extinction coefficient of a uniform leaf canopy, LAI<sub>eff</sub> is the effective leaf area index, and Ei is the exponential integral. 1057

The formula for photon recollision probability *p* is from Stenberg (2007): 1058

 $\alpha_{white} = \alpha_{difftt} + \alpha_{diffs} + \alpha'_{diffst} + \alpha'_{diffss}$ 

1059  
1060 
$$\hat{p} = 1 - \frac{1 - t_1}{LAI_{eff}/\beta}$$
 (C9)

1061

where  $\beta$  is the clumping index, which equals unity for broadleaved canopy and is smaller than 1062 unity for coniferous canopy. For broadleaved forests  $\beta = 1$  and for coniferous forests  $\beta = 0.67$ 1063 (Stenberg et al., 2003). The leaf single scattering albedo  $\omega_L$ , the forest floor albedo  $\alpha_b$ , the 1064 1065 fraction of incoming radiation scattered upwards by the canopy Q, and the portion of radiation 1066 reflected by the forest floor and then scattered downwards by the canopy  $Q_h$  are all wavelength dependent parameters. Forest floor albedo is a combination of a purely Lambertian surface and a 1067 completely forward/backward scattering surface. A parameter k is used to indicate the weight of 1068 1069 the forward/backward scattering part.

1070

The white-sky spectral forest albedo ( $\alpha_{white}$ ) is modeled similarly as the black-sky albedo. Only 1071 1072 difference is that the calculations are done by integrating over solar zenith angle. The four 1073 component sum is:

(C10)

1074

1077 where

1079 
$$\alpha_{difftt} = k\alpha_b t_2 + (1-k)\alpha_b t_1^2$$
 (C11)

1080

1078

1081 
$$\alpha_{diffs} = Q(1 - t_1) \cdot \frac{\omega_L - p\omega_L}{1 - p\omega_L}$$
(C12)

1082 
$$\alpha'_{diffst} = \{\alpha_b(1-Q_b)[k(t_1-t_2) + (1-k)t_1(1-t_1)]\} \cdot \frac{\omega_L - p\omega_L}{1-p\omega_L}$$
 (C13)  
1083 and

1083 1084

1085 
$$\alpha_{diffss}' = \left\{ \alpha_b \Big[ (1-Q)(1-t_1) + Q_b \alpha_b \big( k(t_1-t_2) + (1-k)t_1(1-t_1) \big) \Big] \\ \frac{1086}{1-p\omega_L - Q_b \alpha_b (1-t_1)(\omega_L - p\omega_L)} \cdot \frac{\omega_L - p\omega_L}{1-p\omega_L} \right\} \cdot \frac{\omega_L - p\omega_L}{1-p\omega_L}$$
(C14)

1

1087

1088

1089

1090 and where

1091

$$t_2 = exp(-2G \cdot LAI_{eff}) \cdot (1 - 2G \cdot LAI_{eff}) - (2G \cdot LAI_{eff})^2 Ei(-2G \cdot LAI_{eff})$$
(C15)  
1093

In this study we used spherical G = 0.5 (assuming spherical leaf orientation distribution), and the 1094 forest floor surface was assumed to cause only diffuse scattering (k = 1), since the solar zenith 1095 angle was so small. It was also assumed that the scattering does not depend on the direction from 1096 which the photon enters the canopy, i.e.  $Q = Q_b$ , since the shape of the canopy is not described. 1097



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#### Supporting Information for

# Airborne measurements of surface albedo and leaf area index of snow-covered boreal forest

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# **Contents of this file**

Figures S1 to S9

### Introduction

This supplementary information shows Figures omitted from the actual manuscript, in which only examples were included. The Figures S1 show irradiance curves for other flight days than those shown in the manuscript. Figure 2 shows the variation of topography revealed by the starting altitudes of vertical profiles. Figure 3 shows examples of scenery related to low  $LAI_{eff}$  values. Figures S4 – S6 show comparison between the airborne albedo data and MODIS albedo product for other days than shown in the manuscript. Figures S6 – S9 show the albedo distributions of the airborne data and the MODIS product for other days/altitudes than those shown in the manuscript.





**Figure S1.** The global and diffuse radiation observed at the sounding station (solid curves) and the global radiation observed at the Sodankylä Heikinheimo mast (dashed curves) on the flight days in 2008 – 2010 not shown in the actual manuscript. The times of the flights are shown in light gray bars.



**Figure S2.** Variation of the flight altitude in March 13, 2009, when the flight plan concentrated on vertical profiles. The peaks starting from the same level above ground reveal the variation of the topography.



**Figure S3.** Examples of forests for which LAIeff = 0.25 (top) and LAIeff = 0.5 (bottom). March 13, 2009.



**Figure S4.** The airborne albedo values measured in April 2, April 7, and April 10 in 2008 vs. the MODIS albedo value (MCD43A3, Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave). The mean airborne value within a MODIS pixel is shown as a point and the variation range as a vertical line.



**Figure S5.** The airborne albedo values measured in March 18, April 24, May 4, and May 5 in 2009 vs. the MODIS albedo value (MCD43A3, Albedo\_WSA\_shortwave for April 24, Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave for the rest). The mean airborne value within a MODIS pixel is shown as a point and the variation range as a vertical line.



**Figure S6.** The airborne albedo values measured in March 18, and March 18, 2010 vs. the MODIS albedo value (MCD43A3, Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave). The mean airborne value within a MODIS pixel is shown as a point and the variation range as a vertical line.



**Figure S7.** The relative distributions of airborne albedo values measured in April 7, and April 10 in 2008 and the MODIS albedo values of corresponding pixels (MCD43A3, Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave).



**Figure S8.** The relative distributions of airborne albedo values measured in March 13, March 17, March 18, April 22 (low altitude data), April 24, May 4 and May 5 in 2009 and the MODIS albedo values of corresponding pixels (MCD43A3, Albedo\_WSA\_shortwave for March 13 and April 24, Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave for the rest).



**Figure S9.** The relative distributions of airborne albedo values measured in March 18, 2010 and the MODIS albedo values of corresponding pixels (MCD43A3, Albedo\_BSA\_shortwave)