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1 **Research highlights:**

- 2 – Assessing applicability of the tau-omega model for tree canopies.
- 3 – Determining effective values for tau and omega for conifer trees.
- 4 – Relating the effective parameters to their theoretical definitions.

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## Effective Tree Scattering and Opacity at L-Band\*

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**Abstract:** This paper investigates vegetation effects at L-band by using a first-order radiative transfer (RT) model and truck-based microwave measurements over natural conifer stands to assess the applicability of the  $\tau - \omega$  (tau-omega) model over trees. The tau-omega model is a zero-order RT solution that accounts for vegetation effects with effective vegetation parameters (vegetation opacity and single-scattering albedo), which represent the canopy as a whole. This approach inherently ignores multiple-scattering effects and, therefore, has a limited validity depending on the level of scattering within the canopy. The fact that the scattering from large forest components such as branches and trunks is significant at L-band requires that zero-order vegetation parameters be evaluated (compared) along with their theoretical definitions to provide a better understanding of these parameters in the retrieval algorithms as applied to trees. This paper compares the effective vegetation opacities, computed from multi-angular pine tree brightness temperature data, against the results of two independent approaches that provide theoretical and measured optical depths. These two techniques are based on forward scattering theory and radar corner reflector measurements, respectively. The results indicate that the

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25 effective vegetation opacity values are smaller than but of similar magnitude to both radar and  
26 theoretical estimates. The effective opacity of the zero-order model is thus set equal to the  
27 theoretical opacity and an explicit expression for the effective albedo is then obtained from the  
28 zero- and first- order RT model comparison. The resultant albedo is found to have a similar  
29 magnitude as the effective albedo value obtained from brightness temperature measurements.  
30 However, it is less than half of that estimated using the theoretical calculations (0.5 – 0.6 for tree  
31 canopies at L-band). This lower observed albedo balances the scattering darkening effect of the  
32 large theoretical albedo with a first-order multiple-scattering contribution. The retrieved effective  
33 albedo is different from theoretical definitions and not the albedo of single forest elements  
34 anymore, but it becomes a global parameter, which depends on all the processes taking place  
35 within the canopy, including multiple-scattering.

36

## 37 **1 INTRODUCTION**

38

39 Soil moisture (SM) state is a key variable of the terrestrial water cycle. Global SM observations  
40 are of value in applications involving land-atmosphere interaction studies such as climate  
41 prediction, weather forecasting, water management, agricultural productivity estimation, and  
42 flood and drought hazards monitoring (Entekhabi et al., 1999). Microwave radiometry at low  
43 frequencies, such as L-band (1–2 GHz), has a great potential to sense to surface SM even if the  
44 soil is covered with vegetation. Several microwave space missions, such as ESA's Soil Moisture  
45 Ocean Salinity (SMOS) mission and NASA's Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) mission (to  
46 be launched 2014), include an L-band radiometer and aim to provide the global measurements of  
47 the Earth's surface SM with an accuracy of  $0.04 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$  for those areas of the Earth's land

48 surface where vegetation water content (VWC) does not exceed  $5 \text{ kg.m}^{-2}$  (Kerr et al., 2010;  
49 Entekhabi et al., 2010).

50

51 For routine SM retrievals over vegetated terrain, the spaceborne baseline algorithms use the tau-  
52 omega model (Mo, et al., 1982), a zero-order Radiative Transfer (RT) solution, due to its  
53 simplicity, and ease of inversion and implementation (Jackson, 1993; Owe et al., 2001; Njoku et  
54 al., 2003; Wigneron et al., 2007). This model links terrain geophysical variables to the observed  
55 brightness temperature through ground reflectivity and two vegetation parameters, the optical  
56 depth or opacity  $\tau$ , and the single-scattering albedo  $\omega$ . It has extensive heritage and has been  
57 effectively used in SM field campaigns (Jackson, 1993; Wigneron et al., 1995; Jackson et al.,  
58 1999) that cover grasslands, agricultural crops, and generally light to moderate vegetation.  
59 Forested areas have commonly been excluded from operational SM retrieval plans. There is  
60 some experimental and modeling evidence that microwave radiometry could be able to resolve  
61 the changes for some forest types in SM state (Lang et al., 2001; Della Vecchia et al., 2006;;  
62 Santi et al., 2009; Kurum et al., in press). However, sensitivity to SM is degraded significantly  
63 and the microwave forest emission is relatively invariable to the state of both SM and VWC  
64 (Grant et al., 2007; Della Vecchia et al. 2007; Guglielmetti et al., 2008; Grant et al., 2009;  
65 Kurum et al., submitted for publication) due to the large masking of trees on the microwave  
66 response to the underlying SM and/or the obscuring effect of the litter and understory layers.  
67 Knowledge of vegetation features at L-band appears to be of great importance for either  
68 correcting for the vegetation effects on SM retrievals or determining vegetation wet biomass  
69 itself. This paper is concerned with vegetation parameterization of the tau-omega model when  
70 applied over trees.

71 The tau-omega model loses its validity when there is dense vegetation (i.e. forest, mature corn,  
72 etc.) with scatterers, such as branches and trunks (or stalks in the case of corn), which are large  
73 with respect to the wavelength. More scattering terms (at least up to a first-order at L-band)  
74 should be included in the RT solutions for forest canopies if these are expected to be accurate. A  
75 recent study by Kurum et al., in press, proposed an additional first-order multiple-scattering term  
76 to the tau-omega model to correct for large tree scattering. This additional term represents  
77 emission by particles in the vegetation layer and emission by the ground that is scattered once by  
78 particles in the layer. The resulting model represents an improvement over the standard zero-  
79 order solution since it accounts for the scattered vegetation and ground radiation that can have a  
80 pronounced effect on the observed emissivity and subsequent SM retrieval. On the other hand, a  
81 zero-order approach might be still applied to vegetation canopies with large scatterers, using  
82 equivalent or effective vegetation parameters (Ferrazolli et al., 2002). This approach requires  
83 that the effective vegetation values (vegetation opacity and single-scattering albedo) be evaluated  
84 (compared) with theoretical definitions of these parameters for forest canopies. The purpose of  
85 this paper is to assess the applicability of the tau-omega model for tree canopies recognizing that  
86 there is increased scatter from trees as compared to grasses and crops, and to determine the  
87 effective values for tau and omega for trees and how these parameters are related to their  
88 theoretical definitions.

89

90 Only a limited number of theoretical and experimental studies have addressed the topic of  
91 effective tree parameterization (Ferrazolli et al., 2002; Saleh et al., 2002; Guglielmetti et al.,  
92 2007; Grant et al., 2008; Guglielmetti et al., 2008; Santi et al., 2009). Moreover, effective and  
93 theoretical values of vegetation parameters that are found in the literature are often limited to

94 agricultural crop data. These values are not consistent with each other, and difficult to compare  
95 due to the variety of methods and procedures employed (Van de Griend and Wigneron, 2004).  
96 As a result, there is a need to establish a direct physical link between the effective vegetation  
97 parameterization and the theoretical description of absorption and scattering within the canopy.  
98 This paper uses a first-order RT model and truck-based microwave measurements over natural  
99 conifer stands to investigate this relationship by performing a physical analysis of the scattered  
100 and emitted radiation from vegetated terrain. The microwave data used in this investigation were  
101 collected over natural conifer stands located in Maryland in 2008 and 2009 (Kurum et al.,  
102 submitted for publication). Physical measurements of the canopy and soil conditions were also  
103 made.

104  
105 Vegetation opacity of coniferous trees was obtained using three independent approaches that  
106 provide effective, measured, and theoretical estimates. Results indicate that the effective optical  
107 depth values are smaller than but of similar magnitude to both the theoretical and measured  
108 values. The effective vegetation opacity was then set equal to the theoretical opacity in the zero-  
109 order model, and an explicit expression for the effective albedo was obtained using the first-  
110 order model. The resultant albedo was found to be comparable to the effective albedo  
111 determined as a best-fit parameter that minimizes the difference between the microwave  
112 observation and that value computed from the tau-omega model. The effective omega values  
113 were less than half of the theoretical albedos [0.5 – 0.6 for tree canopies at L-band] (Ferrazolli et  
114 al, 2002; Kurum et al., in press). This effective albedo implicitly accounts for multiple-scattering  
115 effects by balancing the scattering darkening of albedo with the first-order scattering  
116 contribution.

118

119 The commonly used approach to simulating the brightness temperature of vegetated terrain is to  
120 apply Radiative Transfer (RT) theory. The RT approach is a heuristic method based on the law  
121 of energy conservation that starts with the RT equation, which governs the transport of specific  
122 intensity through a random medium (Chandrasekhar, 1960). The theory assumes independent  
123 scattering and ignores coherent effects. The RT equation can be formulated for a continuous  
124 medium (Ishimaru, 1978; Fung, 1982; Wigneron et al, 1993) or a discrete medium (Tsang et al.,  
125 1985; Saatchi et al, 1994; Chauhan et al., 1994; Ferrazolli and Guerriero, 1996; Karam, 1997;  
126 Kurum et al., in press). The discrete modeling is more appropriate for a medium such as  
127 vegetation in which the individual scatterers have discrete configurations and have a dielectric  
128 constant that is distinct from the background (air). In the discrete approach, the vegetation layer  
129 is represented as an ensemble of scatterers. The scatterers are described by specified orientation,  
130 size, and position statistics. The layer is situated over a homogenous dielectric half-space  
131 representing the ground. The interface between the ground and canopy can be assumed to be  
132 rough. The different types of scatterers are usually assumed to be uniformly located within the  
133 vegetation layer, and to have canonical shapes. Leaves are modeled as dielectric disks (Le Vine  
134 et al., 1983; Le Vine et al., 1985). Branches and trunks are modeled as finite length dielectric  
135 cylinders of commensurate dimensions (Seker and Schneider, 1988; Karam et al., 1988). The  
136 single scattering characteristics of these constituents, when averaged, determine the attenuation  
137 and scattering properties of the canopy. The advantage of the discrete approach is that the results  
138 are expressed in terms of quantities (plant geometry and orientation statistics) that are related to  
139 the biophysical properties of individual plants.

140 RT theory can treat single and multiple-scattering in a medium consisting of random discrete  
141 scatterers. There are a number of approaches that can be used to calculate the multiple-  
142 scattering. This includes combining scattering contributions through exact numerical solutions  
143 (Tsang et al., 1985), a matrix doubling algorithm (Ferrazzoli and Guerriero, 1996), and iterative  
144 methods (Tsang et al., 1985; Karam, 1997; Kurum et al., in press). An RT-based model in  
145 conjunction with the matrix-doubling algorithm was implemented by Ferrazzoli and Guerriero,  
146 1996, and validated with various vegetation canopy data including forest. This model considers  
147 the multiple-scattering effects associated with the volume scattering and the interactions between  
148 multiple-layers in the vegetation canopy and the underlying ground surface. Karam, 1997,  
149 modeled the vegetation as a multi-layer random medium above a rough surface. This multi-layer  
150 model is based on an iterative solution of the RT equations using single scattering albedo as a  
151 perturbation (small) parameter. The model was validated with experimental data acquired over  
152 corn and soybean crops and also used to simulate emission from a walnut canopy. Alternatively,  
153 Peake's emissivity formula (Peake, 1959) in conjunction with a single scattering approximation  
154 (Lang, 1981), which is called Distorted Born Approximation (DBA), was implemented by  
155 Saatchi et al., 1994, and Chauhan et al., 1994 for a variety of land covers including grass and  
156 corn. Later, the same model was used to simulate emission from a forest canopy (Lang et al.,  
157 2001; Lang et al., 2006). Recently, Kurum et al., in press, developed a new microwave  
158 radiometry model that considers first-order scattering at L-band. The model was first validated  
159 against experimental data acquired over deciduous trees. It was then adapted to conifer trees  
160 which included a new representation of the forest floor (Kurum et al., submitted for publication).  
161 The model is based on an iterative solution of the RT equations by implementing the method of  
162 successive orders of scattering (Lenoble, 1985). The approach provides explicit expressions for

163 the zero- and first-order scattering and emission processes that occur within the canopy. The  
164 zero- and first-order RT solutions of this approach are summarized below.

165

## 166 **2.1 Zero-Order Solution**

167

168 The zero-order RT solution represents the solution to the non-scattering RT equations, where  
169 scattering is largely ignored by setting the scattering source functions to zero (Mo et al.,  
170 1982). This solution is also known as the tau-omega model. In this approximation, the  
171 vegetation canopy is treated as a bulk attenuating layer and scattering effects are introduced  
172 by means of a single-scattering albedo. The tau-omega model is given by

$$e_p^{(0)}(\theta) = [1 - \gamma_p^2(\theta)R_{gp}(\theta)] - \omega_p(\theta)[1 + \gamma_p(\theta)R_{gp}(\theta)][1 - \gamma_p(\theta)] \quad (1.a)$$

173

174 where the ambient soil and vegetation temperatures are assumed approximately equal, the  
175 subscript  $p$  denotes vertical or horizontal polarization, i.e.,  $p = h$  or  $v$ . The first term  
176 represents the non-scattering case (independent of scattering albedo) and is also equivalent to  
177 the zero-order solution of the albedo expansion for canopies having uniform physical  
178 temperature profiles (Karam, 1997). The second term represents scattering darkening due to  
179 albedo. The combination of the first two terms represents the zero-order solution.

180

181 In (1.a), the quantity  $\gamma_p(\theta)$  is the vegetation transmissivity, which is parameterized as

$$\gamma_p(\theta) = e^{-\tau_p \sec \theta} \quad (1.b)$$

182

183 where  $\tau_p(\theta)$  is the vegetation opacity or optical thickness and is given by

$$\tau_p(\theta) = \kappa_{ep}(\theta)d \quad (1.c)$$

184

185 where  $\theta$  is the observation angle from the nadir,  $d$  is thickness of the vegetation layer, and  
 186 the volume extinction coefficient is defined by (Tsang et al., 1985):

$$\kappa_{ep}(\theta) = \frac{4\pi}{k_0} \sum_{\alpha} \rho_{\alpha} \Im m \{ \langle f_{fpp}^{(\alpha)} \rangle \} \quad (1.d)$$

187

188 where  $f_{fpp}^{(\alpha)}$  is the forward scattering amplitude of the  $\alpha^{th}$  type of scatterer and each scatterer  
 189 type  $\alpha$  can be branch, leaf/needle, or trunk. The number density of each scatterer type  $\alpha$  is  
 190 denoted by  $\rho_{\alpha}$ , and  $k_0 = 2\pi/\lambda_0$  is the wave number where  $\lambda_0$  is the free space wavelength.  
 191 The sum is over all types of particles of which the vegetation is comprised. The angular  
 192 brackets in this formula denote ensemble average over the angular and size statistics of  
 193 particles. The tree site considered in this paper (refer to Section 3) is composed of natural  
 194 Virginia pine (*Pinus virginiana*) trees. The pine needles are represented by average-size  
 195 circular cylinders; hence, the averaging is done for orientation angles only. The trunks are  
 196 vertical and for the stand studied here have a typical size. No averaging is therefore  
 197 performed on trunks. The branch sizes are divided into several groups having an average  
 198 length and diameter. An average orientation is then determined for each branch group.

199

200 An alternative empirical method widely used in the literature in determining the vegetation  
 201 attenuation (Jackson and O'Neill, 1990; Jackson and Schmugge, 1991) is to relate the nadir  
 202 optical depth to the vegetation water content (*VWC*) by

$$\tau_p(\theta = 0^\circ) = b_p \times VWC \quad (1.e)$$

203

204 where  $b_p$  is an empirically determined constant based on vegetation type and polarization.

205 Le Vine and Karam, 1996, have showed that for canopies whose structure (i.e. branches,

206 trunks, etc.) are large compared to wavelength, the linear relation between attenuation and

207  $VWC$  does not hold and the  $b_p$ -parameter becomes a complex function of frequency,  $VWC$ ,

208 and architecture. As a result, this approach is more appropriate for agricultural crops at L-

209 band.

210

211 In (1.a), the single scattering albedo is denoted by  $\omega_p(\theta)$  and is given by (Tsang et al., 1985):

$$\omega_p(\theta) = \frac{\kappa_{sp}}{\kappa_{sp} + \kappa_{ap}} \quad (1.f)$$

212

213 where  $\kappa_{sp}$  is the scattering coefficient of the layer while  $\kappa_{ap}$  represents the total absorption

214 coefficient. This is the albedo of the average scatterer in the canopy since the canopy is

215 composed of more than one scatterer type. It represents the fractional power scattered from

216 the average particle. In the case of a forest canopy, the scattering from large vegetation

217 components such as branches and trunks is significant. The values of the composite albedos

218 for both polarizations are generally in the range of 0.5 - 0.6 (Ferrazolli et al, 2002; Kurum et

219 al., in press). This large albedo of a tree canopy leads to scatter-induced reduction in

220 brightness temperature, and this scattering darkening effect for vegetation canopies (with

221 large scatterers) should be balanced with a multiple-scattering contribution, which is missing

222 in the tau-omega model.

223

224 Finally,  $R_{gp}(\theta)$  is the microwave reflectivity of the forest floor. The ground under the tree  
225 canopy being considered here (refer to Section 3) was relatively smooth, where the surface  
226 *rms* height was on the order of 0.0–0.5 cm. Thus surface variation is rather low compared to  
227 the wavelength at L-band. As a result, only the coherent component of the surface roughness  
228 is important, and the diffuse component is ignored. It is also assumed that the rough surface  
229 under the forest follows Kirchhoff's approximation and has a Gaussian height distribution  
230 (Choudhury et al., 1979); therefore, the reflectivity of the rough surface is expressed as

$$R_{gp}(\theta) = \Gamma_{gp}(\theta)e^{-h \cos^2 \theta} \quad (1.g)$$

231  
232 where  $\Gamma_{gp}(\theta)$  is the *p*-polarized Fresnel reflectivity of the average dielectric surface and the  
233 roughness height parameter is given by  $h = 4\sigma^2 k_0^2$  in terms of surface rms height,  $\sigma$  and the  
234 wave number  $k_0$ .

235  
236 In addition to roughness, for the study site used here, a moist organic litter layer needs to be  
237 considered. A litter layer can alter surface reflectivity significantly as verified by recent  
238 theoretical and experimental studies (Grant et al., 2007; Della Vecchia et al., 2007;  
239 Guglielmetti et al., 2008; Grant et al., 2009; Kurum et al., submitted for publication). In this  
240 paper, the ground reflectivity,  $\Gamma_{gp}(\theta)$ , is calculated using a recently developed three-layer  
241 soil model that includes a litter layer, an organic transition layer, and mineral soil (Kurum et  
242 al., submitted for publication). Ground observations collected approximately coincident with  
243 microwave measurements are utilized in this calculation.

244

245

## 2.2 First-Order Solution

247

248 The first-order solution of the RT equation with respect to the scattering source function is  
249 obtained by using the zero-order RT brightness temperature as an exciting source (Kurum et  
250 al., in press). This formulation adds a new scattering term to the tau-omega model. The  
251 improved model has an advantage over the conventional tau-omega model because the first-  
252 order solution accounts for scattering of the radiated emission from the ground and the  
253 vegetation layer. The first-order solution from the forest canopy leads to the following  
254 expression:

255

$$e_p^{(1)}(\theta) = e_p^{(0)}(\theta) + \Omega_p(\theta) \quad (2.a)$$

256

257 where the ambient temperatures of the vegetation layer and the ground are assumed to be the  
258 same, the polarization  $p$  can be horizontal ( $h$ ) or vertical ( $v$ ), and the quantity  $e_p^{(0)}(\theta)$  is the  
259 zero-order solution given in (1.a). The parameter  $\Omega_p(\theta)$  denotes the additional scattering  
260 contribution to the zero-order model. It represents the emission from the ground and the  
261 vegetation layer that is single-scattered from tree trunks, branches, and needles. The  
262 scattering component  $\Omega_p(\theta)$  is composed of eight terms representing different scattering-  
263 mechanisms, which are given by:

264

$$\Omega_p(\theta) = \sum_j \left\{ \Omega_{jp}^{(s1)}(\theta) + \Omega_{jp}^{(sr1)}(\theta) \right\} \quad (2.b)$$

265

266 where the summation index  $j \in \{G, U, D, DG\}$  denotes the scattering-mechanism types, i.e.,  
267 the subscripts  $G, U, D$ , and  $DG$  refer to the scattered radiation contributions due to ground  
268 emission, up-welling emission, down-welling emission, and down-welling emission followed  
269 by ground reflection, respectively. The scattered radiation from each mechanism arrives at  
270 the receiver either directly (denoted by  $s1$ ) or through reflection from the ground (denoted by  
271  $sr1$ ). The pictorial illustration of the scattering processes and the explicit expressions for  
272 each scattering term are given in Kurum et al., in press.

273

### 274 **3 MICROWAVE MEASUREMENTS OVER PINE TREES**

275

276 The L-band microwave instrument system used in this study is called ComRAD for Combined  
277 Radar/Radiometer (O'Neill et al., 2006). The system is mounted on a 19-m hydraulic boom  
278 truck and has been developed jointly by NASA/GSFC and George Washington University. It  
279 includes a dual-pol 1.4 GHz radiometer and a quad-pol 1.25 GHz radar sharing the same 1.22-m  
280 parabolic dish antenna with 3-dB beamwidth of approximately  $12^\circ$ . The ComRAD's radiometer  
281 is a total power radiometer with a two-point internal calibration. The absolute accuracy and the  
282 sensitivity of the instrument are  $\pm 1$  K and  $\pm 0.1$  K, respectively. The truck radar system is  
283 configured around an Agilent E5071B ENA series vector network analyzer and operates in a  
284 stepped-frequency mode for all linear polarization combinations. External calibration of the  
285 radiometer is achieved using cold sky and ambient microwave absorber targets during each  
286 measurement run, while radar calibration is achieved using known microwave reflectors (flat  
287 disks and dihedral) at the beginning and end of each extended measurement series.

288

289 The ComRAD system was deployed to a coniferous tree site at NASA GSFC's Goddard  
290 Geophysical and Astronomical Observatory (GGAO) campus in Greenbelt, Maryland, USA in  
291 2008 and 2009 in order to provide active/passive measurements under controlled conditions. The  
292 overall goal of the experiment was to improve our understanding of the microwave properties of  
293 trees and their effect on SM retrieval algorithms. The passive dual-polarized microwave  
294 measurements were acquired over a natural stand of Virginia pine trees at multiple incidence  
295 angles (from 15° to 55° at 10° increments) with three different azimuth locations for each  
296 incidence angle. Good dynamic range of ground moisture [a site-calibrated theta probe (TP)  
297 readings varied 0.05 – 0.30 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>] under the pine trees was encountered during the entire  
298 campaign. The site was divided into two equal plots of 60° sectors. This analysis focuses on  
299 the data collected at one plot only (plot A). In addition to the regular observations, a separate  
300 radar experiment with and without a trihedral corner reflector (1.22-m front edge length) under  
301 trees of plot A was carried out on September 15, 2009 as shown in **Fig. 1**. The goal of this  
302 experiment was to measure forest opacity directly by using changes in the radar backscatter as an  
303 independent estimate. The data were collected at a 45° incidence angle only and at 19 different  
304 azimuth locations (from 0° to 90° with 5° increments) to obtain an average.

305

306 The Virginia pine forest stand under investigation has an average height of 12-m, an average  
307 basal area of 34 m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup>, and an average diameter at breast height of 12.6 m. Virginia pine is a  
308 medium sized evergreen conifer and is native to North America. The bark is thin, dark reddish-  
309 brown and is broken into shallow plates. The short needles (4 cm to 8 cm) of Virginia pine range  
310 from dark green to gray green to yellow-green and are usually twisted and in pairs. These trees  
311 have a tendency to maintain a substructure of needleless branches (dead). The average leaf area

312 index (LAI) was measured 2.66 with a standard deviation of 0.16, which indicates a very  
313 homogeneous vegetation canopy. The forest floor has a distinct needle litter layer (undergone  
314 little or no decomposition) over an organic humus transition layer (partially and fully  
315 decomposed organic materials) lying on a well drained mineral soil. The average thickness of  
316 the litter layer was 0.8 cm. The organic humus layer thickness was 2.2 cm. The soils were loamy  
317 sand, with textures varying from 57% sand, 13.6% clay to 87% sand, 3.4% clay depending on  
318 location within the site. Surface roughness was very small, with an *rms* roughness height < 0.5  
319 cm. More information on the ground and vegetation characteristics can be found in Kurum et al.,  
320 submitted for publication.

321

#### 322 **4 ZERO-ORDER RADIATIVE TRANSFER PROPERTIES OF FOREST CANOPIES**

323

324 Rigorous models with many input variables, such as the first-order RT model summarized in  
325 section 2, require a detailed knowledge of the vegetation and ground characteristics. These  
326 complex models are useful for understanding the sensitivity of the microwave sensor response to  
327 the forest canopy and underlying ground. On the other hand, simple models that require fewer  
328 parameters and *a priori* information, such as the tau-omega model, are necessary as they are to  
329 be implemented operationally in reliable inversion algorithms for sensors with a limited number  
330 of observations. There are a number of approaches that can be used to retrieve SM from low  
331 frequency passive microwave observations (Jackson, 1993; Owe et al., 2001; Njoku et al., 2003;  
332 Wigneron et al., 2007). Almost all of these are founded on the same zero-order RT solution (tau-  
333 omega model) due to its simplicity, ease of inversion and implementation, and its extensive  
334 validation over light to moderate vegetation.

335 Although it is not really suitable for forests, given the increased scatter from trees compared to  
 336 grasses and crops, Ferrazzoli et al., 2002, proposed that the same zero-order approach might be  
 337 applied to vegetation canopies with large scatterers, and that equivalent or effective parameters  
 338 could be used. The basis of this approach lies in exploiting multi-angular and dual-polarization  
 339 emissivity data in order to simultaneously retrieve geophysical products such as vegetation  
 340 characteristics. The retrieved vegetation parameters are calibrated by means of a theoretical  
 341 multiple-scattering model. Recently, this approach was tested using L-band microwave  
 342 measurements over a coniferous (pine) and deciduous forest Grant et al., 2008.

343

344 The values of the effective vegetation optical depth  $\bar{\tau}_e$  and single scattering albedo  $\bar{\omega}_e$  are  
 345 calculated by minimizing the following merit function:

346

$$\min \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{p=h,v} \left[ e_p^{(0)}(\bar{\tau}_e, \bar{\omega}_e, \theta_i) - e_{mp}(\theta_i) \right]^2} \quad (3)$$

347

348 where  $\bar{\tau}_e$  and  $\bar{\omega}_e$  act as free parameters and are defined as independent of polarization and angle,  
 349  $\theta_i$  is the observation angle from the nadir,  $N$  is the number of available incidence angles,  $e_{mp}$   
 350 is the measured  $p$ -polarized emissivity (the ratio of the measured brightness and the ambient  
 351 temperatures), and  $e_p^{(0)}$  is the modeled  $p$ -polarized zero-order RT solution given in (1.a). The  
 352 subscript  $p$  denotes polarization [horizontal ( $h$ ) or vertical ( $v$ )]. In this minimization, it is  
 353 assumed that surface reflectivities are known *a priori*. The ground parameters collected  
 354 approximately coincident with microwave measurements are utilized in conjunction with a three-  
 355 layer dielectric forest floor model given in Kurum et al., submitted for publication.

356 The minimization procedure is applied to the multi-angular and dual-polarized microwave data  
357 collected at the Virginia Pine forest site at different days (from August 1, 2008 to April 23,  
358 2009). **Fig. 2** shows the plot of the measured emissivity data (collected on September 8, 2008)  
359 over the observation angles from  $15^\circ$  to  $55^\circ$  along with the results of the fitted zero-order tau-  
360 omega model. As seen from this example plot, the zero-order fit curve captures the angular and  
361 polarization behavior of the data well. The polarization and angular dependence of the best-fit  
362 zero-order emissivity stems from the polarization and angle discrimination in the surface  
363 reflectivities only since the opacity and albedo values in (3) were assumed to be independent of  
364 both polarization and angle of incidence. **Fig. 3** shows the retrieved vegetation opacities and  
365 single scattering albedo values for each day. The average effective vegetation optical depths for  
366 all measurements was  $0.91 \pm 0.10$  and the average effective albedo value was  $0.29 \pm 0.10$ .  
367 These results need to be evaluated in the context of their theoretical definitions in order to  
368 provide a better understanding of these parameters in the retrieval algorithms over trees. Here,  
369 the effective vegetation opacities will be compared against the results of two independent  
370 approaches that provide optical depths, theoretical and measured. The theoretical technique is  
371 based on the forward scattering theory and the measured on the radar corner reflector  
372 observations. Following this analysis, an explicit expression for the effective albedo is then  
373 obtained from the zero- and first- order RT model comparison.

374

## 375 **4.1 Opacity Comparison**

### 376 *4.1.1 Corner reflector approach:*

377 The forest opacity can also be measured directly by means of radar measurements with  
378 trihedral corner reflectors. The corner reflectors are widely used for external radar

379 calibration since they yield large backscattering radar cross sections over wide azimuth and  
 380 elevation angular ranges (Ulaby and Elachi, 1990). This approach is based on the expected  
 381 strong return from a corner reflector under trees. It assumes that coupling between the corner  
 382 reflector and the surrounding background and trees is small. Basically, the ratio between co-  
 383 polarized radar backscatter measurements with the corner reflector under trees and in an open  
 384 area provides the loss in propagation through trees. This retrieved forest opacity represents  
 385 the measured opacity  $\tau_{mp}$ , which is given by:

$$386 \quad \tau_{mp} = -\frac{\cos \theta}{2} \ln \frac{\sigma_{ppmTC}^0 - \sigma_{ppmT}^0}{\sigma_{ppmBC}^0 - \sigma_{ppmB}^0} \quad (4.a)$$

387

388 where

$$\sigma_{ppmB}^0 = \sigma_{ppb}^0 \quad (4.b)$$

$$\sigma_{ppmBC}^0 = \sigma_{ppb}^0 + \sigma_{ppc}^0 \quad (4.c)$$

$$\sigma_{ppmT}^0 = \sigma_{ppd}^0 + \sigma_{ppdr}^0 \quad (4.d)$$

$$\sigma_{ppmTC}^0 = \sigma_{ppd}^0 + \sigma_{ppdr}^0 + e^{-2\tau_{mp} \sec \theta} \sigma_{ppc}^0 \quad (4.e)$$

389

390 The quantity  $\sigma_{ppmT}^0$  is the measured backscattering coefficient from trees and it is composed  
 391 of volume ( $\sigma_{ppd}^0$ ) and double interaction terms [ $\sigma_{ppdr}^0$ ] (Chauhan et al., 1991). The  
 392 backscattering coefficient of the measurement with the trihedral corner reflector under trees

393 is denoted by  $\sigma_{ppmTC}^0$  and it includes a return from the corner reflector ( $\sigma_{ppc}^0$ ) attenuated by  
394 the vegetation volume ( $e^{-2\tau_{mp} \sec \theta}$ ). The radar measurement of the background in an open  
395 field ( $\sigma_{ppb}^0$ ) is represented by  $\sigma_{ppmB}^0$  and the measurement of the trihedral corner reflector in  
396 an open area is denoted by  $\sigma_{ppmBC}^0$ .

397

398 **Fig. 4** shows the measured vegetation opacity values obtained at an angle of incidence of  
399  $45^\circ$  using the radar returns with and without the trihedral corner reflector under the trees at  
400 several azimuth locations. The pictures of the trihedral taken from front and behind during  
401 the radar measured are given in **Fig. 1**. The data were collected at a  $45^\circ$  incidence angle only  
402 and at 19 different azimuth locations (from  $0^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$  with  $5^\circ$  increments) to get an average  
403 estimate. The measured vegetation optical depth at  $h$ -polarized channel is  $1.33 \pm 0.39$  while  
404 the  $v$ -polarized optical depth is  $1.12 \pm 0.38$ . Note that the outliers such as those when the  
405 reflector was blocked by a tree, are discarded from the results.

406

#### 407 *4.1.2 Theoretical approach:*

408 The vegetation propagation constant can also be determined by using the theoretical  
409 definition given in (1.c) that involves the forward scattering amplitudes of each of the tree  
410 constituents, averaged over all particle sizes and angle orientations. Since the forward  
411 scattering amplitude of an arbitrary particle is a complex quantity, this medium will attenuate  
412 the wave. This technique requires detailed measurements of size/angle distributions and  
413 dielectric constants of the tree constituents (trunk, branches, and needles). The detailed  
414 vegetation characteristics were obtained by destructive tree sampling; details are described in

415 Kurum et al., submitted for publication. The calculated forest parameters derived using this  
416 technique represent theoretical values.

417

418 In **Fig. 5**, the angular and polarization dependences of the theoretical vegetation optical depth  
419 are plotted. The figure also includes the measured *h*- and *v*-polarized average vegetation  
420 opacity at an incidence angle of 45° and the polarization independent average effective  
421 opacity obtained through minimization of (3), for comparison purposes. Based on these  
422 plots, the followings can be concluded:

423 a) The theoretical opacity depends weakly on angle and polarization. This can be  
424 attributed to the horizontal orientation of primary branches that are the main source of  
425 scattering and extinction. This result provides a basis to choosing to use effective  
426 values that are independent of polarization and angle in (3) for conifer trees, which  
427 are generally made of horizontal branches.

428 b) The measured opacities are higher than the other results, and more polarization  
429 dependent than the theoretical result at an incidence angle of 45°. This discrepancy  
430 could be attributed to the assumption to ignore the coupling between the corner  
431 reflector, the surrounding background, and trees in the radar technique, and the  
432 assumption of the uniform spatial distribution of the different types of scatterers  
433 within the vegetation layer in the vegetation scattering model.

434 c) The effective values are smaller than but of similar magnitude to both the measured  
435 and theoretical values. This implies that the opacity values retrieved by the tau-omega  
436 model could be approximated by the theoretical values and it also preserves the  
437 physical meaning.

## 4.2 Albedo Comparison

439

440 As previously mentioned, the scattering from large vegetation components such as branches  
441 and trunks is significant. The values of the composite albedos for both polarizations are  
442 generally in range of 0.5 - 0.6. This large albedo of a tree canopy leads to scatter-induced  
443 reduction in brightness temperature, and this scattering darkening effect should be balanced  
444 with a multiple-scattering contribution, which is missing in (1). The first-order RT solution  
445 is sufficient for describing emission and scattering processes within the forest canopy at L-  
446 band (Kurum et al., in press). Under the assumption that effective vegetation opacity in the  
447 tau-omega model is the same as the theoretical opacity for tree canopies (given the increased  
448 scatter from trees compared to grasses and crops), one can relate the zero-order solution  
449 given in (1.a) with an effective scattering albedo to the first-order solution given in (2.a) with  
450 the theoretical albedo i.e.,

451  
452

$$e_p^{(0)}(\bar{\omega}_{ep}, \gamma_p, R_{gp}) = e_p^{(1)}(\omega_p, \gamma_p, R_{gp}) \quad (5)$$

453  
454  
455

Upon solving eq. (5) for the effective scattering albedo yields:

456

$$\bar{\omega}_{ep}(\theta) = \omega_p(\theta) - \frac{\Omega_p(\theta)}{[1 + \gamma_p(\theta)R_{gp}(\theta)][1 - \gamma_p(\theta)]} \quad (6)$$

457  
458

459 Due to the last term in (6), the effective single scattering albedo,  $\bar{\omega}_{ep}(\theta)$ , depends on all the  
460 processes taking place within the canopy and ground. In (6), the theoretical albedo,  $\omega_p(\theta)$ ,  
461 and vegetation transmissivity,  $\gamma_p(\theta)$ , are calculated using the canopy parameters derived by

462 destructive sampling in the scattering model. The ground reflectivity,  $R_{gp}(\theta)$ , is calculated  
463 by the three-layer soil model, where the ground observations collected approximately  
464 coincident with microwave measurements are utilized. Calculation of the first-order  
465 scattering term,  $\Omega_p(\theta)$ , requires both vegetation and ground parameters.

466

467 **Fig. 6** shows results from both the theoretical albedo given in (1.f) and the simulated  
468 effective albedo given in (6) for the conifer forest as a function of incidence angle for both  
469 polarizations. As seen from the plot, the theoretical scattering albedo is around 0.6 for both  
470 polarizations and depends weakly on angle of incidence and polarization because of the  
471 horizontal orientation of the primary branches. The simulated effective albedo values are in  
472 the range of 0.2 - 0.3, which are less than half of the theoretical ones and are higher than the  
473 SMOS default albedo value of 0.1 for forest canopies (Grant et al., 2008). This reduced  
474 albedo accounts for multiple-scattering effects by balancing the scattering darkening of  
475 albedo with the first-order scattering contribution as seen from the last term in (6). The plot  
476 also indicates that effective albedo values decrease monotonically with increasing angle.  
477 This is due to the increase in the contribution of the first-order scattering with increasing  
478 angle (Kurum et al., in press).

479

480 **Fig. 7** shows the effect of ground moisture on the effective single scattering albedo. In the  
481 plot, the effective albedo values of (3) are obtained from measured data as a best-fit  
482 parameter that minimizes the difference between measured data and the zero-order RT model  
483 results for all available incidence angles while the simulated albedos are calculated from (6)  
484 at incidence angles of  $15^\circ$  and  $45^\circ$ . In the calculation of the best-fit effective albedo,

485 vegetation parameters are taken to be independent of polarization and angle while horizontal  
486 (solid lines) and vertical (dashed lines) polarizations are considered in the simulations. The  
487 results represent the albedo values over a wide range of ground conditions, where ground  
488 moisture varied between 0.05–0.30 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>. The simulation results indicate a slight  
489 increase in the effective albedo with the increase in ground moisture. On the other hand, the  
490 measured values seem to be independent of the moisture content of the ground but have a  
491 magnitude similar to the simulated ones. It can be concluded that the retrieved effective  
492 albedo is different from the theoretical definition and it is not the albedo of single forest  
493 elements anymore. It is now a global parameter, which depends on all the processes taking  
494 place within the canopy, including multiple-scattering.

495

## 496 **5 CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY**

497

498 Inversion of the tau-omega model requires effective or equivalent values for the whole canopy.  
499 There is a need to establish a direct physical link between these effective vegetation parameters  
500 and their formal definitions. This paper used a first-order RT model and truck-based microwave  
501 measurements over a natural conifer stand to investigate this relationship. Physical analysis of  
502 the scattered and emitted radiation from vegetated terrain were performed using microwave data  
503 collected over a natural conifer stand located in Maryland in 2008 and 2009.

504

505 Vegetation opacity of coniferous trees was obtained using three independent approaches that  
506 provide effective, measured, and theoretical estimates. The effective values were found to be  
507 smaller than but of similar magnitude to both measured and theoretical values. This implies that

508 the opacity values retrieved by the tau-omega model could be approximated by the theoretical  
509 values while preserving their physical meaning. An explicit expression was provided for the  
510 effective albedo by relating the zero-order model to the first-order model with an effective  
511 scattering albedo after setting the vegetation opacity of the zero-order approach equal to the  
512 theoretical opacity. This expression accounts for all the processes taking place within the canopy  
513 including multiple-scattering and ground reflection. The effective albedo was also determined as  
514 a best-fit parameter that minimizes the difference between microwave observation and the  
515 parametric model. The resulting simulated and measured effective albedos were found similar  
516 magnitude but less than half of those estimated using the theoretical definition. This reduced  
517 albedo implicitly accounts for multiple-scattering effects by balancing the scattering darkening  
518 of albedo with the first-order scattering contribution. The retrieved effective albedo is different  
519 from theoretical definitions and not the albedo of single forest elements anymore, but it becomes  
520 a global parameter, which depends on all the processes taking place within the canopy, including  
521 multiple-scattering.

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723

724

(a)



725

726

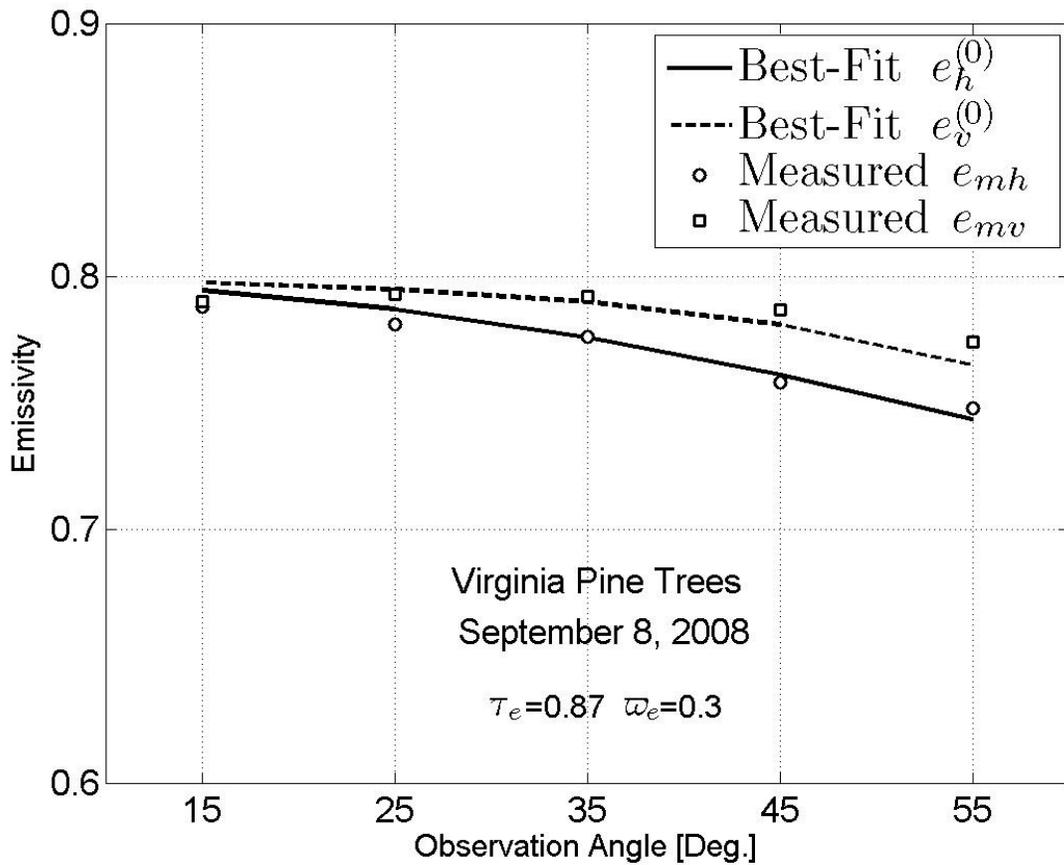
(b)

727

**Fig. 1.** Pictures of the trihedral taken from (a) front and (b) behind during the radar

728

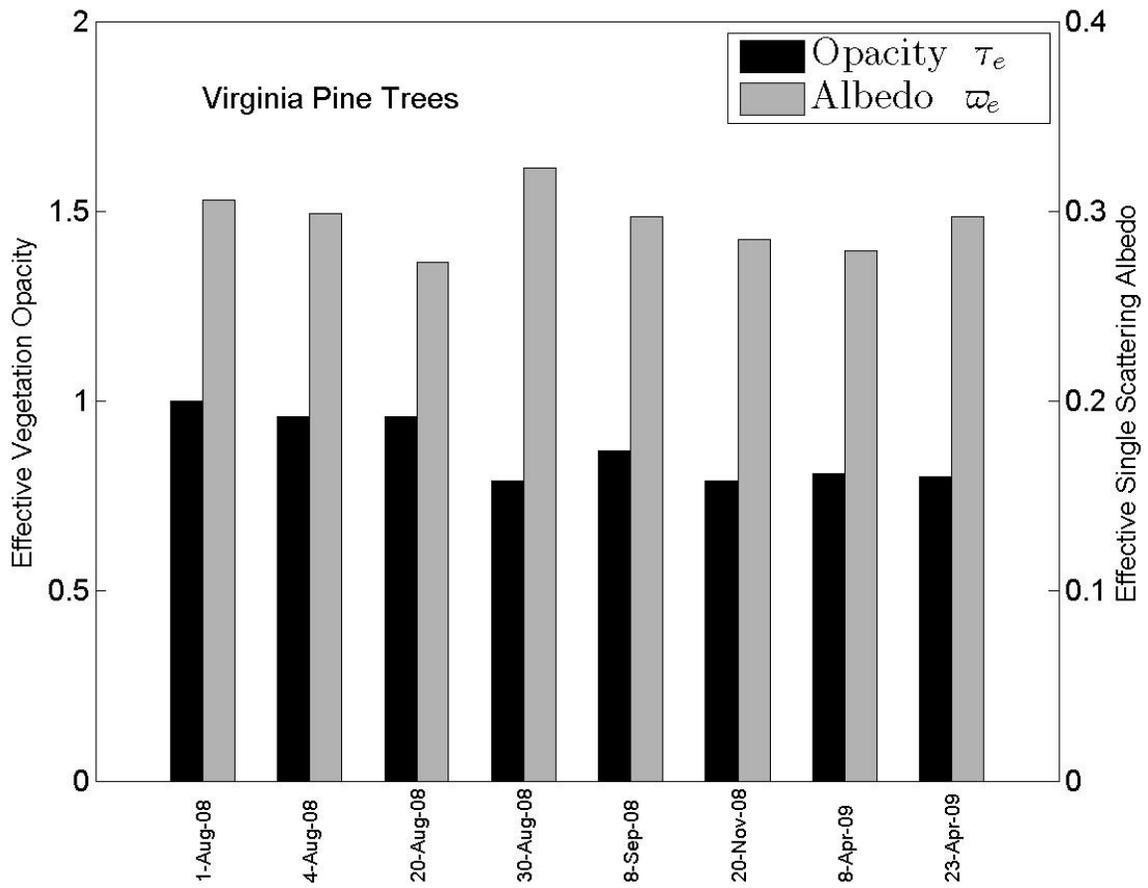
measurements.



729

730 **Fig. 2.** Radiometer angular response from Virginia pine forest and the fitted zero order model for

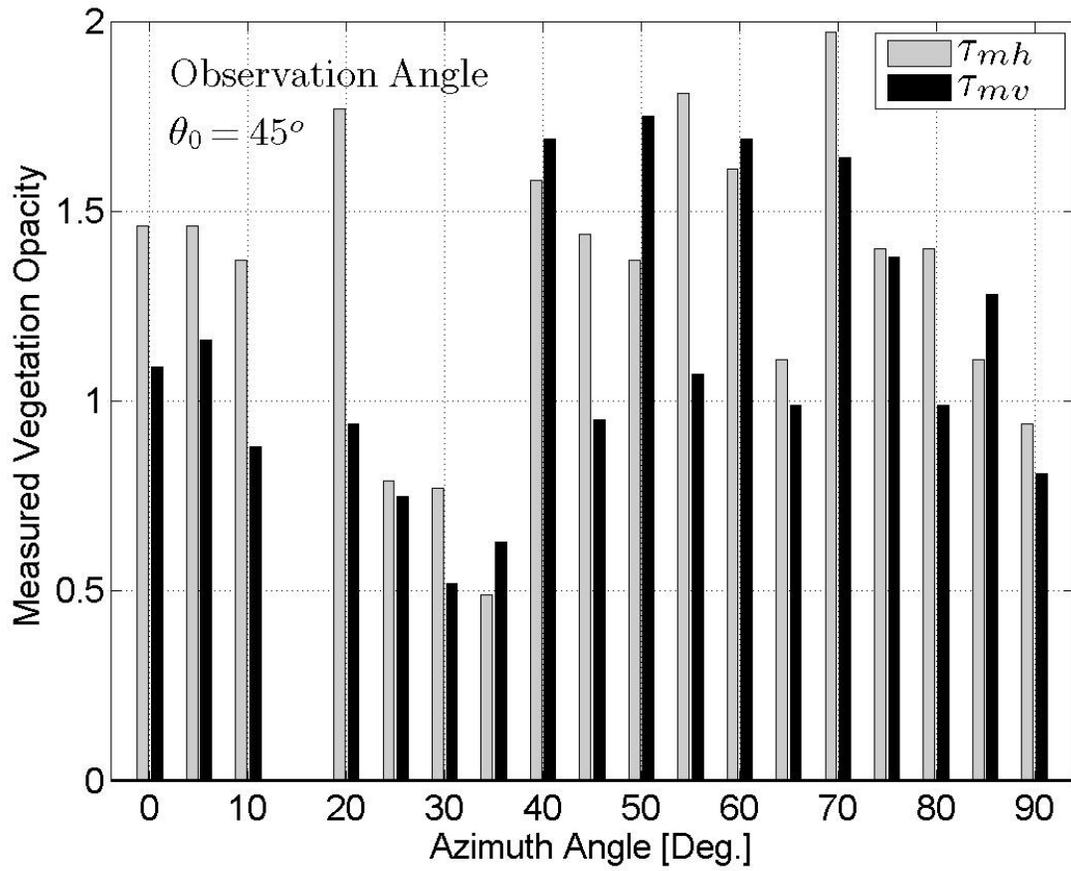
731 data collected on September 08, 2008.



732

733 **Fig. 3.** Effective vegetation optical thicknesses and single scattering albedos from the multi-

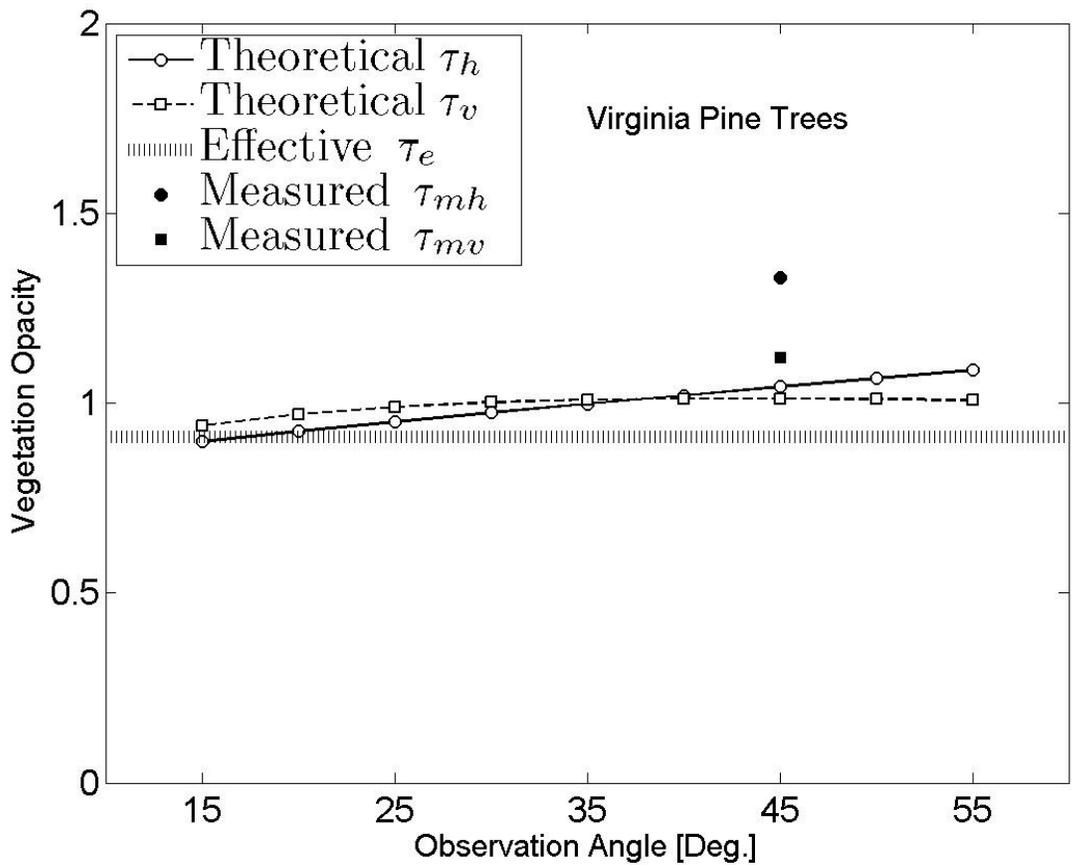
734 angular emissivity data.



735

736 **Fig. 4.** Measured vegetation optical thicknesses from the trihedral experiment at incidence angle

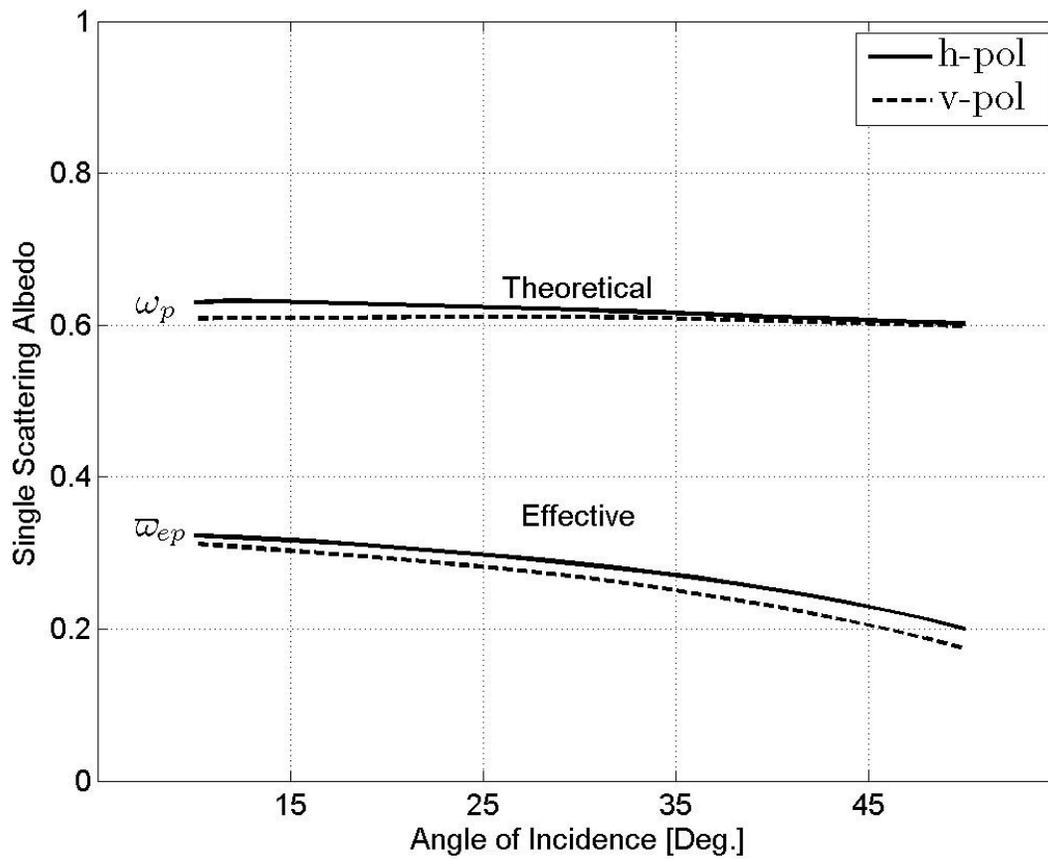
737 of  $45^\circ$  on September 15, 2009.



738

739 **Fig. 5.** Theoretical vegetation optical thicknesses are plotted as function incidence angle and

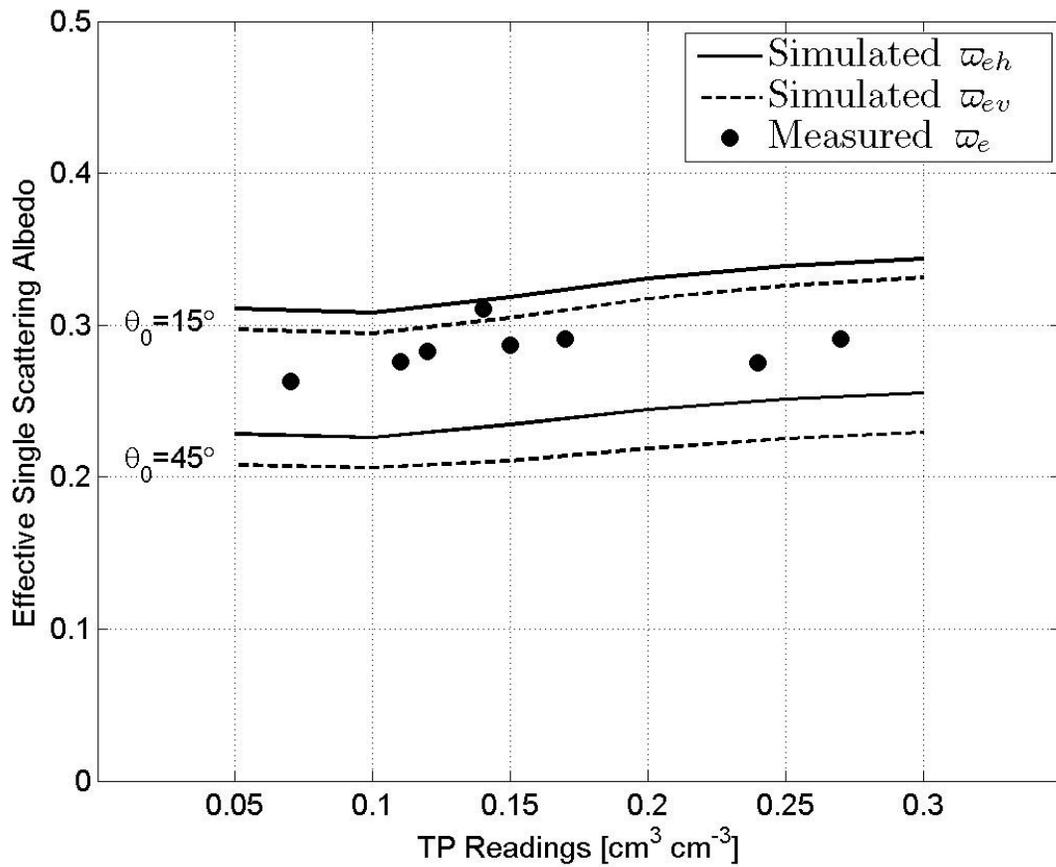
740 compared with effective and measured values.



741

742 **Fig. 6.** The theoretical single scattering albedo in eq. (1.f) and simulated effective albedo in eq.

743 (6) of Virginia pine trees are plotted as a function of incidence angle.



744

745 **Fig. 7.** The simulated [using (6)] and measured [using (3)] effective albedos of Virginia pine

746 trees are plotted as a function of ground moisture (TP readings).