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3 An Improved BRDF Hotspot Model and its Use in VLIDORT to Study the Impact  
4 of Atmospheric Scattering on Hotspot Directional Signatures in the Atmosphere  
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16 **Abstract**  
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18 The term “hotspot” refers to the sharp increase of reflectance occurring when incident (solar) and  
19 reflected (viewing) directions almost coincide in the backscatter direction. The accurate simulation  
20 of hotspot directional signatures is important for many remote sensing applications. The  
21 RossThick-LiSparse-Reciprocal (RTLSR) Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function  
22 (BRDF) model is widely used in radiative transfer simulations, and the hotspot model mostly used  
23 is from Maignan- Bréon but it typically requires large values of numerical quadrature and Fourier  
24 expansion terms in order to represent the hotspot accurately for its use coupled with atmospheric  
25 radiative transfer modelling (RTM). In this paper we have developed a modified version based on  
26 the Maignan- Bréon’s hotspot BRDF model that converges much faster numerically, making it  
27 more practical for use in the RTMs that require Fourier expansion of BRDF to simulate the top-  
28 of-atmosphere (TOA) hotspot signatures, such as in the RTM models using Doubling–Adding or  
29 discrete ordinate method. Using the vector linearized discrete ordinate radiative transfer  
30 model (VLIDORT), we found that reasonable TOA hotspot accuracy can be obtained with just 23  
31 Fourier terms for clear atmospheres, and 63 Fourier terms for atmospheres with aerosol scattering.  
32

33 In order to study the impact of molecular and aerosol scattering on hotspot signatures, we carried  
34 out a number of hotspot signature simulations with VLIDORT. We confirmed that (1) atmospheric  
35 molecules scattering and the existence of aerosol tend to smooth out the hotspot signature at the  
36 TOA; and (2) the hotspot signature at the TOA in the near-infrared is larger than in the visible, and  
37 its impact by surface reflectance is more significant. As the hotspot amplitude at the TOA with  
38 aerosol scattering included is smaller than that with molecular scattering only, the amplitude of  
39 hotspot signature at the surface is likely underestimated in the previous analysis based on the  
40 POLDER measurements, where the atmospheric correction was based on a single-scatter  
41 Rayleigh-only calculation. This modified model can calculate the amplitude of hot spot accurately,  
42 and, as it agrees very well with the original RossThick model away the hotspot region, this model  
43 can be simply used in conditions with and without hotspot. However, there are some differences  
44 of this modified model with the original Maignan- Bréon model for the scattering angles close to

45 the hot spot point, thus it may not be appropriate for those who need an exact representation of the  
46 Hot Spot angular signature.

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49 Keywords: BRDF, Hot Spot, VLIDORT, RTLSR

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## 1. Introduction

56 Most land surfaces reflect incident light anisotropically. For a given incident sun angle, the surface  
57 reflectance may vary by a factor of two in the near infrared [Kriebel et al., 1978]. An accurate  
58 accounting of the anisotropic reflectance at the Earth’s surface is very important for many remote  
59 sensing applications, including monitoring of climate changes, mapping land covers, analyzing  
60 vegetation densities, or inter-calibration between different satellite instruments (e.g. [Yang et al.,  
61 2020] and references therein). Lorente et al. [2018] investigated the importance of surface  
62 reflectance anisotropy with regard to cloud and NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals from satellite measurements by the  
63 Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment 2 (GOME-2) and the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI).  
64 This study showed that retrieved cloud fractions have an east–west across-track bias of 10-50 %,  
65 and under moderately polluted NO<sub>2</sub> scenarios with backward scattering geometry, clear-sky air  
66 mass factors can be as much as 20% higher when surface anisotropic reflection is included in the  
67 calculations.

68 The angular distribution of reflected light by a surface is normally represented mathematically by  
69 the Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function (BRDF) [Nicodemus et al., 1992], which is a  
70 function of the incident solar zenith angle, the reflected viewing zenith angle, and the relative  
71 azimuth angle between these two directions. Usually, there is a strong increase in BRDF toward  
72 the backward-scatter direction, with much smaller BRDF variations seen around the opposite  
73 forward-scatter direction. Peak BRDF values occur when backscatter incident and reflected  
74 directions coincide; this sharp reflectance increase is usually referred to as the “hotspot” [Kuusk,  
75 1985; Hapke, 1986]. The “hotspot” effect has been observed for a variety of planetary bodies,  
76 including the Moon, Mars, asteroids, planetary satellites, as well as terrestrial vegetation [Bréon  
77 et al., 2002]. The most widely accepted explanation for the hotspot effect is the so-called “shadow  
78 hiding” effect. Here, particles at the surface (e.g. leaves, soil grains) cast shadows on adjacent  
79 particles; these shadows are visible at large phase angles but at zero phase angle the shadows are  
80 hidden by the particles that cast them. Coherent backscatter is another physical explanation of  
81 reflectance enhancement in the hotspot direction [Kuga and Ishimaru, 1984; Hapke et al., 1993].

82 The bidirectional reflective spectra of land surfaces have been measured in laboratories, fields and  
83 airborne experiments, or derived from satellite observations. The two most widely used  
84 hyperspectral bidirectional reflective spectra of land surfaces are (1) the U.S. Geological Survey  
85 (USGS) Spectral Library (Version 7) [Kokaly et al., 2017], comprising a very diverse land surface  
86 BRDF data based with about 40,000 spectra in all, and (2) the ASTER Spectral Library from  
87 NASA’s Jet Propulsion Laboratory, with a collection of over 2,000 measured spectra [Baldrige  
88 et al., 2009]. Using these two databases and RossThick-LiSparse-Reciprocal (RTLSR model),  
89 Yang et al. [2020] went on to develop a Hyper-Spectral Bidirectional Reflectance (HSBR) model

90 for remote sensing applications. BRDF data derived from satellite observations have been used to  
91 evaluate and correct for anisotropy in several instruments, including, for example, the Advanced  
92 Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) [e.g. Gutman, 1987; Roujean et al., 1992], the  
93 Along-Track Scanning Radiometer (ATSR-2) located on board on the ERS-2 platform [Godsalve,  
94 1995], and the MODerate resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MODIS) [Wanner et al., 1997; Lucht  
95 et al., 2000; Schaaf et al., 2002]. However, the AVHRR, ATSR and MODIS instruments have  
96 limited viewing geometry options; in contrast, the POLARization and Directionality of Earth  
97 Reflectances (POLDER) instrument on board the Advanced Earth Observing Satellite (ADEOS)  
98 in August 1996 provided a much better directional sampling to measure the BRDF up to  $65^\circ$  VZA  
99 (viewing zenith angle) and for the full azimuth range [Deschamps et al., 1994]. So, these POLDER  
100 reflectance measurements were used to examine the hotspot signature for different vegetated  
101 surfaces [Bréon et al., 2002].

102 Many BRDF models have been developed in order to simulate or reproduce directional signatures  
103 of land surface reflectance. These include empirical models [Walthall et al., 1985], semi-empirical  
104 models [Hapke, 1981, 1986; Rahman et al., 1993; Roujean et al., 1992; Wanner et al., 1995; 1997;  
105 Lucht et al., 2000], and physical models [Pinty and Verstraete, 1991]. In particular, kernel-driven  
106 semi-empirical models have been used frequently to generate global BRDF and albedo products.  
107 Several studies have identified the so-called Ross-Thick-Li-Sparse-Reciprocal (hereinafter  
108 “RTLSR”) kernel combination as the BRDF model best suited for the operational MODIS  
109 BRDF/Albedo algorithm [Wanner et al., 1997; Lucht et al., 2000; Schaaf et al., 2002]. Using about  
110 22,000 sets of the measured BRDFs derived from carefully selected cloud-free measurements with  
111 large directional coverage from the spaceborne POLDER instrument [Bicheron and Leroy, 2000],  
112 Maignan et al. [2004] evaluated the efficacy of several analytical models to reproduce these  
113 observed BRDF signatures. They found that a simple kernel-driven model with only three free  
114 parameters can provide an accurate representation of the BRDF. One of the best such models is  
115 the three-parameter linear Ross–Li model. However, this model fails to capture the sharp  
116 reflectance increase centered around the hotspot backscatter direction. From an analysis of  
117 POLDER data, a correction to this model to capture the hotspot effect was proposed by [Bréon et  
118 al., 2002]. By means of an explicit representation of the hotspot effect for a few degrees around  
119 the backscattering direction, Maignan et al. [2004] found that the hot-spot modified RTLSR linear  
120 BRDF model with three free parameters produced the best agreement with measurement. This  
121 BRDF model from [Maignan et al., 2004] was referred to as the “Ross–Li–Maignan” model in  
122 [Vermote et al., 2009].

123 With three linear parameters characterizing the Ross–Li model, it is a straightforward process to  
124 invert the model by minimizing the Root Mean Square (hereafter RMS) difference between the  
125 measurements and the modeled directional reflectances. This BRDF inversion technique has been  
126 used to derive the MODIS BRDF/Albedo product [Schaaf et al., 2002]. An improvement was made  
127 by Vermote et al. (2009) to correct the time series of surface reflectance derived from MODIS.  
128 Using POLDER data, Bacour and Bréon [2005] retrieved the three parameters, using the modified  
129 Ross-Li model, and further analyzed the variability of these parameters with vegetation cover  
130 types. A common approach to derive the surface reflectance directional signatures from satellite  
131 observations is to first remove the atmospheric absorption and scattering effects. This process,  
132 which converts the top of the atmosphere (TOA) signal to a surface reflectance, is often called  
133 “atmospheric correction”. The surface is generally taken to be Lambertian in such atmospheric  
134 correction algorithms; however, it was found that without considering the BRDF effects,  
135 atmosphere correction errors can reach up to 10% at certain geometries and under turbid conditions

136 [Vermote et al., 1997]. Since the mid-1980s, atmospheric correction algorithms have evolved from  
137 the earlier “empirical line” and “flat-field” methods to more modern approaches based on rigorous  
138 radiative transfer modeling [Gao et al., 2009]. Clearly, the accurate simulation of atmospheric and  
139 surface radiative transfer is a critical element in the derivation of surface BRDF from satellite  
140 measurements.

141 Several key numerical radiative transfer models (RTMs) were developed in the 1980s, and the  
142 most popular RTMs in use today are usually based on discrete ordinate methods or the doubling-  
143 adding technique. Following detailed mathematical studies made by Hovenier and others  
144 [Hovenier and van der Mee, 1983; de Rooij and van der Stap, 1984], a general doubling-adding  
145 model was developed for atmospheric radiative transfer modeling, e.g. [de Haan et al., 1987;  
146 Stamnes et al., 1989]. DISORT is a discrete ordinate model developed by Stamnes and co-  
147 workers and released for public use in 1988 [Stamnes et al., 1988; Stamnes et al., 2000]; a vector  
148 discrete ordinate model (VDISORT) was developed later in the 1990s [Schulz et al., 1999]. In the  
149 1980s, Siewert and colleagues made a number of detailed mathematical examinations of the vector  
150 RT equations. The development of the scattering matrix in terms of generalized spherical functions  
151 was reformulated in a convenient analytic manner [Siewert, 1981; Siewert, 1982; Vestrucci and  
152 Siewert, 1984], and a new and elegant solution from a discrete ordinate viewpoint was developed  
153 for the scalar [Siewert, 2000a] and vector [Siewert, 2000b] single-layer slab models. LIDORT  
154 [Spurr et al., 2001; Spurr, 2002] and VLIDORT [Spurr, 2006] are multiple-scattering multi-layer  
155 discrete ordinate scattering codes with simultaneous linearization facilities for the generation of  
156 the radiation field and analytically derived Jacobians (weighting functions or partial derivatives of  
157 the radiation field with respect to any atmospheric or surface parameter). SCIATRAN is a  
158 comprehensive software package for the modeling of radiative transfer processes in the terrestrial  
159 atmosphere and ocean from the ultraviolet to the thermal infrared, including multiple scattering  
160 processes, polarization, thermal emission and ocean–atmosphere coupling; the software package  
161 contains several radiative transfer solvers including discrete-ordinate techniques [Rozañov et al.,  
162 2014]. The Second Simulation of the Satellite Signal in the Solar Spectrum (6S) [Vermote et al.,  
163 1997] RTM is widely used in the atmospheric correction community; 6S is based on the successive  
164 orders of scattering approach (SOS) [Lenoble et al., 2007]. In this study, we will use the VLIDORT  
165 RTM, which has a fully-developed supplemental code package for the generation of surface  
166 BRDFs. This supplement includes a variety of BRDF kernel models (semi-empirical BRDF  
167 functions developed for particular types of surfaces) that can be combined linearly to that provide  
168 total BRDFs required as input for the full VLIDORT RTM calculations. These kernels include the  
169 Ross–Li model both with and without the hotspot correction.

170 In the first part of this study (Section 2) we discuss the Ross-Li kernel hotspot correction in detail  
171 and present an alternative model of the hotspot correction; this new formulation is designed to  
172 improve the hotspot convergence with respect to the number of cosine-azimuth Fourier terms  
173 needed to represent the BRDF and also to the number of azimuth quadrature angles needed for the  
174 numerical derivation of these Fourier terms. In Section 3, we investigate accuracies for  
175 reconstructed BRDFs in the hotspot region, comparing our new model with older hot-spot  
176 corrections. Then, using VLIDORT and the new hotspot correction model, we examine the impact  
177 of atmospheric scattering on the simulated TOA-hotspot signature. Summary and conclusions are  
178 given in Section 4.

## 2. Hotspot BRDF Models

### 2.1. RossThick-LiSparse-Reciprocal (RTLSR) BRDF model

181 Land surfaces possess complicated structural elements, making the reflective properties of such  
 182 surfaces very hard to model. The geometric structure of a given land surface greatly influences its  
 183 reflectance, thanks to shadowing and multiple scattering effects [Roujean et al., 1992]; this angle-  
 184 dependent scattering component is called “geometric scattering”. Another structure-related  
 185 scattering effect is called “volumetric scattering”, which usually consists of multiple reflections  
 186 from different components within a volume and produces a minimum reflectance near nadir  
 187 viewing. Scattering by trees, branches, soil layers, and snow layers are typical manifestations of  
 188 volumetric scattering. These two scattering processes are usually used to characterize the surface  
 189 BRDF. For example, the operational Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)  
 190 BRDF/Albedo product is derived based on semi-empirical kernel-driven linear BRDF models that  
 191 composes of three components: an isotropic scattering term, a geometric scattering kernel, and a  
 192 volumetric scattering kernel. The RossThick-LiSparse-Reciprocal (RTLSR) kernel combination  
 193 has been identified as the best model suited for the operational MODIS BRDF/Albedo retrieval  
 194 ([Schaaf et al., 2002] and references therein), in which the land surface reflectance function  
 195  $B(\theta_i, \theta_r, \Delta\varphi)$  is represented as:

$$B(\theta_i, \theta_r, \Delta\varphi) = P_1 K_{Lamb} + P_2 K_{geo}(\theta_i, \theta_r, \Delta\varphi, P_4, P_5) + P_3 K_{vol}(\theta_i, \theta_r, \Delta\varphi). \quad (1)$$

197 Here,  $\theta_i$  and  $\theta_r$  are the incident (solar) and reflected (viewing) zenith angles, and  $\varphi_i$  and  $\varphi_r$  the  
 198 corresponding azimuth angles, with  $\Delta\varphi = \varphi_r - \varphi_i$  the relative azimuth angle.  $P_1$  is the Lambertian  
 199 kernel amplitude with  $K_{Lamb} \equiv 1$ , while  $P_2$  and  $P_3$  are the weights of the Li-Sparse-Reciprocal  
 200 geometric scattering kernel  $K_{geo}$  and the Ross-Thick volume scattering kernel  $K_{vol}$  respectively.  
 201 Parameters  $P_4$  and  $P_5$  characterize  $K_{geo}$  and are discussed below. This 3-kernel semi-empirical  
 202 model has shown surprising ability to reproduce with high accuracy the measured directional  
 203 signatures of the main land surfaces; the RTLSR model is significantly better than other analytical  
 204 models or combinations thereof [Maignan et al., 2004]

205 The Li-Sparse-Reciprocal geometric scattering kernel was derived from surface scattering and the  
 206 theory of geometric shadow casting by [Li and Strahler, 1992], and is given by:

$$K_{geo}(\theta_i, \theta_r, \Delta\varphi, P_4, P_5) = \frac{1 + \sec\theta'_r \sec\theta'_i + \tan\theta'_r \tan\theta'_i \cos\Delta\varphi}{2} +$$

$$\left(\frac{t - \sin t \cos t}{\pi} - 1\right) (\sec\theta'_r + \sec\theta'_i). \quad (2)$$

$$\cos^2 t = \left(\frac{P_4}{\sec\theta'_r + \sec\theta'_i}\right)^2 [G(\theta'_r, \theta'_i, \Delta\varphi)^2 + (\tan\theta'_r \tan\theta'_i \sin\Delta\varphi)^2]; \quad (3)$$

$$G(\theta'_r, \theta'_i, \Delta\varphi) = \sqrt{\tan^2\theta'_r + \tan^2\theta'_i - 2\tan\theta'_r \tan\theta'_i \cos\Delta\varphi}; \quad (4)$$

$$\tan\theta'_r = P_5 \tan\theta_r; \quad \tan\theta'_i = P_5 \tan\theta_i. \quad (5)$$

We also note the following expression for the scattering angle  $\zeta$ :

$$\cos\zeta = \cos\theta_r \cos\theta_i + \sin\theta_r \sin\theta_i \cos\Delta\varphi \quad (6)$$

Assuming a dense leaf canopy, and tree crowns that are spheroids with vertical length  $2b$ ,

215 horizontal width  $2r$ , and centroid distance  $h$  above the ground, then  $P_4 = h/b$  and  $P_5 = b/r$  are  
 216 two parameters representing the crown relative height.  $P_4$  and  $P_5$  can be obtained empirically,  
 217 and they are usually assumed to take values 2 and 1 respectively.

218 The Ross-Thick volume scattering kernel  $K_{vol}$  was derived from volume scattering radiative  
 219 transfer models by [Ross, 1981], and it is often referred to as “*Ross thick*” [Wanner et al., 1995]:

$$220 \quad K_{vol}(\theta_i, \theta_r, \Delta\varphi) = \frac{\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \zeta\right) \cos\zeta + \sin\zeta}{\cos\theta_r' + \cos\theta_i'} - \frac{\pi}{4}. \quad (7)$$

221 Since we are using the RTLSR linear model to reproduce natural target BRDFs, it follows that the  
 222 three parameters will contain most of the reflectance directional information for view angles of  
 223 less than  $60^\circ$ . Theoretically, parameter  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in Eq. (1) can be derived, but due to the extensive  
 224 variability of surface cover and biome types, there remains the practical question as to the  
 225 determination of the free parameters [Vermote et al., 2009], and for the MODIS BRDF/Albedo  
 226 product,  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  and  $P_3$  are derived from MODIS measurements in a few channels. A hyperspectral  
 227 bidirectional reflectance (HSBR) model for land surface was developed by [Yang et al., 2020].  
 228 The HSBR model includes a diverse land surface BRDF database with about 40,000 spectra, stored  
 229 in terms of the three Ross-Li parameters. The HSBR model has been validated using the USGS  
 230 vegetation database and the AVIRIS reflectance product and can be used to generate hyperspectral  
 231 reflectance spectra at different sensor and solar observation geometries.

## 232 *2.2. Hot-Spot models, including an improved formulation*

233 Based on an analysis of POLDER measurements, Bréon et al.[2002] found that the hotspot  
 234 directional signature is proportional to  $(1 + \zeta/\zeta_0)^{-1}$ , where  $\zeta_0$  is the hotspot halfwidth that can  
 235 be related to the ratio of scattering element size and canopy vertical density. This hotspot modeling  
 236 has been validated against measurements acquired with the spaceborne POLDER instrument with  
 237 a very high directional resolution, i.e. on the order of  $0.3^\circ$  [Bréon et al., 2002]. Maignan et al.[  
 238 2004] brought this hotspot correction into the Ross-Li model, and re-wrote the Ross thick kernel  
 239 with hotspot correction as:

$$240 \quad K_{vol} = \frac{4}{3\pi} \frac{\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \zeta\right) \cos\zeta + \sin\zeta}{\cos\theta_r' + \cos\theta_i'} \left(1 + \frac{1}{1 + \zeta/\zeta_0}\right) - \frac{1}{3}. \quad (8)$$

241 We note here that there is a difference of a factor of  $\frac{4}{3\pi}$  between Eqs. (7) and (8). Bréon et al. [2002]  
 242 indicated that  $\zeta_0$  is generally in a small range between  $0.8^\circ$  to  $2^\circ$ , while some dispersion occurs in  
 243 the range  $1^\circ$ – $4^\circ$  for scenarios classified as forest and desert types in the International Geosphere-  
 244 Biosphere Program (IGBP) system. For the sake of simplicity, and to avoid the addition of a free  
 245 parameter in the BRDF modeling, Maignan et al.[2004] suggested setting a constant value of  $\zeta_0 =$   
 246  $1.5^\circ$ . The version of the RTLSR model which accounts for the hotspot signature using Eq. (8) will  
 247 be denoted as RossThickHT-M in this paper. Using multidirectional PARASOL (Polarization &  
 248 Anisotropy of Reflectances for Atmospheric Sciences coupled with Observations from a Lidar)  
 249 data at coarse resolution (6 km) over a large set of representative targets, Maignan et al.[2004]  
 250 showed that the simple three-parameter model permits accurate representation of the BRDFs.

251 Another hotspot correction was developed by Chen and Cihlar[1997] as a negative exponential  
 252 function, and Jiao et al. [2013] brought this latter correction to the Ross-Li model, as follows:

253 
$$K_{vol} = \frac{4}{3\pi} \frac{\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \zeta\right) \cos \zeta + \sin \zeta}{\cos \theta_r' + \cos \theta_i'} (1 + C_1 e^{\left(-\frac{\zeta}{\pi}\right) C_2}) - \frac{1}{3}. \quad (9)$$

254 Here,  $C_1$  is physically related to the difference between the spectral reflectance of foliage and the  
 255 background, controlling the height of the hotspot;  $C_2$  is related to the ratio of canopy height to the  
 256 size of the predominant canopy structure, determining the width of the hotspot. We found that we  
 257 can simply set  $C_2$  to be  $\zeta_0$ . We remark that  $\zeta_0$  is given in radians in Eq. (8) and in degrees in Eq.  
 258 (9). However, Bréon et al.[2002] determined that observed hotspot signatures are better fitted with  
 259 a function of  $(1 + \zeta/\zeta_0)^{-1}$  rather than with a negative exponential that is often used for hotspot  
 260 modeling.

261 In this paper, we denote the version of the RTLSR model that accounts for the Hot-Spot process  
 262 using Eq. (9) as RossThickHT-C. Some validation to the RossThickHT-C model has been made  
 263 by Jiao et al. [2013]. Although one advantage of RossThickHT-C model is the ability to use  
 264 parameter  $C_1$  to adjust the amplitude of hotspot [Jiao et al., 2013], such an adjustment can be also  
 265 easily made by adding one parameter in the correction term in Eq. (8), i.e. to change  $(1 + \zeta/\zeta_0)^{-1}$   
 266 to  $C_1/(1 + \zeta/\zeta_0)$ . With this in mind, our effort will focus on an improvement in the Ross-Thick  
 267 BRDF kernel, starting with the baseline model of Maignan et al. [2004].

268 A number of kernel BRDF models have been incorporated in the LIDORT and VLIDORT RTMs,  
 269 including the RTLSR model and the RossThickHT-M model. In VLIDORT (and this applies  
 270 equally to other polarized radiative transfer models). It is necessary to develop solutions for the  
 271 radiation fields in terms of Fourier cosine and sine azimuth series; the same considerations apply  
 272 to the BRDFs. For scalar kernel models without polarization, only the Fourier cosine series is  
 273 needed. The Fourier components of the total BRDF are calculated through:

274 
$$B^m(\mu, \mu') = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} B(\mu, \mu', \varphi) \cos m\varphi d\varphi. \quad (10)$$

275 Integration over the azimuth angle is done by double numerical quadrature over the ranges  $[0, \pi]$   
 276 and  $[-\pi, 0]$ . The number of BRDF azimuth quadrature abscissa ( $N_{BRDF}$ ) should be set to at least  
 277 100 in order to obtain a numerical accuracy of  $10^{-4}$  for most kernels considered in the VLIDORT  
 278 BRDF supplement [Spurr, 2004]. However, at and near the hotspot region, many more quadrature  
 279 points and Fourier terms ( $N_{FOURIER}$ ) will be needed, as we will demonstrate below. Indeed, Lorente  
 280 et al. (2018) found that in order to reach an accuracy of  $10^{-3}$  over the hotspot region, 720 Gaussian  
 281 points were needed for the azimuth integration and 300 Fourier terms for the reconstruction of any  
 282 BRDF in terms of its Fourier components; they also determined that, in the final implementation  
 283 of the surface BRDF in the DAK radiative transfer model (Doubling-Adding KNMI, [Lorente et  
 284 al., 2017]) designed to perform with optimal simulation time, some 100 Fourier terms and 360  
 285 Gaussian points were necessary for proper hotspot characterization.

286 These values of  $N_{BRDF}$  and  $N_{FOURIER}$  are still unacceptably high, and in order to use VLIDORT to  
 287 simulate the hotspot signature with a modest number of discrete ordinates, we have made an  
 288 empirical modification to the hotspot correction in the RossThickHT-M model by choosing the  
 289 function with a smooth transition near the hotspot peak and considering  $\sin(\zeta)$  can be used to  
 290 replace  $\zeta$  approximately when the phase angle is a small value. We experimented with different  
 291 powers of this function, finally coming up with a function of  $\sin^x(\zeta) * \frac{1}{\sin^x(\zeta_0)}$  to replace  $\zeta/\zeta_0$ ,  
 292 where  $x = 2 + \sin(\theta_r')$ . Thus:

293 
$$K_{vol} = \frac{4}{3\pi} \frac{(\frac{\pi}{2} - \zeta) \cos \zeta + \sin \zeta}{\cos \theta'_r + \cos \theta'_i} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \sin^x(\zeta) * \frac{1}{\sin^x(\zeta_0)}} \right) - \frac{1}{3}. \quad (11)$$

294 We use the nomenclature RossThickHT-X to indicate the model with the hotspot correction given  
 295 in Eq. (11).

296 In the next section, we first examine the above sets of hotspot signatures, with particular emphasis  
 297 on the accuracy of reconstructed BRDFs in terms of the two numerical indices  $N_{BRDF}$  and  $N_{FOURIER}$ .  
 298 We then determine the impact of a scattering atmosphere, using these hotspot BRDF quantities as  
 299 inputs to VLIDORT calculations based on standard-atmosphere pressure/temperature profiles with  
 300 two cases, one is Rayleigh scattering only and another one with aerosols added. Aerosol is in the  
 301 form of an optically-constant layer from the surface to 3.0 km with the total optical depth of 0.2,  
 302 and aerosol optical properties are taken from a “continental pollution” aerosol type [Hess et al.,  
 303 1998], with lognormal poly-disperse size distribution. Please note that the use of an optical depth  
 304 of 0.2 for aerosol might be a little high than the background aerosol, and it doesn’t consider the  
 305 spectral dependence of optical depth of atmospheric aerosols.

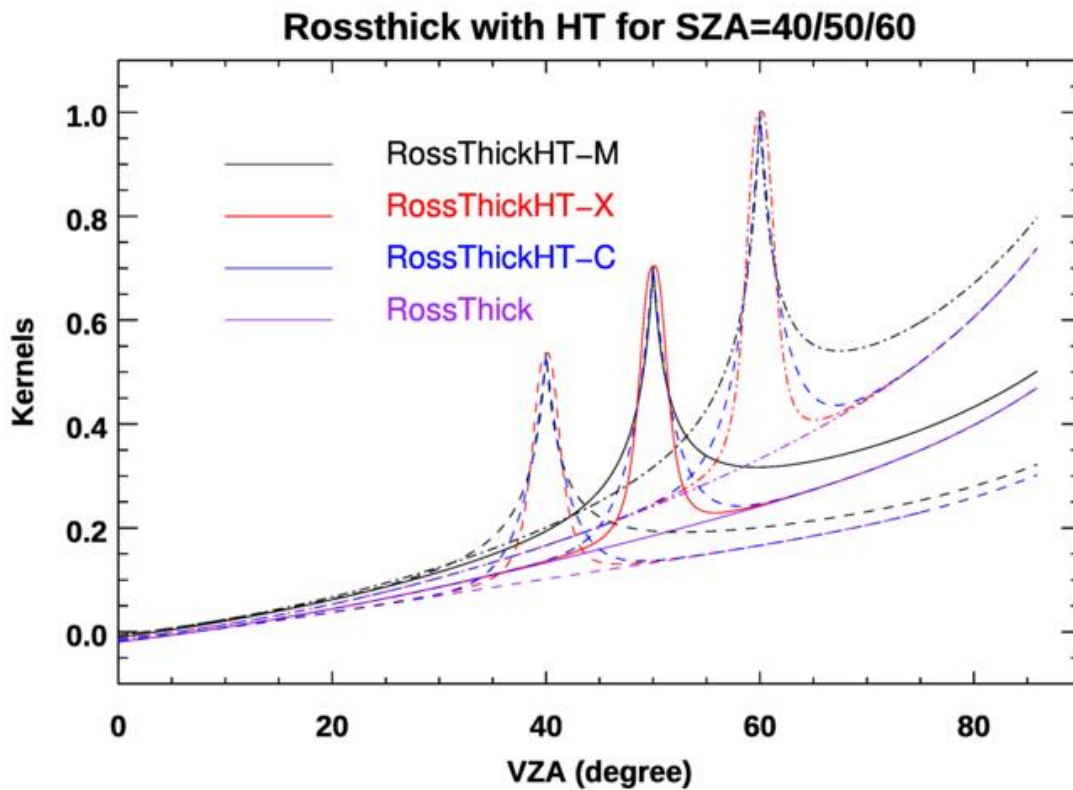


### 306 3. Results and Discussion

#### 307 3.1 Hotspot Comparisons and BRDF reconstruction accuracy

308 Figure 1 shows a comparison of the volume-scattering kernel for the three hotspot models,  
309 RossThickHT-X, RossThickHT-C and RossThickHT-M, with actual hotspots at three different  
310 solar zenith angles in the principal-plane backscatter direction. For reference, the original  
311 RossThick kernel is also plotted. The heights of Hotspot peaks from the three models are the same,  
312 and the hotspot peak is higher and narrower at larger zenith angles. For model RossThickHT-X,  
313 the angular shape around the hot spot peak (VZA=SZA) is not so sharp as the reference model  
314 RossThickHT-M, thus, it may not be appropriate for those who need an exact representation of the  
315 hot spot angular signature. However, from limited validation Jiao et al. [2013] found that  
316 RossThickHT-M apparently overestimates the hot spot magnitude, and RossThickHT-M looks too  
317 sharp from Figure 2 of Jiao et al. [2013]. Another major difference between the three models is  
318 outside the hotspot region. As indicated by [Jiao et al., 2013], one asset of RossThickHT-C is that  
319 it better matches the RossThick model in regions beyond the hotspot, while on the other hand,  
320 there remain some differences between the RossThickHT-M and RossThick model away from the  
321 hotspot. Our new model RossThickHT-X has the same advantage as RossThickHT-C, in that  
322 agreement with the standard RossThick model beyond the hotspot region is accurate, thus  
323 RossThickHT-X can be used automatically in conditions with and without hot spot impact and do  
324 not to switch the BRDF models from RossThick to the one with HT correction, i.e. RossThickHT-  
325 M, when the hot spot occurs.

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328

329 **Figure 1.** Four Ross-Thick volume scattering kernels for a range of reflection zenith angles,  
 330 and for three solar incident angles as indicated; reflectance is in the principal plane.

331 The major advantage of our new hotspot correction model is the rapid convergence for  
 332 reconstruction. Table 1 lists values of  $N_{BRDF}$  (number of azimuth quadrature abscissae) and  
 333  $N_{FOURIER}$  (number of Fourier Terms) that are needed to reconstruct the BRDF to different accuracy  
 334 levels; the accuracy is computed as the relative difference of the reconstructed BRDF to its exact  
 335 value at the hotspot. Compared to numbers required for the RossThickHT-M, values of  $N_{BRDF}$  and  
 336  $N_{FOURIER}$  for the RossThickHT-X case are 10 to 60 times smaller (Table 1). These results show  
 337 that RossThickHT-X converges much faster than RossThickHT-M. We see also that convergence  
 338 of RossThickHT-C is somewhat faster than that for RossThickHT-M but still much slower than  
 339 that for RossThickHT-X. The computation time goes roughly as the third power of the number of  
 340 streams. Since the number of terms used in our hotspot model is more than 10 times less than that  
 341 specified for the original hotspot model (as shown in the Table 1), there would be a considerable  
 342 performance gain with the BRDF simulations.

343

344 **Table 1.** Values of  $N_{BRDF}$  and  $N_{FOURIER}$  needed to reconstruct a hotspot with  $\zeta_0 = 1.5^\circ$ .

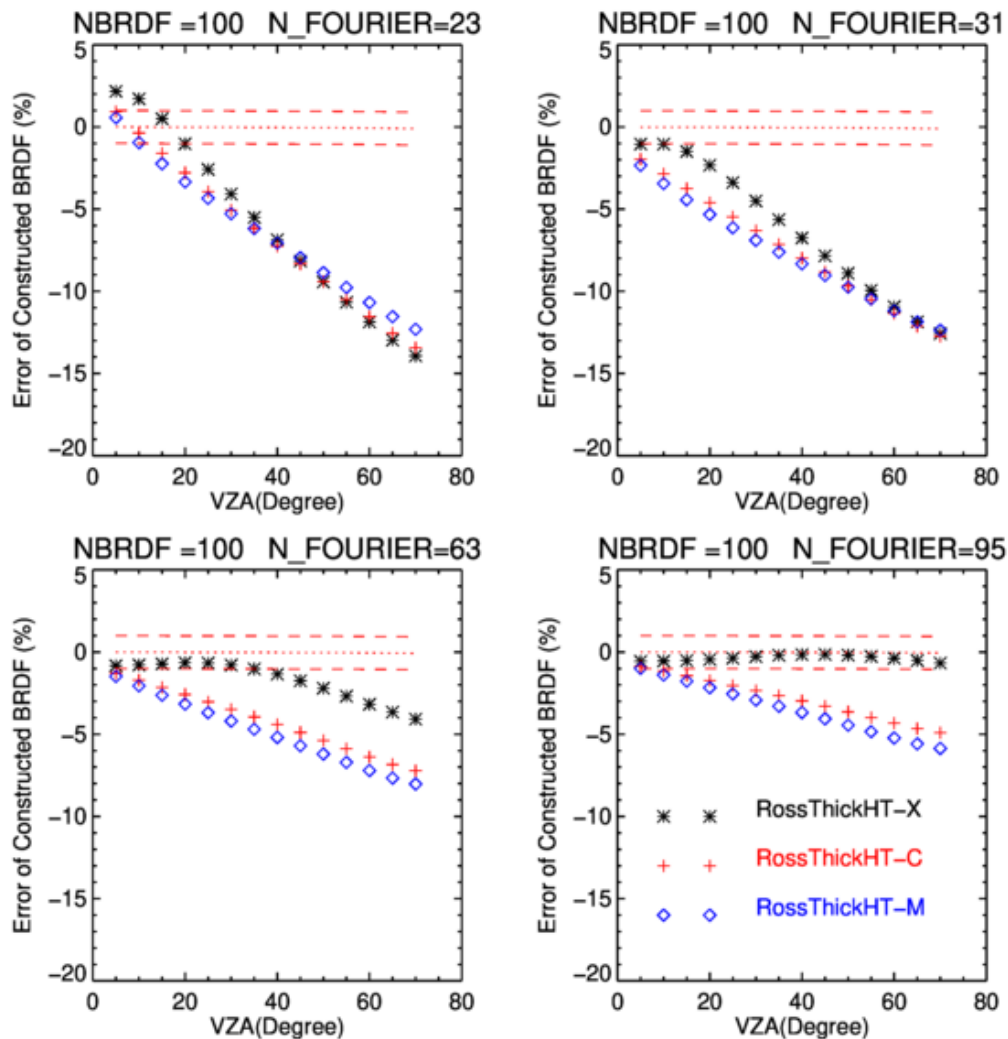
		RossThickHT-M		RossThickHT-X		RossThickHT-C	
#	Accuracy (%)	NBRDF	N_FOURIER	NBRDF	N_FOURIER	NBRDF	N_FOURIER
1	1	2810	1402	278	139	1578	789
2	0.5	5620	2807	324	162	3158	1579
3	0.4	7020	3509	338	169	3948	1974
4	0.3	9360	4679	356	178	5264	2632
4	0.2	14040	7019	382	191	7896	3948
5	0.1	28080	14039	428	214	15794	7897

345 While both numbers are necessary for the reconstructed BRDF accuracy, the main impact comes  
 346 from the number of Fourier terms  $N_{FOURIER}$  used, when the value of  $N_{BRDF}$  is twice (or more) that  
 347 of  $N_{FOURIER}$ . In Figure 2, using a fixed value  $N_{BRDF} = 100$  for the RossThickHT-M, RossThickHT-  
 348 C and RossThickHT-X models, we show the dependence of the relative error of the reconstructed  
 349 BRDF on the solar zenith angle for four different values of  $N_{FOURIER}$ . Choices of  $N_{FOURIER}$  (23, 31,  
 350 63 and 95) correspond to values 12, 16, 32 and 48 for the number  $N_{STREAMS}$  (number of half-space  
 351 polar discrete ordinates) used in VLIDORT ( $N_{FOURIER} = 2N_{STREAMS} - 1$ ). In this example, also used  
 352 by [Lorente et al., 2018] (their Figure 6), the BRDF represents a vegetated surface over Amazonia  
 353 at wavelength 758 nm with free parameters  $[P_1, P_2, P_3] = [0.36, 0.24, 0.03]$  taken from MODIS  
 354 band 2 (841–876 nm) to account for the increase in surface reflectivity near 700 nm.

355 Overall, the error decreases with increasing values of  $N_{FOURIER}$ . The error also increases with those

356 viewing angles at which the hotspot occurs, since the hotspot peaks are higher and narrower for  
 357 larger viewing angles. Errors for all three models are large when  $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$  is as small as 23. The  
 358 advantage of RossThickHT-X starts to show when  $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$  increases to 31, but this is not  
 359 significant when the hotspot viewing angle is larger than  $45^\circ$ . When  $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$  is set to 95, the  
 360 performance of RossThickHT-X is much better than that for the other two models; the error is less  
 361 than 1% even for large viewing hotspot angles, whereas the corresponding errors using  
 362 RossThickHT-M or RossThickHT-C are still at the 5-8% level for hotspots at viewing angles  
 363 larger than  $30^\circ$ . Overall, the error with RossThickHT-C is slightly smaller than that for  
 364 RossThickHT-M.

365

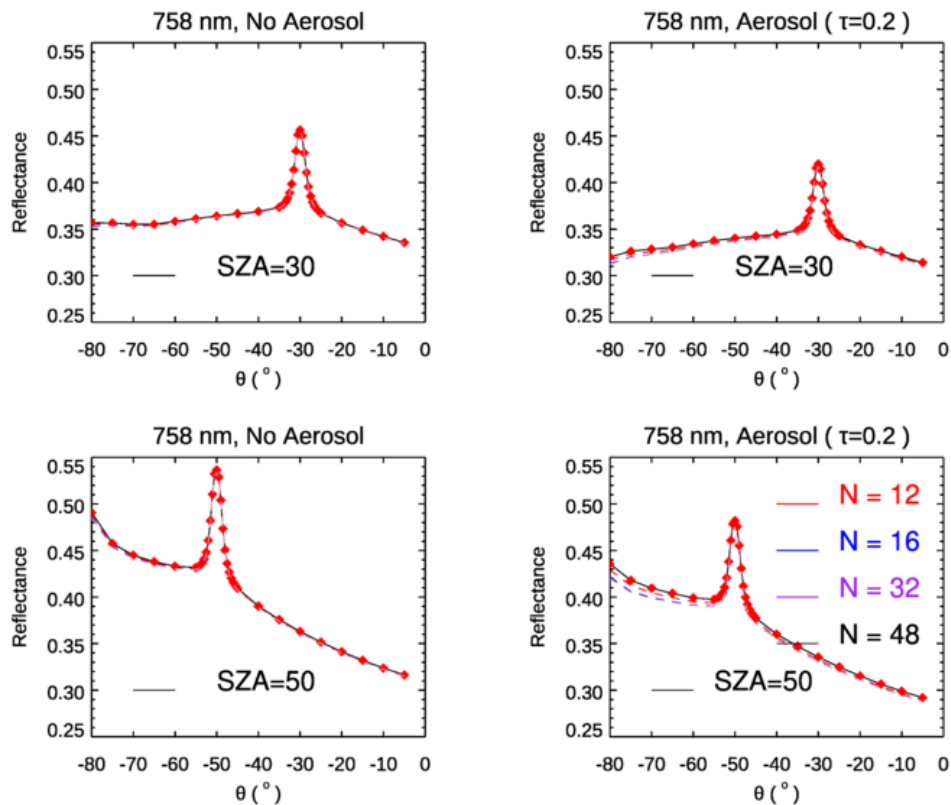


366

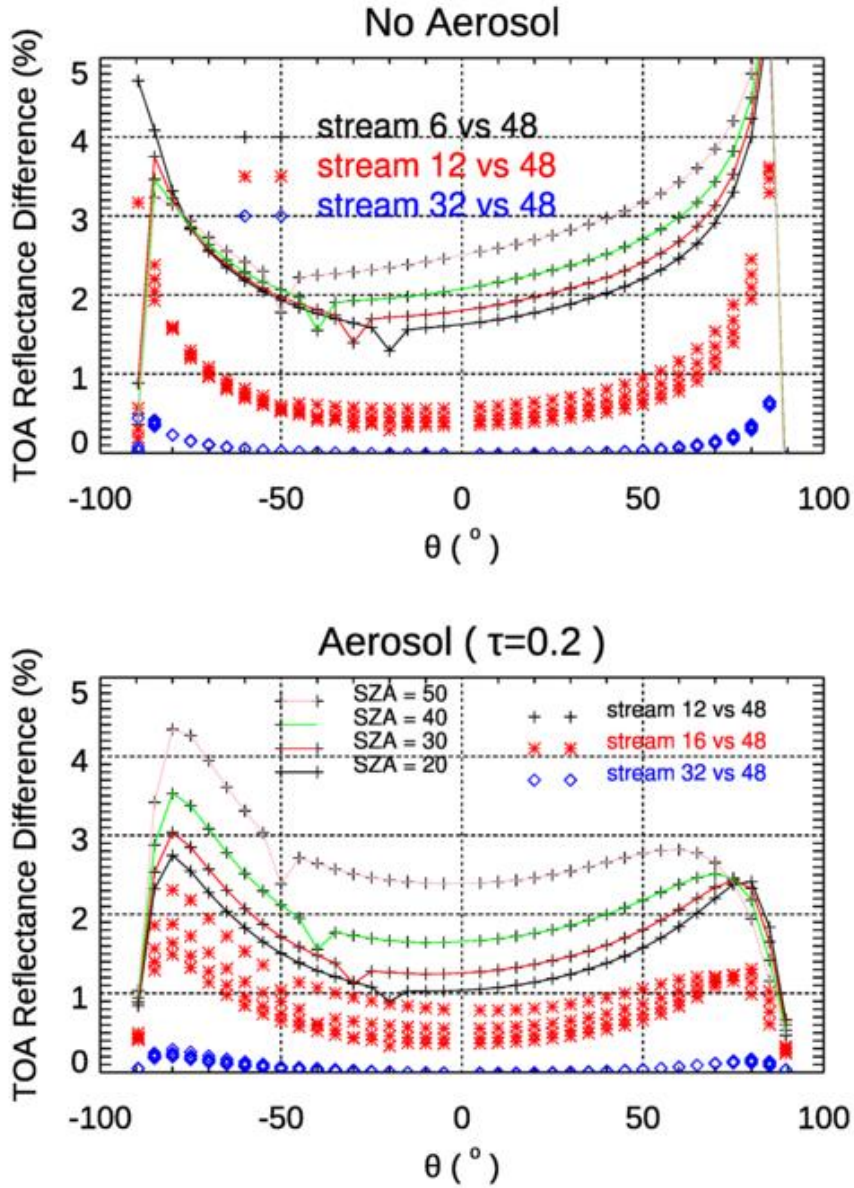
367 **Figure 2.** Accuracy of Fourier-reconstructed BRDFs relative to their exact values, for the three  
 368 ROSS-Li models.  $N_{\text{BRDF}} = 100$ , with  $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$  set to four different values as indicated. Surface  
 369 BRDF parameters represent a vegetated surface over Amazonia at 758 nm, with  $[P_1, P_2, P_3] =$   
 370  $[0.36, 0.24, 0.03]$ .

371 Next we examine the simulated TOA reflectances at 758 nm with the three hotspot models  
 372 providing inputs to the main VLIDORT RT calculations. We again set  $N_{\text{BRDF}} = 100$  and  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} =$

373 12, 16, 32 and 48. Results are shown in Figure 3 for two solar zenith angles. The hotspot signature  
 374 is evident at 30° (upper panels) and 50° (lower panels), and the peak signature with aerosols present  
 375 is higher than that without aerosol. The widths of the hotspots in Figure 3 are very similar, echoing  
 376 the argument of [Powers and Gerstl, 1988] that the hotspot width is expected to be relatively  
 377 invariant to atmospheric perturbations. Lines of different colors correspond to simulations using  
 378 different values of  $N_{\text{STREAMS}}$ ; in general, differences between these lines are pretty small, especially  
 379 in the atmosphere without aerosol and when the viewing angle is less than 60°. To better illustrate  
 380 patterns in TOA reflectance values using different values  $N_{\text{STREAMS}}$ , we used the simulated  
 381 reflectances obtained with  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 48$  as the reference, and the results of this comparison are  
 382 shown in Figure 4.



383  
 384 **Figure 3.** TOA reflectance as a function of viewing zenith angle, simulated by VLIDORT at 758  
 385 nm with a Ross-Li surface BRDF model with hotspot correction RossThickHT-X. Geometries  
 386 are in the principal plane for two solar zenith angles as indicated, and results were obtained with  
 387 and without aerosol. Surface BRDF parameters represent a vegetated surface over Amazonia at  
 388 758 nm with  $(P_1, P_2, P_3) = (0.36, 0.24, 0.03)$ .



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**Figure 4.** Same set-ups as Figure 3, but now plotting the TOA reflectance differences with four solar zenith angles as indicated.

394 From Figure 4 it is evident that relative differences in TOA reflectances for an atmosphere with  
 395 aerosols are larger than those for the atmosphere without aerosols. As the typical viewing angle  
 396 range for BRDF kernels is mostly within  $60^\circ$ , we will focus on these differences for viewing angles  
 397  $< 60^\circ$ . In the upper panel we see that TOA differences (comparing  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 12$  with  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 48$ )  
 398 increase with solar zenith angle; the difference at  $\text{SZ}A = 50^\circ$  is almost double than that at  
 399  $\text{SZ}A = 20^\circ$ . The relative difference in percentage at the hotspot region is smaller than beyond  
 400 hotspot, which is easy to understand as the absolute value of the TOA reflectance at the hotspot is

401 larger. In both cases with and without aerosol, TOA reflectance differences (comparing  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 32$  with  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 48$ ) are very small; VLIDORT simulations with  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 32$  are accurate  
402 enough in this case.  
403

404 For the atmosphere with aerosol, the bias in simulated TOA reflectances using  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 16$   
405 (relative to  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 48$ ) is 0.5-1.0%. In the clear atmosphere without aerosol, the bias of using  
406  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 6$  can be in the region 2-3%, but the bias with  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 12$  is around 0.5%,  
407 suggesting that the setting for  $N_{\text{STREAMS}}$  should be 12 or higher in a Rayleigh atmosphere overlying  
408 a hotspot surface.

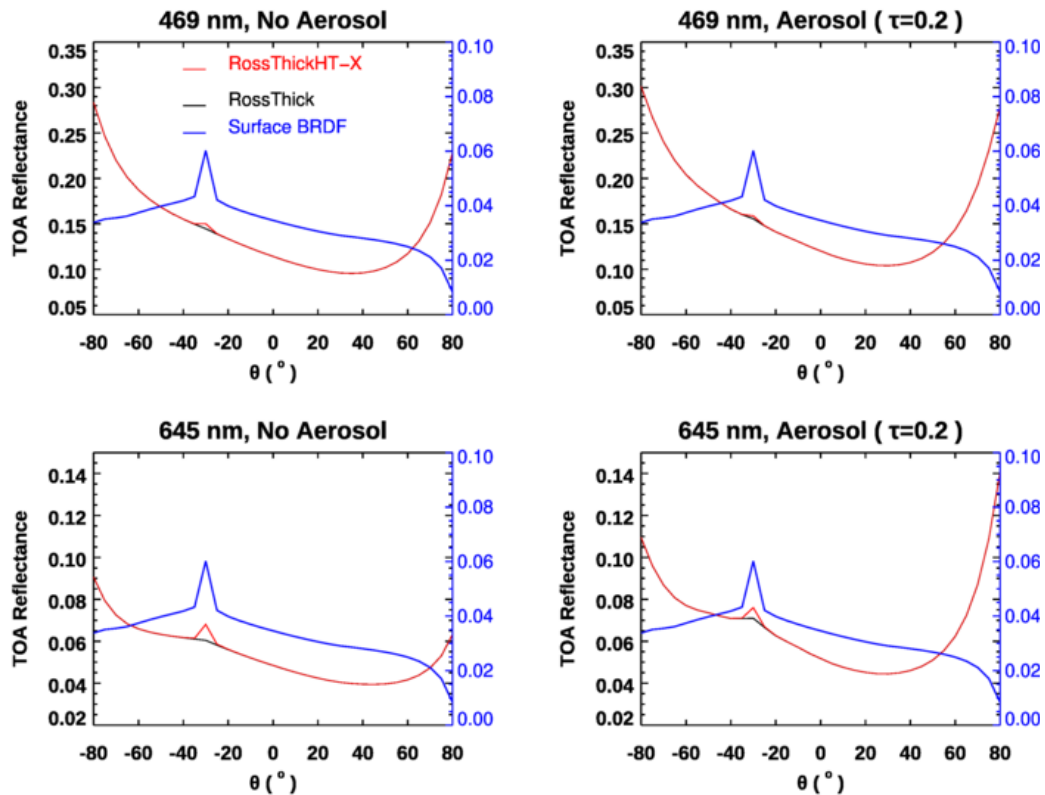
409 As noted already,  $N_{\text{FOURIER}} = 2N_{\text{STREAMS}} - 1$ . Compared to the value of  $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$  needed for  
410 reconstruction of surface BRDFs near the hotspot (Table 1), that is,  $N_{\text{FOURIER}} = 139-162$  for an  
411 accuracy of 0.5-1.0%, the values of  $N_{\text{FOURIER}} = 23$  (for the Rayleigh scenario) and  $N_{\text{FOURIER}} = 63$   
412 (for the atmosphere with aerosol) needed for full VLIDORT RT simulations are much smaller.  
413 The reason for this reduction lies with the separation in VLIDORT between the first order (FO:  
414 single scattering and direct reflectance) calculations and the multiple-scatter (MS) calculations in  
415 VLIDORT. The first-order calculation in VLIDORT is always done with full accuracy with solar  
416 beam and line-of-sight attenuations treated for a curved atmosphere, and with an exact value for  
417 the surface BRDF used to calculate the “direct-bounce” reflectance (which is very often the  
418 dominant contribution from the surface). No Fourier reconstruction is necessary for this  
419 contribution. For the MS contribution, multiple scatter is treated using Fourier cosine/sine azimuth  
420 expansions and associated Fourier terms for both the truncated phase matrix for scattering and the  
421 diffuse-field BRDF contributions. The important point to note here is the use of the exact BRDF  
422 for the direct-bounce contribution in VLIDORT; RT models without this FO/MS separation will  
423 be constrained by the need to use a Fourier-expanded reconstruction for the direct-bounce BRDF  
424 contribution.

425 The results shown in Figures 3-4 are confined to a single standard atmosphere and aerosol model.  
426 In the next section below, we use VLIDORT simulations to investigate the impact of scattering on  
427 hotspot signatures. For this study, we choose  $N_{\text{BRDF}} = 200$  and  $N_{\text{STREAMS}} = 32$ ; this should be  
428 conservative enough to avoid any uncertainty associated with the use of surface BRDFs and the  
429 choice of stream numbers in VLIDORT.

### 430 *3.2. Impact of scattering on the hotspot signature at TOA*

431 Here we use the three parameters  $(P_1, P_2, P_3) = (0.0399, 0.0245, 0.0072)$  for the RTLSR surface  
432 BRDF model. These are the spatially averaged parameters from MODIS (BRDF/albedo product  
433 MCD43A1) band 3 (459–479 nm) over Amazonia (latitude  $5^\circ \text{ N} - 10^\circ \text{ S}$ , longitude  $60 - 70^\circ \text{ W}$ )  
434 for March 2008 [Lorente et al., 2018]. TOA reflectances are calculated as a function of viewing  
435 zenith angle in the principal plane, with the solar zenith angle set at  $30^\circ$  (Figure 5). In this  
436 experiment, we simulated two atmospheric conditions with and without aerosol and using the  
437 new hotspot correction model, RossThickHT-X, and the RTLSR BRDF model without a hotspot  
438 correction (RossThick). From the comparison of TOA reflectances at all angles between the left  
439 and the right panels in Figure 5, we can see that the TOA reflectance in the atmosphere with  
440 aerosol is overall larger than that without aerosol, indication the aerosol scattering increases the  
441 TOA reflectance. Compared to the molecular scattering only, the addition of aerosol leads to an  
442 increase of TOA reflectance near hot spot peak by  $\sim 8\%$  and  $17\%$  at 469 and 645 nm  
443 respectively. However, from a comparison of the TOA reflectances with and without hotspot  
444 correction, i.e. using RossThickHT-X and RossThick, we found that at 469 nm the increase of

445 surface reflectance at hot spot results in an increase of TOA reflectance by  $\sim 4\%$  for atmosphere  
 446 with molecular scattering only, while in the atmosphere with moderate aerosol the value of  
 447 increase is only 2%. At 645 nm, the values of reflectance increase at hot spot are about 12.5%  
 448 and 7% for atmosphere with and without aerosol, indicating that for the longer wavelength at 645  
 449 nm, the TOA-hotspot signature is much stronger than at 469 nm. The smaller TOA-hotspot  
 450 signature at 469 nm is due to the influence of stronger Rayleigh scattering. The inclusion of  
 451 aerosol scattering smooths out the hotspot signature at the TOA by  $\sim 44\%$  to  $\sim 50\%$  compared to  
 452 the atmosphere with molecular scattering only in these two wavelengths, suggesting aerosol  
 453 scattering further smooths out the hotspot signature at the TOA and makes it harder to  
 454 discriminate the TOA reflectance difference between the runs with and without hotspot  
 455 correction. This observation agrees with the results from [Bréon et al., 2002], in which it was  
 456 noted that no significant hotspot signature has been observed when the surface reflectance is very  
 457 small, as in the blue channel or over the ocean.



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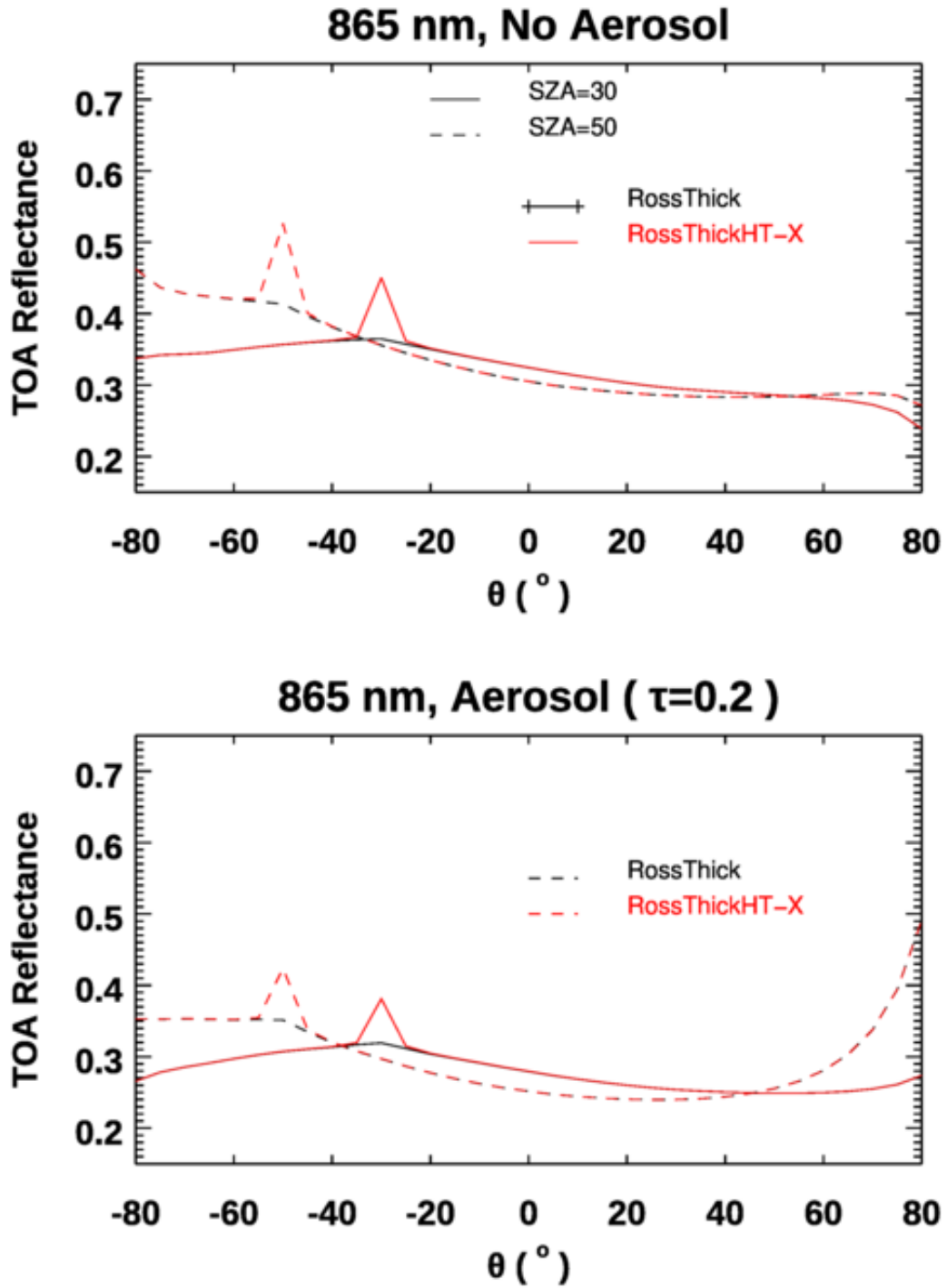
460 **Figure 5.** VLIDORT TOA reflectances as a function of viewing zenith angle with solar angle  $30^\circ$  in  
 461 the principal plane, at 469 and 645 nm using a Ross-Li surface BRDF model RossThick and  
 462 RossThickHT-X, and with and without aerosol. The aerosol model used is the same as in Figure 3,  
 463 with optical depth 0.2. Surface BRDF parameters represent a vegetated surface over Amazonia with  
 464  $(P_1, P_2, P_3) = (0.0399, 0.0245, 0.0072)$ , and blue curves are surface reflectance.

465 We also examine the hotspot signatures in 765 and 865 nm, two wavelengths used in POLDER  
 466 data analysis. The three linear weighting parameters in the BRDF model are  $(P_1, P_2, P_3) = (0.36,$   
 467  $0.24, 0.03)$ , which is the same set as that used by [Lorente et al., 2018]. As noted already, these

468 are taken from MODIS band 2 (841–876 nm) to account for the “red-edge” increase in surface  
469 reflectivity near 700 nm (e.g. [Tilstra et al., 2017]). To test the representativeness of band 2 at 758  
470 nm, Lorente et al.[2018] scaled the parameters from band 3 (459–479 nm) using the ratio of  
471 reflectances at 772 nm and 469 nm; they found that differences with parameters taken from  
472 MODIS band 2 were negligible. Since we would like to focus on the difference of the impact of  
473 atmospheric scattering on the hotspot signatures at 758 and 865 nm, we have chosen to use the  
474 same two sets of surface BRDF parameters. The results are plotted in Figures 6 and 7. To highlight  
475 the differences caused by the  $3\pi/4$  factor normalizing the volume-scattering kernels  $K_{vol}$  (see note  
476 in Section 2.2), we have added in Figure 7 two simulated TOA reflectances, one based on the  
477 original hotspot correction model from Maignan et al. [2004] (RossThickHT-M) and the other  
478 using the BRDF noted in the paper of Lorente et al. [2018] (indicated by “RossThickHT-L”).  
479 Compared to Figure 5, much larger TOA-hotspot signatures at both 865 and 758 nm are evident  
480 in Figures 6 and 7 respectively, and they are slightly larger at SZA=50° than at SZA=30°. As  
481 expected, in the scattering region within 2° of hot spot there are some differences between  
482 RossThickHT-M and RossThickHT-X, but beyond the hotspot ( $\pm 5^\circ$ ), the TOA reflectance using  
483 RossThickHT-X agrees very well with that using the original RossThick model. However, from  
484 Figure 7, we see that the simulated reflectance using RossThickHT-M is slightly larger than that  
485 using RossThick model even in a region of  $\pm 15^\circ$  beyond the hotspot, particularly in the large  
486 viewing angles in the forward direction. In the region of  $\pm 5^\circ$  to  $\pm 15^\circ$  beyond the hotspot, the  
487 simulated reflectance using RossThickHT-M is clearly larger than that using RossThick and  
488 RossThickHT-X.

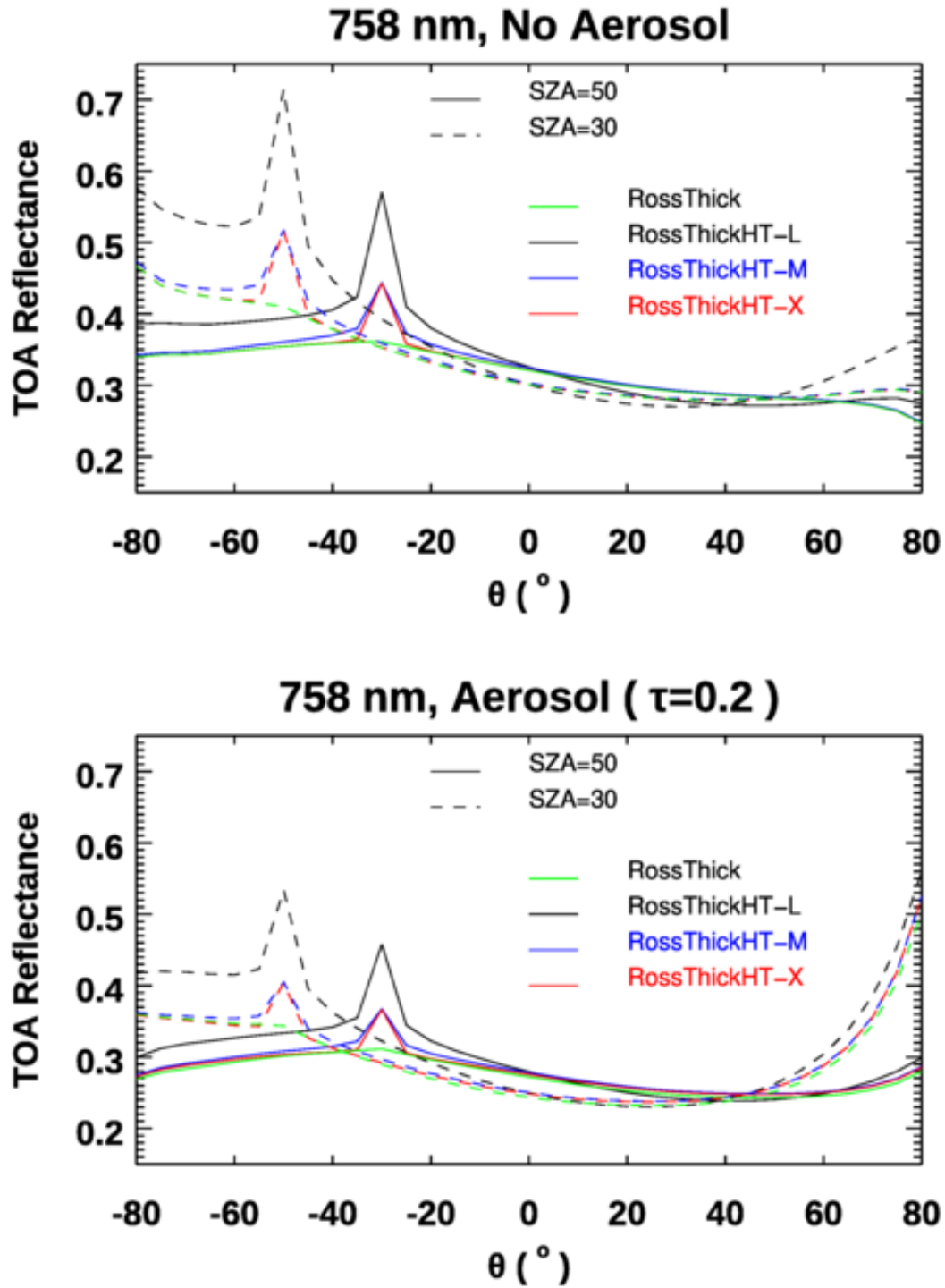
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**Figure 6.** Same as Figure 5 but results are calculated at 865 nm for solar zenith angles 30° and 50°. Surface BRDF parameters represent a vegetated surface over Amazonia with  $(P_1, P_2, P_3) = (0.36, 0.24, 0.03)$ .



494

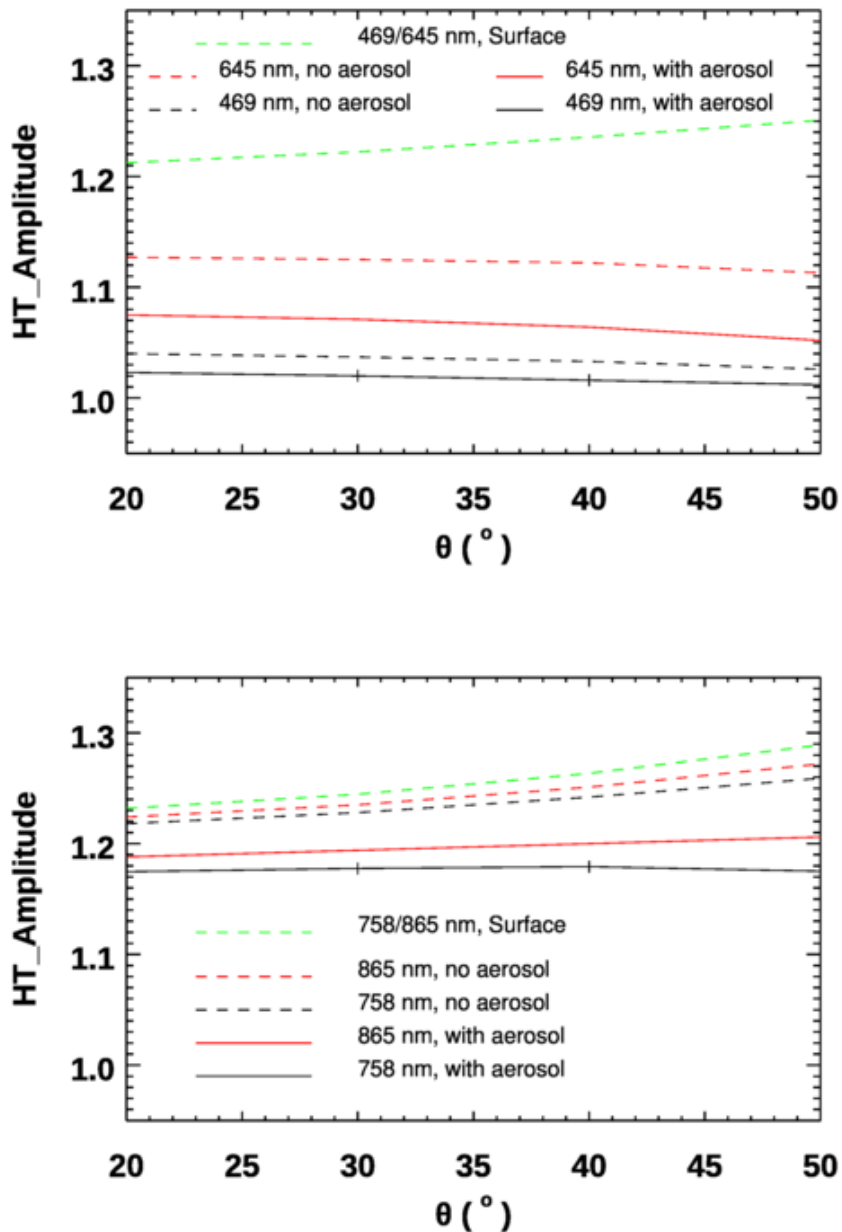
495 **Figure 7.** Similar to Figure 6 but results calculated at wavelength 758 nm. For comparison, we  
 496 have added simulated TOA reflectances using the original hotspot correction model from  
 497 [Maignan et al., 2004] (RossThickHT-M) and again using the model in [Lorente et al., 2018],  
 498 which is a factor of  $4\pi/3$  times larger than RossThickHT-M in the hotspot region and is denoted  
 499 here as RossThickHT-L.

500 To better quantify the hotspot effect and the impact due to scattering in the atmosphere, we define  
501 the “hotspot amplitude” as the difference between the TOA reflectance at the hotspot and the  
502 corresponding TOA reflectance calculated without hotspot correction, namely:

$$503 \quad HT_{Amplitude} = \frac{R(\theta_0, \theta, \varphi = 180, RossThickHT - Li)}{R(\theta_0, \theta, \varphi = 180, RossThick - Li)}.$$

504 The impacts of molecular and aerosol scattering on these amplitudes are illustrated in Figure 8 for  
505 a range of hotspot viewing angles and for four wavelengths. For comparison, the hotspot  
506 amplitudes at the surface are also plotted. From Figure 8, it is evident that scattering in the  
507 atmosphere smooths out the hotspot signature at TOA, and the impact of scattering is much larger  
508 in the visible compare with that in the near-infrared part of the spectrum. Even in the visible, the  
509 amplitude of the hotspot signature at 469 nm is much smaller than that at 645 nm. When the SZA  
510 increases from 20° to 50°, the HS amplitude at 469 nm decreases by -1.34% and -1.08% for  
511 atmospheric conditions without aerosol and with aerosol, respectively. The HS amplitude at 645  
512 nm decreases by -1.24% and -2.14% similarly. In contrast, the HS amplitudes increase by 3.36  
513 (0.03)% at 758 nm, and by 3.9 (1.5) % at 865 nm as SZA increases from 20° to 50°. Since  
514 molecular scattering is much smaller than in the visible, the large difference in the amounts of HS  
515 amplitude increase between no-aerosol and with-aerosol conditions indicates the impact of  
516 multiple scattering, and the existence of aerosol smooths out the TOA hotspot signature. The  
517 increase of HS amplitudes with SZA following with the increase of surface reflectance in the near  
518 infrared, particularly in the no-aerosol condition, indicates that the HS amplitude is largely affected  
519 by surface reflectance in the near infrared.

520 These simulated results agree well with the analysis of POLDER data by [Bréon et al.,  
521 2002]; at 440 nm, they found that the amplitude of the hotspot signature is very small. The much  
522 larger amplitudes observed at 758 nm and 865 nm also confirm the findings by [Maignan et al.,  
523 2004], who showed that near-infrared measurements are preferred to those in the visible, not only  
524 because of the larger-amplitude directional effects but also because of the lower atmospheric  
525 perturbation. Indeed, Maignan et al.[2004] suggested that near-infrared measurement data is better  
526 suited for the evaluation of different BRDF models.



527

528 **Figure 8.** Comparison of hotspot amplitudes at the TOA for an atmosphere with and without  
 529 aerosols in visible (469 and 645 nm, upper) and near-infrared (758 and 865 nm, lower). Hotspot  
 530 amplitudes at the surface are computed using the differences between the RossThickHT-Li and  
 531 RossThick-Li BRDF models.

532 In the processing of POLDER data done by [Bréon et al., 2002] and [Maignan et al., 2004], only  
 533 molecular scattering to first order was taken into account for the atmospheric correction. As there  
 534 is no correction for the effects of aerosol scattering or the coupling of surface reflectance with  
 535 molecular scattering, absolute values of the reflectances may not be fully representative of the  
 536 surface for POLDER [Bréon et al., 2002]. From our simulations shown in Figure 8, the amplitude  
 537 of the hotspot signature with aerosol scattering included is smaller than that without aerosol,

538 suggesting that the results from POLDER [Bréon et al., 2002] might underestimate the amplitude  
539 of hotspot signature at the surface. Based on the differences of the HS amplitudes between the  
540 atmosphere with aerosol and without aerosol, we estimate that, on average, the HS amplitude is  
541 underestimated by  $4.0 \pm 1.7\%$  when not considering aerosol for a moderately polluted atmosphere  
542 with optical depth of 0.2, even though most satellite observations are less affected by the aerosols  
543 than this simulation may suggest.

544

545 A final issue is related to a factor difference that exists between the equation of [Lorente et al.,  
546 2018] (i.e. their Eq. A1) with our Eq. (8), which is the one used in [Maignan et al., 2004]. The one  
547 used by [Lorente et al., 2018] is  $3\pi/4$  times larger; this discrepancy results in a TOA-hotspot  
548 signature more than twice as large, as shown in Figure 7. Since we used the same BRDF parameters  
549 as [Lorente et al., 2018], this factor difference is the main reason that the TOA-hotspot signatures  
550 shown by [Lorente et al., 2018] (their Figure 5) at 469 and 645 nm from their DAK model are  
551 higher than our simulated results in this paper. In addition, in the paper of Lorente et al., 2018, the  
552 authors obtained the VLIDORT result using an older version of the code, and this result showed  
553 the hotspot peak that was smaller than that generated with the other RT models. We think the  
554 reason for this lies with a scaling factor difference between the hotspot BRDF equation cited in  
555 [Lorente et al., 2018] and the equation used in the earlier VLIDORT model. Hence, we have added  
556 this simulation result here in order to bring attention to users when using scaling factor data from  
557 the MODIS BRDF product. Therefore, we caution users to be careful to check the equations for  
558 the presence of this  $3\pi/4$  factor, particularly when using MODIS BRDF products.

## 4. Summary and Conclusions

560 In remote sensing, it is common practice to deploy a simple kernel-driven semi-empirical model  
561 with three free parameters to represent land surface BRDFs (excepting snow and ice); the  
562 commonly used model is the RossThick/LiSparse combination with a correction to account for the  
563 hotspot [Maignan et al., 2004]. In our study, we modified this BRDF model to improve  
564 convergence of the Fourier azimuth series decomposition. Furthermore, using this new hotspot  
565 model, we studied the impact of Rayleigh scattering and aerosol on the TOA atmospheric hotspot  
566 signature in the visible and near-infrared wavelengths using the VLIDORT RTM.

567 With the improved hotspot correction, we found that the numbers of Gaussian points ( $N_{\text{BRDF}}$ ) and  
568 Fourier Terms ( $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$ ) are more than 10 times smaller than those needed with the original  
569 hotspot model from Maignan et al. [2004]; this makes our BRDF model much more practical for  
570 use with VLIDORT to simulate the hotspot signature at the TOA. Another advantage of this  
571 modified model is that the new hotspot model agrees very well with the original RossThick model  
572 away the hotspot region, thus allowing the use of this single model in the conditions with and  
573 without hotspot in applications.

574 We carried out a number of investigations on the impact of molecular and aerosol scattering on  
575 the hotspot signature at the TOA. TOA reflectances were calculated for different solar and viewing  
576 angles and at four wavelengths. These simulations using VLIDORT show that:

- 577 1. In agreement with previous analysis using POLDER measurement data, hotspot signatures  
578 in the near-infrared are larger than those in the visible as it is less impacted by molecules  
579 scattering, making it better to be used to derive the surface hotspot signature.
- 580 2. In agreement with the POLDER study, the hotspot amplitudes at TOA and the surface both  
581 increase with solar zenith angle in the near-infrared; however, at 469 and 645 nm, this  
582 increase with solar zenith angle is not obvious at TOA due to stronger Rayleigh scattering  
583 at shorter wavelengths, which is more pronounced for longer path lengths at larger solar  
584 zenith angles.
- 585 3. Scattering by molecules and aerosols in the atmosphere tends to smooth out the hotspot  
586 signature at TOA, and the hotspot amplitude is reduced when aerosols are added to an  
587 otherwise clear (Rayleigh scattering only) atmosphere.
- 588 4. In VLIDORT, the direct-beam solar reflectance is calculated using the exact BRDF (rather  
589 than in a truncated Fourier-series form); this means that smaller values of  $N_{\text{FOURIER}}$  (i.e.,  
590 23 and 63 for atmospheres without and with aerosol scattering) can be used in for the  
591 multiple scattering calculations in VLIDORT to obtain hotspot signature with acceptable  
592 accuracy.

593 Since atmospheric corrections in the POLDER data processing were performed using Rayleigh-  
594 only single scattering without any consideration of aerosol. from our simulations we found that  
595 the amplitude of hotspot signature at the surface is likely underestimated by  $4.0 \pm 1.7\%$  in the  
596 analysis of hotspot signature using POLDER data [Bréon et al., 2002], highlighting the importance  
597 to consider the multiple scattering and to include aerosols in the retrievals of surface BRDF  
598 (hotspot).

599 Our improved hotspot kernel is now a standard feature in the latest version of the VLIDORT BRDF  
600 supplement code that significantly improve the numerical efficiency. Since this new model has not  
601 been validated using any real observation data and considering the difference between this model

602 and the original hotspot model from Maignan et al. [2004] in scattering angles close to the peak of  
603 hotspot, it may not be appropriate for those who need an exact representation of the hot spot  
604 angular signature around the peak of hotspot.

605

#### 606 **Description of author's responsibilities**

607 XX, XL and RS conceived of the idea. XX and RS led the writing. All authors edited the  
608 manuscript.

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#### 611 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

612 **Xiaozhen Xiong:** Methodology, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis, Investigation. **Xu**  
613 **Liu:** Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – review & editing, Conceptualization. **Robert**  
614 **Spurr:** Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Formal analysis. **Ming Zhao:** Coding,  
615 Analysis. **Wan Wu, Qiguang Yang, Liqiao Lei:** Writing – review & editing.

#### 616 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

617 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
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