Response to RC2 by Reviewer 2:

We would like to thank the reviewer for performing a thorough review and for the many helpful suggestions to improve our manuscript.

Below, we respond to each of the review comments. For the sake of clarity, the review comments are given in blue italics and our response is printed in normal font. Changes to the manuscript are printed in green.

The paper describes an important and timely step that should substantially improve characterization of the Earth’s surface reflectivity derived from the TROPOMI observations. Following Vasilkov et al. (2017 - OMI), Loyola et al. (2020 - TROPOMI) and Tilstra et al. (2021 - GOME-2), the paper re-introduces the directionally dependent Lambertian-equivalent reflectivity (DLER) for TROPOMI and compares the results with various non-directional LER data sets. Such comparisons are indicative, though not conclusive, considering the profound differences in the LER and DLER approaches (e.g., the viewing-angle DLER dependencies from Fig. 4, cf. the angle-independent LER). Hence, the authors validate the results by comparing TROPOMI DLERs to the MODIS surface BRDFs, however only in the near-IR region. The $\lambda < 500$ nm domain is critically important for retrievals of many trace-gas species. Surprisingly, the authors completely avoid any comparisons with the publicly available database that is built on similar (directionally-dependent LER, known as GLER: Vasilkov et al. 2017) physical principles, samples the Earth’s surface at similar local solar times, and belongs to the wavelength region of interest:

https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/OMGLER_003/summary?keywords=AURAMLS

This can be perceived as a serious deficiency of the reviewed study unless there are sound reasons for excluding these data from consideration. If any, such reasons should be explicitly stated and commented on.

Thank you very much for bringing this to our attention. We were well aware of the existence of the GLER database, but we did not know that the database had become publicly available. The GLER database is indeed well suited as a reference, because the OMI and TROPOMI orbits are similar, meaning that we end up with comparable viewing and solar geometries. We have, therefore, downloaded the necessary GLER data and have set up a comparison between the OMI GLER database and the TROPOMI DLER database.

Some of the results are shown in Figures 1 and 2 of this AC. In the top row of Figure 1 we show maps of the OMI GLER, the TROPOMI LER, and the TROPOMI DLER, for visual comparison. The differences between DLER and LER, LER and GLER, and DLER and GLER, are shown in the bottom row. From the top row it is clear that, roughly speaking, there is agreement between GLER and DLER, but that there are also differences between GLER and DLER. The bottom row shows the magnitude of the differences. In general, differences are smaller than 0.02 but larger differences are also found.

In Figure 2 of this AC, scatter plots are shown of (a) TROPOMI LER versus OMI GLER and (b) TROPOMI DLER versus OMI GLER. The data points originate from OMI orbits 77592 and 77593, both from 15 February 2019. The red lines represent linear fits to the data points. In both cases (a) and (b) the Pearson correlation coefficient is on the order of 0.98 and the standard deviation of the data points w.r.t. the linear fit is $\sim 0.01$, suggesting a good linear correlation. However, the linear fits in both cases deviate somewhat from the expected one-to-one relationship. The deviation seems to be caused mainly by data points representing low surface
Figure 1: Maps of (a) OMI GLER, (b) TROPOMI LER, (c) TROPOMI DLER, (d) the difference between DLER and LER, (e) the difference between LER and GLER, and (f) the difference between DLER and GLER. The OMI orbits that were used as a basis for the comparison are from 15 February 2019. The 463-nm DLER wavelength band was used for the comparison.

Figure 2: Left: TROPOMI LER versus OMI GLER. Right: TROPOMI DLER versus OMI GLER. The red lines represent linear fits to the data points. The green line in the right window is also a linear fit, but only applied to the data points for which TROPOMI DLER and OMI GLER are both larger than 0.07.
reflectivity. If we perform the linear fit only to data points with DLER and GLER larger than 0.07 (green line in Figure 2b) then the linear fit is very close to the one-to-one relationship.

Positive offsets like in Figure 2 and patterns like in Figure 1 have been reported earlier when the OMI surface LER database was compared to the MODIS black-sky albedo (BSA) database [Kleipool et al., 2008, Fig. 7]. Since the OMI GLER database effectively uses MODIS BRDF as a basis, one explanation for the differences that we see might be calibration issues that affect the MODIS BRDF product. However, there are many other possible explanations, so this remains speculation.

The reviewer is thanked again for bringing the OMI GLER to our attention and the results and discussion, including Figures 1 and 2 of this AC, have been included in the revised manuscript, in the new section 6.3.

More comments:

In Section 2 (Description of TROPOMI) the authors should mention what L1B version is used in the study. This should be tied to the information on how the instrument degradation is accounted for, if applicable to the case. Moreover, the very important and relevant topic of the quality of absolute TROPOMI calibration should be described in some detail. If pertinent, the latter may explain some systematic differences shown in Section 6. Can the introduced $c_0$ term (Eq. 8) be explored/exploited as a potential link to the absolute calibration uncertainties?

We have added the L1B version number to the introduction of the manuscript. A correction for instrument degradation is an integral part of the latest version (v2.1.0) of the L1B product, so we do not perform our own degradation correction. Radiometric calibration errors did exist in spectral bands 3 and 4 for earlier versions of the TROPOMI L1B data, however, these issues have been resolved and the latest version (v2.1.0) of the L1B product is well calibrated in the absolute sense. The quality of the absolute calibration of TROPOMI cannot, of course, be described in full detail in the manuscript but several references exist, to which we now refer in section 2 of the manuscript.

The text in section 2 of the manuscript now reads:

“The radiometric calibration of the TROPOMI instrument has been improved a number of times since its launch. The latest version of the level-1b data (v2.1.0) includes, amongst other things, a correction for instrument degradation. An issue in the radiometric calibration of spectral bands 3 and 4 [Tilstra et al., 2020] has been resolved in this version. More information about the TROPOMI instrument, its calibration, and the products derived from it can be found in Kleipool et al. [2018]; Ludewig et al. [2020] and in Veefkind et al. [2012].”

1.173 – briefly comment on the ‘undisputed cases.’ Is/are there any threshold value(s) bounding such cases?

The geometrical cloud fraction as defined in equation (6) is only based on the fraction of confidently cloudy VIIRS observations. The fraction of probably cloudy VIIRS observations is not taken into account, making the geometrical cloud fraction in equation (6) less strict. Basically, the geometrical cloud fraction only responds to confidently cloudy VIIRS observations, to which we refer in the text as “undisputed cases of cloud cover”. The threshold value that we use for the filtering is the value 0.03 mentioned in the manuscript.
l.199 – mention the source of the AAI data used for screening.

We have added the proper reference to the TROPOMI AAI product:

“… The AAI product that we use is the official S5P AAI product [Stein Zweers, 2022] and the threshold on the AAI was set to 2 index points. …”

l.217 – the mode of a distribution could be a robust metric for the scenes with permanent ice/full snow coverage. However, this may not be applicable to the partial/thin-snow landscapes. Is there any recipe for addressing such cases that, if mis-represented, may profoundly bias the trace-gas retrievals? Can (should) the ’clear’ and ’snice’ fields be mixed in the cases of partial coverages? Please share your experiences (know-how) with this sensitive scenario.

Yes, this is true. Grid cells with permanent snow/ice coverage are retrieved better (and probably perform better) than grid cells filled with scenes that are only partially covered by snow/ice. The “clear” and “snice” fields are supposed to represent the extreme cases of “definitely no snow/ice present” and “definitely snow/ice present”. For situations in which scenes are only partially covered by snow/ice, we would indeed advise to calculate the surface albedo from the clear and snice fields, using the snow/ice cover fraction (if known).

The last paragraph of section 4.6 of the manuscript now reads:

“… The “clear” grid is to be used if the user needs snow/ice-free surface albedo, and the “snice” grid is to be used if the user needs surface albedo for snow/ice-presence. In the case of partial snow coverage, the user is advised to mix the “clear” and “snice” values, using the snow cover fraction (if known). ”

l.239 (also applicable to Section 4.8, i.e., the post-processing routines) – please describe how the solar-glint regions are incorporated (filtered? outright rejected?) under the approach.

Sun glint is not treated differently by the retrieval code. For the “clear” field, the algorithm is focused on the lowest scene LER observations (as explained in section 4.6). Sun glint observations are therefore filtered out automatically because sun glint scenes have a higher reflectance, like clouds have. This method works well. The retrieval code does have the possibility to exclude sun glint observations, because these are flagged in the TROPOMI L1 and L2 products. However, we decided not use this option. For the ”snice” field, sun glint is not an issue, because the ice-free ocean is skipped in this retrieval mode.

Sun glint should indeed have been mentioned. The text in section 4.6 of the manuscript now reads:

“… Note that sun glint observations were automatically filtered out because only the 10% observations having the lowest scene LER values were allowed to participate. …”

l.242 – how does the proposed thresholding work over the solar-glint areas? Please provide more details.

At this stage in the processing, sun glint observations should no longer be present because these were filtered out in the previous step described in section 4.6. If for some reasons a grid cell would suffer from sun glint at this stage, then this would be detected and remedied by the post-processing step. However, in practice, sun glint observations do not slip through to the post-processing stage.

We have added this to section 4.8 of the manuscript:
“Contamination by sun glint should not be present at this stage of the processing, because sun glint situations were filtered out quite robustly in the processing step described in Sect. 4.6. If for some reason contamination by sun glint would reach the post-processing step, then this would be detected and treated by the post-processing step in the same way as cloud contamination would be.”

Fig. 5 – the adopted false-color scheme does not serve the purpose. With the exceptions of some cloud/aerosol contamination over the open-water areas, no effects (the claimed cloud-shadow contamination inclusive) are perceivable over the continental landmasses, since one may not be able to distinguish between the seasonal and the contamination-induced trends: e.g., Brazil/Amazonia in (a) vs. (c). Moreover, thus presented, the potential contamination cannot be quantified in any meaningful way. Instead, one may consider providing global maps showing estimates of the contamination magnitudes for some key (trace-gas retrievals, clouds) wavelengths, preferably expressed as percentages of the underlying reflectivities.

It is true that cloud-shadow contamination cannot be seen in Figure 5. In earlier versions of the database, which did not have the cloud shadow filtering implemented, these were visible. The current version of the database does not suffer from these features. Unfortunately, we forgot to update the caption of Figure 5.

We have removed the wrong statement “In window (b) signs of cloud shadow impact can be seen in the southern regions” from the caption. To be precise, the caption of Figure 5 now reads:

“Figure 5. False colour composite images, created using the 402, 494, and 670-nm TROPOMI surface LER values, for four calendar months. While producing the images, the surface reflectivity was increased to better emphasise the presence of cloud and aerosol contamination, leading to saturation and discolouration over some of the desert areas. Certain regions show signs of cloud contamination. The impact of persistent aerosol plumes can also been seen in some cases.”

As for the cloud and aerosol contamination, these false-colour images were quite useful in the past when this method was applied to the GOME-1 LER database [Koelemeijer et al., 2003, Fig. 7], to the OMI LER database [Kleipool et al., 2008, Fig. 3], and to the SCIAMACHY and GOME-2 LER databases [Tilstra et al., 2017, Fig. 6]. The main reason for this is that these database were suffering more from cloud contamination, mainly because of the much larger footprint sizes of the observations, making the cloud contamination easier to observe in the false-colour images. A second reason is that for the retrieval of the GOME-1 and OMI LER databases no (absorbing) aerosol filtering was applied. Admittedly, in Figure 5 the cloud and aerosol contamination features are sometimes hard to spot, especially over the continental landmasses.

However, with the knowledge of the whereabouts of cloud and aerosol contamination hot spots obtained from the earlier LER databases, and by sharing this knowledge in the manuscript, we think it should be possible to observe the most prominent cloud and aerosol contamination features in Figure 5 also over the continental landmasses. The primary goal of Figure 5 is to show that cloud and aerosol contamination still exists to some degree, but that it is less of an issue compared to the earlier LER databases.

The strength of the false-colour method is that it does not require knowledge of the absolute magnitude of the cloud and aerosol contamination. Cloud contamination will always show up in white or grey. For the above reasons, and because the false-colour image in Figure 5 may be compared to similar false-colour images in the three papers mentioned above, we decided to keep Figure 5 the manuscript.
As for providing estimates of the cloud contamination, it is not possible to provide these because that would mean we would be able to know what the non-cloud contaminated situation would be.

l.466, 469, etc. – please clarify the meaning of '0.03+10%'.

The accuracy requirement is 0.03 plus an additional 10% of the value, so if the value is 0.1, then the uncertainty is 0.03 + 0.01 = 0.04 in the absolute sense.

Please note that, upon request by Reviewer #1, these uncertainty requirements are now mentioned in the introduction of the revised manuscript. The text in the introduction now reads:

“... For the validation study we used accuracy requirements on the DLER of 0.03+10% (0.03 plus 10% of the value, below 500 nm) and 0.02+10% (above 670 nm). ... ”

l.464 and on – please comment, one more time, on the relatively large differences seen in the TROPOMI-GOME-2 comparisons (Table S4).  

Agreed, we have changed the text in section 6.3 in accordingly:

“... Comparing with the GOME-2 surface LER database, we find an offset of about ~0.02 below 400 nm, which we can attribute to an offset in the GOME-2 surface LER database that was already reported earlier [Tilstra et al., 2017]. ... ”

l.118 – ...course...

Corrected.

The Supplement:

Is there any reason behind the very different seasonal trends seen in the Asian (sub)-tropical forests (Figures S1–S3)? The difference between 463 nm and the adjacent 670 and 380 nm samples is rather striking. One may call the May 380 nm outlier a suspect (instrument – unmitigated straylight? clouds?). This difference is even more striking considering the close match between the average Asian-forest spectra plotted in Figure S4. The same may apply to the Evergreen woodland at 380 nm (August) as seen in Figures S1–S3.

Thank you very much for reporting this. In fact, looking for an explanation for these issues we found a bug in our plotting routine. This bug was introduced at some point when the plotting routine was extended to also handle the 380, 494 and 670-nm wavelength bands meant for the supplement (next to the 772-nm wavelength band that was already presented in the manuscript and which was handled correctly). We have recreated the plots presented in Figures S1–S3 and this fortunately solves all the observed issues in one go.

Figure S13 may help to estimate the magnitude of cloud contamination in the continental North America DLER data (April-September biases). This important estimate could be mentioned in the main text.

We do see that there is a tendency towards higher slopes in the months April to September. Perhaps cloud contamination is an issue here. It could also be caused by aerosols. This is certainly something to look into. We have decided to mention the observation of the biases (higher slopes) in the Supplement and to note that
these may be related to cloud and/or aerosol contamination in the TROPOMI DLER database. The text in section S4.1 of the Supplement now reads:

“For most of the case studies there is not a large dependence on the calendar month. For case 3, the “North America” region, the scatter plots shown in Fig. S13 for the months April till September show slopes considerably larger than one. This may be related to cloud and/or aerosol contamination present in the TROPOMI DLER database and will be studied more closely in the future.”

References:


