

1 **Radiative forcing bias of simulated surface albedo modifications**
2 **linked to forest cover changes at northern latitudes**

3 RUNNING TITLE: On albedo bias in climate models

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16 **Abstract**

17 In the presence of snow, the bias in the prediction of surface albedo by many climate models
18 remains difficult to correct due to the difficulties of separating the albedo parameterizations
19 from those describing snow and vegetation cover and structure. This can be overcome by
20 extracting the albedo parameterizations in isolation, by executing them with observed
21 meteorology and information on vegetation structure, and by comparing the resulting
22 predictions to observations. Here, we employ an empirical dataset of forest structure and
23 daily meteorology for three snow cover seasons and for three case regions in boreal Norway
24 to compute and evaluate predicted albedo to those based on daily MODIS retrievals. Forest
25 and adjacent open area albedos are subsequently used to estimate bias in top-of-the-
26 atmosphere (TOA) radiative forcings (RF) from albedo changes ($\Delta\alpha$, Open - Forest)
27 connected to land use and land cover changes (LULCC).

28 As expected, given the diversity of approaches by which snow masking by tall-statured
29 vegetation is parameterized, the magnitude and sign of the albedo biases varied considerably
30 for forests. Large biases at the open sites were also detected which was unexpected given that
31 these sites were snow-covered throughout most of the analytical time period therefore
32 eliminating potential biases linked to snow-masking parameterizations. Biases at the open
33 sites were mostly positive, exacerbating the strength of vegetation masking effects and hence
34 the simulated LULCC $\Delta\alpha$ RF. Despite the large biases in both forest and open area albedos
35 by some schemes in some months and years, the mean $\Delta\alpha$ RF bias over the three-year period
36 (Nov. – May) was considerably small across models ($-2.1 \pm 1.04 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$; $21\% \pm 11\%$); 4 of 6
37 models had normalized mean absolute errors less than 20%. Identifying systematic sources of
38 the albedo prediction biases proved challenging, although for some schemes clear sources
39 were identified.

40

41 Keywords: MODIS, LULCC, prediction, vegetation masking, land use, land surface, climate

42 model

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Albedo change radiative perturbations due to land use and land cover change (LULCC) have
45 long been considered some of the strongest climate forcing mechanisms at global and
46 regional scales (Cess, 1978; Otterman, 1977), yet results from recent historical LULCC
47 modeling studies reveal an order of magnitude spread in the temperature response from
48 albedo change forcings (Brovkin et al., 2006; Lawrence et al., 2012; Pongratz et al., 2010).
49 This is likely because, in regions and months with snow cover, the interactions between
50 vegetation and snow significantly complicate the relationship between the change in forest
51 cover fraction and surface albedo (α_s) (de Noblet-Ducoudré et al., 2012). Outcomes of
52 model inter-comparison studies (LUCID) (Boisier et al., 2012) employing identical LULCC
53 prescriptions suggest that, apart from the way individual land surface models (LSMs)
54 implement LULCC in their own land cover map (i.e., differences in biogeography), model
55 differences in the way α_s is parameterized could be a significant source of this spread (de
56 Noblet-Ducoudré et al., 2012; Pitman et al., 2009). Recent attributional analysis by Boisier et
57 al. (2012) suggests that the contribution from the latter is indeed comparable to the former and
58 worthy of further investigation, particularly given the importance of albedo radiative
59 feedbacks when ground or canopy surfaces are covered with snow (Crook and Forster, 2014;
60 Hall and Qu, 2006).

61 Simulated α_s over snow-covered forests by climate models is often biased high (Essery, 2013;
62 Lorant et al., 2014; Roesch, 2006). While most climate models distinguish between snow
63 intercepted in forest canopies and snow on the ground, many differ in how they parameterize
64 the fractions of ground and canopy that are covered with snow for given masses of lying and
65 intercepted snow (Essery, 2013; Qu and Hall, 2007). This is likely because, rather than trying
66 to simulate the complex processes of canopy snow interception and unloading as is done by

67 many sophisticated, physically-based snow models (Essery et al., 2013; Essery et al., 2009) –
68 many climate models must employ simplified parameterizations to reduce computational
69 demands. In their assessment of α_s feedbacks simulated by 14 CMIP5 models, Qu and Hall
70 (2014) found that the largest intermodel spread in α_s occurred in northern latitude regions and
71 suspected it to be the reason for the differences in the large range of local feedbacks. As with
72 their previous inter-comparison analysis (Qu and Hall, 2007), Qu and Hall (2014) assert that
73 parameterizations of snow masking in many CMIP5 models may still require improvement.

74 We hypothesize that parameterizations of snow masking by vegetation can be refined and
75 improved in many climate models. To this end, we evaluate albedo parameterizations of six
76 prominent climate models in greater detail in order to pinpoint major sources of bias and
77 inter-model variability. Rather than running the full land model, we extract only the requisite
78 equations (parameterizations) enabling albedo prediction using observed forest structure and
79 daily meteorology. Climate models are typically evaluated by looking at differences between
80 their results and observation. In the presence of snow, a bias in the simulated albedo may be
81 due to deviations in the modeled snow cover or to an inaccurate representation of forest cover
82 (biogeography) in the climate model. Thus it is difficult to unravel the single contributions to
83 the overall error, making it challenging to benchmark albedo schemes by this approach. By
84 contrast, in this study the albedo schemes are not embedded in the climate models but are
85 isolated and driven directly by observation, making it easier to evaluate their performance.
86 Predicted albedos for both forest and open areas are compared to daily MODIS retrievals
87 spanning three snow cover seasons in three case regions of boreal Norway. Radiative
88 forcings from the conversion of forests to open lands are then computed, providing an
89 additional metric for benchmarking errors in the simulated albedo. We compare the
90 performance of the six albedo schemes to that in which albedo is predicted with a purely

91 empirical model developed in parallel, concluding with a discussion about the efforts required
92 to improve albedo prediction accuracy by climate models.

93 **2. Material and Methods**

94 **2.1. MODIS albedo**

95 We employed Version 006 (v006) MCD43A 1-day daily Albedo/BRDF product having 500
96 m by 500 m spatial resolution (Wang and Schaaf, 2013; Wang et al., 2012), taking the direct
97 beam (“black-sky”) α_s at local solar noon for visible (VIS; 0.3-0.7 μm) and near infrared
98 (NIR; 0.7-5.0 μm) spectral bands for the time periods spanning Jan. through May 2007 and
99 Nov. through May 2007-2008. The v006 product uses multiple clear sky views available over
100 a 16-day period to provide daily α_s values that represent the best BRDF possible with the day
101 of interest emphasized. This includes as many overpasses that are available per day (while
102 earlier versions of the algorithm, including the Direct Broadcast version, were limited to only
103 4 observations per day (Shuai, 2010)), enabling it to better capture the daily albedo with an
104 algorithm that more strongly emphasizes all contributions from the single day of interest
105 (Wright et al., 2014).

106 **2.2. Forest structure and meteorology**

107 Structural attributes like leaf area index (LAI), canopy height, and canopy cover fraction were
108 derived from regional aerial Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) campaigns undertaken in
109 June of 2009 following Solberg *et al.* (2009). The maximum, minimum, and median values
110 of these attributes connected to each MODIS pixel included in the analysis are presented in
111 Table 1.

112

113

114 **Table 1.** Minimum, maximum, and median tree height (H80), canopy cover fraction, and
 115 LAI in the sampled evergreen needleleaf forests of each study region (sampled June, 2009).
 116 H80 is the 80th percentile of laser scanning first echoes, corresponding to canopy surface
 117 height in meters above ground which is correlated to biomass and used as a proxy for tree
 118 height.

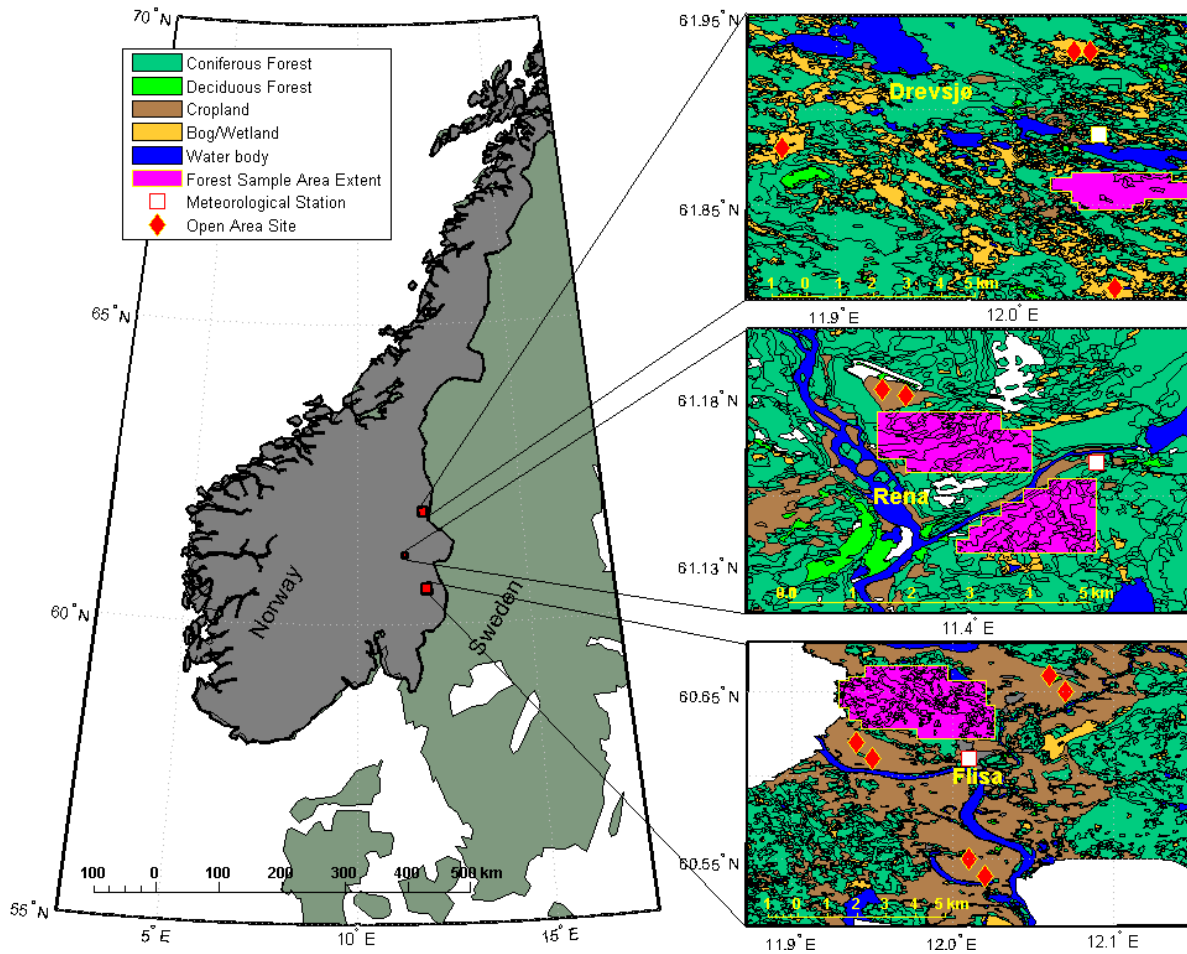
Study Region	Sample Area (km ²)	Tree height, (H80; m)			Canopy cover fraction			LAI (m ⁻² m ⁻²)		
		Min	Max	Median	Min	Max	Median	Min	Max	Median
(Number of MCD43A pixels)										
Flisa (n=65)	14.0	3.1	15.8	11.8	25%	77%	63%	0.55	2.35	1.73
Rena (n=34)	7.3	5.7	13.0	9.8	50%	80%	63%	1.31	1.82	1.52
Drevsjø (n=36)	7.7	3.2	10.2	7.5	27%	52%	40%	0.43	1.21	0.81
Regional Mean	29.0 ^a	4.0	13.0	9.7	34%	69.7%	55.3%	0.76	1.79	1.35

119 ^a Value is column sum.

120

121 Daily meteorological observations of mean and maximum wind speed (ms⁻¹), mean and
 122 maximum near-surface air temperatures (°C), snow depth (cm), and precipitation (mm) were
 123 taken from measuring stations in the municipalities of Drevsjø (675 m), Flisa (200 m), and
 124 Rena (250 m) located in eastern Norway (Figure 1) in the county of Hedmark (Norwegian
 125 Meteorological Institute, 2013). Additional meteorological information not available directly,
 126 such as snow density and snowfall, were computed with empirical models and the available
 127 observations as inputs. For example, precipitation was partitioned into snow and rain
 128 following the empirical analysis of Dai (2008) in which rain occurred more frequently than
 129 snow over land when air temperatures exceeded 1.2 °C. Snow density was computed with
 130 snow depth, air temperature, and wind speed based on the empirical work of Meløysund *et al.*
 131 (2007).

132 Site-specific air temperatures were adjusted using the station-measured observations and an
133 environmental lapse rate of $-6.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{km}$. All three sub-regions lie in Köppen-Geiger climate
134 zone "Dsc" (boreal) but experience variations in snow fall amount and frequency and the
135 temporal extent of the snow cover season (additional meteorological information may be
136 found in Supporting Information).



137
138 **Figure 1.** Study regions showing the location of the open ("Cropland" or "Bog/Wetland")
139 and coniferous forested sites included in the analysis. Meteorological station locations are
140 also indicated.

141 Local forest management plans were used to identify forest stands of pure ($>95\%$ volume, m^3
142 ha^{-1}) evergreen needleleaf forest cover within a $\sim 5\text{ km}$ radius and $\sim 50\text{ m}$ altitude range of a
143 weather monitoring station. Evergreen needleleaf species in the region included Scots Pine

144 (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and Norway Spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H. Karst.). Twelve open area sites
145 within the same 5 km proximity to a weather station were selected in order to simulate
146 forcings associated with regional LULCC (forest to open), shown in Figure 1. In total, 135
147 forested MODIS pixels (approximately 2,900 hectares) and 12 open area pixels (8 cropland, 4
148 wetland/peatland) were included in the sample.

149 **2.3. Albedo parameterizations in climate models**

150 The albedo parameterizations chosen for the analysis (Table 2) were selected because they are
151 widely employed in climate/earth system models and because they are diverse with respect to
152 the parameterization of ground masking by vegetation, which can be classified according to
153 three prevailing methods introduced in Qu & Hall (2007) (and later described in Essery
154 (2013)). Briefly, the first method estimates radiative transfer between the vegetation canopy
155 and the ground surface; the second method combines the vegetation and ground albedos with
156 weights determined by vegetation cover; and the third method combines the snow-free and
157 snow albedo with weights determined by snow cover. Varying degrees of complexity in
158 albedo parameterizations stem from the way snow albedo metamorphosis effects are treated
159 and the way vegetation structure is utilized.

160 We note that we do not run the entire land models offline; rather, we extract only the
161 equations (parameterizations) required to calculate the surface albedos of both open terrain
162 and forests. In some (albeit limited) cases, certain parts of the albedo parameterizations have
163 been slightly modified for technical reasons, rendering them not fully identical to those
164 implemented in the full model (see section S3).

165 Direct beam (“black-sky”) albedos are calculated at local solar noon to be compatible with the
166 MODIS retrievals. The albedo parameterizations of JSBACH and GISS II do not differentiate
167 between direct and diffuse beam components and are assumed to represent the total- or “blue-

168 sky” albedo. The direct beam component, however, typically dominates the total albedo
169 under clear-sky conditions (Ni and Woodcock, 2000; Wang, 2005; Wang and Zeng, 2009)
170 and were thus deemed reasonable for purpose of comparison.

171 **2.4. Regression modeling**

172 Non-linear multiple regressions are performed using the forest structure and meteorological
173 observations as predictor variables. The functional form of the models are adapted from
174 several important physically-based parameterizations found in many current albedo schemes.
175 Eq. (1) is the best performing model:

$$176 \quad \alpha_s = k_1 + k_2(1 - e^{-LAI}) + k_3 \tanh(d / k_4) \left(e^{-k_5(LAI)} + \left[1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-k_6 T^{MAX}}} \right] \right) \quad (1)$$

177 where LAI , d , and T^{Max} are leaf area index, snow depth, and maximum daily (24-hr.)
178 temperature, respectively. k_1 is the ground albedo (directional hemispherical) without the
179 forest canopy scaled by a canopy radiative fraction term $(1 - e^{-LAI})$ and the parameter k_2 , with
180 k_2 representing the maximum albedo difference at the highest observed LAI values. See
181 Supporting Information (section S4) for a detailed overview and description of the regression
182 model and its theoretical underpinnings, its parameters (Table S5), and its performance
183 statistics (Table S5).

184 **2.5. Radiative forcing**

185 Top-of-atmosphere (TOA) radiative forcing simulations for the conversion of forest
186 (evergreen needleleaf only) to open land ($\Delta\alpha_s$, Open – Forest) is computed using a 3-D four
187 spectral band, eight-stream radiative transfer model (Myhre et al., 2007) based on the discrete
188 ordinate method (Stamnes et al., 1988). The four spectral bands are divided into the spectral
189 regions 300-500 nm, 501-850 nm, 851-1500 nm, and 1501-4000 nm where MODIS VIS

190 albedos are included in the two first bands and MODIS NIR albedos are included into the
191 latter two bands. The reported RF is the integrated over the four spectral bands. The
192 radiative transfer code has been compared to detailed line-by-line calculations for various
193 applications with agreement of the order of 10% (Myhre et al., 2009; Randles et al., 2013).

194 The model is run with a 3-hr. time step with a horizontal resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and a vertical
195 resolution of 40 layers. Meteorological data from the ECMWF is used in the radiative
196 transfer simulations and several atmospheric aerosol types are included in the model (Myhre
197 et al., 2007). LULCC RF is estimated by taking the difference in the net shortwave radiative
198 flux at TOA after setting the monthly mean α_s of the entire $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell (centered over
199 the domains of case study region) first to that of open lands then to that of forests.

200

201 **Table 2.** Albedo parameterizations included in the analysis and their associated land and climate models.

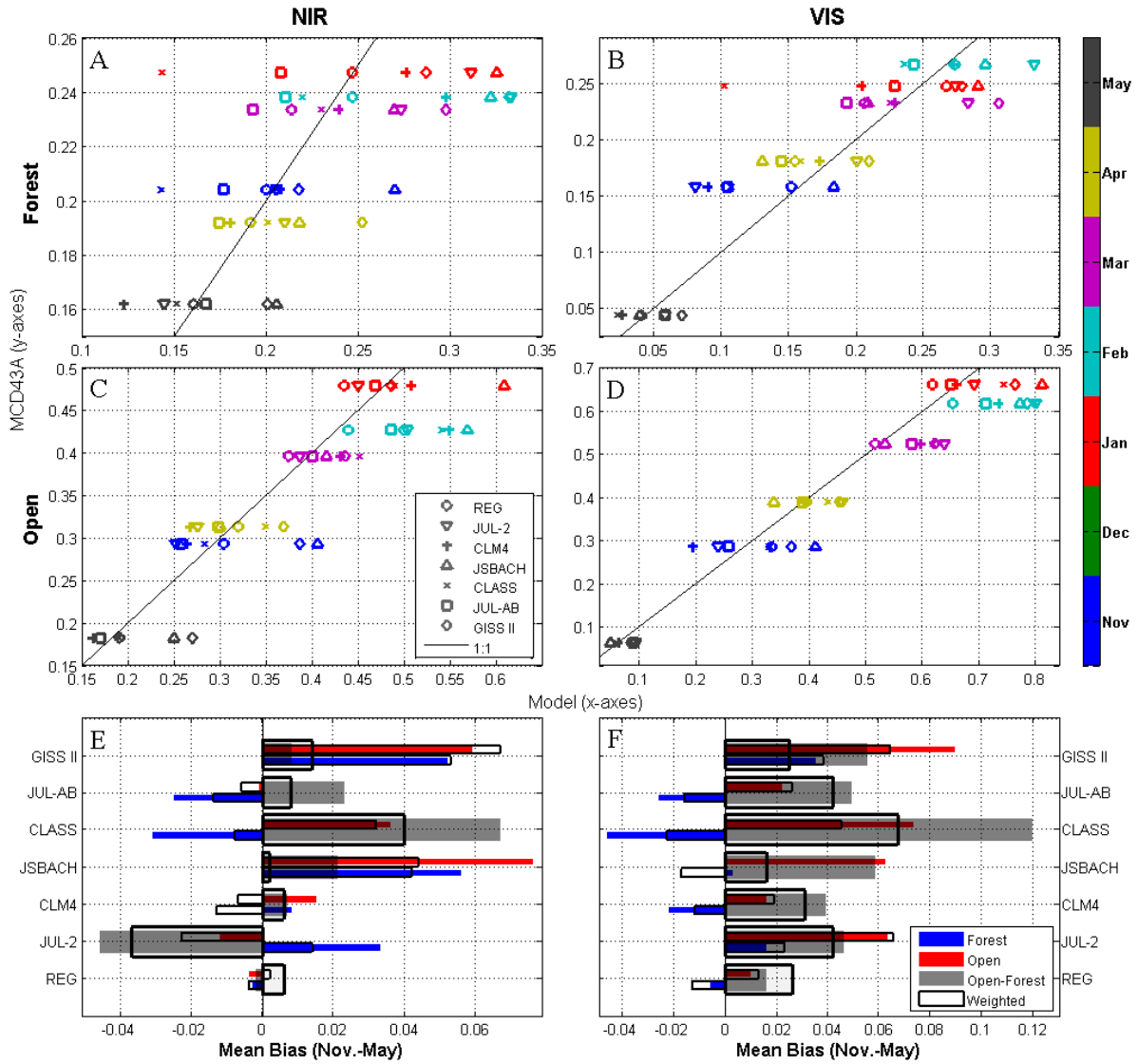
Land model origin of α_s parameterizations	Climate Model	Snow albedo	Vegetation masking effect^b	Forest structure	Technical documentation	Other supporting references
CLASS	CGCM4; CanCM4	prognostic procedure	type 2	yes	(Verseghy, 2009)	(Verseghy et al., 1993)
CLM4.0	NCAR CCSM4; NCAR CESM; Nor- ESM	prognostic procedure	type 1	yes	(Oleson et al., 2010)	(Dickinson, 1983; Flanner and Zender, 2006; Sellers, 1985)
GISS II	GISS GCM II; GISS GCM ModelE	prognostic procedure	type 3	no	(Hansen et al., 1983)	(Matthews, 1984)
JULES ^a (2-stream)	UKMO HadGEM2	prognostic procedure	type 3	yes	(Best, 2009)	(Marshall, 1989; Sellers, 1985; Wiscombe and Warren, 1980)
JULES ^a (all-band)	UKMO HadCM3	diagnostic procedure	type 3	yes	(Best, 2009)	(Essery et al., 2001)
JSBACH	MPI-ESM	diagnostic procedure	type 2	yes	(Reick et al., 2012)	(Otto et al., 2011)

202 ^a Formerly MOSES203 ^b Classification based on Qu & Hall (2007)

204 **3. Results**

205 **3.1 Albedo**

206 When looking at regional averages in predicted α_s presented in Figure 2, no single model
207 apart from the regression model (“REG”) performed consistently well across all months at
208 both Forest and Open sites and for both spectral bands. Starting with the NIR band (Fig. 2,
209 left column), JSBACH showed clear positive biases at both Open and Forest sites for most
210 months. Positive biases in GISS II were more prevalent for Forest although positive biases
211 were also found at Open sites for months with partial snow cover (Nov., Apr., May). Large
212 positive biases for the JULES 2-stream (“JUL-2”) scheme were limited to Forest and to
213 winter months of Jan., Feb., and March. With the exception of February, slight negative
214 biases by JUL-2 at the Open sites were found in all months except Feb.; this was true also for
215 the JULES All-band scheme (“JUL-AB”) with the exception of Mar. The largest difference
216 between the two JULES schemes occurred for Forest, where JUL-AB consistently
217 underpredicted α_s in all months except May. Large negative biases in Forest by CLASS
218 were found in Nov. and Jan., with smaller negative biases in Feb.



219

220 **Figure 2.** A-D): Remotely sensed (MCD43A, y-axis) and modeled (x-axis) direct-beam
 221 albedos (monthly means, 2007-2009) in evergreen needleleaf forests (A & B)) and adjacent
 222 open areas (C & D) for both near-infrared and visible bands averaged across all three study
 223 regions; E) & F): Nov.-May mean bias (regional and monthly means, 2007-2009) and
 224 insolation-weighted mean bias. A), C), and E) = VIS band; B), D), and F) = NIR band. High
 225 solar zenith angles precluded the number of sufficient MODIS retrievals in December, thus

226 December mean biases were excluded from the Nov.-May mean; $MB = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha_{Model} - \alpha_{Obs.})$

227 Moving on to the VIS band (Fig. 2, right column), most schemes overpredicted α_s during
228 months Jan. – Mar. at the Open sites. The largest spread (i.e., standard deviation (SD)) at the
229 Open sites occurred during Nov. (SD = 0.08), where the largest negative bias was found for
230 CLM4 and positive bias for JSBACH. Like in the NIR band, results varied more at the Forest
231 sites where biases across months were more evenly distributed around zero (“1:1 line”).
232 Again, here we found positive biases by JUL-2 yet negative biases by JUL-AB during Jan.-
233 April. Positive biases by JSBACH were mostly confined to Nov., Jan., and Feb. at both Open
234 and Forest sites. Unlike the NIR band in which positive biases at Open sites by GISS II were
235 limited to Nov., Apr., and May – positive biases occurred for the VIS band in all months;
236 however, the positive biases in Forests seen for the NIR band during Nov., Feb., and Apr.
237 were reduced. Like the NIR band, large negative biases were found for CLASS for Nov.,
238 Jan., and Feb.

239 In general, Figure 2 shows that the inter-model spread was smaller for the VIS band
240 predictions relative to NIR, and at Open sites relative to Forest sites. Figure 2 also indicates
241 that the inter-model spread in α_s predictions for both bands and land cover types was larger
242 during Nov. – Feb. and smaller during Mar. - May. With the exception of JUL-2 in the NIR
243 band, all models overpredicted Nov. – May mean $\Delta\alpha_s$ (Fig. 2 E & F, “Open – Forest”) in
244 both spectral bands. Models with negative α_s biases at Forest sites and positive α_s biases at
245 Open sites – such as CLASS and JUL-AB – led to some of the largest positive $\Delta\alpha_s$ biases.
246 For some schemes like GISS II and JSBACH, positive α_s biases at both Open and Forest sites
247 offset each other resulting in low $\Delta\alpha_s$ biases, particularly in the NIR band. Only for the NIR
248 band (Fig. 2 E) did any model underpredict $\Delta\alpha_s$. Here, JUL-2 under- and overpredicted α_s
249 at Forest and Open sites, respectively.

250 Monthly α_s biases were often reduced when weighted by the relative share of monthly
251 insolation during Nov.-May, as seen in Figure 2 particularly for the JSBACH and CLASS
252 schemes, which suggests that a large share of the bias occurred during winter months.

253

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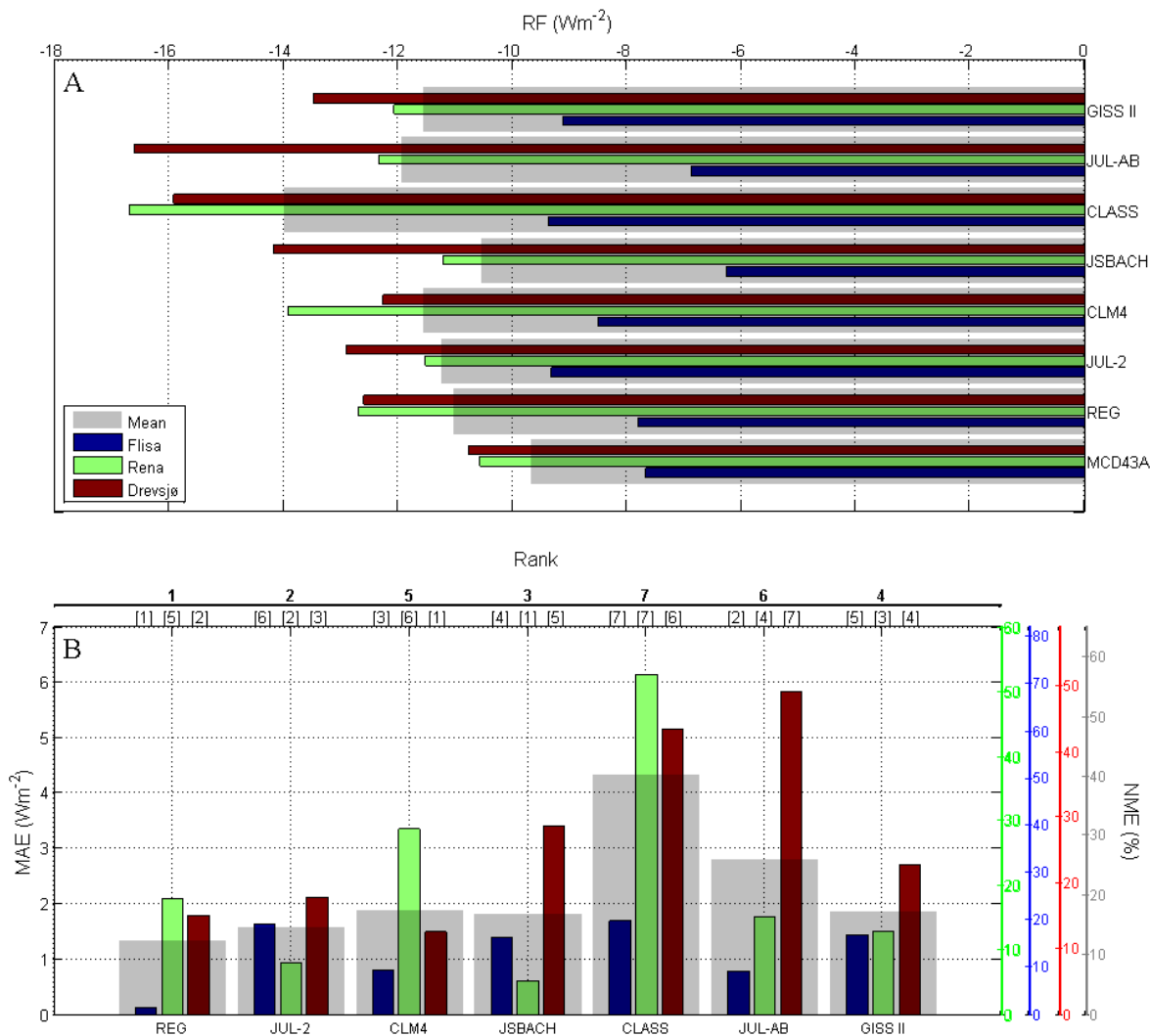
255

256 **3.2 Radiative Forcing**

257 Nov. – May mean (2007-2009) TOA RF from simulated LULCC ($\Delta\alpha_s$, Open – Forest) are
258 presented in Figure 3A for each of the three case study regions. In Rena and Drevsjø, all
259 models overpredicted $\Delta\alpha_s$ and thus simulated LULCC RF. No clear patterns emerged
260 regarding relationships between RF error, model, and study region; RF errors by REG,
261 CLM4, and CLASS were larger in Rena (green bars) relative to Drevsjø (red bars) – while RF
262 errors were larger for the JULES models, JSBACH, and GISS II for Drevsjø relative to Rena.
263 One would expect a larger spread in the modeled RF for Drevsjø given the larger inherent
264 variability in vegetation structure in the forest sample (Table 1) and given the fundamental
265 differences in the way each albedo scheme handles vegetation structure (SI section S3), yet
266 we found the largest inter-model spread occurring in Rena (RF SD = 0.075), where the
267 normalized mean errors (NME) ranged from 6% - 58% for JSBACH and CLASS,
268 respectively (Fig. 3B, green right-hand y-axis). For Drevsjø, the inter-model spread was
269 smaller (RF SD = 0.067), with RF NME ranging from 14% - 54% for CLM4 and JUL-AB
270 respectively. One possible explanation is that Rena experienced more frequent precipitation
271 events, more fluctuating maximum daily temperature (above and below freezing), and a
272 snowpack that tended to melt more rapidly in early spring than in Drevsjø (Figure S1) – all of
273 which complicated the prediction of ground and forest canopy α_s in the presence of snow.

274 The inter-model spread was lowest in Flisa (RF SD = 0.05), with RF NME ranging from 2%
275 for the Regression model and 22% for CLASS, respectively. In Flisa, JSBACH and JUL-AB
276 underestimated the strength of the vegetation masking effect ($\Delta\alpha_s$ bias) and thus the
277 simulated LULCC RF. Together with CLASS, these two schemes also led to some of the
278 largest RF spreads across sub-regions by any single model, where RF NME for JUL-AB

279 ranged from 10% - 54% for Flisa and Drevsjø, respectively; for CLASS 22% - 58% for Flisa
 280 and Rena, respectively; and for JSBACH from 6%-32% for Flisa and Drevsjø, respectively.



281
 282 **Figure 3.** A) Radiative forcing (RF) from simulated vs. remotely sensed (MCD43A) albedo
 283 differences (Open - Forest), 2007-2009 Nov. – May mean (excluding December). B) Mean
 284 Absolute Error (MAE), Normalized Mean absolute Error (NME), and rank, 2007-2009 Nov.-
 285 May mean. Rank values in bold correspond to the regional mean, whereas individual case
 286 region ranks are listed over each bar (colors defined in A) legend). Right-hand y-axis (NME)

287 colors correspond to individual bar colors. $MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |RF_{Model} - RF_{Obs.}|$;

288 $NME = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N |RF_{Model} - RF_{Obs.}|}{(\sum_{i=1}^N RF_{Obs.})^{-1}}$

289 For JSBACH, the result of having a positive $\Delta\alpha_s$ bias in Drevsjø (Table S6; Figures S25 &
 290 S28) and a negative $\Delta\alpha_s$ bias in Flisa (Table S6; Figures S23 & S26) is a regional mean RF
 291 (Fig. 3A, grey bar) that most closely resembled the MODIS based RF. With MAE (or NME)
 292 as a metric, however, JSBACH only ranked 3rd of 7 (Fig. 3B, top). Although not ranked 1st in
 293 all sub-regions, REG led to the most accurate regional mean RF prediction (MAE/NME, Fig.
 294 3B, grey).

295 It is worth reiterating that some schemes such as that of GISS II severely overpredicted α_s at
 296 both Open and Forest sites (Fig. 2) which was not reflected in $\Delta\alpha_s$ or $\Delta\alpha_s$ RF, thereby giving
 297 the impression that the scheme ranked relatively high in accuracy.

298 **5. Discussion**

299 A notable finding of our study is that parameterizations of open area α_s – which is governed
 300 mostly by the albedo of snow from Jan. through early April – contributed as much to $\Delta\alpha_s$
 301 prediction error as that of forests (Fig. 2). The bias was mostly positive although there is
 302 some evidence that MODIS may underestimate the albedo of cold dry snow (Jin et al., 2002;
 303 Stroeve et al., 2005; Wang and Zender, 2010) – particularly in VIS bands (Wang and Zender,
 304 2010). Jin et al. (2002), for example, assert that there may be up to a 10% negative bias in
 305 the MODIS pure dry snow albedo (Jin et al., 2002), which could partially explain why most
 306 models in our study tended to overestimate α_s during the coldest months of Jan. and Feb.
 307 (Figure 2). An additional source of negative MODIS albedo bias could stem from the spatial

308 heterogeneity of the landscape comprising the actual pixel signature, which could extend up
309 to 500 m beyond the specified spatial footprint at high latitudes (Cescatti et al., 2012; Wang
310 et al., 2012) and thus include the spectral signatures of built structures, other vegetation cover
311 (trees), vegetation shadowing (from trees), etc. We note also that Jan. and most of Feb. are
312 months with solar zenith angles $>70^\circ$ for our case study regions; at these angles the
313 atmospheric correction algorithm degrades and the uncertainty in the MODIS retrievals is
314 increased (Lucht et al., 2000; Schaaf et al., 2002; Stroeve et al., 2005). Factoring in any
315 potential negative MODIS snow α_s bias would reduce some of the positive open area biases
316 (Figure 2) but not all of it, particularly for CLASS and JSBACH, whose positive open area
317 α_s biases were particularly large during months with snow cover. Snow α_s was reset to a
318 maximum after a fresh snowfall event (Tab. S2 & S3); however, MODIS albedo retrievals
319 were far below the prescribed maximum snow albedo values of these two schemes after fresh
320 snowfall events (Fig.'s S23-25 for JSBACH and Fig.'s S29-31 for CLASS), particularly for
321 the VIS band.

322 The two schemes with regional mean RF NMEs (Fig. 3B) above 20% were the CLASS and
323 JUL-AB schemes. For CLASS, RF NME $>20\%$ was realized for all three sub-regions. The
324 $\Delta\alpha_s$ RF bias of CLASS was due to overpredictions at open area sites and underpredictions at
325 forested sites. The latter is due to the parameterization of canopy transmittance that is based
326 on an extinction coefficient that incorporates a correction factor of 0.6 and 0.8 for NIR and
327 VIS bands, respectively (Eq.'s S10-S11). Lowering the correction factor to 0.5 and 0.6 for
328 NIR and VIS bands, respectively, lowers the extinction coefficient and increases canopy
329 transmittance, which serves to reduce the negative albedo biases in forests – particularly at
330 high solar zenith angles (Nov. – Feb.). The lower extinction coefficient is in line with more
331 recent observations in boreal evergreen forests (Aubin et al., 2000; Balster and Marshall,

332 2000). As aforementioned, at the open sites the VIS albedo constant of 0.95 for fresh snow
333 was too high; the maximum remotely sensed VIS albedo after a fresh snowfall event was 0.88
334 (all study regions), and adjusting to 0.90 would alleviate some of this bias (disregarding
335 potential MODIS biases).

336 Although JUL-AB (formerly MOSES v. 2.2) ranked 6 of 7 overall when considering only the
337 regional mean RF MAE and NME, in two of the three study regions (Flisa and Rena) it
338 performed quite well, with RF NMEs of <11% and <16% for Flisa and Rena, respectively.
339 The large RF NME for Drevsjø was a result of a severe negative bias in the predicted α_s of
340 forests (Fig. S10), which resulted in large positive $\Delta\alpha_s$ biases (Tab. S7). The explanation is
341 due to the use of vegetation-specific snow albedo parameters that were too low for forests in
342 this region – forests that were characterized as having the lowest median tree heights, LAIs,
343 and canopy cover fractions out of the three forested sub-regions (Table 1).

344 Of the existing land model schemes included in this study, the albedo parameterizations of
345 JUL-2 performed best in the LULCC RF simulations (Fig. 3), although we note that it
346 underestimated the strength of the vegetation masking effect ($\Delta\alpha_s$) in the NIR band while
347 overestimating it in the VIS band (Fig. 2) (consistent across all three individual study regions
348 (Tab. S6)) which may have had offsetting effects in the RF simulations. A closer inspection
349 of the daily α_s time series (Section S.5.2) hints that forest albedo (S14-16) may be too
350 sensitive to snow depth (Fig. S1) – an important variable in the parameterization of snow
351 cover fraction (Eq. S2). For example, α_s predictions were biased positive at snow depths
352 above 0.6 m (typical in Rena and Drevsjø during the winter-spring of 2008 and 2009) while
353 biased negative at Flisa during 2007 and 2008 for which snow depths never exceeded 0.4 m.
354 This same sensitivity of forest α_s on snow depth was also found for the GISS II scheme –

355 another Type 3 scheme – resulting in positive α_s biases in forests. This sensitivity to snow
356 depth was not evident for JUL-AB – the third Type 3 scheme. This is because, unlike GISS II
357 and JUL-2, snow albedo is vegetation-dependent and constrained by satellite remote sensing
358 (MODIS).

359 In agreement with findings in Essery (2013), we generally find that no single type of scheme
360 (as described in section 2.1 and in Qu & Hall (2007)) stood out as performing better or worse
361 relative to the others. In their latest CMIP5 simulations, Qu and Hall (2014) assert that type 2
362 schemes – or those which parameterize albedo as a function of vegetation cover rather than
363 snow cover – generally tended to overestimate the strength of the snow albedo masking effect
364 ($\Delta\alpha_s$) due to negative biases in forest α_s predictions. For JSBACH – a Type 2 scheme – we
365 did not detect this bias; rather, we found positive biases in Forest in both bands, particularly
366 during the snow season which is consistent with findings of Brovkin *et al.* (2013) and
367 Hagemann *et al.* (2013). NIR albedo predictions in Flisa and Rena during snow-free periods
368 were also biased high (figures in SI section S.5.4) resulting in underestimations of NIR $\Delta\alpha_s$,
369 which we attributed to a snow-free vegetation albedo constant that was too high (Table S3).
370 The positive RF bias seen at Drevsjø (Fig. 3) stemmed from negative biases in the springtime
371 (Mar. – May) VIS α_s in forests (Fig. S29). This may be attributed to the default use of 1 as
372 the stem area index (SAI) used in the masking parameterization (Reick *et al.*, 2012);
373 observational evidence suggests this may be too high in boreal regions in spring (Lawrence
374 and Chase, 2007).

375 While the simulated $\Delta\alpha_s$ RF by GISS II appeared relatively robust (Fig. 3), α_s predictions in
376 Forest and Open were strongly positively biased in both spectral bands. In forests, this could
377 be attributed to two main factors: i) a dependence on snow-free albedo constants that were
378 too high, particularly when applied at the denser (i.e., high canopy cover fraction, Tab. 1)

379 sites of Flisa and Rena; ii) a strong dependency on snow depth and/or lack of explicit
380 representation of forest structure in the masking expression which led to overpredictions in
381 Rena and Drevsjø (Figs. S39 & S40) – regions that experienced snow depths greater than 60
382 cm for much of the winter and early spring in 2008 and 2009 (Mar. – late Apr.). NIR biases
383 at the open sites (Figures S35-37) were attributed to the use of snow-free vegetation constants
384 that were too high (Tab. S4).

385 Sources of RF biases in CLM4 were harder to discern, as the sign of the predicted $\Delta\alpha_s$ bias
386 was not consistent across study sites and months. $\Delta\alpha_s$ bias was negative and mostly limited
387 to March and April at Flisa and Rena (Tab. S6). $\Delta\alpha_s$ bias was positive at Drevsjø and
388 occurred mostly in April and May due to overpredictions in both NIR and VIS α_s in Forest
389 and underpredictions in both NIR and VIS α_s at Open sites (Fig.'s S17-22).

390 Not surprisingly, the purely empirical α_s model presented here (Eq. 1) calibrated with local
391 forest structure and meteorological observations performed best on average throughout the
392 region (i.e., Fig. 3; MAE, NME, and Rank). However, to our surprise, it did not rank first in
393 all study regions; it ranked 5th in Rena which was the region having the fewest forest
394 structure, meteorological, and MODIS albedo retrievals. This highlights the high
395 performance dependencies of purely empirically-based models on the underlying datasets to
396 which they are calibrated. Although it is tempting to recommend its application over existing
397 modeling schemes in boreal regions, rigorous evaluation efforts would be needed to assess the
398 degree of transportability and reliability when applied in other regions having different forest
399 structures and climate regimes (Bright et al., 2015).

400 **5.1 Conclusions**

401 LULCC radiative forcings (RF) from changes in simulated land surface albedo ($\Delta\alpha_s$) as
402 predicted by the albedo parameterizations employed by six leading climate models were
403 evaluated using observed meteorology and forest structure for a case region in Norway and by
404 comparing to MODIS daily albedo retrievals. Compared to RF estimations based on MODIS
405 albedo, most of the albedo schemes overestimated the magnitude of the simulated regional
406 mean RF (Fig. 3) by overestimating $\Delta\alpha_s$ (Fig. 2), although results varied between three sub-
407 regions within the broader case study region. For instance, in a sub-region characterized as
408 having the highest forest productivity and lowest seasonal snow cover of the three (Flisa),
409 albedo schemes of two land models (JSBACH and JULES All-band) underestimated $\Delta\alpha_s$
410 RF.

411 Efforts to uncover sources of systematic albedo biases proved challenging as no clear
412 discernible patterns could be detected across study regions or between the different types of
413 schemes (section 2.3), although some systematic sources of bias in forest α_s were identified
414 for the albedo schemes of CLASS, JULES All-band, JSBACH, and GISS II. Severe negative
415 albedo bias in winter months by CLASS -- evident across all three study regions -- was
416 attributed to the parameterization of canopy transmittance. For GISS II, persistent positive
417 α_s biases were linked to snow-free vegetation albedos (both VIS and NIR bands) that were
418 too high and to a snow cover masking parameterization that did not explicitly account for
419 differences in forest structure. Biases in forests in the JULES All-band scheme can be easily
420 alleviated by adjusting (in our case increasing) the vegetation-dependent snow albedo values
421 for “Evergreen Needleleaf” forest, which, in our study, were based on MODIS latitude band
422 averages (Gao et al., 2005). Similarly for JSBACH, forest biases can be easily reduced by
423 lowering the snow-free vegetation albedo value in the NIR band.

424 Despite the albedo biases identified here in both forests and open areas, the normalized mean
425 absolute error (NME) of the three-year regional mean RF from the LULCC simulations was
426 below 20% for four of the six albedo schemes, which is a remarkably high accuracy for
427 climate models considering that they must depend on reduced complexity land surface
428 schemes (relative to 3D radiative transfer models or sophisticated snow-ice physics models).
429 Although we have only evaluated evergreen needleleaf forests, extending this or similar
430 empirical analyses to other forest types or climate regimes would give additional insight into
431 the albedo predictive capacities of the parameterizations employed in the current generation
432 of climate models.

433

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440

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