1 **Referee #1**

2

This manuscript describes an effort to make a global reference map of leaf inclination angle by combining leaf angle observations (from the TRY database and extracted from images) with ancillary data (including plant functional/crop types, reflectance, BRDF, climate, topography) and a random forest approach. Results are compared to other available data related to leaf angle distributions from the GBOV and DIRECT databases.
The clearly written manuscript provides a compelling justification for why consistent

10 global leaf angle data would be widely useful. The authors note the challenge of sparse 11 leaf angle observations, and while they have devised some creative ways to expand 12 those observations to train the random forest model, some elements of the methods and 13 evaluation have the potential to create consequential bias.

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We thank the referee for the recognition and insightful comments that help us improve
the manuscript. We have noted the biases in Fig. 13 and discussed their causes in section
4.1 (Line 346-359).

18 Due to the lack of high-resolution reference MLA, the global MLA was evaluated 19 through a comparison of the MLA-derived G(0) with the high-resolution reference 20 G(0) (Fig. 13). The result shows medium consistency but MLA-derived G(0)21 overestimates at low values (< 0.60), especially for CRO, PAS, SHR, and WET. 22 The overestimation may be partly caused by the underestimation of MLA at high 23 values that is related to the errors introduced in the sample expansion and 24 upscaling. These errors are mainly caused by a lack of LIA measurements, 25 vegetation structural complexity, and seasonal variation. In addition, the 26 uncertainties in the reference G(0) may have contributed to the overestimation. 27 The reference G(0) was derived from the Beer-Lambert law (Eq. (4)) which 28 assumes that the canopy is a turbid medium. The turbid medium assumption is 29 unrealistic for complex vegetation (Widlowski et al., 2014). The angular variation 30 of CI and the mixture of branches and leaves in generating high-resolution G(0)31 can also lead to the overestimation. Previous studies have shown that CI increases 32 with the view zenith angle (Fang 2021), which means that the whole CI > CI(0)33 and can lead to the underestimation of the reference G(0) (Eq. (6) and (7)). The 34 mixture of branches and leaves may result in the underestimation of the reference 35 G(0) due to the usually higher inclination angle of the trunks (Liu et al. 2019b). 36 Compared with the previous G(0) derived from global vegetation biophysical 37 products (Eq. (7)) (R2 = 0.11, RMSE = 0.53) (Li et al. 2022), the MLA-derived 38 G(0) performs better (R2 = 0.38, RMSE = 0.15).

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40 In addition, Since $G(\theta)$ varies most significantly in the nadir direction for different 41 MLA (Wilson 1959), the uncertainty of $G(\theta)$ derived from the global MLA in other 42 directions is smaller than that of G(0).

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44 Specific comments:

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1. The method from Pisek et al. (2011) to derive leaf angle from images requires that
images are leveled. It's not possible to know whether images taken from Google are
leveled, and whether images systematically describe distribution within a plant, and this
can create bias in the dataset.

50

51 The referee is correct that the canopy pictures taken from Google do not contain the 52 level information directly. In this study, the level state of the canopy images was 53 determined from the background information, such as the ground level and plant stems. 54 For each species, more than 75 leaves from different images were collected (Line 110), 55 reducing the uncertainties from non-leveled photography.

56

57 2. The TRY database was used to determine dominant species in an area to select 58 species for manual classification from images. No details were given about how this 59 was done, but datasets from TRY were not designed for this purpose and may not be 60 representative.

61

62 Thanks to the referee's reminder, we have added more details regarding the species63 selection procedure to the manuscript (Line 108).

The TRY species location data (848,919, Fig. S3b) (Jan 03, 2022) were used to
obtain the dominant species information in tropical rainforests and the northern
tundra. The species location points in these two vegetation types were spatially
filtered and the frequency of occurrence for each species was counted. The species

- 68 with a high frequency of occurrence were selected to measure the LIA.
- 69

Most species distribution databases, e.g., the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) (<u>Yesson et al. 2007</u>), only consider the appearance of species but not their spatial representativeness. The TRY species location database consists of trait measurements for common species which represent a hundreds-of-square-meters area around the location. The dominant species was artificially identified by investigators and the spatial representativeness is vital for following LIA upscaling. Therefore, the
 TRY species location database was utilized after throughout consideration.

77

3. Leaf angle can be highly variable within a species, depending on factors like leaf age, plant water status, and canopy position. The manuscript does not report distributions of replicates per species, and given the large expansion of spatial coverage from TRY data locations (where leaf angles were not directly observed) it's possible that training data may not be representative of their species.

83

We agree with the referee about the leaf angle variation from a plant physiological
perspective. It is understood that LIA is influenced by the environment and varies
within a species.

87

88 In this study, LIA is the mean leaf inclination angle (MLA) of all leaves at the canopy 89 or pixel scale, not for a single leaf. For a site, the LIA of multiple leaves at different 90 heights and orientations are obtained and averaged to obtain a robust MLA (Chianucci 91 et al. 2018; Pisek and Adamson 2020). The MLA partly mitigates the impact of canopy 92 position, sunlit and shaded leaves, branching patterns, stem elongation, and species-93 specific genetic traits like phototropism and heliotropism. This kind of mean LIA is desperately wanted in many remote sensing and land surface modeling studies 94 95 (Lawrence et al. 2019; Li et al. 2023; Majasalmi and Bright 2019; Tang et al. 2016; 96 Zhao et al. 2020). In those studies, LIA is commonly assumed constant (spherical 97 distribution, 57.3 degrees) or biome type-specific (assigning a constant value for each 98 biome). Indeed, these assumptions may not represent the true field measurements 99 (Tables 3 and 4). Our objective is to provide a more realistic global MLA map for 100 remote sensing and land surface modeling studies.

101

102 In this study, the LIA seasonal variations were not considered in the global LIA map 103 because of the lack of seasonal LIA measurements. As a matter of fact, temporal LIA 104 variations are usually small, except under extreme situations (unusual). For example, 105 the LIA variations of European beech forest and eucalyptus in different successional 106 stages are less than 10 degrees (le Maire et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2019; Raabe et al. 2015). 107 Crops generally show higher LIA variations than non-crops (Biskup et al. 2007; Zhang 108 et al. 2017). Therefore, many studies have considered LIA as a species-specific static 109 trait when there are no seasonal field measurements (Pisek et al. 2022; Raabe et al. 2015;

110 <u>Toda et al. 2022</u>).

111

112 The global LIA map derived in this study is consistent with field measurements (Tables 3 and 4). This is a significant improvement compared to existing static simplifications 113 114 (Lawrence et al. 2019; Li et al. 2023; Majasalmi and Bright 2019; Tang et al. 2016; 115 Zhao et al. 2020). In a forthcoming study, we plan to retrieve LIA from remote sensing 116 and the temporal LIA variation will be considered. 117 118 Thanks to the referee's comment, we have revised the manuscript (Line 151). 119 Many studies have treated LIA as a species-specific static trait and ignored within-120 species variations when LIA measurements are limited (Pisek et al., 2022; Toda 121 et al., 2022; Raabe et al., 2015). Following the rationale, the spatial coverage of 122 LIA measurements was expanded, and those records without location information 123 were utilized (section 2.1.1). 124 125 In addition, we counted the number of locations for different species and found the LIA 126 replicates per species range from 1 to 330, and most replicates (98%) are less than 50. 127 We added this information to the manuscript (Line 118). 128 129 4. Some of the products used for upscaling and evaluation themselves depend on 130 assumptions about leaf angle, including MODIS LAI which was used to upscale the 131 mean leaf angle data produced here to compare to GBOV and DIRECT data. I expect 132 that GBOV and DIRECT LAI products also depend on leaf angle assumptions (as 133 almost all methods of estimating LAI do). 134 135 In the MODIS LAI algorithm, a biome-specific static LIA was used as a priori (Myneni et al. 2002). The LIA is partly considered in the LAI retrieval algorithm and the MODIS 136 LAI has been widely validated and shows good consistency (Brown et al. 2020; Yan et 137 138 al. 2021). Therefore, it was used to upscale LIA in the evaluation procedure. 139 140 In GBOV and DIRECT, the high-resolution reference LAI is estimated by the empirical 141 relationship between reflectance and LAI measurements. The LAI measurements were 142 obtained with the Miller method (Eq. (1)) which does not require any leaf angluar information (https://gbov.land.copernicus.eu/products/). 143 $LAI = 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} -\overline{\ln P(\theta_i)} \cos(\theta_i) \sin(\theta_i) d_{\theta_i}$ 144 (1)

145 Where $P(\theta_i)$ is the gap fraction value in viewing zenith ring *i*. Therefore, the GBOV 146 and DIRECT data do not dependent on leaf angle assumptions.

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148	Technical comments:
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150	1. Line 10: I recommend "trait" instead of "parameter" here when discussing ecological
151	processes.
152	
153	We have revised it.
154	
155	2. Line 103: I was confused by the statement "The majority of existing LIA
156	measurements are located in the mid-latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere." Because
157	Figure 1 looks like a huge amount of data are in the American tropics?
158	
159	Two different versions of TRY data (V5 and V6) were used and the V6 data provide a
160	large amount of LIA measurements in the Southern Hemisphere. The original sentence
161	was deleted.
162	
163	3. Line 159: Coefficient of variation in reflectance or something else?
164	
165	Yes, it represents the coefficient of variation in reflectance. We have revised it in the
166	manuscript.
167	
168	4. Line 194: The single-parameter ellipsoidal leaf angle distribution seems like a big
169	assumption. Where there are data to test this, does it seem reasonable?
170	
171	Compared to other leaf angle distribution models, the single-parameter ellipsoidal leaf
172	angle distribution is a relatively more accurate and simpler model and has been used in
173	many remote sensing studies (Campbell 1990; Kuusk 2001; Verhoef et al. 2007; Wang
174	et al. 2007). Therefore, the single-parameter ellipsoidal leaf angle distribution was also
175	used in this study and its parameter χ , the ratio of the horizontal and vertical axes of an
176	ellipsoid, was first derived from MLA. We have rephrased the original sentence (Line
177	201).
178	Assuming a single-parameter ellipsoidal leaf angle distribution (Campbell, 1990),
179	the parameter χ , the ratio of the horizontal and vertical axes of an ellipsoid, was
180	first derived from MLA. Compared to other models, the single-parameter
181	ellipsoidal leaf angle distribution is a relatively more accurate and simpler model
182	and has been used in many remote sensing studies (<u>Kuusk 2001</u> ; <u>Verhoef et al.</u>
183	2007: Wang et al. 2007).

- 184 185 5. Figure 12: Are the distinct peaks in the reference data for different crops in panels b 186 and c? 187 The distinct peaks in the reference sample data are caused by the MLA assignment 188 189 manner and the homogeneity of cropland. The crop MLA samples were generated by 190 assigning typical MLAs (Table S2) for different crops with high-resolution crop maps, 191 followed by the upscaling (section 2.3.2 Line 188). In the upscaling, the homogeneity 192 of cropland may result in low sample diversity and distinct peaks. 193 194 We have clarified it in Lines 180 and 188. 195 Different mapping strategies were employed for noncrops and crops (Fig. 3b) 196 considering the small number of valid crop samples (Fig. 4) and the lack of 197 location information for most crop samples. 198 For crops, the measured MLA values were averaged for different crop types as a 199 typical MLA (Table S2). After assigning typical MLAs for different crops with 200 high-resolution crop maps (Table 1), the high-resolution crop MLA were upscaled 201 to 500 m as training samples (Eq. (1)). 202 203 Reference 204 205 Biskup, B., Scharr, H., Schurr, U., & Rascher, U. (2007). A stereo imaging system for measuring 206 structural parameters of plant canopies. Plant, Cell and Environment, 30, 1299-1308 207 Brown, L.A., Meier, C., Morris, H., Pastor-Guzman, J., Bai, G., Lerebourg, C., Gobron, N., Lanconelli, 208 C., Clerici, M., & Dash, J. (2020). Evaluation of global leaf area index and fraction of absorbed 209 photosynthetically active radiation products over North America using Copernicus Ground Based 210 Observations for Validation data. Remote Sensing of Environment, 247 211 Campbell, G. (1990). Derivation of an angle density function for canopies with ellipsoidal leaf angle 212 distributions. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology, 49, 173-176 213 Chianucci, F., Pisek, J., Raabe, K., Marchino, L., Ferrara, C., & Corona, P. (2018). A dataset of leaf 214 inclination angles for temperate and boreal broadleaf woody species. Annals of Forest Science, 75, 215 50-50 216 Kuusk, A. (2001). A two-layer canopy reflectance model. Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and 217 Radiative Transfer, 71, 1-9 218 Lawrence, D.M., Fisher, R.A., Koven, C.D., Oleson, K.W., Swenson, S.C., Bonan, G., Collier, N., 219 Ghimire, B., Van Kampenhout, L., & Kennedy, D. (2019). The Community Land Model version 5: 220 Description of new features, benchmarking, and impact of forcing uncertainty. Journal of
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270

1 **Referee #2**

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3 This study compiled global Leaf Inclination Angle (LIA) field measurements and 4 produced the first global 500 m LIA dataset using machine learning. The dataset was 5 evaluated with the nadir leaf projection function, comparing it against high-resolution reference data, and the global LIA patterns across different biomes were further 6 7 analyzed. While the study is intriguing and generally well-written, I have significant concerns regarding the reliability of this static, machine learning-based product, 8 9 particularly due to the dynamic nature of LIA at the leaf level, limitations in scaling 10 field measurements to the canopy and ecosystem level, and the lack of effective input 11 data at the global scale. My specific concerns are outlined below:

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We thank the referee for the insightful comments which help us to further improve the
manuscript. We fully understand the referee's concerns and have provided detailed
explanations below.

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17 1. Dynamic Nature of Leaf-Level LIA: LIA is highly variable within a canopy, even 18 for a single species. Observing a tree canopy, one can easily notice the variation in 19 leaf inclination. To minimize self-shading or optimize light capture, sun and shade 20 leaves on the same plant may have different inclinations. Moreover, LIA can change 21 throughout the day to track the sun's movement, across growing seasons, and with 22 leaf age and developmental stages. Under stress conditions, such as water scarcity 23 or extreme temperatures, plants may adjust their leaf angles to reduce water loss or 24 mitigate heat stress by altering turgor pressure. Additionally, variability in LIA is 25 influenced by branching patterns, stem elongation, and species-specific genetic 26 traits like phototropism and heliotropism. Given this variability, treating LIA as a 27 static structural trait oversimplifies its inherently dynamic nature.

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We agree with the referee's comments about the dynamic nature of leaf LIA. For plant
physiologists, it is well known that LIA is influenced by environmental conditions and
shows temporal variation.

32

In this study, LIA is the mean leaf inclination angle (MLA) of all leaves at the canopy
or pixel scale, not for a single leaf. For a site, the LIA of multiple leaves at different
heights and orientations are obtained and averaged to obtain a robust MLA (<u>Chianucci</u>
<u>et al. 2018</u>; <u>Pisek and Adamson 2020</u>). The MLA partly mitigates the impact of height,
sunlit and shaded leaves, branching patterns, stem elongation, and species-specific

38 genetic traits like phototropism and heliotropism. This kind of mean LIA is desperately 39 wanted in many remote sensing and land surface modeling studies (Lawrence et al. 40 2019; Li et al. 2023; Majasalmi and Bright 2019; Tang et al. 2016; Zhao et al. 2020). 41 In those studies, LIA is commonly assumed constant (spherical distribution, 57.3 degrees) or biome type-specific (assigning a constant value for each biome). Indeed, 42 43 these assumptions may not represent the true field measurements (Tables 3 and 4). Our 44 objective is to provide a more realistic global MLA map for remote sensing and land 45 surface modeling studies. 46

47 In this study, the LIA seasonal variations were not considered in the global LIA map because of the lack of seasonal LIA measurements. As a matter of fact, temporal LIA 48 49 variations are usually small, except under extreme situations (unusual). For example, 50 the LIA variations of European beech forest and eucalyptus in different successional 51 stages are less than 10 degrees (le Maire et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2019; Raabe et al. 2015). 52 Crops generally show higher LIA variations than non-crops (Biskup et al. 2007; Zhang 53 et al. 2017). Therefore, many studies have considered LIA as a species-specific static 54 trait when there are no seasonal field measurements (Pisek et al. 2022; Raabe et al. 2015; 55 Toda et al. 2022).

56

The global LIA map derived in this study is consistent with field measurements (Tables
and 4). This is a significant improvement compared to existing static simplifications
(Lawrence et al. 2019; Li et al. 2023; Majasalmi and Bright 2019; Tang et al. 2016;
Zhao et al. 2020). In a forthcoming study, we plan to retrieve LIA from remote sensing
and the temporal LIA variation will be considered.

62

63 Thanks to the referee's comment, we have revised the manuscript (Line 151).

Many studies have treated LIA as a species-specific static trait and ignored withinspecies variations when LIA measurements are limited (Pisek et al., 2022; Toda
et al., 2022; Raabe et al., 2015). Following the rationale, the spatial coverage of
LIA measurements was expanded, and those records without location information
were utilized (section 2.1.1).

69

Upscaling LIA Field Measurements: The LIA field measurements from the TRY database seem to be primarily site-specific. The method used to upscale these measurements from the leaf level to the canopy and ecosystem scales is crucial for modeling accuracy, yet it is unclear in this study. The approach of using a weighted average of Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) to scale LIA from 30 m to 500 m, as

per equation (1), raises concerns. What is the solid physical or physiological
rationale for this upscaling method? Without a clear justification, this approach
appears problematic.

78

In field measurement, the entire canopy LIA is calculated as the average of all measured leaf LIAs weighted by leaf area (de Wit 1965; Zou et al. 2014). Leaves with larger areas have higher weights. Upscaling LIA from 30 m to 500 m follows the same rationale as that from leaf to canopy scale. For a 30 m pixel with a higher leaf area index (LAI), the weight of the pixel is higher. Considering that a linear relationship exists between LAI and enhanced vegetation index (EVI2) (<u>Alexandridis et al. 2019</u>; <u>Dong et al. 2019</u>), the LIA was upscaled by EVI2 (Eq. (1)).

86

87 Following the suggestion, we have explained in the manuscript (Line 165).

In field measurement, the entire canopy LIA is calculated as the average of all measured leaf LIAs weighted by leaf area (Zou et al., 2014; De Wit, 1965). Leaves with larger areas have higher weights. Upscaling LIA from 30 m to 500 m follows the same rationale as that from leaf to canopy scale. For a 30 m pixel with a higher LAI, the weight of the pixel is higher. Therefore, the 500 m MLA was computed as the weighted average of the enhanced vegetation index (EVI2) considering a linear relationship between LAI and EVI2 (Dong et al., 2019; Alexandridis et al., 2019).

95

96 3. Coarse Resolution and Low-Signal Inputs in the Model: LIA provides detailed 97 structural information at the leaf level. When using a machine learning model, how 98 did the authors ensure that the global model inputs listed in Table 1 accurately 99 represent such low-signal information (also the variations mentioned in comment 100 #1) at a coarse spatial resolution, which is significantly larger than the leaf level? 101 Importantly, the MODIS LAI product does not reliably capture LIA in its algorithm. 102 Furthermore, as seen in Figure 6, NDVI and precipitation are identified as major 103 factors controlling LIA. What is the specific basis for this, given that both factors 104 exhibit strong seasonal dynamics? Overall, I think that current optical remote 105 sensing systems, such as MODIS and Landsat, lack the capability to capture the 106 subtle structural signal of LIA, as they were not designed for this purpose.

107

108 We agree with the referee that MODIS and Landsat are not designed for estimating LIA.109

110 In this study, the MODIS LAI was only used for the upscaling evaluation of G(0) (Line

111 219). In the MODIS LAI algorithm, a biome-specific static LIA was used as a priori

(Myneni et al. 2002). This biome-specific LIA is very rough and should (and can) be
improved. It is our goal to generate global pixel-scale LIA.

114

115 The correlation between LIA and NDVI or precipitation has been reported in many 116 simulation and field studies (Dong et al. 2019; Jacquemoud et al. 1994; Liu et al. 2012; Zou and Mõttus 2015). This has been explained in section 4.2. Higher LIA means lower 117 radiation interception, more NIR downward radiation, and lower NIR reflectance (Liu 118 119 et al. 2012). This results in negative correlations between MLA and NIR reflectance 120 and vegetation index. The negative correlation between MLA and precipitation relates 121 to vegetation adaptation. Under suitable climate conditions, horizontal leaves can make better usage of precipitation and increase the photosynthesis rate (King 1997; van 122 123 Zanten et al. 2010). Therefore, in this study, the mean and stand deviation of NDVI and precipitation time series were selected to predict LIA. The mean NDVI and 124 125 precipitation represent the average situation for a specific area and correspond to the 126 typical global LIA.

127

128 In canopy radiation transfer, canopy structure parameters, including leaf area index, 129 LIA, and clumping index jointly determine the canopy reflectance (Liang 2005; Ross 130 1981; Verhoef 1984). Previous studies have shown that multi-angle reflectance is 131 sensitive to LIA and can be used to derive the latter (Goel and Thompson 1984; 132 Jacquemoud et al. 1994; Jacquemoud et al. 2009; Li et al. 2023). Since MODIS has 133 multiangle observations, the multiangle information provided in the BRDF product (MCD43A1 C6.1) was used here as LIA predictors in this study. In contrast, Landsat 134 135 lacks a multiangle view and was rarely used for LIA estimation.

136

137 **Reference**

138

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