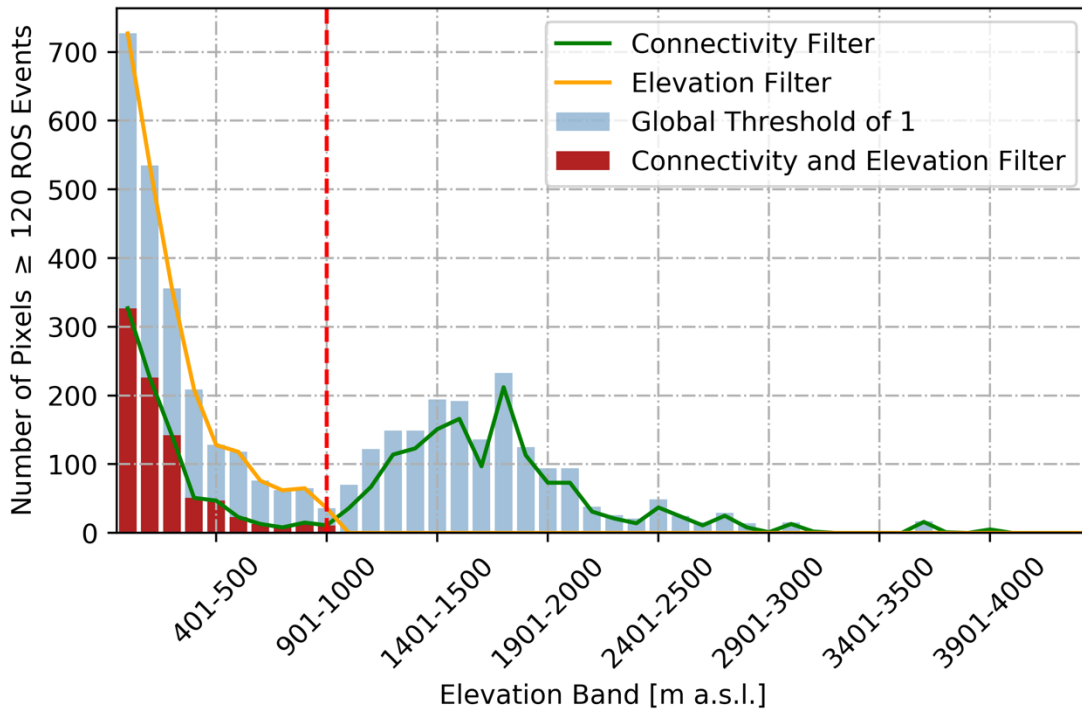


806  
807 Figure S1. Schematic of workflow used to derive gridded daily PM ROS product.  
808

809 **Supplemental 1. GRP Threshold Selection**

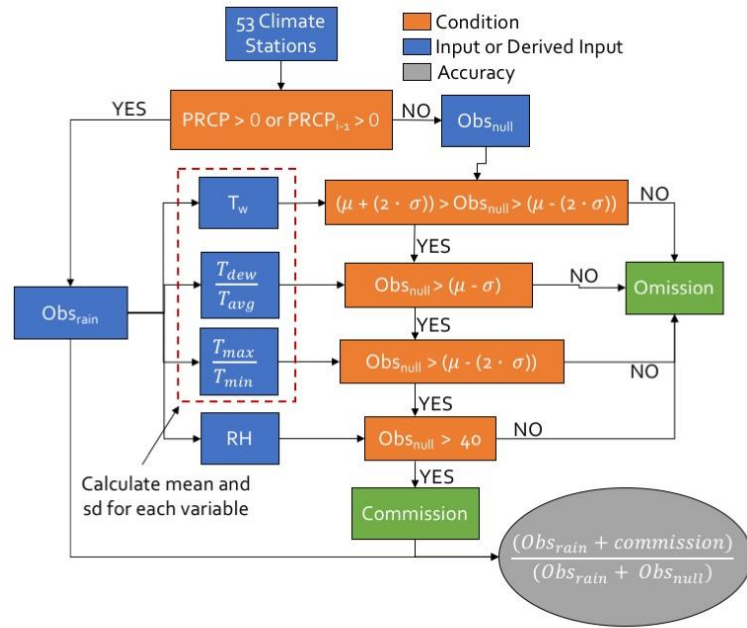
810 Algorithm outputs with a GRP threshold of 1, used to classify ROS events, were found to detect  
811 an anomalously high number of ROS events per year (i.e. >120 days) at higher elevations above  
812 900 m (figure S2). This apparent ROS overestimation at higher elevations was attributed to the  
813 strong GRP sensitivity to variations in snow density (Alford, 1967; Pistocchi, 2016), where the  
814 GRP threshold increases with decreasing snow density (Langlois et al., 2017). A discrete  
815 increase in apparent GRP overestimated ROS pixels at elevations between 900 - 2700 m is  
816 illustrated in figure S2. To address potential ROS classification errors we applied two different  
817 GRP thresholds for varying snow conditions at lower and higher elevations. We applied a GRP

818 threshold of 1 (Dolant et al., 2016) for elevations below 900 m and an alternate GRP threshold of  
 819 -5 (Langlois et al., 2017) for elevations above 900 m. Figure S2 also portrays the apparent ROS  
 820 overestimation at elevations between 0 and 200 m, addressed in section 4.2. Finally, ROS  
 821 affected pixels below a minimum spatial connectivity threshold of 10 pixels at each daily time  
 822 step were screened from the data record to spatially distinguish more extensive ROS occurrences  
 823 from smaller isolated events. The resulting elevation threshold reduced anomalous ROS pixels  
 824 above 900 m elevation by 100 %, while the spatial connectivity filter reduced the number of  
 825 isolated locations with ROS below 900 m by 63 % (figure S2).  
 826



827  
 828 Figure S2. Distribution of ROS days per year by mean elevation band, vertical red line (900 m)  
 829 denotes the minimum elevation where the GRP threshold of -5 was used.

830  
 831



832  
833 Figure S3. Workflow schematic for Tier 2 validation.  
834

835 **Supplemental 2. Description of Tier-2 temperature metrics**

836 We created three temperature driven variables to be used as a proxy for rainfall conditions. These  
837 metrics included wet bulb temperature ( $T_w$ ), the ratio between daily dew point temperature ( $T_{dew}$ )  
838 and average temperature ( $T_{dew}/T_{avg}$ ) and the ratio between maximum temperature ( $T_{max}$ ) and  
839 minimum temperature ( $T_{min}$ ) ( $T_{max}/T_{min}$ ). The precipitation proxies are used as indicators for  
840 atmospheric moisture and energy.

841  
842 Because air temperature can be highly variable during ROS events (Dolant et al., 2017), we  
843 chose a more stable approach of  $T_w$ , where  $T_w$  is a proxy for precipitation and ROS occurrence.  
844 This served two purposes: 1)  $T_w$  constrained the feasibility that precipitation would fall as liquid  
845 and 2)  $T_w$  provided a better indicator of precipitation phase (Sims and Liu, 2015). The derivation  
846 of  $T_w$  can be found in supplemental 3. The  $T_{dew}/T_{avg}$  metric was used to represent the dew point  
847 depression and the amount of moisture in the atmosphere (Feld et al., 2013), providing a  
848 normalized value for the ‘degree of saturation’ in the atmosphere. The  $T_{max}/T_{min}$  metric was used  
849 as a proxy for cloudiness based on the assuming cloudier conditions decreased radiative heating  
850 and cooling of the land surface and the associated daily temperature amplitude (Tomsett and

851 Toumi, 2000). Cloudiness was defined as a relative percentage from 0-100% ranging between  
852 clear sky conditions and complete cloud cover.

853

854 Using  $Obs_{rain}$ , the mean ( $\mu$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) were created for each precipitation proxy  
855 to constrain  $Obs_{null}$ . If  $Obs_{null}$  met all of the requirements set by the precipitation proxies, the  
856 conditions were identified as feasible for precipitation. ROS days which met all of the  
857 constraining conditions set by  $Obs_{rain}$  were classified as commission whereas all  $Obs_{null}$   
858 observations that did not meet the defined conditions were classified as omission. The final ROS  
859 accuracy was calculated as a percentage of the sum of  $Obs_{rain}$  and commission days divided by  
860 the total number of classified ROS days.

861

### 862 **Supplemental 3. Derivation of wet bulb**

863 To derive  $T_w$ , we first calculated vapor pressure [E] from  $T_{dew}$ :

864

$$865 \quad E = 6.11 \cdot 10^{\frac{7.5 \cdot T_{dew}}{237.7 + T_{dew}}} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

866

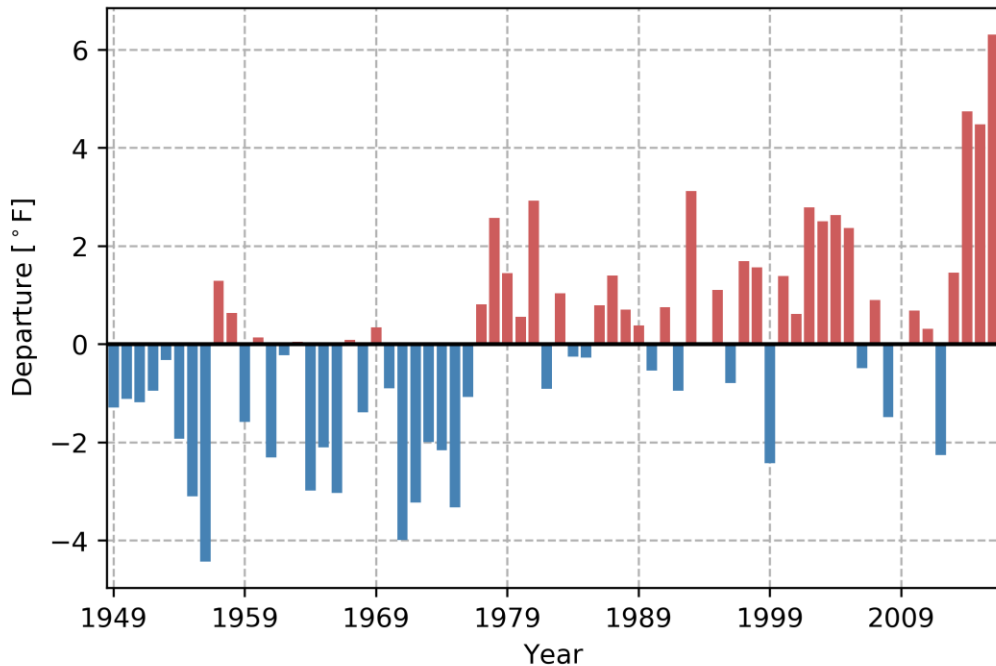
867 Using E,  $T_{dew}$ ,  $T_{avg}$ , and station pressure [mb] (STP),  $T_w$  can then be derived by the following  
868 (Sullivan and Sanders 1977):

869

$$870 \quad T_w = (0.00066 \cdot STP + T_{avg}) + \frac{\left[ \frac{4098 \cdot E}{(T_{dew} + 237.7)^2 \cdot T_{dew}} \right]}{\left[ \frac{(0.00066 \cdot STP) + (4098 \cdot E)}{(T_{dew} + 237.7)^2} \right]} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

871

872



873  
 874 Figure S4. Time-series of mean annual temperature departures across the state of Alaska from  
 875 1949-2016; data are provided by the Alaska Climate Data Research Center.  
 876

877 **Supplemental 4. Limitations in validating PM derived ROS**

878 Validating satellite derived ROS is limited by the number and quality of in situ meteorological  
 879 observations in boreal and arctic regions; a region with limited access, severe climate conditions  
 880 and sparse weather station networks. The Tier-1 assessment included multiple precipitation  
 881 observations and was the most inclusive and reliable form of validation used in this study,  
 882 despite being limited to a single set of ground observations for a single location in central  
 883 Alaska. The Tier-1 results also showed the limitation of in situ precipitation observations to  
 884 exclusively validate ROS; this reflects uncertainty in precipitation measurements and reporting  
 885 due to sensor limitations, wind redistribution effects, blockage of gauges/sensors, biases  
 886 introduced during post-thaw events, and human error (Merenti-Valimaki 2001, Martinaitis *et al*  
 887 2015, Grossi *et al* 2017). Discrepancies between the satellite retrievals and in situ precipitation  
 888 measurements may also reflect differences in both the spatial footprint of observations and the  
 889 physical phenomena being measured. For example, the PM derived ROS signal reflects changes  
 890 in surface wetness that may be caused by either direct rainfall inputs or surface snowmelt driven  
 891 by sensible, turbulent and or latent heat fluxes (Marks *et al.* 1998). The Tier-1 validation results

892 indicated that the majority of ROS events occur in early November at the Fairbanks station  
893 location. This early occurrence and the large number of reported observations of fog suggests  
894 that latent and turbulent heat flux contribute to the ROS observations during periods with no  
895 measurable precipitation; these results also suggest that fog followed by wind may be a valid  
896 proxy for ROS occurrence. However, no attempt was made to differentiate between fog and  
897 freezing fog, as freezing fog would not contribute to wet snow conditions. Measured  
898 precipitation provided the highest omission error during each year of record, except for WY  
899 2014, suggesting that a number of ROS events possessed only trace amounts of precipitation that  
900 were below the detection level of the PAFA station. Unfortunately, the Tier-1 validation was  
901 restricted to the PAFA station since it was the only record documented as a high-quality data set  
902 by human observers.

903

904 Tier-2 validation was applied across the Alaska domain, with only 19 % of the PM derived ROS  
905 days showing measured precipitation ( $Obs_{rain}$ ). Two factors contribute to this lack of coincident  
906 observations. First, rain is not the singular factor determining wet snow surface conditions,  
907 which are frequently due to energy exchange processes that can occur before, during and after,  
908 and sometimes independently, of rain events. These processes include turbulent exchange and  
909 sensible and latent heat fluxes, which are the primary source of snowpack melt energy flux  
910 during the winter accumulation phase of high latitude snowpacks. The period for ROS detection  
911 in this study was constrained between Nov-Mar when solar insolation is relatively low, so that  
912 solar radiation is not the primary source of snowmelt energy. Second, measurement technologies  
913 and the arduous quality checking (QA and QC) process required to effectively discriminate  
914 between rain, snow and mixed precipitation data are nearly nonexistent for Alaska climate  
915 records; the first observer data for the Fairbanks site used in the Tier-1 validation was the only  
916 record of this type we could find (Grossi et al., 2017; Martinaitis et al., 2015).

917

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