



**AMS**  
American Meteorological Society

## Supplemental Material

*Journal of Hydrometeorology*

Using Multisource Satellite Data to Assess Recent Snow-Cover Variability and  
Uncertainty in the Qinghai–Tibet Plateau  
<https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-18-0220.1>

[© Copyright 2019 American Meteorological Society](#)

Permission to use figures, tables, and brief excerpts from this work in scientific and educational works is hereby granted provided that the source is acknowledged. Any use of material in this work that is determined to be “fair use” under Section 107 of the U.S. Copyright Act or that satisfies the conditions specified in Section 108 of the U.S. Copyright Act (17 USC §108) does not require the AMS’s permission. Republication, systematic reproduction, posting in electronic form, such as on a website or in a searchable database, or other uses of this material, except as exempted by the above statement, requires written permission or a license from the AMS. All AMS journals and monograph publications are registered with the Copyright Clearance Center (<http://www.copyright.com>). Questions about permission to use materials for which AMS holds the copyright can also be directed to [permissions@ametsoc.org](mailto:permissions@ametsoc.org). Additional details are provided in the AMS Copyright Policy statement, available on the AMS website (<http://www.ametsoc.org/CopyrightInformation>).

1 **Supplementary:**

2 **1. The four-step cloud removal procedure**

3 1) **Step 1:** use the identification of adjacent two days, involving two filters: a) Adjacent  
4 one-day filter: a cloud pixel in day  $i$  was reclassified to snow if both the previous and  
5 next day ( $i-1$  and  $i+1$ ) were identified as snow. Likewise, if both days were snow-free,  
6 day  $i$  was considered snow-free; and b) Adjacent two days filter: if one of the day  $i-1$   
7 or  $i+1$  was cloudy, then check the previous or next two day's ( $i-2/i+2$ ) identification.

8 For example, if a cloudy pixel on day  $i$  was also covered by cloud in day  $i+1$  while it  
9 had snow in day  $i-1$  and  $i+2$ , then it was identified as a snow pixel. Note that if both  
10 the previous and the next day (day  $i-1$  and  $i+1$ ) were cloudy, then proceed to the Step  
11 2.

12 2) **Step 2:** use the identification of four spatially adjacent pixels. For the four pixels  
13 adjacent to a cloudy pixel, if at least three of them had the same identification (snow  
14 or snow-free) on the same day, then the cloudy pixel was reclassified to this dominant  
15 identification.

16 3) **Step 3:** create a 'permanent' snow and snow-free mask. The 'permanent' snow/snow-  
17 free is defined by the percentage of snow/snow-free days in the total cloudless days  
18 after the Steps 1 and 2 were applied. Only the pixels with total cloudless days higher  
19 than 50% were used in this method to ensure enough samples were considered. First,  
20 we calculated the snow and snow-free days for each season—winter (December,  
21 January, February), summer (June–August) and spring/fall (March–May, September–

22 November) for each year. The snow days in summer and snow-free days in winter  
23 were the lowest among seasons (not shown). Then, if a given pixel had snow days  
24 higher than 95% of the total cloudless days in summer, it was defined as a ‘permanent’  
25 snow pixel. The ‘permanent’ snow-free pixels were identified in the same way with  
26 more than 95% snow-free days in winter. Lastly, all the cloud days of the ‘permanent’  
27 snow/snow-free pixels in the whole year were reclassified to snow/snow-free. The  
28 ‘permanent’ snow estimated by this method is within the same region identified as the  
29 ‘snow and ice’ classification by the MODIS Land Cover Type product (MCD12Q1)  
30 (not shown) indicating a conservative and highly reliable estimation.

31 4) **Step 4:** use a wider temporal window of four days and the closest cloudless  
32 identification. If day  $i$  was covered with cloud, then use the closest cloudless day’s  
33 identification in  $n$  days before or after day  $i$  ( $i-n/i+n, 1 \leq n \leq 4$ ) to reclassify the pixel.  
34 This step was not applied if both day  $i-n$  and  $i+n$  were cloudless but had different  
35 identification.

36

## 37 2. Details of the random sampling to estimate cloud removal biases

38 Since three of the four cloud removal methods use the temporal information, the cloud  
39 persistence distribution of FY3B was analyzed first to ensure the generated ‘fake’ cloud  
40 were close to the real data. Cloud persistence frequency ( $F_n$ ) is defined as the occurrence  
41 numbers of exactly  $n$  consecutive cloudy days in a year for each pixel. Figure 4 shows that  
42 the spatial mean  $F_n$  decreases with the increasing  $n$ , and nine or more days covered by

43 cloud persistently is rare. Using the observed cloud persistence distribution, the probability  
 44 ( $p_n$ ) of day  $n$  being covered by cloud when the previous  $n-1$  days are cloudy can be written  
 45 as:

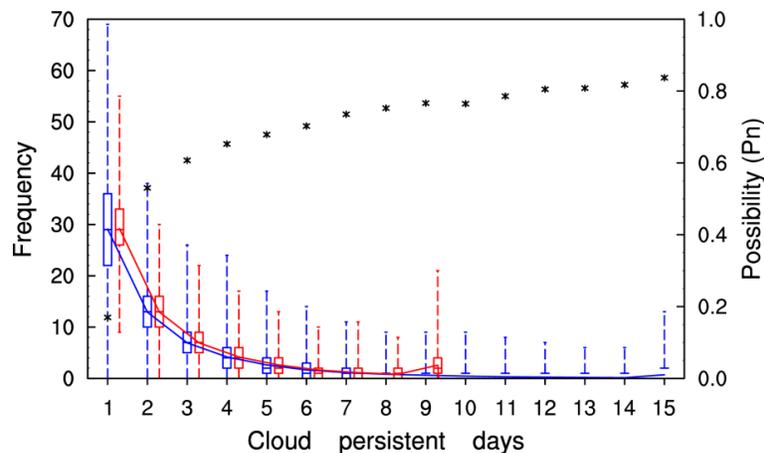
$$46 \quad p_n = \frac{\sum_{i=n}^9 F_i}{\sum_{i=n-1}^9 F_i}, (1 \leq n \leq 9) \quad (1)$$

47 where  $F_i$  ( $F_n$  when  $i=n$ ) is the frequency of  $n$  consecutive cloudy days. The maximum  
 48  $n$  is selected to be nine because of the low probability of observed cloudy persistence more  
 49 than nine days. The spatial averaged  $p_n$  was obtained by applying Equation 2 to the FY3B  
 50 (Figure 4). The  $p_n$  was then used to generate missing values randomly for the IMS data as  
 51 ‘fake’ cloud. Results show that the ‘fake’ cloud-persistence distribution of IMS closely  
 52 reproduces the real cloud persistence of FY3B (red line in S-figure 1).

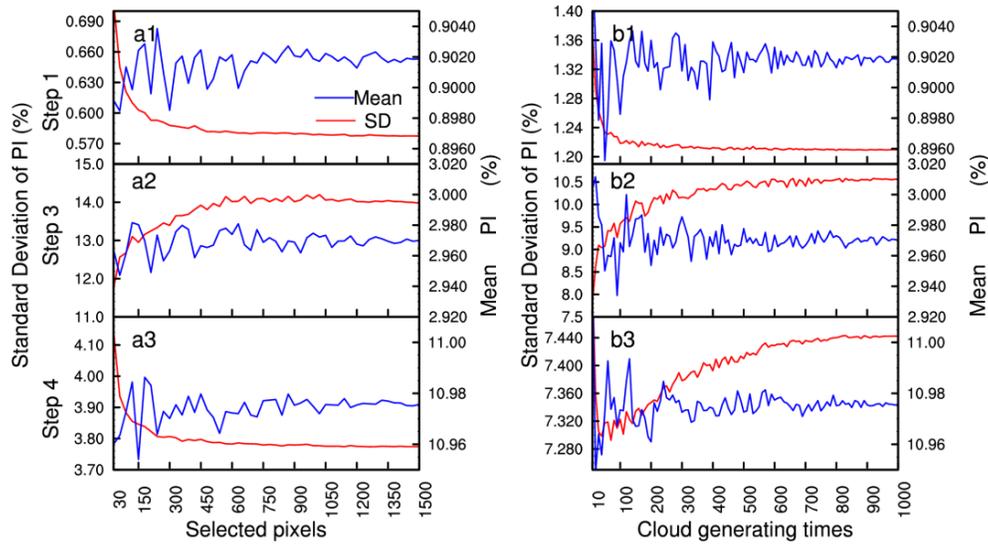
53 Pixels in the study area were separated into seven groups based on the annual snow  
 54 days with a 50 snow-day interval: 0–50, 50–100, 100–150, 150–200, 200–250, 250–300  
 55 days and more than 300 days. To get robust results, we first selected  $n$  pixels randomly  
 56 from each of these seven groups, and for each selected pixels, random missing values as  
 57 ‘fake’ clouds were generated  $m$  times. Then, two experiments were used to estimate the  
 58 uncertainties of incorrect percentage ( $PI$ ) caused by the number of samples (the value of  $n$   
 59 and  $m$ ) (S-figure 2). To test parameter sensitivity, we set one of the two parameters to a  
 60 large value (1500 for  $n$  and 1000 for  $m$  here), and then checked the variations of standard  
 61 deviation of  $PI$  and mean  $PI$  while varying the other parameter.

62 Results show that the uncertainties of  $PI$  reduce with increasing  $n$  and  $m$  up to values  
 63 of 1500 and 1000 respectively, where  $PI$  is stable and reliable for all cloud-removal steps.  
 64 Thus, for the final  $PI$  estimate, the total number of samples for random sampling is  
 65 1,500,000 for each snow-day groups. Figure 5 also shows that the average  $PI$  is 0.9%, 2.5%  
 66 and 10.8% for cloud-removed pixels of Step 1, Step 3 and Step 4, respectively.

67 S-figure 3 shows that Step 1, 3 and 4 have lowest  $PI$  in July and August, and higher  
 68  $PI$  in snow melting time (April, May) and snow on-set time (October to December). The  
 69 pixels with 50–100 snow days have the highest  $PI$ , while the smallest and largest snow-  
 70 day groups have the lowest  $PI$ . Figure 6 (bottom row) also shows that the ‘fake’ cloud filled  
 71 days of the random sampling is higher than the real-data cloud removed days (from FY3B)  
 72 generally. Therefore, it is quit necessary to derive the real biases of cloud removal by  
 73 multiplying  $PI$  to their real cloud removed percentages as shown in Table 3.

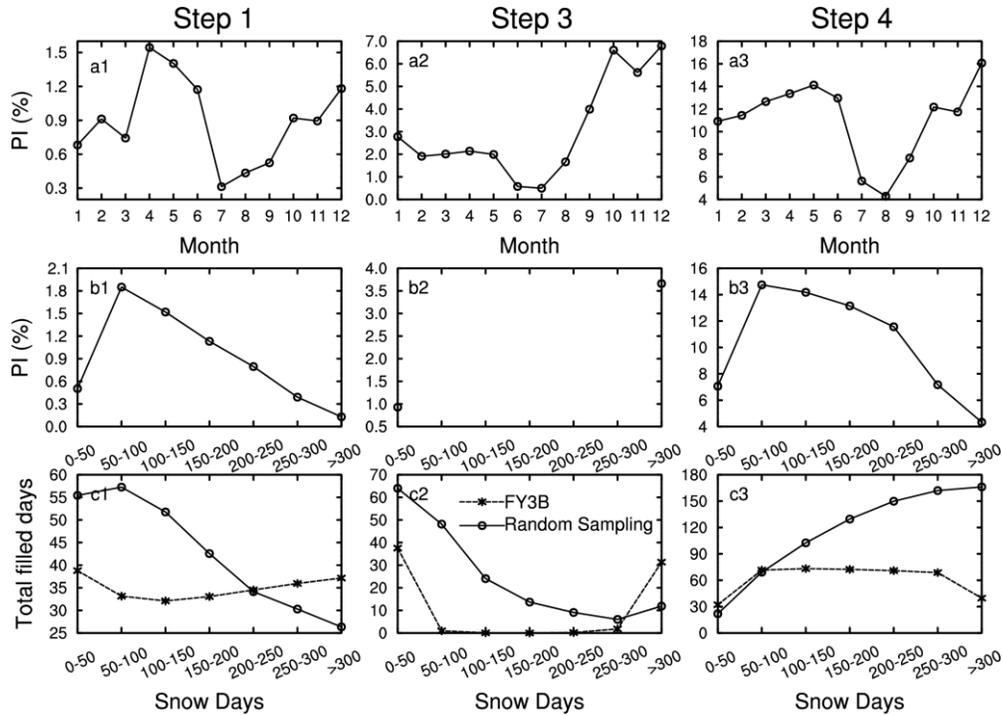


74 S-figure 1 The cloud persistence distribution of  $0.01^\circ$  FY3B (blue) and the randomly  
 75 generated ‘fake’-cloud persistence using  $p_n$  (red). The spatial averaged  $p_n$  is labeled in  
 76 dots in the right axis.  
 77



79

80 S-figure 2 Standard deviation of  $PI$  (red) and mean  $PI$  (blue) versus the selected pixels81 ( $n$ ) of each snow-day level (50<, 50–100, 100–150, 150–200, 200–250, 250–300, >30082 snow days) when the cloud generating times of each pixel ( $m$ ) is set to 1000 (a1–a3); and83 versus the cloud generating times of each pixel ( $m$ ) when the selected pixels of each84 snow-day level ( $n$ ) is set to 1500 (b1–b3) for Step 1, Step 3 and Step 4.



85

86 S-figure 3 Mean *PI* averaged in each month (a1–a3) and at seven snow-day levels (b1–b3);

87 and the total cloud filled days of random sampling (c1–c3, red) and the real cloud removed

88 days of FY3B (c1–c3, blue) in 2015 for cloud removal Step 1, Step 3, and Step 4.

89

### 90 3. Snow-cover variations in 2012-2017

91 This part is an additional analysis for the variations of three snow-cover products,

92 FY3B, MODIS and IMS. Since three data sets have different observation periods, we only

93 analyzed their overlapping period in 2012-2017. For recent six years, three data sets (FY3B,

94 MODIS and IMS) measure a decreasing annual FSC in most regions except for the Arkin

95 and Karakoram Mountain (S-figure 4). Negative variation of snow duration show similar

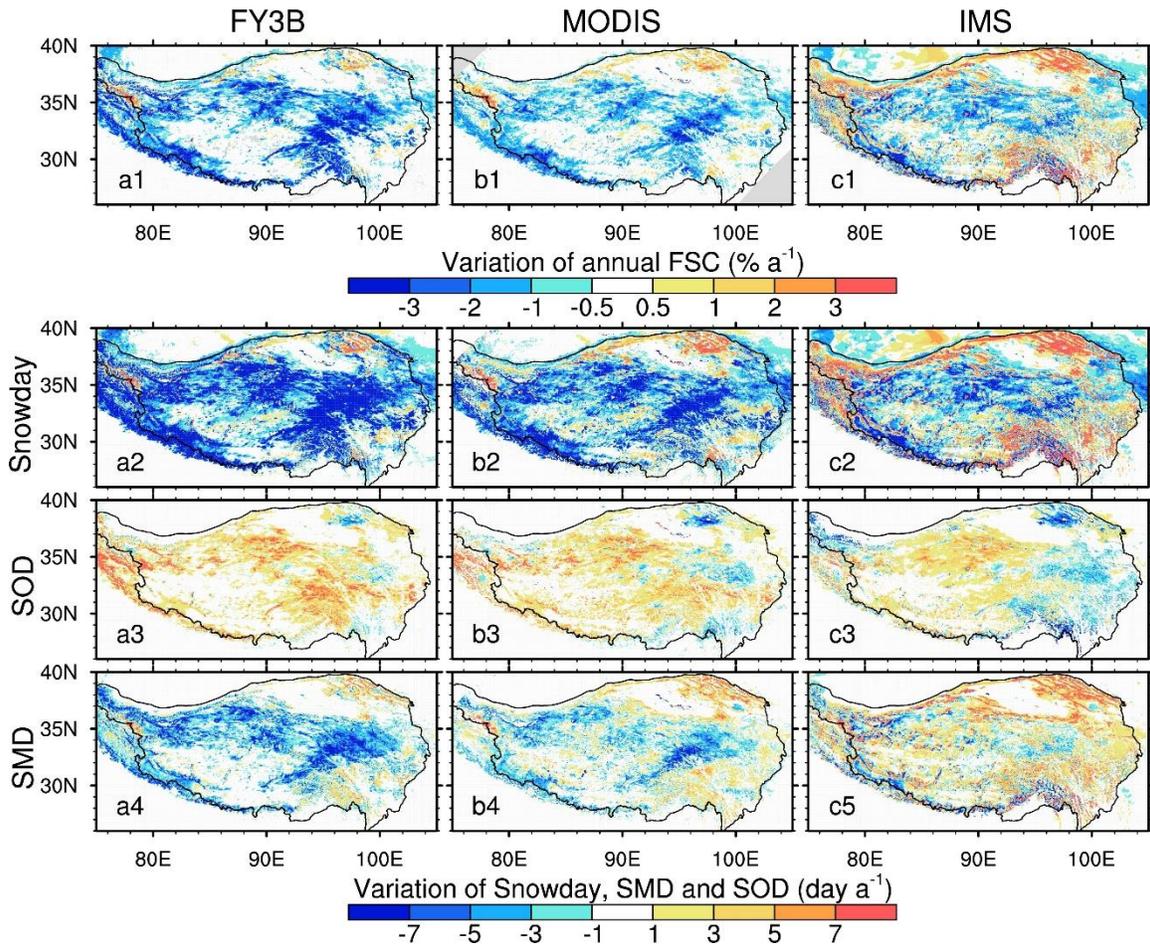
96 spatial distribution pattern with that of FSC, which is caused by the delayed snow onset

97 with increasing SOD (S-figure 4 a3–c3) and the earlier snow melting with decreasing SMD

98 (S-figure 4 a4–c4). Despite the similarity among three data sets, IMS has more snow extent  
99 with positive variations than MODIS and FY3B, such as the eastern QTP and the Nychen  
100 Tanggula Mountain region. Meanwhile, the SMD increases for IMS snow cover at most  
101 areas, while it decreases for MODIS and FY3B, indicating a high uncertainty of SMD  
102 variations.

103 For each elevation zone, decreasing annual FSC and snow days are common features  
104 revealed by at least two data sets (S-figure 5). However, IMS has positive variations of  
105 annual FSC and snow days in 3–5 km elevation zones. An elevation dependence is also  
106 found for the variation trends of annual FSC and snow duration below 6 km. S-figure 5  
107 shows that higher elevation zones have higher decreasing rates of annual FSC and snow  
108 days. The 5-6 km elevation zone has the most severe drop in annual FSC and snow duration  
109 with delayed snow onset and earlier melting.

110 For uncertainties, the same as Figure 10, S-figure 5 also shows that higher elevation  
111 zones have higher uncertainties below 6 km. For example, S-figure 5 shows that the  
112 differences of mean FSC variation rates between data sets increase from 0.21 to 1.32 % a<sup>-1</sup>  
113 with increasing elevation zones. The uncertainties of snow-duration trends show  
114 consistent elevation distribution with that of annual FSC trends. S-figure 5 also shows that  
115 all data sets have positive trends of SOD indicating a delaying trend of snow-onset date  
116 with low uncertainties. However, the snow melting is earlier for MODIS and FY3B but  
117 delayed for IMS snow cover (S-figure 5). This indicates a higher uncertainty of snow-  
118 melting trends than snow-onset trends.



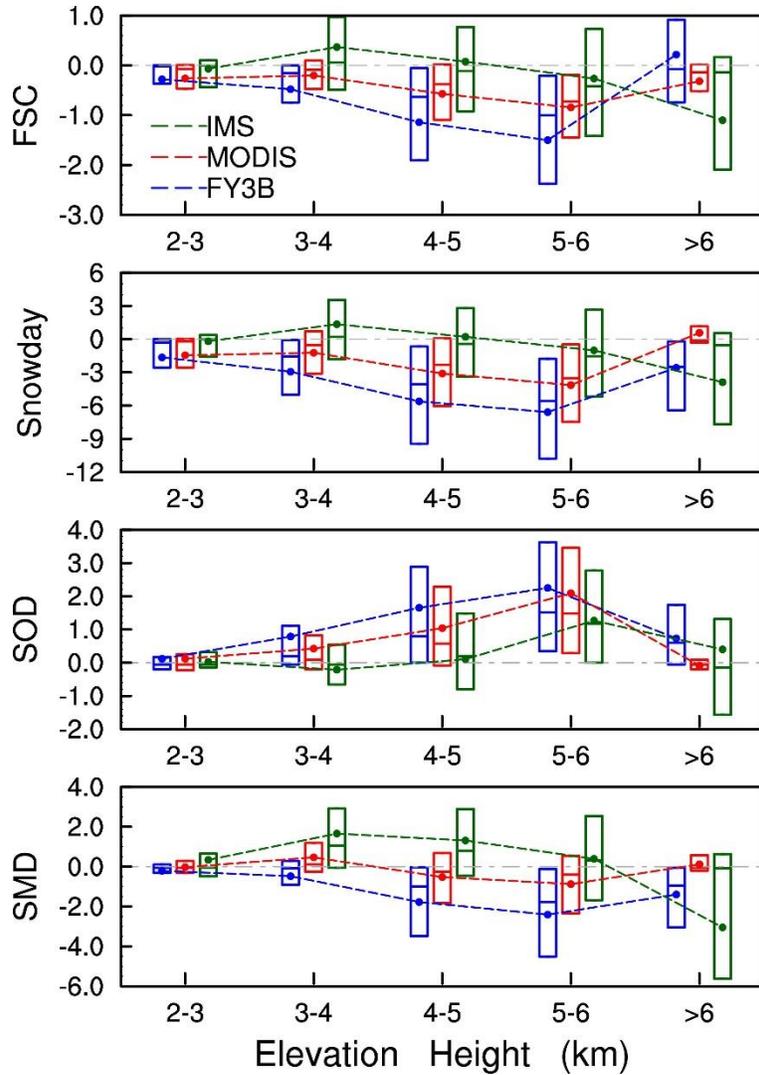
120

121 S-figure 4 Spatial distribution of the linear-regression slopes of annual FSC ( $\% a^{-1}$ ), snow

122 days ( $day a^{-1}$ ), SOD and SMD ( $day a^{-1}$ ) in 2012-2017 for  $0.04^\circ$  FY3B, MODIS and IMS

123 snow-cover data.

124



125

126 S-figure 5 Box plots of the linear-regression slopes of annual FSC ( $\% a^{-1}$ ), snow days (day

127  $a^{-1}$ ), SOD and SMD ( $day a^{-1}$ ) at five elevation zones in 2012–2017 for  $0.04^\circ$  FY3B, MODIS

128 and IMS snow-cover data. The top and bottom points of the boxes are the first and the third

129 quartile, and the horizontal short lines are the median value. The mean values are labeled

130 in dash lines with solid dots.

131