

Response to Reviewers

Dear editor,

5 We would like to appreciate the four reviewers for their careful and thorough reading
of this manuscript, and the insightful comments and constructive suggestions. We
believe we have adequately addressed all the major and minor comments, and the
research has been substantially enhanced. Our point-by-point responses to the
comments are listed below in black. Line numbers correspond to the unrevised
10 manuscript.

RC1

In this paper, the authors examine the snow phenology over the Northern Hemisphere (NH), based on satellite observations of snow cover by MODIS and IMS, and of snow depths by microwave instruments. The study focuses on snow onset, snow end date and snow cover days, as well as snow peak day.

They propose a dynamic threshold selection in constructing the snow phenology indicators, based on the local seasonal snow evolution, rather than a fixed threshold. The method has significant advantages, e.g., over the Tibetan Plateau (TP) where the snowpack can be shallow (Fig7) and the dynamic method allows for a considerably longer snow phenology (Fig9). These differences are strongly influenced by topography, and it is in the mountainous areas that the dynamic method offers the greatest benefits. In the mid and high latitudes, the difference between the two methods is small (Fig7) though, 4-5 days at most. Over the NH overall, the differences appear small (compare Fig8 c and d), albeit it influences the indicator trends.

The study is detailed and comprehensive, and the article is fairly clearly written. It should prove a valuable study to understand the phenology and snow variability, over the TP in particular. I recommend the paper for publication provided the main comments are addressed.

Response:

We are grateful for your comments on our work, which help us to further enhance the manuscript. Our responses to your questions and comments are listed below.

Main comments:

1. I question the choice of treating on the same footing snow cover and snow depth (SD) in the first part of the paper. Indeed, some phenology indicators (like SCED, end of snow season) exhibit large differences exceeding one month over the TP, depending if one is considering snow cover or depth. In the 2nd part of the paper, only SD is considered. One possible way to clarify this paper is to re-structure it to address snow

cover phenology (comparing the 2 instruments) in a first part, and then focus SD in a next part.

Response:

We appreciate the reviewer's valuable and thoughtful comments.

The purpose of treating snow cover fraction (SCF) and snow depth (SD) equally in the first part is to compare whether there are significant differences in the snow phenology extracted from different data and methods. Both types of snow data are commonly used for snow phenology extraction. Further, we would like to validate our idea that the extraction results of snow phenology can be significantly affected by the method. This highlights the need to improve the rationality of snow phenology extraction methods. In the second part, we select snow depth as the driving data because it shows a stable single-peak pattern in each latitudinal band, reflecting the process of snow accumulation and melting. In contrast, snow cover fraction data exhibit greater randomness and heterogeneity, especially on the Tibetan Plateau (TP). Moreover, SCF data are affected by the polar night, leading to large errors north of 60°N, and cloud cover further impacts data quality. Considering these factors, we originally choose only snow depth as the driving data for the second part. Here, we apply the same method to SCF data.

Since different data types describe different snow curves, the dynamic threshold for determining the snow season cannot be directly the same as the snow depth. We use the SCF data to calculate the first order derivative at each grid point and look for inflection points. We find that most of the grid points change rapidly not at 10%, but more within the interval from 10% to 20%. 58.51% of the Northern Hemisphere (NH) during the snow accumulation period and 62.89% during the snow melting period fall within the 10% to 20% interval (Fig. R1). The dynamic threshold is eventually set at 15%. On the Tibetan Plateau, this threshold is significantly higher than the interval 10-20%, which we hypothesize is related to the definition of the hydrological year. In this study, we define the hydrologic year as spanning from September 1 to August 31 of the following year. However, on the TP, SCF begins to grow in August. To account for this, we analyzed TP separately using a hydrologic year beginning in August and found that a

15% threshold is reasonable (Fig. R2).

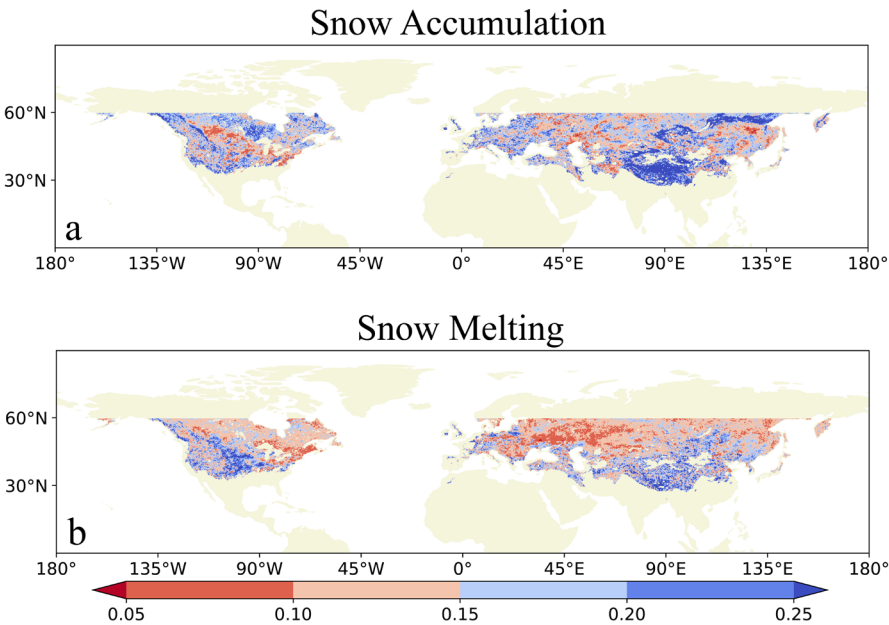


Figure R1. Spatial distribution of thresholds extracted from the first-order derivatives using MOD10C2 data in NH. (a) Percentage thresholds associated with snow accumulation (SCOD) from the first half of the first-order derivative maximum value. (b) Percentage thresholds associated with snow melting (SCED) from the last point of half of the first-order derivative minimum value.

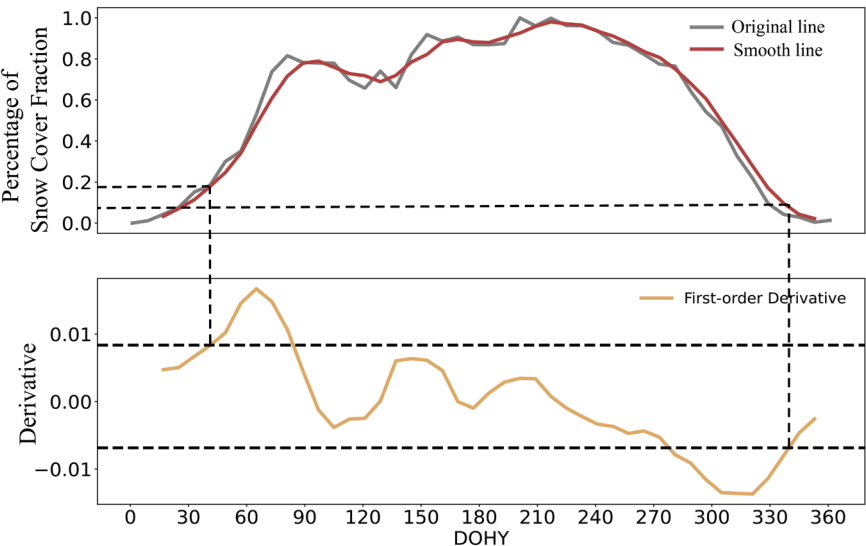


Figure R2. Intra-annual variability in the normalized snow cover fraction in the Tibetan Plateau. The gray curves represent the original SCF, the red curves represent

the 30-day smoothed SD, and the yellow curves represent the first-order derivative.

80 The unit DOHY is an abbreviation for day of the hydrological year, defined as August 1 through July 31 of the following year.

We normalize and plot the intra-annual SCF change curves for the four latitudinal bands on the same graph for comparison and find that the snow curves become wider with
 85 increasing latitude, which implies that the snow season is lengthening. In contrast to the other latitudinal bands, the snow curve of TP fluctuates a lot. The 15% position is a good match to the inflection point of the SCF curve. Employing the 15% dynamics threshold method, we extract SCF thresholds in the NH. Except for TP, the new thresholds for the entire NH are lower than the traditional fixed thresholds, implying
 90 that the traditional thresholds may result in an underestimation of the snow season.

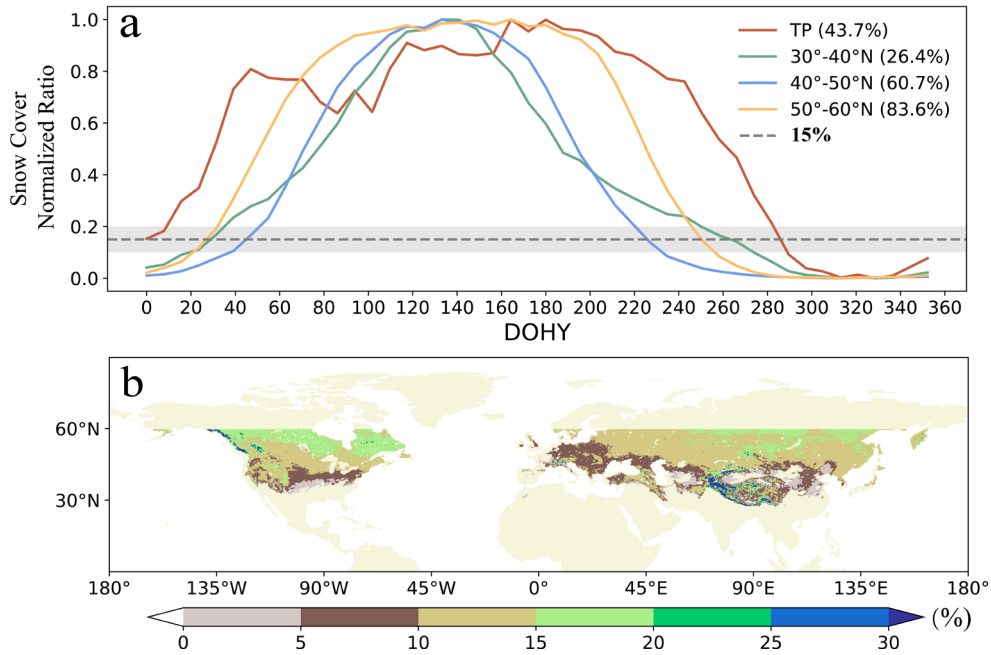


Figure R3. The dynamic threshold of the MOD10C2 dataset across the NH. (a) Intra-annual variability in the normalized MOD10C2 data for four latitudinal zones.

95 Shading represents the interval 10%-20%, and the dashed line represents the dynamic threshold of 15%. The actual maximum snow cover fraction for each latitude band is in parentheses. The unit DOHY is an abbreviation for day of the hydrological year. (b)

Spatial distribution of multi-year average snow cover fraction thresholds in the NH
extracted using the snow dynamics threshold method.

100

The spatial distributions of the snow phenology indicators extracted using the snow
dynamics threshold method are similar to those of the original method with increasing
latitude and elevation, snow cover duration (SCD) lengthens, snow cover onset day
(SCOD) advances, and snow cover end day (SCED) delays. The use of the new
105 method has resulted in a generally longer snow season due to the lowering of the
thresholds. SCED demonstrated greater differences compared to SCOD.

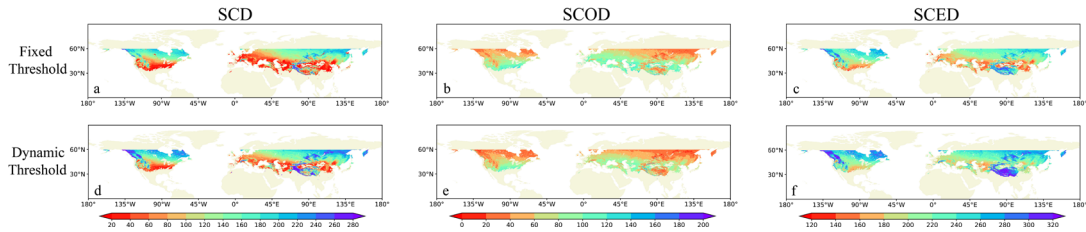


Figure R4. Spatial distribution of snow phenology extracted by MOD10C2 data over
the NH for the hydrological years 2000-2018. (a) Multiyear averaged snow cover
110 duration (SCD), (b) snow cover onset day (SCOD), (c) snow cover end day (SCED)
extracted by the fixed threshold method. (d, e, f) Same as (a, b, c) but for the dynamic
threshold method.

115

In order to show the difference between the snow phenology extracted by the dynamic
threshold method and the fixed threshold method more clearly, we perform statistics in
four latitudinal bands (including TP) and in the whole NH. We find that similar to the
results for snow depth, the largest difference in snow phenology remains in the TP,
where the SCD differs by 86 days. And the main difference in SCD is caused by SCED,
120 with a smaller contribution from SCOD.

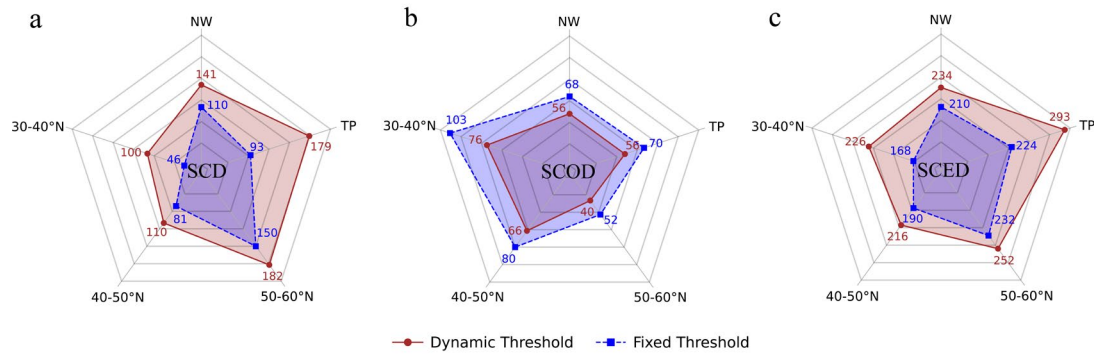


Figure R5. Comparative radar maps of (a) snow cover duration (SCD), (b) snow cover onset day (SCOD), (c) snow cover end day (SCED) extracted by the snow dynamic threshold method and the traditional fixed threshold method in five regions. The solid red line represents the dynamic threshold method, and the blue dashed line represents the fixed threshold method.

In summary, our results using SCF data for snow phenology method improvements show agreement with those based on SD. The dynamic thresholds for both datasets fall within the 10%-20% range, and both methods extend the snow season at low latitudes. The results are similar for both data, and there are flaws in the SCF data, such as the effects of polar night.

We have included the SCF results in Section 3.2 and Discussion section, and placed the corresponding graphs in the supplement. This preserves the original structure of our study—first comparing differences in existing snow phenology extraction methods and then improving them. Moreover, the results of SCF can be shown to prove the universality of the methods.

Line 348:

Given the limitations of MOD10C2 data, such as its susceptibility to polar night effects and fluctuations, we select SD as the primary driving data for this study. However, to demonstrate the robustness of the dynamic threshold method, we also apply MOD10C2 data for dynamic snow phenology extraction (see Fig. S2-S5 in Supplement). Our results indicate that for MOD10C2 data, a dynamic threshold of 15% is more appropriate. After applying the dynamic threshold method, the snow phenology results closely align with those obtained from SD, exhibiting longer SCD, earlier SCOD, and

later SCED in mid- and low-latitude regions. The most pronounced discrepancies are observed over the TP. However, since snow cover data are influenced by the polar night at high latitudes, direct comparisons cannot be made at these latitudes.

150

Line 449:

Since the accuracy of passive microwave detection increases with snow depth, the passive microwave remote sensing data is more effective for analyzing snow phenology in regions with consistent snow cover (Armstrong & Brodzik, 2001; Savoie et al., 2009).

155 *In areas with shallow snow with wet snow, the accuracy of passive microwave remote sensing data is reduced, and the snow depth indicator may not accurately capture accumulation and melting processes. In addition, for the transient snow area, the snow depth curve is more volatile, which makes the assumed single-peak structure untenable. After comprehensive consideration, the snow cover fraction may be a more reliable*
160 *indicator in such cases. Therefore, we perform another extraction of dynamic snow phenology using the snow cover fraction data, and the results are similar to SD, but with greater differences in TP (see Fig. S2-S5 in Supplement).*

2. I am concerned about the methodology at locations where the snow curve is not
165 monotonous across the season and has several maxima and minima linked to episodic snowfall and melt. Smoothing or climatological averaging should alleviate this potential problem. This seems be the case for the snow cover data over the TP (Fig4). This restricts the applicability of the method, and the authors expressed this concern (L445-446), even for SD at some locations over the TP where the snow layer is
170 shallow. Please discuss this issue in the Methodology section.

Response:

Thank you for your suggestion. As you mentioned, the occurrence of sporadic snowfall events results in snow curves that are not strictly unimodal throughout the seasonal cycle, particularly in regions with unstable snow conditions. This underscores the
175 importance of applying smoothing techniques in our approach to mitigate the influence of noise. To determine the smooth window, we analyze the dynamic threshold using

percentage of snow depth extracted from the first-order derivatives under different smoothing windows. Snow depth percentage stabilizes when the smoothing window reaches around 30 days. The curve drops sharply for smaller windows but fluctuates minimally beyond this point. And snow on the lunar scale is more stable and reliable, less affected by disturbances. Thus, a 30-day smoothing window is chosen. Following your suggestions, we have extended the discussion on this issue in the Methodology section.

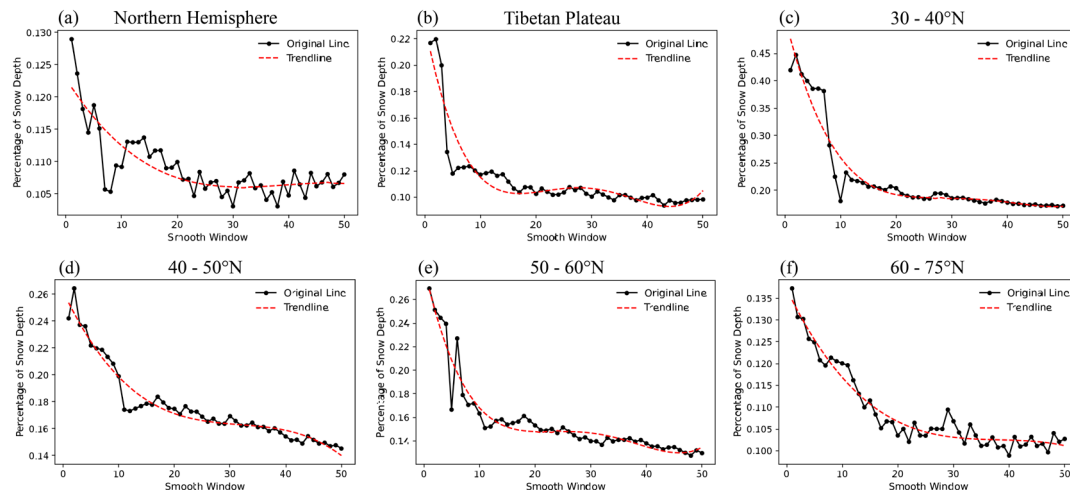


Figure R6. The relationship between the percentage of snow depth (dynamic threshold) and smooth window in (a) the Northern Hemisphere, (b) the Tibetan Plateau, (c) 30°N–40°N, (d) 40°N–50°N, (e) 50°N–60°N, and (f) 60°N–75°N. The black line is the original line, the black dot is the specific value for each year, and the red line is the trend line.

Line 143:

Occasional snowfall events, such as short-duration or localized snowfall, can introduce anomalous fluctuations in the snow curve, leading to multiple small peaks or atypical maxima. These fluctuations represent short-term meteorological noise rather than the long-term seasonal evolution of the snow cover. This is particularly common, especially in unstable snow areas (e.g., the Tibetan Plateau). Smoothing can reduce these instabilities and make the snow curve more reflective of seasonal snowpack changes.

200 **Minor comments:**

1. L 36: Concerning the decreasing length of the snow season in Notarnicola (2022):
wasn't this paper focused only on the mountainous regions?

Response:

Thank you for the insightful comment. The study by Notarnicola primarily focuses on
205 mountainous regions, and its conclusions regarding the shortening of the snow season
are also specific to these areas. This was not explicitly clear in our original text. We
have now revised the manuscript to clarify this point.

Line 35:

Moreover, the length of the snow season and the number of snow days are shortened in
210 *global mountain regions (Notarnicola et al., 2022).*

2. L98: It is a bit unclear what the authors mean by “replacing the dataset”?

Response:

The global snow depth data set of Che et al. is affected by satellite orbits, leading to
215 substantial missing measurements at low and middle latitudes, especially on the Tibetan
Plateau. The location of the missing data varies from day to day with no regularity. In
the other data set of Che et al. on snow depth in China, an algorithm is used to fill in
the missing data. Given that the mid- and low-latitude regions are representative of
unstable snow conditions, they are the primary focus for improving snow phenology
220 using our dynamic threshold approach. However, the presence of significant data gaps
introduces uncertainties in snow phenology extraction that need to be addressed. To
mitigate this, we replace the snow depth data for China in the global dataset with
Chinese snow depth data, ensuring more accurate phenology representation in this
region.

225 In order to give the reader a better understanding, we have changed the sentence in the
manuscript.

Line 97:

*The long-term series of daily global SD is affected by satellite orbits, leading to
substantial missing measurements at low and middle latitudes. To minimize the negative*

230 *effects of data gaps, we substitute the China region in the global dataset with another set of snow depth data for the China region (Che et al., 2015).*

3.L106: What is SCE and where is it defined ? Or is it a Typo and should it be SCA as it refers to IMS ?

235 Response:

Thanks for your suggestion. This should indeed be changed to SCA as the IMS data can represent changes in SCA, which have been changed in the manuscript.

Line 106:

240 *For the daily IMS binary SCE dataset, no additional processing is required to determine if the grid is covered with snow.*

4.IMS also measures snow cover fraction: hence the labels (e.g. in Table 2, figures 3-4) should be more consistent: using IMS, SCF, SD mixes instruments names and the variables.

245 Response:

Thank you for your valuable suggestion. As you pointed out, IMS and MOD10C2 represent different forms of SCF, and using SCF to refer to MOD10C2 may cause confusion. To clarify this, we have made the following adjustments: the IMS label remains unchanged in all figures, while SCF has been replaced with MOD10C2 to explicitly refer to the dataset. This revision ensures a clearer distinction between the two data sources.

5.L145: The first derivative also goes to zero at the maximum of the snow curve.

Response:

255 Thank you for your reminder. Indeed, the first derivative corresponding to the maximum of the snow curve is also zero. To avoid confusion, the following annotations have been added to the manuscript.

Line 151:

When the first-order derivative equals zero (at the beginning and end of the curve, not

260 *the maximum), it shows that snow has not started accumulating or has completely melted.*

6. When adapting the formula from the vegetation index, is it true that SnowMin is actually zero throughout this study?

265 Response:

Snow_{min} is not universally zero; rather, it is determined by local snow conditions. In high-altitude regions with perennial snow cover, Snow_{min} remains nonzero, whereas in mid- and low-latitude regions with relatively sparse snowfall, most Snow_{min} values approach zero. This spatial variability is analogous to vegetation indices, which may
270 not be zero depending on the specific local environment.

7. A couple of points are not clear in the Methodology: on one hand, “The above process is carried out for each grid in the NH (hence locally), yet above, it seems that the ratio is defined in “latitudinal zones” (implying a zonal average). The authors also mention
275 multi-annual averages of the threshold, which implies that the threshold is defined for each year and then averaged, as opposed to using a climatological evolution to define a threshold. Please clarify.

Response:

For the first question, to assess the generalizability of the ratio, we conduct calculations
280 not only for the entire NH and for individual latitude bands but also at each grid point (Figure 5). The results for the entire NH are presented in Figure 1, while those for the different latitudinal analyses are shown in Figure R6. The ratios are found to converge towards approximately 10%. When performing the same calculation at each grid point, we find that 73.05% and 82.65% of the two ratios fell within the 5%-15% range,
285 respectively. Consequently, the final ratio is set at 10%, ensuring its validity both at the hemispheric scale and latitudinal zones, as well as at the local level.

For the second question, as you mentioned, the thresholds are defined annually, and the snow phenology for each year is extracted based on that year’s specific threshold. This approach allows both the interannual variations in the thresholds and snow phenology

to reflect climate evolution. For example, as the climate warms, changes occur in the maximum snow accumulation, the timing of snowfall, and snow duration, leading to shifts in the snow curve pattern. Consequently, the thresholds derived from the snow curves also vary, resulting in corresponding interannual changes in extracted snow phenology. In the manuscript, the thresholds are averaged over multiple years solely for spatial comparison with the traditional 2 cm threshold. The results indicate substantial variations in thresholds across different latitudes, suggesting that a uniform threshold is not appropriate. However, in the subsequent process of snow phenology extraction, the multi-year averaged threshold was not used. Instead, year specific thresholds are applied to ensure that the influence of climate evolution is not masked.

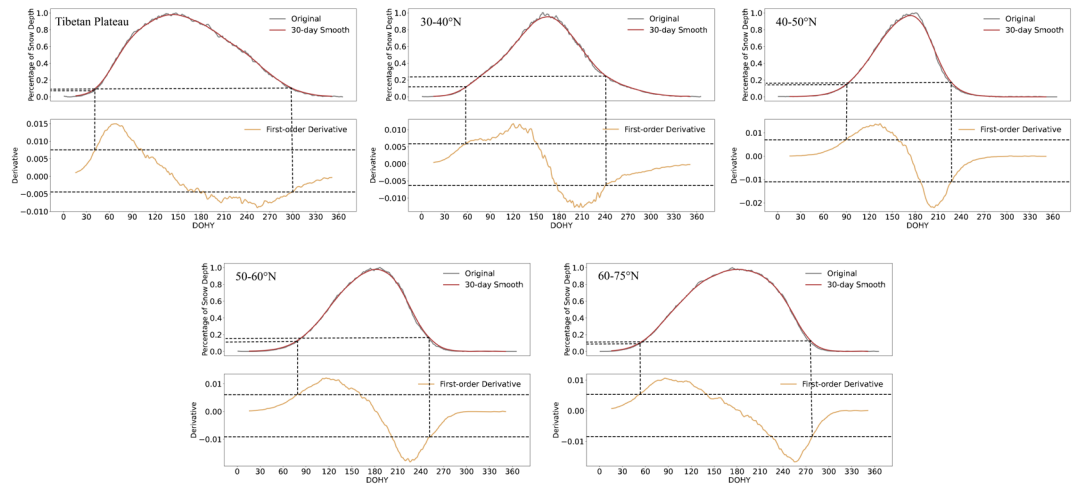


Figure R7. Schematic diagram of ratio results calculated at different latitudinal zones, including the Tibetan Plateau, 30°N–40°N, 40°N–50°N, 50°N–60°N, and 60°N–75°N.

Similar to Figure 1.

8.Caption of Fig 4 over which years is this intra-annual (climatological?) variation established?

Response:

This represents the intra-annual variation curve averaged over the period from 2000 to 2018. The original figure caption do not specify this information, now it has been added.

Line 222:

Intra-annual variations of IMS, MOD10C2, and SD in five latitudinal zones (including the Tibetan Plateau) from 2000 to 2018.

315 9.L242-265: there are lot of repeats with the Methodology section 2.3

Response:

Thank you for your advice. We have condensed this section to try to avoid repeating sentences.

Line 140:

320 *To identify the optimal $Snow_{ratio}$, we normalize and smooth the interannual SD variation curves for the entire NH and each latitudinal zone (including the Tibetan Plateau) with a 30-day moving window and then calculate their first-order derivatives. Occasional snowfall events, such as short-duration or localized snowfall, can introduce anomalous fluctuations in the snow curve, leading to multiple small peaks or atypical*
325 *maxima. These fluctuations represent short-term meteorological noise rather than the long-term seasonal evolution of the snow cover. This is particularly common, especially in unstable snow areas. Smoothing can reduce these instabilities and make the snow curve more reflective of seasonal snowpack changes. We assume the curve has a single peak structure. The first-order derivative shows the rate of snow accumulation or*
330 *melting, with its extreme points indicating the steepest changes. However, when the first-order derivative equals zero (beginning and end of the curve, not the maximum), it shows that snow has not started accumulating or has completely melted. The intermediate state between the maximum rate and no change represents when snow starts to accumulate or melting is nearly complete, which is what we are looking for in*
335 *SCOD and SCED. So, here we simply choose the extreme midpoint of the first-order derivative as the snow curve turning point. The percentage of tthe urning point is the threshold we need. The above process is carried out for each grid in the NH, and Figure 1 shows a schematic of the entire NH. The percentages for SCOD and SCED fall between 5% and 15% (marked by red circles). This threshold range (i.e. $Snow_{ratio}$)*
340 *can therefore serve as an indicator for the snow season.*

10. The early onset of snow annual cycle for the TP is interesting; is it governed by the high-altitude areas? It might be worth to split this Fig 6 into mountainous and non-mountainous areas, like done in the later part of the paper.

345 Response:

This is an interesting and complex issue. The early onset of the snow season on the Tibetan Plateau (TP) is a complex phenomenon influenced by multiple factors. The high-altitude environment of TP, with an average elevation exceeding 4,000 m, plays a crucial role in this process. At such elevations, lower temperatures prevail throughout the year, facilitating an earlier transition into winter and creating favorable conditions for snowfall. Additionally, the region's complex topography contributes to the retention of cold air, further enhancing local cooling effects (Yang et al., 2014). Moreover, TP is subject to the combined influence of the East Asian winter monsoon and the South Asian monsoon. During autumn, the intensification of the East Asian winter monsoon enhances cold air advection, leading to frequent southward intrusions of cold air masses. This process results in a rapid decline in temperature, promoting an earlier onset of snowfall (Wu et al., 2012). In short, the early snow season in TP is the result of multiple factors, and its high altitude makes a considerable contribution.

Taking your advice, I have divided Figure 6 into mountain ranges and non-mountain ranges and added it to Figure 6 in the manuscript with the appropriate captions. Regardless of the latitudinal belt, the snow curve in the non-mountainous region would be narrower than that in the mountainous region, implying a shorter snow season in the non-mountainous region. An interesting phenomenon is that the peak of non-mountain range snow arrives sooner. An interesting phenomenon is that the peak of non-mountain range snow arrives earlier in TP. Snow on TP mountains exhibits greater stability and shares characteristics with high-latitude snow, leading to a snow curve that closely resembles that of high-latitude mountainous regions. However, the snow season in the TP non-mountains is significantly earlier than in other latitudinal belts. This may be related to the fact that TP has more occasional random snowfalls, and the snow is stored due to colder temperatures. This is a very interesting phenomenon, and we will follow up by paying more attention to this phenomenon and conducting a more detailed study.

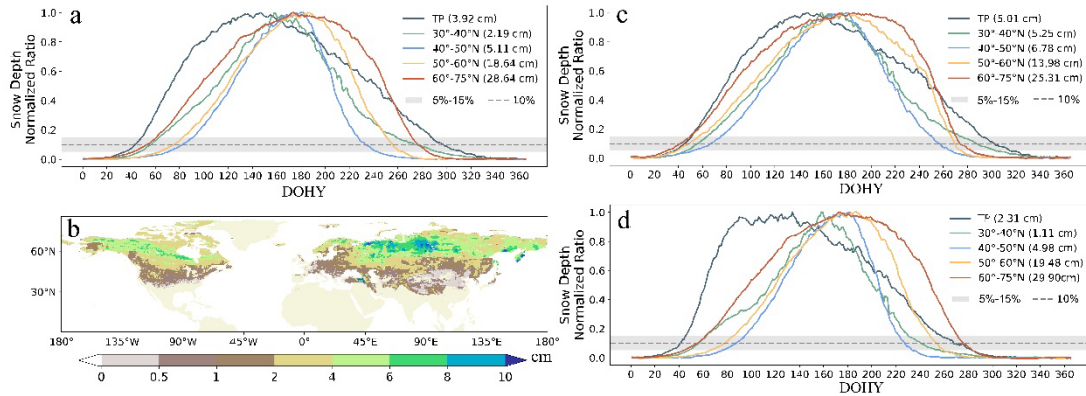


Figure R8. The dynamic SD threshold across the Northern Hemisphere. Intra-annual variability in the normalized SD for five latitudinal zones in (a) the whole Northern Hemisphere, (c) the Northern Hemisphere mountain ranges, (d) the Northern Hemisphere non-mountain ranges. Shading represents the interval 5%-15%, and the dashed line represents the dynamic threshold of 10%. Actual maximum snow depths for each latitude band are in parentheses. The unit DOHY is an abbreviation for day of the hydrological year, defined as September 1 through August 31 of the following year. (b) Spatial distribution of multi-year average snow depth thresholds in the Northern Hemisphere extracted using the snow dynamics threshold method.

Line 284:

Defining SD_{topo} greater than 200 as a mountain range divides the Northern Hemisphere into mountain ranges and non-mountain ranges. Regardless of the latitudinal belt, the snow curve in the non-mountainous region would be narrower than that in the mountainous region, implying a shorter snow season in the non-mountainous region. Snow curves in mountainous regions are more stable and show the same pattern in the five latitudinal zones. Therefore, the location of the 10% threshold is appropriate in both mountain range and non-mountain range areas where the turnover change occurs.

References:

Wu, G., Liu, Y., He, B., Bao, Q., Duan, A., & Jin, F.-F: Thermal Controls on the Asian

395 Summer Monsoon. Scientific Reports, 2(1), 404. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep00404>,
2012.

Yang, K., Wu, H., Qin, J., Lin, C., Tang, W., & Chen, Y: Recent climate changes over
the Tibetan Plateau and their impacts on energy and water cycle: A review. Global and
Planetary Change, 112, 79–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloplacha.2013.12.001>, 2014.

400

Typos & English.

1. L125 (and many other places) ratio not radio

Response:

Thank you for your correction, all statement errors in the manuscript have been
405 corrected.

Line 125:

*When the $NDVI_{ratio}$ exceeds is below a certain threshold, the corresponding day of
the year is determined as the EOS.*

410 2. Caption of Fig 1 : “has not started ... has ended”

Response:

The sentence has been modified.

Line 137:

*Gray shading indicates the snow season has not started or has ended, blue shading
415 indicates the snow accumulation period, and red shading indicates the snow melting
period.*

3. L217: snow conditions at given grid points

Response:

420 We have revised the sentence.

Line 217:

*Specifically, when the threshold is reduced, snow conditions at given grid points are
more easily reached, resulting in a longer SCD, earlier SCOD, and later SCED.*

425 4.Caption of Fig 4 : replace ...”snow elements” by the annual snow maxima over the
respective areas.

Response:

The sentence has been modified.

Line 224:

430 *The values in the graphs characterize the annual snow maxima over the respective
areas.*

RC2

The manuscript presents a valuable contribution to the field of snow phenology by proposing a dynamic threshold method for snow phenology extraction in the Northern Hemisphere. The study effectively highlights the limitations of the traditional fixed threshold approach and demonstrates the advantages of the dynamic method in capturing the spatial heterogeneity and temporal variability of snow cover.

Response:

Thank you very much for your insightful and thorough evaluation of our manuscript.

We greatly appreciate your recognition of our work.

Main comments:

1. The sentence “Our analysis further indicates that the changes in snow depth exhibits a significant shift around 10% of peak value across the Northern Hemisphere, marking the transition between the snow and non-snow seasons.” need to clarify. I feel it’s difficult to understand.

Response:

We apologize for our lack of clarity, which makes it difficult for readers to understand. This has now been corrected.

Our main approach is presented in Section 2.3 and illustrated in Figure 1. Specifically, after normalizing the snow depth data, we compute its first derivative and determine the percentage threshold based on the physical meaning of the first-order derivative. The first-order derivative represents the actual rate of snow accumulation and melting, with its extreme points indicating the maximum rate of snow change. When the first-order derivative equals zero (at the beginning and end of the curve, rather than at the maximum), it signifies that snow has either not yet begun to accumulate or has completely melted. The intermediate state between the maximum rate of snow change and no change corresponds to the onset of snow accumulation or the near completion of melting—this is the key phase we seek to identify for SCOD and SCED. Therefore, we define the extreme midpoint of the first-order derivative as the turning point of the

snow curve. The percentage value at this turning point serves as the threshold required for our analysis.

To evaluate the generalizability of the percentage threshold, we perform calculations not only for the entire Northern Hemisphere and individual latitude bands but also at the grid-point level. The results for the Northern Hemisphere are presented in Figure 1, while those for different latitudinal bands are shown in Figure R1. The ratios consistently converge toward approximately 10%. When applying the same calculation at each grid point, we find that 73.05% and 82.65% of the two ratios fall within the 5%-15% range, respectively (Figure 5). Therefore, the final ratio is set at 10%. It is clear from the schematic in Figure 1 that below the 10% position of the curve, the curve is very flat. Above the 10% position, the curve changes rapidly.

Due to the word limit of the abstract, it cannot be interpreted in this way with multiple characters. We have changed this sentence in the manuscript for better understanding.

Line 11:

After normalizing, the percentage snow depth curve turns significantly at the 10% position, marking the transition between the snow and non-snow seasons.

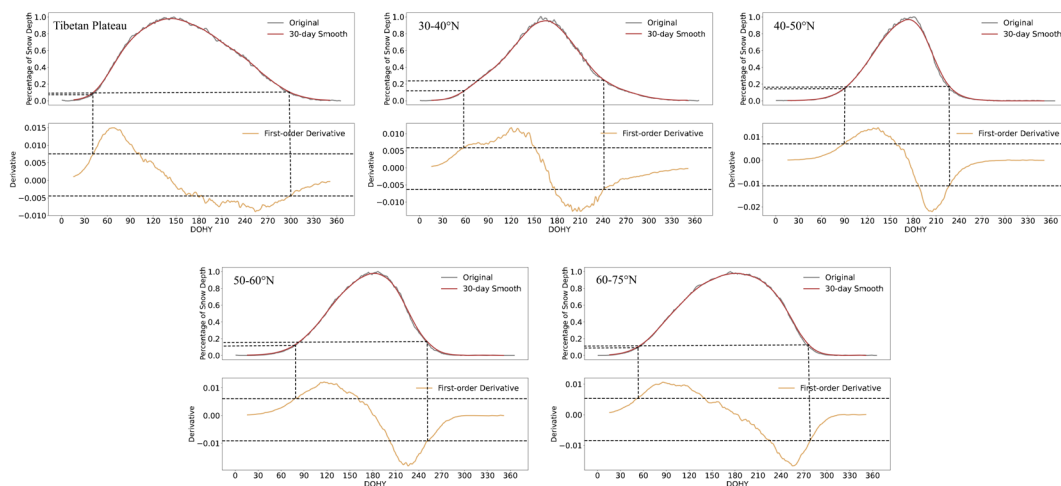


Figure R1. Schematic diagram of ratio results calculated at different latitudinal zones, including the Tibetan Plateau, 30°N–40°N, 40°N–50°N, 50°N–60°N, and 60°N–75°N.

Similar to Figure 1.

2. The introduction could be more focused on the specific research gap addressed by the study. Could you rewrite it?

Response:

Thank you for your advice. Indeed, the introductory part of our manuscript has too much padding, and the specific research gap is told relatively little later. Therefore, we have abbreviated the background and detailed the problems in the field of snow phenology in the penultimate paragraph. The section of the manuscript on the specific research gap, which has been significantly altered, is shown below.

Line 53:

Snow phenology was generally obtained through a two-step process in previous studies, i.e., identifying the presence or absence of snow in the grid based on a given threshold and calculating snow phenology indicators (Peng et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2019; Notarnicola, 2020). Various types of snow data are used to extract snow phenology, including SDs, snow cover fractions, and snow water equivalents, leading to possible differences in identified snow phenology (Chen et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2022). Additionally, most studies have employed a fixed threshold to extract snow phenology in different regions and years (Brown et al., 2007; Gao et al., 2011; Yue et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2022). The fixed threshold for snow phenology fails to account for the variations in snow cover across the NH. In fact, snow cover increases with latitude, with thick and stable snow cover at high latitudes and shallow and short-lived snow cover at middle and low latitudes, especially in the TP (Orsolini et al., 2019). In addition, the snow changes from year to year due to many aspects of the climate, and the regional snow cover trends exhibit a heterogeneous and non-linear response to its regional warming rate (Blau et al., 2024). Snow conditions are variable, but thresholds are always fixed, which can lead to inaccuracies of snow phenology. Therefore, employing different snow data and a fixed threshold will lead to uncertainties in extracted snow phenology. At present, it has been proven in the methods of extracting vegetation phenology that fixed thresholds cannot accommodate spatio-temporal heterogeneity, ignore inter-annual variations, and are not applicable to diverse

vegetation types, among a series of other problems (White et al., 1997; Mo et al., 1997). However, this issue regarding snow phenology extraction methods has not yet received
515 attention and resolution. In fact, the onset of the snow season is marked by the sustained accumulation of snowfall as ground snow, rather than being determined by a fixed threshold. We aim to propose a novel method that incorporates both spatial heterogeneity in snow cover and temporal variability to extract snow phenology, reducing the uncertainty associated with the fixed threshold method from a physical
520 meaning perspective.

3.If possible, could you add a sentence or two to explicitly state the research objectives and the main contributions of the study.

Response:

525 Thanks for your suggestion. We have added sentences to explicitly state the research objectives and the main contributions of the study.

Initially, we find that the method commonly used to extract snow phenology overlooks regional variability in snow characteristics and its temporal evolution. This limitation motivates us to improve the approach to enhance its accuracy and applicability. To
530 support our argument, we first compare snow phenology results derived from different datasets to assess whether the fixed threshold used in snow evolution can reasonably capture the start and end of the snow season. After highlighting the shortcomings of the existing method, we aim to refine the method to achieve more accurate snow phenology extraction. Finally, we focus on the Tibetan Plateau, a region with unique topography and climate, to examine the generalizability and limitations of the new method.
535

In the manuscript, it is true that our objectives are not explicitly written, and they have now been added.

Line 68:

We aim to propose a novel method that incorporates both spatial heterogeneity in snow
540 cover and temporal variability to extract snow phenology, thereby reducing the uncertainty associated with the fixed threshold method.

The main contribution of our study is the completion of our predefined objectives. At

the end of the Conclusions and Discussion in the manuscript, we briefly summarize our main contributions of the study.

545 **Line 413:**

In this study, we explore the spatial distribution of snow phenology in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) using several sets of satellite remote sensing snow data and multiple methods. A new extraction method for snow phenology is proposed in the NH, and the differences in snow phenology using the traditional and new methods are compared to
550 *evaluate the new snow phenology method.*

4.It would be helpful to provide a brief explanation of the rationale behind choosing the 30-day moving window for smoothing the snow depth data.

Response:

555 Thank you for your advice. In practice, the selection of a 30-day moving window is not of particular significance; its main function is to smooth the data, reducing noise and limiting the influence of random snowfall timing on snow phenology extraction. Snow changes are more stable and reliable on a monthly scale. To evaluate the impact of different smoothing windows, we calculate the dynamic threshold using percentage of
560 snow depth derived from the first-order derivatives (see Methods) and illustrate the results in a line graph (Fig. R2). The snow depth percentage remains relatively stable when the smoothing window approaches 30 days. When the window is smaller than 30 days, the curve declines steeply, whereas for values exceeding 30 days, fluctuations are minimal. Based on this analysis, we adopt a smoothing window of 30 days. While slight
565 variations in the window size do not significantly alter the results, a window that is too small amplifies noise, whereas an excessively large one may obscure valid information.

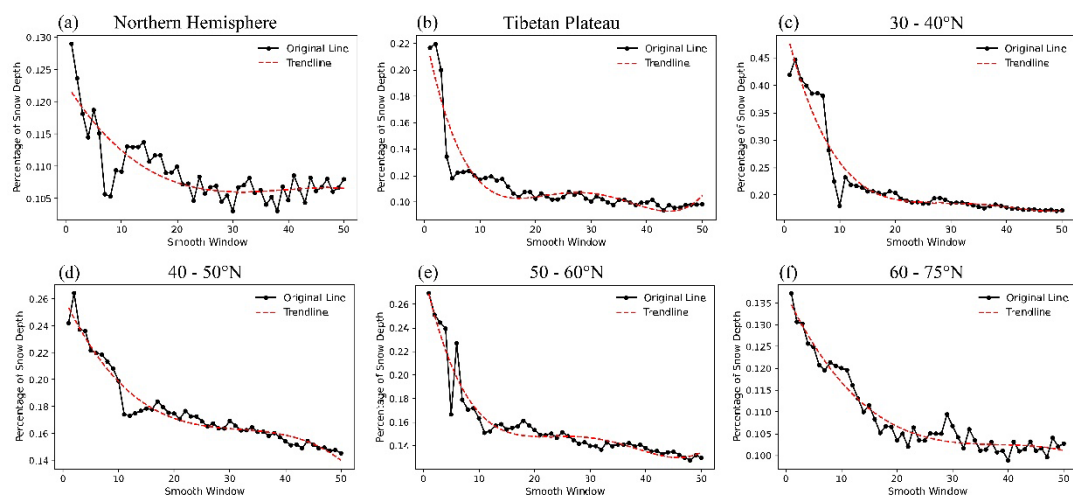


Figure R2. The relationship between the percentage of snow depth (dynamic threshold) and smooth window in (a) the Northern Hemisphere, (b) the Tibetan Plateau, (c) 30°N–40°N, (d) 40°N–50°N, (e) 50°N–60°N, and (f) 60°N–75°N. The black line is the original line, the black dot is the specific value for each year, and the red line is the trend line.

5. The conclusions clearly summarize the main findings and contributions of the study.

Response:

Thank you for your compliments. We have followed your suggestions and further improved the manuscript.

CC1

580 **Main comments:**

1. According to numerous previous works and my analysis (<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isprsjprs.2024.07.018>), the uncertainty in snow phenology is mainly derived from the accuracy of daily snow cover products. You always mentioned there are potential bias when using the fixed threshold to determine snow phenology. 585 Through your whole text, you didn't specifically illustrate this type of uncertainties. May I ask you to give some examples to clarify this uncertainty what you mentioned?

Response:

We agree with your perspective that uncertainty in data will pass to snow phenology calculation. In this study, we did not explicitly quantify the bias because there are no 590 direct observational data for snow phenology. Facing snow data uncertainty and a lack of snow phenology references, we try to optimize the methods for snow phenology extraction.

We do not mean that the traditional fixed threshold approach is incorrect, but we identify the limitations of the traditional fixed threshold method and explore possible 595 improvements. Spatially, snow conditions vary across regions. Applying a uniform threshold implies treating all snow conditions as identical, which is unreasonable. Snow conditions also differ significantly over time, such as from the Industrial Revolution to the present.

We think that when snowfall can be steadily converted into snow on the ground, it 600 means the onset of the snow season. In this work, we define the inflection point of snow coverage or depth curve, serving as a dynamic threshold for identifying the start of the snow season. In contrast, a fixed 2 cm or 50% threshold will appear as different phases of the snow season in different regions and time periods. Similarly, snow cover extent data are obtained via pre-processing, such as the sub-grid snow information extraction, 605 which may introduce several thresholds or criteria.

As mentioned above, we have recognized the impact of data uncertainty on snow phenology identification, but we believe that the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of

snow cover needs to be considered. This work is a preliminary exploration of dynamic snow phenology, and we hope to further refine it in future work, including your
610 important suggestions. According to your comment, we revise our manuscript to further clarify the above statement.

---In the Abstract, “Previous studies commonly employed ... leading to potential biases of snow phenology.” This description is too general.

615 Response:

Thank you for the suggestion. In this sentence, we want to express the limitation of fixed thresholds. We have revised this sentence for the better understanding of the readers.

Line 7:

620 *Previous studies commonly employed fixed threshold methods to extract snow phenology, which cannot represent the differences in the beginning/end of the snow period under different snow conditions in the Northern Hemisphere, leading to potential uncertainties of snow phenology.*

625 --- Lines 65-66, “The fixed threshold for snow phenology fails to account for the variations in snow cover across the NH”. Please give us more explanation on this. Do you have any related references to support your statement? Additionally, the following sentence “In fact, snow cover increase Especially on the TP” cannot support your statement on the uncertainties due to using fixed threshold.

630 Response:

As in the previous responses, we believe that a fixed threshold fails to represent the actual beginning/end of snow cover under different snow conditions, particularly when considering long-term climatic shifts and regional differences in snow.

We propose that the initiation of the snow season should be determined by identifying
635 the point at which snowfall consistently leads to stable accumulation on the ground. In our approach, we define this using a dynamic threshold based on the inflection point of the snow coverage or depth curve. This inspiration comes from the methodology used

in the extraction of vegetation phenology. It is well known that snow and vegetation in the Northern Hemisphere exhibit similar large-scale spatial patterns, both varying with latitude. However, while vegetation coverage decreases with increasing latitude, snow cover follows the opposite trend, expanding at higher latitudes. Additionally, both snow and vegetation are influenced by climate change, leading to temporal variations in their distribution and dynamics. The word “phenology” was originally derived from vegetation and was subsequently extended to include snow phenology. Consequently, methods for extracting vegetation phenology are more advanced and well-developed compared to those for snow phenology. At present, it has been proven in the methods of extracting vegetation phenology that fixed thresholds cannot accommodate spatio-temporal heterogeneity, ignore inter-annual variations, and are not applicable to diverse vegetation types, among a series of other problems (White et al., 1997; Mo et al., 2012). However, this issue regarding snow phenology extraction methods has not yet received attention and resolution. Building on insights from vegetation studies, we hypothesize that similar principles apply to snow. The fixed threshold method, however, fails to account for the temporal and spatial variability of snow, limiting its effectiveness in capturing dynamic snow processes.

We have added to the manuscript in order to make it more comprehensible to the reader.

Line 65:

The fixed threshold for snow phenology fails to account for the variations in snow cover across the NH. In fact, snow cover increases with latitude, with thick and stable snow cover at high latitudes and shallow and short-lived snow cover at middle and low latitudes, especially in the TP (Orsolini et al., 2019). In addition, the snow changes from year to year due to many aspects of the climate, and the regional snow cover trends exhibit a heterogeneous and non-linear response to its regional warming rate (Blau et al., 2024). Snow conditions are variable, but thresholds are always fixed, which can lead to inaccuracies of snow phenology. Therefore, employing different snow data and a fixed threshold will lead to uncertainties in extracted snow phenology. At present, it has been proven in the methods of extracting vegetation phenology that fixed thresholds cannot accommodate spatio-temporal heterogeneity, ignore inter-annual variations,

and are not applicable to diverse vegetation types, among a series of other problems (White et al., 1997; Mo et al., 2012). However, this issue regarding snow phenology extraction methods has not yet received attention and resolution. In fact, the onset of the snow season is marked by the sustained accumulation of snowfall as ground snow, rather than being determined by a fixed threshold. We aim to propose a novel method that incorporates both spatial heterogeneity in snow cover and temporal variability to extract snow phenology, reducing the uncertainty associated with the fixed threshold method from a physical meaning perspective.

References:

Mo, J., Zhu, W., Wang, L., Xu, Y., and Liu J.: Evaluation of remote sensing extraction methods for vegetation phenology based on flux tower net ecosystem carbon exchange data. Chinese Journal of Applied Ecology, 23(2), 319-327.

<https://doi.org/10.13287/j.1001-9332.2012.0072>, 2012.

White, M. A., Thornton, P. E., and Running, S. W.: A continental phenology model for monitoring vegetation responses to interannual climatic variability. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 11, 217–234. <https://doi.org/10.1029/97GB00330>, 1997.

--- Lines 68-69: “Snow conditions are variable, ... underestimation or overestimation of snow phenology.” Please add more explanations on this underestimation and overestimation. Is there any published works to support this statement?

Response:

It is a misrepresentation here. As mentioned in your first question, there are no reference data to support our assessment of whether snow phenology is underestimated and overestimated.

Therefore, we have revised the description to highlight our consideration of the impact of spatial and temporal heterogeneity of snow in the Northern Hemisphere on snow phenology. Please see the answer to the previous question for more details.

2.Line 14-15: “At low and middle latitudes, the snow cover duration (SCD) extends, the snow cover onset day (SCOD) advances, and the snow cover end day (SCED)

delays, ...” This conclusion is quite different from what we got up to now. Does your analysis conclusion tell us we have more snow in this region in a warming world?

700 Response:

We apologize for any ambiguity in my previous explanation, which may have led to a misunderstanding. The comparison of extending and advancing here specifically refers to the traditional fixed threshold method. In particular, compared to the conventional 2 cm threshold, the dynamic threshold method results in a longer snow cover duration (SCD), an earlier snow cover onset date (SCOD), and a later snow cover end date (SCED) at low and mid-latitudes, especially over the Tibetan Plateau, where the SCD difference can reach up to 28 days. Conversely, at higher latitudes, the changes follow the opposite pattern. Therefore, the reference here does not pertain to absolute changes in time scales but rather to the relative differences in snow phenology results derived from the two methods. To prevent misinterpretation, clarifications and additional labels have been incorporated into the manuscript.

Line 13:

Using the dynamic threshold method, there is an earlier snow cover onset day (SCOD), a later snow cover end day (SCED), and a longer snow cover duration (SCD) at low and middle latitudes, especially on the Tibetan Plateau, where the SCD differences can reach 28 days. The differences in snow phenology at higher latitudes are reversed.

3.MOD10C2 products provide a maximum snow cover extent during this 8-days period. That means you would potentially overestimate the snow cover phenology metrics (snow cover days, snow onset date and snow end date) when you used this data. “For the SCF dataset, ... after the last identified snow cover.” (Line 112-113) Please cite references to support this processing’s reasonability.

720 Response:

Thank you for your question. As you mentioned, a major limitation of optical remote sensing is cloud contamination, which obscures snow data on most days during the snow season. To mitigate this issue, 8-day and 16-day composite snow cover products are generated to reduce cloud interference (Hall et al., 2002). The MOD10C2 data is

one of the products of optical remote sensing, which provides the maximum snow cover extent over an 8-day period. Consequently, using it for snow phenology extraction may cause an overestimation of the snow season. In order to compare snow phenology results from different data, we chose this data set with reference to Chen et al. (2015). However, the bias that this data set brings to snow phenology is not negligible. Therefore, we will follow up by choosing daily-scale, more accurate SCF data for the extraction of phenology. The method used in L112 is adopted from the study by Chen et al. (2015). The citations have now been added to the manuscript.

Line 112:

For the MOD10C2 dataset, considering the 8-day temporal resolution, the SCOD is the date four days before the first identified snow cover, and the SCED is four days after the last identified snow cover. SCD is determined by multiplying the number of snow occurrences by eight (Notarnicola, 2020; Yue et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2015).

References:

Chen, X., Liang, S., Cao, Y., He, T., and Wang, D.: Observed contrast changes in snow cover phenology in northern middle and high latitudes from 2001–2014. Scientific Reports, 5. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep16820>, 2015.

4.1: which part of data do you use to plot this figure? 1989-2018 or 2000-2018? Single data and which data? Additionally, this curve is like for vegetation growth instead of snow cover evolution. Please check it again. The fact is that Summer is no snow (DOY=180 days). Finally, how can I understand the term “percentage of snow depth”? For your reference, here is a in-situ observation of snow evolution within a snow cover year (10/1 – 9/31) <https://www.climatehubs.usda.gov/hubs/northwest/topic/30-year-normals>. Regarding only snow depth variable used in your method, I am confused how you use snow cover products (IMS and SCF) to calculate snow phenology metrics.

Response:

Thank you for your question. We will address each point individually.

1. The snow depth data used to generate this figure covers the period from 2000 to 2018.

I apologize for any ambiguity in my previous explanation that may have led to a misunderstanding. In fact, the figure presents results based on the hydrological year, which spans from September 1 to August 31 of the following year. As a result, Day 180 falls within the winter season, leading to a high SD value. To avoid such confusion, I have revised "DOY" in the text to "DOHY" (day of the hydrological year), which I hope will improve clarity.

2. The label "percentage of snow depth" represents the value after normalizing for snow depth. The schematic equation is as follows.

$$\text{percentage of snow depth} = \frac{\text{Snow depth} - \text{Snow depth}_{\min}}{\text{Snow depth}_{\max} - \text{Snow depth}_{\min}}, \quad (1)$$

3. In Section 3.1, Snow depth is selected as the driving data because it consistently follows a stable single-peak pattern across different latitudinal zones, effectively representing the accumulation and melting processes of snow. In contrast, snow cover data are more irregular and spatially diverse, especially over the Tibetan Plateau (TP). Furthermore, snow cover measurements are significantly impacted by the polar night, causing considerable inaccuracies north of 60°N, while cloud interference further compromises data reliability. Therefore, we use the snow depth dataset to improve the snow phenology extraction method. In fact, the dynamic threshold method can also be applied to SCF data. The results of the new method using a dynamic threshold for SCF are nearly similar to those of SD, and we show the results for SCF in the Appendix. However, IMS data have already undergone preprocessing. Since their thresholds cannot be adjusted, it is not possible to apply a dynamic threshold to IMS data.

5. Through your manuscript, you used a 5% or 10% to determine snow phenology metrics. Is this another type of "fixed threshold" method. Additionally, you didn't include some comparisons, validations, and evaluations. How do you convince our readers of the responsibility (not accuracy) of your snow phenology results? Because your method quite largely different the method we usually used.

Response:

We agree with your point of view. We acknowledge that the dynamic threshold method

for snow phenology is not fully dynamic; however, it is relatively more dynamic compared to the traditional fixed threshold method. Specifically, the fixed threshold approach fails to account for interannual variations and spatial differences in snow, treating snow uniformly across all locations and time periods without distinction, which is evidently unreasonable. The fixed threshold has no physical meaning and no consideration of the different states of the snow season. In fact, the snow season is signaled when snowfall can be stabilized into snow on the ground. The currently implemented 10% dynamic threshold method partially addresses some of the limitations of the fixed threshold method, though it is not yet fully perfect. Moreover, the 10% threshold is primarily derived from mathematical calculations. In future work, we plan to integrate atmospheric variables to further enhance the physical significance of the 10% dynamic threshold.

For the second question, the rationalization of dynamic snow phenology methods should start with the problems of existing fixed methods. The limitations of the fixed threshold method are described in detail in Main Comment 1 and will not be repeated here. Please refer to the answer in Main Comment 1 for details.

6. Based on your analysis, I wonder if your approach means that snow phenology metrics will vary depending on the study area used. For example, the snow depth in the Northern-Xinjiang is generally higher, while it is lower in the TP. ---Case1: Only TP data is used to analyze snow phenology metrics for TP. ---Case2: The data both in the TP and Northern-Xinjiang are used to analyze snow phenology metrics for TP. Are the snow phenology metrics in the TP region different between Case 1 and Case 2?

Response:

We think the snow phenology of the TP obtained from Case 1 and Case 2 in your question is the same. Since the threshold is calculated individually for each grid point without applying a regional average, each grid point has its own specific threshold based on its snow curve. Given the differences in snow conditions between the TP and Xinjiang, the extracted thresholds are inherently distinct. The thresholds for grid points

on the TP are derived solely from their own snow characteristics and are independent of the snow conditions in Xinjiang. Therefore, including or excluding Xinjiang's snow data does not affect the threshold values for TP grid points, nor does it influence the resulting snow phenology metrics.

820

Minor comments:

1. Change “on” to “in” in line 67.

Response:

We have revised the sentence.

825

Line 67:

In fact, snow cover increases with latitude, with thick and stable snow cover at high latitudes and shallow and short-lived snow cover at middle and low latitudes, especially in the TP.

830

2. Change “24 hours” to “daily” in line 95

Response:

The sentence has been modified.

Line 95:

The dataset is a daily product from 1980-2018 with a spatial resolution of 25067.53 meters, and shows a relative deviation within 30%.

835

3. Change “the hydrological year” to “a hydrological year” in line 111

Response:

Thank you for your correction, all statement errors in the manuscript have been corrected.

840

Line 111:

SCOD is defined as the first day with the first continuous snow cover exceeding five days in a hydrological year; whereas SCED is the last day with the last continuous snow cover exceeding five days.

845

4. How do I understand the “snow index” in Line 132? Snow depth? Snow cover days?
NDSI?

Response:

“Snow index” is a pronoun that can denote any of the elements of snow. For better
850 understanding, we've changed it to snow element and given an example in parentheses
afterward.

Line 129:

*To investigate the snow phenology in different areas across the globe, we propose a
dynamic threshold for snow phenology.*

$$855 \quad Snow_{ratio} = \frac{Snow - Snow_{min}}{Snow_{max} - Snow_{min}}, \quad (2)$$

where $Snow_{max}$ is the annual maximum snow element (e.g., snow cover fraction, snow
depth) and $Snow_{min}$ is the annual minimum snow element.

5. Line 101-102: “This data has been validated against ... less than 5 cm account for
860 approximately 65% of all the data” Please add the reference for this statement to support
this “5cm - 65%” number pair.

Response:

Thank you for your advice. We have added the reference for this statement to support
this “5cm - 65%” number pair.

865 Line 101:

*This data has been validated against meteorological observations, and absolute errors
of less than 5 cm account for approximately 65% of all the data (Che et al., 2008).*

References:

Che, T., Li, X., Jin, R., Armstrong, R., and Zhang, T.: Snow depth derived from passive
870 microwave remote-sensing data in China. *Annals of Glaciology*, 49, 145–154.
<https://doi.org/10.3189/172756408787814690>, 2008.

6. Line 141: Why do you use “30-day” moving window? Any specific reasons?

Response:

Thanks for the comment. The purpose of smoothing is simply to eliminate noise and avoid the effect of chance snowfall timing on the extraction of snow phenology. Snow changes are more stable and reliable on a monthly scale and are not affected by random snowfall.

To argue this point, we analyze the dynamic threshold using percentage of snow depth extracted from the first-order derivatives under different smoothing windows (see Methods) and present the results in a line graph (Fig. R1). The percentage of snow depth threshold stabilizes when the smoothing window reaches approximately 30 days. The curve exhibits a sharp decline for smoothing windows smaller than 30 days, while for values greater than 30 days, it shows minimal fluctuations. Based on this analysis, we select a smoothing window of 30 days. Although minor adjustments to the smoothing window have little impact on the results, it should not be too small, as this increases sensitivity to noise, nor too large, as it may erase some valid information.

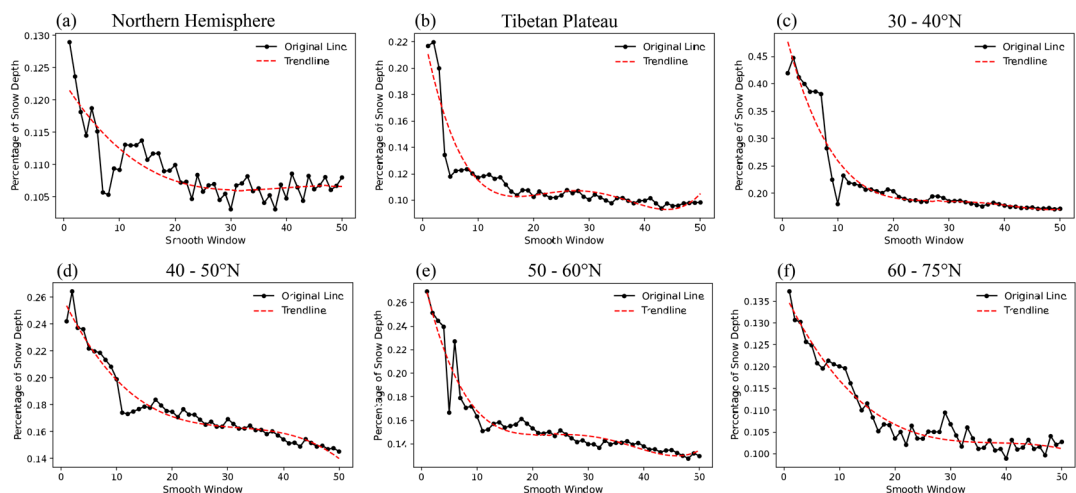


Figure R1. The relationship between the percentage of snow depth (dynamic threshold) and smooth window in (a) the Northern Hemisphere, (b) the Tibetan Plateau, (c) 30°N–40°N, (d) 40°N–50°N, (e) 50°N–60°N, and (f) 60°N–75°N. The black line is the original line, the black dot is the specific value for each year, and the red line is the trend line.

7. Section 2.1: how did you handle the different spatial resolution of these snow products?

Response:

For snow products with different resolutions, we have standardized them to a resolution
900 of 0.25°. We have now commented in the manuscript.

Line 102:

*For snow products with different resolutions, we have standardized them to a resolution
of 0.25°.*

905 **8. Line 246-247: “Given that the zonal variations ... compared to a fixed threshold.” It
is not clear.**

Response:

We apologize for the lack of clarity in our previous explanation. Our intended meaning
is that the spatial distribution characteristics of snow are similar to those of vegetation,
910 both exhibiting a latitudinal zonation. However, while vegetation decreases with
increasing latitude, snow increases. The key point is that there are clear similarities
between the two. In vegetation phenology extraction methods, both fixed threshold and
dynamic threshold methods exist. Numerous studies comparing these approaches have
consistently shown that the dynamic threshold method is more reasonable. Given the
915 relationship between snow and vegetation, we hypothesize that a dynamic threshold
method should also be more accurate than a fixed threshold method for snow phenology
extraction.

This point was not clearly conveyed in the original manuscript, and we have now
revised it accordingly.

920 **Line 251:**

*Given this similarity in zonal variation, we propose a dynamic threshold method for
extracting snow phenology, inspired by a commonly used approach in vegetation
phenology.*

925 **9. Are the days in Fig 2 and Table 2 DOYs (Day of Year)? If it is, 66 of SCOD in table
2 means the snow starts in March. Please check the whole paper’s figures again.**

Response:

Similar to Figure 1, the hydrological year is still represented here. Annotations have been added to the figure notes and tables.

930

CC2:

Main comments:

The authors introduce a method of defining start dates, end dates, and durations of snow cover over Northern Hemisphere lands that differs from fixed definitions for these variables. This reviewer is left with considerable uncertainties as to how the author's dynamic method is any more useful than the fixed method. One major concern has to do with the use of microwave derived snow depth data to "drive" this approach. Many uncertainties remain to this day regarding the accuracy of this spectral region to accurately estimate depth. This can especially be true at shallow depths, with wet snow, and with deep snow that may have ice lenses, depth hoar, etc. within the pack. Unless the authors can explain how these issues do not impact their dynamic phenology method, I would place greater faith in the IMS and SCF estimates. This brings into question just how specific one can get with timing using an 8-day window for the SCF. Not that the IMS is a full-hemisphere daily evaluation of snow cover given persistent cloud cover that may mask surface conditions for multiple days. These issues are mainly more challenging in the fall for all sources, in part due to greater cloudiness than in the spring melt season. Also, due to shallower depths, potential wet conditions, and ephemeral snow cover that can be found everywhere during seasonal snow onset (not that it doesn't exist throughout the season at lower elevation, low-mid latitude regions. Also, the challenges of using microwave data to map snow cover over the Tibetan Plateau has long been recognized, in part, as the authors suggest, due to its shallow depth (over non-mountainous areas) and ephemeral nature.

I will go no further with this evaluation as I see earlier reviewers have posted excellent comments regarding manuscript specifics, to which I agree. At this point, I will conclude that while the manuscript addresses an interesting topic and employs the key snow cover extent data products at regional to continental scales (IMS and MODIS), I am not convinced that the SD data and the subsequent conclusions built upon it are fully supported.

Response:

Thank you for your question. Our responses to your questions and comments are listed below.

(1) The first question is about how the dynamic threshold method is more useful than

the fixed threshold method. In this study, we do not explicitly quantify bias due to the lack of direct observational data on snow phenology. We also agree that the data have a great impact on the identification of snow phenology. Given the uncertainties in snow data and the absence of snow phenology references, we focus on the limitations of the existing methods and try to improve the extraction of snow phenology in principle.

We all know that snow at high latitudes differs greatly from snow at low latitudes, and snow changes greatly on a time scale as the climatic context changes. The potential implication of using a fixed threshold is to treat all snow as the same, and the choice of a fixed threshold value is too subjective. We think that when snowfall can be steadily converted into snow on the ground, it means the onset of the snow season. It is the inflection point where we look for a change in the state of the snow curve. For example, an inflection point where the snow curve changes from a smooth change to a rapid increase, which means that snow starts to accumulate and the snow season arrives. Therefore, although we do not have observed snow phenology data for validation, the dynamic threshold approach is more reasonable in principle because this approach can take into account the spatial and temporal variability of snow.

(2) The second question is the choice to use snow depth as the driving data for the dynamic thresholding method. As you say, passive microwave remote sensing still faces considerable uncertainties in accurately estimating snow depth.

This technique detects snow cover based on the volume scattering properties of snow particles. The brightness temperature emitted from the surface propagates through the snowpack and undergoes scattering. Uncertainties in passive microwave remote sensing come from a number of sources, such as ground temperature, snow characteristics, and terrain. Under dry snow conditions, the accuracy of passive microwave retrievals improves as snow depth increases. Studies have shown that microwave retrievals tend to underestimate snow extent during autumn and early winter due to the weak scattering signal from shallow and intermittent snow cover. By mid-winter and spring, the error will be relatively small (Armstrong & Brodzik, 2001; Savoie et al., 2009). Notably, the Tibetan Plateau (TP) represents a unique exception within the Northern Hemisphere, where microwave-based retrievals tend to systematically overestimate snow-covered

990 areas (Frei et al., 2012; Dai et al., 2017). This regional variation highlights the challenges associated with microwave remote sensing of snow, especially in shallow snow areas. On the other hand, in addition to the characteristic of shallowness, you also mention the temporal discontinuity of snow on the Tibetan plateau. Recent studies have shown an average of 14 snow cover events per year in the TP and long periods without
995 snow cover (Li et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2024). All these reasons make TP one of the most difficult areas for passive microwave remote sensing inversion accuracy. Therefore, we will next explore the availability of passive microwave remote sensing snow depth data using TP as the study area.

We use the observational snow depth dataset of the Tibetan Plateau from the National
1000 Tibetan Plateau Data Center as a benchmark to validate passive microwave remote sensing snow depth data. There are a total of 102 meteorological stations within the study area, with 99 stations remaining after eliminating three stations with a high number of missing measurements. The time period covers 1961 to 2013, and we select hydrologic years 2001 to 2013 for this study. The hydrological year is defined as the
1005 period from September 1 to the following August 31.

To explore the continuity of different snow conditions on the Tibetan Plateau, we select the 30 meteorological stations with the greatest maximum snow depth to represent the deep snow and the 30 stations with the lowest maximum snow depth to represent the shallow snow. The maximum snow depth at deep snow stations is about 12 cm, and the
1010 maximum snow depth at shallow snow stations is about 3 cm. Next, we compare the maximum number of consecutive days for shallow snow and deep snow. As we expected, the maximum number of consecutive days for deep snow is longer than for shallow snow. The maximum number of consecutive days for deep snow is centered on 4 days, while for shallow snow, it is only 1 day. Such a short succession of days reflects
1015 the instability of snow on the Tibetan Plateau, which increases the difficulty of passive microwave remote sensing inversion.

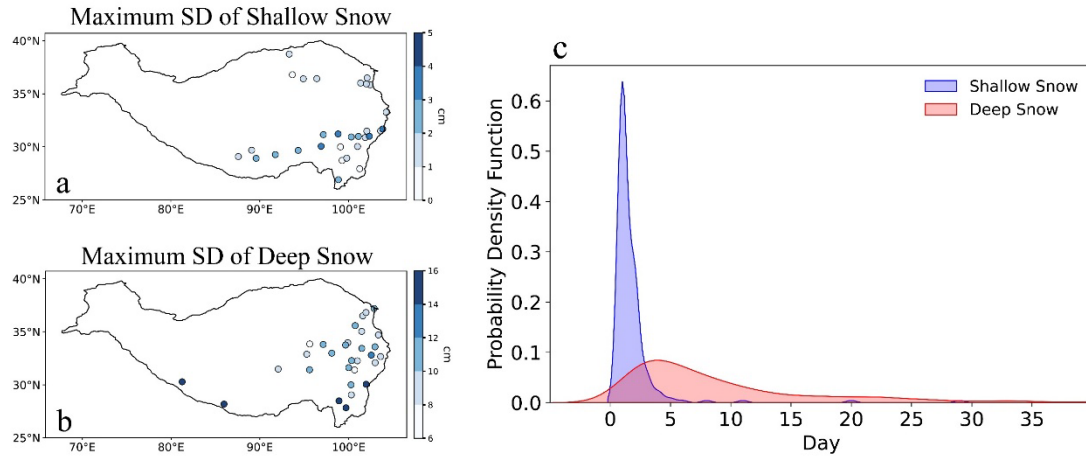


Figure R1. Spatial distribution of maximum snow depth at 30 meteorological stations of (a) shallow snow and (b) deep snow. (c) The probability distribution function for the maximum number of consecutive days of snow depth at shallow and deep snow weather stations. The blue line represents shallow snow, and the red line represents deep snow.

To compare passive microwave remote sensing data with in situ observations, we select the nearest grid point based on the latitude and longitude of each meteorological station. Spatial maps of multi-year average snow depths show that passive microwave remote sensing snow depths are greater than observed data. Passive microwave remote sensing of snow depth captures the inter-annual variability of the observed data, but suffers from systematic bias and greater fluctuations in observations. The passive microwave remote sensing data do not capture these small fluctuations. It is worth noting that the small number of meteorological stations in TP and the fact that they are mainly located in valleys at lower altitudes and on leeward slopes may make the observations not entirely accurate either.

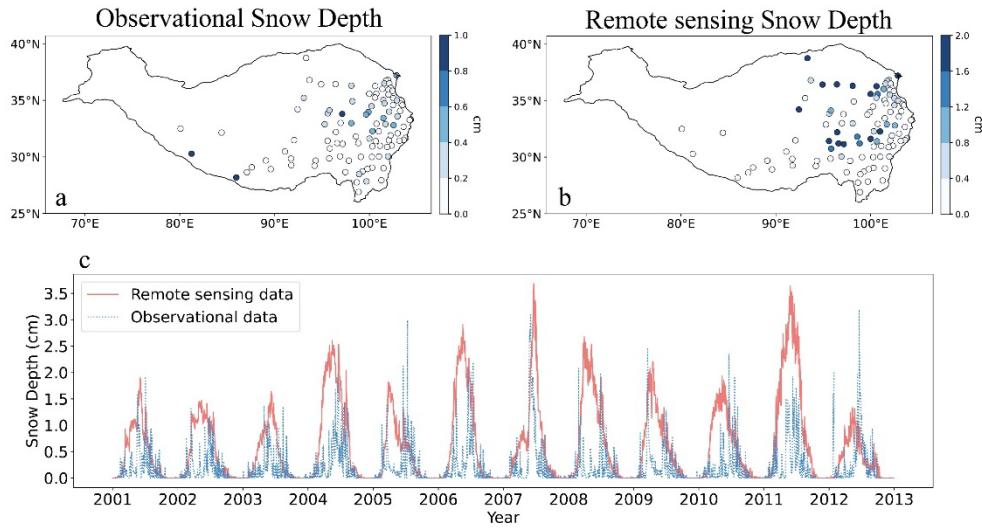


Figure R2. Spatial distribution of average snow depth at 99 sites of (a) observational data, (b) passive microwave remote sensing data. (c) Interannual fluctuations in snow depth for hydrologic years 2001-2013. The solid blue line represents observed snow depth data, and the dashed red line represents passive microwave remote sensing snow depth data.

We further analyze the snow phenology results of passive microwave remote sensing snow depth in comparison with the observed data. First, we use the traditional fixed threshold method for snow phenology extraction. Snow cover duration (SCD) from observed data is generally less than 20 days, with a maximum of 62 days. Passive microwave remote sensing data, because of its large bias, reaches the threshold more often, and the extracted SCD is naturally longer. Twenty-two of these stations have SCDs greater than 70 days. For the snow cover onset day (SCOD) and the snow cover end day (SCED), more stations in the observed data do not extract the SCOD and SCED because it is more difficult to meet the requirement of 5 consecutive days. The SCOD of observational data is generally later than the SCOD of passive microwave remote sensing data, while SCED is the opposite.

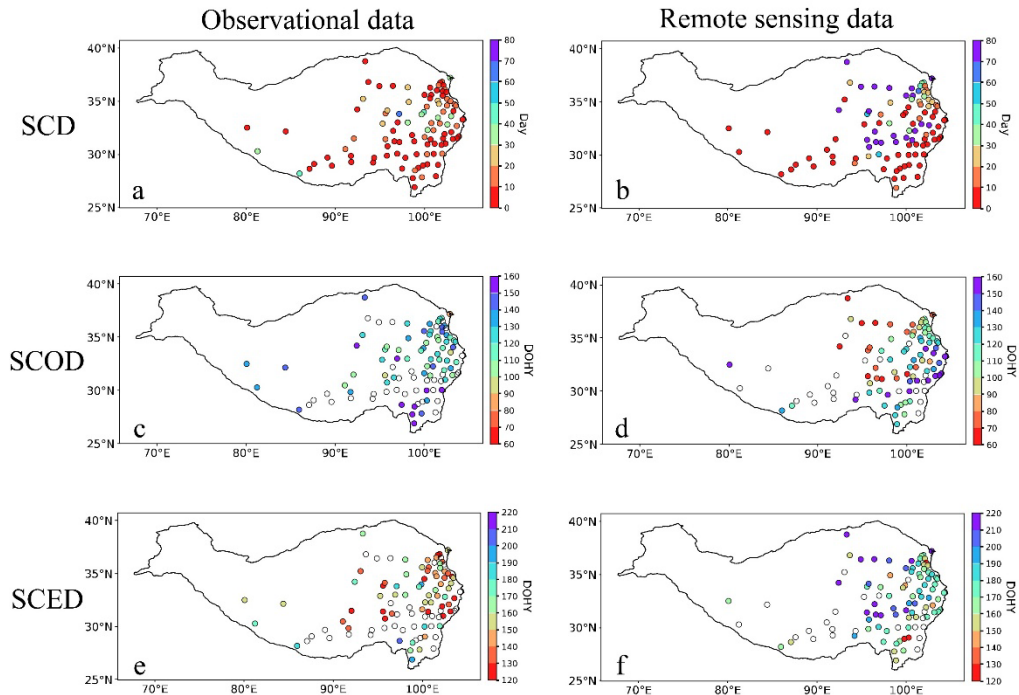


Figure R3. Spatial distribution of average snow cover duration (SCD), snow cover onset day (SCOD), and snow cover end day (SCED) at 99 sites of observational data (a, c, e) and passive microwave remote sensing data (b, d, f) extracted using the fixed threshold method. The unit DOHY stands for day of the hydrological year.

For comparison with the fixed threshold method, we extract SCD, SCOD, and SCED using our proposed 10% dynamic threshold method, showing that the SCD are prolonged for both data sets. The maximum SCD for observed snow depth data is 77 days. A portion of the sites where SCOD and SCED could not be extracted by the fixed threshold method are also able to obtain snow phenology. The traditional 2cm threshold is too high and difficult to reach for most sites at TP, but that doesn't mean that TP doesn't have a snow season. After using the dynamic approach, the thresholds are selected according to the snow conditions at the TP site itself. Therefore, the dynamic thresholding method will extract more realistic and reasonable snow phenology.

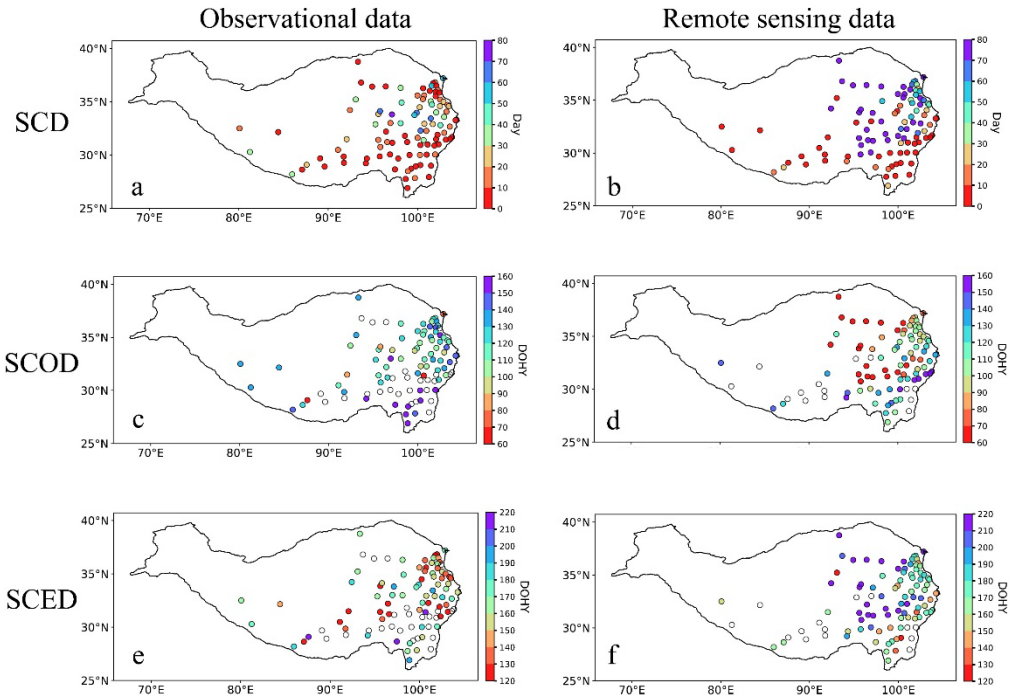


Figure R4. Spatial distribution of average snow cover duration (SCD), snow cover onset day (SCOD), and snow cover end day (SCED) at 99 sites of observational data (a, c, e) and passive microwave remote sensing data (b, d, f) extracted using the dynamic threshold method. The unit DOHY stands for day of the hydrological year.

From the interannual variation in snow phenology, the SCD of passive microwave remote sensing of snow depth is longer than the observed data, the SCOD is earlier, and the SCED is later. Overall, passive microwave retrievals tend to depict an extended snow season. Most discrepancies in snow phenology between the two datasets fall within one month. Additionally, the application of the dynamic threshold method results in a longer snow season for both datasets.

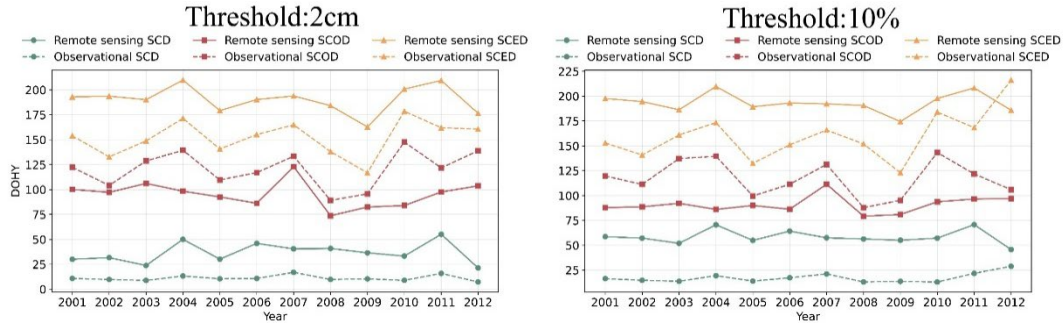


Figure R5. Interannual fluctuations in snow phenology extracted using (a) the fixed threshold method and (b) the dynamic threshold method for hydrologic years 2001-2013. The solid line represents observed snow depth data, and the dashed line represents passive microwave remote sensing snow depth data. Green represents snow cover duration (SCD), red represents snow cover onset day (SCOD), and yellow represents snow cover end day (SCED).

Snow depths from passive microwave remote sensing in TP are generally higher than observed data, leading to some bias in snow phenology as well. However, a major limitation of optical remote sensing is cloud contamination, which obscures snow data on most days during the snow season. To mitigate this issue, 8-day and 16-day composite snow cover products are generated to reduce cloud interference (Hall et al., 2002). And the resolution of 8 days may be too coarse for extracting snow phenology. The IMS is an unchangeable threshold for processed data. Therefore, each type of data has its own advantages and disadvantages, and we originally chose snow depth as the driving data. In order to make the work more complete, we also use the snow cover fraction as the driving data for the dynamic threshold method of snow phenology. Snow cover yielded roughly the same results as SD, and we show the results in the supporting information. For issues and implications arising from passive microwave remote sensing snow depth data, we have added a description in the discussion section of the manuscript.

In summary, we have recognized the impact of data uncertainty on snow phenology identification, and we believe that the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of snow cover needs to be considered. This work is a preliminary exploration of dynamic snow

phenology, and we hope to further refine it in future work, including your important suggestions.

Line 449:

1110 *Since the accuracy of passive microwave detection increases with snow depth, the passive microwave remote sensing data is more effective for analyzing snow phenology in regions with consistent snow cover (Armstrong & Brodzik, 2001; Savoie et al., 2009). In areas with shallow snow with wet snow, the accuracy of passive microwave remote sensing data is reduced, and snow depth indicator may not accurately capture accumulation and melting processes. In addition, for the transient snow area, the snow*
1115 *depth curve is more volatile, which makes the assumed single-peak structure untenable. After comprehensive consideration, the snow cover area may be a more reliable indicator in such cases. Therefore, we perform another extraction of dynamic snow phenology using the snow cover data, and the results are similar to SD, but with greater differences in TP (see Fig. S2-S5 in Supplement). Regardless of the threshold method,*
1120 *problems with the data itself increase the uncertainty of snow phenology analysis. Therefore, it is necessary to integrate ground observation data with different remote sensing data to form a more comprehensive and accurate snow phenology extraction system.*

References:

- 1125 Armstrong, R. L., & Brodzik, M. J.: Recent Northern Hemisphere snow extent: A
comparison of data derived from visible and microwave sensors. *Geophysical
Research Letters*, 28(19), 3673–3676. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000GL012556>,
2001.
- Dai, L., Che, T., Ding, Y., & Hao, X.: Evaluation of snow cover and snow depth on the
1130 Qinghai–Tibetan Plateau derived from passive microwave remote sensing. *The
Cryosphere*, 11(4), 1933–1948. <https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-11-1933-2017>, 2017.
- Frei, A., Tedesco, M., Lee, S., Foster, J., Hall, D. K., Kelly, R., and Robinson, D. A.: A
review of global satellite-derived snow products. *Advances in Space Research*,
50(8), 1007–1029. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asr.2011.12.021>, 2012.
- 1135 Hall, D. K., Riggs, G. A., Salomonson, V. V., DiGirolamo, N. E., and Bayr, K. J.:
MODIS snow-cover products, *Remote Sens. Remote Sensing of Environment*, 83,
181–194. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257\(02\)00095-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257(02)00095-0), 2002.
- Li, H., Zhong, X., Zheng, L., Hao, X., Wang, J., and Zhang, J.: Classification of Snow
Cover Persistence across China. *Water*, 14, 933.
1140 <https://doi.org/10.3390/w14060933>, 2022.
- National, M., Tibet, M.: Observational snow depth dataset of the Tibetan Plateau
(Version 1.0) (1961–2013). National Tibetan Plateau / Third Pole Environment
Data Center. <https://doi.org/10.11888/Snow.tpd.270558>, 2018.
- Savoie, M. H., Armstrong, R. L., Brodzik, M. J., & Wang, J. R.: Atmospheric
1145 corrections for improved satellite passive microwave snow cover retrievals over
the Tibet Plateau. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 113(12), 2661–2669.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2009.08.006>, 2009.
- Wang, J., Tang, L., and Lu, H.: The new indices to describe temporal discontinuity of
snow cover on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. *Npj Climate and Atmospheric Science*,
1150 7, 189. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-024-00733-y>, 2024.