1 Supplement

2 1. Stephan-Boltzmann Law

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$$LW_u = \varepsilon \sigma T^4 \tag{S1}$$

4 LW_u is the broad band long wave radiated energy to the atmosphere (W), $\sigma = 5.67 \cdot 10^{-8} (W^{-1} m^{-2} K^{-4})$, 5 and T is the temperature (K). The emissivity, $\varepsilon = 1$.

6 *2. AWS data*

7 Figure S1 shows the important variables used in this study. Unfortunately, pressure was not operational in

8 Season 1 and instead a constant value based on the average over Season 2 was used in the turbulent flux
9 estimates below.



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Figure S1. Data from Season 1 is presented in the column to the left and data from Season 2 is presented in thecolumn to the right. Variables presented are noted in each frame.

- 13 3. Fitted expressions between maximum log(SSA) and, T_a or T_s .
- 14 Data is presented in Figure S2. The number of data points at the very coldest temperatures are very few and are 15 probably not representative. These data points correspond to a few days of enhanced cooling due to negative
- 16 radiation balance, and do not represent the pristine snow characteristics.



Figure S2. All data covering the whole measuring period are used to generate Figure S2. In frame a) data is classified according to air temperature. In frame b) data is classified according to surface temperature. Symbols are the logarithm of the maximum SSA ($\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) in each temperature bin. The SSA value is calculated using equation 2 in the main text as function of observed daily median albedo. The histograms show the number of data points in each bin. The solid lines are the respective fitted curves presented in equation S2 and S3. The extent of the lines show over which domain the fits were made (-15 to +5 °C for T_a and -19 to 0 °C for T_s).

$$\log(SSA) = -5.92 \cdot 10^{-3}T_a - 0.193T_a + 1.97 \tag{S2}$$

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$$\log(SSA) = -6.32 \cdot 10^{-3}T_{\rm s} - 0.195T_{\rm s} + 1.76 \tag{S3}$$

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Below we provide a discussion on air temperature (T_a) , but believe that the same reasoning is applicable to T_s . For a given daily average temperature, equation 3 provides the estimated SSA of the brightest snow surface albedo based on two seasons of data. Those events are thought to occur for relatively young snow without significant influence from LAP. However, this empirical relation will provide the same albedo for young snow at a given daily temperature as for snow that fell at an earlier instance, but with a different temperature for a particular day. After snowfall, the temperature either increased or decreased. Because eq. 3 only depends on the average temperature of the day, this memory effect is not captured by the parameterization.

34 Because the relation is already based on maximum albedos at a given daily temperature (decreasing trend with 35 increasing temperature), it is not likely that a snow surface at a given temperature will maintain a high albedo 36 to a future day with a warmer temperature. However, it could conceivably be lower than predicted by the 37 formulation due to metamorphism. Hence, in an environment with increasing temperatures our parameterization represents the upper range of possible SSA for a given temperature and may overestimate SSA of pristine snow 38 39 for a given temperature. The same is also true for environments where the temperature is decreasing. In this 40 case, snow at a given temperature may maintain or lower the SSA as the temperature decreases, but not likely increase the SSA above the value given by the parameterization. It is possible that this effect is visible at the 41 42 very coldest temperatures (c.f. Figure S2) and that the observed lower albedo is actually an effect of snow 43 arriving at some significantly warmer temperature (e.g. lower albedo). Clear skies (no additional precipitation) 44 and radiative cooling lower the temperature while maintaining the same snow on top. The general over-45 estimation of the albedo (under-estimation of accumulated energy) in at the beginning of the seasons (c.f. Figure 5), could be a result of this combination of events. From Figure 5, there are small changes in accumulated energy 46 47 due to changes in LAP deposition. This indicates that the difference between observed accumulated energy and 48 the estimated values, mainly arrive from the simplicity of eq. 3.

In either case, our empirical relation should be considered an upper estimate of pristine snow SSA. Assuming that our estimates are consistently a factor of two too high, we can estimate the effect by simply divide our derived SSA with a factor 0.5. Reducing SSA will reduce the pristine snow albedo according to equation 2. Reducing SSA will also reduce r_e , (c.f. equation 1), which in turn will affect the absorption by LAP via equations 5 and 4. We can assess the overall impact by comparing the observed albedo and the parameterized albedos with and without the factor 0.5 (see table S1). The largest impact on the change in albedo from changing SSA is via r_e in the LAP parameterization (eq. 4 and 5). The net effect of changing SSA by a factor of two is about 6

- percent-units on the average albedo or a relative change of about 10 % for both seasons, see Table S1.
- 57 Table S1.

Season 1				Season 2			
	SSA*1	SSA*0.5			SSA*1	SSA*0.5	
Observed average albedo	Derived average albedo	Derived average albedo	Percentage change between different SSA	Observed average albedo	Derived average albedo	Derived average albedo	Percentage change between different SSA
0.67	0.69	0.63	9	0.66	0.67	0.61	9

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4. Parametric relation proposed by Pedersen et al. (2015)

Parameters A, B, and C used in equation 4 of the main text have the form $A(\lambda) = a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c$, where λ is the wavelength in nanometer between 400-900 nm.

63 Table S1

	a	b	с
Α(λ)	-3.5e-7	2.7e-4	0.95
Β(λ)	1.9e-8	-2.0e-5	0.0062
C(λ)	-4.0e-7	3.5e-4	0.45

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5. Comparison between the observed albedo and $a(T_a)$ and $a(T_s)$ including wag for the two seasons put together.



Figure S3. The parameterized albedo using both T_a and T_s as a function of the observed albedo for all of the data points from the two seasons.

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71 6. Estimates of turbulent energy fluxes

72 We have used the same set of equations as used in many other studies (e.g. Boudhar et al., 2016) to estimate the 73 sensible (H) and latent (LE) heat fluxes. The equations used are provided below. Here ρ is the air density, Cp is 74 the heat capacity of air, Ls is the latent heat of sublimation, k is the von Karman constant, u is the wind speed, 75 T_a and T_s are the air and surface temperatures, respectively. The specific humidities of air (q_a) and at the surface 76 (q_s) are calculated using the observed RH and the saturation vapour pressure according to Buck (1981) and 77 assuming saturation conditions over the snow surface. The distance between the AWS sensors and the snow 78 surface is z, which varies over the season. The surface roughness length z_{0_m} is set to a constant value of 10⁻³, and $z_{0_T} = z_{0_q} = 10^{-1} z_{0_m}$. 79

$$H = \rho \frac{C_p k^2 u (T_a - T_s)}{ln \left(\frac{z}{z_{0_m}}\right) ln \left(\frac{z}{z_{0_T}}\right)} (\emptyset_m \emptyset_h)^{-1}$$
(S4)

$$LE = \rho \frac{L_s k^2 u(q_a - q_s)}{ln\left(\frac{z}{z_{0_m}}\right) ln\left(\frac{z}{z_{0_q}}\right)} (\emptyset_m \emptyset_v)^{-1}$$
(S5)

The non-dimensional stability adjustment parameters for momentum (\emptyset_m) , for vapour (\emptyset_v) , and for heat (\emptyset_h) depend on the Richardson number, R_{i_h} .

84 For neutral conditions
$$R_{i_h} = 0$$

$$(\emptyset_m \emptyset_v)^{-1} = (\emptyset_m \emptyset_h)^{-1} = 1$$

86 For stable conditions $R_{i_h} > 0$

$$(\emptyset_m \emptyset_v)^{-1} = (\emptyset_m \emptyset_h)^{-1} = \left(1 - 5R_{i_b}\right)^2 \tag{S6}$$

- 88 For unstable conditions $R_{i_b} < 0$
 - $(\phi_m \phi_v)^{-1} = (\phi_m \phi_h)^{-1} = (1 16R_{i_b})^{0.75}$ (S7)
- 90 The Richardson number is estimated according to:

$$R_{i_b} = \frac{g(T_a - T_s)(z - z_{0_m})}{T_a u^2}$$
(S8)

92 where g is the gravity constant.

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