

15 **Abstract**

16 Extreme precipitation is a major issue for regional climate, hydrology, and safety of society. Our knowledge
17 of extreme precipitation is poor because of difficulties in gauge observations and biases in regional and
18 global datasets, in particular over the snow dominated regions. Here we investigate and report the distribution
19 and magnitude of under-measured of precipitation extremes due to biases in manual gauge observations in
20 the high latitudes (over 45°N), using historical data during 1973-2004. We find remarkable patterns in under-
21 measured of the long-term mean daily maximum precipitation and their association to regional climatic
22 regimes. In contrast to relatively small under-measured (less than 5 mm) of rainfall extremes, the biases in
23 snowfall extremes are very serious, with the regional high values over 15 mm along the Ural Mountains and
24 the coasts of east Asia, Greenland, in particular northern Eurasia coasts. The frequency distribution of
25 observed daily snow extremes underestimate significantly the higher risk events over the high latitudes.
26 These results clearly demonstrate the urgent need to review and update precipitation datasets including recent
27 automatic gauge observations and the knowledge of climate regimes and extremes over the broader northern
28 regions.

29

30 1. Introduction

31 Extreme precipitation is a major concern for regional climate, hydrology, and safety of society, because
32 heavy precipitation events trigger serious hazards, such as floods, landslides, and soil erosion in warm
33 regions/seasons (O’Gorman, 2015), and snow-related disasters in the cold regions/seasons, including
34 avalanche, building collapse due to heavy snow load, shutdowns of highway traffic and runway operations
35 (López-Moreno and Vicente-Serrano, 2011). Our knowledge of extreme precipitation is poor because of
36 difficulties in precipitation observations by gauges, particularly for snowfall in the northern regions
37 (Goodison et al., 1998; Yang et al., 2005; Sugiura et al., 2006). Due to wind-induced gauge under-catch,
38 wetting and evaporation losses, and trace amount of precipitation (Goodison et al., 1998; Yang et al., 1998a;
39 Legates and Willmott, 1990; Fuchs et al., 2001), the biases (under-measured) in gauge measurements are
40 very large, up to 50-100%, for snowfall over the cold regions (Yang et al., 2005). Most regional/global
41 precipitation datasets have large uncertainties for the northern regions due to sparse observation networks,
42 space-time discontinuities of precipitation data and biases in gauge observations (Behrangi et al., 2018;
43 Walsh et al., 1998; Yang et al., 1999a). Investigations based on these datasets may lead to incorrect results
44 in regional precipitation climate, including the characteristics of extreme events (Prein and Gobiet, 2016;
45 Behrangi et al., 2016, 2018).

46 Corrections of the known biases are necessary to develop reliable precipitation dataset for regional
47 hydrology and climate investigations, including trend analyses. In order to quantify the systematic errors in
48 precipitation measurements, intercomparison experiments have been carried out for the national standard
49 gauges, such as the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) Solid Precipitation Measurement
50 Intercomparison study during 1986 to 1992 (Goodison et al., 1988, 1998). The WMO project developed
51 bias-correction methods for many national gauges (Goodison et al., 1998; Yang et al., 1995, 1998a, 1999a,

52 c), quantified wind shield effects on national gauge performance (Yang et al., 1999b), and documented
53 incompatibility in national gauge observations (Yang et al., 2001). Applications of the WMO results have
54 produced reliable precipitation data over many countries and large regions (Melcalfe et al., 1993; Yang, 1999;
55 Yang et al., 1998b, 1999b, 2005; Yang and Ohata, 2001; Zhang et al., 2004; Ye et al., 2004; Adam and
56 Lettenmaier, 2003), and these datasets have significantly improved our understanding of cold region climate
57 and hydrology, including regional climate regime and change (Ding et al., 2007; Li et al., 2018), basin water
58 balance (Ye et al., 2012), large-scale land surface modelling of the arctic hydrology system (Tian et al., 2007),
59 and precipitation distribution and gradient across the Alaska-Yukon border (Scaff et al., 2015).

60 Because of the importance of heavy precipitation, particularly extreme snowfall hydrology and climate
61 change analysis over the high latitudes, we generate a new daily maximum precipitation dataset from Yang
62 et al. (2005). This dataset consists of daily precipitation time series for rain, snow and mixed phase at 1249
63 stations located above 45°N during 1973-2004. We choose this time period when the manual gauges were
64 the standard instruments for precipitation measurements over most northern countries. This long period is
65 sufficient to examine precipitation characteristics, including the extremes, while avoiding the complication
66 due to significant inconsistency between manual and automatic gauge measurements in recent years
67 (Brandsma, 2014; Talchabhadel et al., 2017). It is important to point out that the bias corrections are
68 conservative, because a threshold wind speed was set at 7 m s^{-1} , so as to avoid possible over corrections for
69 higher wind conditions when blowing snow may occur and impact the reliability of the corrections methods
70 (Yang et al., 2005). With the new dataset and statistical analysis, we quantify the magnitude of under-
71 measured of daily maximum precipitation, namely bias-corrected precipitation minus observed ones, across
72 the northern regions, and identify the potential impacts and consequences in large-scale climate and
73 hydrology analyses and applications, including risk assessment and engineering designs.

74 **2. Data and methods**

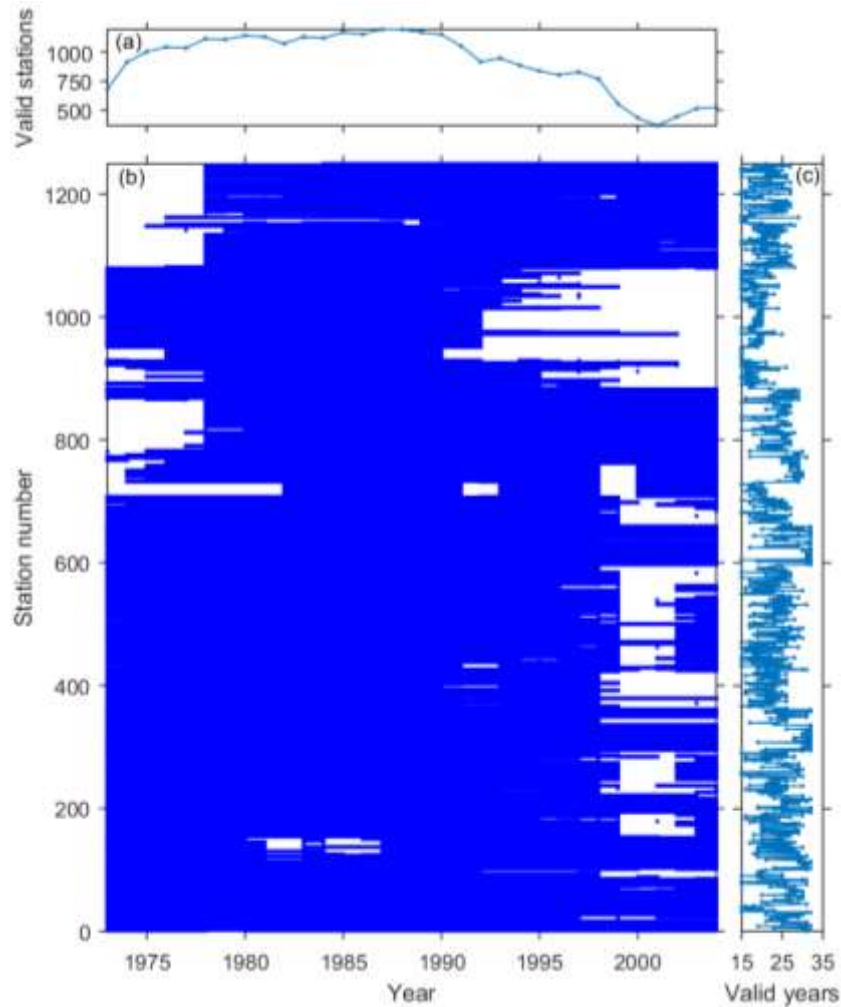
75 The historical meteorological data used in this study were originated from the official archived dataset,
76 Global Historical Climatology Network (GHCN, [https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/land-based-](https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/land-based-station-data/land-based-datasets/global-historical-climatology-network-ghcn)
77 [station-data/land-based-datasets/global-historical-climatology-network-ghcn](https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/land-based-station-data/land-based-datasets/global-historical-climatology-network-ghcn)). The historical precipitation
78 observations were retrieved manually from the standard instruments of various gauges in different countries.
79 Due to dominant solid precipitation across the northern regions, serious under-measured exists. Based on
80 these data, Yang et al. (2005) conducted bias correction analysis and built a dataset of a total number of 4802
81 stations located above 45°N during 1973-2004. The bias-correction methods used by Yang et al. (2005) are
82 briefly summarized below. To account for trace events, wetting loss, evaporation loss, and wind-induced
83 error in various gauges, a general statistically-based model is applied

$$84 \quad P_c = P_m/CR, \quad (1)$$

85 where P_c is the corrected precipitation, P_m is the measured precipitation, and CR is the catch ratio (%). CR
86 is defined as a function of wind speed and air temperature (Goodison et al., 1998), and the function varies in
87 different countries due to different gauge types and regional climate. Since the observations were retrieved
88 manually from the standard instruments of manual gauges with a daily or sub-daily interval, the daily
89 precipitation phases are determined by daily mean near-surface air temperature as rain: $T_a \geq 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, mixed: -
90 $2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} < T_a < 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and snow: $T_a \leq -2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Yang et al., 1998a; Rajagopal and Harpold, 2016). It is important
91 to note that this study uses a constant temperature threshold to determine precipitation phases without
92 considering its spatial variation (Jennings et al., 2018).

93 To analyze the underestimation of precipitation extremes, a new dataset for daily maximum precipitation
94 is derived from the original dataset based on a quality control as follows. This dataset consists of the highest
95 daily precipitation time series for rain, snow and mixed phase at 1249 stations with over 15-year records for

96 the period of 1973-2004. The properties of the valid data at these stations are presented in Fig. 1. The indexes
 97 of yearly extreme precipitations used in this study include gauge measured daily maximum precipitation,
 98 $P_{m_{\max}}$, bias-corrected daily maximum precipitation, $P_{c_{\max}}$, and corresponding daily maxima for three phases,
 99 $P_{m_{i,\max}}$, $P_{c_{i,\max}}$, where $i = \{r, m, s\}$ represent rain, mixed and snow. Instead of simply using less than 10% of
 100 missing data as selection criteria (e.g., Kunkel et al., 2007; Changnon, 2018), a more rigorous threshold is
 101 applied in this study. We reject a year if the fraction of missing data exceeded 5%, so as to ensure that annual
 102 maxima are extracted with a confidence of 95% for each station in the region.



103
 104 Figure 1. Properties of the selected station data. (a) A number of 1249 valid stations during the period from
 105 1974 to 2004. (b) Data coverage over time for all stations. (c) Distribution of the numbers of valid years at
 106 the stations.

107 For fitting the distribution of the annual precipitation maxima, we use a three-parameter Generalized
 108 Extreme parametric framework (von Mises, 1954; Jenkinson, 1955), which is widely used for precipitation
 109 extreme distribution (Hanson and Vogel, 2008; Wilson and Toumi, 2005). Based on the extreme value theory,
 110 the generalized extreme value (GEV) distribution is used for estimating the frequency of the extremes
 111 occurring with a certain return level. The GEV distribution is parameterized with the location parameter μ ,
 112 scale parameter σ and shape parameter ζ . The cumulative distribution function of the GEV distribution is

$$114 \quad F(x; \mu, \sigma, \zeta) = \exp\left(-\left(1 + \zeta\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right)^{-\frac{1}{\zeta}}\right), \quad (2)$$

115 and its probability distribution function is

$$117 \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sigma} \exp\left(-\left(1 + \zeta\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right)^{-\frac{1}{\zeta}}\right) \left(1 + \zeta\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right)^{-1-1/\zeta}, & \zeta \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} - \exp\left(-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right), & \zeta = 0 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

118 where the domain of σ and $1+\zeta(x-\mu)/\sigma$ must be greater than zero, and μ and ζ can be any real value. In this
 119 study, the location, shape and scale parameters of the GEV distribution are estimated based on the maximum
 120 likelihood estimator (MLE) (Coles, 2001). The advantage of using MLE are that the estimated parameters
 121 are unbiased, and the standard errors of estimated parameters can be computed so as to derive confidence
 122 intervals of the estimate parameters. We use the confidence intervals of the estimated parameters to estimate
 123 the p-value of whether our correction can lead to significant different distribution parameters (i.e. location,
 124 scale and shape parameters).

125 **3. Results**

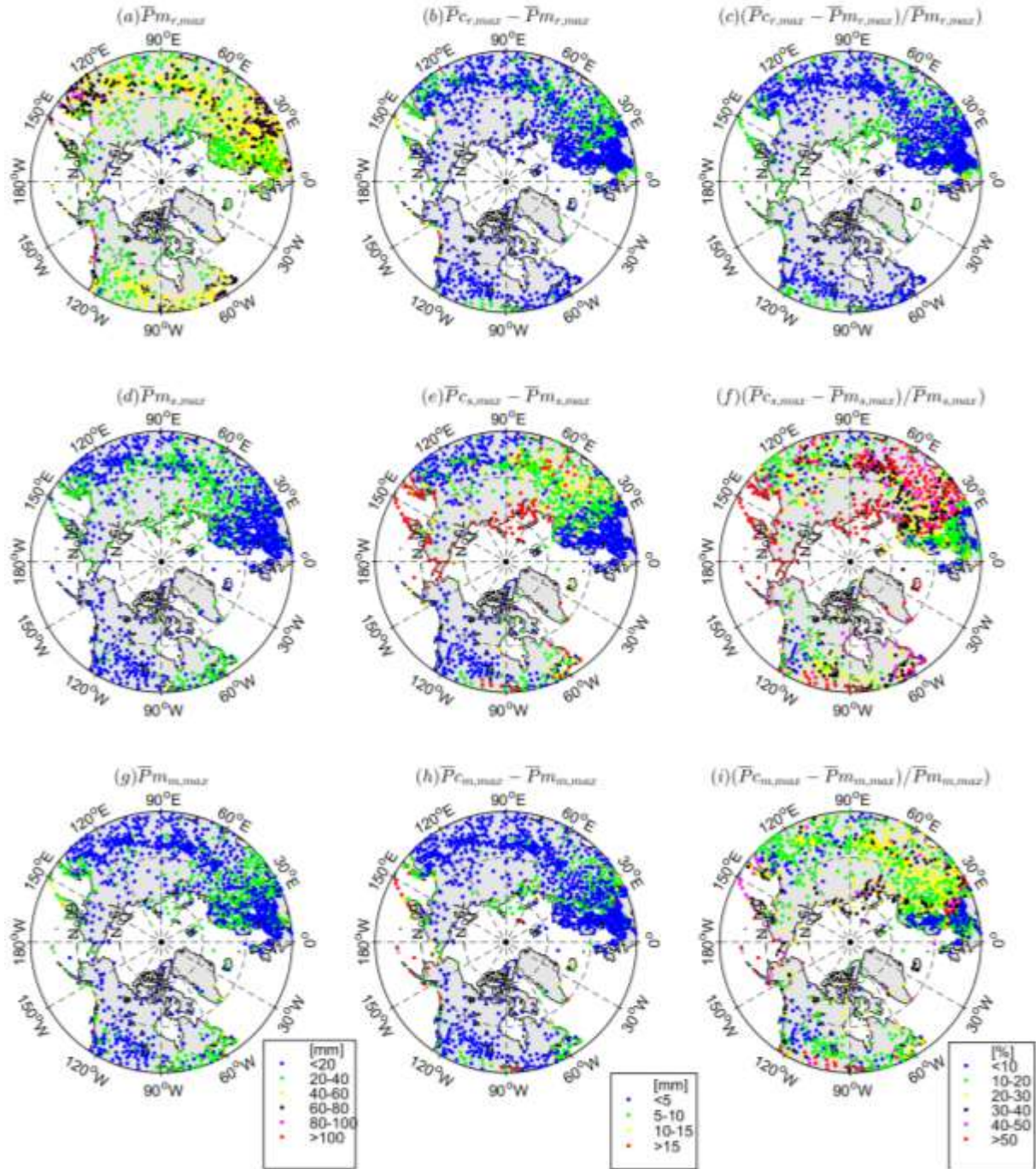
126 **3.1. Under-measured of extreme precipitation**

127 Daily precipitation maximum (P_{\max}) at a given site may occur as rainfall, snowfall and mixed phase over
128 large regions of various climate regimes. It is useful and important to identify the under-measured of the
129 daily precipitation maxima for each phase. We used daily mean temperature to determine precipitation
130 phases (Yang et al., 1998b; Rajagopal and Harpold, 2016), and produced mean P_{\max} maps for rainfall,
131 snowfall and mixed precipitation for the period 1973-2004 (Fig. 2).

132 For rainfall, we see high mean P_{\max} values over 40 mm mainly in the mid latitude belt between 45°N and
133 60°N, and two regional peaks over 60 mm in northeastern Asia and eastern Europe along the 30th meridian
134 east (Fig. 2a). The former is associated with the well-known East Asia monsoon (Ding and Chan, 2005), and
135 the latter is mostly related with the Carpathians climate. While in the western hemisphere, the highest P_{\max}
136 along the East Coast gradually decrease westward, and abruptly increase in the west coast mountains due to
137 orographic precipitation (Fig. 2a). This pattern is consistent with the general Canadian precipitation
138 distribution (Shabbar et al., 1997). In addition, we also see low P_{\max} values (less than 20 mm) in the coastal
139 Polar Regions. Generally, as expected, most under-measured is less than 5 mm for rain (Fig. 2b) and the
140 relative changes after the bias-corrections (Fig. 2c) are below 10%. Significant changes (5 – 10 mm), mainly
141 associated with moderate and high P_{\max} , occur near the east Asia coasts and Eastern Europe.

142 For snowfall, the mean P_{\max} magnitude is much smaller than that for rain, and its distribution is also
143 different. In the eastern hemisphere, the high values over 20 mm are mainly located along the Urals mountain
144 and near the east Asia coasts. The former is dominated by orographic precipitation, and the latter is mainly
145 controlled by coastal precipitation. We see serious under-measured (over 10 mm) in the islands and Peninsula,
146 i.e. the Sakhalin and Kamchatka in east Asia, Eastern Europe and the coasts and islands around Kara Sea
147 (Fig. 2e), with the relative change over 30% (Fig. 2f). In the western hemisphere, the high values above 20
148 mm mainly concentrate in eastern Canada and this pattern is consistent with the gauge observations.

149 For mixed precipitation, the magnitude of mean P_{\max} is close to that for snowfall, with a similar
150 distribution to rainfall P_{\max} . However, a slightly shift of the high P_{\max} zone (over 20 mm) occurs in between
151 the western Europe along the 30th meridian east with high rainfall and the Ural mountains along the 60th
152 meridian east with high snowfall. We found the bias-corrections significantly changed the P_{\max} amounts by
153 10-15 mm over the coasts of Okhotsk and Bering seas, with the relative increase of 40% or more (Fig. 2i),
154 although P_{\max} pattern did not change much.



155

156 Figure 2. Under-measured patterns of extreme precipitation amount for three phases (rain, snow and)

157 in the northern regions. (a)-(c) show rather uniform distributions of absolute and relative changes in daily

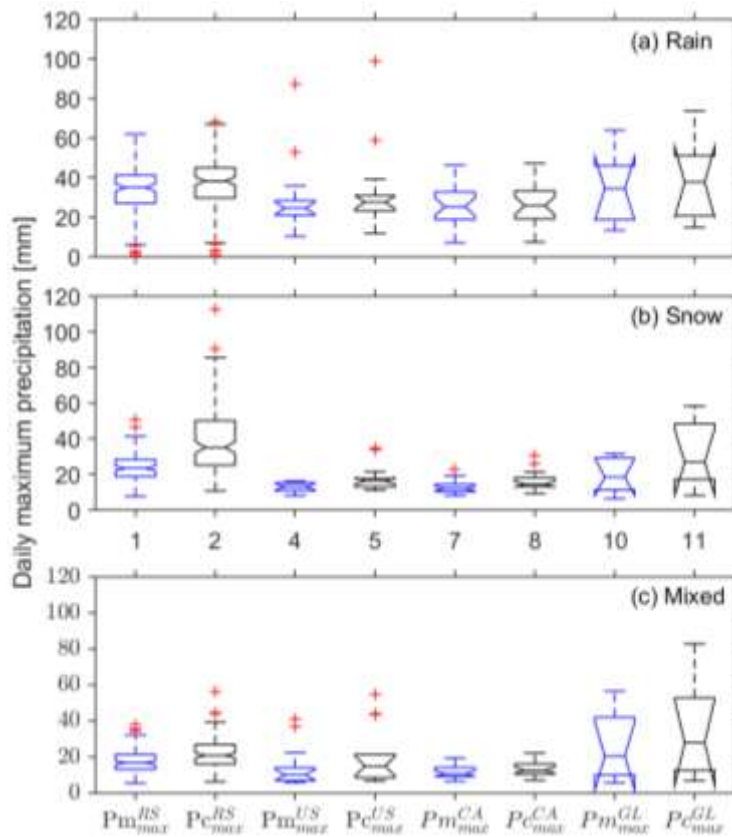
158 maximums for observed rain ($\bar{P}m_{r,max}$) in comparison to the bias-corrected ones ($\bar{P}c_{r,max}$). (d)-(f) show

159 contrasting regional changes in daily maximum snowfall ($\bar{P}m_{s,max}$). (g)-(i) show similar pattern as snow

160 precipitation but relatively weaker for mixed precipitation.

161 **3.2. Regional under-measured over the high latitudes**

162 We found serious under-measured of snowfall extremes in the high latitude regions (over N60° latitude).
 163 Since undercatch of snowfall differs by gauge types, we examined the biases of P_{max} for four major
 164 regions/gauges within the polar regions, i.e. northern Russia (NRS), Alaska - United States (A-US), northern
 165 Canada (NCA) and Greenland (GL) (Fig. 3).



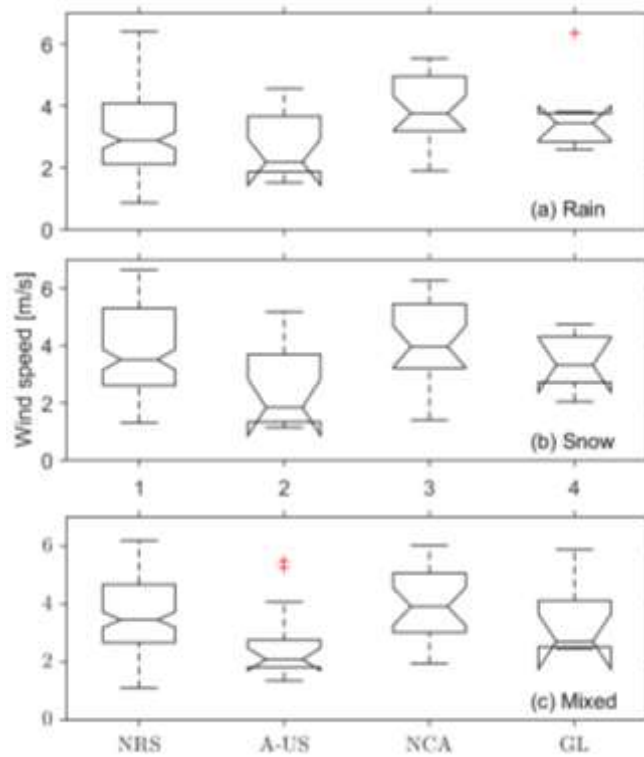
166 Figure 3. Regional under-measured of daily maximum precipitation in the polar regions (over N60° latitude).
 167 The black boxplots represent measured daily maximum precipitation in the regions of Russia, United States,
 168 Canada and Greenland (Pm_{max}^{RS} , Pm_{max}^{US} , Pm_{max}^{CA} , Pm_{max}^{GL}) and the blue boxplots represent the corrected
 169 ones (Pc_{max}^{RS} , Pc_{max}^{US} , Pc_{max}^{CA} , Pc_{max}^{GL}). There are 136, 14, 24 and 7 stations in each region, respectively.

170 The median values of the observed mean rainfall P_{max} are about 25 mm for A-US and NCA, and 35 mm
 171 for GL and NRS, respectively. The biases (Fig. 3a) are less than 4 mm for all the regions. In contrast, the

172 median values of snowfall extremes range from 12 mm in NCA to 23 mm in NRS, and the average biases
173 vary from 2 mm to 12 mm (Fig. 3b). We see most serious under-measured in NRS, about 12 mm (or 50%),
174 on average, and even higher than 15 mm at some sites surrounding the coasts of the Kara Sea. This is mainly
175 associated with high wind speeds and the heavy coastal precipitation across the Arctic Ocean and northern
176 Eurasia. Whereas, the mean P_{\max} in the regions of A-US and NCA are about half of NRS, since the
177 precipitation climatology in northern North America is mainly characterized by light continental
178 precipitation far from North Atlantic and North Pacific moisture sources (Gimeno et al., 2010). The under-
179 measured is about 3 mm (or 23%) for both regions. The catch efficiency of the Canadian Nipher gauge is
180 higher than the US 8-inch gauge (Yang et al., 2001; Goodiosn et al., 1998). The similar amount of corrections
181 in A-US and NCA is due to lower wind speeds (mean about 2 m/s) at the A-US sites vs. high wind speed
182 (mean of 4 m s⁻¹) in NCA (Fig. 4b). In GL, the observed snow P_{\max} ranges from 6 mm to 32 mm, due to
183 ample moisture transported from the Atlantic Ocean, with the mean bias up to 8 mm (or 45%).

184 For mixed P_{\max} , the median values of the observed mean values are about 17 mm with an underestimate
185 of about 4 mm (or 24%) in NRS (Fig. 3c). In the northern North America, both A-US and NCA have smallest
186 mean extremes of 10 mm, but their correction amounts are 5 mm (48%) and 2 mm (18%), respectively. GL
187 has the highest extremes (about 21 mm) with the most serious under-measured of 7 mm (36%) for 7 sites
188 around Greenland, due to poor catch of the Hellman gauges and windy costal climate. Overall, the mixed
189 extremes are much smaller than those for rainfall, although their biases are higher due to large undercatch of
190 gauges for mixed precipitation.

191



192 Figure 4 Corresponding mean wind speed for days with maximum precipitation during 1973-2004 for the
 193 four regions in Fig. 3. Note that the high wind speeds over 7 m s^{-1} were replaced by a constant wind speed
 194 of 7 m s^{-1} to avoid possible over bias-correction.

195 Through analyzing the under-measured of extreme precipitation amount, we identify the regions
 196 susceptible to serious biases. Generally, under-measured of rainfall extremes in the middle latitudes is
 197 relatively small (mostly less than 5 mm), and two regional high corrections (over 5 mm) are located in
 198 northeastern Asia and eastern Europe along the 30th meridian east. In contrast, serious under-measured
 199 mainly occurs for snowfall extremes, with regional highs (over 15 mm) along the Ural Mountains and the
 200 coasts including east Asia, Greenland and northern Eurasia. These results demonstrate the serious under-
 201 measured in extreme precipitation over the broader northern regions.

202 3.3. Influence on frequency distribution

203 In addition to regional hydrology and climate (Tian et al., 2007; Li et al., 2018), the under-measured can also

204 seriously distort the precipitation frequency distribution, thus influencing disaster warning and prevention.

205 Bias corrections enhance value and range of the P_{\max} time series non-uniformly at all stations in the study

206 domain. To quantify the impact of bias corrections on P_{\max} distribution, we examine changes in P_{\max}

207 frequency using the generalized extreme value (GEV) distribution model (Eq. 3). This model has three

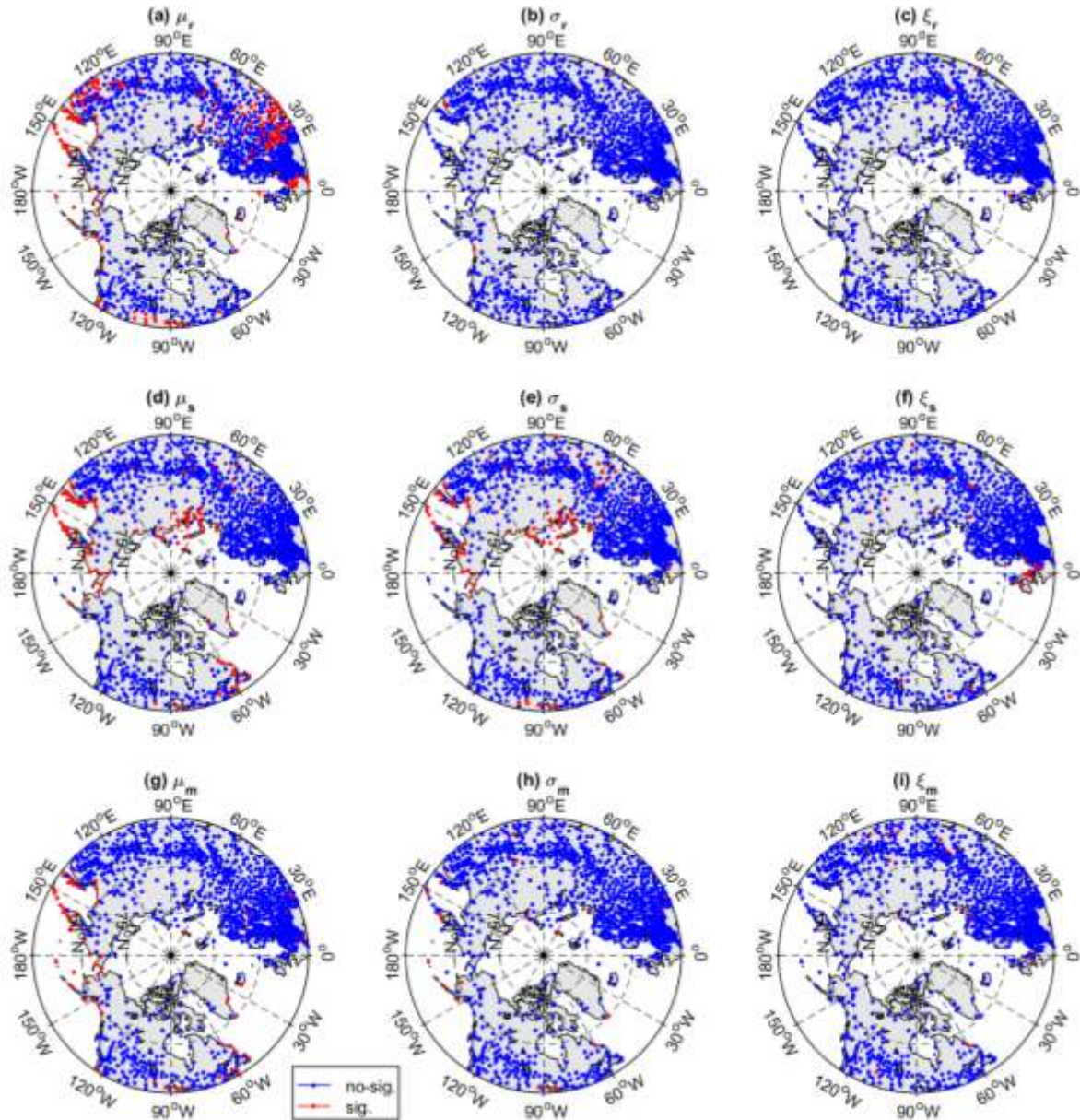
208 parameters, i.e. location (μ), scale (σ) and shape (ξ). The location (μ) parameter stands for the peak of

209 probability distribution, and its change represents the overall shift of P_{\max} series. The scale parameter is the

210 scaled variance and the shape parameter governs the tail behavior of the distribution. The scale and shape

211 parameters control the spread of extreme events. Particularly, change in the scale parameter affects extreme

212 events distinctly for low and high return periods.



213

214 Figure 5 Impact of bias-corrections on the parameters of GEV distribution for rain (a, b, c), snow (d, e, f)

215 and mixed (g, h, i) extremes. Red dots show stations with significant changes in GEV parameters at threshold

216 level $\alpha = 0.05$; blue dots indicate insignificant ones.

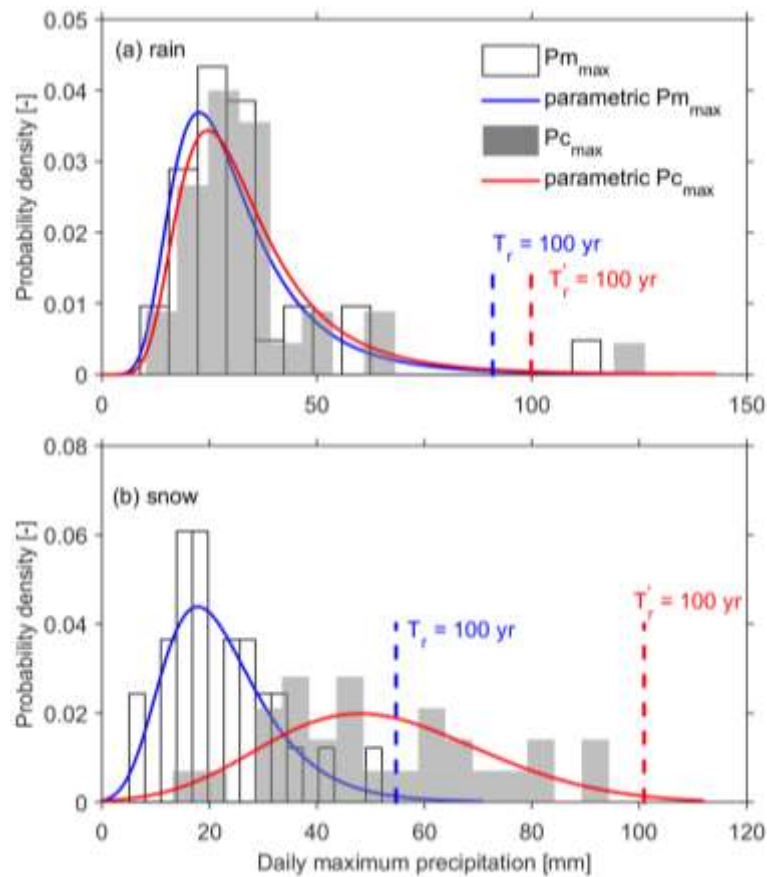
217 Figure 5 shows different impacts of bias-correction on the GEV parameters by precipitation phases at all

218 stations. For rainfall extremes, about 200 sites (or 16% out of 1249 sites) show significant shift in the location

219 parameter, coincident with the sites with moderate and high mean P_{\max} (Fig. 2a). As an example, Sodankyla

220 in Finland (USAF ID: 028360) has an increase in the mean value by about 2 mm for rainfall; this is forest

221 with very low winds (Fig. 6a). For snowfall, both the mean peak and spread changed significantly at many
 222 sites (6% of stations). For example, Anadyr in Russia (USAF ID: 255630) in Fig. 6b shows a distinct
 223 transition from a heavy-tailed Fréchet distribution to a short-tailed negative-Weibull distribution. The P_{\max}
 224 value for a 100-year return period changed from 55 mm d⁻¹ to 101 mm d⁻¹. For mixed precipitation, the
 225 changes are similar to rainfall but only over 57 sites. Generally, bias corrections have less effect on the P_{\max}
 226 frequency distribution for rain and mixed phase, while the changes in snow extremes are very significant
 227 and need proper attention in frequency analysis and related applications, such as snow load and other
 228 engineering designs. More work is necessary to determine the impact of P_{\max} corrections to regional
 229 hydrology and engineering design and other applications.



230 | Figure 6. Frequency distributions of observed ($P_{m_{\max}}$) and corrected ($P_{c_{\max}}$) daily maximum precipitation.
 231 The blue and red curves represent the parametric GEV distribution. (a) A typical rain dominated station

232 (Sodankyla, Finland) with less change; (b) A typical snow dominated station (Anadyr, Russia) with big
233 change in the P_{\max} series for snow data. T_r and T_r' represent the 100-year return periods for the observed and
234 corrected distributions, respectively.

235 **4. Discussion and conclusions**

236 This study investigates under-measured of precipitation extremes due to biases in gauge observations in
237 the high latitudes (over 45°N), using historical manual observations during 1973-2004. We find remarkable
238 patterns in under-measured of the long-term mean daily maximum precipitation and their association to
239 regional climatic regimes. In general, the P_{\max} distributions for the three phases are consistent with our
240 previous understanding of regional precipitation patterns derived from the gauge-measured data (e.g.,
241 Hartmann, 2015). Yang et al. (2005) reported similar results for the monthly data and corrections across the
242 northern regions. However, the magnitude of P_{\max} under-measured varies by precipitation phase, their
243 patterns are very different across the northern regions. The under-measured of P_{\max} is small for rain and
244 mixed precipitation (less than 5 mm), and high for snowfall extremes, over 15 mm along the Ural Mountains
245 and the coasts of east Asia, Greenland, in particular northern Eurasia coasts. Hence, in addition to large-scale
246 drivers, regional factors influencing snow precipitation processes, such as wind and temperature, distance
247 from ocean, coastal and mountain ranges, are essential to the variation in P_{\max} distribution and bias correction.
248 Apart from the distribution and magnitude of under-measured, the frequency distribution of observed daily
249 snow extremes underestimate significantly the higher risk events over the high latitudes. In light of these
250 findings, there is an urgent need to review and update precipitation datasets and the knowledge of climate
251 regimes and extremes over the broader northern regions.

252 Automatic gauges with high temporal resolution have been used widely in many countries in recent years.

253 Bias corrections of hourly precipitation measurements from Geonor-gauges have been applied by Pan et al.
254 (2016) at several sites across western Canada. The World Meteorological Organization Solid Precipitation
255 Intercomparison Experiment (WMO-SPICE) project has developed new methods for auto-gauge bias
256 corrections (Kochendorfer et al., 2017). It is important to point out that the consistency of daily/hourly bias
257 corrections between manual gauges and auto-gauges is major challenge. Hence, this study chooses the period
258 of 1973-2004 using rather consistent daily precipitation data collected by the national manual gauges.
259 Merging the recent data from auto-gauges with the old measurements from manual gauges is necessary to
260 derive reliable and longer term precipitation information. Our effort is on-going to apply the new methods
261 over large regions, including the arctic domain.

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