1	Satellite-based high latitude snow volume trend, variability and
2	contribution to sea level over 1989/2006
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26 Abstract

28	Snow volume change over the 1989/2006 period has been derived from Special Sensor
29	Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) radiometric measurements for all land surfaces above 50°N,
30	except Greenland. The mean annual snow volumes over the whole study domain, Eurasia and
31	North America are respectively equal to 3713 km <sup>3</sup> , 2272 km <sup>3</sup> and 1441 km <sup>3</sup> , for the Pan
32	Arctic regions, over this 18-year time period. While the snow volume exhibits a statistically
33	significant negative trend (-9.7±3.8 km <sup>3</sup> .year <sup>-1</sup> , p-value=0.02) over North America, it presents
34	a positive, but not statistically significant trend (11.3±9.3 km <sup>3</sup> .year <sup>-1</sup> , p-value=0.25) over
35	Eurasia. These opposite variations can be related to different regional climatic conditions over
36	these two regions: over Eurasia, snow depth is mainly influenced by the Arctic Oscillation
37	(AO) and the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) - correlation coefficient = 0.68
38	between the SSM/I-derived snow volume and a linear combination of AO and AMO indices,
39	whereas over North America snow depth is mainly influenced by the Pacific North American
40	(PNA) pattern and the AMO - correlation coefficient = $0.75$ for a linear combination of the
41	PNA and AMO indices. This study confirms that snow volume is a key driver of the sea level
42	seasonal cycle, but net snow volume trend for the Pan Arctic regions indicates a negligible
43	and not statistically significant contribution to sea level rise (-0.004±0.009 mm.year <sup>-1</sup> , p-
44	value=0.88 once converted into sea level).

46 Keywords: SSM/I; snow volume; high latitude; climate indices; sea level

50 High latitude regions are the most affected by current climate change (e. g. Trenberth 51 et al., 2007). Different components of the Arctic hydrological cycle have experienced important modifications since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. For example river discharge 52 53 has significantly increased (Stocker and Raible, 2005), snow extent is decreasing (Déry and 54 Brown, 2007; Brown et al., 2010) and the annual duration of the period with unfrozen soil 55 conditions has increased (Groisman et al., 2006). Snow volume is a key variable to understand 56 the evolution of the high latitude hydrological cycle. High latitude rivers discharge is mainly 57 driven by the accumulated snow volume and the timing of its melting, leading to extremely 58 important floods in spring (Yang et al., 2003). So, snow cover extent and depth are among the 59 Essential Climate Variables (ECV) of the Global Climate Observing System (GCOS; Sessa 60 and Dolman, 2008) and observations of their temporal evolution are of critical importance. 61 Few in situ snow observations are available at high latitude, thus providing limited 62 information on global and regional snow depth fields (Brown, 2000). Remote sensing 63 techniques complement the in situ data, but most analyses focused on snow extent change (see 64 Trenberth et al., 2007 for a review), which only partially characterize snow variability. So far, 65 interannual to multidecadal changes in snow volume have been mainly estimated using 66 hydrological model outputs (e.g. Milly et al., 2003). In this study, we use satellite-based 67 microwave observations to derive and analyze high latitude snow volume changes over 68 1989/2006. Correlations between snow volume and climate indices have been investigated 69 and the Arctic snow contribution to the global mean sea level variation has been estimated. 70

71 2. Data analysis

73 Snow volume used in this study has been computed from Special Sensor 74 Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) data. SSM/I measures the Earth brightness temperature for 75 different microwave frequencies in both horizontal and vertical polarizations (19.35 GHz, 37 76 GHz, 85.5 GHz and 22.235 GHz). Since July 1987, this instrument has been operating on 77 board the operational Defense Meteorological Satellite Program satellite series. Daily SSM/I data, mapped to the Equal Area SSM/I Earth Grid projection with a 25×25 km<sup>2</sup> resolution, are 78 79 provided by the National Snow and Ice Data Center (Armstrong et al., 1994). A dynamic 80 algorithm that takes into account the temporal evolution of the snow grain size, developed by 81 Mognard and Josberger (2002), has been used to retrieve snow depth from SSM/I 82 measurements. This algorithm has been first developed for the U.S. Northern Great Plains, 83 then amended by Grippa et al. (2004) and applied over Western Siberia. Recently, a multi-84 year (1988/1995) averaged snow depth field computed using this algorithm has been validated 85 over Siberia (Boone et al., 2006) and the whole high latitude regions, Greenland excluded 86 (Biancamaria et al., 2008). Interannual variability of these data has been validated over the Ob 87 river basin, in Western Siberia, by comparison with discharge measurements at the estuary 88 (Grippa et al., 2005). The latter study found a significant correlation between the snowmelt 89 date and the discharge in May (correlation coefficient = -0.92) and between the winter snow 90 depth and the discharge in June (correlation coefficient = 0.61). 91

The inputs for this algorithm are the difference between 19.35 GHz and 37 GHz
brightness temperature in horizontal polarization from SSMI, the air/snow interface
temperatures from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction global (NCEP)
reanalysis (Kalnay et al., 1996) and the snow/ground interface temperatures modeled by the
"Interaction between Soil-Biosphere-Atmosphere" (ISBA) scheme forced by the Global Soil
Wetness Project-Phase2 P3 precipitation field (Boone et al., 2006). For the present study, we
consider all continental surfaces above 50°N, Greenland excluded, composed of two sub-

98 regions: Eurasia (0°E<longitude<191°E) and North America (191°E<longitude<360°E). 99 Regions below 50°N have not been taken into account as the snowpack is highly variable spatially and of low amplitude, hence difficult to observe with a  $25x25 \text{ km}^2$  spatial resolution. 100 According to the snow climatology over North America from Brown et al. (2003), between 101 102 December and March, 80% of the total North American snow volume is found above 50°N. 103 This study focuses on monthly and yearly-averaged total snow volume (sum of all 104 non-zero snow depth pixels multiplied by the pixel area). Yearly averages are centered on 105 winter months (i.e. the yearly average for year n corresponds to the temporal average from 106 October year n-1 to September year n). 107 Snow volume derived from SSM/I measurements for January, and temporally 108 averaged over 1989/2006, has been compared to the 1979/1996 climatology for North 109 America from Brown et al. (2003) and to the global climatology from U.S. Air 110 Force/Environmental Technical Applications Center (USAF/ETAC) (Foster and Davy, 1988). 111 The correlation coefficient between snow depth from SSM/I and Brown et al. (2003) is 0.36. 112 However most of the differences between the two datasets are found over regions covered 113 with tundra, according to the snow classification from Liston and Sturm, 1998). For tundra-114 covered regions (42% of North America), the correlation coefficient is equal to 0.20, whereas 115 over the remaining of North America the correlation coefficient is equal to 0.60 (the tundra 116 covers 42% of North America). This result is consistent with the previous study by 117 Biancamaria et al. (2008), which found that the dynamic algorithm does not perform well 118 over the Northern part of the continent (where the tundra is located) due to the presence of 119 numerous lakes. The SSM/I data over these regions need to be processed using a specific 120 algorithm, such as the one developed by Derksen et al. (2010), to take into account the 121 specificity of snow emissivity over lakes. Yet, this still remains an open issue, which requires 122 further investigations since, the *in situ* snow gauges, used by Brown et al. (2003) to compute a

123 climatology by interpolation are very scarce above 50°N, especially for the Northern part of 124 the continent. snow depth from SSM/I correlates better with the USAF/ETAC climatology 125 (correlation coefficient equals to 0.62 over the whole study domain, 0.67 over Eurasia and 126 0.52 over North America), These correlation coefficients are highly significant, as their p-127 values (i.e. the probability to obtain these coefficients by random chance, whereas the 128 variables are uncorrelated) are extremely small (lower than 0.001). The snow depth retrieved 129 from SSM/I measurements are not directly compared to in situ measurements as the spatial 130 resolution of SSM/I is too coarse to be compared to local measurements, and high latitude 131 networks of *in situ* snow depth measurements are not dense enough to allow an estimation of the mean snow depth over a  $25x25 \text{ km}^2$  area. Based on a statistical analysis over the U.S. 132 133 Northern Great Plains, Chang et al. (2005) showed that error between one single in situ 134 measurement and the mean snow depth over a  $1^{\circ}x1^{\circ}$  region can be up to 20 cm (for a range of snow depth values between 1.5 cm and 45.4 cm). 135 136 The temporal variability of the SSM/I-derived snow volume is analyzed in the next 137 section. It agrees well with previous published studies, giving high confidence in the quality 138 of the snow volume time series estimated from SSM/I observations. 139

140 3. Snow volume temporal variability

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Figure 1 shows the monthly anomalies of snow volume time series averaged over the study
area from SSM/I, from an inversion of the Level-2 GFZ Gravity Recovery And Climate
Experiment (GRACE) products (Ramillien et al., 2005; Frappart et al., 2006), from the
<u>E</u>uropean Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts <u>ReA</u>nalysis (ERA)-interim product
(Uppala et al., 2008), and outputs from two Land Surface Models (LSM) used by the Global
Land Data Assimilation System (GLDAS) (Rodell et al., 2004): MOSAIC (Koster and

148 Suarez, 1996) and NOAH 2.7 (Chen et al., 1996), between January 2003 and June 2006. The 149 mass variations measured by GRACE have been converted into snow volume assuming a constant snow volume density of 300 kg.m<sup>-3</sup>. The time variations of the snow volume are 150 151 dominated by the seasonal cycle. NOAH outputs present a better agreement with GRACE 152 data both in terms of amplitude and timing. Snow volume from SSM/I is in better agreement 153 with MOSAIC for the amplitude and with ERA-interim for the phase. However, all datasets 154 agree well in phase and their amplitudes have the same order of magnitude, except for ERA-155 interim which seems to overestimate the amplitude. The GRACE land water and snow 156 solutions used in this study, are based on the development of geopotential harmonic 157 coefficients up to a degree 50, which correspond to a spatial resolution of 400 km (see 158 Frappart et al. (in press) for more details about this dataset). This leads to smaller amplitudes 159 and smoothes the temporal time series. Table 1 presents the annual snow volume trends over 160 2003/2006 computed from SSM/I-based snow depth, from the snow reservoir extracted from 161 GRACE measurements and from the total GRACE signal over the whole study domain, 162 Eurasia and North America. Two trends computed from GRACE data are shown: the first one 163 has been directly computed from the GRACE (snow and total) time series and the second one 164 has been corrected from the Post-Glacial Rebound (PGR) trend estimated by Paulson et al. 165 (2007), available on the GRACE Tellus website (http://grace.jpl.nasa.gov). The uncertainties 166 on PGR trends are supposed to be around 20% (Paulson et al., 2007) and are given in mm.year<sup>-1</sup> of equivalent water thickness, which have been converted into snow volume trends 167 using a constant snow density of 300 kg.m<sup>-3</sup>. The PGR trend (in equivalent snow volume per 168 year) is equal to 495.6 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup>, 31.2 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup> and 464.4 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup> over the whole study 169 170 domain, Eurasia and North America, respectively. SSM/I and PGR corrected GRACE trends 171 are all negative, as previously observed at basin-scale for the GRACE data by Frappart et al. 172 (in press), yet they are statistically significant only over North America. The differences

between SSM/I and GRACE trends are likely caused by the sensitivity due to the small
number of years available for the computation, the truncation of the GRACE data (which
caused a loss of energy in the short spatial wavelengths) and PGR uncertainty.

176 Interannual total snow volume time series (seasonal signal removed) from SSM/I has 177 been computed over 1989/2006 for the whole study domain (Figure 2a) and separately for 178 Eurasia (Figure 2b) and for North America (Figure 2c). Table 2 presents the mean, standard 179 deviation and trend (with the p-value) of the SSM/I-based snow volume over 1989/2006. 180 ERA-interim data has not been used because of biases in the background forecast and in the 181 assimilated observations that makes them unreliable for trend estimation (Trenberth et al., 182 2007). Even if an effort has been undertaken to reduce the biases in ERA-interim (Dee and 183 Uppala, 2009), trends computed with this dataset should still be used with caution. Outputs 184 from GLDAS are not shown, due to the presence of an obvious bias in these datasets between 185 the 1989/1999 and 2000/2006 time periods. For NOAH, the mean snow volume and standard deviation over 1989/1999 are equal to 6239 km<sup>3</sup> and 329 km<sup>3</sup>, respectively, whereas over 186 2000/2006 they are equal to 4760 km<sup>3</sup> and 183 km<sup>3</sup>, respectively. Thus, trends computed from 187 188 these snow depth fields will mainly be the result of this bias.

189 SSM/I snow volume over Eurasia displays a positive, but not statistically significant, trend of 11.3±9.3 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup> (p-value=0.25, Figure 2b), while over North America the trend is 190 negative and statistically significant (-9.7±3.8 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup>, p-value=0.02, Figure 2c). Trends 191 192 have been computed using the generalized linear model regression (Dobson, 1990), and the 193 uncertainty given with each trend corresponds to the standard error on the estimation of the 194 slope from the linear regression algorithm used. These uncertainties are high as snow volume 195 time series have large variability. When the yearly snow volume is averaged over the whole 196 study domain, the trend is positive, remains small, with a very large uncertainty and is not statistically significant (1.5±10.5 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup>, p-value=0.88, Figure 2a). Figure 3 presents the 197

198 regional distribution of snow depth trends over 1989/2006 (only statistically significant 199 trends, i.e. p-value<0.1, are shown). Over Eurasia, the highest positive trends are found over 200 the Lena basin, the southern part of the Yenisey basin (between 60°N/70°N and 100°E/130°E) 201 and Eastern Europe. Over North America, Quebec, Baffin Island and the Arctic Ocean coast 202 show negative trends, whereas positive trends are found over the Rockies and Southern 203 Alaska. Previous studies interpolated sparse *in situ* measurements to infer temporal evolution of snow cover. Groisman et al. (2006) analyzed 1811 in situ observations of the soil condition 204 205 (classified as frozen or unfrozen) between 1956 and 2004, within 1197 1°x1° grid cells over 206 the former Soviet Union (most of these grid cells containing only one *in situ* station). The *in* situ network used is very sparse above 55°N and East of the Ural Mountains. Groisman et al. 207 208 (2006) observed a significant increase in the number of days with unfrozen soil conditions 209 between 1956 and 2004. Yet, this increase is most frequently due to a reduction of days with 210 frost and ice on the ground rather than a snow cover retreat. Besides, these modifications tend 211 to diminish during the last decade of the twentieth century. These observations agree with our 212 results (a positive, but not significant, snow volume trend over Eurasia). Bulygina et al. 213 (2009) used 820 in situ stations over Russia between 1966 and 2007 to infer snow depth trend 214 maps. They found that snow cover periods tend to be shorter, however the amount of snow 215 fall tends to increase, leading to positive snow depth trends over Eurasia: maximum storage change increased from 0.2 cm.vear<sup>-1</sup> to 0.6/0.8 cm.vear<sup>-1</sup> (with maximum rates in Western 216 217 Siberia). These trends have the same order of magnitude than trends shown in Figure 3. Based 218 on *in situ* measurements, Kitaev et al. (2005) found a positive snow depth trend (0.09 cm.year 219 <sup>1</sup>) over Eurasia (for latitudes above 40°N) for February between 1936/2000. This study also 220 showed opposite trends between snow water equivalent in February for 1966/2000 over 221 Eurasia and North America (the trends are equal to 0.743 mm/decade and -1.231 743 222 mm/decade, respectively). For February of the 1989/2006 time span, SSM/I-based snow depth trends are equal to 0.14 cm.year<sup>-1</sup> (p-value=0.15) over Eurasia and -0.18 cm.year<sup>-1</sup> (p-value=0.02) over North America. These results are in agreement with the results found by
Kitaev et al. (2005).

226 Using different data sets (visible and microwave satellite observations, objective 227 analyses of surface snow depth observations, reconstructed snow cover from daily 228 temperature and precipitation, and proxy information derived from thaw dates), Brown et al. 229 (2010) showed that snow cover extent in June and May respectively decreased by 46% and a 230 14% in the Arctic (latitude>60°N), during the 1967/2008 time period. This reduction is 231 observed over both Eurasia and North America and 56% of snow cover extent variability for 232 June and 49% for May is explained by air temperature. Using a less accurate data set, Déry 233 and Brown (2007) showed that snow cover extent also decreased in Eurasia and North 234 America during winter time for the 1972/2006 time span. However, the observed decline is 235 smaller than during spring. The snow volume variability computed in our study does not seem 236 to be consistent with the trend in snow cover extent observed in these previous studies, 237 especially over Eurasia. Yet, this was expected. In effect, Ge and Gong (2008) showed that, at 238 continental/regional scales, high latitude snow extent and snow depth are largely unrelated. 239 The decreasing trend of snow volume over North America estimated from SSM/I is in

agreement with the previous study from Dyer and Mote (2006). Using interpolated *in situ*measurements during the 1960/2000 time span, they found that snow depth has a decreasing
trend in January/February over the time period, which becomes even steeper around March,
along with an earlier onset of spring thaw, which could explain the decreasing North
American snow volume trend observed in our study.

It is extremely difficult to estimate the implications of the observed decreased in North American snow volume on other snow related parameters, like glaciers mass, and an answer to this issue is far beyond the scope of this paper. For example, very recently, Berthier et al.

(2010) confirmed that Alaskan glaciers are losing mass. However, glaciers mass loss is not
only observed in North America, but is widely measured on all continents (Kaser et al., 2006).
Therefore, it is hard to assess if there is any relation between the Alaskan glaciers mass loss
and the decreasing snow volume in North America, and this issue will require further
investigations.

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4. Relationship between snow volume and climate indices

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To investigate the causes of snow volume variability in North America and Eurasia, yearly mean SSM/I snow volume anomaly has been correlated to climate indices representing the dominant modes of atmospheric and ocean variability. The following climate indices have been considered:

260 - Arctic Oscillation (AO, leading mode from the Empirical Orthogonal Function analysis of 261 monthly mean height anomalies at 1000-hPa, poleward of 20°N). A positive (negative) AO 262 index corresponds to a lower (higher) than normal atmospheric pressure over the Artcic, 263 which leads to stronger (weaker) westerly winds. Therefore, in positive AO phase, cold 264 Arctic air is maintained in the Northern part of America (Arctic coast and Quebec), while the 265 rest of America, Europe and Asia experiences a warmer then averaged winter, with more 266 precipitation in Northern Europe. On the contrary, in negative AO phase, cold Arctic air 267 reaches lower latitude (South Canada, US, Asia and Europe), whereas the Northern parts of 268 America is warmer than during the positive AO phase (Thompson and Wallace, 1998). 269 - Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO, North Atlantic mean sea surface temperature 270 anomaly north of the equator). AMO corresponds to cycles of warming and cooling of the 271 North Atlantic Ocean with a period comprised between 50 and 80 years. This cycle affects the 272 North Atlantic branch of the thermohaline circulation and therefore the whole oceanic system

(Kerr, 2000). A positive (negative) phase of the AMO leads to more (less) summer
precipitations in Northern Europe and Alaska and less (more) summer precipitations in the
U.S. and South Canada (Enfield et al., 2001). Knight et al. (2006) show, using a climate
model, that positive AMO phase tends to strengthen broad cyclonic pressure anomalies over
the Atlantic and Europe in winter, therefore increasing precipitations on these regions. During
the time span of the study (1989/2006), the AMO has shifted from a negative to a positive
phase around 1995.

280 - Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO, leading principal component of monthly sea surface 281 temperatures in the North Pacific, poleward of 20°N). PDO is an El Niño-like pattern 282 characteristic the North Pacific climate variability with interannual to interdecadal 283 fluctuations. PDO influences mainly North America climate during winter time and is 284 positively correlated with precipitation along the coasts and central Gulf of Alaska and 285 negatively correlated over much of the interior of North America (Mantua et al., 1997). 286 - Pacific North American pattern (PNA, second component of the Northern Hemisphere extra 287 tropical sea level pressure anomalies). During positive (negative) phase of the PNA, 288 geopotential height anomalies are positive (negative) along the West coast of North America 289 and negative (positive) in the mid-Pacific and Eastern US. Therefore, negative PNA phase is 290 characterized by a strong East Asian jet stream, which is blocked during positive PNA phase. 291 The spatial scale of the PNA pattern is at its most extent during winter (Wallace and Gutzler, 292 1981).

- 293 Data have been computed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
- 294 (NOAA)/Climate Prediction Center (CPC), the NOAA/Earth System Research Laboratory
- 295 (ESRL) and the Joint Institute for the Study of the Atmosphere and Ocean (JISAO)/University
- 296 of Washington (UW), and have been downloaded from

<u>http://ioc3.unesco.org/oopc/state\_of\_the\_ocean/atm</u>. Each index has been averaged from
January through March for each year.

299 Figure 4 presents annual snow volume time series over Eurasia and North America 300 along with the January to March average of the climate indices presented above. As snow 301 volumes and the indices do not have the same units and range of variations, all time series 302 shown in Figure 4 have been normalized and centered. On each plot, the gray horizontal line 303 corresponds to the zero in the original climate index time series. Table 3 gives the correlation 304 coefficients between the climate indices and the annual snow volumes over North America 305 and Eurasia. The AO index is relatively well correlated with snow volume over North 306 America (correlation=0.51 and p-value=0.03, Figure 4b) and anti-correlated with snow 307 volume over Eurasia (correlation=-0.57 and p-value=0.01, Figure 4a), thus the climatic 308 conditions represented by the AO index (which is the dominant mode of interannual 309 variability in North Hemisphere) play a significant and opposite role over the two continents. 310 It is worth mentioning that SSM/I snow volume over Eurasia and North America are not 311 correlated (correlation=-0.07 and p-value=0.80). AMO and PNA are anti-correlated with 312 snow volume over North America (correlation=-0.59 with p-value=0.01 and correlation=-0.66 313 with p-value=0.003, respectively) and not, or only weakly, correlated with snow volume over 314 Eurasia (correlation=0.04 with p-value=0.88 and correlation=0.30 with p-value=0.22, 315 respectively). On the contrary, PDO is more strongly linked with snow volume over Eurasia 316 (correlation=0.49 with p-value=0.04) than over North America (correlation=-0.18 with p-317 value=0.47). Figure 5 presents snow depth linear regression maps based on each climate 318 index (i.e. the correlation coefficient between snow depth and the climate index multiplied by 319 the snow depth standard deviation for each pixel), which clearly show the locations where 320 snow depth co-varies with each climate index. On these maps, regression coefficients are 321 presented only for pixels which have a statistically significant (p-value<0.1) correlation

322 coefficient. Regression map between snow depth and AO index (Figure 5a) clearly shows the 323 opposite impact of AO index over snow depth between North American Arctic coast and the 324 Eastern part of Siberia (with positive regression coefficients) and middle Siberia and Eastern 325 Europe (with negative regression coefficients). There are few statistically significant 326 regression coefficients between snow depth and AMO index over Eurasia (Figure 5b), some 327 negative regression coefficients over Quebec and North American Arctic coast and some 328 positive coefficients over the Rockies. Snow depth weakly co-varies with PDO index over 329 North America (Figure 5c), contrarily to Southern middle Siberia and Northeastern Europe, 330 where regression coefficients are positive. Finally, regression coefficients between snow 331 depth and PNA index (Figure 5d) show that PNA is linked with snow depth especially in 332 central North America (negative coefficients), in the Rockies (positive coefficients) and in 333 Southern middle Siberia (positive coefficients). From these results, it seems that AO is the 334 only mode affecting significantly snow volumes over both Eurasia and North America and 335 could explain the different behavior of snow volume over these two continents.

Previous studies (Cohen et al., 2007; Orsolini and Kvamstø, 2009) have shown that high snow cover in late autumn over Eurasia can create upward propagating planetary wave pulses in winter, which weaken the polar vortex and therefore lead to negative AO in late winter, explaining a negative correlation between snow cover extent and AO index. The same process also explains the negative correlation between snow volume over Eurasia and winter AO index observed in our study.

Ge and Gong (2009) compared monthly AO, NAO (North Atlantic Oscillation,
commonly seen as a regional manifestation of AO), PDO and PNA indices with monthly *in situ* interpolated snow depth over North America during the 1956/2000 time span. They found
that snow depth has weak correlation with monthly AO and NAO indices, but strong anticorrelation with monthly PDO and PNA indices for the winter months (December to April).

347 However, for PDO, only correlation coefficients for February and March are significant at 348 90% confidence level (for PNA all the correlations during all winter months are above the 349 90% confidence level). Our results seem to differ partially, as we found that snow volume 350 significantly correlates with AO, significantly anti-correlates with PNA and has no significant 351 linear relationship with PDO over North America. However, it should be noted that Ge and 352 Gong (2009) studied a wider domain (with latitudes below 35°N) and found the highest 353 relations between snow depth and PDO/PNA over interior central-western North America, 354 which expands far below 50°N (the Southern limit of our study domain). Ghatak et al. (2010) 355 used the same North American in situ-based snow depth field than Ge and Gong (2009) and 356 found that globally snow depths correlate negatively with both winter NAO and PNA. Yet, 357 their study domain includes the whole North American continent. If only the latitudes above 358 50°N are considered (Figure 4 and 6 in Ghatak et al., 2010), they showed that snow depth 359 correlates positively with NAO and negatively with PNA, as found in our study (Table 3). 360 Their explanation of these correlations is the following: positive phase of winter NAO leads 361 to higher air temperature anomalies over eastern North America, reducing snow volume; 362 positive phase of the winter PNA leads to stronger East Asian jet stream and thus more 363 snowfall in Northwest America but to less snowfall in Northeast America and near the Arctic 364 coast (which is in agreement with the regression map between snow depth and PNA, Figure 365 5d).

To better examine inter-annual co-variability between snow volume and climate indices, the linear trend in all time series has been removed and the corresponding correlation coefficients have been computed (Table 3). Over Eurasia, the most statistically significant correlations are still obtained with the AO (correlation=-0.51 with p-value=0.03) and PDO (correlation=0.41 with p-value=0.09) indices. Over North America, the only statistically significant correlation is obtained with PNA index (correlation=-0.58 with p-value=0.01),

which means that North American snow volume linear trend could be related to the AO and
AMO indices (probably due to the shift from a negative to a positive AMO around 1995),
whereas snow volume inter-annual variability is more linked with the PNA pattern.

375 The correlation coefficients between yearly mean snow volume anomaly and all 376 possible linear combinations of two different climate indices have also been computed. For 377 Eurasia, the best correlation coefficient (0.68, p-value=0.002) is obtained for a linear 378 combination between AO and AMO (-156.AO-611.AMO, blue curve in Figure 2b), whereas 379 for North America the best correlation coefficient (0.75, p-value<0.01) is obtained for a linear 380 combination between PNA and AMO (-235.AMO-92.PNA, blue curve in Figure 2c). AO and 381 PNA, when combined with AMO, influence respectively the most Eurasia and North America 382 snow volume and represent regional atmospheric processes influencing the two continents. If 383 the trend is removed from both climate indices and snow volume, the best correlation 384 coefficient is still obtained with a linear combination of AO and AMO indices over Eurasia (-385 136.AO-940.AMO, correlation=0.68 and p-value=0.002). Surprisingly, linear combination of 386 AO and PDO indices, which individually gives respectively the first (-0.51) and second (0.41) 387 best correlations with snow volume over Eurasia, only corresponds to the second best 388 correlation between a linear combination of two climate indices and snow volume (-389 96.AO+76.PDO, correlation=0.58 and p-value=0.01). Over North America, the best 390 correlation is obtained with a linear combination of PDO and PNA indices (37.PDO-391 114.PNA, correlation=0.66 and p-value=0.003), however the second best correlation is 392 obtained with AMO and PNA indices (-165.AMO-87.PNA, correlation=0.61 and p-393 value=0.007).

394

395 5. Snow and sea level

397 High latitude snow has a large impact on river discharge and thus is the main source of 398 fresh water input to the Arctic Ocean. Snow volume change ( $V_{snow}$ ) presented in the previous 399 sections can be used to estimate the snow contribution to the global mean sea level (SLV<sub>snow</sub>), 400 using equation (1).

401

402 
$$SLV_{snow} = -\frac{\rho_{snow}}{\rho_{water} \cdot A_{ocean}} \cdot V_{snow}$$
 (1)

403

404 where  $\rho_{snow}=300 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$  (snow density),  $\rho_{water}=1000 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$  (liquid water density) and 405  $A_{ocean}=3.6 \times 10^8 \text{ km}^2$  (total oceanic domain).

406 Over 1989/2006, the snow volume trend from SSM/I converted into equivalent sea level is very small  $(-0.0013\pm0.0087 \text{ mm.yr}^{-1})$  and not statistically significant. The snow 407 volume trend over the altimetry time span (1993/2006) amounts to -17.0±15.1 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup> (p-408 value=0.28), which yield small positive contributions to sea level of  $0.014\pm0.013$  mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>. As 409 410 this trend is not statistically significant and is negligible compared to the global mean sea level trend (of 3.3±0.4 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> over the satellite altimetry period 1993/2009; Cazenave and 411 412 Llovel, 2010), it is obvious that high latitude snow does not play any role in the global mean 413 sea level rise observed from satellite altimetry.

414 However, Arctic snow is a key component of the mean sea level seasonal cycle. To 415 investigate this relationship, snow volume change has been compared to global mean sea level 416 time series over 2002/2006 from Topex/Poseidon and Jason 1 computed by Collecte 417 Localisation Satellite (CLS), available on the AVISO website (www.aviso.oceanobs.com). 418 The mean sea level data have been corrected for steric effects (mainly thermal expansion of 419 ocean waters) using the methodology developed by Llovel et al. (2010) and based on Argo 420 data (Guinehut et al., 2009). Mean and trend have been removed from this corrected sea level 421 and the seasonal cycle (i.e. the sinusoid with a 365.25 day period which best fits the time

422 series) has been least square adjusted. The sea level seasonal cycle has a maximum amplitude 423 of 6.2 mm which occurs around 15 October. Snow volume converted into sea level (mean and 424 trend removed) has a seasonal cycle with 4.1 mm maximum amplitude around 10 August. Its 425 amplitude is smaller, but has the same order of magnitude than the global mean sea level 426 seasonal cycle, yet breaks earlier. This phase lag could be due to the time taken by water from 427 snow melt to be routed to the ocean by the river network. It could also be explained if water 428 stored in other reservoirs like ground water and water vapor in the atmosphere is taken into 429 account. To test this hypothesis, the seasonal cycle of the ground water has been 430 approximated by a sinusoid with amplitude of 3 mm (in sea level equivalent) and a yearly 431 maximum at the beginning of September (Cazenave et al., 2000). Similarly, the atmospheric 432 water vapor has been approximated by a sinusoid with amplitude of 2 mm and a yearly 433 maximum at the beginning of December (Cazenave et al., 2000). The sum of these three 434 contributors (snow, ground water and water vapor) has an amplitude equal to 6.9 mm, which 435 is very close to the global mean sea level seasonal cycle amplitude with a reduced phase lag 436 (the maximum is around mid-September). This is a surprisingly good result given the large 437 approximation used and clearly shows that Arctic snow variability is one of the main 438 contributors to the global mean sea level seasonal cycle, as previously shown from model 439 outputs by Chen et al. (1998), Minster et al. (1999), Cazenave et al. (2000) and Milly et al. 440 (2003).

441

442 6. Conclusions and perspectives

443

From passive microwave data acquired between 1989 and 2006, it has been possible to estimate the high latitude snow volume variability. Over Eurasia, the mean annual snow volume trend is positive (11.3±9.3 km<sup>3</sup>.year<sup>-1</sup>), yet not statistically significant. Over North

447	America the snow volume trend is equal to $-9.7\pm3.8$ km <sup>3</sup> .year <sup>-1</sup> and is statistically significant.
448	This difference between the two continents could be due to AO which correlates with North
449	American snow volume (correlation = $0.51$ ) and anti-correlates with Eurasian snow volume
450	(correlation = -0.57). These differences are also linked with regional climatic conditions as
451	snow volume anomaly over North America better (anti-)correlates with the PNA index
452	(correlation=-0.66), and AMO index (correlation=-0.59). However, the correlation between
453	AMO and North American snow volume is mainly due to the trend and not to the interannual
454	variability. Moreover, snow volume over Eurasia correlates well with a linear combination of
455	the AO and AMO indices (correlation = $0.68$ ), whereas over North America it correlates with
456	a linear combination of the PNA and AMO indices (correlation = $0.75$ ).
457	Finally, this study shows that high latitude snow volume does not contribute to the
458	global mean sea level trend observed by satellite altimetry, but is a main component of the
459	global mean sea level seasonal cycle.
460	In the future, it will be interesting to compare the snow volume trends observed in this
461	study and trends from other hydrologic parameters in order to better understand the
462	interaction between snow and the whole North Hemisphere high latitude hydrological cycle.
463	
464	Acknowledgments
465	The NSIDC is greatly thanked for processing and freely distributing SSM/I data.
466	The GLDAS data used in this study were acquired as part of the mission of NASA's Earth
467	Science Division and archived and distributed by the Goddard Earth Sciences (GES) Data and
468	Information Services Center (DISC). The Authors are thankful to JP. Vergnes for
469	downloading and post-processing GLDAS data.
470	ECMWF ERA-Interim data used in this study have been obtained from the ECMWF data
471	server.

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666 7	Fable (	captions:
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668 Table 1. Annual snow volume trends over 2003/2006 computed from SSM/I snow volume, 669 snow reservoir extracted from GRACE and from the total GRACE signal over the whole 670 study domain, Eurasia and North America 671 672 Table 2. Mean, standard deviation and trend of annual snow volume retrieved from SSM/I 673 measurements during 1989/2006 period over the whole study domain, Eurasia and North 674 America; p-values (p) for trends are indicated in parentheses. 675 676 Table 3. Correlation coefficients from January to March average of the climate indices (AO, 677 AMO, PDO and PNA) and annual snow volumes over North America and Eurasia (the p-678 value of each correlation is indicated in parentheses). The correlations are computed both with 679 and without trend in the time series of both snow volume and climate indices. 680 681 682 Figure captions: 683 684 Figure 1. Total snow volume for all continental surfaces above 50°N (Greenland excluded) 685 estimated from SSM/I (red curve), GRACE (orange curve), ERA-interim reanalysis (black 686 curve), MOSAIC model (green curve) and NOAH model (blue curve). 687 688 Figure 2. Annual snow volume from SSM/I data (solid red curve) over the whole study 689 domain (a.), over Eurasia (b.) and over North America (c.). On each plot the black line 690 corresponds to the linear trend and the blue curve corresponds to the linear combination of

691	two climate indices (January to March average) which best correlates with SSM/I snow
692	volume (the mean value of the SSM/I snow volume over the 1989/2006 period has been
693	added to the linear combination).

Figure 3. Map of the annual snow depth trends over the 1989/2006 time span. Only

696 statistically significant trends are shown (i.e. trends with p-value < 0.1).

697

698 Figure 4. Annual snow volume over Eurasia (red curves in a., b., c., d.) and over North

America (red curves in e., f., g., h.) and January to March average of AO (blue cruves in a.,

e.), AMO (blue cruves in b., f.), PDO (blue cruves in c., g.) and PNA (blue cruves in d., h.)

701 indices versus time. The time series have been normalized and centered to be plotted at the

same scale. On each plot, the gray horizontal line corresponds to the zero in the original

703 climate index time series.

704

Figure 5. Regression maps between annual snow volume and January to March average of
AO (a.), AMO (b.), PDO (c.) and PNA (d.) indices for the 1989/2006 time span. On each map
are shown pixels with a statistically significant (p-value < 0.1) correlation coefficient between</li>
snow volume and the considered climate index.

Tables:

## Table 1:

	Annual snow volume trend for 2003/2006 (km <sup>3</sup> .year <sup>-1</sup> )						
	SSM/I	GRACE snow no PGR corr.	PGR corr.	GRACE total no PGR corr.	PGR corr.		
Whole domain	-71.4±83.5 (p=0.48)	46.8±103.4 (p=0.70)	-448.8	179.0±234.3 (p=0.52)	-316.6		
Eurasia	-20.0±82.8 (p=0.83)	-91.3±57.5 (p=0.25)	-122.5	-237.2±231.4 (p=0.41)	-268.4		
North America	-51.4±9.6 (p=0.03)	138.1±46.2 (p=0.10)	-326.3	416.3±52.0 (p=0.02)	-48.1		

Table 2:

	SSM/I annual snow volume			
	Whole domain	Eurasia	North America	
1989/2006 mean (km <sup>3</sup> )	3713	2272	1441	
Std (km <sup>3</sup> )	218	189	95	
Trend (km <sup>3</sup> .year <sup>-1</sup> )	1.5±10.5 (p=0.88)	11.3±9.3 (p=0.25)	-9.7±3.8 (p=0.02)	

Table 3 :

		AO	AMO	PDO	PNA
Eurasian snow depth	with trend	-0.57	0.04	0.49	0.30
		(p=0.01)	(p=0.87)	(p=0.04)	(p=0.22)
	without trend	-0.51	-0.33	0.41	0.21
		(p=0.03)	(p=0.18)	(p=0.09)	(p=0.39)
North American snow depth	with trend	0.51	-0.59	-0.18	-0.66
		(p=0.0 3)	(p=0.01)	(p=0.47)	(p=0.003)
	without trend	0.25	-0.31	0.10	-0.58
		(p=0.31)	(p=0.20)	(p=0.71)	(p=0.01)

Figures:

## 715

Figure 1:

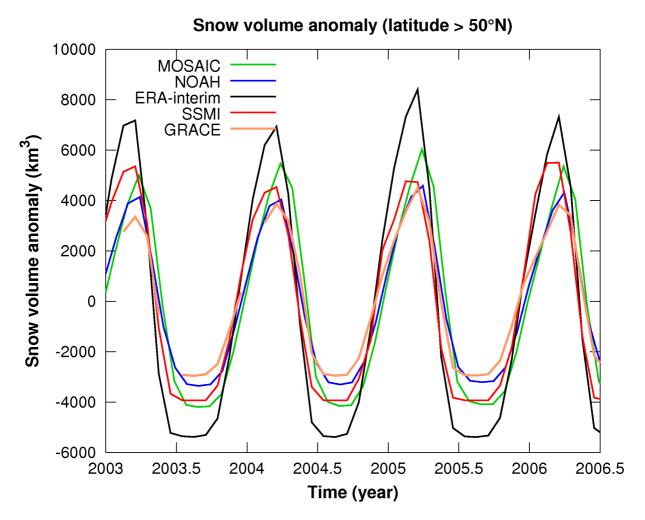
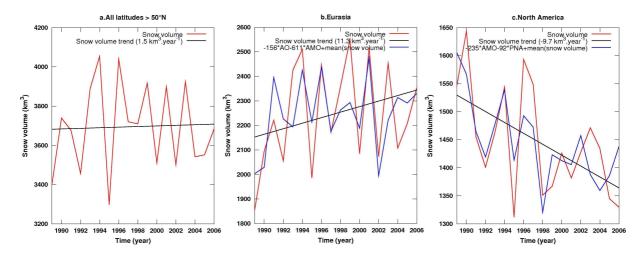
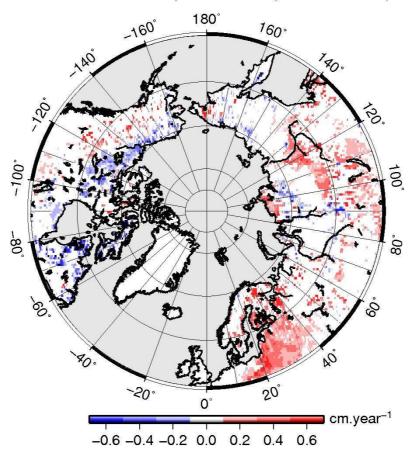


Figure 2:





SSM/I snow depth trend (1989/2006)



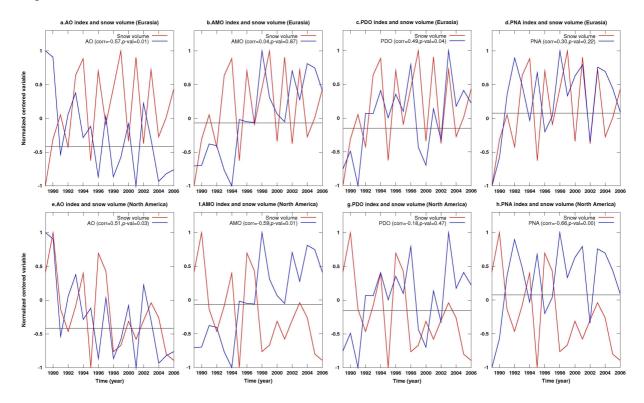


Figure 5:

