

# Snow hydrology in Mediterranean mountain regions: A review

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#### Review papers

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#### 1 Snow hydrology in Mediterranean mountain regions: a review

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#### 10 Abstract

Water resources in Mediterranean regions are under increasing pressure due to climate change, 11 12 economic development, and population growth. Many Mediterranean rivers have their headwaters in 13 mountainous regions where hydrological processes are driven by snowpack dynamics and the specific 14 variability of the Mediterranean climate. A good knowledge of the snow processes in the Mediterranean mountains is therefore a key element of water management strategies in such regions. 15 16 The objective of this paper is to review the literature on snow hydrology in Mediterranean mountains 17 to identify the existing knowledge, key research questions, and promising technologies. We collected 18 620 peer-reviewed papers, published between 1913 and 2016, that deal with the Mediterranean-like 19 mountain regions in the western United States, the central Chilean Andes, and the Mediterranean 20 basin. We find a large amount of studies in the western United States that form a strong scientific 21 basis for other Mediterranean mountain regions. We found that: (1) the persistence of snow cover is 22 highly variable in space and time but mainly controlled by elevation and precipitation; (2) the 23 snowmelt is driven by radiative fluxes, but the contribution of heat fluxes is stronger at the end of the 24 snow season and during heat waves and rain-on-snow events; (3) the snow densification rates are 25 higher in these regions when compared to other climate regions; and (4) the snow sublimation is an 26 important component of snow ablation, especially in high-elevation regions. Among the pressing

27 issues is the lack of continuous ground observation in high-elevation regions. However, a few years of 28 snow depth (HS) and snow water equivalent (SWE) data can provide realistic information on 29 snowpack variability. A better spatial characterization of snow cover can be achieved by combining 30 ground observations with remotely sensed snow data. SWE reconstruction using satellite snow cover 31 area and a melt model provides reasonable information that is suitable for hydrological applications. 32 Further advances in our understanding of the snow processes in Mediterranean snow-dominated 33 basins will be achieved by finer and more accurate representation of the climate forcing. While the 34 theory on the snowpack energy and mass balance is now well established, the connections between 35 the snow cover and the water resources involve complex interactions with the sub-surface processes, 36 which demand future investigation.

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#### 37 Keywords: Snowpack; Snow hydrology; Mountain hydrology, Mediterranean climate

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#### 39 1. Introduction

Mountain regions are a major source of surface water and groundwater recharge in the 40 41 world (Viviroli et al., 2007; Dettinger, 2014). The water balance in mountainous regions is 42 defined by the interactions between the climate, cryospheric, and hydrological systems (de 43 Jong et al. eds. 2005; DeWalle and Rango, 2008). In mountainous regions that are under the influence of the Mediterranean climate (Bolle 2003; Lionello et al. 2006), the wet-winters 44 and hot and dry-summers climate, orographic enhanced precipitation, variability of 45 temperature and the partitioning of rain and snow with elevation, and the high seasonal 46 47 variability of the snow cover make the hydrologic processes in these mountainous regions 48 significantly different from those found in other cryospheric regions and or dry or wet 49 climates. Under the influence of the Mediterranean climate, an important fraction of the 50 precipitation occurs during winter months (e.g., Demaria et al., 2013a; López-Moreno et al., 51 2013a; Valdés-Pineda et al., 2014), with the highest elevation areas receiving most of this

winter precipitation as snow while the mid-elevation areas have a mixed precipitation regime (McCabe et al., 2007; Surfleet and Tullos, 2013; Guan et al., 2016). Winter precipitation is orographically enhanced along with elevation (Dettinger et al., 2004; Behrangi et al., 2016; Derin et al., 2016). The snowmelt from the Mediterranean mountain occurs in the spring and summer when precipitation is otherwise scarce, and thus, this snowmelt is an essential water resource for many communities living in the surrounding low land regions (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2008a, 2014).

59 The Mediterranean mountain regions include the countries around the Mediterranean 60 Sea (e.g., Morocco, Spain, France, Italy, Bulgaria, Croatia, Greece, Turkey, and Lebanon), 61 the western US (California), and the mid-latitude area of the central Chilean Andes. In almost 62 all these regions, agriculture is an important source of income and employment, and 63 snowmelt provides runoff during the crop-growing season when irrigation is the most needed. 64 However, the sustainability of the water resources is threatened by the pressure of a growing 65 population, increasing irrigation, and climate change (e.g., Barnett et al., 2008). While 66 Mediterranean region have been considered as climate change "hot spots" since the first IPCC reports (Milly et al., 2005; Giorgi, 2006; Nohara et al., 2006; Nogués-Bravo et al., 67 68 2007; Giorgi and Lionello, 2008; Loarie et al., 2009; Kyselý et al., 2012; Kapnick and 69 Delworth, 2013; Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014; Prudhomme et al., 2014; Harpold and Molotch, 2015; Vano et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2016), there is also new evidence that the rate of 70 atmospheric warming increases with elevation (Kotlarski et al., 2015; Pepin et al., 2015), 71 72 which strengthens the concern about the climate change in Mediterranean mountain regions. 73 The impact of atmospheric warming is expected to be strong in snow-dominated watersheds 74 since snow accumulation and ablation are highly sensitive to air temperature (Beniston, 2003; 75 Barnett et al., 2005; Howat and Tulaczyk, 2005; Brown and Mote, 2009; Cooper et al., 2016). 76 The main consequence on warming is a shift in the hydrological regimes from a snow-

77 dominated regime towards a rain-dominated regime (Berghuijs et al., 2014; Goulden and 78 Bales, 2014). For example, in the western US, areas with elevations between 2000 to 2800 m 79 are the most sensitive to global warming (Maurer et al., 2007). Regions in the western US where the average winter-wet-day minimum temperature increased by +3 °C are witnessing a 80 81 reduction in the winter-total snowfall to precipitation ratio (Knowles et al., 2006). Most 82 Northern-Hemisphere's snow-dependent regions are likely to experience increasing stress 83 from low snow years within the next three decades (Diffenbaugh et al., 2012). Areas with an average winter temperature between -4 and -2 °C are expected to witness shifts towards 84 85 earlier streamflow peaks (changes that exceed 45 days relative to those from 1961–1990) 86 (Maurer et al., 2007). Similar results were reported in the Southern Alpine river basins 87 (Zampieri et al., 2015). The Mediterranean climate is also characterized by a high inter-88 annual variability, although the underlying mechanisms depend upon the specific region. 89 North and South American Mediterranean regions are under the influence of the climatic 90 variability of the Pacific Ocean, while the Mediterranean climate in Europe and North Africa 91 is relatively connected to the North-Atlantic climatic variability (López-Moreno et al., 92 2013a).

93 Research on the seasonal snow and snow hydrology in mountains is well established 94 and several authors have already produced review articles or chapters on the following: (1) 95 the physical properties of the snowpack (e.g., Armstrong and Burn (eds) 2008; Kinar and Pomerov, 2015; Sturm, 2015); (2) remote sensing of snow (Dozier and Painter, 2004; Seidel 96 97 and Martinec 2004; Dozier et al., 2009; Dietz et al., 2012; Frei et al., 2012; Deems et al., 98 2013; Lettenmaier et al., 2015; Sturm, 2015; Tedesco (ed.) 2015); (3) spatial distribution of 99 the snow water equivalent, SWE (Dozier et al., 2016); (4) snow and mountain hydrology 100 (e.g., Seidel and Martinec 2004; de Jong et al. (eds.) 2005; Bales et al., 2006;; Armstrong and 101 Burn (eds) 2008; DeWalle and Rango 2008; Varhola et al., 2010; Hrachowitz et al., 2013;

Bierkens, 2015; Sturm, 2015); (5) snow spatial representation in hydrologic and land-surface
models (e.g., Clark et al., 2011); and the (6) projected climate impact on the cryospheric and
hydrological systems in mountains (e.g., Beniston, 2003; de Jong et al. (eds.) 2005; Huber et
al. (eds.) 2005; Vicuña and Dracup, 2007; Viviroli et al., 2007; Brown and Mote, 2009;
Stewart, 2009; García-Ruiz et al., 2011; Diffenbaugh et al., 2012; Kapnick and Delworth,
2013; Beniston and Stoffel, 2014; Pepin et al., 2015; Sturm 2015; Wu et al., 2015; Meixner et
al., 2016).

109 Snow processes are driven by meteorological forcing (energy and mass fluxes) and 110 land surface physiography (topography and vegetation). Therefore, the snowpack presents 111 different characteristics depending on the region. The standard snow classification that was 112 introduced by Sturm et al., (1995) defines seven classes of seasonal snow according to their physical properties: Tundra, Taiga, Alpine, Maritime, Ephemeral, Prairie, or Mountain. The 113 114 "Mediterranean snow" can be observed as a subset of the Maritime class, and it is 115 characterized by a warmer snowpack, a shorter snow season, and a higher variance in both 116 the intra-annual snow depth and mean monthly snow density compared to the Tundra, Taiga, 117 and Prairie snow regions (Brown and Mote, 2009; Sturm et al., 2010; Bormann et al., 2013) 118 (Fig. 1). In comparison with the Tundra and Taiga regions, the snowpack in Mediterranean 119 mountains is characterized by higher mean annual snow densities and higher annual densification rates (Bormann et al., 2013; Trujillo and Molotch, 2014) (Fig. 1). 120

121 To our knowledge, no review to date has explicitly addressed the characterization of 122 snow hydrologic processes related to snow in one of the major snow regions. Given the 123 significance of the snowmelt as a water resource in Mediterranean regions, we considered 124 that a review of the previous snow studies undertaken in Mediterranean mountain regions is 125 needed. This review may be helpful, for example, in defining a new research program in this

126 climate region, which is highly sensitive to global warming and where snowmelt is an127 important contributor to the hydrologic cycle.

More specifically this review seeks to answer the following questions: (1) what are the major forcing variables and controls that drive the snow dynamics in Mediterranean mountain regions? (2) To what extent are we able to estimate the spatiotemporal properties of snowpack (i.e., snow cover areas (SCA), snow height (HS), and snow water equivalent (SWE))? (3) What are the current limitations and opportunities associated with available observational networks and methods used to assess the snowpack dynamics and hydrologic responses in these mountain regions?



Fig. 1. Variation in the mean monthly snow density (Oct-June) (kg m<sup>-3</sup>) adopted from Brown and Mote (2009) for the major climate regions. \*California monthly snow density means (Jan-June) are based on long-term monthly data records (more than 20 years) retrieved from 46 snow courses and 26 SNOTEL stations (data are available online at wcc.nrcs.usda.gov/snow/). The average snow depth and standard deviation, not shown, were as follows: Tundra (43.8 cm, 24.7 std dev), Taiga (59.6, 22.7), Alpine (130, 82.5), Prairie (88.5, 72.8), and Maritime (176.6, 149.9) (Sturm et al., 2010), and the average for California calculated from long term monthly snow courses and SNOTEL data was 146.1 cm (std dev = 97.5).

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We collected 620 peer-reviewed articles published between 1913 and 2016, which dealing with the snowpack and snow hydrology in Mediterranean regions. From this large number of papers, we adopted a hybrid quantitative (metadata analysis from the papers) and

147 qualitative approach (literature review) to gain insight into the major issues, trends, and 148 advances in this already large and growing research field. We present the geographic extent 149 of the papers and the methodology to analyze them in section (2). The key indicators obtained from the papers dataset are presented in section (3). The second part of the paper is devoted 150 151 to the review of the three key issues that emerge from this article database: Section (4) 152 addresses the characterization of the climatic forcing in snow-dominated Mediterranean 153 regions; Section (5) describes the main features of the snowpack obtained from ground 154 measurements and remote sensing techniques; Section (6) focuses on the studies dedicated to 155 the snowmelt modeling; and Section (7) draws conclusions and opportunities for future work.

We focused on papers that address snowfall, snowpack and snow hydrology processes in Mediterranean mountains. We did not focus on the climate change impact studies, which already represent an important body of the literature *per se*. Interested readers can refer to Beniston (2003), Beniston and Stoffel, (2014), de Jong et al., (eds) (2005), and de Jong et al., (2012) for additional information regarding the potential impact of climate changes on mountain hydrology and water resources in Mediterranean regions.

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#### 163 **2. Methods**

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#### 2.1. Geographic extent of the review

165 The Mediterranean climate is found on the western part of the continents between 166 latitudes 30° and 45° (Bolle (ed.), 2003). The land regions around the Mediterranean Sea 167 (southern Europe, Northern Africa and the Levantine region) form the largest area of this 168 type of climate. The Mediterranean climate is also found in the western Coastal US 169 (California, and western Oregon), and the central Chilean Andes (Fig. 2). Limited regions in 170 southern Australia and southern Africa are also classified as Mediterranean (not shown). A

171 combined Koppen (Kottek et al., 2006) and mountain classification scheme (Viviroli et al., 172 2007) was used to better distinguish the mountain regions associated with the Mediterranean 173 climate (Fig. 2). The Koppen climate scheme defines five main groups and multi subtypes 174 according to the long-time annual and monthly temperature means and precipitation totals. Of 175 particular interest to this study are the Mediterranean (Csa, Csb) regions and the regions 176 influenced by Mediterranean climate, such as the adjacent maritime zones (Cfb, Cfc) and the 177 semi-arid regions (BSh, BSk). The Viviroli et al., (2007) scheme distinguishes a total of 15 178 relief patterns by combining elevation and a relief roughness indicator, and it was used to 179 distinguish between mountainous and lowland areas.



Fig. 2. Mediterranean mountain regions (a) Central Chile (b) western US and (c) Mediterranean Basin. Mountain regions were derived using the Viviroli et al., (2007) scheme based on the global multi-resolution terrain elevation data (GMTED2010) at 15-arc second resolution (Danielson et al., 2011), and they are shown in light blue; the three main distinct climates portray the Mediterranean (Csa, Csb) shown in light orange, oceanic and maritime climates (Cfb, Cfc) in dark olive, and the semi-arid regions (BSh, BSk) in plum (Kottek et al., 2006). The red dot indicates the coordinates associated with each paper in the database.

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#### 188 2.2. Bibliographic sources

We used the website of the three major scientific publishers (Elsevier, Wiley, and Springer), Google Scholar, ReadCube, and open access journals websites to find articles from the early 20th century to the present, in which snow, hydrology, and mountain hydrology and

192 climatology appeared in the title or abstract, or as a keyword. Only articles published in peer-193 reviewed journal with an impact factor greater than one and articles related to the 194 Mediterranean regions presented above were considered. A second round of screening focused on reading the abstract and identifying articles where snow properties, snow 195 196 hydrology, and mountain hydroclimatology are considered as part of the article's main 197 objectives. As much as possible, we avoided papers where snow was addressed in a marginal 198 context. Hundreds of articles were identified during the initial screening. A total of 620 199 articles, (published in 82 different journals) (Fig. 3a.), were retained after the second 200 screening. A table with the metadata for the articles is provided as supplementary file (A1).

201 We identified a list of 35 different indicators that correspond to key research areas 202 (Supplementary material A2). These were classified under three major groups (science, 203 methods, and data) and subdivided into different categories. The first group focuses on 204 science and it includes three categories: (1) meteorology and climatology in mountains (e.g., 205 mountain climate, climate change and variability, climatology and meteorology, and 206 hydrometeorology (inc. hydroclimatology), (2) snow (e.g., snow hydrometeorology (inc. 207 climatology), snow properties, and snow hydrology) and (3) hydrology (e.g., mountain 208 hydrology, hydrology in snow-dominated basins, and hydrogeology in mountains). The 209 second group focuses on the following methods: (4) methods used to quantify the snow cover extent (e.g., remote sensing of snow); methods used to describe the spatial distribution of 210 211 snowpack indicators (e.g., spatial statistics and trends in climate, snowpack, and hydrology); 212 and methods used to simulate the main characteristics of snow accumulation, snow duration, 213 and snowmelt processes (e.g., snow energy and mass balance simulation, hydrological 214 modeling). The third group emphasizes the following: (5) data (i.e., length of data used, 215 source and type of data (i.e., ground observations, projections, and reanalysis), and spatial 216 scales (extent of the study area and elevation range). Each article was associated with a pair

of longitude and latitude coordinates, which represent the approximate centroid of the study area highlighted in the paper, and each article was reported on a map that shows both the Koppen climate classes and the mountain regions, as defined by Viviroli et al., (2007) (Fig. 2).

Using our personal criteria, each article was classified under one or two major science topics (see categories 1-3 above) and a methodological approach (see category 4 above). We then combined both in a single label. For instance, Maurer et al. (2007) addressed streamflow trends in snow-dominated regions, where climate change, hydrology, snow, and streamflow timing were all considered. Hence, since the article emphasizes on the use of a hydrologic model for streamflow in mountain regions, the paper was categorized under the "trends in snowpack and hydrology, using distributed hydrological model".

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#### 229 **3.** Description of the articles database

#### 230 3.1. Mountain ranges

231 Mountain regions covered in this review include the following (Fig. 3b): (1) the coastal regions of western United States (Bales et al., 2006) including the Oregon Cascade 232 233 (Sproles et al., 2013) and California Sierra Nevada Mountains (Guan et al., 2013a; Molotch 234 and Meromy, 2014); (2) the central Andes that cover two of Chile's major natural regions – 235 Chile's central and southern zones (Favier et al., 2009; Cortés et al., 2011; Valdés-Pineda et 236 al., 2014); the major mountain chains around the Mediterranean Sea (López-Moreno et al., 237 2011a), namely; (3) Spanish (López-Moreno et al., 2014), and French (Gascoin et al., 2015), 238 Pyrenees; (4) Spanish Sierra Nevada Mountains (Pimentel et al. 2015); (5) French and Italian 239 Maritime Alps (Dedieu et al., 2014) – which are under the influence of the Mediterranean 240 climate (Durand et al. 2009); (6) Turkey and the Armenian Plateau (Tekeli, 2008); (7) Mount

Lebanon and Anti Lebanon Ranges (Mhawej et al., 2014); and (8) Moroccan Atlas (Marchane et al., 2015). Little information was found on other Mediterranean Sea mountains (López-Moreno et al., 2011a), such as the Iberian Peninsula Mountains (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014), Italian Apennines (Martelloni et al., 2013), Southern Calabrian mountains in Italy (Senatore et al., 2011), Julian Alps (Italy and Slovenia), Dinaric Alps (mostly over Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina), Bulgarian mountains (Brown and Petkova, 2007), Pindos (Greece), Rhodope (Greece), and Taurus (Turkey).

#### 248 3.2. Bibliometric analysis

Papers that covered local and regional scale studies accounted for ~90% (of all 620 249 250 papers), the remaining  $(\sim 10\%)$  were global studies and review papers. The majority of all 251 articles (90.5%) were published between 2000 and 2016 inclusive, and half of all articles 252 (53.4%) were published over the past five years (2011-2016) (Fig. 3a). The remaining 253 (<10%, not shown) were published between 1913 and 1999, of which ~85% were published 254 between 1990 and 1999. Approximately 66.5% of all articles were published in 10 journals (Fig. 3a). Over the past 16 years (2000-2016), papers covering the California, Sierra Nevada 255 256 Mountains amounted to 30% of the local and regional scale studies (41% when the regional 257 scale studies over the western United States are included). Spanish Pyrenees (10%) and the 258 central Chilean Andes (6%) were among the most studied mountain regions (Fig. 3b). Figure 259 3c highlights the yearly number of published papers in the first three major Mediterranean 260 regions (2000-2016).



Fig. 3. Key bibliometric indicators were the following (from top to bottom): (a) cumulative yearly number of publications per journal (based on 561 articles published between 2000 and 2016); (b) Distribution of studies by major mountain regions shown; and (c) number of yearly published papers in California (excluding western US regional studies) (30%), Spanish Pyrenees (10%), and central Chilean Andes (6%).

#### 269 3.3. Thematic analysis

270 The papers cover multiple scales: (1) experimental sites and small catchments (Storck 271 et al., 2002; Franz et al., 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2010, 2013b; Bales et al., 2011; Liu et 272 al., 2013; Raleigh et al., 2013; Harpold et al., 2014; Girotto et al., 2014; Revuelto et al., 273 2016a; Marti et al., 2016); (2) snow-dominated basins (Lundquist et al., 2010; Powell et al., 274 2011; Rousselot et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2013; Welch et al., 2013; Cortés et al., 2014; Franz 275 et al., 2014; Telesca et al., 2014; Marchane et al., 2015); (3) multiple basins, mountain 276 ranges, and regional scales (Painter et al., 2009; López-Moreno et al., 2011a; Pavelsky et al., 277 2011; Guan et al., 2013b; Núñez et al., 2013; Slater et al., 2013; Stewart, 2013; Avanzi et al., 278 2014; Hüsler et al., 2014; Cornwell et al., 2016); and (4) continental scales and the global 279 scale (e.g., Nohara et al., 2006; Pepin et al., 2015). The studies provide information on (1) 280 mountain climatology and meteorology (Bonfils et al., 2008; Herrero and Polo, 2012; 281 Pavelsky et al., 2012; Lute and Abatzoglou, 2014; Lundquist et al., 2015a; Guan et al., 2016); 282 (2) long-term hydroclimatology and snowpack trends in mountains (López-Moreno and 283 García-Ruiz, 2004; Hamlet et al., 2005; Mote et al., 2005; Stewart et al., 2005; Masiokas et 284 al., 2006; McCabe et al., 2007; Pierce et al., 2008; Das et al., 2009); (3) meteorological 285 forcing and topographic controls on snowfall and snowpack in mountains (Anderton et al., 286 2004; Guan et al., 2010; Rice et al., 2011; Musselman et al., 2012; Trujillo et al., 2012; Wayand et al., 2013; Ayala et al., 2014; Molotch and Meromy, 2014; Hinkelman et al., 2015; 287 288 Lapo et al., 2015; López Moreno et al., 2015; Harpold, 2016); (4) snowpack properties (Mizukami and Perica, 2008; Perrot et al., 2014; Trujillo and Molotch, 2014); (5) snow 289 290 accumulation and ablation (Harpold et al., 2012; Meromy et al., 2013; Guan et al., 2013a; 291 Avanzi et al., 2014; Sade et al., 2014); (6) snowmelt runoff (Tekeli et al., 2005a; Herrero et 292 al., 2009; Sorman et al., 2009; Franz and Karsten, 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Jepsen et al., 293 2016a); and (7) different hydrological (Aguilar et al., 2010; Kourgialas et al., 2010;

Lundquist and Loheide, 2011; Goulden et al., 2012; Schlaepfer et al., 2012; Harpold et al.,

295 2015; Penna et al., 2015; Harpold, 2016); and (8) hydrogeological processes (Tague and

Grant, 2009; Lowry et al., 2010) in snow-dominated mountain regions.

297 Given the variety of the topics covered in the literature, we found that the most 298 relevant approach for synthesizing them is to treat the three main vertical levels of the 299 hydrosystem from the atmosphere to the bedrock separately: (1) climate forcing to the 300 snowpack, (2) snowpack spatio-temporal variability, and (3) snowmelt hydrology and 301 hydrogeology. A synthesis on climate forcing, snowpack dynamics, and hydrological 302 processes is presented in Table 1 and further discussed in detail under sections 4-6, 303 respectively. Figure 4 summarizes the key elements of the energy fluxes and mass balance in 304 a typical Mediterranean mountain context.

Early studies published prior to the '90s emphasized on mountain meteorology, 305 306 ground observations of the snowpack, and the theoretical aspects of snow energy balance and 307 snowmelt-runoff models. The time period between 1990 and 1999 witnessed a diversification 308 in the topics with a focus on the quantification of the snow water equivalent, snow 309 interception in forests, hydrology and hydrogeology in snow-dominated basins -including 310 hydrochemical analysis of snowmelt runoff. In this period, the first studies on the changes in 311 snowpack and streamflow under global warming were published. Few studies were based on remote sensing (5%). 312

After 2000, the number of scientific publications increased exponentially each five years. Such a growth rate is higher than the doubling time for natural sciences, which is estimated at 8.7 years (Bornmann and Mutz, 2015). Figure 5 summarizes the number of published papers (2000-2016) based on their key category. The main scientific area was the effect of meteorological and climatological variables on the snow hydrology that accounted

for 29% of the studies (Fig. 5), of which about a half were dedicated to assessing climate change impacts on the hydrology and the snowpack. 25% and 7% of the studies were dedicated to hydrology and hydrogeology, respectively. The snowpack modeling accounted for 13% of the studies, and the snow remote sensing accounted for 8% (Fig. 5).



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323 Fig. 4. Major climate forcing and snow processes in Mediterranean-like mountainous regions with emphasis on 324 the specific objectives shown here for mountain hydrology and snowpack dynamics. Where SWi and SWo are 325 incoming and outgoing shortwave radiation, respectively; Lwo and Lwi are the emitted and incoming longwave 326 radiation, respectively; P is precipitation, Ws is wind speed, and RH is relative humidity; HM is sensible heat 327 flux; Ts is surface temperature and Tg is ground temperature; HS is snow depth, ds is snow density, and SWE is 328 snow water equivalent; Ss is snow sublimation and Sm is snow melt; ET is evapotranspiration, R is surface 329 runoff, G is subsurface and groundwater flow. The background image was taken in Laqlouq at 1850 m a.s.l. 330 (Mount-Lebanon) on February 20th, 2016 (courtesy of the author).

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Fig. 5. Distribution of papers by science groups and key sub-categories with emphasis on climate forcing to the snowpack (29% of all studies, shown in red), snow studies (39%, blue), and snowmelt hydrology and hydrogeology (32%, green). S. is snow; Trend S. indicates a study that emphasizes on addressing climate change impacts on snow. RSS indicates a paper that focuses on remote sensing of snow. EBM indicates a study that describes and testes an energy balance model (see appendix A2 for a detailed list of indicators)

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Table 1. Summary of key science topics identified in the literature; in addition, the table lists major variables, scales, and sources of uncertainty.

Topic	Main variables of interest	Main source of data		Main methods	Major sources of uncertainty
Climate forcing to the snowpack	Near-surface meteorological variables (air temperature, air humidity, precipitation, longwave and shortwave radiation); latent and sensible heat	Ground observations (automatic weather stations); reanalysis data		Mesoscale atmospheric model (e.g., WRF); assimilation techniques; downscaling; spatial interpolation	Lack of weather stations at high-elevation; high spatial variability of the climate in mountains; lack of long time series; snowfall undercatch by precipitation gauges; few radiation and flux measurements
Snowpack spatio- temporal variability	Snow cover area, snow depth, snow density, snow water equivalent, snow albedo	Field measurements; Automatic weather stations, space borne remote sensing products; terrestrial remote sensing (Lidar, camera)	P	Temperature index model; regression analysis; modeling of snowpack mass and energy balance	Spatial variability of snow depth; inter- annual variability of SWE; difficulty to sample large areas in the field; cloud and canopy obstruction in optical remote sensing; large errors of SWE retrievals in complex topography by microwave remote sensing
Meltwater hydrology	Surface runoff, soil moisture, evapotranspiration, groundwater flow and recharge	Gauging stations; remote sensing; hydro- chemical testing for streamflow and groundwater recharge.		Water balance, hydrological and hydrogeological modeling.	Medium to high difficulty in conducting measurements; heterogeneity of mountain topography and land cover; mixed rain/snow regimes; lack of sub-surface measurements.

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#### 361 **4.** Climate forcing to the snowpack

The two processes that control snowpack dynamics in mountains are snow accumulation and ablation. The accumulation is mainly forced by snowfall and this mainly depends on precipitation and temperature (López-Moreno, 2005), while the ablation is driven by radiation and heat fluxes between the atmosphere, the snowpack and the underlying soil (Herrero et al., 2009). The near-surface wind also influences both accumulation and ablation (e.g., Gascoin et al., 2013) (see Sect. 5).

368 4.1. Near-surface meteorological observations

369 The minimum meteorological data to run a temperature index snowmelt model are the 370 precipitation and the air temperature (DeWalle and Rango, 2008). A typical 1D (vertical) 371 snowpack energy balance model requires additional data of air relative humidity, incoming 372 shortwave and longwave radiation and wind speed. The wind direction is only useful to 373 simulate wind drift and lateral heat advection (e.g., Burns et al., 2014), in case of a patchy 374 snow cover (e.g., Liston, 1995). However, information on the spatial distribution of the main 375 meteorological variables remains incomplete in Mediterranean mountains, such as in most of the world's mountains (e.g., Bales et al., 2006). This has been attributed to the following: 376

(1) The sparseness of the automatic weather stations (AWS) networks (Horel and
Dong, 2010; Gottardi et al., 2012; Valdés-Pineda et al., 2014; Henn et al., 2015). Even in
well-monitored regions, most of the AWS are usually below 3000 m a.s.l, although meltwater
production generally increases with elevation (Favier et al., 2009).

(2) The number of variables being measured at the AWS (Raleigh et al., 2016). A
survey based on 1318 AWS across the western US, where meteorological data and either
SWE or snow depth are measured, indicated that near-surface forcing variables of air
temperature and precipitation are among the most sampled (99-83%), whereas wind speed,
humidity (often as relative humidity RH), and incoming shortwave radiation are measured
24-36% of the time. Incoming longwave radiation is the least measured (1.4%). Nearly 99%
of all AWS do not measure all six forcing variables (Raleigh et al., 2016).

(3) Biases and uncertainties that arise from observational data. AWS are prone to data
logging failure; some sensors require periodic calibration and the data must undergo specific
quality control given the harsh climatic conditions encountered in high-elevation areas
(Estévez et al., 2011; Filippa et al., 2014; Lundquist et al., 2015a).

392 Radiative and turbulent fluxes in Mediterranean mountain regions can be calculated 393 from meteorological and incident solar radiation and thermal radiation observations (e.g., 394 using pyranometers and pyrgeometers) at experimental sites (e.g., Marks et al., 1992). There are few flux tower locations (e.g., Goulden et al., 2012; Burns et al, 2014) and specific 395 396 research sites, such as the CUES in California, which feature a full range of censors for 397 measuring the snow energy balance (Bair et al., 2015). Flux towers equipped with eddy 398 covariance system and specific stations equipped with pyranometers and pyrgeometers 399 remain the two options for measuring the sensible heat, latent heat, and radiative fluxes. 400 However, most of the available flux towers are generally located at flatter lowland areas and 401 provide little information needed to evaluate fluxes in snow ablation in complex mountain 402 regions (Bales et al., 2006; Raleigh et al., 2016). Studies that address snow energy balance in 403 snow-dominated regions (e.g., Sproles et al., 2013; Mernild et al., 2016a) rely on solving the 404 energy balance solely from meteorological observations (e.g., Liston et al., 1999; Herrero et 405 al., 2009). This has resulted in the current availability of limited information for validating the contribution of radiative and turbulent fluxes (Lapo et al., 2015; Raleigh et al., 2016). 406

407 4.2. Precipitation

In Mediterranean mountain regions, more than 80% of the annual precipitation falls 408 409 during winter (November to March for the Northern Hemisphere and May to September in 410 the Southern Hemisphere) (Mazurkiewicz et al., 2008; Demaria et al. 2013a; López-Moreno 411 et al. 2013a). Mountain regions such as the Sierra Nevada, California receive 75-90% of 412 winter precipitation in the form of snow (Jepsen et al., 2012). Mountain regions tend to 413 receive more precipitation than surrounding lowland areas due to the orographic 414 enhancement (Favier et al., 2009; Neiman et al., 2014; Lundquist et al., 2015a; Derin et al., 415 2016).

416	The assessment of the distribution in precipitation amounts in mountain regions and
417	an accurate identification of the precipitation type (snow or rain) emerge as the most
418	uncertain factors in the literature (Gottardi et al., 2012; Neiman et al., 2014; Dettinger, 2014;
419	Buisan et al., 2014; Derin et al., 2016). Uncertainties in the precipitation distribution over
420	mountain regions are associated with: (1) snow gauge undercatch (Sevruk et al, 1991;
421	Rasmussen et al., 2012), (2) precipitation phase determination (e.g., Harpold et al., 2017), (3)
422	methods for estimating spatial precipitation distribution, including the precipitation lapse
423	rates (Lundquist et al., 2015a; Henn et al., 2017), and (4) the heterogeneity of the
424	precipitation network (Favier et al., 2009; Rice and Bales, 2010; and Gottardi et al., 2012).
425	Wind-induced precipitation undercatch affects the accuracy of precipitation data and is more
426	pronounced for solid precipitation than for liquid precipitation (Rasmussen et al., 2012;
427	Buisan et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2016; Pan et al., 2016). Measurement errors due to gauge
428	undercatch frequently range between 20% and 50% (Rasmussen et al., 2012). The factors that
429	govern snow undercatch are related to the gauge setting (i.e. shielded and unshielded) (Colli
430	et al., 2015), snowflake characteristics (Theriault et al., 2012), and wind speed (Rasmussen et
431	al., 2012). Despite its importance little information was found in the literature on snow
432	undercatch in Mediterranean regions.
122	Dracinitation phase determination is often done as post processing given that most

Precipitation phase determination is often done as post-processing given that most 433 gauges do not detect the phase. The precipitation phase is required to determine the water 434 435 equivalent during the accumulation season, but also to properly correct precipitation 436 undercatch, and for investigating rain-on-snow events which contribute to the snowpack 437 ablation. Determining precipitation phase from ground observation can be achieved using: (1) 438 thresholds for temperature (e.g., air, dewpoint, and wet bulb) (see Marks et al., 2013), (2) 439 linear transition, range, and sigmoidal curve methods based on near-surface air temperature 440 (e.g., Harpold et al., 2017), and (3) psychrometric energy balance method (Harder and

Pomeroy, 2013). Despite the availability of these methods, one of the major limitation for the proper determination of precipitation phase from ground data is attributed to the lack of meteorological observations for stations in near locations to the precipitation gauges (Harpold et al., 2017).

445 Rain-on-snow events are not uncommon in Mediterranean mountains (Guan et al., 446 2016). These events help in warming the snowpack and add very high sensible heat to the 447 snowpack through condensation, which accelerates melting and sometimes triggers 448 catastrophic floods (McCabe et al., 2007; Surfleet and Tullos, 2013). In the western US, rain-449 on-snow-events appear to be partly driven by the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), the 450 Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) (McCabe et al., 2007; Lute and Abatzoglou, 2014) and 451 atmospheric rivers (Trujillo and Molotch, 2014; Guan et al., 2016). To our knowledge, the 452 impacts of rain-on-snow events were not specifically addressed in regions other than the 453 western US. The analysis of rain-on-snow events remain challenging and warrant future 454 investigation (Wayand et al., 2015).

455 Uncertainties associated with the spatial distribution of precipitation increases with elevation, where differences between datasets ranged between 5 to 60%, exceeding 200 mm 456 457 yr-1 on average, were reported across the western US (Henn et al., 2017). Different 458 methodologies were developed to compute the integrated precipitation in high-elevation 459 watersheds (Valery et al., 2010) and to generate gridded precipitation maps from daily 460 ground observation (see Demaria et al., (2013b) and Lundquist et al., (2015a) for a list of 461 gridded precipitation products). The emergence of gridded precipitation products over the 462 2000s has boosted the research in snow hydrology and facilitated the upscaling of point-scale 463 studies. Precipitation grids are invaluable data for distributed hydrological modeling in both 464 the operational and research context, e.g., to perform climate change impact studies at the 465 scale of river basins (Mernild et al., 2016b). While the overall accuracy of gridded

466 precipitation products has been deemed satisfactory, the biases increase with elevation 467 (Mizukami et al., 2011; Lundquist et al., 2015a). Precipitation-gauge undercatch, a poor 468 knowledge of wind patterns to correct the undercatch, and the lack of in situ input data are 469 sources of errors in the gridded precipitation products (Dettinger, 2014; Lundquist et al., 470 2015b; Mizukami and Smith, 2012). In addition, temporal inconsistencies in multi-year 471 gridded precipitation biases tend to increase the uncertainty in simulating hydrological 472 responses in snow-dominated basins (Mizukami and Smith, 2012).

473 Acquiring precipitation and snowfall from high-resolution satellite-based rainfall 474 (SBR) products (e.g., TRMM and GPM) in mountain regions (Derin et al., 2016), such as the 475 western US (Behrangi et al., 2016), and northeastern Spain (Kenawy et al., 2015), is still 476 hindered by the facts that (1) capturing solid precipitation is practically challenging for 477 TRMM and results are highly biased over snow surfaces, (2) precipitation satellites tend to 478 underestimate the wet season and overestimate dry season precipitation rates over land and 479 should be corrected using in situ measurements, and (3) the performance of gauge correction to SRB is less effective in mountain regions and depends on the representativeness of the 480 481 observation networks.

482 Over the past decade there had been an increase in the use of assimilation techniques 483 and the downscaling of atmospheric model (e.g., Vionnet et al., 2016, Mernild et al., 2016a). 484 These different techniques to estimate precipitation using a combination of ground 485 observations, numerical weather prediction, and remote sensing observations are still not 486 complete and the generated gridded data is at coarser and medium resolution at best (e.g., 487 Quéno et al., 2016). There is more work needed to understand how atmospheric circulation 488 (Jin et al., 2006; Lundquist et al., 2010) and the complex topography at the finer scales 489 (López-Moreno et al., 2015) affects precipitation and snowfall and both topics are interesting 490 field of research. An intercomparison between different gridded precipitation datasets (e.g.,

491 Lundquist et al., 2015a; Henn et al., 2017) across different mountain regions is needed.

492 Reducing the bias in precipitation estimates along altitude and enhancing the spatial

- resolution of gridded precipitation could be the next breakthrough in mountain hydrology.
- 494 4.3. Air temperature

495 The air temperature is the most important factor that determines the precipitation 496 phase (rain or snow), and it is strongly correlated to the snowmelt rate (Jin et al., 2006; Mote, 497 2006; Brown and Petkova, 2007; Kapnick and Hall, 2010). During the melting season in the 498 mid-elevation regions of the Spanish Pyrenes, the increase in the daily snowmelt rates was 499 correlated with the increase in the observed daily temperature (López Moreno and Latron, 500 2008). In many low and mid-elevation Mediterranean mountain regions, changes in the 501 surface air temperature had been previously identified as the major driver for the reduction in 502 the amount of precipitation that falls as snow, the decline in the snow water equivalent, and 503 shifts towards earlier snowmelt (Stewart et al., 2005; Bonfils et al., 2008; Demaria et al. 504 2013a; Pagán et al., 2016).

Similar, to all other meteorological variables, uncertainties associated with measuring the air temperature arise from the lack of AWS in remote and high-elevation mountain areas (Raleigh et al., 2016). However, air temperature is the climatic variable that is the most often available from in situ and gridded-products. In comparison with precipitation, the in-situ measurements of temperature are much less biased and the interpolation methods are more robust. From the papers we could examine, the uncertainty on the precipitation data is generally considered as a more important issue.

512 4.4. Radiation and heat fluxes

513 In Mediterranean mountain regions, the snowpack melt energy is dominated by the 514 radiative fluxes (shortwave and longwave) (Marks and Dozier, 1992; López Moreno et al.,

515 2012). The net radiative flux accounts for approximately 70-80% of the energy for snow melt 516 in regions, such as Sierra Nevada California, Oregon Cascades, Spanish Pyrenees, and the 517 Armenian Plateau (Marks and Dozier, 1992; Şensoy et al., 2006; Mazurkiewicz et al., 2008; López-Moreno et al., 2008b; Hinkelman et al., 2015). However, this contribution varies 518 519 significantly over the time and the location. For instance, the net radiation contribution to 520 melt at three different sites in the Oregon cascades was found to range between 49 and 80% 521 (Mazurkiewicz et al., 2008). Similar results were found in the Armenian Plateau, which 522 indicates that the net radiation fluxes and turbulent fluxes account for 70 to 30% of the melt 523 energy, respectively (Sensoy et al., 2006). Sensible and latent heat transfers were found to be 524 of similar magnitude with an opposite sign, and therefore they tend to cancel each other in 525 some sites during the now-melt season (Marks and Dozier, 1992; Jepsen et al., 2012). A 526 significant amount of snow is lost through sublimation in Mediterranean mountains, 527 approximately 20% of the total snowpack ablation depending on the location, and this 528 amount increases at the end of the snow season (Beaty, 1975; Marks and Dozier, 1992; Jepsen et al., 2012). The net turbulent flux tends to increase during the melt season. Its 529 530 contribution to snowmelt during the entire season was found to range between 0 to 19% in a 531 mountain basin in Sierra Nevada, California (a mean of 10% with a standard deviation of 6% 532 over a time period of 12 years) (Jepsen et al., 2012). The contribution of the turbulent energy fluxes was found to increase under rain-on-snow events, and it accounts for up to 42% of 533 534 snowmelt during such events (Mazurkiewicz et al., 2008). The contribution of turbulent 535 fluxes (i.e., latent and sensible heat fluxes) to melt energy was found to be slightly higher in 536 warmer Mediterranean regions (Atlas Mountain, Iberian Peninsula and Eastern 537 Mediterranean) (Schulz and de Jong, 2004; Herrero et al., 2009; Sade et al., 2014). Under 538 extreme weather conditions (i.e., episodic strong low-humidity winds, clear skies, intense 539 solar radiation, and sudden increases in temperatures), sublimation accounted for up to 40%

of the total loss in snowpack in Sierra Nevada, Spain (Herrero et al., 2009), and similar results were reported for the Atlas Mountain (Schulz and de Jong, 2004) and Mount Hermon (Sade et al., 2014).

In the absence of radiation sensors (pyranometer and pyrgeometer), the incoming 543 544 radiation can be estimated using (1) empirical relationships with surface air temperature and 545 relative humidity (Jepsen et al., 2012; Lundquist et al., 2013) or (2) solar and longwave 546 surface irradiance data from synoptic satellite products (Jepsen et al., 2012; Hinkelman et al., 2015). However, computing radiative fluxes using empirical methods can lead to 547 overestimation errors of up to 50% in the snowmelt rates, which indicates the need for 548 549 enhanced methods that combines satellite products and ground observations (e.g., Hinkelman 550 et al., 2015). The application of such products to Mediterranean mountains should account for 551 the fact that shortwave and longwave radiations vary significantly with elevation, terrain geometry and the forest cover (Aguilar et al., 2010; Raleigh et al., 2013, Lundquist et al., 552 553 2013).

Sensible and latent heat exchange are influenced by surface air temperature, water vapor, and wind speed (Marks and Dozier, 1992; Kim and Kang, 2007; Jepsen et al., 2012). Most of these variables exhibit high spatial variability over the complex mountainous topography (Marks and Dozier, 1992), which makes it difficult to achieve reliable estimates of the contribution of snowmelt from heat fluxes at most sites. Furthermore, while the surface air temperature is measured at most AWS, information on wind speed and humidity are often lacking, and thus, this hinders the calculation of sensible heat fluxes (Raleigh et al., 2016).

561 Our understanding of the energy exchange between the snowpack and the atmosphere 562 in mountains is incomplete. The installation of more complete meteorological stations 563 (including longwave/shortwave sensors and turbulent heat measurement systems) in

564 mountains is needed in order to better characterize the different components of the energy 565 balance. However, this requires solving the issue that eddy covariance systems are not 566 considered reliable in complex terrain.

567 5. Snowpack

#### 568 5.1. In situ observations

Historical studies on snow properties and the quantification of the water that falls as 569 570 snow are more than 300 years old (Grew, 1673), and the importance of snow cover on 571 climate was first highlighted by Woeikof (1885). The first published investigations of 572 snowfall, HS, snow density, SWE and snow melt, and the first method for field sampling of 573 snow and snow instrumentation in California can be dated to the late 19th and early 20th 574 centuries (e.g., Church, 1913). Monthly snowfall observations in California date back to 1878 575 (Christy, 2012). Over the past two decades, there has been a significant increase in the 576 number of studies that investigates HS, snow density, and SWE through manual field sampling (Bocchiola and Groppelli, 2010; Sturm et al., 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2013b; 577 578 Bormann et al., 2013; Ayala et al., 2014), HS measurements using (acoustic) snow depth gauges, SWE measurements with snow pillows, and snow density measurements from HS 579 and SWE observations (e.g., SNOTEL network) (e.g., Rice and Bales, 2010; Meromy et al., 580 2013; Luce et al., 2014). 581

The main variable of interest for snow hydrologists is the SWE, which is obtained by multiplying the snow height by the snow density. The snow height is typically measured with a calibrated snow probe and it is easier to estimate than the snow density, which requires a more elaborate field-work (e.g., Bocchiola and Groppeli, 2010; Sturm et al., 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2011b). Field measurements are usually biased with observational errors (Lundquist et al., 2015b) and uncertainty about the representativeness of in-situ snow depth

588 and density measurements (López-Moreno et al., 2011b, 2013b). Improving the in-situ 589 accuracy of snow course measurements can be achieved by increasing the rate of data 590 sampling along the snow course and minimizing human errors. Findings in the Spanish Pyrenees indicated that increasing the number of in-situ measurements (i.e., using at least five 591 592 snow depth measurements at 5-10 meter intervals) could ensure a bias of less than 10% when estimating the average snow depth at plots of 100  $m^2$  (López-Moreno et al., 2011b). The 593 594 snow density exhibits less variability than the snow depth (López-Moreno et al., 2013b), 595 which implies the need for fewer snow density measurements along each course. Such 596 findings support the US snow courses sampling guidelines, which indicates the need for 10 597 point measurements of HS, SWE, and density at 30 meter interval (over a 300 m transect) 598 (Rice and Bales, 2010). The same applies for snow sampling approaches in other regions (e.g., Watson et al., 2006; Jost et al., 2007). However, collecting in-situ probe measurements 599 600 at larger scales remains challenging. Steeps slopes and high-elevation areas (above 3000 m a.s.l) are unsafe and not easily accessible. Airborne and terrestrial Lidar now enable the 601 602 measurement of HS with a centimetric accuracy at a much higher resolution than manual 603 surveys (Sect. 5.2.4). However, these techniques remain costly and do not provide continuous 604 observation of HS, such as AWS. A terrestrial time-lapse camera is a cost-effective device 605 used to monitor the snow cover variability in both space and time, but its use is restricted to 606 small spatial scales (less than 1 km<sup>2</sup>) (Revuelto et al., 2014). As a result, it is difficult to 607 capture the temporal variability of the HS and SWE by field sampling. On the other hand, 608 continuous AWS measurements of snow depth and SWE remain site specific, and most of the 609 time, they fail to capture the spatial variability of the snowpack due to the spatial 610 heterogeneity of the climate and terrain with respect to the network density (Bales et al., 611 2006; Gottardi et al., 2012; Raleigh et al., 2016).

612 Some regions are equipped with advanced snow observatories and the data are easily 613 accessible (e.g., SNOTEL in the western US) while other mountain regions, such as the 614 Pyrenees, are well covered by ground stations but the data are to be collected from various agencies and are not always publicly distributed (e.g., Gascoin et al., 2015). The 615 616 implementation of snow observatories based on the principles of open data is en route in 617 regions such as Lebanon where snow observations are recently being collected (e.g., Fayad et 618 al., 2017). Extending the ground-based observation networks remains crucial in mountain 619 regions that remain under-sampled. However, it is as important to share these data to foster

620 their use by the scientific community and among water stakeholders.

621 5.2. Remote sensing of seasonal snow cover

The snow cover extent, albedo, height, and water equivalent are the main remote sensing products for snow hydrology, but they have very different levels of accuracy and resolution. Here, we only briefly present the main products that were used in our list of papers. Interested readers can refer to Dietz et al. (2012) and Frei et al. (2012) for further information on snow remote sensing.

5.2.1. Optical remote sensing of the snow cover

The NASA MODIS Aqua/Terra daily snow products (collection 5 MOD10A1 and 628 629 MYD10A1 (Hall et al., 2002)) are the most widely used. These products have provided the 630 binary snow-covered area (SCA) and fractional SCA (fSCA), and the snow albedo at a 500 m 631 resolution since 2000 for Terra and 2002 for Aqua. The SCA product allows the calculation 632 of the snow cover duration (SCD), snow cover start date (SCS) and snow cover melt-out date 633 (SCM). The SCA and fSCA allow the calculation of the snow coverage in a watershed. 634 MODIS snow products were tested and applied in the Sierra Nevada California (Painter et al., 635 2009; Molotch and Meromy, 2014), Pyrenees (Gascoin et al., 2015), Southern Alps (Dedieu

et al., 2014), Moroccan Atlas (Marchane et al., 2015), Armenian Plateau (Tekeli et al., 2006),

and Mount Lebanon (Telesca et al., 2014).

The main limitation of optical snow products is the obstruction by cloud cover. A cloud removal algorithm must be run to generate meaningful snow climatology from MODIS snow products (Gascoin et al., 2015; Marchane et al., 2015). There are also errors related to sensor viewing geometry and forest canopy obstruction (Dozier et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2010;

Dietz et al. 2012; Raleigh et al., 2013; Kostadinov and Lookingbill, 2015).

643 In addition to the MOD10 family, there are more sophisticated approaches to retrieve 644 sub-pixel fSCA, grain size, and albedo from MODIS using spectral unmixing techniques 645 (Painter et al., 2009). The validation of the fSCA against higher resolution snow cover maps 646 data obtained from Landsat ETM+ over the Sierra Nevada California, in particular, indicates 647 their better accuracy compared to the MOD10A1 products (Dozier et al., 2009; Painter et al., 648 2009; Rittger et al., 2013). The accuracy of the fSCA is lower in forested areas, which 649 suggests that there is a need for future research in this direction (Raleigh et al., 2013; 650 Kostadinov and Lookingbill, 2015).

Snow cover extent and snow climatology had also been derived from AVHRR data at a spatial resolution of 1 km for the Alpine region (1985–2011) (Hüsler et al., 2014) and the Armenian Plateau (Tekeli et al., 2005a). Finally, Cortés et al., (2014) proposed and tested a sub-pixel approach for mapping snow and ice cover over the central Andes using spectral unmixing of Landsat imagery at a spatial resolution of 30 m (1986–2013).

Future improvement of snow cover representativeness from optical remote sensing could include better cloud removal and enhanced snow cover mapping in forested regions. Daily SCA from MODIS are hindered by their spatial resolution of 500m which is too coarse to capture snow variability in heterogenous mountain slopes, in regions where snow is ephemeral, and at the end of the season when snow becomes patchy. The Sentinel-2 mission

with its 20 m spatial resolution and 5 days revisit time is expected to provide better accuracy

662 for mapping SCA in the heterogenous mountain regions.

663

5.2.2. Remote sensing of SWE

664 The retrieval of SWE form spaceborne passive microwave (PM) sensors involves a 665 coarser resolution (~25 km) and limited accuracy (Dietz et al., 2012; Frei et al., 2012; 666 Vuyovich et al., 2014; Dozier et al., 2016). Overall, PM sensors tend to underestimate SWE. 667 For example, from April 1st 2014 SWE estimates, the passive microwave AMSR2 sensor 668 underestimated the SWE by 40-75% compared to other SWE retrieval methods (i.e., 669 interpolation from snow pillows and SCA, calculation using SCA and NLDAS, and modeling 670 using SNODAS) (Dozier et al., 2016). Examples from the Mediterranean regions include the 671 use of AMSRE/AMSR2 over the contiguous US (Vuyovich et al., 2014), California (Li et al., 672 2012), the Armenian Plateau (Tekeli, 2008; Sorman and Beser, 2013), and Mount Lebanon 673 (Mhawej et al., 2014), and the use of the Scanning Multichannel Microwave Radiometer 674 (SMMR) and Special Sensor Microwave Imagers (SSM/I) over the Andes (Foster et al., 675 2009).

PM sensors have limited capability in capturing the SWE in regions with ephemeral or patchy snow cover and regions with vegetation cover (Li et al., 2012; Vuyovich et al., 2014), and they exhibit an overall tendency to underestimate SWE during snowfall and melt seasons (Dozier et al., 2016). This was attributed to the high scattering in mountain regions due to relief (Li et al., 2012) and the tendency of PMs to saturate at an SWE value of 120 mm (for wavelengths, 18 GHz as the background signal and 37 GHz as the scattering signal) (Dietz et al. 2012).

Despite these limitations of PMs, a number of studies demonstrated that PMs are able to capture the overall seasonal variations of snow accumulation, melt timing, and season length at the macro scale, and in contrast to imaging spectrometry, they are not affected by

cloud cover (Foster et al., 2009; Vuyovich et al., 2014). Coupling ground-observed data SCA
and PM sensed SWE is being investigated as an alternative for enhancing the SWE
estimation in Mediterranean regions (e.g., Vuyovich et al., 2014; Şorman and Beser, 2013).

689 5.2.3. Snow albedo

690 The importance of snow albedo in Mediterranean regions has been attributed to the 691 fact that most of the snowmelt is dominated by net radiation (Sect. 4.1). A decrease in snow albedo results in an increased amount of absorbed shortwave radiation and eventually, an 692 693 enhancement in the snowmelt. Surface snow albedo changes in Mediterranean mountain 694 regions are associated with snowpack thickness (Tekeli et al., 2006), snow grain size and 695 surface wetness (Dozier et al., 2008, 2009), and snow impurities (mainly mineral dust and 696 organic particles) (Lee and Liou, 2012). In California's Sierra Nevada, the reduction in the 697 snow albedo during the melt season (March to April) is driven by the increase in surface 698 temperature and the increase in the deposition of absorbing aerosols. Both temperature and 699 aerosols contribute to the 61% decrease in snow albedo, and 26% of the albedo reduction was attributed to the increase in the aerosol optical depth (Lee and Liou, 2012). Snow albedo can 700 701 be calculated by observing the incoming and reflected solar radiation at AWS. Given the lack 702 of in-situ observations, many studies have used optical remote sensing techniques. The 703 method to derive snow albedo from imaging spectrometry is well developed in literature 704 (e.g., Dozier and Painter, 2004; Seidel and Martinec 2004; Frei et al., 2012; Deems et al., 705 2013; Tedesco (ed.) 2015). In the Mediterranean context, most studies were conducted in 706 Sierra Nevada, California using MOD10A1 or MODSCAG MODIS albedo products (Painter 707 et al., 2003; Dozier et al., 2009; Lee and Liou, 2012). In the Armenian Plateau, the 708 MOD10A1 albedo was found to be consistent with in situ measurements in terms of 709 magnitude and temporal variability, with a small positive bias due to differences in the 710 acquisition time (Tekeli et al., 2006). On the contrary, in the Spanish Sierra Nevada, the

coarse-resolution albedo products from MODIS and SPOT underestimated the in-situ snow
albedo due to the mixing effects of snow and snow-free patches in a MODIS pixel especially
during the melting periods (e.g., Pimentel et al., 2016).

Advances in airborne hyperspectral remote sensing have enabled the accurate estimation of snow surface cover, grain size and albedo at a relatively higher cost (e.g., Painter et al., 2003). Future research areas in surface snow properties can be found in Dozier et al. (2009), which indicates the need to better understand the spectral characteristics of snow from remote sensing sensors, to further investigate the consequences of dust and other impurities on snow reflectance, and to further investigate the coupling of snow properties and snowpack energy via models (e.g., Oaida et al., 2015).

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#### 5.2.4. High resolution airborne and ground-based remote sensing

723 Over the past few years, a number of studies have used ground-based terrestrial laser scanners (TLS) and airborne LiDAR to measure the snow depth at high spatial resolution 724 with decimetric accuracy (e.g., in California (Harpold et al., 2014; Kirchner et al., 2014; 725 726 Zheng et al., 2016), and the Spanish Pyrenees (Revuelto et al., 2014; López-Moreno et al., 727 2015)). These technologies have enabled numerous fundamental advances in our knowledge 728 of the snow depth distribution (see Sect. 5.4). They also hold potential for operational snow 729 monitoring if their costs can be mitigated; otherwise, their application will remain restricted 730 to relatively small areas, as noted in the scientific literature (<100 km<sup>2</sup>). The NASA Airborne 731 Snow Observatory (ASO) (Painter et al., 2016) is a notable exception since it is run over 732 major water basins in the western US. ASO is composed of an imaging spectrometer and a 733 Lidar altimeter to measure the snowpack reflectance and depth from an aircraft. The SWE 734 maps are produced over 48 hours using the snow reflectance as a proxy for snow density

- 735 (Dozier et al. 2016). Recent alternatives were proposed to determine the snow depth at high
- resolution and at a lower cost: (1) an unmanned aircraft vehicle photogrammetric survey, and
- (2) high-resolution stereo satellite imagery (Marti et al., 2016).
- 5.3. Methods of HS and SWE regionalization

#### 739 5.3.1. Regionalization

Spatial interpolation (regionalization) techniques are required to estimate the 740 741 snowpack water equivalent at the catchment scale. Various statistical models based on the 742 terrain characteristics were proposed to compensate for the low spatial density of snow 743 course surveys and ground station observations. Spatially distributed HS estimates from 744 observations in Mediterranean mountain were represented using: linear regression models, 745 classification trees, generalized additive models (GAMs), regression tree models (e.g., 746 Molotch et al., 2005), and combined tree classification with GAM residuals (e.g., 747 López Moreno and Nogués Bravo, 2006; López-Moreno et al., 2010). Similarly, but at 748 much lower scale, the assimilation of snow cover area maps derived from time-lapse camera 749 images time series was shown to give good results in small Mediterranean pilot catchments, 750 where the snow cover is highly variable and sometimes ephemeral (Pimentel et al., 2015; Revuelto et al., 2016b). 751

752

#### 5.3.2. SWE reconstruction

Dozier et al. (2016) reviewed the methods to generate spatially distributed SWE as follows: (1) spatial interpolation from ground based networks only using statistical models, such as decision trees (Anderton et al., 2004); (2) constrained interpolation by remotely sensed SCA (Girotto et al., 2014); (3) SWE reconstruction using snow modeling (e.g., Raleigh and Lundquist, 2012; Guan et al. 2013b); and (4) reconstruction using data

assimilation (Cortés et al., 2016) (see Sect. 6.1) and backmelt calculations (e.g., Raleigh and
Lundquist, 2012), which may be combined with time-lapse photography (Revuelto et al.,
2016a). The increase in the reliance of SWE reconstruction had been motivated by the
assumption that knowledge of melt energy fluxes would be superior to knowledge of
precipitation accumulation (Cline et al., 1998; Jepsen et al., 2012; Slater et al., 2013).

SWE reconstruction estimates the total volume of snow based on backward calculation of the amount of ablation that occurred prior to the complete removal of snow (Cline et al., 1998). The SWE reconstruction process, as described by Cline et al., (1998), is performed at each pixel by (1) determination of fSCA, (2) computation of the snowmelt energy, and (3) determination of the initial SWE at the beginning of the melt season.

768 Several snowpack models for SWE reconstruction are constantly being tested and 769 enhanced for application in Mediterranean regions, and they range in complexity from (1) 770 simple temperature index models (Daly et al., 2000; Rice et al., 2011; Biggs and Whitaker, 771 2012), to (2) enhanced degree day models (DDMs) that account for net radiation, snow albedo (e.g., Molotch and Bales, 2006), and tree cover (Biggs and Whitaker, 2012), and (3) 772 modified DDMs (based on a modified SRM (Martinec, 1975) (Tekeli et al., 2005b; Sensoy 773 and Uysal, 2012), to (4) energy balance models (Cline et al., 1998; Jepsen et al., 2012; 774 775 Raleigh et al., 2016; Boudhar et al., 2016; Cornwell et al., 2016), and (5) models that perform both forward and backward reconstruction (Raleigh and Lundquist, 2012; Revuelto et al., 776 2016a). 777

SWE reconstruction models have proven to be suitable for many Mediterranean
regions such as the Andes (Cornwell et al., 2016), Sierra Nevada California (Shamir and
Georgakakos, 2006; Rice et al., 2011; Raleigh et al., 2016), Oregon cascades (Sproles et al.,
2013), Pyrenees (Gómez Landesa and Rango, 2002), Alps (Thirel et al., 2012), Turkey
(Tekeli et al., 2005b), and the Atlas Mountains (Boudhar et al., 2016).
783 The uncertainty associated from SWE reconstruction arises from the probable error 784 propagation in model forcing especially in areas where dense observing network are not 785 available (Lundquist et al., 2015b; Dozier et al., 2016). Another source of uncertainty is 786 attributed to the retrieval and spatial resolution of SCA and fSCA from imaging spectrometer 787 (e.g., AVHRR and MODIS) (Sect. 5.2) and return time period (e.g., 16 days for Landsat) 788 (Slater et al., 2013). The Sentinel-2 mission with its 5 days repeat cycle offers the prospect of 789 improving the SWE reconstruction results in regions where the snow cover variability is high 790 (Marti et al., 2016).

791 SWE reconstruction methods based on the use of depletion curves that relate 792 fractional snow cover area to average SWE should consider that there is a hysteresis in the 793 SWE-fSCA relationship (Luce and Tarboton, 2004; Magand et al., 2014; Gascoin et al, 794 2015). In fact, a given snow cover fraction generally corresponds to a smaller snow mass at 795 the beginning of the snow season to that found at the end of the season. This is due to the 796 snowpack evolution along the season, where snow wind redistribution and snowmelt 797 occurring at preferential locations, tend to increase the heterogeneity in the SWE spatial 798 distribution.

The success of the spatial interpolation techniques for the estimation of HS and SWE should encourage the implementation of regular snow surveys and automatic snow stations in less monitored mountain regions, such as the Andes, Atlas Mountains, and Mount Lebanon. In the absence of ground measurements, methods based on SCA data assimilation into an energy balance snow model are the most promising since they rely on publicly available remote sensing and climate datasets (reanalyses) with global coverage (e.g., Kapnick and Delworth, 2013).

#### 806 5.4. Snowpack spatial variability

807

5.4.1. Snow height spatial variability

808	Results from the aforementioned studies indicate that in Mediterranean mountain
809	regions, the spatial distribution of the snow height is driven by meteorological forcing
810	(López-Moreno 2005; Svoma, 2011; Mizukami and Smith, 2012; Bormann et al., 2013; Luce
811	et al., 2014) and topography (elevation, slope, aspect and related radiation parameters) (e.g.,
812	Elder et al., 1998; Anderton et al., 2004; López Moreno and Nogués Bravo, 2006; Rice et
813	al., 2011; Molotch and Meromy, 2014; Revuelto et al., 2014). Canopy interception (e.g.,
814	López-Moreno and Latron, 2008; Revuelto et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2016) plays a secondary
815	role in comparison with other snow regions because most of the snowpack accumulates
816	above the tree line in many Mediterranean mountains. Forest regions are present at mid-
817	altitude mountain regions (2000-2600 m a.s.l) in California (e.g., Rice and Bales, 2010;
818	Musselman et al., 2012), Oregon (Kostadinov and Lookingbill, 2015), and the Pyrenees (e.g.,
819	Gascoin et al., 2015). Snow redistribution due to wind is probably an important process
820	(Gascoin et al., 2013), and it is one of the less explored fields of research in Mediterranean
821	regions. This may be due to the lack of accurate information needed to create reliable wind
822	fields over complex topography. Snow models run using high-resolution meteorological
823	forcing are still unable to capture wind snow redistribution, which usually occurs at the sub-
824	pixel scale (e.g., Quéno et al., 2016). However, the wind redistribution may be less important
825	in Mediterranean mountains than in colder regions due to the higher snowpack densification
826	rates. Table 2 summarizes the contribution of climate forcing and mountain controls
827	potentials in explaining snow distribution and depth, and the level of uncertainty in
828	Mediterranean mountain regions.

829 For example, in Sierra Nevada California, Elder et al., (1998) obtained a model that 830 could explain up to 70% of the observed variance in HS using the elevation, net radiation and 831 slope as predictors. According to Molotch and Meromy, (2014), snow cover persistence is driven by mountain controls where elevation (the most explanatory variable) and climate 832 833 controls of precipitation and temperature determined most of the snow variability. Vegetation 834 and slope ranked second in explaining part of the snow cover variability, whereas shortwave 835 solar radiation and the terrain aspect were of tertiary importance. Similar findings were 836 reported in the Spanish Pyrenees, which indicates that elevation and solar radiation explain a high percentage of the variance in HS (Anderton et al., 2004; López Moreno and 837 838 Nogués Bravo, 2005).

839 Similar findings based on high-resolution airborne lidar were reported from an 840 experiment over a micro-scale snow dominated basin (with an elevation range of 1500-3300 841 m) in the Sierra Nevada, California; the experiment indicated that 43% of snow-depth 842 variability can be explained by elevation, and another 14% is related to the slope, aspect and 843 canopy penetration fraction (Zheng et al., 2016). A ground-based terrestrial laser scanner in 844 the Pyrenees demonstrated that the high resolution topographic position index and maximum 845 upwind slope are more statistically significant ( $\alpha < 0.05$ ) in explaining the intra-annual snow 846 variability compared to the elevation and slope (Revuelto et al., 2014). Snow variability at 847 this scale is further influenced by mountain curvature, whereas the aspect and the computed 848 incoming radiation were found to be less statistically significant when correlated with intra-849 annual snow variability (Revuelto et al., 2014).

Despite these encouraging results, to date, there is no accepted universal law to derive HS or SWE from a set of predictors that can be obtained anywhere. This is because the link between the terrain parameters and the snow distribution is not fully explained at the small scale (e.g., Molotch et al., 2005; López-Moreno et al., 2010, 2015; Revuelto et al., 2014;

Zheng et al., 2016). This quest is hindered in particular by (1) the high inter-annual snow variability in Mediterranean regions, since most studies rely on 1-2 years of sporadic observations (e.g., Anderton et al., 2004; López-Moreno et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2016), and (2) the increase in the scale dependency of the model results (e.g., the importance of elevation) as the grid cell size increases (López-Moreno et al., 2010).

859 The presence of vegetation, especially forest, adds to the ambiguity in explaining 860 topographic control because it modifies meteorological variables, such as wind and the 861 incoming radiation, with difference intensities, which depends on the canopy density, trees 862 trunks and crow size (e.g., Musselman et al., 2012; Harpold et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2016). 863 The snow depth can be significantly reduced by 20% to 80% in forested areas compared with 864 open sites due to interception and the sublimation or melting of the intercepted snow 865 (Revuelto et al., 2015; Szczypta et al., 2015). Information on the impact of vegetation cover 866 on snow interception in Mediterranean mountain regions and elsewhere (Varhola et al., 2010) remains limited and warrants future research (López-Moreno and Latron, 2008; Musselman 867 et al., 2012; Raleigh et al., 2013; Revuelto et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2016). 868

869 Table 2. Main variables influencing the snow depth spatial distribution

Variable	Control Level
Elevation [1-5, 7-9]	Medium to very high
Slope [1-5, 7-9]	Low to high (micro); High (meso-macro)
Curvature [5, 8-9]	High at micro
Exposure [3-5, 7-8]	Low at micro to medium at the micro scale
Radiation [1-3, 5, 7-9]	Low to medium (micro); High (macro)
Relative elevation [2, 5, 8]	Low to very high
Upwind slope [3, 5, 7, 9]	High at micro
Canopy interception [4, 6]	Medium to high

- 870 Radiation: potential incoming solar radiation; Relative elevation (inc. topographic position index (TPI) and 871 combined TPI); Upwind slope: maximum upwind slope.
- 872 Scale (micro 1–102 km<sup>2</sup>; meso 102–104 km<sup>2</sup>; macro > 104 km<sup>2</sup>)
- 873 Sources: [1] Elder et al., 1998; [2] López Moreno and Nogués Bravo, 2005, 2006; [3] Anderton et al., 2004;
- [4] Zheng et al., 2016; [5-6] Revuelto et al., 2014, 2015; [7] Molotch et al., 2005; [8] López-Moreno et al., 2010; and [9] López -Moreno et al., 2015.
- 876

#### 877 5.4.2. Snowpack density

Over most parts of the maritime US, the snowpack density was found to be highly correlated with total precipitation (Svoma, 2011). The variability in snow densities is also driven by the average air temperature during days with no snowfall, the mean snowfall density, the fractional precipitation that falls as snow (Svoma, 2011) and melt-refreeze events (Bormann et al., 2013). At the slope scale, densification processes are further influenced by solar radiation, slope, vegetation cover, and wind exposure (Bormann et al., 2013, Elder et al., 1998).

885 However, the observed spatial variability of the snowpack density in Mediterranean 886 regions is much lower than the spatial variability of the snow height (Mizukami and Perica, 2008; López-Moreno et al., 2013b). As a result, the number of density measurements 887 888 required to derive the SWE may be lower than the number of HS measurements. This has 889 important implications for the monitoring of the snowpack since density measurements in the 890 field are time consuming. Similarly, year-to-year changes are significantly higher for the HS 891 than for the snowpack density (Mizukami and Perica, 2008; Bormann et al., 2013). However, 892 the density should be carefully measured at the start and end of each season when its intra-893 annual variance is maximal (Sturm et al., 2010; López-Moreno et al., 2013b; Bormann et al., 894 2013; Trujillo and Molotch, 2014). The low inter-annual variability of snow density also 895 holds potentials in Mediterranean regions. Climatological values of snow density can be 896 estimated with confidence using few years of measurements (Anderton et al., 2004; 897 Mizukami and Perica, 2008; Meromy et al., 2013), combined with regular HS measurements, 898 to estimate the SWE for hydrological applications in mountains (Mizukami and Perica, 899 2008).

900 5.4.3. SWE

901 Long-term records of SWE (> 50 years) indicate that the maximum snow 902 accumulation is higher and the snow season is shorter in the Oregon Cascades and the 903 California Sierra Nevada than in continental mountain ranges (Trujillo and Molotch, 2014). 904 In the western US, the April 1st SWE (a proxy of the annual peak of SWE) and the snow 905 residence time (SRT) are highly correlated with daily temperature and precipitation (Luce et 906 al., 2014). Hence, the observed decrease in SWE in this region was linked to the regional 907 increase in temperature, and the results were qualitatively consistent with observed trends in 908 temperature and precipitation at nearby stations (Mote, 2003). In the southern Italian Alps, 909 the SWE average and variances are known to a good degree of approximation if continuous 910 information on the accumulated SWE, snow depth, and density are known (Bocchiola and 911 Rosso, 2007). Smaller scale studies in California and Central Andes indicate a higher 912 influence of the slope and maximum upwind slope (Molotch et al., 2005; Welch et al., 2013; 913 Ayala et al., 2014). The influence of the theoretical incoming radiation increased during the 914 melt season, which is in agreement with energy balance model studies (Molotch et al., 2005; 915 Ayala et al., 2014) (Sect. 4). We do not detail the spatial variability of the SWE since it is 916 largely inherited from the HS, as presented above.

#### 917 6. Snowmelt hydrology and hydrogeology

918 Once snowmelt occurs, the snowpack water is channeled through surface outflows 919 and streams, and it undergoes evapotranspiration, subsurface flow and groundwater recharge 920 via deep percolation (e.g., Knowles and Cayan, 2004; Franz et al., 2010; Lundquist and 921 Loheide, 2011; Smith et al., 2013; Manning et al., 2012; Godsey et al., 2014). Given the 922 spatio-temporal variability of the climatic conditions that were highlighted in the previous 923 sections, the closure of the hydrologic budget in Mediterranean snow-dominated basins

remains challenging (e.g., Ralph et al., 2016). In addition, several authors point to a limited
understanding of surface and sub-surface hydrologic processes in mountains (Bales et al.,
2006; Smith et al., 2013).

- 927 6.1. Snowmelt modeling
- 928 6.1.1. Snow melt models

929 Different snowmelt models were applied in the Mediterranean context with 930 significantly varying levels of details between the models. Following DeWalle and Rango 931 (2008), these models can be classified under three categories: (1) statistical snowmelt-runoff 932 methods (e.g., Stewart et al., 2005), (2) temperature index or degree day models (TIM/DDM) 933 (e.g., Null et al., 2010), and (3) physically based distributed-snowmelt models or energy 934 balance models (EBM) (e.g., Herrero et al., (2009) in the Spanish Sierra Nevada, Şensoy et 935 al., (2006) in the Karasu basin, Turkey, and Mernild et al. (2016a) in the Andes). The distinction between these boundaries seems to be fading in the literature as there is a 936 937 tendency towards the use of heterogeneous modeling approaches, and a continuum now 938 exists between the three categories. Martelloni et al., (2013) proposed and tested a modeling 939 scheme, over the Italian Apennines, that is considered as an intermediate approach between 940 temperature index and physically based models. Sproles et al., (2016) used a modified snowmelt runoff model (SRM), which was run using MODIS SCA data, to investigate 941 942 snowmelt forecasts in the data-poor regions of the Chilean Andes.

Major sources of uncertainty in snow melt simulation arise from (1) the error in the input data (particularly precipitation), (2) reliance on DDM (due to limited information on incoming and reflected radiation and fluxes), which usually translates into the lack of accounting of snow sublimation, and (3) the model parameterization regarding rain/snow separation and turbulent fluxes (Franz et al., 2010; He et al., 2011; Raleigh and Lundquist,

948 2012; Slater et al., 2013; Avanzi et al., 2014). Snow model intercomparison studies in 949 Mediterranean mountain regions (Franz et al., 2010; Slater et al., 2013) and elsewhere 950 (Molotch and Margulis, 2008; Essery et al., 2013; Bavera et al., 2014) indicate that while very large differences can exist between models (different melt algorithms), proper 951 952 simulation of snowmelt is highly associated with the proper parameterization of models (e.g., 953 Smith et al., 2013) and the model's ability to solve SWE with high confidence (e.g., Franz et 954 al., 2010). To the best of our knowledge the only snow-hydrological model comparison 955 studies, which include Mediterranean catchments, are the studies of Franz et al., (2010) and 956 Valéry et al. (2014a, 2014b). We believe that there is a need for testing and comparing 957 different snow models and carrying out meaningful intercomparison exercises across 958 different Mediterranean mountain regions. The reader is advised to look at model 959 parameterizations and sensitivity (Clark et al., 2011; Garcia et al., 2013), the intercomparison 960 in forested snow regions (e.g., Essery et al., 2009; Rutter et al., 2009), the influence of soil 961 moisture response on snow distribution and melt (Bales et al., 2011; Kerkez et al., 2012; Harpold et al., 2015), single model SRM multi-site comparison (e.g., Martinec and Rango, 962 963 1986; Seidel and Martinec, 2004; DeWalle and Rango, 2008), ensemble model simulations 964 (e.g., Franz et al., 2010; Essery et al., 2013), and the snow model intercomparison project (MIP) (e.g., DMIP (Smith et al., 2013) and SNOWMIP2 (Essery et al., 2009)). 965

966

#### 6.1.2. Large-scale land surface models and assimilation techniques

The modeling of large-scale distributed cryospheric processes had been made possible through the application of the following: (1) finer scale land surface models with snow schemes (e.g., Boone et al. 2004; Livneh et al., 2010; Brun et al., 2013; Magand et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2015); (2) physically based simulations using mesoscale WRF model (Caldwell et al., 2009; Pavelsky et al., 2011, 2012; Wayand et al., 2013; Liou et al., 2013; Franz et al., 2014; Oaida et al., 2015); (3) blending snow sensor observations and remote sensing data

with snowmelt model simulations (e.g., Guan et al. 2013a; Rittger et al., 2016), and using
data assimilation (e.g., Franz et al., 2014; Girotto et al., 2014) of ground and remote sensing
data with Land Surface Model (Zaitchik and Rodell, 2009; Hancock et al., 2013) and Snow
Data Assimilation System (SNODAS) (Guan et al., 2013a; Vuyovich et al., 2014); and (4)
reanalysis of ground data (Gottardi et al., 2012; Avanzi et al., 2014), remote sensing data
(Margulis et al., 2016), and land surface data (e.g., Durand et al., 2009; Vidal et al., 2010;
Rousselot et al., 2012; Rutz et al., 2014).

980 While such techniques can capture large-scale variability in the cryospheric system, 981 most of these techniques are still hindered by (1) limited ground data and dependence on the 982 representativeness of the observation network (e.g., Livneh et al., 2010; Guan et al., 2013a; 983 Balsamo et al., 2015; Dozier et al., 2016); (2) uncertainties in the quality of forcing data 984 (surface meteorological and radiative forcing) (Livneh et al., 2010; Pavelsky et al., 2011; 985 Gottardi et al., 2012; Liou et al., 2013; Guan et al., 2013a); (3) model parameterization and the number of model simplifications of physical phenomena (Livneh et al., 2010); (4) 986 987 limitations in mountain environments (Gottardi et al., 2012; Wayand et al., 2013; Wrzesien et 988 al., 2015), which are attributed to the downscaling of surface forcing over topographically 989 complex areas (Livneh et al., 2010; Guan et al., 2013a); (5) fSCA data retrieval gaps due to 990 cloud contamination (Guan et al., 2013a); (6) lack in accounting for the spatial variability 991 snow of albedo (Livneh et al., 2010; Guan et al., 2013a); (7) accounting for canopy/forest 992 cover (Livneh et al., 2010; Guan et al., 2013a); and (8) tendency towards reporting earlier 993 snowmelt/depletion (Pavelsky et al., 2011; Wrzesien et al., 2015) and higher biases observed 994 during snow depletion (Wrzesien et al., 2015) ablation seasons (Guan et al., 2013a).

996 6.2. Snowmelt contribution to runoff and groundwater

997 While rainfall defines most of the hydrograph shape in the mid to low mountain 998 regions, the streamflow in higher elevation areas (typically above 2000 m a.s.l.) is dominated 999 by snowmelt (López-Moreno and García-Ruiz 2004; Wayand et al., 2013; Jepsen et al. 1000 2016a). In the western US, snowmelt-dominated rivers reach their highest sustained flow 1001 during the spring melt season, whereas rain-dominated rivers achieve their highest sustained 1002 flows during the winter rainy season (Lundquist and Cayan, 2002). Streamflow was estimated to peak 2-4 weeks earlier in transitional rain-snow-dominated basins compared to snow-1003 1004 dominated basins (Ashfaq et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013). Processes controlling the water 1005 transfer through overland, subsurface and groundwater flow are reasonably well understood 1006 (e.g., Jefferson et al., 2008; Tague and Grant, 2009; Smith et al., 2013; Wayand et al., 2013). However, the effect of the snowpack dynamics on those processes is one of the foremost 1007 1008 challenges in the hydrology of Mediterranean mountains.

1009 6.2.1. Snowmelt runoff

The simulation of the streamflow in snow-dominated Mediterranean regions was 1010 1011 successfully achieved using lumped rainfall-runoff models with a snowmelt routine (e.g., Karpouzos et al., 2011), a distributed statistical model that combines remote sensing SCA and 1012 1013 ground observation (e.g., Gómez Landesa and Rango, 2002; Powell et al., 2011; Akyurek et 1014 al., 2011; Biggs and Whitaker, 2012), and a physically based distributed hydrologic model 1015 that balances both surface energy and water budgets and accounts for snowmelt using 1016 snowpack energy balance routines, such as the variable infiltration capacity (VIC) model 1017 (Maurer et al., 2007) and the Distributed Hydrology Soil Vegetation Model (DHSVM) (e.g., 1018 Wayand et al., 2013; Cristea et al., 2014). Apart from the modeling approach, the relationship 1019 between snowmelt and streamflow in Mediterranean snow-dominated regions has also been

successfully addressed by the empirical analysis of streamflow data against observed SWE
(Lundquist et al., 2004) and tracer tests (Liu et al., 2013).

1022 There is a global agreement that the total annual runoff volume will decrease, in regions such as California, under a warming climate (Jepsen et al., 2016a). Changes in snow-1023 1024 fed streamflow volume are controlled by the (1) annual snow mass (total snowfall) and melt 1025 rates (e.g., Lundquist et al., 2005; Franz and Karsten, 2013; Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014; 1026 Godsey et al., 2014), and (2) subsurface processes (Liu et al., 2013; Jepsen et al., 2016a). Controls driven by (1) soil moisture and water holding capacity (Costa-Cabral et al., 2013), 1027 (2) vegetation cover (Biggs and Whitaker, 2012; Cristea et al., 2014), (3) evapotranspiration 1028 1029 (Lundquist and Loheide, 2011; Goulden et al., 2012; Godsey et al., 2014), and (4) 1030 groundwater storage (Godsey et al., 2014) are usually site specific and vary depending on soil 1031 type (e.g., soil water holding capacity), and the groundwater storage capacity and flow time 1032 (e.g., the low capacity and faster travel time in Karst). A study carried in a snow-rain transition mountain region in the Southern Sierra Nevada, California indicated that 1033 streamflow generation is controlled by subsurface flow (average relative contribution to 1034 1035 streamflow discharge was greater than 60%), snowmelt runoff including rain on snow (less 1036 than 40%), and fall storm runoff (less than 7%), whereas soil water in the unsaturated zone and regional groundwater were not significant contributors to streamflow (Liu et al., 2013). 1037 1038 In the Spanish Pyrenees, using a single multiple regression model, the contribution of 1039 snowpack to spring runoff was estimated to be a 42% for the 1955-2000 period (López-1040 Moreno and García-Ruiz, 2004). In the Anti Lebanon Mountain, the karst formation has a 1041 short-term influence characterized by an intra-annual patterns of fast spring discharges 1042 (Koeniger et al., 2016).

1043 Regional long-term trends in the snowmelt-generated streamflow in California are 1044 believed to be controlled by long-term decadal changes and spring warming temperature

1045 trends (e.g., Stewart et al., 2005; Maurer et al., 2007). Whereas, the inter-annual variations of 1046 snowmelt and streamflow timing are driven by regional temperature fluctuations and precipitation anomalies (Stewart et al., 2005). It is clear that temperature and precipitation 1047 alone cannot explain the entire variability in snowmelt onset and streamflow peak timing and 1048 1049 that changes are also influenced by elevation (Maurer et al., 2007; Biggs and Whitaker, 2012; 1050 Wayand et al., 2013) and shifts in snowfall-snowmelt patterns in regions, such as California 1051 (Godsey et al. 2014), and the Spanish Sierra Nevada (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014). In 1052 Mediterranean regions, a shift in streamflow timing would have profound implications on water management by reducing the available water resources in late spring and summer when 1053 1054 the precipitation is low (e.g., Stewart et al., 2005; Tanaka et al., 2006; López-Moreno et al., 1055 2008b; Vicuña et al., 2011). In California, changes in snowmelt and streamflow onset timing, 1056 at the micro- and mesoscale, were found to respond non-linearly to the increase in temperature (Lundquist and Flint, 2006). Snowmelt-driven streamflow timing, at smaller 1057 1058 scales, is strongly dominated by solar radiation and the combined effect of solar radiation exposure (a function of aspect, elevation and time of the year) and temperature (a function of 1059 elevation and shading) (Lundquist and Flint, 2006). These results highlight the need to 1060 account for solar radiation, meteorological forcing, and topography when addressing 1061 snowmelt and streamflow responses in Mediterranean-like regions (Wayand et al., 2013). 1062 Diurnal snow-dominated streamflow patterns are also sensitive to the basin size (Lundquist et 1063 al., 2005). At the micro-scale (< 30 km<sup>2</sup>), travel times through the snowpack dominate 1064 1065 streamflow timing, whereas in mesoscale basins (>200 km<sup>2</sup>), streamflow peaks are more 1066 consistent, with little or no variation, due to snowpack heterogeneity and the longer travel 1067 percolation times through deeper snowpacks and stream channels.

1068 6.2.2. Snowpack control on soil moisture and evapotranspiration

The role of the soil water holding capacity in controlling soil moistures and evapotranspiration is usually site specific (Christensen et al., 2008; Maurer et al., 2010; Bales et al., 2011; Schlaepfer et al., 2012; Tague and Peng, 2013; Harpold et al., 2015; Jepsen et al., 2016a, 2016b). The interaction between snowmelt and soil moisture is subject to soil physical properties (texture) and soil depth (Schlaepfer et al., 2012; Bales et al., 2011; Harpold, 2016).

At present, little information is available on soil water holding capacities at high 1074 1075 elevations (e.g., Christensen et al., 2008; Bales et al., 2011; Costa-Cabral et al., 2013). 1076 Information on the soil water potential and water table depth is useful to explain the runoff generation processes (Latron and Gallart, 2008). An increase in temperature would not only 1077 1078 reduce the snow accumulation but also increase the soil water storage and evapotranspiration 1079 in snow-dominated basins (Maurer et al., 2010; Tague and Peng, 2013; Wu et al., 2015). The 1080 acquisition of soil moisture data in snow-dominated mountain regions would aid a better understanding and forecasting snowmelt runoff (Kerkez et al., 2012). 1081

of studies investigated evapotranspiration in snow-influenced number 1082 А Mediterranean mountains, mostly in California Sierra Nevada (Leydecker and Melack, 2000; 1083 Dettinger et al. 2004; Bales et al., 2011; Lundquist and Loheide, 2011; Tague and Peng, 1084 1085 2013; Costa-Cabral et al., 2013; Goulden and Bales, 2014; Jepsen et al., 2016b; Harpold, 2016), Sierra Nevada Spain (Aguilar et al., 2010), and Southern Italy (Senatore et al., 2011). 1086 1087 The interplay between snowmelt and evapotranspiration was most of the time addressed 1088 using modeling approaches that do not explicitly account for snowpack dynamics (e.g., 1089 Aguilar et al., 2010; Lundquist and Loheide, 2011; Tague and Peng, 2013; Jepsen et al., 2016a). 1090

1091 In Mediterranean regions, high-elevation areas are usually snowmelt-dominated 1092 whereas lower-regions are evapotranspiration/infiltration-dominated (Lundquist and Cayan, 1093 2002). Evapotranspiration tends to be low during the winter season through the beginning of the melt season due to the presence of the snow cover and at late summer and autumn due to 1094 1095 soil dryness. During the melt season, the combined effect of increasing air temperatures and 1096 solar radiation tends to accelerate snowmelt, enhance water availability in soil, and increase 1097 surface temperature, which results in increased evapotranspiration (Leydecker and Melack, 2000). The inter-annual evapotranspiration is controlled by elevation and aspect, which 1098 1099 define the amount of incoming solar radiation (Goulden et al., 2012; Lundquist and Loheide, 1100 2011). Evapotranspiration in mid-altitude regions is usually water-limited, i.e., controlled by 1101 the precipitation (Christensen et al., 2008; Lundquist and Loheide, 2011), whereas in higher 1102 snow-dominated regions, it is relatively energy-limited, i.e., it responds more strongly to 1103 temperature variations (Christensen et al., 2008; Lundquist and Loheide, 2011; Schlaepfer et al., 2012; Godsey et al., 2014; Jepsen et al., 2016a). Based on a number of papers reported in 1104 Jepsen et al., (2016a), the evapotranspiration in Sierra Nevada California under a warming 1105 climate, has an overall tendency to increase (medium confidence) in snow-dominated 1106 1107 regions, and some regions are either susceptible to warming or expected to experience a 1108 slight decrease.

1109

#### 6.2.3. Groundwater recharge

Groundwater studies in Mediterranean mountain are most of the time presented at the basin scale and they provide little information on the link between snowpack dynamics and groundwater processes. Groundwater recharge in snow-dominated regions is dominated by the timing of the snowmelt (early or late spring) and the subsurface flow (Tague and Grant, 2009). In groundwater-dominated watersheds, the aquifer storage and the slow recession can help in sustaining discharge during the summer dry periods even under a negative yearly

1116 water balance (Jefferson et al., 2008). Despite its importance, the lack of extended studies has 1117 resulted in the availability of negligible information on the extent of snowpack control on 1118 groundwater resources in most Mediterranean mountains (e.g., Palmer et al., 2007; Lowry et al., 2010, 2011; Liu et al., 2013; Valdés-Pineda et al., 2014). The separation between rain-1119 1120 fed and snow-fed groundwater recharge is still incomplete due to a number of factors: (1) 1121 lack of groundwater wells and monitoring networks, (2) complex geology especially in karst 1122 regions (e.g., Hartmann et al., 2014; Tobin and Schwartz, 2016), and (3) the complexity of 1123 subsurface flows in mountain regions (e.g., Knowles and Cayan, 2004; Tague and Grant, 1124 2009; Millares et al., 2009; Godsey et al., 2014). A comprehensive review on the different groundwater mechanisms and the importance of snow in groundwater recharge under 1125 1126 projected warming scenarios over the western US can be found in the work of Meixner et al., 1127 (2016).

The link between snowmelt and groundwater spring discharge at the mesoscale in 1128 Mediterranean regions was addressed by using hydrochemical analysis. Studies on 1129 experimental snow-influenced micro- to mesoscale basins in Sierra Nevada California 1130 1131 (Taylor et al., 2001; Friedman et al., 2002; Rademacher et al., 2005; Huth et al., 2004; Shaw et al., 2014), Oregon (Palmer et al., 2007), Serra da Estrela Mountain Portugal (Carreira et 1132 al., 2011), Sierra Nevada Spain (Fernández Chacón et al., 2010), and the Southern Italian 1133 1134 Alps (Penna et al., 2015) demonstrated the potentials for using stable isotopic analysis for hydrograph separation between snow-fed, rain-fed and groundwater-fed sources and to 1135 investigate flow paths (Bales et al., 2006), and the evolution of snowmelt (Taylor et al., 1136 1137 2001). Tracer tests were used to (1) separate between snowmelt runoff (including rain on 1138 snow) (Williams et al., 2001), subsurface flow and fall storm runoff (Liu et al., 2013; Perrot 1139 et al., 2014) and shallow evapotranspired groundwater from groundwater sources (Shaw et 1140 al., 2014), and (2) investigate meltwater-driven surface runoff and catchment transit time

1141 (e.g., McGuire and McDonnell, 2010). General chemical analyses also provided reliable 1142 information on the state of water residence time in springs (Rademacher et al., 2005). The 1143 karst aquifers are of particular relevance in the Mediterranean region since they represent a key source of freshwater supply for the people living in the Mediterranean basin (Doummar 1144 et al., 2014). The estimation of groundwater recharge from snowmelt in karst regions had 1145 1146 been limited to mid and low latitude micro-scale snow-influenced mountainous regions with 1147 studies in southern Europe Spain (Andreo et al., 2004), Italy (Allocca et al., 2014), Greece 1148 (Novel et al., 2007), and the eastern Mediterranean regions of Mount Lebanon (Bakalowicz et 1149 al., 2007). A pioneering study in the mid-altitude mountain region in Crete showed promise 1150 for simulating the contribution of snowmelt to karst hydrosystems by coupling a karstic 1151 model and an energy balance snow model (Kourgialas et al., 2010).

1152 New opportunities for the separation between SWE, surface water reservoir storage, 1153 soil moisture, ET, and changes in groundwater storage have been made possible using the GRACE mission (Famiglietti et al., 2011; Scanlon et al., 2012) and finer-resolution land-1154 surface models (Singh et al., 2015). The use of global position system (GPS) vertical land 1155 1156 motion observations in the California Central Valley (Ouellette et al., 2013; Argus et al., 2014; Boniface et al., 2015) and Oregon (Fu et al., 2015) seems to show potential for 1157 estimating terrestrial water storage while accounting for snow accumulation and melt. While 1158 these studies are encouraging, they are still limited to the regional scale due to the coarse 1159 resolution of the GRACE observations (approximately 300 km). 1160

#### 1161 **7.** Conclusion

The review of 620 papers published between 1913 and 2016 demonstrated that the science behind snowpack dynamics (energy and mass fluxes) and hydrological process in Mediterranean mountain regions is well developed. The number of studies that are dedicated

1165 to the snow in Mediterranean regions also reflects the societal importance of the topic in the 1166 context of climate change, economic development and population growth. The use of 1167 indicators helped in highlighting major snow hydrologic processes in Mediterranean mountains. In specific areas, such as in identifying major drivers for snowpack dynamics, it 1168 was difficult to draw definitive conclusions given the variety of approaches (e.g., different 1169 1170 major drivers and methods). Our classification of Mediterranean mountains encompasses a 1171 large range of geologic and physiographic conditions. Despite the fact that the theory behind 1172 hydrologic processes in mountains is well established, drawing a common conclusion remains difficult beyond the case studies because the limited number of studies in this area of 1173 1174 research area and the variety of approaches used (e.g., different models).

1175 Mediterranean snow-influenced regions are marked by a high inter- and intra-annual 1176 climate variability that shapes up most of the hydrologic processes. As a result, the snow 1177 depth, snow density, and snow water equivalent exhibit high inter- and intra-annual variance. In addition, the snowpack is affected by higher densification rates compared to other climate 1178 regions. The snowpack energy and mass balances are dominated by radiation fluxes, which 1179 1180 account for most of the energy available for melt. The contribution of sensible and latent heat fluxes to ablation becomes prominent at the end of the snowmelt season. Snow sublimation 1181 1182 is more pronounced in the high-elevation zones, whereas snowmelt dominates the warmer, 1183 low to mid-elevation regions. The role of snow metamorphism (grain size and albedo) on the 1184 melt onset is still an open field of research. There is also room for improving snow mapping 1185 in forests and assessing the impact of absorbed impurities on radiative exchange at the snow 1186 surface. In particular, the snowpack in the Mediterranean basin is exposed to the deposition 1187 of mineral dust from the surrounding desert areas in Middle East and North Africa.

1188 In Mediterranean mountain regions snowmelt are exposed to (1) periods of low 1189 precipitation or high temperature causing "snow drought" (Cooper et al., 2016), (2)

heatwaves, (3) rain on snow events, and (4) and dust deposition on the snowpack. Increasing air temperatures will lead to a shift in precipitation regime with elevation (i.e., rain to snow and increase in rain-on-snow events). The dust deposition tends to enhance the snow melt by increasing the radiative exchange due to the decrease of snow albedo. Understanding snowmelt sensitivity to these climate variables is of primary importance to improving our knowledge on the hydrologic processes and water resources system responses in mountain regions and downstream areas.

In situ networks are often too sparse given the aforementioned spatial variability and 1197 most of the monitoring stations only monitor few meteorological variables needed to solve 1198 1199 the energy budget of the snowpack. The increasing availability of remote sensing data, 1200 especially in the visible domain, has enabled scientific breakthroughs, such as the 1201 reconstruction of the SWE at the mountain scale with a decametric resolution for the last 30 1202 years (Margulis et al., 2016). Limitations associated with passive microwave and radar are physically linked to the band width and are likely to remain in the near future. Moreover, 1203 airborne techniques (e.g., NASA's ASO (Painter et al., 2016)) are an option for acquiring 1204 1205 highly detailed and direct estimates of HS and SWE once their high operational costs are 1206 reduced.

Data assimilation portability to different regions is hindered by the reliance on larger 1207 data sets as input variables. In regions with limited ground-based observations, model outputs 1208 1209 can be biased by an increased uncertainty. Similarly, the reliance on multiple other 1210 technologies (e.g., ground-based and remote sensing observations) makes the system highly 1211 dependent on the simultaneous availability of data from all systems (Guan et al., 2013a). The 1212 results using reanalysis of remote sensing data (Margulis et al., 2016) and physically based 1213 simulations run using the mesoscale WRF model (e.g., Caldwell et al., 2009; Wayand et al., 1214 2013) seem to provide better results of SWE in regions with limited station data. One of the

promising areas for research is the development of combined products, which include groundobservations and remotely sensed data through data assimilation in snowpack models.

1217 Conducting snow measurements in less monitored regions such as Lebanon's mountains and the Atlas Mountains is required, and these investigations can make use of the 1218 1219 extended knowledge gained from other Mediterranean regions. In the meantime, the models 1220 based on climate reanalysis and remote sensing data are more easily transferrable. Snow 1221 density and SWE spatiotemporal variability can be estimated, with an acceptable accuracy, using a few years of ground observation (e.g., Anderton et al., 2004; Mizukami and Perica, 1222 1223 2008). Maintaining the existing in situ network is critical for monitoring the snowpack 1224 response to climate change. Free access to open software and snow and meteorological data 1225 in the western US has allowed an intense development of the snow science in this region. 1226 This review suggests that a similar open data, open code policy is the path forward for other 1227 Mediterranean regions. Although snow models, hydrological models and land surface models are increasingly distributed as open source software, data assimilation codes are less 1228 available. There is still need for more collaboration in terms of standardizing and sharing 1229 1230 data. It is important, that snow observations, measurements and analysis are documented and archived in online snow data repositories (Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015) to serve as a source of 1231 1232 information and provide data that can be used for research purposes and intercomparison 1233 projects.

Advancing our understanding of hydrological processes in Mediterranean mountains is partly hindered by the sparse meteorological stations and hydrological gauging networks, and the large uncertainty in key variables, such as the stream flow in headwaters catchments (Avanzi et al., 2014; Lundquist et al., 2015b; Raleigh et al., 2016). In addition, there remain challenges in taking advantage of these advances in catchment hydrology because the response of the streamflow to the snowmelt is modulated by other hydrologic processes (ET,

1240 infiltration, groundwater flow). These processes are more strongly influenced by the 1241 subsurface properties (soil, geology), and hence, they are less easily constrained by current 1242 observational networks, remote sensing and modeling technologies. Closing on the water 1243 balance in Mediterranean mountain regions seems to be only feasible when these processes 1244 are solved simultaneously. Understanding of the connection between snowmelt, streamflow, 1245 evapotranspiration, and groundwater flow in snow-dominated regions is an open field for 1246 future research (e.g., Jefferson et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013; Godsey et al., 2014; Jepsen et al., 1247 2016a). Furthermore, there is a need to integrate human processes, such as reservoir 1248 management and irrigation, to investigate the vulnerability of the water resources under global change scenarios (e.g., Maurer et al., 2007; López-Moreno et al., 2008b; Viviroli et al., 1249 1250 2011; Anghileri et al., 2016).

1251 Snowpack response to climate variability and change remains one of the critical issues 1252 in Mediterranean mountains that motivated many of the reviewed studies (e.g., Guan et al., 2012, 2013b). Projected scenarios indicate a marked warming and increased dryness in 1253 Mediterranean regions, which will amplify the transition from a snow-dominated to a rain-1254 1255 dominated in mid elevation watersheds, and reduce the seasonal SWE and its persistence. 1256 These snow-related changes may have broad implications on evapotranspiration, groundwater recharge and runoff in many Mediterranean catchments. Mediterranean snow dominated 1257 1258 basins are vulnerable to the increase in temperature and recurring dry periods. The 1259 sustainability of the water system, in the lowland regions, requires better understanding of the 1260 seasonal snow water storage and release as well as the quantification of uncertainties 1261 associated to the projected climate change, population growth, and land-use changes on the 1262 hydrologic responses of mountainous basins (e.g., Barnett et al., 2008; Morán-Tejeda et al., 1263 2014). These challenges remain partially understood and warrant future research to anticipate 1264 their management in the coming decades.

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2198 2199	<ul> <li>snow distribution and densification rates are marked by high intra-annual variability</li> <li>snow cover persistence is mainly controlled by precipitation and elevation</li> </ul>
2200	<ul> <li>snowmelt is driven by radiative fluxes</li> <li>best flux contribution to ensumelt increases during best waves and rain on ensurements.</li> </ul>
2201	<ul> <li>near flux contribution to snowment increases during near waves and rain-on-snow events</li> <li>snow sublimation is an important component of snow ablation in high-elevation regions</li> </ul>
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