1		Review of snow cover variation over the Tibetan Plateau
2		and its influence on the broad climate system
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23 Abstract:

Variation in snow cover over the Tibetan Plateau (TP) is a key component of climate 24 25 change and variability, and critical for many hydrological and biological processes. This review first summarizes recent observed changes of snow cover over the TP, including 26 27 the relationship between the TP snow cover and that over Eurasia as a whole; recent climatology and spatial patterns; inter-annual variability and trends; as well as projected 28 changes in snow cover. Second, we discuss the physical causes and factors contributing 29 to variations in snow cover over the TP, including precipitation, temperature, and 30 31 synoptic forcing such as the Arctic Oscillation and the westerly jet, and large scale ocean-atmosphere oscillations such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ESNO), the 32 33 Indian Ocean dipole, and the southern annular mode. Third, linkage between snow 34 cover over the TP and subsequent weather and climate systems are discussed, including the East and South Asian Summer Monsoons, and their subsequent precipitation 35 regimes. Finally, new perspectives and unresolved issues are outlined, including 36 37 changes in extreme events and related disasters (e.g., avalanches), the use of novel datasets, the possible elevation dependency in snow cover change, expected snow cover 38 changes under 1.5°C and 2°C global warming, the physical mechanisms modulating 39 climate extremes in the region, and the linkage between snow cover variation and 40 atmospheric pollution. Despite a large body of work over the TP, we argue that there is 41 a need for more comparative studies using multiple snow datasets, and snow cover 42 43 information over the western TP and during summer would benefit from more attention in the future. 44

45 Key words: Tibetan Plateau; Snow cover; Asian summer monsoon; Climate change

46 **1 Introduction**

47 Snow and its properties (e.g. snow cover extent, snow depth, snowfall, snow water equivalent) play an important role in the global energy and water cycles, particularly at 48 49 high elevations. Snow exerts a strong control on regional climate and energy balance 50 due to its high albedo and high emissivity as well as low thermal conductivity [Brown and Mote, 2009; Groisman et al., 1994a; Groisman et al., 1994b; S C Kang et al., 2010; 51 X Li et al., 2008; C D Xiao et al., 2007; C D Xiao et al., 2008; M Yang et al., 2010; M 52 53 Yang et al., 2019; Yasunari, 2007; Zuo et al., 2011; Zuo et al., 2012]. The presence of snow increases surface albedo and reduces absorbed shortwave radiation. When snow 54 melts it increases the latent heat sink at the expense of sensible heat, resulting in 55 56 regional cooling over snow-covered regions. Moreover, snow is also a critical component of the hydrological system in middle/high altitude regions, providing an 57 reservoir of water and acting as a buffer controlling river discharge and associated 58 environmental processes [Barnett et al., 2005; Groisman et al., 1994a; Groisman et al., 59 1994b; Huang et al., 2016; IPCC, 2013; X Li et al., 2008; Oin et al., 2014; Räisänen, 60 2008; T Zhang, 2005; Zuo et al., 2012]. The thickness and melting of snow can affect 61 soil temperature, associated soil freezing and thawing processes [M Yang et al., 2010; 62 M Yang et al., 2019] and soil moisture regimes, which in turn affects biochemical cycles 63 [Ren et al., 2019; Seneviratne et al., 2010]. 64 The Tibetan Plateau (TP), averaging over 4000 m above sea level, is called the "Third 65

66 Pole" and contains the largest volume of cryospheric extent (e.g. snow, ice, glacier,

67	permafrost) outside the polar regions [Immerzeel and Bierkens, 2012; S C Kang et al.,
68	2010; X Liu and Chen, 2000; Qin et al., 2006; J. Qiu, 2008; Jane Qiu, 2013; 2016; K
69	Yang et al., 2011; T Yao et al., 2019]. According to the Fifth Assessment Report of the
70	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [IPCC, 2013], global mean surface
71	temperature shows a warming of 0.85°C during 1880-2012. However, the TP has
72	warmed much more rapidly. In situ observations, reanalyses and climate models show
73	a clear amplification of the warming rate over the TP in recent decades [T Yao et al.,
74	2019; You et al., 2016; You et al., 2019]. For example, annual warming rate over the TP
75	during 1961-2013 is measured at 0.3°C decade ⁻¹ [You et al., 2017; You et al., 2011; You
76	et al., 2016], around twice the global rate for the same period [D Chen et al., 2015; S C
77	Kang et al., 2010; X Liu and Chen, 2000]. Although snow over the TP is currently a
78	vital water source for all of China, it is an extremely sensitive element to warming $[J$
79	Gao et al., 2019; T Yao et al., 2012; T Yao et al., 2015; T Yao et al., 2019]. Under the
80	background of global warming, snow cover is anticipated to decrease being controlled
81	by the temperature threshold of 0°C [Brown, 2000; Brown and Mote, 2009; IPCC, 2013;
82	Sun et al., 2018; Vuille et al., 2018; Vuille et al., 2008]. In addition to having
83	consequences for hydrological and biological processes, snow cover also acts as a
84	control on broad climate change and climate systems over the TP and its surroundings
85	through interactions with atmospheric circulation systems [Bao et al., 2018; WLi et al.,
86	2018b; Shen et al., 2015; R Zhang et al., 2016].
87	Although much research has examined changes in snow characteristics and subsequent

Although much research has examined changes in snow characteristics and subsequent
effects over the TP and its surroundings, there are still uncertainties and limitations. In

this study, we review recent studies and attempt to quantify recent and future changes in snow cover. The climatology of snow cover over the TP is summarized in section 2. In section 3, physical factors contributing to snow cover variability over the TP are discussed. The broad consequences of snow cover over the TP and its influence on climate systems are discussed in section 4. Section 5 summarizes some new perspectives on snow cover over the TP and Section 6 concisely summarizes the way forward.

96

97 **2** Recent climate change of snow cover over the TP

98 2.1 Relationship between snow cover over the TP and wider Eurasia

99 Snow cover over the TP has often been examined in tandem with that over the broad 100 Eurasian continent, since the TP is usually considered to be a sub-section of the Eurasian sector [Clark and Serreze, 2000; Zhong et al., 2018]. Snow cover over the 101 high latitudes of Eurasia has decreased significantly over the last 40 years and the rate 102 of decrease has accelerated [Brown and Robinson, 2011]. In March, Eurasia has shown 103 among the strongest snow cover reductions for the Northern Hemisphere, declining by 104 0.8 million km² per decade during 1970-2010 (equating to a 7% decrease from pre-105 106 1970 values) [Brown and Robinson, 2011]. More generally snow cover decreases in recent decades, consistent with Arctic amplification of warming [Dery and Brown, 2007; 107 Ye and Wu, 2017; Ye et al., 2015; Yeo et al., 2017]. 108 The snow cover over the TP is located in relatively low latitudes and on complex terrain 109

and therefore has a unique climatology distinguished from Eurasian snow cover. For

example, analysis of snow cover data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
Administration (NOAA) [*Bamzai*, 2003; *Bamzai and Shukla*, 1999] shows that winter
snow cover over western Eurasia has a negative relationship with Indian summer
monsoon precipitation in the following year, but this relationship does not extend to the
TP [*C Wang et al.*, 2017a]. The correlation between winter/spring snow cover over the
TP and that over Eurasia as a whole is negative [*C Wang et al.*, 2017a; *Z W Wu et al.*,
2016].

118 **2.2** Climatology of snow cover based on observation and remote sensing

119 Table 1 lists main results of different studies which have examined the climatology and trends of snow cover over the TP based on in situ observations and remote sensing. 120 There are several data sources available including: observation stations, satellite 121 122 observations by NOAA, SMMR (Scanning Multichannel Microwave Radiometer) by NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration), and EOS/MODIS (Earth 123 Observation System/Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) satellite 124 retrieval products [Che et al., 2017; Dai et al., 2017; Qin et al., 2006; M Yang et al., 125 2019; You et al., 2011; G Zhang et al., 2012]. Each data source has its own limitations. 126 127 There are more than 100 meteorological stations over the TP supported by the China Meteorological Administration, but most are located in the eastern and central TP 128 (Figure 1). Most snow cover records started around the mid-1950s. In the high 129 mountains with extensive snow, especially over the western TP, there are few or even 130 131 no stations and thus the regional representativeness of observation data is limited [CD]*Xiao et al.*, 2007; *C D Xiao et al.*, 2008; *M Yang et al.*, 2010; *M Yang et al.*, 2019]. Due 132

to its high resolution in both space and time, MODIS data has a great potential for 133 monitoring snow cover change in regions with complex terrain [Che et al., 2017; Dai 134 135 et al., 2017; S Wang, 2017; W Wang et al., 2015], and has already been used extensively to examine the distribution and seasonal changes of snow cover over the TP [X Wang 136 137 et al., 2017b; J Yang et al., 2015]. At large spatial scales, passive microwave remote 138 sensing data is the most efficient way to monitor temporal and spatial variations in snow. However, snow cover products derived from passive microwave remote sensing show 139 large uncertainties over the TP primarily occurring in the northwest and southeast areas 140 141 with low ground temperature, and the overall accuracy in identifying presence/absence of snow cover is 66.7% [Dai et al., 2017]. 142

143 Climatological studies of snow cover based on MODIS show large spatio-temporal 144 heterogeneity over the TP (Table 1). The most persistent snow is located on the southern and western edges where precipitation from the Indian monsoon spills over the frontier 145 ranges such as the Himalayas [Pu and Xu, 2009; Pu et al., 2007]. This corresponds well 146 147 with the highest mountains, including the Kunlun, Karakoram, Himalaya, Qilian, Tanggula, and Hengduan chains [Pu and Xu, 2009; Pu et al., 2007; Oin et al., 2006]. 148 149 The combined areas of Karakoram and Kunlun contain some of the most heavily glaciated regions in the world. In the southeast of the TP, snow cover is also relatively 150 frequent because moist air is channeled up the Yarlung Zangbo Valley from the south. 151 In contrast, due to large scale shielding by the Himalaya and Karakoram mountains, 152 most of the interior of the TP has infrequent snow cover, even in winter at elevations 153 above 4000 m. In summer, there is scattered patchy snow cover in the high elevations 154

regions along the Himalayas, Karakoram, and Kunlun ranges [Pu and Xu, 2009; Pu et 155 al., 2007], and in some areas snow cover is almost as frequent in summer as in winter. 156 157 Thus, the spatial distribution of snow cover is strongly controlled by the interactions between complex terrains and available moisture sources [Pu and Xu, 2009; Pu et al., 158 159 2007]. Except in the western TP where snow cover persists all year in favored locations, 160 studies combining remote sensing and in situ observations have highlighted three broader areas of persistent snow cover: a) a southern center located on the north slope 161 of the Himalayas; b) the eastern Tanggula and Nyenchen Tanglha Mountains; and c) the 162 163 Amne Machin and Bayan Har Mountains in the eastern TP [Pu and Xu, 2009; Pu et al., 2007; WXu et al., 2017; J Yang et al., 2015]. Obvious seasonal patterns in snow cover 164 emerge for most of the TP, and with the exception of the aforementioned regions of 165 166 permanent snow cover in the western TP, snow cover is mostly confined to October to May [Tan et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2013]. 167

168 **2.3 Inter-annual variability and trends of snow cover**

169 The strongest inter-annual variations of snow cover occur in the mid-winter period. Trends in snow cover over the TP for the last 40-50 years display remarkable regional 170 and seasonal differences (Table 1). Several studies have examined spatial and temporal 171 variations of snow cover over the TP using MODIS data during 2000–2006 [Pu and Xu, 172 2009; Pu et al., 2007], 2001-2010 [G Zhang et al., 2012], 2001-2011 [Tang et al., 2013], 173 2001–2014 [*C Li et al.*, 2018a], and 2000-2015 [*X Wang et al.*, 2017b]. Over these short 174 periods, snow cover over the TP does not generally show a significant decrease [Huang 175 et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017; X Wang et al., 2017b]; however, it exhibits a relatively 176

large interannual variability [*Z Wang et al.*, 2019]. As MODIS data is only available for
a short period, *in situ* observations have also been examined to investigate snow cover
trends, but different studies based on different stations/periods have led to contradicting
results [*W Xu et al.*, 2017; *M Yang et al.*, 2019].

Trends of snow cover/depth over the TP are also generally very sensitive to period of 181 182 study, especially if the period starts with a very high or very low condition. Figure 2 shows the variation of annual mean snow depth, temperature and precipitation based 183 on the 108 observation stations over the TP during 1961-2014. It is noted that most 184 185 observations are located over the central and eastern TP (Figure 1). Daily snow cover at 60 stations over the eastern TP appears to increase during 1957-1992 [P J Li, 1996], 186 consistent with increased trend after the mid-1970s based on 17 stations during 1962-187 188 1993 [Y S Zhang et al., 2004], and increased rate during the strong warming of the 1980s/1990s [Qin et al., 2006]. Overall, in situ observations and satellite data over the 189 TP [*Qin et al.*, 2006] show a weak increasing trend in snow cover between 1951-1997 190 but a slight decreasing trend between 1997 to 2012 [Shen et al., 2015], which is 191 consistent with Figure 2. This is also reflected by a study of snow depth variation based 192 on 69 stations above 2000 m over the TP during 1961–2005, that found snow depth 193 over the TP has increased at the rate of 0.32 mm decade⁻¹ from 1961 to 1990, but 194 decreased at the rate of -1.80 mm decade⁻¹ between 1991 and 2005 [You et al., 2011]. 195 There have also been changes in the seasonality of snow cover over the TP, but results 196 depend on station selection, study period and methods of calculation. In winter, the 197 number of snow cover days over the TP during 1961-2013 increases significantly before 198

199 1996 but decreases after 1996 [Bao et al., 2018]. Another study using 103 stations during 1961-2010 shows a very weak negative trend for the number of snow cover days 200 201 in spring and winter, and has a significant decrease in summer and autumn [WXu et al., 2017]. Based on snow cover data from the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC) 202 203 for 1979-2006, a significant decreasing trend over snow cover is observed in the 204 western TP in summer and autumn, and over the southern TP in all seasons. In contrast, a significant increasing trend of snow cover is identified in the central and eastern TP 205 in autumn, winter, and spring [Z Wang et al., 2018b; Z Wang et al., 2017c; Z Wang et 206 207 al., 2019].

208 2.4 Future changes of snow cover under different emission scenarios

209 The response of snow cover to global warming will vary with latitude and elevation,

210 with a potential for increased accumulation in high latitudes/elevations in the short term

211 [Groisman et al., 1994a; Räisänen, 2008]. A warmer climate will influence snowfall

and in turn snowpack development and the timing and amount of snowmelt [Barnett et

al., 2005; Huning and AghaKouchak, 2018; Vuille et al., 2018; Vuille et al., 2008],

would effectively enhance the seasonal hydrological cycle and increase the occurrence

- of outburst floods over the TP [Benn et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2018; M Yang et al., 2019;
- 216 *T* Yao et al., 2012; *T* Yao et al., 2015; *T* Yao et al., 2019].

217 Projections of snow cover changes over the TP are often made using global climate

- 218 models (GCMs) [Rangwala et al., 2010a; Wei and Dong, 2015; M Yang et al., 2019]
- and/or high-resolution regional climate models (RCMs) [Ji and Kang, 2013; Ménégoz
- 220 et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2011]. For example, the fifth phase of the Coupled Model Inter-

comparison Project (CMIP5) GCM projections over the TP indicate a continued 221 warming throughout the 21st century, with enhanced temperature increase at higher 222 elevations [Dimri et al., 2016; Furlani and Ninfo, 2015; Hertig et al., 2015; Z Li et al., 223 2019b; Ren et al., 2019; You et al., 2016; You et al., 2019]. Although CMIP5 GCMs 224 225 often capture the main characteristics of the observed the Northern Hemisphere snow cover in spring (i.e. its broad spatial distribution) they often overestimate mean snow 226 cover in areas of complex terrain such as the TP [X Zhu and Dong, 2013]. Snow is 227 poorly simulated by most CMIP5 GCMs due to limitations in parameterization schemes 228 229 and in our understanding of physical processes, particularly clouds and localized convection [X Qu and Hall, 2006; Wei and Dong, 2015]. Regional annual mean snow 230 depth over the TP from CMIP5 models under different RCP scenarios (representative 231 concentration pathways) generally decreases in the late 21st century. The trends of 232 regional annual mean snow depth over the TP under RCP2.6, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5 are 233 approximately -0.06, -0.06, and -0.07 cm year⁻¹, respectively [Wei and Dong, 2015]. 234 Mean snow cover duration over the TP under RCP4.5 is shortened by 10-20 and 20-235 40 days during the middle (2040–2059) and end (2080–2099) of the 21st century 236 respectively [Ji and Kang, 2013]. 237

A number of modeling studies have specifically focused on the TP region. The GISS-AOM (Goddard Institute for Space Studies-Atmosphere Ocean Model, NASA) GCM indicates a continuous reduction in snow cover during spring and summer at higher elevations which accelerates surface warming through the snow-albedo effect [*Rangwala et al.*, 2010a]. RCM has been shown to reasonably simulate both extent and

duration of snow cover in the Himalayas [Ménégoz et al., 2013]. A high resolution RCM 243 (Abdus Salam International Centre for Theoretical Physics) has been shown to 244 successfully simulate current days of snow cover, snow depth, and the beginning and 245 ending dates of snow cover in China (including the TP), and therefore has been used to 246 estimate future snow cover changes [Shi et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2018]. The model 247 indicates that in the 21st century under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, both snow days 248 and snow cover over the TP will decrease whereas the starting/ending date will be 249 delayed/advanced [D Chen et al., 2015; Ji and Kang, 2013; Shi et al., 2011]. 250

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252 **3** Physical mechanisms controlling snow cover over the TP

3.1 Temperature and precipitation as main controlling factors

254 Figure 3 shows the factors which contribute to variation of snow cover over the TP. It is clear that snow cover is influenced by both precipitation and temperature, which in 255 turn vary with elevation and season (Figure 3). During recent decades, observations 256 indicate rapid warming and wetting over the TP, and snow over the TP exhibits positive 257 correlations with both precipitation and temperature before the 1980s (Figure 2). Due 258 259 to complex topography and varied climate regimes over the TP, the relative importance of temperature versus precipitation shifts across space. At higher elevations temperature 260 is the most significant control, and it is less important in lower regions [W Wang et al., 261 2015; X Wang et al., 2017b; Z Wang et al., 2017c]. This is inconsistent with the controls 262 of snow cover over Switzerland, where temperature/precipitation is the major factor 263 below/above a threshold elevation [Morán-Tejeda et al., 2013]. It has been suggested 264

that both temperature and precipitation become more influential controls as elevation
increases in China [*X Wang et al.*, 2017b].

267 Decreases in snowfall and increases in temperature and liquid precipitation are the main reasons for the snow cover decrease over the TP during 2001–2014. At high elevations 268 269 the positive feedback of snowfall on snow cover becomes more important because there 270 melting occurs. At the same time, any negative feedback effects of precipitation and temperature are also increased [Huang et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017]. This can be 271 explained because maximum snowfall amounts are usually recorded at temperatures 272 273 between 1°C and 2°C. Above/below this threshold snowfall usually decreases/increases with increased warming [Deng et al., 2017], suggesting the response of snowfall to 274 temperature change is depends on the magnitude of temperature. Additionally in winter, 275 276 changes of snow cover extent are more susceptible to precipitation changes, whereas in summer temperature becomes a crucial factor because of frequent melt between 277 snowfall events [W Wang et al., 2015; X Wang et al., 2017b; Z Wang et al., 2017c]. It 278 has been estimated that about one-half to two-thirds of the inter-annual variability in 279 snow cover can be explained by precipitation and temperature combined [W Xu et al., 280 2017]. Thus, there remains an important challenge in understanding and interpreting 281 the observed changes in snow cover over the TP due to the competing effects of 282 temperature and precipitation. 283

3.2 Influence of synoptic conditions: Arctic Oscillation (AO)

285 Snow cover over the TP is controlled by atmospheric circulation as indicated by indices

such as the Arctic Oscillation (AO) [Bamzai, 2003; Cohen et al., 2012; Shaman and

Tziperman, 2005; You et al., 2011] (Figure 3). The AO exerts its most significant 287 control in winter and spring over the TP [Bamzai, 2003; Yeo et al., 2017]. For example, 288 289 modulated by the positive AO, weakening of the Lake Baikal ridge pushes cold air southwards which meets with warm and humid air from low-latitudes over the eastern 290 291 TP, conducive to more snowfall and greater snow over this region [Bao et al., 2018]. 292 During 1961-2005, a positive relationship between mean snow depth over the TP and winter AO index was observed [You et al., 2011]. During positive AO years, the Asian 293 subtropical westerly jet intensified, the Indian-Myanmar trough deepened, and a 294 cyclonic circulation near Lake Baikal intensified, enhancing ascending motion and 295 favoring greater snowfall over the TP [Xin et al., 2010; You et al., 2011; Yu and Zhou, 296 297 2004].

The AO and therefore the snow depth over the TP experience an inter-decadal regime shift in the late 1970s. Before the late 1970s (negative AO) snow depth over the TP is relatively high/low in autumn/winter. Since the early 1980s (positive AO) snow depth over the TP is decreased/increased in autumn/winter [$L\ddot{u}$ et al., 2008]. In winter, the downward propagation of Rossby waves associated with the positive AO phase amplifies the atmospheric circulation in the mid-latitude troposphere, and can lead to subsequent abnormal increases of snow depth over the TP [$L\ddot{u}$ et al., 2008].

305 3.3 Influences of westerly jet streams on snow cover

Another important control of snow cover over the TP is the mid-latitude westerly jet stream, particularly in the northern and western TP [*Mao*, 2010; *Mölg et al.*, 2014; *Schiemann et al.*, 2009]. Although the non-monsoon-dominated areas such as the Karakorum receive much of their winter snowfall from storms embedded in the westerly jet stream, it has also been more recently agreed that westerlies also drive snow variability in monsoon-dominated regions further south and east. For example it is shown that large-scale westerly waves control tropospheric flow strength and explain 73% of the inter-annual mass balance variability of Zhadang Glacier in the central TP [*Mölg et al.*, 2014].

In addition to the mid-latitude westerlies, the sub-tropical westerly jet is also important. 315 Much of the plateau is located between two maxima in this jet, i.e., downstream of the 316 317 exit region of the North Africa-Arabian jet and upstream of the entrance region of the East Asian jet [Bao and You, 2019]. This recent study shows that snow depth in late 318 winter and spring (February–April) over the TP is controlled by variations in intensity 319 320 and meridional shifts of the westerly jet. Particularly in spring, the jet can form a split flow, with maxima classified as the North TP jet and the South TP jet, and shifts between 321 the North TP jet and the South TP jet can favor significant cooling and increased 322 precipitation, thus promoting snowfall and snow accumulation over the TP [Bao and 323 You, 2019]. Over long time scales from November to the subsequent February, the 324 southwestward shift of the upper tropospheric westerly jet may have favored the 325 development of more intense surface cyclones over the TP, which is favorable for 326 heavier snowfall, leading to an increase in snow depth over the TP [Mao, 2010]. 327

328 **3.4 Ocean-atmosphere coupling systems remotely modulate snow cover**

329 Inter-annual variability of snow cover over the TP can also be modulated by ocean-

atmosphere coupling systems, such as El Nino/Southern Oscillation (ENSO), Indian

331	Ocean dipole, sea surface temperatures (SST), North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and
332	Southern Annular Mode [Dou and Wu, 2018; Shaman and Tziperman, 2005; 2007; Y
333	Wang and Xu, 2018; Z Wang et al., 2019; J Wu and Wu, 2019; R Wu and Kirtman, 2007;
334	Yuan et al., 2009; Yuan et al., 2012]. Shaman and Tziperman [2005] found that winter
335	ENSO conditions in the central Pacific modify winter storm activity and resultant
336	snowfall over the TP by the development of quasi-stationary barotropic Rossby waves
337	in the troposphere with a north-eastward group velocity. Because snow cover variations
338	over the eastern and western TP are essentially decoupled, SSTs in the eastern
339	equatorial Pacific (east of 130°W) are positively correlated with snow depth over the
340	western TP in winter, but there is no correlations over eastern regions [X Xu and Wang,
341	2016]. Yuan et al. [2009] suggested that the influence of ENSO on snow cover over the
342	TP in early winter, spring and early summer is dependent on the Indian Ocean dipole.
343	In early winters of pure positive Indian Ocean dipole years with no co-occurrence of El
344	Niño, anomalous diabatic heating over the tropical Indian Ocean encourages a
345	baroclinic response in the tropics, enabling the transport of moisture cyclonically from
346	the northern Indian Ocean toward the TP [Yuan et al., 2012].
347	Few studies have focused on the variability of snow cover over the TP in the boreal

summer [*Jin et al.*, 2018]. In a recent study, the Southern Annular Mode index in May
exhibits a significant positive relationship with the inter-annual variations of snow
cover in the western TP during the following boreal summer [*Dou and Wu*, 2018].

4 Regional consequences of snow cover variation over the TP

353	4.1 Impacts of snow cover on the East Asian Summer Monsoon (EASM)
354	Snow cover over the TP has a close relationship with the atmospheric circulation in
355	mid-latitudes and other circulation systems such as the East Asian Summer Monsoon
356	(EASM) [L Chen and Wu, 2000; Q Chen et al., 2000b; Duan et al., 2018; Duan et al.,

2014; Luo, 1995; Z Xiao and Duan, 2016; S Zhang and Tao, 2001]. Many physical 357

mechanisms for the impact of snow cover over the TP on the EASM have been proposed

[Y F Qian et al., 2003; Z Xiao and Duan, 2016; S Zhang and Tao, 2001; Y S Zhang et

al., 2004; Y S Zhang and Ma, 2018; Y Zhu and Ding, 2007]. Figure 4 shows possible 360 361 mechanisms which control this relationship. For example, it has been suggested that more snow cover will reduce the tropospheric land-sea temperature contrast and 362 weaken the EASM in the following summer. More (less) snow cover over the TP leads 363 364 to weak (strong) surface heating in spring and summer, and weak (strong) upward motion associated with strong (weak) westerly jet stream. This is therefore unfavorable 365 (favorable) for transporting sensible heat from near-surface to upper atmospheric layers 366 which leads to tropospheric heating and subsequent low (high) tropospheric 367 temperature surrounding the TP. The resultant weak (strong) meridional tropospheric 368 temperature gradient south of the TP creates a weak (strong) EASM [S Zhang and Tao, 369

2001]. 370

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Thus an increase in snow cover over the TP can both delay the onset and weaken the 371 intensity of the EASM, resulting in drier conditions in southern China, but wetter 372 conditions in the Yangtze and Huaihe River basins [YF Qian et al., 2003]. Specifically, 373 positive (negative) snow cover anomalies over the TP in spring are followed by later 374

(earlier) onset of the EASM [Pu and Xu, 2009]. Excessive snowmelt over the TP can 375 cool surface temperatures and provide sufficient moisture which also causes a more 376 377 northwestward extension of the western Pacific subtropical high in the subsequent summer [Y S Zhang et al., 2004]. Excessive summer snow cover over the western TP 378 379 can suppress local convection but in turn benefit upward motion elsewhere, especially 380 further south over the north Indian Ocean via a meridional circulation system [G Liu et al., 2014a; G Liu et al., 2014b]. Recently it has been revealed that the western TP and 381 the Himalaya are critical regions in this regard, and snow cover in these regions can 382 383 also influence the EASM by modulating eastward-propagating synoptic disturbances generated over the TP [Z Xiao and Duan, 2016]. 384

385 4.2 Snow cover and subsequent EASM precipitation

386 Figure 5 shows a schematic diagram of physical processes that link snow cover over the TP and EASM precipitation. Winter and spring snow cover over the TP plays an 387 important role in influencing subsequent EASM precipitation [Tao and Ding, 1981; C 388 Wang et al., 2017a; R N Zhang et al., 2017; Y S Zhang et al., 2004; Y Zhu et al., 2015]. 389 EASM precipitation has two typical spatial patterns on both inter-annual and inter-390 391 decadal timescales, i.e. the triple pattern and the North/South reversed-phase pattern [Duan et al., 2018; Duan et al., 2014]. A clear negative relationship exists, modulated 392 by the quasi-biennial oscillation, between winter snow cover over the TP and 393 subsequent summer precipitation in parts of far northern China and southern China [L 394 395 Chen and Wu, 2000]. Furthermore, a long-term decadal decrease of winter snow cover over the TP is in good correspondence with a remarkable transition from drought to a 396

wet period at the end of the 1970s in these areas [L Chen and Wu, 2000; Q Chen et al., 397 2000a; *Q Chen et al.*, 2000b]. In contrast, there is a strong positive correlation between 398 399 winter snow cover and subsequent summer precipitation over the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River valley, both in observational data and numerical 400 simulations [Q Chen et al., 2000a; Q Chen et al., 2000b; R Wu and Kirtman, 2007; T W 401 402 Wu and Qian, 2003]. For example, snow cover over the TP in preceding winter and spring can be regarded as a key prediction in EASM precipitation, and a remarkable 403 case of application is the successful seasonal prediction of 1998 unprecedented flood 404 405 in the Yangtze River [CMA, 1998]. Spring snow cover over the TP is positively correlated with subsequent summer 500hPa geopotential height over the western 406 407 Pacific and this was demonstrated to increase summer precipitation in the Huaihe River 408 valley during 2002–2010 [Y Zhu et al., 2015]. There is evidences that the interdecadal increase of snow cover over the TP in spring causes a more northwestward extension 409 of the western Pacific subtropical high in the subsequent summer, resulting in a wetter 410 summer precipitation over the Yangtze River valley and a dryer one in the southeast 411 coast of China [L Chen and Wu, 2000; Ding et al., 2009; R Wu et al., 2010; Y S Zhang 412 413 et al., 2004].

More recently, it has been found that heavier snow cover over the southern TP leads to more precipitation in the Yangtze River basin and northeastern China, but less precipitation in southern China (**Figure 5**). Heavier snow cover over the northern TP on the other hand, results in enhanced precipitation in southeastern and northern China but weakened precipitation in the Yangtze River basin [*C Wang et al.*, 2017a]. It has also been shown that snow cover in western/southern parts of the TP influences EASM
precipitation through different pathways, inducing anomalous cooling in the overlying
atmospheric column [*Z Wang et al.*, 2018b].

Snow cover in summer over the TP and its effects on climate variability are often 422 overlooked [G Liu et al., 2014a; G Liu et al., 2014b; Z W Wu et al., 2011]. Summer 423 snow cover is significantly positively correlated with simultaneous precipitation over 424 the Meiyu-Baiu region on the inter-annual time scale, suggesting that snow cover could 425 be regarded as an important additional factor in the forecasting of precipitation in that 426 427 region [G Liu et al., 2014a; G Liu et al., 2014b]. Finally pollution deposition on snowpack (in particular black carbon) over the TP has been shown to increase diabatic 428 429 heating over the TP, resulting in anomalously wet, dry, and slightly wet patterns over 430 southern China, the Yangtze River basin, and northern China, respectively [Y Qian et al., 2011]. 431

432 4.3 Impacts of snow cover on the South Asian Summer Monsoon (SASM) and its 433 precipitation

The South Asian Summer Monsoon (SASM) is also a significant part of the Asian
summer monsoon system, which has long been thought to be influenced by snow cover
over the TP [*Brown and Mote*, 2009; *L Chen and Wu*, 2000; *Cohen and Rind*, 1991; *Duan et al.*, 2018; *Duan et al.*, 2014; *Dugam et al.*, 2009; *Fasullo*, 2004; *Groisman et al.*, 1994b]. More than a century ago, *Blanford* [1884] found a negative relationship
between Himalayan winter snow accumulation and subsequent SASM precipitation.
Based on data during 1876-1908, *Walker* [1910] confirmed the inverse relationship

441 between Himalayan snow in winter/spring and the SASM. The negative relationship [Blanford, 1884; Walker, 1990] was re-examined and verified using NOAA satellite 442 443 snow cover data [Dery and Brown, 2007; Dey and Kumar, 1983]. In recent years, more studies have re-examined this relationship [Robock et al., 2003; Zhao and Moore, 2002; 444 445 2004; 2006], which is associated with both snow-albedo effects and hydrological effects 446 [Yasunari, 2007; Yasunari et al., 1991]. The snow-albedo effect means that excessive snow cover reduces solar radiation absorbed at the surface which decreases surface 447 temperature, thus weakening the SASM. The hydrological effect occurs when melting 448 449 of an anomalous snow cover results in increased latent heat flux, reduced sensible heat flux, cooler surface and higher surface pressure [Yasunari, 2007; Yasunari et al., 1991]. 450 451 Recent studies have suggested that the hydrological effects are in fact dominant and far more important than any direct thermal or albedo effect [Barnett et al., 2005; Cohen 452 and Rind, 1991; L Xu and Dirmeyer, 2012]. 453

Increased winter snow cover over the TP leads to a weakened Somali jet, a weaker Indian monsoon trough and associated south-west flow, resulting in a reduced SASM [*Fan et al.*, 1997; *Y S Zhang et al.*, 2004]. Anomalous snow cover over the TP increases the meridional tropospheric temperature gradient in winter/spring and also delays its reversal in late spring which is the trigger for the SASM onset. Hydrological effects which cool the surface have been shown to delay the monsoon onset by about 8 days on average [*Halder and Dirmeyer*, 2016; *Senan et al.*, 2016].

461 It is clear however that the widely discussed negative relationship between Himalayan

462 snow and the strength of the subsequent SASM does not always hold. No significant

relationship between snow cover over the TP and SASM precipitation was found during 463 1973-1994 [Bamzai and Shukla, 1999]. Moreover, a positive correlation between snow 464 465 cover and SASM precipitation was detected during 1870-2000 [Robock et al., 2003], opposite to that of *Blanford* [1884]. Based on a 196-year record of snow accumulation 466 467 from a Himalayan ice core, from the 1940s onwards a decreasing trend in snow accumulation is associated with a long-term weakening of the trade winds over the 468 Pacific Ocean, but this does not result in any systematic changes in SASM precipitation 469 [Zhao and Moore, 2006]. 470

471 Strikingly, the well-documented negative relationship between snow cover over the TP and SASM precipitation seems to have changed to a positive relationship in recent 472 473 decades [Kripalani et al., 2003; Zhao and Moore, 2002; 2004]. For example, an east-474 west dipole-like correlation pattern between snow cover over the TP and SASM precipitation changed sign around 1985[Zhao and Moore, 2004]. Controversially, 475 observed changes in snow cover extent/depth due to global warming may be a possible 476 cause for the weakening relationship between snow cover and SASM precipitation 477 [Kripalani et al., 2003]. It has also been suggested that the relationship between snow 478 cover and SASM precipitation only exists during years with strong positive AO 479 [Robock et al., 2003] and the existence of the Blanford [1884] mechanism only occurs 480 when the influence of the land surface is not overwhelmed by ENSO [Fasullo, 2004]. 481

482 **4.4 Impacts of snow cover on other climate variables**

483 Snow cover plays a strong role in controlling other parts of the climate system [Lin and

484 Wu, 2011; 2012; M Yang et al., 2019]. For example, the thickness of snow cover can

affect soil temperature, soil freeze-thaw cycles, and permafrost. More snow will reduce 485 frost penetration and provide warmer soil temperatures overall as well as a more 486 conservative climate at ground level. Melting snow influences carbon exchange 487 between atmosphere and ground and hydrological/biochemical cycles over the TP [M 488 Yang et al., 2010; M Yang et al., 2019; T Zhang, 2005]. In years with positive snow 489 490 anomalies over the TP, soil moisture is increased well into the summer, and the surface temperature is stabilized and then reduced because of the snowmelt process. Much 491 energy is used to melt the snow, altering moisture and energy partitioning at the surface 492 493 and fluxes from surface to atmosphere [Y F Qian et al., 2003].

Snow melting is a major source of river runoff in many mountain basins over the TP, 494 especially in the many endorheic basins, thus impacting ecosystems, irrigation, 495 496 agriculture and water resources in the densely populated downstream areas [C Li et al., 2018a; Z Li et al., 2019b; T Wang et al., 2013; W Wang et al., 2015; X Wang et al., 497 2017b]. Spring runoff from extensive snowpack can minimize spring/summer drought 498 in otherwise arid regions, and be beneficial for summer vegetation growth [Oin et al., 499 2006]. On the other hand, decreases of snow cover fraction over the TP (2000-2011) 500 during January-April have caused the simultaneous Normalized Difference Vegetation 501 Index (NDVI) to rise, associated with an advance in spring phenology and earlier snow 502 melting [T Wang et al., 2013]. 503

504 Finally, reduced (excessive) snow cover over the TP can encourage an upper-level 505 anomalous anticyclone (cyclone) over the TP and eastern China, and lead to a 506 westwards extension (eastwards withdrawal) and enhancing (weakening) of the South Asian High over the tropical oceans, which in turn contributes to the variability of convection within the Madden–Julian Oscillation [*Lyu et al.*, 2018]. There have even been links between winter snow cover over the TP and typhoons in the Western Pacific during the following summer. Increased winter snow cover over the TP leads to a reduced surface sensible heat flux lasting well into spring and early summer, which has been proposed to lead to a reduced number of land-falling typhoons in China in the following summer/autumn [*Xie et al.*, 2005].

514

515 5 Research gaps and emerging issues related to snow cover over the TP

516 **5.1 How frequent are snow avalanches over the TP?**

Avalanches, whereby large quantities of snow could bury villages and cause fatalities, 517 518 are one of the most serious hazards in late winter and spring over the TP, with March and April being the two most hazardous months. Complex terrain with steep slopes 519 means that much of the TP is regarded as high risk, especially in the south and east 520 where snow falls can be heavy [Dong et al., 2001; Qin et al., 2018; T T Zhang et al., 521 2014]. The spatial distribution of avalanches shows the largest frequency in central 522 areas, east of the Bayankalashan mountains and on the southeastern edge of the TP 523 [Dong et al., 2001]. In recent decades, both the frequency of avalanches and the number 524 of stations show an increased event of avalanches. While more reliable reporting could 525 partially explain the observed increase, from a physical viewpoint, inter-annual 526 variations in the subtropical high anomalies in the West Pacific Ocean is one of the 527 main factors for the observed increase in their frequency [Dong et al., 2001; T T Zhang 528

et al., 2014]. Station records and satellites differ in their ability to capture extreme high
snow depths which are the precursor for avalanches [*Qin et al.*, 2006; *Qin et al.*, 2018; *M Yang et al.*, 2019]. Because of these differences, no consensus has yet been reached
on whether avalanches have overall increased. It is also noted that snow depth alone is
not the only control of avalanche occurrence, so more holistic frameworks with a wide
range of datasets must be applied to understand, model and predict avalanches.

535 5.2 Do reanalyses, remote sensing and climate models capture similar patterns of 536 snow cover variation?

537 The scarcity of surface observations over the TP, coupled with complex terrain, limits understanding of snow cover change, especially in the western regions. Only 0.1% of 538 539 snow fields, glaciers and lakes over the TP have monitoring stations [M Yang et al., 540 2010; M Yang et al., 2019; T Yao et al., 2019; T D Yao et al., 2004]. Very few areas above 5000m over the TP have weather stations. Many studies therefore have compared 541 the available stations with reanalyses and remote sensing products as well as climate 542 model outputs over the TP [Y Gao et al., 2018; Pu and Xu, 2009; A Wang et al., 2018a; 543 You et al., 2015]. For example, reanalyses perform poorly for snow cover trend analysis, 544 and most reanalyses (NCEP1, NCEP2, CMAP1, CMAP2, ERA-Interim, ERA-40, 545 GPCP, 20century, MERRA and CFSR) remain substantial disagreements and large 546 discrepancies with observations due to differences in types of observations and 547 assimilation techniques across datasets [You et al., 2015]. Remote sensing datasets such 548 as MODIS have consistent spatial coverage to enable identification of spatial patterns 549 of snow cover over the whole TP, but they are not available to examine long term trends 550

551 due to the short time span (typically from 1980 or later) [Pu and Xu, 2009; Pu et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2013; Zhao and Moore, 2002]. Cloud contamination in remote 552 553 sensing datasets is a severe issue in mountainous regions and the southeastern TP [J]Yang et al., 2015; Z Zhu and Woodcock, 2014]. The GCMs such as CMIP5 output are 554 often too coarse to resolve local changes, and RCMs with dynamical downscaling are 555 556 suggested to study snow cover over the TP [J Gao et al., 2019; Y Gao et al., 2018; Ji and Kang, 2013; A Wang et al., 2018a; Wei and Dong, 2015]. Although reanalyses, 557 remote sensing and climate models are used to study snow cover over the TP, the 558 559 scientific community still has relatively little understanding of why such discrepancies arise among different datasets. More efforts should focus on objective evaluation of 560 multiple datasets as a large number of studies rely on such simulations. 561

562 **5.3 Does the snow cover trend show elevation dependency**?

Many studies have suggested that recent warming has an elevation dependency both at 563 global and regional scales [S C Kang et al., 2010; Pepin and Coauthors, 2015; You et 564 al., 2016; You et al., 2019]. Over the TP, the largest warming rates (1950-2010 period) 565 have occurred in winter/spring at elevations around 4000-5000m [Rangwala et al., 566 2010b], although warming rates are thought to decrease above that elevation [Y Gao et 567 al., 2018; Pepin et al., 2019]. However, whether there is a widespread elevation 568 dependency of snow cover trends over the TP is still unclear, primarily because of 569 limited observations and studies specifically focused on this topic. Over High Mountain 570 Asia, there is a strong relationship between elevation and snow water equivalent during 571 1987-2009, but the relationship is nonlinear [Smith and Bookhagen, 2018]. Over the TP, 572

many of the most distinct decreases in snow cover appear in high elevation areas such
as the Hengduan Mountains and the northern Karakorum-Kunlun mountains [*T Wang et al.*, 2013; *W Wang et al.*, 2015], which is consistent with trends derived from MODIS
during 2001-2014 [*C Li et al.*, 2018a].

577 There are clear relationships between elevation and mean snow cover start date (earlier at higher elevations), mean end date (later at higher elevations), and therefore snow 578 cover duration (longer at higher elevation) over the TP during 1961-2010 [W Xu et al., 579 2017]. However, the correlation between snow water equivalent trend and elevation is 580 581 variable. In some regions of high snow-water storage, the strongest snow water equivalent decreases are seen in mid-elevation zones, while the highest elevations show 582 583 less changes [Smith and Bookhagen, 2018]. At present, it is not clear whether snow 584 cover trends over the TP show robust elevation dependency, and the multiple factors controlling snow (i.e. precipitation, temperature, solar radiation, wind) influence the 585 elevation dependency patterns, which need more in-depth research. 586

587 5.4 How will snow cover respond to 1.5°C and 2 °C mean global warming?

In the Paris Agreement of 2015, 195 nations agreed upon the aim of 'holding the increase in global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels and pursuing efforts to limit the temperature increase to 1.5°C' [*UNFCCC*, 2015]. Recent studies have therefore focused on changes in climate and in the frequency, intensity, and duration of extreme events as well as snow cover associated with 1.5°C and 2°C global warming [*Biskaborn et al.*, 2019; *J Gao et al.*, 2019; *Kong and Wang*, 2017; *Y Li et al.*, 2019a; *Russo et al.*, 2019; *A Wang et al.*, 2018a]. Over High Mountain

Asia, warmer and wetter winters are modelled at both 1.5°C and 2°C global warming 595 targets, with a global temperature rise of 1.5° C leading to warming of $2.1 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C in 596 this region [Kraaijenbrink et al., 2017], which influence the variation of snow cover 597 over the TP. Based on CMIP5 mean ensemble, the largest magnitude of changes in snow 598 599 cover fraction over the western TP could be above 10% [A Wang et al., 2018a], and the snow cover patterns do show distinct differences between 1.5°C and 2°C global 600 warming levels [Y Li et al., 2019a]. However, there are limited studies on future snow 601 cover change over the TP and in particular the differences between warming of 1.5°C 602 603 vs 2°C. Given that the two scenarios will likely lead to different snow outcomes, more efforts should focus on the social-economic consequences of snow availability under 604 605 different future warming levels.

5.5 How does snow cover broadly influence climate extremes in China?

Extreme events such as heat waves, extreme precipitation and droughts, exert a 607 disproportionate influence on human health, natural systems, and the economy [IPCC, 608 609 2013]. Snowpack over the TP is viewed as a regulator which can influence climate extremes in China [Oin et al., 2006; Oin et al., 2018]. A recent study shows that snow 610 cover over the TP explains more than 30% of the total variance of heat wave occurrence 611 in the southern Europe and the north-eastern Asia region [Z W Wu et al., 2016]. The 612 snow cover over the TP is correlated with summer heat wave frequency across China, 613 which features an extremely high occurrence over northern China [Z W Wu et al., 2012]. 614 Snow cover over the TP is inversely proportionate to TP heating (more snow, less 615 heating). When TP heating is stronger (weaker) than normal, the occurrence of extreme 616

precipitation events in summer tends to be more (less) over the middle and lower 617 reaches of the Yangtze River valley. This is associated with the combined effects of the 618 619 upper-level South Asian high and the western Pacific subtropical high [Ge et al., 2019]. Although it is acknowledged that climate extremes in China have been affected by both 620 621 TP snow cover and SST anomalies, it is critical to distinguish between the two influences [Z Wang et al., 2018b; Z W Wu et al., 2012; Z W Wu et al., 2016; Z Xiao and 622 Duan, 2016]. Several studies have proposed that snow cover is the more important 623 factor for successful sub-seasonal to seasonal prediction of extremes [Robertson et al., 624 625 2015; Vitart et al., 2012]. However, how snow cover over the TP improves sub-seasonal to seasonal predictability of weather/climate extremes remains unresolved and more 626 work is necessary to improve understanding through both observational and numerical 627 628 studies.

629 **5.6 How does snow cover variation link to atmospheric pollutions?**

Deposition of atmospheric pollutant, here mainly referred to as light absorbing aerosols 630 631 (e.g., black carbon, brown carbon and dust), can enhance snowmelt and contribute to reducing snow cover [Ramanathan et al., 2007], and should be regarded as one of the 632 important physical mechanisms inducing snow cover variation over the TP [Ji, 2016; 633 *Ji et al.*, 2015; *Ji et al.*, 2016; *S Kang et al.*, 2019; *B Ou et al.*, 2014; *R Wu and Kirtman*, 634 2007; Y Zhang et al., 2018]. For example, both black carbon and dust deposited in the 635 snow/ice on glaciers over the TP are together responsible for a reduction in albedo of 636 637 about 20%, which contributes to their rapid melting [B Qu et al., 2014]. Based on a RCM coupled with a chemistry-aerosol module, dust in snow induces a warming of 638

0.1–0.5°C and causes a decrease of 5–25 mm in annual snow water equivalent over the 639 western TP and the Pamir and Kunlun Mountains. Meanwhile, black carbon on snow 640 641 results in a warming of 0.1–1.5°C and the loss of snow water equivalent exceeding 25mm in the western TP and the Himalayas [Ji, 2016; Ji et al., 2015; Ji et al., 2016]. 642 643 Based on the snow samples and back trajectory analysis, the effect of black carbon and dust reduces the snow cover duration by 3 to 4 days over the TP [Y Zhang et al., 2018]. 644 Recently, a coordinated monitoring network to link atmospheric pollution with 645 cryospheric changes (APCC) within the TP has been proposed [S Kang et al., 2019]. In 646 647 the future, more research programs will be supported within the framework of APCC in an attempt to understand the full interactions between snow cover variation and 648 649 atmospheric pollution over the TP.

650

651 6 Summary

Snow cover over the TP has experienced uneven changes in recent decades. In this paper, we offer a comprehensive review of snow cover variation over the TP and its influence on the wider climate systems (see Figure 6). The results are summarized as follows:

(1) Snow cover over the TP is often considered to be the southward extent of Eurasian
snow cover, and shares both similarities and differences with the broader continent.
Snow cover over the TP has distinct seasonal and spatial signatures. The region with
persistent snow cover is located in the southern and western edges in high elevation
mountains (>6000 m), while snow is more variable in the eastern regions. Overall, the

observed snow cover over the TP has shown a small increase from 1950s to the mid-1990s, and a decreasing trend since mid-1990s. However, there is no widespread decline in snow cover over the TP in the last 15 years based on MODIS data. Continuous reduction in snow cover at higher elevations is projected by both GCMs and RCMs under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios by the end of 21st century, although most models overestimate mean snow cover in complex terrains.

(2) Snow cover over the TP shows distinct inter-annual and inter-decadal variability, 667 but physical factors contributing to this variability are complex. Both precipitation and 668 669 temperature vary in their relative importance with elevation and season. Both the AO and the westerly jet influence the atmospheric circulation in the troposphere, through 670 their influences on the positioning of the India-Burma trough, subtropical westerly jet, 671 672 and associated enhanced ascending motion. Additional ocean-atmosphere coupling, expressed through changes in ENSO, Indian Ocean dipole, SST, NAO and SAM also 673 contributes to recent changes in snow cover over the TP. However, it is difficult to 674 determine the relative contribution of each of these factors in controlling variability of 675 snow cover over the TP. 676

(3) The impacts of snow cover over the TP on the EASM, SASM and associated precipitation are clear. Enhanced snow cover over the TP can delay the onset and weaken the intensity of the EASM, and has a strong influence on typical spatial patterns of EASM precipitation on both inter-annual and inter-decadal timescales. Snow cover over the western TP and the Himalayas is of particular importance. A clear relationship exists (modulated by the quasi-biennial oscillation) between winter snow cover and

following summer precipitation in far northern China and parts of southern China. The 683 well-documented negative relationship between snow cover and subsequent SASM 684 685 precipitation seems to have changed to a positive relationship in recent decades. Snow cover over the TP induces a strong positive albedo feedback, and also causes indirect 686 687 responses linked to insulation of frozen ground, moisture storage, and latent heat, which 688 have widespread impacts on other climatic variables over the TP and its surroundings. (4) There are many unresolved issues concerning snow cover changes over the TP. No 689 consensus has yet been reached on whether avalanches have increased or decreased 690 691 over the past decades. Due to complex terrain and scarcity of surface observations over the TP, our understanding of snow cover change in the region, especially in the western 692 693 TP is limited. Whether multiple reanalyses, remote sensing datasets and climate models 694 capture the snow cover variability reliably over the TP is unclear. Whether trends of snow cover over the TP show an elevation dependency is still a source of debate. There 695 are limited studies on the future changes of snow cover over the TP under 1.5°C vs 2°C 696 mean global warming. Although it is known that snow cover over the TP regulates 697 climate extremes in China, the underlying physical mechanisms are not well understood. 698 Moreover, snow cover variation over the TP is influenced by deposition of atmospheric 699 pollution However, the melting rates and physical mechanisms changing snow/ice melt 700 still deserve more in-depth research. 701

Finally, due to high and steep terrains, conventional meteorological stations are very
rare, and many mountains with extensive snow cover, especially in the western regions,
are not sampled at all. Most meteorological stations are distributed in lower-altitude

river valleys or plains where there is usually less snow. Remote sensing can measure 705 snow, but the quality of remotely sensed data is often affected by clouds. Therefore, 706 707 more in situ observations are critically needed to adequately study the spatial and temporal distribution of snow cover over the TP. There are substantial uncertainties in 708 709 previous studies that have solely used in situ observations (or model simulations) to 710 monitor long-term snow cover changes over the TP. More comparative studies using different types of data sources will likely improve reliability of snow analysis and their 711 712 corresponding impacts over the TP region and beyond.

713

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Study region	Dataset	Study period	Results	Reference		
China	Snow cover from 201 meteorological stations	1960-2013	Increasing trends of mean annual daily snow depth and the number of snow cover days were statistically insignificant	[<i>Tan et al.</i> , 2019]		
High Mountain Asia	Snow water equivalent from passive microwave data	1987-2009	An overall decrease in snow water equivalent	[Smith and Bookhagen, 2018]		
Tibetan Plateau	Snow cover fraction from MODIS	2001-2014	Snow cover has slightly decreased by about 1.1%	[<i>C Li et al.</i> , 2018a]		
Tibetan Plateau	SnowcoverfractionfromMODIS	2000-2006	Overall accuracy of MODIS snow data is about 90%	[<i>Pu and Xu</i> , 2009; <i>Pu et al.</i> , 2007]		
Eastern and central Tibetan Plateau	69 stations above 2000m from Chinese Meteorological Administration	1961–2005	Long term trends for both snow depth and snow cover are weakly positive	[You et al., 2011]		
Eastern Tibetan Plateau	60 stations	1958-1992	The winter snow cover over the TP bears a pronounced quasi- biennial oscillation	[<i>L Chen and Wu</i> , 2000]		
Tibetan Plateau	MODIS daily snow products and the Interactive Multi-sensor Snow and Ice Mapping System (IMS)	2000–2015	No widespread decline of snow cover	[X Wang et al., 2017b]		
Tibetan Plateau	Snow cover and snow water equivalent from the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC)	1979–2006	Remarkable regional differences in trends. Strong seasonal differences	- 0		
Tibetan Plateau	50 stations	1979-2010	Spring snow depth decreased after	[Y Zhu et al.,		

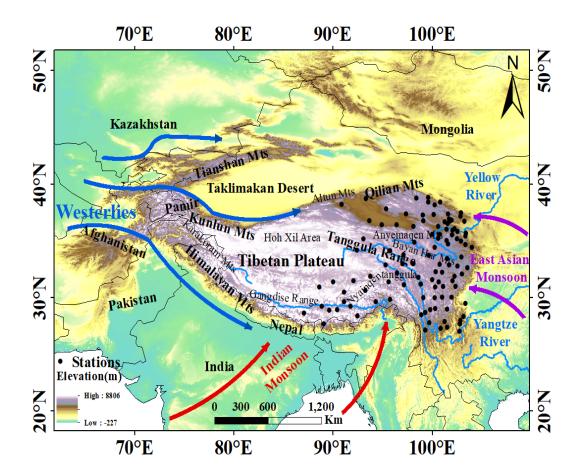
Table 1. Summary of changes of snow cover over the Tibetan Plateau and its adjacent

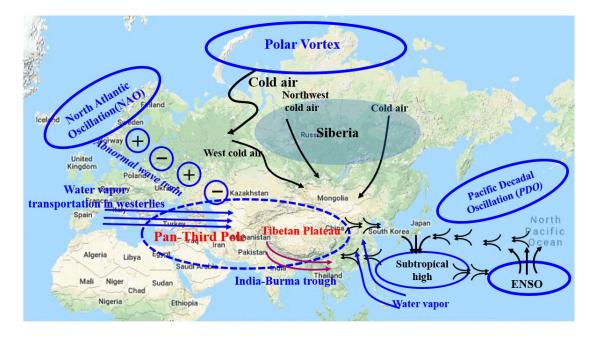
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2015]

¹²¹¹ territories in recent decades.

Tibetan Plateau	Snow	2003-2010	Decrease since 2003	[W Wang et al.,	
	fraction from			2015]	
	MODIS				
Tibetan Plateau	Snow	2003-2014	Overall accuracy in snow cover	[<i>Dai et al.</i> , 2017]	
	fraction from		over the TP is 66.7 %		
T'1 (D1 (MODIS	10((201(
Tibetan Plateau	snow cover	1966-2016	Large interannual variations of		
	fraction data of		snow cover in cold seasons	2019]	
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Figure 1. Topographic map (top panel) of the Tibetan Plateau and its adjacent regions, including the main mountain chains, the 108 observation stations in the regions, and the dominant atmospheric circulations (the Indian monsoon, East Asian monsoon, and

1236 Westerlies).	. The climate	patterns and	water vapo	or transp	portation (bottom	panel)	around
1230		Sarrenno ana	marer rape	or creansp	Joi carlon (00000111	paner,	

1237 the Tibetan Plateau and Pan-Third Pole including as ENSO, PDO and NAO.

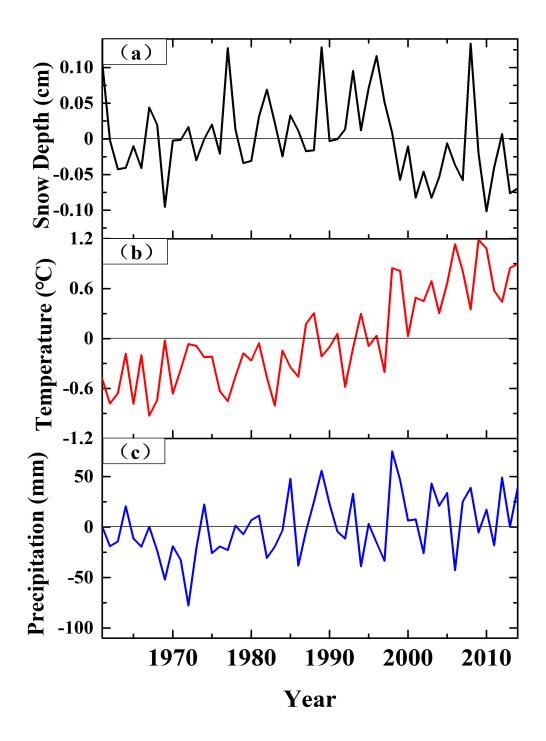
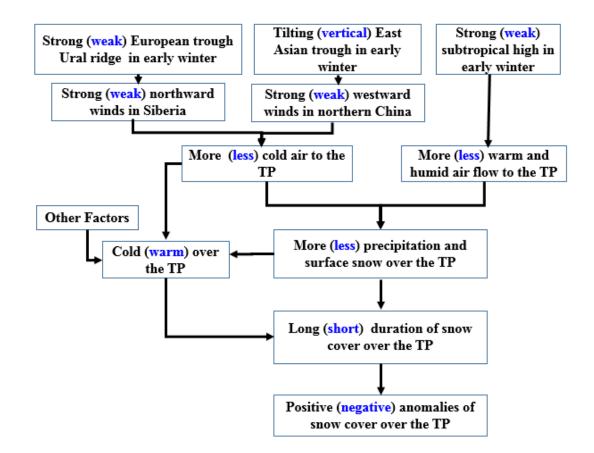


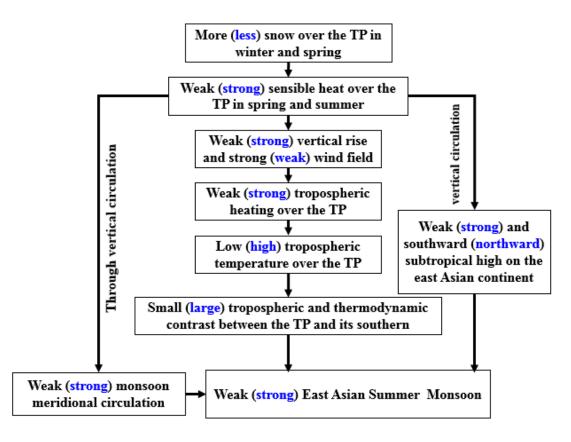
Figure 2. Variation of a) annual mean snow depth, b) temperature and c) precipitation
based on 108 observation stations (shown in Figure 1) over the Tibetan Plateau during
1247 1961-2014.



1250 Figure 3. Schematic diagram of factors contributing to variation of snow cover over

1251 the Tibetan Plateau. This is a summary graphic derived from previous studies [Duan et

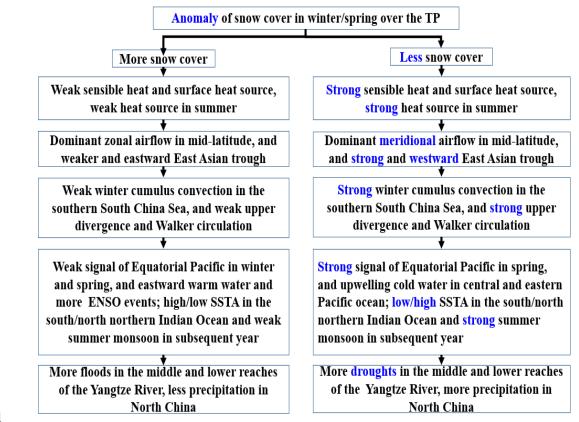
- 1252 al., 2018; D Li and Wang, 2011; Luo, 1995; Tao and Ding, 1981; S Wang, 2017; R
- 1253 Zhang et al., 2016; S Zhang and Tao, 2001].



1263 Figure 4. Possible mechanisms relating snow cover over the Tibetan Plateau with the

1264 East Asian Summer Monsoon. This schematic is based on Figure 13 in Zhang and Tao

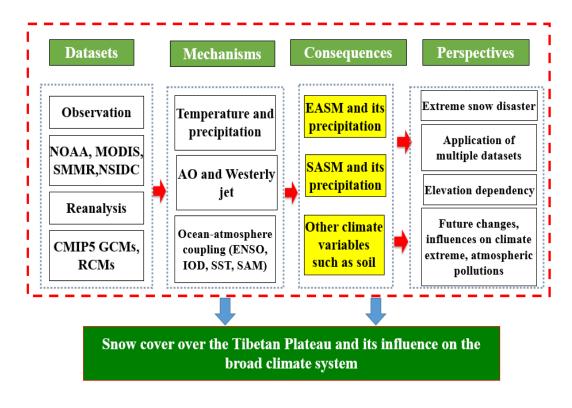
1265 [2001].



1272 Figure 5. Schematic diagram for physical processes linking snow cover over the

1273 Tibetan Plateau with variation in East Asian Summer Monsoon precipitation. This

schematic is based on Figure 7 in *Chen et al.* [2000].



- 1284 Figure 6. Schematic diagram linking datasets, mechanisms, consequences and
- 1285 perspectives concerning snow cover over the Tibetan Plateau.