

1 **SMALL SCALE SPATIAL VARIABILITY OF SNOW DENSITY AND**
2 **DEPTH OVER COMPLEX ALPINE TERRAIN: IMPLICATIONS FOR**
3 **ESTIMATING SNOW WATER EQUIVALENT**

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 Snow density is a key property in monitoring the water content of snow-covered
20 regions. However, sampling snow density is a difficult and time consuming task, which
21 explains why few previous studies have analyzed the spatial variability of snow density.
22 In this study we analyzed snow density measurements made in February and April of
23 2010 and 2011 in three 1–2 km² areas within a valley of the central Spanish Pyrenees.
24 Snow density was correlated with snow depth and terrain characteristics including
25 elevation, potential incoming solar radiation, terrain curvature and slope angle.
26 Regression models were used to predict the spatial variability of snow density, and to
27 assess how the error in computed densities might influence estimates of snow water
28 equivalent (SWE).

29 The variability in snow depth was much greater than that of snow density. The
30 average snow density was much greater in April than in February. However, the spatial
31 variability of snow density was greater among sites in February than in April; in the
32 latter month it varied less and was more consistent among sites and surveys. The
33 correlations between snow depth and density were generally statistically significant but
34 typically not very high, and their magnitudes and signs were highly variable among
35 sites and surveys. The correlation with other topographic variables showed the same
36 variability in magnitude and sign, and consequently the resulting regression models
37 were very inconsistent, and in general explained little of the variance. Antecedent
38 climatic and snow conditions prior to each survey help highlight the main causes of the
39 contrasting relation shown between snow depth, density and terrain characteristics in
40 the three analysed sites during the four surveys. However, as a consequence of the
41 moderate spatial variability of snow density relative to snow depth, the absolute error in
42 the SWE estimated from computed densities using the regression models was generally

43 less than 15%. The error was similar to that obtained by relating snow density
44 measurements directly to adjacent snow depths.

45

46 **Key words:** snow depth and density, snow water equivalent (SWE), spatial
47 variability, Pyrenees

48

49 **1. INTRODUCTION**

50 Snow water equivalent (SWE) is the most important property of the snowpack from a
51 hydrological point of view, as it provides information about the amount of water in a
52 given snow-covered area. Estimating SWE is the product of snow depth (ds) and bulk
53 snow density (ρ_s). Measuring snow depth is relatively easy and precise, and hundreds of
54 manual depth measurements can be obtained in a single day of fieldwork (López-
55 Moreno et al., 2010; Sturm et al., 2010), while remote or automated methods, such as
56 ground penetrating radar, or terrestrial laser scanning can provide a fully distributed
57 picture of the snow depth for a given transect, slope or valley (Lundberg et al., 2006;
58 Prokop , 2008; Grünewald et al., 2010). In contrast, measuring snow density involves
59 digging pits to obtain vertical profiles of snow density, or weighing snowpack cores to
60 obtain estimates of bulk density (Jonas et al., 2009; Fassnacht et al., 2010). Sturm et al.
61 (2010) reported that the time required to obtain 20-30 snow depth measurements is the
62 required to get a single SWE measurement. Thus, most snow datasets consist of a large
63 number of depth measurements and comparatively few density measurements, which
64 are combined in the so-called double sampling method (Dickinson and Whiteley, 1972).
65 Rovansek et al. (1993) reported an optimal ratio of 14 snow depths per one density
66 measurement. However, most published datasets indicate a much lower ratio, based on
67 the assumption that snow depth has much greater spatial variability than snow density

68 (Elder et al., 1998; Sturm et al., 2010). Nonetheless, and despite the lower range of
69 variability for snow density relative to depth, it is widely recognized that snow density
70 is subject to marked seasonal and intra-annual variability due to climatic variability
71 (Meløysund et al., 2007; Jonas et al., 2009; Mizukumi and Perica, 2010; Svomova,
72 2011), and substantial spatial variability in response to factors including elevation
73 gradients, exposure to solar radiation and wind, as well as the slope and landscape type
74 (Onuchin and Burerina, 1996; Grünewald et al., 2010; Sturm et al., 2010). Thus,
75 accurate and efficient SWE computation requires a sound estimation of the temporal
76 and spatial variability of snow density at various scales, yet very few studies have
77 attempted to quantify the within-site spatial variability of bulk snow density. Jonas et al.
78 (2009) reviewed studies carried out in the USA, Canada and Switzerland (Bray, 1973;
79 Janowicz et al., 2003; Sturm and Liston, 2003; Kershaw and McCulloh, 2007) on snow
80 density and SWE measurements involving samples taken 1–10 m apart, and reported
81 that the variability in density was 7–23%.

82 In estimating SWE many studies have incorporated snow density variability, on the
83 basis that bulk density is positively correlated to snow depth due to the weight of the
84 overlying snow compacting the underlying layers (Kojima, 1966). Lundberg et al.
85 (2006) presented various equations that have been used to relate snow density to snow
86 depth in studies of seasonal snow cover in Canada, Norway, the former USSR and the
87 USA. They also reported a marked increase in the accuracy of SWE estimates based on
88 densities computed using depth, rather than average densities calculated for entire
89 drainage catchments. Jonas et al. (2009) used a set of regressions to calculate the SWE
90 from snow depth for different months and elevations in Switzerland, and concluded that
91 the error in SWE estimates using this approach was not greater than the variability of
92 repeated SWE measurements at a single site. Sturm et al. (2010) applied statistical

93 models based on Bayesian analysis to an extensive dataset for the USA, Canada and
94 Switzerland. The predictor variables were snow depth and time of the year for the
95 various snow climate regions. They found that 90% of the computed SWE values fell
96 within ± 8 cm of the measured values. However, the relation between snow depth and
97 density was not similarly robust at all sites, or for all times of the year and depth classes.
98 Thus, Jonas et al. (2009) reported pronounced variability around the fitted regression for
99 the relation of depth to density in shallow snowpacks. Also, Pomeroy and Gray (1995)
100 reported negligible covariance between these parameters in snowpacks shallower than
101 80 cm, and very small covariances for deeper snowpacks. Moreover, these studies were
102 based on correlations observed at different times of the year in separated geographical
103 settings. Thus the derived results are not necessarily applicable to snowpack sampled at
104 a given time of the year and in a particular basin or slope.

105 In the snow seasons 2009–10 and 2010–11 we conducted four intensive field surveys
106 of snow depth and density in the Tena and Portalet valleys, in Spain and France. The
107 surveys were conducted in early February and mid-April in each year, with the aim of
108 sampling typical winter and spring snowpacks. The main purpose of the study was to
109 quantify the spatial variability of snow depth at the local scale (within areas of 1–2
110 km²), and to investigate the potential causes of variability, including snow depth
111 distribution and local terrain conditions (elevation, exposure to solar radiation, slope
112 angle and terrain curvature). We investigated the use of regression models (linear, tree
113 and generalized additive models) to predict the spatial distribution of snow density. The
114 errors in densities computed using different models and their implications for estimating
115 SWE were compared with those based on the widely-used procedure of applying
116 average measurements of snow density to adjacent snow depths.

117

118 **2. DATA AND METHODS**

119 ***2.1 Snow surveys and measurement of snow density***

120 The snow surveys were conducted in February and April of 2010, and repeated in
121 2011; they are henceforth referred to as F10 and A10, and F11 and A11, respectively.
122 Three areas (Piedrafita, Balneario de Panticosa and Portalet) in the Tena valley (central
123 Spanish Pyrenees, headwater of the Ebro basin) were surveyed (Figure 1). The main
124 differences between these areas are their geographic positions (from north to south) in
125 the valley, and the general orientation of the surveyed zones: north-facing in Piedrafita,
126 west- and east-facing in Balneario de Panticosa (B. Panticosa), and south-facing in
127 Portalet. Each survey involved 4–5 days (18 days of fieldwork for the four surveys).

128 Figure 2 shows the evolution of precipitation, temperature and snow depth measured
129 at a meteorological station located in the study area at 2056 m a.s.l. during the study
130 winters. It indicates that the two years were different in terms of climate and snowpack.
131 The 2009-2010 snow season was more cold and humid, and was considered a snowy
132 winter. However, several days prior to the survey F10, there were rainfall events below
133 1800-1900 m a.s.l. The 2010-2011 snow season was dryer and warmer. The snowpack
134 was thinner than the previous year although it was a “normal year” in terms of snow
135 accumulation. However, the end of March and April was very warm and the snow
136 melted quickly, with the disappearance occurring almost a month prior than in 2009-
137 2010. Several days prior to the F11 survey, a heavy snowfall noticeably increased the
138 snowpack, especially at lower elevations. In the weeks prior to the A10 and A11
139 surveys, the weather was warm; the snow grains rounded, the snowpack densified, and
140 as a result had a high water content.

141 The measurement sites were selected randomly, and the number, location, and
142 elevation range of measurements in each area varied for each survey, depending on

143 snow conditions, the presence of snow and the risk of avalanches. The survey elevation
144 ranged from 1517 to 1992 m a.s.l. in Piedrafita, 1710 to 2199 m a.s.l. in Portalet, and
145 1641 to 3015 m in B. Panticosa; the broad elevation range for surveys in B. Panticosa
146 was as a consequence of avalanche risk and the variable elevation of the snowline in
147 this area. For F10, A10, F11 and A11, respectively, a total of 160, 166, 173 and 148
148 snow density measurements sets were made. For all sites the minimum number of
149 measurements sets was > 41 , and the maximum number at any site was 81. The survey
150 site in each area ranged from 1–2 km², and the mean distance between a given
151 measurement and the closest surveyed point was 112 m.

152 Snow density was measured using a Snow-Hydro snow corer (Fairbanks, Alaska;
153 Sturm et al., 2010). We took particular care to avoid the potential inaccuracies
154 associated with snow samplers, and prioritized measurement quality over the total
155 number of samples collected. The snow corer was inserted into the snow until it
156 contacted the ground, and the resulting snow core was removed, bagged and weighed (\pm
157 5 g). If no soil or vegetation was associated with cores sampled in this way, it is
158 possible that the bottom of the snow core has been lost (Sturm et al., 2010). This did not
159 occur often in our study because the ground was generally not frozen and a plug of soil
160 and/or vegetation was typically present. Another potential error in the use of snow
161 samplers is the potential for snow to be pushed out of the path of the corer during its
162 passage through ice layers, resulting in erroneously light samples. To avoid this
163 problem we ensured that the snow core retrieved within the tube was never 5 cm shorter
164 than the depth recorded by the sampler. Where we suspected that the lower part of the
165 core had been lost or the snow had not properly entered the sampler, we dug a pit to
166 control the introduction of the sampler into the snow, and extracted the sampler
167 laterally, as recommended by Jonas et al. (2009). A previous study carried out in the

168 Pyrenees confirmed that bulk snow density estimates from snow samplers were almost
169 identical to those obtained by sampling snow profiles using a wedge cutter in snowpits
170 (Fassnacht et al., 2010). This was consistent with the conclusions of Sturm et al. (2010),
171 who also used the Snow-Hydro sampler and attributed its accuracy in estimating snow
172 density to its design and large cross-sectional area (30 cm²). In this study we replicated
173 sampling at each of the sites until at least three density measurements differing by < 5%
174 were obtained. These were averaged to provide the estimate of density at a given
175 location.

176

177 *2.2 Statistical analysis*

178 Snow density at each location was assessed for its correlation with snow depth and
179 various terrain characteristics including elevation, exposure to solar radiation, slope
180 angle and terrain curvature. These variables may be related to snow density as they can
181 affect the weight of the overlying snowpack (snow depth), the air temperature or
182 incoming energy (elevation, exposure to solar radiation), and the movement of water
183 within the snowpack (slope angle or terrain curvature). Average solar radiation (RAD)
184 received by each cell of the DEM from December to April under clear-sky conditions.
185 This parameter was obtained from a physically based computational model
186 (implemented in the MIRAMON GIS software) that considers the effects of terrain
187 complexity (shadowing and reflection), including slope angle and aspect variables. A
188 detailed description of the model can be found in Pons and Ninyerola (2008).
189 Landscape curvature, defined as the derivative of the rate of change of the landscape,
190 helps to quantify the shape of the landscape surface. Mean (or overall) curvature is a
191 combination of profile and planiform curvature, and is useful for determining local high
192 and low points. In general, the values derived by the "mean curvature" request are

193 almost always equal to the planiform curvature minus the profile curvature. Profile
194 curvature is calculated in the direction of slope; whereas planiform curvature is
195 calculated perpendicular to the direction of slope (Jenness, 2006).

196 The possibility of partial correlations or interactions between snow depth and the
197 terrain characteristics was also explored. The partial correlation procedure involves the
198 calculation of partial correlation coefficients that describe the linear relation between
199 two variables (snow depth and density in this study), while controlling for the effect of
200 other variables (elevation, exposure to solar radiation, terrain curvature and slope). This
201 process enables the effect of one predictor variable to be isolated from the effects of
202 other variables under conditions of multi-collinearity (where two or more predictor
203 variables are highly correlated). The potential for combined effects of snow depth and
204 various predictors on snow density distribution was investigated by calculating the
205 interaction of snow depth and terrain characteristics. For this purpose, predictors were
206 scaled from 0 to 1 and then multiplied (Millard and Neerchal, 2001).

207 Linear regression, binary tree regression and generalized additive models (GAMs)
208 were used to predict snow density from snow depth and terrain characteristics. López-
209 Moreno et al. (2010) have provided a full description of the regression procedures.
210 Linear models enable predictions based on the linear relations between the response and
211 predictor variables. Classification tree models are non-parametric models based on
212 recursive splitting of the information from predictor variables, which minimizes the sum
213 of the squared residuals obtained in each group. Finally, GAMs are non-parametric
214 extensions of generalized linear models (GLMs), which estimate response curves using
215 a non-parametric smoothing function rather than parametric terms. Models were created
216 for each site (Piedrafita, Portalet and B. Panticosa) and each survey (F10, A10, F11 and
217 A11), producing a total of 12 models.

218 The terrain characteristics (elevation, potential incoming radiation, curvature and
219 slope angle) were derived from a 20-m digital elevation model, provided by the
220 Hydrological Authorities of the Ebro basin.

221 Model accuracy was assessed by cross-validation. This involved initial splitting of
222 the data into a number of subsets (8 in this study). In turn, each subset was omitted and
223 the model was fit to the remaining cases. The resultant equation was then applied to the
224 omitted subset to calculate its predicted value (López-Moreno et al., 2010). The SWE
225 was calculated from the measured snow depth and the density obtained from the various
226 regression models, which enabled assessment of the impact of the error in snow density
227 calculation on the estimation of SWE. The error in density and SWE was quantified
228 using the standardized mean absolute error, which was computed from the mean of the
229 absolute differences between the calculated and measured density and SWE, divided by
230 the mean of all measurements.

231 We also associated measurements of snow density to measurements of adjacent snow
232 depth, a common procedure referred to as the double sampling strategy (Dickinson and
233 Whiteley, 1972). For this purpose we classified sampled points for each site and survey
234 date into different sized groups from a cluster analysis using the distance matrix
235 between all measurements as cases (see Fig. 3 for an example of classification of
236 measurements into different numbers of groups). This allowed us to examine the effect
237 of different numbers of snow density measurements on the distribution of density and
238 SWE in a given area. We then took individual values of density for each group and
239 associated these to the remaining depth measurements. This procedure was repeated for
240 each group using all the measurements belonging to that group and provided the mean
241 error for a different number of density measurements. As proposed by Steppuhn (1976)
242 for the optimization of areal SWE, and as used in later experiments by Grünwald et al.

243 (2010), we considered only the density measurement at the average depth for each
244 group.

245

246 **3. RESULTS**

247 ***3.1 Spatial variability of snow depth and snow density***

248 Figure 4 shows the average and range of snow depth and density for each survey and
249 at each site, and Table 1 provides statistics related to each survey. In all cases the
250 variability of snow depth was much greater than that of snow density, although the
251 spatial variability associated with the latter was marked. The coefficient of variation
252 (CV) for snow depth was always > 0.28 , reached 0.76 (F11 in Piedrafita), which was $>$
253 0.4 higher than that of the vast majority of sites and surveys. The survey carried out in
254 F10 yielded the highest mean snow depth but the least spatial variability, but in F11 the
255 opposite was observed (the lowest mean snow depth but the greatest variability). There
256 was not a particular site that systematically exhibited the highest or lowest variability.

257 The CV for snow density ranged from 0.05 (A10 in Piedrafita) to 0.32 (F11 in
258 Piedrafita), but in most cases CV was close to or > 0.1 . The density was greater in April
259 (overall averages of 453 and 455 kg m⁻³ in A10 and A11, respectively) than in February
260 (316.2 and 306 kg m⁻³ in F10 and F11, respectively). The snow density in April was
261 very similar among the sites during both surveys even if intra-annual differences were
262 evident for February in Piedrafita and B. Panticosa, whereas in Portalet almost identical
263 average densities were recorded in the two years. The maximum mean snow density
264 was recorded in Piedrafita during F10, A10 and A11, and the minimum density was
265 found at this site during F11. The maximum density was recorded in Portalet during F11
266 and the minimum during A11. Neither the maximum nor the minimum density was
267 recorded in B. Panticosa during any of the surveys. In general, the spatial variability of

268 snow density was greater and more variable among sites in February (values ranged
269 from 0.07 to 0.32) than in April (values ranged from 0.05 and 0.09). There was no clear
270 relation between mean snow density or depth and its coefficient of variation at any site.
271 As occurred for snow depth, the maximum or minimum CV in snow density was not
272 consistently found at any particular site.

273

274 ***3.2 Correlation of snow density with snow depth and other topographical variables***

275 Figure 5 shows the correlation between snow depth and density in the three study
276 areas during the four surveys. In general, we found no robust relations between snow
277 depth and snow density at any of the study sites. The magnitude and sign of the
278 correlations were extremely variable between sites and surveys. Even if statistically
279 significant correlation was found for February 2010 between depth and density for the
280 sites Portalet Piedrafita and B. Panticosa the correlation was positive for the first site
281 ($r = 0.78$; $\alpha < 0.05$), and negative for the latter two ($r = -0.33$; $\alpha < 0.05$; $r = -0.53$; $\alpha <$
282 0.05) respectively. Two months later snowpack was denser in the three sites and thinner
283 in Piedrafita and Portalet, although it remained with a similar depth in B, Panticosa. At
284 this time, the correlation in Portalet in A10 was still positive, but the Pearson's
285 coefficient was much lower ($r = 0.37$; $\alpha < 0.05$). However, the negative correlations
286 observed in February in Piedrafita and B. Panticosa shifted to significant positive
287 correlations in April ($r = 0.46$; $\alpha < 0.05$ and $r = 0.26$; $\alpha < 0.05$, respectively). Similar
288 variability among sites and surveys was observed during 2011. In this case Piedrafita
289 showed the strongest positive correlation in February ($r = 0.84$; $\alpha < 0.05$), but this had
290 decreased markedly by April ($r = 0.35$; $\alpha < 0.05$). In Portalet the correlation was
291 positive and statistically significant in February ($r = 0.46$; $\alpha < 0.05$), whereas in April,
292 when snowpack was denser and thicker in the three sites, it was still positive but not

293 statistically significant ($r = 0.19$; $\alpha > 0.05$). In B. Panticosa the relation was negative
294 and statistically significant in February ($r = -0.30$; $\alpha < 0.05$), but positive and not
295 statistically significant in April ($r = 0.16$; $\alpha < 0.05$). No notable differences were found
296 in the sign and significance of the relations between snow depth and density during the
297 surveys conducted in February and April. As indicated above, independent of the sign
298 of the correlation, in very few cases were the relations strong, with most Pearson's
299 correlation coefficients being < 0.5 or > -0.5 . When all cases were considered
300 independently of site, no significant relations were found between snow depth and
301 density.

302 The bivariate-correlation between snow density and the various topographic factors
303 was also quite variable among sites and between surveys, as shown in Table 2. Thus,
304 the correlation was statistically significant between snow density and elevation at
305 Piedrafita for all surveys. However, the correlation was positive for A10, F11 and A11
306 but negative for F10. In Portalet, elevation showed a significant positive correlation
307 with snow density during F10, A10 and F11, but during A11 the correlation was not
308 statistically significant. In B. Panticosa, the correlation with elevation was negative and
309 statistically significant during F10 and F11, positive and statistically significant during
310 A10, and there was no significant relation during A11.

311 During A10, exposure to solar radiation showed a positive and statistically
312 significant correlation with snow density in Portalet and B. Panticosa, but in Piedrafita
313 the correlation was negative (-0.24 ; $\alpha < 0.05$). For the remaining surveys there were
314 almost no significant correlations with radiation, with the exception of Portalet during
315 F10. Terrain curvature only showed a positive and statistically significant correlation
316 with snow density in B. Panticosa during F10, and in Portalet during F11. Slope had a
317 negative and statistically significant correlation with snow density in the three study

318 areas during the F10 survey. However, a positive and statistically significant correlation
319 was found in Portalet during A10, in Piedrafita during F11, and in B. Panticosa during
320 F11 and A11. As occurred with snow depth, the Pearson's correlation coefficients
321 between terrain characteristics and snow density rarely exceeded 0.5.

322 Table 2 also shows the partial correlation coefficients between snow density, snow
323 depth and the considered topographic variables. Results confirm that the observed bi-
324 variate correlations between snow depth and snow density were largely unaffected by
325 other variables. Thus, there was only a slight decrease in the correlation coefficients
326 when the terrain characteristics were simultaneously considered in relation to snow
327 depth. The strongest correlations observed (Portalet during F10 and Piedrafita during
328 F11; $r = 0.79$ and 0.85 , respectively) declined markedly but remained very high when
329 the effect of elevation was removed ($r = 0.68$ and 0.74), and this result was largely
330 unaffected by other terrain characteristics. Although in some surveys the correlation
331 coefficients also decreased when partial correlations were considered, the statistically
332 significant bivariate correlation between snow depth and snow density was non-
333 significant when the effect of terrain characteristics was considered.

334 Table 2 further shows that there was no clear evidence of an interaction between
335 snow depth and other terrain characteristics that could adequately explain the spatial
336 variability of snow density, as these interactions did not markedly increased the
337 correlation coefficient. In most cases snow depth alone explained as much as any other
338 variable. However, in some cases there were appreciable increases in the correlation
339 coefficient. For example, the correlation increased from 0.26 to 0.62 in B. Panticosa
340 during A10, when the interaction between snow depth and exposure to solar radiation
341 was considered. However, such increases in explained variance were uncommon, and
342 no systematic interactions were found for any site or survey.

343

344 *3.3 Prediction of the spatial distribution of snow density: implications for the*
345 *calculation of SWE*

346 Table 3 shows the variables selected as predictors by the multiple linear regression
347 models (stepwise selection), the coefficient of determination obtained for each model,
348 and the resulting errors in density and SWE estimates. The errors in density and SWE
349 estimates are also plotted in Figure 6A. Snow depth was introduced as a predictor in the
350 regression models except in Panticosa and Portalet during A10 and A11. However, the
351 magnitude and sign of the weighting coefficients for snow depth in the models differed
352 markedly among sites and surveys. In some cases slope, radiation or elevation was
353 selected as the only predictor, or they complemented snow depth in predicting the
354 spatial distribution of snow density.

355 With the exception of Portalet during F10 ($r^2 = 0.62$) and Piedrafita during F11 ($r^2 =$
356 0.79), the linear models explained $< 40\%$ of the variance in snow density variability.
357 The snow density predicted from linear models was associated with absolute errors of
358 approximately 20% in several cases (Portalet during F10, Piedrafita during F11, and B.
359 Panticosa during F10, A10 and F11). In other cases the errors in density estimates
360 ranged from 5–10% (all sites during A11, Piedrafita during F10, Piedrafita and Portalet
361 during A10, and Portalet during F11). In general, the predictions of snow density were
362 more accurate during April than February, and particular differences in accuracy were
363 found when the three areas were compared. When the predicted density was used to
364 estimate the SWE, the absolute errors ranged from 4.1 to 28.9% among sites and
365 surveys. In 8 of the 12 combinations of site and survey, the error in SWE exceeded
366 10%. When the models considered interactions among variables (e.g. regression tree
367 models) or non-linear relations (e.g. GAMs), the estimation of snow density or SWE did

368 not result in improvements over linear models. Thus, Table 3 and Figure 6B and 6C
369 show that the values of the standardized MAE for snow density and SWE estimations
370 were generally higher when density was calculated using trees or GAMs than when
371 linear regression models were used.

372 Figure 7 shows the error in snow density and SWE estimates when we associated
373 measurements of snow density with measurements of adjacent snow depth. For this
374 analysis we classified the sampling points for each site survey into groups of different
375 sizes using a cluster analysis based on the distance matrix among all measurements.
376 From Figure 7 it is evident that in most of the site surveys we can expect an average
377 error of 5–10% \pm 5% (1 standard deviation) in snow density and SWE estimates using
378 this procedure. In some cases the error was much greater than 10%, as occurred with
379 respect to density in B. Panticosa during F10 and Piedrafita during F11, and for SWE in
380 B. Panticosa during F10 and A11, Piedrafita during F11 and A11, and Portalet during
381 A11. Surprisingly, the accuracy in prediction of snow density and SWE did not clearly
382 improve when the number of density measurements was enhanced. Thus, with an
383 increase in the number of measurements from 1 to 10 the observed decrease in error
384 estimates was marginal. When the density value obtained from the measurement
385 location that exhibited the mean snow depth was associated with the other depth
386 measurements of each group, we generally found that the error was very similar to or
387 greater than the average error obtained from random resampling. In several cases the
388 error exceeded the \pm 1 standard deviation range (B. Panticosa during F11, A10 and A11;
389 Piedrafita during F11 and A11).

390

391 **4. DISCUSSION**

392 Measurements of snow depth and density were made during four surveys in a valley
393 of the central Pyrenees, providing valuable information about the spatial distribution of
394 snow density in three areas each comprising 1–2 km². This is one of few studies of this
395 type, and the first carried out in the Pyrenees, a mountainous area characterized by more
396 temperate conditions than the Alps, Scandinavia and North America, where snow
397 density dynamics has been previously analysed.

398 Some of the results of this study concerning the spatial variability of snow depth and
399 density are consistent with studies conducted in other geographical areas. We found that
400 snow depth exhibited greater spatial variability than snow density, as reported
401 previously (Dickinson and Whitely, 1972). For most of the site surveys we found that
402 the CV of snow depth ranged from 0.27 to 0.76, while for snow density it ranged from
403 0.05 to 0.32. In most cases (see Table 1) the difference in the variability in depth and
404 density was similar to the four-fold dynamic range reported by Sturm et al. (2010) for a
405 north Alaska dataset. The local scale variability we found in our 1–2 km² study areas in
406 the Pyrenees (CV from 5 to 32%), where the mean distance between a measurement and
407 its closest survey point was 112 m, is very similar to that reported in previous studies
408 (7–23%) that analyzed within-site snow density variability using sample spacing of 1–
409 10 m (Bray, 1973; Janowicz et al. 2003; Sturm and Liston, 2003; Kershaw and
410 McCulloh, 2007; Jonas et al., 2009).

411 Although the surveys were conducted during only two snow seasons, the evolution of
412 snow density appeared to follow a clear seasonal pattern involving a progressive
413 increase in density of the snow pack from winter to spring, when the maximum density
414 was observed. This is a consequence to the existence of persistent positive temperature
415 at high elevation in March and April in both years (see Figure 2), leading to melting
416 conditions and compaction of the snowpack. This is consistent with findings reported

417 by Jonas et al. (2009) for the Swiss Alps, and Mizukami and Perica (2009) for the
418 western USA, Lundberg et al., (2006) for Sweden and Pomeroy and Gray (1995) for
419 sub-arctic regions. In a similar finding to that reported in the latter study, we found that
420 although the climatic conditions differed markedly between the two snow seasons, the
421 snow density in April varied little between the years. In general, the snow density was
422 greater and more spatially variable between sites in February ($CV = 0.07\text{--}0.32$) than in
423 April, when the density was higher and more consistent among sites and surveys ($CV =$
424 $0.05\text{--}0.09$). This result has noticeable implications for predicting spring runoff from
425 manual snow measurements, as maximum SWE is normally recorded in April in the
426 majority of the Pyrenean range (López-Moreno and García-Ruiz, 2004; López-Moreno
427 et al., 2009) and uncertainty of density estimation at the basin scale is much lower than
428 during the cold season.

429 We found no robust relations between snow depth and snow density at our study
430 sites. On few occasions did the coefficient of correlation between depth and density
431 exceed 0.5, but more importantly we found that the correlations were remarkably
432 variable in both magnitude and sign between sites during a given survey, and between
433 surveys at a given site. This result indicates that at small spatial scales and considering a
434 particular time, it is not possible to find a robust relation between snow depth and
435 density such as has been previously reported when more extensive datasets referred to
436 multiple geographic locations and different periods of the snow season were used
437 (Lundberg et al., 2006; Jonas et al., 2009; Sturm et al. 2010). Thus, the previous studies
438 reported robust depth and density relations that varied throughout the season but tended
439 to be location dependent. These relations enabled calculation of the SWE using only
440 snow depth data, with errors very close to the expected variability associated with the
441 measurement procedure (Jonas et al., 2009). The divergence between our results and

442 those of the studies noted above is related in part to the different spatial scales involved;
443 this study covers small areas with a high density of measurements while the other
444 studies use data collected over a regional and continental scales.

445 The resolution of the density data used by others is in the range of kilometers (e.g.,
446 Lundberg et al., 2006 used 11 stations over 12386 km²; Jonas et al., 2009 used 37 sites
447 over the Swiss Alps), while our data were collected at approximately 100 meter
448 intervals, or two to three orders of magnitude finer. The correlation length of our data
449 was less than 150 meters, based on variogram analysis (see Deems et al., 2006). This
450 correlation length is much finer than can be computed from the operational data
451 (Fassnacht and Deems, 2006). The variability of snow density at short distances is
452 affected by additional factors such as the compaction effect of the overlying snow on
453 the underlying snowpack, which is the main argument to explain the relation between
454 snow depth and density. This variability can be due to several reasons, such as the
455 existence of preferential flow paths of melting water within the snowpack, the irregular
456 accumulation of fresh snow due to wind redistribution and the small scale variability of
457 temperature and incoming solar radiation in mountain areas (Molotch et al., 2005).

458 Datasets containing more data covering more geographical settings and dates of the
459 winter can smooth the local variability. This can be seen in the pronounced variation
460 about the fitted regression between the snow depth and density (Pomeroy and Gray,
461 1995; Jonas et al., 2009). Such datasets retain the main signal that normally associates
462 denser snow in deeper snowpacks. Also, the climate characteristics of the Pyrenees,
463 where melting events can occur at different elevations throughout the snow season may
464 introduce a higher complexity in the characteristics of the snowpack during winter time
465 than in other areas where cold conditions are usually more persistent during the
466 accumulation period. The analysis of partial correlations showed that the correlations

467 found between snow depth and density in this study were not affected by multi-
468 collinearity with terrain characteristics including elevation, incoming solar radiation,
469 terrain curvature and slope angle, none of which showed a robust relation with the
470 spatial distribution of snow density.

471 The different relation between snow depth, density and topographic variables among
472 sites and surveys found in this study can be related with specific antecedent
473 meteorological and snow conditions in each specific site or survey. An example is the
474 extreme variability in the sign and magnitude of the correlation between snow depth and
475 density found in February 2011 when the snow depth ranged from 50 to 100 cm. At
476 that time there was new snow immediately prior to the survey (Figure 2). Older snow
477 layers were very thin and highly metamorphosed and compacted, so fresh snow
478 represented a considerable fraction of the total snow depth at that time. Thus, at spots
479 where more fresh snow accumulated, lower densities were measured. In this particular
480 survey, accumulation of fresh snow was very variable due to the effect of wind blowing
481 and possibly the irregular spatial distribution of precipitation, hence it resulted in a
482 highly variable response of snow density to snow depth amongst the three sites. Snow
483 conditions were very different in February 2010. At that time, rain occurred in
484 Piedrafita and Panticosa sites prior to the snow surveys (Figure 2). Rain noticeably
485 increased the water content of the upper layers of the snowpack, which yielded a higher
486 bulk density for a thinner snowpack. This yielded the negative correlation between
487 depth and density at these sites. However, Portalet, that is located at the northernmost
488 location of the valley, received much less precipitation, since the moisture came from
489 the south, and it is likely that most of it occurred as wet snow rather than rain due to its
490 higher elevation. At this site, the observed relation between snow depth and density was
491 positive. The periods before the April surveys in both years were characterized by

492 melting conditions due to the persistence of temperatures warmer than 0 degrees
493 Celsius. Thus, the snowpack was isothermal at all sites and the distribution of density
494 was more regular. At this time, the relation between depth and density more similar to
495 the trends reported in previous larger scale studies at (Jonas et al., 2009; Sturm et al.,
496 2010).

497 The marked variability in the correlations between snow density and snow depth or
498 other terrain characteristics among sites and surveys showed that the linear regression
499 models used to predict the spatial distribution of snow density were inadequate in terms
500 of the selected predictor variables and their coefficients; in general these models
501 explained only a small proportion of the variance. Furthermore, neither the use of a non-
502 linear regression model (GAM) nor assessment of the interactions among variables
503 using regression tree models improved the snow density predictions. Further research
504 should assess the adequacy of the resolution of the digital elevation model used to
505 derive the terrain characteristics (20 m of grid size) on the accuracy of the models, as
506 previous research suggests that density may vary at the meter scale (Fassnacht et al.,
507 2010; Grünewald et al., 2010). However, the use of digital elevation models at higher
508 spatial resolutions is limited for many mountain areas and also it could be problematic
509 due to georeferencing of the density measurements with respect to the usual accuracy of
510 the most commonly used GPS systems (2-10 meters of accuracy). Since the spatial
511 variability of snow density was much less than that of snow depth, the inability to
512 adequately predict the spatial distribution of snow density had only a moderate effect on
513 the estimates of SWE in each site survey. Thus, linear models provided standardized
514 absolute errors ranging from 4.1 to 28.2%, and in 9 of the 12 combinations of site and
515 survey the error was less than 15%. In the absence of a large number of density
516 measurements, the association of density measurements with adjacent snow depths has

517 been reported to be a reliable procedure for estimating SWE (Sturm et al., 2010). In
518 most cases we found the average error ranged from 5 to 15%, with an uncertainty of
519 approximately $5\% \pm 1$ standard deviation. The use of the snow density measured at the
520 mean snow depth in the survey or a subset of the survey (Steppuhn, 1976) was not
521 found to improve the areal estimation of SWE. This was a consequence of the
522 inconsistent relation between snow depth and density in our dataset.

523 Future studies in the Pyrenees and other mountain areas should analyze snow density
524 variability at different temporal and spatial (resolution and extent) scales than
525 considered in this study. This would enable comparison with previous reports, and
526 assessment of whether the climatic conditions in the Pyrenees explain the different
527 relation we found between snow depth and density relative to that reported for other
528 mountain areas. In addition, long-term monitoring of snow density during different
529 periods of the snow season would improve understanding of the seasonal variability of
530 snowpack characteristics, and be of use in the monitoring of mountain water resources.

531

532 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

533 Four surveys conducted at three 1–2 km² sites in a Pyrenean valley revealed that
534 snow depth variability was much greater than the variability in snow density. Thus, the
535 CV of snow depth ranged from 0.27 to 0.76, whereas for snow density it ranged from
536 0.05 to 0.32. The snow density in April was much greater than in February. The spatial
537 variability of snow density was greater among sites in February (values ranged from
538 0.07 to 0.32) than in April, when the variability was less and more consistent among
539 sites and surveys (values ranged from 0.05 to 0.09). Snow depth is generally statistically
540 correlated with density, but in this study the correlation coefficients were generally low,
541 and the magnitude and sign of the correlations were highly variable amongst sites and

542 surveys. Correlations with other topographic variables showed the same variability in
543 magnitude and sign, which resulted in the regression models being very inconsistent
544 and, in general, explaining only a small proportion of the variance. This paper did not
545 aim to explain why the density varies based on the snowpack processed, but rather
546 provided insight into performing snow surveys. Distributed meteorological information
547 and the layered conditions of the snowpack would help to provide a physical reasoning
548 of such variability in the response of snow density to snow depth and other terrain
549 characteristics. We have discussed the relevant influence of the antecedent climatic and
550 snow conditions to each survey on observed spatial distribution of snow density during
551 each survey in the three different sites. However, as a consequence of the moderate
552 spatial variability of snow density, the SWE estimates derived from computed densities
553 did not usually exceed 15% (although in some cases they reached 30%). In April when
554 accumulated snowpack explain most of the spring runoff in the Pyrenees, snow density
555 is less variable than in mid winter, which represents a noticeable advantage for SWE
556 estimation from manual measurements. The association of snow density to adjacent
557 snow depth measurements seems to be a reliable procedure in cases where the number
558 of density measurements is limited. Thus, the average error using this procedure
559 generally ranged from 5 to 15% ($\pm 5\%$ for 1 standard deviation). No clear relation was
560 found between sample size and improved estimates of the SWE.

561

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648

649

650 **Figure Captions**

651 **Figure 1.** Location of the Tena Valley (Iberian Peninsula) and the three study sites.

652 Points indicate the sampling locations in each survey.

653 **Figure 2.** Evolution of precipitation (bottom panels), temperature (middle panels)

654 and snow depth (top panels) in an automatic weather station located at 2056 m a.s.l.

655 in the Tena valley. Grey bands indicate the periods when snow surveys were conducted.

656 **Figure 3.** Example of a survey (Piedrafita, A10) classified by different numbers of

657 groups. Classification was based on cluster analysis using the matrix of distance

658 between measurements as cases.

659 **Figure 4.** Summary of depth and density measurements for each survey and site.

660 Dots indicate average depth and density. Thick bars indicate the 90th and 10th

661 percentiles, and the thin bars represent the maximum and minimum values measured in

662 each survey. The number of measurements and the elevation range sampled in each

663 survey are shown in the bottom left corner of each panel. Arrows indicate the change in

664 mean depth and density from February to April in both analyzed years.

665 **Figure 5.** Correlation between snow depth and density at the three study sites during

666 the four surveys.

667 **Figure 6.** Standardized mean absolute error (%) for SWE (squares) and density

668 (triangles) estimation for the different models: (A) linear, (B) tree and (C) GAM model

669 for the 3 sites separately and for all sites taken together.

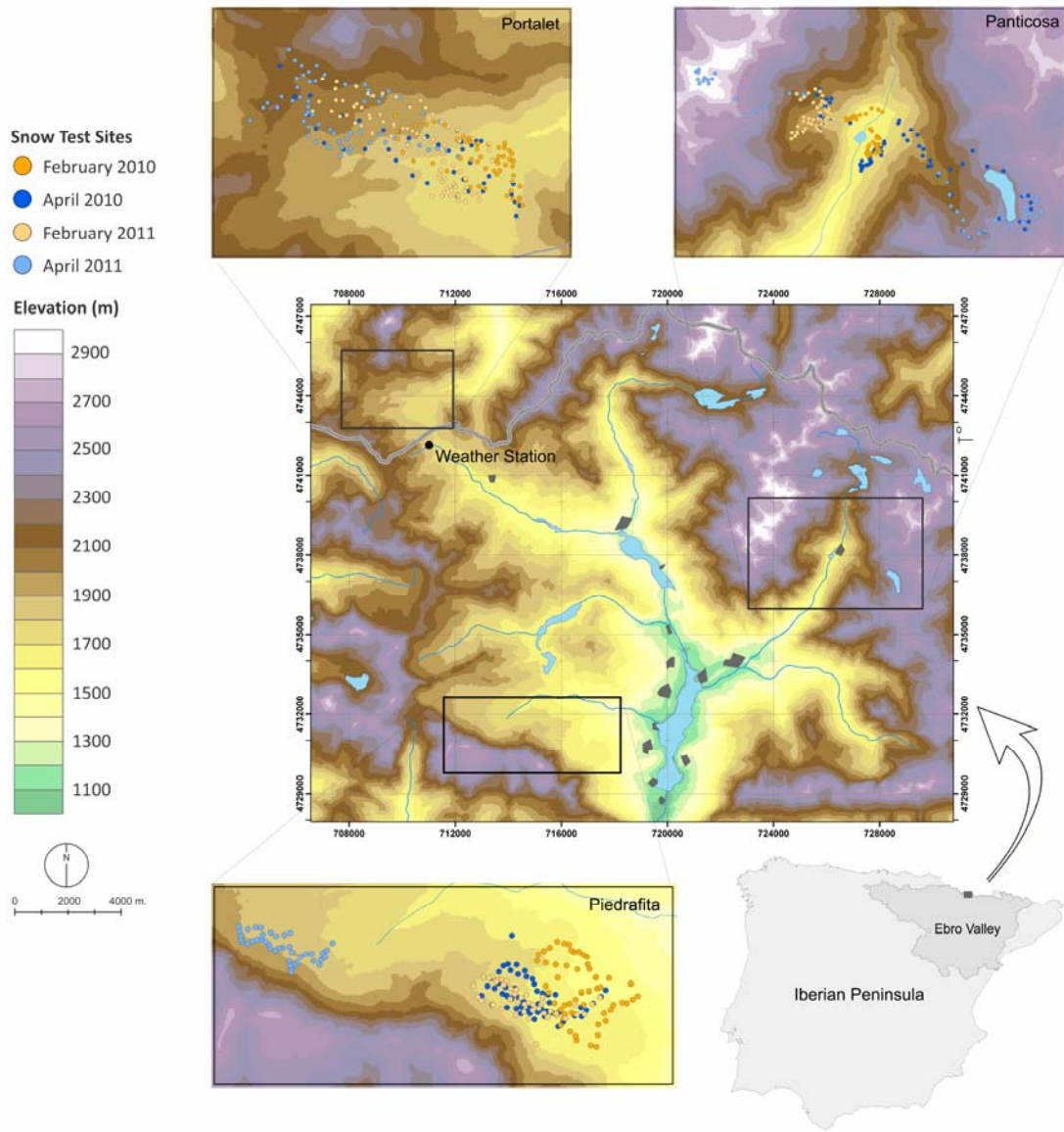
670 **Figure 7.** Error in snow density (dashed grey line and triangles) and SWE (solid

671 black line and squares) estimates for density measurements based on adjacent snow

672 depths. Crosses indicate the average error from replicates of all cases belonging to each

673 group; lines indicate ± 1 standard deviation; triangles indicate the error when the

674 measurement that exhibited the mean snow depth was associated to the rest of depth
675 measurements of each group. Cases where the error was $> 20\%$ are not shown in the
676 plots.

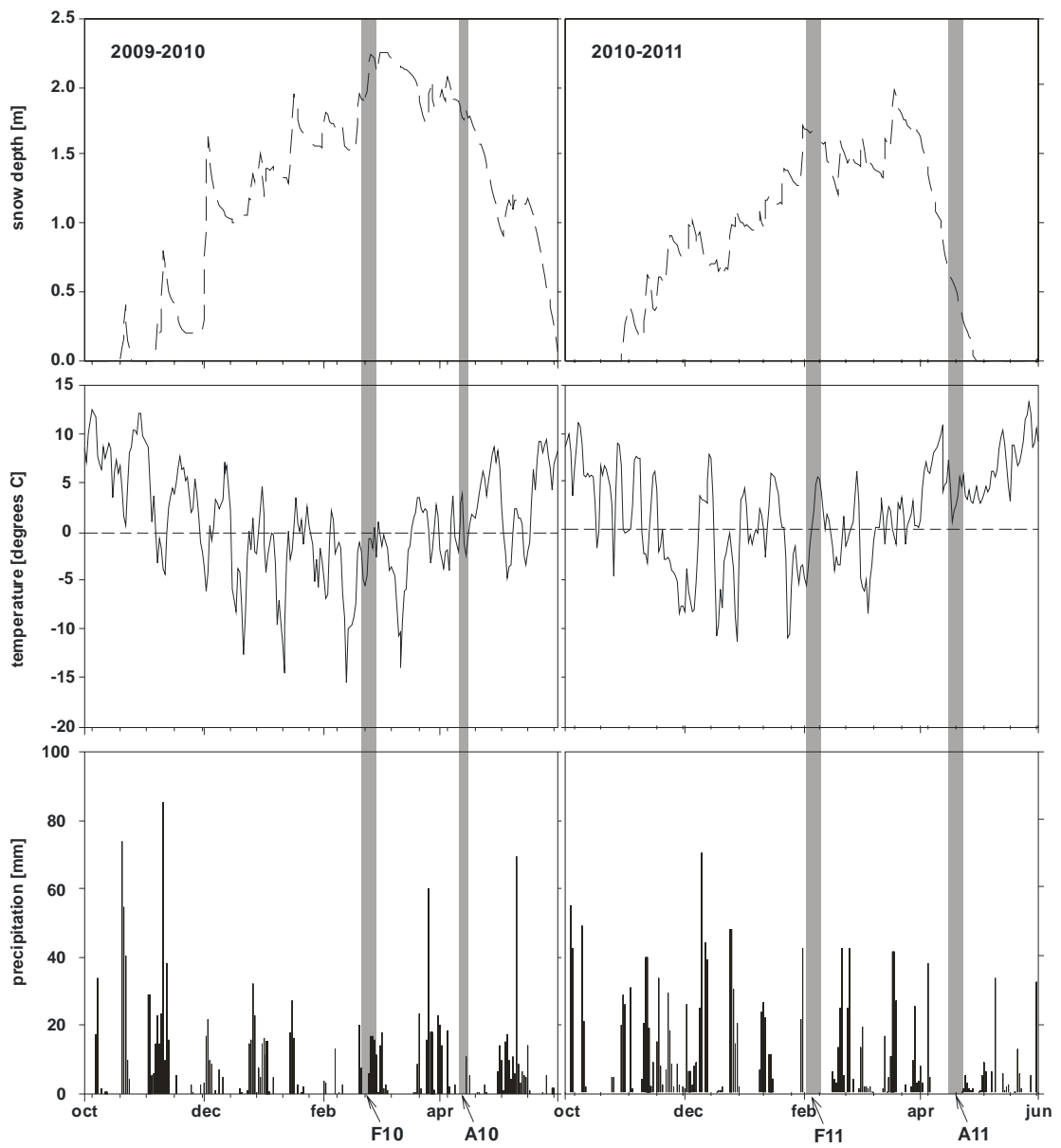


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679 **Figure 1.**

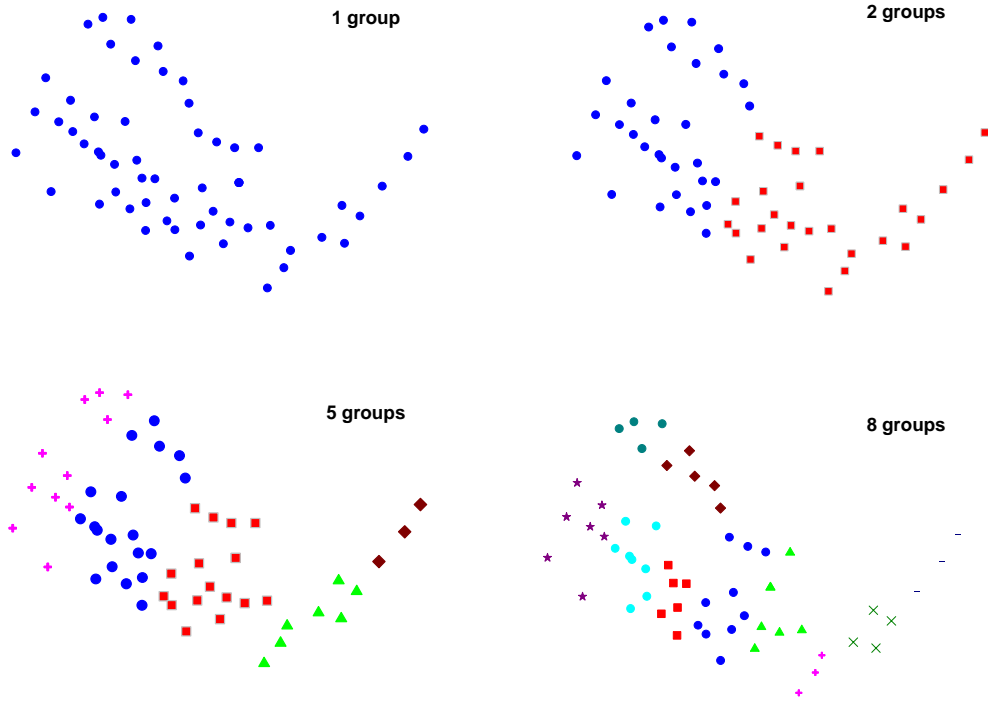
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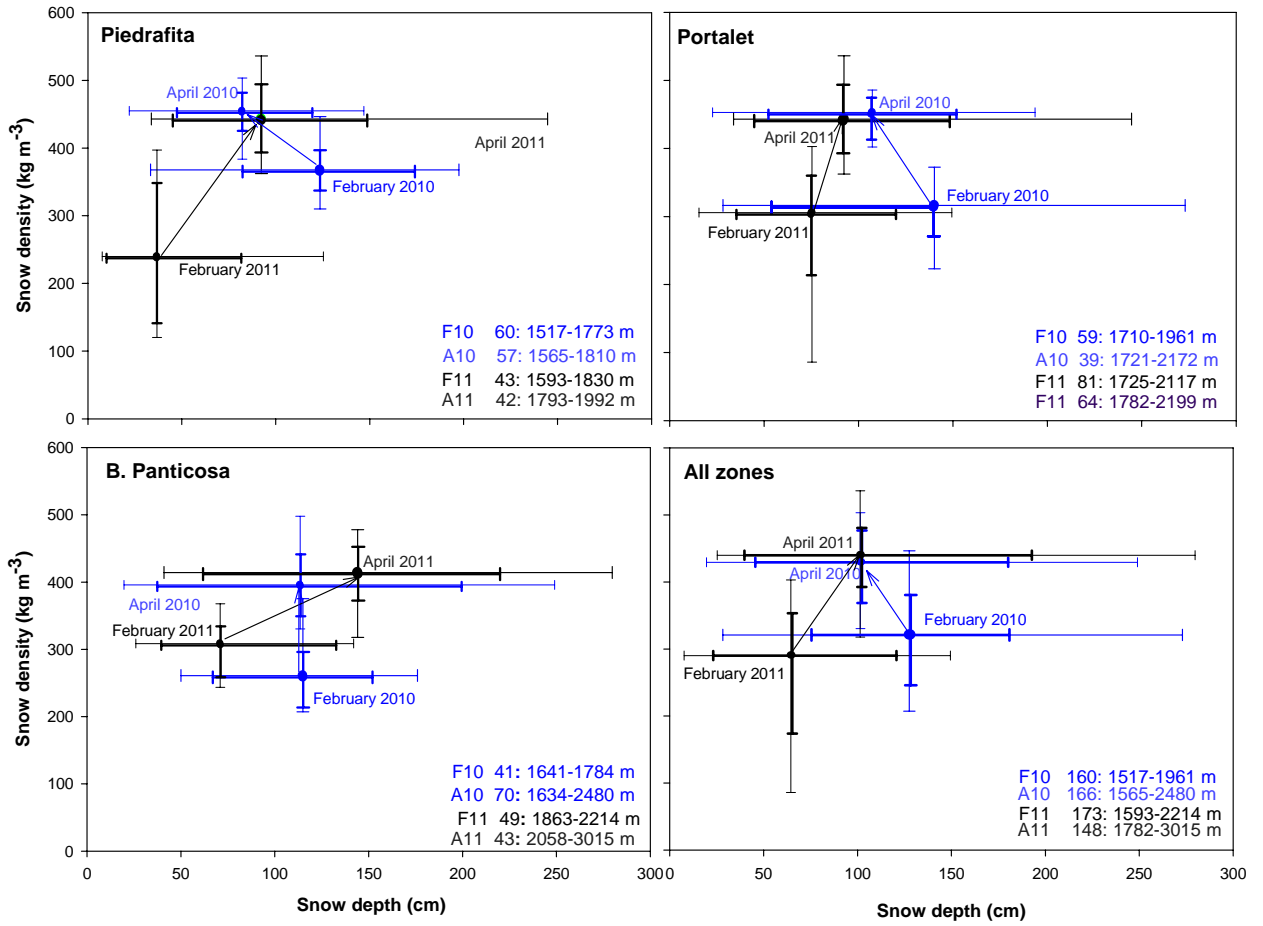
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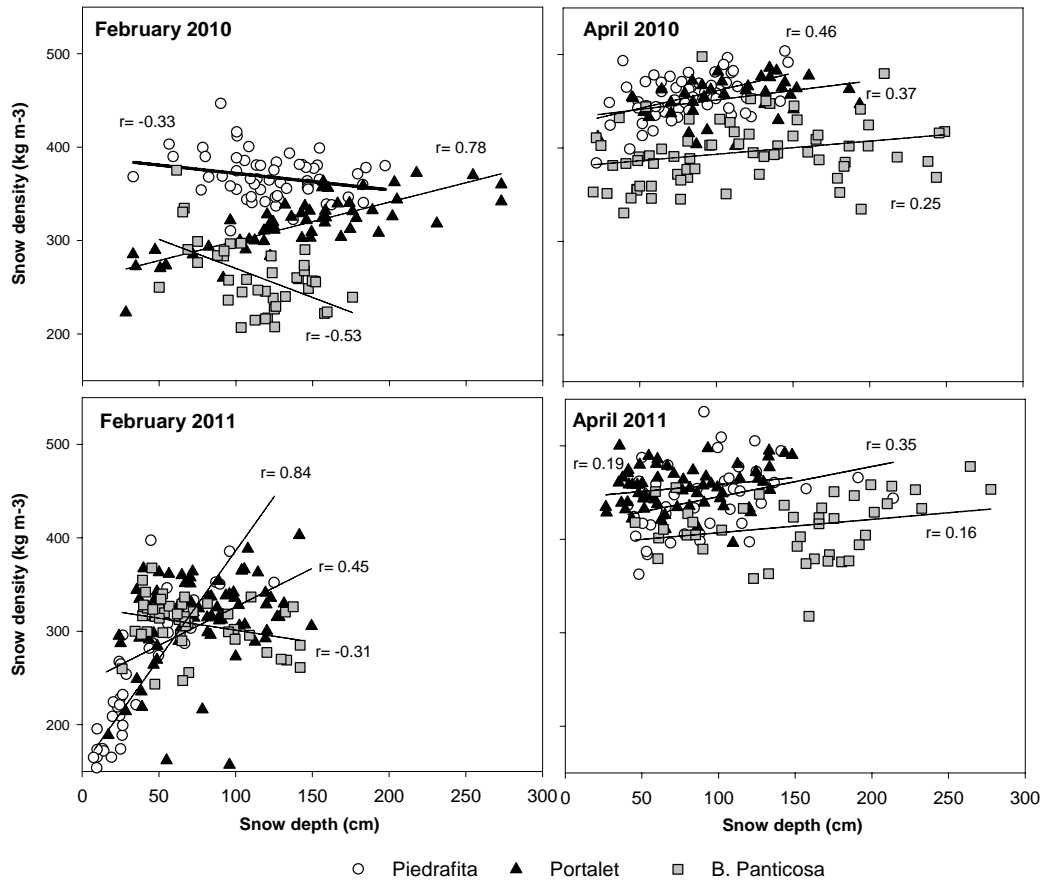
Figure 2.



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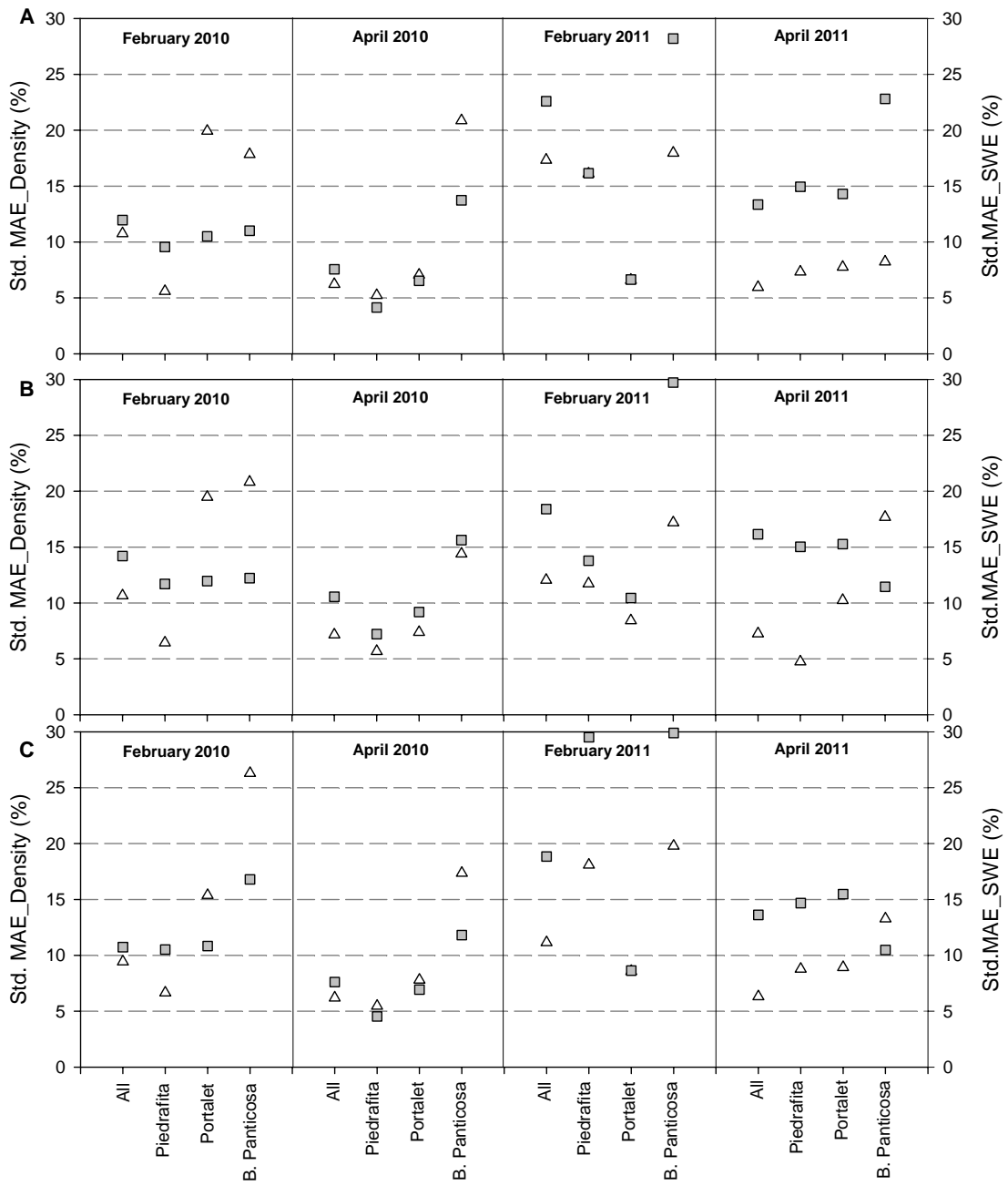
684 **Figure 3.**





688

689 **Figure 5.**

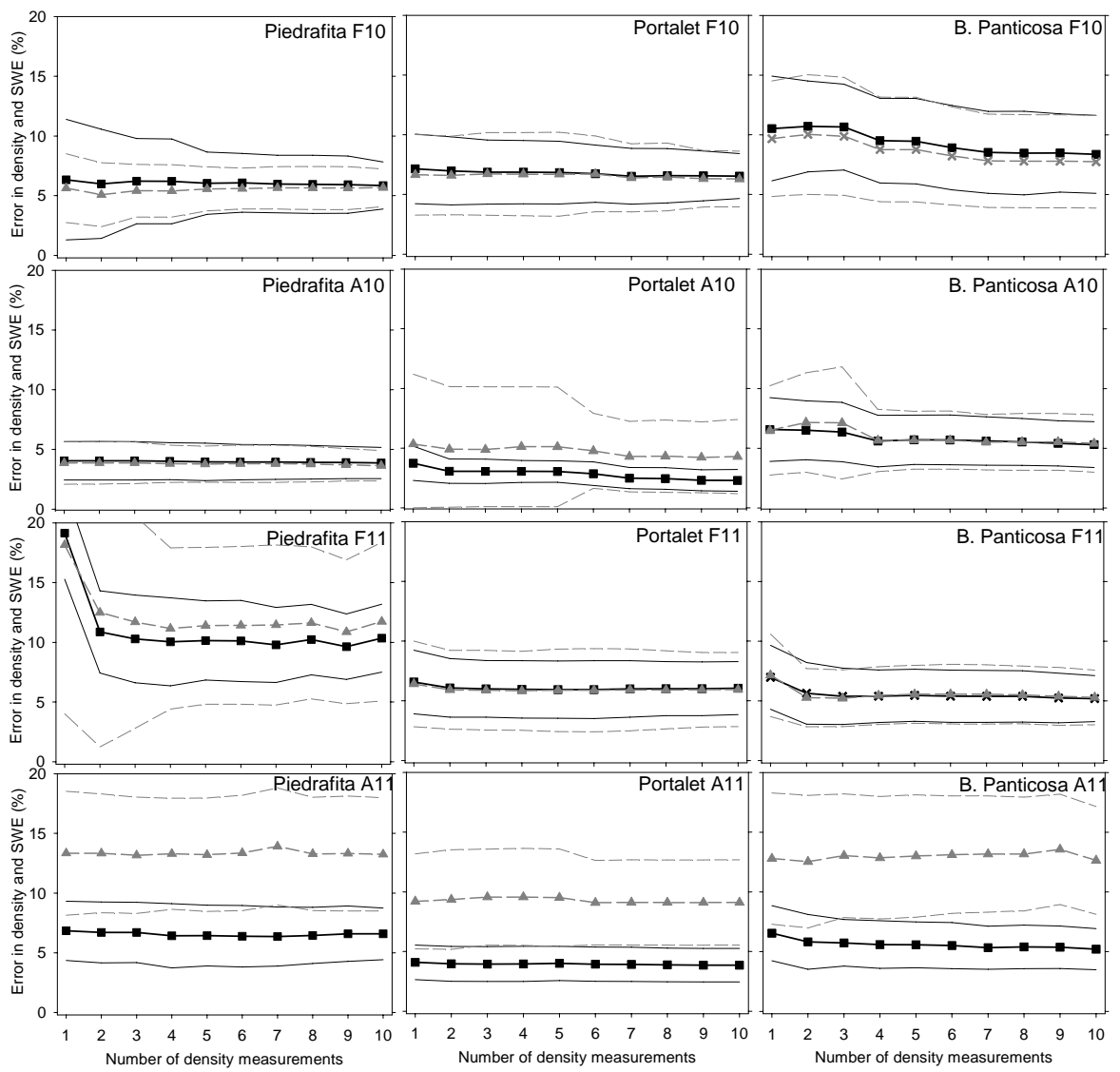


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692 **Figure 6.**

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695

696

Figure 7.

697

698

Table 1. Snow depth and density statistics for each site and survey.

		Snow depth				Snow density			
		F10	A10	F11	A11	F10	A10	F11	A11
All	Average	140.2	106.4	76.4	76.8	316.2	452.6	305.8	455.2
	Std. Deviation	55.3	39.7	33.3	33.4	29.3	21.7	58.1	22.9
	CV	0.39	0.37	0.44	0.43	0.09	0.05	0.19	0.05
	Range Max-Min	174.5	160.6	189.0	158.3	47.2	18.5	103.6	22.9
	RangeC90-C10	117.4	94.5	129.7	86.8	23.7	13.7	49.8	13.4
	Range C75-C25	44.0	51.6	78.9	50.6	10.0	6.2	15.8	7.3
Piedrafita	Average	122.8	81.3	36.8	92.0	367.8	454.2	239.8	443.0
	Std. Deviation	34.2	28.9	27.8	39.7	24.2	23.6	75.9	37.8
	CV	0.28	0.36	0.76	0.43	0.07	0.05	0.32	0.09
	Range Max-Min	133.7	153.8	320.1	188.2	37.1	26.4	115.5	39.3
	RangeC90-C10	65.7	68.2	95.5	85.5	18.3	12.5	68.5	21.9
	Range C75-C25	36.2	39.1	55.2	56.2	8.4	6.4	42.5	10.8
Portalet	Average	114.9	114.7	71.2	149.2	260.9	395.4	308.3	414.0
	Std. Deviation	30.8	62.6	32.7	58.1	36.0	33.8	27.6	33.4
	CV	0.27	0.55	0.46	0.39	0.14	0.09	0.09	0.08
	Range Max-Min	109.6	199.9	163.0	155.5	64.5	42.3	40.3	38.7
	RangeC90-C10	65.0	155.8	139.5	143.9	25.0	20.9	24.1	17.6
	Range C75-C25	35.9	104.1	73.9	89.1	14.1	10.0	10.6	10.5
B. Panticosa	Average	127.2	101.5	65.0	102.0	320.8	429.1	290.1	439.9
	Std. Deviation	43.6	50.1	35.6	53.1	51.2	40.1	63.5	35.1
	CV	0.34	0.49	0.55	0.52	0.16	0.09	0.22	0.08
	Range Max-Min	192.4	225.9	234.2	246.3	74.7	40.3	109.2	49.7
	RangeC90-C10	84.1	125.8	149.5	128.2	41.6	24.7	61.0	19.7
	Range C75-C25	39.4	66.9	78.4	71.8	23.6	14.4	22.0	9.9

699

700

701 Table 2. Bivariate correlation, partial correlation (with snow depth), and interactions
 702 between snow density, snow depth and terrain characteristics. Bolded numbers indicate
 703 statistically significant correlations ($\alpha < 0.05$).

704

705

		Bivariate correlations			Partial correlations between snow depth and density controlled by terrain characteristics			Correlation between snow density and snow depth interacting with snow depth		
		Piedrafita	Portalet	B. Panticosa	Piedrafita	Portalet	B. Panticosa	Piedrafita	Portalet	B. Panticosa
F10	Snow depth	-0.33	0.79	-0.53						
	Elevation	0.04	0.34	-0.37	-0.33	0.68	-0.46	-0.33	0.81	-0.58
	Radiation	-0.19	0.18	-0.10	-0.33	0.74	-0.53	-0.33	0.48	-0.20
	Curvature	0.06	0.08	0.29	-0.33	0.73	-0.53	-0.17	0.14	-0.54
	Slope	-0.37	-0.34	-0.40	-0.27	0.70	-0.41	-0.40	0.30	-0.51
A10	Snow depth	0.46	0.37	0.26						
	Elevation	0.10	0.58	0.21	0.45	0.23	0.23	0.46	0.41	0.44
	Radiation	-0.24	0.29	0.49	0.19	0.19	0.13	0.15	0.46	0.62
	Curvature	0.10	-0.11	-0.02	0.36	0.34	0.26	0.01	0.10	0.12
	Slope	0.05	0.30	-0.16	0.29	0.26	0.26	0.28	0.23	0.28
F11	Snow depth	0.85	0.46	-0.30						
	Elevation	0.62	0.39	0.07	0.74	0.28	-0.30	0.87	0.53	-0.30
	Radiation	0.02	0.26	0.17	0.85	0.41	-0.27	0.57	0.47	-0.28
	Curvature	-0.04	0.26	-0.13	0.85	0.43	-0.30	0.42	0.48	-0.25
	Slope	0.30	0.12	0.29	0.83	0.46	-0.26	0.83	0.46	-0.41
A11	Snow depth	0.35	0.19	0.16						
	Elevation	0.16	0.14	0.09	0.31	0.17	0.14	0.35	0.20	0.16
	Radiation	0.03	0.02	0.19	0.35	0.19	0.16	0.30	0.20	0.20
	Curvature	-0.16	0.12	-0.04	0.34	0.19	0.16	0.11	0.10	0.16
	Slope	0.08	0.09	0.57	0.35	0.19	0.14	0.21	0.17	0.21

706

707

708 **Table 3.** Summary statistics for the linear, tree and generalized additive models for
 709 predicting snow density distribution using snow depth and terrain characteristics.

710

		Linear regression models			Tree models		Generalized additive models (GAMs)		
		Explained variance (r^2)	Std_MAE (%)	Error in SWE estimation (%)	Std_MAE (%)	Error in SWE estimation (%)	Std_MAE (%)	Error in SWE estimation (%)	
F10	All sites	Slope	34	10.8	12.0	10.7	14.2	9.4	10.74
	Piedrafita	Snow depth	34	5.6	9.6	6.4	11.7	6.7	10.52
	Portalet	Snow depth	62	19.9	10.5	19.5	12.0	15.4	10.83
	Panticosa	Snow depth; slope	24	17.8	11.0	20.8	12.2	26.3	16.80
A10	All sites	Snow depth, elevation, radiation, curvature, slope	34	6.2	7.6	7.2	10.6	6.2	7.62
	Piedrafita	Snow depth	21	5.2	4.1	5.7	7.2	5.5	4.54
	Portalet	elevation	33	7.1	6.5	7.4	9.2	7.8	6.93
	Panticosa	radiation	24	20.9	13.7	14.4	15.6	17.4	11.81
F11	All sites	Snow depth, elevation, radiation, curvature, slope	37	17.3	22.6	12.1	18.4	11.2	18.84
	Piedrafita	Snow depth, elevation, radiation, slope	79	16.1	16.2	11.7	13.8	18.1	29.52
	Portalet	Snow depth, radiation	21	6.6	6.6	8.4	10.4	8.6	8.64
	Panticosa	Snowdepth, slope	31	18.0	28.2	17.2	29.7	19.8	31.14
A11	All sites	Elevation, slope	16	6.0	13.3	7.3	16.1	6.3	13.62
	Piedrafita	Snow depth, radiation	21	7.3	14.9	4.7	15.0	8.8	14.68
	Portalet	Slope	14	7.8	14.3	10.3	15.3	8.9	15.49
	Panticosa	Slope, radiation	39	8.2	22.8	17.7	11.5	13.3	10.48

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