



Snow sensitivity to climate change during compound cold-hot and wet-dry seasons in the Pyrenees

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1 **Abstract.** The Mediterranean basin has experienced one of the highest warming rates on Earth
2 over the last decades and climate projections anticipate water-scarcity future scenarios. Mid-
3 latitude Mediterranean mountain areas such as the Pyrenees play a key role in the hydrological
4 resources for intensely populated lowland areas. However, there are still large uncertainties
5 about the impact of climate change on the snowpack in high mountain ranges of the
6 Mediterranean region. Here, we provide a climate sensitivity analysis of the Pyrenean snowpack
7 through five key snow climate indicators. Snow sensitivity is analyzed during compound
8 temperature and precipitation extreme seasons, namely Cold-Dry (CD), Cold-Wet (CW),
9 Warm-Dry (WD) and Warm-Wet (WW) seasons, for low (1500 m), mid (1800 m) and high
10 (2400 m) elevation sectors of the Pyrenees. To this end, a physically-based energy and mass
11 balance snow model (FSM2) is validated by ground-truth data, and subsequently applied to the
12 entire range, forcing perturbed reanalysis climate data for the 1980 – 2019 baseline scenario.
13 The results have shown that FSM2 successfully reproduces the observed snow depth (HS)
14 values, reaching $R^2 > 0.8$, and relative RMSE and MAE lower than 10 % of the observed HS.
15 Overall, climate sensitivity decreases with elevation and increases towards the eastern Pyrenees.
16 When temperature is progressively warmed at 1°C intervals, the largest seasonal HS decreases
17 from baseline climate are found at +1°C, reaching values of -47 %, -48 % and -25 % for low,
18 mid and high elevations, respectively. Only an upward trend of precipitation (+10 %) could
19 counterbalance temperature increases ($\leq 1^\circ\text{C}$) at high elevations during the coldest months of
20 the season, since temperature is far from the isothermal 0°C conditions. The maximum
21 (minimum) seasonal HS and peak HS max reductions are observed on WW (CD) seasons.
22 During the latter seasons, the seasonal HS is expected to be reduced by -37 % (-28 %), -34 % (-
23 30 %), -27 % (-22 %) per °C, at low, mid and high elevation areas, respectively. For snow
24 ablation climate indicators, the largest decreases are observed during WD seasons, when the
25 peak HS date is anticipated 10 days and snow duration (ablation) decreases (increases) 12 % per



26 °C. The results suggest similar climate sensitivities in mid-latitude mountain areas; where
27 significant snowpack reductions are anticipated, with relevant consequences in the ecological
28 and socioeconomic systems.

29

30 **Keywords:** Snow, Climate change, Sensitivity, Alpine, Mediterranean Mountains, Mid-latitude,
31 Pyrenees.

32

33 **1 Introduction**

34

35 Snow is a key element of the Earth climate system (Armstrong and Brun, 1998), since it cools
36 the planet (Serreze and Barry, 2011) through altering the Surface Energy Balance (SEB),
37 modifying the albedo, surface and air temperature (e.g., Hall, 2004). Since the 1980s, Northern-
38 Hemispheric snowpack patterns are rapidly changing (e.g., Hock et al., 2019; Hammond et al.,
39 2018; Nortarnicola et al., 2020). A better understanding and prediction of shifts in the snowpack
40 quantity, patterns, as well as in snow accumulation and ablation timings due to changing climate
41 conditions is crucial, since snow has relevant feedbacks in the social and environmental
42 systems. From the hydrological point of view, snow melting controls high mountain runoff rates
43 during spring (Barnett et al., 2005; Adams et al., 2009; Stahl et al., 2010), river flow magnitude
44 and timings (Sanmiguel-Vallelado et al., 2017; Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014), water infiltration
45 and groundwater storage (Gribovszki et al., 2010; Evans et al., 2018) or transpiration rates (e.g.,
46 Cooper et al., 2020). The presence and duration of the snowpack strongly conditions terrestrial
47 ecosystem dynamics since the snowmelt offset dates controls photosynthesis (Woelber et al.,
48 2018), forest productivity (Barnard et al., 2018), affects the freezing and thawing of the soil
49 (Luetschg et al., 2008; Oliva et al., 2014) and active layer thickness in permafrost environments
50 (Hrbáček et al., 2016; Magnin et al., 2017). Further, snow has remarkable economic impacts; in
51 the highlands, as well as the surrounding areas, snow determines the economic success of many
52 mountain ski-resorts (e.g., Scott et al., 2003; Gilaberte-Búrdalo et al., 2017; Pons et al., 2015).
53 The impact of snow changes in the lowlands can be amplified, given that snow meltwater
54 provides significant hydrological resources for water reservoirs, hydropower generation,
55 agricultural, industrial and human uses (e.g., Beniston et al., 2018; Sturm et al., 2017).

56

57 Mid-latitude low elevation areas exhibit the largest snow sensitivities to climate warming;
58 whereas in high latitudes and high elevation sectors, positive precipitation trends could
59 counterbalance temperature increases to some extent (Brown and Mote, 2009). Climate



60 warming decreases the maximum and seasonal snow depth (HS) and Snow Water Equivalent
61 (SWE) (Trujillo and Molotch, 2014; Alonso-González et al., 2020a; López-Moreno et al., 2013;
62 2017), decreases the fraction of snowfall of the total precipitation (snowfall ratio; e.g., Mote et
63 al., 2005; Lynn et al., 2020; Jeenings and Molotoch, 2020; Marshall et al., 2019) and triggers
64 later snow onsets dates (Beniston, 2009; Klein et al., 2016). During the snow ablation phase,
65 warming slows the snow ablation rate per season (Pomeroy et al., 2015; Rasouli et al., 2015;
66 Jennings and Molotch, 2020; Bonsoms et al., 2022; Sanmiguel-Vallelado et al., 2022) due to
67 early HS and SWE peak dates (Alonso-González et al., 2022), coinciding with low solar
68 radiation periods (e.g., Pomeroy et al., 2015; Musselman et al., 2017a).

69

70 The Mediterranean basin is one of the primary climate Hot-Spots of the Earth (Giorgi, 2006),
71 being densely populated (> 500 million of habitants) and affected by an intense anthropogenic
72 activity. Warming across the Mediterranean basin is projected to accelerate for the mid-end 21st
73 century, and temperature is expected to continue higher than the global average during the warm
74 half of the year (e.g., Lionello and Scarascia 2018; Cramer et al., 2018; Knutti and Sedlacek,
75 2013; Evin et al., 2021; Cos et al., 2022), increasing atmospheric evaporative demands
76 (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2020), drought severity (Tramblay et al., 2020) and implying a water-
77 scarcity scenario over most of the basin (García-Ruiz et al., 2011). Mediterranean mid-latitude
78 mountains, such as the Pyrenees, where this research focuses, are the main runoff-generation
79 zones of the downstream areas (Viviroli and Weingartner, 2004), providing the majority of the
80 water resources for major cities located in the lowlands (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014).

81

82 Snow patterns in the Pyrenees are highly diverse (Alonso-González et al., 2019), due to internal
83 climate variability of mid-latitude precipitation (e.g., Hawkins and Sutton 2010; Deser et al.,
84 2012), the high interannual and decadal variability of precipitation in the Iberian Peninsula
85 (Esteban-Parra et al., 1998; Peña-Angulo et al., 2020) as well as the abrupt topography and the
86 different mountain exposition to the main circulation weather types (Bonsoms et al., 2021a).
87 Thus, snow accumulation per season in the northern slopes almost doubles the recorded in the
88 southern slopes (Navarro-Serrano and López-Moreno, 2017), there is a high interannual
89 variability of snow in the lower stretches of the range (Alonso-González et al., 2020a), as well
90 as in the southern eastern sector of the Pyrenees (Salvador-Franch et al., 2014; Salvador-Franch
91 et al., 2016; Bonsoms et al., 2021b). Since the 1980s, snow ablation has statistically
92 significantly increased (Bonsoms et al., 2022), but during the same temporal period, winter
93 snow days and snow accumulation non-statically significantly increased (Buisan et al., 2016;
94 Serrano-Notivoli et al., 2018; López-Moreno et al., 2020a; Bonsoms et al., 2021a) due to



95 positive west and south-west advections frequency trends (Buisan et al., 2016). For the mid-end
96 21st century, climate change scenarios over the Pyrenees anticipate a temperature increase of >
97 1 to 4 °C, and positive (negative) precipitation trends (~ 10 %, respect the 1980 – 2010 period)
98 for the eastern (western) sectors of the range during winter and spring (Amblar-Frances et al.,
99 2020). Therefore, snow evolution in the high elevations of the range is subject to major
100 unknowns, since winter snow accumulation is ruled by precipitation (e.g., López-Moreno et al.,
101 2008), and Mediterranean basin winter precipitation projections are subject to large
102 uncertainties, due to a large contribution of internal variability of the latter (up to 80 % of the
103 total variance; Evin et al., 2021).

104

105 Mid-latitude snowpacks are highly sensitive to climate warming, showing one the highest
106 climate sensitivities across the globe (e.g., Brown and Mote, 2009; López-Moreno et al., 2017;
107 2020b) Previous studies in the central Pyrenees (López-Moreno et al., 2013), Iberian Peninsula
108 Mountain ranges (Alonso-González et al., 2020a) and mountain areas with Mediterranean
109 climates (López-Moreno et al., 2017) have demonstrated that the climate sensitivity of the
110 snowpack is mostly controlled by elevation. Despite the relevant impacts of climate warming in
111 mountain hydrological processes, the climate sensitivity of mid-latitude Mediterranean
112 mountain snowpacks as well as its seasonality is still poorly understood. To date, some studies
113 pointed out different climate sensitivities on wet or dry years (e.g., López-Moreno et al., 2017;
114 Musselman et al., 2017b; Rasouli et al., 2022; Roche et al., 2018). However, no study has yet
115 analyzed the climate sensitivity of snow during compound temperature and precipitation
116 extreme seasons, caused by high-low temperatures (Warm-Cold seasons) or precipitation (Wet-
117 Dry seasons). The high interannual variability of the Pyrenean snowpack, which is expected to
118 increase according to snowpack climate projections (López-Moreno et al., 2008), shows
119 evidence of the need to examine climate sensitivities focused on the year-to-year variability;
120 especially during warm seasons in the Mediterranean basin (e.g., Vogel et al., 2021; De Luca et
121 al., 2020) that are likely to increase in the future (e.g., Meng et al., 2022). Further, the
122 occurrence of different HS trends for mid and high elevation areas of the range (López-Moreno
123 et al., 2020a), suggest the existence of a wide variety of climate sensitivities of snow depending
124 on elevation and spatial factors.

125

126 Therefore, the main objective of this article is to better understand the sensitivity of snow
127 accumulation, ablation and timing patterns due to climatic changes during compound
128 temperature and precipitation extreme seasons.

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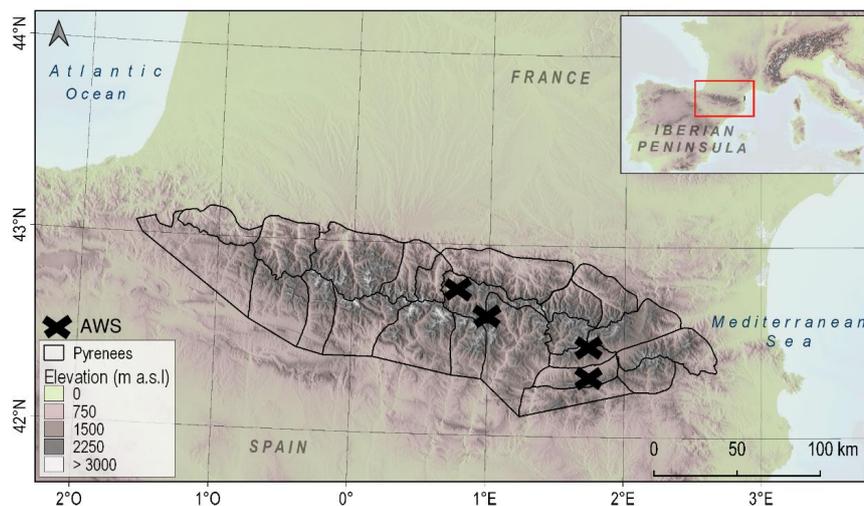


130 **2 Geographical area and climate setting**

131

132 The Pyrenees is a mountain range located in the North of the Iberian Peninsula (South Europe;
133 42°N-43°N to 2°W-3°E), aligned East to West between the Atlantic Ocean and the
134 Mediterranean Sea. The highest elevation peaks are found in the central zone (Aneto, 3,404 m
135 asl), decreasing towards the West and East (Figure 1). The Mediterranean basin, including the
136 Pyrenees, is located in a transition area between continental climate and subtropical temperate
137 influences. Precipitation is majorly driven by large-scale circulation patterns (i.e., Zappa et al.,
138 2015; Borgli et al., 2019) and the jet-stream oscillation during winter (e.g., Hurrell, 1995),
139 followed by thermodynamics and lapse-rate changes (Tuel and Eltahir, 2020). During the
140 summer, the northward migration of the Azores high brings stable weather and precipitation is
141 mainly convective (Xercavins, 1985). Precipitation is highly variable depending on the
142 mountain exposition to the main circulation weather types, being ~ 1000 mm/year, reaching
143 2000 mm/year in the mountain summits and decreasing from North-West to South-East
144 (Cuadrat et al., 2007). There is a slightly disconnection of the general climate circulation
145 towards the eastern Pyrenees, where snow accumulation is more influenced by the
146 Mediterranean climate and East Atlantic/West Russia (EA-WR) oscillations (Bonsoms et al.,
147 2021a). In the southern western and central massifs of the range, snow accumulation is
148 controlled by Atlantic climate and negative North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) phases (W and
149 SW wet air flows; López-Moreno, 2005; López-Moreno and Vicente-Serrano, 2007; Buisan et
150 al., 2016; Alonso-González et al., 2020b). In the northern slopes, positive phases of the western
151 eastern Mediterranean Oscillation linked with cold NW and N advections trigger the majority of
152 the snow accumulation episodes (Navarro-Serrano and López-Moreno, 2018; Bonsoms et al.,
153 2021a). The seasonal snow accumulation in the northern slopes almost doubles (~ 500 cm) the
154 recorded in the southern slopes, for the same elevation (~ 2000 m; Bonsoms et al., 2021a). The
155 elevation gradient is ~ 0.55°C/100 m (Navarro-Serrano and López-Moreno, 2018) and the
156 annual isotherm of 0°C is found at ~ 2750 – 2950 m (López-Moreno and García-Ruiz, 2004).
157 The energy available for snow ablation is governed by net radiation, increasing with elevation
158 and towards the East (Bonsoms et al., 2022).

159



160

161 **Figure 1.** Geographical distribution of the Pyrenean massifs included in this work. We followed
162 the spatial regionalization of the SAFRAN system, which groups the mountain massifs of the
163 range by homogeneous topographical and meteorological areas (modified from Durand et al.,
164 1999).

165

166 3 Data and methods

167

168 3.1 Snow model

169

170 Snowpack was modelled using a physical-based snow model, the Flexible Snow Model (FSM2;
171 Essery, 2015). The FSM2 resolves the SEB and mass balance simulating the state of the
172 snowpack. FSM2 has been tested (Krinner et al., 2018) and extensively applied in different
173 forest environments (e.g., Mazzotti et al., 2021) and hydro-climatological mountain zones, such
174 the Andes (Urrutia et al., 2019), the Alps (Mazzotti et al., 2020), Colorado (Smyth et al., 2022),
175 Himalaya (Pritchard et al., 2020), Iberian Peninsula Mountains (Alonso-González et al., 2020a;
176 Alonso-González et al., 2022) or Lebanese mountains (Alonso-González et al., 2021), among
177 others, providing in all cases confidential results. In this work, the FSM2 model configuration
178 was selected on a trial-and-error basis (not shown here), validated by in-situ snow records of
179 four automatic weather stations (AWS) placed at high elevation areas of the Pyrenees. Then, the
180 FSM2 was forced with the SAFRAN reanalysis dataset for the entire mountain range (see
181 Section 3.2). The FSM2 requires forcing data of precipitation, air temperature, relative
182 humidity, surface atmospheric pressure, wind speed, incoming shortwave radiation (SW_{inc}) and
183 incoming long wave radiation (LW_{inc}). Precipitation in mountain and windy zones is usually



184 affected by undercatch (Kochendorfer et al., 2020). Instrumental records of precipitation are
185 corrected of undercatch effects by applying an empirical equation validated in the Pyrenees
186 (Buisan et al., 2019). Precipitation type was classified based on a threshold method (e.g.,
187 Musselman et al., 2017b; Corripio and López-Moreno, 2017). It was quantified as snowfall
188 when air temperature was $< 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ and as rain when air temperature was $> 1^{\circ}\text{C}$, according to
189 previous research in the study area (Corripio and López-Moreno, 2017). The LW_{inc} heat fluxes
190 of the AWS (Table 1) were estimated following (Corripio and López-Moreno, 2017). The
191 instrumental data without records ($< 0.7\%$ of the total dataset) was excluded of the validation
192 process. The HS records were measured each 30 minutes with an acoustic sensor. The
193 meteorological data used in the validation process are open access, provided and managed by
194 the local meteorological service of Catalonia. The data is quality checked through an automatic
195 error filtering process in combination with a climatological, spatial and internal coherency
196 control defined at SMC (2011).

197

198

Table 1. Characteristics of the AWS analyzed in this work.

Geographical Area	Code	X/Y (UTM)	Elevation (m)	Atlantic Ocean distance	Mediterranean Sea distance	Reference period	Years
Central-Pyrenees Northern slopes	A1	42.77/ 0.73	2228	200	190	2004 - 2020	16
	A2	42.61/ 0.98	2266	225	170	2001 - 2020	19
Eastern Pyrenees Southern slopes	A3	42.46/ 1.78	2230	295	115	2005 - 2020	15
Eastern Pre-Pyrenees Northern slopes	A4	42.29/ 1.71	2143	300	110	2009 - 2020	11

199

200 The model accuracy was estimated by the mean absolute error (MAE) and the root mean square
201 error (RMSE), whereas the model performance was estimated by the coefficient of
202 determination (R^2). The MAE and the RMSE summarise the mean differences between the
203 modelled and the observed values. The FSM2 configuration calculates the albedo based on a
204 prognostic function, increasing (decreasing) depending on snowfall (snow age). Snow
205 compaction rate is estimated on the basis of overburden and thermal metamorphism. FSM2
206 configuration includes internal snowpack processes, runoff, refreeze rates and thermal
207 conductivity, the latter estimated as function of the snow density. The atmospheric stability is
208 simulated as function of the Richardson number.

209

210 3.2 Atmospheric forcing data

211



212 We forced the FSM2 using the reanalysis climate dataset of Vernay et al. (2021), consisting in
213 the modelled values from the SAFRAN meteorological analysis. The data includes flat slopes at
214 low, mid and high elevation ranges and Pyrenean massifs (Figure 1) at hourly resolution. The
215 SAFRAN system provides data by homogeneous meteorological and topographical mountain
216 massifs every 300 m, from 0 to 3600 m (Durand et al., 1999; Vernay et al., 2021). Precipitation
217 type was classified following the threshold approach presented at section 3.1. Atmospheric
218 emissivity was derived from the SAFRAN LW_{inc} . The data was forced with numerical weather
219 prediction models (ERA-40 reanalysis data from 1958 to 2002 and ARPEGE from 2002 to
220 2020). Meteorological data was calibrated, homogenized and improved by data assimilation of
221 in-situ meteorological observations (Vernay et al., 2021). Further technical details of the
222 SAFRAN system can be found at Durand et al. (1999; 2009a; 2009b). The SAFRAN system has
223 been previously used and validated for the meteorological modelling of continental Spain
224 (Quintana-Seguí et al., 2017), France (Vidal et al., 2010), extreme snowfall trends (Roux et al.,
225 2021), snowpack climate projections (Verfaillie et al., 2018), long-term HS trends (López-
226 Moreno et al., 2020) and snow ablation trends (Bonsoms et al., 2022), among other works.

227

228 **3.3 Climate sensitivity analysis**

229

230 Climate sensitivity is analyzed through a delta-change methodology (e.g., López-Moreno et al.,
231 2008; Beniston et al., 2016; Musselman et al., 2017b; Marty et al., 2017; Alonso-González et
232 al., 2020a; Sanmiguel-Vallelado et al., 2022, among other works). Temperature and
233 precipitation are perturbed for each massif and elevation range based the historical period
234 (1980-2019). Temperature is perturbed from 1 to 4°C by 1°C intervals, assuming an increase of
235 LW_{inc} accordingly (Jennings and Molotch, 2020). Precipitation is perturbed from -10 % to 10
236 %, by 10 % intervals, in accordance with climate models uncertainties, maximum and minimum
237 precipitation projections for the Pyrenees (Amblar-Frances et al., 2020).

238

239 **3.4 Compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasonal definition**

240

241 Snow season includes all days between October to June (included). Snow season duration is
242 defined according with snow onset and snow ablation dates (Bonsoms, 2021a). Compound
243 temperature and precipitation extreme season (season type) is performed using a joint quantile
244 approach (Beniston and Goyette, 2007; Beniston, 2009; López-Moreno et al., 2011a), for each
245 massif and elevation ranges. Following López-Moreno et al. (2011a), compound temperature
246 and precipitation extreme season are defined based on seasonal 40th percentile (T40 and P40, for
247 temperature and precipitation, respectively) and 60th percentile (T60 and P60, for temperature



248 and precipitation, respectively) percentiles. Seasons are classified into four categories: (i) CD
249 seasons, when the seasonal temperature and precipitation (T_{season} and P_{season} , respectively)
250 are $\leq T40$ and $P40$; (ii) CW seasons, when T_{season} is $\leq T40$ and $P_{\text{season}} \geq P60$; (iii) WD
251 seasons, when T_{season} is $> T40$ and P_{season} is $\leq P40$. Finally, (iv) WW seasons, when
252 T_{season} is $> T60$ and P_{season} was $> P60$. The remaining seasons, are classified as average
253 (Avg) compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasons. The number of seasons type by
254 elevation and massifs is shown at Figure S1.

255

256 **3.5 Snow-climatological indicators**

257

258 Snowpack climate sensitivity is analyzed through five key snow indicators, including: (i) the
259 seasonal average HS, (ii) the seasonal maximum absolute HS peak (peak HS max), (iii) the date
260 when the maximum HS was reached (peak HS date), (iv) the number of days with HS (> 1 cm)
261 on the ground (snow duration) and (v) the average seasonal daily snow ablation per season
262 (snow ablation). Snow ablation is calculated by the difference between the maximum daily HS
263 recorded between two consecutive days (Musselman et al., 2017a). We retained only the days
264 when the difference was < -1 cm. Seasonal HS and peak HS max are snow accumulation
265 indicators, whereas snow ablation, snow duration, and peak HS date are snow ablation
266 indicators. All the indicators are computed by massif and elevation range.

267

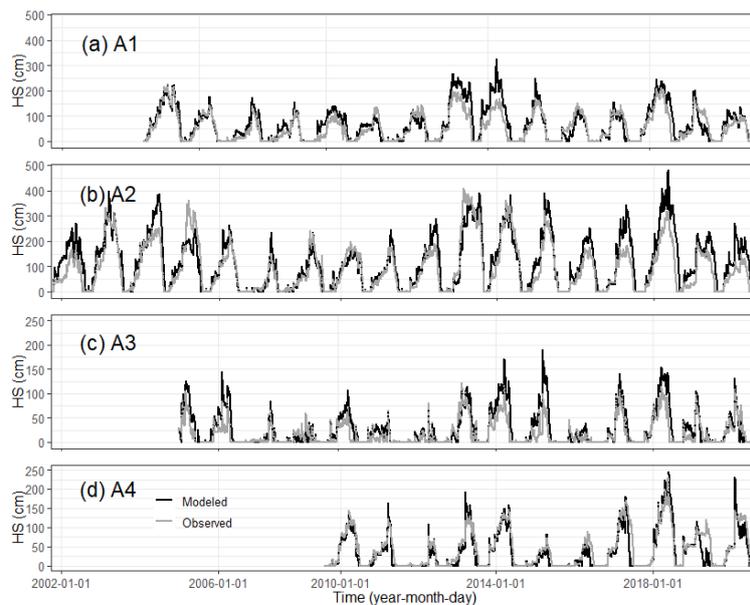
268 **4. Results**

269

270 **4.1 Snow model validation**

271

272 Snow model validation (Figure 2 and 3) confirms that FSM2 accurately reproduces the observed
273 HS values. On average, the FSM2 performance reached a $R2 > 0.83$ for all stations. In general,
274 the snow model slightly overestimates the maximum HS values. The best performance is
275 observed at A4 and A2 ($R2 = 0.85$ in both stations), whereas the lowest values are observed at
276 A3 and A1 ($R2 = 0.79$ and $R2 = 0.82$, respectively). The better performance was obtained at A4
277 (RMSE = 18.5 cm, MAE = 8.9 cm), whereas the largest errors are measured at A2 (RMSE =
278 45.8 cm, MAE = 29.0 cm).

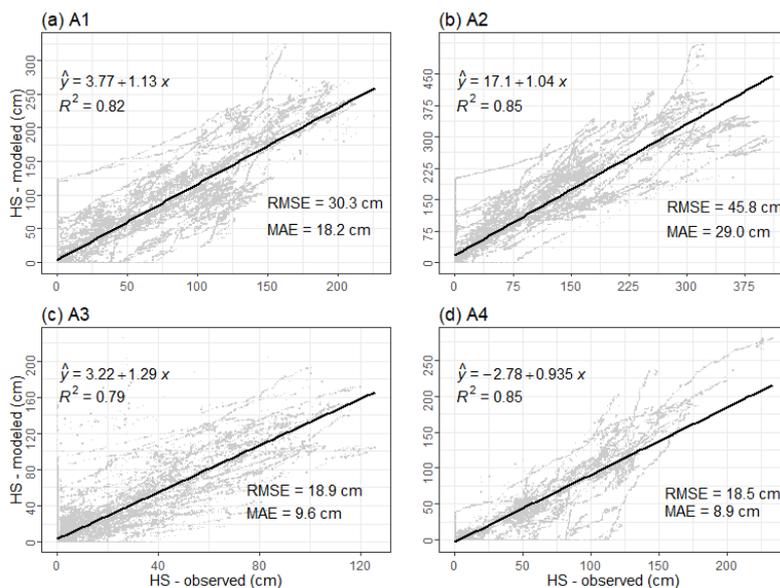


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280

281

Figure 2. Time series of the observed and modelled HS values grouped by AWS.



282

283

284

Figure 3. Regression analysis of the observed (x axis), and modelled (y axis), HS values.

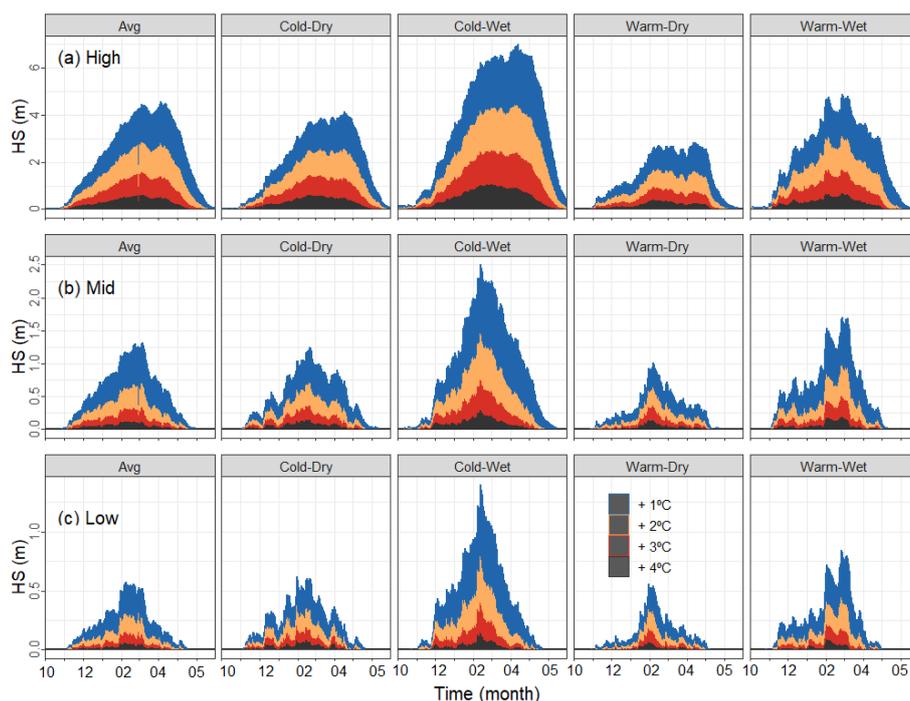
285 **4.2 Seasonal snowpack climate sensitivity analysis**

286



287 Seasonal HS profiles for each perturbed climate scenario and compound temperature and
288 precipitation extreme season are shown in Figure 4. There is a non-linear response between
289 seasonal HS losses and temperature increases. When progressively warmed at 1°C intervals, the
290 largest seasonal HS decreases from baseline climate are found at + 1°C, for all elevation ranges
291 and compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasons (Figure 4). High elevation areas
292 show lower season-to-season snow variability than low elevations for all the season types. Here,
293 snow is significantly higher during CW seasons in comparison with the rest of the cases. All the
294 snowpack perturbed scenarios point towards snowpack decreases in low and mid elevations
295 under warming climate scenarios. Depending on the season type, different snowpack
296 sensitivities are observed (Figure 5 and 6). For low elevation ranges, the seasonal HS climate
297 sensitivity ranges from -37 % (WW) to -28 % (CD) per °C of temperature increase. For mid
298 elevation ranges, no significant differences are observed between season types (Table 2), and
299 the seasonal HS losses ranges from -34 % (WW) to -30 % (CW) per °C. Low and mid
300 elevations show higher snowpack reductions than in high elevations. In the latter, an increase of
301 +10 % of precipitation counterbalances an increase of ~1°C of temperature, and no significant
302 differences in the seasonal HS are found from the baseline scenario (Figure S2 and Figure S3).
303 Maximum seasonal HS climate sensitivity is observed during WD seasons (-27 % per °C),
304 whereas the minimum is found for CW (-22 % per °C).

305



306



307

308 **Figure 4.** Average modelled daily HS for each temperature scenario (colors) and compound
 309 temperature and precipitation extreme seasons (boxes).

310

311 **Table 2.** Average seasonal HS and peak HS max sensitivity grouped by compound temperature
 312 and precipitation extreme seasons and elevation range.

313

Compound extreme season	% HS / °C			% peak HS max / °C		
	Low	Mid	High	Low	Mid	High
Avg.	-33	-33	-25	-20	-20	-16
CD	-28	-30	-22	-17	-17	-14
CW	-33	-32	-22	-22	-20	-15
WD	-32	-30	-27	-19	-16	-16
WW	-37	-34	-26	-24	-24	-16

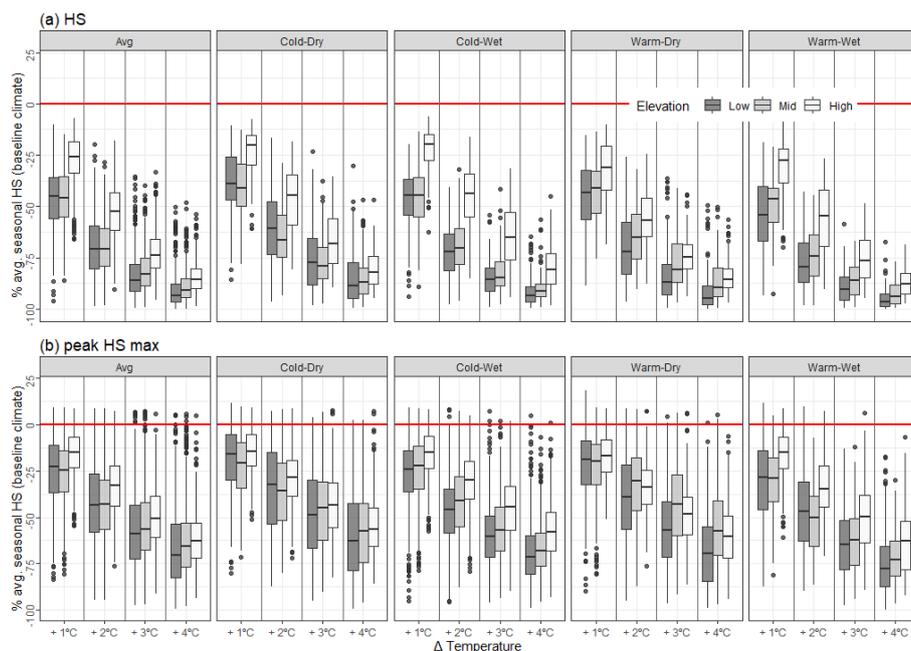
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315 For low and mid elevation ranges, the peak HS max climate sensitivity reaches maximum
 316 values during WW seasons (-24 % per °C, respectively) and minimums during CD and WD
 317 seasons (-17 % per °C, for both elevation ranges). At high elevations, no significant differences
 318 are observed in the peak HS max climate sensitivity between season types. The maximum peak
 319 HS max climate sensitivity is observed at WD seasons (-16 % per °C) and the minimum during
 320 CD seasons (-14 % per °C).

321

322 Table 3 and Figure 6 show the average seasonal snow duration for each elevation range, season
 323 type and increase of temperature. The minimum seasonal snow duration climate sensitivities are
 324 observed during CW seasons, ranging from -13 %, -10 % to -5 % per °C for low, mid and high
 325 elevation ranges, respectively. For low elevation ranges, the maximum seasonal snow duration
 326 climate sensitivity is observed during WW seasons (-17 % per °C). On the contrary, at mid and
 327 high elevation ranges, the maximum seasonal snow duration sensitivities are observed during
 328 WD seasons, being -13 % (-8 %) at mid (high) per °C.

329



330

331 **Figure 5.** Average seasonal (a) HS and (b) peak HS max anomalies, grouped by increment of
 332 temperature (x axis), elevation (colors) and season type (boxes). Anomalies were calculated
 333 respect the baseline climate scenario. The boxplot represents the $\pm 10\%$ precipitation.

334

335 **Table 3.** Average seasonal snow duration values by degree of warming, grouped by compound
 336 temperature and precipitation extreme seasons temperature and elevation range.

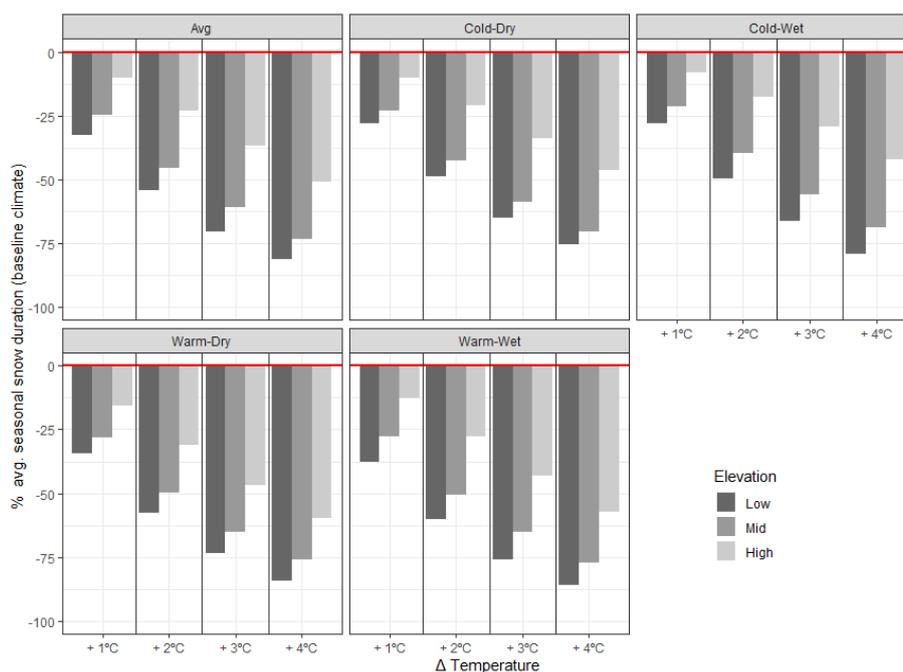
Compound temperature and precipitation extreme season	Elevation	Snow duration				
		Baseline	+ 1°C	+ 2°C	+ 3°C	+ 4°C
Avg.	Low	83	57	40	25	16
CD		85	62	44	30	21
CW		116	85	60	40	25
WD		63	42	27	17	10
WW	81	53	35	22	12	
Avg.	Mid	128	98	72	52	36
CD		129	101	75	54	39
CW		160	128	98	72	51
WD		102	74	52	36	25
WW	118	87	61	44	29	
Avg.	High	210	189	164	135	105
CD		208	187	166	140	114
CW		231	213	191	165	135
WD		187	159	131	101	77
WW		204	179	148	117	88

337



338 Climate warming decreases the peak HS date (Figure S4). The maximum peak HS date climate
339 sensitivity is found during dry seasons. During WD (CD) seasons, the peak HS date will take
340 place 9 (15), 3 (8) and 17 (1) days earlier on the season per °C for low, mid and high elevations,
341 respectively. The minimum peak HS date climate sensitivity is observed during WW seasons
342 (Table 4). The peak HS date does not show any change due to warming, since the snowpack
343 would be scarce during the season, and no defined maximum peaks would occur in any
344 elevation range (Figure 4). In high elevation areas, if temperature increases do not exceed ~ 1°C
345 respect the baseline scenario, the peak HS date is not expected to drastically change (Figure S4),
346 except during dry seasons.

347



348

349 **Figure 6.** Average decrease of the seasonal snow duration, grouped by increments of
350 temperature (x axis), elevation ranges (colors) and season types (boxes).

351

352 The average daily snow ablation per season grouped by temperature increments, elevation and
353 compound extreme season type is shown in Figure 7. The data shown no differences in the
354 average daily snow ablation in a warmer climate. For low elevation, the snow ablation between
355 season types is the same, 12 % per °C sensitivity (Table 4). For mid and high elevations, the
356 maximum snow ablation sensitivities are found during dry seasons. WD seasons snow ablation
357 sensitivity is 13 % and 10 % per °C for mid and high elevation range, respectively. On the other



358 hand, the minimum values for mid (high) elevations are found during WW (CW) seasons, when
 359 the snow ablation sensitivity is 8 % (5 %) per °C.

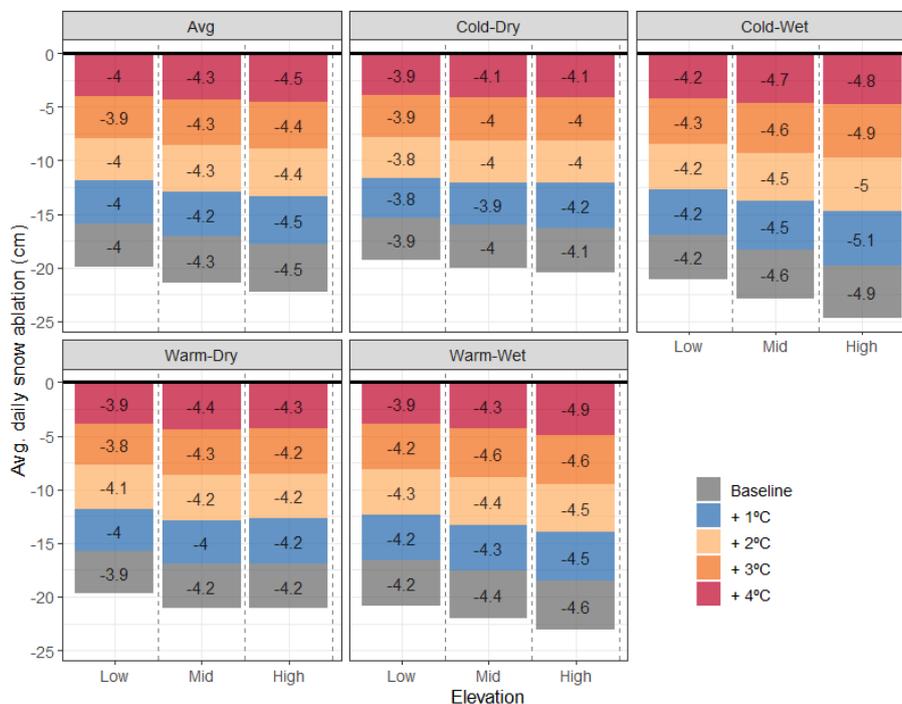
360

361 **Table 4.** Seasonal snow duration, Peak HS date and snow ablation sensitivity. Data is grouped
 362 by compound temperature and precipitation extreme season and elevation range.

363

Compound extreme season	Snow duration (% / °C)			Snow ablation (% / °C)			Peak HS date (days / °C)		
	Low	Mid	High	Low	Mid	High	Low	Mid	High
Avg	-15	-12	-6	12	11	7	-2	1	-4
CD	-13	-11	-5	12	13	8	-15	-8	-1
CW	-13	-10	-5	12	10	5	-3	-1	4
WD	-16	-13	-8	12	13	10	-9	-3	-17
WW	-17	-13	-7	12	8	7	-5	8	0

364



365

366 **Figure 7.** Average daily snow ablation by season. Data is grouped by season type (boxes),
 367 elevation (x axis) and increments of temperature (colors).

368 Snow climate sensitivity shows remarkable spatial contrasts. Climate sensitivity increases
 369 moving towards the eastern massifs, independently of the elevation range and season type
 370 (Figure 8 and 9). The largest sensitivities differences are observed at low elevation. Here, the



371 seasonal HS sensitivity ranges from - 20% (CD) in the central area, up to - 40% (WW) per °C in
372 the southern slopes of the eastern Pyrenees. Similarly, the maximum peak HS max sensitivities
373 are found in mid elevations of the latest area (> 35% per °C; Figure 8). There is a general
374 tendency toward higher climate sensitivities in the southern slopes in comparison to the northern
375 ones. This pattern is accentuated at high elevation massifs for all the season types. The lowest
376 snow duration sensitivity is observed in the northern slopes and at high elevation, specially
377 during CD and CW seasons (-5 % per °C; Figure 9). Snow duration sensitivity clearly increases
378 during WW seasons; when maximum sensitivities are detected at the lowest elevations of the
379 southern-eastern Pyrenees (-35 % per °C).

380

381 **5. Discussion**

382

383 The spatial and temporal patterns of snow in the Pyrenees are highly variable and international
384 climate reports indicate that extreme events will likely increase over the next decades (e.g.,
385 Meng et al., 2022). In this context, a better understanding of the present-day controls of the
386 snowpack is crucial to anticipate how the future climate will affect the snow regime.

387

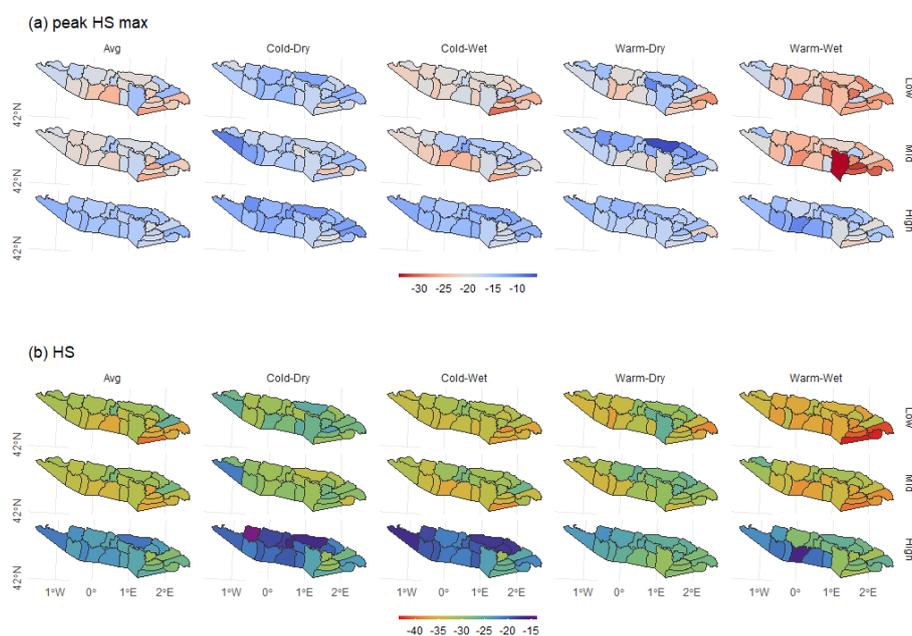
388 **5.1 Spatial and elevation factors controlling the snow climate sensitivity**

389

390 Climate sensitivity spatial patterns found in this work (Figure 8 and 9) are consistent with the
391 snow accumulation and ablation spatial patterns reported in the range (e.g., Lopez-Moreno,
392 2005; Navarro-Serrano et al., 2018; Alonso-González et al., 2020a; Bonsoms et al., 2021a).
393 Atlantic climate influence is reduced moving into the eastern massifs of the range; in the latter
394 area, in-situ observations record almost half ($\leq 40\%$) of the seasonal snow accumulation
395 amounts than northern and western ones for the same elevation (>2000 m; Bonsoms et al.,
396 2021a). The southern slopes of the eastern Pyrenees exhibit higher climate sensitivities since
397 those massifs are exposed to higher turbulent and radiative heat fluxes (Bonsoms et al., 2022).
398 Results show a logical upwards displacement of the snow line due to warming. The elevation
399 climate sensitivity dependent-pattern of snow has been previously reported in specific stations
400 of the central Pyrenees (López-Moreno et al., 2013; 2017), Iberian Peninsula mountains
401 (Alonso-González et al., 2020a), as well as in other ranges such as the Cascades (Jefferson,
402 2011; Sproles et al., 2013), the Alps (Marty et al., 2017), or the western USA (Pierce et al.,
403 2013; Musselman et al., 2017b), where snow models suggest higher (lower) snowpack
404 reductions due to warming in subalpine (alpine belts) sites (Jennings and Molotch, 2020; Mote
405 et al., 2018). Low elevations present a higher climate sensitivity than high lands since



406 temperature is closer to the isothermal conditions (Brown and Mote, 2009; Lopez-Moreno et al.,
407 2017).
408



409

410 **Figure 8.** Spatial distribution of the climate sensitivity (percentage of variation from the
411 baseline climate per °C) for (a) seasonal peak HS max and (b) HS, during average and
412 compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasons.

413

414 5.2 Snow climate sensitivity and its relation with historical and future snow trends

415

416 5.2.1 Snow accumulation phase

417

418 Snow losses by warming reported in this work are mainly associated with increases in the
419 rain/snowfall ratio, changes in the snow onset and offset dates and increases in the energy
420 available for snow ablation (e.g., Pomeroy et al., 2015; Lynn et al., 2020; Jennings and Molotch,
421 2020). At high elevation areas, an upward trend of precipitation (+ 10 %) could counterbalance
422 temperature increases (< 1°C; Figure S2 and S3), which is consistent with the results found at
423 specific sites of the central Pyrenees (Izas, 2000m; López-Moreno et al., 2008). Rasouli et al.
424 (2014) also found that an increase of 20 % of precipitation could compensate 2°C of warming in
425 the subarctic Canada. Climate sensitivity analysis in the western Cascades (western USA),
426 reveals that increases of precipitation due to warming moderates (~ 5 % per °C) the snowpack



427 accumulation losses (Minder, 2010). The results are consistent with recent snow trends at >
428 1000 m in the Pyrenees, where increases in the frequency of west circulation weather types
429 since the 1980s triggered positive HS (Serrano-Notivoli et al., 2018; López-Moreno et al.,
430 2020), snow accumulation (Bonsoms et al., 2021a) and winter snow days trends (Buisan et al.,
431 2016). Similar trends have been found in the Alps, where during the last decades an increase of
432 extreme snowfall (> 3000 m; Roux et al., 2021) as well as winter precipitation 100-year return
433 levels has been detected (Rajczak and Schär, 2017).

434

435 **5.2.2 Snow ablation phase**

436

437 The comparison between low and high elevation reveals faster average daily snow ablation in
438 the latter elevation range (Figure 7). The average daily snow ablation per season in deep
439 snowpacks (high elevations) are probably explained because snow last until late spring, when
440 there are higher rates of energy available for snow ablation (Bonsoms et al., 2022). Climate
441 warming leads a cascade of physical changes in the SEB increasing snow ablation due to the
442 near 0°C isotherm. However, the average daily snow ablation shows small increases due to
443 warming. Slower snow ablation rates in a warmer world are consistent with snow ablation
444 trends found in the Northern Hemisphere, where snow melt rates (1980 – 2017 period) show
445 decreasing trend (Wu et al., 2018). Data suggest that increases of temperature do not imply
446 faster daily snow ablation rates per season, since warming decreases the snowpack magnitude
447 (seasonal HS and peak HS max) and triggers earlier snowmelt onsets (Wu et al., 2018). The
448 early peak HS date reported in this work (Table 4; Figure S4) implies lower rates of net
449 shortwave radiation, since snow melting starts on winter (Pomeroy et al., 2015), coinciding with
450 shorter days and lower solar zenith angles (Lundquist et al., 2013; Sanmiguel-Valladolid et al.,
451 2022). Same conclusions are found for the subarctic Canada (Rasouli et al., 2014) or western
452 USA snowpacks (Musselman et al., 2017b), but contrast with faster melt rates found in Arctic
453 sites (Krogh and Pomeroy, 2019).

454

455 **5.2.3 Climate sensitivity and snow projections**

456

457 Data suggest a non-linear snowpack reduction due to warming. The largest snow losses are
458 found for seasonal HS under an increase of 1°C respect the baseline scenario. At low and mid
459 elevations, the seasonal HS would decrease on average > 40 % for all season types, with
460 maximum climate sensitivities found during WW seasons. Previous research in the Pyrenees
461 and in other mid-latitude mountain ranges, have found similar climate sensitivities. In the
462 central Pyrenees, the peak of SWE climate sensitivity is 29 % per °C, whereas snow season
463 duration decreases by ~ 20–30 days per °C (at ~ 2000 m; López-Moreno et al., 2013). The



464 average peak HS max climate sensitivity detected at high elevations if the Pyrenees (-16 % per
465 °C; Figure 6 and Table 2) is slightly over the average peak SWE climate sensitivity found in
466 Iberian Peninsula mountains at 2500 m (-15 % per °C; Alonso-González et al., 2020a). Results
467 are also consistent with climate projections found in the range. Under an increase of temperature
468 (>2 °C), the snow season is reduced 38 % in the lowest (~ 1500 m) ski-resorts located in the
469 southern slopes of the eastern Pyrenees (Pons et al., 2015). However, high emission climate
470 scenarios project an increase of the frequency and intensity of high snowfall in the highlands (+
471 20 %; López-Moreno et al., 2011b). According to climate projections for the mid-end 21th
472 century, climate sensitivity in the easternmost area could be reduced during winter, since an
473 upward trend of precipitation is expected in the latest area (~ 10 %; Amblar-Francés et al.,
474 2020). The projected changes in the Pyrenean snowpack dynamics are similar to the expected
475 snow losses in near mountain ranges. In the Atlas Mountains, snowpack decreases are
476 accentuated in the lowlands, and climate change projections anticipate seasonal SWE declines
477 of 60 % (80 %) under RCP4.5 (RCP8.5) scenarios for the entire range (Tuel et al., 2022). In the
478 Washington Cascades (western USA), snowpack climate sensitivity is -19 to -23 % per °C
479 (Minder, 2010), which is similar with the values found in this work for high elevation ranges. In
480 the French Alps (Chartreuse, 1500 m), seasonal HS decreases in the order of 25 % (32 %) for
481 1.5 °C (2°C) of global temperature rise above the pre-industrial years (Verfaille et al., 2018). For
482 the Swiss Alps, snowpack climate sensitivity is ~ -15 % per °C (Beniston, 2003). In the latter
483 range, seasonal HS is expected to decrease > 70 % in the massifs placed at < 1000 m for all
484 future climate projections (Marty et al., 2017). The largest snow reductions are expected to
485 occur in the shoulders of the seasons (Steger et al., 2013; Marty et al., 2017). Nevertheless, at
486 high elevations, snow climate projections revealed no significant trends in the majority (80 %)
487 of maximum HS for the mid-end 21st (> 2500 m, eastern Alps; Willibald et al., 2021), being
488 internal climate variability the major source of uncertainty of SWE projections in the highlands
489 (Schirmer et al., 2021).

490

491 **5.3 The influence of compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasons**

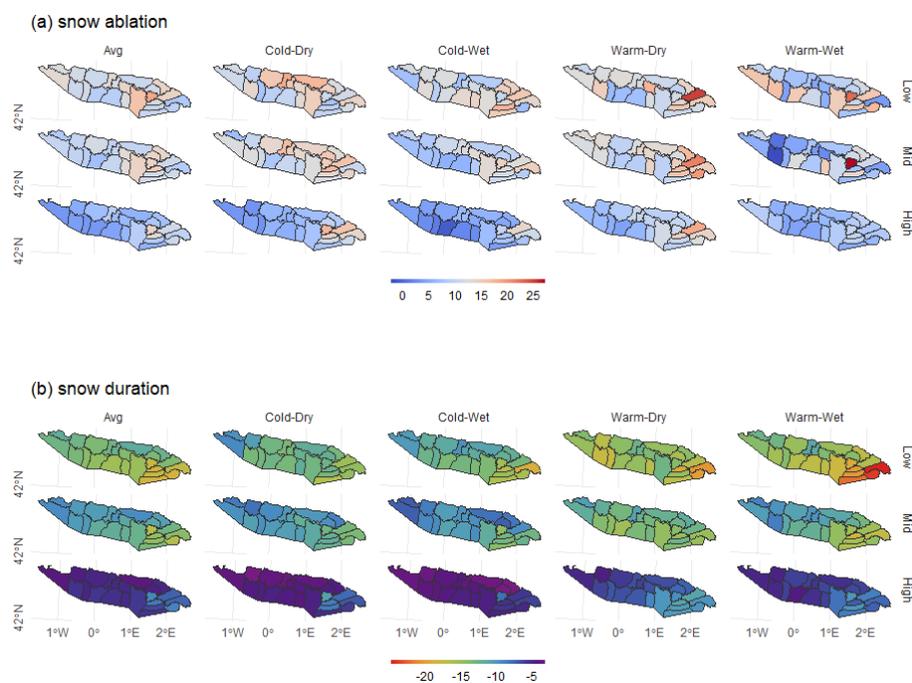
492

493 The maximum seasonal HS and peak HS max climate sensitivities are detected during WW
494 (WD) seasons for low and mid (high) elevations. Brown and Mote (2008) analyzed the snow
495 climate sensitivity of the Northern Hemisphere, finding maximum SWE sensitivities in mid-
496 latitudinal maritime winter climate areas, and minimums in dry and continental zones, which is
497 consistent with our results. Also, López-Moreno et al. (2017) detected higher SWE decreases in
498 wet and temperate Mediterranean ranges than at drier ones. Further, in northern North American
499 Cordillera, Rasouli et al. (2022) found higher snowpack sensitivities in wet basins in



500 comparison with drier ones. The maximum snow ablation and peak HS date climate sensitivities
501 are observed during dry seasons, which is in accordance with Musselman et al. (2017b), who
502 detected higher snowmelt rate climate sensitivities during dry years for western USA. Low and
503 mid elevations are highly sensible to WW seasons since wet conditions favours decreases in the
504 seasonal HS through the advection of sensible heat fluxes. At high elevations, however,
505 temperature is still cold allowing solid precipitation during WW seasons, and for this reason
506 maximum climate sensitivities are observed during WD seasons. Alpine zones snowfall
507 reductions can be further compensated in a warmer scenario, given that warm and wet snow is
508 less susceptible to blowing wind transport and snow sublimation losses (Pomeroy and Li, 2000;
509 Pomeroy et al., 2015). During spring, snow runoff could be also amplified in wet climates due
510 to rain-on-snow events (Corripio and López-Moreno, 2017), coinciding with higher rates of
511 energy available for snow ablation.

512



513

514 **Figure 9.** Spatial distribution of the climate sensitivity (percentage of variation from the
515 baseline climate per °C) for (a) snow ablation and (b) snow duration during average and
516 compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasons.

517

518 5.4 Environmental and socioeconomic implications



519

520 The results points towards an extension of snow ablation through the season, implying the
521 disappear of the typical alternance of snow accumulation and ablation seasons. Climate
522 warming triggers the simultaneously occurrence of snow accumulation and ablation episodes,
523 snow droughts during winter, as well as ephemeral snowpacks in the shoulders of the season.
524 The expected snow decreases have significant impacts in the ecosystem. Snow cover in springs
525 acts as a cooling factor of the soil (Luetschg et al., 2008), delays active layer thickness (Hrbáček
526 et al., 2016), soils freeze initiation (Oliva et al., 2014) and protects alpine rocks exposition to
527 solar radiation and air temperatures (Magnin et al., 2017). Due to warming temperatures, the
528 remaining glaciers in the range are shrinking, and they are expected to disappear before the
529 2050s (Vidaller et al., 2021). The shallower snowpack pointed out in this work increases the
530 glacier vulnerability, since snow has a higher albedo than the dark ice and debris-covered
531 glaciers and acts as a protective layer of the glaciers (e.g., Fujita and Sakai, 2014).

532

533 The early snowmelt onset suggested in this work, accentuated at low and mid elevation during
534 WD seasons, goes in line with early streamflow's due to earlier runoff rates found in
535 global studies (Adam et al., 2009; Stewart, 2009) and with the observed trends in the Iberian
536 Peninsula River flows (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014). Overall, results are consistent with the slight
537 decrease of the river peak flows found in the southern slopes of the Pyrenees since the 1980s
538 (Sanmiguel-Vallelado et al., 2017). The significant reductions of seasonal HS pointed out in this
539 article, driven by increases in the rainfall ratio, suggest that snowmelt-dominated streams flows
540 are likely to shift to rainfall dominated regimes. Whereas high elevation meltwater might
541 increase, contributing to earlier groundwater recharges (e.g., Evans et al., 2018), the upward
542 evapotranspiration trends in the lowlands (Bonsoms et al., 2022) could counter this effect, with
543 no net change in the downstream areas (Stahl et al., 2010). Snow ephemerality triggers lower
544 spring and summer flows (e.g., Barnett et al., 2005; Adam et al., 2009; Stahl et al., 2010) and
545 have related impacts in the hydrological management strategies. The reservoirs operation
546 strategies include hydrological resources storage during peak flows and water releases during
547 summer; which coincides with the driest season in the lowlands, and when there are higher
548 water and hydropower demands than in winter (Morán-Tejeda et al., 2014). Recurrent snow
549 scarce seasons may intensify the hydrological impacts named and the water resources
550 competition between the ecological and socioeconomical systems. The economic reliability of
551 mountain ski-resorts in the range is dependent of the year-to-year variability of the snowpack
552 (Gilaberte-Burdalo et al., 2014; Pons et al., 2015) which has been shown to be highly variable,
553 especially at low and mid elevations. The expected snow scarce seasons under an increase of >
554 1°C due to the high climate sensitivity pointed out in this work, is consistent with climate



555 projections for the range, which suggest that no Pyrenean ski-resort will be reliable under high
556 climate projections (RCP 8.5) for the end of the 21st century (2080 – 2100; Spandre et al.,
557 2019).

558

559 **6 Conclusions**

560

561 This work presents an assessment of the climate change impact on the Pyrenean snowpack
562 during compound temperature and precipitation extreme seasons, by using a physical-based
563 snow model forced by reanalysis data. The climate sensitivity of the snowpack was analyzed
564 through five key snow accumulation and ablation indicators. Climate sensitivity follows an
565 elevation pattern. Snowpack losses are accentuated during WW (low and mid elevations) and
566 WD (high elevation) seasons. The lowest snow climate sensitivity was observed in the high
567 elevated zones of the western and northern Pyrenees, increasing towards the lowest stretches of
568 the eastern and southern slopes. An increase of 1° C in low and mid elevation supposes a
569 significant decrease in the seasonal HS and snow duration. However, at high elevations,
570 precipitation plays a key role in the snowpack evolution, and temperature is far from the
571 isothermal 0°C during the core months of the season. During the latter, an increase of 10 % of
572 precipitation - as suggested by many climate projections over the eastern sectors of the range -,
573 could compensate small temperature increases (~ 1°C warming). The impact of climate warming
574 could be different depending on the compound temperature and precipitation extreme season.
575 Snowpack losses are accentuated during WW (low and mid elevations) and WD (high
576 elevation) seasons. Regarding seasonal HS, the highest (lowest) reductions are observed on
577 WW (CD) seasons, when the seasonal HS will be reduced -37 % (- 28 %), -34 % (- 30 %), -27
578 % (-22 %) per °C at low, mid and high elevation areas, respectively. For seasonal snow
579 duration, the highest (lowest) reductions are found during WD (CW) seasons, representing the -
580 17 % (13 %), -13 % (-10 %) and -8 % (-5 %) per °C at low, mid and high elevation areas,
581 respectively. The peak HS date and snow ablation show the largest climate sensitivities during
582 dry seasons. During the latter, snow ablation increases + 10 % and the peak HS date advances ~
583 10 days per °C, for all elevations. This work provides evidence of the high climate sensitivity of
584 the Pyrenean snowpack in comparison with global mountain ranges, suggesting the existence of
585 similar climate sensitivities in other mid-latitude mountain areas.

586

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588



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597

598 **Authors contribution's**

599

600 JB analyzed the data and wrote the original draft. JB, JILM and EAG contributed in the
601 manuscript design and draft edition. JB, JILM and EAG read and approved the final manuscript.

602

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