

1 **VARIABILITY OF SNOW DEPTH AT THE PLOT SCALE: IMPLICATIONS**
2 **FOR MEAN DEPTH ESTIMATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGIES**

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1 **Abstract**

2
3 Snow depth variability over small distances can affect the representativeness of depth
4 samples taken at the local scale, which are often used to assess the spatial distribution of
5 snow at regional and basin scales. To assess spatial variability at the plot scale,
6 intensive snow depth sampling was conducted during January and April 2009 in 15
7 plots in the Rio Ésera Valley, central Spanish Pyrenees Mountains. Each plot (10 × 10
8 m; 100 m²) was subdivided into a grid of 1 m² squares; sampling at the corners of each
9 square yielded a set of 121 data points that provided an accurate measure of snow depth
10 in the plot (considered as ground truth). The spatial variability of snow depth was then
11 assessed using sampling locations randomly selected within each plot. The plots were
12 highly variable, with coefficients of variation up to 0.25. This indicates that to improve
13 the representativeness of snow depth sampling in a given plot the snow depth
14 measurements should be increased in number and averaged when spatial heterogeneity
15 is substantial.

Eliminado: The spatial autocorrelation of snowpack distribution can affect the local representativeness of snowpack.

16 Snow depth distributions were simulated at the same plot scale under varying
17 levels of standard deviation and spatial autocorrelation, to enable the effect of each
18 factor on snowpack representativeness to be established. The results showed that the
19 snow depth estimation error increased markedly as the standard deviation increased.
20 The results indicated that in general at least five snow depth measurements should be
21 taken in each plot to ensure that the estimation error is < 10%; this applied even under
22 highly heterogeneous conditions. In terms of the spatial configuration of the
23 measurements, the sampling strategy did not impact on the snow depth estimate under
24 lack of spatial autocorrelation. However, with a high spatial autocorrelation a smaller
25 error was obtained when the distance between measurements was greater.

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Eliminado: no particular sampling strategy provided an improved estimate of snow depth, but using a greater distance between measurements within a plot improved the representativeness of the estimates

26
27 **Key words:** snow distribution, plot scale, spatial correlation, field survey, sampling
28 strategies

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31 **1. Introduction**

32 Accurate assessment of snow depth and its distribution can aid in the forecasting of
33 water resources, the monitoring of natural hazards, and assessment of plant and fauna

1 phenology (Haefner *et al.*, 1997; López-Moreno *et al.*, 2007 and references therein).
2 Despite recent advances in remote sensing and the development of automated nivo-
3 meteorological stations, which provide operational tools for snow analysis, the manual
4 collection of point snow depth and density data is still widely used. Networks of
5 automated nivo-meteorological stations (e.g. SNOTEL in the U.S.; BERMS in Canada;
6 MIS, ENET and ANETZ in Switzerland) provide real-time monitoring of snowpack
7 characteristics at high temporal resolution (Fassnacht *et al.*, 2003), but these are
8 sparsely distributed and may not adequately represent surrounding areas (Erickson *et al.*,
9 2005; Neumann *et al.*, 2006). To overcome these spatial inadequacies additional ground
10 observations are often required (Molotch and Bales, 2005; Dressler *et al.*, 2006;
11 Neumann *et al.*, 2006).

Eliminado: Satellite and/or aerial imagery are not yet widely accessible, and have limited utility in rugged mountain terrains (Chang and Li, 2000)

12 Estimation of the distribution of snowpack depth is typically based on statistical
13 (e.g. binary regression trees) relationships between geo-referenced snow data and terrain
14 characteristics derived from a digital elevation model (DEM). This enables the
15 extrapolation of snowpack estimates to unsampled areas (Elder *et al.*, 1998; Erxleben *et*
16 *al.*, 2002; López-Moreno and Nogués-Bravo, 2006). Manual measurements are also
17 commonly used to calibrate and/or verify snowpack energy balance models,
18 implemented to estimate snowpack properties at temporal and spatial resolutions greater
19 than those that can be feasibly sampled (Cline *et al.*, 1998; Molotch and Bales, 2005).

20 The manual collection of snow measurements is often difficult, as it can involve
21 sampling in cold, rugged and isolated environments, sometimes in dangerous terrain. In
22 addition, selection of the optimum sample size is not trivial (Rovaneck *et al.*, 1993). It is
23 necessary to consider the appropriate number and distribution of samples necessary to
24 adequately assess the spatial variability of snow depth in a given area (Watson *et al.*,
25 2006). To capture the influence of terrain a representative field data set should also span

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1 the plot, slope and valley scales (Jost *et al.*, 2007). Terrain variability and vegetation
2 also influence the scale over which snow data are correlated (Deems *et al.*, 2006).

3 Discrepancies between snow depth estimates and the ground truth may lead to
4 spurious interpretation of the relationship between the snowpack and terrain
5 characteristics. At the plot scale (i.e. areas on the order of 100 m² where the snow
6 surface seems homogeneous from the perspective of a surveyor) it is important to
7 ensure that each sample is representative of its immediate surroundings, as there may be
8 hidden variability resulting from the presence of boulders, branches and vegetation on
9 the ground, and the effects of wind redistribution. These and other factors may lead to
10 large and unknown variability in snow depth over very short distances, so a single
11 sample is often inadequate to provide an estimation of snow depth for a given plot with
12 a specified accuracy. This problem is usually overcome by increasing sample replication
13 and averaging measurements made at different locations within a plot.

14 If a variable does not exhibit spatial autocorrelation, the estimation error
15 decreases as the sample size increases, and thus the average of a number of samples will
16 better represent the ground truth than a single measurement. The standard error (SE) of
17 a sample mean (i.e. the standard deviation of the error in the sample mean relative to the
18 population mean) can be estimated (Eq. 1, Nielsen and Wendroth, 2003) as a power
19 function of the sample standard deviation estimate (s) and the sample size (n):

20
$$SE = \frac{s}{n^{0.5}} \quad (\text{Eq. 1}).$$

21 An approximate sample size can be inferred for achieving a desired level of accuracy in
22 estimating the mean, depending only on the standard deviation of the population;
23 however, this relies on estimation of the standard deviation. As with most
24 environmental variables, snow properties (including snow depth) show a degree of
25 spatial autocorrelation; hence, consecutive or adjacent measurements are not completely

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1 independent. Autocorrelation can severely affect the estimation of sample variances and
2 standard deviations, resulting in uncorrected sample estimates significantly
3 underestimating the true (population) values. The degree of autocorrelation is not
4 known *a priori*, so it is impossible to determine in advance the optimum sample size for
5 achieving a certain degree of accuracy in estimating the mean.

6 As autocorrelation decreases with the distance between sampling points, the
7 sampling size, the distance between points and the sampling strategy (e.g. the spatial
8 pattern of sampling) must be considered. In snow sampling these parameters are often
9 decided subjectively rather than being derived statistically and very little literature can
10 be found as guidance to increase the efficiency when sampling snow depth.

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11 The aim of this paper is to quantify the spatial variability of snow depth at a 10
12 m × 10 m plot scale, and to isolate the effect of the sampling size and strategy on the
13 estimation of the mean snow depth under controlled conditions of snow variability and
14 spatial autocorrelation. To address these issues two intensive snow depth sampling
15 surveys were conducted in a Pyrenean mountain valley and a synthetic data set was
16 constructed to assess the influence of the sampling size and strategy on the estimation of
17 the mean under controlled conditions.

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18 The first and second sections of the results describe the observed variability of
19 snowpack and its influence on estimation of the snowpack depth at the plot scale. The
20 third section presents the results from analysis of the synthetic plots, aimed at isolating
21 the effects of snow depth variability and the degree of spatial correlation on the standard
22 error of the average.

Eliminado: in January and April 2009 in 15 plots in a Pyrenean mountain valley. Individual plots were established in open areas and forest openings. Each plot (10 m × 10 m)

Eliminado: was divided into a grid of 1 m × 1 m squares, which were sampled at each corner to yield a set of 121 data points. The average of these 121 replicates was taken to accurately represent the snow depth in the plot (ground truth). In addition to the measurement data a synthetic data set was constructed to assess the influence of the sampling size and strategy on the estimation of the mean under controlled conditions. Both data sets were used to analyze the micro-scale variability of snow depth in each plot, and to determine the optimum number of measurements and best sampling strategies to obtain an adequate estimation of the mean snow depth in a plot. For each plot several data subsets (measurement and synthetic) comprising varying numbers of replicates and different spatial configurations were compared with the ground truth measurement.

24 2. Data sets

Eliminado: (Fig. 1)

1 The snow surveys were conducted in the headwaters of the Ésera River in the central
2 Spanish Pyrenees Mountains in January (12–16) and April (21–24) 2009. These dates
3 were selected to obtain snow depth data under contrasting snow conditions. In January
4 the intensity of incident solar radiation is low and relatively homogeneously distributed
5 across the study area, and the cold early winter temperature maintains a strong thermal
6 gradient within the snowpack. In April the intensity of the incoming solar radiation is
7 much greater, and the aspect and forest canopy have a major influence on the spatial
8 distribution of snow. The warmer temperatures at this time induce snowmelt at many
9 locations, and reduce thermal gradients within the snowpack. In the latter period the
10 snowpack is isothermal in most plots (Fassnacht *et al.*, 2010).

Eliminado: Each plot had a smooth snow surface, so the degree of variation in snow depth in each plot was not known.

11 Fifteen 10×10 m plots were randomly selected across the study area. The plot
12 size was selected to match that of the most detailed digital elevation model (DEM)
13 available for the Pyrenees, and also to represent a suitable grid size for snow depth
14 estimations in mountain ranges worldwide. Plots were established along a transect of
15 seven kilometers between the Hospital de Benasque and the Aigualluts sites, covering
16 an altitudinal gradient of 340 m from 1735 to 2075 m a.s.l. (Table 1). Eight of the plots
17 were located in forest openings where the size of the open area was less than twice the
18 height of the surrounding trees (Pinus uncinata and silvestris of 5-15 m in height), and
19 seven were in open areas where the size of the open area was more than five times the
20 height of the surrounding trees. Each plot was divided into a grid of $1 \text{ m} \times 1 \text{ m}$ squares,
21 which were sampled at each corner to yield a set of 121 data points. The average of
22 these 121 replicates was taken to accurately represent the snow depth in the plot (ground
23 truth).

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24 In addition to the measurement data a synthetic data set was constructed to
25 assess the influence of the sampling size and strategy on the estimation of the mean

1 | under controlled conditions. For the synthetic data set 5000 simulations of a random
2 | spatial field of 10 m ×10 m were drawn for each combination of 10 standard deviation
3 | classes (steps of 0.025 from 0.025 to 0.25cm) and 4 levels of spatial autocorrelation,
4 | giving a total of 200,000 simulations. Standard deviation classes and levels of
5 | autocorrelation were defined according to the maximum snow depth variability and
6 | spatial autocorrelation observed in the sampled plots in the study area. Autocorrelation
7 | in the spatial fields was represented by a Gaussian semivariogram (Cressie, 1993), with
8 | the partial sill parameter equal to the square of the standard deviation (the variance of
9 | the set) and four levels of the range parameter (from 1 m for low autocorrelation to 10
10 | m for very high autocorrelation). The simulated spatial fields were obtained using the
11 | sequential Gaussian simulation algorithm, as implemented in the function `predist.gstat`
12 | of the `gstat` package (Pebesma, 2004); the R language was used for statistical analysis
13 | (R Development Core Team, 2010).

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15 | 3. Statistical analysis

16 | Snowpack variability was assessed by comparison of the distribution of depths and
17 | histograms of the data. Comparison of the characteristics of the histograms derived from
18 | the data from the forest openings with those derived from the open areas could provide
19 | insights into the role of the forest canopy in snowpack variability at the plot scale.

20 | The presence of spatial correlations at the plot scale was determined for each
21 | sampling plot using a semivariogram. The semivariogram plots the average
22 | semivariance between pairs of points as a function of the distance between them.
23 | Relevant parameters of the semivariogram are the sill (the maximum value of
24 | semivariance), the nugget (the value of semivariance at the discontinuity at the origin),
25 | and the range or correlation length (the distance at which the difference in the

1 semivariance from the sill becomes negligible). In models with a fixed sill the range is
2 the distance at which this is first reached; for models with an asymptotic sill the range is
3 conventionally taken to be the distance when the semivariance first reaches 95% of the
4 sill (Isaaks and Srivistava, 1989). Here a circular semivariogram model was used.
5 Figure 1 illustrates semivariograms of two different empirical semivariogram (dots) and
6 fitted circular semivariogram model (blue line) of two sampling plots in January (left)
7 and April (right). While the range of the autocorrelation was similar in both dates, the
8 high nugget value of January revealed a stronger autocorrelation at short distances.

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9 Subsets of different sample sizes (from $n = 1$ to $n = 121$) were randomly
10 extracted from each plot to assess the relationship between the error of the estimate
11 mean snow depth and the sample size. To obtain a robust estimation of SE, this process
12 was repeated 50 times for each plot using different random subsets. The same analysis
13 was applied to the synthetic datasets to isolate the effects of the field variance and the
14 spatial autocorrelation on the error of the mean snow depth. Because of the large
15 number of simulations the effect of various sampling strategies could be assessed. A
16 sample size of five replicates was used with 10 different spatial configurations and
17 varying distances between the measurements, as follows: i) random; ii) one row at 1 and
18 2 m distance; iii) a +shape (a central point and measurements toward the four cardinal
19 directions) at 1, 2 and 5 m; iv) an L-shape (northward and eastward points from a
20 central point) at 1, 2 and 5 m; and v) the four corners plus the central point.

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22 4. Results

23 4.1. Plot scale variability

24 The mean, standard deviation, coefficient of variation (CV) and semivariogram range
25 for the 15 plots are shown in Table 1; Figure 2 shows the associated snow depth

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1 histograms. In January 2009 there was moderate variability in the snow depth among
2 the plots, with a mean plot depth of 73–134 cm. Moreover, there was marked variability
3 at the plot scale, with coefficients of variation ranging from 0.04 to 0.20 (mean 0.12).
4 Despite this variability, the shape of all histograms was leptokurtic, indicating that most
5 of the snow depths were included in only a few depth classes.

6 The mean snow depth among plots was more variable in April than in January,
7 ranging from 65 to 253 cm. Snow accumulation increased in most of the plots, and the
8 increase was substantial in 8 plots. Only in the two plots at the lowest altitudes (plots 1
9 and 2) did snow depth decrease slightly. The average within-plot variability (CV) was
10 similar in April to that in January (mean CV = 0.12), but the range was greater, from
11 0.03 in plot 12 to 0.25 cm in plot 1. The marked leptokurtic shape of the histograms
12 observed for the January data was not as evident in April. The semivariogram range
13 varied from 1.3 to 10 m in January, and from 4.7 to 10 m in April. A range of 10 m
14 indicates that the range over which autocorrelation is significant is greater than the
15 maximum possible distance between points in the plots. Overall, the spatial
16 autocorrelation was less in January (mean range = 3.8 m) than in April (mean range = 8
17 m). In January the spatial autocorrelation was greater in the forest openings (mean range
18 = 5.3 m) than in the open areas (mean range = 2.4 m). In April the spatial
19 autocorrelation was very similar in the forest openings (mean range = 7.5 m) and the
20 open areas (mean range = 8.4 m).

21 Despite the altitudinal range covered by the survey being relatively low (1735 to
22 2075 m a.s.l.), the effect of elevation on the mean snow depth in both January and April
23 (Fig. 3A) was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). The overall micro-scale variability of
24 snow depth, measured by means of the CV, tended to decrease as the snowpack depth
25 increased (Fig. 3B). The CV was statistically correlated ($\alpha < 0.05$) with mean snow

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1 depth, with r values of -0.47 and -0.46 for January and April, respectively. The location
2 of the plot in a forest opening or an open area appeared to be the most influential factor
3 explaining the degree of variability in January. At that time the average accumulation of
4 snow in the forest opening plots (104 cm) was very similar to that in the open areas (108
5 cm), but the CV in the open areas (0.10) was lower than in forest openings (0.14). A
6 one-way ANOVA test confirmed that the differences in the coefficient of variation of
7 snow depth, between the two environments were statistically significant. In April,
8 despite the CV being greater for forest openings (0.12) than open areas (0.10), the
9 ANOVA test did not indicate a significant difference between the two environments.
10 The semivariogram range in each plot was not related to the snow depth (Fig. 2C), but
11 was significantly ($p < 0.05$) positively correlated with the CV (Fig. 2D), such that the
12 plot variability decreased the spatial autocorrelation.

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14 *4.2 Implications of sample size for snow depth estimation*

15 A random extraction of subsets of $n = 1$ to $n=121$ samples was replicated 50 times and
16 the means were compared with the ground truth mean ($n=121$). Replicates allowed for
17 robust estimation of the mean standard error and its range of variability for different
18 sample sizes. Figure 3 shows the decrease of the mean error, plus the 25th and 75th
19 percentiles, as a function of the sample size from the 15 plots assessed in January and
20 April 2009. The decrease of the mean standard error expected from a purely random
21 sample (according to the power function shown in Eq.1) is also shown for comparison.
22 The error decreased rapidly from small sample sizes, and the 5% mean standard error
23 was achieved with only four samples in each of January and April, or seven, and eighth
24 samples, respectively, for a significance level of $\alpha = 0.25$ (75th percentile). The

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1 | observed mean error was systematically higher than obtained from the purely random
2 | sampling in January, while in April they were more similar.

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3 | Figure 4 shows the mean, 25 and 75th percentiles of error for the 15 plots.
4 | Variability amongst analyzed plots informs that sample size may affect in a different
5 | manner to snow depth estimation at the plot scale. Figure 4(A) shows the average error
6 | as a function of both the sample size and the CV. Figure 4(B) displays the average error
7 | as a function of the sample size and the spatial autocorrelation (the range of the
8 | correlation length) per plot. To more clearly depict patterns of change the data were
9 | smoothed using a locally weighted scatterplot smoothing- LOESS smoother (Cleveland,
10 | 1979), with 1 polynomial degree for a sampling proportion of 0.1. For both sampling
11 | occasions (January and April 2009) the standard error tended to be higher in plots with
12 | larger coefficients of variation and spatial correlation (Fig. 5a and 5b). In plots under the
13 | later conditions the estimate of snow depth from a single measurement could differ from
14 | the ground truth value by more than 10% in January and 18% in April. In these cases
15 | estimates of snow depth could contain significant errors (> 10%), even with multiple
16 | measurements. Conversely, in those plots where snow measurements showed a low CV
17 | and low spatial autocorrelation, the standard error was notably lower than shown for the
18 | plot average in Figure 4. Under such conditions the error could drop below 5% with
19 | only a single measurement.

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Eliminado: , and indicates that in particular plots the error in mean depth estimates was noticeably larger.

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Eliminado: Figure 4 shows the average error for various sample sizes as a function of the CV (Fig. 4A) and the spatial autocorrelation (Fig. 4B)

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21 | 4.3 Effect of coefficient of variation, spatial autocorrelation and sampling strategy on 22 | snow depth estimation

23 | In natural situations completely random sampling of snow is rarely achievable because
24 | of a variety of difficulties including terrain complexity. Thus, in most real-world studies
25 | a specific sampling strategy is used, such as taking a number of samples in a line, plus
26 |

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Eliminado: In natural situations completely random sampling of snow is rarely achievable because of a variety of difficulties including variability in the distribution of snow-covered terrain

1 or an L It is plausible that a particular sampling strategy is better able to capture the
2 spatial variability in an autocorrelated field. To assess this possibility we simulated
3 200,000 plots composed of 121 points with an equal average snow depth (100 cm), but
4 with differing levels of standard deviation and spatial autocorrelation.

5 The mean standard error for various levels of standard deviation and spatial
6 autocorrelation for the random sampling is shown in Figure 6. Figure 7 shows the
7 example of 4 levels of standard deviation for various levels of spatial autocorrelation.

8 Both figures (Figs. 6 and 7) demonstrate that variability in snow depth at the plot scale
9 (measured by the standard deviation) explained the different degrees of accuracy
10 relative to the ground truth data. Thus, the 4 degrees of spatial autocorrelation provided
11 almost identical patterns of a decrease in error as sample size increased and standard
12 deviation decreased. Variability in the decrease in mean standard error with sample size
13 depended largely on the standard deviation of the spatial field, while the extent of
14 spatial correlation was far less important. However, differences were also found for
15 varying levels of spatial autocorrelation, and the mean standard error was slightly lower
16 in cases with higher autocorrelation because of their implicit lower spatial variability.

17 When the standard deviation exceeded 0.1 cm a single measurement provided a mean
18 error > 10%, and the error approached 20% when the standard deviation was 0.2 cm.

19 The decrease in error according to sample size approximated the theoretical exponential
20 decay for a purely random variable. From Figure 7 it can be seen that 4 measurements
21 per plot resulted in errors < 5% if the standard deviation was < 0.1 cm. Five
22 measurements were needed to achieve a similar accuracy with a standard deviation of
23 0.15 cm, while 7 or 8 measurements were needed for a standard deviation of 0.2 cm.
24 Five measurements provided error estimates < 10% for all degrees of spatial
25 autocorrelation tested.

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1 | Figure 8 shows the variability of the mean standard error amongst the 5000
2 | simulations for different sample sizes at 4 levels of standard deviation (0.05, 0.1, 0.15
3 | and 0.2 cm) and the same level of spatial autocorrelation (semivariogram range = 4 m).
4 | The average values shown in figures 6 and 7 can mask substantial variability (Fig. 8),
5 | and even with a low standard deviation (i.e. 0.05 or 0.1 cm) inaccurate snow depth
6 | estimates are possible if the sample size is < 4 measurements. In the case of plots with
7 | large snow depth variability, a small number of measurements may lead to marked
8 | deviation from the ground truth mean. Thus, there was a 25% probability of an error
9 | approaching 10% if less than five measurements were used when the standard deviation
10 | exceeded 0.1 cm. In general, Figure 8 suggests that a single measurement is highly
11 | unreliable as an estimate of snow pack depth at the plot scale. There was 10%
12 | probability of an error of 9, 16, 23 and 32% for standard deviations of 0.05, 0.1, 0.15 and 0.2 cm,
13 | respectively.

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14 | Snow depth estimates from 5 measurements using 10 different configurations of
15 | shape (row, L-shape, +-shape and random) and distance between measurements (1, 2
16 | and 5 m) were compared with the ground truth mean. In Figure 9, each panel represents
17 | a given combination of three standard deviations (0.05, 0.125 and 0.2 cm) and 2 levels
18 | of spatial autocorrelation (semivariogram range = 1 and 10 m). With no spatial
19 | autocorrelation the sampling strategy did not impact on the snow depth estimate.
20 | However, with a high spatial autocorrelation a smaller error was obtained when the
21 | distance between measurements was greater, as shown with sampling at the center and
22 | the four corners of the plot 5 m away, in a “+” shape (configurations 10 and 6 in Fig. 9).
23 | For all the three spatial configurations (line, “+” or “L” shapes) the largest errors were
24 | obtained when the distance between measurements was only 1 m. Random sampling
25 | and a 2 m spacing provided intermediate levels of accuracy, with the measurements

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1 | along a line being slightly more accurate than the “+” or “L” configurations. Under high
2 | snow variability condition (sd = 0.2), the results indicate that a 5 m spacing of
3 | measurements could result in an improvement in mean snow depth estimates of
4 | approximately 5% relative to a spacing of 1 m, while changing the spacing from 1 to 2
5 | m could increase accuracy up to 3%.

7 | 5. Discussion

8 | The data from two snow surveys (January and April 2009) showed that there was
9 | marked variability in the snowpack depth within each of the 10 × 10 m study plots.

10 | Such heterogeneity can prevent accurate estimates of snow depth being obtained. To

11 | improve the accuracy of snowpack estimates, it is necessary to average several
12 | measurements taken within each plot.

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Eliminado: data for individual plots must be averaged from a set of replicate snow measurements within the plot

13 | The two surveys undertaken in the present study were not sufficient to provide
14 | evidence of seasonal patterns, but differences between the two sampling periods were
15 | observed. It has been found that within a few months snow density and temperature can
16 | change markedly (Fassnacht *et al.*, 2010), and similar variability was found in this study
17 | with respect to snow depth variability at the plot scale, the spatial autocorrelation of
18 | snow depth, and the role of the forest canopy. All these factors can affect the minimum
19 | sample size and/or the sampling strategy necessary to satisfactorily represent snow
20 | depth at the plot scale.

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21 | Previous studies have identified large spatial variability at the plot scale
22 | (Tarboton *et al.*, 2000; Pomeroy *et al.*, 2001; Anderton *et al.*, 2002), which is a
23 | consequence of the particular characteristics of the terrain, the amount of accumulated
24 | snow, and the influence of surrounding forest. The presence and quantity of boulders,
25 | branches and irregularities in the terrain clearly influenced the variability among the

1 plots in the study area. For each of the surveys a statistically significant correlation was
2 found between the mean snow depth and the variability in each plot. An explanation for
3 this relationship is that irregularities in the terrain are constant in size, and thus their
4 relative influence on the snow depth decreases as the snowpack depth increases
5 (Fassnacht and Deems, 2006; López-Moreno and Latron, 2008). In both surveys higher
6 snow depth variability was found in the plots located in forest openings relative to those
7 in open areas. This can be explained in part by the horizontal and vertical structure of
8 trees within forest stands, local shadow effects (Musselman *et al.*, 2008) and the
9 emission of long-wave radiation from surrounding trees, differential ablation rates as
10 consequence of litter on the snow, and the increased probability of the presence of tree
11 branches and/or stumps on the ground (Pomeroy *et al.*, 2001; Stähli *et al.*, 2009).
12 However, certain plots in open areas exhibited the greatest variability among all plots in
13 April 2009; these plots were located at the lowest altitudes, where the snowpack was
14 thinner and local topography had a greater influence.

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15 Semivariograms have been used to detect significant spatial autocorrelation
16 (Essery *et al.*, 1999; Deems *et al.*, 2006; Jost *et al.*, 2007, Kronholm and Birkeland,
17 2007), but in most cases have been used at the slope scale. Watson *et al.* (2006) and Jost
18 *et al.* (2007) assumed variability at the plot scale to be random, and analyzed variability
19 at the watershed-scale from stratified data, using multiple replicates at the plot scale to
20 conduct geostatistical analyses to assess local variability. In this study we found that
21 spatial autocorrelation occurred at the plot scale, but varied markedly among plots and
22 tended to be greater in the forest openings. This is probably because of a spatial trend in
23 forest canopy processes affecting the energy balance and wind redistribution, including
24 shadow and wind shield effects, and the emission of long-wave radiation. As in this
25 study, Holmgren *et al.* (1998) recognized the existence of well-defined sills for the

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1 residual spatial variances at a range of about 10 m. For an area with a sparse canopy,
2 Deems *et al.* (2006) showed that the correlation length was a function of canopy
3 structure and terrain, and was in the order of 15 to 20 m. However, using spectral
4 analysis Trujillo *et al.* (2007) did not find a clear relationship between topographic
5 relief and the correlation length. For the same study sites the spatial memory of snow
6 depth in the forested areas was similar to the vegetation height field, and increased in
7 open areas as a consequence of wind redistribution (Trujillo *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, it
8 is logical to assume that the range actually be much greater if a slightly larger plot
9 overlapped both vegetated and open areas. This is a particularly relevant question as the
10 considered plot is of larger size than considered in this study.

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11 To obtain reliable snow depth estimates at a 10 × 10 m plot scale it is necessary
12 to make multiple measurements. With a single measurement the estimation of snow
13 depth in the plot is likely to be highly biased. The deviation from the ground truth mean
14 with different sample sizes was mostly associated with snow depth variability at the plot
15 scale. From the data obtained it was possible to infer a relationship between the degree
16 of spatial autocorrelation and the mean standard error. However, this may have been a
17 consequence of the relationship in this data set between the CV and the semivariogram
18 range. A sensitivity analysis conducted with multiple simulations of snow depth for
19 various autocorrelation ranges showed that the effect of autocorrelation on estimates of
20 the mean was much lower than the standard deviation of the field. However, in the
21 presence of spatial autocorrelation the sampling strategy became a relevant factor; snow
22 depth estimates improved by maximizing the distance between sampling points within
23 the plot and increasing the number of measurements. Specific configurations of the
24 snow measurements did not make a significant difference to the quality of the estimates.

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25 Overall, results suggests that snow sampling should prioritize the collection at least five

1 | snow depth measurements at a minimum2 meters spacing to represent a 10 x10 meters
2 | plot sized area. The specific numbers presented here relating sample size and snow
3 | depth estimates are closely related to the topographic and climatic characteristics of the
4 | study area, and the specific plot size considered in this study. The aim of this research
5 | was not to provide guidance for sampling in other geographical areas, or surface terrain
6 | characteristics, but highlights the usefulness of considering this type of analysis during
7 | the planning of snow surveys. Initial measurements of numerous snow depths at the plot
8 | scale can be used to determine the measurement variability of a location, and can help to
9 | decide how many samples should be taken to represent each survey point. This
10 | approach should improve the representativeness of the dataset. A better understanding
11 | of the factors that influence the spatial and temporal patterns of snowpack variability
12 | and spatial autocorrelation at the plot scale will aid efforts to obtain high quality snow
13 | datasets. We have presented information of 15 plots in two different periods of the year.
14 | However, we could find a larger range of variability and spatial correlation if a more
15 | detailed temporal resolution of the surveys, and a higher variety of environments (i.e.
16 | sub-canopy plots, high mountain areas, etc) would have been sampled. Further research
17 | could be addressed to analyze the dynamic nature of the variability (in space and time),
18 | which could reveal additional information for improving the accuracy of snow depth
19 | estimation.

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21 | 6. Conclusions

22 | Based on a 1 m sampling resolution, snow depth exhibited marked variability at
23 | a 10, × 10 m plot scale, especially in forest openings. This variability explains the need
24 | to average several measurements in each plot to obtain a reliable estimate of the snow
25 | depth. The number of measurements needed depends on the degree of variability of the

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1 | snowpack at the plot scale, and the desired accuracy. In this study five measurements
2 | produced an error of < 10% even under high variability conditions. With high micro-
3 | scale variability the collection of 8 measurements reduced the error to 5% in more than
4 | 75% of cases. Snow depth variability is often spatially autocorrelated. With no spatial
5 | autocorrelation the sampling strategy did not impact on the snow depth estimate.
6 | However, with a high spatial autocorrelation a smaller error was obtained when the
7 | distance between measurements was greater. In such cases spacing the measurements
8 | within the plot independently of the spatial configuration enhanced the accuracy of the
9 | snow depth estimates. Thus, under high spatial autocorrelation (semivariogram range=
10 | 10m) and high snow variability condition (sd = 0.2 cm), the results indicate that a 5 m
11 | spacing of measurements could result in an improvement in mean snow depth estimates
12 | of approximately 5% relative to a spacing of 1 m, while changing the spacing from 1 to
13 | 2 m could increase accuracy up to 3%.

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15 | **Acknowledgements**

16 | This work was supported by research projects CGL2006-11619/HID, CGL2008-01189/BTE, and
17 | CGL2008-1083/CLI, financed by the Spanish Commission of Science and Technology, and FEDER,
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19 | nieve en el Pirineo aragonés: Distribución especial y su respuesta a las condiciones climáticas”, financed
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21 | financed by the Comisión de Trabajo de los Pirineos, CTP. Data collection was assisted by Gonzalo
22 | López, Pablo Corella and Mario Morellón; their efforts are acknowledged with thanks.

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1 **Figure legends**

2 Figure 1. illustrates semivariograms of two different empirical semivariogram (dots)
3 and fitted circular semivariogram model (blue line) of two sampling plots in January
4 (left) and April (right).

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5 **Figure 2.** Histograms of the 121 measured snow depths (standard deviation units) for
6 each of the 15 plots distributed in various classes for a) January and b) April.

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7 **Figure 3.** Relationships between (A) snow depth and altitude, (B) snow depth and
8 coefficient of variation, (C) snow depth and semivariogram range, and (D) coefficient of
9 variation and semivariogram range.

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10 **Figure 4.** Decrease in snow depth estimation error at the plot scale for various sample
11 sizes. The thick line is the average error, and the thin lines are the 25th and 75th
12 percentiles obtained from 50 replications. The grey dashed line is the error calculated
13 according to a power law.

Eliminado: Figure 3 illustrates semivariograms of two different empirical semivariogram (dots) and fitted circular semivariogram model (blue line) of two sampling plots in January (left) and April (right).¶

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14 **Figure 5.** Average error for various sample sizes according to (A) the coefficient of
15 variation and (B) the spatial autocorrelation. The white areas correspond to ranges of the
16 y-axis without data in one of the surveys.

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17 **Figure 6.** Average error for various sample sizes derived from simulated plots
18 according to various standard deviation levels and 4 classes of spatial autocorrelation.

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19 **Figure 7.** Examples showing the decrease in average error according to sample size for
20 4 standard deviation levels with various classes of spatial autocorrelation.

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21 **Figure 8.** Variability in error estimates among the 5000 simulations involving various
22 sample sizes and 4 levels of standard deviation. The solid lines indicate the average, the
23 dashed lines indicate the mean, the boxes indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, and the
24 bars indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles.

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25 **Figure 9.** Impact of sampling strategy on error estimation at the plot scale.

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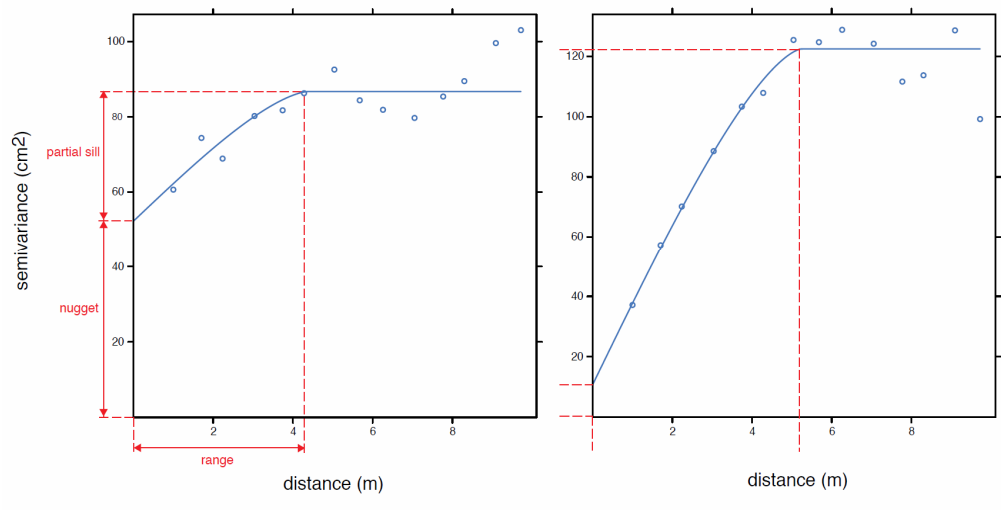
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Table 1. Summary data for the study plots. Location and main statistics: mean (cm), standard deviation (std dev), coefficient of variation (CV), and semivariogram range.

plot	Cover	UTM Coordinates			January				April			
		X	Y	Elev.	mean	std dev	CV	Range	mean	std dev	CV	Range
1	open	795640	4732341	1731	91	9.8	0.11	6.8	65	16.5	0.25	10.0
2	forest	796103	4732552	1737	73	10.8	0.15	6.5	72	11.6	0.16	5.5
3	forest	796284	4732200	1782	78	11.9	0.15	2.7	125	13.1	0.10	4.8
4	open	796327	4732421	1742	92	12.0	0.13	1.3	140	20.9	0.15	10.0
5	forest	796886	4732093	1857	134	15.9	0.12	10.0	235	20.9	0.09	4.7
6	open	797519	4731981	1873	132	9.2	0.07	1.5	204	16.2	0.08	10.0
7	forest	797888	4732159	1855	110	21.8	0.20	9.5	253	41.6	0.16	9.5
8	open	798317	4731997	1831	110	13.9	0.13	2.7	144	35.2	0.24	10.0
9	forest	798582	4731948	1838	114	16.2	0.14	2.1	185	43.1	0.23	10.0
10	open	798967	4732043	1864	72	10.1	0.14	1.5	131	9.1	0.07	9.6
11	forest	799116	4731778	1884	103	9.2	0.09	4.9	132	18.1	0.14	10.0
12	open	799274	4731735	1894	125	4.9	0.04	1.5	194	6.4	0.03	6.0
13	forest	799557	4731319	1944	113	17.6	0.16	1.6	227	21.2	0.09	8.3
14	open	800476	4730879	2025	126	11.4	0.09	1.1	211	10.3	0.05	4.7
15	open	800672	4730441	2075	118	10.7	0.09	2.9	221	16.3	0.07	7.1
	open average				108	10.2	0.10	2.4	164	16.4	0.12	8.4
	forest average				104	14.8	0.14	5.3	176	24.2	0.14	7.5
	Total average				106	12.4	0.12	3.8	169	20.0	0.13	8.0

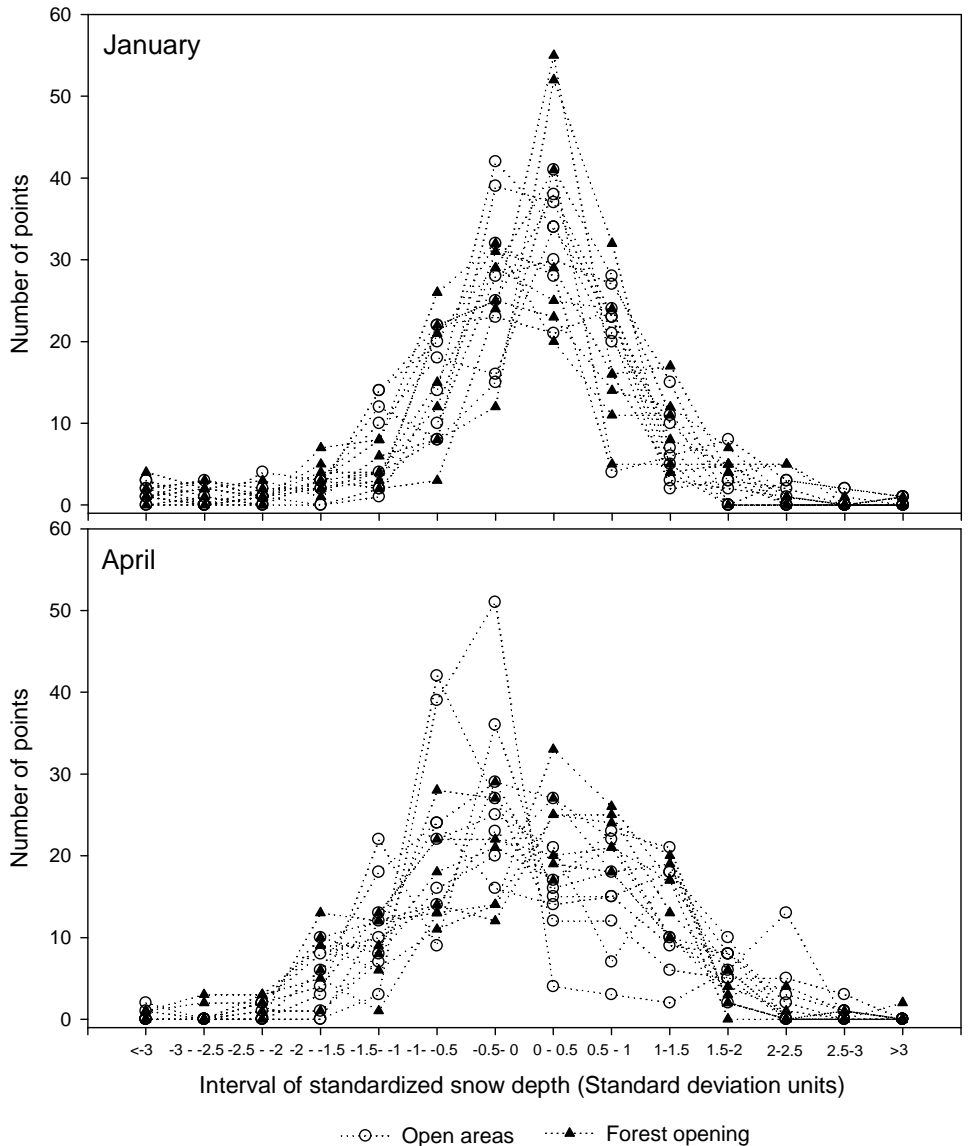
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[Figure 1](#)

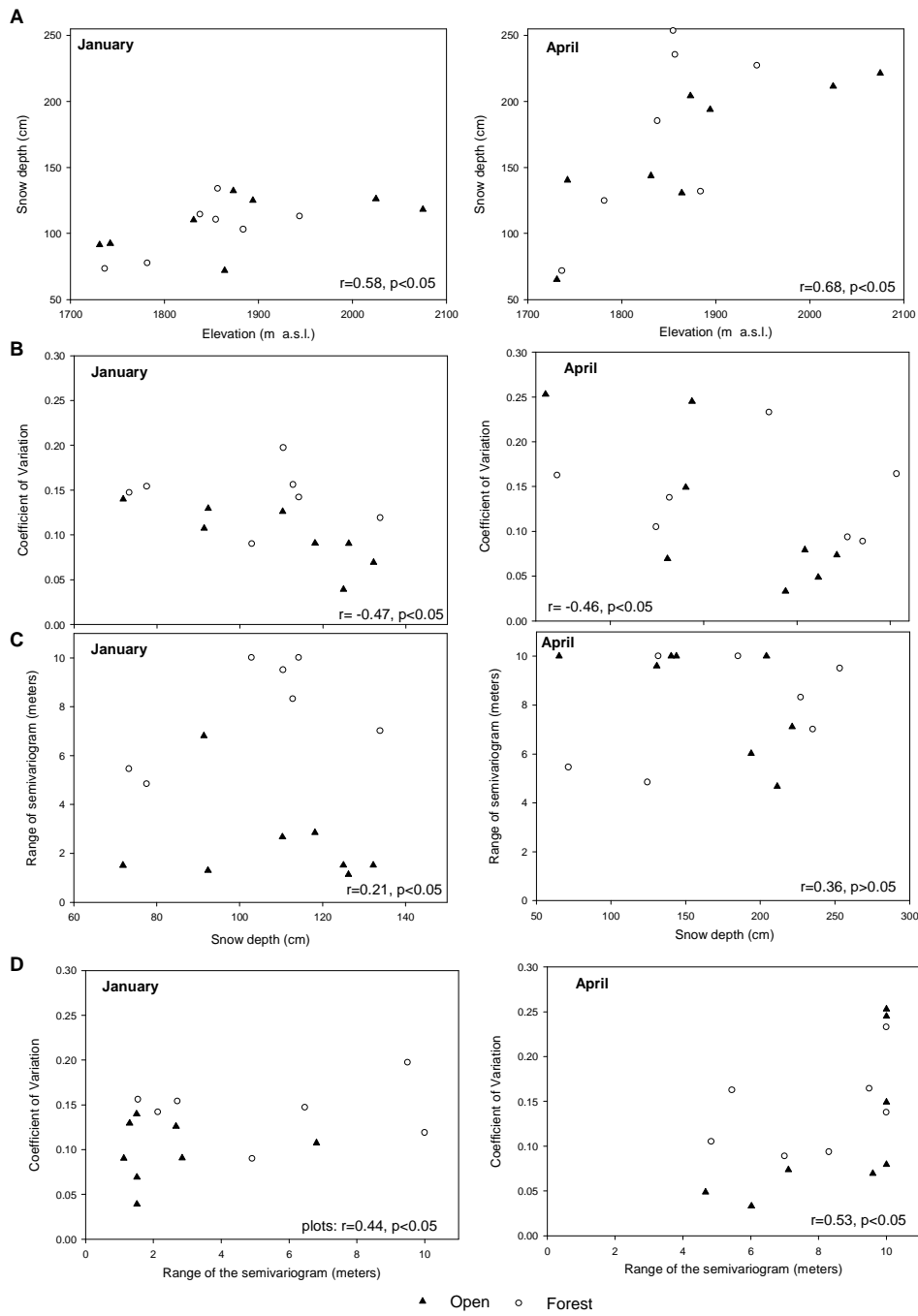


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Figure 2

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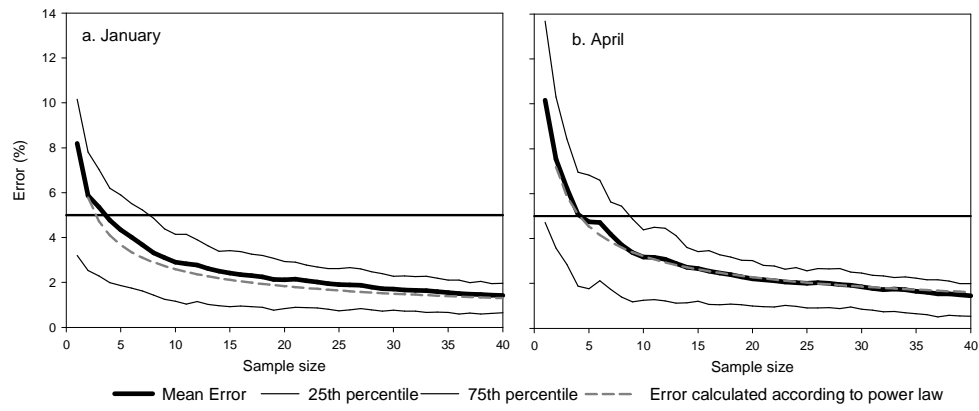


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Figure 3.

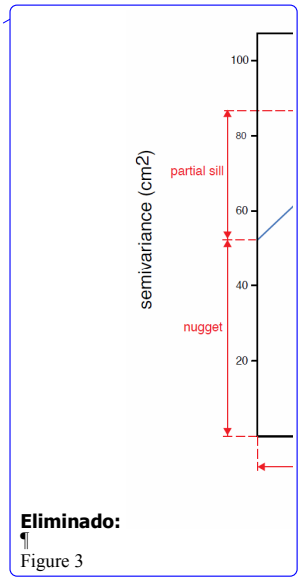
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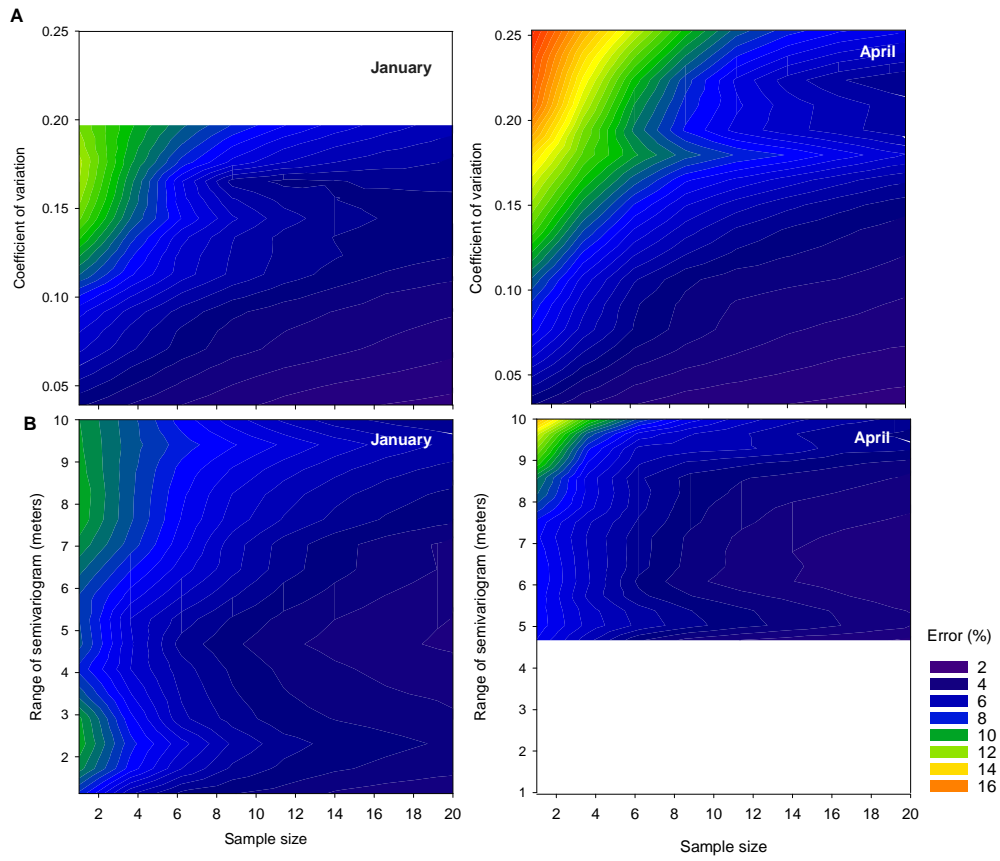


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Figure 4



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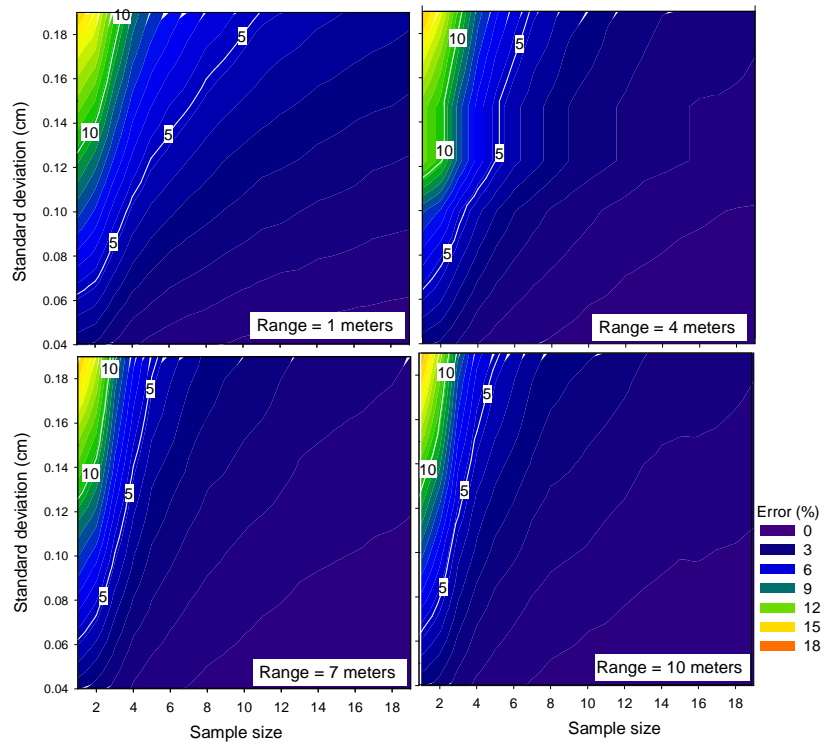
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Figure 5

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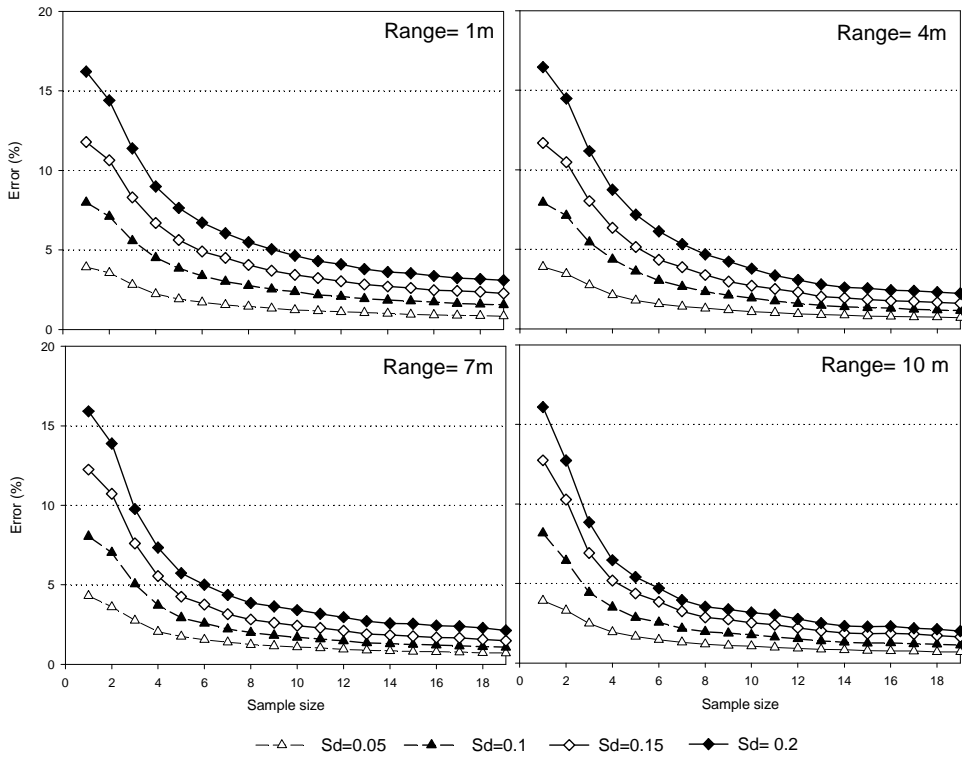


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Figure 6

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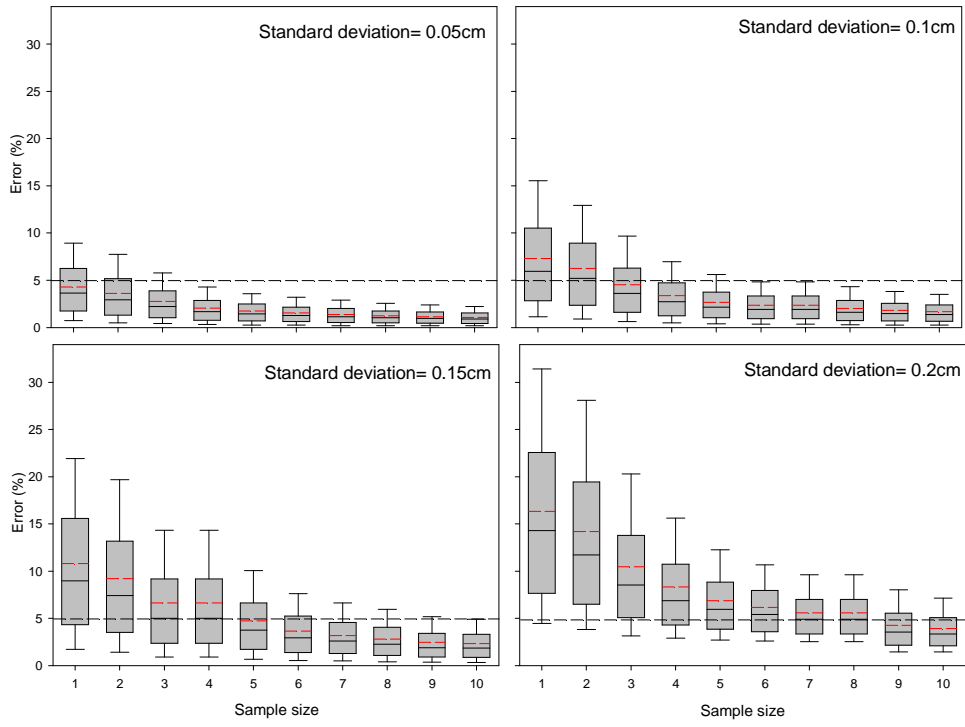


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Figure 7

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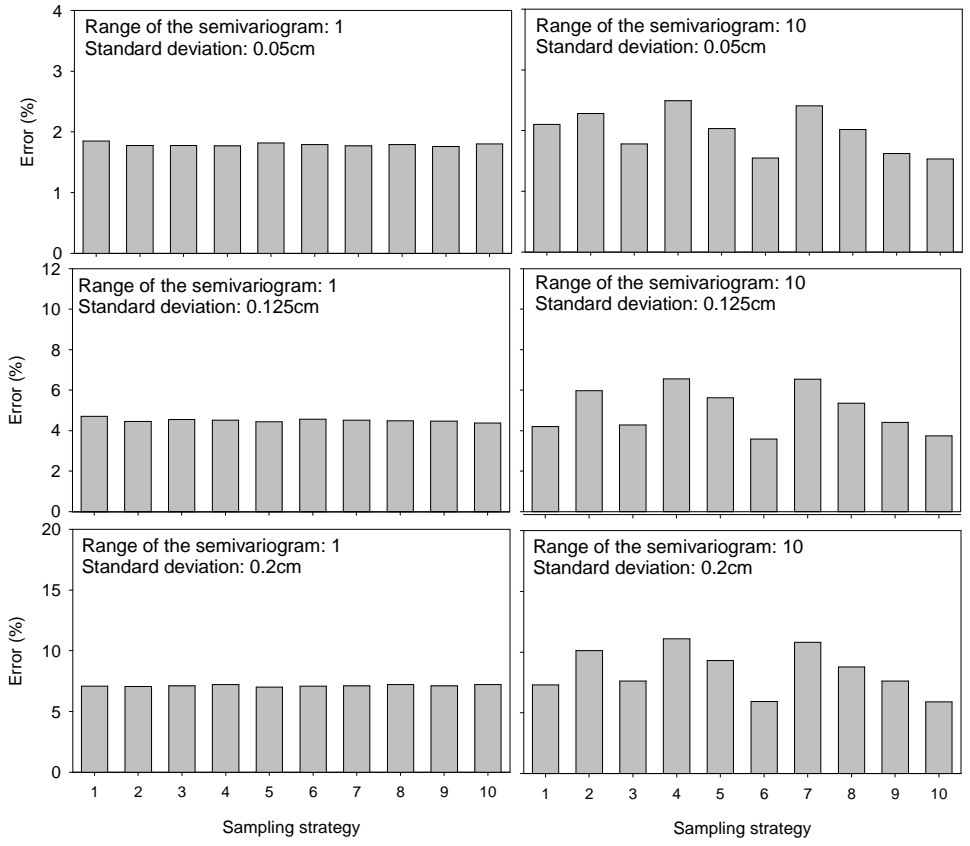
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Figure 8

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1: Random; 2: Row 1m; 3: Row 2m; 4: Plus 1m; 5: Plus 2m; 6: Plus 5m
7: L 1m; 8: L 2m; 9: L 5m; 10: center and four corners

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Figure 2

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