



1 **Investigating spatiotemporal patterns of snowline altitude at**
2 **the end of melting season in High Mountain Asia, using**
3 **cloud-free MODIS snow cover product, 2001-2016**

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10 **Abstract:** The snowline altitude at the end of melting season (SLA-EMS) can be used as an indicator of
11 the equilibrium line altitude (ELA) and therefore for the annual mass balance of glaciers in certain conditions.
12 High Mountain Asia (HMA) hosts the largest glacier and perennial snow cover concentration outside the
13 polar regions, but the spatiotemporal pattern of SLA-EMS under climate change is poorly understood in there.
14 Here, we develop a method for estimating SLA-EMS over large-scale area by using the cloud-removed
15 MODIS fractional snow cover data, and investigate the spatiotemporal characteristics and trends of SLA-EMS
16 during 2001-2016 over the HMA. The possible linkage between the SLA-EMS and temperature and
17 precipitation changes over the HMA is also investigated. The results are as follows: (1) There are good linear
18 regression relationships ($R = -0.66$) between the extracted grid (30km) SLA-EMS and glaciers annual mass
19 balance over the HMA. (2) Generally, the SLA-EMS in the HMA decreases with increase of latitude. And due
20 to the mass elevation effect, it decreases from the high altitude region of Himalayas and inner Tibet to
21 surrounding low mountainous area. (3) The SLA-EMS of HMA generally shows a rising trend in the recent
22 years (2001-2016). In total, 75.3% (24.2% with a significant increase) and 16.1% (less than 1% with a
23 significant decrease) of the study area show increasing and decreasing trends in SLA-EMS, respectively. The
24 SLA-EMS significant increases in Tien Shan, Inner Tibet, south and east Tibet, east Himalaya and Hengduan
25 Shan. (4) Temperature (especially the summer temperature) trends to be the dominant climatic factor affecting
26 the variations of SLA-EMS over the HMA. Under the background of the generally losing glaciers mass in
27 HMA, if the SLA-EMS continues to rise as a result of global warming, it will accelerate the negative mass
28 balances of the glaciers. This study is an important step towards reconstruction the time series of glacier
29 annual mass balance using SLA-EMS datasets at the scale of HMA to better document the relationships
30 between climate and glaciers.

31 **Keywords:** snowline altitude; spatiotemporal patterns; High Mountain Asia; MODIS

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Snow and glaciers play an important role in the global energy and water cycles because of their high albedo and
34 water storage properties, and can indicate the changes in global climate. Studying the variations of glaciers and



35 snow is of significant importance in monitoring and maintaining water management for ecosystem processes
36 and irrigation practices, because of there are more than one sixth of the global population relies on water from
37 mountainous melt water (Barnett et al., 2005).

38 Snowline altitude and its inter- and intra-annual variability are key characteristics indicating temporal
39 changes in snow cover and duration of snow melt (Krajčič et al., 2014). The concept of snowline estimation
40 varies with the applications. In hydrological applications, the snowline is identified as the boundary separating
41 snow-covered areas from snow-free areas (Kaur et al., 2010; Parker, 1997; Seidel et al., 1997), for estimation of
42 snow covered area and its temporal evolution, which is hence used as an input for hydrological modeling
43 (Holzer et al., 1995; Martinec et al., 2008), or for validation of snow model simulations (Turpin et al., 1997;
44 Zappa, 2008). And, the snowline altitude estimates have also been applied as an alternative method for cloud
45 removal in satellite snow cover products (Gafurov and Bárdossy, 2009; Parajka et al., 2010). In glacier and
46 climate studies, the snowline defines the lowest altitude of the perennial snow cover (Flint, 1971), equivalent to
47 the lower boundary of the snow covered area at the end of melting season (also known as snowline at end of
48 melting season (Pandey et al., 2013)). The snowline altitude at the end of melting season (SLA-EMS)
49 approximates the equilibrium line altitude (ELA), it can serve as a good proxy for ELA and therefore for the
50 mass balance of glaciers (McFadden et al., 2011; Pandey et al., 2013; Rabatel et al., 2005, 2012; Tawde et al.,
51 2016). Numerous studies (Braithwaite, 1984; Rabatel et al., 2005, 2008, 2012; WGMS, 1991-2013; Xie et al.,
52 1996) have shown that glacier annual mass balance is highly correlated with the ELA and SLA-EMS, and it
53 enables reconstruction of annual mass balance time series. The climate sensitivity of SLA-EMS has been
54 generally emphasized as a supplement to current climate change indicator systems. A study of the
55 spatial-temporal variations of the SLA-EMS can help in assessing the hydrologic cycle balance as well as to
56 understand the regional and global cryosphere and climate changes.

57 High Mountain Asia (HMA) hosts the largest perennial snow and glacier concentration outside the
58 Antarctic and Arctic regions. As one of the most sensitive and prominent areas responding to global climate
59 changes, the temperature of the HMA has increased more than twice the rate of global warming in the past
60 decades (Hu et al., 2013; Qiu, 2008); and the snow cover and glaciers in HMA are in a state of rapid change
61 (Brun et al., 2017; Rittger et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2012). These have led to changes in mountainous hydrological
62 processes and water resources, and increased the HMA's runoff due to the accelerated glacier/snowmelt (Chen
63 et al., 2017; Duethmann et al., 2015; Lutz et al., 2014). Meltwater from snow and glaciers in HMA provides a
64 major source of water for approximately 1.4 billion of inhabitants in the downstream low lying plains
65 (Immerzeel et al., 2010). Changes in the SLA-EMS with the increase or reduction of perennial snow- and
66 ice-covered area have a profound effect on stream water availability in the basins (Lei et al., 2012). For the
67 future livelihood of these people, it is therefore very important to estimate the SLA-EMS in HMA, understand
68 how the SLA-EMS will respond to climate changes.

69 The traditional strategy for SLA-EMS estimating is direct ground-based observations using field methods,
70 and extrapolating them to the rest of the mountain ranges. In HMA, this strategy suffers from the scarcity of
71 local observations in space and time and the consequent need to extrapolate to vast unsampled areas. This is
72 problematic, given that the pattern of glacier change in HMA is now known to be strongly heterogeneous (Brun
73 et al., 2017). Satellite remote sensing offers the opportunity to extract and evaluate snowline in the inaccessible
74 areas with rugged terrain and hostile climate. Most previous studies (McFadden et al., 2011; Pandey et al., 2013;
75 Rabatel et al., 2005, 2012; Tawde et al., 2016; Zhang and Kang, 2017) of SLA-EMS have focused on local areas



76 and using visual interpretation of Landsat MSS/TM /ETM+ and SPOT images observed in the end of summer
77 in which the snow cover extent is at its minimum value. However, they are difficult to assess SLA-EMS
78 changes in a continuous time and space for a large-scale area, due to the 16-day or longer revisit period and
79 relatively small swath width of Landsat and SPOT.

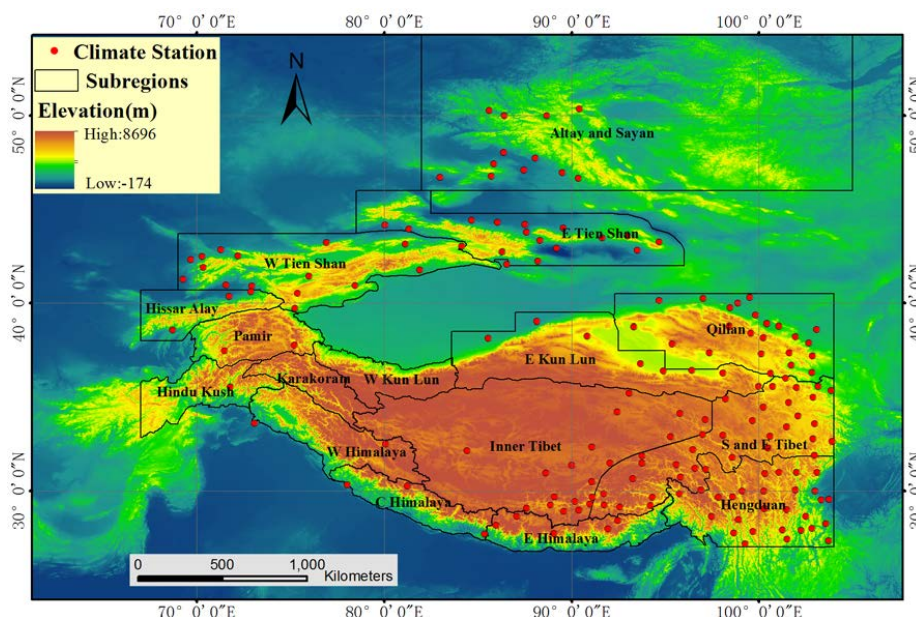
80 The most recent and advanced remote sensing snow cover product is produced by MODIS flown on the
81 Earth Observing System (EOS) Terra and Aqua platforms. The MODIS snow cover products (Riggs et al., 2006)
82 have been widely used to depict the spatiotemporal patterns of the seasonal or transient snowline altitude in
83 mountainous areas (Krajčič et al., 2014; Krajčič et al., 2016; Parajka et al., 2010; Spiess et al., 2016; Tang et al.,
84 2014; Verbyla et al., 2017), although they were rarely used to evaluate the SLA-EMS. Evaluation studies have
85 suggested a high accuracy of MODIS snow cover products under clear skies, when comparing with the in-situ
86 observations and other higher resolution satellite data at both regional and global scales (Hall and Riggs, 2007;
87 Klein et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2013). However, the extensive cloud obscuration in MODIS snow cover products
88 greatly limits their applications (Hall and Riggs, 2007; Riggs et al., 2006). Due to the MODIS fractional snow
89 cover (FSC) maps more accurately represent the gradual changes of snow cover in each pixel than the binary
90 snow cover maps (Riggs et al., 2006; Salomonson and Appel, 2004), the use of the FSC data could be better for
91 the removal of the cloud cover by temporal filtering. Consequently, we have developed a cubic spline
92 interpolation cloud removal method to eliminate the cloud covered pixels from the MODIS FSC products (Tang
93 et al., 2013), and the cloud removal method was well applied in Tibetan Plateau and Tianshan Mountains (Tang
94 et al., 2013, 2014, 2017). The advantage of the cloud removed MODIS FSC products is that the FSC changing
95 curve (the characteristic of gradual changes) for each pixel are considered rather than the simple substitution by
96 multiday combination for the binary snow cover products (Wang and Xie, 2009; Xie et al., 2009; Zhang et al.,
97 2016b), and all of the cloud pixels and other missing or abnormal pixels are removed with a high
98 snow-classification accuracy, thus providing considerable application value for snow cover monitoring.

99 The objectives of this paper are to: (1) propose a method for estimation of SLA-EMS over a large-scale
100 area, based on the cloud-removed daily MODIS FSC data; (2) give spatially detailed estimates of the changes of
101 SLA-EMS in HMA during 2001-2016 on a grid-by-grid basis. We also examine the SLA-EMS changes from
102 different subregions of the HMA, and the possible cause for the SLA-EMS changes from the perspective of
103 climate factors (temperature and precipitation). The topic is important as it will help to improve our
104 understanding of the climate-cryosphere relationship at the scale of a whole HMA. This study will also be an
105 important step towards reconstruction the time series of glacier annual mass balance using SLA-EMS datasets
106 at the scale of HMA to better document the relationships between climate and glaciers.

107 2. Study area and data

108 2.1. Study area

109 The HMA is the largest and highest mountain region on earth, stretching across Central Asia between 65°-
110 105°E and 25°- 51°N (Figure 1). It covers an area over 5 million km², with the average elevation over 4000 m,
111 spanning regions from the Hindu Kush and Pamir in the west to the Hengduan Mountains in the east, from
112 Himalayas in the south to the Altay and Sayan in the north. Based on mountain ranges, HMA was subdivided
113 into 16 subregions (Figure 1).



114

115 **Figure 1.** Location and the extent of the study area and subregions. Red dots denote meteorological stations. In names
116 of subregions, these individual letters 'W', 'C', 'E' and 'S' mean west, central, east and south, respectively.

117 2.2. Data

118 2.2.1. MODIS Fractional Snow Cover (FSC) Data

119 In this study, the MOD10A1 data for 2001–2016 from the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC)
120 (<https://nsidc.org/>) are employed to investigate the SLA-EMS variations in the HMA. MOD10A1 data are daily
121 snow cover products, which include both binary snow cover and fractional snow cover (FSC) products (with a
122 resolution of 463.3 m), gridded in sinusoidal projection (Riggs et al., 2006). The MODIS FSC mapping
123 algorithm is developed by Salomonson and Appel (Salomonson and Appel, 2004), which is based on a
124 statistical-linear relationship developed between the normalized-difference snow index (NDSI) from MODIS
125 and the true subpixel fraction of snow cover as determined using Landsat scenes. Evaluation studies have
126 proved a high accuracy (with a mean absolute error less than 0.1) of the MODIS FSC data (Hall and Riggs, 2007;
127 Salomonson and Appel, 2004; Tang et al., 2013). Using the MODIS Reprojection Tool (MRT) (Dwyer and
128 Schmidt, 2006), the MOD10A1 FSC data are mosaicked and resampled from the original 463.3 m pixel size to
129 500 m, and georeferenced into a UTM projection with a datum of WGS84. The final mosaicked images are
130 converted to GeoTIFF file format.

131 2.2.2. Meteorological Observation Data

132 Daily temperature and precipitation from 172 meteorological stations (Figure 1) in the HMA for 2001–2016 are
133 collected from China Meteorological Administration (<http://data.cma.cn>) and NOAA's National Centers for
134 Environmental Information (NCEI) (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/>), formerly known as National Climatic Data



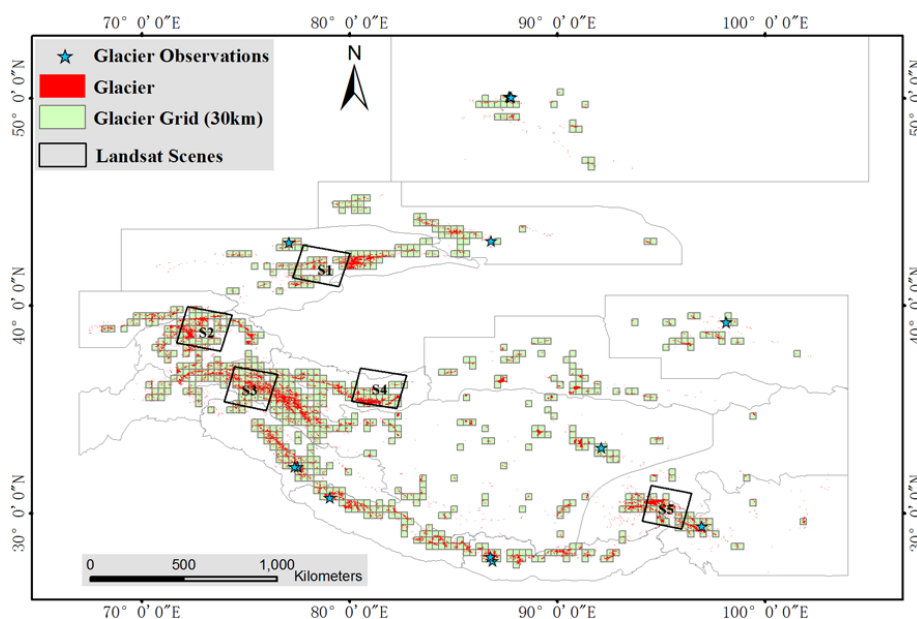
135 Center. The temperature and precipitation data are used to survey the linkages between SLA-EMS changes and
136 climate variations during the study periods.

137 2.2.3. Glacier Annual Mass Balance Observation Data

138 The Fluctuations of Glaciers Database (2017)(WGMS, 2017) (DOI: 10.5904/wgms-fog-2017-10) is collected
139 from World Glacier Monitoring Service (WGMS, https://wgms.ch/data_databaseversions/). It is an
140 internationally collected, standardized dataset on changes in glaciers (length, area, volume and mass), based on
141 in-situ and remotely sensed observations, as well as on reconstructions. In this study, 12 observed glaciers
142 (Figure 2) with the annual mass balance observations over 6 years (and 8 of them are observed over 10 years)
143 are selected as calibration data for the SLA-EMS estimation.

144 2.2.4. Other Data

145 The digital elevation model (DEM) data at the spatial resolution of 90 m from the Shuttle Radar Topography
146 Mission (SRTM) are used to derive the altitude values of SLA-EMS. They are available at
147 <http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org/>. In order to match the MODIS images, the SRTM DEM are resampled from the
148 original 90-m pixel size to 500 m. The glacier inventory data (Figure 2) used in this study includes the Second
149 Glacier Inventory Dataset of China (<http://westdc.westgis.ac.cn/data>) and the Randolph Glacier Inventory 5.0
150 (RGI 5.0, <http://www.glims.org/RGI/randolph50.html>); the RGI 5.0 is used for the study areas of outside China.
151 Besides, several Landsat TM/ETM+/OLI images of the five selected Landsat scenes (Figure 2) are also used as
152 reference data for the SLA-EMS estimation.



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Figure 2. Spatial distribution of glacier grids, glacier observations and Landsat scenes. The annual mass balance observations of 12 observed glaciers (listed in Table 1) are collected from the Fluctuations of Glaciers Database (https://wgms.ch/data_databaseversions/). Glacial areas in the HMA are divided into 744 glacial



157 grids with the cell size of 30km. The five black boxes (S1-S5) outline the area covered by Landsat images (in
158 Table 2).

159 3. Methods

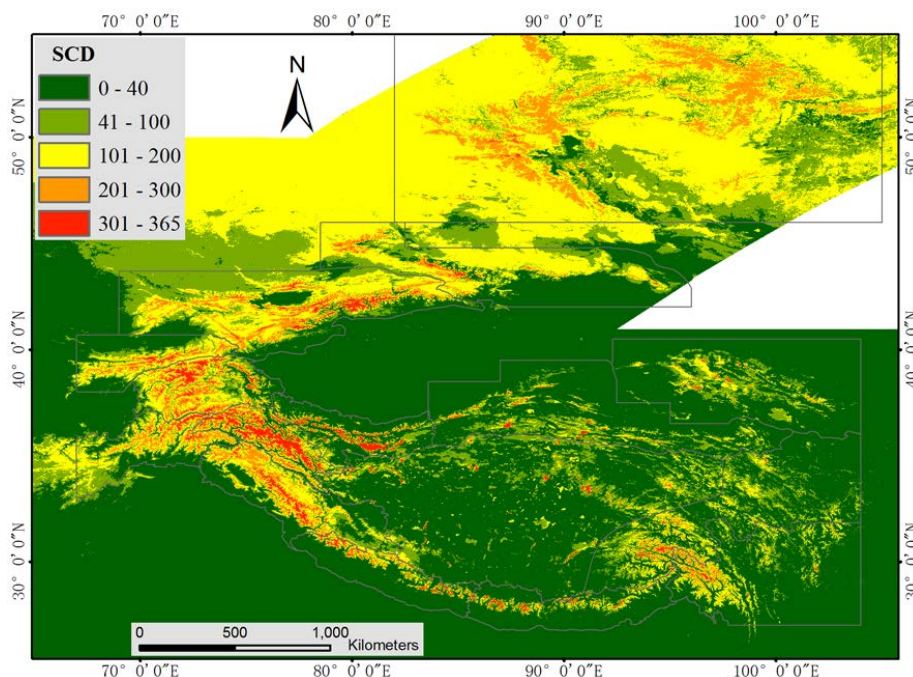
160 3.1. Cloud Removal from MODIS FSC Data, and SCD Calculation

161 Following the cloud removal method for MODIS FSC products developed by Tang et al. (Tang et al., 2013), the
162 daily cloud-removed FSC data in the study area were produced from 2000 to 2016. The cloud removal
163 algorithm is based on the cubic spline interpolation algorithm (temporal filtering). Details on the cubic spline
164 interpolation cloud removal method and the relevant accuracy evaluation strategies can be found in the works of
165 Tang et al. (Tang et al., 2013). From the applications of the cloud removal method in the areas of HMA (Tibetan
166 Plateau and Tianshan Mountains) (Tang et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2017), the cloud removal
167 method was efficient in retrieving the FSC information of these cloud covered pixels in these areas, with the
168 overall mean absolute error less than 0.1; and there was a high consistency between MODIS-derived
169 snow-covered days (SCD) and the in-situ observed SCD, the mean consistency over 85%, and the mean
170 absolute error is less than 4.2 days (Tang et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2017). The higher
171 consistency between MODIS-derived SCD and in-situ SCD indicates that the cloud-removed MODIS FSC data
172 have a high accuracy to monitor the snowline in the HMA.

173 The SCD represents the overall snow cover conditions for a region in a year. Therefore, the maps of the
174 spatial distribution of SCD have potential significance for SLA-EMS determination. In this study, the SCD
175 images are calculated using all cloud-free MODIS FSC images for a given year. The calculation equation is
176 shown as:

$$177 \quad \text{SCD} = \sum_{i=1}^N \text{Ceil}(D_i \geq 50) \quad (1)$$

178 where N is the total number of days (images) within a year and D_i is the snow cover fraction (%) in a
179 pixel ($0 \leq D_i \leq 100$). $\text{Ceil}(D_i \geq 50)$ counts the numbers of $D_i \geq 50$. For instance, if the pixel value on the image is 60
180 (i.e., 60% snow cover), the SCD adds 1. If the pixel value on the image is 10 (i.e., 10% snow cover), the SCD
181 adds 0 and is unchanged. Figure 3 shows the distribution of the MODIS-derived SCD in the HMA.



182
183 **Figure 3.** Distribution of average snow-covered days (SCD) from 2001 to 2016 in the High Mountain Asia (HMA).

184 **3.2. Methodology of SLA-EMS monitoring**

185 For snow cover, the end time of melting season varies with the places and years, so that perennial snow cover
186 (i.e., the snow cover at the end of melting season) in a range of HMA is difficult to identify in terms of the snow
187 cover on a specific given date. Theoretically, the SLA-EMS can be determined by the MODIS derived snow
188 covered days (SCD), that is, the boundary altitude of perennial snow cover (where the $SCD \geq 365d$). However,
189 the snow area with MODIS $SCD \geq 365d$ is fail to really indicates the perennial snow area, due to the affection of
190 the annual cumulated errors in MODIS snow mapping algorithm and cloud removal method. For instance, our
191 previous studies (Tang et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2017) in Tibetan plateau and Tianshan Mountains have found
192 that the snow areas with MODIS $SCD \geq 365d$ are far less than the glacier areas, although the clouds in MODIS
193 snow product are effectively eliminated. In addition, how to estimate the boundary altitude value of the
194 perennial snow cover is another problem need to be solved. Therefore, the designed methods of monitoring the
195 SLA-EMS from cloud-removed MODIS FSC products in this study involve (1) dividing glacier grids, (2)
196 calibration of MODIS SCD threshold for perennial snow cover estimation, (3) determination the boundary
197 altitude value of the perennial snow cover.

198 **3.2.1. Dividing Glacier Grids**

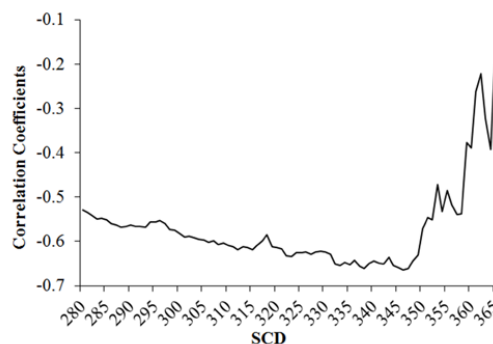
199 In order to make detailed and comprehensive assessments of the SLA-EMS, glacial areas in the HMA are
200 divided into 744 grids (named glacier grids) with the cell size of 30km (Figure 2). For each identified glacier
201 grid, the area of glacier cover is ensured to be more than 25km² based on overlay analysis with the glacier



202 inventory data. Thus, the SLA-EMS in the HMA can be investigated thoroughly on a grid-by-grid and
203 year-by-year basis.

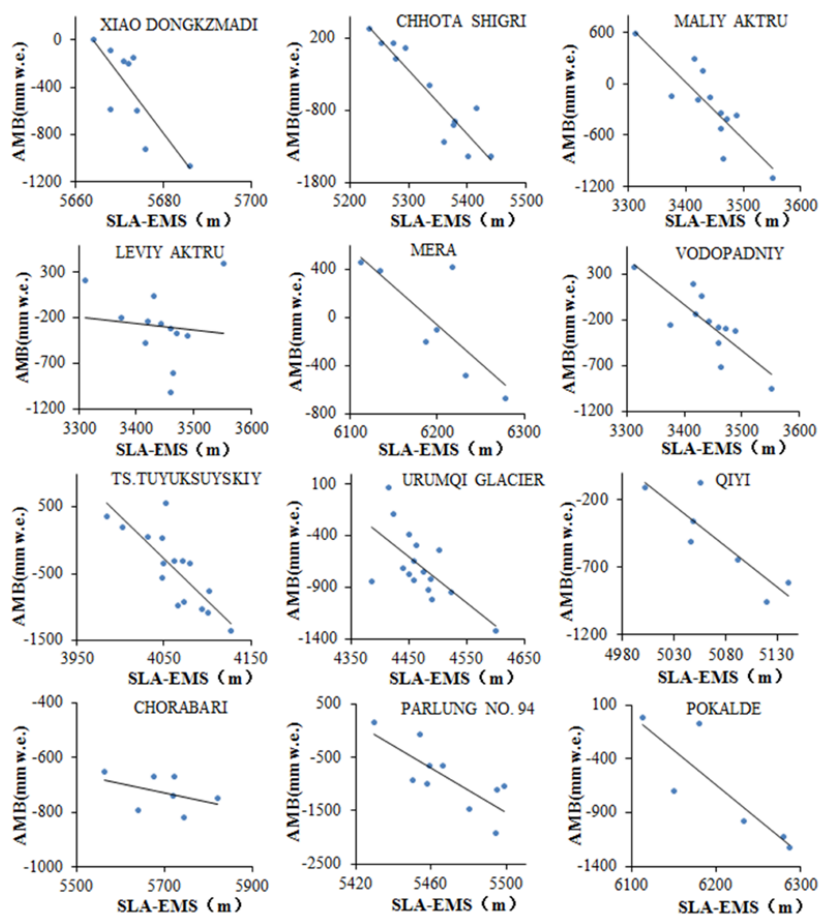
204 3.2.2. Calibration of MODIS SCD Threshold for Estimating Perennial Snow Cover

205 Since SLA-EMS is able to serves as a good proxy for ELA and thus for the mass balance of glaciers, it is
206 reasonable to calibration of MODIS SCD threshold value by comparing the correlations between the SLA-EMS
207 and annual mass balance of glaciers. In this method, the annual mass balance observations of the 12 measured
208 glaciers (Figure 2) are used as reference data for SCD threshold calibration, and yearly SLA-EMS values of the
209 corresponding glacier grids are extracted for any given SCD values (setting the SCD threshold changing from
210 280 to 365d, with 1d as the step size). Here, the method of SLA-EMS values extraction is shown in section 3.2.3.
211 Figure 4 shows the average correlation coefficients between annual mass balance of the 12 glaciers and the
212 SLA-EMS changing with the MODIS SCD threshold. As the MODIS SCD growing, the negative correlations
213 enhanced, and peaked when SCD is 347d, and then decreased rapidly, indicating that 347d is an optimal SCD
214 threshold (Figure 4). With SCD changing from 348 to 365d, the rapid decreasing of the negative correlations
215 could be attributed to annual cumulated errors in MODIS snow mapping algorithm and cloud removal method,
216 thus the high SCD (from 348 to 365d) is not suit for the threshold to estimating perennial snow cover and
217 SLA-EMS. Using MODIS SCD threshold as 347d, the scatter plots and linear regression parameters between
218 glacier annual mass balances and grid SLA-EMS (30km) for the 12 measured glaciers are shown in Figure 5 and
219 Table 1. They show that the 30km SLA-EMS extracted with 347d as MODIS SCD threshold has significant
220 linear relation with glacier annual mass balance.



221

222 **Figure 4.** Average correlation coefficients between annual mass balance of the 12 measured glaciers and their
223 corresponding grid (30km) snowline altitude at the end of melting season (SLA-EMS), changing with the MODIS
224 snow covered-days (SCD) threshold. The peaked negative correlations when SCD is 347d, indicating that 347d is a
225 optimal MODIS SCD threshold for extraction of SLA-EMS.



226

227 **Figure 5.** Scatter plots between glacier annual mass balances (AMB) and their corresponding grid (30km) snowline
 228 altitude at the end of melting season (SLA-EMS) for the 12 measured glaciers. The MODIS SCD threshold of 347d
 229 is used in the extraction of SLA-EMS.

230 **Table 1.** Linear regression parameters between annual mass balances (y) and the extracted 30km grid
 231 SLA-EMS (x) for the 12 measured glaciers.

Glaciers	Number of observations (yr)	Linear fitting equation	Correlation coefficients (R)
XIAO DONGKZMADI	10	$y = -49.359x + 279566$	-0.8
CHHOTA SHIGRI	12	$y = -8.8258x + 46542$	-0.93
MALIY AKTRU	12	$y = -6.7223x + 22876$	-0.85
LEVIY AKTRU	12	$y = -0.7471x + 2283.9$	-0.11
MERA	8	$y = -6.4232x + 39766$	-0.76
VODOPADNIY (NO.125)	12	$y = -5.0136x + 17001$	-0.82
TS.TUYUKSUYSKIY	16	$y = -12.608x + 50791$	-0.76
URUMQI GLACIER NO. 1	16	$y = -4.4547x + 19215$	-0.65

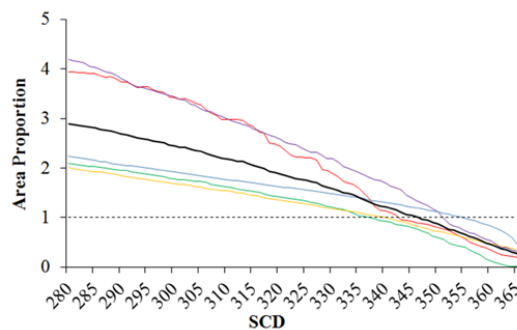


QIYI	7	$y = -6.0463x + 30172$	-0.71
CHORABARI	7	$y = -0.3482x + 1257.1$	-0.44
PARLUNG NO. 94	10	$y = -20.797x + 112856$	-0.6
POKALDE	6	$y = -6.415x + 39131$	-0.57

232 In addition, we also use several Landsat TM/ETM+/OLI images of 5 selected Landsat scenes to determine
 233 the MODIS SCD threshold for estimating perennial snow cover. In the process of Landsat images selection, we
 234 focus on the principle of that the imaging time is near the end of summer and are almost unaffected by the cloud.
 235 The specific dates and locations of Landsat ETM+/OLI images are listed in Figure 2 and Table 2. In this work,
 236 Landsat images are firstly classified as snow or non-snow using the current “SNOWMAP” (Hall et al., 1995)
 237 approach. And then the perennial snow cover maps (minimized snow cover) for each Landsat scenes are
 238 produced from a composite of multi-images, in which the pixel will be identified as perennial snow cover only
 239 if it is classified as snow in all the selected images of the scene. Finally, we compare the Landsat-derived
 240 perennial snow cover against that of MODIS-derived in the 5 Landsat scenes, and changing with the MODIS
 241 SCD threshold. As Figure 6 shows, although the optimal SCD thresholds (with the area ratio is equal to 1)
 242 are varying with the regions, the average of them is also about 347d. Therefore, in this study, we ultimately chose
 243 the MODIS SCD thresholds as 347d for estimating perennial snow cover and SLA-EMS.

244 **Table 2.** Information about Landsat images used in calibration of MODIS SCD threshold.

Region	Sensor	Date	Path	Row
S1	OLI	2013/07/30、2013/08/15、2013/08/31、2013/09/16	148	31
S2	OLI	2014/07/22、2014/08/07、2014/08/23、2014/09/08	151	33
S3	OLI	2013/07/08、2013/07/24、2013/08/25、2013/09/10	149	35
S4	TM	2009/06/28、2009/07/30、2009/08/15、2009/08/31	145	35
S5	ETM+	2002/07/13、2002/07/29、2002/08/14、2002/08/30	135	39

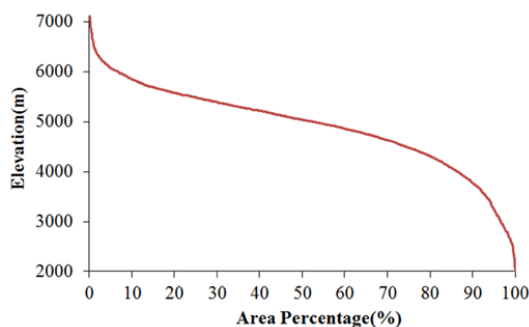


245
 246 **Figure 6.** Comparisons of Landsat-derived perennial snow cover area and that of MODIS-derived in the 5 Landsat scenes
 247 (Region S1-S5 in Figure 2 and Table 2), changing with the MODIS SCD threshold. The Y-axis represents the area ratio of
 248 Landsat-derived perennial snow cover area divide by that of MODIS-derived, and bold black line represents the averages of
 249 the 5 regions.



250 **3.2.3. Determination Boundary Altitude Value of Perennial Snow Cover**

251 Determination the altitude value of the SLA-EMS for every glacier grid (30km) is carried out using the
 252 area-elevation distribution curve and the perennial snow cover area. The area-elevation distribution curve for
 253 each glacier grid is generated using the resampled SRTM DEM data (500m). Take one of glacier grids as an
 254 example, the elevation measuring graph of the area-elevation distribution curve is shown in Figure 7. The
 255 altitude value of SLA-EMS for a particular year of a grid is calculated by selecting the elevation for which the
 256 area above this elevation is equal to the perennial snow cover area in the grid. Thus, the SLA-EMS in the HMA
 257 is able to be measured on a grid-by-grid basis, as long as the yearly perennial snow cover area was accurately
 258 obtained.



259
 260 **Figure 7.** An example of area-elevation distribution curve for one of the glacier grids. The X-axis represents the
 261 percentage area above the corresponding elevations (Y-axis) in the grid.

262 **3.3. Methodology of SLA-EMS Changes and the Linkages with Climate Factors**

263 Trend analysis of a time series consists of the magnitude of trend and its statistical significance. Linear
 264 regression analysis is one of the most common methods of simulating the change trend of a time series. In this
 265 study, the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression is employed to calculate the linear trends of the SLA-EMS
 266 over the 16 years. A trend is considered to be statistically significant if its significance levels at 5%. Specifically,
 267 the slope of the least-squares line fitting of the SLA-EMS is calculated as:

268

$$Slope = \frac{n \times \sum_{i=1}^n i \times SLA_i - \sum_{i=1}^n i \sum_{i=1}^n SLA_i}{n \times \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i \right)^2} \quad (2)$$

269 where, Slope is the slope of the least-squares line fitting; *i* is the serial number from 1 to 16 for the years from
 270 2001 to 2016; *n* is the cumulative number of years; and *SLA_i* is the value of SLA-EMS in the *i*th year. When
 271 Slope > 0, there is an increasing tendency; when Slope = 0, there is no increasing or decreasing tendency; when
 272 Slope < 0, there is a decreasing tendency. And their significance levels (*P*) of F-test are presented.

273 Pearson correlation analysis is used to investigate the correlations between SLA-EMS, and temperature
 274 and precipitation dynamics for the 16 years (2001-2016). Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*) is a measure of the
 275 linear correlation between two variables *x* and *y*, which can be calculated with Equation (3)



276
$$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \quad (3)$$

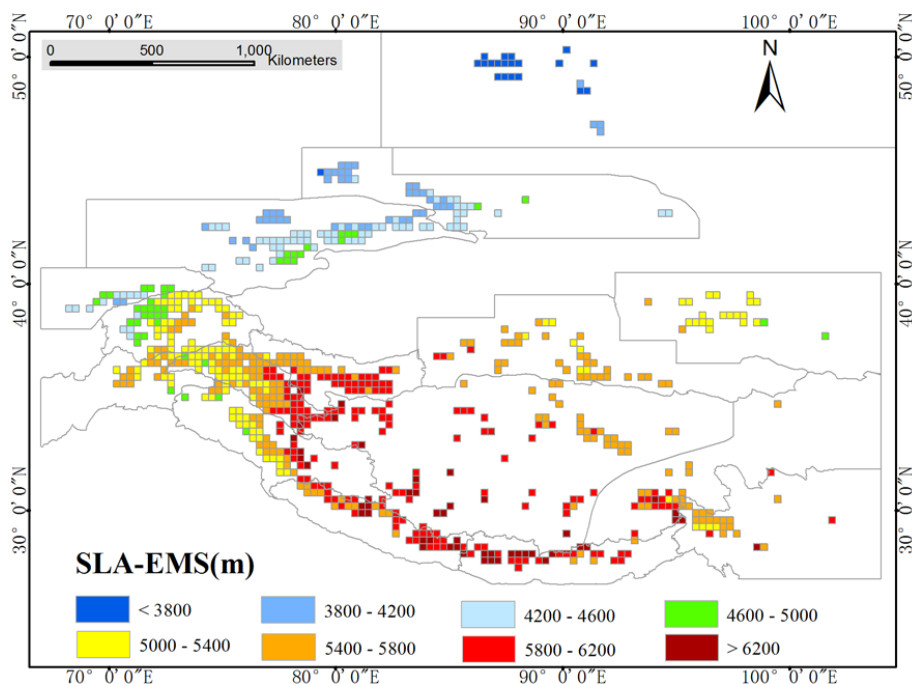
277 where r_{xy} is the correlation coefficients between x and y ; x is the SLA-EMS, y is the temperature or precipitation;
278 n is the number of the samples; \bar{x} and \bar{y} denote the average values of the x and y , respectively. Since the
279 correlation coefficients are determined in the period from 2001 to 2016, n equals to 16 here. The correlation is
280 considered to be significant if it is at the 5% significance levels.

281 4. Results

282 4.1 Spatial Pattern of SLA-EMS

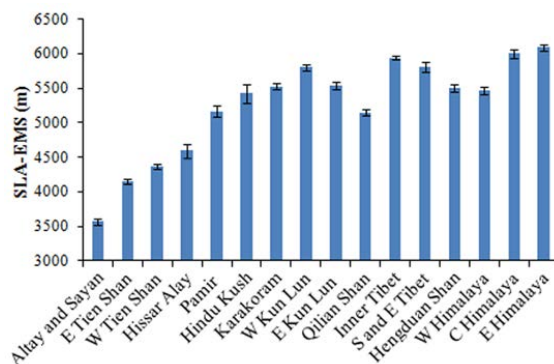
283 For each glacier grid (30km) in the HMA, the yearly SLA-EMS has been calculated. Figure 8 presents the
284 spatial patterns of SLA-EMS in the HMA during 2001-2016. The spatial changes of the SLA-EMS (from
285 3114 to 6907m) exhibit a large spatial heterogeneity in the HMA (Figure 8). The average SLA-EMS (6091 m)
286 in east Himalaya is the highest among the different subregions, while the lowest (3575 m) is in Altay and
287 Sayan. From the whole of the HMA, the average SLA-EMS is 5256 m (Figure 9).

288 Generally, the SLA-EMS in the HMA decreases with increase of latitude; in southern HMA (such as the
289 east and central Himalayas, inner Tibet), the SLA-EMS in many grids higher than 6200m, while in northern
290 HMA (the Altay and Sayan), they are less than 3200m (Figure 8). Furthermore, from the high altitude region
291 of Himalayas and inner Tibet to surrounding low mountainous area, the SLA-EMS gradually decreases; and
292 there is a significant positive correlation between SLA-EMS and elevation, which indicates the spatial
293 patterns of the SLA-EMS are also controlled by the change of altitude (Figure 10).



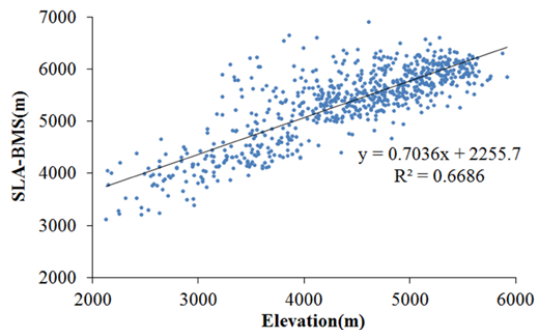
294
 295
 296

Figure 8. Spatial patterns of average SLA-EMS in the HMA for 2001-2016.



297
 298
 299

Figure 9. Average SLA-EMS for different subregions. Error bars show the standard deviation, indicating the interannual variations of SLA-EMS from 2001 to 2016.



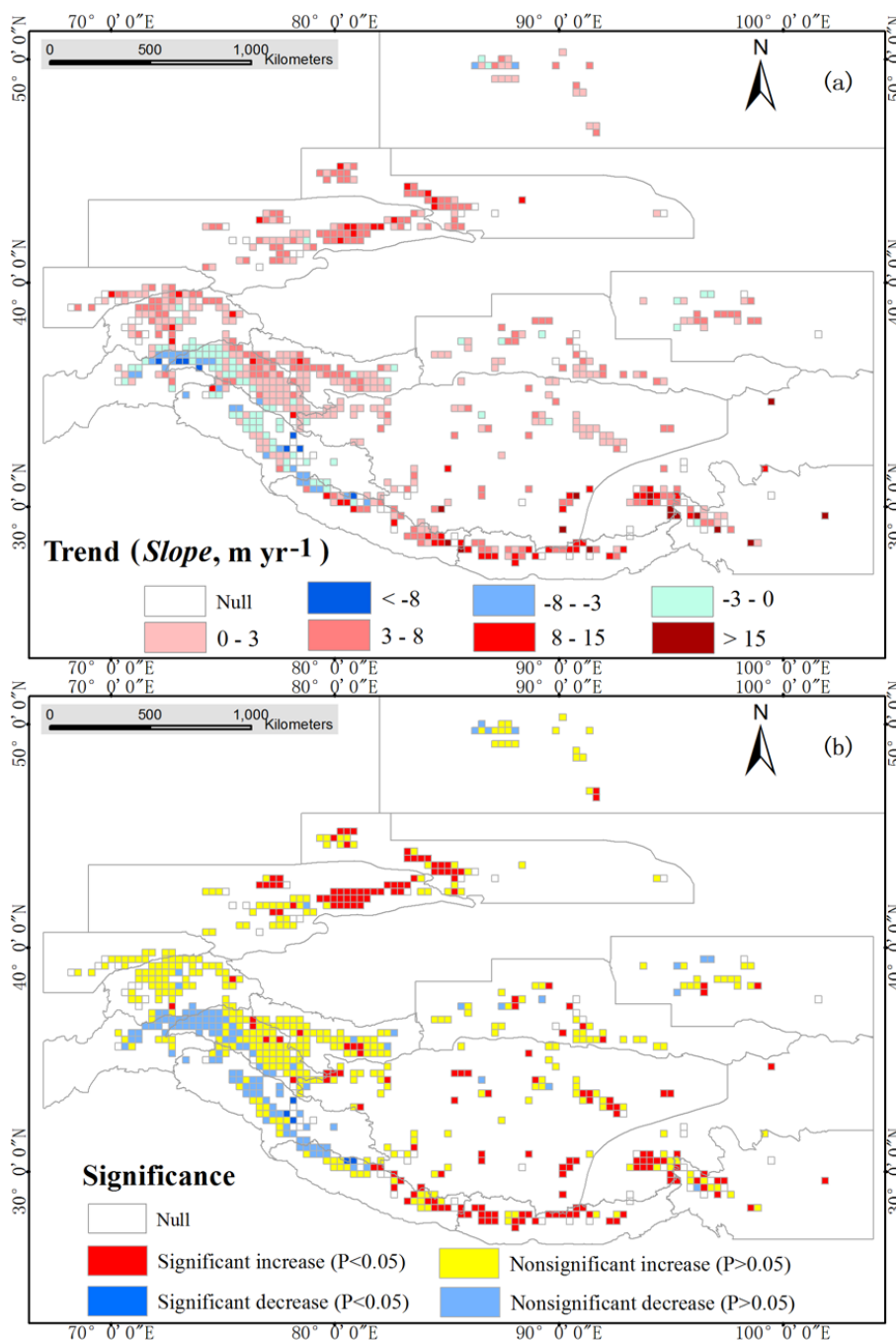
300



301 **Figure 10.** Relationships between SLA-EMS and elevations (30km). The X-axis represents the average elevation of the
302 30km glacier grids, Y-axis represents the extracted SLA-EMS of the glacier grids.

303 **4.2 Spatiotemporal Variations of SLA-EMS during 2001-2016**

304 Figure 11 illustrates the linear trend (*Slope*) of SLA-EMS and its significance level at the grid scale for the 16
305 years. On the whole, the SLA-EMS shows a rising trend in HMA, although a large number of glacier grids
306 (40.6%) are characterized by weak trends in SLA-EMS ($-3 < Slope < 3 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$). The linear trends for
307 SLA-EMS in 75.3% of the grids are increased to different degrees ($0.0 < Slope < 24.5 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$), and the
308 increase trends in 24.2% of the grids are statistically significant ($P < 0.05$). The SLA-EMS increases with the
309 *Slope* greater than 3 m yr^{-1} account for 39.4%. But only 16.1% of the grids are characterized by decrease
310 trends in SLA-EMS ($-13.6 < Slope < 0.0 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$), and the significant decreased ($P < 0.05$) grids even less than
311 1%. The grids with significant increased SLA-EMS are mainly distributed in Tien Shan, east and central
312 Himalayas, inner Tibet, and the Nyainqentanglha of south and east Tibet. While the weak trends of decrease
313 in SLA-EMS appears in few areas of Karakoram, Pamir, Hindu Kush, and west Himalaya (Figure 11).

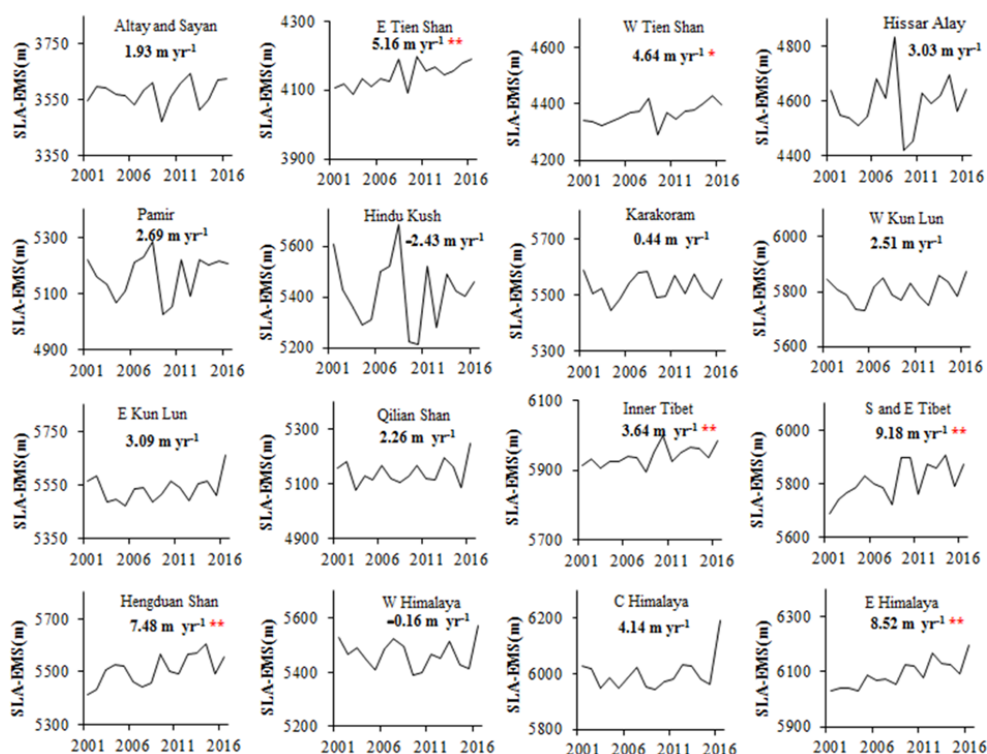


314
 315 **Figure 11.** Change trend (*Slope*) of SLA-EMS (a); and its significance level (b) in grid scale during 2001-2016 of HMA.
 316 Significant changes indicate its statistical significance at the 5% level.
 317

318 Figure 12 further present the interannual changes and linear trend (*Slope*) of SLA-EMS for different
 319 subregions. Significant increase trends of SLA-EMS during the 16 years are found in Tien Shan, inner Tibet,



320 south and east Tibet, east Himalaya and Hengduan Shan; especially, in southeastern of HMA (south and east
 321 Tibet, east Himalaya and Hengduan Shan), the average SLA-EMS increment is relatively higher ($Slope \geq 7.48$
 322 $m\ yr^{-1}$). While in other regions, the SLA-EMS shows nonsignificant increase or large interannual fluctuation;
 323 the large interannual fluctuations of SLA-EMS are mainly located in western HMA (Pamir, Hindu Kush and
 324 Hissar Alay). The SLA-EMS in the Karakoram, Pamir, Hindu Kush and west Himalaya show stability or
 325 slightly decreasing trend.



326
 327 **Figure 12.** Interannual variation and linear trend (*Slope*) of SLA-EMS for different subregions of HMA from 2001 to
 328 2016. ** and * indicate statistical significance at the 0.01 and 0.05 level, respectively.

329 4.3. Correlations between SLA-EMS, Temperature and Precipitation

330 To explore the possible mechanisms for SLA-EMS changes of the HMA, we examined the linkages between
 331 the SLA-EMS and two important climate parameters (temperature and precipitation) variations by the
 332 correlation analysis. In this study, the in situ climate data from 172 meteorological stations (which are located
 333 in the study area) are selected to investigate the relationship between the SLA-EMS, temperature and
 334 precipitation from the different subregions. And the temperature and precipitation are divided into two time
 335 scales (summer and annual) in the analysis. Change trends of temperature and precipitation in these regions
 336 are approximately represented by the stations' average value, although the meteorological stations are scarce
 337 and unevenly distributed in some subregions. Table 3 presents the Pearson correlation coefficients between
 338 the SLA-EMS, temperature and precipitation for the period of 2001–2016. Although the correlation
 339 coefficients between the SLA-EMS and temperature vary in regions, indicating a large spatial heterogeneity,
 340 the SLA-EMS in almost all of the regions shows a positive correlation with the temperature, particularly a



341 significant positive correlation with the summer temperature (the average $R=0.64$). While, there is no obvious
 342 correlation between SLA-EMS and precipitation. These results suggest that temperature (especially the
 343 summer temperature) was the dominant climatic factor affecting the interannual variations of SLA-EMS in
 344 the study area, and the variation trend and high fluctuation of SLA-EMS in the HMA (Figure 12) is mostly
 345 due to the variability of temperature. The rising temperature in the snowmelt period can increase snow
 346 melting and decrease snowfall, both of which can lead to a higher SLA-EMS. If the global warming trend
 347 continues, the increase of the SLA-EMS caused by the high-positive correlation with temperature may result
 348 in significant changes in water resources and river flows in the HMA. This will exert effects on the ecosystem,
 349 irrigation-dependent agriculture, and domestic water in the densely populated downstream areas.

350 **Table 3.** Pearson correlation coefficients between the SLA-EMS, temperature, and precipitation in different subregions
 351 for the period of 2001–2016.

Regions	Summer temperature	Annual temperature	Summer precipitation	Annual precipitation
S and E Tibet	0.69 **	0.72 **	0.42	0.40
Hengduan Shan	0.34	0.34	0.29	-0.01
Qilian Shan	0.72 **	0.60 *	0.19	0.03
Inner Tibet	0.32	0.13	-0.26	-0.23
E Tien Shan	0.60 *	0.22	-0.01	0.08
W Tien Shan	0.76 **	0.29	0.00	-0.16
E Himalaya	0.67 **	0.38	-0.14	-0.21
E Kun Lun	0.64 **	0.47	-0.09	-0.06
C Himalaya	0.58 *	0.53 *	0.31	-0.23
Pamir	0.75 **	0.37	0.02	-0.02
W Himalaya	0.83 **	0.55 *	0.01	-0.01
Altay and Sayan	0.66 **	0.12	0.28	0.02
Hissar Alay	0.83 **	0.11	N.A.	N.A.
Hindu Kush	0.63 **	0.26	N.A.	N.A.
W KunLun	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Karakoram	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

352 Note: ** and * indicate statistical significance at the 0.01 and 0.05 level, respectively. The regions without
 353 meteorological stations (or missing data) are represented by “N.A.” (meaning “not available”).

354 5. Discussion

355 Satellite remote sensing data has been used to monitor regional snowline altitude for a long time, and visual
 356 interpretation of Landsat MSS, TM and ETM+ (and so on) images observed in the end of summer is the
 357 common method for investigating the SLA-EMS changes in a local areas (McFadden et al., 2011; Pandey et
 358 al., 2013; Rabatel et al., 2012; Tawde et al., 2016; Zhang and Kang, 2017). Since the 2000s, the MODIS snow
 359 cover products provide an excellent opportunity to study the snow cover for global or large-scale areas, and
 360 they have been used to investigate the spatiotemporal changes of the seasonal or transient snowline altitude
 361 (Krajčič et al., 2016; Krajčič et al., 2014; Parajka et al., 2010; Spiess et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2014; Verbyla et
 362 al., 2017). However, there is still little suitable method to assessing large-scale SLA-EMS changes using



363 MODIS snow cover product. Therefore, a methodology of SLA-EMS determination from cloud-removed
364 MODIS snow cover products is developed in this study. The highlights of this methodology can be
365 summarized as follows: (1) the cloud cover in MODIS snow cover products were effectively removed; (2) in
366 order to accurately estimate the perennial snow cover, the MODIS SCD threshold was calibrated using both
367 the glaciers annual mass balance observations and Landsat images; (3) dividing glacier grids, and
368 determination altitude value of SLA-EMS on a grid-by-grid basis using the area-elevation distribution curve
369 and the perennial snow cover area. This study can also be intended as a precedent toward using MODIS snow
370 cover products to assess SLA-EMS at the large-scale areas for better understanding of water resources and
371 climatology of cold region. However, we cannot ignore the limitations of using the coarse resolution dataset
372 (500m); the MODIS dataset is not suitable for the extraction of SLA-EMS in small-scale area, and this is also
373 why the glacier grids are divided as big to 30km in the study.

374 Although earlier studies have shown that the snowline identified by satellite images at the end of the
375 glaciological year can be used as an indicator of the glacier annual mass balance (Braithwaite, 1984; Rabatel et
376 al., 2005, 2008, 2012; Xie et al., 1996), the glacier mass balance is presently estimated by three main methods.
377 Glaciological method (also known as field estimate) is one of the most commonly used method, where glacier
378 mass balance is estimated using in situ field studies. But, due to mountainous terrain and logistic reasons, this
379 method is limited to a few glaciers. The second method is the local remote sensing analysis (geodetic method
380 using DEM differencing). Geodetic method provided mass balance estimates only for areas smaller than a few
381 thousand square kilometres (Pieczonka and Bolch, 2015; Rankl and Braun, 2016; Shangguan et al., 2015) and
382 for varying periods, and has demonstrated that these sub-regional measurements are not representative at the
383 larger scale (Gardner et al., 2013). The third method is large-scale satellite measurements, such as laser
384 altimetry (ICESat). However, ICESat-1 laser altimeter operated only from 2003 to 2009, and had a sparse
385 spatial sampling leading to potential large bias (Treichler and Kääb, 2016). Therefore, it is still difficult to
386 achieve continuous spatial-temporal monitoring of the glacier mass balance for a large scale area. In this work,
387 we find that there is a good linear regression relationship between the grid (30km) SLA-EMS and annual
388 mass balance of glaciers in the HMA (Figure 5 and Table 1). The SLA-EMS is negatively related with the
389 glaciers annual mass balance (the average correlation coefficients is -0.66). These demonstrate that the
390 MODIS extracted grid SLA-EMS can be a good indicator of large-scale glaciers annual mass balance. The
391 proposed SLA-EMS determination method and SLA-EMS datasets in this research will have good potential in
392 reconstruction or extending the glacier annual mass balance time series at large-scale area such as the HMA.
393 However, the quantitative relationship between SLA-EMS and glacier annual mass balance needs to be
394 further studied in the future work using more abundant glacier annual mass balance data, for example using
395 time series of DEMs derived from ASTER optical satellite stereo-images (Brun et al., 2017).

396 The spatial distribution pattern of SLA-EMS in the HMA is mainly affected by two factors: latitude and
397 topographic altitude (Figure 8 and 10). And the spatial pattern of SLA-EMS (Figure 8) in this study is very
398 in keeping with the spatial distributions of the ELA of the monitoring glaciers in High Asia (Ye et al., 2016).
399 The latitudinal distribution pattern of SLA-EMS manifest as the SLA-EMS gradually decreasing from south
400 to north, that is Himalayas > inner Tibet > KunLun > Tien Shan > Altay and Sayan (Figure 8). The
401 differences in solar radiation and temperature caused by latitude could be the main reason for latitudinal
402 pattern of SLA-EMS. The significant positive correlation between SLA-EMS and elevation (Figure 10), that
403 is, the topographic altitude controlled spatial pattern of the SLA-EMS could be ascribed to the mass elevation



404 effect, which is essentially the result of the thermodynamic effect of mountain masses (Han et al., 2018;
405 ZHANG et al., 2016), and virtually leading to higher temperature in the interior than in the outside of
406 mountain masses at same elevation and on similar latitudes, and has been recognized as a significant
407 contributor to the vertical distribution of mountain snowline and timberline (Han et al., 2012; Han et al.,
408 2011).

409 Under the context of global warming, the cryosphere (snow cover, glaciers, glacial lakes and permafrost)
410 of the HMA has been changing rapidly (Brun et al., 2017; Cheng and Wu, 2007; Rittger et al., 2016; Yao et
411 al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). Like many glaciers worldwide, the glaciers in HMA have generally been losing
412 mass over the past decades, but a subset of glaciers in the region have been stable or even slight growing. This
413 peculiar behavior, first observed over the Karakoram and often named the “Karakoram anomaly” (Hewitt,
414 2005), has been demonstrated in the Karakoram and Pamir mountains in northwest HMA (BOLCH, et al.,
415 2012; Gardelle et al., 2012). Recent work shows the “anomaly” of glaciers mass balances even toward the
416 northeast of the Karakoram, in the west KunLun region (Brun et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2017). In this work, we
417 find the SLA-EMS in HMA generally shows a rising trend in the 16 years (Figure 11 and 12), and the
418 significant increase trends of SLA-EMS are mainly located in east Tien Shan (5.16 m yr^{-1}), west Tien Shan
419 (4.64 m yr^{-1}), Inner Tibet (3.64 m yr^{-1}), south and east Tibet (9.18 m yr^{-1}), east Himalaya (8.52 m yr^{-1}), and
420 Hengduan Shan (7.48 m yr^{-1}). These rising trends of SLA-EMS may indicate decreases in glacial annual mass
421 balance in the 16 years. Under the background of the generally losing glaciers mass in these areas (i.e.
422 average annual mass balance is already negative), if the SLA-EMS continues to rise as a result of global
423 warming, it will accelerate the negative mass balances of the glaciers. While, in the glacier mass balance
424 anomaly areas, such as Karakoram, Pamir, Hindu Kush and west KunLun, the SLA-EMS shows no obvious
425 trend during the examined period although a strong interannual variability is discovered.

426 It is true that the meteorological stations used in the correlation analysis of this study are heterogeneous
427 and mostly located in the valley, which may not accurately represent the temperature and precipitation
428 conditions at higher altitudes where the glaciers and perennial snow cover frequently presents. While, strong
429 linkage between the SLA-EMS and temperature is found. That is, Temperature (especially the summer
430 temperature) was the dominant climatic factor affecting the changes of SLA-EMS in HMA (Table 3).
431 However, the effect of climate change on SLA-EMS is very complex. First, the other climate factors such as
432 intensity of solar radiation, vapor pressure, wind velocity, and their synergistic effect also give rise to
433 SLA-EMS variation, which should not be ignored. Second, climate changes and their effect on snow cover
434 vary with geographical environment, like the regions of “Karakoram anomaly”. Furthermore, the period of 16
435 years, is a long time considering available MODIS information, while is not sufficient for statements about
436 climate change. Most of the trends for SLA-EMS change are not reached at the statistical significant level. A
437 longer time series of data needs to be examined in further studies to obtain some more definitive conclusions
438 about temporal trends of SLA-EMS and the relationship with climate change.

439 6. Conclusions

440 This study presents a large-scale SLA-EMS monitoring method based on the cloud-removed daily MODIS
441 FSC data. In this method, the extent of HMA is divided into 744 glacier grids (30km); the MODIS SCD
442 threshold for estimating perennial snow cover and SLA-EMS is deliberately calibrated using glaciers mass



443 balance observations and Landsat images; and the altitude value of the SLA-EMS for these glacier grids is
444 extracted using the area-elevation distribution curve (from DEM) and the perennial snow cover area. We
445 examine large-scale spatial patterns of the SLA-EMS across HMA and identify trends over the past 16 years,
446 and also explore the possible linkage between SLA-EMS and temperature and precipitation. The main
447 findings are summarized as the follows:

448 (1) There are good linear regression relationships (the average $R = -0.66$) between the grid (30km)
449 SLA-EMS and glaciers annual mass balance over the HMA. This implies that the SLA-EMS monitoring
450 method could help reconstruction or extending the glacier annual mass balance time series at large-scale area.
451 However, the quantitative relationships between SLA-EMS and glaciers annual mass balance are spatially
452 complex and will require further spatially resolved assessments and using more abundant glacier annual mass
453 balance data.

454 (2) The spatial pattern of SLA-EMS across HMA is mainly affected by two factors: latitude and
455 topographic altitude. The latitudinal pattern of SLA-EMS manifest as the gradually decreasing from south to
456 north, that is Himalayas > inner Tibet > KunLun > Tien Shan > Altay and Sayan. Due to the mass elevation
457 effect, the SLA-EMS decreases from the high altitude region of Himalayas and inner Tibet to surrounding low
458 mountainous area.

459 (3) The SLA-EMS of HMA generally shows a rising trend in the recent years (2001-2016). In total, 75.3%
460 (24.2% with a significant increase) and 16.1% (less than 1% with a significant decrease) of the glacier grids in
461 HMA show increasing and decreasing trends in SLA-EMS, respectively. The SLA-EMS significant increases
462 in Tien Shan, Inner Tibet, south and east Tibet, east Himalaya and Hengduan Shan; while there are no
463 obvious trends in the Karakoram, Pamir, Hindu Kush, west KunLun and west Himalaya.

464 (4) The SLA-EMS over the HMA shows a positive correlation with the temperature, particularly a
465 significant positive correlation with the summer temperature ($R = 0.64$), while no obvious correlation with
466 precipitation. Temperature (especially the summer temperature) was the dominant climatic factor affecting the
467 variations of SLA-EMS over the HMA. If the global warming continues, the rising of the SLA-EMS may
468 accelerate the negative mass balances of the most glaciers over the HMA, lead to change the flow regimes and
469 water availability, thus impacting ecosystem, agriculture and water resources in the densely populated
470 downstream areas.

471
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478 Xiaoru Wang analyzed the data. Jian Wang, Xin Wang and Junfeng Wei contributed to discussions and
479 revisions.

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