2
3 **Review article: Performance assessment of electromagnetic wave-based**
4 **field sensors for SWE monitoring**
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17 **Abstract** (138 words)
18 Continuous and spatially distributed data of snow mass (snow water equivalent, SWE)
19 from automatic ground-based measurements are increasingly required for climate
20 change studies and for hydrological applications (snow hydrological model improvement
21 and data assimilation). We present and compare four new-generation non-invasive
22 sensors that are based on electromagnetic waves for direct measurements of SWE:
23 Cosmic Ray Neutron Probe (CNRP); Gamma Ray Monitoring (GMON) scintillator;
24 frequency-modulated continuous-wave radar (FMCW-Radar) at 24 GHz; and Global
25 Navigation Satellite System (GNSS). All four techniques are relatively low cost, have low
26 power requirements, provide continuous and autonomous measurements, and can be
27 installed in remote areas. Their operating principles are briefly summarized before
28 examples of comparative measurements are provided. A performance review comparing
29 their advantages, drawbacks and accuracies is discussed. Overall instrument accuracy is
30 estimated to range between 9 and 15%.
31

32 **Key word:** Snow Water Equivalent, electromagnetic wave sensors, Cosmic Ray Neutron
33 Probe, Gamma Ray Monitoring, frequency-modulated continuous-wave radar, Global
34 Navigation Satellite System, sensor performance review

35
36 **1. Introduction**
37 Snow cover on the ground plays an important role in the climate system due to its high
38 albedo, heat insulation that affects the ground thermal regime, and its contribution to
39 snow runoff and soil moisture. The snow water equivalent (SWE, its mass per unit area,
40 kg m^{-2}, or in mm) is an Essential Climate Variable (ECV) for monitoring climate change, as
41 recognized by the Global Climate Observing System (GCOS, WMO-UN_E), in line with the
42 WMO-Global Cryosphere Watch Initiative (Key et al., 2015;
43 https://globalcryospherewatch.org). SWE monitoring is also of primary importance for
44 hydrological forecasting and to prevent flooding risks over snowmelt-dominated basins

45 in mountainous and cold climate regions. The distribution of snow stations is generally
46 sparse in high latitude regions, remote areas and high mountains (Bormann et al., 2013;
47 Global Cryosphere Watch, 2015; Key et al., 2015; Pirazzini et al., 2018; Brown et al., 2019,
48 2021; Royer et al., 2021), given that monitoring is generally based upon expensive and
49 occasional (weekly to monthly) manual sampling. The automation of manual survey
50 networks is an essential medium-term prospect, especially since reliable and automatic
51 instrument alternatives exist (Dong, 2018; Brown et al., 2021).

53 Various in situ field devices and approaches for measuring the temporal dynamics of SWE
54 are available, all of which have their strengths and limitations (see the review by
55 Rasmussen et al., 2012; Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015; Pirazzini et al., 2018). Some are invasive
56 (i.e., destroying the snowpack or changing its properties), while others that are based on
57 different remotely sensed approaches are non-invasive. Here, we focus on a new
58 generation of electromagnetic wave-based field sensors that directly measure SWE, i.e.,
59 measuring a signal that is proportional to the snow mass per unit area. In this study, we
60 do not consider indirect approaches, such as those that are based on snow depth
61 monitoring, combined with snow density model evolution (Yao et al., 2018). We also do
62 not consider satellite-based approaches.

64 The objective of this paper, therefore, is to present a performance review of four selected
65 non-invasive sensors (Table 1), viz., the Cosmic Ray Neutron Probe (CNRP), the Gamma
66 Ray Monitoring (GMON) scintillator, frequency-modulated continuous-wave radar
67 (FMCW-Radar) and Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) receivers. All four
68 approaches have common features: relatively low cost; low power; providing continuous
69 and autonomous SWE measurements; and deployable in remote areas. Surface-based
70 radar scatterometers and microwave radiometers have not been considered in this study
71 because 1) they are still in early stages of development or are currently not operational,
72 and 2) they have heavy maintenance demands (not autonomous) and are relatively
73 expensive. These include, for example, scatterometers (Werner et al., 2010; Wiesmann
74 et al., 2010; King et al., 2015; Werner et al., 2019), microwave radiometers (Langlois,
75 2015; Roy et al., 2016, 2017; Wiesmann et al., 2021); radar interferometers (Werner et
76 al., 2010; Leinss et al., 2015; Pieraccini and Miccinesi, 2019; GPRI brochure, 2021), and
77 Stepped-Frequency Continuous Wave Radar (SFCW) instruments (Alonso et al., 2021).

79 Sect. 2 provides background information on the basic principles of each of the four
80 sensors that are presented in Table 1. Examples of SWE temporal series comparisons from
81 the four different instruments are given in Sect. 3, permitting an evaluation of the
82 performance of each system, including accuracy analysis. Advantages and drawbacks of
83 these sensors are then discussed in Sect. 4.

85 **2.** Electromagnetic wave-based SWE sensor review
86 The main characteristics of the four reviewed sensors are summarized in Table 1, with the
87 acronym that is used to denote them, together with their commercial names. There are
88 two operation modes for the Cosmic Ray Neutron Probe (CNRP); thus, five cases were

89   considered. All of these sensors allow quasi-continuous measurements throughout the
90   winter without maintenance, and are powered by solar panels and batteries. The
91   measuring principles of each of the instruments are illustrated in Fig. 1 and shown in Fig.
92   2. In this section, we only recall the main principle of functioning and the key elements of
93   SWE retrieval, given that all sensors are well described in detail in the cited references.
94
95   *Table 1. SWE sensors that were studied and acronyms that were used. FMCW: frequency-*
96   *modulated continuous-wave radar; GNSS: Global Navigation Satellite System, including*
97   *GPS (USA), GLONASS (Russia), Galileo (Europe) and Beidou (China) satellite constellations.*
98   *The frequency (Freq.) of the electromagnetic wave that was used and their approximate*
99   *maximum Snow Water Equivalent (SWE$_{max}$) measurement limit capabilities are given. See*
100 *Fig. 1 for experimental settings and Fig. 2 for photos.*
101

Sensor	Acronym	Approach	Freq. GHz	SWE$_{max}$ (mm)	Comments	Commercial Name	Main recent references
Cosmic Ray Neutron Probe	CRNP	Sensor beneath snowpack	10^{23}	>2000	Measures total snow, ice and water amount	SnowFox NRC EDF-Fr	https://hydroinnova.com Gottardi et al., 2013
		Sensor above snowpack		~ 150-300		Hydroinnova CRS-1000/B	https://hydroinnova.com Bogena et al., 2020
Gamma Ray scintillator	GMON	Sensor above snowpack	3.53 10^{11} 6.31 10^{11}	~ 800	Measures total snow, ice and water amount	CS725 Campbell Sci.	Choquette et al., 2013 Smith et al., 2017 http://www.campbellsci.ca
Frequency-modulated continuous-wave Radar	FMCW-Radar	Active sensor above snowpack	24	~1000	Requires snow depth measurements Also measures stratigraphy	Sentire™ sR-1200 IMST Inc.	Pomerleau et al., 2020 https://shop.imst.de
Global Navigation Satellite System receivers	GNSSR	2 antennas above/ beneath snowpack	1.575 - 1.609	>1500	Measures also Snow depth and Liquid Water Content	SnowSense	Henkel et al., 2019 Koch et al., 2020 https://www.vista-geo.de/en/snowsense/

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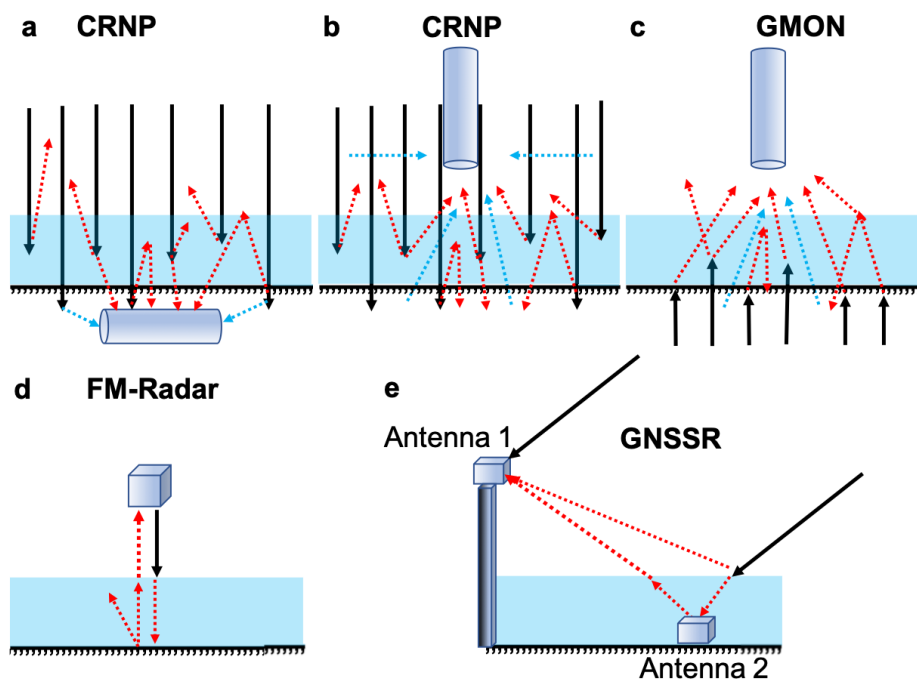
106
107 Figure 1 Diagram of electromagnetic ray paths for the four SWE sensors (see Table 1). In all figures, black
108 arrows correspond to natural or emitted electromagnetic signals and dotted red arrows to rays interacting
109 with snow (the lower the signal reaching the sensor, the higher the SWE). **a)** Cosmic Ray Neutron Probe
110 (CNRP) below the snow, buried in the ground. In this case, black arrows are ambient neutrons generated
111 primarily by interactions of secondary cosmic ray neutrons with terrestrial and atmospheric nuclei. Dotted
112 red arrows are neutrons interacting with snow, which decrease when SWE increases. Dotted blue arrows
113 are neutrons interacting with soil moisture. **b)** CNRP above the snow, looking downward. Same as (a) for
114 the arrow meanings, but dotted blue arrows are neutrons interacting with soil and atmospheric moisture.
115 **c)** Gamma Monitor (GMON) sensor. Same as (a) for the arrow meanings. **d)** Frequency-modulated
116 continuous-wave radar (FMCW-Radar) looking downward above the snow. Black arrow is the radar-emitted
117 wave at 24 GHz. **e)** Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) Receivers. The two antennas receive signals
118 emitted by all of the GNSS satellites in the antennas' field of view and at all incidence angles (only one ray
119 at one angle is shown).
120

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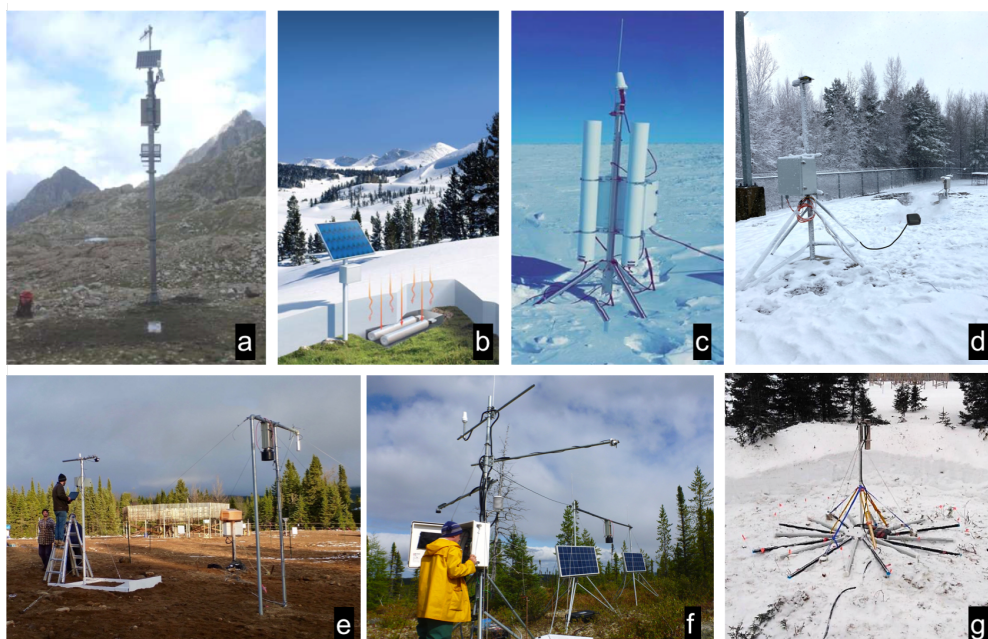
Figure 2. Photographs of sensors that were analyzed. **a**) Cosmic Ray Neutron Probe (CNRP) from the EDF French network (Nivomètre à Rayon Cosmic, NRC) at Spijeoles, French Pyrénées. One can see the neutron probe buried in the ground (sensor composed of two neutron detector tubes filled with Helium 3 (^{3}He) and placed at 3.5 m from a 6 m mast, which carries the ancillary sensors (atmospheric pressure, temperature, snow height, wind, liquid precipitation). Credit: Gottardi et al. (2013). **b**) SnowFox CNRP set at ground level beneath the snow cover. The system is composed of two detector tubes filled with $^{10}BF_3$; one is sensitive to neutrons with a maximum energy of ~0.025 eV, whereas the second is sensitive to moderated energy neutrons from ~0.2eV to 100 keV. Similar to (a), the system requires measurements of atmospheric conditions (atmospheric pressure, temperature and humidity). Credit: Hydroinnova SnowFox manual. **c**) Same sensor as in (b)**,** but the Hydroinnova CRS-1000/B sensor is placed above the snow, measuring the ambient and upward neutron counts, with the latter being attenuated by the snowpack. Crédit: Philip Marsh, Wilfrid Laurier University, Waterloo, ON, Canada; sensor in the tundra at Trail Valley Creek, Changing Cold Regions Network http://ccrnetwork.ca). **d**) GNSSR installed at the Université de Sherbrooke SIRENE site. The antenna that was placed on the ground (beneath the snow) was made visible at 3 m from the mast, on top of which a second antenna was affixed. Credits: Alain Royer. **e**) The FMCW-Radar (on the left) and the GMON (on the right) at the NEIGE-Forêt Montmorency site. The housing of the IMST sentire™ FMCW-Radar module is compact (114.0 mm × 87.0 mm × 42.5 mm) and weighs 280 g. A metallic plate on the ground in the field-of-view of the radar substantially increases radar echoes. The GMON is a tube 62 cm long, and 13 cm in diameter, weighing 9 kg. In the background of photo **e**, one can see the solid precipitation gauge, which is known as the Double Fence Intercomparison Reference (DFIR). Credits: Alain Royer. **f**) Meteorological and snow (GMON) automatic station at the LeMoyne James-Bay, Québec, Canada site in a sub-arctic environment (Prince et al., 2019). Credits: Alain Royer. **g**) The GMON at the NEIGE-Forêt Montmorency site set up to boost ^{40}K counts with pipes filled with potassium fertilizer. Credit: Sylvain Jutras.

2.1 Cosmic Ray Neutron probe (CRNP)

CRNP measurement is based on the moderation of ambient neutrons by hydrogen in water, snow and ice. The intensity of natural low-energy cosmic ray neutron emission is

149   inversely correlated with the amount of hydrogen in the soil (Zreda et al. 2008; Andreasen
150   et al., 2017) or snow cover (Desilets et al. 2010; Gottardi et al., 2013; Sigouin and Si, 2016;
151   Bogena et al., 2020). Even though the principle of this approach has been known since
152   the 1970s, it attained a level of operational maturity in the 2000s, especially with the use
153   of commercialized soil moisture probes. Électricité de France (EDF) successfully used a
154   network of cosmic-ray probes (detector based on a Helium counter) that were buried
155   under the snowpack to measure SWE for more than a decade in the French Alps and in
156   the Pyrenees (Fig. 2a) (Paquet and Laval, 2006; Paquet et al., 2008; Gottardi et al., 2013).
157
158   There are two experimental approaches for CNRP-based SWE monitoring (Fig. 1a,b), i.e.,
159   1) with the probe at the ground level beneath the snow (Figs. 1a, 2b, such as the SnowFox
160   sensor), or 2) with the probe placed a few meters above the snow surface (Fig. 1b), such
161   as the one proposed by Hydroinnova (Fig. 2c) (CRS-1000/B, Hydroinnova, Albuquerque,
162   NM, USA; http://hydroinnova.com/snow_water.html). Using a dual-channel (fast and
163   slow neutrons) cosmic ray probe above the snowpack (Fig. 1b) is an attractive SWE
164   measurement tool because it can provide direct estimates of SWE within a 20 to 40 ha
165   footprint (20 ha corresponds to a circle of 252 m radius) (Desilets and Zerda, 2013;
166   Schattan et al., 2017). In contrast, the footprint of a probe that is installed under the snow
167   is limited to a spot measurement above the sensor (Fig. 1a). While approach (1a) permits
168   measurements of very thick snow cover (> 1000 mm SWE), the drawback of approach (1b)
169   is that it is limited to low SWE measurements (typically < 150 mm SWE) over
170   homogeneous flat terrain. However, In the Austrian Alps, contrary to previous studies,
171   Schattan et al. claim not to have measured saturation for a snowpack of the order of 600
172   mm SWE, over an estimated footprint with 230 m radius. Aspects that are related to the
173   measurement scale of each sensor are critical to SWE measurements, since SWE is
174   generally highly variable spatially, depending upon the ecosystem and terrain (Kinar and
175   Pomeroy, 2015; Dong, 2018). These questions are discussed in Sect. 4.
176
177   The CRNP method requires creating a function for converting neutron counts to snow
178   water equivalent (Paquet et al., 2008; Gottardi et al., 2013; Sigouin and Si, 2016;
179   Andreasen et al., 2017; Schattan et al., 2017; Bogena et al., 2020). Desilets (2017) provides
180   the calibration procedure in detail. Neutron counts must be accumulated over a specified
181   period of time (e.g., from 6 h to 24 h). The CRNP method requires that the counting rate
182   must first be known (calibrated) and that disturbance effects on measured cosmic rays at
183   the site location have to be taken into account. Disturbance effects that need to be
184   corrected include temporal variations in the natural cosmic-ray flux and variations in air
185   pressure and atmospheric water vapor on site measurements during the count time.
186   Temporal variation in cosmic-ray flux can be determined from the NMDB database (Real-
187   Time Database for high-resolution Neutron Monitor measurements; www.nmdb.eu),
188   thereby providing access to reference neutron monitor measurements from stations
189   around the world. Corrections for air pressure (linked to the altitude of the station) and
190   atmospheric water vapor variations require ancillary standard meteorological sensors,
191   which measure atmospheric pressure, air temperature and relative humidity.
192

193   While accuracy losses that are linked to atmospheric disturbances (pressure and humidity
194   corrections) are relatively weak (a few percent), this is not the case for primary variations
195   in the natural cosmic-ray flux (Andreasen et al., 2017), which may drastically change the
196   results of SWE estimation. This flux can vary up to 30% over long periods (weeks to
197   months), thereby causing errors up to 50% in SWE estimates when they are not
198   considered (Paquet and Laval, 2006). Therefore, it is important to correct the measured
199   signal using the closest world reference station in the vicinity of the measurement site. If
200   not available, a second cosmic-ray sensor is required to produce accurate SWE estimates
201   using normalized signals (above and beneath snow).

203   In the case of the second approach, where the probe is installed above the ground surface
204   (Fig. 1b), the probe must be calibrated for soil moisture. If soil moisture correction is not
205   applied on the winter signal measurements, retrieved SWE values will be systematically
206   overestimated. This bias can be corrected using measurements of CRNP signal without
207   snow, just prior to snowfall. We must either assume that soil moisture levels remain
208   stable throughout the winter, which is generally the case when soil remains frozen, or
209   apply a correction based on soil moisture conditions that are otherwise known.

211   2.2 Gamma Ray scintillator (GMON)
212   Monitoring snow water equivalent by using natural soil radioactivity is a well-known
213   approach (Bissell and Peck, 1973). Since 1980, an airborne snow survey program using
214   this technology has successfully collected areal mean SWE data for operational flood
215   forecasting over the whole northwestern North America, including Rocky Mountains,
216   Alaska and Great Plains (National Operational Hydrologic Remote Sensing Center,
217   https://www.nohrsc.noaa.gov/snowsurvey/). The mean areal SWE value is based on the
218   difference between gamma radiation measurements over bare ground and snow-covered
219   ground, the latter being attenuated by the snowpack (Carroll, 2001).

221   The principle of SWE measurements that are based on the Gamma Monitor (GMON) ray
222   scintillator is the absorption by the water, regardless of its phase (liquid, snow or ice), of
223   the natural radioactive emission of Potassium-40 (^{40}K) from soils (Ducharme et al., 2015).
224   This naturally occurring radioactive isotope of potassium has a gamma emission of 1.46
225   MeV. The GMON probe that is manufactured by Campbell Scientific (Canada) (CS7525;
226   http://www.campbellsci.ca/cs725) also measures the emission of Thallium-208 (^{208}Tl),
227   which emits gamma rays at a slightly higher energy (2.61 MeV) that originate from the
228   decay of Thorium 232 (Choquette et al., 2013; Wright, 2013; Stranden et al., 2015). Both
229   of these elements are common to almost all types of surfaces, regardless of whether
230   these are organic or non-organic soils. However, we observed that the isotope associated
231   with the higher count (i.e., ^{40}K) is generally the most reliable.

233   The experimental set-up, which is illustrated in Fig. 1c, is based on the initial, snow-free
234   measurement of the number of counts for ^{40}K or ^{208}Tl per period of time, which would be
235   later decreased by the presence of the snowpack. Typically, 300 000 and 60 000 counts
236   per 24 hours for ^{40}K and ^{208}Tl, respectively, are suggested as minimal values to provide

237 accurate SWE measurements (CS725 Snow Water Equivalent Instruction Manual, 2017,
238 Campbell Scientific [Canada] Corporation, Edmonton, AB;
239 https://s.campbellsci.com/documents/ca/manuals/cs725_man.pdf). The observed rate
240 of soil emission at each site allows the operator to define the minimum sampling time
241 frequency. Seeding experiments conducted using potassium fertilizer show potential for
242 increasing potassium counts that are measured by the CS725 by up to 80% at sites where
243 low counts are found (Wright et al., 2011). As is the case for ground-pointing CRNP,
244 measuring the base-line signal of the electromagnetic energy emanating from the ground
245 prior to the first snowfall is a critical step in signal processing, given that it also depends
246 upon soil moisture (SM) during the winter and spring periods. SM attenuates the natural
247 dry-ground emission, resulting in an overestimate of SWE during signal processing when
248 SM increases. Based upon 10+ years of experience with a large GMON network that is
249 deployed in Quebec, Canada, it has been shown that in most cases, SM does not vary
250 substantially during the winter season. It can be considered constant, thereby simplifying
251 mathematical equations used in calculating SWE (Choquette et al., 2013; Ducharme et al.,
252 2015).
253
254 The CS725-Campbell GMON sensor has been the subject of a detailed performance
255 analysis within the framework of the WMO Solid Precipitation Intercomparison
256 Experiment. SPICE (Smith et al., 2017). Moreover, since the device is sensitive to water
257 contained in soils, it can be successfully used to estimate soil moisture during snow-free
258 seasons. An operational GMON network, with a sampling frequency of 6 h, is actually
259 deployed across the southern part of Québec and Labrador, northeastern Canada (45-
260 55°N); it accounts for 114 stations in operation that are dedicated to water resource
261 forecasting (Alexandre Vidal, Hydro-Québec, personal communication, November 2020).
262 Also, these continuous measurements from the GMON Quebec network are
263 demonstrably very useful for validating the assimilation of microwave observations into
264 a snow model (Larue et al., 2018). Recently, GMON has also demonstrated its robustness
265 in a research project on seasonal snow monitoring from a station that was installed at
266 4962 m asl in the Nepalese Himalayas (Langtang Valley) to quantify the evolution of SWE
267 (Kirkham et al., 2019).
268
269 2.3 FMCW radar (FMCW-Radar)
270 The principle of frequency-modulated continuous-wave (FMCW) radar has been well
271 known since the 1970s (see the review by Peng and Li, 2019 and by Pomerleau et al.,
272 2020) and has been popularized for snow studies since Koh et al. (1996), Marshall et al.
273 (2005), and Marshall and Koh (2008), among others, were published. FMCW-Radar is an
274 active system design for distance measurements. The radar emits a wave at variable
275 frequencies that are centered on a reference frequency. When the radar receives a return
276 from a target, the frequency difference between the emitted and reflected signals is
277 measured (Fig. 1d). Since the frequency change rate is known, the time between the
278 emission and the reception of the echo can be measured from which the radar–target
279 distance is calculated.
280

281 The principle of SWE retrieval is based on the time measurement of wave propagation in
282 the snowpack that is proportional to the snow refractive index (square of permittivity),
283 which changes the wave-speed propagation. As the refractive index of snow can be linked
284 to its density (Tiuri et al., 1984; Mätzler, 1986; Pomerleau et al., 2020), SWE can be
285 retrieved knowing the snow depth. The experimental set-up is shown in Fig. 1d and
286 illustrated in Fig. 2e.

288 Two main FMCW radar specifications are required for SWE measurement: the radar
289 central frequency and its bandwidth that is scanned. The central frequency specifies three
290 parameters: a) the loss in signal strength of an electromagnetic wave that would result
291 from a line-of-sight path through free space (the higher the frequency, the greater the
292 loss); b) its penetration depth (the higher the frequency, the less penetration power it
293 has); and c) its sensitivity to liquid water content in the snowpack. The bandwidth
294 specifies the distance resolution and, thus, the precision: the wider the bandwidth, the
295 lower the resolution. There is negligible frequency dependency of the snow refractive
296 index (n'), which governs wave propagation in the snowpack. The refractive index (n') is
297 linked to snow density (ρ) by a linear relationship: $n' = 8.6148 \cdot 10^{-04} \rho + 9.7949 \cdot$
298 10^{-01} (Pomerleau et al., 2020).

300 For snow studies, several FMCW radars with different frequencies and resolutions are
301 used, such as those common at the X-band (10 GHz), operating over 8–12 GHz (Ellerbruch
302 and Boyne, 1980; Marshall and Koh, 2008). They provide a vertical resolution on the order
303 of 3 cm. In contrast, L-Band FMCW radar (1.12–1.76 GHz) allows greater penetration but
304 suffers from reduced vertical resolution (Yankielun et al., 2004). Multiband band FMCW
305 radar have also been developed (Rodriguez-Morales et al., 2014), such as an L/C-band (2–
306 8 GHz) that was used to successfully retrieve snow depth (Fujino et al., 1985), a C/Ku (8–
307 18 GHz) large wideband FMCW radar that is capable of detecting crusts as thin as 0.2 mm
308 within the snowpack (Marshall and Koh, 2005), or the improved (C-, X-, and Ka-band)
309 radar (Koh et al., 1996). Operating frequencies of commercial, low-cost radar systems,
310 such as those that are adopted for automotive radar systems (Schneider, 2005), are now
311 available for K-band (24 GHz) and W-band (77 GHz) applications.

313 The availability of such new types of lightweight and very compact 24-GHz FMCW radar
314 systems has motivated our research group to assess their ability to monitor the SWE
315 continuously and autonomously (Fig. 2e) (Pomerleau et al., 2020). The FMCW-Radar that
316 is used is centered on 24 GHz (K-band), scanning over (23–25.5 GHz), i.e., with a
317 bandwidth of 2.5 GHz that provides a resolution of 6 cm in the air (IMST sentire™, IMST,
318 Kamp-Lintfort, Germany; http://www.radar-sensor.com/). These specifications appear to
319 be a good compromise between penetration and resolution capabilities for SWE
320 estimation, while keeping the sensor affordable, light and compact, with low power
321 consumption. The radar penetration depth (δPr) of dry snow significantly decreases with
322 density following a power law, which varies with temperature (see Fig. A2, Pomerleau et
323 al., 2020). At T = 0 °C, δPr decreases from 6.78 to 4.81, 3.26 and 2.05 m for respective
324 snow densities of 150, 200, 275 and 400 kg m^{-3} (Pomerleau et al., 2020). Wet snow

325 drastically reduces δPr, given that liquid water strongly absorbs the radar signal, leading
326 to high reflectivity at the air/wet snow interface and weak transmissivity. For example,
327 the two-way radar penetration depth decreases abruptly from 2 m for dry snow at a
328 density of 400 kg m^{-3} to 0.05 m for wet snow with 0.5% of liquid water content. It should
329 be noted that this strong sensitivity to wet snow allows the radar to precisely detect the
330 onset of snowpack melt, a benefit that is discussed in Sect. 4.

332 One of the main interests of this approach is its potential capacity to estimate SWE from
333 a small remotely piloted aircraft (RPA). Over the Arctic, snow cover that can be
334 characterized by a two-layer snowpack structure, and assumptions can be made on its
335 mean refractive index, thereby allowing bulk SWE to be estimated (work in progress). Hu
336 et al. (2019) also showed the usefulness of imaging FMCW synthetic aperture radar
337 onboard the RPA. Several studies have also shown the potential of FMCW radar for
338 different applications, such as avalanche studies (Vriend et al., 2013; Okorn et al., 2014;
339 Laliberté et al., 2021), snow stratigraphy based on successive FMCW echo analyses
340 (Marshall and Koh, 2005; Marshall et al., 2007), snowpack tomography (Xu et al., 2018),
341 and ice thickness monitoring (Yankielun et al., 1993; Gunn et al., 2015). Pomerleau et al.
342 (2020) obtained highly accurate measurements of lake ice thickness using the 24 GHz
343 FMCW radar, with a root-mean-square difference (RMSD) of 2 cm accuracy up to ≈1 m ice
344 thickness (derived from 35 manual in situ measurements).

346 2.4 GNSS receivers (GNSSR)
347 The principle of SWE retrieval based on Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS)
348 receivers is to use the signals that are emitted by the GNSS satellite constellations, and
349 relate the carrier phase change that is induced by the delay caused by the snowpack at
350 ground level. With two static receivers (standard GNSS antennas), i.e., one placed under
351 the snow and the other above the snow, both signals that are measured under dry-snow
352 conditions can be compared and SWE derived (Fig. 1e) (Henkel et al., 2018). Comparing
353 GNSS signal attenuation measurements between the two antennas (below and above the
354 snowpack) also permits the retrieval of Liquid Water Content (LWC) of the wet snow
355 (Koch et al., 2019).

357 This relatively recent and novel approach has been validated (Koch et al., 2019; Apple et
358 al., 2020) and is now commercialized by VISTA Remote Sensing in Geosciences GmbH,
359 Munich, Germany (SnowSense©, https://www.vista-geo.de/en/snowsense/). Snow
360 depth retrieval was made operational since a longer time that is based on interferometric
361 reflectometry of GNSS signals became available (see Larson et al. 2009; Larson, 2016).
362 GNSSR satellites operate at 1.575 and 1.609 GHz. The experimental set-up is described in
363 Fig. 1e, based on a low cost and lightweight system. In this study, we used the SnowSense
364 system for monitoring SWE and LWC throughout a winter, together with other sensors
365 (see Results Sect. 3). Our own system is shown in Fig. 2d.

367 Another promising way to monitor SWE, which is based on the same principle of GNSS, is
368 the use of powerful satellite transmissions as illumination sources for bistatic radar. This

369 so-called "Signals-of-opportunity (SoOp)" approach covers a wide range of frequencies,
370 such as emissions from United States Navy Ultra High Frequency (UHF) Follow-On (UFO)
371 communication satellites in P-Band frequencies (between 240-270 MHz). From two P-
372 band antennas (one direct and one reflected), Shah et al. (2017) demonstrated the
373 feasibility of retrieving SWE using the phase change in reflected waveforms, which is
374 linearly related   to the change in SWE. These methods were not included in this
375 review since they are still in the development stage and not sufficiently mature to be
376 operational.

377
378
379 **3. Results: examples of comparisons**

380
381 Continuous and simultaneous recordings of the different instruments on the same site
382 were conducted to analyze their behavior in terms of their temporal evolution. In situ
383 measurements were also used to compare the data between them. From these data,
384 which were completed by a literature review of experiments using these same
385 instruments, estimates of their respective accuracies are discussed (Sect. 3.4).

386
387 3.1 Experimental sites and validation measurements
388 We compared the four instruments at two snow research stations that were located in
389 Québec (Canada). The first was the SIRENE site (Site Interdisciplinaire de Recherche en
390 ENvironnement Extérieur), which is situated on the main campus of the Université de
391 Sherbrooke in a temperate forest environment (45.37°N, -71.92°W, 250 m asl) (Fig. 2d).
392 The second site is the NEIGE-Forêt Montmorency (NEIGE-FM) research station. The
393 instruments were located in an open area (Fig. 2e) of the Montmorency experimental
394 forest (47.32° N; -71.15° W, 640 m asl) of Université Laval (Quebec City), which is in the
395 boreal forest. The NEIGE-FM snow research station is part of the World Meteorological
396 Organization (WMO) Global Cryosphere Watch (GCW) Surface Network CryoNet (WMO
397 ID: 71212) (WMO, 2015).

398
399 Two methods were used to obtain in situ manual SWE measurements in the vicinity of
400 the four SWE-systems: the snowpit (SP) approach; and snow-tube core samplers (see
401 Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015). The SP-based SWE values (in mm = kg m^{-2}) were derived from
402 vertical continuous density profiles, which were determined by weighing snow samples
403 at a vertical resolution of 5 cm (height of the density cutter). Assuming an accuracy of
404 density cutter measurements of about 9% (Proksch et al., 2016), the mean relative SWE
405 accuracy can be estimated to be of 10–12%. SWE estimates were also obtained by
406 weighing the extracted core sample of known diameter (∅) and length using a coring
407 tube. In this study, the core sampling was performed using three different snow tube
408 models, which were averaged: "Carpenter" (Federal standard sampler, 3.7 cm ∅ tube),
409 the Hydro-Quebec snow tube (12.07 cm ∅), and an in-house Université Laval snow tube
410 (15.24 cm ∅). The accuracy of tube core sampling that we carried out on snowpack up to
411 600 mm SWE with large tubes is of the order of 6% (Brown et al., 2019). Such accuracy is
412 difficult to define, as discussed in Sect. 3.4. Furthermore, as manual measurements

413   cannot be taken at the same location during a given winter period, this could generate
414   uncertainty when compared to a fixed instrument, due to small-scale spatial variability of
415   SWE and surface roughness.
416

417   The snowpack properties were derived continuously from GMON and CRNP systems
418   throughout the entire winter season of 2008-2009 (Fig. 3) and from GMON, FMCW-Radar
419   and GNSSR systems in 2017-2018 (Fig. 4). In addition to SWE measurements, continuous
420   automatic snow depth measurements were performed using an acoustic sensor
421   (Campbell Scientific, SR50AT-L), and manually with a graduated probe around the
422   sampling sites. LWC measurements were derived from GNSSR (Fig. 4). Air temperature (T)
423   at 2 m height and total daily cumulated precipitation (Global Water tipping bucket rain
424   gauge) were recorded at the SIRENE site; a threshold of T = 0 °C was used to separate
425   solid and liquid phases (Fig. 3). In this section, we present comparisons between these
426   sensors with in situ validation data measured as close as possible to the automatic
427   instruments, and their accuracy, which was also based on literature values and other
428   measurements that we carried out (not shown), is analyzed in Table 2.
429

430   3.2 Comparison of GMON- and CRNP-derived SWE seasonal evolution
431   Figure 3 shows the SWE evolution of a shallow snowpack (maximum snow depth of 56
432   cm) at the SIRENE site that was derived from GMON and CRNP sensors throughout the
433   winter season of 2008-2009. The CNR probe that was used was the same as the French
434   EDF probe placed on the ground (Paquet et al., 2008) and installed at about 5 m distance
435   from the GMON footprint. The CNRP counts were accumulated over 1 hour and
436   normalized by an identical probe that was installed nearby just above the snow surface.
437   The GMON counts were accumulated over 6 hours, and only ^{40}K counts were considered
438   (TI counts were similar, but not shown). The GMON sensor, which was installed on a 2 m
439   mast above the surface, was calibrated to take into account the soil moisture prior to
440   snowfall accumulation. In Fig. 3, we have plotted daily mean values of the CRNP and
441   GMON data. In situ measurements were derived from snowpit measurements that were
442   taken around these two instruments at a maximum radius of 20 m.
443

444   Results show that GMON and CRNP evolve similarly over the winter, with GMON SWE
445   being slightly higher after the first winter month (SWE > 50 mm). This difference occurred
446   after a pronounced melting spell (29-30 December 2008) and is explained by the water
447   that has accumulated on the ground under the GMON and not on the CNRP. The moisture
448   beneath the GMON formed a significant ice layer that lasted all winter. Precipitation
449   (snowfall and rain) is also plotted, showing how GMON and CNRP develop with each
450   event. For that given winter, rain-on-snow events were frequent, leading to moisture
451   accumulation on the ground. Note also that at the end of the winter, there was ice that
452   had not yet melted and water accumulation under the GMON, leading to a significant
453   overestimation of GMON SWE when there was no more snow on the ground after March
454   20, 2009. The accuracy measurements are discussed in Sect. 4.2.
455
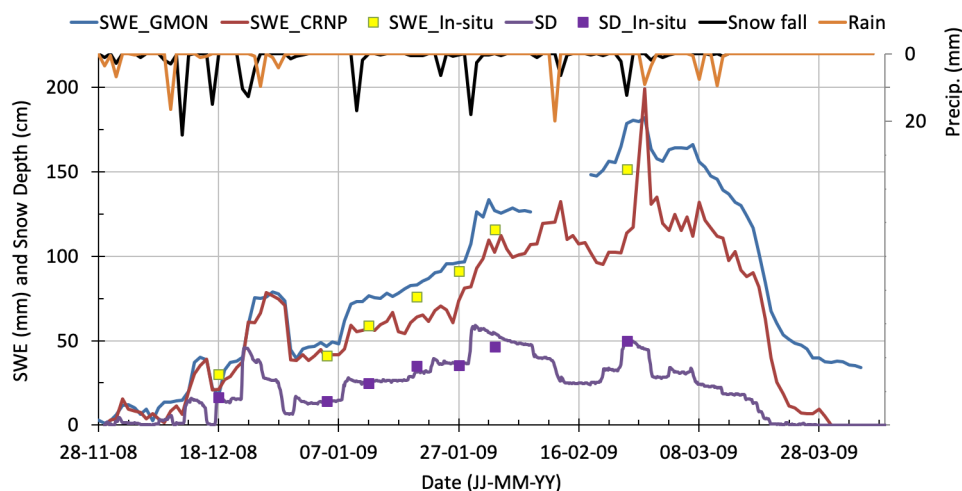
Figure 3. GMON- and CRNP-derived snow water equivalent (SWE, mm), snow depth (SD, cm), and recorded daily solid and liquid precipitation (Precip., mm, right hand scale), in comparison to validation data (in situ) at the SIRENE site for the winter season of 2008-2009. Continuous SD measurements (purple line) are from SR-50 and SD_in situ measurements (purple square) are from snowpits. Open yellow squares correspond to manual in situ SWE measurements.

3.3 Comparison of GMON-, Radar- and GNSSR-derived SWE seasonal evolution

Figure 4 shows the SWE evolution that was measured by the three instruments, i.e., GMON (^{40}K counts only), FMCW-Radar and GNSSR, which had been placed in close proximity to one another at the NEIGE-FM research station for the winter season of 2017-2018. Snow depth was monitored up to 120 cm, corresponding to 500 mm SWE maximum at the end of April.

The three instruments were compared to manual in situ measurements that had been derived from SP (red squares) and core (red triangles) approaches in Fig. 4. We distinguished the two methods (SP and snow tube) because they exhibit significant differences, with a RMSD of 33 mm (12%). These discrepancies are the result of two problems: 1) SWE spatial variability; and 2) the method that was used, since the design of snow tubes and cutters has some influence on sampling errors and bias (Goodison et al., 1987). Therefore, accuracy analyses (Sect. 3.4) were performed considering manual SP as the reference because the SP approach was used for both experiments.
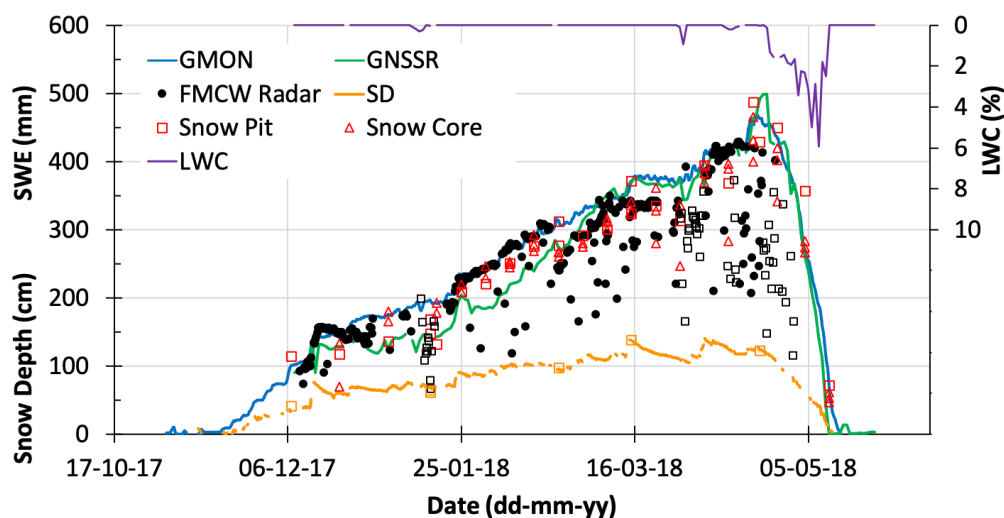
Figure 4. GMON- (blue line), FMCW Radar- (black closed circles) and GNSSR-derived (green line) snow water equivalent (SWE, mm), snow depth (orange line for SR50AT-L data and orange open squares for in situ data) (SD, cm) and GNSSR-derived Liquid Water Content (LWC, % volumetric, purple line, right scale), in comparison to in situ snowpit (open red square) and snow core (open red triangle) SWE measurements at the NEIGE-FM site for the winter season of 2017-2018. For FMCW-Radar data (in black), plain circles are for dry snow, while open squares correspond to wet snow from air temperature measurements.

The continuous simultaneous recordings from the different instruments permit temporal evolution analysis (Fig. 4). While GMON SWE values regularly increase up to 465 mm on 19 April 2018, the FMCW-Radar data appears noisier and must be smoothed to eliminate outliers that show underestimated SWE values. These points are mainly due to incorrect detection of the peak of the radar echo on the ground (snow-ground interface), sometimes with low amplitude, and which can be filtered with improved data quality processing of raw recording (Pomerleau et al., 2020). In particular, all data acquired under wet snow conditions (open black squares, Fig. 4) are obviously underestimated as expected, because of radar wave absorption by liquid water in the snowpack. Compared to the GMON, the GNSSR signal increases with values lower than the GMON until the mid-March and continue to evolve with similar absolute values until the SWEmax was reached on 23 April 2018 with a SWE value of 499 mm. The behavior of the three instruments, showing slightly different patterns of snow evolution, remains always close to in situ observations. It should be noted that in Fig. 4, there is a small difference (+4 days) between the end of snow cover that was recorded with GNSSR (11 May 2018) compared to GMON (14 May 2018). The GNSSR sensor is not sensitive to soil moisture, while GMON is, despite the instruments being located on a well-drained sandy site (NEIGE-FM site). In the case shown here, the end of snowmelt is well captured by both instruments. The

accuracy between instruments is analyzed in Sect. 3.4, including a second winter season
of continuous measurements at the NEIGE-FM site (2016-2017, Pomerleau et al., 2020).

GNSSR also measures the Liquid Water Content (LWC) of snow (purple line in Fig. 4). The
non-zero LWC values correspond well to positive air temperatures that were recorded at
this site, and also to the drop in FM-Radar measurements (open black squares).

3.4 Accuracy analysis

It is challenging to compare the accuracy of several instruments, given that there is no
absolute reference for estimating SWE (see Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015). In situ manual
measurements are themselves subject to error, with varying precision depending upon
the method that is being used. Errors are incurred that depend upon the types of density
cutter, tube diameter, sampling quality that is operator dependent, and ice lenses in the
snowpack, among other sources. This is a long-debated topic, with no actual established
international standard protocol (Work et al., 1965; Goodison et al., 1981, 1987; Kinar and
Pomeroy, 2015). For example, the standard protocol from Environment and Climate
Change Canada is to attain five to ten measurements along a pre-determined survey line
of about 150 to 300 m using a translucent plastic ESC-30 sampler (6.2 cm Ø, which is
commonly employed in Canada) (Brown et al., 2019). The accuracy of the tube core
sampler for medium snowpack (up to ~600 mm SWE) and with large tubes (Ø ~> 6 cm)
is about 6%; for higher SWE requiring smaller diameter tubes, it is around 10% (Work et
al., 1965; Goodisson et al., 1987; Dixon and Boon, 2012; Brown et al., 2019). Moreover,
because manual measurements cannot be taken at the same location during a given
winter period, uncertainty can be introduced by well-known local SWE spatial variability
that can occur at fine scales around the sensors. Such variability depends upon several
factors, such as the region and the environment (Arctic area, aspect and slope in
mountainous areas, for example), the micro-topography and roughness, the vegetation,
and snow redistribution by the wind (Clark et al., 2011; Bormann et al., 2013; Rutter et
al., 2014; Meloche et al., 2021; Royer et al., 2021). Furthermore, temporal variability of
snowpack properties during the winter requires regular validation measurements
throughout the season.

The sensor accuracies were evaluated from results that have been previously shown
(Sect. 3.2 and 3.3) and from published studies at other experimental comparison sites.
These other sites are: the Weissfluhjoch high-alpine site near Davos, Switzerland (46.83°
N, 9.81° E, 2 536 m asl); Sodankylä, Finland (67.37° N, 26.63° E, 185 m asl); Caribou Creek,
SK, Canada (53.95° N, -104.65°W, 519 m asl); and Fortress Mountain ski area, Kananaskis
Country, Canadian Rocky Mountains, AB (50.82° N, -115.20° W, 2 330 m asl).

We also conducted a series of manually FMCW-radar measurements over dry snowpack
and compared them with in situ SWE measurements over a wide range of conditions
(snow depth and density) in boreal forest (47° N, 18 points), subarctic taiga (54–56° N, 32
points) and Arctic tundra (69° N, 28 points) environments along a northeastern Canadian
transect (Pomerleau et al., 2020). The results are reported in Table 2.

553 Table 2 summarizes the accuracy of each instrument and protocol (five cases: CRNP in
554 and above ground, GMON, FMCW-Radar and GNSSR) in relation to in situ manual
555 measurements (snowpit method), and against snow pillow data that were considered as
556 reference measurements by the authors of the publications consulted. Even if this
557 mechanical method is well known and proven for a long time, the snow pillow can
558 sometimes generate large uncertainties when bridging processes occur that are linked to
559 freeze–thaw cycles leading to disconnection of the weighing mechanism from the
560 overlying snowpack (Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015). In Table 2, when known, the accuracy
561 was defined by the root-mean-square difference (RMSD) between an instrument and a
562 given reference, and by a linear regression that was defined by the coefficient of
563 determination (R^2), the slope and the intercept. The number of points is also given.
564
565 Table 2 here
566
567 The accuracy analysis does not allow us to determine the instrument that has the best
568 accuracy, due to the diversity of experimental conditions, including the range of SWE, the
569 number of experimental sites and point measurements, and analyses that are performed
570 over one or several seasons. It appears that all of the five methods show remarkably good
571 performance, with an average RMSD against in situ snowpit manual measurements on
572 the order of 33 ± 11 mm, over a range of 14 to 48 mm, i.e., about 12% of mean SWE (Table
573 2). The mean regression is also significantly high (mean R^2 = 0.92 ± 0.07). Calculated
574 average slope is 0.976 ± 0.13, meaning that in general, the instruments slightly
575 underestimate SWE for higher SWE values compared to in situ measurements, even if this
576 is not always the case (Table 2). RMSD increases slightly when the analysis was performed
577 over a deep snowpack (0 – 1 000 mm) and decreases when compared to another
578 continuous instrument instead of in situ data (instrument vs GMON and instrument vs
579 snow pillow, average RMSD = 23 ± 10 mm, Table 2).
580
581 For the GNSSR instrument that allows the operator to differentiate dry from wet snow,
582 Koch et al. (2020) have shown that SWE RMSD is about 2.4-fold higher for wet snow than
583 for dry snow. They did not provide information on LWC uncertainty. In late winter 2021,
584 for very wet melting snow, we did a validation measurement using the WISe A2 Photonic
585 probe (snow liquid-water content sensor that is based on snow microwave permittivity
586 measurements; https://a2photonicsensors.com/wise/). GNSSR and in situ LWC values
587 were respectively 0.44 and 0.47 %, for respective SWE of 149 and 133 mm. The
588 uncertainty in wet SWE retrieval could result from approximations of the wet snow
589 refractive index that is used in the retrieval process, and which is very sensitive to LWC.
590 This aspect could probably be addressed by improved inversion.
591
592 The accuracy comparison in Table 2 must be weighted according to the analysis
593 conditions. The accuracy estimates can actually depend upon the number of points being
594 used and their distribution over time. High inter-annual variability of the snowpack state
595 (see Bormann et al., 2013; Lejeune et al., 2019) ideally would necessitate several years of
596 measurements over the winter. The accuracies of each GMON and CNRP instrument were

597 derived from huge data sets that were based on operational networks from the GMON
598 Hydro-Quebec network in Canada and the Alps' EDF network for the CNRP, respectively,
599 with a very large number of samples taken over several years of experiments and from
600 multiple sites. The accuracy of the GMON that is given by the manufacturer is ± 15 mm
601 for SWE < 300 mm and ± 15% for SWE of 300-600 mm, which is probably rather
602 conservative. The accuracy of the SnowFox sensor (CRNP) that has been provided by the
603 manufacturer (5-10%) must be confirmed. The GNSSR approach has recently been the
604 subject of two different comparative analyses showing very promising results (Henkel et
605 al., 2020; Koch et al., 2020), which were confirmed by our own results. Over a full season,
606 we obtained an excellent relationship between GNSSR and in situ manual measurements
607 (RSMD = 11%, Table 2) and compared with GMON (RMSD = 34 mm, 12%, SWE_{GNSSR} = 1.126
608 SWE_{GMON} - 59.3, R^2 = 0.97, 153 days).

609
610
611 **4. Strengths and Weaknesses of Instruments**
612
613 In this section, we review the advantages and drawbacks of each of the instruments that
614 are presented, summarized in Table 3. This analysis is based on our experience, on
615 instrument and protocol performances (Sect. 3), and a literature review on experimental
616 results of measurements that were carried out with the same approaches. We only
617 consider these field sensors for SWE measurements in terms of their continuous and
618 autonomous capacities, from the perspective of an operational networking context,
619 including criteria on price, low maintenance and relatively easy installation without
620 requiring heavy infrastructure. The four instruments we analyzed are: CRNP with two
621 experimental setups, i.e., instrument in the ground and above the snow; GMON; 24-GHz
622 FMCW-Radar; and GNSSR (see Table 1 for acronyms and Fig. 1 for the experimental
623 setup). They are all capable of working on batteries and solar panels, by adjusting, if
624 necessary in certain cases, the measurement protocol, i.e., by reducing the frequency of
625 acquisition and on-board data processing. Nine criteria were considered (Table 3): the
626 SWEmax capability; other measured parameters; whether ancillary data were required
627 for SWE retrieval; the temporal sampling rate, i.e., whether they were capable of
628 continuous measurement capability; the footprint of the sensor; the main strength of the
629 approach; their critical drawbacks; their relative prices; and the possibility of other
630 applications.
631
632 Table 3 here
633
634 To complement the main criteria that are presented in Table 3, we include the following
635 additional considerations, which are reported in the literature, by order of presentation
636 rather than order of merit or not:
637 -   CRNP approach is based on neutron component that has absorption mean free path
638   about an order of magnitude larger than that for gamma radiation. This makes it the
639   most efficient system for very deep snowpack analysis (Paquet et al. 2008).
640   Measurements over a snowpack of up to 2000 mm SWE were performed using the

641  SnowFox sensor at the UC Berkeley Central Sierra Snow Lab in Soda Springs, CA (2 120
642  m asl; https://vcresearch.berkeley.edu/research-unit/central-sierra-snow-lab). The
643  cost of the CRNP-based sensor that is manufactured by Hydroinnova (SnowFox or CRS-
644  1000/B, Hydroinnova, Albuquerque, NM) is about 16 500 USD for full setup (11 000
645  USD for sensor only). As previously mentioned, ancillary sensors (atmospheric
646  humidity and barometric pressure sensors) must be added.

647 - CRNP is inherently less sensitive to interference from vegetation compared to systems
648  that are based on lower frequencies (FMCW-Radar and GNSSR). This is in part because
649  the attenuation coefficient for fast neutrons ($\sim$0.01 m^{-2} kg in water, Murray and
650  Holbert, 2020) is an order of magnitude smaller than the analogous attenuation
651  coefficient in vegetation for GNSS microwaves (1.5 GHz) (e.g., Wigneron et al., 2017).
652  Moreover, vegetation can itself be a significant source of electromagnetic emissions
653  (Larson et al., 2014; Wigneron et al., 2017), but not neutron emissions.

654 - The instruments pointing toward the soil, CRNP and GMON above the surface, can be
655  affected by heavy rainfall on snow leading to erroneous SWE estimates that are due
656  to the occurrence of ponding water below the snow (Bogena et al., 2020). Installation
657  on well-drained soils can mitigate these effects.

658 - Counter-based sensors such as CRNP and GMON need to accumulate enough counts
659  for reliable SWE estimates. Thus, it may be necessary to accumulate the counts over
660  an adjusted period of time (several hours, depending on the case), so that the
661  measurement is not continuous. This can prevent accurate detection of short events,
662  sudden heavy snowfalls, for example. For the GMON, depending on the type of soil at
663  the measurement site, gamma ray emissions may not be sufficient and could require
664  a longer integration period, as is the case for sites with thick organic soil layers. It is
665  possible to enrich gamma emissions by using bags or pipes of potassium-rich fertilizer,
666  thereby maintaining a shorter integration time. We achieved success with this
667  approach at the NEIGE-FM site, yielding significantly higher count strengths (Fig. 2g)
668  (Wright et al., 2011). .

669 - FMCW-Radar. With this technique, as previously stated, penetration depth strongly
670  depends on the measurement frequency. Generally, high frequency instruments
671  result in higher resolution measurements, but these are also affected by greater signal
672  attenuation, i.e., by a reduced depth of penetration.

673 - GNSS electromagnetic waves can be attenuated under the forest canopy, as the forest
674  transmittivity at 1.5 GHz is not negligible (Wigneron et al., 2017). Yet, because we
675  normalized the signal beneath the snow against the one acquired above the
676  snowpack, when both antennas were placed under the canopy, this effect should not
677  alter retrieval.

678 - GNSSR is not well suited to very steep mountainous terrain (e.g., deep-valley
679  bottoms), given that a rather wide sky-view factor is needed by the instrument, but
680  this view can be limited in such environments, depending on slope and location (Koch
681  et al., 2019).

682

683 The main conclusions that emerge from Table 3 and the aforementioned remarks are the
684 following, recalling that each approach has its own advantages and limitations (by order
685 of presentation rather than by order of merit):

686 • CRNP on the ground: This is the most efficient system for very deep snowpack (≥ 5
687   meters of snow depth), as is the case in mountain environments or northerly areas
688   that are witness to winter lake-effect snowfall. It has good accuracy over a large range
689   of measurements, typically 12% for 0-2000 mm SWE. The main drawback is that it
690   requires auxiliary sensors for SWE retrieval (synchronous data from a reference
691   station and atmospheric pressure and humidity measurements). This is a robust and
692   mature approach, as proven by the French EDF experience (Gottardi et al., 2013;
693   Lejeune et al., 2019); however, it based on a system that is yet to be exploited
694   commercially. The alternative sensor is the SnowFox system
695   (https://hydroinnova.com), which is relatively new and still needs to demonstrate its
696   robustness.

697 • CRNP above the snow: The most interesting system for measuring SWE over a large
698   footprint, but it is limited to shallow snowpacks. It is the only approach that can
699   provide an integrated spatial measurement. Schattan et al. (2017) estimated the
700   theoretical winter footprint over snow, which they defined as the distance from
701   where neutrons originate. They found that 86%, 63% and 50% of neutrons originate
702   within respective distances of 273, 102, and 49 m. In practice, the authors found that
703   the average footprint during the season, based on measurements over almost three
704   snow seasons, was estimated to be around 230 m. This approach also needs thorough
705   calibration for each site in terms of soil moisture corrections, which can be difficult
706   over a large area.

707 • GMON: This is one of the most mature instruments for snowpack that is not too deep
708   (max 2.5 to 3 m snow depth), with an interesting medium footprint (2-3 m). Yet, it
709   needs systematic site calibration for soil moisture characterization, which can
710   increase the uncertainty of measurements, particularly at the end of the season when
711   the soil is potentially saturated. It is the most expensive of the four instruments
712   (around 20 000 $CAD). This system has proved its robustness and accuracy within the
713   operational Hydro-Quebec Canadian network over a wide variety of environments for
714   almost 10 years (Choquette et al., 2013).

715 • FMCW-Radar: its weak point is its limitation in measuring the SWE of wet snow. Yet,
716   the instrument is very useful for dry snowpack characterization, in terms of
717   stratigraphy or for avalanche studies, and also for detection of snowmelt events.
718   Moreover, it is not expensive (800 Euros). As it is very light weight and compact, one
719   of its strengths is its potential capability to retrieve SWE from remotely piloted aircraft
720   above arctic snowpacks.

721 • GNSSR: The potential of the GNSSR approach is strong, given its capability of
722   measuring SWE, SD and LWC with high accuracy. For SWE retrieval, its performance
723   remains very good (~10% in the range of 0-1000 mm) and has the capacity of
724   measuring deep snowpack (up to 5 m snow depth). It is an inexpensive (7 000 Euros),
725   light and compact system. SWE accuracy for wet snow has yet to be improved.

726

5. Conclusions

In this paper, we evaluated four types of SWE sensors that have all reached a certain level of maturity enabling deployments of autonomous networks. These include the Cosmic Ray Neutron probe (CRNP), the Gamma Ray Monitoring (GMON) sensor, the frequency-modulated continuous-wave radar at 24 GHz (FMCW-Radar), and the Global Navigation Satellite System receiver (GNSSR) (see Table 1). This new generation of light, practical and low-cost systems that are based on electromagnetic-wave measurement are now commercially available. The GMON is already operationally used in Québec, Canada, for hydrological purposes (Hydro-Québec).

The analysis of their performances that are summarized in Tables 2 (accuracies) and 3 (pros and cons) show that each approach has its strengths and weaknesses. The synthesis of their advantages/disadvantages shows that:

- CRNP that is placed in the ground beneath the snow is the only system capable of measuring very deep snowpacks. This approach is based on measurements of natural cosmic ray fluxes, which are variable in time, and unfortunately needs complementary atmospheric measurements (temperature, pressure and atmospheric humidity) at each site for correcting the signal and must be normalized against a nearby reference site (available worldwide). The footprint of this sensor is quasi-punctual, a drawback that can be overcome by placing the sensor above the snow, but at the expense of its singularly diminished capacity (max ~150 – 300 mm SWE).
- The GMON has very good accuracy below 12%, but it is limited to snow covers that are not too thick (up to ~800 mm SWE). Its 2-3 m diameter footprint is a useful advantage, but this approach needs systematic site calibration for soil moisture characterization. Also, it is the most expensive of the four instruments that were considered.
- The FMCW-Radar is not recommended for automatic SWE monitoring, as it is limited to dry snow. Yet, it is very sensitive to wet snow, which makes it a very useful sensor for snow melt detection (wet avalanche forecasting, for example).
- The GNSSR permits the simultaneous retrieval of three key snowpack parameters: SWE, snow depth and Liquid Water Content. Given that the sensor is a low cost, light and compact option, this approach appears to have the strongest potential for a wide range of applications.

The requirement of automatic instrumentation networks for snow water equivalent monitoring to improve seasonal snowpack retrievals is important for several applications. For example, dense spatially distributed networks of SWE instruments are needed in remote and mountainous areas, for operational water resource and flood management over snow-driven watersheds, for calibrating satellite-derived SWE information, or for winter transportation safety. This review of continuous-monitoring SWE sensors is intended to help researchers and decision makers choose the one system that is best suited to their needs.

771
772
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789 The authors declare absolutely no conflicts of interest or business relationships with any
790 of the manufacturers that are mentioned in this article. The mention of commercial
791 companies or products does not constitute a commercial endorsement of any instrument
792 or manufacturer by the authors.
793
794

Table 2 Accuracy analysis for the 4 systems considered. The Range measurement indicates the highest SWE (mm) value on which the analysis was performed. RMSD: Root Mean Square Difference. R^2 is the determination coefficient of the linear regression analysis. Pts: number of in situ manual samples. "-" means no information available

Sensor	Reference data	Range SWE (mm)	Accuracy RMSD (mm), R^2 (slope, intercept)	References, sites, number of points
CRNP in the ground	Manual snowpit	200	14 mm, R^2 = 0.96 (0.78, 8.5 mm)	This study (Fig. 3), 7 pts
	GMON	200	28 mm, R^2 = 0.89 (0.79, -3.9 mm)	This study (Fig. 3), 2008-2009 season
	–	-	5 – 10%	Hydroinnova communication[1]
	Manual snowpit	1700	–, R^2 = 0.98 (0.99, 2.8 mm)	Gotterdi et al. (2013) EDF system, Alps and Pyrénées 320 year.sites, 1037 pts.
CRNP above the snow	–	-	5 – 10%	CRS-1000/B Hydroinnova communication[2]
GMON	Manual snowpit	500	34 mm (12%), R^2 = 0.93 (0.997, 17.1 mm)	This study (Fig. 3 and 4) and Pomerleau et al. (2020), SIRENE et NEIGE-FM, 64 pts
	Manual snowpit	200	40 mm, R^2 = 0.92 (1.16, 16.8 mm)	Smith et al., 2017, Sodankylä, Finland, 30 pts
	Manual snowpit	250	23 mm, R^2 = 0.90 (0.904, 27.5 mm)	Smith et al., 2017, Caribou Creek, Canada, 19 pts
	Manual snowpit	700	48 mm, R^2 = 0.92 (0.881, 32.4 mm)	Smith et al., 2017, Fortress Mountain, Canada, 8 pts
	Snow-pillow	200	–, R^2 = 0.95 (1.20, 14 mm)	Smith et al., 2017, Davos, Switzerland
	–	300 600	±15 mm ±15%	Campbell Scientific CS725 manual[3]
FMCW-Radar 24 GHz	Manual snowpit	500	38 mm (14%), R^2 = 0.73 (0.80, 65.0 mm)	This study (Fig. 4) and Pomerleau et al., 2020, 46 pts, dry snow
	Manual snowpit	750	59 mm (30%), R^2 = 0.87 (0.98, 0)	Pomerleau et al., 2020, manual measurements, multi sites Northern Québec, Canada, 78 points dry snow
GNSSR	Manual snowpit	500	32 mm (11%), R^2=0.93 (1.05, -7.9 mm)	This study (Fig. 4), 18 points
	Manual snowpit	> 2000	± 15 mm	SnowSense Vista Inc. manual[4], good conditions
	Manual snowpit	700	23 mm, R^2 = 0.995 (0.98, 5.52 mm)	Henkel et al. 2018, Davos, , Switzerland
	Snow-pillow	700	11 mm R^2 = 0.999 (1.01, 1.97 mm)	
	Manual snowpit	1000	45 mm R^2 = 0.98 (0.98, 31.4 mm) 103 mm R^2 = 0.86 (0.88, 67.3 mm)	Koch et al., 2019 dry snow, 3 winters Koch et al., 2019 wet snow, 3 winters
	Snow-pillow	1000	30 mm R^2 = 0.99 (0.97, 30.5 mm) 72 mm R^2 = 0.93 (0.92, 65.0 mm)	Koch et al., 2019 dry snow Koch et al., 2019 wet snow

1 https://hydroinnova.com/_downloads/snowfox_v1.pdf, Hydroinnova, Albuquerque, NM
2 Hydroinnova, Albuquerque, NM; http://hydroinnova.com/snow_water.html
3 Campbell Scientific (Canada) Corporation, CS725 manual, https://s. campbellsci.com/documents/ca/manuals/cs725_man.pdf.
4 https://www.vista-geo.de/en/snowsense/

Table 3 Pro and Cons of the four systems that were considered for SWE monitoring. SM: Soil Moisture. FOV: Field-of-View. The approximate price is given (2021), subject to change according to exchange rate fluctuations.

Sensors	CNRP		GMON	FMCW-Radar 24 GHz	GNSSR
	CRNP on the ground	CRNP above the snow			
SWEmax	> 2000 mm	~150-300 mm	~800 mm	~1000 mm	> 1500 mm
Other measured parameters	-	SM	SM	Melt detection	SD, LWC
Other sensors needed	P, T_{air}, RH	P, T_{air}, RH	-	SD	-
Typical sampling rate	Discontinuous[a]	Discontinuous[a]	Discontinuous[a]	Continuous	Not strictly continuous[b]
Footprint	~1 m^2	20-40 ha (300 000 m^2)	FOV 60° Typically, 3 - 10 m^{2}*	FOV ±32.5° azimuth and ±12° elevation, 0.4 m^{2}*	~1 m^2
Price (US$)	Hydroinnova: 11 000 (sensor only) EDF: Not marketed (on request)[c]		16 600 (sensor only)	1 000 (radar and software[d])	8 550 (complete station[e])
Main advantage	Very deep snowpack	Large footprint	Medium footprint Deep snowpack	Medium footprint Deep snowpack Very light and compact Low cost	Very deep snowpack SD and LWC Low cost
Main inconvenience	SM issue Needs ancillary measurements	SM knowledge needed, Needs ancillary measures Shallow snowpack	SM knowledge needed	Dry snow only	Large sky view factor required
Other drawbacks	Cost EDF system not commercially available	Cost	Relatively expensive	Not turnkey Ice crust within the snowpack	SWE estimates for wet snow must be improved
Main applications, Capability (see text) Comments	Hydrology Network operational by EDF[c]	Hydrology, SM	Hydrology, SM Network operational by Hydro-Québec	SM, Stratigraphy, Avalanche, Melting monitoring Lake ice thickness RPA capability[f]	Hydrology, SM Avalanche, Melt monitoring

a Counts must be accumulated over a specified period, e.g. 6h, 12h, or longer. b GNSS signals must be averaged over a period of time for noise reduction; the typical measurement cycle: 1 per day (possibly up to 6 per day). c System based on a sensor that is not commercialized. d Software for sensor settings and reading/recording data, but not for SWE retrievals. e Subscription license required. f Remotely Piloted Aircraft capability.
* Depending on the height of the sensor on its support mast above snow, Field-of-View (FOV) given for 3 m mast.

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For references related to a sensor, the name of the sensor has been highlighted in **bold.**

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