Passive Microwave Remote Sensing based High Resolution Snow Depth Mapping for Western Himalayan Zones using Multifactor Modelling Approach

Dhiraj Kumar Singh[1,4], Srinivasarao Tanniru[1], Kamal Kant Singh[3], Harendra Singh Negi[3], RAAJ Ramsankaran[1,2*]

[1]Hydro-Remote Sensing Applications(H-RSA) Group, Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, Powai, Mumbai 400076, India.
[2] Interdisciplinary Program in Climate Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, Powai, Mumbai 400076, India.
[3]Defence Geoinformatics Research Establishment, Him Parisar, Sector 37A, Chandigarh 160036, India
[4]Kalpana Chawla Centre for Research in Space Science & Technology (KCCRSST), Chandigarh University, Mohali 140413, India

Correspondence to: RAAJ Ramsankaran (ramsankaran@civil.iitb.ac.in)

Abstract. Spatiotemporal snow depth (SD) mapping in the Indian Western Himalayan (WH) region is essential in many applications pertaining to hydrology, natural disaster management, climate, etc. In-situ techniques for SD measurement are not sufficient to represent the high spatiotemporal variability of SD in WH. Currently, low-frequency passive microwave (PMW) remote sensing-based algorithms are extensively used to monitor SD at regional and global scales. However, fewer PMW SD estimation studies are carried out for WH till date, which are mainly confined to small subregions of WH.However, only a limited number of PMW SD estimation studies are carried out for WH till date. In addition, the majority of the available PMW SD models for WH locations are developed using limited data and less parameters, therefore cannot be implemented for the entire region. Further, these models have not considered the auxiliary parameters such as location, topography, snow cover days (SCD) into consideration and have poor accuracy (particularly in deep snow), and coarse spatial resolution.

Considering the high spatiotemporal variability of snow depth characteristics across WH region, region wise multifactor models are developed for the first time to estimate SD at high spatial resolution of 500 m x 500 m for three different WH zones i.e., Lower Himalayan Zone (LHZ), Middle Himalayan Zone (MHZ), and Upper Himalayan Zone (UHZ). Multifrequency brightness temperature (TB) observations from Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 (AMSR2), SCDs data, terrain parameters (i.e., elevation, slope and ruggedness), geolocation for the winter period (October to March) during 2012-13 to 2016-17 are used for developing the SD models for dry snow conditions. Different regression approaches (i.e., linear, logarithmic, reciprocal, and power) are developed and evaluated to find if any of these models can address the heterogeneous association between SD observations and PMW TB.Different regression approaches (i.e., linear, logarithmic, reciprocal, and power) are used to develop snow depth models, which are evaluated further to find if any of these models can

address the heterogeneous association between SD observations and PMW TB. From the results, it observed from the analysis that power regression SD model has improved accuracy in all WH zones with the less Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) in MHZ (i.e., 27.21 cm) compared to LHZ (32.87 cm) and UHZ (42.81 cm). Spatial distribution of model derived SD is highly affected by SCDs, terrain parameters, geolocation parameters and have better SD estimates compared to regional and global products in all zones. Overall results indicate that the proposed multifactor SD models have achieved higher accuracy in deep snowpack (i.e., SD >25 cm) of WH compared to previously developed SD models~~The results indicate the following observations: (a) multifactor model developed using power regression has shown improved accuracy in SD retrievals compared to other regression approaches in all WH zones; (b) spatial variability in SD is highly affected by SCDs, terrain parameters, geolocation parameters; (c) compared to the currently operational AMSR2 SD products, the proposed models have shown better SD estimates in all WH zones particularly when SD > 25 cm; (d) the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of multifactor models SD estimates increased with an increase in SCD in all WH zones; The multifactor model of MHZ has shown lesser RMSE (i.e., 27.21 cm) compared to LHZ (32.87 cm) and UHZ (42.81 cm). Overall results indicate that the proposed multifactor SD models have achieved higher accuracy in deep snowpack (i.e., SD >25 cm) of WH when compared to various previously developed SD models.~~.

Introduction

Snow is an essential land cover type and an important cryosphere component. The snow cover encompasses an aerial extent of approximately 45 x 10^6 km^2 in the peak winter over the northern hemisphere (Estilow et al., 2015; Lemke et al., 2007). Among many cryosphere regions in the northern hemisphere, the Indian Western Himalayan (WH) is a unique snow-covered region with a complex topography and high spatiotemporal variability in snow depth (SD), and diverse land cover types (Singh et al., 2018; Das and Sarwade, 2008; Thakur et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2016). WH comprises three mountain zones, e.g., Lower Himalayan Zone (LHZ), Middle Himalayan Zone (MHZ), and Upper Himalayan Zone (UHZ), and receives significant snowfall during winter (Dimri and Dash, 2012; Gurung et al., 2011; Kumar et al., 2019; Sharma and Ganju, 2000; Singh et al., 2016, 2014). The variation in snow volume and its melt rate affects the availability of fresh water for drinking, hydropower, irrigation facilities, and ecosystem conditions for millions of people residing in the foothills of WH zones (Singh et al., 2016; Thakur et al., 2019; Nüsser et al., 2019; Negi et al., 2020; Ahmad, 2020; Mukherji et al., 2019; Vishwakarma et al., 2022). Further, the variability in snow characteristics such as SD, density, volume, etc., and mountainous topography triggers frequent avalanches in the WH region, which have resulted in more than 1000 casualties as reported in different studies (Ganju et al., 2004; McClung, 2016; Gusain et al., 2016). Therefore, quantifying snow variables, especially SD, is an essential field of study in the WH.

Traditionally SD information is acquired using in-situ measurements from snow stakes, snow poles, ground penetrating radar, automatic weather stations, etc. (Dong, 2018; Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015). In-situ methods provide accurate SD; however, these techniques have several drawbacks, such as limited spatial coverage, operational and maintenance constraints under harsh weather and complex terrain conditions, instrument calibration and malfunctioning issues, and high logistics and

65 personnel requirements (Kinar and Pomeroy, 2015; Gusain et al., 2016). In WH, because of the rocky terrain and harsh climatic conditions, a sparse network of snow monitoring stations is available (Saraf et al., 1999; Singh et al., 2016; Gusain et al., 2016). Apart from this, the available SD observations from the in-situ network are spatially and temporally discontinuous and inadequate for demonstrating the snowpack at a regional scale, particularly in the high-altitude regions of WH. Space-borne passive microwave (PMW) remote sensing observations can partially compensate for these limitations and

70 effectively monitor large areas with SD at a comparatively low cost under all weather and terrain conditions (Dietz et al., 2012; Amlien, 2008; Bernier, 1987; Xiao et al., 2018). Sensitivity to snowpack characteristics, global coverage, daily temporal resolution, and availability of extensive archive of historical data makes space-borne PMW remote sensing data extensively useful for the retrieval of SD (Dietz et al., 2012; Tedesco and Narvekar, 2010; Luojus et al., 2021; Chang et al., 1987).

75 The historical PMW data, ongoing and planned missions have paved the way for developing numerous SD inversion algorithms across the different cryosphere regions of the earth. Many studies for SD estimation have been carried out using multifrequency brightness temperature (TB) observations collected from PMW sensors onboard different satellites (Chang et al., 1987; Saraf et al., 1999; Xiao et al., 2018; Kelly et al., 2005; Takala et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2012). The volumetric PMW scattering increases, whereas PMW TB decreases with an increase in SD. The

80 PMW brightness temperature difference (BTD) of 18 and 36 GHz frequency increases with an increase in SD up to a specific thickness, then saturates depending on snowpack conditions (Rango et al., 1979; Chang et al., 1987; Tedesco and Narvekar, 2010). Hence, many studies of PMW SD inversion relied on empirical models derived using BTD between 18 and 36 GHz frequency TB observations (Chang et al., 1987; Saraf et al., 1999; Foster et al., 1997; Kelly et al., 2005, 2003; Das and Sarwade, 2008). Many of the empirical models for SD are developed by generalizing the snowpack parameters such as

85 snow density, grain size, etc. (Chang et al., 1987, 1997; Kelly et al., 2003). However, these parameters dynamically vary with space and time. As a result, the applicability of many empirical SD models (Chang et al., 1987; Foster et al., 1997; Aschbacher, 1989) outside their study region is not good, as evident from several studies (Dai et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019, 2020; Saraf et al., 1999; Xiao et al., 2018). Further, many PMW studies have shown that the error in estimated SD using TB data varies with snow conditions (i.e., wetness, grain size, density), land cover, topography, ground SD, etc. (Dai et al.,

90 2018; Tedesco and Narvekar, 2010; Tedesco et al., 2010; Kelly et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2010; Ansari et al., 2019). Different combinations of multifrequency PMW TB observations, snow information (i.e., snow cover fraction,

grain size, density), and auxiliary data such as topographical and landcover information are used in the PMW-based SD model development to account for these limitations (Dai et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020, 2019). Many SD modeling approaches comprising static empirical linear (Chang et al., 1987; Saraf et al., 1999; Singh et al., 2012) and non-linear models (Wang et al., 2020, 2019), dynamic models (Tedesco et al., 2010; Grippa et al., 2004; Wei et al., 2021), snow emission models (Dai et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2021), machine learning algorithms (Xiao et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2020), assimilation schemes (Kwon et al., 2017; Graf et al., 2006), etc., are developed using PMW TB, and auxiliary datasets for different regions.

Despite the significant progress in PMW_-based SD estimation, very few studies have been carried out in the Indian WH using PMW data (Singh et al., 2012; Das and Sarwade, 2008; Saraf et al., 1999; Singh et al., 2015). WH being the tropical region, experiences significant changes in temperature leading to frequent melt-freeze snow events causing snow grain growth, which introduces errors in the estimation of PMW SD (Singh et al., 2015). Further, the limited availability of in-situ SD observations, very high SD (i.e., > 1 m), and high spatiotemporal variability in snowpack characteristics pose numerous constraints for PMW SD estimation in WH. Consequently, no studies were reported for PMW SD estimation in WH till 1999. For the first time, Saraf et al. (1999) estimated the average monthly SD using Scanning Multichannel Microwave Radiometer (SMMR) data onboard Nimbus-7 during 1979-1987 for the Sutlej valley region of Himalaya using the modified Chang's model (Chang et al., 1992). However, the applicability of this model (Saraf et al., 1999; Chang et al., 1992) over the entire Himalaya cannot be justified as the model is developed using less amount of in-situ data (from 11 stations) where the stations are not distributed, and is not tested outside Sutlej basin. Singh and Mishra (2006) have proposed three empirical models using Advanced Scanning Microwave Radiometer for Earth (AMSR-E) data (horizontally polarized TB of 18.7 and 36.5 GHz) for SD estimation in the Pir-Panjal, Greater Himalaya, and Karakoram ranges of WH, respectively. Following this study, Singh et al. (2007) used different empirical models for SD estimation using multifrequency Special Sensor Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) data (i.e., TB of 19, 22, 37, and 89 GHz during 1997-2002) over the Patseo region. However, these studies (Singh and Mishra, 2006; Singh et al., 2007; Saraf et al., 1999) have not provided any quantitative details about the accuracy of SD estimates and are not evaluated using independent SD observations. Das and Sarwade (2008) used 18.7 GHz and 36.5 GHz horizontally polarized data from AMSR-E and modified the coefficients of Chang et al. (1987)'s model to suit the Indian Himalaya. The modified modelir model (Das and Sarwade, 2008) has shown a mean absolute error (MAE) of 20.34 cm in SD estimates but failed to estimate SD above 60 cm. Singh et al. (2012) have developed multiple empirical SD models for three SD classes, i.e., 1 to 5 cm, 5 to 50 cm, and 50 to 200 cm in Pir-Panjal, Greater Himalaya, and Karakoram regions of WH using TB data of different frequencies from SSM/I. Their approach (Singh et al., 2012) has used the scattering index to estimate snow cover, and TB thresholds for identifying the SD class and estimation of SD. In another study, Singh et al. (2015) developed PMW SD models for the Dhundi and Patseo regions of Himalaya using data from

ground-borne radiometers and in-situ observations. However, SD~~their~~ models are developed using observations collected from only two field surveys, evaluated using a single day observation of AMSR-E TB data, and not tested spatiotemporally.

125 Recently, Singh et al. (2020) developed an empirical algorithm for the Patseo region of the –MHZ using Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 (AMSR2) 18.7 GHz and 36.5 GHz TB (i.e., during 2012-2016) and in-situ observations. They observed that the estimated SD is very close to ground data with Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of ~16 cm and MAE of ~13.9 cm.

Despite the development of various PMW SD models for Himalaya in the last two decades (1999 -2020), there are many
130 constraints in the spatiotemporal estimation of SD for the WH region. Many of the previous studies for SD estimation in WH are carried out specifically for subregions of WH, such as the Sutlej basin, Dhundi, Patseo, etc. The PMW TB observations are affected by heterogeneity in snowpack properties, land cover, topography, etc. (Trujillo et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2010; Che et al., 2016; Derksen, 2008; Foster et al., 2005). However, previous studies (Das and Sarwade, 2008; Saraf et al., 1999; Singh et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2020, 2007; Singh and Mishra, 2006) have not accounted for the aforementioned variables.
135 Further, the accuracy of SD retrievals from these models is also not evaluated with respect to the varying terrain and snow parameters. The accuracy of operational PMW SD products available in the WH region, i.e., AMSR2 SD, has not been evaluated.

Additionally, the AMSR2 SD product and previous PMW SD models have course resolution and have limitations for their potential utility in various applications such as avalanche susceptibility, hydrological modeling, etc., especially at the
140 regional scale. Considering these research gaps, in the current study, different linear and non-linear empirical models are developed to improve and estimate SD at high resolution, i.e., 500 m for different WH zones, using a multifactor approach. In this approach, multifrequency PMW observations from AMSR2 (during 2012-2019), terrain parameters, landcover parameters, and Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) derived snow cover product are statically correlated with the ground SD observations for the development and evaluation of the SD models. The accuracy of PMW
145 multifactor SD models' estimates is compared with previous models and the AMSR2 SD product. Further, in this study, the SD retrievals accuracy is also analyzed with respect to different auxiliary parameters. The present study has the following three objectives:

~~1.~~ Development of multifactor SD models to estimate SD at high resolution for different WH zones.

1.

150 ~~2.~~ Comparison and evaluation of proposed multifactor model, previous SD models and AMSR2 SD products in different WH zones.~~Comparison and evaluation of the multifactor model, previous SD models for WH, and AMSR2 SD products in different WH zones.~~

2.

3. Analysis of multifactor SD retrievals accuracy with respect to selected auxiliary variables (i.e., elevation, slope, land cover types, and SCDs).

Following this introduction section (section 1), the current article is organized as follows. The topographical and geographical description of the study area is described in section 2. The details of the in-situ observations network and various remote sensing datasets used for model development and evaluation are also given in the same section. Following that, the methodology used in developing the multifactor model is presented in section 3. Subsequently, section 4 describes the performance of different multifactor models developed for the three WH zones, a comparison of the different SD models, and results from the analysis of multifactor SD model retrievals with respect to auxiliary parameters. Discussion and summary are given in sections 5 and 6, respectively.

2. Study area and Datasets

The topographic and environmental conditions prevailing in WH are detailed in section 2.1. This study makes use of in-situ data from the snow monitoring network and various spaceborne data for the development of SD models for different WH zones. These datasets along with their sources, are listed in Table 1 and briefly discussed in the following subsections from 2.2 to 2.57.

2.1 Study area

Himalaya is the largest snow-covered territory outside the polar regions in the world (Gurung et al., 2011). The present study encompasses the entire WH, which is a significant portion of the Indian Himalaya, situated in the states of Jammu & Kashmir, Ladakh, and Himachal Pradesh (see Figure. 1). WH extends between longitudes from 73° 15' E to 79° 45' E, latitudes from 30° 00' N to 39° N and covers an area of 3,60,866 km^2. WH is unique with its perennial snow-covered mountain peaks and seasonal snow-covered valleys. Approximately 65% of the terrain in WH is situated at an altitude of more than 3000 m above mean sea level (m.s.l.) and is underlain by extremely steep and rugged mountains. The high-altitude terrain and mountain topography influence both winter precipitation (caused by western disturbances) and monsoon precipitation patterns (Dimri and Dash, 2012). Due to prevailing topographical and weather conditions in WH, forest cover is present only up to 3000 m (m.s.l.), and between 3000-4000 m (m.s.l.), thin vegetation consisting of shrubs and grass is present. Whereas above 4000 m (m.s.l.) altitude, vegetation is not present, and the landcover there is predominantly comprised of barren land with snow and ice. WH region generally receives snow from October to March; from April onwards, snow melt generates runoff contributing water to many rivers and streams within the region (Dimri and Dash, 2012; Sharma et al., 2014).

In this study, three WH zones i.e., LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ defined based on the historical local meteorological and avalanche occurrence data (Sharma and Ganju, 2000) are used for developing multifactor SD models. The geomorphic and climate characteristics of these zones are given in Table 2. In this study, three WH zones defined based on the historical local meteorological and avalanche occurrence data (Sharma and Ganju, 2000) are used for developing multifactor SD models. The three WH zones are as follows: 1. Lower Himalayan Zone (LHZ), 2. Middle Himalayan Zone (MHZ), and 3. Upper Himalayan Zone (MHZ). The geomorphic and climate characteristics of different WH ranges are given in Table 2. The three zones differ in regional topographical and climatic conditions with varying elevations, temperatures, rainfall, snowfall, etc. The LHZ has a sub-tropical climate, and MHZ has a temperate climate, while the UHZ has polar climatic conditions with the presence of permanent snow. Further, these zones have different timing and intensity of precipitation. LHZ has comparatively warmer conditions, with mean monthly temperatures varying between (-3° C to 18° C) than MHZ (-10° C to 14° C) and UHZ (-25° C to 0° C). As the latitude increase, the amount of precipitation deceases in WH. Negi et al. (2018) reported average winter precipitation (in terms of snow water equivalent) of ∼ 804 mm, 549 mm, and 431 mm in the LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ, respectively, during 1991-2015. Further, the snowpack persistence varies based on the local weather conditions, which mainly alter with elevation across the three WH zones (Sharma et al., 2014).

2.2 Ground observatory stations data

In WH, Defence Geoinformatics Research Establishment (DGRE) (formally known as Snow and Avalanche Research Establishment) operates and maintains a network of 43 observatory stations (see Figure. 1) which measures daily in-situ SD twice (i.e., forenoon and afternoon) along with other meteorological parameters such as temperature, rainfall, etc. Out of total 43 stations, 16 stations are located in the LHZ, 13 in the MHZ, and 14 in the UHZ of WH. In the LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ observatories, elevation varies between 1652 to 3785 m (m.s.l.), 2440 to 4950 m (m.s.l.), and 3960 to 5995 m (m.s.l.), respectively. In this study, in-situ data comprising station name, date, latitude, longitude, and SD for the 43 stations is obtained for the snow period from during 2012-13 to 2018-19. The in-situ data is grouped according to the WH zones for the development of different multifactor SD models. The mean in-situ SD of stations varies between 11 to 256 cm in the LHZ, 23 to 136 cm in the MHZ, and 52 to 356 cm in the UHZ during the study period.

2.3 AMSR2 brightness temperatures data and SD product

AMSR2 is a PMW sensor onboard the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA)'s Global Change Observation Mission 1st - Water (GCOM-W1) SHIZUKU, launched in May 2012 (Imaoka et al., 2012). It is a follow-on instrument to AMSR and AMSR-E sensors, and records upwelling microwave emission from the earth's surface in 14 channels in the form of TB. AMSR2 TB observations are available in 7 frequencies (6.9, 7.3, 10.65, 18.7, 23.8, 36.5, and 89 GHz, hereafter

referred to as 6, 7, 10, 18, 23 ,36 and 89 GHz) at two polarizations (horizontal and vertical) for ascending and descending orbit pass with a temporal resolution of 1 day. The multifrequency TB observations ~~and SD product~~ are re-gridded to 10 km spatial resolution (level-3 product) and are archived in the JAXA portal (https://gportal~~com w1~~.jaxa.jp). In many locations of WH, the temperatures exceed $0°C$ from April to September, leading to snow melt (Negi et al., 2018; Sharma et al., 2014). The resulting wet snow can lead to saturation of PMW TB (Dong et al., 2005; Stiles and Ulaby, 1980; Tedesco et al., 2014), affecting the accuracy of SD estimates from PMW SD models. Therefore, in this study, the level-3 TB ~~and SD product~~ of ascending and descending orbital pass from the AMSR2 sensor are obtained for the snow/winter period (October to March) from ~~during~~ 2012 to ~~-~~2019 to develop ~~and evaluate~~ the SD models.

2.4 AMSR2 snow depth product

In this study, the AMSR2 SD products have been downloaded from the website (https://gportal.jaxa.jp) during the snow season (October to March) from 2012 to 2019. The SD products corresponding to ascending (13:30 ± 15 min) and descending (01:30 ± 15 min) pass have been used for comparison with the multifactor model SD estimates. The standard AMSR2 SD algorithm primarily uses the daily 10, 18, 23, 36, and 89 GHz frequencies brightness temperature data and the surface physical temperature (T) data. In the development of the AMSR2 SD algorithm (Kelly 2009), the following steps and conditions have been considered.

Step 1- Isolate wet and dry snow/no-snow-covered regions: If dry snow is present in any region, it will satisfy the conditions (1) and (2) (move to step 2); otherwise, there is no snow-covered region, or only wet snow is present.

$$Tb_{36H} < 245K \tag{1}$$
$$Tb_{36V} < 255K \tag{2}$$

Step 2- Isolate moderate/deep and shallow snow-covered areas: If moderate/deep snow is present, it will satisfy the conditions (3) and (4) (move to step 4) (Derksen 2008); otherwise, shallow snow is present or no snow-covered area (move to step 3).

$$Tb_{10H} - Tb_{36H} > 0K \tag{3}$$
$$Tb_{10V} - Tb_{36V} > 0K \tag{4}$$

Step 3- Identify a shallow snow-covered area. If it satisfies conditions in (5), then shallow snow is present, and a flag of 5.0 cm is set for the SD; otherwise, no snow is present.

$$Tb_{89V} < 255K, Tb_{89H} < 265K, Tb_{23V} > Tb_{89V}, Tb_{23H} > Tb_{89H} \text{ and } T < 267K \tag{5}$$

Step 4: Estimation of moderate to deep SD using Equation (6).

$$SD = \left[\frac{1}{log_{10}(Tb_{36V} - Tb_{36H})X(Tb_{10V} - Tb_{36V})}\right]$$
$$+ \left[\frac{1}{log_{10}(Tb_{18V} - Tb_{18H})X(Tb_{10V} - Tb_{18V})}\right] \qquad (6)$$

235 The developed SD algorithm was tested using World Meteorological Organization (WMO) collected SD measurements from 242 and 254 sites around world during the 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 winter season, respectively. In this only non-mountain stations with at least 30 days of measured snow were used in the comparison. In the recent study conduct over the mountainous terrain of Northern Xinjiang Region, China by the Zhang et al. (2017) the AMSR2 SD products were compared with ground collected SD data. They observed RMSE of 18.5 cm (in AMSR2_A) and 23.4 cm (in AMSR2_D) up to 30 cm

240 of ground SD. However, AMSR2 SD products have not been evaluated for Indian Western Himalayan regions till date.

2.5 4 SRTM Digital elevation model

Topography affects the rate of snow accumulation, ablation, and redistribution. In the current study, Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) digital elevation model (DEM) version 004 data at 90 m spatial resolution is used to account for the topographic effects in the SD model. SRTM DEM for the entire earth is generated using the interferometric synthetic

245 aperture radar method (Farr et al., 2007; Jarvis et al., 2008) and can be downloaded from the web portal (http:/srtm.csi.cgiar.org) in Geo-TIFF format. It has a minimum vertical accuracy of 16 m and RMSE of 9.73 m across the globe (Mukul et al., 2017). The SRTM DEM data is re-projected to the GCS-WGS-1984 coordinate reference system, then mosaiced, extracted, and resampled to 500 m spatial resolution. The elevation varies significantly across different WH ranges. LHZ and MHZ have less elevated topography than UHZ (See Figure. 1).

250 **2.6 5 Daily MODIS cloud-free snow cover day products**

In WH, snow cover area (SCA)/snow cover pixels vary during different months of the year due to change in snowfall and snow ablation pattern. Least SCA has been observed during the month of August/September and maximum SCA was observed during the month of February/March SCD provides information regarding the persistence of snowpack and is useful in improving PMW SD estimates (Singh et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019; Dai et al., 2018). . Snow cover duration (SCD)

255 depicts the number of consecutive days snow cover is present for a given pixel. It provides information regarding the persistence of snowpack and is useful in improving PMW SD estimates (Singh et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019; Dai et al., 2018). In this study, daily could-free MODIS snow cover product (i.e., M*D10A1GL06) generated for high-mountain Asia (Muhammad and Thapa, 2020) at 500 m spatial resolution (https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.918198) has been used to generate SCD product. for the study area during the data period and can be downloaded from

260 https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.918198. Previously, Sharma et al. (2014) and Singh et al. (2018) have generated and evaluated the SCD maps for snow-covered Indian WH. These studies (Sharma et al., 2014, Singh et al., 2018) revealed a higher average monthly SCD (>80%) in high-altitude regions. These studies' results further emphasize a strong longitudinal and altitudinal dependence on SCD, snow cover accumulation and ablation in WH.SCD product depicts the number of consecutive days snow cover is present for a given pixel. Therefore, SCD information can provide valuable insights to

265 improve the SD model. Daily binary snow cover maps prepared from M*D10A1GL06 are used to identify the snow cover presence for a given pixel. These binary snow cover maps are used for computing the SCD information for each day from October 1st of each year to September 30th of the following year during the study period. In this study, SCD of the WH region is retrieved only during the study period i.e. from October to March for each year.

2.67 MODIS land cover product

270 The heterogeneity in landcover significantly impacts the amount of upwelling PMW radiation, and thereby affects affecting the TB at different frequencies for a given pixel. The effect of different types of land cover in PMW SD retrievals ishas been investigated in many studies used (Friedl et al., 2002; Yu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019). In this study, MODIS Level 3 yearly land cover product (i.e., MCD12Q1) for the year 2019 is downloaded from https://www.ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/ website at 500 m spatial resolution. MCD12Q1 product depicts land cover in

275 17 classes as per the International Geosphere-Biosphere Program (IGBP) system. These 17 classes are further regrouped into 4four categories i.e., bare land, grass land, forest, and water, which accounts for ~55.9%, 27.4%, 16.3%, and 0.29% of the total WH area in 2019, respectively. The reclassified landcover data has been used along with other datasets for the development of multifactor SD models for different WH regions.

3. **Methodology**

280 Different steps followed for the developingment and validatingon of the multifactor SD model(s) are given in the following subsections from 3.1 to 3.5. The general outline of the methodology adopted is shown in Figure. 2.

3.1 Data preprocessing

Different remote sensing datasets comprising PMW TB (from AMSR2), SRTM DEM, MODIS landcover product and MODIS SCD are used in the current study. These products are natively present in different spatial resolutions and coordinate

285 systems. Hence, all remote sensing datasets are processed using ArcGIS software to match the spatial extent, coordinate system, and spatial resolution. The brightness temperature and SD datasets downloaded from JAXA portal have northern

hemisphere polar stereographic coordinate system and are present in the HDF5 format. These are reprojected to WGS 1984 coordinate system and are converted to tiff format with help of format conversion tool developed by the JAXA. Following that ArcGIS software is used for resampling the BT imagery to 500 m. No additional processing is carried out in the current work as the brightness temperature dataset acquired from JAXA are level-3 product. The brightness temperature from each image for all stations is then retrieved programmatically using python. The extracted TB data is used for calculating the BTD. The AMSR2 TB data at different frequencies is resampled to 500 m spatial resolution using the nearest-neighbour interpolation technique. The BTD is calculated between lower and higher frequency TB observations for each day during the study period.

Following the BTD calculation, the SRTM DEM product is re-projected, mosaiced, and resampled to 500 m spatial resolution. Different terrain parameters, such as slope, aspect, and surface roughness, are derived from the resampled DEM product. SCD product is already available in 500 m spatial resolution. Therefore, it is processed only to match the extent and coordinate reference system (i.e., GCS-WGS 1984) of other datasets. Following the resolution and coordinate system matching process, for all DGRE observatory locations, the data from remote sensing products (i.e., TB, elevation, slope, ruggedness, geographical locations and SCD) is extracted for the winter period fromduring 2012-13 to 2018-19. It is known that the forest cover intercepts the upwelling radiation from the ground underneath the snowpack and causes uncertainty in the snow depth estimates of PMW SD models (Che et al., 2008). Therefore, the forest cover fraction has been calculated using MODIS land cover type product (i.e., MCD12Q1) for a 10 km point buffer around each observatory site. The retrieved values are used to minimize the forest cover impact by dividing the brightness temperature observations with the value of non-forest fraction (i.e., 1- forest fraction) for a given pixel as suggested by Foster et al., (1997).

In this study, the forenoon SD observations, descending pass AMSR2 TB data, terrain parameters (i.e., slope, aspect, ruggedness), geographical locations and SCD are paired based on date and station location. These data are then checked for discrepancies such as missing values, incorrect values, outliers, etc. There are no missing values for AMSR2 TB, SRTM elevation, SCD observations for the in-situ stations over WH region. However, The samples containing any other such discrepancies are removed. After data preprocessing, a total of ~13,242 samples, with each sample comprising geographical location, TB, terrain parameters, and SCD, are retained. Using these samples, the data for five years snow period, i.e., from 2012-13 to 2016-17, is used to develop multifactor SD algorithms for different zones of WH. While thethe remaining data of two years data of snow period, i.e., from 2017-18 to 2018-19, is used to compare and validate the multifactor SD model results.

315 **3.2 Identification of dry snow pixel**

Along with snow cover, frozen ground, rainfall, and cold desert conditions affect the upwelling microwave emission from the earth's surface and impact PMW TB recorded by spaceborne sensors (Ferraro et al., 1996; Grody and Basist, 1996). Further, wet snow pixels and surface water bodies cause PMW absorption and reduce volume scattering from snow grains (Stiles and Ulaby, 1980). Consequently, the inclusion of TB values from these pixels in the development and evaluation of
320 the model results in large uncertainty in SD estimates (Tedesco et al., 2014; Dietz et al., 2012; Foster et al., 2005; Dong et al., 2005). Therefore, before developing SD algorithms, dry snow pixels must be segregated from other pixels. Grody and Basist (1996) have developed a decision tree to identify dry snow pixels from other scattering pixels using TB of different frequencies. Grody and Basist's decision tree makes use of different filters (see Figure. 3) based on the values of TB observations to separate snow from non-snow pixels. This study uses multifrequency AMSR2 TB data with Grody's
325 decision tree to identify snow pixels.

3.3 Selection of multifactor SD model parameters

Many of the initial PMW SD models have relied on TB from 18 and 36 GHz channels for estimating SD (Chang et al., 1987; Saraf et al., 1999; Das and Sarwade, 2008; Kelly et al., 2003; Chang et al., 1997). However, these models have limitations in estimating shallow and deep snowpacks. The sensitivity of PMW TB to SD decreases once the SD reaches a threshold depth
330 (Wang et al., 2019; Dai et al., 2018; Das and Sarwade, 2008; Kelly et al., 2003). TB of higher frequencies (i.e., 36 GHz, 89 GHz) saturate before lower frequencies (i.e., 10 GHz, 18 GHz) as SD increases. The lower frequency (i.e., 10 GHz) has the potential to retrieve deep snow cover, while the higher frequency (i.e., 89 GHz) can provide shallow snow information(Kelly et al., 2003). Therefore, the inclusion of higher frequencies (i.e., 89 GHz) and lower frequencies (i.e., 10, 23 GHz) are investigated in many studies, which have resulted in improved SD estimates (Kelly et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2019; Xiao et
335 al., 2020b; Wei et al., 2021). Hence, PMW TB of 10, 18, 23, 36, and 89 GHz are used in this study. Apart from single channel SD, 40 combinations of TB, i.e., BTD of different frequencies and polarizations, are also considered. Terrain parameters (i.e., elevation, slope, aspect, surface roughness), location (latitude, longitude), landcover, and SCD also affect characteristics of snowpack and PMW TB (Saydi and Ding, 2020; Sharma et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2010; Ansari et al., 2019). Thus, overall, 57 parameters (i.e., TB – 10, BTD – 40, terrain parameters – 4, location – 2, SCD – 1) are considered in
340 the process of SD model development. However, of the 57 parameters, it is likely that some parameters are redundant and do not necessarily add any value to the model. For example, TB of 10H and 10V have a correlation of 0.9 and using both TB10H, and TB10V is not useful and can cause additional problems due to multicollinearity. Further, the use of a large number of independent variables leads to a curse of dimensionality, which poses challenges in model development by decreasing the model's interpretability, increasing the computational time and resources, and often overfitting (Velliangiri et

345   al., 2019; Obaid et al., 2019). These problems can be addressed by performing optimal parameter selection for model development (Chandrashekar and Sahin, 2014). Optimal parameter selection reduces the data dimensionality and eliminates irrelevant data from the original dataset.

350   ~~In this study, data from the snow period, i.e., between 2012-13 to 2016-17 of the entire WH, is considered~~ This study considers data from the snow period between 2012-13 to 2016-17 of the entire WH for optimal parameter selection. To select the necessary parameters for the SD model, all 57 parameters are used independently with in-situ SD to develop single-parameter linear regression models. While developing these models, evaluation is carried out using the leave-one-outcross-validation (LOOCV) method (Webb et al., 2011) for screening necessary parameters. The LOOCV method is widely used by various researchers (Gusain et al., 2016; Joshi et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019) to conduct the validation of

355   models and assess the model's accuracy. In LOOCV, the observational dataset is used to create n - number of regression models (n is no of samples). In each of the n-models, a different testing sample is selected, and other observation samples are used to develop the regression model. The overall performance of the model is calculated by combining all predictions (for the omitted samples) from the n-models. The accuracy of the models is calculated using the correlation coefficient (R) and RMSE. The results of LOOCV from the models developed with all 57 parameters (See section 4.2) are analyzed to

360   select the most valuable features for SD model development.

3.4 Development of SD models

This study implements four different regression models (i.e., linear, logarithmic, power, and reciprocal) to develop SD models. Different WH zones, i.e., LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ, have different topographic, environmental, and snowfall conditions. Hence, in this study, SD models are developed separately for each WH zone~~s~~. Data from 2012-13 to 2016-17 is

365   used for the development of the different SD models. Further, out of 57 parameters, 13 parameters are selected from the results of the LOOCV evaluation. These 13 parameters have a good correlation with in-situ SD and are used in developing the multifactor SD models using four types of regression. The general form of the four types of regression models is given in equations (7~~1~~)-(4~~10~~).

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{i+1} x_i + c\epsilon_i \tag{7}$$

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Inx_1 + \alpha_2 Inx_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{i+1} Inx_i + \epsilon_i c \tag{8}$$

$$y = c b x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots\dots x_i^{\alpha_i} e^{\epsilon_i} \tag{9}$$

$$y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \frac{1}{x_1} + \alpha_2 \frac{1}{x_2} + \cdots + \alpha_{i+1} \frac{1}{x_i} + \epsilon_i c \tag{10}$$

where, y is the ground observed SD values; $x_1, x_2, ..., $ and x_i are the screened parameters; α_0, $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., $ and α_i are the regression coefficients of the multiparameter models; and c c_i is the offset constant, and i represents the number of parameters.

3.5 Validation of SD model(s)

The multifactor SD models for different WH zones are validated using temporally independent in-situ SD observations during 2017-18 and 2018-19. The accuracy of SD models' estimates is evaluated using standard regression metrics, i.e., R, and RMSE. Additionally, the efficacy of the proposed multifactor SD models is analyzed by comparing the accuracy of the multifactor model with regional (Das and Sarwade, 2008; Singh et al., 2020) and heritage SD model (Chang et al., 1987) for different ranges of WH. Chang et al. (1987), Das and Sarwade (2008), and Singh et al. (2020) SD models are given in Equations (11 5), (6 12), and (7 13), respectively.

The comparison is carried out by estimating SD from all these stated models using during the validation data present between study period, i.e., during the 2017-18 to 2018-19.

$$\text{SD}_{\text{Chang et al. (1987)}} = 1.59 *(\text{TB18H} – \text{TB36H}) \qquad (5\,11)$$

$$\text{SD}_{\text{Das et al. (2008)}} = 3.16 *(\text{TB18H} – \text{TB36H}) + 24.25 \qquad (12\,6)$$

$$\text{SD}_{\text{Singh et al. (2020)}} = -7.58 *(\text{TB18V} – \text{TB36V}) + 233.71 \qquad (13\,7)$$

Where, TB denotes the brightness temperature values, 18, and 36 indicate the frequency of TB in GHz, and V and, H are the vertical and horizontal polarization, respectively.

Apart from the aforementioned comparative analysis, a random sample image from the study area for a single day (February 3rd, 2019) is taken. Then, the estimated SD over the selected area using the multifactor SD model(s) is spatially compared with AMSR2 operational products (See section 4.5). This spatial comparison helps in understanding how the developed multifactor SD model(s) differs from the AMSR2 operational SD products in representing SD information over WH. The magnitude of in-situ SD, terrain parameters, and SCD can significantly affect the accuracy of the PMW SD model in the study region. Therefore, the accuracy of operational AMSR2 SD products and multifactor SD models with respect to varying ground SD, topographic elevation, and SCD is determined in different WH zones (see Section 4.6.).

4. **Results and analysis**

The insights from the analysis of in-situ SD observations in WH zones are reported in section 4.1. Following that, the results from the LOOCV evaluation of multiple parameters are given in section 4.2. The outcomes from the accuracy assessment and comparison of different PMW SD estimates are described in sections 4.3 and 4.4, respectively. The spatial comparison of the high-resolution SD map from the multifactor model and AMSR2 products is shown in section 4.5. In section 4.6, the analysis of multifactor SD model performance with respect to different parameters is detailed.

4.1 Spatial analysis of the in-situ SD observations in WH ranges

~~DGRE has installed a total of 43 observatories in WH (Figure. 1.), which are situated at different elevations ranging between 1664 to 5995 m (m.s.l.).~~ The mean of in-situ SD at each of the 43 DGRE stations is estimated for the winter period (October to March) during 2012-13 to 2018-19 (See Figure. 4). The results indicate that during the data period, the mean SD values varied between ~11 cm (elevation: 1664 m) to ~256 cm (elevation: 3160 m) in LHZ, ~21 cm (elevation: 3250 m) to ~136 cm (elevation: 4950m) in MHZ, and ~49 cm (elevation: 3250 m) to ~365 cm (elevation: 5995 m) in the UHZ. The analysis also demonstrates that out of 43 manual stations, four~~4~~ stations have a mean SD between 11 to 50 cm, 18 stations have a mean SD between 50 to 100 cm, seven~~7~~ stations have a mean SD between 100 to 150 cm, five~~5~~ stations have mean SD between 150 to 200 cm, and remaining four~~4~~ have mean SD > 200 cm during the data period. Further, it is observed that out of nine~~9~~ stations that have a mean SD greater than 150 cm, five~~5~~ are present in the UHZ.

The overall analysis of in-situ SD measurements indicates the mean and standard deviation ($\mu \pm \sigma$) are observed as ~121.5 cm $\pm$ 122.5 cm in the LHZ, ~85.9 cm $\pm$ 83.5 cm in the MHZ, and 176.6 cm $\pm$ 208.9 cm in UHZ, respectively. A higher mean SD is observed in the UHZ compared to the other two ranges. 95% of overall SD values in the LHZ are below 350 cm, with the remaining 5% having SD between 350 cm and 650 cm. However, in the MHZ and UHZ, 95% of total SD observations are below 200 cm and 500 cm, respectively, with the remaining 5% ranging between 200 cm to 500 cm and 500 cm to 2030 cm.

4.2 SD parameters screening and evaluation over WH

~~The screening of parameters for the development of the multifactor SD model is carried out using the LOOCV approach (See section 3.3). The data for winter (October to March) i.e., between 2012-13 to 2016-17, is used in the parameter selection process.~~ The expressions for linear regression models developed with each parameter and regression metrics, i.e., RMSE, and R results obtained from LOOCV analysis, are shown in Table 3. In terms of geographical location, latitude has a higher correlation (i.e., 0.24) and lower RMSE (97.96 cm) than longitude. Among the terrain parameters, SCD has the highest R (i.e., 0.45) and the lowest RMSE (i.e., 90.27 cm), and is followed by elevation (R = 0.30 and RMSE = 96.12),

slope (R =0.26 and RMSE = 97.59), and ruggedness (R =0.25 and RMSE = 97.85), making it highly important ~~significant~~ for the development of ~~a~~ multifactor SD models. The SD models built with TB observations from descending orbital passes have ~~relatively higher correlation and lesser RMSE compared to~~ a relatively higher correlation and lesser RMSE than ~~those from ascending pass TB data when analyzed with in-situ SD. This is mainly because descending orbital passes occur in the morning time with no melting of snow; however, ascending orbital passes occur in the afternoon time with substantial melting of snow in the study area~~ Therefore, only descending pass TB observations are used in the study.

Apart from the single channel PMW TB, 40 different combinations of descending pass orbital BTD are tested using linear regression (in the LOOCV approach). The selected and rejected BTD parameters with their RMSE, and R with the in-situ SD are shown in Table 4. The selected parameters ~~that~~ have the lowest RMSE, highest correlation and pass the F-test at a significance level of 0.001 ~~are shown in Table 4~~. It is observed that descending pass BTD models exhibit higher correlation and accuracy metrics compared to single-channel descending pass models. From the overall results (R, RMSE), descending pass BTD parameter-based SD models have higher R (0.24 to 0.39) and lesser RMSE (91.63 to 93.92 cm) compared to single channel TB-based SD models, which have R (0.07 to 0.35) and RMSE (93.44 to 100.54 cm). Therefore, ~~instead of single channel TB, different BTD data from descending pass (See Table 4)~~ different BTD data from descending pass (See Table 4) are selected instead of single channel TB ~~are selected in the development of~~ to develop multifactor SD models. Along with the eight descending BTD parameters (BTD of 10H18H, 10H23H, 18H89V, 36H89V, 36V89V, 23H89V, 10V89V, 10V23H, where 10, 18, 23, 36 and 89 represent the frequency in GHz, and H, V represent horizontal and vertical polarization respectively), three terrain parameters (elevation, slope, ruggedness), latitude, and SCD are used to develop ~~in developing~~ multifactor PMW SD models for the three WH ranges.

4.3 Evaluation and comparison of different multifactor SD models in WH zones

~~Regression analysis is carried out between the parameters (selected using LOOCV) and in-situ SD observations during 2012-13 to 2016-17 (October to March month) in each WH zone. Different multiparameter SD models (i.e., linear, logarithmic, power, and reciprocal) are developed from regression analysis for all three zones of WH.~~ The details of the developed models are given in Table 5. The results from the regression analysis indicate multifactor SD models developed with a power regression approach have a better fit with the in-situ data and outperformed other regression models with R (RMSE in cm) values i.e., 0.62 (49.17), 0.78 (37.72), 0.76 (55.12) in LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ, respectively.

The developed multifactor models in each WH zones are evaluated (with R and RMSE metrics) using temporally independent data from~~during~~ 2017-18 to 2018-19. Comparison of the four types of multifactor regression models in the LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ is carried out with the help of the Taylor diagram (See Figure. 5). The R, RMSE (in cm) metrics of ~~(i)~~ power, ~~(ii)~~ linear, ~~(iii)~~ logarithmic, and ~~(iv)~~ reciprocal models in different WH zones are given in Figure 5 and Table 6~~as~~

follows. ~~LHZ (See Figure. 5a.): (i) 0.65, 22.7, (ii) 0.64, 29, (iii) 0.38, 52, (iv) 0.09, 121.3; MHZ (See Figure. 5b.): (i) 0.76, 19.2, (ii) 0.68, 22.8, (iii) 0.14, 41, (iv) 0.47, 26.7; UHZ (See Figure. 5c): (i) 0.89, 22.6, (ii) 0.75, 36.5, (iii) 0.73, 36.9, (iv) 0.61, 43.2.~~ The results from the comparison indicate that in all WH zones, the multifactor SD model developed using power regression has exhibited higher accuracy, i.e., better correlation and lesser RMSE compared to the models built using linear, logarithmic, and reciprocal regression approaches. Therefore, in each WH zone~~s, multifactor SD model from power regression is used for estimating~~ the multifactor SD model from power regression is used to estimate PMW SD at 500 m spatial resolution.

4.4 Comparative analysis of multifactor and other SD models in different zones of WH

In order to compare the performance of different SD models in WH, the SD values are estimated using different models with the help of PMW and other auxiliary data during the study period (i.e., 2017-18 to 2018-19). Different models used in the comparative analysis are the multifactor SD model(s) from this study, regional SD models of WH (i.e., Das et al. (2008), Singh et al. (2020)), and the heritage SD model given by Chang et al. (1987). The estimated SD from each model is compared with in-situ SD observations with in the respective WH zones to understand the accuracy of SD retrievals. Singh et al. (2020) model is proposed only for the MHZ. Therefore, it is not used for SD estimation in LHZ, and UHZ while doing comparative analysis.

In the LHZ of WH, both Chang's model and Das's model have poor correlation with in-situ SD and have shown RMSE (R) of 39.51 (-0.16), and 49.66 (-0.14) (See Figure. 6). Whereas the proposed multifactor SD model has shown a good correlation with RMSE (R) of 32.87 (0.75). In the MHZ, Chang et al. (1987), Das et al. (2008), and Singh et al. (2020) have exhibited poor correlation with in-situ SD with R-values of 0.22, 0.21, and -0.22, respectively. Whereas, the proposed multifactor SD model has shown a good correlation with in-situ SD with an R-value of 0.65 (see Figure. 6). The RMSE is observed to be 36.32, 49.82, and 119.79 cm for Chang et al. (1987) model, Das et al. (2008) model, and Singh et al. (2020) model respectively. The proposed multifactor SD model has shown good accuracy with a lesser RMSE of 27.21 cm compared to other SD models. The SD model proposed by Singh et al. (2020) for the MHZ is developed using data from a single observatory location. Hence, the Singh et al. (2020) model cannot represent the spatial variability of SD and shows significant errors with higher bias.

Similar to the results observed in LHZ and MHZ, the Chang et al. (1987) model and Das et al. (2008) model have shown a poor correlation in the UHZ with R-values of 0.18 and 0.19, respectively. ~~Whereas~~ In comparison, the multifactor SD model has shown a good correlation with an R-value of 0.67 (See Figure. 6). The RMSE values are observed to be 60.95cm, 51.74 cm, and 42.81 cm for Chang et al. (1987) model, Das et al. (2008) model, and proposed multifactor SD model in the UHZ. Overall results from the comparative analysis indicate that in each WH zone~~s~~, the multifactor SD model has higher accuracy

with good correlation (i.e., R) and lesser errors when compared with other models. Further, the developed model has exhibited better accuracy metrics in the MHZ compared to other zones in WH zones. The mean SD observed during the study period (i.e., 2017-18 to 2018-19) in Pir-Panjal and UHZ are higher than the mean SD of the MHZ. Further, the LHZ has a forest canopy which can affect the PMW TB observations. Whereas, in the MHZ, most of the region is devoid of forest vegetation except for some patchy grass vegetation. Hence it is expected to observe an increased error for SD models in LHZ and UHZ as compared to the MHZ.

4.5 Spatial comparison of SD from multifactor model and operational AMSR2 SD products: A case study

The spatial comparison of SD maps from AMSR2 SD products and the multifactor SD model is performed to understand the improvement of the AMSR2 multifactor SD model over the operational AMSR2 SD products in the WH region. For this purpose, the SD maps of operational AMSR2 SD products and multifactor SD model for WH zones for 3rd February 3rd, 2019 are considered (See Figure. 7). The SD spatial map at 500 m resolution for the WH zones is generated using multifactor SD model (See Figure. 7d). The AMSR2 ascending SD product, i.e., AMSR2_A (See Figure. 7b) and descending SD product, i.e., AMSR2_D (See Figure. 7c) of the same region for the given day at 10 km resolution are also prepared. According to MODIS-derived SCA at 500 m resolution (See Figure. 7a) and DGRE observatories in-situ SD information, snow cover with varying thickness on 3rd February 2019 in WH zones. However, in both the AMSR2 SD products, i.e., AMSR2_A and AMSR2_D, the majority of pixels have zero SD value, resulting in the underestimation of SD information by AMSR2 products. The maximum SD values observed in different products are as follows: AMSR2 ascending SD, 58 cm; AMSR2 descending SD, 78 cm; Multifactor SD model, 476 cm; The multifactor SD model shows high heterogeneity in SD across the selected region in WH zones as compared to AMSR2 SD products. Further, the multifactor SD model offers good detail with regard to about snow cover and provides SD data in the region at a high resolution of 500 m.

4.6 Comparison of performance of Multifactor SD product, with operational AMSR2 SD product

Though higher mean SD regions (i.e., LHZ, UHZ) have a higher error than lesser mean SD regions (i.e., MHZ), it is important to assess how the SD products accuracy varies with changes in in-situ SD. Hence, in section 4.6.1, the operational AMSR2 SD products and AMSR2 multifactor model performances are analyzed section 4.6.1 analyzes the operational AMSR2 SD products and AMSR2 multifactor model performances in different SD classes. Further, it is also important essential to understand how the model's accuracy is affected with respect to different auxiliary parameters, i.e., topographical and landcover parameters. Therefore, the model accuracy is evaluated with respect to different topographical and land cover parameters, and the results are presented in section 4.6.2.

4.6.1 Analysis of operational AMSR2 SD products and multifactor SD model in different SD classes

In each WH zone, the AMSR2 SD products and multifactor SD model estimates are grouped into five SD classes, i.e., 0-25 cm, 25-50 cm, 50-75 cm, 75-100 cm, and >100 cm based on in-situ SD observations during 2017 -18 to 2018 -19~~The AMSR2 SD products and multifactor SD model estimates are grouped into five SD classes, i.e., 0 25 cm, 25 50 cm, 50 75 cm, 75 100 cm, and >100 cm based on in-situ SD observations during 2017 18 to 2018 19~~. Along with the multifactor SD, the operational AMSR2 SD product (i.e., from both ascending and descending pass data) is also analyzed in the SD classes by comparing with in-situ SD observations. RMSE of each SD class is calculated to evaluate the accuracy of SD estimates. Other models (i.e., Chang et al., (1987), Das et al. (2008), and Singh et al. (2020)) were not considered in this analysis as they were not operational SD models. The effect of variation in ground SD on the accuracy of the AMSR2 multifactor SD model and AMSR2 SD products is shown in Table ~~6~~7.

The results indicate that the magnitude of RMSE error of AMSR2 SD products and multifactor SD model increased with an increase in SD. When in-situ SD < 25 cm, AMSR2 SD products have shown relatively lesser error in all three zones compared to the developed multifactor SD model. However, the observed error in this class (i.e., 0-25 cm) is still large and varies between 11 – 15 cm in the AMSR2 SD product and 14 – 27 cm in the multifactor SD model across the three zones. Whereas for classes with in-situ SD > 25 cm, the proposed multifactor SD model has low RMSE than both AMSR2 products in all the zones of WH. This analysis clearly shows that for shallow snow regions in WH, operational AMSR2 products can be used. However,~~-~~ the AMSR2 SD products show a large error for deep and moderate snow regions~~for deep and moderate snow regions, the AMSR2 SD products show a large error~~. ~~However, i~~In the WH region~~s~~, out of 43 stations, only four stations have a mean SD < 25 cm, and for the remaining stations, the mean in-situ SD ~~i~~was more than 25 cm during the study period. Hence AMSR2 SD products are less useful for spatial monitoring of SD in WH. Though the developed AMSR2 multifactor model has shown higher error when in-situ SD < 25 cm, it is more useful for the WH region as the RMSE error is lesser when SD > 25cm.

Overall, the multifactor SD model in MHZ has a low RMSE compared to the LHZ and UHZ in all SD classes. This could be due to prevailing dry snow conditions, lesser mean SD, and the absence of forest in this range, which can ~~act in~~ favour ~~of~~ the PMW SD algorithms to retrieve better SD estimates from PMW TB. Whereas higher temperatures, moist snow conditions, forest vegetation in LHZ, and deep snow conditions in both LHZ and UHZ can deter the accuracy of the AMSR2 multifactor SD model in these regions by affecting the TB observations.

4.6.2 Multifactor model performance analysis with respect to auxiliary parameters

Among all the factors considered in the AMSR2 multifactor SD model development, elevation and SCD have good heterogeneity across the stations in each WH zone. The other terrain factors, such as slope, landcover have not much

variation and are similar for many of the stations with in a WH zone (See Figure. 8.). Though a~~the~~ large variation in
landcover is observed across the entire WH region, in the LHZ majority of stations are surrounded by forest cover. Whereas
in the MHZ, stations are mainly over grassland and barren land. The UHZ is devoid of vegetation, and all stations are present
over barren land and glaciers. Thus, the variation of landcover with in a range is not significant. Therefore, in this section,
only the effect of varying elevation and SCD on the accuracy of SD from the AMSR2 multifactor SD model and operational
AMS2 SD products is evaluated.

Slope and SCD are divided into different classes considering the overall variation in the WH region. Within these classes,
the SD retrievals from the AMSR2 products and multifactor model are compared with in-situ SD measurements during the
winter period ~~of~~ between 2017-18 to 2018-19. The accuracy of model estimates in each class is evaluated by calculating
RMSE (See Table 7~~8~~). The RMSE error associated with each station for different factors (i.e., elevation, slope, SCD, and
landcover) is depicted in Figure. 8. The results indicate~~,~~ that in LHZ and UHZ, with an increase in elevation, RMSE
increased for both AMSR2 products~~,~~ and the multifactor model. Whereas in the MHZ, there is no specific trend in the
variation of accuracy with respect to elevation. The RMSE error (in cm) variation across all elevation classes for the
multifactor SD model, AMSR2 ascending SD, and AMSR2 descending products in different WH regions is as follows: LHZ,
21.38 – 47.27 cm, 23.05 – 113.21 cm, and 18.44 – 93.72 cm; MHZ, 17.82 – 54.79 cm, 39.10 – 107.72 cm, and 37.98 –
103.38 cm; UHZ, 11.73 – 126.13 cm, 17.71 to 188.67 cm, and 19.50 – 182.12 cm. Though overall RMSE variation is high
across the different elevation classes, both AMSR2 SD products have similar RMSE errors for any given elevation class
within each WH zone. However, the multifactor SD model has lower RMSE ~~compared to~~than both AMSR2 SD products for
elevation classes across the three WH zones. Other than elevation, the amount of snowfall and snow conditions vary widely
with SCD across the different WH zones. This can lead to varying accuracy trends in SD retrievals for a given factor in
different WH zones.

The SD~~, in general,~~ generally increases with an increase in SCD, affecting the PMW SD retrieval from different ~~PMW SD~~
models. In WH, across all regions, the RMSE values of the AMSR2 ascending and~~product,~~ AMSR2 descending SD
product~~s,~~ and the multifactor SD model increased with an increase in SCD. However, the RMSE of the multifactor SD
model is significantly low compared to the AMSR2 SD products in all SCD classes in each WH zone. The SCD variation at
the end of the snow year (September 30th, 2013), along with RMSE errors of different stations calculated for the time period
i.e., 2017-18 to 2018-19, is represented in Figure. 8~~10~~(d). The RMSE variation associated with SCD classes for the
multifactor SD model, AMSR2 ascending product, and AMSR2 descending product in different WH ranges are as follows:
LHZ, 25.18 – 61.80 cm, 47.32 – 158.11 cm, and 45.47 – 140.59 cm; MHZ, 19.71 – 70.92 cm, 33.53 – 140.03 cm, and 31.61
– 137.66 cm; UHZ, 83.40 – 122.22 cm, 97.63 – 205.89 cm, and 92.54 – 204.15 cm.

5. Discussion

The Indian WH has the highest elevation mountain peaks in Asia that segregate the plane regions of the Indian subcontinent from the Tibetan Plateau with a mean elevation of ~3116 m (m.s.l.). ~~WH consists of three mountain zones with diverse land cover and demonstrates high spatial viability in SD due to complex terrain topography and climate conditions. Precise SD information in the WH regions is very challenging to retrieve using spaceborne PMW remote sensing due to coarse spatial resolution. Therefore, in this article, multiparameter (i.e., geographical location, terrain parameters, SCD, and BTD) based PMW SD models that estimate SD at 500 m spatial resolution are developed for each WH zone.~~ The discussion about the performance of SD models and factors affecting the multifactor SD model is given in the following sections, 5.1 and 5.2, respectively.

5.1 SD models' performance

Four multifactor SD models are developed for each WH zone using different regression approaches (i.e., linear, logarithmic, reciprocal, and power). These models are compared with regional SD models, Chang's SD model, and operational AMSR2 SD products. The overall analysis of the results indicates that the power regression-based multifactor SD model has higher accuracy compared to other multifactor SD models, regional approaches, Chang's model, and AMSR2 SD products in all WH regions. However, AMSR2 SD products have shown comparable to better accuracy (i.e., similar to the multifactor SD model) under shallow snow conditions (SD < 25 cm). Nevertheless, once SD exceeds 25 cm, the performance of AMSR2 SD products declined considerably (See Table 8~~7~~). Further, AMSR2 SD products have a large amount of missing data over the WH region, rendering its poor utility for various regional applications. The regression modelling approach attempts to find a better fit by optimizing the loss function i.e., mean error. Over WH region, majority of the observations have SD > 25 cm. Therefore, understandably the model estimates are better in higher SD regions as compared to shallow SD regions.

The proposed model has an overall positive bias with overestimated SD values for lesser SD, and underestimation in the case of higher SD observations. The bias for LHZ, MHZ and UHZ for the proposed model is 4.5 cm, 2 cm and 6.3 cm respectively. Whereas the bias for legacy model, and other regional model is considerably higher with significant overestimates in the lower depth values and underestimates in higher depth regions. Further, it must be emphasized that these models have very poor correlation with the in-situ snow depth and the SD estimates mainly confined in a range irrespective of the magnitude of the ground snow depth observation values.

In general, with an increase in SD, the accuracy of multifactor models declined in all WH zones. However, the accuracy of developed multifactor SD models is distinct for a given SD class in different WH zones. This is because the spatial distribution of snowfall and snow characteristics (i.e., SD, snow wetness, density, etc.) are not uniform at different

geographic locations of observatories distributed across the three WH zones. The SD model developed in the MHZ has shown better accuracy metrics than those developed for LHZ and UHZ.

The topographical parameters in WH play a vital role in affecting the local climate as well as snow distribution. The inherent weakness of PMW TB in capturing deeper snowpack thickness is overcome to certain extent by considering SCD into model development. Thus, the overall improved performance of multifactor model over the previously developed other models and AMSR2 product can be attributed to the consideration of topographical parameters and SCD into the model development. Further, combination of multiple lower and higher frequency TB is considered into the model for capturing both deeper and shallower snowpack thickness. Different factors affecting the performance of the multifactor SD model are discussed in the following section, 5.2.

5.2 Factors affecting the performance of multifactor SD model

A total of 7257 parameters comprising multifrequency PMW TB, BTD, terrain parameters, and SCD are screened using LOOCV to determine the suitable factors to develop the PMW multifactor SD model. Finally, the SD algorithm is developed only using the selected parameters, i.e., geographical location parameters (latitude), terrain parameters (elevation, slope, and ruggedness), SCD and BTDs (36H89V, 36V89V, 10V23H, 23H89V, 10V18V, 10H23H, 10H18H, 18H89V). In the present study, different combinations of frequencies in vertical and horizontal polarization have been used to estimate shallow to deep snow across different zones of WH. Only descending pass PMW observations are employed in this study to avoid the problems pertaining to wet snow, which is more prominent during the ascending pass. Among the different factors (i.e., other than PMW data) evaluated using LOOCV, SCD has shown a relatively strong correlation (i.e., R = 0.45) with in-situ SD observations. Higher SCD generally indicates longer snow persistence which leads to an increase in snow accumulation, whereas lesser SCD indicates the absence/melt of snow which leads to lesser SD.

Apart from SCD, terrain parameters, i.e., elevation, slope have an impact on the spatial distribution of SD within an area (Saydi and Ding, 2020; Trujillo et al., 2007; Sharma et al., 2014) and have shown a moderately better strong correlation with in-situ SD with R of 0.30, 0.26 respectively (See Table 3). Further, the topographic conditions can affect the reallocation of PMW radiation due to variations in the direction of polarization and local incidence angles (You et al., 2011), altering the TB values. The higher elevation regions (i.e., UHZ) of WH experience cold conditions, which aids snow in accumulating. Therefore, the snowfall is preserved for most of the winter in higher mountain areas of MHZ and UHZ, leading to higher SD in these regions. The accuracy of PMW SD models varies with the magnitude of in-situ SD, as evident from the current study, as well as from many previous studies (Xiao et al., 2020b, a; Dai et al., 2018). However, there are many other factors (such as land cover, snow wetness, grain size, etc.) that can affect the accuracy of SD retrievals (Dong et al., 2005; Foster et al., 2005; Tedesco et al., 2010; Kurvonen and Hallikainen, 1997; Ansari et al., 2019). It is important to note that Notably, the

land cover and snow conditions alter considerably from one range to another in WH. Therefore, for any given parameter (such as SCD, elevation, slope, etc.), the accuracy trend of multifactor SD model estimates is not uniform when compared between different zones. The LHZ has forest vegetation, higher temperature, and higher mean SD (compared to Greater Himalaya). These conditions decline the accuracy of the SD estimates from the PMW multifactor SD model compared to ~~than~~ the estimates observed in MHZ. Whereas, in MHZ, the absence of forest cover, relatively less mean SD (compared to both LHZ, and UHZ), stable snow conditions pose relatively better conditions for SD estimation using PMW data. Therefore, compared to other ranges, ~~in MHZ, the multifactor SD model has shown improved accuracy~~ the multifactor SD model has shown improved accuracy in MHZ. Whereas, in the UHZ, higher SD is present due to which PMW signal saturates; hence larger errors in SD are observed for the multifactor SD model in this region. Thus location (i.e., latitude), land cover, elevation, SCD, and magnitude of in-situ SD ~~altogether~~ play an vital~~important~~ role in the accuracy of multifactor model SD estimates in the WH region.

The developed model has shown improved performance as compared to other tested approaches in the WH region. However, the transferability of the multifactor model to the other regions specifically mountainous regions is uncertain. This is due to the fact that the relationship of SD with topographical conditions and SCD can potentially change in the other regions. The proposed multifactor model coefficients attempt to improve SD estimates as per prevailing snow conditions in WH. Understanding the influence of topographical conditions, and snow persistency, and snow pack dynamics is essential for using the model outside the WH.

7. Summary and Conclusions

~~The contrasting climate and snow conditions prevailing in Western Himalaya (WH) zones present new challenges in accurate snow depth (SD) retrievals using spaceborne Passive Microwave (PMW) remote sensing. The limited access to in-situ SD data, rugged topography, and inclement weather resulted in fewer SD studies over the WH region. The analysis of operational PMW SD products (i.e., AMSR2 SD) available at the hemisphere scale also indicates a significant amount of missing data in WH.~~

~~Considering the topographical and climate conditions, the WH region is divided into three zones, i.e., LHZ, MHZ, and UHZ, in this study. In the mountainous region, the topography parameters, i.e., elevation and slope, affect the snow precipitation and its persistence. Therefore, the current study presents a multifactor approach that considers a number of auxiliary parameters, such as terrain (elevation, slope), location, SCD, etc., for developing the PMW SD model using multifrequency AMSR2 TB observations. Different regression approaches (i.e., linear, logarithmic, reciprocal, and power) are used for developing the multifactor SD model to estimate SD at 500 m spatial resolution in each WH zone. The overall results~~

indicate power regression performed better compared to other tested approaches in all zones. The results of the multifactor model from power regression are evaluated by comparing the SD estimates with ground SD, other SD products, and PMW models. The results indicate under deep snow (>25 cm) conditions the developed multifactor model has shown higher accuracy compared to the AMSR2 operational SD product and other SD models. However, the accuracy of SD from the multifactor model is affected by variations in auxiliary parameters such as SCD, elevation, etc. With an increase in SCD, the SD increased in each WH zone. Further, the RMSE error associated with SD is also increased alongside SCD and SD in each WH zone. The MHZ has stable snow conditions with relatively less thick snowpack. Therefore, the multifactor SD model in this region has shown improved accuracy for a given SD class compared to other WH zones. Overall, the proposed multifactor SD models for WH zones have demonstrated substantial improvement in estimating SD compared to the operational AMSR2 SD product, heritage SD model, i.e., Chang's model, and previous models developed within WH zones. Though multifactor SD model has outperformed other models and products, there is still scope for improving PMW SD estimates in WH. The developed model(s) has shown poor performance compared to AMSR2 products when SD <25 cm. This can be possibly attributed to wet snow conditions prevailing in the early winter, i.e., when SD will be shallow. Further, the inclusion of snowpack characteristics such as snow grain size, wetness, density data during the model development can improve the accuracy of SD estimates. The available in-situ SD observations are very limited considering the high spatiotemporal variability of SD in this region. Therefore, there is an immediate need of expanding the in-situ network of monitoring stations, and field-based studies to determine the first-hand knowledge of snowpack information in WH region. Additionally, the potential of machine learning models for SD estimation in WH is not explored and can be investigated for the betterment of SD. The contrasting climate and snow conditions prevailing in WH zones present new challenges in accurate SD retrievals using PMW remote sensing. The limited access to in-situ SD data, rugged topography, and inclement weather resulted in fewer SD studies over the WH region. In the mountainous region, the topography parameters, i.e., elevation and slope, affect the snow precipitation and its persistence.

In this study, different regression approaches (i.e., linear, logarithmic, reciprocal, and power) are used for developing the multifactor SD models using multifrequency AMSR2 TB observations and auxiliary parameters (such as terrain (elevation, slope), location, SCD, etc.,) to estimate SD at 500 m spatial resolution in each WH zone. The overall results indicate that power regression performed better than other tested approaches in all zones. Further, the results of the multifactor model from power regression are evaluated by comparing the SD estimates with ground SD, other SD products, and PMW models. The results indicate that under deep snow (>25 cm) conditions, the developed multifactor model has shown higher accuracy than AMSR2 operational SD product and other SD models. However, the accuracy of SD from the multifactor model is affected by variations in auxiliary parameters such as SCD, elevation, etc. With an increase in SCD, the SD increased in each WH zone. Additionally, the RMSE error associated with SD is also increased alongside SCD and SD in each WH zone. The

MHZ has stable snow conditions with relatively less thick snowpack. Therefore, the multifactor SD model in this region has shown improved accuracy for a given SD class compared to other WH zones. Overall, the proposed multifactor SD models for WH zones have demonstrated substantial improvement in estimating SD compared to the operational AMSR2 SD product, heritage SD model, i.e., Chang's model, and previous models developed within WH zones.

Though the multifactor SD model has outperformed other models and products, there is still scope for improving PMW SD estimates in WH. The multifactor model is applicable only to dry snow conditions. However, in WH even during the peak winter substantial area is covered by wet snow. This constrains the utility of multifactor model for these regions. The developed model(s) has shown poor performance compared to AMSR2 products when SD <25 cm. This can be possibly attributed to wet snow conditions prevailing in the early winter, i.e., when SD will be shallow. Further, the inclusion of snowpack characteristics such as snow grain size, wetness, and density data during the model development can improve the accuracy of SD estimates. The available in-situ SD observations are very limited considering the high spatiotemporal variability of SD in this region. Therefore, there is an immediate need to expand the in-situ network of monitoring stations, and field-based studies to determine the first-hand knowledge of snowpack information in the WH region. The brightness temperature datasets used in this work are resampled to 500 m. Instead of resampling, downscaling the TB can be tested for further improvement of model. It is also worthwhile to investigate how downscaling the TB to different resolutions will impact the model performance. Recently, different machine learning models are extensively used for modelling SD in many studies (Tedesco et al., 2004, Liang et al 2016, Tanniru and Ramsankaran, 2023). The potential of such machine learning approaches can be investigated for improving the SD estimation.

Author contributions

Dhiraj Kumar Singh and Tanniru Srinivasarao have equally contributed for the completion of work and development of manuscript. Dhiraj Kumar Singh, Tanniru Srinivasarao, and RAAJ Ramsankaran designed the working methodology of the study. Kamal Kant Singh and Harendra Singh Negi assisted in curating the in-situ data and analysis of the results and discussions. Dhiraj Kumar Singh and Tanniru Srinivasarao have executed the overall work and wrote the manuscript. All the authors were involved in manuscript revisions. RAAJ Ramsankaran supervised the work.

Data availability

The in-situ dataset used in the study can be collected upon request and subject to approval from Defence Geoinformatics Research Establishment, Chandigarh, India.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This work was sponsored by Defence Geoinformatics Research Establishment (DGRE), DRDO, under Contract for Acquisition of Research Services (CARS) project. The authors are grateful to the Director DGRE and Chairman CARS review committee of DGRE for their guidance and technical suggestions during the different milestones of the project. The support of DGRE team is also appreciated during field visits. We are also thankful to JAXA for providing AMSR2 data for carrying out this work.

References

Ahmad, S.: Impact of climate change on cryosphere-atmosphere-biosphere interaction over the Garhwal Himalaya, India, Disaster Advances, 13, 2020.

Amlien, Jostein.: Remote sensing of snow with passive microwave radiometers. A review of current algorithms., 1–52 pp., 2008.

Ansari, H., Marofi, S., and Mohamadi, M.: Topography and Land Cover Effects on Snow Water Equivalent Estimation Using AMSR-E and GLDAS Data, Water Resources Management, 33, 1699–1715, https://doi.org/10.1007/S11269-019-2200-0, 2019.

Aschbacher: Land Surface Studies and Atmospheric Effects by Satellite Microwave Radiometry, University of Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria, 1989.

Bernier, P. Y.: Microwave Remote Sensing of Snowpack Properties: Potential and Limitations, Hydrology Research, 18, 1–20, https://doi.org/10.2166/NH.1987.0001, 1987.

Chandrashekar, G. and Sahin, F.: A survey on feature selection methods, Computers and Electrical Engineering, 40, 16–28, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compeleceng.2013.11.024, 2014.

Chang, A. T. C., Foster, J. L., and Hall, D. K.: Nimbus-7 SMMR Derived Global Snow Cover Parameters, Ann Glaciol, 9, 39–44, https://doi.org/10.1017/s0260305500000355, 1987.

Chang, A. T. C., Foster, J. L., Hall, D. K., Robinson, D. A., Peiji, L., and Meisheng, C.: The use of microwave radiometer data for characterizing snow storage in western China, Ann Glaciol, 16, 215–219, https://doi.org/10.3189/1992aog16-1-215-219, 1992.

Chang, A. T. C., Foster, J. L., Hall, D. K., Goodison, B. E., Walker, A. E., Metcalfe, J. R., and Harby, A.: Snow parameters derived from microwave measurements during the BOREAS winter field campaign, Journal of Geophysical Research Atmospheres, 102, 29663–29671, https://doi.org/10.1029/96JD03327, 1997.

745   Che, T., Dai, L., Zheng, X., Li, X., and Zhao, K.: Estimation of snow depth from passive microwave brightness temperature data in forest regions of northeast China, Remote Sens Environ, 183, 334–349, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2016.06.005, 2016.

Dai, L., Che, T., Xie, H., and Wu, X.: Estimation of Snow Depth over the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau Based on AMSR-E and MODIS Data, Remote Sensing 2018, Vol. 10, Page 1989, 10, 1989, https://doi.org/10.3390/RS10121989, 2018.

750   Das, I. and Sarwade, R. N.: Snow depth estimation over north-western Indian Himalaya using AMSR-E, Int J Remote Sens, 29, 4237–4248, https://doi.org/10.1080/01431160701874595, 2008.

Derksen, C.: The contribution of AMSR-E 18.7 and 10.7 GHz measurements to improved boreal forest snow water equivalent retrievals, Remote Sens Environ, 112, 2701–2710, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2008.01.001, 2008.

Dietz, A. J., Kuenzer, C., Gessner, U., and Dech, S.: Remote sensing of snow – a review of available methods, Int J Remote
755   Sens, 33, 4094–4134, https://doi.org/10.1080/01431161.2011.640964, 2012.

Dimri, A. P. and Dash, S. K.: Wintertime climatic trends in the western Himalayas, Clim Change, 111, 775–800, https://doi.org/10.1007/S10584-011-0201-Y, 2012.

Dong, C.: Remote sensing, hydrological modeling and in situ observations in snow cover research: A review, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.04.027, 1 June 2018.

760   Dong, J., Walker, J. P., and Houser, P. R.: Factors affecting remotely sensed snow water equivalent uncertainty, Remote Sens Environ, 97, 68–82, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2005.04.010, 2005.

Estilow, T. W., Young, A. H., and Robinson, D. A.: A long-term Northern Hemisphere snow cover extent data record for climate studies and monitoring, Earth Syst. Sci. Data, 7, 137–142, https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-7-137-2015, 2015.

Farr, T. G., Rosen, P. A., Caro, E., Crippen, R., Duren, R., Hensley, S., Kobrick, M., Paller, M., Rodriguez, E., Roth, L.,
765   Seal, D., Shaffer, S., Shimada, J., Umland, J., Werner, M., Oskin, M., Burbank, D., and Alsdorf, D. E.: The shuttle radar topography mission, Reviews of Geophysics, 45, https://doi.org/10.1029/2005RG000183, 2007.

Ferraro, R. R., Weng, F., Grody, N. C., and Basist, A.: An Eight-Year (1987-1994) Time Series of Rainfall, Clouds, Water Vapor, Snow Cover, and Sea Ice Derived from SSM/I Measurements, Bull Am Meteorol Soc, 77, 891–905, https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0477(1996)077<0891:AEYTSO>2.0.CO;2, 1996.

770   Foster, J., Chang, A. T. C., and Hall, D. K.: Comparison of snow mass estimates from a prototype passive microwave snow algorithm, a revised algorithm and a snow depth climatology, Remote Sens Environ, 62, 132–142, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257(97)00085-0, 1997.

Foster, J. L., Sun, C., Walker, J. P., Kelly, R., Chang, A., Dong, J., and Powell, H.: Quantifying the uncertainty in passive microwave snow water equivalent observations, Remote Sens Environ, 94, 187–203, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2004.09.012, 2005.

Ganju, A., Thakur, N. K., and Rana, V.: Characteristics of Avalanche Accidents in Western Himalayan Region, India, in: Proceedings ISSMA-2004, Manali., 97–102, 2004.

Graf, T., Koike, T., Li, X., Hirai, M., and Tsutsui, H.: Assimilating passive microwave brightness temperature data into a land surface model to improve the snow depth predictability, International Geoscience and Remote Sensing Symposium (IGARSS), 710–713, https://doi.org/10.1109/IGARSS.2006.185, 2006.

Grippa, M., Mognard, N., le Toan, T., and Josberger, E. G.: Siberia snow depth climatology derived from SSM/I data using a combined dynamic and static algorithm, Remote Sens Environ, 93, 30–41, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2004.06.012, 2004.

Grody, N. C. and Basist, A. N.: Global identification of snowcover using ssm/i measurements, IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing, 34, 237–249, https://doi.org/10.1109/36.481908, 1996.

Gurung, D. R., Giriraj, A., Aung, K. S., Shrestha, B., and Kulkarni, A. v.: Snow-Cover Mapping and Monitoring in the Hindu Kush-Himalayas, https://doi.org/10.53055/ICIMOD.550, 2011a.

Gurung, D. R., Amarnath, G., Khun, S. A., Basanta, R. S., and Anil V. Kulkarni.: Snow-Cover Mapping and Monitoring in the Hindu Kush-Himalayas, 2011b.

Gusain, H. S., Mishra, V. D., Arora, M. K., Mamgain, S., and Singh, D. K.: Operational algorithm for generation of snow depth maps from discrete data in Indian Western Himalaya, Cold Reg Sci Technol, 126, 22–29, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coldregions.2016.02.012, 2016.

Imaoka, K., Maeda, T., Kachi, M., Kasahara, M., Ito, N., and Nakagawa, K.: Status of AMSR2 instrument on GCOM-W1, In Earth observing missions and sensors, Development, implementation, and characterization II, 8528, 201-206, https://doi.org/10.1117/12.977774, 2011.

Jarvis, A., Reuter, H., Nelson, A., and Guevara, E.: Hole-filled SRTM for the globe Version 4, available from the CGIAR-CSI SRTM 90m Database, 2008.

Jiang, L. M., Wang, P., Zhang, L. X., Yang, H., and Yang, J. T.: Improvement of snow depth retrieval for FY3B-MWRI in China, Sci China Earth Sci, 57, 1278–1292, https://doi.org/10.1007/s11430-013-4798-8, 2014.

Joshi, J. C., Tankeshwar, K., and Srivastava, S.: Hidden Markov Model for quantitative prediction of snowfall and analysis of hazardous snowfall events over Indian Himalaya, Journal of Earth System Science, 126, 1–12, https://doi.org/10.1007/s12040-017-0810-6, 2017.

Kelly, R. E., Chang, A. T., Tsang, L., and Foster, J. L.: A prototype AMSR-E global snow area and snow depth algorithm, IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing, 41, 230–242, https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2003.809118, 2003.

805 Kelly, R. E. J., Chang, A. T. C., Tsang, L., and Chen, C. T.: Parameterization of snowpack grain size for global satellite microwave estimates of snow depth, International Geoscience and Remote Sensing Symposium (IGARSS), 1, 686–688, https://doi.org/10.1109/IGARSS.2002.1025146, 2002.

Kelly, R. E. J., Chang, A. T. C., Foster, J. L., and Hall, D. K.: Using Remote Sensing and Spatial Models to Monitor Snow Depth and Snow Water Equivalent, in: Spatial Modelling of the Terrestrial Environment,
810 https://doi.org/10.1002/0470094001.ch3, 2005.

Kinar, N. J. and Pomeroy, J. W.: Measurement of the physical properties of the snowpack, Reviews of Geophysics, 53, 481–544, https://doi.org/10.1002/2015RG000481, 2015.

Kumar, P., Saharwardi, M. S., Banerjee, A., Azam, M. F., Dubey, A. K., and Murtugudde, R.: Snowfall Variability Dictates Glacier Mass Balance Variability in Himalaya-Karakoram, Scientific Reports 2019 9:1, 9, 1–9,
815 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-54553-9, 2019.

Kurvonen, L. and Hallikainen, M.: Influence of land-cover category on brightness temperature of snow, IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing, 35, 367–377, https://doi.org/10.1109/36.563276, 1997.

Kwon, Y., Yang, Z. L., Hoar, T. J., and Toure, A. M.: Improving the Radiance Assimilation Performance in Estimating Snow Water Storage across Snow and Land-Cover Types in North America, J Hydrometeorol, 18, 651–668,
820 https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-16-0102.1, 2017.

Liang, J., Liu, X., Huang, K., Li, X., Shi, X., Chen, Y., and Li, J.: Improved snow depth retrieval by integrating microwave brightness temperature and visible/infrared reflectance, Remote Sens Environ, 156, 500–509, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2014.10.016, 2015.

825 Lemke, P., Ren, J., Alley, R. B., Allison, I., Carrasco, J., Flato, G., Fujii, Y., Kaser, G., Mote, P., Thomas, R. H., and Zhang, T.: AR4 - Changes in snow, ice and frozen ground, Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2007.

Luojus, K., Pulliainen, J., Takala, M., Lemmetyinen, J., Mortimer, C., Derksen, C., Mudryk, L., Moisander, M., Hiltunen, M., Smolander, T., Ikonen, J., Cohen, J., Salminen, M., Norberg, J., Veijola, K., and Venäläinen, P.: GlobSnow v3.0
830 Northern Hemisphere snow water equivalent dataset, Scientific Data 2021 8:1, 8, 1–16, https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-021-00939-2, 2021.

McClung, D. M.: Avalanche character and fatalities in the high mountains of Asia, Ann Glaciol, 57, 114–118, https://doi.org/10.3189/2016AoG71A075, 2016.

Muhammad, S. and Thapa, A.: An improved Terra-Aqua MODIS snow cover and Randolph Glacier Inventory 6.0 combined
835   product (MOYDGL06∗) for high-mountain Asia between 2002 and 2018, Earth Syst Sci Data, 12, 345–356,
https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-345-2020, 2020.

Mukherji, A., Sinisalo, A., Nüsser, M., Garrard, R., and Eriksson, M.: Contributions of the cryosphere to mountain
communities in the Hindu Kush Himalaya: a review, Regional Environmental Change 2019 19:5, 19, 1311–1326,
https://doi.org/10.1007/S10113-019-01484-W, 2019.

840   Negi, H. S., Kanda, N., and Ganju, A.: Recent wintertime climatic variability over the North West Himalayan cryosphere,
Curr Sci, 114, 760–770, 2018.

Negi, H. S., Ganju, A., Kanda, N., and Gusain, H. S.: Climate Change and Cryospheric Response Over North-West and
Central Himalaya, India, Himalayan Weather and Climate and their Impact on the Environment, 309–330,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-29684-1_16, 2020.

845   Nüsser, M., Dame, J., Parveen, S., Kraus, B., Baghel, R., and Schmidt, S.: Cryosphere-Fed Irrigation Networks in the
Northwestern Himalaya: Precarious Livelihoods and Adaptation Strategies Under the Impact of Climate Change, Mt Res
Dev, 39, R1–R11, https://doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-18-00072.1, 2019.

Obaid, H. S., Dheyab, S. A., and Sabry, S. S.: The impact of data pre-processing techniques and dimensionality reduction on
the accuracy of machine learning, in: IEMECON 2019 - 9th Annual Information Technology, Electromechanical
850   Engineering and Microelectronics Conference, 279–283, https://doi.org/10.1109/IEMECONX.2019.8877011, 2019.

Rango, A., Chang, A. T. C., and Foster, J. L.: UTILIZATION OF SPACEBORNE MICROWAVE RADIOMETERS FOR
MONITORING SNOWPACK PROPERTIES., Nord Hydrol, 10, 25–40, https://doi.org/10.2166/NH.1979.0003, 1979.

Saraf, A. K., Tarafdar, S., Foster, J. L., and Singh, P.: Passive microwave data for snow-depth and snow-extent estimations
in the Himalayan mountains, Int J Remote Sens, 20, 83–95, https://doi.org/10.1080/014311699213613, 1999.

855   Saydi, M. and Ding, J. li: Impacts of topographic factors on regional snow cover characteristics, Water Science and
Engineering, 13, 171–180, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.WSE.2020.09.002, 2020.

Sharma, S. S. and Ganju, A.: Complexities of avalanche forecasting in Western Himalaya - an overview, Cold Reg Sci
Technol, 31, 95–102, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-232X(99)00034-8, 2000.

Sharma, V., Mishra, V. D., and Joshi, P. K.: Topographic controls on spatio-temporal snow cover distribution in Northwest
860   Himalaya, Int J Remote Sens, 35, 3036–3056, https://doi.org/10.1080/01431161.2014.894665, 2014.

Singh, D., Juyal, V., and Sharma, V.: Consistent seasonal snow cover depth and duration variability over the Western
Himalayas (WH), Journal of Earth System Science, 125, 1451–1461, https://doi.org/10.1007/s12040-016-0737-3, 2016.

Singh, D. K., K.K.Singh, V.D.Mishra, and J.K.Sharma: Formulation of Snow Depth Algorithms for Different regions of NW-Himalaya using Passive Microwave Satellite Data, International Journal of Engineering Research & Technology, 1, 2012.

Singh, D. K., Gusain, H. S., Mishra, V., and Gupta, N.: Snow cover variability in North-West Himalaya during last decade, Arabian Journal of Geosciences, 11, https://doi.org/10.1007/S12517-018-3926-3, 2018.

Singh, K. K. and Mishra, V. D.: Snow cover study of northwest Himalaya using passive microwave remote sensing data, in: Microwave Remote Sensing of the Atmosphere and Environment V, 641014, https://doi.org/10.1117/12.693942, 2006.

Singh, K. K., Mishra, V. D., and Negi, H. S.: Evaluation of snow parameters using passive microwave remote sensing, Def Sci J, 57, 271–278, https://doi.org/10.14429/dsj.57.1754, 2007.

Singh, K. K., Kumar, A., Kulkarni, A. V., Datt, P., Dewali, S. K., Kumar, V., and Chauhan, R.: Snow depth estimation in the Indian Himalaya using multi-channel passive microwave radiometer, Curr Sci, 108, 942–953, https://doi.org/10.18520/CS/V108/I5/942-953, 2015.

Singh, K. K., Kumar, R., Singh, D. K., Negi, H. S., Dewali, S. K., and Kedia, J.: Retrieving snow cover information from AMSR-2 satellite data for North-West Himalaya, India, Geocarto Int, 35, https://doi.org/10.1080/10106049.2019.1588394, 2020.

Singh, S. K., Rathore, B. P., Bahuguna, I. M., and Ajai: Snow cover variability in the Himalayan–Tibetan region, International Journal of Climatology, 34, 446–452, https://doi.org/10.1002/JOC.3697, 2014.

Stiles, W. H. and Ulaby, F. T.: The active and passive microwave response to snow parameters: 1. Wetness, J Geophys Res Oceans, 85, 1037–1044, https://doi.org/10.1029/JC085IC02P01037, 1980.

Takala, M., Luojus, K., Pulliainen, J., Derksen, C., Lemmetyinen, J., Kärnä, J. P., Koskinen, J., and Bojkov, B.: Estimating northern hemisphere snow water equivalent for climate research through assimilation of space-borne radiometer data and ground-based measurements, Remote Sens Environ, 115, 3517–3529, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2011.08.014, 2011.

Tanniru, S. and Ramsankaran, R. A. A. J.: Passive Microwave Remote Sensing of Snow Depth: Techniques, Challenges and Future Directions, https://doi.org/10.3390/rs15041052, 1 February 2023.

Tedesco, M. and Narvekar, P. S.: Assessment of the NASA AMSR-E SWE Product, IEEE J Sel Top Appl Earth Obs Remote Sens, 3, 141–159, https://doi.org/10.1109/JSTARS.2010.2040462, 2010.

Tedesco, M., Pulliainen, J., Takala, M., Hallikainen, M., and Pampaloni, P.: Artificial neural network-based techniques for the retrieval of SWE and snow depth from SSM/I data, Remote Sens Environ, 90, 76–85, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2003.12.002, 2004.

Tedesco, M., Reichle, R., Löw, A., Markus, T., and Foster, J. L.: Dynamic approaches for snow depth retrieval from spaceborne microwave brightness temperature, IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing, 48, 1955–1967, https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2009.2036910, 2010.

Tedesco, M., Derksen, C., Deems, J. S., and Foster, J. L.: Remote sensing of snow depth and snow water equivalent, in: Remote Sensing of the Cryosphere, https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118368909.ch5, 2014.

Thakur, P. K., Garg, V., Nikam, B. R., and Aggarwal, S. P.: Cryosphere Studies in Northwest Himalaya, Remote Sensing of Northwest Himalayan Ecosystems, 69–107, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-2128-3_5, 2019.

Trujillo, E., Ramírez, J. A., and Elder, K. J.: Topographic, meteorologic, and canopy controls on the scaling characteristics of the spatial distribution of snow depth fields, Water Resour Res, 43, https://doi.org/10.1029/2006WR005317, 2007.

Velliangiri, S., Alagumuthukrishnan, S., and Thankumar Joseph, S. I.: A Review of Dimensionality Reduction Techniques for Efficient Computation, in: Procedia Computer Science, 104–111, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2020.01.079, 2019.

Vishwakarma, B. D., Ramsankaran, R. A. A. J., Azam, M. F., Bolch, T., Mandal, A., Srivastava, S., Kumar, P., Sahu, R., Navinkumar, P. J., Tanniru, S. R., Javed, A., Soheb, M., Dimri, A. P., Yadav, M., Devaraju, B., Chinnasamy, P., Reddy, M. J., Murugesan, G. P., Arora, M., Jain, S. K., Ojha, C. S. P., Harrison, S., and Bamber, J.: Challenges in Understanding the Variability of the Cryosphere in the Himalaya and Its Impact on Regional Water Resources, https://doi.org/10.3389/frwa.2022.909246, 28 July 2022.

Wang, J., Huang, X., Wang, Y., and Liang, T.: Retrieving Snow Depth Information from AMSR2 Data for Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, IEEE J Sel Top Appl Earth Obs Remote Sens, 13, https://doi.org/10.1109/JSTARS.2020.2970738, 2020.

Wang, P., Jiang, L., Zhang, L., and Guo, Y.: Impact of terrain topography on retrieval of snow water equivalence using passive microwave remote sensing, in: International Geoscience and Remote Sensing Symposium (IGARSS), 1757–1760, https://doi.org/10.1109/IGARSS.2010.5652279, 2010.

Wang, Y., Huang, X., Wang, J., Zhou, M., and Liang, T.: AMSR2 snow depth downscaling algorithm based on a multifactor approach over the Tibetan Plateau, China, Remote Sens Environ, 231, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2019.111268, 2019.

Webb, G. I., Sammut, C., Perlich, C., Horváth, T., Wrobel, S., Korb, K. B., Noble, W. S., Leslie, C., Lagoudakis, M. G., Quadrianto, N., Buntine, W. L., Quadrianto, N., Buntine, W. L., Getoor, L., Namata, G., Getoor, L., Han, X. J. J., Ting, J.-A., Vijayakumar, S., Schaal, S., and Raedt, L. de: Leave-One-Out Cross-Validation, in: Encyclopedia of Machine Learning, Springer US, 600–601, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30164-8_469, 2011.

Wei, Y., Li, X., Gu, L., Zheng, X., Jiang, T., Li, X., and Wan, X.: A Dynamic Snow Depth Inversion Algorithm Derived from AMSR2 Passive Microwave Brightness Temperature Data and Snow Characteristics in Northeast China, IEEE J Sel Top Appl Earth Obs Remote Sens, 14, 5123–5136, https://doi.org/10.1109/JSTARS.2021.3079703, 2021.

Xiao, L., Che, T., and Dai, L.: Evaluation of Remote Sensing and Reanalysis Snow Depth Datasets over the Northern Hemisphere during 1980–2016, Remote Sensing 2020, Vol. 12, Page 3253, 12, 3253, https://doi.org/10.3390/RS12193253, 2020a.

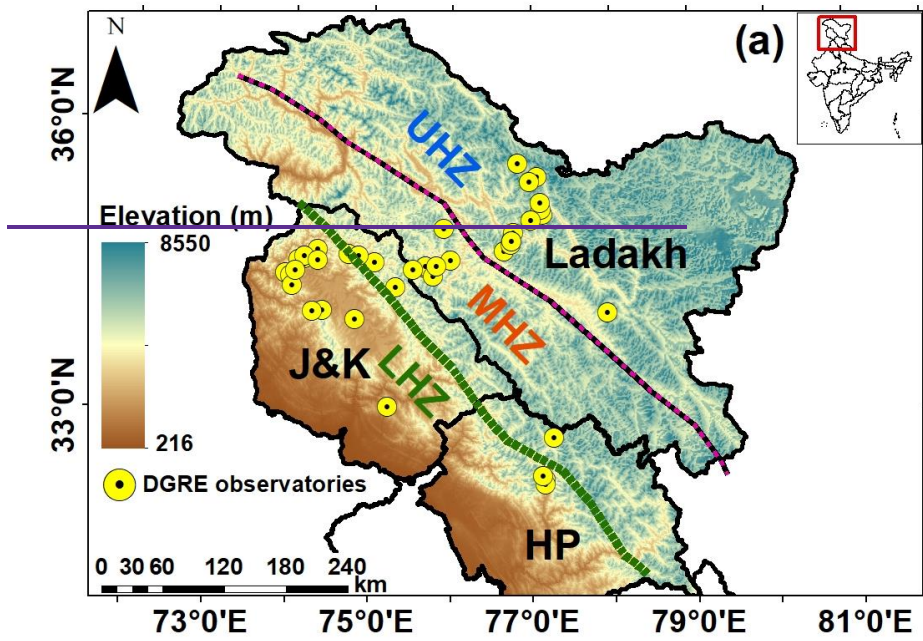
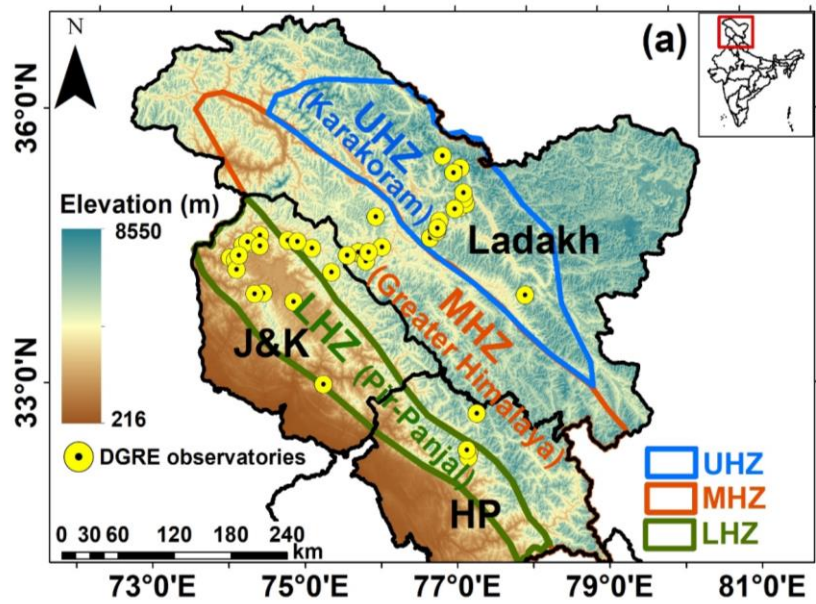
Xiao, X., Zhang, T., Zhong, X., Shao, W., and Li, X.: Support vector regression snow-depth retrieval algorithm using passive microwave remote sensing data, Remote Sens Environ, 210, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2018.03.008, 2018.

Xiao, X., Zhang, T., Zhong, X., and Li, X.: Spatiotemporal Variation of Snow Depth in the Northern Hemisphere from 1992 to 2016, Remote Sensing 2020, Vol. 12, Page 2728, 12, 2728, https://doi.org/10.3390/RS12172728, 2020b.

Yang, J., Jiang, L., Luojus, K., Pan, J., Lemmetyinen, J., Takala, M., and Wu, S.: Snow depth estimation and historical data reconstruction over China based on a random forest machine learning approach, Cryosphere, 14, 1763–1778, https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-14-1763-2020, 2020.

Yang, J. W., Jiang, L. M., Lemmetyinen, J., Pan, J. M., Luojus, K., and Takala, M.: Improving snow depth estimation by coupling HUT-optimized effective snow grain size parameters with the random forest approach, Remote Sens Environ, 264, 112630, https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2021.112630, 2021.

You, Q., Kang, S., Ren, G., Fraedrich, K., Pepin, N., Yan, Y., and Ma, L.: Observed changes in snow depth and number of snow days in the eastern and central Tibetan Plateau, https://doi.org/10.3354/cr00985, 2011.

Mukul, M., Srivastava, V., Jade, S. et al.: Uncertainties in the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) Heights: Insights from the Indian Himalaya and Peninsula. Sci Rep 7, 41672 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1038/srep41672.

945 **Figure. 1. (a) Elevation variability of WH zones (i.e., LHZ: Lower Himalayan Zone; MHZ: Middle Himalayan Zone; UHZ: Upper Himalayan Zone) and DGRE observatories distribution (Note: J&K is Jammu & Kashmir, HP is Himachal Pradesh)**

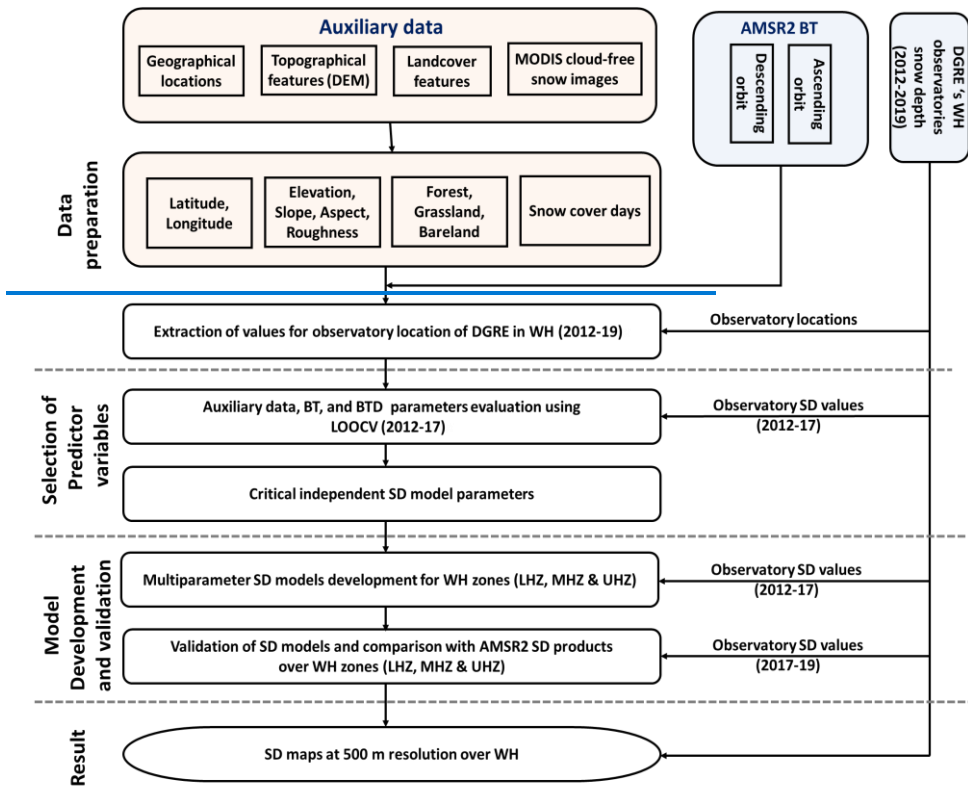
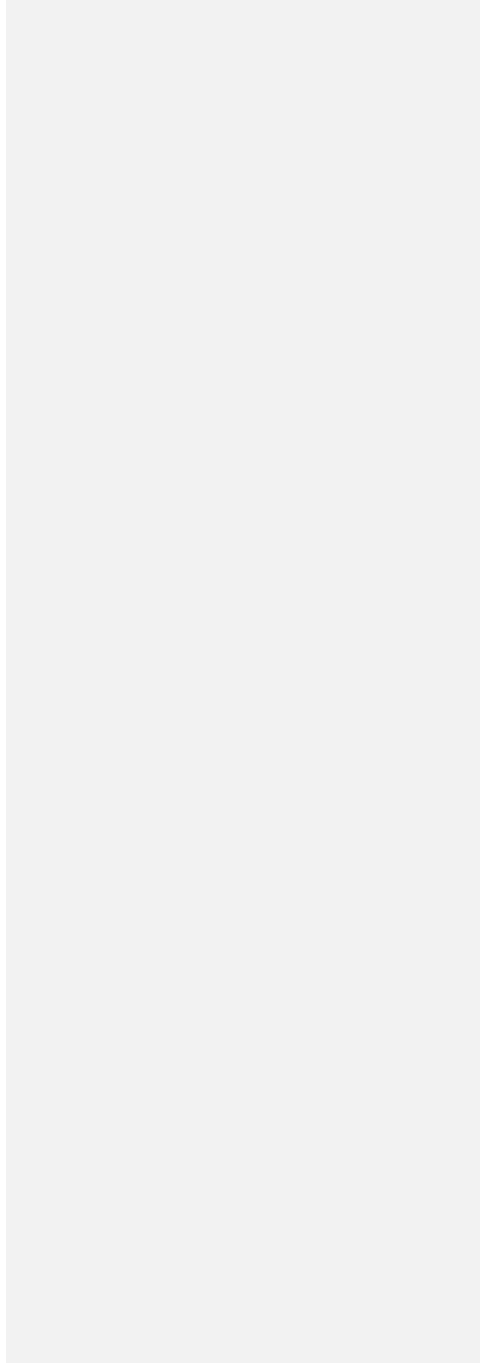
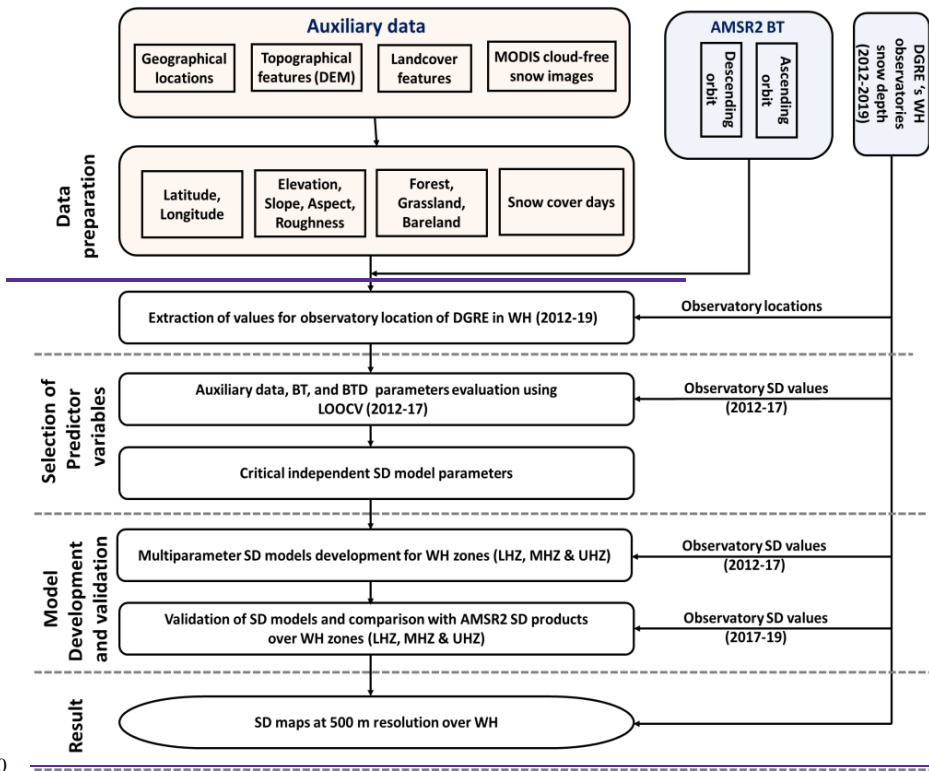



Figure. 2. Flowchart representing the methodology

950

955

960

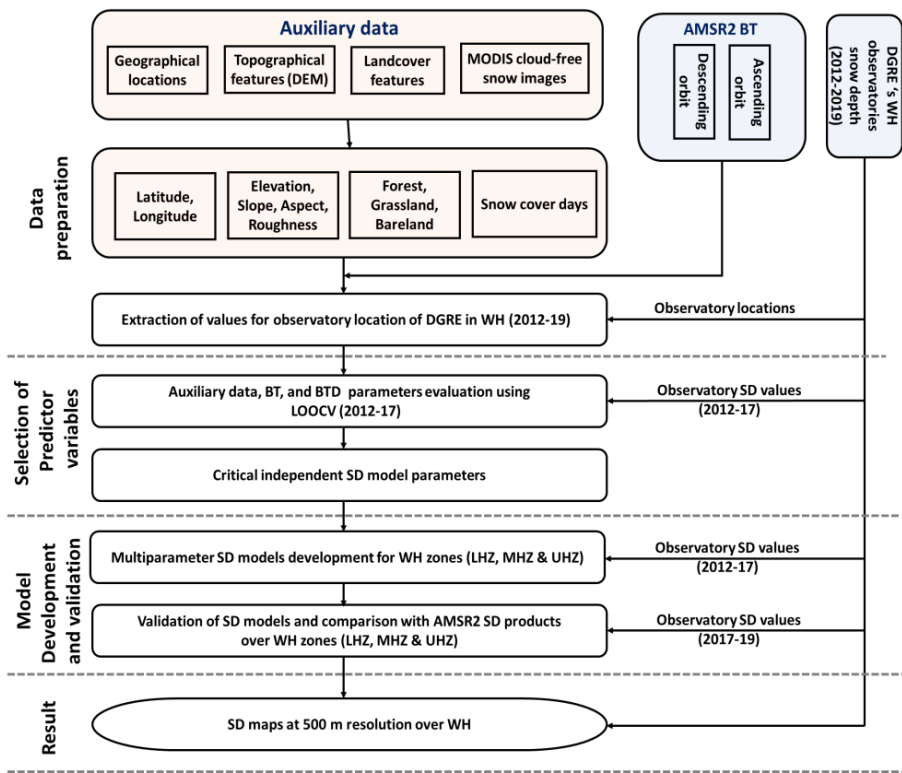
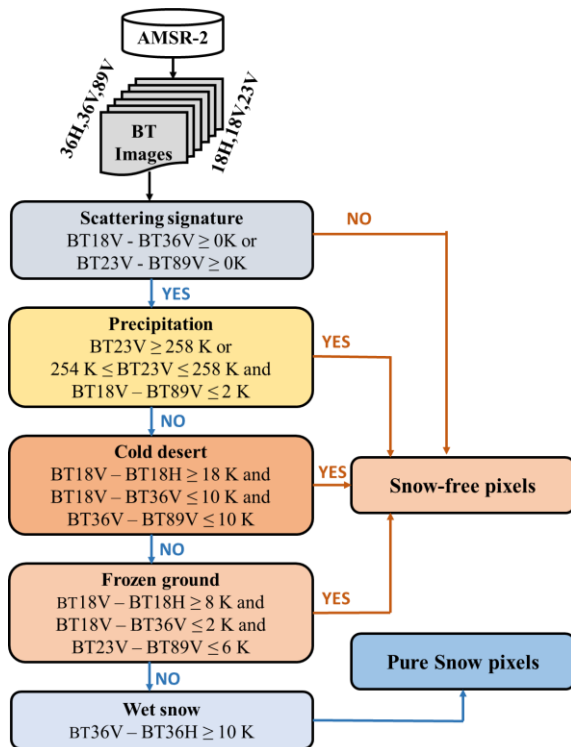



Figure. 2. Flowchart representing the methodology

Formatted: Normal

965   **Figure. 3. Identification of pure snow pixel from AMSR2 TB using the decision tree**

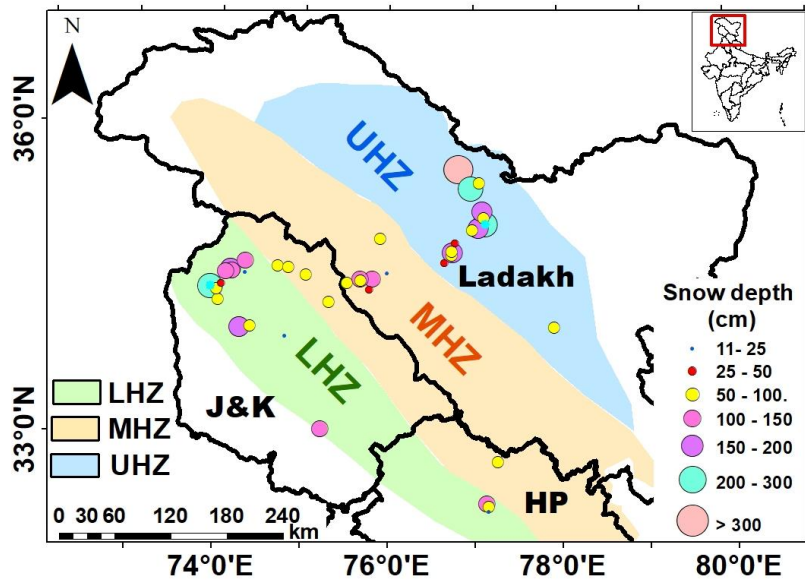



Figure. 4. Spatial distribution of mean SD in WH zones along DGRE stations during 2012-19 (October to March months) (Note: J&K is Jammu & Kashmir, HP is Himachal Pradesh)

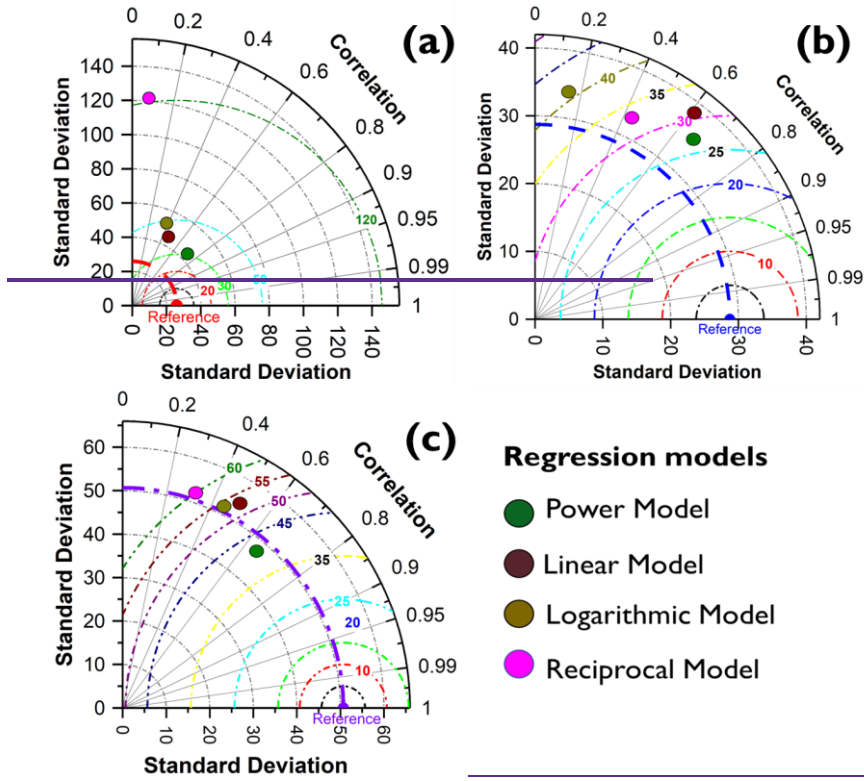
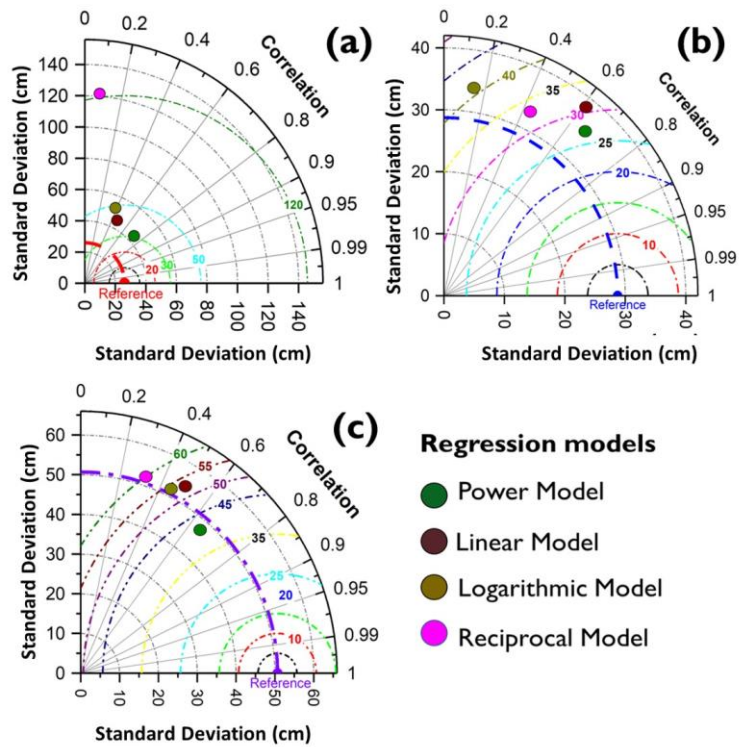



Figure. 5. Taylor diagram for the evaluation of multifactor SD models during 2017-2019 for (a) the LHZ, (b) the MHZ, and (c) the UHZ.

975

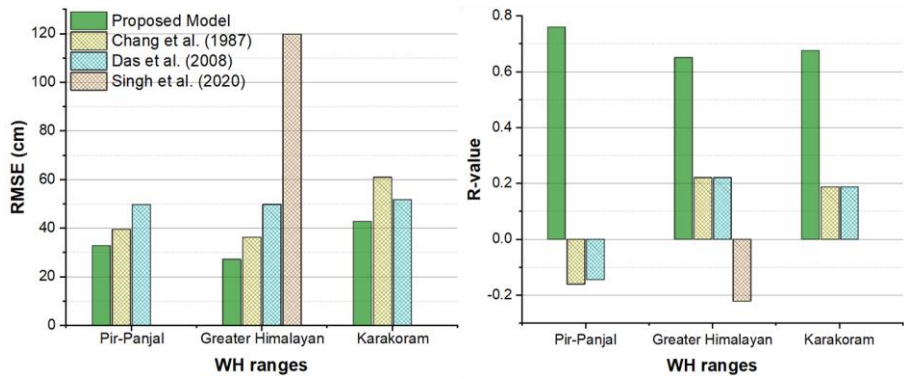



Figure. 6. Comparison of model-estimated and filed-observed SD values in the LHZ (Pir-Panjal), MHZ (Greater Himalayan) and UHZ (Karakoram)LHZ during 2012-2019 (October to March).

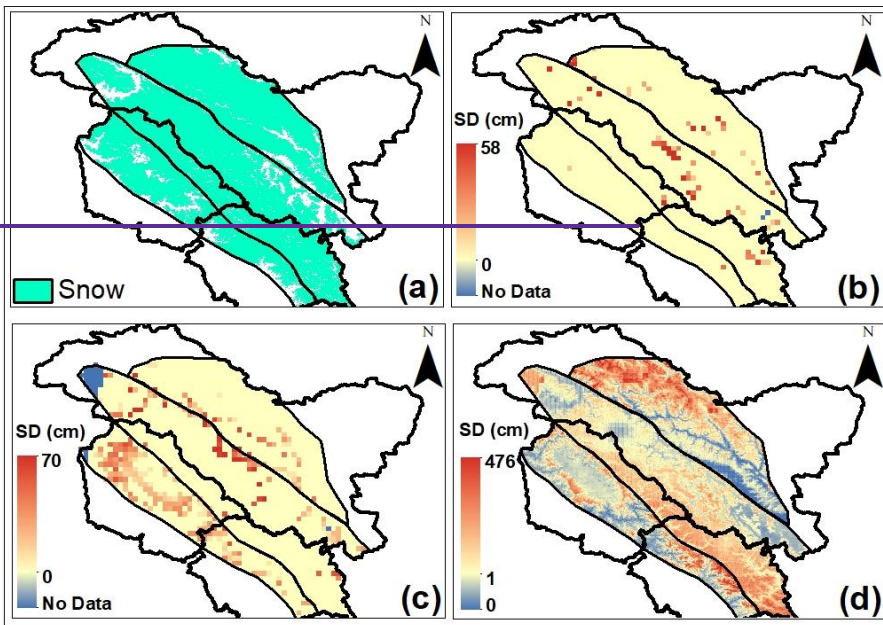
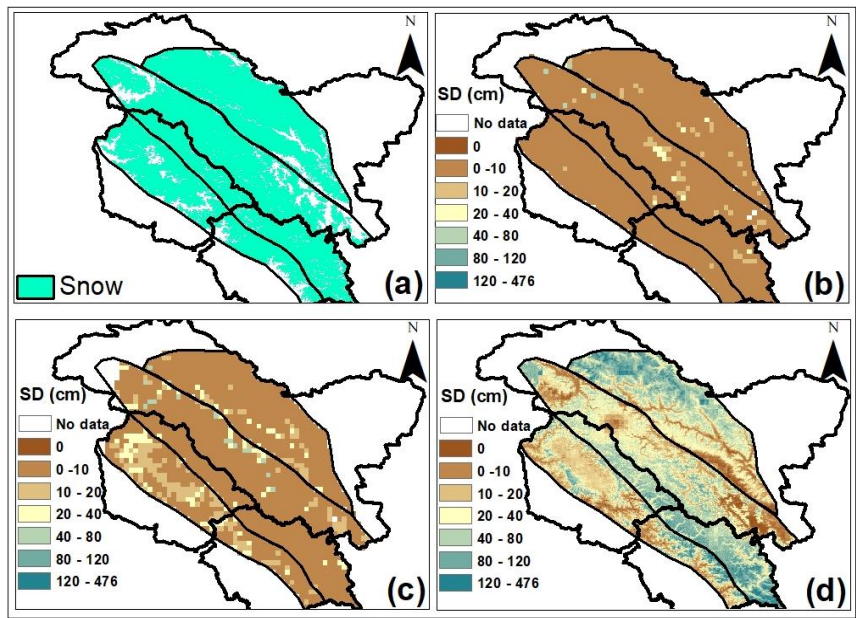



Figure. 7: Spatial map of SD variation on 3rd Feb 2019. (a) MODIS SCA, (b) AMSR2_A SD product map at 10 km, (c) AMSR2_D SD product map at 10 km, and (d) multifactor models SD map at 500 m.

990

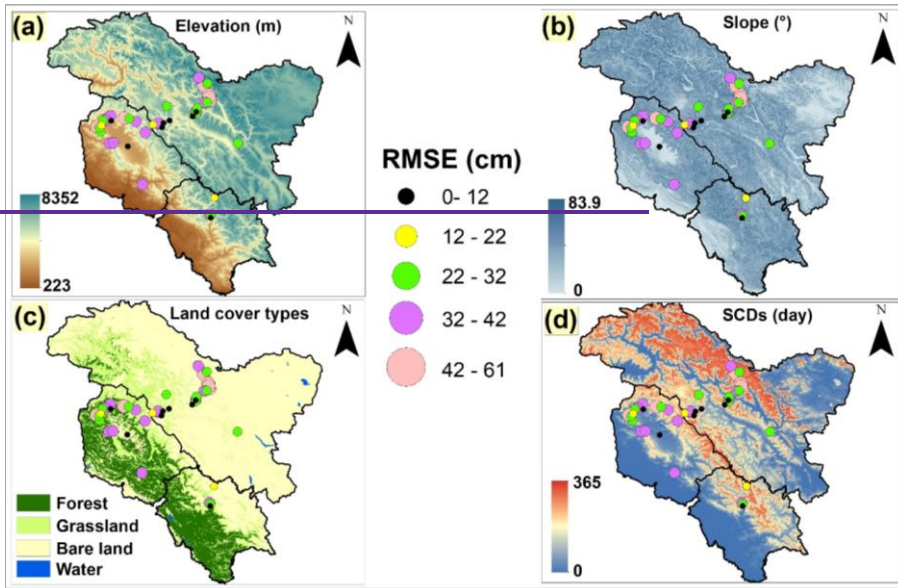
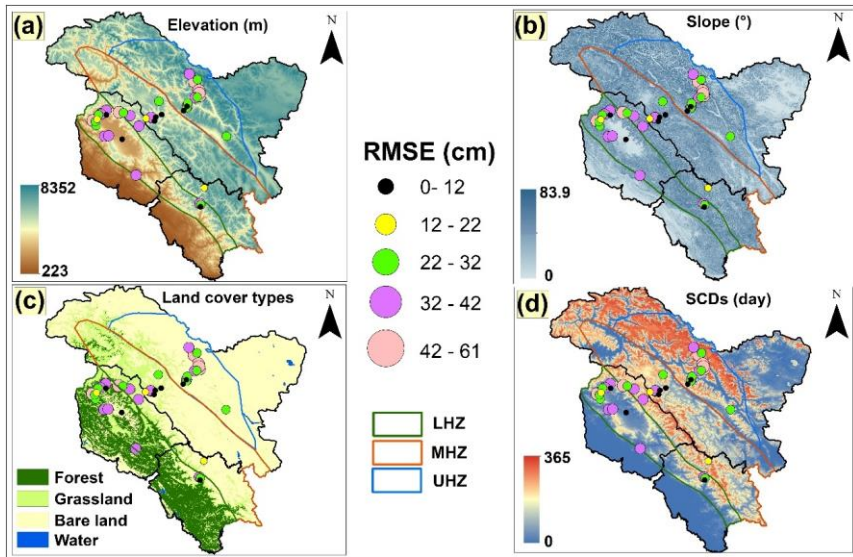



Figure. 8. Spatial distribution of RMSE of multifactor SD model for varying (a) elevation, (b) slope, (c) land cover types, and (d) SCDs along the 43 ground stations

995   **Table 1. Sources of in-situ, remote sensing datasets and their application in the present study**

Data	Source	Role/Applications
In-situ snow depth data	DGRE Data Centre, Chandigarh, India	Development and validation of multifactor SD models
AMSR-2 Brightness temperature Snow depth product	http://gportalcom-w1.jaxa.jp/ (last accessed on: 26/11/2023)	Development, validation, and comparison of multifactor SD models
MODIS Land cover data (MCD12Q1)	www.ladsweb.nascom.nasa.gov https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mcd12q1v006/ (last accessed on 26/11/2023)	Development of SD models
Daily MODIS cloud-free snow cover product	https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.918198 (last accessed on 26/11/2023)	Development of models and model performance analysis
Digital Elevation Model	http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org	Development and model performance analysis

 Table 2. Geomorphic characteristics of the WH zones

Characteristics/Ranges	Lower Himalaya	Middle Himalaya	Upper Himalaya
Area (km^2)	41,107	73,951	38,441
Elevation	1500-4800	1500 -5700	1800-8100
Climate Type	Sub-tropical	Temperate	Polar
Winter snow fall (from -to)	High (Dec-Mar)	Moderate (Oct-Apr)	Scanty (Entire year)
Frequency of high-intensity snowfall events	Occasional	Frequent	Occasional
Vegetation cover presence	Forest: < 3000 m (m.s.l.) Grass: 3000 - 4000 m (m.s.l.)	Grass: <3000 m (m.s.l)	----
Snowpack persistence up to	Early spring	Spring	Summer

Table 3. Results of LOOCV evaluation for SD models developed using single parameters

Parameters	Independent Variable (x)	Linear Regression Model	RMSE (cm)	R
Geographical location	Latitude	y = 32x – 1046.81	97.96	0.24
	Longitude	y = 21x – 1573.72	99.30	0.17
Terrain	Elevation	y = 0.029x – 45.81	96.12	0.30
	Aspect	y = - 0.16x + 109.58	99.75	0.14
	Slope	y = - 3.42x + 119.67	97.59	0.26
	Ruggedness	y = - 0.31x + 128.15	97.85	0.25
Cloud-free snow product	SCD	y = 1.14x – 19.58	90.27	0.45
Brightness temperature (Ascending data)	10H	y = - 4.5x + 1210.78	106.28	0.34
	10V	y = -5.77x + 1553.53	105.58	0.36
	18H	y = - 3.9x + 1047.89	104.59	0.39
	18V	y = - 4.8x + 1293.91	103.74	0.40
	23H	y = - 3.59x + 963.28	105.22	0.37
	23V	y = - 4.13x + 1109.64	104.65	0.38
	36H	y = - 2.1x + 587.17	108.81	0.28
	36V	y = - 2.22x + 620.55	109.08	0.27
	89H	y = - 0.24 + 161.87	113.29	0.03
	89V	y = - 0.08x – 90.99	113.35	0.01
Brightness temperature (Descending data)	10H	y = - 3.2x + 858.65	94.28	0.35
	10V	y = - 4.01x + 1071.98	93.96	0.36
	18H	y = - 2.76x + 741.75	93.96	0.36
	18V	y = - 3.4x + 910.08	93.44	0.38
	23H	y = - 2.67x + 706.15	94.05	0.36
	23V	y = - 3.05x + 811.49	93.74	0.37
	36H	y = - 1.78x + 480.19	96.38	0.29
	36V	y = - 1.9x + 522.28	96.42	0.29
	89H	y = - 0.58x + 207.88	100.29	0.10
	89V	y = - 0.45 + 181.84	100.54	0.07

y = SD (cm)

1005

Table 4. BTD SD model (with descending observations) relation with SD and evaluation using LOOCV method

	Sr. No.	Independent Variable (x)	Linear Regression Model	RMSE (in cm)	R
Selected parameters	1	BTD (36H-89V)	y = - 2.24x + 107.05	91.63	0.39
	2	BTD (36V-89V)	y = - 2.16x + 81	92.24	0.37
	3	BTD (10V-23H)	y = 4.12x + 31.05	92.45	0.35
	4	BTD (23H-89V)	y = - 1.78x + 122.17	92.46	0.36
	5	BTD (10V-18V)	y = 7.43x + 52	92.58	0.25
	6	BTD (10H-23H)	y = 4.12x + 56	93.78	0.20
	7	BTD (10H-18H)	y = 5.66x + 58	93.47	0.21
	8	BTD (18H-89V)	y = - 1.61x + 122.34	93.92	0.24
Rejected parameters	9	BTD (10H-36H)	y = 0.85x + 70.11	102.20	0.17
	10	BTD (10H-89H)	y = -0.91x + 114.15	102.16	0.18
	11	BTD (10H-18V)	y = 2.84x + 89.85	102.20	0.17
	12	BTD (10H-23V)	y = 3.29x + 78.28	102.15	0.18
	13	BTD (10H-36V)	y = 0.55x + 77.67	102.21	0.16
	14	BTD (10H-89V)	y = -1.15x + 177.36	102.14	0.19
	15	BTD (10V-18H)	y = 5.10x + 30.11	102.04	0.20
	16	BTD (10V-36H)	y = 1.21x + 56.24	102.17	0.18
	17	BTD (10V-89H)	y = -0.66x + 110.16	102.19	0.17
	18	BTD (10V-23V)	y = 4.93x + 44.79	102.03	0.20
	19	BTD (10V-36V)	y = 1.08x + 63.64	102.18	0.17
	20	BTD (10V-89V)	y = -0.92x + 116.53	102.17	0.18

21	BTD (18H-23H)	y = 3.18x + 77.95	102.19	0.17
22	BTD (18H-36H)	y = 0.18x + 83	102.23	0.16
23	BTD (18H-89H)	y = -1.4x + 122.75	102.09	0.20
24	BTD (18H-23V)	y = -3.92x + 75.13	102.26	0.17
25	BTD (18H-36V)	y = -0.51x + 90.15	102.24	0.16
26	BTD (18V-23H)	y = 6.1x + 32.36	102.08	0.20
27	BTD (18V-36H)	y = 0.86x + 68.45	102.21	0.17
28	BTD (18V-89H)	y = -1.14x + 122.94	102.13	0.19
29	BTD (18V-23V)	y = 6.35x + 61.65	102.13	0.18
30	BTD (18V-36V)	y = 0.43x + 78.64	102.22	0.16
31	BTD (18V-89V)	y = -1.4x + 126.53	102.10	0.20
32	BTD (23H-36H)	y = -0.09x + 86.33	102.23	0.16
33	BTD (23H-89H)	y = -1.57x + 123.73	102.06	0.20
34	BTD (23H-36V)	y = -1.16x + 93.49	102.23	0.17
35	BTD (23V-36H)	y = 0.68x + 74.51	102.22	0.16
36	BTD (23V-89H)	y = -1.36x + 125.26	102.09	0.20
37	BTD (23V-36V)	y = -0.07x + 86.26	102.23	0.16
38	BTD (23V-89V)	y = -1.62x + 126.92	102.06	0.20
39	BTD (36H-89H)	y = -2.10x + 113.67	102.01	0.20
40	BTD (36V-89H)	y = -1.91x + 118.52	102.03	0.19

Note: y = SD (cm)

Parameters	Independent Variable (x)	Linear Regression Model	RMSE (in cm)	R
Brightness	BTD (36H-89V)	y = -2.24x + 107.05	91.63	0.39

Temperature Difference (Descending data)	BTD (36V-89V)	$y = -2.16x + 81$	92.24	0.37
	BTD (10V-23H)	$y = 4.12x + 31.05$	92.45	0.35
	BTD (23H-89V)	$y = -1.78x + 122.17$	92.46	0.36
	BTD (10V-18V)	$y = 7.43x + 52$	92.58	0.25
	BTD (10H-23H)	$y = 4.12x + 56$	93.78	0.20
	BTD (10H-18H)	$y = 5.66x + 58$	93.47	0.21
	BTD (18H-89V)	$y = -1.61x + 122.34$	93.92	0.24

Note: y = SD (cm)

Table 5. Multifactor SD model regression coefficient for WH zones during 2012-2017 (October to March)

WH zones	Model type	Models	R (RMSE)
Lower Himalayan Zone	Linear	$y = -51.16 - 0.09x_1 + 0.08x_2 + 0.94x_3 - 0.24x_4 + 1.15x_5 - 0.37x_6 + 5.21x_7 - 1.6x_8 - 0.40x_9 + 1.14x_{10} + 0.001x_{11} - 0.45x_{12} - 4.07x_{13}$	0.59 (64.14)
	Logarithmic	$y = -528.08 - 733.37\ln(x_1) + 678.83\ln(x_2) + 8.80\ln(x_3) - 230.65\ln(x_4) + 84.84\ln(x_5) + 19.32\ln(x_6) - 0.82\ln(x_7) + 30.21\ln(x_8) + 22.66\ln(x_9) - 11.51\ln(x_{10}) - 132.43\ln(x_{11}) + 12.23\ln(x_{12}) - 38.37\ln(x_{13})$	0.45 (81.12)
	Power	$y = 4.49 * 10^{-26}x_1^{10.12}x_2^{4.93}x_3^{1.28}x_4^{-2.29}x_5^{0.59}x_6^{-0.25}x_7^{0.56}x_8^{-2.79}x_9^{0.04}x_{10}^{0.22}x_{11}^{1.70}x_{12}^{0.001}x_{13}^{-0.68}$	0.62 (49.17)
	Reciprocal	$y = 487.86 - 5073.85/x_1 - 835884.29/x_2 - 619.77/x_3 + 45566.55/x_4 - 226.44/x_5 + 1.04/x_6 + 2/x_7 + 24.12/x_8 + 0.19/x_9 - 1.13/x_{10} + 69.02/x_{11} - 0.37/x_{12} - 75.87/x_{13}$	0.49 (78.11)
Middle Himalayan Zone	Linear	$y = 1285.89 - 34.66x_1 + 0.001x_2 + 1.57x_3 - 0.05x_4 + 1.50x_5 - 4.10x_6 + 7.73x_7 - 1.77x_8 + 2.90x_9 - 1.39x_{10} + 0.001x_{11} + 4.70x_{12} - 8.84x_{13}$	0.69 (42.04)
	Logarithmic	$y = 2281.76 - 1364.46\ln(x_1) + 0.24\ln(x_2) + 27.81\ln(x_3) - 35.38\ln(x_4) + 120.18\ln(x_5) + 4.53\ln(x_6) + 23.03\ln(x_7) - 49.38\ln(x_8) + 15.60\ln(x_9) + 26.05\ln(x_{10}) - 83.25\ln(x_{11}) + 28.42\ln(x_{12}) - 124.63\ln(x_{13})$	0.62 (51.11)
	Power	$y = 3.7 * 10^{13}x_1^{-7.72}x_2^{0.03}x_3^{0.03}x_4^{0.07}x_5^{1.09}x_6^{-0.11}x_7^{0.57}x_8^{-0.01}x_9^{0.05}x_{10}^{-0.12}x_{11}^{-0.73}x_{12}^{0.19}x_{13}^{-1.51}$	0.78 (37.72)
	Reciprocal	$y = -26.58 + 4283.25/x_1 - 2060.51/x_2 + 20.08/x_3 - 6150.16/x_4 - 268.45/x_5 - 0.04/x_6 - 0.35/x_7 + 23.07/x_8 - 0.19/x_9 - 0.03/x_{10} + 2.63/x_{11} - 0.16/x_{12} + 5.72/x_{13}$	0.66 (45.72)

1010

WH zones	Model type	Models	R (RMSE)
Upper Himalayan Zone	Linear	$y = -3754.98 + 99.59x_1 + 0.07x_2 - 1.25x_3 + 0.06x_4 + 1.23x_5 + 10.46x_6 + 0.001x_7 + 4.90x_8 - 17.63x_9 + 19.77x_{10} - 6.58x_{11} + 6.06x_{12} - 16.11x_{13}$	0.74 (58.07)
	Logarithmic	$y = -8280.01 + 4430.22\ln(x_1) + 378.71\ln(x_2) - 102.97\ln(x_3) + 68.20\ln(x_4) + 116.51\ln(x_5) + 31.14\ln(x_6) - 6.29\ln(x_7) - 60.95\ln(x_8) - 16.924\ln(x_9) + 42.65\ln(x_{10}) - 9.88\ln(x_{11}) + 15.42\ln(x_{12}) - 74.45\ln(x_{13})$	0.68 (69.08)
	Power	$y = 6.4 * 10^{-53}x_1^{26.26}x_2^{2.91}x_3^{-0.20}x_4^{0.62}x_5^{0.64}x_6^{0.11}x_7^{-0.18}x_8^{-0.31}x_9^{-0.13}x_{10}^{0.23}x_{11}^{0.10}x_{12}^{0.001}x_{13}^{0.44}$	0.76 (55.12)
	Reciprocal	$y = 5308.54 - 170987.89/x_1 - 1378163.61/x_2 + 121.52/x_3 - 5412.19/x_4 - 197.55/x_5 + 0.08/x_6 + 0.51/x_7 - 0.45/x_8 - 0.60/x_9 + 1.15/x_{10} - 0.26/x_{11} - 0.09/x_{12} - 63.24/x_{13}$	0.33 (59.61)

Note: In Table 5, x_1 to x_5 are latitude, elevation, slope, ruggedness, and SCD, respectively; x_6 to x_{13} are the BTD of 10H18H, 10H23H, 18H89V, 36H89V, 36V89V, 23H89V, 10V89V, 10V23H, respectively; V is the vertical polarization, and H is the horizontal polarization; and 10, 18, 23, 36 and 89 is the frequency in GHz of the corresponding BT channels.

Table 6. Comparative analysis of multifactor SD models during 2017-2019 for WH zones

	Western Himalayan Zones					
	Lower Himalayan		Middle Himalayan		Upper Himalayan	
Models	R	RMSE (in cm)	R	RMSE (in cm)	R	RMSE (in cm)
Power	0.65	22.7	0.76	19.2	0.89	22.6
Linear	0.64	29	0.68	22.8	0.75	33.5
Logarithmic	0.38	52	0.14	41	0.73	36.9
Reciprocal	0.09	121.3	0.47	26.7	0.61	43.2

1020

Table 76. RMSE of operational AMSR2 SD products and the proposed multifactor SD model across different WH zones in different in-situ SD classes

WH zones	Model	Snow depth class (in cm)				
		0-25	25-50	50-75	75-100	>100
Lower Himalayan Zone	AMSR2_A	14.60	38.88	62.31	88.63	159.16
	AMSR2_D	14.35	35.68	58.65	85.75	152.84
	Multifactor SD model	27.64	21.62	37.27	40.48	63.73
Middle Himalayan Zone	AMSR2_A	13.67	35.97	61.39	86.34	200.25
	AMSR2_D	18.00	33.45	58.59	82.77	193.76
	Multifactor SD model	20.99	20.29	27.84	41.95	81.04
Upper Himalayan Zone	AMSR2_A	13.23	38.13	61.58	87.84	375.61
	AMSR2_D	14.34	36.93	60.19	86.69	372.67
	Multifactor SD model	37.12	41.54	38.62	40.12	161.01

1025

Table 87. RMSE (cm) variation of AMSR2 SD products, and multifactor SD model for different elevation, and SCD classes across three WH zones (for snow period during 2017-18 to 2018-19)

Parameter range	Elevation (in m)							SCDs (in Days)			
	2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	3500-4000	4000-4500	4500-5000	>5000	0 - 30	30 - 60	60 - 90	> 90
Lower Himalayan Zone											
Mean in-situ SD	18.44	63.09	93.72	-	-	-	-	37.32	84.33	96.95	140.38
AMSR2_A	23.05	76.97	113.21	-	-	-	-	47.32	101.59	114.23	158.11
AMSR2_D	26.51	78.43	107.99	-	-	-	-	45.47	95.71	111.62	140.59
Multifactor model	21.38	41.13	47.27	-	-	-	-	25.18	42.12	54.22	61.8
Middle Himalayan Zone											
In situ SD	80.53	59.96	31.8	69.42	83.02	80.67	66.49	22.49	53.39	83.96	127.9
AMSR2_A	85.04	86.84	39.1	98.53	107.01	107.72	84.72	33.53	66.73	99.12	140.03
AMSR2_D	79.69	88.13	37.98	88.32	103.38	101.86	82.48	31.61	65.06	98.25	137.66
Multifactor model	54.79	45.46	17.82	32.54	54.67	52.41	37.48	19.71	35.67	49.63	70.92

Parameter		Elevation (in m)							SCDs (in Days)			
Parameter range		2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	3500-4000	4000-4500	4500-5000	>5000	0 - 30	30 - 60	60 - 90	> 90
Upper Himalayan Zone	In situ SD	-	-	-	15.38	67.8	80.33	130.94	52.79	78.2	108.24	167.86
	AMSR2_A	-	-	-	17.71	77.6	104.97	188.67	97.63	130.2	157.39	205.89
	AMSR2_D	-	-	-	19.5	69.38	104.42	182.12	92.54	123.51	158.46	204.15
	Multifactor model	-	-	-	11.73	34.22	55.45	126.13	83.4	89.9	108.71	122.22

1030