

The rising high-mountain snowline — A global imprint of climate warming

Jianhua Li,^{1,4,5} Shaofan Tang,^{1,4,5} Tingting He,^{2,*} Wenhe Liang,² He Ren,³ Jiaming Xu,¹ Jiani Liu,¹ Fashuai Li,² and Yuwei Chen^{6,2}

¹The College of Water Resources, Yunnan Agricultural University, Kunming 650201, China

²Advanced Laser Technology Laboratory of Anhui Province, Hefei 230000, China

³Academy of Eco-Civilization Development for Jing-Jin-Ji Megalopolis, Tianjin Normal University, Tianjin 300387, China

⁴Luliang Mountain Basin Land Use Field Scientific Observation Station of Yunnan Province, Luliang 655600, China

⁵Yunnan Mountain Basin Field Science Observation and Research Station, Ministry of Natural Resources of China, Kunming 650000, China

⁶Hangzhou Institute of Advanced Studies, University of Chinese Academy of Science, Hangzhou 310024, China

*Correspondence: tthe@zju.edu.cn

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High-mountain regions are warming rapidly, and one of the clearest signals of this change is the upward shift of the perennial snowline.¹ As the elevation boundary below which snow can persist throughout the year, the snowline integrates the combined effects of atmospheric temperature and moisture availability, providing a simple yet physically meaningful indicator of climate warming in mountain environments. Unlike glacier volume or mass balance, which often respond with substantial time lags, changes in snowline elevation

can reflect climate forcing more directly and at shorter timescales.² The widespread rise of high-mountain snowlines therefore represents not only a redistribution of snow and ice in vertical space, but also a fundamental reorganization of mountain energy balance, water storage, and downstream hydrological regimes. Understanding how snowlines respond to ongoing warming is essential for assessing the vulnerability of mountain systems and their role in the global climate system.

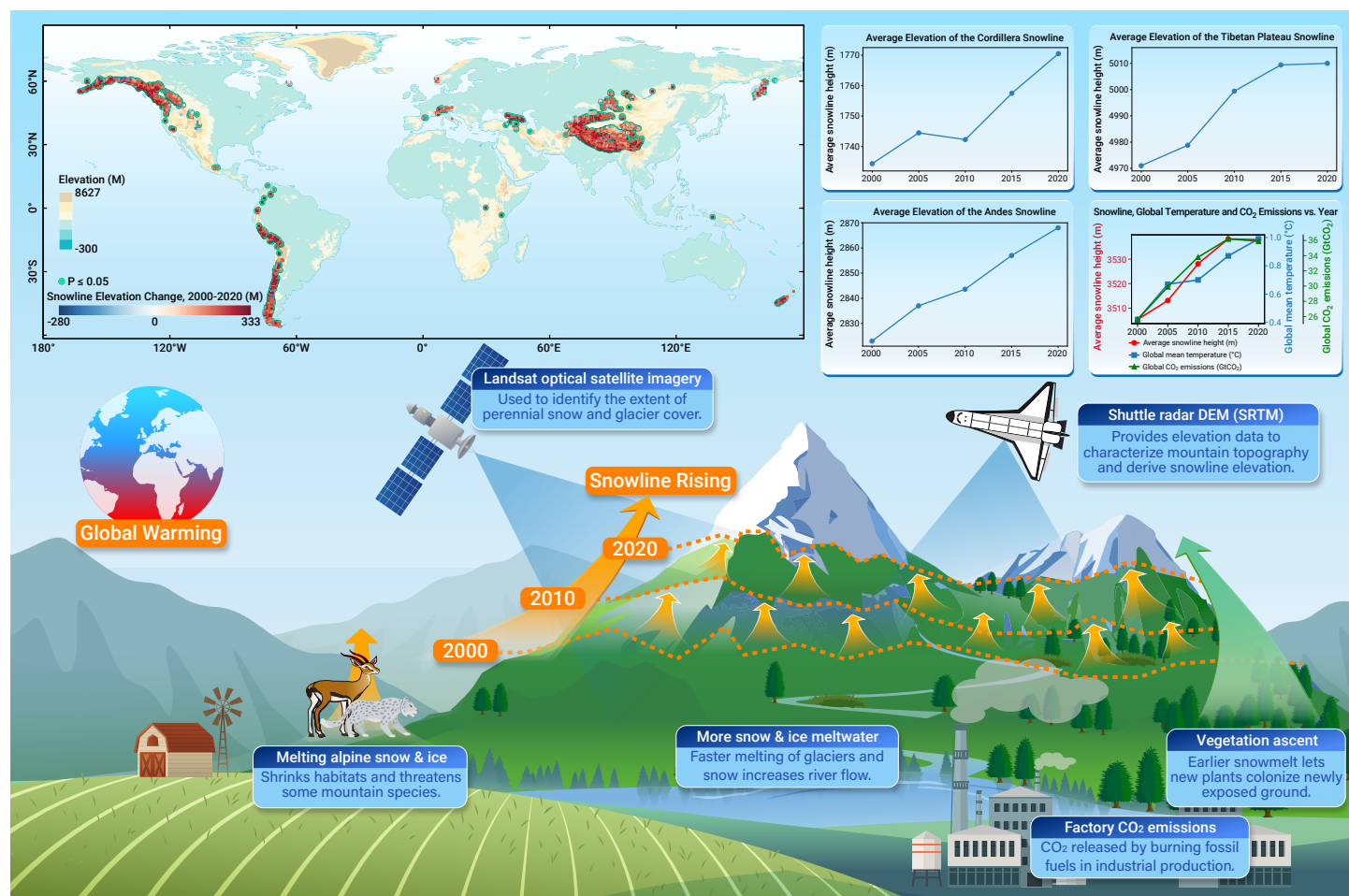


Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the upward shift of high-mountain snowlines under global warming During 2000–2020, snowline elevation increased across most mountain regions worldwide. The upper-left panel shows the spatial distribution of global snowline elevation changes. The composite line chart illustrates the concurrent changes in global mean snowline elevation, atmospheric CO₂ emissions, and global mean surface temperature. Three separate line charts present the temporal evolution of snowline elevation in the Cordillera, the Andes, and the Tibetan Plateau. The lower conceptual diagram illustrates how climate warming drives the continued upslope migration of mountain snowlines.

To address this gap, we integrated long-term global snow cover products with high-resolution topographic data to reconstruct the distribution patterns of perennial snow across the world's major mountain ranges. The reported global snowline elevations are derived from the distribution of perennial snow and ice mapped using the GLAD Global Land Cover and Land Use Change dataset (GLC LULC, 2000–2020), a global 30 m Landsat-based land-cover

product with independently validated classification accuracy for permanent snow and ice exceeding approximately 86%.³ The dataset is publicly available from the University of Maryland GLAD repository. These snow and ice maps are combined with 30 m digital elevation models to identify the lowest elevations at which snow persists year-round, and snowline statistics are summarized within 0.5° grid cells solely as aggregation units for global

comparison.

Our results reveal that over the past two decades, the mean elevation of global high-mountain perennial snow has increased by approximately 0.93% (~32.5 m), with snowline elevation changes ranging from ~2.5 m to ~45.3 m across different mountain systems, rising from 3,505.37 m in 2000 to 3,537.89 m in 2020, while the total area of perennial snow has declined by about 13.37%, from 359,364.5 km² to 311,333.0 km² (Figure 1). Similar upward shifts in snowlines were observed across nearly all major mountain systems—from the Andes to the Himalayas and from the Alps to the Rockies. Regions showing the most significant increases include the Caucasus (51.6 m), Andes (44.5 m), Cordillera (43.0 m), and the Tibetan Plateau (40.7 m), accompanied by corresponding reductions in perennial snow area of approximately 370 km², 4,370 km², 14,200 km², and 19,182 km², respectively. These results demonstrate a consistent global retreat of mountain cryospheric systems, coupled with regional heterogeneity.

Between 2000 and 2020, the global mean temperature increased from 0.42°C to 0.99°C (a rise of about 136%), while total CO₂ emissions grew from 25.6 Gt CO₂ to 35.9 Gt CO₂ (an increase of ~40%) (Figure 1). Rising air temperatures have elevated the freezing level, altered the precipitation phase from snow to rain, and reduced snow accumulation, thereby promoting an upward migration of the snowline. However, snowline elevation is not governed by temperature alone. It is also modulated by precipitation amount, seasonality, and phase, whose relative influence varies across climatic regimes. In monsoon-dominated regions such as the Himalayas, increased snowfall or shifts in seasonal precipitation can partially buffer snowline rise, whereas in arid mountain systems such as parts of the Andes, limited snowfall supply constrains snowline variability even under comparable warming.⁴ These contrasts highlight that snowline dynamics reflect coupled temperature–precipitation controls rather than a single climatic driver.

The continuous rise of the snowline exerts profound and cascading impacts on mountain hydrological, ecological, and climatic systems. Earlier snowmelt weakens the role of high mountains as “solid water reservoirs”, disrupting the timing of downstream runoff, prolonging low-flow periods, and threatening agricultural irrigation, drinking water supply, and hydropower operations in regions such as the Himalayas, Andes, and Alps.⁵ The upward migration of the snowline also alters the distribution of heat and moisture in mountain environments, driving concurrent upward shifts of treelines and facilitating forest expansion into higher elevations. Consequently, alpine meadows and tundra zones are shrinking, while habitats for cold-adapted species become increasingly restricted, leading to substantial restructuring of ecosystem composition and biodiversity. Moreover, as more bare rock and soil are exposed, the decline in surface albedo enhances the absorption of solar radiation, further amplifying regional warming. This disturbance in the balance of energy and moisture not only accelerates the retreat of snow and ice but also increases the risks of mountain hazards such as landslides and debris flows, and may alter regional precipitation patterns and atmospheric circulation regimes.⁵ Overall, the persistent upward shift of the snowline highlights the growing vulnerability of mountain ecosystems and the accumulation of climate-related risks, indicating that mountainous regions are transitioning from climate-regulating and buffering zones into ecosystems highly sensitive to global warming.

Although our analysis reveals a clear upward shift in global high-mountain snowlines, several limitations should be acknowledged. The 2000–2020 window is relatively short, and beyond the El Niño–Southern Oscillation

(ENSO) and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), decadal-to-interdecadal modes (the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO)) may modulate regional snow persistence and thus the magnitude and non-monotonicity of snowline changes. Even so, the spatially coherent upward shift across major mountain ranges, concurrent with rising global mean temperature, supports a forced warming imprint, with internal variability acting mainly as a regional modulator. Extending the record length will be essential to more cleanly separate variability from long-term warming and to better constrain snowline dynamics.

Addressing the rapid rise of high-mountain snowlines requires coordinated global action. The United Nations General Assembly has designated 2025 as the International Year of Glacier Preservation and 2025–2034 as the Decade of Action for Cryospheric Science, underscoring the urgent need for sustained and comparable cryosphere monitoring. In this context, we advocate the proposal of a conceptual framework termed the Global Snowline Observation and Evaluation Network (G-SOEN), which integrates satellite and ground-based observations to support standardized annual assessments of snowline elevation and snow cover dynamics, and envisions the future organization of these observations into openly accessible, web-based data systems for the broader scientific community. By addressing long-standing gaps in consistency and continuity, this framework could provide a scientific basis for water-resource management, ecosystem protection, and risk reduction in high-mountain regions under a warming climate.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

T.H. and J.H.L. conceived and supervised the study. S.T. performed the analyses and drafted the manuscript. H.R. contributed to conceptual development and interpretation. J.X. and J.Liu processed satellite data and assisted with validation and visualization. F.L. contributed to method development and statistical analysis. Y.C. integrated the climate datasets, prepared figures, and revised the manuscript. All authors contributed to the manuscript and approved the final version.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.