

# 11 **Recent strengthening of snow and ice**

## 12 **albedo feedback driven by Antarctic sea**

### 13 **ice loss**

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19 **The decline of the Arctic cryosphere during recent decades has lowered the region's**  
20 **surface albedo, reducing its ability to reflect solar radiation back to space. It is not clear**  
21 **what role the Antarctic cryosphere plays in this regard, but novel remote-sensing based**  
22 **techniques and datasets have recently opened the possibility to investigate its role. Here,**  
23 **we leverage these to show that the surface albedo reductions from sustained post-2000**  
24 **losses in Arctic snow and ice cover equate to increasingly positive snow and ice albedo**  
25 **feedback relative to a 1982-1991 baseline period, with a decadal trend of  $+0.08 \pm 0.04$**   
26  **$W/m^2/dec.$  between 1992-2015. During the same period, the expansion of the Antarctic sea**  
27 **ice pack generated a negative feedback, with a decadal trend of  $-0.06 \pm 0.02 W/m^2/dec.$**   
28 **However, significant Antarctic sea ice losses during 2016 - 2018 completely reversed the**  
29 **trend, increasing the three-year mean combined Arctic and Antarctic snow and ice albedo**

30 **feedback to  $+0.26 \pm 0.15$  W/m<sup>2</sup>. This reversal highlights the importance of Antarctic sea ice**  
31 **loss to the global snow and ice albedo feedback. The 1992-2018 mean feedback is**  
32 **equivalent to approximately 10% of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions over the same period;**  
33 **the share may rise markedly should 2016-2018 snow and ice conditions become common,**  
34 **though increasing longwave emissions will likely mediate the impact on the total radiative**  
35 **energy budget.**

36 Changes in the properties and extent of the Polar Regions' snow and ice cover alter the surface  
37 reflectivity or albedo, leading to a change in the shortwave radiative energy balance at the edge  
38 of Earth's atmosphere, known as snow and ice albedo feedback (SIAF). The magnitude of this  
39 radiative feedback for a particular surface albedo change is primarily determined by available  
40 insolation and atmospheric properties which affect radiative transfer, such as cloudiness [1 - 3].  
41 These relationships are variable in space and time and are generally quantified in radiative  
42 feedback calculations as variables called radiative kernels. These kernels have typically been  
43 derived from climate models [4], leading to omission of temporal (interannual) variability and to  
44 close ties between the radiative transfer processes in a specific climate model and the associated  
45 radiative feedback per unit surface albedo change. Recent progress in satellite remote sensing  
46 techniques has allowed for observation-based derivation of radiative kernels, which, unlike model-  
47 derived kernels, enable the capturing of interannual trends in important atmospheric state  
48 variables affecting radiative transfer. This makes them well-suited to quantify radiative feedbacks  
49 in regions like the Arctic that experience high interannual variability in cloud area fraction and  
50 aerosol optical depth [5] -- two important atmospheric state properties affecting shortwave  
51 radiative transfer. Combined with multidecadal satellite-based surface albedo time series which  
52 allow for robust trend assessments [6] it is now possible to comprehensively assess SIAF caused  
53 by ongoing changes in the snow and ice cover of Earth's Polar regions.

54 Here, we focus on quantifying the evolution of both Arctic and Antarctic (defined as all regions  
55 poleward of  $\pm 50$  degrees latitude) SIAF based on aforementioned radiative kernels and surface  
56 albedo changes between 1982 and 2018, relative to a baseline period of 1982-1991. There are  
57 two distinct advantages to this approach. First, the effect of bias in surface albedo estimates is  
58 eliminated because we deal with differential albedo, and second, we avoid having to prescribe  
59 the cryospheric extent and albedo characteristics of the reference period, as those are drawn  
60 from the early period of the observed data itself.

61 We use a satellite observation-based surface albedo data record with over three and a half  
62 decades of global coverage from the AVHRR optical imager family [7]. The dataset has been  
63 shown to produce consistent surface albedo trends with other satellite-based datasets over the  
64 Arctic [6,8,9]. We employ two state-of-the-art observation-based radiative kernels; the CALIPSO-  
65 CloudSat (henceforth CC) kernel derived from active lidar/radar observations of the atmosphere,  
66 clouds, and underlying surface [10], and the CERES Albedo Change Kernel (CACK) [11], which  
67 is based on multiyear observations of shortwave radiative fluxes in the Earth's atmosphere-  
68 surface system by the CERES sensor [12]. The availability of the CC and CACK kernels  
69 represents a major advance in the field, as they allow for more fully observation-driven radiative  
70 feedback estimates independent of climate models' radiative transfer processes or atmospheric  
71 composition.

## 72 **Arctic and Antarctic snow and ice albedo feedback**

73 Figure 1 shows the global annual mean SIAF summed over the two regions (Figure 1a), as well  
74 as the Arctic and Antarctic components separately (Figure 1b & 1c). The combined annual mean  
75 SIAF averages  $+0.08 \text{ W/m}^2$  for the period outside the baseline (1992-2018), but we also observe  
76 a rapid rise to  $+0.26 \text{ W/m}^2$  for the 2016-2018 mean. To place the result in context, the 1992-2018  
77 mean SIAF is equivalent to an annual pulse emission of  $\sim 3.8 \text{ Gt}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  [13], representing

78 approximately 10% of global anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions over the same period. Should 2016-  
79 2018 conditions persist, the fraction would increase towards 30%.

80 Over the Arctic, the increasing trend in SIAF ( $+0.08 \pm 0.03$  W/m<sup>2</sup>/decade for 1992-2018) is  
81 consistent with a wide range of literature documenting e.g. the retreat of the Arctic Ocean's ice  
82 cover [e.g. 14], or the trend towards spring snow cover reduction and earlier melt onset of the  
83 hemisphere's seasonal snow cover [15, 16]. The annual SIAF in 2008,  $0.19 \pm 0.1$  W/m<sup>2</sup> with CC  
84 and  $0.15 \pm 0.08$  W/m<sup>2</sup> with CACK kernels over the global area (i.e.  $0.37 \pm 0.19$  and  $0.29 \pm 0.17$   
85 W/m<sup>2</sup> regionally), is consistent with earlier published estimates which analyzed reductions in  
86 cryospheric radiative cooling between 1979 and 2008, yielding a central range of 0.38 – 0.59  
87 W/m<sup>2</sup> for the Arctic area [2]. The generally increasing trend in Arctic SIAF was interrupted by the  
88 relatively cool and cloudy summer of 2013 which inhibited surface melt across many parts of the  
89 Arctic cryosphere [17] and thus kept the region's surface albedo closer to baseline period  
90 conditions.

91 In contrast, Antarctic SIAF was generally negative and decreasing from the turn of the millennium  
92 until 2014 (Figure 1c). This decrease in SIAF is consistent with well documented, although only  
93 partially understood, expansion of the Antarctic sea ice pack [18]. However, in 2016-2018  
94 Antarctic SIAF showed a dramatic increase, which completely reversed the 15-year trend towards  
95 decreasing RF relative to the baseline period. This reversal is particularly significant because  
96 during the 2000-2015 period the combined Arctic and Antarctic SIAF (Figure 1a) had been close  
97 to balanced (mean of  $+0.06$  W/m<sup>2</sup>), with albedo increases from Antarctic sea ice expansion  
98 offsetting albedo decreases from the retreat of Arctic sea ice and snow cover. With the Antarctic  
99 cryosphere's SIAF turning from net negative to positive, we see the aforementioned rapid rise in  
100 combined cryospheric SIAF in 2016-2018 to a level which triples the overall 1992-2018 mean.

## 101 **Antarctic snow and ice albedo feedback reversal**

102 To better understand the causes of the reversal in the Antarctic SIAF trend, we delineated both  
103 Arctic and Antarctic SIAF into oceanic and terrestrial domains, as shown in Figure 2. The steady  
104 increases in Arctic terrestrial and oceanic SIAF are clear, with the sea ice-related oceanic SIAF  
105 being somewhat larger as also reported by earlier studies [2, 19]. Furthermore, the delineation  
106 shows that the cause of the Antarctic SIAF increase since 2016 is almost solely attributable to  
107 sea ice changes. This is again fully consistent with independent, microwave-based satellite  
108 observations which showed a sudden loss of the Antarctic sea ice, beginning in 2016 and  
109 persisting through 2018 [18].

110 To further assess the consistency between the Antarctic SIAF increase and reported sea ice  
111 losses, we examine the spatial distribution of the feedback during the consecutive three-year  
112 periods of 2013-2015 and 2016-2018 (Figure 3; also see Fig. S11). The patterns reveal clear  
113 shifts from negative to positive SIAF, particularly over the Weddell and Ross Seas, but also over  
114 a part of the Western Pacific Ocean. In comparison, the Indian Ocean sector saw relatively limited  
115 changes. This spatial pattern is very consistent with the distribution of the sea ice coverage  
116 reductions as seen by microwave satellite instruments, particularly occurring during the Austral  
117 spring of 2016 [18, 20]. Recent studies on the principal causes of the sudden and dramatic shift  
118 in Antarctic sea ice point to an array of oceanic and atmospheric drivers acting partly  
119 consecutively and partly in concert, but affecting various Antarctic Seas differently [21, 22].

120 For a longer-term verification, we compared our oceanic annual mean SIAF against microwave  
121 satellite observation-based annual mean estimates for Arctic and Antarctic Sea Ice Extent (SIE;  
122 [23]) and Sea Ice Concentration (SIC; [24]). Robust agreement was found between SIAF and SIC  
123 over both regions, (Fig. S4), and between SIAF and SIE over the Arctic (Fig. S5). A stronger  
124 correlation against SIC is expected, as sea ice concentration changes reflect albedo changes

125 better than sea ice extent. While SIC estimates contain large uncertainties during the melting  
126 season, the biases are ameliorated in large-scale aggregates as used here [25]. Furthermore, the  
127 feedback incurred from the post-millennium Arctic sea ice losses is in good agreement with recent  
128 independent estimates, which estimated  $+0.11 \text{ W/m}^2$  for the period 2000-2016 from CERES  
129 satellite observations [26], while our estimates yield  $+0.08 \text{ W/m}^2$  for the CACK and  $+0.13 \text{ W/m}^2$   
130 for the CC kernel (details in Supplementary Material).

131 While the escalating feedback impact from mounting Arctic snow and sea ice losses remains  
132 clear, the magnitude of the combined Arctic and Antarctic SIAF since 2016 also clearly illustrates  
133 the scope of the recent Antarctic sea ice changes, and underlines the need to better understand  
134 whether the ice loss is indicative of a systemic state shift or an expression of large-scale variability  
135 in the Antarctic cryosphere.

## 136 **Drivers of recent Antarctic sea ice changes**

137 The causes of the sudden reversal in the Antarctic sea ice pack's expansion is an area of active  
138 research. A common reported theme is that the atmospheric circulation over Antarctic seas in and  
139 since 2016 has been anomalous. A key feature has been the formation of several abnormally  
140 intense and long-lasting low pressure systems (cyclones) during austral spring and summer,  
141 which act to both compress the sea ice pack against Antarctica at the eastern flank of the cyclone,  
142 and to increase sea ice drift to lower latitudes (where melt will more easily claim it) along the  
143 western flank [20, 27, 28]. Associated advection of warm and moist air masses from lower  
144 latitudes have also been indicated as a contributor to melt increase, alongside a sustained buildup  
145 of anomalously warm upper ocean temperatures over the Southern Ocean [17]. Also, the removal  
146 of sea ice via drifting in early spring can trigger an amplification of the sea ice loss via the sea ice  
147 albedo feedback [29].

148

149 The question of whether or not this reversal represents natural variability or a state shift remains  
150 open. Latest research indicates a partial recovery of the sea ice in 2020 [30], and proxy-based  
151 reconstructions of Antarctic sea ice extent suggest large natural variability during the past 200  
152 years [31]. However, our ability to model and predict the evolution of the sea ice pack is hampered  
153 by continued underestimation of Antarctic sea ice coverage and large inter-model spread even in  
154 the most state-of-the-art climate models [32]. A recent study proposed that the handling of  
155 thermodynamic ocean-atmosphere coupling over the Southern Ocean is a key source of these  
156 discrepancies [33]. Given the demonstrated importance of Antarctic sea ice to the global SIAF,  
157 further attention to this topic is certainly warranted.

## 158 **Cryospheric albedo and radiative flux trends in CERES EBAF**

159 To gauge the relevance of SIAF in relation to other radiative feedbacks of the global cryosphere  
160 (both shortwave (SW) and longwave (LW)), we analyzed a 20-yr. CERES EBAF v4.1 time series  
161 [12] of TOA radiative fluxes and surface albedo over both the Arctic and Antarctic regions (see  
162 Supplementary Figures S7-S10 for details). Figure 4 (left panel) shows that – collectively – the  
163 net SW budget ( $SW_{net}$ ) over the cryosphere is strongly and significantly correlated ( $r = 0.9$ ) to the  
164 surface albedo, suggesting that the upward trend in  $SW_{net}$  (Fig. 4, right panel, red) is likely  
165 attributed to the albedo change-driven feedback. The annual variability and trend in CERES-  
166 based  $SW_{net}$  is similar (Pearson's  $r = 0.78$ ) to the post-2000 upward trend in SW SIAF derived  
167 from radiative kernels and CLARA-A2 (Fig. 1a), although the  $SW_{net}$  trend is stronger ( $+0.017$   
168  $W/m^2/yr$  for  $SW_{net}$  vs.  $+0.01$   $W/m^2/yr$  for SIAF in Jan-Dec 2001-2018). The difference likely  
169 consists principally of cloudiness change impacts on TOA  $SW_{net}$ , although the cool Arctic summer  
170 of 2013 also exerts a notable influence on the SIAF trend (which is  $+0.012$   $W/m^2/yr$  with 2013  
171 excluded). Also, significant annual variability infers a large uncertainty envelope of  $\pm 0.01$   $W/m^2/yr$   
172 to the SIAF trend.

173

174 Our analysis also reveals that SIAF is likely the dominant feedback mechanism behind the upward  
175 trend seen in the net radiative balance of the cryosphere (Fig. 4, right panel, blue). An enhanced  
176 outgoing LW emission over the same period, however, has dampened the albedo-change driven  
177  $SW_{net}$  change by about 45%, inferred by comparing slopes of the two trend lines shown in Fig. 4  
178 (right), although the mechanism is unclear. The significant linear upward trends in the cryospheric  
179 radiative budget appear to be the result of opposing anomalies occurring near-simultaneously in  
180 the Arctic and Antarctic regions, which is particularly pronounced during the 2016-2018 period  
181 (Figs. S7 & S8). In the Antarctic,  $SW_{net}$  and Net radiative fluxes and trends over the past 10 years  
182 are intimately coupled and significant in the months Nov., Dec., Jan., and Mar. and appear to  
183 dominate the annual regional energy balance (Fig. S9). As expected, seasonal Antarctic surface  
184 albedo and  $SW_{net}$  are strongly correlated during austral spring and summer (Fig. S10).

## 185 **Estimating the surface albedo feedback parameter**

186 Combining our multidecadal radiative feedback estimates with global near-surface air  
187 temperature data allows us, in principle, to estimate the cryospheric surface albedo feedback  
188 parameter ( $\lambda_d$ ) which quantifies the sensitivity of albedo feedback to global warming. Regressing  
189 our two-kernel mean Arctic SIAF against 1992-2018 global annual mean air temperatures from  
190 the MERRA-2 [34] and ERA5 [35] atmospheric reanalyses, we obtained sensitivities of +0.39  
191  $W/m^2/K$  and +0.24  $W/m^2/K$ , respectively. While markedly different, the estimates agree with a  
192 recently published estimate of  $+0.27 \pm 0.18 W/m^2/K$  [35] within the uncertainty bounds.

193

194 However, for the Antarctic, we find that cooling associated with the sea ice expansion until 2016  
195 dominates the regression, leading to a negative best-fit feedback parameter (details in  
196 Supplementary Material, pg. 8). The result echoes a recent study [32] on the portrayal of Antarctic

197 sea ice area in observations versus climate models. The root cause for the discrepancy may be  
198 that the response of the Antarctic cryosphere to increased warming occurs at time scales longer  
199 than our available datasets, despite their decadal coverage [37].

## 200 **Uncertainty considerations**

201 We consider our SH SIAF estimate to be robust given the harmony between the CACK- and CC-  
202 based estimates (Fig 1b). The bulk of the disagreement in NH SIAF between CACK- and CC-  
203 based estimates can likely be explained by discrepancies in prescribed atmospheric states  
204 underlying the two kernels in the region, and specifically, to differences in cloud fraction and the  
205 cloud detection methods behind these. Cloud fraction in CERES EBAF-TOA v4 (underlying  
206 CACK) is based on a passive optical detection algorithm [12, 38], whereas cloud detection in the  
207 CloudSat/CALIPSO algorithm (underlying CC) is based on a combination of active lidar and radar  
208 [39]. We infer through statistical analysis that discrepancies in prescribed NH (50° - 80° N) cloud  
209 fraction indeed may explain a large portion of the disagreement between the two kernels (Fig.  
210 S1), where signs of kernel differences largely align with that of differences in underlying cloud  
211 fractions, which is particularly prominent for the months of May - October (Fig. S2).

212 Remaining discrepancies between the two kernels may be attributed to differences in other  
213 prescribed atmospheric state variables affecting shortwave radiative transfer (e.g., scattering  
214 aerosols, cloud phase and optical depth) or to differences in the radiative transfer calculations  
215 themselves. The effect of the time-dependent atmospheric background state underlying CACK  
216 compared to the fixed atmosphere of CC provides little explanation for the discrepancy in our NH  
217 RF estimates (Fig. S3).

218 The role of aerosols in explaining observed trends in the surface SW radiative energy budget was  
219 studied by first estimating their direct impact on the surface albedo. Over polar cryospheres, the

220 aerosol optical depth (AOD) is typically  $<0.1$  [40]. There have been observations of AOD change  
221 over the recent years by 0.2 [3]. The possible effect of AOD changing by 0.2 on surface albedo  
222 has been estimated to be 0.06 at extreme cases [16]. For most of the cases the effect was much  
223 less. The change in surface albedo due to melt of sea ice is in the range of 0.6, thus giving a ten  
224 times larger effect on albedo than the change in aerosols.

225 To assess whether the recently observed AOD anomalies in the Antarctic [3] might explain  
226 observed trends in the TOA SW radiation budget over the region, we filtered out the fraction of  
227 outgoing SW radiation at TOA attributable to the surface albedo (using the model of [41]) and  
228 found no appreciable residual trend that could be attributable to the remaining bulk radiative  
229 constituents such as aerosols, ozone, and water vapor. If aerosols are playing a role, it is being  
230 obfuscated by counteracting trends in one or more of the other constituents (Fig. S6).

231 All of the Antarctic SIAF is of cryospheric origin, but because we calculate SIAF for all areas  
232 poleward of  $50^\circ$  N/S, a fraction of the Arctic feedback originates from non-cryospheric land surface  
233 albedo changes. However, during the SIAF growth period from 2004 onwards, the contribution  
234 from non-cryospheric regions has been less than 20% of the total annual mean. This confirms  
235 that also the lion's share of the observed Arctic SIAF is a result of cryospheric changes, i.e. losses  
236 and gains in snow and sea ice cover.

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## 241 Author Contributions

242 A.R. designed the study and performed the SIAF calculations. R.M.B. contributed CACK data with  
243 updated uncertainty estimates, analyzed CACK-CC differences, and carried out the CERES  
244 EBAF analysis. K.A. supported the SIAF analysis and analyzed potential aerosol impacts. A.R.,  
245 R.M.B. and K.A. all contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

## 246 Competing Interests

247  
248 The authors declare no competing interests.  
249

## 250 Figure Captions

251  
252 Figure 1: The annual global mean snow/ice albedo feedback (SIAF) [ $W/m^2$ ] resulting from  
253 white-sky surface albedo changes for a) both Arctic and Antarctic cryospheres as the two-kernel  
254 mean, as well as b) Arctic and c) Antarctic regions separately. Red and blue colors indicate  
255 SIAF calculated with the CloudSat-CALIPSO (CC) and CERES Albedo Change Kernel (CACK)  
256 kernels (respectively). Shaded areas indicate uncertainty envelopes. All values are calculated  
257 against a baseline period of 1982-1991.

258  
259 Figure 2: Three-year global annual mean snow/ice albedo feedback (SIAF) induced primarily by  
260 cryospheric albedo changes for a) Arctic, and b) Antarctic. Blue bars indicate oceanic and  
261 orange bars terrestrial SIAF. Red lines indicate the summed SIAF for the Arctic and Antarctic.  
262 Calculated with the CACK kernel.

263  
264 Figure 3: Three-year mean snow/ice albedo feedback (SIAF) with the CACK kernel over the  
265 Antarctic during a) 2013-2015, and b) 2016-2018, relative to the baseline period of 1982-1991.  
266 Color bar truncated to better highlight smaller SIAF.

267  
268 Figure 4. Cryosphere contribution to global mean net shortwave energy balance ( $SW_{net}$ ) plotted  
269 as a function of the cryosphere contribution to global mean surface albedo (left); cryosphere  
270 contribution to global mean  $SW_{net}$  and net radiative balance ( $SW_{net} - LW_{\uparrow}$ , TOA) of the past 20  
271 years (1 March 2000 – 29 February 2020; right). Signs are positive downward. Refer to Eq. (1)  
272 for a definition of the cryosphere contribution to global means. For reference, global annual  
273 mean  $SW_{net}$  and Net radiative fluxes for the first (last) year of the series are 240.7 (242.3) and  
274 0.87 (1.41)  $W m^{-2}$ , respectively. Calculated slopes are in  $W/m^2/yr$ .

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## 401 **Methods**

### 402 Snow/ice albedo feedback calculation

403 The global snow/ice albedo feedback is calculated as follows:

$$404 \quad SIAF = \frac{1}{A} \sum_n k_n * (\alpha_n - \alpha_n^{BL}) * A_n \quad (1)$$

405 Where  $A_n$  represents the grid cell area,  $k_n$  represents the all-sky radiative kernel, and  $\alpha_n^{BL}$  and  $\alpha_n$   
406 indicate the baseline and observed white-sky surface albedos valid for the location and time of  
407 each grid cell  $n$ . We calculate SIAF separately for the Arctic and Antarctic at the monthly scale for  
408 all areas poleward of 50 degrees latitude, gap-filling as necessary (see below). To obtain global  
409 annual means, we sum SIAF over the study regions for each month, average over a full year,  
410 then normalize to Earth's total surface area ( $A$ ). We also calculate uncertainty envelopes for SIAF,  
411 based on a conservative assessment of uncertainty arising from gaps in the albedo record as well  
412 as uncertainties in the albedo estimates and kernels (see below for details). Where shown, trend  
413 magnitudes and uncertainties are calculated with outlier-resistant Theil-Sen linear regressions  
414 with 95% confidence intervals.

### 415 Albedo data processing

416 Our albedo estimates are based on the CLARA-A2.1 SAL dataset [7], which offers global surface  
417 albedo estimates at 0.25 degree / 25 km spatial resolution as 5-day and monthly means. The  
418 record spans 01/1982 - 06/2019, here we use the full annual coverage period of 1982-2018. We  
419 emphasize that the surface albedo record provides extensive coverage of the Arctic and Antarctic  
420 melting seasons where the vast majority of the SIAF originates. The albedo retrievals used in this

421 study are constructed from intercalibrated satellite data from instruments onboard different  
422 satellites.

423 The CLARA-A2.1 black-sky surface albedo products are based on intercalibrated [42] satellite  
424 observations from the AVHRR instruments onboard the NOAA and MetOP satellites. The  
425 intercalibration ensures a temporally stable data record with a possibility to study decadal trends.  
426 The stability of the intercalibrated CLARA-A2 albedo record was assessed and found to be ~8%  
427 (relative) over the central parts of the Greenland Ice Sheet.

428 The top-of-atmosphere reflectances observed by the satellites go through various steps while  
429 being processed into Earth surface albedo: First the cloudy observations are removed and the  
430 underlying surface classified (snow & ice, land, water), using microwave observations to verify  
431 the classification over sea ice. Then for the land areas the atmospheric effect on the observed  
432 reflectance is taken into account using dynamic aerosol optical depth description [43] and the  
433 topographic effects of the surface on the location and reflectance are corrected over mountainous  
434 terrain. To derive the hemispherical reflectance from the bidirectional satellite observation, the  
435 surface scattering properties are described by using bidirectional reflectance distribution functions  
436 (BRDF) for different land use types. For snow/ice covered surfaces there are no globally valid  
437 scattering models. Therefore, the albedo for these surfaces is treated as the average of  
438 observations from different viewing directions during the month in question, relying on  
439 comprehensive angular sampling from wide-swath AVHRR observations. The observations of 0.6  
440 and 0.8  $\mu\text{m}$  are then converted to describe the albedo at 0.25 - 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  wavelengths, the algorithm  
441 adjusting for wet and dry snow/ice surfaces.

442 To obtain bihemispherical (white-sky) albedo estimates for this study, we convert the CLARA-  
443 A2.1 black-sky albedos with empirically based equations [44]. The equations are separate for  
444 snow/ice, vegetation, and snowy forests; NSIDC0046 [45] snow/sea ice cover and ESA-CCI LC

445 data were used to classify each grid cell of the Arctic region accordingly. Over the Antarctic,  
446 snow/ice cover is assumed for all non-open ocean grid cells. G02202 sea ice data [24] is used to  
447 identify Antarctic sea ice coverage per month. All data were projected into the 25 km EASE2  
448 projection for analysis, using nearest-neighbor resampling when necessary. White-sky albedo for  
449 open water was derived following a recent parameterization [46] using wind speed data as applied  
450 in CLARA-A2.1 SAL, but the feedback from open ocean regions was found negligibly small for  
451 both Arctic and Antarctic.

452 The CLARA-A2 SAL data record has been validated against in situ data and compared to the  
453 MCD43C3 ed 5 dataset [47]. Based on the comparison with in situ observations, the relative  
454 accuracy of the product over snow/ice covered surfaces has been found to be 5-10%. The global  
455 coverage including the polar regions, the high quality of the intercalibration of data from different  
456 satellites and the long temporal coverage makes this data record particularly useful for climatic  
457 studies of the Arctic and Antarctic cryosphere.

#### 458 CERES EBAF fluxes and surface albedo

459 The CERES EBAF edition 4.1 dataset covering 2000-2020 [12] was obtained for independent  
460 verification of our results. All-sky top-of-atmosphere and surface shortwave and longwave fluxes  
461 were extracted for analysis for both polar cryospheres poleward of 50 degrees latitude. EBAF-  
462 based surface albedo estimates were derived from the reflected and incoming shortwave fluxes  
463 at surface. Further details on CERES EBAF calculations are available in Supplementary Material  
464 (pg.11-15).

#### 465 Gap-filling and uncertainty

466 To perform the SIAF calculations for the surface albedo coverage period of 1982-2018, the  
467 radiative kernels must be available for each examined month. The CC kernel is spatially resolved

468 for each month based on observations from 2008-2009, while the CACK kernel is  
469 spatiotemporally resolved for all months between 2001 and 2016. It has been shown that the  
470 interannual variability in the radiative kernels is modest compared to spatial and monthly  
471 variability, thus ensuring that the CC kernel can be reliably used to represent atmospheric  
472 conditions during the post-2000 period [10]. Since the surface albedo changes are defined against  
473 a baseline period of 1982-1991, the calculated interannual mean SIAF during 1982-1991 must  
474 also be negligible by design. Given these arguments, we backfill both CC and CACK kernels  
475 backwards to 1982, and forward to 2018. For CACK we use the 2001-2016 climatology as fill  
476 values.

477 Gaps occur in the albedo data record over areas with persistent cloud cover or insufficient  
478 illumination for a reliable retrieval (e.g. polar winter). In the CC kernel, latitudes poleward of 80°  
479 have no coverage because of the orbital characteristics of the CALIPSO and CloudSat satellites.  
480 We calculated that typically less than 10% of the Arctic or Antarctic SIAF originated from latitudes  
481 80° - 90° N/S between 2000-2018, as both the innermost sea ice zone of the Arctic Ocean and  
482 the inner parts of Antarctica have thus far maintained relatively stable snow and ice cover relative  
483 to the more outlying regions of the polar cryospheres. We therefore simply gap-filled the CC kernel  
484 with the mean kernel value of latitudes 75° - 80° N/S for each studied month. Gaps in the albedo  
485 record occur primarily during winter, we therefore gap-filled SIAF over missing albedo data with  
486 a period-appropriate, literature-based constant of +0.05 W/m<sup>2</sup> [2]. Choosing to gap-fill with a  
487 neutral RF of 0 W/m<sup>2</sup> had no appreciable impact on our global annual mean results.

488 The uncertainty envelopes in our derived annual mean SIAF were determined as follows. We first  
489 calculated a conservative estimate for SIAF that could potentially be missed through gaps in the  
490 albedo record, using CC and CACK kernels and prescribed ( $\alpha - \alpha_{BL}$ ) appropriate for each month  
491 (larger values for melting seasons than winter, see Supplementary Material pg. 7-8 for details).  
492 Next, we derived uncertainty related to successful SIAF computations, based on a combination

493 of published uncertainties for the kernels and a calculation of uncertainty for the albedo, founded  
494 on the number of successful nominal resolution retrievals per grid cell, again with conservative  
495 outer bounds (see Supplementary Material pg. 7-8 for details). The larger of these factors on the  
496 annual, region-aggregated scale was chosen as the displayed uncertainty for each studied year.  
497 We emphasize that the uncertainty envelopes are very conservative in nature and that the largest  
498 uncertainties are not likely to be realized. In general, the uncertainty related to the kernels and  
499 albedo for successful SIAF calculations is the larger of the two; only in 1984, 1994, and 2000 over  
500 the Antarctic the missing data uncertainty was larger because of large data gaps in the albedo  
501 record, related to shifts in the AVHRR constellation [7]. For the combined cryospheric annual  
502 mean SIAF, the root sum of squared CC and CACK uncertainties is shown in Figure 1.

## 503 Data Availability

504 The principal result data (annual global radiative forcings per kernel and region) are available  
505 from

506 <http://doi.org/10.23728/fmi-b2share.fb5a74c32c0b4e49989334f76b370de2>

507 The CLARA-A2.1 albedo data is available from

508 [https://doi.org/10.5676/EUM\\_SAF\\_CM/CLARA\\_AVHRR/V002\\_01](https://doi.org/10.5676/EUM_SAF_CM/CLARA_AVHRR/V002_01).

509 The CC radiative kernel is available from [https://climate.rsmas.miami.edu/data/radiative-](https://climate.rsmas.miami.edu/data/radiative-kernels/index.html)  
510 [kernels/index.html](https://climate.rsmas.miami.edu/data/radiative-kernels/index.html).

511 The CACK radiative kernel is available from

512 <https://doi.org/10.6073/pasta/d77b84b11be99ed4d5376d77fe0043d8>.

513 NSIDC0046 and G02202 snow/sea ice data records are available through <https://nsidc.org/data>.

514 ESA-CCI LC data is available from the ESA Climate Change Initiative through

515 <http://maps.elie.ucl.ac.be/CCI/viewer/download.php>.

516 The CERES EBAF Edition 4.1 dataset is available through

517 [https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/project/CERES/CERES\\_EBAF\\_Edition4.1](https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/project/CERES/CERES_EBAF_Edition4.1)

518 Code availability

519 Principal data analysis codes are available from

520 <http://doi.org/10.23728/fmi-b2share.fb5a74c32c0b4e49989334f76b370de2>

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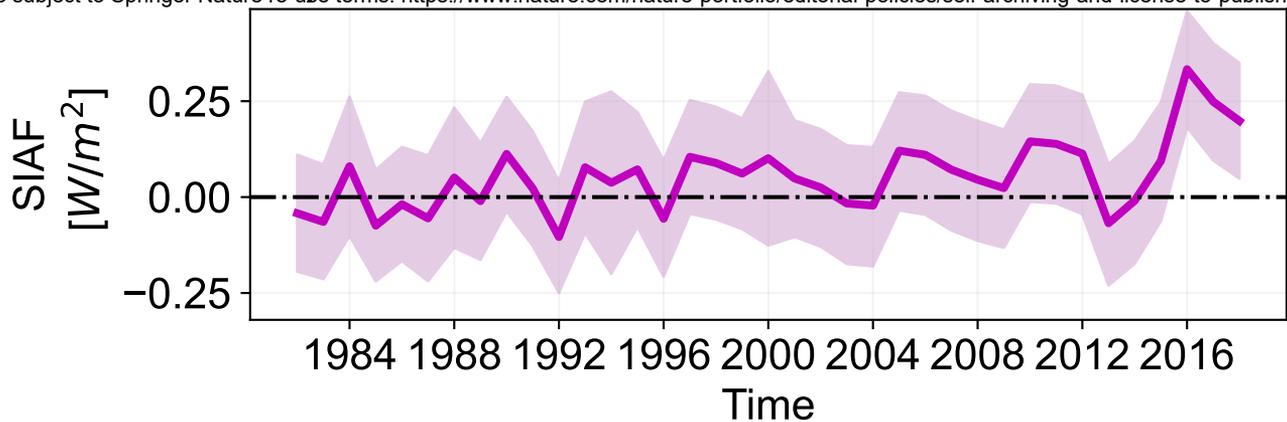
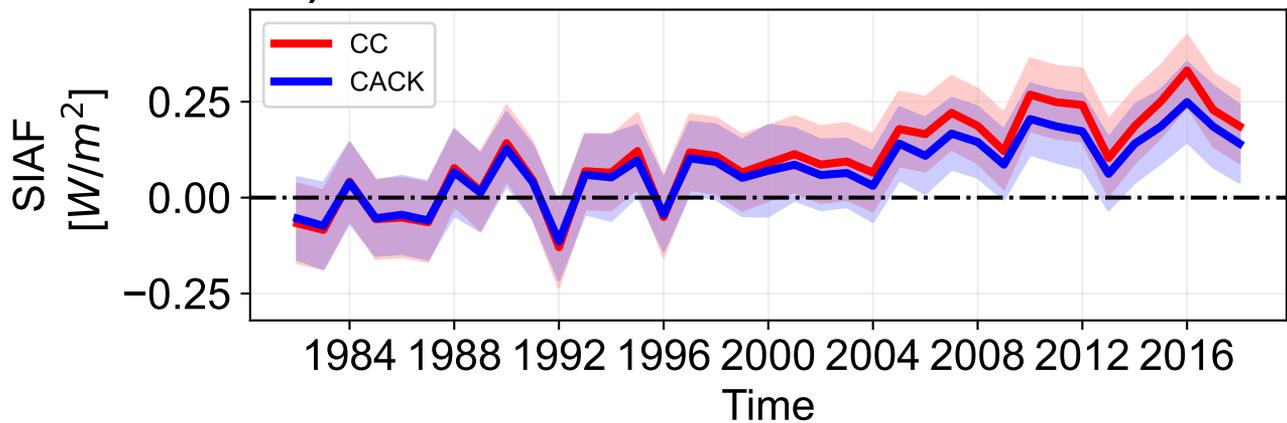
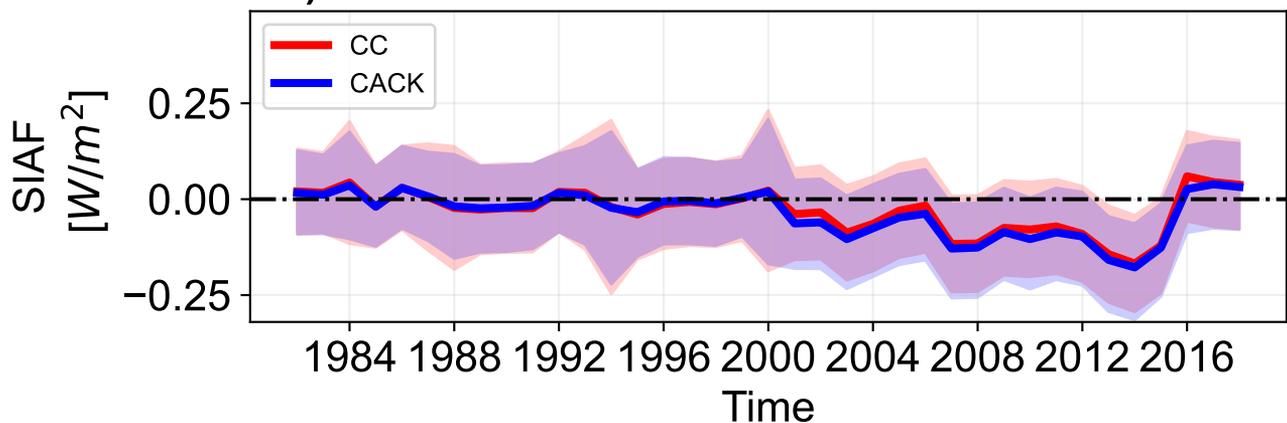
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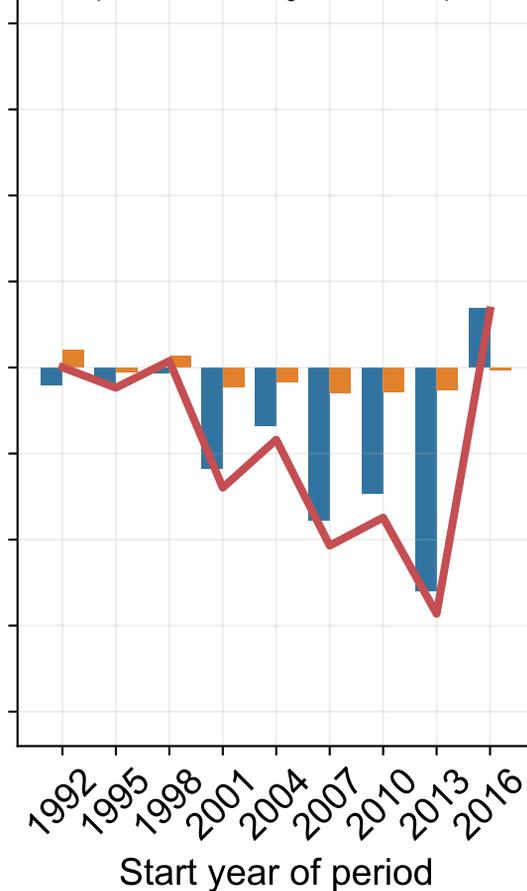
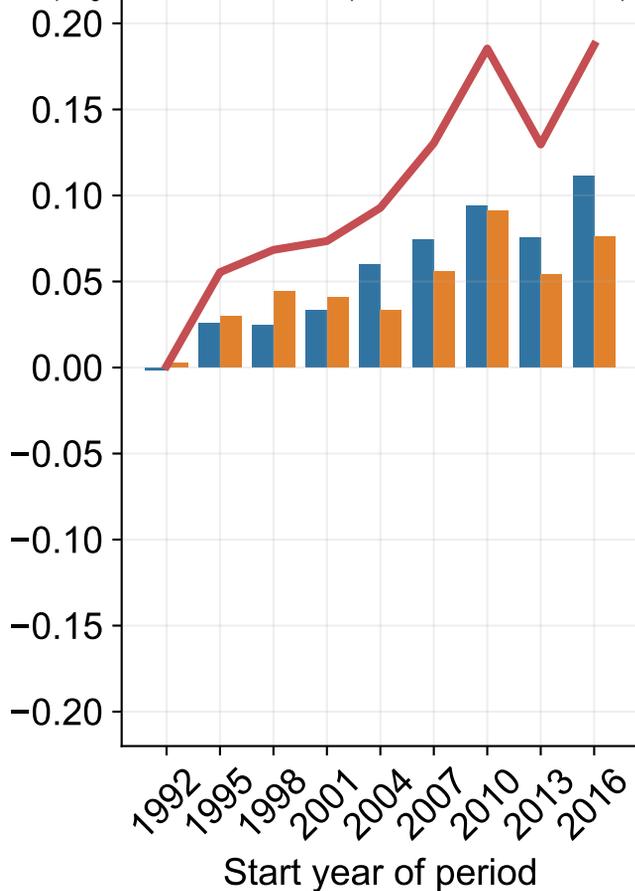
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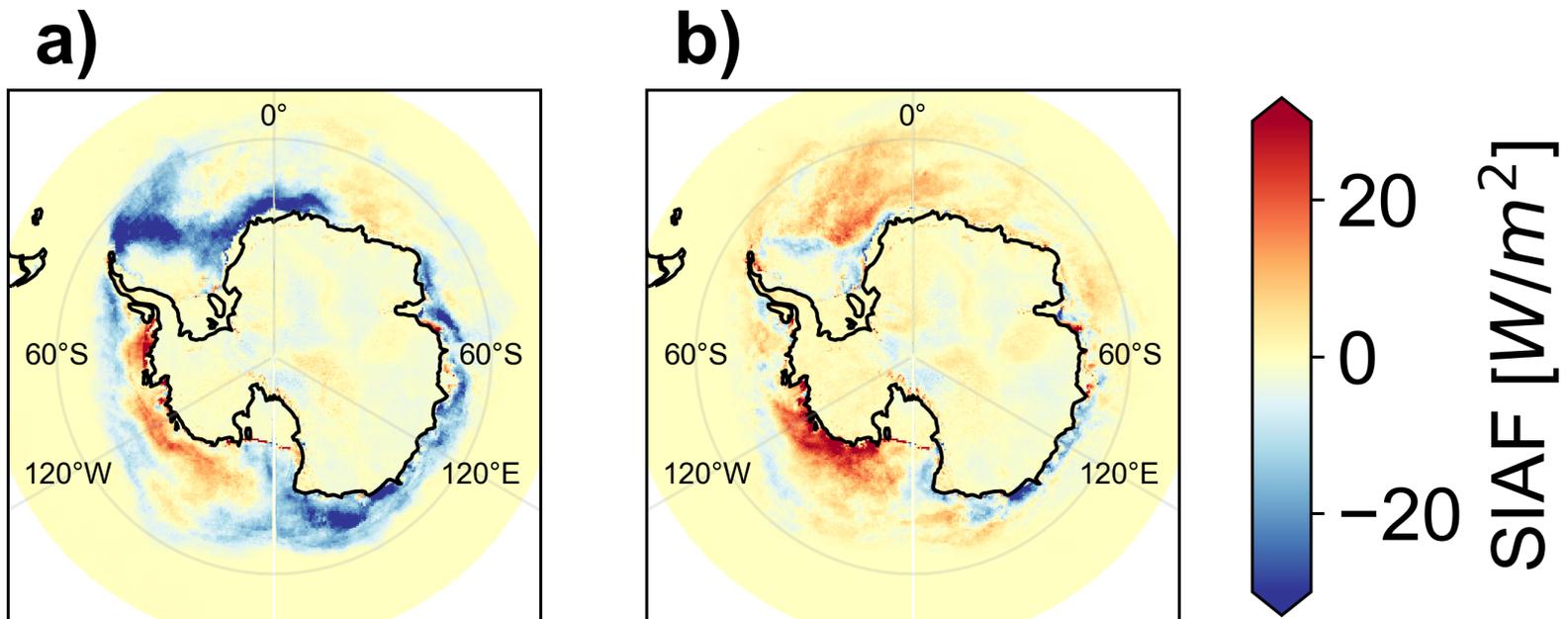
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**a) Combined****b) Arctic****c) Antarctic**

3-yr global annual mean SIAF  
[W/m<sup>2</sup>]



— Sum    Oceanic    Terrestrial



### Cryospheric contribution to global means (<50°S & >50°N)

