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THE INTERNATIONAL CLASSIFICATION FOR **SEASONAL SNOW ON THE GROUND**

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International Association of Cryospheric Sciences

The International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground

*Prepared by the ICSI-UCCS-IACS
Working Group on Snow Classification*

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FOREWORD

Undoubtedly, within the scientific community consensus is a crucial requirement for identifying phenomena, their description and the definition of terms; in other words the creation and maintenance of a common language. While there is broad agreement on the requirement, finding volunteers to do the job is not always easy. We all like performing science, but no one really likes to do the hard work of providing a classification, e.g., of snow on the ground. *Charles Fierz* has dedicated much of his time over the past years to provide this extraordinary service to the snow and avalanche community. As Head of the Division on Seasonal Snow Cover and Avalanches of the International Commission on Snow and Ice, ICSI, he, together with colleagues, identified the need for a revision of the existing classification, took the lead in organising a working group, inspired the participation and contribution of a broad variety of colleagues, persisted over the years, and now gives us the revised *International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground*. Charles also negotiated the publication of the classification, finally finding support from UNESCO-IHP, to which the International Association of Cryospheric Sciences, IACS, expresses its gratitude.

This revised snow classification is the first product delivered under the auspices of IACS. IACS was approved by the council of the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics, IUGG, in July 2007 as its eighth association. Previously, ICSI had developed its activities and international awareness to a level at which the commission status within the International Association of Hydrological Sciences, IAHS, was recognised as inappropriate. With this first product IACS also proves its direct legacy to ICSI, which had already provided sponsorship of The International Classification for Snow – with special reference to snow on the ground in 1954 and the 1990 International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground.

On behalf of the International Association of Cryospheric Sciences, I gratefully acknowledge the debt which we all owe to all authors of this work.

Innsbruck
January 2009

Georg Kaser
President
International Association of Cryospheric Sciences

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As in the past, it is probably impossible to provide a classification that will truly satisfy all levels of users in all countries. However, this present document offers a reasonable solution because from the beginning we have involved a broad community of snow scientists and snow practitioners in the updating process. In this revised classification, we expanded and clarified where necessary but did not include those most recent developments that are not fully agreed upon by the whole community.

Informal discussions with *J. Bruce Jamieson* and *Jürg Schweizer* initiated the idea for the present revision of the International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground. Under the auspices of *Paul Föhn*, Head of the Division on Seasonal Snow Cover and Avalanches, the Working Group was installed in 2003 by the Bureau of the former International Commission on Snow and Ice, ICSI. Its successors, UCCS and finally IACS, the International Association of Cryospheric Sciences, always strongly supported the work. The chair of the 1990 Working Group, *Sam Colbeck*, was also very much in favour of this revision. His encouragement and feedback were always highly appreciated.

Needless to say, such a work could not have been completed without the support, the help, and the suggestions for improvements from many people. In particular, I would like to acknowledge the work of a large panel of snow practitioners and scientists who helped to improve substantially the present document by giving either their personal or consolidated feedback on the final draft of the revised International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground: *Edward E. Adams, Roger G. Barry, Peter Bebi, Karl W. Birkeland, Anselmo Cagnati, Cam Campbell, J. Graham Cogley, Stephan G. Custer, Florent Dominé, Peter Gauer, Martin Heggli and colleagues, Erik Hestnes and colleagues, J. Bruce Jamieson, Michael Kuhn, Spencer Logan, Adrain McCallum, Ron Perla, Atsushi Sato, Martin Schneebeli, Jürg Schweizer, Thomas Stucki, Matthew Sturm, and Simon Walker and colleagues.* Finally, the text of the classification would not read as smoothly without the careful editing work of *Betsy Armstrong*.

Several people and organizations took responsibility for checking and providing suitable translations for the multilingual list of terms: the Centre d'Etudes de la Neige, members of the Canadian committee for a standardized Avalanche Bulletin Vocabulary, as well as *Florent Dominé* (French), *Andres Rivera* and *Javier Corripio* (Spanish), *Sergey A. Sokratov* (Russian), and the Swiss Avalanche Service (German).

UNESCO (www.unesco.org) through its International Hydrological Programme, IHP, agreed to publish the revised International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground in the series *IHP Technical Documents in Hydrology*. We are thankful to *Siegfried Demuth*, head of the section on Hydrological Processes and Climate at IHP, who pursued the long standing collaboration between UNESCO/IHP on one side and IACS and its predecessors on the other. The publishing of a hard copy version of the International Classification for Seasonal Snow on the Ground will undoubtedly help meet the goal of making the classification available to as many groups of interested users as possible. By providing authoritative translations of the classification, as well as additional versions of the multilingual list of terms on its website (www.cryosphericsscience.org), IACS will further contribute to the dissemination of the classification.

The International Glaciological Society, IGS, graciously and professionally typeset the document, thereby underlining the good relationship among cryospheric organizations.

Stefan Huber, student at the 'Zürcher Hochschule der Künste ZHdK' under the supervision of *Rudolf Barmettler*, Design Department, designed the symbol font used in this document. This would not have been feasible without the financial support from the WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research SLF in Davos. The symbol font will be made available for free on the IACS website.

Finally, I would like to personally thank all members of the Working Group who provided support and guidance throughout the five-year duration of this work. Among them, *Ethan Greene* should be recognized for having collected and summarized the different views on snow microstructure from *Edward E. Adams*, *Jean-Bruno Brzoska*, *Frédéric Flin*, *Martin Schneebeli*, and *Sergey A. Sokratov*. I particularly thank *Ethan Greene* for his continuing support through all phases of this revision.

Finally I would also like to warmly acknowledge my home institution, the WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research SLF in Davos, and in particular the head of the research unit Snow and Permafrost, *Michael Lehning*, for giving me the opportunity and the time necessary to complete this task.

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INTRODUCTION

Snow research is an interdisciplinary field, as reflected in a variety of books dedicated to snow and its various aspects, such as *Handbook of Snow: Principles, Processes, Management and Use* (Gray & Male, 1981), *The Avalanche Handbook* (McClung & Schaerer, 2006), *Snow Ecology: An Interdisciplinary Examination of Snow-Covered Ecosystems* (Jones *et al.*, 2001) and *Snow and Climate: Physical Processes, Surface Energy Exchange and Modeling* (Armstrong & Brun, 2008) to cite only a few. Such a wide range of interest and knowledge in snow makes common descriptions of snow as well as common measurement practices very desirable.

The International Commission of Snow and Glaciers of the International Association of Scientific Hydrology, IASH, recognized this need in 1948 by appointing a committee to report as soon as possible on the possibilities of standardizing an international snow classification system. This resulted in the 1954 publication, *The International Classification for Snow – with special reference to snow on the ground* (Schaefer *et al.*, 1954), issued by the then named International Commission on Snow and Ice, ICSI, of IASH. Over time, knowledge about snow processes increased and observation practices differed increasingly from country to country. That is why in 1985 ICSI, now of IAHS, the International Association of Hydrological Sciences, established a new committee on snow classification. Five years later, a fully revised and updated *International Snow Classification of Seasonal Snow on the Ground* was issued (Colbeck *et al.*, 1990).

This work has been widely used as a standard for describing the most important features of seasonal snow on the ground and is often cited in publications where a common description is needed. The 1990 classification is also well accepted by practitioners world wide, providing the basic framework aimed at in 1954, namely:

To set up a classification as the basic framework which may be expanded or contracted to suit the needs of any particular group ranging from scientists to skiers. It has also to be arranged so that many of the observations may be made either with the aid of simple instruments or, alternatively, by visual methods. Since the two methods are basically parallel, measurements and visual observations may be combined in various ways to obtain the degree of precision required in any particular class of work.

Since 1990 our collective knowledge of snow and the techniques we use to observe its characteristics have evolved. Thus, in 2003, the current classification (Colbeck *et al.*, 1990) needed an update, but the users of the 1990 classification felt that corrections and additions should be kept to a minimum. Following the spirit of the previous editions, the Working Group on Snow Classification took care to again provide a concise document usable by user groups of quite different specialties: snow scientists, practitioners, scientists from other fields, as well as interested lay persons. However, classification schemes typically become more technical as knowledge, measurement techniques, and observation methods evolve.

The classification deals primarily with seasonal snow, even though many concepts in the present snow classification can also be applied to firn, which is the first stage in the formation of glacier ice. Definitions and tools are provided mainly to describe point observations of the snowpack, e.g., from snow pit work. However, the classification does not attempt to classify snow covers from a climatic point of view, a topic that is dealt with in other publications (Sturm *et al.*, 1995).

Precipitation particles are included in much the same way as was proposed in 1948. This neither renders the full variety of solid hydrometeors, such as the specialised classification of Magono & Lee (1966), nor does it fully correspond to the way solid hydrometeors are coded according to WMO standards (WMO, 1992). However, it provides a useful framework for classifying the first, usually short lived, stage of seasonal snow on the ground.

The grain shape classification is augmented by one new main class (Machine Made Snow, MM), a few additional sub-classes, and a redistribution of the old surface deposit sub-classes among other main classes. The abbreviation code is no longer alphanumeric, helping to do away with the idea of a tree-like classification that cannot represent the subtleties of snow metamorphism. The new code helps avoid misunderstandings and adds flexibility to the classification scheme. Users of this classification should keep in mind that a snow layer cannot be classified with a single parameter such as grain shape. Finally, the 1990 process-oriented classification has been merged with the description of the process itself. This avoids repetition and allows for a more focussed description of the processes at work.

Promising research tools and methods such as the Snow Micro Penetrometer, Near Infrared Photography, or 3D-tomography are neither included nor mentioned in this document. Although they offer quantitative methods of characterizing snow layers, their use has not yet reached the point where they can be considered a standard method for both research and operations. Appendix B provides a discussion of the most promising snow microstructure parameters currently in use. This was included to give snow scientists a common language to describe the microstructure of snow, even though full consensus among experts in the field has not yet been reached.

We considered including special sections or appendices on forest snowpacks and surface formations (mainly in polar regions). However, there was no clear consensus among experts working in the field to produce a standard for these observations. In future, the International Association of Cryospheric Sciences, IACS, will establish a permanent agenda item entitled 'Standards and Classifications', to be discussed at each Bureau Meeting. In this manner, the IACS Bureau expects to be able to react more promptly and flexibly to future developments related to standards and classifications in any field of the cryospheric sciences. Input from the cryospheric community to this agenda item will always be welcome. In addition, companion documents, the symbol font and an XML-based international exchange format for snow profiles will be made available on the IACS website.

Part 1 of the classification describes the fundamental characteristics of snow on the ground as well as a link to snow microstructure that is examined in Appendix B. Part 2 introduces additional features of snow as well as important measurements of the snow cover. Appendix A presents the grain shape classification, including photographic material. Basic guidelines for snow and snowpack observations are provided in Appendix C. The final three Appendices list the symbols used (D), define principal terms used in the text (E), and present a multilingual list of terms (F). A comprehensive but non-exhaustive bibliography completes the document.

The units used in this document conform to the *Système International d'Unités*, the International System of Units or SI system. Note that we use the complete set of SI units that includes the coherent set and the multiples and submultiples of the latter formed by combining them with the SI prefixes; e.g., both the millimetre and the centimetre belong to this complete set (see BIPM 2006, p. 106).

1 FEATURES OF DEPOSITED SNOW

From the time of its deposition until melting or turning from firn to ice, snow on the ground is a fascinating and unique material. Snow is a highly porous, sintered material made up of a continuous ice structure and a continuously connected pore space, forming together the snow microstructure. As the temperature of snow is almost always near its melting temperature, snow on the ground is in a continuous state of transformation, known as metamorphism. At the melting point, liquid water may partially fill the pore space. In general, therefore, all three phases of water can coexist in snow on the ground.

Due to the intermittent nature of precipitation, the action of wind and the continuously ongoing metamorphism of snow, distinct layers of snow build up the snowpack. Each such stratigraphic layer differs from the adjacent layers above and below by at least one of the following characteristics: microstructure or density, which together define the snow type, additionally snow hardness, liquid water content, snow temperature, or impurities that all describe the state of this type of snow (see also Table 1.1). Thus, at any one time, the type and state of the snow forming a layer have to be defined because its physical and mechanical properties depend on them.

For practical reasons, the sintered ice structure of snow is usually disaggregated into single particles for recording both grain shape and grain size instead of characterizing microstructure itself, thereby losing most information on grain bonds (interconnections). In this context, 'particle' and 'grain' are used interchangeably. While the former may consist of several single crystals, the latter, strictly speaking, would stand for one single crystal of ice only.

Table 1.1 Primary physical characteristics of deposited snow

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Symbol</i>
Microstructure	see Appendix B	
Grain shape		<i>F</i>
Grain size	mm	<i>E</i>
Snow density	kg m ⁻³	ρ_s
Snow hardness	depends on instrument	<i>R</i>
Liquid water content	either volume or mass fraction	θ_w, LWC
Snow temperature	°C	T_s
Impurities	mass fraction	<i>J</i>
Layer thickness	cm	<i>L</i>

Lateral heterogeneities inherently occur on spatial scales larger than that of a point observation of the snowpack. Heterogeneities on the point scale, e.g., within a snow pit, can occur within snow layers for various reasons such as wind, water percolation, or snow unloading from trees. Inhomogeneous water percolation into a subfreezing snowpack leads to the formation of flow fingers and ponding or flow along capillary barriers. Subsequent refreezing of this percolating water often results in horizontal and vertical solid ice formations that can be found anywhere within the snowpack.

These features can be taken into account by adding a description of the extent and shape of the disturbance and, if necessary, by classifying the snow within the disturbed areas separately. The latter is certainly the case for forest snowpacks and Pielmeier & Schneebeli (2003) report on one such specialised classification scheme.

The standard features of snow enumerated above and in Table 1.1 are defined further below, while more detailed guidelines for snow and snowpack observations are included in Appendix C.

1.1 Grain shape (form)

Symbol: F

Table 1.2 displays the main morphological classes of grain shapes. This basic classification is augmented by subclasses in Appendix A.1, where a process-oriented characterisation of all sub-classes supplements the morphological classification. This side-by-side representation of morphological classification and physical processes should help various user groups arrive at a more reliable classification and an easier physical interpretation of their observations.

Main grain shape classes are classified by using either a symbol or a unique two-letter upper case abbreviation code. Subclasses are classified either by using the proper symbol or a four-letter abbreviation code, where two lower case letters are appended to the main class code. This abbreviation code will be useful for electronic data exchange formats while colours may be used for continuous representations in either space or time, e.g., in outputs of snowpack models. A convention on colours to use for the main classes is given in Appendix A.2.

Table 1.2 Main morphological grain shape classes

<i>Class</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Code</i>
Precipitation Particles	+	PP
Machine Made snow	⊙	MM
Decomposing and Fragmented precipitation particles	/	DF
Rounded Grains	●	RG
Faceted Crystals	□	FC
Depth Hoar	^	DH
Surface Hoar	∨	SH
Melt Forms	○	MF
Ice Formations	■	IF

The arrangement in main and subclasses does not represent a temporal evolution of snow in the snowpack as some specialised classifications do (Sturm & Benson, 1997; Kolomyts, 1984). On the other hand, shape alone cannot fully characterise a snow type and its state.

If obviously different classes of grain shapes are present in a layer, they may be characterised individually, putting either symbol or abbreviation code of the minority class in round brackets. However, symbols and abbreviations should not be used together. Additional attributes such as riming, grain interconnections, etc.,

can be used to refine the description of the grain shape by adding it as a comment to the layer (see Appendix C).

Grain shape is most easily determined in the field by using a crystal card and a magnifying glass ($8\times$ magnification at least), while a stereo-microscope may be required for specialised work. Preserving methods allow classification of field collected grains afterwards in a cold laboratory (Lesaffre *et al.*, 1998).

1.2 Grain size

Symbol: E

The classical grain size E of a snow layer is the average size of its grains. The size of a grain or particle is its greatest extension measured in millimetres. Alternatively, E can be expressed by using the terms in Table 1.3. Some users will want to also specify the average maximum size E_{\max} (See Appendix C) or even a distribution of sizes. Note that grain size must be regarded as a property of the snow layer and not of the grain shape or shapes.

A simple method suitable for field measurements is to place a sample of the grains on a plate that has a millimetre grid (crystal card). Both average size and average maximum size are then estimated by comparing the size of the grains with the spacing of the grid lines on the plate. Both these estimates correspond well to values retrieved by image processing but may differ from those obtained by either sieving or stereology (Fierz & Baunach, 2000).

Table 1.3 Grain size

<i>Term</i>	<i>Size (mm)</i>
very fine	< 0.2
fine	0.2–0.5
medium	0.5–1.0
coarse	1.0–2.0
very coarse	2.0–5.0
extreme	> 5.0

However, classical grain size E may not always be the physically relevant size to describe, e.g., the grain size determined from standard field techniques may not adequately represent the electromagnetic properties of snow. For this purpose, a so called optical-equivalent grain size, OGS , can be defined (see, e.g., Grenfell & Warren, 1999). Optical-equivalent grain size is related to the specific surface area and therefore to the microstructure of snow (see Appendix B). Although OGS depends on the wavelength of the electromagnetic waves of interest, the concept is equally applicable from the visible throughout to the microwave range. It is therefore particularly useful for remote sensing applications. To a first approximation, OGS can be estimated from the branch width of dendrites, the thickness of either thin plates or dendrites, the diameter of needles, or the shell thickness of hollow crystals (Mätzler, 2002; Aoki *et al.*, 2003).

1.3 Snow density

Symbol: ρ_s

Density, i.e., mass per unit volume (kg m^{-3}), is normally determined by weighing snow of a known volume. Sometimes total and dry snow densities are measured separately. Total snow density encompasses all constituents of snow (ice, liquid water, and air) while dry snow density refers to the ice matrix and air only.

Although snow density is a bulk property, an accurate value is necessary for microstructure based studies (see Appendix B). Note that an alternative method to measure density in the field is by taking advantage of the dielectric properties of snow (Denoth, 1989; Mätzler, 1996).

1.4 Snow hardness

Symbol: R

Hardness is the resistance to penetration of an object into snow. Hardness measurements produce a relative index value that depends on both the operator and the instrument; therefore, the device has to be specified. A widely accepted instrument is the Swiss rammsonde. Using this instrument, 'ram resistance' is a quasi-objective measure of snow hardness in newtons. Profiles of snow hardness can be obtained from the wall of a snow pit using so called push-pull gauges (see, e.g., Takeuchi *et al.*, 1998).

De Quervain (1950) introduced a hand test with five steps that he assigned rather intuitively to ram resistance ranges. The test uses objects of decreasing areas. For any single layer of the snowpack, hand hardness index corresponds to the first object that can be gently pushed into the snow, thereby not exceeding a penetration force of 10–15 N. The hand test is a relative, subjective measurement. It is thus suggested that operators 'calibrate' themselves against colleagues or against another snow hardness measuring instrument such as the ramsonde. Therefore Table 1.4 also shows de Quervain's ranges adapted to today's use.

Note that recent studies including the hand test almost exclusively use the hand hardness index as a reference value.

Table 1.4 Hardness of deposited snow

Term	<i>Hand test</i>			<i>Ram resistance</i> (Swiss rammsonde) (N)		<i>Graphic symbol</i>
	<i>Hand hardness index</i>	<i>Object</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Mean</i>	
very soft	1	fist	F	0–50	20	
soft	2	4 fingers	4F	50–175	100	/
medium	3	1 finger	1F	175–390	250	×
hard	4	pencil ¹	P	390–715	500	∥
very hard	5	knife blade	K	715–1200	1000	※
ice	6	ice	I	> 1200	> 1200	■

¹Here 'pencil' means the tip of a sharpened pencil.

1.5 Liquid water content

Symbol: θ_w , LWC

Liquid water content is defined as the amount of water within the snow that is in the liquid phase. This parameter is synonymous with the free-water content of a snow sample. Liquid water in snow originates from either melt, rain, or a combination of the two. Measurements of liquid water content or wetness are expressed as either a volume ($\theta_{w,v}$ or LWC_v) or mass ($\theta_{w,m}$ or LWC_m) fraction. Both can be reported as a percent (%), which usually requires a separate measurement of density. A general classification of liquid water content $\theta_{w,v}$ in terms of volume fraction is given in Table 1.5.

Liquid water is only mobile if the residual or irreducible water content is exceeded. The latter is the water that can be held by surface forces against the pull of gravity (capillary action). Residual water content in snow corresponds to a volume fraction of about 3–6 %, depending on the snow type.

There are several methods to determine liquid water content of snow in the field. These include cold (freezing) calorimetry, alcohol calorimetry, and the dilution method (Boyne & Fisk, 1990) as well as dielectric measurements (Denoth *et al.*, 1984). Hot (melting) calorimetry requires both a properly designed device and a meticulous observer to obtain accurate measurements (Kawashima *et al.*, 1998).

1.6 Snow temperature

Symbol: T_s

The temperature of snow should be given in degrees Celsius (°C). Sometimes it is desirable to record other temperatures of interest; the suggested symbols for the more common ones are:

$T_s(H)$: Snow temperature at height H in centimetres above the ground

$T_s(-H)$: Snow temperature at depth $-H$ in centimetres below the surface

T_{ss} : Snow surface temperature

T_a : Air temperature 1.5 m above snow surface

T_g : Ground surface temperature (the same as Bottom Temperature of Snow, BTS, in the field of permafrost).

1.7 Impurities

Symbol: J

This subsection has been included in the classification to cover those cases in where the kind and amount of an impurity have an influence on the physical characteristics of the snow. In these cases the type of impurity should be fully described and its amount given as mass fraction (% , ppm). Common impurities are dust, sand, soot, acids, organic and soluble materials. Low amounts of impurities do not strongly influence the physical properties of snow but are of hydrological and environmental interest. Type and amount of impurities can be obtained by collecting snow samples in-situ and analysing them in a laboratory.

1.8 Layer thickness

Symbol: L

The snow layer thickness (measured in centimetres or fractions thereof) is an essential parameter when characterising the current state of a snowpack. Layer

thickness is usually measured vertically. If the measurement is taken perpendicular, i.e., slope normal, layer thickness should be denoted by L_p .

Table 1.5 Liquid water content

<i>Term</i>	<i>Wetness index</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Approximate range of $\theta_{w,v}$ (volume fraction in %)¹</i>		<i>Graphic symbol</i>
				<i>range</i>	<i>mean</i>	
dry	1	D	Usually T_s is below 0°C , but dry snow can occur at any temperature up to 0°C . Disaggregated snow grains have little tendency to adhere to each other when pressed together, as in making a snowball.	0	0	
moist	2	M	$T_s = 0^\circ\text{C}$. The water is not visible even at $10\times$ magnification. When lightly crushed, the snow has a distinct tendency to stick together.	0–3	1.5	
wet	3	W	$T_s = 0^\circ\text{C}$. The water can be recognised at $10\times$ magnification by its meniscus between adjacent snow grains, but water cannot be pressed out by moderately squeezing the snow in the hands (pendular regime).	3–8	5.5	
very wet	4	V	$T_s = 0^\circ\text{C}$. The water can be pressed out by moderately squeezing the snow in the hands, but an appreciable amount of air is confined within the pores (funicular regime).	8–15	11.5	
soaked	5	S	$T_s = 0^\circ\text{C}$. The snow is soaked with water and contains a volume fraction of air from 20 to 40% (funicular regime).	>15	>15	

¹For a conversion from volume to mass fraction, see Appendix C.2.

2 ADDITIONAL MEASUREMENTS OF DEPOSITED SNOW

A snow profile is a vertical section of the snowpack. It characterizes the stratification or layering of the snowpack. This involves classifying each layer within the snow as outlined in Part I and Appendix C, including the surface of the snow cover. Some of the important measurements in addition to those described in Section I are listed in Table 2.1.

Procedures on how to best perform these measurements can be found in Brown & Armstrong (2008), Doesken & Judson (1997), UNESCO (1970), or in observational guidelines such as CAA (2007) and AAA (2009).

Table 2.1 Snow cover measurements

<i>Term</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Symbol</i>
Height (vertical coordinate)	cm	<i>H</i>
Thickness (slope – perpendicular coordinate)	cm	<i>D</i>
Height of snowpack	cm	<i>HS</i>
Height of new snow	cm	<i>HN</i>
Snow water equivalent	mm w.e. *, kg m ⁻²	<i>SWE</i>
Water equivalent of snowfall	mm w.e. *, kg m ⁻²	<i>HNW</i>
Snow strength (compressive, tensile, shear)	Pa	Σ
Penetrability of snow surface	cm	<i>P</i>
Surface features	(cm)	<i>SF</i>
Snow covered area	l, %	<i>SCA</i>
Slope angle	°	ψ
Aspect of slope	°	<i>AS</i>
Time	s, min, h, d, week, month, year	<i>t</i>

*Note that mm w.e. – or mm – is not a SI unit even though it is the most used in hydrological sciences.

2.1 Height (vertical coordinate)

Symbol: *H*

Height is the coordinate measured vertically (line of plumb) from the base. Ground surface is usually taken as the base, but on firn fields and glaciers, it refers to the level of either the firn surface or glacier ice. Usually expressed in centimetres, height is used to denote the locations of layer boundaries but also of measurements such as snow temperatures relative to the base. Where only the upper part of the snowpack is of interest, the snow surface may be taken as the reference. This should be indicated by using negative coordinate values (depth). The symbol *H* should be used for all vertical measurements, regardless of whether they are taken at a place where the snow surface is horizontal or inclined.

2.2 Thickness (slope-perpendicular coordinate)

Symbol: *D*

Thickness is the slope normal coordinate to be used when measurements are taken perpendicular, i.e., at right angle to the slope on inclined snow covers. It is measured in centimetres from the base and the same comments apply as for height.

When observers use thickness, they should also report the slope angle with respect to either the snow surface or a layer within the snowpack, e.g., the bed surface of an avalanche.

2.3 Height of snowpack, snow depth

Symbol: *HS*

Snow depth denotes the total height of the snowpack, i.e., the vertical distance in centimetres from base to snow surface. Unless otherwise specified snow depth is related to a single location at a given time. Thus, manual snow depth measurements are often made with one or more fixed snow stakes. On the other hand, portable snow depth probes allow for measurements along snow courses and transects. The slope-perpendicular equivalent of snow depth is the total thickness of the snowpack denoted by *DS*.

Automated measurements of either snow depth or snow thickness are possible with ultrasonic and other fixed and portable snow depth sensors.

2.4 Height of new snow, depth of snowfall

Symbol: *HN*

Height of new snow is the depth in centimetres of freshly fallen snow that accumulated on a snow board during a standard observing period of 24 hours. Additional observation intervals can be used, but should be specified. For example, the notation *HN(8h)* or *HN(2d)* denotes an observation interval of 8 hours or 2 days, respectively. Height of new snow is traditionally measured with a ruler. After the measurement, the snow is cleared from the board and the board is placed flush with the snow surface to provide an accurate measurement at the end of the next interval. The corresponding slope-perpendicular measurement is denoted by *DN*.

2.5 Snow water equivalent

Symbol: *SWE*

Snow water equivalent is the depth of water that would result if the mass of snow melted completely. It can represent the snow cover over a given region or a confined snow sample over the corresponding area. The snow water equivalent is the product of the snow height in metres and the vertically-integrated density in kilograms per cubic metre (Goodison *et al.*, 1981, p. 224). It is typically expressed in millimetres of water equivalent, which is equivalent to kilograms per square metre or litres per square metre, thus referring to the unit surface area of the considered snow sample. Table 2.2 summarizes the various symbols used for snow water equivalent measurements.

Table 2.2 Symbols for snow water equivalent measurements

<i>Description</i>	<i>Symbol</i>
Snow water equivalent of snow cover	<i>SWE, HSW</i>
Water equivalent from the base up to the height <i>H</i>	<i>HW</i>
Water equivalent of a single layer of thickness <i>L</i>	<i>LW</i>
Water equivalent of snowfall	<i>HNW</i>

Snow water equivalent is most simply measured by weighing samples of known cross sections (see WMO, 1994; Goodison *et al.*, 1981; UNESCO, 1970). Note that measurements are always expressed with respect to the vertical, regardless of whether they are taken vertically or slope normal.

2.6 Water equivalent of snowfall

Symbol: *HNW*

Snow water equivalent of snowfall is typically measured for a standard observing period of 24 hours. Other periods can be specified, e.g., *HNW(8h)* or *HNW(2d)* for periods of 8 hours or 2 days, respectively.

HNW(24h) can be very roughly estimated from the height of new snow *HN(24h)* assuming a mean new snow density of 100 kg m^{-3} .

2.7 Snow strength

Symbol: Σ

Snow strength can be regarded as the maximum or failure stress on a stress–strain curve. It is the maximum stress snow can withstand without failing or fracturing. Snow strength depends on the stress state (σ : compressive or tensile; τ : shear) in pascals and the strain, ε , which is dimensionless, as well as on their rates in pascals per second and per second, respectively. Snow strength depends also on microstructure and on the homogeneity of the sample. To make measurements meaningful, all of these parameters must be considered. Moreover, failure types such as ductile or brittle fracture or maximum stress at low strain rates must be given.

Shear strength of snow can be measured relatively simply in the field by using a shear frame (Jamieson & Johnston, 2001). Shear strength is important in evaluating the stability of the snowpack. Mechanical properties of snow were comprehensively reviewed by Shapiro *et al.* (1997).

2.8 Penetrability of snow surface

Symbol: *P*

Penetrability is the depth that an object penetrates into the snow from the surface. It can be used as a rough measure of the amount of snow available for transport by aeolian processes or the ability of a snowpack to support a certain load. The depth of penetration of some suitable object, such as a ramsonde element, a foot, or a ski, is measured in centimetres.

The following symbols are suggested:

PR: Penetration depth of the first element of a Swiss ramsonde by its own weight (1 m, 10 N)

PF: Penetration depth of a person standing on one foot (foot penetration)

PS: Penetration depth of a skier supported on one ski (ski penetration)

2.9 Surface features

Symbol: *SF*

This subsection refers to the general appearance of the snow surface. These surface features are due to the following main processes: deposition, redistribution and erosion by wind, melting and refreezing, sublimation and evaporation, and rain. A classification that allows the characterisation of vast areas as found in polar and sub-polar regions as well as alpine snow surfaces has not yet been developed.

Table 2.3 Surface roughness

<i>Term</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Graphic symbol</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Roughness elements</i>
smooth	Deposition without wind	————	rsm	
wavy	Wind deposited snow	~~~~~	rwa	<i>ripples</i>
concave furrows	Melt and sublimation	~~~~~	rcv	<i>ablation hollows, sun cups, penitents</i>
convex furrows	Rain or melt	~~~~~	rcx	<i>rain or melt groves</i>
random furrows	Erosion	~~~~~	rrd	<i>zastrugi, erosion features</i>

However, the snow surface can be described more generally in terms of roughness elements that are not related to snow microstructure. The surface roughness types are given in Table 2.3.

The average vertical extent of any of these roughness elements, measured in centimetres, can be combined with the relevant symbol or code, e.g., *SFrcv* 10. The wavelength and compass direction may also be of interest.

Note that surface features are not a substitute for the characterisation of the topmost snowpack layer according to Part I and Appendix C.

2.10 Snow covered area

Symbol: *SCA*

Snow covered area is defined as the areal extent of snow-covered ground, usually expressed as a fraction (%) of the total area investigated. The latter must be defined, e.g., observation site, catchment, district, country, continent. Unless otherwise specified, only seasonal snow cover is considered. Hence, on glaciers and névés, ground refers either to glacier ice or to an old firn surface.

2.11 Slope angle

Symbol: ψ

Slope angle is the acute angle measured from the horizontal to the plane of a slope. Slope angle is measured with a clinometer.

2.12 Aspect of slope

Symbol: *AS*

Aspect is the compass direction towards which a slope faces. The direction is taken downslope and normal to the contours of elevation, i.e., along the fall line.

Aspect should be given either in degrees, clockwise from true North $N = 0^\circ = 360^\circ$, or as cardinal and inter-cardinal points, i.e., N, NE, E, SE, S, SW, W, NW.










2.13 Time

Symbol: *t*

Time is usually given in seconds. To indicate either time periods over which a measurement takes place or the age of snow deposits and layers, the following units may be used: minutes (min), hours (h), days (d) as well as week, month and year.

APPENDIX A: GRAIN SHAPE CLASSIFICATION

A.1 Main and subclasses of grain shapes

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Code	Place of formation	Additional information on physical processes and strength		
	Subclass	Shape			Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	Common effect on strength
Precipitation Particles			PP				
+	Columns	Prismatic crystal, solid or hollow	PPco	Cloud; temperature inversion layer (clear sky)	Growth from water vapour at -3 to -8°C and below -30°C		
							
	Needles	Needle-like, approximately cylindrical	PPnd	Cloud	Growth from water vapour at high super-saturation at -3 to -5°C and below -60°C		
							
	Plates	Plate-like, mostly hexagonal	PPpl	Cloud; temperature inversion layer (clear sky)	Growth from water vapour at 0 to -3°C and -8 to -70°C		
							
	Stellars, Dendrites	Six-fold star-like, planar or spatial	PPsd	Cloud; temperature inversion layer (clear sky)	Growth from water vapour at high supersaturation at 0 to -3°C and at -12 to -16°C		
							
	Irregular crystals	Clusters of very small crystals	PPir	Cloud	Polycrystals growing in varying environmental conditions		
							
	Graupel	Heavily rimed particles, spherical, conical, hexagonal or irregular in shape	PPgp	Cloud	Heavy riming of particles by accretion of supercooled water droplets Size: ≤5 mm		
							
	Hail	Laminar internal structure, translucent or milky glazed surface	PPhl	Cloud	Growth by accretion of supercooled water Size: >5 mm		
							
Ice pellets	Transparent, mostly small spheroids	PPip	Cloud	Freezing of raindrops or refreezing of largely melted snow crystals or snowflakes (sleet) Graupel or snow pellets encased in thin ice layer (small hail) Size: both ≤5 mm			
							
Rime	Irregular deposits or longer cones and needles pointing into the wind	PPrm	Onto surface as well as on freely exposed objects	Accretion of small, supercooled fog droplets frozen in place. Thin breakable crust forms on snow surface if process continues long enough		Increase with fog density and exposure to wind	
							

Notes: Diamond dust is a further type of precipitation often observed in polar regions (see Appendix E).

Hard rime is more compact and amorphous than soft rime and may build out as glazed cones or ice feathers (AMS, 2000).

The above subclasses do not cover all types of particles and crystals one may observe in the atmosphere. See the references below for a more comprehensive coverage.

References: Magono & Lee, 1966; Bailey & Hallett, 2004; Dovgaluk & Pershina, 2005; Libbrecht, 2005

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Additional information on physical processes and strength			
	Subclass	Shape	Code	Place of formation	Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters

Machine Made snow

MM

⊙	Round polycrystalline particles	Small spherical particles, often showing protrusions, a result of the freezing process; may be partially hollow	MM/irp	Atmosphere, near surface	Machined snow, i.e., freezing of very small water droplets from the surface inward	Liquid water content depends mainly on air temperature and humidity but also on snow density and grain size	In dry conditions, quick sintering results in rapid strength increase
⊙	Crushed ice particles	Ice plates, shard-like	MM/ai	Ice generators	Machined ice, i.e., production of flake ice, subsequent crushing, and pneumatic distribution	All weather safe	

References: Fauve *et al.*, 2002

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Decomposing and Fragmented precipitation particles

DF

✓	Partly decomposed precipitation particles	Characteristic shapes of precipitation particles still recognizable; often partly rounded.	DF/dc	Within the snowpack; recently deposited snow near the surface, usually dry	Decrease of surface area to reduce surface free energy; also fragmentation due to light winds lead to initial break up	Speed of decomposition decreases with decreasing snow temperatures and decreasing temperature gradients	Regains cohesion by sintering after initial strength decreased due to decomposition process
✓	Wind-broken precipitation particles	Shards or fragments of precipitation particles	DF/bk	Surface layer, mostly recently deposited snow	Salination particles are fragmented and packed by wind, often closely; fragmentation often followed by rounding	Fragmentation and packing increase with wind speed	Quick sintering results in rapid strength increase

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Additional information on physical processes and strength				
	Subclass	Shape	Code	Place of formation	Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	Common effect on strength
Rounded Grains			RG				
●	Small rounded particles •	Rounded, usually elongated particles of size < 0.25 mm; highly sintered	RGsr	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Decrease of specific surface area by slow decrease of number of grains and increase of mean grain diameter. Small equilibrium growth form	Growth rate increases with increasing temperature; growth slower in high density snow with smaller pores	Strength due to sintering of the snow grains [1]. Strength increases with time, settlement and decreasing grain size
	Large rounded particles ●	Rounded, usually elongated particles of size ≥ 0.25 mm; well sintered	RGlr	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Grain-to-grain vapour diffusion due to low temperature gradients, i.e., mean excess vapour density remains below critical value for kinetic growth. Large equilibrium growth form	Same as above	Same as above
	Wind packed ●	Small, broken or abraded, closely-packed particles; well sintered	RGwp	Surface layer; dry snow	Packing and fragmentation of wind transported snow particles that round off by interaction with each other in the saltation layer. Evolves into either a hard but usually breakable wind crust or a thicker wind slab. (see notes)	Hardness increases with wind speed, decreasing particle size and moderate temperature	High number of contact points and small size causes rapid strength increase through sintering
	Faceted rounded particles ◻	Rounded, usually elongated particles with developing facets	RGxf	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Growth regime changes if mean excess vapour density is larger than critical value for kinetic growth. Accordingly, this transitional form develops facets as temperature gradient increases	Grains are changing in response to an increasing temperature gradient	Reduction in number of bonds may decrease strength

Notes: Both wind crusts and wind slabs are layers of small, broken or abraded, closely packed and well-sintered particles. The former are thin irregular layers whereas the latter are thicker, often dense layers, usually found on lee slopes. Both types of layers can be represented either as sub-class RGwp or as RGsr along with proper grain size, hardness and/or density.

If the grains are smaller than about 1 mm, an observer will need to consider the process at work to differentiate RGxf from FCxr.

References: [1] Colbeck, 1997

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Code	Place of formation	Additional information on physical processes and strength		Common effect on strength
	Subclass	Shape			Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	
Faceted Crystals			FC		Grain-to-grain vapour diffusion driven by large enough temperature gradient, i.e., excess vapour density is above critical value for kinetic growth		
□	Solid faceted particles	Solid faceted crystals; usually hexagonal prisms	FCso	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Solid kinetic growth form, i.e., a solid crystal with sharp edges and corners as well as glassy, smooth faces	Growth rate increases with temperature, increasing temperature gradient, and decreasing density; may not grow to larger grains in high density snow because of small pores	Strength decreases with increasing growth rate and grain size
	□						
	Near surface faceted particles	Faceted crystals in surface layer	FCsf	Within the snowpack but right beneath the surface; dry snow	May develop directly from Precipitation Particles (PP) or Decomposing and Fragmented particles (DFdc) due to large, near-surface temperature gradients [1] Solid kinetic growth form (see FCso above) at early stage of development	Temperature gradient may periodically change sign but remains at a high absolute value	Low strength snow
	▣						
	Rounding faceted particles	Faceted crystals with rounding facets and corners	FCxr	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Trend to a transitional form reducing its specific surface area; corners and edges of the crystals are rounding off	Grains are rounding off in response to a decreasing temperature gradient	
	⊕						

Notes: Once buried, FCsf are hard to distinguish from FCso unless the observer is familiar with the evolution of the snowpack

FCxr can usually be clearly identified for crystals larger than about 1 mm. In case of smaller grains, however, an observer will need to consider the process at work to differentiate FCxr from RGxf.

References: [1] Birkeland, 1998

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Additional information on physical processes and strength				
	Subclass	Shape	Code	Place of formation	Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	Common effect on strength
Depth Hoar			DH		Grain-to-grain vapour diffusion driven by large temperature gradient, i.e., excess vapour density is well above critical value for kinetic growth.		
∧							
	Hollow cups	Striated, hollow skeleton type crystals; usually cup-shaped	DHcp	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Formation of hollow or partly solid cup-shaped kinetic growth crystals [1]	See FCso.	Usually fragile but strength increases with density
	∧						
	Hollow prisms	Prismatic, hollow skeleton type crystals with glassy faces but few striations	DHpr	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Snow has completely recrystallized; high temperature gradient in low density snow, most often prolonged [2]	High recrystallization rate for long period and low density snow facilitates formation	May be very poorly bonded
	□						
	Chains of depth hoar	Hollow skeleton type crystals arranged in chains	DHch	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Snow has completely recrystallized; intergranular arrangement in chains; most of the lateral bonds between columns have disappeared during crystal growth	High recrystallization rate for long period and low density snow facilitates formation	Very fragile snow
	∧						
	Large striated crystals	Large, heavily striated crystals; either solid or skeleton type	DHla	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Evolves from earlier stages described above; some bonding occurs as new crystals are initiated [2]	Longer time required than for any other snow crystal; long periods of large temperature gradient in low density snow are needed	Regains strength
	A						
	Rounding depth hoar	Hollow skeleton type crystals with rounding of sharp edges, corners, and striations	DHxr	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Trend to a form reducing its specific surface area; corners and edges of the crystals are rounding off; faces may lose their relief, i.e., striations and steps disappear slowly. This process affects all subclasses of depth hoar	Grains are rounding off in response to a decreasing temperature gradient	May regain strength
	∧						

Notes: DH and FC crystals may also grow in snow with density larger than about 300 kg m^{-3} such as found in polar snowpacks or wind slabs. These may then be termed 'hard' or 'indurated' depth hoar [3].





References: [1] Akitaya, 1974; Marbouty, 1980; Fukuzawa & Akitaya, 1993; Baunach *et al.*, 2001; Sokratov, 2001; [2] Sturm & Benson, 1997; [3] Akitaya, 1974; Benson & Sturm, 1993

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Code	Place of formation	Additional information on physical processes and strength		
	Subclass	Shape			Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	Common effect on strength
Surface Hoar ∇	Surface hoar crystals ∇	Striated, usually flat crystals; sometimes needle-like	SH SHsu	Usually on cold snow surface relative to air temperature; sometimes on freely exposed objects above the surface (see notes)	Rapid kinetic growth of crystals at the snow surface by rapid transfer of water vapour from the atmosphere toward the snow surface; snow surface cooled to below ambient temperature by radiative cooling	Both increased cooling of the snow surface below air temperature as well as increasing relative humidity of the air cause growth rate to increase. In high water vapour gradient fields, e.g., near creeks, large feathery crystals may develop	Fragile, extremely low shear strength; strength may remain low for extended periods when buried in cold dry snow
	Cavity or crevasse hoar ∇	Striated, planar or hollow skeleton type crystals grown in cavities; orientation often random	SHcv	Cavity hoar is found in large voids in the snow, e.g., in the vicinity of tree trunks, buried bushes [1] Crevasse hoar is found in any large cooled space such as crevasses, cold storage rooms, boreholes, etc.	kinetic growth of crystals forming anywhere where a cavity, i.e., a large cooled space, is formed or present in which water vapour can be deposited under calm, still conditions [2]		
	Rounding surface hoar ∇	Surface hoar crystal with rounding of sharp edges, corners and striations	SHxr	Within the snowpack; dry snow	Trend to a form reducing its specific surface area; corners and edges of the crystals are rounding off; faces may lose their relief, i.e., striations and steps disappear slowly	Grains are rounding off in response to a decreasing temperature gradient	May regain strength

Notes: It may be of interest to note more precisely the shape of hoar crystals, namely plates, cups, scrolls, needles and columns, dendrites, or composite forms [3]. Multi-day growth may also be specified. Surface hoar may form by advection of nearly saturated air on both freely exposed objects and the snow surface at subfreezing temperatures. This type of hoarfrost deposit makes up a substantial part of accumulation in the inland of Antarctica. It has been termed 'air hoar' (see [2] and [4]).

Crevasse hoar crystals are very similar to depth hoar.

References: [1] Akitaya, 1974; [2] Seligman, 1936; [3] Jamieson & Schweizer, 2000; [4] AMS, 2000

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Additional information on physical processes and strength				
	Subclass	Shape	Code	Place of formation	Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	Common effect on strength
Melt Forms			MF				
	○	Clustered rounded grains 	MFcl	At the surface or within the snowpack; wet snow	Wet snow at low water content (pendular regime), i.e., holding free liquid water; clusters form to minimize surface free energy	Meltwater can drain; too much water leads to MFsl; first freezing leads to MFpc	Ice-to-ice bonds give strength
		Rounded polycrystals 	MFpc	At the surface or within the snowpack	Melt-freeze cycles form polycrystals when water in veins freezes; either wet at low water content (pendular regime) or refrozen	Particle size increases with number of melt-freeze cycles; radiation penetration may restore MFcl; excess water leads to MFsl	High strength in the frozen state; lower strength in the wet state; strength increases with number of melt-freeze cycles
		Slush 	MFsl	Water-saturated, soaked snow; found within the snowpack, on land or ice surfaces, but also as a viscous floating mass in water after heavy snowfall.	Wet snow at high liquid water content (funicular regime); poorly bonded, fully rounded single crystals – and polycrystals – form as ice and water are in thermodynamic equilibrium	Water drainage blocked by capillary barrier, impermeable layer or ground; high energy input to the snowpack by solar radiation, high air temperature or water input (rain)	Little strength due to decaying bonds
	Melt-freeze crust 	Crust of recognizable melt-freeze polycrystals	MFcr	At the surface	Crust of melt-freeze polycrystals from a surface layer of wet snow that refroze after having been wetted by melt or rainfall; found either wet or refrozen	Particle size and density increases with number of melt-freeze cycles	Strength increases with number of melt-freeze cycles

Notes: Melt-freeze crusts MFcr form at the surface as layers at most a few centimetres thick, usually on top of a subfreezing snowpack. Rounded polycrystals MFpc will rather form within the snowpack. MFcr usually contain more refrozen water than MFpc and will not return to MFcl.

Both MFcr and MFpc may contain a recognizable minority of other shapes, particularly large kinetic growth form FC and DH. See the guidelines (Appendix C) for examples on the use of the MFcr symbol.

Basic classification	Morphological classification		Code	Place of formation	Additional information on physical processes and strength			
	Subclass	Shape			Physical process	Dependence on most important parameters	Common effect on strength	
Ice Formations			IF					
■	Ice layer	Horizontal ice layer	IFil	Within the snowpack	Rain or meltwater from the surface percolates into cold snow where it refreezes along layer-parallel capillary barriers by heat conduction into surrounding subfreezing snow, i.e., snow at $T < 0^{\circ}\text{C}$; ice layers usually retain some degree of permeability	Depends on timing of percolating water and cycles of melting and refreezing; more likely to occur if a stratification of fine over coarse-grained layers exists	Ice layers are strong but strength decays once snow is completely wetted	
■	Ice column	Vertical ice body	IFic	Within snowpack layers	Draining water within flow fingers freezes by heat conduction into surrounding subfreezing snow, i.e., snow at $T < 0^{\circ}\text{C}$	Flow fingers more likely to occur if snow is highly stratified; freezing enhanced if snow is very cold		
■	Basal ice	Basal ice layer	IFbi	Base of snowpack	Melt water ponds above substrate and freezes by heat conduction into cold substrate	Formation enhanced if substrate is impermeable and very cold, e.g., permafrost	Weak slush layer may form on top	
■	Rain crust	Thin, transparent glaze or clear film of ice on the surface	IFrc	At the surface	Results from freezing rain on snow; forms a thin surface glaze	Droplets have to be supercooled but coalesce before freezing	Thin breakable crust	
■	Sun crust, Firnspiegel	Thin, transparent and shiny glaze or clear film of ice on the surface	IFsc	At the surface	Melt water from a surface snow layer refreezes at the surface due to radiative cooling; decreasing shortwave absorption in the forming glaze enhances greenhouse effect in the underlying snow; additional water vapour may condense below the glaze [1]	Builds during clear weather, air temperatures below freezing and strong solar radiation; not to be confused with melt-freeze crust MFcr	Thin breakable crust	











Notes: In ice formations, pores usually do not connect and no individual grains or particles are recognizable, contrary to highly porous snow. Nevertheless, some permeability remains, in particular when wetted, but to much a lesser degree than for porous melt forms.

Most often, rain and solar radiation cause the formation of melt-freeze crusts MFcr.

Discontinuous ice bodies such as ice lenses or refrozen flow fingers can be identified by appropriate remarks (see Appendix C.2).

References: [1] Ozeki & Akitaya, 1998

A.2 Colour convention for main morphological grain shape classes

<i>Class</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Colour</i> ¹	Web colour name	<i>RGB</i> ² (0–255)	(HEX)	<i>CMYK</i> ³ (%)	Pantone [®] solid coated	<i>Greyscale</i> ⁴ (%)	(HEX)
Precipitation Particles	+	PP		Lime	0/255/0	#00FF00	100/0/100/0	802C	41	#969696
Machine Made snow	⊙	MM		Gold	255/215/0	#FFD700	0/16/100/0	116C	20	#CBCBCB
Decomposing and Fragmented precipitation particles	/	DF		ForestGreen	34/139/34	#228B22	76/0/76/45	363C	76	#3C3C3C
Rounded Grains	●	RG		LightPink	255/182/193	#FFB6C1	0/29/24/0	707C	20	#CDCDCD
Faceted Crystals	□	FC		LightBlue	173/216/230	#ADD8E6	25/6/0/10	629C	21	#CACACA
Depth Hoar	^	DH		Blue	0/0/255	#0000FF	100/100/0/0	Blue 072C	89	#1C1C1C
Surface Hoar	∨	SH		Fuchsia	255/0/255	#FF00FF	0/100/0/0	232C	59	#696969
Melt Forms	○	MF		Red	255/0/0	#FF0000	0/100/100/0	Red 032C	70	#4D4D4D
	⊙	MFcr								
Ice Formations	■	IF		Cyan/Aqua	0/255/255	#00FFFF	100/0/0/0	318C	30	#B3B3B3

¹The colour convention is not optimized for people affected by colour vision deficiencies.

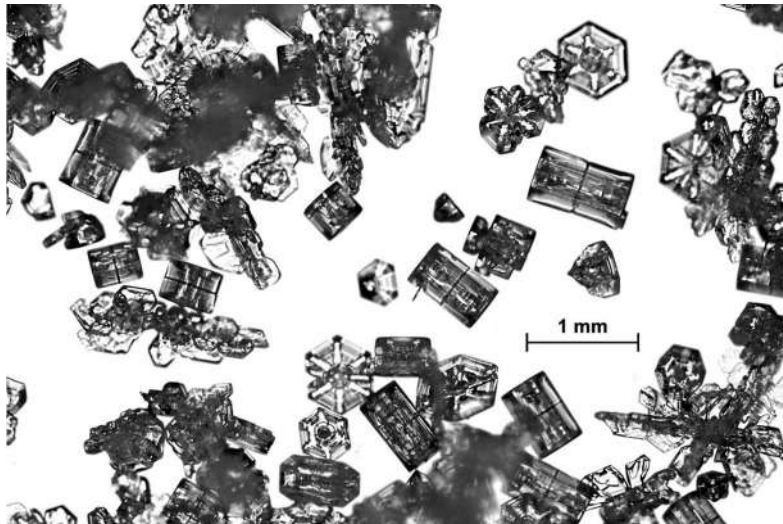
²RGB codes for web colours: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Web_colors; <http://www.w3.org/TR/css3-color/#svg-color>.

³RGB conversion to CMYK as well as to grey scale (both not unique!): <http://www.usq.edu.au/users/grantd/WORK/216color/ConvertRGB-CMYK-Grey.htm>

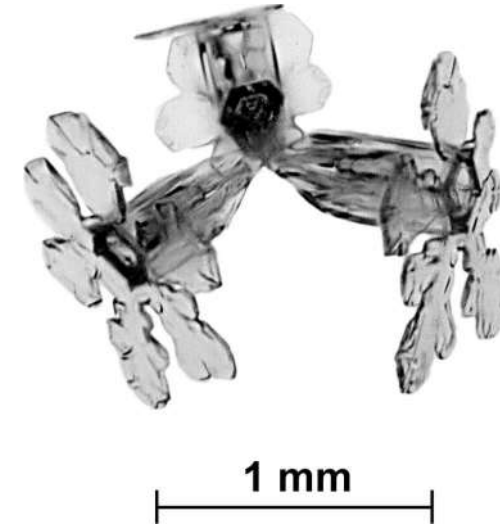
⁴Use of Greyscale is not recommended. However, values are provided for consistency: % grey = 0.3×R + 0.59×G + 0.11×B, see http://www.dfanning.com/ip_tips/color2gray.html

A.3: Photographs of various grain shapes

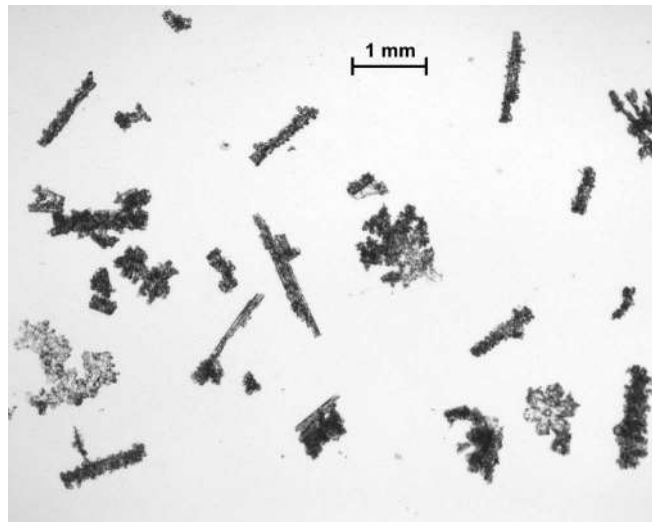
The classification contains 60 pictures collected by practitioners and scientists around the world, from the high Arctic to Antarctica, from North America to Far-East Russia and Japan.



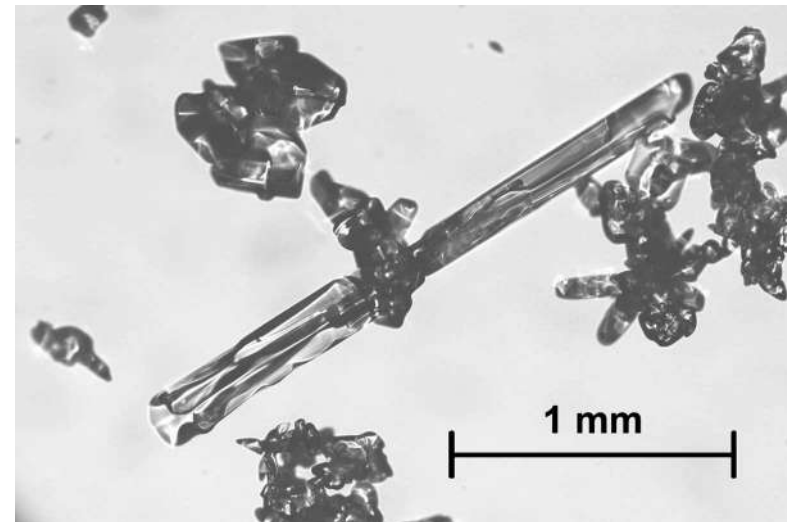
Columns PPco, \square (Elder) #01



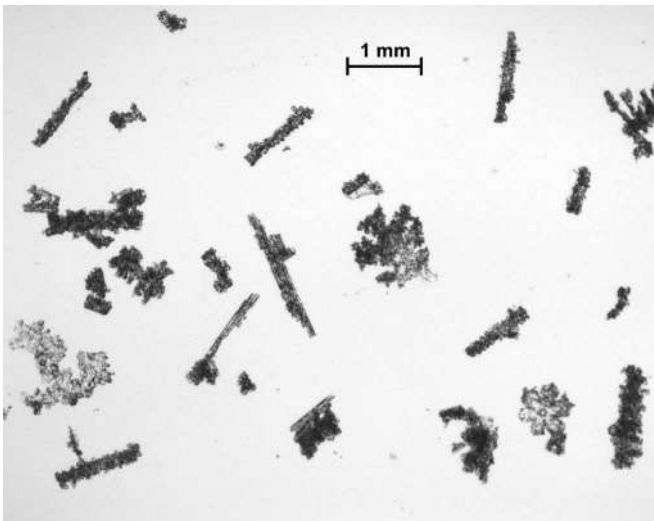
Columns and plates PPco (PPpl), \square (\odot) (Span) #02



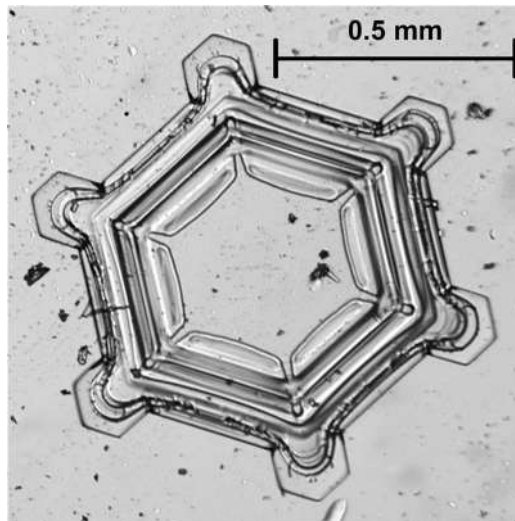
Rimed needles PPnd, \leftrightarrow (Fierz) #03



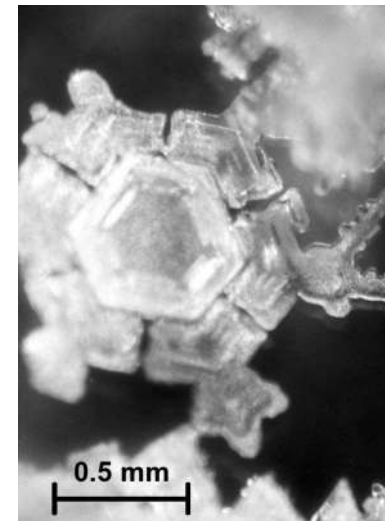
Needles PPnd, \leftrightarrow (Elder) #04



Plates PPpl, \odot (Elder) #05

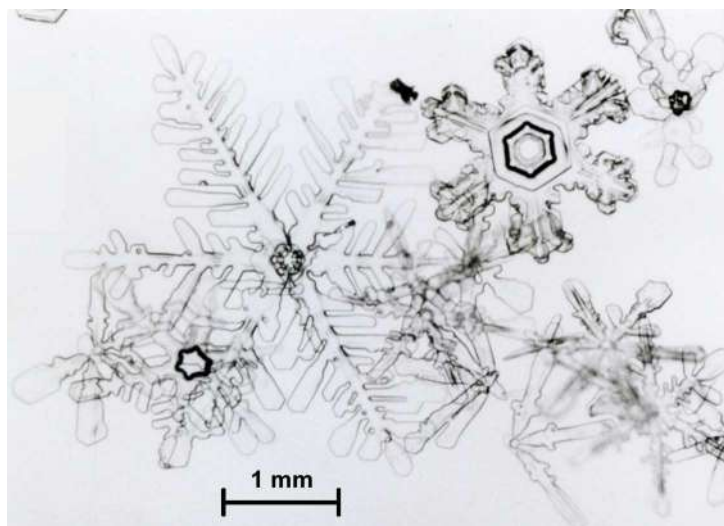


Plates PPpl, \odot (Greene) #06

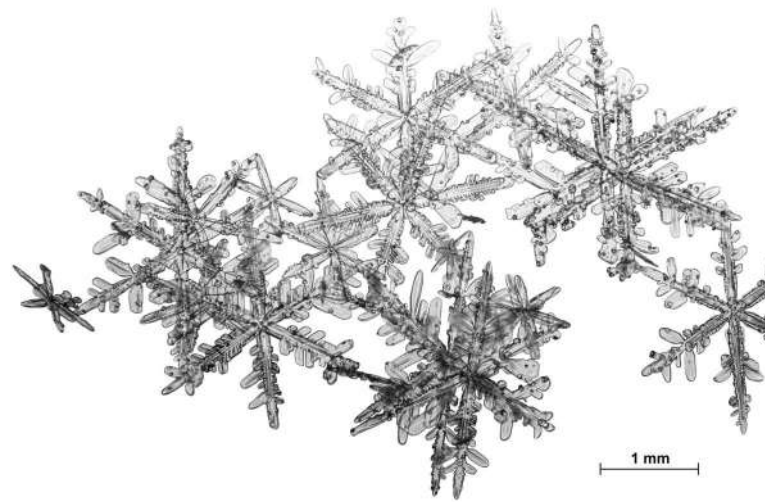


Plates PPpl, \odot (AINEVA UniMilano) #07

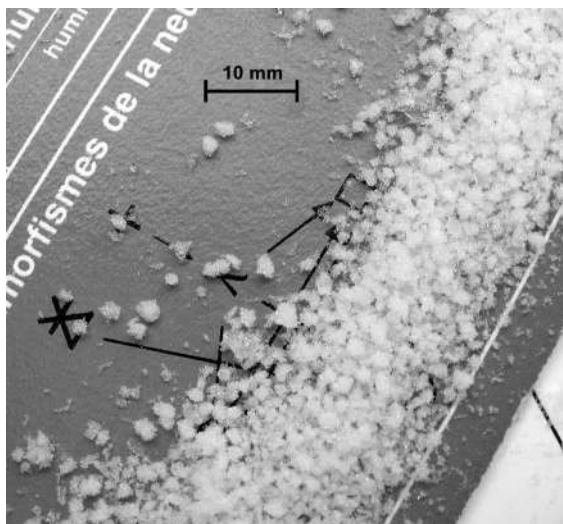
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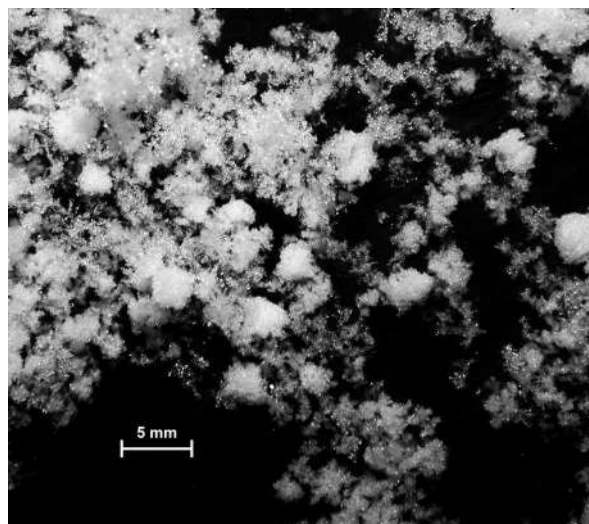
Stellar dendrites, PPsd, * (JSSI) #08



Stellar dendrites, PPsd, * (Span) #09



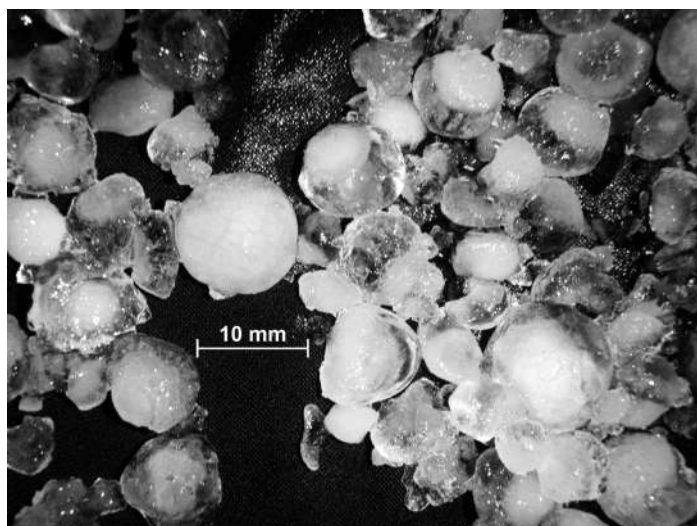
Graupel PPgp, ⚡ (Garcia Selles) #10



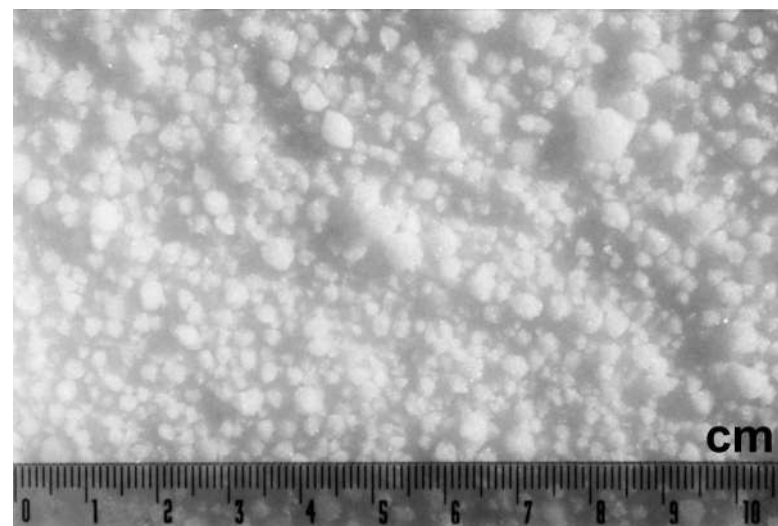
Graupel PPgp, ⚡ (Elder) #11



Graupel PPgp, ⚡ (AINEVA UniMilano) #12



Hail PPhl, ▲ (Elder) #13



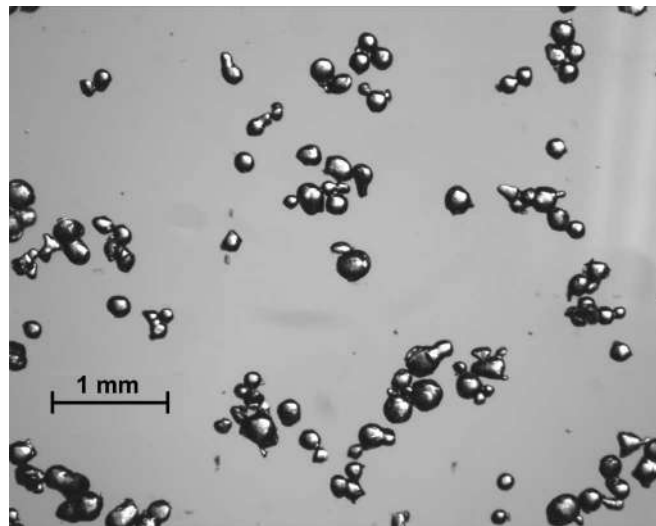
Ice pellets PPip, ▲ (JSSI) #14



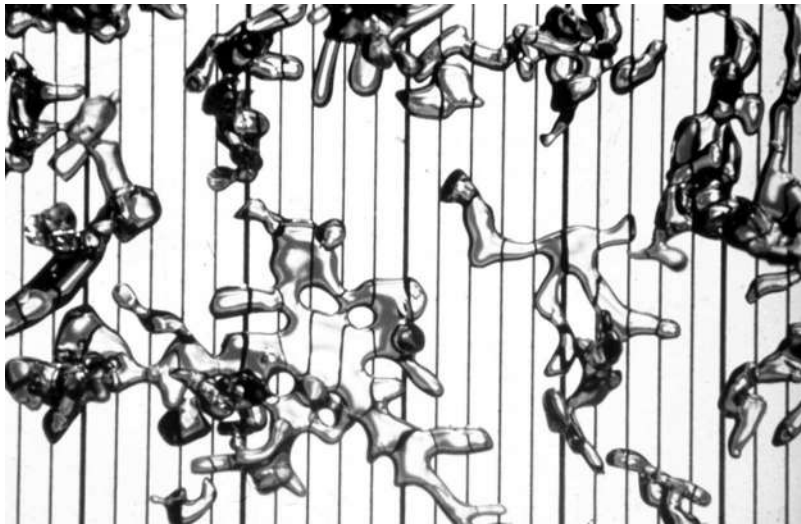
Rime PPrm, ∇ (Schweizer) #15



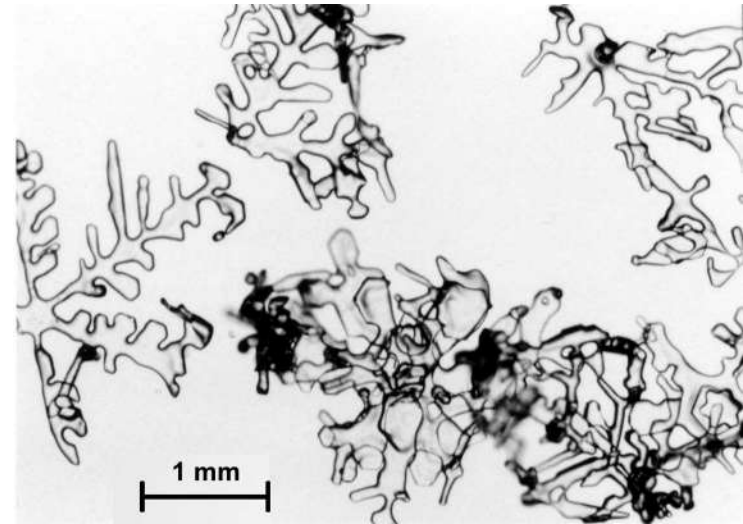
Rime on snow-cover surface PPrm, ∇ (Schweizer) #16



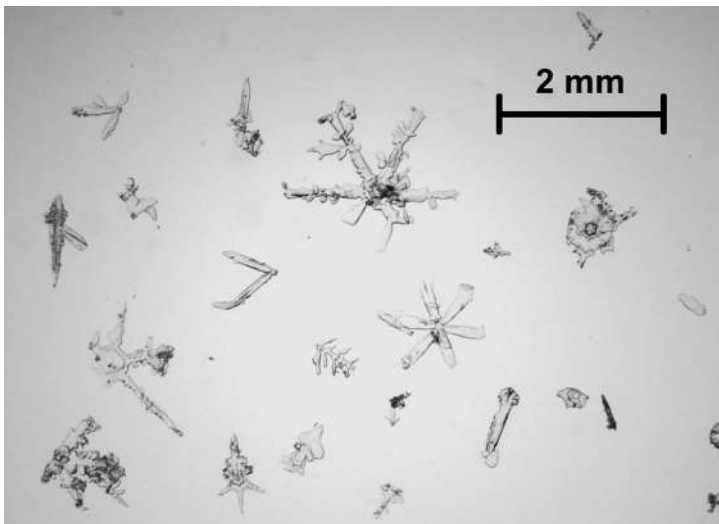
Round polycrystalline particles MMrp, ⊙ (Fauve) #17



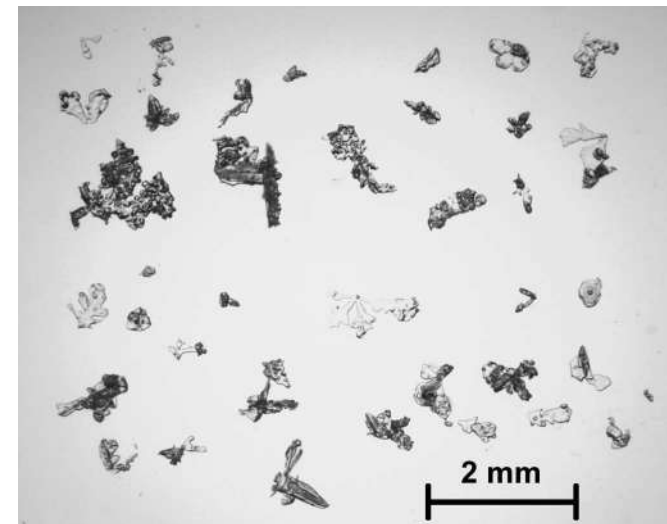
Partly decomposed precipitation particles DFdc, /, 0.2 mm grid (CEN) #18



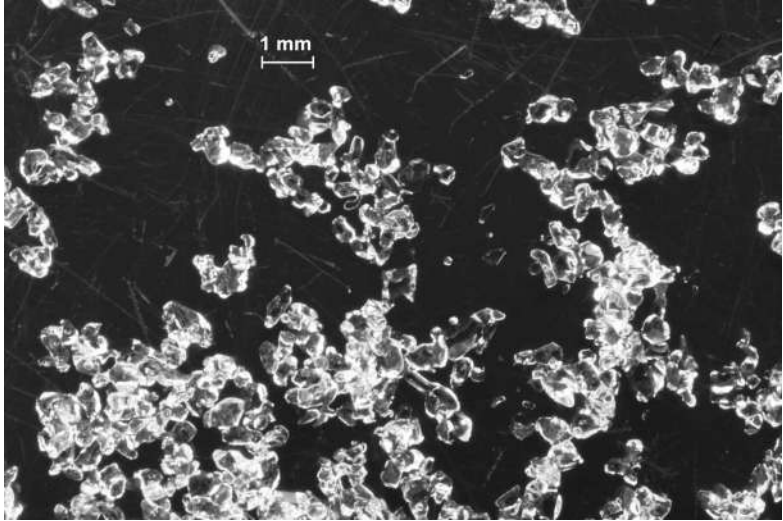
Partly decomposed precipitation particles DFdc, / (JSSI) #19



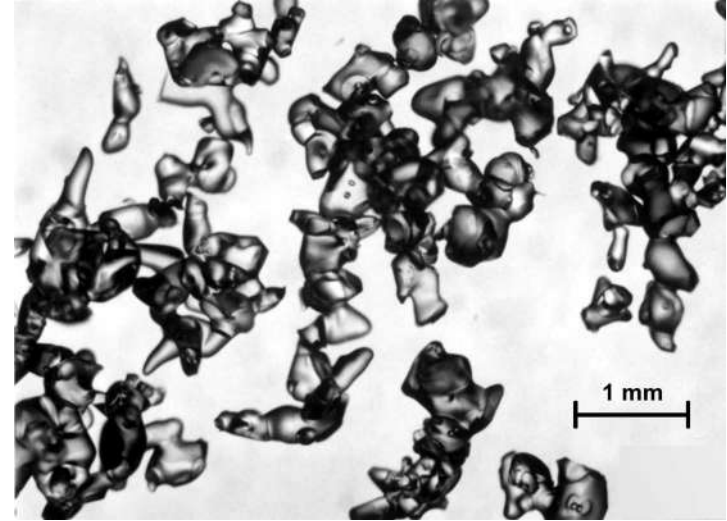
Wind broken precipitation particles DFbk, / (Fierz) #20



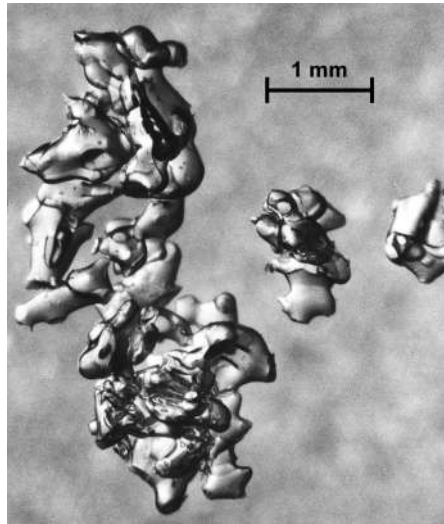
Wind broken precipitation particles DFbk, / (Fierz) #21



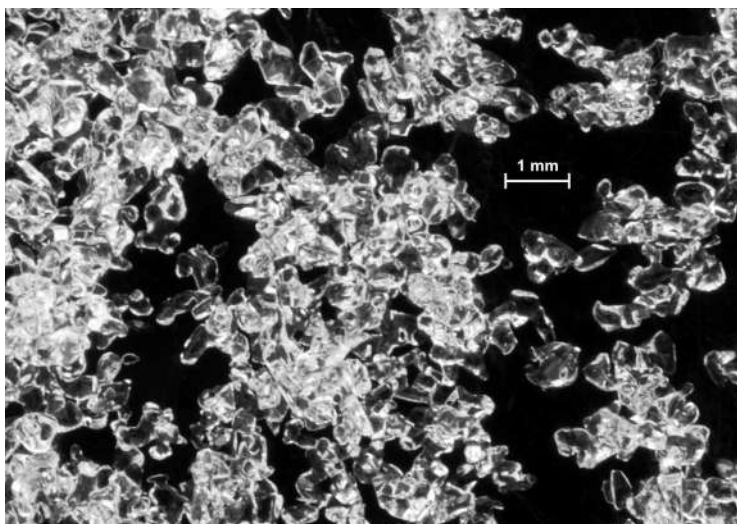
Small rounded grains RGsr, • (Elder) #22



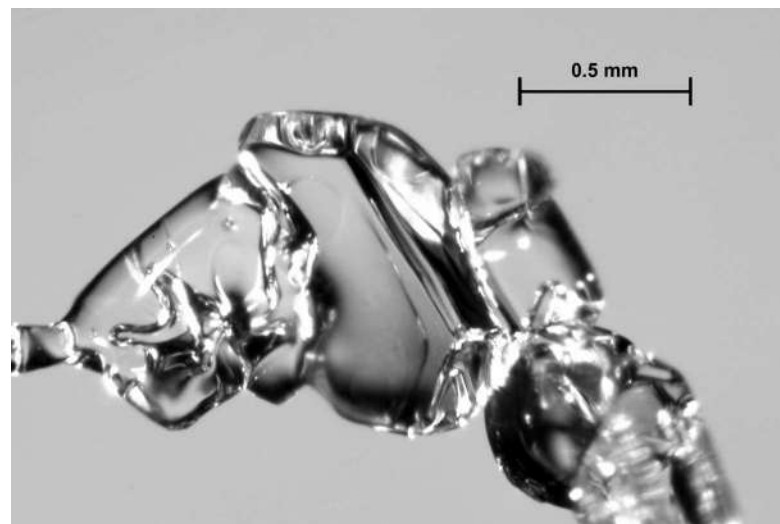
Large rounded grains RGl, ● (JSSI) #23



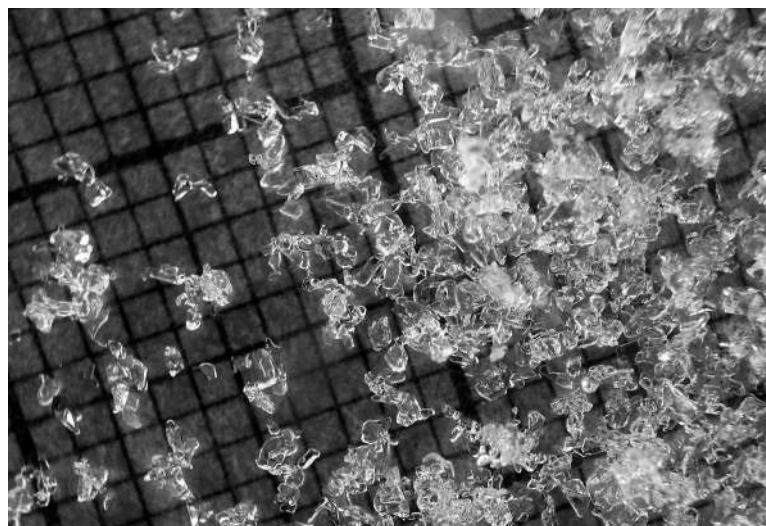
Wind packed RGwp, ✪ (Sturm) #24



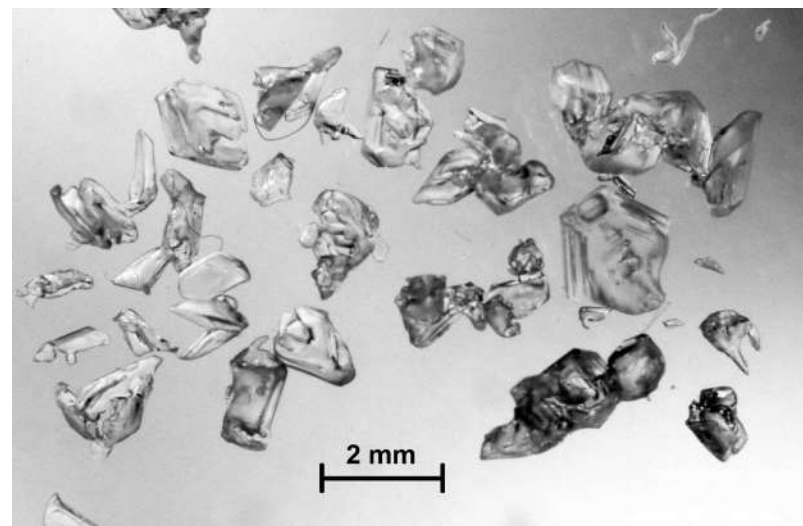
Faceted rounded particles RGxf, □ (Elder) #25



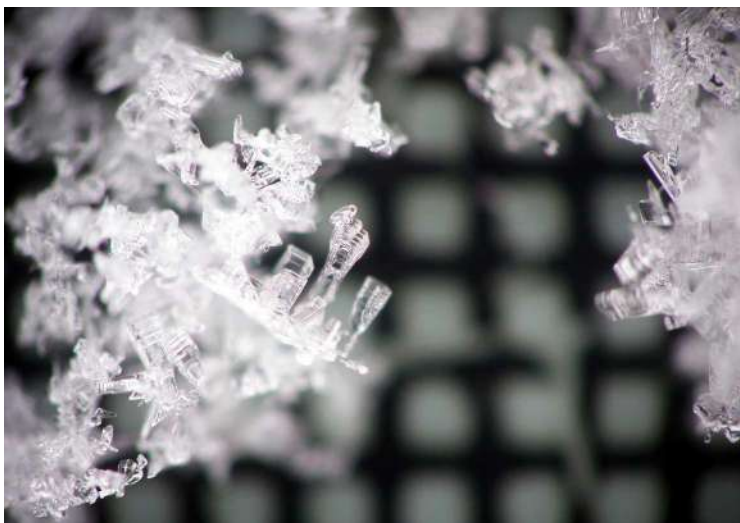
Faceted rounded particles RGxf, □ (CEN) #26



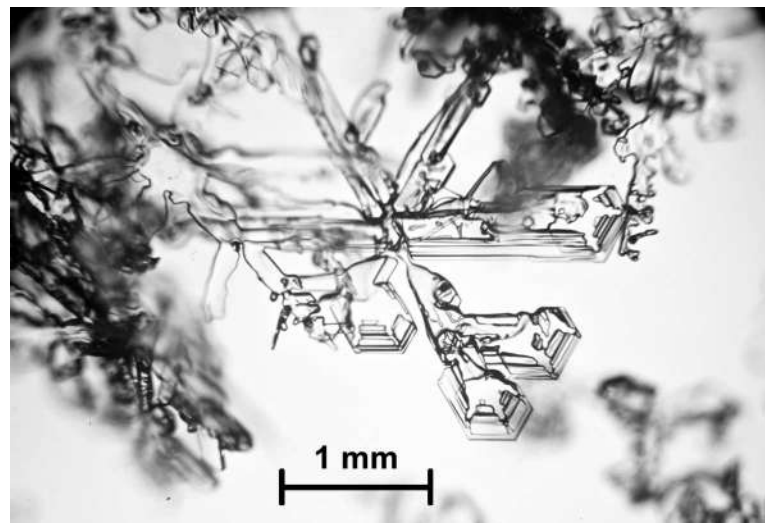
Solid faceted particles FCso, □, 1 mm grid (Kazakov) #27



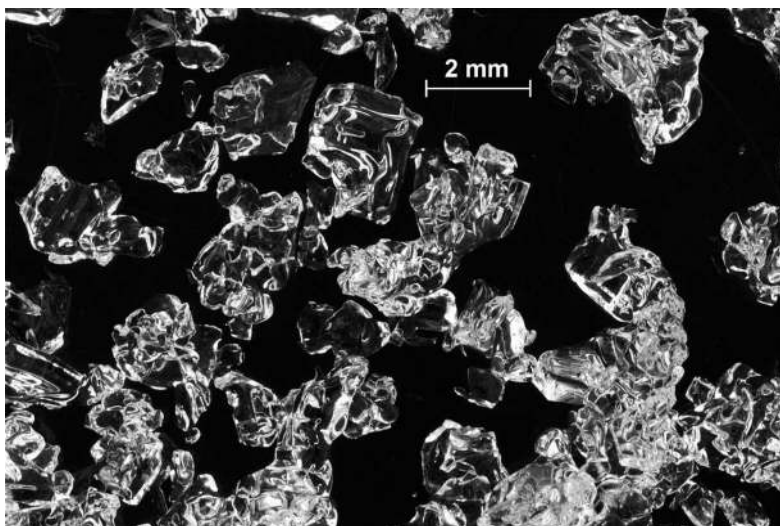
Solid faceted particles FCso, □ (AINEVA UniMilano) #28



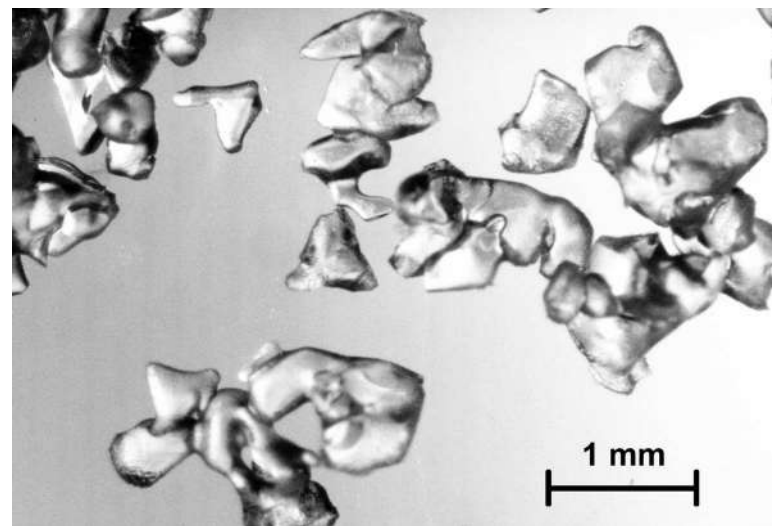
Near surface faceted particles FCsf, \square (Munter) #29



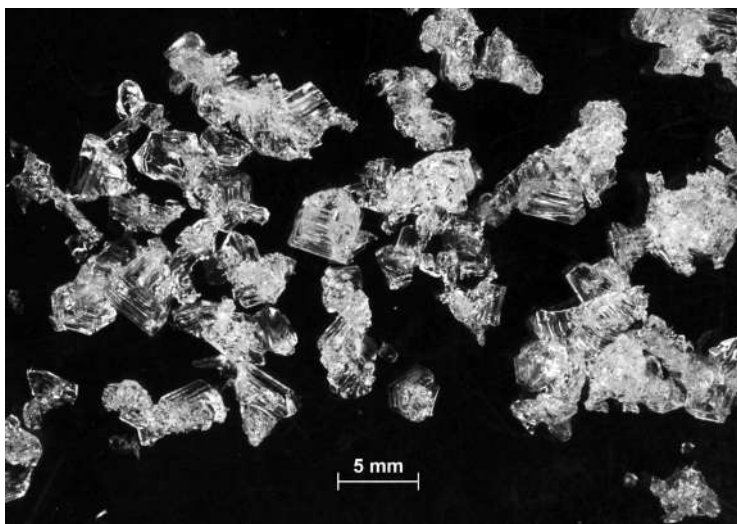
Near surface faceted particles FCsf, \square (Stock) #30



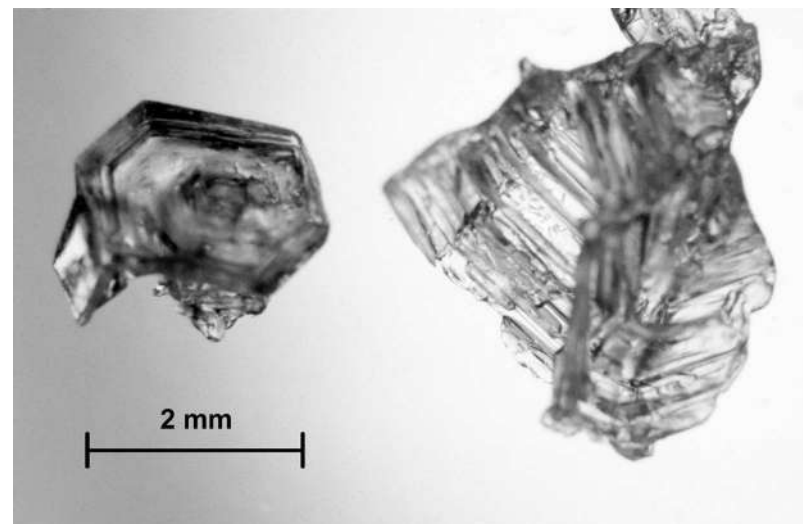
Rounding faceted particles FCxr, \square (Elder) #31



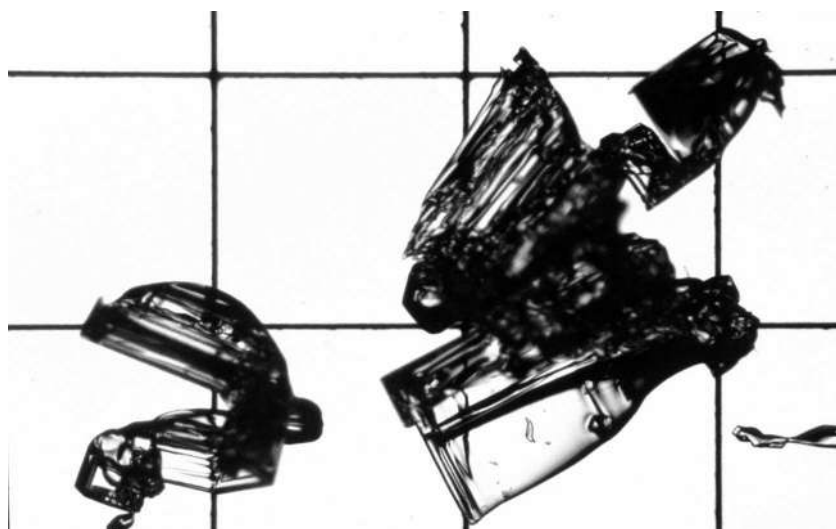
Rounding faceted particles FCxr, \square (AINEVA UniMilano) #32



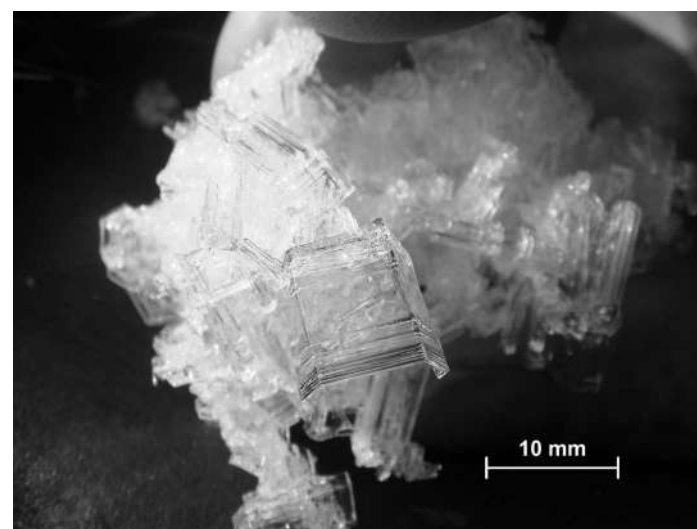
Hollow cups DHcp, Δ (Greene) #33



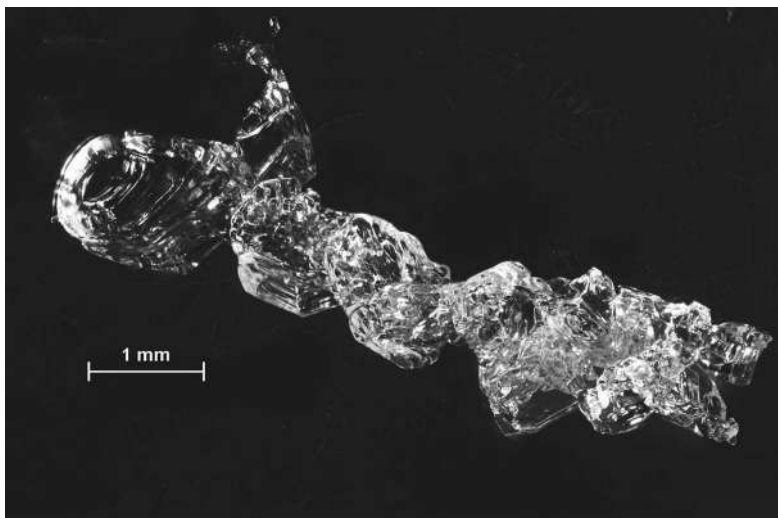
Hollow cups DHcp, Δ (AINEVA UniMilano) #34



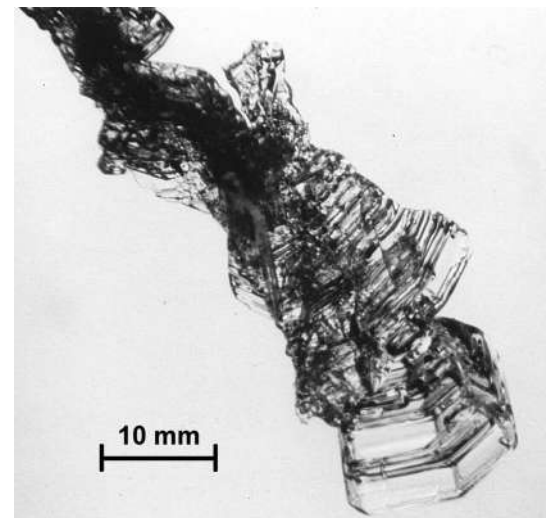
Hollow cups DHcp (DHpr), Δ (\square), 2 mm grid (Fierz) #35



Hollow prisms DHpr, \square (Sturm) #36

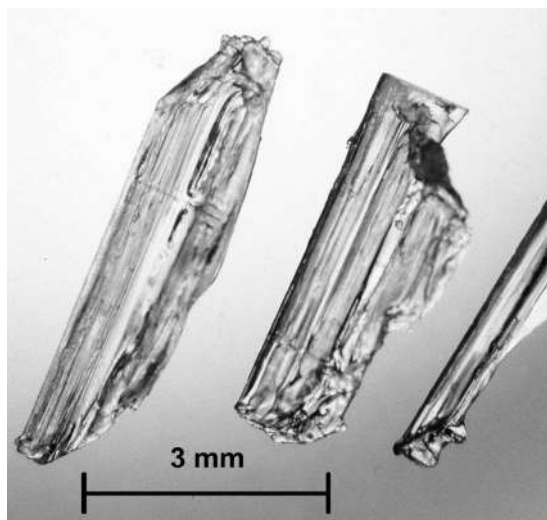


Chains of depth hoar DHch, Δ (Domine) #37

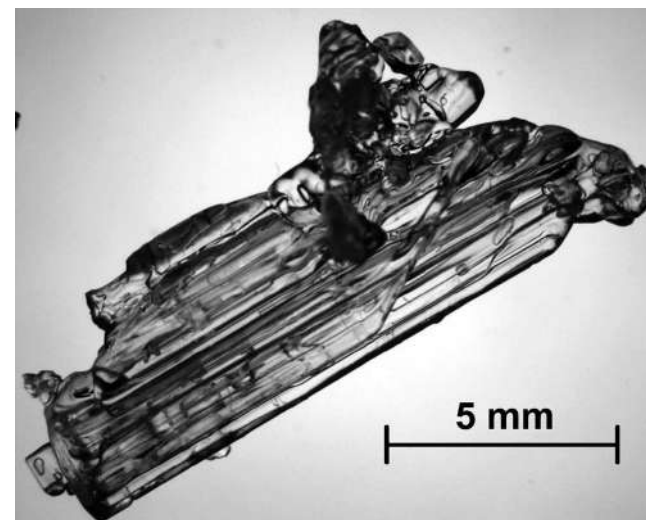


Chains of depth hoar DHch, Δ (Sturm) #38

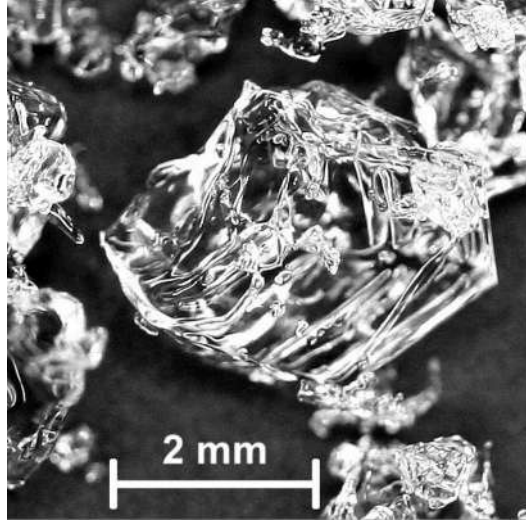
31



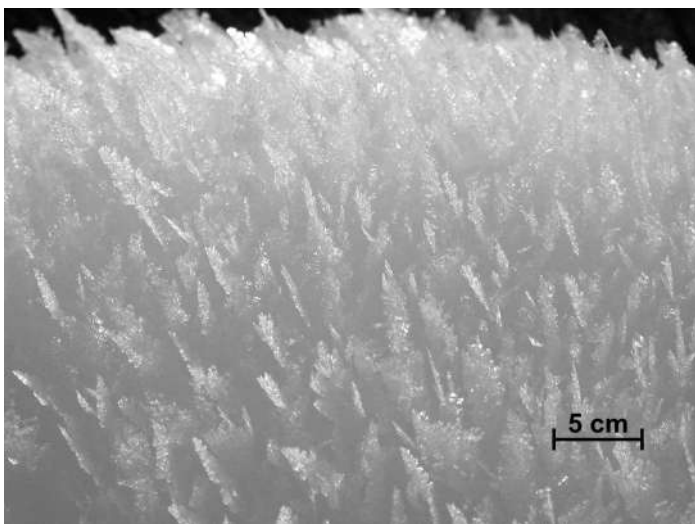
Large striated crystals DHla, Δ (AINEVA UniMilano) #39



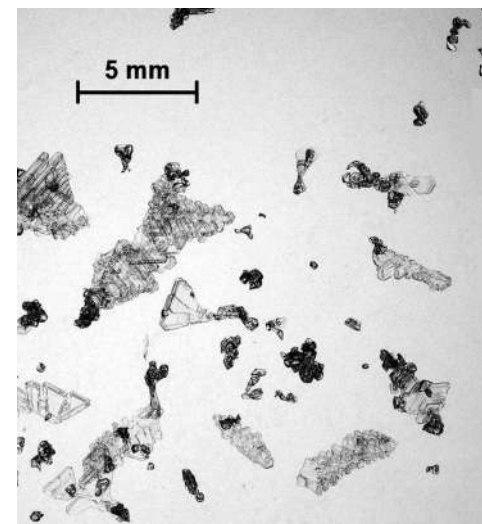
Large striated crystals DHla, Δ (Fierz) #40



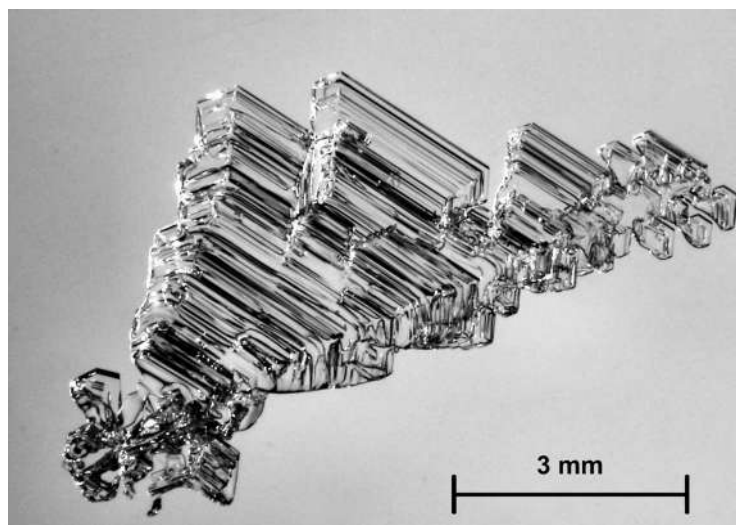
Rounding depth hoar DHxr, \wedge (Lipenkov) #41



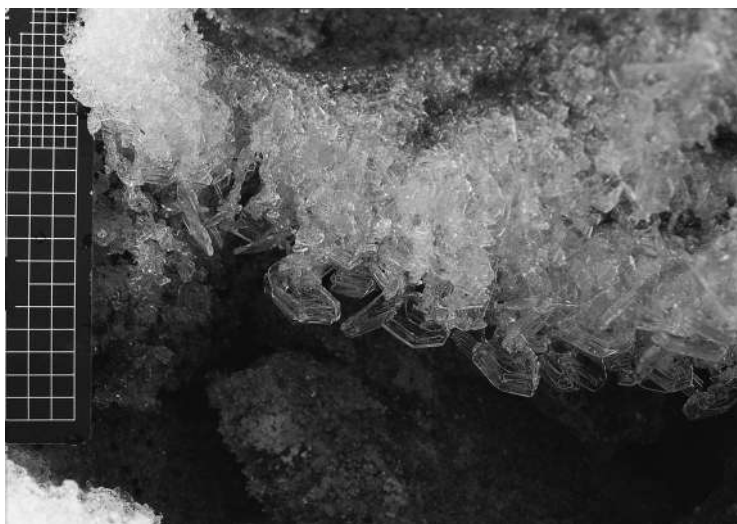
Surface hoar crystals SHsu, v (Elder) #42



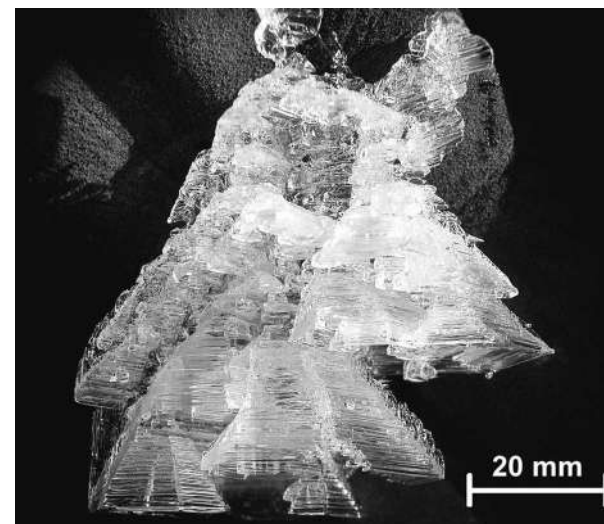
Surface hoar crystals SHsu, v (Fierz) #43



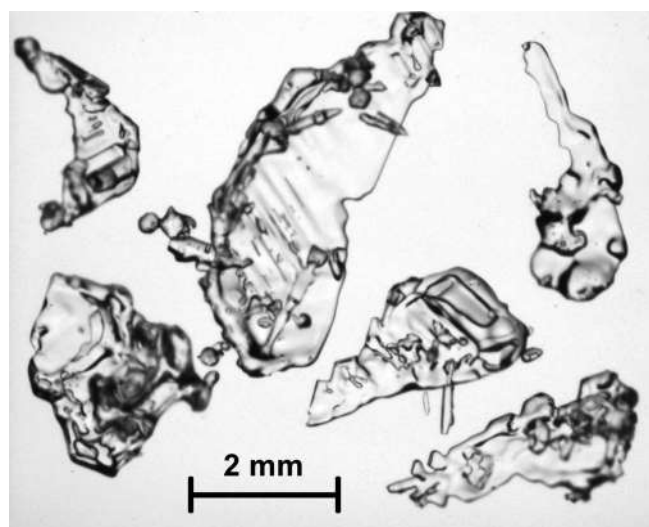
Surface hoar crystals SHsu, v (CEN) #44



Cavity or crevasse hoar SHcv, ∇ , 2 & 4 mm grid (Stucki) #45



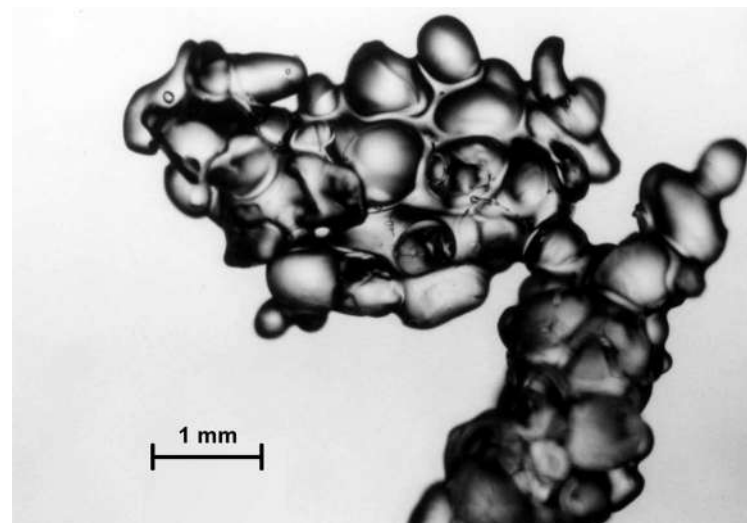
Cavity or crevasse hoar SHcv, ∇ (Elder) #46



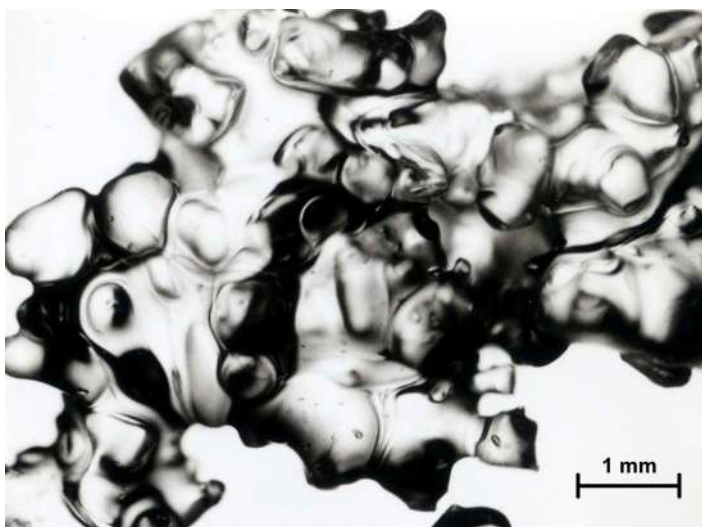
Rounding surface hoar SHxr, ∇ (Fierz) #47



Clustered rounded grains MFcl, φ , 0.2 mm grid (CEN) #48



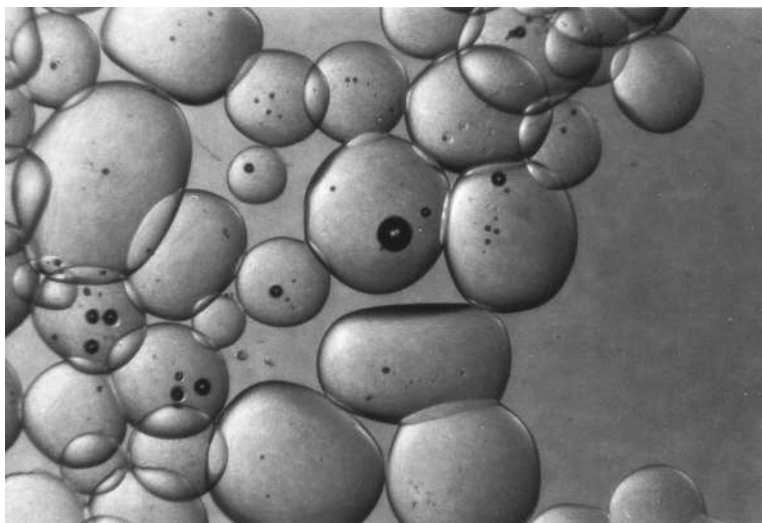
Clustered rounded grains MFcl, φ (JSSI) #49



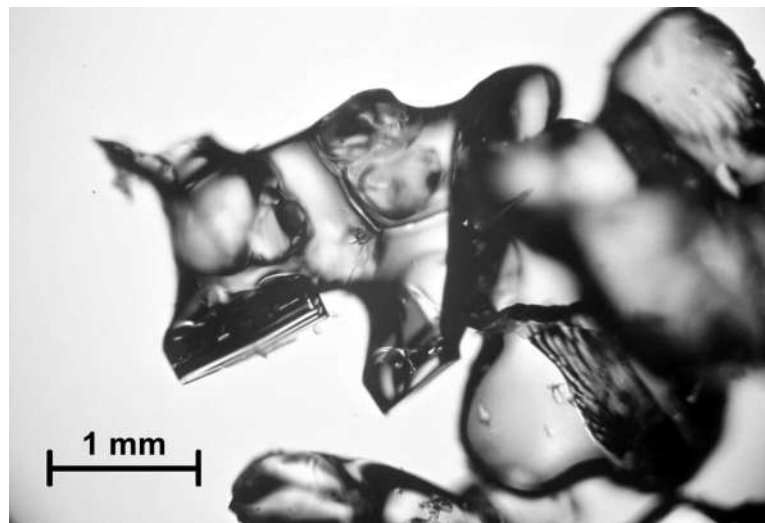
Rounded polycrystals MFpc, φ (JSSI) #50



Rounded polycrystals MFpc, φ (Sturm) #51

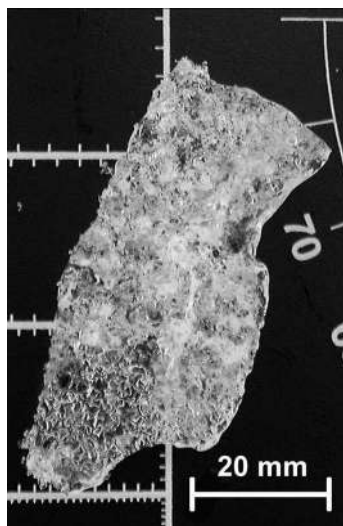


Slush MFsl, %, grain size E 0.5-1 mm (Colbeck) #52

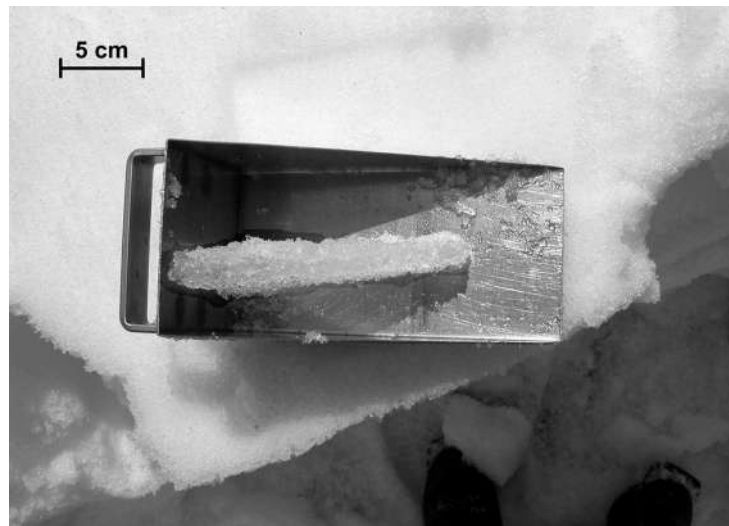


Melt-freeze crust MFcr (FCso), ☉☐ (Stock) #53

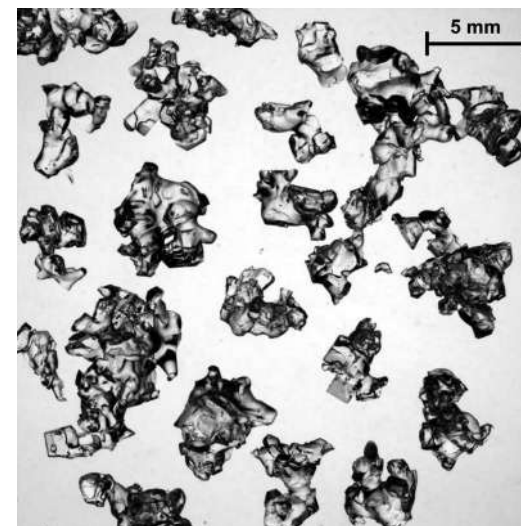
36



Melt-freeze crust MFcr, ☉☉ (ARPAV) #54



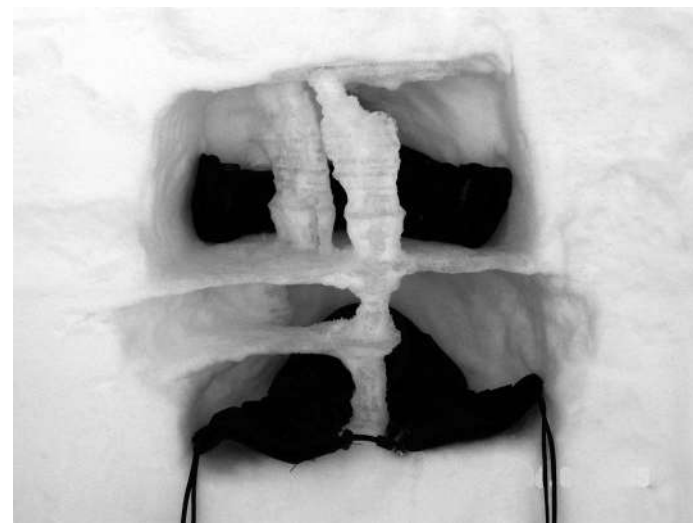
Melt-freeze crust MFcr, ☉☉ (Elder) #55



Melt-freeze crust MFcr, ☉☉ (Fierz) #56



Ice layer IFil, ■ (Stucki) #57



Ice columns and layers IFic (IFil), ■ (■) (Stucki) #58



Sun crust (Firnspiegel) IFsc, - (van Herwijnen) #59



Sun crust (Firnspiegel) IFsc, - (JSSI) #60

A.4: Photographic credits

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PPpl, ☉; PPgp, ✂; FCso, □; FCxr, ☉;
DHcp, ^; DHla, ▲

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MFcr, ☉☉

CEN – Centre d'Etudes de la Neige
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DFdc, /; RGxf, ☒; SHsu, ∇;
MFcl, ☒

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PPco, □; PPnd, ↔; PPpl, ☉;
PPgp, ✂; PPhl, ▲; RGsr, •;
RGxf, ☒; FCxr, ☉; SHsu, ∇;
SHcv, ∇; MFcr, ☉☉

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MMrp, ☉

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PPnd (rimed), ↔; DFbk, /;
DHcp (DHpr), ^ (□); DHla, ▲;
SHsu, ∇; SHxr, ∇; MFcr, ☉☉

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PPpl, ☉; DHcp, ^

JSSI – The Japanese Society of Snow & Ice Kagaku-Kaikan 3F (Chemistry Hall) 1-5 Kanda-Surugadai, Chiyoda Tokyo 101-0062, Japan	PPsd, *; PPip, Δ; DFdc, /; RGl, ●; MFcl, ☉; MFpc, ☉; IFsc, -
Kazakov, Nikolai A. Sakhalin Office of the Far-East Institute of Geology, Far-East Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences Gorky Str. 25 Yuzhno-Sakhalinsk 693023, Russia	FCso, □
Lipenkov, Vladimir Ya. Arctic and Antarctic Research Institute Bering Str. 38 St Petersburg 199397, Russia	DHxr, ^
Munter, Henry Yellowstone Club Ski Patrol PO Box Big Sky, MT 59716, USA	FCsf, ☒
Schweizer, Jürg WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research SLF 7260 Davos Dorf, Switzerland	PPrm, ∇; PPrm, ∇ (on snow-cover surface)
Span, Norbert Team Eiswelten Trinserstrasse 80a 6150 Steinach in Tirol, Austria	PPco (PPpl), □ (⊙); PPs, *
Stock, Joe Freelance writer and alpine guide www.stockalpine.com Anchorage, AK 99508, USA	FCsf, ☒; MFcr (FCso), ☉☉
Stucki, Thomas WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research SLF 7260 Davos Dorf, Switzerland	SHcv, ∇; IFil, ■; IFic (IFil), ■(■)
Sturm, Matthew USA-CRREL-Alaska P.O. Box 35170 Ft Wainwright, AK 99703-0170, USA	RGwp, ●; DHpr, □; DHch, Δ; MFpc, ☉
van Herwijnen, Alec WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research SLF 7260 Davos Dorf, Switzerland	IFsc, -

per ice volume, SSA_V , given in $\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$ or $\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-3}$, respectively. The density of ice, ρ_i , simply relates SSA_m to $SSA_V = \rho_i SSA_m$. Snow metamorphism generally reduces the specific surface area even when other parameters, such as density, remain constant. Most measurement methods require specialized laboratory equipment, but emerging techniques may make field measurements of specific surface area possible. Like density, the specific surface area by itself does not adequately represent all features of the microstructure.

B.4 Curvature

Symbols: κ (mean); G (Gaussian) Units: m^{-1}

Mean curvature and Gaussian curvature are defined locally by the mean and product of the principal curvatures, respectively. Both values are useful in describing the microstructure of snow. The mean curvature plays a significant role in interfacial thermodynamics, while Gaussian curvature can be used to characterize the mechanical properties. Both quantities are measured locally and averaged over a volume. Local curvature measurements are easy to interpret for certain shapes such as crystal facets (zero curvature) and sharp corners (very high positive curvature). Obtaining precise curvature values currently requires three-dimensional images of snow microstructure.

B.5 Tortuosity

Symbol: τ

is defined as the ratio of two distances: the path between two points through the ice or pore space and the straight line between them. The tortuosity of the ice matrix may be the primary factor determining the thermal conductivity of snow. It also affects the elastic modulus and heat and mass fluxes through the pore space. Currently, tortuosity measurements require three-dimensional reconstructions of the ice/air matrix combined with numerical simulations.

B.6 Coordination number

Symbol: CN

Units: 1

is the number of connections between a particle and its neighbours. It can be represented with indices, averaged over a volume or determined for an individual structure. These geometric parameters are common in numerical models of snow. No algorithm exists to measure the coordination number in different snow types, as the traditional methods only work for convex bodies.

The present classification provides a framework for making observations of seasonal snowpacks and is designed to address the needs of a broad group, from scientists to skiers. The scheme includes both morphological and process distinctions. Combined with the other parameters outlined in the classification, it provides a relevant scheme for nearly all snow applications. Although these simple methods are useful, they also have limitations. Many applications will require a more comprehensive description of the snow microstructure. Observers must carefully select the parameters to measure or estimate to ensure they are collecting the necessary information for their application.

APPENDIX C: OBSERVATION GUIDELINES

C.1 Snow observations

Penetrability of snow surface P

PR (ram penetration):

It is recommended to not just let the ramsonde drop but to slightly guide it with the hand.

PF (foot penetration) and PS (ski penetration):

Take the average of two points or, if on a slope, take the average of up- and down-slope sides.

C.2 Snowpack observations

Performing snowpack observations requires digging a large enough snow pit to allow for multiple observations. The pit face on which the snow is to be observed should be in the shade, vertical and smooth. On inclined terrain the shaded observation face should be parallel to the fall line, i.e., the natural downhill course of a slope.

Characterizing a distinct layer of snow requires more than simply classifying the observed grain shapes. Additional properties defined in Part I of this document also need to be recorded to give an as accurate as possible description of the snow type and its state. Below are some guidelines for how this is best achieved, with examples shown either in graphical or tabular form (see Figures C.1 to C.5 and Table C.4 for examples). Avoid using narrative text for describing snow profiles except for a single layer. In that case, make full sentences with the terms defined in the classification and do not use abbreviations, which can result in compressed, hard to read codes.

H Usually H designates the top boundary of a layer measured from either the base (positive) or the snow surface (negative). See 2.1, height, for a definition of 'base'.

L In tables, layer thickness L is best given explicitly, but ranges of H may also be used (see Table C.4).

θ_w , LWC

Half index steps can also be used, best indicated as range, e.g., moist to wet or 2–3.

Liquid water content may be recorded as a continuous profile, independent of layer boundaries.

Conversions between volume and mass fractions:

from volume to mass fraction: $LWC_m = (\rho_w / \rho_s) \times LWC_v$

from mass to volume fraction: $LWC_v = (\rho_s / \rho_w) \times LWC_m$

where ρ_s is the snow density and ρ_w is the density of liquid water (1000 kg m⁻³).

Wetness index can be converted to LWC_v using the following equation:

$LWC_v = 1.13 s^2 - 1.9 s + 0.8\%$ where s is the wetness index.

Grain shape *F*

If two shapes are present in a layer, the shape in the minority is put in round brackets. Indicating more than two shapes per layer is not recommended.

In the case of a melt-freeze crust MFcr, the minority shape can be included as a second form in the surrounding sign, e.g., in the presence of faceted crystals (FC): $\odot\textcircled{\square}$.

Record discontinuous ice formations (ice lenses, etc.) in the comments. Size, diameter, and spacing of columnar features or the slope parallel dimension of ice lenses are essential for their complete description.

Some subclasses that formed at or near the surface may not always be classified with confidence once buried within the snowpack. When in doubt use the corresponding main class.

Grain size *E*

Very often the average maximum grain size E_{max} of a snow layer is also estimated. This is the average size of the largest grains found in this layer.

If both E and E_{max} are measured, they are best recorded as, e.g., 0.5–1 mm, i.e., $E-E_{max}$.

As long as single crystals or grains are recognizable, grain size refers to the single crystals in clusters and polycrystals.

R Half index steps can also be used, best indicated as range, e.g., medium to hard or 3–4. They correspond to the upper limit of the corresponding range, e.g., 1.5 = 50 N. Alternatively, + and – qualifiers can be used, where a value of 4F+ (2+) is less hard than 1F– (3–).

In graphical form (see Figures C.1 to C.5), both ram resistance and the hand test are best represented as step profiles.

Hand hardness index can be converted to mean ram resistance R in newtons using the following equation:

$$R = 19.3 r^{2.4} \text{ N where } r \text{ is the hand hardness index.}$$

ρ_s While it is not recommended, one may record the snow water equivalent LW of a single layer instead of its density. In this case LW very often spans several distinct stratigraphic layers. Use the following equation to convert density to snow water equivalent: $LW = \rho_s \times L / 100$ where ρ_s is given in kg m^{-3} and L is the layer thickness in cm.

T_s Snow temperature is usually recorded as a continuous profile, independent of layer boundaries, e.g., every 10 or 20 cm. Measurements should be more closely spaced near the surface.

In tabular form, measured temperatures should best be interpolated to the layer's top boundary.

Comments

Comments referring to a layer help to improve its description (see Figures C.1 to C.5 and Table C.4).

Examples of useful comments are:

- ◆ indicating whether Precipitation Particles (PP) are rimed (do not use with graupel (PPgp), hail (PPhl), or ice pellets (PPip))
- ◆ grain interconnections (bond size, number of bonds per grain, clustered, arranged in columns, etc.)
- ◆ the presence of isolated grains of yet another shape (see grain shape above)
- ◆ distinct features of a layer (weak layer, glazed surface, etc.)
- ◆ results of stability tests
- ◆ impurities (see 1.7)
- ◆ etc.

C.3 Representations of snowpack observations

Snowpack observations recorded as snow profiles, that is, over many layers of the snowpack, are best represented graphically. The graphical form should include a header that conveys general information about the displayed snow profile. Tables C.1 and C.2 list recommended header entries while Table C.3 enumerates recommended components for the graphical parts. All components are drawn either as curve or in tabular form versus the height H in centimetres. Figures C.1 to C.5 below provide examples of snow profiles observed on different locations of the earth under various climatic conditions.

If one single layer or only few layers of the snowpack are to be described, tabular forms as presented in Table C.4 may be a better choice. Keep the same recording style throughout the table.

Table C.1 Recommended header entries for graphical forms

<i>Entry</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Recommended format</i>
Air temperature	T_a	See 1.6
Aspect of slopes	AS	See 2.12
Coordinates		Latitude and longitude or UTM ¹ coordinates
Date		ISO 8061 ² : YYYY-MM-DD
Elevation		metres above sea level
Height of snowpack	HS	See 2.3
Location		Geographical name
Observer		Family name in full
Organization		
Precipitation		
Remarks		
Sky condition		METAR ³ cloud cover terms; see Table C.2
Slope angle	ψ	See 2.11
Snow water equivalent	SWE or HSW	See 2.5
Time		ISO 8061 ² : hh:mm
Wind (direction and speed)		Speed in kilometres per hour
Optional:		
Mean ram resistance	R_m	Average over height of snowpack HS; see also 1.4
Penetrability of snow surface	P	See 2.8

¹Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) coordinate system is a grid-based method of specifying locations on the surface of the Earth

²ISO 8601 is an international standard for date and time representations issued by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO)

³METAR stands for METeorological Aviation Routine weather report

Table C.2 METAR cloud cover terms

<i>Term</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Cloudiness</i>
Clear	CLR	0/8
Few	FEW	1/8–2/8
Scattered	SCT	3/8–4/8
Broken	BKN	5/8–7/8
Overcast	OVC	8/8
Obscured (fog or observation not possible)	X	

Table C.3 Recommended graph components

<i>Component</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Snow temperature	T_s	°C	See 1.6
Snow hardness	R	N	Ram resistance and/or hand hardness index; the latter should follow the resistance scale given in Table 1.4
Liquid water content	θ_w		See 1.5
Grain shape	F		See 1.1
Grain size	E	mm	See 1.2
Hand hardness index	R		Index, code, or graphic symbol; see Table 1.4
Snow density	ρ_s	kg m ⁻³	See 1.3; may be combined with <i>LW</i> , see Table 2.2
Comments			See Appendix C.2

Snow profile: GAU

Observer: Fierz / Hegglin

Profile no.: 102

Map no.: 1197

Water equivalent HSW: 342.8 mm (HS: 116 cm)

Weather & precip.:

Remarks:

Location: GR Klosters - Parsenn - Gaudergrat

Elevation: 2260 m

Aspect of slope: N / Slope angle: 36 °

coordinates: 779800 / 192200

Mean density: 295.5 kg/m³

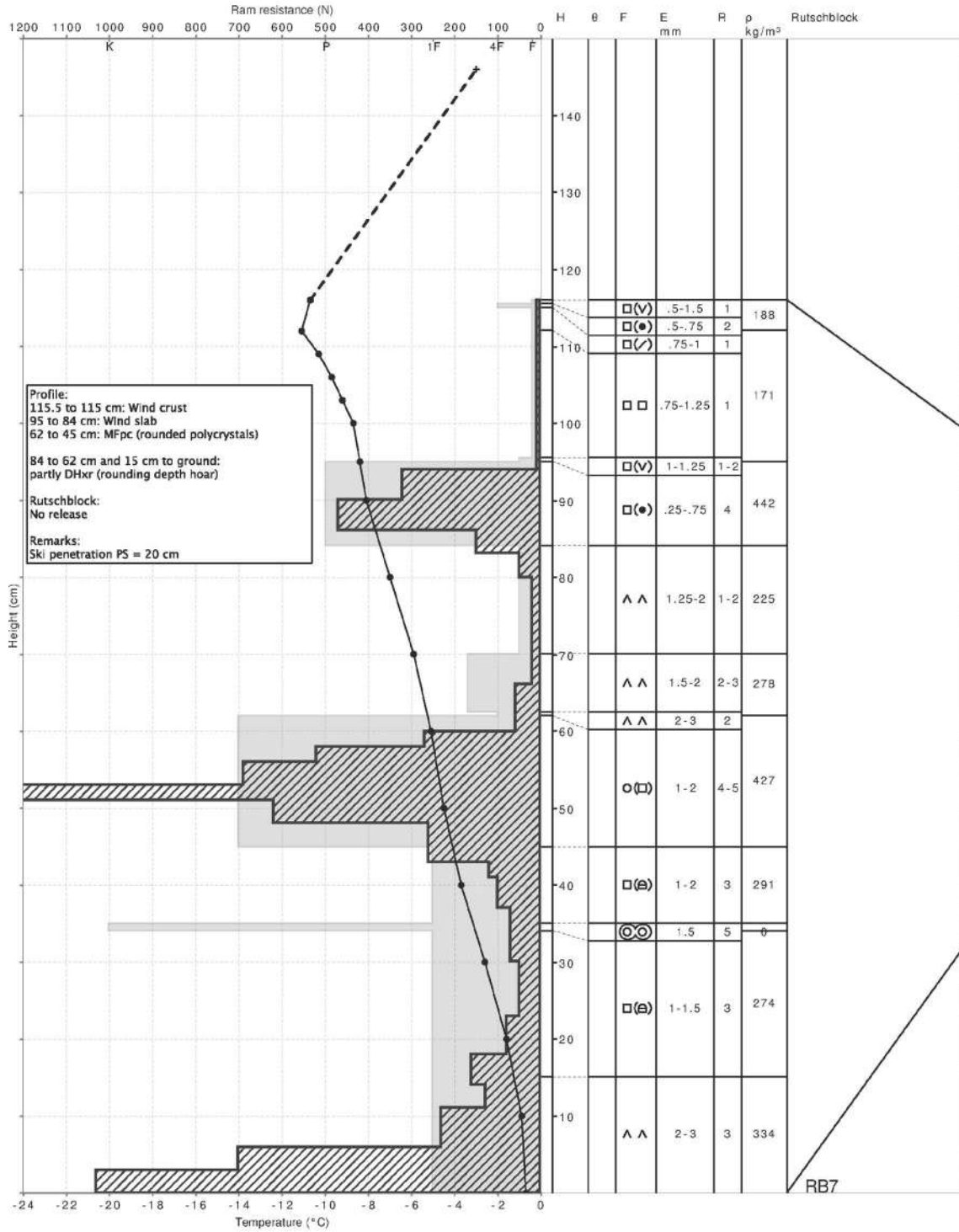
Date & time: 20.01.2003 13:00

Air temp.: -3.0 °C

Sky condition: broken (5-7/8)

Wind: W / 5 km/h

Mean ram resistance: 204 N



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Figure C.1 Snow profile observed in Graubünden Switzerland (slope)

Organization: Snow and Ice Research Center
 National Research Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Prevention NIED
 Observer: S. Yamaguchi Date: 2006-02-05 09:40
 Location: Nagaoka Elevation: 97 m
 Aspect of slope: - Slope angle: 0°
 Snow depth: 162 cm SWE: 519 mm w.e.
 Air temperature: -4.1°C Wind (direction/speed): N / 3.6 km h⁻¹
 Precipitations: none Sky condition: overcast
 Remarks: - Liquid water content θ_w is given as mass fraction
 - Snow hardness measured in kilopascal with a push-pull gauge (see 1.4);
 the circular indentation surface has a diameter of 15 millimetres, i.e.,
 one kilopascal corresponds to 0.1766 newtons

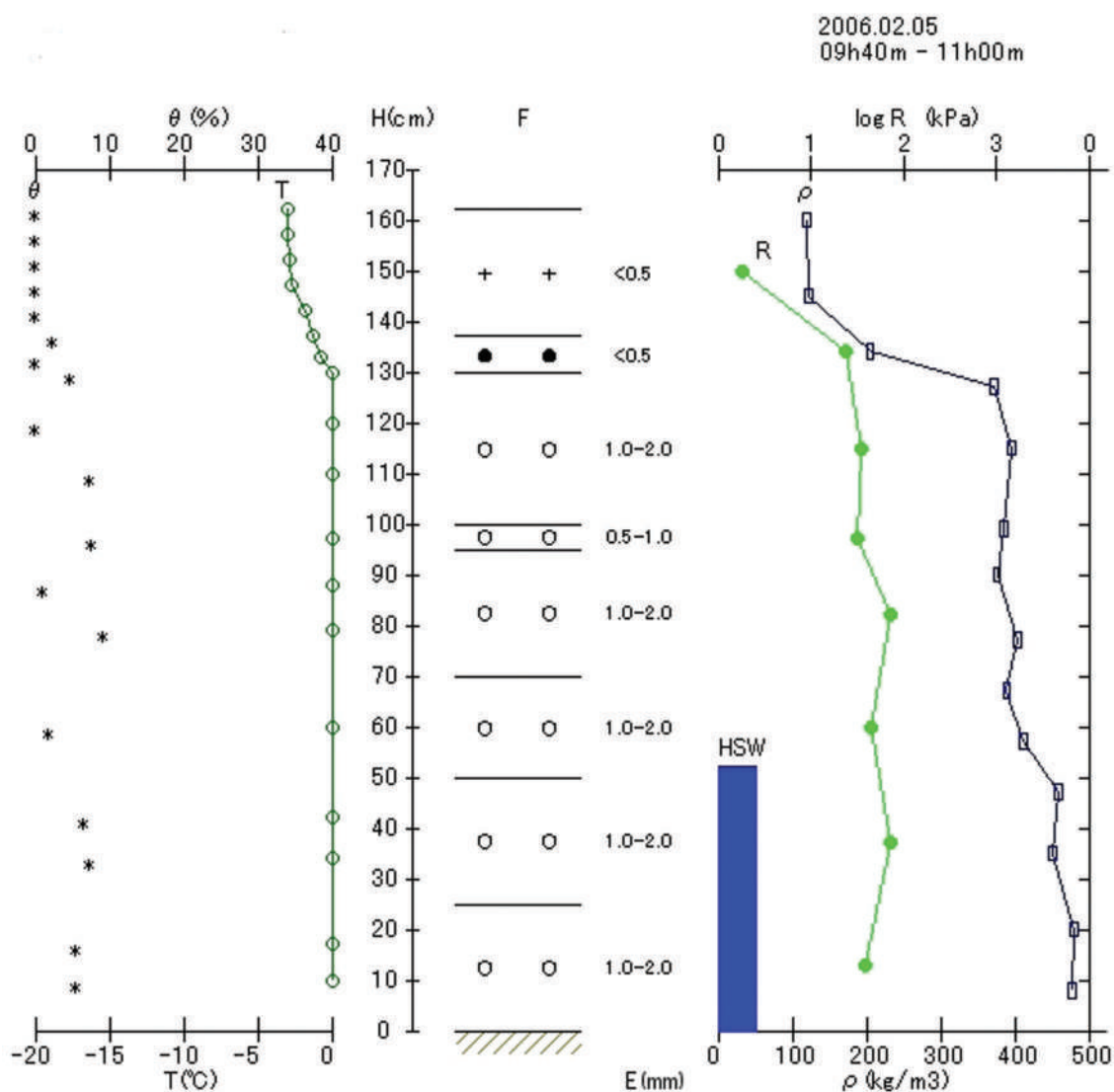


Figure C.2 Snow profile observed in Nagaoka Japan (flat field) (Yamaguchi, 2007)



Snow Cover Profile

Location: Macdonald West Shoulder
 Sky: CLR Wind: Calm Air Temperature: -6.9 °C Date: 2005-12-15
 Aspect: W Elevation: 1920 m Incline: 22° Time: 1230
 Observer: JF, CB, LB, DG

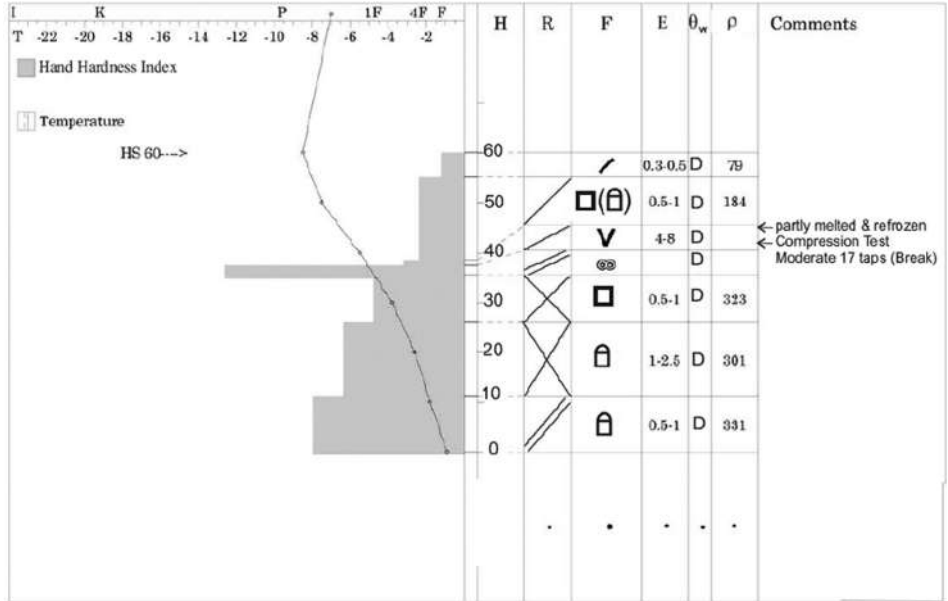


Figure C.3 Snow profile observed in British Columbia Canada (slope)

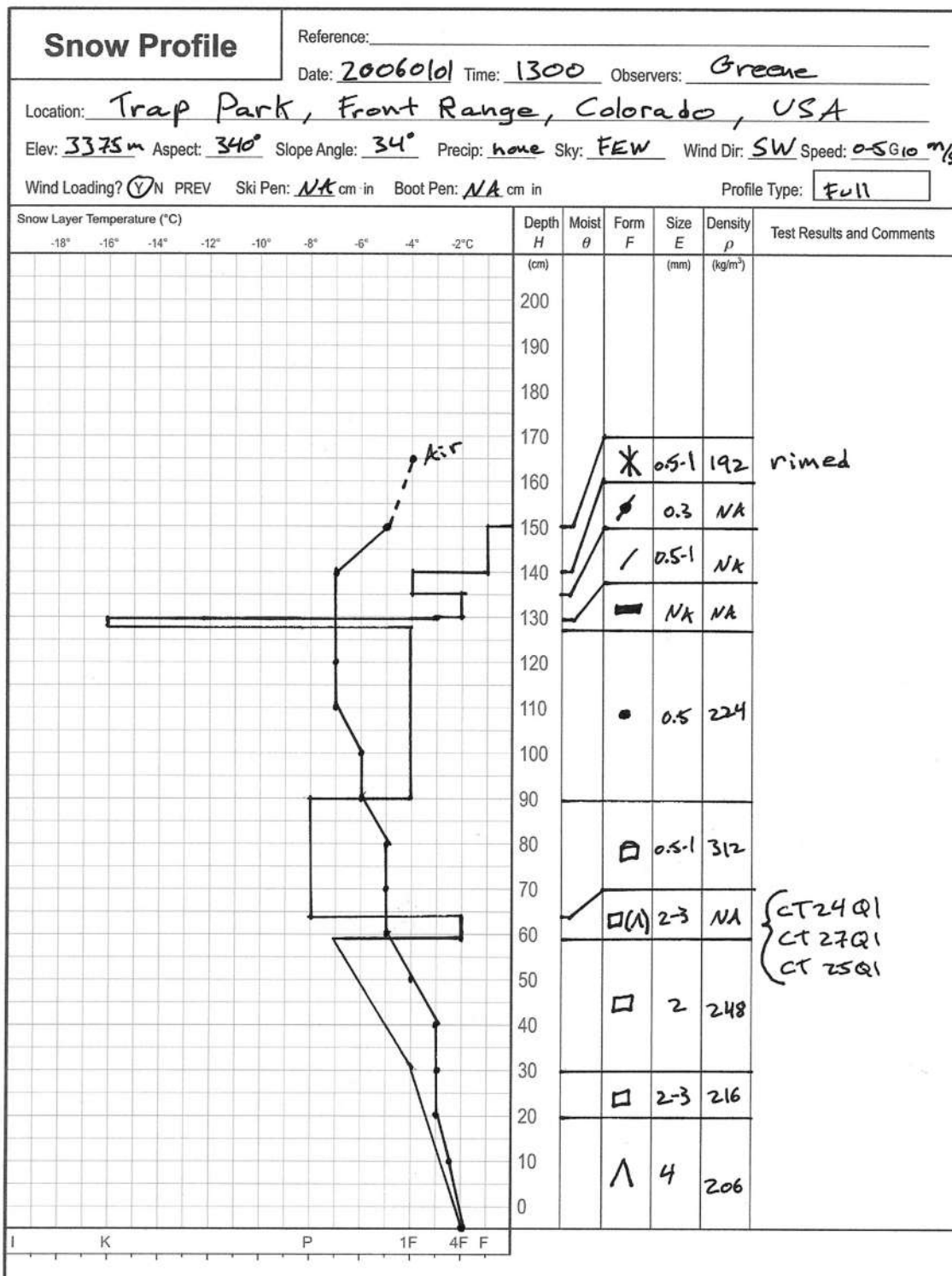


Figure C.4 Hand-drawn snow profile observed in Colorado USA (slope)
 CT24Q1: Compression Test, Hard, 24 taps; shear quality Q1
 CT27Q1: Compression Test, Hard, 27 taps; shear quality Q1
 CT25Q1: Compression Test, Hard, 25 taps; shear quality Q1
 (see also AAA, 2009 and CAA, 2007)



Snow Cover Profile

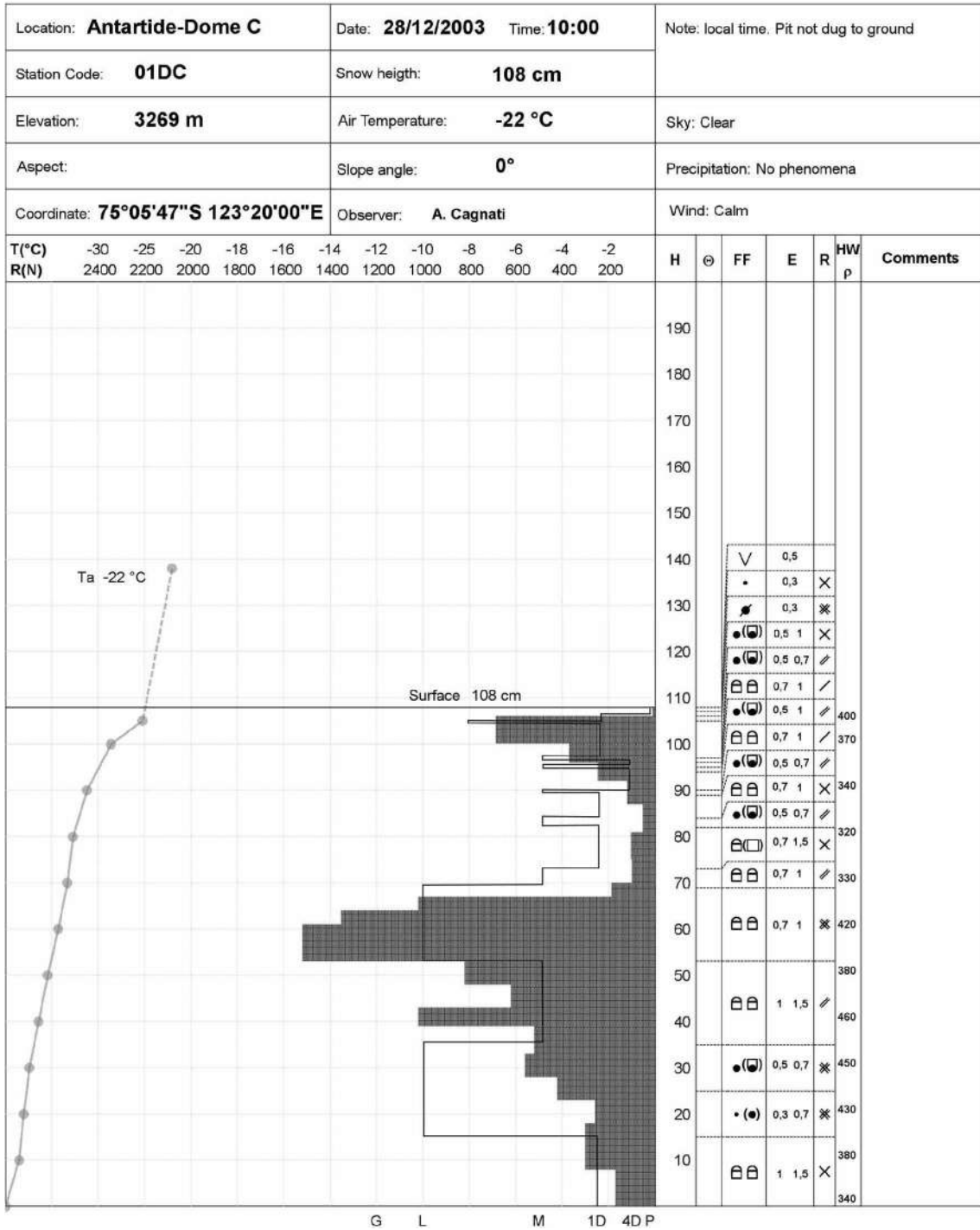


Figure C.5 Snow profile observed at Dome C East Antarctica (flat field)

Table C.4 Snowpack observations in tabular form

Height relative to ground:

H (cm)	L (cm)	θ_w	LWC	$F^{1,2}$	E (mm)	R	ρ (kg m^{-3})	T_s ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Comments
23	5	wet		○ (+)	1.0–2.0	fist	250	0.0	HN(24h) observed before snow got wet: 9 cm
18	0.2			■		ice			
17.8	1.8	dry to moist		⊗	0.5–1.0	very hard	600	0.0	
16	6	dry		∩	1.0	medium to hard	400	–0.1	Discontinuous ice lenses, 30 cm in length, 2 mm thick
10	7	dry		∩ (□)	1.5–2.0	medium	310	–2.0	Only few faceted crystals (FC)
3	3	dry		⊗	1.0–1.5	hard	450	–0.5	$T_g = 0.0^{\circ}\text{C}$

Height ranges relative to ground:

H (cm)	L (cm)	θ_w	LWC	$F^{1,2}$	E (mm)	R	ρ (kg m^{-3})	T_s ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Comments
15–14	1		1	•	0.2	4	340	–2.8	Wind crust
14–10	4		1	• (/)	0.3–0.5	2–3	250	–2.5	DF broken by wind
10–3	7		1	∧ (∧)	2.0–2.5	1–2	210	–1.1	Weakly bonded
3–0	3		1	∧ (○)	2.0–3.0	3	290	–0.4	$T_g = -0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$

Depth relative to snow surface (Antarctic snow):

H (cm)	L (cm)	θ_w	LWC	$F^{1,2}$	E (mm)	R	ρ (kg m^{-3})	T_s ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Comments
0	1	D		RGwp		I		–19.7	glazed surface, thin (0.1 mm) film of regelation ice on top
–1	2	D		RG	0.10	K	450	–20.3	Wind packed
–3	1	D		RGwp		I		–21.5	Old glazed surface
–4	4	D		FCso (RGxf)	1.0–2.0	1F	360	–22.1	

¹ Ideally symbols should be used for shapes while terms are preferred to steps and codes elsewhere. The same style should be kept throughout a table.

² Both MFcr and MFpc may contain recognizable remnants of other shapes, particularly large kinetic growth forms (FC or DH). Accordingly, the minority shape is included in the MFcr symbol ⊗, while the majority-minority coding convention is used with MFpc ∩ (□).

APPENDIX D: LIST OF SYMBOLS

<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Units</i>
<i>AS</i>	Aspect of slope	°
<i>CN</i>	Coordination number	1
<i>D</i>	Thickness, i.e., slope-perpendicular coordinate, measured from either the base* (positive) or the snow surface (negative)	cm
<i>DN</i>	Thickness of new snow (slope-perpendicular)	cm
<i>DS</i>	Total thickness of snowpack (slope-perpendicular)	cm
<i>E</i>	Average size of the grains of a snow layer	mm
<i>E_{max}</i>	Average maximum size of the grains of a snow layer	mm
<i>F</i>	Grain shape	
<i>G</i>	Gaussian curvature	m ⁻¹
<i>H</i>	Height, i.e., vertical coordinate, measured from either the base* (positive) or the snow surface (negative)	cm
<i>HN</i>	Height of new snow, depth of snowfall (measured vertically)	cm
<i>HNW</i>	Water equivalent of daily snowfall	mm w.e., kg m ⁻²
<i>HS</i>	Height of snowpack, snow depth (measured vertically)	cm
<i>HSW</i>	Water equivalent of snow cover (see also SWE)	mm w.e., kg m ⁻²
<i>HW</i>	Water equivalent from the base* up to the height <i>H</i>	mm w.e., kg m ⁻²
<i>J</i>	Impurities	mass fraction (%, ppm)
<i>L</i>	Layer thickness (measured vertically)	cm
<i>L_p</i>	Layer thickness (slope-perpendicular)	cm
<i>LW</i>	Water equivalent of a single layer of thickness <i>L</i>	mm w.e., kg m ⁻²
<i>OGS</i>	Optical-equivalent grain size	mm
<i>P</i>	Penetrability of snow surface	cm
<i>P_F</i>	Foot penetration	cm
<i>P_R</i>	Ram penetration	cm
<i>P_S</i>	Ski penetration	cm
<i>R</i>	Snow hardness	-, N
<i>SF</i>	Surface features	cm
<i>SCA</i>	Snow covered area	1
<i>SSA</i>	Specific surface area (either per mass or volume)	m ² kg ⁻¹ , m ² m ⁻³
<i>SWE</i>	Snow water equivalent (see also <i>HSW</i>)	mm w.e., kg m ⁻²
<i>T_a</i>	Air temperature	°C
<i>T_g</i>	Ground surface temperature	°C
<i>T_s</i>	Snow temperature	°C
<i>T_{ss}</i>	Snow surface temperature	°C
<i>t</i>	Time	s, (min, h, d)
<i>ε</i>	Strain	1
<i>θ_w, LWC</i>	Liquid water content	either volume or mass fraction (%)
<i>κ</i>	Mean curvature	m ⁻¹
<i>ρ_s</i>	Density	kg m ⁻³
<i>σ</i>	Tensile or compressive stress	Pa
<i>τ</i>	Shear stress	Pa
<i>τ</i>	Tortuosity	1
<i>φ</i>	Porosity	1
<i>ψ</i>	Slope angle	°
<i>Σ</i>	Snow strength	Pa

* See 2.1 Height for a definition of 'base'

APPENDIX E: GLOSSARY

This glossary is intended to define the most important terms used in the present classification. All entries of Part 1, Part 2 and of Appendix B are included in this glossary without definitions but with appropriate cross references.

Note that there are several more comprehensive glossaries related to snow, avalanches, the cryosphere, or the atmosphere that also can be consulted.

On line:

- ◆ *NSIDC's Cryospheric Glossary*
The National Snow and Ice Data Center, Boulder, CO, USA.
(NSIDC, 2008)
<http://nsidc.org/cgi-bin/words/glossary.pl>
- ◆ *Glossary of Meteorology*
2nd edition, 12000 terms. American Meteorological Society, Boston, USA.
(AMS, 2000)
<http://amsglossary.allenpress.com>
- ◆ *The Avalanche Glossary*
Canadian Avalanche Centre, Revelstoke, BC, Canada
http://www.avalanche.ca/CAC_Knowledge_Glossary
- ◆ *Glossary snow and avalanches*
European Avalanche Warning Services EAWS
<http://www.lawinen.org>
- ◆ *International Glossary of Hydrology*
<http://www.cig.ensmp.fr/~hubert/glu/aglo.htm>

Downloadable:

- ◆ *Snow, Weather, and Avalanches: Observational Guidelines for Avalanche Programs in the United States; Glossary*
The American Avalanche Association, Pagosa Springs, CO, USA.
<http://www.americanavalancheassociation.org/research/index.html>
- ◆ *IKAR-CISA-ICAR dictionary* (1995)
<http://www.ikar-cisa.org>
- ◆ *Illustrated Glossary of Snow and Ice*
(Armstrong *et al.*, 1973)
<http://www.comnap.aq/content/temp/glossary-snow-ice/view>

Print only:

- ◆ *Elsevier's Dictionary of Glaciology* (Kotlyakov & Smolyarova, 1990)
- ◆ *Glyatsiologicheskii slovar'* [Glaciological dictionary] (Kotlyakov, 1980)
- ◆ *Avalanche Atlas - Illustrated International Avalanche Classification* (UNESCO, 1981)

Ablation

All processes that remove snow, ice, or water from a snowfield, glacier, etc., that is typically melt, *evaporation*, *sublimation* as well as wind *erosion*, *avalanches*, calving, etc.; in this sense, the opposite of *accumulation*.

In many publications before 1980, ablation did not include mechanical removal of either snow or ice, i.e., wind *erosion*, *avalanches*, calving, etc.

Ablation hollows

Depressions in the snow surface caused by either a warm, gusty wind or the sun (NSIDC, 2008), see also *sun cups*.

Accretion

1 – Growth of a cloud or precipitation particle by collision with *supercooled* liquid droplets that freeze wholly or partially on impact (AMS, 2000, NSIDC, 2008).

2 – The process by which a layer of ice or snow builds on solid objects such as overhead lines that are exposed to precipitation icing events.

Accumulation

All processes that add mass to the *snow cover* or to a glacier, i.e., typically solid and liquid precipitation, ice *deposition* from atmospheric water vapour, wind-deposited snow, but also *avalanches*, etc. (opposite of *ablation*).

Aspect of slope

See 2.12

Coordination number

See Appendix B

Capillarity

A phenomenon associated with the surface tension of a liquid in contact with a solid. It occurs in fine bore tubes or channels such as found in porous snow. Capillary barriers refer to the interface between an upper fine-grained and a lower coarse-grained snow *layer*. Under unsaturated conditions, water in the small pores of the fine-grained snow *layer* is held at high tension and will not flow into the large pores of the coarse-grained snow *layer* where the water tension is low.

Condensation

The process of forming a liquid from its vapour (opposite of *evaporation*).

Crust

A friable, firm *layer* of snow or ice of varying thickness formed at the surface of the *snowpack*. It is designated as 'breakable' or 'unbreakable' according to its ability to support a person on skis. Examples are wind crusts and slabs, melt-freeze crusts as well as sun and rain crusts (see Appendix A.1, DF or RG, MF, and IF, respectively). Melt-freeze-crusts can be up to several centimetres thick while sun and rain crusts usually form a thin, i.e., a few millimetres thick *glaze* of ice on the surface.

Crystal

A solid body whose atoms or molecules have a regularly repeated arrangement called crystal lattice. The latter may be outwardly expressed by plane faces (see *crystal facet*). Single crystals grow from a single nucleus (see also *grain*).

Skeleton type or hopper crystals grow faster along their edges than in the centres of their faces, so that the faces appear to be recessed. This type of skeletal (*re-*) *crystallization* usually determines the morphology of depth hoar crystals.

Crystal card

Usually dark metallic or plastic screen that simplifies snow *crystal* analysis by providing a grid to determine grain shape and size. Also known as crystal screen.

Crystal facet

A crystal face, i.e., a small, plane or flat surface of a *crystal*. Facets appear on many growing crystals because some surfaces grow much more slowly than others.

Curvature

See Appendix B

Deposition

1 - A process by which gases are deposited as a solid without first forming as a liquid (inverse *sublimation*). Surface hoar (SH) growth at the surface of the *snowpack* as well as *recrystallization* of snow within the *snowpack* (FC, DH) result from deposition of water vapour on ice (see *kinetic growth*).

2 - The process by which snow is deposited on the ground either with or without wind action (see also 2.9, surface features). As a result, stationary snow deposits such as snow dunes, *snowdrifts*, or the *snow cover* itself may form.

Depth of snowfall

See 2.4

Diamond dust

Diamond dust forms under very low air temperatures in strong, surface-based temperature inversion layers. Either vertical mixing within or radiational longwave cooling of this layer causes the air to become supersaturated with respect to ice, so that small ice *crystals* form. These mostly unbranched *crystals* are seemingly floating in the air, slowly falling from an often apparently cloudless sky (AMS, 2000).

Columns (PPco) and plates (PPpl) are the dominant shapes found in diamond dust (Walden *et al.*, 2003), but stellar dendrites (PPsd) may also be observed. Long-prism columns having a ratio of length to width >5 are defined as 'Shimizu crystals' (Shimizu, 1963).

Dielectric device

Instrument that uses the dielectric properties of snow to determine its *liquid water content* through capacitance and density measurements; it may also be used to determine dry snow *density*.

Equilibrium growth

Slow growth of grains and bonds within the *snowpack* resulting in a decrease of the *specific surface area* of *snow*. Causes particles to round off. Works at low temperature gradients, i.e., when excess *water vapour density* is below the critical value for *kinetic growth* to occur.

An extreme case of equilibrium growth is isothermal – or equi-temperature – growth in dry snow. This is the type of *metamorphism* that in nature occurs only in the centre of polar ice shields and may allow *grains* to develop facets. The latter is still a matter of research.

Erosion

The process by which the surface of the *snow cover* is worn away, primarily by the action of wind (see also 2.9, surface features, and *zastrugi*). Wind erosion is a very important factor in the *redistribution* of surface snow.

Evaporation

The conversion of a liquid into vapour, at temperatures below the boiling point (opposite of *condensation*).

Firn

Well-bonded and compacted snow that has survived the summer season, but has not been transformed to glacier ice. Typical densities are 400-830 kg m⁻³ (*perennial snow, névé*). Thus *firn* is the intermediate stage between snow and glacial ice where the pore space is at least partially interconnected. *Firn* usually results from both melt-freeze cycles and compaction by overload, or from compaction alone, as in inland Antarctic snow.

Flow finger

Vertical flow channel formed by *percolating* water in a subfreezing *snowpack*.

Freezing point

The temperature at which a substance begins to solidify (see *melting point*). The freezing point of water is 273.15 K at an ambient pressure of 1013.25 hPa.

Funicular regime (of water)

The condition of high *liquid water content* where liquid exists in continuous paths covering the ice structure; grain-to-grain bonds are weak. The volume fraction of free water exceeds 8 %, i.e., the wetness index is >3 (see also *pendular regime*).

Glaze

A coating of ice, generally clear and smooth, formed on exposed objects by the freezing of a film of *supercooled* water deposited by rain, drizzle, fog, or possibly condensed from *supercooled* water vapour (AMS, 2000).

Glazed surface

A multi-layered structure found in polar regions and consisting of single snow-grain *layers* cemented by thin (0.1 mm) films of *regelation* ice. The *regelation* ice films form on the surface following the kinetic heating of *saltating* drift snow under constantly strong katabatic wind flow (Goodwin, 1990).

Grain

1 – With respect to both shape and size of snow grains, the same as *particle*, i.e., the smallest characteristic subunit of snow microstructure recognizable with a hand lens (8-10x magnification).

2 – One single *crystal* of ice making up the ice structure of *snow*. The crystal orientation is continuous across each individual grain. Several grains together form a polycrystal having grain boundaries where crystal orientation changes.

Grain bond

The interconnection between snow *particles*, most often neck-like and located around grain boundaries (see *grain*).

Grain shape (form)

See 1.1

Grain size

See 1.2

Height

See 2.1

Height of snowpack

See 2.3

Height of new snow

See 2.4

Hoarfrost, hoar

A deposit of ice crystals (hoar crystals) formed by direct *deposition* on objects, usually those of small diameter freely exposed to the air, such as tree branches, plant stems and leaf edges, wires, poles, etc. It forms when air with a dew point below freezing is brought to saturation by cooling, i.e., usually *radiative cooling*. Hoarfrost also forms on snow surfaces (SH), within the *snowpack* (FC, DH), as well as inside unheated buildings and vehicles, in caves, and in crevasses (SHcv).

Ice

1 – Ice is the solid form of water. It is a transparent crystalline material having a density of 917 kg m^{-3} for pure, bubble-free ice at 0°C .

2 – Ice in the context of snow must be regarded as a polycrystalline material. Ice formations (IF) in and on the *snowpack* consist of ice *crystals* frozen together that are not recognizable as single particles with a hand lens. They usually contain isolated air pores. Thus their density is less than that for pure ice but is greater than about 700 kg m^{-3} . Note that the transition from *firn* to ice containing air bubbles occurs at a density of about 830 kg m^{-3} .

Impurities

See 1.7

Kinetic growth

Grain growth at high temperature gradients, i.e., when excess *water vapour density* is above a critical value (see also *equilibrium growth*). Water vapour diffuses from *grains* showing higher to those having lower water vapour density, i.e., the so called hand-to-hand mechanism (Yosida *et al.*, 1955). This process results in the *sublimation* and *deposition* – or *recrystallization* – of ice as well as changes in crystal size and shape. These changes usually result in a decrease of the *specific surface area* of snow.

Examples of kinetic growth shapes are faceted crystals (FC) and depth hoar (DH) that form within the *snowpack*, or surface hoar (SH) that grows on the snow surface.

Layer

A stratum of snow that is different in at least one respect from the strata above and below (see also introduction to Part 1).

Layer thickness

See 1.8

Liquid water content

See 1.5

Melting point

The temperature at which a solid liquefies (see *freezing point*). The melting point of ice is 273.15 K at 1013.25 hPa.

Microstructure

See Appendix B

Moisture content

Synonymous with *liquid water content*.

Morphological classification

A classification based on the shape of the individual *grains* or *particles*.

Névé

1 – A more or less extensive and persistent surface of snow, generally at high altitude. Synonymous with snowfield.

2 – Synonymous with *firn*. Used less frequently in this sense now than formerly.

New snow

Recently fallen snow in which the original form of the ice *crystals* can be recognized (AMS, 2000, NSIDC, 2008).

Optical-equivalent grain size

See 1.2

Particle

The smallest characteristic subunit of snow microstructure recognizable with a hand lens (8-10x magnification); a particle can consist of one or more *crystals* of ice (see also *grain*).

Pendular regime (of water)

The condition of low *liquid water content* where a continuous air space as well as discontinuous volumes of water coexist in a *snowpack*, i.e., air-ice, water-ice, and air-liquid interfaces are all found. Grain-to-grain bonds give strength. The volume fraction of free water does not exceed 8 %, i.e., the wetness index is ≤ 3 (see also *funicular regime*).

Penetrability of snow surface

See 2.8

Penitent

A spike or pillar of compacted snow, *firn*, or glacier ice caused by differential melting and *evaporation*. It is the extreme relief of *sun cups* found most often at high altitudes in low latitude regions; the resulting spikes resemble repentant souls. (AMS, 2000, NSIDC, 2008)

Percolation

Flow of a liquid through an unsaturated porous medium such as snow under the action of gravity.

Perennial

Persisting for an indefinite time longer than one year, e.g., perennial snow (see also *seasonal snow*).

Porosity

See Appendix B

Radiative cooling

1 – Radiative cooling is the process by which the temperature of a body decreases due to an excess of emitted longwave radiation over absorbed energy. Radiative cooling occurs typically on calm, clear nights but may be effective at daytime to form firnspiegel (suncrusts, IFsc, Ozeki & Akitaya, 1998) as well as to preserve surface hoar (SH, Hachikubo & Akitaya, 1998).

2 – In meteorology, the result of radiative cooling is termed ‘radiational cooling’, i. e., the decrease of both the earth's surface and adjacent air temperatures (AMS, 2000).

Ram penetrometer

A cone-tipped metal rod designed to be driven downward into deposited snow. The measured amount of force required to drive the rod a given distance is an indication of the ram resistance of the snow (see 1.4, snow hardness).

(Swiss rammsonde: cone tip angle: 60°; base diameter: 40 mm; weight: 10 N m⁻¹; ram weight: 10 N).

Recrystallize

To crystallize again, i.e., to form into new *crystals*.

Redistribution

Redistribution of previously *deposited* snow that was *eroded* and transported by the wind. Redistribution features such as *snowdrifts* are usually formed from densely packed and friable snow (see also 2.9, surface features).

Regelation

Process by which ice melts when subjected to pressure and refreezes when pressure is removed.

Relative density

While density (see 1.3) is mass per unit volume given in kilograms per cubic metre, relative density or specific gravity is the ratio of the mass of a given volume of a substance to the mass of an equal volume of water at a temperature of 4°C.

Saltation

Saltation is the mechanism by which snow *particles* are *eroded* from or *deposited* onto the snow surface and transported by the wind near to the surface. The process involves *particles* bouncing downstream and shattering new *particles* from the snow surface (King *et al.*, 2008).

Sastrugi (from Russian ‘*zastrugi*’, plural form of ‘*zastruga*’)

See *zastrugi*.

Seasonal snow

Snow that accumulates during one season and does not last for more than one year (NSIDC, 2008). See also *perennial*.

Settlement

The settlement of snow is the result of creep under the action of overburden pressure as well as of *metamorphic* processes going on within the *snowpack*.

Sintering

The process by which intergranular bonds form in a powder or porous material such as snow – dry or wet, decreasing thereby the surface energy of the material. In dry snow, direct *deposition* of water vapour diffusing through the pore space is usually the dominant bond growth mechanism, but several other mechanisms may contribute depending on the prevailing conditions: surface, volume, and grain boundary diffusion as well as plastic flow. Externally applied pressures, e.g., overburden by snow or ice, assist the sintering process by so-called pressure sintering (Maeno & Ebinuma, 1983; Colbeck, 1997; Blackford, 2007).

Slope angle

See 2.11

Slushflow

A mudflow-like outburst of water-saturated, i.e., soaked snow (see slush, MFsl), often along a stream course. Commonly occurring after rainfall and/or intense thawing have produced more water than can drain through the snow. A flowing mixture of snow and water.

Snezhnik (Russian term)

A perennial *snow patch* (Kotlyakov, 1980).

Snow

Precipitation in the form of small ice *crystals* which may fall singly or in *flakes*. Deposited snow is a highly porous material that builds up the *snow cover* on the ground.

Snow avalanche

Mass of snow which becomes detached and slides swiftly down a slope. Large snow avalanches may contain rocks, soil, vegetation, or ice. Avalanche formation was comprehensively reviewed by Schweizer *et al.* (2003).

Snow cover

In general, the *accumulation* of snow on the ground surface, and in particular, the areal extent of *snow-covered* ground (NSIDC, 2008); term to be preferably used in conjunction with the climatologic relevance of snow on the ground. See also *snowpack*.

Snow covered area

See 2.10

Snow density

See 1.3 and Appendix B; see also relative density

Snow depth

See 2.3

Snow hardness

See 1.4

Snow layer

See Part 1

Snow level

The lowest atmospheric level or altitude where hydrometeors remain in the solid (ice) phase. This often occurs within two to three hundred meters below the freezing level (the lowest elevation in the free atmosphere where the air temperature is 0°C). Snow level should not be confused with *snowline*.

Snow metamorphism

The transformation that the snow undergoes in the period from *deposition* to either melting or passage to glacial ice. Meteorological conditions as well as mechanical or gravitational *stresses* are the primary external factors that affect snow metamorphism. Dry snow metamorphism is governed by both *equilibrium* and *kinetic growth*. In presence of liquid water snow transformation is driven by wet snow metamorphism.

In English, snow metamorphism is sometimes and incorrectly called snow metamorphosis.

Snow patch

1 – The snow remaining on the ground close to the end of snowmelt (Jones *et al.*, 2003). Such a patchy, discontinuous *snow cover* is usually the result of slowly melting snow due to shading or areas of high *accumulation*.

2 – An isolated mass of snow, especially one which persists through most or all of the *ablation* season (see also *snezhnik*).

Snow pit

A pit dug vertically into the *snowpack* where *snowpack stratigraphy* and characteristics of the individual *layers* are observed; see also *snow profile*.

Snow profile

A *stratigraphic* record of the *snowpack* including characteristics of individual *layers*. Usually performed in *snow pits*.

Snow strength

See 2.7

Snow temperature

See 1.6

Snow type

Snow characterized by its microstructure and density (see 1.3). Note that grain shape and grain size are only an incomplete record of snow microstructure (Appendix B).

Snow water equivalent

See 2.5

Snowdrift

A mound or bank of snow deposited as sloping surfaces and peaks, often behind obstacles, irregularities, and on lee slopes. Due to eddies in the wind field (AMS, 2000, see also *deposition*).

Snowfall

The quantity of snow falling within a given area in a given time.

Snowflake

An interlocked bunch or aggregate of ice *crystals* that falls from a cloud. Air temperatures near the *melting point* favour the formation of snowflakes.

Snowline

In general the outer boundary of a snow covered area (see 2.10). This may be the ever-changing latitudinal limit of *snow cover*, particularly in the Northern Hemisphere winter, or the lower limit in altitude of the permanent *snow cover* in mountainous terrain. The latter strongly depends on the aspect of slope (see 2.12). Snowline should not be confused with *snow level*.

Snowpack

The accumulation of snow at a given site and time; term to be preferably used in conjunction with the physical and mechanical properties of the snow on the ground. See also *snow cover*.

Specific surface area

See Appendix B

State of snow

Snow characterization by properties such as hardness, *liquid water content*, temperature, and impurities.

Strain

The ratio of change in dimension to the original dimension. A material is said to be strained when a *stress* acting on it distorts it (see also 2.7, snow strength).

Stratigraphy

In the context of snow, the definition and description of the stratified, i.e., *layered* snowpack (see also *snow profile*).

Stratification

The vertical structure or *layering* of the snowpack, usually observed in *snow pits*.

Stress

The force per unit area acting on a material and tending to change its dimensions, i. e., to cause a *strain*. The two main types of stress are direct or normal (i.e., tensile or compressive) stress and shear stress (see also 2.7, snow strength).

Striation

Easily recognizable convex growth feature across *facets* or *crystal* surfaces.

Sublimation

The process in which a solid turns to a gas without first forming a liquid (opposite of *deposition*).

Sun cups

Ablation hollows that develop during intense sunshine (NSIDC, 2008). On low-latitude snow, *firn*, and ice fields these may grow into spectacular features called snow or ice *penitents*.

Supercooled

For liquids, cooled below normal *freezing point* without a change of phase. Water droplets in the atmosphere can continue to exist in the liquid state down to temperatures as low as -40°C .

Surface features

See 2.9

Surface roughness

Refers to the roughness of a snow surface caused by precipitation or the wind as well as by uneven *evaporation*, *sublimation*, or melt. It does not refer to roughness due to snow microstructure (see also 2.9, surface features).

Thickness

See 2.2

Time

See 2.13

Tortuosity

See Appendix B.

Water equivalent of snowfall

See 2.6

Water vapour

Water vapour is the gaseous form of water. It is colourless and odourless.

Water vapour density

In a system of moist air, the ratio of the mass of *water vapour* present to the volume occupied by the mixture, i.e., the density of the water vapour component (AMS, 2000). Also called absolute humidity.

A critical excess water vapour density, i.e., supersaturation, of about $5\text{-}6 \times 10^{-4}$ kg m⁻³ separates *equilibrium* from *kinetic growth* (Colbeck, 1983).

Water vapour concentration

Synonymous with *water vapour density*.

Wetness

Synonymous with *liquid water content*.

Zastrugi (from Russian, plural form of 'zastruga'; variant spelling: **sastrugi**)

Ridges of hard snow alternating with wind-blown furrows running parallel with the direction of the wind. This surface formation results from the *erosion* of transverse waves previously formed (see also 2.9, surface features). Zastrugi may be up to several meters long and up to several tens of centimetres high.

APPENDIX F: MULTILINGUAL LIST OF TERMS

F.1 Terms used in tables

Country specific translations are preceded by the appropriate country code (CA: Canada, CH: Switzerland).
Terms in parentheses refer to the body of the text.

English	Français	Español	Russian	Deutsch
Table 1.1				
Primary physical characteristics of deposited snow	Caractéristiques physiques élémentaires de la neige au sol	Características primarias de la nieve depositada	Осно2нК5 D878СА 85 Е0р0: Бр8АВ8: 8 оВло6 5нно3о Ан530 <8: p>АрС ВСр0 D>p<0 7Q5= p07< 5p 7Q5= п; >B=>ABL A=530 – A 5; 5B0 – >1I 0O B2Q4>ABL A=530 A=45p6 0=85 6 84: >9 D07K B5< n5p0BCp0 A=530 703p07=Q=>ABL B> I 8=0 A >O	Physikalische Haupt-eigenschaften von abgelagertem Schnee Mikrostruktur Kornform Korngrösse Schneedichte – Trocken- – Gesamt- Schneehärte Wassergehalt Schneetemperatur Verunreinigung Schichtdicke
microstructure (App. B)	microstructure	microestructura		
grain shape (1.1)	forme des grains	forma de los granos		
grain size (1.2)	taille des grains	tamaño de granos		
snow density (1.3)	masse volumique de la neige	densidad de nieve		
– dry	– sèche	– seca		
– total	– totale	– total		
snow hardness (1.4)	dureté de la neige	dureza de la nieve		
liquid water content (1.5)	teneur en eau liquide	contenido de agua líquida		
snow temperature (1.6)	température de la neige	temperatura de la nieve		
impurities (1.7)	impureté	impurezas		
layer thickness (1.8)	épaisseur d'une couche	espesor de la capa		
Table 1.2				
Main morphological grain shape classes	Classification morphologique élémentaire	Clases morfológicas principales de formas de granos	Осно2нК5 морДоло38СА 85 : л0ААК ДорпК 7Q5н	Hauptkornformen
precipitation particles (PP)	cristaux de neige fraîche CA: nouvelle, récente	cristales de nieve fresca	А256 52Кп02Н89 A=53	Neuschneekristalle
machine made snow (MM)	neige de culture	nieve artificial	8A САА25==K9 A=53	technischer Schnee
decomposing and fragmented precipitation particles (DF)	particules reconnaissables, CH: neige feutrée	cristales de nieve fresca des- compuestos y fragmentados	p07pCH0NI 85A08 p07; ><0==K5 A=56 8=: 8 >: pC3; K5 7Q=0	feinkörniger Schnee, kleine runde Körner
rounded grains (RG)	grains fins	granos redondeados		kantigkörniger Schnee, kantige Körner
faceted crystals (FC)	grains à faces planes, CA: faces planes, facettes	cristales con caras planas	3p0==K5 7Q=0	Tiefenreif, Becherkristalle, Schwimmschnee
depth hoar (DH)	givre de profondeur, gobelets	escarcha de profundidad	3; C18==0O87<>p>7L	Oberflächenreif Schmelzformen
surface hoar (SH)	givre de surface	escarcha de superficie	п>25pE=>AB=K9 8=59, 87<>p>7L	Eisgebilde
melt forms (MF)	grains ronds, CH: grains de fonte	granos derritiéndose	B0; K5 D>p<K	
ice formations (IF)	formations de glace	formaciones de hielo	; 54Q=K5 2: ; NG5=8O	

English

Français

Español

Russian

Deutsch

Table 1.3

Grain size

very fine
fine
medium
coarse
very coarse
extreme

Taille des grains

très fin
fin
moyen
grossier
très grossier
extrêmement grossier

Tamaño de grano

muy fino
fino
medio
grueso
muy grueso
extremadamente grueso

Р07М5р 7Q5H

>G=L < 5; : 89
< 5; : 89
Ap54=89
: pGr=K9
>G=L : pGr=K9
MABp5< 0; L=> : pGr=K9

Korngröße

sehr fein
fein
mittel
groß
sehr groß
extrem groß

Table 1.4

Snow hardness

very soft
soft
medium
hard
very hard
ice

Dureté de la neige

très tendre
tendre
mi-dur
dur
très dur
glace

Dureza de nieve

muy blanda
blanda
media
dura
muy dura
hielo

T2Q4oABL Aи530

>G=L < C: 89
< C: 89
Ap54=89
B2Q4K9
>G=L B2Q4K9
; Q

Schneehärte

sehr weich
weich
mittelhart
hart
sehr hart
Eis

Table 1.4

Hand hardness test

fist
4 fingers
1 finger
pencil
knife
ice

Test manuel de la dureté

poing
4 doigts
1 doigt
crayon
couteau
glace

Prueba de dureza manual

puño
4 dedos
1 dedo
lápiz
cuchillo
hielo

ИпКВ0н85 рСГнКм АпоА01om

: C; 0:
4 п0; LF0
1 п0; 5F
: 0p0=40H
=>6
; Q

Handhärte test

Faust
4 Finger
1 Finger
Bleistift
Messer
Eis

Table 1.5

Liquid water content

dry
moist
wet
very wet
soaked

Teneur en eau liquide

sèche
légèrement humide
humide
mouillée
très mouillée

Prueba de humedad manual

seca
ligeramente húmeda
húmeda
muy húmeda
empapada

Co45p6 0н85 6 84: o9 D07K

ACE>9
A 01> 2; 06 =K9
2; 06 =K9
>G=L 2; 06 =K9
2>4>=0AKI 5==K9

Wassergehalt

trocken
schwach feucht
feucht
nass
sehr nass

English

Français

Español

Russian

Deutsch

Table 2.1

Snow cover measurements

Mesure du couvert neigeux

Mediciones de cobertura de nieve

И7м5р5н8ОАи56 нo3o нo: po20

Schneedeckenmessungen

height (vertical) (2.1)
thickness
(slope-perpendicular) (2.2)
height of snowpack,
snow depth (2.3)
height of new snow,
depth of snowfall (2.4)
snow water equivalent (2.5)

hauteur
épaisseur

hauteur (totale) de neige

hauteur de neige fraîche
CA: récente, nouvelle
équivalent en eau de la neige

altura (vertical)
espesor (perpendicular a la
pendiente)
altura del manto de nieve,
profundidad de la nieve
altura de nieve fresca,
profundidad de nieve caída
equivalente en agua de la
nieve

В>; I 8=0, 2KA>B0 (п> 25pB8: 0; 8)
<>I =>ABL (п> п5рп5=48: C; QpC
: п>4AB8; 0NI 59 п>25pE=>AB8
В>; I 8=0 (2KA>B0) A=56 =>3>
п>; p>20
В>; I 8=0 A256 52Kп02H53>
A=530
2>4=K9 M2820; 5=B A=56 =>3>
п>; p>20

Höhe
Mächtigkeit, Dicke

(Gesamt-)Schneehöhe

Neuschneehöhe,
Neuschneemenge
Wasserwert des Schnees

water equivalent of snowfall
(2.6)
snow strength (2.7)
penetrability of snow surface
(2.8)
surface features (2.9)

équivalent en eau de la neige
fraîche (récente, nouvelle)
résistance mécanique
pénétrabilité de la surface

éléments de surface

equivalente en agua de
precipitación sólida
resistencia mecánica
penetrabilidad de la
superficie de la nieve
características de la
superficie

2>4=K9 M2820; 5=B
A256 52Kп02H53> A=530
п>G>ABL A=530
п>=>8F05<>ABL п>25pE=>AB8
A=530
>A>15==>AB8 п>25pE=>AB8

Wasserwert des
Neuschnees
Festigkeit
Einsinktiefe

Eigenschaften der
Oberfläche

snow covered area (2.10)
slope angle (2.11)
aspect of slope (2.12)

étendue du couvert neigeux
inclinaison, déclivité de la pente
orientation, exposition de la
pente

area cubierta de nieve
inclinación de la pendiente
exposición de la pendiente

70A=56 5==>ABL
: pCB87=0 A ; >=0
MAп>78F8O A ; >=0

Schneebedecktes Gebiet
Hangneigung
Hangexposition

time (2.13)

temps

tiempo

2p5<O

Zeit

Table 2.3

Surface features

Éléments de surface

Elementos de la nieve

ОАo15нноАВ8 по25pЕноАВ8

Eigenschaften der Oberfläche

smooth
wavy
concave furrows
convex furrows
random furrows

lisse
ondulé
dépression concaves
sillons convexes
érosion irrégulière

lisa
ondulada
surcos cóncavos
surcos convexos
surcos irregulares

3; 04: 00
2>; =8AB00
2>3=CB00(1>p>74K)
2KпC ; 00(20; K)
=5p53C; Qp=>-Mп>48p>20==00

glatt
gewellt
konkave Furchen
konvexe Furchen
unregelmässig erodiert

F.2 Terms used in appendices A.1 and B

Underlined entries are defined in the glossary (Appendix E), terms in parentheses refer to the body of the text.

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
Appendix A.1				
Some grain shape subclasses	Quelques classes morphologiques secondaires	Algunas subclases de formas de granos	Образы ледяных покровов по форме	Einige Nebenkornformen
graupel (PP)	neige roulée, grésil	granizo fino	А=56=00: рГт0	Graupel
hail (PP)	grêle	granizo	Зр04	Hagel
ice layer (IF)	couche de glace	capa de hielo	; 540=00пр>А >9: 0	Eisschicht
ice pellet (PP)	granule de glace	gránulo de hielo	; 540=00: рГт0	Frostgraupel
needle (PP, SH)	aiguille	aguja	83; К	Nadel
plate (PP, MM, SH)	plaquette	placa	п; 0А8=: 8	Plättchen
rime (PP)	givre	cencellada	8=59, 87<>р>7L	Rauhreif
– soft	– mou	– blanca	– 87<>р>7L, 8=59	– Rauhreif
– hard	– dur	– transparente	– В2Q4K9 =0; Q ; 540=>9 =0; Q	– Rauheis
stellar (PP)	en étoile	en estrella	72Q40BK5 (45=4p8B=K5)	sternförmig
sun crust, firnspegel (IF)	croûte de rayonnement CA: de radiation, de soleil	Costra de radiación	D>p< K p0480F8>==00: >p: 0	Firnspegel
Appendix A.1				
Grain shape related terms	Terminologie relative à la forme des grains	Términos relacionados con formas de granos	Термины, связанные с формой зёрен	Kornform bezogene Terminologie
abraded (RG)	abrasé	escoriado	>BH; 8D>20==K9	abgeschliffen
<u>accretion</u> (PP)	accrétion	acreción	=0p0I 5==K9	Zuwachs
broken (DF, RG)	brisé	quebrada	п>; >< 0==K9	zerbrochen
clustered (MF)	en agrégat	agregada	3р>745284=K9	verklumpt
column (PP, RG, IF)	colonne	columna	АВ>; 18: , :>; >==0	Säule
cup (DH, SH)	gobelet	copa	1>: 0;	Becher
crushed	écrasé, concassé	picado	:>; >BK9	zermahlen, zerkleinert
<u>crust</u> (PP, DH, SH, IF)	croûte	costra	:>p: 0	Kruste, Harsch
decompose (DF)	décomposer	descompuesta	p07pCH0BL	abbauen, zerfallen
drain (MF, IF)	s'écouler	drenar	АВ5: 0BL	abfließen

English	Français	Español	Russian	Deutsch
Appendix A.1 (continued)				
feathery (SH)	frêle, en forme de feuille	pluma	п5pL5284=K9	zart, fedrig
flake ice	glace écaille	hielo en escamas	С5H90BK9 ; Q	Scherbeneis
fragmented (DF)	fragmenté	fragmentada	p07; < 0==K9	zerbrochen
freezing rain (IF)	pluie verglaçante	lluvia helada	70< Q7H89 4>6 4L	vereisender Regen
hexagonal (PP, <u>FC</u>)	hexagonale	hexagonal	35: A03>=0; L=K9 (H5A8C>; L=K9)	hexagonal
hollow (PP, DH, SH)	creux	hueco	n>; K9	hohl
ice lens (IF)	lentille de glace	lente de hielo	; 54G=0O; 8=70	Eislinse
planar (PP, SH)	plan	plana	n; >A 89	eben
prismatic (PP, DH)	prismatique	prismática	np87< 0B8C5A 89	prismatisch
rimed (PP)	givré	escarchado	=0< Q7H89	verreift
scrolls (SH)	volute	voluta	A8p0; 8	Spiralform
shard (<u>MM</u> , DF)	tesson	fragmento	>A >; >	Scherbe
<u>sintered</u> (<u>MM</u> , DF, RG)	fritté	sinterizado	A1Q H89AO	gesintert
slush (MF)	neige détrempée, soupe	nieve sopa	B0; K9 A=53	Schneematsch
solid (PP, <u>FC</u> , DH, MF)	plein	sólida	A1; >H=>9	voll
spatial (PP)	spatiale (structure)	espacial	np> A0= A25==K9	räumliche (Struktur)
<u>striated</u> (DH, SH)	strié	estriada	1>p>74QBK9	gerippt, geriffelt
<u>striation</u> (DH, SH)	strie	estría	1>p>74: 0	Rippe, Riffel
Appendix B				
Snow microstructure	Microstructure de la neige	Microestructura de nieve	M8: poA0pC BQp0 A1530	Schneemikrostuktur
density (B.1)	masse volumique	Densidad	n; >B=>ABL	Dichte
porosity (B.2)	porosité	porosidad	n>p8AB>ABL	Porosität
specific surface area (B.3)	surface spécifique	área específica	C45; L=0O n>25pE=>ABL	spezifische Oberfläche
curvature (B.4)	courbure	curvatura	: p8287=0	Krümmung
tortuosity (B.5)	tortuosité	tortuosidad	8728; 8AB>ABL	Tortuosität
coordination number (B.6)	nombre de coordination	número de coordinación	: >>p48=0F8>==>5 C8A >	Koordinationszahl

F.3 Further terms used in the text

Underlined entries are defined in the glossary (Appendix E).

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
A				
<u>ablation</u>	ablation	ablación	01; CF8O	Ablation
– <u>hollows</u>	– creux d'	– huecos de	01; CF8>==K5 π;>; >A88	Wabenschnee
<u>accumulation</u>	accumulation	acumulación	=0: >π; 5=85, 0: : C<C; CF8O	Akkumulation, Ablagerung
air	air	aire	2>74CE	Luft
– temperature	– température de l'	– temperatura del	B5< π5p0BCp0 2>74CE0	–temperatur
airborne	aéroporté	aerotransportando	(=01; N45=8O) A2>74CE0	luftgetragen
atmosphere	atmosphère	atmósfera	0B<>AD5p0	Atmosphäre
atom	atome	átomo	0B<<	Atom
<u>avalanche</u>	avalanche	avalancha	; 028=0	Lawine
– formation	– formation des	– formación de	; 028=>>1p07>20=85	–nbildung
B				
barchan	barkhane	barján	10pE0H	Barkhandüne
bed surface (of an avalanche)	plan de glissement (d'une avalanche)	superficie de deslizamiento (de una avalancha)	πo4A88; 0NI 0Oπo25pEHOABL, πo25pEHOABL A o; L6 5H8 O (; 028 HK)	Gleitfläche (einer Lawine)
bond size	taille des ponts	tamaño del puente	p07m5p : oHBO: BO (H59: 8, A2O78)	Bindungsdurchmesser
bonded	soudé	adherido	A2O7oHHK5	gebunden
brittle	fragile	quebradizo	EπCT: 89	spröd
C				
calorimetry	calorimétrie	calorimetría	: 0; op8 m5Bp8 O	Kalorimetrie
<u>capillarity</u>	capillarité	capilaridad	: 0π8; ; CpHOABL	Kapillarität
cardinal point	point cardinal	punto cardinal	ABp0H0 A25B0	Haupthimmelsrichtung
classification	classification	clasificación	: ; 0A8 D8: 0F8 O	Klassifizierung
– <u>morphological</u>	– morphologique	– morfológica	морDo; o38 C5A 0O-	– morphologische
code	code	código	: o4	Kürzel
<u>condensation</u>	condensation, liquéfaction	condensación	: oH45HADF8 O	Kondensation, Verflüssigung
compaction	compactage	compactación	CT; oB5H85	Verdichtung

English	Français	Español	Russian	Deutsch
coordinate	coordonnée	coordenada	: оор48 н0В0	Koordinate
cornice	corniche	cornisa	: 0рн87	Wächte
<u>crystal</u>	crystal	crystal	: р8 АВ0; ;	Kristall
– <u>card or screen</u>	– grille	– tarjeta para medir cristales	: р8 АВ0; ; 8 С5А 00р5НëВ: 0	–raster
– <u>facet</u>	– facette d'un	– faceta	3р0нL : р8 АВ0; ; 0	–facette
D				
degree	degré	grado	3р04СA	Grad
<u>deposition</u>	dépôt	deposición	>В; >6 5=85	Ablagerung
<u>diamond dust</u>	poudrin de glace	polvo diamante	0; < 07=00пK; L	Diamantenstaub
<u>dielectric device</u>	instrument pour mesurer la constante diélectrique	instrumento para mediciones de la constante dieléctrica	пр81>р 4; 087<5р5=80	Instrument zur Messung der Dielektrizitätskonstante
dilution method	méthode par dilution	método de dilución	48М5: Вр8С5А >9 п>АВ>G=>9	Verdünnungsmethode
droplet	gouttelette	gotícula	< 5В>4 р0АВ2>р5=80	Tröpfchen
ductile	ductile	dúctil	: 0п; 0	duktil
dune	dune	duna	п; 0АВ8G=K9	Düne
			4N=0	
E				
<u>erosion</u>	érosion	erosión	М>780	Erosion
<u>evaporation</u>	évaporation	evaporación	8Ап0р5=85	Verdampfen, Verdunstung
F				
<u>firn</u>	névé	neviza	D8р=	Firn
<u>flow finger</u>	cheminée de percolation		С7K: пр>А0С20=80	Fliessfinger
<u>fracture</u>	fracture	fractura	р07рСН5=85	Bruch
<u>freeze</u>	geler	congelar	70< 5р70=85	gefrieren
<u>freezing point</u>	point de congélation	punto de congelación	В>G 0 70<5р70=80	Gefrierpunkt
G				
glacier	glacier	glacier	; 54=8:	Gletscher
<u>glaze</u>	verglas	recubierto de hielo	>1; 545=5=85, 3>; >; Q48F0	Glatteis
<u>glazed surface</u>	surface verglacée	superficie con hielo	>1; 545=52H00п>25рE=>ABL	vereiste Oberfläche
<u>grain</u>	grain	grano	75р=>	Korn
– <u>bond</u>	– pont ou liaison entre les	– enlace/puente	H59: 0, : >=B0: B 75р=0	–bindung
graphic, graphical	graphique	gráfico	3р0D8С5А 89	grafisch
ground	sol	suelo	3рC=B	Boden

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
growth	croissance	crecimiento	п>АВ	Wachstum
– <u>equilibrium</u>	– par gradients de température faibles	– equilibrado	п02=>25А=K9–	– bei abbauender Umwandlung (Metamorphose)
– <u>kinetic</u>	– par gradients de température moyens à forts	– cinético	=5п02=>25А=K9–	– bei aufbauender Umwandlung (Metamorphose)
– step	– palier de		АВГп5=L (H03) п>: 070В5; О	–sstufe
H				
<u>hoarfrost</u>	gelée blanche	escarcha	87<>п>7L, 8=59	Reif
homogeneous	homogène	homogéneo	>4=>п>4=K9	homogen, einheitlich
horizontal	horizontal	horizontal	3>п87>=В0; L=K9	waagrecht
I				
<u>ice</u>	glace	hielo	; Q	Eis
– layer	– couche de	– capa	пп>А >9 ; L40 (; 54G=0O: >p: 0)	–schicht
inclined	incliné	inclinado	=0: ; >==K9	geneigt
index	indice	índice	п>: 070В5; L	Index
– step	– niveau de l'	– paso	АВГп5=L (H03) п>: 070В5; О	–stufe
instrument	instrument	instrumento	8=АВс<5=В	Instrument
intergranular	intergranulaire	intergranular	<56 7Q5==K9	intergranular
irregular	irrégulier	irregular	=5пп028; L=K9, =5п02=><5п=K9	unregelmässig
isothermal	isotherme	isotérmico	87>В5п<8G5А 89	isotherm
isotropic	isotrope	isotrópico	87>Вп>п=K9	isotrop
L				
laminar	laminaire	laminar	; 0<8=0п=K9	laminar
<u>layer</u>	couche, strate	capa	А >9	Schicht
layering, see <u>stratification</u>			А >8АВ>АВL, АВп0ВВD8: 0F8O	
low	faible, bas	bajo	А 01K9, <0; K9	gering, tief
M				
magnifying glass	loupe	lupa	; Гп0	Lupe
mean	moyenne	media	Ап54п89	Mittelwert
melt	fondre	derretir/fundir	В0; K9	schmelzen
<u>melting point</u>	point de fusion	punto de fusión	В0G 0 В0Qп8 O	Schmelzpunkt
mixture	mélange	mezcla	Ам5АL	Mischung

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
N				
<u>névé</u> <u>new snow</u>	névé neige fraîche CA: nouvelle, récente	neviza nieve nueva	D8p= A256 52Kπ02H89 A=53	Firnfeld, Firn Neuschnee
O				
<u>optical-equivalent grain size</u>	taille optique des grains	tamaño óptico de granos	оп8С5А 8 π>4>1p0==K9 p07<5p 75p=0	optische Korngrösse
P				
<u>particle</u> penetration <u>penitent</u> snow <u>percolation</u> permeability perpendicular pneumatic precipitation – liquid – solid process	particule pénétration pénitents de neige percolation perméabilité perpendiculaire pneumatique précipitation – liquide – solide processus	partícula penetración nieve penitente percolación permeabilidad perpendicular neumático precipitación – líquida – sólida proceso	С0A8F0 πp>=8: =>25=85 : 0NI 85A0A=530 πp>A0C820=85 πp>=8F05<>ABL π5pπ5=48: C; Qp=K9 π=52<0B8С5А 89 >A04: 8 6 84: 85– B2Q4K5– <5E0=87<, πp>F5AA	Partikel Eindringen Büßerschnee Durchsickerung Durchlässigkeit rechtwinklig, senkrecht pneumatisch Niederschlag – flüssiger – fester Prozess
R				
<u>radiative cooling</u>	refroidissement par rayonnement thermique ou infra-rouge	enfriamiento radiativo	p0480F8>==>5 2KE>; 06 820=85	Abkühlung durch langwellige Ab- oder Ausstrahlung
rain <u>ram penetrometer</u> – <u>Swiss rammsonde</u> range <u>recrystallize</u> <u>redistribution</u> <u>regelation</u> <u>relative density</u>	pluie sonde de battage – suisse intervalle, plage recristalliser redistribution regel densité	lluvia sonda de nieve de percusión – suiza rango redistribución recristalización regelación densidad relativa	4>6 4L C40p=K9 π5=5Bp><5Bp (259F0pA 89– (7>=4 %5D5; 8) 480π07>= π5p5: p8A0; ; 87>2K20BLAO π5p5p0Atp545; 5=85 p56 5; CF8Q A: 5p70=85 >B=>A8B5; L=00π; >B=>ABL	Regen Rammsonde – schweizerische Bereich umkristallisieren Verfrachtung Regelation relative Dichte

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
residual liquid water content ripple roughness	teneur résiduelle en eau liquide ondulation rugosité	contenido de agua líquida residual ondulación rugosidad	>АВВ>G=002; 03>Q: >ABL =0=>A H5p>E>20B>ABL	irreduzibler Wassergehalt kleine Welle Rauheit, Rauigkeit
S				
<u>saltation</u>	saltation	saltación	A0; LB0F8O 70ABpC38	Saltation
sastrugi, see <u>zastrugi</u>			>A540=85	Setzung, Verdichtung
<u>settlement</u>	tassement	asentamiento	Aт5: 0=85	Sinterung
<u>sintering</u>	frittage	sinterización	A ; >=	Hang
slope	pente	pendiente	=>p<0; L (п5пп5=48: C Qp)	-senkrecht
- perpendicular	- perpendiculaire à la pente	- perpendicular	: A ; >=C	
<u>slushflow</u>	écoulement de neige détrempée	flujo de agua-nieve	2>4>A=56 =K9 п>B>	Sulzstrom
<u>snow</u>	neige	nieve	A=53	Schnee
- cover	- couvert neigeux, CA: couverture neigeuse	- cobertura	A=56 =K9 п>: p>2	-decke
- deposit	- dépôt de	- depósito	>B; >6 5=85 A=530	-ablagerung
- hydrology	- hydrologie nivale	- hidrología	384p>; >38O A=530	-hydrologie
- layer	- couche ou strate de	- capa	A ; >9 A=530	-schicht
- level	- limite des chutes de neige	- nivel	Qp>25=L A=53>п040	-fallgrenze
- mechanics	- mécanique de la	- mecánica	<5E0=8: 0 A=530	-mechanik
- metamorphism	- métamorphose de la, transformation de la	- metamorfismo	<5B0<>pD87< A=530	-metamorphose, -umwandlung
- patch	- plaque de neige	- nevero	A=56 =8:	-fleck
- perennial	- neige éternelle	- perenne	25G=K5 (<=>3>; 5B=85) A=530	- mehrjähriger
- pit	- tranchée de sondage	- pozo	A=56 =K9 HCpD	-schacht
- profile	- profil de neige	- perfil	A=56 =K9 пp>D8; L	-profil
- physics	- physique de la	- física	D878: 0 A=530	-physik
- seasonal	- neige saisonnière	- estacional	A57>==K9 A=56 =K9 п>: p>2	- jahreszeitlicher, saisonaler
- state of	- état de la	- estado de	CAE0=>2; 5=85 A=56 =>3>	-zustand
			п>: p>20	
- type	- type de	- tipo	B8п A=530	-art
<u>snowdrift</u>	congère	banco de nieve	AC3p>1, A=56 =K9 70=>A	Tribschneeanammlung

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
snowfall	chute de neige	nevada	А=53>п04	Schneefall
snowflake	flocon de neige	copo de nieve	А=56 8=: 0	Schneeflocke
snowline	limite des neiges éternelles	línea de nieve	А=53>200; 8=80	Schneegrenze
snowpack	manteau neigeux	manto de nieve	А=56 =00B>; I 0	Schneedecke
solid	solide	sólida	В2Q4K9	fest
<u>strain</u>	déformation	deformación	45D>p< 0F8O	Verformung
– rate	– vitesse de	– tasa	A >p>ABL 45D>p< 0F88	-sgeschwindigkeit
<u>stratigraphy</u>	stratigraphie	estratigrafía	Аp0B83p0D8O	Stratigrafie
<u>stratification</u>	stratification	estratificación	А >8 AB>ABL	Schichtung
stratum	couche, strate	estrato	π; 0AB	Schicht
<u>stress</u>	contrainte	tensión	=0πpC6 5=85	Spannung
– compressive	– à la compression	– compresivo	– 402; 5=80	– Druck-
– shear	– au cisaillement	– de cizalla	– A42830	– Scher-
– tensile	– à la tension	– tensional	– p0ABC6 5=80	– Zug-
stress rate	vitesse de contrainte	tasa de tensión	A >p>ABL 87< 5=5=80	Spannungsrate
			=0πpC6 5=80	
subfreezing	en dessous du point de fusion	bajo el punto de congelación	=86 5 B>G 8 70< 5p70=80	unterhalb des Schmelzpunktes
<u>sublimation</u>	sublimation	sublimación	AC1; 8< 0F8O(2>73>=: 0)	Sublimation
– inverse (see <u>deposition</u>)	– condensation solide	– inversa	45AC1; 8< 0F8O	Resublimation
subunit	sous unité	sub unidad	M5< 5=B	Untereinheit
sun	soleil	sol	А<; =F5	Sonne
<u>sun cups</u>	mini-pénitents de neige		; 54=8: >2K5 AB0: 0=K, ; 54G=K5 A BK (2 BG 0=0; >38 =0 π>25pE=>AB8 A=530)	(kleiner) Büsserschnee
<u>supercooled</u>	surfondu	subfusión	π5p5>E; 06 4Q=K9	unterkühlt
surface	surface	superficie	π>25pE=>ABL	Oberfläche
– <u>roughness</u>	– rugosité de la	– rugosidad de la	H5p>E>20B>ABL π>25pE=>AB8	-nrauigkeit
– <u>temperature</u>	– température de	– temperatura de la	B5< π5p0BCp0 π>25pE=>AB8	-ntemperatur
symbol	symbole	símbolo	AB< 2>;	Symbol
T				
temperature	température	temperatura	B5< π5p0BCp0	Temperatur
term	terme	término	B5p< 8=	Begriff
thermal	thermique	termal	B5p< 8G5A 89, B5π; >-	thermisch
transformation	transformation	transformación	ππ5>1p07>20=85	Umwandlung

<i>English</i>	<i>Français</i>	<i>Español</i>	<i>Russian</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
V				
vertical	vertical	vertical	25pB8: 0; L=K9	lotrecht
W				
water	eau	agua	2>40	Wasser
– <u>funicular</u>	– funiculaire	–funicular	; 53: >π>4286 =0O : 0π8; ; Qp=0O-	– offenes Kapillar-, Strang-
– <u>pendular</u>	– pendulaire	–pendular	<0; >π>4286 =0O : 0π8; ; Qp=0O-	– Pendel-
– <u>vapour</u>	– vapeur d'	– vapor de	2>4O>9 π0p	-dampf
– <u>vapour density</u>	– masse volumique de la vapeur d'	– densidad de vapor	: >=F5=Bp0F8Q π; >B=>ABL 2>4O>3> π0p0, 01A; NB=0O 2; 06 =>ABL 2>74CE0	-dampfdichte
wetness see <u>liquid water content</u>	humidité	humedad	2; 06 =>ABL	Feuchtigkeit
wind	vent	viento	25E5p	Wind
– katabatic	– catabatique	– catabático	: 0E010B8GA 89–	- Fall-, katabatischer
Z				
<u>zastrugi</u>	zastrugi, sastrugi	sastrugi	70ApC8	Zastrugi

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