

# 1 Study on Advanced Snow Information and its 2 Application to Disaster Mitigation: An overview

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## 22 Abstract

23 An overview of the National Research Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Resilience  
24 (NIED) project “Study on Advanced Snow Information and its Application to Disaster  
25 Mitigation (ASDIM)” is described here. The Concentrated Snowfall Monitoring System  
26 (CSMS) was constructed, and observations of falling snow particles at remote sites of  
27 the CSMS were started within the observation range of an X-band multi-parameter radar  
28 at the Snow and Ice Research Center (SIRC) in Nagaoka. A parameter for the  
29 quantitative description of falling snow particles was derived. Preferential flow within  
30 the snowpack was reproduced numerically. State-of-the-art microphysical technologies,  
31 such as nuclear magnetic resonance imaging and X-ray computerized tomography, were  
32 employed. Advanced snow information, such as center of mass flux distribution, liquid  
33 water fraction, specific surface area, and microstructure of the snowpack, were  
34 collected for falling and ground snow analyses. A regularly updated Real-time Hazard  
35 Map (RHM) displaying the areas affected by various snow and ice-related hazards was  
36 developed. The RHM serves as a platform for application of the Snow Disaster  
37 Forecasting System to hazards such as avalanches, snow accretion, and blowing snow.

38 The utility of the RHMs was examined through experiments conducted in association  
39 with local governments and transport administrators.

40

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42 **Keywords: Concentrated Snowfall Monitoring System; Real-time Hazard Map; Snow**  
43 **and Ice Disaster Forecast; CMF; SSA**

44

## 45 **1. Introduction**

46 Snow and ice disasters include a wide range of damage and accidents. Avalanches,  
47 poor visibility by blowing snow, and snowdrifts can cause accidents (Abe *et al.*, 2012;  
48 NIED, 2016). Heavy snowfall can cause traffic jams (De Freitas, 1975; Call, 2005; Nakai  
49 and Yamaguchi, 2012; Motoyoshi and Nakai, 2012), as well as the collapse of houses  
50 and the capsizing of ships under the weight of snow (Ishizaka and Nohguchi, 2012; Sato,  
51 2012; NIED, 2016). Snow/ice accretion and the resultant fallen trees can cause electric  
52 power failure (Wakahama *et al.*, 1977; Wakahama, 1979; Call, 2010; Cerruti and  
53 Decker, 2012; Sanders and Barjenbruch, 2016; Kumjian and Lombardo, 2017), and, for  
54 example, the destruction of cars due to dense accreted snow/ice bodies falling from  
55 overhead architecture.

56

57 In Japan, snow and ice disasters are estimated to cause, on average, 166 deaths and 626  
58 accidents per year (Fig. 1), although the actual values may be slightly higher, since the  
59 numbers from the winter of 2013/2014 (shown in Fig. 1) are considered to be  
60 significantly underestimated compared to those of other winters with similar seasonal  
61 snowfall depth index (SSDI) values and to other statistics of the number of mortalities.  
62 The SSDI is the average normalized snowfall, as defined by Nakai (2015). The SSDI  
63 over Japan indicates no particular trend in the snowfall amount over the past 16 years.  
64 The SSDI varies significantly on an annual basis, and the number of mortalities and

Figure 1  
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65 accidents roughly follow this variation, but with a slightly decreasing trend. Assuming  
66 this is true, the various countermeasures employed have effectively improved the  
67 resilience to snow and ice-related disasters, although the annual mortality rate ascribed  
68 to them continues to exceed 100. The information presented in Fig. 1 also underlines the  
69 continuing importance of basic observations and analyses in mitigating snowfall-related  
70 mortalities.

71

72 Close attention should be paid to the occurrence of concentrated heavy snowfall (Nakai and  
73 Kumakura, 2007; Motoyoshi and Nakai, 2012; Nakai and Yamaguchi, 2012), which can cause  
74 unexpected and sudden snow and ice-related disasters, such as, the heavy snowfall and  
75 blizzards in February 2010 in Niigata City (Sato *et al.*, 2012c), heavy snowfall and avalanches  
76 in December 2010 in the San'in District (Nakai and Yamaguchi, 2012), and heavy snowfall in  
77 January and February 2018 in the Hokuriku District. These disasters were related to  
78 abnormally heavy snowfall in cities in the plains area adjacent to the Sea of Japan, as shown  
79 in Fig. 2.

80

81 The heavy snowfall experienced in the Kanto District and Yamanashi Prefecture of Japan,  
82 caused by extra-tropical cyclones passing along the southern coast of Japan in February 2014  
83 (hereafter referred to as H26 heavy snowfall), highlights the importance of preparation against  
84 snow and ice-related disasters, not only in areas that often experience snowfall, but also in  
85 areas with only occasional snowfall (NIED, 2016). It has been noted that many avalanches  
86 that occur following snowfall delivered by an extra-tropical cyclone can be related to a weak  
87 layer of snow aggregates composed of unrimed crystals (Nakamura *et al.*, 2014). Unrimed  
88 crystals have been observed several hundreds of kilometers to the north of the surface warm  
89 front (Murakami *et al.*, 1992; Ishizaka *et al.*, 2015). Colle *et al.* (2014) observed primarily  
90 plates and dendrites with little to no riming in the western quadrant of the comma head. Araki  
91 and Murakami (2015) conducted a numerical simulation of the microphysical structures in

Figure 2  
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92 precipitating clouds of the H26 heavy snowfall. They showed that the coastal front and the  
93 seeder-feeder mechanism were important factors driving the increase in snowfall during the  
94 H26 heavy snowfall. However, the growth process of unrimed aggregates in the cloud system  
95 of cyclones has not been thoroughly documented up to this point.

96

97 The H26 heavy snowfall also caused damage to buildings due to the accumulation of  
98 snowpack with high density and water content on roofs (NIED, 2016). Disasters related to  
99 significant amounts of wet snow often occur in snowy areas, as well as in areas that have seen  
100 only occasional snowfall in recent years. Examples of such events include the closure of  
101 runways of New Chitose Airport in the Hokkaido District in February 2009, the electrical  
102 power failure in Niigata City in December 2005 and February 2010, caused by snow accretion,  
103 and the electrical power failure and related disruption of communication lines in the eastern  
104 Shikoku District in December 2014. The distribution and type of snow and ice-related  
105 disasters may change as the climate changes. For example, disasters related to wet snowfall  
106 may increase on Honshu Island and even in colder areas such as the Hokkaido District in  
107 response to long-term warming trends. Therefore, empirical countermeasures against snow  
108 and ice-related disasters are not necessarily effective. A question arising from this situation is  
109 what information the scientific and technological community should provide on snow and  
110 ice-related disasters to assist in the improvement of structural countermeasures, such as  
111 avalanche control fences, and non-structural countermeasures, such as avalanche patrols,  
112 organization of snow removal activities, and evacuations.

113

114 To solve this problem, the Snow and Ice Research Center of the National Research  
115 Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Resilience (SIRC/NIED) has been engaged in  
116 research on snow disasters through the modeling of snow processes based on both  
117 observations and laboratory experiments. The SIRC/NIED has constructed the Snow  
118 Disaster Forecasting System (SDFS) to provide information on snow and ice-related

119 disasters. The basic concepts behind the SDFS are described in Sato (2004), while  
120 Iwamoto *et al.* (2008) and Nakai *et al.* (2012) have described the system in more detail.  
121 The system has the capability to predict avalanche potential, visibility in blowing snow,  
122 and snow conditions on roads. Results of many observations using the X-POL radar  
123 (Iwanami *et al.*, 1996) at SIRC/NIED (Nagaoka), and the Snow and Weather  
124 observation Network (SW-Net) ground snow and weather observation network  
125 (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2007, 2011), and basic experiments in the Cryospheric Environment  
126 Simulator (CES; Abe and Kosugi, this issue) at the Shinjo Cryospheric Environment  
127 Laboratory (CEL) of SIRC/NIED (Shinjo) were used for the construction of the SDFS.  
128 New factors, such as the dry snow metamorphism (DSM) factor (Hirashima *et al.*, 2011)  
129 and the ejection factor for blowing snow particles (Sato, 2004) were adopted for  
130 modeling as part of the SDFS. A meteorological model with a resolution of about 1 km  
131 and snowpack and snow disaster models with resolutions of about 10 m (or for point  
132 prediction) were coupled. All models composing the SDFS are connected and can be  
133 executed automatically (Nakai *et al.*, 2012). During its experiments, the SDFS has  
134 provided real-time predictions to registered users twice daily (Fig. 3). A survey of the  
135 users has shown that the SDFS has the potential to provide useful predictions for  
136 decision making, although improvements with regard to accuracy and usability are still  
137 required.

Figure 3  
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138  
139 However, our understanding of many processes requires improvement. Examples  
140 include the growth of falling snow particles, evolution of the blowing snow layer, and  
141 snow metamorphism. Research on these processes will improve the prediction of snow  
142 and ice-related disasters, *e.g.*, the prediction of unrimed falling snow crystals, which  
143 may cause avalanches. Likewise, more work should focus on the relationship between  
144 wet snowfall and snow accretion, especially on the growth process of an accretionary  
145 snow body on an arbitrary object in relation to various meteorological conditions. It is

146 also important to improve estimates of the errors involved in such predictions.  
147 Moreover, the survey has indicated that registered users of the SDFS need real-time  
148 information on snow and ice-related disasters. However, to provide such information to  
149 local governments and the public, a framework of operational forecasting and disaster  
150 mitigation using the information should be constructed. To this end, it is important for  
151 users to recognize the utility of the information by providing successful examples of  
152 disaster mitigation.

153

154 An overview of the progress of SIRC/NIED research tackling these problems is  
155 presented in this paper. A new project, the “Study on Advanced Snow Information and  
156 its Application to Disaster Mitigation (ASDIM)”, was started during the financial year  
157 of 2011. The configuration and content of the project is described in section 2. The  
158 construction of a cooperative relationship for operational forecasting is given in section  
159 3. Section 4 summarizes the achievements and future direction of the project.

160

## 161 **2. Project overview**

162

### 163 **2.1. Project configuration**

164

165 This research is composed of two parts: (A) research on advancement of falling snow  
166 and snow-on-ground information, and (B) development of a real-time snow and  
167 ice-related disaster prediction method (Fig. 4). The purpose of (A) is to develop  
168 advanced snow information, while that of (B) is to apply the advanced snow  
169 information to disaster mitigation. To address these aims, we 1) constructed a new  
170 observation system to acquire the data required for analyses of the characteristics and  
171 growth of snowfall particles, 2) introduced state-of-the-art electronic technologies to  
172 analyze the microstructure of snowpack, 3) transferred the observation data on-line to

Figure 4  
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173 the SDFS, 4) improved numerical models comprising the SDFS, and 5) started to  
174 develop a geographic information system (GIS)-based, on-line, “Real-time Hazard Map  
175 (RHM)” and conducted applied experiments in cooperation with local governments and  
176 road administrators.

177

## 178 2.2. Observations and modeling

179

180 In regards to (A), we have constructed the Concentrated Snowfall Monitoring System  
181 (CSMS) composed of a polarimetric weather radar (named here as the Multi-Phase  
182 Precipitation (MP2) radar) and several ground observation sites (named as the Snow  
183 Particle observation Line (SPLine)) for monitoring of the occurrence of heavy snowfall  
184 causing disasters. The CSMS observes radar polarimetric parameters and falling snow  
185 particles on the ground simultaneously. The basic concept of the CSMS is the  
186 near-real-time estimation of the distribution of precipitation and type of falling snow  
187 particles within the observation range of a polarimetric weather radar referring to  
188 ground site observations. This combined analysis will improve the estimation of the  
189 distribution of snowfall. Details of the MP2 radar and the SPLine site are given by  
190 Yamashita *et al.* (this issue). There are two types of SPLine sites. One is the  
191 full-specification site (F-site, Figs. 5ab) equipped with facilities for the observation of  
192 ground falling snow particle characteristics and the environment on the ground and in  
193 the lower troposphere. These facilities include, for example, a Two-Dimensional Video  
194 Disdrometer (2DVD; Kruger and Krajewski, 2002; Schönhuber *et al.*, 2007), a Geonor  
195 T-200B weighing gauge (Bakkehøi *et al.*, 1985; Duchon, 2008), and an MP-3000A  
196 microwave radiometer (Solheim *et al.*, 1998; Ware *et al.*, 2003). The other is the simple  
197 specification site (S-site, Fig. 5c), equipped with a Thies Laser Precipitation Monitor  
198 (Bloemink and Lanzinger, 2005; Lanzinger *et al.*, 2006; Brawn and Upton, 2008), Tamura  
199 SR-2 (Tamura, 1993), thermometer and hygrometer in a ventilated radiation shield, wind

Figure 5  
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200 sensor (either ultrasonic or mechanical), and a tipping-bucket precipitation gauge. The  
201 purpose of the F-site is to obtain reference data for precise analyses of falling snow  
202 particles and precipitation amounts. F-sites yield large amounts of data that require  
203 manual on-site data collection, although they are connected to the internet using cellular  
204 phones to monitor the status of facilities. Some of the facilities of the F-site require  
205 careful maintenance for accurate measurements, and are not suitable for operational use.  
206 The purpose of the S-site is to assess the functionality of snowfall particle observations in  
207 operational use. We are making various observations using F-sites, which will lead to the  
208 proposal of an operational observation and analysis system for the estimation of the current  
209 hazard of snow and ice-related disasters using data via an on-line data acquisition system  
210 from observations based on the S-site specifications.

211

212 We also improved the schemes in some of the models comprising the SDFS. The  
213 SNOWPACK model is a one-dimensional model predicting the various physical  
214 parameters of layered snowpack (Bartelt and Lehning, 2002; Lehning *et al.*, 2002a,  
215 2002b). The Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) nonhydrostatic model (JMA-NHM; Saito  
216 *et al.*, 2006) is used for the prediction of the meteorological fields. The JMA-NHM is  
217 double-nested with the JMA Meso-Scale Model (MSM) operational forecast data  
218 (<http://www.jma.go.jp/jma/en/Activities/nwp.html>) as initial and boundary conditions.  
219 The surface meteorological variables from JMA-NHM output and SW-Net observations  
220 are used as inputs of the SNOWPACK model in the SDFS (Nakai *et al.*, 2012). The  
221 SNOWPACK model is used to evaluate and predict the characteristics of each layer of  
222 snowpack, *e.g.*, grain type, grain size, density, temperature, liquid water content, and  
223 shear strength. Improvements have been made to SNOWPACK by SIRC/NIED during  
224 the ASDIM project, specifically to reflect the characteristics of snow observations in  
225 Japan. To express continuous variations of shear strength due to the transition process  
226 from rounded grains to faceted crystals, Hirashima *et al.* (2009) introduced the DSM

227 factor in the expression of shear strength as a function of water vapor transport. To  
228 improve the scheme to calculate non-uniform water transportation in snow cover  
229 (preferential flow), cold room experiments were carried out (Katsushima *et al.*, 2013;  
230 Avanzi *et al.*, 2016), and the multi-dimensional water transport model was developed  
231 based on these results (Hirashima *et al.*, 2014, 2017). A comparison of the laboratory  
232 results and those obtained from the water transport model is shown in Fig. 6. This  
233 experiment showed that liquid water ponded at the interface of fine over coarse snow  
234 layers due to the capillary barrier effect. This effect is reproduced by the water transport  
235 model fairly well.

Figure 6  
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236

237 In regards to (B), we have made the following improvements in the prediction of snow  
238 and ice disasters made using the SDFS. We developed a sequential correction technique  
239 for SDFS predictions using observational data. Ground snow conditions reported by a  
240 local government were used to modify the boundary conditions of the SDFS (Sato *et al.*,  
241 2012c). SW-Net and other observations (temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and  
242 direction, downward shortwave and longwave radiation, precipitation amount, and snow  
243 depth) were used to update the snowpack stability prediction, as shown in Fig. 3.  
244 Prediction time was extended by increasing the computation power and using new JMA  
245 MSM forecast data. The previous SDFS had connected numerical prediction models for  
246 meteorological variables, snowpack characteristics, avalanche, drifting snow, and snow  
247 on road (Nakai *et al.*, 2012). We have developed a snow accretion prediction model as a  
248 component of the SDFS. A new geographic information system (GIS)-based viewing  
249 system was developed to support better operational experiments with local governments  
250 and road transport administrators, as the end-users. The effects and problems indicated  
251 from the use of SDFS in real-time during these cooperative experiments are presented in  
252 Section 3.

253

### 254 2.3. Advanced snow information

255

256 The advanced snow information is a collection of data newly derived by, or adopted in,  
257 the methods and algorithms developed in ASDIM. Some of the data were made  
258 available on the SIRC/NIED website during winter, and others were used for the applied  
259 experiments to test the SDFS.

260

261 Optical techniques are useful for automatically detecting the characteristics of falling  
262 snow particles. We used a charge-coupled device (CCD) camera system (Muramoto *et*  
263 *al.*, 1989; Muramoto and Matsuura, 1993; Ishizaka *et al.*, 2004; Shiina *et al.*, 2004) and  
264 optical disdrometers (Löffler-Mang and Joss, 2000; Battaglia *et al.*, 2010) for this purpose.  
265 Typical parameters obtained by these facilities are the horizontal size and falling  
266 velocity of each particle. Ishizaka *et al.* (2013) developed a new analysis method to  
267 derive the representative size and falling velocity of precipitation particles from these  
268 optical measurements (center of mass flux distribution (CMF)). Figure 7 provides  
269 examples of the analysis results using the CMF method. The CMF values averaged  
270 every 5 min are plotted as diameter over falling speed. The point colors (indicating the  
271 time of observation) showed whether the characteristics of the snow particles changed  
272 over time. Using the CMF, for example, the time evolution of representative diameters  
273 and falling speeds of graupel (Fig. 7a) and snow aggregates (Fig. 7b) can be detected in  
274 5-min intervals. The CMF method has been used widely to estimate the characteristics  
275 of falling snow particles (Kouketsu *et al.*, 2015; Minda *et al.*, 2016; Itado *et al.*, 2017;  
276 Masuda *et al.*, 2018). Other observation/analysis methods have been developed, such as  
277 the simultaneous measurement of mass, diameter, and velocity of a falling snow  
278 particles (Motoyoshi *et al.*, 2016), the parameterization of the liquid water fraction of  
279 wet falling snow particles (Misumi *et al.*, 2014), and an algorithm of radar-based solid

Figure 7  
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280 precipitation intensity using the CMF method and disdrometer measurements (Nakai *et*  
281 *al.*, 2017).

282

283 The specific surface area (SSA), defined as the surface area per unit mass, is a  
284 parameter of snow that has recently attracted much interest (Domine *et al.*, 2009;  
285 Hachikubo *et al.*, 2014). There are four main methods for measuring the SSA of snow:  
286 the stratigraphy method (Narita, 1969, 1971); the X-ray method (Coléou *et al.*, 2001);  
287 the gas adsorption method (Legagneux *et al.*, 2002); and the near-infrared photography  
288 method (Matzl and Schneebeli, 2006). NIED introduced all of these methods during the  
289 ASDIM project, and we have evaluated them based on comparisons with each other  
290 (Adachi *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, we have tried to improve the SSA measurement  
291 methods as applied to wet snow conditions (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2014; Hachikubo *et al.*,  
292 2017) to expand our understanding of wet snow physics.

293

294 Recently, we have focused on the SSA of new snow to describe new snow properties,  
295 such as the riming ratio, shape, etc. (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2016, 2017a). The preliminary  
296 results imply that the measured SSA of new snow in Nagaoka has a positive correlation  
297 with the wind speed and a negative correlation with temperature, and that the SSA of  
298 new snow falling under low-pressure systems typically has smaller values than that  
299 falling from snowbands during cold outbreaks. These results will aid the introduction of  
300 the characteristics of falling snow particles into the SNOWPACK model, which is an  
301 important scheme for predicting weak layers consisting of crystals falling from the  
302 clouds of low pressure systems. Validation of the snow-crystal-related weak layer  
303 analysis requires observation and survey data from avalanche sites. Many avalanche  
304 field investigations on the snow-crystal-related weak layer have been conducted in  
305 recent years, for example in February 2014 (NIED, 2016). Data compilation and

306 comparison with the model simulation is important to confirm the utility of SSA for  
307 detecting the snow-crystal-related weak layer.

308

309 The formulation of snow physics based on the small-scale structure of snow is critical to  
310 improving the accuracy of snow disaster forecasting; therefore, high-resolution X-ray  
311 computerized tomography (CT) and nuclear magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)  
312 methods were introduced in the cold room at the CEL. We used a  $\mu$ CT 35 system  
313 (SCANCO Medical, Brüttisellen, Switzerland) with a resolution of 1.75–72  $\mu$ m for the X-ray  
314 CT. Meanwhile, MRI was performed using a permanent magnet with a static magnetic field  
315 intensity of 1.5 T. Adachi *et al.* (2017) obtained a spatial resolution of 50–400  $\mu$ m in a  
316 low-temperature environment by incorporating temperature control devices in the permanent  
317 magnet circuit. We applied these technologies to perform several novel experiments  
318 related to snow and ice formation. For example, we developed a technique to  
319 superimpose a CT image (snow particle distribution, left panel of Fig. 8) and an MRI  
320 image (liquid water distribution, right panel of Fig. 8) to analyze the relationship  
321 between small-scale snow structure and water distribution (Adachi *et al.*, 2017). The  
322 detailed visualization of a mixture of ice, liquid water, and air will be presented in  
323 another paper in the near future. Meanwhile, Nakamura *et al.* (2015) analyzed the physical  
324 properties of the weak layer composed of pristine falling snow particles using X-ray CT. This  
325 analysis contributes to the microphysical study of this type of weak layer. These results will  
326 be introduced into the SNOWPACK model.

327

#### 328 2.4. Observation-based information and its dissemination

329

330 Many snow and ice-related disasters, especially avalanches, occur in mountainous areas.  
331 Operational meteorological observation sites of the JMA and local governments tend to  
332 be located at relatively low elevations. Therefore, it is important for mitigation of snow

Figure 8  
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333 and ice-related disasters to evaluate solid precipitation amounts in mountainous areas.  
334 We have monitored snow depth, snow weight, and temperature and other meteorological  
335 variables in mountainous areas in Japan by constructing the SW-Net (Yamaguchi *et al.*,  
336 2007, 2011). SW-Net sites are distributed in snowy mountainous areas from Niseko  
337 (42.9°N, 140.7°E) to Daisen-Kagamiganaru (35.3°N, 133.6°E). We have made  
338 webpages presenting the observed values and snow and ice-related hazard information  
339 updated in almost real time available online at the SIRC/NIED website (Fig. 9). A  
340 portion of the observed values were used as input data for the real-time snow and  
341 ice-related disaster prediction models, as well as provided to the JMA and other  
342 organizations. We also provided the CMF (Section 2.3) calculation algorithm for the  
343 development of an operational government winter precipitation estimation program  
344 (Itado *et al.*, 2017; Masuda *et al.*, 2018). This is an example of the transfer of  
345 technology from SIRC/NIED to an administrative infrastructure construction activity.  
346 Moreover, the advanced snow information described in Section 2.3 has been applied to  
347 the information on the SIRC/NIED website. This information includes much new  
348 content that aims to allow an easier understanding of the current situation regarding  
349 snowfall and snowpack, for example, information relating to likely snow accumulation  
350 on rooftops, melting, falling snow particle types, and radar precipitation intensity  
351 reflecting near real-time estimation of the type of falling snow particles (Fig. 9).

352

## 353 2.5. Development of real-time hazard map technology

354

355 The SDFS, predicting snowpack stability, visibility in snowy conditions, and snow on  
356 roads, has been improved through applied experiments on snow and ice-related disaster  
357 prediction in cooperation with local governments and road transport administrators  
358 (Nakai *et al.*, 2012). The usefulness of the predictions was confirmed by applying the  
359 predictions to traffic control operations and snow-removal scheduling in parallel with

360 operational judgment processes. Several problems to be solved arose simultaneously.  
361 How should we systemize the process that we use for disaster mitigation? How can we  
362 estimate the area affected by an avalanche, as well as predict their occurrence? The  
363 hazards that are not yet covered by the SDFS, such as accreted snow, should also be  
364 included. The SIRC/NIED developed an RHM, displaying appropriately updated areas  
365 affected by various snow and ice-related hazards, as an answer to some of these  
366 problems. The main target of this technology is the mitigation of disasters caused by  
367 avalanches, blizzards, and snow accretion.

368

369 The avalanche RHM technology was developed by coupling the SNOWPACK model and  
370 an avalanche dynamics model. First, the initial volume of the predicted avalanche is estimated  
371 using the simulation results of SNOWPACK. Then, the area predicted to be damaged by the  
372 avalanche is estimated using a three-dimensional avalanche dynamics model. The avalanche  
373 RHM was validated by comparison with the results of avalanche field surveys. Currently,  
374 NIED does not have an original avalanche dynamics model; therefore, we have used several  
375 avalanche dynamics models, *e.g.*, TITAN2D (Pitman *et al.*, 2003, 2013), RAMMS (Bartelt *et*  
376 *al.*, 1999; Christen *et al.*, 2010), and a non-Newtonian fluid model (Oda *et al.*, 2011)  
377 developed through collaborations between universities and institutes. For example, the  
378 non-Newtonian fluid model was applied to an avalanche that generated debris that reached  
379 National Road Route 112, and the results showed that the model can effectively evaluate the  
380 area affected by avalanche debris by taking into account the local topography and vegetation  
381 (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2017b). This method has been used for analyses of avalanches that  
382 occurred in relation to falling snow crystals associated with low-pressure systems in 2014  
383 (Fig. 10) and 2017 (Oda *et al.*, 2017). In addition, the TITAN2D model was applied to  
384 estimate the extent of damage caused by an avalanche in Langtang, Nepal, induced by the  
385 2015 Gorkha Earthquake (Ito *et al.*, 2016) and used to construct a hazard map (Nishimura  
386 and Abe, 2011).

Figure 10  
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387

388 Comparing these methods could help improve the models. Therefore, we have established an  
389 avalanche observation site (Hijiori avalanche observation site; See Fig. 2) near Shinjo, and  
390 have accumulated data on avalanche dynamics using a web camera system. These data should  
391 contribute to the improvement of the parameter treatment in the models, such as the bed  
392 friction coefficient, the coefficient of kinematic viscosity, etc. Through these studies, the  
393 accuracy of avalanche RHM has been improved.

394

395 For the snow accretion RHM, surface meteorological conditions of significantly wet  
396 snow were examined with an analysis of past events of significant snow accretion and  
397 field observations (Sato *et al.*, 2012a). Meanwhile, an experimental technique to  
398 generate realistic snow accretion in the cold room of the CES was developed (Sato *et al.*,  
399 2012b). This technique enabled successful experiments on the dependency of the  
400 growth speed, shape, and density of the accreted snow body on meteorological  
401 conditions (Sato *et al.*, 2013). A snow accretion model was developed based on the  
402 results of these experiments. We developed a snow accretion RHM showing the extent  
403 and amount of snow accretion on a GIS map using the snow accretion model (Fig. 11).  
404 For validation, a comparison was made between the output of the snow accretion RHM  
405 and observations, and knowledge of the prediction accuracy was compiled for future  
406 improvement.

407

408 The blowing snow RHM was developed by integrating a blowing-snow prediction  
409 model, visibility estimation (Sato *et al.*, 2012c; Nakai *et al.*, 2012), and a snow drift  
410 potential model. The blowing-snow prediction model predicts the profile of blowing  
411 snow from meteorological conditions, taking surface snow conditions into account.  
412 Visibility is estimated from the blowing snow profile and snowfall intensity from the  
413 JMA-NHM calculations and the JMA MSM forecast data. The blowing snow RHM

Figure 11  
full width

414 showed the best results in terms of societal application among the RHMs developed in  
415 the SIRC/NIED, and was shown to be capable of deriving information useful for  
416 decision-making (*e.g.*, regarding road closure) through applied experiments in Niigata  
417 City, Tohoku District, and Hokkaido District (Sato *et al.*, 2012c).

418

### 419 **3. Building cooperative relationships**

420

421 Figure 12 presents an example of a practical applied experiment of the blowing snow  
422 RHM with a local government. When visibility is predicted to decrease below a  
423 prearranged threshold, an e-mail is sent to the cell phones of personnel in charge. The  
424 personnel who receive the e-mail check the distribution of the predicted visibility by  
425 using the SDFS viewer and identify points of possible disaster. Then, they go to the  
426 specified areas and take the appropriate countermeasures (*e.g.*, traffic regulation) based  
427 on an in-situ final decision (Sato *et al.*, 2012c). It is important to note that the judgment  
428 is made based on an in-situ observation conducted by the personnel, not on the e-mail  
429 alert or predicted visibility alone. This arrangement enables early implementation of  
430 countermeasures while minimizing the likelihood of decision making based on bad data  
431 or poor judgements.

432

433 Another experiment applying the blowing snow RHM to the eastern Hokkaido District  
434 was conducted (Nemoto *et al.*, 2015, 2017). It has been carried out in cooperation with  
435 the Nakashibetsu town office, and has been on-going since winter 2013/2014. The aim of  
436 the experiment was to test the effectiveness of countermeasures deployed as a result of using  
437 the output of the blowing snow RHM, as well as blowing snow monitoring for the nowcasting  
438 of blizzard risk using web cameras. The blowing snow RHM was able to reproduce the period  
439 of occurrence and the distribution of strong blowing snow (NIED, 2016, pp. 69-74). When  
440 hazardous blizzards were anticipated, researchers of SIRC/NIED provided advice based on

Figure 12  
half width

441 the prediction and monitoring data to the staff member of the Nakashibetsu town office on the  
442 likely intensity, duration, and accuracy of predicted blowing snow, and on the usage of the  
443 prediction for mitigation measures. The effectiveness of this process was examined by  
444 comparing the prediction with information on actual traffic disruption and related industrial  
445 damage (*e.g.*, the interruption of shipping of milk from farms) provided by the Nakashibetsu  
446 town office.

447  
448 Several low-pressure systems that passed over the eastern Hokkaido District brought  
449 record heavy snowfall during winter 2014/2015. The daily snowfall depth exceeded 20 cm  
450 five times, and the maximum snow depth (156 cm) was much larger than the 26-winter  
451 (1985–2010) average (72 cm). The heavy snowfall overwhelmed snow removal work and  
452 caused the cancellation of various social activities. Figure 13 shows an example of a visibility  
453 prediction for February 15, 2015. The blowing snow RHM prediction was generally adequate  
454 around Nakashibetsu town for the outbreak and duration of heavy blowing snow (NIED, 2016,  
455 pp. 119-122). The strength of blowing snow was underestimated in cases of snowstorms that  
456 occurred at temperatures of around 0°C during this winter. This suggests that problems  
457 remain in the models regarding the entrainment processes over the snow surface at the  
458 temperature slightly below the melting point. The web cameras set up on the road shoulder  
459 were effective for monitoring visibility and snow drift (Fig. 14).

Figure 13  
full width

Figure 14  
half width

460  
461 A close cooperative relationship between SIRC/NIED and the disaster prevention section of  
462 the Nakashibetsu town office has been built. Moreover, a framework of practical actions to  
463 take during severe snowstorms, through collaboration between scientific professionals and  
464 town office staff, was constructed. In this collaboration, both the scientists and town office  
465 staff actively participated in information exchange and discussion regarding the  
466 countermeasures to be used. However, important problems still need to be addressed,  
467 including the establishment of a sustainable and community-rooted collaboration system

468 ensuring financial resourcing, and the arrangement and deployment of the collaboration  
469 system to surrounding areas that have a risk of disaster related to snowstorms similar to  
470 Nakashibetsu town. To address these issues, we started another initiative during the financial  
471 year of 2016. As part of this initiative, the experimental collaboration system will be extended  
472 to the surrounding areas with the aim of achieving close cooperation with neighboring local  
473 governments, and providing more effective winter disaster mitigation in this area based on  
474 scientific knowledge. This activity includes the building of a framework for the construction  
475 of a collaboration system between scientific professionals and the local government. An  
476 educational initiative on snow and ice-related disasters is also planned to improve the basic  
477 disaster mitigation skills of local citizens.

478

479 Through these studies comprising the ASDIM project, the SIRC/NIED has developed  
480 international partnerships with several institutes. Evidence of these partnerships include a  
481 memorandum of understanding with the Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research of the  
482 Swiss Federal Institute for Forest, Snow and Landscape (since 2014), a memorandum of  
483 cooperation with the Xinjiang Institute of Ecology and Geography of the Chinese Academy of  
484 Sciences (since 2015), and a memorandum of cooperation with the National Research  
485 Institute of Science and Technology for Environment and Agriculture, France (since 2016).  
486 We will continue to develop further international collaborations in the future.

487

#### 488 **4. Summary and future direction**

489

490 We have developed and examined systems for the monitoring of heavy snowfall and forecast  
491 of snow and ice-related disasters to enable more effective deployment of countermeasures to  
492 mitigate these events. The prediction system, devised by physical modeling starting from  
493 meteorological forecasts, has been shown to be practical for the mitigation of snow and

Table 1  
full width

494 ice-related disasters. The major achievements of the ASDIM project are summarized in Table  
495 1.

496

497 The predictions by the RHMs should be used for decision-making processes, as  
498 discussed in Section 2.5. The establishment of a collaborative system between scientific  
499 professionals and the local government office, introduced in Section 3, is necessary for the  
500 effective application of the RHM. Through such a system, improved disaster mitigation  
501 may be realized through correct and rapid reactions during a hazardous event, although  
502 the forecasting is not perfect. This is a key point of the usage of the RHMs developed in the  
503 ASDIM project.

504

505 The locations of the SIRC and CEL in snowy areas in Japan are advantageous for the  
506 validation of the RHMs, as well as for observations and disaster surveys of snow and  
507 ice-related phenomena. To mitigate the problems related to forecasting, such as the growth of  
508 errors with the time integration of a forecast model, we have developed a real-time analysis  
509 method for falling snow particle type and radar precipitation intensity, and methods and  
510 techniques to measure and describe the microphysical structure of snowpack and falling snow,  
511 models of preferential flow of snowpack, snow accretion, and snowdrift. However, the newly  
512 developed methods and the SDFS were not fully coupled during the ASDIM project period.  
513 Therefore, it is necessary to develop technology and related scientific understanding that will  
514 enable the coupling of advanced snow information, real-time monitoring, and prediction  
515 of snow and ice-related disasters, which we aim to do in a post-ASDIM project.

516

517 Several new parameters (*e.g.*, CMF, DSM factor, and SSA) were introduced to express  
518 the state of particles of falling snow and snow on the ground during the ASDIM project.  
519 Recently, Hashimoto et al. (2017) introduced new prognostic variables representing  
520 depositional growth and riming of ice particles into the JMA-NHM. The microphysical

521 parameters predicted by the new JMA-NHM can be examined using observation data by  
522 calculating the CMF and SSA. The CMF has also been used for the radar quantitative  
523 precipitation estimation (QPE) during the ASDIM project. Meanwhile, polarimetric  
524 parameters of dual-polarized meteorological radars can be used for the radar QPE in  
525 these years. We are planning to use both types of QPE, because these two methods are  
526 independent of each other, and improvement of QPE is expected by using both methods.

527

528 The SSA of various types of falling snow particles and snowpack will be derived by  
529 direct observations at FSO and using X-ray CT. The SSA and other parameters newly  
530 introduced during the ASDIM project will be introduced into the SNOWPACK model.  
531 Thus, the SNOWPACK model will be able to reflect information of the detailed shape  
532 of falling snow particles into the calculation of snow metamorphism. This new approach  
533 will lead to a new method for evaluating risk from numerical weather forecasting of  
534 surface avalanches caused by snow-crystal-related weak layers associated with cyclones  
535 passing along the southern coast of Japan (Kamiishi and Nakamura, 2018). Evaluation  
536 methods of the liquid water fraction of falling snow particles and infiltration in the  
537 snowpack were developed during the ASDIM project. These methods enabled the  
538 authors to derive better information on “rain on snow”, snow weight on the roof, and  
539 risk of destruction of buildings by snow.

540

541 Newly introduced parameters (*i.e.*, CMF, SSA, liquid water fraction, DSM factor, etc.)  
542 and methods of measurement and experiment during the ASDIM project have improved  
543 the numerical expression of falling snow particles, snowpack on the ground and roof,  
544 blowing snow, and accreted snow bodies. Evaluating the relationships between these  
545 parameters and meteorological conditions will improve the performance of the RHMs  
546 developed during the ASDIM project. Currently, all RHMs are connected to the  
547 JMA-NHM and can run automatically. However, many of their outputs are used

548 separately. Various snow- and ice-related disasters may occur in a sequence  
549 corresponding to changes in local meteorological conditions. Thus, the coupling of the  
550 RHMs, including the prediction of high-risk disasters, is necessary. Conversion from  
551 physical values of the characteristics of snow to suitable alerts is also necessary.

552

553 Snow on roofs and road surface change not only under natural conditions but also due to  
554 human activities, including heating, spraying of snow melting agents, and snow removal.  
555 Therefore, communication with road administrators, local governments, and inhabitants  
556 is important to parameterize human activities. The GIS-based RHMs have the potential  
557 to be integrated into a Web-based platform to promote communication and mutual  
558 information exchange for disaster mitigation.

559

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566 and Technology's "Research Project for Supporting to Local Disaster Resilience"

567

## 568 **Appendix List of acronyms**

569

570	2DVD	Two-Dimensional Video Disdrometer
571	ASDIM	Study on Advanced Snow Information and its Application to Disaster
572		Mitigation
573	CCD	Charge-coupled device
574	CEL	Cryospheric Environment Laboratory
575	CES	Cryospheric Environment Simulator
576	CMF	Center of mass flux distribution

577	CSMS	Concentrated Snowfall Monitoring System
578	DSM factor	Dry snow metamorphism factor
579	GIS	Geographic information system
580	JMA	Japan Meteorological Agency
581	JMA-NHM	JMA NonHydrostatic Model
582	JST	Japan Standard Time
583	MP2 radar	Multi-Phase Precipitation radar
584	MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
585	MSM	Meso-Scale Model
586	NIED	National Research Institute for Earth Science and Disaster Resilience
587	QPE	Quantitative precipitation estimation
588	RAMMS	RApid Mass Movement Simulation
589	RHM	Real-time Hazard Map
590	SDFS	Snow Disaster Forecasting System
591	SIRC	Snow and Ice Research Center
592	SPLine	Snow Particle observation Line
593	SSA	Specific surface area
594	SSDI	Seasonal snowfall depth index
595	SW-Net	Snow and Weather observation Network
596	X-ray CT	X-ray computerized tomography
597		

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985 **List of Figures and Tables**

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1040 Fig. 12. Arrangement and result of an applied experiment focused on a blowing snow  
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1043

1044 Fig. 13. Example of a visibility (m) prediction display valid for 1900 JST February 15, 2015.  
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1047

1048 Fig. 14. Images of blowing snow and snowdrifts collected via webcam for snow monitoring in  
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## Figures and Tables

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### Study on Advanced Snow Information and its Application to Disaster Mitigation (ASDIM)

#### Part (A) Research on the advancement of falling snow and snow-on-ground information

##### 1) Construction of a new observation system and development of related analysis methods

- The CSMS was constructed. The basic concept of the CSMS is the near-real-time estimation of the distribution of precipitation amount and the falling snow particle type within the observation range of a polarimetric weather radar referring to ground site observations (Yamashita *et al.*, this issue).
- Observations made by the SW-Net (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2007, 2011) and “advanced snow information” are available online at the SIRC/NIED website, including information related to likely snow accumulation on rooftops, melting, falling snow particle types, and radar precipitation intensity, reflecting the particle type.
- SW-Net observational data were provided on-line to the JMA and other organizations.
- A new analysis method to derive the representative size and falling velocity of precipitation particles from optical measurements, the CMF distribution, was developed (Ishizaka *et al.*, 2013).
- Some of the developed methods, including the CMF method, were used for the development of an administrative infrastructure management method (*e.g.*, Itado *et al.*, 2017).
- A simultaneous method of measuring the mass, diameter, and velocity of falling snow particles was developed (Motoyoshi *et al.*, 2016)
- A parameterization of the liquid water fraction of wet falling snow particles was developed (Misumi *et al.*, 2014).
- An algorithm of the radar-based solid precipitation intensity using the CMF method and disdrometer measurements was developed (Nakai *et al.*, 2017).

##### 2) Introduction of state-of-the-art electronic technologies to analyze the microstructure of snowpack

- High-resolution MRI and X-ray CT were introduced into the cold room at the CEL.
- A technique to superimpose a CT image and an MRI image was developed to analyze the relationship between small-scale snow structure and water distribution (Adachi *et al.*, 2017).
- The SSA of new snow was suggested to be usable as a parameter in the SNOWPACK model (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2016, 2017a).

#### Part (B) Development of a real-time snow and ice-related disaster prediction method

##### 3) Improvement of numerical models comprising the SDFS

- Near real-time observation data were used in the SDFS prediction.
- A sequential correction technique for SDFS predictions using observational data was developed (Sato *et al.*, 2012c).

- The DSM factor, a function of water vapor transport, was introduced in the expression of shear strength (Hirashima *et al.*, 2009).
- Multi-dimensional water transport model was developed and preferential flow of snowpack was reproduced (Hirashima *et al.*, 2014, 2017).
- A snow accretion prediction model was developed as a component of the SDFS.

#### 4) Development of a GIS-based, on-line, “Real-time Hazard Map (RHM)”

- The avalanche RHM was developed by coupling the SNOWPACK model and a three-dimensional avalanche dynamics model (Nishimura and Abe, 2011). The method has been used for the analysis of several disastrous avalanches (Ito *et al.*, 2016; Oda *et al.*, 2017).
- An experimental technique to generate realistic snow accretion in the cold room of the CES (Sato *et al.*, 2012b) enabled experiments on the growth speed, shape, and density of the accreted snow body (Sato *et al.*, 2013).
- A snow accretion model was newly developed and integrated into a snow accretion RHM showing the extent and amount of snow accretion on a GIS map.
- The blowing snow RHM was developed by integrating a blowing-snow prediction model, visibility estimation (Sato *et al.*, 2012c; Nakai *et al.*, 2012), and a snow drift potential model.

#### 5) Applied experiments and construction of a cooperative framework

- The blowing snow RHM was shown to be capable of deriving information useful for decision making through applied experiments with several local governments (Sato *et al.*, 2012c).
  - A framework of practical actions to take during severe snowstorms, through collaboration between scientific professionals and the Nakashibetsu town office staff, was experimentally constructed.
  - International partnerships with several institutes were developed.
-

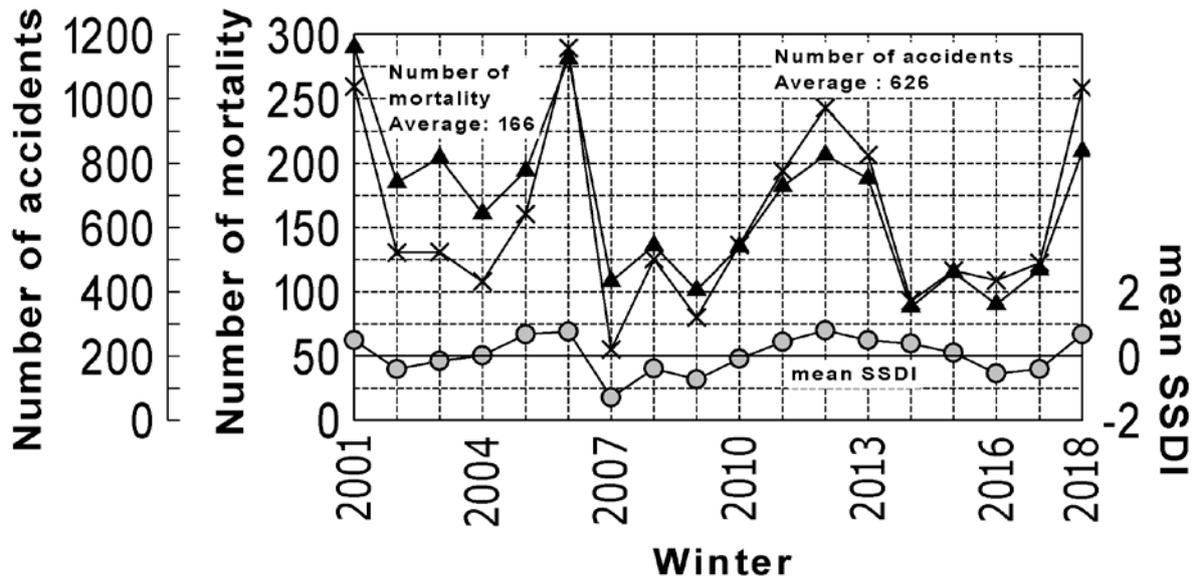


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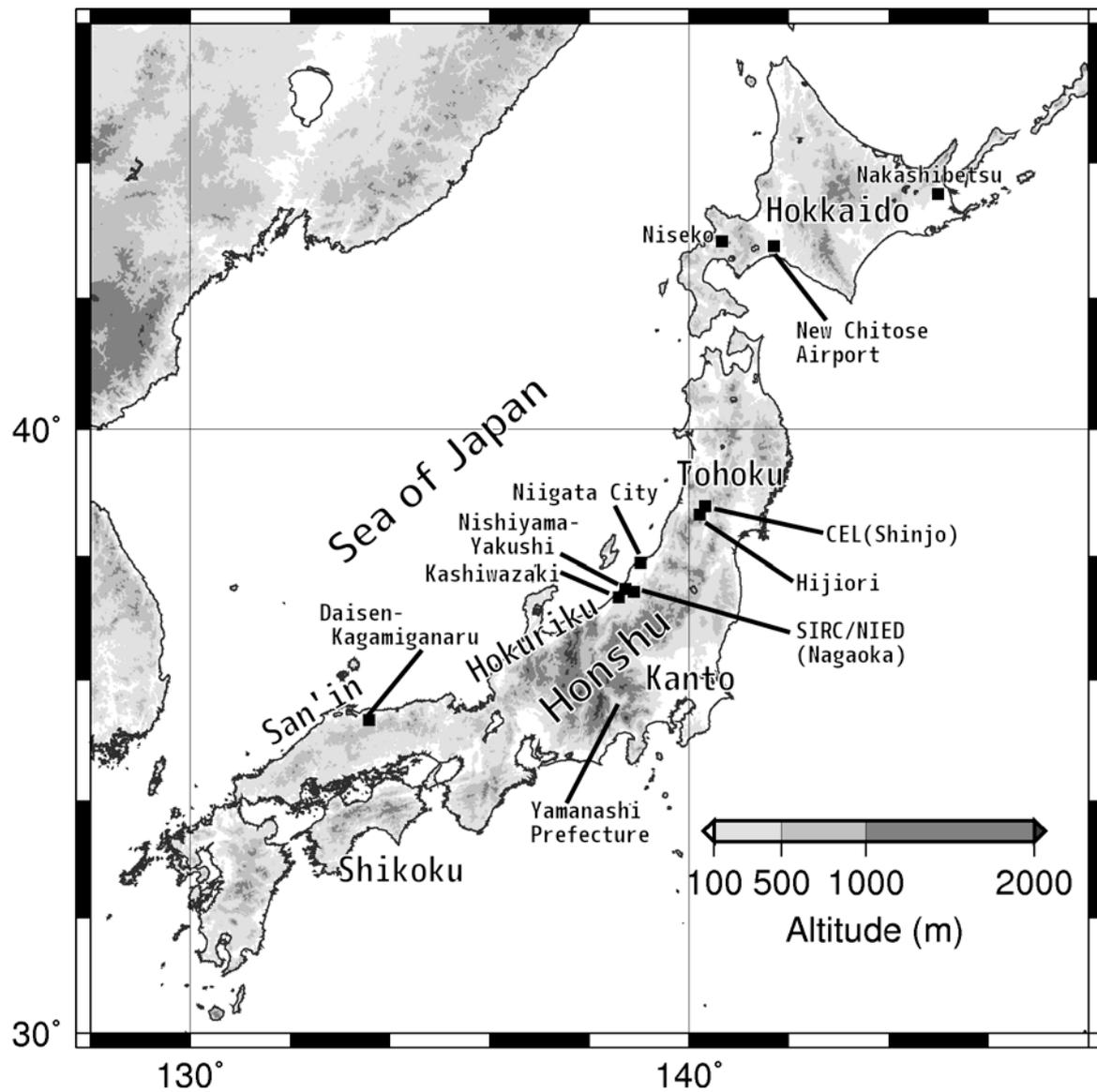


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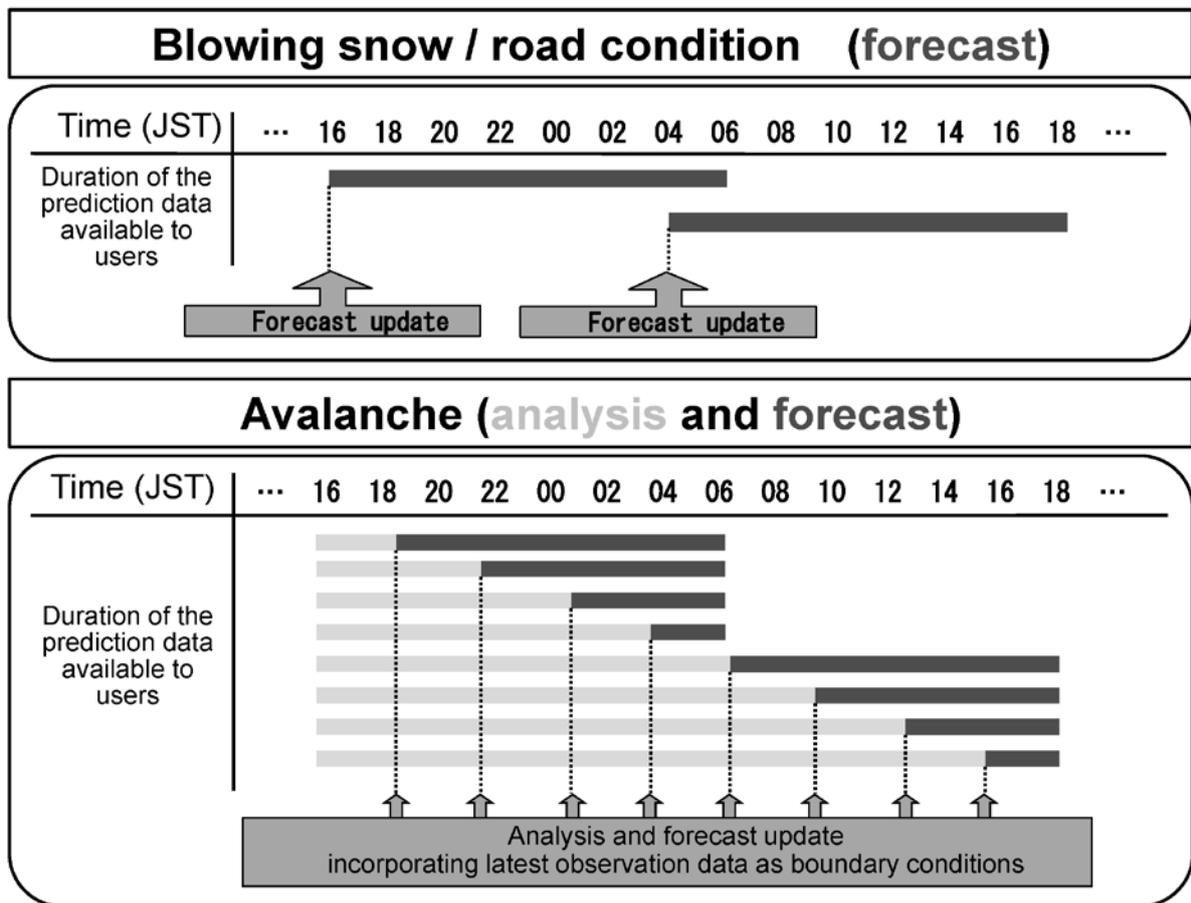


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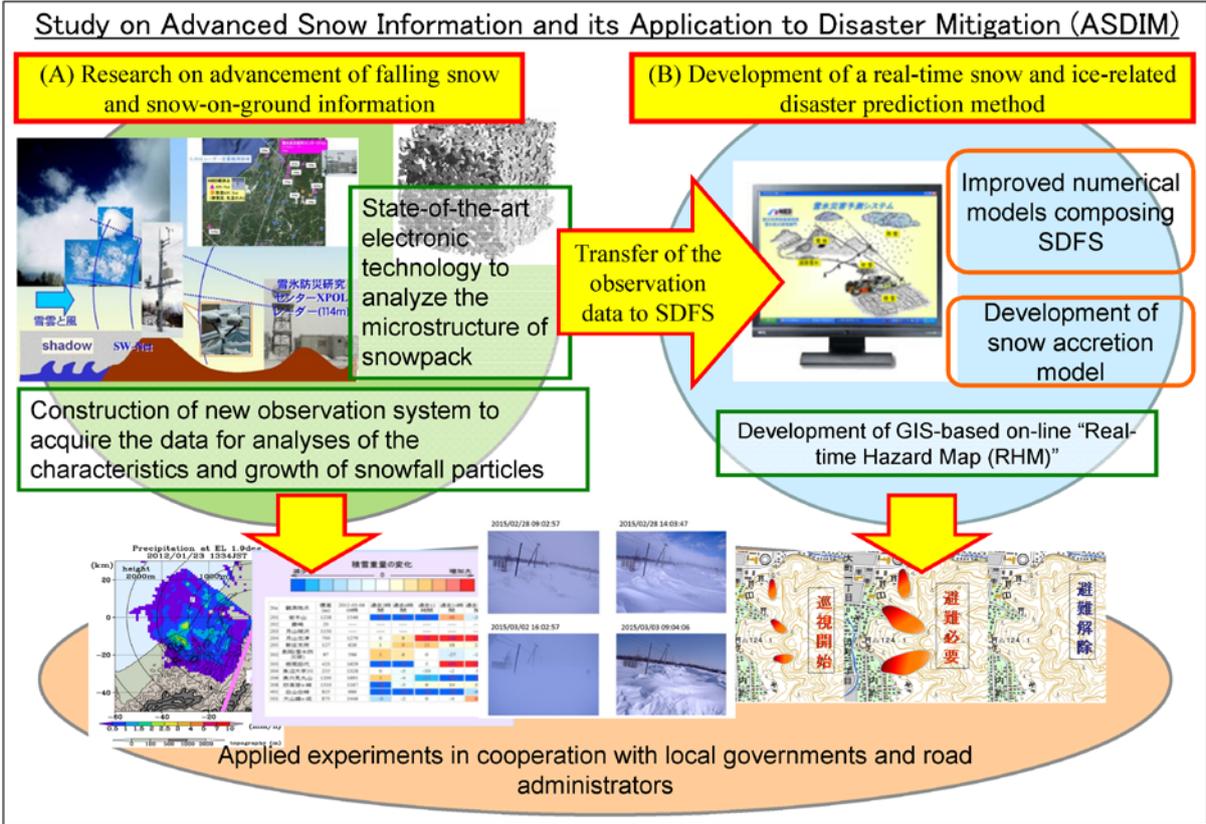


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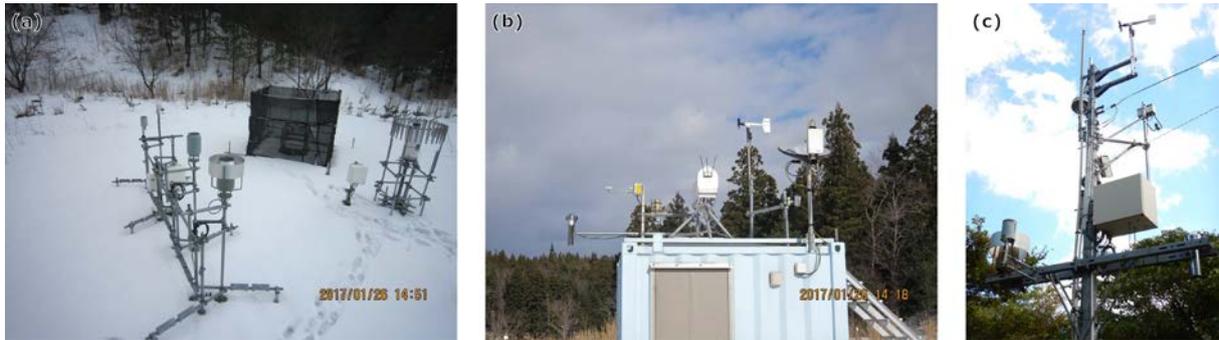


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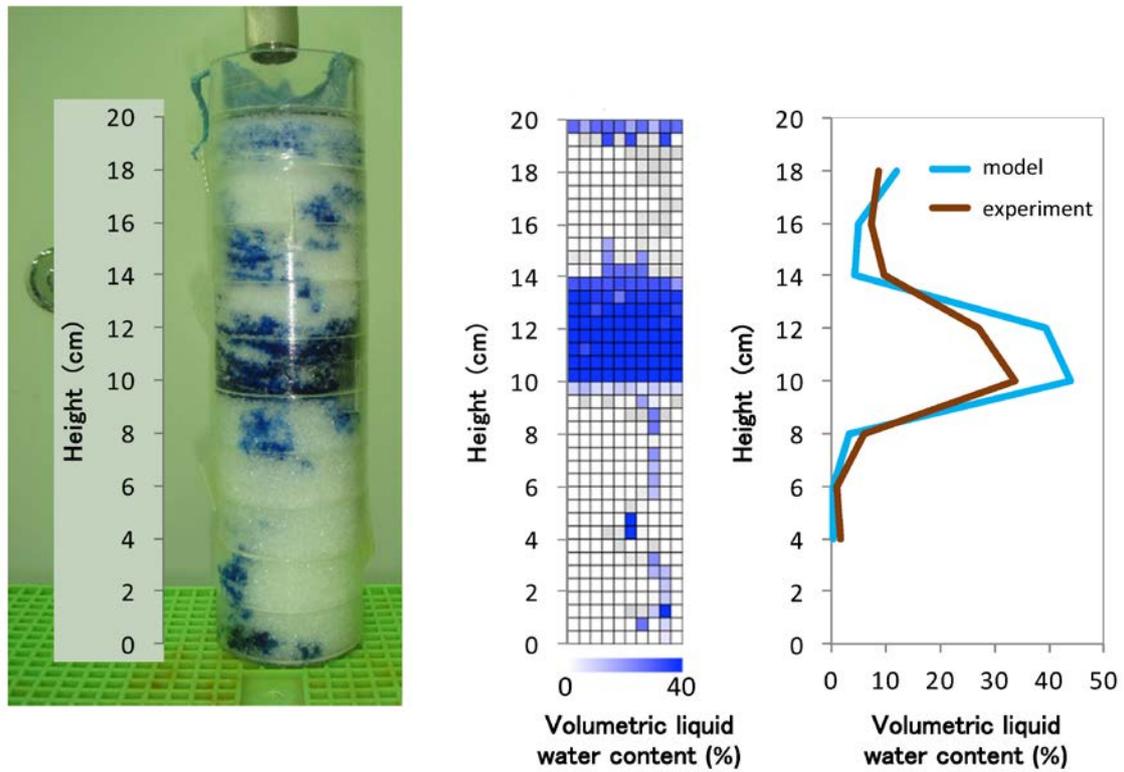


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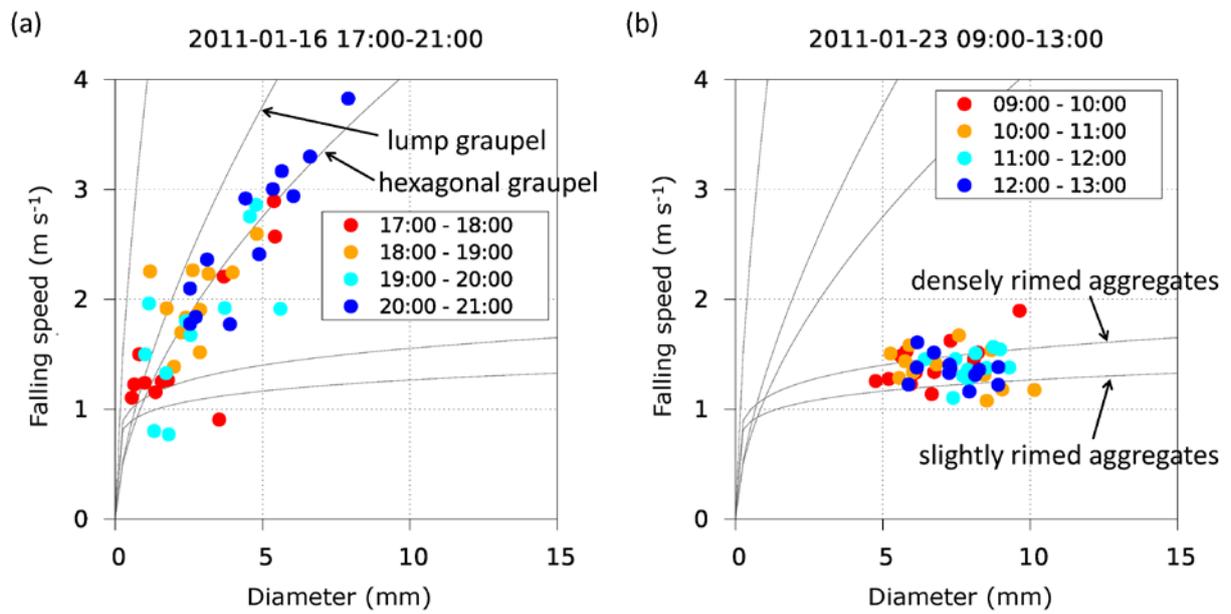
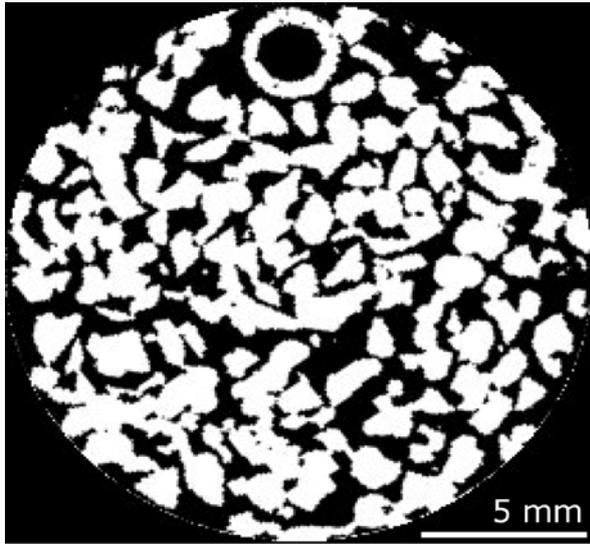
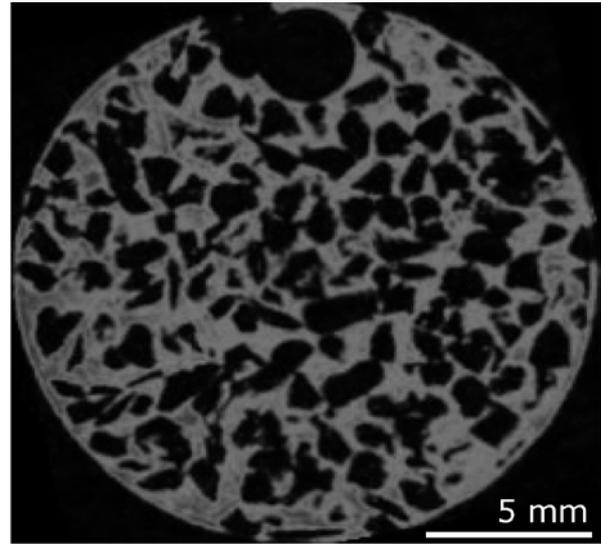


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X-ray CT  
white : ice



MRI  
gray : liquid water

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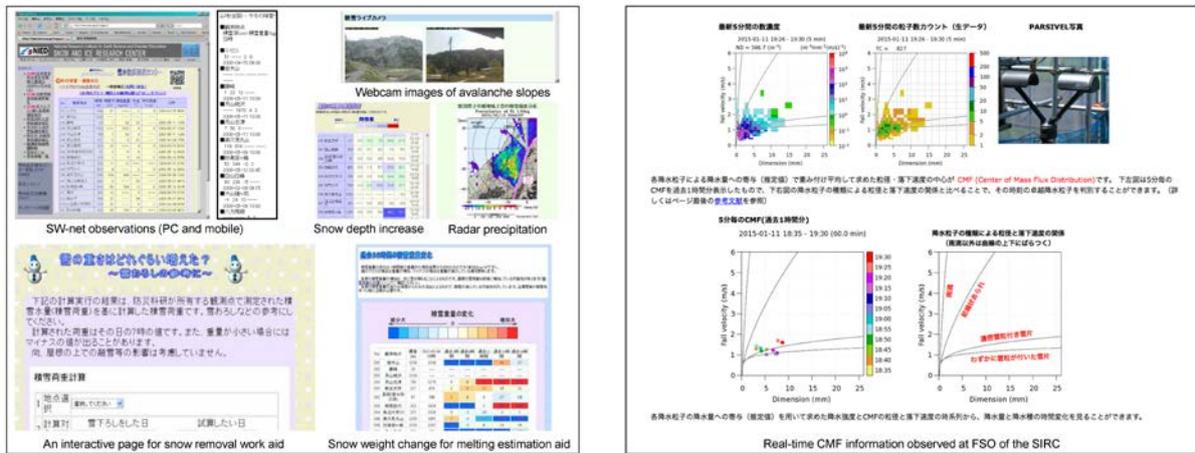


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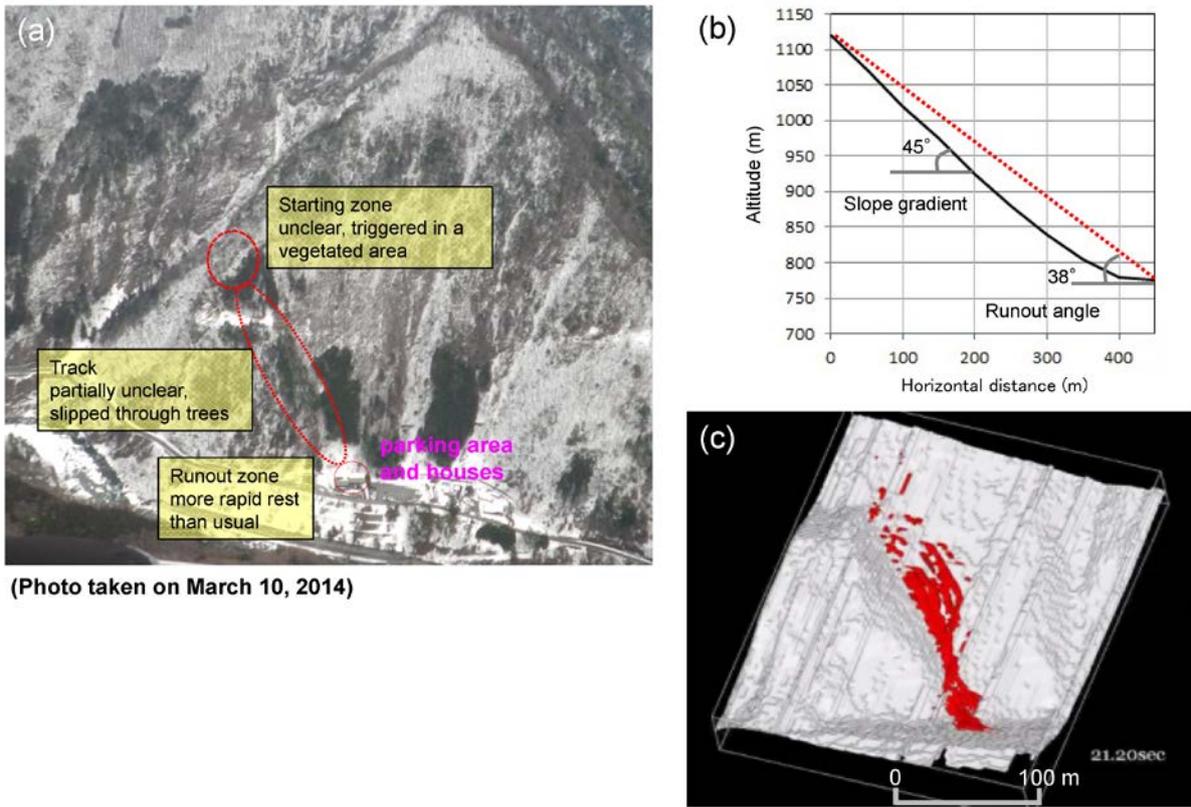


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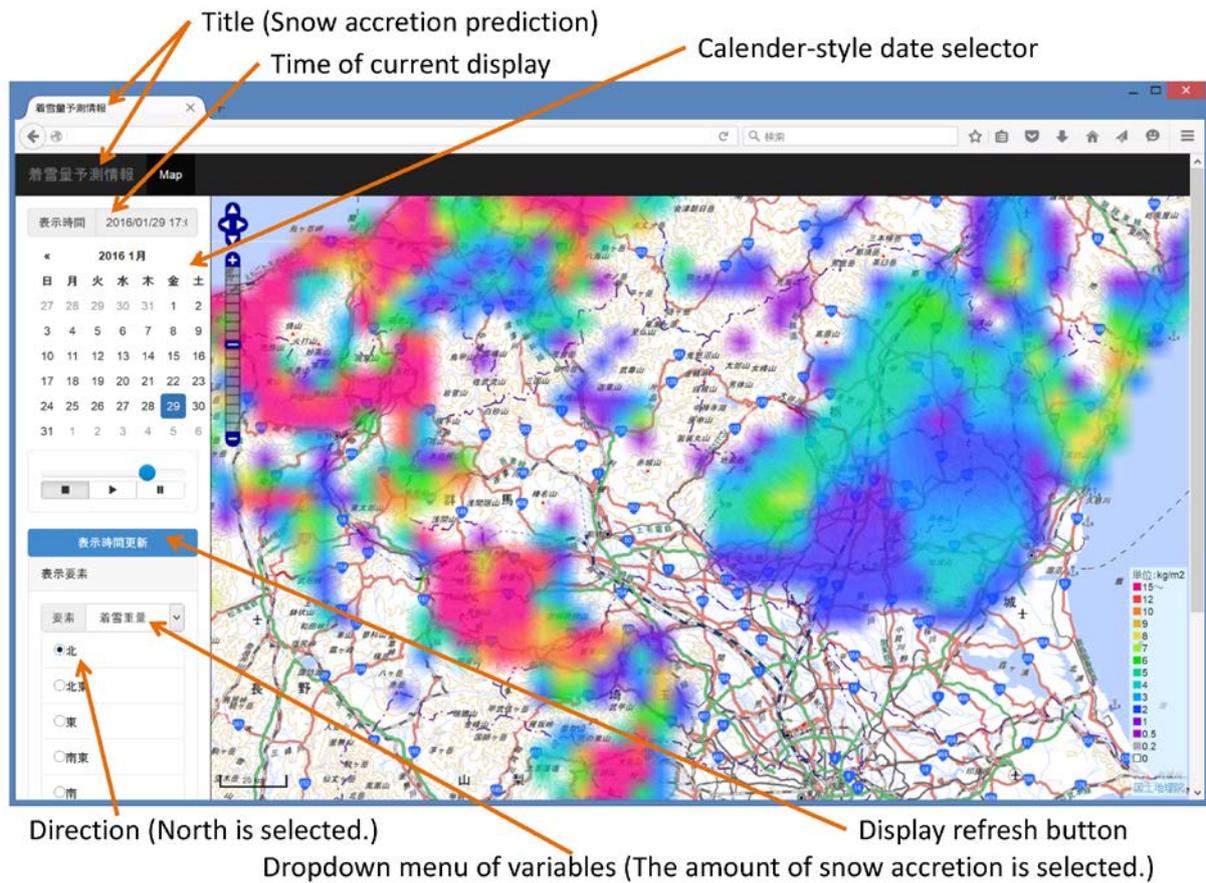


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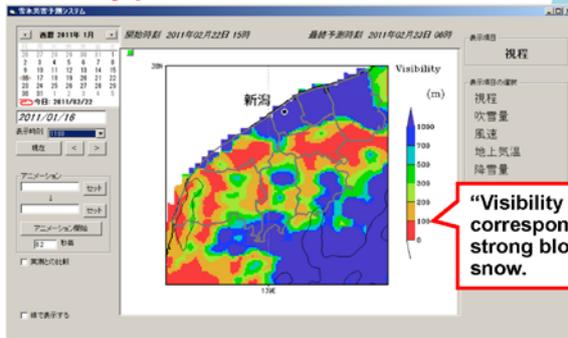
## Applied experiment of the blowing snow (visibility) RHM

Providing method of the predicted information

- Warning alert delivery to cell phone by email
- Detailed areal distribution of blowing snow by a dedicated viewer

Example of warning alert

Visibility prediction on a dedicated viewer



A result of experiment (2011/2012 winter, Niigata city)

Predictive email reception : 26 times  
 Construction of disaster countermeasures : 12/26  
 Road closed : 6/26  
 (49 lines, 78 km in total length)  
 Missing : 1 times

No vehicle stuck in the snow

【Delivery criteria (2011/2012 winter)】  
 In either ward, a condition 「Area of “Visibility < 100 m” will exceed 20%」 continues  $\geq 2$  hours or  $\geq 3$  hours during the total prediction period (14 hours).

Fig. 12. Arrangement and result of an applied experiment focused on a blowing snow RHM run in conjunction with a local government. The “Example of warning alert” provides an example of the actual e-mail sent to the users from the system.

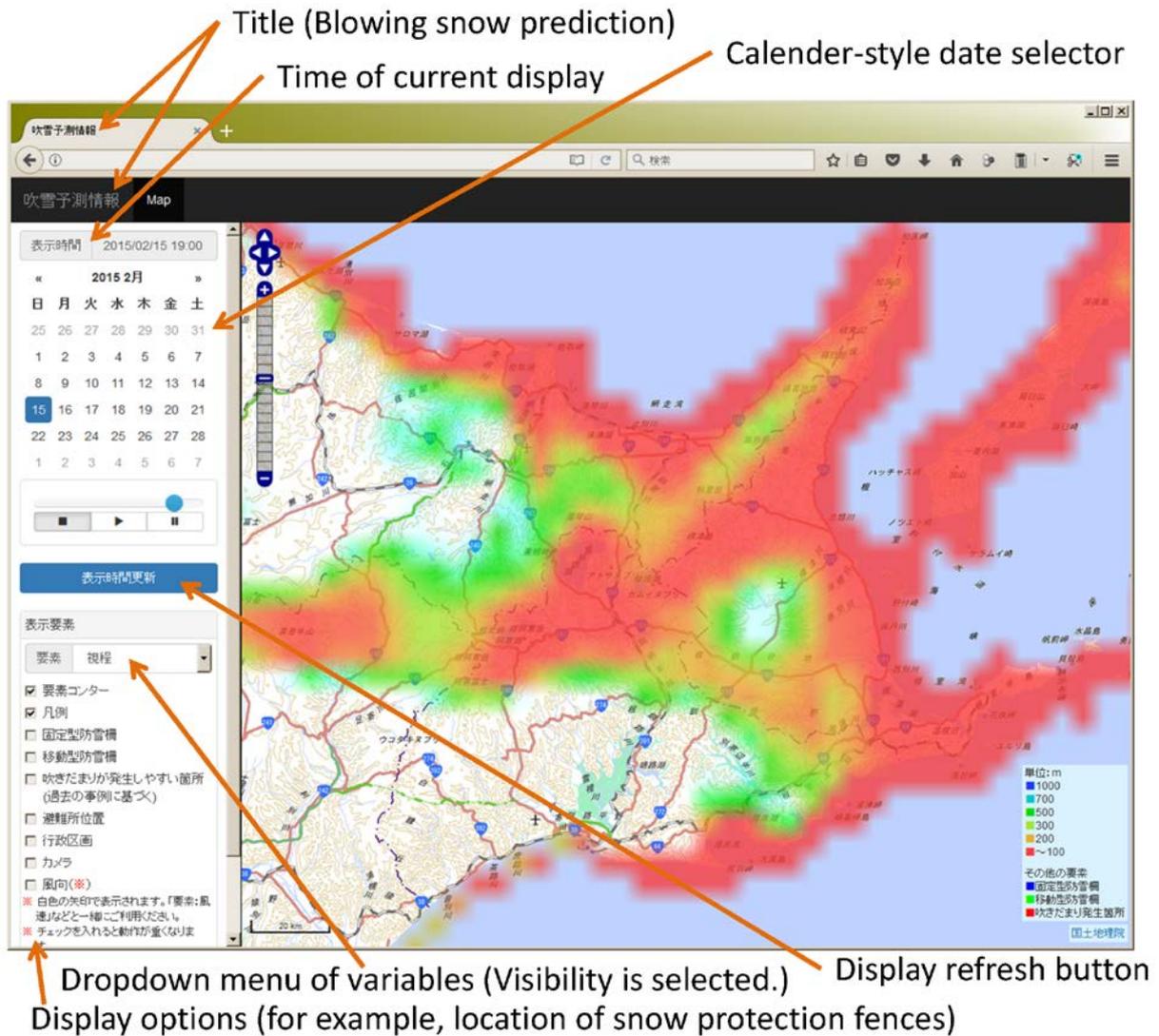


Fig. 13. Example of a visibility (m) prediction display valid for 1900 JST February 15, 2015. Low visibility areas are highlighted by different colors on the GIS-based system. The display area can be scrolled and zoomed using mouse gestures.

2015/02/28 09:02:57



2015/02/28 14:03:47



2015/03/02 16:02:57



2015/03/03 09:04:06



Fig. 14. Images of blowing snow and snowdrifts collected via webcam for snow monitoring in Nakashibetsu town (NIED, 2016).