# Snow Crystal and Ice Nuclei Concentrations in Orographic Snowfall 

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#### Abstract

Concentrations of snow crystals and ice nuclei within orographic cloud systems have not as yet been simultaneously monitored. Ground observations of these parameters however have been simultaneously obtained near Climax in the Central Colorado Rockies. The objective of this report is to determine the relationship between snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations for similar crystal formation and nuclei activation temperatures. In this investigation, it is assumed that the ice nuclei and snow crystal concentrations measured in a volume of air at the ground can be used to represent the ice nuclei and snow crystal concentrations in a similar volume of air in the cloud. A continuous snowfall replicator is described which measures the necessary snow crystal concentrations.

In the two unseeded orographic snowfall periods investigated, the average snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations measured at the ground were approximately equal for the same crystal formation and nuclei activation temperatures. This determination considers an adjustment of the nuclei concentration by an average factor of 3.5 in the Bigg-Warner expansion-type ice nuclei counter. This factor is an average of the values presented by Warner and Newnham (1958) and Fletcher (1958).


In the two seeded orographic snowfall periods, the average ice nuclei concentrations at the ground were larger than the snow crystal concentrations by at least an order of magnitude. If the ground-released artificial ice nuclei plume is assumed only partially dispersed and activated in the cloud and almost totally activated in the Bigg-Warner counter, this would explain the larger nuclei concentrations. The ice nuclei concentrations at the ground in these two seeded snowfall periods might not represent the in-cloud nuclei concentrations.

These snow crystal and ice nuclei relationships in unseeded and seeded snowfall were not firmly established because of a limited sample and a lack of a priori information. The techniques and procedures developed in this thesis should form the basis for the analysis of more elaborate data collected subsequent to the preparation of this manuscript.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page
TITLE PAGE ..... i
ABSTRACT ..... ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ..... iv
LIST OF TABLES. ..... vii
LIST OF FIGURES ..... viii
INTRODUCTION ..... 1
Background ..... 1
Objectives ..... 3
THEORY ..... 4
Ice Nuclei Concentrations ..... 4
Snow Crystal Concentrations ..... 7
PROCEDURE ..... 10
Experimental Design ..... 10
Instrumentation ..... 14
Ice Nuclei Counter ..... 14
Continuous Snowfall Replicator ..... 15
DATA AND ANALYSIS ..... 27
Unseeded Orographic Snowfall ..... 27
Seeded Orographic Snowfall ..... 33
DISCUSSION ..... 38
Unseeded Orographic Snowfall ..... 38
Seeded Orographic Snowfall ..... 42
Total Nuclei and Crystal Concentrations ..... 46
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS ..... 50
Snow Crystal and Ice Nuclei Concentrations ..... 50
Instrumentation ..... 52

## TABLE OF CONTENTS - Continued

Page
RECOMMENDATIONS ..... 53
REFERENCES ..... 54
APPENDICES ..... 59
APPENDIX A. THE CONTINUOUS SNOWFALL REPLICATOR SYSTEM ..... 60
Operation of the Continuous Snowfall Replicator ..... 60
Data Reduction System ..... 61
Snow Crystal Concentration Program. ..... 69
APPENDIX B. TERMINAL VELOCITIES OF SNOW CRYSTALS . ..... 77

## LIST OF TABLES

Table Page
1 Snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 8 February 1966 (number/liter) ..... 29
2 Contingency tables for the 8 February 1966 snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations ..... 32
3 Snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 11 April 1966 (number/liter) ..... 35
4 Total snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations ..... 48
5 General classification of snow crystals [from Nakaya (1954)] ..... 66
6 Numerical snow crystal types [after Nakaya (1954)] ..... 67
7 Typical snow crystal replica data, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 5 January 1967 ..... 68
8 Hexagonal plate terminal velocity equation and solutions ..... 80
9 Needle terminal velocity equation and solutions (crystal dimension $\leq 0.010 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) ..... 82
10 Needle terminal velocity equation and solutions (crystal dimension $\geq 0.011 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) ..... 83
Figure Page
1 Location of Climax, Colorado ..... 2
2 Snow crystal formation temperatures, $W=$ saturation with respect to supercooled water [from Nakaya (1954)] ..... 9
3
Schematic diagram of a simplified orographic cloud ..... 11
4
Continuous snowfall replicator ..... 17
5
Formvar reservoir and "roll on" coating wheel ..... 17
6 Snow crystal sampling slit and 35 mm film transport passed the coating wheel ..... 18
7
Typical snow crystal replicas from the continuous snowfall replicator ..... 18
Typical snow crystal concentration computation, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 5 January 1967 (Original data in Table 7) ..... 20
9 Typical snow crystal concentrations plotted against time, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 5 January 1967 ..... 23
10
Comparison of total snow crystal concentrations observed by three simultaneously-operating replicators, Climax, Colorado, 27 December 1966 ..... 26
11 Snow crystal concentrations, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 8 February 1966 ..... 31
12 11 April 1966 ..... 3613
Schematic diagram of the unseeded orographic cloud system, Climax, Colorado, 8 February 1966, 0630 to 1215 MST ..... 39
14
Schematic diagram of the seeded orographic cloud system, Climax, Colorado, 11 April 1966, 1600 to 1800 MSTT ..... 4315
The snow crystal replica film-strip projector ..... 62
16
Snow crystal dimension scale (full size) ..... 63
17 General classification of snow crystals, sketches [from Nakaya (1954)] ..... 65

## LIST OF FIGURES - Continued

Figure Page
18 Snow crystal concentration computer program flow-chart ..... 71
19 Snow crystal concentration computer program ..... 73
20 Terminal velocities of various snow crystals [from Todd (1964)] ..... 78

## INTRODUCTION

## Background

Supercooled orographic cloud systems should be susceptible to artificial stimulation of snowfall according to Bergeron (1949). Supercooled water may not be utilized because of a natural deficiency of ice nuclei (Ludlam, 1955). Bergeron (1949) states that the supercooled water, which may not precipitate under natural conditions, may precipitate by introducing artificial ice nuclei into clouds upwind of orographic barriers.

An orographic cloud seeding experiment is being conducted by the Atmospheric Science Department of Colorado State University in the Central Colorado Rockies in the vicinity of Climax. The location of Climax is illustrated in Figure 1. This experiment is designed to investigate supercooled orographic cloud systems in a systematic manner. The first step is to study the concentrations and nucleating characteristics of natural and artificial ice nuclei. This objective is progressing well as a result of work by Grant and Schleusener (1961) and Grant and Steele (1966). The second step is an investigation of the transport of nuclei into the cloud system. The transport of ground released ice nuclei to the mountain top is becoming well established. The study of further transport within the cloud presents numerous problems but is progressing. The third step is designed to improve the


Figure 1. Location of Climax, Colorado
understanding of in-cloud physical processes. A first look at these processes may be obtained from snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations measured at the ground. The relationship between these concentrations will be treated in this report. The final step is to statistically analyze precipitation amounts from unseeded and seeded storms. Preliminary results of this analysis show that precipitation can be increased in certain supercooled cloud systems (Grant and Mielke, 1965). The primary objective of the Climax experiment is to understand each step so cloud seeding may become operationally feasible for increasing mountain snow packs.

## Objectives

The main objective of this report is to establish a preliminary relationship between in-cloud snow crystal and mountain-top ice nuclei concentrations for orographic snowfall. A relationship is sought both for unseeded and for seeded snowfall. To relate the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations, orographic cloud systems are simplified so the volume of air in an ice nuclei counter can be compared with in-cloud conditions.

The second objective is to present in detail the snow crystal concentration calibration and analysis scheme used with the recently developed continuous snowfall replicator (Hindman and Reinking, 1966a; Hindman and Rinker, 1967). This discussion is necessary to substantiate the snow crystal concentrations discussed in this report.

## THEORY

The orographic cloud seeding experiment at Climax is based on the physical concept presented by Bergeron (1949) and discussed more explicitly by Ludlam (1955). This concept envisages artificial ice nuclei being released from the ground, far enough upwind of the orographic barrier so the snow crystals produced by these and natural nuclei will grow in saturated conditions with respect to supercooled water. These conditions will exist only if excessive concentrations of crystals are not present. Ludlam (1955) has computed that the optimum concentration of snow crystals is 20 per liter. Crystals growing with this concentration should be large enough to fall from the cloud before the air descends and warms, thus dissipating the cloud on the downwind side of the barrier. The ice nuclei concentration in an orographic cloud is an important parameter therefore for the production of snow crystals.

Ice Nuclei Concentrations
The geographic source regions for natural ice nuclei have been studied extensively in Japan by Kumai (1951) and Isono (1955). In these studies, they found the observed nuclei to consist of sub-microscopic clay particles which have their source in the interior of the Asiatic continent. Furthermore, Schaefer (1954) found that dust
particles originating in the central region of the United States contribute to the natural ice nuclei counts downwind in New Hampshire. Recently, Droessler (1965) has concluded that another possible source of ice nuclei is in the upper atmosphere. This supports Bowen's (1956) theory of an extra-terrestrial origin of ice nuclei.

The concentrations with altitude of natural ice nuclei have been measured by Smith and Heffernan (1954) over Australia and by Kassander, et al. (1957) over the Southwest United States. They have found that natural ice nuclei concentrations are nearly uniform for thin atmospheric layers (approximately 2 km ) when low-level temperature inversions are absent. Orographic clouds at Climax are generally about 2 km thick. It appears reasonable to assume that natural ice nuclei concentrations are uniform in orographic clouds at Climax.

The temperatures at which the natural ice nuclei concentrations begin to form ice crystals within orographic clouds can be inferred from measurements by Schaefer (1951). His measurements were made in an artificial supercooled cloud at water-saturation in a cloud chamber, and these conditions are a reasonable facsimile to those occurring in a supercooled orographic cloud. He found that the average threshold activation temperature is approximately -12C. The nuclei activate in greater concentrations as the temperature is reached at which the total concentration is activated (about - 23 C ).

Consequently, in supercooled orographic clouds with cloud tops warmer than $-23 \mathrm{C}--$ containing only natural ice nuclei--only a portion of the nuclei concentration capable of serving as ice nuclei at -23 C or colder will be activated.

Silver iodide (AgI) ice nuclei may be introduced into clouds with tops warmer than -23 C to increase the concentrations of active natural ice nuclei. The AgI nuclei are able to increase this concentration because the AgI nuclei threshold activation temperature at water-saturation is approximately -8C for the CSU modified Skyfire generators used in the Climax experiment (Grant and Mielke, 1965). These nuclei activate in greater concentrations as the total activation temperature is approached (approximately -23C).

The concentrations of ground-released AgI nuclei with altitude have been measured from aircraft observations by Smith and Heffernan (1954) and Henderson (1965). They have found that the plumes diffuse erratically and non-uniformly with altitude. These characteristics are probably a result of erratic diffusion patterns and photolytic decay of the AgI nuclei (Reynolds et al., 1951; Bryant and Mason, 1960). It appears realistic, therefore, to expect that the AgI nuclei concen-tration--when subjected to short mixing times--is erratic with height in an orographic cloud. Natural nuclei originate from large continental areas and have long mixing times, while the AgI nuclei originate from point sources relatively near the cloud systems. This combination
of the larger source areas and greater distance from source to cloud should enable the natural nuclei to diffuse more uniformly than the AgI nuclei. The degree of uniformity of these two nuclei concentrations may be an important factor to consider when relating snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations.

## Snow Crystal Concentrations

To relate the concentrations of snow crystals and ice nuclei, it is initially assumed that one ice crystal forms on one ice nucleus. Kepler (1611) was probably the first to discuss this concept. Kumai (1951) supports this assumption from observations with an electron microscope that indicate one solid nucleus is always found in the central portion of a snow crystal. Snow crystals do, in most cases, aggregate to form snowflakes (Hosler, et al. , 1957; Hosler and Hallgren, 1961; and Hobbs, 1965). Furthermore, large snowflakes fracture and form crystal fragments which do not possess a central nucleus (Schaefer, 1951). In both these processes however the original crystal formed from a single nucleus.

To relate snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations, it must be further assumed that the formation temperature $\left(T_{f}\right)$ of a snow crystal is the same as the activation temperature ( $T_{a}$ ) of the ice nucleus. Hindman (1966) determined, for example, that a column reaches $15 \mu$ in approximately ten seconds after activation. This
growth rate is in agreement with those presented by Fletcher (1962). The crystal for practical purposes reaches the characteristic shape before settling from the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}}$ level in the cloud. While falling from the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}}$ level, the crystal encounters different temperatures and supersaturations. These conditions may somewhat alter the crystal form. For simplicity, it is assumed in this study that the crystal attains a substantial portion of its size near the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}}$ level, thereby being identifiable as forming at that level when observed at the ground. Nakaya (1954) and Magono (1962) have meticulously studied the formation of the various snow crystal types in the laboratory at different supercoolings and supersaturations. From snow crystal replicas obtained in natural clouds by Magono and Tazawa (1966) with their "snow crystal sondes, " they have verified these laboratoryproduced snow crystal formation temperatures in Figure 2.

It is possible to estimate the levels at which snow crystals form by using the appropriate formation temperatures for their shapes, the upper-air temperature profile, and the height of the snow-generating cloud. For example, columns form at approximately -10 C and -20 C . If the elevation of the -20C upper-air temperature is low enough to be in the snow-generating cloud and no portion of the cloud is warmer than -10 C , it is highly probable that columns formed at the -20 C level. If however the -20 C isotherm is higher than the snow-generating cloud top, the columns may have formed in cirrus clouds above.

## PROCEDURE

## Experimental Design

A simplified description of an orographic cloud is presented in Figure 3. This description permits a comparison of the ice nuclei concentrations measured in the artificial supercooled cloud of an ice nuclei counter and the snow crystal concentrations measured from orographic snowfall. This concept is developed from the previous ice nuclei and snow crystal concentration theory.

The isotherm $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ in Figure 3 is defined as the threshold ice nuclei activation temperature. $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ is not necessarily at cloud base, but is assumed at the -8 and -12 C levels for AgI and natural ice nuclei, respectively. $\mathrm{T}_{2}$ is an arbitrary snow crystal formation temperature isotherm and $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ is the cloud-top temperature.

The in-cloud snow crystal concentration which form in a column of air from $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ to $\mathrm{T}_{2}$ in Figure 3 is found by summing the concentrations of snow crystals at the ground with $T_{1} \geq T_{f} \geq T_{2}$. When this column of air is projected from $T_{1}$ to $T_{3}$ it contains all snow crystals produced by the activation of all ice nuclei within the temperature range in the cloud. This total in-cloud snow crystal concentration is found by summing the concentrations of snow crystals at the ground with $\mathrm{T}_{1} \geq \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq \mathrm{T}_{3}$.


Figure 3. Schematic diagram of a simplified orographic cloud


Figure 4. Continuous snowfall replicator


Figure 5. Formvar reservoir and "roll-on" coating wheel


Figure 6. Snow crystal sampling slit and 35 mm film transport mechanism passed the coating wheel


Figure 7. Typical snow crystal replicas from the continuous snowfall replicator

A $\left(\mathrm{cm}^{2}\right)$, and $V$ is the volume $\left(\mathrm{cm}^{3}\right)$ from which the crystals settle. The crystal types are classified according to Nakaya (1954) and are illustrated in Figure 17. The terminal velocities of the different crystal types are obtained from Nakaya (1954) and Todd (1964) (see Appendix B).

The most important error associated with the calibration computation is in the determination of the $V_{t}$ term. The $V_{t}$ values in Appendix B are only approximate. From Nakaya's (1954) original data, it appears that the $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{t}}$ scatter around the mean values varies a maximum of $\pm 15 \%$. Assuming that $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{t}}$ values are underestimated (overestimated) by $15 \%$, the concentration will be overestimated (underestimated) by $15 \%$. For example, concentrations computed as 4. 0 per liter would be expected to range from 3.4 to 4.6 , deviating from the computed value by a factor of $\pm 1.15$. This factor may be neglected because the variability of the snow crystal concentrations is greater than a factor of $\pm 1.15$ over short time intervals as illustrated in Figure 8.

Figure 8 is a very small sample of the mass of print out received from the computer for each analyzed snowfall period. The calibration computation produces a concentration for each different size snow crystal of a particular type observed within the sampling area ( $4.50 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ ) on the film. At 2124 MST , crystal type 311 with a size of $130 \mu$ had a concentration of 0.7 per liter. The total snow


Figure 8. Continued

crystal concentration for a time period is simply a sum of all the individual crystal concentrations (for 2124 MST , it is 11.14 per liter). The total crystal concentration is separated into catagories of plane, irregular, and rimed, according to Nakaya's (1954) classification in Figure 17. The concentration in each catagory is found by adding the total concentrations of each crystal type in that catagory (for 2124 MST the concentration of regular crystals is the sum of the total concentrations of type $311,212,222$, and 213 , or 5.56 per liter). The total snow crystal concentration is also divided into formation temperature ranges: $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-14 \mathrm{C}$; $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$; and, $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-26 \mathrm{C}$. At the end of the snowfall period ( 2400 MST ), the averages for the formation temperature ranges are determined. The concentrations (total, irregular, plane) are graphed against time in Figure 9. Appendix A gives the details of this analysis procedure.

The major error associated with the analysis procedure in Figure 8 is the identification of irregular snow crystals. In most cases, irregular crystals are not identified with Nakaya's classification. The unidentified irregular crystals are assumed either fragments of larger snowflakes (Schaefer, 1951) or crystals forming with irregular shapes. The fragments would not be expected to contain ice nuclei. It is difficult to estimate how much this error a.ffects the total crystal concentration. This error however does not affect the crystal concentration with $T_{f} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ because the fragments are considered irregular crystals with $T_{f} \sim-25 C$ 。


Figure 9. Typical snow crystal concentrations plotted against time, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 5 January 1967


Figure 9. Continued

The consistency obtained with the analysis procedure is illustrated in Figure 10. Three continuous snowfall replicators operating in close proximity produced similar total crystal concentrations. The replicators were located within a distance of 7 km . It is seen that the total concentrations generally follow the same trends. The variability is primarily due to the intensity fluctuations in the snowfall at the individual sites. All observations for the period agree within a factor of 2.5 except one observation at HAO. This single higher observation probably represents a shower or 'burst'" of crystals which did not pass the other sites.


Figure 10. Comparison of total snow crystal concentrations observed by three simultaneously-operating replicators, Climax, Colorado, 27 December 1966

## DATA AND ANALYSIS

Simultaneous snow crystal and ice nuclei measurements were made in only a few snowstorms at Climax during the winter of 1965-66. During the winter of 1966-67, these measurements were routine. The 1965-66 data however was the most readily available for this report. Only the most complete data for one unseeded and one seeded snowfall period is presented in detail.

## Unseeded Orographic Snowfall

A large Pacific storm system moved onshore 7 February 1966, producing a strong southwest flow over Climax. By extrapolating between Denver and Grand Junction Radiosonde data, the 1700 MST 500 mb height and temperature at Climax were 5560 m and -23 C . On the morning of the 8 th, the trough deepened over Climax with the flow changing to a more southerly direction. The 0500 MST 500 mb temperature remained constant at -23 C (dew point -25C) and the height dropped to 5460 m . The monitored snowfall period within the snowstorm started at 0630 MST with the surface temperature at -4 C and the 500 mb temperature at -23 C . The sampling period ended at $1215 \mathrm{MS'T}$ with the surface and 500 mb temperatures having dropped to -8 C and -25 C (dew point -27 C ) respectively. During the snowfall period, the southerly flow veered toward the west. By 1700 MST , the

500 mb height and temperature had lowered to 5380 m and -27 C (dew point $-28 \mathrm{C})$. The air mass from the southwest was near water saturation at all levels (temperature-dew point spread from the soundings less than or equal to 2 C ) providing moisture conditions suitable for a continuous cloud between the observing surface ( 3530 m ) and the average 500 mb height ( 5440 m ). The average tops of the cloud system are assumed to have been approximately at the 500 mb level. (Furman, 1967).

The snowfall replicator was operated continuously throughout the six-hour snowfall period and concentrations were computed at regular intervals from the sample. The ice nuclei concentrations were also obtained at the same regular intervals.

Table 1 lists this simultaneous snow crystal and ice nuclei concentration data. From the total concentrations of snow crystals, the concentrations of crystals with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ is calculated. This concentration is obtained by summing the concentrations of snow crystal types with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ within the total concentration. Snow crystal concentrations are compared to the ice nuclei concentrations which have $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$. Emphasis is not placed on the individual observations because of the time lag between the crystal formation in the cloud and the ice nuclei activation in the Bigg-Warner counter at the mountain top. Instead, the data is used to compare the mean snow crystal concentration forming at $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ and the mean ice

TABLE 1
SNOW CRYSTAL AND ICE NUCLEI CONCENTRATIONS, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 8 February 1966 (number/liter)

| Time <br> (MST) | Snow Crystals <br> Total $\quad T_{f} \geq-20 C$ |  | Ice Nuclei $T_{a} \geq-20 C$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0630 | 15.05 | 0.30 | 0.50 |
| 0645 | 16.33 | 2. 50 | 0.30 |
| 0655 | 37.07 | 2.07 | 0.60 |
| 0705 | 35.86 | 2.16 | 0.40 |
| 0710 | 36.65 | 1. 57 | 1.00 |
| 0720 | 21.44 | 1.51 | 0.10 |
| 0735 | 16. 25 | 1. 61 | 0.05 |
| 0755 | 83.92 | 3.50 | 0.90 |
| 0805 | 23.61 | 0.11 | 0.50 |
| 0810 | 60.08 | 1. 49 | 0.30 |
| 0820 | 40.42 | 1. 26 | 0.05 |
| 0835 | 21.97 | 0.86 | 0.05 |
| 0845 | 59.28 | 2.58 | 0.20 |
| 0905 | 13.49 | 1.30 | 0.05 |
| 0915 | 19.65 | 0.60 | 0.05 |
| 0920 | 8.97 | 1.57 | 0.20 |
| 0935 | 17.48 | 1. 74 | 1. 20 |
| 0950 | 22.40 | 1.60 | 0.60 |
| 1000 | 12.13 | 0.70 | 0.70 |
| 1010 | 3.69 | 0.54 | 0.20 |
| 1020 | 4. 70 | 0.80 | 0.05 |
| 1035 | 18.57 | 1. 43 | 0.30 |
| 1045 | 10.00 | 0.61 | 0.10 |
| 1055 | 8.13 | 0.81 | 0.50 |
| 1105 | 17.13 | 0.84 | 0.10 |
| 1115 | 8.09 | 0.53 | 0.30 |
| 1140 | 5.58 | 0.48 | 0.05 |
| 1150 | 7.55 | 0.87 | 2. 40 |
| 1200 | 7.55 | 0.91 | 0.20 |
| 1215 | $\overline{\mathrm{x}} \frac{15.14}{22.30}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{x}} \frac{1.30}{1.30}$ | $=0.05$ |
|  | $\overline{\mathrm{X}}=\overline{22.30}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{X}}=\overline{1.30}$ | $\bar{X}=\overline{0.40}$ |
|  | $S=18.70$ | $\mathrm{S}=0.76$ | $S=0.50$ |

nuclei concentration activated at $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$, for the entire observational period. The means $(\overline{\mathrm{X}})$ and standard deviations (S) are presented in Table 1.

The variability of the snow crystal concentrations during a portion of the snowfall period is illustrated in Figure 11. The regular crystal concentration plot is the same as the crystal concentrations with $T_{f} \geq-20 C$.

The ice nuclei concentrations are consistently lower than the snow crystal concentrations, as noted from Table 1 and verified by the following analysis. The snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations in Table 1 with $T_{f}$ and $T_{a} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ are presented in the $2 \times 2$ contingency tables in Table 2. The upper contingency table is constructed from the observed data as shown in Table 1. The pooled median (0.60) for the two samples was determined. The individual crystal and nuclei observations with values greater or less than 0.60 were grouped around this value. The groups were summed to produce the concentrations presented in the table. Next, a $X^{2}$ test for independence was applied (Snedecor, 1956). The test was significant:

$$
P\left(x^{2} \geq 15.81\right)<0.001
$$

This result illustrates the concentration pairs above and below the median may not be samples from equal populations.

The lower contingency table in Table 2 is constructed from the same data in Table 1 by multiplying each nuclei concentration


Figure 11. Snow crystal concentrations, HAO, Climax, Colorado, 8 February 1966

TABLE 2

CONTINGENCY TABLES FOR THE 8 FEBRUARY 1966 SNOW CRYSTAL AND ICE NUCLEI CONCENTRATIONS

| Concentration below <br> Pooled Median | Original Data |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Concentrations |  |  |
|  | Crystal | Nuclei |  |
|  | ${ }^{\text {a }} 2.56$ | b $\text { 6. } 70$ | 9.26 |
| Concentration above Pooled Median | C $\quad 3.59$ | $\begin{array}{ll} \mathrm{d} & \\ & 5.00 \end{array}$ | 40.59 |
| $\begin{array}{r} x^{2} 1 \text { d.f. } \\ P(\gamma \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} 38.15 \\ +\mathrm{n}(\mathrm{ad}- \\ \geq 15.81) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11.70 \\ & \frac{c)^{2}}{+c)(b+a)} \\ & 0.001 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 49.85 \\ & 15.81 \end{aligned}$ |
| Concentrations below Pooled Median | Modified Data |  |  |
|  | Concentrations |  |  |
|  | Crystal | Nuclei $(x 3.5)$ |  |
|  | 8.96 | 9. 41 | 18.37 |
| Concentrations above Pooled Median | 29.19 | 30.80 | 59.99 |
|  | 38.15 | 40. 21 | 78.36 |
| $x_{1 \text { d.f. }}^{2} \approx 10^{-4}$ |  |  |  |

observation by 3.5--the reported average factor in the literature required to convert the Bigg-Warner expansion chamber readings to those obtained with the diffusion chamber. The concentrations are again grouped around the pooled median (1.05). The $x^{2}$ test for independence in this case is now significant:

$$
P\left(x^{2} \geq 10^{-4}\right)>0.95
$$

This result indicates that the populations of the two samples may be similar. It appears, therefore, that the average of the reported factor difference between the Bigg-Warner expansion and diffusion chambers (3.5) is also reasonable for equating the expansion chamber observations to the corresponding snow crystal concentrations from the cloud.

## Seeded Orographic Snowfall

A seeded orographic snowstorm occurred at Climax on
11 April 1966. It was not a major Pacific storm, instead, a short-wave pertubation moving through a zonal westerly flow. On the 10 th, the major long-wave troughs were over the Pacific and Atlantic Coasts with a weak ridge between them. The short-wave pertubation was imbedded in the Pacific trough. The 500 mb height, temperature, and wind over Climax on the 10 th were $5750 \mathrm{~m},-18 \mathrm{C}$, and westerly. The short-wave trough was over Climax on the afternoon of the 11 th. The 1700 MST 500 mb height was 5680 m ; the temperature and dew point
were -21 and -22 C ; and the wind was west-northwest (WNW) at 15 m per second. The snowfall period monitored started at 1600 and ended at 1800 MST. The surface temperature was constant at $-2 C$. Silver iodide generators were in operation at Tennessee Pass and Redcliff two hours before the investigated snowfall period. Tennessee Pass is approximately 10 km to the west of Climax. Redcliff is approximately 15 km to the northwest as illustrated in Figure 1. The assumption is made that the WNW wind caused a major portion of each AgI plume to reach the Climax area. The consistent westerly wind with nearly saturated conditions at 500 mb indicates a solid orographic cloud system formed over Climax.

Table 3 lists the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations taken during the snowfall period on 11 April 1966. Simultaneous crystal and nuclei observations were not obtained. The mean ( $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ ) and standard deviation (S) of the nuclei observations indicate little variability. Thus, nuclei concentrations are assumed approximately constant through the period. The snow crystal concentrations are variable as illustrated in Figure 12. The time periods with no snow crystals ( $T_{f} \geq-20 C$ ) represent discontinuities in the lower cloud system.

It is not feasible to analyze the data in Table 3 by the contingency procedure used for the unseeded storm because the value of the pooled median for the crystal and nuclei observations is 1.83 .

There is no nuclei concentration in Table 3 less than this value, so one box in the contingency table would have a value of zero. This value would cause the $x^{2}$ independence test to result in significance. If the nuclei concentrations were multiplied by 3.5 , the test would still be significant. Thus, the value of 3.5 does not explain the higher nuclei concentrations.

## DISCUSSION

## Unseeded Orographic Snowfall

A schematic diagram of the unseeded orographic cloud system over Climax during the investigated snowfall period on 8 February 1966 is presented in Figure 13. The synoptic parameters are the mean values for the snowfall period since no large variations occurred during the period. The cloud system is simplified in this manner so the Bigg-Warner expansion counter can be used to simulate in-cloud temperature conditions. The nuclei concentrations measured at an activation temperature of -20 C in the counter--when multiplied by the 3.5 adjustment factor--are assumed to approximate the concentrations in a column of air extending through that portion of the cloud with temperatures greater than or equal to -20 C . Likewise, the concentrations of snow crystals with formation temperatures at or above -20 C , when measured at the ground, are assumed to have formed between these corresponding levels in the cloud. Thus, the crystal and nuclei concentrations in Table 1 with $T_{f}$ and $T_{a} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ can be related. The variable concentrations and the inherent time lag between the simultaneous observations allows only the mean concentrations to be related.

The relationship between the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations in this snowfall period might be preliminarily inferred
from the simplification of the orographic cloud system represented in Figure 13. The nuclei concentrations measured in the inactive natural nuclei layer on the mountain top are used to represent the in-cloud concentrations. As a result, it is not unreasonable to assume that snow crystal concentrations--which formed at temperatures at or above -20C in the cloud, when measured at the ground--formed from the equivalent nuclei concentration measured at $T_{a}=-20 \mathrm{C}$ in the nuclei counter. The mean values in Table 1 with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ support a hypothesis that each ice nucleus formed one snow crystal. The mean snow crystal concentration of 1.3 per liter is nearly equal to the mean ice nuclei concentration of 1. 4 per liter when the original 0.40 value is multiplied by the 3.5 adjustment factor. Likewise, the median crystal and nuclei (x 3.5) concentrations were approximately equal at 1.3 and 0.90 per liter, respectively.

Additional data is available to show that snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations are nearly equal at the ground. For example, an unseeded snowfall period between 1752 and 2058 MST on 19 April 1966 at HAO was investigated in the same manner as the 8 February 1966 storm. The means of the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations with $T_{f}$ and $T_{a} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ are also in fairly good agreement at 2.8 and 5.9 per liter, respectively, incorporating the factor of 3.5 in the nuclei concentrations. The standard deviations of the crystal
cloud. It is difficult however to determine the total concentration of either nuclei component, because their activation layers overlap in the cloud, and the air sample at the ground contains both components. If nuclei concentrations were taken at $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}}=-12 \mathrm{C}$, they would probably indicate a portion of the total artificial nuclei concentration since the natural nuclei do not activate at temperatures warmer than approximately -12C (Schaefer, 1951). The artificial AgI nuclei used at Climax activate at temperatures as warm as approximately -8C (Grant and Mielke, 1965). For example, on 11 April 1966, before the AgI plume reached Climax, the average nuclei concentrations for $T_{a}=-12 \mathrm{C}$ were zero. During the seeded snowfall period, the nuclei concentrations at $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}}=-12 \mathrm{C}$ increased to 0.4 per liter. The 0.4 concentration, while too low to support a firm conclusion, indicated the AgI nuclei concentration active at $-12 \mathrm{C} \leq \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \leq-8 \mathrm{C}$.

A relationship between the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations measured at the ground in seeded snowfall is more difficult to develop than for unseeded snowfall. The difficulty exists because the AgI plume in Figure 14 probably should not be assumed uniformly diffused through the cloud volume. It is argued that if the generators are located sufficiently distant upwind of the orographic barrier, mixing motions may diffuse the plume uniformly throughout the cloud. If this is the case, the hypothesis for unseeded cloud systems indicating equality between the snow crystal and ice nuclei
concentrations would be reasonable. If however the plume did not uniformly mix throughout the cloud, this hypothesis would not be substantiated.

Under this condition, the plume possibly would not be totally activated in the cloud, but may be totally activated in the Bigg-Warner expansion chamber. For example, if the plume diffuses as illustrated in Figure 14, nuclei concentrations activated at -20C in the counter might be greater than the concentrations of snow crystals precipitating from the cloud. The snow crystal concentration with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ may not be forming on the total AgI nuclei concentration because the majority of the plume does not reach the -20C level. This hypothesis is tested using the mean snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations in Table 3 with $T_{f}$ and $T_{a} \geq-20 C$. The ice nuclei concentrations, when multiplied by 3.5, are a factor of nearly 11 greater than the snow crystal concentrations; 20.3 and 1.9 per liter, respectively. Likewise, the median ice nuclei concentration (x 3.5 ) was a factor of approximately 28 greater than the median snow crystal concentration; 25.0 and 0.9 per liter, respectively.

Another seeded snowfall period was monitored for three hours on 17 March 1966. The mean snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$ were 0.6 and 5.6 per liter, respectively, incorporating the factor of 3.5 in the nuclei mean.

They differed by a factor of 9, although the snowfall was variable. The crystal and nuclei standard deviation were 0.8 and 4.5 per liter. Likewise, the median nuclei concentrations (x 3.5) were 3.8, differing by a factor of 38 from the median crystal concentration of 0.1 per liter. Although the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations were highly variable in the two seeded snowfall periods, there are distinct differences between the concentrations. It is apparent the nuclei concentrations are at least an order of magnitude greater than the crystal concentrations. A specific value cannot be inferred because of the variability in the existing snowfall conditions. These results illustrate that the AgI plume probably was not completely diffused throughout the cloud, thus not totally activated. Furthermore, the snow crystal concentrations are within the same order of magnitude as the unseeded cases regardless of the apparent order of magnitude increase in the nuclei concentrations at the ground in the seeded snowfall. From this limited amount of data, it is clear the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations at the ground are not equal for seeded cases investigated. Consequently, it appears that in-cloud crystal and nuclei concentrations cannot be inferred from nuclei observations at the ground in seeded snowfall at Climax.

## Total Ice Nuclei and Snow Crystal Concentrations

The total ice nuclei concentrations activated and the total
orographic cloud system can be considered using the simplified cloud represented in Figure 3. If a sample of air is activated in the BiggWarner expansion chamber at the temperature of cloud tops, the nuclei concentration is assumed to nearly represent the concentration of active nuclei in the cloud from the threshold activation level to the cloud-top level. Likewise, if the snow crystal concentrations with $T_{f}$ greater than or equal to cloud-top temperature are summed, this sample at the ground closely represents the total concentration in the cloud. The relationship of these nuclei and crystal concentrations have been investigated.

Table 4 illustrates the total nuclei and crystal concentrations for seeded and unseeded snowfall periods. Considerable variability exists between the individual values as noted earlier. In Table 4, the variability in the total snow crystal concentrations may be a result of the crystal interpretation problem inherent with the identification of irregular crystals. The cloud-top temperatures (near the 500 mb temperature, according to Furman, 1967) averaged -25C for all snowfall periods; therefore, the ice nuclei concentrations with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-26 \mathrm{C}$ can be considered to nearly represent the total concentration in the cloud.

The mean total snow crystal concentration (12.85 $\left.\ell^{-1}\right)$ is greater than the ice nuclei concentration $\left(3.95 \ell^{-1}\right)$ by a factor of 4 in the unseeded storms. If the factor of 3.5 is incorporated in the

TABLE 4
TOTAL SNOW CRYSTAL AND ICE NUCLEI CONCENTRATIONS

| Date | Site | Time Period (MST) | Seeded | $\begin{gathered} 500 \mathrm{mb} \\ \text { Temp. } \\ \left.\gamma^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Total Crystal Conc. $(n / \ell)$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Nuclei } \\ \text { Conc. }(\mathrm{n} / \ell) \\ \mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-26 \mathrm{C} \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\bar{X} \quad \mathrm{~S}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{X}} \mathrm{S}$ |
| 2-8-66 | HAO | 0630-1215 | No | -24 | 22. 3018.70 | $1.90-$ |
| 3-17-66 | HAO | 0730-1040 | Yes | -28 | $5.09 \quad 5.37$ | 8. 41 - |
| 4-11-66 | HAO | 1600-1800 | Yes | -21 | 11.5613.47 | 10.80 |
| 4-19-66 | HAO | 1752-2058 | No | -26 | $3.40 \quad 3.00$ | 6. 00 |
|  |  |  |  |  | -Averages- |  |
|  |  |  | No | -25 | 12.8510 .85 | 3.95 |
|  |  |  | Yes | -25 | $8.33 \quad 9.42$ | 9.65 - |

nuclei concentrations, the mean total crystal and nuclei concentrations are again in good agreement, 13.0 and 14.0 per liter, respectively. This result suggests that total ice nuclei and snow crystal concentrations may be equal in these unseeded orographic snowfall periods.

The mean total snow crystal concentration ( $8.33 \ell^{-1}$ ) for the seeded storms is approximately equal to the ice nuclei concentration with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-26 \mathrm{C}\left(9.65 \ell^{-1}\right)$. When the factor of 3.5 is incorporated, the mean nuclei concentration increases to 33.8 per liter. They differ by a factor of 4 , but not by as large a factor as the cases with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{f}}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{a}} \geq-20 \mathrm{C}$, again possibly indicating higher nuclei concentrations near the ground. This decrease in the magnitude of the factor might be expected because the concentrations of active natural ice nuclei increase substantially between -20 and -26 C .

The total crystal and nuclei concentrations in the cloud may be reasonably inferred from nuclei concentrations activated at the cloud-top temperature in the unseeded snowfall cases, but not in the case when artificial nuclei are superimposed on the system. It must be emphasized that these and the previous results are applicable to mountain-top observations in the Central Colorado Rockies during winter and are based on a very limited sample.

## Snow Crystal and Ice Nuclei Concentrations

Ice nuclei and snow crystal concentrations were measured simultaneously at the ground in two unseeded and two seeded orographic snowfall periods at Climax, Colorado. From these observations, the snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations with the same formation and activation temperatures were compared.

An average factor of 3.5 has been determined by Warner and Newnham (1958) in comparing the ice nuclei concentrations obtained with the Bigg-Warner expansion-type ice nuclei counter to those obtained with a Bigg-Warner diffusion chamber. Now, this same factor appears realistic in comparing the Bigg-Warner expansion chamber to snow crystal concentrations from unseeded orographic cloud systems.

The mean snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations, with formation and activation temperatures at or above -20C in the investigated unseeded orographic cloud systems, were approximately equal. Likewise, the total concentrations active at all temperatures to -25 C in these same cloud systems were approximately equal. Thus, in-cloud cyrstal and nuclei concentrations were reasonably inferred from nuclei measurements at the ground.

The mean snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations differed significantly for temperatures at or above -20C in the investigated seeded orographic cloud systems. Likewise, the total crystal and nuclei concentrations active at all temperatures to -25C differed sighificantly. The variability of the snowfall did not allow a mean difference to be determined, however the nuclei concentrations appeared greater than the crystal concentrations, by at least an order of magnitude. Consequently, nuclei concentrations measured at the ground in seeded snowfall did not represent in-cloud conditions. The larger nuclei concentrations are probably a result of non-uniform mixing of the artificial nuclei plume, producing much higher concentrations near the ground than in the cloud.

The equality of snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations in unseeded orographic snowfall supports the observation by Kumai (1951) which states each snow crystal contains one solid nucleus. Is ono (1965) has found a similar relationship between the concentrations of graupel and ice nuclei at the bases of unseeded thunderstorms over Japan.

These preliminary crystal and nuclei concentration relationships are to be considered tentative statements because they are based on a limited sample. Lack of precedence in theory and technique hindered the more precise interpretation of the crystal and nuclei relationships. Finding these concentrations to be within the same order of magnitude is considered remarkable.

## Instrumentation

The continuous snowfall replicator has improved the procedure for taking Formvar snow crystal replicas at Climax, Colorado (Grant, 1965a). The improvement primarily involves the even coating of the Formvar solution applied to the 35 mm film base. Theeven coating and the slow time for solution hardening suppresses "blush" which sometimes masks the samples taken with other Formvar replication techniques (Averitt and Ruskin, 1967). The instrument is not able to replicate crystals in temperatures warmer than -1C. Replication of rainfall is, therefore, not possible.

The procedure for computing snow crystal concentrations from the continuous snowfall replicator data appears realistic because these concentrations are comparable to simultaneously-measured ice nuclei concentrations. The Bigg-Warner expansion chamber measures the concentrations of the nuclei on which snow crystals form. The replicator is used to determine the resulting concentrations of snow crystals. Finding these concentrations to be within the same order of magnitude is submitted as possible evidence for the validity of the procedure for computing snow crystal concentrations.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

Measurements from the kite-borne cloud particle and ice nuclei samplers--developed at Colorado State University to be flown in orographic cloud systems--may verify the ground observations in this paper. The in-cloud measurements of water droplet, ice crystal, and ice nuclei concentrations, coupled with the ground measurements of snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations, may clarify the precipitation processes in the orographic cloud systems.

Many of the questions presented in this report may be resolved by the careful analysis of an increasing sample of snow crystal and ice nuclei concentrations now becoming available.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

## Continuous Snowfall Replicator System

## Operation of the Continuous Snowfall Replicator

The continuous snowfall replicator and components are illustrated in Figures 4, 5, and 6. The solution of $4 \%$ Formvar, $4 \%$ Toluene in ethylene-dichloride is placed in the reservoir tank, illustrated in Figure 5. The coating wheel is detachable to permit ease in filling and emptying. The reservoir is placed in the instrument, in Figure 4, after filling. Uncoated 35 mm film base is stored in the left-hand reel. The film is fed from this reel and through the film-guide system, passed the coating tank and sampling slit in Figure 6. The film continues through the drying length, passed the drive sprocket, and onto the take-up reel. The film rate is 3.14 inches per minute, and the sampling slit in Figure 6 is adjustable from nearly closed to 3 inches open. This variable allows exposure times to be regulated to the intensity of the snowfall. For heavy snowfall, a $1 / 2$ - to $3 / 4$-inch opening is used, and for lighter snowfall a 1- to $11 / 2$-inch opening is used.

The continuous snowfall replicator is operated in a systematic manner during the snowfall period. A "start mark" is placed on the film as the instrument is activated. Then, the date, time of mark, site, slit width, and storm conditions are recorded. At one-hour intervals,
the instrument's operation is checked. A time mark is made on the film, and this storm data is recorded at each check. The slit width is adjusted if the snowfall rate has increased or decreased from the previous check. When the snowfall period ends, a "stop mark" is written on the film, and the time - with associated storm data - is recorded. When the experiment terminates, the unused Formvar solution is poured into a container and the reservoir plus coating wheel are soaked and cleaned in ethylene-dichloride until the next operation.

The continuous snowfall replicas for the snowfall period are contained on the take-up reel. This reel is removed from the instrument and catalogued with an accompanying data sheet. Then, the data is ready for reduction.

## Data Reduction System

The 35 mm film base containing the snow crystal replicas is analyzed by using the modified 35 mm film-strip projector in Figure 15 to determine crystal concentrations. The normal 5-inch lens was replaced with a 3 -inch wide-angle lens ${ }^{1}$. This lens produces a magnification of 70X when the projector is set approximately 17 feet from the screen. Figure 16 is the actual size of the scale used to measure the dimensions of the projected snow crystal

[^0]

Figure 15. The snow crystal replica film-strip projector

The continuous snow crystal replica film with event times to be investigated, is projected onto a grid corresponding to $4.5 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ on the film. The $4.5 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ area was calculated to be the minimum area that must be observed to give a statistically significant sample. The crystal replicas are classified according to Nakaya (1954) in Figure 17 and Table 5. Nakaya's crystal type nomenclature in Figure 17 is digitized in Table 6. At a specific event time, ali the crystals on the grid are counted and classified according to size and shape. Typical snow crystal replica data read from the grid is presented in Table 7. This data corresponds to the crystal concentrations in Figure 8.

Data in Table 7 was taken at the High Altitude Observatory, Climax, Colorado (site 001) on 5 January 1967 (010567). The snowfall period was between 2110 and 2400 MST and Table 7 illustrates only the first three and a portion of the final event times investigated. For example, at 2110 MST , one P1a crystal type (0311), with a length of $210 \mu$, and one I1 crystal type (0061), with a length of $110 \mu$, were observed on the $4.5 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ grid. This same reasoning follows for the remainder of the snowfall data.

Snow crystal data is placed on IBM punch cards in the exact form as presented in Table 7. The first card is the identification card: site (3 digits, columns 1-3), date (6 digits, columns 4-9). Then each observed snow crystal type and size is placed on a


Figure 17. General classification of snow crystals, sketches [from Nakaya (1954)]

## TABLE 5

## GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF SNOW CRYSTALS [from Nakaya (1954)]



TABLE 6

## NUMERICAL SNOW CRYSTAL TYPES [after Nakaya (1954)]

| Nakaya | Numerical | Letter(s) | Number |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N1a | 0111 | N | 1 |
| N1b | 0112 | C | 2 |
| N2 | 0012 | P | 3 |
| C1a | 0211 | CP | 4 |
| C1b | 0212 | S | 5 |
| C1c | 0213 | I | 6 |
| C2a | 0221 | R | 0 at the end |
| C2b | 0222 | a | 1 |
| P1a | 0311 | b | 2 |
| P1b | 0312 | c | 3 |
| P1c | 0313 | d | 4 |
| P1d | 0314 | e | 5 |
| P1e | 0315 | f | 6 |
| P1f | 0316 | g | 7 |
| P1g | 0317 | h | 8 |
| P1h | 0318 |  | 9 |
| P1i | 0319 |  |  |
| P2a | 0321 |  |  |
| P2b | 0322 |  |  |
| P2c | 0323 |  |  |
| P3a | 0331 |  |  |
| P3b | 0332 |  |  |
| CP1a | 0411 |  |  |
| CP1b | 0412 |  |  |
| CP1c | 0413 |  |  |
| CP2a | 0421 |  |  |
| CP2b | 0422 |  |  |
| CP3 | 0043 |  |  |
| S | 0005 |  |  |
| I1 | 0061 | 0062 |  |
| I1F | 0616 |  |  |

## TABLE 7

## TYPICAL SNOW CRYSTAL REPLICA DATA, HAO, CLIMAX, COLORADO <br> 5 January 1967


separate data card: time (4 digits, columns 1-4), surface temperature (2 digits, columns 5-6), film rate (4 digits, columns 7-10), slit width ( 4 digits, columns 11-14), crystal form (4 digits, columns 1518, [from Figure 17 and Tables 5 and 6]), crystal length (4 digits, columns 19-22), crystal width (4 digits, columns 23-26, [for crystal types 0111, 0112, 0211, 0212, 0213, 0221, 0222 only]), formation temperature (2 digits, columns 27-28, [ from Figure 2]), number of crystals per area (3 digits, columns 29-31), area of grid (3 digits, columns 32-34). Additional identification cards are placed within the snow crystal data cards whenever the date changes or the snowfall period ends in a snowstorm. The card preceding an inserted identification card must have an $*$ in column 80 . Snow crystal observations can be made at any time interval on the film, however, an observation must be made at each hour during the snowfall period. Also, when the date changes, the 2400 -hour data cards must be duplicated with the time changed to 0000 -hour, and the duplicated cards placed on the opposite side of the identification card. These hourly observations, plus duplicated cards permit continuity between the snow crystal plots produced by the computer in Figures 9, 11, and 12 .

## Snow Crystal Concentration Program

The initial snow crystal concentration computation scheme is described by Hindman and Rinker (1967). The system uses


Figure 18. Snow crystal concentration computer program flow-chart


```
        gROGRAM GNOTY
        AIMENSION IPRY品位
        MIMENSSON ILARI[2!
        OIMENSIONSREG(1500),SIRR(1500) OSTOT(1500)OSRIM(1500)OSYIM(1500)
        DIMENSION ILMS(2)OYGME(15001
        MIMENSION IV(S)
        INPFGER PI
        CNRR = 5.13.
        PPATQN(1)=1252B S IPRTRN(2)B1666R S PPRTRN(3)=11118 S IPBTRN(G)=17
        FTIM=0 5 FT20=0 S FT26=0
        179月
C RMED IS SWITCH FOR CONTROL OF PLOTYING
            KMEDa&
C IF IKH IS AN END OF THIS SET OF OATA
C IF IKH IS AN A PHE NEXT CARD MUST OE G VARIAQLE FORMAT CARD
        IKM - IHA
    10 Gत TN (1\triangleO20)KMEN
    1G IF (IKHOFQ.1HM)GO TO 26
    I5 no 10 Jwi.08500
        seEG(J)=0.0
        SIPR(J)=0.0
        STOT(J)=0.0
        SRTM(J)=0.0
    16 ITIM(J)=%
C RFAO SIPE AND DATE CARD
        READ15.191ISIPEDIDAT
    17 FORMAT(130?6)
        WRITE(GOI&)ISIPEOIDAT
        WOTTE SITE MND DATE CARD
        18 FORMOTIOISITE OISOM DAPE OIGI
            |m!
            1me
    500 FORMAT (12%.5010)
    20 IF (IKHONE,JHM) GO'TO 21
        QFAD VARIABLE FORMAT CARO
            READ(50500) (IV(I)OIE105)
            RFAD DAPA CARD
        2I READ(SOIV)ITIMPI)OISFTOFILOSLMOPIOXLENOWIDOIFOTOINUMOAREAOIKH
            CHECK FOR CHANGE IN TIME
                IF(KHEDOFO.D) ITIM(I)EITTM(2)
                PFIITIM(I), EROITIM(IOIIISO TO 27
            CAMPUTE SUM OF TOTAL NUMEER OP CRYSTALS DER LITER
        26 STOT(I)ESIRR1I)OSREG(IIASRSM(SO
            WRITE(60191) ITIM(IO&)
    171 FORMATION TIME (14)
    WRITE SUMS OF REGULAROIRREGULARORIME AND TOTAL
            WRITE(GOITO)SREG(I)OSIRR(S)OSRIMM(I)OSTOTIT)
    170 FORMAT(M0 SUM OF REGULAR CRYSTALS PER LIPEROFROD10/ENDGSUM OF
        1PRREGULAR CRYSTALS PER LIPERAF2O.1O11OKOGSUM OF FIME CAYSTALS PER
        2 LITERMF20.10/1OXOHSUM OF TOTAL CRYSTALS PER LITERMF20.1.01
C COMPUTE OVERALL CONCENTRATIONS FOR PEMPERATURES OF O1400200-20
                FT14= FP14* FI%
                FT20=F920-F20
                BT26 = FT26 F F2G
            WRITE CONCENTRATIONS FOR SPECFIC TIME
            WRITE (60501)F14,F20.F26
            WPIPE GVERMGEG OF CONCENTRATIONS AT -140-200-26
        SÖ FORMAYPMO CONCENTRATINN OF CRYSTALSM/IOKOMIT FORMATION PEMPERATURE
            & GREATER THAN OR EQUAL TO -1GNF20.5110ムOMAT FORMATION PEMPERATURE
        2 GREATER THAN OR ROUAL PO -20MF20.5/10ム口MGT FORMATION PEMPERATURE
        3 GREATER THAN OR EOUAL TO -26*F20.5)
        F14=0 & F20=0 & F26 = 0
```

Figure 19．Snow crystal concentration computer program

Figure 19．Continued

```
    405 Kl = Kl - &
        PF(PPME(KI).GPOAXIS2.OROK1.GP.J) 60 PO $15
        CALL VECPOR(TIME(RI)OSTOP(KI*1))
        B0 YO $05
    \triangle15 TMAPRN = 1252B
        CALL DASHLN (IPAPRN)
        kl昨!-1
C PlOT NUMBER OF IRREGULAR CRYSTALS
    CALL FRSTPT (TIME(KE),SIRR(K2&I))
    \triangleOG K2 = K2 - I
        IP(PEME(K2).GT.AKSS2.OR.K2.OT.J) GO PO 416
        CALLL VECTOR(TIME(K2)OSIRR(KR*1)I
        GO T0 406
    416 %⿴囗十TRN = 16668
        CALL OASHLN (IPATRN)
        k2m*2*1
C PLOT NUMBER OF REGULAR CRYSTALS
    CALL FRSTPT (TIME(K3)OSREB(K3*1))
    407 K3 = K3 - &
        IP(TIME(K3).OT゙०AXIS2.OROR3.GT.J) GO TO 417
        CALLL VECTOR(TTME(K3),SREG(R3*1))
```

        30 T0 \(\$ 09\)
    417 PATPA = 11118
        CALLL OASHLN (IPAPRN)
        K3"K3-1
    C PLOT NUMBER OF RIME CRYSTALS
CALL FRSTPT (TIME(KA),SRIM(KAO1))
408 RK = KA ©
IF(TIME (RA)OGP.OXISZ.OR.KA.OT.J) 60 PO 418
CALL VECTOR (TIME(RA)OSRIM(KA\&1))
GO TO 408
$\triangle 18$ IPATRN = 17778
CAILL DASHLN (TPATRN)
CALLL PRAME
IF(KGOGEI)GO TO 15
K
GOL AKISIEAKISI-200.0
Ax1S2maxpses200.0
IF (TIME(KI+1).OE.AKIS2) 00 TO 601
IF (TIME(KI).EQ.AXISI) GO TO 430
Kl $=$ Kl - 1
K2 $=12$ - 1
K3 3 K3 \& 1

GO TO 30
e END OF PLOTTING ROUTINE
C COMPUTE TERMINAL VELOCITY AND NUMBER CRYSTALS OF FOR EACH CARD
40l PTIM(IO1) = ITIM(I)
400 Jajol
palel
$27 \mathrm{KPa}=0$
$K M E D=2$
IF(IKH.EQ.2H..)KHED=!
PF(PIOEQ.O)GO TO 300
v900
ISFTE-ISFT

TESLW660.OFIL
KLENE.0001\%KLEN
WIOB.0001m4SD
KNUMEINUMO (AREAM.O1)
SXNUM $=X N U M / T$
FlyaxMODF(Plolo)

## APPENDIX B

## Terminal Velocities of Snow Crystals

The terminal velocities of snow crystals must be known to determine the volume of air from which they settle. This volume is given by:

$$
V=V_{t} t A
$$

where $V_{t}\left(\mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}\right)$ is the terminal velocity of a specific crystal type, and $t(s e c)$ is the exposure time of an area on the film, $A\left(\mathrm{~cm}^{2}\right)$. Todd (1964) made an extensive compilation of the terminal velocities of snow crystals from the literature in Figure 20. The terminal velocity equations (KEQ) for the snow crystal concentration computer program in Figure 19 are derived from Figure 20.

Terminal velocities for rimed and plane dendritic snow crystals were among those measured by Nakaya (1954). First, the author fit a power curve to Nakaya's data and derived an expression for the terminal velocities of rimed crystals:

$$
\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{t}}=125.7 \mathrm{~d}^{0.084} \quad(\mathrm{KEQ}=5)
$$

where $V_{t}$ is the terminal velocity $\left(\mathrm{cm} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}\right)$, and $d$ is the diameter of the crystal (cm). This diameter is defined as the largest


Figure 20. Terminal velocities of various snow crystals [from Todd (1964)]
dimension in any direction. The equation is used for any crystal form in Table 6 ending in zero. It is assumed valid for any rimed crystal size.

Nakaya found that plane dendritic crystals fall at a. constant $30 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$. The terminal velocity equation for plane dendritic crystals is therefore,

$$
V_{t}=30\left(\mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}\right) \quad(\mathrm{KEQ}=2)
$$

The author assumes that this equation is valid for crystal types between 0321 and 0332 in Table 6 with diameters greater than or equal to 0.050 cm . The plane dendritic crystal diameter is defined as the longest length from point to point. Below 0.050 cm , the equation for hexagonal plates is used.

The hexagonal plate equation was generated by a "least squares fit" computer program which fits a cubic equation to the hexagonal plate curve in Figure 20. The hexagonal plate equation $(\mathrm{KEQ}=1)$ and solutions are listed in Table 8. This equation is valid for all sizes of crystal types in Table 6 between 0311 and 0314, and for crystal types between 0321 and 0332 with diameters less than 0.050 cm .

The "least squares fit" computer program was used to generate the terminal velocity equations for the needle crystal curve in Figure 20. Two equations were derived. The needle

TABLE 8

## HEXAGONAL PLATE TERMINAL VELOCITY EQUATION AND SOLUTIONS

| $V_{t}=-2.78+1927$ | quation $073.70 D^{2}+173775$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Hexagonal Solutions |  |
| Diameter (cm) | Terminal Velocity (cm sec${ }^{-1}$ ) |
| 0.0001 | -2.59 |
| 0.0011 | -0.70 |
| 0.0031 | 2.88 |
| 0.0061 | 7.81 |
| 0.0091 | 12.23 |
| 0.0121 | 16. 41 |
| 0.0181 | 22.62 |
| 0.0211 | 25.23 |
| 0.0241 | 27.46 |
| 0.0271 | 29.35 |
| 0.0301 | 30.90 |
| 0.0331 | 32.17 |
| 0.0391 | 33.92 |
| 0.0421 | 34.47 |
| 0.0451 | 34.84 |
| 0.0481 | 35.05 |
| 0.0511 | 35.14 |
| 0.0541 | 35.12 |
| 0.0601 | 34.92 |
| 0.0631 | 34.78 |
| 0.0661 | 34.66 |
| 0.0691 | 34.58 |
| 0.0721 | 34.57 |
| 0.0751 | 34.66 |
| 0.0781 | 34.88 |
| 0.0841 | 35.82 |
| 0.0871 | 36.59 |
| 0.0901 | 37.60 |
| 0.0931 | 38.87 |
| 0. 0991 | 42.35 |

equation ( $\mathrm{KEQ}=3$ ) in Table 9 is valid for crystals with dimensions less than or equal to 0.010 cm . The needle equation $(\mathrm{KEQ}=4)$ in Table 10 is valid for crystals with dimensions greater than or equal to 0.011 cm . The needle equation is assumed valid for columns since they have similar shapes. Needle and column dimensions are defined as both their length and width. The length dimension is used for crystal types 0012 and 0411 to 0422 . The width dimension is used for crystal types 0111, 0112, and 0211 to 0222.

Rinker (private communication) has measured terminal velocities of snow crystals using Nakaya's (1954) technique. The author approximated the terminal velocity of irregular crystals from this data to be $120 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$. For simplicity, since the dimensions are irregular, the terminal velocity is assumed constant with size. The terminal velocity equation is therefore,

$$
\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{t}}=120\left(\mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}\right) \quad(\mathrm{KEQ}=6)
$$

This equation is valid for crystal types 0043, 0005, 0061, 0062, 0616 in Table 6. The average size for the total number of irregular crystals of each type on the film are recorded in Table 7 since $\mathrm{KEQ}=6$ is not a function of size.

## TABLE 9

NEEDLE TERMINAL VELOCITY EQUATION AND SOLUTIONS (Crystal Dimension $\leq 0.010 \mathrm{~cm}$ )

| Needle Equation |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{t}}=-3.09+5268.58 \mathrm{D}+351293.25 \mathrm{D}^{2}-20028419.31 \mathrm{D}^{3}$ |  |
| Needle Solutions |  |
| Dimension |  |
| $(\mathrm{cm})$ |  |
|  |  |
| 0.001 |  |
| 0.002 |  |
| 0.003 |  |
| 0.004 |  |
| 0.005 |  |
| 0.006 |  |
| 0.007 |  |
| 0.008 |  |
| 0.009 |  |

TABLE 10
NEEDLE TERMINAL VELOCITY EQUATION AND SOLUTIONS (Crystal Dimension $\geq 0.011 \mathrm{~cm}$ )

| Needle Equation |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{t}}=-6.21+7744.39 \mathrm{D}-65408.58 \mathrm{D}^{2}+260855.13 \mathrm{D}^{3}$ |  |
| Needle Solutions |  |
| Dimension | Terminal Velocity |
| $(\mathrm{cm})$ | $(\mathrm{cm} \mathrm{sec}$ |
| $0.1)$ |  |
| 0.010 | 64.94 |
| 0.012 | 77.74 |
| 0.015 | 96.11 |
| 0.018 | 113.51 |
| 0.021 | 129.98 |
| 0.024 | 145.57 |
| 0.030 | 174.29 |
| 0.033 | 187.49 |
| 0.036 | 199.98 |
| 0.039 | 211.80 |
| 0.042 | 222.99 |
| 0.045 | 233.59 |
| 0.051 | 253.22 |
| 0.054 | 262.32 |
| 0.057 | 277.00 |
| 0.060 | 279.32 |
| 0.063 | 287.29 |
| 0.066 | 294.98 |
| 0.072 | 309.66 |
| 0.075 | 316.73 |
| 0.078 | 323.68 |
| 0.081 | 330.56 |
| 0.084 | 337.39 |
| 0.087 | 344.24 |
| 0.093 | 358.11 |
| 0.096 | 365.22 |
| 0.099 | 380.02 |
| 0.102 | 395.78 |
| 0.105 |  |
| 0.108 |  |
|  |  |


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ 3-inch E. F. f/3.0 Luxtar L. P. Anastigmmat, Viewlex, Inc., Long Island, New York.

