



**Uncertainty analysis  
for evaluating the  
accuracy of snow  
depth measurements**

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# Uncertainty analysis for evaluating the accuracy of snow depth measurements

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## Abstract

A methodology for quantifying the accuracy of snow depth measurement are demonstrated in this study by using the equation of error propagation for the same type sensors and by comparing automatic measurement with manual observation. Snow depth was measured at the Centre for Atmospheric Research Experiments (CARE) site of the Environment Canada (EC) during the 2013–2014 winter experiment. The snow depth measurement system at the CARE site was comprised of three bases. Three ultrasonic and one laser snow depth sensors and twelve snow stakes were placed on each base. Data from snow depth sensors are quality-controlled by range check and step test to eliminate erroneous data such as outliers and discontinuities.

In comparison with manual observations, bias errors were calculated to show the spatial distribution of snow depth by considering snow depth measured from four snow stakes located on the easternmost side of the site as reference. The bias error of snow stakes on the west side of the site was largest. The uncertainty of all pairs of stakes and the average uncertainty for each base were 1.81 and 1.52 cm, respectively. The bias error and normalized bias removed root mean square error (NBRRMSE) for each snow depth sensor were calculated to quantify the systematic error and random error in comparison of snow depth sensors with manual observations that share the same snow depth target. The snow depth sensors on base 12A (11A) measured snow depth larger (less) than manual observation up to 10.8 cm (5.21 cm), and the NBRRMSEs ranged from 5.10 to 16.5%. Finally, the instrumental uncertainties of each snow depth sensor were calculated by comparing three sensors of the same type installed at the different bases. The instrumental uncertainties ranged from 0.62 to 3.08 cm.

## 1 Introduction

Solid precipitation has a significant effect on human life, as it can lead to issues such as flight delays and slippery roads, harm to crops, and building collapses (Rasmussen

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et al., 2003). The impact of these issues can be mitigated with more accurate weather forecasts and representative engineering standards, the development of which require accurate solid precipitation and snow on the ground measurements. In addition, precipitation and snow on the ground measurements are important for various meteorological and hydrological applications, such as climate change, remote sensing calibration, and water supply forecasts (e.g. Michelson, 2004; Rasmussen et al., 2012; Theriault et al., 2012). However, accurate measurement of solid precipitation is difficult due to wind-induced loss and the spatial and temporal variability of snow shape, size, and density (Roebber et al., 2003; Nitu, 2013). The measurement of snow on the ground is also prone to numerous errors due to snow redistribution, blowing snow, and compaction (Ryal et al., 2008). Thus, there is a requirement for the accuracy of solid precipitation and snow on the ground measurements to be evaluated systematically. This study focuses on the measurement of snow depth, which is the total vertical height of snow on the ground within the observation period.

Graduated rulers or snow stakes are used to measure snow depth by trained human observers; these manual measurements are considered to be the reference for snow depth measurements. However, manual snow depth measurements have significant limitations such as consistency, continuity, spatial and temporal resolution, and time and manpower consumption (Ryan and Doesken, 2007). Meanwhile, snow depth sensors based on various operating principles have been developed as a result of the automation of meteorological observation systems (Nitu et al., 2012). Automatic snow depth sensors can help to overcome the limitations of manual snow depth measurements, but they also have limitations (Ryal et al., 2008; Fischer, 2008; Hajj, 2011). Ultrasonic snow depth sensors are currently the most frequently used, due to their ease of use and low power consumption. Two aspects of the operation of these sensors need to be properly managed: first, the temperature dependency of ultrasonic pulses; and second, the risk of interference within the field of view, since ultrasonic pulses have the shape of a cone, for example a cone of  $22^\circ$  for the Campbell Scientific SR50 sensor (Ryan and Doesken, 2008). Laser snow depth sensors have sufficient sensitivity



ogy for the quantification of uncertainty in snow depth measurements is proposed. The procedures for snow depth measurements are described in Sect. 3. The manual and automatic snow depth data are shown in Sect. 4, along with suggested QC procedures for automatic snow depth measurements. The uncertainties in manual and automatic snow depth measurements are detailed in Sect. 5. Section 6 summarizes the results and provides conclusions.

## 2 Quantification of uncertainty

The uncertainty analysis is performed using two approaches: statistical measures and the propagation of error. The standard quantities for measuring the accuracy are defined under statistical measures. In the propagation of error, the uncertainty of individual instruments is calculated from the difference of two measurements of the same type. These approaches are explained in further detail below.

### 2.1 Statistical measures

Standard statistical measures are used to quantify the uncertainty of snow depth measurements. The Bias Error (BE), Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), and Bias Removed Root Mean Square Error (BRRMSE) are defined as follows:

$$BE = \frac{1}{N} \sum (y - x) \quad (1)$$

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum |y - x| \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum (y - x)^2 \right]^{0.5} \quad (3)$$

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$$\text{BRRMSE} = \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum (y - x - \text{BE})^2 \right]^{0.5} \quad (4)$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are snow depths from pairs of manual measurements, manual and automatic measurements sharing the same snow target, or two instruments of the same type at different targets, and  $N$  is the number of data points for a given pair. The NBE, NMAE, NRMSE, and NBRRMSE are the normalized forms in which BE, MAE, RMSE, and BRRMSE are divided by the average of  $x$ .

In comparisons between manual observations, the BE is calculated to investigate the spatial distribution of snow depth relative to the average snow depth measured by snow stakes at each target. The average snow depth of four stakes on the same snow depth target is considered as  $x$  in Eq. (1) for the calculation of BE in comparisons between manual observations and automatic snow depth sensors, which indicates the systematic bias of measurements from individual snow depth sensors relative to the reference. The MAE (NMAE), RMSE (NRMSE) and BRRMSE (NBRRMSE) indicate the random errors in snow depth measurements.

## 2.2 Error propagation

The error propagation equation is used to quantify the uncertainty of manual snow depth measurements and automatic snow depth sensors. When  $z$  is the difference between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  ( $z = x_1 - x_2$ ), the variance of  $z$  ( $\sigma_z^2$ ) is expressed as follows:

$$\sigma_z^2 = \sigma_{x_1}^2 \left( \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 + \sigma_{x_2}^2 \left( \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_2} \right)^2 + 2\sigma_{x_1 x_2}^2 \quad (5)$$

where  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are the snow depths from pairs of two manual measurements or two instruments of the same type.

The terms  $\sigma_{x_1}^2$  and  $\sigma_{x_2}^2$  represent the variance or error of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  and the  $\sigma_{x_1 x_2}^2$  term represents the covariance of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . The random errors for two instruments of the

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same type, which have the same sampling volume and resolution, are nearly identical. Those for two manual measurements performed using the same procedure are also identical. Thus, the  $\sigma_{x_1}^2$  and  $\sigma_{x_2}^2$  terms are assumed to be identical when two manual measurements are compared and when two instruments of the same type are used.

5 The covariance is set to be zero ( $\sigma_{x_1x_2}^2 = 0$ ) by assuming the random errors from the two measurements are not correlated. Thus,  $\sigma_{x_1}^2$  or  $\sigma_{x_2}^2$  can be calculated by:

$$\sigma_{x_1}^2 = \sigma_{x_2}^2 = \frac{\sigma_z^2}{2} \quad (6)$$

Even though two manual measurements are performed by the same procedure, and the two instruments are the same type, bias error can still exist in each case. Therefore, the variance of  $z$  in Eq. (6) can be also written as follows:

$$\sigma_z^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_n z^2 - BE^2 \quad (7)$$

By combining Eqs. (6) and (7), the  $\sigma_{x_1}^2$  or  $\sigma_{x_2}^2$  terms can be expressed as follows:

$$\sigma_{x_1} = \sigma_{x_2} = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_n z^2 - BE^2}{2}} \quad (8)$$

The uncertainties in manual observations are calculated using pairs of snow stakes. The average uncertainties for all snow stakes, each base, and each snow depth target are compared. The comparison among snow depth sensors of the same type is performed to quantify the instrumental uncertainty of each snow depth sensor using the same procedure.

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### 3 Snow depth measurements

The CARE site (44°14' latitude, 79°47' longitude, 251 m elevation) has a humid continental climate. The average temperature is  $-8.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  in January and the average total snowfall is 157 cm. The mean wind speed for the period from November to April is  $3.5\text{--}4.0\text{ ms}^{-1}$  (WMO/CIMO, 2012a). The prevailing wind direction is west to east. The site has a slight slope east to west and is well-exposed.

The layout of the snow depth measurement system at the CARE site during the 2013–2014 winter season is shown in Fig. 1. This system is configured around three bases, each with four snow depth sensors (three ultrasonic and one laser-based) pointing at three snow depth targets developed by EC. Four snow stakes, used for the manual measurements, are posted at the corners of each snow depth target, in the shape of a square. A total of 36 manual observations are performed. Snow depth targets are composed of grey plastic decking (Fig. 2a). The size of each target is  $130.18 \pm 0.64\text{ cm} \times 129.54 \pm 0.64\text{ cm}$ . To help perceive even a few millimeters of snow, and to better represent the ground surface around the target, the surface of each target is painted grey. Holes in each target help in draining water, and the gap between the target and ground mimics the layer of short grasses on the ground, and acts like an insulation layer.

The manual observations taken using wooden snow stakes (Fig. 2b) are considered to be the reference observations for snow depth. Gradations with 0.5 cm resolution are marked on the snow stakes. The snow stakes are perpendicular to the surface of the ground and the snow targets. The trained human observer measures snow depth once a day, starting from the southeast side of the site during non-precipitating periods. The duration and resolution of manual observation are about 20 min and 0.5 cm, respectively.

Three automatic snow depth sensors are installed on each base as in Fig. 2c. The pole on each base has the three arms. One ultrasonic snow depth sensor is installed on each arm. The laser snow depth sensors, which are installed at the top of the pole,

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average snow depth from the four snow stakes at each target is calculated to investigate the spatial distribution of snow depth and compare with the automatic sensors at the same target. The variation in manual snow depth measurements between the four corners of a target is attributed to the uneven deposition of snow on the surface of that target (Fig. 4). The manual snow depth data are also used to analyze the uncertainty of manual snow depth measurements.

## 4.2 Automated data

The data collection for this experiment has been configured such that the JEN, FEL, and SR50A data are reported with one millimeter resolution, while the SOM data is reported with one centimeter resolution. The time series of raw (unfiltered) snow depth data from each sensor show apparent erroneous data, such as outliers and discontinuities (Fig. 5). Some of the data from FEL, SOM, and JEN fall outside the reasonable range for a given site and observation period (Fig. 5a, b, and d). Snow depth sensor data over 1000 cm exceed the expected maximum value based on manual data for this experiment, and are considered to be outliers. Abrupt jumps or spikes (discontinuities) that are within the reasonable range of values are evident in the time series of snow depth data from SR50A (Fig. 5c). These data are excluded from data analysis through application of the QC procedures for snow depth sensor data (described in Sect. 4.3). These outliers and discontinuities could result from environment-, configuration-, or sensor-related causes. The investigation of these causes is outside the scope of this paper. The quality-controlled data are compared with manual observations on the same snow depth target and among the snow depth sensors of same type. This comparison will enable the evaluation of uncertainty for each snow depth sensor.

## 4.3 QC of snow depth sensor data

The following QC procedures are applied to snow depth sensor data in this study: (1) range check, (2) step test; and (3) conversion of data from 30 s temporal resolution

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6.20, 7.00, and 5.70 %) are the smallest, based on the comparison among each base (Fig. 10b). The average NBRMSEs of snow depth sensors of the same type are calculated as follows: FEL = 10.1, JEN = 9.67, SR50A = 9.03, SOM = 8.63 %. Given the spatial variability in snow depth implied by the base-to-base variability in bias and random errors outlined above, the differences in random errors among the different sensor types are not considered to be significant.

In general, the NBE (BE) ranges from -20.1 (-5.21 cm) to 57.8 % (10.7 cm) and the random error ranges from 5.1 (1.00 cm) to 16.5 % (2.93 cm). Thus, the BE is more significant than the random error for the snow depth sensors used in this study. It is not certain why the bias is so large; this question may require further thorough investigation.

### 5.2.2 Comparison among automatic snow depth sensors

The snow depth measured by two snow depth sensors of the same type on different bases is compared to quantify the instrumental uncertainty of individual snow depth sensors (Fig. 11). The data quality during a snow event could be poor for ultrasonic sensors, since it is a known limitation of these sensors that the sound waves are returned by the falling snow before reaching the target. This may have an impact on the calculated uncertainty. A significant bias is shown in the comparison, and should be eliminated to quantify instrumental uncertainty. In addition, bimodal distributions are observed for a few sensor pairs (SOM on base 20 vs. 12A and 11A vs. 12A; SR50A on base 20 vs. 12A, JEN on base 20 vs. 12A). The physical reasons are not known for this peculiar characteristic.

The BEs and instrumental uncertainties of each snow depth sensor are shown in Fig. 12. The snow depth sensors on base 12A are considered to be the reference for the calculation of BE (diamonds in Fig. 12a), similar to the approach used for the assessment of manual observations. The circles in Fig. 12a represent the spatial distribution of snow depth measured by the automatic sensors. To calculate these values, the BEs in Figs. 8a and 10a are added and the snow depths from sensors on base 12A are

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used as the reference. The BEs of snow depth sensors on base 20 and 11A are negative. This could result from the spatial distribution of snow depth, and/or the systematic bias of snow depth sensors. The snow depths measured at bases 12A and 20 are lower than that measured at base 11A, based on the result from comparison of manual observations (Fig. 8a). Meanwhile, the snow depth sensors on bases 12A and 20 (11A) overestimate (underestimate) snow depth relative to the manual observations (Fig. 10a). Thus, the BEs of bases 20 and 11A are negative, as snow depths measured by the snow depth sensors on base 12A are larger than those measured by snow depth sensors on bases 20 and 11A.

When comparing each base, the instrumental uncertainties of each snow depth sensor on base 12A (2.08–3.08 cm) are the largest (Fig. 12b). The instrumental uncertainty of FEL (11A) (0.62 cm) is the smallest in the comparison among each snow depth sensor type. The average instrumental uncertainties of snow depth sensors of the same type are calculated as follows: SOM = 2.17, JEN = 1.86, SR50A = 1.84, FEL = 1.55 cm. The instrumental uncertainty of SOM is largest, and this could be due to the fact that the SOM reported the data in one centimeter resolution. These differences in instrumental uncertainties of snow depth sensors are significant, given the variations in snow depth across the site.

## 6 Summary and conclusion

This paper introduced a methodology for assessing the global uncertainty of instruments measuring snow depth using statistical measures and error propagation analysis. The standard statistics such as BE (NBE), MAE (NMAE), RMSE (NRMSE), and BRRMSE (NBRRMSE) are calculated in statistical measures. The BEs of manual snow depth measurements indicate the spatial distribution of snow depth on the CARE site. In addition, those computed in the comparison between manual and automatic snow depth measurements provide information about the systematic bias of each snow depth sensor. For error propagation analysis, the matrix is created from measurement pairs

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5 surements for similar sensors would include the differences in the accumulation due to topography, wind influence, etc. Additionally, the accuracy of measurement of the initial distance between the sensing element and the ground is critical, as is the ability to maintain this distance throughout operations. This is best illustrated by the uncertainty of measurement calculated for periods of time with no snow on the ground, before and after the snow season. The stability of the configuration would influence the ability to derive accurate snow depth measurements.

10 The second category of factors is related to how the sensor data is sampled and treated. All snow depth sensors tested at the CARE site have their own internal data processing algorithms and report data based on their own internal processing of multiple raw samples. These sensors also output signal quality indicators, reflective of the interpretation of the returned raw signals, as processed by the internal sensor algorithms. Some manufacturers provide recommendations on the approaches for data filtering.

15 The QC methodology reported in this paper has not taken into account the specific approaches recommended by manufacturers, focusing on testing generic approaches. Additional analysis of uncertainty of measurement and error propagation using more advanced data quality controlled will be included in the SPICE work.

20 The proposed methodology for assessing the uncertainty of measurement of automatic sensors is an effective tool to quantify and compare the ability to measure of various sensors, and SPICE will further investigate its use at various time scales and in different conditions, to develop recommendations on how to characterize the quality of measurements of automatic measurements, in general.

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**Table 1.** General characteristics of snow depth sensors. The L,  $\varphi$ , W, and H represent length, diameter, width, and height.

	FEL	SOM	SR50A	JEN
Range of measurement (m)	0.43–6.10	0.00–8.00	0.50–10.0	0.00–15.0
Power requirements (VDC)	8–24	5–10	9–18	10–30
Maximum current (mA)	80	200	250	–
Operating temperature (°C)	–40–85	–35–60	–45–50	–40–50
Dimensions (cm)	L: 21.0 $\varphi$ : 13.0	L: 35.0 $\varphi$ : 11.0	L: 10.1 $\varphi$ : 7.60	L: 30.3 W: 13.0 H: 23.4
Weight (kg)	0.86	2.00	1.42	2.50
Resolution (mm)	–	1.00	0.25	1.00

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**Table 2.** BEs and uncertainties ( $\sigma_{\text{depth}}$ ) of manual snow depth measurements for all pairs, each base, and each snow depth target.

		BE	Uncertainty
All pairs		–	1.81
Base	12A	–	1.55
	20	–	1.52
	11A	–	1.50
Snow depth target	12A 1–4	0.00	1.56
	12A 5–8	0.91	1.05
	12A 9–12	3.31	1.15
	20 1–4	1.96	1.58
	20 5–8	1.97	1.34
	20 9–12	3.80	1.28
	11A 1–4	6.62	1.47
	11A 5–8	8.18	1.40
	11A 9–12	6.28	1.18

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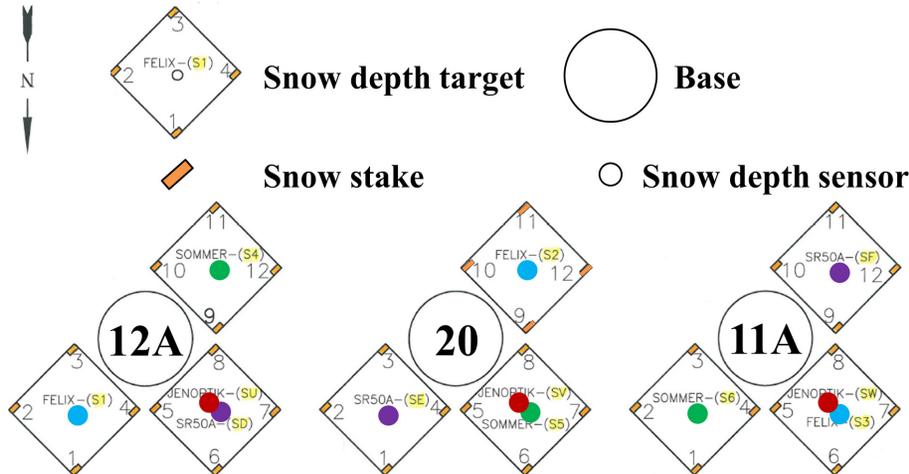
**Table 3.** BEs and NBRRMSEs of each snow depth sensor in comparison between manual observation and snow depth sensors.

Base	Snow depth sensor	BE	NBRRMSE
12A	FEL	9.72	16.5
	SR50A	10.8	12.9
	JEN	9.52	12.2
20	SOM	5.02	8.90
	SR50A	2.30	5.10
	SOM	2.25	6.20
	JEN	2.34	7.00
11A	FEL	3.07	5.70
	SOM	-4.87	10.8
	FEL	-4.08	8.20
	JEN	-5.21	9.80
	SR50A	-0.46	9.10

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**Figure 1.** Layout of snow depth measurement system at the CARE site during the 2013–2014 winter season. The large circles (squares) represent bases (snow depth targets). The orange rectangles and small circles indicate snow stakes and snow depth sensors, respectively (courtesy: Environment Canada).

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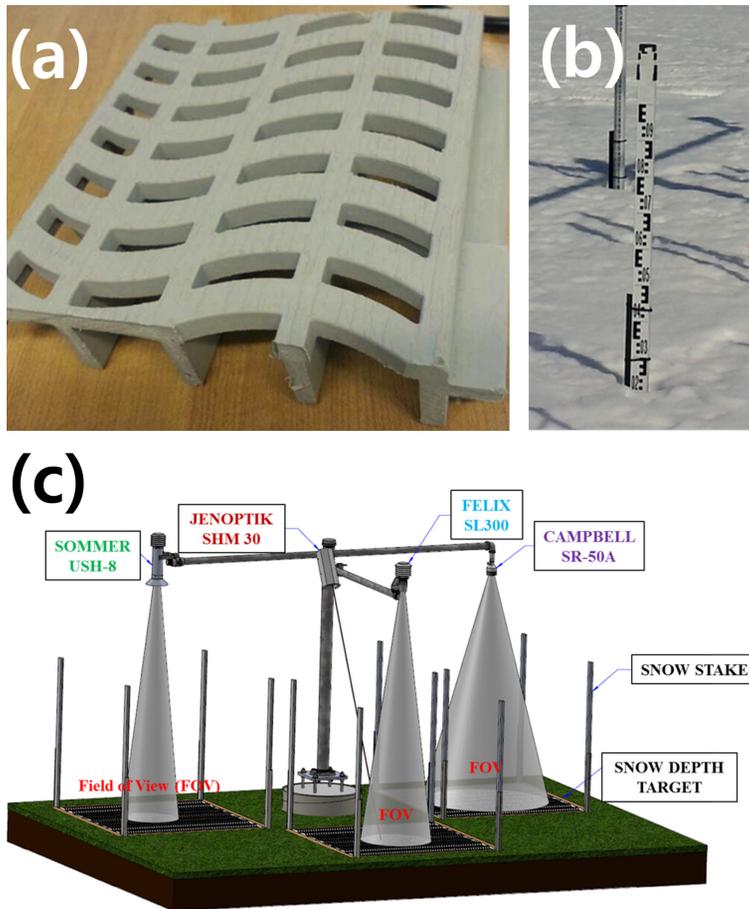
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**Figure 2.** Snow depth measurement system. (a) Grey plastic decking comprising snow depth target, (b) wooden snow stake, and (c) installation of snow depth sensors for base 11A (courtesy: Environment Canada).

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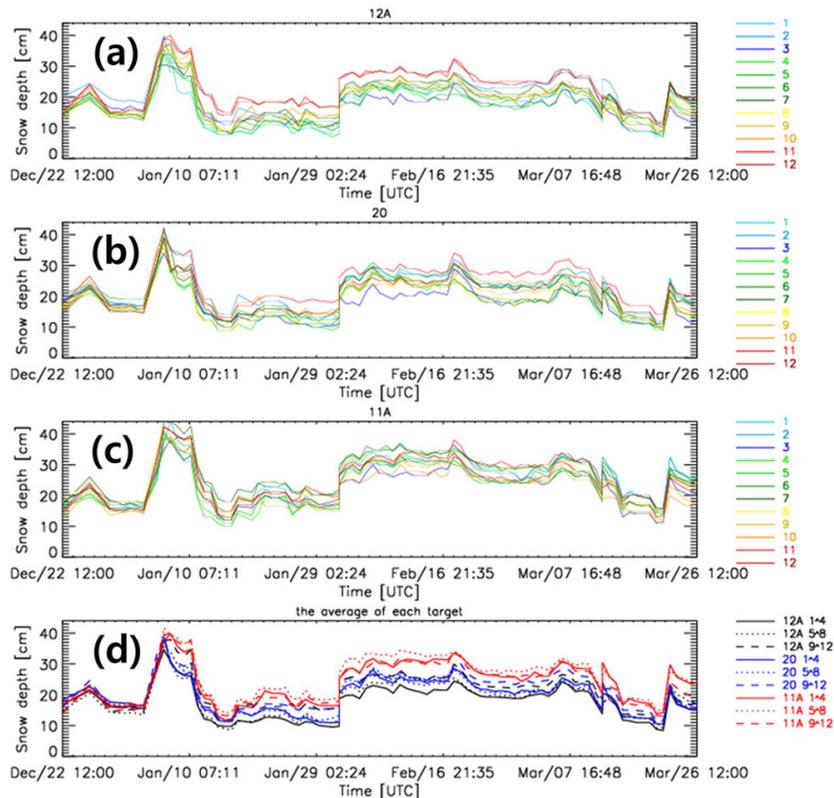
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**Figure 3.** Time series of snow depth from snow stakes on base (a) 12A, (b) 20, and (c) 11A from manual observations over the period from 22 December 2013 to 26 March 2014. The line colors indicate individual snow stakes. (d) Average snow depth of four snow stakes on same snow depth target. The line color indicates each base. The solid, dotted, and dashed lines represent average snow depth of stake numbers 1–4, 5–8 and 9–12 on the same snow depth target.



**Figure 4.** Photograph of the uneven snow deposition on the surface of snow depth targets.

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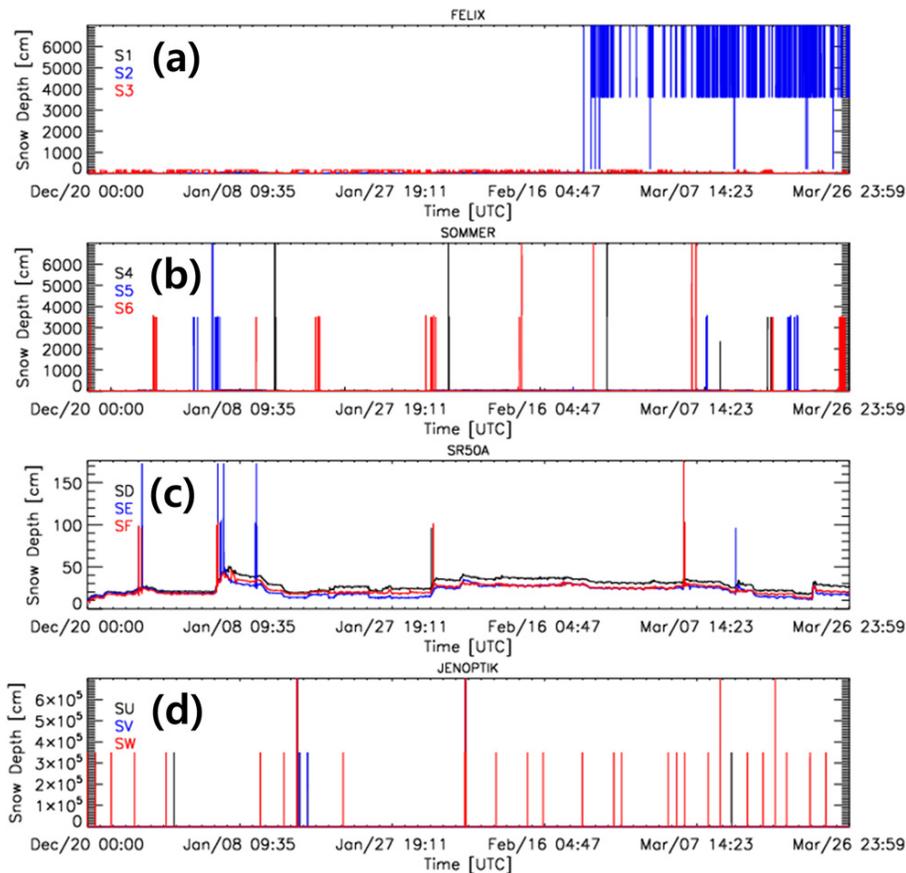
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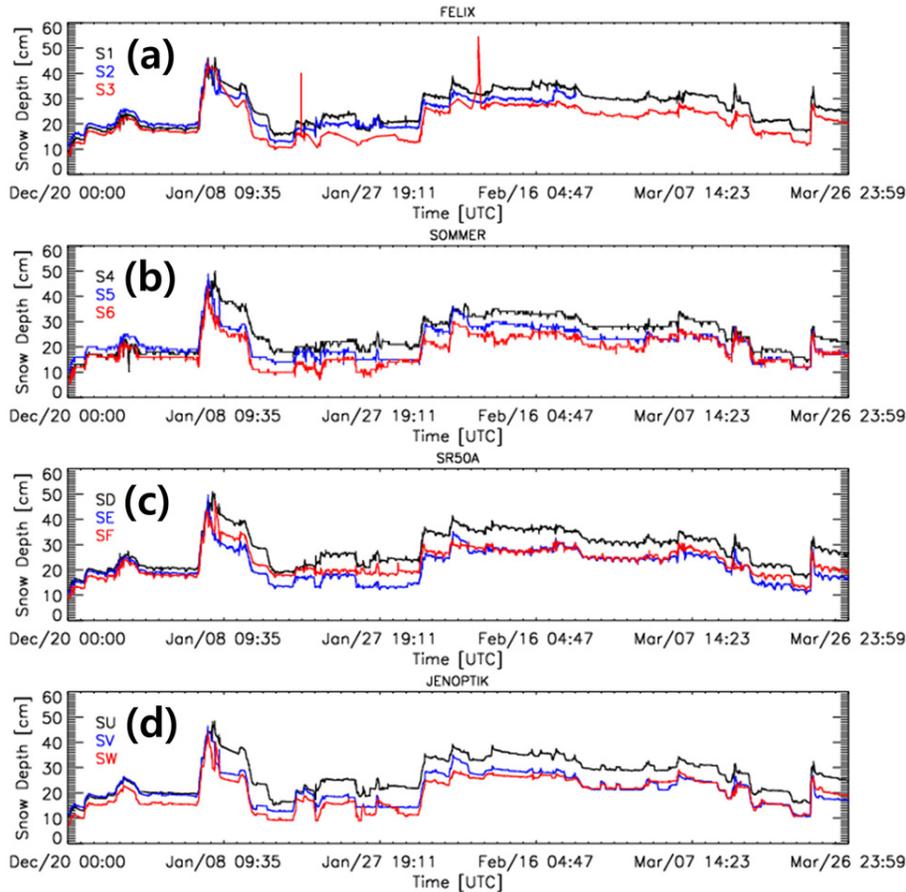


**Figure 5.** Time series of snow depth from (a) FEL, (b) SOM, (c) SR50A, and (d) JEN for the period from 20 December 2013 to 26 March 2014. The black color indicates sensors on base 12A. The blue color indicates sensors on base 20. Finally, the red color indicates sensors on base 11A.

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**Figure 6.** Same as in Fig. 5 except for data after applying the QC procedure described in Sect. 4.3.

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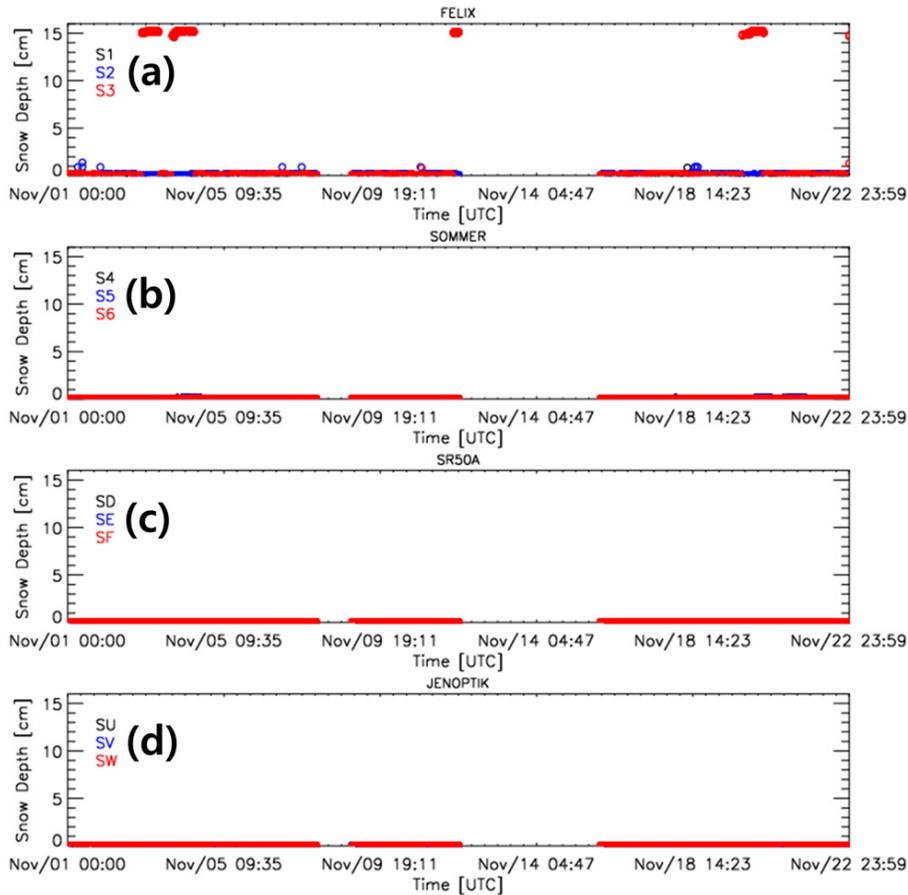
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**Figure 7.** Same as in Fig. 6 except for the events prior to snow accumulation. Snow was mostly not seen on the ground on 08 November 2013 and from 12 November 2013 to 15 November 2013.

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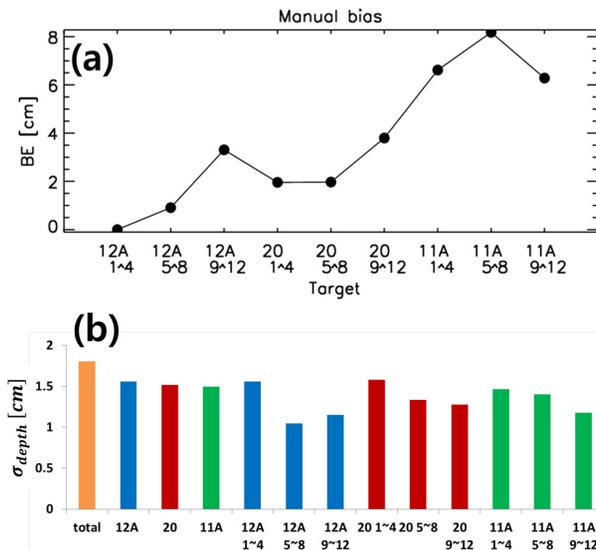
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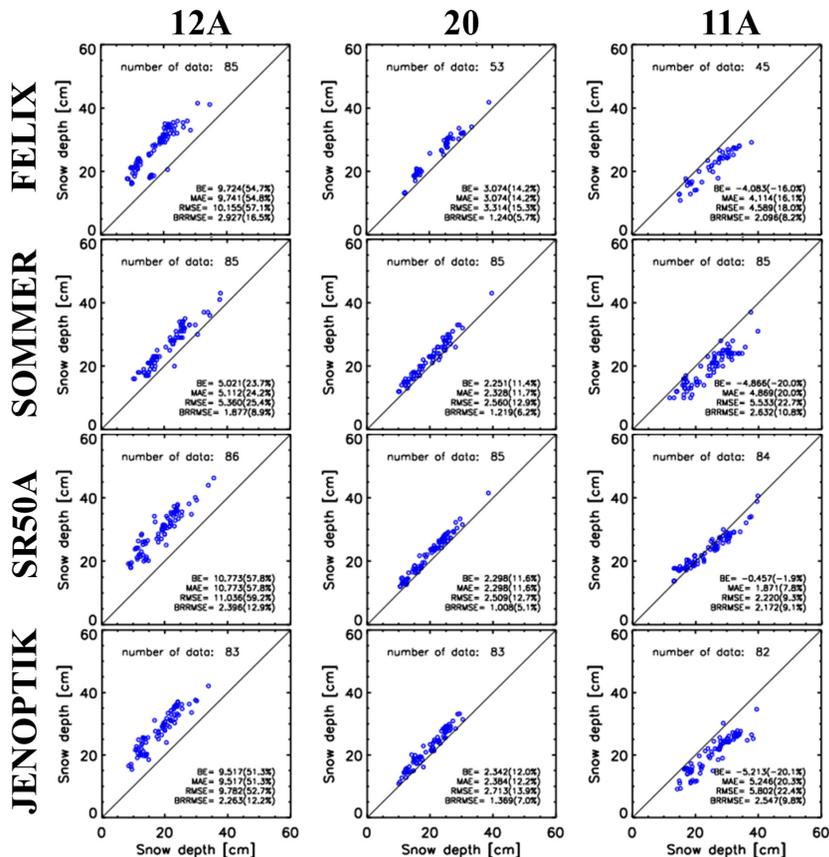
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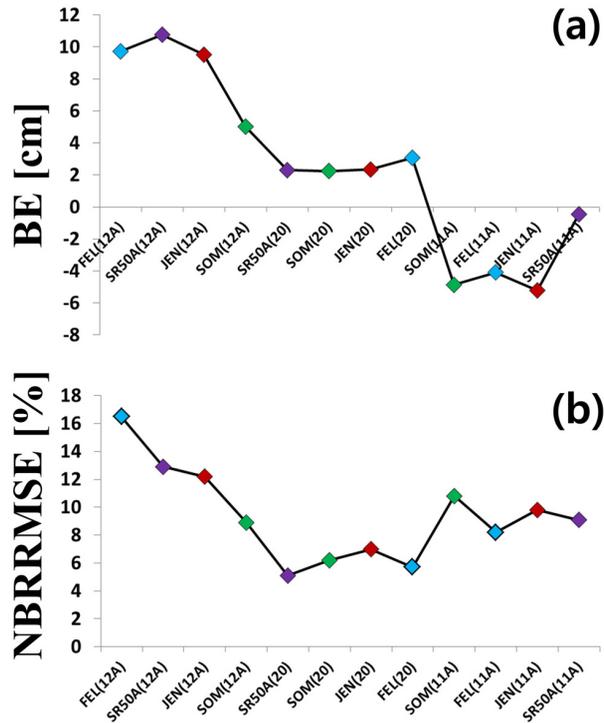
**Figure 8.** (a) BEs and (b) uncertainties of manual snow depth measurements. The BEs are calculated for each snow depth target. The orange bar represents the  $\sigma_{depth}$  for all pairs. The 2nd–4th (5th–13th) columns indicate the  $\sigma_{depth}$  for each base (snow depth target). The color of bars indicates the same base; the blue, red, and green bars represent  $\sigma_{depth}$  for bases 12A, 20, and 11A.

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**Figure 9.** Scatter plots of snow depth measured by automatic snow depth sensors (y axis) and average snow depth of manual observation (x axis) on bases 12A (left), 20 (middle), and 11A (right): FELIX (first column), SOMMER (second column), SR50A (third column), and JENOPTIK (fourth column). The values in brackets indicate the NBE, NMAE, NRMSE, and NBRMSE.



**Figure 10.** (a) BEs and (b) NBRMSEs of each snow depth sensor. The blue, purple, red, and green diamonds represent FEL, SR50A, JEN, and SOM.

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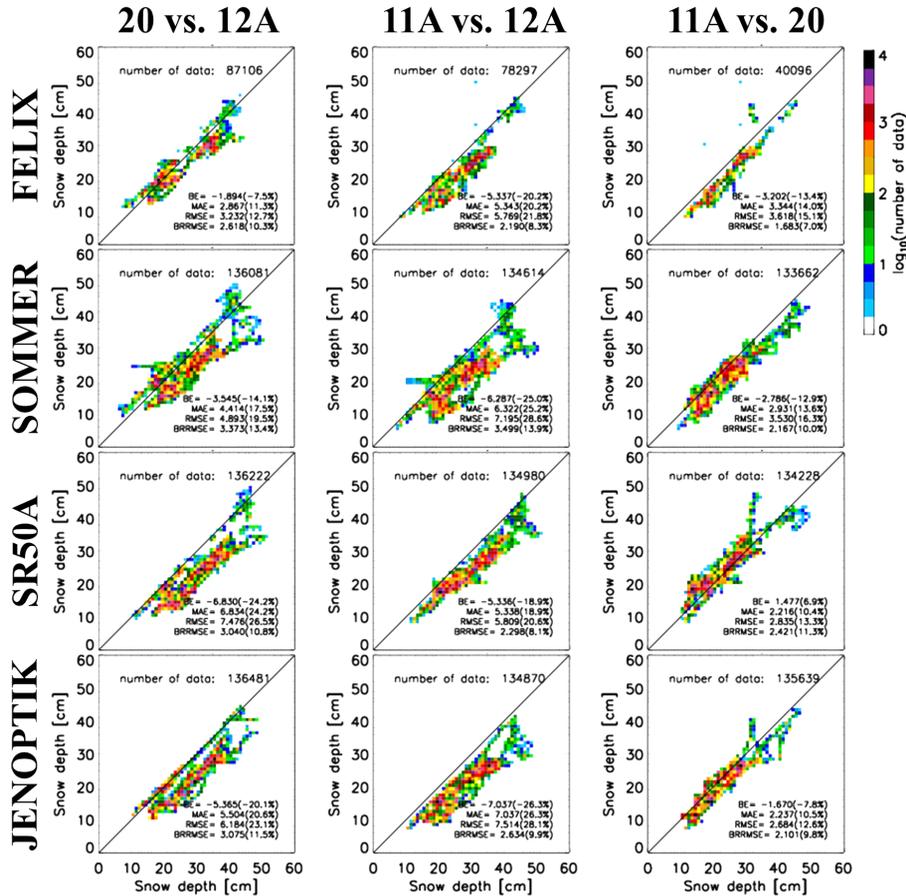
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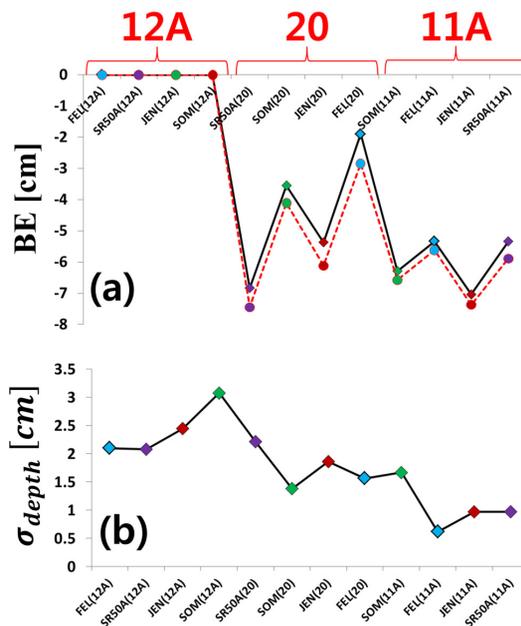


**Figure 11.** Scatter plots of snow depth measured by two snow depth sensors of the same type on bases 20 vs. 12A (left), 11A vs. 12A (middle), and 11A vs. 20 (right): FELIX (first column), SOMMER (second column), SR50A (third column), JENOPTIK (fourth column). The values in brackets indicate the NBE, NMAE, NRMSE, and NBRMSE.

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**Figure 12.** (a) BEs of each snow depth sensor. The diamonds (circles) are calculated by considering the snow depth sensors on base 12A as reference (the BEs in Figs. 8a and 10a are added and snow depth from snow depth sensor on base 12A are then used as reference). (b)  $\sigma_{\text{depth}}$  of each snow depth sensor. The blue, purple, red, and green diamonds indicate FEL, SR50A, JEN, and SOM.