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Assessing the predictive capability of several machine learning algorithms to forecast snow avalanches using numerical weather prediction model in eastern Canada.

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Abstract. Snow avalanches are a serious threat to traffic in the northern Gaspésie region. In this study, we look at the development of different forecasting models using machine learning (ML), based on snow avalanche events recorded by the MTMQ, meteorological data from the Cap-Madeleine station and Environment Canada weather forecast data. The models were trained and tested on *Train* and *Test* datasets with meteorological and weather forecasts recorded at the Meteorological Station. Unsupervised learning models were compared to expert models where only 4 variables were selected with avalanche expertise in mind, yielding similar results in prediction. The ML models were then tested in a realistic forecasting context over the year 2019 with weather data from a forecasting station (Hindcast) and with forecast data over 24h and 48h (GEMLAM 24h). The LR and RF models show that model performance can match or exceed that of current forecasting tools, enhancing hazard anticipation while maintaining a user-friendly framework suitable for real-time application. In conclusion, recommendations on forecast-based operational procedures are proposed.

1 Introduction

Every year, of the 1.5 million potentially fatal avalanches in Canada, 5% occur in areas inhabited or frequented by humans. They are the most fatal winter hazard in the country (Hétu et al., 2015; Stethem et al., 2003). Between 2003 and 2020, the Ministère des Transports et de la Mobilité Durable du Québec (MTMQ) recorded more than 600 avalanches and 17 road accidents caused by avalanches on the roads of the Gaspé Peninsula (Gauthier et al., 2022). Three people have been killed in road accidents caused by avalanches in this area (Fortin et al., 2011; Hétu, 2010; Hétu et al., 2011). Although the probability of an avalanche hitting a car or train directly remains relatively low (McClung, 1999), avalanches have a major socio-economic impact when major public transport routes are blocked by snow avalanche deposits, with the direct annual cost of highway closures exceeding 5 million Canadian dollars per year (Stethem et al., 2003; Jamieson and Stethem, 2002).

Since the start of the mass movement inventory program in 1987, MTMQ patrollers have been on the road around the clock (24 hours a day, 365 days a year) on the two roads (132 and 198) servicing the area. In the absence of an avalanche forecasting program, this reactive management approach needs to be supported by preventive management methods. There are various

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approaches to prevent snow avalanches on transportation corridors. The first is obviously to avoid the hazard by moving roads away from the spreading zone (e.g. Jaboyedoff and Labiouse, 2011; Michoud et al., 2012). In Gaspesia, slopes and avalanche paths have been mapped at various scales (Germain, 2006; Royer and Lemieux, 2006). In many places, the road cannot be relocated because it is wedged between the slopes and the St. Lawrence estuary. In the late 90s, protective berms were erected by the MTMQ to reduce the number of mass movements reaching the roads. Despite the effectiveness of these infrastructures in limiting the runout of rockfalls in summer, they are less effective in countering avalanche runout in mid-winter and spring when the berms are filled with windy, hardened snow (Gauthier et al., 2017).

The required quality of meteorological data needed to feed physical snow simulation models (e.g. Morin et al., 2020) restricted us to statistical avalanche forecasting approaches based on the analysis of avalanche and meteorological data. The first step in improving data-driven avalanche forecasting is to establish causal links between meteorological conditions and their occurrence (Ancey, 2006; Castebrunet et al., 2012; Durand et al., 1999; Germain, 2016; Jomelli et al., 2007). A wide variety of statistical approaches have been used to explain and predict avalanche occurrence (e.g. Perla, 1970; Bois et al., 1975; Buser, 1983; Hendrikx et al., 2014). On a seasonal scale, logistic regression (LR) has been used to establish relationships between winter weather conditions and very large avalanches (Hebertson and Jenkins, 2003; Jomelli et al., 2007). This type of analysis has rarely been used to support the development of operational statistical forecasting models on a daily scale (Jomelli et al., 2007; Gauthier et al., 2017). Classification trees (CT) were also used to predict avalanche days according to a series of criteria or trigger thresholds (Davis et al., 1999; Hendrikx et al., 2005, 2014; Peitzsch et al., 2012; Gauthier et al., 2018). The use of automated machine learning methods, such as neural networks (NN) or random forest (RF), is now more widely used to support the development of statistical avalanche forecasting models (e.g. Singh et al., 2005; Schirmer et al., 2009; Blagovechshenskiy et al., 2023). Recently, these more elaborate machine learning algorithms have been coupled with snow cover model outputs to predict avalanche danger level (Pérez-Guillén et al., 2022), wet avalanche activity (Hendrick et al., 2023), and dry-snow avalanche activity in the Alps (Mayer et al., 2023; Viallon-Galinier et al., 2023). While the implementation of snow cover models is promising, these types of machine learning methods have rarely been tested with numerical weather prediction data (NWP) or in an operational context. Yet, only one study tested the performance of 24-hour NWP to predict wet snow avalanche activity (Hendrick et al., 2023). Ultimately, the machine learning method used remains a choice on which there is no consensus and sometimes seems to follow the major trends of the moment. Very few studies have evaluated the advantages and disadvantages (Davis and Elder, 1994) or compared the performance of these various statistical and machine learning methods (Schirmer et al., 2009; Gauthier et al., 2017). Our study aims to train and test the performance of different forecasting models. We use four machine learning (ML) algorithms to predict avalanche days based on various meteorological variables. Our study also aims to evaluate and compare the predictive performance of each machine learning algorithm in an operational avalanche forecasting context using NWP data. We then discuss the link between the probability of an avalanche occurring and avalanche danger level, providing a more solid base for risk management operational procedures.

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2 Study area

The study area is located on the north shore of the Gaspé Peninsula, between the towns of Sainte-Anne-des-Monts and Manche d'Épée (Figure 1). For almost its entire length (80 km), road 132 is hemmed in between the shoreline of the St. Lawrence estuary and the steep slopes that form the coastal escarpment, with all slopes facing north (0° ± 45°). According to Hétu (2010), Fortin et al. (2011) and Gauthier et al. (2017), slopes conducive to snow avalanches can be classified into three groups: 1) scree slopes below rock faces; 2) forest corridors; and 3) sparsely forested slopes. Along road 132, the majority of avalanches start from talus slopes. This is the case, for example, on section 100 west and east of Mont-Saint-Pierre (Figure 1ab) and on sections 120 and 130 between Gros-Morne and Manche d'Épée (Figure 1c). In some places, avalanches originate from heavy snow accumulations in landslide scars that form corridors in the forest canopy (Figure 1d). The lower slope was truncated over a distance of almost two kilometers to allow the road to be built. The steepened slopes form a convexity that increases the instability of the snowpack (McClung and Schaerer, 2006).

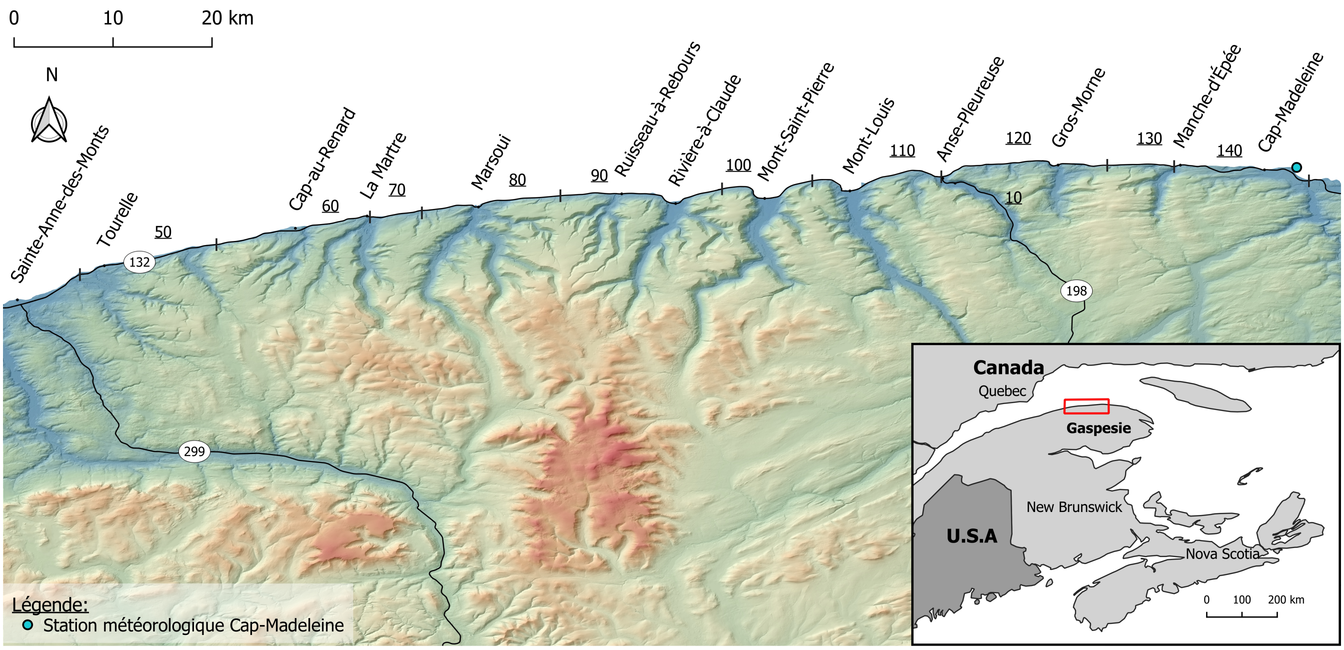

Figure 1. Location of study area and Cap-Madeleine weather station. Underlined numbers are sections of road 132.

The region is characterized by a humid continental climate with short, cool summers. The average annual temperature is 3.2 °C, with the hottest month averaging 16.5 °C (July) and the coldest month averaging -11.6 °C (January). Average annual precipitation is 864 mm, 28 % of which falls as snow (Environment Canada, 2022). The region's winter climate is characterized by an alternation of contrasting weather conditions: 1) continental lows originating from the North American Cordillera (Colorado and Alberta) or maritime lows originating from the Gulf of Mexico, accompanied by strong northeasterly

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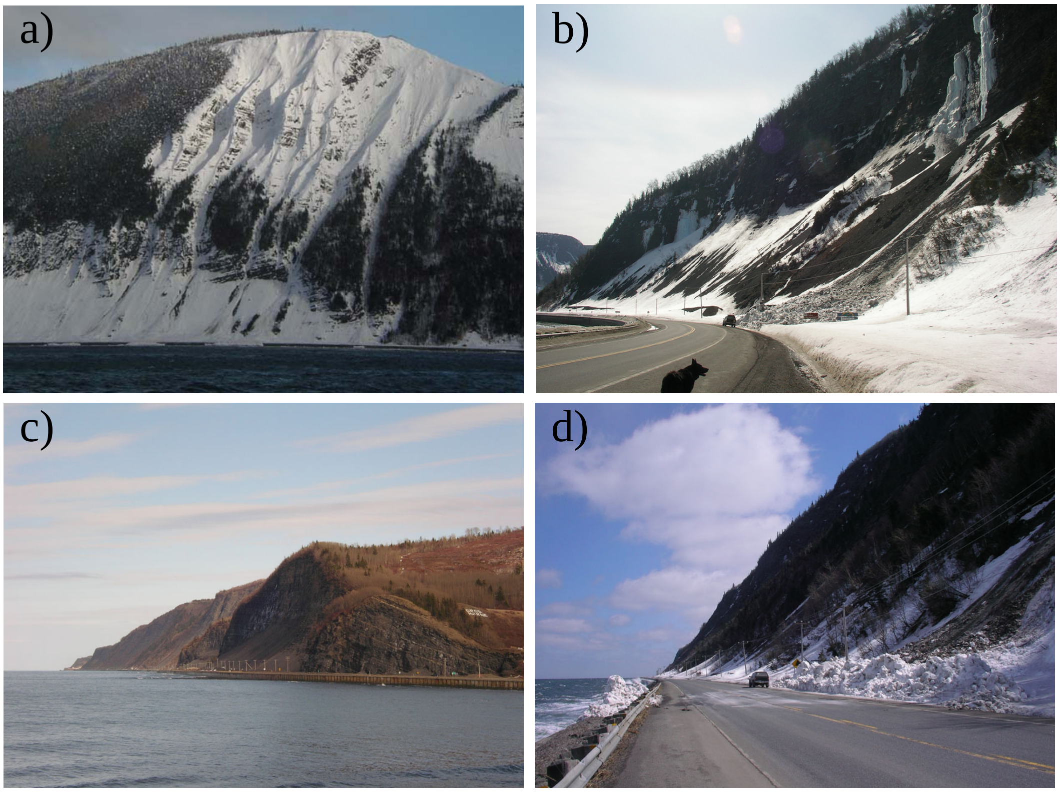

Figure 2. View of avalanche slopes along road 132 east (a) and west (b) of Mont-Saint-Pierre (section 10), along road 132 east of Gros-Morne (sections 120 and 130) (c and d).

winds (> 60 km/h), both bringing significant snow accumulations of up to 100 cm in 48 hours; 2) arctic air masses with strong northwesterly winds and temperatures below -20 °C; and 3) warm air masses (> 0 °C) from the southern United States, sometimes accompanied by rain (Meloche, 2019; Gauthier et al., 2017; Fortin and Hétu, 2009, 2014).

The North-Gaspésian climatic context is particularly conducive to storm avalanches and wet snow avalanches (Hétu, 2010; Fortin et al., 2011; Gauthier et al., 2017, 2018). Between 1987 and 2020, 861 snow avalanches spread over 153 event days were recorded by the MTMQ on road 132 (Figure 1). Considering that merlons were built during the 90s to limit the runout of rockfalls, ice-block falls, and avalanches, it is unlikely that any avalanches reached the road in 10 out of 17 years before winter 2003-2004. From then on, the survey seems more regular and representative of the observations made in the field by Avalanche Québec technicians.

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80 **2.1 Data and Methods**

3 Data and Methods

Four supervised machine learning (ML) methods were used and compared to develop a snow avalanche forecasting tool (event data) using different predictors (meteorological variables): logistic regression (LR), classification trees (CT), random forests (RF) and neural networks (NN) (Figure 3).

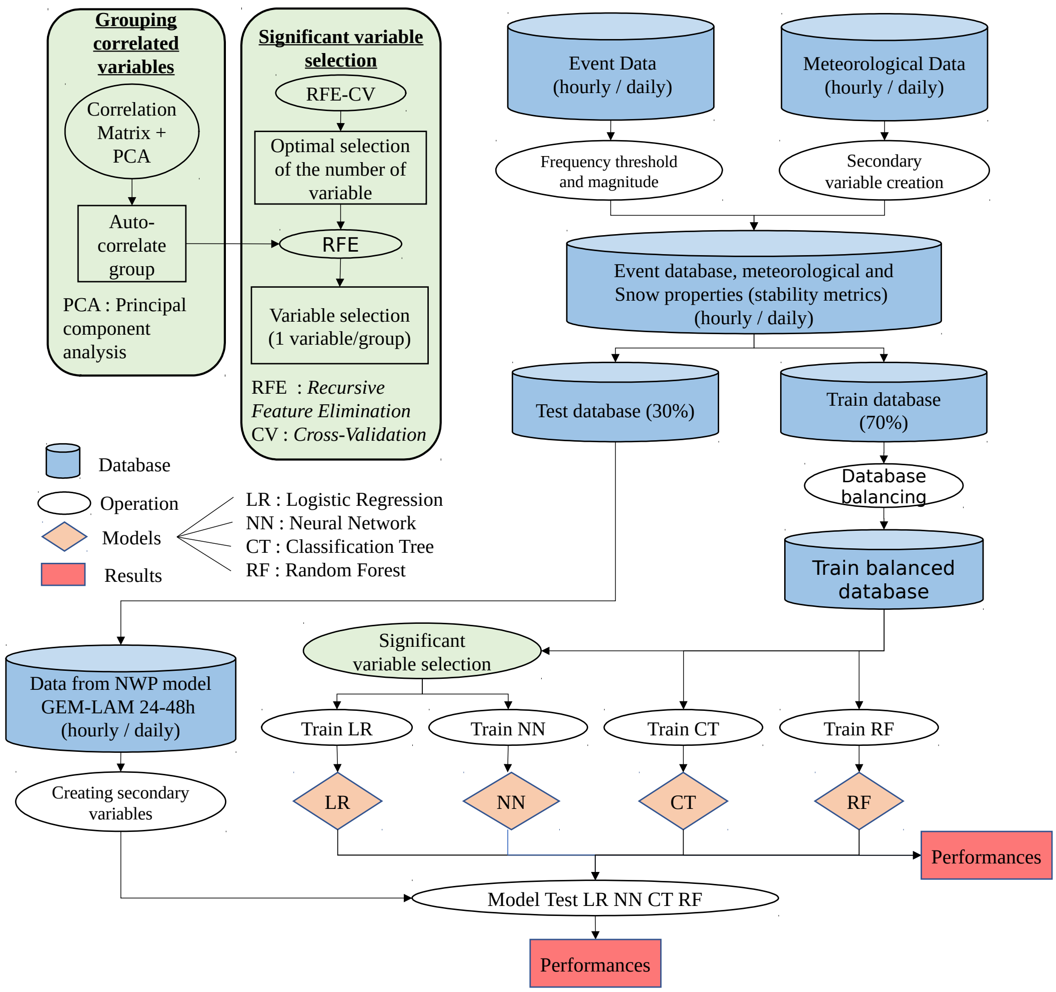

Figure 3. Flow chart of the method used to build the machine learning models from avalanche event dataset, meteorological dataset and the dataset from numerical weather prediction NWP (GEMLAM 24-48h.

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3.1 Avalanche event dataset

The avalanche event database used in this study records all snow avalanche events from the winter 2003-2004 to 2019-2020. The dataset also contains the daily number of snow removal interventions on the road, the avalanche corridor, whether or not the road was reached and the distance travelled (ditch, shoulder, 1 lane, 2 lanes). However, the majority of these observations of avalanches were on the slope and have not reached the road and required intervention. Therefore, for a day to be considered an event, a snow avalanche must have reached the road (shoulder, 1 lane or 2 lanes). Observations of avalanche deposition in the ditch or on the slopes were not included in the analyses. A binary event day variable (E_{AVA}) was created for days where avalanches reached the road (Table 1). If more than one avalanche reached the road, duplicate event days were added to the dataset with the following weight of 1, 2, 3 or 4 with respectively one intervention, two to five interventions, 6 to 9 interventions and 10 or more interventions (Table 1). For example, if there were 50 days where avalanches reached the road, and one of those days involved 10 separate interventions (avalanches), the resulting number of avalanche days would be 54. The duplicate avalanche days will have the same weather variables, enabling us to add more weight on the most problematic event days when multiple avalanches had affected the road. Finally, in order to get a symmetric binomial distribution and avoid over-representation of days where no avalanche was observed, the same number of days were randomly selected where avalanches were not observed on the road. If we go back to our previous example, the total number of days will be 108 days, with 54 avalanche days and 54 no-avalanche days.

Table 1. Description of the event variable tested.

Event variable	**Conditions**
Variable E_{AVA}	– 1 intervention per day → weight of 1 – 2 to 5 interventions per day → weight of 2 – 6 to 9 interventions per day → weight of 3 – 10 interventions per day and + → weight of 4

3.2 Avalanche danger level dataset

To go along with the avalanche event dataset, Avalanche Quebec issued avalanche danger levels along road 132 from 2015 to 2020. The danger level for the road was adapted from the five levels danger scale of North America (Statham et al., 2010), to four danger levels (level 4 and 5 combined) (Table 2. From this scale, the cutoff between an avalanche occurrence on the road is at the *Considerable* level where small avalanches are expected on the roads, followed by the *High* level with multiple small or big avalanches on the road. The *Moderate* level is characterized by a possibility of small avalanche activity but not reaching the road, followed by a *Low* danger level where avalanche activity is unlikely. Based on this cutoff, we assigned four probability

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ranges to the four danger levels in relation to the expected avalanche occurrences from the danger scale of Avalanche Quebec (Table 2). Because of the binary nature of the event variable E_{AVA}, the probability to predict such an event will be above 50%. It is thus logical to assign the Considerate level at 50% probability, where small avalanches are expected to reach the road (Table 2). The assigned probability to each danger level will enable a comparison with ML algorithm probability and the Avalanche Quebec forecasted danger level, as well as with the avalanche event dataset.

Table 2. Avalanche danger level for transportation corridor in northern Gaspésie with associated the model probability and expected avalanches occurrences.

Danger level	Model probability	Expected avalanches
Low	> 25 %	No avalanches and/or unlikely small avalanches outside the road.
Moderate	25-50 %	Possible small avalanches outside the road and/or unlikely big avalanches outside the road.
Considerable	50-75 %	Possible small avalanches on the road and/or big avalanches possible outside the road.
High or Extreme	< 75 %	Multiples small avalanches likely on the road and/or big avalanches likely on the road.

3.3 Meteorological data

The independent variables provided as input to the ML models were derived from daily meteorological data recorded at the Cap-Madeleine station: air temperature (°C), wind speed (km/h) and direction (°), precipitation (mm) and relative humidity (%). These were used to produce 88 direct, cumulative, and derived meteorological variables (Table 3).

Mean (Tmean), minimum (Tmin) and maximum (Tmax) air temperatures were calculated over periods of 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 hours. Daily mean (Tmean), minimum (Tmin) and maximum (Tmax) temperatures from the previous and up to three previous days were also considered and noted for example: Tmean_-1d. Tmin and Tmax (4h/24, 8h/24, 12h/24, 4h/48, 8h/48, 12h/48) are the minimum and maximum temperatures calculated over moving averages of 4, 8 and 12 hours over periods of 24 and 48 hours. Thawing degree-days are defined as the sum of daily mean temperatures (Tmean_24h) with a minimum limit value set at 0 °C (Gauthier et al., 2015). The calculation of degree-days begins at the start of the operational season as defined later in the section. Frost intensity (Int_frost) is equal to Tmin_24h when Tmax of the previous day is positive and Tmin of the current day is negative. Thaw intensity (Int_thaw) is equal to Tmax_24h when Tmin of the previous day is negative and Tmax of the current day is positive. Thermal amplitude (DTR_d) is the difference between the daily maximum and minimum temperatures up to three days before the current day.

Rain and snow correspond to precipitation when air temperature is above and below 0°C respectively. They were accumulated over periods of 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 hours. Hourly rain and snow intensities were calculated for different time blocks: 1h/24, 4h/24, 8h/24, 12h/24, 24h/24, 1h/48, 4h/48, 8h/48, 12h/48, 24h/48, 48h/48, 72h/72, 96h/96, 120h/120. Aver-

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age (WV_mean) and maximum (WV_gust_max) wind velocity (km/h) and maximum wind gust direction (WV_gust_max) (°) were defined for each 24-hour period. Finally, the SnowDriftIndex is an important variable representing the potential amount of snow transported by the wind (Hendrikx et al., 2014; Pomeroy, 1989). The index is equal to the product of the cube WV_mean multiplied by the accumulated snow. The index was calculated for periods of 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 hours. The threshold for the solid and liquid precipitation phase was set at 1°C for the calculation of the SnowDriftIndex (Pomeroy, 1989).

The condition used to determine the start of the snow avalanche season is based on the amount of snow required to fill the merlons, which is set at 50 mm of snow water equivalent (SWE), following the study of Gauthier et al. (2017). Since 2003-2004, no avalanches have been observed on the road before this threshold was reached. The only “exception” is an avalanche that terminated on the shoulder after 30 mm SWE in November 2019. The season ends on April 15 with the end of Avalanche Québec’s operating season. Only nine avalanches have been observed after this date since 2004. However, none of these avalanches have been observed over the five years of the Test BD. These limits were used to establish the temporal extent of the BD used to test the models. To train the models, we used the entire data set, starting and ending the season with the first and last avalanches recorded on the road.

3.4 Learning procedure

The challenge in developing a good predictive model is to strike a balance between selecting a minimum number of non-redundant explanatory variables and maintaining an optimal level of performance. Principal component analysis (PCA) and cross-correlations (correlation matrix) were used to group variables that showed colinearity. Based on the results of these analyses and our understanding of the physics of snow avalanche development mechanisms (e.g. Lehning et al., 1999; McClung and Schaerer, 2006), seven groups of variables were defined (Table 3). Thus, only one variable per correlated group can be used by the different ML models.

The next step is to divide the daily event and weather dataset into training (Train) and validation (Test) datasets (Figure 3). Nguyen et al. (2021) have shown that a ratio of 70/30 gives the best performance. This approach aims to train the models on a portion of the data with the aim of identifying the best meteorological variables capable of explaining the occurrence of snow avalanches, and then test the model in a predictive context (Kotsiantis, 2007). The years used to train the model and those to test it were selected according to the years of avalanche forecasts on roads 132 by Avalanche Québec (AvQ). Thus, the Train dataset covers 10 winters between 2003-2004 and 2012-2013. The models were then tested over AvQ’s last five winters of operation: 2015-2016, 2016-2017, 2017-2018, 2018-2019, 2019-2020. This selection of winters will enable us to compare the model performance with traditional methods used by professional avalanche forecasters.

Then, the training dataset was balanced to contain as many events as non-events. This practice avoids prioritizing one dependent variable over another. To achieve this, we randomly selected the same number of non-event days as event days for each month in the training database. This operation was repeated 50 times for the four proposed ML methods. The performance of the 200 models generated was then tested on the Test dataset to select the best performers.

Finally, some ML algorithms such as LR and NN require explanatory variables to be pre-selected to avoid colinearity between variables. A recursive feature elimination with cross-validation (RFE-CV) method was first used to reduce the total

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Table 3. Meteorological variables with their abbreviation (abbr), followed by their description. The colors represent the different weather variables groups and the different shades within these groups represent variables that are auto-correlated.

Meteorological variables (abbr)	Description
Tmean, Tmin, Tmax (24h, 48h, 72h, 96h, 120h)	Temperature mean, min and max over 24h, 48h, 72h, 96h, 120h (°C)
Tmean, Tmin, Tmax (-1d, -2d, -3d)	Temperature mean, min and max over 24h minus 1 day, 2 days, 3 days(°C)
Tmin, Tmax (4h/24, 8h/24, 12h/24, 4h/48, 8h/48, 12h/48)	Temperature min and max over 4h/24, 8h/24, 12h/24, 4h/48, 8h/48, 12h/48 (°C)
DD	Degrees-days of thaw (°C)
Int_frost, Int_thaw	Intensity of frost or thaw between actual day and the day prior (°C)
DTR (d, d-1, d-2, d-3)	daily thermal amplitude and until 3 days (°C)
Rain (24h, 48h, 72h, 96h, 120h)	Rainfall over 24, 48, 72, 96 et 120h (mm)
Int_rain (1h, 1h-2, 1h-3)	Hourly rain intensity (mm/h)
N_snow (24h)	Snowfall over 24 et 48h (mm)
N_hr_snow (1h, 1h-2, 1h-3)	Hourly snow intensity (mm/h)
N_snow (72h, 96h, 120h)	Snowfall over 72, 96 et 120h mm)
WV, WV_gust_max (24h)	Wind velocity mean and max over 24h (km/h)
SnowDriftindex (24h, 48h, 72h, 96h, 120h)	Snow drift index 24, 48, 72, 96 et 120h
WD_gust_max (24h)	Wind direction of the max gust over 24h (°)

number of variables. RFE-CV enables the selection of a minimal number of variables while maintaining an optimal level of performance (Dormann et al., 2013). Then, recursive feature elimination (RFE) was applied to this pre-selection to remove the remaining colinearity. As a result, only one variable per correlated group (Table 3) can be retained as an input to the model. Finally, the RFE-CV and RFE must be based on an ML method for calculating and comparing the importance of variables (FI for feature importance) in relation to each other. It is recommended to use a different ML method from those considered for model development (Midi et al., 2010). RFs were used to establish the importance of variables since they are less affected by the presence of multicolinearity, and this pre-selection step is mainly applied to LR and NN.

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3.4.1 Expert model and Numerical weather prediction

The variables selected by ML models can sometimes appear daunting and not relatable in an operational avalanche management context. In addition, some of them may become outliers or present a high degree of uncertainty when calculated from numerical weather prediction (NWP). However, the numerical weather prediction offers a unique opportunity to use these ML models as operational forecasting tools for risk management along transportation corridors. It is in this context of snow avalanches operational forecasting that expert models are proposed. The variables used in these expert models were selected following two steps : 1) the redundancy of the most important variables as determined by the four ML algorithms (Table A1), and 2) our understanding of their influences on the development of instabilities in the snowpack and the triggering of avalanches (i.e. Gauthier et al., 2017). The expert models were trained and then tested on the *Train* and *Test* datasets with meteorological data from the Cap-Madeleine station. They were then tested against the avalanche forecasts of Avalanche Québec over the year 2019 with weather data from the Cap-Madeleine station (Hindcast).

To assess the predictive capability 24h in advance of ML models with NWP, we used the Canadian HRDPS (High Resolution Deterministic Prediction System) based on the Regional Deterministic Prediction System (RDPS) configuration of the 5.0.2 version of the Global Environmental Multiscale model (GEM5) (McTaggart-Cowan et al., 2019; Girard et al., 2014). The expert model trained on the meteorological data from the Cap-Madeleine station was tested using the HRDPS weather forecast data over 24h (GEMLAM 24h) and 48h (GEMLAM 48h). GEMLAM data with a spatial resolution of 2.5 km were acquired for a tile centered on the Cap-Madeleine station.

3.4.2 Logistic regression (LR)

LR relies on a logistic function to calculate the probability of occurrence of an event (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). It is a statistic that does not tolerate multicolinearity well, and requires a reduction in the number of variables provided as input to achieve good performance (Midi et al., 2010). A scaling of meteorological variables was also carried out when training the LRs to avoid problems of over- or under-representation of the latter in the models (Menard, 2011).

3.4.3 Tree classification (TC)

TCs take the form of a tree whose nodes refer to a logical function or decision threshold (branch). They can be easily used as decision diagrams, hence their reputation as a simple and effective tool for operational hazard management (e.g. Hendrikx et al., 2014). Various classification algorithms can be used to divide the nodes. In our case, the Gini index represents the function best suited to dividing binary variables (e.g. Hendrikx et al., 2014). Unlike other ML algorithms, CAs are not affected by the use of outliers or collinear variables (Mendeş and Akkartal, 2009), allowing them to manage the selection of significant variables themselves. Overlearning on training data is a frequent problem with this algorithm. The best way to counter it is to limit tree growth with pre-pruning methods (Kotsiantis, 2007). We have limited tree growth to three levels to maintain optimal performance with a limited number of predictors.

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3.4.4 Random forests (RF)

RFs are composed of a set of classification (decision) trees. Each tree is trained with different groups of randomly established variables (bootstrap), enabling the use of collinear variables (Ma et al., 2021; Revuelto et al., 2020; Strobl et al., 2008). For each prediction, each tree in the forest decides on a class, and the one predicted by the majority of all trees wins. The use of a large number of trees (ntree) generally improves model performance, but also significantly increases processing time (Hasan et al., 2016; Yoo et al., 2012). Hasan et al. (2016) and Couronné et al. (2018) mention that a few hundred trees (e.g.: 500) are usually sufficient and that a larger tree only increases processing time. They are fast and easy to use, with good tolerance of outliers and noise in the data (Breiman, 2001). On the other hand, overlearning on training data is also a frequent problem with this algorithm.

3.4.5 Neural network (NN)

NNs are composed of several layers of neurons in which data is processed. The type of NN used here is the multilayer perceptron (MLP) with a non-linear activation function similar to a logistic function. Like LR, NNs have the advantage of non-linear variable preselection (Kavzoglu and Mather, 2002) and scaling of meteorological variables.

3.4.6 Performance indicators

The various metrics used to assess model performance are based on the count of events and non-events correctly predicted or not, as defined in the confusion matrix (Table 4). The probability of non-event detection (PON) is a relevant indicator for assessing the model's performance in predicting non-event days, which generally represent the majority of days in a year. However, the objective is generally to maximize the number of events predicted (Precision or True Positive Rate TPR) while minimizing false alarms (False Alarm Rate FAR or False Positive Rate FPR). Improvement in one often leads to deterioration in the other. The aim is to find the best compromise between the number of detections (motorist safety) and false alarms (additional operating costs). The Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) and the F_1 make it possible to establish a relationship between predicted events (Prec or TPR) and false alarms (FPR or FAR). The ROC is a graphical representation that relates TPR and FPR, but the area under the curve (AUC) of this relationship (ROC) incorporates a single value that facilitates the comparison of overall model performance. The work of Saito and Rehmsmeier (2015) informs us that the use of AUC-ROC as a performance indicator should be employed with caution on unbalanced datasets. In the present case, the dataset used to test the models and select the best model generated after the 50 iterations contains a much greater number of non-events than events. In this case, the AUC of the ROC will be biased by the high value of predicted non-events included in the RPF calculation. The F_1 is the relationship between PREC and TPR (Table 5). F_1 is the most widely used indicator for finding the model allowing the best compromise between these two metrics for unbalanced datasets (He and Ma, 2013). When F_1 was equal for two models, we suggest prioritizing the one with the best PREC to limit false alarms.

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Table 4. Confusion Matrix with True negative TN, False negative FN, False alarm FP and True positive TP.

		Observations	
		Non-occurred	**Occurred**
Predictions	**Non-occurred**	TN: Predicted non-event	FN: Non-predicted event
	Occurred	FP: False alarm	TP: Predicted event

Table 5. Performance metrics with their respective formula from the confusion matrix.

Performance metrics	**Formula**
Precision (PREC)	$\frac{\mathrm{TP}}{(\mathrm{TP}+\mathrm{FP})}$
True positive rate (TPR)	$\frac{\mathrm{TP}}{(\mathrm{FN}+\mathrm{TP})}$
Probability non-event (PON)	$\frac{\mathrm{TN}}{(\mathrm{TN}+\mathrm{FP})}$
False positive rate (FPR)	$\frac{\mathrm{FP}}{(\mathrm{FP}+\mathrm{TN})}$
False alarm rate (FAR)	$\frac{\mathrm{FP}}{(\mathrm{FP}+\mathrm{TP})}$
$\mathbf{F_1}$	$\frac{2\cdot(\mathrm{PREC}\cdot\mathrm{TPR})}{(\mathrm{PREC}+\mathrm{TPR})}$
ROC(AUC)	TPR vs FPR

4 Results

Since the aim is to compare the performance of the four ML methods, expert model, and the predictive capability using high resolution NWP, we first present the performance indicators and selected variables for the training (Train) and the validation (Test) dataset for each of the four ML methods. The variables used by the RFs are not shown, since the model uses all the predictor variables. In the subsequent section 4.2, we present the performance indicators for the expert models using the entire dataset,and a hindcast for the winter 2018-2019 using weather station and numerical weather prediction for 24 and 48h in advance (GEMLAM 24-48).

4.1 Training models

The best model was selected by the highest F_1 score and the corresponding highest score of ROC(AUC) if needed. For the hindcast of snow avalanches on road 132, CT is the best algorithm, followed very closely by NN, with F_1 values of 0.41 and 0.40 respectively. With 28 well-predicted events out of 32 (TPR of 0.88), NN has a better event detection capability than CT,

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which predicted 22 (TPR of 0.69). The NN prioritizes event detection over false alarms (FPR of 0.18), while the opposite logic applies to the CT, which has a lower false alarm rate (FPR of 0.12).

Table 6. Results and performance indicators for road 132. In bold, the best F_1 score and ROC(AUC) for the *Test*dataset.

ML	Dataset	Matrice		Performance indicators							Variables
		TN	FN	PREC	TPR	PON	FPR	FAR	F_1	ROC(AUC)	
		FP	TP								
LR	Train	48	18	0.89	0.88	0.75	0.25	0.11	0.88	0.81	Int_snow_8h/24h Tmax_12h/24h Snowdrift_24h Snow_72h
		16	127								
	Train non double	48	13	0.78	0.81	0.75	0.25	0.22	0.80	0.78	
		16	57								
	Test	356	4	0.24	0.88	0.80	0.20	0.76	0.37	0.84	
		91	38								
CT	Train	58	34	0.95	0.77	0.91	0.09	0.05	0.85	0.84	Snowdrift_24h Tmean_48h Tmean_72h
		6	111								
	Train non double	58	20	0.89	0.71	0.91	0.09	0.11	0.79	0.81	
		6	50								
	Test	393	10	0.29	0.69	0.88	0.12	0.71	**0.41**	0.78	
		54	22								
RF	Train	63	6	0.99	0.96	0.98	0.02	0.01	0.98	0.97	Int_snow_12h/24h Int_snow_8h/24h Snow_120h [...]
		1	139								
	Train non double	63	6	0.98	0.96	0.98	0.02	0.02	0.95	0.95	
		1	64								
	Test	377	7	0.26	0.78	0.84	0.16	0.74	0.39	0.81	
		70	25								
NN	Train	49	20	0.89	0.86	0.77	0.23	0.11	0.88	0.81	Int_snow_8h/24h Snow_72h Tmax_12h/24h Snowdrift_24h
		15	125								
	Train non double	49	15	0.79	0.79	0.77	0.23	0.21	0.79	0.78	
		15	55								
	Test	366	4	0.26	0.88	0.82	0.18	0.74	0.40	**0.85**	
		81	38								

Maximum snow intensities 12/24 or 8/24 hours (Int_snow) are the most redundant and important variables selected by three of the four models: LR, RF and NN (Table 6-A1). Total snowfall over 72 or 120 hours (Snow) and windy snow indices over 24 and 72 hours (SnowDrift) are frequently recurring variables with a very high level of importance for all models. Average temperatures over 48 and 72 hours were used by CT (Table 6). These are not, however, variables that were frequently selected or had a high level of importance when the models were trained (Table 6).

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4.2 Expert models

The four variables were selected(Snow_24h, Snow_72h, Tmean_48h and Rain_24h) to feed the development of an expert model. This also facilitates the comparison of ML methods with each other to demonstrate their predictive capacity, with results comparable to those obtained by the more complex models developed to explain the occurrence of snow avalanches (Table 6). The F_1 score and the ROC(AUC) of the expert model were similar to the other models in Table 6. With this variable preselection, LR and RF show the best performance metrics with F_1 and ROC score. The best method was the RF with F_1 of 0.41 with the *Train* dataset, compared to 0.39 for the other three methods, but among them, LR had the highest ROC(AUC) with 0.85 (Table 7). Interestingly, the expert model (RF) had the same F_1 score of 0.41 as the other "unrestricted" model (CT) in Table 6, but the expert model with RF had the highest ROC(AUC) of 0.85 (Table 7). Interestingly, Tmean_48h was left out by the CT (Table 7), yet this was the only ML method to have selected the variable in the "unrestricted" model to explain avalanche occurrence (Table 6).

The expert model performance was also assessed with a hindcast of the 2019 season. The best method was the RF method, which was the same as for the *Test* dataset, with a F_1 score of 0.47 and a ROC(AUC) of 0.88 (Table 7). The CT method was second with a F_1 score of 0.45 and a ROC(AUC) of 0.83. To assess the probability prediction with a different forecast, we compared them with the Avalanche Québec forecast for the study area. Their forecast performance is in Table 8, where the performance indicators are comparable to the ML methods using the *Test* dataset. Figure 4 shows the seasonal evolution of the probability from the expert models using the 4 ML methods, with also the danger level forecasted by Avalanche Québec transferred into probability. At first glance, the probabilities of the ML methods and Avalanche Québec had a great fit visually, with the CT having the greatest fit visually. Both the ML methods and Avalanche Québec predicted high probability around January 10th with 23 mm of snow in 24h, but no avalanche was recorded. This systematic false alarm was estimated by the 4 ML methods and Avalanche Québec. The remaining avalanche days were either estimated by some ML methods or Avalanche Québec forecast.

4.3 Forecast performance

The models presented here have been developed based entirely on analysis of the statistical performance of the models and their a posteriori predictive capability. In reality, the goal is to use the model with numerical weather prediction (NWP) in a forecast context. Forecast errors (deviations) of temperature data are very low with GEMLAM 24 and 48h, but much more uncertainty is present with precipitation data. By using an expert model based solely on raw (non-derived) data, we limit potential forecast errors.

For the year 2019, the performance of the models with GEMLAM 24 and 48 h forecast data is significantly lower than that established with meteorological data (hindcast), with around 0.4 for the Hindcast 2019 and around 0.3 for GEMLAM(24-48h) (Table 7). Surprisingly, the F_1 score was higher for the GEM_LAM 48h than the 24h, for all 4 ML methods. The best method was LR with a F_1 score of 0.31 for GEMLAM 24h and 0.34 for GEMLAM 48h (Table 7).

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Table 7. Performance of expert models on the event variable (E_{AVA}). In bold, the best F_1 score and ROC(AUC) of the *Test* dataset.

ML	Dataset	Matrice TN	Matrice FN	Matrice FP	Matrice TP	PREC	TPR	PON	FPR	FAR	F_1	ROC	Variables
LR	Train	41	18	23	127	0.85	0.88	0.64	0.36	0.15	0.86	0.76	Snow_24h Snow_72h Tmean_48h Rain_24h
LR	Train non double	41	14	23	56	0.71	0.80	0.64	0.36	0.29	0.75	0.72	
LR	Test	364	4	83	28	0.25	0.88	0.81	0.19	0.75	0.39	**0.85**	
LR	Hindcast 2019	108	2	21	7	0.25	0.78	0.84	0.16	0.75	0.38	0.81	
LR	GEMLAM 24h	105	3	24	6	0.20	0.67	0.81	0.19	0.80	**0.31**	**0.74**	
LR	GEMLAM 48h	99	1	10	4	0.21	0.89	0.77	0.23	0.79	**0.34**	**0.83**	
CT	Train	55	25	9	120	0.93	0.83	0.86	0.14	0.07	0.88	0.84	Snow_24h Snow_72h Rain_24h
CT	Train non double	55	20	9	50	0.85	0.71	0.86	0.14	0.15	0.78	0.79	
CT	Test	380	8	67	24	0.26	0.75	0.85	0.15	0.74	0.39	0.80	
CT	Hindcast 2019	114	2	15	7	0.32	0.78	0.88	0.12	0.68	0.45	0.83	
CT	GEMLAM 24h	108	4	21	5	0.19	0.56	0.84	0.16	0.81	0.29	0.70	
CT	GEMLAM 48h	110	4	19	5	0.21	0.56	0.85	0.15	0.79	0.30	0.70	
RF	Train	61	8	3	137	0.98	0.94	0.95	0.05	0.02	0.96	0.95	Snow_24h Snow_72h Tmean_48h Rain_24h
RF	Train non double	61	7	3	63	0.95	0.90	0.95	0.05	0.05	0.93	0.93	
RF	Test	375	5	72	27	0.27	0.84	0.84	0.16	0.73	**0.41**	0.84	
RF	Hindcast 2019	112	1	17	8	0.32	0.89	0.87	0.13	0.68	**0.47**	**0.88**	
RF	GEMLAM 24h	108	4	21	5	0.19	0.56	0.84	0.16	0.81	0.29	0.70	
RF	GEMLAM 48h	104	3	25	6	0.19	0.67	0.81	0.19	0.81	0.30	0.74	
NN	Train	50	29	14	116	0.89	0.80	0.78	0.22	0.11	0.84	0.79	Snow_24h Snow_72h Tmean_48h Rain_24h
NN	Train non double	50	20	14	50	0.78	0.71	0.78	0.22	0.22	0.75	0.75	
NN	Test	377	7	36	10	0.26	0.78	0.84	0.16	0.74	0.39	0.81	
NN	Hindcast 2019	112	2	17	7	0.29	0.78	0.87	0.13	0.71	0.42	0.82	
NN	GEMLAM 24h	107	4	22	5	0.19	0.56	0.83	0.17	0.81	0.28	0.69	
NN	GEMLAM 48h	108	3	21	6	0.22	0.67	0.84	0.16	0.78	0.33	0.75	

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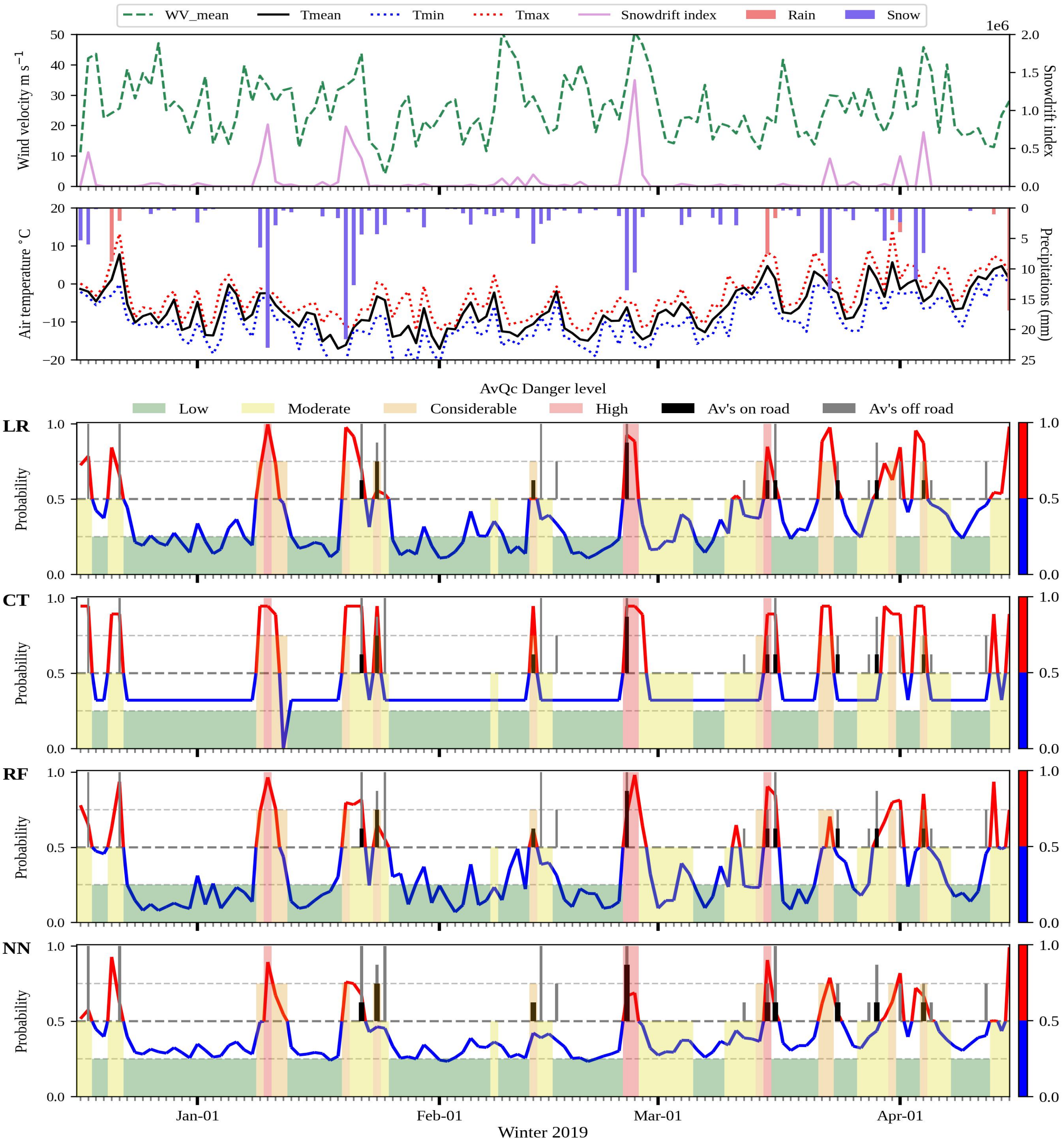

Figure 4. Hindcast of snow avalanches on road 132 in winter 2018-2019. Probability calculated with expert models LR, CT, RF and NN. Non-event forecast in blue and event forecast in red. Forecast issued by Avalanche Québec in orange: low (25%), moderate (50%), considerable (75%) and high (100%). Event days (occurrence of one or more avalanches on the road) are represented by black histograms, and snow avalanches that did not reach the road by grey histograms.

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Table 8. Avalanche Québec's forecast performance between 2013 and 2020 (5 operational seasons).

Road	Matrix		Performance indicators					
	TN	FN	PREC	TPR	PON	FPR	FAR	F_1
	FP	TP						
Road 132	459	65	**0.79**	0.29	0.98	0.02	0.21	**0.42**
	7	26						

The probability predicted by the 4 ML methods for the hindcast of 2019 was then compared to the ones predicted by the GEMLAM 24h and 48h (Figure 5). Coefficients of determination R^2 greater than 0.8 were obtained with the LR expert model for both GEMLAM 24h and 48h. THE NN performed slightly less well with 0.8 for GEMLAM 24h and 0.74 for GEMLAM 48h. The CT and RF had the lowest R^2 coefficients with respectively 0.58 and 0.71 for GEMLAM 24h, and respectively 0.56 and 0.64 for GEMLAM 48h.

5 Discussion

5.1 Variable selection and significance

According to the results obtained, the occurrence of event days is well explained and predicted by the intensity of solid precipitation and snow accumulation over periods ranging from 24 to 120 hours. These results are in line with those obtained by Gauthier et al. (2017, 2018) in the same study area, and with those of many others carried out in the European Alps (Ancey, 2006; Jomelli et al., 2007), in the North American Cordillera (Butler, 1986; McClung and Tweedy, 1993; Hendrikx et al., 2014), in Norway (Bakkehoi, 1987), in New Zealand (Hendrikx et al., 2005) or in Scotland (Ward, 1984). Our results also show a strong tendency towards a selection of variables representative of short-duration, high-intensity precipitation. These variables support one of the two scenarios proposed to explain the snow avalanche occurrences in the northern Gaspé Peninsula (Hétu, 2010; Fortin et al., 2011; Gauthier et al., 2017; Meloche, 2019): 1) a winter regime linked to snowstorms, and 2) a spring regime linked to rain-on-snow events or positive air temperatures. Thus, two types of avalanche problems are likely to explain natural avalanche activity in northern Gaspésie: storm snow (or new snow) avalanches and wet snow avalanches.

Wind snow indices (SnowDriftIndex) have been developed to express windy snow accumulations during storms (Hendrikx et al., 2014; Pomeroy, 1989). Comparing the amplitude of index variations with wind speed and precipitation data, it is clear that SnowDriftIndex is highly reactive during storms with strong winds (Figure 4). But as soon as the precipitation fades, the index rapidly decreases. The SnowDriftIndex represents an important explanatory variable for explaining and predicting the occurrence of storm snow avalanches. This variable could be added to the expert model, but it should not replace the snow accumulation variables (Snow_24h and Snow_72h) to avoid omitting avalanches that occur during snow flurries with no particularly strong winds.

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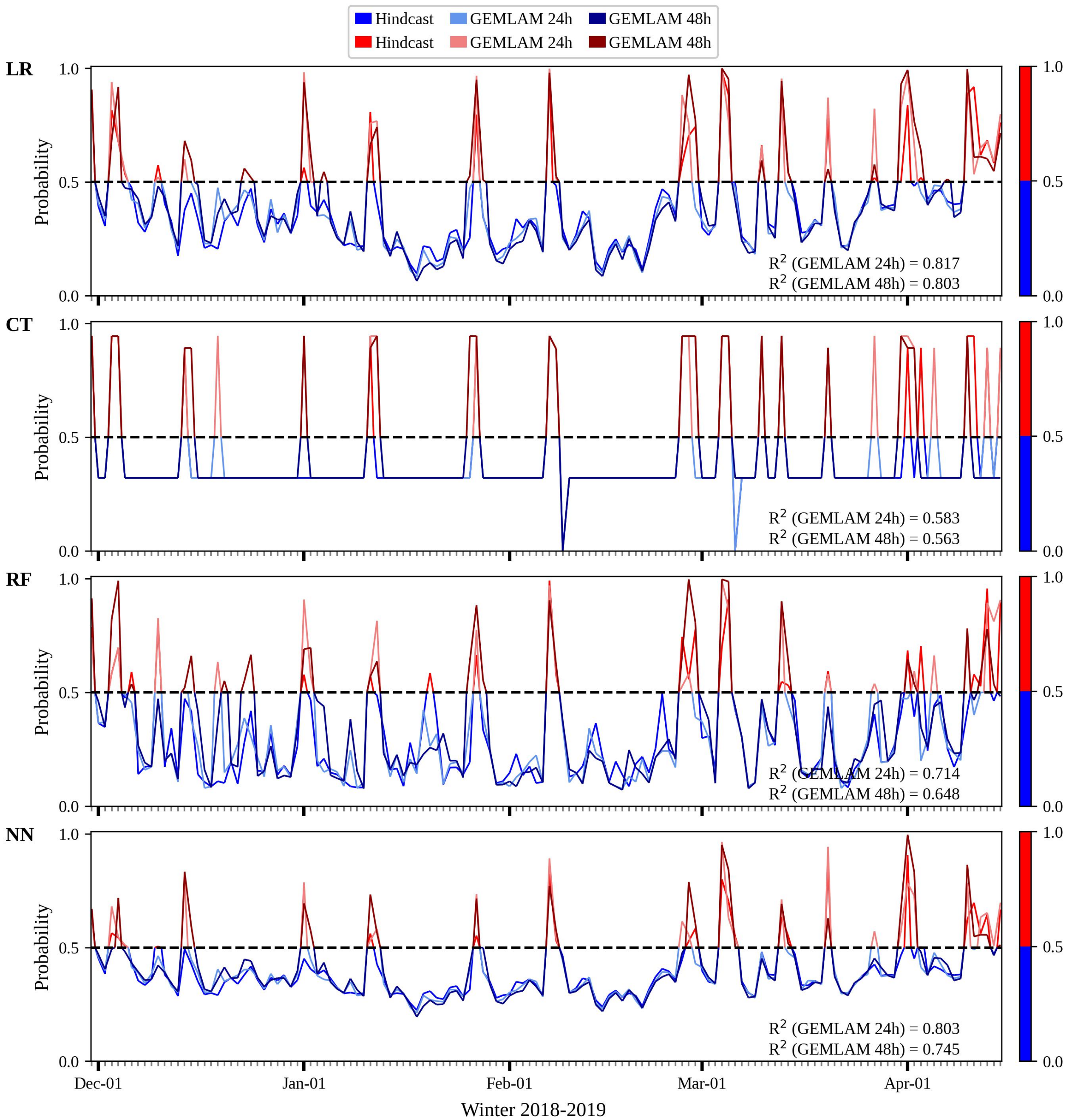

Figure 5. Hindcast and HRDPS GEMLAM 24h and 48h forecast of snow avalanches on road 132 in winter 2019-2020. Probability calculated with expert models LR, CT, RF and NN trained on variable E_{AVA}. Non-event forecast in blue and event forecast in red.

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Meloche (2019) has also shown that the strong northwesterly winds coming from the St.Lawrence Gulf, that follow the snowstorms, have the effect of clearing the slopes of snow. Only snow patches protected from the wind by the presence of tree edges between talus slopes persist between storms (Meloche, 2019). Thus, the occurrence of persistent slab avalanches is unlikely on the slopes along road 132. The northwesterly winds rushing into the valley are subject to a Venturi effect that favors wind-driven deflation of the snow on the slope. SnowDriftIndexes have not been developed to support this type of process. Wind speed remains a better indicator of wind deflation after storms. However, wind speed has not proven to be a significant variable frequently selected by ML methods (Table 6).

Finally, rain and air temperatures are variables that can be used to explain and predict wet snow avalanches, both slab and loose snow (Gauthier et al., 2017, 2018). These variables were selected by the best-performing CT (Table 6). Despite their relatively low importance and limited use during the first phase of model development (Table 6), we felt justified in adding Rain and Tmean_48h to the expert model to avoid omitting this type of avalanche problem. Finally, this choice does not seem to have had a significant negative impact on the performance of the models (Table 6-7), and they enable us to predict this type of avalanche. At present, wet snow avalanches are infrequent, but in the context of climate change, it is likely that an increase in the frequency of wet snow avalanches will be observed (Eckert et al., 2024; Locat et al., 2022).

5.2 Model Performance

The CT was the best model on the test dataset with only selecting Tmean and Snowdrift variable. In practice, a manager can easily use a CT to identify and target the critical thresholds of meteorological variables responsible for hazard occurrence (Figure 4-5). On the other hand, the other models (LR, RF and NN) have the advantage of returning a better-defined probability of occurrence (Figure 4). For this type of predictive model to be used in an operational management context, the models need to be simple and understandable for managers. With this idea in mind, we developed expert models with four simple variables (Snow_24h, Snow_72h, Tmean_48h and Rain_24h), that proved to be almost as effective as the more complex models generated by the algorithms. With these simpler expert models, the RF algorithms outperformed the other algorithms, both for the test and Hindcast 2019 dataset (Table 7). LR had the best performance with the expert model using GEMLAM 24-48h NWP data, but with lower F_1 score compared to the train and Hindcast dataset. Figure 5 demonstrates that the GEMLAM model probability was not reaching the maximum of the Hindcast model, thus underestimating some avalanche events and danger levels. This difference could be caused by a well-known bias in NWP where precipitation is significantly underestimated, especially in the study area (Côté et al., 2017). This result demonstrates the ability of simpler models with expert assigned weather variables to predict the avalanche probability in an operational and predictive context. In practice, the variables chosen can be easily modified and the models tested to meet the requirements of the managers. For example, we could force the addition of a variable deemed relevant in the models, such as the snowdrift index or snow intensity (SnowDriftIndex, Int_snow). However, adding a variable and making the model more complex increases uncertainty when the probability of occurrence is calculated using forecast data.

Finally, it is sometimes advisable to avoid using a model that performs too well on training data sets, where model overfitting leads to poorer performance on validation and forecast data. This is often the case with RFs which excel at explaining event

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days, but whose performance is uncertain when it comes to predicting events. Despite this tendency to overfit (Table 6), RFs represent the best compromise for predicting snow avalanches and limiting false alarms with expert model variables (Table 7). On the other hand, LR is also a wise choice, as this ML method performs best with weather forecast data (Table 7).

5.3 Using ML prediction for operational avalanche risk management

In an operational management context, the selection of a high-performance model predicting with accuracy avalanche occurrences is of high interest. Three ML algorithms (LR, RF and NN) returned a better-defined probability of occurrence (Figure 4), with the best scoring performance using 24-48h NWP data (Table 7). They can therefore be used in predictive mode (event or non-event day), but the probability returned by the models could be more useful in an operational context if the probability issues an avalanche danger level (Gauthier et al., 2017). In the context of hazard forecasting and operational management, it is relevant and effective to establish intervention procedures according to different avalanche danger levels, such as no stopping on the highway and road closure.

This avalanche danger scale is used by all avalanche management and forecasting organizations worldwide, including Avalanche Canada and Avalanche Québec (Statham et al., 2010). Danger levels are generally issued on the basis of an analysis of snowpack structure and stability, and an analysis of weather forecasts. Using the avalanche forecasts issued by Avalanche Québec for Road 132 between 2013 and 2020, we calculated the performance of their forecasts according to the same criteria or forecast thresholds established in this study (50% or Considerable hazard level). It appears that the performance of ML's models is comparable to the forecasts issued by the organization (Table 8). More and more avalanche forecasting organizations are using statistical models and snow cover simulations to support their decision-making processes (Hendrick et al., 2023; Mayer et al., 2023; Pérez-Guillén et al., 2022; Viallon-Galinier et al., 2023; Morin et al., 2020).

The snow avalanche forecasting models for roads 132 are efficient and should be used to support the work of road safety managers. The RF model was the most reliable to calculate the probability of occurrence of snow avalanches. The results are in line with other authors predicting snow avalanche activity and danger level (Pérez-Guillén et al., 2022; Mayer et al., 2023; Viallon-Galinier et al., 2023; Hendrick et al., 2023). The recommended operational procedures could be based on the calculated probability scale detailed in Table 2. These are based on the procedures currently used by the external avalanche management and forecasting organizations working with the MTMQ: Avalanche Québec and Ski Chic-Chocs. Among other things, it is recommended to activate flashing lights to warn motorists when the probability of snow avalanches exceeds 50% (considerable), and it recommends road closure above 75% (high) (Table 2). In the model validation years (Test), days with a considerable and high probability of occurrence represent 17% and 15% respectively of the total number of days in the operational avalanche season.

High avalanche danger level can last from 1 to 4 days, depending on the duration of the snowstorm. In practice, avalanches during this interval will generally occur at the height of the storm or towards its end. They will only occur at the start of the storm if the stability of the snow already present on the slopes is limited. For example, in 2018-2019, 25 days were forecast as high occurrence days. During the first three storms (7 high occurrence days), one of which was a rain-on-snow event, the merlons or protective berms were not expected to be filled with snow, as no avalanches spread over the road. With well-

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maintained merlons before winter, the 50 mm SWE accumulation threshold required to initiate the avalanche event season could be revised upwards (Gauthier et al., 2017). Of the remaining 18 days, the MTMQ recorded 9 event days with avalanches reaching road 132, and a further 8 days with avalanches observed along the roadside. In spring, avalanches are caused by rising temperatures and rain-on-snow events. At this time, snow cover on slopes is generally localized to easily identifiable locations. In this case, avalanches will not occur over a wide area, and road closures are not necessary. Nevertheless, it is advisable to monitor the snowpack and prepare a team to clear the roadway in the event of an avalanche. In the end, on the 25 days with a high probability of avalanche, 4 or 5 road closures spread over a period of less than 24 hours would have been sufficient to ensure the safety of users.

6 Conclusions

This study demonstrates that avalanche occurrence on key routes in the northern Gaspésie region can be effectively predicted by integrating specific meteorological variables with expert-based models, providing valuable insights for avalanche risk management. The inclusion of short-duration, high-intensity precipitation variables, such as snow accumulation over 24-72 hours, aligns with previous findings across various mountainous regions and proves effective for identifying both winter storm-induced avalanches and spring rain-on-snow events. The SnowDriftIndex further enhances predictions for storm slab avalanches, while wind and snow accumulation variables complement each other to account for various storm scenarios.

Our models indicate that while complex algorithms, such as random forests, offer robust predictive power, simpler expert models with a limited set of essential variables (Snow_24h, Snow_72h, Tmean_48h, Rain_24h) remain highly effective and are more accessible for operational management. These models, providing critical thresholds, allow road safety managers to make timely decisions, activate alerts, and deploy resources as needed. The use of machine learning methods like LR and RF models shows that model performance can match or exceed that of current forecasting tools, enhancing hazard anticipation while maintaining a user-friendly framework suitable for real-time application. Our study also demonstrates the potential to use numerical weather prediction to forecast 24 and 48 h in advance avalanche occurrences on the road. However, uncertainty remains in the prediction from the uncertainty in numerical weather prediction.

In light of climate change, which is expected to increase the frequency of wet snow avalanches, integrating temperature and rain variables into predictive models will become increasingly important. Our findings suggest that adapting management protocols in response to evolving weather patterns and snowpack processes will be essential for ensuring the continued safety of road users. Ultimately, the study highlights a comparison for advancing avalanche forecasting by combining statistical models, expert knowledge, and numerical weather prediction. This evaluation has significant potential for broader application in mountainous regions, allowing for data-driven avalanche management that balances model accuracy with practical usability.

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Author contributions. FG conceptualized the research project, acquired the funding, assisted JL in the analysis, drafted, and planned the manuscript. JL prepared the dataset, developed the learning workflow and ran the machine learning model. FM assisted JL in the analysis and wrote the final manuscript.

Code and data availability. The dataset of snow avalanche occurrences is the property of Quebec's Ministry of Transportation and could be available upon request for scientific projects. The weather dataset is available on the open-access repository of Environment Canada.

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Appendix A

Table A1. Cumulative importance (FI) of variables selected by the RFs and count (Count) of variables pre-selected by the RFE and used as input to the LR and NN models for training the models. In bold: variables selected for the expert model.

Variables	FI	Rank FI	Count	Rank Count	Indice
Int_snow_12h/24h	3.15	1	5	8	9
SnowDriftIndex_72h	1.89	3	7	7	10
Snow_120h	1.02	9	30	1	10
Int_snow_8h/24h	1.03	8	14	3	11
SnowDriftIndex_24h	2.72	2	2	11	13
Snow_72h	**1.35**	**6**	**7**	**7**	**13**
Tmax_12h/24h	1.14	7	1	12	9
Int_snow_12h/48h	0.90	12	7	7	19
SnowDriftIndex_96h	0.79	14	9	5	19
WV_Mean_24h	0.77	17	16	2	19
Tmax_4h/48h	1.01	10	3	10	20
Tmean-1d	0.92	11	4	9	20
Int_snow_4h/48h	0.86	13	5	8	21
WV_gust_Max	0.77	15	2	11	26
Int_snow_4h/24h	0.77	16	3	10	26
Snow_48h	0.68	24	10	4	28
Int_snow_1h/24h	0.74	19	1	12	31
Tmax_48h	0.74	20	1	12	32
Tmax_96h	0.72	21	2	11	32
Snow_96h	0.72	22	3	10	32
SnowDriftIndex_120h	0.71	23	2	11	34
Tmean_48h	**0.67**	**26**	**3**	**10**	**36**
DTR_d_3	0.62	32	9	5	37
Tmean_72h	0.63	30	3	10	40
Tmax_2d	0.64	29	1	12	41
Tmean_96h	0.62	34	4	9	43
DTR_d_2	0.60	35	4	9	44
Tmean_2d	0.53	44	16	2	46
Tmin_8h/24h	0.59	36	2	11	47
DTR_d	0.58	39	4	9	48
Tmin_4h/24h	0.59	37	1	12	49
DTR_d_1	0.53	45	8	6	51
Tmax_1d	0.57	41	2	11	52
Tmax_8h/24h	0.49	47	1	12	59
WD_gust_Max	0.48	48	2	11	59
Tmean_120h	0.48	49	1	12	61
Tmin_24h	0.42	55	1	12	67
Tmean_24h	0.41	57	3	10	67
SnowDriftIndex_48h	0.40	59	4	9	68
Rain_96h	0.33	63	2	11	74
Int_rain_1h/48h	0.26	67	1	12	79
Int_rain_8h/24h	0.18	72	1	12	84
Int_snow_1h/48h	1.50	4	#N/A	#N/A	#N/A
Snow_24h	1.38	5	#N/A	#N/A	#N/A

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