

The influence of aqueous solution on compacted snow: A field investigation

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2

3 **Abstract:**

4 Slippery road surfaces are a threat to traffic safety especially in winter where snow falling on roads
5 forms a hard crust which is extremely difficult to remove. In order to prevent this hard crust
6 formation, salt is applied to roads. However, high salt amounts are harmful to the environment and
7 expensive. Therefore the optimization of salt applications become a priority for transportation
8 agencies.

9 This study evaluates the effects of NaCl aqueous solution on compacted snow through a field
10 investigation. A test car was driven on snow mixed with different amounts of aqueous NaCl
11 solution (from 0 wt.% to 40 wt.%); this experimental run was then repeated approximately 20
12 times. A scraping test was also performed in order to evaluate the compacted salted snow's
13 strength. Findings of this study are: an aqueous solution content of 10 wt.% keeps snow loose and
14 easily removable from road traffic, while an aqueous solution of 5 wt.% weakens the snow
15 substantially, allowing the snow mixture to be more easily plowed.

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24 **Introduction:**

25 In cold regions, slippery road surface conditions pose a threat to traffic safety. For example, drivers
26 rely on high tractive forces between their vehicles' tires and the road surface, and a maximum level
27 of friction is achieved when the tire rubber is able to make direct contact with the asperities on the
28 road surface. The presence of snow or ice between tire rubber and asperities interferes with this
29 physical contact, thereby lowering the level of friction created by it. Therefore, in order to ensure
30 acceptable levels of friction both during and after a snowfall, many road administrations use a
31 strategy that aims to regain a bare road surface quickly (within hours) after a snowfall (PIARC,
32 2015). This type of strategy has been variously called an anti-icing strategy (Ketcham et al., 1996),
33 bare pavement strategy (Shi and Fu, 2018) or black road strategy (PIARC, 2015). Typically, an
34 anti-/de-icing chemical is applied either before or at an early stage of the snowfall, followed by
35 mechanical removal using snow plows. For instance, in Norway alone, more than 200,000 metric
36 cubic tons of sodium chloride are used each winter during snowfalls (Vaa, 2005). However, high
37 levels of salt applications are environmentally unfriendly, pollute water (Shi et al., 2013) (Fay and
38 Shi, 2012) (Blomqvist, 1998) and are expensive (Hanbali, 1994). Therefore, the optimization of salt
39 applications has become an intensive priority for municipalities as well as governmental agencies.

40 Transportation agencies have tried to come up with guidelines, e.g. (Salt Institute, 2016),
41 attempting to identify the best winter maintenance practices (Theses, 2015). Others have presented
42 their guidelines based on field investigations (Raukola et al., 1993) (Lysbakken, 2013) (Ikiz and
43 Galip, 2016), attempting to correlate laboratory tests with field tests (Muthumani et al., 2014). Still

44 other agencies have optimized road salting by using Road Weather Information Systems
45 (Kramberger and Žerovnik, 2008). As road weather models are improving and knowledge of salt's
46 longevity on road surfaces is increasing, one possible avenue for further optimization is to predict
47 when and how many chemicals should be applied during snowstorms. However, this approach
48 requires accurate weather predictions, a detailed understanding of how salt affects snow and
49 defined criteria with respect to the minimum amount of chemicals needed.

50 Snow compaction mainly happens when the air temperature fluctuates around 0°C (Ketcham et al.,
51 1996). When approaching melting point, ice particles slowly begin to melt, forming in turn a liquid
52 layer which, upon making contact with the solid ice particle, freezes, forming a solid bond with
53 existing solid ice particles (Szabo and Schneebeli, 2007) and adhering strongly to other surfaces
54 (Makkonen, 2012). The purpose of salting has traditionally been viewed as a measure used to
55 weaken the bond between pavement and snow (Ketcham et al., 1996; Minsk, 1998; Penn and
56 Meyerson, 1992); thus salt, or any other de-icer, has typically been applied either prior to or during
57 the first minutes of a snowfall. Several studies on how salt affects the mechanical properties of
58 snow (Wählin et al., 2016; Wählin and Klein-Paste, 2015, 2014) have provided us with the belief
59 that the entire snow layer, and not only the snow-road interface, is affected by salt. When snow
60 starts to fall on a salted road, the snowflakes start to melt, and the pavement becomes wet from the
61 resulting meltwater. The salt becomes diluted, and this melting process may continue until the
62 melting capacity of the de-icer is reached (Nilssen, 2017). The pavement is now covered with
63 diluted solution, the concentration of which being equal to the equilibrium concentration given by
64 the phase diagram of the particular de-icer in use. As it continues to snow, crystals start to
65 accumulate on the road and co-exist with the diluted de-icer solution, which prevents any bonds
66 between the crystals being formed (Wählin et al., 2014), thereby weakening the snow. Therefore,

67 salting prior to snowfall may be considered an “anti-compaction” measure. The notion that anti-
68 /de-icing chemicals create a solution diluted until it has reached its equilibrium concentration at
69 the prevailing temperature suggests that a certain amount of solution is needed in order to weaken
70 the snow sufficiently.

71 To our knowledge, (Schaerer, 1970) was the first to suggest this criterion based on solution content,
72 his recommendation being to salt until the solution content was at least 30 wt.% so that the snow
73 would either become soft enough to be squeezed off of roads from the effects of traffic or able to
74 be easily removed by snow removal vehicles. Nevertheless, various parameters, such as air and
75 asphalt temperature, chemical snow mixture density, traffic load, type of tire with relative inflation
76 pressure, were not considered in (Schaerer, 1970)’s investigation, making it difficult to interpret
77 his results. Through their laboratory experiments (Giudici et al., 2017) suggest that the solution
78 content can be substantially lowered (to about 10 wt.%) and still provide satisfactory anti-
79 compaction effect; however, this assertion needs to be tested through field studies using different
80 temperatures for verification under realistic conditions.

81 Based on a completed field study, this paper aims to define the minimum amount of salt that is
82 needed in order to weaken snow enough to allow mechanical removal and provide sufficient
83 friction by re-exposing the underlying asphalt aggregates to tires. The study was performed in a
84 “worst-case” scenario, when the air temperature was either approaching or above zero. To the best
85 of our knowledge, this is the first study of anti-compaction at melting temperatures. Finally, we
86 discuss the results’ implications for future salt optimization efforts.

87

88

89 **Methods:**

90 A field study was conducted where a car drove multiple times over snow samples containing
91 various amounts of diluted solution. The snow samples were placed on either wet or dry pavements,
92 the air and pavement temperatures being close to 0°C. The tracks were visually inspected and
93 photographed after five and 20 vehicle passes, respectively. Finally, the strength of the remaining
94 snow in the track was assessed by performing a scraping test with a metal blade.

95

96 *Test site and test conditions*

97 The field tests were conducted at the Winter Maintenance Research Lab of the Norwegian
98 University of Science and Technology between February 2018 and March 2018. The tests were
99 performed using a Mercedes Benz Vito equipped with 4 studded Nokian Hakkapellitta 7 SUV
100 215/65R16. The shore hardness lay within a range between 62 and 70 (ASTM, 2012). The inflated
101 tire pressure was 200 kPa. Prior to each testing day, the pavement was rinsed off with water in
102 order to remove any salt residuals. The pavement was dried by using a flame torch in order to avoid
103 any sort of ice formation and left overnight to cool down to ambient temperature. The test site was
104 in a parking lot located close by the Winter Maintenance Research Lab facility. The building
105 provided shade from the sun during a large part of the day, and while the test site was covered by
106 an overhanging roof, the other building sections were exposed to the outside air.

107 *Salted snow sample preparation*

108 After a snowfall, loose dendritic snow (about 120 kg) lying near the test site was first collected and
109 then stored in a cold room at -20°C. Before each test, about 10 kg of the stored snow was transferred
110 to the test site and allowed to heat up to about -2°C. Once the snow had reached this temperature,

111 it was mixed with a sodium chloride solution of 3.33 wt.%, which has a freezing point of -2°C
 112 (Haynes, 2014). When using this NaCl concentration and setting a temperature of -2°C, no ice
 113 particle melting or freezing occurs. The NaCl solution was prepared by dissolving NaCl into
 114 distilled water. The snow and solution were then placed inside a plastic bucket and mixed by
 115 intense, manual shaking for two minutes.

116 The solution content varied between 0 and 40 wt.%, as calculated in equation 1:

$$117 \quad SC[\%] = \frac{m_{sol}}{m_{sol} + m_{snow}} * 100 \quad (1)$$

118 where m_{sol} represents the mass of the NaCl solution, and m_{snow} represents the mass of the snow.

119 The salted snow mixture was placed into a wooden frame of 30x30x3 cm³ that was placed on the
 120 asphalt pavement. The snow filled the wooden frame without being compacted. Increasing the
 121 solution content inside the snow increased its initial mass and density. The density was measured
 122 for each snow sample, and the average and standard deviations are shown in Table 1. The wooden
 123 frame was removed before testing, leaving 3 cm square snow height samples.

124 **Table 1.** Average density and standard deviation of snow samples.

Solution Content (wt.%)	ρ average [g/cm ³]	Standard Deviation [g/cm ³]
0%	0.29	0.069
5%	0.34	0.056
10%	0.37	0.036
20%	0.46	0.089
40%	0.61	0.166

126 ***Experimental procedure***

127 The five snow samples containing diverse solutions were placed on the asphalt. Two samples were
128 placed in front of both front tires having a distance of 90 cm (1.5 times the tire circumference),
129 while the fifth sample was placed 9 meters further away. This spacing was chosen to
130 prevent/minimize salt contamination spreading from one sample to another. The sample density
131 and temperatures were recorded before the car was driven in a straight line at a speed of
132 approximately 20 km/h. To avoid cross-contamination between samples, the test car was driven in
133 only one direction from dry snow (SC=0 wt.%) to the sample containing SC=40 wt.%. Both the
134 front and rear tires drove on the samples during each pass. Figure 1 shows the placement of the
135 samples prior to testing.

136



137 **Figure 1.** Placement of snow sample (marked in red) prior to testing.

138 Under the effect of the rolling tires, the snow samples were first compressed, compacted and/or
139 squeezed out from their original positions. The snow samples were visually inspected and
140 photographed after 5 and 20 vehicle passes in order to observe the salted snow's ability to flow

141 (Giudici et al., 2018) and to determine whether or not any asphalt asperities were visible on the
142 snow surface.

143 Based on the amount of bare asphalt asperities exposed to air, the snow samples were classified as
144 shown in Table 2:

145 **Table 2.** Pavement classification.

Asphalt classification	
1	No pavement asperities visible
2	Partial asperities visible
3	Full asperities visible

146

147 ***Scraping Test***

148 A scraping test was performed after the car had been driven 20 times over the snow samples. The
149 aim of this test was to simulate the mechanical removal of a snowplow. A stainless steel blade was
150 scraped multiple times over the snow samples, and a video was recorded for each scraping action.
151 Based on both the video and observations made after the scraping test, the pavement was
152 reclassified in the same categories.

153 **Results:**

154 Both the unpredictability of weather conditions and using a test area that is open to other traffic
155 make outdoor tests a challenge. Nevertheless, a total of 6 successful tests were performed under
156 the desired testing conditions of asphalt and temperatures during the winter of 2018. Table 3 shows
157 the different test conditions.

158

159

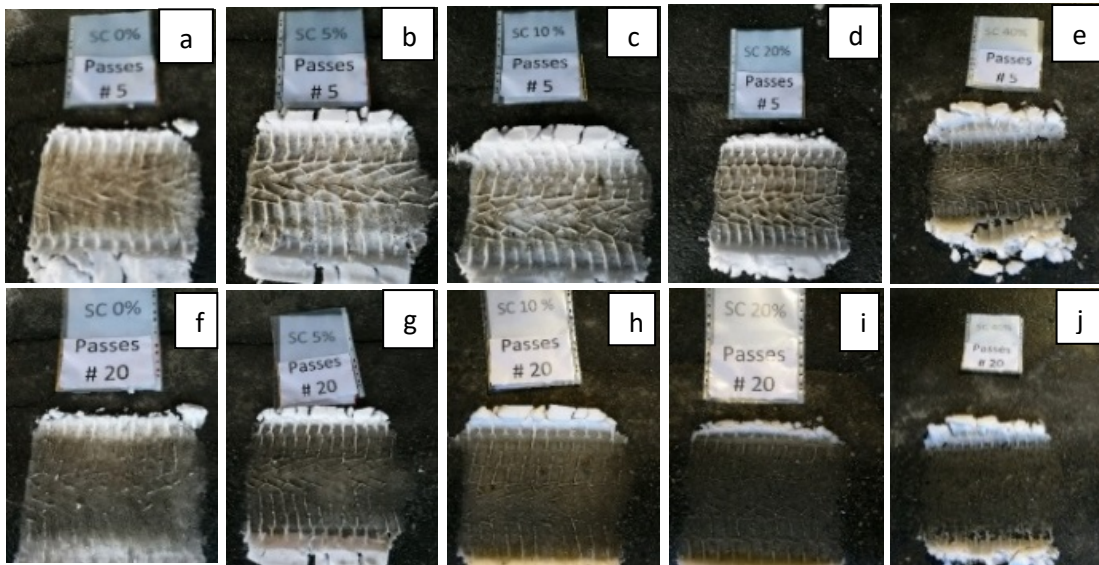
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Table 3. Study cases with relative testing properties.

Case	Date (dd/mm)	Asphalt Condition	Air Temperature (°C)	Pavement temperature (°C)
1	08/02	Dry	0	0
2	13/02	Wet	0	+1.7
3	13/03	Wet	+1.6	+1.5
4	15/03	Dry	-2.0	-2.2
5	20/03	Wet	+2.0	+2.4
6	27/03	Dry	+1.8	+1.5

161

162 The first row in Figure 2 shows the compressed and compacted snow after five passes for different
163 SC, and the second row shows the compressed and compacted snow after 20 passes by the test car.
164 Regarding SC 0 wt.% and 5 wt.%, in both rows of Figure 2, the snow was compacted. Regarding
165 SC 10 wt.%, 20 wt.%, and 40 wt.%, it is possible to observe a higher flowability, meaning that the
166 snow was pushed aside by the tire having a higher SC. This is particularly true with respect to SC
167 40 wt.%, where the snow totally splashed out of the testing area, allowing the tire to make contact
168 with the asphalt.



170 **Figure 2.** Snow samples containing various solutions after five and 20 vehicle passes on case 1, a) SC=0 wt.% after 5
 171 passes; b) SC=5 wt.% after 5 passes; c) SC=10 wt.% after 5 passes; d) SC=20 wt.% after 5 passes; e) SC=40 wt.%
 172 after 5 passes; f) SC=0 wt.% after 20 passes; g) SC=5 wt.% after 20 passes; h) SC=10 wt.% after 20 passes; i) SC=20
 173 wt.% after 20 passes; j) SC=40 wt.% after 20 passes.

174

175 Figure 3 shows the effect of the scraping action on the snow. The blade applied a shear force at the
 176 interface between the compacted salted snow and the asphalt. The snow typically detached in
 177 irregular flakes at SC 0 and 5 wt.%. A clear difference was experienced during the scraping test
 178 depending on the amount of SC in the snow. Approximately the same force was applied using the
 179 blade to all the compacted salted snow samples. The more that SC was increased, the easier the
 180 snow detached from the pavement surface. Compacted dry snow, SC= 0 wt.%, was very hard; as a
 181 result, it was barely affected by the scraping. Salted snow having SC= 5 wt.% was weaker
 182 compared to the dry compacted snow, allowing the blade to remove it from the pavement. Salted
 183 snow having SC= 10 wt.% was a soft material, not detaching in flakes but behaving rather more
 184 like a powder, and it was therefore easily removable. When testing snow at SC=20 wt.%, the

185 compacted snow was slushy and extremely weak. At SC=40 wt.% there was no compacted snow
186 left on the pavement due it being squeezed out from under the tire already after 5 – 10 passes by
187 the test vehicle.

188

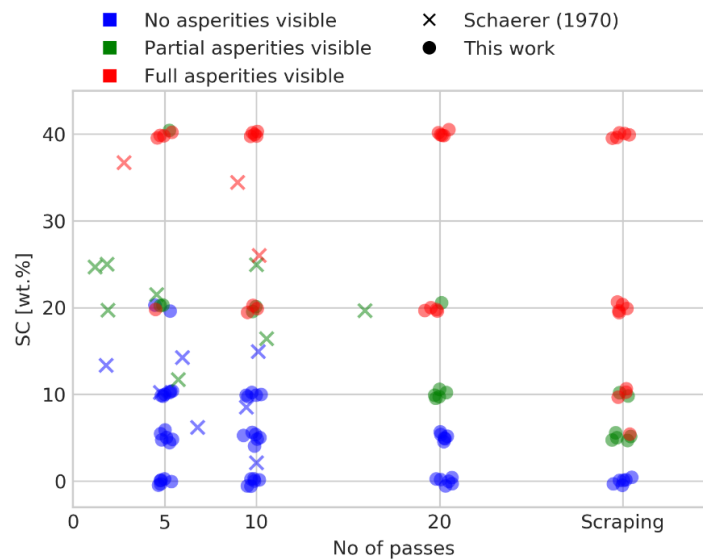


189 **Figure 3.** Showing snow with solution contents of 0,5 and 10 wt.% respectively after a scraping test. The snow, for 0
190 and 5 wt.% solution contents detached from the pavement in flakes, as can be seen in image 3 a) and b).

191 After 5- 10- 20 passes and the scraping test, all photos were manually classified according to the
192 three categories defined in Table 2. Figure 4 shows both the asphalt visibility and snow compaction
193 as functions of solution content and mechanical action. More specifically, the dots represent our
194 classified observations after 5, 10, 20 passes of the test car and scraping test. The crosses show the
195 data set provided by (Schaerer, 1970).

196 The data provided by (Schaerer, 1970) classify the snow into the categories of compact snow, loose
197 snow and removed snow as functions of the number of car passings: less than 5, between 5- 10 and
198 between 10- 15 passes. In order to make a comparison between the two data sets, we decided to
199 structure our classification of pavement surface to (Schaerer, 1970) snow classification as follows:

- 200 • no asperity visibility corresponds to compacted snow from (Schaerer, 1970),
- 201 • partial asperity visibility corresponds to loose snow from (Schaerer, 1970),
- 202 • full asperity visibility corresponds to removed snow from (Schaerer, 1970).



203 **Figure 4.** Salted snow compaction/asphalt visibility as function of solution content; regarding visibility, data was
 204 moved in both x and y directions.

205 Looking at Figure 4, it is possible to observe that the data presented in this study are in accordance
 206 to Schaerer's data, precisely it is possible to observe the following:

- 207 - Regarding snow with no visible asperities (blue dots), the maximum amount of solution
 208 content dependent on the the mechanical action. For example, after only 5 cars, snow
 209 containing a solution of up to 10 wt.% covered all asperities; indeed, there was one sample
 210 even at 20 wt.%. After 10 cars snow containing a solution of up to 10 wt.% covered all the
 211 asperities. After 20 cars snow containing a solution of up to 5 wt.% covered all the
 212 asperities, and including the scraping test, only dry snow covered all the asperities.
- 213 - Regarding snow having partially visible asperities (green dots), there was a minimum and
 214 maximum SC wherever it existed. Just as in the case of snow with no asperities, this number
 215 varied in accordance with the mechanical action. At 5 passes the partial visibility is
 216 observed in snow containing a solution of up to 40 wt.%. At 10 passes the partial visibility
 217 is observed in snow containing a solution of up to 20 wt.%, At 20 passes the partial visibility

218 is observed in snow containing a solution of up to 10 wt.%, and after the scraping test, the
 219 partial visibility is observed in snow containing a SC of 5 wt.%.

220 - In the case of snow in which asperities were fully visible (red dots), there was a minimum
 221 SC at which this occurred. This varied with the mechanical action, as after 5- 10- 20 passes,
 222 the full asperities visibility is observed already in snow having an SC of 20 wt.%. After the
 223 scraping test, full asperities visibility is observed in snow having an SC of 5 wt.%.

224 **Table 4.** Minimum amount of sc for partial/total asphalt asperities visibility for each study case.

Case nr.	Asphalt condition	Vehicle Passes		Scraping Test
		5	20	SC % wt.
1	Dry	40	10	5
2	Wet	40	20	5
3	Wet	20	10	5
4	Dry	40	20	5
5	Wet	20	20	5
6	Dry	40	10	5

225

226 Through examining Figure 4, we can identify the minimum amount of solution content needed to
 227 achieve the partial or total visibility of asphalt asperities for all study cases, and these are presented
 228 in Table 4. After 5 passes the partial (or total) visibility of the pavement asperities is reached with
 229 an SC having a range between 20- 40 wt.%. When increasing the amount of car passes to 20, the
 230 same result is attainable by having an SC between 10- 20 wt.%. In all the study cases the scraping
 231 test shows the same result, namely an SC of 5 wt.%, which is able to weaken the test snow enough

232 so that it can be easily detached from the pavement. No clear difference was observed between the
233 samples placed on dry asphalt and those placed on wet asphalt.

234

235 **Discussion:**

236 This study can be considered to be a “worse-case scenario” in terms of snow compaction for two
237 reasons: slow driving speeds and temperatures close to the melting point.

238 The driving speed determines how quickly the snow will become compressed, and at low speeds
239 there is more time for the snow crystals to re-arrange themselves into a denser configuration (Lee,
240 2009). The re-arranging process of the compressed salted snow fills the voids of the underlying
241 uncompressed snow layer (Lee, 2009), thereby increasing both the snow density and bonds
242 between the ice crystals (Wåhlin et al., 2016).

243 Snow compaction is more severe at a temperature close to its melting point (Minsk, 1998), as in
244 these cases a higher densification of the solid ice crystals occurs. Consequently, this contact in
245 enhances stronger bonds (Wåhlin et al., 2016) and facilitates the sintering process, which makes
246 the snow layer compacted and thus stronger (Szabo and Schneebeli, 2007). Therefore, the
247 minimum required solution content may be considered to be a conservative estimate.

248 The main findings of this study are that, independent of whether the temperature was above or
249 below melting point, snow with a solution content ranging between 20- 40 wt.% is removed from
250 road pavement after only five car passes. Furthermore, the higher the number of cars driving across
251 the snow layer, the lower the amount of aqueous solution required to be poured onto the snow in
252 order to avoid the compaction process. After 20 passes, the required amount of aqueous solution
253 needed for achieving anti-compaction and regaining partial asperity visibility was reduced to 10-

254 20 wt.%. Therefore, once the car has driven over the compacted salted snow 20 times at SC between
255 10- 20 wt.%, this snow is removed from the road, leaving behind a partially (or completely) bare
256 road surface. On the other hand, the scraping test shows that when using a solution content of 5
257 wt.%, the compacted salted snow becomes substantially weakened, making it easy to remove by
258 the blade's mechanical action. The scraper's mechanical action is more likely to be less than that
259 of a snowplow, meaning that when an SC of 5 wt.% is applied to roads, a plow is likely to be able
260 to remove the compacted snow. Therefore, a partially (or totally) bare road surface may be achieved
261 with an SC of 5 wt.% after a combination of 20 car passes and mechanical blade action.
262 Additionally, we anticipated that pre-existing water on the pavement would also enhance the
263 snow's bonding; therefore, while we tested on both dry and wet conditions, we did not achieve any
264 measurable differences using the current set-up. Indeed, the results presented here are in line with
265 those of (Schaerer, 1970).

266 Norwegian roads are classified into different levels of service according to the Norwegian Public
267 Road Administration classifications. Regarding the two highest levels of service, DkA and DkB
268 (NPRA, 2014), the maximum allowed time for spreading salt and plowing is 2 hours. This means
269 that during a snowfall, salt trucks pass the same spot within a 2-hour period. The bare-pavement
270 recovery time is set to 2 – 4 hours after a snowfall, meaning that pavement asperities need to be
271 visible after this point. Since these service levels are only assigned to roads having an annual
272 average daily traffic (AADT) higher than 1,500 vehicles/day, the choice of car pass numbers
273 performed during this study are conservative with respect to the anticipated traffic flow between
274 the cyclical time of salting and plowing actions. Therefore, a solution salt application rate resulting
275 in a 5 wt.% SC after 2 hours would be sufficient for snowplows to be able to remove the snow. A
276 salt application rate producing at least a 10 wt.% solution content would allow for traffic loads to

277 reach the partial or full asperities exposure interacting with car tires once they drive over the treated
278 pavement surface.

279 When the air temperature dips below 0°C; for example, if the amount of SC required after 2 hours
280 is known, it is possible to calculate the amount of solid NaCl as a function of the temperature and
281 mm of water equivalency. For instance, if we consider an expected snowfall of 5 cm over a 2 - hour
282 period of time with a temperature of -2°C, and we propose using use NaCl as salt, similar
283 calculations from (Giudici et al., 2017) suggest an application rate of approximately 10 [g] for road
284 square meters in order to achieve the partial (or full) asperities visibility during snowfalls. This
285 application rate falls within the Norwegian Public Road Administration's suggested range, 5 – 20
286 [g/m²], of spreading salt during a snowfall (NPRA, 2017). Moreover, it must be noted that in the
287 present study we are only talking about the minimum amount of aqueous solution needed to
288 actively weaken snow on pavement. Consequently, in order to find the optimal application rate of
289 salt on roads, we would also have to take into account the salt loss that occurs during the actual
290 application of the various salt spreading methods.

291 At temperatures higher than zero degrees, it is not possible to make the same calculations. This is
292 because there is no equilibrium concentration of the NaCl solution at temperatures higher than zero
293 degrees. However, based on the results presented here, it also appears possible to extend our anti-
294 compaction considerations above 0°C; SC= 5 wt.% allows easier mechanical removal of
295 compacted snow, and SC= 10 wt.% makes snow loose enough to be removed by the car traffic,
296 including air temperatures above zero. While previous studies (Giudici et al., 2017) have implied
297 this finding for temperatures below zero, this is, to the best of our knowledge, the first time a
298 minimum solution content has been found for anti-compaction at melting temperatures.

299

300 **Conclusions:**

301 This study aims to find the minimum amount of salt needed on roads to weaken the snow enough
302 to allow tire rubber-road surface contact. Based on this study, the following conclusions have been
303 made:

- 304 - Snow having an SC of 10 wt.% does not compact. This salted snow is weak enough to be
305 easily rinsed off the pavement from the effects of road traffic;
- 306 - Snow having an SC of 5 wt.% is able to weaken the salted snow mixture enough to allow
307 the mechanical action necessary to make it detach easily from the pavement

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