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ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

The origin of sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

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| Title Page | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | |
| Conclusions | Conclusions References | |
| Tables Figures | | |
| i4 >1 | | |
| • | • | |
| Back Close | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | |
| Print Version | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | |
| | | |

Abstract

Snow, through its trace constituents, can have a major impact on lower tropospheric chemistry, as evidenced by ozone depletion events (ODEs) in oceanic polar areas. These ODEs are caused by the chemistry of bromine compounds, that originate from sea salt bromide. According to current ideas, bromide may be supplied to the snow surface either by upward migration from sea ice or by frost flowers being wind-blown to the snow surface. We investigate here the relative importance of both these processes by analyzing mineral ions in snow samples collected near Alert and Ny-Ålesund (Canadian and European high Arctic) in winter and spring. Vertical ionic profiles in the snowpack on sea ice are measured to test upward migration of sea salt ions and to seek evidence for ion fractionation processes. Time series of the ionic composition of surface snow layers are investigated to quantify wind-transported ions. Upward migration of unfractionated sea salt, to heights of at least 17 cm, was observed in snow sampled in winter, at temperatures near −30°C, leading to Cl[−] concentration of several

- ¹⁵ hundred μ M. Upward migration thus has the potential to supply ions to surface snow layers. Time series show that wind can deposit aerosols to the top few cm of the snow, leading also to Cl⁻ concentrations of several hundred μ M, so that both migration from sea ice and wind transport can significantly contribute ions to snow. At Ny-Ålesund, sea salt transported by wind was unfractionated, implying that it does not come from
- frost flowers. In the Arctic, frost flowers thus do not appear necessary to lead to large sea salt concentrations in surface snow, and to supply the bromide needed for ODEs. The data obtained also indicate that ODEs lead to significant deposition of Br⁻ to snow. We speculate that this can also take place in coastal regions and contribute to propagate ODEs inland. Finally, we stress the need to measure snow physical parameters.
- ²⁵ such as permeability and specific surface area, to understand quantitatively changes in snow chemistry.

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | |
| Conclusions References | | |
| Tables Figures | | |
| | | |
| | •1 | |
| • | | |
| | • | |
| Back | ► Close | |
| Back Full Scre | Close | |
| Back Full Scre | Close | |
| Back Full Scree Print V | Close en / Esc | |

1. Introduction

Interactions between the snowpack and the atmosphere lead to important modifications of atmospheric composition (Domine and Shepson, 2002), and the most dramatic example is perhaps the complete destruction of ozone from the ground up to

- ⁵ altitudes greater than 1000 m, observed in the Arctic (Bottenheim et al., 2002a) and in Antarctica (Tarasick and Bottenheim, 2002) in the spring, when the frozen sea and the ground are almost entirely snow-covered. It is now reasonably certain that brominated species, derived from sea salt bromide, are key species in the chemistry of this ozone destruction (Barrie et al., 1988; Fan and Jacob, 1992; Tang and McConnell, 1996).
- However, many aspects of this chemistry are not fully understood and prevent the detailed modeling, let alone the prediction, of these ozone depletion events (Bottenheim et al., 2002a). Among these, the processes by which sea salt and bromide reach the snow surface to become available for activation into brominated compounds is unclear. Two major processes can be envisaged.
- ¹⁵ The first process involves frost flowers, that often form on the refrozen surface of open leads and have a salinity around 100 g/kg (hereafter practical salinity units : psu) (Martin et al., 1995). Frost flowers are fragile structures that can be readily windblown and redistributed to the snow surface, where they can constitute an available source of sea salt (Wolff et al., 2003). Precipitation of mirabilite (Na₂SO₄.10H₂O) from the brine
- at the surface of refrozen ice often accompanies frost flower formation (Rankin et al., 2002), with the result that sea salt coming from wind-blown frost flowers is depleted in sodium and sulphate. Because Antarctic sea salt aerosol is often depleted in sodium and sulphate, especially in winter when the extent of sea ice is largest (Wagenbach et al., 1998), it has been concluded that sea ice, by the formation of fragile frost flowers, was the main source of sea salt to snow on the Antarctic continent and on surface
- marine snow (Wolff et al., 2003). Regarding the Arctic, fewer detailed studies have been performed and measurements are more delicate to interpret, as for example the sulphate signal is more obscured by anthropogenic contributions.

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|---|--|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions References | | | |
| Tables Figures | | | |
| | | | |
| • | • | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| Print Version | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |

The second process is the upward migration of a sea salt enriched brine from the sea ice to the snowpack. Brines are often present at the sea ice-snow interface and can travel up the snow by capillary forces. The wettability of snow crystal surfaces by the brine is then the driving force for this process. Numerous studies in Antarctica ⁵ (Eicken et al., 1994; Massom et al., 2002) have shown that salinities up to 5 psu could often be found in snow at a height of 20 cm above the sea ice. More limited studies in the Arctic have also shown that a slush layer was present at the surface of Arctic ice (Garrity, 1992) from which the capillary motion of sea salt can be inferred. Direct salinity measurements (Eicken et al., 2002) have also shown that high salinities could be found in snow on pack ice. However, these measurements were done in the summer, where the warmer temperatures favor the presence of a liquid phase, while ozone depletion

episodes mostly take place around early spring. It is thus not clear whether surface snow, that is more susceptible to interact with the atmosphere, can be directly affected by sea salt migrating up from the sea ice in the spring.

Both these processes, that can bring bromide from sea salt into the surface layers of the marine snowpack, are illustrated in Fig. 1. The open sea can also be a source of sea salt, through wind action that generate sea salt aerosols (Buat-Ménard et al., 1974). However, Wolff et al. (2003) have determined that, at their measurement sites in Antarctica, sea ice is a much more efficient source of sea salt aerosol than the open sea, so we will not consider this latter source unless it appears necessary.

Understanding and modeling the flux of brominated compounds to the atmosphere through bromide activation requires, among many other aspects, the determination of which of these two processes is predominant. The frequency of both processes may also evolve with climate change, and determining current processes is a first step towards predicting the future availability of bromide for activation in surface snow.

25

To help shed some light on this question, we took advantage of 3 expeditions to the Arctic to sample snow on the sea ice, where the direct influence of the ocean would be detectable, and on land near the coast, where the influence of marine air masses would be felt, but not that of migration from sea ice. These expeditions were the winter

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



and spring intensive campaigns of Alert 2000 (Bottenheim et al., 2002b) and the spring intensive of the NICE campaign in Ny-Ålesund, Spitsbergen, in April/May 2001 (Beine et al., 2003).

- Our approach was to analyze mineral ions in snow by ion chromatography. Ion speciation yields useful data, compared to salinity measurements. Indeed, fractionation processes that can take place then become detectable, and this helps determine which process took place. For example, sodium and sulphate depletion due to mirabilite precipitation are expected if snow is affected by frost flowers deposited by wind (Rankin et al., 2002). Other ions can show fractionation due to the precipitation of other phases. In particular, Koop et al. (2000) calculated that Br⁻ could be enriched up to 100 times relative to sea water, at 230 K, after the successive precipitation of several salts. Mul-
- vaney et al. (1993) observed sea salt fractionation in Antarctica, that may be interpreted by the precipitation of a salt having an $MgCl_2$ stoichiometry.
- We present here vertical profiles and time series of ion compositions in several Arctic
 ¹⁵ locations. Our initial objective in the first sampling campaigns was not to answer the title question of this paper, and the first samplings were thus not perfectly targeted. Subsequent samplings became more adequately focused. Although the present data do not fully answer our question, we feel that they do bring a useful contribution to our understanding of the mechanism of transfer of sea salt and bromide to surface snow
 ²⁰ layers.

2. Experimental methods

2.1. Sites

Around Alert, (North coast of Ellesmere island, Canadian high Arctic) the sampling site on land was within 400 m of the FTX building (82°27.28′ N, 62°29.69′ W, Domine et al.,

25 2002), about 5.4 km from the coast. On the sea ice, the winter sampling site was on Joliffe bay (82°31.07′ N, 62°42.05′ W) and the spring sampling site was at 82°31.74′ N, 4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|--|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions | Conclusions References | | |
| Tables | Figures | | |
| I ⊲ ►I | | | |
| • | | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| Print Varaian | | | |
| | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |

 $62^\circ44.39'\,W_{\rm N}$ near Williams island. Sampling was also done on the Northern Arctic ocean on 25 April 2000, at $84^\circ56'\,N,\,67^\circ28'\,W.$

Around Ny-Ålesund (Svalbard archipelago, Spitsbergen island, European high Arctic), sampling was done near the Ny-Ålesund village (78°55.45 N, 11°55.67 E) by the

Amundsen mast, about 30 m from the shoreline. Sampling on the sea ice was in one of the rare locations where sea ice was present around Ny-Ålesund in May 2001, at 78°49' N, 11°40' E.

2.2. Snow sampling

Snow was sampled in a manner essentially similar to that described by Domine et
 al. (2002) for physical measurements. Polyethylene gloves were used to avoid contamination, and snow was sampled into polyethylene sampling vials. For each snow layer, triplicate samples were taken for anions and another set of triplicates was taken for cations. Samples were usually melted and analyzed on site by ion chromatography within 12 h of sampling, and in a few cases were stored frozen for up to 48 h before analysis.

2.3. Ion chromatography analyses

Melted snow was analyzed by ion chromatography (Dionex IC mod. DX120 and DX100) using Dionex AS12 and CS12 columns for anions and cations, respectively, as detailed in Table 1. Detection was by conductimetry coupled with post-column suppression of eluent ions. The use of self-regenerating suppressors that enhance analyte conductivity while suppressing eluent conductivity allowed parts-per-billion (ppb) detection limits for anions and cations without preconcentration.

To optimize detection limits and to ensure quality data, special care was taken in the field and in the laboratory to the quality control/assurance procedures (Allegrini et al., 1999; Perrino et al., 2001). The lower detection limits (L.O.D.) of the analytical technique (Table 2) were calculated as the analyte signal which is three times the

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



standard deviation (3σ) of a near-zero concentration measurement. The precision and accuracy of ion chromatography measurements were determined from the standard deviation and mean of repeated analyses of the laboratory standard. Typically, a multipoint calibration (seven standards in the range 5–1000 ppb) was used. The correlation coefficient from the regression equation of the average values was always greater than 0.999. The IC response was linear up to 20 μM for each chemical species analyzed, and dilutions were performed for more concentrated samples. For chromatographic analyses, control samples, consisting of calibration solutions of anions (Cl⁻, Br⁻, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, SO₄²⁻) and cations (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺), were analyzed every twenty samples in order to re-calibrate the ion chromatograph. Calibration solutions were prepared every two weeks from 1000 ppm standard solutions of salts (MERCK).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Vertical profiles on pack ice

The snow pack was studied in Joliffe Bay, near Alert, on 11 and 17 February 2000. The ice is essentially permanent there, and the probability that our sampling was on multi-15 year ice is then high. The snow stratigraphy was very variable, as detailed by Domine et al. (2002), with snow depth varying between 0 and 50 cm. The aspect of the snow bank that was sampled is shown in Fig. 2, along with sampling levels. During sampling, no liquid water could be detected anywhere, and the temperature in the snow near the surface of the snow pack was -40° C, increasing to -27° C 5 cm above the sea ice. The 20 Na⁺, Cl⁻, and Br⁻ profiles are also shown in Fig. 2. The ionic composition of the snow samples are detailed in Table 3, where the snow salinity has also been calculated from these analyses. Ionic ratios in the snow samples are shown in Table 4, where they can be compared to those of sea water. The maximum concentrations, with 295 μ M of Cl⁻ are found in the windpack closest to the sea ice, and the minimum concentrations 25 $(30 \,\mu\text{M} \text{ of Cl}^-)$ are found in the depth hoar. Cl⁻/Na⁺ molar ratios vary from 1.25 (lowest 4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



sampled layer) to 1.79 (depth hoar), i.e. somewhat higher than the sea salt value of 1.165 (Holland, 1978). This difference is not significant for the lowest layer sampled. Br⁻ concentrations are below detection limit (b.d.l.) in two cases. Cl⁻/Br⁻ values are 631 in the lower windpack, essentially identical to the sea water value of 647 (Holland,

- ⁵ 1978), while it is 126 for the uppermost layer, i.e. enriched in Br⁻ by a factor of 5 relative to sea water. Subsequent samplings at the same levels on 17 February yielded similar results. Interestingly, the lowest layer sampled had ratios of Cl⁻, Br⁻, Mg²⁺, and K⁺ to Na⁺ were all within 10% of those of sea water (Table 4). Ca²⁺/Na⁺ was 10 times the ocean value, but this can be explained by soil dust (Toom Sauntry and Bar-
- rie, 2002), whose ubiquitous presence in the lowermost snow layers gives the snow a darker color. Furthermore, the highest ionic concentrations were also found in this layer, and it appears reasonable to suggest that unfractionated sea salt was present 17 cm from the ice/snow interface, and that it reached this snow by migration from the sea ice. Unfortunately, no detailed sampling was done in the vicinity of the sea ice to confirm the presence of a gradient and to evidence higher concentrations near the ice surface.

Migration from the sea ice may not explain all the compositions observed. [CI⁻] in the uppermost layer is $49.8 \,\mu$ M, while that of the depth hoar is $30.1 \,\mu$ M. This may seem to rule out migration from the base of the snowpack. However, if migration of ions is by capillary forces and therefore takes place on the surface of snow crystals, it is possible that the ionic concentrations are proportional to the specific surface area (SSA) of the snow. Domine et al. (2002) mention that the depth hoar, the top windpack, and the recent surface snow had SSAs of 200, 240, and 680 cm²/g, respectively. The higher SSA of the higher layers imply that a significant part of their ion content could have been caused by upward migration. However, an examination of the ionic ratios (Table 4) show that the snow composition is different from that of sea salt. For example, in the top snow layer, Mg²⁺/Na⁺ and K⁺/Na⁺ are 2.1 and 1.7 times the sea salt values.

We then conclude that, even if upward migration reached surface snow, wet or dry deposition made significant contribution to the ionic content of the surface snow layers.

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



Data obtained on the Arctic Ocean site (84°56' N, 67°28' W) on 25 April 2000 tend to confirm this conclusion. The sampling site was in the vicinity of a recently refrozen lead, on an ice plate surrounded by pressure ridges. Judging from the extensive depth hoar development, the ice must have formed in the previous fall, and may even have been multi-year ice. The snow stratigraphy and chemistry are shown in Fig. 3. Large 5 concentrations of sodium (202 μ M) and chloride (356 μ M) were seen near the surface, while much lower values (1.4 and 2.7 μ M) were observed in the lowermost layer sampled, 13 cm above the ice. This clearly rules out upward capillary migration to explain the high near-surface concentrations. Ionic ratios are also very different from sea water values. Cl^{-}/Na^{+} values in the 4 layers sampled are, from top to bottom, 2.75, 1.76, 10 2.06, 1.96, all much higher than the 1.165 ocean value. Only two Br⁻ concentrations are available and the Cl⁻/Br⁻ ratios are 25 and 32 in the top and bottom layers, much lower than the 647 ocean value, indicating bromide enrichment by a factor over 20. Mg^{2+}/Na^{+} and K^{+}/Na^{+} ratios are also greater than in sea water, by factors up to 5. This vertical profile thus clearly indicates that, although sea salt has to be invoked to explain 15 the high sodium and chloride concentrations observed, it clearly did not come directly upwards from the sea ice. The low Cl⁻/Br⁻ ratio may be due to the active bromine chemistry involved in ozone destruction, that would produce large atmospheric HBr concentrations which could be taken up by the snow. Indeed, complete ozone destruction was observed at Alert in the morning of 26 April (Bottenheim et al., 2002a) and the 20 air mass was coming from the Arctic ocean, where active ozone destruction chemistry must have been taking place during and before sampling. Chloride is also activated by this chemistry, resulting in large HCl concentrations, and this may explain the high

CI⁻/Na⁺ ratios. Another possible explanation for the low CI⁻/Br⁻ ratio is that ions were supplied by wind-blown frost flowers, where enhanced Br⁻ concentrations can be suggested from the calculations of Koop et al. (2000). However, the hypotheses underlying those calculations may be questioned, based on one set of measurements by Rankin et al. (2002) of frost flowers in Antarctica, that found Br⁻/Na⁺ ratios similar to that of sea water. The high Mg²⁺/Na⁺ and K⁺/Na⁺ ratios can be interpreted as a contribution from

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



other sources, such as soil dust (as confirmed by high Ca²⁺ values) and anthropogenic emissions (as confirmed by high sulphate values).

These first two examples show that both upward migration and deposition from the atmosphere can lead to snow of salinity 0.02 psu (Na⁺ content around 200 μ M), about 5 20 cm above the ice surface. However, snow compositions in both these cases are very different, and this makes it possible to conclude that upward migration took place near Alert, while wind deposition took place on the northern Arctic ocean.

A further example of sea salt ions brought by wet or dry deposition comes from a study of the snowpack on sea ice near Alert on 23 April 2000 (Fig. 4). Again, only the top layers were analyzed. Cl⁻ and Na⁺ concentrations are fairly high, showing that sea salt contributed to snow chemistry. The shapes of the vertical profiles do not appear to be caused by upward transport, although windpacks usually have SSAs greater than depth hoar (Legagneux et al., 2002) and the process cannot be ruled out from the profiles only. Ionic ratios are different from those of sea salt (Table 4): Cl⁻/Na⁺ values in the 4 layers sampled are, from top to bottom, 2.55, 1.92, 2.20, 3.28. Mg²⁺/Na⁺ and K⁺/Na⁺ ratios are 3 to 5 times higher than in ocean water, again

- indicating multiple sources. Interestingly, the CI^{-}/Br^{-} ratio is less different from the ocean values than in the preceding case. The top layer has a value of 137, i.e. enriched by a factor of 5 relative to the ocean, but the other 3 layers have values of 515, 610 and
- 432, i.e. barely significantly different from the ocean values. We note that sampling took place before active ozone depletion chemistry (Bottenheim et al., 2002a), and the comparison between these last 2 vertical profiles suggests that ozone depletion chemistry may lead to the deposition of large concentrations of bromide to surface snow.
- ²⁵ The importance of upward motion of salt from the sea ice was tested in the spring near Ny-Ålesund. Figure 5 shows the stratigraphy and chemical composition of the snow pack on sea ice on 6 May 2001. Judging from the thin snowpack, the sea ice had formed recently, probably in late April. West Spitsbergen gets little sea ice, as it is under Gulf Stream influence. Moreover, 2001 was an anomalous year, in that the



Fjord at Ny-Ålesund was only frozen for a few weeks in April. As shown in Fig. 5, the snow temperature was fairly high, around -5° C, while the air temperature on this totally overcast day was -5.4° C, 1.5 m above the surface. Significant amounts of liquid water were observed in the bottom layer, 2 cm thick. Figure 5 shows that huge Na⁺ and Cl⁻

- ⁵ concentrations are found in the lowest layer: this snow has a salinity of about 5 psu. This snow did not appear to be water-saturated, and this is confirmed by its low density of 0.25. According to Colbeck (1982), this implies that the liquid water content was less than 14%, and the liquid was then rather a brine with a Cl⁻ content of at least 28 g/L. Unfortunately, an error in sample handling during the dilution procedure prevented the
 ¹⁰ accurate quantification of all ions, and the values for this layer, (Tables 3 and 4) are
- then lower limits. The Cl⁻/Na⁺ ratio measured, 8.4, appears unrealistic and illustrates the problem encountered.

In the snow layer above, that appeared dry and that was made of small rounded grains 0.4 to 0.6 mm in diameter, the Cl⁻ content was 728 μ M about 3 cm above the ¹⁵ ice, and it is reasonable to suggest that this high value was caused by upward capillary motion from the underlying brine. Again, analyses for this level was problematic and data for other ions are not reliable. In this same layer, but 6 cm above the ice, the Cl⁻ content was down to 82 μ M, a value that we have observed, although rarely, in precipitating snow in coastal regions. The composition of this snow (Table 4) appears consistent with migration of sea salt, and additional atmospheric input of SO²⁻₄ and Ca⁺⁺. The Cl⁻/Br⁻ ratio is half that of sea water, and this may be due to atmospheric input. 8 cm above the sea ice, the Cl⁻ content was 3 μ M, which is fairly low even for

precipitating snow. The ion ratios in this snow are not very different from those of sea water (Table 4). This suggests that its composition could be the result of upward ²⁵ migration, but this would require a very low ionic content of the precipitating snow, so that its original composition would not obscure the sea salt signature. Alternatively, this composition could be due to the atmospheric scavenging of mostly sea salt, which is quite possible in this marine environment. Finally, the Cl⁻ concentration from the top layer, 62μ M, cannot be due to transport from the ice at all, considering the low

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



concentration of the underlying layer.

Two conclusions can be derived from this vertical profile. First, upward transport of sea salt from the sea ice is evidenced in the presence of a brine. This clearly is not new, as numerous salinity studies of snow on sea ice have observed this (Eicken et al., 1994; Massom et al., 2001). However, the interesting observation is that, even at the warm temperatures observed, upward capillary motion leads to high sea salt concentrations only up to 6 to 7 cm, over a time scale that we estimate as a month at the most. Even in this thin 10 cm snowpack, the basal brine does not affect the top snow layer, at least over a time scale of about a month. Thus, in this case, the atmosphere is not in direct contact with snow that has been affected by sea ice.

To sum up this section, 2 of these 4 profiles indicate that upward capillary motion does take place up to a certain height in the snowpack. In the other 2 cases, this conclusion is not reached simply because the relevant measurements were not made, and the existence of this physical process cannot be ruled out. However, in all 4 cases we can safely say that the composition of the uppermost snow layer was not signif-

- ¹⁵ we can safely say that the composition of the uppermost snow layer was not significantly affected by upward capillary motion. The chemical composition of these top layers indicate several contributing sources, and we may have detected the effect of ozone depletion chemistry on snow composition, as this process may explain high Br⁻ concentrations. Sea salt deposited from the atmosphere was clearly a contributor to
- the chemistry of the top snow layer. We cannot determine whether this "atmospheric" sea salt was supplied by frost flowers, as sulphate can have multiple sources, and the SO₄²⁻/Na⁺ ratio cannot be used for that purpose. In the case of the Spitsbergen profile, Cl⁻ depletion, possibly due to fractionation of atmospheric sea salt by sulphate (Legrand and Delmas, 1988) present in high concentrations, is visible in the top layer.
- ²⁵ In addition to these vertical profiles, time series of the chemistry of a given snow layer provide valuable insights into the processes responsible for snow composition.

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



3.2. Time series

3.2.1. 3 and 7 February layers, Alert

The chemistry of the snowfalls of 3 and 7 February 2000 (Domine et al., 2002) was monitored on land at Alert, near the FTX building. The evolutions of the Cl⁻ and Br⁻ concentrations are shown in Fig. 6a. As detailed in Domine et al. (2002) both 5 layers were deposited on a hard wind-packed layer. The 3 February layer fell under windy conditions, accumulated in wind-sheltered spots such as the lee of sastrugi and was discontinuous. The 7 February layer fell under calm conditions and was homogeneous. Its composition (Tables 3 and 4) indicate contributions from sea salt, long range transport of SO_4^{2-} and other ions, and a local source of several ions, essentially Ca^{2+} 10 (Toom-Sauntry and Barrie, 2002). The Cl⁻ concentrations showed little variations until 22 February. The slow decrease of Cl⁻ in the 7 February layer is probably due to the dilution of this layer by surface hoar, that formed continuously (Domine et al., 2002) but in insufficient amounts to be sampled separately. To try to determine the chemistry of surface hoar, hoar frost that was growing on antenna guy wires was sampled, and showed a Cl⁻ content of 11.9 μ M on 16 February and of 13.3 μ M on 20 February, confirming the dilution suggestion. Until 20 February, Cl⁻ in the 3 February layer shows slight variations without a clear trend, ascribed, as in the case of its physical properties, to the spatially variable wind action during deposition (Domine et al., 2002). Br⁻ decreases slightly in the 7 February layer, while its decrease is dramatic in the 3 February

layer, as it falls below detection limit on 20 February. A possible interpretation is that Br⁻ is depleted by dark reactions that activate bromide into Br₂ and BrCl, as detected by Foster et al. (2001) with an instrument located near our sampling site. The decrease is less in the 7 February layer because Br⁻ can be dry-deposited and because surface hoar contains 110 nM of Br⁻, as suggested by hoar frost analyses.

As shown in Fig. 6b the CI^{-}/Br^{-} ratio is fairly stable around 100 in the 7 February layer until 20 February, showing that Br^{-} is enriched relative to sea salt by a factor of 5 to 8. Regarding the 3 February layer, the ratio on 9 February is similar to that of

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|--|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions | Conclusions References | | |
| Tables | Figures | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| • | • | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| | | | |
| Print Version | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |

the upper layer, but then rises rapidly to the sea water value on 15 February. On 20 February, the ratio clearly shows a large Br^- depletion relative to sea water, but we cannot quantify it.

- On 22 February, a wind storm took place, with wind speed measured at the nearby
 GAW laboratory reaching a maximum of 7 m/s. This mixed both layers and accumulated them in wind-sheltered spots, with the probable addition of a few loose crystals from the windpack. Both Cl⁻ and Br⁻ concentrations increased dramatically. Ianniello et al. (2002) analyzed aerosols and gases at Alert between 9 and 21 February 2000, with a 48-h time resolution. They report mean HCl and HBr atmospheric concentrations of 11.3 and 16.7 ng.m⁻³, while Cl⁻ and Br⁻ concentration from aerosols were 73.9 and 5.2 ng.m⁻³. However, these values show much scatter with time, and to estimate a value for 22 February, we prefer to consider the value measured for the period from 19 to 21 February, which are undetectable for HCl, 23 ng.m⁻³ for HBr, and 31.8 and 10.5 ng.m⁻³ for Cl⁻ and Br⁻. Both aerosol deposition and the scavenging of HCl and HBr may have contributed to the increases in snow concentrations. Judging from the mass of snow present on the ground before and after the wind storm.
- mass of snow present on the ground before and after the wind storm, sublimation by wind transport cannot explain the increase. In any case, this wind storm proves that large amounts of Cl⁻ and Br⁻ can rapidly be deposited to snow by wind. Enrichment by windpack crystals can be safely ruled out, as the concentrations there were lower than ²⁰ in both February layers, and Br⁻ levels in particular were undetectable. Finally, while (Cl⁻ + HCl)/(Br⁻ + HBr) in the atmosphere was 8.8 on a molar basis, the wind-blown snow took up about 50 μ M of Cl⁻ and only about 0.3 μ M of Br⁻, indicating that Cl⁻ was transfered to the snow much more efficiently than Br⁻. A quantitative comparison of
- ion uptake with other wind storms will be done after the description of those observed at Ny-Ålesund.

2.0.0 07 and 20 April 2001 lower

3.2.2. 27 and 29 April 2001 layer, Ny-Ålesund

The 27 April snow fall started around 7h00 until 11h00, while the air temperature (at 2.7 m height) was between -1 and $-2^{\circ}C$ (Fig. 7). It consisted of rimed dendritic crys-



ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Interactive Discussion

tals. Snow showers then occurred in the afternoon and evening, with snow crystals having various shapes: plates, dendritic crystals, and needles in the evening. The total thickness of the snowfall was about 3 cm (Fig. 8). The air temperature then rose to 0.5°C in the evening of both 27 and 28 under overcast conditions, initiating melting at

- the top of the layer. This produced a superficial melt-freeze crust about 5 mm thick, that was still permeable and never resembled an ice layer. No percolation was observed in the underlying part of the layer. This snow layer was covered on 29 April by a new snowfall, 4.5 cm thick, made up of small irregular crystals, that fell under an air temperatures between -1 and -3°C, between 6h00 and 23h00. A wind crust progressively formed on the 29 April layer, that reached a thickness of 1 cm on 4 May (Fig. 9). This new snowfall and the crust certainly bindered subsequent exchanges between the
- This new snowfall and the crust certainly hindered subsequent exchanges between the atmosphere and the 27 April layer.

At Ny-Ålesund, snow falls were very frequent, making conditions quite different from those at Alert. Solid precipitations were observed on 18, 20, 23 and 25 April, producing ¹⁵ snow layers a few cm thick at the most. Also, while Alert is generally quite calm, there is always wind at Ny-Ålesund. As a result, some snow is frequently raised by wind, some layers are eroded and several different layers are exposed. A newly deposited layer can thus easily be contaminated by wind-raised snow, originating from different layers of potentially very different chemical composition. The snow surface is very

- irregular, with sastrugi about 5 to 20 cm high, of wavelength between 2 and 10 m, that produce irregular wind pumping and therefore variable dry deposition of atmospheric species, whose snow concentrations are bound to be spatially very variable. The result of these conditions is that snow composition was found to be spatially heterogeneous, and triplicate samples often showed a large variability. The analytical procedure was
- essentially the same as at Alert, and thus cannot be the cause of the moderate to poor analytical reproducibility. We attempted to minimize the effect of those spatial variations by taking triplicate samples as close as possible to each other, and by doing subsequent sampling close to previous ones.

The 29 April snow layer was sampled at two levels: at the very surface (top 1 cm) and

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|--|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions | Conclusions References | | |
| Tables Figures | | | |
| 14 | | | |
| | | | |
| • | ► | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| | | | |
| Print Version | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |

about 3 cm below the surface. Figure 8 shows that initially, the 29 April snowfall was very poor in Cl⁻ : $0.5 \,\mu$ M for the snow sampled at 13h00, when accumulation was about 2 cm. Precipitating snow was also sampled at 18h30, when accumulation was about 4 cm, and had a very low Cl⁻ content: $1.9 \,\mu$ M. Subsequently, the Cl⁻ content of the middle part of the layer remained essentially stable around $2 \,\mu$ M, with one exception on 29 April when contamination by the underlying layer may have taken place, as

- suggested by the large standard deviation. On the contrary, the Cl⁻ content of the top part of the layer, which was developing a wind crust, increased to 70 μ M on 30 April and remained stable around that concentration.
- ¹⁰ On 30 April, wind was moderate, between 3 and 4.5 m/s for a large fraction of the day, and did not raise snow. This is when the Cl⁻ concentration increased rapidly to 70 μ M in the top sublayer, suggesting that dry deposition by wind-pumping was operative. After that windy spell, conditions were calm, with wind speed staying essentially below 2 m/s until the last sampling on 2 May. The stability of the ionic concentrations in the ¹⁵ top crust can be due to the low wind speed, or may also be attributed to the formation of the wind crust, with a much reduced permeability. The Cl⁻/Na⁺ ratio stayed stable
- in the top part, around 1.5 to 1.6 with error bars around 0.3. For the middle sublayers, error bars were around 1 or greater, and data are not meaningful. We then suggest that the increase in Cl⁻ in the top sublayer is due to the deposition of moderately depleted sea salt, with no detectable deposition of HCl.

The 27 April layers offers another excellent opportunity to evaluate the effect of dry deposition due to wind pumping. The storm of 8 May lasted 15 h (Fig. 7) with wind speeds reaching 12.5 m/s, that produced a strong erosion of the snow pack. The top layer was the wind crust of the 29 April layer, that was partly eroded (Fig. 9). The un-²⁵ protected soft snow from the 29 April layer became also quickly eroded, thus exposing the 27 April melt/freeze crust in many places, but not everywhere. Figure 9 and Table 3 show that before the storm, the Cl⁻ concentration of the 27 April crust remained essentially constant, around 40 μ M, while its Na⁺ content was around 35 μ M. On 8 May at 23h00, the 27 April crust was sampled, both in exposed parts and in parts where it 4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



was still sheltered by the 29 April layer. Figure 9 clearly shows that the ion concentrations of the unexposed portion was not affected by the wind storm. On the contrary, the exposed portion saw its chloride content jump to $450 \,\mu$ M.

- The error on the Cl⁻/Na⁺ ratio is large, because the error on each concentrations,
 taken as the standard deviation in triplicate samples, is large. Nevertheless, Figure 10 shows that the Cl⁻/Na⁺ ratio remains constant around 1.165, the sea water value. We thus conclude from this case study that (i) the Cl⁻ and Na⁺ in the 27 April melt/freeze crust were probably unfractionated sea salt, and not scavenged HCl. Likewise, after exposure on 8 May, Cl⁻ and Na⁺ were again present as sea salt. (ii) Dry deposition,
 enhanced by wind pumping, can deposit enormous quantities of sea salt onto surface snow in just 15 h. (iii) A few cm of snow are sufficient to shield underlying layers from sea salt deposition by wind pumping, at least with the surface snow structure that was observed. The depth of penetration of wind-pumped sea salt into snow then appears to be here only about 2 cm. A similar depth can be derived from our study of the 29
 April snow layer. Of course, we realize that this may vary with the physical properties
- of snow, and in particular with its permeability (Albert and Schultz, 2002).

3.2.3. Efficiency of ion uptake

From the 3 time series discussed above, we now consider quantitatively the deposition of ions to snow by wind storms. The data detailed above indicate that, during wind storms, deposition of aerosols is more efficient than the uptake of gases. To a first approximation, we then expect the amount of ion deposition, *Dep*, to be proportional to wind speed, *V*, to the concentration of ions in the atmosphere in an aerosol form, *C*, and to the duration of the wind storm, *t*, so that:

Dep = AVCt

²⁵ where *A* is the proportionality factor. To test Eq. (1), *Dep* for Cl⁻ has been plotted as a function of the product *VCt* in Fig. 11. According to Teinilä et al. (2003), the Cl⁻ atmospheric concentration during the 30 April storm was 276 ng.m⁻³, and it was

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



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(1)

649 ng.m⁻³ during the 8 May storm. For the 30 April storm, we use a mean wind speed of 3 m/s during 0.7 day, and a mean wind speed of 10 m/s during 0.5 day for the 8 May storm. We use a Cl⁻ value of 32 ng for the Alert storm, as detailed above, and a wind speed of 4 m/s during 0.35 day.

- Figure 11 shows that Eq. (1) seems to hold when only the Ny-Ålesund data is consid-5 ered: the proportionally factors for both events are within 10% of each other. However, it is 9 times higher for the Alert event. We suggest that this is because during the Alert event, the snow was wind-blown, resulting in a maximal exposure of the snow to atmospheric aerosols. At Ny-Ålesund, on the contrary, aerosol had to penetrate through
- a wind crust or a melt freeze crust, and this extra resistance certainly limited aerosol penetration. We come to the conclusion that at least one factor is missing in Eq. (1), that should include the efficiency of air circulation in the snow. Obviously, it is maximal when the snow is airborne. For snow layers on the ground, we suggest testing the hypothesis that the inclusion of snow permeability in Eq. (1) would improve its applica-
- bility. Perhaps the snow SSA should also be included, as this may impact the efficiency 15 of capture of aerosol particles.

Conclusions 4.

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The objective of this paper was to test the importance of two processes potentially contributing to the ionic content of snow on sea ice: upward migration from the sea ice, and deposition by wind. Wolff et al. (2003) and Rankin et al. (2002) hypothesized from Antarctic observations that wind-deposited ions may come essentially from frost flowers.

Our observations of Figs. 2 and 5 show that upward migration can indeed take place and be observed even in winter snow at temperatures near -30°C, and affect the snowpack up to at least 17 cm from the ice surface, where a Cl⁻ concentration of 300 μ M 25 was observed. The data of Fig. 2 and Table 3 show that sea salt in this case migrated upward without detectable fractionation. Domine et al. (2002) mentioned that snow

4754

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



thickness on Arctic sea ice near Alert was very variable, between 0 and 50 cm. Eicken et al. (1994) showed that snow thickness was very variable on the Weddell sea (Antarctica), with maximal frequencies around 5–25 cm. We then conclude that migration of ions from sea ice indeed has the potential to affect a significant fraction of the surface
 snow layers ion sea ice. The sea salt reaching the surface of the snowpack can then

show layers ion sea ice. The sea sait reaching the surface of the showpack can ther be transported by wind and scatterred over the entire marine snowpack.

However, in the four case studies of Figs. 2 to 5, we could never come to the conclusion that most of the ions in surface snow came from upward migration from sea ice. We believe that more numerous case studies are needed. Also, our selection

of sampling site was biased towards thicker snow banks, subjectively viewed as more interesting. Furthermore, dry deposition of SO₄²⁻ and Ca²⁺, ubiquitous in the Arctic troposphere, can rapidly obscure any sea salt chemical signature and make the detection of upward migration in surface layers difficult. We suggest that time series of vertical profiles on sea ice, over several weeks to months, would shed additional light on the actual impact of upward migration on surface snow composition.

The impact of wind deposition on snow composition was tested on land, to avoid interference from sea ice. We conclude that wind can rapidly increase ionic concentrations in snow, especially if the snow becomes airborne. Wind deposition was observed to lead to Cl⁻ concentrations of 450 μ M at Ny-Ålesund, similar to those produced by upward migration on sea ice, 17 cm up the snow. This process was found to affect only the top 2 cm of the snowpack, but wind or melt/freeze crusts were always present, and this may have limited the depth of penetration of wind-borne aerosols. In the Ny-Ålesund case, the deposited ions had clearly a sea salt signature without fractionation. If future measurements confirm that frost flowers are always fractionated, then we con-

clude that frost flowers were not the source of these ions and are thus not necessary to produce very large ionic concentrations in snow. Since the sea was essentially ice free around Ny-Ålesund, we observe, in contrast to observations made in Antarctica by Wolff et al. (2003) and Rankin et al. (2002) that the ice-free ocean can also be an efficient contributor of sea salt to the continental snowpack. The impact of this conclusion

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



should be minimized, however, because our sampling site was right on the coast, and we believe that the size distribution of sea salt aerosols generated by open water and by frost flowers should be compared to evaluate the distance over which they can be transported.

- To sum up our conclusions on the origin of sea salt in Arctic snow, we find, in contrast to Wolff et al. (2003) and Rankin et al. (2002) that upward migration from the sea ice and transport by wind from the open sea can significantly contribute to the sea salt loading of snow. Of course, the question of the spatial and temporal representativity of our few measurements remain. But it is clear that different processes may dominate
- in the Arctic and the Antarctic. The Antarctic seas are warmer than the Arctic ocean, the ice is mostly less than one year old, and open leads are more likely to open and produce frost flowers. Furthermore, the Halley Bay and Neumayer sites are close to frequent open waters, and may be particularly subjected to frost flowers influence. In any case, more measurement campaigns over long durations and at many different types of sites will have to be performed before the sources of sea salt to polar snow
- can be assessed.

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Regarding the Br⁻ content of snow, our data from Alert and the northern Arctic Ocean suggest that ozone depletion chemistry can significantly enhance the Br⁻ content of snow. This suggests a mechanism to transport Br⁻ over continents, and propagate bromide-driven ozone destruction over land.

Despite this enhancement caused by essentially marine chemistry, the highest Br⁻ concentration observed was on land at Ny-Ålesund, in the wind-exposed 27 April layer, where its concentration reached $0.62 \,\mu$ M. As mentioned above, this Br⁻ definitely came from unfractionated sea salt, implying that frost flowers are not necessary to produce large Br⁻ concentrations in snow.

Our discussions of ion migration up the snow pack and of wind deposition of ions indicate that physical studies of the snow are necessary to quantify ion transfer to snow. In particular, we suggest that measurements of the permeability and specific surface area are indispensable in future studies.

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|---------|--|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions References | | | |
| Tables | Figures | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| • | ► | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| | | | |
| Print Version | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |



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4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|--|--|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions References | | | |
| Tables Figures | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| < > | | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| | | | |
| Print Version | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |

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4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | |
| Conclusions References | | |
| Tables Figures | | |
| | | |
| | ►I | |
| • • | | |
| Back Close | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | |
| Full Scre | en / Esc | |
| Full Scre | en / Esc | |
| Full Scre Print V | en / Esc ersion | |

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4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | |
|------------------------|------------|--|
| Abstract Introduction | | |
| Conclusions | References | |
| Tables Figures | | |
| | | |
| | ►I | |
| • | • | |
| Back Close | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | |
| | | |
| Print Version | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | |



¹⁰

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | |
|------------------------|--------------|--|--|
| Abstract | Introduction | | |
| Conclusions | References | | |
| Tables Figures | | | |
| | | | |
| • | | | |
| Back Close | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | |
| Print Version | | | |
| Interactive Discussion | | | |

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 Table 1. Operating conditions of the IC analyses during all campaigns.

| | IC DX 100 cation analysis | IC DX 120 anion analysis |
|-----------------------------|--|--|
| Column | CS12A (4×250 mm) | AS12A (4×200 mm) |
| Pre-column | CG12A (4×50 mm) | AG12A (4×50 mm) |
| Suppressor | CSRS-II (4 mm) | ASRS-II (4 mm) |
| Operative Flow Rate | 1 ml/min | 1.5 ml/min |
| Loop | 150 <i>μ</i> Ι | 300 <i>µ</i> I |
| Elution procedure | Isocratic | isocratic |
| Dionex Eluent | Methanesulphonic acid, | Buffer solution of Na ₂ CO ₃ |
| | MSA 20 mM | 2.1 mM, NaHCO ₃ 0.8 mM |
| Analyte species Detector | Na ⁺ , K ⁺ , Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , NH ₄ ⁺ Conductivity cell | SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , CI^- , NO_2^- , Br^- Conductivity cell |

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|--|--|--|--|
| Abstract | Introduction | | | | |
| Conclusions | References | | | | |
| Tables | Figures | | | | |
| I < | ►I | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Back | Close | | | | |
| Full Scre | een / Esc | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Print \ | /ersion | | | | |
| Interactive | Discussion | | | | |
| | | | | | |

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Table 2. Laboratory precision and detection limits during all campaigns.

| Measured species by IC | Precision ¹ [%] | 3σ L.O.D. [ppb] |
|------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| CI | 3.33 | 2 |
| NO ₂ | 3.29 | 0.6 |
| Br | 1.40 | 0.8 |
| NO ₃ | 1.36 | 0.6 |
| SO_4^{2-} | 2.18 | 2 |
| Na ⁺ | 2.99 | 1 |
| NH ⁺ | 3.63 | 0.3 |
| K ⁺ | 2.29 | 0.3 |
| Mg ²⁺ | 2.46 | 2 |
| Ca ²⁺ | 1.42 | 10 |

¹ The laboratory precision is estimated on the basis of repeated analyzed carried out at a concentration level of 100 ng/ml typical of samples collected in polar sites.

Table 3. Ionic composition of snow samples, in units of μ M; bdl: below detection limit; na: not available.

| Layer or date | CI | Br | NO ₃ ⁻ | SO₄‴ | Na' | NH4 | K. | Mgʻʻ | Ca | Salinity,psu |
|----------------------|----------------|-------------|------------------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|--------------|------------|--------------|
| | | | | | Vertical | profiles | 5 | | | |
| Alert, February 2000 | | | | | | - | | | | |
| 7 February Fall | 49.8 | 0.39 | 4.8 | 5.6 | 33.5 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 7.9 | 36.4 | 0.0051 |
| Upper windpack | 40.0 | bdl | 3.6 | 3.4 | 29.9 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 5.3 | 12.7 | 0.0033 |
| Depth hoar | 30.2 | bdl | 2.6 | 3.0 | 16.8 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 2.4 | 7.9 | 0.0023 |
| Lower windpack | 294.8 | 0.47 | 1.2 | 9.5 | 235.1 | 0.0 | 5.7 | 29.1 | 55.2 | 0.0200 |
| Arctic Ocean, 85°N | | | | | | | | | | |
| Surface hoar | 4.0 | 0.16 | 9.3 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 2.2 | 0.0010 |
| Crust | 356.1 | bdl | 2.9 | 6.2 | 202.5 | 1.9 | 9.0 | 49.0 | 8.4 | 0.0200 |
| Windpack | 65.0 | bdl | 1.0 | 3.1 | 31.5 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 3.8 | 1.3 | 0.0036 |
| Depth hoar | 2.7 | 0.08 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 1.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.0003 |
| Alert, April 2000 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Recent snow | 15.5 | 0.11 | 9.3 | 3.2 | 6.0 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 2.5 | 5.8 | 0.0019 |
| Windpack, top | 36.2 | 0.07 | 4.5 | 2.8 | 18.8 | 0.6 | 1.5 | 8.3 | 5.7 | 0.0028 |
| Windpack, bott. | 39.0 | 0.06 | 4.5 | 2.6 | 17.8 | 0.6 | 1.4 | 8.5 | 5.4 | 0.0028 |
| Depth hoar | 34.7 | 0.08 | 5.0 | 2.4 | 10.5 | 0.7 | 1.1 | 5.8 | 2.7 | 0.0023 |
| Spitsbergen, May 20 | 01 | | | | | | | | | |
| Surface crust | 62.3 | 0.17 | 6.8 | 18.6 | 160.2 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 20.9 | 8.4 | 0.0092 |
| Decomp. grains | 3.1 | bdl | 3.7 | 2.0 | 3.3 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.0007 |
| Round grains, top | 82.2 | 0.29 | 4.7 | 13.0 | 75.9 | 3.9 | 2.4 | 12.5 | 4.8 | 0.0069 |
| Round grains, bot. | 728.7 | bdl | 0.0 | 24.6 | 102.9 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 7.9 | 1.6 | 0.0309 |
| Wet snow | 110757.0 | bdl | 0.0 | 3157.7 | 13194.7 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 1.4 | 0.3 | 4.5334 |
| | | | | | T | | | | | |
| Alort Fobruary 2000 | | | | | Time ser | les | | | | |
| 00/2/2000 | 19.6 | 0.23 | 22 | 3.5 | na | na | na | na | na | na |
| 10/2/2000 | 10.5 | 0.20 | 2.2 | 3.5 | 11 5 | 12 | 0.0 | 30 | 53 | 0.0019 |
| 15/2/2000 | 19.3 | 0.24 | 2.1 | 5.7 | 11.0 | 1.2 | 0.0 | 3.0 | 5.5 | 0.0018 |
| 20/2/2000 | 17.5 | 0.22 | 3.0 | 5.9 | 0.7 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 2.9 | 7.0 | 0.0020 |
| 20/2/2000 | 66.4 | 0.13 | 1.8 | 33 | 5.1 na | 2.0 | 0.J na | 2.1 na | 7.0 na | 0.0020 |
| Alort Eobruary 2000 | 00.4 | 0.50 | 1.0 | 5.5 | na | na | Па | na | па | na |
| Alert, Tebruary 2000 | 13.0 | 0.16 | 4.5 | 2.9 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 22 | n 2 | 22 |
| 10/2/2000 | 15.5 | 0.10 | 4.5 | 2.0 | 66 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 110 | 31 | 0.0012 |
| 15/2/2000 | 19.0 | 0.10 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 0.0012 |
| 20/2/2000 | 10.0 | 0.03 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 0.0012 |
| 20/2/2000 | 15.2 | 0.30 | 1.0 | 2.4 | 9.2 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 2.0 | 0.1 no | 0.0012 |
| Ny Ålosund Spring 2 | 001 27 Apr | il lavor | r.o | orod | na | na | Па | na | na | na |
| 27/4/2001 | 180 | 0 11 | , SHEIL | 11.2 | 30.4 | 10.2 | 1.0 | 5.0 | 3.0 | 0.0047 |
| 21/4/2001 | 40.0 | 0.11 | 0.4 1/2 | 12.2 | 59.4 | 10.2 | 1.0 | 12 6 | 5.9 | 0.0047 |
| 02/5/2001 | 39.2 | 0.20 | 4.2 | 12.2 | 22.2 | 12.1 | 2.3 | 12.0 | 3.9 | 0.0039 |
| 07/5/2001 | 30.2 | 0.10 bdl | 9.4 | 7.0 | 32.3 | 12.1 | 0.9 | 4.5 | 3.0 | 0.0044 |
| 07/5/2001 | 33.9 | bdl | 1.5 | 1.0 | 30.7 | 3.1 4.6 | 0.9 | 4.4 | J.0 1 G | 0.0034 |
| Ny Ålogund Spring 2 | 44.0 | il laver | 10.4 | 9.0 50d | 37.3 | 4.0 | 0.9 | 5.1 | 4.0 | 0.0044 |
| 08/5/2001 | 140 A | n layer | , exp0 | 300 | 379.0 | 1 5 | Q 1 | 44.4 | 15.0 | 0.0205 |
| 00/5/2001 | 449.4 250 4 | 0.02 | 10.0 | 31.7 | 310.2 | 4.5 | 0.1 | 44.4 27.4 | 10.9 | 0.0305 |
| 09/5/2001 | 358.4 | 0.53 | 9.8 | 27.6 | 300.1 | 4.6 | 6.9 | 37.4 | 14.6 | 0.0248 |

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|--|--|--|--|
| Abstract | Introduction | | | | |
| Conclusions | References | | | | |
| Tables | Figures | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| [◀ | ►I | | | | |
| • | • | | | | |
| Back | Close | | | | |
| Full Screen / Esc | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Print | Version | | | | |
| Interactive | Discussion | | | | |

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title | e Page |
|-------------|--------------|
| Abstract | Introduction |
| Conclusions | References |
| Tables | Figures |
| | |
| I | ۶I |
| • | ► |
| Back | Close |
| Full Sci | reen / Esc |
| | |
| Print | Version |

Interactive Discussion

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Table 3. Continued.

| Layer or date | CI | Br' | NO ₃ ⁻ | SO4 | Na⁺ | NH_4^+ | K⁺ | Mg ⁺⁺ | Ca ⁺⁺ | Salinity.psu |
|-----------------------|------------|---------|------------------------------|-----|------|----------|-----|------------------|------------------|--------------|
| Ny-Ålesund Spring 200 | 1, 29 Apri | l laye | r, middl | е | | | | | | |
| 29/4/01 13:00 | 0.5 | bdl | 2.3 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.0002 |
| 29/4/01 18:30 | 4.7 | bdl | 3.5 | 1.2 | 4.1 | 0.8 | 0.2 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.0006 |
| 30/4/01 10:30 | 1.4 | bdl | 1.9 | 0.5 | 1.6 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0003 |
| 30/4/01 22:30 | 2.5 | bdl | 2.3 | 1.3 | 3.2 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.0005 |
| 01/5/01 10:45 | 1.8 | bdl | 2.2 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0004 |
| 01/5/01 21:00 | 1.8 | bdl | 2.4 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0004 |
| 02/5/01 14:30 | 0.7 | bdl | 2.4 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0003 |
| Ny-Ålesund Spring 200 | 1, 29 Apri | l layei | r, top | | | | | | | |
| 29/4/01 18:30 | 1.9 | bdl | 1.8 | 0.7 | 2.0 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.0003 |
| 30/4/01 10:30 | 25.5 | 0.10 | 2.6 | 3.5 | 23.5 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 2.6 | 1.0 | 0.0021 |
| 30/4/01 14:00 | 36.7 | 0.26 | 3.0 | 4.2 | 33.5 | 1.6 | 0.9 | 3.7 | 1.4 | 0.0029 |
| 30/4/01 15:00 | 72.5 | 0.22 | 2.9 | 6.9 | 72.6 | 2.8 | 1.7 | 8.5 | 2.2 | 0.0055 |
| 30/4/01 22:30 | 64.2 | 0.15 | 2.7 | 6.7 | 62.6 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 6.9 | 1.9 | 0.0049 |
| 01/5/01 10:45 | 62.5 | 0.17 | 3.0 | 6.7 | 60.2 | 2.3 | 1.3 | 6.7 | 1.7 | 0.0048 |
| 01/5/01 21:00 | 70.1 | 0.19 | 3.1 | 8.3 | 70.5 | 2.7 | 1.5 | 8.2 | 2.2 | 0.0055 |
| 02/5/01 14:30 | 64.9 | 0.15 | 3.2 | 7.6 | 63.3 | 2.6 | 1.3 | 7.3 | 1.8 | 0.0050 |

Table 4. Molar ionic composition of snow samples, normalized to Na^+ . Sea water composition is shown for comparison.

| Layer or date | CI BI | r S | O₄ | Na⁺ | K⁺ | Mg ^{⁺⁺} | Ca ^{⁺⁺} |
|----------------------|--------------------|---------------|----------------|-----------|---------|------------------|------------------|
| | | | v | ertical p | rofiles | | |
| Sea water | 1.165 | 0.0018 | 0.0597 | 1 | 0.0218 | 0.1133 | 0.0219 |
| Alert, February 2000 |) | | | | | | |
| 7 February Fall | 1.487 | 0.0118 | 0.1673 | 1 | 0.0370 | 0.2376 | 1.0884 |
| Upper windpack | 1.339 | bdl | 0.1144 | 1 | 0.0318 | 0.1786 | 0.4245 |
| Depth hoar | 1.795 | bdl | 0.1771 | 1 | 0.0247 | 0.1443 | 0.4716 |
| Lower windpack | 1.254 | 0.0020 | 0.0405 | 1 | 0.0241 | 0.1238 | 0.2349 |
| Arctic Ocean, 85°N | | | | | | | |
| Surface hoar | 2.749 | 0.1116 | 1.1373 | 1 | 0.1388 | 0.3584 | 1.4704 |
| Crust | 1.758 | bdl | 0.0304 | 1 | 0.0444 | 0.2421 | 0.0417 |
| Windpack | 2.062 | bdl | 0.0989 | 1 | 0.0303 | 0.1195 | 0.0398 |
| Depth hoar | 1.905 | 0.0589 | 0.5453 | 1 | 0.1302 | 0.1792 | 0.2404 |
| Alert, April 2000 | | | | | | | |
| Recent snow | 2.557 | 0.0186 | 0.5261 | 1 | 0.0602 | 0.4177 | 0.9612 |
| Windpack, top | 1.922 | 0.0037 | 0.1511 | 1 | 0.0777 | 0.4424 | 0.3004 |
| Windpack, bott. | 2.199 | 0.0036 | 0.1475 | 1 | 0.0801 | 0.4770 | 0.3061 |
| Depth hoar | 3.287 | 0.0076 | 0.2247 | 1 | 0.1001 | 0.5484 | 0.2591 |
| Spitsbergen, May 20 | 001 | | | | | | |
| Surface crust | 0.389 | 0.0010 | 0.1162 | 1 | 0.0236 | 0.1305 | 0.0525 |
| Decomp. grains | 0.942 | bdl | 0.6031 | 1 | 0.0235 | 0.1387 | 0.1797 |
| Round grains, top | 1.084 | 0.0038 | 0.1710 | 1 | 0.0312 | 0.1641 | 0.0638 |
| Round grains, bot. | 7.078 | bdl | 0.2393 | 1 | 0.0150 | 0.0766 | 0.0157 |
| Wet snow | 8.394 | bdl | 0.2393 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.0001 | 0.0000 |
| | | | т | ime seri | es | | |
| Alert, February 2000 |) | | | | | | |
| 09/2/2000 | na | na | na r | na na | na | na | na |
| 10/2/2000 | 1.697 | 0.0207 | 0.3238 | 1 | 0.0711 | 0.3279 | 0.4621 |
| 15/2/2000 | 1.570 | 0.0199 | 0.5299 | 1 | 0.0547 | 0.2552 | 0.4978 |
| 20/2/2000 | 1.628 | 0.0134 | 0.6381 | 1 | 0.0496 | 0.2766 | 0.7223 |
| 22/2/2000 | na | na | na r | na na | na | na | na |
| Alert, February 2000 |) | | | | | | |
| 09/2/2000 | na | na | na r | na na | na | na | na |
| 10/2/2000 | 2.364 | 0.0150 | 0.2266 | 1 | 0.0721 | 0.3453 | 0.5234 |
| 15/2/2000 | 2.093 | 0.0036 | 0.2283 | 1 | 0.0345 | 0.1990 | 0.2601 |
| 20/2/2000 | 1.444 | bdl | 0.2642 | 1 | 0.0397 | 0.2138 | 0.3370 |
| 22/2/2000 | na | na | na r | na na | na | na | na |
| Ny-Ålesund Spring 2 | 2001, 27 April lay | er, sheltered | | | | | |
| 27/4/2001 | 1.219 | 0.0029 | 0.2840 | 1 | 0.0245 | 0.1261 | 0.0985 |
| 02/5/2001 | 1.035 | 0.0032 | 0.1986 | 1 | 0.0379 | 0.2054 | 0.0966 |
| 04/5/2001 | 1.183 | 0.0050 | 0.3883 | 1 | 0.0264 | 0.1388 | 0.1122 |
| 07/5/2001 | 1.103 | bdl | 0.2293 | 1 | 0.0280 | 0.1419 | 0.1232 |
| 08/5/2001 | 1.200 | bdl | 0.2419 | 1 | 0.0254 | 0.1367 | 0.1233 |
| Ny-Ålesund Spring 2 | 2001, 27 April lay | er, exposed | | | | | |
| 08/5/2001 | 1.188 | 0.0016 | 0.0838 | 1 | 0.0213 | 0.1173 | 0.0420 |
| 09/5/2001 | 1,194 | 0.0018 | 0.0919 | 1 | 0.0230 | 0.1245 | 0.0486 |

ACPD

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | | | |
|-------------|-------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Abstract | Introduction | | | | |
| Conclusions | References | | | | |
| Tables | Figures | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| • | ► | | | | |
| Back | Close | | | | |
| Full Scre | Full Screen / Esc | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Print \ | /ersion | | | | |
| Interactive | Discussion | | | | |

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|--|--|--|
| Abstract | Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions | References | | | |
| Tables | Figures | | | |
| | | | | |
| [◀ | ►I | | | |
| • | ► | | | |
| Back | Close | | | |
| Full Scr | een / Esc | | | |
| | | | | |
| Print V | Version | | | |
| Interactive | Discussion | | | |

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Table 4. Continued.

| Layer or date | CI. | Br [°] | SO4 | Na⁺ | K⁺ | Mg⁺⁺ | Ca ^{⁺⁺} |
|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|--------|-----|--------|--------|------------------|
| Ny-Ålesund Spring 2 | 001, 29 April | layer, middle | | | | | |
| 29/4/2001 13:00 | 0.675 | bdl | 0.4640 | 1 | 0.1920 | 0.1158 | 0.3512 |
| 29/4/2001 18:30 | 1.126 | bdl | 0.2847 | 1 | 0.0536 | 0.1361 | 0.1449 |
| 30/4/2001 10:30 | 0.901 | bdl | 0.3368 | 1 | 0.0980 | 0.1226 | 0.1487 |
| 30/4/2001 22:30 | 0.765 | bdl | 0.4183 | 1 | 0.1695 | 0.1150 | 0.1189 |
| 01/5/2001 10:45 | 0.988 | bdl | 0.5964 | 1 | 0.0237 | 0.1068 | 0.0879 |
| 01/5/2001 21:00 | 0.993 | bdl | 0.8642 | 1 | 0.0280 | 0.1201 | 0.1275 |
| 02/5/2001 14:30 | 0.935 | bdl | 1.0125 | 1 | 0.0000 | 0.1455 | 0.1765 |
| Ny-Ålesund Spring 2 | 001, 29 April | layer, top | | | | | |
| 29/4/2001 18:30 | 0.963 | - | 0.3468 | 1 | 0.0895 | 0.1439 | 0.2328 |
| 30/4/2001 10:30 | 1.086 | 0.0044 | 0.1475 | 1 | 0.0243 | 0.1120 | 0.0418 |
| 30/4/2001 14:00 | 1.097 | 0.0078 | 0.1246 | 1 | 0.0275 | 0.1094 | 0.0410 |
| 30/4/2001 15:00 | 0.999 | 0.0030 | 0.0949 | 1 | 0.0228 | 0.1169 | 0.0305 |
| 30/4/2001 22:30 | 1.026 | 0.0025 | 0.1073 | 1 | 0.0240 | 0.1108 | 0.0300 |
| 01/5/2001 10:45 | 1.038 | 0.0028 | 0.1119 | 1 | 0.0208 | 0.1108 | 0.0282 |
| 01/5/2001 21:00 | 0.994 | 0.0027 | 0.1174 | 1 | 0.0212 | 0.1157 | 0.0316 |
| 02/5/2001 14:30 | 1.025 | 0.0024 | 0.1206 | 1 | 0.0209 | 0.1155 | 0.0283 |

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions





Upward migration

Sea water

Sea salt

of Sea salt

Sea salt

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.



Fig. 2. Stratigraphy and concentrations of CI^- , Na^+ and Br^- in a snow bank on sea ice near Alert, on 11 February 2000. Density (d) and temperature (T) values of the snow are indicated.



4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.





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Fig. 3. Stratigraphy and concentrations of Cl^- , Na^+ and Br^- in a snow bank on the Northern Arctic Ocean (84°56′ N, 67°28′ W) on 25 April 2000.



Cl Na⁺ µM ; Br 10⁻⁸ M

Fig. 4. Stratigraphy and concentrations of Cl⁻, Na⁺ and Br⁻ in a snow bank on sea ice near Alert, on 23 April 2000.

Samplings

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Print Version

Interactive Discussion

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions









Fig. 5. Stratigraphy and concentrations of Cl⁻, Na⁺ and Br⁻ on sea ice near Ny-Ålesund, on 6 May 2001. Density (d) and temperature (T) values of the snow are indicated.

4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions





Fig. 6. (a) Time series of the Cl⁻ and Br⁻ concentrations of two snow layer on land, near Alert, in February 2000. Both snow layers were mixed together by a wind storm on 22 February, and were then sampled together. **(b)** Time series of the Cl⁻/Br⁻ ratio of these same layers.



4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on

Arctic sea ice and in



Fig. 7. Temperature and wind speed measured near Ny-Ålesund, within 50 m of our sampling site at the Amundsen mast, in spring 2001.



Interactive Discussion

4, 4737-4776, 2004





Sea salt in snow on

F. Domine et al.



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Fig. 8. Stratigraphy of the Ny-Ålesund snowpack on 30 April 2001, and time series of the Cl⁻ concentration in two levels of the 29 April layer.



4, 4737-4776, 2004

Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in coastal regions

F. Domine et al.

| Title Page | | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--|--|--|
| Abstract | Introduction | | | |
| Conclusions | References | | | |
| Tables | Figures | | | |
| | | | | |
| | •1 | | | |
| | | | | |
| • | • | | | |
| ■ Back | ► Close | | | |
| Back Full Scree | Close een / Esc | | | |
| Back Full Scree Print | Close een / Esc | | | |

Fig. 9. Stratigraphy of the Ny-Ålesund snowpack on 8 May 2001, and time series of the Cl⁻ concentration in melt/freeze crust of the 27 April layer. On 8 May, a windstorm eroded the overlying 29 April layer, partially exposing the crust. The Cl⁻ concentration of the exposed crust is also shown starting on 8 May.

4, 4737-4776, 2004

2.0 Sea salt in snow on Arctic sea ice and in 27 April snow fall 1.8 coastal regions 1.6 F. Domine et al. 1.4 Cl⁻/Na⁺, molar 1.2 Title Page 1.0 Introduction Abstract 0.8 Conclusions References -27 April crust Tables Figures 0.6 Sea water 0.4 ∎∎ 0.2 0.0 Back Close 27-Apr 29-Apr 1-May 3-May 5-May 7-May 9-May Full Screen / Esc

Fig. 10. Cl⁻/Na⁺ ratio of the melt/freeze crust of the 27 April snow layer. Starting on 8 May, values are those of the exposed crust (see Fig. 9).

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Fig. 11. Test of the validity of Eq. (1). The amount of CI^- deposited by wind storms is plotted as a function of the product of wind speed, *V*, (m/s), atmospheric concentration of aerosol CI^- , *C*, (ng m⁻³) and duration of the wind storm, *t* (days). The dashed line shows the similarity of the proportionality factor *A* in Eq. (1) in both Ny-Ålesund case studies. The solid line shows that the proportionality factor *A* is much highert for the Alert case study, where snow became airborne.

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