



1 **pH-Dependent production of molecular chlorine, bromine, and**  
2 **iodine from frozen saline surfaces**

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24 **Abstract**

25           The mechanisms of molecular halogen productions from frozen saline surfaces remain incompletely  
26 understood, limiting our ability to predict atmospheric oxidation and composition in the polar regions. In this  
27 laboratory study, condensed-phase hydroxyl radicals (OH) were photochemically generated in frozen saltwater  
28 solutions that mimicked the ionic composition of ocean water. These hydroxyl radicals were found to oxidize Cl<sup>-</sup>,  
29 Br<sup>-</sup>, and I<sup>-</sup>, leading to the release of Cl<sub>2</sub>, Br<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>2</sub>. This finding is consistent with mechanisms proposed from recent  
30 Arctic field studies for observed snowpack molecular halogen production. At moderately acidic pre-freezing pH  
31 (buffered between 4.5-4.8), irradiation of ice surfaces containing OH-precursors produced elevated amounts of I<sub>2</sub>.  
32 Subsequent addition of O<sub>3</sub> produced additional I<sub>2</sub>, as well as low amounts of Br<sub>2</sub>. At lower pH (1.7-2.2), substantial  
33 photochemical production of Br<sub>2</sub> was observed, following rapid dark conversion of I<sup>-</sup> to I<sub>2</sub> via reactions with hydrogen  
34 peroxide or nitrite. Exposure to O<sub>3</sub> under these low pH conditions also increased production of Br<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>2</sub>, possibly  
35 through surfaced-based reactions with O<sub>3</sub>, or the production and heterogeneous recycling of gas-phase HOBr and HOI.  
36 Our results suggest the observed products are dependent on the relative concentrations of halides at the ice surface.  
37 Finally, photochemical production of Cl<sub>2</sub> was only observed when the irradiated sample was composed of high-purity  
38 NaCl and hydrogen peroxide (acting as the OH precursor) at low pH (~1.8). While OH was shown to produce Cl<sub>2</sub> in  
39 this study, kinetics calculations suggest that heterogeneous recycling chemistry may be equally or more important for  
40 Cl<sub>2</sub> production in the Arctic atmosphere.

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44 1 **Introduction**

45 It is now well-established that gas-phase halogen species influence atmospheric composition through reactions  
46 with ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and gaseous elemental mercury (Hg<sup>0</sup>) (Barrie and Platt, 1997;  
47 Carpenter et al., 2013; Platt and Hönninger, 2003; Saiz-Lopez and von Glasow, 2012; Simpson et al., 2007, 2015;  
48 Steffen et al., 2008, 2014, and references therein). In polar regions, it is believed that halogens build up to effective  
49 concentrations through a heterogeneous reaction sequence known as the “halogen explosion” (Reactions R1-4, where  
50 X represents Cl, Br, or I) (Garland and Curtis, 1981; Tang and McConnell, 1996; Vogt et al., 1996; Wennberg, 1999).



55 In this sequence, a molecular halogen (X<sub>2</sub>) is photolyzed to produce two reactive halogen radicals. These radicals can  
56 react with O<sub>3</sub> to produce halogen oxides. XO produced in Reaction R2 rapidly photolyzes (or reacts with NO) to  
57 regenerate O<sub>3</sub> and X<sub>2</sub> in a null cycle. To irreversibly remove ambient O<sub>3</sub>, XO must react with another halogen oxide  
58 or Hg<sup>0</sup>. Alternatively, XO can react with HO<sub>2</sub> to form HOX (Reaction R3) or NO<sub>2</sub> to form XONO<sub>2</sub>. Gas-phase HOX  
59 can heterogeneously react with salt-laden surfaces, including sea-salt aerosol particles (McConnell et al., 1992) and  
60 the “disordered interface” (often referred to as a quasi-liquid or quasi-brine layer) that exists on frozen saline surfaces  
61 (Bartels-Rausch et al., 2014; Cho et al., 2002) to produce X<sub>2</sub>, effectively returning two halogen radicals to the gas  
62 phase. Additionally, this mechanism is enhanced under acidic conditions, confirmed by laboratory studies of aqueous  
63 (Fickert et al., 1999) and frozen solutions (e.g., Abbatt et al., 2010; Sjostedt and Abbatt, 2008; Wren et al., 2013), and  
64 from field observations (Pratt et al., 2013).

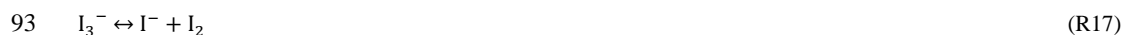
65 While much has been learned about the atmospheric chemistry of reactive halogen species in the Arctic,  
66 knowledge gaps remain in the chemical mechanisms by which molecular halogens are produced on frozen surfaces  
67 (Liao et al., 2014; Pratt et al., 2013). However, there have been recent reports of in situ, light-induced production of  
68 Cl<sub>2</sub> (Custard et al., 2016), Br<sub>2</sub> (Pratt et al., 2013; Raso et al., 2017), and I<sub>2</sub> (Raso et al., 2017) within snowpack  
69 interstitial air, and further suggest that this production is enhanced following the addition of O<sub>3</sub>. The Br<sub>2</sub>-producing  
70 snowpacks studied by Pratt et al. (2013) were characterized as having larger surface area, lower pH (≤ 6.3), greater



71 [Br<sup>-</sup>]/[Cl<sup>-</sup>] molar ratios ( $\geq 1/148$ ), and lower salinity relative to other frozen samples collected near Utqiagvik, Alaska.  
72 The proposed mechanism for this chemistry is based on laboratory studies of condensed-phase, hydroxyl radical (OH)-  
73 mediated halogen oxidation (Reactions R5-R12), followed by partitioning of the molecular halogen to the gas phase  
74 (Abbatt et al., 2010; Knipping et al., 2000; Oum et al., 1998b).



83 Direct, light-induced halogen production from frozen surfaces in the presence of OH has been previously demonstrated  
84 in the laboratory for Br<sub>2</sub> and possibly for I<sub>2</sub> (Abbatt et al., 2010), but analogous chemistry for Cl<sub>2</sub> has yet to be observed.  
85 Additionally, photochemical production of I<sub>2</sub> has been directly observed in the absence of OH (Kim et al., 2016).  
86 Employing cavity ring-down spectroscopy, Kim et al. (2016) reported photochemical production of I<sub>2</sub> from a frozen  
87 solution by known aqueous-phase chemistry (R13-17). This proposed photochemical mechanism involves an (I-O<sub>2</sub>)  
88 charge-transfer complex (Levanon and Navon, 1969).

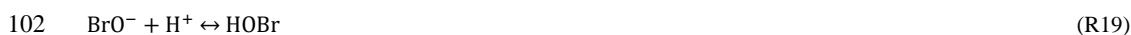


94 Kim et al. (2016) also report enhanced photochemical I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> production (determined spectrophotometrically) from sunlit  
95 frozen iodide solutions placed on Antarctic snowpack, as well as from refrozen field snow and glacier samples doped



96 with iodide. A question is thus raised regarding the necessity of OH for I<sub>2</sub> production under environmentally-relevant  
97 conditions.

98 The role of O<sub>3</sub> in halogen production on frozen surfaces is also unclear. Previous laboratory studies have  
99 demonstrated that halide-doped frozen surfaces exposed to O<sub>3</sub> can lead to Br<sub>2</sub> production (independent of radiation,  
100 R18-R19, and R4) (Oldridge and Abbatt, 2011; Oum et al., 1998a; Wren et al., 2013).



103 It has recently been shown that this process proceeds at the surface, through a water-stabilized ozonide, Br·OOO<sup>·</sup>, as  
104 shown in reactions R20-R22. Artiglia et al. (2017) observed this Br·OOO<sup>·</sup> intermediate via liquid-injection X-ray  
105 photoelectron spectroscopy.



109 Wren et al. (2013) found that Cl<sub>2</sub> was produced primarily via heterogeneous recycling of HOCl, resulting from BrCl  
110 photolysis, on halide-rich artificial snow. However, the observation that O<sub>3</sub> induces halogen production from frozen  
111 surfaces has yet to be confirmed by field observations of snowpack chemistry, in which exposure to only O<sub>3</sub> in the  
112 absence of light has not been shown to produce molecular halogens. Such in-situ experiments in the presence of O<sub>3</sub>  
113 were shown to produce enhanced molecular halogens only in the presence of light (Custard et al., 2017; Pratt et al.,  
114 2013; Raso et al., 2017), raising a question of whether O<sub>3</sub> is more important for initial halogen release, or in a gas  
115 phase propagation/recycling capacity (i.e., per the halogen explosion).

116 In this study, we utilized a custom ice-coated-wall flow reactor in tandem with chemical ionization mass  
117 spectrometry (CIMS) to study Br<sub>2</sub>, Cl<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>2</sub> production from frozen surfaces with compositions mimicking sea ice.  
118 The effects of photochemically generated OH radicals, O<sub>3</sub> addition, and pH are tested as they relate to the production  
119 of these halogens. Surface pH was controlled through use of buffers.

120 2 **Methods**121 **2.1 Materials**

122 Sample solutions were composed to mimic the halide composition of seawater. This was achieved using  
123 either dissolved Instant Ocean (Spectrum Brands), or commercially available halide salts at a composition that mimics  
124 Instant Ocean (for consistency) in solutions referred to hereafter as “saltwater.” The halide concentrations in these  
125 solutions were made to a final concentration of 0.56M Cl<sup>-</sup>, 7.2 x 10<sup>-4</sup> M Br<sup>-</sup>, and 1.9 x 10<sup>-6</sup> M I<sup>-</sup>. Except for Instant  
126 Ocean, all chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Halide salts include solid NaCl (puriss. p.a. grade, ≥99.5%  
127 purity), NaBr (puriss. grade, >99% purity), KI (puriss. p.a. grade, ≥99.5% purity). Sigma Aldrich lists an I<sup>-</sup> impurity  
128 in the NaCl salt of ≤ 10 mg/kg, but the initial aqueous concentration of I<sup>-</sup> in this solution could not be confirmed by  
129 ion chromatography. We note that these halide concentrations are comparable to those in actual seawater (Herring  
130 and Liss, 1974; Luther et al., 1988; Tsunogai and Sase, 1969), which typically contains Cl<sup>-</sup>, Br<sup>-</sup>, and I<sup>-</sup> at ratios of  
131 1:1/660:1/200,000. Solutes were dissolved in ultrapure water (Birck Nanotechnology Center). Dissolved organic carbon  
132 for Instant Ocean and halide salt solutions were analyzed using a Shimadzu TOC-V<sub>CSH</sub> Total Organic Carbon  
133 Analyzer, and determined at approximately 70 mg/L for Instant Ocean solutions, and less than 5 mg/L for saltwater  
134 solutions. No further characterization of carbon-containing compounds was performed.

135 While previous investigators have adjusted the pre-freezing pH of their samples, it is very difficult to know  
136 the pH in the disordered interface of frozen samples (Bartels-Rausch et al., 2014), though there is evidence from  
137 laboratory studies suggesting that the pH of salt solutions remains largely unchanged after freezing (Wren and  
138 Donaldson, 2012b). To obviate this problem, the aqueous solutions used in this study were buffered so that the same  
139 pH will exist in the frozen disordered interface. All solutions were buffered by either 20 mM acetic acid (ACS reagent  
140 grade, ≥99.7% purity)/acetate (puriss. p.a. grade) buffer (pH ≈ 4.5-4.7), or 20 mM bisulfate (ReagentPlus grade, 99%  
141 purity)/sulfate (ReagentPlus grade, ≥ 99.0% purity) buffer (pH ≈ 1.7 – 2.0). pH values of sample solutions were  
142 determined before and after experiments, with no significant changes observed. 100 μM of either hydrogen peroxide  
143 (trace analysis grade, ≥ 30% purity) or sodium nitrite (ReagentPlus grade, ≥ 99.0% purity) were included as  
144 photochemical hydroxyl radical precursors, via reactions R5, and R6-7.



## 145 2.2 Flow tube

146 Experiments were carried out in a custom-built 150 cm long, 2.5 cm ID frozen-walled Pyrex flow tube  
147 contained within a temperature-controlled cooling jacket. In each experiment, 80.0 mL of sample solution was poured  
148 into the tube, which was subsequently sealed with vinyl caps (McMaster-Carr). The flow tube was then rotated on  
149 motorized rollers within a 170 cm x 50 cm x 50 cm, insulated wooden cooling chamber. Crushed dry ice was placed  
150 along the bottom of the chamber, and fans were used to circulate the air throughout the chamber such that the flow  
151 tube was evenly cooled. After ~30 minutes, the sample was evenly frozen (ice thickness of 0.9 mm). The flow tube  
152 was subsequently transferred to an enclosed 156 cm x 50 cm x 50 cm wooden, Mylar-lined experiment chamber, and  
153 connected to a recycling chiller set to 258 K (i.e., above the NaCl•2H<sub>2</sub>O eutectic point). The cooling liquid used for  
154 the chiller was a mixture of 60% ethylene glycol and 40% distilled water. Six UVA-340 solar simulator lamps (Q-  
155 Labs, 295 – 400 nm with maximum wattage at 340 nm) were installed in the experiment box (two on each side except  
156 bottom). Each side was lined with reflective Mylar sheets to evenly irradiate the flow tube when the lamps were  
157 powered.

158 A flow schematic representing typical experiments is shown in Fig. 1. The carrier gas (Air, Ultra Zero grade,  
159 Praxair) was scrubbed of volatile organic compounds using activated charcoal, and water by travelling through coiled  
160 stainless-steel tubing surrounded by crushed dry ice (replaced throughout the course of an experiment). This gas was  
161 measured to contain  $\leq 300 - 400$  pmol mol<sup>-1</sup> NO (experimentally determined limits of detection) using the Total  
162 REactive Nitrogen Instrument (TRENI) (Lockwood et al., 2010; Xiong et al., 2015). Though NO<sub>2</sub> was not measured,  
163 we believe it would have been removed by the charcoal trap. Before entering the experiment coated-wall flow tube,  
164 the carrier gas flowed through a commercial O<sub>3</sub> generator (2B Technologies model 306). Carrier gas air entered the  
165 tube near room temperature (20 °C). At the start of experiments, the O<sub>3</sub> generator was set to 0 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup>. Carrier  
166 gas then entered the flow tube in the dark experiment chamber. In most experiments, the carrier gas was regulated to  
167 a volumetric flow rate of 4.0 L min<sup>-1</sup>, which yields a residence time in the flowtube of ~12 seconds. On exiting the  
168 flow tube, sample air was characterized using a Thermo Environmental 49i O<sub>3</sub> monitor (flow rate of ~1.5 L min<sup>-1</sup>) and  
169 a chemical ionization mass spectrometer (CIMS, sampling flow rate of ~1.7 L min<sup>-1</sup>, described below in Sect 2.3).  
170 Excess flow air was vented away. At set times in an experiment, the solar simulator bulbs were activated, and O<sub>3</sub> was  
171 added to the system by powering the O<sub>3</sub> generator.

172 **2.3 CIMS**

173 Halogen species were detected using a chemical ionization mass spectrometer (CIMS), described previously  
174 by Liao et al. (2011) and Pratt et al. (2013). Chemical ionization is achieved by ion-molecule reactions that occur  
175 between iodide-water reagent clusters,  $I(H_2O)_n^-$  in  $N_2$ , and the gas-phase sample in zero air. The iodide-water clusters  
176 are formed when gas-phase iodide ions, generated by flowing 5 ppm methyl iodide through a  $^{210}Po$  ionizer (NRD)  
177 combines with water in the humidified ion-molecule region of the CIMS. Ion were filtered using a quadrupole mass  
178 filter. The ice-coated flowtube was connected to the CIMS via approximately 50 cm of i.d. 1/2" PFA Teflon tubing.

179 A typical CIMS sampling cycle consisted of an 8.35s duty cycle. Dwell times for all monitored species were  
180 250 ms with the exception of the reagent ion (detected as  $m/z$  147,  $I(H_2^{18}O)^-$ ), which was set to a dwell time of 100  
181 ms. The 18 ions analyzed in this study are listed in Table 1, but we focus herein on results concerning masses related  
182 to  $Br_2$  ( $m/z$  285 and 287:  $^{79}Br^{79}Br^-$  and  $^{81}Br^{79}Br^-$ , respectively),  $Cl_2$  ( $m/z$  197 and 199:  $^{35}Cl^{35}Cl^-$  and  $^{37}Cl^{35}Cl^-$ ), and  
183  $I_2$  ( $m/z$  381:  $I_3^-$ ). In addition,  $IBr$  ( $m/z$  333 and 335:  $^{79}IBr^-$ ,  $^{81}IBr^-$ ) was unambiguously detected in some experiments.  
184 The presence of  $Br_2$ ,  $Cl_2$ , and  $IBr$  was confirmed by measuring the ratios between the two isotope signals for each  
185 mass, compared to the natural abundances (i.e., 1.95 for  $m/z$  287:285; 1.54 for  $m/z$  197:199; and 1.03 for  $m/z$  333:335,  
186 respectively). Data outside  $\pm 25\%$  the appropriate isotope ratio were excluded from analysis. The isotope ratios for  
187  $BrCl$  ( $m/z$  241 and 243:  $^{79}Br^{35}Cl^-$ ,  $^{81}Br^{35}Cl^-$ ,  $^{79}Br^{37}Cl^-$ ) masses were never observed at the correct values (1.3 for  $m/z$   
188 243:241), and so those data were not reported here. As the introduction of  $\sim 60$  nmol mol $^{-1}$   $O_3$  to the experimental  
189 system significantly increases the background signal for the primary  $Cl_2$  isotope ( $m/z$  197,  $^{35}Cl^{35}Cl^-$ ), the study of  $Cl_2$   
190 is limited under these conditions, due to lack of isotopic confirmation of its presence. Though  $m/z$  201 ( $^{37}Cl^{37}Cl^-$ ) was  
191 additionally monitored, no  $Cl_2$  was measured above the limit of detection of  $1.1 \pm 0.2$  pmol mol $^{-1}$  for  $m/z$  199 with the  
192 appropriate isotope ratios in experiments with added  $O_3$  (6.2 for  $m/z$  199:201).

193 CIMS calibrations were performed using  $I_2$ ,  $Br_2$ , and  $Cl_2$  permeation devices (VICI) at the start and  
194 conclusion of each experiment.  $Br_2$  and  $Cl_2$  permeation outputs were quantified using the spectrophotometric method  
195 described by Liao et al. (2012). The  $I_2$  permeation output was quantified by flowing the  $I_2$  through an impinger  
196 containing a  $NaHCO_3$  (30mM)/ $NaHSO_3$  (5mM) reducing solution. This solution quantitatively reduces  $I_2$  to  $I^-$ , which  
197 was then determined using a Dionex DX500 ion chromatography system. Permeation rates were calculated for each  
198 experiment and found to average  $(1.9 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-11}$ ,  $(5.5 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-10}$ , and  $(8.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-10}$  mol min $^{-1}$  of  $I_2$ ,  $Br_2$ , and





199 Cl<sub>2</sub>, respectively (uncertainties representing standard error of the mean). CIMS calibration factors were calculated for  
200 individual experiments. These factors are based on the average of the signal sensitivities, determined from the  
201 permeation sources, calculated at the start and completion of each experiment. Corresponding uncertainties for these  
202 calibration factors thus represent the 1σ standard deviation of the mean sensitivity. In addition, the sensitivity for  
203 HOBr (as IHOB<sup>+</sup>) species is assumed to be a factor of 0.5 ± 25% the *m/z* 287 Br<sub>2</sub> sensitivity (Liao et al., 2012), though  
204 IHOB<sup>+</sup> was not unambiguously observed according to isotope ratios due to an interference at *m/z* 223 (IHO<sup>81</sup>Br<sup>+</sup>). An  
205 approximate I<sup>79</sup>IBr<sup>+</sup> calibration factor was assumed to be the average of the sensitivities for *m/z* 287 (IBr<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>) and 381  
206 (I<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup>). Background measurements were performed before and after the experiment (minimum of 5 min) by passing the  
207 carrier gas through the experimental flow tube (without O<sub>3</sub>, in the dark), and subsequently through a glass wool  
208 scrubber, previously shown to remove molecular halogens with greater than 95% efficiency (Liao et al., 2012; Neuman  
209 et al., 2010). Temporal variations in bromine-species signals while using the low pH sulfate/bisulfate buffer were  
210 observed in some experiments (Fig. S1) and are discussed in the Supplementary Information.

211 Analysis of experimental data was based on one-minute averages, with uncertainties representing the  
212 standard deviation of these averages. Subsequently, signals were converted to concentrations using the sensitivities  
213 calculated above, propagating the sensitivity uncertainty into the measurement uncertainty. Average limits of  
214 detection (3σ) across all experiments for the molecular halogens during background periods were 1.8 ± 0.4, 1.2 ± 0.3,  
215 and 9 ± 2 pmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for Br<sub>2</sub>, Cl<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>2</sub> respectively (uncertainties representing standard error of the mean).  
216 Additionally, reported uncertainties for integrated amounts of formed halogens are calculated as integrated halogen  
217 concentrations multiplied by the relative uncertainty in the CIMS signal sensitivity.

### 218 3 Results

219 The experiments described here address the extent to which OH radicals in the condensed phase can lead to I<sub>2</sub>,  
220 Br<sub>2</sub>, and Cl<sub>2</sub> production through condensed-phase reactions within frozen saline surfaces, as hypothesized from recent  
221 field (Custard et al., 2017; Pratt et al., 2013; Raso et al., 2017) and laboratory experiments (Abbatt et al., 2010). In  
222 addition, we test the pH-dependence of this chemistry, and whether O<sub>3</sub> can enhance this production. We find the  
223 relative and absolute amounts of I<sub>2</sub>, Br<sub>2</sub>, and Cl<sub>2</sub> produced from ice are a complex function of the relative  
224 concentrations of the precursor halide ions, the pH, presence of oxidants, radiation, and O<sub>3</sub>.



225 The ice-coated flow tube experiments started under dark conditions and without addition of O<sub>3</sub> (Sect. 3.1). Once  
226 signals stabilized, lights were activated for 1-2 h (Sect. 3.2, Sect. 3.3), after which the ozone generator lamp was  
227 activated to generate ~60 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> of O<sub>3</sub> in the carrier gas to test the impacts of both radiation and ozone (Sect. 3.4).  
228 Saline surfaces tested include frozen Instant Ocean (IO) solutions, solutions composed of dissolved reagent grade salts  
229 mimicking saltwater (SW) composition, and 0.56 M high purity NaCl (CL1). Unless otherwise specified, integrated  
230 amounts of produced halogens represent amounts produced over the course of 1 h of exposure to light (Sect. 3.2, Sect.  
231 3.3) and/or ozone (Sect. 3.4). Many of the salient features of our results are demonstrated by example experiments  
232 shown in Fig. 2, which shows the impact of irradiation in the presence of ice phase OH radical precursors, varied pH,  
233 and the presence of O<sub>3</sub>. Below we discuss the details of our experiments, organized by the mechanism of halogen  
234 production and halogen products themselves.

### 235 3.1 Dark reaction production of I<sub>2</sub>

236 To photochemically create condensed-phase hydroxyl radicals, either hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) or nitrite  
237 (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) were added to salt solution samples, as they have been estimated to account for 96% of snowpack  
238 photochemical OH formation at Utqiagvik, AK (France et al., 2012). However, both H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> can directly  
239 convert I<sup>-</sup> to I<sub>2</sub> under dark acidic conditions. No dark production of Br<sub>2</sub> or Cl<sub>2</sub> was observed in these experiments for  
240 any pH, or presence of OH precursor. The oxidation of I<sup>-</sup> by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> occurs through the condensed phase reactions R23  
241 and R24 (Küpper et al., 1998):



244 Nitrite ions react with hydronium ions to form the nitroacidium ion, H<sub>2</sub>ONO<sup>+</sup>, which has been previously shown to  
245 produce I<sub>2</sub> (R25-R27) (measured spectrophotometrically as trihalide species, which exist in equilibrium with X<sub>2</sub>, as in  
246 R12, R17) (Hellebust et al., 2007; O'Driscoll et al., 2006, 2008; O'Sullivan and Sodeau, 2010):



250 The pH ≤ 2 experiments in this work favor the forward reactions that produce I<sub>2</sub> (R23-24, R25-27).



251 During the initial connection of the flowtube to the CIMS that would initiate the start of an experiment, a large  
252 I<sub>2</sub> signal (measured as I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, *m/z* 381) was observed in several cases in which OH-radical precursors were utilized (e.g.,  
253 Fig. S2, Fig. 2b). This I<sub>2</sub> production likely originated from the above reactions (R23-27). This signal subsequently  
254 decayed as I<sub>2</sub> flushed out of the system until reaching a steady state. Integrated sums of dark I<sub>2</sub> production are  
255 estimated in Table S1. However, these amounts represent lower limits of the true sums of dark-produced I<sub>2</sub>; while the  
256 flow tube is sealed during the freezing of the salt solutions, this seal is removed during connection to the experimental  
257 flow path (Fig. 1), making it impossible to accurately determine the extent of I<sub>2</sub> production prior to irradiation.

258 At pH ≈ 4.7, dark I<sub>2</sub> production was modest, only noticeably affecting experiment IO2 (Fig. S2). In that case,  
259 the integrated sum of I<sub>2</sub> released on connection of the flow tube to the CIMS until stabilization was 0.8 (± 0.1) nmol,  
260 corresponding to approximately 0.5% of the total 152 nmol I<sup>-</sup> available for reaction from the Instant Ocean solution  
261 (Table S1). At lower pH (<2), larger amounts of I<sub>2</sub> were observed in the dark immediately upon flow tube connection  
262 to the CIMS (i.e., before addition of light and O<sub>3</sub>; Fig. 2b). Dark production of I<sub>2</sub> could cause significant depletion of  
263 I<sup>-</sup>, as Experiments IO4 and SW5 (both using H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) only have, at most, ~46% of the initial 152 nmol of I<sup>-</sup> by the time  
264 lights are initiated. These values were calculated by subtracting twice the integrated sums of I<sub>2</sub> produced prior to  
265 irradiation (Table S1; i.e., two I<sup>-</sup> for every I<sub>2</sub>) from the total number of I<sup>-</sup> moles in the original IO or SW solutions.  
266 Considerably less I<sub>2</sub> production occurred in the dark using NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> as an OH precursor (depleting I<sup>-</sup> by an average of  
267 4.5%, Table S1). As will be discussed in Sect. 3.3, following depletion of I<sup>-</sup> from the salt solutions, Br<sub>2</sub> was the  
268 primary halogen produced at low pH.

### 269 3.2 Hydroxyl radical-induced halogen production at pH ≈ 4.7

270 Integrated amounts of photochemically produced molecular halogens are presented in Table 2 for all  
271 experiments. Integration times for calculated halogen production span one hour, beginning at the time lights were  
272 activated until 60 minutes later, and in the absence of O<sub>3</sub>. At pH ≈ 4.7, experiments without hydroxyl radical  
273 precursors (IO6-IO7, SW6-SW7; Table 2) produced amounts of molecular halogens below their respective LODs  
274 from the saline ice surfaces after activation of lights. Experiment IO7 was an exception, however, producing 0.11 ±  
275 0.06 nmol of I<sub>2</sub>.

276 In the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at pH ≈ 4.7, I<sub>2</sub> mole fractions increased rapidly upon irradiation, as shown in Fig. 2a.  
277 Of the four experiments performed in these conditions (IO1, IO2, SW1, SW2), three experiments (IO1, SW1, SW2)



278 produced statistically similar amounts of  $I_2$  (mean:  $8 \pm 2$  nmol) after one hour of irradiation (Table 2). Experiment  
279 IO2 (Fig. S2), while experimentally identical to IO1, appears to have produced  $\sim 10$  times less  $I_2$  during this hour after  
280 the lights were turned on. However,  $I_2$  was already present prior to turning on the lights, suggesting production  
281 originating from the direct reaction between  $I^-$  and  $H_2O_2$  (Sect. 3.1). Experiment IO2 otherwise eventually qualitatively  
282 resembles the other three analogous experiments (IO1, SW1, SW2; e.g. Fig. 2a) with the  $I_2$  concentration eventually  
283 increasing after irradiation (Fig. S2).

284 Regarding other molecular halogens,  $IBr$  was observed upon radiation during Experiment SW2 (Fig. 2a)  
285 above the estimated limits of detection ( $3 \text{ pmol mol}^{-1}$ ) starting approximately 20 minutes before the addition of  $O_3$ .  
286 No direct (OH-induced) photochemically produced  $Br_2$  was unambiguously observed at this pH. The apparent  
287 photochemical integrated  $Br_2$  sum of  $0.034 \pm 0.003$  nmol reported for experiment IO2 (Table 2) stems from a real  
288 signal just above the limit of detection ( $1.8 \pm 0.4 \text{ pmol mol}^{-1}$ ), and this baseline signal does not change on addition of  
289 light. This signal, however, remains below limits of quantitation and should not be considered further.  $Cl_2$  mole  
290 fractions remained below limits of detection in all cases with OH-precursors at this pH.

### 291 3.3 Effects of the hydroxyl radical on halogen production at pH < 2

292 It is expected that halogen production will be enhanced when pH is decreased based on reactions R4-R22. In  
293 cases without OH precursors at pH < 2, photochemical  $I_2$  production was observed (integrated production of  $14 \pm 10$   
294 nmol for IO8, and  $6.0 \pm 2.0$  nmol for SW8) (Table 2), in contrast to experiments performed at pH = 4.7 in which very  
295 little was produced. This production likely stems from the mechanisms outlined by Kim et al. (2016) (R13-17), which  
296 requires only light and oxygen to form a charge-transfer complex that results in  $I_2$  production (discussed in Sect. 1).  
297 Molecular  $Br_2$  and  $Cl_2$  concentrations remain below limits of detection, consistent with Abbatt et al. (2010), in which  
298 no  $Br_2$  or  $Cl_2$  was observed without an OH-precursor.

299 As discussed in Sect. 3.1, inclusion of  $H_2O_2$  or  $NO_2^-$  can result in direct oxidation of  $I^-$ , thereby reducing the  
300 available  $[I^-]$  for photochemical OH oxidation when pH < 2. When  $H_2O_2$  was used as an OH precursor, photochemical  
301 production of  $I_2$  across experiments yielded  $\leq 0.82$  nmol (IO4, IO5, and SW5), likely due to the dark  $I_2$  production  
302 mechanisms. When instead  $NO_2^-$  was used (as in IO3 and SW3, SW4), initial observations of  $I_2$  on flowtube  
303 connection to CIMS were as much as 90% less than when  $H_2O_2$  was used (Table S1). For experiment IO3, the reduced  
304 pH enhanced  $I_2$  production ( $39 \pm 1$  nmol) compared to the high pH cases (Experiments IO1-2, SW1-2, ranging from



305  $0.6 \pm 0.4$  to  $9 \pm 3$  nmol) (Table 2). The corresponding seawater experiments were not as conclusive; experiment SW3  
306 only yielded  $4.0 \pm 0.1$  nmol of photochemical  $I_2$  (Fig. S4). Experiment SW4 did not produce any photochemical  $I_2$   
307 and qualitatively resembles the low pH  $H_2O_2$  cases. It is possible that for SW3 and SW4 more  $I_2$  was produced by  
308 dark reactions and flushed out of the tube during connection with the CIMS and was therefore not measured.

309 When  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$  approximates the initial conditions of Instant Ocean ( $\sim 2.6 \times 10^{-3}$ ; i.e., IO1-IO3, SW1-SW3),  
310 OH-mediated  $I_2$  production precedes  $Br_2$  and IBr production. This initial photoproduction of  $I_2$  is observed for IO4,  
311 as shown in the inset of Fig. 2b. Figure 2b shows a delay in  $Br_2$  production until  $I^-$  was removed as  $I_2$  (and IBr). After  
312  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$  has sufficiently decreased,  $Br_2$  eventually becomes the dominant photochemical product, yielding an average  
313 of  $4.5 \pm 0.5$  nmol from IO4 and IO5, and  $6.0 \pm 0.7$  nmol from SW5, all of which used  $H_2O_2$  as an OH precursor, and  
314  $5.4 \pm 0.7$  nmol from SW4, which used  $NO_2^-$  as an OH precursor. Simultaneous production of IBr was observed as  
315 well (Fig. 2b) when  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$  had been reduced following  $I_2$  production. Given the initial depletion of  $I^-$  from dark  $I_2$   
316 production (Sect. 3.1), we can estimate  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$  at pH < 2 in ice with  $H_2O_2$  just before irradiation based on the  
317 remaining moles of  $I^-$  in solution (Table S1) and the initial moles of  $Br^-$  (calculated using the initial experiment solution  
318 volume and concentration of  $Br^-$  of  $7.2 \times 10^{-4}$  M).  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$  was calculated as  $(1.6 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-4}$ , which is an average  
319 calculated for experiments IO4-5 and SW5, and was sufficiently low to result in photochemical production of  $Br_2$ .

320 Photochemical  $Cl_2$  production was only observed from a frozen solution of “pure” NaCl and  $H_2O_2$  at pH=1.8  
321 (CL1), as shown in Fig. 2c. When the lights were turned on, a slight increase in  $I_2$  and IBr were observed in concert  
322 with a rapid rise in  $Br_2$ , likely resulting from an  $I^-$  impurity in the NaCl salt. After about one hour of apparent  
323 equilibrium,  $I_2$  concentrations begin decreasing, while  $Br_2$ , IBr, and  $Cl_2$  continue rising. Over one hour of illumination,  
324  $93 \pm 3$  pmol of  $Cl_2$ ,  $100 \pm 10$  pmol of  $Br_2$ , and  $100 \pm 10$  pmol of  $I_2$  were measured. However, as shown in Fig 2c, the  
325 greatest rate of increase in signal did not occur until  $t = 1$  h (after irradiation). Integrating instead from  $t=0$  until  $t=2$   
326 hours, the amount of  $Cl_2$  produced was  $190 \pm 10$  pmol, while the amount of  $Br_2$  increased to  $310 \pm 20$  pmol. The  
327 initial  $[Br^-]$  of the CL1 solution was determined to be  $(4.5 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-6}$  M via ion chromatography, meaning  $Cl_2$   
328 production was observed at  $[Br^-]/[Cl^-]$  of  $8.1 \times 10^{-6}$  ( $1/124,000$ ), compared to the Instant Ocean  $[Br^-]/[Cl^-]$  of  $\sim 1/800$ .  
329 Unfortunately, BrCl could not be observed due to an unknown interference at  $m/z$  241 and 243.



### 330 3.4 Effects of O<sub>3</sub> on halogen production

331 In experiments without an OH source (IO6-IO8, SW6-SW8), I<sub>2</sub> production was greatest when O<sub>3</sub> was  
332 introduced to the irradiated tube for both pH regimes (Table 2). The amount of I<sub>2</sub> produced in these experiments was  
333 large, ranging from 26 ± 9 nmol to 80 ± 1 nmol at pH = 4.7, and from 2.6 ± 1.7 nmol to 38 ± 12 nmol at pH < 2. While  
334 the I<sub>2</sub> produced pH < 2 appears to be lower, I<sub>2</sub> had already been produced prior to addition of O<sub>3</sub> (i.e., with only light  
335 as a stimulant, Sect. 3.3), yielding a lower [I<sup>-</sup>]/[Br<sup>-</sup>] ratio when O<sub>3</sub> was eventually added. Br<sub>2</sub> production amounts  
336 ranged from 0.012 ± 0.001 nmol to 0.16 ± 0.01 nmol at pH = 4.7 and taking up to 6 hours to raise above detection  
337 limits after O<sub>3</sub> was added. At pH ≤ 2, Br<sub>2</sub> production amounts ranged 0.14 ± 0.02 nmol to 0.93 ± 0.05 nmol, in the  
338 absence of an OH source.

339 When OH-precursors were present, the addition of O<sub>3</sub> to the zero-air flow over the irradiated frozen sample  
340 caused additional production of I<sub>2</sub> and Br<sub>2</sub>, as shown in Figure 2a and b, under both pH conditions (pH ≤ 2, pH = 4.7)  
341 (Table 2). I<sub>2</sub> integration times here represent one hour, beginning at the time when O<sub>3</sub> is introduced until 60 minutes  
342 later. In experiments at pH ≈ 4.7 in which [I<sup>-</sup>]/[Br<sup>-</sup>] remained sufficiently large due to minimal dark production of I<sub>2</sub>  
343 (i.e., IO1-2, SW1-2), exposure to O<sub>3</sub> caused a sharp increase in I<sub>2</sub> (as in Fig. 2a). I<sub>2</sub> production amounts for frozen  
344 Instant Ocean at pH ≈ 4.7 (IO1, IO2) average 22 ± 10 nmol, about two times less than for frozen saltwater experiments  
345 SW1 and SW2 (average production amount of 51 ± 25 nmol). As the I<sub>2</sub> signal decayed, the corresponding Br<sub>2</sub> signals  
346 gradually increased above detection limits, approximately 3h after the introduction of O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 2a). The average  
347 integrated amounts of Br<sub>2</sub> produced from these pH ≈ 4.7 experiments were very similar (0.05 ± 0.01 nmol for IO  
348 experiments and 0.03 ± 0.01 nmol for SW experiments).

349 When pH < 2, the effects of O<sub>3</sub> addition varied according to the remaining availability of I<sup>-</sup>. When the surface  
350 I<sup>-</sup> reservoir had been reduced from dark reactions with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (R17-21; Sect. 3.1), exposure to O<sub>3</sub> did not  
351 increase I<sub>2</sub> above the LOD in all experiments except IO5, which exhibited a small spike before decaying below the  
352 LOD (0.11 ± 0.06 nmol in IO5). However, O<sub>3</sub> did cause additional Br<sub>2</sub> production after one hour (average of 10 ± 2  
353 nmol for IO4 (Fig. 2b) and IO5, and 14 ± 2 nmol for SW4 and SW5). In contrast, for SW3 (using NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> as an OH  
354 source), there was relatively little initial consumption of I<sup>-</sup> by dark reaction; therefore, when O<sub>3</sub> was added, an amount  
355 of I<sub>2</sub> equal to 1.1 ± 0.1 nmol was observed, comparable to what was observed with the higher pH experiments (Fig.  
356 S4). The amount of Br<sub>2</sub> produced (0.46 ± 0.01 nmol) was also significantly less than observed when I<sup>-</sup> was initially  
357 depleted, demonstrating the importance of the halide ratios (see Section 4.2). Unfortunately, the addition of O<sub>3</sub>



358 introduced a strong interference for the signal observed at  $m/z$  197 ( $I^{35}Cl^{35}Cl$ ) rendering  $Cl_2$  isotopic ratios invalid,  
359 and hence no information regarding the relationship between  $Cl_2$  and  $O_3$  could be ascertained for any experiments  
360 involving  $O_3$ .

361 HOX compounds were also observed when  $O_3$  was present, likely formed in the flowtube by  $O_3$  reactions  
362 with halides as in R18 and R19 (Fig. 3-4; discussed in more detail in the Supplemental Information). Figure 3 shows  
363 this for IO2 (pH=4.7 experiment using Instant Ocean, analogous to SW2 in Fig. 2a, as well as IO1 and SW1). For  
364 each experiment in this series (pH=4.7 with OH-precursors), increases in  $I_2$ , HOI, and  $Br_2$  were readily observed when  
365 the  $O_3$  was introduced at hour 2 (Fig. 3). However, corresponding HOBr production was not observed, perhaps either  
366 due to a high LOD, or the relatively low abundance of  $Br_2$  that would limit production of HOBr. Conversely, in pH  
367  $\leq 2$  cases when substantial portions of  $I^-$  had already reacted prior to irradiation (IO4, IO5, SW4, SW5), the addition  
368 of  $O_3$  produced negligible amounts of  $I_2$  and HOI (Fig. 4). But, in these cases, following the addition of  $O_3$ , HOBr  
369 ( $m/z$  225  $IHO^{81}Br$ ), was observed together with  $Br_2$  (Fig. 4). We note in this case that  $m/z$  223, representative of  
370  $IHO^{79}Br$ , does not appear to show an enhancement when  $O_3$  is added to the system. There was a much higher  
371 background signal for  $m/z$  223 compared with  $m/z$  225 ( $IHO^{81}Br$ ) resulting from an unknown interference.

## 372 4 Discussion

### 373 4.1 Role of OH in halogen production in ice

374 The observations in this study indicate competition for the OH radical in which the most oxidizable halide is  
375 oxidized, and the corresponding molecular halogens are produced until that halide is depleted at the surface. The  
376 trends in molecular halogen production show acid-enhanced production mechanisms, in which the dominant products  
377 are largely dependent on relative halide ratios. These results are consistent with in situ observations of  $Br_2$ ,  $BrCl$ , and  
378  $Cl_2$  formation (Custard et al., 2017; Pratt et al., 2013). In the case of this work,  $Br_2$  and  $IBr$  were not observed until  $I_2$   
379 production sufficiently decreased the  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$  ratio, and  $Cl_2$  was not observed unless the  $[Br^-]/[Cl^-]$  ratio was  
380 sufficiently low ( $[Br^-]/[Cl^-] = 8.1 \times 10^{-6}$  in this study). This observation is consistent with other lab studies (Abbatt et  
381 al., 2010; Sjostedt and Abbatt, 2008). Sjostedt and Abbatt (2008) exposed frozen salt solutions to gas-phase OH and  
382 found peak  $BrCl$  production occurred as  $Br^-$  decreased from an initial  $[Br^-]/[Cl^-]$  of  $7.3 \times 10^{-5}$ . Abbatt et al. (2010)  
383 generated condensed phase OH on frozen surfaces from photolysis of nitrate, and similarly found lower  $Br_2$  and  $IBr$



384 integrated amounts at lower  $[\text{Br}^-]/[\text{Cl}^-]$  when temperatures were warmer than the eutectic point of sodium chloride.  
385 However, the  $\text{I}^-$  in Abbatt et al. (2010) originated from impurities in their sodium chloride and sodium bromide  
386 reagents and was not quantified, making the relative ratios regarding  $\text{I}^-$  not quantifiable.

387 As a first approximation, we estimate via Eq. (1) effective relative reaction rate constants ( $k_X/k_Y$ , where X  
388 and Y represent Br, Cl, or I) for reaction of a halide with OH radicals, assuming that the observed  $X_2$  flux out of the  
389 ice is proportional to the production rate (i.e.,  $X_2$  desorbs as it is produced, within the residence time of the flow tube),  
390 and that oxidation by OH is the rate limiting step:

$$391 \frac{\text{Flux}_{X_2}}{\text{Flux}_{Y_2}} = \frac{k_X \cdot [X^-][\text{OH}][\text{H}^+]}{k_Y \cdot [Y^-][\text{OH}][\text{H}^+]} \quad (1)$$

392 The assumption that OH oxidation is rate limiting is based on individual  $\text{I}_2$  and  $\text{Br}_2$  photochemical production amounts  
393 between Instant Ocean and saltwater solutions not being statistically different (i.e., the organic matter in Instant Ocean  
394 does not appear to impact halogen production), and its dependence on radiation and presence of an OH precursor. The  
395 initial molecular halogen flux is calculated as the integrated sum of  $X_2$  (in moles) divided by both integration time (t  
396 = 0-3 minutes, starting from the beginning of irradiation to capture the initial flux) and the surface area of ice coverage  
397 in the flow tube. The surface area, as well as the  $[\text{OH}]$  and  $[\text{H}^+]$  in the “disordered interface” would be identical within  
398 individual experiments and cancel in these calculations. The halide ion concentrations (defined in Sect. 2) allow us  
399 to solve for the effective relative rate constant,  $k_X/k_Y$ , by assuming the ratios of the halide concentrations are the same  
400 as in the pre-freezing solution. At  $\text{pH} = 1.8$ , we estimate  $k_{\text{Br}^-}/k_{\text{Cl}^-} = (2.4 \pm 0.2) \times 10^5$  from experiment CL1, or, in other  
401 words, production of  $\text{Br}_2$  is 240,000 times more efficient than production of  $\text{Cl}_2$  via  $(\text{OH} + \text{halide})$  in the surface layer.  
402 Across the six experiments performed at  $\text{pH} < 2$  (average of 1.85) using Instant Ocean (IO3, IO4, IO5) and saltwater  
403 (SW3, SW4, SW5), we calculate an average  $k_{\text{I}^-}/k_{\text{Br}^-}$  of  $(9 \pm 4) \times 10^3$  (reported uncertainty is the standard error of the  
404 mean, and thus only represents the experiment repeatability).

405 The above relative rate constant calculations are considered upper limits since the halide ratios used represent  
406 those in the pre-freezing solution. In other words, it is assumed that the ions are excluded to the disordered interface  
407 in amounts proportional to their pre-freezing concentration. Malley et al. (2018) recently demonstrated that brine can  
408 be distributed throughout ice in channels, suggesting that only the solutes at the liquid-air interface (a fraction of the  
409 total pre-freezing solution) participate in heterogeneous chemistry. Indeed, we find evidence here suggesting not all  
410 ions are available for reaction at the disordered interface surface, particularly experiments for which we lost little  $\text{I}^-$





411 from dark I<sub>2</sub> production mechanisms (i.e., pH = 4.7 with OH precursors: IO1, IO2, SW1, SW2). Considering  
412 experiment IO2 as an example (Fig. S5), integration of the I<sub>2</sub> signal during ~15 hours of exposure to both light and O<sub>3</sub>  
413 shows that 54% (82 nmol) of the original 152 nmol of I<sup>-</sup> remained unreacted in the frozen solution despite the signal  
414 apparently stabilizing at its baseline. A similar calculation cannot be performed for the pH ≤ 2 experiments because  
415 of the inability to accurately quantify the amount of I<sub>2</sub> lost during connection of the flowtube to the CIMS. It is  
416 therefore probable that a significant number of the ions, as well as H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, exist within brine channels within the ice  
417 (Bartels-Rausch et al., 2014; Malley et al., 2018), such that oxidation chemistry is occurring throughout the ice. The  
418 diffusion rates of the product molecular halogens through bulk ice are likely slow, such that only surface production  
419 is observed here (Abbatt et al., 2012). Henry's Law constants suggest that I<sub>2</sub> not at the ice surface will transfer to the  
420 air more slowly than other molecular halogens due to having a higher solubility (41.9 M/atm and 8.4 M/atm at -20 °C  
421 for I<sub>2</sub> and Br<sub>2</sub>, respectively) (Raso et al., 2017). Consequently, upon irradiation, OH radicals will react with the most  
422 oxidizable ion via R8-12 (e.g., I<sup>-</sup>). Of the halogens produced from frozen solutions here, it is expected that I<sub>2</sub> is  
423 observed most readily given the high polarizability and surface affinity of I<sup>-</sup> in aqueous solutions (Gladich et al., 2011),  
424 and the relative ease of oxidation of I<sup>-</sup>. That is, surface concentrations will be relatively enhanced with larger, more  
425 polarizable anions (I<sup>-</sup> > Br<sup>-</sup> > Cl<sup>-</sup>) (Gladich et al., 2011), which favors production of I<sub>2</sub> over Br<sub>2</sub>, and Br<sub>2</sub> over Cl<sub>2</sub>. As  
426 the larger/more reactive ions are depleted through oxidation, the next largest ion then becomes more favorably  
427 oxidized. This implies that, if the larger anion is enhanced at the surface, the calculated relative rate constants do not  
428 accurately represent fundamental relative reactivity, but rather the effective relative reactivity given knowledge of the  
429 bulk composition. However, the observed relative oxidation rate constants are consistent with the standard reduction  
430 potentials (tendency to become oxidized) for I<sup>-</sup>, Br<sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>, i.e. 0.620, 1.098, and 1.360V for I<sub>2</sub>, Br<sub>2</sub>, and Cl<sub>2</sub>,  
431 respectively (Chemical Rubber Company and Lide, 2005).

432 Despite these relative oxidation rates, molecular halogen levels have been previously observed at  
433 concentrations within the snowpack interstitial air within two orders of magnitude of each other. At Utqiagvik, AK,  
434 snowpack Br<sub>2</sub> has been observed under artificial radiation at peak levels of 1100 pmol mol<sup>-1</sup> (Custard et al., 2017), I<sub>2</sub>  
435 up to 50 pmol mol<sup>-1</sup> (Raso et al., 2017), and Cl<sub>2</sub> up to 20 pmol mol<sup>-1</sup> (Custard et al., 2017) under artificial irradiation.  
436 Though there are substantially lower natural abundances of I<sup>-</sup> (Raso et al., 2017), I<sub>2</sub> is still observed at levels  
437 comparable to / approaching those typical of Cl<sub>2</sub> and Br<sub>2</sub>. The relative rate constants (ease of X<sup>-</sup> oxidation by OH  
438 radicals) we calculate would then appear to explain that the reactivity of the larger ions (which incorporates



439 components of surface affinity and chemical reactivity to OH) compensate for the low abundances, possibly leading  
 440 to comparable production rates in our laboratory experiments, and comparable snowpack gas phase concentrations.

441 Using a modified version of Eq. (1), we can estimate relative in situ OH-mediated halogen production rates  
 442 using published halide ratios from melted in situ snow samples from Utqiagvik, AK (Eq. (2)).

$$443 \frac{\frac{d[X_2]}{dt}}{\frac{d[Y_2]}{dt}} = \frac{k_X-[X^-][OH][H^+]}{k_Y-[Y^-][OH][H^+]} \quad (2)$$

444 For a range of possible values, we utilize previously published, minimum and maximum  $[Br^-]/[Cl^-]$  values that include  
 445 corresponding  $X_2$  observations (i.e., halide ratios from samples that were shown to photochemically produce  $X_2$ ):  
 446  $0.0005 \pm 0.0001$  (Custard et al., 2017) and  $0.026 \pm 0.008$  (Pratt et al., 2013). These ratios yield a corresponding range

447 for  $\frac{d[Br_2]}{d[Cl_2]}$  of  $180 \pm 20$  to  $6000 \pm 2000$ .  $\frac{d[I_2]}{d[Br_2]}$  can additionally be estimated from Raso et al. (2017), where  $[I^-]/[Br^-]$

448 ranges from  $0.00040 \pm 0.00003$  to  $0.129 \pm 0.006$ , calculated  $\frac{d[I_2]}{d[Br_2]}$  values range from  $3.3 \pm 1.5$  to  $1200 \pm 500$ . While

449 simultaneous production of  $I_2$  and  $Cl_2$  was not observed herein,  $k_I/k_{Cl^-}$  can be calculated by multiplying  $k_I/k_{Br^-}$  by  $k_{Br^-}$

450  $/k_{Cl^-}$ . Therefore, for  $[I^-]/[Cl^-]$  ranging from  $(1.0 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-6}$  to  $(1.5 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-4}$  (Raso et al., 2017), we obtain  $\frac{d[I_2]}{d[Cl_2]}$

451 values of  $(2 \pm 1) \times 10^3$  to  $(3 \pm 2) \times 10^5$ . The results of these calculations indicate that the observed relative rates of  
 452 production more than compensate for the relative halide ion abundances.

453 However, the observed relative rates of production are inconsistent with the observed relative snowpack  
 454 interstitial air  $X_2$  abundances from field observations, which show similar (within a factor of 10) abundances in  
 455 irradiated snowpack interstitial air. We can formulate the following hypotheses to explain this:

- 456 1. There exist important competing loss processes for  $Br_2$  and  $I_2$  after initial production.
- 457 2. Other  $Cl_2$  production pathways account for the majority of ambient concentrations.

458 Concerning hypothesis 1, one likely loss process includes aqueous inter-halogen partitioning, as in R25 (where  $X = I$   
 459 or Br, and  $Y = I, Br, \text{ or } Cl$ ):



461 Evidence supporting this possibility include the photochemical formation of  $IBr$  in concert with photochemical  $Br_2$   
 462 production during low pH experiments (in Fig. 2b), as has been observed previously (Abbatt et al., 2010; Sjostedt and  
 463 Abbatt, 2008). In addition, photolysis of  $X_2$  is faster for the larger molecular halogens. Thompson et al., (2015) report



464  $J_{X_2} = 0.15, 0.044, \text{ and } 0.0021 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $I_2, Br_2, \text{ and } Cl_2$ , respectively during solar noon in March at Utqiagvik, AK,  
465 corresponding to photolytic lifetimes of 7s, 23s, and 476s, respectively. Thus, faster photolysis of the larger halogens  
466 in the snowpack air will contribute to levelling the production rate differences, given penetration of actinic radiation  
467 into the snowpack (King and Simpson, 2001). Evidence also exists in support hypothesis 2, possibly via the  
468 heterogeneous recycling involved in the halogen explosion mechanism outlined in Sect. 1. Wang and Pratt (2017)  
469 discuss that  $Br_2$  and  $Cl_2$  in ambient air at Utqiagvik have opposite diurnal trends, indicating different governing  
470 mechanisms for each molecular halogen species. We discuss this in greater detail in Sect. 4.2.

#### 471 **4.2 The role of $O_3$ in enhancing halogen production**

472 In experiments without an OH source,  $I_2$  production amounts were greatest after  $O_3$  was introduced to the  
473 illuminated tube for both pH regimes (Table 2). This likely results from a combination of heterogeneous recycling,  
474 and the surface and aqueous reactions between  $O_3$  and  $I^-$  ( $k = 2.0 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Liu et al., 2001)). While  
475  $O_3$ -mediated halogen production has been observed directly from frozen surfaces in previous laboratory studies  
476 (Artiglia et al., 2017; Oldridge and Abbatt, 2011; Oum et al., 1998a; Wren et al., 2013),  $Br_2$  was not observed to be  
477 produced from the Arctic snowpack without irradiation (Pratt et al., 2013). This discrepancy raises a question of the  
478 role of  $O_3$  in initial halogen release in the Arctic spring.

479 In the presence of light,  $O_3$  was found to stimulate additional  $I_2$  and  $Br_2$  production in the experiments herein,  
480 as discussed in Sect 3.4. This additional production could result from a combination of the following mechanisms.  
481 First, as discussed above,  $O_3$  can react with halides on frozen saline surfaces to produce  $Br_2$  or  $I_2$  per reactions R18-  
482 19, and then R4 (Artiglia et al., 2017; Carpenter et al., 2013; Gladich et al., 2015; Hayase et al., 2010; Oum et al.,  
483 1998a; Shaw and Carpenter, 2013; Wren et al., 2013). It is possible that  $Br_2$  (as well as other halogens) may have  
484 been produced via this mechanism at levels below the LOD in previous Arctic snowpack studies (Custard et al., 2017;  
485 Pratt et al., 2013; Raso et al., 2017); however, this may provide sufficient levels of  $Br_2$  to enrich the snowpack in  $Br^-$   
486 to drive the photochemical production mechanism upon radiation. Second, given a flow tube residence time of 12  
487 seconds, gas phase production of HOX is possible and could potentially enhance  $X_2$  production, given a timescale for  
488 molecular diffusion of 6.5 seconds for HOBr from the center of the tube to the ice surface. At this flow rate, there is  
489 enough time for 1-2 heterogeneous reaction cycles. Consistent with this recycling mechanism, we observed HOI, and  
490 HOBr at low pH (Fig. 3-4).



491 Revisiting the pathways for  $\text{Cl}_2$  production from Sect. 4.1, there is growing evidence for the role of heterogeneous  
492 chemistry. Recently, Wren et al. (2013) observed substantial  $\text{Cl}_2$  production from their artificial snow samples in the  
493 presence of both  $\text{O}_3$  and light, invoking the “halogen explosion” mechanism (Sect. 1). In this scenario, HOI or HOBr  
494 could liberate Cl from the “disordered interface” to produce ICl or BrCl, which can undergo R1-4 to produce HOCl  
495 that ultimately oxidizes Cl<sup>-</sup> to produce  $\text{Cl}_2$ . Liao et al. (2014) observed results consistent with this mechanism above  
496 the snowpack in Utqiagvik, AK, reporting a strong correlation between  $\text{Cl}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ , and solar radiation; similarly, Custard  
497 et al. (2016) observed ClO correlated with  $\text{Cl}_2$ . This pathway is certainly viable for producing  $\text{Cl}_2$  in our experiments,  
498 given there is enough time for recycling.

## 499 5 Summary and Conclusions

500 We show here that the hydroxyl radical can act as an effective condensed-phase halide oxidant leading to  $\text{I}_2$ ,  
501 IBr,  $\text{Br}_2$ , and  $\text{Cl}_2$  production under acidic conditions. Rates of release were dictated by both pH and relative halide  
502 concentrations. The molecular halogen produced appears to be highly influenced by which ions are enhanced at the  
503 ice surface, with  $\text{I}_2$  production occurring prior to  $\text{Br}_2$  production, which commenced after the  $[\text{I}^-]/[\text{Br}^-]$  was reduced.  
504 An opportunity exists to further explore this chemistry via surface-sensitive methods, for which recent developments  
505 have been shown to effectively enable characterization of the surface composition of frozen solutions of sodium  
506 chloride under near atmospherically relevant conditions (Artiglia et al., 2017; Orlando et al., 2016). It would be useful  
507 to confirm the dominant ions involved in this surface-based chemistry over time. Further investigations into the effects  
508 of halide ratios on halogen production are also suggested, including measurements of how the ratios vary for different  
509 frozen Arctic surfaces, as well as how they vary spatially. While condensed-phase OH produces  $\text{Br}_2$  and  $\text{I}_2$  most  
510 rapidly in this study, it appears that other mechanisms, such as heterogeneous recycling of HOCl or ClONO<sub>2</sub>, could  
511 be a more dominant mechanism for in situ production of gas phase  $\text{Cl}_2$  (Wang and Pratt, 2017). We find the addition  
512 of  $\text{O}_3$  provides additional production of at least  $\text{Br}_2$  and  $\text{I}_2$ , probably through gas-phase production of HOX or XONO<sub>2</sub>  
513 and subsequent halogen explosion chemistry. These results lend support for the photochemical mechanisms proposed  
514 by the recent in situ snowpack experiments (Custard et al., 2017; Pratt et al., 2013; Raso et al., 2017) in which  
515 condensed-phase OH chemistry provides seed halogens that subsequently undergo heterogeneous recycling in order  
516 to build up atmospheric concentrations of halogens.



517           The pH dependence of halogen activation necessitates study on the pH on relevant Arctic frozen surfaces.  
518 Pratt et al. (2013) found that the frozen surfaces most conducive to in situ photochemical Br<sub>2</sub> production had acidic  
519 pH after melting, while no production was observed from those with a well-buffered alkaline ice brine. Similarly, we  
520 find herein that condensed-phase OH-induced halogen production is enhanced at lower pH. Wren and Donaldson  
521 (2012a, 2012b) found in laboratory studies that pH of acidic and basic solutions remains essentially unchanged after  
522 freezing, and that saline solutions with buffers (i.e., seawater) maintain their buffering capacity following trace gas  
523 deposition, supporting the lack of observed Br<sub>2</sub> production from the sea ice surface (Pratt et al., 2013). Therefore, it  
524 would be useful to test in situ production of halogens from Arctic frozen surfaces in tandem with the testing of the pH  
525 of said surfaces in order to determine the atmospherically relevant surface pH range required for halogen production.  
526

527 *Data availability.* The data analysed in this work have been submitted for deposit onto the National Science  
528 Foundation Arctic Data Center ([arcticdata.io](http://arcticdata.io)) for public accessibility. Until they are published, data are available  
529 upon e-mail request to the first author ([halfacre@ius.edu](mailto:halfacre@ius.edu)).

530

531 *Author contributions.* JWH and PBS designed the research and JWH performed the experiments and data  
532 analysis. All authors contributed to the discussion and interpretation of the results and writing of the paper.

533

534 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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- 703

705 **Tables**
 706 Table 1: List of relevant species monitored by chemical ionization mass spectrometry ( $I(H_2O)_n^-$  as reagent ion) with corresponding  
 707  $m/z$  values.

Species	$m/z$
$I^{81}Br^-$	208
$I^{79}Br^{79}Br^-$	285
$I^{79}Br^{81}Br^-$	287
$I^{35}Cl^-$	162
$I^{37}Cl^-$	164
$I^{35}Cl^{35}Cl^-$	197
$I^{35}Cl^{37}Cl^-$	199
$I^{37}Cl^{37}Cl^-$	201
$I^{79}Br^{35}Cl^-$	241
$I^{81}Br^{35}Cl^- / I^{79}Br^{37}Cl^-$	243
$I_3^-$	381
$IHO^{79}Br$	223
$IHO^{81}Br$	225
$IHO_3^{5}Cl^-$	179
$IHO_3^{7}Cl^-$	181
$IHOI^-$	271
$I^{79}IBr^-$	333
$I^{81}IBr^-$	335

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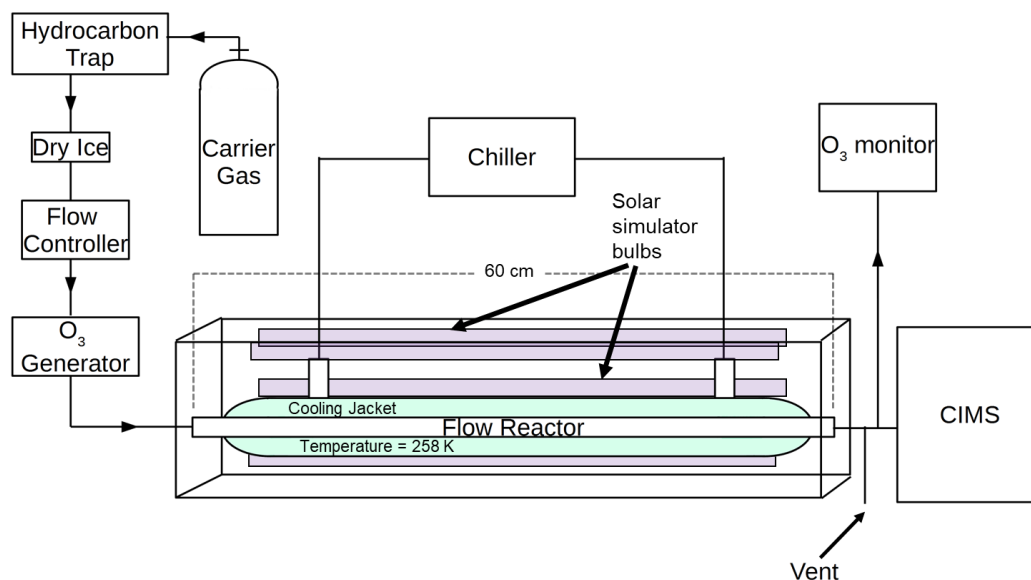
710 Table 2: Results for all experiments performed. The first line in an experiment represents the integrated totals of molecular halogen  
 711 production after 1 hour of irradiation ( $t = 0$  through  $t = 1$  h). The results on italicized lines are 1 h integrated production amounts  
 712 beginning once additional ozone was introduced to the flow tube. Average LODs across experiments were  $1.8 \pm 0.4$ ,  $1.2 \pm 0.3$ ,  
 713 and  $9 \pm 2$  pmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for Br<sub>2</sub>, Cl<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>2</sub> respectively. “IO#” represents samples composed of Instant Ocean, and “SW#” represents  
 714 “saltwater” samples, composed of reagent salts. “CL1” here represents the experiment performed using 0.557M high purity NaCl.

Experiment	Oxidant	pH	I <sub>2</sub> produced (nmol)	Br <sub>2</sub> produced (nmol)	Cl <sub>2</sub> produced (nmol)
IO1	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	4.7	9 (±3)	< LOD	
			<i>22 (±8)</i>	<i>0.06 (±0.05)</i>	
IO2	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	4.7	0.6 (±0.4)	0.034 (±0.003)	
			<i>21 (±14)</i>	<i>0.038 (±0.003)</i>	
SW1	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	4.7	6.0 (±2.1)	< LOD	
			<i>51 (±19)</i>	<i>0.024 (±0.014)</i>	
SW2	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	4.5	8 (±4)	< LOD	
			<i>51 (±25)</i>	<i>0.018 (±0.003)</i>	
IO3	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	2.0	39 (±1)	0.084 (±0.002)	
IO4	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	1.7	0.8 (±0.3)	5.6 (±0.3)	
			< LOD	<i>12 (±1)</i>	
IO5	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	1.7	0.33 (±0.11)	3.5 (±0.4)	
			<i>0.11 (±0.04)</i>	<i>9.2 (±1.0)</i>	
SW3	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> +O <sub>3</sub>	1.8	4.0 (±0.1)	< LOD	
			< LOD	<i>0.46 (±0.1)</i>	
SW4	NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> +O <sub>3</sub>	2.2	< LOD	5.4 (±0.7)	
			< LOD	<i>13 (±2)</i>	
SW5	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> +O <sub>3</sub>	1.8	0.75 (±0.26)	6.0 (±0.7)	
			< LOD	<i>15 (±2)</i>	
CL1	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	1.8	0.10 (±0.03)	0.10 (±0.01)	0.093 (±0.008)
IO6	None +O <sub>3</sub>	4.7	< LOD	< LOD	
			<i>26 (±9)</i>	<i>0.015 (±0.001)</i>	
IO7	None +O <sub>3</sub>	4.7	0.10 (±0.06)	< LOD	
			<i>47 (±29)</i>	<i>0.012 (±0.001)</i>	
SW6	None +O <sub>3</sub>	4.7	< LOD	< LOD	
			<i>80 (±1)</i>	<i>0.16 (±0.01)</i>	
SW7	None +O <sub>3</sub>	4.5	< LOD	< LOD	
			<i>48 (±2)</i>	<i>0.023 (±0.001)</i>	
IO8	None +O <sub>3</sub>	2.0	14 (±10)	< LOD	
			<i>2.6 (±1.7)</i>	<i>0.14 (±0.02)</i>	
SW8	None +O <sub>3</sub>	2.0	14 (±10)	< LOD	
			<i>2.6 (±1.7)</i>	<i>0.14 (±0.02)</i>	

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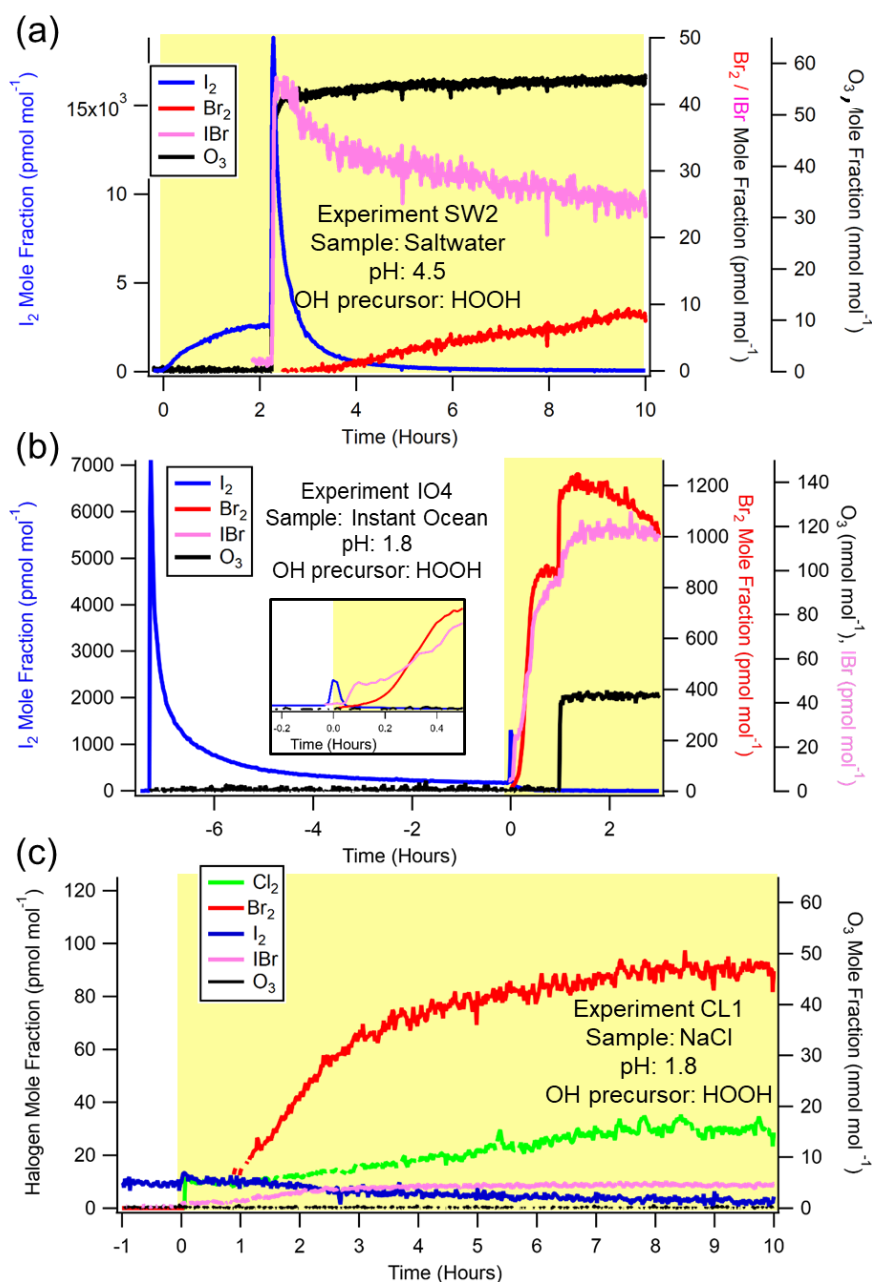
716 **Figures**



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718 Figure 1: Experimental schematic. Purple bars represent powered solar simulator bulbs. The green shading around the flow tube  
 719 (flow reactor) represents cooling liquid (60% ethylene glycol, 40% water) circulated through the chiller. The flow reactor region  
 720 itself has an inner diameter of 2.5 cm.

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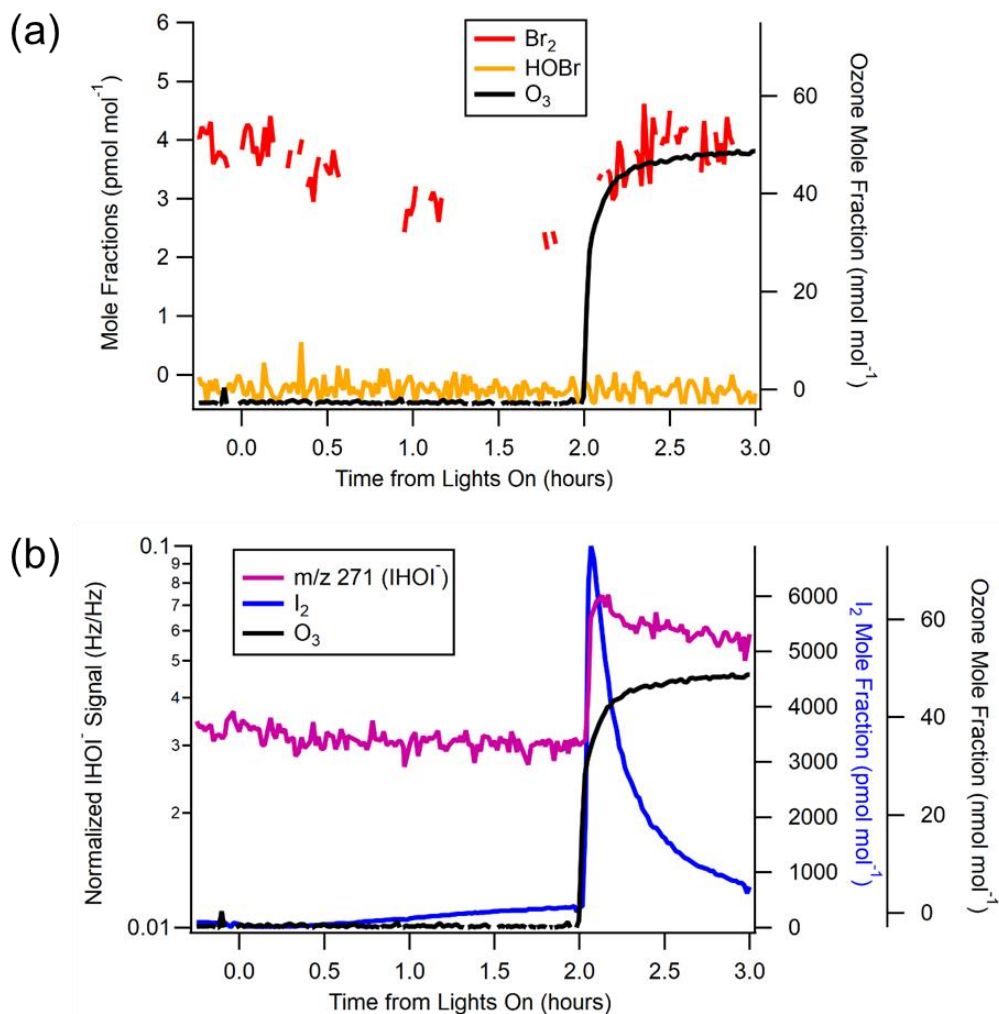


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723 Figure 2: Representative experiments of OH-mediated production of  $X_2$ , and subsequent production of  $X_2$  from  $O_3$  addition. a)  
 724 Saltwater experiment (SW2) at pH=4.5. b) Instant Ocean experiment (IO4) at pH = 1.8. Time varying  $Br_2$  and  $IBr$  signals before  
 725  $t=0$  are shown in Fig. S1. Inset more clearly shows the increase of  $I_2$  signal after irradiation. c) NaCl experiment (CL1) at pH = 1.8.  
 726 Timescale represents hours from the activation of the lights, and the yellow shading represents presence of radiation from solar  
 727 simulator bulbs. Gaps in data represent periods when the isotopic ratios showed an interference.



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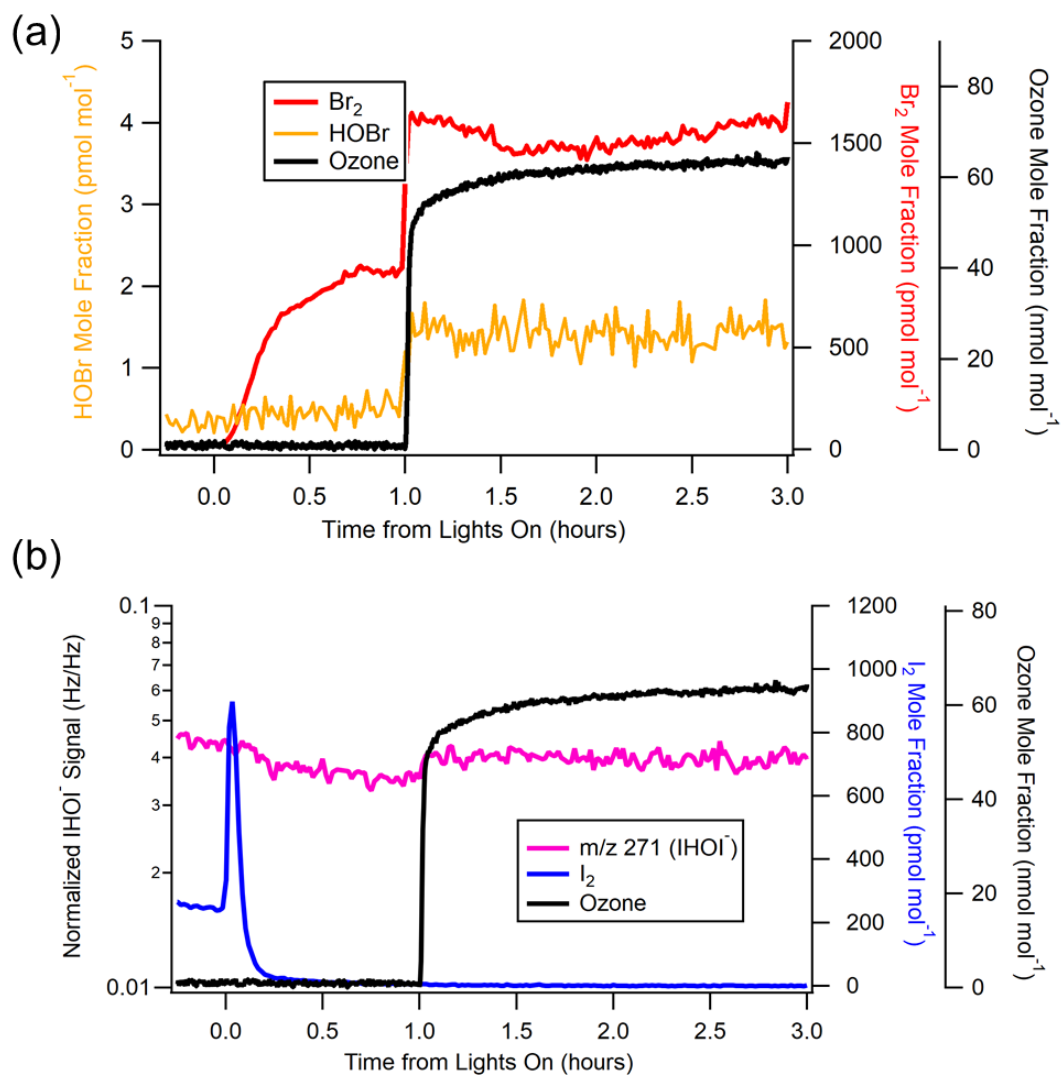


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730 Figure 3: HOX signals from experiment IO<sub>2</sub>, pH=4.7. a) Comparison of Br<sub>2</sub> mole fractions to HOBr. Note that the HOBr signal,  
731 while calibrated, should be used only for qualitative purposes as its identity could not be confirmed using isotopic ratios with *m/z*  
732 223 due to its relatively large background signal. b) Effect of O<sub>3</sub> on I<sub>2</sub> and HOI.

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735 Figure 4: HOX signals from experiment SW5, pH=1.8. a) Comparison of  $\text{Br}_2$  mole fractions to HOBr ( $m/z$  225). Note that the  
736 HOBr signal, while calibrated, should be used only for qualitative purposes as its identity could not be confirmed using isotopic  
737 ratios with  $m/z$  223. b) Effect of  $\text{O}_3$  on  $\text{I}_2$  and HOI.

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