

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice in the Canadian Arctic

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Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Abstract

Melt pond formation is a common feature of the spring and summer Arctic sea ice. However, the role of the melt ponds formation and the impact of the sea ice melt on both the direction and size of CO₂ flux between air and sea is still unknown. Here we describe the CO₂-carbonate chemistry of melting sea ice, melt ponds and the underlying seawater associated with measurement of CO₂ fluxes across first year landfast sea ice in the Resolute Passage, Nunavut, in June 2012.

Early in the melt season, the increase of the ice temperature and the subsequent decrease of the bulk ice salinity promote a strong decrease of the total alkalinity (TA), total dissolved inorganic carbon (*T*CO₂) and partial pressure of CO₂ (*p*CO₂) within the bulk sea ice and the brine. Later on, melt pond formation affects both the bulk sea ice and the brine system. As melt ponds are formed from melted snow the in situ melt pond *p*CO₂ is low (36 μatm). The percolation of this low *p*CO₂ melt water into the sea ice matrix dilutes the brine resulting in a strong decrease of the in situ brine *p*CO₂ (to 20 μatm). As melt ponds reach equilibrium with the atmosphere, their in situ *p*CO₂ increase (up to 380 μatm) and the percolation of this high concentration *p*CO₂ melt water increase the in situ brine *p*CO₂ within the sea ice matrix.

The low in situ *p*CO₂ observed in brine and melt ponds results in CO₂ fluxes of -0.04 to -5.4 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹. As melt ponds reach equilibrium with the atmosphere, the uptake becomes less significant. However, since melt ponds are continuously supplied by melt water their in situ *p*CO₂ still remains low, promoting a continuous but moderate uptake of CO₂ (~ -1 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹).

The potential uptake of atmospheric CO₂ by melting sea ice during the Arctic summer has been estimated from 7 to 16 Tg of C ignoring the role of melt ponds. This additional uptake of CO₂ associated to Arctic sea ice needs to be further explored and considered in the estimation of the Arctic Ocean's overall CO₂ budget.

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



1 Introduction

The Arctic Ocean represents a globally important CO₂ sink with current estimates of net air to sea CO₂ fluxes between -66 and -199 Tg C yr⁻¹ (Bates and Mathis, 2009; Takahashi et al., 2009). The role of sea ice in these measured air–sea CO₂ exchanges still remains uncertain (Parmentier et al., 2013) although recent studies suggest that sea ice may act as an important control on the CO₂ partial pressure ($p\text{CO}_2$) in the ocean surface layer (e.g. Rysgaard et al., 2007, 2012b, 2013b). Our understanding of inorganic carbon dynamics during the sea ice melt season and its importance to the annual exchange of CO₂ across the atmosphere–sea ice–ocean interfaces is incomplete. Melt ponds have been invoked as significant contributors to the Arctic CO₂ balance through their uptake of CO₂ (Semiletov et al., 2004). However, their impact on inorganic carbon transport through sea ice remains largely uncharacterized, despite the fact that they are a major and increasing surface feature of Arctic sea ice during spring and summer (Rösel and Kaleschke, 2012).

Melt ponds cover up to 50–60% of the Arctic summer sea ice area (Fetterer and Untersteiner, 1998; Eicken et al., 2004). They result from the accumulation of meltwater on sea ice mainly due to melting of snow. Sea ice melt also contributes to the melt pond formation and growth in advanced stages of melt (Rösel and Kaleschke, 2012), driven by the increase of short-wave radiation absorption during the summer (Taylor and Feltham, 2004). During melt pond formation, meltwater either drains into the ocean through cracks and other openings in the sea ice or is collected on the ice surface in depressed areas. This meltwater is nearly free of salt and has a density maximum above the freezing point. Therefore, the radiative heating will favour convection (Fetterer and Untersteiner, 1998). This convection will be further assisted by winds, increasing temperature erosion of the pond edge eventually extending the pond area. As sea ice warms during spring its brine volume increases and meltwater ponds located above the freeboard may drain by vertical seepage to the underlying water (brine flushing – e.g. Fetterer and Untersteiner, 1998), thereby freshening the upper layer of the

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



ocean. This mechanism is believed to be the primary cause for sea ice desalination (Untersteiner, 1968; Cox and Weeks, 1974). The input of freshwater to the surface layer of the ocean can lead to the formation of under-ice melt ponds, freshwater lenses trapped under thinner ice areas or in depressions in the bottom of thicker ice (Hanson, 1965; Weeks, 2010). The discharge of melt water through the ice cover is proportional to the ice permeability and the hydraulic pressure gradient in the brine system. In summer Arctic sea ice, this gradient is mostly determined by differences in hydraulic head that develop as a result of melt over a nonuniform ice surface (Eicken et al., 2002).

Melt pond formation has a strong impact on the summer energy and mass budgets of an ice cover through the sea ice–albedo–feedback mechanism (Fetterer and Untersteiner, 1998; Taylor and Feltham, 2004; Perovich et al., 2011). Melt ponds also alter the physical and optical properties of sea ice (Perovich et al., 2002), have a strong influence of the temporal evolution of sea ice salinity (Untersteiner, 1968; Cox and Weeks, 1974) and affect the salt and heat budget of the ocean mixed layer (Eicken et al., 2002; Perovich et al., 2002). Although a few studies report surface flux measurements of CO₂ during active surface melt (Semiletov et al., 2004; Geilfus et al., 2012b; Nomura et al., 2013), the role of surface melt ponds and the impact of sea ice melt on both the direction and the amount of air–sea CO₂ flux is still not well understood.

Semiletov et al. (2004), using chambers, documented CO₂ fluxes of -3.9 to $-51 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (negative flux indicating sea ice uptake of CO₂) across the sea ice–atmosphere interface over melt ponds in June, near to Barrow, Alaska. At that time brine $p\text{CO}_2$ was undersaturated (from 220 to 280 μatm) with respect to the atmosphere (365–375 μatm). This undersaturation was attributed to an increase of photo-synthetically active radiation (PAR), which was postulated to have reduced the $p\text{CO}_2$ in the brine by enhancing photosynthesis (Semiletov et al., 2004). In June 2008, Geilfus et al. (2012b) reported CO₂ fluxes over melt ponds and sea ice ranging from -0.02 to $-2.7 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, also using the chamber technique over first year sea ice in the Beaufort Sea. Though these fluxes were substantially smaller than those reported by Semiletov et al. (2004), they were of the same order of magnitude as those reported

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



during period of melt and surface flooding on Antarctic and Arctic sea ice (Nomura et al., 2013). In the Geilfus et al. (2012b) study, sea ice brine and overlying melt ponds were highly undersaturated in CO_2 relative to atmospheric levels ($p\text{CO}_2$ between 0 to $188 \mu\text{atm}$ and 79 to $348 \mu\text{atm}$ for brine and melt ponds respectively) for the 1.2 m thick landfast sea ice in the Amundsen Gulf (Beaufort Sea). At that time, the melt ponds were well established and interconnected. The fresh water originating from internal and surface melting was suggested as an important driver of the observed undersaturation together with other processes, including the dissolution of calcium carbonate and the primary production. Using micrometeorological techniques, Papakyriakou and Miller (2011) also reported CO_2 uptake with the progression of melt, although flux magnitudes are widely diverging from the chamber-based studies highlighted above.

In this study, we examine how the melting of the sea ice cover and the associated formation of melt ponds affects the inorganic carbon dynamic and the air–ice CO_2 exchanges. The evolution of the carbonate system was examined using measurements of TA, $T\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2$ performed on bulk sea ice, brine and melt ponds, in association with CO_2 flux measurements over sea ice and melt ponds. The percolation of the melt water from melt ponds was tracked using the isotopic ratios δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ within bulk sea ice and brine.

2 Study site, materials and methods

Field data were collected over first-year landfast sea ice in Resolute Passage, Nunavut, from 3 to 23 June 2012. The sampling site ($\sim 100\text{m} \times 100\text{m}$) was located between Sheringham Point and Griffith Island (74.726°N , 95.576°W , Fig. 1). At the site, adjacent $5\text{m} \times 5\text{m}$ areas were chosen for regular sampling for carbonate chemistry determination of ice cores and seawater (on 4 day intervals), while the carbonate chemistry of brine and the surface flux of CO_2 was sampled every 2 days. During our survey, the air temperature increased from 0.6 to 3.2°C , with a maximum temperature of 4.3°C observed on 19 June (Fig. 2). During our first ice station (4 June), coarse wet snow

was found at the surface of the ice. On 10 June, the first melt ponds were observed (Fig. 2). Once the melt ponds started to form, the ice core and brine sampling was limited to area without melt ponds, referred to as melt hummock.

Brine was collected using the sackhole technique (e.g. Gleitz et al., 1995). Sackholes were drilled at incrementing depths (20, 40, 75, 100 cm). Brine from adjacent brine channels and pockets was allowed to seep into the sackholes for 5 to 10 min before being collected using a peristaltic pump (Cole Palmer[®], Masterflex – Environmental Sampler). Each sackhole was covered with a plastic lid to avoid the intrusion of snow and snow and ice melt.

Sea ice core samples were collected using a MARK II coring system (Kovacs Enterprises[®]). Two ice cores were immediately wrapped in polyethylene (PE) bags and stored horizontally on the sampling site at -20°C in a portable freezer (Whynter[®] 45 Quart portable Freezer FM-45G) to minimize brine drainage during transport. The first core was dedicated to the analysis of total alkalinity (TA) and total dissolved inorganic carbon (TCO_2). The second core was dedicated to partial pressure of CO_2 in bulk ice (bulk ice pCO_2) analysis. Two others cores were collected for in situ sea ice temperature, bulk ice salinity and ikaite ($CaCO_3 \cdot 6H_2O$) content.

Seawater was collected at the ice–water interface through an ice core hole using the peristaltic pump. The same pump was used to collect melt pond samples and an articulated arm was used to collect under-ice melt pond samples. We also collected water column samples at six depths (2, 5, 10, 25, 50, 80 m) using 5 L Niskin bottles for determination of TA and TCO_2 . Vertical profiles of water temperature and salinity were measured with a newly calibrated Sea-Bird SBE 19plus V2 conductivity-temperature depth (CTD) probe.

The pCO_2 was measured in situ on brine, melt pond water and under-ice seawater using a custom-made equilibration system. The system consists of a membrane contractor equilibrator connected to a non-dispersive infrared gas analyzer (IRGA, Li-Cor 820) via a closed air loop. Brine and airflow rates through the equilibrator and IRGA are approximately 2 L min^{-1} and 3 L min^{-1} , respectively. Temperature was measured

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



TCO_2 was determined by CO_2 equilibration chamber coupled to an infrared CO_2 analyzer with a precision of $\pm 2 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$.

The ice cores taken for bulk ice $p\text{CO}_2$ analysis were cut into 10 cm sections and stored at -20°C . The bulk ice $p\text{CO}_2$ was measured at the Laboratoire de Glaciologie, at the Université Libre de Bruxelles using the technique developed by Geilfus et al. (2012a). The general principle of the method is to equilibrate the sea ice samples with a mixture of N_2 and CO_2 of known concentration (referred to as the “standard gas”, 146 μatm) at the in situ temperature and rapidly extract the gases into a Varian 3300 gas chromatograph under vacuum. The ice sample is cut to fit tightly the container (4 cm \times 4 cm \times 4.5 cm) to both minimize the headspace volume and keep this headspace constant. The standard gas is injected at 1013 mbar into the container. Then the container, with the ice sample, is placed in a thermostatic bath setup at the field in situ temperature for 24 h. This timing is chosen to ensure that, the sample is re-equilibrated to the brine volume and chemical conditions at the in situ temperature. During the injection to the gas chromatograph, the pressure difference between the vacuum line and the containers extracts all the CO_2 from the brine into the gas chromatograph. This method is only valid if the ice is permeable at the in situ conditions.

We determined δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in 2 mL aliquots of sea ice, brine, under-ice seawater, melt pond and under-ice melt pond. Stable isotope measurements were carried out at the University of Manitoba using a Picarro L2130-*i* analyzer. Samples were calibrated against Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) with a precision of 0.1 ‰ for δD and 0.025 ‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.

CO_2 fluxes at the sea ice surface were measured using a Licor 8100–103 chamber associated with the LI-8100A soil CO_2 flux system. The chamber was connected in a closed loop to the IRGA with an air pump rate at 3 L min^{-1} . $p\text{CO}_2$ in the chamber was recorded every second for 15 min and the flux was computed from the slope of the linear regression of $p\text{CO}_2$ against time ($r^2 > 0.99$) according to Frankignoulle (1988), taking into account the air volume enclosed within the chamber. The uncertainty of the

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



flux computation due to the standard error on the regression slope was on average $\pm 3\%$.

3 Results

3.1 Sea ice

5 The average ice thickness at the sampling site, as determined from cores, decreased from 130 (± 5) to 105 (± 5) cm over the sampling campaign. The ice temperature increased from -2.9°C on 4 June to -1.5°C on 12 June (Fig. 3). From 10 June, the top 20 cm of the ice had a temperature slightly negative, from -0.5°C to 0°C while the rest of the ice thickness remained around -1.5°C . Bulk ice salinity ranged from 7.5 to 0 (Fig. 3). The top 20 cm of the ice had salinity around 0 while the salinity of the central part of the ice decreased from 7.5 to 4 during the survey. The high temperatures allow a brine volume content in the ice higher than 5% (data not shown).

15 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD isotopic ratio ranged from 1.9 to -23.9% and 2.5 to -191.2% , respectively (Fig. 3). Profiles of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD appear to follow the same trend with the lowest values observed in the top 20 cm of the ice cover. Two low events were reported in the upper 20 cm of the ice cover. The first was from 8 to 12 June with an isotopic ratio of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD as low as -23.9 and -191.2% . The second was on 17 June with a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD of -15.4 and -133.7% . The rest of the ice cover ranged from -2 to 1.9% for the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and from -7 to 2.5% for the δD .

20 The mean total alkalinity in melted bulk sea ice (TA_{ice}) of the entire ice column gradually decreased from $408\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 4 June to $283\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 21 June (Fig. 3). This decrease of TA_{ice} was more pronounced in the top 20 cm of the ice cover where the minimal value of $106\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ was observed on 17 June. The same trend was observed for the total inorganic carbon ($\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$, Fig. 3). The mean $\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ of the entire ice column decreased from $332\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 4 June to $225\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 25 21 June. On 17 June, the minimum values were observed, with a mean concentration

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



of $189 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$. To discard concentration – dilution effect, we normalized TA_{ice} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ to a salinity of 5 (noted as $n\text{TA}_{\text{ice}}$, $n\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$, respectively). The main change observed in the ice cover occurs in the top 20 cm. From 4 to 17 June, $n\text{TA}_{\text{ice}}$ and $n\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ increased from 468 and $345 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ to 1762 and $1041 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ while the rest of the ice cover ranged from 337 to $564 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and from 219 to $461 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, respectively.

From TA_{ice} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$, the bulk ice $p\text{CO}_2$ (noted as $p\text{CO}_{2\text{calc}}$) has been computed using the CO_2 dissociation constants of Mehrbach et al. (1973) refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987). We assumed a conservative behaviour of dissociation constants for the range of temperature and salinity encountered in the ice cover. This $p\text{CO}_{2\text{calc}}$ ranged from 0 to $32 \mu\text{atm}$ (Fig. 4). On a duplicate ice core, the bulk ice $p\text{CO}_2$ was also measured on solid ice, at the in situ temperature, using the sample equilibration technique developed by Geilfus et al. (2012a) (noted as $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$). The $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$ ranged from 6 to $182 \mu\text{atm}$ (Fig. 4).

We observed few ikaite crystals in the ice, which dissolved within a few minutes at room temperature. Due to technical problems we were unable to take any pictures of the crystals. However, as the overall aspect of these crystals look exactly as the crystals found in Geilfus et al. (2013a, b) and Rysgaard et al. (2013a, b) and as they dissolved quickly at room temperature, we assumed they were ikaite (after Rysgaard et al., 2012b, 2013a, b).

3.2 Brine

From 4 to 10 June, the brine salinity decreased from 55 to 23 (Fig. 5). Starting on 10 June, low brine salinities (ranging from 1.6 to 11.8) were found at 20 cm depth while deeper brine ranged from 11 to 30, except on 17 June where low salinity were also found at the 40 cm depth. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD isotopic ratios ranged from -1.5 to -15.2‰ and from -15.5 to -118.2‰ , respectively (Fig. 5). Both profiles appear to be similar, with the lowest values observed at 20 cm depth on 10 June (-15.2‰ and

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



–118.1‰, respectively) and at 20 and 40 cm depth on 17 June (–10.4‰ and –87.5‰, respectively).

From 4 to 21 June, TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} decreased from their maximum values of 3487 and 3189 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, to 234 and 270 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 5). Two periods of low concentrations were observed during our survey. First, on 10 June, minimums of TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} of 501 and 401 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ respectively, occurred at 20 cm. Then, on 17 June, TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} were at 240 and 275 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ respectively, at 20 and 40 cm. These two minimums in TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} coincided with maximums in TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} normalized to a salinity of 5 (noted as nTA_{br} and $nTCO_{2br}$). On 10 June, nTA_{br} and $nTCO_{2br}$ were at 596 and 478 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, and on 17 June, nTA_{br} and $nTCO_{2br}$ were at 874 and 900 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$.

The in situ brine pCO_2 was under-saturated with respect to the atmosphere (395 μatm in June 2012) with concentrations ranging from 20 μatm to 389 μatm (Figs. 4 and 5). From 4 to 12 June, the mean in situ brine pCO_2 decreased from 344 to 70 μatm . Then, it increased to 246 μatm on 17 June before decreasing to 81 μatm on 21 June.

3.3 Melt ponds

On 10 June, melt ponds started to form at the surface of the ice cover and were present during the rest of the survey. The melt pond salinity ranged from 1.5 to 2.4 with temperatures from 0°C to 0.4°C. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD isotopic ratios ranged from –3.8 to –10.1‰ and from –40.6 to –93.4‰.

TA_{mp} ranged from 219 to 332 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and TCO_{2mp} ranged from 206 to 306 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ over the study period. Normalized TA and TCO_2 in the melt ponds (nTA_{mp} and $nTCO_{2mp}$) ranged from 489 to 972 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and 562 to 918 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, respectively.

Melt pond water was also under-saturated with respect to the atmosphere with a pCO_2 concentrations ranging from 36 to 381 μatm . During the initial formation of

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



melt ponds, their $p\text{CO}_2$ was low (36–84 μatm) but increased to 381 μatm on 17 June before fluctuating between 150 and 370 μatm .

3.4 Underlying seawater

During the survey, the temperature of the seawater layer immediately underlying the sea ice increased from -1.7°C to -1.4°C . The salinity of this layer decreased gradually from 33.2 to 31.4 while the salinity of the water column below 10 m changed much less (Fig. 6).

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD isotopic ratio of the surface layer decreased gradually from their respective minimums of -1.3 and -17.3‰ to -2.2 and -19.5‰ on 20 June. Deeper layers of the water column ranged from -1.5 and -14.9‰ to -1.9 and -18.9‰ , respectively (Fig. 6).

TA_{SW} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{SW}}$ ranged from 2021 and 1920 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ to 2239 and 2167 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, respectively. On 20 June, a strong decrease in TA_{SW} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{SW}}$ was observed, leading to the observed minimum values at the surface of the water column. The normalized TA_{SW} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{SW}}$ ($n\text{TA}_{\text{SW}}$ and $n\text{TCO}_{2\text{SW}}$ to salinity 5 are shown (Fig. 6) to allow direct comparison with the sea ice and brine data) ranged from 319 to 350 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and 303 to 333 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, respectively.

The in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ at the seawater surface ranged from 259 to 469 μatm , shifting from an oversaturated state (455 μatm) on 7 June to an under saturated one (259 μatm) after 21 and 23 June (Fig. 6).

3.5 Air–ice CO_2 fluxes

CO_2 fluxes were systematically measured over sea ice and melt ponds (Fig. 7) throughout the campaign. Initially, CO_2 fluxes over sea ice were on average at $-1.38 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (negative flux denoting uptake of CO_2). During the initial formation of melt ponds, the fluxes over sea ice peaked at $-5.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ on 10 June and $-2 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ on 12 June. Over melt ponds, the initial uptake of CO_2 was signif-

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



icant at $-2.9 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ on 10 June and $-4.8 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ on 12 June. Thereafter the uptake of CO_2 by sea ice and melt ponds decreased over time and stabilized at around $-1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$.

4 Discussion

5 Over the course of our study period, the temperature gradient within sea ice decreased, leading to a nearly isothermal ice cover. Seasonally rising sea ice temperature was associated with decreasing bulk ice salinity, until ultimately values approached 0 at the surface of the ice cover (Fig. 3). The percolation of snowmelt through the ice cover, and its refreezing into the ice matrix, formed interposed ice. The formation of interposed ice
10 has been described by Freitag and Eicken (2003) and Polashenski et al. (2012) and could explain the low salinity and low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD isotopic ratio found in the upper 20 cm of the ice cover.

Melt pond formation and subsequent percolation of melt water into the ice cover are visible in the brine system from the isotopic ratio data (Figs. 3 and 5). The 20 cm depth
15 on 9 and 10 June as well as the 20 and 40 cm depth brine on 17 June had the same isotopic ratios as the melt ponds. The increase of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD ratio in the melt ponds observed on 19 and 21 June suggests that the contribution of the sea ice melt to the melt ponds had increased. The combination of low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD values, low bulk salinities (< 5), and warm ice temperature ($\sim 0^\circ\text{C}$) collectively suggest that melt water
20 percolated into the ice cover, at least to a depth of 40 cm (Fig. 5).

Previous work has shown brine $p\text{CO}_2$ to change dramatically over the period between sea ice formation and melting (Papadimitriou et al., 2004; Nomura et al., 2010a; Geilfus et al., 2012b). Increasing ice temperature is associated with a drop in brine concentration and typically brine $p\text{CO}_2$. Brine dilution will also promote the dissolution
25 of ikaite that precipitated in the sea ice, augmenting a lowering in $p\text{CO}_2$ following the

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

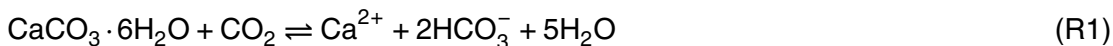
Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



reaction:



There are several reports of ikaite precipitation in Arctic sea ice (Dieckmann et al., 2010; Rysgaard et al., 2012a, 2013b; Geilfus et al., 2013a, b; Søgaard et al., 2013).

In this study however only a few crystals were observed in the ice sampled, and they dissolved within minutes after melting the sea ice. Because the overall morphology of these crystals was the same as crystals identified as ikaite by x-ray diffraction during the other campaigns, we assumed they were ikaite (after Geilfus et al., 2013a, b; Rysgaard et al., 2013a, b). It is not surprising that only small amounts of ikaite crystals were observed in the ice samples as the combination of elevated temperature and brine dilution associated with melting would support the dissolution of ikaite. Indeed, Rysgaard et al. (2013a) linked the amount of ikaite content in the ice to the ice temperature, suggesting as the ice warms up/cooling down, ikaite crystals will dissolve/precipitate. As previously suggested, the dissolution of ikaite crystals during sea ice melt likely contributed to a lowering of in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ according to Reaction (R1).

The concentration of TA and $T\text{CO}_2$ reported in melted bulk sea ice, brine and melt ponds in this study are in the same range as those reported from previous studies in the Canadian Archipelago (Rysgaard et al., 2007; Miller et al., 2011; Geilfus et al., 2012b, 2013a). The temperature increase and the subsequent salinity decrease promote the overall decrease of TA_{ice} and $T\text{CO}_{2\text{ice}}$ concentrations (Fig. 3). The relatively constant $n\text{TA}_{\text{ice}}$ and $nT\text{CO}_{2\text{ice}}$ reported within the ice cover during the survey suggests that the dilution effect was dominant. However, the reduction in TA_{ice} and $T\text{CO}_{2\text{ice}}$, in the top 20 cm of the ice cover, was more pronounced after onset of melt pond formation and the formation of interposed ice. These low concentrations are associated with a significant increase of $n\text{TA}_{\text{ice}}$ and $nT\text{CO}_{2\text{ice}}$ during the survey.

The reduction of the brine salinity in response to seasonal warming promoted a decrease of TA_{br} and $T\text{CO}_{2\text{br}}$ (Geilfus et al., 2012b). Indeed, the mean TA_{br} and $T\text{CO}_{2\text{br}}$ decreased from 3344 and 3037 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 4 June to 1221 and 1092 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 10 June, and further to 657 and 579 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ on 19 June, with minimums observed

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



(i) at 20 cm depth on 10 June, and (ii) at 20 and 40 cm depth on 17 June (Fig. 5). Minimums in TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} were associated with minimum isotopic ratio of $\delta^{18}O$ and δD , hence we attribute the lowering in carbonate species largely to the percolation of fresh melt water from surface melt ponds. nTA_{br} and $nTCO_{2br}$ remained relatively constant, until at least a period of melt water percolation, which corresponded to a significant rise in both nTA_{br} and $nTCO_{2br}$. This increase suggests that despite the low salinity promoting the low TA and TCO_2 , melt ponds and surface brine absorb CO_2 from the atmosphere.

The melt pond formation at the sea ice surface, and the subsequent percolation of melt water through the ice cover is shown to affect TA_{br} and TCO_{2br} and appears also affect the in situ brine pCO_2 (Fig. 5). From 4 to 10 June, the decrease of the in situ brine pCO_2 is mainly due to the drop in brine salinity associated with rising temperature and the dissolution of ikaite. As melt ponds begin to form, their initial pCO_2 is much lower (36–84 μatm) than the atmosphere (395 μatm). The percolation of low pCO_2 melt pond water through the ice matrix imparted a strong decrease in the in situ brine pCO_2 observed at 20 cm depth on 9 and 10 June. However, over time, the in situ melt pond pCO_2 increased through equilibration with the atmosphere (Fig. 5). The subsequent percolation of this higher pCO_2 melt water through the ice matrix corresponded with an increase in brine pCO_2 within the sea ice as was observed on 17 June. The in situ melt pond pCO_2 decreased slightly (150 μatm on 19 June) as did the brine pCO_2 ($< 100 \mu atm$) as a result of more melt water being added to the pond. On 21 June, the pCO_2 in the melt pond increased as a result of CO_2 uptake from the atmosphere.

The bulk sea ice pCO_2 measured on solid ice samples ($pCO_{2in situ}$, Fig. 4) are in the same range as those reported by Geilfus et al. (2012a) on landfast sea ice sampled during the same season in Barrow, Alaska. Ice cover characteristic was similar to our survey: nearly isotherm ice cover (approaching $0^\circ C$), low salinity in the surface layer (0–20 cm) and melt ponds at the surface of the ice (Zhou et al., 2013). Crabeck et al. (2014) also reported $pCO_{2in situ}$ on bulk sea ice from SW Greenland. However, the

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

**Inorganic carbon
dynamics of melt
pond-covered first
year sea ice**

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

concentrations reported in our study are in the lower end compared with the concentrations of 77–330 μatm reported by Crabeck et al. (2014). The lower concentrations during our study may be due to warmer sea ice leading to a lower $p\text{CO}_2$ due to brine dilution by fresh melt water. These concentrations can be compared with the $p\text{CO}_2$ calculated from TA_{ice} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{calc}}$, Fig. 4). The range of concentration of $p\text{CO}_{2\text{calc}}$ is in the lower end of the concentration of $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$. However, indirect $p\text{CO}_2$ values derived from TA and TCO_2 rely on the validity of the four equilibrium constants of the aqueous carbonate system. These thermodynamic constants are assumed to be valid at subzero temperatures, but need to be tested for validity below 0°C . Evidently, however, both calculated and measured $p\text{CO}_2$ reflect similar processes, that being an over-all drop in $p\text{CO}_2$ associated with brine dilution and the dissolution of the calcium carbonate. While the ice $p\text{CO}_{2\text{calc}}$ only shows a slight decrease over time, the ice $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$ reveals that larger changes may occur, especially in the upper 20 cm of the ice cover (Fig. 4). The two data sets (bulk ice $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$ and the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$) differ in that a significant decrease of the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ was observed on 12 June, just after the melt ponds formation, whereas only a slight decrease was observed in the bulk ice $p\text{CO}_2$ time series. The percolation of melt water with low in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ initiated a drop of the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ to similar concentrations as in the melt ponds. It appears the brine $p\text{CO}_2$ in the sea ice is dynamic beyond the $p\text{CO}_2$ as estimated from the bulk sea ice, rapidly responding to the infiltration of melt water of differing $p\text{CO}_2$. Other examples are observed on 17 June, then again on 19 and 21 June. On 17 June, the percolation through the ice matrix of melt water with higher in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ was associated with an increase in in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ whereas the bulk ice $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$ remained constant. On 19 and 21 June, the bulk ice $p\text{CO}_{2\text{insitu}}$ slightly increased while the in situ melt ponds $p\text{CO}_2$ slightly decreased to reach the same range of concentration.

To test the sackhole technique's ability to sample uncontaminated brine, we compared TA_{br} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{br}}$ with a TA and TCO_2 estimated from the calculated brine volume (Cox and Weeks, 1983; Leppäranta and Manninen, 1988) and TA_{ice} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ (Fig. 8). Both methods yield similar TA and TCO_2 concentrations (from 102

et al. (2011) and Geilfus et al. (2012b) on melting landfast sea ice in the Beaufort Sea. As the Chl *a* concentration decreased while the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ oscillated greatly during this survey (Fig. 5), this suggests that biological processes are only marginally affecting the carbonate system. Geilfus et al. (2012b) and Papadimitriou et al. (2012) observed a similar trend in the Beaufort Sea (Arctic) and in the Weddell Sea (Antarctica) on landfast sea ice during an early spring, but at ice temperatures colder than observed during the present study. Therefore sea ice and brine samples from these studies fell on the other side of the seawater value, lying between the precipitation of calcium carbonate and the release of CO_2 , in the TA/TCO_2 space.

The CO_2 fluxes reported during this study are lower than fluxes reported by Semiletov et al. (2004) over melt ponds, but similar to fluxes reported by Geilfus et al. (2012b) over sea ice and melt ponds and similar to fluxes reported by Nomura et al. (2013) on Antarctic and Arctic sea ice during periods of snowmelt and surface flooding. CO_2 fluxes over sea ice depend on the ice permeability and the CO_2 concentration gradient between the ice surface and the atmosphere conveyed through the liquid phase (i.e. brine and melt water). Brine and melt ponds were under-saturated with respect to the atmosphere (Fig. 5). The sea ice uptake of atmospheric CO_2 was at first moderate ($\sim -1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, Fig. 7) due to brine being slightly undersaturated. Then the decrease of the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ due to the percolation of melt ponds with low in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ intensified the uptake of atmospheric CO_2 (up to $-5.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) by the ice. As the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ increased, the uptake of CO_2 decreased accordingly ($\sim -1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). In addition, insignificant fluxes (in the range of $-0.005 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) were detected over superimposed ice, as reported by Nomura et al. (2010b) and Geilfus et al. (2012b). During the initial formation of melt ponds, the low in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ promoted a strong uptake of atmospheric CO_2 ($-3.8 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). However, as the melt pond $p\text{CO}_2$ approached equilibrium with the atmosphere, their CO_2 uptake decreased and stabilized around $\sim -1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$.

To estimate a total uptake of atmospheric CO_2 (Fig. 7) over the sampling area (F_{tot}), we used the pond coverage (x) (Fig. 2) to weight the fluxes over sea ice (F_{ice}) and over

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



melt ponds (F_{mp}), respectively, using the following equation:

$$F_{tot} = F_{ice} \cdot (1 - X) + F_{mp} \cdot X$$

The pond coverage (Fig. 2) was obtained six times between the date of pond onset (10 June) and the final sampling date, with a terrestrial laser scanner. In short, the scanner was used to measure the surface topography of an untouched 80 × 160 m area of sea ice and could also differentiate between ice cover and melt ponds at the surface, thereby providing the pond fraction (Landy et al., 2014). F_{tot} peaked during the initial formation of the melt ponds, then return to previous values ($-1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) when melt ponds are dominating. $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions in melt ponds are determined by a balance between equilibration with atmospheric CO_2 the continuous supply of melt water from the snow and sea ice. This allows melt ponds to be a continuous but moderate CO_2 sink. Therefore, if we take into account a mean uptake of CO_2 of $-1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, over the total area of the Arctic sea ice during spring and summer thaw (90 days), we derive an uptake of 16.4 Tg of carbon. Rysgaard et al. (2011) estimated an overall budget for the Arctic sea ice between 14 and 31 Tg of C depending on whether the precipitation of calcium carbonate took place in the ice or not. Other estimates of carbon uptake by the Arctic Ocean include Takahashi et al. (2009), who estimated an uptake of 121 Tg of C yr^{-1} for an area north of 66° N while Bates and Mathis (2009) estimated an uptake between 66 and 199 Tg of C yr^{-1} for the Arctic Ocean. However, these works ignored the role of the Arctic sea ice and considered it as an impermeable barrier, impeding the gas exchanges between the ocean and the atmosphere. As we have shown in the present study, things may be more complicated and in fact sea ice may play an important role in mediating the exchange of CO_2 between the atmosphere and ocean at high-latitude areas.

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



5 Conclusions

We investigated the evolution of the inorganic carbon within landfast first-year sea ice in Resolute Passage, Nunavut, from 3 to 23 June 2012. During our survey, the ice was melting due to the high atmospheric temperature and absorption of solar radiation.

5 Temperature profiles became isothermal ($\sim -1^\circ\text{C}$) with low salinity at the surface (~ 0) and melt ponds started to form at the surface of the ice on 10 June.

Early in the melt period, increased ice temperatures and subsequent decreased bulk ice salinity dissolution of ikaite crystals promoted a strong decrease of TA, $T\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2$ observed in bulk sea ice and brines (Fig. 10). The decrease of $p\text{CO}_2$ causes sea ice to act as a sink for the atmospheric CO_2 ($\sim -1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). This sink increases (up to $-5.4 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) during the initial formation of melt pond due to its very low $p\text{CO}_2$ levels. The percolation of melt pond water into the ice matrix will intensify the brine dilution and the decrease of the brine TA, $T\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2$ (Fig. 10). The low TA_{br} and $T\text{CO}_{2\text{br}}$ concentrations observed were associated with the percolation of melt water from melt ponds, and the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ seemed also to be controlled by the melt ponds. As melt ponds forms from melted snow and melted ice surface the in situ melt pond $p\text{CO}_2$ is low ($36 \mu\text{atm}$). The percolation of this low $p\text{CO}_2$ melt water into the sea ice matrix dilutes the brine causing the in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ to decrease ($20 \mu\text{atm}$). As temperature rises, melt water is continuously supplied to the ponds, which prevents melt pond from fully equilibrating with the atmospheric CO_2 . Instead, $p\text{CO}_2$ in the melt ponds fluctuates between $0 \mu\text{atm}$ and the atmospheric concentration ($395 \mu\text{atm}$). As melt ponds reach equilibrium with the atmosphere, the uptake becomes less significant. But as melt ponds are continuously supplied with fresh melt water while simultaneously draining to the ocean, their in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ remains undersaturated and hereby promote a continuous but moderate uptake of CO_2 from the atmosphere ($\sim -1 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).

Based on the present study, we estimate the CO_2 flux due to melt ponds in the Arctic to be in the order of -7 to -16 Tg of C . This is 5–15 % of the total uptake for the Arctic Ocean previously reported (Bates and Mathis, 2009; Takahashi et al., 2009).

BGD

11, 7485–7519, 2014

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



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Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



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Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



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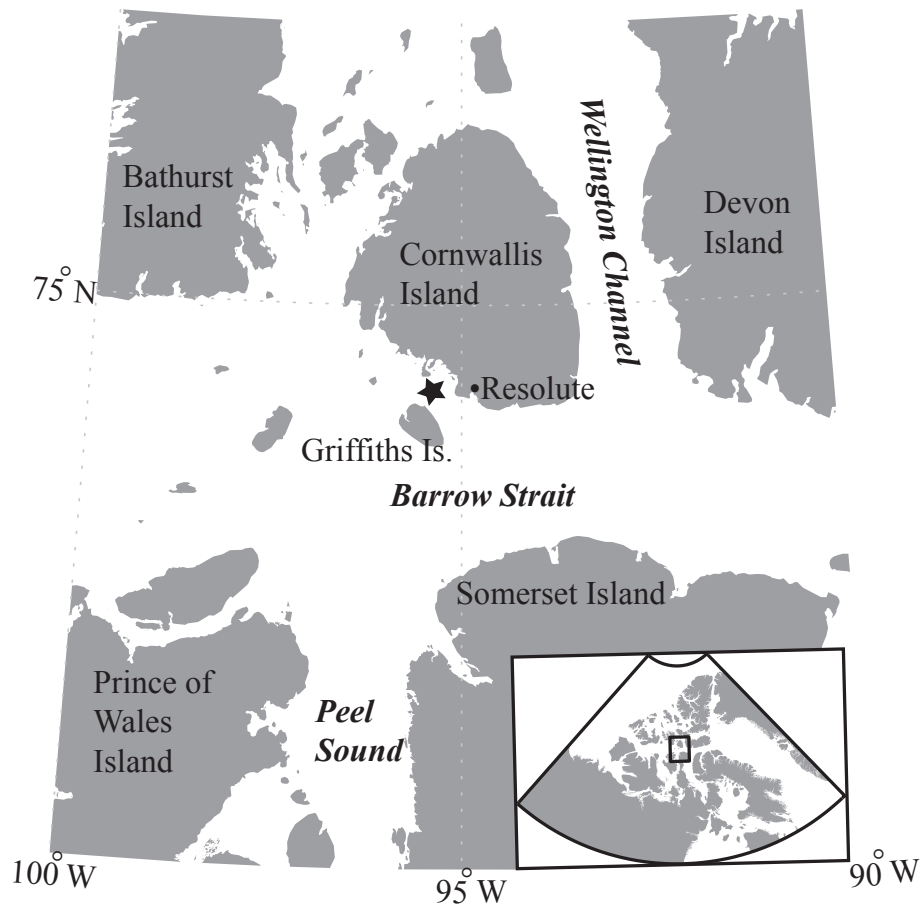


Figure 1. Location map of the sampling area in the Resolute Passage, Nunavut. The sampling site was located between Sheringham Point and Griffiths Island (74.726° N, 95.576° W).

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



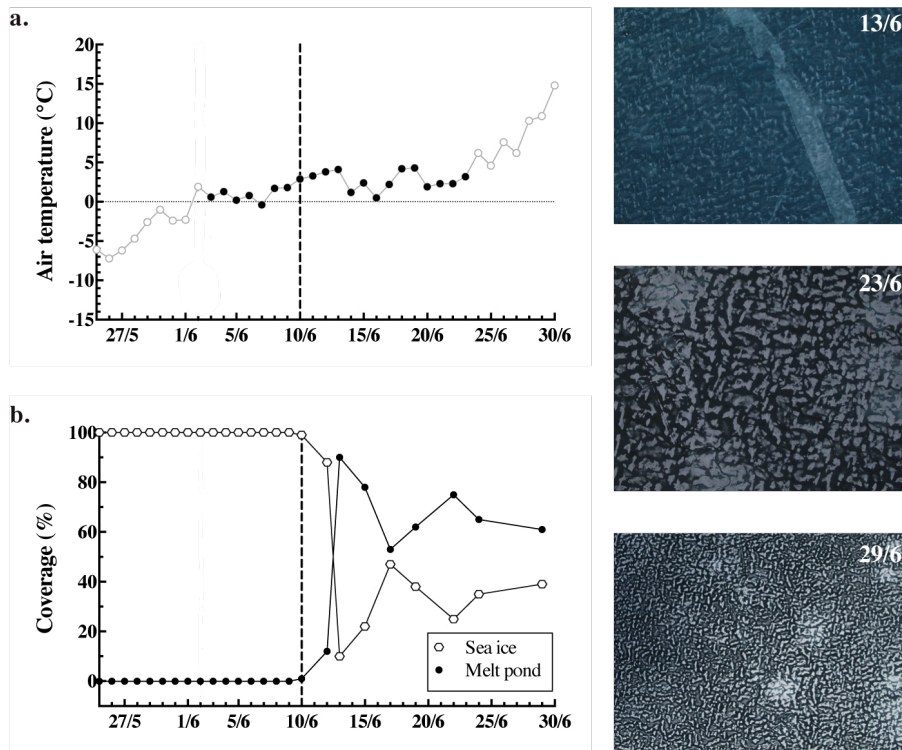


Figure 2. (a) Evolution of the atmospheric temperature in Resolute from the end of May to the end of June 2012. The black dots represent the air temperature during our survey (from 3 to 23 June). **(b)** Evolution of the melt ponds (black dots) and sea ice (white dots) fraction coverage at the sampling site. The bold dashed line on 10 June represents the initial formation of melt ponds at the surface of the ice cover. Aerial photos were taken over the field study site on 13 June (pond fraction = 0.9; width of the picture = 4472 m), 23 June (pond fraction = 0.65; width of the picture = 2212 m), 29 June (pond fraction = 0.61; width of the picture = 4426 m).

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

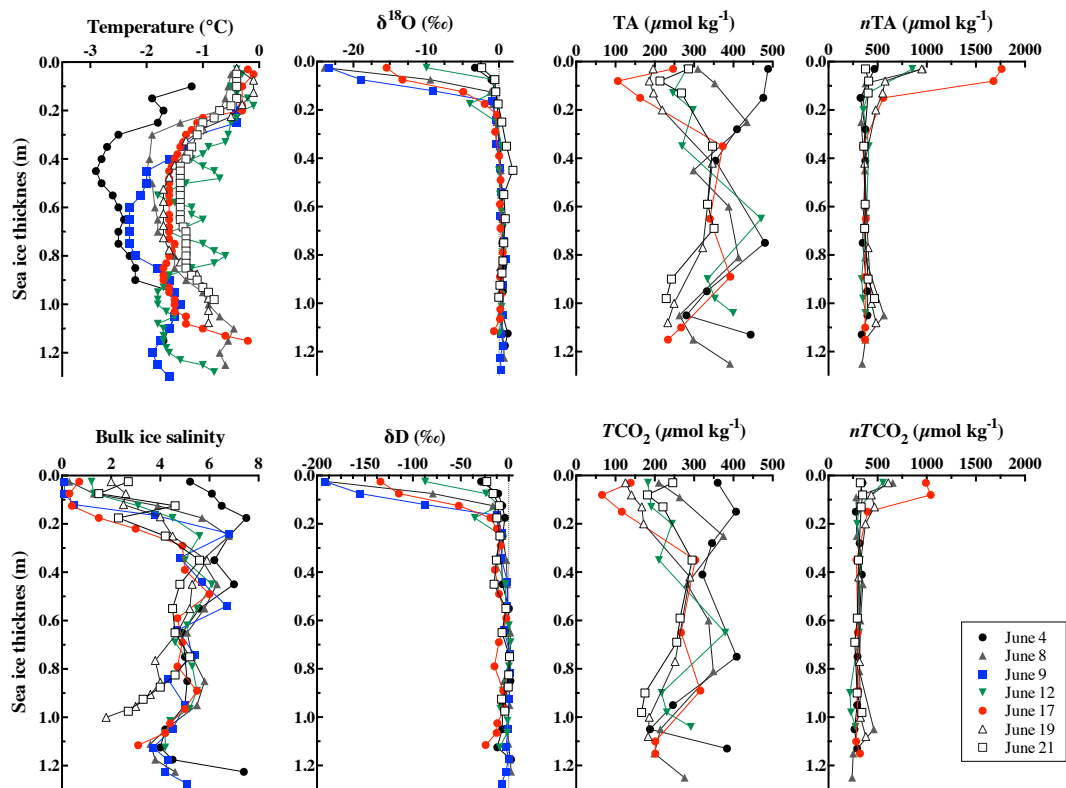


Figure 3. Sea ice profiles of temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), salinity, isotopic composition of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD (‰), TA_{ice} and $n\text{TA}_{\text{ice}}$ (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$), TCO_2 and $n\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$).

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

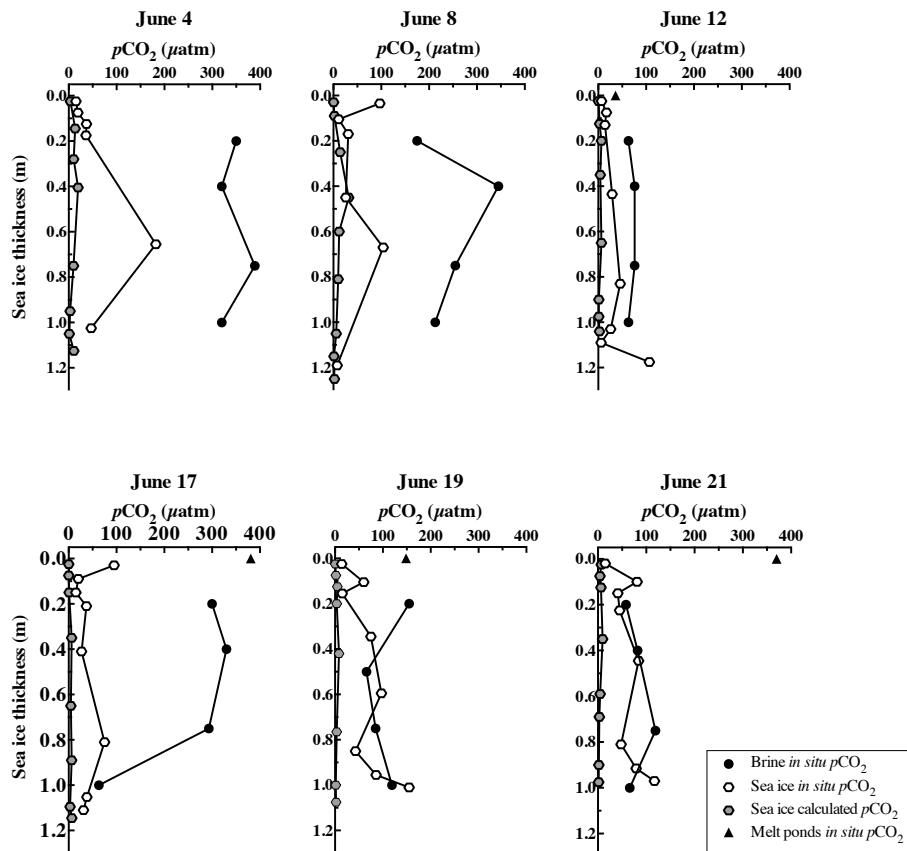


Figure 4. Sea ice profiles of $p\text{CO}_2$ (μatm) calculated from TA_{ice} and $\text{TCO}_{2\text{ice}}$ (grey diamonds) and in situ bulk sea ice $p\text{CO}_2$ (white diamonds). The in situ brine and melt ponds $p\text{CO}_2$ are also represented (black dots and triangle, respectively).

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

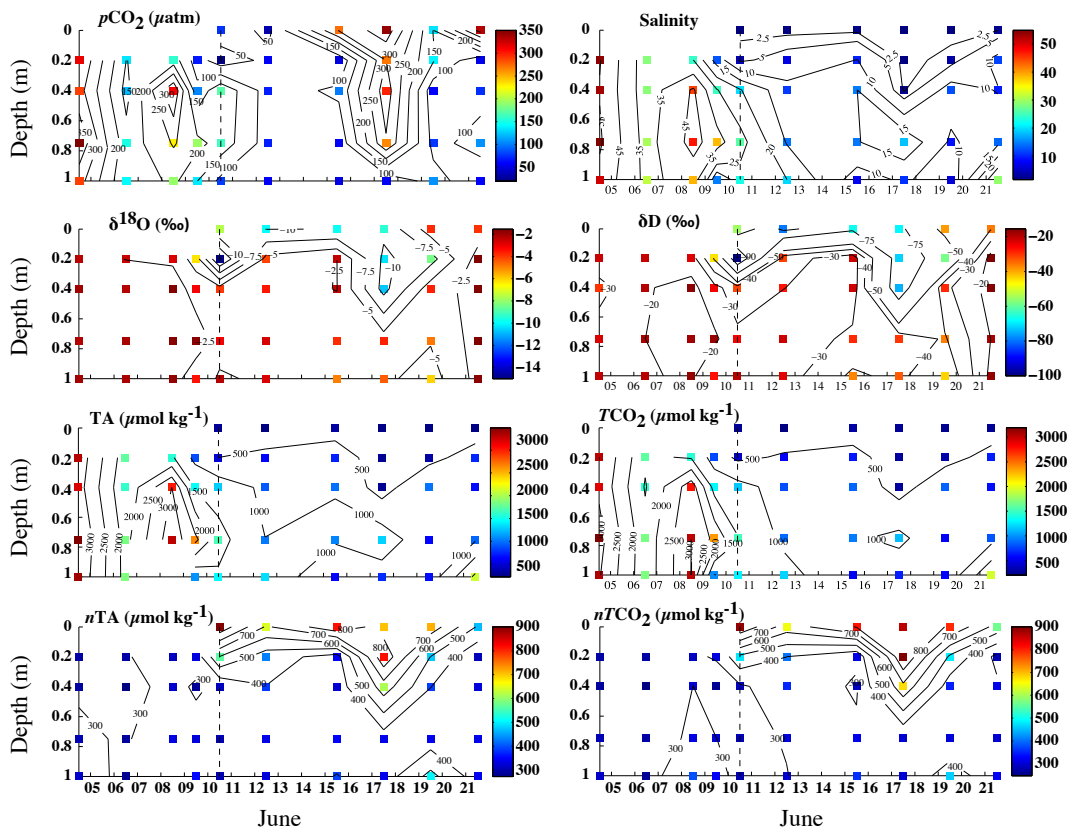


Figure 5. Profiles of in situ brine $p\text{CO}_2$ (in μatm), salinity, isotopic composition of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD (‰), TA_{br} and $n\text{TA}_{\text{br}}$ (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$), $\text{TCO}_{2\text{br}}$ and $n\text{TCO}_{2\text{br}}$ (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$).

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

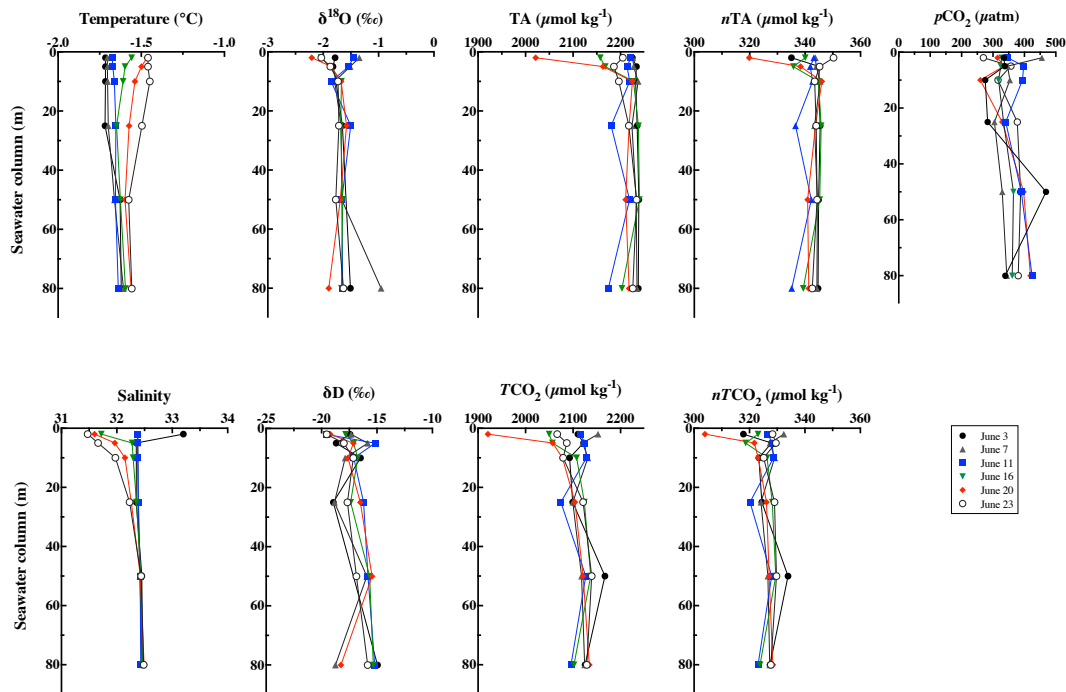


Figure 6. Water column profiles of temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), salinity, isotopic composition of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD (‰), TA and nTA (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$), TCO_2 and n TCO_2 (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) and calculated $p\text{CO}_2$ (in μatm).

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

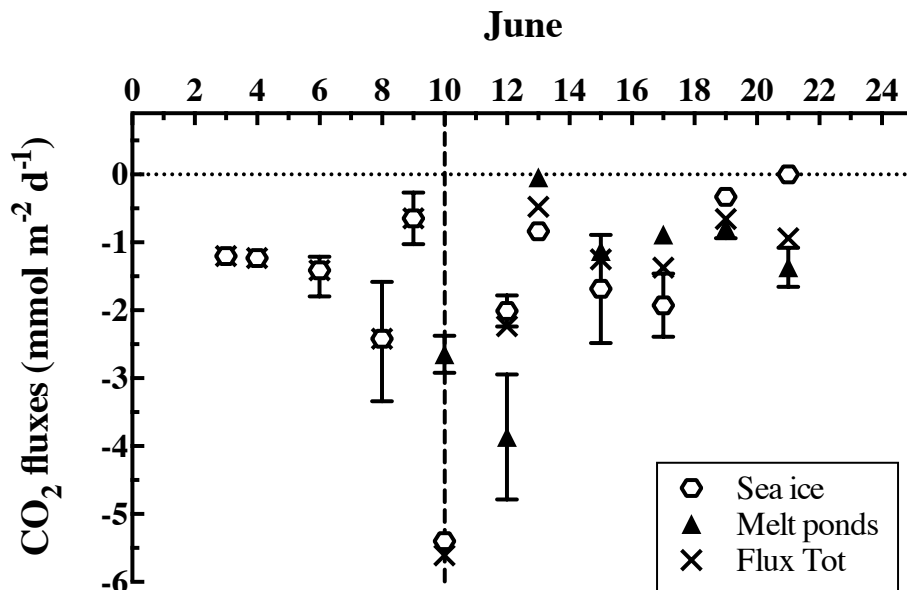


Figure 7. CO₂ fluxes (in mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) measured over sea ice (white diamonds), melt ponds (black triangle). The total fluxes are represented by the black cross.

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

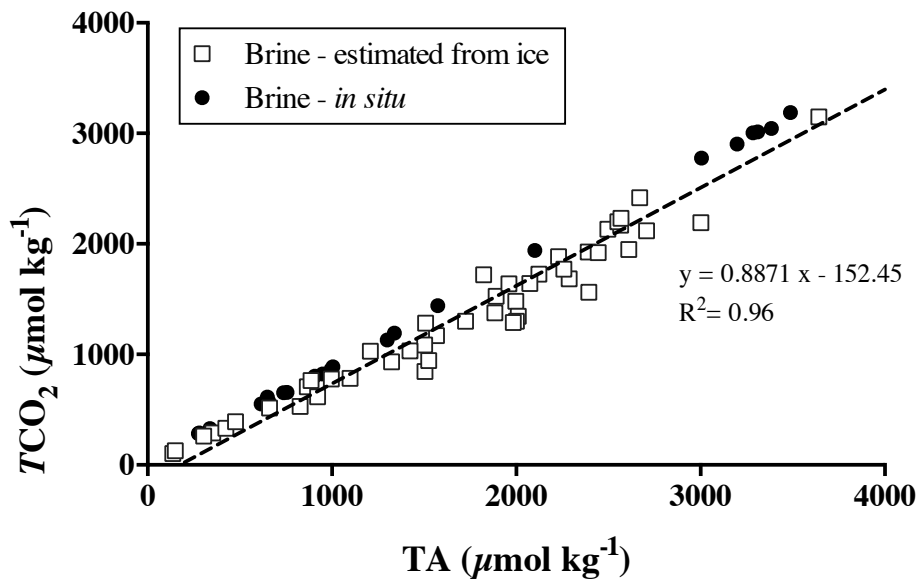


Figure 8. Relationships between TA and TCO₂ measured in the brine (black dots) and estimated from TA_{ice} and TCO_{2ice} (white dots).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

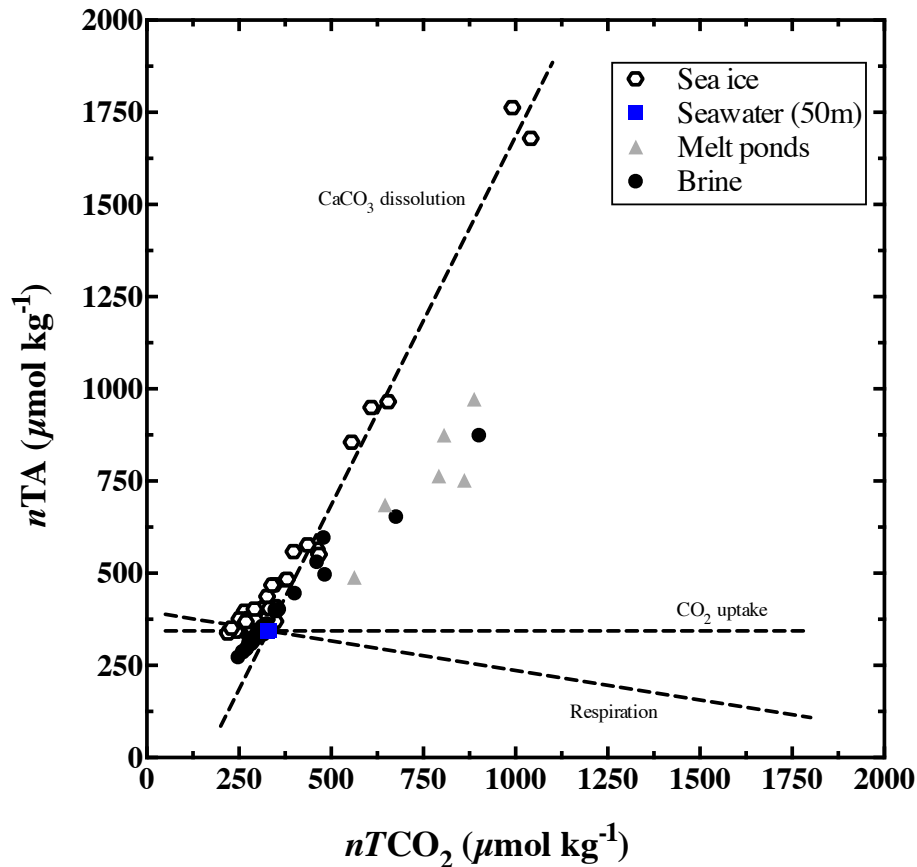


Figure 9. Relationship between the $n\text{TCO}_2$ and $n\text{TA}$ (in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) in bulk sea ice (white diamonds), melt ponds (grey triangle) and brine samples (black dots). The different dashed lines represent the theoretical evolution of $n\text{TA} : n\text{TCO}_2$ ratio following the precipitation/dissolution of calcium carbonate, release/uptake of $\text{CO}_{2(g)}$ and the impacts of the biology.

Inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice

N.-X. Geilfus et al.

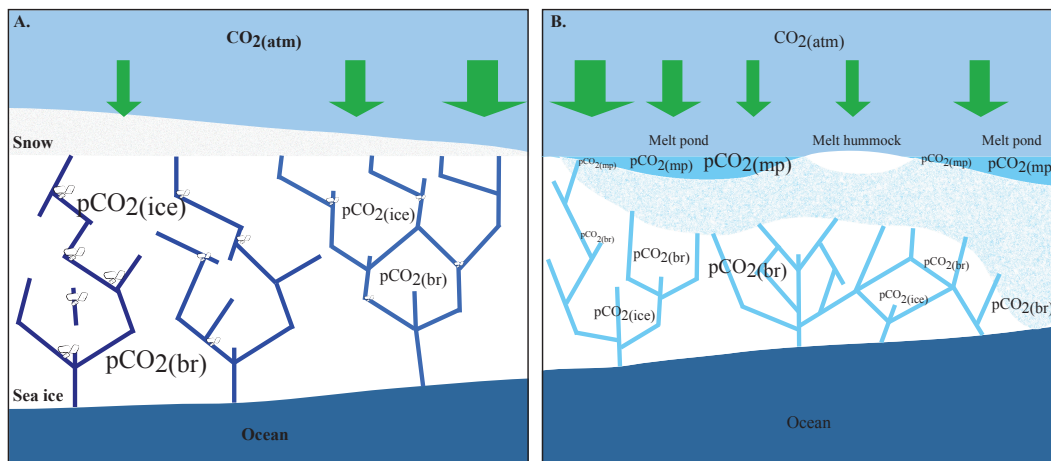


Figure 10. Illustration of the inorganic carbon dynamics of melt pond-covered first year sea ice. **(a)** The increase of the ice temperature and the decrease of the salinity, associated with the dissolution of ikaite crystals promote the decrease of the bulk ice and brine $p\text{CO}_2$. **(b)** Formation of melt ponds at the surface of the ice and percolation of meltwater into the ice matrix. The $p\text{CO}_2$ level is indicated by the size of the writing. The intensity of the CO_2 uptake is indicated by the size of the arrow.

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Printer-friendly Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)
