

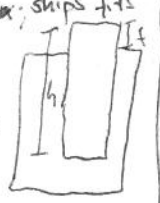
1. Oct | Sea Ice Sheet

Sea ice extent: Arctic: Min: September Max: March-April
 Antarctic: Min: Feb-March Max: September
 Antarctic has bigger amplitude
 not symmetric!

18 NH, 13 S, 7 SH, 7 MA, 10/11
 Marginal ice zone: 0.5m thick ice in contact with open water (also leads)
 Interaction with ocean

fast ice: near coastline, not moving, its faster to the coast, stays at the same position, Barrier for ships
 near ice: Zone between drifting and faster coast ice
 perennial ice: multi-year (another word), survives summer melt
 dynya: wind opens edges, creates polynyas. Warm water from below also opens ice

lead: linear fracture in the ice. Really big for ships fits through.
 calculate ice thickness:
 $(1 - \frac{\rho_{ice}}{\rho_{sw}}) \cdot h = f$ ρ_{ice} : first year, replace with other densities
 ρ_{sw} : water density



ice ice thermodynamics
 latent heat of fusion: Energy needed to melt 1kg at T=0C
 $Q = m \cdot L = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot 330 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{g}} = 330,000 \text{ J}$
 $Q = m \cdot c_p \cdot \Delta T \Rightarrow \Delta T = 82,5 \text{ K}$
 ice growth: $E = m \cdot L = \rho V L = \rho A h L$
 $Q = \frac{E}{t \cdot A} = \frac{\rho L h}{t} \Rightarrow h = \frac{Q \cdot t}{\rho L}$

7. Nov | Rheology: Study of flow behaviours of a material
 → e.g. the respond of material on stresses

Strain ϵ : measure of deformation $\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$
 Strain rate $\dot{\epsilon} = \frac{d\epsilon}{dt}$
 ELASTIC: $\sigma = \frac{E \cdot \epsilon}{L}$
 LINEAR VISCOUS: $\sigma = \eta \cdot \dot{\epsilon}$

→ reversible material is going back to initial state if stress is removed

IDEAL PLASTIC: $\sigma = k$ (yield point)
 VISCOUS PLASTIC HILBER-model for ice: $\sigma = k + \eta \cdot \dot{\epsilon}$

- material will fracture at certain yielded stress
 - Sea ice is weak in tension, strong in shear and strongest in compression
 - strength depends on

16 Nov | Radiation

Separation of two spectral bands possible, because
 - temperature of earth and sun is very different
 → maximum wavelength depends on temperature
 → overlap is very small

$\lambda_{max, sun} = 0,5 \mu\text{m}$ $\lambda_{max, earth} = 12 \mu\text{m}$
 averaged solar irradiance in January: $351,2 \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2}$
 June: $329,6 \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2}$
 Zonal averaged maximum in June: at north pole

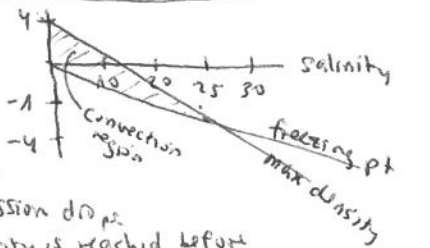
radiative energy balance in steady state for snowball earth
 (without sensible heat, latent heat and greenhouse effect)
 $(1 - \alpha) F_R - \epsilon \sigma T^4$ σ : Stefan-Boltzmann constant
 $\sigma = 5,67 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2 \text{K}^4}$

albedo: dry snow: 0,8-0,9 α : albedo
 open water: 0,1 ϵ : emissivity
 meltpond ice: 0,4-0,5 F_R : solar radiation
 T : surface temperature

Thermal emission: $F_p = \epsilon \sigma T^4$ F_p : longwave emissivity of surface
 Longwave emission of atmosphere: $F_{atm} = \epsilon_{eff} \sigma T^4$
 $\epsilon_{eff} = 0,7855(1 + 0,2232C)^2$
 C : cloud cover

21 Nov. Sea water density

As salinity inc, you replace water molecules with salt molecules, and so rate freezing dec, so at higher salinities freezing depression drops.
 At low salinity, max density is reached before freezing point and so cold water sinks. At higher salinities, freezing pt reached first so ice forms at top.

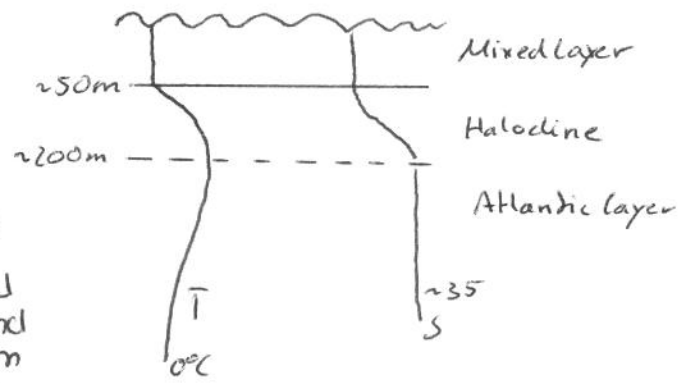


Sea ice growth find ice thickness for 1 day -10C
 $\Theta = \int (T_f - T_a) dt = \text{cumulative freezing temp}$
 $d = 1,38 \Theta^{0,58}$ cumulative depth ice frozen (cm)
 We need T_f where T_f is a function of salinity.

conductive heat flux w/o snow layer
 calculate heat flux for $T_{ice} = -32C$ $d_{ice} = 10 \text{ cm}$
 sea ice thermal conductivity = $2,1 \text{ W(mK)}^{-1}$
 $F_c = \frac{k}{H} (T_a - T_f)$

conductive heat flux in snow layer
 $H = H_{snow} + H_{ice}$
 $\frac{H}{k} = \frac{H_{snow}}{k_{snow}} + \frac{H_{ice}}{k_{ice}}$ (1)
 Equilibrium ice thickness with a snow layer 12 Dec
 $F_{snow} + F_{ice} + F_{ocean} = 0$ For equilibrium
 i) conductive heat flux: $F = \frac{k}{H} (T_a - T_f)$
 ii) calculate $\frac{k}{H}$ for snow and ice together
 $\Rightarrow -F_{ocean} = \left(\frac{H}{k}\right)^{-1} (T_a - T_f) = F_{snow+ice}$ with (1)
 with $F_{snow+ice} = \frac{H}{k} F_{snow} + F_{ice}$
 iii) solve for H_{ice}

Arctic water layers



Mixed Layer: cold, fresh water
 Halocline: warm, saltier water
 Atlantic Layer: warm, salty water

Coastal polynyas form when ice is pushed away by the wind and freezing water is exposed to a large negative heat flux. (latent heat). Ocean polynyas are driven by upwelling of warmer water - they are also called "sensible heat polynyas."

Polynyas occur near topography. Most coastal polynyas occur in marginal seas, where the adjacent ice edge leaves room for ice divergence. - Means that most coastal polynyas occur in the Bering, Okhotsk, and Barents Seas. Most coastal polynyas form in the lee of headlands, islands, ice shelves, and grounded icebergs - downwind of ice tongues.

Arctic - St. Lawrence Island Polynya
 Kashevarov Bank Polynya

Antarctic - Weddell Polynya
 Maud Rise Polynya
 Cosmonaut Sea Polynya

Thickness produced in winter:

Arctic = 5m Antarctic = 10m

Polynyas influence on transport of sediment:

Turbulence brings up sediment from the bottom, which could form ice crystals in the water column. A ice cover forms within the water column, sediments are found and transported to ice. Buoyancy increases.

Biological Importance:

Marine mammals live near polynyas and use them as breathing holes. Polynyas are vital for the overwinter survival of Arctic species. Also, polynyas are an important feeding area for whales.

Influence on the Arctic Ocean:

Polynyas produce a large amount of ice and brine, which effects water masses (denser water.)

Balance leading to max width of polynya:

$$\frac{dx_p}{dt} = V_i - \frac{x_p F_i}{H_i} \approx \text{Polynya width multiplied by freezing rate divided by the depth of ice.}$$

↑
Ice Advection

Relation between Maximum Width and Wind Speed for different Air Temps:

