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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SAN DIEGO

**Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> occluded in the Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica,  
and its application to climate change**

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree  
Doctor of Philosophy in Earth Sciences

By

Jinho Ahn

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2005

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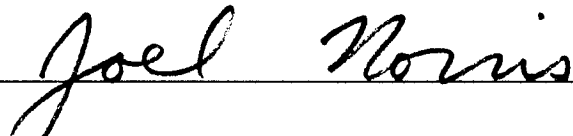
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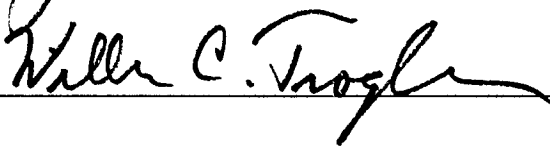
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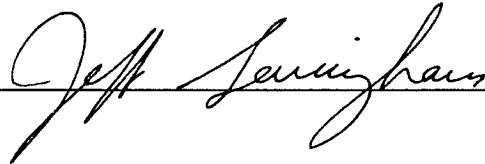
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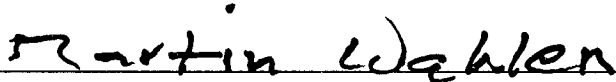
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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Martin Wahlen, for his guidance and support. He encouraged me to start working on ice core research. His sincere attitude in science influenced my research. Jeff Severinghaus gave me invaluable insights and guidance in application of noble gases to CO<sub>2</sub> study. Also I want to express my gratitude to the rest of my committee, William Trogler, Joel Norris, and Chris Charles, for generously sharing their time and for taking the time to give thoughtful consideration to this work.

Many people assisted in my experiments. Bruce Deck gave indispensable technical advice; Alane Bollenbacher kindly prepared air standards; the National Ice Core Laboratory assisted with core processing; Jackson Kwong, Sharon Sneed, and Ross Beaudette provided valuable time and efforts with experimental assistance.

The studies were performed in collaboration with Ed Brook at Oregon State University, Kendrick C. Taylor at Desert Research Institute, James W. C. White at Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research (INSTAAR), University of Colorado, Paul Mayewski at Climate Change Institute, University of Maine, and Sarah Das at Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution (WHOI).

Invaluable scientific advice improved this work. Thanks to Bernhard Stauffer, Richard Alley, Joe McConnell, Kenji Kawamura, Joan Fitzpatrick and Tomoko Ikeda-Fukazawa.

Financial support was provided by the National Science Foundation, Office of Polar Program (99-80619) and Scripps Institution of Oceanography Graduate Department.



All the researchers, teachers, students, and staff at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography have made my experience here a pleasure. In particular, classmates in the Paleoclimatology Seminar, especially, the students in Jeff Severinghaus's lab, Alexi Grachev, Takuro Kobashi, Melissa Headly and Vas Petrenko. They shared their invaluable experiences, insights and perspectives. Myrl Hendershott, the graduate department chair, and Anne Cressey of the Geoscience Research Division listened compassionately to my difficulties. Yongjae Yu and Gabrielle Ayres, Center of Excellence-LTPDP, provided heartfelt writing and presentation support. The Korean community gave me much joy during my academic endeavor at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography.

I am greatly indebted to my Mother and Father for their immeasurable love and support. Also, I give thanks to my Father and Mother in-law for their help through prayer and babysitting. My spiritual siblings in the East County Bible Fellowship, L.A.-Fullerton Korean Church, Yongdong Church in Seoul, Korea must be acknowledged for their precious and continuous prayer and love.

Finally, I thank my lovely wife Hannah (Sung-In), and daughter Serena (Song-eun), who came into my life during this research. They have truly made my life complete.

## VITA

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Ahn, J., Severinghaus, J., Hadly, M., Wahlen, M., Brook, E.J., Mayewski, P.A., and Taylor, K.C., CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in the polar ice: Observations from the Siple Dome, Antarctic ice core (submitted for publication)

Ahn, J., Wahlen, M., Mayewski, P.A., Taylor, K.C., Brook, E.J., Deck, B.L. and J.W.C. White, Excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the Antarctic Siple Dome ice core record (submitted for publication)

Ahn, J. Wahlen, M. and Deck, B., Stable isotopic study of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> trapped in Antarctic ice cores (in preparation for publication)

### **Data Repository**

Ahn, J., M. Wahlen, and B. Deck, Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> Trapped in the Ice Core from Siple Dome, Antarctica. *Boulder, CO: National Snow and Ice Data Center. Digital media. [http://nsidc.org/data/docs/agdc/nsidc0202\\_wahlen/](http://nsidc.org/data/docs/agdc/nsidc0202_wahlen/)* (2003)

### **Conference Presentation**

Ahn, J., Wahlen, M., Deck, B.L., Brook, E.J., Mayewski, P.A., Taylor, K.C., and J.W.C. White, A record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> from the Siple Dome, Antarctica ice core, *The 12th International Symposium on Polar Sciences, Korea Polar Research Institute, Ansan, Korea, May 17-19* (2005)

Ahn, J., Wahlen, M., Deck, B.L., Brook, E.J., Mayewski, P.A., Taylor, K.C., J.W.C. White and J. Fitzpatrick, Excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the Antarctic Siple Dome ice core record, *AGU Fall Meeting* (2004)

Ahn, J., Wahlen, M., Deck, B.L., Brook, E.J., Mayewski, P.A., Taylor, K.C., and J.W.C. White, A record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in the Siple Dome Core A, Antarctic Ice Core, *Siple Dome Science Meeting, Reno, Nevada* (2004)

Ahn, J., Wahlen, M., Deck, B.L., Brook, E.J., Mayewski, P.A., Taylor, K.C., and J.W.C. White, A record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> during the last 40,000 years from the Siple Dome, Antarctica Ice core, *AGU Fall Meeting* (2003)

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Ahn, J., Yi, K., and Cho, M., Application of cathodoluminescence to metamorphic petrology. *Annual Meeting of the Geological Society of Korea* (1998)

## **ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION**

### **Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> occluded in Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica, and its application to climate change**

By

Jinho Ahn

Doctor of Philosophy in Earth Science

University of California, San Diego, 2005

Professor Martin Wahlen, Chair

Understanding how the atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> changed in the past in response to other changes in the climate system provides us with a better understanding of how current and future changes in the carbon cycle will influence our future climate.

This study found that the general trend of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from the Siple Dome ice follows the temperature and is mostly in agreement with other Antarctic ice core CO<sub>2</sub> records. During the last glacial termination, a lag of CO<sub>2</sub> versus Siple Dome isotopic temperature is suggested. These results strongly support previous suggestions of a close link between Antarctic temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> change during the last deglaciation.

Studying melt layers contained in the core provided unique information on CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in ice. On the basis of a combined study of noble gases (Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar), electrical conductivity, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion content, for the first time it was

confirmed that substantial CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion through the ice occurs on timescales of thousands of years. The product of the diffusion constant and the solubility was obtained as  $4.3 (\pm 2.1) \times 10^{-21} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ molCO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3}\text{ice} (\text{PaCO}_2)^{-1}$  at  $-23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . This work shows that the smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> record in the core by diffusion is one to two orders of magnitude smaller than the smoothing induced by the gas age distribution at the depth of 287 m (gas age = 2.74 kyrBP, thousand years before 1950) in the Siple Dome ice.

Further results of this research found that Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during the last deglaciation and in the Holocene are at certain times greater than those in other Antarctic ice cores by up to 20 ppm ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol air}$ ). Snow melting/refreezing is suggested as the main cause of the excess CO<sub>2</sub>. These results show that Antarctic ice samples from relatively warm sites are not an accurate proxy for paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

Finally, carbon isotope studies on CO<sub>2</sub> for the Siple Dome (last 40 kyr) and Vostok (160-110 kyr) ice cores from Antarctica, extend and confirm the previous results from the Taylor Dome ice core covering the last 28 kyr. However, the data are scattered and depleted on average compared to those from the Taylor Dome ice core, and are not considered a reliable atmospheric record. Future studies should include a sublimation method for bubble-free ice in order to avoid isotopic fractionation during gas extraction from the ice.

# **CHAPTER I**

## **Introduction**

## 1. Background

Continuous and precise atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurements were initiated in 1958 at Mauna Loa, Hawaii, and show a continuous increase of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from 315 ppm (uatm/atm) to 377 ppm through 2004, with an average annual increase of 1.4 ppm [*Keeling and Whorf, 2005*]. This increase of the most important greenhouse gas, after water vapor, is caused by human activity, such as, combustion of fossil fuels, cement production and deforestation. To predict our future climate, the understanding of carbon cycling is a prerequisite. Therefore, understanding how the atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> changed in the past, in response to other changes in the climate system, provides us with a better understanding of how current and future changes in the carbon cycle will influence our future climate.

The paleoatmospheric history before 1958 can only be investigated reliably by analysing air trapped in polar ice. Earlier work revealed that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is increasing rapidly since the industrial revolution, from 280 ppm [*Neftel et al., 1985; Etheridge et al., 1996*]. Moreover, Antarctic ice core CO<sub>2</sub> records of the past hundred thousands years show that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration changed [e.g., *Delmas et al., 1980; Neftel et al., 1982; Fischer et al., 1999; Petit et al., 1999; Kawamura et al., 2003; EPICA Community members, 2005*]. During the glacial periods CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was 180-200 ppm. During the warm interglacial times the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was 260-280 ppm. However, the causes of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change and its relationship with other climate factors are not well known. Possible causes are discussed in *Sigman and Boyle [2000]* and *Kohfeld et al. [2005]*.

Carbon isotopes of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> can be used to better characterize the global carbon cycle [Keeling, 1989]. The sources and sinks of CO<sub>2</sub>, including the major carbon reservoirs, produce isotopically distinct CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, comparison to the atmospheric inventory can yield constraints for the global budgets. Direct and continuous measurements on <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> started in 1978 later than the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurements [Keeling *et al.*, in press]. Thus, the <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> before 1978 depend on trapped air in polar ice cores [e.g., Leuenberger *et al.*, 1992; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Francey *et al.*, 1999]. Although the demand of paleoatmospheric δ<sup>13</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> has been increased to constrain the carbon cycle models [Broecker and Henderson, 1998; Sigman and Boyle, 2000], only a few δ<sup>13</sup>C ice core data are known in air prior to the Holocene period [e.g., Leuenberger *et al.*, 1992; Smith *et al.*, 1999].

Successful reconstruction of paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels from ice cores were conducted since the late 1970s and early 1980s [Delmas *et al.*, 1980; Barnola *et al.*, 1983]. Melting of ice samples should be avoided as CO<sub>2</sub> can be produced by the reaction of carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub> and MgCO<sub>3</sub>) with acid in the ice. CO<sub>2</sub> records from Antarctic ice cores are considered to be representative of paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. However, Greenland ice cores are not useful for determining the paleoatmospheric concentration because of in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> due to high dust content [Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Anklin *et al.*, 1995, 1997, Smith *et al.*, 1997a, 1997b, Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000]. The preservation of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in polar ice is a critical issue and it is assumed that the diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> in the ice is negligible.



## 2. Siple Dome ice core

The Siple Dome ice core from West Antarctica was drilled from 1997 to 1999. The site is at 81.66° S, 148.82° W, at an altitude of 621 meters asl, with an annual mean temperature of -25.4 °C, and an accumulation rate of 12.4 g cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as water equivalent (Figure 1 and Table 1). The total depth of the core is 1003.8 m. The high accumulation rate at Siple Dome allows rapid climate changes to be more accurately preserved, and permits a more accurate assessment of the relative timing between ice-isotopic variations and variations in occluded gases compared to the low accumulation rate sites like Vostok, Dome C, or Dome Fuji (Table 1). The mean annual temperature is far below the freezing point of water, but occasionally the surface temperature can reach slightly over 2 °C during austral summer, and, thus, causes snow melting [Das, 2003]. Once the snow melt percolates down from the surface, it re-freezes in a high density layer (crust formed in austral winter) due to a strong capillary force. The refozen melt in the crust forms melt layers in the ice core, and is defined by the reduced bubble size [Das, 2003]. CO<sub>2</sub> is enriched considerably in melt layers due to the high solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> gas in the melt [Neftel *et al.*, 1983]. At the present surface pressure condition at the Siple Dome, we can expect 16,230 μmol CO<sub>2</sub> / mol air in melt water at 0 °C in equilibrium with atmospheric air (Andrew Dickson, personal communication).

On the other hand, the CO<sub>2</sub> spike, due to snow melting/refreezing, may diffuse through the ice matrix for thousands of years [Neftel *et al.*, 1983]. Therefore, the melt

layer in the ice potentially provides information about CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice as a natural laboratory. The study of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in ice has been hampered by a diffusion coefficient that is too small to be precisely measured in the laboratory [Hondoh, 1996] and a lack of evidence of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice.

### **3. The Goal and content of this work**

The work performed for this dissertation investigates (1) the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change and its relationship with the southern ocean temperature change; (2) the validity of ice core derived data for the paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> records, and measuring the permeation coefficient of CO<sub>2</sub> in the ice; (3) the possible mechanisms of the in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> in the Siple Dome ice core; and (4) a stable isotopic study of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of CO<sub>2</sub>.

Chapter two discusses the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> records in the Siple Dome ice core and their implications for carbon cycle changes during the last Termination.

Chapter three reports the observed CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in the Siple Dome ice core and suggests a quantitative permeation coefficient of the CO<sub>2</sub> in the polar ice and its implications for paleoclimate studies.

Chapter four investigates excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the Siple Dome ice core. It is suggested that the main mechanism is the snow melting/refreezing on the surface at Siple Dome.

Chapter five reports  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the Siple Dome ice core for the last 40 kyrs, and in the Vostok ice core for the Termination II (150-110 kyrBP). The results are compared to the Taylor Dome ice core records, and the carbon cycle changes during the Terminations are discussed.

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## **CHAPTER II**

**A record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> during the last 40,000 years  
from the Siple Dome, Antarctica ice core**

**Abstract.** We have measured the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of air occluded during the last 40,000 years in the deep Siple Dome A (hereafter Siple Dome) ice core, Antarctica. The general trend of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from Siple Dome ice follows the temperature inferred from the isotopic composition of the ice and is mostly in agreement with other Antarctic ice core CO<sub>2</sub> records. CO<sub>2</sub> rose initially at ~ 17.5 kyrBP (thousand years before 1950), decreased slowly during the Antarctic Cold Reversal, rose during the Younger Dryas, fell to a local minimum at around 8 kyrBP, and rose continuously since then. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration never reached steady state during the Holocene, as also found in the Taylor Dome and EPICA Dome C (hereafter Dome C) records. During the last glacial termination, a lag of CO<sub>2</sub> versus Siple Dome isotopic temperature is probable. The Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during the last glacial termination and in the Holocene are at certain times greater than in other Antarctic ice cores by up to 20 ppm ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol air}$ ). While in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> is one possible cause of the sporadic elevated levels, the mechanism leading to the enrichment is not yet clear.

## 1. Introduction

Understanding how the atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> changed in the past in response to other changes in the climate system provides us with a better understanding of how current and future changes in the carbon cycle will influence our future climate. The concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere during previous times can be determined by measurements made on the air trapped in ice cores [e.g., *Delmas*



*et al.*, 1980; *Neftel et al.*, 1982; *Fischer et al.*, 1999; *Petit et al.*, 1999]. CO<sub>2</sub> records from Antarctic ice cores are considered to be representative of paleoatmospheric concentrations. Greenland ice cores are not useful for determining the paleoatmospheric concentration because of in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> due to high dust content [*Barnola et al.*, 1995; *Anklin et al.*, 1995, 1997, *Smith et al.*, 1997a, 1997b, *Tschumi and Stauffer*, 2000].

The Siple Dome ice core from West Antarctica was drilled from 1997 to 1999. The site is at 81.66° S, 148.82° W, at an altitude of 621 meters asl, with an annual mean temperature of -25.4 °C and an accumulation rate of 12.4 g cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as water equivalent (Figure 1 and Table 1). The total depth of the core is 1003.8 m. The high accumulation rate at Siple Dome allows rapid climate changes to be more accurately preserved and permits more accurate assessment of the relative timing between ice-isotopic variations and of variations in occluded gases compared to the low accumulation rate sites like Vostok, Dome C, or Dome Fuji (Table 1). In this study, we compare the CO<sub>2</sub> record from the Siple Dome ice core for the last 40,000 years with CO<sub>2</sub> records from other Antarctic ice cores using common time scales based on the GISP2 gas age and correlation to Antarctica using CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations variations. We also examine the relative timing of the CO<sub>2</sub> increase and temperature change. The highest resolution CO<sub>2</sub> record from Law Dome covering only the last thousand years [*Etheridge et al.*, 1996], and the recent Dome Fuji CO<sub>2</sub> record over the last 320 kyrs [*Kawamura et al.*, 2003] measured by the wet extraction method are not discussed.

## **2. Method and Time Scales**

Measurements were made on 462 samples from 86 depths in the top 832 meters in the Siple Dome ice core. These measurements span over the last 40,000 years. The ice core has a diameter of 13 cm. The outer 0.5 to 2 cm of the samples was removed with a band saw to reduce the possibility of contamination from present atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> or post-drilling chemical reactions. The Siple Dome core samples contain bubbles and did not contain clathrates. Post collection temperature monitoring confirmed that the ice was kept below -15 °C from the time it was removed from the drill site to arrival at Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO). The storing, cutting, and loading of samples into a mechanical crusher at SIO was done at -25 °C. At most depths four to six ice samples, taken from a depth interval spanning 1 to 3 cm (mostly less than several years in ice age), were analyzed for each reported data point. At some depths samples of 6 to 12 cm depth intervals were used because of poor quality (extensive fracturing in the ice). Many fractures were observed below 500 m and the samples were more extensively trimmed in this region to assure sampling of unfractured ice. Contamination through undetected fractures results in higher CO<sub>2</sub> values due to high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the ambient air.

For outliers in a group of samples cut from the same depth interval, we applied Grubb's test at the 95% confidence level to the suspected data. In this test a ratio of the difference between the outlier and the mean and the standard deviation of the data for the group was compared to a critical value [Iglewicz and Hoaglin, 1993]. We rejected results from 12 individual ice samples (usually the highest values) out of the total of 462 analyzed.

The gas extraction and IR spectroscopic methods used are well established [Wahlen *et al.*, 1991; Smith *et al.*, 1997a and b; Fischer *et al.*, 1999]. Occluded air was dry extracted by mechanical crushing of samples in a double walled crusher cooled using an ethanol-liquid nitrogen mixture at about -50 °C. The liberated air was collected in cold traps chilled by closed cycle He refrigerators to a temperature of about 32 K. The frozen air samples held in the cold traps were liberated by heating and transferred to an IR absorption cell held at a constant pressure and temperature. IR absorption measurements were made several times on each gas sample with a tunable diode laser by scanning a single vibrational-rotational CO<sub>2</sub> absorption line at Doppler resolution in the R-branch of the 4.3 μm CO<sub>2</sub> absorption band. To calibrate the instrumentation, measurements were made with three air standards of precisely known CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 163, 240, and 330 ppm ( $\pm 0.01$  ppm, *C. D. Keeling*, pers. comm.) that were introduced over three of the crushed ice samples, thus duplicating the crushing procedure. This calibration procedure was performed each day. A group of samples from the same depth interval were measured on the same day. The average standard deviation of the data of the samples from the same depth interval measured on the same day (5.9 ppm) is greater than the daily internal precision (1.7 ppm) measured on crushed ice samples with reference gas added. Considering the daily uncertainty in calibration and the reproducibility, we expect the internal precision to be better than 2 ppm when measured on different days for a group of samples from the same depth interval with constant CO<sub>2</sub> concentration among the samples. Directly introduced standards (not over ice) were run to check laser linearity and performance.

The gas age dating of the Siple Dome core over the time period of 40 to 8.2 kyrBP is established by correlation of CH<sub>4</sub> data with those of the GISP2 ice core [Taylor *et al.*, 2004b; Brook *et al.*, 2005]. The methods for CH<sub>4</sub> measurements are described in Brook *et al.* [2000, 2005]. For ice younger than 8.2 kyrBP the age of the ice was determined by counting annual layers and the corresponding gas ages were assigned by subtracting the ice age – gas age difference ( $\Delta$ age) from the ice ages [Taylor *et al.*, 2004a]. The  $\Delta$ age was calculated with a firm densification model [Brook *et al.*, 2005]. The  $\Delta$ age is about  $280 \pm 80$  years in the early Holocene, increasing to about  $750 \pm 220$  years during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). The gas age of bubble ice varies according to ice bubble close-off depth. We estimate that the width of the age distribution is on the order of 10% of the  $\Delta$ age value [Goujon *et al.*, 2003].

### **3. Results**

#### **3.1. Data quality**

Measurements were made over a period of 2.5 years at random depth intervals to eliminate the possibility that unnoticed analytical changes would create trends in the data. Measurements of Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> made in 2001 (black open squares) at SIO agree well with those made in 2002 and early 2003 (solid circles) as shown in Figure 2b.

The results can be compared to other Antarctic ice cores as shown in Figure 2b. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of Dome C, Taylor Dome and Byrd cores were measured in

Bern [*Monnin et al.*, 2001; *Flückiger et al.*, 2002; *Indermühle et al.*, 1999, 2000; *Nefel et al.*, 1988; *Staffelbach et al.*, 1991] and compare well with the SIO data. This is expected because Bern's gas extraction method (dry crushing) is similar to that at SIO.

High accumulation rate provides a small width of gas age distribution and therefore a record of high temporal resolution. Similarly, the use of small pieces of ice potentially also improves temporal resolution. On the other hand, this potentially increases the scatter in the data since inhomogeneities are not smoothed out as they are in larger samples covering longer intervals of time [*Smith et al.*, 1997a]. The accumulation rate at Siple Dome is two and five times larger than that at Taylor Dome and Dome C, respectively. Thus, the high accumulation rate at Siple Dome (Table 1) and the small sample size (4 to 6 cm<sup>3</sup>) used in the measurement at SIO may increase the scattering of the Siple Dome data. Sample sizes used in the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> study at SIO are half of those used for Taylor Dome and Dome C at Bern. Some Taylor Dome samples were also measured at SIO (Figure 2b) and there is good agreement between the SIO and the Bern results, even though the volume of samples for a depth interval used at SIO was about one fourth of what was used at Bern, where calibration was routinely done using reference gases from SIO at 251.7 ppm and 321.06 ppm [*Indermühle et al.*, 1999].

### 3.2. The trend of the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record

In general, the trends in the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record (solid circles and open squares in Figure 2b) follow temperature trends, indicated by  $\delta D_{ice}$  (Figure 2a), which

is taken as a proxy for local temperature. The general time series of Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentration confirms previous studies in Antarctic ice cores (Figures 2 and 3). The Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record shows a continuous decrease from 214 ppm at 38 kyrBP to 186 ppm at LGM (~ 18 kyrBP) and then a rapid increase up to 247 ppm during the early part of the last termination. It is important to note that the CO<sub>2</sub> increase is reversed during the Antarctic Cold Reversal (15 to 13 kyrBP) reaching a local minimum of 239 ppm, which has been observed in the Dome C, Taylor Dome and Byrd records. After the Antarctic Cold Reversal, Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> increases again reaching up to 284 ppm at the beginning of the Holocene (11.5 kyrBP). This increase occurs during the Younger Dryas interval as shown in the Dome C record [Monnin *et al.*, 2001]. During the Holocene, the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations decrease to a local minimum of 261 ppm at about 8 kyrBP, and then increase to 285 ppm in the late Holocene (mean of the scattered values). There is good agreement of this local minimum at about 8 kyrBP between the different Antarctic cores from Siple Dome, Taylor Dome, Dome C and Vostok. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration never reaches steady state during the Holocene after the end of the last termination as was also found in the Taylor Dome and Dome C records [Indermühle *et al.*, 1999; Flückiger *et al.*, 2000].

Figure 3 shows an enlarged portion of Figure 2 covering the last termination. Again, Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> follows the temperature proxy ( $\delta D_{ice}$ ) as seen in other Antarctic ice cores. For most of the record, the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> time trend is almost the same as that of the high resolution Dome C record.

However, at the depth (677.61 m) corresponding to around 15 kyrBP, CO<sub>2</sub> in Siple Dome is higher than in Dome C by about 21 ppm. We believe that this

anomalous CO<sub>2</sub> value is suspicious as an atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record because of the following two reasons. First, near the depth of the anomalously high CO<sub>2</sub> value (~20cm apart in depth), the  $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  of N<sub>2</sub> values reach atmospheric values, indicating there was no diffusive column and a possible hiatus in deposition [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2003]. Second, the difference of 21 ppm is too large to be explained by age uncertainties. The anomaly occurs at a greater depth than that corresponding to the beginning of Antarctic Cold Reversal (defined by the rapid increase in CH<sub>4</sub> concentration from Siple Dome ice, as defined in the Dome C ice core, where abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> increases happened [Monnin *et al.*, 2001]). Thus the age uncertainty at this depth does not affect the CO<sub>2</sub> difference between Siple Dome and Dome C significantly (<5ppm).

Except for this anomalous period, we calculate the rates of CO<sub>2</sub> change and time lag of CO<sub>2</sub> compared to temperature. During the last termination, CO<sub>2</sub> changed at the rate of 19.1 ppm/kyr from 17.7 to 15 kyrBP, -5.2 ppm/kyr during the Antarctic Cold Reversal (15 to 13 kyrBP ) and 26.8 ppm/kyr from 13.0 to 11.3 kyrBP, respectively. These values are similar to CO<sub>2</sub> changes in the Dome C record [Monnin *et al.*, 2001].

### **3.3 Phase relationship between changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and Siple Dome temperature**

To compare the phasing of changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and surface temperature (using  $\delta\text{D}_{\text{ice}}$  as a temperature proxy), we interpolated the CO<sub>2</sub> and  $\delta\text{D}_{\text{ice}}$  data on a 10-year spacing. We calculated the change in CO<sub>2</sub> and  $\delta\text{D}_{\text{ice}}$  ( $d\text{CO}_2/dt$  and  $d(\delta\text{D}_{\text{ice}})/dt$ ) for 10-year intervals and smoothed them by averaging over time windows ranging from 0 to

500 years. The correlation coefficient between the  $d\text{CO}_2/dt$  and  $d(\delta D_{\text{ice}})/dt$  was then calculated for different lag times and for different degrees of smoothing. The maximum correlation coefficients were obtained with a 210 ~ 330 year lag of  $d\text{CO}_2/dt$  behind  $d(\delta D_{\text{ice}})/dt$  with a smoothing of 200 ~ 500 years as shown in Figure 4a. Several maxima in correlation coefficients for different time lags are observed over less than 200-year windows, possibly due to the average spacing of 230 years in the  $\text{CO}_2$  data. To check the sensitivity of the time lag by the uncertainties in  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration and  $\Delta\text{age}$ , we carried out Monte Carlo simulations for  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations in two conditions, namely maximum  $\Delta\text{age}$  (estimated  $\Delta\text{age} + \text{uncertainty}$ ) and minimum  $\Delta\text{age}$  (estimated  $\Delta\text{age} - \text{uncertainty}$ ). For each situation, we produced 3000 different sets of  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations, which vary randomly with Gaussian propagation in their uncertainties. After interpolation and smoothing both  $d\text{CO}_2/dt$  and  $d(\delta D_{\text{ice}})/dt$  with 500-year window, maximum correlation coefficients were obtained with a  $369 \pm 23$  years lag (mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ ) for maximum  $\Delta\text{age}$  and  $196 \pm 25$  (mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ ) for minimum  $\Delta\text{age}$  as seen in Figure 4b. The time lags for  $\text{CO}_2$  behind temperature are greater than the uncertainty of the  $\Delta\text{age}$  of 80 years at the end of the last termination but close to 220 years at LGM. The time lags roughly agree with *Fischer et al.* [1999] ( $600 \pm 400$  years during the last three terminations in Byrd, Taylor Dome and Vostok records) and are slightly less than the value proposed by *Monnin et al.* [2001] (410 years during the last termination in Dome C record). *Indermühle et al.* [2000] found higher values ( $1200 \pm 700$  years) for the period 60 to 20 kyrBP in the Taylor Dome record, as did



*Caillon et al.* [2003] ( $800 \pm 200$  years) across termination III in the Vostok record. Although the correlation method discussed above suggests that changes in surface temperature at Siple Dome could lead changes in the concentration of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> by ~300 years, this lead is small relative to both our sampling interval and possible systematic error in  $\Delta$ age, for example due to inaccuracies in estimating past accumulation rates, which are derived from a thermodynamic model employing temperatures calculated from the  $\delta D_{ice}$  record [*Brook et al.*, 2005]. Our main conclusion is therefore that a lead of CO<sub>2</sub> versus Siple Dome temperature is unlikely, a lag of CO<sub>2</sub> versus Siple Dome temperature is likely, and that our results provide strong support for previous suggestions of a close link between Antarctic temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> change during the deglaciation.

#### **4. Possible Mechanisms for In Situ CO<sub>2</sub> Production**

In some depth intervals the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in Siple Dome ice are higher than in the Vostok, Taylor Dome and Dome C cores (Figure 2 and 3). These differences are up to 20 ppm greater (e.g., at around 11 kyrBP). One possible explanation for these differences is uncertainty in the age scales, particularly at times when CO<sub>2</sub> was changing. For example, during the two periods of rapid CO<sub>2</sub> increase during the last termination, an offset of 300 years between otherwise identical records would produce a CO<sub>2</sub> difference of 10 ppm. This effect may explain the differences between the Siple Dome versus the Dome C and Siple Dome versus the Taylor Dome

cores (Figure 5c). The low CO<sub>2</sub> values of the Byrd ice core at about 39 kyrBP can be compared to low values in Taylor Dome at about 42 kyrBP (not shown in the Figure 2) on the GISP2 age scale [Indermöhle *et al.*, 2000]. However, elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the Siple Dome at times of relatively little change in CO<sub>2</sub> (for example, during the Antarctic Cold Reversal or in the earliest Holocene) cannot be attributed to time scale uncertainties. Interestingly, most of the cold period (40 ~ 23 kyrBP) CO<sub>2</sub> data from the Siple Dome ice shows little difference in CO<sub>2</sub> when compared to other cores.

As mentioned above, large variations of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations between Antarctic ice core sites are unlikely, prompting us to search for another explanation for the differences between the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> and other records. To examine the possibility and the mechanisms of CO<sub>2</sub> production, we check the CO<sub>2</sub> difference between Siple Dome and Taylor Dome or Dome C (Figure 5c). We call this “excess CO<sub>2</sub>” although we cannot rule out the possibility of CO<sub>2</sub> consumption in other ice cores by the interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> in the bubbles and the carbonates in the ice (i.e.,  $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_3^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) [Neftel *et al.*, 1982].

The excess CO<sub>2</sub> is high at depth of 100 to 330 m (0.4 to 3.5 kyrBP) and 560 to 640 m (9.5 to 12.5 kyrBP) but is within the experimental uncertainty at depths > 708 m (17.5 kyrBP). The Siple Dome ice samples are more fractured than Taylor Dome samples below about 500 m (about 8 kyr). One possibility is that the CO<sub>2</sub> in the core might be compromised by air entering fractures in the core that reseal after the ice reaches the surface, during transportation and storage. However, there are high excess CO<sub>2</sub> values in the late Holocene Siple Dome ice where fracturing is minor, and low excess CO<sub>2</sub> in glacial ice where Siple Dome ice is highly fractured. Moreover,

correlations between the scattering of data from adjacent samples and excess CO<sub>2</sub> does not support the possibility of ambient air contamination. The above observations imply the possibility that some of the artifacts in Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> records are related to in situ CO<sub>2</sub> production in the ice.

Possible CO<sub>2</sub> production mechanisms include (1) carbonate-acid reaction [Delmas, 1993; Anklin *et al.*, 1995 and 1997; Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Smith *et al.*, 1997a, b], (2) oxidation of organic compounds abiologically [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000], or biologically [Campen *et al.*, 2003], and (3) snow melting-refreezing [Nefstel *et al.*, 1983; Stauffer *et al.*, 1985].

We have calculated the potential CO<sub>2</sub> produced by the carbonate-acid reaction between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and H<sup>+</sup> [Nefstel *et al.*, 1988], as shown in Figure 5e, using the non-sea salt Ca (nssCa) ion content assuming all of the nssCa is from CaCO<sub>3</sub> and that all CaCO<sub>3</sub> reacts to produce CO<sub>2</sub>. This source of potential CO<sub>2</sub> is too low to produce the excess CO<sub>2</sub> observed during the Holocene and shows little correlation with the excess CO<sub>2</sub> data (Figure 5c). Moreover, electric conductivity measurements (ECM, proxy for H<sup>+</sup>) do not show any significant change at the depth intervals of high excess CO<sub>2</sub> in Figure 5c. Thus, it is unlikely that a carbonate-acid reaction has affected the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record.

Oxidation of organic compounds has been proposed to be at least as important as acid-carbonate reactions for CO<sub>2</sub> production (e.g.,  $2\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{HCHO} \rightarrow 3\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$ ) [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000]. Organic acid concentrations in Siple Dome ice core have not yet been reported. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is one of the important oxidants of organics in ice. The top 100 m of Siple Dome ice core shows concentrations near or below the

detection limits of  $\sim 0.02 \mu\text{M H}_2\text{O}_2$  except at the 0 to 2.5 m depth [McConnell, 1997]. This  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration corresponds to a potential  $\text{CO}_2$  production of less than 5 ppm assuming an adequate supply of organic acids, which does not easily explain the 20 ppm excess  $\text{CO}_2$ .  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  can act as other oxidants [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000]. Another possible  $\text{CO}_2$  production mechanism is respiration of microorganisms (consuming organic acids and producing  $\text{CO}_2$ ) within the ice [Campen *et al.*, 2003]. Natural organic acids and other organic materials have much lower values of  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ , approximately -25 ‰, compared to atmospheric  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  (preindustrial value of about -6.5 ‰) and  $\text{CaCO}_3$  (0 ~ 4 ‰). Thus, precise  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  values could be used to investigate the sources of excess  $\text{CO}_2$ . For example if the early Holocene  $\text{CO}_2$  record has excess  $\text{CO}_2$  values of 20 ppm derived from organic materials, it would reduce the  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  value by about 1 ‰. However,  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  analyses in the Siple Dome ice core have been hampered by the contamination of the ice by drilling fluid, n-butyl acetate, which in the mass spectrometer lead to fragmentation interference with  $m/z = 45$  [Ahn *et al.*, 2001].

$\text{CO}_2$  can be considerably enriched in frozen melt layers due to the high solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  in melt water [Neftel *et al.*, 1983]. At Dye 3, Greenland, melt layers contribute about 7 % by volume at today's climate conditions and show mean  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration as much as 1500 ppm [Stauffer *et al.*, 1985]. The annual mean snow temperature of Siple Dome is  $-25.4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the highest among the Antarctic ice cores discussed in this paper [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2001], and occasional surface melting occurs during the summer, resulting in thin bubble free layers in the ice core. These

melt layers can be detected visually, see arrows in Figures 3c and bars in Figure 5d [Das, 2003]. The ice samples measured for the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> did not include visible melt layers. However, it is likely that small melt layers would not be detected visually, particularly deeper in the core where ice flow has thinned the layering. The mode of excess CO<sub>2</sub> is only weakly associated with that of melt layers (Figure 5c and 5d). Alternative possibilities beside warm temperature and the coastal location of the Siple Dome (Figure 1 and Table 1) include higher ambient temperatures during the austral summer (often being substantially higher than the mean annual temperature of -25.4 °C), combined with high sea salt content, resulting in CO<sub>2</sub> contamination.

## 5. Conclusion

We present the CO<sub>2</sub> record of air occluded over the last 40,000 years in the Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica. The general time series of Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is similar to previous studies in other Antarctic ice core CO<sub>2</sub> records. Siple Dome ice also shows that surface temperature inferred from  $\delta D_{ice}$  correlates well with CO<sub>2</sub> concentration as shown in other Antarctic ice cores. During the last termination, it is likely that the change of the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations lags the Siple Dome temperature change. Despite similarities with other Antarctic ice cores, the Siple Dome ice shows higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations than those in other Antarctic ice cores at some depth intervals, which may be due to in situ production in the ice. The cause of these elevated concentrations is not known with certainty. CO<sub>2</sub> production due to surface melting is the leading hypothesis, but the evidence is not definitive.

**Acknowledgments.** We wish to thank Jeff Severinghaus, Sarah Das, Richard Alley, Joe McConnell and Jihong Cole-Dai for advice and for providing unpublished data. Anonymous reviewers provided constructive comments. Staff at the National Ice Core Laboratory is thanked for the assistance with core processing. This work was supported by the Office of Polar Program of the NSF (NSF OPP 99-80619). This chapter is reproduced fully, with permission from: Ahn, J., M. Wahlen, B.L. Deck, E.J. Brook, P.A. Mayewski, K.C. Taylor, and J.W.C. White (2004) “A record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> during the last 40,000 years from the Siple Dome, Antarctica ice core”. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, vol. 109, doi:10.1029/2003JD004415.

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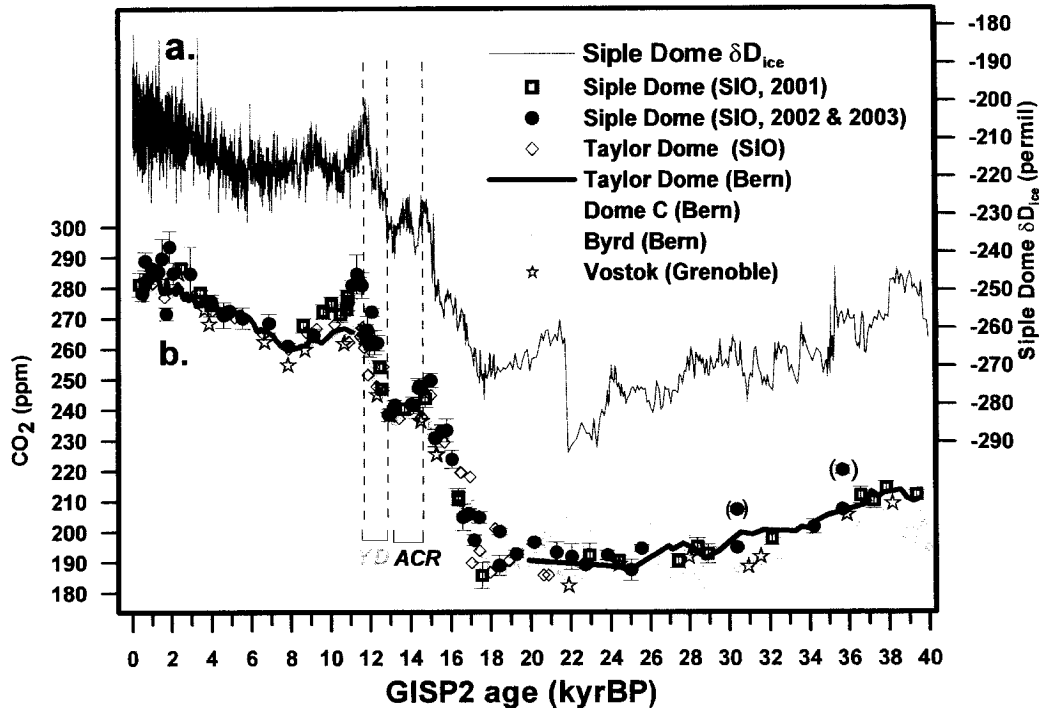
**Table 1. Characteristics of the Antarctic ice cores from which CO<sub>2</sub> gases have been measured.**

<b>Core name</b>	<b>Mean annual temperature (°C)</b>	<b>Mean accumulation rate as water equivalent (g cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Elevation (m)</b>
Law Dome	-22 ~ -19 <sup>a,b</sup>	60 ~ 110 <sup>b</sup>	1390 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Siple Dome</b>	<b>-25.4<sup>c</sup></b>	<b>12.4<sup>d</sup></b>	<b>621<sup>e</sup></b>
Byrd <sup>f</sup>	-28	16	1530
Taylor Dome	-42 <sup>g</sup>	7 <sup>h</sup>	2374 <sup>h</sup>
EPICA Dome C	-54 <sup>i</sup>	3 <sup>j</sup>	3233 <sup>k</sup>
Vostok <sup>f</sup>	-55.5	2.3	3490
Dome Fuji <sup>l</sup>	-58	3.2	3810

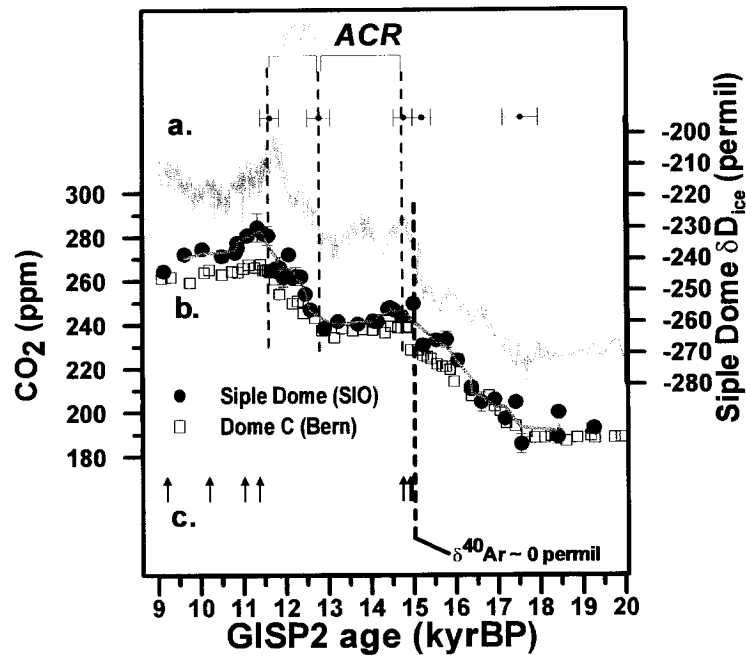
<sup>a</sup>[Etheridge and Wookey, 1989]; <sup>b</sup>[Etheridge et al., 1996]; <sup>c</sup>[Severinghaus et al., 2001];  
<sup>d</sup>[Hamilton, 2002]; <sup>e</sup>[Taylor et al., 2004b]; <sup>f</sup>[Raynaud et al., 1993]; <sup>g</sup>[Waddington and Morse,  
1994]; <sup>h</sup> as unit of cm ice equivalent per year [Steig et al., 1998]; <sup>i</sup>[Schwander et  
al., 2001]; <sup>j</sup>[The EPICA Dome C 2001-02 science and drilling teams, 2002]; <sup>k</sup>[Tabacco et al.,  
1998]; <sup>l</sup>[Dome-F Deep Coring Group, 1998]



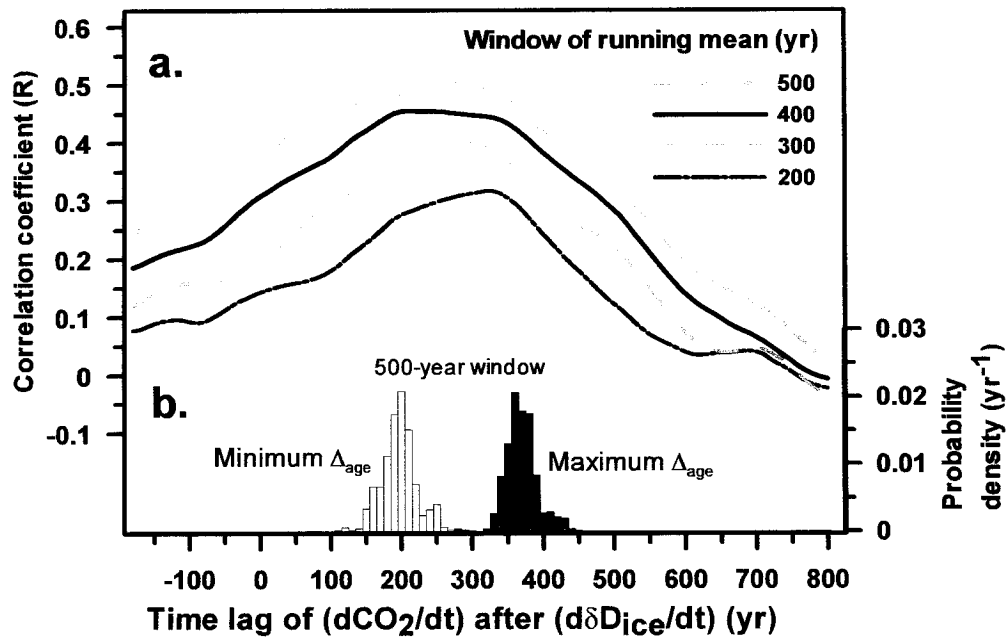
**Figure 1.** Location map of Antarctic ice cores referred to in the text.



**Figure 2.** Antarctic ice core  $CO_2$  plotted on GISP2 gas age scale. YD, Younger Dryas; ACR, Antarctic Cold Reversal. (a) Siple Dome  $\delta D_{ice}$  on ice age scale. (b) Ice core  $CO_2$  records on synchronized gas age scale with GISP2 via  $CH_4$ . Vostok data [Petit *et al.*, 1999], EPICA Dome C [Monnin *et al.*, 2001; Flückiger *et al.*, 2002], Taylor Dome [Indermühle *et al.*, 1999, 2000; Smith *et al.*, 1999] and Byrd [Nefel *et al.*, 1988; Staffelbach *et al.*, 1991] and Siple Dome [this study]. Error bars represent one standard error deviation of the replicate measurements at the same depth interval. The brackets indicate averages of two anomalously high values of the six samples from the same depth intervals. Taylor Dome gas ages of 40 to 20 kyrBP [Brook *et al.*, 2000]; Byrd gas ages [Blunier *et al.*, 2001]; Vostok gas ages for 40 to 10 kyrBP [Blunier *et al.*, 1998]. The Vostok GT4 time scales [Petit *et al.*, 1999] are younger than those of GISP2 by about 1 kyr for the latter of the last Termination and by up to 5 kyr during 40 to 20 kyrBP. The Holocene depth-gas age scales of the Vostok and Dome C are linearly interpolated between the youngest age points and synchronized gas age points in the early Holocene. Dome C gas ages for 17.2 to 11 kyrBP are synchronized with GISP2 in this study and for 22.5 to 17.2 kyrBP are extended from the synchronized gas age at 17.2 kyrBP by adding the depth-gas age intervals of the original paper [Monnin *et al.*, 2001].

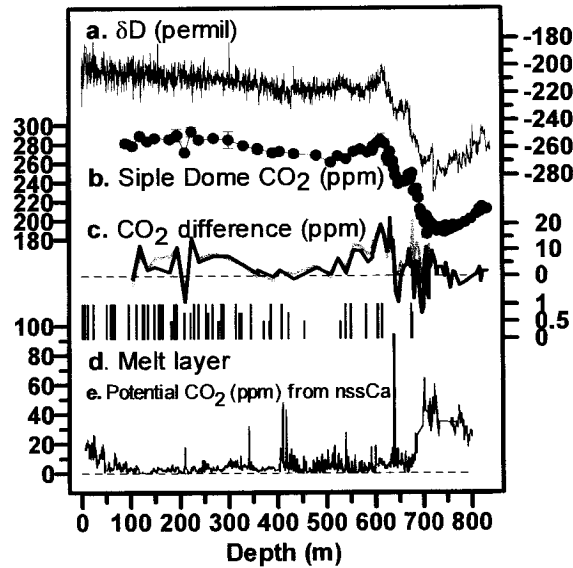


**Figure 3.** CO<sub>2</sub> change during the last Termination. YD, Younger Dryas; ACR, Antarctic Cold Reversal. (a) Siple Dome  $\delta D_{ice}$  on ice age scale. (b) CO<sub>2</sub> records from Siple Dome (solid circles) and Dome C (open squares) [Monnin *et al.*, 2001]. The line between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> is the running average of three adjacent points. (c) Melt layers (vertical arrows) [Das, 2003]. The horizontal bars at top are gas age ranges around age tie points based on CH<sub>4</sub> records between Siple Dome and GISP2. The thick vertical dashed bar indicates where the argon and nitrogen isotopic anomaly occurs [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2003].



**Figure 4.** Time lag analysis of  $(dCO_2/dt)$  after  $(d\delta D_{ice}/dt)$  in the Siple Dome ice core during the last termination. (a) Correlation coefficients for different time lags after averaging data with windows of 200 ~ 500 years. (b) Histograms of the time lags after Monte Carlo simulation for  $CO_2$  concentrations in two situations, maximum  $\Delta_{age}$  and minimum  $\Delta_{age}$ . For each situation, 3000 different sets of  $CO_2$  concentrations were generated and used. The derived  $dCO_2/dt$  and  $d(\delta D_{ice})/dt$  were smoothed with 500-year window for each data set.





**Figure 5.** Comparison of possible processes of the excess  $CO_2$  in Siple Dome ice cores on depth scale. (a) Siple Dome  $\delta D_{ice}$ . (b) Siple Dome  $CO_2$  (c)  $CO_2$  difference between Siple Dome and Taylor Dome (black line) or Dome C (gray line). The dashed horizontal line represents 0. (d) Melt layers [Das, 2003]. The lengths of bars indicate the confidence level. 1 = sure, 0.75 = probable, 0.5 = possible. (e) Potential  $CO_2$  from acid-carbonate reaction. The dashed horizontal line represents 0. Non-sea-salt Ca (nssCa) was assumed to have been in the form of  $CaCO_3$  and totally reacted with excess  $H^+$ . Considering total gas content in the unit gram of ice [Severinghaus, 2003], the  $CO_2$  produced by the reaction was converted to a concentration change of  $CO_2$ .

## **CHAPTER III**

**CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice:**

**Observations from the Siple Dome, Antarctic ice core**

**Abstract.** Ancient atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> trapped in polar ice cores has been used as a paleoatmospheric proxy. One assumption in doing so is that diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> in the ice does not impact the concentration profile. However, CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice is inadequately understood because the diffusion coefficient is too small to be accurately determined in the laboratory. We observe a gradual decrease of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration away from the melt-refrozen layers in the ice core from Siple Dome, Antarctica. On the basis of a combined study of noble gases (Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar), electric conductivity, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion concentration, we confirm that substantial CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion occurs through the ice. This diffusion smoothes rapid changes of the CO<sub>2</sub> record. However, the smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> record by diffusion is one or two orders of magnitude smaller than the smoothing produced by the gas age distribution in our samples. Our modeling yields an estimate of the permeation coefficient (product of the diffusion constant and the solubility) as  $4.3 (\pm 2.1) \times 10^{-21} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ ice Pa}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2$  at  $-23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .

**Keywords:** ice core; atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>; molecular diffusion; paleoclimate

## 1. Introduction

Paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record reconstructed from ice cores helps us to understand the carbon cycle in different climatic periods over hundreds of thousand years [Fischer *et al.*, 1999; Petit *et al.*, 1999; Kawamura *et al.*, 2003; EPICA Community members, 2004]. Preservation of an atmospheric signal depends on the integrity of the ice core as an archive. In particular, CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice is a key process, that may affect sample integrity, but is poorly understood. The study of CO<sub>2</sub>

diffusion in ice has been hampered because the diffusion coefficient is too small to be precisely measured in the laboratory [Hondoh, 1996] and because of a lack of evidence concerning CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice. A natural CO<sub>2</sub> spike can be formed at a refrozen melt layer (hereafter melt layer) due to the relatively high solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in melt water, and this may diffuse through the ice during ice flow [Neftel *et al.*, 1983]. Therefore, the ice adjacent to a melt layer potentially acts as a natural laboratory and provides information about CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice. In this regard, the Antarctic Siple Dome ice core provides valuable information because we observed a gradual increase of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration toward distinct melt layers (Figures 1 and 2). The Dye 3 ice core from Greenland also shows a CO<sub>2</sub> spike around a melt layer with ~ 2300 ppm at the depth of 124 m [Stauffer *et al.*, 1985]. However, at greater depth melt layers are not visible but CO<sub>2</sub> varies dramatically in a 50-cm core segment [Neftel *et al.*, 1983; Stauffer *et al.*, 1985].

We provide the first evidence of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice from high-resolution analyses on CO<sub>2</sub>, Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion, ECM (Electric Conductivity Measurement), and Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar of trapped air. Based on the observations, we also model the CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in the ice and provide an estimate of the CO<sub>2</sub> permeation coefficient in the ice (see Appendix). Finally, implications of the results related to the polar ice cores are discussed.

## 2. Materials and Methods

CO<sub>2</sub> measurements were made on bubble ice that included some of the significant melted layers in the Siple Dome A Core (Figure 1), at Scripps Institution of

Oceanography (SIO). In each 1-cm depth interval of ice samples of 4 to 6 grams were used, and the outer 0.5 cm of the samples was removed with a band saw to reduce the possibility of contamination from present atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> or post drilling chemical reactions. The gas extraction and IR spectroscopic methods used are well established [Wahlen *et al.*, 1991; Smith *et al.*, 1997a; Smith *et al.*, 1997b; Fischer *et al.*, 1999; Ahn *et al.*, 2004]. Trapped air is dry extracted by mechanical crushing of samples in a double walled crusher cooled to about -50 °C using flowing cold ethanol. The liberated air is collected in small cold traps chilled by closed cycle helium refrigerators to a temperature of about 32 K. The frozen air samples held in the cold traps were liberated by heating and then transferred to an IR absorption cell held at constant pressure and temperature. IR absorption measurements were made several times on each gas sample with a tunable diode laser. The single mode IR laser output was scanned across a single vibrational-rotational molecular absorption line of CO<sub>2</sub> at Doppler resolution. To calibrate the instrumentation, measurements were made with three air standards of precisely known CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 163, 240, and 330 ppm ( $\pm 0.01$  ppm, C. D. Keeling, personal communication). The standards were introduced over three of the crushed ice samples, thus mimicking the crushing procedure. This calibration procedure was performed each day. The internal precision is better than 2 ppm in the concentration range of 163 - 330 ppm.

Noble gas ratios were analyzed on a dual viscous-inlet Finnigan MAT 252 mass spectrometer at SIO. The  $\delta^{132}\text{Xe}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ,  $\delta^{84}\text{Kr}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ , and  $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$  are normalized to the clean marine air outside the laboratory. Gas from 40 - 60 grams of ice is extracted and gettered following the laboratory protocol developed by [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2003]. The pooled standard errors of the triplicate measurements for the GISP2 ice core of the Holocene, are 3.77 ‰ and 1.56 ‰ for  $\delta^{132}\text{Xe}/^{36}\text{Ar}$  and  $\delta^{84}\text{Kr}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ , respectively, for the measurement conditions.

For  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ion concentration measurements, we used about 5 grams of ice from the same depth, where neighboring samples were used for  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration measurements. Ice was prepared at SIO and measured at the Climate Change Institute of the University of Maine using Dionex-500 Ion Chromatography where calcium is measured on a CS12A Cation-exchange column with 25 mM methanesulfonic acid eluent, a self regenerating suppressor, and a conductivity detector. Sample size was 500  $\mu\text{L}$ .

### **3. The excess $\text{CO}_2$ around the melt layers**

The annual mean temperature at Siple Dome is  $-25.4\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2001]. However, the ice has experienced occasional melting during austral summer (0 - 2 melt events per century during the Holocene) at warm surface temperatures ( $>2\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) [Das, 2003]. The melt water percolates to greater depth in the firn (snow pack) and re-freezes at some depth (0 - 0.2 m), where the snow is in the form of a fine-crystal size crust and has a strong capillary force [Das, 2003]. Melt layers preserved in the Siple Dome ice core have lower gas content with reduced bubble size compared to normally sintered bubble ice and are easily identified visually (Figure1).

A 30-cm long ice sample from the depth of 286.7 – 287.0 m was intensively studied (Figure 1). The age of the ice is  $\sim 3.04$  kyrBP (thousand years before 1950 C.E.), and the gas age is  $\sim 2.74$  kyrBP [Taylor *et al.*, 2004]. Annual layers are about 5 to 9 cm thick at this depth [Taylor *et al.*, 2004]. Two melt layers ( $\sim 1$  cm thick) in this sample have smaller bubble sizes than does ice in a normal non-melt layer. In addition, melt layers have lower bubble-gas contents (10 - 20 % of that in a normal layer;

estimation by measurements of bubble size and number density). The upper (left) melt layer M1 is thicker than the lower (right) melt layer M2 (Figure 1). Some features between the two distinct melt layers seem to indicate partial melting.

Due to the high solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in the melt water (Table 1), CO<sub>2</sub> may have an elevated concentration in the ice formed from a melt layer compared to that in the air. Considering the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 278 ppm ( $\mu\text{atm/atm}$ ) [Indermühle *et al.*, 1999] at the gas age of 2.74 kyrBP and the present surface pressure condition at the Siple Dome (937 hPa), we can expect 16,230  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol total air}$  dissolved in the 0 °C melt water in equilibrium (Andrew Dickson, personal communication), which is 58 times greater than that in the atmosphere (Table 1). If a thin film of snow melt has enough time to come to solubility equilibrium with the atmospheric air at the surface, and then refreezes rapidly at some greater depth, the excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the melt water can be trapped and preserved in small bubbles in the melt layer. These bubbles can be preserved through the firn metamorphism process and incorporated in mature ice, due to being surrounded by a layer of ice. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradient between the melt layer and the neighboring “normal” bubble ice induces diffusion through the ice during periods of time greater than thousands of years. On the other hand, excess CO<sub>2</sub> would not be preserved in the melt layer, if degassing occurs during the refreeze of the melt. However, degassing requires that the freezing occur very slowly, so is unlikely.

Our high-resolution (depth interval of 1 cm) study shows that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradually decreases from 750 to 285 ppm away from M1. Another smaller peak is also found around M2 (Figure 2). In comparison to other CO<sub>2</sub> records

(278 ppm) from colder Antarctic ice core sites, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the Siple Dome samples are greater by up to 470 ppm (excess CO<sub>2</sub>), and clearly do not record atmospheric values.

In order to quantitatively determine the excess CO<sub>2</sub>, resulting from the refrozen melt, we use other melt-sensitive gases. <sup>132</sup>Xe/<sup>36</sup>Ar and <sup>84</sup>Kr/<sup>36</sup>Ar in glacial ice are useful indicators of extensive snow melting and refreezing, as Xe and Kr are about four and two times as soluble in liquid water as Ar, respectively [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2003]. Considering the solubility of the noble gases at 0 °C, the gravitational fractionation in the firn layer, and Ar loss from the bubbles during sample handling or bubble close-off, our calculation using the Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar data gives the volume ratio of liquid water to pore air. This is accomplished by solving three equations for three unknowns with three observed quantities: Xe/Ar, Kr/Ar, and <sup>40</sup>Ar/<sup>36</sup>Ar. This allows us to estimate the volume percentage of the refrozen melt water in the sample used. By comparing by visual observation of volume of melt (defined by ice with small bubbles) to the estimated volume of melt from Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar, we estimate that about 50 % of M1 originated from re-freezing of melt, that filled open pore spaces in the firn layer. This number is comparable to the porosity of snow at the surface, 56% (ice density within top 20 cm of snow = 0.40 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, Joan Fitzpatrick, 2003, personal communication), and suggests that most of the Xe, Kr and Ar were nearly equilibrated with the ancient atmosphere and trapped in M1. Therefore, we can also expect that the melt at the surface was nearly equilibrated with the ancient atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and was trapped in M1. We assume that diffusion of Xe, Kr and Ar in the ice is negligible compared to that of CO<sub>2</sub> (this is validated in the next section). By the



volume of refrozen melt in M1, solubility of CO<sub>2</sub>, and average ice-thinning factor of 0.714 (see Appendix), we calculate that the total CO<sub>2</sub> trapped in M1 at the snow surface is between  $11.2 (\pm 3.4) \times 10^{-9}$  mol CO<sub>2</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup> (without thinning) and  $15.7 (\pm 4.8) \times 10^{-9}$  mol CO<sub>2</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup> (with thinning). The thinning in the melt layer is expected to be less than in a normal layer due to the smaller porosity and higher rheological competence in the refrozen melt layer. The accuracy of the above estimation of excess CO<sub>2</sub> is limited by the possibly different degrees of equilibration of different gases in the melt water. For example, Xe should approach equilibrium more slowly than CO<sub>2</sub> due to its lower diffusivity. Thus, this estimation should be considered as complimentary to other independent estimations. However, this estimation supports the hypothesis that significant excess CO<sub>2</sub> is induced by the melting/refreezing process. Our modeling described in the next section does not require full equilibrium of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with the melt water.

#### **4. CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in the ice**

In this section, we decipher the process causing the observed CO<sub>2</sub> distribution in the ice adjacent to the melt layers. The gradual decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> away from the melt layers is consistent with the hypothesis that CO<sub>2</sub> has diffused away from the melt layer over the 2.8 thousand years, and agrees with our results from a molecular volume diffusion model (Figure 3) [Neftel *et al.*, 1983; see Appendix for details]. In this model, we assume constant total gas content in the ice, although this is not completely realistic due to the fact that the melt layers contain lower total gas content than normal ice. Thinning of vertical layers with increasing depth due to the flow of the ice is taken

into account. A time-dependent diffusion constant was used to correct for the thinning of the ice and to keep the initial vertical intervals. The same value of the diffusion constant of CO<sub>2</sub> in ice was applied for the two melt layers. The good fit of the model and data supports our proposition that the CO<sub>2</sub> originally trapped in the melt layer has diffused through the ice for thousands of years. For additional confirmation, we also integrate the observed excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the upper part of M1 (including upper half of M1), resulting in  $5.4 \times 10^{-9}$  mol CO<sub>2</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup>. This is in agreement with the value found from the volume of refrozen melt (half volume of M1) as calculated in the previous section ( $3.9$  to  $10.2 \times 10^{-9}$  mol CO<sub>2</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup>). The baseline CO<sub>2</sub> levels far from the melt layers are higher than in the Taylor Dome and Dome C ice records by 11 ppm on average. A possible mechanism for this minor baseline excess CO<sub>2</sub> will be discussed in another paper.

Other potential alternative mechanisms for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the ice adjacent to the melt layers include: (1) invisible snow melting-refreezing micro-melt layers, (2) carbonate-acid reaction [Anklin *et al.*, 1995; Anklin *et al.*, 1997; Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Delmas, 1993; Smith *et al.*, 1997a; Smith *et al.*, 1997b], and (3) oxidation of organic compounds abiologically [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000], or biologically [Campen *et al.*, 2003].

If the excess CO<sub>2</sub> outside M1 and M2 was formed by an invisible distribution of refrozen melt water, we would observe the same characteristics in the excess Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar as in the excess CO<sub>2</sub>. However, we cannot detect any significantly elevated Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar outside the two melt layers where we see the significant excess CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2). Thus, a melt-refreezing process cannot explain the excess CO<sub>2</sub> distribution

around the melt layers. It is important to note that diffusion of Xe, Kr, and Ar in the ice appears from this data to be negligible compared to that of CO<sub>2</sub>. One possible issue to be considered is that Ar may diffuse more rapidly in the ice than Kr and Xe [Severinghaus and Battle, submitted]. If so, then the Kr/Ar and Xe/Ar ratios in adjacent ice to a melt layer would be lowered by the preferential migration of Ar. However, the good agreement of two noble gas data sets in all layers other than melt layers would have to be fortuitous if this were the case. For this reason this scenario is considered unlikely.

Total Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration indicates the upper limit of the amount of CaCO<sub>3</sub> that potentially could have reacted with H<sup>+</sup>. There is no significant correlation between the excess CO<sub>2</sub> and the total Ca<sup>2+</sup> or ECM (Electric conductivity measurements, a proxy for H<sup>+</sup>) as shown in Figure 2. Moreover, assuming that all the Ca<sup>2+</sup> is produced from the reaction between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and H<sup>+</sup>, the potential excess CO<sub>2</sub> is ~17 ppm on average. This amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> is too small to explain our observations (excess CO<sub>2</sub> ~ up to 470 ppm). 1 μg Ca<sup>2+</sup> per kg ice corresponds to 7 ppm of excess CO<sub>2</sub> for a normal ice layer.

Oxidation of organic compounds has been proposed to be at least as important as acid-carbonate reactions for CO<sub>2</sub> production (e.g., 2H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + HCHO → 3H<sub>2</sub>O + CO<sub>2</sub>) [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000]. However, excess CO<sub>2</sub> by oxidation of organic compounds could not likely produce 30 ppm excess CO<sub>2</sub>, which is the CO<sub>2</sub> difference between Greenland and Antarctic ice core records for the Holocene [Anklin et al., 1995; Barnola et al., 1995]. Greenland ice cores have excess CO<sub>2</sub> related to various in situ production due to high dust content, whereas Antarctic ice cores are considered to be more representative of the paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration [Anklin et al.,

1995; Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Anklin *et al.*, 1997; Smith *et al.*, 1997a; Smith *et al.*, 1997b; Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000]. Moreover, the top 100 m of the Siple Dome ice core show H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations near or below the detection limit of ~ 0.02 μM, except at 0 to 2.5 m depth [McConnell, 1997]. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is one of the major oxidants in snow. The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration at Siple Dome is much lower than that of other Antarctic ice cores. Thus, oxidation of organic compounds cannot explain the high excess CO<sub>2</sub> of up to 470 ppm.

Therefore we can safely exclude the possibilities of all 3 alternative explanations. In summary, we conclude that excess CO<sub>2</sub> distribution around the melt layers was formed by the diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> through the ice matrix from the refrozen melt (M1, M2 and partial melt layers).

## 5. Smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> record in the polar ice

Significant diffusion for thousands of years in the ice sheet may smooth any local atmospheric rapid changes. We calculated the smoothing of the excess CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in a melt layer using a molecular volume diffusion process [Neftel *et al.*, 1983; see Appendix for details]. We estimate that the amplitudes of the CO<sub>2</sub> variation in the measured core segment are around 19 ~ 29 % and 13 ~20 % of the initial amplitude ( $c_0$ ) for M1 and M2, respectively (Figure 3). The initial CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in M2 is estimated to be smaller than in M1 by a factor of about 0.6. We find higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the samples that include melt layers or partial melt layers than in the modeling because the former have lower gas content than the normal bubble ice. From the best-fit calculation, the permeation coefficient of CO<sub>2</sub> (the product of the

diffusion constant and the solubility) is  $4.3 (\pm 2.1) \times 10^{-21} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ ice Pa}^{-1}$   $\text{CO}_2$  at  $-23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (time-averaged temperature). This is one to two orders of magnitude greater than that estimated from the Dye 3 ice core ( $1.3 \times 10^{-22} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ mol m}^{-3} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  at  $-20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) [Neftel *et al.*, 1983], but similar to the estimation ( $4.35 \times 10^{-21} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ mol m}^{-3} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  at  $-23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) from a simulation of molecular dynamics in ice lattices [Ikeda-Fukazawa *et al.*, 2004; Ikeda-Fukazawa and Fukumizu, 2005]. Our result for the permeation coefficient of  $\text{CO}_2$  is independent of the Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar data, but dependent on constant parameters such as time-averaged porosity and initial thickness of melt layers (see Appendix).

The gradual bubble close-off at the bottom of the firn layer (snowpack) effectively smoothes any rapid change in the atmosphere, and its effect can be roughly approximated by a Gaussian filter corresponding to the gas age distribution. The smoothing of the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration by diffusion in the ice is of the order of a few cm in our samples and thus is negligible compared to the smoothing by the gas age distribution at that depth ( $\sim 30$  years, corresponding to the diffusion in the depth interval of  $\sim 100$  cm). However, at greater depths the smoothing by the diffusion may become larger. A 40-year pulse of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  is modeled with the calculated permeation coefficient. Compared to the smoothing of the  $\text{CO}_2$  record by the gas age distribution, the range of smoothing by diffusion in the ice is rather small for the 10 kyr-old ice but it becomes similar in order of magnitude for 40 kyr-old ice. Our extension of the modeling results at a shallow depth (corresponding to 2.74 kyrBP) to greater depths is limited and requires further study. For example, the assumption of Henry's law for the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in ice may not be valid through all the pressure

ranges.

Our experience with Taylor Dome ice, which is all bubble ice, does not show evidence for significant smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> record on a millennial scale at least for 120 kyr (unpublished data). The formation of clathrate ice (bubble free ice) at depths from 500 to 1200 m (corresponding to the age of 25 ~ 65 kyr) at Antarctic cold drilling sites (Vostok, Dome Fuji, and EPICA Dome C), is expected to change gas diffusion. Considering the glacial-interglacial CO<sub>2</sub> records from the recent EPICA Dome C ice core [EPICA Community members, 2004] for >400 kyr, the diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> in the clathrate ice is perhaps too small to smooth the CO<sub>2</sub> record on a millennial time scale.

Dividing the permeation coefficient by the solubility gives the diffusion coefficient. Unfortunately, the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in ice is not well known at present. We calculate the CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion coefficient in the ice matrix at -23 °C to be  $> 9.6 (\pm 4.7) \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for a solubility of  $< 4.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ ice (Pa CO}_2)^{-1}$  [Neftel et al., 1983] and  $7.6 (\pm 3.7) \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for a solubility of  $5.7 \times 10^{-11} \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ ice (Pa CO}_2)^{-1}$  [Ikeda-Fukazawa and Fukumizu, 2005]. At present, the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in ice is too small to be measured precisely [Hondoh, 1996]. Improved measurement on CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in ice in the future would allow a better estimate of the diffusion coefficient of CO<sub>2</sub> in polar ice. Further studies should include estimation of the change of CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio during storage with permeation coefficients for the main air gases such as O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>.

## 6. Conclusion

The refrozen melt layers in the Siple Dome ice core have excess CO<sub>2</sub> due to the high solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in the melt water. Our analyses of samples from the Siple Dome ice core show a gradual increase of CO<sub>2</sub> toward the refrozen melt layers. Combined with the noble gas study (Xe/Ar, Kr/Ar) and chemical and electric properties of the ice, we conclude that the CO<sub>2</sub> spike diffused throughout the ice. Comparing this observation to modeling of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion, we calculate the product of solubility and the diffusion coefficient of CO<sub>2</sub> to be  $4.3 (\pm 2.1) \times 10^{-21} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ molCO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3}\text{ice Pa}^{-1}\text{CO}_2$  at  $-23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> record by diffusion is one to two orders of magnitude smaller than the smoothing by gas age distribution at the depth of 287 m (gas age = 2.74 kyrBP) in the Siple Dome ice and so does not degrade the record.

**Acknowledgments.** We wish to thank Sharon Sneed at the Climate Change Institute for the major ion concentration measurements. We also thank to Sarah Das, Bruce Deck, Tomoko Ikeda-Fukazawa for invaluable advice and Alane Bollenbacher for the preparation of the CO<sub>2</sub> air standard. Bernhard Stauffer and Kenji Kawamura kindly reviewed and improved this paper. Ice cores were kindly cut by John Rhoades at the National Ice Core Laboratory. The early work was supported by the Office of Polar Program of the NSF (NSF OPP 99-80619). This chapter is reproduced fully, with permission from: Ahn, Jinho; Severinghaus, Jeff; Headly, Melissa; Wahlen, Martin; Brook, Ed J.; Mayewski, Paul A.; Taylor, Kendrick C. "CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice:

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## Appendix

Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses from a melt layer to bubbles within a normal layer through ice. The smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is calculated from molecular volume diffusion with constant concentration  $c_0$  in a melt layer of width  $2h$  [6]. The diffusion equation is:

$$j = -D_0 \frac{dc_E}{dx_{\text{eff}}} \quad (1)$$

where  $j$  is the flux of CO<sub>2</sub> by diffusion with the diffusion constant ( $D_0$ ),  $c_E$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration dissolved in the ice, and  $x_{\text{eff}}$  is the effective vertical distance by thinning by ice flow.

The  $c_E$  is related to CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the bubbles ( $c_B$ ), bubble pressure ( $p$ ) as function of time ( $p(z(t))$ ) and CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in ice according to Henry's law ( $L$ ):

$$c_E = c_B p(z(t))L \quad (2)$$

The total CO<sub>2</sub> concentration per unit volume of ice with the porosity of the ice ( $V_L$ ) is:

$$c_{\text{tot}} = c_B V_L + c_E. \quad (3)$$

Then, the diffusion equation becomes:

$$\frac{\partial c_{\text{tot}}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial(c_B V_L)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial c_E}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial j}{\partial x_{\text{eff}}} \quad (4)$$

where  $x_{\text{eff}}$  is related to the original distance  $x$ :

$$x_{\text{eff}} = \alpha(t)x \quad (5)$$

If  $V_L$  is assumed to be constant, eqn (4) can be expressed as

$$\frac{\partial c_B}{\partial t} (V_L + p(t)L) = \frac{D_0}{\alpha(t)^2} p(t)L \frac{\partial^2 c_B}{\partial x^2} - L c_B \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} \quad (6)$$

When the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in ice is less than  $10^{-9} \text{ m}^3 \text{ CO}_2 \text{ STP m}^{-3} \text{ ice Pa}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2$  ( $4.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ ice Pa}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2$ ),  $p(t)L$  is less than  $0.025V_L$  at 144 m below the surface (half depth of the sample studied). The  $p(t)L$  term can be omitted because  $p(t)L \ll V_L$ .

$$\frac{\partial c_B}{\partial t} = \frac{D_0}{\alpha(t)^2} p(t) \frac{L}{V_L} \frac{\partial^2 c_B}{\partial x^2} - \frac{Lc_B}{V_L} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} \quad (7)$$

The thinning factor  $\alpha(t)$  is related to  $H$  (thickness of the ice sheet) and  $\beta$  (mean annual accumulation), and  $p(t)$  to  $\rho$  (density of bubble ice) and  $z(t)$  (depth below the surface):

$$\alpha(t) = \frac{H - z(t)}{H} \quad (8)$$

$$z(t) = H \left\{ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\beta t}{H}\right) \right\} \quad (9)$$

$$p(t) = \rho g z(t) \quad (10)$$

The final solution of the diffusion equation (eqn 7) is

$$c(x, T) = \frac{c_0}{2} \left\{ \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{h-x}{2T^{1/2}}\right) + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{h+x}{2T^{1/2}}\right) \right\} \exp\left(\frac{-L\rho}{V_L} gH \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{1+(2\lambda T/D)^{1/2}} \right\}\right) \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Where } T(t) = D_0 \frac{L}{V_L} \rho g H \left\{ \frac{1}{2\lambda} \exp(2\lambda t) - \frac{1}{\lambda} \exp(\lambda t) + \frac{1}{2\lambda} \right\} \quad (12)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\beta}{H} \quad (13)$$

$$D' = D_0 \frac{L}{V_L} \rho g H \quad (14)$$

The constant parameters used for the Siple Dome ice studied are,

$H$	thickness of the ice sheet	1003.8 m
$\rho$	density of bubble ice	$870 (\pm 20) \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

$g$	gravitational acceleration	$9.8 \text{ m s}^{-2}$
$\beta$	mean annual accumulation	$0.11 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$
$V_L$	porosity	$0.05 (\pm 0.02)$
$h$	half the width of a melt layer	$0.00750 (\pm 0.00125) \text{ m}$ for M1 $0.00510 (\pm 0.00085) \text{ m}$ for M2
$t$	bubble gas age	$8.80 \times 10^{10} \text{ sec}$ (2790 yr)

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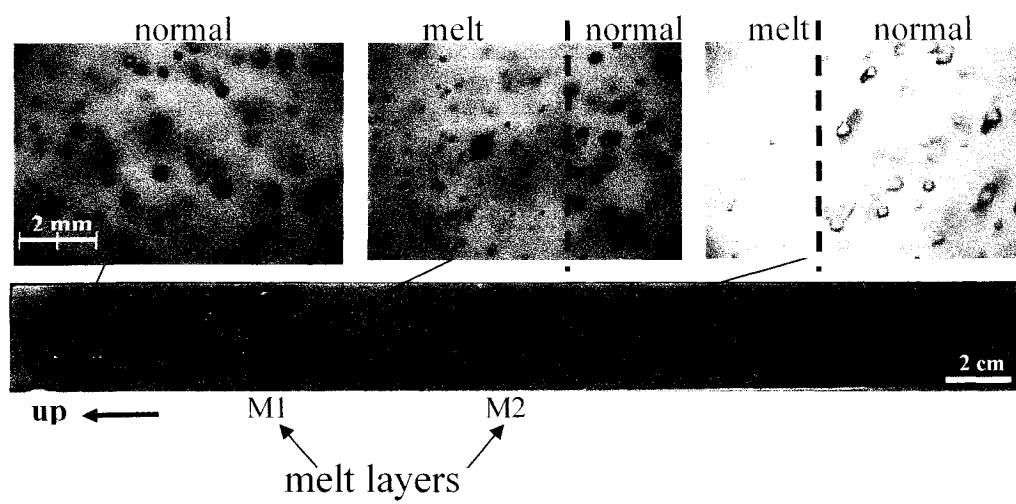
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Table 1. Solubilities of air components in water for Siple Dome.

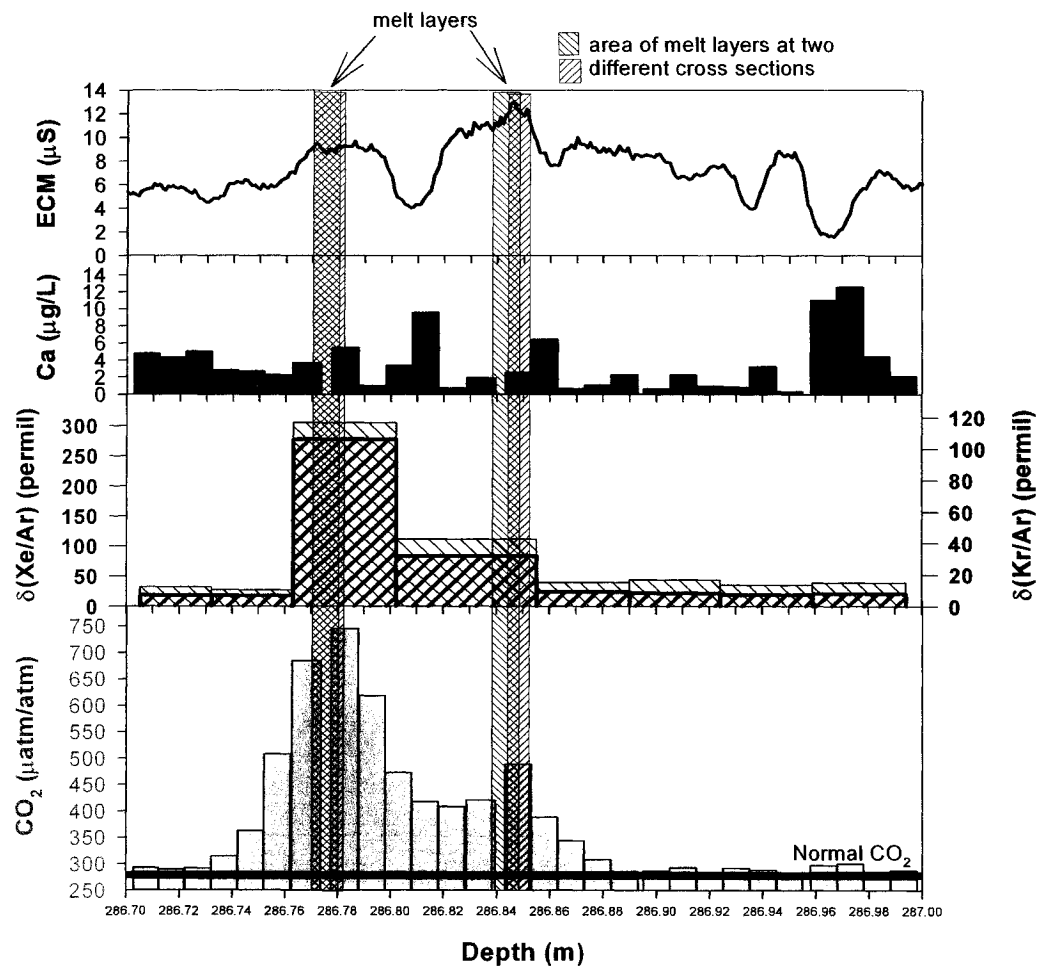
	air	N <sub>2</sub>	O <sub>2</sub>	Ar	CO <sub>2</sub>	Kr	Xe
X <sub>atm</sub>	100%	78.08%	20.95%	0.93%	278 ppm	1.14 ppm	0.087 ppm
X <sub>H2O</sub>	100%	62.38%	34.33%	1.68%	16230 ppm	4.21 ppm	0.679 ppm

X<sub>atm</sub>, composition of atmospheric air; X<sub>H2O</sub>, air dissolved in water at 0 °C and 937 mbar.

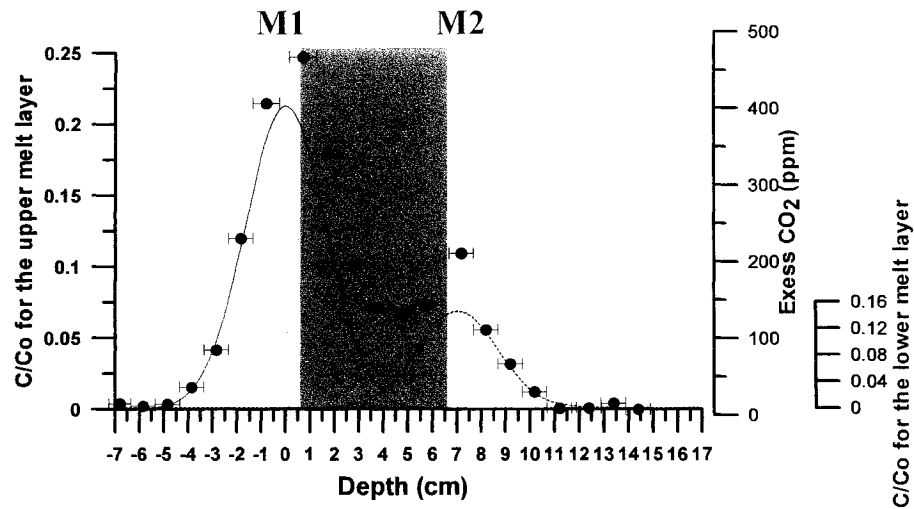


**Figure 1.** Photographs of air bubbles in the Siple Dome ice core. (a) Melt layers visually defined by small bubbles and relatively transparent layer. (b) Microphotographs of air bubbles around melt layers.





**Figure 2.** Variation of ECM (Electric Conductivity measurement, proxy for  $\text{H}^+$ ) in units of  $\mu\text{S}$  (microsiemens),  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ion (upper limit of  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ), Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar (melt layer indicators) and  $\text{CO}_2$  around the melt layers shown in Figure 1.  $\delta(\text{Xe}/\text{Ar})$  and  $\delta(\text{Kr}/\text{Ar})$  are normalized to present atmospheric air. The minor and rather constant enrichment of Kr and Xe are due to gravitational settling in the firm and do not indicate substantial melting/refreezing.



**Figure 3.** Comparison of excess  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration from the observations (red dots) to the prediction by modeling (black line for M1 and blue broken line for M2).  $c_0$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  volume concentration before diffusion;  $c$ , after diffusion. Two different  $(c/c_0)$ s are used for M1 and M2. The horizontal bars are depth intervals of samples. Purple and green areas denote melt layer (M1 and M2). Partial melt layers exist in between. The model curves are fitted to  $\text{CO}_2$  observation in the normal layer. In this model, we assume constant gas content in the ice. Thus, the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations from the melt layer or partial melt layer apparently show higher values than those in the fitting curve because of the small gas contents compared to normal layers.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **Excess CO<sub>2</sub> in an Antarctica ice core: Observations from the Siple Dome**

**Abstract.** The CO<sub>2</sub> records from Antarctic ice cores are considered to be more representative of paleoatmospheric concentrations than those from Greenland ice cores because the low dust content in Antarctic ice minimizes the in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> by carbonate-acid reaction and/or oxidation of organic compounds as observed in Greenland ice cores. Despite general similarities in time series of CO<sub>2</sub> records with other Antarctic ice cores, the Siple Dome ice, at some age intervals, shows higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of up to 20 ppm ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol air}$ ) than those in other Antarctic ice cores [Ahn *et al.*, 2004]. In order to examine the possible mechanisms for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the Siple Dome ice core, we studied several sets of adjacent samples at high depth resolution. CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are compared to melt layer distribution, major ions (Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup>) contents, electric conductivity of ice, noble gas (Xe, Kr, and Ar) contents and <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub>. The main process of the production of the excess CO<sub>2</sub> is possibly the snow melting/refreezing due to the high solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> relative to other atmospheric gas species. Our results show that Antarctic ice samples from relatively warm sites are not an accurate proxy for paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

## 1. Introduction

The CO<sub>2</sub> records derived from Antarctic ice cores are widely believed to be representative of atmospheric concentrations over several glacial-interglacial cycles [Fischer *et al.*, 1999; Petit *et al.*, 1999; Kawamura *et al.*, 2003; EPICA community members, 2004]. This is not the case for CO<sub>2</sub> records from the Greenland ice cores where in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> is due to high dust content including CaCO<sub>3</sub> and

MgCO<sub>3</sub> under acidic conditions [Delmas, 1993] and oxidation of organic compounds [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000], which corrupt the atmospheric record of CO<sub>2</sub>.

Ice cores from high-accumulation sites enable studies of abrupt climate change [Severinghaus *et al.*, 1998]. Samples from high accumulation sites allow studies with high temporal resolution and an accurate assessment of the relative timing between ice isotope variations (i.e.,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ice}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{D}_{\text{ice}}$ : surface temperature proxies) and variations in trapped gases such as atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. However, the mean annual temperatures for the high accumulation sites are typically higher than those for low accumulation sites. This warm temperature may lead to the formation of excess CO<sub>2</sub> due to melting of the snow in summer as previously observed in Greenland ice cores [Neftel *et al.*, 1983; Stauffer *et al.*, 1985]. In the melt CO<sub>2</sub> is more soluble than other atmospheric gas species, leading to uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere.

The Siple Dome ice core site is located near the Antarctic Ross Sea (Figure 1) where the snow accumulation rate is high (12.4 g cm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) [Hamilton, 2003]. The annual mean temperature at Siple Dome (-25.4 °C) is warmer than at other Antarctic ice core sites (Table 1). While the summer air temperature is also well below the melting point, with mean summer temperature of -11.5 °C (standard deviation of 3.1 °C) [Das and Alley, in press], temperatures do reach the melting point during extreme and brief warming events at > 2 °C, and surface melting presently occurs on the order of two to four times per century [Das, 2003]. Observations and field experiments at Siple Dome by Das and Alley [in press] have shown that once the surface crust due to strong capillary forces. The refozen melt in the crust forms visually detectable melt

layers in the ice core that are defined by reduced bubble sizes, and these melt layers have been logged throughout the Siple Dome ice core [Das, 2003].

Despite similarities in the general time series of the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record with other Antarctic ice cores, the Siple Dome ice, at some age intervals, shows higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of up to 20 ppm ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol air}$ ) than in other Antarctic ice cores (Ahn et al., 2004).

Here we discuss possible mechanisms for the production of excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the Siple Dome ice by studying the melt layer distribution, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, major ion content (Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>), electric conductivity and <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> in several sets of vertically adjacent samples.

## 2. Materials and Methods

Ten sets of vertically adjacent samples (1-2 cm depth interval for each) were measured over 10-30 cm intervals for CO<sub>2</sub>, and major ions were measured for 3 of the 10 sets. All the 10 sets are compared to the electric conductivity measurements (ECM) at 1-mm depth resolution. Noble gas ratios (Xe/Ar, Kr/Ar) were measured in several samples to test for solubility effects independently of chemical and biological effects. In addition, <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> was measured and is compared to the excess CO<sub>2</sub>. All samples were carefully trimmed in order to minimize possible modern atmospheric contamination of ice near the outer surface of the core. Storing and cutting was done at -25 °C. The gas extraction and IR spectroscopic methods used are well established [Wahlen et al., 1991; Smith et al., 1997a; Smith et al., 1997b; Ahn et al., 2004]. Trapped air was dry extracted by a mechanical needle crusher of samples of ~ 4 to 6

cm<sup>3</sup> at ~ -50 °C. Then, the total liberated air was frozen into miniature cold traps at temperatures of ~ 32 K. The cooling was achieved with closed cycle He refrigerators. Three standard air samples encompassing the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (161.0, 240.3, and 329.5 ppm) were introduced over the crushed ice for every six samples after the ice had been pumped for 15 minutes, in order to most closely reproduce the conditions under which ice air from the samples was collected. Upon heating the trapped air, the samples were transferred with a metal bellow between two valves into an Infrared (IR) cell in order to obtain the same pressure and temperature for all samples. Measurements were performed several times with tunable diode laser spectroscopy by scanning the single mode laser IR output over a single vibrational-rotational CO<sub>2</sub> absorption line at low pressure (Doppler resolution). From calibrations with standard airs, we calculate the mixing ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> in the ice air (~500 μL STP of air). The internal precision of a CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurement is ±2 ppm.

We used ~ 5 g of ice for major ion concentration measurements. The ice was prepared at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography, and measured at the Climate Change Institute at the University of Maine, using Dionex-500 Ion Chromatography. Major cations (Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and Ca<sup>2+</sup>) were analyzed on Dionex DX-500 ion chromatographs. The cations passed through a CS 12A Cation-exchange column with 25 mM methanesulfonic acid eluent, a self regenerating suppressor, and a conductivity detector. Sample size was 500 μL. An Ion Handler chromatograph was used with a Gilson Liquid autosampler.

### **3. Excess CO<sub>2</sub> and possible production mechanisms**

In general the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record is similar to other Antarctic ice core records (Figure 2) [Ahn *et al.*, 2004]. However, as shown in figure 2b, in some time intervals, the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> records show higher values than those from other Antarctic ice cores by up to 20 ppm. In order to decipher the major mechanisms of excess CO<sub>2</sub> production, we group data for five age intervals (A to E, Figure 2f) and use the CO<sub>2</sub> difference between Siple Dome and Taylor Dome or Dome C (Figure 2c). We call these CO<sub>2</sub> differences between cores “excess CO<sub>2</sub>.” Part of the CO<sub>2</sub> difference during rapid change (group D) can be explained by uncertainties in the age scales. However, during times of slow change in CO<sub>2</sub>, (group A, B, C and E) differences cannot be explained by these uncertainties. During most of the cold period (E in Fig. 2f, 40 to 23 kyrBP) the CO<sub>2</sub> data from Siple Dome ice shows little difference when compared to other cores. Each data point in Figure 2b is an average of six neighboring samples and the scatter is indicated as an error bar (1 $\sigma$ , standard deviation of the mean). The average scatter of CO<sub>2</sub> for each age group is plotted in Figure 3 against excess CO<sub>2</sub> (A to E in Figure 2f) and shows a correlation ( $R = 0.58$  and  $0.42$  for Siple Dome vs. Taylor Dome and Siple Dome vs. Dome C, respectively).

The above observations imply the possibility that there are some artifacts in the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record. Data scattering among neighboring samples can be attributed to variable conditions at the surface or during gas trapping in the firn layer (snowpack). Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change cannot be the cause of the scattering of the record because it would be smoothed out by the gradual bubble close-off process. For example, for Siple Dome ice the smoothing due to the close-off process is about 20-120 years and corresponds to about 200-100 cm thickness of ice, which is much greater than the



depth interval among six samples (usually 1-2 cm). Contamination by modern air through cracks in the ice cannot account for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> because there is high excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the late Holocene Siple Dome ice where fracturing is minimal, but low excess CO<sub>2</sub> in glacial ice where Siple Dome ice is highly fractured [Ahn *et al.*, 2004].

Possible mechanisms for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> include (1) snowmelting-refreezing [Neftel *et al.*, 1983; Stauffer *et al.*, 1985], (2) carbonate-acid reaction [Delmas, 1993; Anklin *et al.*, 1995; Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Anklin *et al.*, 1997; Smith *et al.*, 1997a; Smith *et al.*, 1997b], (3) oxidation of organic compounds abiologically [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000], or biologically [Campen *et al.*, 2003]. Gravitational fractionation [Craig *et al.*, 1988] can only enrich the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration by about 1 ppm.

CO<sub>2</sub> is considerably enriched in melt layers due to the high solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> gas in the melt [Neftel *et al.*, 1983]. For example, at Dye 3, Greenland, the melt layers show a mean CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 1500 ppm [Stauffer *et al.*, 1985]. The mean temperature of Siple Dome is -25.4 °C, and the mean summer temperature is -11.5 °C [Das and Alley, in press]. However, occasional melting events during austral summer were reported [Das, 2003]. At the present surface pressure condition at Siple Dome, we can expect 16,230 μmol CO<sub>2</sub> / mol air in melt water at 0 °C in equilibrium (Andrew Dickson, personal communication). Samples measured in Siple Dome shown in Figure 2 do not include any visible melt layers. However, the occurrence of excess CO<sub>2</sub> is weakly associated with that of melt layers (Figures 2c and 2d). If the melting on the surface is not enough to cause downward melt water percolation and concentration and refreezing in crusts or other high density layers, it may not form visible melt layers in the ice and cannot be detected solely by the size distribution of

bubbles. Similarly, refrozen snow layers have been observed in the vicinity of melt layers during melt experiments at Siple Dome by Das and Alley (in press). However, the effect of this melting even without the formation of distinct melt layers could still be sufficient to increase the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration somewhat in the ice bubbles. For example, in order to produce 20 ppm of excess CO<sub>2</sub>, only 0.5 % by volume of refrozen melt in the ice is required (Figure 4).

Acid-carbonate reactions were suggested to affect the Greenland ice-core CO<sub>2</sub> records [Delmas, 1993; Barnola *et al.*, 1995; Anklin *et al.*, 1995; Smith *et al.*, 1997a and b]. Neftel *et al.* [1988] suggested that the most likely mechanism is the chemical reaction between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and H<sup>+</sup> ( $\text{CaCO}_3 + 2\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), which can occur only when the ice is sufficiently acidic to drive decarbonation, and some CaCO<sub>3</sub> remains in the ice after bubble formation [Smith *et al.*, 1997a]. The potential CO<sub>2</sub> production by the decarbonation reaction can be calculated as shown in figure 2e. During the Holocene period, the average potential CO<sub>2</sub> is 2.65 ppm, which is lower than the observed excess CO<sub>2</sub> values in the Siple Dome ice core (figure 2c). Moreover, it is unlikely that 100 % of the potential CO<sub>2</sub> is produced by decarbonation, because in the calculation we assume that (1) there is enough H<sup>+</sup>, and (2) 100 % of Ca<sup>2+</sup> originates from decarbonation.

Oxidation of organic compounds has been proposed to be at least as important as acid-carbonate reactions for CO<sub>2</sub> production (e.g.,  $2\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{HCHO} \rightarrow 3\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$ ) [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000] (Organic acid concentrations in the Siple Dome ice core have not yet been reported). Hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) is one of the important oxidants of organic compounds in ice. The top 100 m (except 0-2.5 m) of the Siple

Dome ice core shows concentrations near or below the detection limit of  $\sim 0.02 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  [McConnell, 1997]. This  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration is lower than in other Antarctic ice cores [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000] and corresponds to a potential  $\text{CO}_2$  production of less than 5 ppm, assuming an adequate supply of organic acids. This does not easily explain the 20 ppm excess  $\text{CO}_2$ . Beside  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{HCHO}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$  and  $\text{HCOO}^-$  are other oxidants [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000].

Another possible  $\text{CO}_2$  production mechanism is respiration by microorganisms (consuming organic matter and producing  $\text{CO}_2$ ) within the ice [Campen *et al.*, 2003]. In the following section, results from the high depth-resolution study will be discussed to decipher the dominant mechanisms for production of excess  $\text{CO}_2$  in the Siple Dome ice core.

#### **4. High depth resolution study**

In this section we will discuss results from ice samples of three categories: (1) ice with distinct melt layers, (2) ice near melt layers within 20 cm, and (3) ice more than one meter distant from melt layers.

##### **4.1. 30-cm long ice core with strong melt layers**

A 30-cm long ice core segment with strong melt layers was studied intensively. The age of this ice is  $\sim 3.04$  kyrBP (thousand years before 1950). The depth is 286.7 to 287.0 m. Two melt layers ( $\sim 1$  cm thick) in this sample show smaller bubbles than those existing in a normal non-melt layer ice (Figure 5a). Around the melt layers, we observe increased levels of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Figure 5b). The excess  $\text{CO}_2$  reaches up to 470 ppm.

The Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar are used as indicators of extensive snow melting/refreezing, because Xe and Kr are about four and two times more soluble in liquid water, respectively, than Ar [Severinghaus *et al.*, 2003]. We observe significant increases of Xe/Ar and Kr/Ar from the samples that include melt layers or partial melt ice. However, increased levels of excess CO<sub>2</sub> around the melt layers are explained by CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion away from the melt layers toward the neighboring ice. The details of the diffusion are discussed in another paper [Ahn *et al.*, 2005]. The Ca ion content and electric conductivity measurements (ECM) do not correlate with excess CO<sub>2</sub>, nor do they indicate that the excess CO<sub>2</sub> is caused by the decarbonation reaction. Oxidation of organic compounds cannot produce more than 30 ppm of excess CO<sub>2</sub> as shown by the difference between Antarctic and Greenland ice core records [Anklin *et al.*, 1995; Barnola *et al.*, 1995]. The above observations strongly suggest that snow melting/refreezing without formation of visible layers is the major mechanism for the production of excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the vicinity of melt layers.

#### 4.2. Excess CO<sub>2</sub> near melt layers

Figure 6a is the enlarged portion of the right baseline part of Figure 5b. The excess CO<sub>2</sub> at the baseline value far outside the melt layers is  $11.5 \pm 6.0$  ppm ( $1\sigma$ ) (Figure 6a). Two more samples near melt layers were studied (Figures 6b and 6c). Figure 6b shows excess CO<sub>2</sub> up to about 30 ppm near a thin melt layer (2 mm thick). Near the sample adjacent to those shown in Figure 6c, another melt layer is located (6.5 cm from the upper end). The averages of excess CO<sub>2</sub> are  $13.8 \pm 10.2$  ppm ( $1\sigma$ ) and  $15.8 \pm 5.1$  ppm for Figures 6b and 6c, respectively. If the excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the

samples of Figure 6 (average  $13.7 \pm 7.5$  ppm) originated from the refrozen melt, the volume ratio of refrozen melt to total ice is  $0.0034 \pm 0.0019$ . This small amount of melt may not be enough to create any observable size reduction of bubbles. This quantity of refrozen melt corresponds to  $\delta\text{Xe}/\text{Ar}$  and  $\delta\text{Kr}/\text{Ar}$  of  $5.1 \pm 2.8$  ‰ and  $2.8 \pm 0.9$  ‰, respectively. Unfortunately, these are within the experimental precision of 3.8 ‰ and 1.6 ‰ for  $\delta\text{Xe}/\text{Ar}$  and  $\delta\text{Kr}/\text{Ar}$ , respectively (pooled standard errors of triplicate measurements for the GISP2 ice core of the Holocene). Visible melt layers form at pre-existing horizontal strata when melt quantity is large. Therefore, any small-scale melting would not form visible melt layer. Moreover, the thickness of a micro-melt layer on the ice crystal surface increases rapidly as temperature approaches  $0^\circ\text{C}$  with thicknesses of  $>15\text{-}40$  nm depending on techniques used (e.g., *Döppenschmidt and Butt* [2000]; *Sadtchenko and Ewing* [2002]). Combined with a snow surface area of about  $700\text{ cm}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$  ice [*Domine' et al.*, 2001], excess  $\text{CO}_2$  due to micro-melt layers near  $0^\circ\text{C}$  could approach 10 ppm.

The  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration is considered to be an indicator of the flux of sea salt delivered to the ice sheet by snow. The  $\text{Na}^+$  is well correlated with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ( $R = 0.99$ , 0.68 and 0.79 for Figures 6a, 6b and 6c, respectively). Non-sea-salt Ca (nssCa) is calculated using the equation  $\text{nssCa} = \text{Ca}_{\text{ice}} \{1 - \text{Na}_{\text{ice}} (\text{Ca}/\text{Na})_{\text{ocean}}\}$ . This is  $-80$ ,  $+66$ , and  $+61\%$  of the total Ca contents shown in Figures 6a, 6b and 6c. The above features indicate that a significant amount of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  originated from sea salt. We believe that most of the  $\text{CaCO}_3$  originated from land near Antarctica [*Basile et al.*, 1997]. The correlation of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is not significant ( $R=0.002$ , 0.252 and 0.145 for Figures 6a, 6b and 6c, respectively). Also, there is little correlation between  $\text{CO}_2$  and ECM.

Thus, we conclude that the carbonate-acid reaction is not the main contributor to excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the Siple Dome ice core.

#### 4.3. Excess CO<sub>2</sub> far from melt layers

We also studied ice samples at high depth-resolution where no melt layers are observed near samples (within 1 m) (Figure 7). The excess CO<sub>2</sub> and data scattering ( $1\sigma$ ) is noted on the graphs in Figure 7 and averages 8.1 ppm. The average amounts of excess CO<sub>2</sub> are smaller than those near melt layers as shown in Figure 6. The glacial ice exhibits less scattering than Holocene ice (Figures 2b, 6, and 7). Even taking into account the smoothing of CO<sub>2</sub> records, the CO<sub>2</sub> scattering for the glacial ice is still significantly smaller than that for the Holocene ice. Each sample set does not show any significant correlation between CO<sub>2</sub> and ECM.

#### 5. Stable isotopic study on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO<sub>2</sub>

Natural organic acids and other organic materials have much lower values of  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  ( $(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})_{\text{sample}}/(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})_{\text{standard(VPDB)}} - 1) \times 1000$  ‰), approximately -25 ‰, compared to atmospheric  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  (preindustrial value of about -6.5 ‰) and CaCO<sub>3</sub> (0 ~ +4 ‰). Thus, precise  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  values could be used to investigate the sources of excess CO<sub>2</sub>. For example, if the early Holocene CO<sub>2</sub> record has excess CO<sub>2</sub> values of 20 ppm derived from organic materials, it would reduce the  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  value by about 1 ‰.  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  analyses in the Siple Dome ice core are compared to those from the Taylor Dome ice core in Figure 8. Details of the methods and interpretations of the  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$

data are discussed in another paper. The  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  values from the Siple Dome ice are more scattered than those of the Taylor Dome ice, and are depleted by 0.6 ‰ on average. The two minimal  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  values around 12 kyrBP are related to excess  $\text{CO}_2$  of ~ 20 ppm. However, the amount of the depletion (~2.3 ‰) is more than two times greater than that expected by the oxidation of the organic compounds (1 ‰). The scattering of the isotopic values are greater than experimental precision (~0.1 ‰) and can probably be attributed to a kinetic isotopic fractionation in the firn layer (snowpack), probably during snow melting/refreezing. For example, invasion of the light isotope is expected to be faster during uptake by melt water from the atmosphere. If correct, this interpretation implies an isotopic disequilibrium.

## 6. Conclusion

The Siple Dome ice shows higher  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations by up to ~20 ppm than those in other Antarctic ice cores at particular age intervals. This is attributed to non-atmospheric excess  $\text{CO}_2$ . Several possible mechanisms to produce excess  $\text{CO}_2$  are discussed. The most probable process is melting/refreezing of snow. Elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  around distinct melt layers supports this idea. This is the first evidence of excess  $\text{CO}_2$  in an Antarctic ice core, and future coring at warm sites in Antarctica needs to be done cautiously.

**Acknowledgments.** We wish to greatly thank to Sharon Sneed and Jackson Wong for their assistance during experiments. We also give special thank to Bruce Deck for his technical advice. Alane Bollenbacher is appreciated for the preparation of the  $\text{CO}_2$

standard air. Ice cores were kindly cut at the National Ice Core Laboratory. This early work was supported by the Office of Polar Program of the NSF (NSF OPP 99-80619). This chapter is reproduced fully, with permission from: Ahn, J., M. Wahlen, J. Severinghaus, M. Headly, P.A. Mayewski, E.J. Brook, S. Das and K. Taylor (2005) "Excess CO<sub>2</sub> in an Antarctic ice core: Observations from the Siple Dome". Quaternary Science Reviews (to be submitted).



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**Table 1. Glaciological characteristics of the Antarctic ice cores**

Core sites	Mean annual temperature (°C)	Mean accumulation rate as water equivalent (g cm <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	Elevation (m)
<b>Siple Dome</b>	<b>-25.4<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>12.4<sup>b</sup></b>	<b>621<sup>c</sup></b>
Law Dome	-22 ~ -19 <sup>d,e</sup>	60 ~ 110 <sup>e</sup>	1390 <sup>e</sup>
Byrd <sup>f</sup>	-28	16	1530
Taylor Dome	-42 <sup>g</sup>	7 <sup>h</sup>	2374 <sup>h</sup>
EPICA Dome C	-54 <sup>i</sup>	3 <sup>j</sup>	3233 <sup>k</sup>
Vostok <sup>f</sup>	-55.5	2.3	3490
Dome Fuji <sup>l</sup>	-58	3.2	3810

<sup>a</sup>[Severinghaus *et al.*, 2001]; <sup>b</sup>[Hamilton, 2002]; <sup>c</sup>[Taylor *et al.*, 2004b]; <sup>d</sup>[Etheridge and Wookey, 1989]; <sup>e</sup>[Etheridge *et al.*, 1996]; <sup>f</sup>[Raynaud *et al.*, 1993]; <sup>g</sup>[Waddington and Morse, 1994]; <sup>h</sup> as unit of cm ice equivalent per year [Steig *et al.*, 1998]; <sup>i</sup>[Schwander *et al.*, 2001]; <sup>j</sup>[The EPICA Dome C 2001-02 science and drilling teams, 2002]; <sup>k</sup>[Tabacco *et al.*, 1998]; <sup>l</sup>[Dome-F Deep Coring Group, 1998]

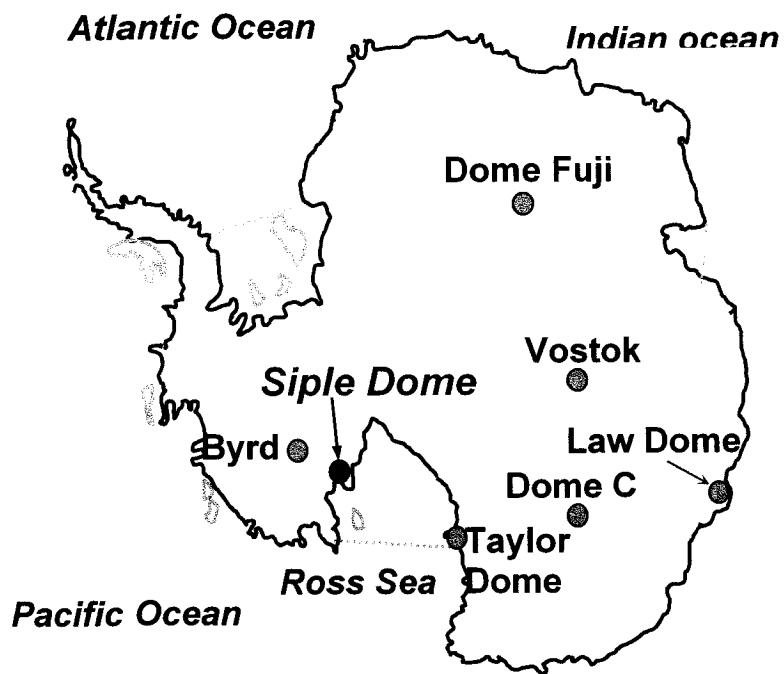


Figure 1. Location map of Antarctic ice cores.

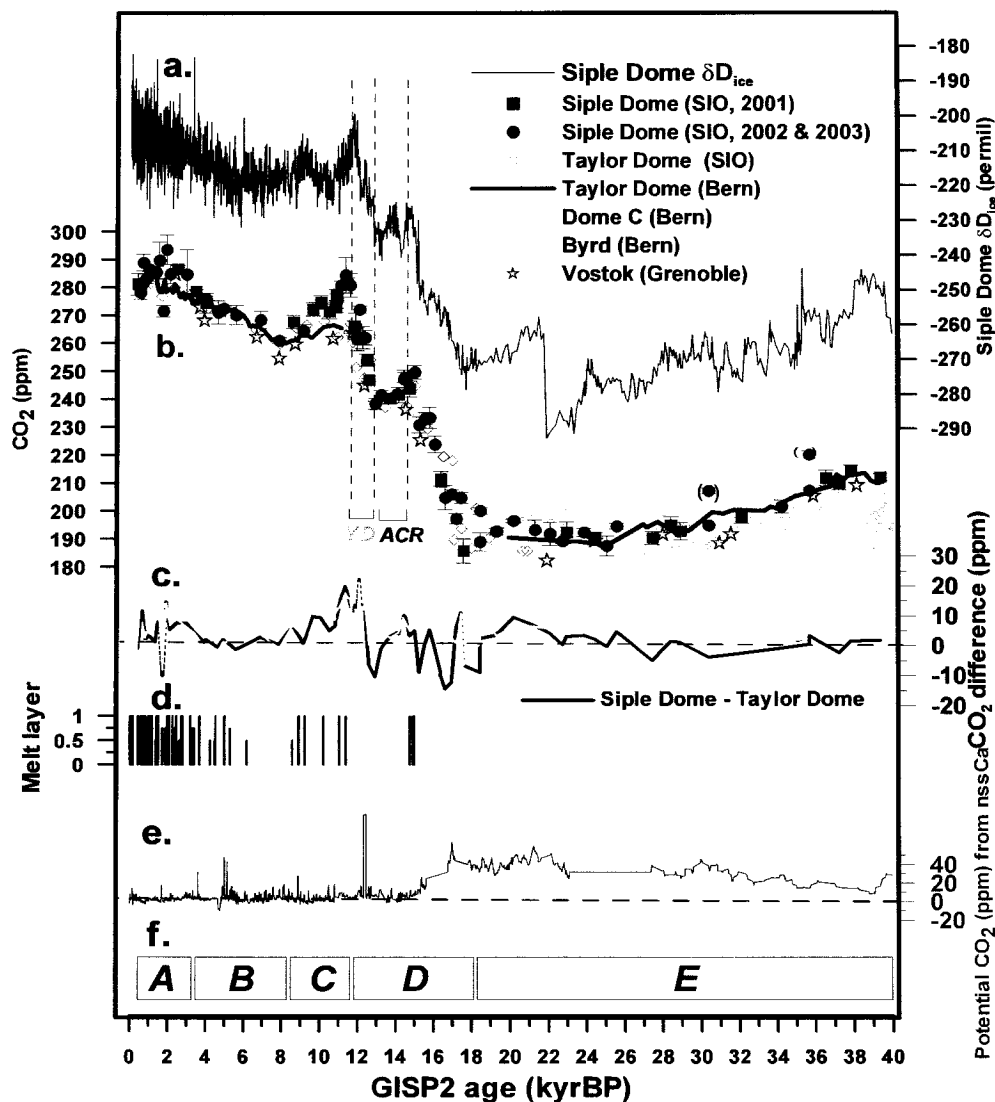


Figure 2. Comparison of Antarctic ice core  $\text{CO}_2$  records on GISP2 gas age scale (modified from *Ahn et al.* [2004]). (a) Siple Dome  $\delta\text{D}_{\text{ice}}$ . (b) Antarctic ice core  $\text{CO}_2$  records. Error bars represent one standard deviation of replicate measurements at the same depth interval. The brackets indicate averages of two anomalously high values of the six samples from the same depth interval. (c) Difference in  $\text{CO}_2$  records. (d) Melt layers [Das, 2003]. The lengths of bars indicate the confidence level. 1, sure; 0.75, probable; 0.5, possible. (e) Potential excess  $\text{CO}_2$  from acid-carbonate reaction. The dashed horizontal line represents 0. Non-sea-salt Ca (nssCa) was assumed to have been in the form of  $\text{CaCO}_3$  and totally reacted with excess  $\text{H}^+$ . (f) Data groups (A ~ E) for the analysis shown in Fig. 3. YD, Younger Dryas; ACR, Antarctic Cold Reversal.

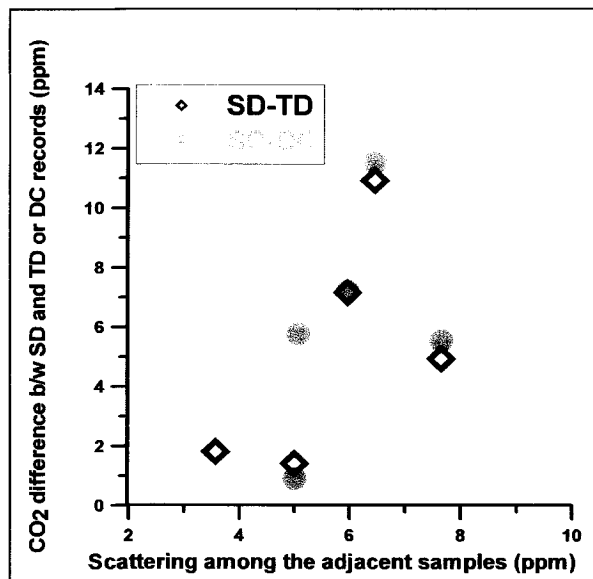


Figure 3. Correlation between data scattering among the adjacent samples ( $1\sigma$ ) and excess CO<sub>2</sub> (CO<sub>2</sub> difference between Siple Dome (SD) and Taylor Dome (TD) or Dome C (DC)). Each symbol represents the average of data points from different age intervals as defined in Fig. 2F. There is a weak correlation between the CO<sub>2</sub> scattering among the adjacent samples and the excess CO<sub>2</sub> ( $R = 0.58$  and  $0.42$  for SD vs. TD and SD vs. DC, respectively). This correlation would be expected if there were an artifact in Siple Dome samples.



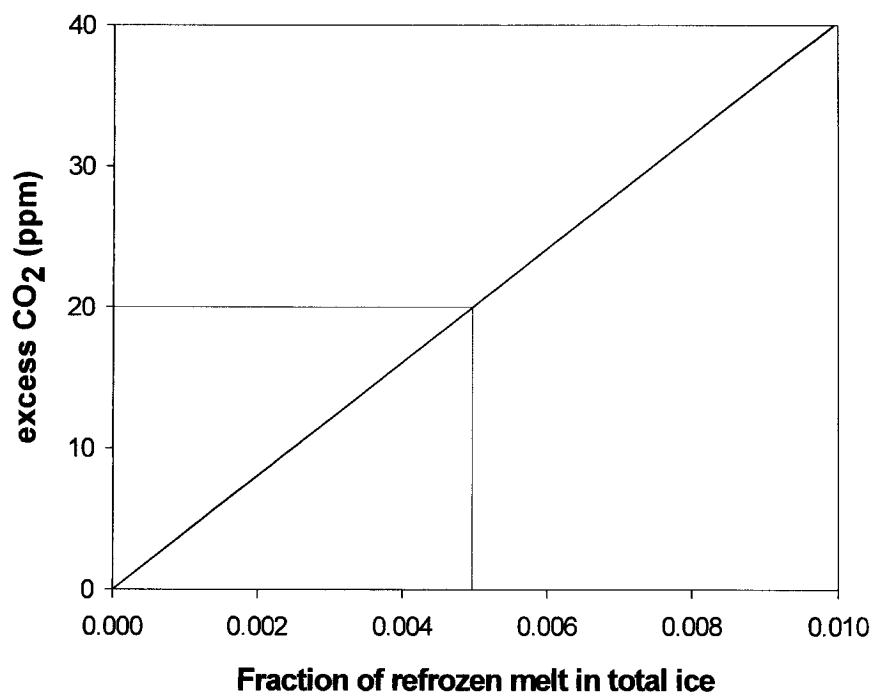


Figure 4. Excess CO<sub>2</sub> from the refrozen ice. 20 ppm of excess CO<sub>2</sub> corresponds to 0.5 % refrozen ice. This calculation assume an atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 278 ppm, barometric pressure of 937 mbar, and a gas contents of 0.111 cc STP air / g ice.

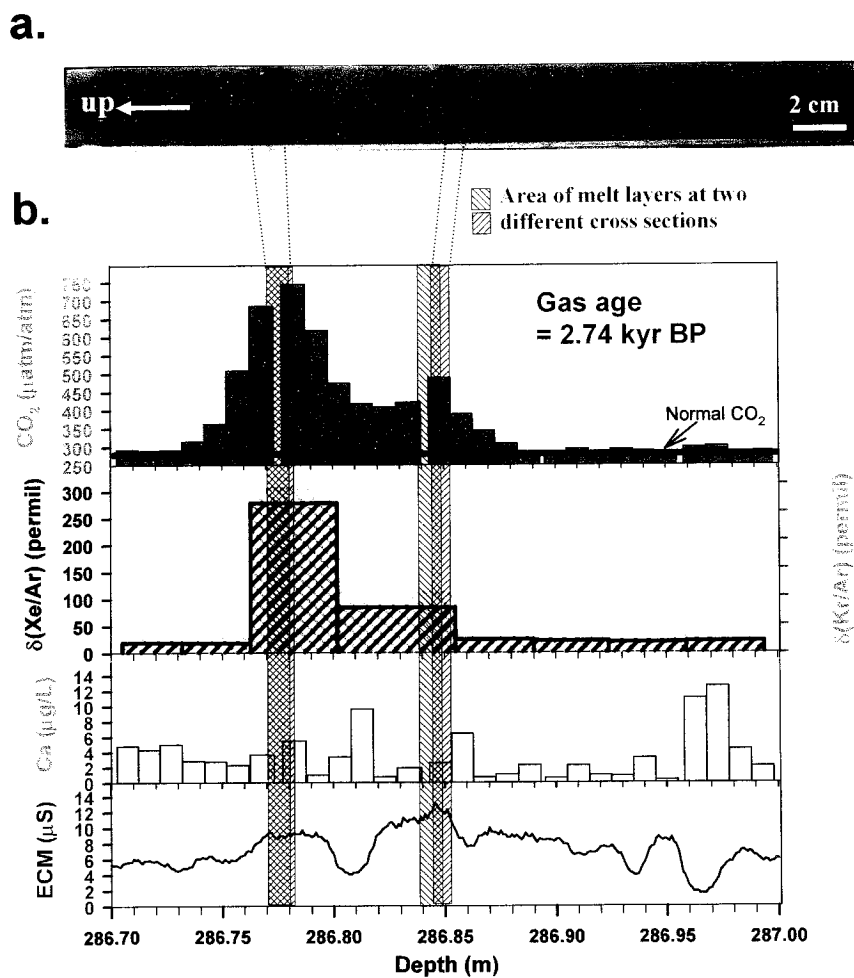


Figure 5. High resolution study around a 30-cm long sample including melt layers (1 cm thick) from the Siple Dome ice core. (a) Photograph of the ice sample (30 cm long). Two melt layers are visible due to reduced light scattering from bubbles. Some features between the two distinct melt layers seem to indicate partial melting. (b) Electric Conductivity Measurement (ECM) is a proxy for H<sup>+</sup>. Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion is used for the estimation of the maximum amount of CaCO<sub>3</sub> involved in the reaction between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and acid. δ(Xe/Ar) and δ(Kr/Ar) are melt indicators and normalized to modern atmospheric air.

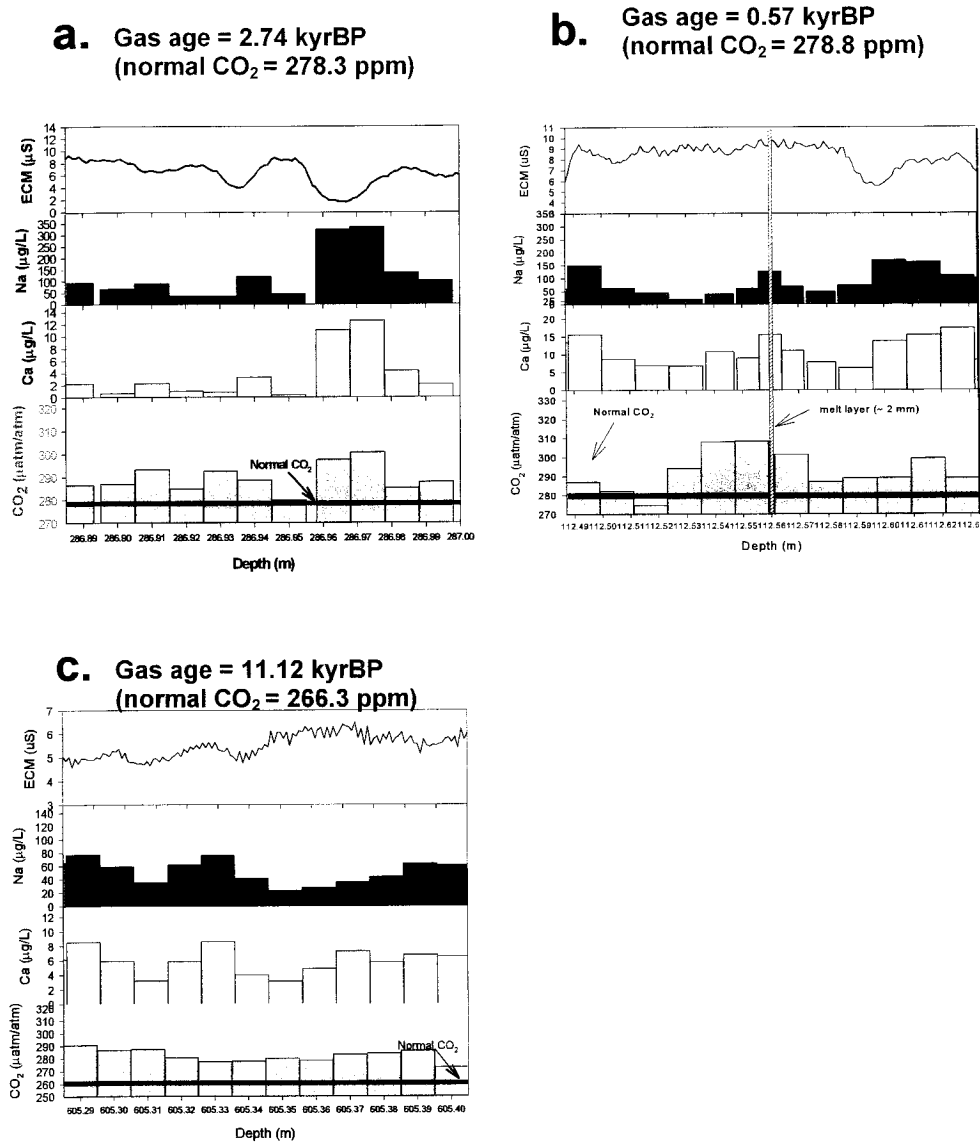


Figure 6. High resolution study of samples near melt layers. Electric conductivity is expressed in  $\mu\text{S}$ , microsiemens. (a) is an enlarged portion of the right part of Figure 5b. Note a melt layer ( $\sim 2\text{mm}$  thick) in (b). Another melt layer is located 6.5 cm above the top sample of Figure 6c. Normal CO<sub>2</sub> levels are average values of the records of Taylor Dome and Dome C.

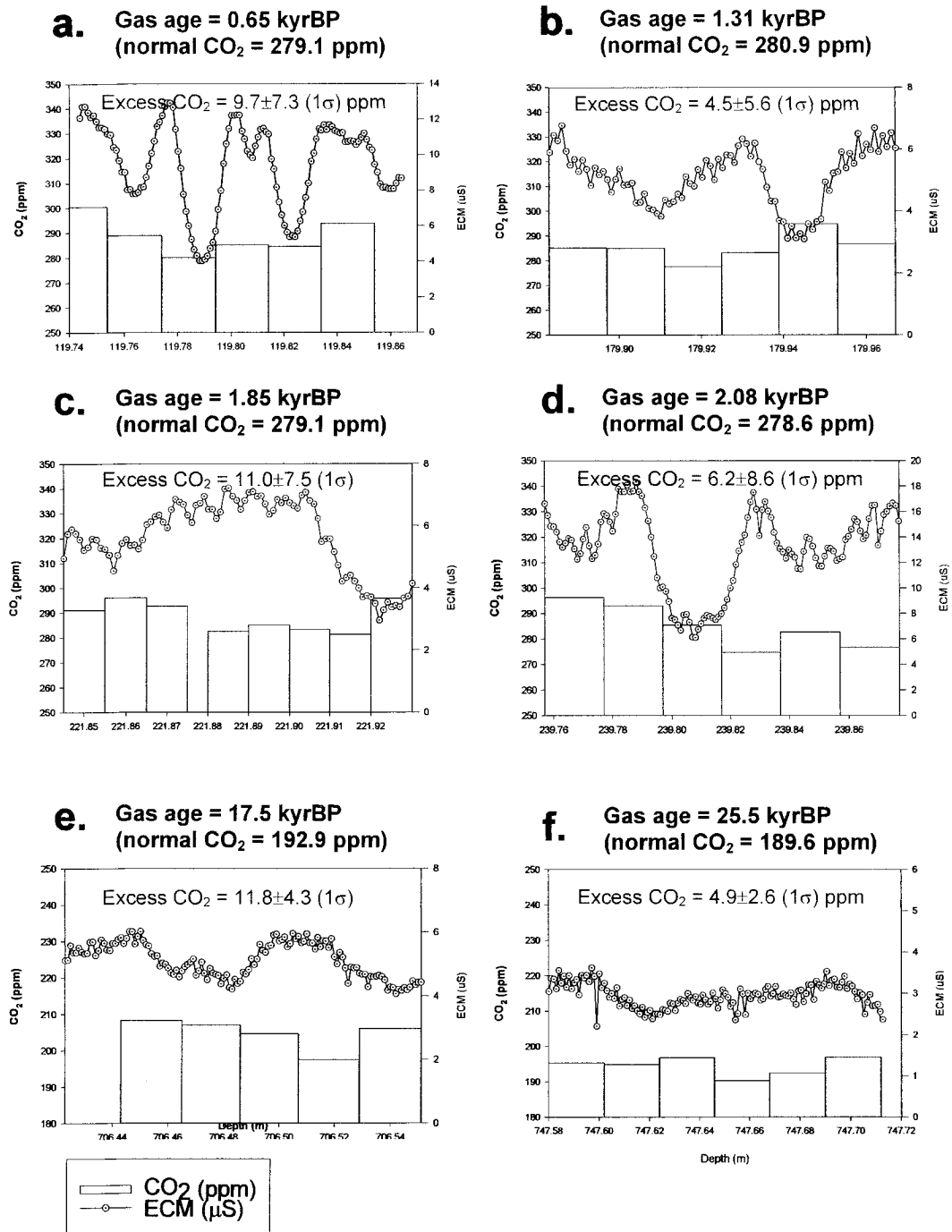


Figure 7. Comparison between excess CO<sub>2</sub> and electric conductivity (ECM) at different depths where melt layers are not observed near the samples. Normal CO<sub>2</sub> levels are taken to be the average values of the records of Taylor Dome and Dome C.

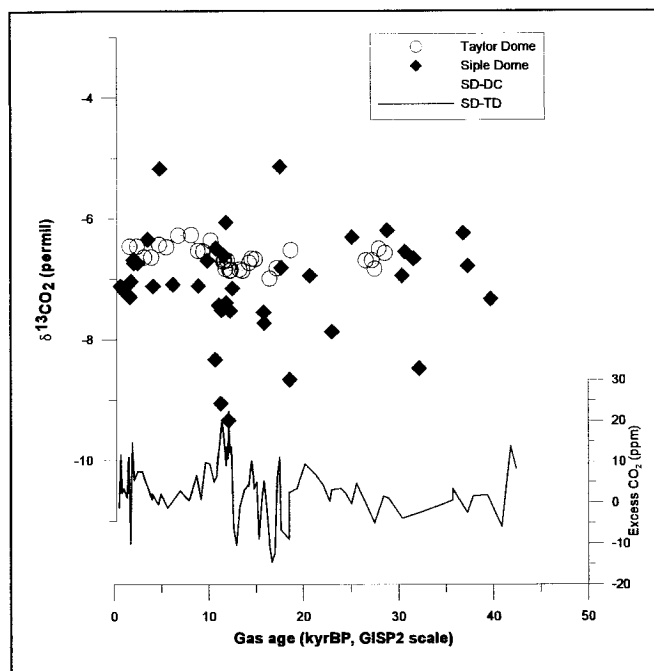


Figure 8. Comparison of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (VPDB) of  $\text{CO}_2$  to excess  $\text{CO}_2$  in Siple Dome records. Excess  $\text{CO}_2$  is defined by the difference in  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations between Siple Dome and Dome C records (green line) or Siple Dome and Taylor Dome records (blue line).

## **CHAPTER V**

### **Carbon isotope composition of CO<sub>2</sub> trapped in Antarctic ice cores covering the last two Terminations**

**Abstract.** We present results of measurements on the carbon isotopic composition of CO<sub>2</sub> gas trapped in the Siple Dome and Vostok ice cores from Antarctica, covering the past 40 kyr BP (thousand years before 1950) and 160-110 kyrBP, respectively. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from the Siple Dome ice are slightly depleted on average by  $\sim 0.6$  ‰ compared to those from the Taylor Dome ice records over the last 28 kyrBP. The scattering in the Siple Dome is much greater than the experimental precision (0.12 ‰). This may be due to variable conditions during gas trapping in the firn layer or laboratory artifacts. Data from the Vostok ice core implies that carbon cycle changes during Termination II occurred in a similar way to those found during Termination I, as observed in Taylor Dome ice. However, the absolute values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for the Vostok ice samples are depleted by more than 1 ‰. This may be due to isotopic fractionation during incomplete gas extraction from the clathrate ice (bubble-free ice). Future studies should include sublimation in order to achieve an extraction efficiency of 100 %.

## 1. Introduction

Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measured at Mauna Loa, Hawaii, since 1958, shows a continuous increase of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from 315 ppm ( $\mu\text{atm}/\text{atm}$ ) to 377 ppm through 2004, with an average annual increase of 1.4 ppm [*Keeling and Whorf, 2005*]. This increase of the most important greenhouse gas, after water vapor, is caused by human activity, such as the combustion of fossil fuels, cement production and land use change including deforestation. To predict our future climate, an understanding of carbon cycling is a prerequisite. Therefore, understanding how the

atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> changed in the past in response to other changes in the climate system provides us with a better understanding of how current and future changes in the carbon cycle will influence our future climate. Ice cores extend the history of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration up to about 800 kyrs [*EPICA Community members, 2004*] and show that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> varied between 180-200 ppm ( $\mu\text{atm/atm}$ , Glacials) and 260-280 ppm (Interglacials) during the last four glacial cycles [*Petit et al., 1999*]. However, the causes of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change and its relationship with other climate factors are not well known.

Carbon isotopes of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> can be used to better characterize the global carbon cycle and carbon budgets [*Keeling et al., 1989; IPCC, 2001*]. The sources and sinks of CO<sub>2</sub> including the major carbon reservoirs produce isotopically distinct CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, comparison to the atmospheric inventory can yield constraints for the global budgets. Despite high demand for paleoatmospheric  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $((^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})_{\text{sample}}/(^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C})_{\text{standard(VPDB)}} - 1) \times 1000 \text{ ‰})$ ) to constrain carbon cycle models for the glacial-interglacial changes [*Broecker and Henderson, 1998; Sigman and Boyle, 2000*], only a few  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ice core data may be confidently related to air prior to the Holocene period. *Leuenberger et al. [1992]* reported  $0.3 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$   $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  differences between the glacial and Holocene periods from an ice core drilled at Byrd Station, Antarctica. Also, *Smith et al. [1999]* reported  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  changes during the last 27 kyrs (thousand years) using the Antarctic Taylor Dome ice core. For the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  difference between the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) and the Holocene in the Taylor dome ice core, *Smith et al. [1999]* find 0.16 ‰. However, the difference during



Termination I (18 to 12 kyrBP) is 0.7 ‰ [Smith *et al.*, 1999]. Taylor Dome ice is considered as a better proxy for palaeoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> measurements than other Antarctic ice cores because of good core quality (no severe cracking) and the fact that it is entirely bubble ice. Bubble-free ice (clathrate ice) may induce isotopic fractionation during dry extraction (extraction efficiency < 100 %).

Possible causes of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change during glacial-interglacial periods are discussed in Sigman and Boyle [2000] and Kohfeld *et al.* [2005]. Table 1 summarizes the changes in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and δ<sup>13</sup>C due to known climatic changes during the glacial-interglacial transition. There are significant discrepancies between model predictions and observations by measurements. Many hypotheses are suggested to explain the gaps, like biological processes, such as a change in iron fertilization of marine biota due to variations in atmospheric dust deposition to the Southern ocean [Martin, 1990] or physical processes such as the changes in the sea ice coverage [Stephens and Keeling, 1999] or ocean stratification [Toggweiler, 1999].

In order to confirm the previous δ<sup>13</sup>C data and reveal a longer history of the atmospheric glacial-interglacial carbon-isotope change, we studied the Siple Dome Antarctic ice covering the last 40 kyrs and the Vostok Antarctica core covering the Termination II (160-110 kyrBP).

## **2. Methods**

### **2.1. Sample extraction and δ<sup>13</sup>C measurements**

This study used Siple Dome ice consisting of bubble ice and Vostok clathrate ice, which is bubble-free ice. The Siple Dome ice core, drilled in 1997–1999, was

measured for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from 2001-2005. Also, six bubble-free Vostok ice samples from Termination II were measured in 2004 concurrently with the Siple Dome ice samples. The ice samples used for this study were physically adjacent to those used for  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration measurements in *Ahn et al.* [2004] and *Fischer et al.* [1999]. The mean annual temperatures, accumulation rates and drilling fluids used for the Siple Dome, Taylor Dome and Vostok ice cores are listed in Table 1. The mean annual temperature and accumulation rate at Siple Dome ( $-25.4\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ;  $12.4\text{ g cm}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) are greater than those at Vostok ( $-55.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ;  $2.3\text{ g cm}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and Taylor Dome ( $-42\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ;  $7\text{ g cm}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). All the samples were stored and crushed at  $-25\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . 200 ~ 400 grams of ice were trimmed carefully using a band saw to minimize possible contamination by modern air and/or drilling fluid. However, in some Siple Dome samples the smell of drilling fluid was present even after the trimming of the ice surface by about 1 cm. The traces of drilling fluid may have isobarically interfered with  $\text{CO}_2$  in the mass spectrometer. Different drilling fluids and their properties are shown in Table 1. For most of the Siple Dome samples, no significant drilling fluid fragments (produced in the ion source, possible isobaric interference) were detected by  $m/z$  scanning in the mass spectrometer. We used the same dry extraction technique as for the Taylor Dome ice [*Smith et al.*, 1999]. Sample disintegration was achieved by crushing in a stainless steel container that had inward-facing spikes (Figure 1). After about 1 hr crushing,  $\text{CO}_2$  was then separated cryogenically [*Smith et al.*, 1999] in a glass vacuum extraction line (Figure 1).

After crushing, the sample gases were passed through three coil traps (T1~T3). The bleeding rate was controlled by a Gilmont<sup>®</sup> micrometer capillary valve (B) at a flow rate of  $< 3\text{ cm}^3\text{ STP / min}$ . Most water vapor was frozen on the glass coil T1

cooled with ethanol to  $\sim -80^\circ\text{C}$ . The other coils (T2 and T3) were immersed in liquid nitrogen ( $-196^\circ\text{C}$ ) and as air passed through both  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  were condensed. The path length of a coil was about 130 cm per glass coil. Non-condensable gases (e.g.,  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$ ) were pumped with mechanical and turbomolecular pumps through the main valves V11 and V12. The pressure within the extraction line was low enough not to trap  $\text{O}_2$  in the liquid nitrogen traps by keeping the flow rate low.  $\text{CO}_2$  was separated from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  through a series of transfers from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, then T3 to a glass finger by warming up T3 to  $-80^\circ\text{C}$  while keeping the glass finger at  $-196^\circ\text{C}$ . Fractionation during the gas extraction was determined using an air cylinder (tank #75859, see Table 3) which was compressed with dry air at high pressure. A series of aliquots, one-liter glass flasks, were filled with cylinder air to atmospheric pressure. Then, following the above protocol, flask air was introduced over the ice and bled and collected at the same flow rate.

The isotopic composition of the isolated  $\text{CO}_2$  samples were measured on a triple-collector, VG-Prism II dual inlet mass spectrometer, following a strict analytical protocol.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the  $\text{CO}_2$  of standards relative to VPDB are listed in Table 3.

## 2.2. Data correction and precision

The protocol for determining isotopic ratios of  $\text{CO}_2$  is outlined and summarized in Table 4. We followed the suggestions of *Francey and Allison* [1992], and measured our samples against pure  $\text{CO}_2$  working standards (referenced against VPDB). We applied a 3 point NBS correction, applied a “daily correction” for gas fractionation during gas extraction and machine drift, and corrected for  $^{17}\text{O}$  (Craig

correction). We corrected for N<sub>2</sub>O (which results in isobaric interference with CO<sub>2</sub>), and corrected for gravitational fractionation using δ<sup>15</sup>N to obtain a final value for the ratio of <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C relative to VPDB. The composition of the working standard, MW1 is -42.405 ‰ for δ<sup>13</sup>C and -27.767 ‰ for δ<sup>18</sup>O (both relative to VPDB). A one-liter aliquot of this standard was used for mass spectrometric measurements [Bollenbacher *et al.*, 1998; Guenther *et al.*, 2001].

Correction for gas extraction fractionation and a “daily correction” for machine drift was inferred from standard air (Tank #75859) and secondary standards. The air was equilibrated over the ice sample and extracted on the same day as the sample. After following the same correction process as above, the difference between the assigned standard values and the extracted air was calculated and added to the ice sample value. Reproducibility from this extraction procedure was observed to be ± 0.11 ‰ for δ<sup>13</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub>.

In addition, the δ<sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> values reported here were corrected for the gravitational fractionation of gases of different masses in the firm (snowpack), and for the presence of N<sub>2</sub>O. Gravitational separation in the firm was determined by using the values of δ<sup>15</sup>N of air trapped in Siple Dome ice from [Brook *et al.*, 2005] and in Vostok ice from [Jeff Severinghaus, unpublished data].

The total 1σ uncertainty for δ<sup>13</sup>C of a single sample, including uncertainties in the gravitational and N<sub>2</sub>O corrections, was 0.12 ‰. Most of the experimental uncertainty comes from the correction for the isotopic fractionation during the CO<sub>2</sub> separation.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Siple Dome ice for the past 40 kyrs

In Figure 2,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the Siple Dome ice samples is compared to that of Taylor Dome ice [Smith *et al.*, 1999]. On average, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the Holocene (11.6-0 kyrBP) and Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 28-17.5 kyrBP) are  $-7.04 (\pm 0.79) \text{‰}$  and  $-7.32 (\pm 0.94) \text{‰}$ , respectively. The  $0.28 \text{‰}$  difference between the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the LGM and Holocene is greater than that of Taylor Dome ( $0.16 \text{‰}$ ) and comparable the results of  $0.19 \pm 0.18 \text{‰}$  by Leuenberger *et al.* [1992] for the Byrd ice core between the period 20-40 kyrBP and the early Holocene. However, the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the Siple Dome are depleted compared to those from the Taylor Dome ice by  $0.58 \text{‰}$  and  $0.67 \text{‰}$  for the Holocene and LGM, respectively. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the Siple Dome data ranges from  $\sim -9.5$  to  $-5 \text{‰}$  in contrast to the small range of the Taylor Dome record ( $-6.99$  to  $-6.27 \text{‰}$ ). Considering the estimated analytical precision of about  $0.12 \text{‰}$ , the difference cannot be accounted for by analytical uncertainty during  $\text{CO}_2$  separation or measurement in the mass spectrometer. The difference does not seem to be gas fractionation during the gas liberation from the crushed ice because we used the same tools and methods as for Taylor Dome ice [Smith *et al.*, 1999]. The only difference in methods between this study and Smith *et al.* [1999] is the duration of the crushing of ice (1 hour for the Siple Dome ice and 30 minutes for the Taylor Dome ice).

Figure 3 is a mixing diagram, where the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is plotted against inverse  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration. Addition or removal of  $\text{CO}_2$  with a given  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  would create a trend in

the data with a nearly straight line with the  $y$ -intercept approximately equal to the isotopic composition of the net CO<sub>2</sub> added to, or subtracted from, the atmosphere. The  $y$ -intercepts are  $-13.7 (\pm 9.3) \text{‰}$ ,  $-12.5 (\pm 2.5) \text{‰}$ , and  $1.8 (\pm 7.5) \text{‰}$  for the Holocene (11.6-0 kyrBP), Termination I (17.5-11.6 kyrBP), and Glacial period (40-17.5 kyrBP), respectively. The net CO<sub>2</sub> source during Termination I seems to be lighter than that of the Glacial period. This is different from the previous results for the Taylor Dome ice core [Smith et al., 1999]. However, the interpretation of the Siple Dome  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  should be considered cautiously due to the mechanisms related to excess CO<sub>2</sub> production.

Despite similarities in general time series of the CO<sub>2</sub> records with other Antarctic ice cores, the Siple Dome ice, at certain age intervals, shows higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of up to 20 ppm than those in other Antarctic ice cores [Ahn et al., 2004]. This difference is attributed to the production of excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the ice. Possible mechanisms for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> include (1) snowmelting-refreezing [Neftel et al., 1983; Stauffer et al., 1985], (2) carbonate-acid reaction [Delmas, 1993; Barnola et al., 1995; Anklin et al., 1995; Anklin et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1997a; Smith et al., 1997b], and (3) oxidation of organic compounds abiologically [Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000], or biologically [Campen et al., 2003]. These processes would also alter  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . For example, 20 ppm of excess CO<sub>2</sub> by the carbonate-acid reaction would increase  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  by about 0.2 ‰ whereas oxidation of organic compounds would decrease  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  by about 1 ‰. In Figure 4,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is plotted against the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration difference between Siple Dome and Taylor Dome. Two distinct low  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data points ( $\sim -9 \text{‰}$ ) at around 11-12 kyrBP are observed. They were measured in a different year confirming their repeatability. They are lower than in the Taylor Dome ice by  $\sim 2.3 \text{‰}$ . These data are

observed for the maximum excess CO<sub>2</sub> (19.4 and 22.1 ppm). If these δ<sup>13</sup>C depletions are caused by oxidation of organic compounds, 46 ppm of excess CO<sub>2</sub> are required. This is greater than our observation of excess CO<sub>2</sub> (~ 20 ppm). The most likely process for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> is the melting/refreezing process in the Siple Dome ice core as discussed in Chapter IV. CO<sub>2</sub> is highly soluble compared to other atmospheric gases. Isotopic fractionation in CO<sub>2</sub> could occur during both melting and refreezing. The isotopic fractionation of the air CO<sub>2</sub> in equilibrium with water at 0 °C is -10.83 ‰ [Mook *et al.*, 1974]. δ<sup>13</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> of ice with melt layers have not been reported. However, these processes could significantly scatter the δ<sup>13</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub>. In Figure 5, δ<sup>13</sup>C is plotted against inverse excessCO<sub>2</sub> to decipher the major source for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 5). The y-intercepts for the Holocene and the last glacial period are -6.78 ± 0.25 ‰ and -7.39 ± 0.18 ‰, respectively, and do not clearly identify any specific sources for the excess CO<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.2. Vostok ice covering Termination II (160-110 KyrBP)

Six samples from Termination II are compared to the Taylor Dome record around Termination I (Figure 6). The samples from Vostok ice are clathrate ice (bubble-free ice), whereas the Taylor Dome samples are all bubble ice [Smith *et al.*, 1999]. We observe a δ<sup>13</sup>C increase during the Termination II concurrent with the increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Also, the trend is similar to that observed in Taylor Dome ice (open diamonds). This suggests that an isotopically heavy net source of CO<sub>2</sub> increased the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> inventory, although assignment of this CO<sub>2</sub> to a particular source is complex. However, the order of the change in δ<sup>13</sup>C of the Vostok

ice is much greater than in the Taylor Dome record by a factor of up to 4. Moreover, all the values of Vostok ice samples are more depleted by 1 to 3 ‰ than those of the Taylor Dome ice. One of the possibilities for the depletion in Vostok  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is gas fractionation during the gas extraction caused by different gas diffusion in the clathrate ice. We expect different diffusion rates for atmospheric gas species when the air emerges from the clathrate ice [Ikeda-Fukazawa *et al.*, 2001; Ikeda-Fukazawa *et al.*, 2005]. The different gas diffusion rates may affect the isotopic fractionation for incomplete gas extraction from clathrate ice. The relative diffusion rates are not well established. To prevent this isotopic fractionation, we would have to increase the gas extraction yield to 100 %. Our crushing method gives an extraction yield of about 50%. Further study should include ice-sublimation in order to obtain 100% gas extraction from the clathrate ice and to avoid isotopic fractionation due to incomplete gas extraction (Figure 7). Our preliminary work for the sublimation took 5 to 7 hours for 200 g of ice and gave very depleted values for unknown reasons.

## 5. Conclusion

The measurements of the isotopic value of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the  $\text{CO}_2$  gas trapped in the Siple Dome and Vostok Antarctic ice cores show very scattered and somewhat depleted values compared to the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  Taylor Dome ice core record. This may be related to surface conditions, possibly micro-scale melting on the snow surface, or laboratory artifacts. Vostok ice around Termination II shows a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  increase during the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration increase suggesting that the main net source for the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  change during the deglaciations is isotopically heavy. However, the



magnitude of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  change is much greater than that in Taylor Dome ice and absolute values are also very depleted by 1-3 ‰. This depletion may be explained by isotopic fractionation during the gas extraction procedure with mechanical crushing of the ice. A sublimation technique may increase the extraction yield to 100 % and reduce the chance of isotopic fractionation during the gas extraction.

**Acknowledgments.** We wish to thank Alane Bollenbacher for the preparation of the  $\text{CO}_2$  standard air. We also greatly thank Jackson Wong for assistance during experiments. Hubertus Fischer provided an apparatus for sublimation of ice. Ice cores were kindly cut at the National Ice Core Laboratory. This early work was supported by the Office of Polar Program of the NSF (NSF OPP 99-80619). This chapter is reproduced fully, with permission from: Ahn, J., M. Wahlen, and B. Deck (2005) "Carbon isotope composition of  $\text{CO}_2$  trapped in Antarctic ice cores covering the last two Terminations" (to be submitted to a scientific journal).

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**Table 1. The effect on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of changes in various processes during the glacial-interglacial transition. Modified from *Fischer et al.* [2003].**

Processes from LGM to Holocene	Change in atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub> (ppm)	Change in atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
Increase in terrestrial carbon (600 PgC)	-43 (-32 to -97)	0.36 (0.27 to 0.80)
Increase in sea surface temperature (5° low latitude, 2.5° high latitude)	30 (15 to 40)	0.43 (0.24 to 0.60)
Salinity decrease	-15	-
Sum	-28 (-97 to -7)	0.79 (0.51 to 1.40)
Measured	90	0.2 (0.7)

**Table 2. Characteristics of the Antarctic ice cores from which  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  gas has been measured.**

<b>Core name</b>	<b>Mean annual temperature (<math>^{\circ}\text{C}</math>)</b>	<b>Mean accumulation rate (water equivalent) (<math>\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}</math>)</b>	<b>Drilling fluid used Chemical formula (form. wt.)</b>
Siple	-25.4 <sup>a</sup>	12.4 <sup>b</sup>	n-butyl acetate
Dome			$\text{C}_5\text{H}_{11}\text{COOH}$ (116.2)
Taylor	-42 <sup>c</sup>	7 <sup>d</sup>	n-butyl acetate
Dome			$\text{C}_5\text{H}_{11}\text{COOH}$ (116.2)
Vostok <sup>e</sup>	-55.5	2.3	Kerosene, ~n-dodecane $\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{26}$ (170.3) Freon, CFC11 $\text{CCl}_3\text{F}$ (137.4)

<sup>a</sup>[Severinghaus *et al.*, 2001]; <sup>b</sup>[Hamilton, 2002]; <sup>c</sup>[Waddington and Morse, 1994]; <sup>d</sup> as unit of cm ice equivalent per year [Steig *et al.*, 1998]; <sup>e</sup>[Raynaud *et al.*, 1993].

**Table 3. Standards used to calibrate measurements**

<b>Standard</b>	<b>Description</b>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰)	<b>Ref.</b>
<i>Working standard</i>				
MW1	pure CO <sub>2</sub>	-42.405	-27.767	(1)
<i>Reference materials</i>				
NBS16	pure CO <sub>2</sub>	-41.48	-36.09	(2)
NBS17	pure CO <sub>2</sub>	-4.41	-18.71	(2)
NBS19*	limestone	1.95	-2.2	(3)
<i>Secondary standards for daily correction</i>				
Tk #39414	CO <sub>2</sub> (w/ N <sub>2</sub> O)	-8.360	-5.244	
Tk #2407	CO <sub>2</sub> (w/ N <sub>2</sub> O)	-7.740	-2.800	
<i>Standard dry air used for the correction of the fractionation during CO<sub>2</sub> extraction</i>				
Tk #75859	air (w/ N <sub>2</sub> O)	-8.282	-0.266 ± 0.049 (9)	(1)

\*A small fractionation exists in dissolution of limestone by phosphoric acid

Reference:

(1) *Bollenbacher et al.* [1998]; (2) *Coplen et al.* [1983]; (3) *Friedman et al.* [1982]



**Table 4. Corrections applied to stable isotope measurements**

Corrections	
Sample-MW1	$\delta^{45}/44 = (\delta^{45}/44_{\text{sample}}/\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{MW1-PDB}}-1)*10^3 \quad (1)$ $\delta^{46}/44 = (\delta^{46}/44_{\text{sample}}/\delta^{18}\text{C}_{\text{MW1-PDB}}-1)*10^3$
NBS	$\delta^{45}/44' = (0.995034*\delta^{45}/44) + 0.05901 \quad (1)$ $\delta^{46}/44' = (1.00758*\delta^{46}/44) + 0.21137$
O-17 (Craig corr.)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_C = ((1.0676*\delta^{13}\text{C}_B)-(0.0338338*\delta^{18}\text{O}_B))/0.99992902 \quad (2)$ $\delta^{18}\text{O}_C = ((1.0010*\delta^{18}\text{O}_B)-(0.00224196*\delta^{13}\text{C}_B))/0.99992902$
N <sub>2</sub> O	$\delta^{13}\text{C} = ((2.24*I) + 221)*[\text{N}_2\text{O}]/[\text{CO}_2] \quad (3)$ $\delta^{18}\text{O} = ((3.46*I) + 331)*[\text{N}_2\text{O}]/[\text{CO}_2]$

I = current of mass 44 in nA.

Reference:

(1) *Bollenbacher et al.* [1998]; (2) *Craig* [1957]; (3) *Wahlen* [personal communication]

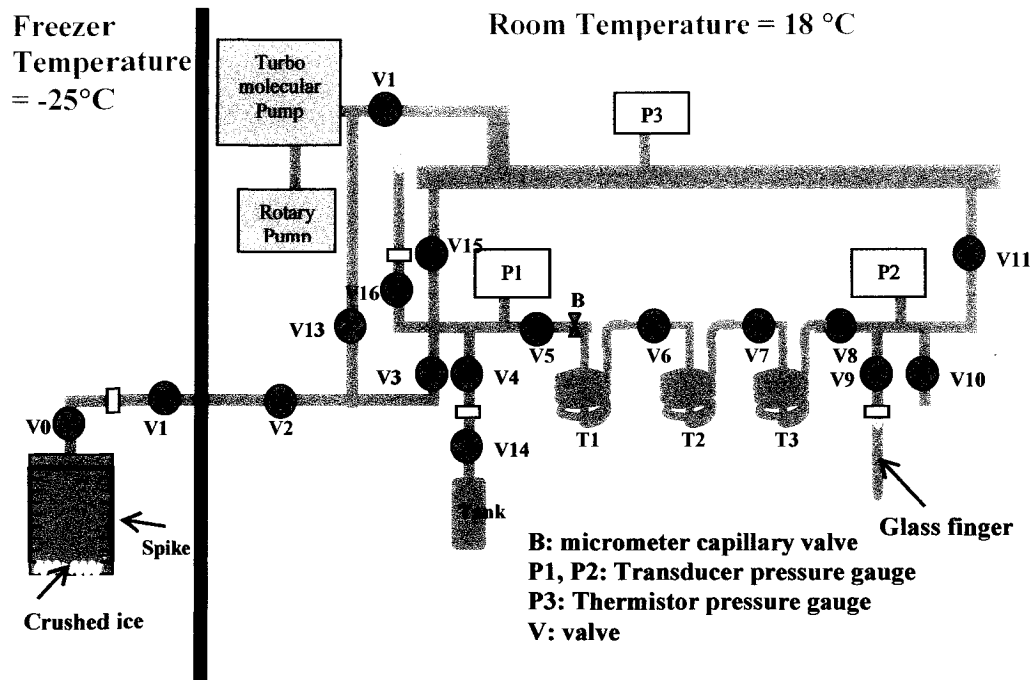


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the  $\text{CO}_2$  extraction line for stable isotopic study. Details are in text.

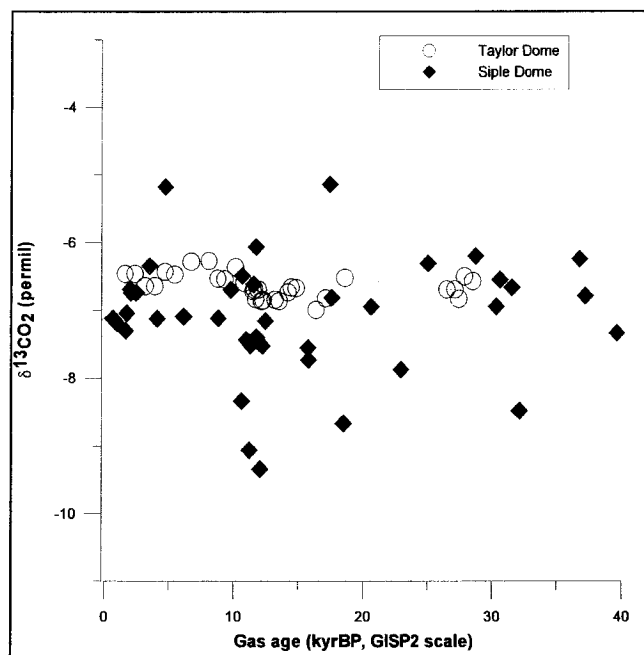


Figure 2. Siple Dome ice core  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  results. Internal precision is about 0.1 ‰. Corrected for gravitational fractionation using *Brook et al.* [2005].

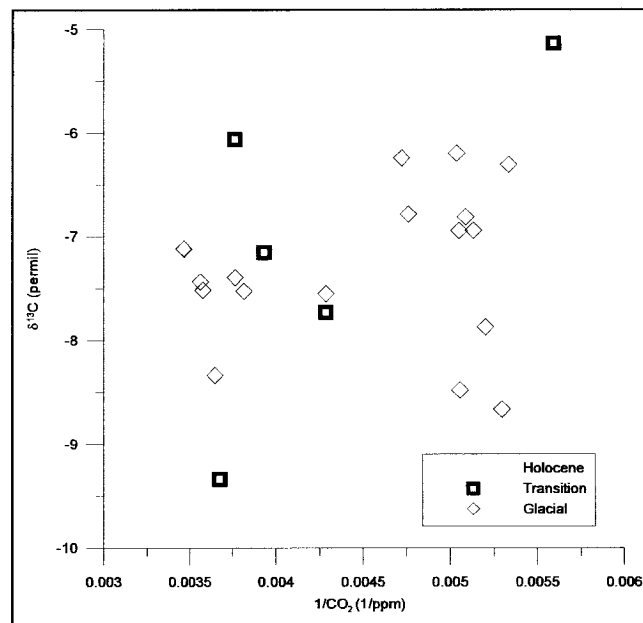


Figure 3. Siple Dome Ice core  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  versus  $1/\text{CO}_2$ . Three different age groups are indicated by different colors.

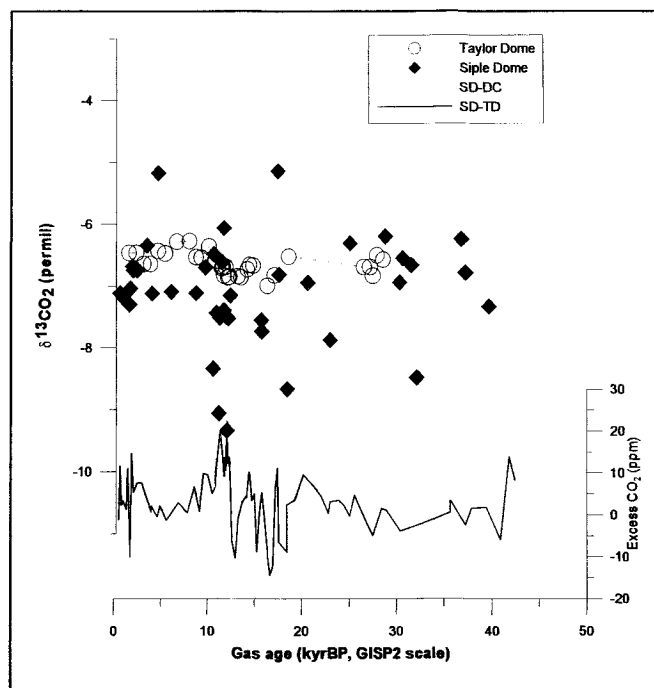


Figure 4. Comparison of Siple Dome Ice core  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  to excess  $\text{CO}_2$  [Ahn *et al.*, 2004]. Excess  $\text{CO}_2$  is defined by  $\text{CO}_2$  difference between Siple Dome and Taylor Dome (blue line) or Dome C (green line).

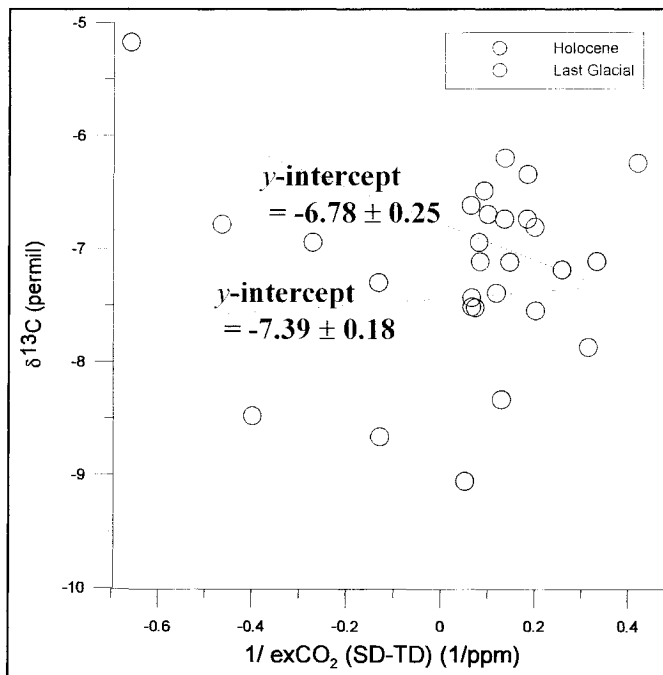


Figure 5. Comparison of Siple Dome Ice core  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $1/(\text{excess CO}_2)$ . Excess  $\text{CO}_2$  is defined by the difference between the Taylor Dome and Siple Dome.

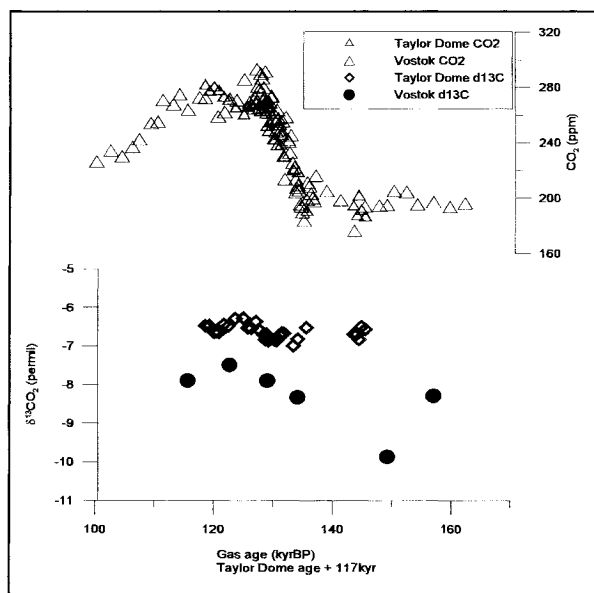


Figure 6. Comparison of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{CO}_2$  from Vostok Ice during Termination II and Taylor Dome during Termination I [Smith *et al.*, 1999]. In order to compare Termination I of Taylor Dome to Termination II of Vostok ice, ages for Taylor Dome are obtained using 117 kyr for the separation between Termination I and II. Correction for gravitational fractionation was done using [Severinghaus, unpublished data].

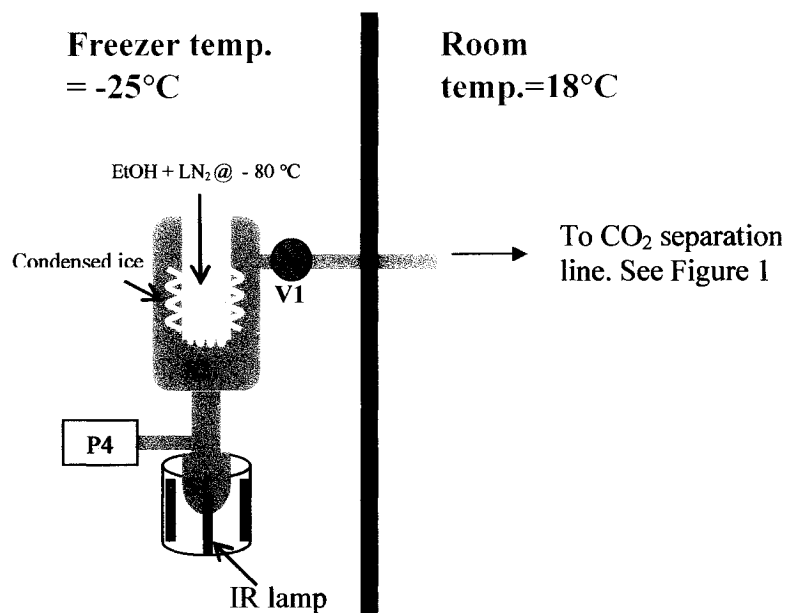


Figure 7. Schematic representation of the apparatus proposed for the sublimation of ice for  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  measurement. Ice sample is put in glass tube (S1) and sublimated by IR lamps. Water vapor condenses on a cold trap ( $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in S2. Air is further dried by subsequent cold traps cooled with liquid nitrogen (T1 at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ , T2 and T3 at  $-196^{\circ}\text{C}$  in Figure 1).



## **CHAPTER VI**

### **Conclusion**

CO<sub>2</sub> is the most important greenhouse gas in the anthropogenic regime. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration has increased ~ 100 ppm (µatm/atm) from 280 ppm since the industrial revolution [*Etheridge et al.*, 1996; *Keeling and Whorf*, 2005]. One promising approach to reducing the uncertainties in present climate models for future prediction is to evaluate the carbon cycle in the past glacial-interglacial periods. Ice cores provide unique archives of past atmospheric air over the past 800 kyr [*EPICA Community members*, 2004]. The anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> increase of ~ 100 ppm is similar in magnitude to the natural CO<sub>2</sub> variation during the last four glacial-interglacial cycles (between 180-200 ppm for glacials and 260-280 ppm for interglacials) [*Petit et al.*, 1999]. However, the causes of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change and its relationship with other climate factors, such as temperature and ocean circulation, are not well known. This research project investigated paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> occluded in the Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica, as related to temperature change. In addition, the reliability of ice cores as a proxy of paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> was explored.

In order to assess the effect of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on the past climate, this project necessitated a reconstruction of CO<sub>2</sub> occluded in the Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica. The Siple Dome ice core was chosen because its rather high snow accumulation rate gives a high temporal resolution.

In the reconstruction process, I pursued the following four phases:

- (1) Reconstruction of the paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and decipherment of the phase relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> concentration change and Siple Dome temperature change,

- (2) Estimation of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in the solid ice phase of polar ice and evaluation of the smoothing of CO<sub>2</sub> records by gas diffusion in polar ice,
- (3) Determination of the best explanation for the excess CO<sub>2</sub> observed in the Siple Dome ice core, and
- (4) Measurement of the carbon isotope composition of CO<sub>2</sub> from the last two deglaciations.

### **Phase (1)**

In Phase (1) paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration for the past 40,000 years was retrieved from the Siple Dome ice core and compared to results from other ice cores. As found by previous studies on other ice cores [*Petit et al.*, 1999; *Monnin et al.*, 2001], the general trend of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from Siple Dome ice follows the temperature inferred from the isotopic composition of the ice on a millennial time scale. The Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record is mostly in agreement with previous Antarctic ice core CO<sub>2</sub> records. Initially, CO<sub>2</sub> rose at ~ 17.5 kyr, decreased slowly during the Antarctic Cold Reversal, rose during the Younger Dryas, fell to a local minimum at around 8 kyr, and rose continuously since then.

There are many hypotheses to explain the CO<sub>2</sub> increase during deglaciation [see *Sigman and Boyle*, 2000; *Kohfeld et al.*, 2005]. My results are only consistent with the hypotheses that explain the strong temporal correlation of CO<sub>2</sub> and Antarctic temperature during the last deglaciation. Two leading hypotheses involve physical processes in the Southern Ocean, the change in CO<sub>2</sub> gas exchange between the

atmosphere and sea, due to varying sea ice coverage [*Stephens and Keeling, 1999*], and changes in the mixing between mid-depth water and deep water due to a change in ocean stratification [*Toggweiler, 1999*]. The Southern Ocean is the primary region for deep water ventilation and provides the CO<sub>2</sub> source from deep waters to the atmosphere. Hypotheses related to changes in nutrient utilization in the Southern Ocean have not been supported by the evidence in previous studies [*Kohfeld et al., 2005*].

In addition to the linkage of temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> trends mentioned above, a small phase offset between the two was required by the data analysis. Gas chronologies on this core are relatively robust due to the high snow accumulation rate at Siple Dome, which produces relatively small uncertainties in the difference between the gas and ice ages. These small uncertainties permit a more accurate analysis of the phase relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> change and the ice-isotopic temperature than in other cores at low accumulation sites. During the last glacial termination, I found a lag of CO<sub>2</sub> after the Siple Dome isotopic temperature of ~ 300 years. The size of this lag is somewhat comparable to the time scale of ocean mixing that is necessary to provide a new CO<sub>2</sub> source from the deep ocean, consistent with the hypotheses related to the change in physical processes in the Southern Ocean. The CO<sub>2</sub> lag after Siple Dome temperature confirms that CO<sub>2</sub> is not the forcing that initially drives the climatic system during the last deglaciation as concluded by *Caillon et al.* [2003]. The time lag of CO<sub>2</sub> of ~ 300 years is short compared with ~ 7000 year total duration of the temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> increase during the last deglaciation. This finding therefore does

not contradict the idea that CO<sub>2</sub> plays one of the key roles in deglaciation by amplifying the initial orbital forcing through its greenhouse effect.

While the predominant concept related to modern climate is that CO<sub>2</sub> increase drives global warming, this research shows that natural atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change is triggered by other climate factors. The recent anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> increase rate (1.4 ppm / yr) (due to human activities) [Keeling and Whorf, 2005] is two orders of magnitude greater than that of the natural change of CO<sub>2</sub> during the last deglaciation (~ 0.013 ppm / yr). This modern anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> enormously disturbs the natural carbon cycle, and plays a major role as an external radiative force (independent trigger) that causes global warming [Kump, 2002]. The natural carbon cycle during the last glacial-interglacial periods differs from that in our modern situation, and does not provide a useful analog.

## **Phase (2)**

During Phase (2) the finding that diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> in ice occurs significantly over millennial time scales was explored. As a result of diffusion in ice, an initially rapid change in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the ice may be smoothed out and can be altered during the clathrate (bubble-free) ice formation. If the smoothing were to happen extensively, we would underestimate the speed of real paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations from polar ice cores. The high resolution analyses performed in this work on the Siple Dome ice core show a gradual decrease of CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction away from the refrozen melt layers. Combined with the noble gas study (Xe/Ar, Kr/Ar) and chemical and electric properties of the ice, I found that a melt-related CO<sub>2</sub> spike

diffused measurably through the ice at a depth of 287 m. This is the first experimental evidence of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion in polar ice. The reason laboratory studies have not been able to observe it is that it happens too slowly. The product of solubility and the diffusion coefficient of CO<sub>2</sub> was obtained as  $4.3 (\pm 2.1) \times 10^{-21} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ molCO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3}\text{ice} (\text{PaCO}_2)^{-1}$  at  $-23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . Also, I found that the smoothing of the CO<sub>2</sub> record by diffusion is at least an order of magnitude smaller than that by the gas age distribution at the depth of 287 m (gas age = 2.74 kyr) in the Siple Dome ice. The extension of the modeling results from a shallow depth (287 m) to greater depths is limited and requires further study.

### **Phase (3)**

Phase (3) investigated the difference in the CO<sub>2</sub> records between the Siple Dome and the other Antarctic ice cores. In certain time intervals (e.g., the last deglaciation and the Holocene period), Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are greater than those in other Antarctic ice cores by up to 20 ppm ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 / \text{mol air}$ ). This difference cannot be explained by local variations because atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is well mixed and homogenized within one hemisphere, so that gradients are much less than 1 ppm. In contrast, non-atmospheric excess CO<sub>2</sub> is likely to cause a  $\sim 20$  ppm enhancement. It is plausible that melting/refreezing on a microscale in the snow is responsible for the excess CO<sub>2</sub>. This is an exception to the belief that Antarctic ice cores are representative of paleoatmospheric concentrations, in contrast to those from Greenland or low-latitude ice cores. The low dust content in Antarctic ice minimizes the in situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> by the carbonate-acid reaction and/or oxidation of

organic compounds, as observed in Greenland ice cores. This work shows the first experimental evidence of excess CO<sub>2</sub> measured in an Antarctic ice core, suggesting that future coring at warm sites in Antarctica requires a cautious approach.

#### **Phase (4)**

In Phase (4), the carbon isotope composition of CO<sub>2</sub> in polar ice was probed. Carbon isotopes of paleoatmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> combined with CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from ice cores may allow an additional constraint to aid in deciphering the carbon cycle over the past hundreds of thousand years. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was measured for the gas trapped in the Siple Dome and Vostok ice cores from Antarctica, covering the past 40 kyr and 160-110 kyr, respectively. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from the Siple Dome ice are slightly depleted on average, and are more scattered compared to those from the Taylor Dome ice core, and are not considered as a reliable atmospheric record. This may be related to surface conditions, possibly micro-scale melting on the snow surface or laboratory artifacts. Vostok ice around Termination II shows a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  increase during the atmospheric increase of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. This trend is consistent with the previous results from the Taylor Dome ice core in that the main net source for the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> change during the deglaciations is isotopically heavy (but this isotopic study for the trend of some age intervals does not allow specific sources of CO<sub>2</sub> change to be constrained) [Smith *et al.*, 1999]. However, the magnitude of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  change is much greater than that in Taylor Dome ice. In addition, absolute values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are very depleted by 1-3 ‰. This depletion may be explained by isotopic fractionation during the gas extraction procedure with mechanical crushing of the ice. A sublimation technique may improve

the quality of the experiments, and could possibly reduce the chance of isotopic fractionation during the gas extraction. Deconvolution modeling with reconstructed high temporal resolution of the past  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration may allow to reconstruct temporal carbon cycle change for the last deglaciations as shown in the previous works on the Holocene period [*Indermöhle et al.*, 1999] and the last 1000 years [*Trudinger et al.*, 2005].



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