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Vertical profiles of the specific surface area of the snow at Dome C, Antarctica

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Abstract

The specific surface area (SSA) of snow determines in Part the albedo of snow surfaces and the capacity of the snow to adsorb chemical species and catalyze reactions. Despite these crucial roles, almost no value of snow SSA are available for the largest permanent snow expanse on Earth, the Antarctic. We have measured the first vertical profiles of snow SSA near Dome C (DC: 75°06′ S, 123°20′ E, 3233 m a.s.l.) on the Antarctic plateau, and at seven sites during the logistical traverse between Dome C and the French coastal base Dumont D'Urville (DDU: 66°40′ S, 140°01′ E) during the Austral summer 2008–2009. We used the DUFISSS system, which measures the IR reflectance of snow at 1310 nm with an integrating sphere. At DC, the mean SSA of the snow in the top 1 cm is 38 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$, decreasing monotonically to 14 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ at a depth of 15 cm. Along the traverse, the snow SSA profile is similar to that at DC in the first 600 km from DC. Closer to DDU, the SSA of the top 5 cm is 23 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$, decreasing to 19 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ at 50 cm depth. This is attributed to wind, which causes a rapid decrease of surface snow SSA, but forms hard windpacks whose SSA decrease more slowly with time. Since light-absorbing impurities are not concentrated enough to affect albedo, the vertical profiles of SSA and density were used to calculate the spectral albedo of the snow for several realistic illumination conditions, using the DISORT radiative transfer model. A preliminary comparison with MODIS data is presented for use in energy balance calculations and for comparison with other satellite retrievals. These calculated albedos are compared to the few existing measurements on the Antarctic plateau. The interest of postulating a submillimetric, high-SSA layer at the snow surface to explain measured albedos is discussed.

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1 Introduction

High latitude regions play a crucial role in determining the climate of the Earth and its evolution (Goody, 1980; Warren, 1982; Hall, 2004; Lemke et al., 2007), because these regions are snow-covered most of the time and snow is the Earth's surface with the highest albedo.

Discussions about snow albedo can be more detailed if one considers the spectral albedo, i.e. the fraction of solar light that is reflected as a function of wavelength. Figure 1 shows typical examples of snow spectral albedo, the examples chosen being those of pure recent snow, aged pure snow, and recent snow contaminated with absorbing impurities such as soot (also called black carbon).

Figure 1 illustrates that in the visible part of the solar spectrum, snow albedo is mostly determined by impurities (Warren and Wiscombe, 1980) while in the infra-red, grain size is the main factor affecting albedo (Wiscombe and Warren, 1980; Colbeck, 1982). Determining the spectral albedo of snow therefore requires the knowledge of snow grain size and impurity content.

Snow is a porous medium made of air and ice. Its physical properties evolve over time through processes grouped under the term "snow metamorphism" (Colbeck, 1982). Because ice has an elevated water vapor pressure (165 Pa at −15 °C and 610 Pa at 0 °C), and because the vertical temperature gradient almost always present in the snow generates sublimation-condensation cycles that modify the shapes and sizes of snow grains, the physical properties of snow change during metamorphism. These properties include density, thermal conductivity, permeability, but also albedo (Colbeck, 1982). Since snow grain size almost always increases during metamorphism (Cabanes et al., 2003; Legagneux et al., 2004; Flanner and Zender, 2006; Taillandier et al., 2007), snow albedo usually decreases during metamorphism. Understanding snow grain size and its variations is therefore crucial to predict snow albedo and to understand the energy balance of the Earth.

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In many previous studies, snow grain size has been used as a key variable to describe interactions between snow and solar radiation (Warren, 1982; Alley, 1987; Grenfell et al., 1994). More recent studies indicate that, in radiative transfer models, the complex shapes of snow crystals can adequately be represented by spheres having the same surface/volume ratio, which provides good results for the wavelength range 0.2 to 50 µm (Grenfell and Warren, 1999; Grenfell et al., 2005; Neshyba et al., 2003). Rather than snow grain size, snow crystals are then adequately described by their surface/volume ratio, or even equivalently, by their specific surface area, which can now easily be measured. The specific surface area (SSA) of snow is a measure of the area of the ice-air interface per unit mass (Legagneux et al., 2002). For spherical particles, SSA is expressed as:

$$\mathrm{SSA} = \frac{S}{M} = \frac{S}{\rho_{\mathrm{ice}} \cdot V} = \frac{3}{\rho_{\mathrm{ice}} \cdot r_{\mathrm{eff}}} \tag{1}$$

with S the surface area of snow grains, M their mass, V their volume and ρ_{ice} the density of ice, (917 kg m^{-3} at 0 °C). If the snow particles are approximated as spheres of radius r_{eff}, Eq. (1) shows the simple relationship between SSA and r_{eff}, the effective (or optical) radius of the snow particles. SSA is often expressed in units of m^2 kg^{-1} and measured values are in the range 2 m^2 kg^{-1}for melt-freeze crusts to 156 m^2 kg^{-1} for fresh dendritic snow (Domine et al., 2007b).

In early snow studies, there was no simple and reliable method to measure snow SSA, and snow scientists instead used the variable "grain size" (Gow, 1969). Systematic measurements of snow SSA during field campaigns started when the methane (CH_4) adsorption technique was developed (Legagneux et al., 2002; Domine et al., 2007b). However, that method is time-consuming and requires liquid nitrogen, a problem in many field studies, so that its use remained limited to a small number of groups, and this probably explains why almost no data is available on the SSA of snow on polar ice caps. To help fill that data gap, (Gallet et al., 2009) designed an optical method to rapidly measure SSA in the field. This method is based on the relationship between the IR reflectance of snow and its SSA (Domine et al., 2006). The availability of SSA data

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on large polar ice caps appears urgent because new remote sensing algorithms have been proposed to retrieve SSA from Antarctica (Scambos et al., 2007; Jin et al., 2008) and Greenland (Kokhanovsky and Schreier, 2009; Lyapustin et al., 2009) and these methods need to be validated with field measurements. SSA measurements in Antarctica would be Particularly useful because on the Antarctic plateau, absorbing impurities are negligible (Warren and Clarke, 1990), so that snow albedo can be calculated from SSA and density, although hypotheses always need to be made on snow topography.

Snow SSA is also an important variable to understand snowpack chemical composition and photochemistry and its impact on the composition of the polar boundary layer (Domine and Shepson, 2002; Grannas et al., 2007). Snow adsorbs many chemical species such as volatile and semi-volatile compounds, and also species with a high dipole moment such as acidic gases that can establish hydrogen bonds with ice surfaces. Numerous authors have suggested that snow SSA largely determines the partitioning of many species between the snow and the boundary layer (Houdier et al., 2002; Herbert et al., 2006; Domine et al., 2007a; Burniston et al., 2007; Taillandier et al., 2006). The nitrate ion, possibly the main driver of snowpack photochemistry (Grannas et al., 2007), is thought to come to a large extent from the adsorption of atmospheric nitric acid (Domine and Thibert, 1996; Cox et al., 2005), and its concentration in snow would then be determined by snow SSA (Domine et al., 2008).

This work presents the first extensive measurements of the SSA of surface and near-surface snow on the Antarctic plateau near the Concordia Base at Dome C (DC: 75°06′ S, 123°06′ E, 3233 m a.s.l.) and on the logistics traverse route between DC and the Dumont D'Urville base (DDU: 66°40′ S, 140°01′ E, 10 m a.s.l.) during the Austral summer campaign in 2008–2009. Near the DC base, measurements were performed in pits at least 70 cm deep where SSA, density and the thickness of snow layers were measured in detail. During the traverse, the main objective was of logistical nature. Scientific objectives were not initially planned and were added at the last minute, and therefore were only a tolerated extra. Measurements are therefore fewer and limited to a depth of 50 cm. They are nevertheless presented because of their uniqueness.

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The data presented here show the vertical profiles of SSA and allow applications to radiative transfer and atmospheric chemistry. We chose here to limit our discussion to radiative transfer and use the DISORT model (Stamnes et al., 1988) to calculate snow spectral albedo representative of the Antarctic plateau, in order to provide data that can in future be compared to satellite retrievals and used to test SSA or optical radius retrieval algorithms.

2 Methods and study site

For clarity, measurements at DC and during the traverse will be presented separately. Pits done at DC are named C1 to C13 and pits done during the traverse are named T1 to T8. For each pit, a clean face was obtained with a saw and a brush to minimize disturbance to the stratigraphy and to remove loose Particles. The stratigraphy was carefully observed and the SSA, density and thickness of all layers was measured.

Density was measured by weighing a snow core of known volume. For thick layers of low to moderate hardness, a 500 cm^3 plexiglas coring tube was used. For thin or hard layers, a 100 cm^3 stainless steel coring tube was used. Density was measured for each layer, with a vertical resolution of 10 cm or better, depending on the number of layers. The error on density measured with a coring tube is about 5% (Conger and McClung, 2009).

The thickness of layers was measured with a ruler. The accuracy of a reading is 2 mm and is slightly observer-dependent because the boudaries between layers were usually not sharp. Furthermore, the thickness of layers was horizontally variable, so that on average the thickness of a layer varied by 10% over a width of 1 m.

SSA was measured using the DUFISSS (DUal Frequency Integrating Sphere for Snow SSA measurements) instrument described in Gallet et al. (2009). Briefly, a cylindrical snow core 63 mm in diameter and 30 mm in height was placed in a cylindrical sample holder 63 mm in diameter and 25 mm deep. The top 5 mm were shaved off with a sharp spatula just before the measurement. This sampling procedure was designed

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to minimize the perturbation to the snow. For soft surface layers, the objective was whenever possible to measure SSA with a 1 cm resolution. In that case, the top 1 cm was sampled with a spatula and placed in the sample holder. Additional surface snow was placed in the sample holder until it was full. The soft snow was gently compacted to fill any voids and, if required, the surface was shaved clean as previously mentioned. Tests revealed that for soft snow such handling did not affect the IR reflectance. The sample was then illuminated with a 1310 nm laser diode and the reflected light was collected with an integrating sphere 15 cm in diameter. The signal was measured with an InGaAs photodiode. The signal was converted to reflectance using a set of six standards of reflectances between 4 and 99%. The reflectance was converted to SSA using a calibration curve obtained with snow samples whose SSA was measured using CH_4 adsorption and reflectance measured with DUFISSS. The accuracy of these measurements is 10%.

At Dome C, snow layers remain a long time near the surface after precipitation because of the very low accumulation rate: 26 mm water equivalent (Frezzotti et al., 2005). Snow layers are frequently remobilized by wind, whose mean speed is 6 m s^{-1}, with maximum values of the order of 15 m s^{-1} (Frezzotti et al., 2005).

Measurements at DC focused on surface snow layers, because their effect on albedo is greatest. SSA measurements were performed at depths of 1, 2, 5, 10 and 15 cm. Further down, each observed layer was measured once with a minimal resolution of 10 cm. During the traverse, less time was available for the measurements and only one measurement was performed in the top 5 cm.

3 Results

3.1 Concordia station

At DC, thirteen pits C1 to C13, with depths between 70 and 100 cm, were studied. Figure 2 and Table 1 show the location and coordinates of these pits.

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To facilitate the comparison between the pits, we present here the data on the top 70 cm of each pit. SSA, density and depth of each layer are detailed in Appendix A. The variability of the stratigraphy is adequately represented by the three stratigraphic profiles of pits C2, C3 and C7, shown in Fig. 3.

The stratigraphy of pit C2 is as follows: the surface layer is comprised of small rounded grains recently deposited by the wind, overlying a 3 cm-thick hard windpack. Below that, we observed a layer of faceted crystals, and then a thick layer of depth hoar, briefly interrupted by a 3 cm-thick layer of mixed-form crystals between 34 and 37 cm below the surface. In pit C3, the surface layer is 2 cm thick and comprised of a mixtures of small rounded grains transported by the wind and surface hoar crystals. Below, windpacks and faceted crystals or mixed-form crystals alternate. Finally, the top 1-cm thick surface layer in pit C7 is a mixture of surface hoar, faceted crystals and small rounded grains. The rest of the pit is mostly comprised of mixed-form crystals, interrupted by a windpack between 25 and 46 cm.

For all pits except C1 and C2, the SSA was measured for the top 1 cm, the second cm, then at 5, 10, 15 and 20 cm, and subsequently every 10 cm. For C1 and C2, the top 5 cm appeared homogeneous and only one measurement was performed on this top layer. For consistency, the SSA determined is attributed to the depths of 1, 2 and 5 cm. Figure 4 shows that in the top 15 cm of the snow, SSA values span a fairly wide range depending on the snowpit: 13 to 56 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$. Below that, the range of SSA values narrows down, except for pits C12, C3 et C7 where values at 20 cm are respectively 24, 28 and 39 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ while for the other ten pits the range is 13 to 21 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$. For the three outlying pits, the layer at 20 cm is either a windpack or faceted crystals, but in all cases is very hard.

Figure 4 also illustrates the mean SSA profile, showing that SSA values decrease monotonically in the first 70 cm. Because of the three outlying pits, the mean values between 15 and 40 cm are higher than the SSA of most pits.

Figure 5 shows the density values for all C pits. There is a significant scatter, but the average profile shows a monotonic increase from the surface to 15 cm, followed by an

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essentially constant density near 350 kg m^{-3}. A thick very hard windpack explains the densities greater than 500 kg m^{-3} in pit C10.

In summary, in group C pits, density and SSA are highly variable in the top 15 cm. Below that, most values fall within a fairly narrow range, except when windpacks or other hard layers are present where higher densities and SSA values are observed.

3.2 Logistics traverse between Dome C and Dumont D'Urville

Group T pits were studied during the 8-day traverse (2 to 10 February 2009) and are named T1 to T8. Because of bad weather there is no pit T6. Figure 6 shows the traverse between DC and DDU and the location of the pits, as well as the automatic weather stations (AWS) D85, D47 and D10 used to interpret pit observations.

T group pits are in general shallow (50 cm) because little time was available each evening for this work. Moreover, the frequent strong winds had often produced very hard windpacks that slowed down the work and only one pit could be done each evening. Given the spatial variability of the snow observed at DC, the number of pits is certainly insufficient for a good representativity. However, they are the only SSA data available for this region. The exact pit site was chosen somewhat arbitrarily. Basic safety considerations imposed that the pit be within 500 m of the convoy. Within this range, a planar and homogeneous area of at least 10 m^2 was chosen.

As for the Dome C pits, we first present the stratigraphy of selected pits (Fig. 7), before presenting SSA and density data. Detailed data are reported in Appendix B.

At the top of pit T2, a 10 cm-thick windpack was observed. Below that was a 3 cm layer of mixed-form crystals, then a 1 cm windpack, and finally distinct layers of faceted crystals extending down to 70 cm. Pit T5 was comprised of windpacks, except between 7 and 11 cm, where a softer layer of small rounded grains was observed, and between 14 and 34 cm where a layer of mixed-form crystals was found. Overall, the snow stratigraphy along the traverse showed little variability and only five crystal types were observed.

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SSA values are shown in Fig. 8, as well as the average of the T pits. In all pits except T1 the top layer was hard and appeared homogeneous over at least the top 5 cm. It was not possible to sample separately the top 1st and 2nd cm and only one SSA measurement was made in the top 5 cm. However, for comparison with C pits, this one value is attributed to depths of 1, 2, and 5 cm in Fig. 8. SSA values in the top 5 cm range from 20 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ to 38 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$. Below, in general the SSA is less homogeneous than at DC. Noteworthy observations include : (a) In pit T2, SSA varies by a factor of 1.8 between 40 and 50 cm even though a single layer was observed; (b) pits T4 and T5 show fairly constant SSA values around 23 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ below 15 cm; (c) pits T1 to T4, closer to DC, have SSA values in the top 15 cm that are above the group average, while in pits T5 to T8, which are closer to DDU, top values are all below average, (d) the general trend is that SSA decreases with depth, especially in the top 20 cm.

Density values, reported in Fig. 9, show a very high inter-pit variability. Near the surface, values range between 162 $kg\,m^{-3}$ (T1) and 446 $kg\,m^{-3}$ (T8), and the range is even larger at 10 cm (150 to 515 $kg\,m^{-3}$) and remains high at 50 cm (272 to 478 $kg\,m^{-3}$). The general trend is that density increases from DC to DDU. However, for a given pit, there is little density increase with depth, as further illustrated by the average trend also reported in Fig. 9.

3.3 SSA and density profiles representative of Antarctic plateau snow

Figures 8 and 9 indicate that pits T1 to T4, closer to DC, show high SSA and low density values near the surface, while pits T5 to T8 have low SSA and high density values. At depths around 40 cm, higher SSA and densities are observed in the T5-T8 pits. It therefore appears sensible to separate the traverse data into two classes: T1-T4 et T5-T8. Rather than consider mean values for the whole traverse, it makes more sense to look at averages for both these classes, as done in Figs. 10 and 11.

Figure 10 shows that SSA profiles of DC and T1-T4 are fairly similar. On the other hand, Fig. 11 shows that DC densities are greater than for T1-T4. The greater values of T1-T4 in the first 2 cm may simply be due to the fact that for T pits, only one value was

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measured in the top 5 cm, and assigned to the three depths 1, 2 and 5 cm. Regarding the T5-T8 pits, Figs. 10 and 11 show that they have the highest density values at all depths, and that their SSA values are lower than elsewhere in the top 30 cm, and higher below that depth.

This brief description indicates that the mean snow physical properties investigated here show little variation around DC, up to a distance of about 600 km towards DDU (T1-T4). Beyond that (T5-T8), SSA values are lower near the surface, while density values are higher. Of course, this conclusion is weakened by the small number of T pits, but the difference between both T sub-groups appears significantly greater than the intra-group variability, so we believe that the difference between both sub-groups is real. We suspect that this is caused by different meteorological conditions, which influence snow metamorphism and the type of snow crystals formed. AWS temperature and wind speed data, shown in Figs. 12 and 13, confirm this suggestion. Between DC and DDU, temperature significantly rises, by 20 to 35 °C between DC and AWS D10, located a few km from the coast. Also, wind speed increases, and in particular the intensity of extreme events that favor the formation of hard windpacks increases considerably. During the period considered, the highest wind speed at DC was 14 m s^{-1}, while it reached 28 m s^{-1} at D47. It may even have reached higher values at D10, but February data are missing.

Do current data available on the rate of SSA decrease allow the understanding of the different behaviours shown in Fig. 10. In general, snow SSA has been observed to decrease with time (Cabanes et al., 2003; Legagneux et al., 2004; Taillandier et al., 2007) although a few instances where SSA increases have been reported, and wind was often a factor in these increases (Domine et al., 2009). Models (Legagneux and Domine, 2005; Flanner and Zender, 2006) also predict that SSA should decrease with time. Temperature, temperature gradient, the SSA value and density are the main factors that are currently thought to affect the rate of SSA decrease. SSA decreases faster at higher temperatures and under higher temperature gradients. The experimental work of Taillandier et al. (2007) indicates that there is a temperature gradient

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threshold around 15 K m^{-1} separating two regimes for the rate of SSA decrease, the rate of decrease being significantly higher at higher gradients. The rate of decrease is also faster for higher SSAs. The impact of density is not clear and no experimental work is available on its effect. The model of Legagneux and Domine (2005) indicates that under isothermal conditions, higher densities accelerate SSA decrease because sinks and sources of water vapor are nearer. On the other hand, the model of Flanner and Zender (2006), which includes the effect of the temperature gradient, concludes that increasing density retards SSA decay, because water vapor migration in a more tortuous network is hindered.

In any case, none of these studies treat the effect of wind and wind transport on SSA. On the Antarctic plateau, the accumulation rate is so low that a given snow layer is exposed to wind action for a long time before it is finally sheltered from those effects. Fresh snow with high SSA can have its SSA drop dramatically faster because of wind (Cabanes et al., 2002). On the contrary, the remobilization of aged snow by wind can increase its SSA (Domine et al., 2009). Today there is insufficient data to understand the effect of wind on snow SSA. Furthermore, no experiments have been performed at the low temperatures found on the Antarctic plateau, and where the empirical equations of Taillandier et al. (2007) may not apply.

It therefore appears difficult to reach a satisfactory explanation for the SSA trends observed in Fig. 10. We must limit our conclusion to the following. Closer to the coast (T5 to T8), where winds are stronger, windpacks of high density form preferentially. These have a density around 430 kg m^{-3}, and their relation to Arctic tundra windpacks, probably the snowpack type studied by Domine et al. (2007b) closest to that observed here, predicts a SSA around 20 m^2 kg^{-1}, which is what is observed. Closer to DC (C group and T1 to T4 pits) there is a predominance of rounded grains near the surface, and the average density is about 280 kg m^{-3}. The correspondence to tundra snow, again probably the snow type studied closest to that observed (Domine et al., 2007b), predicts a SSA of 28 m^2 kg^{-1}, lower than the surface values found here, in the range 30 to 38 m^2 kg^{-1}. We therefore conclude that in this type of snow, wind, although

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moderate, tends to increase snow SSA, presumably through transport, fragmentation and sublimation of grains, as described by Domine et al. (2009). We note furthermore that layers of faceted crystals observed here were significantly harder than found in seasonal snowpacks, so that processes involved in their formation and evolution may be different. More work on the effects of wind and low temperatures on SSA is required before we can understand the evolution of the SSA of the Antarctic surface snows studied here.

3.4 Snow Area Index of the Antarctic snowpack

Taillandier et al. (2006) have defined the Snow Area Index for seasonal snowpacks. This dimensionless variable is, for a unit area, the vertically integrated surface area of the interface between ice crystals and air. It is calculated by summing for snow layers (i), the product of SSA ($m^2\,kg^{-1}$), snow layer thickness h (m) and density ρ ($kg\,m^{-3}$):

$$SAI_{snowpack} = \sum_i SSA_i h_i \rho_i \quad (2)$$

The SAI can be used to quantify chemical and radiative interactions between the snow cover and the atmosphere. These physical and chemical interactions in fact involve a limited snow thickness, from a few cm to about 1 m (Warren, 1982; Zhou et al., 2003; Domine et al., 2008). SAI is clearly defined for seasonal snowpacks whose total depth can be measured, but for ice caps and the accumulation zone of glaciers, an arbitrary depth must be chosen. By analogy to the Arctic and subarctic snowpacks whose depths are often about 45 cm (Sturm and Benson, 1997; Domine et al., 2002; Taillandier et al., 2006), we calculate the SAI of Antarctic snow to a depth of 45 cm. Table 2 shows the SAI of each C and T pit and average values for each group, for the top 45 cm. Table 3 compares these values to seasonal snowpack values measured in the Arctic at Alert by Domine et al. (2002) and at Barrow (Domine et al., unpublished data) and in the subarctic by Taillandier et al. (2006). We note that for the Alert snowpack, the thickness was only 40 cm. For the T8 pit, only the top 30 cm were studied, and

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to make the comparison meaningful, the values obtained at 30 cm were extrapolated down to 45 cm.

Table 3 shows that the SAI of Antarctic snow is equal to or greater than that of Arctic and subarctic snow. One reason for this is probably that Arctic and subarctic depth hoar develops at fairly high temperatures (around −5 to −15 °C in the subarctic, and around −5 to −25 °C for the Arctic) because of the proximity of the ground that retains summer heat, and this allows the crystals to grow to large sizes. The SSA therefore decreases to values as low as 7 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$, while Antarctic depth hoar crystals remain small with a larger SSA. Another reason may be that, especially in the subarctic, depth hoar layers have very low densities (about 200 $kg\,m^{-3}$) that may favor the growth of crystals to large sizes, while in Antarctica densities are usually around 300 $kg\,m^{-3}$ (Figs. 5 and 9).

4 Antarctic snowpack spectral albedo modeling with DISORT

The SSA and density data obtained here can be used to calculate the optical properties of Antarctic snow. Since snow on the Antarctic plateau is almost free of light-absorbing impurities (Grenfell et al., 1994; Warren et al., 2006), its albedo over the solar spectrum is determined by its SSA and its density. Surface roughness also plays a role, but we will neglect it for the moment. We therefore present here calculations of the directional hemispherical reflectance of the snow studied (according to the definition of Schaepman-Strub et al. (2006), and bi-hemispherical reflectance referred to hereinafter as albedo for simplicity), depending on the incident radiation. One of the possible uses of these calculated albedos is the comparison to remote sensing data, in order to test inversion algorithms. We first detail how the DISORT code was used in our calculations.

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4.1 The DISORT code

DISORT (Stamnes et al., 1988) treats snow as disconnected spheres and can model the reflectance of a succession of plane-parallel snow layers under direct or diffuse illumination. Scattering and absorption efficiencies Q_{abs} and Q_{scatt} are calculated by the routine Mie0 (Wiscombe, 1980). The extinction efficiency $Q_{ext} = Q_{abs} + Q_{scatt}$ is thus obtained and allows the calculation, for each snow layer, of the dimensionless variable called the optical depth τ (Wiscombe et Warren, 1980):

$$\tau^i = \frac{3\, Q^i_{ext}\, \rho^i_{snow}\, h^i}{4 a^i\, \rho_{ice}} \tag{3}$$

where a^i is the radius of the (spherical) snow particles of the ith snow layer, ρ^i_{snow} and h^i are the density and thickness of the ith snow layer, and ρ_{ice} is the density of ice, 917 kg m^{-3} at 0 °C. Given that for spherical particles we have $SSA^i = 3/(\rho_{ice}\, a^i)$, we obtain:

$$\tau^i = \frac{1}{4}\, Q^i_{ext} \cdot \rho^i_{snow} \cdot SSA^i \cdot h^i \tag{4}$$

A medium is considered optically semi-infinite when increasing its geometrical thickness modifies its albedo by less that 1% (Wiscombe et Warren, 1980). From the optical depth τ, the single scattering albedo ω and the phase function $P(\Omega_1 \Omega_2)$, DISORT calculates the albedo of the medium considered. Variations of these three variables depend only on wavelength (through the refractive index of ice) and on grain size, i.e. SSA. Therefore, the evolution of the spectral albedo of semi-infinite snow formed of plane-parallel layers under given illumination conditions only depends on snow physical properties: SSA and density.

Zhou et al. (2003) showed that calculations of albedo better reproduce field observations if a multilayer snowpack, with layers having different SSAs and densities, is used. In a similar approach, we here use our observed vertical variations of SSA and

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density to calculate using DISORT the albedo of snow on the Antarctic plateau. We use the top 70 cm for snow at Dome C and the top 50 cm for snow of the traverse. With these depths and given Antarctic solar zenith angles, snow is mostly semi-infinite, but to minimize any error due to insufficient depth, we add to these snow stratigraphies a 2-m thick snow layer having the properties of the last layer measured.

4.2 DISORT configuration

In Antarctica, besides snow SSA and density, the factors that influence albedo are the type of illumination (direct or diffuse), the solar zenith angle, cloud cover, and surface roughness. We estimate that the surface roughness is moderate (a few cm). Even though the effect of surface roughness will certainly be felt at the highest solar zenith angles (Warren et al., 1998), we do not investigate its effects here. Clouds enhance diffuse radiation and absorb the IR fraction of the solar spectrum, leading to an increase in broad-band albedo because snow is less reflective in the IR (Fig. 1). Here, we do not investigate the effect of clouds on the spectral distribution of the incident radiation. We model the spectral albedo under direct illumination, clear sky conditions and overcast conditions. Clear sky conditions are represented by a direct incident radiation to which the diffuse component caused by Rayleigh scattering in the atmosphere has been added. Cloudy conditions are represented by completely diffuse incident radiation over the whole solar spectrum.

Both the SZA (θ) and the type of illumination considerably affect snow albedo. The higher θ, the higher the albedo because snow is strongly forward scattering. Therefore, an incoming photon at high SZA penetrates less deeply in the snow and has a higher probability of exiting the snow (Dumont et al., 2010). The albedo under diffuse illumination is approximately the same as that under direct illumination with θ=50° for a semi infinite medium composed by a single layer (Warren, 1982). Since at DC, the SZA is at least 52°, the albedo under direct illumination is always greater than that under diffuse illumination, at least for a flat surface.

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Under clear sky conditions, there is always some diffuse light caused by atmospheric scattering. Grenfell et al., (1994) propose empirical relationships to determine the ratio of diffuse over total radiation (D/T) as a function of wavelength for Vostok and South Pole stations with clear sky. The relationships for both sites are different mainly because of the different site altitudes. Taking into account the elevation of DC, which is intermediate between those of South Pole and of Vostok, we estimate that at DC we have:

$$\frac{\mathrm{D}}{\mathrm{T}} = R_{\mathrm{diffuse}} = 0.0249 \times \lambda^{-3.3} \tag{5}$$

where λ is the wavelength in µm. More rigorously, D/T also depends on SZA, but we neglect this effect here, since we subsequently limit our calculations to the cases when SZAs are 60 and 70°. Taking into account diffuse and direct fluxes, the diffuse albedo a_d and the direct albedo a_s, we obtain the resulting albedo a_{net}:

$$a_{\mathrm{net}} = R_{\mathrm{diffuse}} a_d + (1 - R_{\mathrm{diffuse}}) a_s(\theta) \tag{6}$$

Below, we calculate albedos for five illumination conditions, i.e. light sources: direct with 60 and 70° SZAs (light sources DIR60 and DIR70), diffuse (light source DIFF), and clear sky conditions with SZA of 60 and 70° (light sources CS60 and CS70), following Eq. 5. The characteristics of the five light sources are summed in Table 4. Comparing the calculated albedos with satellite data obtained at a specific viewing angle is not always simple, but correction factors between conical and hemispherical albedos have been proposed (Stroeve and Nolin, 2002; Kokhanovsky and Zege, 2004).

4.3 DISORT modeling at DC

Figure 14 shows calculated albedos for the 13 C group pits, illuminated with the CS70 source (see Table 4), as well as their average.

As expected (Warren, 1982), the albedo is high in the visible (>0.95) and shows little variations between different pits. Significant variations are observed in the IR, where, at a given wavelength, the albedo increases with SSA (Wiscombe and Warren, 1980).

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The pits with the highest IR albedos are C1 and C8 because their surface layers have the highest SSA (>50 $m^2 kg^{-1}$, blown snow for C1 and fresh snow for C8). In the IR, C8 has a higher albedo than C1 because its surface layer has a higher SSA. In the visible, the order is reversed because the high SSA surface layer is thicker (5 cm vs. 1 cm) in C1, and radiation penetrates deeper in the visible (Warren and Wiscombe, 1980; Brandt and Warren, 1993). Likewise, the visible albedo of C2 is greater than that of C8 because C2 has a surface layer 9 cm thick with SSA = 42.2 $m^2 kg^{-1}$. Similar considerations explain why C10 has the lowest albedo: it has the lowest SSA in the top 10 cm. The mean value of C pits was obtained by performing calculations for a snowpit with the average SSA and density at each depth. The variability, expressed as the difference between the mean and the extremes, is ± 1% in the visible and reaches ± 40% in the IR. For clarity, subsequently only mean albedo is discussed and Figure 15 illustrates the albedo of the mean DC snow for the 5 illumination sources of Table 4, illustrating the effect of illumination conditions in the IR.

4.4 DISORT modeling along the logistical traverse

For T pits illuminated by the CS70 source, features similar to those of the C pits are observed (Fig. 16). The highest albedos are those of the pits with the surface layer having the highest SSA. Mean values for the T1-T4 and T5-T8 pits are also shown.

T1 to T4 pits have similar albedos because these 4 pits all have a surface layer with a SSA close to 36 $m^2 kg^{-1}$. The other three pits (T5 à T8) have a lower SSA surface layer so that, beyond 600 km from Dome C, the albedo of the snow is lower, especially in the IR.

4.5 Representative spectral albedo of the Antarctic plateau and preliminary comparison with MODIS data.

The physical properties of the snow around Dome C show significant variations from pit to pit. However, we believe that the thirteen pits studied here within 25 km of the DC

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base capture the natural variability of the snow and that the spatially-averaged albedo of the snow is well represented by that of the mean C snow pit. Indeed, we were careful to study spots that featured the various snow types present near the surface: recent wind-deposited snow, windpack, surface hoar, sastrugi. For remote sensing purposes, the SSA and density values of the mean snow pit are probably relevant, given that the resolutions of satellites such as MODIS and AATSR are in the range 500 m to 1 km.

For the first part of the traverse (pits T1-T4) we conclude that the mean albedo is similar to that of the C group. This is consistent with the small differences in meteorological conditions recorded between Dome C and the AWS at D85. From pit T5 and on, the role of wind and of the higher temperatures in determining snow physical properties is felt and the albedo is significantly different. It is clear that for the second part of the traverse, the number of pits performed is not sufficient to be a statistically valid sample, and clearly more studies are needed. Ideally, a traverse including more pit studies with SSA measurements should be arranged. However, it seems very likely that the variations observed between the start and the end of the traverse cannot be explained by statistical variations, and that our observations represent a genuine change in snow physical properties. This first study, although limited, is therefore useful.

To facilitate the comparison between our observations and satellite data by other researchers, we report in Tables 5, 6 and 7 the data of our calculated albedos for the 5 light sources used, as a function of wavelength in the range 0.3–2.5 µm, for the C group, the T1-T4 group, and the T5-T8 group. Table 8 reports the albedos calculated for the relevant MODIS and AATSR spectral bands.

Below, we perform a preliminary comparison between MODIS data and our calculations under diffuse illumination. We used the "White Sky Albedo" (i.e. the albedo under diffuse illumination) of the MODIS product MCD43C3 (Version 5), which consists in 16-day averages calculated from data obtained under clear-sky conditions only. MCD43C3 data was used to obtain the albedo averaged over a square 25×25 km containing the location of our measurements. We compared here the MCD43C3 "White Sky Albedo" near Concordia station and along the traverse to our calculations. For DC, we used the

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mean value of our 13 snow pits. Figures 17 and 18 show the results obtained for the 7 available wavelengths.

Some differences are observed but our results and the MODIS product show similar trends: the albedo, and hence the SSA, decrease from DC to the coast. Bands 2 (870 nm) and 5 (1240 nm) are especially interesting because at those wavelengths snow reflectance is sensitive to the SSA. Moreover, the penetration depth is of the order of a few cm, which makes the comparison with our measurement resolution, 5 cm, meaningful.

The MCD43C3 product also provides a broadband albedo (0.3–5 µm). Greuell and Oerlemans (2004) propose an alternative method to determine the broadband albedo from MODIS bands 1,2 and 4. We also used the parameterization of Greuell and Oerlemans (2004) to obtain the broadband albedo from our calculated spectral albedos, using the values obtained for the relevant MODIS bands. The comparison between these three broadband albedos is shown in Fig. 19. All three methods clearly show the same trend and the absolute difference is less than 4% in all cases. The preliminary comparisons of Figs. 17 to 19 show reasonable agreements between MODIS products and our calculations based on SSA and density profiles. We consider this an encouraging sign to attempt to determine snow SSA from satellite observations.

5 Discussion

The data presented here are the first direct SSA measurements of the surface snow on the Antarctic plateau. However, Grenfell et al. (1994) performed reflectance measurements at Vostok and South Pole stations, from which they deduced grain sizes. They observed that their average Vostok data was not significantly different from their South Pole data, and concluded that their reflectance measurement are probably representative of the whole East Antarctic plateau, which includes Dome C, so that according to these authors it is meaningful to compare our data to theirs. Grenfell et al. (1994) worked under diffuse illumination with nadir viewing (field of view 15°), and we therefore

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performed calculations with DISORT under the same conditions. Figure 20 shows the average data of (Grenfell et al., 1994). For comparison, we also show the calculated reflectance of our mean C pit under similar illumination and viewing, as well as the reflectance of the C8 and C10 pits, which have the highest and lowest IR albedo of all the C pits, respectively. In the visible, the spectrum of Grenfell et al. (1994) and that of our mean C pit are similar, but in the IR, the spectrum of Grenfell et al. (1994) is significantly higher than ours for all our pits, especially in the 1500–2000 nm band. We explore whether these differences could be explained by different snow stratigraphies, or by other reasons.

Grenfell et al. (1994) could not model their spectral reflectance with a single snow layer of given grain size. They had to add a 0.25 mm-thick surface layer of grains 15 to 30 µm in radius, which corresponds to SSAs of 218 to 109 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$, much higher than any value we obtained. As stressed by Grenfell et al. (1994), there is an infinite number of snow stratigraphies that produce similar reflectances, so the suggestion of Grenfell et al. (1994) is clearly not the only possibility, but they do mention that it is the suggestion that appears the most reasonable to them. Our SSA measurement technique (and our sampling method) does not at present allow the detection of such a thin layer. Since the light penetration depth at 1310 nm for the snows studied is of the order of several mm (Brandt and Warren, 1993), such a thin layer would be averaged with the underlying layer and would go undetected. However, in principle, our sampling method should show the increase in the measured reflectance due to this thin high-SSA layer at 1310 nm, but our reflectance calculations at 1310 nm are lower than those of Grenfell et al. (1994). This suggests that this thin layer was not observable or not present during our measurements at Dome C.

Only a direct search for such a thin, high SSA layer can actually test its existence. However, we wish to argue here that the mechanism proposed for its formation by (Grenfell et al., 1994) may be inadequate, and that conditions at Vostok and South Pole in 1985–1991 (when Grenfell et al. (1994) made their measurements) and at Dome C in 2008–2009 may have been different.

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Grenfell et al. (1994) postulate that at the end of a snow-drift episode, small grains would settle last and form the required layer of small grains near the surface. However, Domine et al. (2009) observed that snow SSA increased a few cm below the surface during a wind event. They suggested that small grains, entrained by wind-pumping, penetrated a few cm deep within the snow, while large grains stayed near the surface. Their explanation of the effect of wind on the vertical distribution of grain size is then opposite to the interpretation of Grenfell et al. (1994). Furthermore, snow with SSA>100 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ is very unstable (Flanner and Zender, 2006; Taillandier et al., 2007) and its prolonged observation on the surface appears unlikely. The equations of (Taillandier et al., 2007) indicate that at a typical daytime summer temperature of −25 °C on the Antarctic plateau, the SSA of snow initially of 200 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ would decrease to 118 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ in one day and to 89 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ in three days. The precipitation of high-SSA diamond dust (i.e. clear sky precipitation of tiny ice crystals, Walden et al., 2003) appears to us as a more likely source of a thin-high SSA snow layer, but such precipitation is infrequent in summer (Walden et al., 2003; Aristidi et al., 2005) and it is not certain that it would have a marked effect on the average of a large number of measurements. Lastly, even if tiny crystals precipitate, the very formation of a distinct layer of very small crystals at the very snow surface seems unlikely to us. Intuitively, we would think that the crystals would easily fall between the grains of the underlying layer, and that this process would be facilitated by low wind speeds. The observable result would then be a slight increase in SSA of the surface layer, perhaps over a depth of a few mm, which would make it easily detectable by our measurements. In any case, further careful observations of snow grains with high vertical resolution SSA measurements are required to settle this issue.

Wind speed data at South Pole and Dome C have been compiled by (Aristidi et al., 2005), showing that both the mean and maximum wind speed are significantly lower at Dome C. Less complete data from Vostok (http://south.aari.nw.ru/stations/vostok/vostok_en.html) also suggest that Dome C is less windy than Vostok. It is then possible that if this wind-generated thin surface layer was indeed present, it was less frequent

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at Dome C, explaining the lower albedo. It would not be surprising that surface snow properties in a given year at Dome C would be different from those 20 years ago at other stations.

As a last point to this discussion, we performed reflectance calculations by adding a 0.25 mm-thick layer of SSA=109 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ and density=150 $kg\,m^{-3}$ to out C8 pit. Figure 20 shows that the calculated HDR is still lower than that of Grenfell et al. (1994) in the IR. To obtain a reasonable agreement with Grenfell et al. (1994), we need to add a 0.25 mm-thick layer of SSA=218 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ and density=150 $kg\,m^{-3}$ to out C8 pit.

We conclude that to obtain an agreement between our data and those of Grenfell et al. (1994), we must use the snow properties of our snow pit having the highest surface SSA and add to this pit a snow layer with the highest SSA envisaged by Grenfell et al. (1994), whose value is higher than the highest value ever measured. Although such high values are not impossible (Walden et al., 2003), the occurrence of such a scenario in summer at Dome C appears unlikely. We suggest that given the different meteorological conditions between the sites of Grenfell et al. (1994) and ours, there is no compelling reason to expect similar surface snow properties and hence albedos.

Hudson et al. (2006) measured the bidirectional reflectance of the snow at Dome C. They show one spectral bihemispherical albedo (overcast sky) recorded on 30 December 2004. They observed snow grains and mention that their visual size stayed in the range $r = 50$ to 100 µm (SSA=33 to 65 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$, if the grains are assumed to be spherical). Figure 21 compares their spectral albedo to calculated albedos under similar lighting and viewing conditions, for the mean C snow and for pits C8 and C10. Our albedo for pit C8 is very similar to that of Hudson et al. (2006). Calculations using the mean C snow to which a 0.25 mm-thick layer of SSA=109 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ ($r = 30$ µm) and density=150 $kg\,m^{-3}$ has been added also agree fairly well with the data of (Hudson et al., 2006). However, adding a layer with SSA=218 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ ($r = 15$ µm) yields much too high an albedo throughout the IR. Given that Hudson et al. (2006) only show one spectrum, a definite conclusion cannot be reached. The agreement with our C8 albedo suggests that a thin high SSA layer may not be required to explain the optical

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properties of Dome C snow. Our calculation with a thin layer of SSA=109 $m^2 kg^{-1}$ may argue otherwise. Our data and those of Hudson et al. (2006) were obtained 4 years apart, so that small changes in snow properties could have occurred, that would explain the differences without invoking a thin high SSA layer. We strongly encourage further tests of the existence of a thin high-SSA layer at the very surface.

Gay et al. (2002) measured grain size during several traverses, including one between DC and DDU. These authors were aware of the ambiguous notion of grain size and developed a method to determine the "mean convex radius" of grains, a non-ambiguous variable. Around DC, most of their mean convex radii were around 100 µm. If this is equivalent to spheres of mean radius 100 µm, then the corresponding SSA is 32.7 $m^2 kg^{-1}$, in reasonable agreement with our Fig. 4. However, Gay et al. (2002) did not observe the decrease of mean convex radius with depth that is be expected from the SSA decrease in our Figs. 4 and 8, nor the significant difference between sites close to Dome C and sites close to DDU. A rigorous comparison between SSA and "mean convex radius" is required before a more detailed comparison with their data can be performed. However, grain size and mean convex radius were in fact used as substitutes for SSA before this variable could easily be measured. Now that SSA can be measured on site in a few minutes, it is not certain that further use of these variables has much interest.

6 Conclusions

The data presented here are the first extensive measurements of SSA vertical profiles on the East Antarctic plateau. The concentration of impurities in the snow is sufficiently low not to affect albedo (Grenfell et al., 1994; Warren et al., 2006), and the SSA and density profiles that we obtained can therefore be used to calculate the hemispherical spectral albedo of the snow, if the effect of surface roughness can be neglected. The albedos thus obtained are, in the IR, lower than those of Grenfell et al. (1994) obtained in 1986. The reason for this difference is not clear. It could be because we did not

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detect the submillimetric, high-SSA layer postulated by Grenfell et al. (1994), it could be due to experimental error, insufficient data, spatial and temporal variations in snow properties, or also inaccuracies in the DISORT model. We suggest that the mechanism proposed by Grenfell et al. (1994) to form the thin high-SSA layer may not be correct, and we note that this layer has never been actually observed.

The calculated albedo of our mean Dome C snow pit is lower than the one spectral albedo of Hudson et al. (2006), but our pit with the highest calculated albedo agrees well with their data. Given the small number of data from Hudson et al. (2006) that can be compared to ours, insufficient representativity or variations in snow properties between 2004 and 2008–2009 may explain the difference. Adding a thin layer of SSA=109 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$ to our mean Dome C snow also improves the agreement with Hudson et al. (2006), so that the existence of this layer cannot be ruled out.

To resolve this issue, a method must be found to obtain very high resolution SSA and density profiles of the near-surface snow. Delicate sampling methods that do not perturb the snow would be desirable, but measuring the SSA of snow at several wavelengths having different penetration depths would also be useful. DUFISSS can in principle operate at both 1310 and 1550 nm, but at present the shorter wavelength has been calibrated for SSA<66 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$, while the longer wavelength is calibrated for SSA>50 $m^2\,kg^{-1}$. Further work to allow a greater overlap would be useful to this purpose.

Lastly, our snow data allow the calculation of albedo that can be used to analyze remote sensing data and test inversion algorithms. Our preliminary investigations in fact show encouraging results regarding the possibility to determine SSA from space.

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Table 1. Coordinates of group C and T pits.

Pit Number	Date of measurement	South Coordinate	East Coordinate	Observations	Comments
C1	24.11.08	75°06′14.4″	123°17′50.5″	Clear sky	
C2	2.12.08	75°06′16.4″	123°20′10.8″	Clear sky	2 and 3 are within 20 m from each other
C3	4.12.08	75°06′16.4″	123°20′10.8″	Cloudy	
C4	15.12.08	75°05′51.6″	123°21′32.1″	Clear sky	
C5	17.12.08	75°07′03.4″	123°20′26.7″	Clear sky	
C6	23.12.08	75°06′13.8″	123°21′54.0″	Clear sky	
C7	26.12.08	75°08′01.0″	123°16′08.0″	Clear sky	*
C8	9.01.09	75°03′51.0″	123°14′48.1″	Clear sky at 09:00 UTC	*
C9	13.01.09	75°06′49.8″	123°28′30.1″	Clear sky	*
C10	24.12.08	75°05′56.3″	123°18′00.0″	Few Cirrus	American tower
C11	4.12.08	75°05′56.3″	123°18′00.0″	Cirrus	American tower
C12	3.01.09	75°19′16.0″	123°24′01.1″	Overcast	25 km South
C13	4.01.09	74°32′41.0″	123°23′43.0″	Overcast	25 km North
T1	2.02.09	74°10′20.5″	126°03′10.4″	Overcast	Altitude 3216 m
T2	3.02.09	73°08′29″	128°35′55″	Overcast	Altitude 3169 m
T3	4.02.09	72°01′58″	131°05′26″	Cirrus	Altitude 3049 m
T4	5.02.09	70°53′16″	133°17′07″	Clear sky, Drift	Altitude 2798 m
T5	6.02.09	69°49′36″	134°12′07″	Clear sky	Altitude 2600 m
T6	7.02.09	68°44′49″	134°54′21″	No pit (windy)	Altitude 2430 m
T7	8.02.09	68°00′53″	136°27′52″	Overcast	Altitude 2060 m
T8	9.02.09	67°24′53″	138°36′06″	Clear sky	Altitude 1585 m

* C7, C8 and C9 are approximately at 5 km from the base. An equilateral triangle is formed by those three pits, the center is the star on Fig. 2.

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Table 2. SAI group C and T during the 2008–2009 Antarctic summer campaign.

Pit number	SAI ($m^2\,m^{-2}$ of ground)	Pit number	SAI ($m^2\,m^{-2}$ of ground)
C1	3330	C12	3375
C2	2949	C13	3675
C3	4263	Mean group C	3334 ± 791
C4	2790	T1	1981
C5	2380	T2	3417
C6	3274	T3	3203
C7	5205	T4	4541
C8	2806	T5	4138
C9	2729	T7	3647
C10	4001	T8	3823
C11	2567	Mean group T	3536 ± 757

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Table 3. Comparison between the SAI of Antarctic and Arctic snowpacks.

Site and date	SAI ($m^2\,m^{-2}$) of ground	Depth (cm)
Group C, Concordia station, summer 2008–2009	3334	45
Group T, logistic traverse, East Antarctic plateau, February 2009	3536	45
Alert, Canadian Arctic, 18 April 2000	2525	40
Fairbanks, Central Alaska, (subarctic) November 2003	1460	45
Barrow, Arctic Alaska, spring 2004 (unpublished)	3333	45

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Table 4. Name and type of incident light sources used in the DISORT calculations.

Source name	% Direct incident flux	% Diffuse incident flux	Solar zenith angle θi, in degree
DIR60	100	0	60
DIR70	100	0	70
DIFF	0	100, on all spectrum, Cloudy conditions	–
CS60	(100-diffuse)	Wavelength dependant, Eq. 5, Clear sky conditions	60
CS70	(100-diffuse)	Wavelength dependant, Eq. 5, Clear sky conditions	70

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Table 5. Directional hemispherical reflectance of group C pits, at Dome C, calculated using the light sources of Table 4.

CONCORDIA STATION, Group C											
λ, nm	DIR60	DIR70	DIFF	CS60	CS70	λ, nm	DIR60	DIR70	DIFF	CS60	CS70
300	0,964	0,970	0,958	0,964	0,970	1450	0,147	0,206	0,127	0,147	0,205
350	0,974	0,978	0,970	0,974	0,978	1500	0,057	0,092	0,051	0,057	0,091
400	0,982	0,985	0,979	0,982	0,985	1550	0,070	0,109	0,061	0,069	0,109
450	0,987	0,989	0,985	0,987	0,988	1600	0,120	0,173	0,104	0,120	0,173
500	0,986	0,989	0,984	0,986	0,987	1650	0,145	0,203	0,125	0,145	0,203
550	0,984	0,987	0,982	0,984	0,986	1700	0,181	0,245	0,156	0,181	0,245
600	0,979	0,983	0,976	0,979	0,982	1750	0,211	0,278	0,182	0,211	0,277
650	0,970	0,975	0,966	0,970	0,974	1800	0,229	0,297	0,198	0,229	0,297
700	0,961	0,967	0,954	0,959	0,965	1850	0,238	0,307	0,207	0,238	0,307
750	0,946	0,955	0,939	0,946	0,954	1900	0,100	0,149	0,087	0,100	0,148
800	0,924	0,936	0,913	0,924	0,935	1950	0,028	0,049	0,026	0,028	0,049
850	0,914	0,928	0,902	0,914	0,927	2000	0,021	0,038	0,020	0,021	0,037
900	0,879	0,898	0,862	0,878	0,897	2050	0,026	0,046	0,024	0,026	0,046
950	0,861	0,884	0,842	0,861	0,882	2100	0,049	0,080	0,044	0,049	0,080
1000	0,791	0,823	0,763	0,790	0,822	2150	0,103	0,153	0,090	0,103	0,153
1050	0,768	0,804	0,739	0,767	0,802	2200	0,155	0,216	0,134	0,155	0,215
1100	0,795	0,827	0,768	0,794	0,826	2250	0,184	0,248	0,158	0,184	0,248
1150	0,771	0,806	0,742	0,771	0,805	2300	0,143	0,202	0,124	0,143	0,202
1200	0,651	0,701	0,612	0,650	0,700	2350	0,093	0,141	0,082	0,093	0,141
1250	0,560	0,620	0,518	0,560	0,619	2400	0,074	0,117	0,066	0,074	0,117
1300	0,563	0,622	0,520	0,562	0,621	2450	0,064	0,102	0,057	0,064	0,102
1350	0,560	0,620	0,518	0,560	0,619	2500	0,053	0,088	0,048	0,053	0,088
1400	0,509	0,573	0,465	0,508	0,572						

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Table 6. Directional hemispherical reflectance of pits T1 to T4, calculated using the light sources of Table 4.

LOGISTIC TRAVERSE, T1-T4											
λ, nm	DIR60	DIR70	DIFF	CS60	CS70	λ, nm	DIR60	DIR70	DIFF	CS60	CS70
300	0,965	0,971	0,959	0,964	0,970	1450	0,140	0,198	0,121	0,140	0,197
350	0,975	0,979	0,971	0,975	0,979	1500	0,054	0,087	0,048	0,054	0,087
400	0,983	0,986	0,981	0,983	0,986	1550	0,066	0,104	0,058	0,065	0,103
450	0,988	0,990	0,985	0,986	0,988	1600	0,114	0,166	0,099	0,114	0,166
500	0,987	0,989	0,985	0,987	0,988	1650	0,138	0,195	0,119	0,138	0,195
550	0,984	0,987	0,983	0,985	0,987	1700	0,174	0,236	0,150	0,174	0,236
600	0,981	0,984	0,978	0,980	0,983	1750	0,203	0,269	0,175	0,202	0,268
650	0,972	0,977	0,968	0,972	0,976	1800	0,220	0,288	0,191	0,220	0,288
700	0,962	0,968	0,955	0,961	0,967	1850	0,230	0,298	0,199	0,230	0,298
750	0,948	0,956	0,941	0,948	0,956	1900	0,094	0,142	0,082	0,094	0,142
800	0,926	0,938	0,915	0,925	0,937	1950	0,027	0,046	0,025	0,027	0,046
850	0,916	0,930	0,904	0,915	0,928	2000	0,020	0,035	0,019	0,020	0,035
900	0,879	0,898	0,862	0,878	0,897	2050	0,025	0,043	0,023	0,025	0,043
950	0,861	0,883	0,842	0,860	0,882	2100	0,046	0,076	0,041	0,046	0,076
1000	0,787	0,820	0,760	0,786	0,819	2150	0,097	0,146	0,085	0,097	0,146
1050	0,763	0,800	0,734	0,763	0,798	2200	0,148	0,207	0,128	0,148	0,207
1100	0,791	0,824	0,764	0,791	0,823	2250	0,176	0,239	0,152	0,176	0,239
1150	0,767	0,803	0,738	0,766	0,802	2300	0,136	0,194	0,118	0,136	0,194
1200	0,643	0,694	0,605	0,643	0,693	2350	0,088	0,135	0,077	0,088	0,135
1250	0,552	0,612	0,509	0,551	0,611	2400	0,070	0,111	0,062	0,070	0,111
1300	0,554	0,614	0,511	0,554	0,613	2450	0,060	0,097	0,053	0,060	0,097
1350	0,552	0,612	0,509	0,551	0,611	2500	0,050	0,083	0,045	0,050	0,083
1400	0,499	0,564	0,456	0,499	0,563						

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Table 7. Directional hemispherical reflectance of pits T5 to T8, calculated using the light sources of Table 4.

LOGISTIC TRAVERSE, T5-T8											
λ, nm	DIR60	DIR70	DIFF	CS60	CS70	λ, nm	DIR60	DIR70	DIFF	CS60	CS70
300	0,956	0,964	0,949	0,956	0,963	1450	0,090	0,137	0,079	0,090	0,137
350	0,968	0,974	0,964	0,969	0,974	1500	0,031	0,054	0,028	0,031	0,053
400	0,980	0,983	0,977	0,980	0,983	1550	0,039	0,065	0,035	0,038	0,065
450	0,985	0,988	0,984	0,985	0,987	1600	0,071	0,111	0,063	0,071	0,111
500	0,984	0,987	0,983	0,985	0,987	1650	0,089	0,135	0,077	0,089	0,134
550	0,981	0,984	0,979	0,981	0,984	1700	0,116	0,169	0,100	0,116	0,169
600	0,976	0,980	0,972	0,976	0,979	1750	0,139	0,197	0,119	0,139	0,196
650	0,965	0,971	0,960	0,964	0,970	1800	0,153	0,214	0,132	0,153	0,214
700	0,952	0,960	0,945	0,952	0,959	1850	0,161	0,223	0,139	0,161	0,222
750	0,935	0,946	0,925	0,934	0,944	1900	0,057	0,093	0,051	0,057	0,093
800	0,907	0,922	0,893	0,906	0,920	1950	0,015	0,027	0,014	0,015	0,027
850	0,896	0,913	0,880	0,894	0,911	2000	0,012	0,021	0,011	0,012	0,021
900	0,850	0,874	0,829	0,849	0,872	2050	0,014	0,025	0,013	0,014	0,025
950	0,827	0,854	0,804	0,827	0,853	2100	0,026	0,046	0,024	0,026	0,046
1000	0,739	0,779	0,708	0,739	0,777	2150	0,059	0,096	0,053	0,059	0,096
1050	0,711	0,754	0,677	0,710	0,753	2200	0,095	0,144	0,083	0,095	0,144
1100	0,744	0,783	0,713	0,743	0,782	2250	0,117	0,171	0,101	0,117	0,171
1150	0,715	0,758	0,681	0,715	0,757	2300	0,087	0,133	0,076	0,087	0,133
1200	0,573	0,632	0,531	0,573	0,630	2350	0,053	0,087	0,047	0,053	0,087
1250	0,473	0,539	0,429	0,472	0,538	2400	0,041	0,070	0,037	0,041	0,070
1300	0,475	0,542	0,431	0,475	0,541	2450	0,034	0,060	0,032	0,034	0,060
1350	0,473	0,539	0,428	0,472	0,538	2500	0,028	0,051	0,026	0,028	0,051
1400	0,417	0,487	0,374	0,417	0,486						

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Table 8. Directional hemispherical reflectance of all pits calculated for the spectral bands of MODIS and AATSR satellites, and using the light sources of Table 4.

λ, Satellite and bands	Incident source	Group C	T1-T4	T5-T8	λ, Satellite and bands	Incident source	Group C	T1-T4	T5-T8
	DIR60	0,987	0,988	0,986	870 nm,	DIR60	0,900	0,901	0,876
470 nm,	DIR70	0,989	0,990	0,989	AATSR	DIR70	0,916	0,917	0,896
Modis	DIFF	0,985	0,986	0,984	and Modis	DIFF	0,886	0,887	0,859
band 3	CS60	0,988	0,988	0,985	band 2	CS60	0,900	0,900	0,876
	CS70	0,989	0,989	0,987		CS70	0,915	0,916	0,895
550 nm,	DIR60	0,984	0,984	0,981		DIR60	0,568	0,559	0,481
AATSR	DIR70	0,987	0,987	0,984	1240 nm	DIR70	0,627	0,619	0,547
and Modis	DIFF	0,982	0,983	0,979	Modis	DIFF	0,526	0,517	0,437
band 4	CS60	0,984	0,985	0,981	band 5	CS60	0,567	0,559	0,480
	CS70	0,986	0,987	0,984		CS70	0,626	0,618	0,546
	DIR60	0,970	0,973	0,966		DIR60	0,120	0,114	0,071
645 nm	DIR70	0,975	0,978	0,972	1600 nm	DIR70	0,173	0,166	0,111
Modis	DIFF	0,966	0,969	0,961	AATSR	DIFF	0,104	0,099	0,063
band 1	CS60	0,971	0,972	0,966		CS60	0,120	0,114	0,071
	CS70	0,975	0,976	0,971		CS70	0,173	0,166	0,111
	DIR60	0,968	0,969	0,962		DIR60	0,138	0,132	0,084
660 nm	DIR70	0,974	0,975	0,968	1640 nm	DIR70	0,195	0,188	0,129
AATSR	DIFF	0,963	0,965	0,956	Modis	DIFF	0,119	0,114	0,073
	CS60	0,967	0,969	0,962	band 6	CS60	0,138	0,132	0,084
	CS70	0,972	0,973	0,968		CS70	0,195	0,187	0,128

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Table A1. SSAs and densities used in DISORT, group C.

	C1			C2			C3 (sastrugi on top 25 cm)			C4			C5		
Depth from top in cm	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains
1	52,9	305	RG	42,2	291	RG	32,7	227	RG+SH	41,6	158	SH	34,0	221	RG
2	52,9	305	RG	42,2	291	RG	24,8	216	RG+SH	27,9	314	WC	33,6	292	RG
5	52,9	305	RG	42,2	291	RG	36,8	363	WC	18,3	355	MF	33,6	292	RG
10	29,3	444	WC	25,5	368	WC	36,8	363	WC	18,3	355	MF	18,0	290	DH
15	15,1	353	MF	22,9	352	FC	27,6	368	WC	18,3	355	MF	17,4	290	DH
20	15,1	353	MF	20,8	336	FC	27,6	368	WC	19,2	355	MF	12,8	290	FC
30	16,6	341	MF	18,5	296	DH	25,1	328	MF	19,2	355	MF	14,4	318	FC
40	13,3	388	DH	11,9	317	DH	24,4	336	MF	16,2	316	FC	15,3	329	MF
50	11,8	328	DH	12,8	341	DH	24,6	339	MF	14,4	334	MF	11,0	352	DH
60	10,4	404	DH	12,8	371	DH	24,6	318	MF	15,9	334	MF	11,0	313	DH
70	10,4	404	DH	12,7	418	DH	28,1	353	WC	15,6	399	WC	11,8	315	DH

	C6			C7 (5 Km from base)			C8 (5 Km from base)			C9 (5 Km from base)			C10		
Depth from top in cm	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains
1	40,3	298	WC	35,7	146	SH+RG	54,5	229	BR+Col+RG	40,6	293	RG	24,3	316	SH+FC
2	40,3	298	WC	27,7	222	RG+MF	16,6	229	FC+RG	30,3	293	RG+FC	24,3	316	SH+FC
5	29,6	298	MF	30,2	294	RG+MF	22,2	229	FC+RG	24,8	315	RG+FC	13,0	466	MF
10	22,2	356	RG+MF	29,5	297	RG+MF	24,1	306	WC	26,0	315	RG+FC	27,7	454	WC
15	21,6	356	RG+MF	33,1	297	RG+MF	22,3	466	WC	19,7	460	WC	18,3	466	WC
20	19,1	356	RG+MF	38,8	306	RG+MF	19,2	466	WC	15,4	307	MF+DH	19,7	466	WC
30	16,8	326	MF	39,3	384	RG+MF	14,5	322	DH	14,3	307	MF+DH	17,9	508	WC
40	16,1	326	MF	26,8	446	WC	14,8	310	DH	14,3	349	MF+DH	15,9	521	FC
50	16,0	363	MF	18,2	380	MF	14,7	347	MF	10,7	343	DH	12,4	343	FC
60	14,0	347	MF	18,2	340	MF	15,6	347	MF	10,7	333	DH	10,2	312	DH
70	11,7	343	MF	13,4	310	MF	12,9	325	MF	10,1	313	DH	12,0	274	DH

	C11			C12 (25 Km South from base)			C13 (25 Km north from base)			Mean all pits C		
Depth from top in cm	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	
1	41,1	260	SH	26,0	334	RG	29,7	317	WC	38,1	261	
2	40,5	291	RG	26,0	334	RG	26,0	317	WC	31,8	286	
5	46,1	260	RG	26,0	334	RG	26,0	317	WC	30,9	317	
10	19,8	321	MF	25,5	334	RG	29,4	317	RG+SH	25,5	355	
15	19,8	352	MF	25,5	334	MF	29,4	317	RG+SH	22,4	374	
20	15,8	333	MF	26,7	330	MF	24,8	356	RG+SH	21,2	363	
30	12,9	359	MF	24,0	330	FC	21,1	356	MF	19,6	348	
40	11,3	348	MF+DH	17,3	330	DH	21,1	356	MF	16,8	359	
50	11,1	363	MF+DH	13,7	348	DH	12,7	332	DH	14,2	347	
60	10,0	317	MF+DH	13,7	348	DH	12,7	332	DH	13,8	340	
70	11,9	310	MF+DH	13,7	348	DH	12,7	332	DH	13,6	342	

Snow grains meaning	
Notation	Snow Grains
BR	Bullet Rosette
Col	Column
DH	Depth Hoar
FC	Faceted Crystal
MF	Mixed Form
RG	Rounded Grain
SH	Surface Hoar
WC	Wind Crust

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Table A2. SSAs and densities values used in DISORT, group T.

	T1			T2			T3			T4			Mean T1-T4	
Depth from top in cm	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$
1	35,6	162	RG	36,0	351	WC	34,8	285	SH+RG	38,0	407	WC	36,1	301
2	35,6	162	RG	36,0	351	WC	34,8	285	RG	38,0	407	WC	36,1	301
5	35,6	162	RG	36,0	351	WC	34,8	285	RG	38,0	407	WC	36,1	301
10	31,6	150	WC	20,1	302	MF	27,9	400	WC	38,0	407	WC	29,4	315
15	20,7	208	FC	23,4	353	WC	30,0	403	WC	22,8	341	FC	24,2	326
20	20,7	208	FC	18,6	353	FC	18,5	355	MF	22,8	341	FC	20,2	314
30	14,4	251	FC	20,3	353	FC	16,0	341	FC	23,4	380	WC	18,5	331
40	17,0	277	FC	24,0	325	FC	12,0	330	FC+DH	23,3	380	MF	19,1	328
50	14,2	272	FC+DH	15,0	325	FC	14,4	382	FC+DH	23,2	381	MF	16,7	340
60	13,0	278	FC+DH	15,0	325	FC	X	X	X	X	X	X	14,0	302
70	13,1	287	FC+DH	14,3	335	FC	X	X	X	X	X	X	13,7	311

	T5			T7			T8			Mean T5-T8			Snow grains meaning	
Depth from top in cm	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$	Snow Grains	SSA, $m^2\,kg^{-1}$	Density, $kg\,m^{-3}$		Notation	Snow Grains
1	27,3	415	WC	21,0	374	WC	19,8	446	WC	22,7	412		DH	Depth Hoar
2	27,3	415	WC	21,0	374	WC	19,8	446	WC	22,7	412		FC	Faceted Crystal
5	27,3	415	WC	21,0	374	WC	19,8	446	WC	22,7	412		MF	Mixed Form
10	22,5	399	RG	16,0	515	WC	16,7	463	FC	18,4	459		RG	Rounded Grain
15	22,5	399	RG	16,0	515	WC	18,9	464	WC	19,1	459		SH	Surface Hoar
20	22,7	337	RG	16,0	486	WC	18,4	497	FC	19,0	440		WC	Wind Crust
30	23,2	370	MF	16,0	506	WC	17,6	477	FC	18,9	451			
40	23,7	403	MF	16,4	509	WC	X	X	X	20,1	456			
50	23,7	403	MF	16,6	478	WC	X	X	X	20,2	441			
60	X	X	X	17,7	459	FC	X	X	X	17,7	459			
70	X	X	X	16,5	473	WC	X	X	X	16,5	473			

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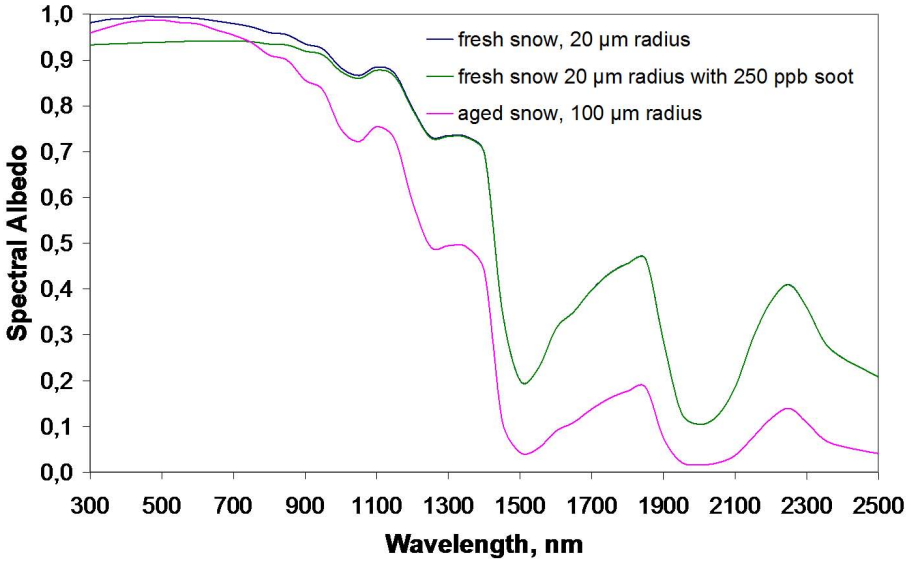

Fig. 1. Spectral albedo of fresh and aged pure snow and of fresh snow contaminated by soot. The plots were calculated using the DISORT radiative transfer code, which simulates snow grains as disconnected spheres of the radius indicated.

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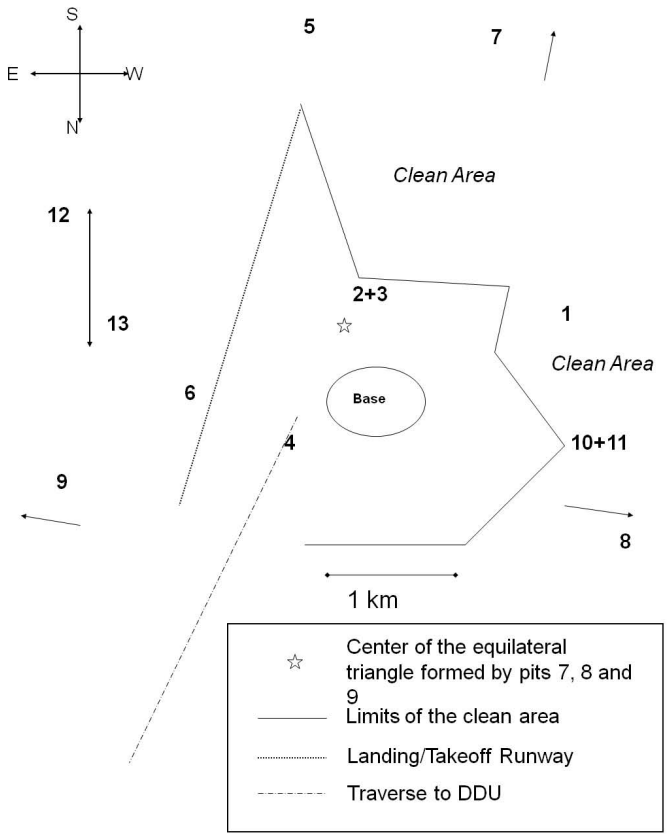

Fig. 2. Location of group C pits around Concordia station, 75°06′00.2 S, 123°19′58.8 E.

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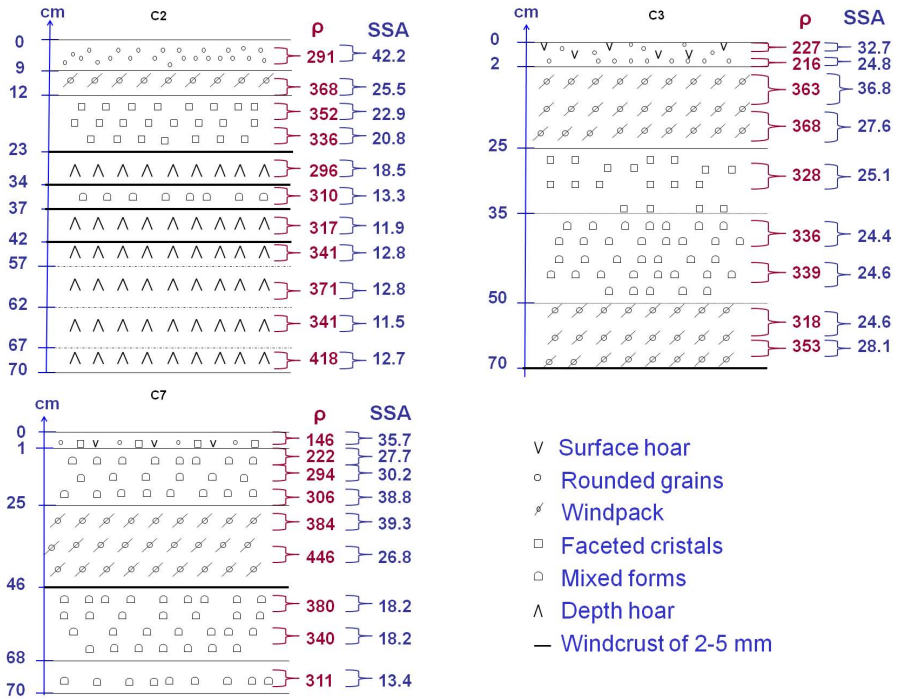

Fig. 3. Stratigraphy, density (ρ) in kg m^{-3} and SSA in m^2 kg^{-1} of pits C2, C3 and C7.

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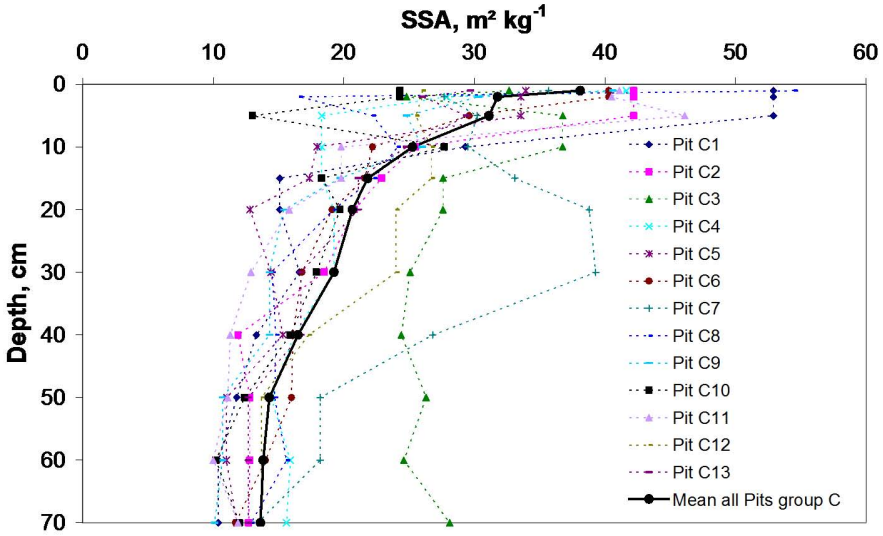

Fig. 4. SSA profiles of group C pits around Concordia station.

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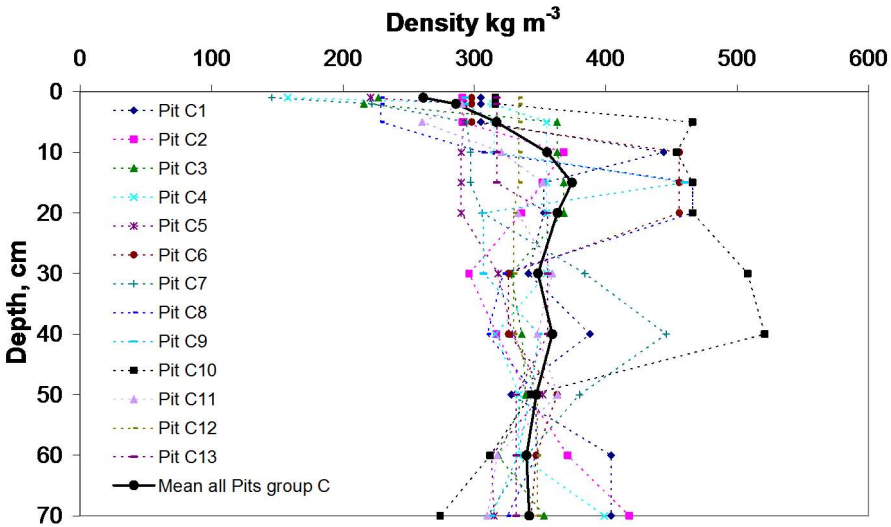

Fig. 5. Density profiles of group C pits around Concordia station.

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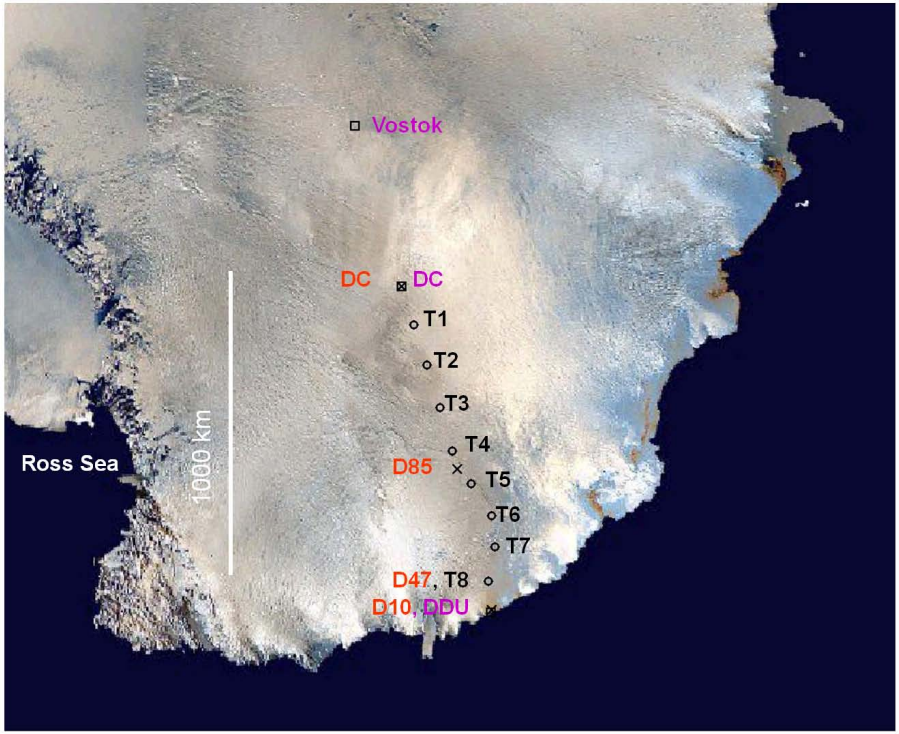

Fig. 6. Map of the logistical traverse between Concordia station (DC) and Dumont D'Urville (DDU). The locations of all group T pits (circles) and automatic weather stations (X) are shown.

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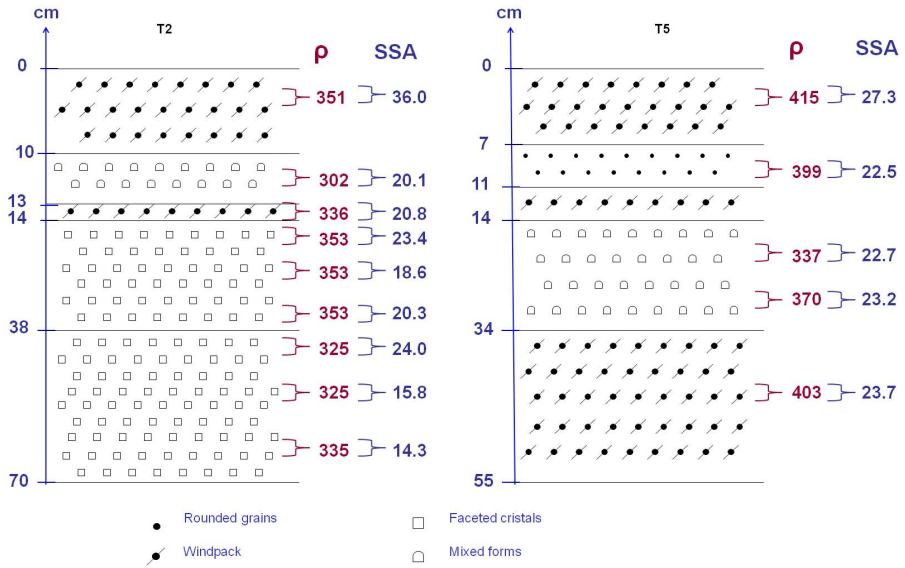

Fig. 7. Stratigraphy, density (ρ) in kg m^{-3} and SSA in m^2 kg^{-1} of pits T2 and T5.

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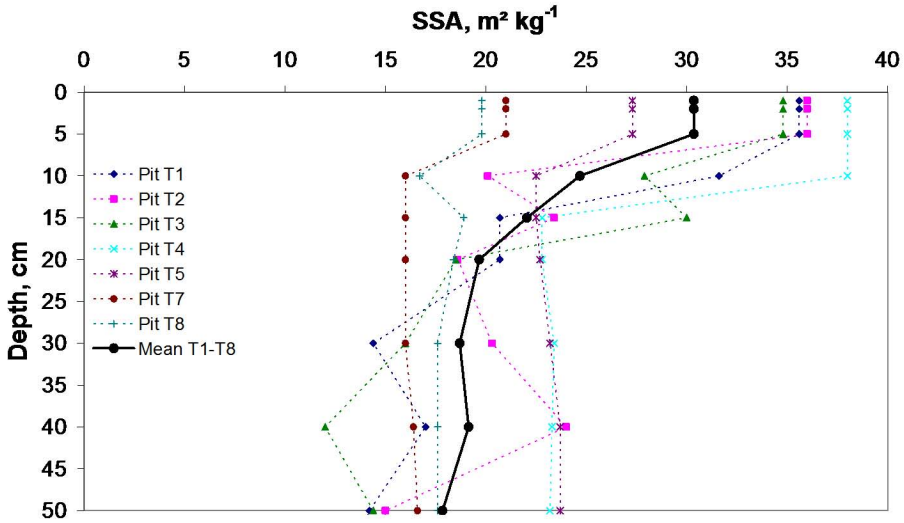

Fig. 8. SSA profiles of group T pits along the logistical traverse.

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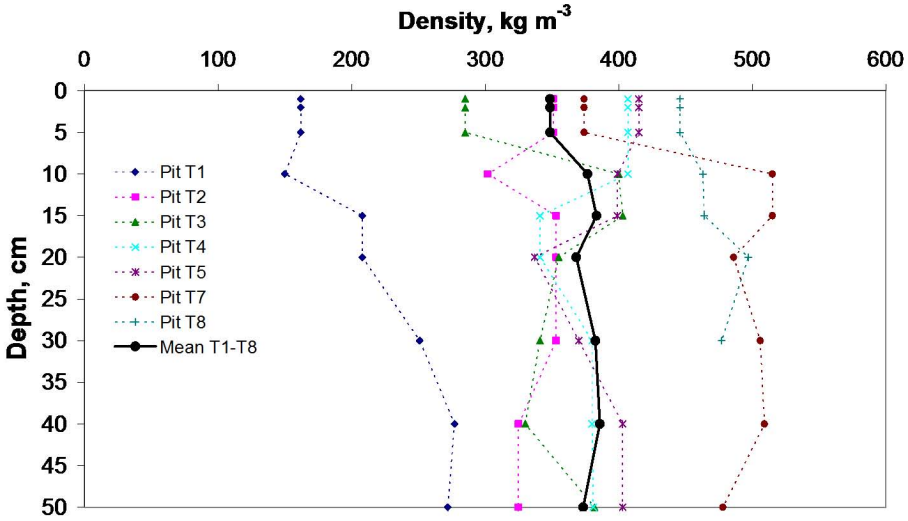

Fig. 9. Density profiles of group T pits along the logistical traverse.

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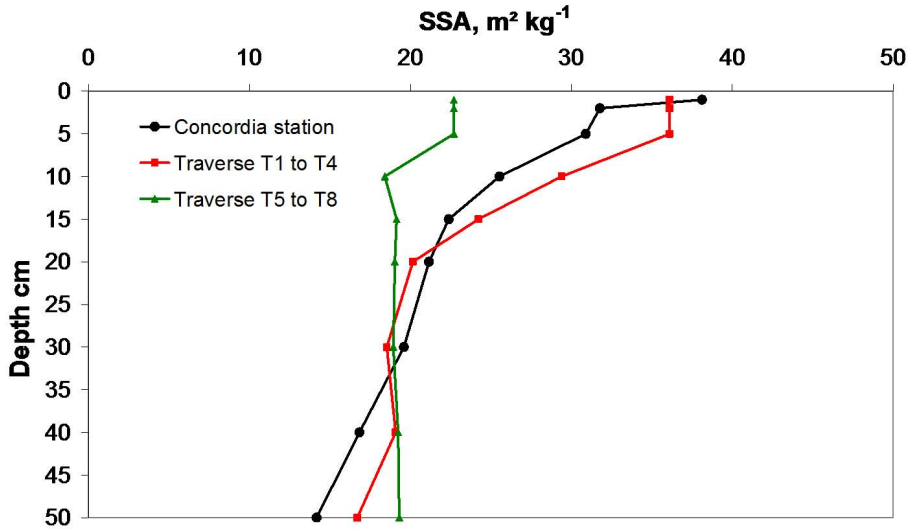

Fig. 10. SSA profiles at DC and along the traverse.

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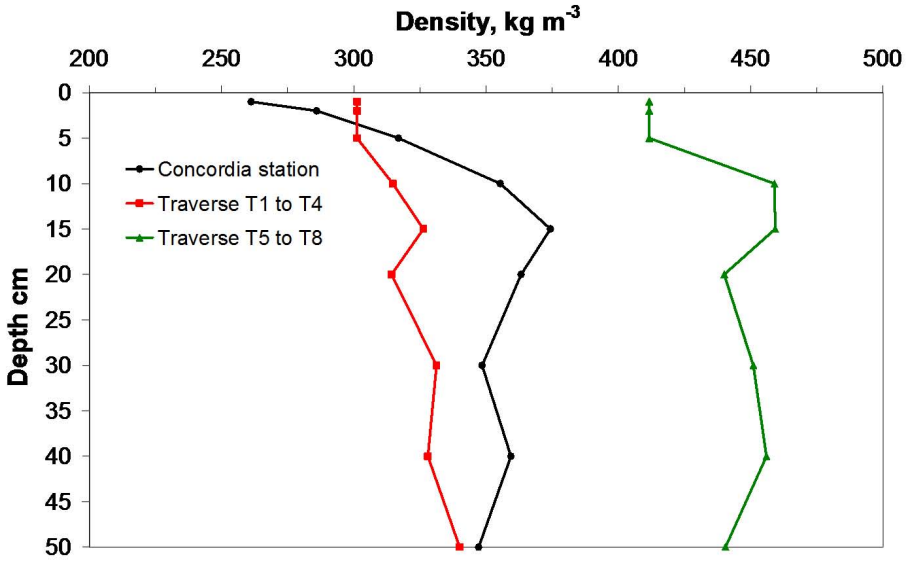

Fig. 11. Density profiles at DC and along the traverse.

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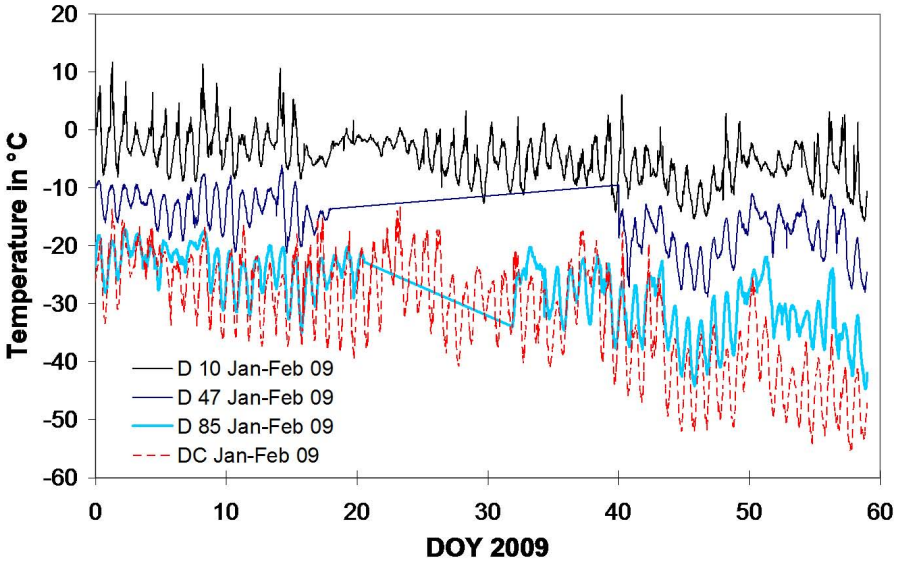

Fig. 12. Time series of temperature along the traverse in January and February 2009. DOY = Day Of Year. Data from AWSs.

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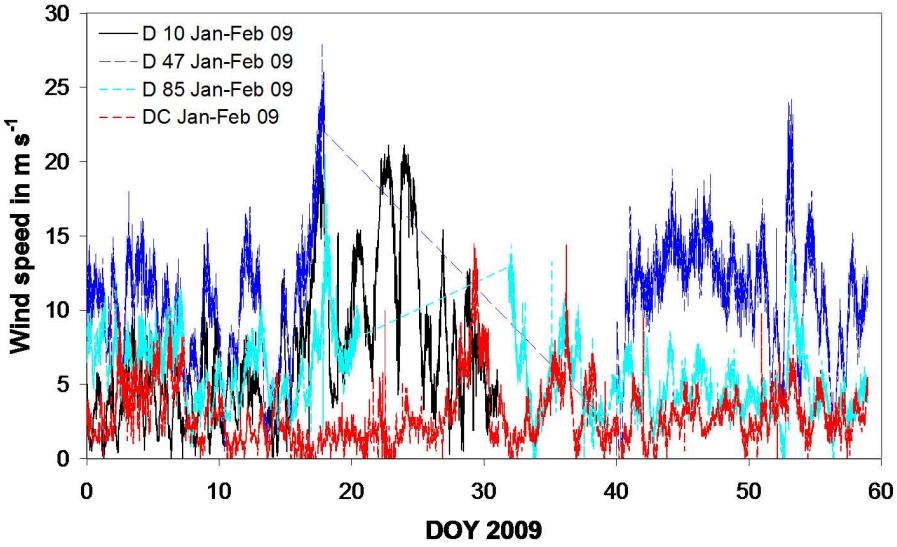

Fig. 13. Time series of wind speed along the traverse in January and February 2009. DOY = Day Of Year. Data from AWSs.

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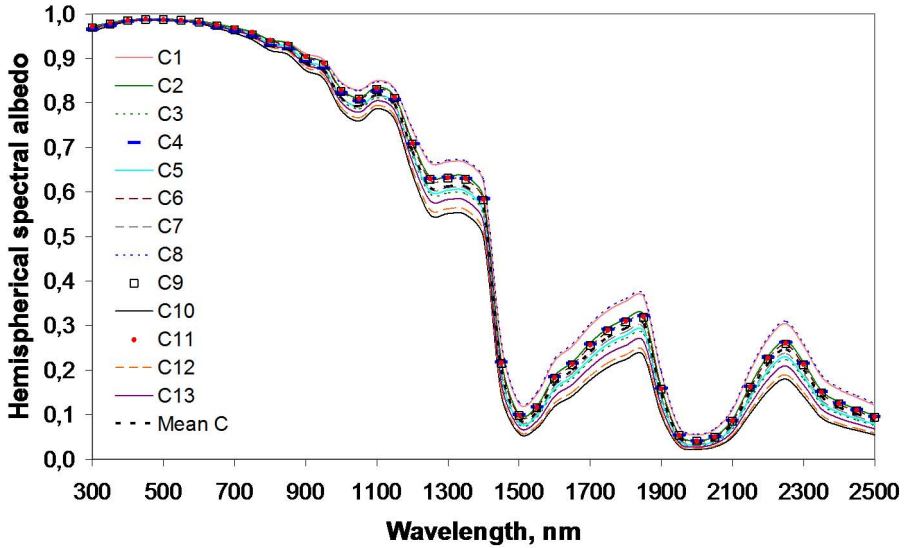

Fig. 14. Hemispherical spectral albedos of the group C pits calculated with the CS70 source.

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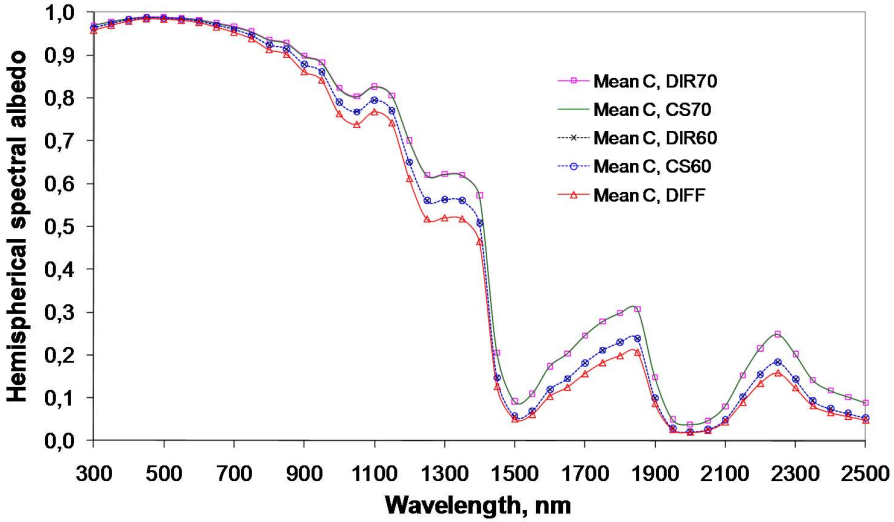

Fig. 15. Hemispherical spectral albedo of the mean group C snow, calculated with all light sources of Table 4.

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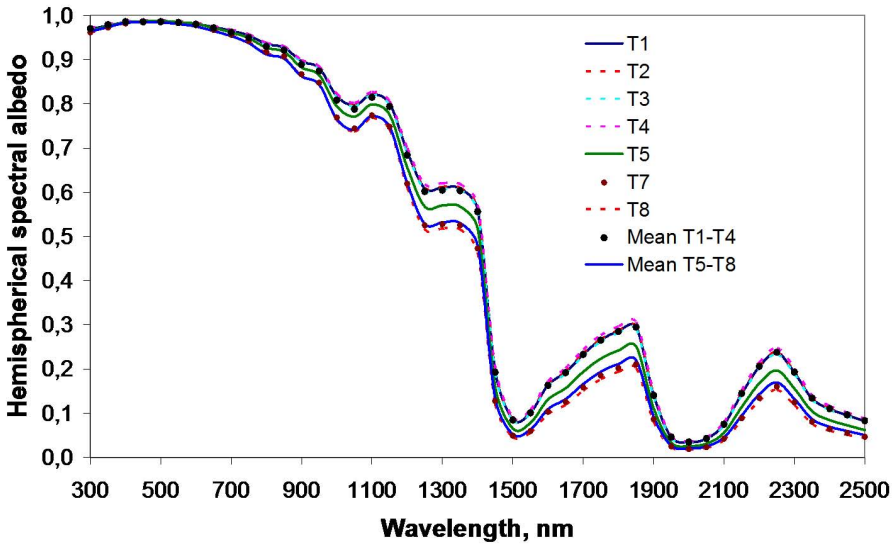

Fig. 16. Hemispherical spectral albedos of the group T pits calculated with the CS70 source.

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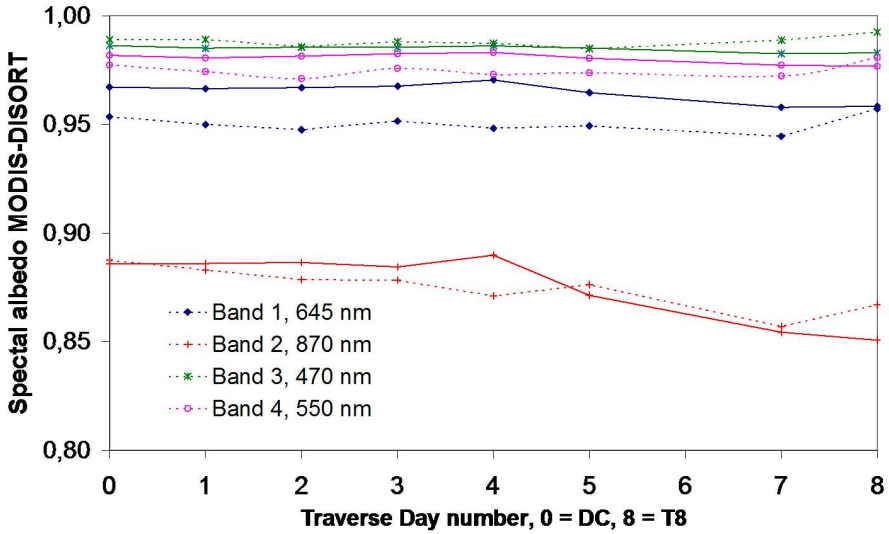

Fig. 17. Spectral albedo for band 1 to 4, MODIS (dashed lines) and DISORT (solid lines).

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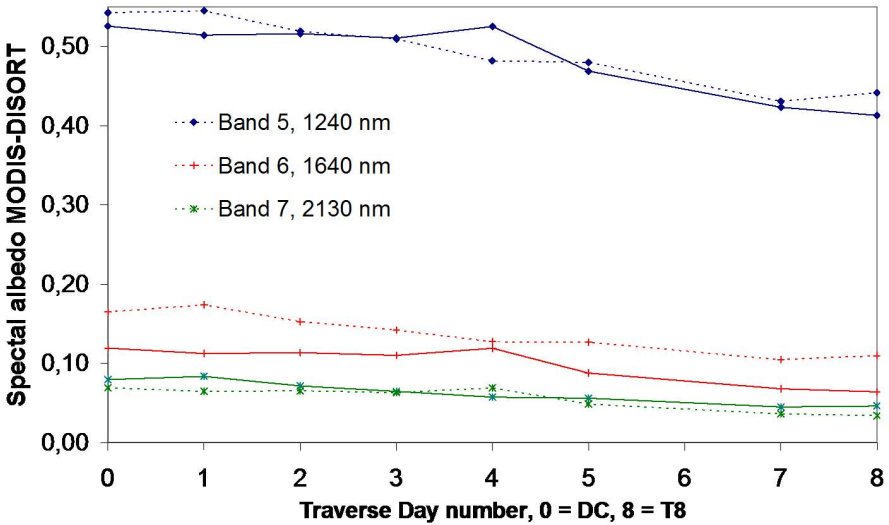

Fig. 18. Spectral albedo for band 5 to 7, MODIS (dashed lines) and DISORT (solid lines).

TCD
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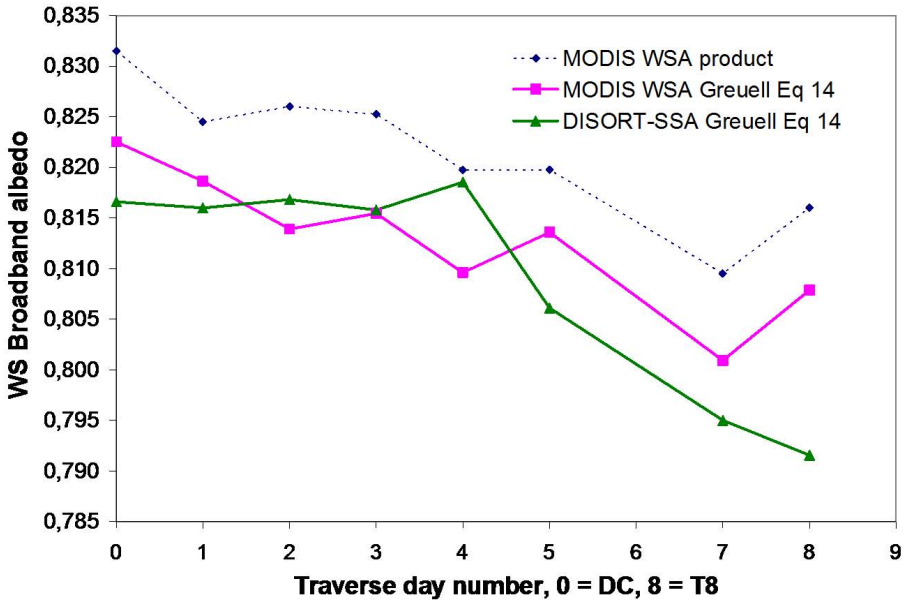

Fig. 19. Comparison between the Modis product broadband albedo and empirical equation of (Greuell et al., 2004) for band 1, 2 and 4 (Modis spectral albedo and Disort calculations).

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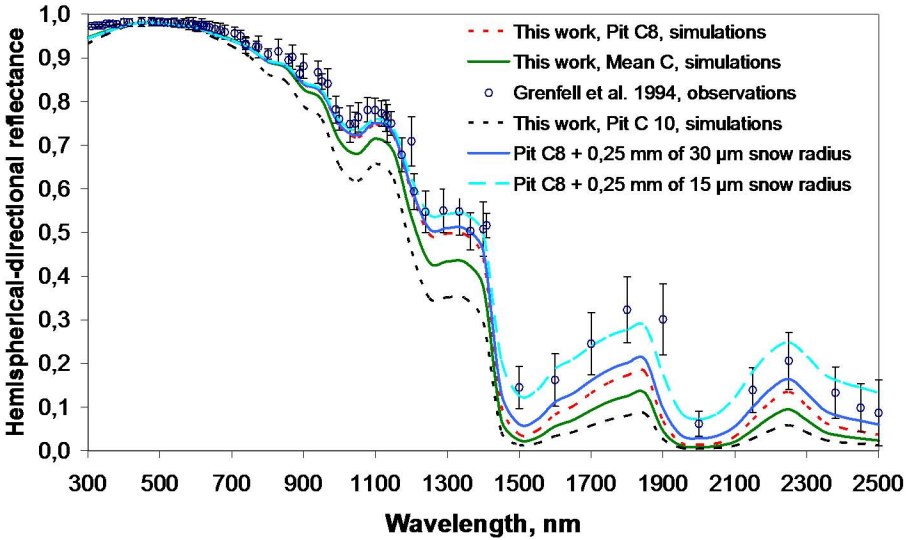

Fig. 20. Comparison between the reflectance of Grenfell et al. (1994) and that calculated from our snow data using DISORT and illumination and viewing conditions similar to those of Grenfell et al. (1994).

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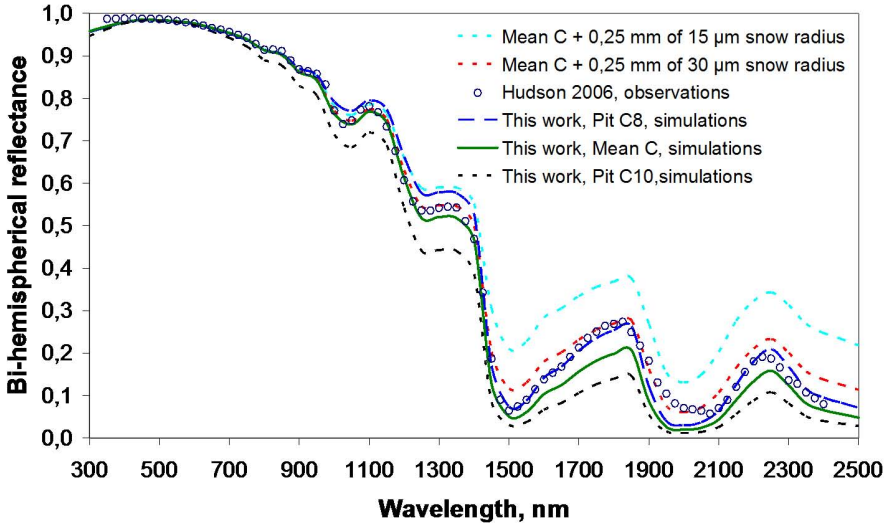

Fig. 21. Calculated bi-hemispherical reflectance (i.e. albedo) of snow near Dome C, and comparison with the measurements of Hudson et al (2006), performed under overcast conditions.

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