

200-years ice core bromine reconstruction at Dome C (Antarctica): observational and modelling results

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Key points (max 3)

- Stratospheric ozone-hole depletion has not affected bromine preservation in snow at Dome C
- Volcanic eruptions have not significantly altered the snow bromine profile at Dome C over the last 200 years
- Little seasonal sea-ice variability over the last 30 years and low sensitivity to first-year sea-ice bromine emissions at Dome C do not allow the validation of Br_{enr} as past sea-ice proxy at this site.

1 **Abstract**

2 Bromine enrichment (Br_{enr}) has been proposed as an ice core proxy for past sea-ice reconstruction.
3 Understanding the processes that influence bromine preservation in the ice is crucial to achieve a
4 reliable interpretation of ice core signals and to potentially relate them to past sea-ice variability. Here,
5 we present a 210 years bromine record that sheds light on the main processes controlling bromine
6 preservation in the snow and ice at Dome C, East Antarctic plateau. Using observations alongside a
7 modelling approach, we demonstrate that the bromine signal is preserved at Dome C and it is not
8 affected by the strong variations in ultraviolet radiation reaching the Antarctic plateau due to the
9 stratospheric ozone hole. Based on this, we investigate whether the Dome C Br_{enr} record can be used as
10 an effective tracer of past Antarctic sea-ice. Due to the limited time window covered by satellite
11 measurements and the low sea-ice variability observed during the last 30 years in East Antarctica, we
12 cannot fully validate Br_{enr} as an effective proxy for past sea-ice reconstructions at Dome C.

13 **1. Introduction**

14 Halogens play an important role in the chemistry and oxidizing capacity of the Earth's atmosphere:
15 they take part in new particle formation processes, promote mercury oxidation, influence the budget of
16 HO_x and NO_x radicals and cause ozone depletion through efficient catalytic cycles (Saiz-Lopez and
17 Von Glasow, 2012; Simpson et al., 2007). Volcanic eruptions (Gutmann et al., 2018) and the ocean
18 (Parrella et al., 2012; Prados-Roman et al., 2015) represent the main natural sources of halogens to the
19 atmosphere, releasing significant amounts of bromine (Br) and iodine (I) (Cuevas et al., 2018; Carpenter
20 et al., 2013). In this work we focus on bromine, which has been shown to dominate halogen emissions
21 and chemistry in the polar atmosphere through the so-called “bromine explosion events” (Pratt et al.,
22 2013; Platt and Lehrer, 1997). These are heterogeneous autocatalytic photochemical reactions, which
23 were first described in the Arctic boundary layer and that cause the bromine-induced ozone depletion
24 events (Fan and Jacob, 1992; Vogt et al., 1996; Foster et al., 2001; Wennberg, 1999; Barrie et al., 1988;
25 Kreher et al., 1997). These autocatalytic multiphase chain reactions require both acidic conditions and
26 sunlight to produce an exponential increase in atmospheric bromine concentration, mainly as gaseous

27 BrO, Br₂ and HOBr (Schönhardt et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2016; Nghiem et al., 2012). In the polar
28 regions, the most favourable substrate (i.e. with a large bromide content) to produce such bromine
29 explosion and ozone depletion events during springtime is the sea-salt aerosol derived from surface
30 blowing snow deposited over first-year sea-ice (FYSI), which is characterized by acidic conditions,
31 higher Br⁻/Cl⁻ ratio (Pratt et al., 2013) and higher salinity than the snow deposited over multi-year sea-
32 ice (MYSI) (Frey et al., 2020). Direct observations from two winter cruises in the Weddell Sea
33 (Antarctica) and model simulation, showed that significant bromine losses take place in the aerosol
34 phase, indicating that sea-salt aerosol debromination from salty blowing snow over sea-ice represents a
35 relevant source of gas-phase inorganic bromine to the troposphere (Frey et al., 2020; Parrella et al.,
36 2012; Yang et al., 2005). Note that most inorganic bromine gases present in the atmosphere are highly
37 water-soluble and they suffer wet and dry deposition over the ice sheets (Legrand et al., 2021; Parrella
38 et al., 2012; Fernandez et al., 2019).

39 Especially during the “bromine explosion events”, bromine, that shares the same sources as sodium
40 (i.e. sea-salt), is significantly enriched compared to sodium (Na) in the FYSI surfaces, exceeding the
41 bromine-to-sodium mass ratio of seawater (Millero et al., 2008). **Being promoted by the presence of**
42 **FYSI compared to MYSI, this bromine enrichment (Br_{enr} , eq 1) has been proposed as a potential tracer**
43 **for the reconstruction of past FYSI conditions (Spolaor et al., 2016; Maffezzoli et al., 2019; Spolaor et**
44 **al., 2013b; Vallelonga et al., 2017). Qualitatively, higher Br_{enr} values were linked to larger FYSI extent**
45 **(Spolaor et al., 2013b).** However, many unknowns, mainly related to the source, transport and
46 preservation of bromine within the snowpack, still remain (Maffezzoli et al., 2019). For example, it has
47 been suggested that the anthropogenic-induced acidity increase of the snow deposited over the sea-ice
48 surface can enhance the sea salt debromination rates enhancing the release of reactive bromine from
49 sea-salt aerosols into the atmosphere (Maselli et al., 2017; Sander et al., 2003). Further, bromine can
50 also be re-emitted from the snowpack after deposition and prior to burial. However, the results obtained
51 from previous studies are contradictory and site-specific (McConnell et al., 2017; Legrand et al., 2016;
52 Dibb et al., 2010; Spolaor et al., 2019). In Greenland, Dibb et al., (2010) showed that bromine photo-
53 activation was present during spring/summer and highlighted an efficient Br chemical cycling above

54 the snow. In the Svalbard Archipelago, a high-temporal resolution study designed to investigate the
55 potential photo-emission of bromine from the snowpack (Spolaor et al., 2019) did not highlight any
56 bromine diurnal cycle, suggesting its preservation in snow. In Antarctica, through the investigation of
57 Na and Br fluxes against snow accumulation rate, McConnell et al., (2017) found that bromine re-
58 emission from the Antarctic snowpack is **inversely** dependent on the accumulation rate. It was shown
59 that the bromine loss from the snowpack was higher (65%) at sites with the lowest accumulation rate
60 ($50 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and it decreased to 11% at sites with high annual accumulation rate ($300 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).
61 Based on these observations, virtually all bromine deposited at Dome C (Antarctica), where the annual
62 snow accumulation is $\approx 25\text{-}28 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, would have been re-emitted to the atmosphere prior to burial
63 (McConnell et al., 2017; Maffezzoli et al., 2019). These conclusions contrast with previous observations
64 performed at Dome C that reported no significant bromine re-emission from the snowpack (Legrand et
65 al., 2016). An additional process that can affect bromine preservation within the snowpack has been
66 identified in coincidence with the 17.7 ka Mt. Takahe volcanic eruption, when, the combination of an
67 increased surface ultraviolet (UV) radiation, due to stratospheric ozone depletion, and high acidity
68 conditions **was** associated with a decrease in ice bromine concentration (McConnell et al., 2017). To our
69 knowledge, there are no investigations that focused on the effects of the modern UV-radiation changes
70 reaching the Antarctic plateau, due to the ozone-hole formation, on bromine preservation in snow.

71 To unravel the physicochemical processes that can influence bromine preservation in the snow, we
72 investigated the main pathways that can induce its emission from the snowpack to the atmosphere.
73 Bromine is mainly present in the Antarctic snowpack as bromide (Spolaor et al., 2013a) and it can be
74 oxidized by OH radicals (George and Anastasio, 2007; Abbatt et al., 2010) to form evaporable gaseous
75 bromine. The main 'OH source within the snowpack is the photolysis of hydrogen peroxide (Chu and
76 Anastasio, 2005), nitrate (Chu and Anastasio, 2003; Abbatt et al., 2010) and nitrite (Chu and Anastasio,
77 2007). Understanding the relevance of each of these photochemical pathways in explaining the
78 preservation of bromide in the Antarctic snowpack before and after the onset of the modern-ozone hole
79 is then crucial for a reliable interpretation of the bromine enrichment profile observed in ice core
80 records.

81 In this study, we present the first bromine record retrieved from a shallow firn core collected at
82 Dome C, Antarctica, covering the period 1800-2012. Through the evaluation of the bromine profile, it
83 is possible to provide new evidence about the role of the enhanced solar-UV radiation due to the onset
84 of the modern Antarctic ozone hole (1975) on bromine preservation in the snowpack. An extended
85 evaluation of the role of OH precursors and their relevance at Dome C is also performed. Lastly, an
86 assessment of **the suitability of Br_{enr}** as a potential past sea-ice tracer at Dome C is also addressed by
87 combining **air-mass transport re-analysis and sea-ice extent satellite observations**. The results presented
88 in this paper open new perspectives on future long-term bromine **studies from ice cores retrieved from**
89 **low accumulation areas**, aimed at forecasting future deep core drillings at Dome C, such as those
90 planned for the Beyond EPICA project.

91 2. Material and Methods

92 2.1 Ice core sampling and location

93
94 A 13.72 m shallow ice-core was drilled close to Concordia Station, at Dome C (3233 m a.s.l.;
95 $75^{\circ}05'59''\text{S}$, $123^{\circ}19'56''\text{E}$) in 2012. **The retrieved shallow ice-core** covers approximately 212 years,
96 from 1800 to 2012. The ice core dating is described in details by Spolaor et al., (2021), **with age**
97 **uncertainties ranging from 1 year at surface to 5 years at the bottom of the core**. Dome C is a suitable
98 Antarctic site for performing photochemical studies related to the preservation of reactive elements and
99 halides within the snowpack (Savarino et al., 2007; Cairns et al., 2021; Song et al., 2018; Spolaor et al.,
100 2018; Spolaor et al., 2021). This location presents a low and rather constant accumulation rate ($25.3 \pm$
101 $1.3 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from 1816-1998, $28.3 \pm 1.3 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from 1965-1998; $28 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from 2004-2011)
102 (Frezzotti et al., 2005; Frezzotti et al., 2013; Genthon et al., 2016), and it is located about 1000 km away
103 from shorelines, thus not being directly affected by local coastal emissions. Matching these criteria is
104 essential for the evaluation of the effects of modern stratospheric ozone loss due to long-lived ozone
105 depleting substances in the potential bromine release from the snowpack.

106 The shallow ice core was collected using a hand drill (3 inches diameter); the sections were sealed
107 in plastic containers and shipped to the Institute of Polar Sciences of the National Research Council
108 (ISP-CNR) in Venice (Italy). The ice core sections were subsequently sampled at $5 (\pm 1) \text{ cm}$ resolution

109 (corresponding to approx. 1 year) using a ceramic knife, rinsed with Ultra Pure Water (UPW, Elga Lab,
110 UK) after each use. Only the central part of the core was collected into 50 mL pre-cleaned polyethylene
111 (PE) vials for subsequent analyses, while the outer 2 cm were removed by scraping with a ceramic
112 knife. The core samples were processed in a class 1000 inorganic clean room under a class 100 laminar-
113 flow bench. Samples were kept at -20°C and under dark conditions until the analysis to avoid any
114 possible photolysis reaction. Since we were only interested in the water-soluble bromine and sodium
115 fractions and to avoid potential halogen loss (Flores et al., 2020), the analyses were conducted on melted
116 and not acidified samples by ICP-SFMS (see 2.2). The sodium record considered in this study had some
117 gaps from 1989 to 1997 (n=12, corresponding to 5% of the total amount of samples) that were filled
118 with Na concentration data retrieved from two snowpits collected in 2013 and 2017, as reported in
119 Spolaor et al., 2021.

120 *2.2 Instrumental analysis and cleaning procedure*

121 Total sodium and bromine concentrations were determined by ICP-SFMS following Spolaor et al.,
122 (2016). Each analytical run started and ended with an Ultra-Pure Water (UPW) cleaning session of 3
123 min to ensure a stable background level throughout the analysis. The external standards that were used
124 to calibrate the analytes were prepared by diluting a 1000 ppm stock IC (ion chromatography) standard
125 solution (TraceCERT® purity grade, Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA). The standard concentrations ranged
126 between 1 and 200 ng g⁻¹ for sodium and 0.05 and 0.200 ng g⁻¹ for bromine. As for the samples, the
127 standards were not acidified. Precision and accuracy of the measurements were determined through the
128 multiple reading of selected ice samples and external standards, respectively. The relative standard
129 deviation (RSD %) was low for all the analytes, ranging between 3–4% for sodium and 5-7% for
130 bromine, while accuracy, expressed as the ratio between the observed and the true values, was 105%
131 for sodium and 92% for bromine. The instrumental limit of detection (LoD), calculated as three times
132 the standard deviation of the blank (n = 10), was 1 ng g⁻¹ for Na and 0.05 ng g⁻¹ for Br. Bromine and
133 sodium concentration values were used to calculate bromine enrichment (Br_{enr}) as:

$$Br_{enr} = \frac{[Br]}{[Na]} \cdot 0.0062 \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

134 where Br and Na are the concentrations obtained from the Dome C record and 0.0062 reflects the
135 bromine-to-sodium mass ratio in seawater (Spolaor et al., 2013b; Millero et al., 2008).

136 All the plastic material used for sample storage and analysis was washed 5 times using UPW and
137 filled with UPW for 1 week. Then, it was rinsed again 5 times with UPW and dried under class-100
138 laminar flow hood before use.

139 *2.3 Back-trajectories calculation, satellite observations and statistical analysis*

140 Backward air mass trajectories that reach the Dome C site (75°05'59''S, 123°19'56''E) were
141 calculated to identify the most likely ocean and sea-ice areas that release bromine species to the
142 atmosphere and that can be transported to the interior of Antarctica. Back-trajectories were obtained
143 from the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Stein et al., 2015)
144 using European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA5 meteorological
145 reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2020). ERA5 is available on 37 pressure levels with a regular spatial grid
146 of 0.25° x 0.25° at hourly temporal sampling. However, due to the huge amount of trajectories needed
147 for this study, for computation requirements, we considered ERA5 parameters on a spatial grid of 0.5°
148 x 0.5° every three hours and 24 pressure levels (Becagli et al., 2022). 5 days backward trajectories were
149 calculated every 3 h at 1000, 2000 and 3000 meters above Dome C model terrain height for the period
150 1979 – 2018. Each back trajectory was then projected on the Sea-Ice Concentration field (SIC) and the
151 10-m wind field (still in the ECMWF ERA5 reanalysis), associating each value along the trajectory path
152 with the nearest SIC and wind speed values. The main paths of air masses reaching Dome C were
153 highlighted dividing the southern hemisphere in a regular 1° x 1° mesh and counting the total number
154 of back trajectories points at 5 days, falling in each grid cell (i.e. the hours spent by the air mass in each
155 grid cell). Since bromine species are emitted in the marine boundary layer (MBL) (Sander et al., 2003),
156 source bromine areas were evaluated, selecting only the trajectory where the air mass paths lie within
157 the MBL and over sea-ice and counting the total number of resulting points, where conditions are
158 fulfilled, in each of the 1° x 1° grid cells. The height of MBL was set equal to the 900 hPa Isosurface
159 (Lewis et al., 2004) and a value of SIC > 15% were considered in order to simulate the presence of the
160 sea-ice cover (Becagli et al., 2022). The sea-ice concentrations used in this work are derived from

161 passive-microwave radiometers on NASA's satellites. The data are publicly available at the NASA
162 Earth Science portal (<https://earth.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) and at the National Snow and Ice Data Center portal
163 (<http://nsidc.org>). The sea-ice extents (in km²) are calculated as the hemispheric total as well as five
164 regions in the Southern Ocean (Indian Ocean, Western Pacific, Ross sea, Bellingshausen and Amundsen
165 seas and the Weddell sea).

166 The correlations computed among the different variables of this study (Na, Br, Br_{enr}, sea-ice extent
167 data, SAM index) were performed using a 3-year moving average. This choice takes into account both
168 the dating error of the core (≈ 3 years) and the effects of wind erosion on the age distribution of surface
169 snow that spans over more than a year (Picard et al., 2019). To identify any abrupt change point in the
170 records, the *findchangepts()* Matlab (Mathworks) function was used.

171 2.4 CAM-CHEM model set-up

172 The wavelength-dependent solar ultraviolet (UV) radiation reaching the Antarctic plateau
173 surface at Dome-C during the 1950-2010 period was computed using the Community Earth System
174 Model (CESM) (Tilmes et al., 2016). The setup of the atmospheric component of the model (CAM-
175 Chem, version 4) was identical to the one used in previous studies addressing the evolution of iodine
176 ice core records in the Arctic (Cuevas et al., 2018) and Antarctica (Spolaor et al., 2021), and considers
177 prescribed sea surface temperatures and sea-ice distributions following the CCMI-REFC1
178 recommendation (Eyring et al., 2013). The CAM-Chem VSL setup includes geographically distributed
179 and seasonally-dependent natural oceanic emissions of five bromocarbons (VSL^{Br} = CHBr₃, CH₂Br₂,
180 CH₂BrCl, CHBrCl₂, CHBr₂Cl) and four iodocarbons (VSL^I = CH₃I, CH₂ICl, CH₂I₂, CH₂I₂), whose
181 oceanic flux is assumed to remain constant during the whole modelling period (Ordóñez et al., 2012).
182 The chemical scheme includes the additional inorganic chlorine and bromine contribution arising from
183 the so-called sea-salt dehalogenation recycling occurring in the marine boundary layer and the free
184 troposphere (Fernandez et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2021). The model was configured in free-running
185 mode, with 26 vertical levels expanding from the Earth's surface to approximately 40 km (3.5 hPa in
186 the upper stratosphere), and with a spatial resolution of 1.9° latitude by 2.5° longitude. The CAM-Chem

187 REFC1 configuration used here provides a reasonable representation of the evolution of the size and
188 depth of the ozone hole, presenting an excellent agreement with satellite ozone observations during the
189 modelled period (Fernandez et al., 2017; Spolaor et al., 2021).

190 Here, we compute the photolysis rate constant (J-value) of different $\cdot\text{OH}$ precursors involved in the
191 preservation of bromine in the snowpack following the same approach used in Spolaor et al., (2021).
192 The molar absorptivities, quantum yields and species concentrations for hydrogen peroxide, nitrate and
193 nitrite at Dome-C are summarized in Table 1. The modeled actinic flux reaching the Antarctic surface
194 includes 100 bins expanding from 121 nm to 750 nm, with a spectral resolution ranging from less than
195 1 nm in the UV to 50 nm in the visible edge. In particular, the model bandwidth within the 280-400 nm
196 spectral range considered in this work possess a mean resolution of 4 nm. Thus, the CAM-Chem surface
197 actinic flux for each **wavelength** grid was linearly interpolated into a 1 nm bandwidth, and the mean J-
198 value during the whole sunlit period (i.e., from September 1st of a given year to February 28th of next
199 year) was computed offline at the closest gridbox to Dome-C (74.84° S; 122.5°E; model mean altitude
200 of 3300 m a.s.l.). The complete sunlit period (spring + summer) was selected because even when the
201 largest changes in surface actinic flux associated with the ozone hole formation are observed during
202 spring, the UV radiation intensity reaching the Antarctic plateau maximizes during the summer (Spolaor
203 et al., 2021).

204 **3 Results and discussion**

205 *3.1 Sodium, bromine and bromine enrichment profiles from the Dome C shallow core*

206 Air masses arriving at Dome C originate from a vast area that extends over the Eastern Antarctic
207 Ocean, Ross Sea and in minimal percentage from West Antarctica. **Back trajectory analyses (Figure 1)**
208 confirm that the most likely source areas of bromine and sodium emissions during the 1979-2018 period
209 extend from the Indian Ocean sector (IO, 11%) up to the Ross Sea sector (RS, 21%), with the most
210 likely area being the Western Pacific sector (WP, 45%), with the remaining 17% from Bellingshausen
211 and Amundsen seas (**B&AS**) sector.

212 The variability in sodium concentration, a conservative tracer that does not show any post-
213 depositional transformation, is used here to evaluate the marine contribution at Dome C (Caiazza et al.,
214 2021). Sodium concentrations along the entire record spanned from 12 to 117 ng g⁻¹, with an average
215 value of 40 ± 13 ng g⁻¹. Na profile (Figure 2) shows an increase in concentration from 1800 to 1850,
216 followed by a long-term decreasing trend until 1994. Over the last 18 years of the record, higher sodium
217 concentrations were recorded, suggesting an enhanced transport towards Dome C. Bromine
218 concentration at Dome C ranges from below the LoD (0.05 ng g⁻¹) to 0.41 ng g⁻¹, with an average value
219 of 0.10 ± 0.05 ng g⁻¹ along the entire record. A significant bromine increase was detected since 2004
220 when Br concentration increased from 0.10 ± 0.05 ng g⁻¹ (pre-2004) to 0.23 ± 0.09 ng g⁻¹ (post-2004).
221 The absence of an abrupt change of the bromine signal at the onset of the ozone hole (1975) indicates
222 that Br is preserved in the snowpack independently on the incoming UV-radiation (see section 3.2).
223 Sodium and bromine did not show any significant correlation ($r = 0.06$, p -value = 0.20) along the entire
224 record, suggesting different deposition velocities during transport from the coast, with sodium being
225 deposited faster than bromine. Indeed, in the polar atmosphere, sodium is present in the aerosol phase
226 and it is mainly affected by wet deposition processes. It was observed that its concentration decreases
227 significantly with distance from the coast, reaching a rather constant deposition rate at approximately
228 400 km inland (Vallelonga et al., 2021). Contrarily, bromine exists in both the aerosol and in the gas
229 phase, its atmospheric lifetime is also driven by dry deposition processes, it can experience
230 heterogeneous chemical recycling during transport and its concentration gradually decreases from 100
231 km to 1000 km inland (Simpson et al., 2005; Vallelonga et al., 2021).

232 Br_{enr} values ranged between 0.07 and 1.6 with an average value of 0.4 ± 0.3 along the entire record.
233 Contrarily to sodium and bromine, the enrichment did not show any significant increase in the recent
234 part of the record. On the contrary, a significant regime change was detected in 1825, when the Br_{enr}
235 mean value changed from 0.7 ± 0.3 (1800-1825) to 0.4 ± 0.3 (1825-2012). A two-sample t -test
236 strengthened the significant difference between the two periods (p -value < .001). In general, Br_{enr} values
237 were mainly below 1 (i.e. bromine is depleted relative to sodium), which is expected at remote locations
238 like Dome C, since the Br to Na ratio depends on the relative transport times of sea salt aerosol and

239 gaseous bromine compounds in the atmosphere (Spolaor et al., 2013b; Simpson et al., 2007; Vallelonga
240 et al., 2021). Thus, our findings agree with the synthesis of Vallelonga et al. (2021), which show low
241 Br_{enr} values near the coast, a gradual increase at 300-600 km inland and a following decrease to values
242 lower than 1 for all sites located more than 800 km from the coast. The few Br_{enr} values higher than 1
243 may indicate larger FYSI surface from the source areas (Spolaor et al., 2016) or different bromine
244 partitioning between the aerosol and gas phase that depends on the aerosol size and, consequently, on
245 atmospheric resident times (Legrand et al., 2016; Maffezzoli et al., 2019; Vallelonga et al., 2021). In
246 addition, changes in background atmospheric $\cdot\text{OH}$ and NO_x might have had an impact on the gas-phase
247 bromine partitioning between reservoir and reactive species that might have led to a faster bromine
248 deposition since species like BrONO_2 and HOBr have larger and more efficient deposition velocities
249 than reactive species like BrO and Br (Saiz-Lopez and Fernandez, 2016; Fernandez et al., 2019).

250 In Antarctica, few other long-term bromine records exist and they were all collected from coastal
251 sites (Spolaor et al., 2013b; Vallelonga et al., 2017). In contrast to Dome C, these records are more
252 directly influenced by local marine contributions. The shorter atmospheric transport time from the
253 source to the deposition location is reflected by the higher Br_{enr} values observed in these cores
254 (Vallelonga et al., 2017).

255 *3.2 Bromine preservation in the snowpack at Dome C*

256 When reaching the snowpack, UV radiation can rapidly break weak chemical bonds and, due to its
257 high energy, can promote photochemical reactions, especially in the UV-A (320–400 nm) and UV-B
258 (290-320 nm) wavelength bands (Grannas et al., 2007). Due to its low accumulation rate, Dome C is
259 the perfect location for performing UV-photolysis studies on chemical species occurring at the ice and
260 snow surface (Frey et al., 2009; Savarino et al., 2007). The stratospheric ozone layer depletion observed
261 since 1975, has caused an increase in the incoming solar UV radiation over Antarctica at $\lambda < 300$ nm,
262 enhancing, for example, the photochemical iodide oxidation and its subsequent release from the
263 snowpack (Spolaor et al., 2021).

264 As highlighted in section 3.1, no significant changes neither in bromine concentration nor in
 265 bromine enrichment have been detected at Dome C since 1975, suggesting that, contrarily to iodine
 266 (Spolaor et al., 2021), the ≈ 10 -fold enhanced UV-radiation reaching the Antarctic plateau has not altered
 267 bromine preservation within the snowpack (Figure 2). Moreover, laboratory and chamber experiments
 268 showed enhanced photochemical oxidation and subsequent release of $I_{2(g)}$ from artificial snow/ice and
 269 the snowpack through the formation of a critical I-O₂ complex having an absorption band centred at
 270 290 nm (Kim et al., 2016). At present, there is no evidence and/or available literature describing a
 271 similar Br-O₂ complex, and/or any other brominated intermediate product, that leads then to the release
 272 of $Br_{2(g)}$. In fact, the main inorganic route for bromide oxidation requires radical oxidants (e.g. $\cdot OH$) to
 273 drive the redox production of hypobromous acid (BrOH) (Artiglia et al., 2017). This oxidized species
 274 can then combine with other reduced halide ions to form molecular halogen compounds that are released
 275 into the gas phase (eq. 2-5) (George and Anastasio, 2007):



276 Over ice and snow substrates, hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot OH$) can be produced by the photolysis of
 277 hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), nitrate (NO_3^-) and nitrite (NO_2^-) (Chu and Anastasio, 2005; Abbatt et al.,
 278 2010; Chu and Anastasio, 2007). Between 290-340 nm wavelengths, H_2O_2 has a wavelength-dependent
 279 molar absorptivity that is 2.5-7.1 times lower than that for NO_3^- . Nevertheless, H_2O_2 has a ≈ 160 times
 280 greater quantum yield for $\cdot OH$ production (Table 1) that is insensitive to ionic strength, pH and
 281 wavelength (Chu and Anastasio, 2005). Therefore, for a given concentration, H_2O_2 is a much more
 282 effective source of $\cdot OH$ than nitrate. To our knowledge, the only H_2O_2 concentration value available at
 283 Dome C is 2 ng g^{-1} , derived from a sample collected at 3.5 m-depth (Frey et al., 2006). This low value,
 284 compared to other locations, is consistent with semi-empirical models that predict a complete hydrogen
 285 peroxide loss when the accumulation rate is below $\approx 70 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and the annual mean temperature is
 286 -50°C (Frey et al., 2006). Considering that Dome C has an annual mean accumulation of $\approx 25\text{-}28 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$

287 $^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$ (Genthon et al., 2016) and an annual mean temperature between -54 and -50°C (Genthon et al.,
288 2021), we assume that the majority of the deposited or *in situ* produced H_2O_2 is rapidly lost to the
289 atmosphere.

290 Alternatively, NO_3^- photolysis (Table 1), occurring at wavelengths of 290-340 nm, with a maximum
291 at 320 nm (Winton et al., 2020), can act as a $\cdot\text{OH}$ source following the equations 6-9 (Chu and Anastasio,
292 2005; Abbatt et al., 2010; Boxe, 2005):



293 The $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals, formed by nitrate photolysis can produce $\text{Br}_{2(\text{g})}$ following reactions 2-5. The
294 typical snowpack nitrate profile at Dome C ranges between 22 and 147 ng g^{-1} (Caiazza et al., 2021;
295 Spolaor et al., 2021) and shows an exponential decay in concentration **with depth** driven by nitrate UV-
296 photolysis and recycling (Winton et al., 2020; Röthlisberger et al., 2000; Savarino et al., 2007). Due to
297 its higher concentration compared with hydrogen peroxide, nitrate may represent a relevant $\cdot\text{OH}$ source
298 at Dome C despite its lower quantum yield for $\cdot\text{OH}$ production. The nitrate UV-photolysis, followed by
299 $\cdot\text{OH}$ formation and $\text{Br}_{2(\text{g})}$ emission, has been reported under laboratory conditions with a significant
300 dependency on the ice pH, with the largest $\text{Br}_{2(\text{g})}$ emissions observed at low pH (George and Anastasio,
301 2007).

302 Another source of OH radicals is nitrite (Minero et al., 2007), which can be produced by the
303 dissociation of nitrous acid (HONO) in the condensed phase (eq. 10);



304 or by the direct formation from the minor channel (quantum yield of approximately 0.0011) of nitrate
305 photolysis (eq. 6) (Dubowski et al., 2002).

306 Nitrite displays two major absorption bands peaking at 300 and 354 nm and, through its
307 photolysis, it can produce $\cdot\text{OH}$ (eq. 11-12):



308 The $\cdot\text{OH}$ quantum yield from nitrite photo-dissociation depends both on the wavelength (increases
309 with decreasing wavelength) and on temperature (decreases with decreasing temperature). In addition,
310 nitrite has a ≈ 2 -fold higher molar absorptivity than nitrate between 280 and 300 nm (Chu and Anastasio,
311 2007) and its $\cdot\text{OH}$ quantum yield in ice is equal to 0.020 (at 240 K, $\lambda = 300$), which is 6-fold higher than
312 the one calculated for nitrate (Table 1). Unfortunately, there are no direct measurements of nitrite at
313 Dome C, meaning that its concentration needs to be estimated. Following the approach used by Chu
314 and Anastasio (2007), we assumed that at Dome C the nitrite concentration is similar to the one
315 calculated at the South Pole, which is 0.092 ng g^{-1} . This assumption is based on: a) similar superficial
316 NO_3^- concentrations recorded both at the South Pole (99 ng g^{-1}) and at Dome C ($90\text{-}147 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$); b) the
317 use of NO_3^- photolysis as the main source for nitrite in the snow (Chu and Anastasio, 2007); and c) the
318 similar total UV-radiation intensities and seasonality reaching both locations.

319 To evaluate the relevance of these processes on the OH radical production in the snow-grains and,
320 consequently their role in promoting $\text{Br}_{2(\text{g})}$ emission from the snowpack, we modelled the hydrogen
321 peroxide, nitrate and nitrite photo-activation before (1950-1975) and after the ozone hole formation
322 (post-1975) at Dome C, following the wavelength-dependent CAM-Chem model actinic flux output
323 and the methodology described in Spolaor et al.,2021. Both H_2O_2 and NO_3^- exhibited a small, but
324 significant, enhancement on their surface photolysis (J-value) after the onset of the ozone hole ($\approx 20\%$
325 increase) due to the higher actinic flux reaching the surface at $\lambda < 300 \text{ nm}$, where most of the H_2O_2
326 absorption occurs, and to a limited extent also NO_3^- (Figure 3, 4). In contrast, NO_2^- does not show a
327 significant trend on their J-values because both absorption bands maximize at longer wavelengths,
328 within a spectral region that is not directly affected by the formation of the ozone hole (Figure 3,4). It
329 is important to notice that the normalized photolysis ratio between the ozone hole period and the pre-
330 ozone hole period, strongly depends on the wavelength range considered to compute the J-value

331 integration. For example, the ratio between the ozone hole and the pre-ozone hole periods for H₂O₂
332 ranges from a minimum value of 1.2 (280-390 nm) to a maximum value larger than 5 (280-300 nm)
333 (Figure S1). Equivalent results are obtained for the J-nitrate and J-nitrite enhancements (Figure S1),
334 although for these species, with the strongest absorption at longer wavelengths, the upper bandwidth
335 limit used to perform the integration should not be located at values below 310-320 nm, which result in
336 an up to 3-fold increase on the normalized ratio during the pre-ozone hole period. For these reasons,
337 and based on the observed molar absorptivities of each species shown in Figure 3a, our best estimate of
338 the normalized photolysis ratio shown in Figure 4c was computed considering the following
339 wavelengths ranges 280-378 nm for H₂O₂, 295-357.5 nm for NO₃⁻ and 280-390 nm for NO₂⁻.

340 Taking into consideration the NO₃⁻, H₂O₂, and NO₂⁻ concentrations at Dome C and the [•]OH quantum
341 yields from their photolysis (Table 1), we observed that the rates of [•]OH formation especially from the
342 photolysis of H₂O₂ and NO₃⁻ slightly increased by a factor 1.1 and 1.09 compared to the pre-ozone hole
343 period, while for nitrite the enhancement was almost negligible (1.01). The average contribution of each
344 of this species in producing OH radicals in the snow was the same both before and after the formation
345 of the ozone hole that is 69% from NO₃⁻, 23% from H₂O₂, and 8% from NO₂⁻. Specifically, the [•]OH
346 formation rates during the ozone-hole (pre-ozone hole) period from NO₃⁻, H₂O₂ and NO₂⁻ photolysis
347 are equal to 1.14E⁻¹³ (1.05E⁻¹³) M s⁻¹, 3.80 E⁻¹³ (3.47E⁻¹³) M s⁻¹ and 1.2E⁻¹⁴ (1.2E⁻¹⁴) M s⁻¹, respectively
348 (Figure 4b). Those values are calculated by multiplying the mean photolysis rate constant for [•]OH
349 formation during the ozone-hole (pre-ozone hole) period (i.e. 6.4E⁻⁸ (5.9E⁻⁸) s⁻¹ for NO₃⁻, 5.9 E⁻⁶ (5.36E⁻
350 ⁷) s⁻¹ for H₂O₂ and 6.2 E⁻⁵ (6.2E⁻⁶) s⁻¹ for NO₂⁻) by the estimated or real snow-grain concentration (110
351 ng g⁻¹ or 1.77E⁻⁶ M, for NO₃⁻, 2.2 ng g⁻¹, or 6.47E⁻⁸ M, for H₂O₂ and 0.092 ng g⁻¹, or 2E⁻⁹ M, for NO₂⁻).
352 Our results are different from those computed at Neumayer station (Chu and Anastasio, 2007), where
353 the dominant contributor to [•]OH production was H₂O₂ (2.3E⁻¹¹ M s⁻¹), followed by NO₃⁻ (3.9E10⁻¹³ M
354 s⁻¹) and NO₂⁻ (1.8 E10⁻¹³ M s⁻¹). Further, the [•]OH production rate at Dome C for H₂O₂ is 2-orders of
355 magnitude lower than at Neumayer station, while it is similar for NO₃⁻. The contribution of nitrite at
356 Dome C is one order of magnitude lower than that computed at Neumayer station, where nitrite has
357 been already considered as an insignificant source of [•]OH because of its very low estimated

358 concentration (Chu and Anastasio, 2007). Overall, we can conclude that the contribution of H_2O_2 , NO_3^-
359 and NO_2^- in forming OH radicals is low at Dome C both before and after the ozone hole period and their
360 change in photolysis is unlikely to have affected bromine preservation within the snowpack. This is in
361 agreement with previous empirical observations (Legrand et al., 2016). We then propose that bromine
362 release into the atmosphere can be favoured only in those locations where high snow acidity (e.g. in
363 correspondence to a volcanic horizon **or at coastal sites where biogenic marine emissions can enhance**
364 **snow acidification**) and high concentration of $\cdot\text{OH}$ precursors (e.g. H_2O_2) are found.

365 *3.3 The role of volcanic eruptions in bromine preservation at Dome C*

366 Volcanic eruptions are a significant halogen source with the emission of large amounts of HCl, HF
367 and HBr (Pyle and Mather, 2009). In particular, BrO formation through heterogeneous photochemical
368 reactions was detected in a volcanic plume where local O_3 destruction occurred (Von Glasow et al.,
369 2009). However, the role of volcanic eruptions in affecting bromine concentration in ice and snow has
370 been poorly addressed. Studies performed in the European Alps (Legrand et al., 2021) and in the West
371 Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide (McConnell et al., 2017), showed opposite results, with recorded bromine
372 increase and depletion in coincidence with volcanic events, respectively. **The Dome C shallow core**
373 **presented in this work covers a period characterized** by at least **seven inter-hemispherical** volcanic
374 eruptions that were identified in other snow-pits and deep cores using both nssSO_4^{2-} and Fe(II) as
375 volcanic proxies (Castellano et al., 2005; Burgay et al., 2021; Gautier et al., 2016): Pinatubo/Cerro
376 Hudson (1991, VEI = 6), Agung (1963, VEI = 5), Krakatua (1886, VEI = 6), Cosiguina (1835, VEI =
377 5), Tambora (1815 = 7) **and UE 1809** (1809, VEI \geq 5). VEI stands for Volcanic Explosivity Index, a
378 commonly used quantity to define the magnitude of a volcanic eruption (Newhall and Self, 1982). Its
379 values range from 0 (Hawaiian eruption) to 8 (Ultra-Plinian eruption). In this record, we did not detect
380 any clear fingerprint neither as bromine increase nor as depletion compared to the adjacent periods,
381 suggesting a negligible role of volcanic eruptions in affecting the Br snow chemistry in the inland
382 Antarctic plateau (Figure S2). **Nevertheless, we highlight that, due to low snow accumulation and to**
383 **strong wind erosion, not all the volcanic eruptions listed above might be present in our record. Indeed,**
384 **a previous investigation that compared the sulphate signal from five ice cores drilled 1 meter apart from**

385 each other at Dome C showed a bulk probability of 30% of missing volcanic events when a single core
386 is used as the site reference (Gautier et al., 2016). Among the volcanic events embraced by our record,
387 only Krakatua, Cosiguina and UE 1809 were observed in all the previously mentioned five replicate
388 cores, giving us confidence that for these eruptions the volcanic fingerprint is present also in our record.
389 However, we acknowledge that a proxy-based volcanic reconstruction is missing for our core and,
390 considering the strong spatial variability observed at Dome C, further and more specific studies are
391 needed to investigate the impact of large inter-hemispherical volcanic eruptions on the preservation of
392 bromine in the snowpack.

393 *3.4 Can Br_{enr} at Dome C be used as proxy for past sea-ice extent?*

394 Having presented evidence to demonstrate the preservation of bromine in the snowpack at Dome C
395 and the absence of a link between our Br signal and the formation of the ozone hole, we now investigate
396 the suitability of Dome C Br_{enr} as a proxy for past sea-ice variability. Previous studies supported the use
397 of Br_{enr} in reconstructing past Antarctic sea-ice extent (Vallelonga et al., 2017; Spolaor et al., 2013b).
398 However, these ice core records were retrieved at coastal sites close to local source areas, where Br_{enr}
399 values were enriched with respect to sea water mass ratio. To the contrary, due to its position, Dome
400 C receives atmospheric signals from a vast area of the East Antarctic sector (Figure 1), which extends
401 from the Indian Ocean to the Ross Sea, potentially giving a reconstruction of past-sea-ice extent over a
402 broader region.

403 Our 200-year ice core record shows that Br_{enr} has an average value of 0.4 ± 0.3 , meaning that it is
404 typically depleted at Dome C. This reflects the differences in Na and Br depositions as a function of the
405 distance from the coast, with resulting Br_{enr} values lower than 1 recorded at sites located more than 800
406 km far from the coast (Vallelonga et al., 2021). Further, due to the low snow accumulation at this
407 location and to the low concentrations of bromine, Br_{enr} values can be influenced by surface snow
408 removal by wind erosion, changes in meteorological patterns and changes in wind field. For these
409 reasons, and with the current state of knowledge, the presented bromine record should be interpreted
410 with caution.

411 To understand the driving patterns of the Dome C record and its suitability to reconstruct past sea-
412 ice variability, we compare the Dome C Br_{enr} record with the **annual averaged** Southern Annular Mode
413 (SAM) Marshall index (Marshall, 2003), satellite observations of FYSI extent from the source areas
414 over the period 1979-2012, and with the Law Dome methanesulphonic acid (MSA_{LD}) profile (**Curran**
415 **et al., 2003**) (Table 2). SAM describes the poleward/equatorward movement of the westerly winds that
416 circle Antarctica. When these winds, known as Southern Westerly Winds (SWW), contract towards
417 Antarctica, the SAM is in its positive phase, vice-versa it is in its negative phase. The strength of wind
418 patterns likely influences the amount of sea salt aerosols deposited at Dome C (Crosta et al., 2021), as
419 indicated by the positive correlation of Br and Na with SAM index (0.41 and 0.61, p -value < 0.01 ,
420 respectively). This is in agreement with recent findings that highlight a prominent northward flow
421 during the SAM negative polarity at Dome C (Kino et al., 2021). We did not **observe** any correlation
422 between the SAM index and Br_{enr} values.

423 We find that for the past decades, Br_{enr} at Dome C is mainly influenced by Br deposition, given the
424 positive and significant correlation of Br_{enr} with total Br ($r = 0.76$, p -value ≤ 0.01) and the negative
425 correlation with Na ($r = -0.37$, p -value ≤ 0.01) over the entire record (Table 2). Since gas-phase bromine
426 is emitted in enhanced concentrations (with respect to sea-water ratio) from sea-salt aerosol derived
427 from surface blowing snow deposited over FYSI, the Br_{enr} signal at Dome C is likely to be mainly
428 controlled by emissions and recycling from seasonal sea-ice at the Antarctic coast rather than long-
429 range air mass transport of sea salt aerosols (Spolaor et al., 2013b).

430 To test this hypothesis, we compared our record with FYSI extent data (**Parkinson and Cavalieri,**
431 **2012**) during the satellite era (1979-2012) over the main source areas **defined through back trajectory**
432 **analysis (Figure 1)**. As previously stated, the large majority of the back-trajectories that reaches Dome
433 C over the period 1979–2018 **originated** from the WP sector (see Section 3.1, Figure 1). However, we
434 found significant, but weak, correlations between Br_{enr} and FYSI only with the IO sector (11% of the
435 back-trajectory points satisfying bromine loading condition) and the RS (21%) with $r = 0.35$ (p -value $<$
436 0.1) and $r = 0.3$ (p -value < 0.1), respectively. In contrast, the closer WP sector does not show any
437 significant correlation **with Br_{enr}** (Table 2). Given the main source areas from back trajectory analysis

438 are located in the WP (45%, **Figure 1**), we further investigate this sector by considering the MSA record
439 retrieved from the Law Dome ice core (hereafter MSA_{LD}), located at a coastal site facing the WP
440 (Curran et al., 2003). MSA_{LD} shows a positive and significant correlation with the past sea-ice extent in
441 the WP sector ($r = 0.89$, $p\text{-value} \leq 0.01$), but it does not correlate with Dome C Br_{enr}, strengthening the
442 idea that Dome C is influenced by a broader source area than Law Dome. Based on these findings, a
443 possible interpretation is that the IO and RS seasonal sea-ice might have a stronger influence on the
444 Dome C Br_{enr} profile than WP, due to their 211% and 157% average larger FYSI extent than the one
445 recorded in the WP (**Figure S3**), leading to a larger emission of reactive bromine into the atmosphere.
446 Overall, we found a weak, but significant, correlation between the Br_{enr} record and sea-ice extent in East
447 Antarctica (WP+RS+IO) ($r = 0.35$, $p\text{-value} \leq 0.1$). Nevertheless, we need to consider that overall sea-
448 ice extent in East Antarctica has not undergone significant changes over the last three decades, with an
449 *inter*-annual variability of ~20%. Moreover, taking into account the observed Br_{enr} depletion at Dome
450 C and the difficulties in capturing relatively small sea-ice variabilities due to snow remobilization,
451 changes in meteorological patterns and in wind fields (Vallelonga et al., 2021), we hypothesize that sea-
452 ice extent variability observed over the last decades has not been large enough to cause a significant
453 variability in the Br_{enr} signal at Dome C. However, it cannot be ruled out that when longer periods which
454 extend further back in the past are considered (e.g. glacial/interglacial transitions), Br_{enr} variations could
455 be used as a qualitative tracer (i.e. to identify transitions between *large* and *small* FYSI extent) for
456 FYSI variability in East Antarctica.

457 **4. Conclusions**

458 In this manuscript we presented the first long-term ice core record of bromine and bromine
459 enrichment from Dome C (Antarctica). Based on observations and modelling results, we propose that
460 bromine is effectively preserved within the Antarctic plateau snowpack regardless of the intensity of
461 the incoming UV-radiation. Furthermore, we find that the change in surface UV-radiation due to ozone
462 hole formation does not affect the contribution of H₂O₂, NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ to the production of OH radicals
463 and consequently the dominant OH-driven bromide oxidation channel remains slow. We suggest that
464 neither of these photochemical mechanisms are likely to take place at Dome C, mostly due to the low

465 concentration of H_2O_2 and NO_2^- as well as the low $\cdot\text{OH}$ quantum yield from the NO_3^- photolysis. Due
466 to the variety of chemical reactions that can influence bromine preservation within the snowpack, we
467 suggest the inclusion of site-specific studies to assess to what extent bromine is preserved at different
468 specific locations, i.e. through the analysis of $\cdot\text{OH}$ precursors (H_2O_2 , NO_3^- and NO_2^-).

469 Finally, we provided preliminary insights on the effects of volcanic eruptions on the
470 preservation of bromine in snow at Dome C, where we did not observe any influence on the Br record.
471 However, due to the specific and peculiar environmental conditions at Dome C and to the lack of a
472 proxy-based volcanic eruption reconstruction for this record, our findings are not conclusive and we
473 encourage specific investigations on this topic. We also inquired whether Br_{enr} at Dome C can be used
474 as a sea-ice proxy for the East Antarctic sector. Despite finding weak – but significant - correlations
475 with the Indian Ocean and Ross Sea sectors (which are the ones presenting the largest FYSI extents) it
476 is difficult to validate Br_{enr} as an effective proxy for past sea-ice reconstructions in East Antarctica; this
477 is primarily due to low sea-ice variability observed during the last 30 years. Future investigations at
478 Dome C need to focus on glacial/interglacial transitions to assess whether Br_{enr} at Dome C is somehow
479 related to large-scale variations of sea-ice extensions.

480 Author contribution

481 **F.B.:** conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, visualisation,
482 writing - original draft preparation – **R.P.F.:** data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology,
483 software, visualization, writing – original draft preparation, writing – review & editing – **D.S.:** data
484 curation, formal analysis, methodology, software, visualisation, writing – original draft preparation,
485 writing – review & editing – **C.T.:** data curation, methodology, writing – review & editing – **C.S.B-B:**
486 writing – review & editing – **R.H.R.:**, writing – review & editing – **C.S.:** software, writing – review &
487 editing – **V.C.:** software, writing – review & editing – **C.B.:** funding acquisition, supervision, writing
488 – review & editing – **A.S.L.:** investigation, writing – review & editing – **A.S.:** conceptualization,
489 investigation, resources, supervision, writing – review & editing.

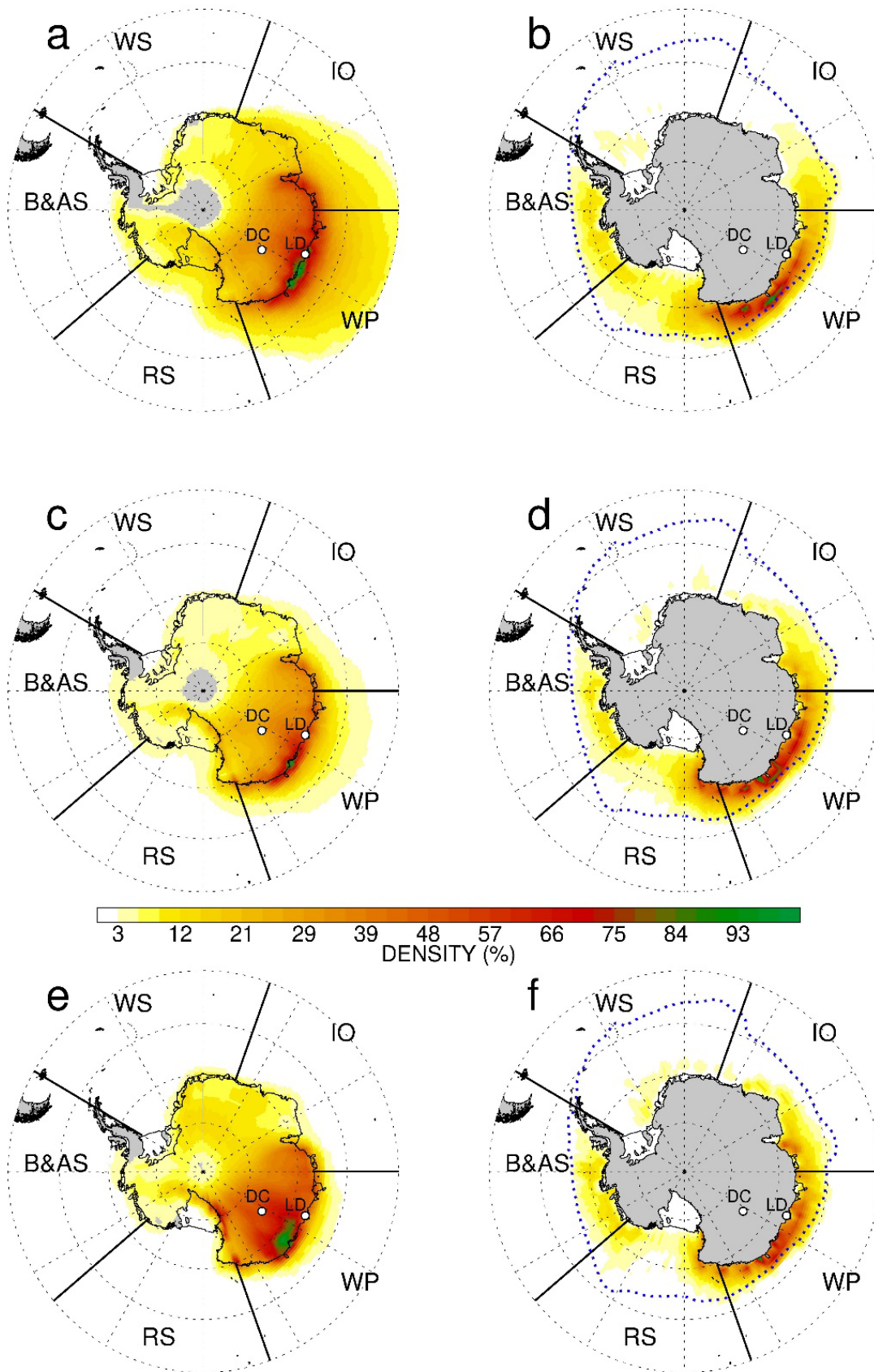
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498 **physical snow data from Dome C.** This is Beyond EPICA publication number **XX**.

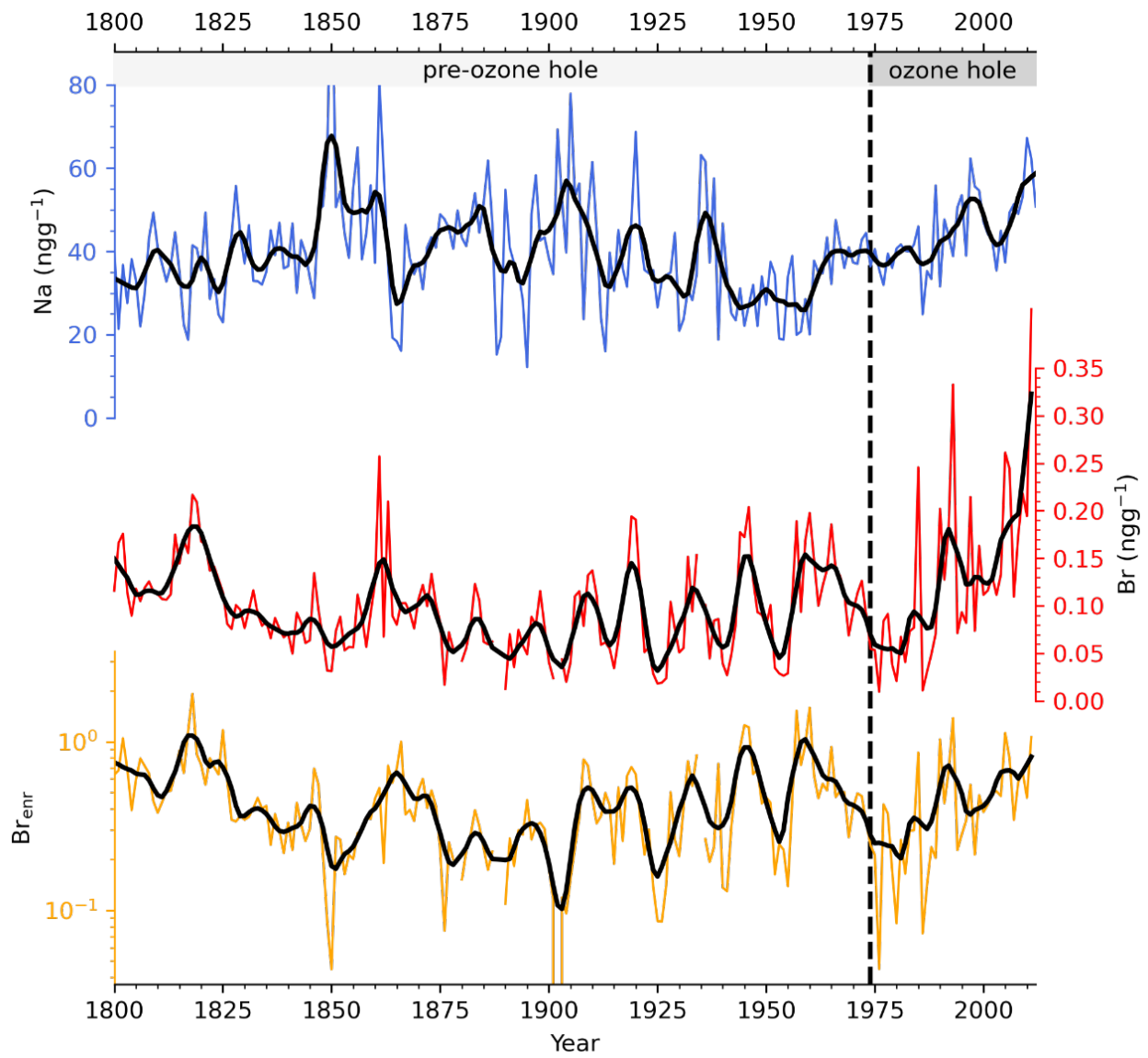
499 **Figures and Tables**

500 **Figure 1** - 5-days back-trajectory analysis of air masses arriving at the Dome C site for the period 1979-
501 2018. The back-trajectories are calculated at (a,b) 1000 m, (c,d) 2000 m, (e,f) 3000 m above Dome C
502 model terrain height for the period 1979-2018. Maps are divided into five sectors: Indian Ocean (IO,
503 20°-90°), Western Pacific Ocean (WP, 90°-150°), Ross Sea (RS, 160°-230°) and Bellingshausen &
504 Amundsen seas (B&A, 230°-20°). Panels on the left (a, c, e) represent the sum of the total number of
505 backward trajectory points (i.e. hours) within the fifth and the second days, found in each 1° x 1° grid
506 cell. Panels on the right (b, d, f) represent backward trajectory points (i.e. hours) within the MBL that
507 cross areas with > 15% sea ice concentration at the given point of time. Each contour is normalized
508 from 0 to 100 rescaling with respect to its maximum values and resampled to 0.5° x 0.5° grid mesh in
509 order to increase readability. The gray dashed line represents the median ice edge in September
510 (maximum extent) over the period 1979-2018.

511



513 **Figure 2** – Sodium (blue line), bromine (red line) and bromine enrichment (yellow line) ice core record
514 from 1800 to 2012. Thick lines refer to a smoothed 3-year moving average.



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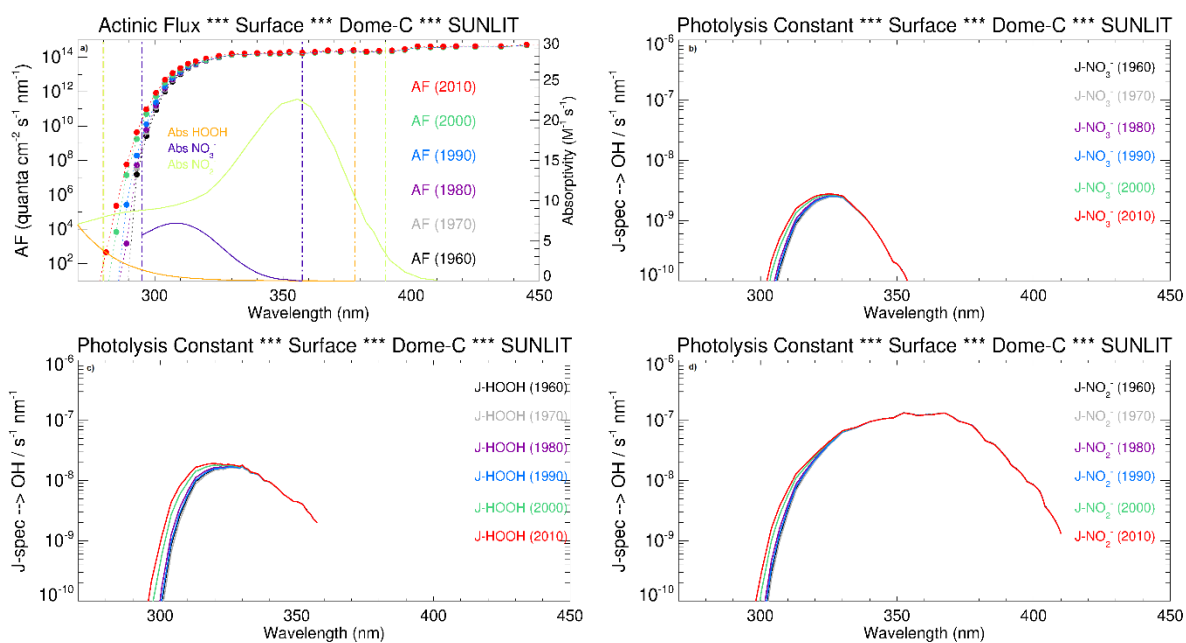
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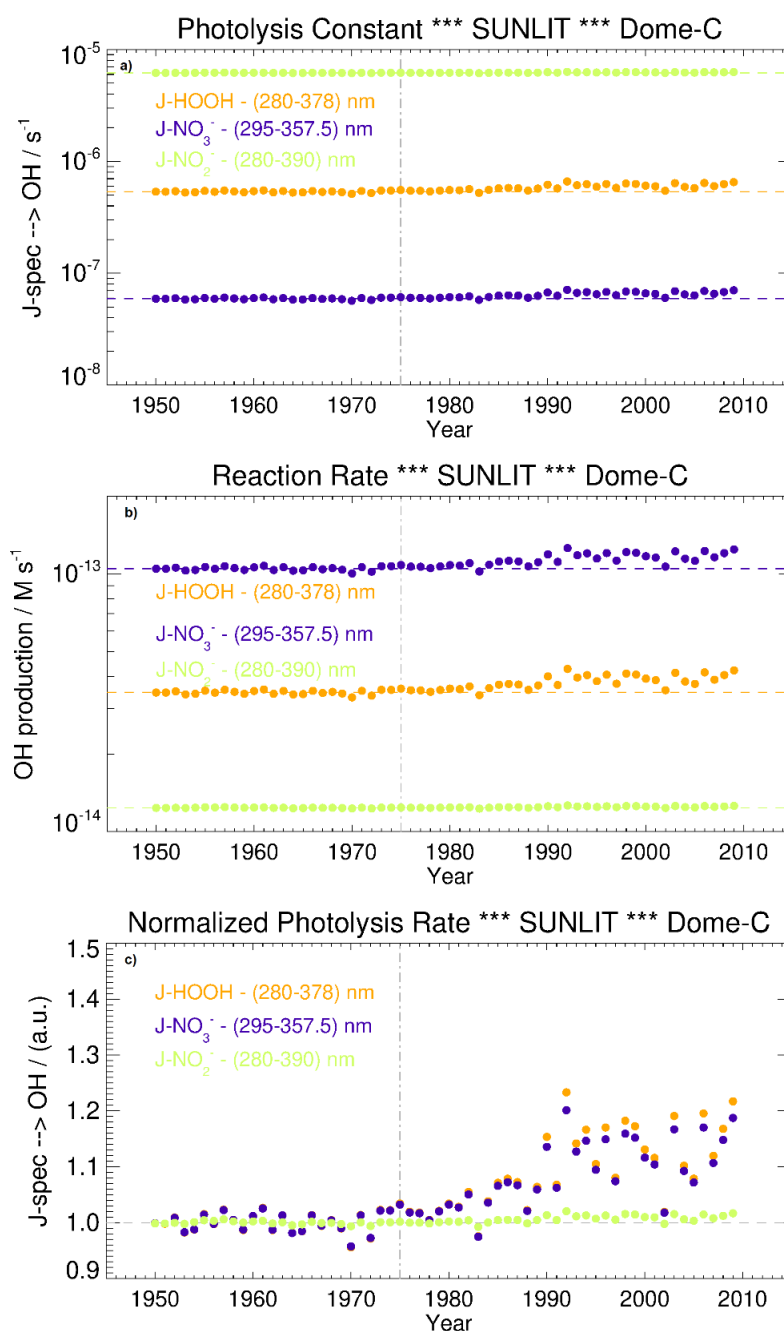
521 **Figure 3** – Panel a), the wavelength dependent actinic flux (AF) at Dome C for different years (coloured
 522 dots), superimposed with the absorption spectrum of nitrate (violet line), hydrogen peroxide (orange
 523 line) and nitrite (green line). The photolysis rate for the main $\cdot\text{OH}$ precursors as a function of wavelength
 524 in different years (pre and post the modern ozone hole) is shown for panel b) nitrate, panel c) hydrogen
 525 peroxide and panel d) nitrite.

526



527

528 **Figure 4** – Panel a): the photolysis constant of hydrogen peroxide (orange line), nitrate (violet) and
 529 nitrite (green) over the period 1950-2009. Panel b): the $\cdot\text{OH}$ production rate after the hydrogen peroxide
 530 photolysis (orange), nitrate (violet) and nitrite (green) over the period 1950-2009. Panel c): normalized
 531 photolysis rate for hydrogen peroxide photolysis (orange line), nitrate (violet line) and nitrite (green
 532 line) over the period 1950-2009. The dashed-grey vertical line (1975) represents the beginning of the
 533 ozone-hole period. The horizontal-coloured lines represent the average magnitude during the pre-ozone
 534 hole period (1950-1975).



536 **Table 1** – Summary of the $\cdot\text{OH}$ quantum yields for H_2O_2 , NO_3^- and NO_2^- , their molar absorptivities and
537 their concentration at Dome C. *: estimated (more details in the text). \dagger : the value is reported from 3.5
538 m depth.

Species	$\cdot\text{OH}$ quantum yield	Concentration at Dome C
	(Chu and Anastasio, 2007, 2005, 2003)	
H_2O_2	0.7	2 ng g ⁻¹ (Frey et al., 2006) \dagger
NO_3^-	0.0034 at pH = 5	110 ng g ⁻¹ (Spolaor et al., 2021)
NO_2^-	0.020 (T = 260 K, λ = 280 nm)	0.092* ng g ⁻¹

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543 **Table 2** – Pearson correlations of 3-years moving average of Dome C Br, Na and Br_{enr}, Law Dome MSA (MSA_{LD}) and seasonal sea-ice extents of the Indian
544 Ocean (IO), Western Pacific (WP) and Ross Sea (RS) sectors and of the Eastern Antarctic Ocean (EAO=IO+WP+RS), calculated as $FYSI = \overline{Extent_{Sep-Dec}} -$
545 $Extent_{Feb}$. The moving average is calculated in order to account for a dating error of ~ 3 years. The correlations among the chemical species (Na, Br, Br_{enr} and
546 NO₃⁻) were made over the entire record (1800-2012), the correlations with MSA_{LD} were done between 1843-1995, the correlations with SAM (Marshall index)
547 were done between 1957-2012, the correlations with sea-ice extents were done between 1979-2012. ***: p-value ≤ 0.01; **: p-value ≤ 0.05; *: p-value ≤ 0.1.

	Na	Br	Br _{enr}	NO ₃ ⁻	MSA _{LD}	SAM	IO	WP	RS	EAO
Period	1800-2012				1843-1995	1957-2012	1979-2012			
Na	1.0***	0.06	-0.37***	0.53***	-0.04	0.61***	0.16	-0.2	0.74***	0.64***
Br	0.06	1.0***	0.76***	0.58***	-0.05	0.41***	0.36**	-0.24	0.44**	0.48***
Br _{enr}	-0.37***	0.76***	1.0***	0.45***	0.05	0.18	0.35*	-0.22	0.3*	0.35*
NO ₃ ⁻	0.53***	0.58***	0.45***	1.0***	0.04	0.24	0.3	-0.23	0.43**	0.44**
MSA _{LD}	-0.04	-0.05	0.05	0.04	1.0***	-0.08	-0.13	0.89***	0.32	0.58**
SAM	0.61***	0.41***	0.18	0.24	-0.08	1.0***	0.28	-0.14	0.58***	0.58***
IO	0.16	0.36**	0.35*	0.3	-0.13	0.28	1.0***	0.0	-0.06	0.42**
WP	-0.2	-0.24	-0.22	-0.23	0.89***	-0.14	0	1.0***	-0.03	0.31*
RS	0.74***	0.44**	0.3*	0.43**	0.32	0.58***	-0.06	-0.03	1.0***	0.82***
EAO	0.64***	0.48***	0.35*	0.44**	0.58**	0.58***	0.42**	0.31*	0.82***	1.0***

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