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Abstract

The fluid permeability of sea ice governs a broad range of physical and biological processes in the polar marine environment, such as melt pond evolution, snow-ice formation, and nutrient replenishment for sea ice algae. Columnar sea ice is effectively impermeable to bulk flow for brine volume fractions below about 5%, while above this threshold fluid can flow vertically through the ice. Granular sea ice has different crystallographic and brine microstructures. It has long formed a significant portion of the Antarctic sea ice cover, and has become increasingly prevalent in the rapidly changing Arctic. Data gathered off the coast of East Antarctica indicate that this threshold for bulk vertical flow through granular sea ice there is around 10%. While columnar and granular microstructures display quite different threshold values, percolation theory predicts that they have the same universal critical exponent for the permeability as a function of porosity above the threshold, which agrees closely with our data. These findings impact physical and ecological modeling efforts, and must be taken into account when granular ice is present.

1 Introduction

The Arctic and Antarctic sea ice covers form a critical component of Earth's surface layer, significantly impacting planetary albedo, and regulate the exchange of heat, gases, and momentum between the ocean and atmosphere in the polar regions [1, 2]. They also play a crucial role in polar marine ecosystems, hosting life from microbes like algae and bacteria, to penguins and polar bears [1, 3]. The polar sea ice covers are also sensitive indicators of planetary warming. Arctic sea ice decline over the satellite era has been dramatic and consequential, with rapidly decreasing extent, a younger, thinner sea ice cover, and longer melt seasons [4, 5, 6]. Antarctic sea ice has recently seen record lows, with some evidence of a regime shift [7, 8].

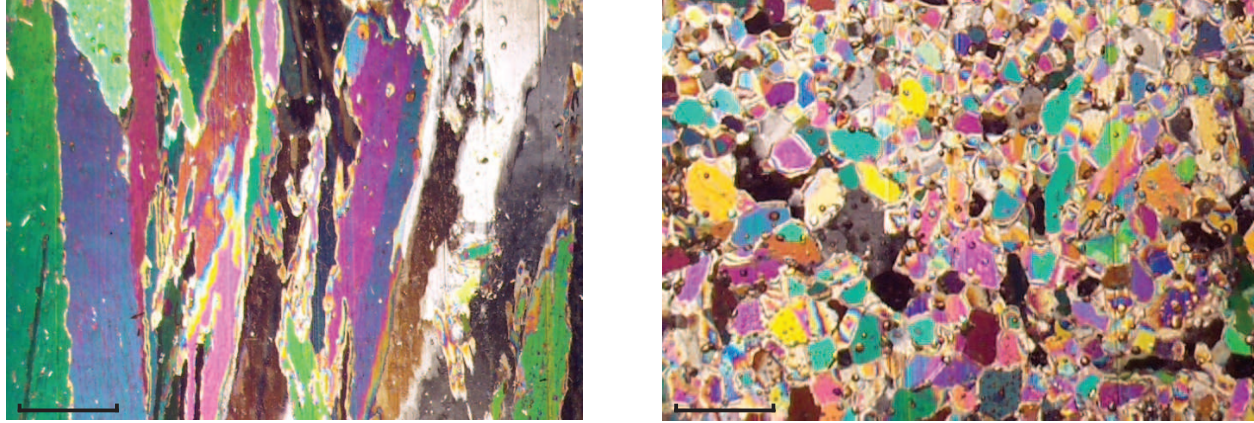


Figure 1: An image of the polycrystalline microstructure of Antarctic columnar ice under cross-polarization is shown on the left, and an image of granular ice is shown on the right. These samples were taken in the Bellingshausen Sea in October 2007 during the Sea Ice Mass Balance in the Antarctic (SIMBA) experiment [30]. The horizontal scale of each image is 6.1 cm, while the scale bars each represent 1 cm.

38 Given the geophysical and ecological significance of sea ice and the substantial changes observed
 39 recently, accurate representation of sea ice and its key physical and biological processes is critical to
 40 improving large-scale predictive models [9, 10]. As a material, sea ice is a multiscale composite with
 41 complex structure on length scales ranging over many orders of magnitude. Of central importance
 42 to the material properties of sea ice are its centimeter-scale polycrystalline microstructure, and the
 43 millimeter-scale brine inclusion microstructure [2, 11, 12, 13]. In columnar ice individual crystals
 44 typically contain layers of brine inclusions, and in granular ice the brine tends to reside within
 45 the interstices between small ice grains, as shown in Figure 1. In particular, we focus here on one
 46 crucial property which impacts both sea ice physics and biology: fluid permeability.

47 Fluid flow through the porous microstructure of sea ice regulates melt pond evolution affecting
 48 ice pack albedo [14, 15], brine drainage and the evolution of salinity profiles [11, 2], snow-ice
 49 formation, where sea water floods the ice surface and then freezes [16, 17], ocean-ice-atmosphere
 50 exchanges of gases such as CO_2 , CH_4 , DMS, and N_2O [18, 19, 20], convection-enhanced thermal
 51 transport [21, 22, 23], and biomass build-up fueled by nutrient fluxes [24, 25, 1]. Fluid flow also
 52 serves as the mechanism for the nutrient replenishment necessary to sustain the algal and bacterial
 53 communities living within the ice [26].

54 The fluid permeability of sea ice plays a significant role in understanding the processes described
 55 above, and in parameterizing them in large-scale models. Previously it was found that for brine
 56 volume fractions ϕ below approximately 5%, columnar sea ice is effectively impermeable to fluid
 57 flow, but is permeable for ϕ above 5% [27, 28]. For a typical bulk salinity of 5 parts per thousand
 58 (ppt), this critical porosity $\phi_c \approx 5\%$ corresponds [29, 2, 11] to a critical temperature $T_c \approx -5^\circ\text{C}$,
 59 which has been widely used in sea ice modeling [28, 10] and is known as the *rule of fives*.

60 It was predicted [27], however, that granular sea ice, with a more random distribution of brine
 61 inclusions, would exhibit a higher critical brine volume fraction required for bulk fluid flow. This
 62 prediction was in close alignment with Antarctic field data on snow-ice formation and a convection-
 63 driven algal bloom [25]. Recently, in [31], key differences were found in the vertical tortuosities and
 64 correlation lengths of the pore spaces between granular and columnar ice, with the brine in granular
 65 ice less interconnected. They utilized X-ray CT data and the Kozeny-Carman relation to conclude

66 that granular ice has lower permeability than columnar ice. They did not, however, estimate
67 a percolation threshold due to spread in the microstructural data and noted that “ultimately,
68 permeability measurements of granular ice are required.”

69 Here we present a comprehensive set of bail test measurements of the fluid permeability of
70 granular sea ice taken off the coast of East Antarctica during the SIPEX II expedition, September
71 - November 2012 [32]. We find that the critical threshold ϕ_c for bulk fluid flow in the vertical
72 direction is about 10%, and that predictions from percolation theory for the fluid permeability as
73 a function of brine porosity ϕ [33, 34, 28, 12] agree closely with our data.

74 We emphasize that our principal conclusion of the 10% critical threshold for Antarctic granular
75 ice is based primarily on the results of the carefully conducted bail test measurements. However,
76 this value of about 10% is also predicted here through a simple analysis of photomicrographs of
77 Antarctic granular ice, which yields values for the geometrical parameters in a model of compressed
78 powders [35, 36, 37] that was used in [27] to predict the 5% threshold for columnar ice. While the
79 compressed powder model is an overly simplified representation of sea ice microstructure, it still
80 provides a useful way of understanding why the critical porosity for granular ice is significantly
81 higher than for columnar ice. Interestingly, the compressed powder model was introduced in the
82 development of radar absorbing materials [38] used to coat aircraft and ships, making them *stealthy*
83 and difficult to detect.

84 In addition to the above microstructural analysis used in the compressed powder model to
85 support the finding of the 10% threshold for Antarctic granular ice, we also present here results from
86 the SIPEX I voyage [39] during September and October of 2007. Golden & Gully conducted tracer
87 experiments on blocks of sea ice collected off the coast of East Antarctica. The results show a sharp
88 transition in fluid flow properties at depths corresponding to 10% porosity. They indirectly support
89 our direct findings from the bail test experiments that granular sea ice is effectively impermeable
90 to bulk vertical flow for brine porosities below about 10%. However, these tracer experiments were
91 more exploratory in nature, and were not specifically designed to find the percolation threshold,
92 but to observe brine channels and fluid flow in Antarctic sea ice. It was only after analyzing
93 brine volume fraction profiles and crystallographic observations that we realized that these dye
94 experiments might also provide supporting evidence for the 10% threshold.

95 Percolation theory [33, 34] gives predictions for the vertical fluid permeability of granular sea ice
96 for porosities above the observed percolation threshold of 10%. In particular, the theory predicts
97 power law behavior for the permeability in this regime with a critical exponent describing its
98 behavior. Interestingly, it was shown [28, 12] that this exponent for columnar sea ice – a complex
99 porous medium in the continuum, takes the same universal value that holds for lattice percolation
100 models. The recent results in [31] on the characteristics of the brine inclusions in granular sea
101 ice enable us to find here that the critical exponent describing the permeability above the 10%
102 threshold in granular ice takes this same universal lattice value as for columnar sea ice, which is in
103 very close agreement with our data.

104 Finally, we note that for many reasons columnar microstructures have received disproportionate
105 attention, mostly due to their prevalence in Arctic sea ice and their importance in undisturbed ice
106 growth [11, 40, 2], while granular microstructures have historically received less focus. However,
107 granular ice is common in surface layers in the Arctic [41, 42], which directly underlie ponds
108 controlling ice albedo. This becomes particularly important as we observe a regime shift toward
109 younger, thinner Arctic sea ice [43]. Examination of the crystalline structure in sea ice from a more
110 recent trans-Arctic survey showed a marked increase in overall granular ice fraction, from around
111 10% observed in an earlier study [44] to over 40% [42]. In the Antarctic it has long been observed
112 that granular ice [45, 16, 46] accounts for up to 40% of the sea ice pack. Snow-ice in particular,
113 with a granular microstructure itself, accounts for over a quarter of the ice found in the Southern

114 Ocean [47], and there has been recent interest in assessing changing conditions in the Arctic that
 115 may promote snow-ice formation there [17]. An accurate accounting of sea ice processes involving
 116 fluid flow in predictive geophysical, biological, and biogeochemical models in either the Arctic or
 117 Antarctic thus relies on a deeper knowledge of the fluid permeability of granular ice.

118 2 Results

119 Field Experiments

120 During September and October of 2012, we measured the fluid permeability of first year Antarctic
 121 pack ice as participants in SIPEX II aboard the ice breaker *Aurora Australis* off the east coast of
 122 Antarctica [32]. Over 100 measurements of the fluid permeability of the ice were made covering a
 123 range of depths, temperatures, and ice types [48] (see Methods). Brine volume fraction profiles for
 124 full and partial cores were obtained from temperature and salinity data for 10 cm sections of the
 125 cores using the Frankenstein-Garner relation [29, 2, 11]. Full crystallographic cores were taken at
 126 each site in order to correlate ice type to specific permeability measurements, and the measurements
 127 corresponding to granular ice were separated out. We found that the critical threshold for fluid
 128 flow in granular ice was around $\phi_c \approx 10\%$. For a typical salinity of approximately 5 ppt, the
 129 corresponding critical temperature is around $T_c \approx -2.5^\circ\text{C}$ [29]. Moreover as predicted by the
 130 percolation theory analysis initiated in [28], we find here that the *universal* lattice critical exponent
 131 of about 2 for columnar ice in the Arctic still accurately describes the take-off of $k(\phi)$ above the
 132 threshold $\phi_c \approx 0.1$ for the granular case, as shown in Figure 2.

133 In September and October of 2007, during the SIPEX I voyage [39], we conducted tracer
 134 experiments on sea ice samples collected off the coast of East Antarctica. The tracer experiments
 135 consisted of extracting blocks of sea ice with a chainsaw, turning them upside down, and pouring
 136 cooled water with food dye or fluorescein (and some salt so that the fluid was similar in salinity
 137 and temperature to sea water) into shallow channels cut into the bottom of the ice (which was the
 138 top surface of the inverted blocks). Thin vertical slices were then cut from the blocks to expose
 139 the fluid fronts and layers of different microstructures and brine channels. In each iteration of the
 140 experiment, the fluid descended within a couple minutes through a layer of highly permeable sea
 141 ice, and stopped when it reached colder, impermeable granular ice (or fine-grained columnar ice)
 142 of brine volume fraction around 10%, as shown in Figure 3. The brine volume fraction profile of
 143 the blocks was determined by depth-matching to an adjacent ice core whose brine porosity profile
 144 was again determined using the Frankenstein-Garner relation [29, 1, 2]. The required temperature
 145 profile for this core was taken immediately upon extraction, with salinity determined from melted
 146 10 cm sections later on the ship. The ice type was determined, as best could be discerned, from
 147 visual inspection of the large thin slices, and comparison with other cores at that ice station, where
 148 the ice field there was quite homogeneous.

149 These experiments, as well as the above findings on fluid permeability and the compressed
 150 powder model, vividly illustrate that the critical threshold for fluid transport in fine-grained sea
 151 ice can be much higher than the 5% brine volume fraction for classic columnar sea ice, like that
 152 shown on the left in Figure 1. We note, however, as mentioned above, the tracer experiments were
 153 originally quite exploratory. They were conducted to obtain observations through photos and video
 154 of fluids moving through sea ice. After seeing our permeability results for SIPEX II, though, we
 155 realized that the observations of tracers in SIPEX I, when combined with analysis of brine volume
 156 profiles, could shed light on the threshold question for granular ice.

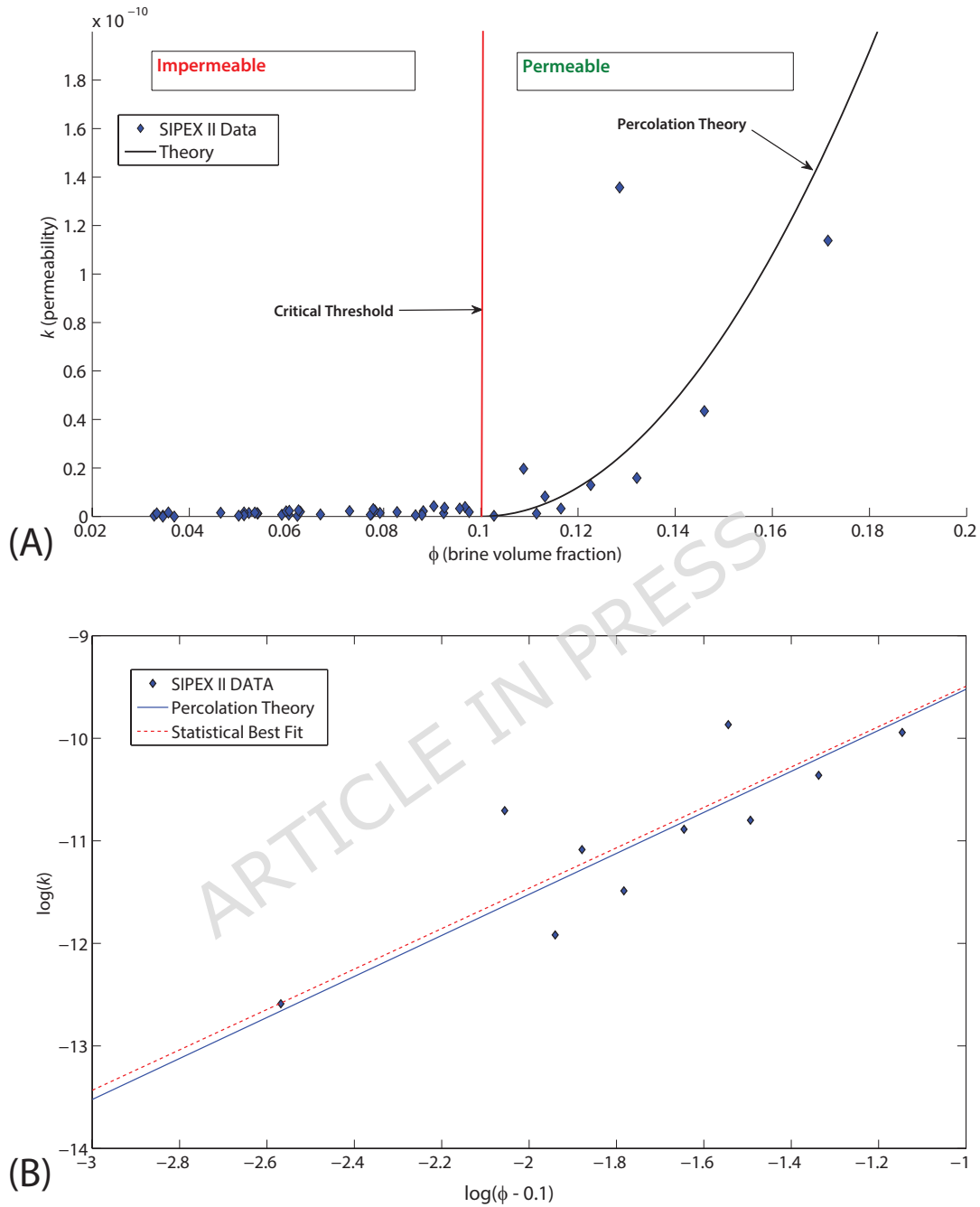


Figure 2: Comparison of *in situ* data on k (m^2) for Antarctic sea ice with percolation theory. In (A) all the granular sea ice data are displayed on a linear scale and in (B) the granular data for porosities above 10% are shown on a logarithmic scale, relative to $\phi_c \approx 0.1$, where a statistical best fit (dotted red line) of the data is shown along with the percolation theory prediction (solid blue line) with $\phi_c \approx 0.1$.

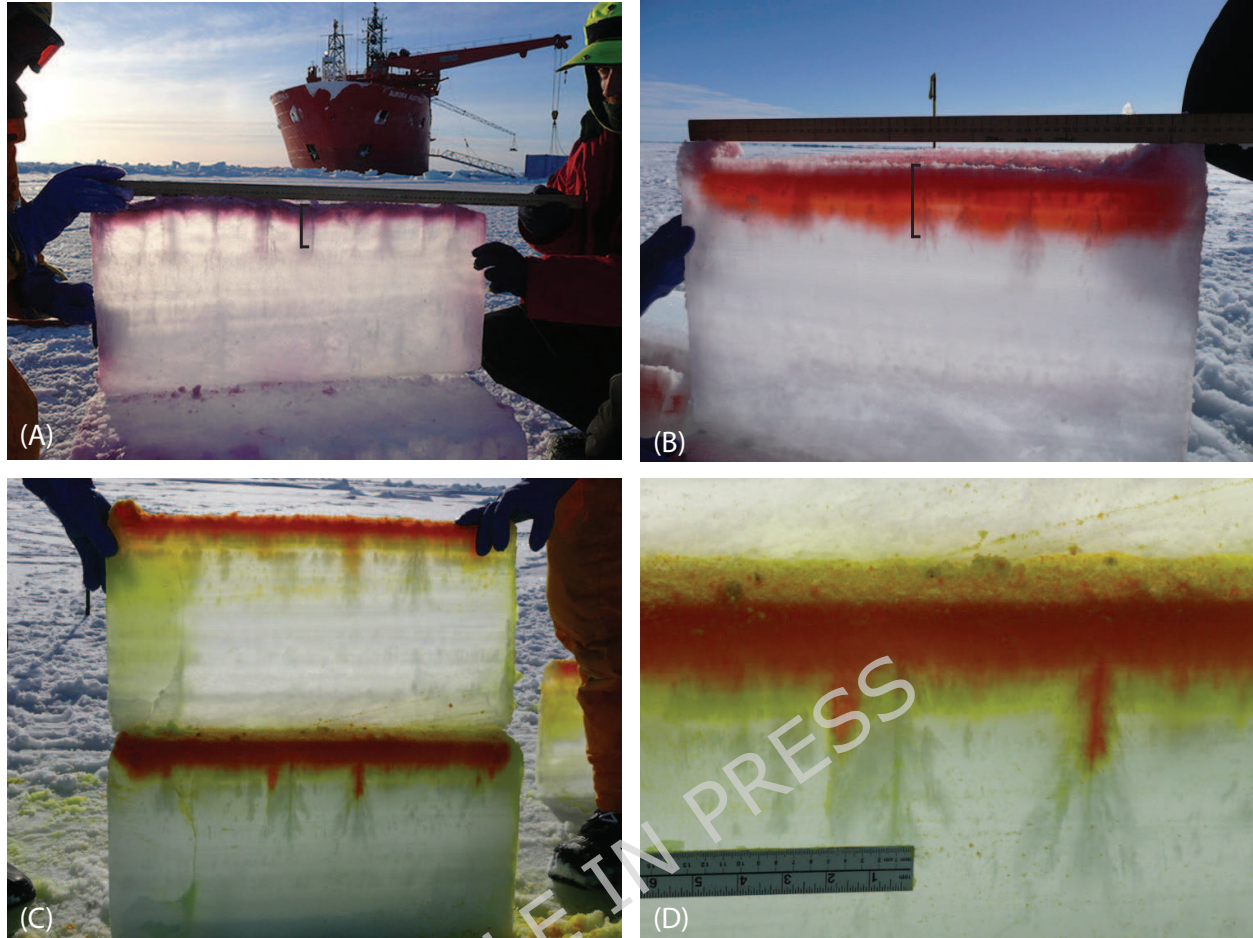


Figure 3: Tracer experiments from SIPEX I. The fluid penetrated about 5 cm into the ice in (A) (adapted from [23]), about 10 cm in (B), and about 9 cm in (C) and (D). The scale bars in (A) and (B) each represent 10 cm. In each case the descending fluid passed through an initial layer a few centimeters deep of highly permeable ice of average brine volume fraction in the range 18.5% - 21.5%, until reaching relatively impermeable ice with brine volume fraction of about 10%, where it stopped flowing. In (A), the temperature and brine volume decreased more rapidly, and the tracer stopped after 5 cm. In (B) and (C) the 10% brine volume threshold was located about 10 cm down, and in (D) a tracer plume was also able to descend deeper through a large brine channel.

157 Percolation Theory Results

158 Using the crystallographic cores taken at each site, we can match the vertical permeability mea-
 159 surement to ice type based on depth. The details of this process are found in Methods. In Figure
 160 2 (A) we display the granular permeability data along with the curve in equation (1). In Figure 2
 161 (B) we show the percolation theory prediction in logarithmic variables, along with a statistical best
 162 fit to the data that shows close agreement to the percolation theory curve. There is a clear surge in
 163 permeability values for brine volume fractions above 10%, while the ice is effectively impermeable
 164 to bulk flow below the threshold. When plotting the data on a logarithmic scale, it appears that
 165 for brine volume fractions above 10% percolation theory accurately captures the data. Indeed, a
 166 statistical best fit of the data produces the line $y = 1.97x + 17.5$ while percolation theory yields
 167 $y = 2x + 17.5$.

168 **3 Discussion**

169 Granular ice is a significant component of the Antarctic ice pack, and is an increasingly important
170 part of the Arctic sea ice cover. Fluid flow through sea ice governs a broad range of physical
171 and biological processes in the polar marine environment which must be accurately accounted for
172 to improve predictive models. While the critical brine volume fraction for fluid flow in columnar
173 sea ice is about 5%, here we present the first extensive set of *in situ* measurements of the fluid
174 permeability of granular ice. We find its critical brine volume fraction to be about 10%, almost
175 double that for columnar ice. Furthermore, we show the results of tracer experiments in Antarctic
176 sea ice that again support the finding that the critical threshold in granular ice is around 10%. The
177 tracer experiments were conducted during the SIPEX I expedition of September–October 2007 off
178 the coast of East Antarctica between 115° E and 130° E, and 64° S and 66° S [39, 49].

179 We remark that a more basic version of the permeability measurements presented here for
180 granular ice were first attempted on SIPEX I in 2007. However, at that time we were unable to
181 regularly co-locate or correlate the fluid measurements with the cores taken for crystallographic
182 analysis, as we have rigorously taken care of here. Before SIPEX II in 2012, our experimental
183 techniques were developed and refined on sea ice in McMurdo Sound about 20 km from Scott Base
184 in November and December of 2010, and in the Arctic in spring of 2011 and 2012 [50]. One notable
185 refinement used here was our adaptation of pressure transducers used in reservoir monitoring to
186 record the water level with time in the hole left from partial coring.

187 An elementary analysis of the compressed powder model [37, 35] confirms that granular mi-
188 crostructures should display higher thresholds than columnar ice. We note that fine-grained colum-
189 nar ice, which can display geometric similarity to some granular ice, can also exhibit these higher
190 percolation threshold values, while coarse-grained microstructures in granular ice (with higher
191 R_i/R_b ratios) can have lower thresholds similar to columnar ice. By measuring the relative dimen-
192 sions of the ice grains and the fluid films surrounding them in photomicrographs of granular sea
193 ice, we obtain a model prediction of the percolation threshold for Antarctic granular ice of around
194 10%, with the possibility of even higher thresholds for more finely grained microstructures. We
195 note, however, that the compressed powder model is an overly simplified idealization of the porous
196 microstructure of sea ice and is limited in its predictive capabilities, with other microstructural fea-
197 tures playing a role in fluid transport properties. It should be viewed as a guide for understanding
198 the basic properties of percolation in these types of media, but certainly has limitations and is best
199 used in conjunction with actual fluid permeability measurements, as we do here.

200 We remark that the higher value for granular ice in comparison to columnar ice is reasonable
201 from a geometrical perspective, particularly in view of Figures 1 and 4. Connectivity and flow can
202 be achieved in columnar ice along the extended brine filaments sandwiched between ice platelets,
203 with low overall porosity, as shown in Figure 4. In granular ice, though, the required porosity must
204 be higher in order to overcome the inherently less interconnected brine microstructure [31], and the
205 more random, labyrinthine fluid pathways that are apparent in the granular ice in Figure 1.

206 In addition to determining the value of the percolation threshold for granular ice, we also
207 predict the dependence of the vertical fluid permeability on brine volume fraction for ϕ above
208 $\phi_c \approx 10\%$ using percolation theory. A comprehensive theory for the vertical fluid permeability
209 of columnar sea ice was developed, and validated experimentally with laboratory and Arctic field
210 data in [28]. Microscale imaging methods based on X-ray computed tomography (CT) and pore
211 structure analysis were also developed to provide detailed pictures of the brine microstructure and
212 the evolution of its connectivity with temperature [28, 51].

213 We demonstrate that the value of the percolation threshold changes significantly with changes in
214 polycrystalline microstructure. This is typical in percolation theory, where the threshold value for

215 the two dimensional square lattice, for example, is quite different than for the hexagonal lattice [34].
216 Nevertheless, the fluid permeability critical exponent that characterizes the increase in permeability
217 above the threshold is believed to be *universal* for lattices, depending only on dimension and not on
218 the details of the lattice [34]. Somewhat surprisingly, we found in [28] that the fluid permeability
219 critical exponent for columnar ice is the same as the universal *lattice* value in three dimensions.
220 We find here that percolation theory [52, 12, 28] and data on pore size distributions [31] allow us
221 to predict that the critical exponent for permeability above ϕ_c for granular ice should be the same
222 as the universal lattice value that holds for columnar ice. This is indeed what we find in the data,
223 in what appears to be a notable demonstration of universality for a complex random medium in
224 the continuum. Our findings here add further weight to the vision put forth in [53] that statistical
225 physics provides a natural, powerful framework for formulating and addressing key questions in the
226 physics of sea ice.

227 This work demonstrates the applicability of percolation theory to fluid flow through sea ice
228 for ice types other than columnar ice. It also demonstrates that considering the microstructure
229 of the ice is vital when modeling any process in which fluid flow through the ice is relevant, such
230 as nutrient replenishment, biological colonization, gas exchange, and melt pond evolution. Our
231 findings also allow for a better understanding of previous experimental results showing lower brine
232 channel densities and delayed brine channel initiation in granular ice compared to columnar ice,
233 with critical Rayleigh numbers for convection being controlled by ice permeability [54]. We note
234 also that the conclusions in [31] invalidated the earlier intuitive belief in [54] that a lower density
235 of brine channels for experimental granular ice compared to columnar ice, at a given growth rate,
236 resulted from “reduced geometrical constraints enhancing the efficiency of individual brine channels
237 in granular ice, and therefore reducing brine channel density.”

238 We reiterate that the percolation threshold of approximately 10% for bulk fluid flow through
239 granular sea ice has been observed in field experiments involving flow over scales of at least several
240 centimeters, as indicated in Figure 3 and in our hydrological bail tests. Our findings, however,
241 do not preclude fluid activity over shorter ranges within small-scale connected brine structures,
242 even for brine volume fractions below 10%. Local fluxes on these smaller scales are particularly
243 important for microbial life that can inhabit the brine inclusions. In percolation theory [33, 34], a
244 porosity or volume fraction above the threshold signals that there is bulk transport across a very
245 large (or infinite) sample, yet at the same time this does not preclude the existence of open clusters
246 which can be connected over relatively large scales – even for porosities well below the threshold.
247 We also remark that sea ice is a highly inhomogeneous porous composite, with large variations in
248 the brine microstructure and fluid transport properties that can occur over distances of just a few
249 centimeters. Here again as a result, measurements of fluid flow in sea ice could potentially yield
250 unusually large values even for porosities below 10%, for example, if a brine channel was active
251 during the measurement process. We note that our results apply to the region off the coast of
252 East Antarctica where the experiments were conducted. While it is reasonable to assume that
253 the threshold applies to granular sea ice in other geographic areas, confirming this claim requires
254 further field experimentation in different regions.

255 Our results strongly support the finding that the critical threshold for bulk vertical flow through
256 granular sea ice off the coast of East Antarctica is about 10%. We have already pointed out
257 uncertainties in the results such as the over-simplification of the compressed powder model. But
258 we have also assumed that bubbles are not playing a role in the findings. However, particularly if
259 bubbles are connected and form larger open pore spaces, then they could play a role in the fluid
260 transport properties, and in the observed critical threshold, presumably making it easier for fluid
261 to flow. In the measurements of fluid permeability, we use tight fitting pipes coated with foam
262 to block out the horizontal flow, but there may be some seepage. Also, there are uncertainties

263 inherent in correlating the temperature and salinity, and therefore brine volume fraction, at the
 264 bottom of a partial core, with the permeability measurements there. Finally, as noted before,
 265 the tracer experiments were quite rudimentary, and not originally designed to measure the critical
 266 porosity for fluid flow. While they did support the 10% finding, nevertheless significant uncertainties
 267 remain, such as what really stopped the downward tracer flow, did the fluid freeze, how fast did
 268 the fluid move, and so on. Conducting such tracer experiments again, while addressing these issues
 269 and doing a more careful crystallographic analysis would potentially yield interesting results about
 270 fluid transport through sea ice.

271 All of the above mentioned physical and biological processes depend critically on fluid flow
 272 through the ice and are important factors in understanding the polar marine environment. We
 273 have shown that the percolation threshold for sea ice, especially in the Antarctic ice pack, cannot
 274 be assumed to be 5% homogeneously. In order to facilitate accuracy in models for both small-scale
 275 processes and large-scale behavior, it is imperative that granular sea ice be considered separately
 276 from columnar sea ice to determine the characteristics and behavior of the pack as a whole.

277 4 Methods

278 Percolation Theory

279 Percolation theory can be used to model transport in disordered materials where the connectedness
 280 of one phase, like brine in sea ice, dominates the effective behavior [33, 34] Consider the square
 281 ($d = 2$) or cubic ($d = 3$) network of bonds joining nearest neighbor sites on the integer lattice \mathbb{Z}^d .
 282 The bonds are assigned fluid permeabilities $k_0 > 0$ (open) or $k_0 = 0$ (closed) with probabilities p
 283 and $1 - p$, respectively. The percolation threshold is the critical probability p_c , $0 < p_c < 1$, where
 284 an infinite, connected set of open bonds first appears as p increases. In $d = 2$, $p_c = \frac{1}{2}$, and in $d = 3$,
 285 $p_c \approx \frac{1}{4}$. Let $k(p)$ be the permeability of this random network in the vertical direction. Below the
 286 percolation threshold ($p < p_c$), $k(p) = 0$. For $p > p_c$ and near the threshold, $k(p)$ exhibits power
 287 law behavior, $k(p) \sim k_0(p - p_c)^e$ as $p \rightarrow p_c^+$, where e is the permeability critical exponent. For
 288 lattice models, critical exponents are believed to be *universal*, depending only on the dimension
 289 d . In the lattice case, we also note that e is equal to the lattice electrical conductivity exponent
 290 t [52, 34, 55, 56]. For $d = 3$, there is a rigorous bound (for a model of the percolating backbone)
 291 that $1 \leq t \leq 2$ [55], and it is believed that $t \approx 2.0$ [34].

292 Although e can take non-universal values in the continuum, it was shown [52, 56, 34] that for
 293 lognormally distributed inclusions as in [41], e takes the universal lattice value with $e \approx 2$. We
 294 found this to be the case for columnar ice in [28] and here for granular ice [31]. The scaling factor
 295 k_0 was estimated in [28] using critical path analysis and X-ray CT observations of throat sizes, that
 296 is, the sizes of the “bottlenecks” within the connected brine pathways, or the largest radius of a
 297 sphere that can fit anywhere along the brine pathway, or be inscribed within it. Here we use the
 298 same k_0 value for granular ice, since the throat sizes found in [31] correlate well with the parameters
 299 used in [28], so that above the threshold,

$$k(\phi) \sim 3 (\phi - \phi_c)^2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2, \quad \phi \rightarrow \phi_c^+, \quad (1)$$

300 with critical brine volume fraction $\phi_c \approx 0.1$ for granular ice, as we see below.

301 Compressed Powder Model

302 To theoretically estimate the percolation threshold ϕ_c for fluid transport in Antarctic granular ice,
 303 we use the compressed powder model [35, 36, 37]. It was useful in originally explaining why ϕ_c for

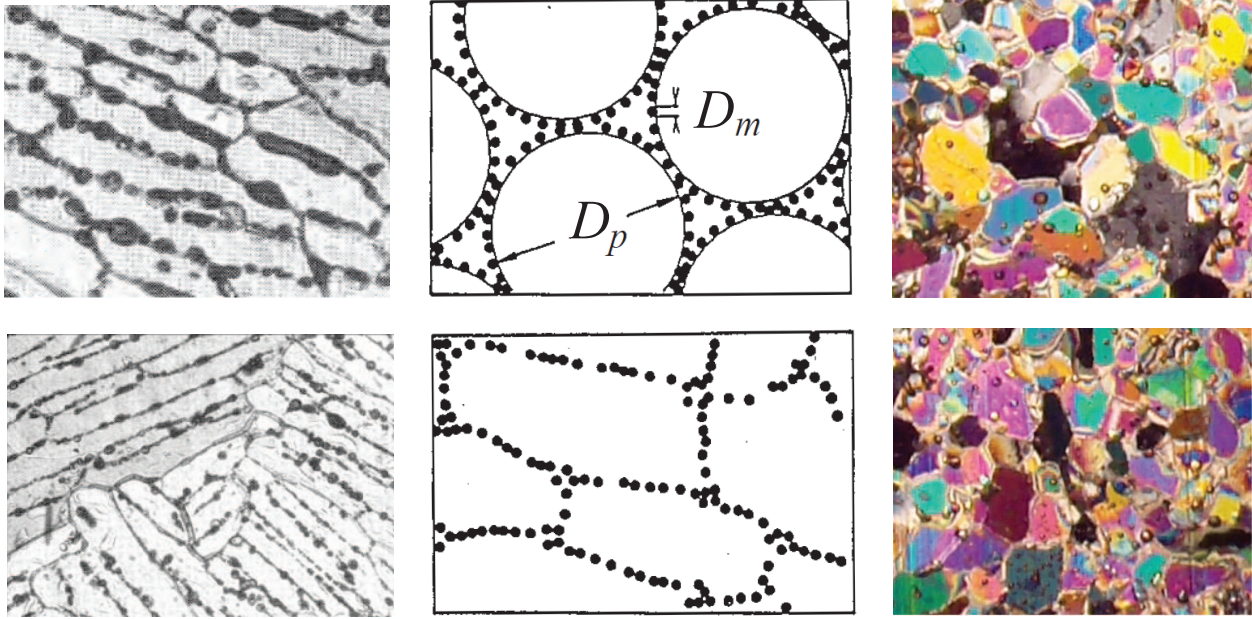


Figure 4: Columnar and granular polycrystalline microstructures, and the compressed powder model. Left column: microstructure of columnar sea ice – aligned ice platelets with brine inclusions in between [57, 27]; Middle column: compressed powder model [35, 36, 37] used to predict percolation thresholds for powder composites as a function of the ratio of particle sizes; Right column: crystalline microstructure of granular sea ice from the Bellingshausen Sea, with brine films between the ice grains. The grains have statistically isotropic orientations, as indicated by the colorations shown.

304 columnar ice had a value that was so much lower than for classical lattice models, and in predicting
 305 that it should be around 5% [27]. This model is perhaps even more applicable to granular ice with
 306 crystals that are more spherically-shaped, so that the degree of compression in the compressed
 307 powder model is minimal, as indicated in Figure 4.

308 In the compressed powder model, large polymer spheres of radius R_p and diameter $D_p = 2R_p$
 309 are mixed with much smaller metal spheres of radius R_m and diameter $D_m = 2R_m$, and the
 310 mixture is compressed. The main parameter controlling the threshold is the ratio $\xi = R_p/R_m$. An
 311 approximate formula for the critical volume fraction for percolation of the small metal spheres is
 312 given by $\phi_c = (1 + \xi\theta/(4X_c))^{-1}$, where θ is a reciprocal planar packing factor, the ratio of total
 313 planar area to the area occupied by particles, and X_c is the critical surface area fraction of the
 314 larger particles which must be covered by the smaller particles for percolation to occur. Based on
 315 microstructural analysis, values of $X_c = 0.42$ and $\theta = 1.27$ agree with empirical experimentation
 316 [37]. This mixture geometry is roughly similar to the ice-brine microstructure of sea ice, where
 317 the ice grains or platelets have “diameter” or length $D_i = 2R_i$ in the long dimension (analogous
 318 to D_p in the compressed powder before compression), and the brine inclusions (or tubes) have
 319 “diameter” $D_b = 2R_b$, or the thickness of a brine film around an ice grain in the granular case,
 320 with $\xi = R_i/R_b$ in this case. We have estimated a range of ξ values from photomicrographs of
 321 granular microstructures, as in Figure 4, and obtained a representative, average value of around
 322 $\xi \approx 12$, leading to a threshold value of around $\phi_c \approx 10\%$. By comparison, a range of ξ values
 323 obtained for the columnar ice on the left in Figure 4 gave a representative average of about $\xi \approx 24$,
 324 and a threshold value of around $\phi_c \approx 5\%$ [27]. In Figure 5, we illustrate the relationship between

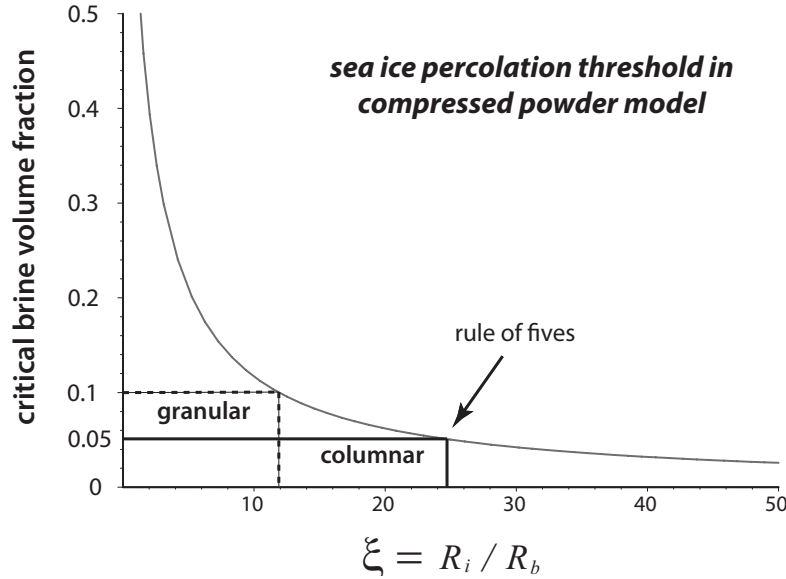


Figure 5: The percolation threshold in the compressed powder model is shown as a function of the ratio of the particle radii.

325 ξ and critical brine volume fraction, highlighting the two points on the curve corresponding to our
 326 findings for granular and columnar ice, respectively.

327 Fluid Permeability Data

328 The *in situ* permeability data were collected using a hydrologic bail test [58] where partial cylindrical
 329 holes were drilled vertically into the sea ice and the cores removed. Then a tight-fitting plastic pipe
 330 wrapped in foam (a packer) was inserted into the partial hole to block any horizontal inflow from
 331 the exposed surfaces. A pressure transducer (in a frame to keep it vertical) was then placed at the
 332 bottom of the hole to measure the height $h(t)$ in meters of the rising water column as a function
 333 of time t in seconds. Temperature and salinity measurements were taken from the bottom 2 cm of
 334 each partial core, allowing us to identify the brine volume fraction at the interface. While the corer
 335 has “core catchers” at its bottom to keep the ice core inside the corer as it’s lifted out, they often
 336 did not work, so we developed a *lasso* method of extracting a partial core. Using a thin enough
 337 rope to fit between the ice core and the surrounding ice, we tied a lasso around the top of the
 338 core. While pulling up tightly on the lasso, we simultaneously jammed a carefully sized bamboo
 339 pole down between the partial core and the surrounding ice. One quick downward thrust usually
 340 broke the partial core off at the bottom of the hole, leaving a flat ice surface at the bottom for our
 341 transducer frame to sit properly.

342 The permeability of the ice just underneath the borehole can be accurately estimated using the
 343 equation

$$h(t) = h(t_0)e^{-k_{exp}t(g\rho/\eta L)}, \quad (2)$$

344 with measured permeability k_{exp} (m^2), ice thickness beneath the borehole L (m), density ρ (kg m^{-3}),
 345 gravitational constant g (m s^{-2}), and initial time t_0 . The vertical component k_v of the permeability
 346 can then be found using the calculations in [58], which are based on simulations of the pressure
 347 field in the ice and have been verified by measurement. For sea ice, like that of Arctic columnar
 348 ice, with a ratio of lateral permeability to vertical permeability $k_l/k_v \approx 0.1$, the vertical component

349 can be calculated with:

$$k_v = \frac{k_{exp}}{0.17 + 10.7\text{m}^{-1}L}. \quad (3)$$

350 For granular sea ice, with a far more isotropic crystallographic and pore structure, as shown in
351 Figure 1, the vertical component of the permeability may be calculated using:

$$k_v = \frac{k_{exp}}{0.15 + 32.4\text{m}^{-1}L}, \quad (4)$$

352 which corresponds to the isotropic case where $k_l/k_v \approx 1$, more inline with the microstructure of
353 granular sea ice.

354 In order to correlate the permeability measurement with the ice type, a full crystallographic
355 core was taken at each measurement site. For best results, we primarily collected core samples
356 from level, undeformed ice. Cores were immediately taken on board the *Aurora Australis*, where
357 a standard crystallographic analysis was conducted in a -20° C freezer using thin sections and
358 cross-polarizing film. We then matched the depths of our permeability measurements to those
359 of the crystallographic core for each site to identify ice type and partition the data by crystal
360 classification. Permeability measurements were kept to within 3 meters of the crystallographic core
361 to ensure close correspondence. Example images of the polycrystalline microstructure of Antarctic
362 ice under cross-polarization are shown in Figure 1. The left panel displays a columnar sample and
363 the right panel a granular one. The samples were collected in October 2007 during the SIMBA
364 expedition [30]. Some granular crystalline microstructures that we observed during SIPEX II were
365 very similar to what is seen on the right in Figure 4.

366 Theoretical Bounds

367 Finally, we demonstrate that the empirical data just discussed are captured by known theoretical
368 bounds. We consider low Reynolds number flow of brine with viscosity η through sea ice, and
369 theoretical bounds on sea ice fluid permeability. The volume fractions of brine and ice are ϕ and
370 $1 - \phi$, respectively, where the effects of small air bubbles, typically isolated from one another, are
371 assumed to be negligible. The velocity and pressure fields in the brine satisfy the Stokes' equations
372 for incompressible fluids. Under appropriate assumptions [34], the homogenized velocity $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})$ and
373 pressure $p(\mathbf{x})$ satisfy Darcy's law and the incompressibility condition for velocity,

$$\mathbf{v} = -\frac{1}{\eta} \mathbf{k} \nabla p \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0. \quad (5)$$

374 In (5), \mathbf{k} is the permeability tensor with vertical permeability $k_z = k$, which has units of m^2 .

375 In previous work [59, 28] rigorous upper bounds for the vertical fluid permeability $k(\phi)$ of sea
376 ice were found, based on an observed lognormal distribution for the horizontal cross-sectional areas
377 $A(\phi)$ of the brine inclusions [41]. In this case $Z = \ln A$ has a normal probability density with mean
378 μ and variance σ^2 ,

$$P(Z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-(Z-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}. \quad (6)$$

379 The cross-sectional radius $a(\phi) = 7 \times 10^{-5} + (1.6 \times 10^{-4})\phi$ (m) increases according to measurements
380 of pore sizes with temperature and is given in [60, 41]. In [31] the statistical behavior of the pores
381 in granular ice was found to be similar to that in [41], so that these parameters and bounds are
382 applicable to our granular ice permeability data. The bound is a special case of optimal void bounds
383 [34, 61], and takes the form

$$k(\phi) \leq \frac{\phi}{8\pi} \langle A(\phi) \rangle e^{\sigma^2} \quad (7)$$

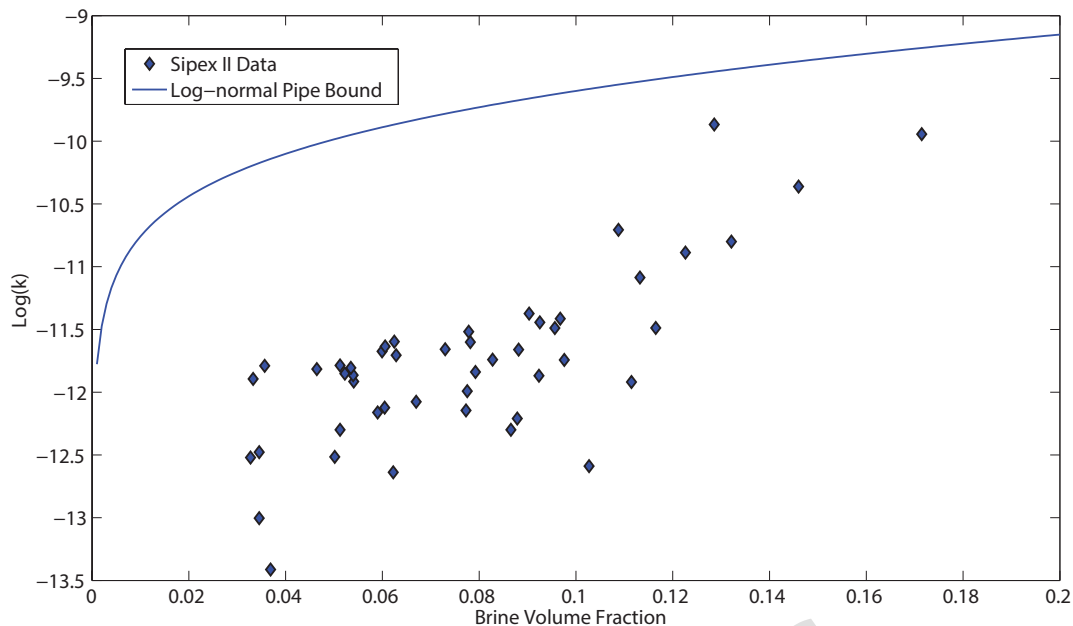


Figure 6: A comparison of *in situ* data from SIPEX II on the vertical fluid permeability k (m^2) of Antarctic granular ice with a rigorous upper bound.

384 with variance $\sigma^2 \approx 1$ and $\langle A(\phi) \rangle = \pi a^2(\phi)$ as in [41]. The *lognormal pipe bound* in (7) captures all
 385 our data for granular ice, as shown in Figure 6.

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402 **Author Contributions.** KMG, CMF, AG, JL, and CS conceived and designed the experiments.
 403 KMG, AG, CS, and JLT performed the experiments. All authors analyzed the data. KMG, CMF,

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