An improved carbon dioxide snow spectral albedo model: Application to Martian conditions

D. Singh¹, and M.G. Flanner¹

¹Climete end Space Sciences and Engineering, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA

Corresponding author: Deepak Singh (sdeepak@umich.edu)

Key Points

- We extend an Earth-based H₂O snow model to simulate CO₂ snow albedo
- Improved CO₂ ice refractive indices produce very high (~0.96) CO₂ snow albedo
- we explore a range of conditions applicable to Mars and evaluate the model against measurements

Author Ma

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1002/2016JE005040

Abstract

Carbon dioxide ice is abundant on the Martian surface, and plays an important role in the planet' energy budget due to its high reflectivity and seasonal variation. Here, we adapt the terrestrial Snow, Ice, and Aerosol Radiation (SNICAR) model to simulate CO2 snow albedo across the ultraviolet, visible, and near-IR spectrum (0.2-5.0 µm). We apply recent laboratory derived refrictive indices of CO2 ice, which produce higher broadband CO2 snow albedo (0.93–0.92) than previously estimated. Compared with H₂O snow, we find that CO₂ snow albedo is much higher in the near-IR spectrum, less dependent on ice grain size, less dependent on solar zenith angle, and more susceptible to darkening from dust. A mass concentration of 0.01% Martian dust reduces visible and near-IR CO₂ snow albedos by about 60% and 25%, respectively. The presence of small amounts of H_2O snow on top of CO_2 snow can substantially decrease the surface albedo. Whereas 2.5 cm of H₂O snow can completely mask the impact of underlying CO₂ ice or the surface, roughly twice as much overlying CO₂ snow is required to mask underlying H₂O snow. Similarly, a 10% mixing ratio of H₂O ice embedded in CO₂ snow decreases broadband albedo by 0.18, while 10% CO₂ ice elevates H₂O snow broadband albedo by 0.10. We also present comparisons between hemispherical albedo produced by SNICAR and observations of directional reflectance of Martian polar ice caps. While imperfect, this best-fit analysis provides general ranges of physical parameters in different Martian environments that produce reasonable model-observation agreement.

1 Introduction

The Martian atmosphere consists primarily of carbon dioxide, and Martian polar caps are covered primarily with carbon dioxide ice [*Leighton and Murray*, 1966; *Herr and Pimentel*, 1969, *Lasson and Fink*, 1972; *Forget*, 1998; *Bibring* et al., 2005]. H₂O ice is also present at the surface of the perennial ice caps, with small amounts of seasonal deposition in other parts

of the planet [e.g., *Kieffer* et al., 2000; *Bibring* et al., 2004; *Brown* et al., 2014]. Significant portions of atmospheric CO_2 (25-30%) deposit seasonally in each hemisphere, as indicated by model simulations and surface pressure measurements [*Tillman* et al., 1993; *Forget* et al., 1998; *Kieffer and Titus*, 2001]. To understand the impact of these ices on the planet's cryosphere albedo, it is important to accurately determine the spectral dependence of CO_2 snow dibedo and influences of properties such as dust content, ice grain size, and snow thickness, a well as the albedo effects of mixing and layering of CO_2 and H_2O snow.

Our work determines the albedo of CO_2 snow by extending the Earth-based Snow, Ice, and Aeroso Padiation (SNICAR) model [*Flanner* et al., 2007; *Flanner* et al., 2009], originally designed for H₂O snow. SNICAR utilizes the multiple scattering, multi-layer two-stream radiative approximation described by *Toon* et al. [1989], with the delta-hemispheric mean approximation. We extend the current version of SNICAR from 470 bands (over the wavelength range 0.3-5.0 µm) to 480 bands spanning 0.2-5.0 µm at 10 nm spectral resolution. We include these extra 10 bands in the ultraviolet (UV) spectrum because of the lack of ozone in the Martian atmosphere compared to Earth [*Montmessin and Lefèvre*, 2013], meaning more UV radiation reaches the Martian surface and interacts with snow. A single-layer implementation of SNICAR can be operated interactively on the web at: *http://snow.engin.umich.edu*.

Very few studies have focused on modeling of Martian CO₂ snow albedo across the UV, visible and near-IR spectrum [*Warren* et al., 1990; *Hansen*, 1999; *Bonev* et al., 2008]. *Langevin et al.*, [2007] and *Appéré et al.*, [2011] present modeled near-IR albedo of Martian cryospheric surfaces, as discussed in Section 4. With the availability of more accurate and spectrally resolved laboratory measurements of CO₂ ice complex refractive indices across the solar spectrum [*Hansen*, 1997; *Hansen* 2005], we provide improved and updated spectral albedos of carbon dioxide snow with applicability to Martian conditions. The presence of light-absorbing impurities generally lowers snow albedo. We simulate the impact of Martian dust [*Wolff* et al., 2006; *Wolff* et al., 2009; *Wolff* et al., 2010] and palagonite [*Clark* et al., 1990; *Clarcy* et al., 1995] on surface cryosphere albedo. Palagonite is a volcanic rock and serves as a terrestrial analog for Martian dust [*Banin* et al., 1997]. We perform multiple

analyses to determine the sensitivity of cryosphere spectral albedo to the amount and type of dust, presence of both ices, ice grain size, snow layer thickness, and solar zenith angle. We also compare our simulations with observed Mars surface albedo derived from Compact Reconnaissance Imaging Spectrometer (CRISM) measurements, and the OMEGA instrument [*Appéré et al.*, 2011] (section 4). Apparent albedo, derived by *Brown* et al [2014] using CRISM measurements, were provided by Adrian Brown (SETI Institute, personal communication), and observations and modeled albedo from the OMEGA instrument were provided by Thomas Appéré (IPAG, Grenoble, personal communication).

2 Data and methodology

Hansen [1907, 2005] made extensive laboratory measurements of the complex refractive indices of solid CO₂ ice in the spectral range from 0.174 μ m to 333 μ m. We apply these data along hith Mie calculations to derive optical properties of different lognormal size distributions of CO₂ ice particles, reported with effective radius (r_{eff}), or the surface areaweighted mean radius of the size distribution. Our simulations of H₂O snow albedo utilize refractive indices of H₂O ice provided by Warren and Brandt [2008]. We use "central hemalite" dust mineral fractions from *Balkanski* et al. [2007] as a proxy of typical Earth dust. These mineral abundances are representative of aeolian dust from the Saharan desert. Refractive indices for this dust mixture are derived using the Maxwell-Garnett mixing approximation, following e.g., Sokolik and Toon [1999], along with measurements of mineral refractive indices from various sources. Refractive indices of Martian dust (hereafter Mars dust) upre-provided by Mike Wolff (Space Science Institute, personal communication), and were derived using data from instruments onboard the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (MRO), as described by Wolff et al. [2009], and Wolff et al. [2010]. We combine refractive indices of palagonite from Clark et al. [1990] over the 0.2 µm to 0.6 µm spectral range and measurements from 0.6 µm to 5 µm made by Clancy et al. [1995] to derive data over the

solar spectrum. In this study, we divide our broadband (0.2-5.0 μ m) into two sub-regions: Visible (0.2-0.7 μ m) and near-IR (0.7-5.0 μ m).

We determine the spectrally-varying single scatter albedo (ω_0), scattering asymmetry parameter (g), and mass extinction cross-section for all three dust types using Mie Theory with an assumed gamma size distribution [*Hansen and Travis*, 1974] with r_{eff} =1.5µm and effective variance (υ_{eff})=0.3 [*Wolff* et al., 2006]. Figure 1 shows the optical properties for these dust types. Mass absorption cross-section (Fig. 1d) is the product of single scatter co-albedo (Fig. 1a) and mass extinction cross-section (Fig 1b). We assume the same dust density of 2000 kg/m³ for both palagonite and Mars dust [*Stroncik and Schmincke*, 2002], and a dust density of 2570 kg/m³ for Earth dust, based on the volume fraction-weighted densities of the constituent minerals [*Balkanski* et al., 2007].

The bulk optical properties (extinction optical depth (τ), ω_0 , and g) for each snow layer are calculated from the abundances of each constituent [e.g., *Flanner* et al, 2007], with τ calculated as the sum of that associated with each constituent, ω_0 as a τ -weighted average of each constituent, and g as a scattering optical depth (product of τ and ω_0) weighted average of the asymptetry parameter of each constituent. These bulk layer properties are then applied in the two stream multiple scattering approximation adopted by SNICAR. We utilize this extended barnework of SNICAR to first simulate the albedo of pure CO₂ snow across the visible and near-IR spectrum. We then explore and compare the impacts of Earth dust, Mars dust and palagonite on CO₂ and H₂O snow albedo. Finally, we adopt a two layer model (with the bottom layer being semi-infinite) to calculate the impacts of H₂O snow presence on top of CO₂ snow and vice-versa. In all other cases we assume only a single snow layer, either with semi-infinite thickness or varying shallow thicknesses. Here, a layer with thickness of 100 m is referred to as semi-infinite. Figure 2 shows simplified diagrams of the various model configurations applied in this paper.

Ā

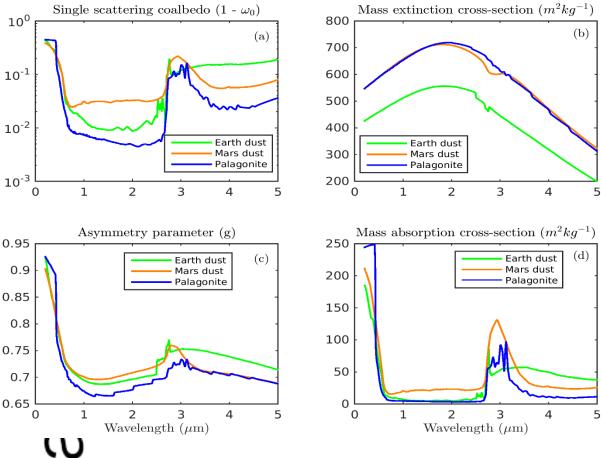


Figure 1: Spectral optical properties of the Earth dust, Martian dust, and palagonite applied in this study.

Author

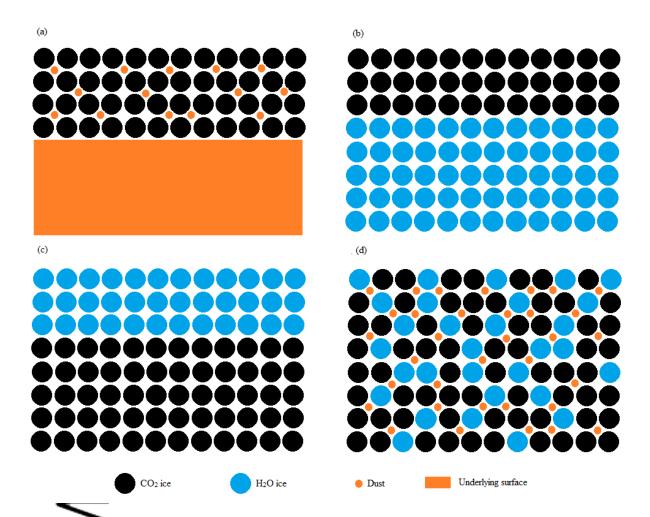


Figure 2. Schematic of the various model configurations applied in this paper: (a) a single CO_2 or H_2O snow layer (with dust) on top of solid underlying surface; (b) CO_2 snow with variable thickness on top of a semi-infinite H_2O snow layer; (c) H_2O snow with variable thickness on top of a semi-infinite CO_2 snow layer; (d) mixed snow layers with dust.

3 Results

Figure 3 shows the spectral hemispheric albedo of pure, semi-infinite CO_2 and H_2O snow with spherical grain effective radius of 100 µm and solar zenith angle of 60°. It is evident that the CO_2 is more reflective than H_2O snow, especially in the near-IR spectrum. Table 1 compares colar broadband, visible and near-IR albedo for both types of snow, where bandaveraged values are weighted with solar spectral irradiance measurements from *Labs and Neckel* [1968]. H_2O snow albedo is only about two-thirds of the CO_2 snow albedo in the nearIR spectrum, although this ratio is grain size dependent (section 3.2). With the presence of both CO_2 and H_2O ices on Martian polar caps, the contrasting reflectivity of these types of snow could significantly impact planetary shortwave energy fluxes, both at the surface and top of atmosphere.

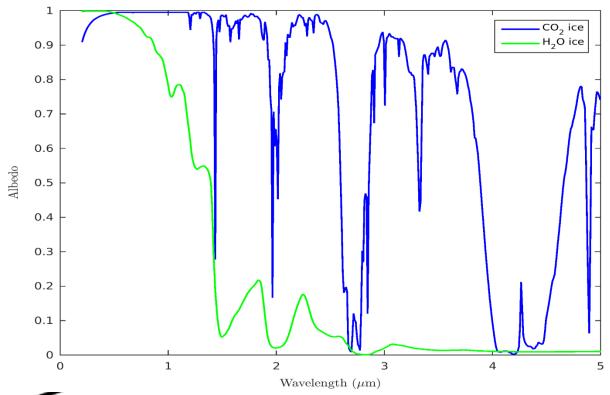


Figure 9. Comparison of CO₂ and H₂O snow spectral albedo simulated with the SNICAR model (Grain size = $100 \,\mu\text{m}$ and solar zenith angle = 60°)

Table 1: Albedo values for pure, semi-infinite CO_2 and H_2O snow in different spectral bands (Grain ize 100 µm and solar zenith angle = 60°)

	pure CO ₂	pure H ₂ O
Visible (0.2.0.7 μm)	0.991	0.988
Near-IR (0.7-5.0 μm)	0.952	0.609
Broadband (0.2-5.0 µm)	0.970	0.787

Snow albedo depends on many physical quantities, including grain size, solar zenith angle, layer thickness, and type and amount of impurities. We performed a sensitivity analysis to

understand the effect of these parameters on carbon dioxide snow albedo, and describe this analysis below. We assume an effective grain size of 100 μ m and solar zenith angle of 60° for all analyses, unless stated otherwise. For comparing CO₂ and H₂O albedo, we also assume identical pore volume fractions for each type of ice. A typical bulk density of settled snow on Earth is 200 kg/m³ (e.g., *EN 1991-1-3*). Because the bulk densities of H₂O and CO₂ ice are assumed to be 917 kg/m³ and 1500 kg/m³, respectively, we therefore assume H₂O and CO₂ snow densities of 200 kg/m³ and 327.15 (= 200×1500/917) kg/m³, respectively.

3.1 Solar zenith angle

We see intil effect of solar zenith angle on CO_2 snow albedo (Fig. 4). The broadband albedo only charges from 0.98 to 0.96 over the 80° change in zenith angle. This compares with H₂O snow abeed, which varies from 0.75 to 0.82 for the same set of parameters. Variability in albedo with solar zenith angle is greater in more absorptive parts of the spectrum (i.e., the near-IF), but for CO_2 snow the variability is small in the parts of the spectrum containing most of the solar energy.

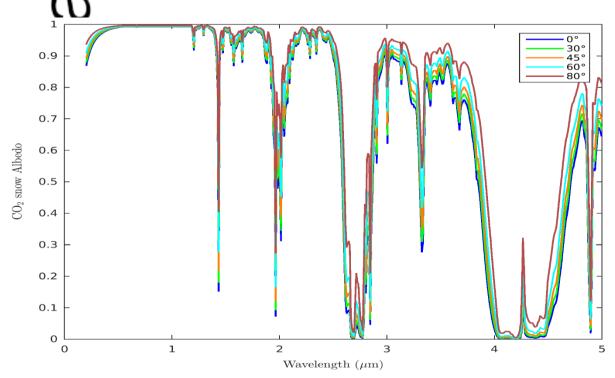


Figure 4: Variation of CO₂ snow albedo with solar zenith angle

3.2 Grain Size

We simulate a monotonic decrease in snow albedo with increasing effective grain size (Fig. 5). With larger grain size, ice volume per surface area increases, resulting in greater absorption of light, as also occurs with H₂O snow [e.g., *Wiscombe and Warren*, 1980]. The broadband (near-IR) albedo of CO₂ snow drops from 0.98 to 0.93 (0.96 to 0.89) for grain size increasing from 50 μ m to 1500 μ m. This is also smaller variability than exhibited by H₂O snow, whose broadband (near-IR) albedo changes from 0.82 to 0.65 (0.66 to 0.37) over the same range in effective grain size. CO₂ snow albedo varies less with grain size because CO₂ ice is inherently less absorptive in the near-IR than H₂O ice. Consequently the incremental increase in absorption associated with increasing photon path length within larger ice grains is smaller for CO₂ snow than H₂O snow.

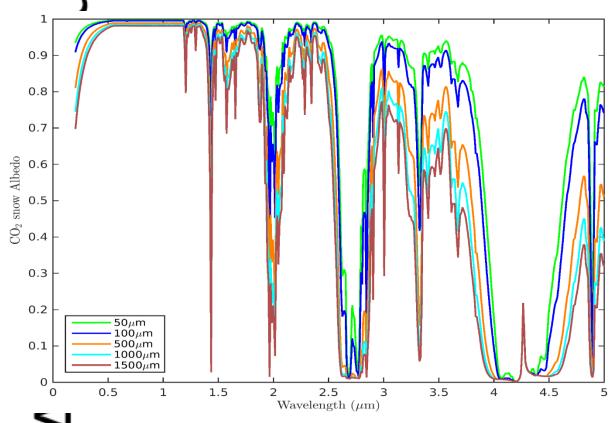


Figure 5: Voriation of CO₂ snow albedo with effective grain radius

3.3 Snow thickness

Figure 6 shows the combined impacts of snow thickness and grain size on CO_2 and H_2O broadband snow albedo, for snow overlying a surface with spectrally constant albedo of 0.2 (model configuration shown in Fig. 2a). For a given grain size, CO_2 snow albedo has a larger variation over the entire thickness range compared to H_2O snow albedo. CO_2 snow albedo is almost independent of grain size when the snow layer is thick, and consequently all curves saturate at a similarly high albedo ranging from 0.93-0.98. However, H_2O snow albedo has a larger 0.65-0.22.

"saturation thickness" as the snow thickness needed for the broadband albedo to We def differ by less than 0.01 from its semi-infinite value. Once the snow layer thickness exceeds the saturation thickness, the impact of the underlying surface becomes negligible as an insignificand amount of light penetrates through the snow to interact with the underlying surface we note, however, that the penetration depth of radiation in snow depends strongly on wavelength, with multiple scattering leading to much deeper penetration and influence of underlying substrate at wavelengths where the ice absorbs weakly [e.g., Wiscombe and Warren 1980]. The saturation thickness also depends on snow density, with higher density producing lower saturation thickness. Table 2 presents the saturation thickness required for different grain sizes for both types of snow. The saturation thickness is grain size-dependent, increasing from about 6 to 100 cm, and from about 5 to 83 cm as grain size increases from 50 to 1500 μ m for CO₂ and H₂O snow, respectively. With other factors equal, CO₂ snow has higher vaturation thickness than H₂O snow because CO₂ ice is less absorptive than H₂O ice, especially in the near-IR region, enabling multiple-scattered photons to penetrate deeper in the snow. Also the difference in saturation thicknesses increases with larger grain size because of less dependency of CO₂ snow albedo on grain size compared to H₂O snow (section 3.2). Finally, we note that studies on optical properties of ice particles have found that the southering asymmetry parameter is generally smaller for non-spherical ice particles volume/area ice spheres [e.g., Fu, 2007; Libois et al., 2013; Räisänen et al., 2015]. than equ An implication of this is that saturation thickness will be smaller for non-spherical ice

particles than values reported here, as photons are scattered less preferentially into the forward direction.

Table 2: Saturation snow layer thickness with various grain sizes for each type of snow. CO_2 and H_2O snow densities are 327.15 and 200 kg/m³, respectively.

Grain Size	CO ₂ snow saturation thickness	H ₂ O snow saturation thickness
50 µm	6.5 cm	5.0 cm
100 µm	10.9 cm	8.9 cm
250 µm	24.0 cm	18.8 cm
500 µm	43.1 cm	33.7 cm
1000 µ.m.	73.8 cm	59.4 cm
1500 in	100.2 cm	83.2 cm

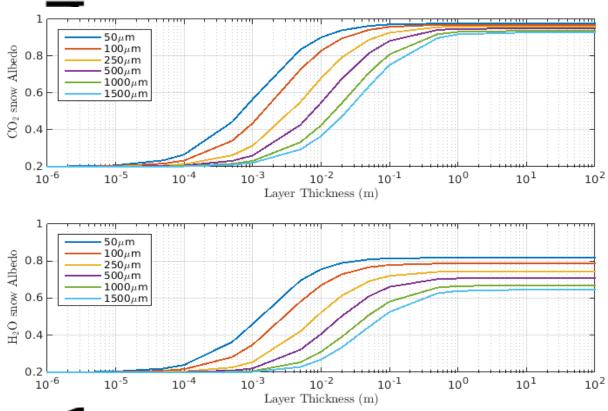


Figure 6 Broadband CO_2 (top) and H_2O (bottom) snow albedo dependence on snow layer thickness for various effective grain sizes. The underlying surface is assumed to have a

constant albedo of 0.2. The snow density is 327.15 kg/m³ and 200 kg/m³ for CO₂ and H₂O snow, respectively.

3.4 Dust type

The snow albedo impacts of different types of dust depend on their optical properties, and in particular or their mass absorption cross-section. Here we compare the impacts of Earth dust, Mars dase and palagonite on semi-infinite snow albedo (Fig. 7). Again, identical size distributions are assumed for each type of dust, and only the refractive indices are varied as input to Mie calculations. Mars dust has the greatest albedo impact of the three between wavelengths of 0.5 and 2.5 μ m, which contains most of the incident solar energy, while palagonite has the least. Mars dust is relatively dark due to the presence of higher amount of iron oxides [Bell III et al., 1990; Bell III, 1996; Christensen et al., 2000; Christensen et al., 2001a; Christensen et al., 2001b], combined with its large mass extinction cross-section. Although average Earth dust has a lower near-IR single-scatter albedo than the Mars dust, it also has a lower absorption per unit mass of dust, expressed via the mass absorption cross-section (Fig. 1d).

We consider "mass mixing ratio" as the mass of impurity divided by the mass of ice in which the impurity is mixed. Table 3 presents the effective CO_2 snow albedo in the presence of 0.01% mass mixing ratio of dust (kg of dust / kg of ice). Dust causes a larger albedo drop in the visible region (~0.6) compared to the near-IR region (~0.3) because all three types of dust have very two single scatter albedo in the blue and green spectra while ice grains scatter very efficiently at these wavelengths (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the drop in albedo in the blue spectrum (~0.8) (s much higher than the drop in the red spectrum (~0.3), helping explain the planet's red appearance even in its cryospheric regions. Although palagonite is less absorptive than Mars dust, the spectral variations in albedo impacts of the two species are similar.

 \triangleleft

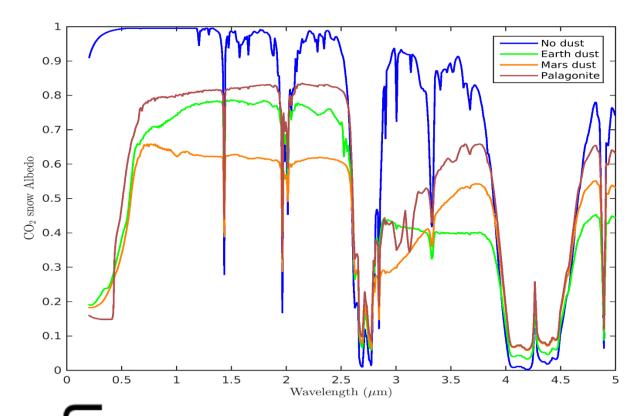


Figure 2: Impact of different types of dust on CO_2 snow albedo, with dust mass mixing ratio of 0.01 ∞ The assumed snow grain size is 100 μ m.

Table 3: Impact of different types of dust on CO_2 broadband snow albedo (grain size of 100 μ m), with dust mass mixing ratio of 0.01%.

	pure CO ₂	Earth dust	Mars Dust	Palagonite
Visi ble (0. 2-0.7 μm)	0.991	0.429	0.395	0.477
Near IR (0.7-5.0 μm)	0.952	0.718	0.616	0.779
Broadband (0.2-5.0 µm)	0.970	0.583	0.513	0.637

Table 4: Impact of different types of dust on H_2O broadband snow albedo (grain size of 100 μ m), with dust mass mixing ratio of 0.01%

	pure H ₂ O	Earth dust	Mars Dust	Palagonite
Vi tole (0.2-0.7 µm)	0.988	0.450	0.415	0.494
Near-IR (0.7-5.0 μm)	0.609	0.551	0.503	0.599

Broadband (0.2-5.0 µm)	0.787	0.504	0.461	0.550

Table 4 presents the effective H_2O snow albedo in the presence of 0.01% mass mixing ratio of dust. Pure H_2O snow is relatively absorptive in the near-IR spectral region (Table 1, Table 4), so dust has little impact on near-IR albedo, or in the most absorptive portions of the spectrum, it even increases albedo (Fig. 8). Fundamentally, this occurs because the singlescatter albedo of dust exceeds that of H_2O ice grains at wavelengths longer than about 1.5 µm. Similar to CO_2 snow, the drop in albedo is large in the visible region for H_2O snow. However in the near-IR region the change is less than 0.1, leading to smaller broadband albedo impacts of dust on H_2O snow albedo than on CO_2 snow albedo. These differences indicate that dust can have greater impact on Martian cryosphere albedo than Earth cryosphere-albedo due to the higher abundance of CO_2 ice compared to H_2O ice.

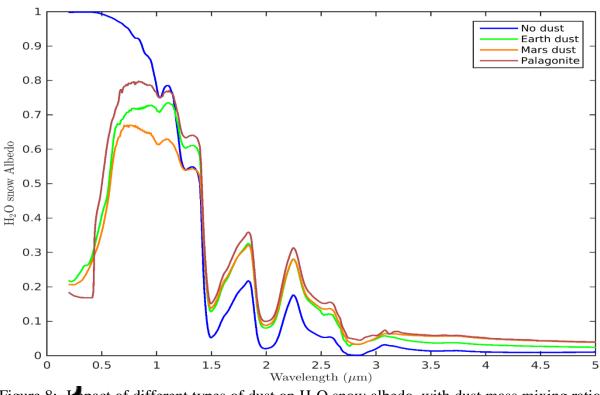


Figure 2: Inpact of different types of dust on H₂O snow albedo, with dust mass mixing ratio of 0.01% The assumed snow grain size is 100 μm.
3.5 Dust Concentration

Figure 9 shows the effect of varying amounts of Mars dust on CO_2 snow albedo (Fig. 2a). It is obvious that albedo decreases with increasing amount of dust, except in the strong absorption bands of CO_2 ice (e.g., near 1.4 µm, 1.9 µm, and 2.7 µm). Again we see maximum impact in the visible part of the spectrum. Saturation of the albedo from this type of dust is evident with dust mixing ratios exceeding 0.01%, with almost no difference in albedo between secharios with 0.1% and 1% dust. Also, the strong absorption features of CO_2 snow at various wavelengths disappear with high dust concentrations.

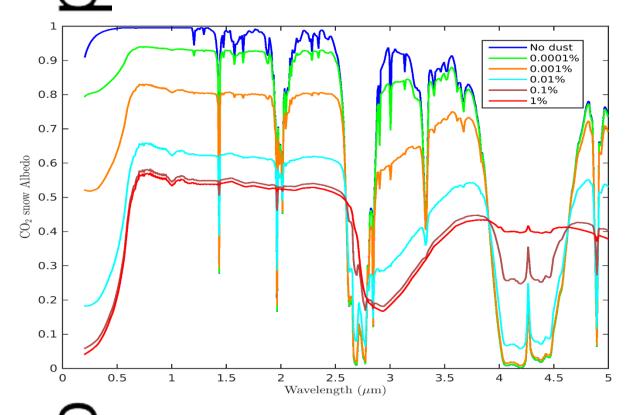


Figure 9: Impact of various amounts of Martian dust on CO_2 snow albedo. Snow effective grain radius is $100\mu m$.

3.6 Presence of both H₂O and CO₂ ice

3.6.1 Separate layers

 H_2O and O_2 ice interact quite differently with radiation in the visible and near-IR portions of the spectrum and also exhibit different sensitivities to different physical parameters. These ice types are also known to co-exist on the surface of Mars [e.g. *Byrne* et al., 2008; *Brown* et

al., 2014]. Here, we explore the albedo effects associated with thin slabs of one type of ice overlying the other, building on sensitivity studies conducted by *Warren* et al., [1990]. Figure 10 shows spectral albedo of surfaces with H_2O snow on top of CO_2 snow (scenario shown in figure 2c), and figure 11 shows albedo with the reverse situation (scenario shown in figure 2b).

Albedo decreases markedly with the presence of thin slabs of H₂O snow on top of CO₂ snow. This decrease occurs more rapidly with increasing thickness of H₂O ice than the rate of albedo increase that occurs with increasing thickness of CO₂ snow overlying H₂O snow. For a grain sine of 100 μ m, about 2.5 cm of H₂O snow is required to completely mask out the albedo effect of CO₂ snow (Table 5), whereas about 5.5 cm of CO₂ snow is required to completely mask out the albedo effect of underlying H₂O snow (Table 6). Again, differences are more pronounced in the near-IR spectrum (e.g., Fig. 3, Table 1), where the contrast in absorptivity between CO₂ and H₂O ice is greater (Tables 5 and 6). Rows marked with an asterisk (*) correspond to saturation thickness. In summary, very little H₂O snow is needed to mask the presence of underlying CO₂ snow, whereas a larger thickness of CO₂ snow is needed to prevent underlying, more absorptive H₂O snow from effecting surface albedo.

Warran et al., [1990] determined that the presence of H_2O snow on top of CO_2 snow will increase the net surface albedo, contrary to the analysis presented here. The CO_2 ice refractive indices applied in that study, however, were measured using unpurified commercial dry ice [*Egan and Spagnolo*, 1969], and data in the 1.0-2.5 µm spectral region were extrapolated from the 0.3-1.0 µm spectral region. The higher quality measurements on pure CO_2 ice provided by *Hansen* [1997, 2005], and applied here, indicate that CO_2 ice is much less absorptive than previously assumed, leading to our opposite conclusion.

Auth

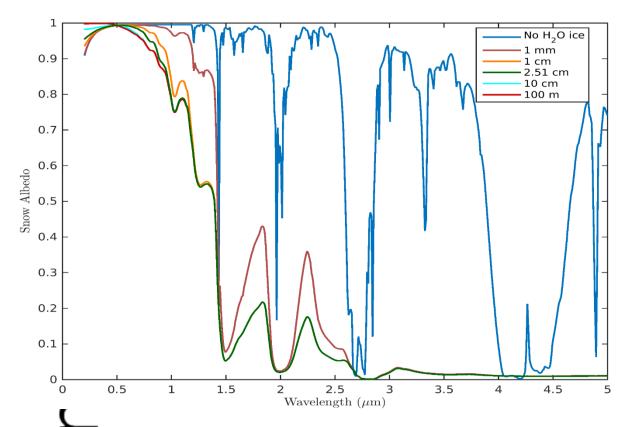


Figure 10: Spectral albedo of surfaces with H_2O snow layers of varying thickness on top of CO_2 snow the green curve thickness corresponds to saturation thickness.

Author N

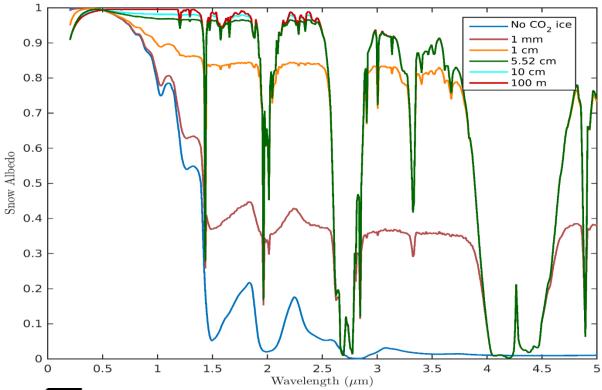


Figure 11: Spectral albedo of surfaces with CO₂ snow layers of varying thickness on top of H₂O snow. The green curve thickness corresponds to saturation thickness. Table 5: Broadband albedos of surfaces with H₂O snow layers on top of CO₂ snow

H ₂ O laver unickness	Vis	Near-IR	Broadband
	0.991	0.952	0.970
1 mm	0.991	0.739	0.857
1 cm	0.991	0.639	0.804
2.51 cm*	0.987	0.618	0.793
10 c h	0.990	0.610	0.787
<u>100 m</u>	0.988	0.609	0.787

*Saturation thickness (section 3.3)

Table 4: Breadband albedos of surfaces with CO2 snow layers on top of H2O snow

CO ₂ layer thickness	Vis	Near-IR	Broadband
0	0.988	0.609	0.787
A nm	0.988	0.703	0.837
1 cm	0.989	0.869	0.925
5.52 cm*	0.989	0.934	0.960

10 cm	0.990	0.943	0.965
100 m	0.991	0.952	0.970
	1		

*Saturation thickness (section 3.3)

Figure 12 shows the broadband net surface albedo dependence on layer thickness for different snow types. The black lines indicate the saturation thickness (section 3.3) for the two scenarios discussed above. To further explore the behavior of albedo with layer thickness, we divide each curve into two regions: with thickness lesser and higher than saturation thickness. Table 7 lists the slopes of albedo per layer thickness for these two regions. For top layer thickness less than saturation thickness (first region), higher slope (in absolute values) of data shown in Fig. 12a than 12b substantiates the conclusion that H₂O snow is narder to mask out compared to CO₂ snow. However, for the second region with thickness higher absolute slope than the reverse situation. This indicates that H₂O snow is less sensitive to thickness variation (once a minimum threshold is reached), owing to its more absorptive nature in the near-IR spectrum compared to CO₂ snow.

Author Ma

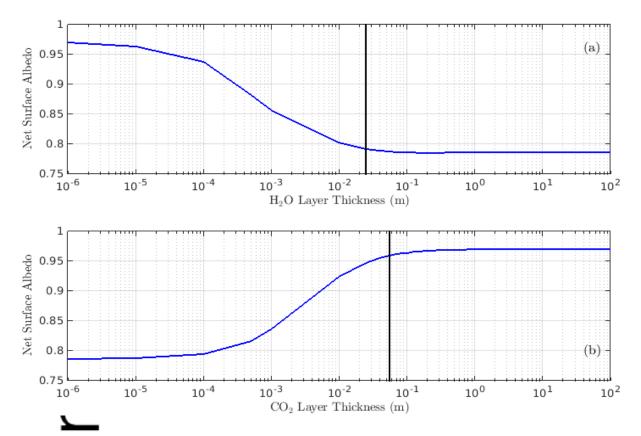


Figure 12: Dependence of net surface broadband snow albedo on layer thickness for (a) an H_2O snow layer on top of a semi-infinite CO_2 snow layer, and (b) a CO_2 snow layer on top of a semi-infinite H_2O snow layer. The black line indicates the saturation thickness for each case. Snow grain size is assumed to be 100 μ m in both cases.

Table **Slop**es of albedo per change in layer thickness for the two scenarios shown in figure

$\frac{12}{2}$		
Thickness regime	H ₂ O snow layer on top of	CO ₂ snow layer on top of
	CO ₂ snow layer (Fig 11a)	H ₂ O snow layer (Fig 11b)
Less than saturation thickness	-7.10 m^{-1}	$+3.14 \text{ m}^{-1}$
Higher than saturation thickness	$-5.54 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1}$	$+1.05 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-1}$

In addition to the possibility of different snow types being present as separate layers, both types of snow can also become mixed together on the surface of Mars [e.g. *Brown* et al.,

Mixed layers

3.6.2

2014]. In this section, we explore the net surface albedo changes caused by one snow type becoming mixed with the other snow type. In practice, this is simulated by treating the less abundant ice type as an externally-mixed "impurity" with specified mass mixing ratio (scenario shown in figure 2d), analogous to the treatment of dust described earlier. Figure 13 shows the net surface albedo when H₂O snow is present as an impurity within CO₂ snow, and figure 44 shows the net surface albedo for the reverse situation. We assume a semi-infinite snow layer, and effective grain size of 100 μ m for both snowpacks.

Broadband (near-IR) albedo drops by ~0.18 (~0.34) for an associated increase of H₂O snow from 0% to 10% within CO₂ snow. However, broadband (near-IR) albedo increases by ~0.10 (~0.18) in the reverse situation. This is consistent with our earlier findings that H₂O snow is relatively darker (especially in the near-IR region) compared to CO₂ snow, hence causing larger impact on net surface albedo. 0.01% of H₂O snow is sufficient to reduce the net broadband albedo of the mixture by 0.03, while 1% of CO₂ snow is required to increase the net surface broadband albedo of the mixture by same amount.

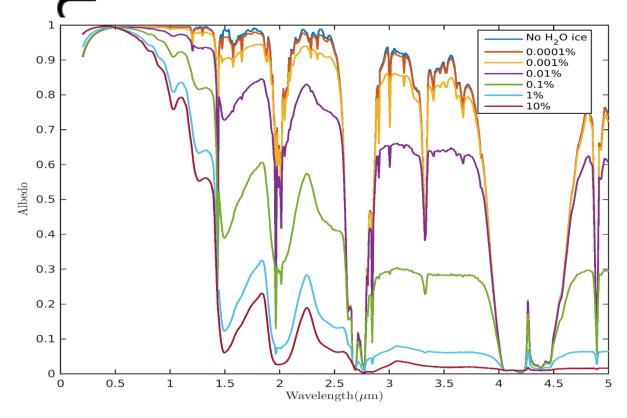


Figure 13: Spectral albedo of surfaces with H_2O ice present as an impurity within CO_2 snow. Effective grain size for both snow types is 100 μ m and the layer is semi-infinite.

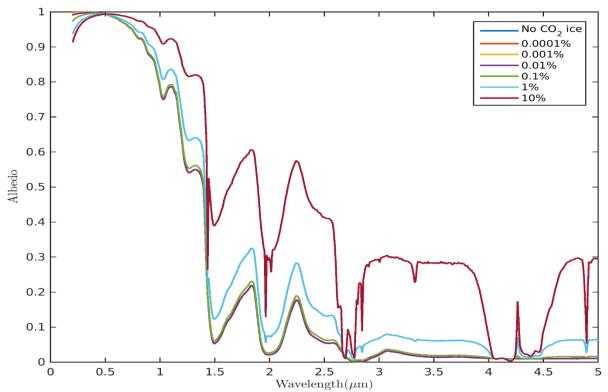


Figure 14: Spectral albedo of surfaces with CO_2 ice present as an impurity within H_2O snow. Effective grain size for both snow types is 100 μ m and the layer is semi-infinite.

4 Comparison with observed Martian albedo

In this pection, we compare our simulations with some observations of surface reflectance in the Mattan cryosphere and try to identify parameter combinations that produce reasonable agreement between the modeled and observed data. We first note that SNICAR produces directional-hemispherical albedo, whereas the CRISM and OMEGA observations evaluated here are bidirectional reflectances. This discrepancy renders the model-observation comparison imperfect, but the analysis does have some usefulness in illustrating broad agreement between modeled and observed spectral reflectance features, and in identifying general ranges of physical parameters that produce reasonable modeled spectra in different environments.

4.1 Comparison with CRISM measurements

We obtained spectral reflectance data for one location in the Southern Hemisphere [point A, Fig. 3 of *Brown* et al., 2014] identified to have a majority of CO_2 ice (hereafter location S), and one location from the Northern Hemisphere [point B, Fig 4c of *Brown* et al., 2012] identified to have mostly H₂O ice (hereafter location N). The observed reflectance were obtained using radiance measurements from CRISM in the 1-4 µm spectral range. Therefore we only compare our simulations in this spectral range.

Since the reflectance data display a time dependency, we choose two of the least noisy endmember (i.e., most different) observed spectra for each location. Then we determine the best fit for each location by minimizing the weighted RMSE between each of the identified spectral reflectance curves and our hemispheric albedo simulations, which span a wide range of the parameter space described earlier. Spectral weighting for the RMSE calculation is done with the some solar spectral irradiance measurements [*Labs and Neckel*, 1968] applied throughout this study. Therefore, reflectance values for longer wavelengths are weighted less strongly and consequently do not fit as well with observations. We also note that reflectance measurements at wavelengths longer than $2.5 \,\mu$ m are not very reliable (on Earth too) because there is very little incoming solar energy at these wavelengths.

Table 3. Best fit parameter combinations for each Mars location. The H_2O ice at Location S is simulated as a mixture within the CO_2 snow, as opposed to a distinct layer.

Location S		Locati	on N		
\cap	Ls=276	Ls=337		Ls=13	Ls=65
CO ₂ ice grain size	1000 µm	3000 µm	H ₂ O ice grain size	100 µm	500 µm
H ₂ Q ice grain size	100 µm	200 µm	CO ₂ ice grain size	n/a	n/a
Amount of H ₂ O ice	0.024%	0.07%	Amount of CO ₂ ice	n/a	n/a
Amound of dust	0.0042%	0.003%	Amount of dust	0.06%	0.01%
RMSE (solar weighted)	0.06	0.07	RMSE	0.055	0.057

Table 8 lists the best fit values of various parameters along with spectrally-weighted RMSE values for both locations. The presence of any CO_2 ice tends to increase the RMSE at location N. This happens because observations from location N occurred during early spring

to mid-summer in that hemisphere, when there is likely no CO_2 ice present on the surface [e.g. *Brown* et al., 2014]. Location S needs about an order of magnitude less dust amount as compared to location N for optimal fitting. One reason for this is that Location S is deemed to have some coincident H₂O ice, which functions as a competing impurity to dust because H₂O snow substantially darkens albedo in the near-IR spectral region. For location S, changing CO_2 is grain size does not have any significant impact on RMSE, while the H₂O ice grain size has significant impact on RMSE for location N. This is consistent with our results described in section 3.2.

Figures 15 and 16 show the observed spectral reflectance curves along with simulated albedol using parameter values shown in Table 8. We observe an outlier point at 2.7 μ m wavelength in the observed data for both locations and at all times. Reflectance values at this wavelength are uncharacteristically higher than at nearby wavelengths, whereas both CO₂ and H₂O snows have very high absorptivity at this wavelength (Fig. 3). This leads us to suggest that the high observed reflectance at this wavelength are spurious, and may be due either to an arternet of the measuring spectrometer (CRISM), atmospheric anomalies associated with dust of douds [*Brown et al*, 2010], and/or a calibration issue in the retrieval of surface reflectance at that wavelength. We also emphasize again that the low intensity of sunlight at this wavelength renders the reflectance measurements less certain than at shorter wavelengths.

Author

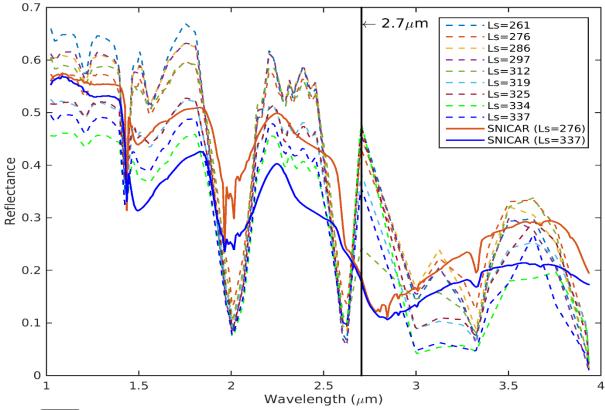


Figure 15: Observed reflectance for location S (dotted curves) along with modeled albedo using bes-fit parameters (solid blue curve). The black vertical line at 2.7 μ m indicates the outlit described in the text.

Author

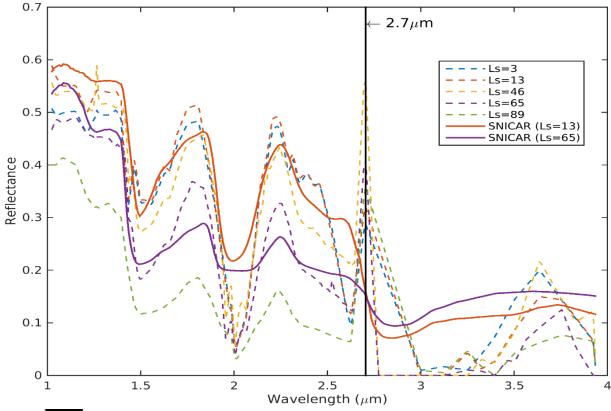


Figure 16: Same as fig. 15 but for location N

2 Comparison with OMEGA measurements

We also obtained spectral reflectance for Observation 2621_1 from the OMEGA instrument [see Fig. 18 from *Appéré et al.*, 2011; shown later here], and modeled spectral reflectance of snow mixture simulated with a different radiative transfer model developed by *Douté and Schmitt* [1988].

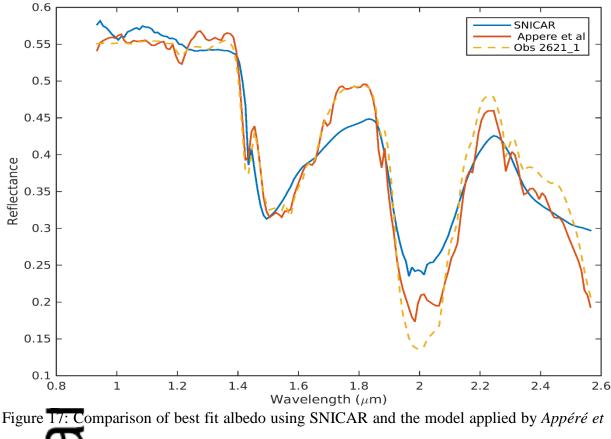
As shown in Table 9 and Fig. 17, *Appéré et al.*, [2011] achieved good agreement between simulated near-IR snow reflectance and OMEGA observations of a CO_2 -rich deposit by assuming a mixed CO_2/H_2O snow configuration with a CO_2 grain size of 7 cm, which interestingly is much larger than what is deemed to be realistic under most conditions [*Barr and Milkovich*, 2008]. We also achieved a reasonable fit (spectrally-weighted RMSE of 0.021, against the OMEGA observations presented by *Appéré et al.*, [2011] with a mixed CO_2 and H_2O configuration of SNICAR applying a smaller CO_2 grain radius and slightly

different mass fractions of dust and H₂O (Table 9; Fig. 17), though admittedly the fit is not quite as good as that obtained by *Appéré et al.* [2011]. It is plausible that the better agreement obtained by *Appéré et al.* [2011] is due to their use of a directional reflectance radiative transfer model [*Douté and Schmitt*, 1988], which provides a more consistent comparison with the measurements. Uncertainties in the observations, however, are described by *Appéré et al.* [2011] **He be** roughly 20%, indicating that both sets of modeled spectra are within the range of uncertainty. Finally, we note that the quality of our fit ceases to change much with larger grain sizes of CO_2 ice.

Table 9. Comparison of best-fit parameters between SNICAR	and Appéré et al	[2011]
---	------------------	--------

0	SNICAR	<i>Appéré et al.</i> , [2011]	
CO ₂ ice grain size	3000 µm	7 cm	
Amount of CO2 ice	99.83%	99.75%	
H ₂ O ice grain size	100 µm	200 µm	
Amount of H ₂ O ice	0.16%	0.19%	
Dust grain size	1.5 μm	13 µm	
Amount of oust	0.0094%	0.06%	
RMS (solar weighted)	0.027	0.016	

Author **N**



al., [2011] against data from OMEGA observation 2621_1.



We have simulated the spectral albedo of CO_2 snow using an enhanced 480-band version of SNICAR, which was previously developed for terrestrial snow. We explored CO_2 snow albedo across the entire solar spectrum, including UV, visible and near-IR wavelengths. Our analysis shows significant differences between H₂O and CO₂ snow albedos. H₂O snow is about **+** times more absorptive than CO₂ snow in the near-IR region, and 7 times more absorptive overaged over the entire solar spectrum. CO₂ snow albedo shows very little dependence on solar zenith angle and a weaker dependence on grain size than H₂O snow. The broactional albedo of CO₂ snow decreases by only 0.064 as effective grain size increases from 50 to 1500 µm.

The presence of thin snow layers exposes underlying surfaces to incoming radiation, hence impacting the surface albedo. The saturation thicknesses for CO_2 snow and H_2O snow range from approximately 6.5 – 100 cm and 5 – 83 cm, respectively, for effective grain sizes ranging from 50 to 1500 μ m, though we caution again that these thicknesses may be smaller with non-spherical ice particles. Non-spherical grains scatter less strongly in the forward direction, thereby decreasing the penetration depth of solar radiation. Thicker CO_2 snow is required to negate the impact of underlying surface because CO_2 ice grains scatter more strongly than H_2O ice grains, especially in the near-IR spectrum. The presence of 0.01% dust reduce the broadband albedo of CO_2 snow by about 50%, with Martian dust being the darkest type of dust explored here, followed by typical Earth dust and palagonite. The spectral shape of albedo changes caused by palagonite, which is often used as a Martian dust analog costly follow those of Mars dust, but palagonite is not as absorptive as Mars dust. The impact of dust on CO_2 snow albedo saturates after its mass mixing ratio exceeds roughly 0.1%.

Because of the contrasting properties of H_2O and CO_2 ice in the near-IR spectrum, different layering maximizing configurations of these types of snow can have substantial impact on net surface albedo. With an effective grain size of 100 µm, only about 2.5 cm of H_2O snow is needed to mask the influence of underlying CO_2 snow on net surface albedo (Table 5), while more than double this amount of CO_2 snow is needed to mask the influence of H_2O snow (Table 6). Such effects are relevant for the perennial H_2O ice caps of Mars, and where water vapor them the atmosphere condenses on top of CO_2 ice in other areas of the planet. When both snow types are present as a mixture rather than separate layers, 0.01% of H_2O snow reduces the broadband albedo of CO_2 snow by 0.03, while 1% of CO_2 snow is required to increase the broadband albedo of H_2O snow by the same amount.

With the identification of optimal snow parameter combinations, our results show a decent agreement between modeled spectral albedo and observed reflectance of the Martian polar ice caps in the 1–4 μ m spectral range. The CRISM data exhibit anomalously high reflectance at 2.7 μ m, which cannot be explained with presence of either CO₂ or H₂O ice, as both media are highly absorptive at this wavelength. SNICAR also provides realistic best-fit parameters for

matching OMEGA near-IR observations, though the spectral fit is not as good as that achieved previously with a directional reflectance model [*Appéré et al.*, 2011]. Simulations presented here could potentially be used in combination with observed data to refine the calibration of surface albedo retrieval algorithms. Model results can also be used to interpolate measurements to higher spectral resolution. The new spectrally resolved albedos for CO mode potentially wide applicability to any planet or system with CO_2 ice, especially Mars.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Michael Mischna, Mike Wolff, Jeffrey Johnson, Adrian Brown, and Thomas Appéré for providing, respectively, CO₂ ice refractive indices derived from Gary Hansen's measurements, Martian dust optical properties, palagonite optical properties, surface reflectivity derived from CRISM observations, and observed and modeled albedo derived from OMEGA observations. A single-layer implementation of SNICAR can be operated interactively on the web at: *http://snow.engin.umich.edu*. This work was partially supported by NASA NNX13AN29G and NSF ARC-1253154.

Reference

Appéré, T., B. Schmitt, Y. Langevin, S. Douté, A. Pommerol, F. Forget, A. Spiga, B. Gondet, and J. T. Bibring (2011), Winter and spring evolution of northern seasonal deposits on Mars from OMEGA on Mars Express, J. Geophys. Res., 116, E05001, doi:10.1029/2010JE003762.

Balkanski, Y., M. Schulz, T. Claquin, and S. Guibert (2007), Reevaluation of Mineral aerosol radiative forcings suggests a better agreement with satellite and AERONET data. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 7(1), 81-95.

Banin, A., F. X. Han, I. Kan, and A. Cicelsky (1997), Acidic volatiles and the Mars soil, J. Geophys. Res., 102(E6), 13341–13356, doi:10.1029/97JE01160.

Barr, A. .., and S. M. Milkovich, (2008), Ice grain size and the rheology of the martian polar deposits. In rus, 194(2), 513-518, doi:10.1016/j.icarus.2007.11.018.

Bell III, J. F., T. B. McCord, and P. D. Owensby (1990), Observational evidence of crystalline iron oxides on Mars. J. Geophys. Res., 95(B9), 14447–14461, doi:10.1029/JB095iB09p14447.

Bell III, J. F. (1996). Iron, sulfate, carbonate, and hydrated minerals on Mars, in" Mineral Spectroscopy: A Tribute to Roger G. Burns," Geochemical Society Special Publication 5 (MD Dyar, C. McCammon, and MW Schaefer, eds.), 359-380.

Bibring, J. P., Y. Langevin, A. Gendrin, B. Gondet, F. Poulet, M. Berthé, A. Soufflot, R. Arvidson, N. Mangold, J. Mustard, and P. Drossart (2005), Mars surface diversity as revealed by the OMEGA/Mars Express observations. Science, 307(5715), 1576-1581.

Bibring J.P., Y. Langevin, F. Poulet, A. Gendrin, B. Gondet, M. Berthé, A. Soufflot, P. Drossart, M. Combes, G. Bellucci, and V. Moroz (2004). Perennial water ice identified in the south polar cap of Mars. Nature, 428(6983), 627-630.

Bonev, B. P., G. B. Hansen, D. A. Glenar, P. B. James, and J. E. Bjorkman (2008). Albedo models for the residual south polar cap on Mars: Implications for the stability of the cap under near perihelion global dust storm conditions. Planetary and Space Science, 56(2), 181-193, courto.1016/j.pss.2007.08.003

Brown, A.J., W. M. Calvin, P. C. McGuire, and S. L. Murchie (2010), Compact Reconnaissance Imaging Spectrometer for Mars (CRISM) south polar mapping: First Mars year of Observations, J. Geophys. Res., 115, E00D13, doi:10.1029/2009JE003333.

Brown, A.J., W. M. Calvin, and S. L. Murchie (2012), Compact Reconnaissance Imaging Spectrometer for Mars (CRISM) north polar springtime recession mapping: First 3 Mars years of observations, J. Geophys. Res., 117, E00J20, doi:10.1029/2012JE004113.

Brown, A. J, S. Piqueux, and T. N. Titus, (2014), Interannual observations and quantification of summertime H₂O ice deposition on the Martian CO₂ ice south polar cap. Earth and Planeury Science Letters, 406, 102-109.

Byrne, S., M. T. Zuber, and G. A. Neumann (2008), Interannual and seasonal behavior of Martian residual ice-cap albedo. Planetary and Space Science, 56(2), 194-211.

Christensen, P. R., J. L. Bandfield, R. N. Clark, K. S. Edgett, V. E. Hamilton, T. Hoefen, H.
H. Kieffer, R. O. Kuzmin, M. D. Lane, M. C. Malin, R. V. Morris, J. C. Pearl, R. Pearson, T.
L. Roush, S. W. Ruff and M. D. Smith (2000), Detection of crystalline hematite mineralization on Mars by the Thermal Emission Spectrometer: Evidence for near-surface water, a Grephys. Res., 105(E4), 9623–9642, doi:10.1029/1999JE001093.

Christensen, P. R., J. L. Bandfield, V. E. Hamilton, S. W. Ruff, H. H. Kieffer, T. N. Titus,
M. C. Malin, R. V. Morris, M. D. Lane, R. L. Clark, B. M. Jakosky, M. T. Mellon, J. C.
Pearl, B. J. Conrath, M. D. Smith, R. T. Clancy, R. O. Kuzmin, T. Roush, G. L. Mehall, N.
Gorelick, K. Bender, K. Murray, S. Dason, E. Greene, S. Silverman, M. Greenfield (2001a),
Mars Clobel Surveyor Thermal Emission Spectrometer experiment- Investigation description
and surface science results. J. Geophys. Res., 106(E10), 23823–23871,
doi:10.029/2000JE001370.

Christensen, P. R., R. V. Morris, M. D. Lane, J. L. Bandfield, and M. C. Malin (2001b), Global mapping of Martian hematite mineral deposits: Remnants of water-driven processes on early Mers, J. Geophys. Res., 106(E10), 23873–23885, doi:10.1029/2000JE001415.

Clancy, R. T., S. W. Lee, G. R. Gladstone, W. W. McMillan, and T. Roush (1995), A new model for Mars atmospheric dust based upon analysis of ultraviolet through infrared observations from Mariner 9, Viking, and Phobos, J. Geophys. Res., 100, 5251–5264.

Clark, P. N., T. V. King, M. Klejwa, G. A. Swayze, and N. Vergo (1990), High spectral resolution reflectance spectroscopy of minerals. J. Geophys. Res., 95(B8), 12653–12680, doi:10.1029/JB095iB08p12653.

Douté, S., and B. Schmitt (1998), A multilayer bidirectional reflectance model for the analysis of planetary surface hyperspectral images at visible and near-infrared wavelengths, J. Geophys. Res., 103(E13), 31367–31389, doi:10.1029/98JE01894.

European Committee for Standardization. 2003. EN 1991-1- 1: Eurocode 1 – Actions on Structures – Part 1–3: General Actions – Snow Loads. European Committee for Standardization: Brussels

Flanner, M. G., C. S. Zender, J. T. Randerson, and P. J. Rasch (2007), Present day climate forcing and response from black carbon in snow, J. Geophys. Res., 112, D11202, doi:10.1029/2006JD008003.

Flanner, M. G., C. S. Zender, P. G. Hess, N. M. Mahowald, T. H. Painter, V. Ramanathan, and P. S. Rasch (2009), Springtime warming and reduced snow cover from carbonaceous particles, Armos. Chem. Phys., 9, 2481-2497.

Forget **FO**998), Mars CO₂ ice polar caps. In Solar System Ices, Springer Netherlands, 477-507.

Forget, F., F. Hourdin, and O. Talagrand (1998), CO₂ snowfall on Mars: Simulation with a general circulation model. Icarus, 131(2), 302-316.

Fu, Q. 200), A new parameterization of an asymmetry factor of cirrus clouds for climate models. L Climate, 64, 4140-4150, doi: 10.1175/2007JAS2289.1

Hans G. B. (1997), The infrared absorption spectrum of carbon dioxide ice from 1.8 to 333 µm, J. Geophys. Res., 102(E9), 21569–21587, doi:10.1029/97JE01875.

Hansen, G. B. (1999), Control of the radiative behavior of the Martian polar caps by surface CO_2 ice Evidence from Mars Global Surveyor measurements, J. Geophys. Res., 104(E7), 16471-10486, doi:10.1029/1998JE000626.

Hansen, G. B. (2005), Ultraviolet to near-infrared absorption spectrum of carbon dioxide ice from 0.174 το 1.8 μm. J. Geophys. Res., 110, E11003, doi:10.1029/2005JE002531.

Hansen J.E., and L. D. Travis (1974), Light scattering in planetary atmospheres. Space Science Keriews, 16(4), 527-610.

Herr, K. C., and G. C. Pimentel (1969), Infrared absorptions near three microns recorded over the polar cap of Mars. Science, 166(3904), 496-499.

Kieffer, H. H., and T. N. Titus, (2001), TES mapping of Mars' north seasonal cap. Icarus, 154(1), 162-180.

Kieffer, H. H., T. N. Titus, K. F. Mullins, and P. R. Christensen (2000), Mars south polar spring and summer behavior observed by TES: Seasonal cap evolution controlled by frost grain size. J. Geophys. Res., 105(E4), 9653–9699, doi:10.1029/1999JE001136.

Labs, D., H. Neckel (1968), The Radiation of the Solar Photosphere from 2000 Å to 100 μ m. Zeitschrift für Astrophysik, 69, 1.

Langevin, Y., J.-P. Bibring, F. Montmessin, F. Forget, M. Vincendon, S. Douté, F. Poulet, and B. Contet (2007), Observations of the south seasonal cap of Mars during recession in 2004–2000 by the OMEGA visible/near-infrared imaging spectrometer on board Mars Express, J. Geophys. Res., 112, E08S12, doi:10.1029/2006JE002841.

Larson H. F., and U. Fink (1972), Identification of carbon dioxide frost on the Martian polar caps The Astrophysical Journal, 171, L91.

Leighton R B., and B. C. Murray (1966), Behavior of carbon dioxide and other volatiles on Mars. Science, 153(3732), 136-144.

Libois, Q., G. Picard, J. L. France, L. Arnaud, M. Dumont, C. M. Carmagnola, and M. D. King (1013) Influence of grain shape on light penetration in snow, The Cryosphere, 7, 1803-1818, doi:10.5194/tc-7-1803-2013.

Montmessin, F., and F. Lefèvre (2013), Transport-driven formation of a polar ozone layer on Mars. Nature geoscience, 6(11), 930-933, doi:10.1038/ngeo1957.

Quirico, E., and B. Schmitt, (1997), Near-infrared spectroscopy of simple hydrocarbons and carbon oxides diluted in solid N_2 and as pure ices: Implications for Triton and Pluto, Icarus, 127(2), 354-378, doi:10.1006/icar.1996.5663.

Räisänen, P., A. Kokhanovsky, G. Guyot, O. Jourdan, and T. Nousiainen (2015), Parameterization of single-scattering properties of snow, The Cryosphere, 9, 1277-1301, doi:10.5194/tc-9-1277-2015.

Sokolik, I. N., and O. B. Toon (1999), Incorporation of mineralogical composition into models of the radiative properties of mineral aerosol from UV to IR wavelengths, J. Geophys. Res., 104(D8), 9423–9444, doi:10.1029/1998JD200048.

Stroncik. N. A., and H. U. Schmincke (2002), Palagonite–a review. International Journal of Earth Sciences, 91(4), 680-697.

Tillma, L.L., N. C. Johnson, P. Guttorp, and D. B. Percival (1993), The martian annual atmospheric pressure cycle: Years without great dust storms. Journal of Geophysical Research: Planets (1991–2012), 98(E6), 10963-10971.

Toon, O. B., C. P. McKay, T. P. Ackerman, and K. Santhanam (1989), Rapid calculation of radiative heating rates and photodissociation rates in inhomogeneous multiple scattering atmosphere, J. Geophys. Res., 94 (D13), 16287-16301, doi:10.1029/JD094iD13p16287.

Warran, S. C., W. J. Wiscombe, and J. F. Firestone (1990), Spectral albedo and emissivity of CO₂ in Martian polar caps: Model results, J. Geophys. Res., 95(B9), 14717–14741, doi:10.1029/JB095iB09p14717.

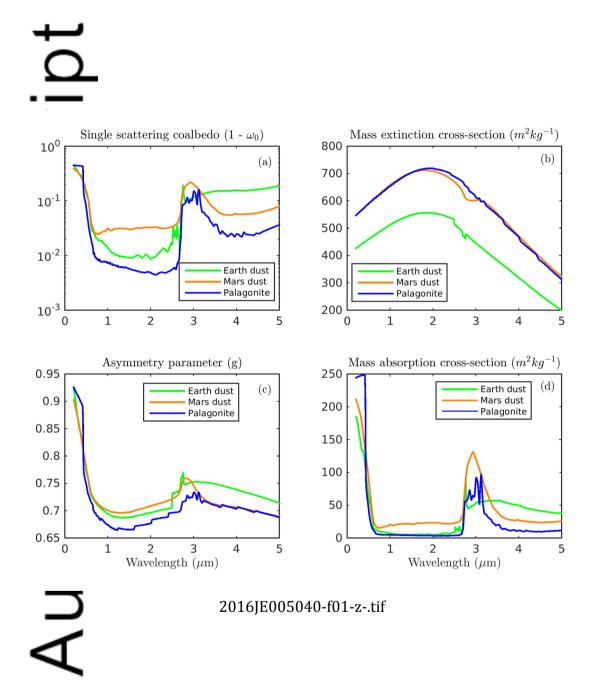
Warren, S. G., and R. E. Brandt (2008), Optical constants of ice from the ultraviolet to the microvave: A revised compilation, J. Geophys. Res., 113, D14220, doi:10.1029/2007JD009744.

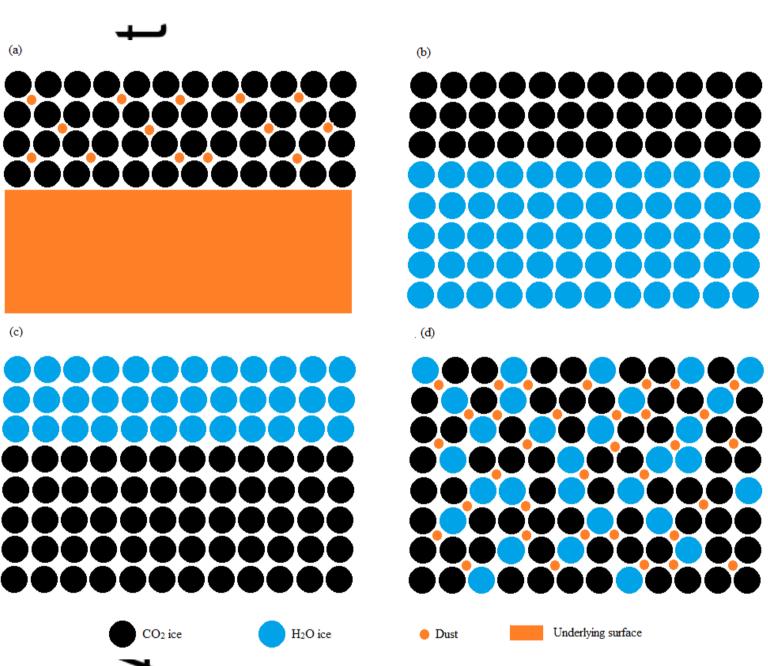
Wiscombe, W. J., and S. G. Warren (1980), A Model for the Spectral Albedo of Snow. I: Pure Snow. J. Atmos. Sci., 37, 2712–2733, doi:10.1175/1520-0469(1980)/37<2712:AMFTSA>2.0.CO;2

Wolf MJ., R. T. Clancy, J. D. Goguen, and M. C. Malin, and B. A. Cantor (2010), Ultraviolet dust aerosol properties as observed by MARCI. Icarus, 208(1), 143-155. Wolff, M. J., M. D. Smith, R. T. Clancy, R. Arvidson, M. Kahre, F. Seelos IV, S. Murchie, and H. Savijarvi (2009), Wavelength dependence of dust aerosol single scattering albedo as observed by the Compact Reconnaissance Imaging Spectrometer, J. Geophys. Res., 114, E00D04, doi:10.1029/2009JE003350.

Wolff, M.J., M. D. Smith, R. T. Clancy, N. Spanovich, B. A. Whitney, M. T. Lemmon, J. L. Bandfield, D. Banfield, A. Ghosh, G. Landis, P. R. Christensen, J. F. Bell III and S. W. Squyrer (2006), Constraints on dust aerosols from the Mars Exploration Rovers using MGS overflights and Mini-TES. J. Geophys. Res., 111, E12S17, doi:10.1029/2006JE002786.

Author Manuscr





2016JE005040-f02-z-.tif

