

**<sup>1</sup>Numerical Study on C-axis Orientations of Sea Ice Surface Grown under  
Calm Sea Conditions using a Particle Method and Voronoi Dynamics**

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## Abstract

Physical properties of frazil and grease ice depending on their microstructures are not easily measured, while they are important elements for predicting their behavior on the ocean surface. Thus, numerical models considering the effect of the microstructures are required to investigate the ice-water mixture. In this paper, we combined a computational fluid dynamics (CFD) and crystal growth model, and numerically predicted a process of flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei near the surface of calm sea, and their growth after the accumulation. The results obtained showed that the crystal fabrics and c-axis distributions had good similarity with those of an actual sea ice, and the combined model was effective for dealing with ice-water mixture. Thus far, while we have paid little attention to the details of c-axis distributions within the surface layer of sea ice because of their tedious investigation, the results also indicated that anisotropic growth of crystal nuclei, as well as the flotation and accumulation, strongly affects the c-axis distributions within the horizontal cross-sections of the surface layer of sea ice grown under calm sea conditions. This work would be an important step for the development of numerical models to predict the complex phenomena of sea ice depending on the microstructures, such as behavior of the ice-water mixture on the sea surface.

**Keywords:** Sea ice; Crystal growth; Numerical simulation; C-axis orientations; Flotation of crystal nuclei; Geometric selection

## 1. Introduction

Sea ice is mainly comprised of pure ice crystals arranged in an hcp lattice and brine inclusions. They influence mechanical (e.g., Zhan and Wilson, 1997; Schulson, 1999; Cole, 2001), thermal, and other properties (e.g., Gow and Tucker III, 1991) of sea ice, thus requiring detailed studies. However, the characteristics of sea ice can be considerably altered by changes in the growth conditions and the environment in which it exists (e.g. Weeks and Ackley, 1986; Weeks, W.F., 1998; Golden et al., 1998; Eicken, 2003; Jones et al., 2013); this fact makes it difficult to perform experimental studies under laboratory conditions.

In many cases, sea ice growth initiates from the ice crystal nuclei generated in supercooled seawater (e.g, Weeks and Ackley, 1986; Eicken, 2003). Nuclei grow into spherical and then discoidal crystals before forming a dendritic shape, and float to and accumulate near the sea surface (e.g. Weeks and Ackley, 1986). In leads and polynyas, generation of frazil ice is an important formation mechanism of sea ice (e.g. Martin, 1981; Ushio and Wakatsuchi, 1993; Smedsrud et al., 2006; Skogseth et al, 2009), and solid fraction of the grease ice formed by their accumulation is matter of deep interest (e.g. Naumann et al, 2012; Maus and De La Rosa, 2012); however, it is fiendishly difficult to measure. Thus, numerical models to investigate the solid fraction would be useful and powerful tools in the studies of ice-water mixture.

A number of numerical models have been developed. For example, Petrich et al. (2006) used a computational fluid dynamics model to simulate the unidirectional growth of sea ice and successfully obtained c-shape profiles of salinity, which are typically observed in first-year sea ice (e.g., Gow and Tucker III, 1991; Eicken, 2003). Maus and De la Rosa (2012) developed mathematical model to predict salinity and solid fraction of frazil and grease ice, and successfully reproduced them. In their model, however, seawater solidification processes were predicted using a continuum approximation and the orientation of each crystal was not considered. The amount of seawater in the grease ice would be influenced by changes of the geometry of ice nuclei accumulated near the sea surface. Thus, growth rate anisotropies of the nuclei have to be considered to predict the amount of seawater trapped in the ice; that is, we require the consideration of crystal orientations in the numerical models.

The crystal fabric of typical first-year sea ice is known to show fine grains in the uppermost surface and columnar-shaped grains below it. This transition in the shape and size of grains accompanies a change in c-axis orientations. In other words, the c-axes of crystals show various directions within the layer of fine crystals and gradually align in the horizontal direction within the layer below with depth. The mechanisms of the transition process of c-axis orientations to the horizontal direction are known as geometric selection (e.g., Weeks and Ackley, 1986; Weeks and Wettlaufer, 1996); however, little attention has been paid to the c-axis orientations within the layer of fine grains near the sea surface. A reason for this is that the diameter of grains in this layer is usually <5 mm and such fine

grains are tedious to investigate using traditional experimental methods in glaciology (Weeks and Wettlaufer, 1996).

Kawano and Ohashi (2009) have conducted numerical simulations of the development of the crystal fabric of sea ice using the Voronoi dynamics technique (Ohashi et al., 2004). In the model, the development of the crystal fabric was represented by the growth of crystal nuclei that had an anisotropic growth rate, and alignment of c-axes within the horizontal plane by geometric selection was obtained. In the simulation, however, the positions of crystal nuclei were fixed and their orientations, that were randomly selected, also remained at their initial states, and the flotation and rotation of crystal nuclei during their growth were not considered.

Recently, Dempsey et al. (2010) introduced the effect of rotation of crystals into the Voronoi dynamics technique, and successfully reproduced the development process of the crystal fabric of platelet ice. In their model, the process of flotation of platelets was ignored, and only the rotation after flotation was considered; each platelet rested at the orientation where three or more points on the surface were in contact with the bottom of the sea ice. Thus, the orientations were decided only by the mechanical stability, and the effects of fluid dynamics and buoyancy on platelets were not directly considered (Dempsey et al., 2010).

In this study, we first employed a computational fluid dynamics (CFD) model to represent a process of growth and accumulation of crystal nuclei with their flotation driven by the buoyancy, and simulated the formation process of the layer of fine crystals under calm sea conditions. However, the CFD simulation is computationally expensive; we conducted it by a two-dimensional approximation. We second investigated each c-axis orientation of crystal nuclei in the accumulated layer near the sea surface, which was predicted by the above flotation and accumulation simulation, and we adapted the c-axis orientations to the initial crystal nuclei; a development process of sea ice crystal from the crystal nuclei was represented in the three-dimensional simulation space, using the Voronoi dynamics technique. Finally, we obtained numerical results for the development process of sea ice crystals from the sea surface and compared the c-axis distributions obtained with simulations and experiments (Weeks and Ackley, 1986), and validated the numerical models and investigated c-axis distributions near the sea surface.

## **2. Numerical Procedure**

### **2.1 Nucleus Flotation Model**

We employed the Moving Particle Semi-implicit (MPS) method to represent flotation of crystal nuclei growing in the seawater. The MPS method was developed by Koshizuka

and Oka (1995) and as a particle method for the incompressible fluid analysis. In the MPS method, continuums are represented by moving particles which are calculation points, i.e., the view point is Lagrangian. The MPS method has advantages compared to traditional finite element (FEM) methods or finite difference methods (FDM); computational grids are not necessary, interfaces can be easily tracked, and large deformations of continuums are easily represented. Thus, it has been applied to simulations of complex phenomena such as breaking waves (e.g. Koshizuka et al., 1998; Gotoh and Sakai, 2006), vapor explosions (e.g. Koshizuka et al., 1999), and fluid-structure interactions (e.g., Koshizuka and Oka, 1995; Lee et al., 2007), as well as the incompressible fluid simulations. The MPS method would also be a suitable for the simulations of flotation of crystal nuclei growing in the seawater; that is because the method can easily track the moving interfaces of ice-water and water-atmosphere, and represent the interaction between crystal nuclei and seawater. The procedure was explained below.

### 2.1.1 MPS Method for Incompressible Fluid

To represent flotation of crystal nuclei in the seawater, the Navier-Stokes equation, given as follows:

$$\frac{D\vec{u}}{Dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla P + \nu \nabla^2 \vec{u} + \vec{g} \quad (1)$$

was solved with the incompressibility condition by using the MPS method (Koshizuka and Oka, 1996; Koshizuka et al., 1998; Gotoh and Sakai, 2006), where  $\vec{u}$  is the velocity vector,  $\rho$  is the density of the element at a position,  $P$  is the pressure,  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity, and  $\vec{g}$  is the acceleration due to gravity. Eq. (1) is written for an element at a position. In the simulation, the continuum was discretized by three types of particles: water, ice, and wall, and each particle has a density  $\rho$  in accordance with the individual particle type. That is, the element and  $\rho$  are changed with changing the position. The flow of sea water can be represented by solving Eq. (1) with the MPS method, while a solid-liquid interaction model is also necessary to represent the flotation of crystal nuclei. The procedure for solving Eq. (1) with the MPS method was explained in this section, and the solid-liquid interaction model was described in the section 2.1.3.

In the MPS method, Gradient and Laplacian operators in Eq. (1) are discretized by following particle interaction models (Koshizuka and Oka, 1996; Koshizuka et al., 1998; Gotoh and Sakai, 2006):

$$\langle \nabla \phi \rangle_i = \frac{d}{n^0} \sum_{j \neq i} \left[ \frac{\phi_j - \phi_i}{|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|^2} (\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i) w(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|) \right], \quad (2)$$

$$\langle \nabla^2 \phi \rangle_i = \frac{d}{\lambda n^0} \sum_{j \neq i} [(\phi_j - \phi_i) w(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|)], \quad (3)$$



$$\lambda = \frac{\sum_{j \neq i} |\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|^2 w(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|)}{\sum_{j \neq i} w(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|)}, \quad (4)$$

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171 where  $d$  is the number of space dimensions,  $\phi$  is an arbitrary scalar,  $\vec{r}$  is the position  
 172 vector of a particle,  $w$  is the weight function,  $\lambda$  is the parameter that ensures that  
 173 increases in variance are equal to the analytical solutions,  $n^0$  is the constant value of the  
 174 particle number density fixed for incompressibility,  $i$  is the number of a particle, and  $j$  is the  
 175 number of a neighbor of the particle  $i$ . The particle number density for particle  $i$  is defined  
 176 as follows:

177

$$n_i = \sum_{j \neq i} w(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|). \quad (5)$$

178

179 The weight function employed in this study is defined as follows (Shao and Lo, 2003):

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$$w(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|) = \begin{cases} \frac{40}{7\pi r_e^2} \left( 1 - 6 \left( \frac{|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|}{r_e} \right)^2 + 6 \left( \frac{|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|}{r_e} \right)^3 \right) & 0 \leq |\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i| < 0.5r_e \\ \frac{10}{7\pi r_e^2} \left( 2 - 2 \left( \frac{|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|}{r_e} \right) \right) & 0.5r_e \leq |\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i| < r_e, \\ 0 & r_e \leq |\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i| \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

181

182 where  $r_e$  is the finite distance of interaction between particles. Ataie-Ashtiani and  
 183 Farhadi (2006) conducted dam-break simulations using the MPS method, and compared the

stability of the calculations between six types of weight functions. Their results showed that Eq. (6) was the most stable among them.

Eq. (1) was solved with Eqs. (2)-(4) by the following steps:

(i) The initial conditions of  $n^0$ , particle velocities  $\vec{u}_i^0$  and pressure  $P_i^0$  were set.

(ii) The temporary particle velocities  $\vec{u}_i^*$  and positions  $\vec{r}_i^*$  were calculated:

$$\vec{u}_i^* = \vec{u}_i^N + \Delta t \left[ \nabla^2 \langle \vec{u} \rangle_i^N + \vec{g} \right], \quad (7)$$

$$\vec{r}_i^* = \vec{r}_i^N + \Delta t \vec{u}_i^*, \quad (8)$$

where  $N$  is the time step and  $\Delta t$  is the time increment of the current step.

(iii) The temporary particle number density  $n_i^*$  was calculated by Eq. (5).

(iv) The pressure Poisson equation was solved:

$$\langle \nabla^2 P \rangle_i^{N+1} = S, \quad (9)$$

where  $S$  is the source term of the equation. In this study, we employed the model in Kondo and Koshizuka (2007) as the source term to suppress pressure oscillation during the simulation.

(v) The pressure gradient term of Eq. (1) was calculated and the velocities and positions of

the particles were modified:

$$\vec{u}_i^{N+1} = \vec{u}_i^* - \frac{\Delta t}{\rho} \langle \nabla P \rangle_i^{N+1}, \quad (10)$$

$$\vec{r}_i^{N+1} = \vec{r}_i^N + \Delta t \vec{u}_i^{N+1}. \quad (11)$$

Incompressible fluid flow was represented by repeating steps (ii)-(v).

### 2.1.2 Boundary Condition for Free Surfaces

Let us assume a continuum such as a water column. When the continuum is discretized by particles, no particle exits in the region outside of the continuum. Thus, particle number densities (Eq. (5)) are lower at the particles on the free surface than those inside of the continuum, and we can find particles on the free surface by using the difference between the particle number densities. A particle that satisfies

$$n_i^* < \beta n^0 \quad (12)$$

is considered to be on the free surface (Koshizuka and Oka, 1996), where  $\beta$  is a parameter.

In this study, the interface between seawater and atmosphere was treated as the free surface,

and  $\beta = 0.97$  (Koshizuka and Oka, 1996; Koshizuka et al., 1998) was employed and  $P = 0$  was applied to particles on the free surface.

### **2.1.3 Interaction between Ice Crystals and Fluid**

Ice crystals were treated as rigid bodies in this study. Interactions between the rigid bodies and fluid are represented by particles with a fixed relative configuration (Koshizuka et al., 1998). The algorithm to represent the interaction consists of following two steps. First, the algorithm for the incompressible fluid explained in the section 2.1.1 is adapted to the ice particles; that is, the ice crystals move as fluid and deform in the first step. Second, the shapes of ice crystals deformed in the first step are restored with keeping the translational and the angular momentums at the centers of gravity points of the crystals. The procedure combining the calculations of incompressible fluid and the ice-water interaction was repeated with time steps, and the interactions between ice crystals (rigid bodies) and fluid were represented.

### **2.1.4 Crystal Growth Model**

Fig. 1 shows a schematic of the crystal growth model introduced into the MPS method. To represent the process where crystal nuclei are generated in supercooled seawater and

grow with a certain growth rate, we employed the following procedure:

(i) We assumed a simulation space that was discretized into  $m$  particles.

(ii) All particles are initially given the character number  $-1$ , which indicates that they are liquid:

$$\text{character}(i) = -1, \quad (13)$$

where  $i$  is the number of a particle.

(iii) Some particles were chosen from the liquid particles and their character number ( $-1$ ) was changed to  $k$  ( $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ). The particles with the character number  $k$  ( $\geq 1$ ) were assumed to be solidified. The solidified time  $t_{sj}$ , growth rate  $\bar{g}^{(k)}$ , crystal orientation  $\theta^{(k)}$  and density  $\rho_s$  of a solid were defined for the solidified particles.

(iv) The time increment  $\Delta t$  was defined as

$$\Delta t = \frac{\min(|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|)}{\alpha \cdot \max(|\bar{g}^{(k)}|)}, \quad (14)$$

where  $\alpha$  was the coefficient determining the fineness of time divisions.  $\vec{r}$  is the position vector of a particle, and  $|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|$  is the distance between particles  $i$  and  $j$ .

(v) Time durations for solid particles  $j$  to reach a liquid particle  $i$  were calculated and the

shortest time duration  $t_{mini}$  was found; that is:

$$t_{mini} = \min_{j \in J} \left[ t_{sj} + \frac{|\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i|}{|g_{ji}^{(k)}|} \right] \quad J = \left\{ j : |\vec{r}_j - \vec{r}_i| \leq r_{cry} \text{ and } \text{character}(j) \neq -1 \right\}, \quad (15)$$

where  $|g_{ji}^{(k)}|$  is the growth rate of particle  $j$  in the direction of particle  $i$  and  $r_{cry}$  is the reachable distance of growth from particles  $j$  (Fig. 1 (a) and (b)). Character number  $k$ , which is the character of particle  $j$ , was also stored.

(vi) If the condition

$$t + \Delta t \geq t_{mini} \quad (16)$$

was satisfied, particle  $i$  was assumed to be solidified (  $\text{character}(i) = k$  ) at time

$$t_{si} = \begin{cases} t_{mini} & (\text{if } t \leq t_{mini} \leq t + \Delta t) \\ t + \frac{\Delta t}{2} & (\text{if } t_{mini} < t) \end{cases}, \quad (17)$$

and  $\vec{g}^{(k)}$ ,  $\theta^{(k)}$  and  $\rho_s$  were added to particle  $i$ . An aggregate of particles with the same character number was assumed to be a crystal and treated as a rigid body.

In Eq. (17), the definition of the solidified time  $t_{si}$  changes depending on  $t_{mini}$ . The

reason for this is as follows. When  $t_{mini} < t$ , if  $t_{mini}$  is employed as  $t_{si}$ , particle  $i$  is solidified at the time of the previous step. To avoid conflicts with this problem, we employed a time intermediate between  $t$  and  $t + \Delta t$  if  $t_{mini} < t$ . When the above routines were introduced into the MPS method and steps (iv)-(vi) were repeated, crystal nuclei grew (Fig. 1 (c)-(e)) and floated up.

### 2.1.5 Growth Rate Model of Crystal Nuclei

When the crystal nuclei of ice grow in supercooled seawater, their growth rate in the direction perpendicular to the c-axis is commonly higher than that in the c-axis. Such anisotropy in the growth rates results in discoidal crystals in the initial stage of their growth (e.g., Weeks and Ackley, 1986). To represent the anisotropic growth of nuclei in a two-dimensional approximation, we employed the following model.

Fig. 2 shows the model for the growth rate of the discoidal crystals, when we observed from a direction perpendicular to the c-axis. The growth rates in the direction of and perpendicular to the c-axis can be expressed as

$$\left| \vec{g}_{2d\,basal}^{(k)} \right| = C_1, \quad (18)$$

$$\left| \vec{g}_{2dc}^{(k)} \right| = C_2, \quad (19)$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are constants. The rotation relation between the global coordinate system  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$  and the local coordinate system  $\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{y}_0$  of a nucleus  $k$  is given by  $\theta^{(k)}$ .

## 2.2 Voronoi Dynamics Technique

We employ the Voronoi dynamics technique (Ohashi et al., 2004; Kawano and Ohashi, 2009; Dempsey et al., 2010) to simulate crystal growth of sea ice in three-dimensional space. In the technique, crystal growth is that in which each of crystal nuclei extends its territory. The territory is assumed to be a crystal and its extension represents crystal growth. A nucleus will grow faster if it is generated at an earlier nucleation stage and if it is located at a better place for growth; a larger liquid region existing around the nucleus results in a larger crystal.

The Voronoi dynamics technique was developed by Ohashi et al. (2004), and two-dimensional simulations of growth of ice crystals were performed using the method; the crystal fabrics obtained showed good similarity with those of actual ice crystals. The method was adapted to the three-dimensional simulations of crystal growth by Kawano and Ohashi (2009), and development process of sea ice from the sea surface was simulated; the results obtained by the simulations showed that the c-axis orientations as well as crystal



fabrics have good similarity with those of actual sea ice. Dempsey et al. (2010) introduced the effect of rotations of crystals after their flotation into the Voronoi dynamics technique; the model successfully predicted the platelet ice fabric in McMurdo Sound, Antarctica. That is, the Voronoi dynamics technique has been adapted mainly to predict the crystal fabrics and c-axis orientations of sea ice. The numerical procedure for the Voronoi dynamics technique is explained below.

Fig. 3 shows a schematic of the Voronoi dynamics technique, and the algorithm is explained below.

- (i) We assumed a simulation space  $w \times h \times d$  that was divided into  $m_x \times m_y \times m_z$ .
- (ii) All cells were initially given the character number  $-1$ , which means that the cells were liquid:

$$\text{character}(i, j, k) = -1, \quad (20)$$

where the set of  $(i, j, k)$  is the address of a cell.

- (iii) Nuclei were put into the simulation space. Each had a character number  $k$

( $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ), nucleation position  $\vec{x}_n^{(k)}$ , nucleation timing  $t_n^{(k)}$  and growth rate

$$|\vec{g}^{(k)}|.$$

- (iv) The time increased from  $t$  to  $t + \Delta t$ .  $\Delta t$  was calculated by

$$\Delta t = \frac{\min(w, h, d)}{\alpha \cdot \max(\|\vec{g}^{(k)}\|)}, \quad (21)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the coefficient to determine a fineness of time deviation.

(v) The time  $t_{reach}^{(k)}$  when a nucleus has grown from  $\vec{x}_n^{(k)}$  to the center  $\vec{x}_c(i, j, l)$  of each cell was calculated:

$$t_{reach}^{(k)} = \frac{|\vec{x}_c(i, j, l) - \vec{x}_n^{(k)}|}{\|\vec{g}^{(k)}\|} + t_n^{(k)}. \quad (22)$$

(vi) The number  $k$  was added to the cell  $(i, j, l)$ :

$$\text{character}(i, j, l) = k, \quad (23)$$

if following conditions were satisfied:

$$(a) \quad t + \Delta t \geq t_{reach}^{(k)},$$

(b) the cell had the character number of liquid  $(-1)$ , and

(c1) the character number  $k$  did not exist in all cells or

(c2) at least one of the neighboring cells had the character number  $k$ .

In the case where some nuclei satisfy the condition (a), the number  $k$  of the nucleus with smallest value of  $t_{reach}^{(k)}$  is selected in those satisfying the condition (c1) or (c2).

Cells with a character number  $k$  were assumed to be solidified. When steps (iv)-(vi) were repeated, aggregates of solidified cells, where each of them has the same character number  $k$ , were formed. Each aggregate was assumed to be an individual crystal.

The growth rate model introduced into the Voronoi dynamics technique is as follows; Fig. 4 shows a schematic of the model. Crystal nuclei were assumed to grow in discoidal shapes. The growth rates in the direction of and perpendicular to the  $c$ -axis can be expressed as follows:

$$\left| \vec{g}_{3d\,basal}^{(k)} \right| = C_1, \quad (24)$$

$$\left| \vec{g}_{3dc}^{(k)} \right| = C_2, \quad (25)$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are constants. The rotation relationship between the global coordinate system  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}$  and the local coordinate system  $\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{y}_0 - \mathbf{z}_0$  of a nucleus  $k$  was given by a set of Euler angles  $(\kappa, \theta, \phi)$ .

### 3. Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei simulated by the MPS method

Let us assume a condition where crystal nuclei are generated in supercooled seawater near the surface of a calm sea. Crystal nuclei float to the sea surface due to buoyancy, grow in a discoidal shape, and accumulate near the sea surface. To represent such conditions, we employed the following conditions.

The two-dimensional seawater specimen employed in this study is shown in Fig. 5 (a). The size of the specimen, which was placed on the wall, is  $4 \times 10 \text{ mm}^2$  and discretized by  $40 \times 100$  particles. Next, 100 particles were randomly chosen as crystal nuclei within the upper half of the specimen, and their physical constants were changed from those of seawater to ice. Their growth rate was assumed to be  $|\vec{g}_{2d\text{ basal}}^{(k)}| = 0.1 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$  and  $|\vec{g}_{2d\text{ c}}^{(k)}| = 0.01 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ , and their initial crystal orientations were randomly selected. The density of ice was given by  $\rho_s = 917 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  and the density of seawater was approximately given by  $\rho_l = 1000 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  which is the value of fresh water. The free slip condition was applied to the boundary between the wall and seawater. A cyclic boundary condition was assumed for both sides of the specimen. The results are shown in Fig. 5 (b)-(d), where different crystal nuclei are shown in different colors.

Crystal nuclei grew with an anisotropic growth rate, and discoidal crystals were formed. At the same time, they moved upward and accumulated near the sea surface. After the

accumulation, there was less space to grow around the crystal nuclei, and eventually they stopped their growth. Thus, the obtained crystal fabric shows smaller grains within the upper part of the specimen. The result means that the obtained crystal fabric is formed by the growth, flotation, and accumulation of crystal nuclei.

Next, we extracted the upper 3.5 mm of the ice crystal in Fig. 5 (d), and the c-axis distribution within the specimen was obtained using the following procedure; the results are shown in Fig. 6. The relative percentages shown in the figure were calculated using the number of crystals. In other words, the c-axes ranging from  $0^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$  were divided into nine bins, and each relative percentage was calculated by the number of crystals belonging to each c-axis section. Fig. 6 shows that a minor peak existed at a nearly vertical ( $\theta = 0^\circ$ ) c-axis, and one more minor peak was observed at around  $\theta = 70^\circ$ . We noticed that such a distribution was formed by flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei near the sea surface. In other words, the distribution in Fig. 6 would reflect the mechanism where discoidal crystal nuclei were oriented after their flotation and accumulation. However, the differences between the bins in Fig. 6 were modest, and there is a possibility that the distribution is changed depending on the simulation conditions such as nucleation density, growth rate, and growth rate anisotropy.

### **3.2 Development process of sea ice crystals simulated by the Voronoi dynamics technique**

416

417 Using the Voronoi dynamics technique, we numerically simulated the development process  
418 of sea ice crystals from the accumulated layer of crystal nuclei near the sea surface. The  
419 simulation conditions were as follows. The size of the seawater specimen was  $100 \times 100 \times$   
420  $100 \text{ mm}^3$  and discretized by  $100 \times 100 \times 100$  voxels. Nine hundred nuclei were placed  
421 within the upper 10 mm of the sea surface. Two simulations were performed with  
422 different c-axis orientations of initial crystal nuclei; one was given by the c-axis distribution  
423 obtained by the simulation of flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei (Fig. 6) and the  
424 other was randomly selected. Growth rate parameters employed in both simulations were  
425 assumed to be  $|\bar{g}_{3d\text{ basal}}^{(k)}| = 0.1 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$  and  $|\bar{g}_{3d\text{ c}}^{(k)}| = 0.01 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ .

426

427 Fig. 7 shows the development process of sea ice fabrics: (a)-(c) are the results obtained with  
428 the condition where c-axis orientations of initial nuclei were given by Fig.6 and (d)-(f) are  
429 the results obtained with the condition where c-axis orientations of initial nuclei were  
430 randomly given. In other words, the effects of flotation of the initial nuclei were  
431 considered in the simulations of Fig. 7 (a)-(c). The effects of flotation were investigated  
432 by comparing the results of the two simulations.

433

434 Both results show fine grains near the sea surface and columnar grains below it, and their  
435 appearances have good similarity with each other. Fig. 8 shows changes in the c-axis  
436 distributions with depth; the distributions were calculated with areas of crystals and their  
437 c-axes within each horizontal cross-section. In both conditions with and without

considering the effect of flotation of crystal nuclei, only c-axes close to the horizontal remain at greater depths, i.e., geometric selection of c-axis orientations takes place. This transition process is in good agreement with that of actual sea ice (see Fig. 9). Kawano and Ohashi (2009) and Dempsey et al. (2010) also successfully reproduced the phenomenon using the Voronoi dynamics technique. In the c-axis distributions near the sea surfaces, however, there was a little difference between the results obtained with and without considering the effects of flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei.

Fig.8 (a) and (d) shows c-axis distributions within the horizontal plane 5 mm from the top of the ice. The result obtained with the condition where initial crystal nuclei were randomly selected is a relatively homogeneous distribution (Fig. 8 (d)), whereas there are two minor peaks at the vertical c-axis and  $70^\circ$  in the result obtained by the simulation considering the effect of flotation (Fig. 8 (a)). The features of Fig. 8 (a) are also observed in that of an actual sea ice (Fig. 9 (a)), and we notice that the c-axis distribution is successfully reproduced by the simulation considering flotation of crystal nuclei.

### **3.3 Effects of flotation and geometric selection on c-axis distribution**

From the above discussion, it was indicated that flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei strongly affect the c-axis distributions of sea ice near the sea surface. However, one point still unclear; crystal nuclei with a nearly vertical c-axis should grow faster and

occupy a larger area than those with c-axes in horizontal plane within the horizontal cross-sections; however, the c-axis distribution calculated by the number of initial nuclei (Fig. 6) was similar to that calculated by the area of crystals (Fig. 8 (a)). Next, we investigated the reason for such a similarity.

Fig. 10 (a) and (b) shows relative percentages of the average areas and the number of crystals within the horizontal cross-section 5 mm from the top of the ice studied in Fig. 7 (c); each relative percentage in the histograms was calculated using crystals belonging to each c-axis section. Fig. 10 (a) shows that crystals with vertical and nearly vertical c-axes occupy a larger area than others. In contrast, Fig. 10 (b) shows a peak at around  $70^\circ$  and the number of crystals with a nearly vertical c-axis is lower than that of others. Thus, while the number of crystals with vertical c-axis is lower than that of others within the horizontal cross-section near the sea surface, crystals with the vertical c-axis have a faster growth rate and occupy a larger area within the horizontal cross-section. In the case of the crystals with c-axis around  $70^\circ$ , the number was higher, but the area of each crystal was smaller due to its slower growth rate in the horizontal direction. In other words, the geometric selection of c-axes occurs also within the layer of fine-grained ice near the sea surface. As a result, the c-axis distribution of Fig. 8 (a) was obtained.

Fig. 11 shows a schematic of the changes in areas and the appearance ratio of crystals depending on their c-axis orientations in the horizontal cross-sections. Within the horizontal cross-sections, c-axis vertical crystals occupy larger area, while their appearance



ratio is lower; the same phenomenon can be observed in the actual sea ice (e.g. Dempsey and Langhorne, 2012). We noticed that crystal orientations of crystal nuclei were determined by the effect of flotation and accumulation, and the areas and number of crystals within the horizontal cross-sections were geometrically determined by their orientations (Fig. 11). Therefore, the results indicate that both the effects of flotation and accumulation of the crystal nuclei and geometric selection of c-axes are dominant factors in determining the c-axis distributions within the horizontal cross-sections of the surface layer of ice grown under calm sea conditions, which results in the c-axis distribution observed by Weeks and Ackley (1986).

#### 4. Conclusions

We conducted numerical simulations of the development process of sea ice from the sea surface in a calm sea considering flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei using the Moving Particle Semi-implicit (MPS) method and the Voronoi dynamics technique. The results can be summarized as follows.

With the MPS method, we successfully reproduced a process where discoidal crystal nuclei grew with their flotation and accumulation near the sea surface. The c-axis distribution in

the accumulated layer of crystal nuclei calculated by the number of crystal nuclei showed two minor peaks: one was at the horizontal c-axis and the other was at around 70°.

The c-axis distribution obtained by the MPS method adapted to initial crystal nuclei, and sea ice crystal growth from the sea surface was simulated by the Voronoi dynamics technique. The results showed good agreement with an experimental result; two minor peaks occurred in the c-axis distribution within the horizontal cross-section of the sea ice near the sea surface. In contrast, some discrepancy occurred in the distribution with the condition where c-axes of initial crystal nuclei were randomly selected. Thus, more accurate c-axis distribution near the sea surface was reproduced by using a model combining the Voronoi dynamics technique and the effect of flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei

The c-axis distribution calculated by the number of crystal nuclei after their flotation and accumulation was similar to that calculated by the area of crystals within the horizontal cross-section near the sea surface. However, the process of flotation and accumulation of crystal nuclei did not directly determine the c-axis distribution within the horizontal cross-section; the number of crystals with the vertical c-axis and nearly vertical c-axes was lower within the section, but their average area within the horizontal cross-sections was larger than that of other grains. In other words, the results obtained indicated that the effects of flotation and accumulation as well as the geometric selection of c-axes by a favorable crystal orientation were the dominant factors in determining the c-axis

distribution of a surface layer of ice grown under calm sea conditions: this resulted in the c-axis distribution observed by Weeks and Ackley (1986).

In this study, we successfully reproduced the development process of sea ice crystals from the surface of calm sea with considering the effects of flotation and accumulation of initial crystal nuclei, using a model combining the MPS method and Voronoi dynamics. The model could deal with the ice-water mixture such as frazil and grease ice; it would be adapted to investigate their solid fractions that are fiendishly difficult to measure, by introducing some physical effects into it. There is a possibility that the improved model is also adapted to analyze the fresh water ice; it would be useful for investigating preferred crystal orientation (e.g. Müller-Stoffels et al., 2009). This work would be an important step for the development of numerical models to predict the complex phenomena of sea ice depending on the microstructure, such as behavior of the ice-water mixture on the sea surface.

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## Figure Captions

634

635 Figure 1. Schematic of the crystal growth model introduced into the moving particle  
636 semi-implicit method; (a), (b) the growth process of single crystal and (c)-(e) a tri-crystal.  
637 An aggregate with the same character number is an individual crystal.

638

639 Figure 2. Anisotropic growth rate model and local coordinate system  $\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{y}_0$  defined for  
640 each of the crystal nuclei. The model was introduced into the moving particle  
641 semi-implicit method.

642

643 Figure 3. Schematic of the Voronoi dynamics technique (Kawano and Ohashi, 2009).

644

645 Figure 4. Growth rate model of a crystal nucleus and its local coordinate system  
646  $\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{y}_0 - \mathbf{z}_0$  defined for each crystal nucleus (Kawano and Ohashi, 2009). The model  
647 was introduced into the Voronoi dynamics technique.

648

649 Figure 5. Flotation and accumulation processes of crystal nuclei simulated using the  
650 moving particle semi-implicit method: (a) initial state and (b)-(d) development processes.

651

652 Figure 6. Histogram showing the relative percentages of the number of crystals belonging  
653 to different c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$  =vertical,  $90^\circ$  =horizontal) in the ice studied in Fig. 5  
654 (d).

655



Figure 7. Development process of sea ice fabrics obtained by simulations (a)-(c) considering and (d)-(f) without considering the effects of flotation of crystal nuclei.

Figure 8. Histograms showing the relative percentages of different c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$  =vertical,  $90^\circ$  =horizontal) calculated from the area within horizontal cross-sections. Results obtained by simulations (a)-(c) with and (d)-(f) without considering the effects of flotation.

Figure 9. Histograms showing the relative percentages of different c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$  = vertical,  $90^\circ$  = horizontal), which is an experimental observation of actual sea ice grown under calm sea conditions (Weeks and Ackley, 1986).

Figure 10. Histograms showing the relative percentages of (a) average areas of crystals and (b) the number of crystals depending on c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$ = vertical,  $90^\circ$ = horizontal) within the horizontal cross-section 5 mm from the top of the ice studied in Fig.7 (c). The largest value in the relative percentages of each histogram is displayed as 100 %.

Figure 11. Schematic showing the changes of appearance ratio and areas of crystals depending on their c-axis orientations at horizontal cross-sections.

# Figures

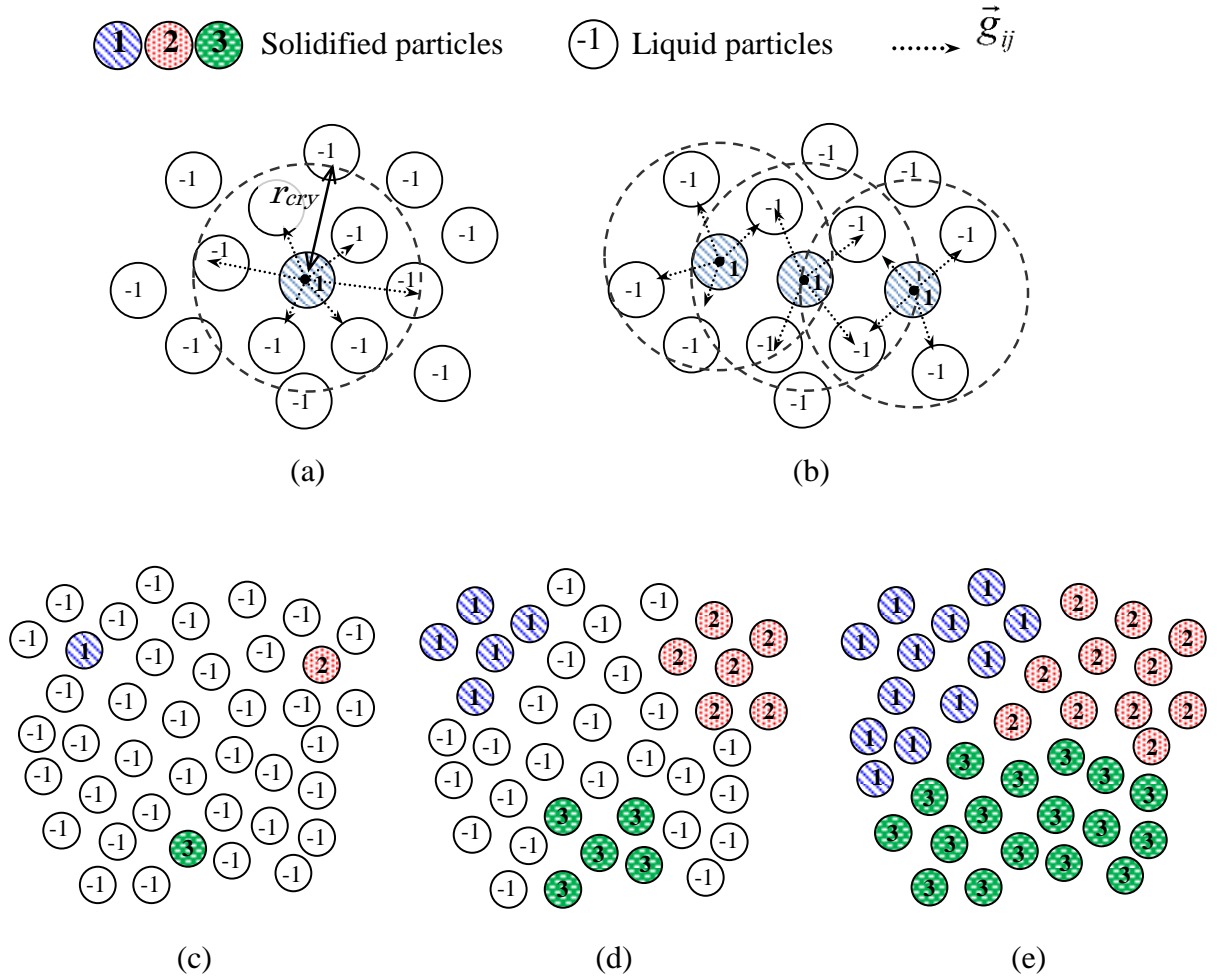


Figure 1. Schematic of the crystal growth model introduced into the moving particle semi-implicit method; (a), (b) the growth process of single crystal and (c)-(e) a tri-crystal. An aggregate with the same character number is an individual crystal.

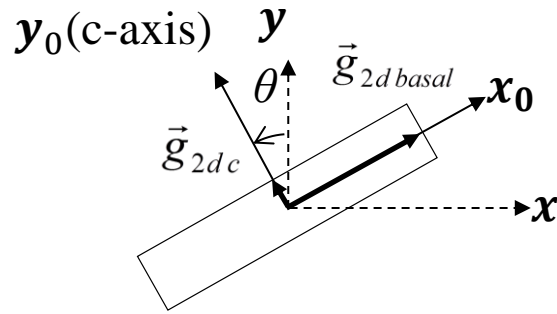


Figure 2. Anisotropic growth rate model and local coordinate system  $\mathbf{x}_0$ - $\mathbf{y}_0$  defined for each of the crystal nuclei. The model was introduced into the moving particle semi-implicit method.

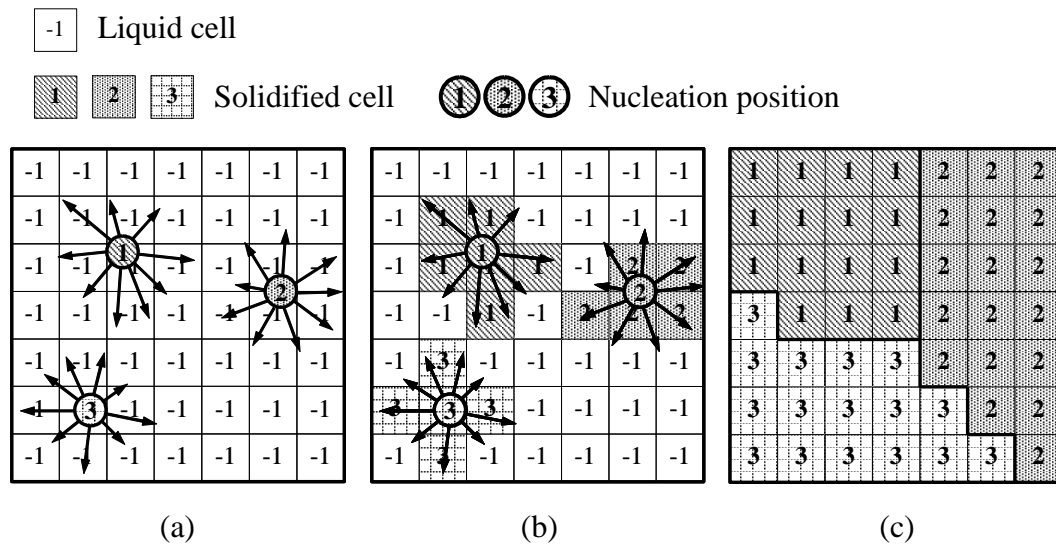
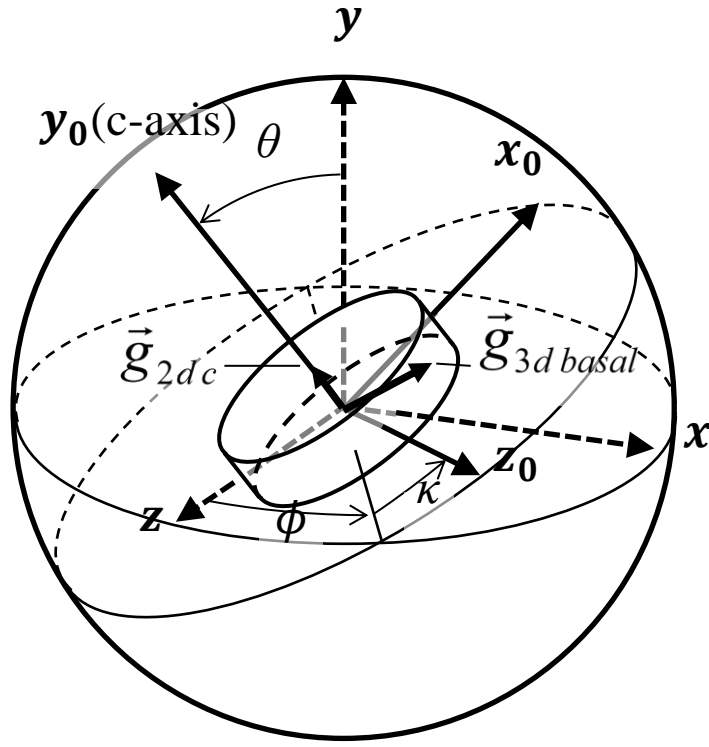


Figure 3. Schematic of the Voronoi dynamics technique (Kawano and Ohashi, 2009).



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745

746 Figure 4. Growth rate model of a crystal nucleus and its local coordinate system

747  $\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{y}_0 - \mathbf{z}_0$  defined for each crystal nucleus. The model was introduced into the Voronoi

748 dynamics technique.

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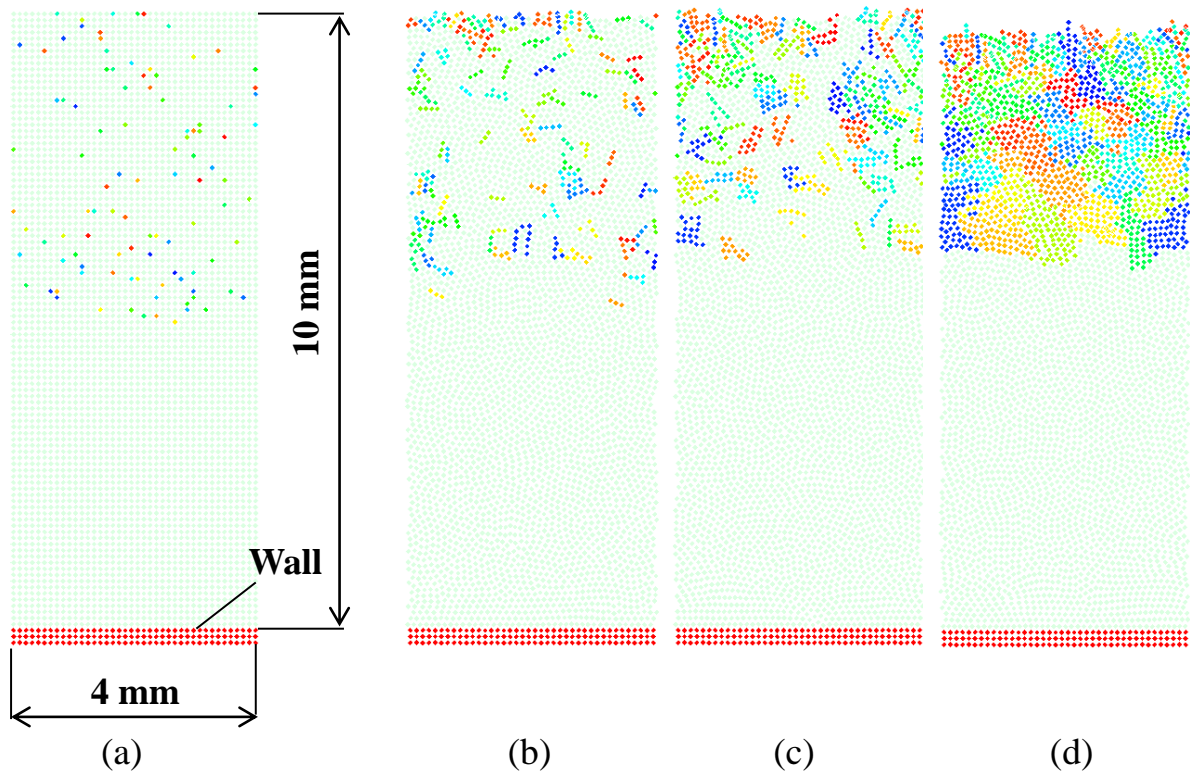


Figure 5. Flotation and accumulation processes of crystal nuclei simulated using the moving particle semi-implicit method: (a) initial state and (b)-(d) development processes.

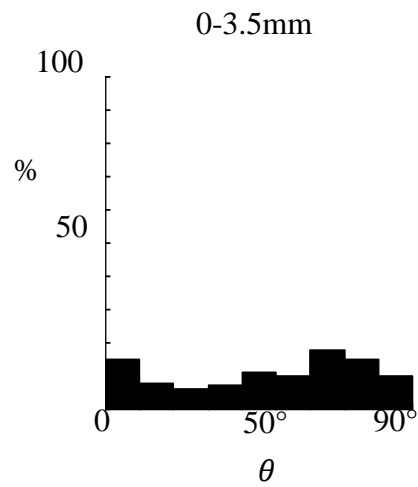


Figure 6. Histogram showing the relative percentages of the number of crystals belonging to different c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$  =vertical,  $90^\circ$  =horizontal) in the ice studied in Fig. 5 (d).

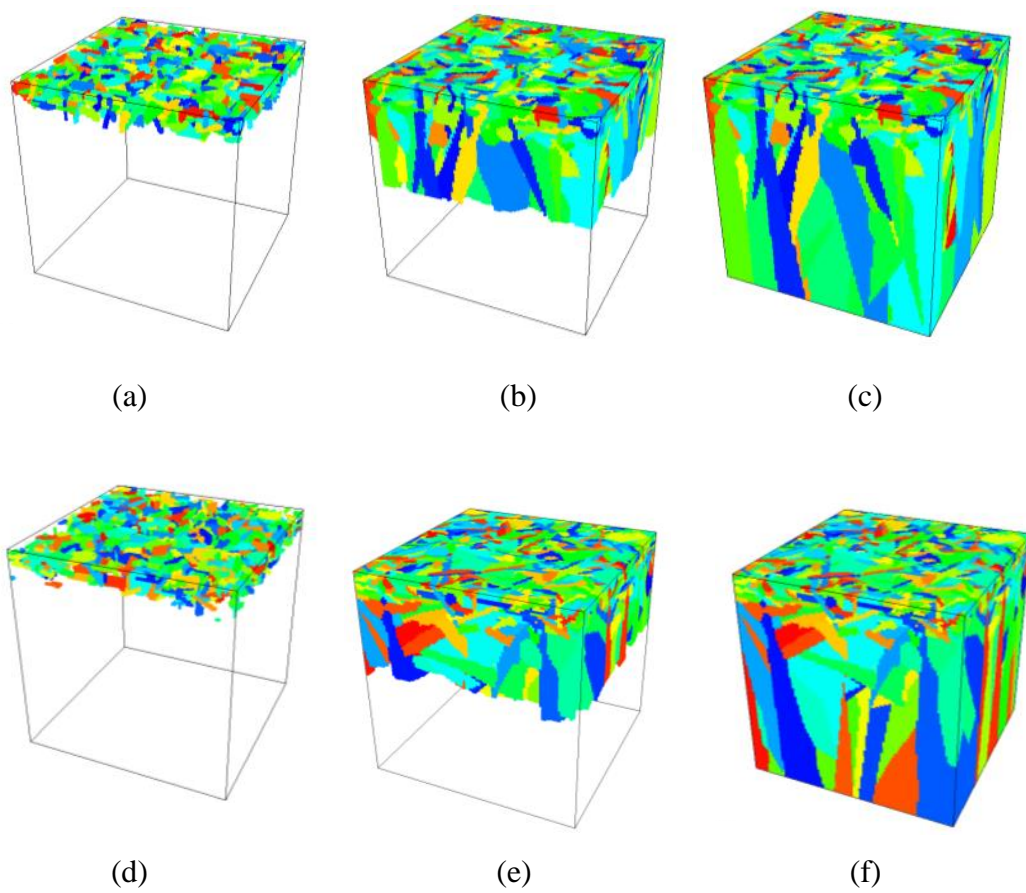
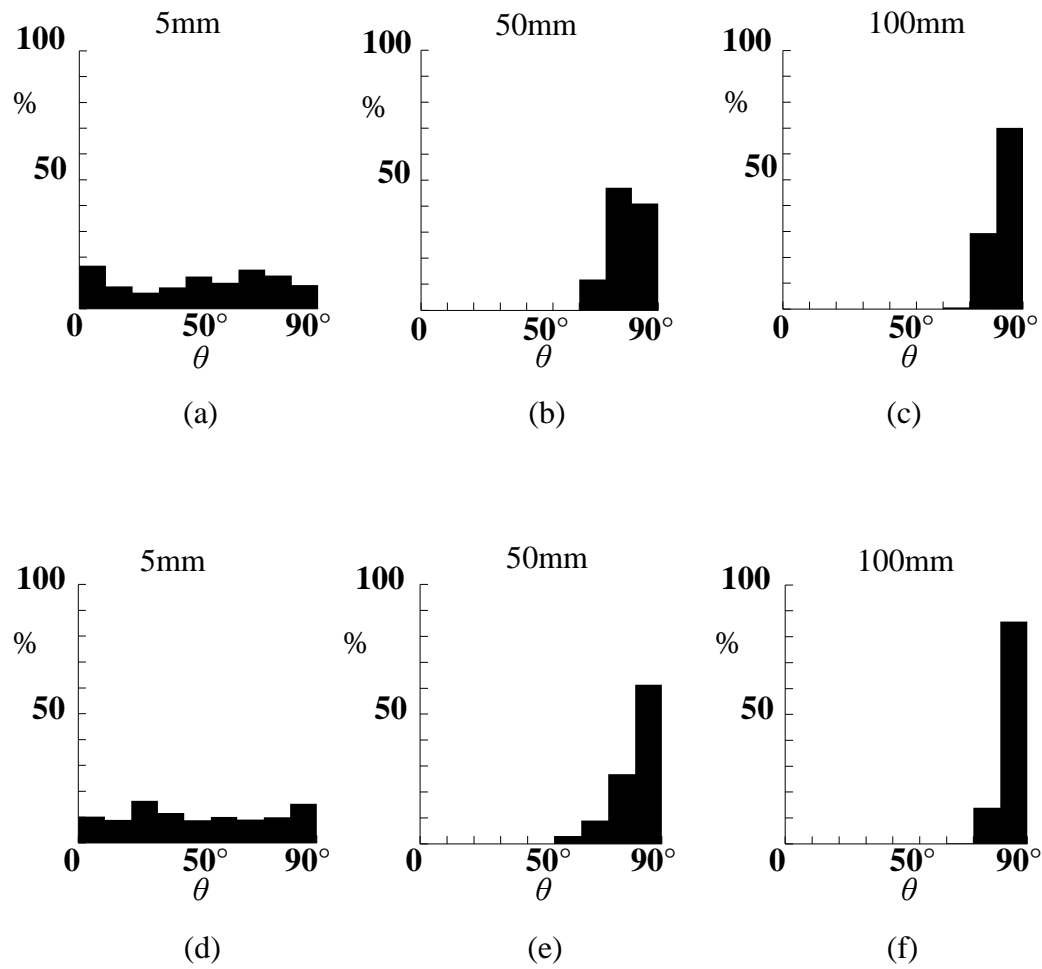


Figure 7. Development process of sea ice fabrics obtained by simulations (a)-(c) considering and (d)-(f) without considering the effects of flotation of crystal nuclei.



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820

821 Figure 8. Histograms showing the relative percentages of different c-axis orientations

822 ( $0^\circ$  =vertical,  $90^\circ$  =horizontal) calculated from the area within horizontal cross-sections.

823 Results obtained by simulations (a)-(c) with and (d)-(f) without considering the effects of

824 flotation.

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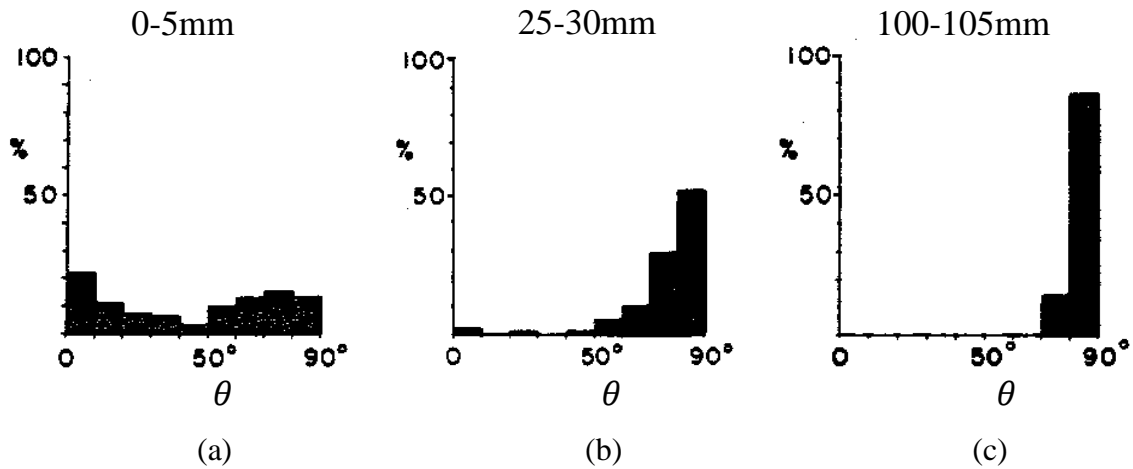


Figure 9. Histograms showing the relative percentages of different c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$  = vertical,  $90^\circ$  = horizontal), which is an experimental observation of actual sea ice grown under calm sea conditions (Weeks and Ackley, 1986).

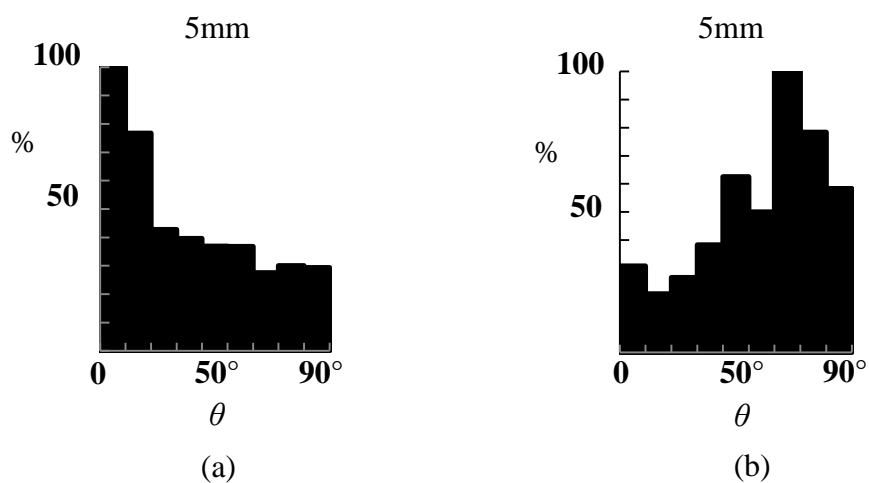


Figure 10. Histograms showing the relative percentages of (a) average areas of crystals and (b) the number of crystals depending on c-axis orientations ( $0^\circ$  = vertical,  $90^\circ$  = horizontal) within the horizontal cross-section 5 mm from the top of the ice studied in Fig.7 (c). The largest value in the relative percentages of each histogram was displayed as 100 %.

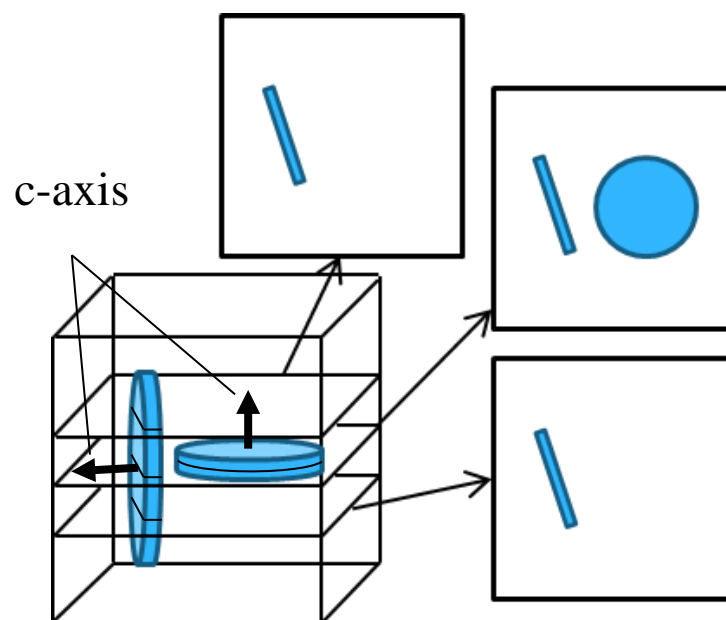


Figure 11. Schematic showing the changes of appearance ratio and areas of crystals depending on their c-axis orientations at horizontal cross-sections.