

Growing Artificial Sea Ice and The Importance of Seeding

Siobhan Johnson¹, Dyllon Garth Randall¹, Tokoloho Rampai¹, Marcello Vichi¹, and Sebastian Skatulla¹

¹University of Cape Town

November 23, 2022

Abstract

Artificial sea ice growth is an emerging field that aims to assist in understanding the growth conditions and properties of sea ice. The Meta-Stable Zone Width (MSZW) of a supercooled solution is dependent on volume. Larger volumes have a higher probability of having a seed crystal being introduced to the system which halts supercooling and begins nucleation, hence, small extents of supercooling can be found in the ocean before freezing. Small MSZW's are not often reflected in artificial sea ice set-up, thus many choose to seed to avoid excessive supercooling. This research focused on determining the MSZW of artificial sea ice grown in four volumes: 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L. The results showed a decreasing average MSZW as tank volume increased as a decreasing exponential relationship was found between volume and the MSZW.

Growing Artificial Sea Ice and The Importance of Seeding

Siobhan Johnson^a, Dyllon Garth Randall^b, Tokoloho Rampai^a, Marcello Vichi^c,
Sebastian Skatulla^b,

^a *Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Cape Town, Rondebosch, Cape Town, 7712*

^b *Department of Civil Engineering, University of Cape Town, Rondebosch, Cape Town, 7712*

^c *Department of Oceanography, University of Cape Town, Rondebosch, Cape Town, 7712*

Corresponding author: Siobhan Johnson, JHNSIO001@myuct.ac.za

KEY STATEMENTS

1
2
3
4
5
6

1. There is a significant relationship between the volume of a tank of water and its extent of supercooling shown in its Meta-Stable Zone Width. The relationship between these two variables is decreasing exponential.
2. Using this relationship, it is thus recommended for any artificial sea ice growth set-up that seeding of the solution is not necessary for large volumes

ABSTRACT

Artificial sea ice growth is an emerging field that aims to assist in understanding the growth conditions and properties of sea ice. The Meta-Stable Zone Width (MSZW) of a supercooled solution is dependent on volume. Larger volumes have a higher probability of having a seed crystal being introduced to the system which halts supercooling and begins nucleation, hence, small extents of supercooling can be found in the ocean before freezing. Small MSZW's are not often reflected in artificial sea ice set-up's, thus many choose to seed to avoid excessive supercooling.

This research focused on determining the MSZW of artificial sea ice grown in four volumes: 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L. The results showed a decreasing average MSZW as tank volume increased as a decreasing exponential relationship was found between volume and the MSZW.

22

PLAIN LANGUAGE SUMMARY

23 Supercooling is a natural phenomenon in which a cooling liquid cools below its natural
24 freezing point yet does not freeze. The extent at which the liquid supercools before it begins
25 freezing is called the Meta-Stable Zone Width (MSZW). This phenomenon happens
26 naturally in the open oceans when they freeze, however at very small extents. There is a
27 correlation that has yet to be determined on how the extent of supercooling changes with the
28 liquid volume, as smaller volumes display larger MSZW. In artificial sea ice growth, it may
29 be beneficial to prevent large extents of supercooling by introducing a seed crystal, thus this
30 research will determine whether that will be necessary for certain tank volumes.

31

32 This research grew artificial sea ice in four volumes: 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L and observed
33 the supercooling within each volume. The results showed a decreasing average MSZW as
34 tank volume increased as a decreasing exponential relationship was found between volume
35 and the MSZW. The largest tank volume also had a MSZW similar to that found in the open
36 ocean.

37

INDEX TERMS AND KEYWORDS

38 Sea ice; Analytical modeling and laboratory experiments; Instruments and techniques;
39 Crystallization; Artificial sea ice; Supercooling; Meta-stable zone width;

40

41 1. INTRODUCTION

42 Artificial sea ice production is important in sea ice research due to its ability to study the
43 growth mechanisms of sea ice at different conditions. As the aim of artificial sea ice
44 production is to replicate true sea ice, recreating the conditions of growth is deemed
45 necessary. As there is a relatively small amount of supercooling that occurs in the open
46 ocean, many artificial sea ice set-ups use seeding to limit the effect of supercooling on frazil
47 ice production as well as to create uniform, consistent and repeatable experimental
48 conditions (Golding, et al., 2014; Cottier, et al., 1999). However, the necessity of seeding
49 during artificial sea ice growth may be dependent on the volume of the tank in use since
50 smaller volumes of solution are subject to larger variations in supercooling/undercooling (or
51 the metastable zone width (MSZW) (Nyvlt, 1968). The purpose of this study is to thus
52 determine if seeding is a necessary step in artificial sea ice growth in relation to the
53 volume used in the respective experimental set-up.

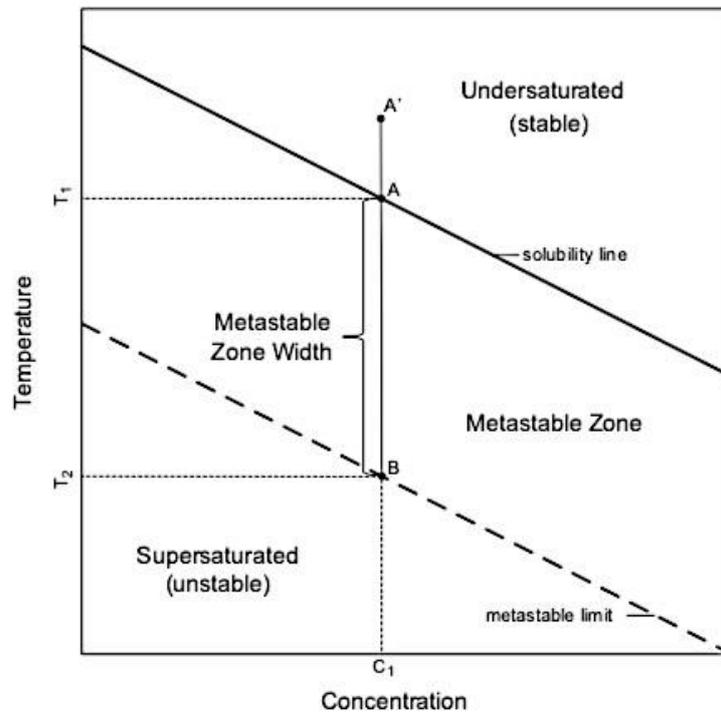
54

55 Supercooling of liquids is a phenomenon that occurs when a solution remains a liquid
56 below its standard freezing point. This often occurs in conjunction with the
57 supersaturation of a liquid; where the solution holds more dissolved solute than its
58 standard equilibrium amount, rendering the solution less stable or metastable (Wilson,
59 2012). Crystallization of the solution begins when nucleation occurs. This can be
60 initiated in three ways: 1) the introduction of a seed crystal into the system, 2) the
61 solution reaches a point of maximum supersaturation or 3) the system remains
62 supersaturated for an extended period of time (Myerson & Ginde, 2002).

63

64 This extent of supersaturation or maximum supercooling has been considered to be
65 the metastable zone width (MSZW) (Figure 1). The metastable zone is the region

66 between the solubility line, where the solution contains the maximum amount of
67 dissolved solute it can hold, and the point of maximum supersaturation (Randall, et
68 al., 2012).



69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80 *Figure 1: Generic binary phase diagram showing the solubility regions of a solid-liquid system (Randall,*
81 *et al., 2012)*

82
83 A typical way to observe the MSZW is by observing the temperature evolution of the
84 freezing solution. If supercooling takes place, the MSZW can be determined by finding
85 the maximum supercooling that took place. Once maximum supercooling has taken
86 place, the solution's temperature jumps back up to the equilibrium freezing point where
87 it plateaus for a short period until further cooling occurs in its solid state (Daly &
88 Axelson, 1986). The detectability of the MSZW is strongly dependent on the accuracy
89 of the measuring instruments used. Detection techniques for identifying the MSZW
90 widely vary but all center around a change in a property of the solution when nucleation
91 begins. This can be a change in the solution visually as crystals form (Mullin & Jancic,

92 1979), its electrical conductivity (Yuan, et al., 2015; Kubota, 2008), density (Marciniak,
93 2002; Kubota, 2008), turbidity (Gerson, et al., 1991; Kubota, 2008; Taboada & Graber,
94 2003), temperature (Randall, et al., 2012) or ultrasonic velocity (Kubota, 2008;
95 Marciniak, 2002; Lyczko, et al., 2002). Some researchers have observed nucleation with
96 the naked eye, such as Mullin and Jancic (1979), which limits detection to a critical
97 nucleus size. Alternatively, detection of particles can be accomplished by the Lasentec
98 Focused Beam Reflectance method (FBRM) or the Lasentec Particle Vision and
99 Measurement method (PVM), which were developed by Barrett and Glennon (2002).
100 FBRM uses laser light beams to determine the number and size of the forming crystals
101 while PVM employs probes to take microscopic video images of the solution's surface.

102

103 The volumetric effect on the extent of supercooling has long been considered (Oike,
104 et al., 2018; Mossop, 1954; Knight, 1967) but little published data on the stochastic
105 volume effect on ice crystallization. The stochastic nature of nucleation, causes
106 nucleation to occur randomly at different times, being more pronounced in smaller
107 volumes (Kadam, et al., 2011). It has been found that smaller volumes produce a
108 large distribution of values for the MSZW as well as a greater MSZWs compared to
109 larger volumes (Randall, et al., 2012; Kadam, et al., 2011). For example, Randall and
110 co-workers showed that the temperature variation in a 1.8 mL solution was 9 °C while
111 for a 1 L solution it was 2.5 °C (Randall, et al., 2012). This is consistent with the
112 Single Nucleus Mechanism theory whereby the probability of nucleation increases
113 with the volume of the solution (Kadam, et al., 2011).

114

115 Liang and co-workers (2004) showed that stirrer speed affects the MSZW for an
116 investigated volume range of 0.45 to 20 L, where the observed MSZWs were mostly

117 found to decrease with increasing stirring speed. Additionally, van der Elsken and
118 co-workers (1991) also showed that an increase in shear rate (0 to 30 sec⁻¹) within
119 their cold room tank, decreased the extent of maximum supercooling achieved. And
120 similarly, Ye and Doering (2004) reported on an increase in depth water velocity
121 which decreased the MSZW.

122

123 Additionally, there is clear evidence to support that the rate of heat loss or cooling
124 rate also strongly affects the maximum supercooling achieved. Oike and co-workers
125 (2018), Ye and Doering (2004) and Liang and co-workers (2004) all reported on this
126 phenomenon. Furthermore the studies that have been conducted thus far have not
127 considered that volume is unimportant, but rather it is of second order in its
128 contribution to nucleation and the extent of supercooling (Hanley, 1978; Daly,
129 1994).

130

131 Seeding of a supercooled solution is a technique used to limit the extent of supercooling.
132 The introduction of a “seed” provides a site for heterogenous nucleation to take place
133 (Wilson, et al., 2003). Homogeneous nucleation is the nucleation of a system that
134 contains no particulate matter previously present or otherwise added. While
135 heterogeneous nucleation, which is most common, is nucleation that occurs where there
136 is a seed crystal present (Randall, et al., 2012; Dirksen & Ring, 1991). Seed crystals, in
137 nature, are usually dust particles, biological matter or any other impurities within the
138 system (Wilson, et al., 2003), and their introduction into a supercooling system reduces
139 the MSZW of the system (Mossop, 1954). Thus, larger volumes, which naturally having
140 a larger probability of having a dust particle or impurity in the solution, are predicted to
141 have a smaller MSZW than smaller volumes of the same solution (Mossop, 1954).

142 Additionally, agitation of the system has been found to decrease the MSZW (Kubota,
143 2008; Bogacz & Wójcik, 2014; Liang, et al., 2004). It is theorized that this is due to a
144 ‘washing away’ effect where nuclei first forms on the stirrer and is then ‘washed away’
145 to the surface where the nucleation of the bulk solution begins (Liang, et al., 2004). In
146 addition, seeding within a MSZW region where two crystals have the potential to
147 nucleate (ice and salt) will only form crystals of the seed. For example, Randall and co-
148 workers showed that seeding with ice in the MSZW of an ice and sodium sulfate system
149 only resulted in ice crystals forming (Randall, et al., 2009).

150

151 Supercooling of sea water is a common example of this phenomenon found in nature.
152 Supercooled waters are usually found in coastal polynyas and leads during winter (Shi, et
153 al., 2011; Ushio & Wakatsuchi, 1993; Ito, et al., 2015). However, the extent of supercooling
154 is often minimal, with such water temperatures sometimes reaching only 0.008 °C below
155 freezing point (Lewis & Perkin, 1983). These open waters are subject to often turbulent and
156 windy conditions. The winter conditions together with the lack of insulating ice cover,
157 creates a high latent heat loss off the surface of the water which in turn induces supercooling
158 and associated frazil ice production (Daly & Axelson, 1986; Ushio & Wakatsuchi, 1993; Ito,
159 et al., 2015). Residual supercooling is well documented for frazil ice growth in fresh water
160 streams (Daly, 1984) with the key difference between sea water and fresh water being the
161 much higher salinities in sea water which will ultimately result in greater freezing point
162 depressions. In addition, work by Lewis and Perkin (1983) proposed a “potential”
163 supercooling due to the pressure dependence of the freezing point when rising to the surface.
164 This mechanism is also thought to be the most likely when it comes to supercooling below
165 or near ice shelves as increased pressure increases the freezing point of seawater (McMurdo
166 Sound, work from Leonard et al. (2011) and Lewis and Perkin (1985)).

167

168 Supercooled ocean waters result in frazil ice formation, which is a slush-like structure of ice,
169 formed when small ice crystals conglomerate on the sea surface, usually in turbulent and
170 windy conditions (Weeks & Ackley, 1982). Findings on the extent of supercooling in polar
171 waters do vary, however, they do share a common order of magnitude (Table 1).

172

173 The varied results are due to the different weather and ocean conditions experienced during
174 measurement as well as the accuracy and precision of the temperature-measurement apparatus
175 used in each study. The relatively small values for the MSZW can be attributed to the high
176 probability of available nuclei on which nucleation can begin. The windy conditions and vast
177 expanse of water creates a high probability of nucleation taking place. Research studies on
178 supercooling and stochastic nucleation in water have traditionally considered volume as an
179 independent property that does not affect the phenomenon in any way (Kubota, 2008; Nyvlt,
180 1968). Despite this, interrogation and comparison of multiple studies show an emerging
181 relationship: a decreasing exponential relationship between the natural logarithm of volume
182 and extent of supercooling, as seen in Figure 2. Each study referenced in Figure 2 conducted
183 their experiments with artificial or collected sea water with salinities ranging from 34-35 psu.
184 As each set-up ranges significantly in volume, the natural logarithm of volume was taken to
185 display how the MSZW decreases exponentially.

186

187 It is evident from Figure 2 that the larger volumes differ in their extent of supercooling far
188 less than smaller volumes. The supercooling temperatures measured by Smith and co-
189 workers in a 280 L tank were reported to be 0.05 °C (Smith, et al., 2002) and Ushio and
190 Wakatsuchi reported an average of 0.15 °C in a 480 L tank (Ushio & Wakatsuchi, 1993)
191 while Smedsrud measured 0.01 °C supercooling temperatures in a 120 000 L tank

192 (Smedsrud, 2001). Additionally, Schneck et al. (2017) conducted their studies in a 1152 L
 193 tank with propeller mixing of 325 rpm, which achieved an average extent of supercooling of
 194 0.093. These values are similar in their order of magnitude when compared to the
 195 supercooling temperatures found in nature, as reported in Table 1. In comparison, the 2 L
 196 and 10 L tanks used by Katsaros and Liu, reportedly had solutions with larger supercooling
 197 temperatures (no mixing) of 1.2 °C and 0.76 °C respectively (Katsaros & Timothy Liu,
 198 1974). All of these studies conducted their experiments using artificial sea water of roughly
 199 35 psu and was used mixing throughout their experiments.

200

201

Table 1: Literature findings of the extent of supercooling in Arctic and Antarctic waters

ΔT (°C)	Location	Source
0.02	Laptev Sea Coastal Polynya	Dmitrenko et al. (2010)
0.02-0.03	Chukchi Coastal Polynya	Ito et al. (2015)
0.001-0.015	McMurdo Sound, Antarctica	Leonard et al. (2006)
0.025	McMurdo Ice shelf, Antarctica	Leonard et al. (2011)
0.008	North of Svalbard	Lewis & Perkin (1983)
0.047	McMurdo Sound, Antarctica	Lewis & Perkin (1985)
0.015	Freemansundet, Svalbard	McPhee et al. (2013)
0.065	Prydz Bay, Antarctica	Shi et al. (2011)
0.02	Kapp Lee, Storfjorden polynya	Skogseth et al. (2009)

202

203

204 From these studies, it is clear that there is a foundation upon which a relationship between
 205 volume and the MSZW can be investigated. This may be informative for future studies on
 206 artificial sea ice set-ups on whether seeding is a necessary step in the growth process.

207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225
226
227
228
229
230
231
232
233
234

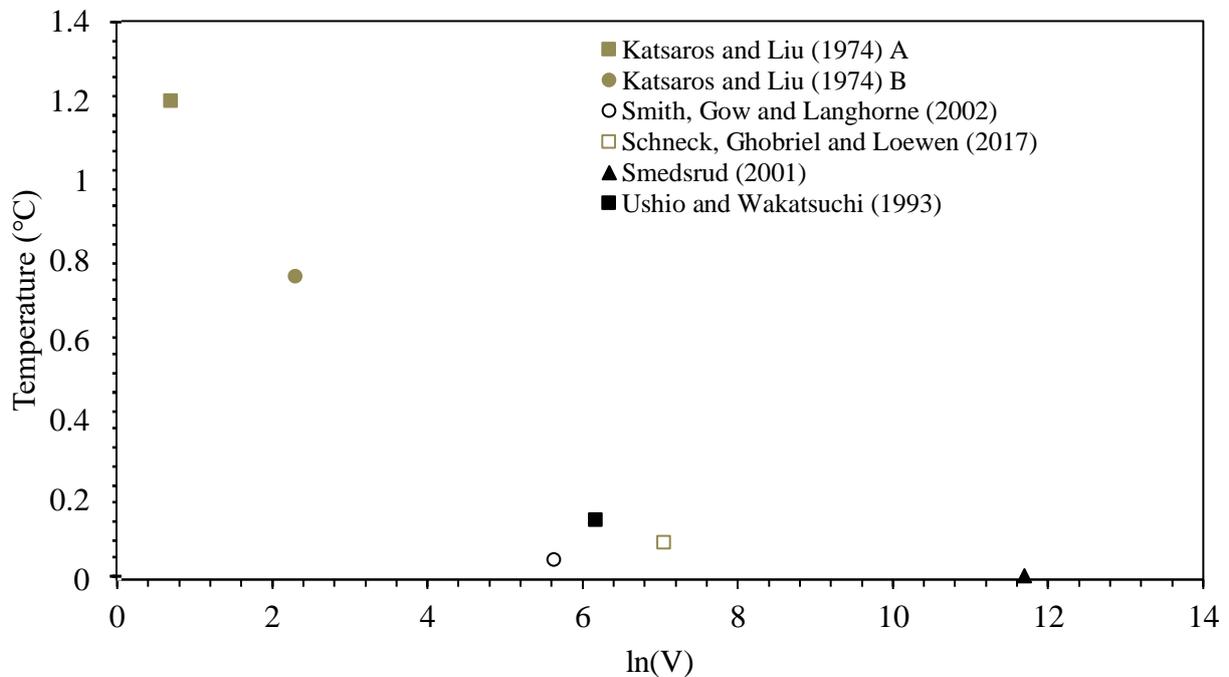


Figure 2: Supercooling results for different volumes (liters) of freezing sea water from other studies.

Katsaros and Liu (1974) A and B refer to two of the volumes investigated. Katsaros and Liu (1974) A refers to a 2 L set up while B refers to a 10 L set up.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experiments were conducted in the cold room laboratory at the University of Cape Town.

All experiments were conducted at -20 ± 0.3 °C until freezing occurred. Four volumes of

tanks were used: 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L. Each container was made of plastic and filled

its respective volume of deionized water. Aquaforest aquarium sea salt was added to the

water to create a 34 psu solution. The salinity of the system was confirmed using a Graigar

AZ 8303 conductivity/temperature probe, which is accurate to 1 %. Thermon Class A PT100

235 three wire temperature probes were used to detect supercooling in the system. These probes
236 are accurate to 0.05 °C after calibration. Temperature was measured and logged every 9
237 seconds, and recorded onto a Campbell Scientific CR5000 data logger.

238

239 Each system was precooled to +1 °C and the solution was mixed so that the entire system
240 was at the same temperature before starting the experiment. This ensured that each repeat
241 experiment began at the same conditions and that variability in the temperature of the water
242 would not affect the extent of supercooling. Fig. 4 illustrates the skeleton of each type of set-
243 up used in this study.

244

245 The 5 L cylindrical tank, was mixed using a Lasec magnetic stirrer, as shown by Figure 3A,
246 where the height of the tank was 26 cm and the diameter was 15 cm. The speed of the
247 magnetic bar was set to setting number 4 so that a cyclone within the water was not formed;
248 this ensured gentle yet conformed mixing within the set up. Five consecutive repeats were
249 conducted for the 5 L tank. Entering the container during a repeat was discouraged as this
250 would allow warm air and dust to enter the container which could affect the water
251 temperature. The 5 L solution was allowed to cool and freeze for 4 hours without disturbance.
252 This length of time sufficiently allowed for the solution to supercool and freeze. An ambient
253 temperature probe was situated on top of the 5 L tank set-up to monitor the air temperature
254 for any anomalies, which could affect the freezing profile of the solution.

255

256 The 30 L cylindrical tank was also well-mixed using a Lasec magnetic stirrer as shown by
257 Figure 3A, where the height of the tank was 42 cm and the diameter was 30 cm. Six
258 consecutive repeats were carried out in the 30 L tank and was given 8 hours without
259 disturbance to cool and freeze sufficiently.

260

261 The 100 L cylindrical tank set-up, unlike the previous two, was mixed using one Grech CW-
262 110 multi-function wave make pump that has a flow capacity range of 500-4000 L/h. The
263 pump was positioned in 30 cm deep to create sufficient mixing throughout, as seen in Figure
264 3B, where the height of the tank was 60 cm and the diameter was 46 cm. This pump was set
265 to 2 000 L/h pump capacity which corresponded to setting 4 on the controller. A pump was
266 used as a magnetic stirrer, as used in the smaller tank sizes, was too small for the tank size
267 and would not create sufficient mixing throughout the water. A plastic scaffold held the three
268 temperature probes used in this set-up; one probe used for ambient temperature monitoring,
269 one probe located 5 cm below the water surface to ensure the water temperature is consistent
270 and one probe located at the surface to detect nucleation. Other probes were located
271 throughout the tank to ensure consistent mixing throughout the tank before starting the
272 experiments. Three repeats were conducted using this tank set-up, with each repeat being
273 allowed 10 hours to freeze at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

274

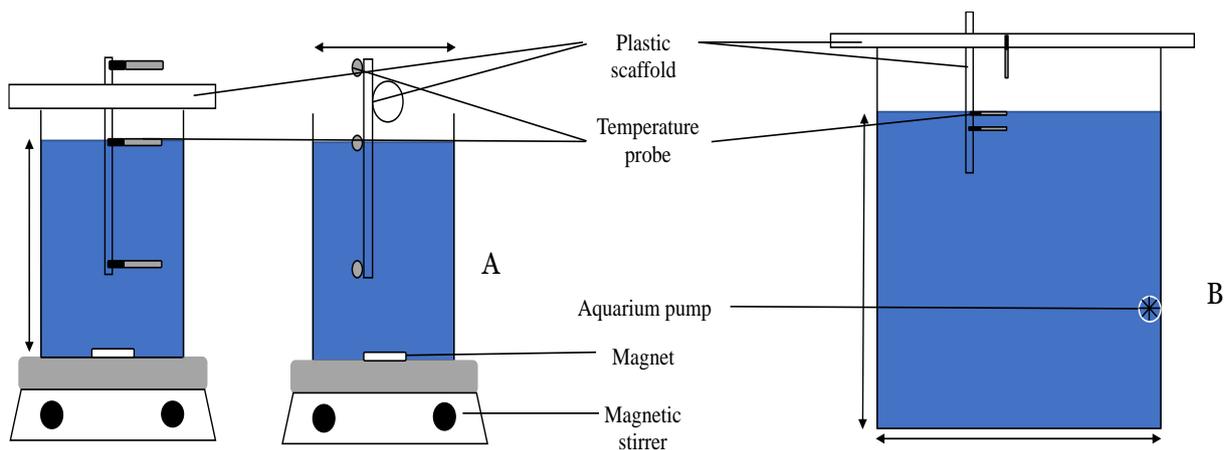
275 The 370 L cylindrical tank had a height and diameter that was 70 cm and 82 cm respectively.
276 The tank set-up can be shown by Figure 3B, however, it was mixed using two Grech CW-
277 110 multi-function wave maker pumps, positioned at the bottom of the tank and 40 cm deep.
278 This allowed for sufficient mixing throughout the depth of the tank while set to setting 4
279 which corresponds to roughly 2 000 L/h pump capacity. Additionally, two plastic scaffolds
280 holding two sets of in-water probes were erected to ensure the system is well-mixed and to
281 spot any possible temperature anomalies in the tank. An ambient temperature probe was used
282 to measure the air conditions above the water. Three consecutive repeats were conducted,
283 with each repeat being allowed 15 hours to cool and freeze sufficiently without disturbance.

284

285 The polar laboratory was set at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ thus the cooling rate of the air temperature was set to
286 a specific rate according to the laboratory's cooling settings. As a result, the cooling rate of
287 the water for each tank could not be controlled. The cooling rate does affect the nucleation
288 and extent of supercooling (Oike, et al., 2018; Liang, et al., 2004; Ye & Doering, 2004),
289 however, this variable could not be controlled.

290

291 The cooling rate of each system was calculated by finding the gradient of the straight-line
292 temperature profile between the start of the repeat to the point where the temperature is at its
293 lowest. The MSZW was calculated by finding the difference between the temperature at
294 which the solution begins to plateau and the lowest temperature the solution experiences.



295

296 *Figure 3: Schematic drawings of the two kind of tank set-ups used in this study. Set-up A used for 5 L and*
297 *30 L tanks and set-up B used for 100 L and 370 L tanks.*

298

299 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

300 *3.1. Results for 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L tank experiments*

301 Each tank volume was filled with the same solution and was subjected to the same freezing
302 conditions. The resulting freezing profiles of each volume and its repeats can be seen in
303 Figure 4.

304

305 The freezing profile of the 5 L solution can be seen in
 306 Figure 4A whereby the solution's temperature profile can be matched to a typical
 307 supercooling solution's temperature profile, as seen in **Error! Reference source not found.**
 308 The solution cools steadily and with a constant rate as seen in the first part of the profile. The
 309 mean cooling rate across all repeats was calculated to be - 3.20 °C/hour. The solution
 310 continues to cool past its equilibrium freezing point, which at 34 psu, is -1.87 °C (Fofonoff
 311 & Millard Jr, 1983).

312
 313 *Table 2: Summary of results of the 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L tanks. The expected freezing point*
 314 *temperature for 34 psu sea water is -1.873 °C (Weeks & Ackley, 1982)*

	Minimum	Plateau	MSZW	Cooling
	Temperature (°C)	Temperature(°C)	(°C)	Rate (°C/h)
5 L				
Mean	-2.34	-1.90	0.44	-3.20
Standard	0.094	0.050	0.10	0.24
Deviation				
30 L				
Mean	-2.10	-1.88	0.22	-1.88
Standard	0.050	0.034	0.037	0.22
Deviation				
100 L				
Mean	-2,00	-1.87	0.13	-2.28
Standard	0.003	0.014	0.014	0.27
Deviation				
370 L				

Mean	-	-1.87	-	-2.31
Standard Deviation	-	0.044	-	0.062

315

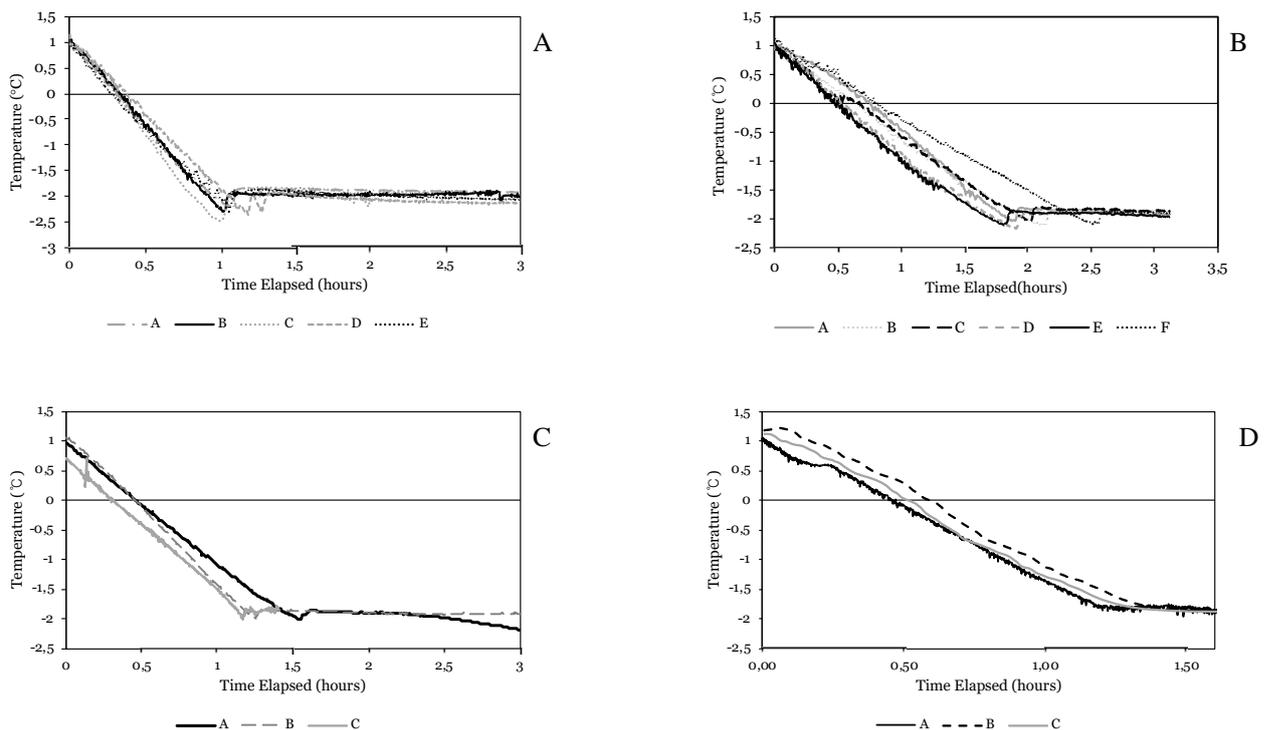
316 Each repeat can be seen to supercool past this temperature and reach a minimum temperature
317 before jumping back to its equilibrium temperature where it plateau's. This trough is
318 different for each repeat but the mean minimum temperature reached is -2.34 °C. The
319 supercooled water then froze which is signified by the sudden spike in temperature. There is
320 a subsequent temperature plateau for a significant period of time before the solid solution
321 continues to steadily decrease in temperature. The temperature of the solution at this plateau
322 is expected to be the equilibrium freezing point. The mean calculated plateau temperature of
323 the 5 L tank's repeats is -1.90 °C, with a standard deviation of 0.05 °C. The difference
324 between each repeat's minimum temperature and its plateau temperature is the calculated
325 MSZW of that repeat. The mean MSZW was found to be 0.44 °C with a standard deviation
326 of 0.10 °C.

327

328 The 30 L tank temperature profile is similar to that of the 5 L with the same notable features.
329 The 30 L cooling rate is different to that of the 5 L with an average rate of -1.88 °C/hour.
330 The profiles seen in
331 Figure 4B, have a mean minimum temperature of -2.10 °C and an average plateau
332 temperature of -1.88 °C. The resulting average MSZW is 0.22°C with a standard deviation
333 of 0.037 °C. The 100 L tank temperature profile is similar to that of the 5 L and 30 L with
334 the same notable features. The cooling rate of these repeats in the 100 L are different to that
335 of the 5 L with an average rate of -2.27 °C/hour. The profiles seen in
336 Figure 4C, have a mean minimum temperature of -2.00 °C and an average plateau
337 temperature of -1.87 °C. The resulting average MSZW is 0.13 °C with a standard deviation
338 of 0.013 °C.

339

340 The 370 L tank's profile bears resemblance to the smaller tank's temperature profile, as seen
 341 in
 342 Figure 4D, however no significant supercooling was detected. It is thus assumed that any
 343 supercooling that took place had an extent less than 0.05 °C, which is the accuracy of the
 344 temperature probes used. The average calculated cooling rate was -2.31 °C/hour until each
 345 repeat plateaued at an average of -1.87 °C.
 346



347 *Figure 4: Freezing temperature profiles over time for 5 L (A), 30 L (B), 100 L (C) and 370 L (D)*
 348 *solutions. The average MSZW were calculated to be 0.44, 0.22 and 0.13 for the 5 L, 30 L and 100 L*
 349 *respectively, while there was no measured supercooling for the 370 L.*

350
 351 With the results of all four volumes, comparisons can be made to identify if there is an
 352 overarching trend. Comparisons of the notable temperatures, as detailed above, with their
 353 standard deviations can be seen in Table 2. It is apparent from Table 2, that the extent of
 354 supercooling, the MSZW, decreases with an increasing volume as expected. Additionally,
 355 the range of values given for the MSZW for each repeat also decreases with an increasing
 356 volume, as seen by the difference in the standard deviation of each volume's MSZW.

357

358 This is further validated by the increase in the minimum temperature reached by the solution
359 as the volume increases. This validates that the solution is being nucleated more quickly in
360 larger volumes. Furthermore, this in conjunction with the Single Nucleus Mechanism theory
361 (Kadam, et al., 2011) which predicts that a larger volume has a higher probability of
362 heterogeneous nucleation. The larger variation in the MSZW for the smaller volumes
363 confirms that the smaller volumes are more stochastic in nature whereby nucleation is more
364 likely to be random and spontaneous and not initiated by freezing nuclei such as dust or other
365 impurities (Kadam, et al., 2011; Kadam, 2012).

366

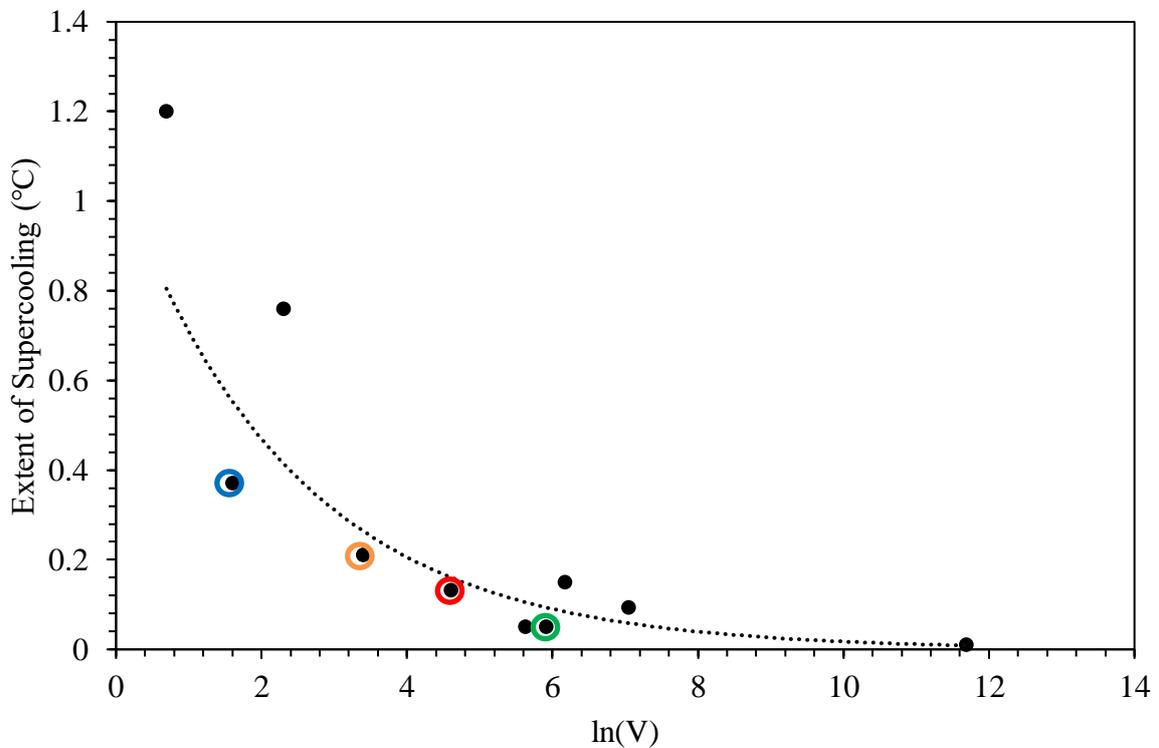
367 *3.2. Relating Volume to the MSZW*

368 The results of the 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L experiments clearly show a decrease in the
369 MSZW as well as in its variance. These results are compared to the findings of other studies
370 on the supercooling of artificial sea water (Figure 5). For the purpose of this Fig., the MSZW
371 of 0.05 °C was used for the 370 L tank. Figure 5 shows that the four volumes investigated in
372 this study, contribute and confirm the proposed relationship between volume and the MSZW.
373 The dotted exponential trendline proposes a relationship between these volumes and their
374 respective supercooling temperatures. The marker representing the 5 L tank is noticeably
375 lower than Katsaros and Liu's 10 L tank experiments. Katsaros and Liu's freezing
376 experiments were non-agitated whereas the experiments conducted in this study were well-
377 mixed. A lower MSZW is thus expected in the system where mixing occurs as in accordance
378 with the 'washing-away' theory proposed by Liang et al. (Liang, et al., 2004).

379

380 From the comparisons of this study's results with the results from others, it can thus be
381 concluded that there is an established decreasing exponential relationship between the extent
382 of supercooling experienced and the natural logarithm of volume. In addition, the literature

383 values were taken from studies with different operating conditions and hence any correlation
384 must be taken with caution. Possible errors in these results may occur from the different
385 cooling rates of the water, which could not be controlled in the experiments carried out in
386 this study, together with the extent of mixing of the water. The study also only focused a
387 fixed salinity of artificial sea water but the freezing point depression will change for different
388 salinities. Future work should therefore look at a wider range of operating conditions
389 (salinities, cooling rates, and volumes) as these variables do affect the extent of supercooling.
390



391 Figure 5: Supercooling results for different volumes of sea water from other studies and the
392 results of the 5 L (blue), 30 L (yellow), 100 L (red) and 370 L (green) tanks conducted in
393 this study. The black dots are representative of the results from other studies as mentioned
394 and referenced in Figure 2.

395

396 3.3. Implications for artificial sea ice growth set-ups

397 One of the main objectives in producing artificial sea ice is recreating the conditions in which
398 sea ice forms. As previously established, very small supercooling temperatures are
399 experienced in nature and recreating this is key to making artificial sea ice. In small volumes,
400 it has been established that there is significant supercooling, while insignificant changes in
401 the extent of supercooling are experienced in larger volumes which is demonstrated by the
402 results of the 370 L tank in this study. This is important to distinguish as the ice morphology,
403 structure and overall mass with a given time will be highly variable with large extents of
404 supercooling. It thus recommended that seeding be considered when growing artificial sea
405 ice in small volumes where significant supercooling is found to be greater than 0.05 °C.

406

407 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

408 The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

- 409 • There is a decreased measured MSZW with increasing volume as seen in the experiments
410 conducted with artificial sea water using volumes of 5 L, 30 L, 100 L and 370 L.
411
- 412 • There is a tentative relationship between the MSZW and volume using the results from
413 this study together with results from similar studies. This relationship can be described
414 as a decreasing exponential curve between the MSZW and the natural logarithm of
415 volume.
416
- 417 • Owing to the small supercooling temperatures that have been measured in oceans, large
418 volumes used for artificial sea ice growth, that exhibit similar supercooling, do not
419 require seeding as part of their experimental procedure. However, smaller volumes do
420 require seeding in order to lower the extent of supercooling experienced.

421

422

423

424 *Acknowledgments*

425 This work was supported by the South African National Research Foundation (NRF). We
426 would like to thank the research office at the University of Cape Town for their financial
427 support. We would also like to thank the faculty funding at the University of Cape Town for
428 further financial support. This publication is based on research that has been supported in
429 part by the University of Cape Town's Research Committee (URC).

430

431 *Data Availability Statement*

432 The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available in the
433 figshare repository. Access to this repository can be found at this link:
434 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13670008>.

435

436 *CRedit author contributions*

437 **Siobhan Johnson:** Writing-original draft, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation,
438 Data curation, Visualization, Project management

439 **Dyllon Garth Randall:** Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing

440 **Tokoloho Rampai:** Supervision, Project management, Funding acquisition, Resources,
441 Writing-review & editing, Validation

442 **Marcello Vichi:** Funding acquisition

443 **Sebastian Skatulla:** Resources

445
446
447
448
449
450
451
452
453
454
455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
464
465
466
467
468
469

REFERENCES

Daly, S. F. & Axelson, K. D., 1986. Estimation of Time to Maximum Supercooling during Dynamic Frazil Ice Formation, Hanover: s.n.

Daly, S. F., 1984. Frazil Ice Dynamics, Hanover: U.S. Army Cold Regions Research and Engineering Laboratory.

Daly, S. F., 1994. Report on Frazil Ice, s.l.: US Army Corps of Engineers.

Dmitrenko, I. A. et al., 2010. Observations of supercooling and frazil ice formation in the Laptev Sea coastal polynya. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 115(C05015).

Fofonoff, P. & Millard Jr, R. C., 1983. Algorithms for computation of fundamental properties of seawater. *Unesco Technical Papers in Marine Science*, Volume 44, p. 53.

Hanley, T. O. D., 1978. Frazil Nucleation Mechanisms. *Journal of Glaciology*, 21(85), pp. 581-587.

Ito, M. et al., 2015. Observations of supercooled water and frazil ice formation in an Arctic coastal polynya from moorings and satellite imagery. *Annals of Glaciology*, pp. 307-314.

Kadam, S. S., 2012. Monitoring and Characterization of Crystal Nucleation and Growth during Batch Crystallization, s.l.: Delft Technical University.

Kadam, S. S., Kramer, H. J. & ter Horst, J. H., 2011. Combination of a Single Primary Nucleation Event and Single Nucleation in Crystallization Processes. *Crystal Growth and Design*, 11(4), pp. 1271-1277.

Katsaros, K. B. & Timothy Liu, W., 1974. Supercooling at a Free Salt Water Surface in the Laboratory. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, October, pp. 654-658.

Knight, C. A., 1967. *The freezing of supercooled liquids*. London: Modern Book Company.

Kubota, N., 2008. A new interpretation of metastable zone widths measured for unseeded solutions. *Journal of Crystal Growth*, Volume 310, pp. 629-634.

470 Leonard, G. H. et al., 2006. Observations of platelet ice growth and oceanographic
471 conditions during the winter of 2003 in McMurdo Sound, Antarctica. *Journal of Geophysical*
472 *Research*, 111(C04012).

473 Leonard, G. H. et al., 2011. Evolution of supercooling under coastal Antarctic sea ice
474 during winter. *Antarctic Science*, 4(23), pp. 399-409.

475 Lewis, E. & Perkin, R., 1983. Supercooling and Energy Exchange Near the Arctic
476 Ocean Surface. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 88(C12), pp. 7681-7685.

477 Lewis, E. L. & Perkin, R. G., 1985. The Winter Oceanography of McMurdo Sound,
478 Antarctica. In: S. S. Jacobs, ed. *Oceanology of the Antarctic continental shelf*. s.l.:American
479 Geophysical Union, pp. 145-165.

480 Liang, K. et al., 2004. Examination of the Process Scale Dependence of L-Glutamic
481 Acid Batch Crystallized from Supersaturated Aqueous Solutions in Relation to Reactor
482 Hydrodynamics. *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, Volume 43, pp. 1227-1234.

483 McPhee, M. G., Skogseth, R., Nilsen, F. & Smedsrud, L. h., 2013. Creation and tidal
484 advection of a cold salinity front in Storfjorden: 2. Supercooling induced by turbulent mixing
485 of cold water. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, Volume 118, pp. 3737-3751.

486 Mossop, S. C., 1954. The Freezing of Supercooled Water. *Proceedings of the Physical*
487 *Society*, pp. 193-208.

488 Nyvlt, J., 1968. Kinetics of Nucleation in Solutions. *Journal of Crystal Growth*, 3(4),
489 pp. 377-383.

490 Oike, H. et al., 2018. Size effects on supercooling phenomena in strongly correlated
491 electron systems: IrTe₂ and \square -(BEDT-TTF)₂RbZn(SCN)₄. *Physical Review*, 085102(95), pp.
492 1-7.

493 Randall, D., Nathoo, J. & Lewis, A., 2009. *Seeding for Selective Salt Recovery During*
494 *Eutectic Freeze Crystallization*. Pretoria, s.n.

495 Schneck, C., McFarlane, V. & Loewen, M., 2017. Laboratory measurements of frazil
496 ice properties in saline water. Whitehorse, CGU HS Committee on River Ice Processes and the
497 Environment.

498 Shi, J., Cheng, Y., Jiao, Y. & Hou, J., 2011. Supercooled water in austral summer in
499 Prydz Bay, Antarctica. *Chinese Journal of Oceanology and Limnology*, 29(2), pp. 427-437.

500 Skogseth, R., Nilsen, F. & Smedsrud, L. H., 2009. Supercooled waters in an Arctic
501 polynya: observations and modelling. *Journal of Glaciology*, 55(189), pp. 43-52.

502 Smedsrud, L. H., 2001. Frazil-ice entrainment of sediment: large-tank laboratory
503 experiments. *Journal of Glaciology*, 47(158), pp. 461-471.

504 Smith, I. J., Gow, A. J. & Langhorne, P. J., 2002. Laboratory Investigations into Platelet
505 Ice Formation. Dunedin, s.n.

506 Ushio, S. & Wakatsuchi, M., 1993. A Laboratory Study on Supercooling and Frazil Ice
507 Production Processes in Winter Coastal Polynyas. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 98(C11),
508 pp. 20,321-20,328.

509 van der Elsken, J., Dings, J. & Michielsen, J. C. F., 1991. The freezing of supercooled
510 water. *Journal of Molecular Structure*, Issue 250, pp. 245-251.

511 Weeks, W. F. & Ackley, S. F., 1982. The growth, structure and properties of sea ice,
512 Hanover: US Army Cold Regions Research and Engineering Laboratory.

513 Ye, S. Q. & Doering, J., 2004. Simulation of the supercooling process and frazil
514 evolution in turbulent flows. *Canadian Journal of Civil Engineering*, Issue 31, pp. 915-926.

515

