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Temporal changes of inorganic ion deposition in the
 seasonal snow cover for the Austrian Alps (1983 2014)

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13 ABSTRACT

A long-term record of inorganic ion concentrations in wet and dry deposition sampled from snow 14 packs at two high altitude glaciers was used to assess impacts of air pollution on remote sites in 15 16 central Europe. Sampling points were located at Wurtenkees and Goldbergkees near the Sonnblick Observatory (3106m above sea level), a background site for measuring the status of the atmosphere 17 18 in Austria's Eastern Alps. Sampling was carried out every spring at the end of the winter 19 accumulation period in the years 1983 to 2014. Concentrations of major ions (NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, Na⁺ and Cl⁻) were determined using ion chromatography (IC) as well as atomic absorption 20 spectroscopy (AAS) in the earlier years. Concentration of H⁺ was calculated via the measured pH of 21 22 the samples.

23 Trends in deposition and concentration were analysed for all major ions within the period from 1983 24 to 2014 using Kendall's tau rank correlation coefficient. From 1983-2014, total ion concentration 25 declined ~25%, i.e. solutions became ~25% more dilute, indicating reduced acidic atmospheric deposition, even at high altitude in winter snow. SO42- and NO3- concentrations decreased 26 significantly by 70% and 30%, respectively, accompanied by a 54% decrease of H⁺ concentrations. 27 28 Ionic concentrations in snowpack were dominated by H^+ and SO_4^{2-} in the earliest decade measured, whereas they were dominated by Ca^{2+} by the most recent decade. SO_4^{2-} and H⁺-depositions, i.e. 29 30 concentrations multiplied by volume, also showed a significant decrease of more than 50% at both 31 sites. This reflects the successful emission reductions of the precursor gases SO₂ and NO_x. Seasonal 32 values with significantly elevated spring concentrations of NH_{4^+} , $SO_{4^{2-}}$ and H^+ compared to fall snow reflects the beginning of vertical mixing during spring. All other ions do not show any seasonality. 33 34 Source identification of the ions was performed using a principal component analysis (PCA). One

anthropogenic cluster (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺) coming from road traffic or fossil fuel combustion and
animal husbandry, one crustal cluster (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺) originating from local geological input or Saharan
dust events as well as one cluster of unknown origin with episodic character (Na⁺, K⁺ and Cl⁻) was
found.

39

40 KEYWORDS (max. 6)

41 Snow chemistry, ion deposition trends, non-sea-salt concentrations, source regions, seasonality,
42 Austrian Alps

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44 **1.** Introduction

45 Determination of the ionic composition of high alpine snow packs plays an important role in estimating the input of nutrients as well as eutrophic and acidifying components in terrestrial and 46 47 aquatic ecosystems. Atmospheric trace gases as well as aerosol particles are removed from the atmosphere and accumulated in the snow cover via different deposition processes like the removal 48 49 by precipitation (wet deposition) or by direct (dry) deposition. Besides atmospheric precipitation, 50 wind-caused snowdrifts and avalanches play a relevant role for snow accumulation during winter. Schöner et al. (2009) studied the annual course of snow depth for the same glacier fields investigated 51 in this paper. Based on their findings the winter accumulation period can be clearly defined as the 52 period from September to the end of April. Due to spatial and temporal variation of snowfall, the 53 chemical composition of the snow cover is heterogeneous. 54

55 During the winter season the deposited compounds accumulate in the snow cover and will be 56 preserved as long as melting does not occur. If melting occurs, the corresponding percolation of 57 meltwater through the snow cover causes a change in the concentration and distribution of solutes, leading to a washout of ions. This is controlled by various processes such as leaching of solutes from 58 59 snow crystals and grains, meltwater-particulate interactions and microbial activity (Jones, 2001). Additionally, physical and chemical processes further modify the chemical concentration of the snow 60 cover after deposition. Jones (2001) lists potential interactions between the dry snow cover (without 61 62 melting) and the atmosphere, such as dry deposition, volatilization and snow metamorphism, as 63 main processes, which could alter the concentration or could redistribute ions within the snow cover. Volatilization seems to be of minor importance for non-volatile compounds, but dry deposition 64 is a dominant source for elevated concentrations in the snow cover, especially in rural and remote 65 66 areas as the Sonnblick region (Davies et al., 1991). Snow metamorphism seems to be unimportant for absolute ion concentrations within the snow pack, but might lead to losses or gains of ions at specific 67 grain interfaces since solutes can be redistributed and concentrated on the snow grain surfaces or 68 69 boundaries.

For our study region at elevations above 3000 m a.s.l precipitation is almost exclusively solid during 70 71 the accumulation period. Snow stratigraphy from multi-year snow pits at altitudes higher than 3000 72 m a.s.l. show that during this period melt events are rare and restricted to the built up of surface 73 crusts only. Hence, the ionic loads are preserved in the snow cover and the chemical components 74 found in high alpine snow are stored in layers and are released or percolated during the melt period 75 in spring within only a few weeks (Williams and Melack, 1991). As high alpine snow is known to be 76 slightly acidic (Maupetit and Delmas, 1994) snow melt in spring causes an acidifying ionic pulse in 77 melt water and thus for downstream ecosystems. Melt water enriched in inorganic nutrients will also 78 serve as a nutrient supply for microbial communities. The acidification of natural ecosystems 79 observed in the 1980s spawned the idea to investigate the impact and sources of the acidifying 80 compounds incorporated in the snow as well as their neutralizing compounds. Now long-term trends 81 can be deduced.

The investigation of alpine snow chemistry is of major interest since the Alps are a densely populated 82 area, located between highly industrialized countries (Italy, France, Germany and Poland) and the 83 84 Mediterranean region, thus with intense human impact. Nickus et al. (1997) summarized the results 85 for the SNOSP (snow sampling campaign of the ALPTRAC project) study. It covered 17 high-alpine 86 sampling sites of snow chemistry, ranging from the Southwestern French Alps to the Eastern 87 Austrian Alps, investigated twice a year in March and May from 1990 to 1994. All sites showed a slightly acidic snow cover and NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ as well as SO₄²⁻ concentrations were two to three times 88 89 higher in spring snow than in winter snow. This finding can be well explained by the low vertical mixing height during winter and the increasing number of events with vertical atmospheric mixing 90 91 up to 3000 m a.s.l. level in spring (Kuhn et al., 1998). Furthermore, concentrations of most of the ions feature a west to east increase whereas no regional patterns were found for ionic loads. Snow pack 92 studies on glaciers were performed also by other studies, for example in France (Maupetit and 93 94 Delmas, 1994), Italy (Filippa et al., 2010) and the USA (Turk et al., 2001) trying to improve the understanding of the physical and chemical processes responsible for the accumulation of major ions 95 96 in high alpine snow covers. All of these studies covered a maximum time span of four years at the 97 most whereas there are no long-term studies on chemical analysis of high alpine snow packs. One exception is the study from Ingersoll et al. (2008), examining seasonal snow pack chemistry data for 98 99 the Rocky Mountain region covering the period 1993 to 2004. It shows a significant decrease of SO_{4²⁻} 100 concentration and deposition, whereas NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ increased significantly in the Central and 101 Southern Rockies. No trend was observed for the Northern Rockies. Regarding not only high alpine sites, Avila (1996) reported a significant decrease of SO₄²⁻ concentration and deposition from 1983 to 102 103 1994 in precipitation samples collected in the Montsey mountains in NE Spain, as well as a pH increase. A similar study for Austria combining snow and rain samples by Puxbaum et al. (1998) 104 shows also a significant decrease of $SO_{4^{2-}}$ and H⁺ in ion concentration and deposition. Both authors 105 106 explained this decrease as an indication that the reduction of SO_2 emissions has an effect on the SO_4^{2-}

concentration and deposition over NE Spain as well as over Austria. The first 10 years (1983-1993)
of the time series presented in this paper have already been published by Winiwarter et al. (1998).
These authors clearly identified SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ ions as predominantly responsible for acidification,
but they did not provide a statistical analysis to isolate robust temporal trends.

Within this paper, we assess the status and temporal changes of the ionic composition in a high 111 112 alpine snowpack for a multi-decade period using two sampling sites in the Austrian Alps. Due to the elevation of more than 3000m a.s.l. ionic loads observed in the snow cover of the Sonnblick region 113 are regarded as being driven by air of the mid or free troposphere. The unique time series from 1983 114 115 to 2014 is used to investigate trends and seasonal patterns for the accumulation period (autumn, winter and spring) and to determine sources of the ions found in the snow cover. Then the ion 116 concentrations and depositions are compared with emission inventories for Austria and neighboring 117 countries. Finally, we conclude our work with respect to the relevance of findings for high-mountain 118 environment and changes of the status of the atmosphere in the European Alps. 119

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121 **2. Experimental**

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123 2.1 Study area

Samples were collected at two different sites, Goldbergkees (GOK) and Wurtenkees (WUK), both 124 125 located in the Austrian National Park Hohe Tauern in the Eastern Alps (see Figure 1) at an elevation 126 of more than 3000m a.s.l. These sites are distant to any anthropogenic activity and probably among the most remote areas to be found in Central Europe. At GOK samples were taken annually from 127 1987-2014, whereas at WUK sampling started slightly earlier in 1983 and lasted until 2012. The GOK 128 sampling site is close to the meteorological observatory located at the summit Hoher Sonnblick 129 (SBO), which is part of the Global Atmosphere Watch Program (GAW) of the World Meteorological 130 Organization (WMO). Near the WUK sampling site a ski resort opened in 1985. As the sampling site 131 132 was situated clearly outside the skiing region we assume that there is no significant influence on ion concentration and snow depth from the production of artificial snow. Sampling at WUK ceased in 133 2012. Presently sampling is only performed at GOK, utilizing the observatory nearby. 134

The GOK site faces towards southwest underneath a ridge just a short distance north of the alpine main divide, whereas the WUK site is orientated towards west and is located south of the main divide. The different orientation with respect to the Alpine main divide together with the different exposure to sunlight as well as local influences cause spatial distribution of precipitation (Auer and Böhm, 1998) and snow height and therefore also affects ion concentrations and, to a much higher extent, ion depositions.

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- 142 Figure 1: Location of Goldberggruppe in Austria (scale 1:3.000.000), sampling sites Goldbergkees (GOK) and
- 143 Wurtenkees (WUK) in the Eastern Alps (scale 1:50.000) and totalizers (TG 4 and TW 4) used for the calculation of
- 144 seasonal proportions of precipitation.



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147 2.2 Snow sampling and chemical analysis

148 Sampling was performed at the end of the winter accumulation period just prior to the start of the snowmelt, usually at the end of April or beginning of May. A snow pit was dug until the horizon when 149 150 winter accumulation had started was reached (firn or bare ice). Temperature as well as snow density were measured for 20cm depth-layers for verifying potential melting processes in the snow pack and 151 to calculate the volume weighted mean concentration of the layer. Furthermore, the snow layers 152 were stratigraphically described according to the standard snow classification scheme (Fierz et al., 153 2009). For the majority of years (1984-1996 and 1998-2014) sampling was performed using a 154 stainless steel cylinder (10cm long and with 5cm diameter) to collect 10cm increments over the 155 156 whole excavated profile. Note that a 10cm increment could either represent some portion of a single 157 precipitation event or include mixed information of several events, depending on precipitation amount of the respective event and settling of the snow cover. To avoid contamination of the samples 158 gloves and a mask were used during sampling. The samples were stored in polyethylene plastic bags 159 160 and were kept frozen during transport and storage. This kind of sampling was tested and 161 standardized during the ALPTRAC-SNOSP project and is thoroughly described by Schwikowski et al.

- (1997). In 1983 and 1997 the size of the increments was larger (50cm and 40cm, respectively),
 because of the extremely large snow accumulation, and samples were stored in 1 liter plastic bottles.
- 164 In the laboratory samples were taken from the freezer and analysed immediately after thawing.
- 165 Conductivity and pH were determined electrochemically, using a conductivity cell and a glass 166 electrode. Anion (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻) and cation (Na⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) concentrations were 167 determined by ion chromatography using standard procedures and equipment from Dionex and 168 Thermo. Analytical procedures (performed at TU Wien) and equipment changed slightly during the
- 30-year period, but quality assurance was maintained by internal calibration procedures and regular
 participation in laboratory intercomparisons like the GAW Inter-laboratory Comparison Studies
 carried out by the World Data Center for Precipitation Chemistry.
- Limits of detection (LOD) are defined as the threefold standard deviation (3s) of repeated analyses of 172 standard samples with concentrations close to the LOD. Anions and monovalent cations have been 173 174 measured via ion chromatography since the beginning of the time series. Despite small year-to-year variations LODs for Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, Na⁺ and NH₄⁺ can be given as 0.01mg/l for the whole observation 175 period. LODs for SO_{4²⁻} and K⁺ based on 3s are 0.029 mg/l and 0.015 mg/l, respectively, until 1993 176 177 (Winiwarter et al. 1998) and 0.015 and 0.010 mg/l in the following years. Bivalent ions were 178 determined by atomic absorption spectroscopy until 1993, (Winiwarter et al., 1998), later also bivalent cations were measured via ion chromatography, resulting in roughly doubling of the LODs 179 (0.01mg/l). This was accepted to allow the simultaneous measurement of all ions using ion 180 181 chromatography.
- 182 Concentrations lower than the LOD were replaced with values of half of the LOD. For Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻,
 183 Na⁺, NH₄⁺ and Ca²⁺ the number of samples below the LOD is less than 9%, but for K⁺ and Mg²⁺ the
 184 number increases up to 24 and 44%, respectively. Less than 1% of the collected samples were lost
 185 due to missing labels, bag leakage, or other laboratory or field incidents.
- 186

187 2.3 Statistical data treatment

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189 Single layer concentrations are given in µeq/l. Seasonal values are calculated as volume weighted 190 mean concentrations (VWM) in μ eq/l whereas annual values are given as depositions in meq/m² as 191 well. Statistical analyses were performed using the software package R ("The R Project for Statistical Computing"). Temporal trends in ion concentration were calculated using the non-parametric Mann-192 193 Kendall-Trend-Test. A significant temporal trend is defined as having a probability of 95% ($p \le 0.05$) or higher ($p \le 0.01$ or $p \le 0.001$). Correlations were determined with the Spearman's rank correlation 194 coefficient instead of Pearson's correlation coefficient to avoid exaggerated influence of single 195 196 samples above average. Major sources contributing to the ion content were evaluated using a 197 varimax rotated Principal Component Analysis (PCA). To determine whether differences between 198 two time series are significant, the non-parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney-Test was used instead

of the paired t-test because the former does not require normally distributed data and the
assumption of normality is not justified in the used data set. A difference was denoted as significant if
the probability lies at 95% or higher.

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203 2.4 Quality Considerations

According to the rules of electroneutrality the total anion equivalents should equal the total cation equivalents in precipitation samples (Granat, 1972). Hence, the calculation of the ion balance (IB) is a reasonable criterion for the quality of the data, assuming that all major ions as well as the pH (to calculate the H⁺ concentration), are measured. Furthermore, the conductivity balance (CB) can be investigated by comparing the measured conductivity and the conductivity calculated from the ion concentrations and the specific conductivities.

We calculated the IB (Σ anions – Σ cations) and CB (measured – calculated conductivity) for every single sample with all parameters analysed. The analysis of mono- and bivalent cations are missing for the first years from 1983 to 1985 and in 1986 only monovalent cations were measured, thus results refer to the time span from 1987 to 2014. The samples of WUK and GOK are evaluated together (n=1570), since separate analyses give similar results.

Samples affected by the input of mineral dust, e.g. originating from the Sahara which is frequently observed at an alpine site (e.g. Maupetit and Delmas, 1994; Thevenon et al., 2012), will show elevated cationic input, especially Ca^{2+} but also Mg^{2+} , Na^+ and K^+ (Avila and Rodà, 1991). This leads to elevated pH values and an increased influence of HCO_3^- , which is not analysed with the given analytical set-up. Rogora et al. (2004) sets a limit of pH>5.6 to exclude samples from the data set markedly influenced by soil dust. We adopted this approach and present CB and IB for the whole dataset and for the whole data set without samples with pH > 5.6 in Table 1.

We observed a negative IB for 85% of the samples. The CB resulted in higher measured than calculated values for 83% of the samples. For IB as well as CB better agreement is observed when samples obviously influenced by soil dust according to the criterion by Rogora et al. (2004) are excluded.

Nickus et al. (1998), reporting a two year data set (1993 and 1994) of ion concentration and ionic loads in the Eastern Alps, found 90% of their samples within a range of -1 to $\pm 1\mu$ S/cm of the CB and -15 to $\pm 10\mu$ eq/l of the IB. Our 30-year long time series showed higher deviations. 80% of the samples were within the range of -5 to $\pm 15 \mu$ S/cm and $\pm 15 \mu$ eq/l. The highest deviations were found for the time period 2007 to 2014, while for the earlier periods the number of samples complying with the mentioned limits increases to more than 85%.

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Table 1: Slope, intercept and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient of the linear regression for the ion (IB) and
 conductivity balance (CB) for the whole dataset and samples with pH > 5.6 (indicating Sahara dust events)

excluded. The x-coordinate represent the sum of the anions (IB) or the calculated conductivity (CB) and the y-

236 coordinate the sum of the cations (IB) or the measured conductivity	(CB).
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	n	Slope	Intercept	Spearman
IB	1570	1.008	8.25	0.73
IB (pH > 5.6 excluded)	970	0.972	6.88	0.80
CB	1570	0.922	1.58	0.75
CB (pH > 5.6 excluded)	970	0.992	0.80	0.84

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238 According to Miles and Yost (1982) the IB and CB were cross compared graphically and should 239 ideally show a random scatter around the origin of the axes with no patterns. The cross comparison is displayed in Figure 2 where the pattern towards a negative IB is illustrated in more detail. In the 240 241 majority of cases, the negative IB is caused by a deficit of anions (CB positive) and to a lesser extent in an excess of cations (CB negative). If data influenced by special events like soil dust are excluded, 242 the negative IB is reduced, but the pattern of a deficit of anions (CB positive) remains. More details 243 244 can be deduced from the cross comparisons done for three subsequent time periods, all of which 245 spanning approximately a decade (1987 to 1996, 1997 to 2006 and 2007 to 2014). The deficit of anions becomes most visible during the last years (2007 to 2014). This may be due to a change of the 246 ion composition over the time span of almost 30 years (see 3.1), pointing to an increasing 247 importance of anions not included in the analytical setup. Over the whole time period concentrations 248 of bicarbonates and organic acids e.g. HCOO and CH₃COO were not measured but are presumably 249 250 present. The pH-dependent equilibrium concentrations of HCO₃⁻ were not able to explain the 251 difference. For samples in the low pH range not affected by mineral dust, their contribution can be expected to be less than 4µeq/l (Maupetit and Delmas, 1994) - also here reducing, but not 252 253 accounting for the whole difference. In the period from 1997 to 2006 a number of samples scatter along a line, indicating problems related to the determination of H⁺ concentrations (Miles and Yost, 254 1982). Points along the line in the lower left corner feature too high H⁺ concentrations and are 255 mainly from the year 2001. Points along the line in the upper right corner feature too low H⁺ 256 257 concentrations and cannot be assigned to a respective year.

Figure 2: Cross comparison of ion balance and conductivity balance for the whole dataset, samples with pH > 5.6

259 (indicating Sahara dust events) excluded and different time periods for samples with pH > 5.6 excluded.



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Results and discussion 3. 262

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General presentation of data 3.1 264

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266 The upper section of Table 2 presents the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum of the annual VWM ion concentration measured on WUK and GOK over the whole time 267 span (1983 to 2014). The results are in good agreement with previous studies of high alpine snow 268 269 discussed below. For four high altitude glaciers in the French Alps mean values over three years of observation ranging from 0.4 to 6.0µeq/l are reported (Maupetit and Delmas 1994). Nickus et al. 270 (1997) summarize the results of three years sampling on a west to east transect stretching from 271 272 France to Austria and found concentrations ranging from 1.0 to 36.5µeq/l between the sites, showing 273 a west to east increase for almost all ions, whereas ionic loads showed no regional patterns. Generally, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ were the dominant ions, but episodic high concentrations of Ca²⁺ due 274 to mineral dust could exceed those concentrations. They report elevated concentrations of Cl- and 275 276 Na⁺ at the sites in Austria and Italy with mean values of up to 5.6 and $10.2\mu eq/l$, respectively, with a slight increase of these concentrations from west to east. Rogora et al. (2004) investigated the 277 atmospheric deposition chemistry of several sites in the Alps and also found sites in the Eastern Alps, 278

especially Austria, affected by high concentrations of base cations (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺ and Na⁺) and Cl⁻ in
wet precipitation which are mainly attributed to emission sources in Eastern Austria.

281 More recent data are available for the Italian Alps (Filippa et al., 2010) with ion concentrations

- ranging from 0.4 to $8.7\mu eq/l$ with Na⁺ und Cl⁻ showing above average concentrations (3.5 8.7
- μ eq/l), still comparable to concentrations found by Nickus et al. (1997) for the Eastern Alps.
- 284

Table 2: Arithmetic mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum and maximum of the VWM ion concentration of both
 sites GOK and WUK representing the whole accumulation period (Sept. to Apr.) from 1983 to 2014 as well as

287 periods from 1983 to 1996, 1997 to 2006 and 2007 to 2014.

GOK							WI	ЈК	
		Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max
		[µeql/l]							
	SO4 ²⁻	6.67	3.33	2.04	15.07	7.92	4.88	1.62	24.95
	NO ₃ -	7.62	2.26	4.51	13.91	8.02	1.94	3.94	12.12
	Cl-	3.63	2.87	1.34	15.43	4.29	3.44	1.35	14.51
014	H+	6.51	5.06	0.53	26.52	8.06	9.49	0.55	39.48
3 - 2(NH4 ⁺	7.15	2.00	4.06	10.87	6.53	2.94	1.01	15.24
1983	Na+	3.98	3.64	0.54	16.46	3.50	3.35	0.32	14.42
	*K+	1.18	0.89	0.16	3.66	1.19	1.04	0.21	4.81
	*Mg ²⁺	1.04	0.66	0.34	2.39	0.98	0.50	0.24	2.22
	Ca ²⁺	7.11	4.35	1.51	20.45	8.89	10.58	1.06	55.45
	Total Anions	18.33	5.80	8.61	35.33	20.22	7.78	6.91	45.12
	Total Cations	26.30	6.51	14.18	41.30	25.78	11.78	8.22	68.58
	SO4 ²⁻	9.39	2.14	7.24	12.91	11.39	4.74	7.38	24.95
	NO ₃ -	8.60	1.96	6.06	11.82	8.66	1.66	6.21	12.12
	Cl-	2.46	0.86	1.34	4.38	4.43	2.70	1.52	12.29
966	H+	9.98	6.49	2.22	26.52	13.09	12.00	1.42	39.48
- 10	NH4 ⁺	6.78	2.28	4.19	10.87	7.08	3.20	4.32	15.24
6861	Na+	2.10	1.02	0.54	3.75	2.85	1.51	1.19	5.18
ζ,	*K+	0.79	0.59	0.16	1.97	1.00	0.66	0.21	2.32
	*Mg ²⁺	1.58	0.78	0.55	2.39	1.24	0.70	0.39	2.22
	Ca ²⁺	8.07	5.78	2.97	20.45	6.21	2.99	2.59	10.86
	Total Anions	20.45	3.85	16.05	27.28	24.50	7.22	17.64	45.12
	Total Cations	27.24	3.87	20.62	30.72	25.29	1.84	22.62	27.59
	SO4 ²⁻	6.40	3.78	4.09	15.07	5.74	2.49	3.54	12.15
	NO ₃ -	8.73	2.63	6.09	13.91	8.34	1.89	4.16	11.08
	Cl-	4.50	4.23	1.65	15.43	5.13	4.89	2.04	14.51
900	H+	5.26	3.38	0.53	10.34	4.32	2.43	0.89	7.62
- 2(NH4 ⁺	7.11	1.78	4.06	9.51	6.45	2.99	3.45	13.37
1997	Na+	5.21	4.88	1.55	16.46	5.04	5.00	1.14	14.42
	*K+	1.40	1.07	0.28	3.66	1.61	1.51	0.34	4.81
	*Mg ²⁺	0.89	0.43	0.42	1.94	0.93	0.36	0.35	1.29
	Ca ²⁺	5.29	2.42	1.51	10.19	6.78	2.87	1.06	10.30

			ACCE	EPTED I	MANUS	CRIPT			
	Total Anions	19.64	7.21	12.64	35.33	19.21	6.17	13.19	28.98
	Total Cations	25.16	7.82	18.04	41.30	25.13	9.37	13.16	42.14
	SO4 ²⁻	3.73	1.20	2.04	6.00	3.44	1.19	1.62	4.70
	NO ₃ -	6.46	1.28	4.51	8.53	5.97	1.37	3.94	7.62
14	Cl-	5.72	4.31	1.80	15.43	2.55	1.20	1.35	4.61
	H+	3.78	1.15	2.12	5.18	2.54	1.55	0.55	5.10
- 20	NH4 ⁺	7.35	2.13	4.73	10.03	5.65	2.60	1.01	7.67
007	Na+	6.10	4.98	0.86	16.46	2.10	0.99	0.32	2.92
7	*K+	1.64	1.13	0.30	3.66	0.85	0.26	0.56	1.23
	*Mg ²⁺	0.90	0.65	0.34	1.96	0.76	0.36	0.24	1.19
	Ca ²⁺	8.74	4.40	3.69	17.20	15.54	19.87	3.30	55.45
	Total Anions	15.46	5.50	8.61	26.83	14.21	6.75	6.91	27.71
	Total Cations	28.51	8.20	14.18	41.30	28.80	19.57	8.22	68.58

* For K⁺ and Mg²⁺ the number of samples lower than the LOD was 24% and 44%, respectively. Those values were replaced
with half the LOD.

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Triggered by the results of the quality control, indicating a change of the ion composition with time, VWM ion concentrations have been also calculated separately for the periods 1983 to 1996, 1997 to 2006 and 2007 to 2014 (Table 2, lower part). Additionally the ion composition for both sites is plotted in Figure 3 with absolute (left) and relative (right) contributions over the whole time span and for the three periods.

The total ion concentration averaged over both sites decreased from $53.5\mu eq/l$ in the first period to 40.3 $\mu eq/l$ in the latest, mainly due to the significant decrease of SO₄²⁻, NO₃- and H⁺ (see section 3.3), accompanied by a decrease of the measured conductivity, decreasing from $6.3\mu S/cm$ to $4.7\mu S/cm$. The concentration of Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Cl⁻ and NH₄⁺ remained almost constant over time. Ca²⁺ increased during the last period, due to an increase observed only on WUK, but without significance because of the high interannual variability.

302

305

Figure 3: Absolute (left) and relative (right) ion composition of GOK and WUK over the whole time span (1983 to
2014) and over approximately decades from 1983 to 1996, 1997 to 2006 and 2007 to 2014



307 To evaluate regional variability, annual mean concentrations determined at the two sampling sites 308 WUK and GOK were compared. Deviations are calculated for every year, according to the absolute 309 difference of concentrations measured at the two sites divided by the average concentrations. These yearly variabilities were then averaged over the whole time period and are listed as regional 310 variability in Table 3. While variabilities for SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} and NH_4^+ range between 20 and 29%, much 311 312 higher values were obtained for the other ions (41 - 63%). Concentrations of these ions are driven more by episodic inputs like localized storm events or weather patterns and are thus influenced 313 stronger by spatial variations. Smaller variabilities of solutes like SO_{4²⁻} or NO_{3⁻} are probably more 314 regionally influenced by emission reductions. The high variabilities for K^+ and Mg^{2+} might also be 315 influenced due to concentrations close to the detection limits. 316

To evaluate the differences between GOK and WUK results of a previous study are added to Table 3. Schöner et al. (1997) investigated the variability of ion concentrations determined within one pit and between four pits located 300 to 500 m apart, but all situated on GOK. Results agree reasonably well with the variability determined within the long term study conducted at GOK and WUK. Variabilities in the long-term data set are just slightly larger.

A study in Wyoming's Rocky Mountains investigating the local variability among snow pits being several 100 meters apart yields similar variabilities ranging from 9-37% for SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ and 36-61% for Na⁺, K⁺, Cl⁻, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ (Rohrbough et al., 2003).

Overall, it can be concluded that differences between the two sampling sites on neighboring glaciers(WUK and GOK) resemble those observed from different sites of other glaciers.

327

306

Table 3: Regional variability [%] according to the absolute difference of concentrations measured at the two sites
 divided by the average concentrations and coefficients of variation in [%] within one pit on GOK, between four pits
 situated on GOK and among several pits in the Rocky Mountains

	Na+	Cl-	K+	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	SO4 ²⁻	NO ₃ -	$\rm NH_{4^+}$	H+
Regional variability	63	44	56	42	48	22	20	29	41
Variability within one pit	29	9	27	-	-	1	1	4	-
(Schöner et al., 1997)									
Variability for one glacier	50	41	-	56	17	12	15	21	-
(Schöner et al., 1997)									
Rocky Mountains	49	38	61	44	36	14	9	37	43
(Rohrbough et al., 2003)									

331

332 3.2 Seasonal patterns of major ion concentrations

333

Seasonal patterns are investigated by subdividing the snowpack into fall (September to November),
winter (December to February) and spring (March and April). The split of the snow pack was based
on snow depth measurements performed with totalizers nearby each sampling site (compare Figure

1), which allowed the determination of the relative amount of snow deposited within the respective seasons. These relative contributions were assigned to the snow pack and thus a rough categorization of the individual layers to the respective season was possible. The seasonal average concentrations are again computed as liquid water volume weighted mean (VWM) concentrations in µeq/l using the water equivalents determined within the snow pack.

342 The relative ion compositions of the seasonal VWM concentrations for all ions measured are displayed in form of a ternary plot in Figure 4. The analysis of mono- and bivalent cations is missing 343 for the first years from 1983 to 1985 and in 1986 only monovalent cations were measured, thus 344 results refer to the time span from 1987 to 2014. The proportions of the seasonal concentrations 345 displayed sum up to 100%, i.e. 1. In Figure 4 a zoom in of the ternary plot is shown, where the left 346 edge represents a contribution of 20% and the right edge a contribution of 60% for every side of the 347 triangle. Points in the center of the plot, as indicated by the grey dot and the corresponding lines in 348 Figure 4, represent ions showing similar concentrations within the different seasons (fall, winter, 349 spring). The Points in the bottom left corner can be interpreted as ions with high relative spring 350 351 concentrations. Moving to the right, relative winter concentrations increase at the expense of spring 352 values. Analogous, moving to the top, relative fall concentrations increase at the expense of spring 353 values. Possible differences between the seasons were identified with the Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney Test (significance level of 5%) based on annual averages. 354

Concentrations of NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻ and H⁺ were 2.4, 1.8 and 1.4 (respectively) times greater in spring than 355 356 in fall. NO_{3} spring concentrations are 1.6 times higher than fall concentrations, but the difference is not significant (average values for WUK and GOK). H⁺ is highest in winter, reflecting the scavenging 357 of slightly acidic aerosol. In spring the neutralizing input of NH₄⁺ is most pronounced. On WUK NO₃⁻, 358 SO_4^{2-} and H⁺ are shifted slightly to the center of the plot, indicating that the higher Ca^{2+} input 359 observed at this site influences these concentrations as well (Figure 4). These results for seasonality 360 361 slightly vary from findings by Maupetit et al. (1995) who found seasonal patterns for all ions with very low winter concentrations which are increasing in spring. 362

363

Figure 4: Relative ion composition of VWM concentrations for both sampling sites GOK (left) and WUK (right) from
 1987-2014 showing increased spring concentrations especially for NH₄+ and SO₄²⁻.



366

367 The increase of spring concentrations in high alpine snowpacks and precipitation samples has already been discussed (e.g. Filippa et al., 2010; Maupetit et al., 1995; Nickus et al., 1998) and seems 368 related to an increasing influence of boundary layer air due to increasing vertical mixing (Kuhn et al., 369 1998). The conditions of enhanced vertical mixing during spring at SBO have already been shown by 370 aerosol measurements (Kasper and Puxbaum, 1998). NH₄+ displays the most pronounced seasonal 371 variation, which is interpreted as a result of the beginning of the application of fertilizers on 372 373 agricultural areas in spring. Hence, the extension of the boundary layer appears to be a controlling 374 factor of the precipitation quality in high alpine regions. In consequence, winter precipitation is of special interest as representing the most pristine air available over central Europe. 375

- 376 Furthermore episodic events (e.g. fronts or thermal convection) can transport polluted boundary layer air up to 3km a.s.l., causing elevated levels of ionic loads. A typical episodic event is the 377 occurrence of Saharan dust, providing a high cationic (especially Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ but also K⁺ and Na⁺) 378 379 and alkaline input (Avila and Rodà, 1991). The transport of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ to high elevation sites is 380 supposed to be also of episodic character, originating either from sea salt or anthropogenic HCl emissions coming from neighboring countries (Möller, 1990). Consequently, ions of episodic 381 382 character like Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ cluster in the center of the ternary plots, having no 383 seasonality.
- If the seasonal patterns are investigated on basis of the deposition data, a shift toward the season with the highest snow accumulation is obtained, compensating the influence of thermal convection on the ion concentrations. On GOK highest snow depth occurred during winter, shifting the seasonal pattern toward winter whereas on WUK highest snow depth were observed during fall, shifting the pattern toward fall. Mean snow accumulation measurements from both sites for the 30 year period from 1961 to 1990 are reported by Auer and Böhm (1998). Mean values for the period from 1982 to 2012 show a similar behavior of snow accumulation.

391

392 3.3 Temporal trend analysis

393

394 Temporal trends were identified based on ion concentration and deposition data, using the Mann-395 Kendall-Test. Trends are expressed as Kendall's tau and were regarded as significant if the two-sided p-value is below 5%. A significant negative trend for the deposition in the accumulation period (Sept. 396 to Apr.) was found for $SO_{4^{2-}}$ and H⁺ (see Table 4). The $SO_{4^{2-}}$ deposition, averaged over both glaciers, 397 decreased from $17.4\mu eq/m^2$ to $6.6\mu eq/m^2$ and the H⁺ deposition decreased from $16.2\mu eq/m^2$ to 398 399 4.6μ eq/m² representing a reduction of about 62% and 71%, respectively. The decline in H⁺, which corresponds to an increase in pH, is supposed to be achieved through the reduction of the acidifying 400 ion $SO_{4^{2-}}$. The most pronounced decrease in $SO_{4^{2-}}$ -deposition was before 2008. The latter years 401 showed no significant further decrease. Significant negative trends for SO₄^{2,} and H⁺ were also 402 identified on the seasonal scale (see Table 4). When looking at concentrations (VWM for the whole 403 period, Sept-Apr), temporal decreasing trends were identified not only for SO₄²⁻ (GOK: Kendall's 404 405 tau=-0.646, 2-sided p-value<0.001; WUK: Kendall's tau=-0.628, 2-sided p-value<0.001) and H⁺ (GOK: Kendall's tau=-0.411, 2-sided p-value<0.01; WUK: Kendall's tau=-0.569, 2-sided p-value<0.001), but 406 407 also for NO_{3⁻} (GOK: Kendall's tau=-0.299, 2-sided p-value<0.05; WUK: Kendall's tau=-0.278, 2-sided p-value<0.05). The high variability in the precipitation amount seems to mask the decreasing trend 408 in NO_{3⁻} concentration, when deposition data are considered. Likewise, the significance level for the 409 decrease of SO₄²⁻ and H⁺ is higher when VWM concentrations are used instead of deposition data. 410

411

Table 4: Temporal trends of ion deposition in [meq/m²] performed with the Mann-Kendall test. Total=Sept. to Apr.,
 Fall=Sept. to Nov., Winter=Dec. to Feb., Spring=Mar. and Apr. Deposition values represent averages over all

414 observed years.

			GOK			WUK	
		Deposition	Kendall's tau	2-sided	Deposition	Kendall´s tau	2-sided
		meq/m ²	\sum	p-value	meq/m ²		p-value
		C	Y				
SO4 ²⁻	Total	10.56	-0.460	< 0.001	9.34	-0.594	< 0.001
	Fall	2.18	-0.321	< 0.05	3.54	-0.404	< 0.01
	Winter	4.30	-0.400	< 0.05	2.35	-0.433	< 0.01
	Spring	3.86	-0.481	< 0.001	3.26	-0.487	< 0.001
NO ₃ -	Total	12.87	n.s.	-	11.25	n.s.	-
	Fall	2.79	n.s.	-	4.02	n.s.	-
	Winter	5.62	n.s.	-	3.84	n.s.	-
	Spring	4.32	n.s.	-	3.31	n.s.	-
$NH_{4^{+}}$	Total	11.40	n.s.	-	9.27	n.s.	-
	Fall	2.30	n.s.	-	3.14	n.s.	-
	Winter	3.83	n.s.	-	2.21	n.s.	-

			ACCEP	TED MANU	JSCRIPT		
	Spring	4.88	n.s.	-	3.56	n.s.	-
H+	Total	9.86	-0.328	< 0.05	8.40	-0.434	< 0.01
	Fall	2.15	n.s.	-	2.86	-0.317	< 0.05
	Winter	5.21	-0.339	< 0.01	3.16	-0.277	< 0.05
	Spring	2.60	-0.407	< 0.01	2.47	-0.380	< 0.01

415

The reduction of SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ reflects emission reductions of the precursor gases SO₂ and NO_x. 416 417 Boxplots for SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentrations in the snow (data for all 10cm increments of each 418 years's snow cover) are displayed together with depositions during the entire accumulation period 419 and with emissions of the precursor gases (SO_2 , NO_x and NH_3) in Figure 5. The whiskers extend to the most extreme values measured within each year data point, which is no more than 1.5 times the 420 421 interquartile range (IQR) from the box. Emissions of precursors are taken from official national 422 reports CEIP, the EMEP Centre on Emission Inventories and Projections to 423 (http://www.ceip.at/ms/ceip_home1/ceip_home/webdab_emepdatabase/), from Austria, Germany, 424 Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, Slovakia, Slovenia, Switzerland, Croatia, France and Poland 425 (according to Winiwarter et al., 1998). We assume these countries to be relevant for affecting the atmosphere in the Austrian Alps and hence provide the sum of their respective emissions here. 426

427 The significant decrease is much more pronounced in emission data than in the ion concentration or 428 deposition of high alpine snow. SO_2 emissions decreased by a factor of 12 from 1987 to 2013, whereas SO₄²⁺ deposition and concentration decreased only by a factor of 3. NO_x emissions decreased 429 by a factor of 2, NO_3 concentrations decreased by a factor of 1.5 whereas NO_3 deposition did not 430 431 show a significant decrease at all. NH_3 emissions were reduced by a factor of 1.5 whereas no 432 significant decrease was observed neither in the NH_{4^+} deposition or concentration. Obviously only 433 the large decrease of sulfur emissions by a factor of more than 10 can be identified in the snow pack. 434 We attribute this to the complex chemical and physical transport and transformation processes occurring in the atmosphere. The major share of sulfur species will be deposited by dry or wet 435 deposition (below cloud scavenging) before reaching the 3 km level. Also time series of particulate 436 437 SO_{4²⁻} and SO₂ measured by the Swiss National Air Pollution Monitoring Network (NABEL) on the 438 Jungfraujoch (JFJ) and wet deposited $SO_{4^{2-}}$ measured at Payerne show an attenuated decrease by a 439 factor of only 3-4 with respect to emission data (Ballaman et al., 2004; Steinbacher and Hüglin, 2007), similar to the results presented in this paper. Furthermore differences in the countries 440 considered for emissions and source regions actually effective for transport to the Sonnblick region 441 442 might exist and lead to biases when emission data and actual deposition are compared.

443

Figure 5: Boxplots represent concentrations of all 10cm increments taken within one annual snow pack of SO_{4²},
NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ in μeq/l on GOK (1987-2012, left) and WUK (1983-2012, right). Whiskers extend to the most
extreme values measured within one pit, which is no more than 1.5*IQR (inter quantile range) range from the box.

- 447 Number of outliers within the 1.5*IQR and within the 3*IQR are given in the top right corner of the respective
- 448 graph. Deposition in meq/m² are marked with *.
- 449 Emission (gray shaded area): Sum of emissions from Austria and nearby countries Germany, Czech Republic,
- 450 Hungary, Italy, Slovakia, Slovenia, Switzerland, Croatia, France and Poland (compare Winiwarter et al., 1998)





455

To identify different sources contributing to the ion composition of high alpine snow, a Principal
Component Analysis (PCA) with VARIMAX rotation and calculations of non-sea-salt (nss) proportions
were performed.

459

460 **3.4.1 PCA**

For interpreting high alpine snow pack chemistry data, PCA was previously used to identify possible source regions of the deposited atmospheric impurities (e.g. Maupetit and Delmas, 1994). It is assumed that every principal component (PC) accounts for a different source of origin and that these sources are uncorrelated because of the orthogonality of the PCs. However, the classification of the ions into different sources has to be interpreted with caution since atmospheric chemistry is very complex and single ions might have more than one source. The PCs represent the most dominant but not the only sources for the particular ions.

In this study we applied a VARIMAX rotated PCA which reduces the nine possibly interrelated ions 468 (NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, Na⁺, Cl⁻ and H⁺) to three independent PCs which explain 75% of the 469 470 total variance (see Table 5). Results are based on 10cm increments where all ions were analysed and 471 to a time span from 1987 to 2014 only (WUK n= 745 observations, GOK n= 885 observations) 472 because the analysis of mono- and bivalent cations is missing for the first years from 1983 to 1985 473 and in 1986 only monovalent cations were measured. Ideally, each 10cm increment represents a specific precipitation event. In practice, two categories of deviations from this ideal situation will 474 happen. Certain events will yield more than 10 cm of snow; other events yield less precipitation and 475 fill only part of a 10 cm snow sample. This "smearing" of individual samples may render it difficult to 476 obtain the signal of less frequent components. But the more important components will still be 477 accessible. As can be seen in Table 5 the results for WUK and GOK are almost identical, so the 478 479 following interpretations are valid for both sites.

480

481 Table 5: Varimax rotated PCA factor loadings and percentage of the total explained variance for the measured

482	chemical species on the two	sampling site	WIIK (n=725 observation	s) and GOK (n=845	observations)
702	circuitat soccies on the two	, sampning site.	$\gamma \gamma \sigma \sigma \gamma \sigma \sigma$	31 and 000 n=073	ubsci vationsi

	PC1		PC	PC2		23
	WUK	GOK	WUK	GOK	WUK	GOK
K+	0.93	0.92	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.13
Na+	0.96	0.96	0.03	0.03	0.08	0.09
Cl-	0.97	0.94	0.05	0.08	0.07	0.11
SO4 ²⁻	0.16	0.13	0.86	0.83	0.04	0.24
NO ₃ -	0.00	0.08	0.85	0.89	-0.02	0.05
$\rm NH_{4^+}$	-0.06	0.07	0.76	0.76	0.21	0.25
Ca ²⁺	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.01	0.78	0.87
Mg^{2+}	0.23	0.18	0.32	0.18	0.56	0.78
H+	0.09	-0.11	0.59	0.72	-0.57	-0.32

			ACCEPT	ED MAN	JUSCRIF	Т	
Variance [%]	31	30	28	29	15	18	

484 PC1 is loaded with K⁺, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ and covers 30 to 31% of the total variance. PC2 accounts for 28 to 29% of the total variance and is loaded with SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and H⁺. PC3 is loaded with Ca²⁺ and 485 Mg^{2+} and covers 15 to 18 % of the total variance. Obviously there is hardly any difference between 486 PC1 and PC2 regarding the coverage of the total variance, while PC3 is of less importance for the 487 variance in the data. Maupetit and Delmas (1994) who found the same ions loaded in the three 488 489 different factors, named the factors sea-salt factor (K⁺, Na⁺ and Cl⁻), acid factor (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and 490 H^+) and *dust factor* (Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺). The dust factor is negatively loaded with H^+ , indicating the 491 neutralizing effect of carbonated dust particles (Avila and Rodà, 1991; Psenner, 1999). This pattern is 492 more noticeable on WUK which is in agreement with the stronger influence of dust deposits already 493 discussed before. The load of Mg²⁺ in PC1 and PC2 might be influenced by samples below the detection limit. However, this effect and the load of NH₄⁺ in PC3 are also observed by Maupetit and 494 495 Delmas (1994).

496

483

497 **3.4.2 Discussion of the PCA factors**

As Austria is located in Central Europe, surrounded by highly industrialized countries, domination of anthropogenic induced ions, like the ones loaded in the acid factor, could be expected. This brings up the assumption of non-maritime sources also for ions loaded in PC1, hitherto the maritime factor. It is also known, that the contribution of sea-salt aerosols to particulate matter at SBO is very low (Pio et al 2007).

503 Non-sea-salt (nss) proportions of ions were calculated from ion concentrations of the 10cm increments where all ions were measured within the period from 1987 to 2014 on WUK and GOK 504 (n=1629 observations). These nss proportions were used to determine whether the ions loaded in 505 506 PC1 (Cl-, Na⁺ and K⁺) are of maritime origin and to determine to which amount ions loaded in other 507 PCs, like SO₄²⁻, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ are of maritime origin. Previous studies from Schwikowski et al. (1999, 508 1995) investigated anthropogenic and natural sources of atmospheric $SO_{4^{2}}$, based on two ice cores 509 drilled on Colle Gnifetti (Monte Rosa massif, Swiss Alps) covering the time period from 1756-1982. 510 They found that in the industrial period (1963-1982) SO_4^{2-} originates from sea-spray (2%), mineral dust (13%) and from the oxidation of SO₂ (85%). The anthropogenic source of SO_{4²⁻} was estimated to 511 contribute 79% of the total SO₄²⁻, thus being most dominant. Another study of Schwikowski et al. 512 (1995) claims that Mg²⁺ originates not only from mineral dust but also from sea-spray (14%), 513 514 whereas Na⁺ originates equally from soil erosion and sea-spray.

According to Möller (1990) the nss-proportions, or excess component sources, of the single ions can be computed using either Na⁺ or Cl⁻ as the seawater reference species, assuming that all Na⁺ or Cl⁻ in the snow cover originates from sea salt. The Cl⁻/Na⁺ ratio of the snow samples averages at 1.5 and is lower than the ratio of 1.8 listed for surface sea water (Pilson, 2013). This excess of Na⁺ either points

519 to a depletion of Cl⁻ due to the presence of protons or to an additional source for Na⁺, such as mineral 520 dust (Möller, 1990). If Sahara dust events (defined over a pH>5.6 according to Rogora et al., 2004) 521 are excluded from the data set the Cl-/Na+ ration of the snow samples slightly increases to 1.6. If all 522 samples with Ca^{2+} concentrations of more than $20\mu eq/l$, $6\mu eq/l$ or $3\mu eq/l$ are excluded (compare Maupetit and Delmas, 1994) the Cl-/Na+ ration values at 1.5, 1.6 or even 1.9, getting closer to the sea 523 524 water ratio of 1.8. Thus, it seems, as mineral dust is an additional source for Na⁺. Cl⁻ can also be 525 volatized as HCl by strong acids (HNO₃ or H_2SO_4) (Möller, 1990) and thus may not be fully conserved. However, as Maupetit and Delmas (1994) concluded that the volatilization of Cl- has only little 526 influence on the high alpine environment and the influence of crustal Na⁺ is clearly visible the 527 calculation of nss-concentrations were based on Cl⁻ concentrations. 528

529 Concentrations of the major constituents in surface sea water were derived from Pilson (2013) and 530 ratios of the single ions to Cl⁻ (R_{sea}) are presented in Table 6 together with the nss-proportions.

531 For single cases, the nss concentration may turn negative if the respective ion concentration is lower

than the product of R_{sea} with the Cl⁻ concentration. Nss concentrations presented in Table 6 refer only

to differences greater than 0 (Δ >0), which is true for at least 94% of all observations ($n_{\Delta>0}$ =1326).

534

535 Table 6: Sea water ratio (Rsea) and nss-proportions assuming that all Cl- in the snow cover originates from sea salt.

	R _{sea}	[µeq/l]	[%]	n
				$\Delta \!\!>\!\! 0$
nss Cl-	1	Y -	-	-
nss Na+	0.557	1.67	44	1104
nss SO42-	0.140	5.75	86	1309
nss K+	0.021	1.09	88	1320
nss Ca2+	0.021	7.73	96	1324
nss Mg ²⁺	0.007	0.97	95	1326

536

As expected the vast majority of Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ concentrations are not of maritime origin and the PC3 can be interpreted as *mineral dust factor*. Schwikowski et al. (1995) denote these ions together with K⁺ as dust tracers, coming mainly from Saharan dust or local soil abrasion. Here the majority of K⁺ (88%) determined in the snow samples can be attributed to nss-origin as well. Still K⁺ is associated with PC1 and not with PC3. The same phenomenon, K⁺ loading in the assumed sea salt factor and being 86% of nss-origin, was already described by Maupetit and Delmas (1994) and interpreted as reflecting a simultaneous deposition effect rather than a common source.

In contrast to Schwikowski et al. (1995) we cannot conclude that K⁺, originates at least in parts from Sahara dust or soil abrasion because we cannot find these ions loaded in the dust factor (PC3). It is well known that K⁺ can be also used as a tracer for the combustion of biomass (Cachier et al., 1991; Pio et al., 2008). The impact of wood combustion to particulate matter at Sonnblick is evident during all seasons (Puxbaum et al., 2007). However, concentration ratios of both Na⁺ and Cl⁻ to K⁺ in the

snow pack are much higher than can be expected for aerosols originating from wood combustion
(Pio et al., 2008; Reid et al., 2005; Schmidl et al., 2011). Thus, PC1 cannot be labeled as 'wood
burning' factor, and the open question to common sources or deposition effects remains. Hence, PC1
will be labeled as *factor of unknown origin* or *unknown factor* from now on.

553 SO₄²⁻ was found to be to 88% of nss origin, resulting in a higher sea salt contribution than findings 554 from other studies in the Alps (Schwikowski et al., 1999;Maupetit and Delmas, 1994) which denote a 555 sea salt contribution of only 2% and 5%, respectively. Still if at least part of Cl⁻ is also available from 556 other sources like combustion processes this share would go further down.

557

558 4. Summary and Conclusions

559

For the investigation of temporal changes of inorganic ion concentration and deposition in a high alpine seasonal snow cover, a unique time series of more than 30 years (1983 to 2014) of snow chemistry measurements, sampled at two glaciers, Goldbergkees (GOK) and Wurtenkees (WUK) in the Austrian Alps, was analysed. Observed ion concentrations at both sites show that the Sonnblick region and average values are in the range of previous studies of high alpine snow chemistry.

565 The multi-decade measurements of high alpine inorganic snow chemistry give clear evidence that the composition of the inorganic ions has significantly changed. A decrease of more than 10% in total ion 566 567 concentration and of more than 35% in measured conductivity was observed, mainly due to a 70% and 30% decrease of the acidifying anions $SO_{4^{2-}}$ and $NO_{3^{-}}$ and a more than 54% decrease of the 568 accompanying H⁺. By cross-comparing the ion (Σ anions- Σ cations) and conductivity balance 569 (measured – calculated conductivity) a deficit of anions was found for more than 80% of the samples. 570 571 This pattern becomes most pronounced for the last decade (2007 to 2014) and can only partly be 572 explained with the lack of measurements of bicarbonates and organic acids.

573 Regarding the time period 1983 to 2014 significant decreasing trends were found for SO_4^{2-} and H⁺ 574 concentrations and depositions (2-sided p value <0.001). Also for seasonal totals (fall, winter, spring) these ions showed significant decreasing trends (2-sided p value <0.05). In case of NO_{3} only 575 concentrations showed a significant decreasing trend (2-sided p-value<0.05), but not for seasonal 576 totals. Concentrations and depositions of all other ions did not show any significant long term trends. 577 The temporal decreasing trends identified for the acidifying anions SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} reflect the 578 successful emission reductions of SO₂ and NO_x in Europe from 1980 onwards. These changes are 579 580 particularly relevant for high-elevation sites such as the European Alps with their fragile ecosystems 581 which are close to limit for survival. Observed trends are more pronounced in the emission data than in the deposition or concentration data. Obviously, complex chemical and physical transport and 582 583 transformation processes occurring in the atmosphere dampen the trends observed in the snow 584 cover.

Winter precipitation at such remote areas like our sampling sites represents the most pristine air over central Europe. Seasonality of ion concentrations was observed for NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻ and H⁺, with significantly higher spring concentrations compared to fall reflecting the beginning of vertical mixing during spring. The increase in spring concentrations is most pronounced for NH₄⁺, due to agricultural activities. Also for NO₃⁻, an increase in spring concentrations was found, but without significance. All other basic cations and Cl⁻ did not show any seasonality. The seasonality changes when looking at depositions, shifting the pattern towards the season with the highest snow accumulation.

Different sources or source regions contributing to the ionic composition in the snow were 592 593 investigated using principal component analysis (PCA). Three uncorrelated principal components 594 (PCs) were identified. One PC is associated with SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, H⁺ and NH₄⁺, mainly originating from anthropogenic SO₂ and NO_x emissions, released during industrial fossil fuel combustion, agriculture 595 and animal husbandry. The close correlation of SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ with NH₄⁺ suggests that they were 596 mainly deposited as ammonium sulfate ((NH₄)₂SO₄) and ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃) formed by gas-597 to-particle conversion of the dissolved acids (H₂SO₄ and HNO₃) of the specific precursor gases SO₂ 598 599 and NO_x . Another PC is associated with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , indicating a mineral soil or dust source. The 600 third PC is associated with Na⁺, Cl⁻ and K⁺. Sources for ions related to this PC remain undefined. 601 Calculation of non-sea-salt concentrations based on Cl- indicates some contribution of Na⁺ from 602 crustal material and mostly non-sea-salt origin for K⁺. Biomass burning as main source for the third PC was rejected, as the concentration ratios of both Na⁺ and Cl⁻ to K⁺ are too high. Probably these ions 603 604 are grouped within one PC mainly because of similar behavior in terms of reactivity in the atmosphere and deposition, rather than originating from the same source. 605

Our multi-decade time series allows a representation of the temporal development of atmospheric deposition in an unprecedented way. Decreases in ionic loads of SO_4^{2-} and H⁺, but also of NO_3^{-} concentrations reflect the success of air pollution abatement measures, but also of political changes in the source regions – which cover large parts of central Europe. The fact that emission reductions have been much stronger than impact reduction seems to derive from a general buffering capacity of the natural environment. Further and continuous effort will thus be needed to decrease anthropogenic impacts in a remote alpine environment close to natural levels.

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HIGHLIGHTS (3-5 bullet points, max. 85 characters)

- $SO_{4^{2-}}$, $NO_{3^{-}}$ and H^{+} in high alpine snow decrease over 30 years of observations
- Decrease in concentrations and depositions are lower than decrease in emissions
- Seasonal patterns show maximum concentrations during spring for NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻ and H⁺
- Anthropogenic and crustal influence are the main sources for measured ions