

GEOS 22060/ GEOS 32060 / ASTR 45900

What makes a planet habitable?

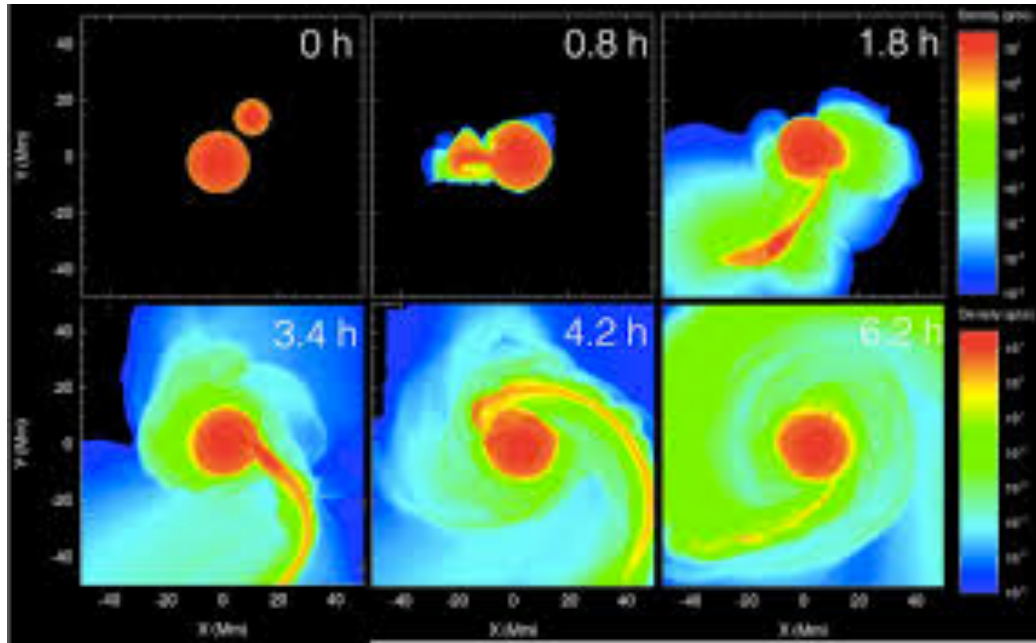
Lecture 9

Thursday 26 April 2018

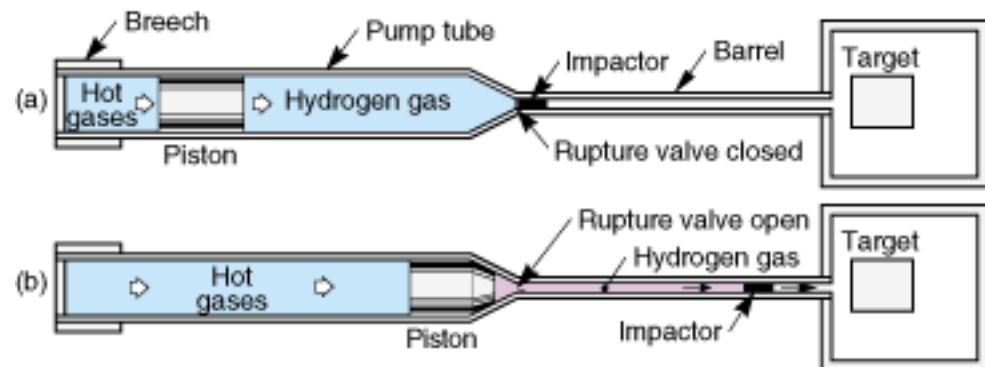
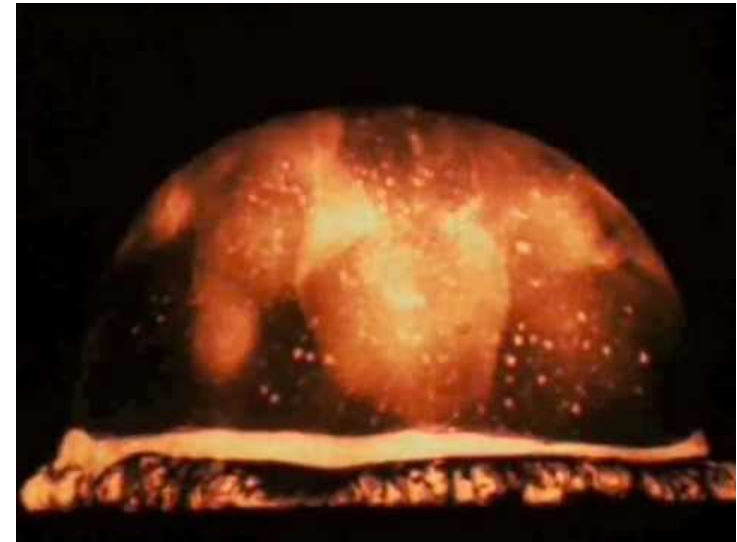
Today

- Reminder: Graduate students + undergraduates who choose the term paper option: Send term paper topics to kite@uchicago.edu before end Fri 27 for approval. Term papers due in at the start of the final (10:30a-12:30p , Thu 7 June , HGS 180)
- **Seeking volunteers for Yang et al. 2013 ‘Stabilizing cloud feedback dramatically expands the habitable zone of tidally locked planets’ (to be presented on Tue 8 May)**
- Homework 3 is due in class Tue 1 May
- Office hours after class today
- Wrap-up of impact erosion
- **Runaway greenhouse**

Wrap-up: impact erosion



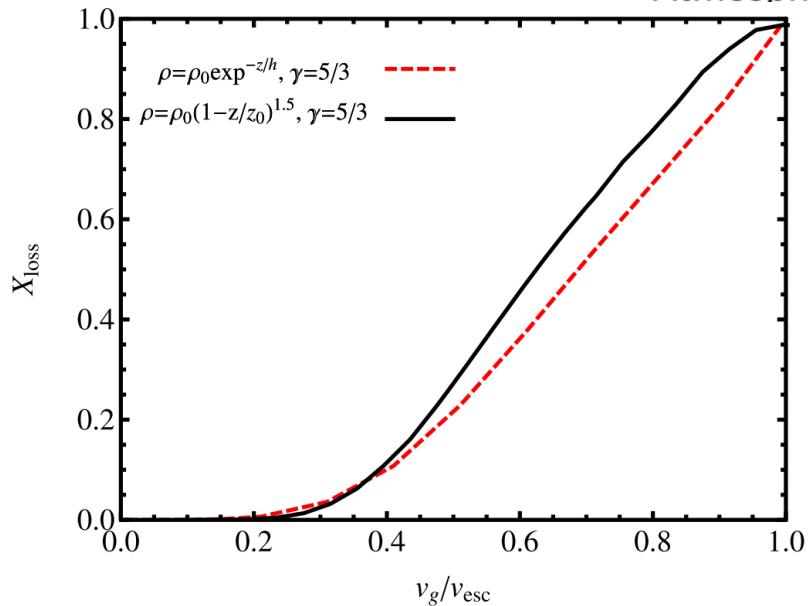
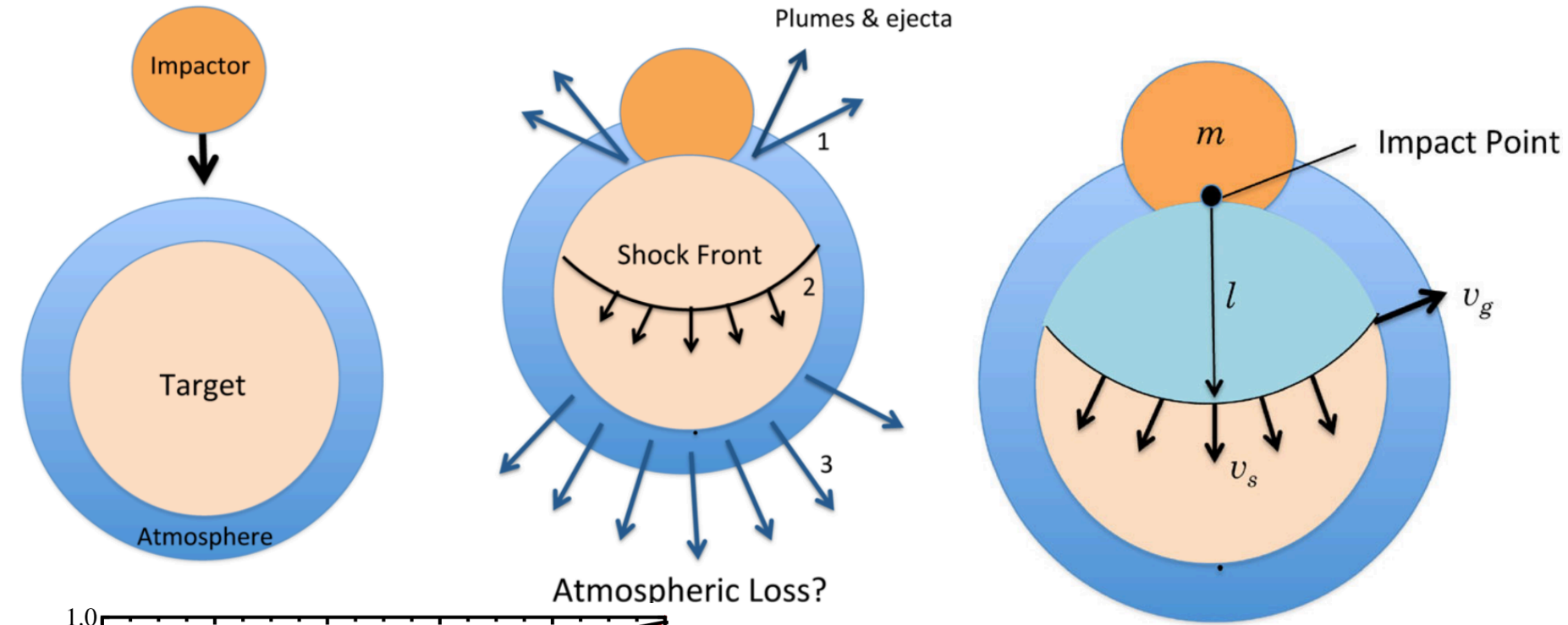
Hydrocode



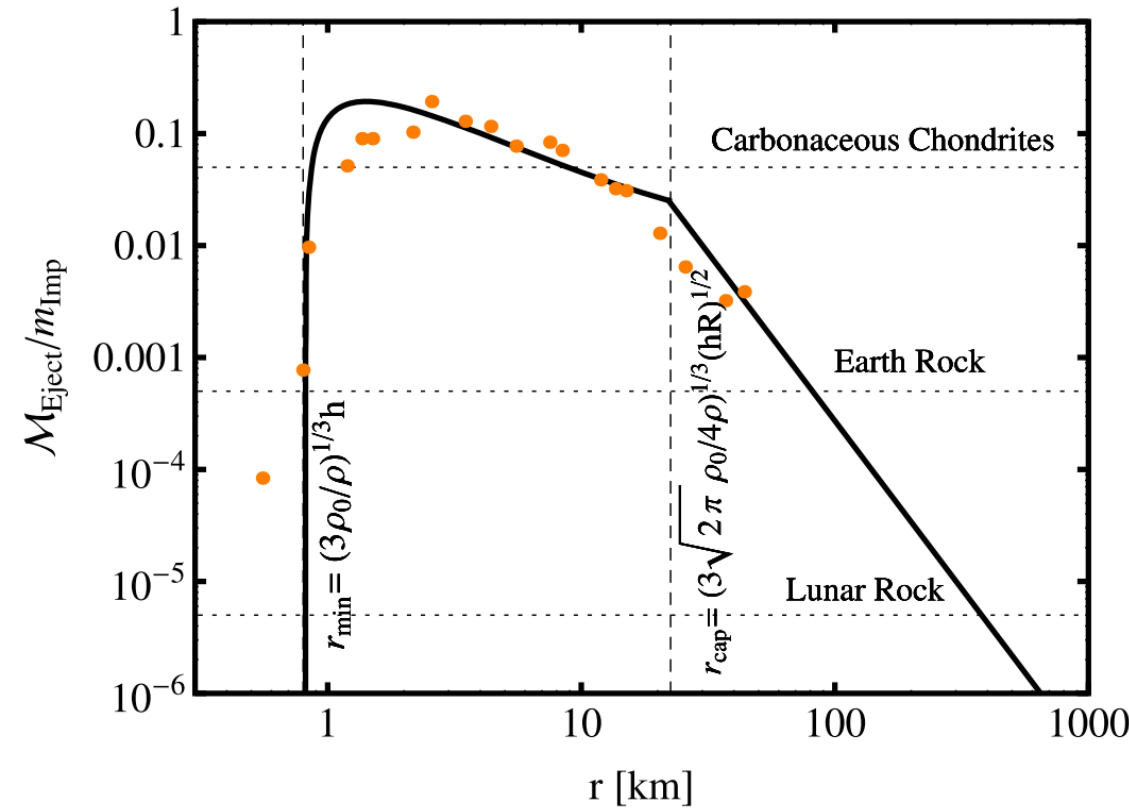
(a) In the first stage of the gas gun (blue shading), hot-burning gases from gunpowder drive a piston, which in turn compresses hydrogen gas. (b) In the second stage (pink shading), the high-pressure gas eventually ruptures a second-stage valve, accelerating the impactor down the barrel toward its target.

Two-stage gas gun

The atmosphere-loss escape efficiency of giant impacts is set by the ground-motion speed



Impacts by small asteroids/comets efficiently eject ~1 bar atmospheres

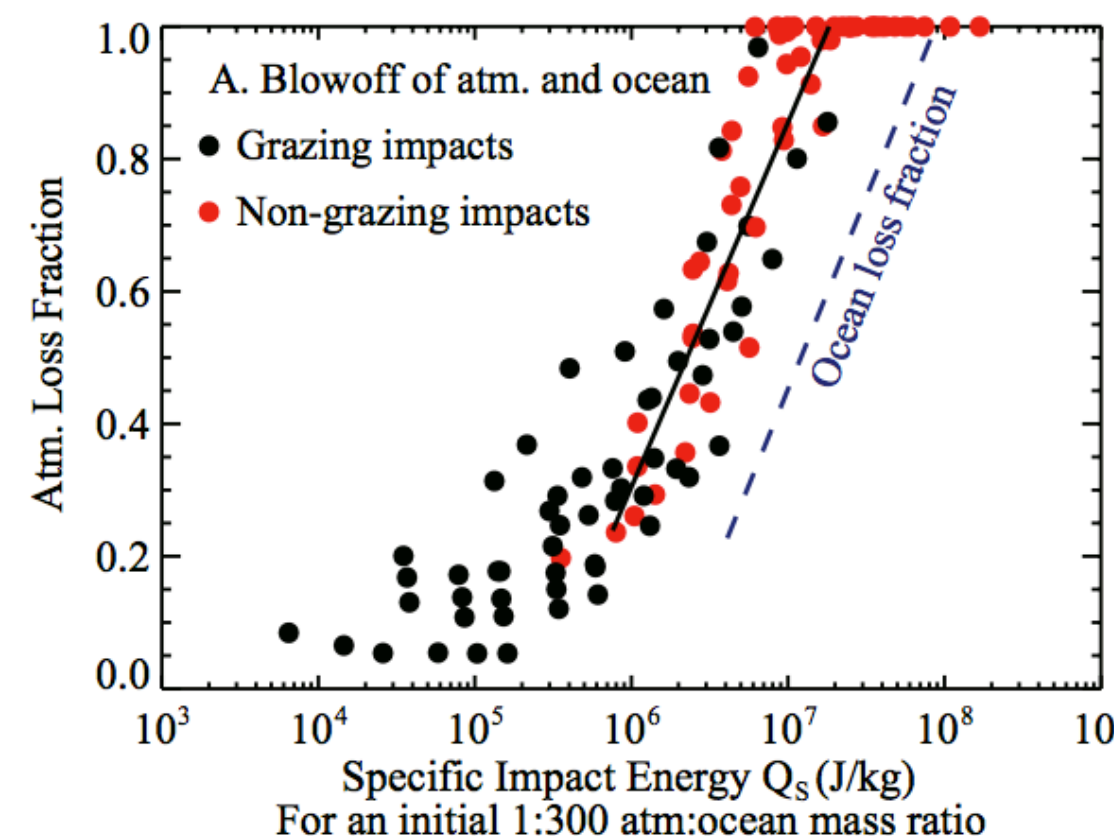


The peak would move to larger r if the initial atmospheric pressure were greater

Fig. 9 Ratio of atmospheric mass ejected to impactor mass, $\mathcal{M}_{\text{Eject}}/m_{\text{Imp}}$. Numerical values are scaled to the current Earth's atmosphere and shown for $v_{\text{imp}}\eta/v_{\text{esc}} \sim 1$. Small impactors with $r_* = \sqrt{3}r_{\text{min}}$ are the most efficient impactors per unit mass in ejecting the atmosphere and the ejection efficiency decreases rapidly for larger planetesimals. Whether or not planetesimal impacts will lead to a net loss of planetary atmospheres depends on the impactor sizes distribution, their volatile budget and the amount of outgassing their impacts can initiate. The *three dotted horizontal lines* correspond to volatile contents of 5 wt.% (representative of some of the most water rich carbonaceous chondrites), 0.05 wt.% (representative of the average water content in the bulk Earth excluding the hydrosphere) and 0.0005 wt.% corresponding to an estimate of the minimum water content of the bulk moon (McCubbin et al. 2010). For comparison, data from oblique impact simulations for escape velocities of 11.2 km/s and impact velocities of 30 km/s from Shuvalov (2009) are shown by the orange points. Figure after Schlichting et al. (2015)

Ocean removal by giant impacts?

(Ocean vaporization is not sufficient for ocean removal)



Stewart et al. LPSC 2014

Simulations suggest that the Moon-forming impact was marginally able to remove any pre-existing Earth ocean

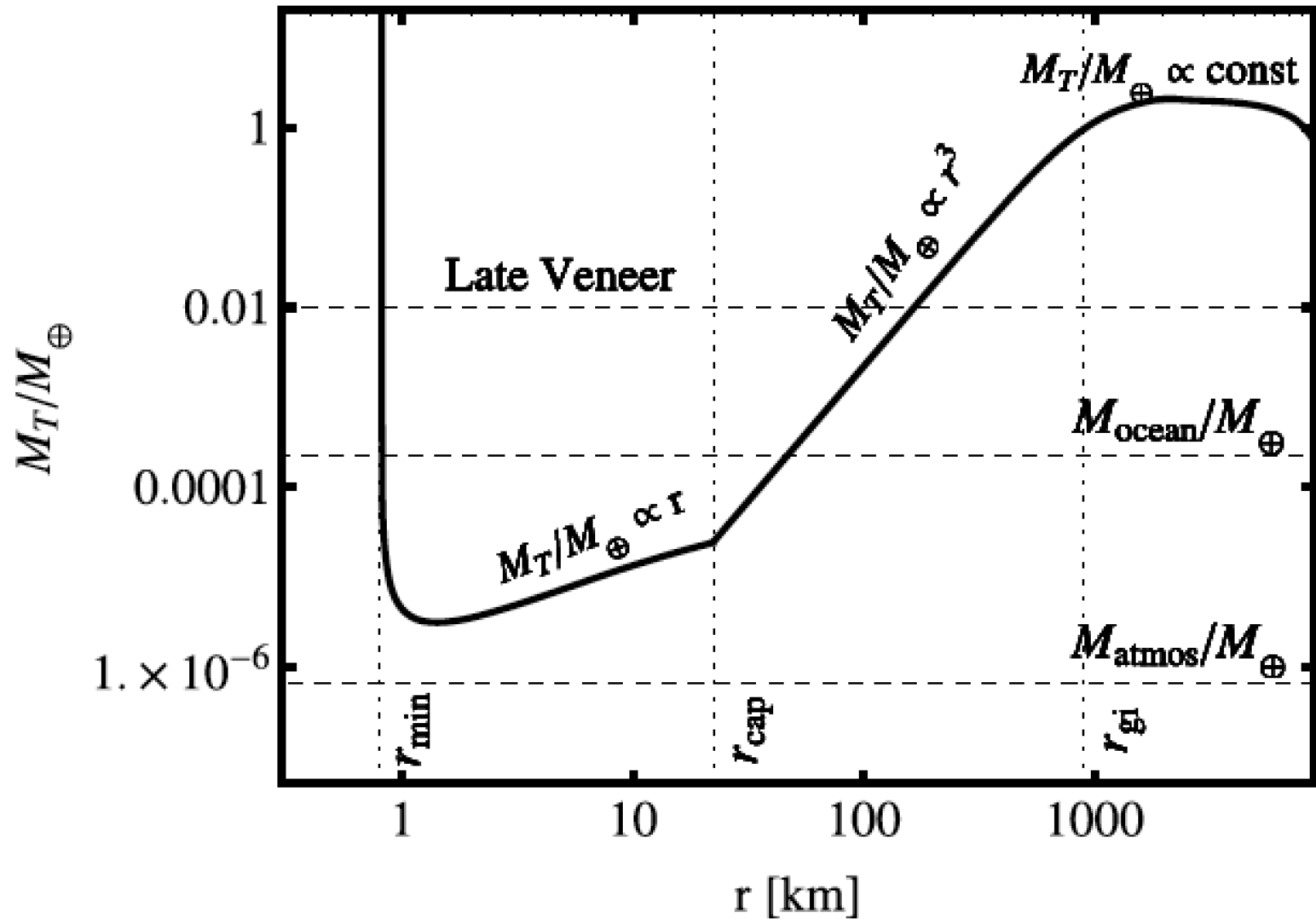
$Q_s \sim v_e^2$ for oligarchic impact

$$v_e = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}}$$

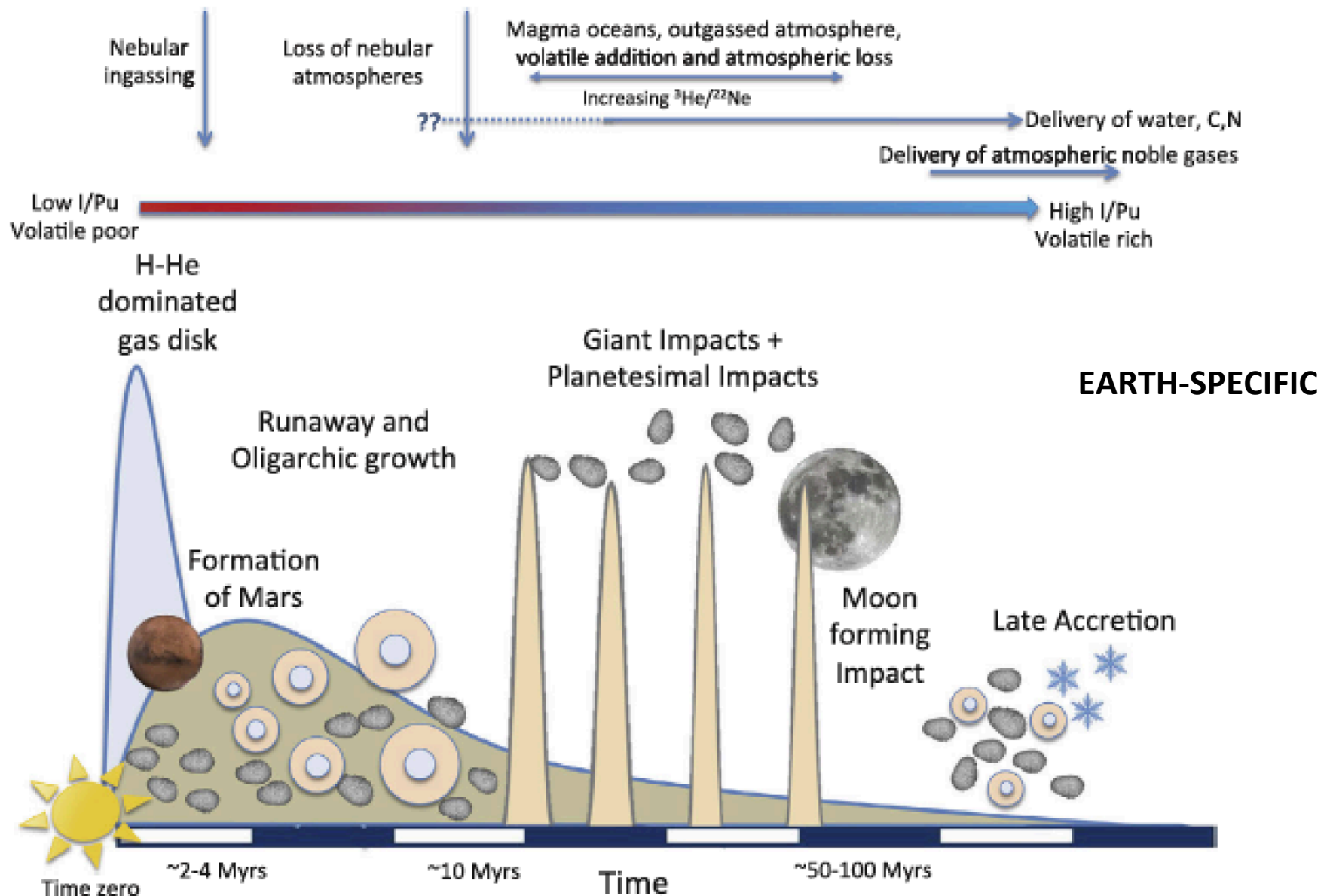
escape velocity

There have also been major recent developments in our understanding of Moon formation, the Moon's orbital evolution, and Moon-induced tidal heating, but orbital/tidal effects are not part of this course.

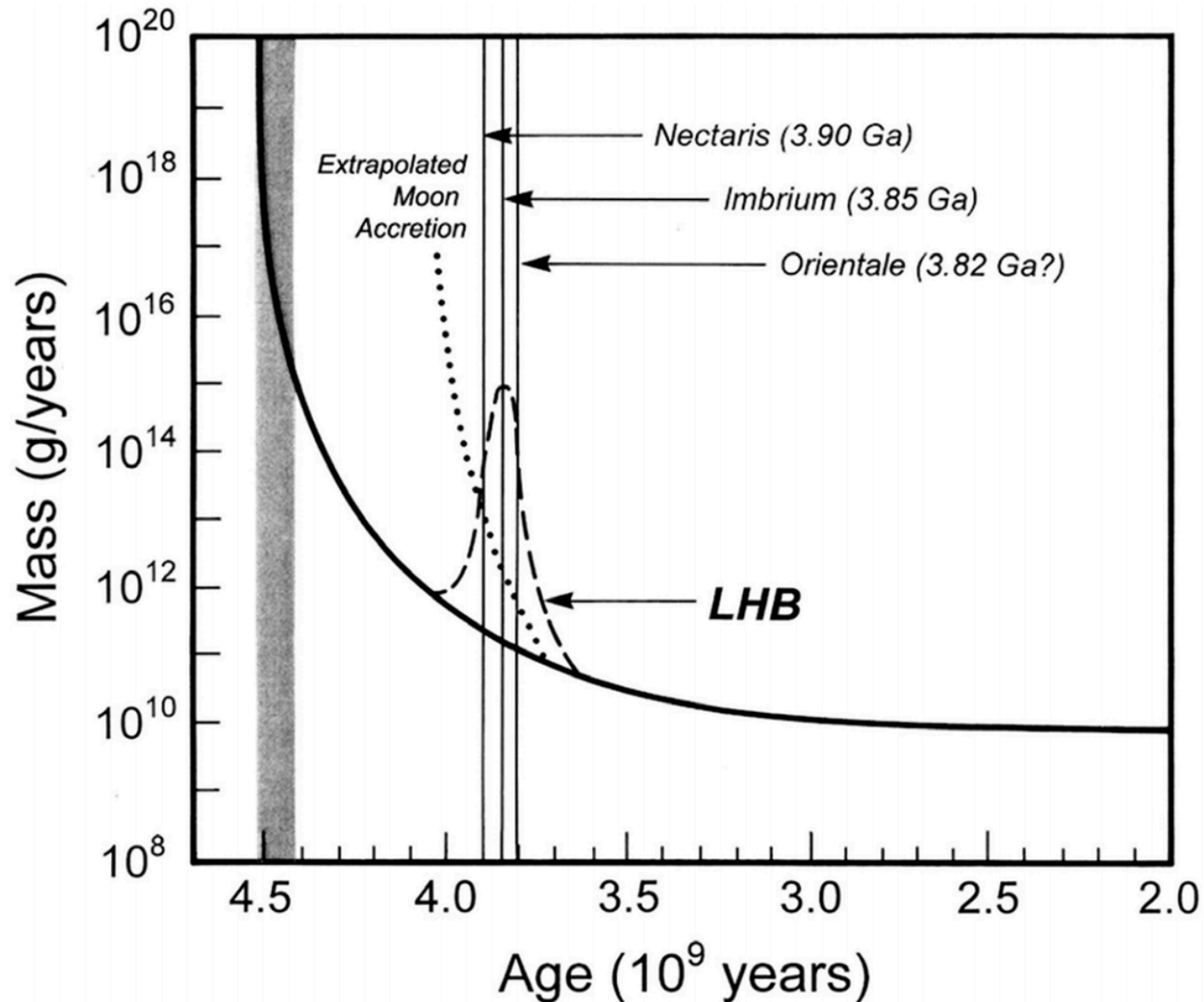
Total impactor mass needed to eject the atmosphere as a function of impactor radius



History of Earth's volatile delivery and removal

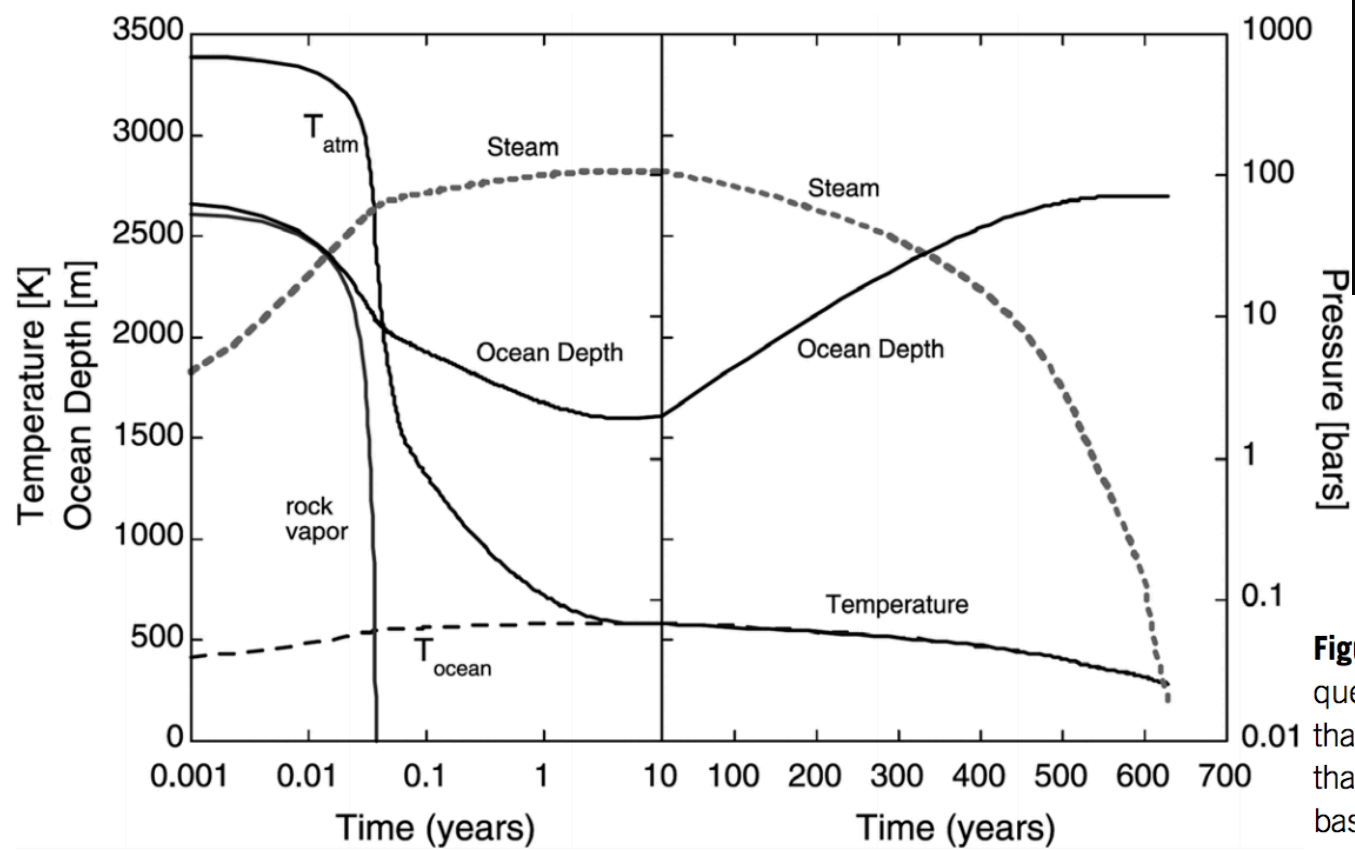


An uptick in bombardment ~ 3.9 Ga?



Effect of basin-forming impacts on habitability: impact frustration of life establishing itself on Earth?

Based on Lunar cratering record, 10-100 Hellas-sized events would have occurred on the Earth (which has since been resurfaced by plate tectonics)



(Ocean vaporization is not sufficient for ocean removal)

e.g. Maher & Stevenson 1987

Microbial life might persist km deep within the crust

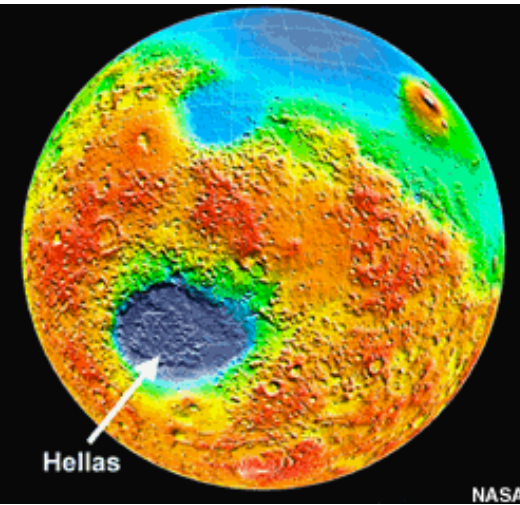
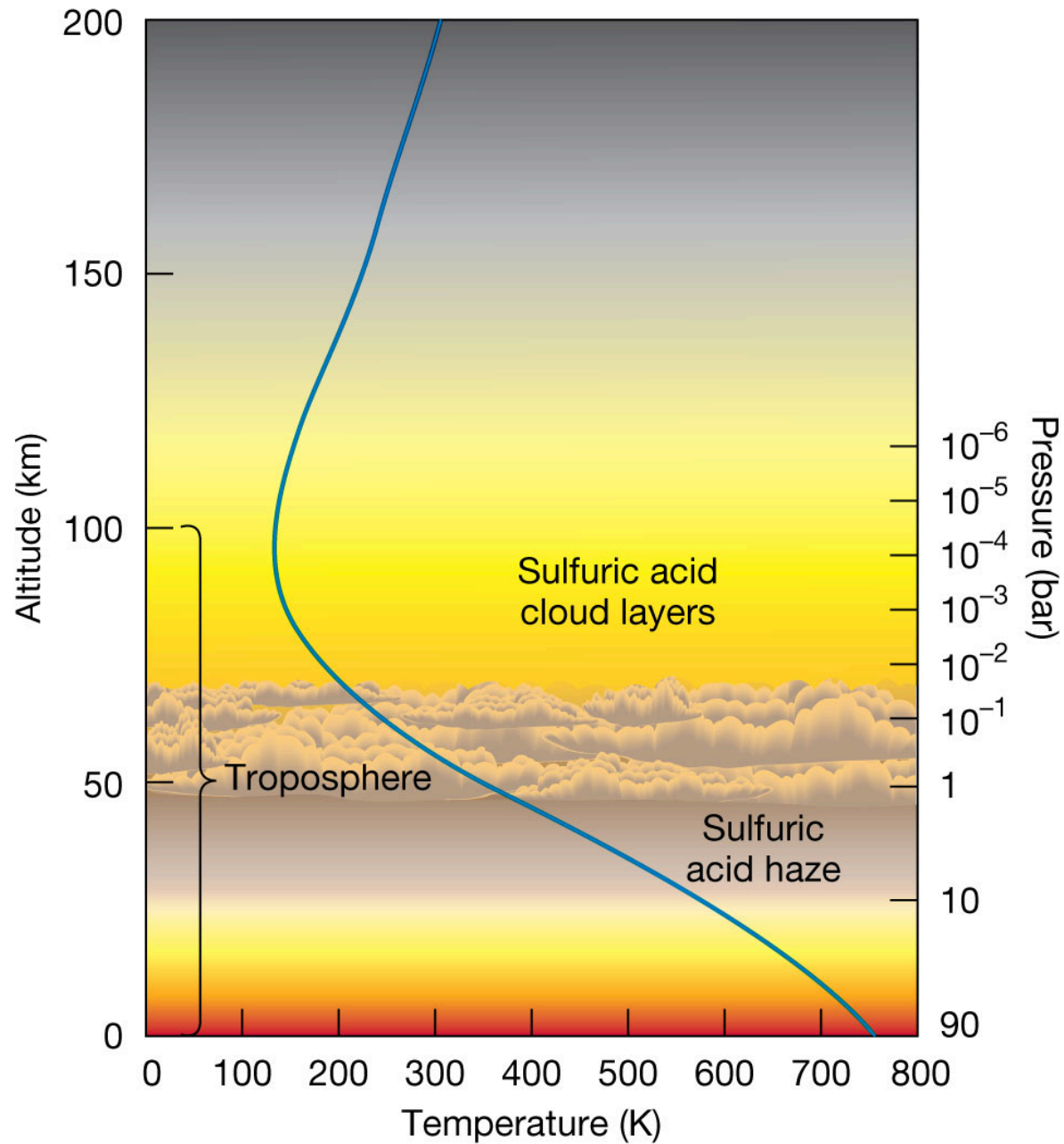


Figure 6.19 The environmental consequences on the early Earth of an impactor that released 10^{27} J, comparable to that that caused the 2100 km-wide Hellas basin on Mars. Ocean depth, ocean temperature, and atmospheric temperature are shown as a function of time, along with the pressure of rock vapor and steam. (From Nisbet *et al.* (2007a). Reproduced with permission of Springer. Copyright 2007, Springer Science + Business Media, Inc.)

Runaway greenhouse – key points

- The (H₂O-)runaway greenhouse is a geologically rapid increase in planet surface temperature from <400K to >1000K caused by a positive feedback between the saturation vapor pressure of water vapor and the
- Be able to explain the mechanism of the runaway greenhouse
- It is almost certain that release of CO₂ by humans cannot cause a runaway greenhouse
- The exact threshold for the runaway greenhouse depends on cloud cover, land fraction, and planet rotation rate

Venus is dry today



The inner edge of the habitable zone is defined by the runaway greenhouse limit

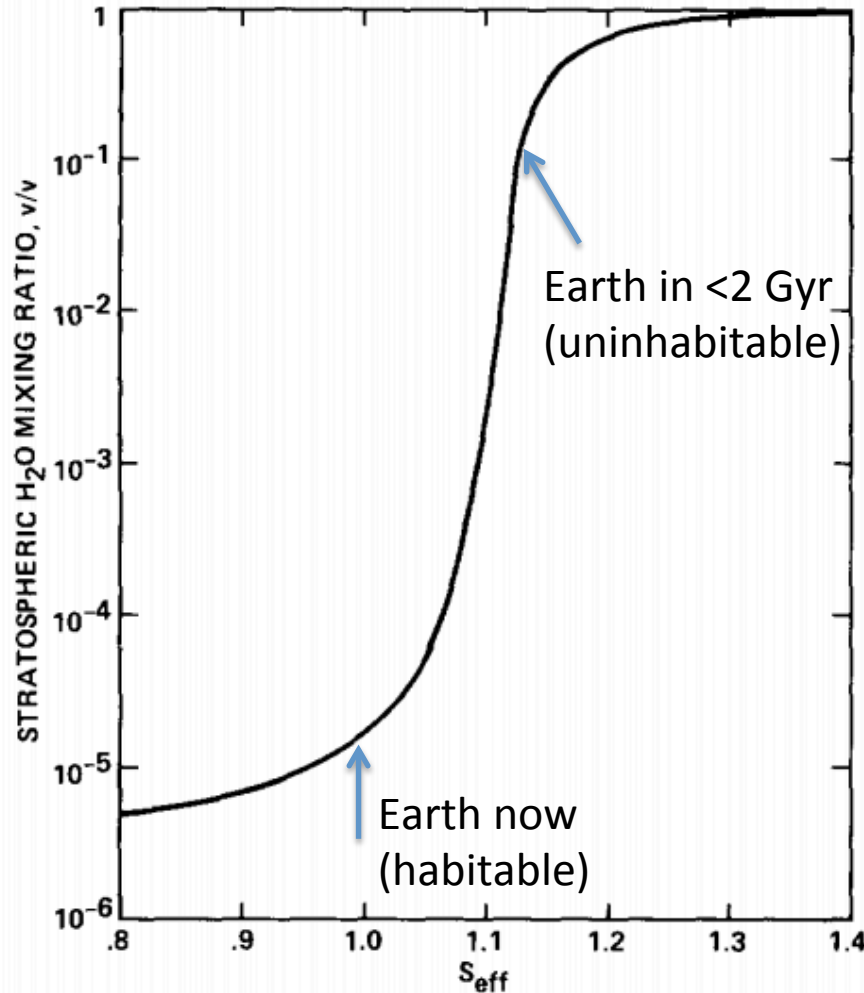


FIG. 14. H₂O volume mixing ratio in the stratosphere versus effective solar constant S_{eff} .

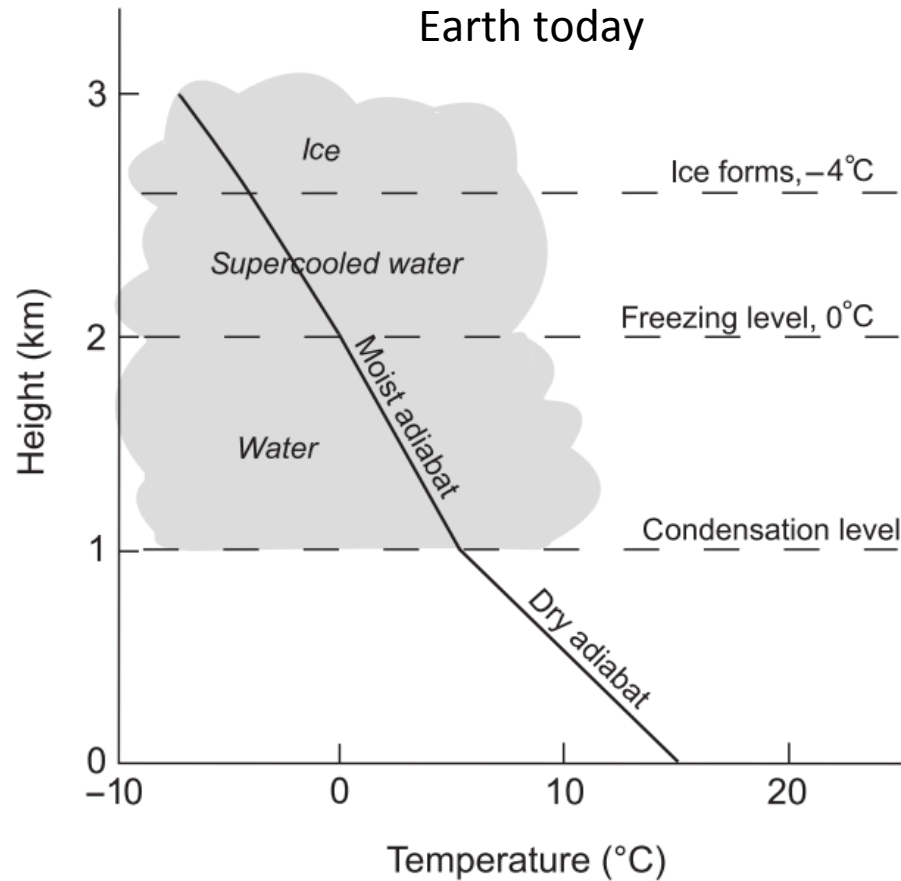
Clasius-Clapeyron relation:
exponential increase in water vapor
partial pressure with increasing T

$$\frac{de_s}{dT} = \frac{l_c e_s}{R_c T^2}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{d(\ln e_s)}{dT} = \frac{l_c}{R_c T^2}$$

$$e_s(T) = e_s(T_0) \exp\left(\int_{T_0}^T \frac{l_c}{R_c} \frac{dT}{T^2}\right) \approx e_s(T_0) \exp\left[\frac{l_c}{R_c} \left(\frac{1}{T_0} - \frac{1}{T}\right)\right] \quad (1.49)$$

section 1.1.3.5 of Catling & Kasting, ch. 1

Definitions: adiabat and moist adiabat



Definitions: adiabat and moist adiabat

Condensible “c” (e.g. water) and noncondensible “a” (e.g. O₂/N₂)

Assume instant precipitation of condensate

$$(m_a + m_c) \delta Q = m_a c_{pa} dT - \frac{m_a}{\rho_a} dp_a + m_c c_{pc} dT - \frac{m_c}{\rho_c} dp_c + L dm_c$$

zero by definition
of adiabat

Assuming saturation (relative humidity = 1),

$$\frac{d \ln T}{d \ln p_a} = \frac{R_a}{c_{pa}} \frac{1 + \frac{L}{R_a T} r_{sat}}{1 + \left(\frac{c_{pc}}{c_{pa}} + \left(\frac{L}{R_c T} - 1 \right) \frac{L}{c_{pa} T} \right) r_{sat}}$$

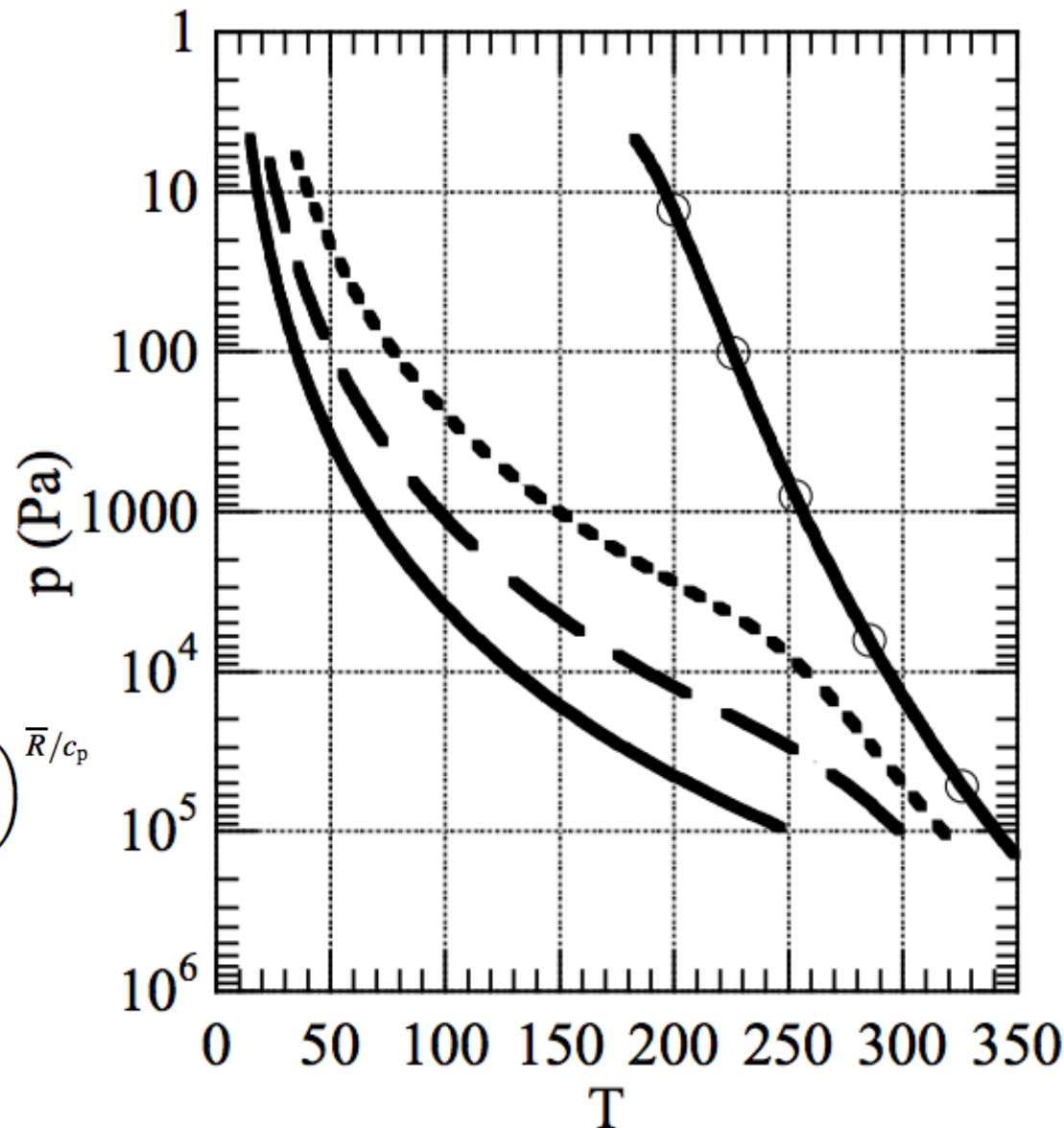
In the limit $r_{sat} = 0$ (dry atmosphere), this equation gives the dry adiabat

In the limit where water vapor is the dominant constituent of the atmosphere, this tends to the saturation vapor pressure curve.

Mixing ratio at saturation

As temperature increases, the moist adiabat increasingly diverges from the dry adiabat

Moist adiabat, water vapor in air



dry adiabat:

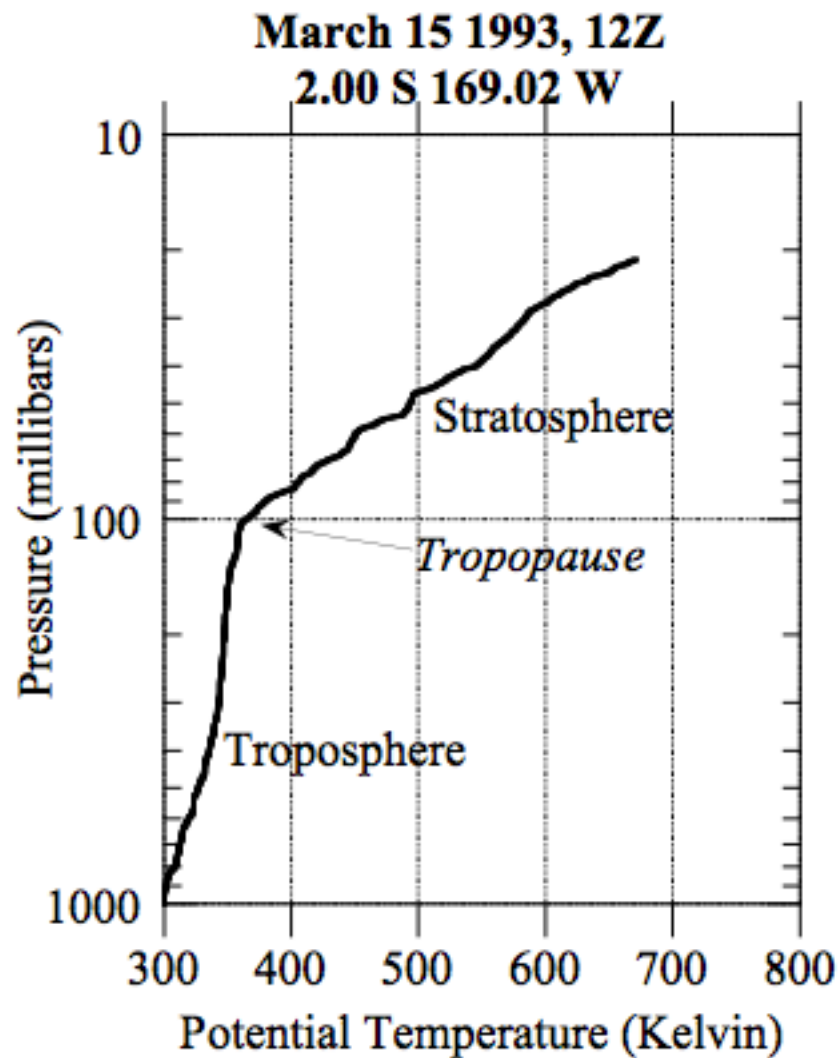
$$T = T_{\text{ref}} \left(\frac{p}{p_{\text{ref}}} \right)^{\bar{R}/c_p}$$

RELATIVE HUMIDITY=1
EARTH AIR, 1 BAR (DRY)
Pierrehumbert 2010

Stratospheric cold-trap



potential temperature: $\vartheta = T \left(\frac{p_{\text{ref}}}{p} \right)^{\kappa}$



The runaway greenhouse leads to the end of habitability

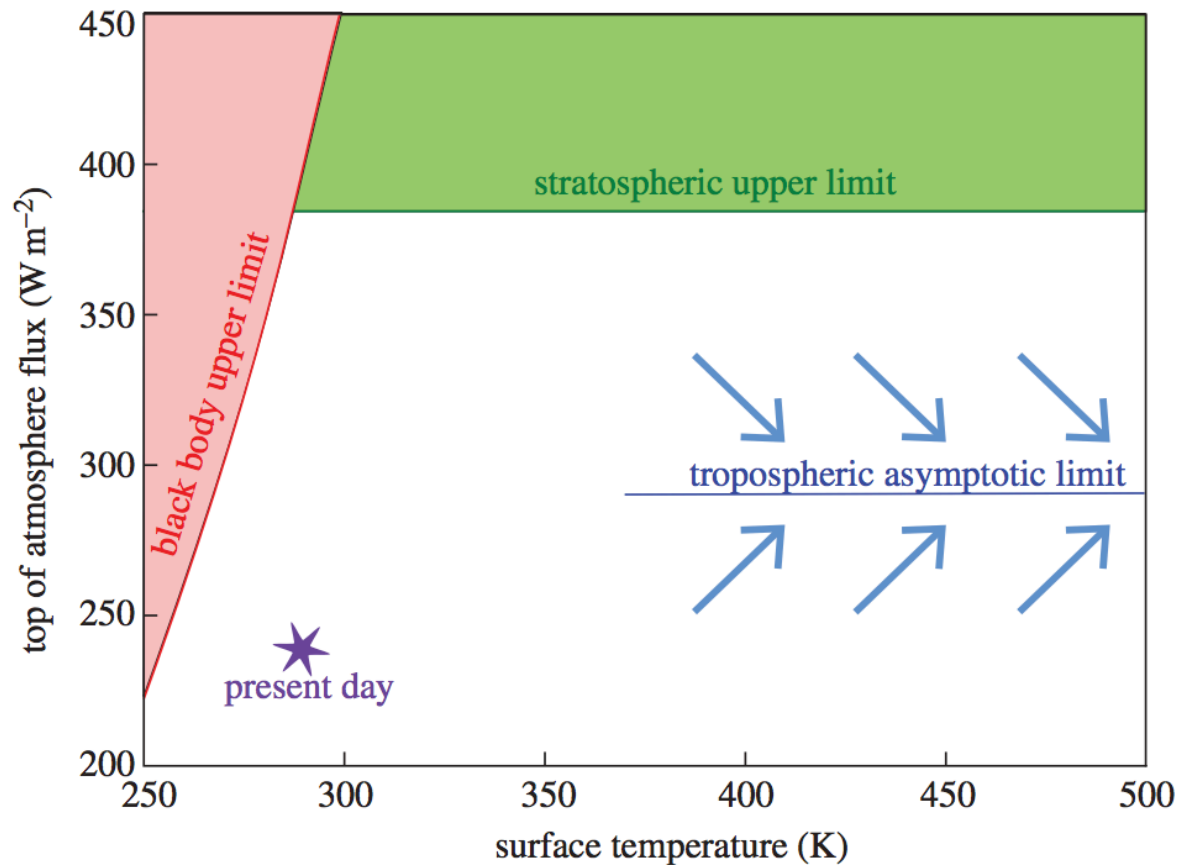
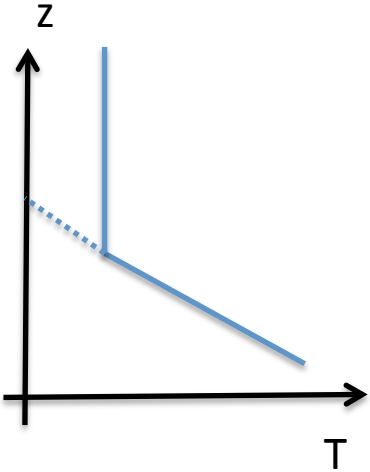


Figure 1. Radiation limits (solid lines) as a function of surface temperature, after Nakajima *et al.* [13]. Inaccessible regions are shaded. All of the white area can, in theory be occupied depending on the amount of non-condensable greenhouse gas (e.g. carbon dioxide) present, but at higher temperatures, outgoing flux will tend towards the tropospheric limit, as indicated by the arrows. Present day mean surface temperature is 289 K with an outgoing thermal flux of 239 W m^{-2} . Note that the change in temperature with flux is equivalent to the climate sensitivity, so the horizontal lines of the radiation limits imply infinite climate sensitivity, hence a runaway greenhouse.

Condensable greenhouse gases lead to climate instability (Kombayashi-Ingersoll limit)

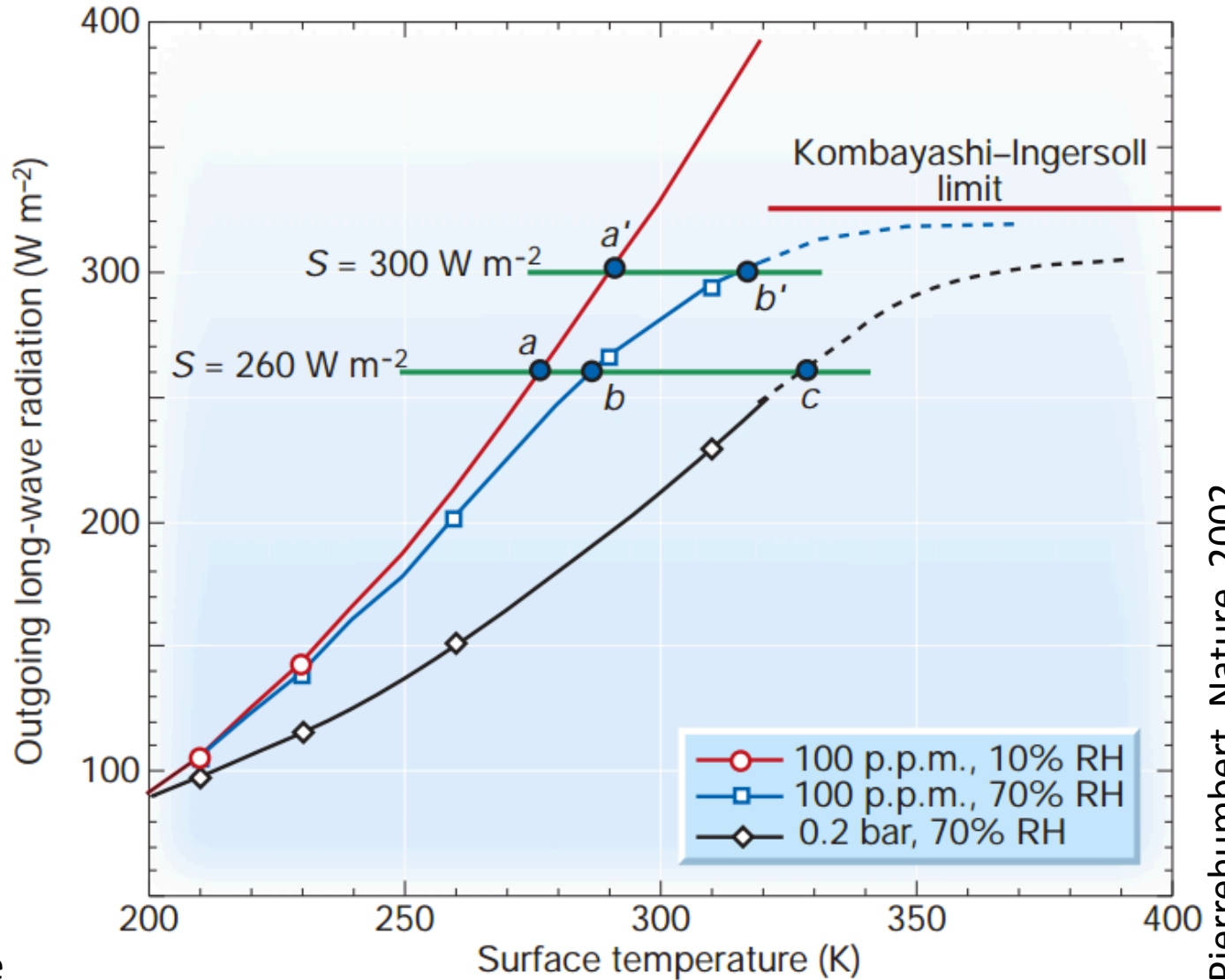
Assumptions:



Constant RH
(RH = relative humidity)

Consequences:
(all are important)

- H₂O dissociation
- VNIR window
- Surface magma
- All water lost to space
- Carbonates decompose



Pierrehumbert, Nature, 2002

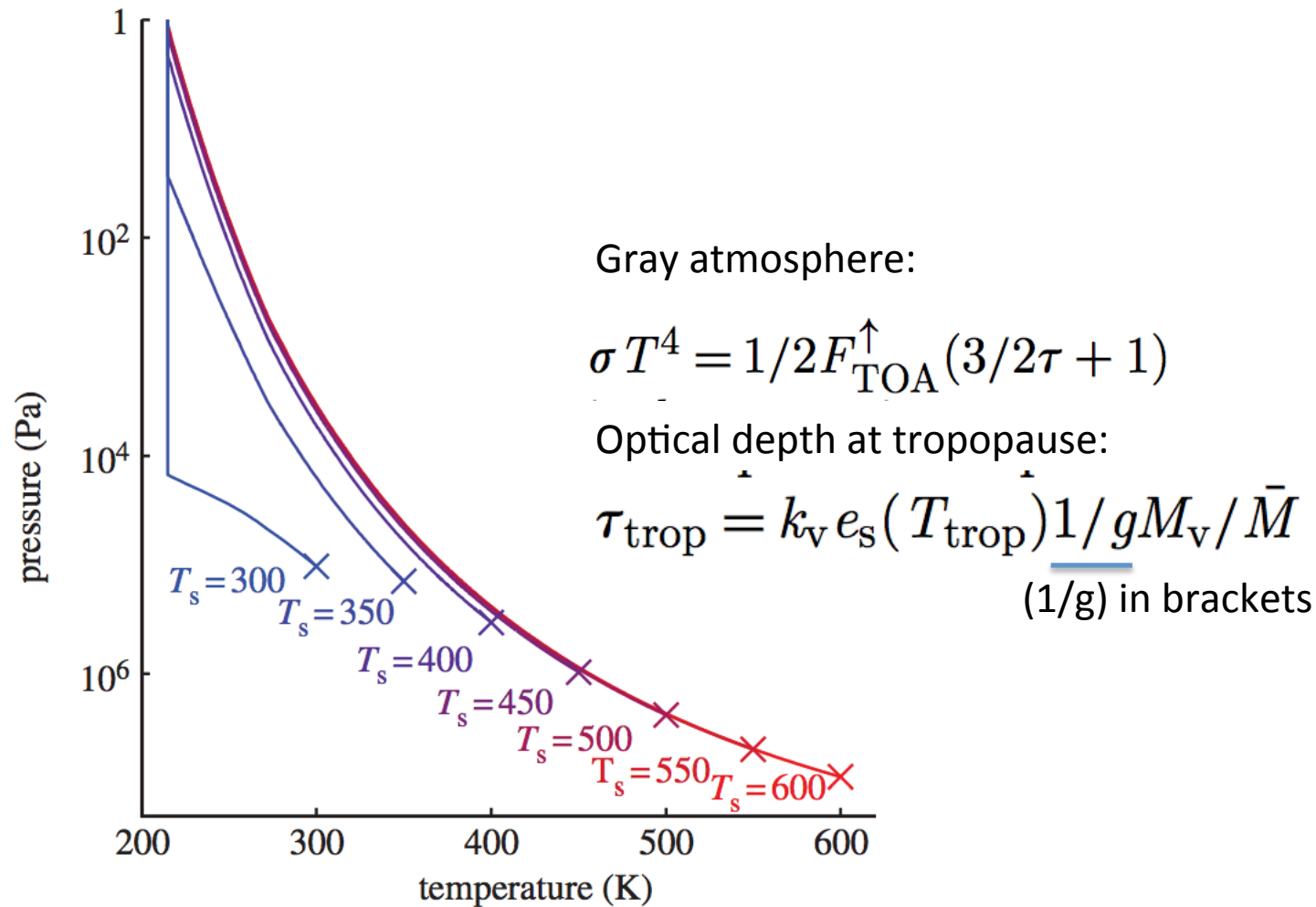


Figure 4. Temperature structure of the atmosphere with increasing surface temperature. A background pressure of 10^5 Pa is assumed, equal to that of Earth's atmosphere.

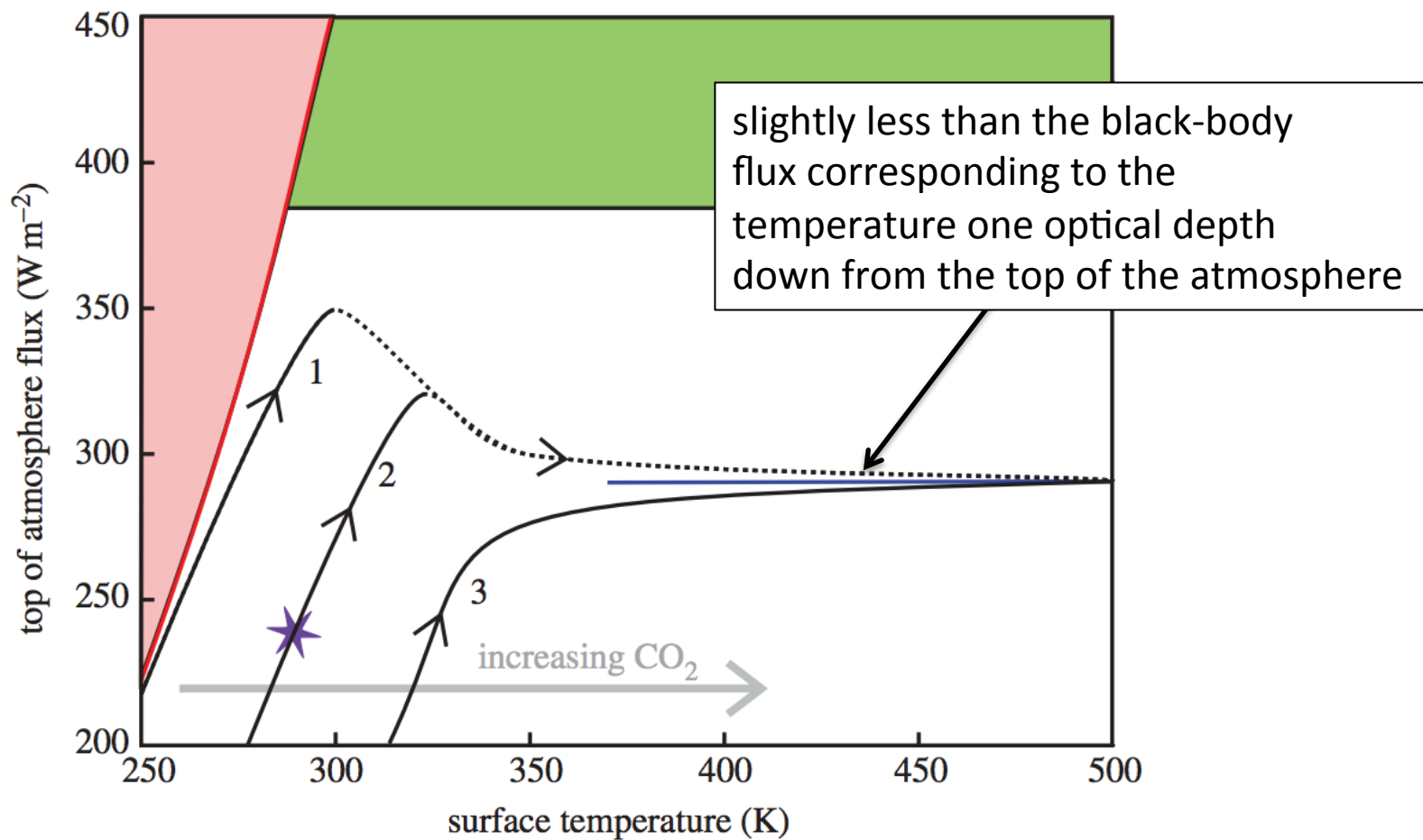
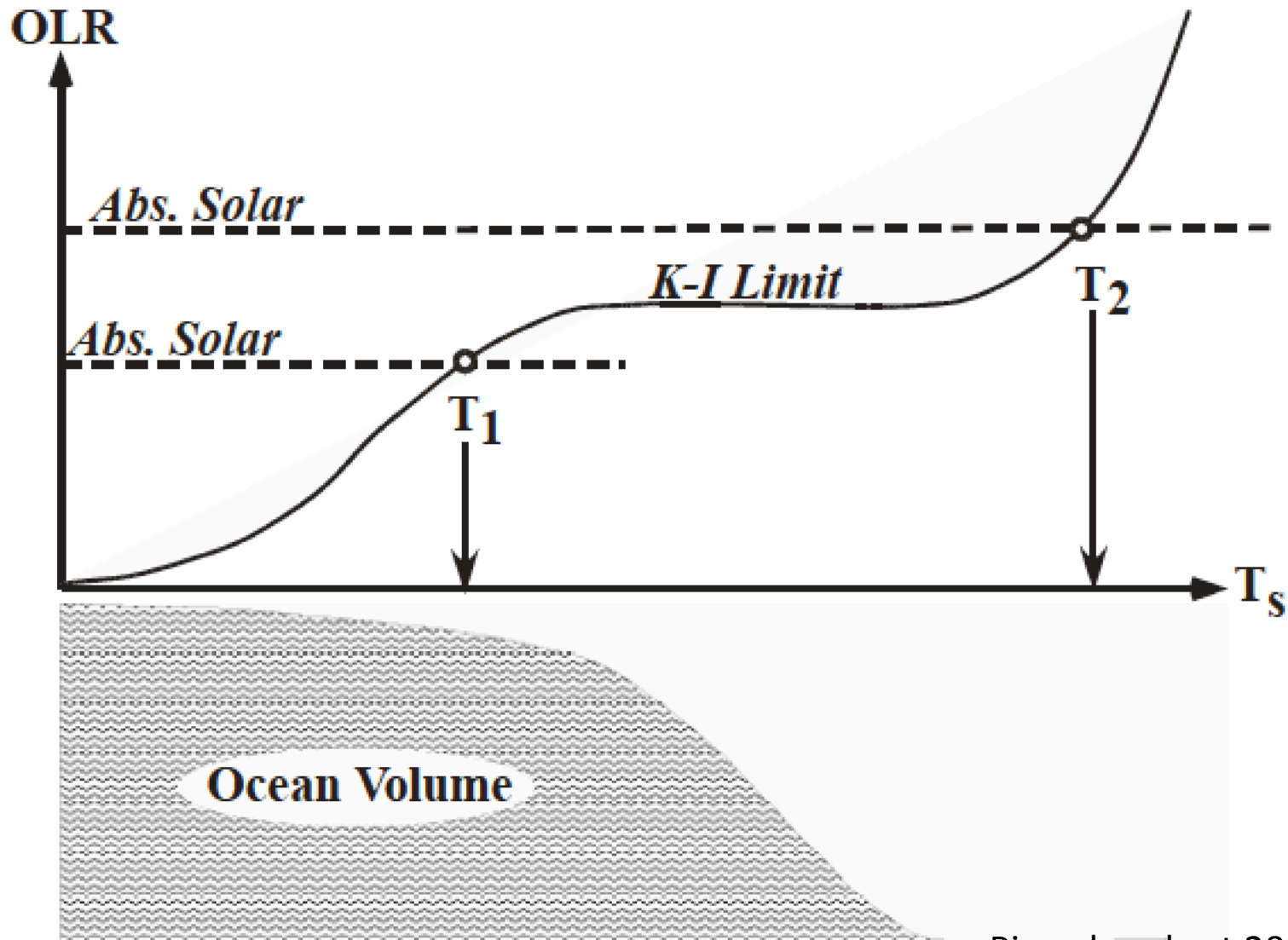


Figure 5. Increase in outgoing thermal flux as a function of surface temperature, after Nakajima *et al.* [13]. Black lines marked from 1 to 3 show how the top of atmosphere flux changes with increasing surface temperature for successively higher concentrations of a non-condensable greenhouse gas (e.g. carbon dioxide). Line 2 corresponds to Earth's present amount of non-condensable greenhouse gases and lines 1 and 3 are illustrative of lower and higher concentrations, respectively. All lines are for an amount of background, non-condensable and non-radiatively active gas similar to Earth's (see fig. 6 of Nakajima *et al.* [13] for other background gas inventories). Radiation limits are shown in colour (see figure 1 for labels). Fig. 9 of Kasting [12], derived from a spectrally resolved model, has similar features.

The runaway greenhouse leads to the loss of surface liquid water
(However, a supercritical H₂O-rich C-poor phase may persist)



Two key windows in the water vapor absorption spectrum: 8-12 microns and $< \sim 4$ microns

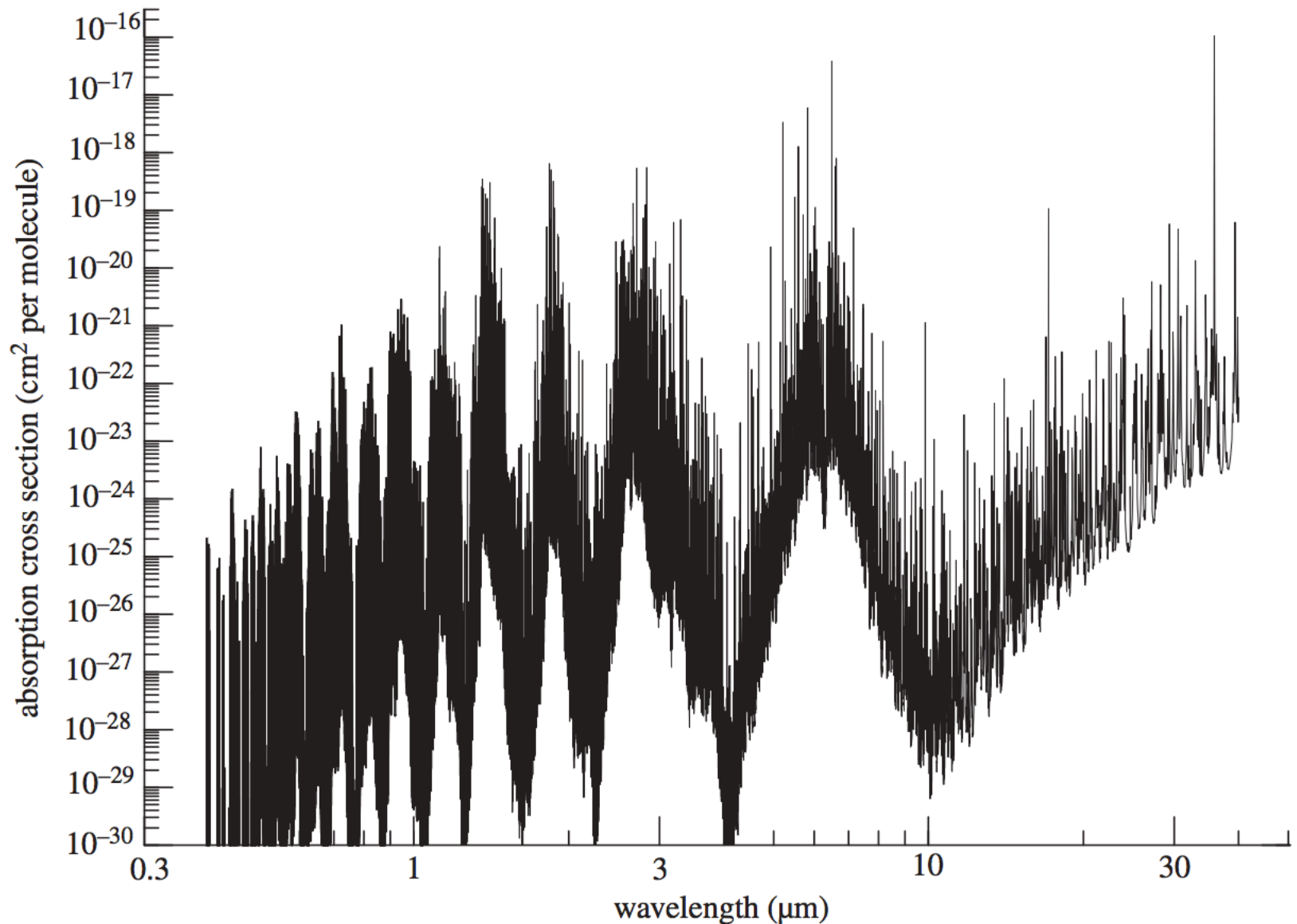
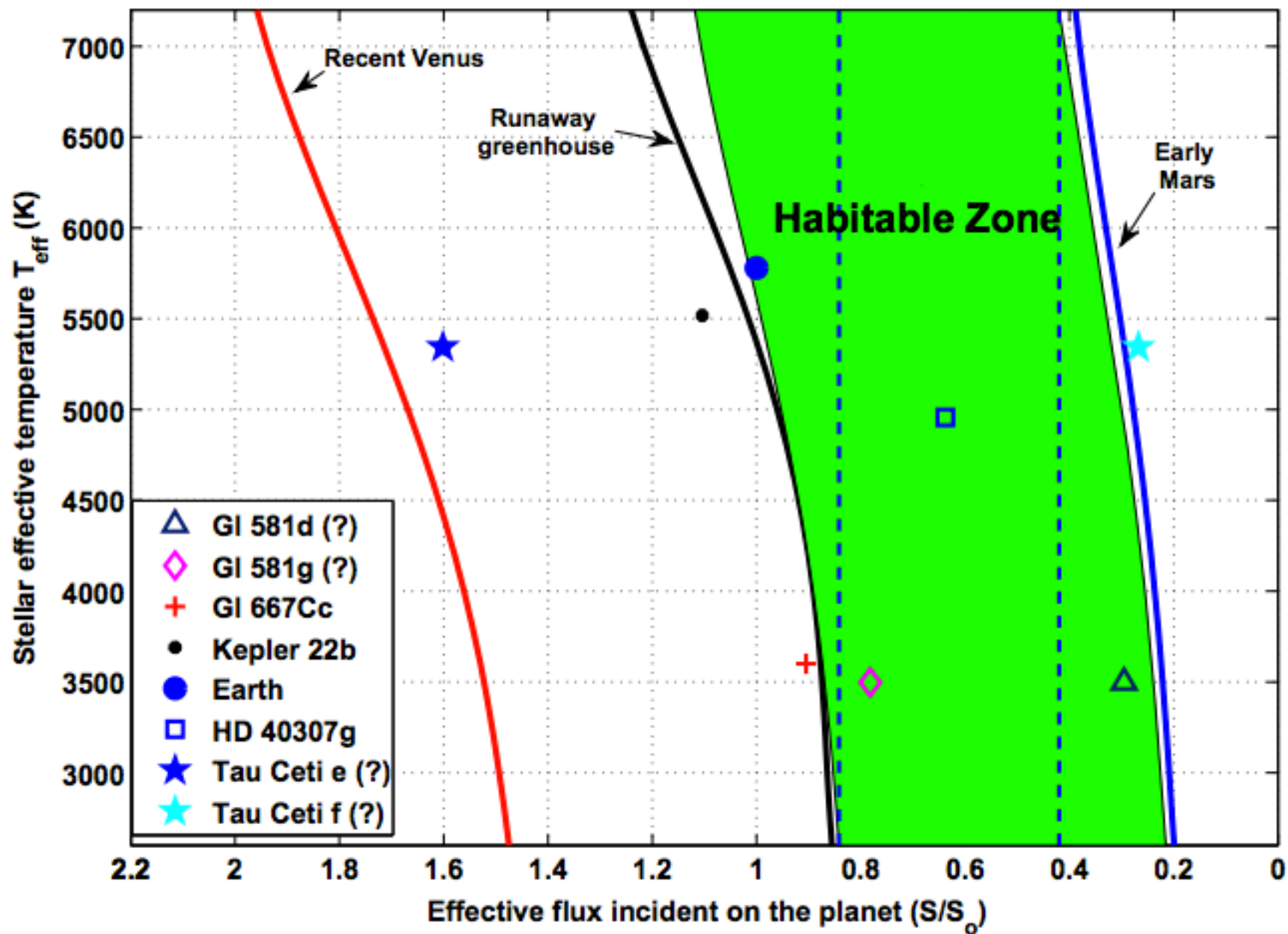
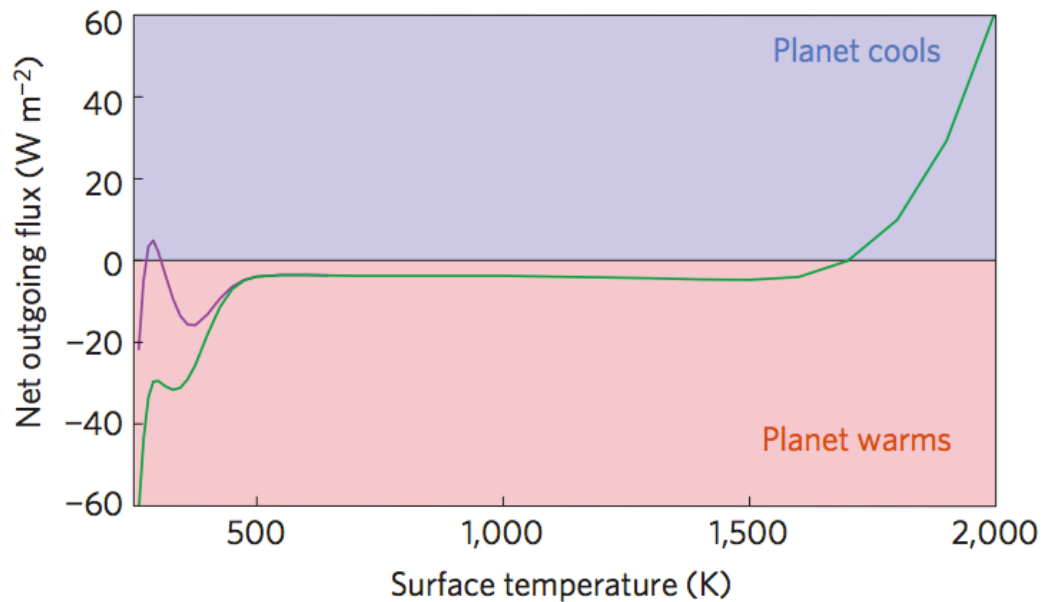


Figure 6. Absorption spectrum of water vapour (0.3–40 μm) shown at 220 Pa and 260 K. Note the ‘window’ regions where the absorption coefficient is low and the general decline of absorption coefficient at a shorter wavelength.



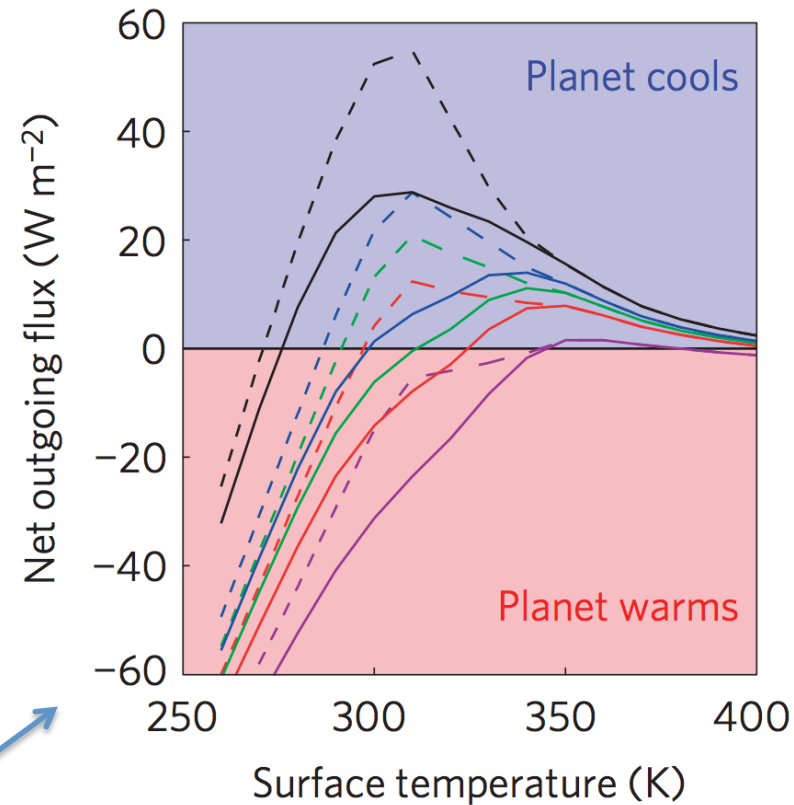
Anthropogenic greenhouse gases (probably) cannot trigger the runaway greenhouse.

Goldblatt et al. Nature Geoscience 2014



Scenario	CO ₂ (ppmv)
Baseline	0
Pre-industrial	287
RCP 8.5, year 2100	936
Extreme anthropogenic	3,000
Arbitrarily high	30,000

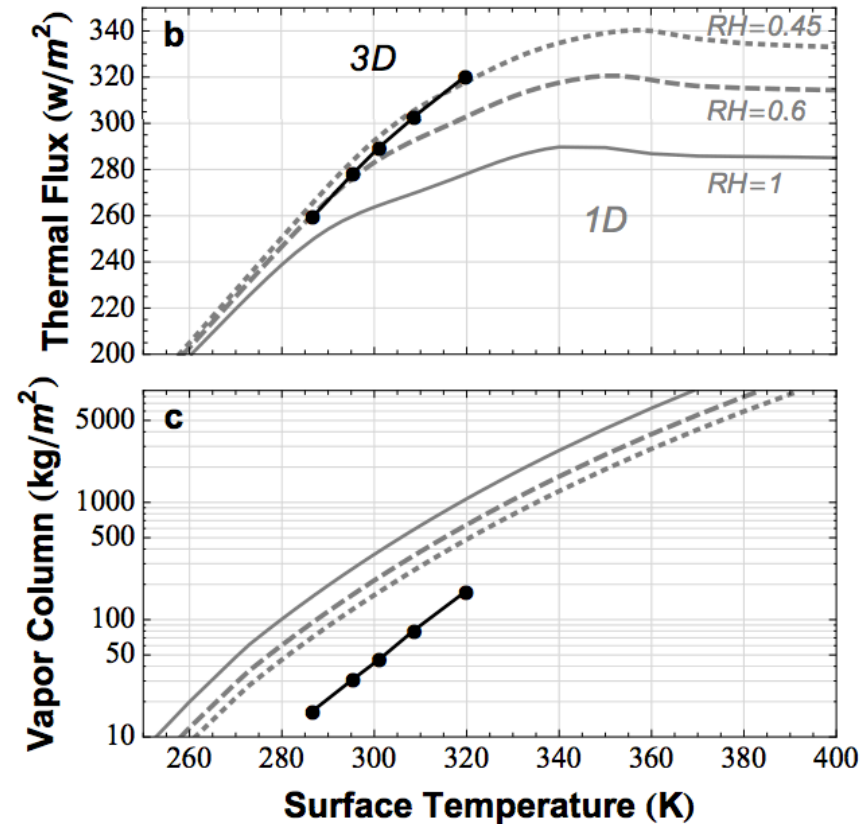
Black
Green
Blue
Red
purple



Dashed lines: RH < 1
Solid lines: RH = 1

Modern albedo

Earth today is close to the runaway greenhouse limit. The runaway greenhouse can be triggered by an increase in solar luminosity



Time for loss (10^9 yr) \downarrow

water lost (bars) \downarrow

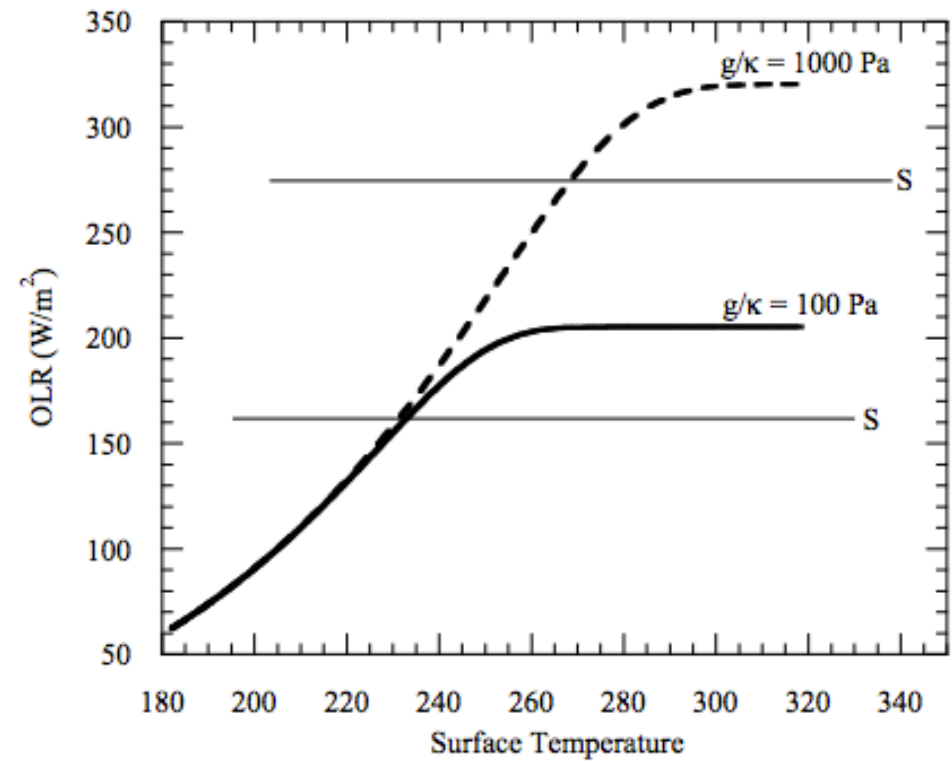
$$\Delta t(\text{by}) = 2.4 \times 10^9 \Delta p(\text{H}_2\text{O}) / \Phi_{\text{esc}}(\text{H})$$

\uparrow H loss flux ($\text{atoms cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)

Leconte et al. 2013 Nature

High gravity moves the runaway greenhouse limit closer to the star
e.g. metal-rich planet, larger-radius super-Earth

Temperature → vapor pressure
Vapor pressure x humidity / gravity → column mass of greenhouse gas
Column mass → greenhouse effect.

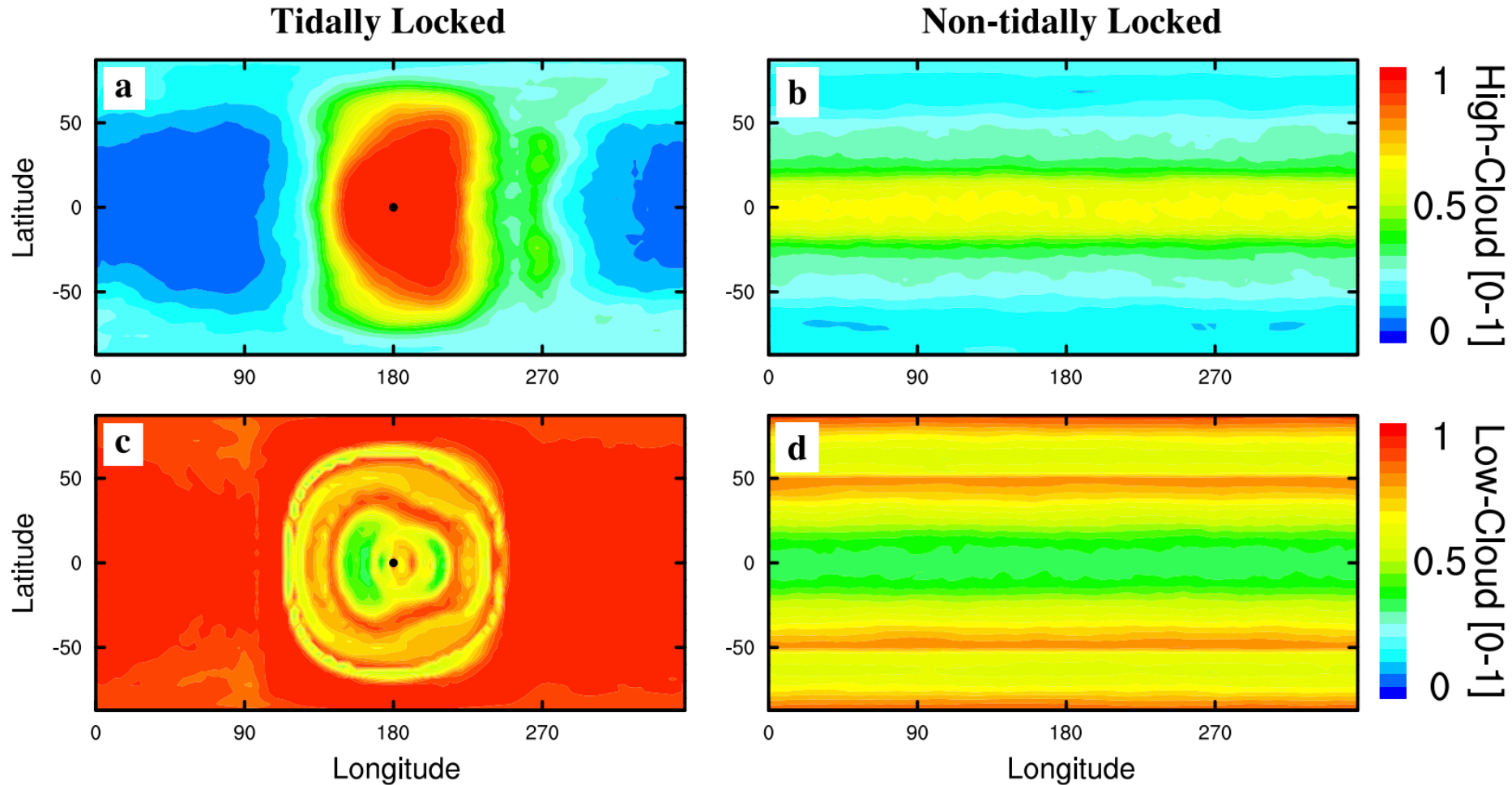


Inner Habitable Zone		
Model	Moist greenhouse	Runaway greenhouse
Mars-sized planet*	1.035 AU	1.033 AU
Earth	0.99 AU	0.97 AU
Super-Earth**	0.94 AU	0.92 AU
$p\text{CO}_2 = 5.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ bar}^\dagger$	1.00 AU	0.97 AU
$p\text{CO}_2 = 5.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ bar}$	1.02 AU	0.97 AU
$p\text{CO}_2 = 5.2 \times 10^{-1} \text{ bar}$	1.02 AU	0.97 AU
$p\text{CO}_2 = 5.2 \text{ bar}$	0.99 AU	0.97 AU

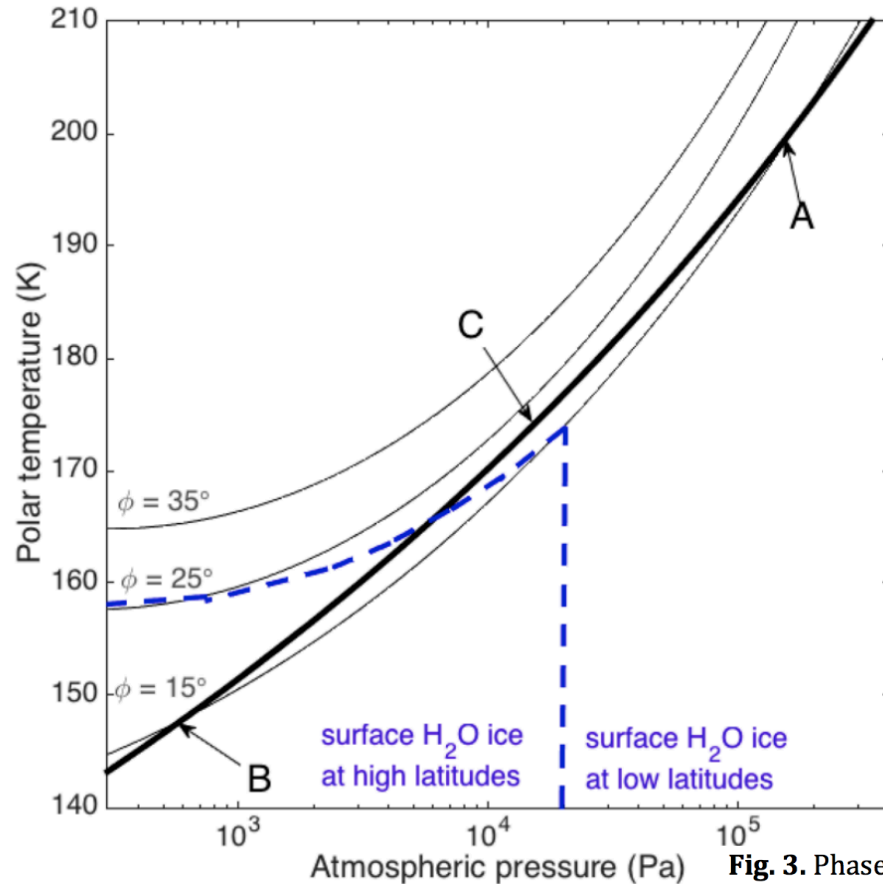
* Surface gravity = 3.73 m.s^{-2}
** Surface gravity = 25 m.s^{-2}

Max OLR ~ slightly less than the blackbody
flux corresponding to the temperature one optical
depth down from the top of the atmosphere

High-albedo clouds can shift the runaway GH boundary closer to the star. High-albedo clouds are at the substellar point when the planet is slowly rotating (e.g., tidally locked and in the habitable zone).



Runaways due to the GH-effect of a condensable apply to non-H₂O condensates as well – e.g., CO₂ on Mars



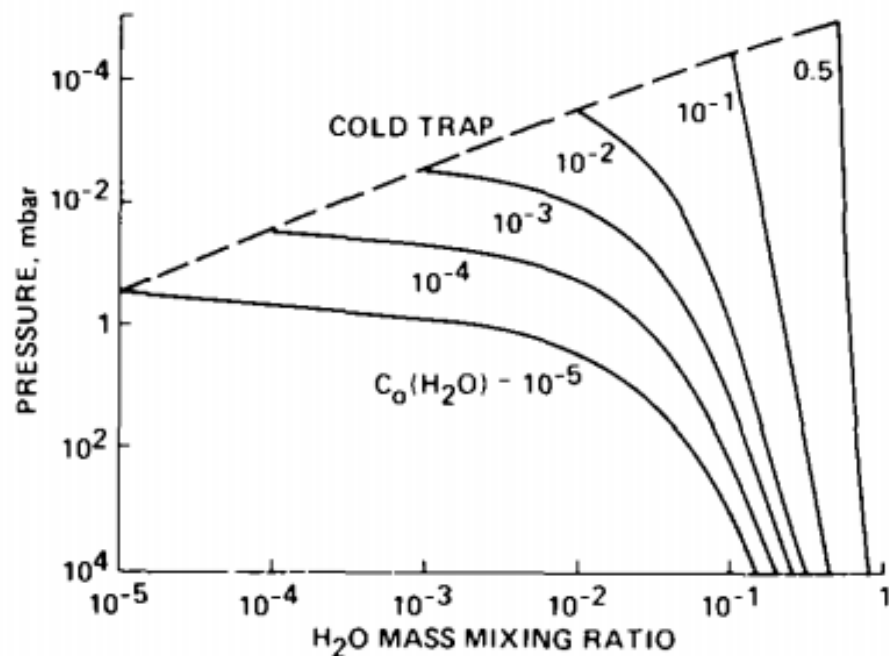
Kite et al. arXiv:1709.08302

Fig. 3. Phase portrait for atmospheric collapse on Mars, showing how atmospheric collapse drives H₂O-ice distribution (this calculation uses the GCM of ref. 17). Thin black lines show annual-mean polar temperature as a function of atmospheric pressure assuming Faint Young Sun luminosity. Thick black line is the condensation curve for CO₂; atmospheres below this line are collapsing onto polar CO₂ ice caps (e.g., **A**→**B**). Blue dashes outline the approximate pressures and obliquities below which H₂O ice is stable only at Mars' poles [e.g. 17, 29, 54]. Collapse leads to relocation of surface H₂O ice from highlands to poles. In this GCM, for an initial CO₂ inventory of 8×10^{18} kg (= 2 bar), the atmosphere is stable until $\phi \leq 15^\circ$ (at **A**). Rapid collapse ($\sim 10^3$ yr) moves the system to point **B**. Increasing obliquity (over 10^5 - 10^7 yr) moves the (ice cap)/atmosphere system along the condensation curve to **C**, (the highest ϕ consistent with permanent CO₂ ice caps). Further ϕ rise leads to sublimation of the CO₂ ice cap ($\sim 10^3$ yr) and the system returns to **A**.

Also: N₂ runaway on Early Titan?

The runaway & moist greenhouses: under the hood

Raising temperature raises the H_2O mixing ratio at the cold trap (assumed isothermal)



Kasting 1988

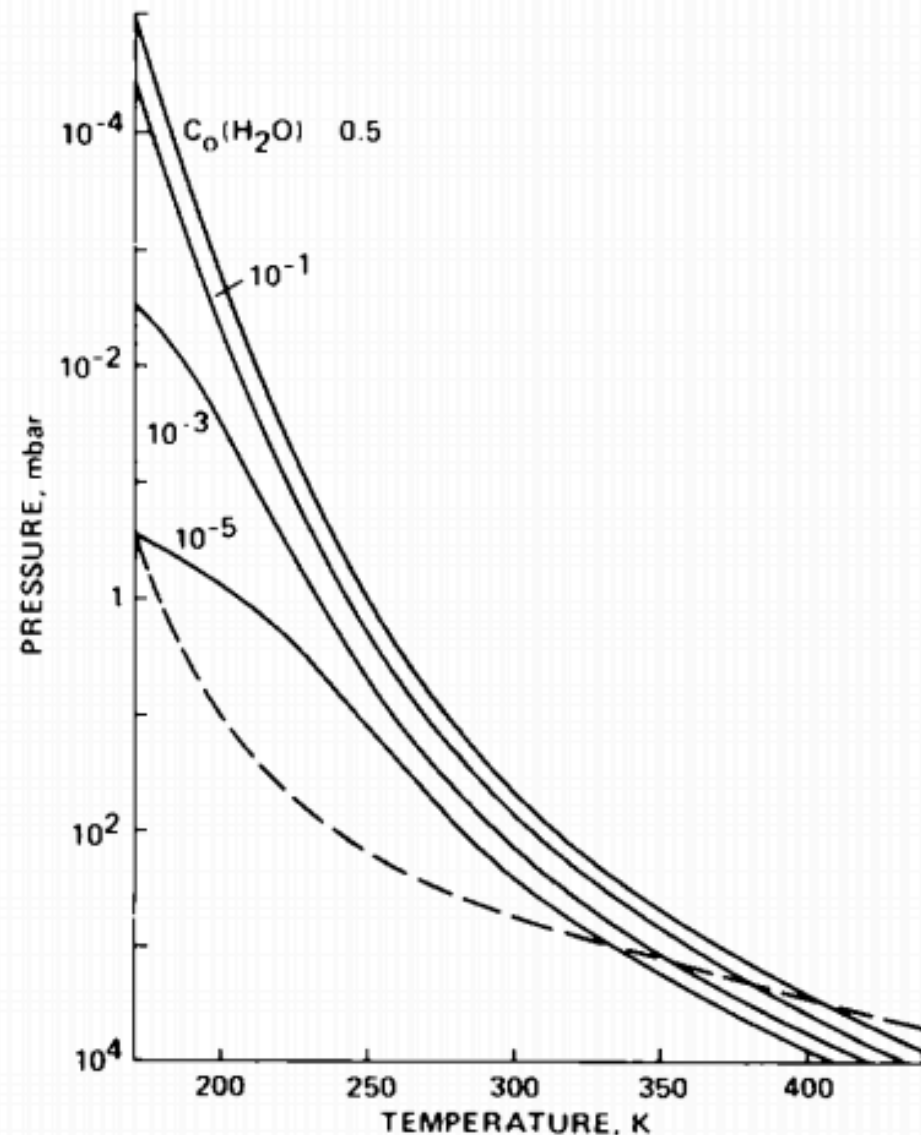


FIG. 15. Calculated pseudoadiabatic temperature profiles for various values of the H_2O mass mixing ratio at the cold trap. The dashed curve represents the dayside temperature profile below 90 km in the present Venus atmosphere.

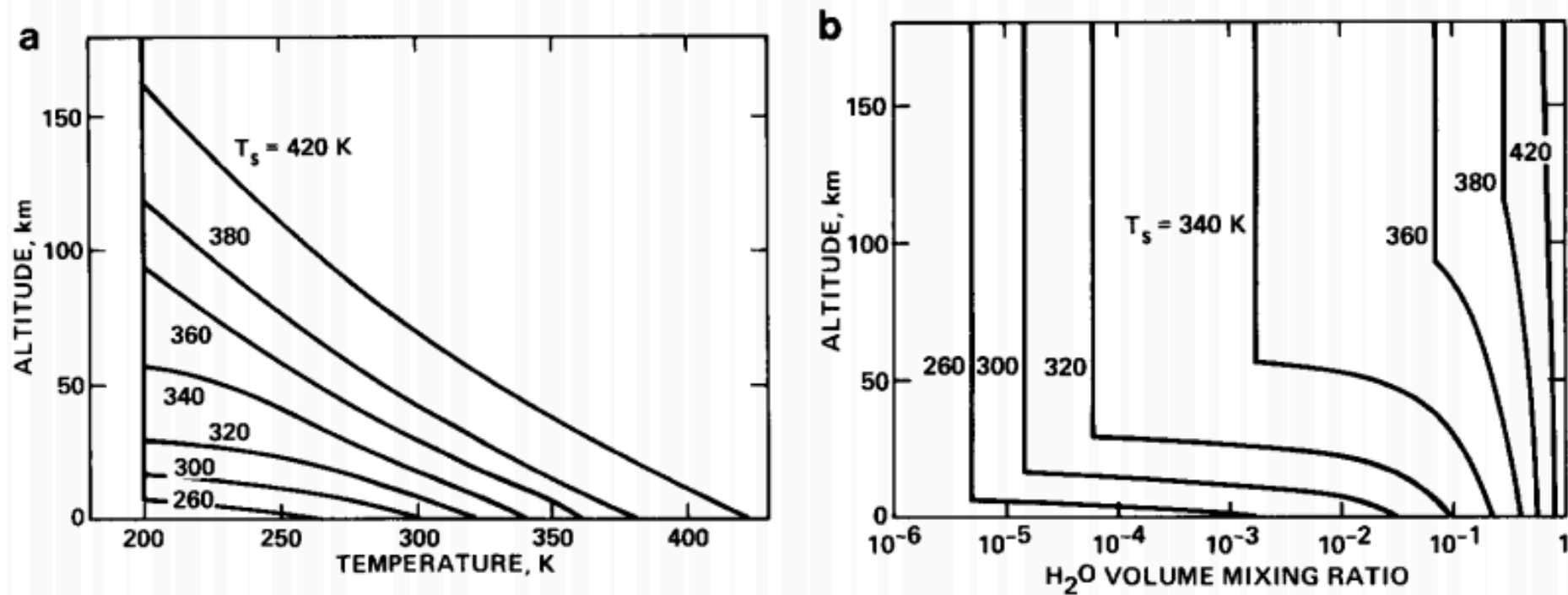


FIG. 5. Temperature (a) and H_2O volume mixing ratio (b) versus altitude for selected moist greenhouse atmospheres. The lower portions of the curves represent moist pseudoadiabats.

Kasting 1988

How was the
last 10^{th} of
Venus' ocean
removed?

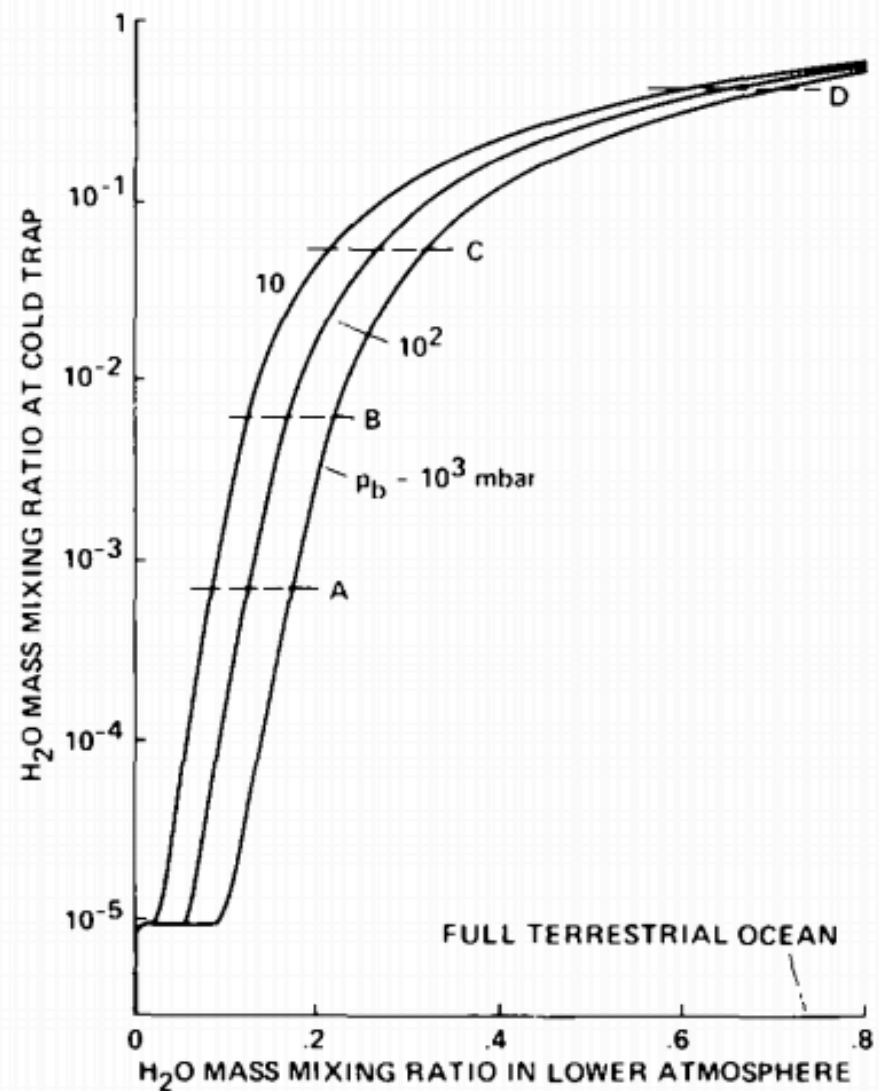


FIG. 17. Relationship between the H_2O mass mixing ratio at the cold trap and in the lower atmosphere for three different values of the pressure p_b at the bottom of the moist convective layer. The horizontal dashed lines labeled A to D correspond to the cases described in the text.

Kasting 1988

Runaway greenhouse – key points

- The (H₂O-)runaway greenhouse is a geologically rapid increase in planet surface temperature from <400K to >1000K caused by a positive feedback between the saturation vapor pressure of water vapor and the
- Be able to explain the mechanism of the runaway greenhouse
- It is almost certain that release of CO₂ by humans cannot cause a runaway greenhouse
- The exact threshold for the runaway greenhouse depends on cloud cover, land fraction, and planet rotation rate

Backup/additional slides

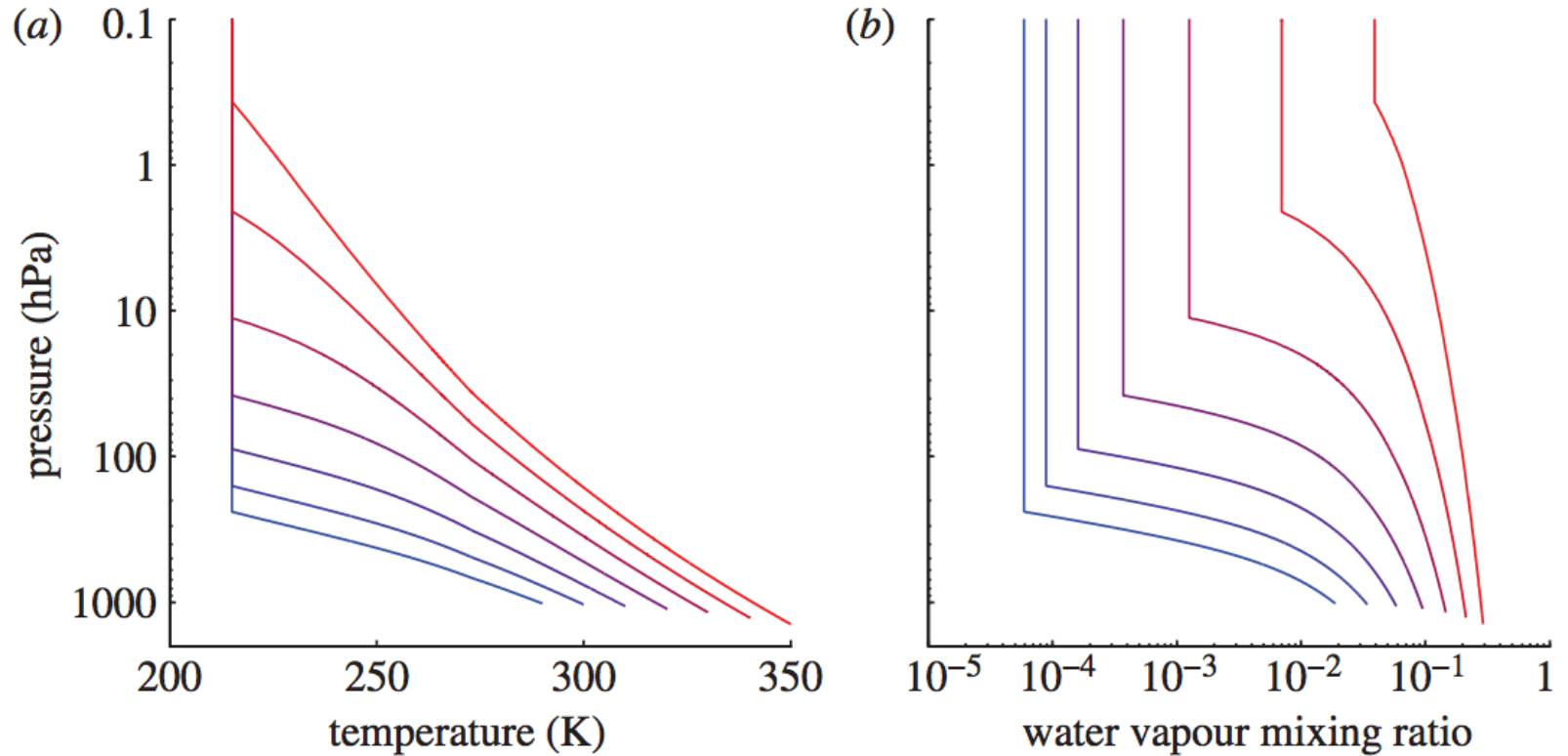


Figure 3. (a) Change in temperature structure and (b) moisture structure for warming atmospheres. A background pressure of 10^5 Pa is assumed, equal to that of Earth's atmosphere.