

In aside about boundary conditions

Assume you have an atmosphere with radiation incident with input intensity  $I_0$  as you just saw for the scattering problem. But now consider what happens at some large distance from the light source. In other words, what happens for a planet?

The central source has a flux,  $F_\nu$ , that we assume is a function of  $\nu$ . Now we have  $F_\nu(r) = F_\nu(0) \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2$ , for  $R_0$  the radius of the source and  $r$  the distance ( $F_\nu(0)$  is  $F_\nu(R)$ ). The energy intercepted by a planet of radius  $R$  is

$$\dot{E} = \Delta\Omega \cdot R^2 F_\nu(r) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{This is the absorbed fraction, the} \\ \text{albedo, } A = 1 - \omega \end{array} \right.$$

which is then re-radiated, ultimately, by the body. This is the condition of thermal equilibrium: whatever goes in, goes out. The input depends on  $\sigma T_{\text{eff}}^4$  from the luminosity, so:

$$\Delta\Omega \cdot \sigma T^4 = 4\pi \sigma T_{\text{eff}}^4 \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^2 \omega$$

$$\rightarrow T = \omega^{1/4} T_{\text{eff}} \left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{4\pi}{\Delta\Omega}\right)^{1/4}$$

and we will approximate, for a rapidly rotating body, that  $\Delta\Omega \approx 4\pi$  (for a slowly rotating one, use  $\pi \leq \Delta\Omega \leq 4\pi$ ). Then since  $\omega < 1$ , for reasons we'll discuss (but you can guess, there must be some scattering - you see planets and the sky is blue, right?) then  $T \ll T_{\text{eff}}$ .

Now what does this mean? In general, the radiated flux by the planet will occur at  $\nu' \ll \nu$  since  $T \ll T_{\text{eff}}$ . If the atmospheric opacity  $k_\nu$  at  $\nu$  is small and  $\omega$  is somehow large (for the Earth [I'll use  $\oplus$  for an abbreviation from here on, and  $\odot$  for the Sun and related constants] this is because of the ground) then  $k_{\nu'}$  may be large relative to  $k_\nu$ . For  $\oplus$  (and Venus) an important absorber,  $\text{CO}_2$ , has  $k_{\text{visual}}$  very small relative to  $k_{0.3\mu}$ , near the peak of  $F_{\nu, \oplus}(T_\oplus)$ . So since from our discussion of the diffusion approximation you know that

$$F = \int_0^\infty d\nu F_\nu = - \int_{k_\nu}^{\infty} \frac{dS_\nu}{dT} \frac{dT}{dz} d\nu,$$

assuming  $B_\nu(T)$  for  $S_\nu$  says that when  $k_\nu$  is large near the peak of  $B_\nu$  (or any  $S_\nu$ ),  $dT/dz$  and  $dS_\nu/dT$  must also increase. For  $S_\nu \rightarrow B_\nu$ , this means that both  $T$  and  $\frac{dT}{dz}$  must increase relative to the low  $k_\nu$  case.

Note: There is no mystery here! Take a trivial example. The nights are now colder. You must sleep under a blanket to stay warm. Your body radiates  $\approx 100$  W (piu o meno) so you lose heat at constant rate (not radiatively, it's conductive). But the blanket reduces the efficiency of heat transport by the air surrounding your body so  $T_{\text{air}}$  increases at constant internal and external boundary conditions. Thus  $dT/dz$  increases and the temperature continues to rise until the heat flux through the blanket reaches equilibrium.

You know this from:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = K \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \quad \text{Fourier eq. in 1D.}$$

Here  $K$  is the conductivity so  $(T = F(t)Z(z)$  and  $T(0, z) = Z_0(z)$  with a constant  $T(t, z_1)$  as the outer BC). I'll do this in class, it's enough to know that the solution has a characteristic length scale:

$$\Delta z \sim (Kt)^{1/2}$$

so the temperature after some time  $t$  is the same as at  $t' < t$  at  $T(z') = T(z) \rightarrow z' = z \left(\frac{t'}{t}\right)^{1/2}$

if we assume  $K$  to be independent of time. Now this is an integrated

quantity,  $T$  is a simple scalar function, and is independent of  $\nu$  as is  $K$ . But we can always make the appropriate match between the equations:

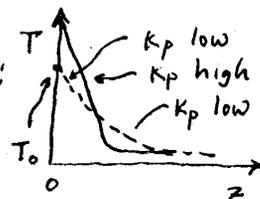
$$F = -\frac{1}{3K_{R,p}} \frac{dB}{dT} \frac{dT}{dr} = -\left(\frac{4\sigma}{3K_{R,p}} T^3\right) \frac{dT}{dr}$$

(NB The factor of  $1/3$  comes from the Eddington approx.)

This quantity is called the "radiative conductivity"  $\leftarrow K_{rad}$

(written in full form you get the equation for the flux in the interior flux:

$$F = -\frac{4ac}{3K_{R,p}} T^3 \frac{dT}{dr}$$



that applies to, say, the solar - or any stellar - interior). Now back to our discussion.

The effect is vitally important for planetary evolution; this is the so-called greenhouse effect. I'll explain in class in a few weeks why the analogy is not really accurate, but the point is this: since the peak of the radiation is at  $\nu_p$ , then  $j_p = k_p S_p$  is the efficiency for local radiation is large, but since  $k_p$  is large, the loss term is low so  $T$  increases until they balance. Since  $I_0$  (or  $F_0$ ) is constant, if  $k_p$  increases with time so will  $T$ , hence the simplest consequence of the changing  $CO_2$  budget - global warming. You see there are two interdependent signatures here:  $dT/dz$  and  $T$  both increase.

NB: How this works in the  $\oplus$ -Moon system illustrates my point and returns us to the first class. For  $\oplus$ ,  $T_0 \approx 300K$  (measured at, say, Roma). For the Moon, it is  $\approx 240K$ . This is very cold relative to room temperature, you know, and yet they're at the same distance. Since in thermal balance, they should have the temperature, the difference ( $\sim 60K$ ) is entirely due to the  $\oplus$ 's atmosphere, in particular  $H_2O$ ,  $CO$ , and  $CO_2$ . On Venus,  $T_0 \sim 710K$  yet, at the cloud top,  $T \sim (0.7)^{1/2} T_{\oplus}$  (it has a distance of  $0.7AU$  from the Sun, by definition  $\oplus$  is at  $1AU$ ). The atmosphere is primarily  $CO_2$  with  $CO$ ,  $H_2SO_4$ ,  $SO_2$ , and no  $H_2O$ . In addition,  $\tau_R$  is enormous even if  $\tau_{vis} \ll \tau_R$  (but  $\tau_{vis} \gg 1$ ) so for the lower Venus atmosphere we can use the diffusion approximation and  $K = \frac{1}{3} J$ . The Venus case, a "dry greenhouse", is also important for  $\oplus$  because the clouds have relatively low  $\tau_{vis}$ , hence most of the incident radiation is ~~not~~ scattered, that's why the planet is so bright.

Notice that the radiative peak  $\nu$  is higher as  $T$  increases, so eventually the as peak shifts, the opacity drops and the radiative losses stabilize.

Questions: what happens to  $T_0(\oplus)$  if the  $T_{eff}$  for the  $\odot$  increases?

What are the effects of clouds? What happens if you move  $\oplus$  closer to the  $\odot$ ? (OK, it's your chance to write some science fiction or theology?!).