

# Planetary Interiors



ASTR 407/507

# Planetary Interiors

- How do we determine a planet's bulk structure?
- How do pressure and temperature vary inside a planet?
- How do planets lose heat?

# Planetary Mass

- The mass  $M$  and *bulk* density  $\langle\rho\rangle$  of a planet are two of its most fundamental and useful characteristics
- These are easy to obtain if something (a satellite, artificial or natural) is in orbit round the planet, thanks to Isaac Newton . . .  
$$n^2 a^3 = G(M+m) \sim GM$$
- This furnishes planetary mass  $M$ 
  - If no satellite exists, then mass can still sometimes be obtained in a spacecraft flyby (deflection of trajectory) or long-range gravitational effect of the object.
- The physical size (and thus volume) is usually acquired via direct optical measurement (for small bodies it may be a stellar occultation).
- Then  $\langle\rho\rangle = \text{mass/volume} \sim 3M/(4 \pi R^3)$ 
  - (If object non-spherical, use true 'volume' )

# Bulk Densities

- So for bodies with orbiting satellites (Sun, Mars, Earth, Jupiter etc.)  $M$  and  $\langle \rho \rangle$  are trivial to obtain
- For bodies without orbiting satellites, things are more difficult – we must look for subtle perturbations to other bodies' orbits (e.g. the effect of a large asteroid on Mars' orbit, or the effect on a nearby spacecraft's orbit)
- Bulk densities are an important observational constraint on the structure of a planet. A selection is given below:

Object	Earth	Mars	Moon	Mathilde	Ida	Callisto	Io	Saturn	Pluto
$R$ (km)	6378	3390	1737	27	16	2400	1821	60300	1180
$\rho$ (g/cc)	5.52	3.93	3.34	1.3	2.6	1.85	3.53	0.69	~1.9

Data from Lodders and Fegley, 1998

# What do the densities tell us?

- Densities tell us about the different proportions of gas/ice/rock/metal in each planet
- But we have to take into account the facts that (1) bodies with low pressures may have high **porosity**, and that (2) most materials get denser under increasing pressure
- A big planet with the same bulk composition as a little planet will have a higher density because of this **self-compression** (e.g. Earth vs. Mars)
- In order to take self-compression into account, we need to know the behaviour of material under pressure.
- On their own, densities are of limited use. We have to use the information in conjunction with other data, like our expectations of **bulk composition**.

# Bulk composition (reminder)

Element	C	O	Mg	Si	S	Fe
Log <sub>10</sub> (No. Atoms)	7.00	7.32	6.0	6.0	5.65	5.95
Condens. Temp (K)	78	--	1340	1529	674	1337

- Four most common refractory elements: Mg, Si, Fe, S, present in (number) ratios 1:1:0.9:0.45
- Inner solar system bodies will consist of silicates (Mg,Fe,SiO<sub>3</sub>) plus iron cores
- These cores may be sulphur-rich (Mars?)
- Outer solar system bodies (beyond the snow line) will be the same but with solid H<sub>2</sub>O mantles on top

# Example: Venus

- Bulk density of Venus is 5.24 g/cc
- Surface composition of Venus is basaltic, suggesting peridotite mantle, with a density  $\sim 3$  g/cc
- Peridotite mantles have an Mg:Fe ratio of 9:1
- Primitive nebula has an Mg:Fe ratio of roughly 1:1
- What do we conclude?

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- Venus has an iron core (explains the high bulk density and iron depletion in the mantle)
- What other techniques could we use to confirm this hypothesis?



# Pressures inside planets

- **Hydrostatic assumption** (planet has no strength)

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho g$$

- For a planet of constant density  $\rho$  (**is this reasonable?**)

$$g(r) = \frac{4}{3} \pi G \rho r = g_0 \frac{r}{R}$$

$$P(r) = \frac{1}{2} g_0 \rho R \left( 1 - \frac{r^2}{R^2} \right) = \frac{2\pi G}{3} R^2 \rho^2 \left( 1 - \frac{r^2}{R^2} \right)$$

- So the central pressure of a planet increases as the *square* of its radius
- Moon  $R=1800\text{km}$   $P=7.2$  Gpa, Mars  $R=3400\text{km}$   $P=26$  GPa

# Pressures inside planets

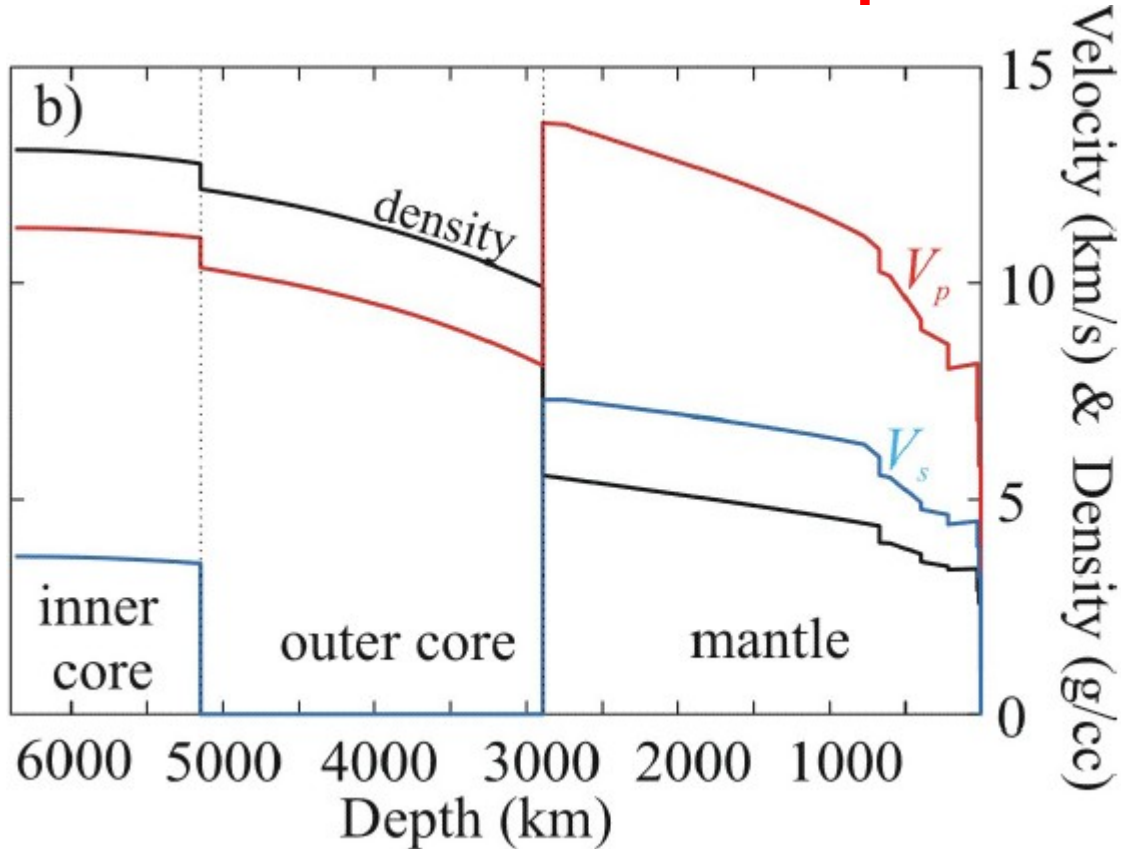
- The pressure inside a planet controls how materials behave
- E.g. porosity gets removed by material compacting and flowing, at pressures  $\sim$  few MPa
- The pressure required to cause a material's density to change significantly depends on the **bulk modulus** of that material

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho} = \frac{dP}{K}$$

The bulk modulus  $K$  controls the change in density (or volume) due to a change in pressure

- Typical bulk modulus for silicates is  $\sim$ 100 GPa
- Pressure near base of mantle on Earth is  $\sim$ 100 GPa
- So change in density from surface to base of mantle should be roughly a factor of 2 (ignoring phase changes)

# Real planets



- Which planet is this?
- Where does this information come from?

- Notice the increase in mantle density with depth  
– is it a smooth curve?
- How does gravity vary within the planet?

# Other techniques

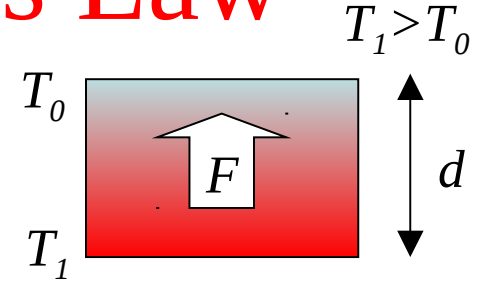
- There are other things we can do
- We can make use of more gravitational information to determine the **moment of inertia** of a body, and hence the distribution of mass within its interior
  - $I/(MR^2)$  gives information on central concentration
- There are also other techniques
  - Seismology (Earth, Moon)
  - Electromagnetic studies (Earth, Moon, Galilean satellites)

# Temperature Structures

- Planets generally start out hot (see below)
- But their surfaces (in the absence of an atmosphere) tend to cool very rapidly
- So a temperature gradient exists between the planet's interior and surface
- The temperature gradient means that the planet will tend to cool down with time

# Conduction - Fourier's Law

- Heat flow  $F = k \frac{(T_1 - T_0)}{d} = k \frac{dT}{dz}$
- Heat flows from hot to cold (thermodynamics) and is proportional to the temperature gradient
- Here  $k$  is the **thermal conductivity** ( $\text{Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$ ) and units of  $F$  are  $\text{Wm}^{-2}$  (heat flux is *per unit area*)
- Typical values for  $k$  are 2-4  $\text{Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$  (rock, ice) and 30-60  $\text{Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$  (metal)
- Solar energy flux at 1 au is  $\sim 1300 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
- Mean subsurface heat flux on Earth is  $0.08 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
- **What controls the surface temperature of most planetary bodies?**



# Specific Heat Capacity $C_p$

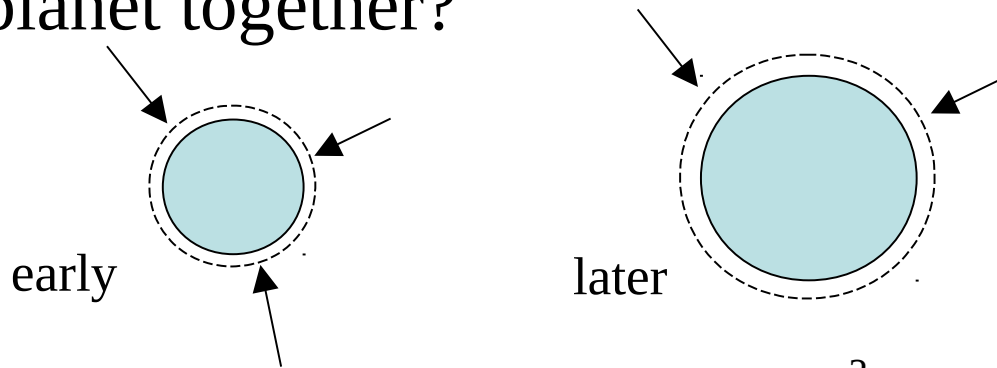
- The specific heat capacity  $C_p$  tells us how much energy needs to be added/subtracted to 1 kg of material to make its temperature increase/decrease by 1K
- Units:  $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$
- Typical values: rock  $1200 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$  , ice  $4200 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$

$$W = mC_p \Delta T$$

- Energy = mass x specific heat capacity x temp. change
- E.g. if the temperature gradient near the Earth's surface is  $25 \text{ K/km}$ , how fast is the Earth cooling down on average? (about  $170 \text{ K/Gyr}$ )
- Why is this estimate a bit too large?

# Energy of Accretion

- Let's assume that a planet is built up like an onion, one shell at a time. How much energy is involved in putting the planet together?



In which situation is more energy delivered?

$$\text{Total accretional energy} = \frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

If all this energy goes into heat\*, what is the resulting temperature change?

$$\Delta T = \frac{3}{5} \frac{GM}{C_p R}$$

\* Is this a reasonable assumption?

Earth  $M=6 \times 10^{24}$  kg  $R=6400$  km so  $\Delta T=30,000$  K

Mars  $M=6 \times 10^{23}$  kg  $R=3400$  km so  $\Delta T=6,000$  K

What do we conclude from this exercise?



# Accretion and Initial Temperatures

- If accretion occurs by lots of small impacts, a lot of the energy may be lost to space
- If accretion occurs by a few big impacts, all the energy will be deposited in the planet's interior
- Additional energy is released as differentiation occurs – dense iron sinks to centre of planet and releases potential energy as it does so
- What about radioactive isotopes? Short-lived radioisotopes ( $^{26}\text{Al}$ ,  $^{60}\text{Fe}$ ) can give out a lot of heat if bodies form while they are still active ( $\sim 1$  Myr after solar system formation)
- A big primordial atmosphere can also keep a planet hot
- So the rate and style of accretion (big vs. small impacts) is important, as well as how big the planet ends up

# Cooling a planet

- Large silicate planets (Earth, Venus) probably started out molten – magma ocean
- Magma ocean may have been helped by thick early atmosphere (high surface temperatures)
- Once atmosphere dissipated, surface will have cooled rapidly and formed a solid crust over molten interior
- If solid crust floats (e.g. plagioclase on the Moon) then it will insulate the interior, which will cool slowly ( $\sim$  Myrs)
- If the crust sinks, then cooling is rapid ( $\sim$  kyrs)
- **What happens once the magma ocean has solidified?**

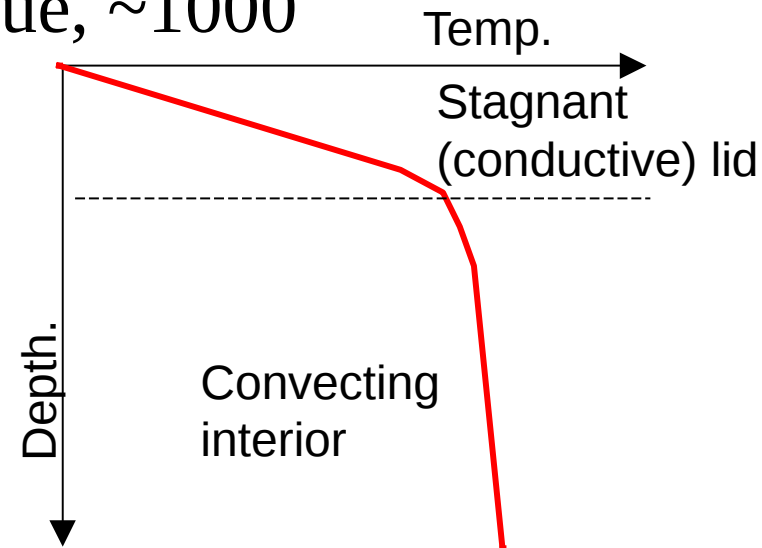


# Cooling a planet (cont'd)

- Planets which are small or cold will lose heat entirely by **conduction**
- For planets which are large or warm, the interior (mantle) will be **convecting** beneath a (conductive) **stagnant lid** (also known as the lithosphere)
- Whether convection occurs depends if the **Rayleigh number**  $Ra$  exceeds a critical value,  $\sim 1000$

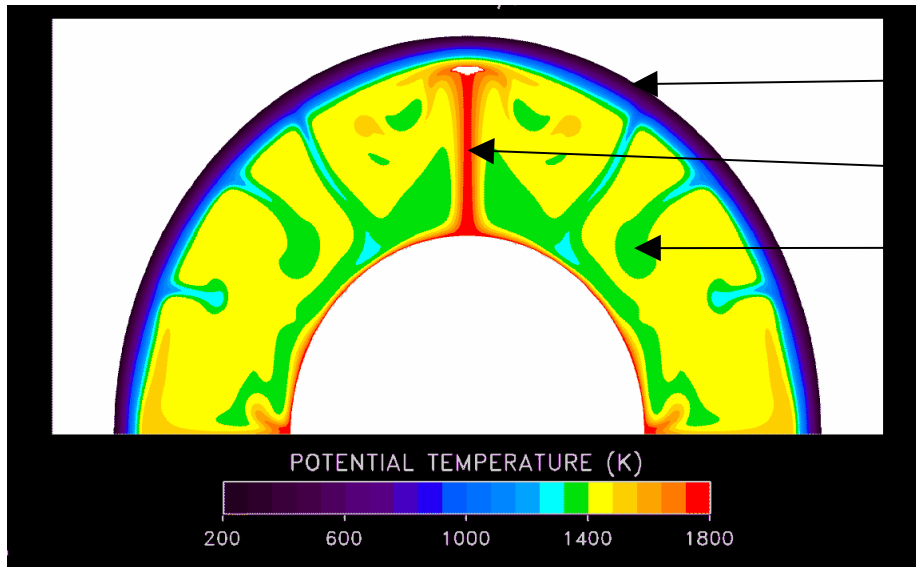
$$Ra = \frac{\rho g \alpha \Delta T d^3}{\kappa \eta}$$

Here  $\rho$  is density,  $g$  is gravity,  $\alpha$  is thermal expansivity,  $\Delta T$  is the temperature contrast,  $d$  is the layer thickness,  $\kappa$  is the thermal diffusivity and  $\eta$  is the viscosity. Note that  $\eta$  is strongly temperature-dependent.



# Convection

- Convective behaviour is governed by the Rayleigh number  $Ra$
- Higher  $Ra$  means more vigorous convection, higher heat flux, thinner stagnant lid
- As the mantle cools,  $\eta$  increases,  $Ra$  decreases, rate of cooling decreases  $\rightarrow$  *self-regulating* system



Stagnant lid (cold, rigid)

Plume (upwelling, hot)

Sinking blob (cold)

The number of upwellings and downwellings depends on the balance between internal heating and bottom heating of the mantle