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Water Supersaturation for Early Mars

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Key Points:

- We simulated water supersaturation in an Early Mars climate considering an abundant source of water on the surface and an arid scenarios;
- Supersaturation can warm Early Mars only with unrealistic supersaturation ratios;
- Supersaturation is only efficient when it occurs in the lower layers of the atmosphere in our simulations.

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13 **Abstract**

14 Evidence of past liquid water flowing on the surface of Mars has been identified since
 15 the first orbital mission to the planet. However, reconstructing the climate that would
 16 allow liquid water at the surface is still a intense area of research. Previous studies showed
 17 that an atmosphere composed only of CO₂ and H₂O could not sustain surface temper-
 18 atures above the freezing point of water. Different solutions have been studied, ranging
 19 from events like impacts to different atmospheric compositions, or even a radiative feed-
 20 back of water clouds that would create a dramatic greenhouse effect. In this context, we
 21 propose to study if the supersaturation of water could warm the planet. Strong super-
 22 saturation is observed in the present-day martian atmosphere. On early Mars supersat-
 23 uration could enhance the greenhouse effect through the strong absorption of the IR flux
 24 of water vapor or by modifying water clouds. While 1D modeling suggest a significant
 25 impact, our 3D model show that warming the climate of Early Mars require high super-
 26 saturation ratio, especially in the lower layers of the atmosphere. This configuration seems
 27 highly unrealistic, since the level of supersaturation are higher than what would be ex-
 28 pected in a dense atmosphere.

29 **1 Introduction**

30 Rovers and orbiters sent to Mars have provided us with compelling evidence for
 31 abundant liquid water flowing on the surface in the early days of the planet, during the
 32 Noachian and Hesperian eras. One of the biggest challenge in planetary science is to rec-
 33 oncile these geological and mineralogical features with a corresponding climate despite
 34 a fainter Sun irradiating approximately less than a third of today’s Earth received en-
 35 ergy (Gough, 1981; Sagan & Mullen, 1972). Some recent studies found that a reduced
 36 thick atmosphere, mainly composed of CO₂, H₂O and H₂, could sustain a warm climate
 37 for periods long enough and explain the presence of valley networks (Ramirez et al., 2014;
 38 Wordsworth, 2016; Turbet & Forget, 2022). However, explaining the entire Noachian /
 39 Hesperian era with this only scenario is unlikely since dramatic climate changes must
 40 have occurred during this 1 Gy long period. For instance, it is difficult to reconcile the
 41 presence of Mn-rich rocks, that could only be created within a wet and oxidized envi-
 42 ronment, with a consequent amount of H₂ in the atmosphere (Lanza et al., 2016). This
 43 is one reason in order to keep searching for new processes or events that can be respon-
 44 sible of a substantial greenhouse effect.

45 A recent study suggests that H₂O₂ could have provided a sufficient greenhouse ef-
 46 fect, assuming that H₂O₂ supersaturation occurs in the upper layers of the atmosphere
 47 (Ito et al., 2020). Given that water can be much more abundant and can absorb in the
 48 same window than H₂O₂, what about water supersaturation?

49 Moreover, supersaturation could have an effect on clouds by raising the hygropause.
 50 It would create higher and cooler clouds with a subsequently stronger greenhouse effect,
 51 leading to a potential warming of the surface. The cirrus clouds greenhouse warming hy-
 52 pothesis has been previously studied, first in the context of a post-impact climate (Segura
 53 et al., 2002, 2008, 2012) that showed promising results to sustain a warm climate over
 54 a relatively long period, although this was shown to be overestimated by (Turbet et al.,
 55 2017) because of convection and condensation processes. Other studies suggest that clouds
 56 could provide a warming but only under very specific assumptions on microphysics or
 57 ice location (Urata & Toon, 2013; Ramirez & Kasting, 2017; Kite et al., 2021) .

58 On current-day Mars, water in excess to saturation has been observed in the at-
 59 mosphere (Maltagliati et al., 2011; Fedorova et al., 2018, 2020), and is sometimes asso-
 60 ciated with the formation of water clouds. Supersaturation ratio are able to reach as much
 61 as 10 around 30-40 km (Maltagliati et al., 2011) and even up to 300 in the upper atmo-
 62 sphere of Mars, around 80km (Fedorova et al., 2020). It has been noticed that supersat-

63 uration in the top part of cirrus clouds is enhanced during the dusty season and in par-
 64 ticular during Global Dust Storms, reaching ratio of 5 at approximately 60-70 km (Poncin
 65 et al., 2022).

66 This phenomenon is also observed on Earth in the upper troposphere, and is mostly
 67 associated with the formation of cirrus clouds (Heymsfield et al., 2017; Krämer et al.,
 68 2020). It has also been observed near the surface on the icy desert of Antarctica (Genthon
 69 et al., 2017). Supersaturation ratios in cirrus clouds are limited by the formation of ice
 70 particles from either homogeneous or heterogeneous nucleation (Vali et al., 2015; Baum-
 71 gartner et al., 2022). Relative humidity in these conditions is not exceeding 200% (Krämer
 72 et al., 2009; Lamquin et al., 2012), which is also the order of magnitude observed in Antarc-
 73 tica (Genthon et al., 2017). Some water ice particles are sometimes found in the sum-
 74 mertime high-latitude mesosphere, creating supersaturation ratio exceeding 10^5 and then
 75 giving birth to noctilucent clouds (Murray & Jensen, 2010). This ratio is constrained by
 76 the homogeneous nucleation from the vapor phase and thus can be considered as an ex-
 77 treme upper limit for our study. However, reaching these levels of saturation in the lower
 78 atmosphere seems unrealistic.

79 In this paper, using 1D and 3D climate models, we try to establish the potential
 80 of water supersaturation for warming the surface of Early Mars. We do not consider any
 81 a priori assumption concerning supersaturation limitation or origin, excepted that the
 82 source of water is located at the surface of the planet for 3D simulations. We tested two
 83 set of simulations in order to explore the sensitivity to available water, with a relatively
 84 arid simulation and an idealistic extremely wet simulation.

85 2 Methods

86 2.1 General Description

87 For this study, we used the LMD Generic Global Climate Model both in its 1D and
 88 3D versions, adapted to typical Noachian conditions. The Early Mars climates have al-
 89 ready been studied with this model including full CO_2 and water cycles (Forget et al.,
 90 2013; Wordsworth et al., 2013; Turbet et al., 2017; Turbet & Forget, 2019, 2022). and
 91 a full description of the model can be found in Forget et al. (2013) and Wordsworth et
 92 al. (2013). We assume a mean surface pressure of 2 bar because it is the optimum pres-
 93 sure for warming an atmosphere mainly composed of CO_2 (Forget et al., 2013, Fig. 1).
 94 The solar flux is 75 % of today's, giving a mean solar flux on Mars of 111 W/m^2 .

95 This paper first presents global averaged 1D simulations vertically divided into 34
 96 layers (up to $\sim 1 \text{ Pa}$ or 100 km). Water is only considered as a radiatively active gas in
 97 the atmospheric composition. We do not consider a full water cycle, since evaporation,
 98 condensation and rain are neglected in the 1D simulations. The effects of water clouds
 99 are not included in the 1D simulations but we explore the role of water clouds by im-
 100 plementing a full water cycle in 3D simulations. However, CO_2 clouds are taken into ac-
 101 count and CO_2 microphysics is performed with a Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN) den-
 102 sity of 1000 particles/kg. We tuned this parameter in order to model a global greenhouse
 103 effect analogous to the one obtained in 3D by Wordsworth et al. (2013).

104 3D simulations were performed with a horizontal resolution of 32×32 in longitude
 105 \times latitude. The vertical dimensions is split into 15 layers with altitudes up to $\sim 1000 \text{ Pa}$.
 106 Vertical layers are described using hybrid coordinates.

107 We used the pre-True Polar Wander (pre-TPW) topography from Bouley et al. (2016)
 108 that demonstrated the formation of late Noachian valley networks is likely to have pre-
 109 dated the formation of most of the Tharsis volcanic buldge. The pre-TPW topography
 110 is based on present-day MOLA topography but without Tharsis and all the younger vol-

111 canic features. It also takes into account that a True Polar Wander event of 20°-25° oc-
 112 curred during the rise of Tharsis.

113 Because the water content during Noachian is poorly constrained, we explore two
 114 different scenarios for available water in the climate system. First, we use a relatively
 115 dry initial state where ice is mainly located on cold traps, i.e. high altitude areas and
 116 poles. This initial state comes from the simulation presented in Bouley et al. (2016, Fig. 2b)
 117 and is therefore considered as realistic, although it has been done for a mean surface pres-
 118 sure of 0.2 bar. Global equivalent layer of ice is approximately 37 mm thick.

119 The other set of 3D simulations is performed with an idealistic wet set-up designed
 120 to overestimate the amount of water vapor in the atmosphere and thus the greenhouse
 121 effect. We initialize simulations with a global ice sheet of 10m covering the entire planet.
 122 In order to maximise water in the atmosphere, we set the albedo of the ice to 0.2, which
 123 is usually the albedo of bare ground. Combined to an obliquity of 40°, these simulations
 124 are designed to explore the supersaturation scenario for an idealistic extremely wet case.

125 2.2 Modeling Supersaturation

126 2.2.1 Supersaturation in the 1D model

127 Supersaturation is implemented in a simple way for 1D simulations. At the end of
 128 each time step, we calculate the water mass mixing ratio (mmr) at saturation in each
 129 layer using the Clausius-Clapeyron equation. Then this mass mixing ratio of water is
 130 multiplied by a supersaturation ratio (*sursat* parameter). A pressure limit of supersat-
 131 uration (*plim*) is added to the model in order to allow supersaturation only above a cer-
 132 tain level. If the pressure of a given layer is higher than *plim*, the supersaturation ra-
 133 tio is set equal to 1 (saturation). In these 1D simulations, the water mixing ratio is not
 134 free to evolve and is at least the mixing ratio at saturation.

135 2.2.2 Supersaturation in the 3D model

136 In order to allow supersaturation, the model has been modified where condensa-
 137 tion and cloud formation are involved. The cloud formation is mainly described by a large-
 138 scale condensation scheme, a moist convective adjustment (Manabe & Wetherald, 1967),
 139 and vertical mixing of the boundary layer (Wordsworth et al., 2013; Turbet et al., 2017).
 140 In the large scale condensation scheme, condensation occurs when the water mass mix-
 141 ing ratio is above a relative humidity $RH = 100\%$ or $RH = sursat(\geq 100\%)$ depend-
 142 ing on the pressure of the layer and the *plim* parameter, similarly to the description of
 143 the 1D model.

144 3 Results

145 3.1 1D model

146 Figure 1 shows the evolution of the surface temperature of our 1D model with the
 147 supersaturation parameter *sursat*. Two sets of simulations are shown. The blue line rep-
 148 resented with dots shows results obtained with radiatively active CO₂ clouds, the crossed
 149 orange line being with inactive radiative clouds. It can be inferred that there is no major
 150 feedback of supersaturation on the greenhouse effect of CO₂ clouds with the chosen
 151 microphysics parameters, the difference between the two curves being almost constant.
 152 Surface temperature reaches the freezing point of water for supersaturation ratio around
 153 10. Since the surface pressure is 2 bar, it requires lower layers to be supersaturated at
 154 levels much higher than what is observed today in cirrus clouds which can be seen as un-
 155 realistic. We can observe supersaturation levels greater than 10 in today's Mars but the
 156 pressure is much more lower in these layers of the atmosphere (Maltagliati et al., 2011).

157 Figure 2 illustrates the need of supersaturation occurring in the lower layers in or-
 158 der to have a significant greenhouse effect. The effect of supersaturation is limited to a
 159 few Kelvins if it is only above 1 bar (~ 8 km) and there is no effect if it occurs only above
 160 0.5 bar (~ 17 km).

161 We can observe significant warming with $plim < 0.5$ bar only for high supersat-
 162 uration ratio (not shown). For example, simulations reach a surface temperature of 282 K
 163 (275 K) for a *sursat* ratio of 10^5 and a *plim* parameter of 0.2 bar (0.1 bar) respectively.
 164 This scenario would imply a high production of H_2O in the upper layers of the atmo-
 165 sphere and not only a transport of water from the surface to higher layers.

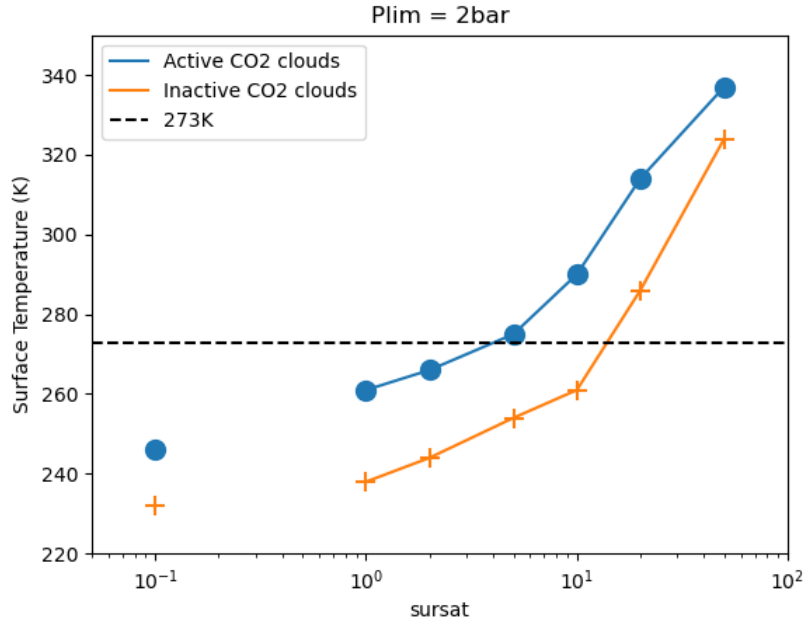


Figure 1. Surface Temperature as a function of supersaturation ratio for 1D simulation. Supersaturation is allowed down to the surface ($plim=ps$). Surface pressure is 2 bar.

166 3.2 Effect of supersaturation in 3D models

167 The 1D results suggest that water supersaturation could warm Early Mars, assum-
 168 ing that it would occur everywhere and especially in the lower atmosphere. To further
 169 investigate if this is possible, and to explore the feedback between clouds and supersat-
 170 uration, a 3D model is needed.

171 3.2.1 Arid Simulation

172 The first set of simulations is performed with mean surface pressure of 2 bar and
 173 relatively dry initial conditions as described in section 2.1. Water ice is mainly located
 174 on the high region near the current location of Tharsis (Bouley et al., 2016, Fig. 2) and
 175 the global water content is 33mm GEL mainly of ice on the surface (10pr- μ m of water
 176 ice clouds, 390pr- μ m of water vapor). A reference simulation is performed without su-
 177 persaturation. The average mean temperature is 253K consistent with Wordsworth et
 178 al. (2013). Figure 3 shows the mean annual surface temperature for different simulations
 179 performed from this dry initial state. In Figures 4 and 5, the relative humidity RH and

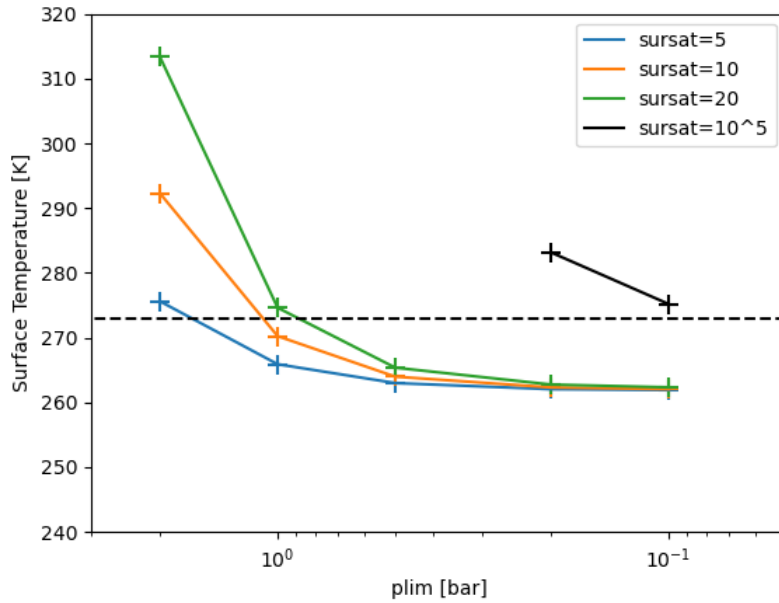


Figure 2. Surface Temperature as a function of pressure limit of supersaturation for 1D simulation and for different supersaturation ratio. Surface pressure is 2 bar.

180 cloud density are respectively shown, for the same simulations. Global mean tempera-
 181 ture and planetary albedo are indicated for these simulations.

182 As expected for such surface pressure (Forget et al., 2013, Fig. 7), local surface tem-
 183 peratures are influenced by adiabatic warming and cooling mechanisms and we can see
 184 that the northern plains are globally warmer (around 20K) than the southern hemisphere
 185 for all simulations, except for Hellas basin. As expected from the 1D study (Figure 2),
 186 supersaturation is only efficient when it occurs in the lower layers of the atmosphere. Here,
 187 for a *sursat* parameter of 10 (3b, c, d), there is no warming when supersaturation is as-
 188 sumed only above the 0.5 bar level. Figure 3e confirms that even with high supersatu-
 189 ration ratio, there is no significant warming if the *plim* parameter is less than 0.5 bar.
 190 Simulation with even higher *sursat* ratio (not shown in this paper) does not present sig-
 191 nificantly rising temperature since water vapor struggles to reach the higher layers of the
 192 atmosphere.

193 Annual and zonal mean relative humidity profiles are shown in Figure 4. The ref-
 194 erence simulation (Figure 3a) depicts a maximum zone of relative humidity between 0.5
 195 and 1 bar. This optimum zone corresponds to a hygro-pause (see Figure 5) and the higher
 196 layers above 0.1 bar are relatively dry. A similar pattern is observed for simulations where
 197 supersaturation is uniformly allowed down to the surface (Figure 3b and f). If supersatu-
 198 ration is allowed only from 1 bar (Figure 3d), the wet area is thinner and it even van-
 199 ishes when supersaturation is allowed only from 0.5 bar (Figure 3c and e). As a conse-
 200 quence, our simulations can not fully supersaturate the layers above 0.5 bar and are un-
 201 able to create a significant warming even with high supersaturation ratio.

202 Zonally and annually averaged cloud density is shown in Figure 5. In the reference
 203 simulation (Figure 5a), clouds are mainly located around the pressure level of 1 bar and
 204 vertically limited by a hygro-pause at approximately 0.5 bar. The pattern is identical for
 205 simulations with $sursat \leq 1 \text{ bar}$ (Figure 5c,d,e) and we observe a slight shift towards

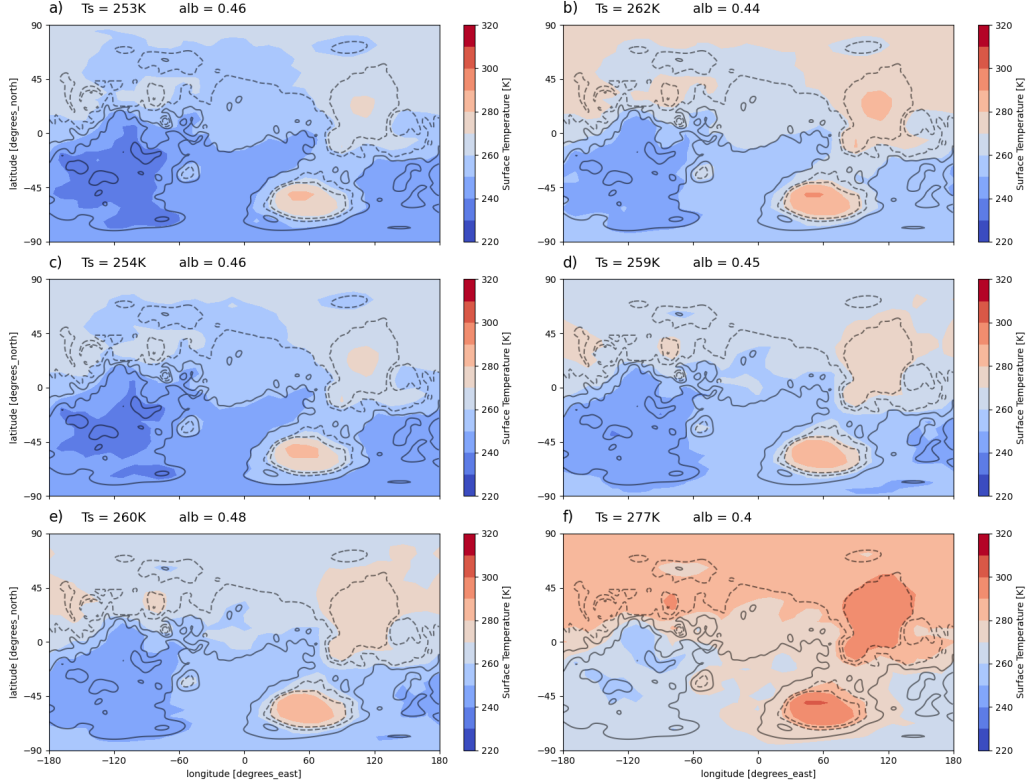


Figure 3. Annual mean surface temperature for an arid scenario with a mean surface pressure of 2 bar. *sursat* and *plim* are the two parameters of the supersaturation model, respectively for the maximal supersaturation ratio allowed and the maximal pressure where supersaturation can occur. a) Reference simulation, *sursat*=1; b) *sursat*=10, *plim*= p_s ; c) *sursat*=10 *plim*=0.5 bar; d) *sursat*=10 *plim* 1 bar; e) *sursat*=1000 *plim*=0.5 bar; f) *sursat*=100 *plim*= p_s . Global mean surface temperature and Bond albedo are indicated.

206 higher altitudes when $plim = p_s$ (Figure 5b). For the extreme case simulation with *sursat*=100
 207 (Figure 5f), water clouds are totally removed from the atmosphere. A simulation similar to the reference simulation but performed without the radiative effect of clouds (not
 208 shown here) shows that clouds have a limited impact on the global surface temperature.
 209 Thus, in the case of arid simulations, the warming observed with high *sursat* values is
 210 fully related to the quantity of water vapor in the atmosphere, which absorbs the emitted
 211 IR flux.
 212

213 3.2.2 Idealized Wet Simulation

214 This scenario is designed in order to maximize the amount of water vapor in the
 215 atmosphere, assuming that there is no significant photochemical source in the atmosphere.
 216 Although if this is not physically realistic, because we set a unusually low albedo for the
 217 ice (0.2, typical of bare soil) this scenario allows to explore if the atmospheric circulation
 218 limit the amount of water vapor when surface sources are abundant. Similarly to
 219 the arid scenario, Figures 6, 7, 8 respectively describe annual mean surface temperature,
 220 zonal and annual average of relative humidity and cloud density. Even with a water
 221 content significantly higher in this idealized wet scenario (see Table 1), the simulations
 222 are not able to reach a global mean surface temperature above the freezing point

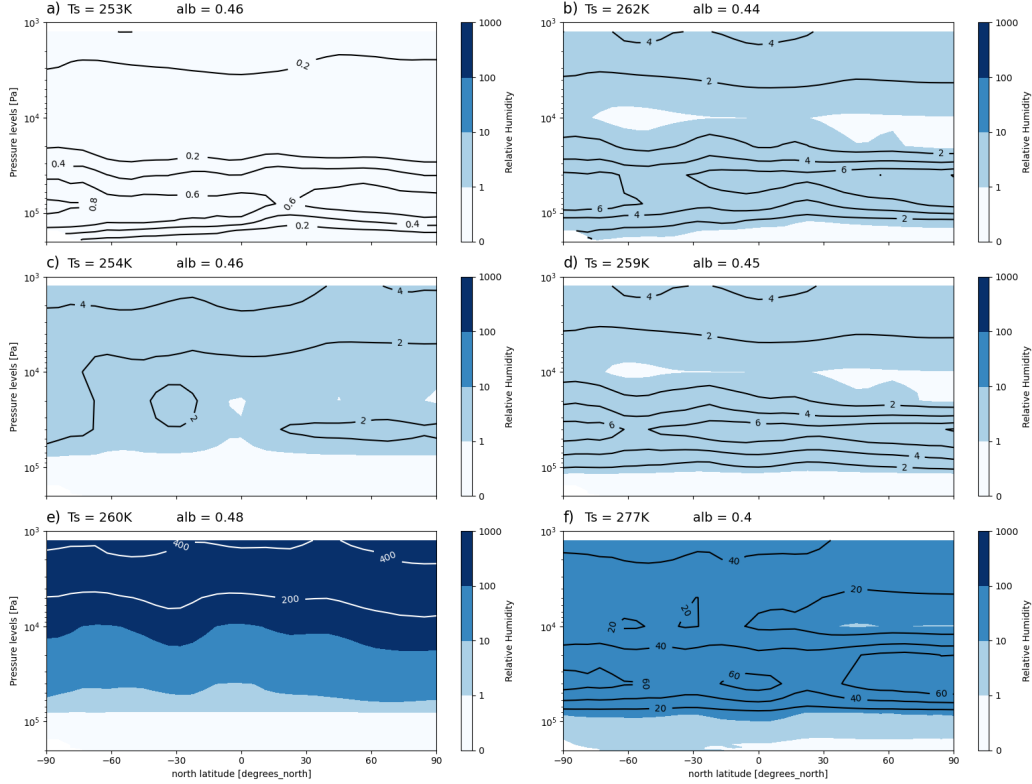


Figure 4. Annual and zonal mean relative humidity for an arid scenario with a mean surface pressure of 2 bar. *sursat* and *plim* are the two parameters of the supersaturation model, respectively for the maximal supersaturation ratio allowed and the maximal pressure where supersaturation can occur. a) Reference simulation, *sursat*=1; b) *sursat*=10, *plim*=ps; c) *sursat*=10 *plim*=0.5 bar; d) *sursat*=10 *plim* 1 bar; e) *sursat*=1000 *plim*=0.5 bar; f) *sursat*=100 *plim*=ps. Global mean surface temperature and Bond albedo are indicated.

223 of water, excepted for the *sursat*=100 simulation, that is described further. Surface tem-
 224 peratures are even slightly colder than in the arid scenario.

225 Surface temperatures are lower mainly because of the high albedo of clouds that
 226 cover a large part of the planet. This negative feedback is not compensated by a strong
 227 enough greenhouse effect. As shown in Figure 8. The high amount of water injected in
 228 the atmosphere from the initial ice sheet create thick low clouds (Figure 8a,c,d,e) with
 229 a net cooling effect. Supersaturation is able to raise the forming altitude of clouds and
 230 reduce the total planetary albedo (Figure 8b,f) but only when supersaturation is allowed
 231 from the ground to the top of the atmosphere.

232 Similarly to the arid scenario, we observe that water vapor is not fully supersat-
 233 urated in the highest levels of the atmosphere, especially for simulations with low *sursat*
 234 or *plim* parameters (Figure 7). The simulation with a high *sursat* ratio (Figure 7e) reaches
 235 slightly lower relative humidity in the upper layers compared to the arid simulation and
 236 still is not able to provide a significant warming, despite our ambition to model a more
 237 humid atmosphere in this scenario. As a consequence, we are not able to create a highly
 238 supersaturated layer in the upper atmosphere as it is done in Ito et al. (2020) with H₂O₂.

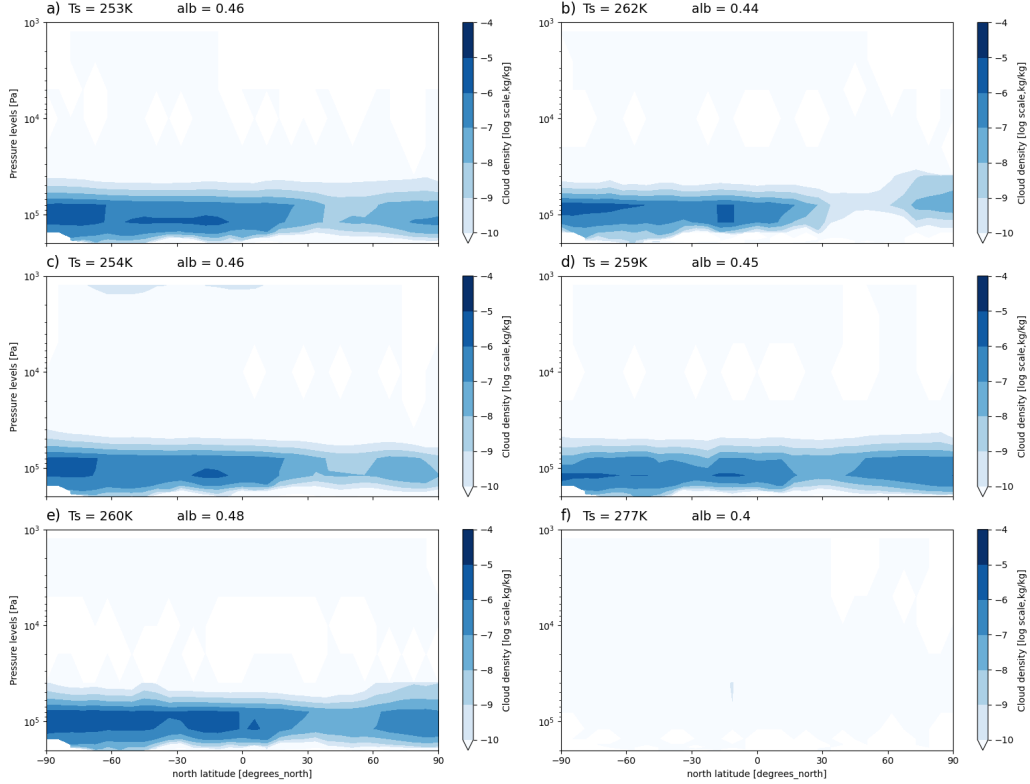


Figure 5. Annual and zonal mean water ice cloud density (kg/kg, log scale) for an arid scenario with a mean surface pressure of 2 bar. *sursat* and *plim* are the two parameters of the supersaturation model, respectively for the maximal supersaturation ratio allowed and the maximal pressure where supersaturation can occur. a) Reference simulation, *sursat*=1; b) *sursat*=10, *plim*=ps; c) *sursat*=10 *plim*=0.5 bar; d) *sursat*=10 *plim* 1 bar; e) *sursat*=1000 *plim*=0.5 bar; f) *sursat*=100 *plim*=ps. Mean surface temperature and Bond albedo are indicated.

239 The extreme case presented in Figure 7f is surprising in the fact that the surface
 240 temperature pattern is not similar to others simulations. In fact, due to the high quan-
 241 tities of water in the layers where the pressure is above 2 bar, we observe a decrease of
 242 the incident solar flux at the surface due to the absorption of the water vapor in the solar
 243 spectrum range. This creates a pattern where low-altitude regions such as the Hel-
 244 las basin or Elysium Planitia have lower surface temperature than areas located at higher
 245 altitude. The effect of a high *sursat* ratio is interesting regarding clouds, because it raise
 246 the altitude of clouds which are also less dense. The global result is a lower cooling ef-
 247 fect of clouds, since high cirrus clouds are expected to create a stronger greenhouse ef-
 248 fect (Ramirez & Kasting, 2017). This simulation shows a global mean surface temper-
 249 ature above the freezing point of water and more interestingly in the southern areas, where
 250 valley networks are currently observed. However, the supersaturation levels and the quan-
 251 tity of water in the atmosphere is totally unrealistic.

252 4 Conclusions

253 Using 1D and 3D global climate models, We investigated the potential impact of
 254 a water supersaturation for warming a CO₂-dominated atmosphere on Early Mars. Our
 255 1D results showed that supersaturation could warm the planet considering high super-

Table 1. Yearly Global Water Content (kg/m^2)

<i>Simulation</i>	Surface Ice	Clouds particles	Vapor
DRY Ref	32.6	0.010	0.4
DRY S10	28.8	0.007	4.0
IC Ref	9938	0.10	1.6
IC S10	9986	0.06	16.3

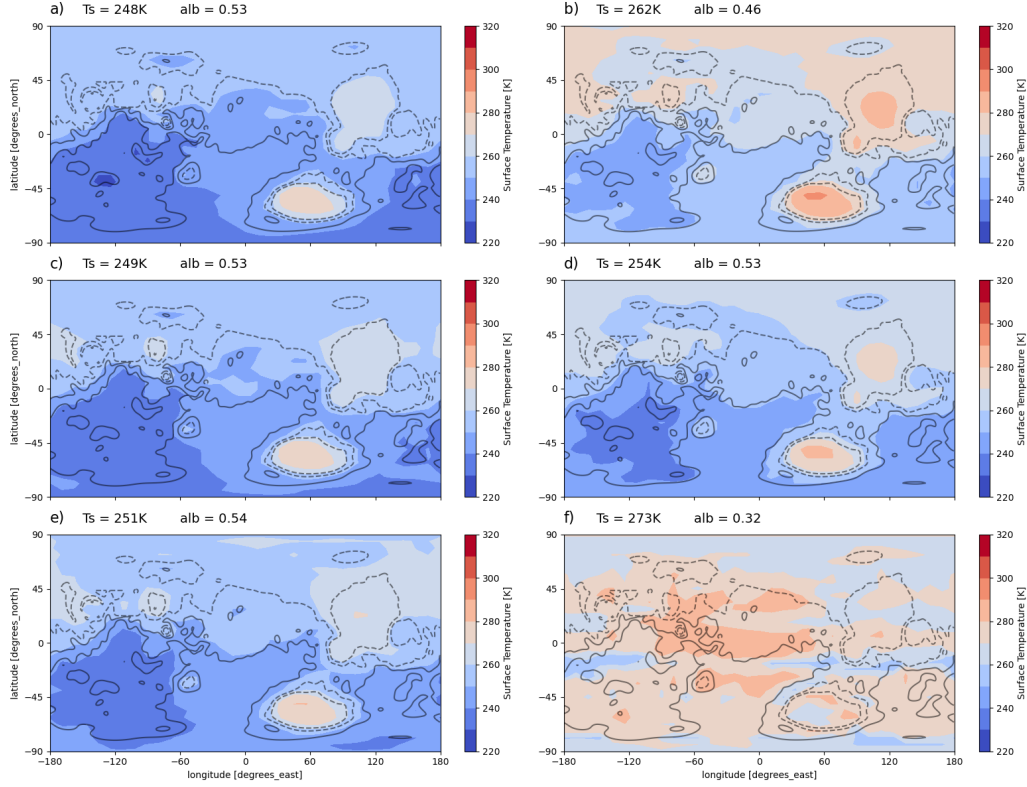


Figure 6. Annual mean surface temperature for an idealized wet scenario with a mean surface pressure of 2 bar. *sursat* and *plim* are the two parameters of the supersaturation model, respectively for the maximal supersaturation ratio allowed and the maximal pressure where supersaturation can occur. a) Reference simulation, *sursat*=1; b) *sursat*=10, *plim*=ps; c) *sursat*=10 *plim*=0.5 bar; d) *sursat*=10 *plim* 1 bar; e) *sursat*=1000 *plim*=0.5 bar; f) *sursat*=100 *plim*=ps. Global mean surface temperature and Bond albedo are indicated.

256 saturation ratio in every layer of the atmosphere, especially the lower layers. This con-
 257 clusion is tempered by 3D results, where we reached a relevant warming with supersat-
 258 uration ratio highly unrealistic in the lower layers of a dense atmosphere.

259 Additionally, we demonstrated that supersaturation can create higher altitude clouds
 260 both in our arid and idealized wet simulation with water sources on the surface. This
 261 raise of water clouds is however seen only with supersaturation occurring from the ground
 262 and is not enough to create a sustainable warming of the surface in most of our simu-
 263 lations. An extreme case with unrealistic supersaturation ratio of 100 creates a signif-

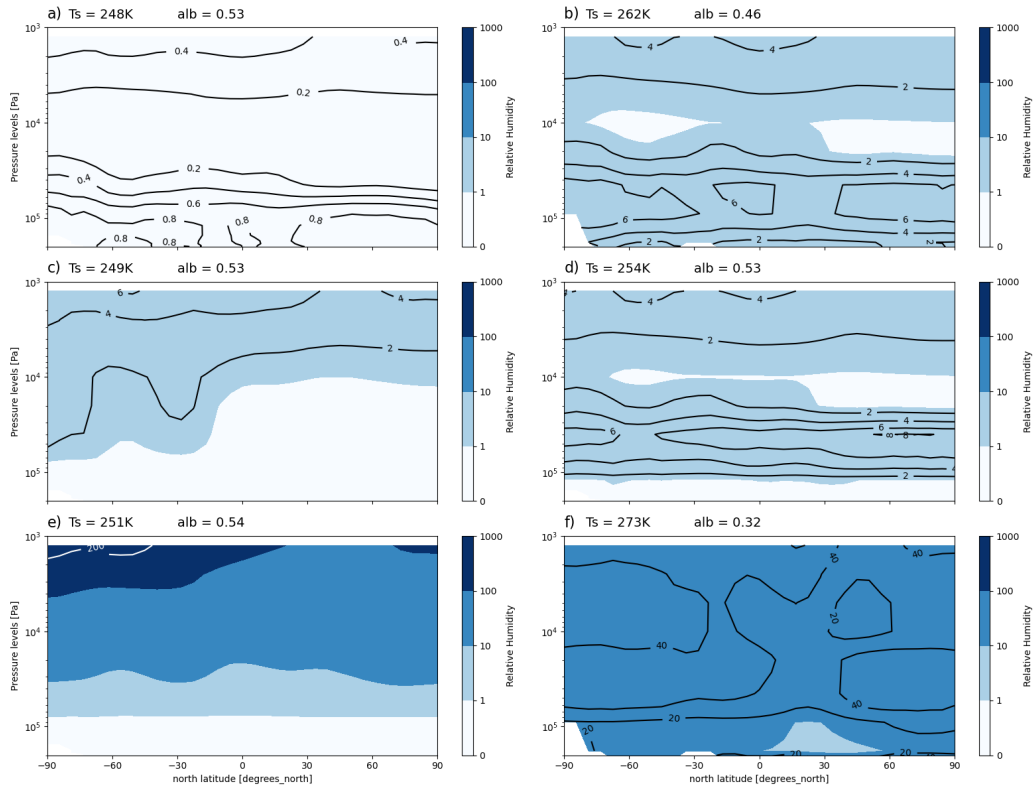


Figure 7. Annual and zonal mean relative humidity for an idealized wet scenario with a mean surface pressure of 2 bar. *sursat* and *plim* are the two parameters of the supersaturation model, respectively for the maximal supersaturation ratio allowed and the maximal pressure where supersaturation can occur. a) Reference simulation, *sursat*=1; b) *sursat*=10, *plim*=ps; c) *sursat*=10 *plim*=0.5 bar; d) *sursat*=10 *plim* 1 bar; e) *sursat*=1000 *plim*=0.5 bar; f) *sursat*=100 *plim*=ps. Global mean surface temperature and Bond albedo are indicated.

264 icant warming, associated to a high amount of water vapor in the atmosphere and a higher
 265 cloud layer.

266 5 Open Research

267 Data files for figures used in this analysis are available in a public repository, see
 268 Delavois et al. (2022).

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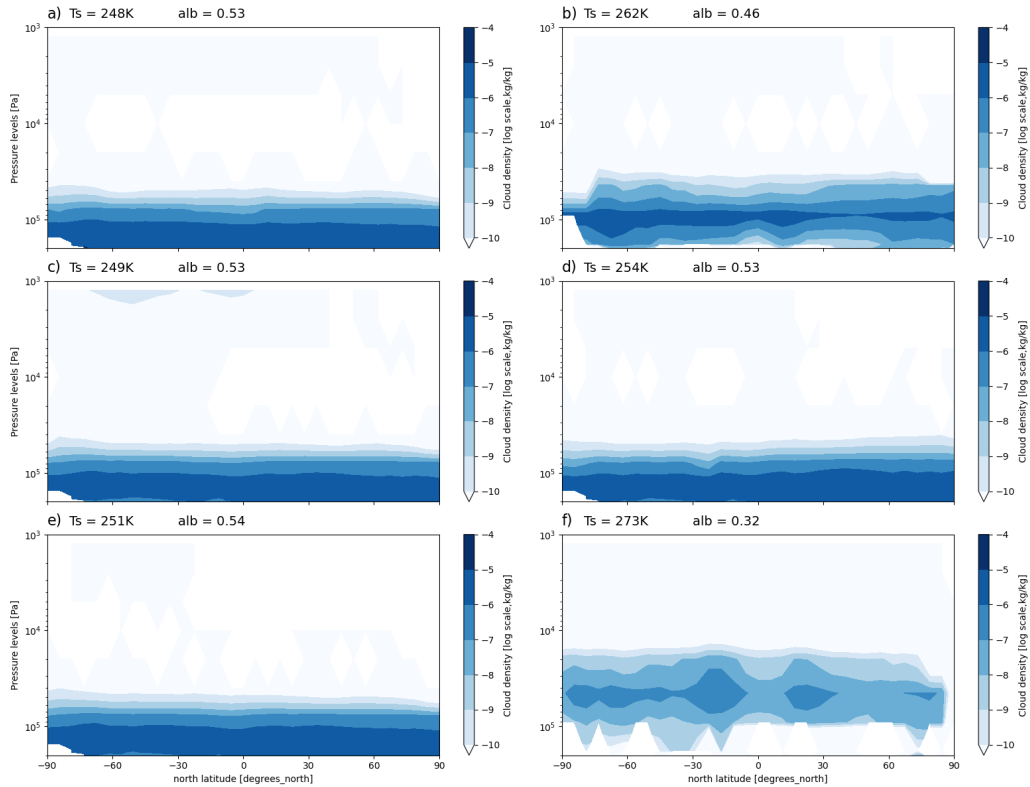


Figure 8. Annual and zonal mean water ice cloud density (kg/kg, log scale) for an idealized wet scenario with a mean surface pressure of 2 bar. *sursat* and *plim* are the two parameters of the supersaturation model, respectively for the maximal supersaturation ratio allowed and the maximal pressure where supersaturation can occur. a) Reference simulation, *sursat*=1; b) *sursat*=10, *plim*=ps; c) *sursat*=10 *plim*=0.5 bar; d) *sursat*=10 *plim* 1 bar; e) *sursat*=1000 *plim*=0.5 bar; f) *sursat*=100 *plim*=ps. Mean surface temperature and Bond albedo are indicated.

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