# 1 ANTHONY DEL GENIO: CLIMATES OF PLANETS NEAR AND FAR

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| 12 | Plain language summary: This essay describes a career that has spanned one of the most                |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|----|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 13 | momentous periods in science history, a time when humankind first ventured into space, visited        |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | every planet in the Solar System, discovered thousands of planets orbiting other stars, and during    |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | this whole time, began to unintentionally transform the climate of our own planet. The author had     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | the opportunity to do research in all these areas – after failing an early graduate school exam – and |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 | grew as a scientist along the way as the direct result of working across disciplines, with the help   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18 | of many colleagues whose talents complemented and often exceeded his own.                             |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 19 |                                                                                                       |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 | Key points:                                                                                           |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 21 | • The path of a scientific career can be serendipitous – and that's a good thing.                     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 22 | • Science today is mostly a team effort rather than a sole pursuit.                                   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | • Cross-discipline thinking is beneficial to a rewarding scientific career.                           |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

24 **1 A "Rocky" Beginning** 

25 This should have been an essay about the career of a planetary geophysicist. As an 26 undergraduate engineering student in the early 1970s looking to switch fields, my Cornell advisor, 27 AGU Fellow Joe Burns, served as an example of how my education could lead to a career in 28 planetary sciences. This was an exciting time in the history of science, not long after the first 29 NASA missions to Venus and Mars. Joe helped me put together a course plan that would position 30 AGU Fellow Joe Veverka mentored me in an me well for graduate school in this field. 31 independent study counting craters in early Mariner Mars images that were showing the face of 32 another planet to us in detail for the first time.

33 I arrived at UCLA for graduate school in 1973 to work with geophysicist and AGU Fellow 34 Jerry Schubert, fascinated by what was being learned about the dynamic interiors of Earth and 35 other planets. My career path seemed set. Then at the end of my first year, I took the department-36 wide comprehensive exam. I was confident about the geophysics section of the exam - I knew 37 my mantle convection, sea floor spreading, magnetic field reversals, gravity field harmonics. 38 Unfortunately that year the geophysics exam was all seismology, written by AGU Fellow Leon Knopoff. The angry red slashes through most of what I wrote told a different story about my 39 40 understanding of geophysics. I had done well in the planetary atmospheres and geophysical fluid 41 dynamics sections of the exams, though, and Jerry gently suggested (managing to hold back 42 laughter) that I might want to consider pursuing research in those areas instead.

Mariner 10 had just flown by Venus the previous November, sending back the first detailed
images of another planet's atmosphere. Jerry had just begun a collaboration with astronomer Mike
Belton to analyze the mysterious dark ultraviolet (UV) features in those images. Together they
guided me through my first trip through the terror of the peer review process, leading to my first

47 paper (*Belton et al.*, 1976), which suggested that the major UV features on Venus were produced
48 by a planetary-scale Kelvin wave. This began my career as a planetary atmospheric scientist.

49 In the course of that research, I realized that I needed to know much more about atmospheric dynamics than is covered by planetary science courses. UCLA has a world-class 50 51 atmospheric science department, and I was able to take courses from several giants of the field, 52 Akio Arakawa and Michio Yanai, and to meet atmospheric science grad students such as future 53 AGU Fellow David Randall. At this time cumulus parameterization in 3-D atmospheric general 54 circulation models (GCMs) was just beginning to receive serious attention. I'd like to say that I 55 recognized my great fortune in being able to interact with and learn from these people who were 56 so instrumental in advancing our understanding of moist convection, but in truth I was clueless at 57 the time about the significance of what they were doing. I did however get my first taste of 58 terrestrial meteorology and used it to write my Ph. D. dissertation on how the compositional 59 stratification of the thermosphere affects the characteristics of gravity waves, guided by Jerry 60 Schubert and Joe M. Straus (e.g., Del Genio et al., 1979).

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## 62 2 An Eventful Summer

During my graduate school tenure, the NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies (GISS) had been selected to put a photopolarimeter on the upcoming Pioneer Venus Orbiter mission. The Principal Investigator, AGU Fellow Jim Hansen, was seeking young scientists to eventually work on data analysis for the mission. I was still two years from my Ph.D., but Jerry put me in touch with Jim, who invited me to spend the summer of 1976 at GISS. This was a chance to learn from scientists who were at the forefront of using polarimetry to deduce the properties of particulates in planetary atmospheres, not only Jim, but also David Coffeen, Larry Travis, and Kiyoshi Kawabata. 70 At that time Jim had also begun applying his knowledge of radiative transfer to the problem of 71 terrestrial anthropogenic climate change and was leading a project to develop a GCM specifically 72 for use in projecting future climate warming. That summer Jim asked me if I had any interest in 73 moist convection. With confidence (and naïveté), I replied that I had taken Arakawa's course and 74 could certainly develop a good cumulus parameterization for the GISS GCM. Years later, at a 75 conference on cumulus parameterization, I presented the ideas of my long-time collaborator and 76 co-author Mao-Sung Yao and myself (*Del Genio and Yao*, 1993), describing a scheme intended to 77 capture the essentials of moist convection efficiently enough to simulate long-term climate change. 78 After my talk, an audience member stated that he didn't think we should even be running GCM 79 climate change simulations until the cumulus parameterization problem was solved. My response 80 was to ask how long that might take, and would the climate already have warmed by then?

81 I am still trying to develop a good cumulus parameterization, and the climate has indeed 82 already warmed. But today I'd answer that comment by saying that any attempt we make to model 83 the Earth system is merely an opening gambit. Earth responds by telling us (if we devote the 84 resources to observe it) that we got some things right but there is still more work to do. This 85 iterative process, which balances the hubris required for scientists to believe we can understand a 86 system as complex as the Earth with the humility required to accept that we never have all the 87 answers and the motivation to dig deeper, is essential to scientific progress. The good news is that 88 over time our models, though imperfect, become increasingly useful tools (Schmidt, 2009). In fact, 89 the past decade has seen impressive progress in cumulus parameterization (*Rio et al.*, 2019). The 90 beauty of science, if we are patient, is that nature reveals its secrets little by little, slowly enough 91 to keep us pressing forward for more, but fast enough for us not to despair.

92 As members of the GISS GCM development team, first led by Jim and later by AGU 93 Fellow Gavin Schmidt, Yao and I have been able to add new pieces of the physics of convection to our parameterization over time (e.g., Del Genio et al., 2015), as well as implementing the 94 95 GCM's first version of a prognostic scheme for cloud water and ice (Del Genio et al., 1996). As I prepare to depart the scene my colleagues Andy Ackerman, Ye Cheng, Greg Elsaesser, Ann 96 97 Fridlind, and Max Kelley are now upgrading many aspects of the cloud, convection, and turbulence 98 parameterizations in the GCM to produce an increasingly capable tool for exploring cloud and 99 convection feedbacks, though more will always need to be done.

A NASA conference proceedings that illustrates the necessary tension between knowledge and its continual pursuit was given to me during that 1976 summer at GISS. The conference was held to discuss understanding of Venus' atmosphere post-Mariner 10 and pre-Pioneer Venus, and the proceedings captured the post-presentation Q&A. After planetary atmospheric dynamicist Peter Stone spoke about his theory for Venus' deep circulation, discussion ensued between the speaker and Al Seiff, Mike Belton, and Seymour Hess about Stone's prediction of a 0.1°C equatorpole temperature contrast (*Stone*, 1975):

- 107 DR. SEIFF: What happens if, on Pioneer Venus, we find temperature contrasts of the order of a
  108 few degrees?
- 109 DR. STONE: Why, I'd be disappointed.
- 110 DR. SEIFF: Disappointed?
- 111 DR. STONE: Yes, because obviously a different mechanism must be invoked to explain that.
- 112 DR. BELTON: Don't you think you would be excited?
- 113 DR. HESS: First, disappointed. Then excited.
- 114 DR. STONE: Yes. I am speaking as a theoretician here.

115 Temperature contrasts on Venus did turn out to be small, but not quite as small as Stone 116 had predicted due to the near-cyclostrophic wind balance associated with Venus' superrotation at 117 depth, which at that time had not yet been confirmed to exist. Pioneer Venus demonstrated that 118 the superrotation – an atmosphere circulating 60 times as fast as the rotating solid surface beneath 119 it - that had been inferred from ground-based observations of the movement of dark UV features 120 across Venus' disk was real rather than an artifact caused by the phase speeds of propagating waves. 121 Nonetheless, when I returned to GISS for good as a postdoc, frequent collaborator and AGU 122 Fellow Bill Rossow and I showed that the Kelvin wave I had earlier proposed to explain the 123 morphology of the UV markings did exist, with a small but detectable phase speed relative to the 124 superrotation (Del Genio and Rossow, 1990).

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## 126 **3 Earth Remote Sensing, Climate Change, and Teaching**

127 In retrospect, working on subjects such as cumulus parameterization, or anything having 128 to do with clouds and their role in climate, in the 1970s was audacious given the paucity of data at 129 that time. AGU Fellows Joanne Simpson, Ed Zipser, and Bob Houze had made fundamental 130 inferences about deep convection from a few tropical field experiments (e.g., Simpson and Wiggert, 131 1969; Zipser, 1977; Houze, 1977), but little was known about its systematic global behavior, 132 especially over ocean. Almost as little was known about clouds, except their correlation with the 133 dominant features of the general circulation, until the first atlases of cloud types from surface 134 observer records were published (Hahn et al., 1982, 1984).

135 My Earth science career, though, began at the start of the golden age of Earth remote 136 sensing. During my early years developing GCMs, it became obvious that not only moist 137 convection, but clouds of all kinds were dominating the uncertainty in projections of future climate 138 change (Cess et al., 1990). The Cess et al. GCM intercomparisons were revealing of the 139 psychology of the modeling community. Although they consisted of idealized experiments to 140 estimate the spread in cloud feedbacks among GCMs, with no data component for validation, the 141 modelers on the low and high ends of the feedback distribution nonetheless tended to present their 142 results apologetically, as if they were incorrect because they didn't agree with the consensus. Half 143 a decade later, when the experiment was repeated, the distribution had magically narrowed. This 144 time a seasonal component that could be validated by the ERBE satellite radiation budget dataset 145 was included. A subset of the models (including ours) agreed well with the ERBE cloud forcing 146 data...until they were separated into longwave and shortwave components, which disagreed 147 markedly among the models. Cloud feedback would apparently not yield its secrets easily.

148 Luckily, starting in the 1980s, a number of remote sensing projects focused on convection 149 and clouds came to fruition. Among those I have been involved in are the International Satellite 150 Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP), a gargantuan effort by Bill Rossow and co-workers to use 151 the world's operational weather satellites to derive a long term climatology of cloud occurrence 152 and optical properties (Schiffer and Rossow, 1983); the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission 153 (TRMM), and its follow-on the Global Precipitation Measurement Mission (GPM), which have 154 provided the first direct information about precipitation over the oceans and at high latitudes from 155 space (Simpson et al., 1988; Hou et al., 2014); the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) 156 and Atmospheric System Research (ASR) Programs (Stokes, 2016), which pioneered the 157 deployment of large suites of surface remote sensing instruments in virtually every important 158 climate regime in the world; and the CloudSat cloud radar (Stephens et al., 2002) and CALIPSO 159 cloud-aerosol lidar (Winker and Pelon, 2003) A-Train missions, which have given us the first 160 planet-wide view of the complete vertical structure of clouds.

161 These missions sculpted my understanding of convection and clouds. They also influenced 162 my philosophy of how to use remote sensing data in the service of GCM evaluation and 163 improvement. The most common use of global data by modelers is to find differences between 164 the observed latitude-longitude climatology of some geophysical parameter and its simulation by 165 the model. Awareness of these mean state biases is important, but they only tell us *that* the model 166 is wrong, not *why* it is wrong. Unfortunately, mean state biases have been the basis of most metrics 167 of GCM evaluation in formal intercomparisons. Not surprisingly, they have not been very useful 168 in reducing the uncertainty in climate change projections (e.g., *Flato et al.*, 2013) because they do 169 not isolate the physical processes that cause the climate to change.

In my research, I have strived to go beyond mean state biases to get a step closer to what is going on at the process level that might point me toward specific parameterization improvements, e.g., by mapping clouds into dynamical, radiative, or lifecycle composites of many events. This requires labor-intensive analysis of large datasets at the "Level 2" (orbit) stage and more detailed higher-frequency analyses of GCM outputs than is typical, which is why it is not done more often. It would not have been possible for me to usefully exploit these datasets without the many highlyskilled collaborators, postdocs, and graduate students I have worked with at GISS.

Examples of this include: Rong Fu and Bill Rossow on deep convective clouds and their interaction with sea surface temperature and convergence (*Fu et al.*, 1990, 1994); AGU Fellow Andy Lacis and Reto Ruedy on water vapor feedback (*Del Genio et al.*, 1991); Ron Miller on the natural variability of tropical climate (*Miller and Del Genio*, 1994); Aiguo Dai and AGU Fellow Inez Fung on long-term patterns of precipitation change (*Dai et al.*, 1997); Bing Ye and Ken Lo on climate changes in convective available potential energy (*Ye et al.*, 1998); George Tselioudis and Audrey Wolf on low cloud optical thickness feedbacks (*Tselioudis et al.*, 1998; *Del Genio and* 

184 Wolf, 2000); Samantha Smith on the internal structure of cirrus clouds (Smith and Del Genio, 185 2002); Bill Kovari and Jeff Jonas on mesoscale convective systems and detrainment-precipitation 186 partitioning (Del Genio and Kovari, 2002; Del Genio et al., 2005); Surabi Menon and Dorothy 187 Koch on aerosol indirect and semi-direct effects (Menon et al., 2002; Koch and Del Genio, 2010); 188 Jonathan Chen and Barbara Carlson on tropical overturning and decadal variability (*Chen et al.*, 189 2002, 2008); Mike Jensen on mid-troposphere humidity and the depth of congestus clouds (Jensen 190 and Del Genio, 2006); Mike Bauer on the identification and tracking of extratropical cyclones 191 (Bauer and Del Genio, 2006); Catherine Naud and Jimmy Booth on the clouds in extratropical 192 cyclones (Naud et al., 2010; Booth et al., 2013); Joanna Futyan on the lifecycles of tropical 193 convective storms and the lightning they produce (Futyan and Del Genio, 2007a,b); Jingbo Wu on 194 updrafts and entrainment in the transition from shallow to deep convection (Wu et al., 2009; Del 195 Genio and Wu, 2010); Yonghua Chen on the lifecycle of convective clouds and radiative heating 196 in the Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO; Chen and Del Genio, 2009; Del Genio and Chen, 2015); 197 Kirstie Stramler on the bimodal "radiatively clear" and "opaquely cloudy" behavior of Arctic 198 clouds (Stramler et al., 2011); Aga Mrowiec on updrafts and downdrafts in mesoscale convective 199 systems (*Mrowiec et al.*, 2012); Greg Elsaesser on the parameterization of convective ice particle 200 size distributions and fall speeds (Elsaesser et al., 2017), as well as in-progress work on the onset 201 and lifecycle of organized convection; and Greg Cesana on discriminating cumulus from 202 stratocumulus clouds in satellite data and constraining their cloud feedbacks (Cesana et al., 203 2019a,b). I have also had fruitful collaborations with Columbia colleagues, most notably Daehyun 204 Kim and Adam Sobel, to understand the physics required to allow the GCM to simulate the MJO 205 (Del Genio et al., 2012, 2015; Kim et al., 2012).

206 During the 1976 summer I spent at GISS, anthropogenic climate warming was not on the 207 minds of many people, but once the basic radiative transfer physics had shown that increasing CO<sub>2</sub> 208 was a major concern in work by Hansen, Lacis and others, it seemed only a matter of time before 209 the warming became obvious. On June 23, 1988, months before my first paper on cumulus 210 parameterization was published, Jim Hansen testified before Congress that anthropogenic 211 warming had already been detected. Jim, my GISS colleague and AGU Fellow David Rind, and I 212 had attended a NASA meeting in Washington, DC that day at which modest new funding for 213 climate change research was being discussed, and Jim sent David (Nightline) and me (The 214 *MacNeil-Lehrer Report*) to discuss the evidence for anthropogenic climate change on national TV. 215 The initial interview went well enough, but I was unprepared for the meteorologist interviewed 216 next who (incorrectly) dismissed Hansen's findings as natural meteorological variability that said 217 nothing about the existence of any climate change. Almost four decades after Hansen and 218 colleagues made their first prediction of the rate of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced climate warming (Hansen et al., 219 1981), their projection has turned out to be impressively accurate. How often can that be said about 220 any prediction of the future in any walk of life? Under our current director, Gavin Schmidt, GISS 221 has continued to be active in communicating to the public about climate change.

During the 1980s, I became involved with Columbia University, teaching an introductory graduate level survey course in atmospheric science and later advising graduate students. There is nothing that makes one's tenuous grasp of scientific first principles more obvious than having to create a set of coherent lectures and then fielding the daily questions of students who see you as the expert when in some areas you are barely a step ahead of them. This was especially true of the radiative transfer section of my course, for which I periodically had to consult Larry Travis and Andy Lacis to explain things to me first. I highly recommend teaching for that reason, but also because it is an opportunity to meet nascent scientists who often become major contributors to their fields. The only downside is that the election of former students who passed through my course as AGU Fellows is a stark reminder of my advancing age.

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# **4 Back to Planetary Science**

My Columbia teaching made me begin to think about science in a more unified fashion – for example, that thunderstorms, North Atlantic Deep Water formation, and mantle convection were merely different manifestations of the same phenomenon in different fluids. It also forced me for the first time to confront the fact that I now had two separate careers, one as a planetary scientist and the other as an Earth climate scientist. In my lectures and homework assignments, I found myself trying to illustrate the same concepts with examples from both fields.

240 At some point this began to influence my thinking about my own research. I realized that 241 (with help from colleagues Bob Suozzo, Wei Zhou, and Tim Eichler), the GISS GCM could be 242 adapted to ask general questions about the dynamics of planetary atmospheres. We showed how 243 the dynamical regime changes as the size of baroclinic eddies approaches the size of the planet, 244 and we demonstrated the conditions required to maintain superrotation on a slowly rotating planet 245 (Del Genio and Suozzo, 1987; Del Genio et al., 1993). Using our cumulus parameterization as a 246 1-D climate model, we showed that Jupiter's dry (in  $H_2O$ ) atmosphere at the visible cloud level was consistent with "supersolar" water vapor at depth, and that water convection in a low 247 248 molecular weight H<sub>2</sub>-He atmosphere would experience buoyancy effects more like those created 249 by salinity in Earth's oceans than by water vapor in Earth's atmosphere (*Del Genio and McGrattan*, 250 1990). My GISS colleague Mike Allison and I distilled our own and earlier ideas into a 2-D 251 dynamical regime classification (Allison et al., 1995) that grouped planets by the effect of rotation

- and the relative horizontal and vertical contrasts of temperature on their dynamics. Sadly, we only
  had half a dozen planets to work with...or so I thought at the time.

254 Nonetheless, as my involvement in Earth climate research and satellite/surface remote 255 sensing missions increased and Pioneer Venus drew to a close, my planetary science career seemed 256 to be ending. Then I was selected to the imaging team for the Cassini Saturn Orbiter mission. I 257 was privileged to have been part of one of the greatest planetary science endeavors NASA has ever 258 undertaken. Imaging team leader Carolyn Porco worked tirelessly to represent the team's interests 259 in a complex mission that needed to allocate resources to observe not only Saturn's and Titan's 260 atmosphere, but also Saturn's rings, satellites, and magnetosphere as well as Titan's newly revealed surface. Just as important was Carolyn's devotion to communicating Cassini imaging 261 262 science to the public and her instinct for iconic images such the Voyager 1 "Pale Blue Dot" image 263 of Earth from beyond Neptune which she co-conceived with Carl Sagan, and Cassini's rendition, 264 "The Day the Earth Smiled," for which she invited the public to participate in the imaging of Earth 265 from Saturn (https://www.bbc.com/news/science-environment-22968105). These distant images 266 of our planet carry even greater significance, now that we know of almost 4,000 planets orbiting 267 other stars.

John Barbara, Joe Ferrier and I used Cassini Saturn images to show that eddies drive the eastward and westward jets on Saturn and that the mean meridional overturning circulation on Saturn is more like Earth's Ferrel cell than its Hadley cell (*Del Genio et al.*, 2007; *Del Genio and Barbara*, 2012). My postdoc Ulyana Dyudina related nightside lightning on Jupiter to apparent storm clouds on the dayside and later made the first optical detection of lightning on Saturn (*Dyudina et al.*, 2004, 2007). Titan was initially a disappointment, a seeming desert rather than home to extensive seas of liquid methane as had been speculated before the mission. Eventually, 275 though, images showed evidence of methane-ethane lakes at high latitudes (*Porco et al.*, 2005), 276 and John and I were able to detect tropospheric methane convective clouds and map the seasonal 277 progression of Titan's Hadley cell-like meridional circulation, along with Cassini imaging 278 colleagues Zibi Turtle, Alfred McEwen, and Jason Perry (e.g., Turtle et al., 2018). Cassini was 279 also an opportunity to re-unite with my undergraduate mentors Joe Burns and Joe Veverka, and a 280 chance to get to know new colleagues such as André Brahic, a wonderful scientist and person who 281 showed me the correct way to pour red vs. white wine. My only regret was missing the team 282 meeting in London that featured an Abbey Road re-shoot (http://carolynporco.com/about/

283 photos/2001-carolyn-porco-cassini-imaging-team-beatles-abbey-road.html).

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## 285 **5** Unexpectedly, to the Stars

286 At the 1984 Division for Planetary Sciences meeting in Kailua-Kona, Hawaii, Voyager 287 imaging scientist Reta Beebe introduced me to Clyde Tombaugh, the discoverer of Pluto. This 288 was one of the great thrills of my professional life – a once-in-a-lifetime chance to meet someone 289 who had discovered a planet. Of course, I was wrong on two fronts: Pluto is no longer a planet 290 (which I hope is a temporary state of affairs – to a climate scientist, any relatively spherical object 291 that can retain a non-negligible atmosphere qualifies as a planet, even Titan), and little did I know 292 then that I would later meet many people who had discovered planets. I had long been fascinated 293 by the idea of life elsewhere in the universe - initially after being introduced to the Drake equation 294 (a probabilistic equation for the number of technologically developed civilizations in the universe) 295 by Shklovskii and Sagan's Intelligent Life in the Universe (Shklovskii and Sagan, 1966) and later 296 by Stephen Dole's Habitable Planets for Man (Dole, 1964). I regarded these only as amusing 297 thought experiments, though, so I took little notice when Wolszczan and Frail (1992) announced the first confirmed detection of planets orbiting a pulsar – not candidates for life by any means.
Exoplanet detections accelerated through the 1990s and 2000s, though, and with the advent of the
Kepler mission and observations by ground-based telescopes, we entered the age of actual, rather
than imagined, "rocky" exoplanets with solid surfaces orbiting main sequence stars. To my great
surprise, the question of whether we might some day discover life elsewhere had become real.

303 My GISS colleague Nancy Kiang and Goddard Greenbelt colleague Shawn Domagal-304 Goldman were already thinking about this as members of the Virtual Planetary Laboratory team 305 that had been considering spectral signatures of life on other planets ("biosignatures") for some 306 time. They sensed that the time might be right for 3-D climate models to be applied to the emerging 307 problem of exoplanet habitability. They secured a bit of internal funding from Goddard to put 308 together a small team, including me, to begin to generalize the GISS GCM to simulate planets 309 other than Earth. (Columbia Astronomy colleagues Caleb Scharf and Kristen Menou and several 310 of us at GISS had been unsuccessful at securing funding for this a decade earlier despite good 311 reviews of our proposals.) In 2013 our group submitted a major proposal to NASA that included 312 planetary scientists, astrophysicists, paleoclimate scientists, and several hybrid Earth climate-313 planetary scientists (e.g., me) to address questions about the characteristics that might make a 314 planet conducive to life.

As luck would have it, NASA Astrobiology Program Manager Mary Voytek had been thinking for several years about new ways to break down the "stovepipes" that separated research in NASA's Astrophysics, Planetary Science, Heliophysics, and Earth Science Divisions. Our proposal was selected, and Mary made us a founding member of a "research coordination network" (a concept borrowed from the National Science Foundation) that was given the name the Nexus for Exoplanet System Science (NExSS; https://nexss.info). Totaling 18 teams in its first iteration, and now up to 34, NExSS' mandate is to bring together researchers in the 4 NASA science
divisions to accelerate progress in the search for life elsewhere. In addition, I was asked, along
with astrophysicists Natalie Batalha, the Kepler project scientist, and Dawn Gelino, now Deputy
Director of the NASA Exoplanet Science Institute, to serve as co-leads of NExSS, along with
Shawn and NASA management postdoctoral fellow Andrew Rushby (named by Mary the "Jedi
Council"). (Vikki Meadows, PI of the Virtual Planetary Laboratory, has recently joined the Jedi.)
My double life as an Earth scientist and a planetary scientist had suddenly become marketable.

328 What can an Earth scientist tell an astrophysicist that would be useful? Exoplanet 329 astronomers are continually searching for an "Earth twin" – a planet similar to ours that would be 330 a good candidate to host life. The real question though is how different a planet can be from Earth 331 and still maintain liquid water on its surface, where it, and the life that it might support, could be 332 detected from light-years away. Put another way: What determines the surface temperature of a 333 planet whose atmosphere contains different amounts of greenhouse gases, receives a different 334 amount of sunlight, etc., than present-day Earth does? This is actually the same question of 335 forcings and feedbacks that I have studied for decades to understand 21st Century anthropogenic 336 climate change, but taken to extremes. Not surprisingly, then, what are some of the biggest 337 uncertainties in assessing exoplanet habitability? Cloud (and water vapor and lapse rate and sea 338 ice) feedbacks!

Led by my GISS colleague Mike Way and with contributions from many others in the GISS Earth GCM group (*Way et al.*, 2017), a generalized planetary version of the GISS GCM has been developed. We have used it to explore the possibility that ancient Venus under the faint young Sun may have been habitable (*Way et al.*, 2016); to understand the processes that put excessive water vapor into the stratosphere as incident stellar flux increases, a precursor to the 344 eventual loss of a planet's oceans (Fujii et al., 2017); to determine how the thermal inertia and 345 heat transport of a dynamic ocean might render a planet continuously habitable in the face of 346 oscillations in planet eccentricity (Way and Georgakarakos, 2017); to examine scenarios for a 347 possible habitable climate on the known exoplanet closest to Earth (Del Genio et al., 2019a); to 348 determine how the carbonate-silicate cycle feedback that regulates CO<sub>2</sub> and allowed Earth to 349 remain habitable over most of its history might vary as precipitation and runoff change with 350 insolation and planet rotation (Jansen et al., 2019); to understand the transport of volatiles to 351 permanently shadowed polar regions early in the Moon's history (Aleinov et al., 2019); to predict 352 the planetary albedos and surface temperatures of exoplanets from sparse available information 353 using Earth climate concepts (*Del Genio et al.*, 2019b); and to understand how high obliquity 354 allows weakly illuminated planets to remain habitable (Colose et al., 2019). We have also tried to 355 set a standard for data sharing by making the GCM output files and metadata for our published 356 papers publicly available, as described in Way et al. (2018).

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## 358 **6 Reflections**

359 On Earth we are now considered to be in a new epoch, the Anthropocene, in which 360 humankind has become a leading order influence on the planet – in effect, turning Earth into a 361 slightly different planet. In the new era of exoplanet science, formerly uncertain terms in the Drake 362 equation such as the fraction of stars with planets are now observationally constrained -e.g., most 363 stars have planets! One of the biggest remaining uncertainties in the equation is the average 364 lifetime of a technological civilization before it destroys itself or consumes all its energy sources. 365 This is what thinking about other planets in addition to the Earth does. It takes one from 366 wondering what the impacts of anthropogenic greenhouse gas increases will do to sea level, to

extreme temperatures, to hurricane intensities, to regional drought in our lifetimes, and ups the
ante to the larger question of whether in the long run, our civilization will eventually figure things
out and learn to sustain itself, or perish.

370 As I near the end of my career, this opportunity to reflect upon it has made me more aware371 of lessons I have learned (mostly unintentionally) along the way:

- 372 1. Serendipity can have a great deal to do with the progression of a career. Many of us 373 may have agonized about the direction we should follow in our careers when we were 374 in school – I certainly did. My career has been anything but a straight line determined 375 by my initial choices. Rather, it has been defined by a combination of failures, being 376 in the right place at the right time, and openness to go in new directions. I have 377 experienced one of the most remarkable periods in the history of science. I entered 378 science about a decade after launch of the first Earth-orbiting weather satellites and the 379 first successful spacecraft missions to other planets, and I have witnessed visits to every 380 planet in the Solar System. I have been in science during the period of humanity's 381 awakening about anthropogenic climate change (unfortunate for humanity, but a 382 tremendous stimulus for more deeply understanding our own planet). Finally, I have 383 seen the universe unveiled as the home of thousands (at least) of known planets orbiting 384 other stars, and I was able to be a contributor to one of the earliest groups thinking 385 about how to determine which of these might be good candidates to harbor life. My 386 career has clearly been shaped by these external events.
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  2. Science is usually a team sport. The media tend to portray science using the paradigm
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  "eureka!" moment that immediately overturns an existing science paradigm. Perhaps

390 that is sometimes true, but it has not been my own experience. Almost all my published 391 papers were joint efforts with colleagues whose technical expertise and scientific 392 insight complement my own. I hope that this essay is a suitable way to express my 393 gratitude for how I have benefited from their talents. Some of my papers arose from 394 data collected (by others) during field experiments, but most were modeling, theory, or 395 remote sensing data analyses. And in fields as complex as the climates of Earth and 396 other planets, paradigm overturning is usually a slow-motion process – several of my 397 more successful papers have been more highly cited in recent years than in the years 398 that followed their publication.

399 3. Cross-discipline research has made me a better scientist. I am often asked, "How does 400 studying other planets help you understand Earth?" Although there are a few examples 401 (Kahn, 1989), in general the best way to understand Earth is to study Earth. The real 402 value of studying both Earth and other planets is the perspective it has provided me on 403 both. A foundation in Earth science helps one interpret observations of other planets, 404 since much of the well-explored physics of our own atmosphere can be applied to other 405 planets. There are baroclinic eddies on Mars and Saturn, lightning storms due to water 406 condensation on Jupiter and Saturn (and methane convective storms on Titan), and so 407 on. But the relatively poorly observed planets of our Solar System and barely observed 408 rocky exoplanets force us to ask basic, global questions and put our own planet in a 409 larger context. In Earth science, we got caught up in the details so much a couple of 410 decades ago that we largely stopped asking basic questions. In recent years, though, 411 climate change has taught us that we don't understand Earth as well as we may have 412 thought, and some scientists have begun once again to ask basic questions of our planet:

413 What controls the width of the Hadley cell (e.g., *Levine and Schneider*, 2015)? What 414 determines the extratropical lapse rate (e.g., Frierson, 2007; O'Gorman, 2011)? Do 415 clouds or sea ice control Earth's planetary albedo (e.g., Donohoe and Battisti, 2011)? 416 On what spatial scales is the atmosphere in radiative-convective equilibrium (e.g., 417 Jakob et al., 2019)? These papers and others like them have effectively taken a 418 planetary perspective on our own planet, to the betterment of our field. Exoplanet 419 science has taken things a step further by placing the "small" number of planets in our 420 Solar System into the context of thousands of other planets. Given that large a sample, 421 seemingly simple questions such as what determines whether a planet even has an 422 atmosphere turn out to be much more fascinating than anticipated (e.g., Zahnle and 423 Catling, 2017). Conversely, the history of habitability in our own Solar System 424 provides insights into processes that may be in play on exoplanets that we as yet know 425 little about (Del Genio et al., 2019c). This cross-discipline fertilization is a trend I hope 426 will continue.

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428 I don't like the idea of starting a book and not getting to read the final chapter. At this 429 stage in my life, though, I have to accept that the questions of the ultimate fate of our society, and 430 the discovery of life elsewhere in the universe (a matter of when, not if, I am certain), may or may 431 not be answered while I am still around to experience them. But to have the chance to live a life 432 in scientific research during a time that saw the beginning of human awareness about both the 433 effect we have on our own planet and the likelihood of alien biospheres, along with the creation of 434 tools to begin to understand them and great colleagues with whom to share the journey, is 435 consolation enough. Still...wouldn't it be great to get to read the final chapter?

436

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