

Paleoclimate

Geomorphology and ice core proxies

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4/17/2018

Overview

- Introduction to paleoclimate
- Glacial geomorphology
- Stable water isotopes
- Ice core reconstructions

- Study of the climate (temperature, moisture, wind vectors, etc.) prior to direct, quantitative observations of climatological variables
- Why would we want to know about climate in the past?

- How do we measure temperature?

- How do we measure temperature?
 - Mercury displacement (traditional thermometers)
 - Changes in electrical properties (digital thermometers)
 - Emission spectrum (satellites, infrared sensors)
- Direct temperature measurements only go back a few hundred years
- How can we estimate temperature before thermometers?
 - Proxies

Paleoclimate proxies

- An indirect measurement of a variable (i.e. the proxy) that is correlated with some other variable of interest (e.g. temperature)
- Percentage of people wearing a coat
- Examples of temperature proxies:
 - Coral distributions
 - Tree ring widths
 - Types and frequency of vegetation/pollen
- Focus on two specific proxies
 - Glacial geomorphology
 - Isotopes in ice cores

Glacial geomorphology



- Changes in landscape due to presence or changes in nearby glaciers
 - Glacier valleys
 - Moraines
 - Meltwater planes
 - Glacial scouring
 - Glacial erratics

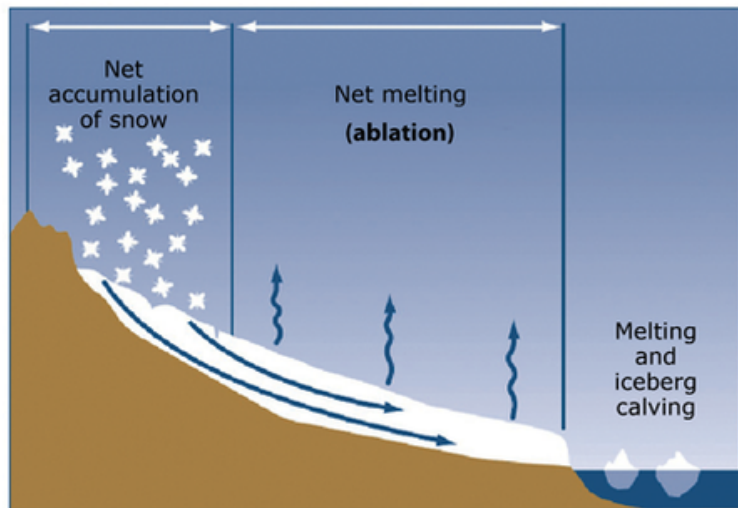
Example of glacial erratic



Example of glacial scour



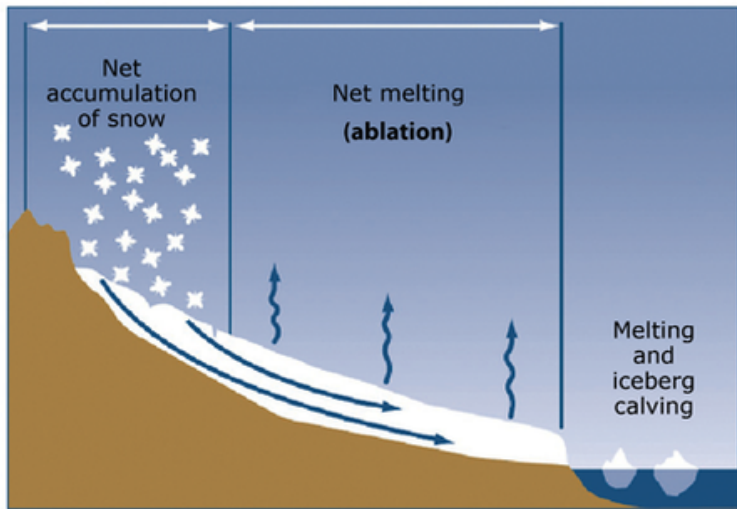
Review of glacier mass balance



$$\dot{b} = \text{accumulation} - \text{ablation}$$

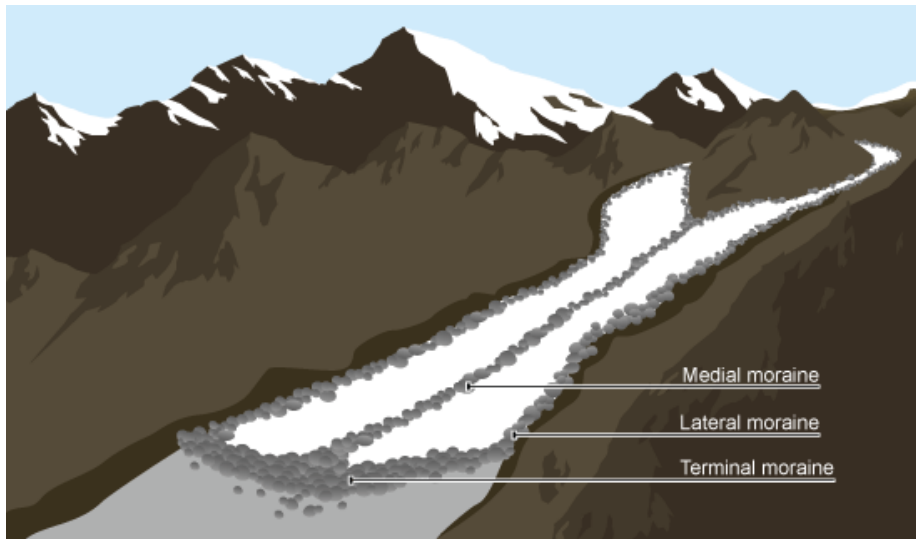
- What happens if temperatures increase?
- What happens if more snow falls?

$$\dot{b} = \text{accumulation} - \text{ablation}$$

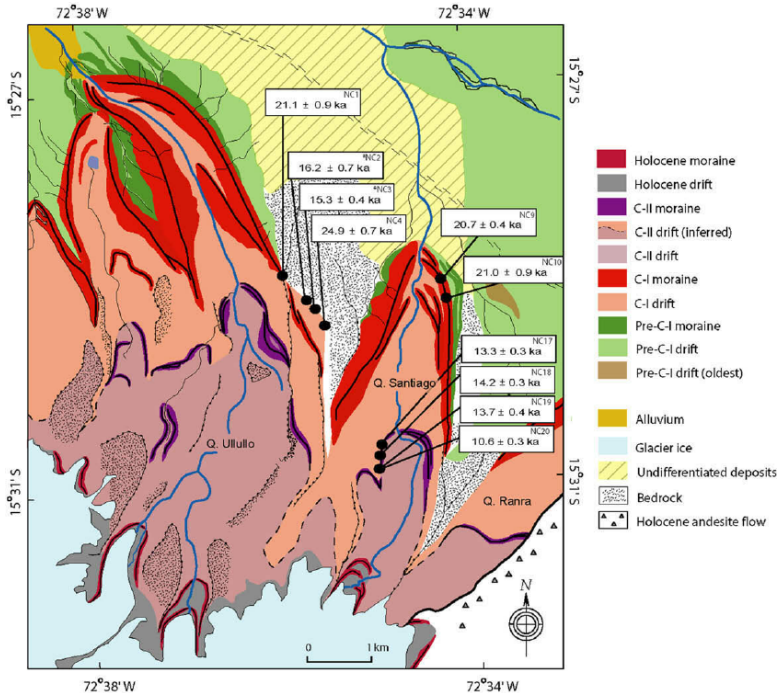


Moraines

- Mass of rock and debris pushed by movement of glacier (best preserved in equilibrium)
- Records the extent of a glacier at a specific point in time
- Three types of moraines:
 - Lateral
 - Medial
 - Terminal



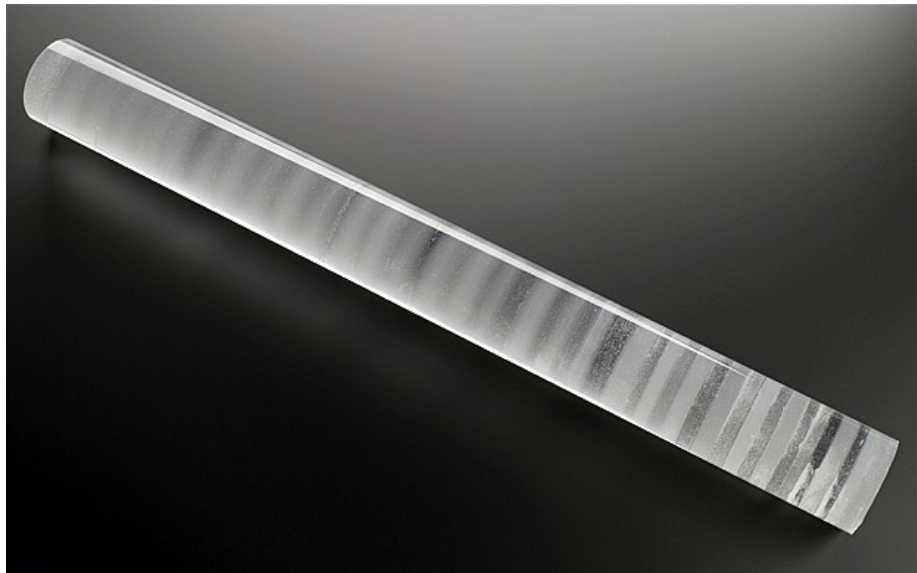
- We can use moraine positions to reconstruct glacier growth/retreat over time
- We can then make inferences about the changes in climate driving those glacial changes



Complications

- Different glaciers respond to climate differently
- Features can erode naturally, or overridden by later glacial events
- Difficult to separate effects of different climatic variables (e.g. temperature or precipitation?)
- Can be difficult to place a specific moraine set to an absolute point in time

Ice cores

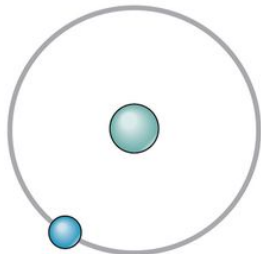


Stable water isotopes

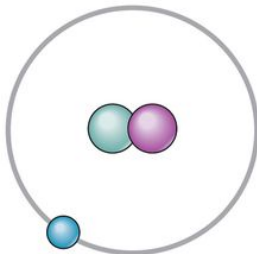
- Focus specifically on two isotope species
 - Deuterium (2H) and oxygen-18 (^{18}O)
- Stable isotopes (i.e. they do not decay over time)
- Naturally occurring, but in much lower abundance
- Isotopes behave chemically similar to more abundant variety
 - Forms water molecules (e.g. $H_2^{18}O$ and $^1H^2H^{18}O$)

Isotope review

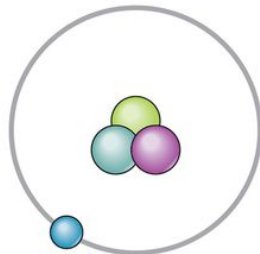
- Same element with differing number of neutrons in the nucleus



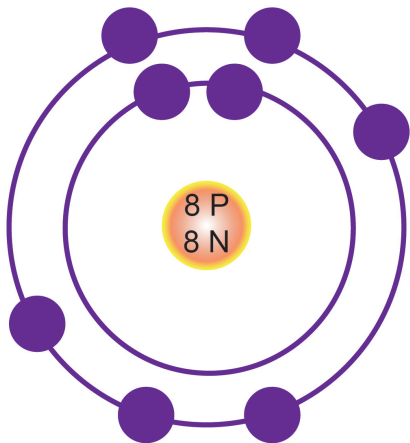
Protium (${}^1_1\text{H}$)



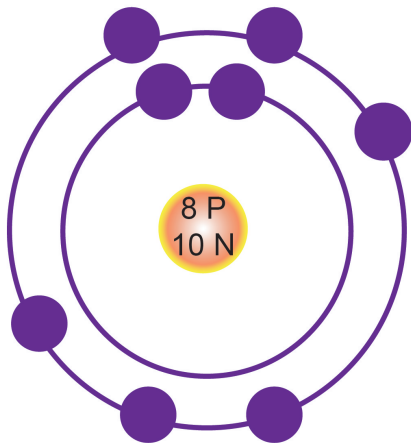
Deuterium (${}^2_1\text{H}$)



Tritium (${}^3_1\text{H}$)



^{16}O Isotope



^{18}O Isotope

Fractionation physics

- Although chemically similar, isotopes respond slightly differently due to differences in bond strength and diffusion velocity
- Heavier isotopes (e.g. 2H and ^{18}O) vibrate at a lower frequency and diffuse more slowly (conservation of momentum)
 - Energetically more favorable in lower energy states
- This leads to a fractionation effect i.e. a preference of heavier isotopes go into/remain in lower energy phases
 - Isotopic ratio changes during a phase change

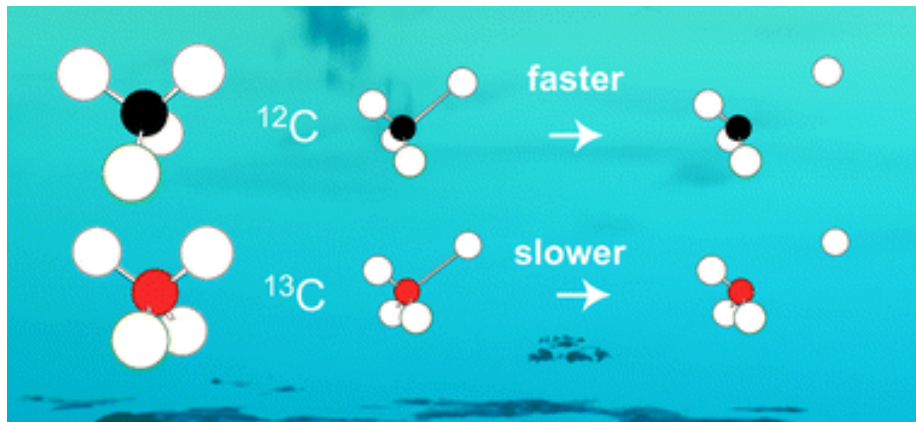


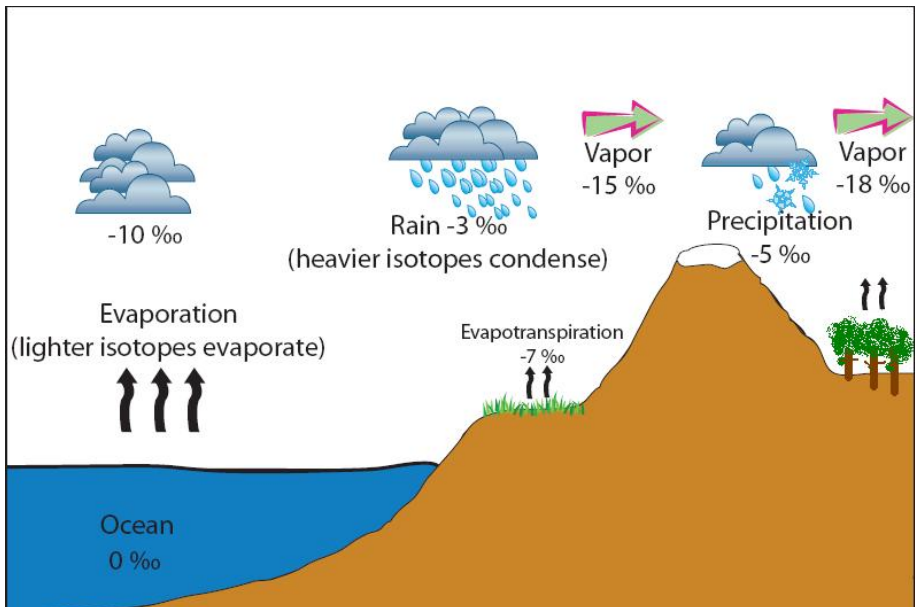
Table 2.1: Natural abundances of oxygen and hydrogen isotopes. After Mook (2001).

Oxygen		Hydrogen	
Isotope	Abundance (%)	Isotope	Abundance (%)
^{16}O	99.76	^1H	99.985
^{17}O	0.038	$^2\text{H}(\text{D})$	0.015
^{18}O	0.200	$^3\text{H}(\text{T})^*$	$< 10^{-15}$
		*radioactive isotope	

Figure 1: Stable water isotope abundances

- Measure isotopic values as a ratio between the rare isotope and the more common form
 - E.g. $^{18}R = \frac{[H_2^{18}O]}{[H_2^{16}O]}$
- More informative when we express these ratios relative to a standard (V-SMOW)
 - $\delta^{18}O = \frac{^{18}R_{sample} - ^{18}R_{std}}{^{18}R_{std}} \times 1000$

- Evaporation leads to a water vapor depleted in heavier isotopes, and remnant liquid water enriched



Equilibrium fractionation

- Equilibrium and kinetic fractionation influence final δ values
- In regards to precipitation cycles, most of the isotopic fractionation is governed by equilibrium effects
- Vapor transport gives sufficient time for liquid/vapor constituents to remain in equilibrium
- The amount of equilibrium fractionation is governed by a reaction constant (the 'fractionation factor' α)

$$\alpha^{18}O_{water-vapor} = \frac{(^{18}O/^{16}O)_{water}}{(^{18}O/^{16}O)_{vapor}}$$

- At lower temperatures, this fractionation constant is highly temperature-dependent

$$10^3 \cdot \ln(\alpha_b^a) = \frac{A \cdot 10^6}{T^2} + B$$

- (A and B are constants unique to the substances in exchange)

$$10^3 \ln(\alpha_b^a) \approx \delta_a - \delta_b = \Delta_b^a$$

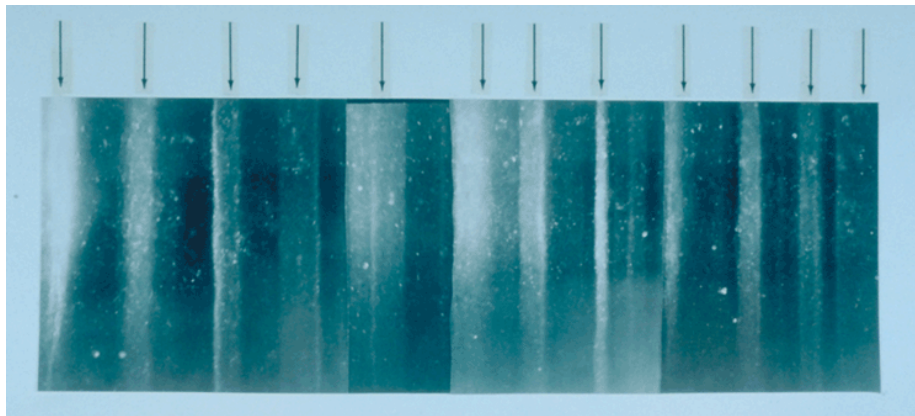
- Dansgaard determined an empirical estimate of temperature from $\delta^{18}O$ values:

$$\delta^{18}O \approx 0.62 \cdot T - 15.25$$

- Can be subject to localized variation as well

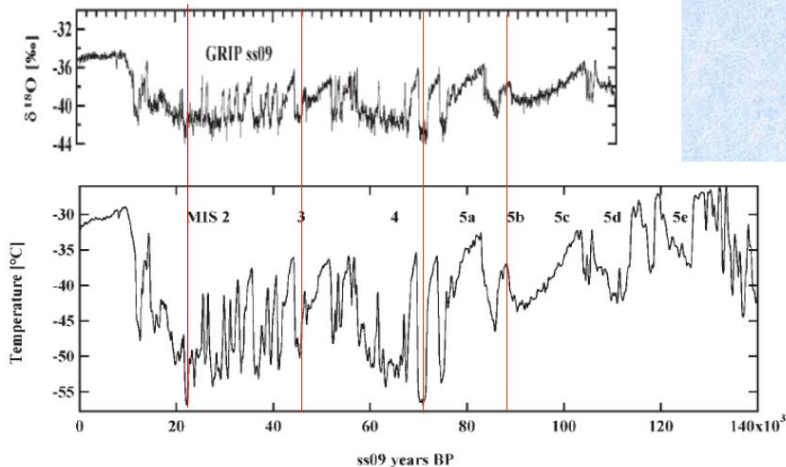
Paleoclimate reconstruction



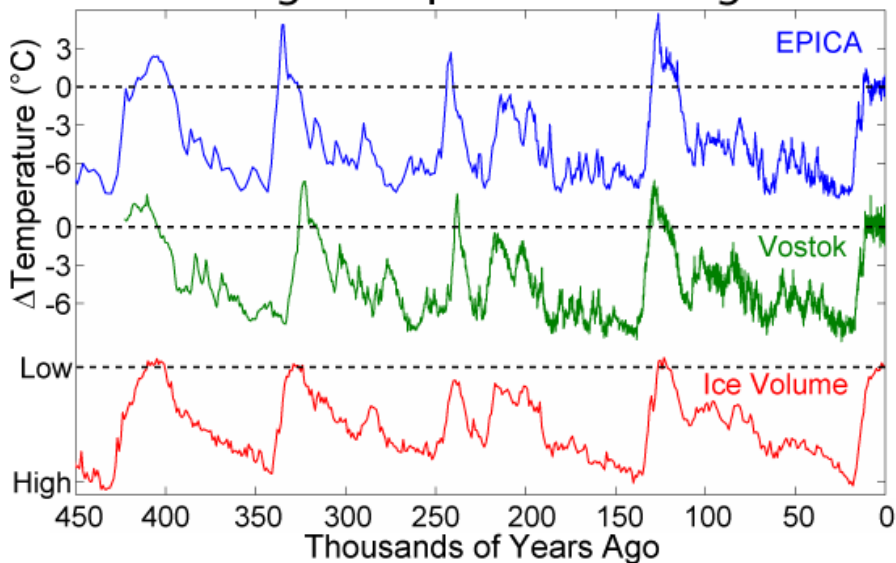


Paleoclimate reconstruction

Greenland Ice Core $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Temperature Record



Ice Age Temperature Changes



The Vostok (Antarctica) Ice Core Record.

Carbon Dioxide versus Temperature for the last 420,000 years.

Depth of Ice (metres)

3300 3200 3000 2750 2500 2000 1500 1000 500 0

Temperature difference from 1961 to 1990
average of -56 (in degrees centigrade)

Carbon Dioxide (parts per million (by volume))

