

Fluid Mechanics and Systems Biology for Understanding the Cosmic Distribution of Life: A Review

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1 **Abstract** Due to progress in instrumentation both in cryogenics and in space explo-
2 ration, the 20th century witnessed the extension of fluid mechanics applications in
3 two novel systems. While the major aim for the first of these two cases—low temper-
4 ature physics—was to understand the underlying microscopic theory, in the second
5 case of fluid mechanics in the outer Solar System the major problem was, and still
6 is, one of instrumentation, rather than theory. This second kind of environments may
7 provide hints regarding the central problem of astrobiology, namely the search for
8 life outside our own planet. The Galileo Mission (1995–2003) allowed closer prob-
9 ing of the Jovian satellite Europa, both with imaging techniques, as well as with
10 spectroscopy of its icy surface over a deep ocean that is covered with chemical ele-
11 ments. Other examples of oceans are found in Ganymede and Callisto, two other icy
12 Galilean moons, but possibly these oceans are not in contact with a silicate core, as
13 in the cases of the life-friendly world: the Earth. In addition, Europa, with possibly
14 the same internal geological structure as our planet, is also potentially a life-friendly
15 world. These appealing phenomena are currently the source of plans for the next
16 European mission to Europa that will provide a baseline for the search of life. For
17 this purpose knowledge of our oceans will guide us in the search of life in other solar
18 system oceans. These possibilities have encouraged underlining technologically fea-
19 sible proposals for delivering small missiles (“penetrators”) with appropriate instru-
20 mentation. Whenever compatible with the available payloads, one objective of these
21 instruments has been to identify bioindicators. We are interested essentially in under-
22 standing the surficial sulfur stains of Europa’s icy surface. Although not included in
23 the most recent approved mission for Europa, penetrators remain a valid alternative
24 in lunar research that we have shown to be relevant to the basis of astrobiology. In

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25 this context we have argued that already existing miniaturized mass spectrometers
26 are particularly relevant. The arguments of this work bring together fluid mechanics,
27 systems biology, and feasible cutting-edge technology.

28 **1 Introduction: Novel Applications of Fluid Mechanics**

29 Generally fluid mechanics is understood as the response of fluids to forces exerted
30 upon them. The fluids that first concerned this discipline were restricted to those
31 that were easily observable, mainly liquid water. Interest in the field goes back to
32 Classical Greece, to the well-known work of Archimedes (c. 290–280 BC–212/211
33 BC).

34 Since those early times significant changes have taken place in fluid mechanics,
35 but we shall dwell especially on relatively recent events. For we will not concern
36 ourselves with the details of the development by Leonhard Euler and Daniel Bernoulli
37 in the 18th century, or with the work of G. G. Stokes and William Thomson in the 19th
38 century, or even the definite steps forward taken by Ludwig Prandtl at the beginning
39 of last century.

40 Instead, we wish to highlight briefly scientific disciplines in which fluid mechanics
41 has been fundamental and those that are closely related to the main objectives of the
42 science of astrobiology (the reader will find in Sect. 5 the relevant references). This
43 is a relatively new science that studies the origin, evolution, distribution, and destiny
44 of life in the universe. Astrobiology is flourishing in the present and our opinion is
45 that it will continue to flourish at a faster pace in the future, due to the many space
46 agencies including the European Union, the United States, Russia, Japan, the Popular
47 Republic of China, India, and to these larger efforts other countries are beginning to
48 join forces, including our own country for some time now 1999–2005 (Chela-Flores
49 et al. 2000; Falcón and Loyo 2007). But let us begin firstly by returning to fluid
50 mechanics on Earth. One evident example that is relevant to astrobiology is physical
51 oceanography (as in the new environments provided by the icy satellites off Jupiter):
52 this sub-discipline of oceanography is concerned with the properties of seawater
53 including temperature, density and pressure, movement (waves, currents, and tides),
54 and the interactions between the ocean water and its overlying atmosphere. In Sect. 5
55 we shall return to this topic in relation with the plumes that may reach the icy surface
56 of Europa, the Galilean satellite of Jupiter. Oceanography is a wider discipline, since it
57 deals with topics beyond fluid mechanics, including chemical oceanography, marine
58 geology, and marine ecology.

59 Secondly, once again fluid mechanics is particularly relevant for atmospheric
60 science (meteorology, climatology, and aeronomy). These disciplines are concerned
61 with composition, structure, and dynamics of the Earth's atmosphere (Vallis 2006).
62 Fluid mechanics is also needed in aeronomy, since this sub-discipline of atmospheric
63 science studies the physics and processes of the upper atmosphere, information of
64 which may be measurable in the middle term in worlds around other stars.

65 In Sect. 2 there is a brief description, by way of illustration, of how progress in
66 instrumentation has extended the range of applications of fluid mechanics to include
67 quantum fluid phenomena (superfluidity). But later on we shall underline how for
68 astrobiology more relevant are oceanography, as well as atmospheric science. These
69 two sciences are and, due to a series of possible space probes, will be increasingly
70 more relevant in extra-terrestrial conditions, and in the short term, in an extra-solar
71 context.

72 2 A 20th Century Application of Fluid Mechanics

73 Fluid mechanics has ventured into new pathways, of which one originated from
74 improved low temperature instrumentation and the other was due to the exploration of
75 the Solar System and will be introduced in the next section. But we underline here that
76 technology has found applications for fluids firstly, at extremely low temperatures,
77 and secondly additional applications arose in locations out of this world. Both of
78 these unusual venues for fluids have concerned our research in the past. In the first
79 case of “extreme fluids” the major difficulty was to propose the correct theory. In the
80 second case the main issue was of a different kind, once the extraterrestrial fluids
81 (oceans) were identified, the question was not a theoretical one, but the question that
82 was called for was one of identifying, developing, testing, and challenging space
83 agencies for approval of the appropriate instrumentation.

84 Returning to the first case, the development of advanced cryogenic technology at
85 the beginning of the 20th century (in 1908) allowed to liquefy helium at (4.2 K) into a
86 state that is called helium I. Special attention was paid to liquid helium when it cooled
87 to near absolute zero (0 K [-273.15°C]) in both of the stable isotopes of helium:
88 ^3He and ^4He . It was in 1938 when an unusual set of properties was shown to occur
89 in liquid ^4He underneath a critical temperature. Hence, liquid helium I assumes
90 different properties and we called this new state of condensed matter helium II,
91 a true “superfluid”. (One of the properties that first gave this liquid its name was
92 the capability of displacing itself without viscosity). The major problem that raised
93 by the discovery of superfluid ^4He was to find its theoretical bases at a microscopic
94 level. (Subsequently, in 1972, it was shown that the phenomenon also occurs in the
95 second stable isotope ^3He at temperatures that were even lower than in the liquid
96 ^4He).

97 Quantum mechanics gives a general understanding of superfluidity, since for ^4He ,
98 the liquid state consists of atoms with null total spin angular momentum. Conse-
99 quently, the distribution between their possible states is given by Bose statistics.
100 Neglecting interactions between the ^4He atoms, Bose condensation takes place (but
101 the subsequent introduction of interactions does not change significantly the micro-
102 scopic explanation). With the development of field theory, an alternative approach
103 to fluid mechanics of superfluid ^4He was suggested amongst various attempts
104 (Chela-Flores 1975). As the temperature is lowered this field theoretic approach
105 allows the subsequent estimate of the increment of the fraction of condensed atoms

106 (Chela-Flores 1976). The theory even allows an understanding of diffraction data,
107 both X-rays, as well as neutron diffraction (Chela-Flores 1977). Although not dis-
108 cussed in these three papers, Bose condensation essentially applies also to the case
109 of ^3He superfluidity, where Fermi statistics are required for the ^3He fermions. The
110 insight that led to this further understanding was based on the earlier theory of super-
111 conductivity, where the fermions pair in structures known as Cooper pairs that have
112 integral spin for which the correct statistics is, once again, that of Bose.

113 3 An Additional Application of Fluid Mechanics

114 We wish to underline that, once again, it is instrumentation, rather than theory (as
115 in the above case of superfluidity of ^4He) that now takes the central position of our
116 enquiries for the new venue of the extraterrestrial fluids. Indeed, with the advent of
117 advanced space technology the exploration of the outer Solar System was possible
118 in the three decades that went from 1973 till 2003. Gradually it became evident that
119 large bodies of liquid water were present in our cosmic neighborhood. Evidence
120 began to emerge during the first steps of exploration of the possible presence of large
121 oceans on the moons of the giant planets: Jupiter and Saturn.

122 The science of oceanography was untested in these novel environments, a situation
123 that began to change at the very end of last century, as we will briefly refer to in Sect. 1.
124 But within the 20th century the Galilean moons Europa, Ganymede, and Callisto were
125 shown to be very likely the host of oceans of liquid water. These steps forward in the
126 exploration of the outer Solar System have been a gradual process:

- 127 ● Pioneers 10 and 11 were the first Jovian flybys: Pioneer 10 (1972) flew by Jupiter
128 in December 1973. This was a major achievement for the period, since it was the
129 first such mission. Pioneer 11 (1973) passed by Jupiter in December 1974.
- 130 ● Voyager 1 went past Jupiter on March 5, 1979. Voyager 2 traveled more slowly
131 and went by Jupiter on July 9, 1979.
- 132 ● A decade later the Galileo mission built its success on the heritage from the much
133 more modest missions mentioned above. Galileo was placed into Earth orbit in
134 1989, but from 1995–2003 the Galileo mission successfully explored the Jovian
135 System, providing strong evidence for satellites, where life as it is known to have
136 emerged on Earth, may have also have taken its initial steps providing an oppor-
137 tunity to identify a “second Genesis” using the suggestive phrase of Christopher
138 McKay. (For a detailed discussion of the consequences of life on Europa, the reader
139 should consult “A second Genesis: Stepping-stones towards the intelligibility of
140 nature” (Chela-Flores 2009), especially Chaps. 8–12 and the Glossary, p. 199 for
141 the original use of the suggestive phrase for the origin of life in an extraterrestrial
142 context).

143 The Galileo mission has added insights, such as the presence on Europa of some
144 form of ‘ice tectonics’. The Jet Propulsion Laboratory, which handled Galileo for
145 NASA, has released some images that suggest that part of the surface is understood

146 in terms of shifting plates of ice. From all the information gathered from Voyager and
147 Galileo, reasonable guesses have been put forward regarding possibly a substantial
148 amount of liquid water between the European silicate crust and its icy surface. [AQ1]

149 **4 New Paths for Fluid Mechanics in the 21st century**

150 A preliminary proposal for a return mission to Europa and the Jupiter system was
151 entitled LAPLACE. In February 2009 NASA and ESA took a preliminary decision
152 to support a Jupiter mission with the name of the Europa-Jupiter System Mission
153 (EJSM) replacing temporarily and extending our original Laplace proposal (Grasset
154 et al. 2009).

155 The Jovian System exploration was reformulated by ESA as a European-led single
156 spacecraft mission to the Jovian system, namely, the JUper ICy moon Explorer,
157 JUICE (Dougherty et al. 2011). The timeline is launch in 2022, and arrival at the
158 Jupiter system in 2030. The new mission is based on the design of the Jupiter
159 Ganymede Orbiter, which is the ESA flight element of EJSM-Laplace Mission.
160 Indeed, since three of the Galilean satellites are thought to host internal oceans,
161 the JUICE mission will study the moons as potential habitats for life.

162 In this context an appropriate technology concerns the micro-penetrator. These
163 instruments consist of small projectiles that can be delivered at high velocity to reach
164 just beneath the surface of planets or their satellites for probing samples of surficial
165 chemical elements, amongst other investigations. This type of instrumentation (the
166 penetrators) has a long history of feasible technological development by several space
167 agencies.

168 Although the limited payload constraints does not include penetrators in the
169 JUICE mission, it is forcing a choice between penetrators and landers. Some advantages
170 of the penetrator approach are nevertheless evident and remain a valid instrument
171 for studying our origins in lunar research (Chela-Flores 2012). The low mass
172 of these instruments, combined with their agility in deployment, makes them worthy
173 complements to orbiter missions launched without landers. We have attempted to
174 describe the feasibility of this technology both on the surface of Europa (Gowen et al.
175 2011), or on the Moon (Smith et al. 2012). The Europa's stained icy surface has been
176 the focus of recent search for possible biomarkers. The science of biogeochemistry
177 presents us the tantalizing option of inferring from the sulfur surficial patches tests
178 of biogenic chemical elements. Several Earth-bound regions are good analogues of
179 what may be happening in recent geologic times on Europa. These regions are on the
180 Canadian Arctic (Damhnait et al. 2012) and in the Antarctic (Chela-Flores 2011).

181 Fluid mechanics provides a rationale for the mechanisms that could bring
182 biomarkers from the seafloor to the icy surface. The original intention of some
183 oceanographers was to understand the special changes in the Europa's surface in
184 the Conamara Chaos Region (cf., Sect. 5). With the Galileo Mission we were able
185 to retrieve detailed images of Europa's frozen and stained surface. One of the most
186 intriguing and possibly significant was the Conamara Chaos.

187 The surface morphology can be understood in terms of oceanic plumes bear-
188 ing chemical elements, including sulfur from hydrothermal sources in the oceanic
189 bottom. A little beyond the present time technology will allow us to probe the
190 atmospheres of planets beyond the Solar System, where the atmospheric sciences will
191 be set in a new context (cf., Sect. 8) and this, once again, will allow fluid mechanics
192 to explore a novel physical context, namely, the atmospheric structure of hot giants,
193 Neptunes and super-Earths (Segura et al. 2010).

194 Several other instrumentation issues are also relevant. For instance, laser-induced
195 breakdown spectroscopy (LIBS). This has been a technique for the analysis of ele-
196 ments by retrieving a unique elemental fingerprint spectrum. Since chemical elements
197 are known to emit light of a given frequency when excited to sufficiently high tem-
198 peratures, LIBS suggests itself for detecting all elements in a given target. There are
199 advantages when planning the exploration of the Solar System.

200 LIBS shows potential for development instrumentation with characteristics typical
201 of LIBS, but in addition rapid *in situ* analysis is possible with little or no sample
202 preparation and the feasibility of automated spectroscopic analysis (Multari et al.
203 2010). But as in the case of the penetrators the payload constraint of, for instance the
204 JUICE Mission, does exclude some of these relevant instruments.

205 5 Buoyant Plumes from the Underlying Seafloor

206 These are possibilities that can eventually be tested in the laboratories of fluid
207 mechanics. The original intention was to simulate the circulation of Europa by solv-
208 ing the magneto-hydrodynamic equations of motion for a stratified incompressible
209 conduction fluid in a rotating frame of reference. The argument was centered on the
210 fact that the tidal forces can implement oceanic motions in the oceanic annulus gen-
211 erated by the other Galilean moons, by hydrothermal venting from crustal heating
212 and by the intense Jovian magnetosphere. In addition, there will be oceanic strati-
213 fication influenced by large-scale ocean circulation driven by hydrothermal venting
214 from below and conductive cooling from above.

215 Such stratification is expected to determine the height of the hydrothermal plume
216 rise, which if the conditions are given could be comparable with the ocean depth
217 and modify the surficial ice. This was a phenomenon that could be observed by the
218 space probes around Europa. This anomalous ice morphology began to be studied in
219 terms of fluid mechanics around the time when Galileo Mission data from the Jovian
220 System was available (Thomson and Delaney 1996).

221 Five years later, it was demonstrated that these plumes could indeed bear sufficient
222 energy to alter the morphology of the surficial ice, as observed by the Galileo probe
223 around the Conamara Region (Thomson and Delaney 2001). In detail, Thomson and
224 Delaney interpreted this region as melt-through structures formed by oceanic plumes
225 that rise to the base of the ice shell-surface from magmatically heated regions deep
226 in the seafloor. But what is most interesting from our point of view is that these

227 mechanisms of plume delivery from the hydrothermal vents could be the source of
228 biomarkers.

229 On Earth the origin of life may have occurred around hydrothermal vents, where
230 chemosynthetic bacteria may have flourished. In a similar manner, traces of living
231 organisms could be part of the supply of the stained ice, where sulfur is a main chem-
232 ical component. Mass spectrometry is the appropriate instrument that could decide
233 whether the internal source of sulfur is of biogenic origin, as the fractionation pro-
234 duced by living organisms can be radically different from that produced by inorganic
235 means (Dudeja et al. 2012).

236 6 Fluid Mechanics and a System-Level Understanding of Exolife

237 Systems biology has been a remarkable step forward in the life sciences, especially
238 after we have learnt how to handle large data banks. The first steps in this direction
239 were in the area of molecular biology with the genome and proteome projects. One
240 specific area of impact has been molecular medicine. We have suggested extending
241 systems biology to all areas of the life sciences, especially regarding “exolife” life,
242 namely life elsewhere in the Universe, which is the main topic of the new science of
243 astrobiology (Chela-Flores 2013a).

244 In fact, systems astrobiology is forced upon us, since our objective is not to reduce
245 problems to first principles, but more modestly our main objective is to attempt defin-
246 ing a set of parameters that may lead to identifying the condition for the presence of
247 complex life on an exo-world (exo-planets and exo-moons). The relevant parameters
248 include amongst many others: an anomalous fraction of oxygen, the star class hosting
249 the Earth-like planet, the age, the metallicity of the star, the position of the exoplanet
250 in the habitability zone of its star, and the possible presence of an exomoon.

251 Life in the Universe will emerge from statistical analysis of large data banks that
252 are now rapidly beginning to accumulate. Our combined assumptions of convergence
253 and the cosmos as a complex system imply that all the Earth-like exo-planets that
254 will be in the habitable zone of their corresponding star will have an identifiable
255 bioindicator (anomalous production of biogenic gases).

256 The signs of life are predicted to be a biologically produced atmosphere, largely
257 fractionated towards one of the biogenic gases (in the case of the Earth the large
258 fractionation triggered by biosystems is the 21 % of oxygen). Such atmospheres
259 would not be the result of natural accretion processes in the processes that give
260 origin to the planets, but instead, the emergence of the biogenic atmospheres would
261 be the result of the innate phenomenon of life that the laws of biochemistry will allow
262 in brief geologic times.

263 Systems astrobiology is analogous to systems biology, but it has to wait for its
264 full implementation until after we have gathered enough data from the sector of our
265 Galaxy. The practical reason why systems biology is a promising frontier for the
266 future of astrobiology is that it is not easy to have access to information on these
267 planets, except through the now incipient data banks of observable geophysical data,

268 such as methane and oxygen atmospheres, as well as information on the presence of
269 liquid water beyond the present data that has already been searched. In view of the
270 large rate of data retrieval systems astrobiology needs to be formulated at present to
271 prepare for its most convenient management and interpretation.

272 Since we are discussing how fluid mechanics has found a new area of application
273 in the astrobiology of moons of our solar system, we shall dwell with some care on the
274 question of the relevance of the moons for favouring the origin of life. The potential
275 detection of exo-moons has raised the possibility of bringing the distribution of life in
276 the cosmos closer to reality. The bases of exomoonology are the initial success of the
277 CoRoT mission that was the first space mission designed to search for exo-planets
278 similar to the Earth itself. It was launched with a Soyuz-Fregat rocket in December
279 2006. CoRoT is the French Space Agency (CNES) mission containing a small space
280 telescope in a terrestrial orbit at a height of 900 km.

281 **7 Distribution of Life in Other Solar Systems: Kepler Worlds**

282 On the other hand, the Kepler Mission, unlike CoRoT, is in a solar orbit. It was
283 launched on March 7, 2009 from Cape Canaveral Air Force Station in Florida. It has
284 a capability to scan some 150,000 stars in the local neighborhood of our Galaxy for
285 extrasolar planets (Kipping 2009a). Its main objective is to search for exo-planets,
286 especially Earth-like planets. At the time of writing, Kepler now has selected out of
287 the 150,000 stars a set of 2326 candidate transiting planets.

288 The search for exo-planets can be viewed as the first step in an eventual discovery
289 of life as a complex cosmic system. Following the lines outlined above, we expect
290 that a rationalization of life will eventually emerge from the data banks of a very large
291 number of stars in our galactic sector. The geophysical data, rather than data banks of
292 biological information, will provide a gradual emergence of the living phenomenon.
293 The geophysical (atmospheric) bio-indicators point towards ecosystems that have
294 evolved around stars producing measurable biomarkers in our galactic sector. Subse-
295 quently, with better missions and with improved instrumentation, this identification
296 of life as a complex system can be extended from a sector of the Galaxy now being
297 probed to other more distant parts of the Universe. It will be at that stage that the
298 methods of computational biology are necessary.

299 **8 The Moon's Influence on the Emergence of Habitability**

300 The presence of an exo-moon would stabilize the magnetic axis of the exo-Earth and
301 hence discard oscillations in the range 0–80° that would constrain the evolution of
302 life from small anaerobic to large complex life capable of photosynthesis (Kipping
303 2009b; Chela-Flores 2013b). Although no exo-moon has been discovered so far
304 they are in principle detectable with the Kepler data and, indeed, hints of an exo-

305 moon-forming region around exo-planets have been reported (Heller and Barnes
306 2012). On Earth the stability of the terrestrial magnetic axis is a well-known factor
307 for the evolution of complex multicellular life. The Moon has stabilized the axis of
308 rotation of the Earth, so that its axis of rotation stays in the same direction.

309 This has had a profound effect on Darwinian evolution, since drastic climatic
310 changes would restrict the survival to only small, robust organisms to survive (Batalha
311 et al. 2012). We have been presented with a remarkable discovery of several oceans
312 in the moons of the outer solar system. The knowledge we are gathering from the
313 moons of our solar system to which fluid mechanics has made a contribution (cf.,
314 Sect. 5), will in turn serve to understand the role of exo-moon in the emergence of
315 life in systems of habitable environments around other stars.

316 The more challenging possibilities that we have to face include the example of a
317 Neptune around an M2 star with a widely separated Earth-like Moon (Kipping et al.
318 2012). If a moon happens to be leading the planet, as it passes by, it will pull the planet
319 across the face of the star a little faster than average. If it happens to be following,
320 it will hold the planet back. Whether the moon is leading, or trailing, the silhouette
321 of the planet and moon will be wider than that of a planet alone. The planet-moon
322 system will block more of the star's light.

323 If the moon is directly in between the planet and the visual range of Kepler, on the
324 other hand, or if it is between the planet and the star, more starlight will reach Kepler's
325 sensors-and the moon itself will not be visible. After the planet passes around the
326 star several times the changes in speed caused by a moon can be compared with an
327 average speed, and so that moons that are completely hidden on one pass can have a
328 chance to show themselves on the next.

329 It should be kept in mind that the feasible detection of exo-moons will add addi-
330 tional parameters for the emergence of habitability on their exo-planets, as it has
331 happened in our own local environment (cf., Sect. 6). The Moon has been a stabi-
332 lizing factor for the axis of rotation of the Earth. In the case of Mars, for instance,
333 the lack of large satellites has allowed axis obliquity change. Consequently, the ice
334 at the poles could in some moonless exo-planets be displaced to the equator. But the
335 Moon has helped stabilize the Earth, so that its axis of rotation stays in the same
336 direction, leading to less climatic change than if the Earth resembled the moonless
337 planet Venus. The emergence of more complex multi-cellular organisms has been
338 favoured compared to a planet where drastic climatic change would allow only small,
339 robust organisms to survive.

340 With the advent of exomoonology (Kipping et al. 2012), the new batch of data to
341 arrive will be particularly relevant for adding yet another factor in defining habitabil-
342 ity and life, as suggested in a systems astrobiological approach. We will face with the
343 Kepler data and the HEK Project a selection of data for discriminating those Kepler
344 worlds that have more favourable options for habitability if they have companion
345 satellites.

346 **9 Insights from a System-Level Understanding**

347 The systems biology approach should also give us insights into one of its branches,
348 namely astrobiology, whose major problem is to understand habitability in alternative
349 abodes for life. With its geophysical/astronomical data, astrobiology can follow up
350 the tracks of genetics and biochemistry for solving fundamental problems that were
351 intrinsic to these disciplines of the life sciences such as protein, or proteome folding.
352 By having the option of focusing on how systems properties emerge in astrobiology,
353 we can raise the question whether habitability can be interpreted as an emergent
354 phenomenon. We suggest basing such an approach on different forthcoming projects:

355 **9.1 The Kepler Mission**

356 This NASA mission is already producing valuable data related to over 2000 candi-
357 dates for exo-planets (at the time of writing).

358 **9.2 The FINESSE Mission**

359 The NASA Mission FINESSE, Fast Infrared Exoplanet Spectroscopy Survey
360 Explorer (Swain 2010) is to be launched in 2016. It is also a source of data in
361 the near future. It would measure the spectra of stars and their planets.

362 FINESSE will analyze the planetary atmospheric components using a space tele-
363 scope to survey more than 200 planets around other stars. This mission attempts
364 to find the fraction of biogenic gases in exo-planet atmospheres and how the Solar
365 System fits into the family of planets in the galactic neighborhood focused by the
366 Kepler mission. FINESSE science objectives overlap the topic of our interest, since
367 firstly, they intend to measure fundamental parameters in the exo-atmospheres to
368 allow knowing the physical and chemical processes of their atmospheres.

369 Secondly, the science objectives once again overlap with one of the atmospheric
370 science sub-disciplines—climatology—concerned with the weather in the same lay-
371 ers of the atmosphere over given periods of time. The second relevant FINESSE
372 science objective is to trace the composition and temperature change with longitude
373 and time. It is expected that the details of the day side-night side differences will
374 allow the mission to determine insights into the exo-planet climate. A project now in
375 its first steps, the “Hunt for Exomoons with Kepler”, (the HEK project mentioned in
376 Sect. 8) aims at distilling the entire list of known transiting planet candidates found
377 by Kepler.

378 This effort is pursued in order to track down the most promising candidates for
379 hosting at least an all-important moon, whose interaction with the host planet is
380 relevant for the pathway along which life evolves.

381 **9.3 The TESS Mission**

382 With Transiting Exoplanet Survey Satellite Mission, TESS (Foust 2012) the Kepler
383 search for exo-planets will be extended to additional G, K type of stars up to the 12
384 magnitude, including over two million stars and M type (red-dwarfs) to about one
385 thousand up to 30 parsecs.

386 **9.4 The EChO Mission**

387 With the Exoplanet Characterisation Observatory Mission, EChO (Tinetti et al.
388 2012), exo-moons down to $0.33R_{\oplus}$ would be detectable for our target stars, provid-
389 ing a complementary set of information from what is being searched from the Kepler
390 data (Kipping et al. 2012). In addition, EChO will be able to analyze the atmospheres
391 of super-Earths in the habitable zones of their host stars. One of their objectives
392 is to measure the spatial (vertical and horizontal) and temporal variability of the
393 thermal/chemical atmospheric structure of hot giants, Neptunes, and super-Earths
394 orbiting bright stars.

395 **10 Discussion and Conclusions**

396 From the point of view of the comparatively recent science of astrobiology (Chela-
397 Flores 2011), we have aimed to illustrate a novel area of application of the time-
398 honoured discipline of fluid mechanics. Since ancient times fluid mechanics has
399 been relevant in a context of our civilization. An extraordinary new venue for fluid
400 mechanics emerged early in the 20th century for macroscopic quantum phenomena
401 of the quantum liquids.

402 These relatively new applications became even broader, due to the technological
403 revolution in instrumentation that we are going through at present. This on-going
404 revolution is to be materialized with the forthcoming extension of aeronomy from
405 its present Solar System constraints to planetary systems around other stars, since
406 as mentioned in Sect. 2 aeronomy is concerned with the physics and processes of
407 the upper atmosphere. Now we are in a position to anticipate that the upper exo-
408 atmospheres will be measurable with the coming step forward in instrumentation
409 with the missions FINESSE, EChO, and TESS (cf., Sect. 9).

410 An underlying hypothesis in the previous work (Chela-Flores 2013a) has been
411 evolutionary convergence, namely, independent evolution of similar genetic or mor-
412 phological features. Assuming both biochemistry (Pace 2001) and biology (Dawkins
413 1983) to be universal sciences, evolutionary convergence has been assumed to be pos-
414 sible, even in other lines of biological evolution elsewhere in the universe (Conway-
415 Morris 1998, 2003; Chela-Flores 2007). For a more careful detailed discussion of

416 evolutionary convergence we refer the interested reader to Chap. 12 in “The Science
417 of Astrobiology” (Chela-Flores 2011).

418 The eventual verification of the validity of the fluid mechanics theory that has been
419 applied to the internal ocean of Europa (cf., Sect. 5) does not have to wait for long-
420 term technological developments. We originally proposed with our JPL co-workers
421 instruments of the kind of cryobots and coupled hydrobots that may penetrate the
422 icy cover to probe directly the oceanic phenomena that were to be modelled by fluid
423 mechanics (Horvath et al. 1997). However, it is clear now that the surficial probing that
424 can be performed with the help of the micro-penetrators would suffice for extracting
425 most of the relevant information from the upper layers of the icy European surface
426 (Gowen et al. 2011).

427 Finally, a point that we would like to highlight is that the new venues for the
428 science of astrobiology have been suggested by older approaches that come from the
429 life and physical sciences. Indeed, systems chemistry is a physical science clearly
430 outlined (Anderson 1972), in which an interdisciplinary approach focuses on com-
431 plex interactions in chemical systems, using a new point of view, holism rather than
432 reductionism, where collective phenomena are the main ingredient in basic research
433 of chemical systems. It attempts to produce a more holistic understanding of bio-
434 chemistry, especially the question of folding in proteins.

435 On the other hand, systems biology is a life science in which an interdisciplinary
436 approach focuses on complex interactions in biological systems, using a new point
437 of view. It attempts to produce a more holistic understanding of biology, especially
438 genetics. The new approach aims to construct a network of interacting processes that
439 can be related to the information sciences (Buchanan et al. 2010). A major aim is to
440 discover emergent properties of a system that would be understood by focusing on its
441 complex interactions and relying on the information sciences. These computational
442 techniques have given rise to systems astrobiology, where the new space science is
443 also considered as a branch of biology (Chela-Flores 2013a).

444 Instead of applying the new methodology of systems biology to genetics, it is
445 applied to other biologically relevant questions, namely the origin, evolution, distri-
446 bution, and destiny of life in the Universe. The distribution of systems of habitable
447 worlds with their biomarkers will be testable in the short term with forthcoming
448 space missions mentioned above. This would justify subsequent use of quantitative
449 systems biology methods that are already available in other branches of biology.

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