Planetary Atmospheres -Thermo and Photochemistry

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Outline

- Introduction Structure of exoplanet atmospheres
- Thermodynamics Thermochemical equilibrium
- Chemical kinetics
- Photochemistry
- Tools: 1D kinetic models ingredients + key results

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Some scientific questions

- What is the history of these planets ?
- How did they form ?
- ➡ What is the chemical composition of their atmosphere ?
- ➡ What are the elemental ratios ?
- Are they the same than their host star ? or are they enriched ?

Determine one or several scenarios of planetary formation, common with the Solar System (if possible)









source: exoplanet.eu (september, 2nd 2022)

5159 exoplanets + 8 solar system planets





xoplanets + 8 solar system planets



Thermochemical Equilibrium: depends only of P, T, elementary abundances



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intense stellar irradiation
+ high temperatures
+ strong temperature gradient
between day and nightside

photodissociations
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To interpret observations + to understand these atmospheres

⇒ Need kinetic models !

 10^{-8}

10-7

 10^{-9}

• From their small density, we know that their atmospheres are dominated by Hydrogen (H₂ or H) and Helium



10⁻⁵

 10^{-4}

Mole fraction

 10^{-3}

 10^{-2}

 10^{-1}

 10^{0}

 10^{-6}

 10^{-4}

 10^{-3}

10⁻²

Bressure (mbar) 10¹ 10¹

10¹

10²

10³

 10^{-9}

CO₂

10⁻⁸

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 H_2O

 10^{-2}

 10^{-1}

 10^{0}

 10^{-3}

 NH_3

 10^{-7}

 10^{-6}

10⁻⁵

 10^{-4}

Mole fraction

104 • **Thermo equilibrium:** temperature is very high so kinetics is fast enough to reproduce thermo equilibrium

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kinetic model



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 $\tau_{chemical} > \tau_{dynamical}$

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 Photodissociations: UV irradiation from the star destroys or produces molecules.

Effect can be seen as deep as 10/100 mbar

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Madhusudhan et al. 2016



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- In deep region of hot/warm gaseous giant exoplanets atmospheres: high P and T
- → chemical composition at thermochemical equilibrium.



- The chemical composition in these regions can be calculated using the laws of thermodynamics, considering this region as a closed system.
- Gibbs free Energy (G): thermodynamic quantity the most appropriate to study and calculate this chemical equilibrium.
- The Gibbs free Energy is given by : G = H TS



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Let's see how it works...



- Consider one reaction occurring in a mixture of gases with constant *P* and *T*.
- The 2nd law of thermodynamics states that <u>the total entropy of an isolated system can</u> <u>never decrease over time</u>:

 $\Delta S_{tot} \geq 0 \text{ with } \Delta S_{tot} = \Delta S_{sys} + \Delta S_{ext} \qquad \text{mixture of gases}$

• The variation of enthalpy of the system (ΔH_{sys}) corresponds to the heat exchanged during the reaction: $Q_P = \Delta H_{sys}$

and this variation of enthalpy is received by the exterior => $\Delta S_{ext} = -\frac{Q_P}{T} = -\frac{\Delta H_{sys}}{T}$

•
$$\Delta S_{sys} - \frac{\Delta H_{sys}}{T} \ge 0 \Rightarrow \Delta H_{sys} - T\Delta S_{sys} \le 0 \Rightarrow \Delta G_{sys} \le 0$$

• The reaction can occur only if the Gibbs Energy of the system decreases

The equilibrium state will be reached for the minimum of G_{sys} .

- In a system composed of *L* species, the Gibbs Energy of the system can be expressed as a function of the partial Gibbs Energy (*=chemical potential*) of each species *l*: $G_{sys} = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \mu_l N_l$ with $\mu_l = g_l(T, P) + RT \ln N_l$ and N_l the number of moles of species *l*
- The Gibbs Energy of species l is : $g_l(T, P) = h_l(T) Ts_l(T)$.
- Let express $h_l(T)$ and $s_l(T)$ with the values at Normal conditions of Pressure ($P^0 = 1.01325$ bar) $h_l(T)$ does not depend on P => $h_l(T) = h_l^0(T)$ (at P^0) $s_l(T)$ does depend on P => a term depending on pressure must be added: $g_l(T,P) = h_l^0(T) - Ts_l^0(T) + RT \ln \frac{P}{P^0}$
- Finally, the total Gibbs Energy of the system is given by:

$$G_{sys} = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \left(h_l^0(T) - Ts_l^0(T) + RT \ln \frac{P}{P^0} + RT \ln N_l \right) \times N_l$$

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The equilibrium state will be reached for the minimum of G_{sys} → how to calculate it ?

NASA coefficients

- The thermodynamic properties of species $h_l^0(T)$ and $s_l^0(T)$ can be computed numerically thanks to NASA polynomials.
- For each species, two sets of coefficients exist, corresponding to two ranges of temperature. In the format found in the literature, the first set of coefficients corresponds to the high temperature range (1000-5000 K), the second set to the low temperature range (300-1000 K)

-07-0.02506588E-10-0.03020811E+06 0.02590232E+02

3

0.03386842E+02 0.03474982E-01-0.06354696E-04

- Originally, the format of these polynomials used 7 coefficients, but the update NASA polynomial format is using 9 coefficients. However, both format are still regularly used.
- 7-coefficients format :

$$\frac{h_l^0(T)}{RT} = a_{1l} + \frac{a_{2l}T}{2} + \frac{a_{3l}T^2}{3} + \frac{a_{4l}T^3}{4} + \frac{a_{5l}T^4}{5} + \frac{a_{6l}}{T}$$
$$\frac{s_l^0(T)}{R} = a_{1l}\ln T + a_{2l}T + \frac{a_{3l}T^2}{2} + \frac{a_{4l}T^3}{3} + \frac{a_{5l}T^4}{4} + a_{7l}$$

• 9-coefficients format : $\frac{h_l^0(T)}{RT} = -\frac{a_{1l}}{T^2} + \frac{a_{2l}\ln T}{T} + a_{3l} + \frac{a_{4l}T}{2} + \frac{a_{5l}T^2}{3} + \frac{a_{6l}T^3}{4} + \frac{a_{7l}T^4}{5} + \frac{a_{8l}}{T}$ $\frac{s_l^0(T)}{R} = -\frac{a_{1l}}{2T^2} - \frac{a_{2l}}{T} + a_{3l}\ln T + a_{4l}T + \frac{a_{5l}T^2}{2} + \frac{a_{6l}T^3}{3} + \frac{a_{7l}T^4}{4} + a_{9l}$

Equilibrium composition

• Reminder: the Gibbs free Energy of the system is :

$$G_{sys} = \sum_{l=1}^{L} (h_l^0(T) - Ts_l^0(T) + RT \ln \frac{P}{P^0} + RT \ln N_l) \times N_l$$

- With NASA coefficients, we are able to calculate each term of this formula.
- For an initial molecular composition (or initial elemental abundances), the set of N_l that permits to have the lower G_{sys} will correspond to the thermochemical equilibrium composition.
- This composition is found numerically, with a Newton-Raphson method for instance.
- This composition depends on T and P....

Repartition of chemical elements

- We can determined how the chemical elements are distributed among the different species as a function of T:
- For solar elemental abundances (% = 0.46): At low T, Carbon is mainly under the form of CH₄. At high T, CO is the main Cbearing species. Transition occurs about 1100 K.
- H₂O is the main O-bearing species (up to 3000 K), but y(H₂O) decreases when y(CO) increases.



Repartition of chemical elements

- We can also see that P has an influence:
- At P = 100 bar, transition between CO/CH₄ occurs at higher T than at 1 bar: ~1800 K.


- Conversely, when P decreases transition between CO/CH₄ occurs at lower T.
 At 0.001 bar, transition happens at ~700 K.
- CO becomes more abundant than H₂O about 2500K.
- We notice the increase of molecular oxygen, which becomes the reservoir of oxygen after 2900 K.



- The same behaviour is observed for Nitrogen species, NH₃ being the N-bearing species at low T, N₂ at high T.
- Temperature of transition increases together with P.

~700 K

1000

Temperature (K)

2000

 10^{-2}

 10^{-4}

 10^{-6}

10-8

10⁻¹⁰

0

-raction molaire

P = 1 bar

% solar



- For a given elemental composition, P and T determine the molecular composition.
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- For a given elemental composition, P and T determine the molecular composition.
- The elemental composition influences also the molecular composition (i.e. C/H, O/H, N/H)
- An increase of the metallicity lowers the temperature of transition between CO / CH₄ (same for N₂/NH₃)
- An increase of the % ratio also slightly increases the temperature of transition.
- At high T and %=1, CO is the main C- and O-bearing species.



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- At any time *t*, the reaction is characterised by the reaction quotient (*Q_R*): $Q_{R}(t) = \prod_{l=1}^{L} a_{l}(t)^{\nu_{l}} \text{ with } \nu_{l} = \nu_{l}'' - \nu_{l}' \text{ and } a_{l}(t) \text{ the activity of species } \chi_{l} \text{ at instant } t$

• The activity of a species corresponds to its « effective concentration » in a mixture. Dimensionless quantity that can be expressed* as a function of its partial pressure $(a_l = p_l/P^0)$, its molecular concentration $(a_l = n_l/N^0)$, or its mixing ratio $(a_l = y_l/Y^0)^{**}$

*for non-ideal gas, one must multiply p_l , n_l and y_l by the activity coefficient ($0 \le \gamma_l \le 1$) ** P^0 , N^0 , and Y^0 are the standard values : 1 bar, 1 molecule.cm⁻³, and 1

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Equilibrium constant

- The reaction quotient with the activity expressed in pressure units (Q_p) is linked to thermodynamics values, especially the <u>Gibbs Energy</u> through: $\Delta G = \Delta G^0 + RT \ln Q_p$
- When the reaction reached an equilibrium, and thus the system does not evolve anymore, Q_p is called equilibrium constant and is noted K_p and $\Delta G = 0 \implies \Delta G^0 = -RT \ln K_p$
- We obtain the expression of the equilibrium constant: $K_p = \exp(-\Delta G^0/RT)$ that can be also expressed : $K_p = \exp\left(\frac{\Delta S^0}{R} - \frac{\Delta H^0}{RT}\right)$ with $\frac{\Delta S^0}{R} = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \nu_l \frac{s_l^0(T)}{R}$ and $\frac{\Delta H^0}{RT} = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \nu_l \frac{h_l^0(T)}{RT}$
- The equilibrium constant of a reaction, K_p , can be calculated with NASA coefficients.

• Still considering our reaction $\sum_{l=1}^{L} \nu'_l \chi_l = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \nu''_l \chi_l$ ex: A+B=C+2D

- Conservation of matter imposes: $-\frac{1}{\nu'_l}\frac{d[\chi_l]}{dt} = \frac{1}{\nu''_l}\frac{d[\chi_l]}{dt} = v$, where $[\chi_l]$ is the concentration of species χ_l (molecule.cm⁻³) and v is the reaction rate (molecule.cm⁻³.s⁻¹)
- The reaction rate, v, is proportional to the concentration of species. The general formula postulated by Van't Hoff is $v = k(T) \prod_{l} [\chi_{l}]^{\nu'_{l}}$ with k(T) the rate coefficient.
- The production/loss rates of products/reactants are given by $\pm \frac{d[\chi_l]}{dt}$

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ex: $\tau_A = 1/k[B]$

Rate coefficient

• The rate coefficient is expressed with an Arrhenius law, or, more commonly, with the modified Arrhenius law: $k(T) = AT^n \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{RT}\right)$

E_a is the *activation energy* of the reaction.



Rate coefficient

- Units of k(T) depends on the type of the reaction:
 - <u>Unimolecular</u>: $A \rightarrow B+C$

 $v = k(T)[A] \Rightarrow k(T) \text{ in } s^{-1}$

- <u>Bimolecular</u>: A+B→C+D
- $v = k(T)[A][B] \Rightarrow k(T) \text{ in cm}^3.\text{molecule}^1.\text{s}^{-1}$
- Termolecular: A+B+M→AB+M
- $v = k(T)[A][B][M] \Rightarrow k(T) \text{ in cm}^{6}.molecule^{-2}.s^{-1}$
- A 3-bodies reaction is complex. It results from the association of 2 molecules: A+B→AB* followed by a deexcitation thanks to the collision with M (background gas): AB*+M→AB+M
- AB* is not stable and will decay spontaneously if there is no collision with M: AB*→A+B

- The probability that AB* meets a M body is large at high P, because molecules are close to each other. In this case, the reaction rate does not depend on [M] and the reaction can be considered as bimolecular: A+B→AB
 ⇒ In the high-pressure limit: v_∞ = k_∞[A][B]
- At low-pressure, the reaction rate is limited by the density of M. \Rightarrow In the low-pressure limit: $v_0 = k_0[A][B][M]$
- [M] is the sum of the density of each molecules (eventually weighted by their efficiencies)



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 10^{-10}

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 $P_r = \frac{k_0[M]}{k_m}$

- [M] is the sum of the density of each molecules (eventually weighted by their efficiencies)
- The transition region between the low- and high-pressure regimes is called « fall-off » region. *k*(*T*) is given by :

$$k(T) = k_{\infty} \left(\frac{P_r}{1 + P_r}\right) F$$

with the reduced pressure



 $CH_3 + CH_3 \xrightarrow{(+M)} C_2H_6$

high P

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The notions of « low »

Fall-off region

$$k(T) = k_{\infty} \left(\frac{P_r}{1 + P_r}\right) F$$

- Several formulations for *F* exist:
 - Lindemann: F=1 Lindemann et al. 1922

$$- \operatorname{\underline{\operatorname{Troe}}} : \log_{10} F = \frac{\log_{10}(F_{cent})}{1 + \left[\frac{\log_{10}(P_r) + c}{N - d(\log_{10}(P_r) + c)}\right]^2} \text{ with } N = 0.75 - 1.27 \times \log_{10}(F_{cent})$$

$$d = 0.14$$

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and
$$F_{cent} = (1 - a) \exp\left(-\frac{T}{T^{***}}\right) + a \exp\left(-\frac{T}{T^*}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{T^{**}}{T}\right)$$

$$- \operatorname{\underline{SRI}}: F = d\left[a \exp\left(-\frac{b}{T}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{T}{c}\right)^X T^e \text{ with } X = \frac{1}{1 + (\log_{10} P_r)^2} \quad \operatorname{\underline{Stewart et al. 1986}}_{Kee et al. 1996}\right]$$

- The different expressions for F allow a better description of the fall-off region
- The more common expression used to study planetary atmospheres is « Troe »



 A new method is appearing and consists in a logarithmic interpolation of rates coefficients specified at individual pressures.

The rate k at pressure P (with $P_1 < P < P_2$) is given by :

$$\log k(P) = \log k(P_1) + (\log k(P_2) - \log k(P_1)) \frac{\log P - \log P_1}{\log P_2 - \log P_1}$$

Reverse and forward rates

• The reaction $\sum_{l=1}^{L} \nu'_l \chi_l = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \nu''_l \chi_l$ can occur in both directions (forward and reverse) aA+bB = cC+dD

• The associated rate coefficients are $k_f(T)$ and $k_r(T)$.

• The reaction rates are respectively $v_f = k_f(T) \prod_l [\chi'_l]^{\nu'_l}$ and $v_r = k_r(T) \prod_l [\chi''_l]^{\nu''_l}$ $v_f = k_f(T)[A]^a[B]^b$ $v_r = k_r(T)[C]^c[D]^d$ • When the reaction is at equilibrium $v_f = v_r$ and thus $\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \prod_l [\chi_l]^{\nu_l}$ $\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \frac{[C]^c[D]^d}{[A]^a[B]^b}$

 One can recognise the equilibrium constant, with the activity expressed in term of molecular concentration. Expressed in term of pressure, we obtain:

$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \left(\frac{P^0}{k_B T}\right)^{\sum_l \nu_l} K_p \implies \left[\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \left(\frac{P^0}{k_B T}\right)^{\sum_l \nu_l} \exp(-\Delta G^0/RT)\right]$$

 \Rightarrow knowing k_f only, k_r is calculated with NASA coefficients!

Reverse and forward rates

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Outline

- Introduction Structure of exoplanet atmospheres
- Thermodynamics Thermochemical equilibrium
- Chemical kinetics
- Photochemistry
- Tools: 1D kinetic models ingredients + key results

Photolyses

- Photodissociations occur in upper atmosphere of irradiated exoplanets
- After absorption of a photon, molecule A is excited: $A+h v \rightarrow A^*$



- Depending on the energy of the absorbed photon, molecule A* can dissociate and photodissociation products can vary.
- Molecule **A** has *N* routes to photodissociate. At each wavelength, the probability that **A** dissociates through the route *k* is given by the branching ratio, $q_k(\lambda)$, verifying : $\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k(\lambda) = 1$.

Photodissociation route

For instance: ($CH_4 + h v \longrightarrow CH_3 + H$
Gans et al. 20	$11 \longrightarrow {}^{1}CH_{2}+H_{2}$
	→ ³ CH ₂ +H+H

branching ratio [λ range]

1.0 [6-151] ; 0.42 [121.6] 0.48 [121.6] 0.03 [121.6] 0.07 [121.6]

Photodissociation rate

- For these reactions, the rate coefficient is called the photodissociation rate and is noted *J*.
 - absorption cross section of species *i* (cm²)
- For a molecule *i*, dissociating through the route *k*, $J_i^k(z) = \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \sigma_i^{abs}(\lambda) F(\lambda, z) q_k(\lambda) d\lambda$ Actinic flux (cm⁻².s⁻¹.nm⁻¹)
- The total photodissociation rate of the molecule *i* is the sum of the photodissociation rate in each route: $J_i(z) = \sum_{k=1}^N J_i^k(z)$
- Absorption cross sections and branching ratios are very important data to calculate the photodissociation rates. In reality these data depends on temperature, but their thermal dependency is badly quantified....
- Very few experimental measurements and not trivial to model theoretically

Outline

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- Molecular Spectroscopy Electronic, vibrational, rotational transitions
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Thermo-photochemical model

- A thermo-photochemical model aims at reproducing all physical and chemical processes occurring in an atmosphere in order to study the evolution of its chemical compounds.
- These models exist mainly in 1D, but some 2D, and 3D models have been developed.
- The atmosphere is represented by a column divided in several layers
 - Each of these layers contains molecules that
 - photodissociate with UV radiation
 - react with each other
 - move from a layer to another thanks to mixing
 - For each species and in each level, the thermo-photochemical model resolves the continuity equation, which describes the temporal evolution of the density of a species *i* at the altitude *z*

$$\frac{\partial n_i(z)}{\partial t} = P_i(z) - L_i(z) - div(\Phi_i(z)\overrightarrow{e_z})$$

 $P_i(z)$ the production rate (cm⁻³s⁻¹) $L_i(z)$ the loss rate (cm⁻³s⁻¹) with $n_i(z)$ the density (cm⁻³) $\Phi_i(z)$ the flux (cm⁻²s⁻¹)

Large system of coupled differential equations



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Large system of coupled differential equations

Continuity equation

 $\frac{\partial n_i(z)}{\partial t} = P_i(z) - L_i(z) - div(\Phi_i(z)\overrightarrow{e_z})$

- Production (P_i) and loss (L_i) rates are calculated with formula of chemical kinetics (seen previously) and thanks to the chemical scheme, given as input.
- The flux (Φ_i) is calculated with the **diffusion equation**, taking into account molecular and eddy diffusions

$$\Phi_i(z) = -n_i(z)D_i(z) \left[\frac{1}{n_i(z)} \frac{\partial n_i(z)}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{H_i(z)} + \frac{(1+\alpha_i)}{T(z)} \frac{dT(z)}{dz} \right] - n_i(z)K(z) \left[\frac{1}{y_i(z)} \frac{\partial y_i(z)}{\partial z} \right]$$

with $D_i(z)$ the molecular diffusion coefficient (cm²s⁻¹), K(z) the eddy diffusion coefficient (cm²s⁻¹), $\alpha_i(z)$ the thermal diffusion coefficient, and $H_i(z)$ the scale height (cm)

- Ingredients necessary to run such model are:
 - information/data for diffusion
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Molecular diffusion

- In planetary atmospheres, made of a major molecule, minor molecules undergo molecular diffusion when their density depart from hydrostatic equilibrium.
- The induced flux is proportional to the molecular diffusion coefficient D_i of the minor species i in the major molecule.
- In atmospheres in which the background is formed by 2 compounds A and B (like hot Jupiters atmospheres, made mainly of He and H₂), the minor species *i* diffuses in a binary mixing of gases with a coefficient D_{imix} given by:

$$D_{imix} = \left(\frac{y_A}{D_{iA}} + \frac{y_B}{D_{iB}}\right)^{-1} \qquad \text{with } D_{iX} = \frac{0.00143T^{1.75}}{PM_{iX}^{1/2}[(\Sigma_v)_i^{1/3} + (\Sigma_v)_X^{1/3}]}$$

with *P* the pressure (bar), M_{iX} the reduced mass (kg), and Σ_v the sum of volumes of atomic diffusion of each atom of species *i* and *X*

Eddy diffusion

- The Eddy diffusion gathers all processes that tend to mix the atmosphere, wether at micro or macroscopic scale.
- For exoplanets, there is a very large uncertainty for this parameter.
- It can be set constant with altitude. In this case, K(z) is typically between 10⁷-10¹² cm²s⁻¹
- It can be estimated from GCM, using tracers (Parmentier et al. 2013, Charnay et al. 2015)



warm Neptune GJ 1214b (Charnay et al. 2015)

$$K_{zz}(P) = K_{zz0} \times P_{bar}^{-0.4}$$

 $K_{zz0} = 7 \times 10^{2} \text{ m}^{2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{ for } 1 \times \text{ solar metallicity}$ $K_{zz0} = 2.8 \times 10^{3} \text{ m}^{2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{ for } 10 \times \text{ solar metallicity}$ $K_{zz0} = 3 \times 10^{3} \text{ m}^{2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{ for } 100 \times \text{ solar metallicity}$ $K_{zz0} = 3 \times 10^{2} \text{ m}^{2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{ for pure water case}$

Continuity equation

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- To calculate the production and loss rates, the thermo-photochemical model needs a list of species and reactions, with the corresponding coefficients (Arrhenius, TROE,...)
 → a chemical scheme/network
- The first chemical scheme used to study hot Jupiters atmosphere was one developed for Jupiter's atmosphere (applied to HD 209458b by Liang et al. 2003, 2004).
 → scheme made for low temperature atmospheres
 - → lack of endothermic reactions that cannot be neglected at high temperature
 - → thermochemical equilibrium was not reproduce in the deep atmosphere
- For System solar planets (i.e. cold) endothermic reactions are not included because very slow. Lower boundaries conditions are set to fix mixing ratios.



- In hot exoplanet atmospheres, no need of boundaries conditions if thermochemical equilibrium is reproduced
- All reactions must be reversed thanks to the equilibrium constant (calculated with

NASA coefficients):
$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \left(\frac{P^0}{k_B T}\right)^{\sum_l \nu_l} K_p$$



- To create the chemical scheme, no real rules:
 - usually/historically, made manually adding reactions found in literature to each others
 developed from Jupiter's or Earth's model (depending on kind of planets studied)
 (Moses et al. 2011, Kopparapu et al. 2012, Hu et al. 2012,...)
 - → uncertainty on the completeness of these schemes....

- other approach: use chemical schemes validated experimentally in combustion field (*Venot et al. 2012, 2015, 2020*)

Depending on the scheme used, differences in the predicted abundances can occur
 quenching does not occur at the same level



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- Depending on the scheme used, differences in the predicted abundances can occur
 quenching does not occur at the same level
- For models focusing on the deep/middle atmosphere (P≥10⁻⁸ bar), only neutral species need to be included in the chemical scheme
- Models for the upper atmosphere (thermosphere) need to include ions and electrons (Yelle 2004, Garcia Munoz 2007, Koskinen et al. 2013) and some models couple neutral and ions chemistry (Lavvas et al. 2014, Rimmer et al. 2014, 2016)

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Thermal profile

- In most kinetic models, the thermal profile is a fix input parameter
- The PT profile comes from theoretical models (GCMs or 1D/2D radiative-convective models) or is derived from observations (with a retrieval code)
- Temperature between 500 and 3000 K for hot gaseous giant planets
- Temperature inversion are possible

<u>Case of HD 209458b</u>: first, thermal inversion was invoked to explain observations by Spitzer (e.g. Knutson+2008, Madhusudhan & Seager 2009, Line+2014) but Diamond-Lowe+2014 analysed the same data with a new method and found that thermal inversion was no longer necessary. Then the analyse of high-precision HST data (Line+2016) confirm that no thermal inversion exist in this planet...



Thermal profile

- The limitation of using fix profiles is that the change of chemical composition (and thus opacity of the atmosphere) is not taken into account leading to a non-consistent result.
- Up to now, only one fully-consistent kinetic model has been developed (Drummond et al. 2016)
- Impact on the temperature (up to 100 K) and the chemical composition





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Stellar flux

- In thermo-photochemical model, the UV-vis stellar flux is needed to calculate photodissociation rates
- Unlike the Sun, the stellar flux of other stars in this range is rarely known.
- Need to use proxy for which observations are available, eventually combined to theoretical models (e.g. X-exoplanets, Phoenix, Kurucz)



Some key results...

- In the deep atmosphere CO converted to CH₄ through the net reaction:
 CO + 3H₂ → CH₄ + H₂O (detailed pathways vary depending on chemical schemes)
- The CO/CH₄ ratio is :
 - strongly modified by mixing compared to what is predicted by equilibrium
 - very dependent on effective temperature of the planet



Moses et al. 2016

- very dependent on Eddy diffusion coefficient



Carbon-Oxygen ratio

 in hot atmospheres (T ≥ 800K) molecular abundances are very dependent on the % ratio of the atmosphere



hot jupiter Rocchetto et al. 2016

low %: dominated by H₂O, CO, CO₂
 high %: dominated by CO, C₂H₂, HCN, CH₄

Carbon-Oxygen ratio

The differences of composition are visible on spectra



12600

12400

0.98

3

5

6

4

Wavelength (μm)

2

1.02

7 8 9 10

Change of shape happens drastically around %=1

Towards 3D kinetic models - pseudo 2D model

 Results presented are found with 1D models, taking into account vertical mixing only, but horizontal mixing has importance (i.e. Agúndez+ 2014; Venot+ 2020)



 With pseudo 2D model, we find that at equator, homogenisation of abundances, close to that of the dayside, or in-between day/night abundances, as for CH₄

- But what about other latitudes ?
- Need a real 3D kinetic model, but the major issue is the huge computational time required by a GCM included a set of 2000 reactions...
- solution: to use <u>a reduced chemical scheme</u> (less complete but enough to study major species - Venot et al. 2019, 2020)
- <u>methodology</u>:

identify + eliminate unimportant species and associated reactions
 sensitivity analysis to eliminate less important reactions
 (step 2 is very time consuming so step 1 is required)



3. compare the results obtained with full and reduced schemes

• Temporal evolution in 0D in various P and T:



• Abundances in 1D :



maximum differences and corresponding pressure (mbar)

Species	HD 209458b	HD 189733b
H ₂ O	$1 \times 10^{-1} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$6 \times 10^{-1} (@3 \times 10^{-1})$
CH_4	$6 \times 10^2 \ (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$1 \times 10^{-1} (@3 \times 10^{2})$
CO	$7 \times 10^{-2} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$5 \times 10^{-1} (@6 \times 10^{1})$
CO_2	$1 \times 10^{-2} (@3 \times 10^{-1})$	$8 \times 10^{-1} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$
NH ₃	$2 \times 10^3 \ (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$2 \times 10^{-2} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$
HCN	$6 \times 10^1 \ (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$1 (@1 \times 10^2)$

Species	Metallicity = 10	Metallicity = 100
H_2O	$2 \times 10^{-2} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	2×10^{-1} (@7)
CH_4	$6 \times 10^{-2} (@9 \times 10^{2})$	$6 \times 10^{-1} (@6 \times 10^{2})$
CO	$1 \times 10^{-1} (@5 \times 10^{2})$	$2 \times 10^{-1} (@5 \times 10^{2})$
CO_2	$2 \times 10^{-1} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$1 \times 10^{-1} (@7)$
NH ₃	$1 \times 10^{-3} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$2 \times 10^{-2} (@6 \times 10^{2})$
HCN	$1 \times 10^{-1} (@1 \times 10^{-1})$	$3 \times 10^{-1} (@4 \times 10^{2})$

GJ436b

Venot et al. 2019

Uncertainty propagation in 1D :

A two-parameters temperature-dependent uncertainty factor associated to each rate constant Hébrard et al. Proc. Combust. Inst. (2015)

F(300K)

 $\Delta \log k(T) = \log F(T)$

$F(T) = F(300 \text{K}) \times \exp$	$g(rac{1}{T}$	$-\frac{1}{300})$	
--------------------------------------	----------------	-------------------	--

736.	02+B3C=B2CO+B10	1.20E+14	0.0	0.0	1.12	
737.	O2+B4CH=R5CHO+B1O	3.30E+13	0.0	0.0	1.26	
738.	O2+B4CH=B2CO+R2OH	3.20E+13	0.0	0.0	1.26	
739.	O2+B6CH2=>B2CO+R2OH+R1H	3.10E+12	0.0	0.0	1.26	
740.	O2+B5CH2=R5CHO+R2OH	4.30E+10	0.0	-500.0	1.26	
741.	O2+B5CH2=CO2+H2	6.90E+11	0.0	500.0	1.26	
742.	O2+B5CH2=>CO2+R1H+R1H	1.60E+12	0.0	1000.0	1.26	
743.	02+B5CH2=B2CO+H2O	1.90E+10	0.0	-1000.0	1.26	
744.	O2+B5CH2=>B2CO+R2OH+R1H	8.60E+10	0.0	-500.0	1.26	
745.	O2+B5CH2=HCHO+B1O	1.00E+14	0.0	4500.0	1.26	
746.	O2+R4CH3(+M)=R8CH3OO(+M)	7.80E+08	1.2	0.0	1.26	
746.		5.60E+25	-3.3	0.0	1.26	
747.	O2+R4CH3=R7CH3O+B1O	1.30E+14	0.0	31300.0	1.47	
748.	O2+R4CH3=HCHO+R2OH	3.00E+30	-4.7	36600.0	1.26	
749.	O2+CH4=R4CH3+R3OOH	4.00E+13	0.0	56700.0	1.05	2
750.	O2+R9C2HT=B2CO+R5CHO	3.80E+13	-0.2	0.0	1.20	
751.	O2+R9C2HT=R12CHCOV+B10	9.00E+12	-0.2	0.0	1.20	
752.	O2+C2H2T=R9C2HT+R3OOH	1.20E+13	0.0	74500.0	2.15	
753.	O2+C2H2T=R5CHO+R5CHO	7.00E+07	1.8	30600.0	1.26	
754.	O2+R10C2H3V=C2H2T+R3OOH	1.34E+06	1.6	-400.0	1.71	
755.	O2+R10C2H3V=HCHO+R5CHO	4.50E+16	-1.4	1000.0	1.08	
756.	O2+R10C2H3V=B1O+R13CH2CHO	3.30E+11	-0.3	10.0	1.26	
757.	02+C2H4Z=R10C2H3V+R300H	4.20E+13	0.0	57400.0	2.15	
758.	02+R11C2H5=R17C2H500	2.20E+10	0.8	-600.0	1.41	1



• Uncertainty propagation in 1D :



given the uncertainty on the vertical abundances with the full scheme, the reduced scheme is really close to nominal values

Towards 3D kinetic models

• 3D kinetics model developed by B. Drummond at



Drummond et al. 2020

CO₂

10

Mole Fraction

10⁻⁶



Towards 3D kinetic models

 The effects of 3D kinetics should be visible on the observations thanks to the spectral signature of CH₄, HCN and CO₂



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