Planetary Atmospheres Thermo and Photochemistry

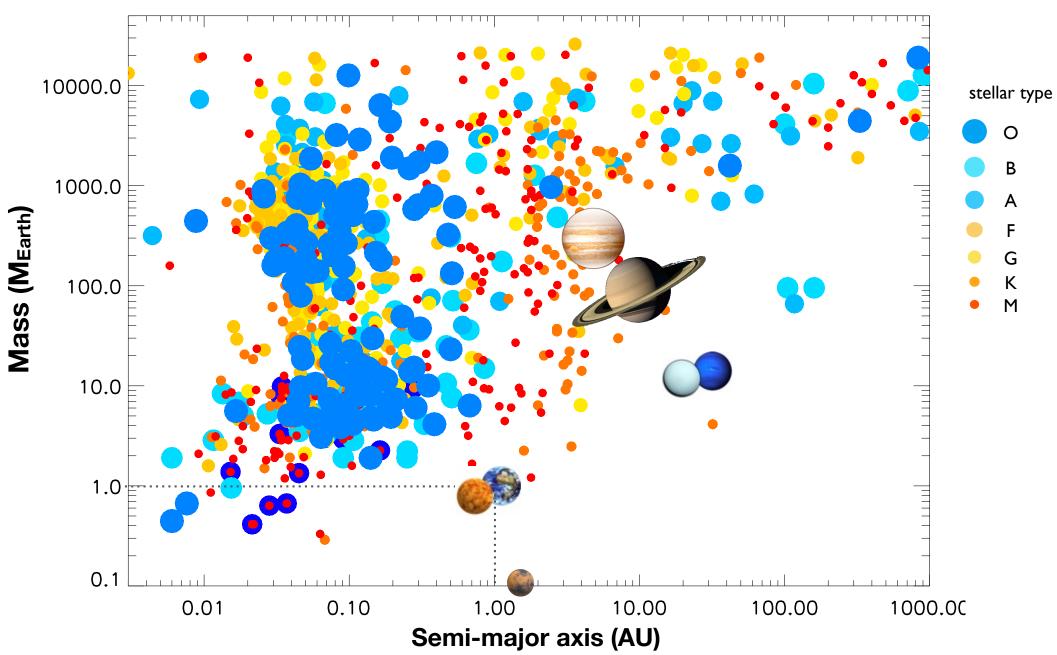
Olivia Venot olivia.venot@lisa.ipsl.fr

Outline

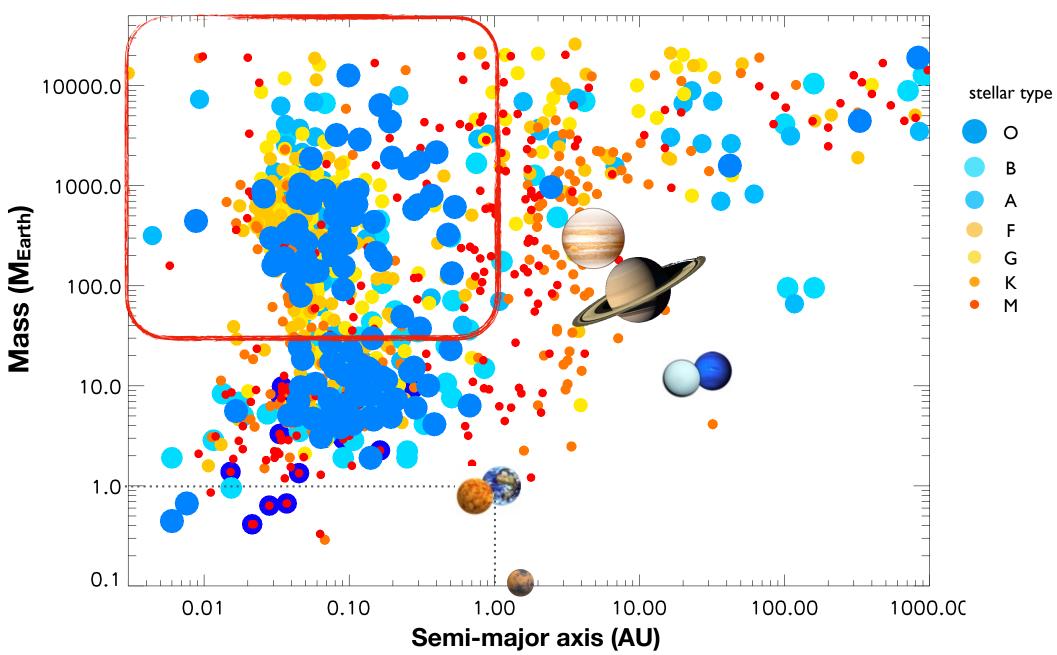
- Introduction Structure of exoplanet atmospheres
- Thermodynamics Thermochemical equilibrium
- Chemical kinetics
- Photochemistry
- Tools: 1D kinetic models ingredients + key results

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source: exoplanet.eu (september, 28st 2021)

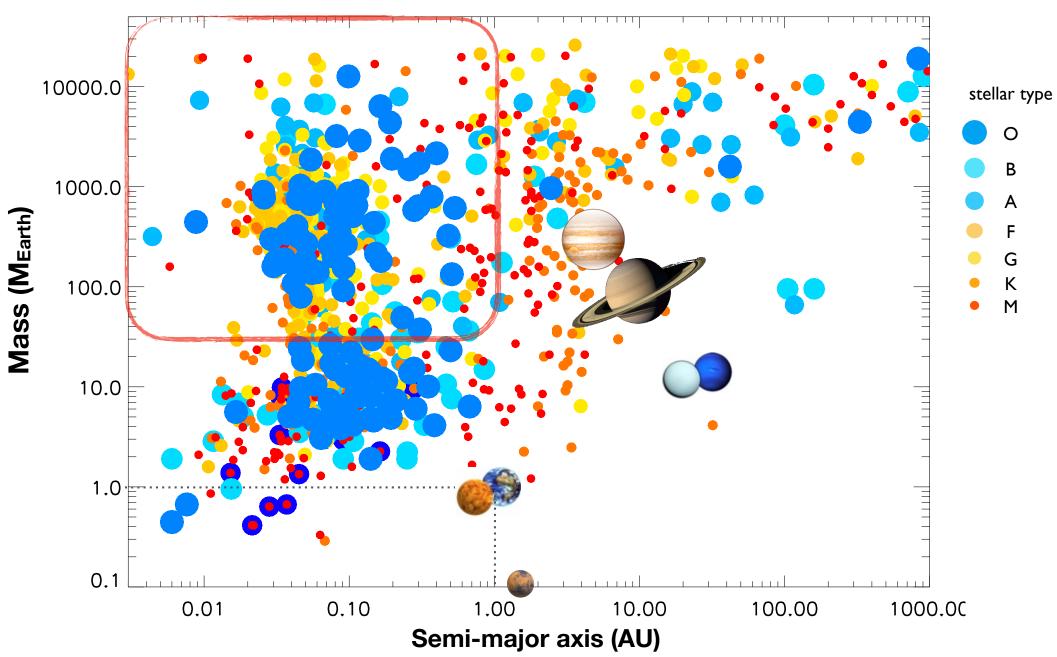


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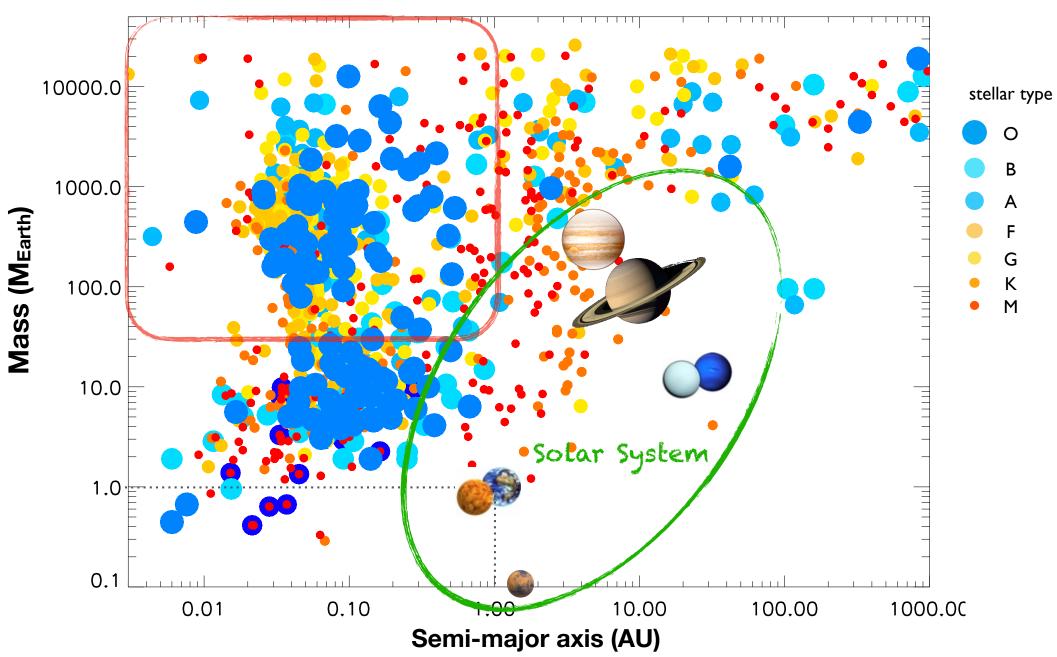
Some scientific questions

- 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?

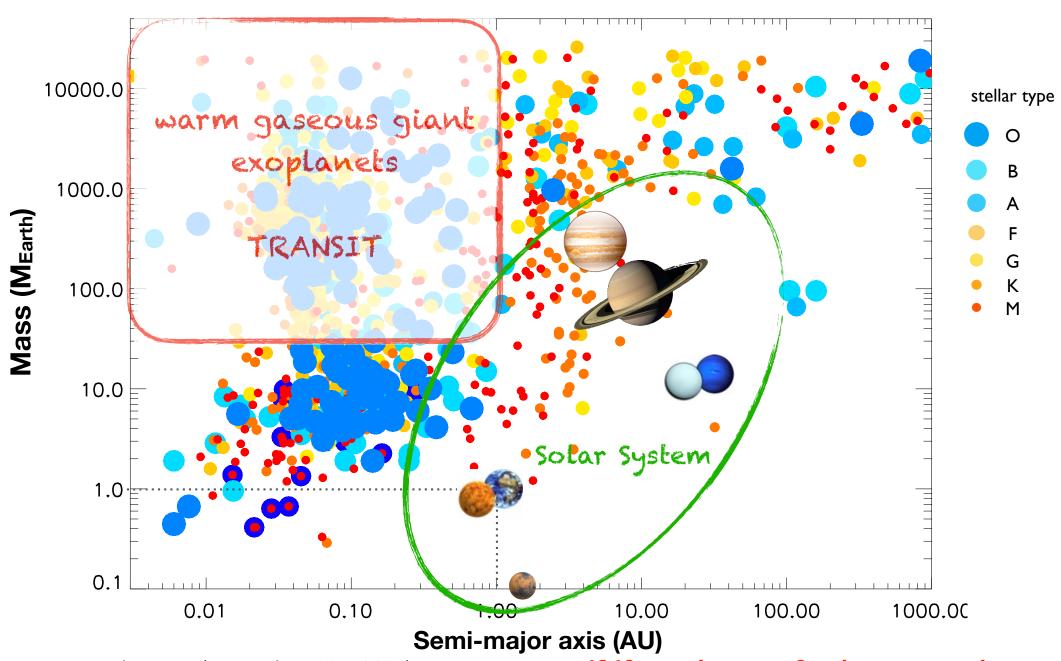
→ Determine one or several scenarios of planetary formation, common with the Solar System (if possible)



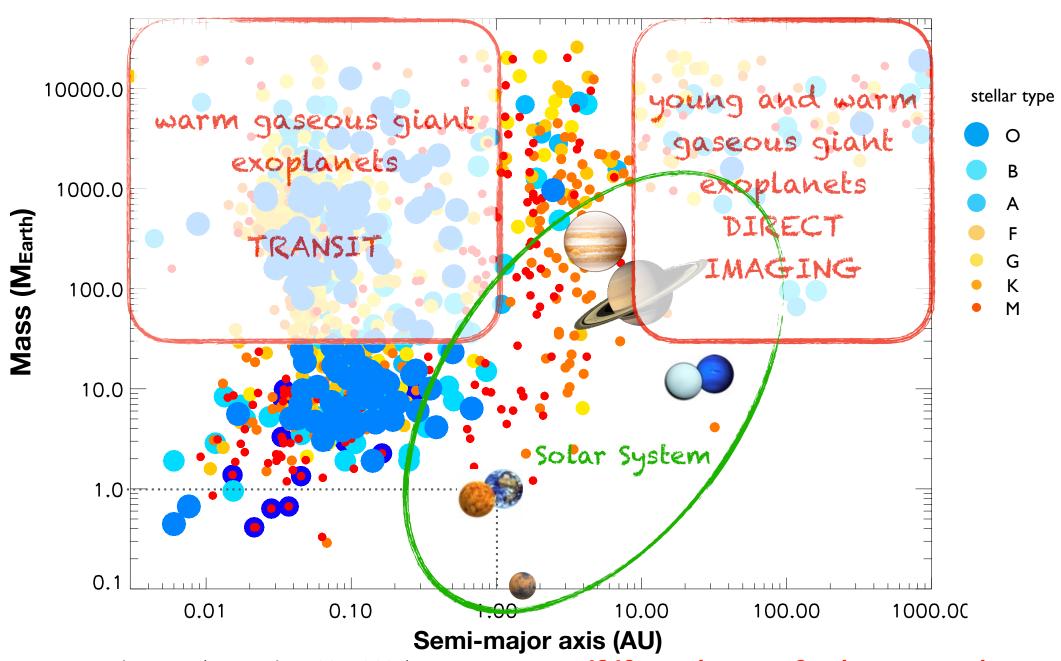
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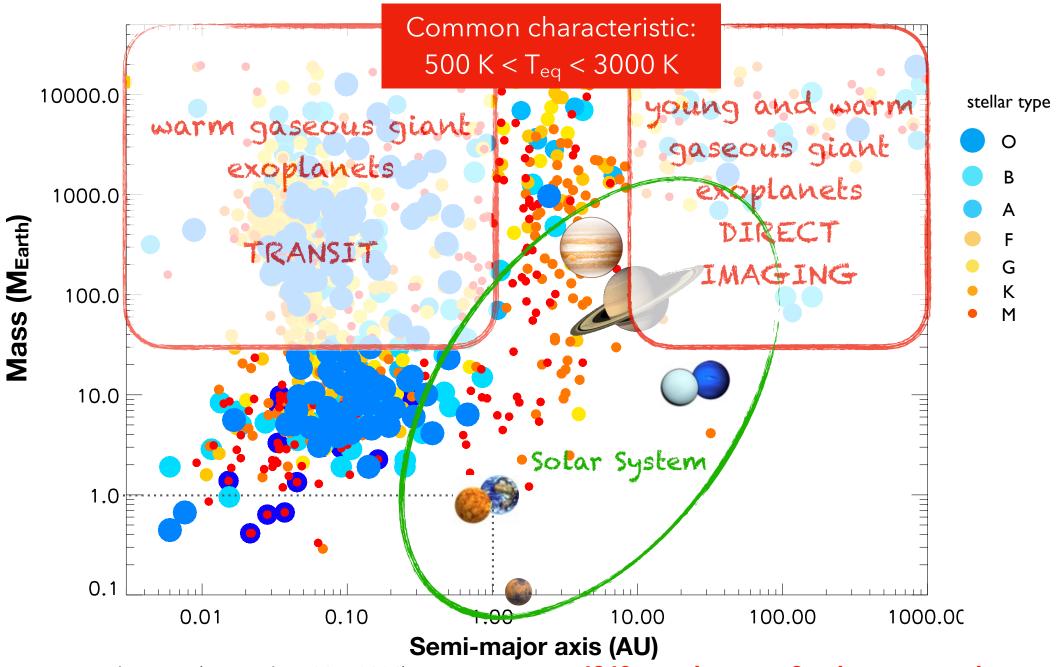
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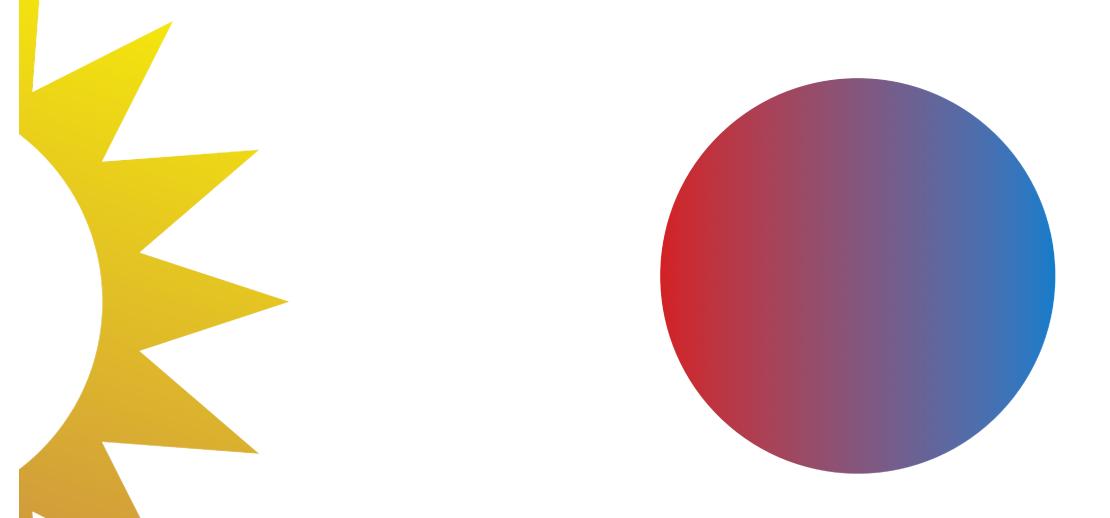


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Thermochemical Equilibrium: depends only of P, T, elementary abundances

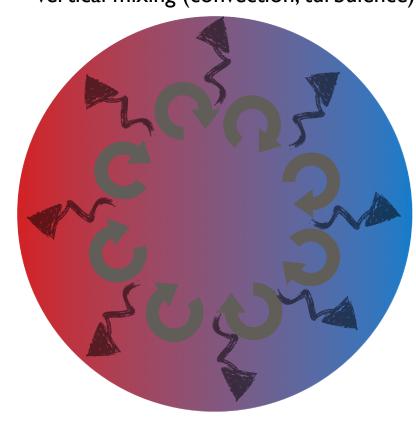


Thermochemical Equilibrium: depends only of P, T, elementary abundances

intense stellar irradiation

- + high temperatures
- + strong temperature gradient between day and nightside

- photodissociations
- vigorous dynamic :
 horizontale circulation (winds)
 vertical mixing (convection, turbulence)



FLUX

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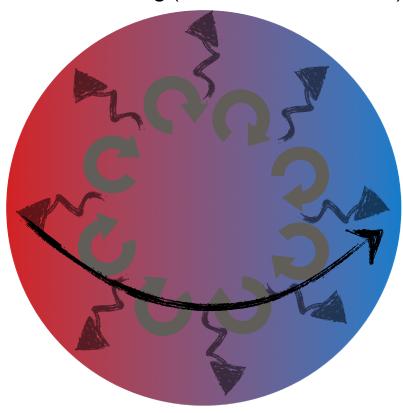
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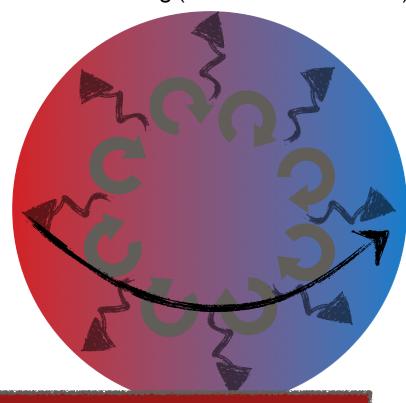
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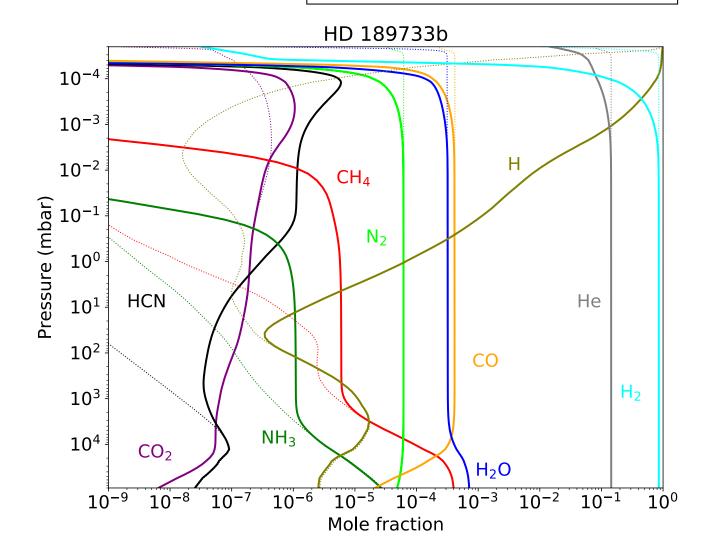
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To interpret observations + to understand these atmospheres

⇒ Need kinetic models!

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

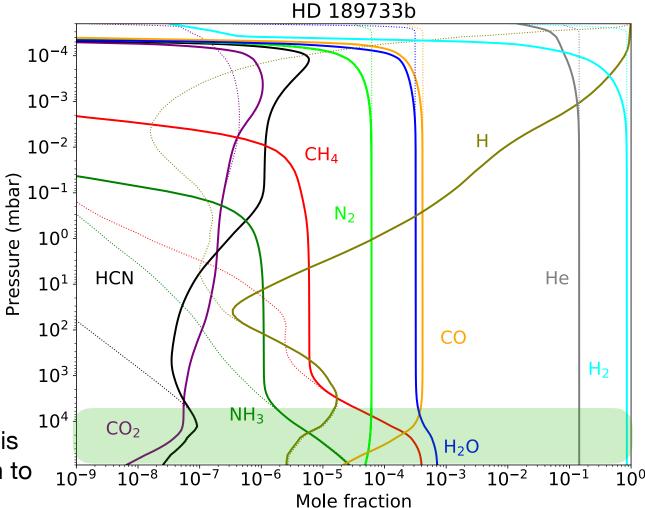
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—— kinetic model



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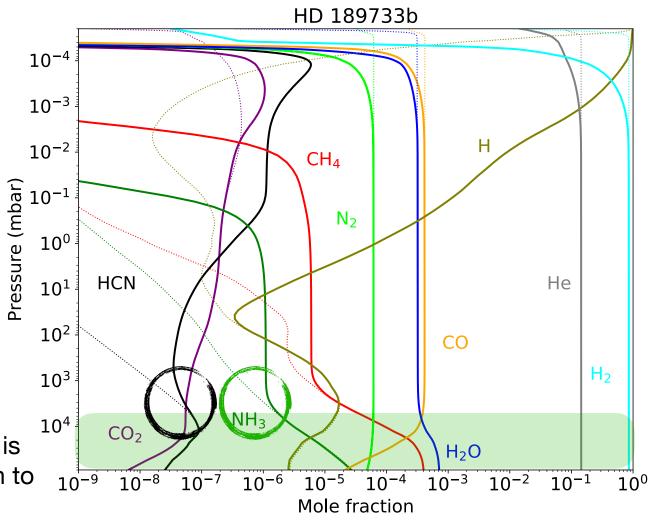


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 Quenching: abundances depart from thermo equilibrium. They are frozen when

 $au_{chemical} > au_{dynamical}$



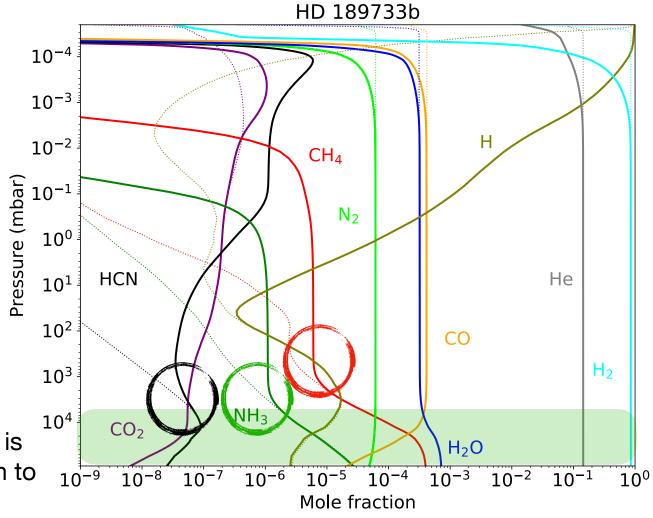
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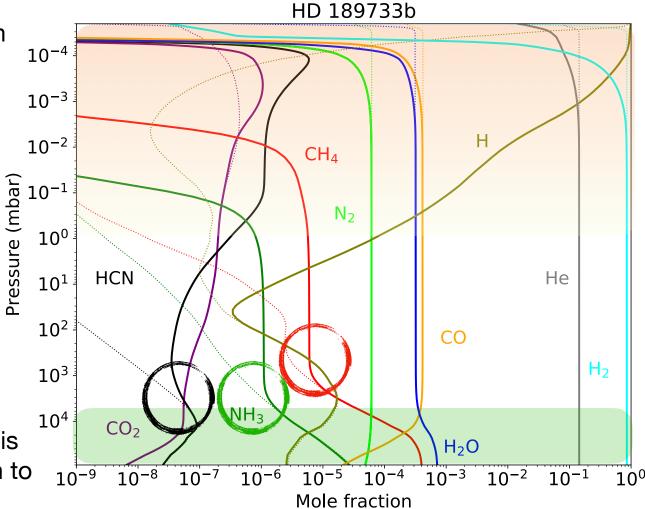
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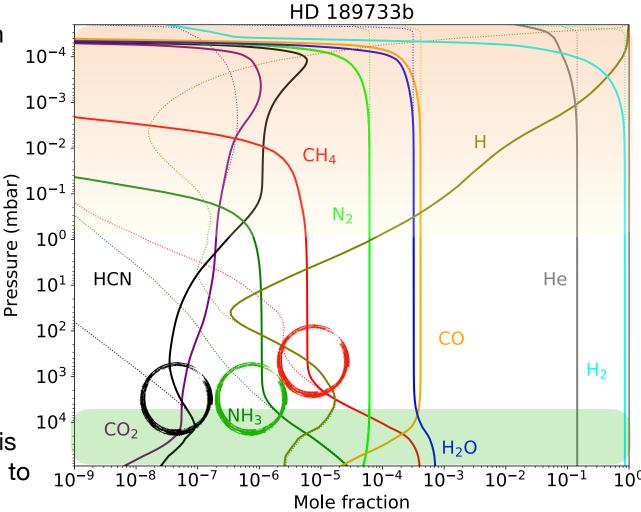
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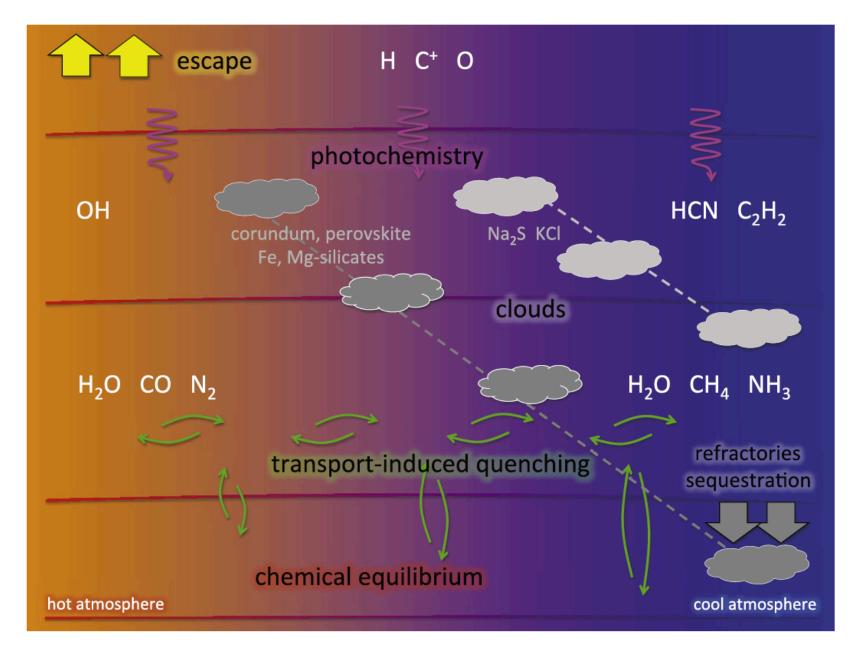
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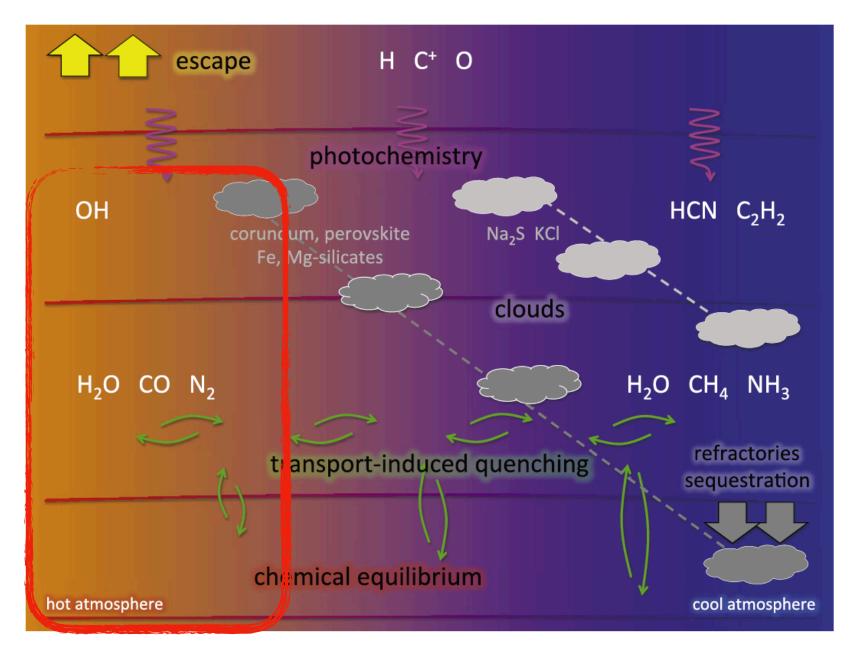
Effect can be seen as deep as 10/100 mbar

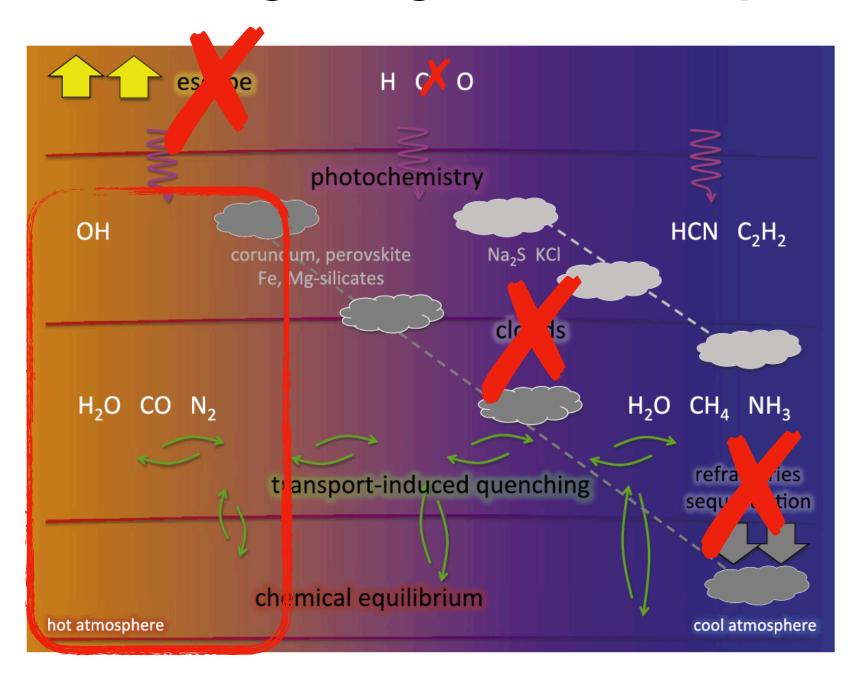
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Thermodynamic

- In the deep region of hot/warm gaseous giant exoplanets atmospheres, because P and T are high, chemical composition corresponds to thermochemical equilibrium.
- The chemical composition in these regions can be calculated using the laws of thermodynamics, considering this region as a closed system.
- The Gibbs free Energy (G) is the thermodynamic quantity the most appropriate to study and calculate this chemical equilibrium.
- The Gibbs free Energy is given by : G = H TS entropy temperature

Thermodynamic

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

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

• The variation of enthalpy of the system 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 and the equilibrium state will be reached for the minimum of G_{sys} .

Thermodynamic

- 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:

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

NASA coefficients

- The thermodynamic properties of species $h_l^0(T)$ and $s_l^0(T)$ can be computed numerically thanks to NASA polynomials. $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{120}{0.02672145E+02} & \frac{20387H}{0.03056293E-01-0.08730260E-05} & \frac{1}{0.12009964E-09-0.06391618E-13} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$
- 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 (1000-6000 K), the second set to the low temperature range (300-1000 K)
- 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:

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

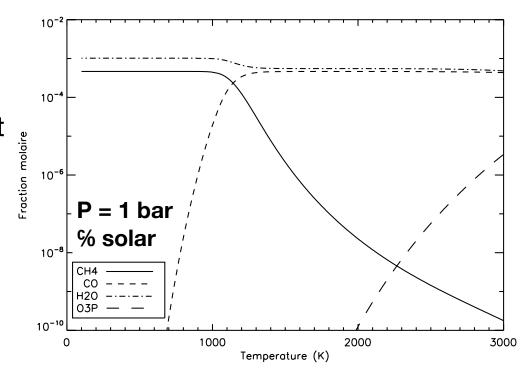
- With NASA coefficients, we are able to calculate each term of this formula.
- For an initial molecular composition (or initial elemental abundances), the set of N_l that permits to have the lower G_{sys} will correspond to the thermochemical equilibrium composition.
- This composition is found numerically,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



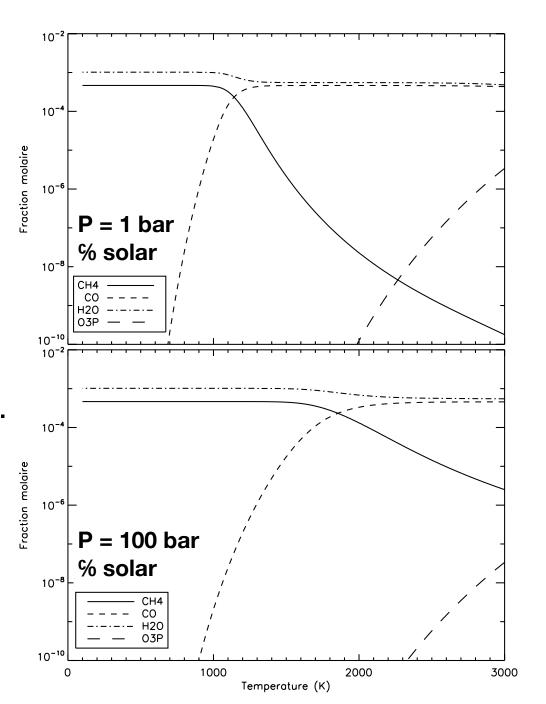
Application: Study the molecular composition of a mixture of gases as a function of T (between 200 and 2000K)

- P = 0.001 bar (2 groups)
- -P = 1 bar (2 groups)
- -P = 100 bar (2 groups)
- go on http://navier.engr.colostate.edu/code/code-4/index.html
- elements: C, H, O, N, He
- initial: $y_{H2} = 0.8317$, $y_{He} = 0.1663$, $y_{C} = 6.643 \times 10^{-4}$, $y_{O} = 1.331 \times 10^{-3}$, $y_{N} = 1.422 \times 10^{-4}$
- additional species: H, CH₄, CO₂, CH₃, CO, H₂O, O₂, N₂, NH₃, HCN
- which are the dominant molecules as a function of T?
- ⇒ at which T does the transition for the main C-bearing species occur?
- ⇒ same question for the main N-bearing species?

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

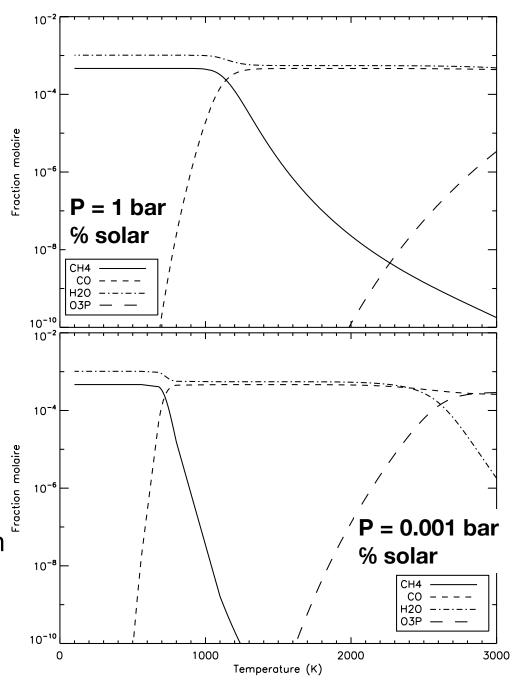


- We can also see that P has an influence:
- At P = 100 bar, transition between CO/CH₄ occurs at higher T than at 1 bar: ~1800 K.



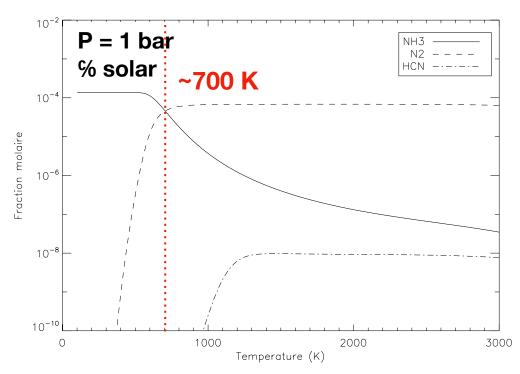
 Conversely, when P decreases transition between CO/CH₄ occurs at lower T.
 At 0.001 bar, transition happens at ~700 K.

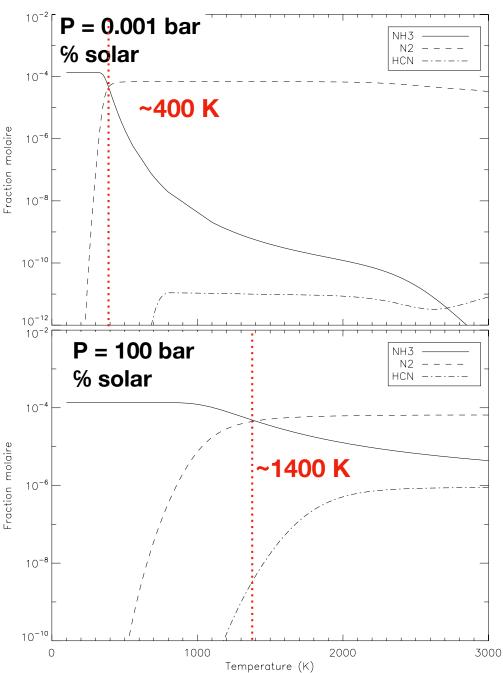
- CO becomes more abundant than H₂O about 2500K.
- We notice the increase of molecular oxygen, which becomes the reservoir of oxygen after 2900 K.



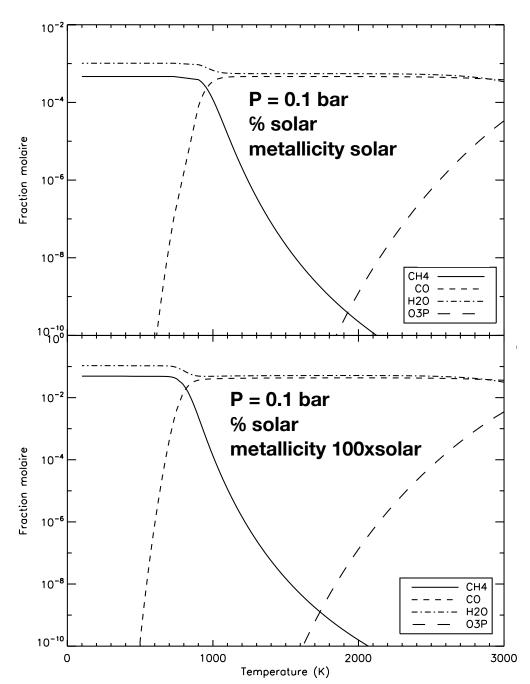
 The same behaviour is observed for Nitrogen species, NH₃ being the N-bearing species at low T, N₂ at high T.

 Temperature of transition increases together with P.



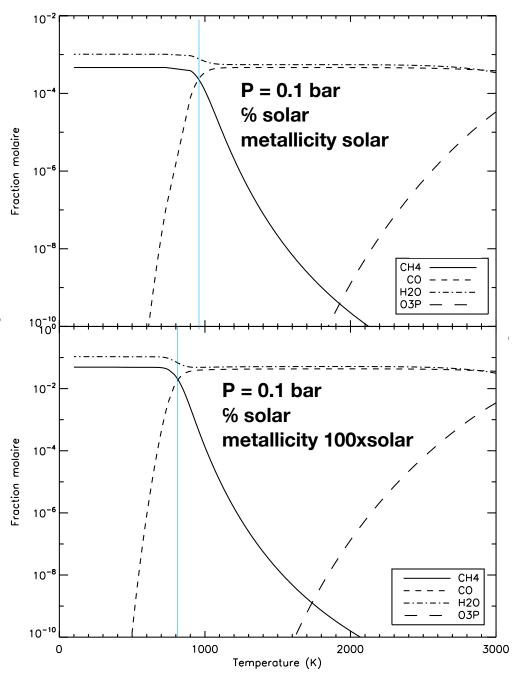


- For a given elemental composition,
 P and T determine the molecular composition.
- The elemental composition influences also the molecular composition (i.e. C/H, O/H, N/H)



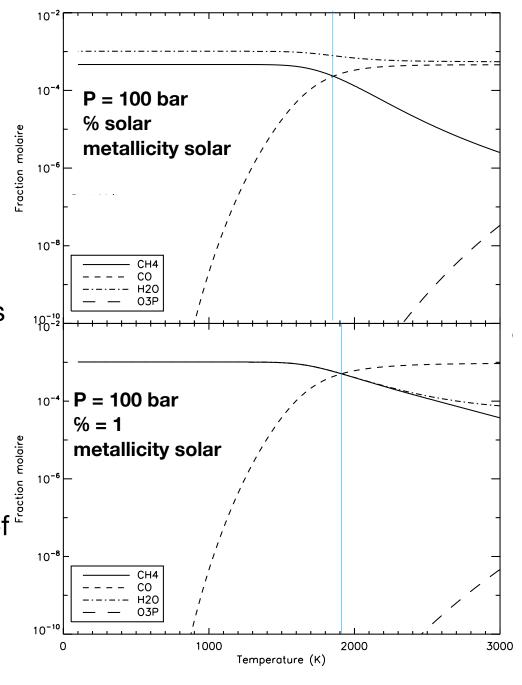
Repartition of chemical elements

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- 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 $(0 \le \gamma_l \le 1)$
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Equilibrium constant

- The reaction quotient with the activity expressed in pressure units (Q_p) is linked to Gibbs Energy 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 $\Delta G = 0$ => $\Delta G^0 = -RT \ln K_p$
- 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.

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Reaction rate

- We are still considering the 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)

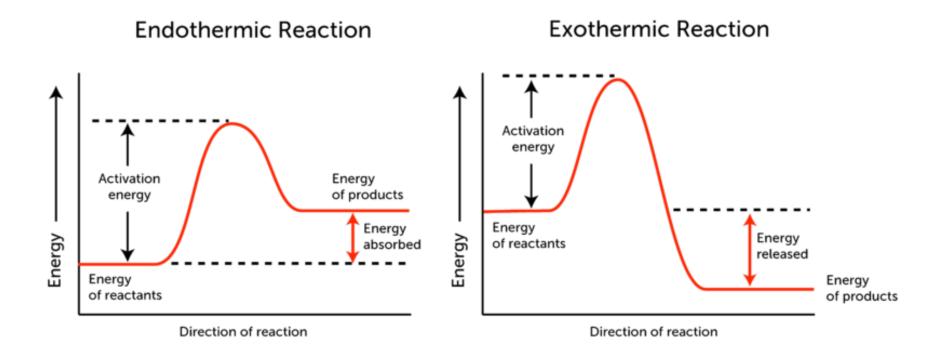
ex: v=k(T)[A][B]

- 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 $\pm \frac{d[\chi_l]}{dt}$ Pc=d[C]/dt = k[A][B] LA=-d[A]/dt=k[A][B]
- The chemical lifetime of a species destroyed by this reaction is $\frac{\lfloor \chi_l \rfloor}{v}$

Rate coefficient

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

Ea is the activation energy of the reaction.



Rate coefficient

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

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

- Bimolecular: **A+B**→**C+D**

$$v = k(T)[A][B] \Rightarrow k(T)$$
 in cm³.molecule⁻¹.s⁻¹

- Termolecular: **A+B+M**→**AB+M**

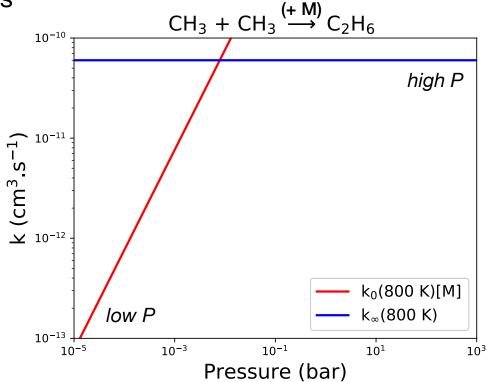
$$v = k(T)[A][B][M] \Rightarrow k(T)$$
 in cm⁶.molecule⁻².s⁻¹

A 3-bodies reaction is complex. It results from the association of 2 molecules:

followed by a deexcitation thanks to the collision with M (background gas):

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
 - \Rightarrow In the high-pressure limit: $v_{\infty} = k_{\infty}[A][B]$
- 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)

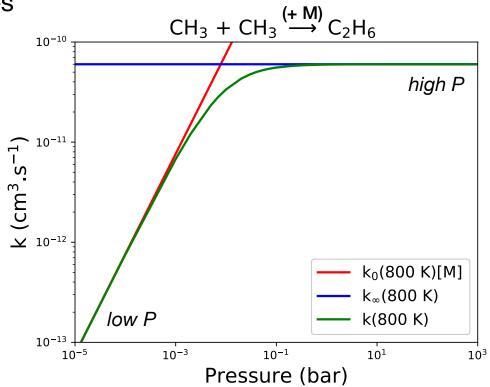


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- The transition region between the low- and high-pressure regimes is called « fall-off » region. k(T) is given by:

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

with the reduced pressure

$$P_r = \frac{k_0[M]}{k_\infty}$$



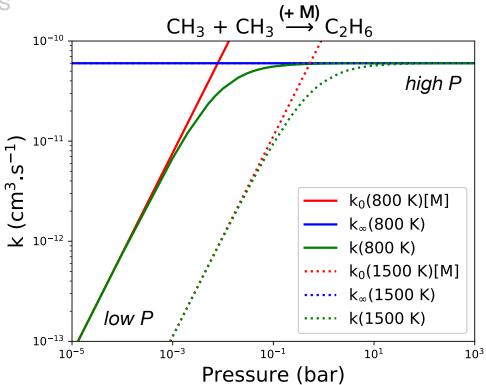
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$$P_r = \frac{k_0[M]}{k_\infty}$$

The notions of « low » and « high » pressure are temperature dependent!



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

$$- \underline{\text{Troe}}: \log_{10} F = \frac{\log_{10}(F_{cent})}{1 + \left[\frac{\log_{10}(P_r) + c}{N - d(\log_{10}(P_r) + c)}\right]^2} \text{ with } c = -0.4 - 0.67 \times \log_{10}(F_{cent})$$

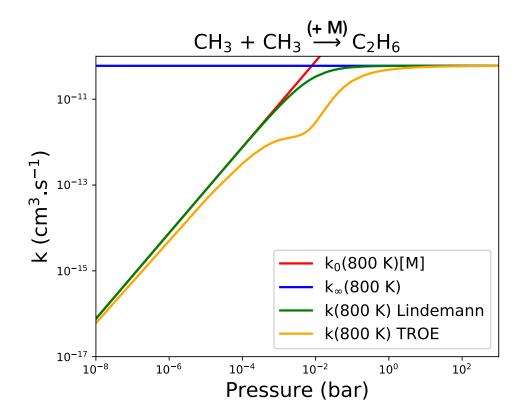
$$N = 0.75 - 1.27 \times \log_{10}(F_{cent})$$

$$d = 0.14$$
Gilbert et al. 1983

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

$$- \underline{\text{SRI}}: F = d \left[a \exp \frac{-b}{T} + \exp \frac{-T}{c} \right]^{X} T^{e} \text{ with } X = \frac{1}{1 + (\log_{10} P_{r})^{2}}$$
 Stewart et al. 1989 Kee et al. 1996

- 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 $\sum_{l}^{L} \nu_l' \chi_l = \sum_{l}^{L} \nu_l'' \chi_l$ 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 $v_f = k_f(T) \prod [\chi'_l]^{\nu'_l}$ and $v_r = k_r(T) \prod [\chi''_l]^{\nu''_l}$

$$v_f = k_f(T)[A]^a[B]^b$$
 $v_r = k_r(T)[C]^c[D]^d$

When the reaction is at equilibrium $v_f = v_r$ and thus $\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \prod_l [\chi_l]^{\nu_l}$

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

$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \left(\frac{P^0}{k_B T}\right)^{\sum_l \nu_l} K_p \Rightarrow \left| \frac{k_f}{k_r} = \left(\frac{P^0}{k_B T}\right)^{\sum_l \nu_l} \exp(-\Delta G^0 / RT) \right| \Rightarrow \text{knowing } k_f \text{ only, } k_r \text{ is calculated with NASA}$$

coefficients!

Outline

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

Photolyses

- Photodissociations occur in the upper atmosphere of irradiated exoplanets
- After the absorption of a photon, the molecule A is excited: $\mathbf{A} + h v \rightarrow \mathbf{A}^*$
- Depending on the energy of the absorbed photon, the molecule A* can dissociate and the photodissocation products can vary.
- The 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: $CH_4+hv \rightarrow CH_3+H$

 \rightarrow ¹CH₂+H₂

Gans et al. 2011

 \rightarrow ³CH₂+H+H

 \rightarrow CH+H₂+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]

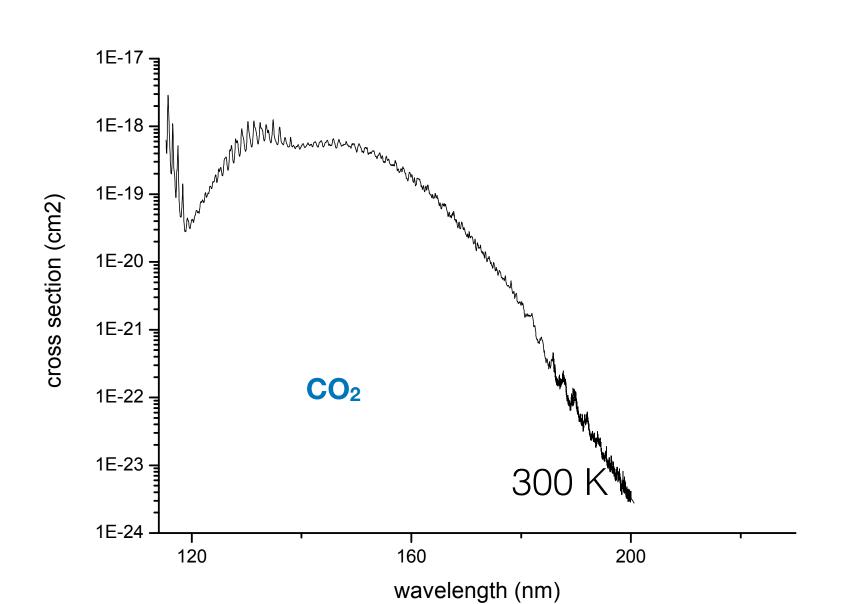
Photodissociation rate

 For these reactions, the rate coefficient is called the photodissociation rate and is noted J.

absorption cross section of species i (cm²)

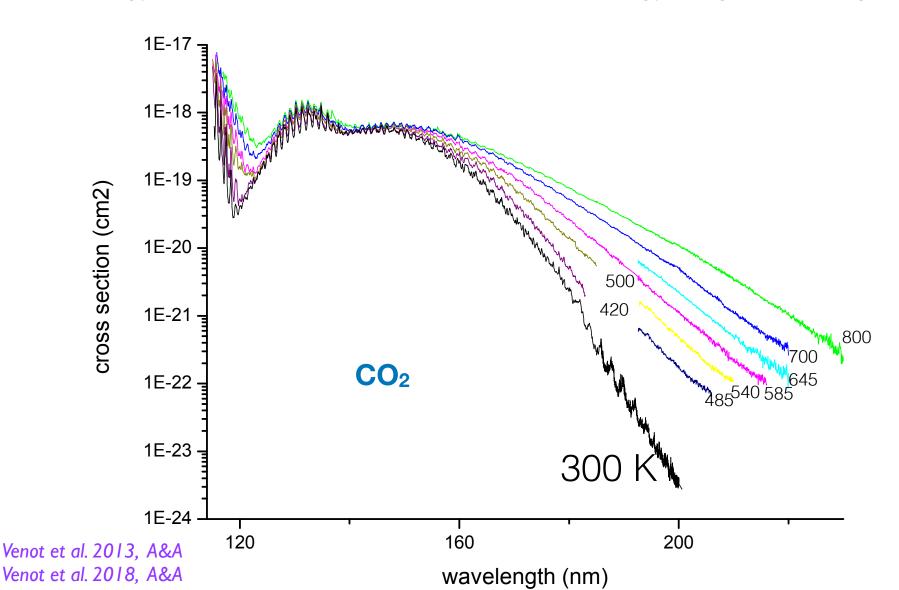
- For a molecule i, dissociating through the route k, $J_i^k(z) = \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \sigma_i^{abs}(\lambda) F(\lambda, z) q_k(\lambda) d\lambda$ Actinic flux (cm⁻².s⁻¹.nm⁻¹)
- The total photodissociation rate of the molecule i is the sum of the photodissociation rate in each route: $J_i(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} J_i^k(z)$
- 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

VUV Absorption cross section



VUV Absorption cross section

• When temperature increases, electrons are excited and can move to rovibrational levels of higher energy. Thus, transition to a higher electronic level requires less energy, so the absorption of photons of less energy (longer wavelength) increases



Outline

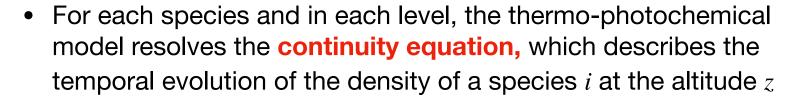
- Introduction Structure of exoplanet atmospheres
- Molecular Spectroscopy Electronic, vibrational, rotational transitions
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Thermo-photochemical model

- 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.
- Up to now, these models exist mainly in 1D.
- The atmosphere is represented by a column divided in several layers



- photodissociate with UV radiation
- react with each other
- move from a layer to another thanks to mixing

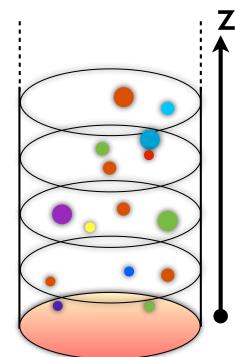


$$\frac{\partial n_i(z)}{\partial t} = P_i(z) - L_i(z) - div(\Phi_i(z)\overrightarrow{e_z})$$

$$\frac{P_i(z) \text{ the production rate } (\text{cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1})}{n_i(z) \text{ the density } (\text{cm}^{-3})}$$

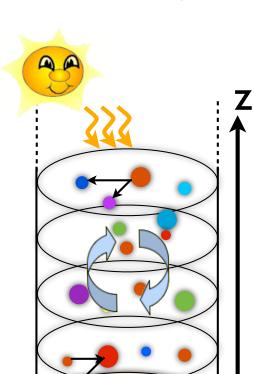
$$\Phi_i(z) \text{ the flux } (\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1})$$

→ Large system of coupled differential equations



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- 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

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

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⇒ Large system of coupled differential equations

Continuity equation

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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)

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Molecular diffusion

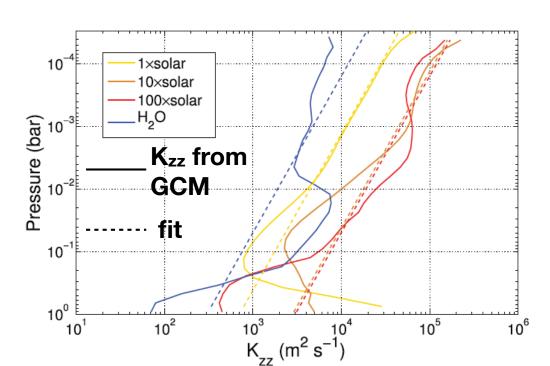
- In planetary atmospheres, made of a major molecule, minor molecules undergo molecular diffusion when their density depart from hydrostatic equilibrium.
- The induced flux is proportional to the molecular diffusion coefficient D_i of the minor species i in the major molecule.
- In atmospheres in which 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_{ν} 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 10^7 - 10^{12} 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)

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

$$K_{zz0} = 7 \times 10^2 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1} \text{ for } 1 \times \text{ solar metallicity}$$

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

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

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

Continuity equation

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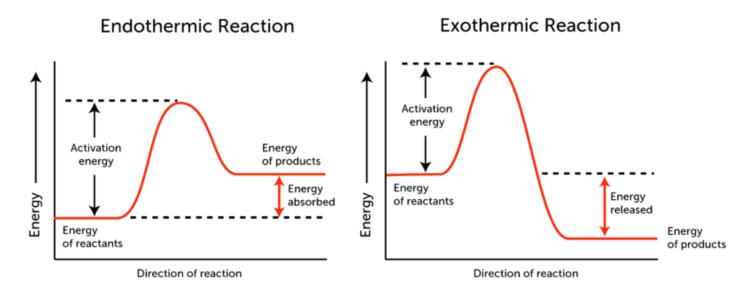
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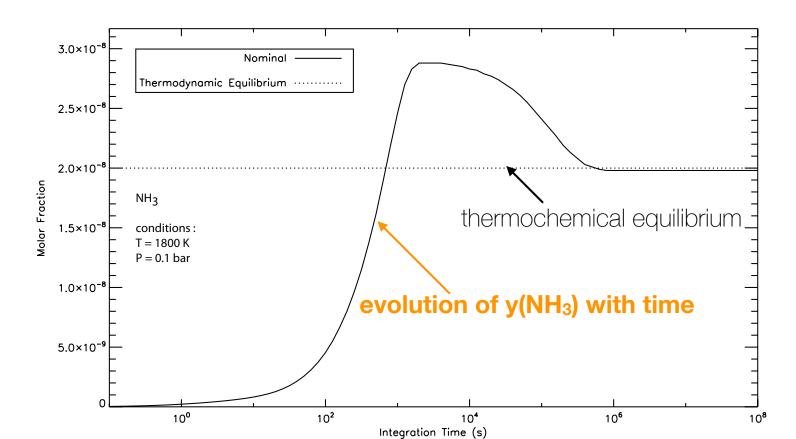
- To calculate the production and loss rates, the thermo-photochemical model needs a list of species and reactions, with the corresponding coefficients (Arrhenius, TROE,...)
 - → a chemical scheme/network
- The first chemical scheme used to study hot Jupiters atmosphere was one developed for Jupiter's 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.



Chemical scheme

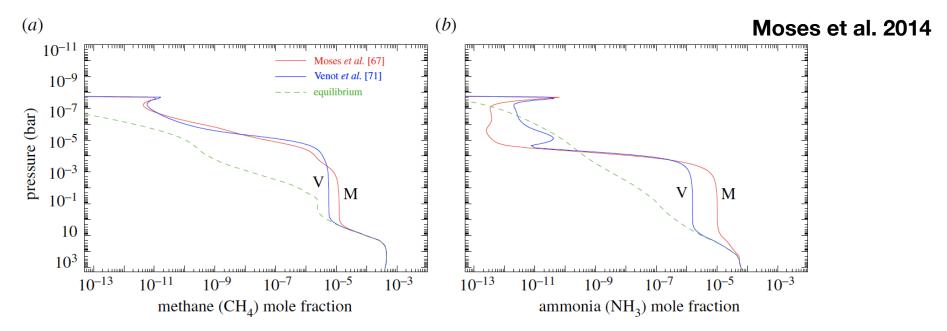
- In hot exoplanet atmospheres, no need of boundaries conditions if thermochemical equilibrium is reproduced
- All reactions must be reversed thanks to the equilibrium constant (calculated with

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



Chemical scheme

- 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
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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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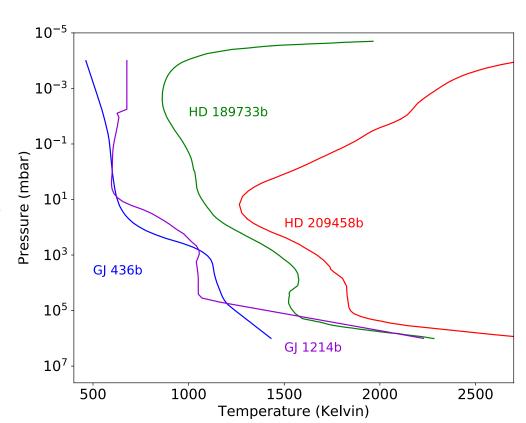
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Thermal profile

- 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

Case of HD 209458b: 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...



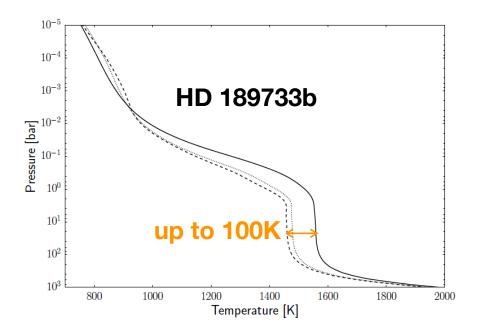
Thermal profile

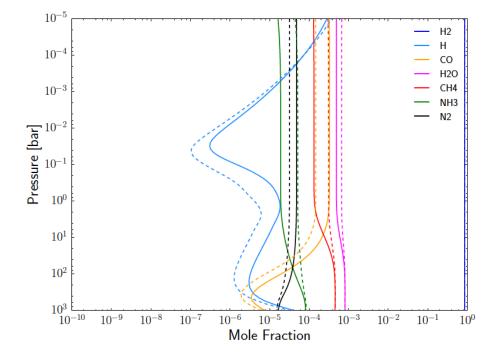
 The limitation of using fix profiles is that the change of chemical composition (and thus opacity of the atmosphere) is not taken into account leading to a non-consistent result.

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





initial PT (consistent with thermo equilibrium)

....final PT (consistent with disequilibrium)

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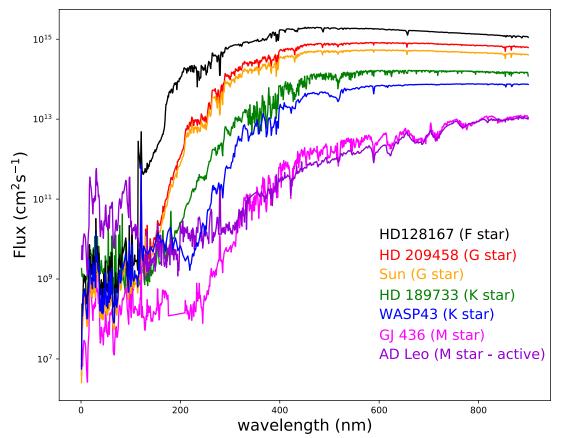
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Stellar flux

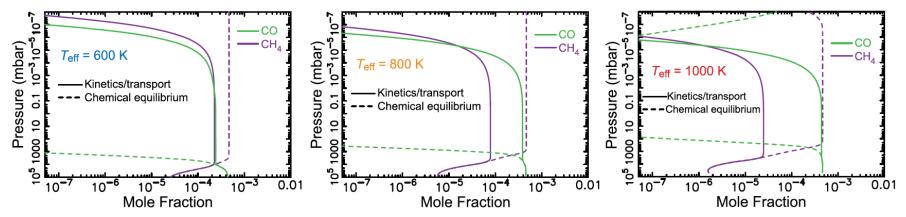
- In thermo-photochemical model, the UV-vis stellar flux is needed to calculate photodissociation rates
- Unlike the Sun, the stellar flux of other stars in this range is rarely known.
- Need to use proxy for which observations are available, eventually combined to theoretical models (e.g. X-exoplanets,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



flux normalized at 1 AU

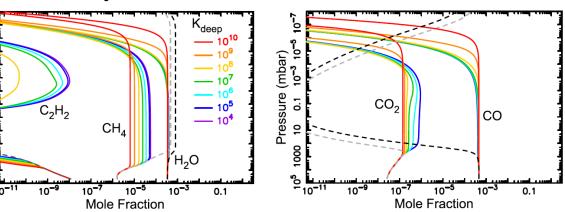
Some key results...

- 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



- very dependent on Eddy diffusion coefficient

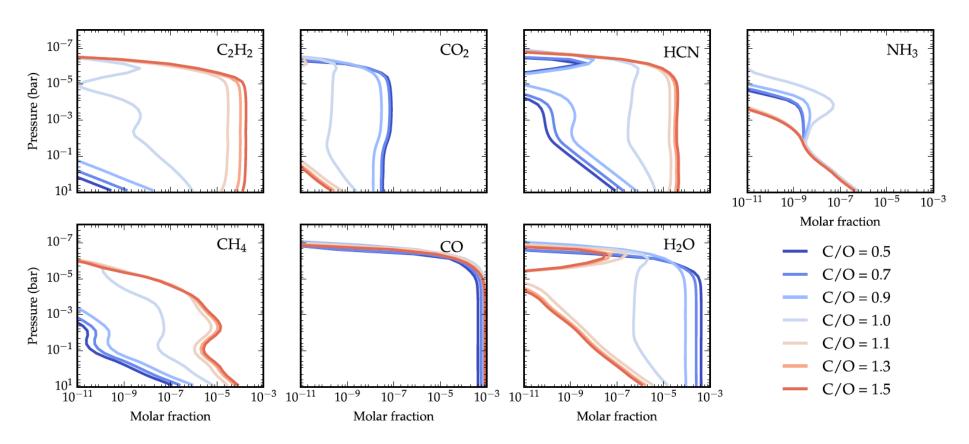
Pressure (mbar) 10 0.1 10⁻³ 10



Young Giant Planets Moses et al. 2016

Carbon-Oxygen ratio

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

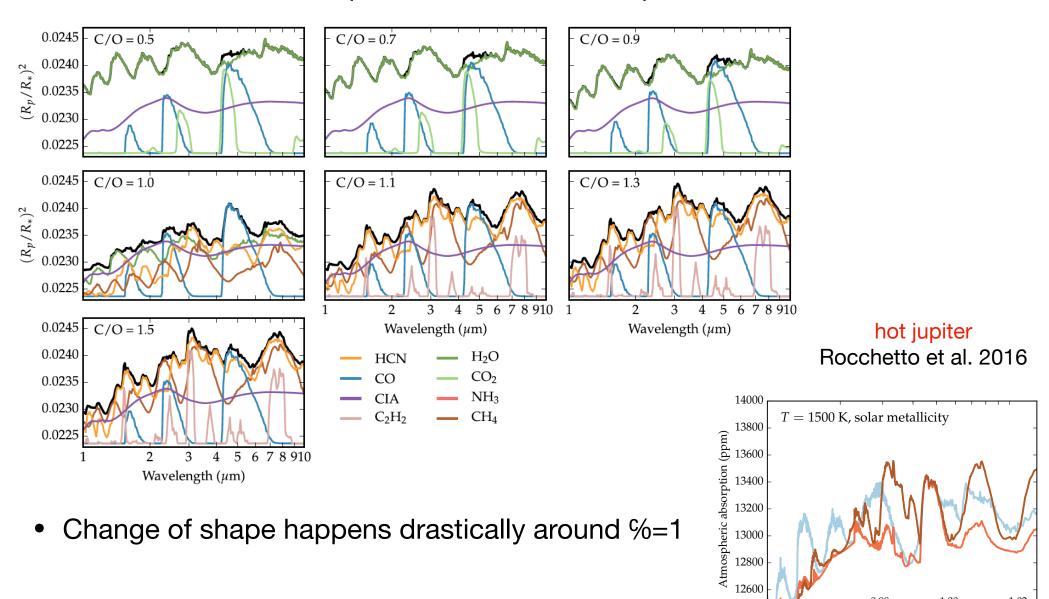


hot jupiter Rocchetto et al. 2016

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

Carbon-Oxygen ratio

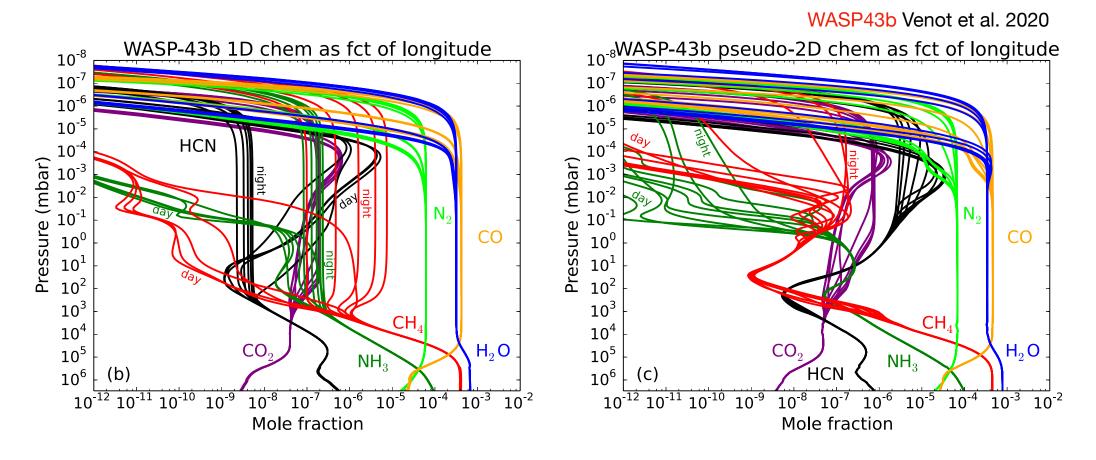
The differences of composition are visible on spectra



12400

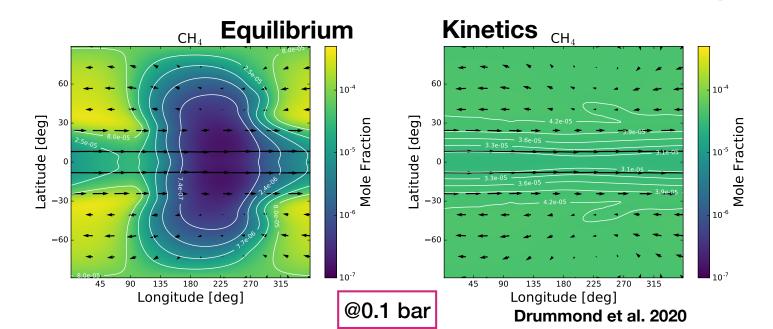
Wavelength (μ m)

 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 a reduced chemical scheme (less complete but enough to study major species - Venot et al. 2019, 2020)
- Very new model developed by B. Drummond at EXETER



homogenisation of abundances for CH₄ and HCN

- 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 a reduced chemical scheme (less complete but enough to study major species - Venot et al. 2019, 2020)
 for CO₂, abundance at

the nightside

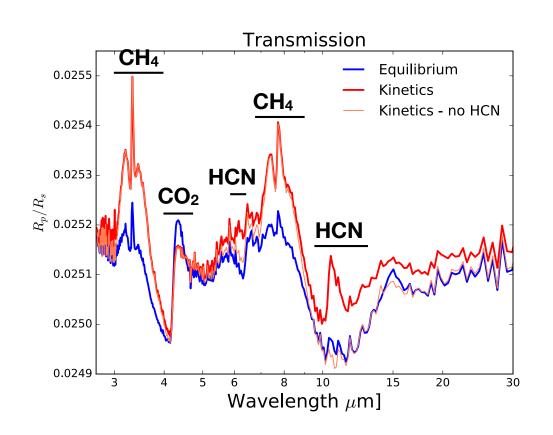
terminator decreases

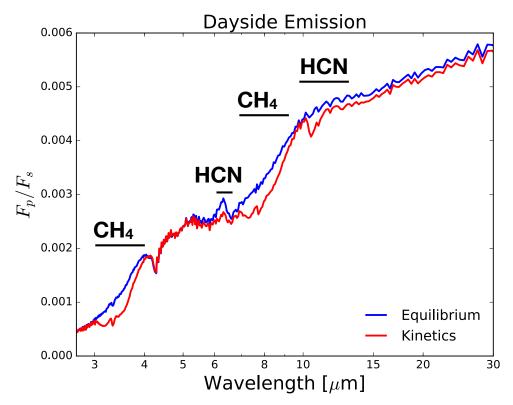
but there is still a

Very new model developed by B. Drummond at EXETE

Kinetics CO₂ **Equilibrium** significant horizontal gradient 4.00e-07 4.00e-07 3.60e-07 _atitude [deg] _atitude [deg] 3.20e-07 C C C 0 2.80e-07 abundance profiles at 3.20e-07 different longitudes 2.80e-07 (dayside → nightside) 2.40e-07 N 2.40e-07 2.00e**-**07 2.00e-07 1.60e-07 1.60e-07 135 180 225 270 135 180 225 270 315 Longitude [deg] Longitude [deg] @0.1 bar Drummond et al. 2020 Mole Fraction

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





Planetary Atmospheres Thermo and Photochemistry

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