

VERTICAL DISTRIBUTION OF C₃-HYDROCARBONS IN THE STRATOSPHERE OF TITANCHENG LI¹, XI ZHANG², PETER GAO¹, AND YUK YUNG¹¹ Division of Geological and Planetary Science, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA² Lunar and Planetary Laboratory, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721, USA

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ABSTRACT

Motivated by the recent detection of propene (C₃H₆) in the atmosphere of Titan, we use a one-dimensional Titan photochemical model with an updated eddy diffusion profile to systematically study the vertical profiles of the stable species in the C₃-hydrocarbon family. We find that the stratospheric volume mixing ratio of propene (C₃H₆) peaks at 150 km with a value of 5×10^{-9} , which is in good agreement with recent observations by the Composite Infrared Spectrometer on the *Cassini* spacecraft. Another important species that is currently missing from the hydrocarbon family in Titan's stratosphere is allene (CH₂CCH₂), an isomer of methylacetylene (CH₃C₂H). We predict that its mixing ratio in the stratosphere is about 10^{-9} , which is on the margin of the detection limit. CH₂CCH₂ and CH₃C₂H equilibrate at a constant ratio in the stratosphere by hydrogen-exchanging reactions. Thus, by precisely measuring the ratio of CH₂CCH₂ to CH₃C₂H, the abundance of atomic hydrogen in the atmosphere can be inferred. No direct yield for the production of cyclopropane (c-C₃H₆) is available. From the discharge experiments of Navarro-González & Ramírez, the abundance of cyclopropane is estimated to be 100 times less than that of C₃H₆.

Key words: astrochemistry – planets and satellites: atmospheres – planets and satellites: composition – planets and satellites: individual (Titan)

1. INTRODUCTION

Titan's atmosphere is laden with hundreds of interacting hydrocarbon species, which group in families according to the number of carbon atoms in their hydrocarbon chains (i.e., C₁-, C₂-, C₃-hydrocarbon, etc.). Many simple hydrocarbon molecules (C₁- and C₂-hydrocarbons) have been found by spectroscopic and mass spectrometric measurements of Titan's atmosphere (Coustenis et al. 2003, 2007; Vuitton et al. 2007; Magee et al. 2009). They have also been the subject of extensive investigations in previous photochemical models (Yung et al. 1984; Wilson & Atreya 2004, 2009; Lavvas et al. 2008a; Krasnopolsky 2009; Vuitton et al. 2012; Hebrard et al. 2013). Recently, analysis of *Cassini*/Composite Infrared Spectrometer (CIRS) limb-viewing observations (Nixon et al. 2013) identified a peak in the infrared spectrum of Titan's stratosphere at 912.5 cm^{-1} , which is attributed to the ν_{19} band of propene (C₃H₆). By comparing the relative emission strengths of propene and propane (C₃H₈), the stratospheric vertical profile of C₃H₆ is retrieved. This observation provides a new constraint for the photochemical modeling of Titan's atmosphere and fills a gap in the C₃-hydrocarbon family. As Nixon et al. (2013) pointed out, even though the five C₃ molecules (the two isomers of C₃H₄, allene and methylacetylene; the two isomers of C₃H₆, propene and cyclopropane; and propane) are part of the interwoven net of hydrocarbon species in the atmosphere of Titan, allene (CH₂CCCH₂) and cyclopropane (c-C₃H₆) are yet to be detected. Roe et al. (2011) tentatively identified several of the ν_{10} sub-bands of allene among the strong emission lines of ethane's ν_{12} band using TEXES (Texas Echelon Cross Echelle Spectrograph) at NASA/IRTF. However, due to the large uncertainties in the laboratory spectra of allene, measuring its abundance in Titan's atmosphere by comparing laboratory and observed spectra is difficult.

In this Letter, we use the Caltech/JPL photochemical model with a recently updated eddy diffusion profile (Li et al. 2014) to explain the observed vertical distribution of propene. We also perform a systematic study of C₃-hydrocarbon chemistry focusing on CH₃C₂H (methylacetylene), CH₂CCH₂ (allene), C₃H₆ (propene), and c-C₃H₆ (cyclopropane). Our photochemical model gives improved results that, for the first time, fit the abundances of all observable hydrocarbons, which is a significant advance over previous works (Yung et al. 1984; Wilson & Atreya 2004; Lavvas et al. 2008b; Vuitton et al. 2012; Hebrard et al. 2013; Krasnopolsky 2014).

In Section 2, we describe the photochemical model and compare the modeling results for C₁- and C₂-hydrocarbons to the observations. In Section 3, we examine the vertical profile of C₃H₆ and its production/loss pathways. In Section 4, we discuss how the relative abundance of two isomers, CH₂CCH₂ and CH₃C₂H, is a strong tracer of atomic H in the atmosphere. In Section 5, we estimate the abundance of c-C₃H₆, another missing C₃-hydrocarbon. In Section 6, we state our conclusions.

2. PHOTOCHEMICAL MODEL AND C₂-HYDROCARBONS

The Caltech/JPL one-dimensional photochemical model for Titan solves the mass continuity equation from 50 to 1500 km in altitude:

$$\frac{\partial n_i}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \psi_i}{\partial z} = P_i - L_i, \quad (1)$$

where n_i , P_i , and L_i are the number density and chemical production and loss rates of species i , respectively. ψ_i is the

vertical flux of species i calculated from the equation:

$$\psi_i = -\frac{\partial n_i}{\partial z} (D_i + K_{zz}) - n_i \left(\frac{D_i}{H_i} + \frac{K_{zz}}{H_a} \right) - n_i \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \frac{(1 + \alpha_i) D_i + K_{zz}}{T}, \quad (2)$$

where D_i and H_i are the molecular diffusion coefficient and scale height of species i , respectively; H_a is the atmospheric scale height; α_i is the thermal diffusion coefficient of species i , T is the temperature, and K_{zz} is the eddy diffusion coefficient. The K_{zz} vertical profile is similar to that of (Li et al. 2014) but simplified using a log-linear interpolation of four nodal levels at $z_1 = 120$ km, $z_2 = 300$ km, $z_3 = 500$ km and $z_4 = 1000$ km:

$$\log K_{zz}(z) = \begin{cases} \log(3 \times 10^3), & z < z_1 \\ \log(3 \times 10^3) \frac{z_2 - z}{z_2 - z_1} + \log(2 \times 10^7) \frac{z - z_1}{z_2 - z_1}, & z_1 \leq z \leq z_2 \\ \log(2 \times 10^7) \frac{z_3 - z}{z_3 - z_2} + \log(2 \times 10^6) \frac{z - z_2}{z_3 - z_2}, & z_2 \leq z \leq z_3 \\ \log(2 \times 10^6) \frac{z_4 - z}{z_4 - z_3} + \log(4 \times 10^8) \frac{z - z_3}{z_4 - z_3}, & z_3 \leq z \leq z_4 \\ \log(4 \times 10^8), & z \geq z_4 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

We use pure absorbing aerosols with extinction cross sections independent of wavelength to account for absorption of UV radiation (Li et al. 2014). The particle size and density as a function of altitude are taken from (Lavvas et al. 2011). Their cross sections are scaled so that the line-of-sight aerosol optical depth matches the *Cassini*/UVIS measurements (Koskinen et al. 2011) at 400–600 km ($\sim 10^{-2}$). The thermosphere density profile uses the measurements from *Cassini*/INMS during the T40 flyby (Westlake et al. 2011). The stratospheric density profile is interpolated from *Cassini*/HASI (Fulchignoni et al. 2005). The mesospheric density profile is extrapolated from the thermospheric density profile assuming constant temperature until it connects to the stratospheric profile. The chemical reactions are taken from (Moses et al. 2005) with adjusted reaction rates for $\text{H} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \xrightarrow{\text{M}} \text{C}_2\text{H}_5$ as recommended by (Li et al. 2014). CH_4 does not escape from the top of the atmosphere because applying an escaping flux to CH_4 has the same effect as applying a larger eddy diffusivity (Yelle et al. 2008). We prefer the second approach because it improves to fits to the ^{40}Ar profile, as seen in Figure 11 of Li et al. (2014). We refer the reader to Li et al. (2014) for more details regarding the model.

Figure 1 compares the vertical distributions of CH_4 , C_2H_2 , C_2H_4 , and C_2H_6 with the recent observations from *Cassini*/CIRS (Vinatier et al. 2010), *Cassini*/UVIS (Koskinen et al. 2011; Kammer et al. 2013), and *Cassini*/INMS (Magee et al. 2009). The observations show a near-constant mixing ratio for C_2H_2 and C_2H_6 in the stratosphere, above which the

mixing ratios increase gradually until reaching their peak values near 1000 km. C_2H_4 is an exception to this rule. In some flybys, its mixing ratio significantly decreases with altitude. Our model does not reproduce this feature. This is probably due to two-dimensional effects, such as horizontal advection and mean upwelling/subsidence, which are not included in the one-dimensional model. However, on average our model profiles of CH_4 and C_2 -hydrocarbons are able to match the mean measurements between flybys satisfactorily, and can thus serve as the basis for our study of C_3 -hydrocarbons.

3. PROPENE (C_3H_6) VERTICAL DISTRIBUTION

The mixing ratios of the C_3 -hydrocarbons C_3H_6 , CH_2CCH_2 , $\text{CH}_3\text{C}_2\text{H}$, and C_3H_8 are shown in Figure 2. The observed stratospheric mixing ratio of C_3H_6 peaks at 200 km with a value of 5×10^{-9} . Our model reproduces a similar peak value and the peaked structure at 150 km. The modeled mixing ratio of C_3H_6 at 1000 km is two times less than the observed value from *Cassini*/INMS. There are two possible reasons that might explain this discrepancy. First, the thermosphere of Titan exhibits large natural variability as observed by multiple *Cassini* flybys, e.g., Figure 2 of Westlake et al. (2011), while our photochemical model represents the mean atmospheric condition, which might deviate from individual measurements by *Cassini*/INMS. In fact, the abundances of the C_3 -hydrocarbons in our model all tend to deviate from the *Cassini*/INMS measurements by within a factor of two. The magnitude of the deviation agrees with the spread in thermospheric density profiles retrieved from different flybys. Second, our current photochemical model does not include the radiative association reaction: $\text{H} + \text{C}_3\text{H}_5 \rightarrow \text{C}_3\text{H}_6$, which may double the current production rate of C_3H_6 at 1000 km (Hebrard et al. 2013). We estimate this effect by doubling the reaction rate of the key reaction identified in the next paragraph and the results show an improved fit to *Cassini*/INMS.

The reaction rates of the C_3 -hydrocarbons and their errors have been studied extensively (Hebrard et al. 2013; Loison et al. 2015). However, systematic analyzes of their formation/loss pathways are limited because of the formidable quantity of reactions involved. In this work, we use a greedy algorithm that traverses the complete reaction list to find the subset of reactions that contribute to over 90% of the total formation and loss of a certain species over all altitudes. Reactions with larger rates are preferred to be added in the subset than ones with smaller rates. Figure 3 shows the production and loss pathways of C_3H_6 produced by this algorithm. In the upper atmosphere (> 600 km), the production of C_3H_6 is dominated by the insertion of CH radicals into C_2H_6 :



where the CH radicals are produced by the photodissociation of CH_4 . By contrast, Hebrard et al. (2013) includes the radiative association reaction:



which makes up 61.8% of the production of C_3H_6 at 1000 km while Reaction (4) contributes 36.7%. Currently we do not have this reaction in our photochemical model. However we estimate its effect by doubling the reaction rate of (4). As a result, the abundance of C_3H_6 increases by a factor of two and matches the *Cassini*/INMS observations. In the intermediate altitudes (300 ~ 600 km), where the CH radicals are rare and

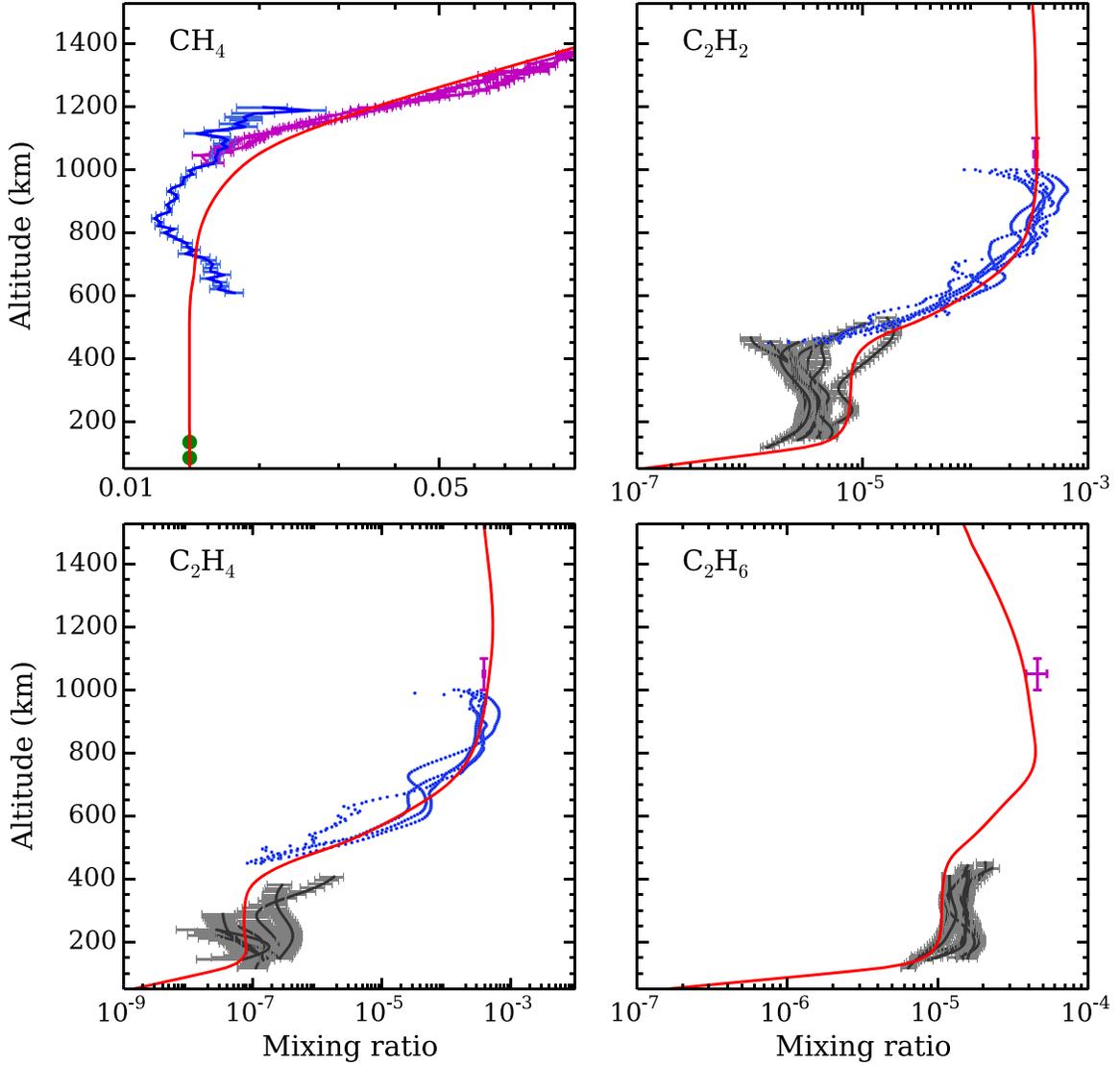


Figure 1. The mixing ratios of CH_4 and three C_2 -hydrocarbons C_2H_2 , C_2H_4 , and C_2H_6 . Our model results are shown in red. The *Cassini*/INMS measurements are displayed as magenta dots: CH_4 is from the T40 *Cassini* flyby (Westlake et al. 2011); the others are from Magee et al. (2009). The *Cassini*/UVIS stellar occultation measurements (Koskinen et al. 2011; Kammer et al. 2013) are displayed as blue dots. The *Cassini*/CIRS limb view observations (Vinatier et al. 2010) are displayed as black dots. The Huygens/GCMS in situ measurements (Niemann et al. 2005) for CH_4 are shown as green dots.

where the pressure is too low to drive termolecular combination, photodissociation of C_3H_8 is the dominant process in the production of C_3H_6 :

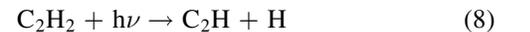


In the stratosphere (<300 km) where the pressure is high, the three-body reaction

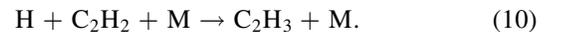


becomes the dominant production pathway of C_3H_6 and creates the local peak in the mixing ratio, as shown in Figure 2. Though the production of C_3H_6 peaks at 200 km, our model produces the abundance peak 50 km lower. This is probably due to eddy mixing effects, as the value of the eddy diffusivity at 200 km is $2 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, the chemical loss time scale for C_3H_6 at 200 km is $2 \times 10^7 \text{ s}$, and so the expected dynamic mixing length is $\delta = \sqrt{2 \times 10^6 \times 2 \times 10^7} \text{ cm} \approx 60 \text{ km}$. CH_3 in Reaction (7) comes from the photosensitized dissociation of

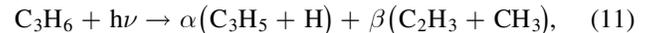
CH_4 in the stratosphere (Yung et al. 1984) by



C_2H_3 in Reaction (7) comes from the three-body reaction:



Therefore, the abundance of C_3H_6 in the stratosphere is directly related to the abundance of C_2H_2 . Other models fail to produce the abundance of C_3H_6 because they underestimate the stratospheric abundance of C_2H_2 (Wilson & Atreya 2004, 2009; Krasnopolsky 2010; Vuitton et al. 2012; Hebrard et al. 2013). C_3H_6 is destroyed mainly through photolysis:



where $\alpha \approx 0.6$, $\beta \approx 0.4$ are the branching ratios of the photolysis reaction. C_3H_6 can also be destroyed by reacting

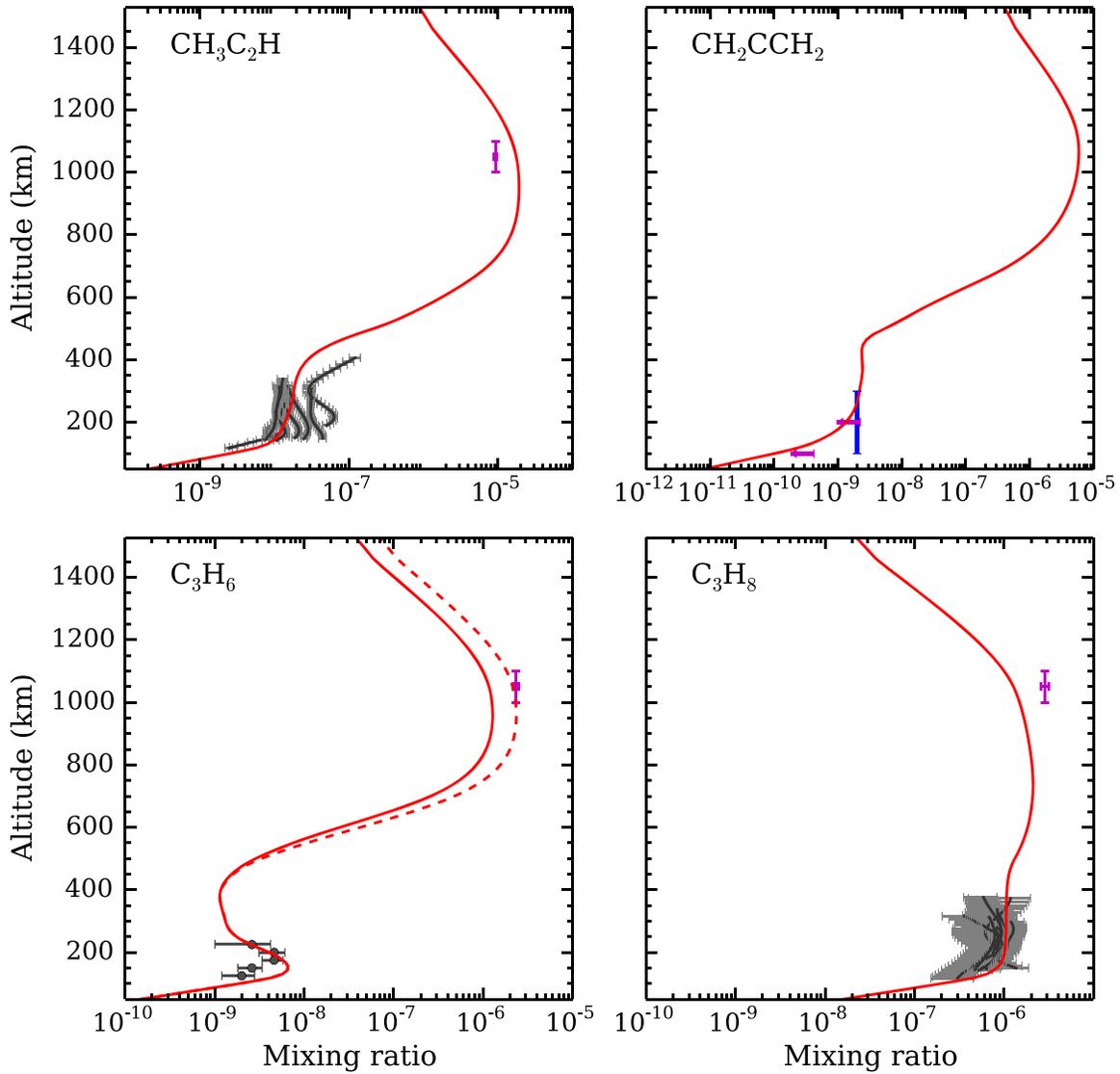


Figure 2. Same as Figure 1, but for C₃-hydrocarbons. Blue bar in CH₂CCH₂ panel indicates the upper limit by Coustenis et al. (2003); magenta points with arrows in CH₂CCH₂ panel indicate the upper limit by Nixon et al. (2010). Dashed red line in C₃H₆ panel shows the profile when the reaction rate of CH + C₂H₆ → C₃H₆ + H is doubled.

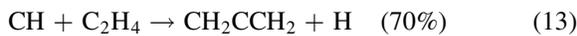
with an H atom:



The rate of this three-body reaction increases with atmospheric density and becomes greater than the photo-dissociation reaction rate below 300 km (as shown in Figure 3).

4. ALLENE (CH₂CCH₂) TO METHYLACETYLENE (CH₃C₂H) RATIO AS A PROBE OF H ATOM ABUNDANCE

Allene (CH₂CCH₂, or propadiene) and methylacetylene (CH₃C₂H, or propyne) are isomers. Goulay et al. (2009) reported the following branching ratios:



The enthalpy difference between CH₃C₂H and CH₂CCH₂ is ~ 1 kcal mol⁻¹ (Rogers & McLafferty 1995). Because it takes

very little energy to convert between CH₃C₂H and CH₂CCH₂, their production and loss rates are expected to be comparable. Using the same algorithm in Section 3, their major production and loss pathways are calculated and presented in Figure 4. In the upper atmosphere, CH₃C₂H and CH₂CCH₂ originate from C₂H₄ and C₃H₅ through



Reaction (15) terminates near 600 km due to CH₄ self-shielding reducing the production rate of CH radicals. Reactions (16) and (17) persist throughout the entire atmosphere because H atoms and CH₃ are replenished in the lower atmosphere by photosensitized dissociation of CH₄. Reactions (16) and (17) both lead to the same production rate for CH₃C₂H and CH₂CCH₂, so to explain the non-detection of

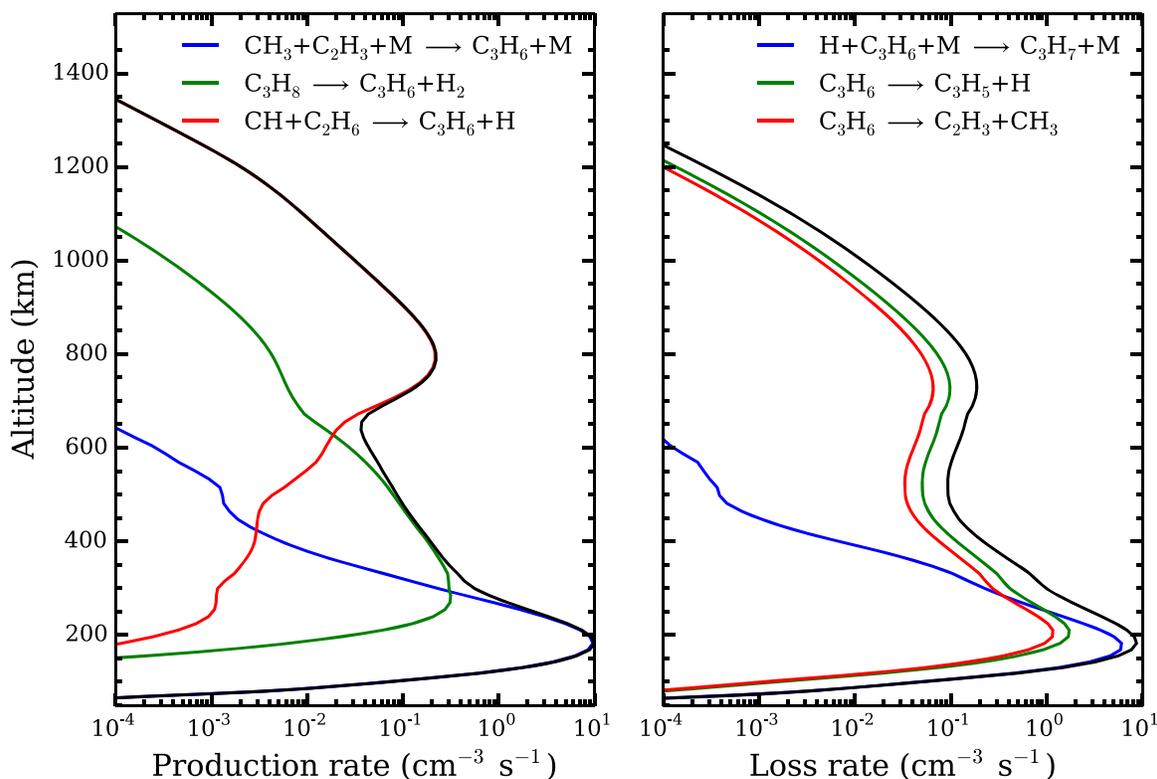
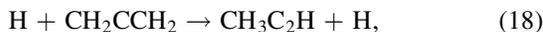


Figure 3. Production (left) and loss rates (right) of C_3H_6 due to reactions listed in the figure. The sum of the reactions accounts for more than 90% of the total production and loss rates at each altitude. The total production and loss rates are given by the black lines.

CH_2CCH_2 Yung et al. (1984) proposed an exchange reaction:



which is exothermic by $\sim 1.6 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$. As a result of this exchange reaction, the abundance of CH_2CCH_2 is significantly less than that of CH_3C_2H and their relative abundance equilibrates at a constant ratio as a function of the abundance of H atom. Figure 5 shows the correlation between the mixing ratios of CH_2CCH_2 and CH_3C_2H at several altitudes, as labeled on the correlation curve. From 50 to 800 km, the mixing ratio of CH_2CCH_2 is equal to 0.2 times that of CH_3C_2H , aside from 150 to 350 km where the abundance of CH_2CCH_2 increases. The equilibration is a highly sensitive function of the H concentration in the atmosphere, as demonstrated by cracking reactions that can reverse the process of organic synthesis, e.g., Yung et al. (1984). We performed four experiments to investigate the hydrogenation process (Sekine et al. 2008a, 2008b), each with a different accommodation coefficient (0, 0.001, 0.01, and 0.1) of H atoms on aerosol particles. As shown in Figure 5, the concentration of H atoms in the atmosphere can be inferred from the CH_2CCH_2 to CH_3C_2H ratio, as larger concentrations of H result in lower concentrations of CH_2CCH_2 .

Roe et al. (2011) discussed the challenges of measuring allene in the atmosphere of Titan using extremely high resolution ground-based spectra near 845 cm^{-1} to separate allene lines from ethane lines (this possibility was demonstrated in the upper panel of Figure 12 of Coustenis et al. 2003). An upper limit of $\sim 10^{-9}$ was found, which is an order of magnitude less than that of CH_3C_2H . Nixon et al. (2010)

obtained 3σ upper limits for allene of 0.3×10^{-9} at 100 km and 1.6×10^{-9} at 200 km using *Cassini/CIRS*. Our model predicts an allene mixing ratio of $\sim 10^{-9}$ at 200 km, which increases to $\sim 2 \times 10^{-9}$ at 400 km. These values are consistent with the previous studies and could be confirmed by further measurements given better laboratory spectra. Precise measurements of allene will offer a unique opportunity to probe a very sensitive but hitherto unobserved part of the atmospheric chemistry of Titan.

5. ESTIMATED ABUNDANCE OF CYCLOPROPANE (c- C_3H_6)

Figure 1 of Nixon et al. (2013) raises the possibility of c- C_3H_6 , which is an isomer of propene. This molecule has not been detected in the atmosphere of Titan. Reaction (4) primarily produces C_3H_6 , while the branch producing the isomer c- C_3H_6 is considered exceedingly slow (Galland et al. 2003). No published yield for c- C_3H_6 is available, though we can estimate a yield $\sim 1\%$ relative to C_3H_6 or C_3H_8 from the discharge experiments of Navarro-González & Ramírez (1997). Thus, we would estimate c- C_3H_6 concentrations in the atmosphere of Titan to be a hundred times less than that of C_3H_6 .

6. CONCLUSIONS

Our model reproduced the abundances of C_2 -hydrocarbons and the newly observed C_3H_6 in the atmosphere of Titan. The model also shows that CH_2CCH_2 is in equilibrium with its isomer CH_3C_2H by a constant ratio, which is a strong function of the abundance of H atoms in the atmosphere. The abundance of CH_2CCH_2 is close to the detection limit, and so it is possible

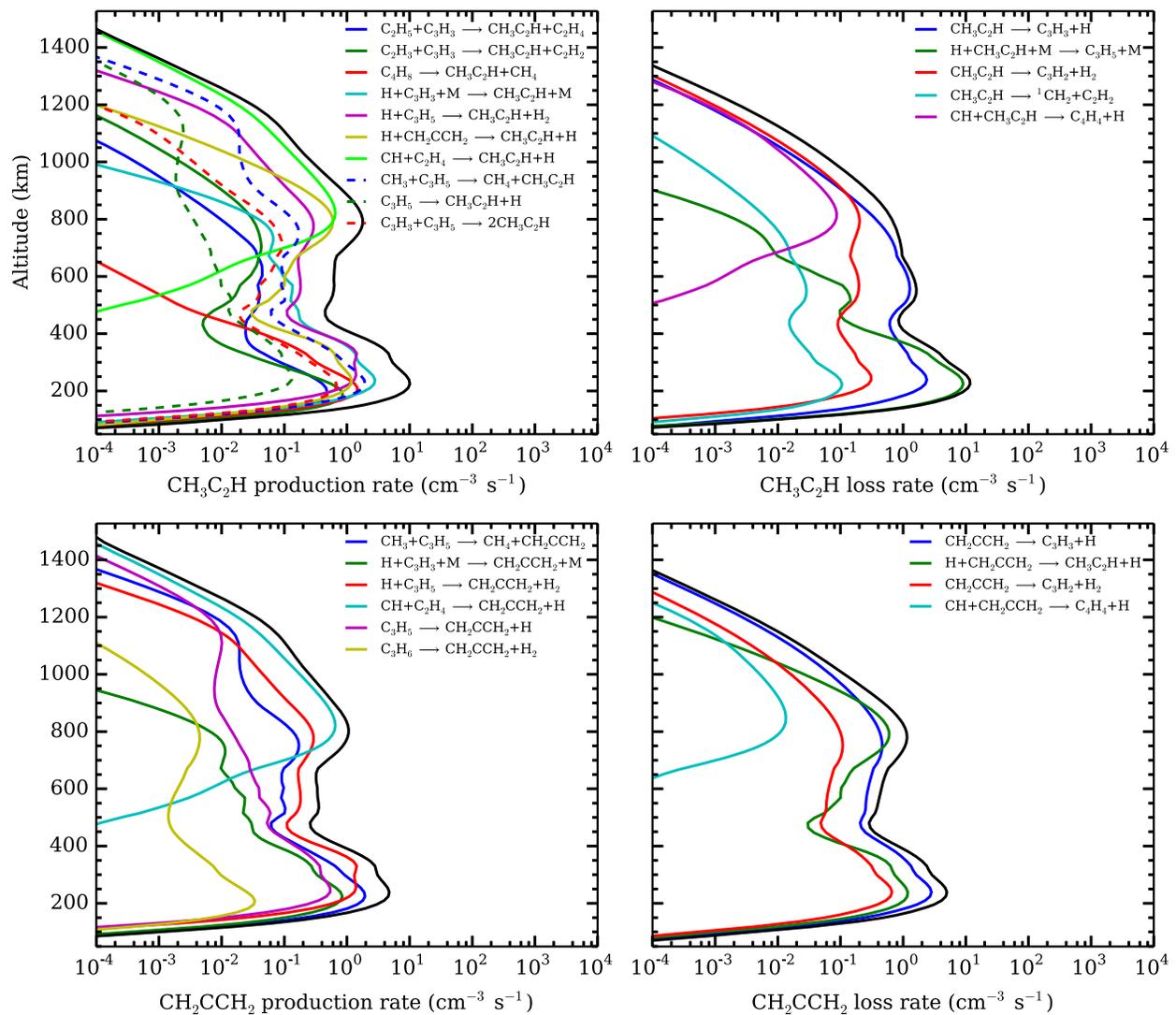


Figure 4. Production and loss rates of $\text{CH}_3\text{C}_2\text{H}$ and CH_2CCH_2 due to reactions listed in the figure. The sum of the reactions accounts for more than 90% of the total production and loss rates at each altitude. The total production and loss rates are given by the black lines.

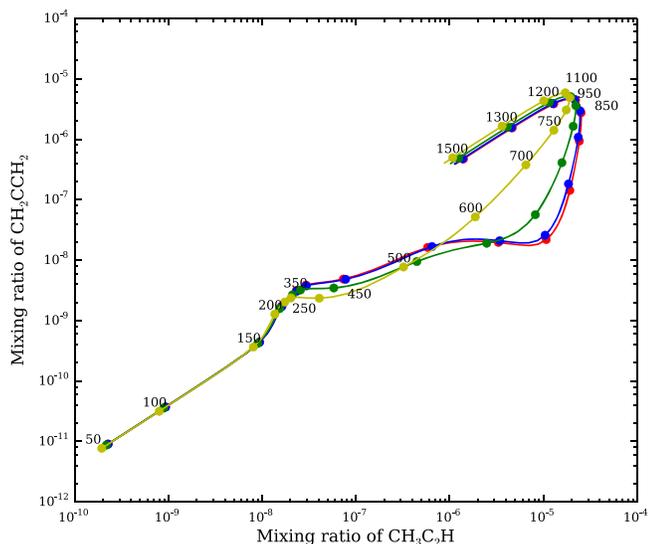


Figure 5. Correlation between $\text{CH}_3\text{C}_2\text{H}$ and CH_2CCH_2 with accommodation coefficients of 0 (red), 0.001 (blue), 0.01 (green), and 0.1 (yellow) for H on aerosol particles. The numbers labeling the points indicate the altitude in Titan's atmosphere in km.

that further analysis of *Cassini*/CIRS limb-view observations combined with better laboratory constraints on the spectra of CH_2CCH_2 will lead to its detection, which would fill another gap in the C_3 -hydrocarbon family. The observed mixing ratio of $\text{CH}_3\text{C}_2\text{H}$ is 10^{-8} , while our calculated mixing ratio for CH_2CCH_2 in the stratosphere is about 10^{-9} . Confirmation or rejection of this value requires improved laboratory spectral data. Finally, $c\text{-C}_3\text{H}_6$ is not likely to be observed due to its low abundance ($\sim 10^{-11}$).

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