

# THE ROLE OF ICE COMPOSITIONS AND MORPHOLOGY FOR SNOWLINES AND THE C/N/O RATIOS IN ACTIVE DISKS

ANA-MARIA A. PISO<sup>1</sup>, KARIN I. ÖBERG<sup>1</sup>, JAMILA PEGUES<sup>2</sup>

*Draft version January 25, 2016*

## ABSTRACT

The elemental compositions of planets define their chemistry, and could potentially be used as beacons for their formation location if the elemental gas and grain ratios of planet birth environments, i.e. protoplanetary disks, are well understood. In disks, the ratios of volatile elements, such as C/O and N/O, are regulated by the abundance of the main C, N, O carriers, the ice environment in which these carriers reside, and the presence of snowlines of major volatiles at different distances from the central star. We explore the effects of dynamical processes, molecular compositions and abundances, and the ice morphology of dust grains in disks on the snowline locations of the main C, O and N carriers, and their consequences for the C/N/O ratio in gas and dust throughout the disk. We find that radial drift and accretion alone can reduce the snowline radii of the main C, O and N carriers, i.e. H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub>, CO and N<sub>2</sub>, by 40-60% compared to static disks. If CO and N<sub>2</sub> are bound to water ice instead of pure ices, their snowlines move inward by  $\sim 70\%$ . Both of these effects substantially change the disk regions where C/O and N/O are enhanced over the stellar value. In the outer disk, the gaseous C/O and N/O are enhanced by factors of  $\sim 2$  and  $\sim 3$ , respectively. Our estimates for the C/N/O ratios are only modestly affected by the presence of some C in the form of CH<sub>4</sub> and of some N in the form of NH<sub>3</sub>.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

*Background info. Importance of volatiles in disks and planetary atmospheres, detections of snowlines in disks, C/O ratios etc. State again the importance of radial drift and gas accretion on the snowline locations, and that a systematic study of the combination of these two particular effects across the disk has not been done before. Then transition to the fact that we provide such a systematic study in Paper I and in this paper. Here, we expand the model of Paper I by making three additions: (1) we add N and CH<sub>4</sub> in the static chemistry model, and explore how different abundances of CH<sub>4</sub> and of the N main carriers (N<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>) affect the C/O and N/O ratios, (2) we quantify the effect of radial drift and gas accretion on the N<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> snowline locations, and (3) we explore how different binding energies of CO and N<sub>2</sub> affect their snowline locations.*

## 2. COUPLED DRIFT-DESORPTION MODEL REVIEW

We begin with a brief review of Paper I's model for the effect of radial drift and viscous gas accretion on volatile snowline locations. We review our disk model in Section 2.1, and summarize our numerical method and results in Section 2.2.

### 2.1. Disk Model

We first assume a static disk, which is only irradiated by the central star and does not experience redistribution of solids or radial movement of the nebular gas. To quantify the effects of radial drift and gas accretion, we

use a viscous disk with a spatially and temporally constant mass flux,  $\dot{M}$ . The viscous disk takes into account radial drift, gas accretion onto the central star, as well as accretion heating. We prefer this disk model to an irradiated or evolving disk (see Paper I) because it includes all the dynamical and thermal processes we are interested in for the scope of this paper, and therefore it is the most realistic one.

Following Chiang & Youdin (2010), the temperature profile for a static disk is

$$T = 120 (r/\text{AU})^{-3/7} \text{ K}, \quad (1)$$

where  $r$  is the semimajor axis. We use the Shakura & Sunyaev (1973) steady-state disk solution to model the viscous disk. From Paper I, the viscous disk temperature profile is computed as

$$T^4 = \left[ \frac{1}{4r} \left( \frac{3G\kappa_0 \dot{M}^2 M_* \mu m_p \Omega_k}{\pi^2 \alpha k_B \sigma} \right)^{1/3} \right]^4 + T_{\text{irr}}^4, \quad (2)$$

where  $T_{\text{irr}} = T$  from Equation (1). Here  $G$  is the gravitational constant,  $\kappa_0 = 2 \times 10^{-6}$  is a dimensionless opacity coefficient,  $M_* = M_\odot$  is the mass of the central star,  $\mu = 2.35$  is the mean molecular weight of the nebular gas,  $m_p$  is the proton mass,  $\Omega_k = \sqrt{GM_\odot}/r^3$  is the Keplerian angular velocity,  $\alpha = 0.01$  is a dimensionless coefficient (see below for details),  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $\sigma$  is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.

The steady-state disk has an  $\alpha$ -viscosity prescription, where the kinematic viscosity is  $\nu = \alpha c H$ . Here  $c \equiv \sqrt{k_B T / (\mu m_p)}$  is the isothermal sound speed (with  $T$  from Equation 2), and  $H \equiv c / \Omega_k$  is the disk scale height. We can then determine the gas surface density for a viscous disk as (Shakura & Sunyaev 1973; see also Paper I

<sup>1</sup> Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, 60 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138

<sup>2</sup> Department of Astrophysical Sciences, Princeton University

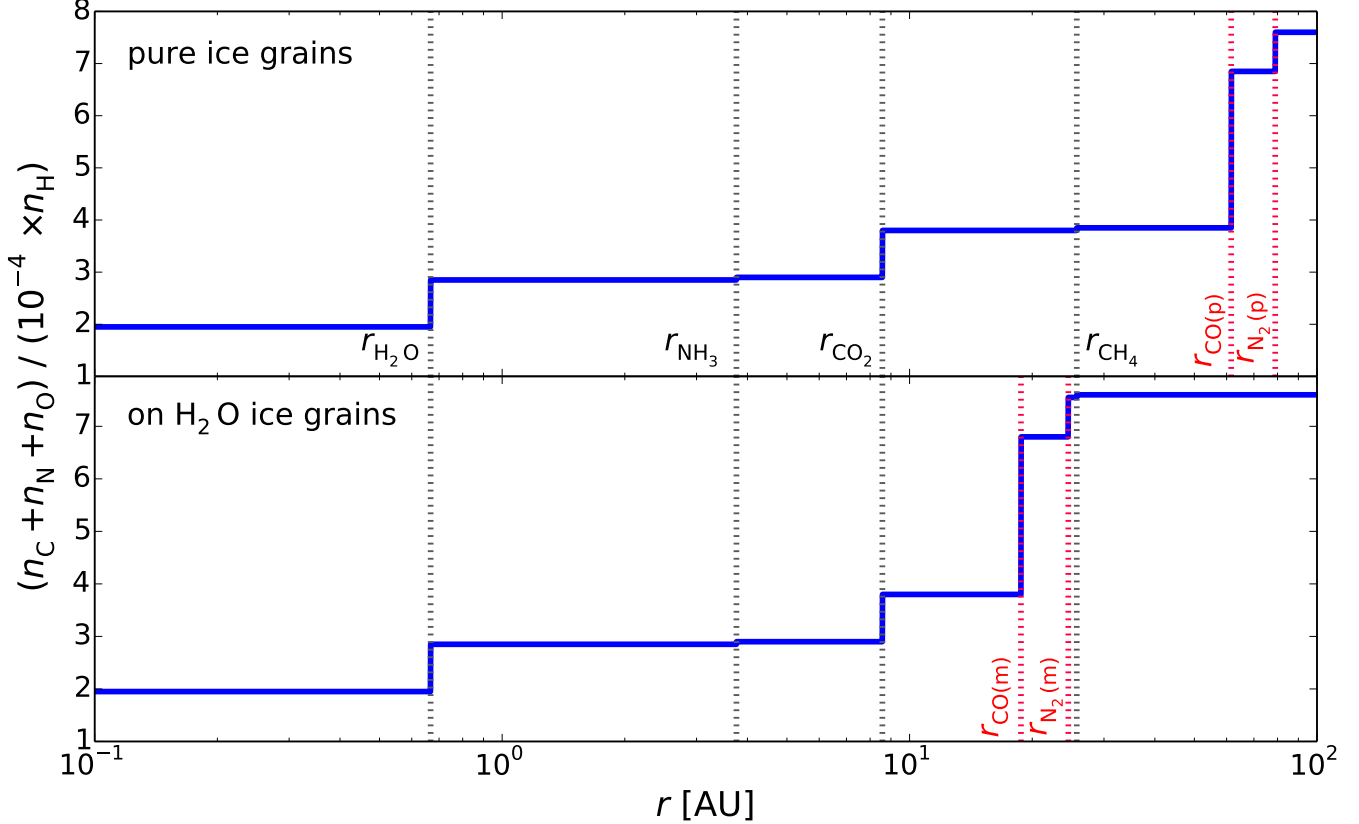


FIG. 1.— CNO abundance in grains...

for a more detailed explanation of these calculations):

$$\Sigma = \frac{\dot{M}}{3\pi\nu}. \quad (3)$$

We choose  $\dot{M} = 10^{-8} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , consistent with mass flux observations in disks (e.g., Andrews et al. 2010). As acknowledged in Paper I, the mass flux rate  $\dot{M}$  and stellar luminosity  $L_*$  will vary throughout the disk lifetime (Kennedy et al. 2006, Chambers 2009), in contrast with our simplified model which assumes that both quantities are constant. This effect will be most pronounced in the inner disk ( $\lesssim$  few AU), where accretion heating dominates. We thus acknowledge that the location of the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  snowline may be determined by the decline in  $\dot{M}$  or  $L_*$  with time, rather than radial drift (see Paper I, Section 2.1 for a more detailed explanation).

## 2.2. Desorption-Drift Equations and Results

For a range of initial icy grain sizes composed of a single volatile, we showed in Paper I that the timescale on which these particles desorb is comparable to their radial drift time, as well as to the accretion timescale of the nebular gas onto the central star. We thus have to take into account both drift and gas accretion when we calculate the disk location at which a particle desorbs, since that location may be different from the snowline position in a static disk for a given volatile (see Figure 1 and Öberg et al. 2011b). We determine a particle's

final location in the disk by solving the following coupled differential equations:

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = -\frac{3\mu_x m_p}{\rho_s} N_x R_{\text{des},x} \quad (4a)$$

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \dot{r}, \quad (4b)$$

where  $s$  is the particle size,  $t$  is time,  $\mu_x$  is the mean molecular weight of volatile  $x$ ,  $\rho_s = 2 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  is the density of an icy particle,  $N_x \approx 10^{15} \text{ sites cm}^{-2}$  is the number of adsorption sites of molecule  $x$  per  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ,  $R_{\text{des},x}$  is the desorption rate of species  $x$ , and  $\dot{r}$  is the particle's radial drift velocity. We calculate  $R_{\text{des}}$  and  $\dot{r}$  as follows.

The desorption rate  $R_{\text{des},x}$  (per molecule) is (Hollenbach et al. 2009)

$$R_{\text{des},x} = \nu_x \exp(-E_x/T_{\text{grain}}), \quad (5)$$

where  $E_x$  is the adsorption binding energy in units of Kelvin,  $T_{\text{grain}} = T$  is the grain temperature (assumed to be the same as the disk temperature, see Paper I), and  $\nu_x = 1.6 \times 10^{11} \sqrt{(E_x/\mu_x)} \text{ s}^{-1}$  is the molecule's vibrational frequency in the surface potential well. We discuss our choices for  $E_x$  for the different volatile species in Sections 3 and 4.

Following Chiang & Youdin (2010) and Birnstiel et al. (2012), a particle's radial drift velocity can be approximated as

$$\dot{r} \approx -2\eta\Omega_k r \left( \frac{\tau_s}{1 + \tau_s^2} \right) + \frac{\dot{r}_{\text{gas}}}{1 + \tau_s^2}, \quad (6)$$

where the first term is the drift velocity in a non-accreting disk and the second term accounts for the radial movement of the gas. Here  $\eta \approx c^2/(2v_k^2)$ , where  $v_k$  is the Keplerian velocity, and  $\tau_s \equiv \Omega_k t_s$  is the dimensionless stopping time:

$$t_s = \begin{cases} \rho_s s / (\rho c), & s < 9\lambda/4 \text{ Epstein drag} \\ 4\rho_s s^2 / (9\rho c \lambda), & s < 9\lambda/4, \text{Re} \lesssim 1 \text{ Stokes drag,} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where  $\rho$  is the disk mid-plane density,  $\lambda$  is the mean free path and  $\text{Re}$  is the Reynolds number. The gas accretion velocity  $\dot{r}_{\text{gas}}$  is determined from  $\dot{M} = -2\pi r \dot{r}_{\text{gas}} \Sigma$ , for a fixed  $\dot{M}$  and with  $\Sigma$  given by Equation (3).

For a particle of initial size  $s_0$ , we solve the Equation set (4) with the initial conditions  $s(t_0) = s_0$  and  $r(t_0) = r_0$ , where  $t_0$  is the time at which we start the integration and  $r_0$  is the particle's initial location. We stop our simulation after  $t_d = 3$  Myr, the disk lifetime, since this is roughly the timescale on which planets form ( ), and determine the desorption timescale  $t_{\text{des}}$  from  $s(t_{\text{des}}) = 0$ , and thus a particle's desorption distance  $r_{\text{des}} = r(t_{\text{des}})$ . Our results are insensitive to our choice of  $t_0$  as long as  $t_0 \ll t_d$ . We note that a particle's size is initially fixed and only changes due to desorption. We thus do not take into account processes such as grain coagulation or fragmentation, which nonetheless occur in disks (e.g., Birnstiel et al. 2012, Pérez et al. 2012). We discuss the effect of these processes on snowline locations in Paper I.

As we show in Paper I, a particle of initial size  $s_0$  can experience three outcomes after  $t_d = 3$  Myr: (1) it can remain at its initial location, (2) it can drift towards the host star, then stop without evaporating significantly, and (3) it can completely desorb on a timescale shorter than 3 Myr. Particles in scenarios (1) and (2) are thus not affected by radial drift or gas accretion, and the snowline locations are those for a static disk. In contrast, the grains in case (3) desorb *instantaneously* and *at a fixed particle-size dependent location* in the disk, regardless of their initial position. The snowline locations for these particles will thus be fixed for a given initial particle size and disk model. We have found that grains with sizes  $\sim 0.001 \text{ cm} \lesssim s \lesssim 7$  satisfy this condition for our fiducial disk.

### 3. CH<sub>4</sub> AND C/O RATIOS

Both in Solar system comets and in protoplanetary disks, carbon and oxygen are primarily contained in H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub> and CO (e.g., Rodgers & Charnley 2002, Lodders 2003, Pontoppidan 2006). However, some fraction of the carbon abundance may also be carried by CH<sub>4</sub> (e.g., Mumma et al. 1996), which may change the C/O ratio in gas and in dust throughout the disk. To quantify the magnitude of this effect, we use measured CH<sub>4</sub> abundances in protostellar cores from the *Spitzer* c2d Legacy ice survey (Evans et al. 2003). We explore the parameter space of possible CH<sub>4</sub> abundances by assuming three different scenarios: (1) no CH<sub>4</sub>, (2) the median CH<sub>4</sub> observed abundance (hereafter CH<sub>4</sub>-mid), and (3) the maximum CH<sub>4</sub> observed abundance (hereafter CH<sub>4</sub>-max). Thus  $n_{\text{CH}_4\text{-mid}} = 0.0555 \times n_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  (Öberg et al. 2011a) and  $n_{\text{CH}_4\text{-mid}} = 0.13 \times n_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  (Öberg et al. 2008). Similarly to Paper I, we use the H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub> and CO abun-

dances of Öberg et al. (2011b). Since the abundance of carbon grains is uncertain, we assume that all the carbon that is not in the form of CH<sub>4</sub> is found in carbon grains, so that we reproduce the Solar C/O ratio (gas+dust) of 0.54.

We determine the location of the H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub> snowlines in our static disk by balancing desorption with readsorption, following Hollenbach et al. (2009). The binding energies of H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub> as pure ices are 5800 K, 2000 K, 834 K and 1300 K, respectively (Fraser et al. 2001, Collings et al. 2004, Fayolle et al. 2016, Garrod & Herbst 2006).

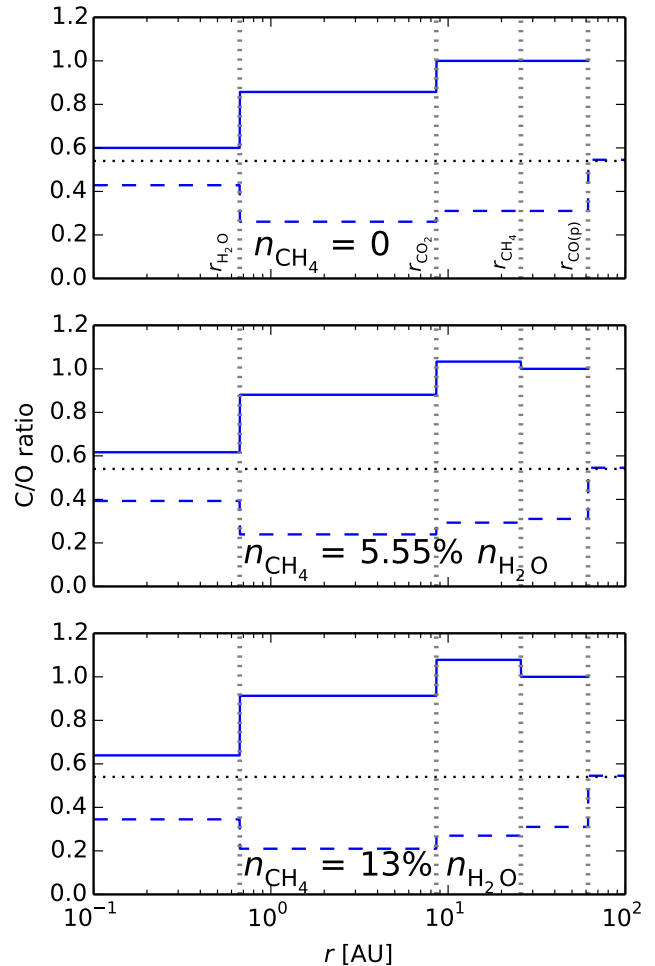


FIG. 2.— C/O ratio in a static disk for different CH<sub>4</sub> abundances and CO binding energies...

Figure 2 shows the C/O ratio in gas and dust as a function of semimajor axis in a static disk, for different CH<sub>4</sub> abundances as outlined above. As in Öberg et al. (2011b) and Paper I, a gaseous C/O ratio of unity can be achieved beyond the CO<sub>2</sub> snowline, where oxygen gas is significantly depleted (top panel). The gas-phase C/O ratio may be further enhanced between the CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> snowlines due to the presence of additional carbon gas from CH<sub>4</sub>. In this region, the C/O ratio increases by 3% for CH<sub>4</sub>-mid and by 8% for CH<sub>4</sub>-max, as displayed in the middle and bottom panel of Figure 2. Based on current

observations of  $\text{CH}_4$  abundances, its presence in the disk only modestly affects the C/O ratio. Given the larger uncertainties in overall volatile abundances, we can neglect  $\text{CH}_4$  when estimating the C/O ratio in static disks.

As noted in Section 1, the CO binding energy varies significantly depending on the environment in which the icy grains reside. If CO ice is layered on top of a water ice substrate, its binding energy will be larger than in the pure ice case (834 K) due to the higher  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  binding energy. Fayolle et al. (2016) find a CO binding energy of 1388 K in the layered ice scenario. We use the model of Section 2 to estimate the movement of the CO snowline for different grain morphologies in a viscous disk.

Figure 3 shows the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  and CO snowline locations for particles with initial sizes  $\sim 0.06 \text{ cm} \lesssim s \lesssim 7 \text{ m}$  as well as estimates for the C/O ratio in gas and dust in a viscous disk, with the CO snowline calculated under different grain morphologies as noted above. The true snowline for particles that desorb outside the static snowline is the static snowline itself, hence desorbing particles with  $s < 0.06 \text{ cm}$  do not form true snowlines. As calculated in Paper I, drift and gas accretion may move the snowlines inwards by up to 40-60% compared to a static disk, and specifically by up to  $\sim 50\%$  in the case of the CO snowline. This result is preserved for the updated CO binding energies, both for pure ice and on a water ice substrate. However, a layered grain structure moves the CO snowline inwards significantly: for our fiducial disk model,  $r_{\text{CO,layered}} \approx 8.7 \text{ AU}$ . Thus if CO is bound to water ice instead of pure ices, the CO snowline may move inward by up to 70%. This large inward movement of the CO snowline implies that C/O ratios of order unity may be reached much closer to the host star if CO is layered on a water ice substrate, and may be inside 10 AU for certain disk parameters.

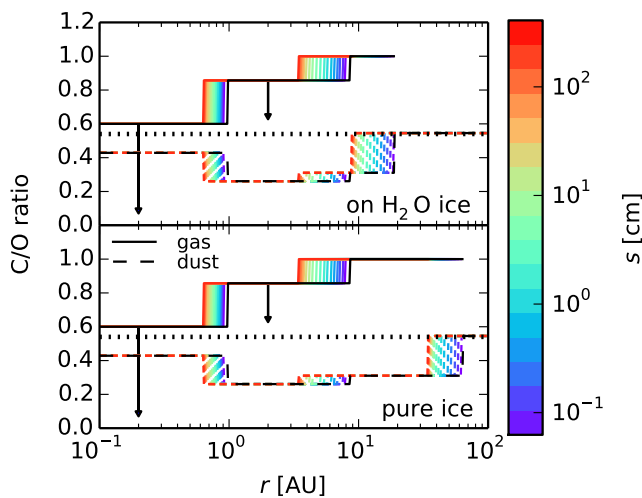


FIG. 3.— C/O ratio as function of semimajor axis for CO combined with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (top panel) and pure CO ice (bottom panel).... Drift and gas accretion move the CO snowlines inward by  $x\%$  and  $y\%$ , respectively.

#### 4. NITROGEN AND N/O RATIOS

In addition to carbon and oxygen, nitrogen is another abundant volatile in the Solar system and in disks.

Chemical models of the protostellar nebula (e.g., Owen et al. 2001) and of protoplanetary disks (e.g., Rodgers & Charnley 2002) suggest that  $\text{N}_2$  was the dominant form of nitrogen, and that giant planets have accreted their nitrogen content primarily as  $\text{N}_2$  (Mousis et al. 2014). Observations of Solar system bodies such as Titan and Pluto show that  $\text{N}_2$  is prevalent in their atmospheres (Cruikshank et al. 1993, Owen et al. 1993). Moreover, the Rosetta spacecraft has recently made the first direct measurement of  $\text{N}_2$  abundance in comet 67P/Churyumov-Gerasimenko (Rubin et al. 2015). In addition to  $\text{N}_2$ , a fraction of the nitrogen abundances may be also carried by  $\text{NH}_3$  (Bottinelli et al. 2010, Mumma & Charnley 2011).

Because of the high volatility of  $\text{N}_2$ , the gas phase nitrogen-to-oxygen (N/O) ratio in the outer disk may be even more enhanced than the C/O ratio compared to its average value in the disk. Giant planets that form at wide separations should thus have an excess of nitrogen in their atmospheres, which could be used to trace their formation origin. In this study, we quantify this effect in protoplanetary disks. We assume that the main nitrogen-bearing species are  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ , since other volatiles that contain nitrogen have significantly lower abundances in comparison (e.g., Mumma & Charnley 2011). We use the measured total nitrogen abundance in the Solar system,  $n_{\text{N}} = 8 \times 10^{-5} n_{\text{H}}$  (Lodders 2003), where  $n_{\text{H}}$  is the hydrogen abundance in the disk mid-plane. Similarly to the case of  $\text{CH}_4$  (see Section 3), we explore the parameter space of possible  $\text{NH}_3$  abundances using data from the Spitzer c2d Legacy ice survey, as follows: (1) no  $\text{NH}_3$ , (2) the median  $\text{NH}_3$  observed abundance  $n_{\text{NH}_3\text{-mid}} = 0.055 \times n_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  (Öberg et al. 2011a), and (3) the maximum observed  $\text{NH}_3$  abundance  $n_{\text{NH}_3\text{-max}} = 0.1537 \times n_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  (Bottinelli et al. 2010). In each case, the  $\text{N}_2$  abundance then simply follows as  $n_{\text{N}_2} = (n_{\text{N}} - n_{\text{NH}_3})/2$ . We determine the locations of the  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  snowlines by balancing desorption with readsorption (Hollenbach et al. 2009), with  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  pure ice binding energies of 767 K and 2965 K, respectively (Fayolle et al. 2016, Martín-Doménech et al. 2014).

Figure 4 shows the snowline locations of the main oxygen and nitrogen carriers and the N/O ratio in gas and dust as a function of semimajor axis in a static disk for our three choices of the  $\text{NH}_3$  abundance. For comparison, the horizontal dashed line shows the average N/O ratio in the disk. As expected, the gaseous N/O ratio generally exhibits an increasing trend towards the outer disk as more oxygen gas is depleted, with small decreases between the  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  snowlines (by  $x\%$  for  $\text{NH}_3\text{-mid}$  and by  $x\%$  for  $\text{NH}_3\text{-max}$ , respectively) due to  $\text{NH}_3$  freeze-out. More importantly, the gas-phase N/O ratio in the outer disk is enhanced by more than a factor of three compared to its average value. This enhancement is more pronounced than the C/O gas-phase enhancement of a factor of two in the outer disk (see Figure 2). The N/O ratio reaches particularly high values between the CO and  $\text{N}_2$  snowlines, where all the oxygen is now contained in grains.

As is the case for CO, the  $\text{N}_2$  binding energy is also strongly dependent on the ice environment in which it resides. If  $\text{N}_2$  is layered on a water ice substrate, the  $\text{N}_2$  binding energy is 1266 K (Fayolle et al. 2016). Figure

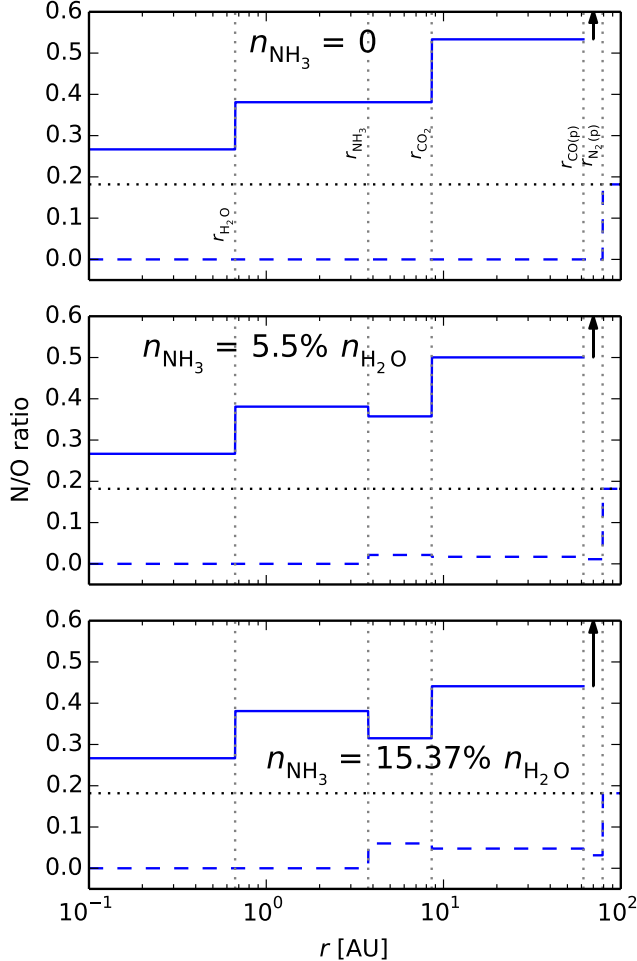


FIG. 4.— N/O ratio in a static disk for different  $\text{NH}_3$  abundances and  $\text{N}_2$  binding energies...

5 shows the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  snowline locations in a viscous disk for particles with initial size  $\sim 0.06 \text{ cm} \lesssim s \lesssim 7 \text{ m}$ , and with the  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  snowlines calculated assuming different grain morphologies as explained above, as well as upper estimates for the N/O ratio in gas throughout the disk. The  $\text{N}_2$  snowline moves inward by x% in the pure ice scenario and by x%....

## 5. SUMMARY

In this paper we explore the role of icy grain morphology and disk dynamics on the snowline locations of major volatile carrier molecules and the C/N/O ratios in protoplanetary disks. We enhance the coupled drift-desorption model developed in Piso et al. (2015) by adding more carbon- and nitrogen-bearing species into our framework and by considering different environments in which the icy grains reside. Our results can be summarized as follows:

1. Due to the high volatility of  $\text{N}_2$ , the gaseous N/O ratio in the outer disk is enhanced by more than a factor of three compared to its average value. This

enhancement is more pronounced than in the case of the gas-phase C/O ratio, which is increased by a

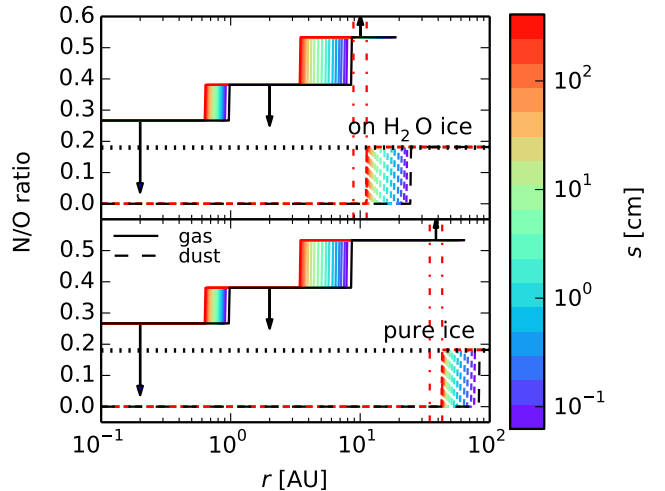


FIG. 5.— N/O ratio as function of semimajor axis for  $\text{N}_2$  combined with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (top panel) and pure  $\text{N}_2$  ice (bottom panel)... Drift and gas accretion move the  $\text{N}_2$  snowlines inward by x% and y%, respectively. Overabundance of gas-phase N/O between the  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  snowlines, marked by the vertical red dash-dotted lines for the largest drifting particles in our model.

factor of two compared to the stellar value. Moreover, the N/O ratio in gas is expected to be very large between the  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  snowlines due to the complete depletion of oxygen gas in this region

2. The presence of some carbon in the form of  $\text{CH}_4$  and of some nitrogen in the form of  $\text{NH}_3$  only modestly affects our results for the C/O and N/O ratios, respectively. In both cases, large C/O and N/O ratios in the outer disk are preserved.
3. Grain composition sensitively affects the  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  snowline locations. If  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  are layered on a water-ice substrate rather than existing as pure ices, their snowlines move inward by up to  $\sim 70\%$ . This effect is separate from that of radial drift and viscous gas accretion, which also cause an inward movement of the snowlines by up to  $\sim 50\%$ .

Our results have direct consequences for the composition of nascent giant planets. The considerable inward movement of the  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{N}_2$  snowlines due to the ice grains residing in a water ice environment rather than as pure ices implies that giant planets with high C/O and/or N/O ratios in their atmospheres may form closer in than previously predicted by theoretical models. Moreover, our model shows that wide separation gas giants may have an excess of nitrogen in their envelopes, which may be used to trace their origins. In future work, we plan to add new levels of complexity to our model in terms of disk chemistry, dynamics, and planetary dynamics, thus forming a solid framework for understanding the origins of gas giants.

## REFERENCES

- Andrews, S. M., Wilner, D. J., Hughes, A. M., Qi, C., & Dullemond, C. P. 2010, *ApJ*, 723, 1241
- Birnstiel, T., Klahr, H., & Ercolano, B. 2012, *A&A*, 539, A148
- Bottinelli, S., Boogert, A. C. A., Bouwman, J., et al. 2010, *ApJ*, 718, 1100
- Chambers, J. E. 2009, *ApJ*, 705, 1206
- Chiang, E., & Youdin, A. N. 2010, *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences*, 38, 493
- Collings, M. P., Anderson, M. A., Chen, R., et al. 2004, *MNRAS*, 354, 1133
- Cruikshank, D. P., Roush, T. L., Owen, T. C., et al. 1993, *Science*, 261, 742
- Evans, II, N. J., Allen, L. E., Blake, G. A., et al. 2003, *PASP*, 115, 965
- Fayolle, E. C., Balfe, J., Loomis, R., et al. 2016, *ApJ*, 816, L28
- Fraser, H. J., Collings, M. P., McCoustra, M. R. S., & Williams, D. A. 2001, *MNRAS*, 327, 1165
- Garrod, R. T., & Herbst, E. 2006, *A&A*, 457, 927
- Hollenbach, D., Kaufman, M. J., Bergin, E. A., & Melnick, G. J. 2009, *ApJ*, 690, 1497
- Kennedy, G. M., Kenyon, S. J., & Bromley, B. C. 2006, *ApJ*, 650, L139
- Lodders, K. 2003, *ApJ*, 591, 1220
- Martín-Doménech, R., Muñoz Caro, G. M., Bueno, J., & Goesmann, F. 2014, *A&A*, 564, A8
- Mousis, O., Fletcher, L. N., Lebreton, J.-P., et al. 2014, *Planet. Space Sci.*, 104, 29
- Mumma, M. J., & Charnley, S. B. 2011, *ARA&A*, 49, 471
- Mumma, M. J., Disanti, M. A., dello Russo, N., et al. 1996, *Science*, 272, 1310
- Öberg, K. I., Boogert, A. C. A., Pontoppidan, K. M., et al. 2008, *ApJ*, 678, 1032
- . 2011a, *ApJ*, 740, 109
- Öberg, K. I., Murray-Clay, R., & Bergin, E. A. 2011b, *ApJ*, 743, L16
- Owen, T., Mahaffy, P. R., Niemann, H. B., Atreya, S., & Wong, M. 2001, *ApJ*, 553, L77
- Owen, T. C., Roush, T. L., Cruikshank, D. P., et al. 1993, *Science*, 261, 745
- Pérez, L. M., Carpenter, J. M., Chandler, C. J., et al. 2012, *ApJ*, 760, L17
- Piso, A.-M. A., Öberg, K. I., Birnstiel, T., & Murray-Clay, R. A. 2015, *ApJ*, 815, 109
- Pontoppidan, K. M. 2006, *A&A*, 453, L47
- Rodgers, S. D., & Charnley, S. B. 2002, *MNRAS*, 330, 660
- Rubin, M., Altwegg, K., Balsiger, H., et al. 2015, *Science*, 348, 232
- Shakura, N. I., & Sunyaev, R. A. 1973, *A&A*, 24, 337