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▶ To cite this version:

Jean-Christophe Loison, Valentine Wakelam, Pierre Gratier, Kevin M. Hickson. Gas-grain model of carbon fractionation in dense molecular clouds. Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society: Letters, 2020, 498, pp.4663 - 4679. 10.1093/mnras/staa2700. hal-02965569

HAL Id: hal-02965569

https://hal.science/hal-02965569

Submitted on 15 Oct 2020

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doi:10.1093/mnras/staa2700



Gas-grain model of carbon fractionation in dense molecular clouds

Jean-Christophe Loison[®], ¹★ Valentine Wakelam [®], ² Pierre Gratier ^{®2} and Kevin M. Hickson¹

Accepted 2020 August 28. Received 2020 July 23; in original form 2020 April 25

ABSTRACT

Carbon containing molecules in cold molecular clouds show various levels of isotopic fractionation through multiple observations. To understand such effects, we have developed a new gas-grain chemical model with updated ¹³C fractionation reactions (also including the corresponding reactions for ¹⁵ N, ¹⁸O, and ³⁴S). For chemical ages typical of dense clouds, our nominal model leads to two ¹³C reservoirs: CO and the species that derive from CO, mainly s-CO and s-CH₃OH, as well as C₃ in the gas phase. The nominal model leads to strong enrichment in C₃, c-C₃H₂, and C₂H in contradiction with observations. When C₃ reacts with oxygen atoms, the global agreement between the various observations and the simulations is rather good showing variable ¹³C fractionation levels that are specific to each species. Alternatively, hydrogen atom reactions lead to notable relative ¹³C fractionation effects for the two non-equivalent isotopologues of C₂H, c-C₃H₂, and C₂S. As there are several important fractionation reactions, some carbon bearing species are enriched in ¹³C, particularly CO, depleting atomic ¹³C in the gas phase. This induces a ¹³C depletion in CH₄ formed on grain surfaces, an effect that is not observed in the CH₄ in the Solar system, in particular on Titan. This seems to indicate a transformation of matter between the collapse of the molecular clouds, leading to the formation of the protostellar disc, and the formation of the planets. Or it means that the atomic carbon sticking to the grains reacts with the species already on the grains giving very little CH₄.

Key words: astrochemistry – ISM: abundances – ISM: clouds – ISM: molecules.

1 INTRODUCTION

The study of molecular isotopologues provides an important opportunity to understand the transformation of interstellar matter from gas and dust to the eventual formation of planetary systems. In order to gain a better insight into the various processes leading to isotope fractionation in N-bearing, O-bearing, and S-bearing molecules, we have performed a series of investigations related to the chemistry occurring in dense molecular clouds with a particular emphasis on ¹⁵N (Loison et al. 2018), ¹⁸O (Loison et al. 2019), and ³⁴S (Loison et al. 2019) reactions. In these regions, low temperatures are thought to play an important role in the enrichment process, as zero-point energy (ZPE) differences between the reagents and products of a fractionation reaction favour the formation of molecules containing heavy isotopes. During these earlier studies, we demonstrated that the observed ¹⁴N/¹⁵N ratios in nitrogen containing molecules could not be explained by the differing reactivity of these species. In contrast, the chemistry was shown to induce a significant enrichment in S¹⁸O, SO¹⁸O, N¹⁸O, and O¹⁸O molecules (with a low corresponding enrichment in ³⁴S), allowing the chemical age of dense interstellar clouds to be better constrained. Here, we describe a study of ¹³C fractionation in interstellar molecules that have the characteristic of involving a large number of observed species that also present diverse fractionation levels. While carbon-bearing molecules display variable, and sometimes large, isotopic fractionation levels in

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diffuse (Liszt 2007; Ritchey, Federman & Lambert 2011) and dense molecular clouds (see Table 1), the derived ¹²C/¹³C ratios in the Solar system are remarkably constant, with values close 90 in solar CO (Ayres et al. 2013), in Titan's atmosphere (Gurwell 2004; Jennings et al. 2008; Jennings et al. 2009; Courtin et al. 2011; Mandt et al. 2012) and in comets (Bockelée-Morvan et al. 2015), all three being close to the telluric value. It should be noted that the Solar system ¹²C/¹³C ratio close to 90 is different from the local ISM value of $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C} = 68 \pm 15$ suggested by Milam et al. (2005) as the sun may have migrated from its original birthplace closer to the Galactic Centre (Romano et al. 2017). The first study on ¹³C fractionation was carried out by Langer et al. (1984) showing the importance of the ${}^{13}\text{C}^+ + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{C}^+ + {}^{13}\text{CO}$ reaction. Roueff, Loison & Hickson (2015) expanded on this earlier work by showing that it was necessary to include other processes such as the ${}^{13}C + CN \rightarrow C + {}^{13}CN$ reaction. Very recently, Colzi et al. (2020) have performed the first gas-grain model for ¹³C fractionation adding few ¹³C fractionation reactions from Roueff et al. (2015). In their study, Colzi et al. (2020) have considered all carbons of a given species as equivalents, e.g. they do not differentiate ¹³CCH and C¹³CH, which induces several biases in the results and does not allow a realistic comparison with most of the observations. We have extended these ¹³C fractionation studies considering the various positions for ¹³C as specific species (e.g. ¹³CCH and C¹³CH are different species) and including various new chemical reactions such as those involving secondary carbon reservoirs such as C₃ and HCN. We limited our study to dense clouds where photodissociation induced fractionation is minor. In diffuse molecular clouds and circumstellar discs, ¹²CO self-shielding provides a mechanism for selective photodissociation of ¹³CO,

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Table 1. Observations for ¹³C in dense molecular clouds.

| Species | Ratio | Cloud | References | | | |
|---|------------------------------|--------|---|--|--|--|
| C ¹⁸ O/ ¹³ C ¹⁸ O | 70(20) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| C ¹⁷ O/ ¹³ C ¹⁷ O | 42(13) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| HCO ⁺ /H ¹³ CO ⁺ | 49(14) | TMC1 | Turner (2001) | | | |
| CCH/13CCH | >250 | TMC1 | Sakai et al. (2010) | | | |
| | >250 | TMC1 | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) | | | |
| | 210(60) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| | >162 | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| CCH/C ¹³ CH | >170 | TMC1 | Sakai et al. (2010) | | | |
| | >170 | TMC1 | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) | | | |
| | 140(40) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| | >70 | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| c-C ₃ H ₂ /c-CC ¹³ CH ₂ | 61(11) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2015) | | | |
| | 41(8) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2015, 2019) | | | |
| | 53(16) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| c-C ₃ H ₂ /c- ¹³ CCCH ₂ | 310(80) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2015) | | | |
| e estigie eceniz | 200(30) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| | 458(138) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| CH ₃ CCH/ ¹³ CH ₃ CCH | 60(18) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| CH ₃ CCH/CH ₃ ¹³ CCH | 53(16) | L483 | Agundez et al. (2019) Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| CH ₃ CCH/CH ₃ C ¹³ CH | 58(17) | L483 | Agundez et al. (2019) Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| CN/ ¹³ CN | 50(20) ^a | B1 | Daniel et al. (2013) | | | |
| CIV CIV | 44(8) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) | | | |
| | | | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| HCN/H ¹³ CN | 61(17) 30(7) ^b | L1527 | | | | |
| ncn/n 'cn | | B1 | Daniel et al. (2013) | | | |
| HNC/HN ¹³ C | 45(3) ^a | L1498 | Magalhães et al. (2018) | | | |
| HNC/HN**C | 43–72 ^b | TMC1 | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) | | | |
| HG MUH3GGGM | 20(5) ^b | B1 | Daniel et al. (2013) | | | |
| HC ₃ N/H ¹³ CCCN | 79(11) | TMC1 | Takano et al. (1998), Liszt & Ziurys (2012) | | | |
| | 132(10) | TMC1 | Gratier et al. (2016) | | | |
| | 57(7) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) | | | |
| | 86(16) | L1527 | Araki et al. (2016) | | | |
| | 85(22) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| HG NAIGI3GON | 91(27) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| HC ₃ N/HC ¹³ CCN | 75(10) | TMC1 | Takano et al. (1998), Liszt & Ziurys (2012) | | | |
| | 129(10) | TMC1 | Gratier et al. (2016) | | | |
| | 59(11) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) | | | |
| | 85(17) | L1527 | Araki et al. (2016) | | | |
| | 51(7) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| | 93(28) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| HC ₃ N/HCC ¹³ CN | 55(7) | TMC1 | Takano et al. (1998), Liszt & Ziurys (2012) | | | |
| | 79(8) | TMC1 | Gratier et al. (2016) | | | |
| | 46(6) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) | | | |
| | 64(2) | L1527 | Araki et al. (2016) | | | |
| | 49(15) | L1527 | Yoshida et al. (2019) | | | |
| 10 | 79(24) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| HC ₇ N/HC ₆ ¹³ CN | 85(35) | TMC1 | Burkhardt et al. (2018) | | | |
| HC ₇ N/HC ₃ ¹³ CC ₃ N | 110(16) | TMC1 | Cordiner et al. (2017) | | | |
| | 90(33) | TMC1 | Burkhardt et al. (2018) | | | |
| HC ₇ N/HC ₄ ¹³ CC ₂ N | 96(11) | TMC1 | Cordiner et al. (2017) | | | |
| | 67(28) | TMC1 | Burkhardt et al. (2018) | | | |
| CS/ ¹³ CS | 68(5) | TMC1 | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) using $CS/C^{34}S = 22.7$ | | | |
| | 58(18) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) using $CS/C^{34}S = 22.5$ | | | |
| $H_2CS/H_2^{13}CS$ | 79(26) | TMC1 | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) using $H_2CS/H_2C^{34}S = 22.7$ | | | |
| | 113(34) | L483 | Agúndez et al. (2019) | | | |
| CCS/ ¹³ CCS | 230(130) | TMC1 | Sakai et al. (2007) | | | |
| | 54(2) | TMC1 | Sakai et al. (2007) | | | |
| CCS/C ¹³ CS | 34(2) | TIVICI | | | | |

^aMain isotopologue shows opacity.

thereby increasing the $^{12}\text{CO}/^{13}\text{CO}$ ratio (Visser, van Dishoeck and Black 2009).

In Section 2, we present the chemical model, describing the important isotopic exchange reactions and the main changes

from Roueff et al. (2015). The results of the nominal model, the various tests used to examine the effects of certain reactions and the comparison with dense molecular cloud observations and the comparison with the results from Colzi et al.

^bMain isotopologue shows very strong opacity.

(2020) are shown in Section 3. Our conclusions are presented in Section 4.

2 THE CHEMICAL MODEL

2.1 Model description

Our model is the same as in our recent studies of ¹⁵ N, ¹⁸O, and ³⁴S fractionation (Loison et al. 2018, 2019) based on the chemical model Nautilus in its 3-phase version from Ruaud, Wakelam and Hersant (2016) using kida.uva.20141 (Wakelam et al. 2015) as the basis for the reaction network. The new network is limited to carbon skeletons up to C_3H_x (x = 0-2) and $C_3H_x^+$ (x = 0-3), to limit the number of reactions when considering all the ¹⁵N and ¹³C species. Species with a carbon ¹³C and having several non-equivalent carbons (C₂H, C₂S, C₃, c-C₃H, l-C₃H, etc.) are treated as different species. We did not consider multiple fractionations (with two or more ¹³C or with one ¹³C and one ¹⁵N, ¹⁸O, ³⁴S) as they involve very minor species. We did not include either CH₃CCH or C₃H₆ because these species cannot be efficiently produced by current gas-grain models and are not strongly linked to species present in our reduced network. The low production of CH₃CCH or C₃H₆ by current gas-grain models is due to the fact that the ionic pathway via the $C_3H_3^+ + H_2$ reaction is supposed to be inefficient according to Lin et al. (2013a), and the desorption mechanisms are not efficient enough either despite the relatively large amount of CH₃CCH and C₃H₆ formed on the surface of grains (formed by successive hydrogenation reactions of s-C₃) considering the usual desorption processes. The current network includes 4096 gas-phase reactions and 5586 grain reactions. We have checked than the new network reproduces the abundances of the complete network for the main species studied here. We have also introduced the ¹⁵ N, ¹³C, ¹⁸O, and ³⁴S exchange reactions using an updated version of the network presented in Roueff et al. (2015) and Colzi et al. (2020) including various new exchange reactions, the nitrogen network being presented in our recent study (Loison et al. 2018) and the oxygen and sulphur exchange reactions in (Loison et al. 2019). The surface network is similar to the one developed by Ruaud et al. (2015) with additional updates from Wakelam et al. (2017).

The chemical composition of the gas-phase and the grain surfaces is computed as a function of time. The gas and dust temperatures are equal to 10 K, the total H₂ density is equal to 2×10^4 cm⁻³ (various runs have been performed with a total H density between 1×10^4 and 2×10^5 cm⁻³, although the density does not appear to be a critical factor for fractionation). The cosmic ray ionization rate is equal to $1.3 \times 10^{-17} \, \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ and the total visual extinction is set equal to 10. All elements are assumed to be initially in atomic form [elements with an ionization potential below the maximum energy of ambient UV photons (13.6 eV, the ionization energy of H atoms) are initially in a singly ionized state, i.e. C, S, and Fe], except for hydrogen, which is entirely molecular. The initial abundances are similar to those of table 1 of Hincelin et al. (2011), the C/O elemental ratio being equal to 0.7 in this study. The grains are considered to be spherical with a 0.1 μ m radius, a 3 g cm⁻³ density and about 10⁶ surface sites, all chemically active. The dust to gas mass ratio is set to 0.01.

2.2 Update of the chemistry (13 C exchange reactions)

In interstellar media, fractionation reactions are driven by zeropoint energy (ZPE) differences that favour one direction (reverse or forward) for barrierless exchange reactions at low temperature. Following our previous study of 18 O fractionation (Loison et al. 2019) based on Henchman and Paulson (1989), we consider for the various fractionation reactions [forward ($k_{\rm f}$) corresponds to the exothermic pathway and reverse ($k_{\rm r}$) the opposite pathway, see Table 2 for the units!:

$$k_{\rm f}(T) = \alpha \times (T/300)^{\beta} \times f(B, M)/(f(B, M) + \exp(\Delta E/kT)),$$

 $k_{\rm r}(T) = \alpha \times (T/300)^{\beta} \times \exp(\Delta E/kT)/(f(B,M) + \exp(\Delta E/kT))$ with α and β given by capture theory, f(B,M) is related to the symmetry of the system (Terzieva & Herbst 2000) and ΔE = exothermicity of the reactions (see Table 2) and T is the temperature.

We have extensively updated the exchange reactions from Roueff et al. (2015) and Colzi et al. (2020), introducing 10 new fractionation reactions. We highlight the role of the barrierless $^{13}\mathrm{C} + \mathrm{C}_3$ (number 8 of Table 2) reaction (Wakelam et al. 2009), as Colzi et al. (2020), but also of the C + $^{13}\mathrm{CCC}$ reaction (number 9 of Table 2), which play a crucial role if C_3 is present at high abundance levels (specifically in the case where C_3 is unreactive with atomic oxygen). The $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ exchange reactions are listed in Table 2 (and are cited in the text by their number in the same table). It should be noted that there are considerably more exchange reactions for $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ than for $^{14}\mathrm{N}$, $^{18}\mathrm{O}$, or $^{34}\mathrm{S}$ isotopes.

Exchange reactions are efficient only in the gas phase because the addition channel is always favoured in ice surface reactions (for example s- 13 C + s-C₂ \rightarrow s- 13 CCC only, s- meaning on grain, with no isotopic exchange). However, diffusion and tunnelling are mass dependent and are then not strictly equivalent for the various isotopologues. These differences are included in our model but have only a very small effect on 13 C fractionation.

For reactions involving C_3 , there are two possibilities to incorporate a 13 C atom in the terminal position. Then the elemental $C_3/^{13}$ CCC ratio is equal to 34 instead of 68.

For electronic dissociative recombination (DR) branching ratios, considering the large exothermicity of such processes, we always consider scrambling of the $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ distribution among the carbon skeleton. For example, the $^{13}\mathrm{CCH^+} + e^-$ and $C^{13}\mathrm{CH^+} + e^-$ DR reactions lead to equal amounts of CH and $^{13}\mathrm{CH}$.

For bimolecular reactions, we used existing theoretical calculations to deduce whether or not there was mixing of the carbon structure according to the possibilities of isomerization of the transient species. It should be noted that this possibility of scrambling does not affect the overall fractionation of the species but simply the relative fractionation of non-equivalent carbon atoms for a given species.

Among the various ¹³C exchange reactions, the reaction 5 of Table 2 has been studied previously in detail (Watson, Anicich & Huntress 1976; Liszt & Ziurys 2012). Some others have been estimated in Roueff et al. (2015) and in Colzi et al. (2020) based on the barrierless nature of radical–radical reactions. We extend this work to various new fractionation reactions, namely number 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20 of Table 2 (it should be noted that we use our own calculations for the reactions published in (Colzi et al. 2020), which leads to very small differences in the rate constant). All the reactions presented in Table 2 are likely to occur in the absence of a barrier based on their radical character, while certain processes have been studied theoretically in detail as noted in the table. Although the absence of an activation barrier is a requirement for effective isotope enrichment at interstellar temperatures, there must also be a reaction pathway that allows exchange. The possibility of exchange is obvious

¹http://kida.obs.u-bordeaux1.fr/models

Table 2. Review of isotopic exchange reactions. $k_f = \alpha \times (T/300)^\beta \times f(B, M)/(f(B, M) + \exp(\Delta E/kT))$ (left to right), $k_r = \alpha \times (T/300)^\beta \times \exp(\Delta E/kT)/(f(B, M) + \exp(\Delta E/kT))$ (right to left), α in cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, β without unit.

| Reaction | | α | β | $\Delta E\left(\mathbf{K}\right)$ | f(B, M) | Reference | |
|----------|---|---|----------------------|-----------------------------------|---------|-----------|---|
| 1 | $^{13}C^{+} + C_{2}$ | \rightarrow C ⁺ + 13 CC | 1.86e-9 | 0 | -26.4 | 2 | This work. Low uncertainty for this reaction. See |
| 2 | $^{13}C^{+} + C_{3}$ | \rightarrow C ⁺ + ¹³ CCC | 1.80e-9 | 0 | -28.0 | 2 | also Colzi et al. (2020). This work. Low uncertainty for this reaction. See |
| 3 | $C^{+} + {}^{13}CCC$ | \rightarrow C ⁺ + C ¹³ CC | 1.80e-9 | 0 | -15.0 | 1 | also Colzi et al. (2020). This work. Low uncertainty for this reaction. |
| 4 | $^{13}\text{C}^+ + \text{CN}$ | \rightarrow C ⁺ + 13 CN | 3.82e-9 | -0.4 | -31.1 | 1 | Roueff et al. (2015). Low uncertainty for this |
| 5 | $^{13}\text{C}^+ + \text{CO}$ | \rightarrow C ⁺ + 13 CO | 4.6e-10 | -0.26 | -34.8 | 1 | reaction. Watson et al. (1976) and Liszt & Ziurys (2012). |
| 6 | $^{13}C^{+} + CS$ | \rightarrow C ⁺ + ¹³ CS | 2.0e-9 | -0.26 -0.4 | -26.3 | 1 | Low uncertainty for this reaction. This work, half of the capture rate constant by |
| O | C + C5 | \rightarrow S ⁺ + 13 CC | '0' | -0.4 | +49 | 1 | comparison with $C^+ + CO$. Low uncertainty for this reaction. Colzi et al. (2020). |
| 7 | $^{13}C + C_2$ | \rightarrow C + 13 CC | 3.0e-10 | 0 | -26.4 | 2 | Roueff et al. (2015). Low uncertainty for this |
| 8 | $^{13}C + C_3$ | \rightarrow C + 13 CCC | 3.0e-10 | 0 | -28.0 | 2 | reaction. This work based on Wakelam et al. (2009). Low |
| 9 | $C + {}^{13}CCC$ | \rightarrow C + C ¹³ CC | 3.0e-10 | 0 | -15.0 | 1 | uncertainty for this reaction. Colzi et al. (2020). This work based on Wakelam et al. (2009). Low uncertainty for this reaction. |
| 10 | $^{13}C + CN$ | \rightarrow C + 13 CN | 3.0e-10 | 0 | -31.1 | 1 | Roueff et al. (2015). Low uncertainty for this |
| 11 | $^{13}C + HCN$ | \rightarrow C + H ¹³ CN | 2.0e-10 | 0 | -48.0 | 1 | reaction. This work (see Figure A1) and Loison & Hicksor (2015). Relatively low uncertainty for this reaction (see text). |
| 12 | $^{13}C + HNC$ | | 3.0e-11 6.0e-11Lo | 0 ow | -33 | 1 | This work and Loison & Hickson (2015). Relatively large uncertainty on branching ratio fo |
| 13 | $^{13}\text{C} + \text{HCNH}^+$ | $\rightarrow C + H^{13}CNH^{+}$ $\rightarrow C + H^{13}CNH^{+}$ | 1.0e-9 | 0 | -50.0 | 1 | this reaction (see text). This work (see Figure A2). Intermediate |
| 14 | $^{13}C + HC_3N$ | \rightarrow C + H ¹³ CCCN | 2.0e-11 | 0 | -48.3 | | uncertainty for this reaction (see text). The $C + HC_3N$ has been studied theoretically by |
| | C Hegri | \rightarrow C + HC ¹³ CCN | 2.0e-11 | 0 | -57.4 | | Li et al. (2006). Isotopic exchanges involve |
| | | \rightarrow C + HCC ¹³ CN | 2.0e-11 | 0 | -60.0 | | multiple intermediate and are in competition with |
| | | \rightarrow H + 13 CCCCN | 0 | | 00.0 | | back dissociation, $H + C_4N$ production (C_4N not |
| | | \rightarrow H + C ¹³ CCCN | 0 | | | | considered in the current isotopic network) and |
| | | \rightarrow H + CC ¹³ CCN | 0 | | | | $HCN + C_3$ through spin-orbit coupling. There |
| | | \rightarrow H + CCC ¹³ CN | 0 | | | | are large uncertainties for this reaction (see text) |
| | | \rightarrow HCN + 13 CCC | 2.0e-11 | | | | |
| | | \rightarrow HCN + C ¹³ CC | 1.0e-11 | | | | |
| | | \rightarrow H ¹³ CN + C ₃ | 1.0e - 11 | | | | |
| 15 | $^{13}C + CS$ | \rightarrow C + 13 CS | 2.0e-10 | 0 | -26.3 | 1 | This work (see text and Figure A3). Low uncertainty for this reaction. |
| 16 | $H + {}^{13}CCH$ | \rightarrow H + C ¹³ CH | 2.0e-10 | 0 | -8.1 | 1 | This work based on Harding et al. (2005), ΔE in |
| | | | | | | | agreement with Furuya et al. (2011). Low uncertainty for this reaction. |
| 17 | H+ c- ¹³ C <chch< td=""><td>$\rightarrow H + c \cdot C < C^{13}HCH$</td><td>2.0e-10</td><td>0</td><td>-26.0</td><td>1</td><td>This work (see text). Large uncertainties for this reaction that may show a barrier in the entrance valley. The c-¹³C<chch <sup="" carbon="" means="" notation="" that="">13C is the one without a hydrogen atom</chch></td></chch<> | $\rightarrow H + c \cdot C < C^{13}HCH$ | 2.0e-10 | 0 | -26.0 | 1 | This work (see text). Large uncertainties for this reaction that may show a barrier in the entrance valley. The c- ¹³ C <chch <sup="" carbon="" means="" notation="" that="">13C is the one without a hydrogen atom</chch> |
| 18 | $H + {}^{13}CCS$ | \rightarrow H + C ¹³ CS | 4.0e-11 | 0 | -18.0 | 1 | which are described in the Appendix (Figure A4) This work. Furuya et al. (2011) gives $\Delta E =$ |
| 19 | HCNH ⁺ + | \rightarrow H ¹³ CNH ⁺ + HCN | 2.0e-9 | -0.5 | -2.9 | 1 | -17.4 K. Low uncertainty for this reaction. This work based on Cotton, Francisco & |
| -/ | H ¹³ CN | | 2.00 | 5.5 | 2.7 | | Klemperer (2013). Low uncertainty for this reaction. |
| 20 | $HCNH^+ +$ | \rightarrow H ¹³ CNH ⁺ + HCN | 1.0e-9 | -0.5 | 0 | | This work based on Cotton, Francisco & |
| | HN ¹³ C | \rightarrow HCNH ⁺ + H ¹³ CN | 1.0e-9 | -0.5 | 0 | | Klemperer (2013). Relatively large uncertainty fo the HCN/H ¹³ CN branching ratio for this reaction |
| 21 | $^{13}CO + HCO^{+}$ | \rightarrow H ¹³ CO ⁺ + CO | 2.6e-10 | -0.4 | -17.4 | 1 | Smith & Adams (1980). Low uncertainty for this reaction. |

for some reactions such as 1, 7, or 16 it is much less obvious for some others such as 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18 and requires theoretical calculations carried out in this work and presented in Appendix or from previous work already published and referenced in Table 2.

As noted in the introduction, photodissociation of CO can play an important role in the diffuse phase prior to the formation of dense molecular clouds as ¹²CO self-shielding leads to selective photodissociation of ¹³CO and an increase in the ¹²CO/¹³CO ratio

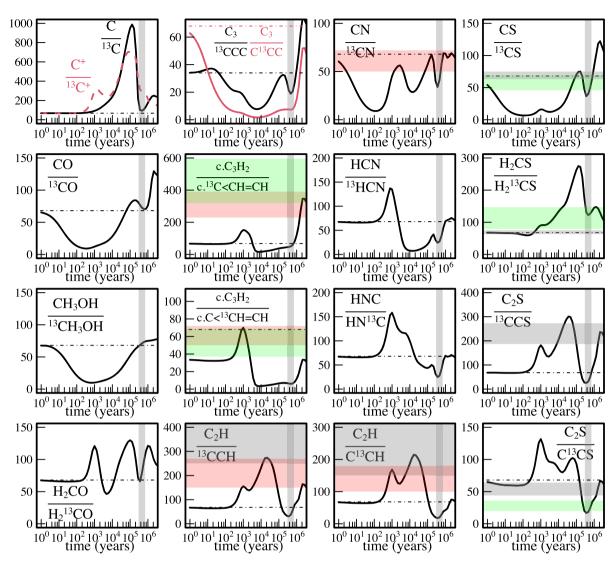


Figure 1. Gas phase species of $^{12}C/^{13}C$ ratio abundances of various species as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C₃ reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹. The dashed horizontal lines represent the 'cosmological' $^{12}C/^{13}C$ ratio equal to 68 (34 for C₃/ ^{13}CCC and c-C₃H₂/c-C¹³CHCH taking into account the statistical factor of 2 for the two equivalent carbon atoms). The observations in dense molecular clouds are reported in horizontal rectangles (including the uncertainties), in light grey for TMC-1(CP), in light red for L1527, in light blue for L1498 and in light green for L483 (see Table 1 for the references). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age for TMC-1(CP) and L483 given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species.

(Visser et al. 2009). This effect also increases the abundance of ${}^{13}C^{+}$. Even if it is not the subject of this study we looked at the influence of the initial conditions starting either from C⁺ and ¹³C⁺ only or with carbon initially present as CO with a variable ¹²CO/¹³CO ratio to simulate the fact that ¹³CO is more easily photodissociated than ¹²CO in diffuse clouds due to the self-shielding effect of ¹²CO. In the latter case, the excess of ¹³C⁺ is rapidly consumed by reaction 5 and transformed into ¹³CO. Then the abundances of the different species, including ¹³C species, are similar at the time when C⁺ is transformed into neutral C (around a few 103 yr) as long as the initial carbon is not entirely in the form of CO. So, unlike nitrogen chemistry where the preferential photodissociation of ¹⁵NN in the diffuse phase prior to the formation of dense molecular clouds may lead to an overabundance of ¹⁵ N in the gas phase of dense molecular clouds (Furuya & Aikawa 2018), the photodissociation of CO in the diffuse phase prior to the formation of dense molecular clouds does

not seem to have a large influence on carbon fractionation in dense molecular clouds even if a dedicated study should be carried out in the future.

3 RESULTS

3.1 General results on the ¹²C/¹³C ratios

The time dependence of the ¹²C/¹³C ratios given by our nominal model for various species is shown in Fig. 1.

Our model leads to high ¹³C fractionation after few 10⁴ yr for most of the species because a large part of the ¹³C is locked into ¹³CO (and species derived from CO, i.e. s-CH₃OH and s-CO₂ on grains) but also C¹³CC (C₃ reaches a large abundance, up to 10 per cent of total elemental carbon) with a minor contribution from H¹³CN. It should be noted that fractionation induced by the slight difference in

sticking rate between ¹²C-atoms and ¹³C-atoms is negligible in the case of carbon as chemical fractionation involves much larger fluxes than the difference induced by depletion. The mechanisms at work in ¹³C fractionation arise from the efficient enrichment reactions with the main carbon reservoir (CO) and the secondary reservoirs C₃ and HCN. The reactions 5, 8, and 9 are efficient at early times when the C⁺ abundance is high, and the reactions 8, 9, and 11 are important at later times. It should be noted that to be efficient. the exchange reactions should be barrierless with an exothermicity significantly above the dense molecular cloud temperature (>10 K). Additionally, as these processes need to involve large fluxes to induce important fractionation effects, they should involve species with large gas phase abundances or fast reaction rates. At early times, around 10³ yr, the reaction 5 leads to notable enrichment in CO and, as CO is already quite abundant, this leads to ¹³C depletion in the majority of other carbon containing species. For intermediate time, between 10⁴ and 10⁵ yr, the fractionation reactions lead to enrichment in C¹³CC and H¹³CN. For the longer times characteristic of dense cloud ages (between 3×10^5 and 7×10^5 yr) the fractionation reactions lead to enrichment mainly in C¹³CC. The estimation of the dense cloud ages is given by the best agreement between calculations and observations for key species given by the so-called distance of disagreement (Wakelam, Herbst & Selsis 2006), the chemical age being very likely not the same for the different molecular clouds observed, being function of the density and structure of the observed clouds, and requires a large number of observed species to be determined such as for TMC-1(CP) (or L483). The amount of ¹³C in C₃ is so large that carbon atom in the gas phase becomes highly depleted and species not linked to C₃, such as H₂CS, are depleted in ¹³C. Even CO is slightly depleted in ¹³C due to the very large enrichment of C¹³CC, but also due to the fact that at late time the C⁺ abundance is low and then the $^{13}\text{C}^+ + \text{CO}$ reaction is inefficient preventing the CO produced at late time to be enriched in ¹³C. Species whose observed ¹²C/¹³C ratio is well reproduced by the simulations are those for which fractionation is low (CO, HCO⁺, CH₃OH, H₂CO, CN, CS). The low enrichment in ¹³C for CH₃OH have already been predicted by Charnley et al. (2004) and observed few years latter towards various stars (Wirström et al. 2011). The ¹³C fractionation of methanol reflects the fractionation of CO in the gas phase, confirming that methanol is very likely formed by protonation of CO on ice. In contrast, species showing a strong depletion in ¹³C (c.C₃H₂, C₂H, ¹³CCS) are not well reproduced at all because they are linked to C₃ which is highly enriched in 13C.

For c-C₃H₂ there are two measurements, both leading to similar results. A slight depletion is observed for the asymmetric form, c- C_3H_2/c - C^{13} CHCH equal to 61 \pm 11 in TMC-1 (Yoshida et al. 2015) and 53 \pm 16 in L483 (Agúndez et al. 2019), compared with the expected value of 34 taking into account the statistical factor of 2 for the two equivalent carbon atoms c-C13CHCH and c-CCH13CH. A strong depletion is observed for the symmetric form with a ratio C_3H_2/c^{-13} CCHCH equal to 310 \pm 80 in TMC-1 and 458 \pm 138 in L483. In our simulations, we obtain, for a chemical age between $3 \times$ 10^5 and 7×10^5 yr, C_3H_2/c - $C^{13}CHCH = 7$ (instead of 61 ± 11 and 53 ± 16 observed) and $C_3H_2/c^{-13}CCHCH = 43$ (instead of 310 ± 80 and 458 ± 138 observed). Obviously, our results are not in agreement with the observed isotope ratios even if the simulated c-13CCHCH/ c-C¹³CHCH ratio itself (equal to 6 between 3×10^5 and 7×10^5 yr) is relatively close the observed ones (5.1 \pm 2.3 in TMC-1 and 10.6 \pm 4.3 in L483).

 C_2H and C_2S are also linked to C_3 although less directly than c- C_3H_2 . For both ^{13}CCH and $C^{13}CH$ as well as ^{13}CCS , the simulations lead to ^{13}C enrichment levels that are far too high when compared with observations.

Another species that is potentially directly related to C_3 is methylacetylene (CH₃CCH). In the isotope network, we did not include CH₃CCH as this species is difficult to form in the gas phase in our model. Here, the ionic pathway via $C_3H_3^+ + H_2$ is inefficient according to Lin et al. (2013a), while current desorption mechanisms do not allow enough surface formed CH₃CCH to be liberated into the gas phase despite its relatively large abundance on grains (formed from the hydrogenation of s-C₃). If we consider that CH₃CCH forms exclusively from C_3 reactions (which is not certain), we expect that the 13 C enrichment of the C_3 skeleton to be preserved in species related to C_3 . Then we will not be able to explain the observations for L483, as we should have large 13 C fractionation in the central position of the carbon skeleton (or for the mean of the three positions if there are carbon skeleton rearrangement for CH₃CCH production from C_3 species).

Consequently, it is essential to examine the role of C₃ in ¹³C fractionation. In cold molecular clouds, it is impossible to detect the C₃ molecule that possesses no dipole moment, while its abundance is too weak for its detection by direct absorption (Roueff et al. 2002). At higher temperatures, it is possible to populate excited bending vibrational levels which induce a dipole moment, therefore allowing C₃ to be detected in dense media (Cernicharo, Goicoechea & Caux 2000; Giesen et al. 2019). Very recently, ¹³CCC and C¹³CC have been detected in SgBr2(M) (Giesen et al. 2019) with an average ¹²C/¹³C ratio equal to 20 ± 4.2 , which is close to the elemental ratio for SgrB2 (SgrB2 is close to centre of the Galaxy with a lower elemental ¹²C/¹³C ratio; Milam et al. 2005). Additionally, the ¹³CCC/C¹³CC ratio was found to be equal to 1.2 ± 0.1 instead of the statistically expected value of 2, showing some ¹³C fractionation with the central position favoured. The observations were made on a warm envelope, thus with a very different chemistry where desorption from ices plays a large role and where relatively high temperatures should limit isotopic fractionation. It should be noted that in addition to C_3 (Giesen et al. 2019), the molecules CO, c-C₃H₂, and C₂H also display little or no ¹³C fractionation in SgBr2(M) (Belloche et al. 2013). Realistic chemical simulations of SgBr2(M) are complex as this region is made up of many fragments with a temperature up to 170 K in some parts, even if the region probed by C₃ detection is thought to be mainly the envelope with a colder temperature (the average temperature of the observations is estimated to 44 K). Moreover, such simulations would require a good knowledge of the history process of SgBr2(M) formation, as the history of dense core formation, prior to the warm-up phase, plays a large role in isotope fractionation if the compounds present on the grains are derived from species produced in the gas phase at low temperatures. However, despite all the uncertainties, some ¹³C enrichment is expected in C₃ for SgBr2(M).

Considering the 13 C depletion for c-C₃H₂ and C₂H, 13 CCS in various molecular clouds, and the low 13 C fractionation for CH₃CCH in L483 and C₃ in SgrB2(M), the importance of C₃ as a 13 C reservoir is questionable.

3.2 Comparison with ¹³C previous studies of Roueff et al. (2015) and Colzi et al. (2020)

In Roueff et al. (2015), the model did not consider reactions on grains and the isotopic exchange reactions 1, 2, 3, 8–20 were not included, which induces significant differences when compared with our results, especially since there were no fractionation reactions of C_3 . The model in Colzi et al. (2020) is much more similar to our model, including grain chemistry and considering some of the new fractionation reactions especially one for C_3 (reaction 8). They also consider that C_3 does not react with atomic oxygen and then C_3

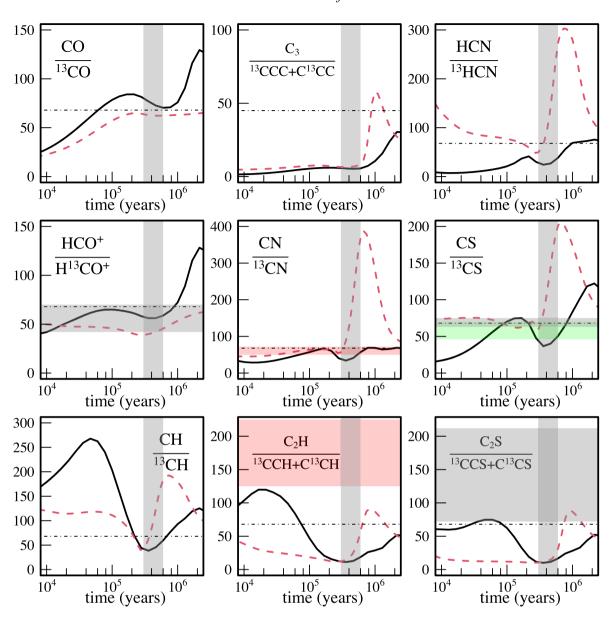


Figure 2. Gas phase species of $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$ ratio abundances of various species as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(\text{H}_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (in continuous black line) and from Colzi et al. (2020) (red dashed line). The dashed horizontal lines represent the 'cosmological' $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$ ratio equal to 68 [45 for the $C_3/(^{13}\text{CCC}+C^{13}\text{CC})$ taking into account the statistical factor of 2 for the two equivalent carbon atoms]. The observations in dense molecular clouds are reported in horizontal rectangles (including the uncertainties), in light grey for TMC-1(CP), in light red for L1527, in light blue for L1498, and in light green for L483 (see Table 1 for the references). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age for TMC-1(CP) and L483 given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species.

reached a high abundance as in our nominal model. The models are different on two major points: Colzi et al. (2020) did not take into account non-equivalent carbons and did not take into account some important fractionation reactions (reactions 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20 of Table 2). A comparison for time dependence of the $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$ ratio given by our nominal model and the one from Colzi et al. (2020) is shown in Fig. 2 for various key species (in both cases the parameters, such as density, temperature, initial conditions, etc. were identical). As in their study, Colzi et al. (2020) have considered all carbons of a given species as equivalents, they implicitly sums up all the isotopologues of the same species (for C₃, C₂H, and C₂S) and we must do the same to be able to compare the results. The

assumption that all carbons of a given species are equivalent is based on the assumption that all reactions proceed via full scrambling of carbon atoms which is not universally true, as they noted in their article, and is not coherent with the observations for C_2H , C_2S , c- C_3H_2 and HC_3N (see Table 1).

Up to few 10^5 yr, both models lead to relatively similar 13 C fractionation behaviour for CO (and HCO⁺) as well as C_3 , both being the reservoirs of 13 C. At the longest time the models diverge, C_3 not remaining a 13 C reservoir in their model unlike ours, this behaviour may be due to the fact that they did not take into account the most stable C^{13} CC isotopologue. For CN the curves are also similar for time below 2×10^5 yr, the 13 CN enrichment being due to reactions

4 and 10. For longer time, CN is mainly produced through the DR of HCNH⁺ and then the ¹³CN fraction follows the fractionation of HCN. The fact that Colzi et al. (2020) did not include the reactions of fractionation in ¹³C for HCN (our reactions 11, 12, and 13) explains the differences. This shows the importance of having a chemical network as complete as possible. This is also the case for CS for which the reaction 15, not present in Colzi et al. (2020), induces notable ¹³CS fractionation. The comparison for C₂H and C₂S is particularly complicated because, in addition to the intrinsic differences in the chemical networks, considering the two carbons as equivalent and not taking into account reactions 16 and 17 in Colzi et al. (2020) induce many biases. It can be noted, however, that both models predict a significant enrichment in ¹³C for C₂H and C₂S for typical ages of dense clouds, an enrichment that is in contradiction with observations as already noted in the previous sections. Colzi et al. (2020) did not include $C_3H_{x=1-2}$ species in their model, but since these species are very strongly chemically bound to C₃, the high enrichment of C₃ in ¹³C obtained by Colzi et al. (2020) is expected to be found in these species, as in our model, contrary to observations. Colzi et al. (2020) highlighted the potential role of C₃ as a ¹³C reservoir but did not question the results induced by the high ¹³C enrichment of C₃ as they focused on CN, HCN, and HNC, species with little chemical connection to C_3 .

3.3 Role of the $O + C_3$ reaction

As there is no doubt that the reaction 8 presents no barrier in the entrance valley (Wakelam et al. 2009) leading to efficient fractionation, the differences between the models (our nominal model as well as the one of Colzi et al. (2020)) and the observations may arise from an overestimation of the C₃ abundance in current models. Among all the different reactions that can consume C₃, the O + C₃ reaction is known to play a critical role (Hickson, Wakelam and Loison 2016b). An earlier theoretical study by Woon and Herbst (1996) found a small barrier in the entrance valley leading to a negligible rate constant at low temperature. The Woon and Herbst (1996) study forms the basis for the rate constants used in our model $(1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ at } 10 \text{ K}$, the results being the same when considering a smaller rate constant). However, we performed for this work additional calculations on the $O + C_3$ reaction, at several levels with various basis sets showing that the height of the barrier is very method and basis set dependent (presentation of these calculations is out the scope of this paper and will be presented in a future paper). Consequently, there is considerable doubt regarding the low temperature rate constants of this reaction. Interestingly, a related process, the O + propene reaction is also characterized by a small barrier in the entrance valley but with non-negligible experimental rate constants at low temperature (Sabbah et al. 2007; Zhang, Du & Feng 2007). It can be noted that a recent observational and modelling study of C₃H₆ and C₂H₃CHO in IRAS16293B (Manigand et al. 2020) shows clearly that a much better agreement between the model and the observations is obtained when C₃ reacts with oxygen atom. In order to test the effect of the $O + C_3$ reaction on our carbon fractionation model, we performed simulations where atomic oxygen is allowed to react with C₃. The results of these simulations are shown in Fig. 3, where the rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction has been set to $2 \times 10^{-12}~\text{cm}^3\,\text{molecule}^{-1}\,\text{s}^{-1}$ (dashed red lines) and 2×10^{-11} cm^3 molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue line).

When C_3 is allowed to react more rapidly with atomic oxygen, its abundance is significantly reduced as shown Fig. 4 and it is much less enriched in 13 C. Then, the compounds directly linked to C_3 , especially c- C_3 H₂, are poorly enriched in 13 C and even depleted for

one isomer. For the $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$ ratio, a much better agreement between the model and observations for most of the species in dense clouds is obtained when k(O + C₃) is set to an intermediate value of 2 × 10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹.

In this case, CO and the daughter species that derive from CO (s-CH₃OH, CH₃OH but also s-H₂CO and s-CO₂) are enriched in 13 C at times characteristic of dense cloud ages [around 3–7 \times 10⁵ yr at a density of $n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$]. However, as the main reservoir of atomic carbon, CO and all the species that derive from CO (such as those formed on grains) inherit similar weak enrichment factors in good agreement with Charnley et al. (2004) and Wirström et al. (2011). The low enrichment of CO does, however, lead to ¹³C depletion for all other species less correlated with CO. For a certain number of them, such as HCN and CS, certain fractionation reactions (13C + HCN, 13C + CS) partly compensate for the depletion effect generated by CO enrichment. However, these processes involving atomic carbon have a limited effect because carbon is mainly locked up as CO at the typical ages of dense clouds, so its abundance in the gas phase is too low to induce significant fractionation. In addition, the secondary reservoirs of carbon such as C3, HCN, and CS have a non-negligible reactivity. Indeed, protonation reactions induce a destruction of C₃, HCN, and CS because the protonated forms do not recycle back to the precursor species with 100 per cent efficiency contrary to CO. Then, as C3, HCN, and CS have a nonnegligible reactivity, they do not accumulate, in contrast to CO, and the fractionation produced between 10⁴ and 10⁵ yr does not persist at later times, except for CO.

3.3.1 HCN

The slight 13 C enrichment of HCN and HNC observed in some dense molecular clouds (Daniel et al. 2013; Magalhães et al. 2018) is relatively well reproduced by our model when C_3 reacts with oxygen atoms for short chemical ages (2×10^5 yr), such a short time being compatible with the chemical age for L1498 (Magalhães et al. 2018) and B1b (Daniel et al. 2013) given their high densities which accelerate chemistry. It should be noted that the determination of the abundance of the main isotopes ($H^{12}C^{14}N$, $H^{14}N^{12}C$) is difficult in particular due to the opacity of the lines.

3.3.2 CS

Unlike HCN and HNC, our model predicts a slight enrichment in $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ for CS due to the $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ + CS reaction. The comparison with the observations is rather confusing in this case because, depending on the measurements, CS is sometimes enriched and sometimes depleted in $^{13}\mathrm{C}$. It should be noted that the $^{12}\mathrm{C}^{32}\mathrm{S}$ lines are generally optically thick and that the double isotope method is used to determine the level of $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ fractionation assuming a $^{32}\mathrm{S}/^{34}\mathrm{S}$ ratio equal to the solar ratio. This method seems credible for CS according to Loison et al. (2019) showing a low $\mathrm{C}^{34}\mathrm{S}$ enrichment in dense clouds for non-depleted sulphur, which becomes completely negligible when sulphur is depleted, as observed in dense clouds.

$3.3.3 \ H_2CO$

 $\rm H_2CO$ is an interesting case showing variable $^{13}\rm C$ fractionation, the model being in good agreement with the observation showing a small $^{13}\rm C$ depletion for typical chemical age of dense molecular clouds. The variation in $^{13}\rm C$ fractionation is due to the fact that $\rm H_2CO$ is formed by two main pathways. Firstly, a gas phase pathway: $\rm O + \rm CH_3$, inducing

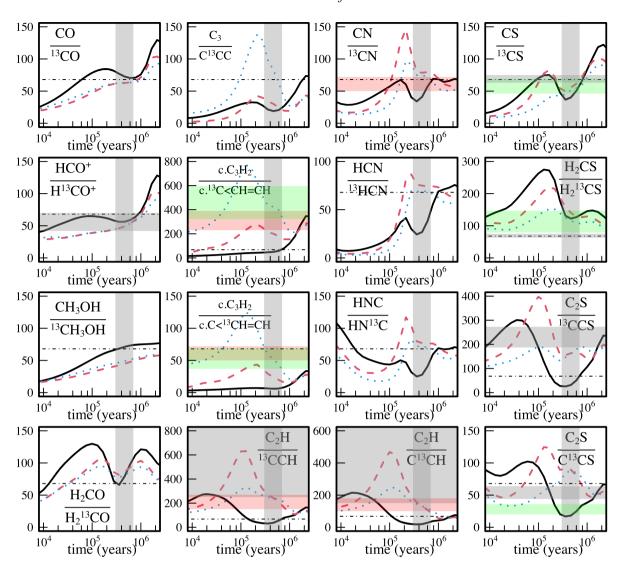


Figure 3. Gas phase species of $^{12}C/^{13}C$ ratio abundances of various species as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to 2×10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to 2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The dashed horizontal lines on the bottom plots represent the 'cosmological' $^{12}C/^{13}C$ ratio equal to 68 (c- C_3H_2/c - C_3H_2/c - $C_3C_3H_2/c$ - C_3H_2/c

¹³C depletion as CH₃ is directly derived from atomic carbon depleted by CO enrichment. Second, a grain pathway by hydrogenation of s-CO showing an enrichment similar to that of methanol.

3.3.4 H₂CS

Contrary to H_2CO , the model leads to a substantial depletion for H_2CS which is not in agreement with the observations of Liszt and Ziurys (2012) showing no depletion. The depletion given by the model is due to the fact that H_2CS is produced essentially from reactions in the gas phase from CH_4 or CH_3 , and as there are no known ^{13}C enrichment reactions for CH_4 , CH_3 , and H_2CS , it is indeed expected that H_2CS is depleted in ^{13}C due to CO enrichment. Future observations seem important to clarify this point as H_2CS may be used as a proxy for ^{13}C fractionation of CH_3 and CH_4 .

$3.3.5 C_2H$

For C_2H there are no direct fractionation reactions leading to notable ^{13}C enrichment of C_2H . Then, when C_3 is allowed to react with oxygen atoms, the chemical pathway linking C_3 to C_2H become less important and C_2H become depleted in ^{13}C that is more or less marked depending on whether they are related to partially enriched species. Overall, the depletion observed for C_2H is fairly well reproduced in the model. For C_2H , the carbon atoms are not equivalent and the observed isotope fractionation depends on the carbon position. As suggested by Sakai et al. (2007, 2010), the different fractionation for non-equivalent carbons in our network is mainly due to reactions with atomic hydrogen (reaction 16). C_2H is not correlated to CO and, since there are no fractionation reactions either for these species or its main precursors (when C_3 is allowed to react with atomic oxygen, the various pathways connecting C_3 to C_2H involve only small fluxes), C_2H then shows a global depletion

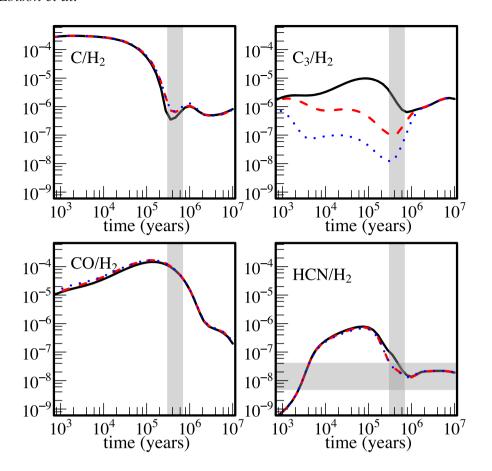


Figure 4. Gas phase C reservoirs (C, CO, C₃, HCN) as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C₃ reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to 2×10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to 2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The HCN observation in TMC-1 is reported in horizontal rectangles (including the uncertainties) (see Table 1 for the reference).

in 13 C for both isomers. The reaction 16 favours the C^{13} CH isomer, but the energy difference is too low to induce a strong effect, the ratio given by the simulations being in good agreement with the observations of Sakai et al. (2010). As shown in Fig. 5, the calculated ratio C^{13} CH/ 13 CCH is mostly independent of the rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction.

$3.3.6 C_2S$

For C_2S , as for C_2H , there are no fractionation reactions leading to notable ^{13}C fractionation of C_2S . Then, when C_3 is allowed to react with oxygen atoms, C_2S become depleted in ^{13}C , with an observed depletion for $^{13}CCS + C^{13}CS$ fairly well reproduced in the model. As for C_2H , the carbon atoms are not equivalent and the observed isotope fractionation depends on the carbon position for which the reaction 18 plays a major role, promoting the formation of the $C^{13}CS$ isomer. As the energy difference between the two isomers is notably larger than in the case of C_2H (18 K instead of 8 K) the fractionation effect is larger reaching a $C^{13}CS/^{13}CCS$ ratio equal to 4.2 ± 2.3 , in TMC-1 (Sakai et al. 2007).

The ratio given by the simulations is not in good agreement with the observations, the ratio being underestimated. It can be noted that, as shown in Fig. 6, the calculated ratio is only slightly dependent of the $O+C_3$ rate constant. One reason for the relative disagreement is due to the fact that even if the H-atom reaction favours the formation

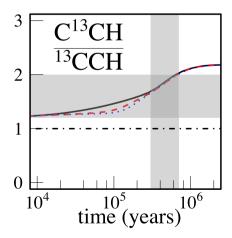


Figure 5. Gas phase $C^{13}CH/^{13}CCH$ ratio as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C_3 reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to 2×10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to 2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The observations for TMC-1(CP) is reported in horizontal light grey rectangle (see Table 1 for the reference).

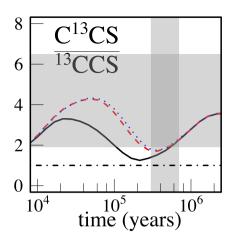


Figure 6. Gas phase $C^{13}CSJ^{13}CCS$ ratio as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C_3 reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to 2×10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to 2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The observations for TMC-1(CP) is reported in horizontal light grey rectangle (see Table 1 for the reference).

of the $C^{13}CH$ isomer, the main source of C_2S is the $S + C_2H$ reaction and as the ratio C13CH/13CCH is above 1 in our model, in agreement with observations, the S + $C^{13}CH \rightarrow {}^{13}CCS + H$ reaction has a higher flux than the S + 13 CCH \rightarrow C 13 CS + H reaction. The S + C₂H reaction is an efficient C₂S pathway production as it cannot lead to CH + CS which is endothermic. The S + 13 CCS \rightarrow C 13 CS + S reaction, proposed by Sakai et al. (2010), leads to the very exothermic CS + CS exit channel and cannot play an important role in ¹³C fractionation. However, for shorter times, around 10⁵ yr, the C¹³CS/¹³CCS is in better agreement with observations due to the $CH + CS \rightarrow H + CCS$ reaction, as CS is slightly enriched in ¹³C and CH slightly depleted. The disagreement of the simulations and the observations at typical chemical age of dense molecular clouds may be due to the overestimation of the $S + C_2H$ pathway (if the rate constant is lower than estimated) associated with the underestimation of the CH + CS one. It should be noted that our model for isotopes, as well as our full model, underestimates the C2S abundance and therefore some C₂S production routes could be missing which might lead to a different level of ¹³C fractionation.

$3.3.7 \ c-C_3H_2$

c-C₃H₂ is a more complex case. c-C₃H₂ has also non-equivalent carbons atoms (see appendix for the drawing of the two isotopologues). In our model, c-C₃H₂ is essentially produced through the DR of c-C₃H₃⁺ and l-C₃H₃⁺, both formed from C₃ (Loison et al. 2017). As we consider that the CCC skeleton is scrambled in these reactions, which is a reasonable assumption considering the very large exothermicity of these reactions, we do not expect the enrichment of the central carbon atom of C₃ to be transferred to c-C₃H₂ as an enrichment of a single carbon atom. However, the model, in fairly good agreement with the observations as shown in Fig. 7, shows a ¹³C enrichment of c-C₃H₂ for the two equivalent hydrogen bearing carbon atoms and a depletion for the other. This effect is in fact due to the reaction 17 which has a strong effect due to the large exothermicity.

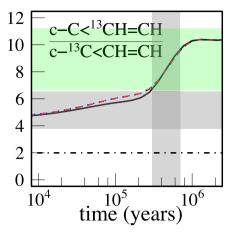


Figure 7. Gas phase c-C< C^{13} HCH/c- 13 C<CHCH ratio as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C₃ reaction equal to $1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule- $^1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (continuous black lines), equal to $2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule- $^1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (dashed red lines), and equal to $2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule- $^1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age for TMC-1(CP) and L483 given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The observations for TMC-1(CP) is reported in horizontal light grey rectangle and in light green rectangle for L483 (see Table 1 for the reference).

The c-C<C¹³HCH/c-¹³C<CHCH ratio is not dependent on the value of the rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction due to the importance of the reaction 17. However, the total abundance relative to H_2 is highly dependent on the rate of the $O + C_3$ reaction as well as the global fractionation level. As shown in Fig. 2, the global fractionation observations cannot be reproduced if the $O + C_3$ reaction rate constant is lower than a few 10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹. It is interesting to note that when C₃ reacts with oxygen atom, its abundance is much lower, as is the abundance of c-C₃H₂. The model reproduces the observed total abundance of c-C₃H₂ for relatively late molecular cloud ages only (above 6×10^5 yr for $n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^5$ 10⁴ cm⁻³ as shown in Fig. 8). For these ages, the concentration of atomic oxygen is low, with atomic oxygen being mainly depleted from the gas-phase and transformed into H₂O on grains. Thus, the consumption of $c-C_3H_2$ is low because the reaction $O + c-C_3H_2$ is the main pathway for c-C₃H₂ loss, the production of c-C₃H₂ being relatively important due to the dissociation of CO by cosmic rays and the chemistry generated by the desorption of CH₄ produced on the grains. This allows the abundance of c-C₃H₂ to reach levels similar to the observations but only for chemical ages above 6×10^5 yr.

3.3.8 HC₃N

 HC_3N has formation pathways, with some leading to HC_3N having low variable ^{13}C depletion levels for each carbon position (such as the $CN+C_2H_2$ reaction due to C_2H_2 depletion, C_2H_2 being depleted because main C_2H_2 production is issued from C^++CH reaction, both C^+ and CH being depleted in ^{13}C), while some enrich HC_3N in ^{13}C due to its connection with C_3 chemistry (through the reactions $N+C_3H_3$, $N+t-C_3H_2$, etc.). In Fig. 9, we present the results of our model (assuming some arbitrary choices as described in Section 2.2.1) and the comparison with the observations leads to a globally good agreement if C_3 is allowed to react with oxygen atoms. As for $c-C_3H_2$ and C_2H , and despite the uncertainties, the high averaged

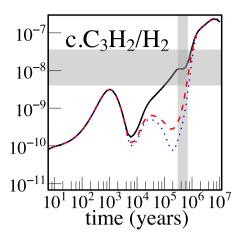


Figure 8. Gas phase c-C₃H₂ abundance relative to H₂ as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C₃ reaction equal to $1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to $2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to $2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The observation in TMC-1 is reported in horizontal rectangles (including the uncertainties) (see Table 1 for the reference).

enrichment of HC₃N to ¹³C when C₃ does not react with oxygen atoms is inconsistent with the observations.

Considering the various effects, the observations with variable fractionation around the cosmological value (68), with $\rm H^{13}CCN$ and $\rm HC^{13}CN$ slightly depleted and $\rm HCC^{13}CN$ very close to the elemental value, are consistent with the $\rm HC_3N$ formation pathways in our model but only when $\rm C_3$ reacts with atomic oxygen.

3.4 H¹³CN/HC¹⁵N, HN¹³C/H¹⁵NC, and ¹³CN/C¹⁵N

As the transitions of the main isotopologues of CN, HCN, and HNC are often optically thick, most of the observational values for the ratios HCN/HC¹⁵N, HNC/H¹⁵NC, and some for CN/C¹⁵N, are deduced from the ratios of the minor isotopologues H¹³CN/HC¹⁵N, HN¹³C/H¹⁵NC, and ¹³CN/C¹⁵N multiplied by a fixed local interstel-

lar medium ¹²C/¹³C value, usually taken to be 68 from Milam et al. (2005) and (Adande & Ziurys 2012). As suggested by Roueff et al. (2015) and shown in more detail here, carbon chemistry induces some ¹³C fractionation, leading to deviations from the elemental ratio of 6.49 (441/68) for H¹³CN/HC¹⁵N, HN¹³C/HNC¹⁵ and ¹³CN/C¹⁵N (it should be noted that the elemental ¹⁴N/¹⁵N ratio may be smaller than the usual 441 value as suggested by Romano et al. (2017), and could be as small as 330). In Fig. 10, we show the various ¹³C/¹⁵N ratios given by our model that includes also the ¹⁵N fractionation reactions (Loison et al. 2018) but neglecting any N₂ self-shielding effects of photodissociation (Furuya & Aikawa 2018; Furuya et al. 2018).

The amount of the main isotopologues for HCN, HNC and CN are almost independent of the value of the $O + C_3$ rate constant. However, ¹³C/¹⁵ N ratios are incompatible with observations in the nominal version of the model where C3 does not react with oxygen atoms. Our model leads to H¹³CN/HC¹⁵N, HN¹³C/HNC¹⁵, and ¹³CN/C¹⁵N ratios highly dependent on the cloud age due to variable ¹³C fractionation. For molecular clouds of the TMC-1 type (assumed to be best represented with a chemical age around $3-7 \times$ 10⁵ yr here), our model leads to a H¹³CN/HC¹⁵N and HN¹³C/HNC¹⁵ ratios close to 5 and a 13CN/C15N ratio close to 4. These results can be compared with the observations presented in Table 3, showing a relatively good agreement considering the uncertainties. It should be noted that the observations have been analysed with various methods (LTE, LVG) and taking or not the opacity into account. Then the comparison between individual observations and also the comparison between observations and the model have to be taken with great care. A comparison with the results of Roueff et al. (2015) is complex because the global networks are very different and the chemistry of interstellar grains and C₃ enrichment are not included in Roueff et al. (2015). Nevertheless, it is clear that there are various efficient ¹³C fractionation reactions and that the double isotope method should be used carefully to determine ¹⁵N fractionation levels. The comparison with Colzi et al. (2020) is not possible as they do not consider ¹⁵N fractionation in their model.

3.5 Grain species

As there are several ¹³C enrichment reactions for different species, particularly for CO, and there is no reverse reaction producing a surplus of ¹³C carbon atoms, the carbon atoms in the gas phase

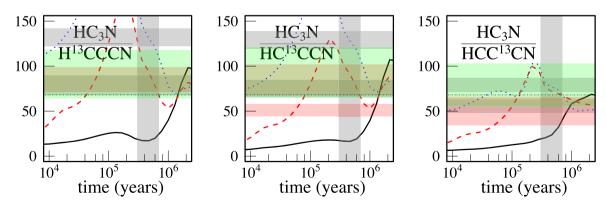


Figure 9. Gas phase $HC_3N/H^{13}CCCN$, $HC_3N/HC^{13}CCN$, and $HC_3N/HCC^{13}CN$, ratios as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to 2×10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to 2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age for TMC-1(CP) and L483 given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The observations for TMC-1(CP) is reported in horizontal light grey rectangle, in light red rectangle for L1527 and in light green rectangle for L483 (see Table 1 for the reference). For TMC-1 and L1527, different observations exists leading to different isotopic ratios.

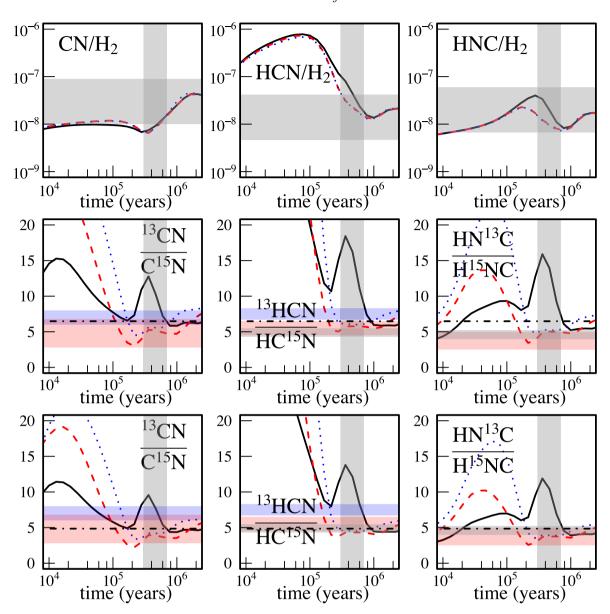


Figure 10. Gas phase species abundances (relative to H_2) of HCN, HNC, CN (top), and their $^{13}\text{C}/^{15}$ N ratio (medium and bottom, medium is for an elemental $^{13}\text{C}/^{15}$ N ratio equal to 441/68, scaled to 330/68 on the bottom plots) studied in this work as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the $O + C_3$ reaction equal to 1×10^{-14} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (continuous black lines), equal to 2×10^{-12} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dashed red lines), and equal to 2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (dotted blue lines). The vertical grey rectangles represent the values given by the most probable chemical age for TMC-1(CP) and L483 given by the better agreement between calculations and observations for key species. The observations for TMC-1(CP) is reported in horizontal light grey rectangle, in light red rectangle for L1527 and in light blue for B1 (see Table 3 for the reference). The dashed horizontal lines on the medium plots represent the 'cosmological' $^{13}C/^{15}$ N ratio equal to 441/68, scaled to 330/68 on the bottom plots.

are therefore depleted in ¹³C. Even though most of the carbon is converted to CO, and then to s-CO and its derivatives s-CH₃OH and s-CO₂, a significant part of the atomic carbon that depletes on to grains is partially converted to s-CH₄ in our model. The strong depletion of ¹³C in atomic carbon in the gas phase is thus retained in s-CH₄ as shown Fig. 11.

Over a very long period of time this depletion is compensated by the fact that s-CH $_3$ OH is partially transformed into s-CH $_4$ through photodissociation. If we consider that the composition of comets reflects the composition of the grains at the time of the formation of the protostellar disc, then this corresponds to ages around 10^6 yr where CO and methanol have similar abundances. In this case the s-

 CH_4 present on the grains is significantly depleted in $^{13}C.$ One could therefore expect the CH_4 observed in planetary atmospheres such as the one of Titan to show a similar depletion if the CH_4 present on Titan is primordial. However, the CH_4 on Titan shows a $^{12}C/^{13}C$ ratio equal to 91.1 ± 1.4 (Niemann et al. 2010) very similar to the ^{13}C species detected in the comets (Bockelée-Morvan et al. 2015) or terrestrial ratio (Wilson 1999) which seems to indicate a reprocessing of the matter between the collapse of the molecular cloud, leading to the formation of the protostellar disc, and the formation of the planets. Alternatively, this may also indicate that carbon atoms are not mainly transformed into s-CH $_4$ by reactions with the highly mobile H and H_2 species on grain surfaces, whose reactions with atomic carbon

Table 3. Observations for ¹³C/¹⁵ N ratio for CN, HCN, and HNC in dense molecular clouds.

| Species | Ratio | Cloud | References |
|---------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|--|
| ¹³ CN/C ¹⁵ N | 7.0(1.0) | L1498 | Hily-Blant et al. (2013) |
| | 7.5(1.0) | L1544 | Hily-Blant et al. (2013) |
| | 4.8(2.0) | B1 | Daniel et al. (2013), large C ¹⁵ N uncertainty |
| | 6.2(1.3) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) |
| H13CN/HC15N | 2.7(0.4) | L1521E | Ikeda, Hirota & Yamamoto (2002) (average of the 4 positions) |
| | 4.9(0.6) | TMC-1 | Ikeda, Hirota & Yamamoto (2002) |
| | 9.5(2.0) | L1498 | Ikeda, Hirota & Yamamoto (2002) |
| | 7.5(0.8) | L1498 | Magalhães et al. (2018) |
| | 5.5(1.0) | B1 | Daniel et al. (2013) |
| | 5.6(0.8) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) |
| HN ¹³ C/H ¹⁵ NC | 4.59(0.64) | TMC1(CP) | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) |
| | 7.56(1.44) | TMC1(NH ₃) | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) |
| | 4.78(1.36) | L1527 | Liszt & Ziurys (2012) |
| | 3.75(1.25) | B1 | Daniel et al. (2013) |
| | 6.0(0.8) | OMC-2 | Kahane et al. (2018) |

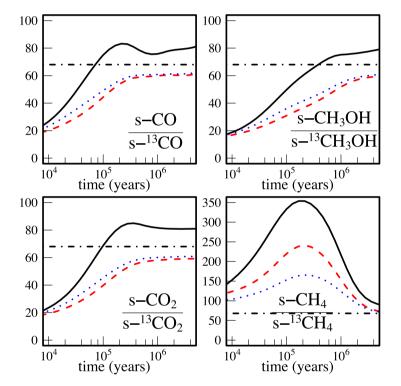


Figure 11. Gas phase species of 12 C/ 13 C ratio abundances of various species on grain as a function of time predicted by our model $[n(H_2) = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}, T = 10 \text{ K}]$ with a rate constant for the O + C₃ reaction equal to $1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule $^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (continuous black lines), equal to $2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule $^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (dashed red lines), equal to $2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule $^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (dotted blue lines). The dashed horizontal lines on the bottom plots represent the 'cosmological' 12 C/ 13 C ratio equal to 68.

are barrier free (Harding, Guadagnini & Schatz 1993; Krasnokutski et al. 2016). In the current model atomic carbon reacts primarily with water (Hickson et al. 2016a) leading to s-CH $_3$ OH rather than s-CH $_4$ but some s-CH $_4$ is produced when carbon atom stick on Ice near s-CO $_2$, s-CH $_4$, s-C $_2$ H $_6$ as we do not consider that the carbon atom will react on ice with these molecules by comparison with the gas phase reactivity.

4 CONCLUSION

Our new model presented in this study for coupled fractionation of ¹³C, ¹⁵ N, ¹⁸O, and ³⁴S represents a significant improvement

over previous models from Roueff et al. (2015) and Colzi et al. (2020). In particular, it shows the importance of using a network as complete as possible and also that the order on non-equivalent carbon atoms needs to be tracked. Our results lead to various, in some cases notable, $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ fractionation effects due to efficient carbon chemistry of CO, and of C₃ when this species is assumed not to react with atomic oxygen. Due to the importance of C₃ as a reservoir of $^{13}\mathrm{C}$, our study highlights the critical role of the O + C₃ reaction, with the $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ fractionation simulations of the nominal model which employ a low rate constant for this process, being largely incompatible with observations. Moreover, when C₃ does not react with oxygen atom, the nominal model strongly overestimates the CH₃CCH abundance

in the envelope of IRAS16293 (Andron et al. 2018), very likely because the model overestimates the C_3 abundance. Additionally, a recent observational and modelling study of C_3H_6 and C_2H_3CHO in IRAS16293B (Manigand et al. 2020) shows clearly that a much better agreement between the model and the observations is obtained when C_3 reacts with oxygen atom. On the other hand, a rapid reaction of C_3 with atomic oxygen and the non-reactivity of $C_3H_3^+$ with H_2 as shown by Lin et al. (2013b) lead to an underestimation by several orders of magnitude of the concentrations of CH_3CCH and C_3H_6 in the dense cloud (Hickson, Wakelam and Loison 2016b). An experimental study of the $O+C_3$ rate constant is clearly required to resolve this issue.

The variable ¹³C fractionation given by our model, in quite good agreement with observations in dense molecular clouds, precludes the use of a fixed ¹²C/¹³C ratio to determine accurately nitrogen fractionation using the double isotopes method.

The very low ¹³C fractionation observed in the Solar system suggests a significant transformation of matter after the dark cloud phase. Indeed, our model predicts that some molecules should show significant fractionation levels at the end of this phase such as s-CH₄ (depleted in ¹³C) and s-C₃H_x (enriched in ¹³C), levels that are not observed in comets, nor in planetary atmospheres. On the other hand, if the matter is heavily reprocessed, these species could be derived from CO and its derivatives (s-CO, s-CH₃OH, s-CO₂) showing only little fractionation since CO and its derivatives represent more than 90 per cent of the total amount of carbon. Indeed, if the atomic carbon sticking on grains reacts with other species already on the grains, mainly water (Hickson et al. 2016a) and CO, this C atoms sticking will lead to very little s-CH₄ and the CH₄ present in the grains would be derived from the photodissociation of s-CH₃OH and would thus possess the same isotopic fractionation derived from the fractionation of CO (Wirström et al. 2011).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the programme 'Physique et Chimie du Milieu Interstellaire' (PCMI) funded by CNRS and CNES. VW's researches are funded by the ERC Starting Grant (3DICE, grant agreement 336474). We would like to warmly thank Laura Colzi for sharing her results with us, which allowed a fine comparison between the models.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Data are available on request.

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APPENDIX A:

13 C + HCN and 13 C + HNC

For ¹³C + HCN and ¹³C + HNC reactions, we have extended our previous study (Loison & Hickson 2015) showing that the carbon atom exchange is possible through two different ¹³C attack pathways leading to H¹³CCN and HC¹³CN as shown in Fig. A1. Although isotope exchange involves a reaction path involving several intermediates, the low energies of the TSs involved are probably compatible with our simplified isotope exchange treatment.

In the case of 13 C + HNC, the bimolecular exit channel 13 C + HCN limits the isotope exchange (however, there is no pathway leading to C + H^{13} CN).

13 C + HCNH⁺

For the ¹³C + HCNH⁺ reaction, we have performed DFT calculations showing that carbon atom exchange is possible through two different ¹³C attack pathways leading to H¹³CCNH⁺ and HC¹³CNH⁺ as shown in Fig. A2. Since isotope exchange involves several intermediates, with TS close to the entrance energy, our simplified treatment may overestimate the rate of exchange compared to back-dissociation.

$^{13}C + HC_3N$

The 13 C + HC₃N reaction is particularly complex. This reaction has been studied theoretically by Li et al. (2006). According to this study, the additions on the different carbon atoms are barrier free

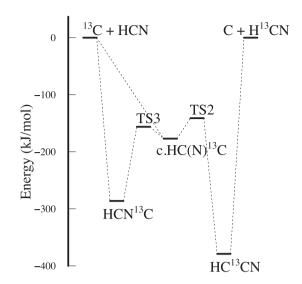


Figure A1. Partial potential energy diagram for the 13 C + HCN relevant for carbon atom exchange calculated at the M06-2X/AVTZ level including ZPE. The TS2 and TS3 correspond to the notation of our previous article (Loison & Hickson 2015).

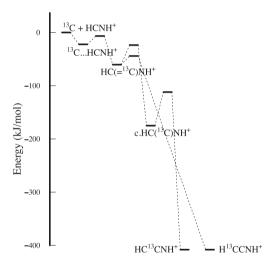


Figure A2. Partial potential energy diagram for the ¹³C + HCNH⁺ relevant for carbon atom exchange calculated at the M06-2X/AVTZ level including ZPE.

with however unknown relative proportions. As the exit channel on the triplet surface for this reaction, the H + C₄N pathway, is not very exothermic, some fractionation is expected. However, the precise mechanism for fractionation is very complex in that case as it involves C₄ skeleton rearrangements on the full surface for the various intermediates, which are produced in unknown relative proportions in the C + HC₃N reaction. In addition, spin–orbit coupling can promote the formation of HCN + C₃ that was neglected in the study by Li et al.

13 C + CS

For the 13 C + CS reaction, we performed new theoretical calculations at the M06-2X/AVTZ level using Gaussian and the RCCSD(T)-F12/AVTZ level using MOLPRO software, found no barrier in the entrance $^3\Sigma^-$ valley (linear approach) at the RCCSD(T)-F12/AVTZ

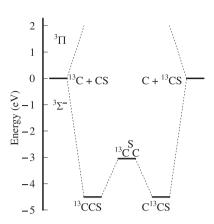


Figure A3. Potential energy diagram for the 13 C + CS reaction, calculated at the CCSD(T)/AVTZ and M06-2X/AVTZ levels.

level as shown in Fig. A3. Moreover, in contrast to CCO, the transition state from ¹³CCS towards S¹³CC is located well below the entrance level, making ¹³C exchange possible. Additionally, carbon attack on the sulphur atom of CS presents a submerged barrier which

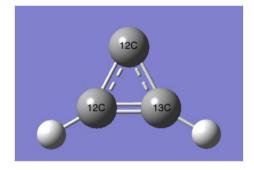
also leads to ^{13}C exchange (not shown in Fig. A3). Consequently, there is little doubt that the ^{13}C + CS reaction leads to ^{13}C exchange.

$H + c-C < ^{13}CHCH/c-^{13}C < CHCH$

For the reaction of atomic hydrogen with cyclic c- C_3H_2 (with one ^{13}C atom) reaction, we use the work of (Nguyen, Mebel & Kaiser 2001a; Nguyen et al. 2001b) showing the possibility of isomerization through H atom addition. As this mechanism is direct and as there is no bimolecular exit channel, this reaction can be an efficient way to favour c-C< ^{13}C HCH versus c- ^{13}C <CHCH. Nguyen et al. found a very small barrier at the RCCSD(T)/6-311+G//B3LYP/6-311 G level (with ZPE at B3LYP/6-311 G level) equal to 0.4 kJ mol $^{-1}$ which is much smaller than the uncertainty of the calculations (this can be estimated at around 5–10 kJ mol $^{-1}$ with this level of theory). We continued these calculations at different levels of theory and found that using a more complete base (VQZ) the barrier became slightly submerged (-3 kJ mol $^{-1}$). We therefore consider that this reaction is possible at low temperature even though the uncertainties are quite large.

$H + c-C < ^{13}CHCH/c-^{13}C < CHCH$:

c-C<13CHCH:



c-13C<CHCH:

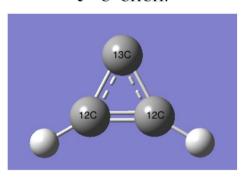


Figure A4. Drawing of the ¹³C isotopologues of c-C₃H₂.

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