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Increased $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ production in the outer disk around HD 163296

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ABSTRACT

Context. The gas and dust in circumstellar disks provide the raw materials to form planets. The study of organic molecules and their building blocks in such disks offers insight into the origin of the prebiotic environment of terrestrial planets.

Aims. We aim to determine the distribution of formaldehyde, $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$, in the disk around HD 163296 to assess the contribution of gas- and solid-phase formation routes of this simple organic molecule.

Methods. Three formaldehyde lines were observed ($\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{00}–2_{00}$, $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{22}–2_{21}$, and $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{21}–2_{20}$) in the protoplanetary disk around the Herbig Ae star HD 163296 with ALMA at $\sim0.5''$ (60 AU) spatial resolution. Different parameterizations of the $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ abundance were compared to the observed visibilities, using either a characteristic temperature, a characteristic radius or a radial power law index to describe the $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ chemistry. Similar models were applied to ALMA Science Verification data of $^{13}\text{CO}$. $\chi^2$ minimization on the visibilities was used to determine the best-fit model in each scenario.

Results. $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{00}–2_{00}$ was readily detected via imaging, while the weaker $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{22}–2_{21}$ and $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{21}–2_{20}$ lines required matched filter analysis to detect. $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ is present throughout most of the gaseous disk, extending out to $\sim350$ AU. An apparent 50 AU inner radius of the $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ emission is likely caused by an optically thick dust continuum. The $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ radial intensity profile shows a peak at $\sim100$ AU and a secondary bump at $\sim300$ AU, suggesting increased production in the outer disk. In all modeling scenarios, fits to the $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ data show an increased abundance in the outer disk. The overall best-fit $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ model shows a factor of two enhancement beyond a radius of 270±20 AU, with an inner abundance (relative to $\text{H}_2$) of $2–5 \times 10^{-12}$. The $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ emitting region has a lower limit on the kinetic temperature of $T > 20$ K. The $^{13}\text{CO}$ modeling suggests an order of magnitude depletion of $^{13}\text{CO}$ in the outer disk and an abundance of $4–12 \times 10^{-5}$ in the inner disk.

Conclusions. There is a desorption front seen in the $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ emission that roughly coincides with the outer edge of the 1.3 millimeter continuum. The increase in $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ outer disk emission could be a result of hydrogenation of $\text{CO}$ ices on dust grains that are then sublimated via thermal desorption or UV photodesorption, or more efficient gas-phase production beyond $\sim300$ AU if CO is photodesassociated in this region.

Key words. astrochemistry – protoplanetary disks – submillimeter:stars

1. Introduction

Protoplanetary disks have a layered temperature and density structure that results in a cold, dense midplane where gaseous molecules freeze out onto icy mantles around small dust grains. Chemical reactions and radiative processing of atoms and molecules locked up in ices can create complex molecules of increasing complexity (Watanabe et al. 2003; Öberg et al. 2009, 2010a; Herbst & van Dishoeck 2009). The high densities and the vertical settling of larger grains make the disk midplane an ideal site for grain growth and the formation of comets and planetesimals (Dullemond & Dominik 2005; Andrews & Williams 2005; D’Alessio et al. 2006). The cold, complex molecular reservoir may be incorporated into small icy bodies in the midplane and remain relatively unprocessed, thus comets may preserve the chemical composition of the disk at the time of their formation (van Dishoeck & Blake 1998; Mumma & Charnley 2011).

Comets and other planetesimals are possible delivery mechanisms of organics to terrestrial bodies during the early stages of the solar system, thus it is important to understand the chemistry and composition of their natal environments. Observations of molecular emission lines can determine the distribution and abundance of a molecular species and constrain its location in a protoplanetary disk. Characterizing simple organic molecules that may be produced in the disk midplane, such as $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$, can constrain available formation scenarios for complex organic molecules (COMs). $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ acts as a precursor to $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$, which is an important building block for other COMs (Öberg et al. 2009; Walsh et al. 2014). Thus, determining the dominant formation mechanism for $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ and its distribution in disks can help to constrain abundances for $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ and the complex organic reservoir.

A major formation pathway of $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ is expected to be the hydrogenation of $\text{CO}$ ices in the cold midplane of the disk (Watanabe et al. 2003; Cuppen et al. 2009). $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ also has a gas-phase formation route via neutral-neutral reactions of $\text{CH}_3$ and $\text{O}$ at higher ($\geq200$ K) temperatures (Fockenberg & Press 2002; Atkinson et al. 2006). Formaldehyde has already been detected toward several protoplanetary disks (Aikawa et al. 2003; Öberg et al. 2010b; Qi et al. 2013; van der Marel et al. 2014; Loomis et al. 2015, Öberg et al. in press), but it is difficult to determine the contribution of $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ formed in the gas phase versus that formed via surface reactions. It is important to consider the distribution of $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ in relation to the freeze-out of $\text{CO}$, i.e. the CO snow line. $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$ that exists well beyond the CO snow line is likely formed on the icy mantles of dust grains while $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$
located within the CO snow line forms via gas-phase pathways at higher temperatures. Qi et al. (2013) attempted to reproduce Submillimeter Array (SMA) observations of H$_2$CO around TW Hya and HD 163296 with two simple parameterized models: a power-law H$_2$CO column density with an inner radius and a ring-like H$_2$CO distribution with an upper boundary set by the CO freeze-out temperature. They found that both models indicated H$_2$CO is produced mostly at larger radii beyond the CO snow line in the disk around HD 163296, consistent with a scenario where formaldehyde forms in CO ice and is subsequently released back into the gas phase. Loomis et al. (2015) modeled H$_2$CO in DM Tau observed with the Atacama Large Millimeter/submillimeter Array (ALMA) using a small chemical network with and without grain-surface formation. They found that both gas- and solid-phase production of H$_2$CO were needed to reproduce the centrally peaked emission and the emission exterior to the CO snow line in DM Tau.

HD 163296 (MWC 275) is an ideal testbed for chemical processing in protoplanetary disks, in particular for organics. It is an isolated Herbig Ae protostar with spectral type A2Ve, an age of approximately 5 Myr, located at 122 pc (de Gregorio-Monsalvo et al. 2013). The protostar is surrounded by a large gas-rich protoplanetary disk that extends to ∼550 AU (Isella et al. 2007) with stellar mass $M_*$ = 2.3 $M_\odot$, disk mass $M_{disk}$ = 0.089 $M_\odot$, and an inclination of 44° based on the Qi et al. (2011) physical model. At such an inclination, vertical structure as well as radial structure can be inferred from molecular line emission. The proximity and size of the disk combined with the strong UV field of the Herbig Ae protostar provides a unique opportunity to fully resolve the location of the CO snow line around HD 163296. Several attempts have already been made to constrain the location of the CO snow line in this disk (Qi et al. 2011; Mathews et al. 2013; Qi et al. 2015). Current estimates by Qi et al. (2015) place CO freeze-out at 90 AU, corresponding to ∼24 K in this disk. HD 163296 is one of the best candidates to probe the formation of organics with respect to the freeze-out of abundant volatiles like CO. Observations of H$_2$CO in combination with tracers of the CO snow line, such as the optically thin C$^{18}$O isotopologue, DCO$^+$, or NH$_3$, provide insight into the formation of organic molecules in Herbig Ae/Be disks.

This paper presents ALMA observations of H$_2$CO toward HD 163296 and characterizes its distribution throughout the disk. Our analysis also makes use of C$^{18}$O Science Verification data, which has been previously reported (Rosenfeld et al. 2013; Qi et al. 2015). Section 2 describes the observations and data reduction. The detection of H$_2$CO, the modeling of H$_2$CO and C$^{18}$O distributions and abundances, and the calculation of excitation temperatures for H$_2$CO are discussed in Section 3. In Section 4 we discuss the relationship between H$_2$CO, C$^{18}$O, and the millimeter continuum, and the implications for H$_2$CO formation.
2. Observations and Reduction

HD 163296 (J2000: R.A. = 17h56m21.280s, DEC = −21°57′22.441″) was observed on 2014 July 27, 28, and 29 with ALMA in band 6 as part of Cycle 2. In total 33 antennas were used in the C34 configuration to achieve a resolution of ∼0.4″. Band 6 operates in the 211–275 GHz range as a 2SB receiver. The upper sideband contained continuum observations in the Time Domain Mode (TDM) correlator setting with 128 channels over a 2 GHz bandwidth centered at 233 GHz, presented in Zhang et al. (2016). Three transitions of H$_2$CO were observed in the lower sideband with the Frequency Domain Mode (FDM) correlator setting: H$_2$CO $3\text{_0}$–$2\text{_0}$ at 218.22219 GHz, H$_2$CO $3\text{_2}$–$2\text{_2}$ at 218.475632 GHz, and H$_2$CO $3\text{_2}$–$2\text{_0}$ at 218.760066 GHz. Each line had a bandwidth of 56.6 MHz with 960 channels, providing a frequency (velocity) resolution of 0.061 MHz (0.084 km s$^{-1}$). Table 1 summarizes the observational parameters of each line. Three additional lines, DCO$^+$ 2–3 at 216.11258 GHz, DCN 3–2 at 217.23853 GHz, and N$_2$D$^+$ 3–2 at 231.321828 GHz were also observed with the same spectral parameters and will be presented in Salinas et al. (in prep).

Visibility data were obtained over four execution blocks of ~30 minutes (x1) and ~90 minutes (x3) at 6.05 seconds per integration for 155 minutes total time on source. System temperatures varied from 50–150 K. The average precipitable water vapor across all observations was 1.0 mm. The Common Astronomy Software Applications (casa) package was used to calibrate the data with an automated script provided by the ALMA staff. Calibration of each execution block was done with J1700-2610 as the delay calibrator, J1733-1304 as the bandpass and gain calibrator, J1733-1304 as the flux calibrator for three out of four blocks, and Titan as the flux calibrator for the final block. After initial calibration of individual execution blocks, gain calibration solutions obtained from models of Titan were used to derive fluxes for J1733-1304, which was then used as the flux calibrator in all spectral windows and all execution blocks for consistency. Amplitudes for HD 163296 were rescaled across all blocks using J1733-1304 as the flux calibrator. The average flux values for J1733-1304 were 1.329 Jy in the lower sideband and 1.255 Jy in the upper sideband. The total flux for HD 163296 was found to be within 5% across all execution blocks. All measurement sets were subsequently concatenated and time binned to 30s integration time per visibility for imaging and analysis.

Self-calibration for HD 163296 was performed using the continuum TDM spectral window and all line-free channels of the FDM spectral windows. DV11 was chosen as the reference antenna. A minimum of four baselines per antenna and a minimum signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of two were required. Calibration solutions were calculated twice for phase and once for amplitude. The first phase solution interval (solint) was 500s, the second phase and amplitude solutions had solint equal to the binned integration time (30s). Continuum subtraction of the line data was done in the $uv$ plane using a single-order polynomial fit to the line-free channels. CLEAN imaging was done with natural weighting for each continuum-subtracted H$_2$CO line down to a threshold of 4 mJy.

This work also uses C$^{18}$O 2–1 calibrated data of HD 163296 from the ALMA project 2011.0.00010.SV obtained from the publicly available ALMA Science Verification Data website. See Rosenfeld et al. (2013) for details on the calibration of the data set. The flux for the C$^{18}$O 2–1 line (Table 1) is consistent with previously reported values (Rosenfeld et al. 2013; Qi et al. 2015). The following software and coding languages were used for data analysis in this paper: the casa package (McMullin et al. 2007), the miriad package (Sault et al. 1995), and python.

3. Results

The following sections present results of H$_2$CO observations in the disk around HD 163296. Physical parameters of the lines and their distribution throughout the disk are discussed in Section 3.1. Models of H$_2$CO and C$^{18}$O emission and their abundances are presented in Section 3.2. Constraints on the excitation temperature of H$_2$CO are discussed in Section 3.3.

3.1. Detection and distribution of H$_2$CO

The spatially integrated spectrum for each H$_2$CO line can be found in Figure 1. The $3\text{_{03}}$–$2\text{_{02}}$ transition is readily detected in the spectrum extracted from CLEAN imaging. The two weaker lines are not detected in the extracted spectra, but when applying a matched-filter technique (see Sec 3.1.1), the lines are clearly detected and can be used to provide constraints on the H$_2$CO ex-
HD 163296 has a $V_{\text{LSR}}$ systemic velocity of $+5.8$ km s$^{-1}$ (Qi et al. 2011), which corresponds well to the central velocity of the H$_2$CO 3$_{03}$–2$_{02}$ line. The H$_2$CO 3$_{03}$–2$_{02}$ line flux was derived after masking pixels with $<3\sigma$ emission in the image cube. The cube was then integrated spatially over a $7''$ radius and over velocity channels 0.76 – 10.84 km s$^{-1}$. Lower limits on H$_2$CO 3$_{22}$–2$_{21}$ and H$_2$CO 3$_{21}$–2$_{20}$ line fluxes are from estimates via the matched-filter method. Upper limits on the lines are based on spectra from the CLEAN images of H$_2$CO 3$_{22}$–2$_{21}$ and H$_2$CO 3$_{21}$–2$_{20}$ and are given at the $3\sigma_1$ level, where $\sigma_1 = 0.5 \sqrt{\pi \ln(2)/\Delta v \sigma_{\text{rms}}}$ estimates the area of a Gaussian curve, $\Delta v$ is the FWHM of the detected H$_2$CO 3$_{03}$–2$_{02}$, and $\sigma_{\text{rms}}$ is the rms noise in Jy from the disk-integrated spectra.

Fig. 2: Moment maps and radial profile of H$_2$CO 3$_{03}$–2$_{02}$. (Left) Moment 1 map from 0.76 – 10.84 km s$^{-1}$, clipped at $3\sigma$. Solid black contours show the 225 GHz/1.3 mm emission at $5.0 \times 10^{-5} (1\sigma) \times [5, 10, 25, 50, 100, 300, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000]$ Jy beam$^{-1}$. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower corners. (Center) Moment 0 map integrated over 0.76 – 10.84 km s$^{-1}$ after applying a Keplerian mask. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower corners. (Right) Radial intensity curve from azimuthally-averaged elliptical annuli projected to $i=44^\circ$, P.A.=133$^\circ$. Shaded gray area represents $1\sigma$ errors.

Fig. 3: Channel maps of H$_2$CO 3$_{03}$–2$_{02}$ from 2.44–8.82 km s$^{-1}$, Hanning smoothed to 0.336 km s$^{-1}$ channels. Channel velocity is shown in the upper-right corner. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower-left panel.
The H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ image has a 0.54′′ × 0.42′′ [66 × 51 AU] synthesized beam (P.A. = 86.5°). Figure 2 shows a velocity-weighted (first-order moment) map of H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ from 0.76 – 10.84 km s$^{-1}$, clipped at the 3σ level, which reveals the full extent of the H$_2$CO emission in Keplerian rotation, while Figure 3 shows the channel maps of H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ around HD 163296. Hanning smoothed to a resolution of 0.336 km s$^{-1}$ over velocities where molecular emission is present. The inner and outer projected radii (i = 44.0°, P.A. = 133° East of North) of H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ emission at the 3σ level along the major axis are 0.4′′ and 4.5′′, respectively, corresponding to projected physical distances $R_{\text{in}} = 50$ AU and $R_{\text{out}} = 550$ AU at a distance of 122 pc (van den Ancker et al. 1998).

The extent of H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ was found to be greater than that of the 1.3 mm continuum (shown in black contours in Figure 2), suggesting that millimeter-sized grains have decoupled from the gas and drifted radially inward. de Gregorio-Monsalvo et al. (2013) observed the same phenomenon in $^{12}$CO and the 850 μm continuum. The 1.3 mm continuum has a projected outer radius at 3σ of 2.2′′, or $R_{\text{out}}^{\text{3mm}} = 270$ AU. The 1.3 mm emission extends beyond the 850 μm continuum reported by de Gregorio-Monsalvo et al. (2013) due to the increased sensitivity of our observations. Zhang et al. (2016) reported that analysis of the 1.3 millimeter continuum visibilities in this data set suggests a ring-like structure not seen in imaging at this resolution. The ring-like nature of the millimeter dust was confirmed by high-resolution observations after the original submission of our paper (Isella et al. 2016). They explained the dust morphology as three distinct dust gaps centered at 60, 100, and 160 AU.

To calculate the H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ radial intensity profile, an integrated intensity (zero-order moment) map was first created by applying a mask in right ascension, declination, and velocity to the image cube to enhance the signal-to-noise. The mask is calculated based on the disk rotational velocity profile, which is assumed to the image cube to enhance the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) in an attempt to detect the presence of the template emission within the low SNR data set. The cross-correlation is done by sliding the template visibilities channel-by-channel across the velocity axis of the low SNR visibilities. When the template reaches the source velocity in the low SNR data, there will be a sharp peak in the filter response spectrum of the correlation if the template signal is detected within the low SNR visibilities. This is analogous to image-based stacking approaches (e.g. Yen et al. 2016), but retains the advantages of working in the $uv$ plane. In this work, to obtain a data-based template for the matched filter method, the H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ line was re-imaged with CLEAN in 0.084 km s$^{-1}$ velocity channels using a $uv$ taper to achieve a 1′′ beam. Image channels showing H$_2$CO emission (1.6–10 km s$^{-1}$) were sampled in the $uv$ plane using the PYTHON vis_sample$^2$ routine, and the resulting visibilities were then used as the template signal.

Figure 4 shows the filter impulse responses of the three H$_2$CO visibility data sets to the H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ template. The black curve is the response of the H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ visibility data to the template, highlighting the effectiveness of the filter to recover the line detection. The inset reveals the 4.5σ and 5σ detections of H$_2$CO 3$_2$–2$_1$ and H$_2$CO 3$_1$–2$_0$, respectively, where σ is

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$^2$ vis_sample is publicly available at https://github.com/AstroChem/vis_sample or in the Anaconda Cloud at https://anaconda.org/rloomis/vis_sample

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![Fig. 4: Matched filter responses of the observed H$_2$CO lines to the H$_2$CO 3$_0$–2$_0$ data-based template. Self-response (black) shows template recovery of the 3$_0$–2$_0$ detection. Inset: H$_2$CO 3$_2$–2$_1$ (red) and H$_2$CO 3$_1$–2$_0$ (blue) are detected at the 4.5σ and 5σ level, respectively.](image-url)
calculated as the standard deviation of the response of emission-free visibility channels to the template. To constrain the total flux of the weaker lines, we compare the ratio of their peak filter responses and the peak response of the \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) visibilities (90\,\text{\AA}, Figure 4). Under the assumption that all three observed \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) lines are co-spatial, the \( \sigma\)-ratio can be used to estimate the weaker line fluxes reported in Table 1. The response of the template is limited by how well it spatially matches the emission, thus making the derived line fluxes lower limits.

### 3.2. Modeling \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) emission

Previous studies (Qi et al. 2011; Rosenfeld et al. 2013; Qi et al. 2015) have attempted to use CO isotopologues to determine the radial location of CO freeze-out in HD 163296. Qi et al. (2011) modeled the \( ^{13}\text{CO}\) isotope and found a distinct drop in abundance at \( \sim 155 \) \,AU, which they attributed to CO freeze-out. However, in Qi et al. (2015) they claim \( ^{13}\text{CO}\) is a less robust tracer as it is difficult to separate CO freeze-out from opacity effects. \( ^{13}\text{CO}\) may remain optically thick out to radii beyond 100 AU. Thus, the apparent depletion may be due to a decrease in optical depth rather than an actual drop in abundance. They use \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) as a more robust, optically thin tracer of the column density of CO throughout the disk. Following this reasoning, we model only the \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O}\) isotope to reveal structure in the CO gas. Although the \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) Science Verification data has been previously reported (Rosenfeld et al. 2013; Qi et al. 2015), we reanalyze the data in an effort to provide a ground truth for the CO surface density — particularly for the outer disk — within the same modeling approach as used for \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) and within the limits of the data resolution and our disk model.

The aims of modeling \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) are to determine likely formation scenarios for \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) and any relation to the CO snow line. If \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) is abundant in regions close to or below the CO freeze-out temperature, grain surface formation of \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) on CO ices will contribute. If \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) is abundant only at high temperatures zones of the disk, then gas-phase production of \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) dominates. By varying the relative molecular abundances in different regions of the models and comparing the model distribution to the data, we can determine which parts of the disk are harboring reservoirs of \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\).

This section describes the models used to reproduce the observed \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1 emission based on the HD 163296 disk model created by Qi et al. (2011). In their paper they constrain the radial and vertical density and temperature structure of a steady viscous accretion disk with an exponentially-tapered edge. Fitting the model continuum at multiple wavelengths to the observed SED constrained the radial structure. Observations of multiple optically thick \( ^{13}\text{CO} \) transitions were used to constrain the vertical structure. A modified version of this physical model was used by Mathews et al. (2013) to determine the distribution of DCO+ in HD 163296. To constrain the vertical structure of the dust in our physical model, Mathews et al. (2013) refit the SED by varying independently the dust scale heights of Gaussian distributions of small (\( \sigma_{\text{max}} = 25 \) \,\mu m) and large (\( \sigma_{\text{max}} = 1 \) mm) populations of dust grains. Similarly, the vertical gas density distribution is treated as a two-component model with independent scale heights to simulate a Gaussian distribution at low heights with an extended tail higher in the disk. The gas scale heights are varied to recover the CO fluxes reported in Qi et al. (2011). Given these dust and gas distributions and assuming the dust continuum to be optically thin, the gas surface density of both \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) should be robustly measured in our models.

In this work, the Mathews et al. (2013) model was used as the physical disk structure for simulating molecular emission using the Line Modeling Engine (LIME, Brinch & Hogerheijde 2010) 3D radiative transfer code. Synthesized data cubes were created with LIME for \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1 in non-LTE with \( \text{H}_2\) as the primary collision partner. Both ortho- and para-\( \text{H}_2\) species were included in collisional excitation, with a temperature-dependent ortho- to para- ratio (OPR) such that OPR = 3 at temperatures \( \geq 200 \) K and decreases exponentially at lower temperatures. Molecular collision rates were taken from the Leiden Atomic and Molecular Database (LAMDA, Schoeier et al. 2005). The disk inclination, position angle, and distance are set to \( i = 44.0^\circ\), P.A. = 133.0\(^\circ\), and \( d = 122 \) pc.

Four types of models are used to test the distribution of observed \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) with different fractional abundance profiles relative to \( \text{H}_2\) Figure 5 depicts examples of each of these scenarios with the relevant disk regions. Three of these models are set for \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1. The first model assumes a constant abundance constrained to low temperatures where \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) formation on the surface of icy grains is favorable (Section 3.2.1). The low-temperature model is not used for \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1. In the second model, \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1 have a power-law abundance profile (Section 3.2.2). The third model has a temperature-based step-abundance profile with a constant inner (high-temp) and outer (low-temp) abundance and a change-over temperature \( T_c \) as the boundary (Section 3.2.3). The final model has a radial step-abundance profile with a constant inner abundance, constant outer abundance, and change-over radius \( R_c \) (Section 3.2.4).

Analysis of the models makes use of the \text{vis}\_\text{sample} routine to read the \( \nu \) coordinates directly from an observed ALMA measurement set and create synthetic visibilities based on an input sky model.

A central hole is observed in the \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) data, as seen in Figure 2, with a size approximately equal to the width of the beam. This hole is likely a result of strong absorption by an optically thick dust continuum (see also Section 4.2). Beyond 50 AU, the optical depth radial profile for the LIME model continuum is found to be optically thin with \( \tau < 0.6 \), which ensures that features in the gas radial profile outside of 50 AU are not caused by dust opacity effects. The inner region (<50 AU) cannot be properly modeled here due to the low resolution of the observations, which do not allow for proper description of any dust substructure. The modeling of Zhang et al. (2016) and new high-resolution observations by Isella et al. (2016) show significant substructure in the dust and a large increase in optical depth in the inner 50 AU. Such substructure is unlikely to be accurately described in our models, thus we ignore radii <50 AU. The central hole is therefore treated as an \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) abundance inner radius in the modeling.

All \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) models have an inner radius set to \( R_{\text{in}} = 50 \) AU. \( R_{\text{in}} \) was constrained for \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) by varying the inner radius of a constant abundance model to determine the best fit to the inner 150 AU of the radial intensity curve. Thereafter, \( R_{\text{in}} \) remains a fixed parameter in the models. \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1 models have no such inner radius as the emission is centrally peaked.

Each LIME model was continuum-subtracted before running \text{vis}\_\text{sample}. We first tested \( \text{H}_2\text{CO}\) \(3_{03}-2_{02}\) and \( \text{C}^{18}\text{O} \) 2–1 models normalized to the total flux of the data in order to find the best-fit to the spatial distribution of each line, then we varied the abundance of the best-fit normalized model to match the absolute flux of the data. To determine the total flux, we took a vector average of visibilities with baselines <30 m and integrated over all channels containing emission. The model was then scaled to match the total flux of the data. Goodness of fit for each model
was determined by $\chi^2$ minimization between the normalized visibilities of the model and the visibilities of the data. Initial reference abundances were chosen for the normalized models to ensure optically thin line emission. The H$_2$CO reference abundance was set to $X = 1.0 \times 10^{-12}$. C$^{18}$O models used a reference abundance of $X = 1.0 \times 10^{-7}$. All normalized models remained optically thin with $r < 1$; there was no significant increase in the optical depth profile of the models for the parameter space explored here. The best-fit normalized model for each line was then used to vary the molecular abundances to find the best agreement between the absolute flux of the model and of the data using $\chi^2$ minimization on the visibilities.

### 3.2.1. Low-temperature abundance model

The low-temperature model simulated H$_2$CO emission that is present due to grain-surface chemistry in regions below the expected CO freeze-out temperature and subsequent non-thermal desorption from icy grains. The models used a constant fractional abundance relative to H$_2$, constrained by a threshold temperature. Above the threshold temperature the H$_2$CO abundance was set to zero everywhere. Based on estimates of CO freeze-out temperatures from Qi et al. (2015), model threshold temperatures range from 14–50 K in steps of 2 K. Below the threshold temperature, gas-phase H$_2$CO is present. It is assumed that there is a mechanism to stimulate sufficient desorption of H$_2$CO from the icy grains, such as UV or X-ray photoionization, or cosmic rays penetrating the disk midplane.

The best fit for the normalized low-temperature model for H$_2$CO has a threshold temperature of 24±2 K, corresponding to a midplane radius of 65±15 AU. Seen in Figure 6, the model radial intensity curve fails to recover the sharp decrease in emission between 100–200 AU and the turnover and secondary bump beyond ~200 AU. It is clear that a scenario in which H$_2$CO originates entirely beyond the CO freeze-out temperature is not a good representation of the distribution seen in the observations. There must be H$_2$CO present in other parts of the disk.

### 3.2.2. Power-law abundance model

In these models a varying abundance profile was considered for both H$_2$CO and C$^{18}$O, following a power-law distribution,

$$X = X_{100AU} \left( \frac{R}{100 \text{ AU}} \right)^p,$$

where $X_{100AU}$ is the abundance at 100 AU, $R$ is the disk radius, and $p$ is the power-law index. C$^{18}$O is present throughout the disk. H$_2$CO has an inner radius $R_{in} = 50$ AU, which was used in all subsequent H$_2$CO modeling.

The best-fit power-law H$_2$CO model has $p = 0.5$, with the abundance increasing with radii. The best-fit value found here is more gradual than the $p = 2$ power positive power law slope found by Qi et al. (2013), but both suggest that there is increased H$_2$CO production occurring in the outer disk. However, the $p = 0.5$ model does not provide the overall normalized best fit to the H$_2$CO $3_{03-2_{02}}$ data presented here, as seen in Figure 6. The best-fit C$^{18}$O model had $p = -2$, suggesting C$^{18}$O is centrally peaked, but with a decreasing abundance in the outer regions of the disk. The model radial intensity curve under-produces emission beyond 200 AU and overproduces emission inside of 200 AU.

The simple power-law model does not capture the distribution seen in either H$_2$CO or C$^{18}$O. The failure of the H$_2$CO model to recover the shape of the radial intensity profile suggests that there are changes in the distribution of emission not.

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**Table 2: Best-Fit Normalized Models**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abundance Model</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$T_c$ [K]</th>
<th>$R_{in}$ [AU]</th>
<th>$R_{out}$ [AU]</th>
<th>$X_1/X_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low-temperature</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>24±2</td>
<td>65±15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power-law</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature step</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16±2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>230±60</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radial step</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15±1$^*$</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>270±20</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes.** $\chi^2$ values are reduced by the number of points and free parameters in each model. $^a$ Fixed parameter. $^b$ Indicates the corresponding midplane value to the best-fit model parameter based on the density and temperature structure of the Mathews et al. (2013) physical model.
The low-temperature model (dot-dashed cyan), the power-law model (dotted blue), the temperature step-abundance model (dashed red), and the radial step abundance model (solid gold) show the radial distribution and spectra. (Left) Radial intensity curves of the best-fit normalized models obtained from azimuthally-averaged elliptical annuli projected to $i=44^\circ$, P.A.=133$^\circ$. The shaded grey region represents 1$\sigma$ error bars. H$_2$CO profiles are taken from integrated intensity maps after applying a Keplerian mask. (Right) Disk-integrated spectra of the best-fit normalized models obtained from a 5.6$''$ circular aperture. H$_2$CO spectra are Hanning smoothed to 0.336 km s$^{-1}$ channels. Parameters for each model can be found in Table 2.

3.2.3. Temperature step-abundance model

Two-phase abundance models with a change-over temperature that distinguishes between the warm and cold regions of the disk were created to test H$_2$CO formed in the gas phase and H$_2$CO originating from icy grains, respectively. We assume that the change-over temperature represents the boundary below which H$_2$CO should form via hydrogenation of CO ice. The temperature step-abundance model for C$^{18}$O reflects the freeze out of CO, both radially and vertically, since there also is a vertical temperature gradient. While in these models we parameterize the C$^{18}$O abundance with a change-over temperature, it is important to remember that this results in a radial column density profile that decreases gradually and extends well beyond the midplane CO snow line. Given our limited angular resolution, our data primarily samples the radial extent of the disk surface layer where C$^{18}$O is present in the gas phase. Although we parameterize this with a temperature, we caution against the simplistic interpretation as an evaporation temperature, since its value depends on how well we know the vertical temperature structure and because our data do not resolve the location of the midplane CO snow line.

The change-over temperature $T_c$ was tested in the range 12 – 36 K in steps of 2 K. The abundance ratio between the inner and outer regions varies to cover the range $X_1/X_2$ from 0.001 – 10 (0.1 – 1000 for C$^{18}$O). The best-fit H$_2$CO model has a change-over temperature $T_c = 16 \pm 2$ K and an abundance ratio $X_1/X_2 = 0.5$, indicating a factor of 2 enhancement of H$_2$CO in the outer regions, but the model does not reproduce emission beyond 200 AU well (Figure 6). C$^{18}$O is best fit by a change-over temperature $T_c = 32 \pm 2$ K with an order of magnitude reduction ($X_1/X_2 = 10$) in the outer regions. The temperature step-abundance model provides an improved normalized fit to the C$^{18}$O observational data over models 1 & 2 and is consistent with CO depletion in the cold, outer disk.

As explained above, we do not claim that $T_c$ is the evaporation temperature of CO, but rather that the value of $T_c$ results
3.2.4. Radial step-abundance model

In these models, molecular gas abundance is constant throughout the vertical extent of the disk with different abundance values in the inner and outer regions across the change-over radius. The outer abundance was varied such that \(X_1/X_2 = 0.1 - 10\) for H\(_2\)CO and 0.1 - 1000 for C\(^{18}\)O. The change-over radius \(R_c\) ranged from 210 - 410 AU for H\(_2\)CO and 70 - 350 for C\(^{18}\)O in steps of 20 AU.

The radial step-abundance model reproduces the turnover seen in the radial intensity of the H\(_2\)CO emission better than the first three models. Best-fit parameters are a change-over radius \(R_c = 270\pm20\) AU and an abundance ratio \(X_1/X_2 = 0.5\). The radial step-abundance model gives a radial intensity profile that has a steep drop between \(-100\)-200 AU and a sharp turnover and plateau beyond \(-200\) AU. Best-fit C\(^{18}\)O models have \(R_c = 290\pm20\) AU and \(X_1/X_2 = 10\), indicating a factor of ten depletion of CO in the outer disk beyond the edge of the millimeter grains. This abundance scenario also provides a better normalized fit than models 1 & 2, and reproduces the distribution of C\(^{18}\)O as well as model 3.

In this model the H\(_2\)CO bump in the radial intensity curve is well-captured due to the sharp change in abundance across the change-over radius. The radial step-abundance model provides the right amount of H\(_2\)CO production in the inner and outer regions, likely a combination of gas-phase and grain-surface formation. Penetrating UV photons could photodesorb H\(_2\)CO that has formed via hydrogenation of CO ices beyond \(-300\) AU. There may also be more gas-phase H\(_2\)CO formation beyond the edge of the millimeter continuum at \(-270\pm20\) AU if UV photons can photodissociate CO in the upper layers and activate hydrocarbon chemistry for a more efficient CH\(_3\) + O pathway. The C\(^{18}\)O radial step-abundance model provides an alternative scenario for outer disk CO depletion compared to model 3. If the micrometer-sized grains are depleted in the outer disk similar to the millimeter-sized grains, UV photons could photodissociate CO beyond \(-300\) AU.

The fact that both a radial step at \(290\pm20\) AU and a temperature step at \(32\pm2\) K (32\(\pm\)5 AU near the midplane) equally well fit the C\(^{18}\)O data underlines our caution against interpreting the value of \(T_e\) as the evaporation temperature. The consequences of each model scenario are further discussed in Section 4. The radial step-abundance case is chosen as the C\(^{18}\)O normalized model for estimating abundances in Section 3.2.5.

3.2.5. H\(_2\)CO and C\(^{18}\)O abundance

To estimate the absolute fractional abundances relative to H\(_2\) in the inner and outer regions for H\(_2\)CO and C\(^{18}\)O, LIME was used to vary the abundances for the best-fit normalized scenarios. Abundance ratios across the change-over boundary, \(R_c\), were kept the same as the normalized models: \(X_1/X_2 = 5\) for the H\(_2\)CO radial step-abundance model and \(X_1/X_2 = 10\) for the C\(^{18}\)O radial step-abundance model.

H\(_2\)CO models had \(R_c = 270\) AU and \(X_1 = [1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0] \times 10^{-12}\). The best-fit fractional abundances were \(X_1 = 4.0 \times 10^{-12}\) and \(X_2 = 8.0 \times 10^{-12}\). C\(^{18}\)O was found to have best-fit fractional abundances of \(X_1 = 5.0 \times 10^{-8}\) and \(X_2 = 5.0 \times 10^{-9}\) with \(R_c = 290\) AU. Radial intensity profiles for these best-fit models are shown in Figure 7. Error estimates based 3\(\sigma\) error bars of the radial intensity profiles put these abundances in the range \(X_1 = 2-5 \times 10^{-12}\) and \(X_2 = 5-10 \times 10^{-12}\) for H\(_2\)CO and \(X_1 = 4-12 \times 10^{-8}\) and \(X_2 = 4-12 \times 10^{-9}\) for C\(^{18}\)O.

Integrated intensity maps of the best-fit models were compared to integrated intensity maps of observed H\(_2\)CO 3\(03s_2-02s_0\) and C\(^{18}\)O 2-1 data. Figure 8 shows the images and the residuals. The model and the data are in good agreement for both lines, though the best-fit C\(^{18}\)O has residual emission above the 3\(\sigma\) in the central part of the disk. The inner 50 AU are likely not well-described by our models, as noted in Section 3.2.

The modeling efforts presented here show that the H\(_2\)CO abundance is not uniform throughout the disk. Beyond \(-300\) AU there is an increase in the H\(_2\)CO abundance by a factor of two, as seen in the radial step-abundance scenario. The H\(_2\)CO abundance of \(X_1 = 2-5 \times 10^{-12}\) and \(X_2 = 4-10 \times 10^{-12}\) is consistent to within a factor of a few with the global abundance value of \(1 \times 10^{-11}\) found in Qi et al. (2013). The increased sensitivity and resolution of our data allow us to better constrain the H\(_2\)CO abundance in HD 163296 than previous studies. C\(^{18}\)O is well-described by a model with a depletion of CO at \(290\pm20\) AU and a depletion factor of ten. The C\(^{18}\)O inner abundance of \(4-12 \times 10^{-8}\) corresponds to a \(^{12}\)CO abundance of \(2.2-6.6 \times 10^{-5}\), assuming \(^{12}\)CO/C\(^{18}\)O \(= 550\). Qi et al. (2015) report similar numbers for the CO abundance, but their depletion factor is lower by half and occurs at a radius of 90 AU. We found that a radius of 90 AU and depletion factor of 5 for our radial step-abundance models significantly overproduces the amount of C\(^{18}\)O beyond 300 AU due to our different treatment of the vertical structure.

3.3. H\(_2\)CO excitation temperature

Line flux ratios H\(_2\)CO 3\(03s_2-02s_0\)/H\(_2\)CO 3\(22s_2-21s_1\) and H\(_2\)CO 3\(03s_2-02s_0)/H\(_2\)CO 3\(22s_2-20s_1\) were used to constrain H\(_2\)CO excitation temperatures. Table 1 provides the line fluxes. We calculated the rotational temperature of the lines, assuming a single rotational temperature, following Qi et al. (2013)

\[ T_{rot} = \frac{E_1 - E_0}{\ln((\nu_1 S_{\mu_1} \int T_{rot} d\nu)/((\nu_0 S_{\mu_0} \int T_{rot} d\nu))}, \]

(1)

with the following definitions: \(E_0\) and \(E_1\) are the upper energy levels for the low and high H\(_2\)CO transitions, respectively; \(\nu\) is the line frequency; \(S_{\mu}\) is the temperature-independent transition strength and dipole moment; and \(\int T_{rot} d\nu\) is the integrated line intensity. Line intensity in the Rayleigh-Jeans limit was calculated from the line flux with the following expression

\[ T_B = \frac{c^2}{2k\nu} \frac{F_{\nu}}{(a \times b)} \left( \frac{3600 \text{arcsec}}{\text{deg}} \right) \left( \frac{180\text{deg}}{\text{sr}} \right) ^2 \frac{1}{10^{-26} \text{Jy}} \],

(2)

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\[ F_\nu \] is the line flux in Jy, \( T_B \) is the line intensity in Kelvins, \( \nu \) is the line frequency in Hz, \( k \) is the Boltzmann constant, \( c \) is the speed of light, and \( a \) and \( b \) are the semi-major and semi-minor axes of the beam in arcsec.

The emitting regions of all three lines are expected to be similar, especially if the H_2CO reservoir is primarily locked up in icy grains. LTE is a fair assumption for calculating rotational temperatures, as the gas density near the midplane is high in disks (~10^9 cm^-3; Walsh et al. 2014) and the critical densities of the observed transitions at 20 K are 1–3×10^6 (Wiesenfeld & Faure 2013). In the case of LTE, the derived rotational temperature is equal to the kinetic temperature of the gas. \( E \) and \( S \mu^2 \) are taken from the CDMS (Müller et al. 2005), as reported on the Splatalogue database.

The rotational temperatures of the H_2CO transitions are calculated based on the line flux ratios of H_2CO 3_22–2_21/3_03–2_02 and H_2CO 3_21–2_20/3_03–2_02. The matched-filter technique only gives lower limits to the H_2CO 3_22–2_21 and H_2CO 3_21–2_20 line flux, thus lower limits on the rotational temperature are >20.5 K and >19.5 K, respectively, while upper limits for the weak lines are <169 K and <326 K based on the integrated flux upper limits listed in Table 1. These lower limits indicate that these transitions can be excited in regions of the disk near the CO freeze-out temperature, supporting the hypothesis that some of the H_2CO emission may originate from the cold molecular reservoir. There could also be H_2CO emitting at a higher temperature that is not well described by our template filter.

4. Discussion

In this work, the radial step-abundance model suggests an enhancement in H_2CO abundance by a factor of a few beyond 270 AU. It is difficult to distinguish which formation route is responsible for this modest increase in abundance.

Aikawa & Herbst (1999) estimated the radial column density and abundance profile of H_2CO formed in the gas phase in a T Tauri minimum mass solar nebula (MMSN) disk model extrapolated out to \( R_{out} = 700 \) AU, with an order of magnitude lower mass. They did not consider other mechanisms for producing gas-phase H_2CO, such as desorption from icy grains. They exclude an activation energy barrier for the CH_3 + O reaction. The initial abundance of atomic oxygen may affect the inferred H_2CO abundances. Their model has a mostly flat radial distribution, but is consistent with an enhancement of H_2CO abundance.
Fig. 8: Data, model, and residual integrated intensity maps. H$_2$CO 3$_0$-2$_0$ data and model maps are created after applying a Keplerian mask to the image cube (see Section 3.1). Left: H$_2$CO 3$_0$-2$_0$ data integrated intensity map from 0.76 – 10.84 km s$^{-1}$ and C$^{18}$O 2–1 data integrated intensity map from –0.88 – 12.48 km s$^{-1}$. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower corners. Center: Integrated intensity map of best-fit model taken over the same velocity channels as the left figure. Right: Residual image with contours at 3$\sigma$ intervals. Dashed contours are negative, solid contours are positive.

by a factor of a few up to one order of magnitude in the outer regions beyond ∼300 AU.

Walsh et al. (2014) created a series of increasingly complex T Tauri disk chemical evolution models that include grain-surface formation to estimate abundances of complex organic molecules (COMs) throughout the disk. Beginning with freeze-out and thermal desorption only, they go on to include non-thermal desorption, grain-surface chemistry, radiative reprocessing of ices, and reactive desorption in their full disk model. The vertical distribution of H$_2$CO included a large gas-phase reservoir above the midplane reaching peak fractional abundances relative to H$_2$ of ∼10$^{-8}$ and an ice reservoir beyond 10 AU with peak fractional abundances of ∼10$^{-4}$. Beyond 50 AU, the radial column density of H$_2$CO in the Walsh et al. (2014) comprehensive disk model shows an increase by a factor of a few.

From these two examples it is clear that a modest outer disk enhancement of H$_2$CO cannot immediately reveal whether gas-phase or grain-surface production is the dominant formation route. Full chemical modeling of H$_2$CO production is required. In this section we discuss possible explanations for the H$_2$CO enhancement in the outer disk around HD 163296, its relation to the CO snow line and the millimeter continuum, and the implications for H$_2$CO formation.

4.1. H$_2$CO and the CO snow line

Previous SMA observations of H$_2$CO in the disk around HD 163296 showed ring-like formaldehyde emission outside the expected CO snow line (Qi et al. 2013). The authors suggested that a scenario with only grain-surface formation could be responsible for the observed distribution and the apparent lack of centrally peaked emission. The lower spatial resolution and SNR per channel of the SMA observations would preferentially place the H$_2$CO emitting region farther away from the central star since the emission at smaller radii is spread out over more velocity channels due to the shear in the Keplerian disk, thus resulting in a false ring-like structure. The ALMA results presented here show that H$_2$CO is not present in a ring, but rather emission is seen throughout most of the gaseous extent of the disk, with a central depletion in the inner ∼50 AU.

Qi et al. (2015) presented new constraints on the CO snow line in HD 163296 based on observations of C$^{18}$O and N$_2$H$^+$. N$_2$H$^+$ is readily destroyed by gas-phase CO, thus it is expected to be a reliable tracer of CO depletion. By refitting the location and degree of CO depletion, they found that a factor of 5 depletion in column density at 85–90 AU improved their best-fit models to the visibility data. They interpret this radius as the location of the CO snow line, corresponding to a CO freeze-out temperature of 25 K. The coincident of CO depletion and N$_2$H$^+$ emission inner radius supports the claim that N$_2$H$^+$ traces regions of CO freeze-out. Recent results by van’t Hoff et al. (2017) show that the N$_3$H$^+$...
emission can peak from \(~5\text{--}50\) AU beyond the location of the CO snow line and that careful chemical modeling is necessary to properly interpret the location of CO freeze-out from N$_2$H$^+$ observations.

The data presented here show that H$_2$CO extends beyond the Qi et al. (2015) CO freeze-out radius, but with a peak at \(~90\) AU that coincides with the CO snow line. Öberg et al. (in press) presented H$_2$CO observations in the disk around TW Hya and find that grain-surface formation of H$_2$CO begins at temperatures where CO starts to spend even a short time on the grains, meaning that H$_2$CO can be produced – and the emission can peak – just inside of the CO snow line. Considering our \(~50\) AU resolution, the peak seen at \(~90\) AU may be the beginning of grain surface formation of H$_2$CO, likely with some contribution from the warmer, gas-phase formation pathway at the innermost radii.

Recent analysis of ALMA Cycle 0 data for H$_2$CO in DM Tau explored the relative contributions of gas-phase and grain-surface formation pathways (Loomis et al. 2015). Their chemical models required both formation via gas-phase reactions and hydrogenation of CO ice in the outer regions of the disk to reproduce the centrally peaked and outer disk emission. Our simple parameterized models do not include chemical processing, but the presence of H$_2$CO at radii beyond the expected CO snow line at 90 AU and where millimeter grains are present indicates that grain-surface formation is a partial contributor to the H$_2$CO reservoir in the disk around HD 163296. Unlike the DM Tau results, our data also suggests that there is an intrinsic link between the edge of the millimeter continuum and the production of H$_2$CO in HD 163296.

4.2. The H$_2$CO inner hole

A sharp drop in H$_2$CO emission within 50 AU is evident in the integrated intensity map (see Figure 8) and by the best-fit $R_{in}$ of the H$_2$CO models. Optically thick dust may be responsible for the observed depletion, rather than a drop in H$_2$CO abundance. Photons emitted by H$_2$CO in the midplane of the disk can be absorbed by optically thick dust in the upper layers, causing the inner hole – after continuum subtraction – that is seen in the H$_2$CO integrated intensity maps.

Zhang et al. (2016) model the HD 163296 continuum visibilities using a parameterized radial intensity distribution modulated by multiple sine waves. Their best-fit model shows that there is an increase in millimeter-wavelength intensity of \(~60\)% in the innermost 50 AU of the disk, causing the millimeter continuum to become optically thick in this region. Zhang et al. (2016) produced simulated model images with a 0.035$''$ beam, which clearly shows the strong central continuum emission. At the spatial resolution presented in this work, 0.5$''$, the millimeter continuum appears smooth. Isella et al. (2016) presented 0.2$''$ observations of the 1.3 millimeter continuum and three CO isotopologues. They show central depressions in the $^{13}\text{C}$O and $^{18}\text{O}$ maps, and concluded that both the CO and the dust become optically thick within 50 AU, leading to large uncertainties in their surface densities.

Öberg et al. (in press) observe a similar central H$_2$CO depression well within the CO snow line in the disk around TW Hya. While they do not rule out dust opacity effects completely, they prefer to explain it as a real drop in abundance, as the central depression is not seen in higher frequency lines of H$_2$CO or CO isotopologues. Observations of additional, high frequency H$_2$CO lines in the HD 163296 disk would be needed to test this scenario. The $^{13}\text{C}$O and $^{18}\text{O}$ central holes seen by Isella et al. (2016) at high resolution already suggest dust opacity as an explanation for the central H$_2$CO depression in this disk.

4.3. H$_2$CO and the millimeter continuum edge

The millimeter grains in HD 163296 have decoupled from the gas and drifted radially inward. Millimeter emission in the outer disk is truncated at 270 AU while the bulk of the gas, based on $^{12}\text{CO}$ observations, extends to \(~550\) AU (de Gregorio-Monsalvo et al. 2013). The outer edge of millimeter emission corresponds to the 270$\pm$20 AU change-over radius for H$_2$CO enhancement found by the best-fit radial step-abundance model. Grain growth and radial drift in the outer regions of the disk can result in a decrease of small, micron-sized grains beyond \(~270\) AU. With less shielding from external and protostellar radiation, penetrating UV photons in the outer regions may cause an increase in the H$_2$CO photodesorption directly off icy grain surfaces (Öberg et al. 2009; Huang et al. 2016). Increased UV radiation in a dust-depleted outer disk could also lead to CO photodissociation in the upper layers, opening a more efficient gas-phase route for H$_2$CO where hydrocarbon radicals and atomic oxygen are readily available.

Dust evolution models for HD 163296 by Facchini, et al. (subm.) show that for a low-turbulence environment, a temperature inversion can occur around 300 AU, causing a second CO desorption front in the outer disk (also suggested qualitatively by Cleeves 2016). In that case, an increase of both C$^{18}$O and H$_2$CO abundance in the outer disk would be expected, but our models found a CO depletion. It may be that there are competing effects occurring in the outer disk for CO. A temperature inversion and/or UV photodesorption beyond 300 AU can cause the release of grain-surface H$_2$CO and a fraction of CO ice back into the gas phase near the midplane, but CO photodissociation in the upper layers may dominate the C$^{18}$O surface density profile so that we ultimately see an outer disk depletion in C$^{18}$O, and an increase in H$_2$CO production.

5. Conclusions

In this work, multiple detections with ALMA of H$_2$CO 3$\text{--}2$ in the protoplanetary disk around HD 163296 were presented: one robust detection via imaging, H$_2$CO 3$\text{--}2_0$, and two weaker detections via matched filter analysis, H$_2$CO 3$\text{--}2_1$ and H$_2$CO 3$\text{--}2_2$. The distribution of H$_2$CO relative to C$^{18}$O and the millimeter continuum was analyzed using various model abundance profiles to test possible H$_2$CO formation scenarios. The conclusions of this work are as follows:

- H$_2$CO in HD 163296 is observed out to \(~550\) AU, equal to the full radial extent of the gas disk as observed with CO. It does not have a ring-like morphology.

- The kinetic temperature of the observed H$_2$CO gas has a lower limit of \(>20\) K, thus emission from these lines can originate from the cold molecular reservoir near the disk midplane.

- The best-fit radial step-abundance model to the H$_2$CO 3$\text{--}2_0$ data suggests that H$_2$CO has an inner radius $R_{in} = 50$ AU, an outer disk abundance a factor of two higher than the inner disk ($X_f/X_o = 0.5$), and a change-over radius of $R_c = 270\pm20$ AU. There is a mechanism causing increased H$_2$CO production in the outer disk beyond the millimeter grains. One explanation is desorption of H$_2$CO from icy grains by thermal desorption due to a temperature inversion or by UV
photodesorption where CO is frozen out. Alternatively, photodissociation of CO in the outer disk may increase the efficiency of the CH₃ + O gas-phase route to form H₂CO.

Based on the C³¹O 2–1 models presented in this work, two scenarios reproduce the data well: step-abundance models with abundance boundaries based on temperature and radius, respectively. The best-fit models both indicate depleted CO in the outer disk based on the recovery of the C³¹O 2–1 surface density profile. Both models have a CO depletion factor of 10 in the outer disk. The depletion is likely a combination of CO freeze-out in the disk midplane and photodissociation of CO in the disk upper layers due to penetrating UV radiation.

The best-fit abundance for the C³¹O radial step-abundance model was X₁ = 4–12 × 10⁻⁵, X₂ = 4–12 × 10⁻⁶. The best-fit abundance for the H₂CO radial step-abundance model was X₁ = 2–5 × 10⁻¹², X₂ = 4–10 × 10⁻¹².

Further observations of HD 163296 can unambiguously determine the dominant formation pathway of H₂CO in the disk. Constraining the ortho- to para- ratio of the two H₂CO isomers can distinguish between grain surface formation and gas-phase formation (Guzmán et al. 2011). The H₂CO op ratio is expected to be less than three for grain-surface formation (Dulieu 2011; Fillion et al. 2012). Observations of co-spatial H₂CO and CH₃OH would also constrain the contributions of gas- and solid-phase H₂CO, as CH₃OH forms similarly via hydrogenation of CO ices and has no known gas-phase formation route.

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References

Appendix A: Channel Maps
Fig. A.1: $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, ^{3}_{03-202}$ data channel maps, Hanning smoothed to 0.336 km s$^{-1}$ channels. Black contours mark $1.5 \times 10^{-3} \sigma \times [3, 6, 9]$ Jy beam$^{-1}$. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower left panel.

Fig. A.2: $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, ^{3}_{03-202}$ best-fit model channel maps, Hanning smoothed to 0.336 km s$^{-1}$ channels. Black contours mark $1.5 \times 10^{-3} \sigma \times [3, 6, 9]$ Jy beam$^{-1}$. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower left panel.
**Fig. A.3:** $\text{H}_2\text{CO} \, 3_{03} - 2_{02}$ residual (data–model) channel maps, Hanning smoothed to 0.336 km s$^{-1}$ channels. Black contours mark $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ (1σ) × [3, 6, 9] Jy beam$^{-1}$. Dashed contours are negative at the same intervals. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower left panel.

**Fig. A.4:** $\text{C}^{18}\text{O} \, 2–1$ data channel maps. Black contours mark $4.2 \times 10^{-3}$ (1σ) × [5, 25, 45] Jy beam$^{-1}$. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower left panel.
Fig. A.5: C$^{18}$O 2–1 best-fit model channel maps. Black contours mark $4.2 \times 10^{-3} \times (1\sigma) \times [5, 25, 45]$ Jy beam$^{-1}$. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower left panel.

Fig. A.6: C$^{18}$O 2–1 residual (data–model) channel maps. Black contours mark $4.2 \times 10^{-3} \times (1\sigma) \times [5, 10, 20]$ Jy beam$^{-1}$. Dashed contours are negative at the same intervals. Synthesized beam and AU scale are shown in the lower left panel.