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1        **Dependence of the radiative-convective**  
2                **equilibrium structure of the lower**  
3 **atmosphere of Venus on the thermodynamic**  
4                        **model**

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## Abstract

Dependence of the radiative-convective equilibrium structure of the lower atmosphere of Venus on the specification of atmospheric thermodynamic model is investigated. A series of thermodynamic models including ideal gases, van der Waals gases, and real gases are introduced by the use of the Helmholtz energy given by the EOS-CG mixture model (EOS-CG: Equation of State for Combustion Gases and Combustion Gas-like Mixtures). It is demonstrated that the radiative-convective equilibrium profile for the real gas differs significantly from that for the ideal gas with temperature-dependent specific heat by an increase of about 7 K in the surface temperature. This difference is caused by the fact that the adiabatic lapse rate evaluated with the thermodynamic model of real gas is larger than that of ideal gas, since the non-ideality of gas increases the thermal expansion coefficient, which overwhelms the increases of density and specific heat. It is confirmed that, in order to obtain better calculations of atmospheric circulations including the lower atmosphere of Venus, the ideal gas with a constant specific heat should be abandoned. The ideal gas with a temperature-dependent specific heat may not be enough. A promising method is to use the ideal gas but with the temperature-dependent specific heat such that its adiabatic lapse rate profile mimics that for the real gas.

46 **Keywords** Venus; one dimensional radiative-convective equilibrium state;  
47 non-ideal gas

## 48 **1. Introduction**

49 The surface environment of Venus is characterized by high pressure ( $\sim 92$   
50 bar) and high temperature ( $\sim 735$  K) (e.g., Seiff et al. 1985), and the atmo-  
51 sphere at around the surface is in a supercritical state of  $\text{CO}_2$ . Elucidation  
52 of the lower atmosphere of Venus, the altitude region from the surface to  
53 the cloud layer at around 50 to 70 km, has not progressed very far, since  
54 it is difficult to observe the lower atmosphere which is shrouded by thick  
55 clouds.

56 Valuable data on the lower atmosphere of Venus were obtained by in  
57 situ observations by the Venera probes, the Pioneer Venus probes, and the  
58 VeGa-2 lander. Because of high temperature and high pressure in the lower  
59 atmosphere of Venus, the non-ideality of gas should be considered in esti-  
60 mating thermodynamic quantities, such as the adiabatic lapse rate, accu-  
61 rately (e.g., Staley 1970). In fact, in situ observational data were analyzed  
62 with considering the non-ideality of gas. The resultant analyses indicate  
63 that the atmosphere below the cloud layer is generally stable except for  
64 several altitude regions. (e.g., Seiff 1983).

65 Theoretical investigations, on the other hand, of the thermal structure of

66 the Venus atmosphere have been carried out by the use of one-dimensional  
67 radiative-convective equilibrium models (Pollack and Young 1975; Matsuda  
68 and Matsuno 1978; Takagi et al. 2010; Ikeda 2011; Lee and Richardson  
69 2011; Lebonnois et al. 2015; Mendonça et al. 2015). Those studies ob-  
70 tained possible thermal structures in radiative equilibrium and in radiative-  
71 convective equilibrium of the lower atmosphere. Some of those studies also  
72 addressed the dependence of the thickness of convection layers on the atmo-  
73 spheric composition and the cloud amount. Further, in recent years, numer-  
74 ical simulations by the use of three-dimensional general circulation models  
75 (GCMs) with explicit radiative transfer processes have been performed (e.g.,  
76 Lebonnois et al. 2010; Ikeda 2011; Mendonça and Read 2016; Yamamoto  
77 et al. 2019). Among those studies, Lebonnois et al. (2018) investigated the  
78 structure of the planetary boundary layer in detail. Their model indicated  
79 that the thickness of the convective planetary boundary layer was less than  
80 2 km varying diurnally and controlled by the radiative and the dynamical  
81 processes.

82 However, all of the above models with explicit model descriptions treat  
83 the Venusian atmosphere as an ideal gas. In addition, some of the circula-  
84 tion models mentioned above have been assuming that the specific heat is  
85 constant following the traditional formulation in Earth’s meteorology. We  
86 believe that it is, in the first place, necessary to understand the effects of

87 the non-ideality of the Venus atmospheric gas on the equation of state and  
88 the specific heat, since they are the key elements for the evaluation of static  
89 stability of the atmosphere. It is also important to recognize the deficits of  
90 assuming an ideal gas or a constant specific heat in considering the structure  
91 of the Venus atmosphere.

92 In this study, the thermal structure of the Venus atmosphere is inves-  
93 tigated by the use of a one-dimensional radiative-convective equilibrium  
94 model with a series of thermodynamic models, i.e., ideal gases, van der  
95 Waals gases, and real gases given by specifying a thermodynamic potential  
96 such as Helmholtz energy or by specifying a set of equation of state (EOS)  
97 and specific heat. We focus on the dependence of the radiative-convective  
98 equilibrium structure of the lower atmosphere on the specification of atmo-  
99 spheric thermodynamic properties.

100 In the followings, in Section 2, the difference in static stability evaluated  
101 for a typical Venus atmospheric profile by the use of different thermody-  
102 namic models is discussed. Then, the one-dimensional radiative-convective  
103 equilibrium model for the Venus atmosphere utilized in this study is de-  
104 scribed in Section 3. The basic settings for the experiments are also de-  
105 scribed, there. In Section 4, the results of the radiative-convective equi-  
106 librium calculations are presented. The effects of non-ideality of gas are  
107 discussed, and the implications for dynamical calculations are presented in

108 Section 5. Finally, we conclude this study in Section 6.

## 109 **2. Static stability of the VIRA model**

Fig. 1

110 First, we evaluate the profiles of static stability for various thermody-  
111 namic models with the low latitude temperature profile of the VIRA (Venus  
112 International Reference Atmosphere) model (Fig. 1a) to give a picture of  
113 possible influence caused by the specification of thermodynamic properties.

114 We adopt the EOS-CG mixture model (Gernert and Span 2016) to eval-  
115 uate the thermodynamic quantities of the Venus atmospheric gas. The  
116 EOS-CG mixture model describes the reduced Helmholtz energy of a mix-  
117 ture of real gases as sum of an ideal gas part and a residual part. The ideal  
118 gas part is expressed as the sum of the reduced Helmholtz energy of each  
119 component assumed as an ideal gas and a term accounting for the entropy  
120 of mixing. The residual part is expressed as the sum of the residual of the  
121 reduced Helmholtz energy of each component from an ideal gas and the de-  
122 parture function which is fitted to represent experimental thermodynamic  
123 properties for binary mixtures. Any thermodynamic quantities can be cal-  
124 culated directly from the reduced Helmholtz energy of the EOS-CG mixture  
125 model.

126 The use of the thermodynamic model requires much larger amount of  
127 computations than the use of the ideal gas law and a given specific heat.



128 For instance, the reduced Helmholtz energy of CO<sub>2</sub> described by Span and  
129 Wagner (1996), which is a component of the EOS-CG mixture model, is ex-  
130 pressed as sum of 50 terms. Calculations of any thermodynamic quantities  
131 derived from the reduced Helmholtz energy require computations of larger  
132 number of terms. Further, an iterative procedure required to calculate den-  
133 sity increases the amount of computation. The density has to be calculated,  
134 first, to calculate any thermodynamic quantities from the Helmholtz energy  
135 as functions of temperature and density by the use of the temperature pro-  
136 file as a function of pressure as an input. Such computations would be  
137 too expensive to be included in dynamical models, such as GCMs, but is  
138 acceptable in the data analysis and one-dimensional model calculations.

139 In our calculations of the thermodynamic properties, the atmospheric  
140 gas is assumed, unless otherwise mentioned, to be a mixture of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>  
141 gases with the volume mixing ratios of 0.965 and 0.035, respectively (von  
142 Zahn et al. 1983). Lebonnois and Schubert (2017) proposed that density-  
143 driven separation changes the mixing ratios of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> vertically and it  
144 could explain the temperature profile observed below 7 km altitude by the  
145 VeGa-2 lander (Seiff and the VEGA Balloon Science Team 1987). However,  
146 the details of the process in the Venus atmosphere have not been understood,  
147 and we do not investigate its effect on the thermal structure in the present  
148 study.

149 Figure 1b shows profiles of static stability,  $dT/dz + gT\alpha_T/C_p$ , evaluated  
 150 with the EOS-CG mixture model (hereafter referred to as the real gas) and  
 151 the EOS-CG mixture model but with the ideal gas part only (referred to  
 152 as the ideal gas), where  $T$ ,  $z$ ,  $g$ ,  $\alpha_T = -(1/\rho)(\partial\rho/\partial T)_p$ ,  $\rho$ , and  $C_p$ , are  
 153 temperature, the altitude, the gravitational acceleration set to  $8.9 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ ,  
 154 the thermal expansion coefficient, density, and the specific heat at constant  
 155 pressure, respectively. In either case of the real gas or the ideal gas, an  
 156 unstable (convective) layer at around  $10^5 \text{ Pa}$  pressure level and stable layers  
 157 above and below it appear. In addition, layers close to neutral are also  
 158 found just above the surface and at around  $2 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}$  pressure level in both  
 159 profiles. However, details of stability differ between the two cases. The  
 160 layer just above the surface is stable for the real gas, while it is unstable for  
 161 the ideal gas. Further, the thickness of the unstable layer at around  $2 \times 10^6$   
 162 Pa pressure level changes; the evaluation with the real gas tends to be more  
 163 stable.

Fig. 2

164 Also shown in Fig. 1b is the static stability profiles evaluated with the  
 165 EOS of ideal gas but with constant  $C_p$ . The adopted values for  $C_p$  are 850  
 166 and  $1150 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , which correspond to the values at around  $5 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$   
 167 pressure level where the temperature is about 300 K and  $6 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}$  pres-  
 168 sure level where the temperature is about 680 K in the Venus atmosphere,  
 169 respectively. It is found that the static stability profiles for the ideal gas

170 but with constant  $C_p$  are quite different from those evaluated with the real  
171 gas or the ideal gas given by the EOS-CG mixture model. As for the static  
172 stability profile evaluated with  $C_p = 850 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , the layers close to  
173 neutral below the cloud layer are not found anymore, although the static  
174 stability in the convective cloud layer is close to those evaluated with the  
175 EOS-CG mixture model. In addition, the static stability above the cloud  
176 layer differs as large as 20 % compared to those evaluated with the EOS-  
177 CG mixture model. As for the profile evaluated with  $C_p = 1150 \text{ J K}^{-1}$   
178  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ , the static stability at around the surface is now close to those evalu-  
179 ated with the EOS-CG mixture model. However, the static stability above  
180 there is negative in several layers. If we adopt a smaller value,  $C_p < 850 \text{ J}$   
181  $\text{K}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , the static stability above the cloud layer can be closer to those  
182 evaluated with the EOS-CG mixture model, but then the static stability  
183 below the cloud layer must be the larger. These behaviors can be inter-  
184 preted by examining the profiles of  $C_p$ . Figure 2 shows vertical profiles of  
185  $C_p$  of the VIRA model, the real gas and the ideal gas for the low latitude  
186 temperature profile of the VIRA model. The corresponding profile calcu-  
187 lated with  $C_p(T) = C_{p0}(T/T_0)^\nu$  where  $C_{p0} = 1000 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ,  $T_0 = 460 \text{ K}$ ,  
188 and  $\nu = 0.35$  used by Lebonnois et al. (2010) is also shown for reference.  
189 It is impossible to give an appropriate adiabatic lapse rate uniformly from  
190 the bottom to the top of the Venus atmosphere for the ideal gas but with

191 constant  $C_p$ .

### 192 3. Model and experimental setup

193 The radiative-convective equilibrium solution is obtained as a steady  
194 state reached by time integration from a given initial condition. The dry  
195 convective adjustment is applied when the lapse rate is greater than the  
196 dry adiabatic lapse rate. In addition, surface temperature is assumed to  
197 be the same as atmospheric temperature just above the surface due to the  
198 convection.

199 Assuming the hydrostatic balance, the atmospheric energy equation for  
200 a stable layer is written as

$$C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = g \frac{\partial F_{rad}}{\partial p}, \quad (1)$$

and that for an unstable layer with the top pressure level  $p_t$  and the bottom  
pressure level  $p_b$  is written in an integrated form as

$$\int_{p_t}^{p_b} C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} dp = \begin{cases} g(F_{rad}(p_b) - F_{rad}(p_t)) + gF_{sens}(p_s) & (\text{for } p_b = p_s) \\ g(F_{rad}(p_b) - F_{rad}(p_t)) & (\text{for } p_b < p_s) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

201 with a vertical temperature gradient of

$$-\frac{dT}{dz} = \frac{g}{C_p} T \alpha_T, \quad (3)$$

202 where  $t$ ,  $p$ ,  $p_s$ ,  $F_{rad}$ , and  $F_{sens}$  are time, pressure, the surface pressure, the  
 203 net radiative flux, and the sensible heat flux, respectively. Note that upward  
 204 fluxes are defined as positive.

205 The bottom surface is assumed to be a uniform slab. The energy equa-  
 206 tion for the surface slab is written as

$$C_s \frac{dT_s}{dt} = -F_{rad}(p_s) - F_{sens}(p_s), \quad (4)$$

207 where  $T_s$  and  $C_s$  are the surface temperature and the surface heat capac-  
 208 ity arbitrarily set to  $4.217 \times 10^7 \text{ J K}^{-1}$ , respectively. It is noted that the  
 209 equilibrium solution is independent of the value of  $C_s$ .

210 Same as in Section 2, the atmospheric gas of Venus in our radiative-  
 211 convective model is assumed to be, unless otherwise mentioned, a mixture  
 212 of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  gases with the volume mixing ratios of 0.965 and 0.035,  
 213 respectively, when evaluating the thermodynamic properties by the use of  
 214 the EOS-CG mixture model.

215 The radiative fluxes are calculated by the use of the correlated  $k$ -distribution  
 216 radiation model for Venus atmosphere of Takahashi et al. (2023). The  
 217 radiative transfer equation with the generalized two-stream approxima-  
 218 tion (Meador and Weaver 1980) is solved with the method of Toon et al.  
 219 (1989). In calculating radiative fluxes, absorption and scattering of molec-  
 220 ular species and cloud particles are considered. Molecular species consid-  
 221 ered in radiation calculations are  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{HF}$ ,  $\text{OCS}$ , and  $\text{N}_2$ .

222 It should be noticed that radiative fluxes are evaluated with considering  
223 species other than CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>, though the thermodynamic quantities are  
224 evaluated for the mixture of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. As for the cloud particles, those  
225 referred to as modes 1, 2, 2', and 3, whose particle sizes are different (Espos-  
226 ito et al. 1983; Ragent et al. 1985), are considered. In addition, “unknown  
227 UV absorber” which contributes almost the half of absorption of solar ra-  
228 diation (Crisp 1986) is also considered.

229 The vertical profiles of the radiatively active atmospheric components,  
230 the clouds, and the unknown UV absorber are externally given and fixed.  
231 Volume mixing ratios of radiatively active gases are based on Pollack et  
232 al. (1993) (Fig. 3a). As for the clouds and the unknown UV absorber,  
233 mass mixing ratios are based on Crisp (1986) (Fig. 3b). The profiles of  
234 radiatively active gases are those of Profile B of Takahashi et al. (2023),  
235 and the profiles of the clouds and the unknown UV absorber are the same  
236 as those of Takahashi et al. (2023).

237 The radiative-convective model is discretized with the 80 atmospheric  
238 layers (81 levels) determined by using those of the VIRA model as a refer-  
239 ence. The thickness of each layer is 1 km from the surface to 60 km altitude  
240 and 2 km above. It has been confirmed that almost the same thermal struc-  
241 tures are obtained when the number of layers are increased. A weak vertical  
242 filter is applied to avoid vertical two-grid interval noise only in some cases

243 in which very shallow surface convection layers appear (Takahashi et al.  
244 2023). The initial condition is the low latitude temperature profile of the  
245 VIRA model (Fig. 1a).

246 The incident solar radiation flux at the top of the atmosphere is assumed  
247 to be  $2635 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . The surface albedo is set to 0.05 in wavenumber larger  
248 than  $7700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and is zero in smaller wavenumber range. This is roughly  
249 consistent with the observations shown in Golovin et al. (1983). In order to  
250 evaluate the global mean of solar radiation, radiative fluxes are calculated  
251 at two solar zenith angles of  $37.9^\circ$  and  $77.8^\circ$ , and are averaged, and halved  
252 considering no contribution of nightside (Takahashi et al. 2023).

Fig. 3

## 253 4. Results

### 254 4.1 *Radiative-convective equilibrium structures*

Fig. 4

255 Figure 4 shows the radiative-convective equilibrium profiles calculated  
256 for the real gas. The low latitude temperature and the static stability pro-  
257 files of the VIRA model are also shown for comparison. The equilibrium is  
258 achieved by time integration for about  $2 \times 10^5$  Earth days. The equilibrated  
259 surface temperature is 721 K. This is lower than 735 K observed by Venera  
260 12 (Avduevskiy et al. 1983). The radiative-convective equilibrium profile  
261 represents the convective cloud layer at around  $10^5 \text{ Pa}$  pressure level and

262 the stable layers below and above it as observed in the VIRA model. In  
263 the lower atmosphere, the surface convection layer is quite thick and its  
264 thickness is 34 km. This means that this radiative-convective equilibrium  
265 does not reproduce the observed stable layer at around 10–20 km altitude  
266 (e.g., Seiff 1983). The surface temperature lower than observed value and  
267 the lack of the stable layer at around 10–20 km altitude imply deficits of  
268 molecular and/or cloud particle opacities in the present model atmosphere,  
269 and also may be caused by the neglect of the horizontal variation in the one-  
270 dimensional model. It was discussed that the opacity in the 3–4  $\mu\text{m}$  and 5–7  
271  $\mu\text{m}$  windows controls the surface temperature and atmospheric temperature  
272 in the deep atmosphere (cf. Lebonnois et al. 2015).

#### 273 4.2 *Dependence on thermodynamic model*

274 In the previous subsection, the radiative-convective equilibrium profile  
275 is obtained for the real gas composed of 96.5 %  $\text{CO}_2$  and 3.5 %  $\text{N}_2$ . Here-  
276 after, the experiment with the real gas is referred to as Case RGMix. In this  
277 subsection, dependence of the radiative-convective equilibrium structure on  
278 the specification of atmospheric thermodynamic model is investigated by  
279 performing sensitivity experiments with simplified atmospheric thermody-  
280 namic models.

281 The performed experiments are summarized in Table 1. The simpli-

Table 1

Fig. 5



282 fied thermodynamic models introduced are of the pure CO<sub>2</sub> real gas (Case  
 283 RGCO<sub>2</sub>), of the mixture of van der Waals gases (Case VDWGMix), of the  
 284 pure CO<sub>2</sub> van der Waals gas (Case VDWGCO<sub>2</sub>), of the mixture of ideal  
 285 gases (Case IGMix), and of the mixture of ideal gases with 850 J K<sup>-1</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>  
 286 as the value of constant  $C_p$  (Case IG850). In Cases VDWGMix, IGMix,  
 287 and IG850, the mixture of gases is composed of 96.5 % CO<sub>2</sub> and 3.5 % N<sub>2</sub>,  
 288 the same as in Case RGMix.

Table 2

289 In Case RGCO<sub>2</sub>, the EOS-CG mixture model is used to derive the ther-  
 290 modynamic property for the pure CO<sub>2</sub> real gas. In Cases VDWGMix and  
 291 VDWGCO<sub>2</sub>, the following van der Waals EOS is used:

$$\left(p - \frac{a\rho^2}{M^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{b\rho}{M}\right) = \rho RT, \quad (5)$$

292 where  $R = R^*/\bar{M}$ , and  $R^*$  and  $\bar{M}$  are the universal gas constant and the  
 293 mean molecular weight, respectively. The constants,  $a$  and  $b$ , for the EOSs  
 294 of pure van der Waals gases are shown in Table 2. The constants for the  
 295 mixture of van der Waals gases are calculated with van der Waals mixing  
 296 rule, i.e., for the mixture of CO<sub>2</sub> ( $i = 1$ ) and N<sub>2</sub> ( $i = 2$ ), the constants,  $a$   
 297 and  $b$ , are written as

$$a = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 \chi_i \chi_j a_{ij}, \quad (6)$$

$$b = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 \chi_i \chi_j b_{ij}, \quad (7)$$

298 where  $\chi_i$  is the volume mixing ratio of  $i$ th component,  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$  ( $i = j$ )  
 299 are  $a$  and  $b$  of each pure component, respectively, and  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$  ( $i \neq j$ ) are  
 300 given as

$$a_{ij} = (a_i a_j)^{1/2}, \quad (8)$$

$$b_{ij} = (b_i + b_j)/2. \quad (9)$$

301 The specific heat at constant volume,  $C_v$ , for the van der Waals gas (Cases  
 302 VDWGMix and VDWGCO<sub>2</sub>) is given as that of the corresponding ideal gas  
 303 derived from the EOS-CG mixture model but only with the ideal gas part,  
 304 and the  $C_p$  is calculated with  $C_p - C_v$  derived from the van der Waals EOS.  
 305 In Case IGMix also, the EOS-CG mixture model but only with the ideal  
 306 gas part is used to derive  $C_p(T)$  for the mixture of ideal gases.

307 Figure 5 shows the results of the experiment. The radiative-convective  
 308 equilibrium structures in the experiment other than Case IG850 are de-  
 309 scribed, first. Even if the thermodynamic model is different, the gross  
 310 features as seen from the static stability are similar to each other; there  
 311 are the convective cloud layer, the stable layers above and below it, and  
 312 the thick surface convection layer. The surface convection layer thicknesses  
 313 are almost the same, and are 34, 35, 35, 35, and 35 km for Cases RGMix,  
 314 RGCO<sub>2</sub>, VDWGMix, VDWGCO<sub>2</sub>, and IGMix, respectively. However, due  
 315 to the difference in the adiabatic lapse rate in those cases, the surface tem-  
 316 perature is different as large as 7 K between Cases RGMix and IGMix. It

317 may be worth notifying that, either for the cases of the mixture of gases or  
318 the pure CO<sub>2</sub> cases, the temperature profile obtained for the van der Waals  
319 gas is close to that obtained for the corresponding real gas, respectively.

320 As for Case IG850, the thermal structure is quite different from those in  
321 the other cases. The lower atmosphere is strongly stratified, and the surface  
322 convection layer thickness is less than 1 km. It should be pointed out that  
323 the lowest level of the model is located at 1 km and the convection layer  
324 shallower than 1 km cannot be explicitly represented in the present model.  
325 Thermal structures for other values of constant  $C_p$  are shown in Appendix  
326 A for reference.

## 327 5. Discussion

### 328 5.1 *Effects of non-ideality of gas on adiabatic lapse rate*

Adiabatic lapse rate is the important quantity which explains the difference in radiative-convective equilibrium structures in the cases with different thermodynamic models. The adiabatic lapse rate is defined as Eq. (3). In the present study, the quantities are plotted in the log-pressure coordinate, the expression of the adiabatic lapse rate in the log-pressure coordinate is more useful:

$$\frac{dT}{d(\ln p)} = \frac{p}{\rho C_p} T \alpha_T. \quad (10)$$

329 For an ideal gas,  $\alpha_T = 1/T$ , and the adiabatic lapse rate is  $p/(\rho C_p)$ . The  
330 difference in the adiabatic lapse rate between the real gas and the ideal gas  
331 for given  $p$  and  $T$  appears through differences in the density, the specific heat  
332 at constant pressure, and the thermal expansion coefficient. Conversely, the  
333 accurate value of  $\alpha_T/(\rho C_p)$  is required for calculating the accurate radiative-  
334 convective equilibrium structure.

Fig. 6

335 Figure 6 shows relative differences of the density, the specific heat at con-  
336 stant pressure, the thermal expansion coefficient, and the adiabatic lapse  
337 rate of the real gas composed of 96.5 % CO<sub>2</sub> and 3.5 % N<sub>2</sub> from those of  
338 the ideal gas with the same component for the low latitude temperature  
339 profile as a function of pressure of the VIRA model. In Fig. 7, the profiles  
340 of the density, the specific heat at constant pressure, the thermal expansion  
341 coefficient, and the adiabatic lapse rate themselves are shown for reference.  
342 The non-ideality of gas increases and decreases the density as the altitude  
343 decreases, but increases monotonically both the specific heat at constant  
344 pressure and the thermal expansion coefficient. The magnitude of the in-  
345 crease in the thermal expansion coefficient is the largest among the changes  
346 in these three quantities. Consequently, the non-ideality of gas increases  
347 the adiabatic lapse rate, because it is inversely proportional to the density  
348 and the specific heat at constant pressure while proportional to the thermal  
349 expansion coefficient as seen in Eq. (10). The relative difference between

Fig. 7

350 the adiabatic lapse rate of the real gas and that of the ideal gas is as large  
351 as 4.5 % for the VIRA model profile.

## 352 *5.2 Implications for dynamical models*

353 In most of dynamical models, such as GCMs, for the Venus atmosphere,  
354 where fluid motions are explicitly calculated, the dynamical process is for-  
355 mulated with the assumption of ideal gas. Some of such models use the  
356 specific heat at constant pressure as a function of temperature. Lebonnois  
357 et al. (2010) formulated the governing equations with the assumption of  
358 ideal gas and with a temperature-dependent specific heat paying attention  
359 to a new expression of potential temperature, which is not too complex to be  
360 implemented in dynamical models. The use of the governing equations with  
361 the assumption of ideal gas is reasonable since the use of the thermodynamic  
362 model of real gas, such as the EOS-CG mixture model, is computationally  
363 expensive, and we have a rich heritage of the use of the model formulated  
364 with the assumption of ideal gas. In fact, as has been shown in previous  
365 sections, the use of the temperature-dependent specific heat with the as-  
366 sumption of ideal gas is much better than the use of a constant specific heat  
367 value.

368 However, the use of accurate temperature dependence of the specific  
369 heat at constant pressure only may not be enough to simulate the ther-

370 mal structure of the real Venus atmosphere, since the effect of non-ideality  
371 especially in the thermal expansion coefficient cannot be ignored (Section  
372 5.1).

373 Given a temperature profile as a function of pressure, the relative differ-  
374 ence between the adiabatic lapse rate of the real gas,  $dT/d(\ln p) = pT\alpha_T/(\rho_{RG}C_{p,RG})$ ,  
375 and that of the ideal gas evaluated with  $C_p$  of the real gas,  $dT/d(\ln p) =$   
376  $p/(\rho_{IG}C_{p,RG})$ , is  $1 - (\rho_{RG}/\rho_{IG})/(T\alpha_T)$ , where subscripts  $RG$  and  $IG$  stand  
377 for the real gas and the ideal gas, respectively. The relative difference is as  
378 large as 7.6 % for the VIRA model profile.

379 This is an amount which may not be neglected as an error. The malfunc-  
380 tions straightforwardly expected from the experience of the one-dimensional  
381 radiative-convective model are of the subgrid scale vertical mixing param-  
382 eterizations, where the atmosphere is mixed vertically more or less when  
383 the lapse rate is smaller than the adiabatic lapse rate. The error in the  
384 evaluation of the adiabatic lapse rate influences the onset of the parameter-  
385 izations and the value of the lapse rate after the mixing in the numerical  
386 model. Further, the same error affects not only the thermal structure of  
387 the atmosphere but also the dynamical structure. The error appears in  
388 the resolved adiabatic motions represented by the dynamical process. The  
389 value of the static stability or that of the adiabatic heating term in the  
390 temperature tendency equation is now different from the real Venus atmo-

391 sphere, which affects the intensity of vertical winds, wave properties and  
 392 so on. One may think that the adiabatic lapse rate of the real gas can be  
 393 used for the critical value in the convective parameterizations. If such a  
 394 method is adopted, then one should also change adiabatic heating term of  
 395 the dynamical process consistently.

396 Another idea for possibly better dynamical calculations with the as-  
 397 sumption of ideal gas is to set the temperature-dependent specific heat at  
 398 constant pressure,  $\tilde{C}_p$ , such that the adiabatic lapse rate of the ideal gas,  
 399  $p/(\rho_{IG}\tilde{C}_p)$ , mimics the adiabatic lapse rate of the real gas,  $pT\alpha_T/(\rho_{RG}C_{p,RG})$ ,  
 400 for a typical profile. Then, the convection parameterizations mix the atmo-  
 401 sphere with the adiabatic lapse rate corresponding to that of the real gas,  
 402 and the adiabatic heating term in the dynamical process is also consistent  
 403 with that of the real atmosphere. If we use the formulation of the governing  
 404 equations of Lebonnois et al. (2010), the coefficients for the temperature-  
 405 dependent specific heat at constant pressure,  $C_p(T) = C_{p0}(T/T_0)^\nu$ , deter-  
 406 mined as suggested above for the low latitude temperature profile of the  
 407 VIRA model are  $C_{p0} = 967 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ,  $T_0 = 460 \text{ K}$ , and  $\nu = 0.30$ . We  
 408 have to note, however, that the temperature tendencies in the physical pro-  
 409 cesses which depend on the specific heat, such as the radiative temperature  
 410 tendency, have errors due to the difference from the specific heat for the  
 411 real gas. The relative difference of these two values of the specific heat at

412 constant pressure is  $1 - (\rho_{RG}/\rho_{IG})/(T\alpha_T)$ , and is the same as the relative  
413 difference in the adiabatic lapse rate described above.

## 414 **6. Conclusions**

415 The dependence of the thermal structure of the lower atmosphere of  
416 Venus on the specification of atmospheric thermodynamic model has been  
417 investigated. Static stability of the VIRA model profile has been evaluated  
418 by the use of the thermodynamic models with and without the assumption  
419 of ideal gas to examine the effects of non-ideality of gas. The layer just above  
420 the surface diagnosed as stable by the use of the thermodynamic model of  
421 the real gas is diagnosed as unstable by the use of the thermodynamic model  
422 of the ideal gas.

423 The radiative-convective equilibrium structure of the lower atmosphere  
424 of Venus has been investigated with various thermodynamic models. Be-  
425 tween the cases with the real gas and the ideal gas the surface temperature  
426 differs as large as 7 K. If an ideal gas is assumed, the adiabatic lapse rate  
427 can deviate from that of the real gas by as much as 4.5 %. The deviation  
428 can be as much as 7.6 % if the specific heat at constant pressure of the real  
429 gas is used to evaluate the adiabatic lapse rate with the assumption of ideal  
430 gas. Since the layer of convection is determined by the adiabatic lapse rate,  
431 an inaccurate evaluation of the adiabatic lapse rate will significantly reduce



432 the accuracy of the estimated thermal structure.

433 An idea to perform better dynamical calculations with the assumption  
434 of ideal gas is to use the specific heat at constant pressure such that the  
435 adiabatic lapse rate of the ideal gas mimics that of the real gas. In this  
436 approach, the convection parameterizations tend to mix the atmosphere  
437 vertically with the adiabatic lapse rate of the real Venus atmosphere. This  
438 procedure is consistent with the adiabatic heating in the dynamical pro-  
439 cesses, though the temperature tendencies of the physical processes which  
440 depend on the specific heat, such as radiative temperature tendency, are  
441 inaccurate.

## 442 **Appendix A. Thermal structure in the cases with con-** 443 **stant specific heat**

Fig. 8

444 Figure 8 shows the radiative-convective equilibrium structures in the  
445 cases with the ideal gas but with the several values of constant specific heat  
446 at constant pressure,  $C_p = 700, 850, 1000, \text{ and } 1150 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ .

## 447 **Data Availability Statement**

448 The data generated and analyzed in this study will be available at  
449 the JMSJ's J-STAGE Data site except for those already published else-

450 where. Software developed and used in this study and its newest ver-  
451 sions will be available from the web page of GFD Dennou Club, [https:](https://www.gfd-dennou.org/)  
452 [//www.gfd-dennou.org/](https://www.gfd-dennou.org/).

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## List of Figures

561	1	Vertical profiles of (a) temperature and (b) static stability for the VIRA model at low latitude. In panel (b), the red and the blue solid lines are for the real gas and the ideal gas, respectively, and the short-dashed and the dot-dashed blue lines are for the ideal gases with constant $C_p$ of the values of 850 and 1150 J K <sup>-1</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup> , respectively. . . . .	31
562			
563			
564			
565			
566			
567	2	Vertical profiles of specific heat at constant pressure for the low latitude temperature profile of the VIRA model. The black, the red, the blue, and the green lines show values of the VIRA model, the real gas, the ideal gas, and the temperature-dependent function used by Lebonnois et al. (2010), respectively. . . . .	32
568			
569			
570			
571			
572			
573	3	Vertical profiles of gas volume mixing ratios and cloud mass mixing ratios used in the radiation model: (a) gas profile and (b) cloud profile. . . . .	33
574			
575			
576	4	Radiative-convective equilibrium (RCE) profiles of (a) temperature, (b) temperature difference from the low latitude profile of the VIRA model, and (c) static stability for the real gas (Case RGMix). . . . .	34
577			
578			
579			
580	5	Radiative-convective equilibrium profiles of (a) temperature difference from the low latitude profile of the VIRA model, and (b) static stability with various thermodynamic models. The solid and the long-dashed red lines are those with Cases RGMix and RGCO <sub>2</sub> , respectively. The solid and the long-dashed green lines are those with Cases VDWGMix and VDWGCO <sub>2</sub> , respectively. The solid and the short-dashed blue lines are those with Cases IGMix and IG850, respectively. The black line is that for the low latitude profile of the VIRA model. . . . .	35
581			
582			
583			
584			
585			
586			
587			
588			
589			
590	6	Relative differences of the density (solid), the specific heat at constant pressure (long-dashed), the thermal expansion coefficient (short-dashed), and the adiabatic lapse rate, $pT\alpha_T/(\rho C_p)$ , (dot-dashed) of the mixture of real gases from those of the mixture of ideal gases for the low latitude temperature profile as a function of pressure of the VIRA model. . . . .	36
591			
592			
593			
594			
595			



596	7	Vertical profiles of (a) the density, (b) the specific heat at	
597		constant pressure, (c) the thermal expansion coefficient, and	
598		(d) the adiabatic lapse rate of the mixture of real gases (red)	
599		and those of the mixture of ideal gases (blue) for the low	
600		latitude temperature profile as a function of pressure of the	
601		VIRA model. . . . .	37
602	8	Same as Fig. 4, but with the ideal gas with constant specific	
603		heat. The red, the green, the blue, and the magenta lines	
604		are the profiles for $C_p = 700, 850, 1000, 1150 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ,	
605		respectively. . . . .	38

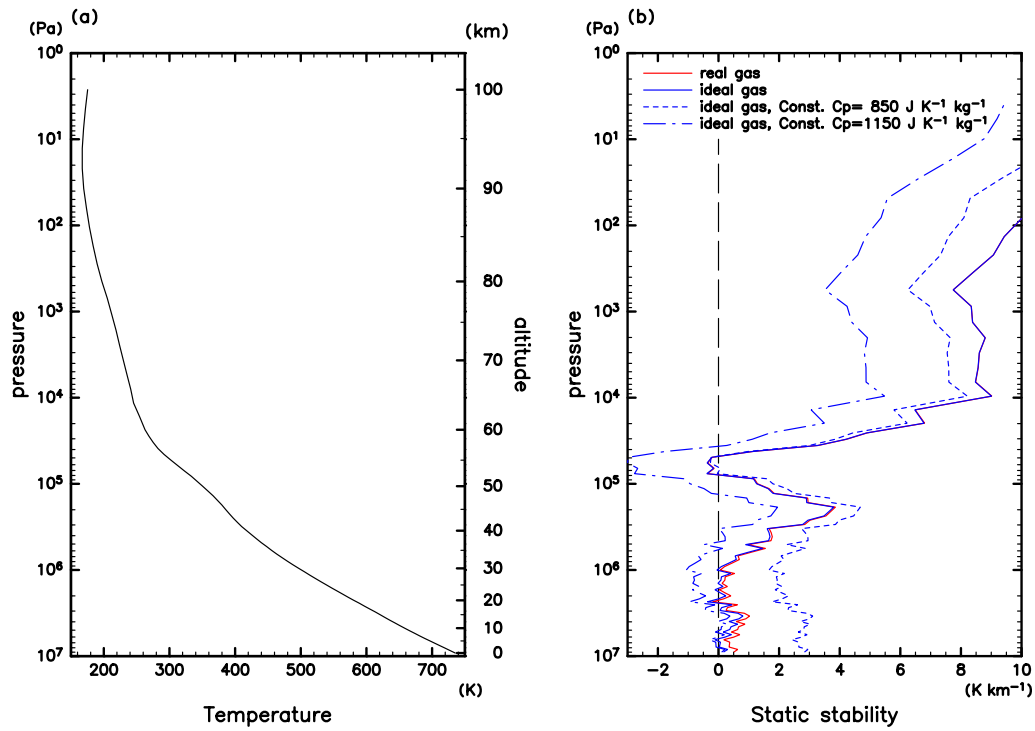


Fig. 1. Vertical profiles of (a) temperature and (b) static stability for the VIRA model at low latitude. In panel (b), the red and the blue solid lines are for the real gas and the ideal gas, respectively, and the short-dashed and the dot-dashed blue lines are for the ideal gases with constant  $C_p$  of the values of 850 and 1150 J K<sup>-1</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

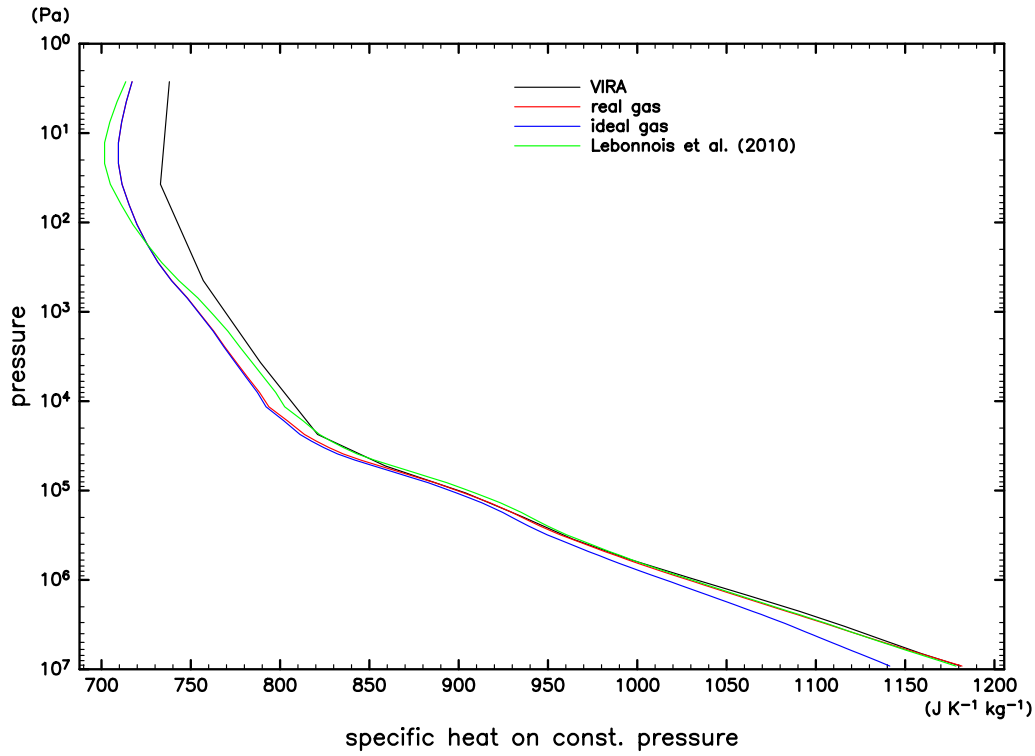


Fig. 2. Vertical profiles of specific heat at constant pressure for the low latitude temperature profile of the VIRA model. The black, the red, the blue, and the green lines show values of the VIRA model, the real gas, the ideal gas, and the temperature-dependent function used by Lebonnois et al. (2010), respectively.

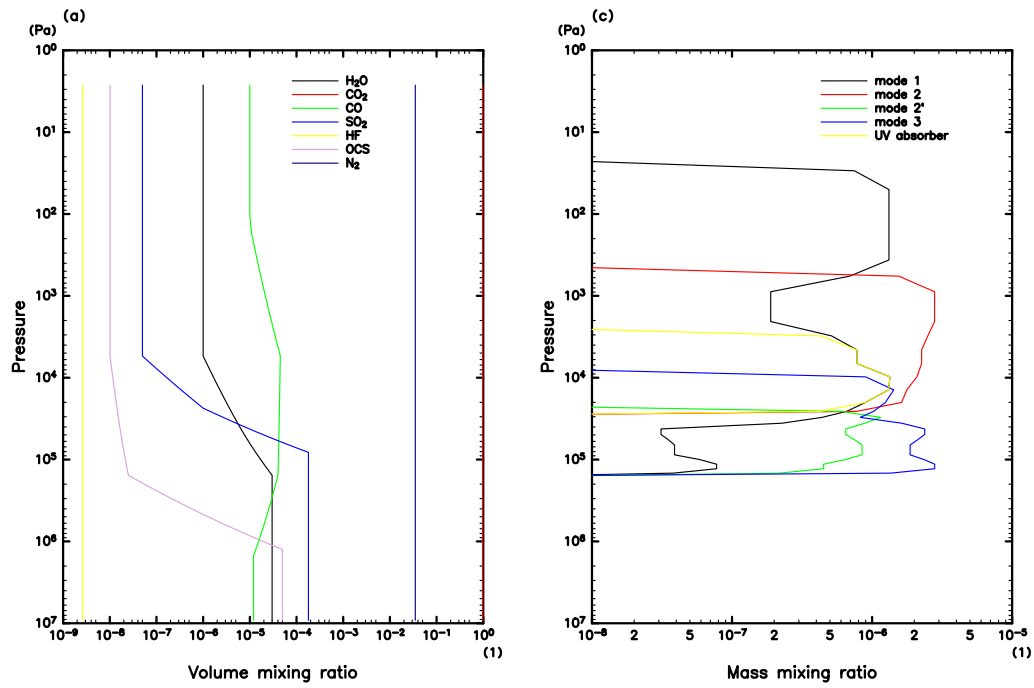


Fig. 3. Vertical profiles of gas volume mixing ratios and cloud mass mixing ratios used in the radiation model: (a) gas profile and (b) cloud profile.

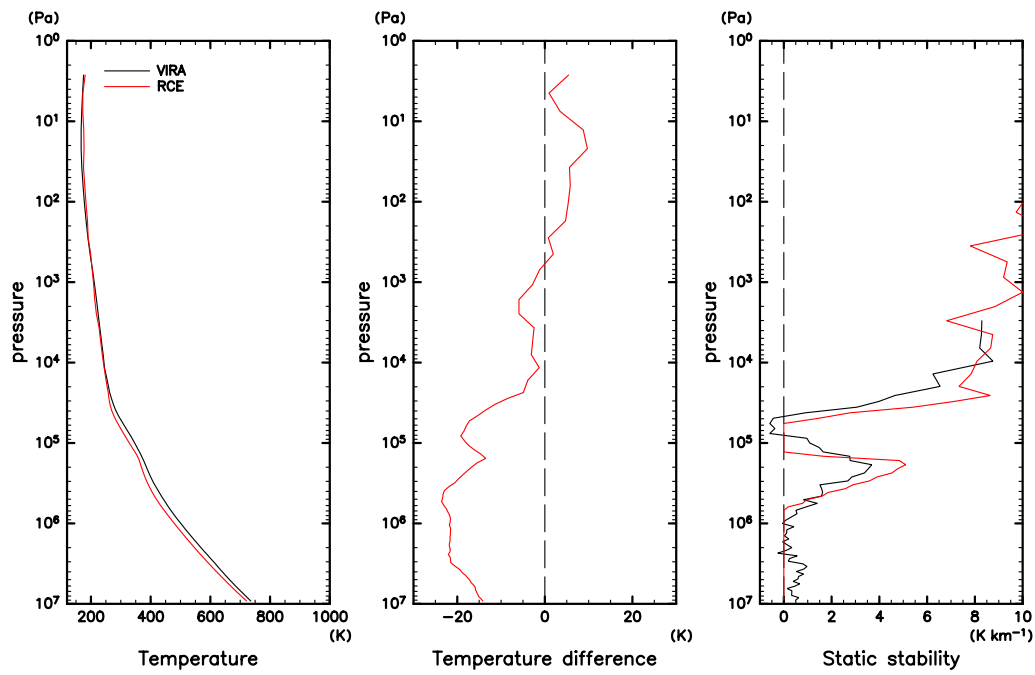


Fig. 4. Radiative-convective equilibrium (RCE) profiles of (a) temperature, (b) temperature difference from the low latitude profile of the VIRA model, and (c) static stability for the real gas (Case RGMix).

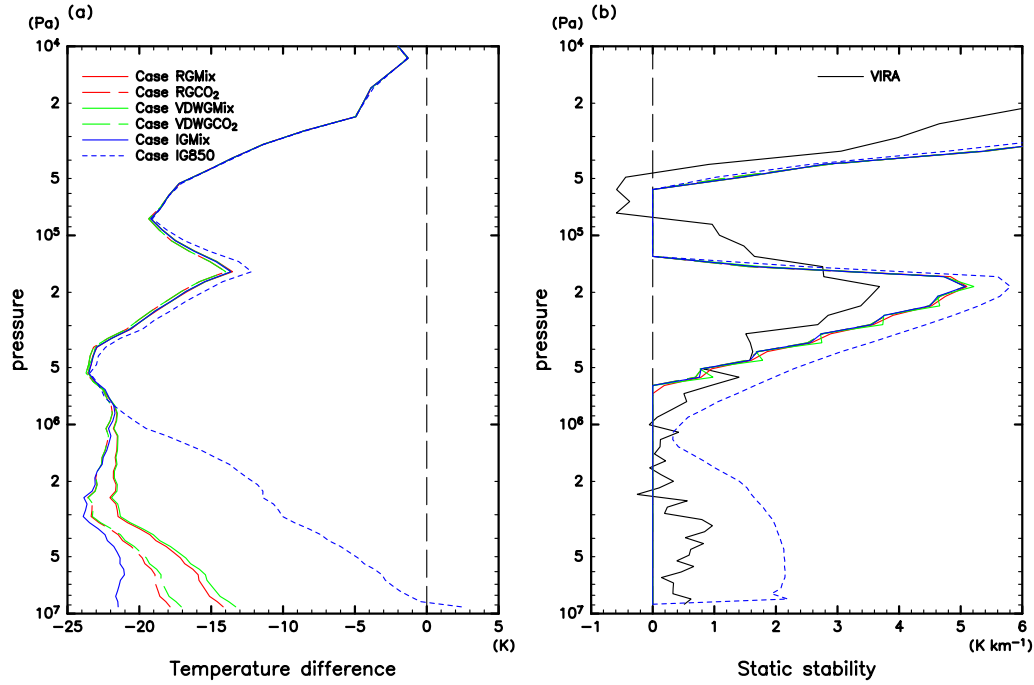


Fig. 5. Radiative-convective equilibrium profiles of (a) temperature difference from the low latitude profile of the VIRA model, and (b) static stability with various thermodynamic models. The solid and the long-dashed red lines are those with Cases RGMix and RGCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The solid and the long-dashed green lines are those with Cases VDWMix and VDWGCO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The solid and the short-dashed blue lines are those with Cases IGMix and IG850, respectively. The black line is that for the low latitude profile of the VIRA model.

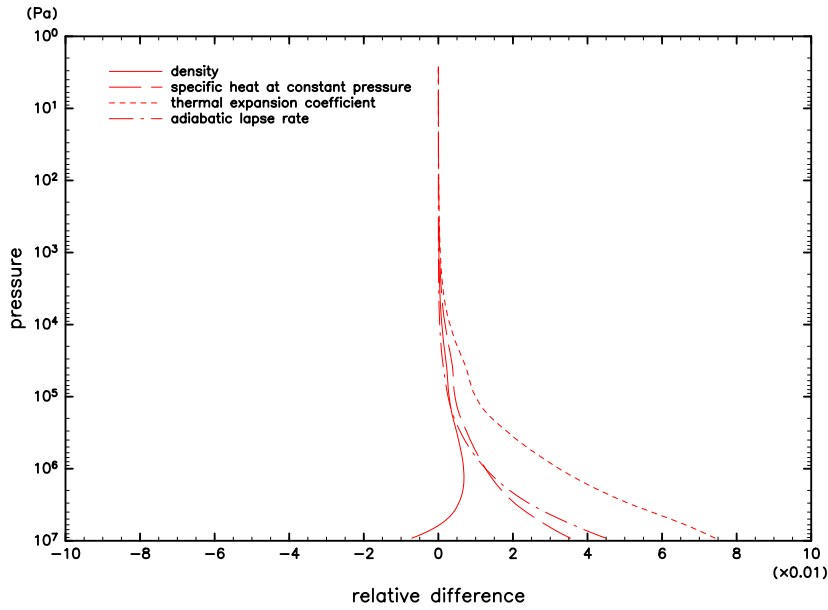


Fig. 6. Relative differences of the density (solid), the specific heat at constant pressure (long-dashed), the thermal expansion coefficient (short-dashed), and the adiabatic lapse rate,  $pT\alpha_T/(\rho C_p)$ , (dot-dashed) of the mixture of real gases from those of the mixture of ideal gases for the low latitude temperature profile as a function of pressure of the VIRA model.

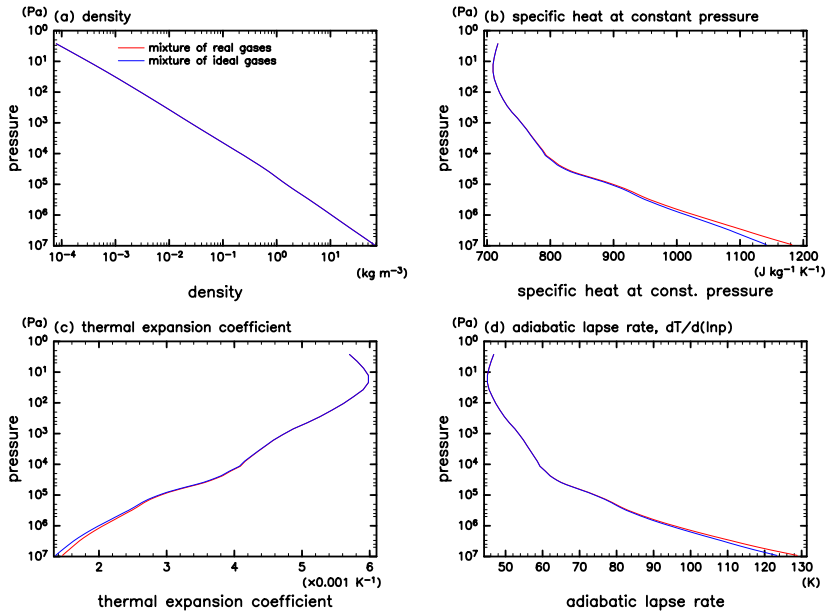


Fig. 7. Vertical profiles of (a) the density, (b) the specific heat at constant pressure, (c) the thermal expansion coefficient, and (d) the adiabatic lapse rate of the mixture of real gases (red) and those of the mixture of ideal gases (blue) for the low latitude temperature profile as a function of pressure of the VIRa model.



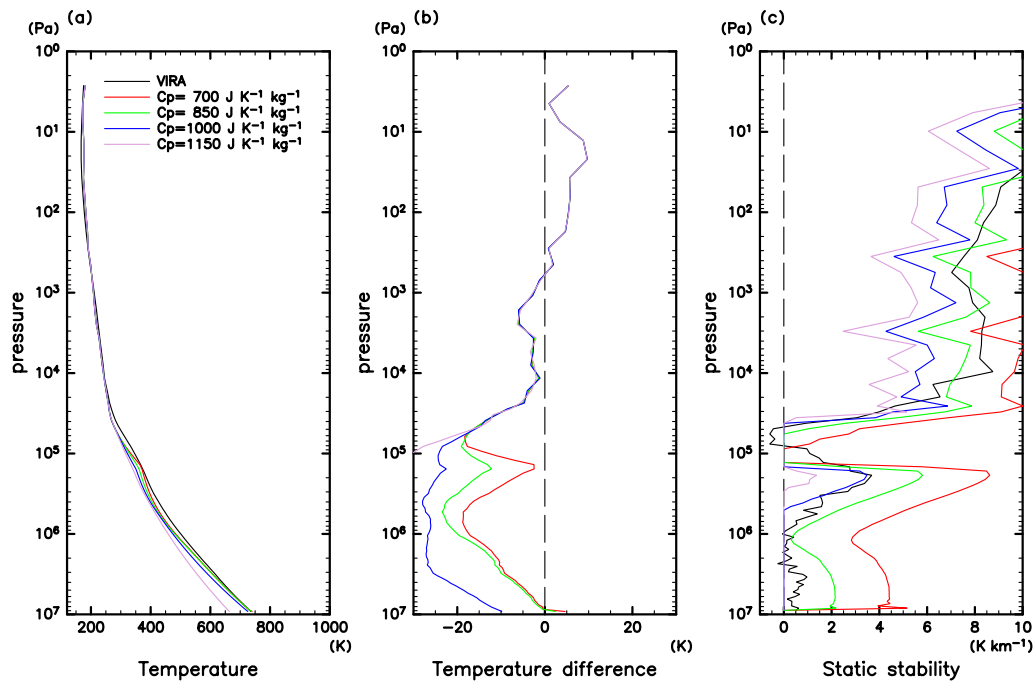


Fig. 8. Same as Fig. 4, but with the ideal gas with constant specific heat. The red, the green, the blue, and the magenta lines are the profiles for  $C_p = 700, 850, 1000, 1150 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , respectively.

606

## List of Tables

607	1	Thermodynamic models used in the experiments. . . . .	40
608	2	The constants, $a$ and $b$ , for van der Waals EOS for each pure	
609		component (The Chemical Society of Japan and Shinohara	
610		2004). . . . .	41

Table 1. Thermodynamic models used in the experiments.

Case	EOS	$C_p$
RGMix	real gas EOS <sup>a</sup>	dependent on $T$ and $\rho$ <sup>b</sup>
RGCO <sub>2</sub>	real gas EOS <sup>a</sup>	dependent on $T$ and $\rho$ <sup>b</sup>
VDWGMix	van der Waals EOS	dependent on $T$ and $\rho$ <sup>c</sup>
VDWGCO <sub>2</sub>	van der Waals EOS	dependent on $T$ and $\rho$ <sup>c</sup>
IGMix	ideal gas EOS	dependent on $T$ <sup>b</sup>
IG850	ideal gas EOS	850 J K <sup>-1</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup>

<sup>a</sup>The EOS-CG mixture model is used.

<sup>b</sup>The values are derived from the EOS-CG mixture model.

<sup>c</sup>The values are represented as the sum of  $C_v$  of ideal gases derived from the EOS-CG mixture model and  $C_p - C_v$  derived from the van der Waals EOS.

Table 2. The constants,  $a$  and  $b$ , for van der Waals EOS for each pure component (The Chemical Society of Japan and Shinohara 2004).

Component	$a$ (Pa m <sup>6</sup> mol <sup>-2</sup> )	$b$ (m <sup>3</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup> )
CO <sub>2</sub>	$3.66 \times 10^{-1}$	$4.28 \times 10^{-5}$
N <sub>2</sub>	$1.37 \times 10^{-1}$	$3.36 \times 10^{-5}$