

1 **A giant comet-like cloud of hydrogen escaping the warm Neptune-**  
2 **mass exoplanet GJ 436b**

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22 Exoplanets orbiting close their parent stars could lose some fraction of their  
23 atmospheres because of the extreme irradiation<sup>1-5</sup>. In particular, it has been suggested  
24 that large and hot rocky planets<sup>6</sup> might have lost all of their atmosphere, having begun  
25 as Neptune-like<sup>7-12</sup>. It has been predicted that the signature of this loss would be visible  
26 in the ultraviolet<sup>13</sup>, with transits extended in depth and duration beyond those visible in  
27 the optical. Here we report that in the ultraviolet the Neptune-mass exoplanet GJ 436b  
28 has transits eclipsing  $56.3 \pm 3.5\%$  of the stellar surface, far beyond the 0.69% occultations  
29 caused by the optical transits. The ultraviolet transits start  $\sim 2$  hrs before, and end  $>3$  hrs  
30 after the optical transits, which last for  $\sim 1$  hr. We infer from this that the planet is  
31 surrounded and trailed by a large exospheric cloud composed mainly of hydrogen atoms  
32 on ballistic trajectories. Although atmospheric mass loss primarily affects low-mass  
33 exoplanets, no confident measurements were previously available. The unambiguous  
34 detection ( $16.0\sigma$ ) at GJ 436b allows an estimation for the mass-loss rate in the range of  
35  $\sim 10^8 - 10^9 \text{ g s}^{-1}$ , which today is far too small to deplete the atmosphere of a Neptune-like  
36 planet in the lifetime of the parent star, but would have been much greater in the past.  
37 These observations opens the exciting possibility that large atmospheric signals could be  
38 retrieved in the UV for a whole population of moderately irradiated, low-mass  
39 exoplanets.

40 Three transits of GJ 436b, which occur every 2.64 days, have been observed on 7 December  
41 2012<sup>4</sup> (visit 1), 18 June 2013 (visit 2), and 23 June 2014 (visit 3) with the Space Telescope  
42 Imaging Spectrograph (STIS) on board the Hubble Space Telescope (HST). A stellar  
43 spectrum acquired using similar settings in January 2010<sup>13</sup> (visit 0) was retrieved from the  
44 archive for comparison purposes. HST data in visits 2 and 3 were complemented with  
45 simultaneous Chandra X-ray observations. The HST data consist of time-tagged, far-  
46 ultraviolet spectra obtained with a grating dispersing light over the 1,195–1,248 Å domain,  
47 with a spectral resolution of  $\sim 20 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  at 1,215.6 Å (the Lyman- $\alpha$  transition of atomic  
48 hydrogen, H I). Exposure times of 1,800 s to 2,400 s were used to observe the star for four  
49 successive HST orbits during each visit. Each HST orbit lasts for 96 min, during which  
50 GJ 436 is visible for 56 min before being occulted by the Earth, yielding 40 min gaps in the  
51 data.

52 The most prominent spectral feature is the H I Lyman- $\alpha$  emission (Figure 1) arising in M  
53 dwarf stars from the transition region between the chromosphere and the corona. Absorption  
54 in this line has been reported in other systems, during transits of hot Jupiters. This is  
55 interpreted by the presence of escaping hydrogen exospheres surrounding close-in gas  
56 giants<sup>1,3,14</sup>. If GJ 436b possesses such an extended atmosphere, we should thus observe a  
57 time-resolved absorption signature over the stellar Lyman- $\alpha$  emission. A tentative detection  
58 was made from visit 1 data despite the signal being observed only after the optical transit of  
59 the planet<sup>4</sup>. Visits 2 and 3 have been specifically carried out to search for a signal related to  
60 the optical transit.

61 We performed a careful analysis to check for the existence of instrumental systematics in the  
62 data and correct for them (see the Supplementary Information). Large variations are detected  
63 over a localised part of the stellar Lyman- $\alpha$  line at times corresponding to the optical transit,  
64 which cannot be explained by any known instrumental effects. The most significant

65 absorption occurs in the blue wing of the line for radial velocities between  $-120 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  to –  
66  $40 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , during the three visits. In this interval, shown in Figure 1, the Lyman- $\alpha$  line is  
67 absorbed with respect to the reference spectrum (“out-of-transit phases”) about 2 hrs before  
68 the optical transit mid-time (“pre-transit phases”). Averaged over the three visits, which all  
69 show remarkably similar behaviour (see Extended Data Figure 1), the pre-transit stellar flux  
70 in the blue wing of the line is absorbed by  $17.6 \pm 5.2\%$  with respect to the out-of-transit flux.  
71 The absorption keeps increasing around the mid-transit time (“in-transit phases”), where the  
72 stellar flux is absorbed by  $56.2 \pm 3.6\%$ . At this time, an equivalent surface larger than half the  
73 stellar disc is eclipsed. After the end of the optical transit (“post-transit phases”), the  
74 absorption signal at Lyman- $\alpha$  slightly decreases to  $47.2 \pm 4.1\%$ . This transit signature, plotted  
75 in Figure 2, is significantly deeper than the one of  $22.9 \pm 3.9\%$  previously reported for visit 1  
76 data alone<sup>4</sup> and starts significantly earlier ( $\sim 2.7$  hrs); the difference is mainly due to our  
77 finding of a pre-transit absorption and updated transit ephemeris (see the Supplementary  
78 Information).

79 In sharp contrast with the huge signature observed between  $-120 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  and  $-40 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , the  
80 flux remains stable at larger blue shifts, and over the whole red-shifted wing of the line, as  
81 shown in Figure 2. In the red wing of the line (between  $+20 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  and  $+200 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ), flux  
82 ratios of  $0.7 \pm 3.6\%$ ,  $1.7 \pm 3.5\%$ , and  $8.0 \pm 3.1\%$  are measured during the pre-transit, in-transit,  
83 and post-transit phases, respectively, which is compatible with no detection at the  $3\sigma$  level.

84 Absorption signals shallower and shorter than for GJ 436b have been reported during transits  
85 of hot Jupiters, in the blue wing of their host star Lyman- $\alpha$  lines<sup>1,3,14,15</sup>. These signals are all  
86 interpreted as absorption by extended upper atmospheres around the planets. Meanwhile,  
87 magnetic activity could also induce variations in the stellar emission. We use the unabsorbed  
88 red part of the line to estimate that the intrinsic stellar variability at GJ 436 should not exceed  
89 5% to 11% of the Lyman- $\alpha$  flux during one visit. Our Chandra X-ray data cover pre-transit

90 phases at four epochs (see the Supplementary Information), two of which during HST visits 2  
91 and 3. They show very similar extreme UV (EUV) emission, supporting small stellar  
92 variability between HST visits at Lyman- $\alpha$ . We conclude that stellar variability cannot explain  
93 the observed decrease at Lyman- $\alpha$ , at times coinciding with the planetary transits.

94 We propose that the asymmetric absorption is caused by the passage of a huge hydrogen  
95 cloud, surrounding and trailing the planet. The planetary atmosphere is an obvious source for  
96 this hydrogen. We test this assumption by showing that the observed Lyman- $\alpha$  light curve can  
97 be reproduced with a simple transiting shape. We use an optically-thick ellipse of semi-major  
98 axis  $a$  and semi-minor axis  $b$  to represent the projection of the cloud in the plan of the sky.  
99 We calculate the transit light curve that such a cloud would produce when passing in front of  
100 the star, as seen from Earth, and fit it to the light curve, adjusting for  $a$  and  $b$ . A best fit is  
101 obtained for  $a = 12.1 R_*$  and  $b = 2.4 R_*$  and the corresponding light curve and cloud contour  
102 are plotted in Figure 2 (thick grey curve) and Figure 3, respectively. The cloud extends far  
103 beyond the planet Roche lobe radius ( $4.42 R_p$  or  $0.37 R_*$ ), a spatial extension unmatched by  
104 any of the observations of hot Jupiters. The transit of GJ 436b is grazing so we assume the  
105 cloud would transit with a similar inclination, corresponding to an impact parameter of  
106  $0.8521^{16}$ . Remarkably, a central transit would have totally eclipsed the star and we surmise  
107 that this should happen in the case of other red dwarfs exhibiting central transits from planets  
108 similar to GJ 436b. Future ultraviolet observations of systems similar to GJ 436 could  
109 potentially reveal total Lyman- $\alpha$  eclipses.

110 The fact that the absorption signal takes place in the  $[-120, -40] \text{ km s}^{-1}$  interval yields  
111 additional constraints on the dynamics of the hydrogen atoms and the 3D structure of the  
112 exospheric cloud. First, the whole velocity range is in excess of the planet escape velocity  
113 ( $\sim 26 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  at the planet surface), consistent with gas escaping from the planet. The  
114 acceleration mechanism of hydrogen atoms escaping from highly-irradiated hot Jupiters is

115 debated: after hydrogen atoms escape the planets with initial velocities dominated by the  
 116 orbital velocity ( $\sim 100 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  for GJ 436b in the host star reference frame), they are submitted  
 117 to the stellar radiation pressure, can interact with the stellar wind, and are eventually ionised  
 118 by stellar extreme UV (EUV; 10–91.2 nm) radiation. Radiation pressure is measurable from  
 119 resolved observation of the Lyman- $\alpha$  profile, which has to be corrected for the interstellar  
 120 medium absorption<sup>13,17</sup>. For strong lines such as Lyman- $\alpha$ , radiation pressure can overcome  
 121 the stellar gravitation, repelling the escaping atoms towards the observer, and producing a  
 122 blue-shifted signature. In one hot Jupiter (HD 189733b), the absorption observed at very large  
 123 blue-shift is best explained by charge exchange interaction with the stellar wind, creating  
 124 energetic neutral atoms (ENAs) with large negative (blue-shifted) radial velocities<sup>15,18-20</sup>. In  
 125 other cases<sup>1,14,21</sup>, radiation pressure alone explain the observed radial velocities of the  
 126 escaping gas.

127 We run our 3D numerical simulation of atmospheric escape<sup>15</sup> to understand the origin of the  
 128 absorption signature in radial velocity observed in the blue wing of the stellar Lyman- $\alpha$  line.  
 129 The line profile corrected from interstellar absorption is used to calculate the stellar radiation  
 130 pressure on hydrogen atoms. These are released isotropically from the Roche lobe limit of  
 131 GJ 436b, with velocities dominated by the tangential orbital velocity of the planet at the time  
 132 of their release. The calculation takes the orbital eccentricity of GJ 436b ( $e = 0.15$ ) into  
 133 account. The main parameters of the atmospheric escape model are the mass-loss rate  $\dot{m}$  of  
 134 hydrogen lost by the planet and the photo-ionisation rate  $\alpha_{\text{EUV}}$  of hydrogen atoms. The model  
 135 computes the structure of the escaping gas cloud as well as its radial velocity absorption  
 136 signature. A family of models, with parameters in the ranges of  $\dot{m} \sim 10^8\text{--}10^9 \text{ g s}^{-1}$  and  
 137  $\alpha_{\text{EUV}} \sim 8 \times 10^{-7}\text{--}3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (implying neutral atom lifetimes of  $\sim 4\text{--}18 \text{ min}$  at the distance of the  
 138 planet), provides good fits to the data; an example light curve is plotted in Figure 2. The  
 139 model correctly predicts the  $\sim 2 \text{ hr}$  early UV transit ingress observed with respect to the

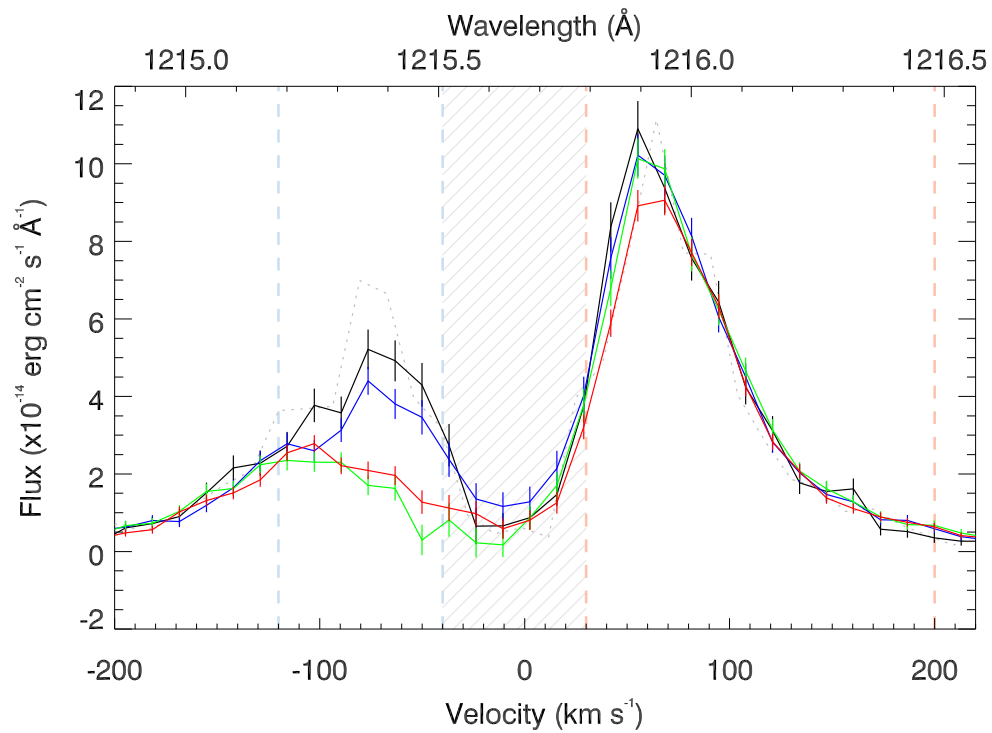
140 optical transit, as well as the transit depth in the correct range of velocities. It provides a good  
141 match to the re-analysed visit 1 data. It furthermore predicts that the UV transit could last up  
142 to  $\sim 20$  hrs after the optical transit, due to the extended hydrogen tail of the exospheric cloud.  
143 More UV observations will be needed to verify this prediction.

144 According to the numerical simulation, the stellar radiation pressure counterbalances  $\lesssim 70\%$   
145 of the star's gravity pull on the escaping atoms, which is much less than in other systems with  
146 hot Jupiters, where radiation pressure takes over stellar gravity by factors of 3 to  $5^{15}$ . The low  
147 stellar radiation pressure at GJ 436b allows the formation of a large coma and tail of escaping  
148 atoms, comoving with the planet although not gravitationally bounded to it.

149 Atmospheric escape is involved in the possible loss of a whole population of irradiated  
150 exoplanets<sup>8,9,11,12</sup>. The average mass-loss rate of  $\sim 5 \times 10^8 \text{ g s}^{-1}$  at GJ 436b means that the planet  
151 loses  $\sim 0.1\%$  of its atmosphere per billion years (assuming it accounts for 10% of the planet  
152 mass, like Neptune). This rate requires  $\sim 1\%$  efficiency in the conversion of input energy into  
153 mass loss<sup>11</sup>. In the past, an M dwarf like GJ 436 was more active and the planet could have  
154 received  $\lesssim 100$  times more X-ray and EUV irradiation over  $\sim 1 \text{ Gyr}^{22}$ , resulting in a possible  
155 loss of  $\lesssim 10\%$  of its atmosphere during the first billion years. This planet thus stands on the  
156 edge of significant mass loss, leading us to surmise that closer-in Neptunes could have  
157 evolved more dramatically because of atmospheric escape.

158 This  $16.0\sigma$  detection opens the exciting perspective to obtain large atmospheric signals from  
159 comet-like exospheres around moderately-irradiated, low-mass planets in the UV, while the  
160 atmospheric characterisation of similar planets remains challenging at longer wavelengths<sup>23</sup>.  
161 Over  $\sim 10,000$  nearby systems like GJ 436 will be discovered by upcoming transit surveys  
162 carried out from the ground (e.g. NGTS) and from space (K2, CHEOPS, TESS, and PLATO).

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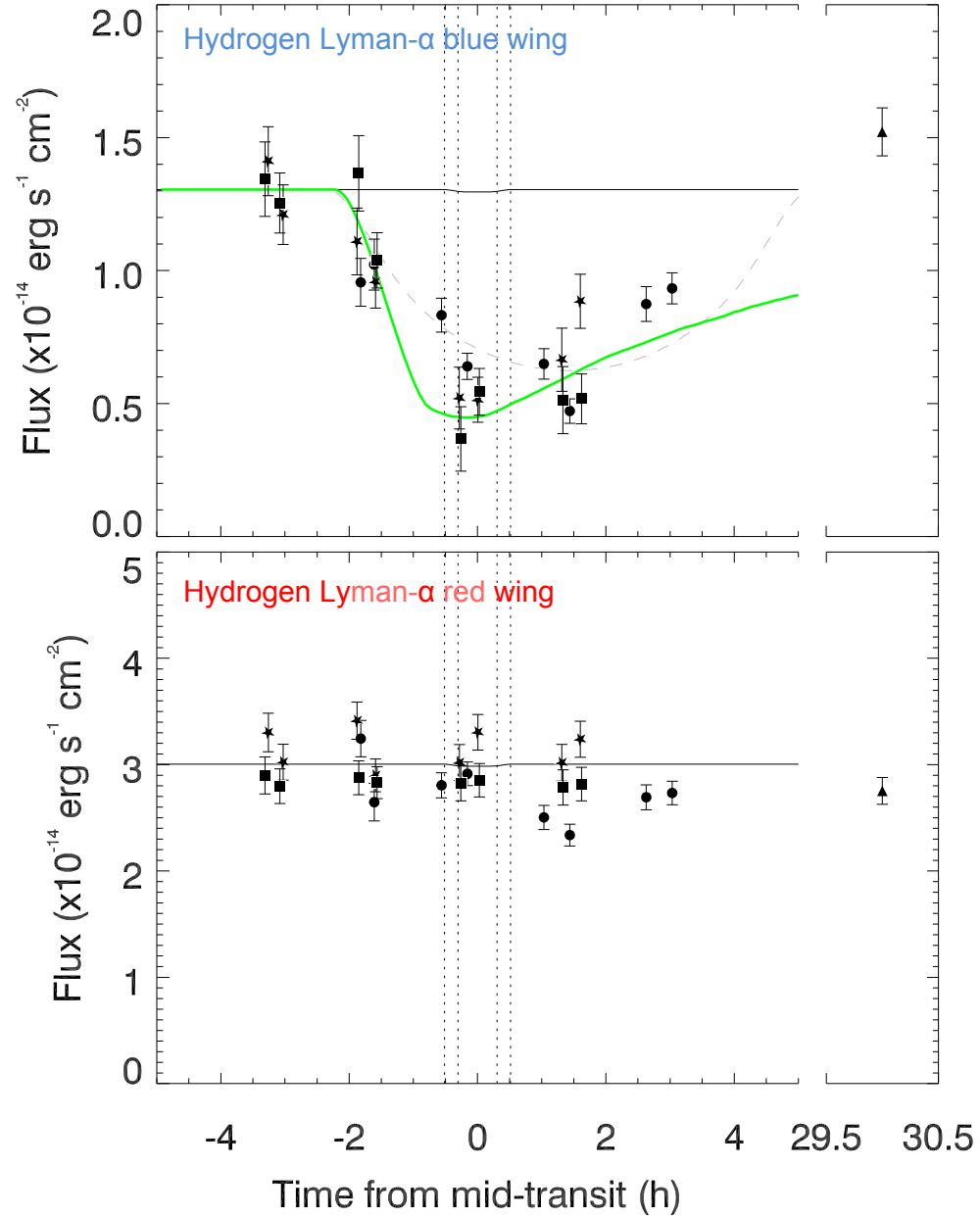


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165 **Figure 1 | Spectra of the star GJ 436 taken with the Space Telescope Imaging Spectrograph of the Hubble Space**  
 166 **Telescope.** The region around the Lyman- $\alpha$  emission of atomic hydrogen (H I) is shown in heliocentric velocity space, with  
 167  $0 \text{ km s}^{-1}$  corresponding to a wavelength of 121.56 nm. The line core (grey hatched region) cannot be observed from Earth  
 168 because of absorption by hydrogen in the interstellar medium (ISM) along the line of sight. The ISM absorption produces this  
 169 characteristic double-peak profile. The different colours show the stellar emission averaged over all HST visits at different  
 170 phases with respect to the optical transit: out-of-transit (black), pre-transit (blue), in-transit (green), and post-transit (red). The  
 171 absorption signal is measured in the blue-shifted part of the line (corresponding to negative radial velocities) in the range of  
 172  $[-120, -40] \text{ km s}^{-1}$ , delimited by the vertical blue dashed lines. A control measure is performed over the red-shifted part of the  
 173 line in the range of  $[+30, +200] \text{ km s}^{-1}$  delimited by the vertical red dashed lines. The stellar line profile observed in January  
 174 2010 (visit 0) is shown for comparison with a dotted grey line.

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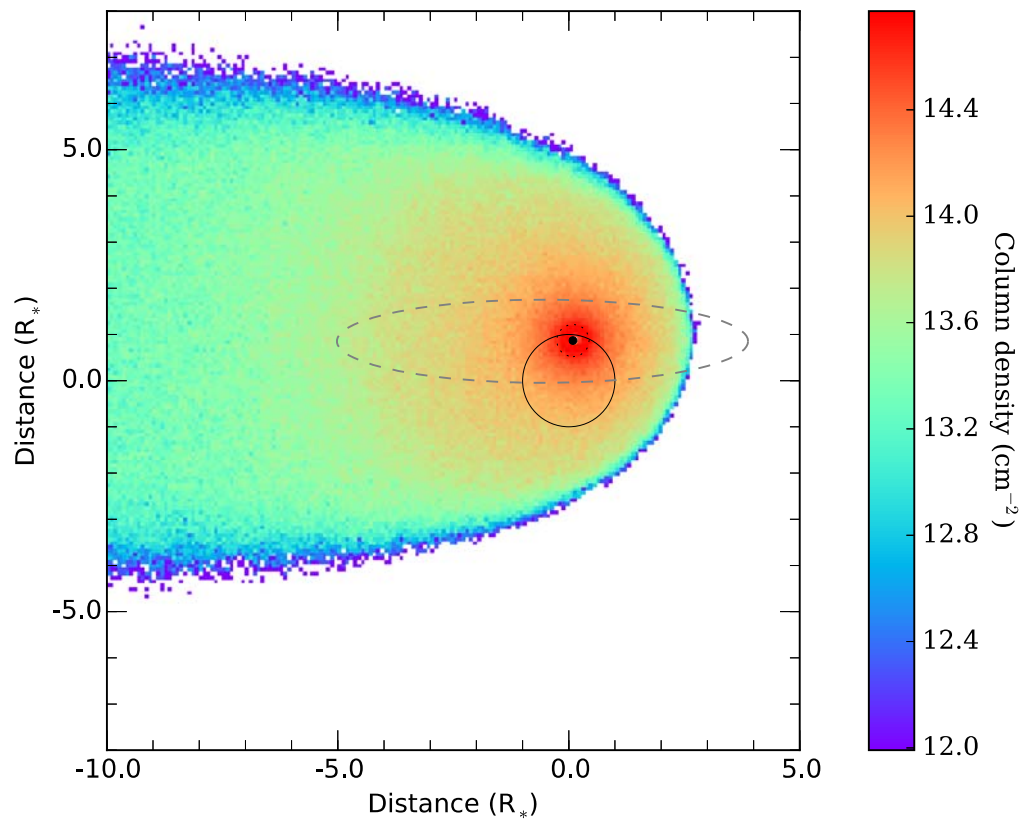
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178 **Figure 2 | Ultraviolet transit light curves of GJ 436b.** They are calculated by integrating the stellar hydrogen Lyman- $\alpha$  line  
 179 in the velocity ranges  $[-120,-40]$   $\text{km s}^{-1}$  (blue wing of the line; top panel) and  $[+30,+200]$   $\text{km s}^{-1}$  (red wing of the line; bottom  
 180 panel). The different observation epochs are represented with different symbols for visit 1 (circles), visit 2 (stars), visit 3  
 181 (squares), and visit 0 (triangle). The data point from visit 0<sup>13</sup>, acquired  $\sim 3$  years before visit 1, shows that the out-of-transit  
 182 variability is small compared to the blue-shifted signal observed in the in-transit and post-transit phases. The planetary transit  
 183 observed in the optical is shown to scale by the thin black line: with an absorption depth of 0.69%, it is barely seen at this

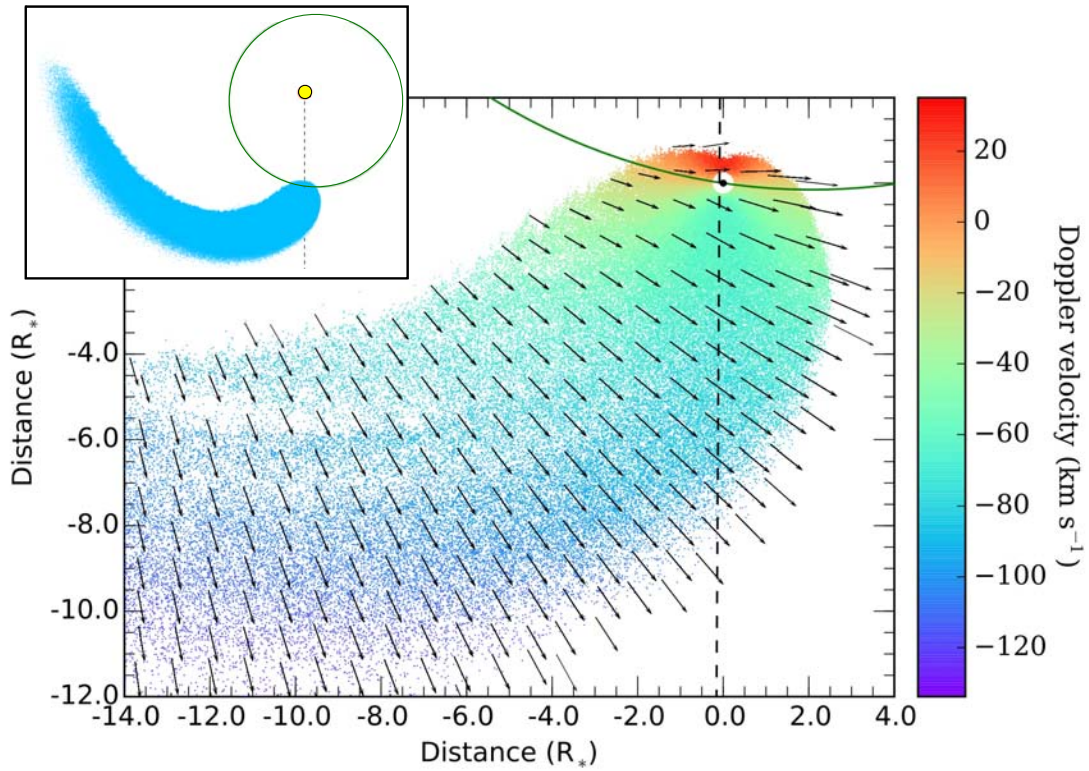
184 scale. The vertical dotted line represent the contact points of this transit. The ultraviolet transit in the blue wing of the line is  
185 far deeper and wider than the shallow optical transit, starting about 2 hrs before the mid-transit time and lasting for at least  
186 3 hrs after it. No such behaviour is observed in the red wing of the line. The decrease of the red-wing flux during the post-  
187 transit phases has been noticed by ref.[<sup>4</sup>] for the visit 1 data. This behaviour is, however, not reproduced during visits 2 and 3,  
188 and the mean post-transit absorption of  $8.0 \pm 3.1\%$  in the red wing has a significance of  $2.6\sigma$  only. The grey dashed curve in  
189 the top panel is the best-fit transit light curve of the optically thick ellipsoidal model. The contour of this ellipse is  
190 represented in Figure 3. The thick green curve show one of the best-fit transit light curve generated with the 3D particle  
191 simulation<sup>15</sup>.

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193

194 **Figure 3 | Particle simulation<sup>15</sup> showing an optically-thin comet-like exospheric cloud transiting the star (large white**  
 195 **circle), as seen from Earth.** GJ 436b is the small black dot represented at mid-transit at 0.8521 stellar radius<sup>16</sup> from the  
 196 centre of the star, which is figured by the black circle. The dotted circle around the planet represents its equivalent Roche  
 197 radius. The colour of simulation particles denotes the column density of the cloud. The transit of this simulated cloud gives  
 198 rise to absorption over the blue wing of the Lyman- $\alpha$  line represented by the green light curve in the top panel of Figure 2.  
 199 The dashed grey ellipse delimits the best-fit optically-thick cloud from the geometrical toy model, which produces the dashed  
 200 grey light curve in the top panel of Figure 2.



201

202 **Figure 4 | Image of 3D simulation representing a slice of the comet-like cloud coplanar with the line of sight (dashed**  
 203 **vertical line), as viewed from “above”.** The arrows represent the hydrogen atom velocity and direction in the rest frame of  
 204 the star. Particles are colour-coded as a function of their projected velocities on the line of sight (the dashed vertical line).  
 205 The inset shows a zoom out of this image to the full spatial extent of the exospheric cloud (in blue). The planet orbit is shown  
 206 to scale with the green ellipse and the star is represented with the yellow circle.

207

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278 **Supplementary Information** is linked to the online version of the paper at  
 279 [www.nature.com/nature](http://www.nature.com/nature).

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283 **Author Contributions** D.E. proposed and led the HST-Chandra joint observation  
 284 programme, supervised data reduction and analysis, interpreted the results, and wrote the  
 285 paper. V.B. performed data reduction and analysis, and computer simulations to interpret the  
 286 results. P.J.W. set the Chandra X-ray observations, reduced, analysed, and interpreted the X-  
 287 ray data. A.L. co-designed the simulation programme with V.B. and provided computing  
 288 resources to run the simulations. A.L. and G.H. contributed to the observation programme,  
 289 data analysis, and interpretation. S.U., X.B., X.D., J.-M.D., D.K.S., and A.V.-M. contributed

290 to the observation programme and interpretation. All authors discussed the results and  
291 commented on the manuscript.

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