

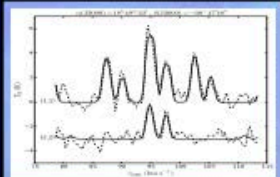
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES, KINEMATICS, AND SUBSTRUCTURE IN THE MOLECULAR GAS OF INFRARED DARK CLOUDS

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Abstract

Infrared Dark Clouds (IDCs) harbor the earliest phases of massive star formation, and many of the complex cores in IDCs are traced by millimeter continuum or by molecular emission in high critical density lines, but massive protostars. We used the Robert C. Byrd Green Bank Telescope (GBT) and the Very Large Array (VLA) to observe CO and C₂H in nine IDCs to reveal the temperature, density, and velocity structure and explore thermal evolution in the dense (10⁵ cm⁻³) gas. Elements in an ideal molecular tracer for these cold, dense environments. The internal structure and kinematics of the IDCs include velocity gradients, filaments, and possibly colliding outflows that indicate the evolution of these structures and their protostars. We find a wide variety of substructure including filaments and globules of diverse locations, sometimes overlapping at sites of ongoing star formation. It appears that these IDCs are still being assembled from molecular gas clouds even as star formation has already begun, and at least three of them appear to have complex morphology of the “bed-foundation” described in the literature. Furthermore, we find that these clouds are typically near equilibrium between gravitational and kinetic energies, so these structures may survive for multiple lifetimes.

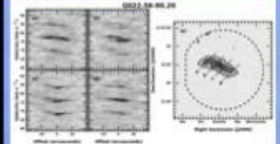


SPECTRAL LINE FITTING ROUTINE

We have written and implemented python code to fit the full hyperfine structure of the ammonia (J,K) and CO(2-1) emission lines. The code is capable of handling multiple marginally resolved velocity components along the line of sight in a highly automated way. For each velocity component, the code computes a model spectrum from five free parameters: a central velocity, a velocity width, an optical depth, an excitation temperature, and a rotation temperature. The rotation temperature has been shown to scale well with the kinetic temperature. The inclusion of the line optical depth and excitation temperature allows for an unambiguous determination of the column density, and thus the mass. The fit returns reveals the nature of interline and perpendicular axes.

CLUMP ASSIGNMENTS

It is readily apparent in the data that regions containing at least two strong, distinct velocity components, if not three or four, are common. Although in the single velocity component to the NH₃ spectra in these regions result in poor fits with approximately large residuals and spectral depth, so multiple components must be included. By performing clump decomposition on the data before fitting, it is easier to determine the number of components to include at each line of sight. Sophisticated clump-decomposition algorithms make use of the data rate and its ratio properties as a whole, and so we reuse robust algorithms of the number of components to fit that are useful making this determination on a line of sight (pixel-by-pixel) basis. Additionally, identifying significant column emission in the data allows us to make very good initial estimates of the central velocities and velocity widths at each line of sight for each component by making first- and second-order moment maps. Velocity dispersion and velocity dispersion, respectively, restricted to emission within the identified clump. Finally, using these clumps provides a straightforward and physically motivated way to constrain the physical parameters from the fitting for different substructures within the clouds. The perform clump decomposition on the NH₃ (J,K) data using the clump package described by Heitsch & Langer, 2008. We use the main hyperfine component of the (J,K) line because it typically has the highest signal-to-noise ratio and the (J,K) line does not trace the outflow and often shows column density.

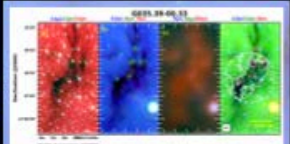


CO(2-1) is decomposed into three subclouds with masses. The primary velocity component ($v_{LSR} = 27 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) is located at the northeastern end of the cloud, while the high ($v_{LSR} = 78 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) and low ($v_{LSR} = 29 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) velocity components have high aspect ratios ($A \approx 1$) and run roughly parallel to each other along the cloud's major axis. The 78 km s^{-1} velocity component is located at the northern end of the cloud, while the 29 km s^{-1} velocity component, though they overlap spatially, and the cloud shows a high velocity dispersion of about 2 km s^{-1} at the overlap region. It is interesting that the peak in rotation velocity is located in velocity dispersion, and an extended peak occurs in all directions in the center of the overlap region. The post-velocity dispersion diagrams show where the cloud peaks in the noise are clearly those three major velocity components and their interaction. We identify two possible sources for CO(2-1) in (B) this cloud: a collision of multiple subclouds, eventually triggering the formation of the protostar; or (2) the protostar is driving expansion of the molecular gas around it. The separation between the two primary components is $\sim 5 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and they extend $\sim 1 \text{ pc}$, making either scenario plausible.

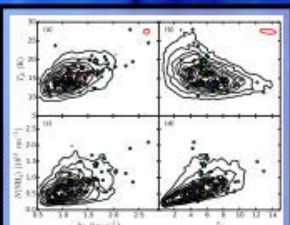


OBSERVATIONS & DATA

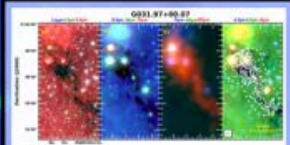
The combination of total power from single-dish observations along with the high resolution of an interferometer is critical for assessing the structure of filamentary clouds, such as IDCs. Data from the GBT provide solid flux on large spatial scales, which is not covered by our VLA observations. An observing configuration include simultaneous observations of the NH₃ (J,K) and CO(2-1) emission lines and the C₂H (2-1) line, with line frequencies of 23.6925 GHz, 23.6925 GHz, and 22.349 GHz, respectively. NH₃ (J,K) and CO(2-1) emission in our sample of IDCs was observed with the VLA in D configuration. The GBT data were combined with the VLA data in a two-step process. First, the VLA data were cleaned in CASA using the GBT cube as a starting model. The resulting cube was then combined with the GBT cube using uvwcorrelate in CASA. Prefiltering two images is a simple way to combine the two data sets, but can be sensitive to the shape of the hyperfine structure and to smaller calibration uncertainties. Using a cleaned image that the single-dish data as a starting model, rather than the cleaned VLA image alone, mitigates these effects because the cleaning process can correct any potential issues with the filtered image that might be associated with the interferometric visibility. Combining the data sets by using a clean model alone, however, is also sensitive to calibration errors and can result in a cube with more side flux than the single-dish alone, which is not physical. Filtering these resulting cubes with the single-dish brings the total flux in the final cleaned image back into agreement with the single-dish data. Incorporating distinct velocity components, velocity gradients, and elevated velocity dispersion as evidence of colliding clouds and/or gas flowing along filaments can be motivating, because of the lack of information in the final spatial dimension and the reduction in the plane of the sky. To move forward with understanding the kinematics and the chemistry in IDCs, we observed CO(2-1) in a series of colorator lines and 3 core contours with the Combined Array for Research in Millimeter-wave Astronomy (CARMA). Nine dense gas tracers were observed in CO(2-1) with CARMA in D configuration; the second most compact configuration.



CO(2-1) is a long, filamentary, high IR infrared cloud with proprotellar conditions. The velocity contour shows two distinct velocity components: a $v_{LSR} = 40 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ velocity outflow at the northern end of our observations, and a $v_{LSR} = 45 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ velocity filament in the main cloud with a gradient from the northeast to the southwest. The two components are well separated in velocity space, and position-velocity diagrams show apparent interaction between them. We see high velocity dispersion around most of the protostar, only one of which is consistent with the lower velocity component. Our CO data, which cover each mass of the cloud and have higher velocity resolution, show that the velocity gradient in the 45 km s^{-1} component contrasts along the filament system of the cloud. This suggests that the IRDC may also represent an example of the bed-foundation structure, in which gas is flowing along the proto-stellar 45 km s^{-1} filament in the region we studied, where it leads to ongoing star formation via inflow from nearby sources.

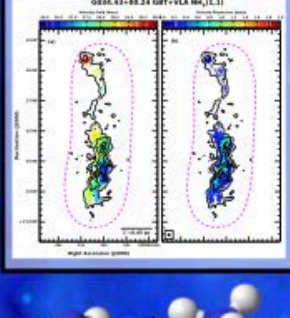
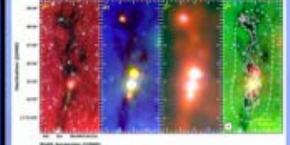


Plots of the results of parallel-plate NH₃ spectral line fitting are shown above, as well as average core clumps and white noise. The velocity dispersion, kinetic temperature, optical depth in the (J,K) line, and column density are generally consistent. CO(2-1) data are available for the highest Δv , T_{kin} and $N(\text{NH}_3)$ in the sample, dominated by the emission surrounding the bright protostar with outflow as traced by mass and momentum flux density (PFD) bright 45 km s^{-1} velocity clump attributed to shocked molecular hydrogen emission in protostellar outflow. CO(2-1) is also reliable for being, apparently structure between and in colder and less bright than the rest of the sample. Most of the clump has an average $N(\text{NH}_3)$ optical depth $\tau_{\text{opt}} > 0.1$ and all are gas greater than 1.0. Additionally, the clumps are typically highly blue in NH₃ emission. We see velocity dispersion typically around 2 km s^{-1} , greater than the thermal linewidths, which are typically 1 km s^{-1} .

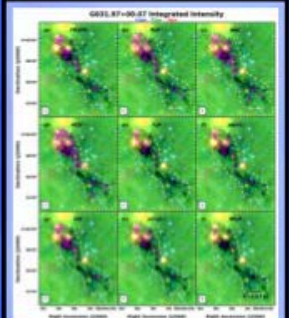


CO(2-1) is the most complex substructure in our sample. The cloud itself is part of a much larger molecular complex seen in ¹³CO in the IRDC95 with infrared dark filaments extending beyond our observations here above. The NH₃ emission closely traces the infrared contrast and is decomposed into 21 distinct clumps. The structures are a mix of filaments and globules, and tend to fall in one of two distinct velocity ranges: $v_{LSR} = 20 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and $v_{LSR} = 92 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. The majority of the emission in the 92 km s^{-1} velocity range, however the 92 km s^{-1} velocity range is consistent with at least one protostar. The filamentary structure also shows velocity gradients spanning about 2 km s^{-1} along their major axis. This cloud also has the strongest CO emission in our sample, with a peak signal-to-noise ratio of about 22. CO(2-1) may be a region where several weaker filaments extending tens of parsecs are feeding molecular gas and star formation is progressing most quickly at the colliding point. The morphology and velocity structure of this cloud is consistent with the “bed-foundation” structure described in Meen, 2009 and Li et al., 2013, in which gas flows along the filament in a central hub where it feeds star formation. Finally, they note the existence of at least three bubbles all seen in ¹³CO, filament, and the IRDC95 that are likely older IR DC regions from previous generations of massive stars, and may have compressed the molecular gas to form and/or shape the IRDC and trigger new second massive star formation.

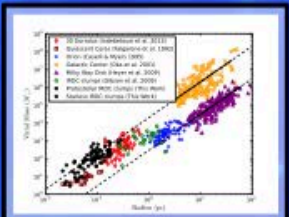
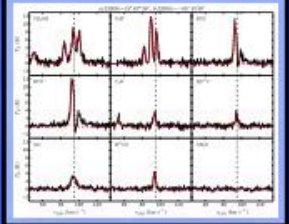
CO(2-1) is a complex substructure. The overall shape is very filamentary and it is a portion of the Great Molecular Filament (GMF) as identified by Siquet et al., 2014. The cloud is known to have three protostars with masses, DCO, and outflow cones along the primary filament, with an additional protostar at the northern end of the cloud, shown in the below. The velocity dispersion is observed to over 2 km s^{-1} of two of the protostar positions. There is an overall gradient from the southwest to the northeast. The main filament has a velocity gradient from the west to the east, leading into a gradient from south ($v_{LSR} = 38 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) to north ($v_{LSR} = 40 \text{ km s}^{-1}$) along the weaker filament toward the northern protostar. This gradient may be the result of gas flowing along the larger GMF, or may be composed of multiple subclouds not resolved in velocity.



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A noteworthy location is the bright IR point source at the far southwest end of our observations. This point source was beyond the coverage of our VLA NH₃ and CO(2-1) observations, however our GBT maps showed the NH₃ (J,K) and CO(2-1) emission to be centered on this source (figure not shown below). The strongest detection of most of the species in this study is located towards the source, except for HNC and N₂H⁺, which may have strong detection there, and NO, which was not detected there at all. Both HNC and H₂C⁺ have profiles consistent with self-absorption towards the source, and the detection of HNC and H₂C⁺ provide further evidence that HNC and H₂C⁺ are optically thick along this line of sight. The non-detection of N₂H⁺ is not surprising given that this source is probably a relatively evolved protostar, and the relative abundance of dissociated species in typically lower in protostellar sources (Bacmann et al., 2005). It is typically along individual lines of sight in our CARMA data using contours of the method used in the NH₃ spectra.



We can place the clumps identified in this study in the context of other molecular gas clumps in varying environments and physical characteristics by graphing them on a plot of size versus mass, as equivalently size and spectral signal mass. We additionally use the position-velocity diagrams to graphically illustrate the kinematics of a clump to classify it as “protostellar” or “starless”, respectively. It is notable that the total mass across different studies between millia and tens-of-thousands over more than 3 orders of magnitude in size, regardless of the molecular line tracers and observational tool. We note that both classes of our clumps are along the same trend, though the Molecular clumps may be violated but still have higher velocity dispersions (and thus total masses) than Luminous relative for galactic star clumps. It thus seems some external pressure. Extended knowledge may be a result of chaotic gravitational collapse, in which the turbulent motion arises from the collapse. An alternative explanation to pressure limit the growth of the larger IRDC clump is a velocity. In this sample, we have already shown that the clumps have strong supporting substructure, which likely accounts for the relationship between the size and velocity dispersion (Balloonov-Pavelov et al., 2011). However, the velocity dispersion being elevated above the typical Milky Way velocity dispersion may be a result of the clump being in the case of the clump, or have additional external pressure beyond that of the star. ISM.