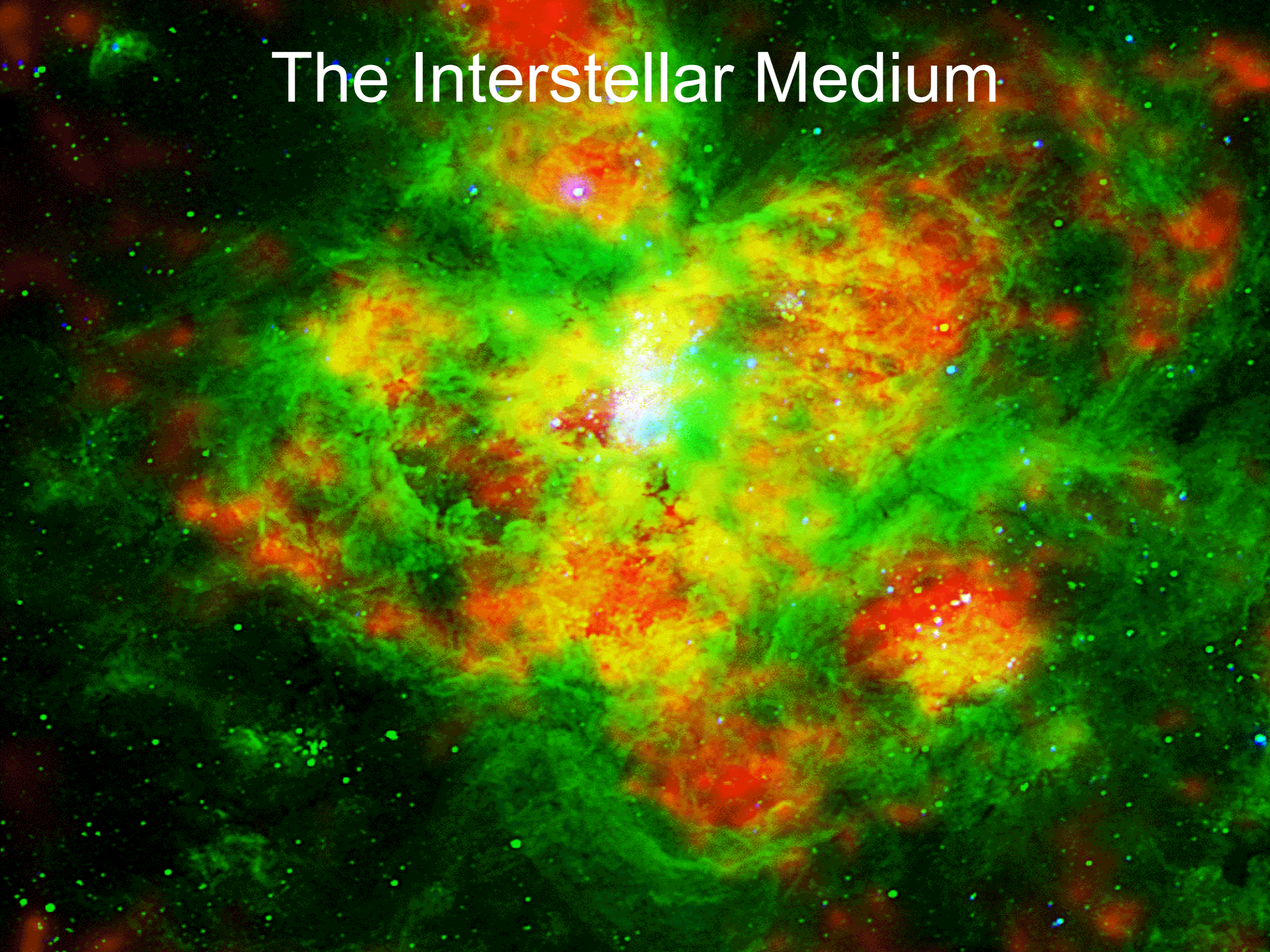


# Announcements

Homework 3 is due this Thursday (Feb. 11) by start of class

# The Interstellar Medium



# The interstellar medium (ISM)

- Space between stars is not a complete vacuum.
- Why is the ISM important?
  - Stars form out of it
  - Stars end their lives by returning gas to it
- The ISM has
  - a wide range of structures
  - a wide range of densities ( $10^{-3}$ - $10^7$  atoms/cm<sup>3</sup>)
  - a wide range of temperatures (10 K -  $10^7$  K)



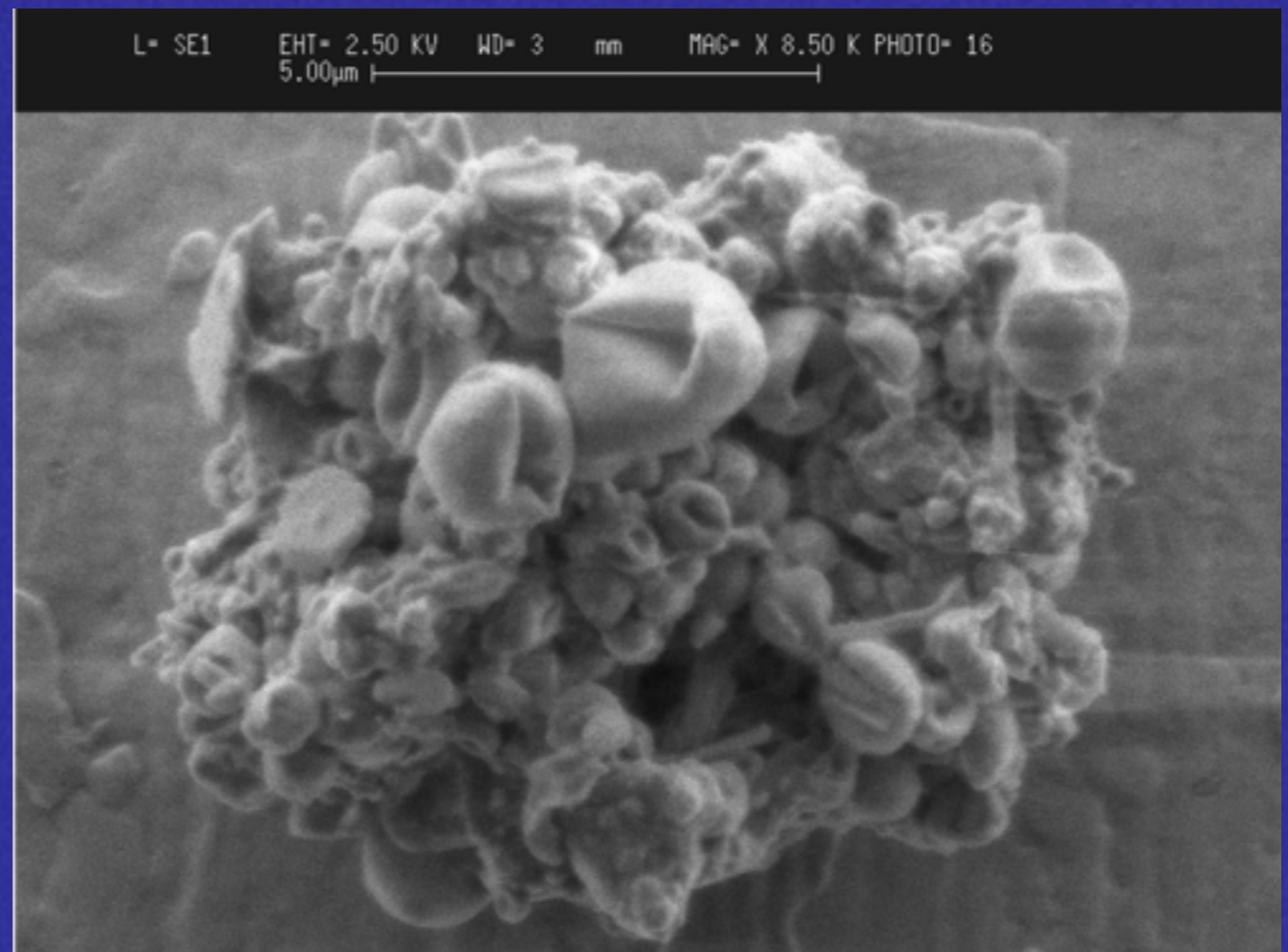
# Overview of the ISM

- The ISM is a multi-component, multi phase medium
- The *components* are gas and dust, with dust comprising 1-2% of the ISM mass.
- The *phases*, meaning different kinds of clouds of gas and dust – hot, warm, cold, dense, rarefied.

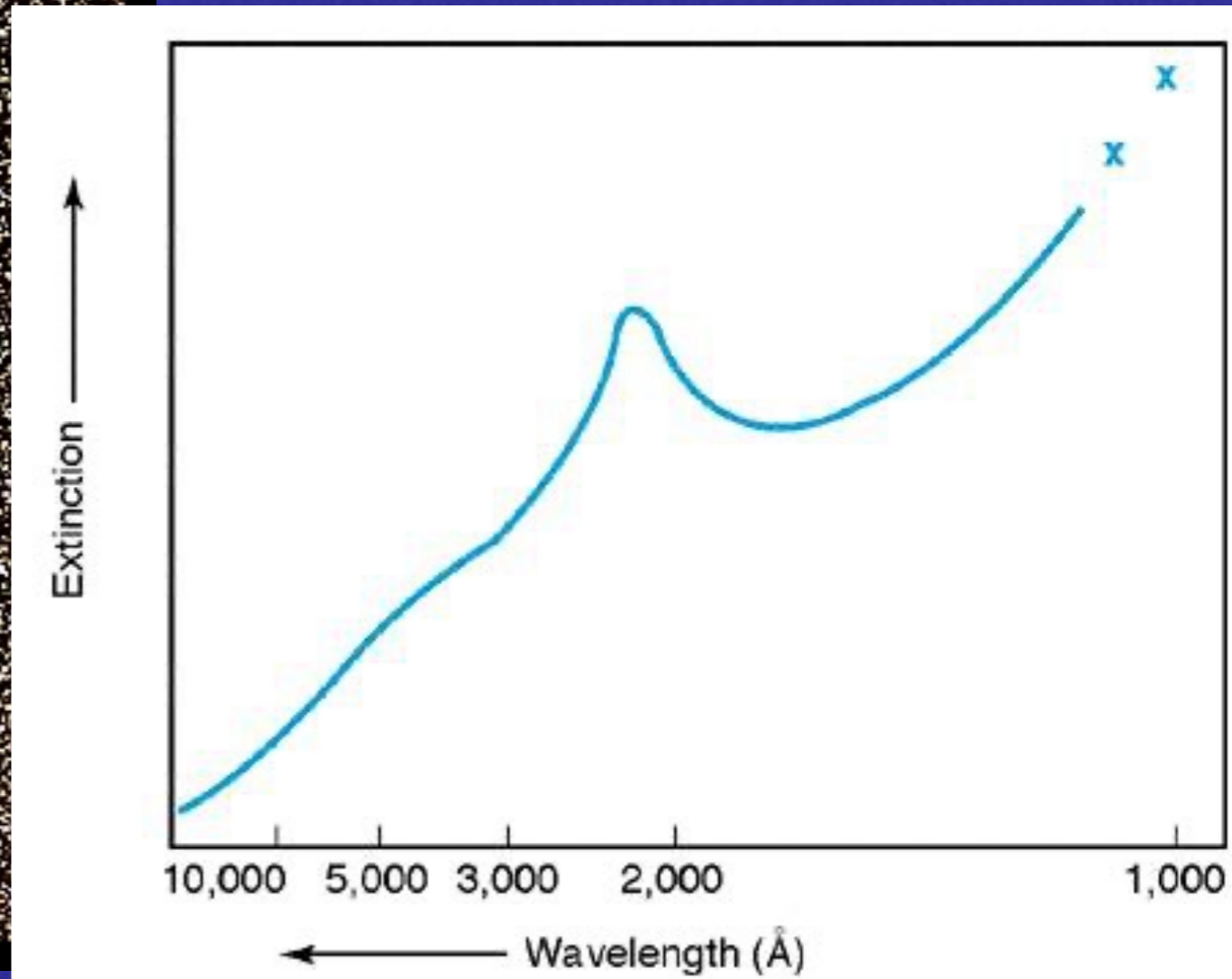


# Dust particles

- Grains with carbon, graphite, silicates
- Particles of  $\sim 10^3$  atoms, physical size  $d \sim 10^{-7}$  m (range nm to  $\mu\text{m}$ )
- Cause interstellar extinction
- Cause reddening



- Extinction is reduction in optical brightness
- Strong  $\lambda$  dependence on absorption and scattering
- Measure in magnitudes,  $A_V$ , at visible light

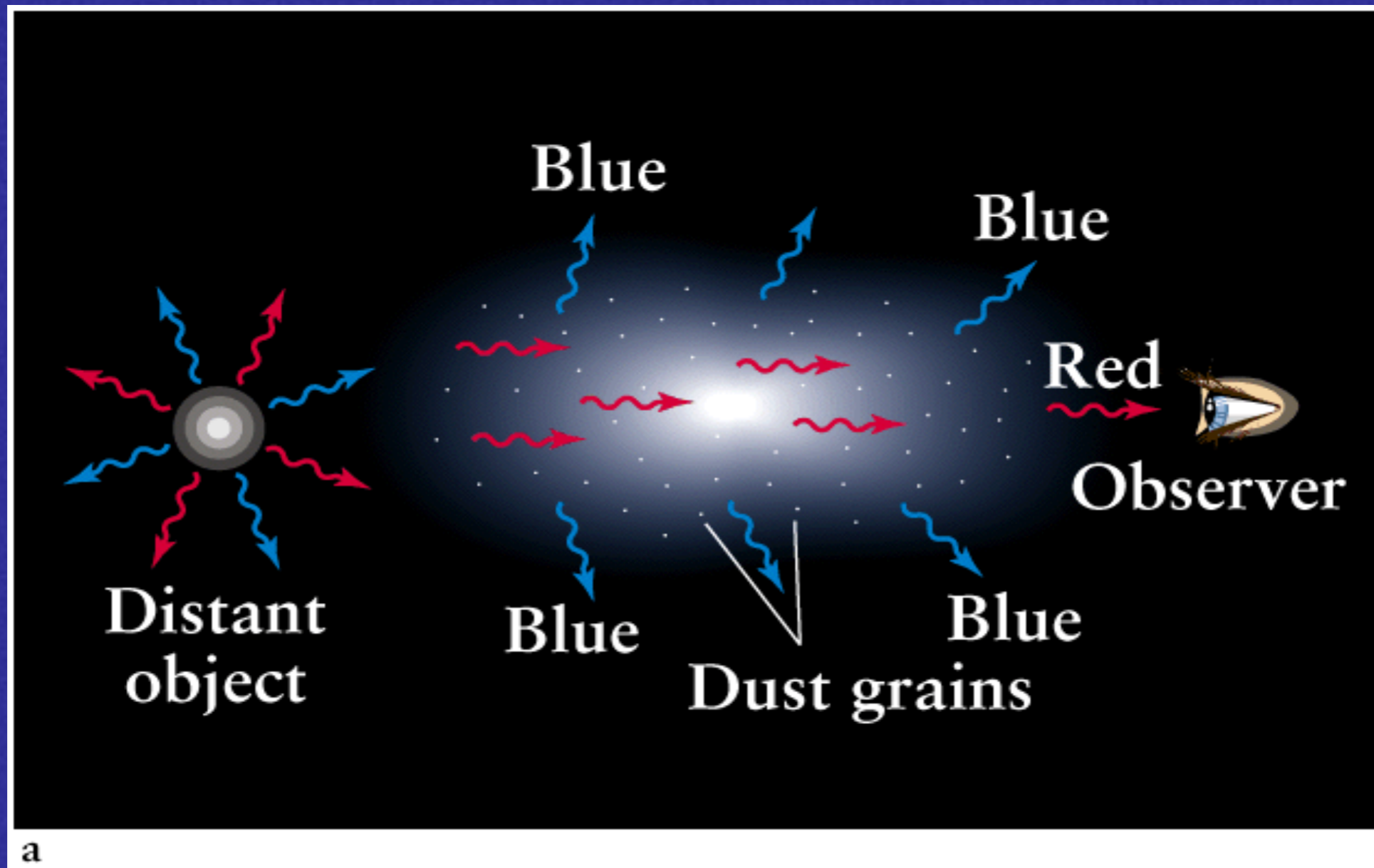


**Orion at visible wavelengths**



**Orion at IR wavelengths (100 $\mu$ m): dust grains absorb UV light and re-radiate in the IR!**

- Interstellar reddening: Scattering will both dim and redden the starlight.
- This is Rayleigh-scattering, which is proportional to  $1/\lambda^4$





- Thus, we need to be careful calculating distances to stars using the distance modulus:

$$m - M = 5 \log d - 5$$

- If there is dust (and there will be) this becomes:

$$m - M = 5 \log d - 5 + A$$

- where  $A$  is the amount of light absorption in magnitudes at the wavelength you are measuring brightness of star.

- Dust is seen as winding bands, or spherical clouds (Bok globules)
- Can also be detected via polarization



**Rosette Nebula**

- Dust is formed in low T regions ( $\sim < 100\text{K}$ ), since high T will cause collisions and sputtering of the grains => destruction of the grains.
- The surfaces of dust grains can act as a matrix to hold molecules close together, and allow chemistry to occur.
- These molecules are mostly hydrocarbon chains and other organic molecules (claims of protein, like DNA, seen in molecular cloud). This is the field of *cosmochemistry*.

# The main ISM component: gas

- Interstellar gas is either neutral or ionized
- Ionized:
  - WIM, Warm Ionized Medium
  - HIM, Hot Ionized Medium
- Neutral:
  - WNM, Warm Neutral Medium
  - Cool NM
  - Cold NM

**Review: what does “ionized” means?**

<b>Component</b>	<b>Phase</b>	<b>T(K)</b>	<b>n(cm<sup>-3</sup>)</b>
Neutral	Cold (molecular)	10-50	10 <sup>3</sup> -10 <sup>7</sup>
	Cool (atomic)	100	1
	Warm	8x10 <sup>3</sup>	10 <sup>-1</sup>
Ionized	Warm	10 <sup>4</sup>	10 <sup>0</sup> -10 <sup>4</sup>
	Hot	5x10 <sup>5</sup>	10 <sup>-3</sup>

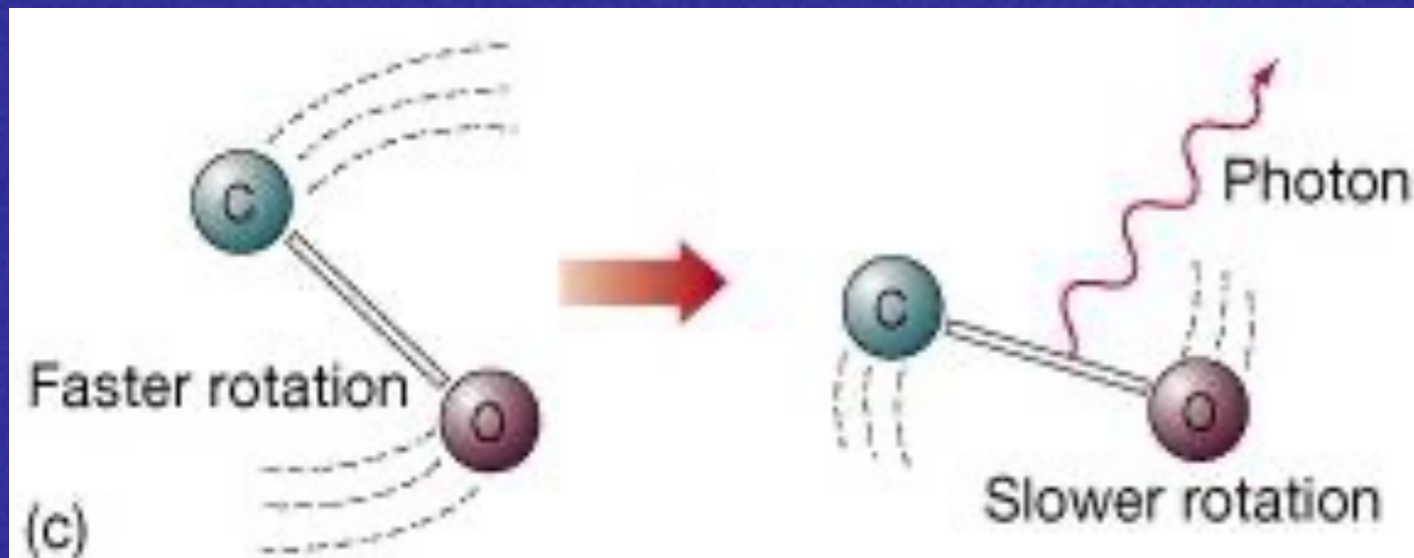
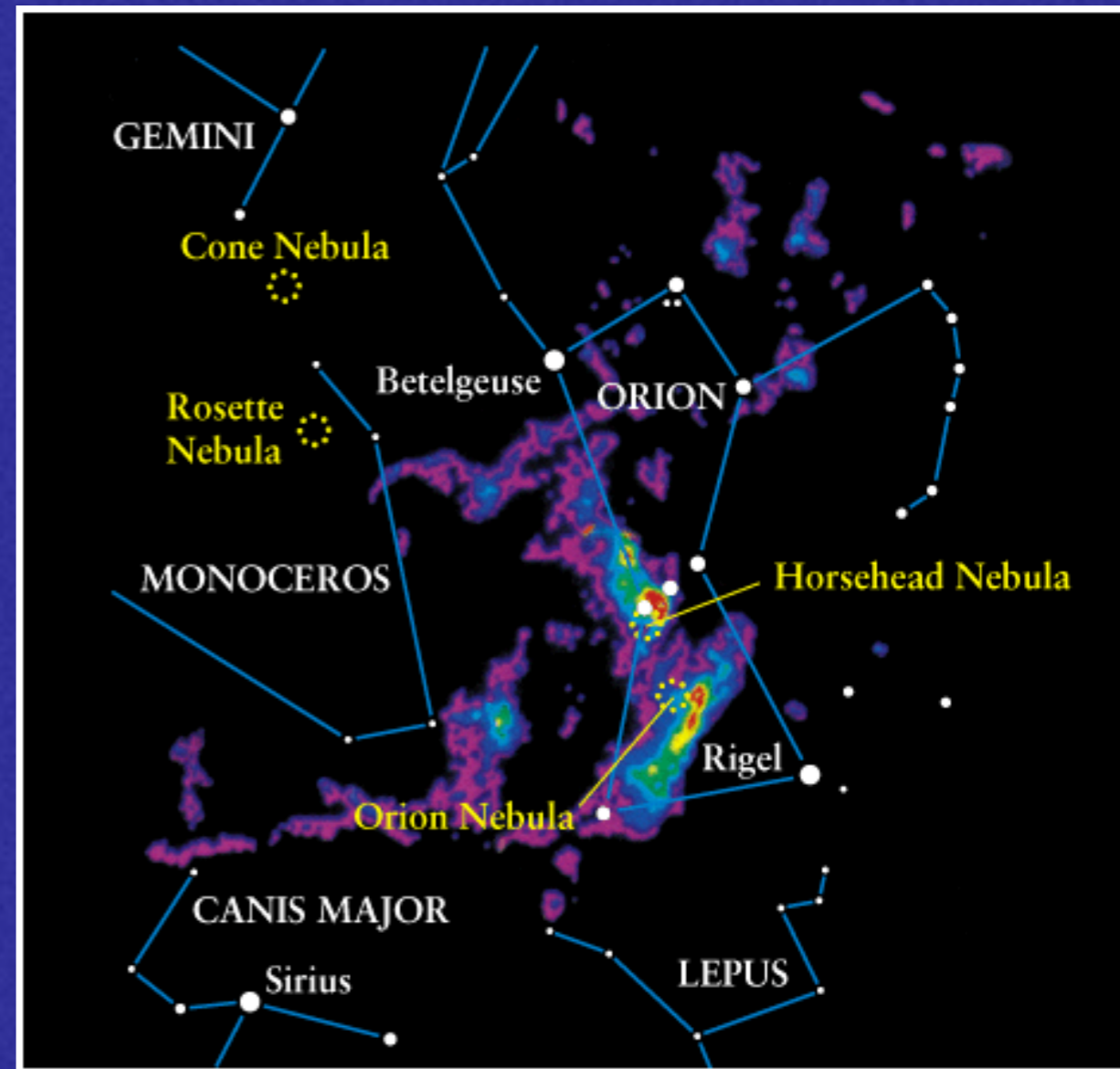
# Molecular clouds

- Cold ( $\sim 10$  K), dense ( $10^3$ – $10^7$  molecules/cm<sup>3</sup>)
- Cloud masses:  $10^3$  -  $10^6 M_{\odot}$  (plenty of stars can form of this)
- Cloud sizes: a few to 100 pc
- In the Galaxy:  $\sim 5,000$  molecular clouds
- Often buried deep within neutral atomic clouds

Molecular cloud seen as dark clouds in the optical



- Most abundant is  $H_2$ , but it has no allowed mm emission, so other "trace" molecules observed: CO,  $H_2O$ ,  $NH_3$ , HCN etc.
- These molecules undergo rotational energy level transitions, emitting photons at mm  $\lambda$



False color radio observations of CO in the Orion molecular cloud complex.

$H_2$  is symmetric - need atoms of different mass to produce rotational transitions.

# Molecules in space

Over 140 molecules detected in space so far.

Examples:

- 2 atoms: H<sub>2</sub>, CO, OH, CN
- 3 atoms: H<sub>2</sub>O
- 6 atoms: CH<sub>3</sub>OH
- 9 atoms C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH
- 13 atoms: HC<sub>10</sub>CN (cyanodecapentayne)

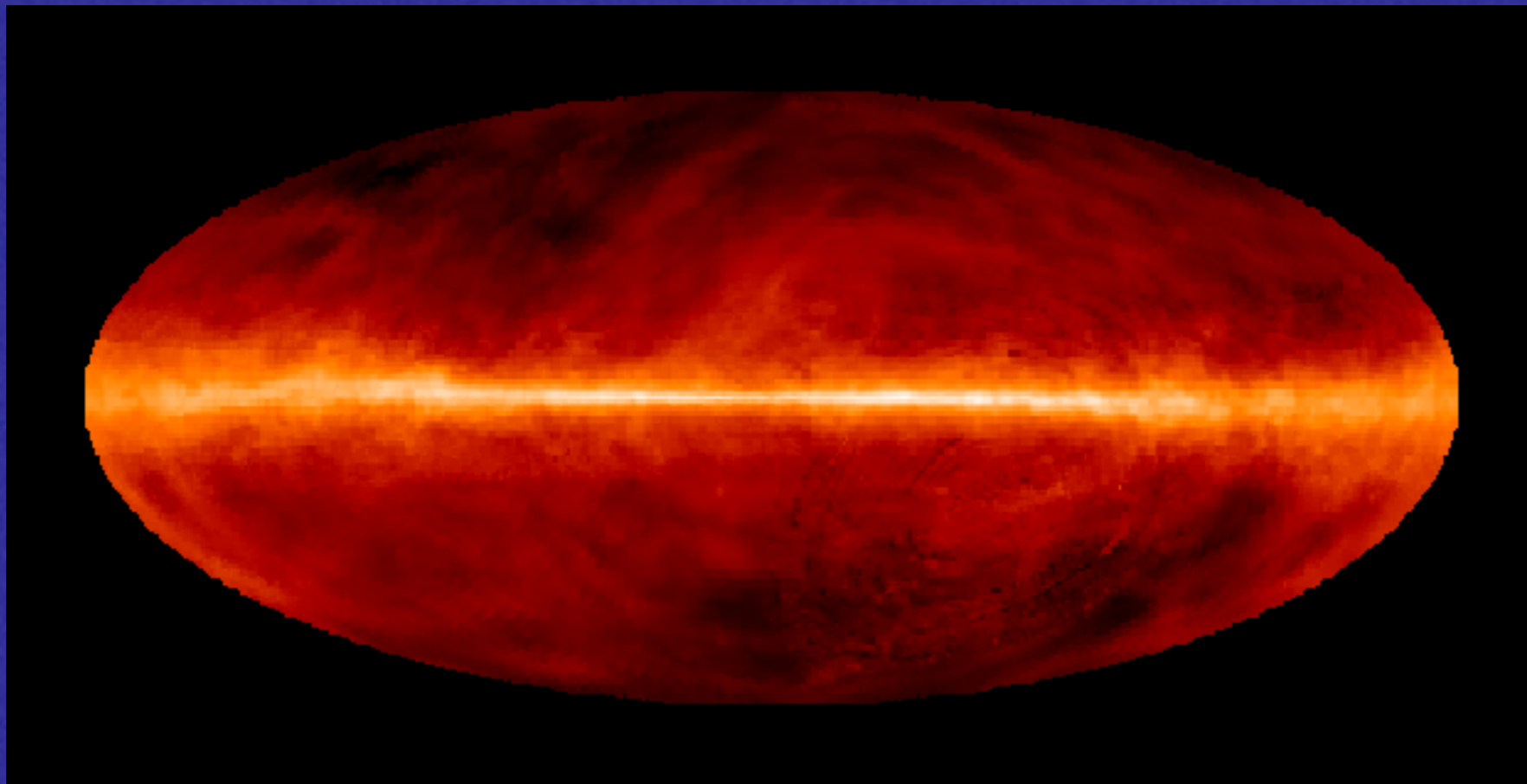
Acetamide in SgrB2 (9 atoms) contains a bond that link amino acids together (building blocks of proteins).



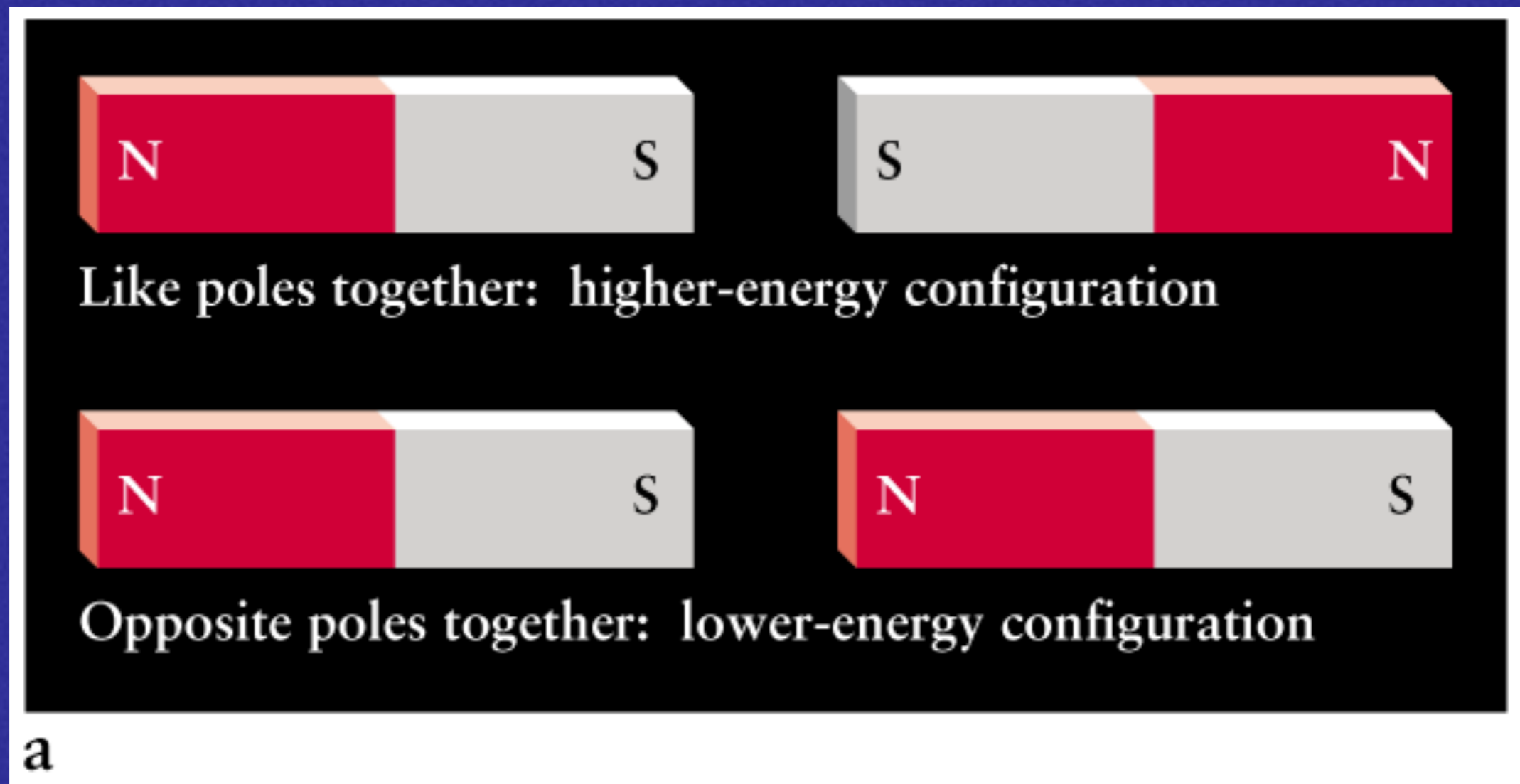
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	Warm	8x10 <sup>3</sup>	10 <sup>-1</sup>
Ionized	Warm	10 <sup>4</sup>	10 <sup>0</sup> -10 <sup>4</sup>
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# Atomic gas - HI

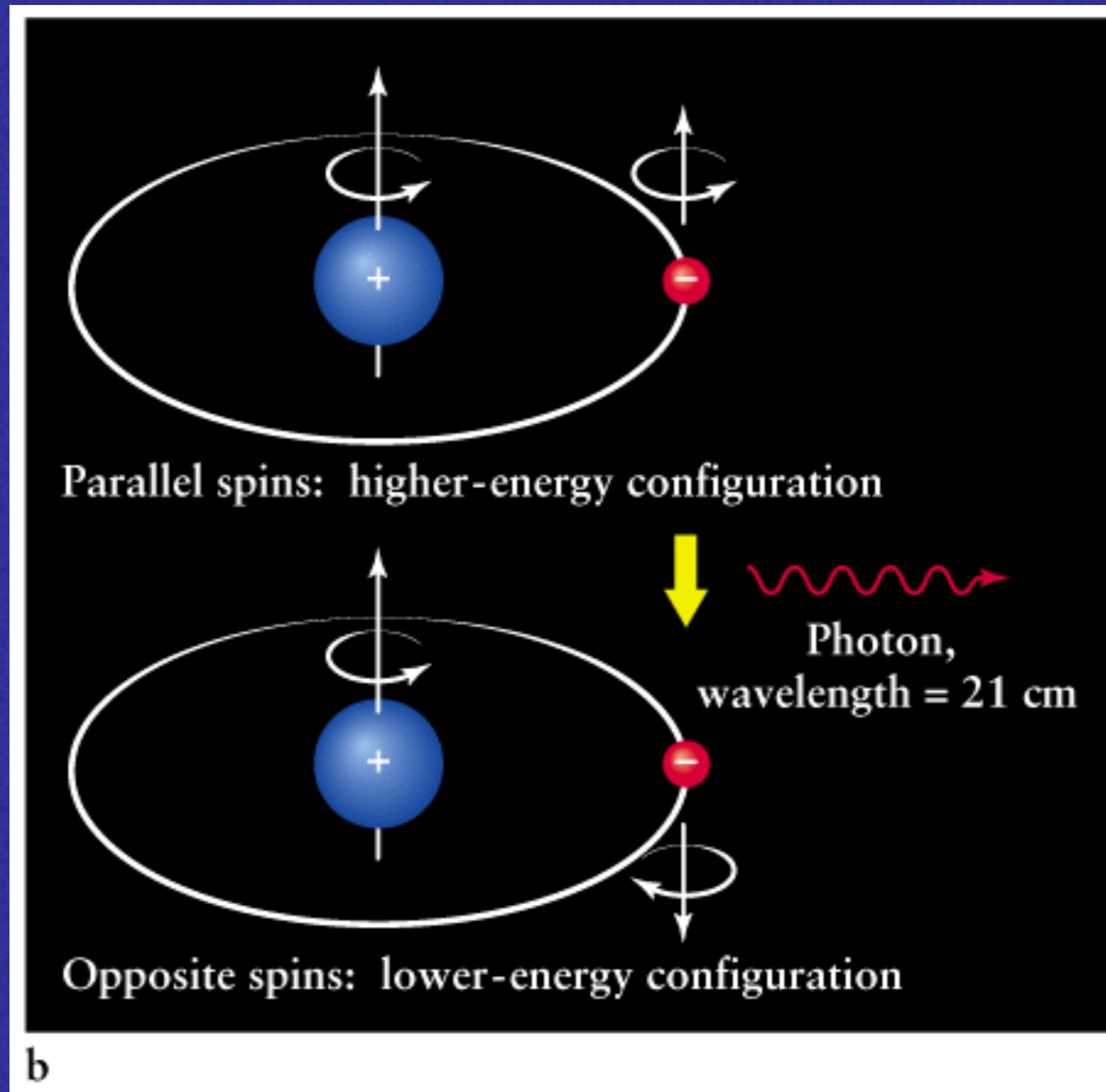
- Cool (and warm) atomic gas:  $T \sim 100\text{K}$  ( $8000\text{K}$ ), making up  $\sim 22\%$  of the ISM
- $1\text{-}10 \text{ atoms/cm}^3$  (diffuse)
- Tenuous clouds filling a large part of the interstellar space
- No optical emission
- $2 \times 10^9 M_{\odot}$  in the Galaxy



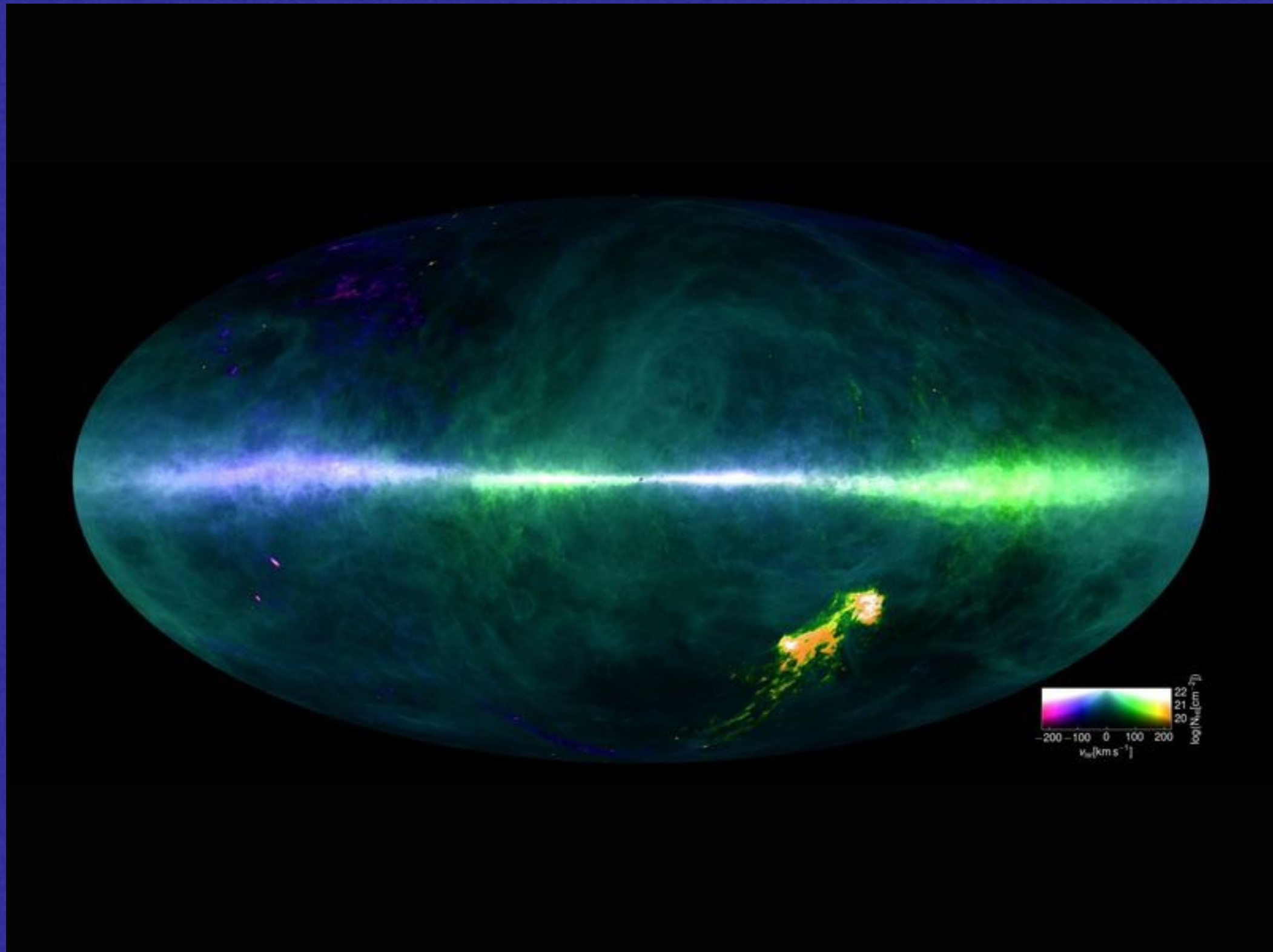
- Cold, neutral hydrogen with electrons in  $n=1$  level still emits energy through the “spin-flip transition”.
- How? Spinning electrons and protons are charged and act like magnets:



The spin-flip transition produces a 21-cm photon (1420 MHz).



# 21-cm (1420 MHz) map of neutral hydrogen in the Milky Way



Component	Phase	T(K)	n(cm <sup>-3</sup> )
Neutral	Cold (molecular)	10-50	10 <sup>3</sup> -10 <sup>7</sup>
	Cool (atomic)	100	1
	Warm	8x10 <sup>3</sup>	10 <sup>-1</sup>
Ionized	Warm	10 <sup>4</sup>	10 <sup>0</sup> -10 <sup>4</sup>
	Hot	5x10 <sup>5</sup>	10 <sup>-3</sup>

# Emission nebulae - HII regions

- *nebula* = cloud (plural nebulae)
- $\sim 5000/\text{cm}^3$  (diffuse)
- $T \cong 10^4 \text{ K}$  (H essentially completely ionized)
- Sizes 1-20pc

## Rosette Nebula

Hot, tenuous gas => emission lines (Kirchoff's laws)



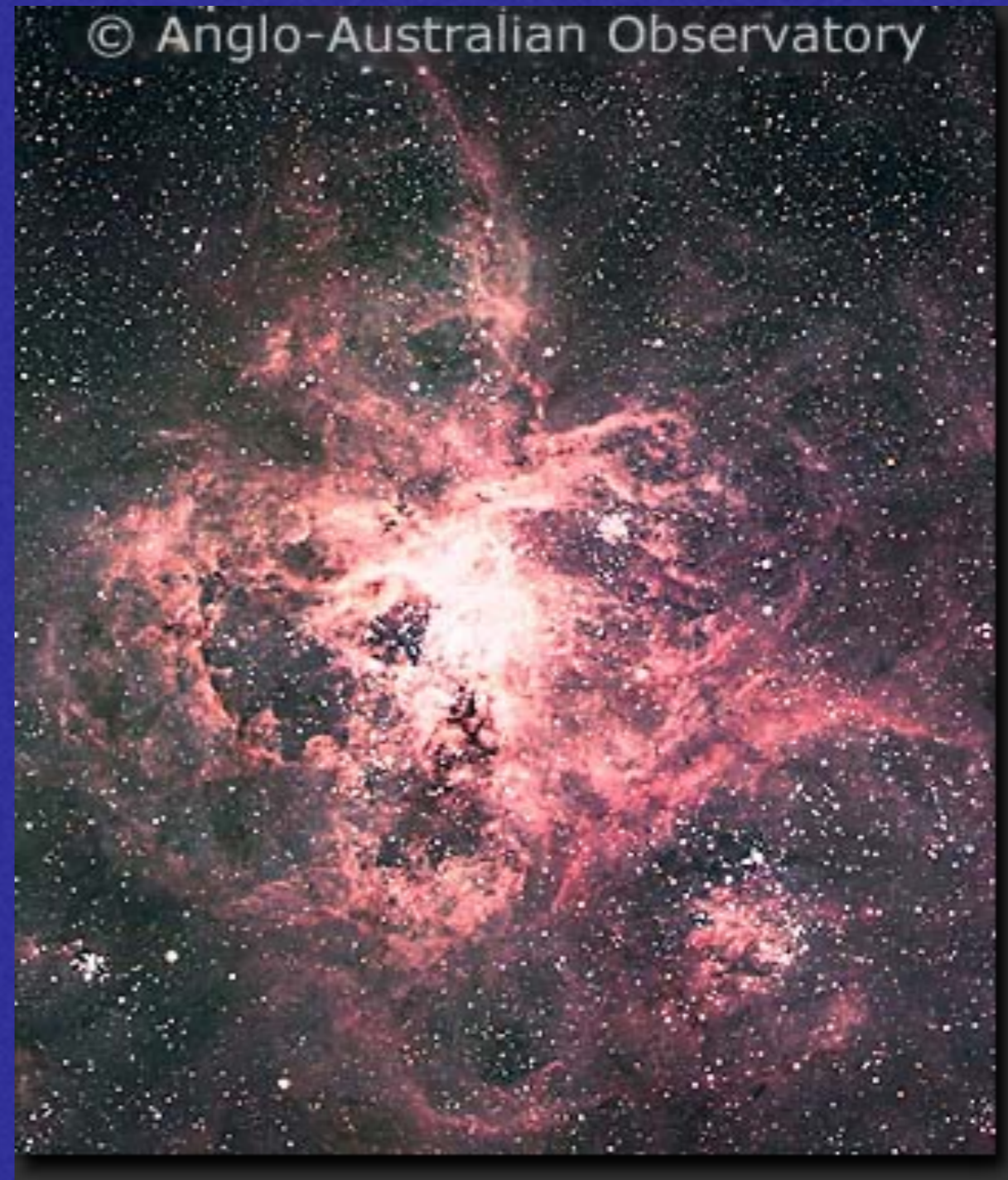
- UV energies are required to ionize the atoms
- Provided by hot and massive O, B stars
- $e^-$  quickly recombine with the  $p$
- Dominant emission  $H\alpha$ , at  $\lambda = 656 \text{ nm}$ . Color?







**Lagoon Nebula**



**Tarantula Nebula**

# Reflection nebulae

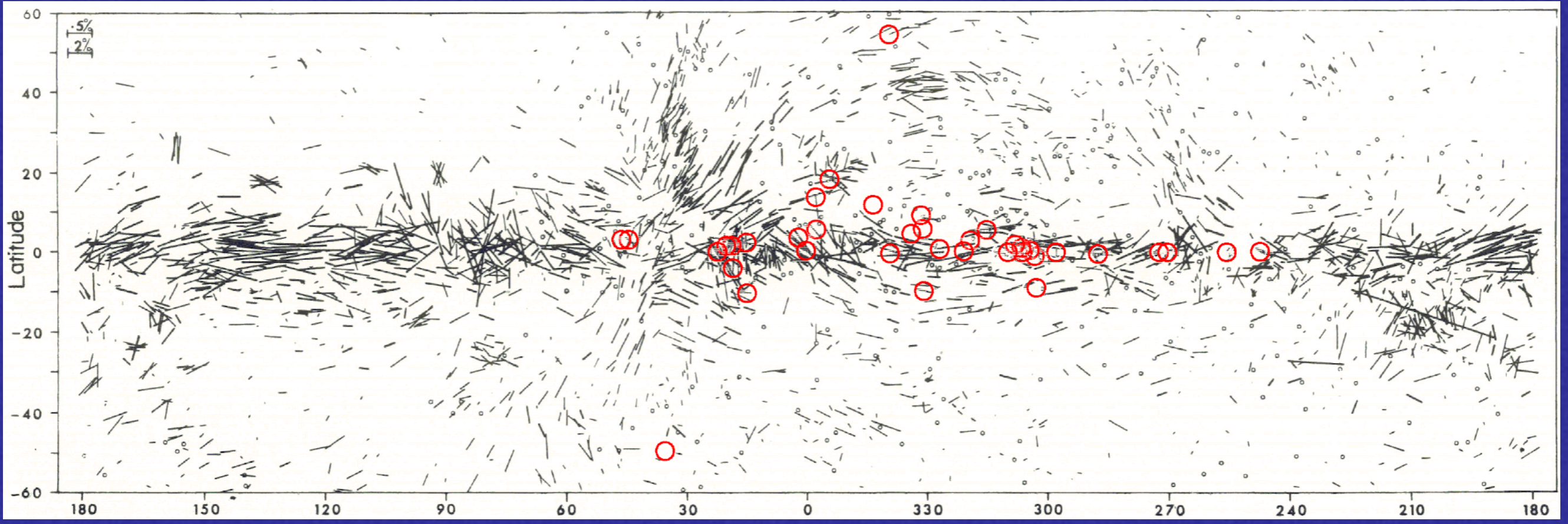
- Blue color resulting from dust reflecting (scattering) light from nearby, bright hot stars
- Shorter wavelengths are most effectively scattered (why the sky is blue)

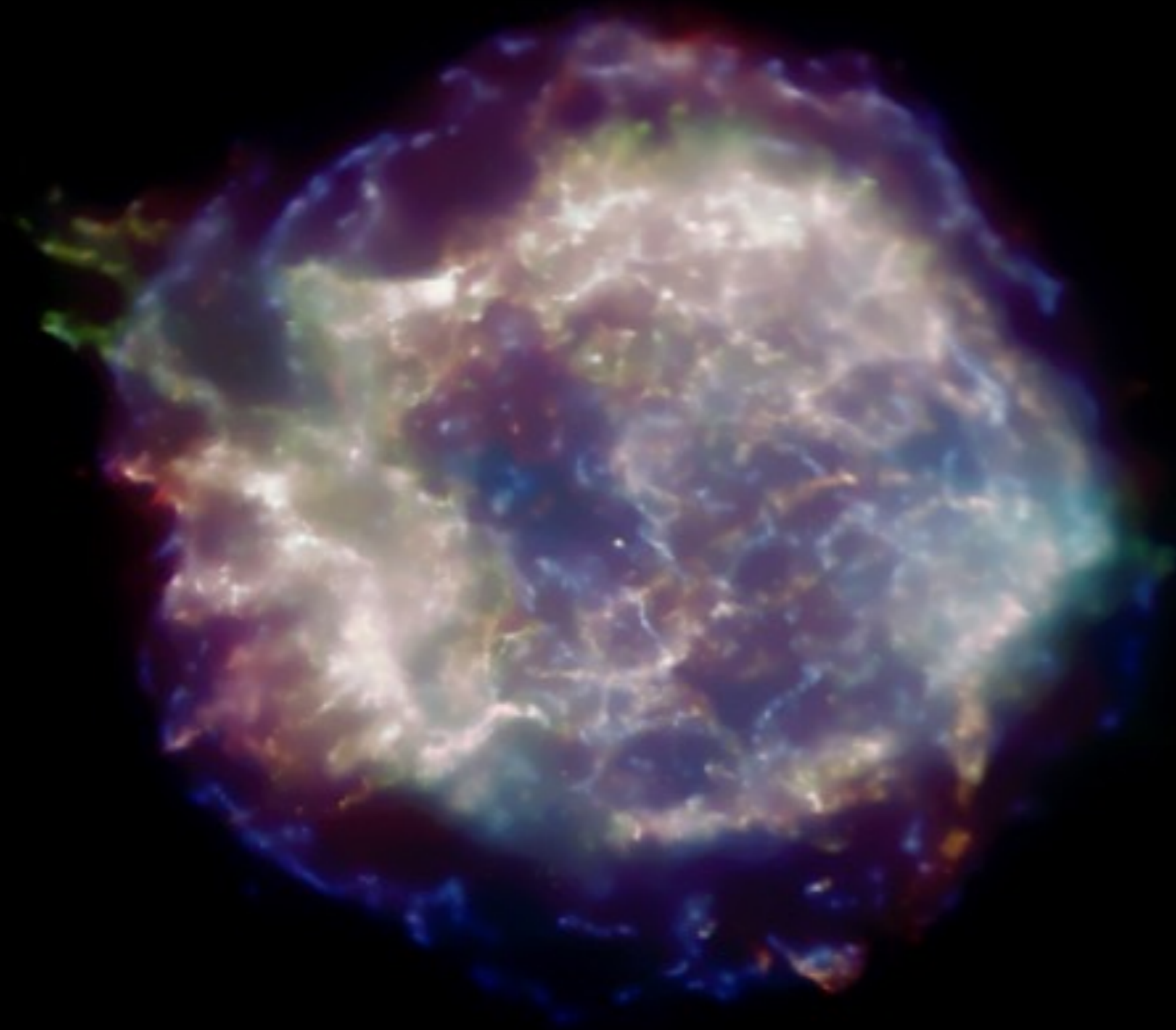


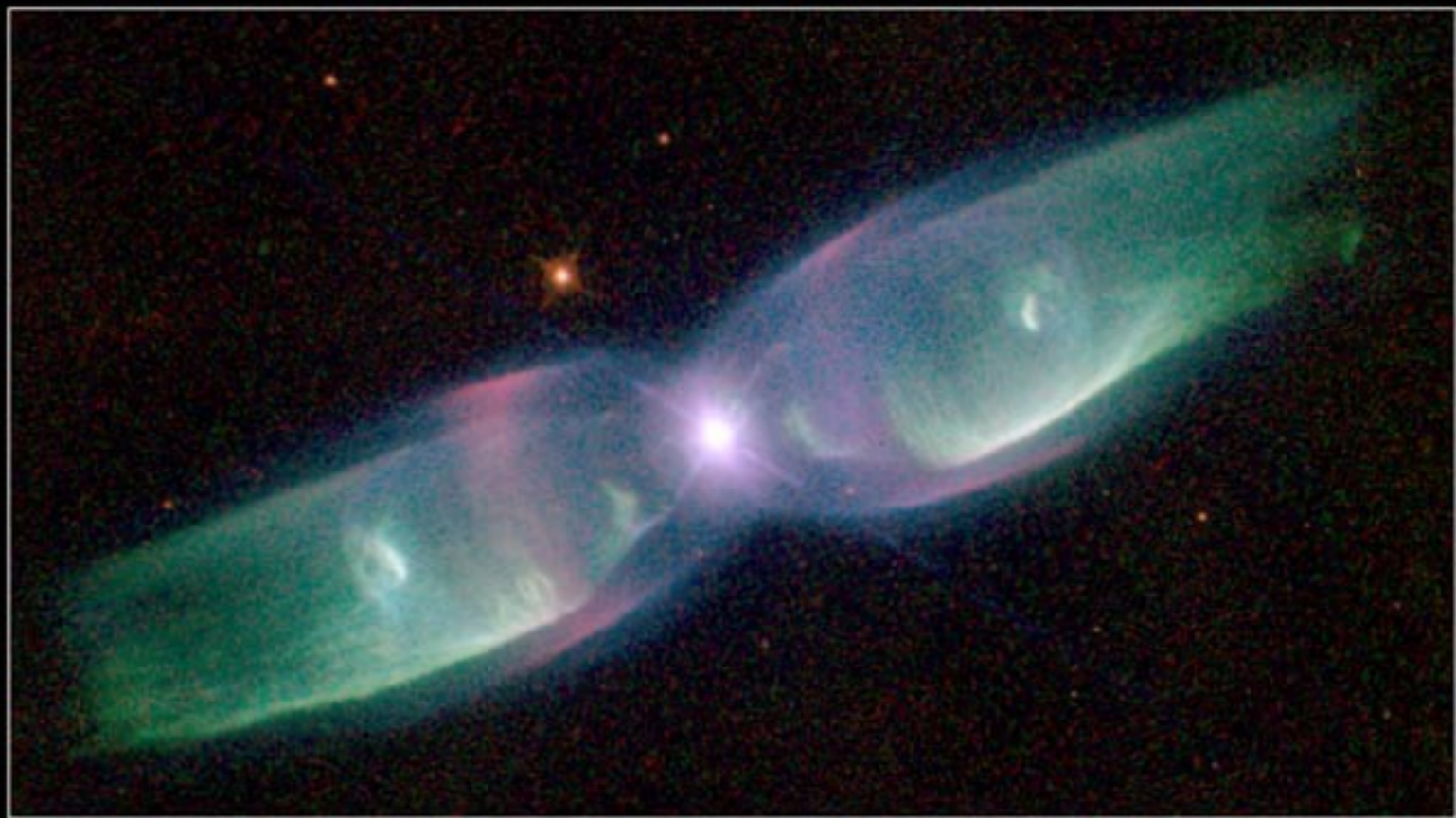
What kind of spectrum would you expect?

# Other ISM components

- Hot gas            X-ray emission;  $T \cong 10^6$  K; very low density
- Cosmic Rays    high energy particles, interact with B-fields  $\Rightarrow$  radio emission
- Magnetic fields  $10^{-3}$ - $10^{-6}$  of Earth's, widespread
- Supernova remnants    radio, optical, x-ray
- Planetary Nebulae        isolated objects – more later

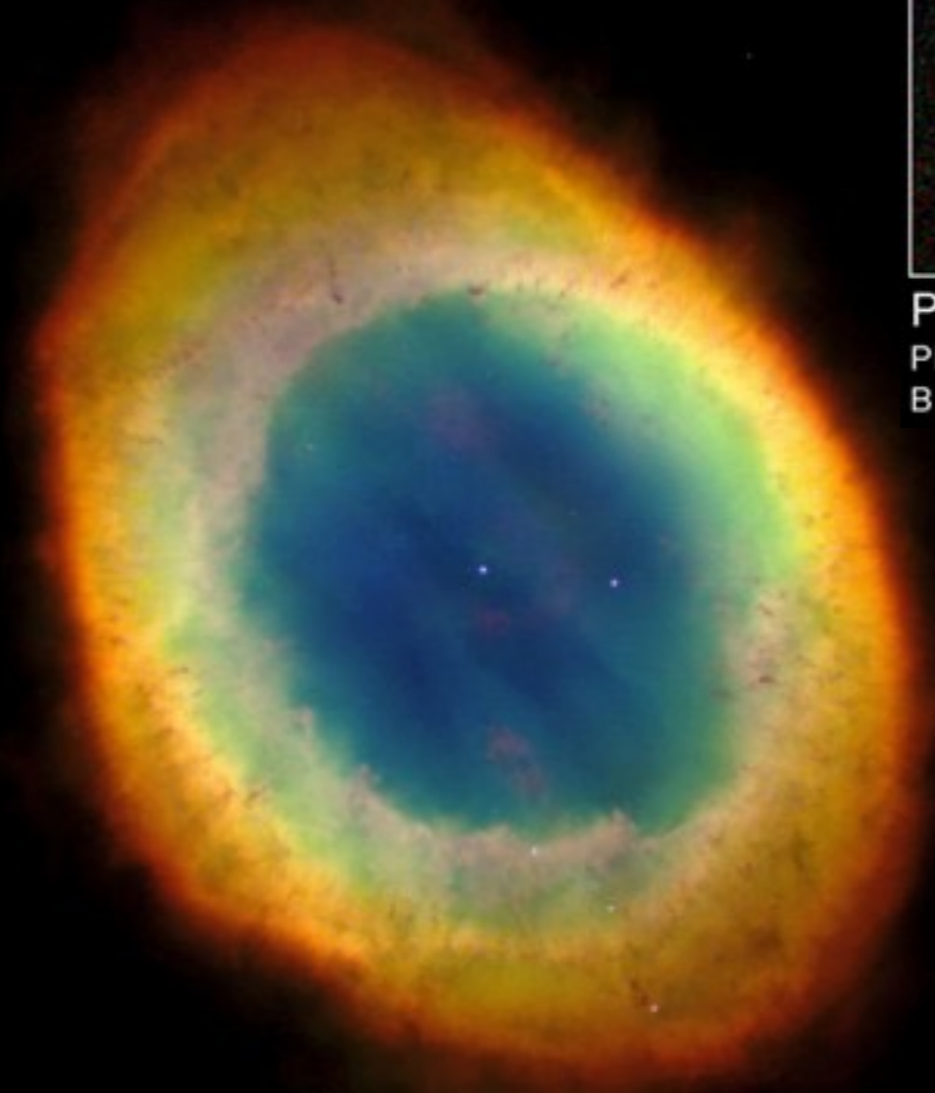






Planetary Nebula M2-9  
PRC97-38a • ST Scl OPO • December 17, 1997  
B. Balick (University of Washington) and NASA

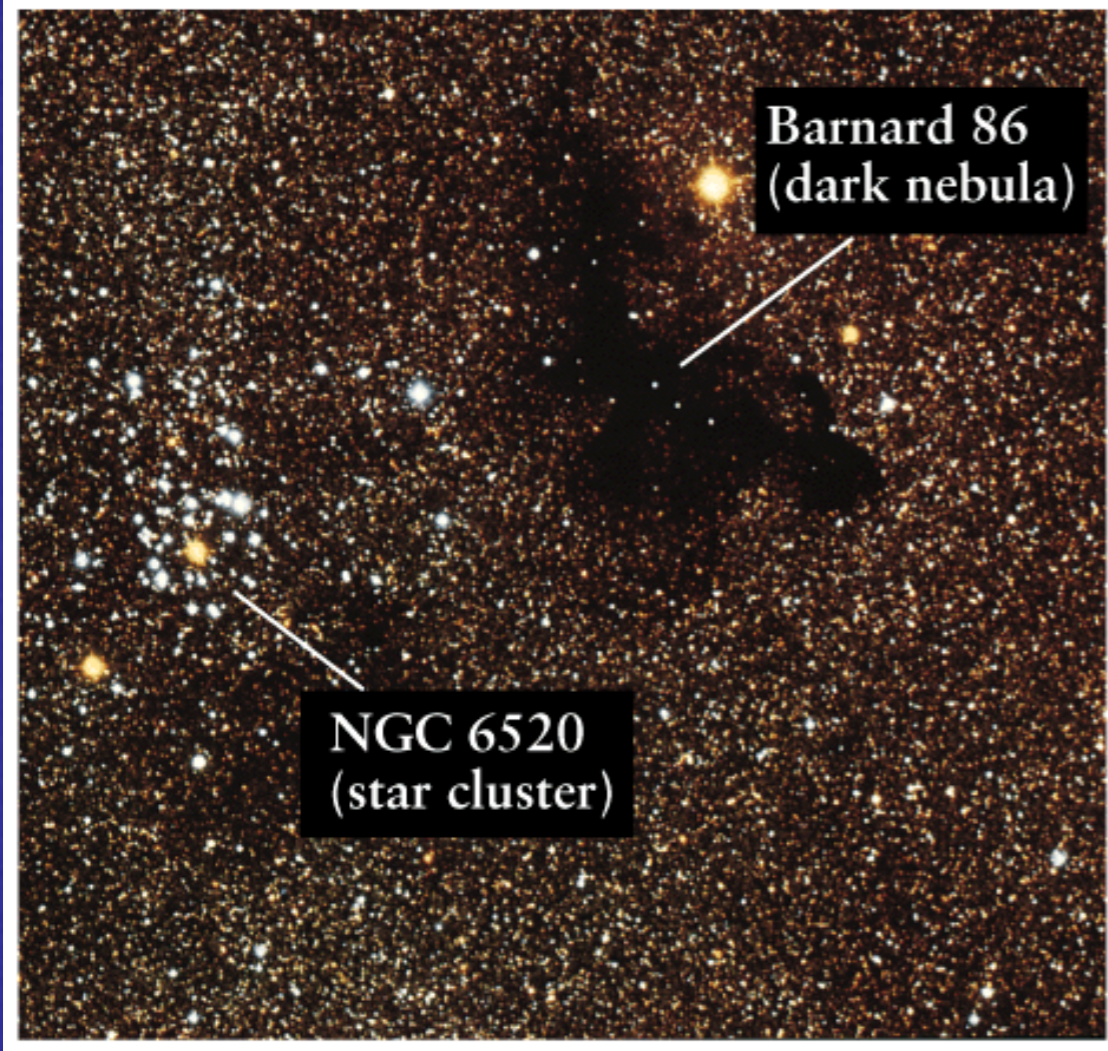
HST • WFPC2



Which of these are involved with star formation?

-- HII regions, molecular clouds, dust clouds





Barnard 86  
(dark nebula)

NGC 6520  
(star cluster)

Anglo-Australian Observatory/Royal Observatory, Edinburgh



Note that star clusters are usually seen in star forming regions

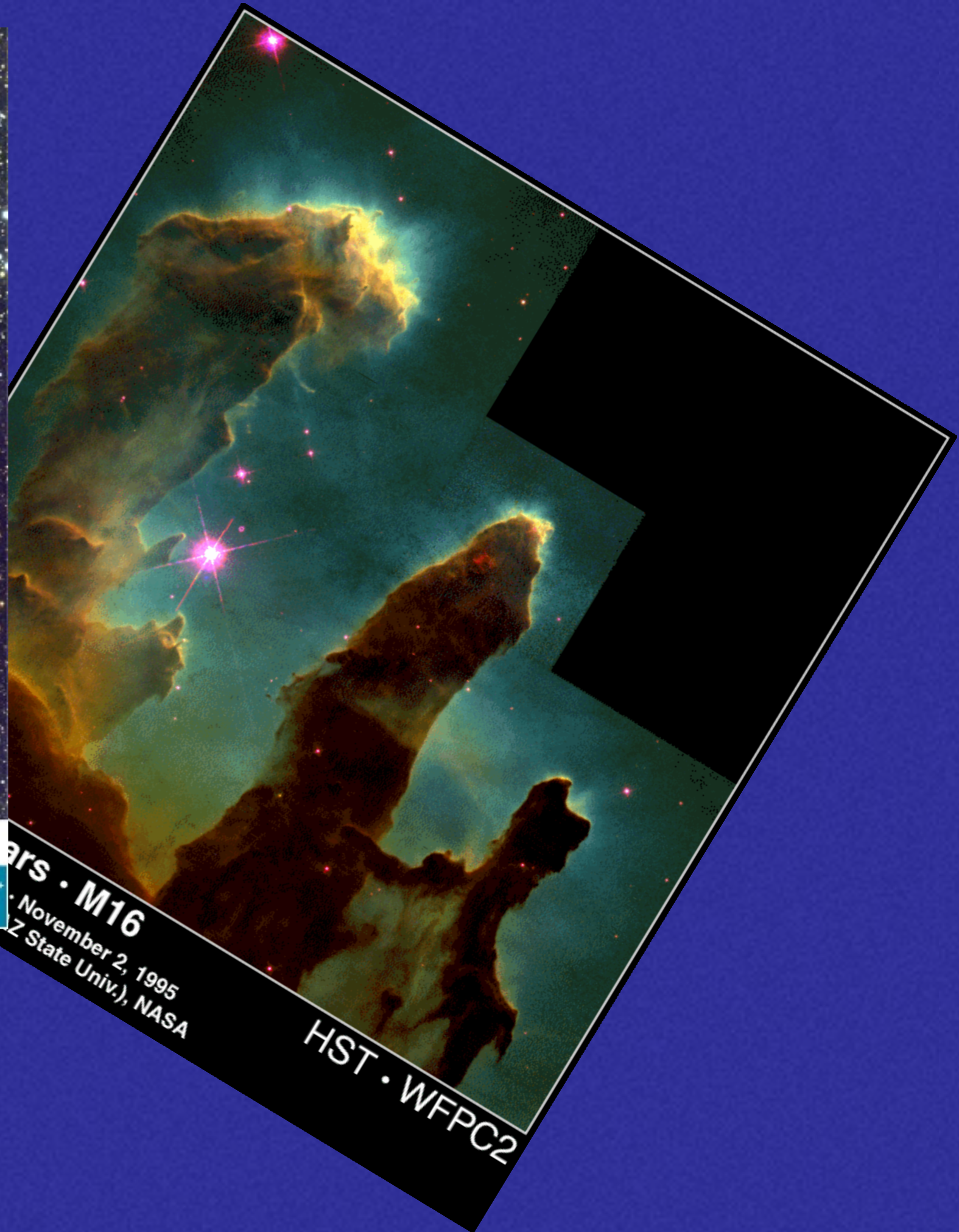




IR-View of "Pillars of Creation" at Centre of Eagle Nebula  
(VLT ANTU + ISAAC)

ESO PR Photo 37b/01 (20 December 2001)

© European Southern Observatory



Pillars of Creation • M16  
November 2, 1995  
(Lick Observatory, Ohio State Univ.), NASA

HST • WFPC2

# Star formation Chapter 18



# Star formation

- Gravitational collapse
  - Start with a collection of matter (e.g. a molecular cloud) somewhere in space and let gravity work on it. What happens?
  - Unless matter distribution perfectly uniform and infinite it will collapse eventually unless something stops it.
  
- What can stop gravitational collapse?
  - Gas pressure (hitting the matter it is falling onto)
  - Radiation pressure (if matter becomes hot enough)
  - Magnetic pressure
  - Angular momentum (keeps stuff spinning instead of collapsing)

# Under pressure: the ideal gas law

- To determine pressure we use the ideal gas law,  $P=nkT$
- The core of the star formation problem is what happens to  $P$ ,  $n$  and  $T$  when gravity acts.
- If two clouds co-exists with the same pressure  $P$  (*pressure equilibrium*), they are stable when pressures balanced.
- If pressures not balanced, the higher pressure region will compress the lower pressure region until pressure equilibrium is restored. Thus,

$$n_1 T_1 = n_2 T_2$$

Are hot or cold clouds denser under the same pressure?

# K-H heating: gravitational heating

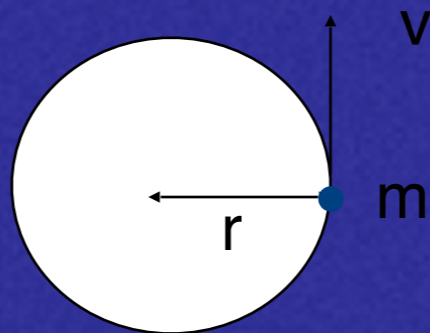
- Kelvin-Helmholtz contraction is contraction under gravity:
  - Gravitational potential energy converted into kinetic energy of the gas, which in turn converts into heat.
  - Recall:  $E = mv^2/2 - GMm/r$
  - As cloud contracts, potential energy gets more highly negative to keep  $E$  the same, thus kinetic energy more highly positive.
  - Some heat radiated away at the surface of the cloud, the rest raises  $T$
  - The more massive a cloud, the more potential energy available, the hotter it gets in the center.

# Gravitational stability

- As a protostellar cloud collapses, it heats up, but it also gets more dense => increase in pressure  $P=nKT$
- If the cloud is not dense enough for a given  $T$  (not cold enough for its density), the pressure wins and cloud will not collapse - the cloud is *gravitationally stable*.
- To continue a collapse, the cloud must lose heat, it must *cool*.
- Thermodynamics says heat flows from hot to cold. Three ways to transport heat:
  - Radiation
  - Convection
  - Conduction (some materials carry heat directly, like solid metals)
- Cooling of a cloud takes long time, since they are not very dense and therefore do not radiate efficiently (and do not convect at all).
- Very massive, cold clouds collapse easily - gravity is too strong.

# Angular momentum

- Angular momentum,  $L$ , is a property of motion related to rotation about some point. Also related to the spin concept.
- $L$  of a body of mass  $m$  moving at velocity  $v$  perpendicular to the line from the center to the body at distance  $r$  is  $L=mvr$ .



- $L$  conserved in systems where only gravity is operating (friction can destroy  $L$ ).
- Example: planets move faster in their elliptical orbits when closer to center of mass.

# Spin up problem

- Rotation frequency  $f$  given by  $f=v/2\pi r \Rightarrow L=2\pi mfr^2$
- Thus, in a cloud collapse rotation gets amplified by the factor  $f_2/f_1=(r_1/r_2)^2$
- Example: start with a cloud  $\sim 0.1$ pc in size and collapse it to the size of the Sun  $\Rightarrow (r_1/r_2) = (3 \times 10^{15}m/7 \times 10^8m) = 4 \times 10^6$   
 $\Rightarrow (r_1/r_2)^2=1.8 \times 10^{13}$ , thus the cloud will spin up in rotation frequency by this factor!  
Even an extremely slowly spinning cloud (random motions) will be amplified into extreme rotation speeds - this is NOT seen!
- What does really happen? Gas friction causes it to form a spinning disk (*protostellar disks*), which may be precursors for planetary systems formation.
- Binary stars can also form, as this is a way to store angular momentum



# Magnetic fields

- Protostellar clouds have magnetic fields, and during the cloud collapse the magnetic field will be compressed and thus grow in strength.
  - Grows as inverse of volume:  $B_2/B_1=(R_1/R_2)^3$
- B-field exerts a pressure, which is proportional to  $B^2$ :  $P_2/P_1=(R_1/R_2)^6$ .
- When cloud collapses by a factor  $4 \times 10^6$ , the magnetic pressure increases by a factor  $4 \times 10^{39}$ . Even initial tiny B-fields would grow to completely dominate any other pressure.
- However, stars are forming, and therefore there must be a removal of the B-field, along with the angular momentum, during a collapse.
- Done via magnetic diffusion, where the B-field (through action of small amounts of ionized gas) will diffuse out of the spinning cloud and drag along gas, removing angular momentum (cf. lecture of the Sun!).

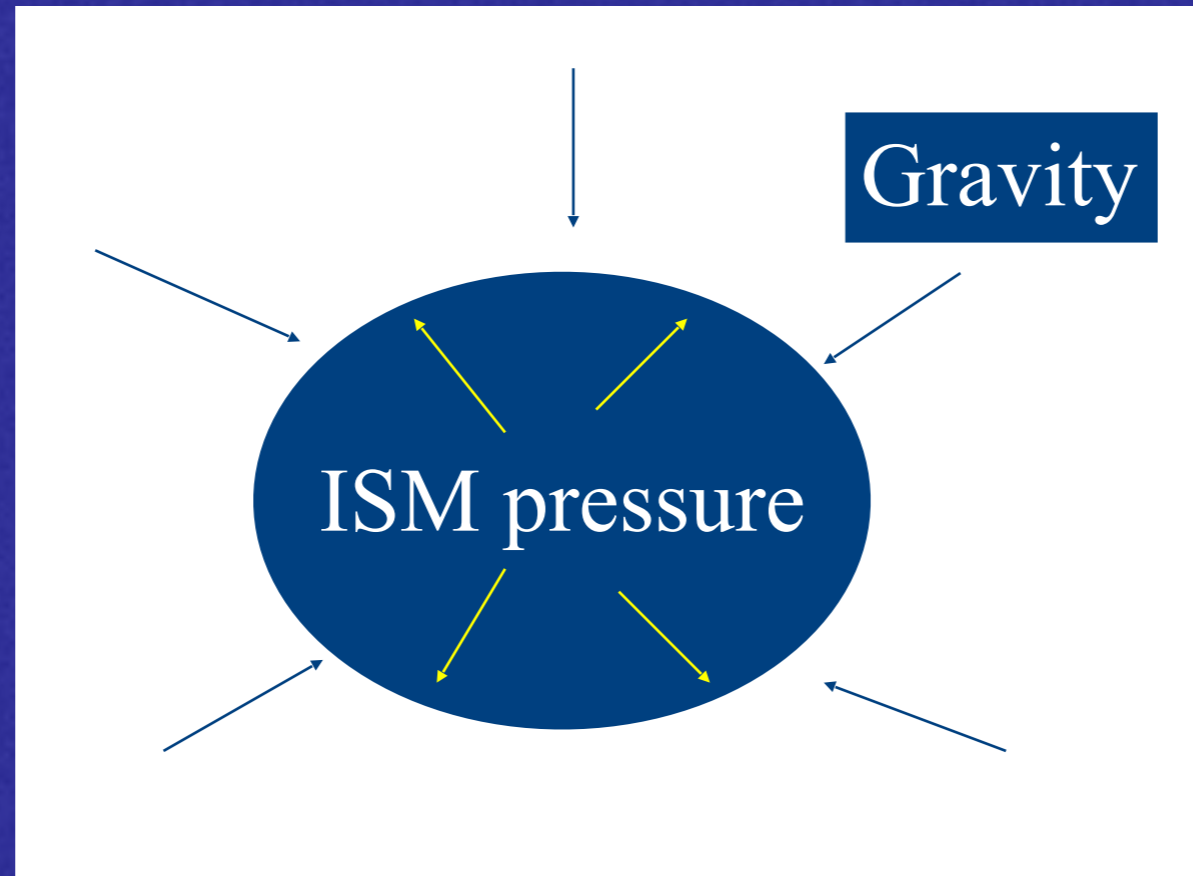
# Stages of star formation

- Start with a large, cold cloud: 0.1pc diameter,  $T \sim 100$  K,  $M = 10-100M_{\odot}$ .
- First, gravity dominates and collapse is *free-fall* (like falling from the top of a building).
- As  $n$  and  $T$  increases, pressure begins to slow collapse. This is slower than free-fall, and outer gas is held up by a slower, inner gas core.
- K-H process converts gravitational energy to heat, and some radiated into space, rest heats up core.
- Outer parts spin-up to form a protostellar disk, slowing the collapse since protostar can only get new material through inner parts of disk (which has lost angular momentum from gas friction and magnetic diffusion).

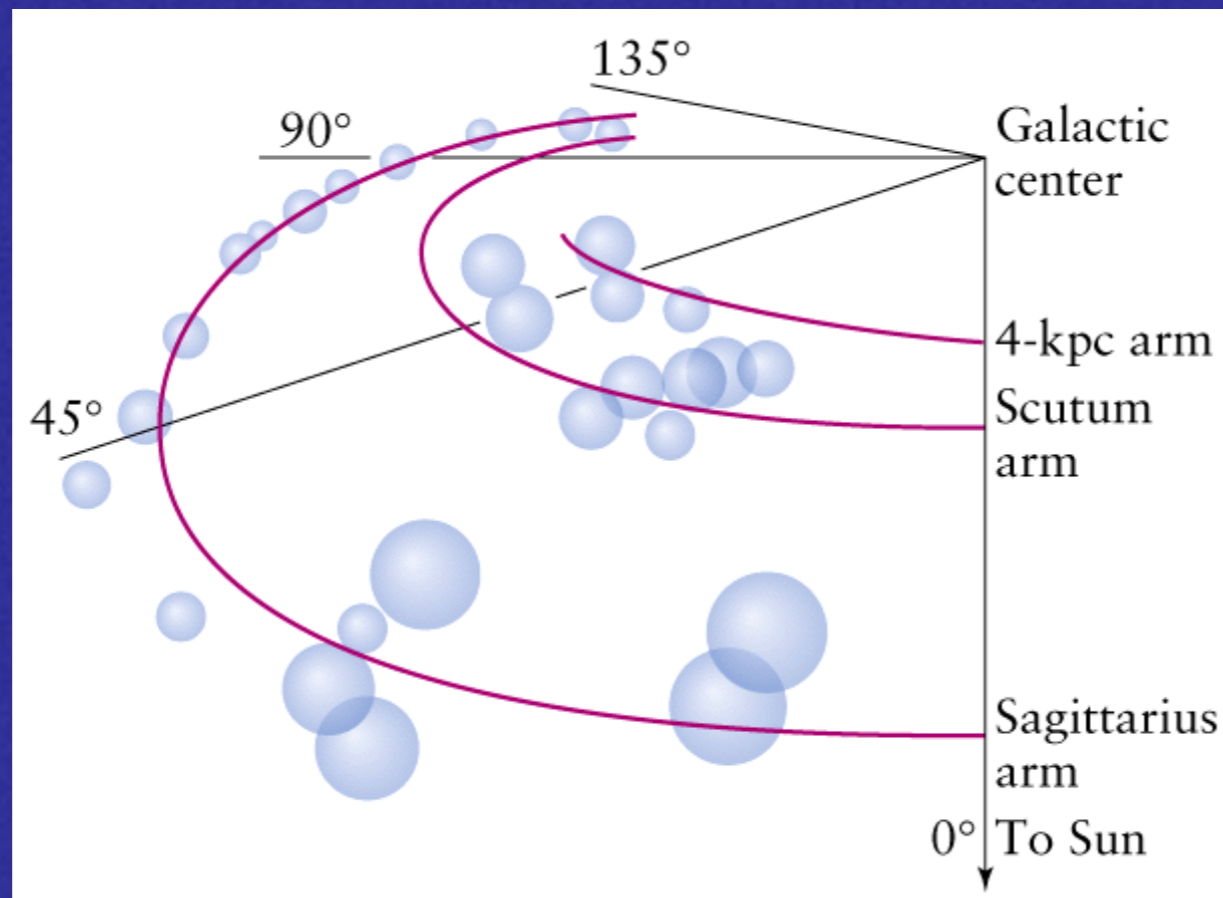
- The protostar becomes hot enough to blow gas from the poles, and twisted B-fields help spew out gas in bipolar jets ( $v=200\text{km/s}$ ).
- Finally, protostar core hot enough to ignite nuclear fusion and becomes a star.
- At some point the luminosity is large enough to blow away most of the surrounding gas, and accretion stops. The star is now visible.
- Very little of the original cloud mass makes it into the star itself. Some of the protostellar disk remains, which might stay around long enough to form a planetary system.

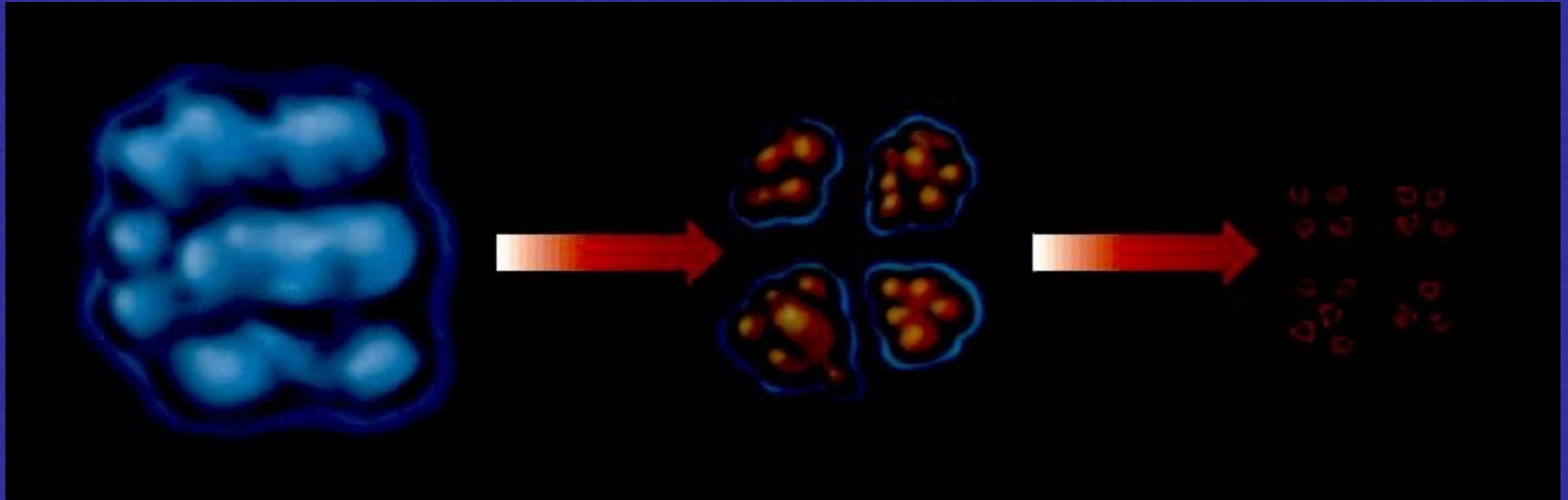
# Stage 1: Cloud collapse

- Desired result: a star, with  $n \sim 10^{24} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- Resources: the interstellar medium (ISM), with  $n \sim 10^5 - 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (dense molecular clouds)
- Recall: a cloud withstands gravitation by its internal pressure



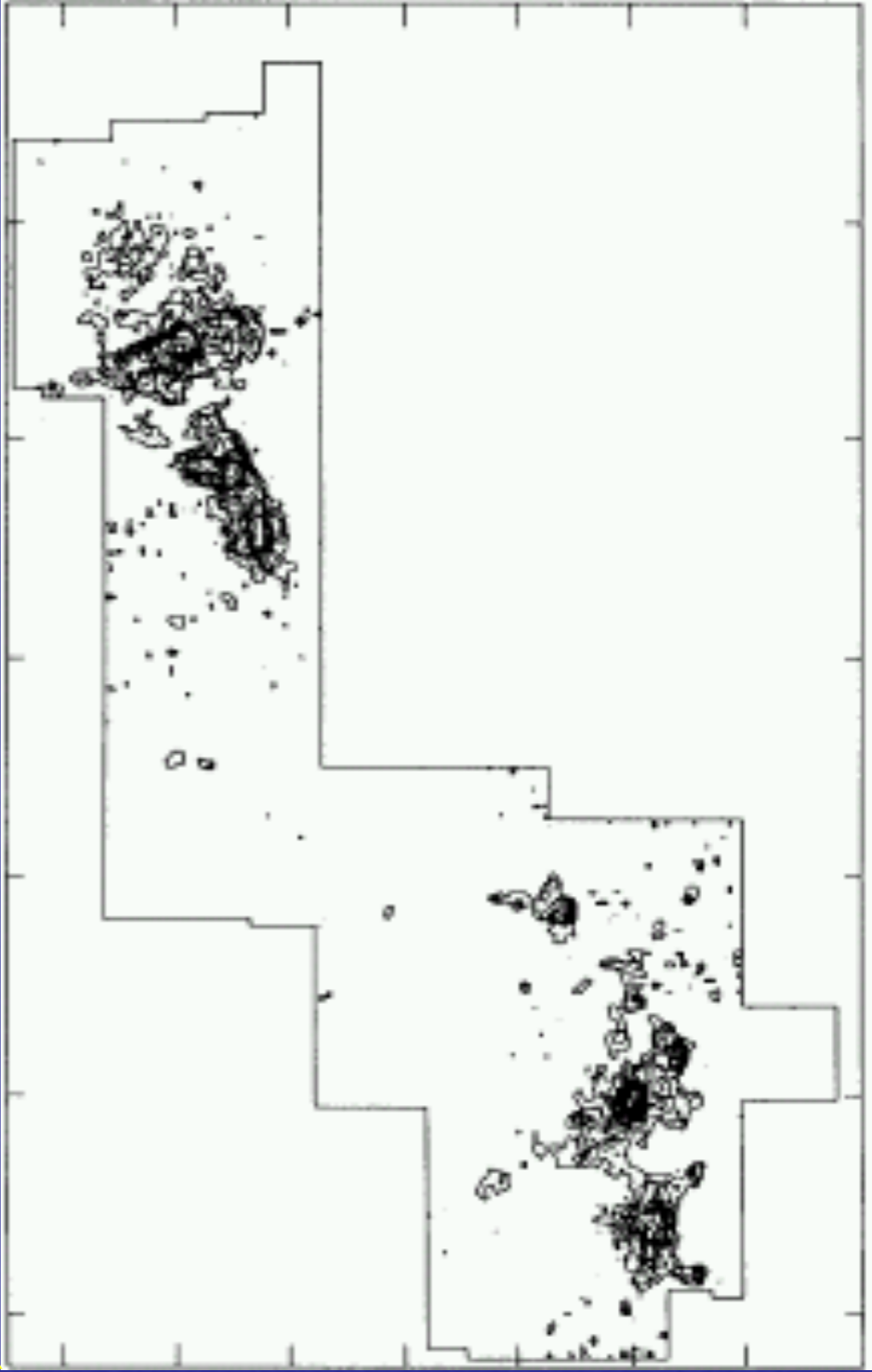
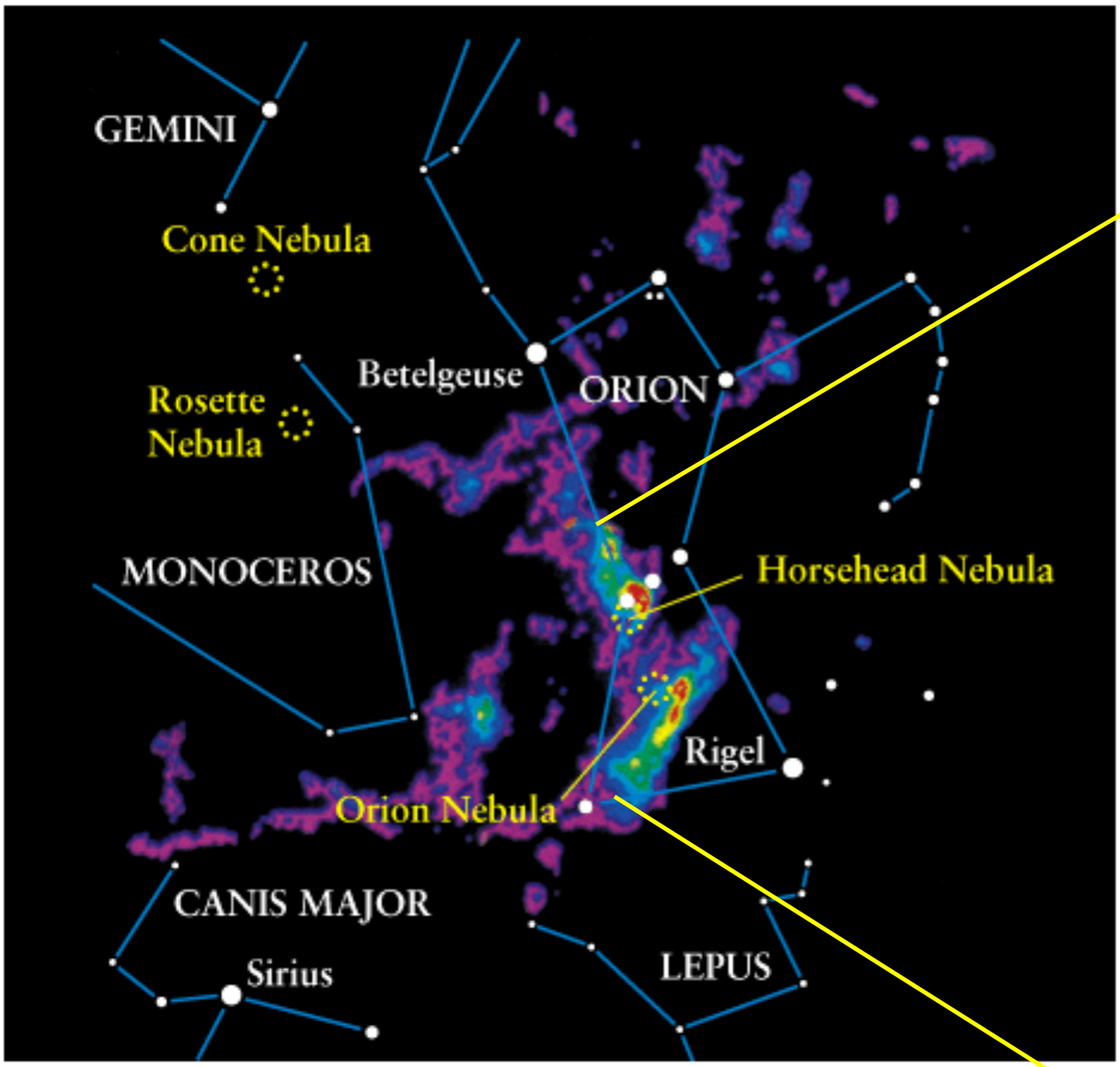
- Internal pressure sources: gas pressure from internal heat, radiation pressure, plus pressure from embedded magnetic fields
- A collapse (gravity > internal pressure) can be triggered by
  - Collisions with other clouds (cloud-cloud collisions)
  - Shocks from supernovas
  - Passage through a spiral arm in the Galaxy (density enhancement)



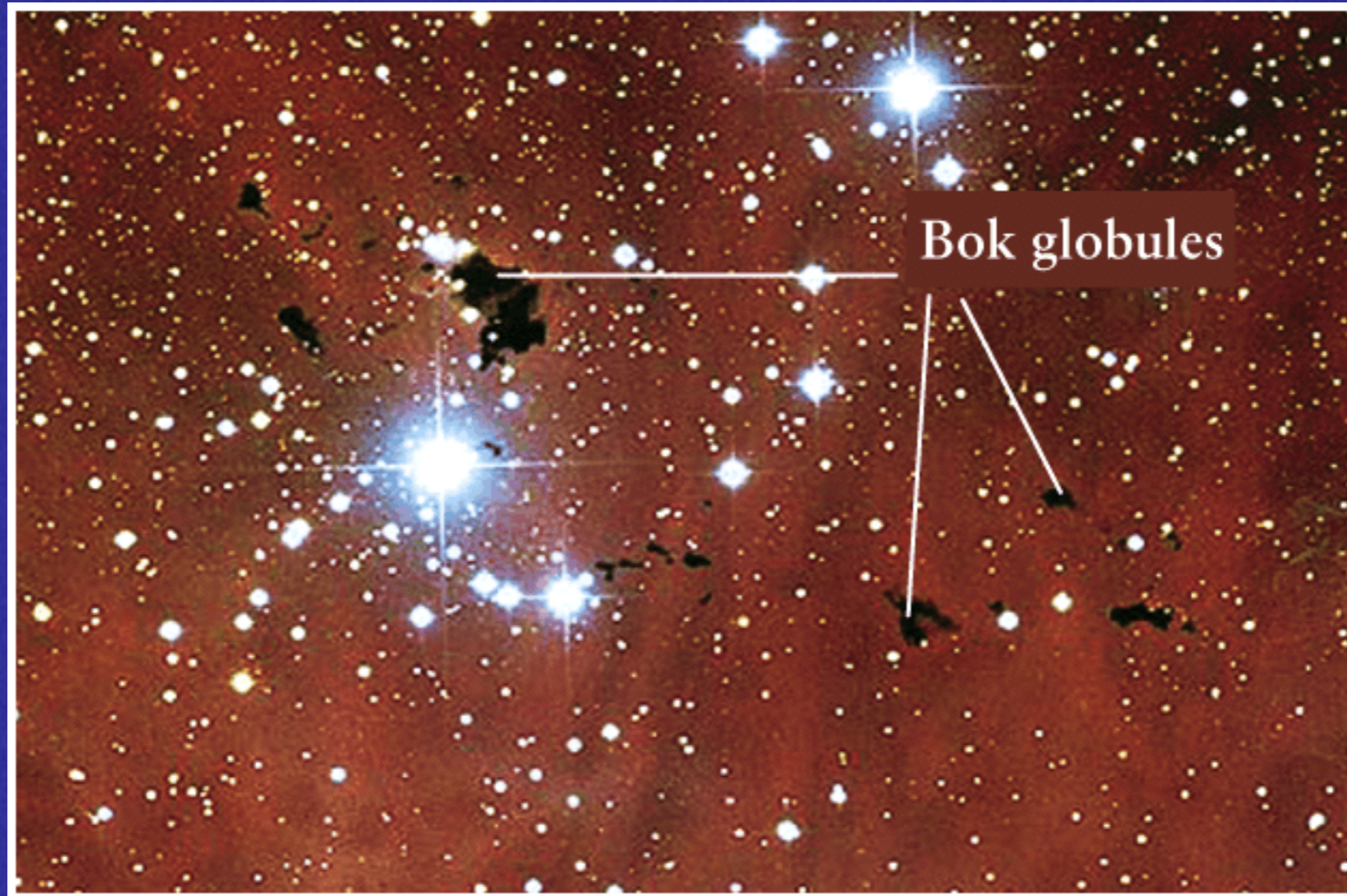


- Clouds are inhomogeneous - clumpy.
- Clumps start to collapse, densest clumps collapses first and fastest => fragmentation.
- 100s to 1000s of fragments may exist in one collapsing molecular cloud.

**Fragments in Orion MC, about 1000 times denser than average gas in cloud.**



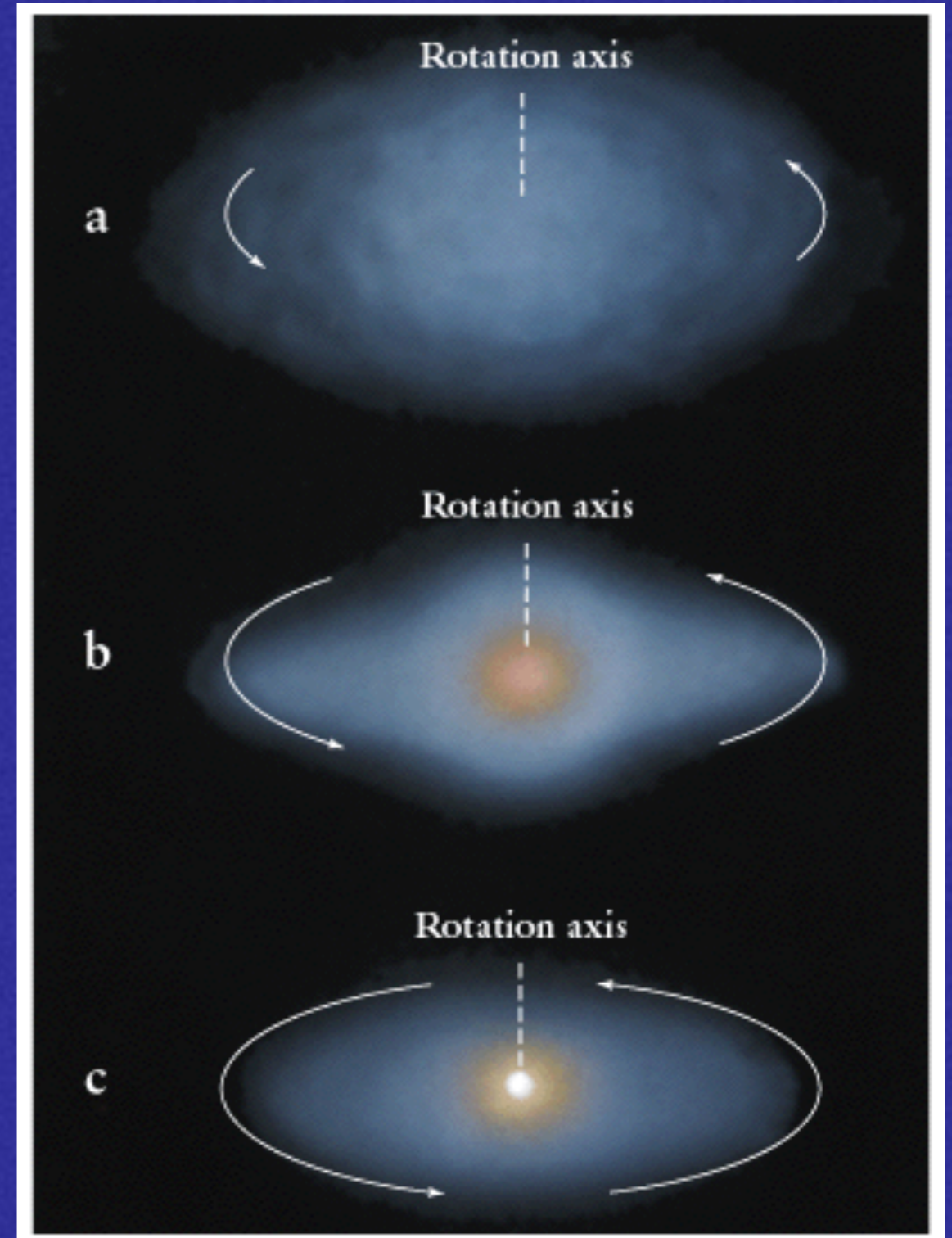
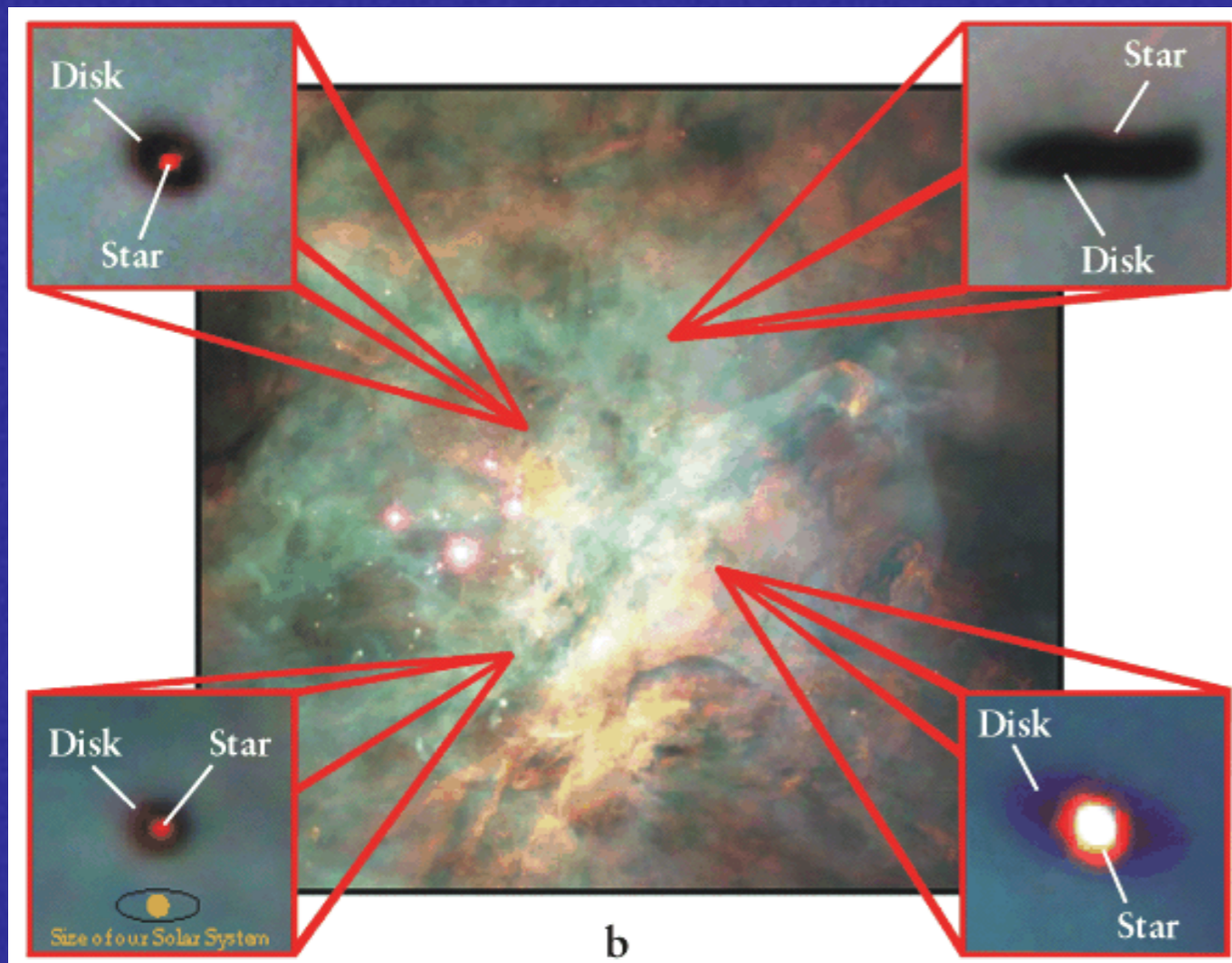
- Bok globules are good examples of very small fragments of dense gas.



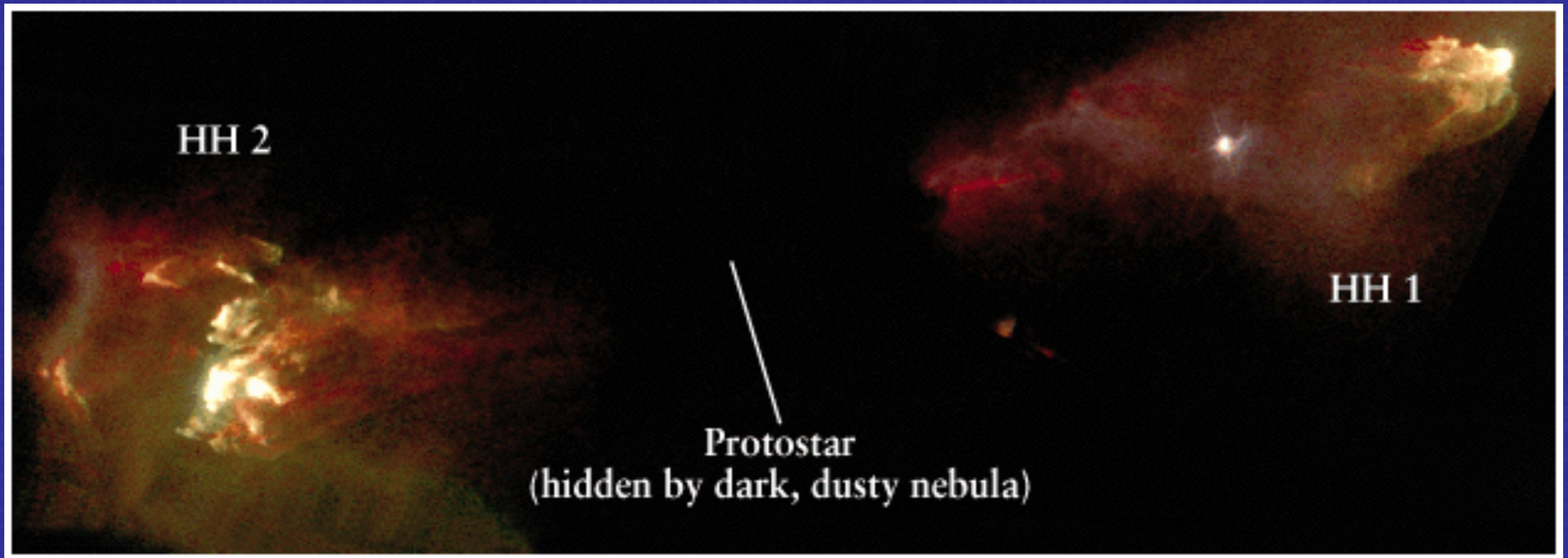


# Stage 2: Clump to protostars

- Initial rotation and conservation of angular momentum will cause the formation of a protostar and a flattened disk

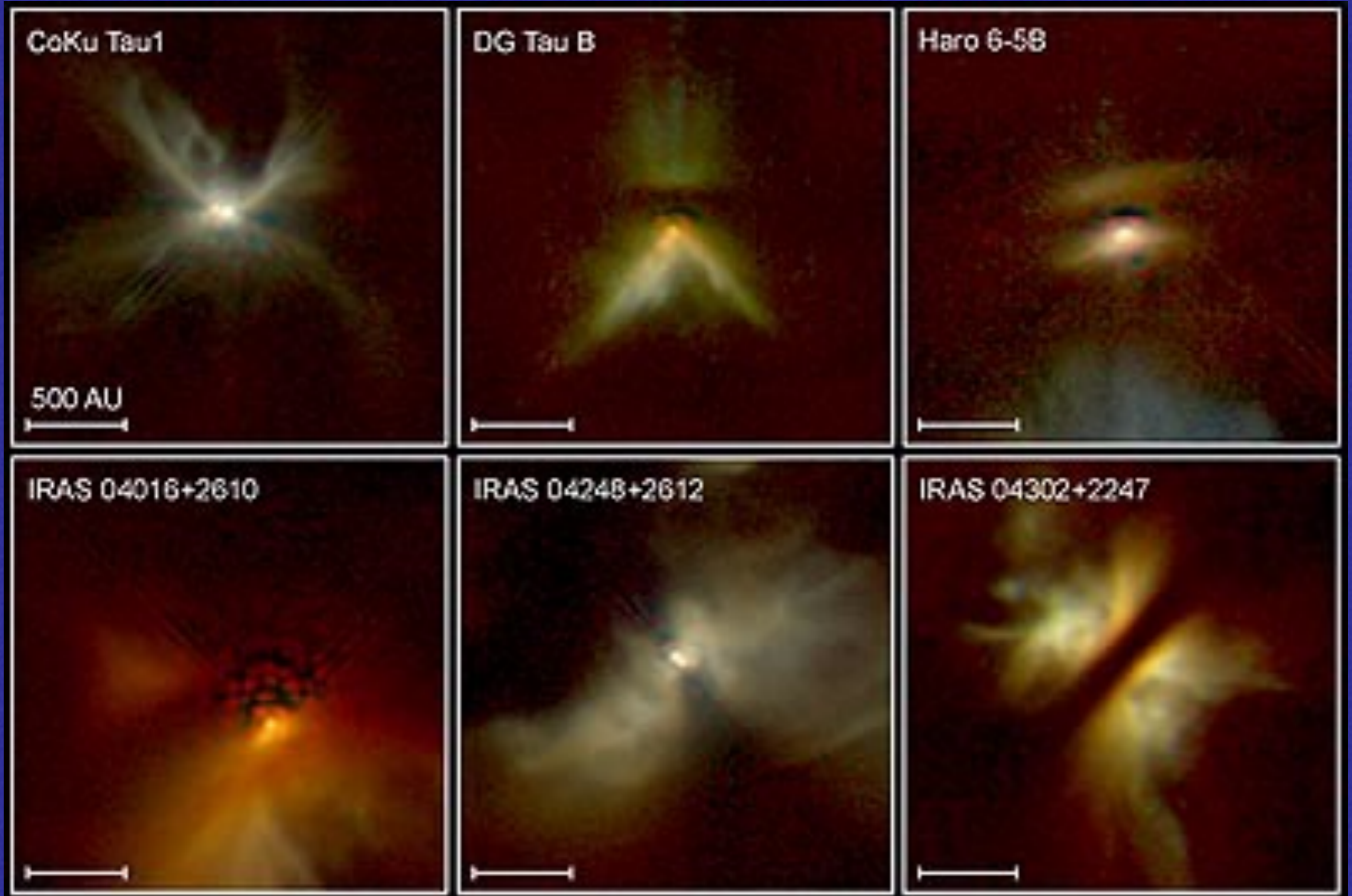


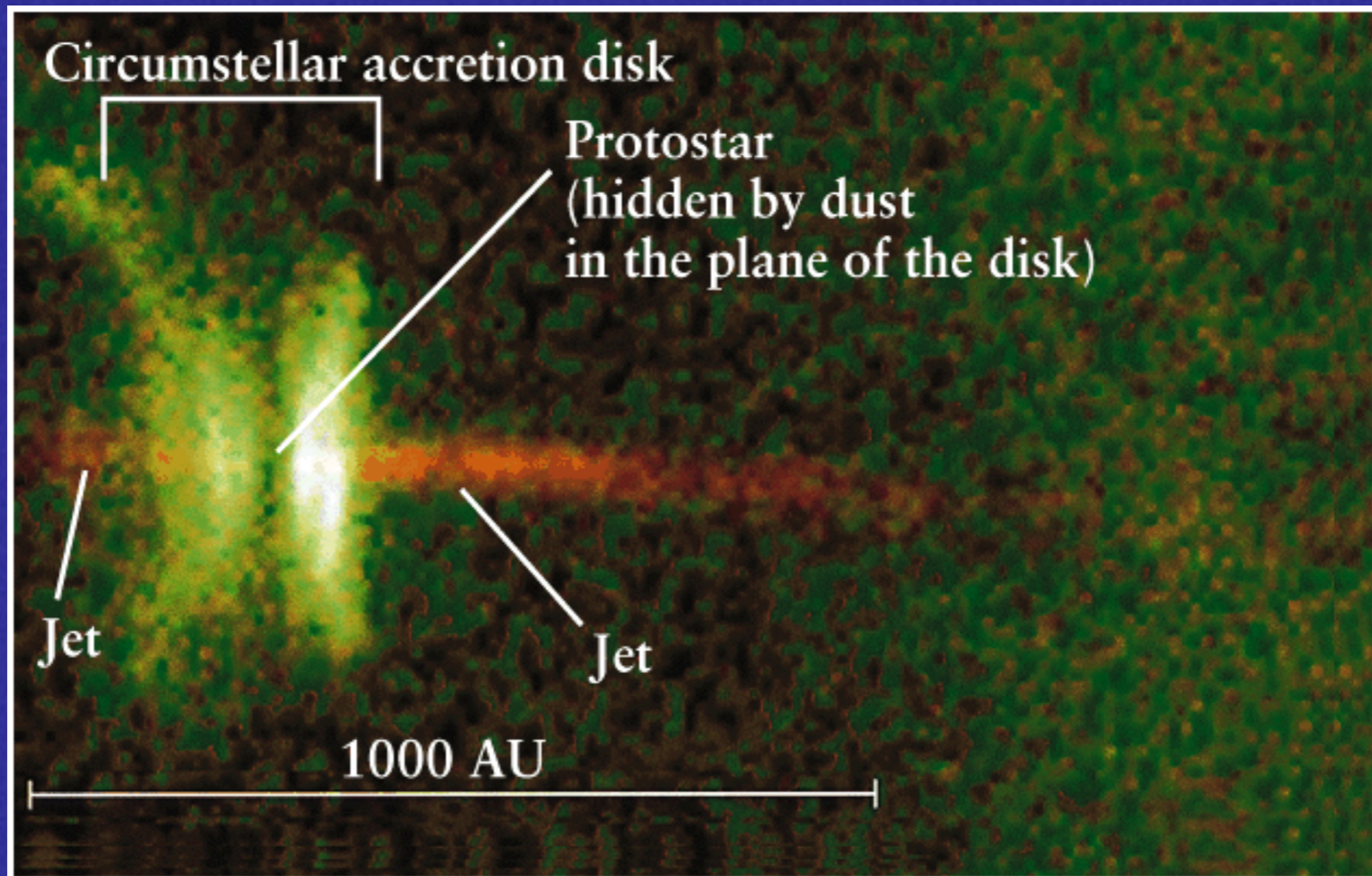
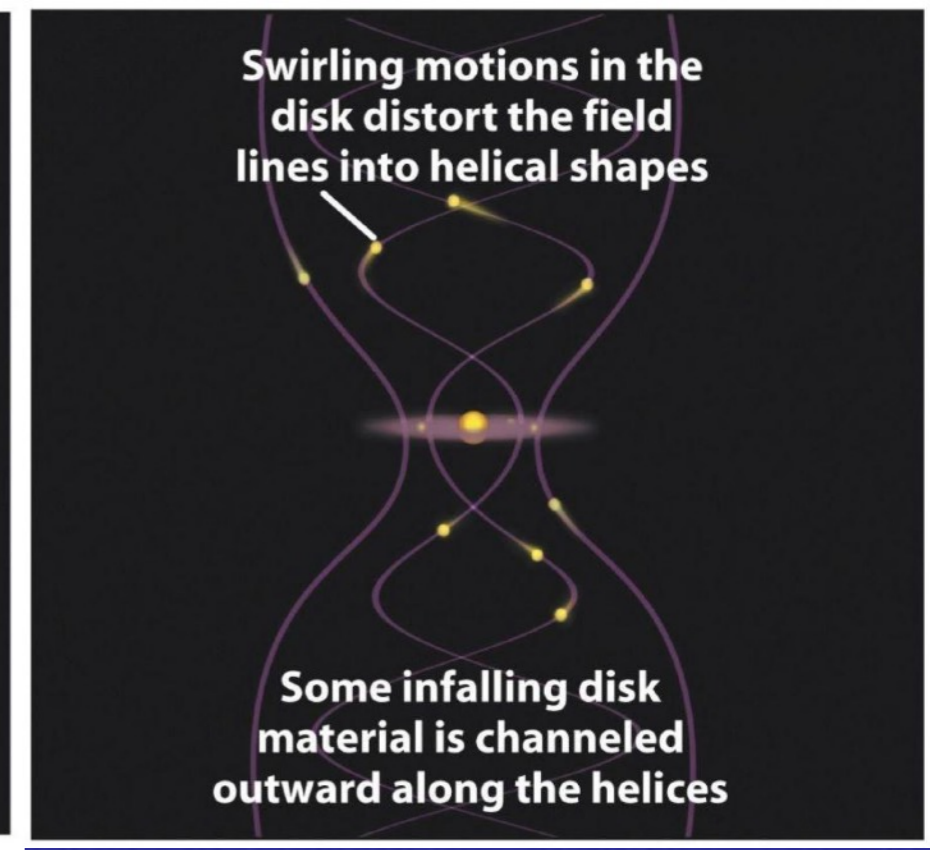
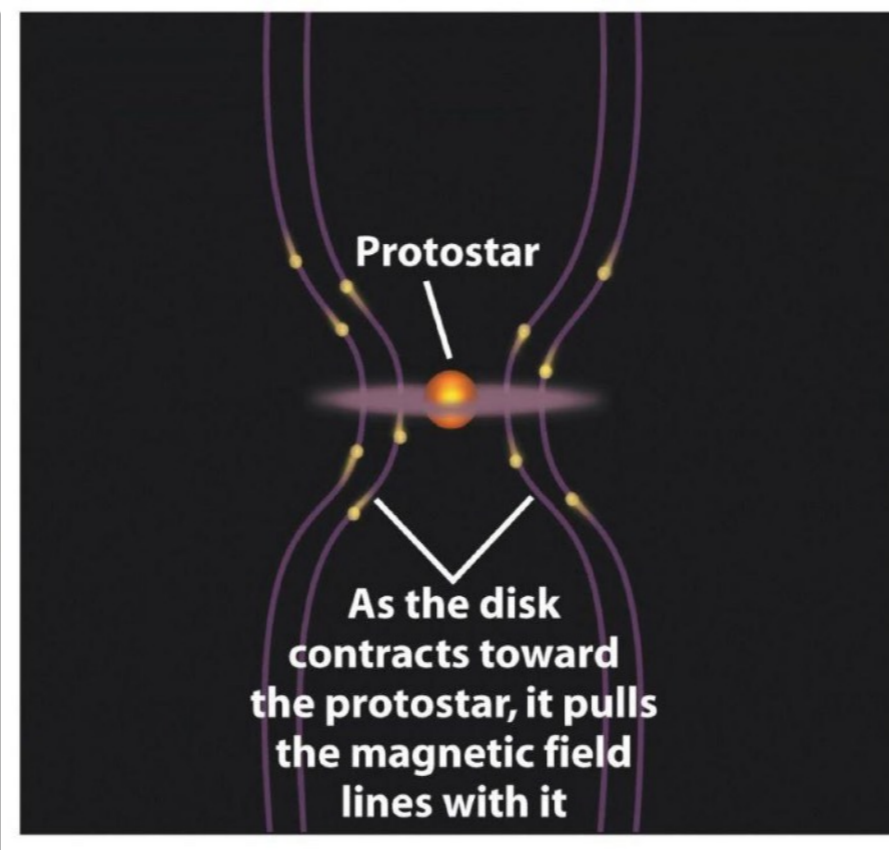
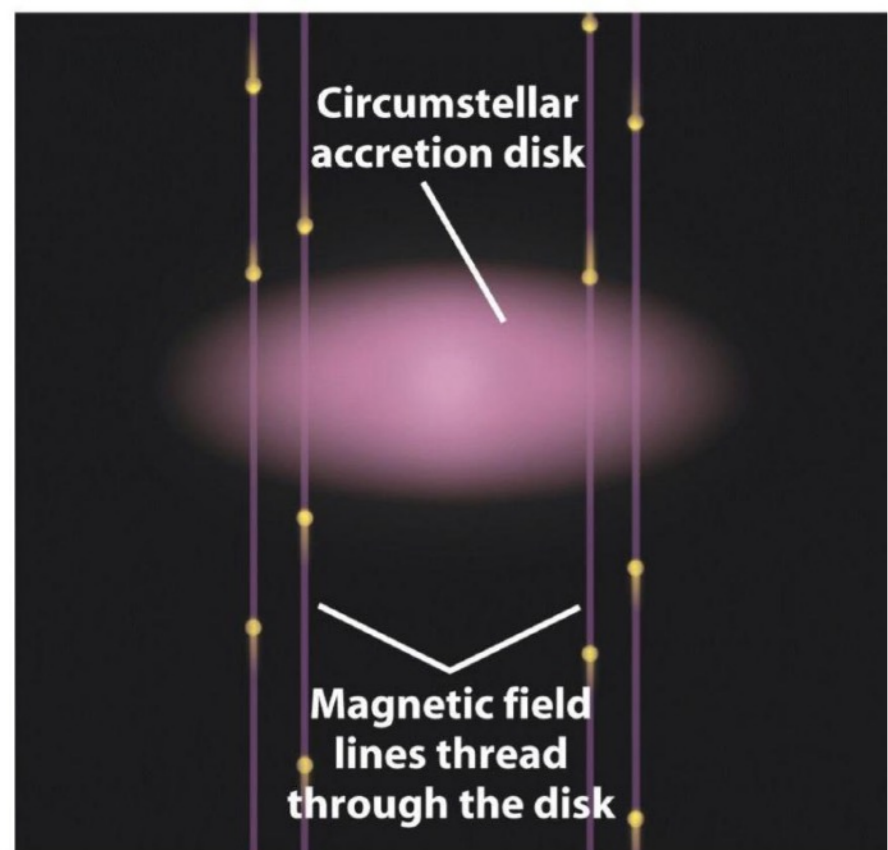
Some protostars (T Tauri types) eject gas, and create Herbig-Haro objects as ejected gas hits nearby ISM.



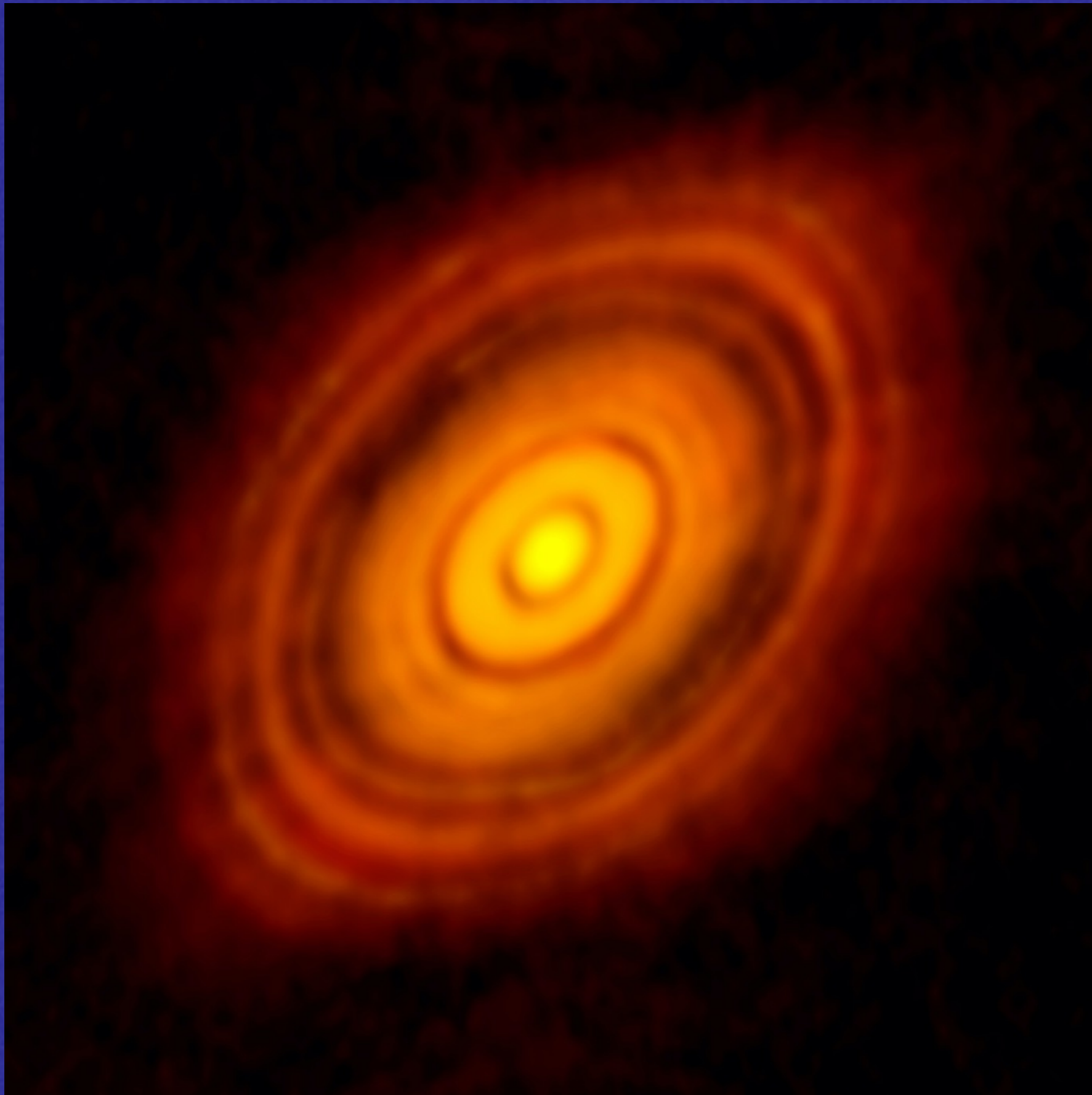
The protostar lies between ejected gas blobs, still embedded deep in the parent cloud.

More Herbig-Haro objects. Note the equatorial dust.





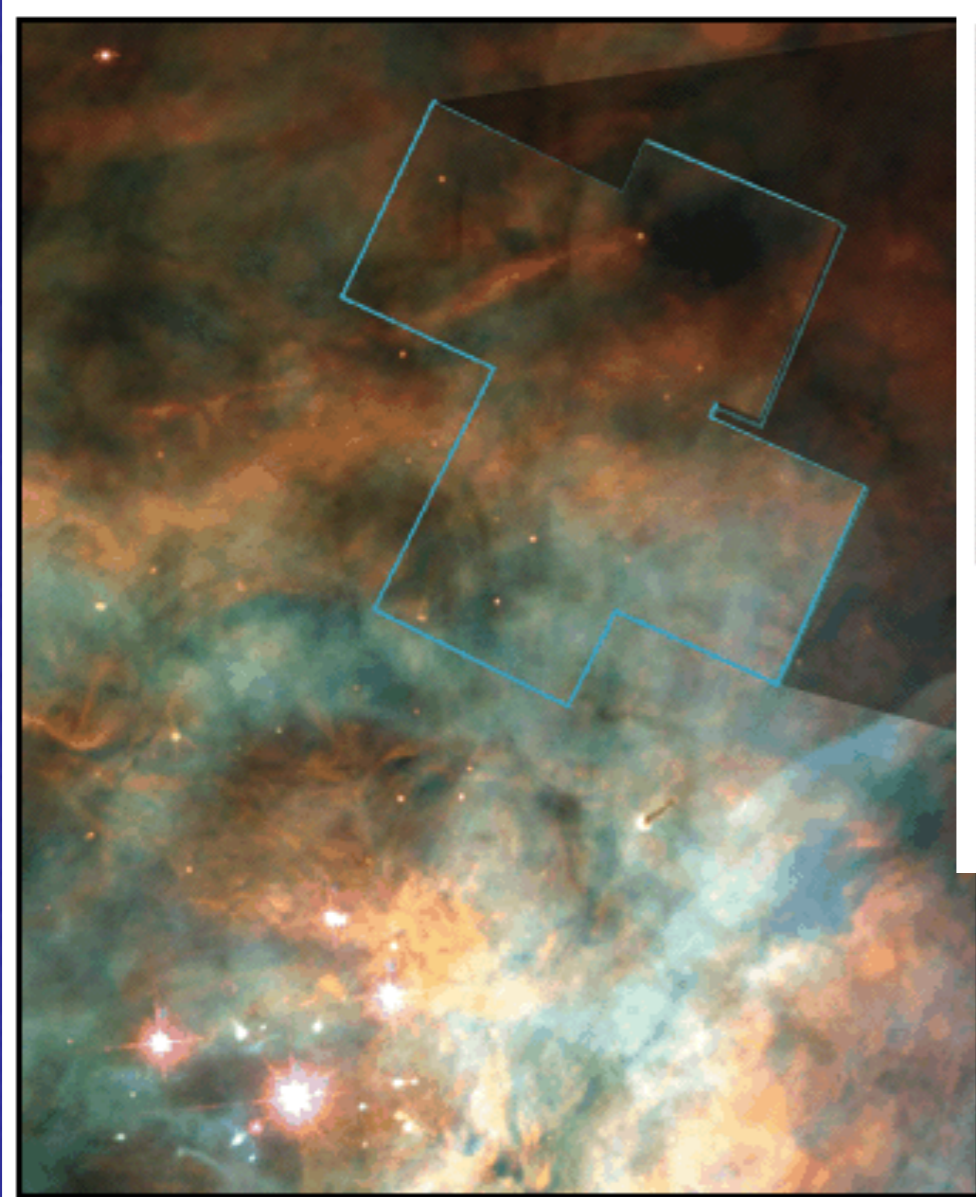
# Proto Planetary Disks seen in the millimeter



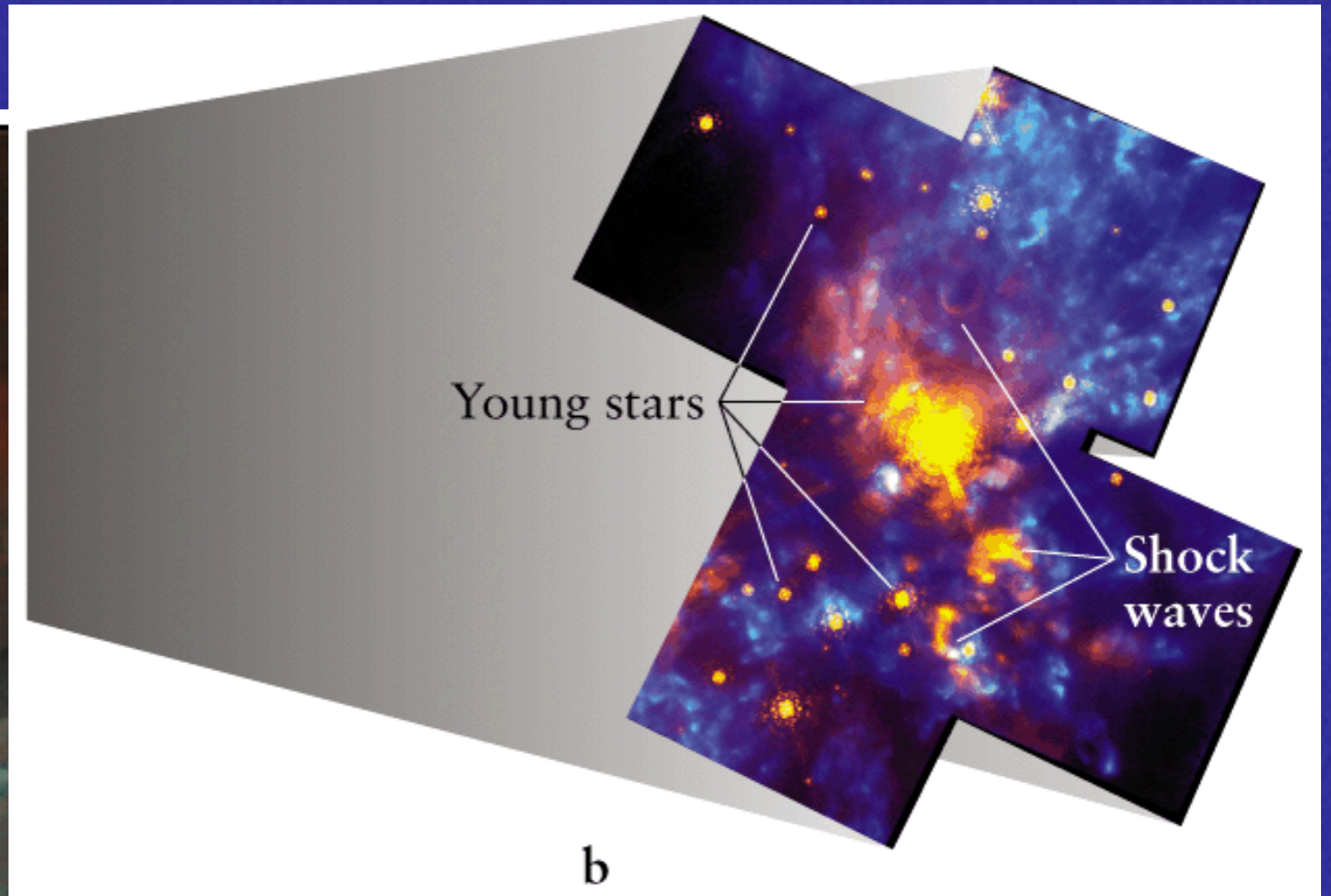
HL Tau  
< 2 Myr old

Gaps swept out by  
planets formation

- During the protostar stage: at first low density, and no heating of the gas.
- As the protostar contracts, it will become less transparent => photons become trapped, and will heat the gas.
- This is the start of the protostar trying to reach hydrostatic equilibrium
- Hydrostatic equilibrium *almost* reached (but far from thermal!)
- Energy source gravitational contraction (Kelvin-Helmholtz contraction)
- Embedded in the parent gas cloud, and a short-lived phase ( $10^4$ - $10^5$  years) => hard to observe.



a



b

Orion: Visible (left) and IR (right)

# Stage 3: Core ignition

- Eventually, the contracting protostar will become hot and dense enough in core for nuclear reactions to start (~a few million K).
- Enormous energy released, stopping gravitational contraction.
- The star enters the main sequence burning hydrogen to helium.