

Molecules in the Local Universe

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Why study molecules and the interstellar medium?

Stars form from dense, cool H₂; molecules trace star formation

- The interstellar medium plays an important role as the sink for energy exchange and provides raw material
- Star formation occurs in dense dusty clouds so need some tracer that penetrates the dust (long wavelengths > 10μm fundamental)
- Spectral observations also trace kinematics, so can be used to probe dynamical mass, gas motion, and gravitational torques

Overview of lectures

I. CO and star formation in galaxies:

ISM energy cycle HI and H₂ in the ISM CO as a tracer of H₂ CO morphology in nearby spiral galaxies Molecular gas and star formation (Kennicutt-Schmidt Law)

II. CO kinematics in galaxies:

Different visualizations of kinematics Rotation curves Dynamical resonances Gravitational torques

III. (Some) Other molecules and metal abundance:

Tracers of dense gas (HCN, HCO⁺) Optically thin molecular tracers (¹³CO) and column densities Molecular content in low-metallicity galaxies

I. CO and star formation in galaxies

The interstellar medium energy cycle



The interstellar medium energy cycle



Composition of the ISM



Relative amounts of HI and H₂ depend on galaxy morphological type (Casoli+ 1998, Bettoni+ 2003)

Where is the gas?

HI is usually much more extended than optical and H_2 (CO). The atomic gas (HI) distribution (middle panel) shows a much larger extent than the CO (bottom), or the optical (stellar) disk (top: optical in color, HI in contours) (see Haan+ 2008, 2009).

NOTE: CO traces H₂ which follows the star formation (see coming slides)...

HI and H₂ (CO) follow the exponential stellar disk, but usually with a central HI depression (hole) (see Kenney &Young 1989, Bigiel+ 2008)





 $\Sigma(HI,H_2,SFR)$ vs. Normalized radius for H₂-dominated galaxies





Why don't stars form from atomic hydrogen?

HI emits at 1.42041 MHz (21.1 cm) by radiative transitions between the two hyperfine levels of the ground electronic state.



Transition is highly forbidden, with a probability of 2.9 x 10^{-15} s⁻¹; time for a single (isolated) atom to emit a 21.1 cm photon is $\sim 1.1 \times 10^7$ yrs. (Collisions reduce this time drastically...)

Transition is thus inefficient for cooling, and the temperature T_{spin} of the HI clouds is ~ 60-100K. HI clouds comprise ~10% of visible mass of a galaxy, but have typical densities $n_{\rm H} \sim 1 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, so they

☆ will never cool and collapse to form stars (t_{ff} ~ 4 x 10⁷ yrs) ☆ need to be compressed to form molecular hydrogen

Cool H₂ not easy to observe directly (I)

H₂ homonuclear so no permanent dipole moment. Only (symmetric) quadrupole transitions permitted with $\Delta J = 0$, +/- 2



MIR emission lines: Vibrational $(\Delta V = 0)$ transitions in the **mid**-infrared (5-28 µm).

Relatively low critical densities (\geq 10² - 10³ cm⁻³) so usually thermally excited, although beware of fluorescence and shocks

However, the warm molecular gas at these temperatures (100-1000K) is only a small fraction (~5%) of the cool molecular gas see Roussel et al. 2007).

Tip of the iceberg!

Spitzer IRS spectrum of brightest galaxy in Stephan's Quintet (Appleton+ 2006): shock excited!

Cool H₂ not easy to observe directly (II)



NIR emission lines: Roto-vibrational transitions in the **near-infrared** (1-2 μ m). Critical densities are sufficiently high (> 10⁴ cm⁻³) that these transitions are usually *excited by fluorescence* (see Black & van Dishoeck 1987, Sternberg & Dalgarno 1989), rather than reflecting thermal equilibrium in the 1000-2000K regime.

AN EVEN SMALLER fraction (< 10⁻⁵) of total cool molecular gas (see Dale et al. 2005)

Cool H₂ in **dusty** regions is virtually impossible



FUV (usually) absorption lines:

Electronic transitions in the farultraviolet (absorption of a Lyman-Werner photon with energies 11.2-13.6 eV, i.e. the origin of *fluorescence*, see Sternberg 1989).

~10-15% of these absorptions result in dissociation of the molecule.

But need a dust-free sightline (AV \leq 1) in front of a bright star, so virtually impossible to detect them in dusty regions (see FUSE results, e.g., LMC/SMC: Tumlinson+ 2002).

CO to the rescue...

★ ¹²CO is the most abundant molecule after H₂: N(CO)/N(H₂) ~ few $\times 10^{-5}$ to 10^{-4}

★ Permanent dipole moment → Dipole transitions allowed with $\Delta J = +/-1$

★ Small dipole moment $\mu_{el} \sim 0.1$ Debye → Rotational transitions visible at sub-mm, mm wavelengths Collisions can populate lowest levels even at low densities

★ Excited by UV radiation field and collisions with H₂, but too much radiation (from 11.1 to 13.6 eV) causes CO to dissociate, so need self-shielding (protection from the radiation field)

Must reside in cold (10-40K) dense (\geq 10³ cm-³) clouds

X factor: Relating CO luminosity to H₂ mass

CO emission is optically thick (e.g., Wilson+ 1974), hence traces surface area, not volume \rightarrow need proportionality constant X to relate Intensity(CO) to mass or column density, N_{H2}

Assumptions (e.g., Dickman+ 1986):

 (1) Extragalactic molecular emission distributed as an ensemble of independent discrete clouds (no overlap along LOS)
 (2) Individual clouds virialized (line width ↔ dynamical mass)

virialization mass in homogeneous sphere

$$I(CO) = \int T_b \, dv \cong \sum T_b \Delta v \sim \sum T_b \, (M/r)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sim T_b \sum (n_{H2})^{\frac{1}{2}} r$$

$$\sim [T_b (n_{H2})^{-1/2}] N_{H2}$$
 N_{H2} N_{H2} = (n_{H2}) r

Hence, $N_{H2} = X \times I(CO)$, where $X \sim (n_{H2})^{\frac{1}{2}} / T_b$ *Empirically*, $X = 2-5 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-1} \text{ s}$

Circumnuclear regions: where the action is

Galactic nuclei characterized by high (stellar) mass concentration

- bulges, pseudobulges, stellar bars
- massive star clusters, nuclear disks, cusps, cores, ...

Molecular gas (not atomic) also tends to pile up in the central kpc of galactic nuclei

> nuclear gas disks, rings, bars and spirals

Why does the gas gravitate toward the circumnuclear regions?

- > deeper gravitational potential
- tidal interactions and mergers rearrange gas and drive gas inflow
- secular evolution driven by bars and spiral structure density waves acting on disk material

Local deviations from exponential disk



On kpc circumnuclear spatial scales, there are deviations from the exponential stellar disk: rings, holes, spirals, bars, ... (see BIMA-SONG survey, Helfer+ 2001, 2003).

Interferometric CO surveys of galaxies

_		-		_	
Project	Ν	Line	Telescope	Aim	
BIMA-SONG, Helfer et al.	44	CO(1-0),	BIMA,	CO properties normal	6"
OVRO-NMA , Sakamoto et al. 1999	20	CO(1-0)	OVRO, NRT	Barred vs non-barred	4"
SCONES, Petitpas et al. 2006	~10	CO(2-1), CO(3-2)	SMA	Warm gas properties normal galaxies	1-3"
NUGA, Garcia-Burillo, Combes et al.	25	CO(1-0), CO(2-1)	PdBI	Gas and Nuclear activity	0.5-1"
Seyfert, Matsushita, Kohno et al.	~10	CO(1-0), CO(2-1),CO(3-2) . HCN, HCO+	NRT, SMA	Gas and Nuclear activity	4"
LIRGs/ULIRGs , Wilson et al. 2008, Iono et al. 2009	11	CO(2-1), CO(3-2)	SMA	Physical properties gas in merger systems	1-3"

To probe critical scales for AGN fueling (10-100pc), high-spatial resolution is key!

(taken from S. Garcia-Burillo)

Interferometric CO surveys of galaxies

6"
4"
1-3"
0.5-1"
4"
1-3"
6' 4' 1- 0. 4' 1-

To probe critical scales for AGN fueling (10-100pc), high-spatial resolution is key!

(taken from S. Garcia-Burillo)

The NUGA survey at IRAM-Plateau de Bure

- **S. Garcia-Burillo, F. Combes,** A. Baker, F. Boone, A. Eckart, P.Englmaier, L. Hunt, S. Leon, R. Neri, E. Schinnerer, L. Tacconi + M. Krips, V. Casasola
- 200 hrs observing time at PdBI, in ABCD configurations, over about 3 yrs (2001-2003). ¹²CO(1-0) 115.27 GHz, ¹²CO(2-1) 230.54 GHz
- Spatial resolution ~0.6" (at 230 GHz) 2" (worst case 115 GHz). PdBI primary beam size 42" (115GHz), 21" (230GHz). Velocity resolution 10 km/s; continuum sensitivity ~ 2 mJy/beam (115 GHz), ~5 mJy/beam (230 GHz).



Subsequent 30-meter single dish (Pico Veleta) observations for shortspacing correction to *recover diffuse flux possibly resolved out by interferometric observations:* half-power beam size 22" (115 GHz), 12" (230 GHz)

NUGA CO images of galaxies (Papers I-XIV)



NUGA CO images of galaxies (Papers I-XIV)





HST A_V

α (2000)

NGC 2782: contrasting spatial scales for HI, CO



Bulge-disk decomposition subtracted from 3.6 μ m image (Hunt+ 2008) shows stellar bar, diameter ~ 700pc

NGC 2782: contrasting spatial scales for HI, CO



NUGA X. NGC 3147



CO circumnuclear morphology: a mixed bag

★ H₂ masses in the inner kpc region range from: $3 - 5 \times 10^8$ to > 10⁹ Msun. The extraordinary case of NGC 1961 (Combes+ 2009) has M(H₂)~2 × 10¹⁰ Msun.

- ☆ M(dyn) ~ RV²/G. M(H₂)/M(dyn) from a few percent up to > 20%. This means that more than 1/5 of the mass in the central few kpc of a galaxy can be molecular gas!
- There is no unique morphology associated with central regions of galaxies hosting low-luminosity active galactic nuclei (AGN). NUGA finds gas rings, nuclear gas bars, nuclear spiral arms, disks, and lopsidedness, which may or may not be associated with stellar features (or with gas inflow to the AGN).
- CO generally follows the dust distribution, but with some very local (scales > 300 pc) variations... Multiwavelength analysis important!

Gas surface density correlated with star formation



Global Kennicutt-Schmidt law: discovered by Schmidt (1959) for HI. Extended to total gas H_2 +HI by Kennicutt (1989,1998).

The spatially resolved Kennicutt-Schmidt law



NGC 2903



= Total gas density, Σ_{gas}

High-resolution **HI** and **CO** maps (THINGS: Walter et al. 2008; HERACLES: Leroy et al. 2009)

HI





FUV



= Total star formation rate,

 Σ_{SFR}

SFR from **GALEX FUV** + **Spitzer 24 µm** (Bigiel et al. 2008)

Star formation and H₂



Star formation and HI



 $\Sigma_{\rm HI}$ "saturates" at ~ 9-10 M_{sun} pc⁻² and is not correlated with $\Sigma_{\rm SFR}$

Where do stars form?



Contours reflect data density of

points averaged over ensemble of galaxies; equal weight to each radius (taken from Bigiel et al. 2008, Leroy et al. 2008, 2009).

- Σ_{HI} saturates at ~ 9-10
 Msun pc⁻²
- Σ_{H2} correlates with Σ_{SFR} (slope = 1.0 +/- 0.2).
 Stars form where molecular gas is dense.
- Molecular gas KS law, but hot debate! (see Krumholz+ 2008, 2009 for theoretical motivation)

II. CO kinematics in galaxies

Velocity moments and CO data cubes



Iso-velocity ("spider") diagrams



Cuts along the major and minor axes...



Position-velocity (PV) diagrams



Simulations of beam-smearing on a major-axis PV diagram.

Top: Assumed "true" rotation curve (thick) with a central core, bulge, disk, and halo

Middle: "Observed" CO PV diagram

Bottom: "Observed" HI PV diagram

High resolution + high sensitivity necessary to detect central high velocities and steep rise

(taken from Sofue & Rubin 2001)
Observed major-axis PV diagrams



Signature of rotating disk clear in both galaxies

Observed major-axis PV diagrams



Signature of rotating disk clear in both galaxies, but non-circular streaming motions evident in NGC 2782

Rotation (or "circular-velocity") curves are defined as the trace of velocities on a major-axis PV diagram, correcting for the angle between the line of sight and the galaxy disk (inclination).

Intensity-weighted velocities: $V_{int} = \int I(v) v dv / \int I(v) dv$



Distance in arcsec along the major axis

Rotation (or "circular-velocity") curves are the trace of velocities on a major-axis PV diagram, correcting for the angle between the line of sight and the galaxy disk (inclination).

Intensity-weighted velocities:

 $V_{int} = \int I(v) v dv / \int I(v) dv$

approximated by **Gaussian fits for each radial bin** (and take the velocity with the most intense component in messy situations with multiple velocity peaks)



Velocity (km/s)



HI traces the outer disk more effectively (extending the flat part of the rotation curve).



Rotation curves and resonances

Identify *non-axisymmetric features in stellar image* (nearinfrared) or gas map, and measure their length...

Where these intersect with the rotation curve may be resonances!



Rotation curves and resonances

Weak bar with pattern speed Ω_b in epicyclic approximation, epicyclic radial oscillation frequency:(see Binney & Tremaine 1987):

$$\Omega_{rot}^{2}(R) = 1/R (\partial \Phi / \partial R)$$

κ²(R)= R [dΩ²/dR + 4Ω²]

Lindblad resonances when

 $m(\Omega_{rot} - \Omega_b) = +/-\kappa$



Dynamical torques and AGN fueling



Power source of AGN is accretion onto a supermassive black hole (SMBH).

High luminosities and small spatial scales (<1pc) imply nonstellar power supply, thought to be accretion onto a deep gravitational potential.

Questions:

- What turns on the AGN? (only ~5% galaxies host AGN) ... and what turns it off again?
- How does the fuel, gas on kpc scales in the galaxy disk, lose its angular momentum and flow in to the event horizon scales around the SMBH?

CO and bars

Molecules important for tracing the dynamical action of bars (HI usually depleted in central regions)

Variety of morphologies: rings, bars, spiral structure

twin peaks leading offset dust lanes

(Sakamoto+ 1999)



Where is the CO in barred galaxies?



Relative to unbarred galaxies, CO emission in barred galaxies is more concentrated, and there is more gas (relative to dynamical mass) in central kpc scales...

But bars cannot overcome resonance barriers

- Theoretical and observational support for bar-driven gas transport, but no trend of more bars in low-luminosity (Seyfert) AGN!
- NUGA search for a 'universal' feeding agent in low-luminosity AGN unsuccessful. Gas rings, nuclear gas bars, nuclear spiral arms, disks, and lopsidedness apparently unable to produce significant fueling on scales « 1 kpc.
- Usually gas gets stopped in at the ILR barriers at ~a few 100 pc!
- So how can the gas lose its angular momentum to fuel the SMBH on small spatial scales?

Examine torques on gas by gravitational potential from stars

Underlying assumptions (Garcia-Burillo+ 2005):

- (1) Stellar mass distribution accurately estimated by near-infrared images
- (2) Stars define the total gravitational potential acting on the gas
- I. Derive potential

$$\Phi(R,\theta) = \Phi_0(R) + \sum_m \Phi_m(R) \cos(m\theta - \phi_m)$$

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III. Average torque t(r) azimuthally and weight by column density

$$t(r) = \frac{\int_{\theta} N(x, y)(x.F_y - y.F_x)}{\int_{\theta} N(x, y)}$$

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 $\epsilon = dL/dt \times 1/L \times T_{rot} = t(r)/L \times T_{rot}$

IV. Derive efficiencies

AGN fueling elusive

Most NUGA galaxies have *positive torques* t(r) > 0 at r < 200pc \rightarrow stellar torques inefficient at driving gas inflow in the present epoch! How can AGN be fueled if currently no gas is being driven inward?

Short-lived (<10⁷ yrs) feeding agent in stellar potential? "Smoking-gun" (gas inflow on small spatial scales) elusive!

But negative torques found in torque maps of NGC 2782:



Stellar potential (see left) shows two embedded bars (remember RC)

Nuclear bar decoupling→ molecular gas insideILR(oval)

"Smoking-gun evidence" in NGC 2782



"Smoking-gun evidence" in NGC 2782



Molecular gas kinematics in nuclei of galaxies

- Although HI and ionized gas also effective kinematic tracers, CO uniquely useful to trace circumnuclear regions of galaxies because such regions are dusty (extinction a problem for ionized gas tracers), and usually devoid of HI (and CO maps have better spatial resolution than HI.)
- ★ Barred galaxies show higher concentration of molecular gas than unbarred galaxies (Sakamoto+ 1999), confirming dynamical theories which suggest that bars transport gas inward.
- Analysis of gravitational potential, resonances, and torques (Garcia-Burillo+ 2005) enable estimate of net gas inflow and outflow to circumnuclear regions, to fuel AGN and star formation. 6/12 analyzed NUGA galaxies show inflow!
- Streaming motions are ambiguous signatures of inflow... Gravity could be assisted by other mechanisms such as viscosity and dynamical friction...

III (a). (Some) Other molecules

High-density molecular tracers



Competition between radiative and collisional de-excitation quantified by ratio C_{ul}/A_{ul}

 $A_{J-1\neg J} \sim J^3 \mu_{el}^2$, where μ_{el} = electric dipole moment, J = angular momentum quantum number

Critical density n_{crit} for which $C_{ul}/A_{ul} = 1 \sim n(H_2)T^{1/2} / J^3 \mu_{el}^2$

Because of their higher n_{crit} molecules with larger μ_{el} (and higher-order transitions) trace **hotter/denser** molecular gas.

High-density molecular tracers: HCN(1-0)



critical density) (Gao & Solomon 2004, Gao+ 2007, see also Wu+ 2005)



Optically thin molecular tracers: 13CO

¹²C/¹³C \cong 50-70, i.e. rare; ¹³C likely optically thin. Thus, unlike ¹²CO which is optically thick, ¹³CO can be used to infer column densities N(¹³CO) and N(¹²CO), because of the relation between N and *τ*.



 I_v = spectral intensity, j_v = spectral emission coefficient, α_v = spectral absorption coefficient.

Radiation transfer equation:

$$\frac{dI_{\nu}}{ds} = -\alpha_{\nu} I_{\nu} + j_{\nu}$$

Radiation transfer and thermal emission

After dividing by α_v , and substituting for τ_v , the transfer equation can be written as:

$$\frac{dI_{\nu}}{d\tau_{\nu}} = -I_{\nu} + S_{\nu}$$

where the "source function" S_{ν} defined as: $S_{\nu}\equiv \frac{j_{\nu}}{\alpha_{\nu}}$ Thus, solution is:

$$I_{\nu}(\Delta s) = I_{\nu}(0)e^{-\tau_{\nu}} + \frac{j_{\nu}}{\alpha_{\nu}} \left[1 - e^{-\tau_{\nu}}\right]$$

For *thermal emission*: $j_{\nu} = \alpha_{\nu} B_{\nu}(T)$ (Kirchoff's Law)

and solution becomes:

$$I_{\nu}(\Delta s) = I_{\nu}(0)e^{-\tau_{\nu}} + \frac{2h\nu^{3}/c^{2}}{\exp(h\nu/k_{B}T) - 1} \left[1 - e^{-\tau_{\nu}}\right]$$

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Radiative transfer and brightness temperature T_B

Rayleigh-Jeans approximation for low-energy transitions $hv \ll kT_B$ so that transfer equation becomes:

$$T_B(\Delta s) = T_B(0)e^{-\tau_{\nu}(\Delta s)} + T[1 - e^{-\tau_{\nu}(\Delta s)}]$$

Relate differences in intensity to the measurement unit of brightness temperature, T_B , and observed antenna temperature, T_A , via the Planck function:

$$T_B \equiv \frac{c^2}{2\nu^2 k_B} [I_\nu(\Delta \tau_\nu) - I_\nu(0)]$$

$$T_B = \frac{T_A}{\eta} \left(\frac{\theta_{source}^2 + \theta_A^2}{\theta_{source}^2} \right)$$

where η = main beam efficiency; θ_A , θ_{source} = beam, source size Conversion from T_A to T_B depends on source size!

Radiative transfer and "detection equation"

Assuming baseline subtracted (so omit term behind cloud), and remembering that cosmic background radiation is everywhere, we have the difference of two intensities as the *"detection equation"* (see Stahler & Palla 2004; Wilson, Rohlfs, & Hüttemeister 2009):

$$T_B(\nu) = T_0 \left(\frac{1}{e^{T_0/T_{ex}} - 1} - \frac{1}{e^{T_0/2.7} - 1} \right) (1 - e^{-\tau_\nu})$$

where $T_0 = hv/k$ [5.5K for ¹²CO(1-0), 5.3K ¹³CO(1-0)].

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One observable for each line: $T_B(v)$

Two unknowns for each line: T_{ex} and τ_v

 τ_v proportional to α_v , hence to total volume density; Because of the Δs dependence, we can then infer column density!

Column density and optical depth of ¹³CO

Hence need two observables (13CO and 12CO) and some assumptions:

- ✓ Uniform T_{ex} along the line of sight for J=1 → 0 transition, and CO lines emitted from the same volume
- ✓ Same T_{ex} for ¹³CO and ¹²CO
- ✓ T_{kin} = T_{ex} for ¹²CO, and τ (¹²CO) » 1

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✓ τ(<sup>13</sup>CO) « 1
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(1) Derive T_{ex} for ¹²CO(1-0) by assuming τ (¹²CO) » 1 in detection equation

(2) With T_{ex} , detection equation can be solved for $\tau(^{13}CO)$

(3) N(¹³CO) ~ τ (¹³CO) f(T_B, T_{ex}, A_{ul}, partition)

(4) $N(^{12}CO)/N(^{13}CO) = \tau(^{12}CO)/\tau(^{13}CO)$

 $N(^{12}CO) = N(^{13}CO) \gamma [^{12}C/^{13}C]$, where $\gamma < 1$ (fractionation, shielding)

III (b). Molecule content at low metallicity

CO deficit in low-metallicity dwarf galaxies



CO intensity vs. oxygen abundance (Taylor+ 1998). Below 12+logO/H ~ 8, virtually impossible to find CO!

Variation with O/H of CO conversion factor X?



Observationally, resolved CO clouds in Local Group say **yes** (Wilson 1995).

Theoretical arguments (e.g., Maloney & Black 1988) also say yes.

Other factors also play a role...



In addition to the dependence of X on O/H and n_e , Bell+ (2006) find variations with time and with radiation field strength! Thus geometry of star-forming regions could be important.


The future with ALMA

PdBI

ALMA

0.5-2.0"		<i>will</i> boost spatial resolution: 0.05-0.1"
(10-300 pc @5-30 Mpc)	\rightarrow	(1-10 pc @5-30 Mpc)
		boost sensitivity:
$M(H_2)$ -3 σ [$\Delta v \sim 10$ km/s@2	0Mpc]:	
~10⁵ M _{sun} <i>in</i> t _{int} ~15-20h	→	$\sim 10^4 M_{sun}$ in $t_{int} \sim 1.5h$
	L	<i>improve statistics in the</i> .ocal Universe (NUGA++?):
12 galaxies at \sim 0.5"	\rightarrow	100-150 galaxies at ~0.1"
(@5-30Mpc)		(@5-30Mpc)
200 hrs		200 hrs



The future with ALMA





- ALMA will transform our understanding of how stars form, and how star formation and AGN fueling processes interact -
- We will be able to perform Galactic-scale science in distant galaxies -
- The relation between molecules and metal abundance can be explored locally, and linked to star formation at high redshift -