

# Emission Nebulae

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## (i) Photoionization

A hot star,  
 $T > 10^4 \text{ K}$    $UV \rightsquigarrow$

For  $h\nu > 13.6 \text{ eV}$

If  $\lambda < 91.1 \text{ nm}$   $\rightarrow$  ionization of H

If  $\lambda < 50.4 \text{ nm}$   $\rightarrow$  ionization of He

This produces lots of  $e^-$  to excite collisionally low-lying levels of ions; electrons eventually drop back to the ground levels via cascade transitions

$\rightarrow$  **Recombination lines** of H, He I, He II and other ions

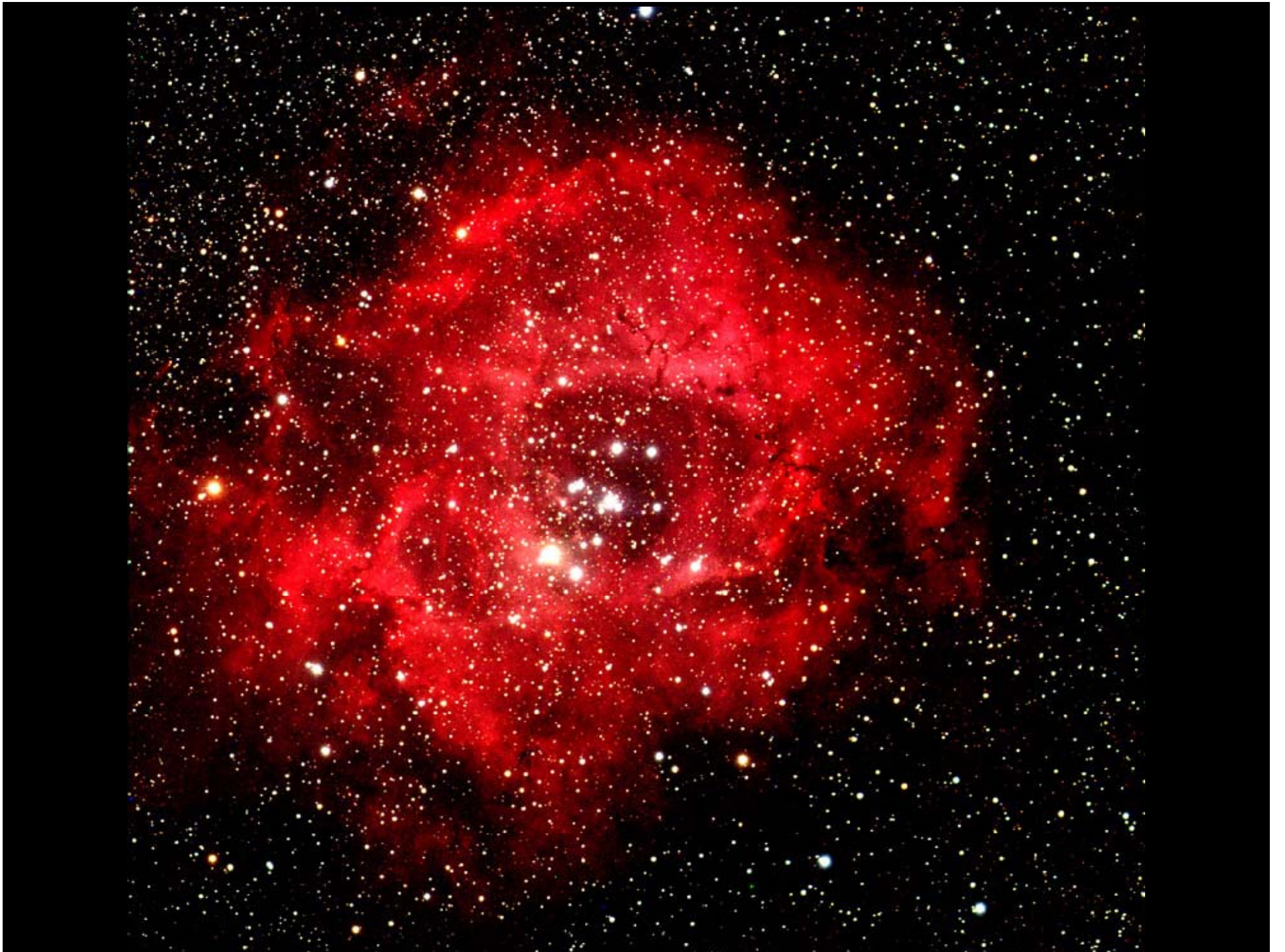
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## (ii) Fluorescence

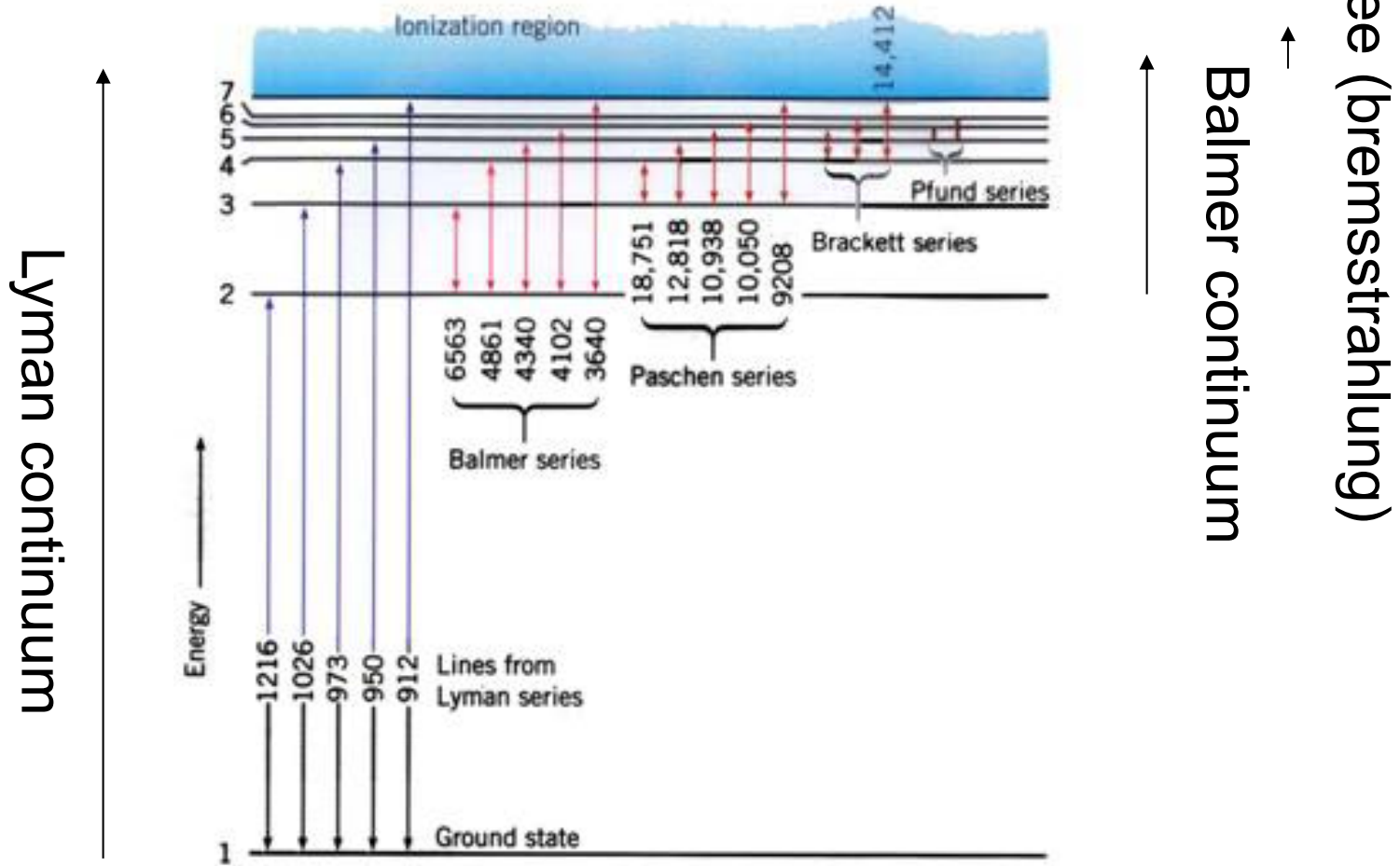
For example, He II  $\lambda 30.38 \text{ nm}$  line photon absorbed by O III  $\rightarrow$  Emission of a number of O III lines

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## (iii) Forbidden lines

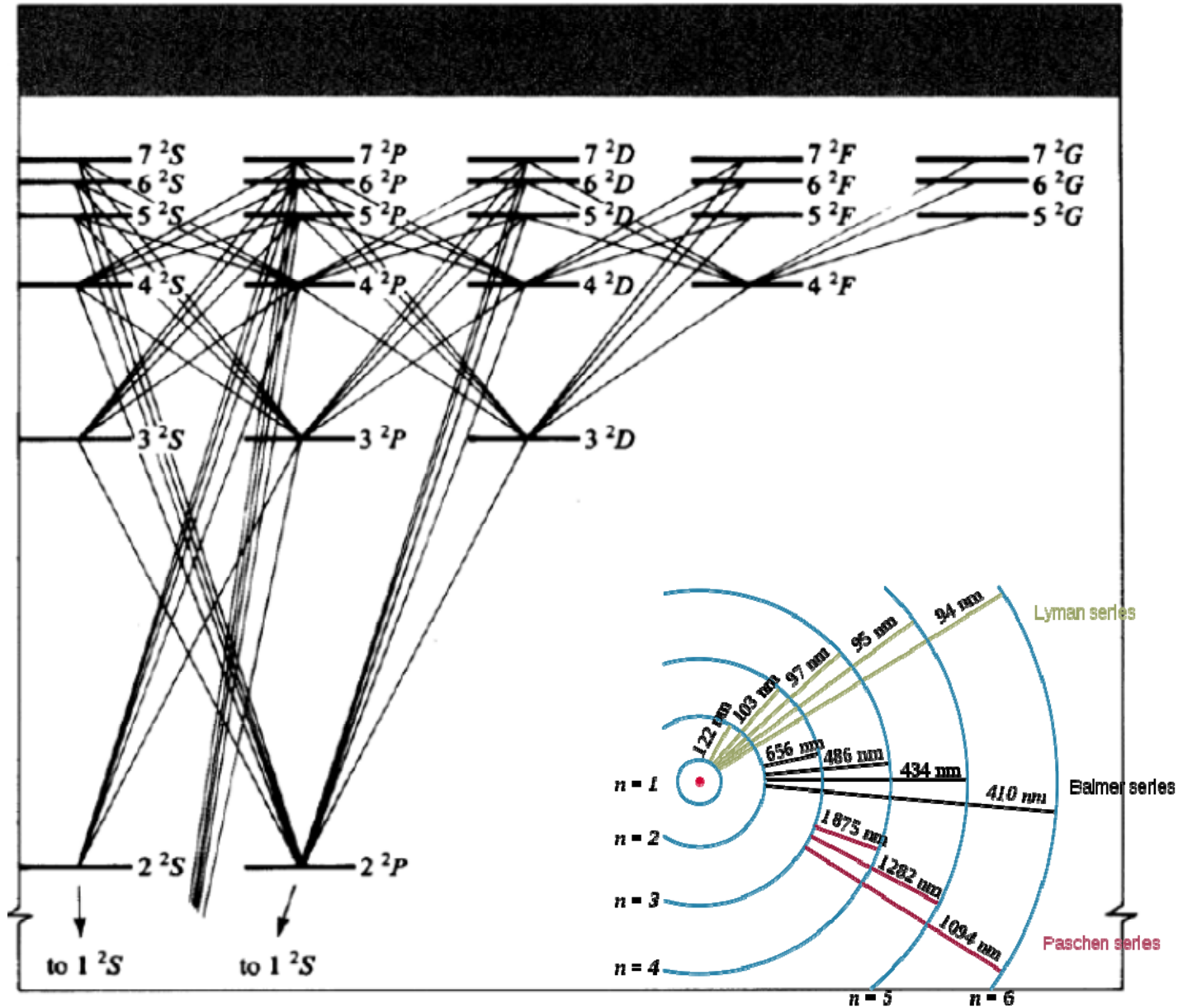


# Photoionization



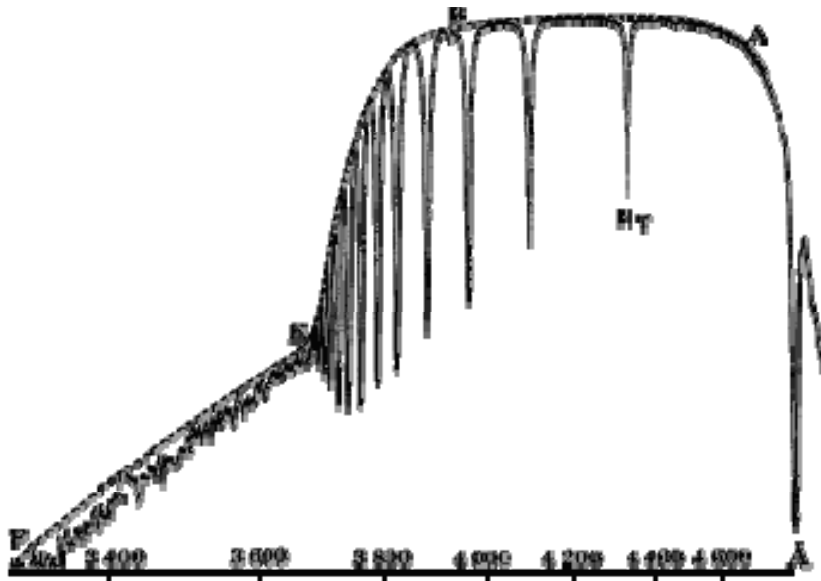
<http://owcc-r-06.owcc.net/science/russo/FALL02/AST1002/Chapter%204.htm>

# Hydrogen spectrum --- permitted transitions



## Wavelengths of important H Lines

- Ly $\alpha$ :  $\lambda_{vac} = 1215.68 \text{ \AA}$  (space UV)
  - H $\alpha$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 6562.73 \text{ \AA}$  (red) 3-2
  - H $\beta$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 4861.33 \text{ \AA}$  (blue) 4-2
  - H $\gamma$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 4340.47 \text{ \AA}$  (blue) 5-2
  - H $\delta$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 4101.47 \text{ \AA}$  (violet) 6-2
  - Pa $\alpha$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 1.875 \text{ \mu m}$  (poor transmission)
  - Br $\alpha$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 4.051 \text{ \mu m}$  (difficult)
  - Br $\gamma$ :  $\lambda_{air} = 2.166 \text{ \mu m}$  (in infrared K band)
- } Balmer lines

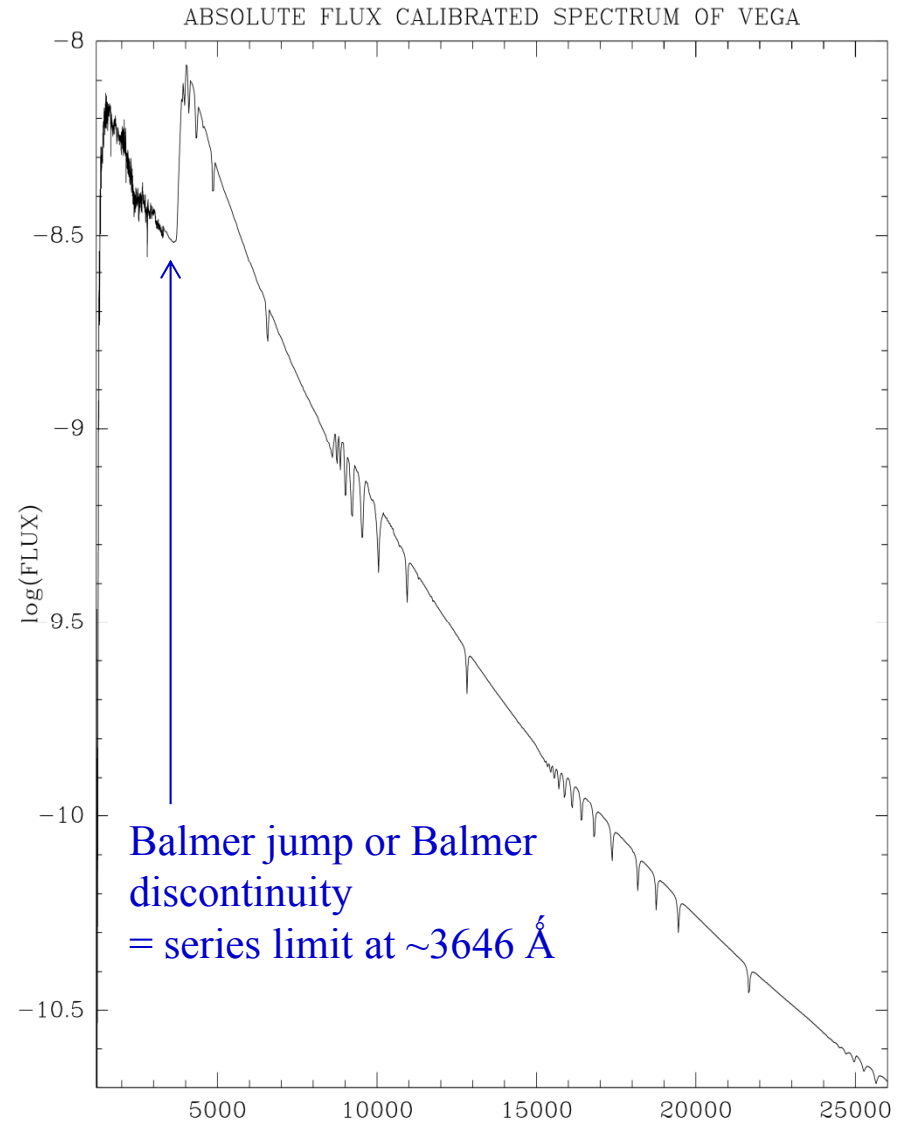


*the spectra of the hot star alpha Lyra (Vega),  
observed by Barbier and Chalonge (1939)*

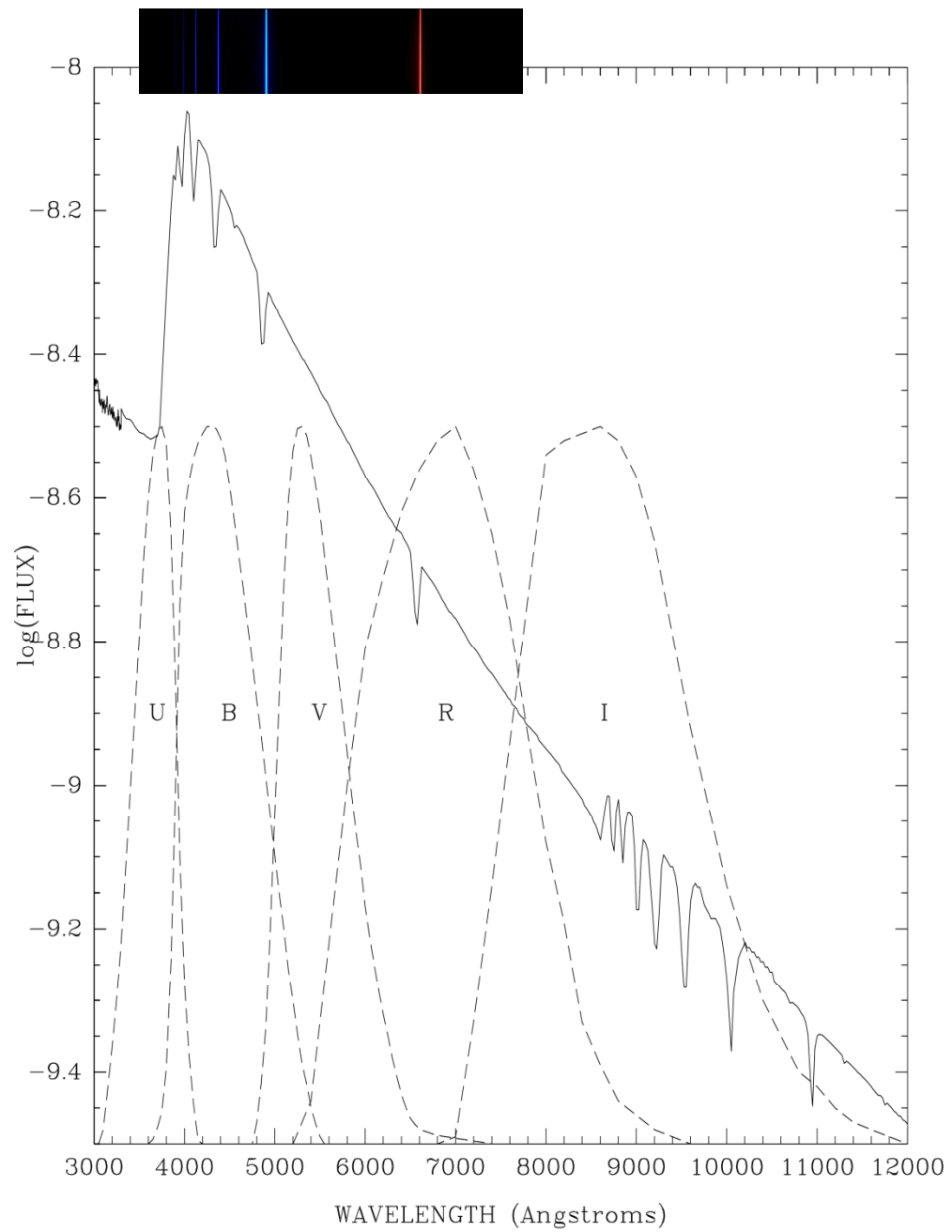
Instrument Science Report CAL/SCS-008

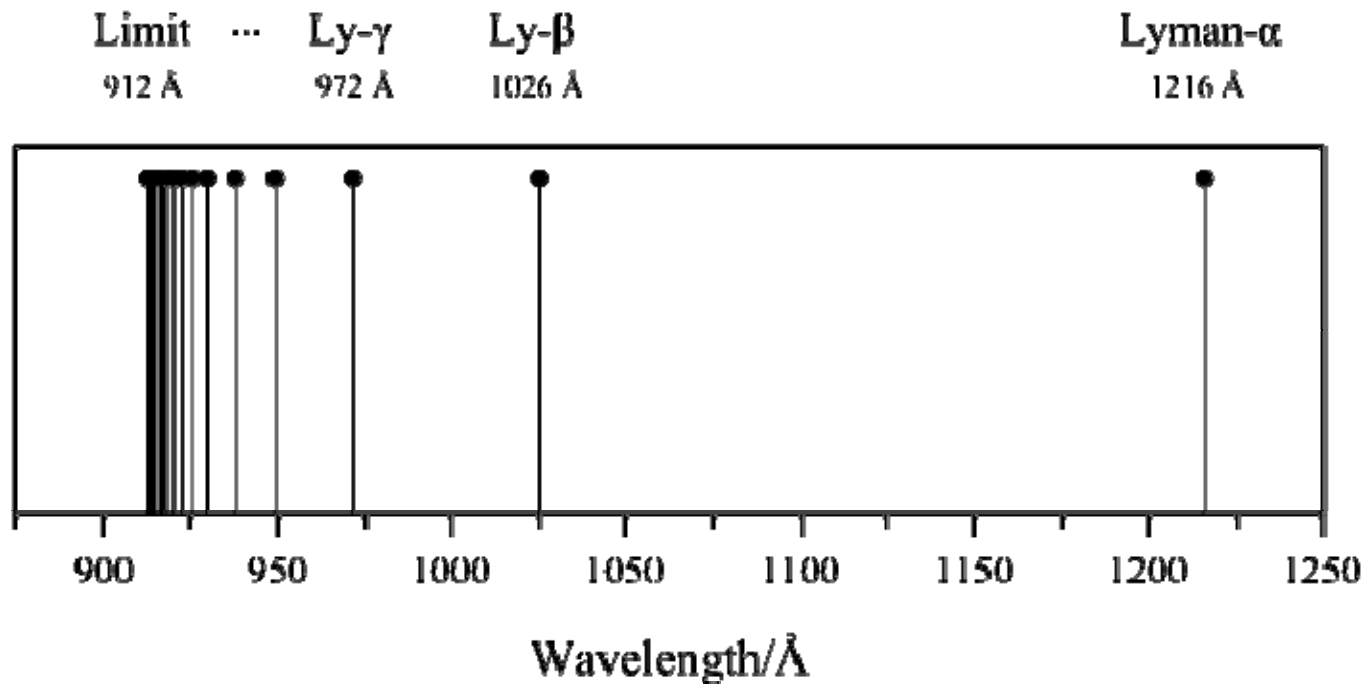
## Absolute Flux Calibrated Spectrum of Vega

L. Colina, R. Bohlin, F. Castelli  
April 22, 1996



WAVELENGTH (Angstroms)





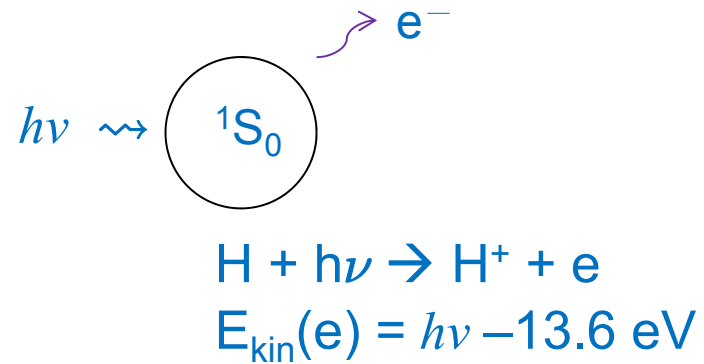
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:LymanSeries.svg>

The transition probability between an upper level and a lower level is characterized by the Einstein A and B coefficients

- Absorption ( $0 \rightarrow 1$ )
  - $B_{01}$  or oscillator strength  $f_{10}$
- Emission ( $1 \rightarrow 0$ )
  - $A_{10}$

$$E_{\text{H,ion}} = 13.6 \text{ eV} \quad (\lambda = 912\text{\AA})$$

Probability of **photoionization**  
 → photoionization cross section



For hydrogen-like atoms, the cross section is

$$\sigma_{\nu}^{\text{ion}} = \frac{7.9 \times 10^{18}}{Z^2} \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu}\right)^3 g_{1f} [\text{cm}^2], \quad \text{for } \nu > \nu_1$$

where  $g_{1f}$  is Gaunt factor  $\approx 1$  at optical wavelengths,

$$h\nu_1 = Z^2 h\nu_0 = 13.6 Z^2 \text{ eV}$$

**Gaunt factor** (or Kramers-Gaunt factor) = correction when using classical physics for continuous absorption or emission .... differs from 1.0 if QM becomes important.

For hydrogen,  $\nu_1 = 3.29 \times 10^{15}$  Hz,  $g_{1f} \approx 0.8$ , and a good approximation,

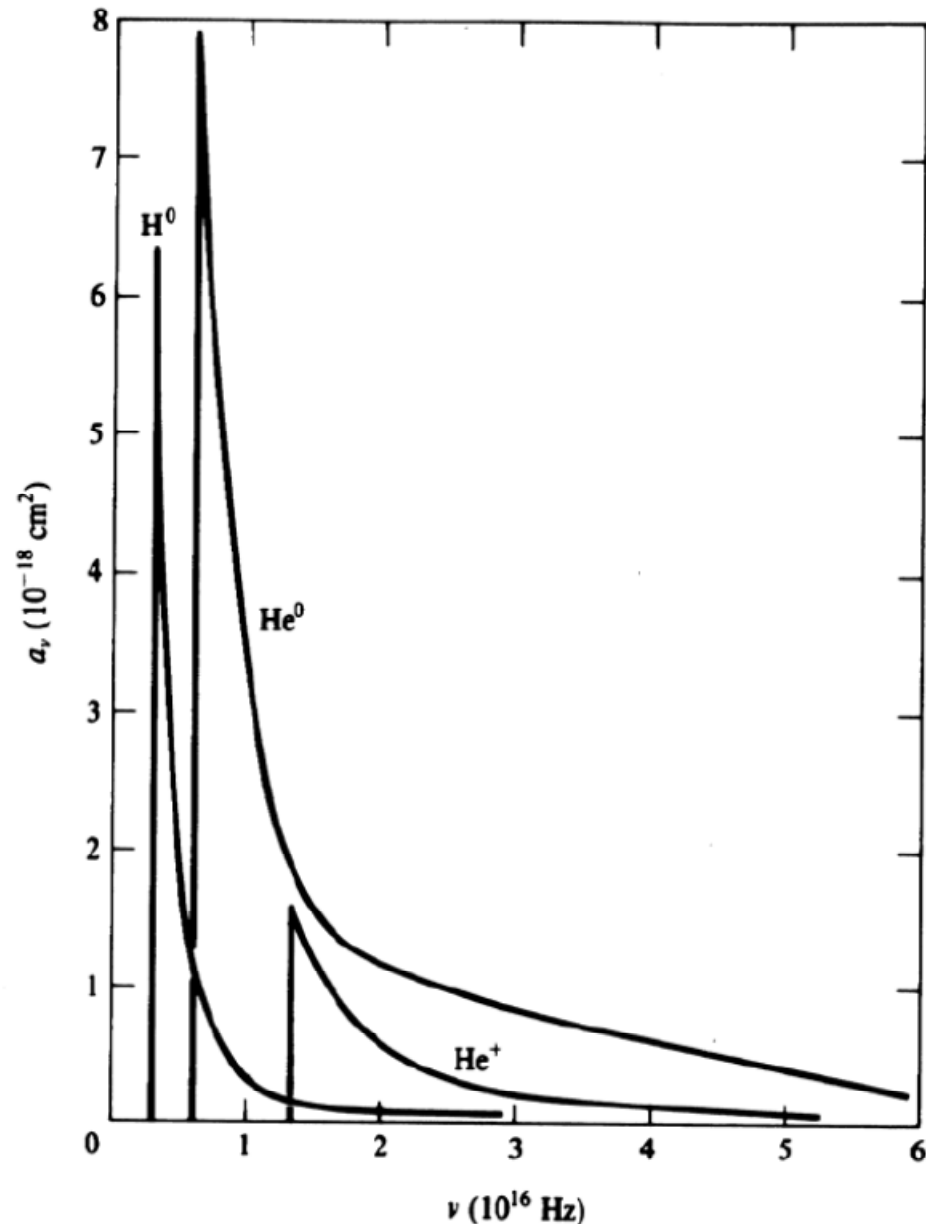
$$\sigma_{\text{ion}}(\nu) \approx 6.3 \times 10^{-18} \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu}\right)^3 [\text{cm}^2]$$

That is, high-energy photons, with much smaller photoionization absorption cross sections, penetrate deeper into neutral gas before being absorbed.

[# of ionization]  $\text{s}^{-1} \text{atom}^{-1}$  due to photons in  $\nu$  to  $\nu + d\nu$

$$= \sigma_\nu \frac{4\pi \bar{I}_\nu d\nu}{h\nu}$$

# Photoionization Cross Sections for H, He and He<sup>+</sup>



Define the coefficient  $\alpha$ , so that

$$\alpha n_e n_p = [\# \text{ of recombinations}] \text{ s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$$

$$\alpha = \langle v \sigma_{\text{recomb}} \rangle \quad \alpha(n, L) = \int v \sigma_{nK} f(\vec{v}) d^3 \vec{v}$$

But recombination may end up at different levels

$$\alpha^{(n)} = \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} \alpha_m$$

$\alpha^{(1)}$ : total recombination coefficient summed over all levels

$\alpha^{(2)}$ ” total recombination coefficient excluding captures to  $n = 1$  level

as can be computed exactly for hydrogen.

$$\alpha^{(1)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n = 6.82 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \text{ (at 5000 K)}$$

$$\alpha^{(2)} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \alpha_n = 4.54 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \text{ (at 5000 K)}$$

Spitzer gives  $\alpha^{(2)} = 2.59 \times 10^{-3} T_4^{-0.81}$

TABLE 2.1  
*Recombination coefficients<sup>a</sup>  $\alpha_n \ ^2L$  for H*

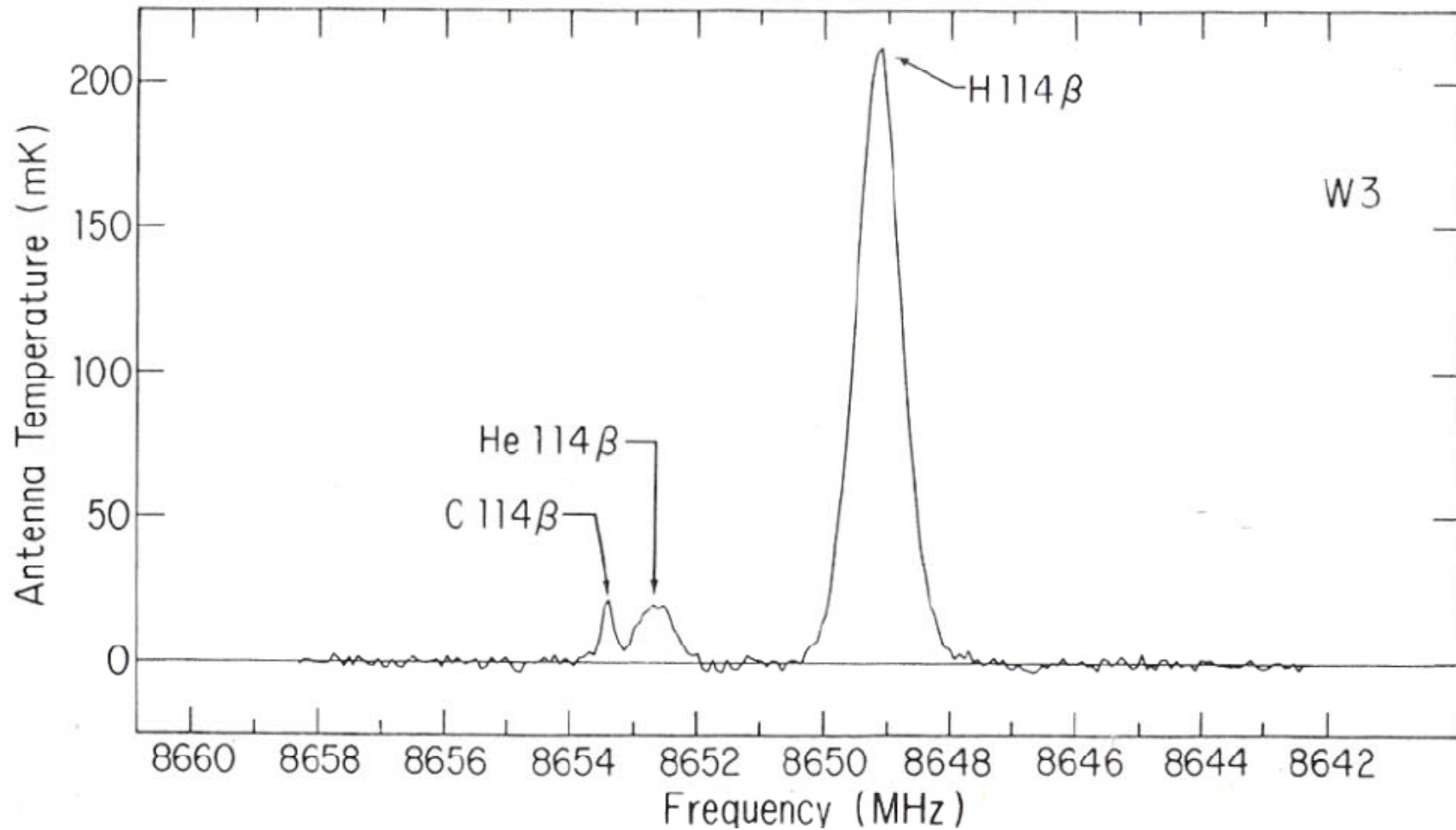
$\alpha_n \ ^2L$	<i>T</i>		
	5000° K	10,000° K	20,000° K
$\alpha_1 \ ^2S$	$2.28 \times 10^{-13}$	$1.58 \times 10^{-13}$	$1.08 \times 10^{-13}$
$\alpha_2 \ ^2S$	$3.37 \times 10^{-14}$	$2.34 \times 10^{-14}$	$1.60 \times 10^{-14}$
$\alpha_2 \ ^2P$	$8.33 \times 10^{-14}$	$5.35 \times 10^{-14}$	$3.24 \times 10^{-14}$
$\alpha_3 \ ^2S$	$1.13 \times 10^{-14}$	$7.81 \times 10^{-15}$	$5.29 \times 10^{-15}$
$\alpha_3 \ ^2P$	$3.17 \times 10^{-14}$	$2.04 \times 10^{-14}$	$1.23 \times 10^{-14}$
$\alpha_3 \ ^2D$	$3.03 \times 10^{-14}$	$1.73 \times 10^{-14}$	$9.09 \times 10^{-15}$
$\alpha_4 \ ^2S$	$5.23 \times 10^{-15}$	$3.59 \times 10^{-15}$	$2.40 \times 10^{-15}$
$\alpha_4 \ ^2P$	$1.51 \times 10^{-14}$	$9.66 \times 10^{-15}$	$5.81 \times 10^{-15}$
$\alpha_4 \ ^2D$	$1.90 \times 10^{-14}$	$1.08 \times 10^{-14}$	$5.68 \times 10^{-15}$
$\alpha_4 \ ^2F$	$1.09 \times 10^{-14}$	$5.54 \times 10^{-15}$	$2.56 \times 10^{-15}$
$\alpha_{10} \ ^2S$	$4.33 \times 10^{-16}$	$2.84 \times 10^{-16}$	$1.80 \times 10^{-16}$
$\alpha_{10} \ ^2G$	$2.02 \times 10^{-15}$	$9.28 \times 10^{-16}$	$3.91 \times 10^{-16}$
$\alpha_{10} \ ^2M$	$2.7 \times 10^{-17}$	$1.0 \times 10^{-17}$	$4. \times 10^{-18}$
$\alpha_A$	$6.82 \times 10^{-13}$	$4.18 \times 10^{-13}$	$2.51 \times 10^{-13}$
$\alpha_B$	$4.54 \times 10^{-13}$	$2.59 \times 10^{-13}$	$2.52 \times 10^{-13}$

<sup>a</sup> In  $\text{cm}^3 \text{sec}^{-1}$ .

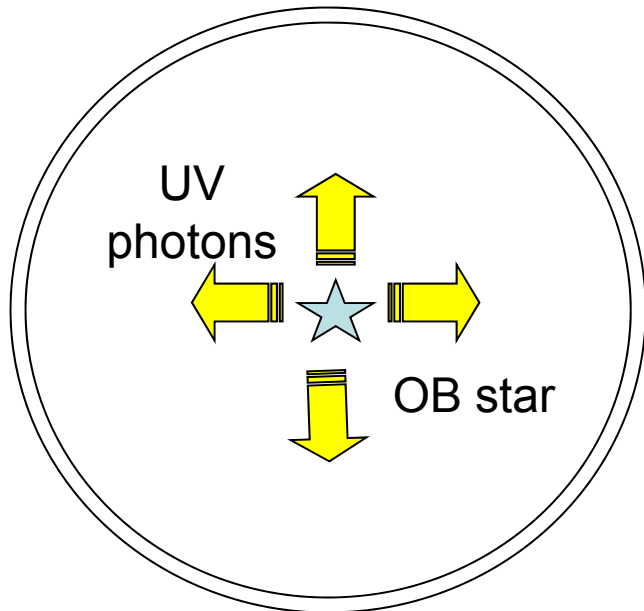
Recombination  $\rightarrow$  photons

Some of the photons can ionize or excite other species

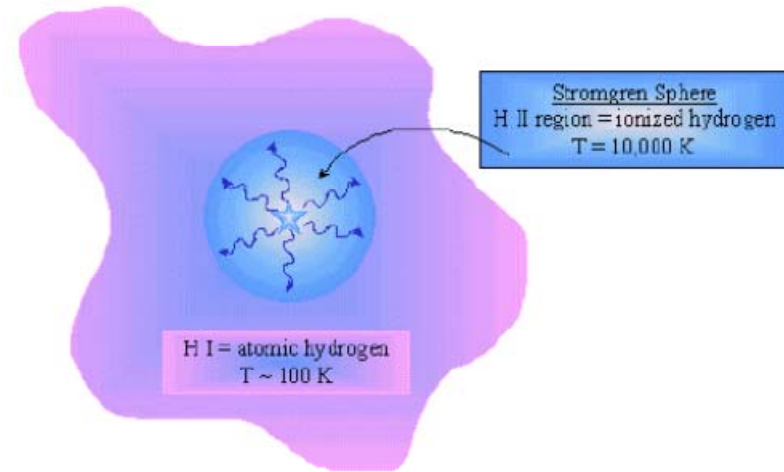
H 114  $\beta$ :  $n=116 \rightarrow 114$



# Application: H II regions



Once ionized, e recombines with p, emitting Balmer, Paschen, Pfund lines and continua

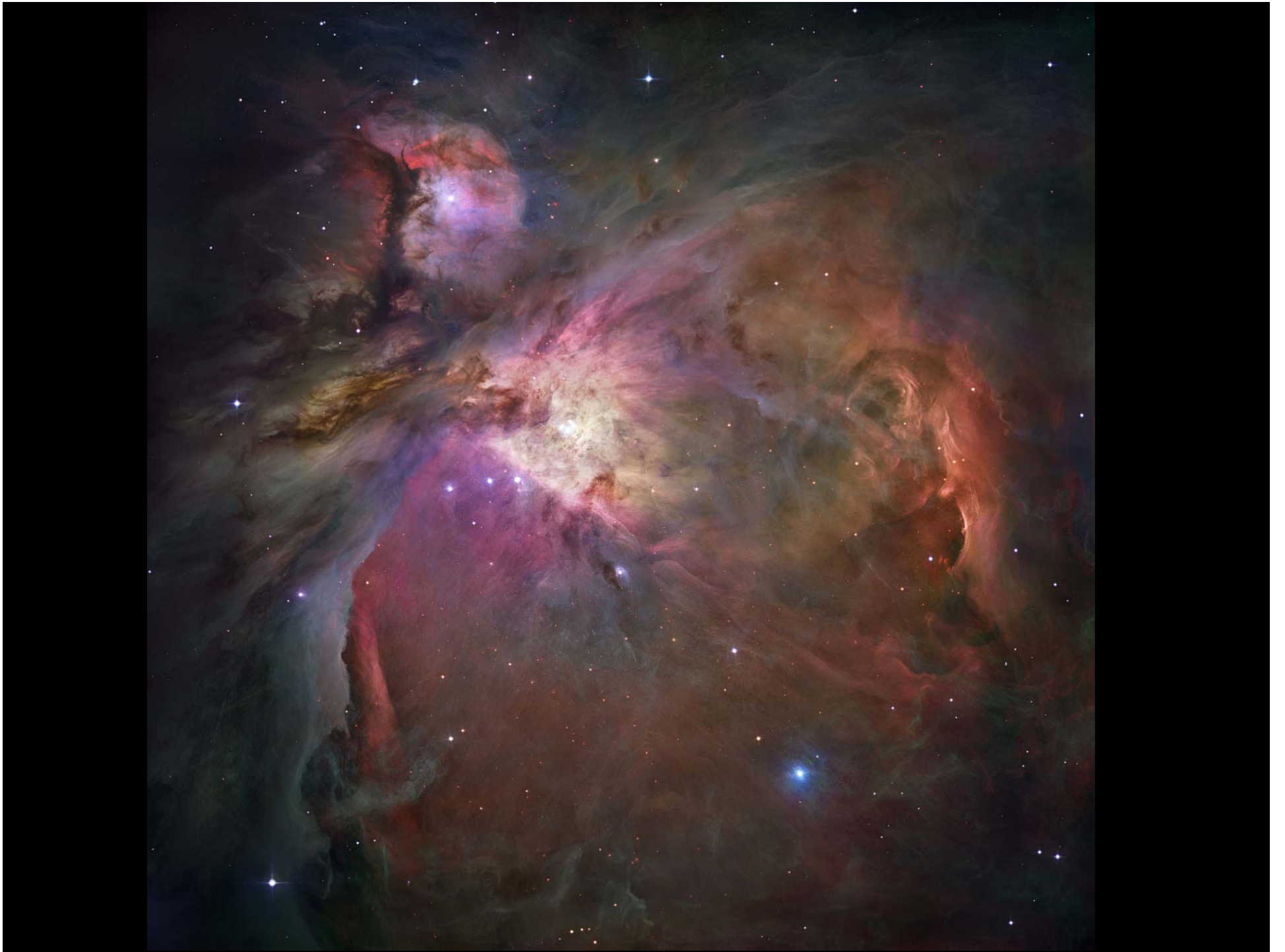


Radiation  $\lambda < 912\text{\AA}$   $\rightarrow$  ionization from gr state

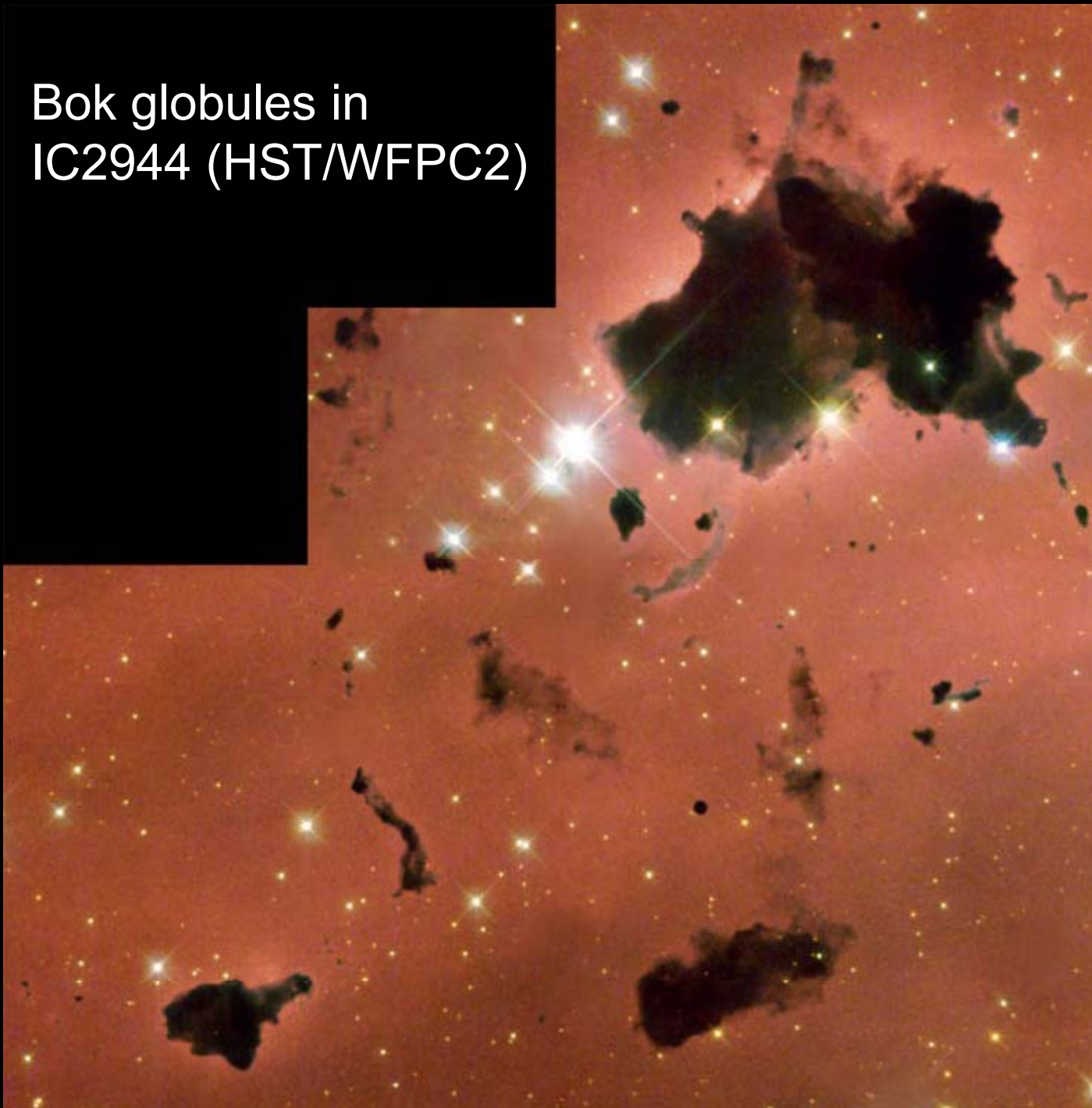
If e already in an excited state, a longer  $\lambda$  will do

Collisional ionization negligible in HII regions

$\rightarrow$  e cascading  $\rightarrow$  H $\alpha$



Bok globules in  
IC2944 (HST/WFPC2)



# Strömgren Sphere

Strömgren (1939) ApJ, 89, 526

McCullough (2000) PASP, 112, 1542

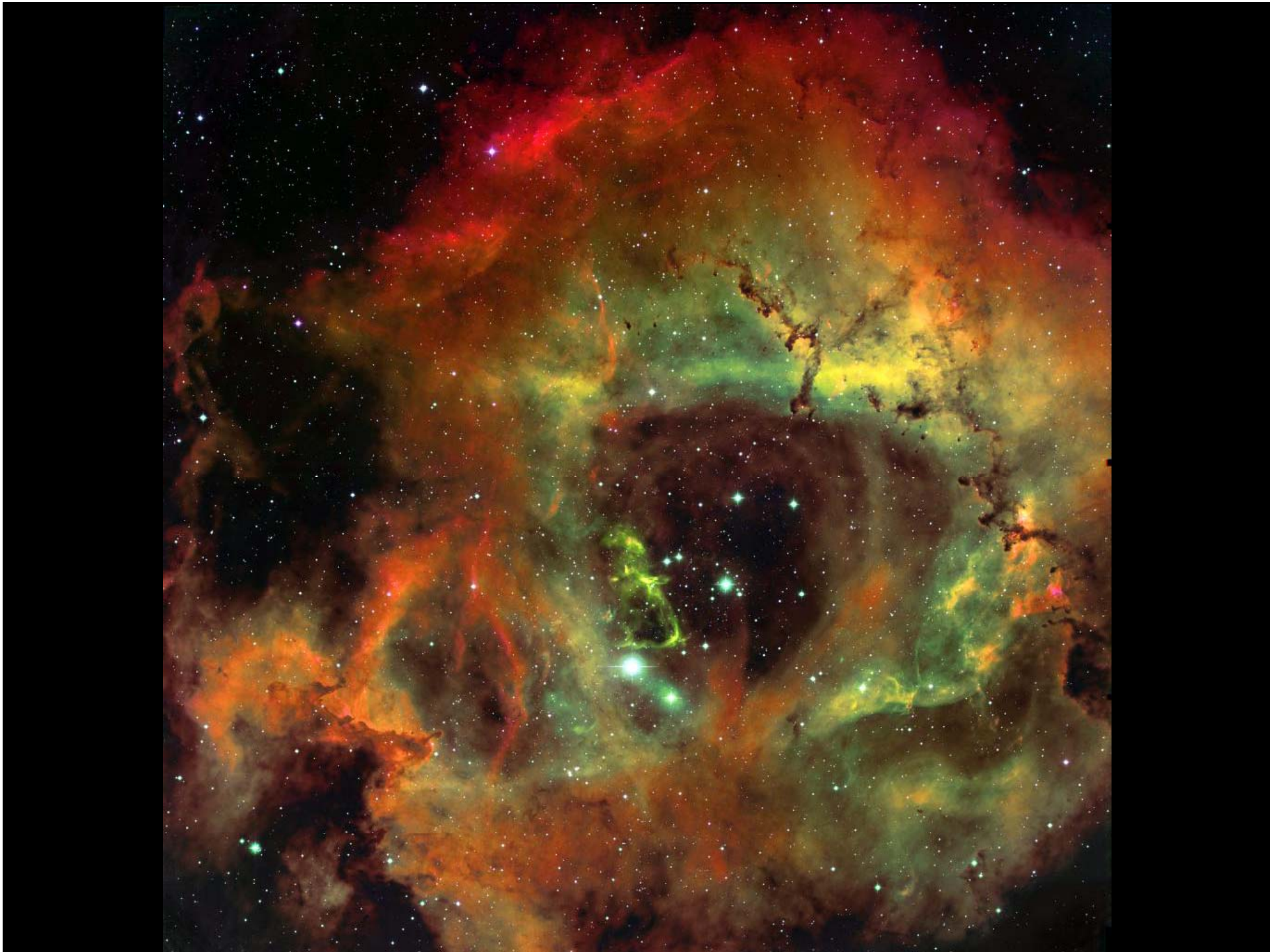
The Strömgren radius,  $R_s$ , within which  
total # of recombinations to levels except the gr. state  
= total # of ionizing photons from the luminous star

Total recombinations:  $\alpha^{(2)} n_e n_p (4\pi R_s^3 / 3)$

Total stellar ionizing photons  $\nu > \nu_0$ :  $\int_{\nu_0}^{\infty} (L_\nu / h\nu) d\nu$

$L_\nu$ : stellar luminosity at  $\nu$  [ergs s<sup>-1</sup> Hz<sup>-1</sup>]

$$4\pi R_*^2 \int_{\lambda=912}^{\infty} \frac{\pi B_\nu(R_*)}{h\nu} d\nu = \alpha^{(2)} n_e n_p (4\pi R_s^3 / 3)$$



Within  $R_s$ , ionization is complete,  $n_e \approx n_p \approx n_H$

Outside  $R_s$ ,  $n_e \approx n_p \approx 0$

Designate the LHS (# of Lyman photons) as  $L_{912}^*$ , we get

$$L_{912}^* = 4\pi R_s^3 \alpha^{(2)} n_H^2 / 3$$

$$R_s = \left( \frac{3L_{912}^*}{4\pi\alpha^{(2)}n_H^2} \right)^{1/3}$$

**Strömgren radius**

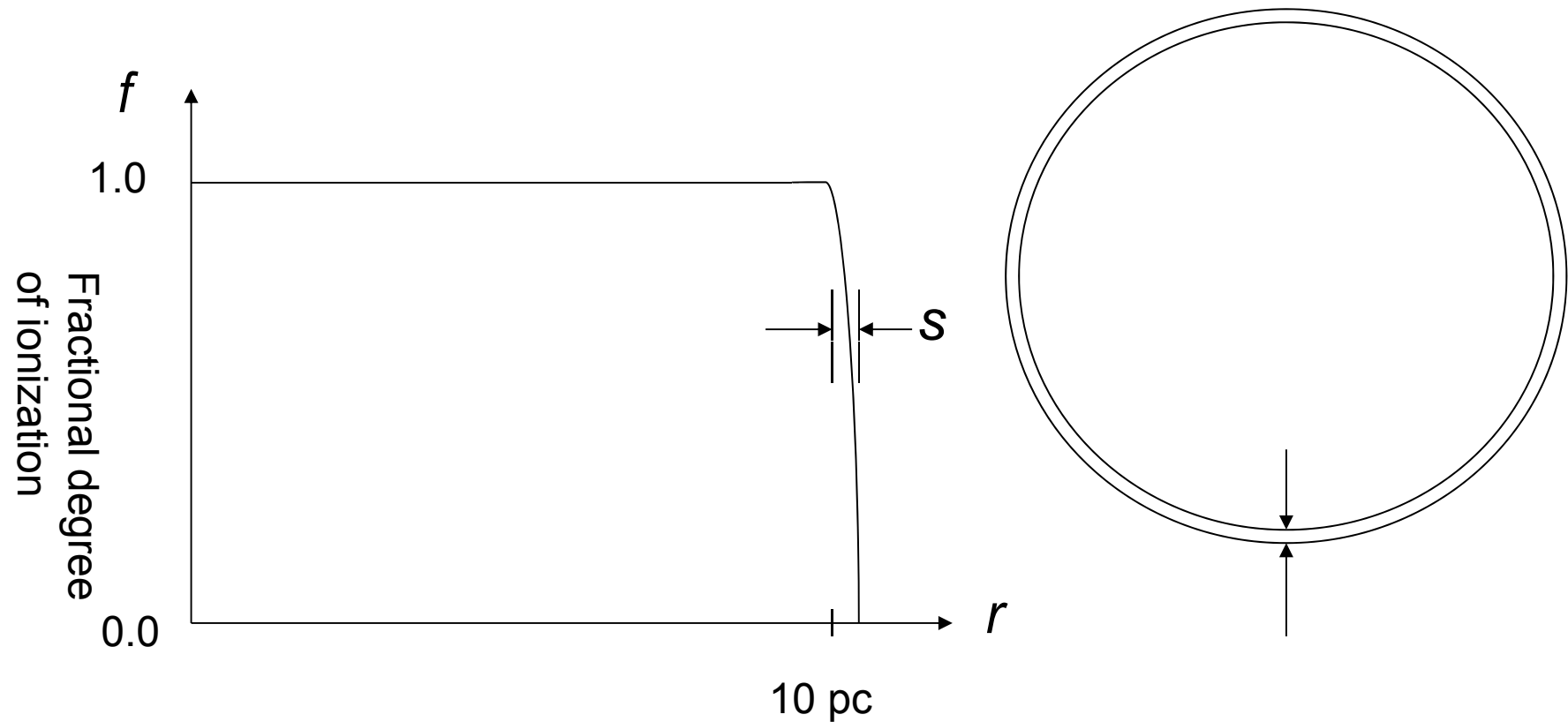
$$L_{912}^* \approx 5 \times 10^{42} \exp(3.2 \times 10^{-4} T_*)$$

$$R_s \approx 0.62 n_H^{-2/3} \exp(1.07 \times 10^{-4} T_*) \text{ pc}$$

Strömgren sphere = H II region = ionization cavity

Take  $T_* = 40,000$  K (i.e., O6 V),  $n_H = 10$ ,  $R_s \approx 1$  pc,  
then  $R_s \approx 10$  pc

How thick is the transition zone ( $s$ )?



In the transition zone,  $\tau = \sigma_{\nu}^{\text{ion}} n_H s \approx 1$

$$s = \frac{1}{\sigma_{\nu} n_H}$$

Given  $\sigma_{\nu_{912}} = 6.3 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2$ ,  $n_H = 10 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  
 $s \approx 0.005 \text{ pc} \ll 10 \text{ pc}$

The boundary of an H II region is very sharp!

Spectral Type	$T_*$ [K]	$R_s (n_e n_p)^{1/3}$ [pc cm <sup>-2</sup> ]
O5	47,000	110
O9	34,500	38
B1	22,600	4.4

Note: The above assumes no dust absorption;  
 otherwise  $R_s \downarrow$  cf. <http://tesla.phys.unm.edu/phy537/>

$A_v$ (mag)	0.1	0.5	1.0	2.0	5.0	10.0
$R'_s/R_s$	0.91	0.70	0.56	0.42	0.25	0.15

- Helium can also be ionized,  $\lambda < 506$  and  $< 208 \text{ \AA}$
- Stars very hot,  $T^* > 10^5 \text{ K}$
- Ionization Application  
 If all  $\lambda < 912 \text{ \AA}$  photons absorbed by H atoms in the nebula  
 Each UV photon  
     → 1 Ly photon (absorbed and re-emitted)  
     + 1 Balmer photon (escaped readily)
- So, # of Balmer photons = # of  $\lambda < 912 \text{ \AA}$  photons  
     → all energy radiated by the star  
     →  $T_*$  is inferred --- **Zanstra Method**

# Evolution of an H II region

- An H II region is formed around a very hot star.
- Original H I,  $T \sim 100$  K; now H II,  $T \uparrow \uparrow (\sim 10^4$  K), ionization produces free electrons, so  $n \uparrow$ , hence pressure  $\uparrow \uparrow \rightarrow$  H II region expands,  $v \sim$  sound speed of the hot gas  $\sim 10$  km/s
- Sound speed in H I  $\sim 1$  km/s, the H II expansion is highly supersonic  $\rightarrow$  a shock front
- H II continues to expand ( $n \downarrow$ ) until pressure equilibrium with the H I region. This takes  $10^7$  to  $10^8$  years. But an early O star has a main-sequence lifetime of  $10^6$  years  
 $\rightarrow$  all H II regions are expanding!

Strings of red H II “knots” delineate the arms of the Whirlpool Galaxy = sites of recent star formation



- If there is plenty of dust, the radiation pressure would push the grains outwards → changes the density structure → an expanding dust front (and drag the gas along); the dust shell is optically thick in the optical so the central star and developing H II region = an IR source embedded in an H I region.
- Dust also absorbs some stellar Lyman photons → ionization rate ↓, and Strömgren radius ↓
- For really hot stars, O6.1 V and earlier, O5.3 III and earlier, or O4 I and earlier, He is also ionized inside the Strömgren sphere.

$$E_{\text{He, ion}} = 24.6 \text{ eV}$$

- H II regions have moving charges → electric field and magnetic field
- Each H II region may contain many OB stars.
- Young H II regions = compact H II regions  
Newly formed H II regions = ultra-compact H II (UCHII) regions ( $D < 0.3$  pc); hyper-compact H II regions → study of massive star formation
- H II regions are bright (seen at large distances) and the sizes of the largest H II regions in galaxies should be roughly the same → distance yardstick for distant galaxies