Grain Evolution

Formation of Grains

Atoms → diatomic molecules (e.g., CH, CO, CN)

- → 10-20 atoms as condensation nuclei
- → growth by accretion

In HI clouds, $n_H \sim 10-100 \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow \text{molecules form too slow}$

Grains likely formed in (1) atmospheres of cool stars and (2) dark molecular clouds

IR observations detected grains in both.

Generally, depletion of elements → grain formation

Those with higher condensation temperatures condense first, so condense/deplete more

With condensation nuclei (small, refractory particles), volatile materials such as CO₂, CH ₄, NH₃, H₂O condense as mantles

Dark clouds show grain size (> 1 μ m) larger than typical ISM < 0.2-0.5 μ m

Surface of molecules and simple organic compounds

Mantle: size about 0.5 micron; made of silicates, iron, and/or carbon

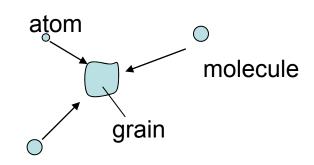
Mantle: size about 0.5 micron; made of ices of CO2, H2O, HN3, CH4

C, N, O depletion consistent with this, i.e., they are locked into ices on the grains

ISM grain (nuclei, mantles) → grain growth → planetesimals

Grain Growth Rate

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = (\frac{1}{4}n\bar{v})(m_H\,A)\,\xi\,(4\pi a^2)$$
 Sticking coefficient (probability) $\xi\lesssim 1$



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$$\xi \lesssim 1$$

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \rho_s 4\pi a^2 \frac{da}{dt}$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = \frac{(1/4)n\bar{v}m_H A \xi}{\rho_s}$$

$$= \frac{v\rho_H}{4\rho_s} A \xi$$

$$= \frac{10^5 1.6 \times 10^{-24}}{4 \cdot 1} A \xi$$

$$= 4 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm s}^{-1} A \xi$$

$$= 15 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm yr}^{-1} A \xi$$

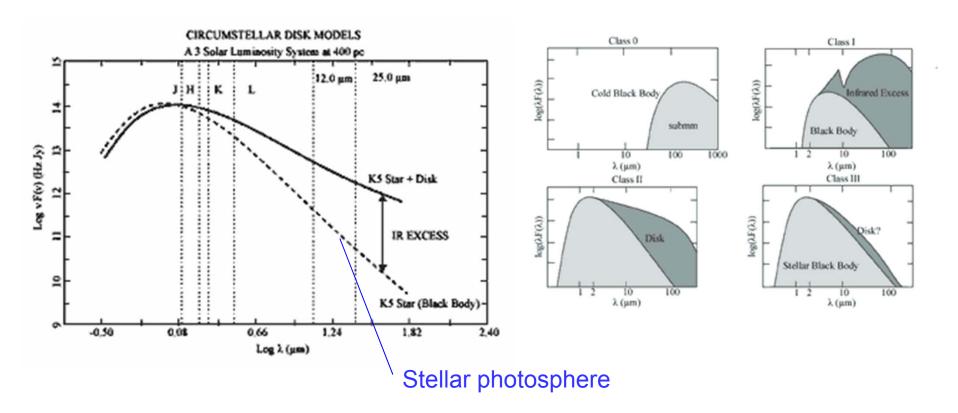
$$t = \frac{a}{da/dt} \sim \frac{10^{-5}}{1.5 \times 10^{-12} A \xi} \sim \frac{10^7}{1.5 A \xi}$$

Take A = 1, $\xi = 1$, then $t = 10^7 - 10^9$ yr to grow to $0.1 \mu \text{m}$.

In a much denser environment, e.g., dark clouds, or the envelope of a cool star, the time scale is considerably shorter.

The initial nucleation is extremely slow; general diffuse ISM cannot do it → Need high densities (1) star-forming regions (2) cool stellar atmospheres, (3) (super)novae or PNe: expanding gas shells

We indeed see evidence of dust in all these objects.



IR excess: reradiation of stellar radiation by heated circumstellar dust

A distribution of $T_{dust} \rightarrow$ superposition of bb spectra

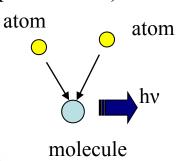
Destroy of Grains

- 1) Evaporation CH₄: 20 K; NH₃: 60 K; H₂O: 100 K
- 2) Sputtering
 Maybe important in diffuse clouds;
 grains better shielded in dense clouds
- 3) Grain-grain collision
 kinetic energy (a few km/s) → dust heated and evaporated; important in shocked media; may not be important in ISM otherwise
- 4) Heating

Formation of Molecules

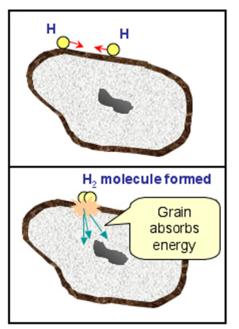
Grains catalyzes the reactions between atoms which otherwise do not meet together (Gould & Salpeter 1963;

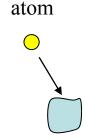
Hollenbach & Salpeter 1971).



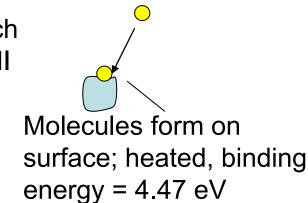
Two-body collision unlikely in ISM

Cannot form H₂ (no dipole)





Sticking, need ~ 1 keV to expel, which > general E_{kin} in HI clouds



another atom

Take H₂ as an example (Ref: Hollenbach & Salpeter, 1971, ApJ, 163, 155)

Fraction of H atoms that stick: s

..... move across and find another H: ξ

..... react: ζ

..... come off the grains: η

Overall, rate γ : fraction that hit and then make an H_2

$$\gamma = s \xi \zeta \eta$$

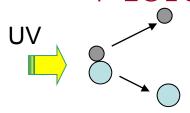
In the lab, $s \sim 1/3$, and for H, ξ , ζ , η all ~ 1

[# of H₂ formed s⁻¹ cm⁻³] = R
$$n_H n_H$$

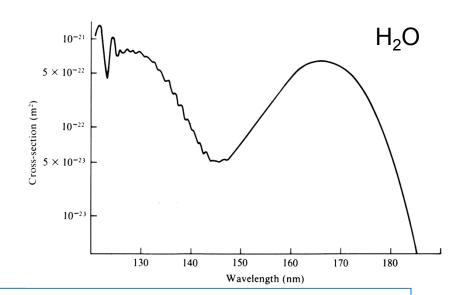
= $(1/2) \gamma n_H n_d v \pi a^2$
where R [cm³ s⁻¹] $\frac{2 \text{ atoms}}{n_d \frac{4}{3} \pi a^3 \rho_s = \rho_d = \frac{\rho_{gas}}{100} = \frac{10 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-24}}{100}$
R = $(1/2) \gamma n_d / n_H v \pi a^2$
= $(1/2) 1/3 (4 \times 10^{-12})/10 (10^5) \pi (2 \times 10^{-5})^2$
= $10^{-17} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$
Time scale for H₂ formation is (R n_H)⁻¹ = $10^{17}/n_H$ [s]
= $3 \times 10^9/n_H$ [yr]
e.g., for n_H = 100 cm^{-3} , then (R n_H)⁻¹ ~ $3 \times 10^7 \text{ yr}$

Ref: Kaplan & Pikelner

Dissociation of Molecules



$$\sigma_{dis} \sim 10^{-20} - 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2$$



General ISM stellar radiation is equivalent to 10,000 K diluted by $W \sim 10^{-14}$

$$I = W \sigma_B T^4$$
of photons s⁻¹ cm⁻² = $\frac{I}{h\nu} = \frac{W \sigma_B T^4}{h\nu}$

of dissociation s⁻¹ =
$$\frac{W \sigma_B T^4}{h\nu} \sigma_{dis} \approx (1/3) \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

 $\tau_{dissociation} \sim 3 \times 10^9 \text{ s} \sim 100 \text{ yrs}$

So it takes some 10^7 years to form an H_2 molecule, but it get destroyed in 100 years.

→ need shielding!

- Photodissociation is the main process to destroy IS H₂.
- Usually stronger lines have stronger self-shielding.

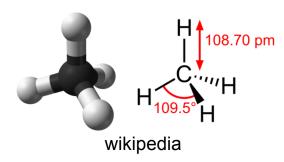
Interstellar Molecules

- All from abundant elements (H, C, N, O, S, Si)
 + simple molecules (H₂CO, CH, OH radicals)
- There are diatomic, triatomic, and more complicated polyatomic molecules, such as ammonia NH₃, water H₂O, hydrogen cyanide HCN, methanal (甲醛) H₂CO, oxomethylium ion HCO⁺, alcohol CH₃OH
- Diatomic molecules with identical nuclei, e.g., H₂, N₂, O₂, are called homonuclear, as oppose to heteronuclear molecules, such as HD, OH, and CO.

- Molecules also have term symbols, but they are complicated because of the projection of, e.g., the angular momentum onto the internuclear axis.
- The ground term of H_2 is ${}^1\Sigma_g^+$; it has zero electronic orbital angular momentum, has zero electron spin, is symmetric under reflection through the center of mass (g), and is symmetric under reflection through planes containing the nuclei (+). If the protons have spin $0 \rightarrow \text{para-H}_2$; if two protons are parallel, with total spin $1 \rightarrow \text{ortho-H}_2$.

Rotational Transitions

- Rotational spectra arise from transitions between rotational energy states.
- Only molecules with electric dipole moments can absorb or emit photons in such transitions. Nonpolar diatomic molecules, e.g., H₂, and symmetric polyatomic molecules, e.g., CO₂ (O=C=O) or CH₄, do not exhibit rotational spectra, unless they are collisionally excited (molecules "distorted").
- Even in molecules with permanent dipole moment, selection rules apply for rotational transitions.
- In practice, rotational spectra are always seen in absorption, so
 J → a higher J



- H₂ has no permanent electric dipole moment, and the vibrational states and the rotational states radiates very weakly, via the timevariation of the electric quadrupole moment as the molecule vibrates or rotates.
- Often one uses, e.g., CO, as the tracer of molecular species. This is valid if collisional equilibrium is established.

Rotational Energy E_J

$$E_J = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2 = \frac{L^2}{2I} = \frac{J(J+1)\hbar^2}{2I}$$
$$\nu_{J\to J+1} = \frac{\hbar}{2\pi I}(J+1)$$

i.e., equally spaced lines.

Vibrational Transitions

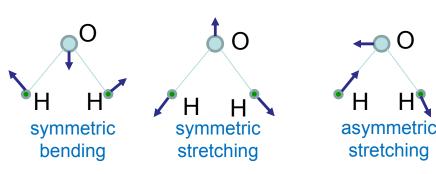
 A molecule does not just rotate, it may vibrate when sufficiently excited → a harmonic oscillator

Vibrational Energy E_v

$$E_v = (v + 1/2) \, \hbar \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

where v is the vibrational quantum number, k is the vibrational force constant, and μ is the reduced mass.

- Selection rule: Δv=+/- 1
- A variety of modes...



Types of Molecular Clouds

Туре	Av (mag)	Examples
Diffuse Molecular Cloud	< 1	Rho Oph
Translucent Cloud	1 to 5	HD 24534 cloud
Dark Cloud	5 to 20	B 335
Infrared Dark Cloud	20 to > 100	IRDC G028.53- 00.25