



Astrochemistry I. Basic processes

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What is astrochemistry? (or molecular astrophysics)

- 'Formation, destruction and excitation of molecules in astronomical environments and their influence on the structure, dynamics and evolution of astronomical objects'
- 'Blending of astronomy and chemistry in which each area enriches the other in a *mutually stimulating* interaction'
- 'Astrophysics is almost entirely applied atomic, molecular and optical physics'

Dalgarno 2008, ARA&A

1.1 Introduction

Molecules are found throughout the universe

- Molecular clouds, evolved stars, planetary nebulae, protoplanetary disks, stellar and (exo-) planetary atmospheres, solar photosphere, comets, galaxies (nearby to high z),
- Some typical conditions
 - Diffuse clouds: $T_{kin} \sim 100$ K, $n \sim 100$ cm⁻³
 - Dense clouds: $T_{kin} \sim 10-100$ K, $n \sim 10^4-10^8$ cm⁻³
 - Hot cores: $T_{kin} \sim 100-1000$ K, $n \sim 10^{6}-10^{8}$ cm⁻³
 - Disk midplane: T_{kin} ~10-1000 K, n~10⁸-10¹³ cm⁻³
 - Compare atmosphere at sea level: $T_{kin} \sim 300$ K, $n \sim 3 \ 10^{19}$ cm⁻³
- => Conditions very different from those normally encountered in lab on Earth: *molecular physics*

Intro (cont'd)

- Interstellar clouds are birthplaces of new stars
 - Evolution abundances molecules: *astrochemistry*
 - Molecules as physical diagnostics: *astrophysics*
- Progress strongly driven by observations:
 technology

=> Very interdisplinary topic!

Birth and death of stars: astrochemical evolution

Based on Ehrenfreund & Charnley 2000 Lifecycle of gas and dust R.Ruiterkamp 2001

1.2 Composition clouds Cosmic (solar) abundances elements

| Element | Abundance | Element | Abundance |
|---------|----------------------|---------|----------------------|
| Н | 1.00 | Mg | 4.2×10-5 |
| Не | 0.075 | Al | 3.1×10 ⁻⁶ |
| С | 3.5×10-4 | Si | 4.3×10 ⁻⁵ |
| Ν | 8.5×10 ⁻⁵ | S | 1.7×10 ⁻⁵ |
| 0 | 5.5×10-4 | Ca | 2.2×10-6 |
| Na | 2.1×10-6 | Fe | 4.3×10-5 |

- Precise values for C, N and O under discussion because of revision of solar abundances

The Astronomers' Periodic Table



B. McCall 2001

Interstellar grains



- Small solid particles ~0.01-0.5 μ m in size consisting of silicates and carbonaceous material; ~10⁻¹² by number w.r.t. H
- Most of Si, Mg, Fe incorporated in silicate cores;
 ~30% of O; ~60% of C in carbonaceous material
- Cold dense clouds (T_{dust} ~10 K): gas-phase species condense on grains forming an icy mantle

1.3. How do we observe molecules?

 $E = E^{\text{el}} + E^{\text{vib}} + E^{\text{rot}}$



Cold dense clouds

- Opaque at visible and UV wavelengths => molecules shielded from dissociating UV radiation
- Millimeter emission: *rotational* transitions
 - Limitation: molecule must have permanent dipole moment => cannot observe H₂, C₂, N₂, CH₄, C₂H₂, ...
 - Advantage: many molecules down to low abundances; lines in emission => map
- Infrared absorption: *vibrational* transitions
 - Limitation: need background IR source => only info along line of sight
 - *Advantage:* symmetric molecules + solid state
- Earth's atmosphere prevents observations of key molecules from ground: H₂O, O₂, CO₂

Infrared: absorption gas and solids



Vibrational transitions of gases and solids

1.4 Identified interstellar molecules

| N | =2 | N | =3 | N=4 | N = 5 | N = 6 | N = 7 | N = 8 | N = 9 | N = 10 |
|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| H ₂ | AICI | CH ₂ | C ₂ S | NH ₃ | CH4 | СН₃ОН | CH ₃ NH ₂ | HCOOCH ₃ | (CH ₃) ₂ O | (CH₃)₂CO |
| СН | PN | H ₂ S | OCS | H₂CO | SiH4 | CH₃SH | CH₃CCH | CH ₃ C ₂ CN | C₂H₅OH | CH ₃ C ₄ CN |
| NH | SiN | NHz | MgCN | H₂CS | CH₂NH | C ₂ H ₄ | CH₃CHO | HC ₆ H | C ₂ H ₅ CN | CH₃CH₂CHO |
| ОН | SiO | H ₂ O | MgNC | H₂CN | C ₅ | H ₂ C ₄ | c-CH ₂ OCH ₂ | C ₇ H | CH₃C₄H | (CH ₂ OH) ₂ |
| O2(?) | SiS | HNO | NaCN | I-C₃H | /-C3H2 | CH₃CN | CH₂CHCN | носн ₂ сно | C₅H | |
| HF | PO | C ₂ H | SO2 | c-C₃H | c-C ₃ H ₂ | CH ₃ NC | HC₄CN | сн₃соон | HC₅CN | |
| C2 | SH | HCN | N ₂ O | нссн | H₂CCN | NH₂CHO | С _в Н | H ₂ CCCHCN | CH ₃ CONH ₂ | N = 11 |
| CN | AIF | HNC | SICN | HNCO | H ₂ NCN | H ₂ CCHO | H ₂ CCHOH | H₂C _€ | CH ₂ CHCH ₃ | HC ₈ CN |
| со | FeO | нсо | SiNC | HNCS | CH ₂ CO | C₅H | | СН₂СНСНО | | CH₃C ₆ H |
| CS | SiC | c-SiC ₂ | | HCCN | нсоон | C _s N | | C₂H ₆ | | |
| СР | | MgCN | | C2CN | C₄H | HC₄N | | | | |
| NO | | MgNC | | C30 | HC ₂ CN | C ₅ S (?) | | | | N = 12 |
| NS | | AINC | | C38 | HC₂NC | HC₄H | | | | C ₆ H ₆ |
| SO | | НСР | H3+ | c-SiC3 | C₄ S i | CH₂CNH | | | | |
| HCI | CH+ | C3 | HCO+ | C ₃ N ⁻ | HNCCC | HC₂CHO | | | | |
| NaCI | CO+ | C ₂ O | HOC+ | H ₃ O ⁺ | | c-C ₃ H ₂ O | | | | N = 13 |
| KCI | SO+ | CO2 | N_2H^+ | HCNH ⁺ | H ₂ COH ⁺ | - | | | | HC ₁₀ CN |
| N ₂ (?) | CF ⁺ | | HCS+ | HOCO+ | C₄H· | HC₃NH+ | C ₆ H∙ | | C _s H- | |

- ~150 total, not including isotopologues

Herbst, priv. comm.

- number of new molecules still increasing by ~3 per year

Diversity of molecules

- About 150 different molecules firmly identified
- Ordinary molecules
 NH₃, H₂O, H₂CO, CH₃CH₂OH,
- Exotic molecules HCO⁺, N₂H⁺, HCCCCCCN,

⇒Unusual molecules (rare on Earth but not in space)

Millimeter spectra: myriads of lines!



Some (recent) detections

- H₃+, H₂D+, D₂H+: cornerstones ion-molecule chemistry
- C_4 , C_6H_2 , CH_3CHCH_2 : new carbon chains
- Cyclic C_2H_4O : fifth ring
- C₆H₆: benzene: simplest PAH
- C_6H^- , C_8H^- , C_4H^- : first negative ions!
- D₂CO, ND₃, CD₃OH: doubly + triply deuterated molecules
- NaCN, AlCN, SiN: metal-containing species

Not convincingly detected: O₂, glycine,

Negative ions



McCarthy et al. 2006

Larger chains have large electron affinity (binding energy) Herbst & Osamura 2008

Propene in TMC-1



Marcelino et al. 2007



Molecules at high redshift: z=6.4!





CO and [C II] in quasar SDSS J1148+5251 at z=6.4

Walter et al. 2003, Maiolino et al. 2005

HCO⁺, CN at high z



Riechers et al. 2007a,b

- Detection of HCO⁺ and CN toward Clover Leaf quasar at z=2.56 (lensed system => signal enhanced)
- Both lines require high densities 10⁵-10⁶ cm⁻³ for excitation

1.5 Importance of molecules

- Exotic chemistry: unique laboratory
- Astrochemical evolution
- Molecules as diagnostics of temperature T_{kin} , density $n_{\rm H}$, velocity, ...
- Molecules as coolants
- Radiation escapes from cloud => net kinetic energy lost => cloud cools down
 Collisions
 CO(J=0)
 CO(J=1)
 CO(J=0)

Questions addressed

- What are chemical processes leading to formation and destruction of molecules?
- How well are basic molecular processes known from experiments or theory
- What is evolution of molecules in the universe, from their creation at high redshifts to interstellar clouds to incorporation in new solar systems
- How can molecules be used as physical and chemical diagnostics of physical structure, evolution, cosmic-ray ionization, ...

1.6 Basic molecular processes: gas phase

- Because of low temperatures and densities in clouds, chemistry is *not* in thermodynamic equilibrium but controlled by two body reactions
 => abundances depend on physical conditions (*T*,*n*,radiation field), history, ...
- Three body reactions do not become important until $n > 10^{12}$ cm⁻³
- Although models contain thousands of reactions, only few different types of processes
- Rate of reaction: $k n(X) n(Y) \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$

*Rate coefficient in cm*³ *s*⁻¹

Chemical network: example Carbon chemistry and its coupling with oxygen



These networks look complicated but are built up from only a handful of basic types of reactions

Types of chemical reactions

- <u>Formation</u> of bonds
 - Radiative association:
 - Associative detachment
 - Grain surface:
- Destruction of bonds
 - Photo-dissociation:
 - Dissociative recombination:
 - Collisional dissociation:
- Rearrangement of bonds
 - Ion-molecule reactions:
 - Charge-transfer reactions:
 - Neutral-neutral reactions:

 $X^{+} + Y \rightarrow XY^{+} + h\nu$ $X^{-} + Y \rightarrow XY + e$ $X + Y:g \rightarrow XY + g$

 $\begin{array}{l} XY + h\nu \rightarrow X + Y \\ XY^+ + e \rightarrow X + Y \\ XY + M \rightarrow X + Y + M \end{array}$

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\begin{array}{l} X^{+} + YZ \rightarrow XY^{+} + Z \\ X^{+} + YZ \rightarrow X + YZ^{+} \\ X + YZ \rightarrow XY + Z \end{array}
```

1.7 Radiative association

•
$$X + Y \xrightarrow[\tau_c]{\tau_c} XY^* \xrightarrow[\tau_r]{\tau_c} XY + hv$$

Energy conservation => photon must be emitted, which is a very slow process



 $\tau_r = 10^{-2} \cdot 10^{-3}$ s vibrational transition $\tau_{c,d} = 10^{-13}$ s collision time

 $\Rightarrow Molecule formation occurs only$ $1:10^{10} collisions$

Radiative association (cont'd)

- Process becomes more efficient if electronic states available: τ_r smaller
 - $C^+ + H_2$ example
- Also more efficient for larger molecules: τ_d longer



=> Efficiency increased to 1:10⁵

Radiative association (cont'd)

- Radiative association is extremely difficult to measure in laboratory because 3-body processes dominate under most lab conditions.
- Many rate coefficients are based on theory; overall uncertainties 1-2 orders of magnitude
- Exception: $C^+ + H_2 \rightarrow CH_2^+ + hv$
 - $k \sim 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ within factor of 2-3
 - Initiates carbon chemistry

1.8 Associative detachment

- Usually not important in cold clouds, but can play a role in partly ionized regions and early universe
- Form negative ions by radiative attachment $X + e \rightarrow X^- + hv$ slow process
- Form molecule by associative detachment $X^- + Y \rightarrow XY + e \quad fast \text{ process}$

Associative detachment



• Examples: $H + e \rightarrow H^- + hv$ $H^- + H \rightarrow H_2 + e$ fast

Application: early universe chemistry



First molecules in universe: He₂⁺ and HeH⁺



Latter 1989

He₂⁺ and HeH⁺ formed by radiative association

H chemistry in early universe

- Hydrogen chemistry in early universe is very different from that in the current era due to the absence of dust => H₂ must be formed by slow gas-phase reactions
- Direct formation by radiative association
 H + H → H₂ + hv is much too slow since H₂
 does not have a dipole moment => consider
 other routes

H⁺ route

- H₂ formation:
 - $H + H^+ \rightarrow H_2^+ + hv$
 - $H_2^+ + H \rightarrow H_2 + H^+$
- H₂⁺ can be destroyed by photodissociation and dissociative recombination
 - $H_2^+ + h\nu \rightarrow H + H^+$
 - $H_2^+ + e \rightarrow H + H$
 - => Formation of H_2 only becomes effective when T_R <4000 K and photodissociation of H_2^+ ceases

H⁻ route

- At later times (z~100), H₂ can be formed through H⁻
 - $H + e \rightarrow H^- + hv$
 - $H^- + H \rightarrow H_2 + e$
- H⁻ is destroyed by photodetachment
 - $H^- + hv \rightarrow H + e$

with threshold of 0.75 eV => need T_R < 1000 K before route becomes effective

H₂ chemistry

- Both H⁺ and H⁻ routes are catalytic, since H⁺ and *e* returned
- H₂ destroyed by
 - ${}^{\bullet} \operatorname{H}_2 + \operatorname{H}^+ \to \operatorname{H}_2^+ + \operatorname{H}$
 - $H_2 + e \rightarrow H + H^-$
- Net result: $f(H_2) = n(H_2)/n_H \sim 10^{-6}$ as $z \to 0$

Small molecular fraction in early universe

(but very important as coolants, allowing clouds to collapse and setting the mass of the first stars)

H₂ formation in early universe by H⁺ and H⁻ routes



Latter 1989

Sensitivity to cosmological parameters



Hatched area covers range of variation of $\Omega_0=0.1-1$, $h=H_0/100=0.3-1$ and $\eta_{10}=baryon/photon=1-10$

1.9 Photodissociation

• $XY + h\nu \rightarrow X + Y$





Direct photodissociation OH, H_2O , CH, CH_2 , ...

Predissociation CO, NO,

- Experiments available for stable molecules, but not for radicals or ions
- Small molecules: theory works well: quantum chemical calculations of potential surfaces of excited states + transition dipole moments, followed by nuclear dynamics to obtain cross sections

Examples experiments



 H_2O absorption followed by direct dissociation: accurate cross sections within 20%

NO absorption (full) and fluorescence (dashed); mostly predissociation through discrete transitions; large uncertainties (order of magnitude)



H₂ spontaneous radiative dissociation



90% of absorptions into B and C states are followed by emission back into <u>bound</u> vibrational levels of the X state
10% of the absorptions are followed by emission into the <u>unbound</u> vibrational continuum, leading to dissociation

Both H_2 and CO p.d. initiated by line absorptions => self-shielding

Interstellar radiation field



Figure 5. The intensity of the interstellar radiation field as a function of wavelength cf. Draine (1978) (full line), Mathis et al. (1983) (long-dashed line), Gondhalekar et al. (1980) (short-dashed line) and Habing (1968) (dash-dotted line). Average radiation provided by early-type stars in solar neighborhood

Note that H_2 and CO p.d. and C photoioniation only occur at 912-1100 Å C can be photoionized by ISRF, but not O and N

Cosmic-ray induced radiation: UV radiation inside dense clouds



-Detailed line + continuum spectrum peaking around 1600 Å and continuing below 912 Å

Other radiation fields

- Ly-α dominated
 - Shocks,
- Stellar blackbodies T_{eff} =4000-10000 K
 - Disks, (exo-)planets, cool PDRs, ...
- Solar radiation T_{eff} =5500 K + Ly α
 - Comets

http://www.strw.leidenuniv.nl/~ewine/photo

See van Dishoeck et al. 2006

1.10 Dissociative recombination

- Atomic ions: $X^+ + e \rightarrow X + hv$ Radiative: slow
- Molecular ions: $XY^+ + e \rightarrow XY + hv$ Radiative: slow



Dissociative: rapid at low T

slow

- Need curve crossing between XY⁺ and repulsive XY potential for reaction to proceed fast
- Most rates well known; branching ratios products major uncertainty

Storage ring experiments



CRYRING, Stockholm

- Also Aarhus, Heidelberg





- Literature values range from <10⁻¹² to 10⁻⁷ cm³ s⁻¹ at 300 K over last 25 years
- High rate coefficients now also reproduced by theory, even without curve crossing
- Affects determination cosmic ray ionization rates in diffuse clouds

1.11 Ion-molecule reactions

- Ion induces dipole moment in molecule when it approaches it => long-range attraction which goes as $\propto 1/R^4$
- Reaction is rapid even at low *T* if the reaction is exothermic; rate can be readily computed by classical capture theory developed by Langevin 1905





- Reaction only occurs if impact parameter *b* small enough that X⁺ is 'captured', i.e., spends enough time near YZ for reaction to take place
- Gas-phase reaction networks built on ion-molecule reactions;
 initial ionization provided by cosmic rays (H⁺ and H₃⁺) or photons (C⁺)

Ion-molecule processes

- $X^+ + YZ \rightarrow XY^+ + Z$ exchange $\rightarrow X + YZ^+$ charge transfer
- Many experiments performed at room *T*, some at low *T*. Most reactions (>90%) indeed proceed at Langevin rate, but some exceptions known



Experiments



-Rate coefficients for ion-polar reactions may be factors of 10-100 larger than Langevin values at low *T*, because $V(R) \propto R^{-2}$ Example: C⁺ + OH \rightarrow CO⁺ + H

1.12 Neutral-neutral reactions

- Long-range attraction weak: van der Waals interaction $\propto 1/R^6$
- Potential barriers may occur in entrance and exit channels => reactions thought to be slow at low T
- Experiments: *reactions can be fast at low T!*



CN + **C**₂**H**₆: or why extrapolation is unreliable



I. Sims et al. Rennes/Birmingham

CN + **C**₂**H**₆: or why extrapolation is unreliable



CN + C₂H₆: or why extrapolation is unreliable



CN + C₂H₆: reaction stays rapid at low *T*!







boundary layer sets

scale of apparatus

nozzle throat diameter 3 mm – 5 cm

> uniform supersonic flow T = 7 - 220 K $\rho = 10^{16} - 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

axisymmetric Laval nozzle

chamber pressure 0.1 – 0.25 mbar pumping speed ~ 30000 m³ hr⁻¹

Laval nozzle and isentropic flow



Types of neutral-neutral reactions



Not all neutral-neutral reactions are rapid

See also Smith 2006, Faraday Disc

1.13 Pure gas-phase models

- Most recent models contain nearly ~4500 gasphase reactions between ~450 species containing up to 13 atoms. Publicly available on web
 - UMIST code
 - http://www.udfa.net/
 - Ohio state code
 - http://www.physics.ohiostate.edu/~eric/research.html
- Most dark cloud models ignore depth dependence
 ⇒ solve chemical networks for given *T*, *n* at single position and assume

$$x(AB) = \frac{N(AB)}{N(H_2)} = \frac{n(AB)}{n(H_2)}$$

observed calculated

How important are reactions? Sensitivity analysis gas-phase networks



- Take estimated uncertainties in rate coefficients into account
- Uncertainties become larger for large molecules
- Observed CH₃OH cannot be produced by pure gas-phase reactions
- Use analysis to identify critical reactions for which rates need to be better determined Wakelam et al. 2005

1.14 Gas-grain chemistry

- Evidence for gas-grain chemistry
 - H₂ in interstellar clouds
 - NH in diffuse clouds
 - Abundances H₂O, CO₂, CH₃OH, ... in ices higher than expected from freeze-out of gas phase



Formation mechanisms

 Diffusive mechanism (Langmuir-Hinshelwood)
 X + g:Y → X:g:Y → X-Y:g → XY + g sticking diffusion + desorption molecule formation
 Direct mechanism (Eley-Rideal)
 X + Y:g → X-Y:g → XY + g direct desorption reaction

• Surface can be silicates, carbonaceous, ice, ...

See Lecture 2 for more on grain surface processes

Simulations diffuse mechanism



Summary lecture 1

- Large variety of molecules observed in ISM
- Basic processes for formation and destruction identified
- Networks built for explaining abundances
- Results completely dependent on thousands of input rates
 - Many not known under astrophysical conditions (but for many accurate rates not needed)
 - Key: identify those reactions which are important to study well
- Many experiments and theory on basic processes over last 30 years
 - Good, new chemical physics questions!
 - Significant progress in neutral-neutral reactions, surface reactions
- Some processes now well understood, others take decades of hard work to make just a little progress
 - Funding of lab astrophysics groups becoming major problem
 - Note: photoionization codes like CLOUDY got atomic input data thanks to huge efforts in atomic and plasma physics