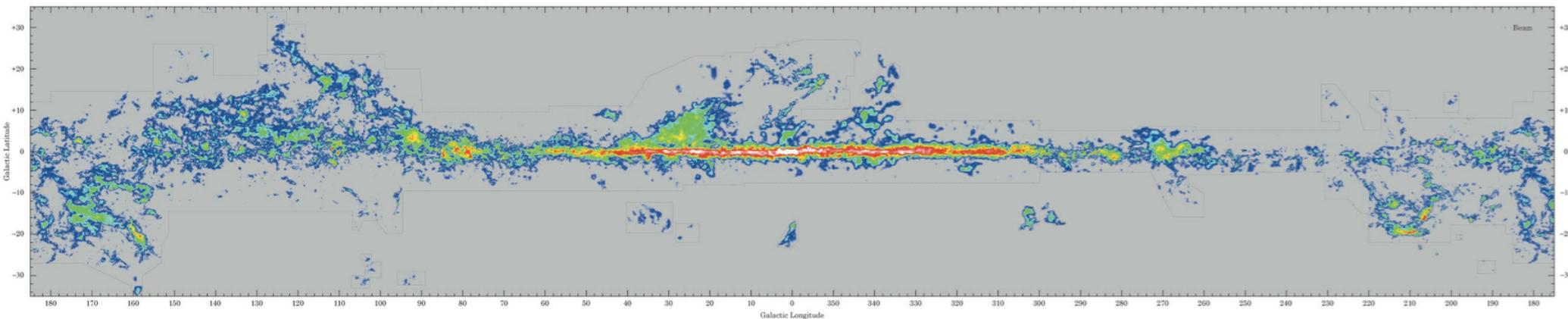


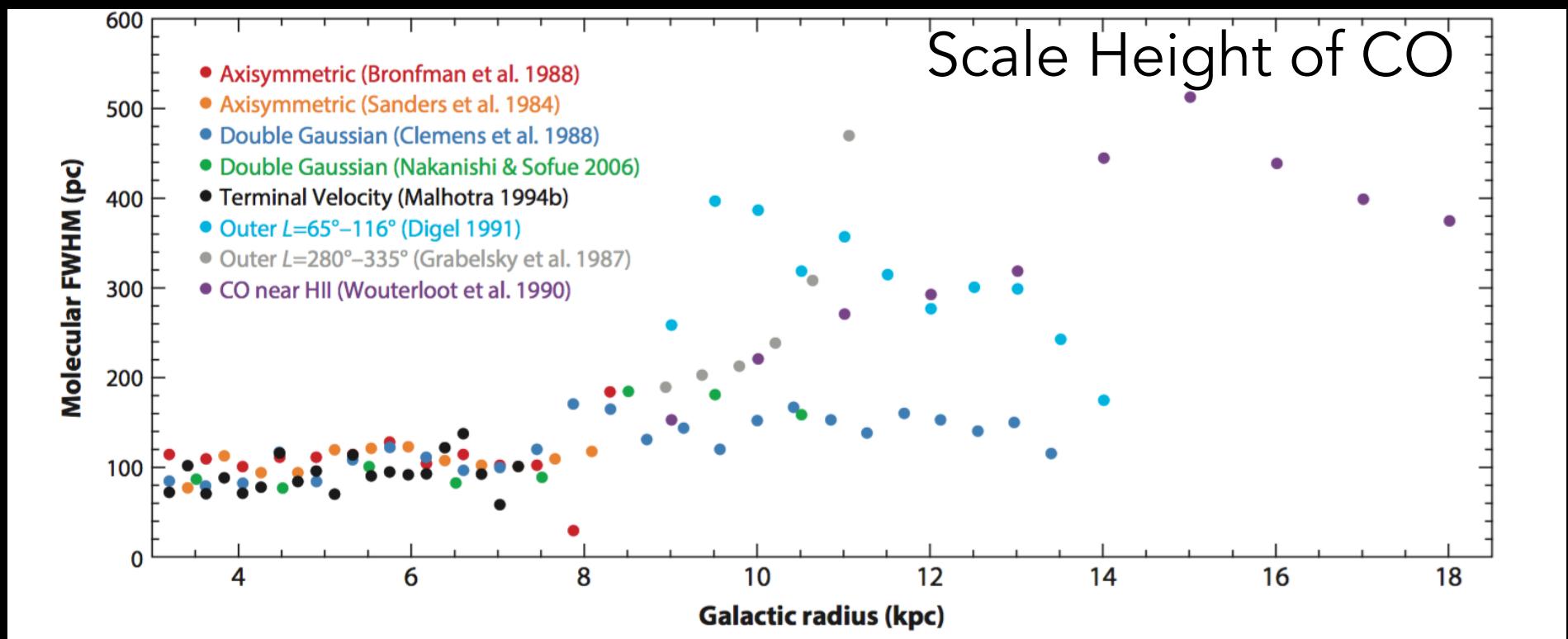
# Molecular Gas

- Formation of Molecular Gas
- Molecular Clouds
- Conversion between CO measurements and mass of molecular gas
- The relationship between neutral and molecular gas.

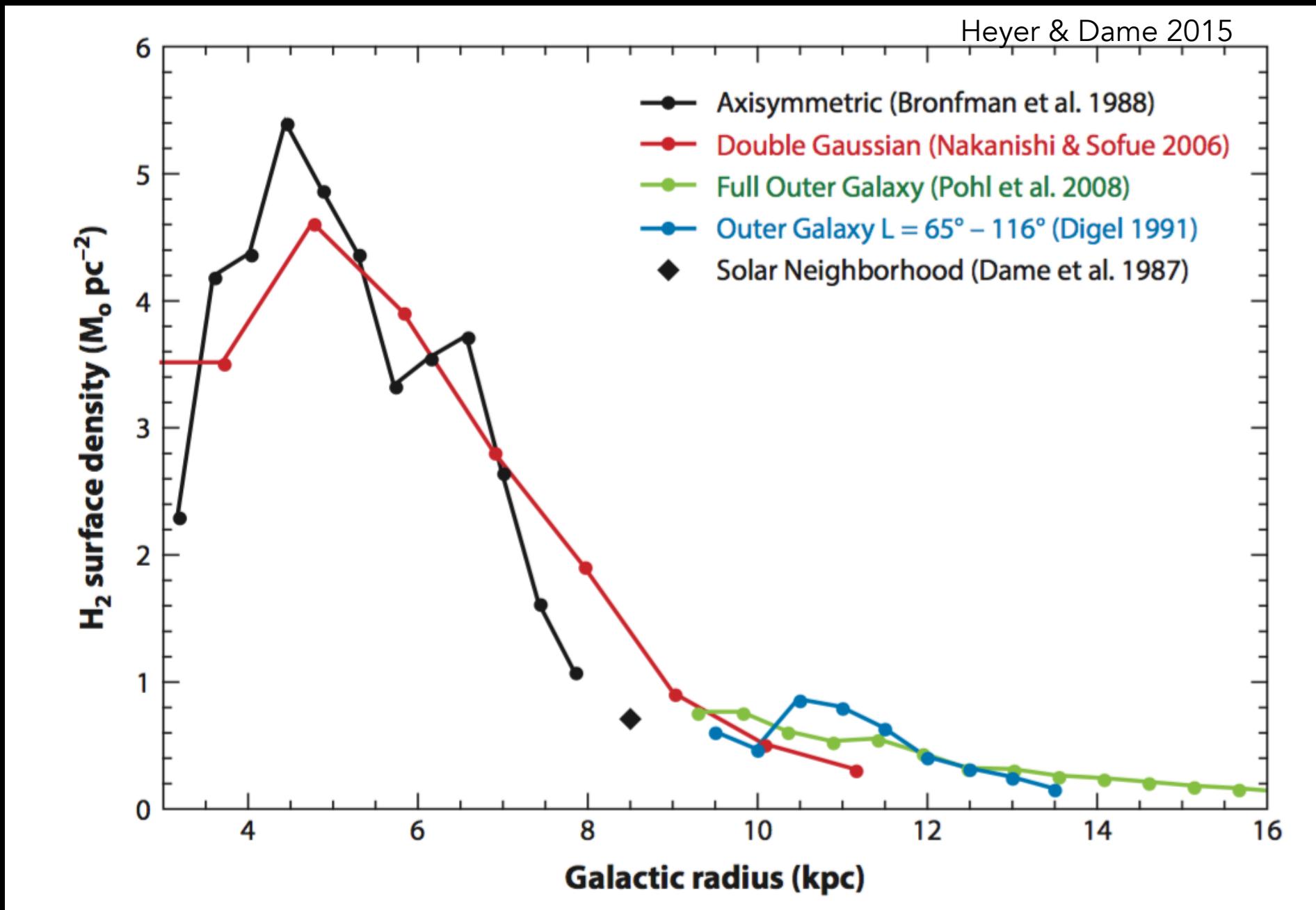
# Molecular Gas: Primarily in midplane



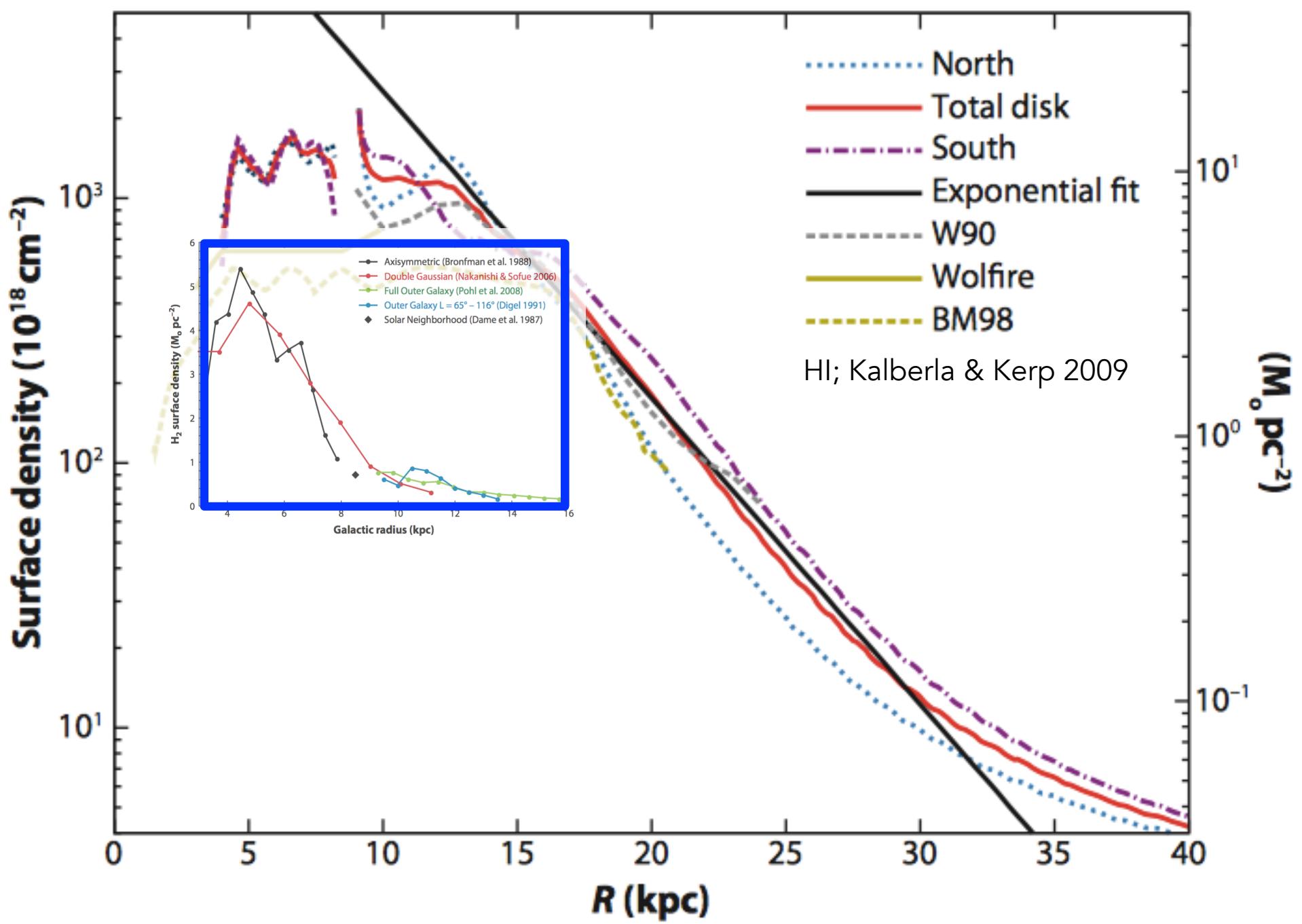
Milky Way in CO; Dame et al. 2001

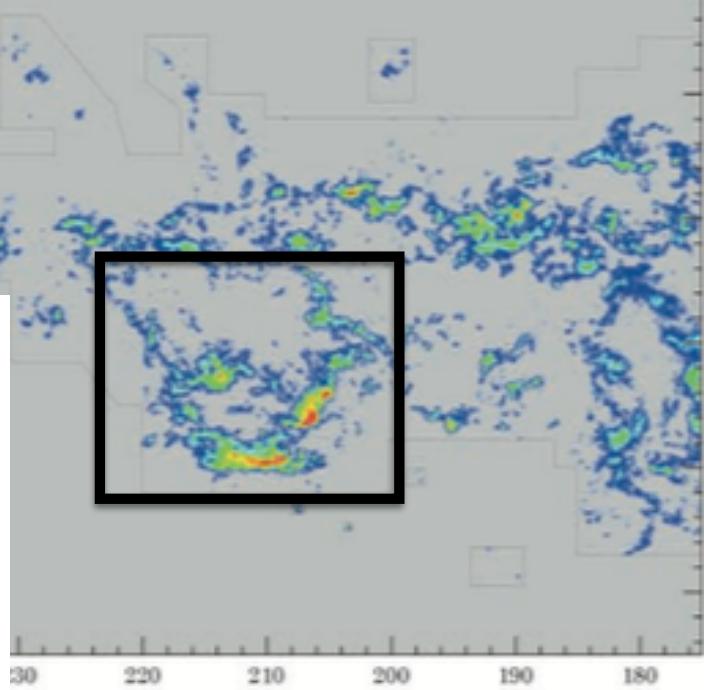
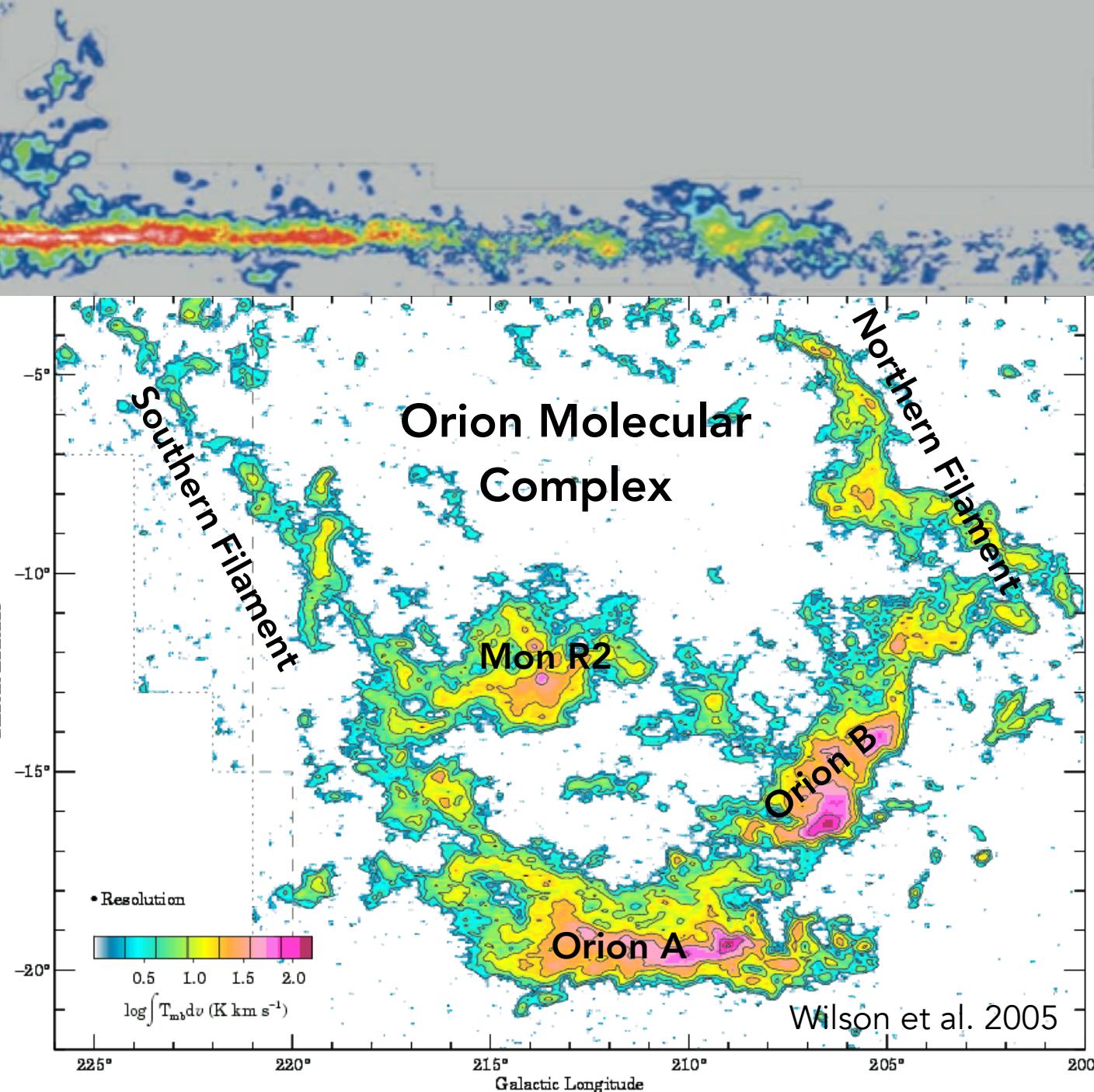


# Molecular Gas: Surface density profile



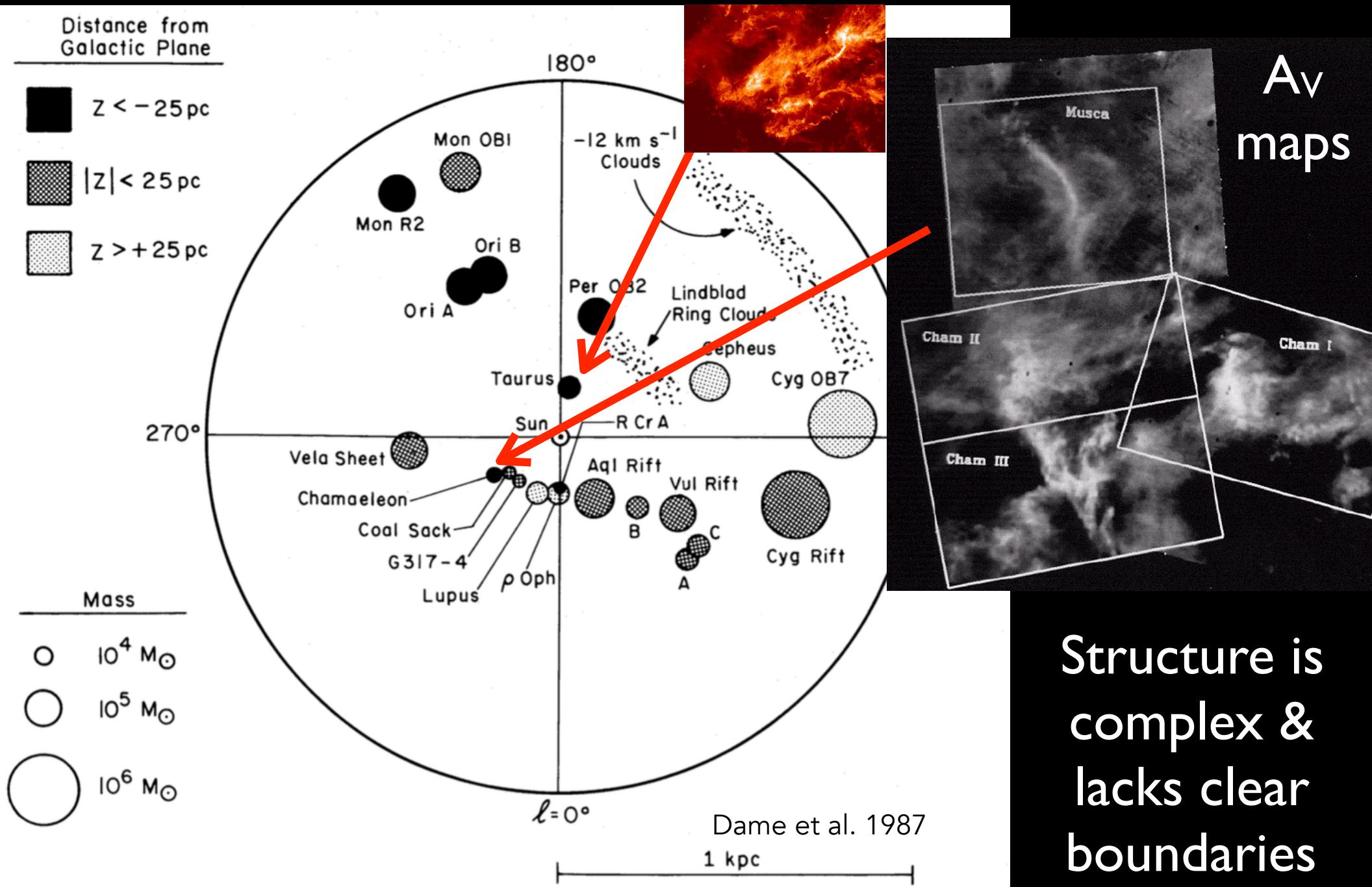
# MW Surface Density: HI vs H<sub>2</sub>



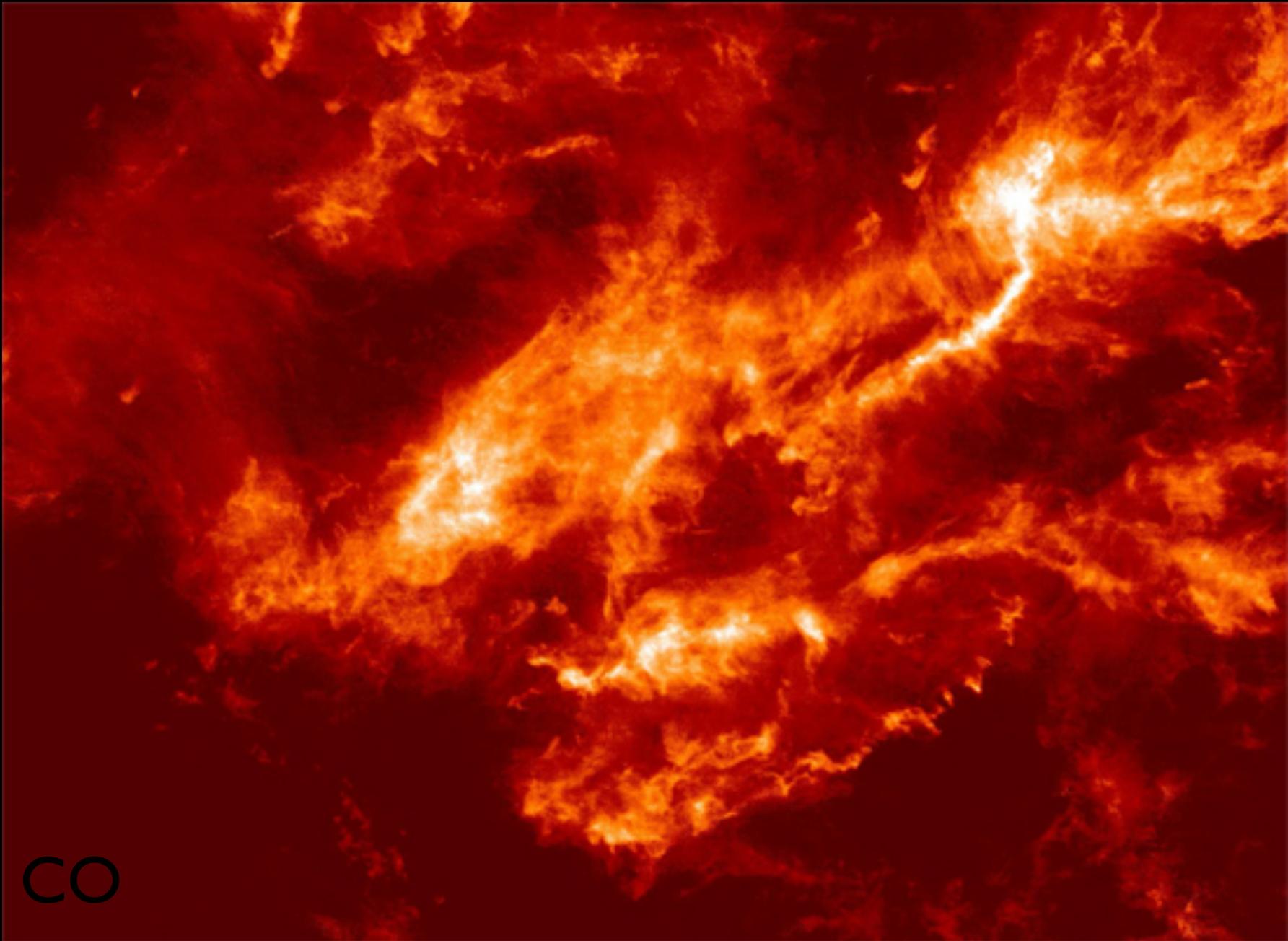


Molecular  
Cloud  
Complex

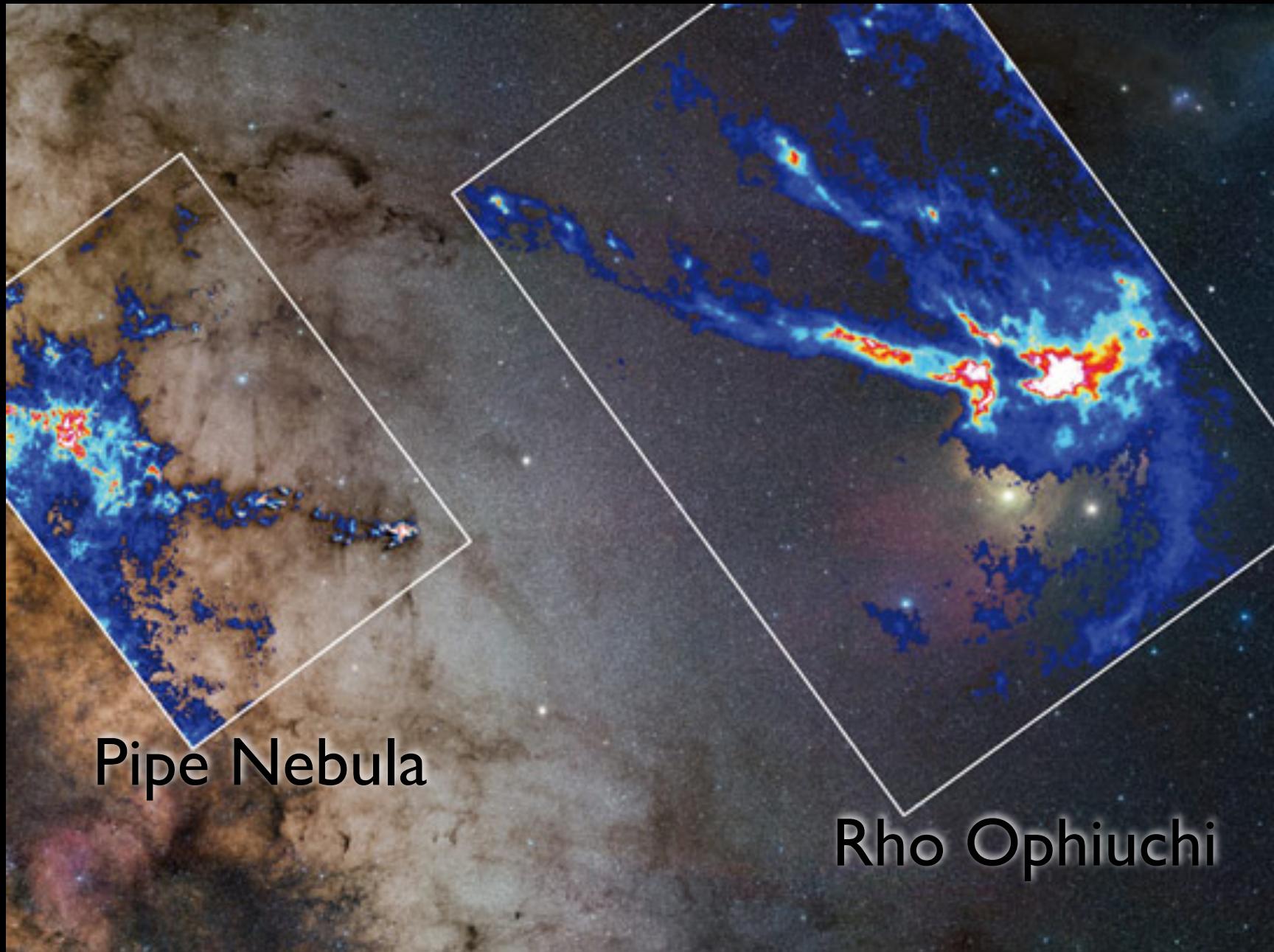
# Well-studied local molecular clouds



# Taurus Molecular Cloud

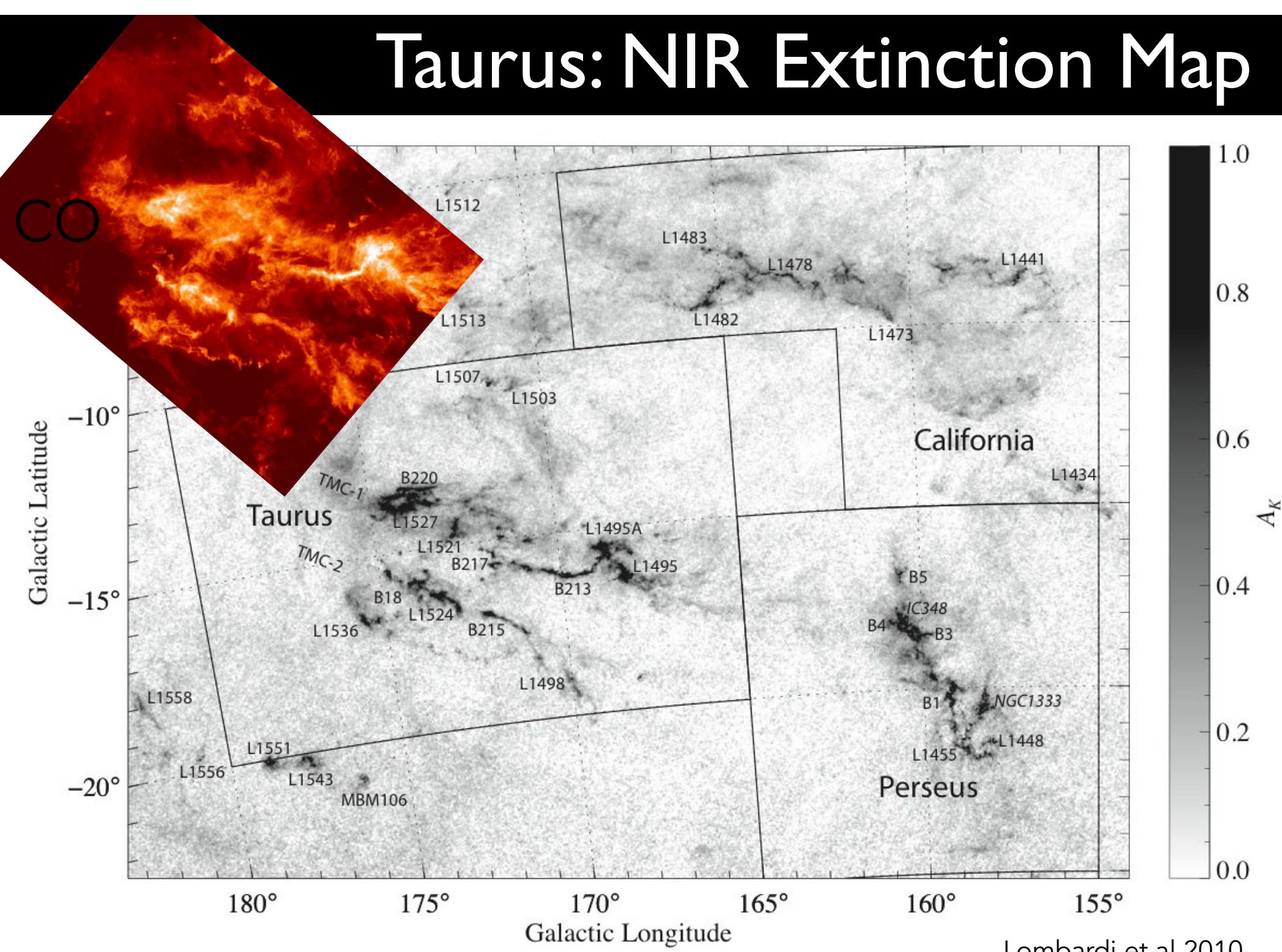


# Frequently mapped via extinction



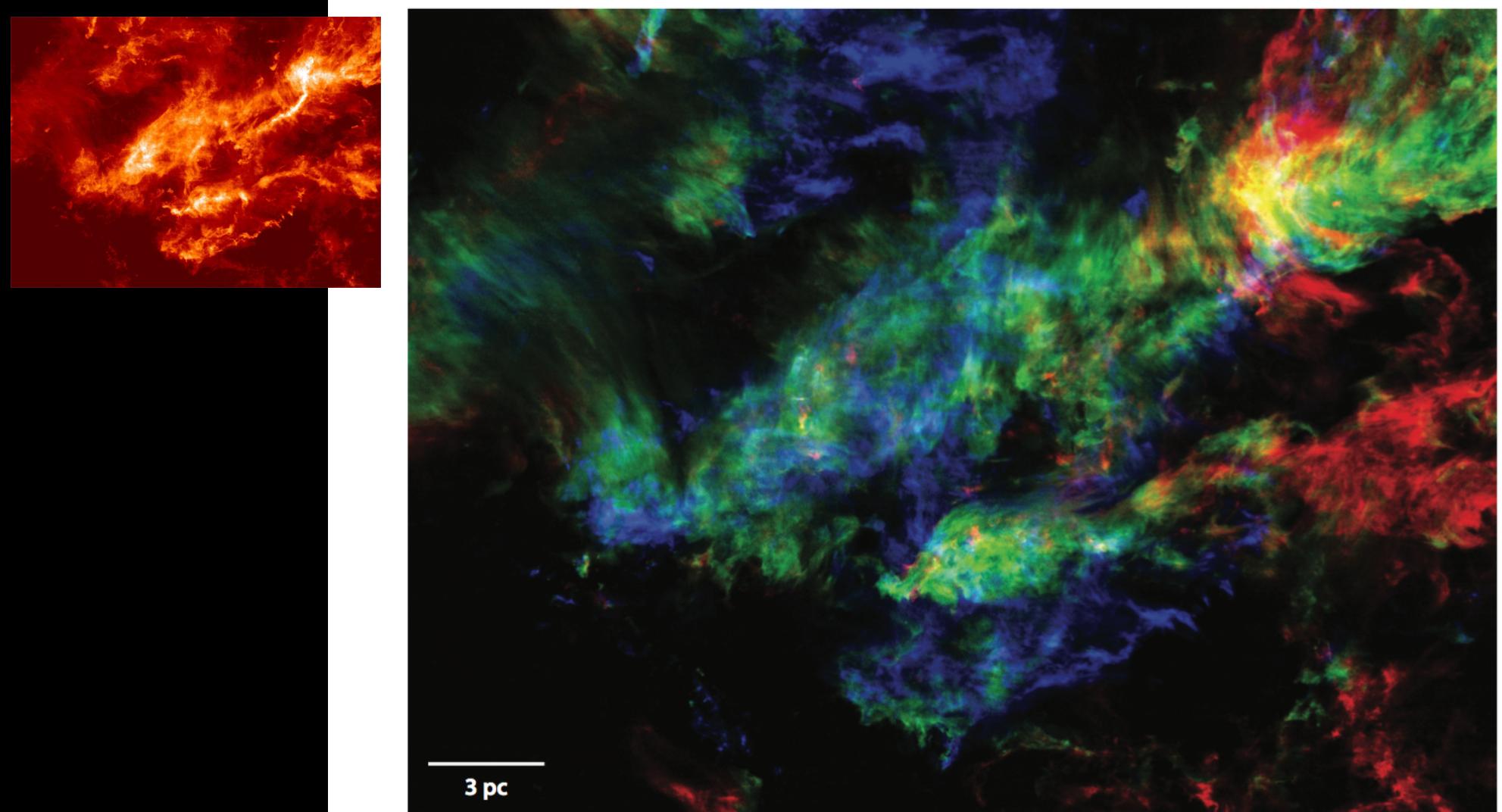
Kainulainen et al 2014

# Taurus: NIR Extinction Map



Lombardi et al 2010

# MCs have internal velocity structure

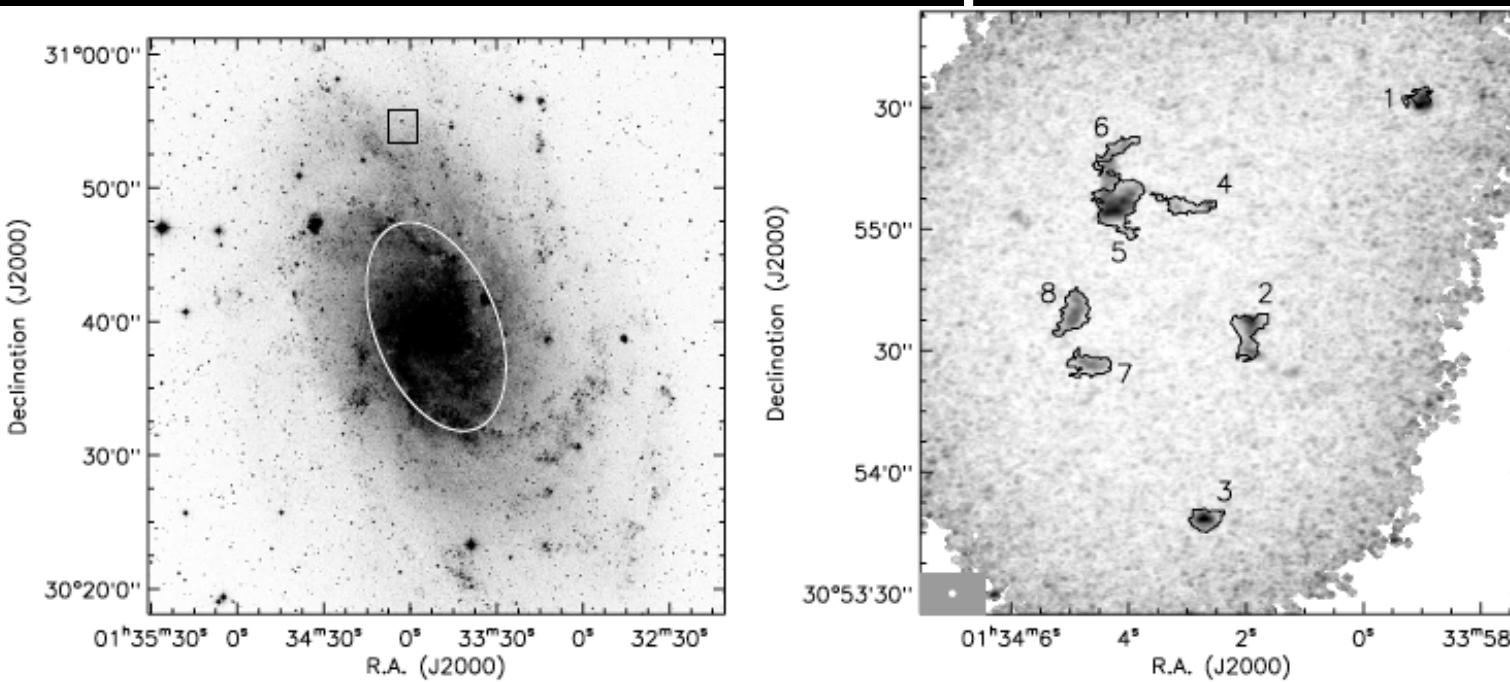


**Figure 10**

Heyer & Dame 2015

An image of  $^{12}\text{CO}$   $J = 1-0$  emission from the Taurus molecular cloud integrated over vLSR intervals 0–5  $\text{km s}^{-1}$  (blue), 5–7.5  $\text{km s}^{-1}$  (green), and 7.5–12  $\text{km s}^{-1}$  (red), illustrating the intricate surface brightness distribution and complex velocity field of the Taurus cloud. The data are from Narayanan et al. (2008). Adapted from figure 12 of Goldsmith et al. (2008) and reproduced with permission from AAS.

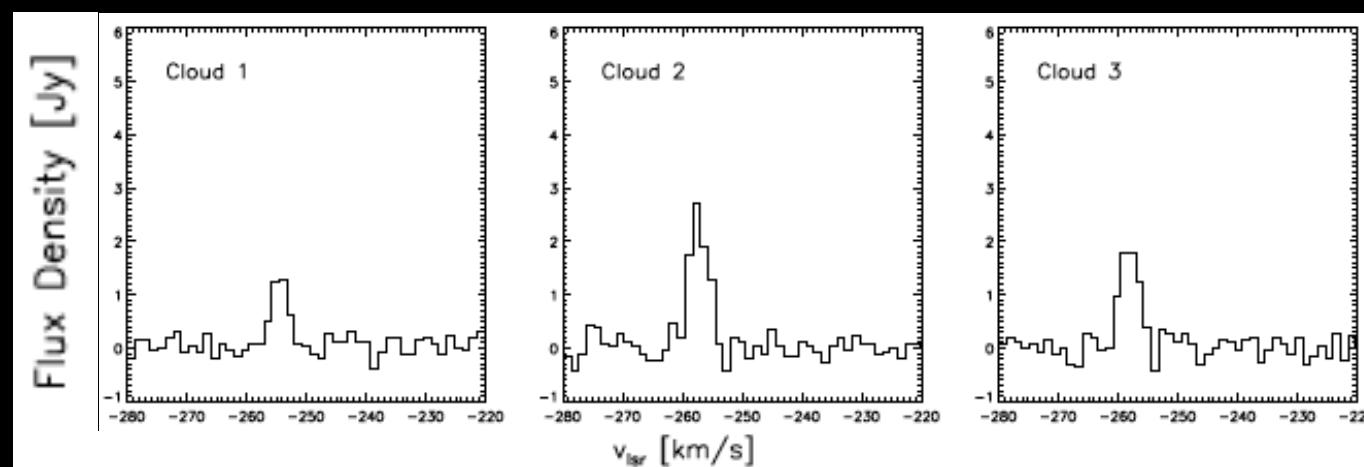
# Identification requires molecular clouds to be distinct in space & velocity



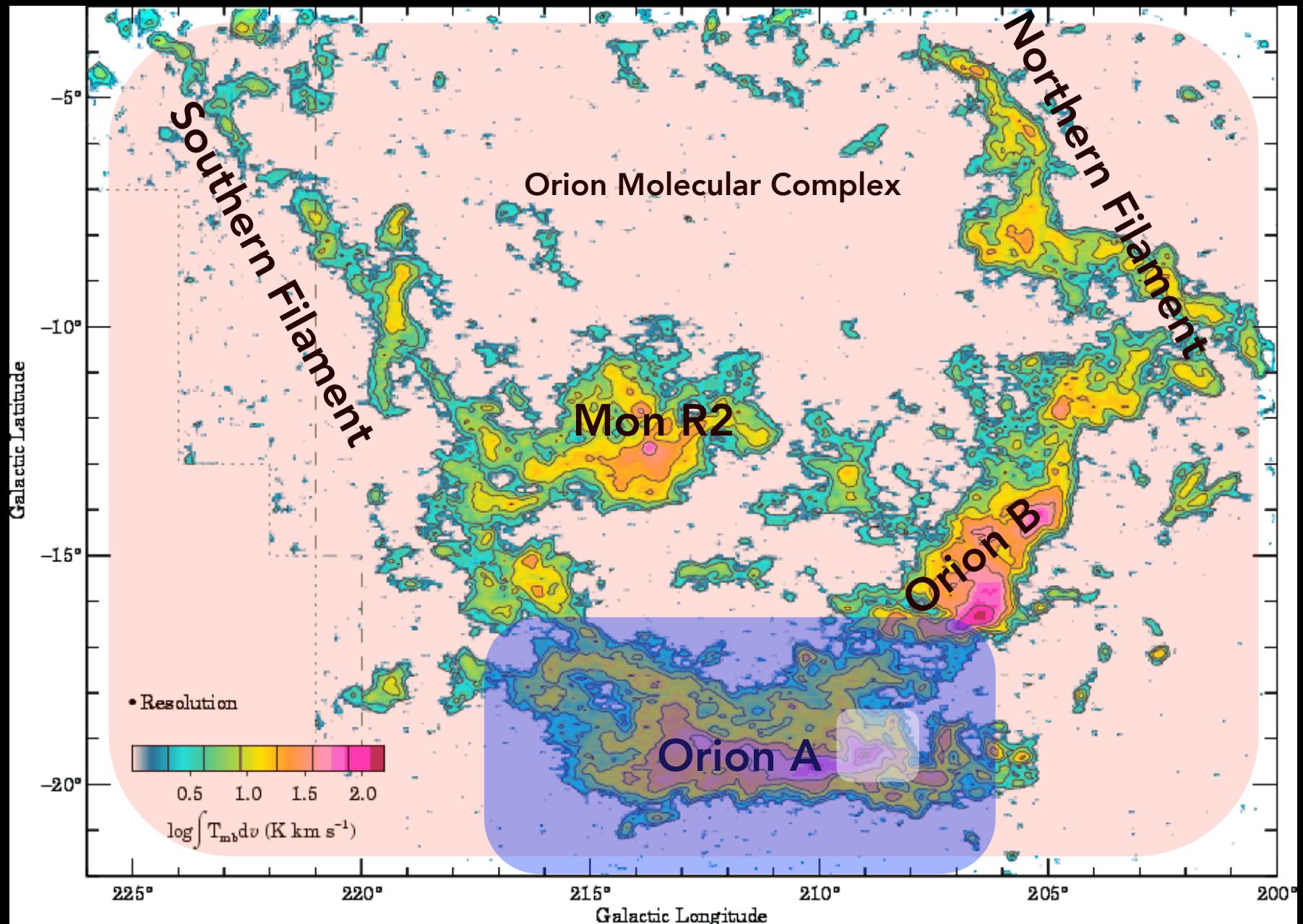
Bigiel et al 2010

7pc spatial  
resolution

1.3 km/s velocity  
resolution



Example of molecular cloud identification



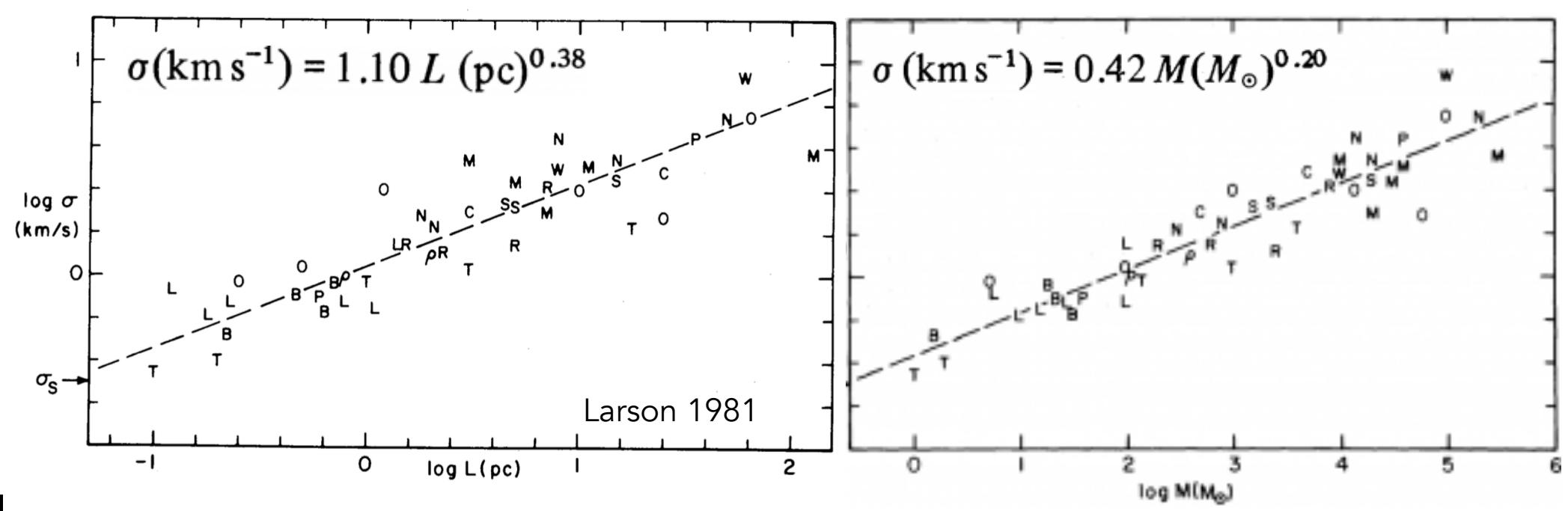
But, multiple defensible cloud “units”  
& properties will depend on def'n

# Giant Molecular Clouds (GMCs)

- Discrete in position and velocity space
- $10^3\text{-}10^6 M_{\odot}$
- 10-100 pc in size

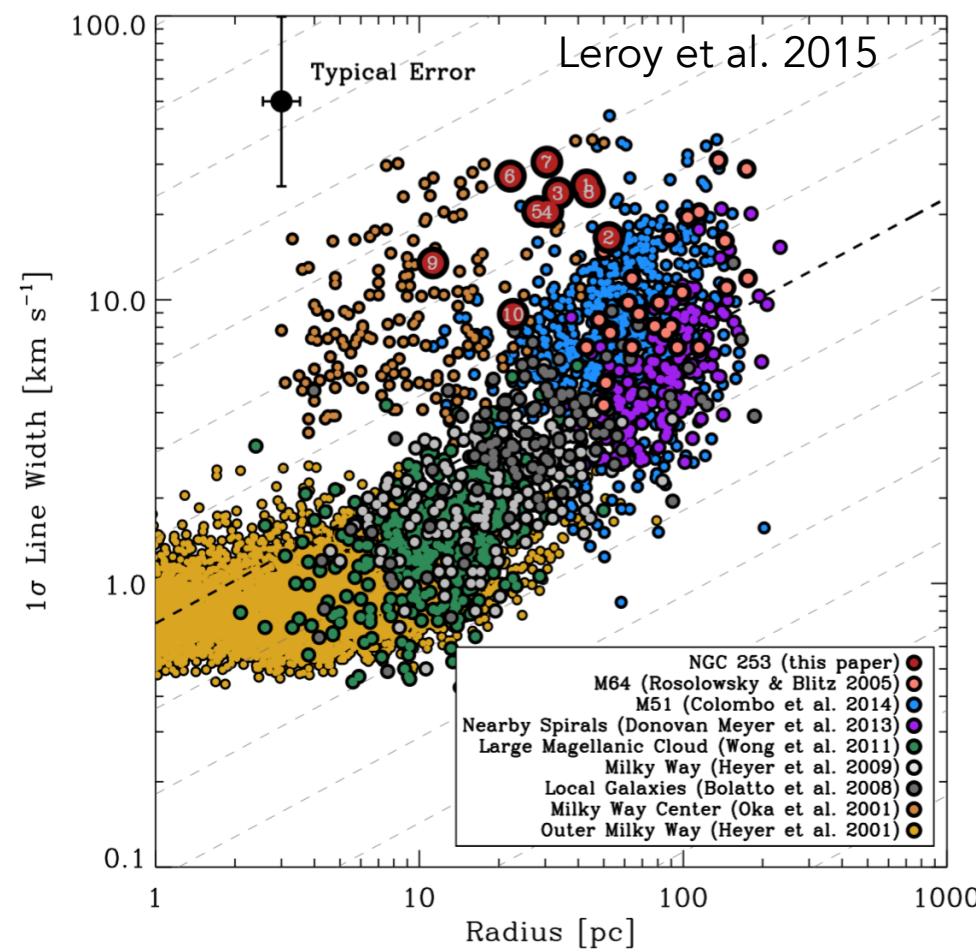
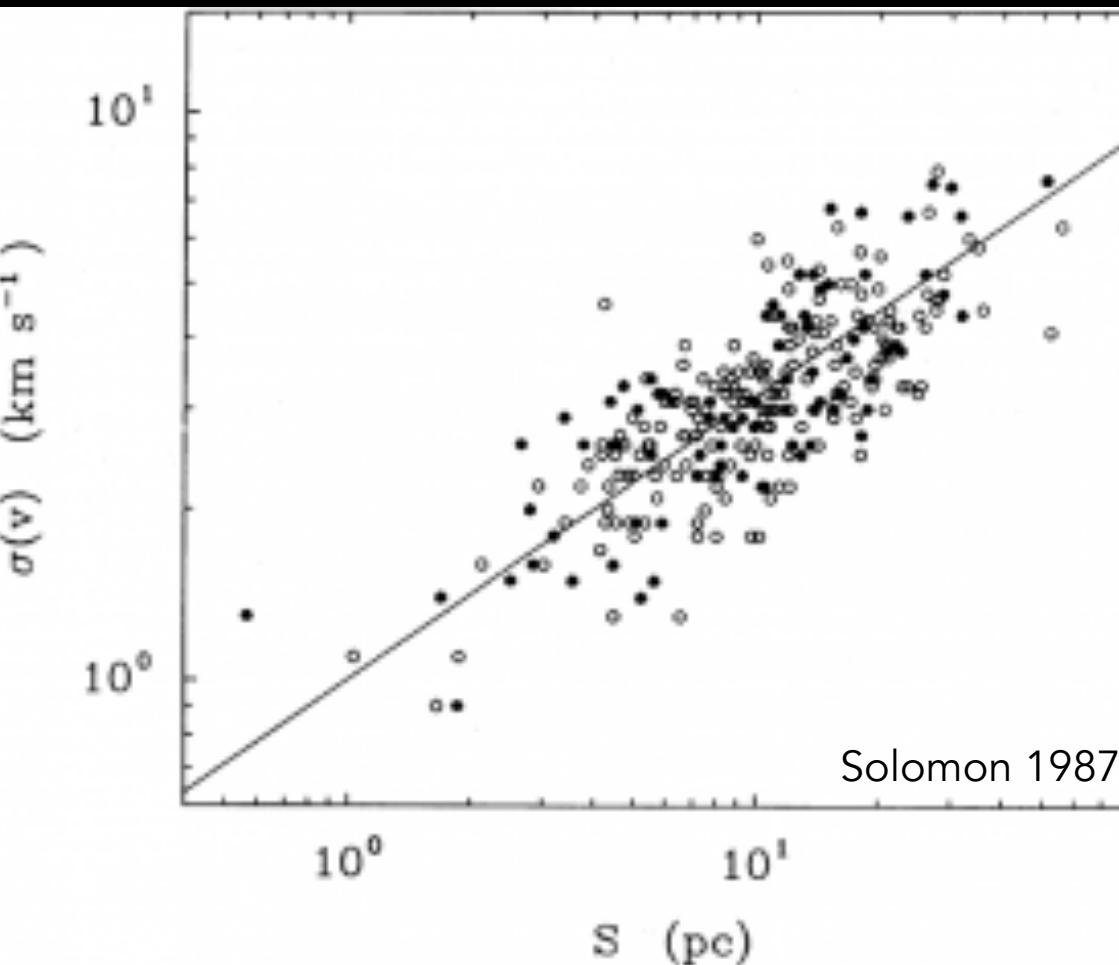
It is rather amazing that 15 yr since the identification of giant molecular clouds, there is no generally accepted definition of what a GMC is. There seems to be little disagreement about the classification of the largest clouds as GMCs, but an all inclusive definition of what a GMC is has proven elusive. A large part of the problem is that the various studies of the mass spectrum of molecular clouds indicate that the spectrum is well fit by a power law (see below) and there is consequently no natural size or mass scale for molecular clouds. What we call a GMC is therefore largely a question of taste. For the

# “Larson’s Laws” for MCs



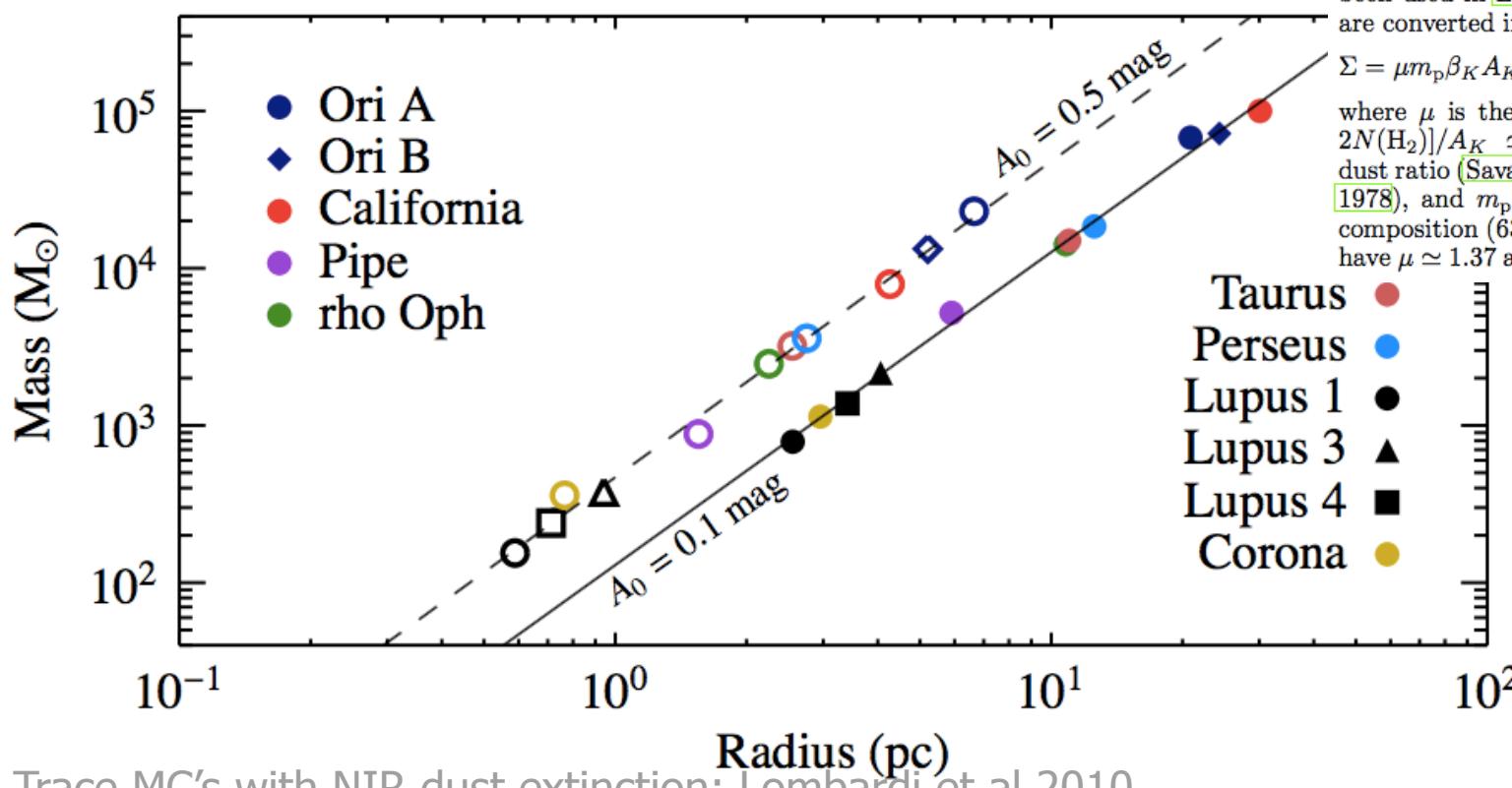
- Defined for Milky Way molecular clouds
- Sensitive to exact def'n of “cloud” & choice of boundary

# Larson's Laws vs modern data



Still largely hold, but more scatter, & somewhat different slope

# Larson's 3rd Law: Constant, high $\Sigma$



Trace MC's with NIR dust extinction; Lombardi et al 2010

**Fig. 1.** Cloud masses above extinction thresholds of  $A_0 = 0.1 \text{ mag}$  (filled symbols) and  $A_0 = 0.5 \text{ mag}$  (open symbols) as a function of their size. The two line shows the best constant surface density fits, which correspond to  $\Sigma = 41 M_{\odot} \text{ pc}^{-2}$  and  $\Sigma = 149 M_{\odot} \text{ pc}^{-2}$  respectively.

been used in Lada et al. (2010). Extinction measurements are converted into surface mass densities using

$$\Sigma = \mu m_p \beta_K A_K , \quad (1)$$

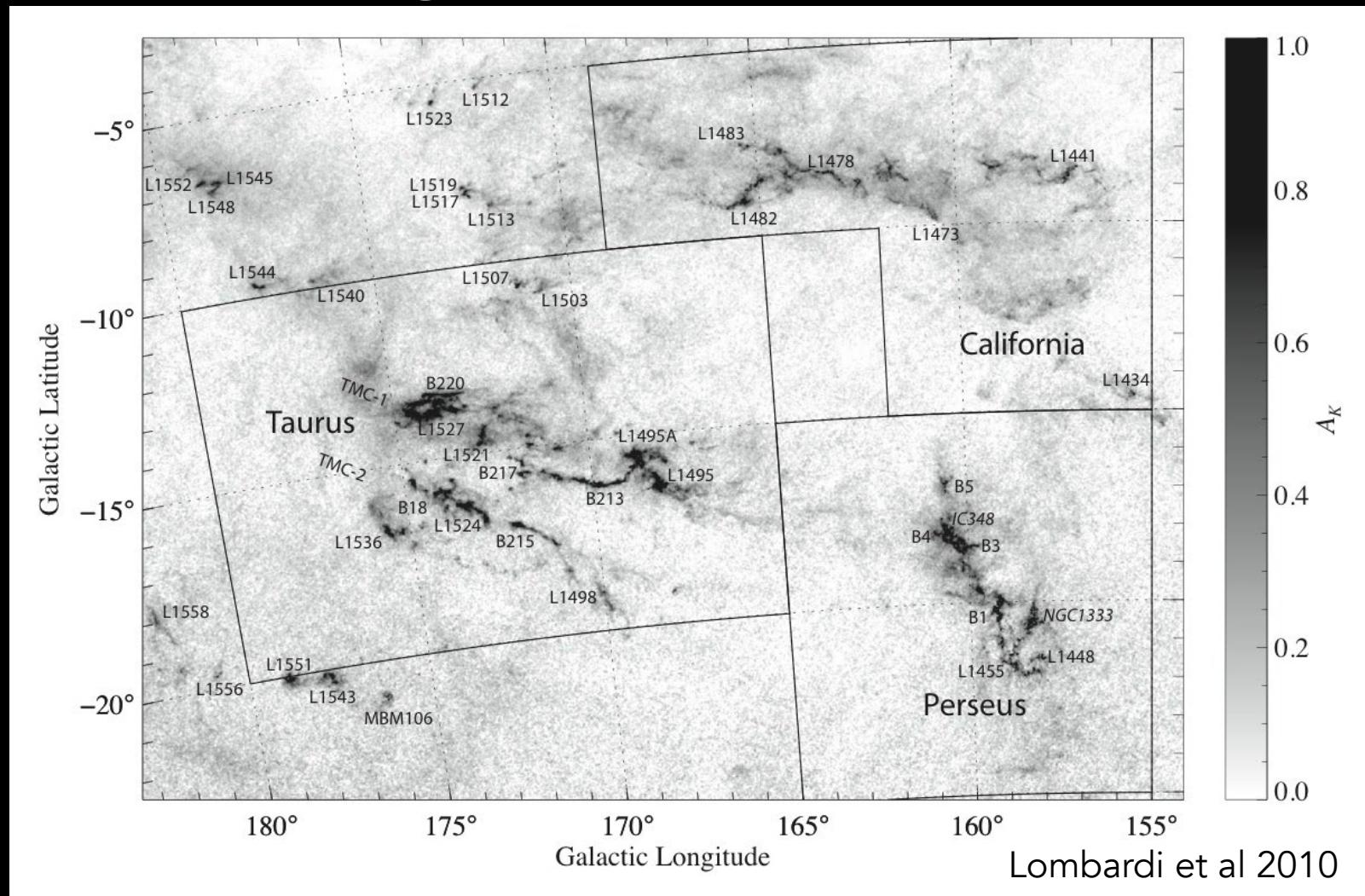
where  $\mu$  is the mean molecular weight,  $\beta_K \equiv [N(\text{HI}) + 2N(\text{H}_2)]/A_K \simeq 1.67 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ mag}^{-1}$  is the gas-to-dust ratio (Savage & Mathis 1979; Lilley 1955; Bohlin et al. 1978), and  $m_p$  is the proton mass. With a standard gas composition (63% hydrogen, 36% helium, and 1% dust) we have  $\mu \simeq 1.37$  and therefore  $\Sigma/A_K \simeq 183 M_{\odot} \text{ pc}^{-2} \text{ mag}^{-1}$ .

But, only holds on larger scales.

Breaks down for single clouds & cores

# Internal Structure of Molecular Clouds

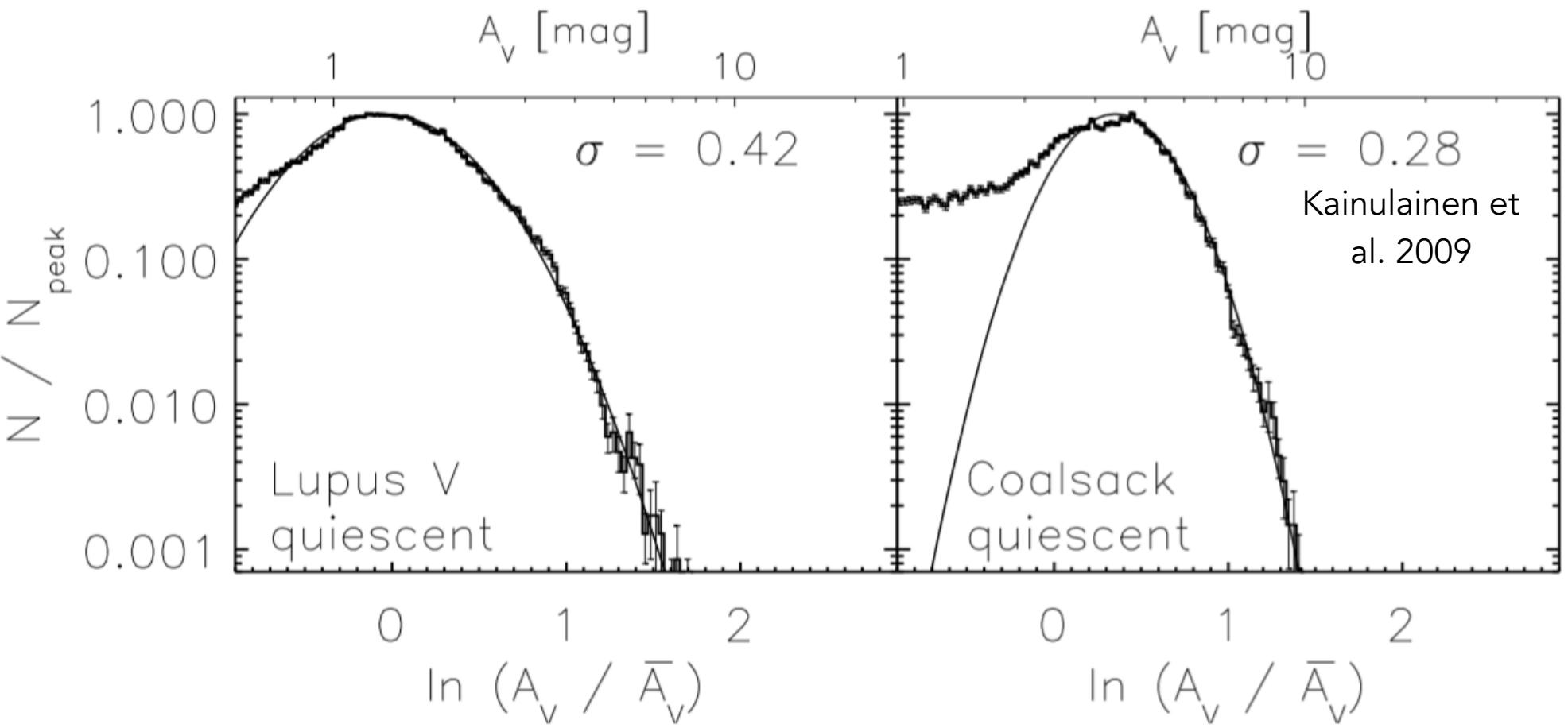
# Characterizing turbulent cloud structure



Measure the distribution of extinctions  $A_V$ , as a proxy for gas column density

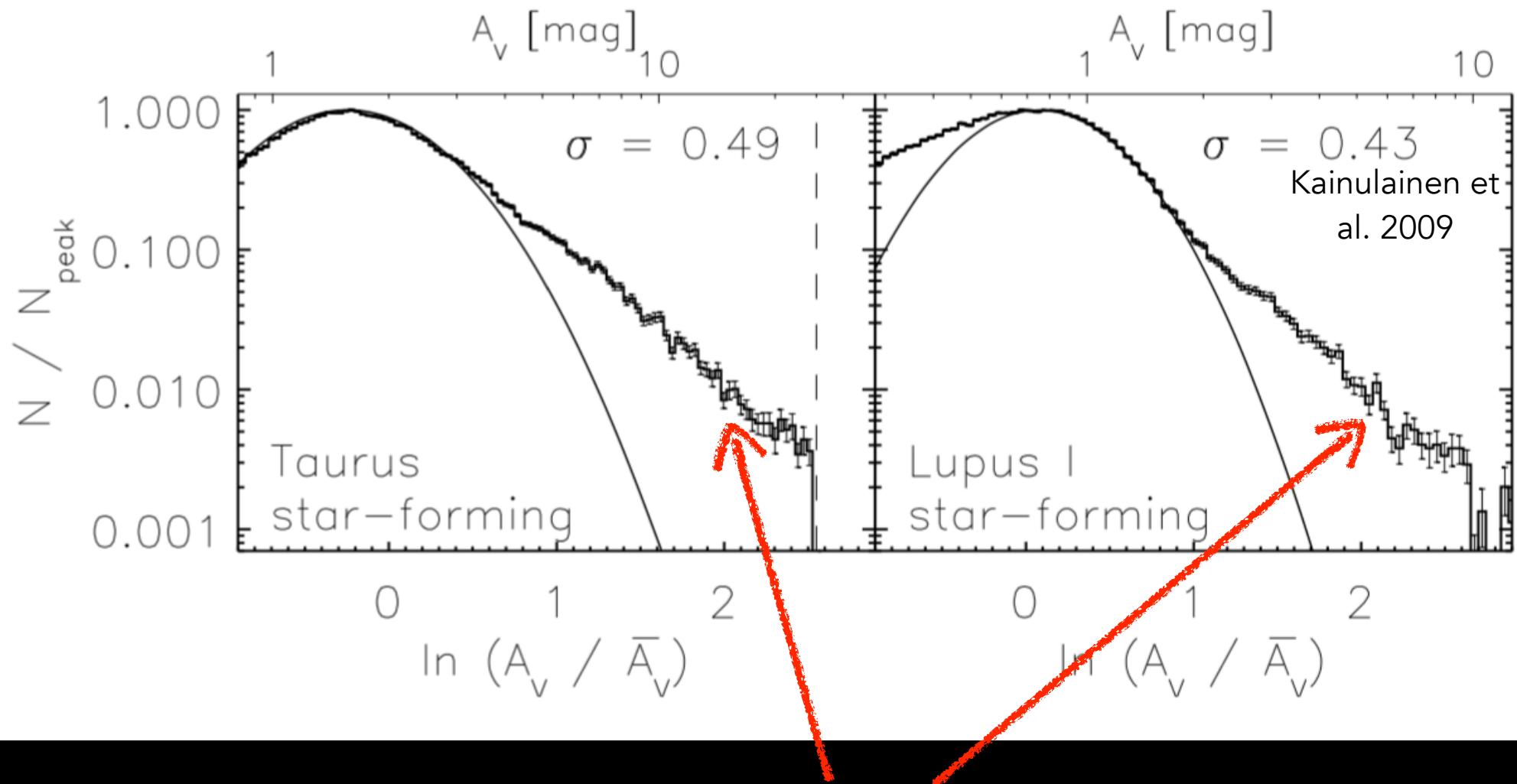
Assuming a uniform dust-to-gas ratio

# Distribution of densities within cloud



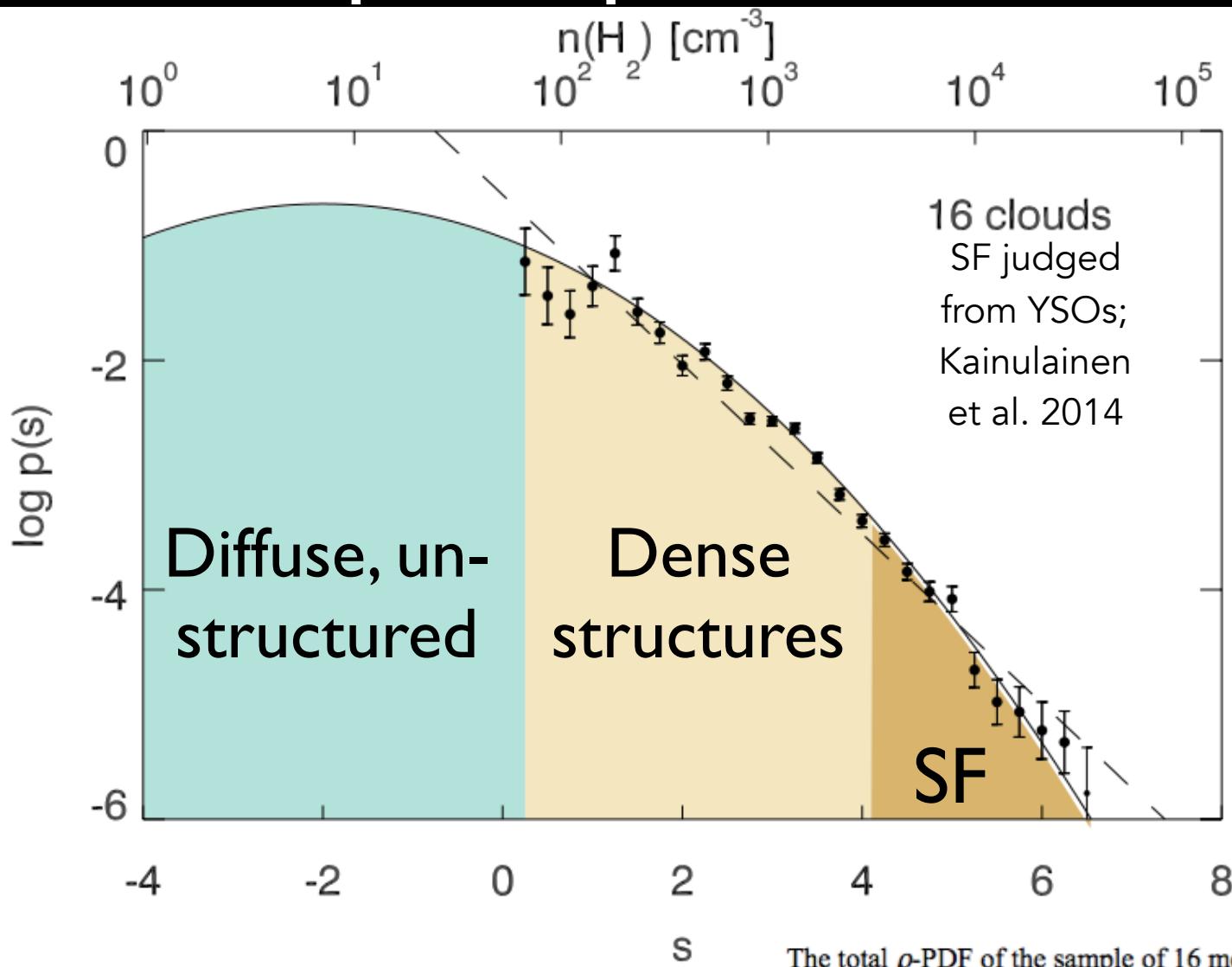
Log-normal  
“probability distribution function” (PDF)  
of column & space densities

# Log-normal + power law if star forming



Actively star forming clouds show a power-law tail to higher densities

# Only highest densities ( $>5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) participate in star formation



- 2.5% of molecular gas is “SF”
- 16% of “SF” gas turns into stars
- Thus need  $30\text{M}_\odot$  cloud to form a  $0.8\text{M}_\odot$  star, and  $70,000\text{M}_\odot$  to form a  $20\text{M}_\odot$  star

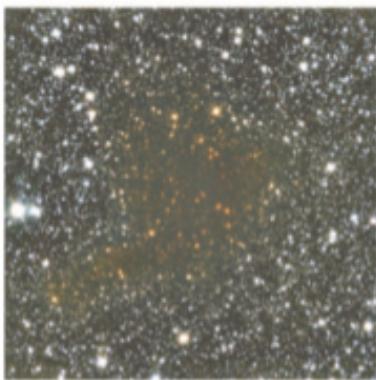
$s = \ln(\rho/\rho_0)$  is the logarithmic, mean-normalized density.

The total  $\rho$ -PDF of the sample of 16 molecular clouds. The solid line shows a fit of a lognormal function. The dashed line shows a fit of an exponential function. The dark brown color refers to the star-forming gas in the cloud. The light brown color refers to the regime on which gas is organized into dense structures. The green color refers to the regime of diffuse, relatively non-structured gas. Using the total  $\rho$ -PDF, we derived the Milky Way star formation rate of  $3 \text{ M}_\odot / \text{yr}$ .

# Molecular clouds host “cores”

Bergin & Tafalla 2007

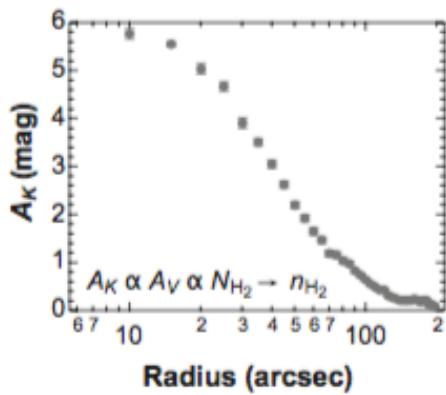
a Barnard 68 K band



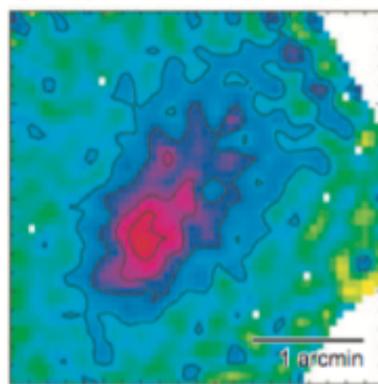
$$A_V = r_V^{H,K} E(H - K)$$

$$A_V = f N_H$$

$$N_H = (r_V^{H,K} f^{-1}) \cdot E(H - K)$$



b L1544 1.2 mm continuum



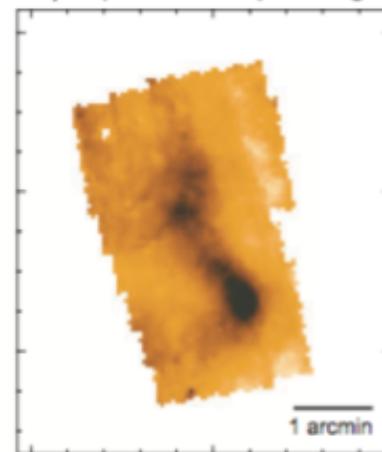
For optically thin emission:

$$I_\nu = \int \kappa_\nu \rho B_\nu(T_d) dI$$

$$I_\nu = m \langle \kappa_\nu B_\nu(T_d) \rangle N_H$$

$$N_H = I_\nu [ \langle m \kappa_\nu B_\nu(T_d) \rangle ]^{-1}$$

c  $\rho$  Oph core D 7  $\mu\text{m}$  image

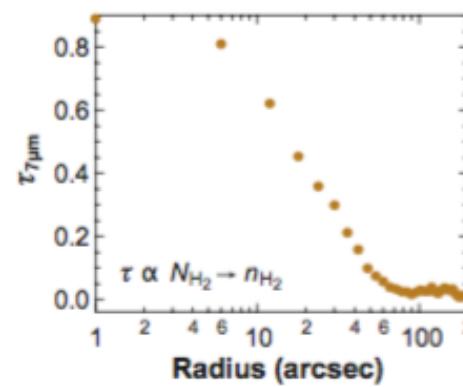
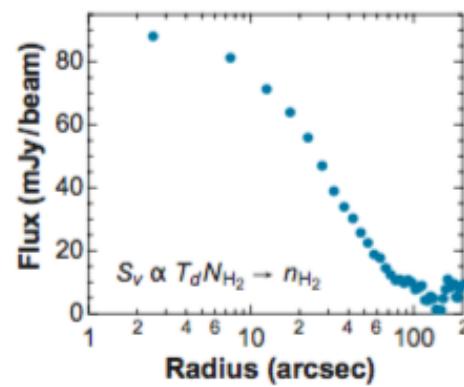


$$I_\nu = I_\nu^{bg} \exp(-\tau_\lambda) + I_\nu^{fg}$$

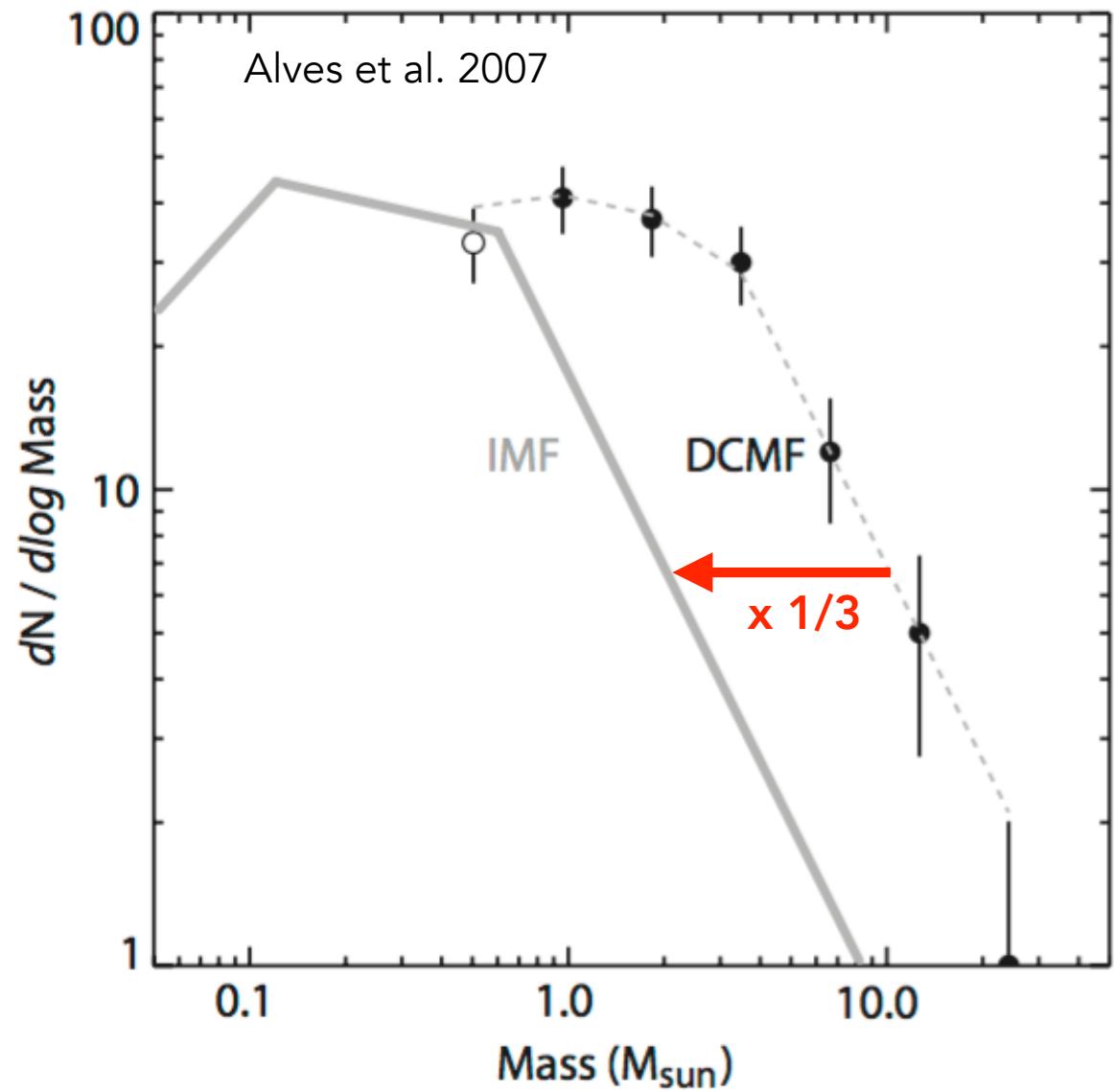
$$\tau_\lambda = \sigma_\lambda N_H$$

$$N_H = \frac{1}{\sigma_\lambda} \ln \left[ \frac{I_\nu^{bg}}{I_\nu - I_\nu^{fg}} \right]$$

Column density profiles of dense cores are similar to Bonnor-Ebert\* profile (isothermal, marginally stable spherical cloud)

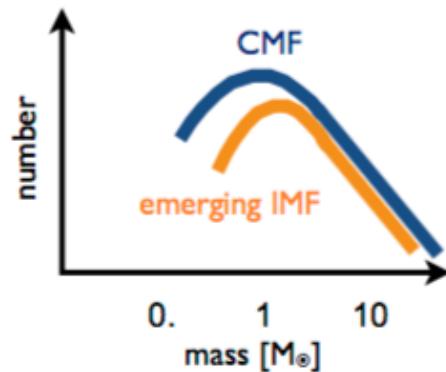


\*See derivation of Bonner-Ebert sphere in Krumholz

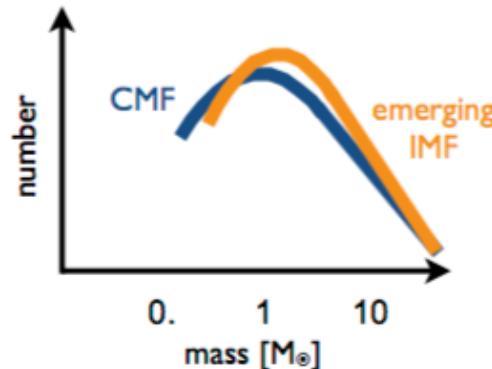


DCMF = Dark Cloud Mass Function

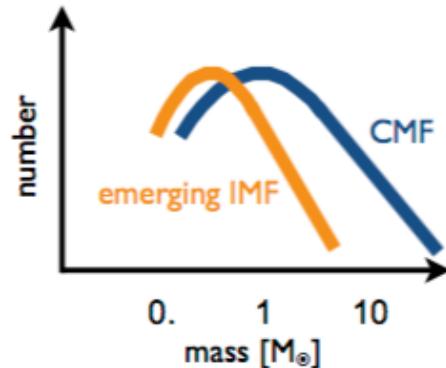
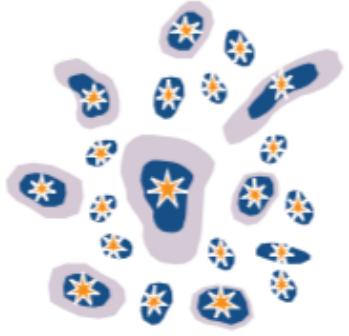
i) Not all cores are 'prestellar'. Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if the low-mass cores in the CMF are transient 'fluff'.



ii) Core growth is not self-similar. Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if, say, only the low-mass cores in the CMF are still accreting.



iii) Varying star formation efficiency (SFE). Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if the high-mass cores in the CMF have a lower SFE than their low-mass siblings.

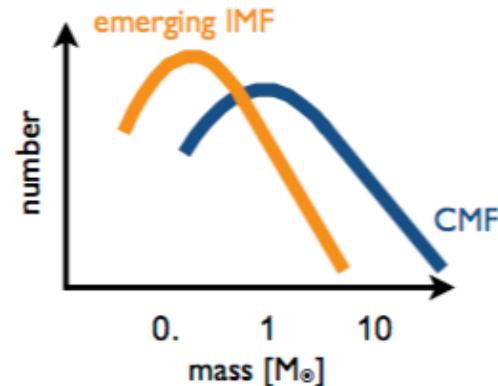


Q: When/how does the CMF map to the IMF?

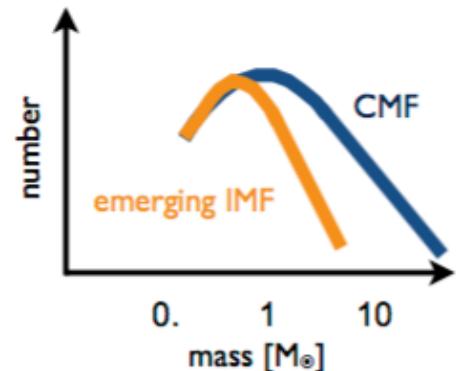
A: Don't know!

Offner et al. 2014

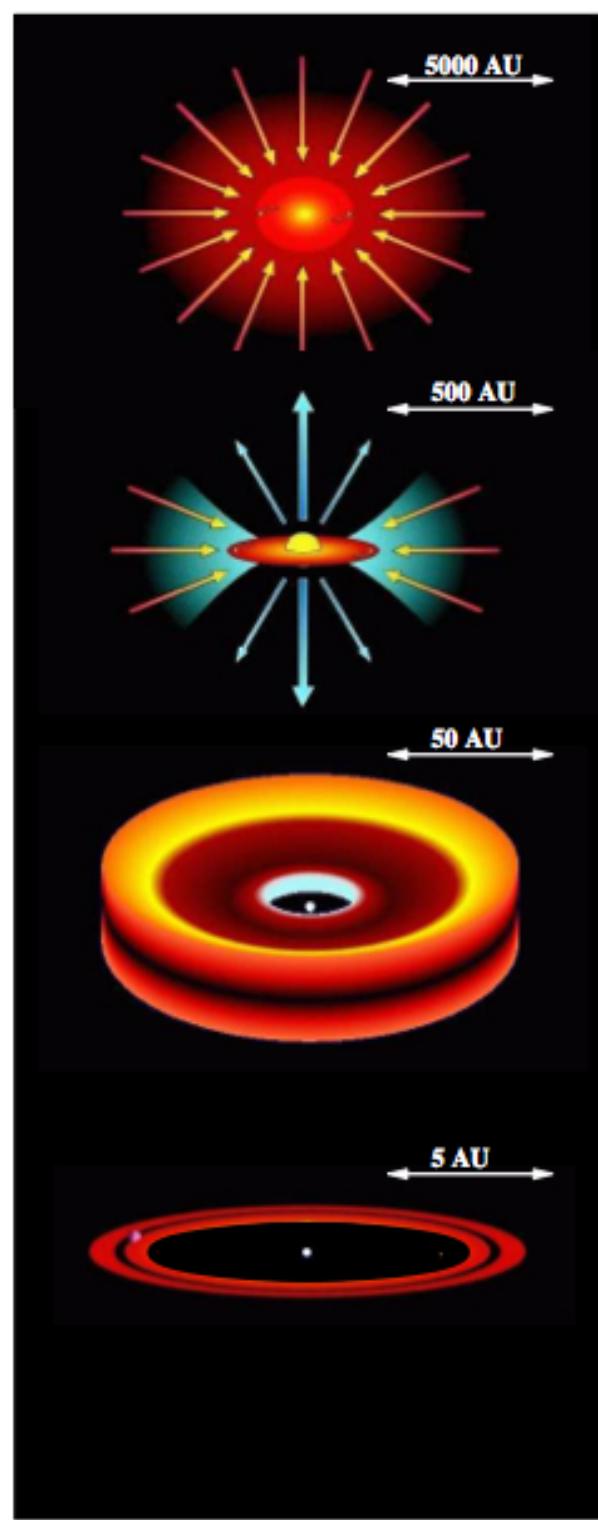
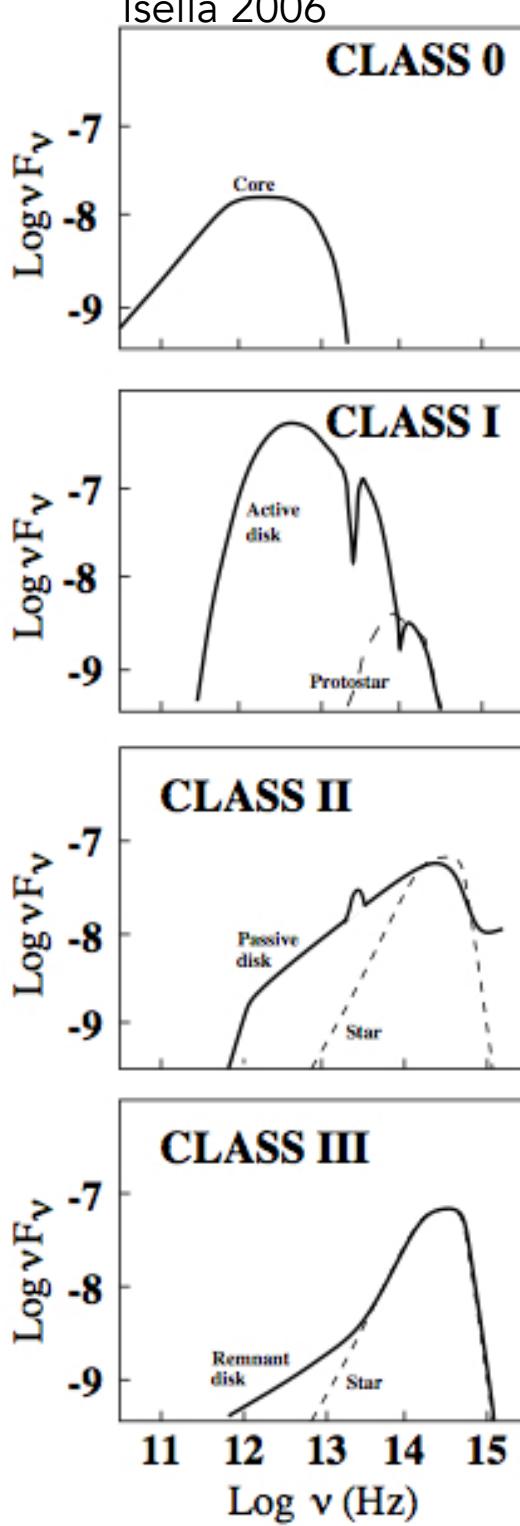
iv) Fragmentation is not self-similar. Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if the cores in the CMF fragment based on the number of initial Jeans masses they contain.



v) Varying embedded phase timescale. Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if the low-mass cores in the CMF finish before the high-mass cores.



Isella 2006



Gravitational collapse

Angular momentum  
-> disk formation  
-> outflows & jets

Most material is in a disk,  
accretion onto protostar  
through disk.

Most material accreted,  
remnant disk.

# The Physical State of Molecular Clouds (i.e., support, lifetimes, etc)

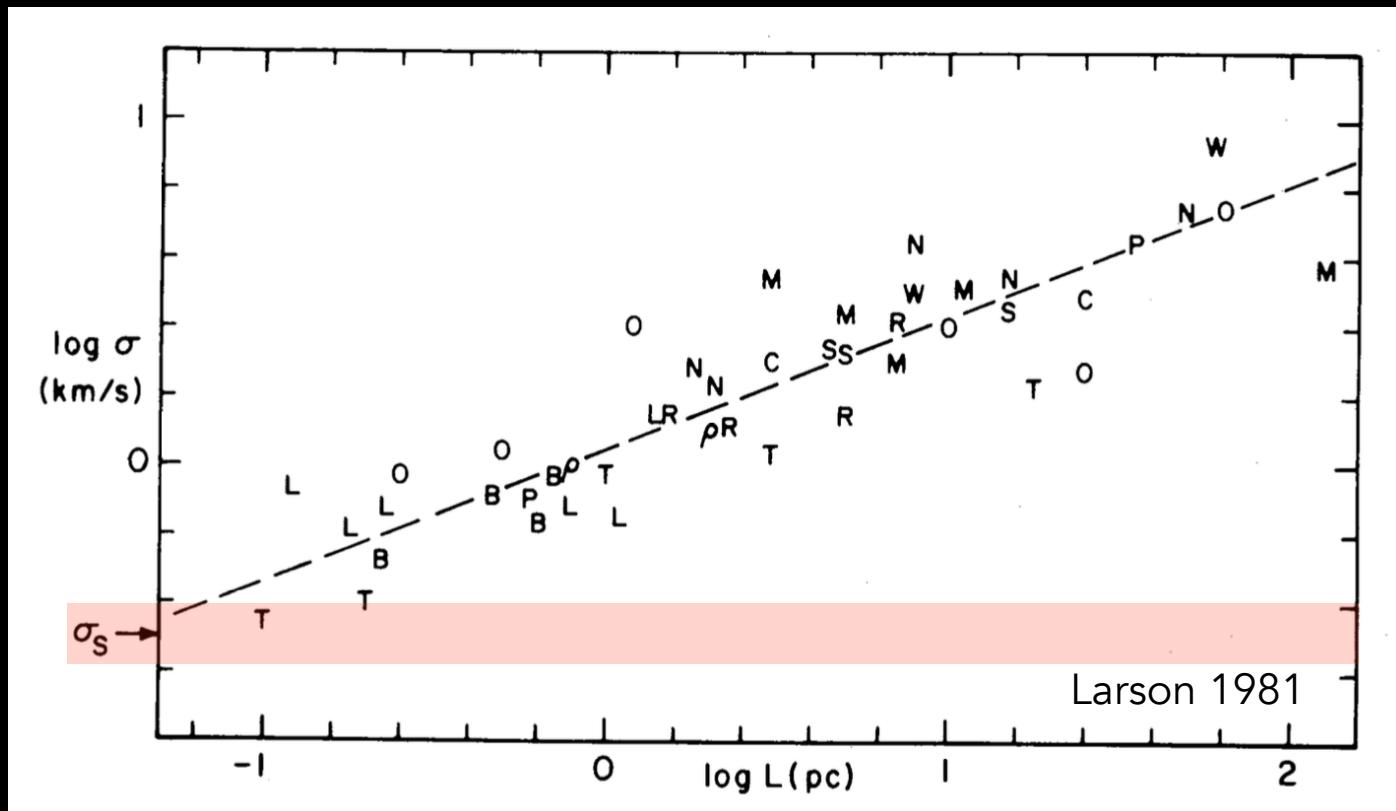
MARK R. KRUMHOLZ

NOTES ON  
STAR FORMATION

THE OPEN ASTROPHYSICS BOOKSHELF

Superb  
resource,  
especially  
“Physical  
Processes”  
chapters

# The physical state of molecular clouds



I. Velocity dispersion is  $\gg$  sound speed.  
Supersonic turbulence provides support  
against gravity.

# The physical state of molecular clouds

2. It is unclear whether clouds are gravitationally bound

Define a “virial parameter”:

$$\alpha_{\text{vir}} = \frac{2\mathcal{T}}{|\mathcal{W}|}$$

Where:  $\mathcal{T} = \int_V \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 + \frac{3}{2} P \right) dV$  is KE

$\mathcal{W} = - \int_V \rho \mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla \phi dV$  is gravitational binding energy

Observational approximation:  $\alpha_{\text{vir}} = 5\sigma_v R / GM$

# The physical state of molecular clouds

2. It is unclear whether clouds are gravitationally bound

Define a “virial parameter”:

$$\alpha_{\text{vir}} = \frac{2\mathcal{T}}{|\mathcal{W}|}$$

Where:  $\mathcal{T} = \int_V \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 + \frac{3}{2} P \right) dV$  is KE

$\mathcal{W} = - \int_V \rho \mathbf{r} \cdot \nabla \phi dV$  is gravitational binding energy

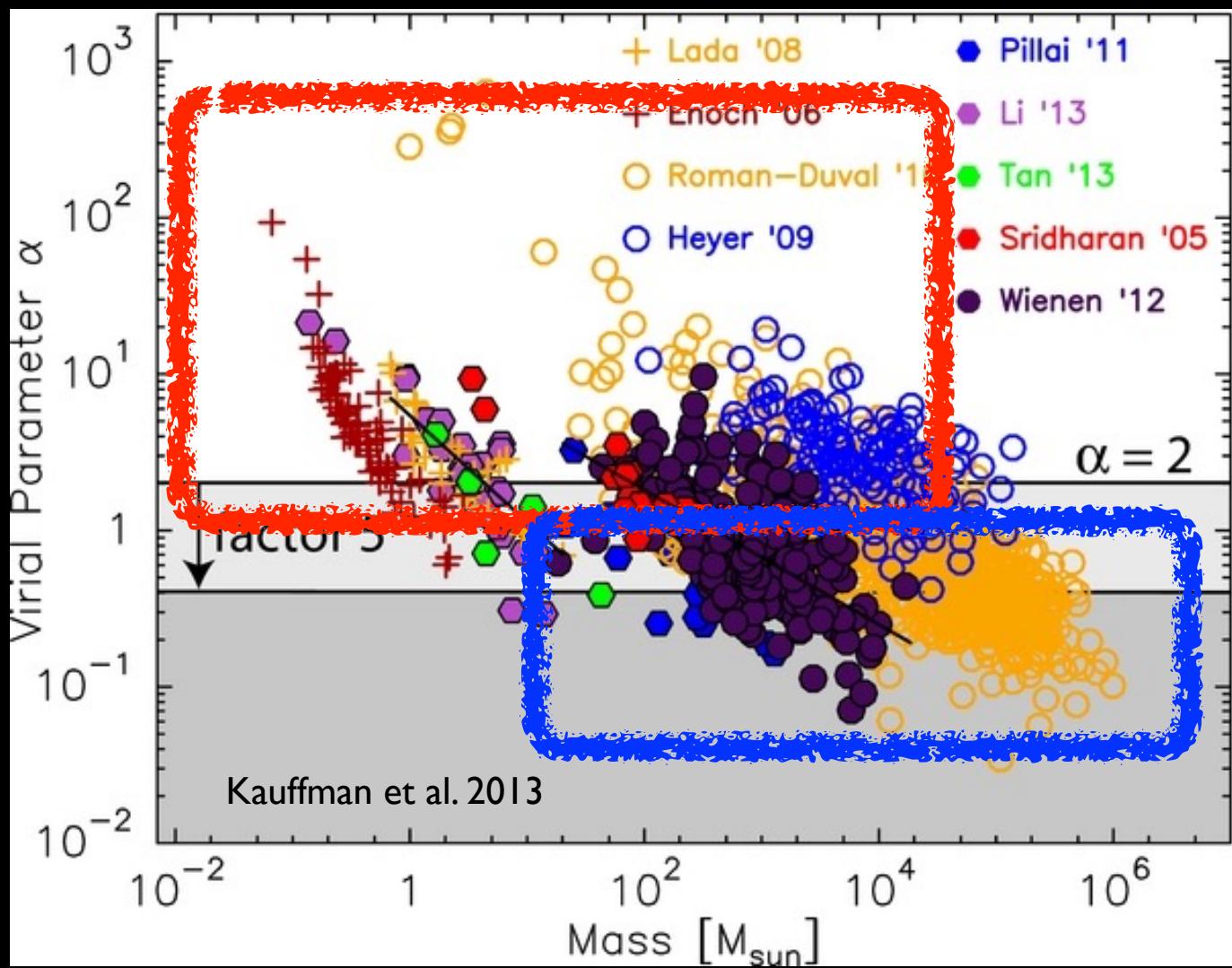
$\alpha < 1$  implies gravitational binding counteracts motions

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 2. It is unclear whether clouds are gravitationally bound

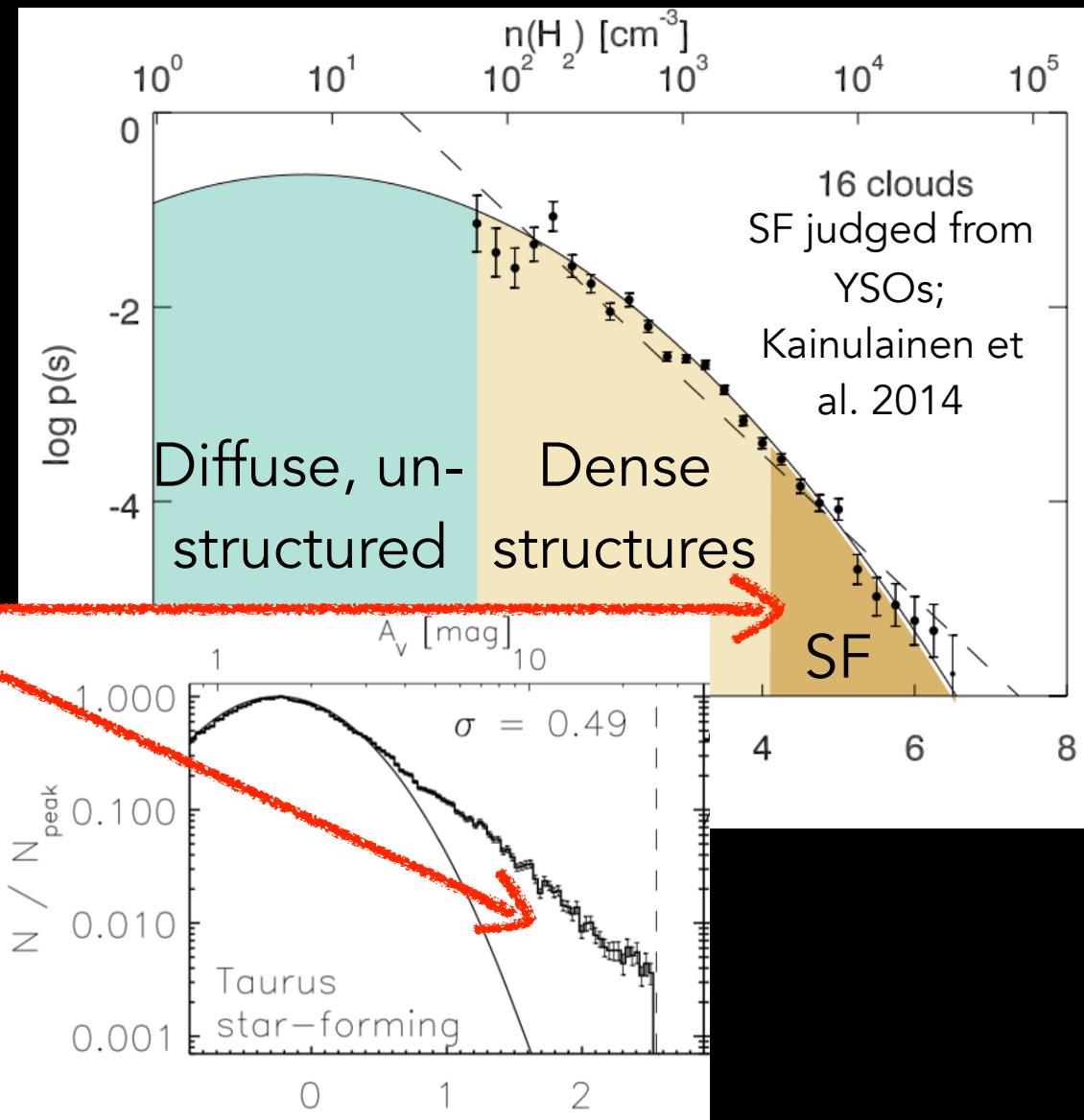
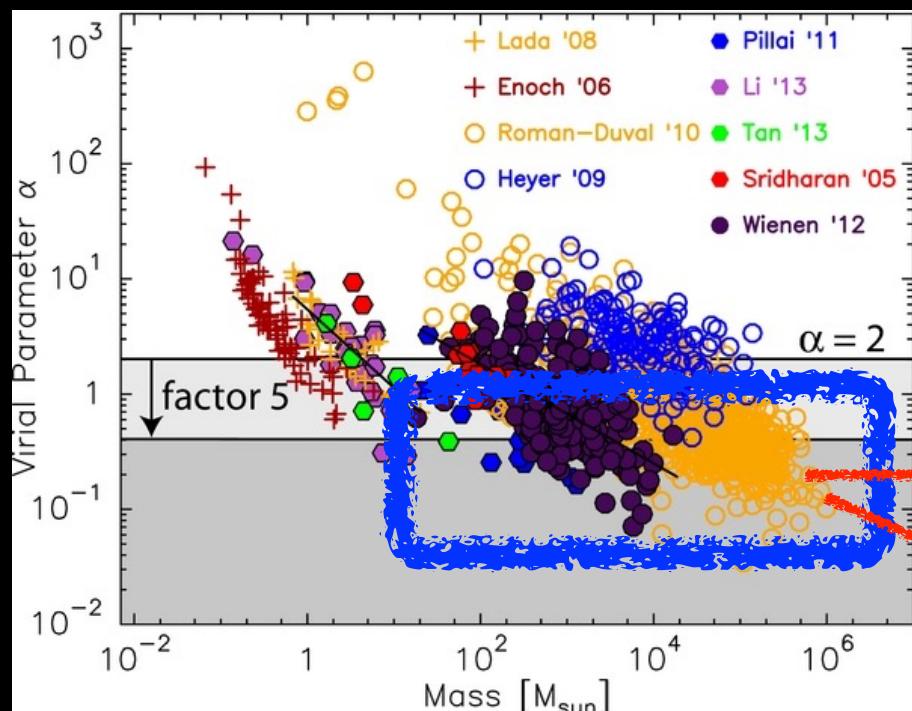
Lower mass  
MCs seem less  
likely to be  
bound

Higher mass  
ones do seem  
bound



# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 2. It is unclear whether clouds are gravitationally bound



SF & high density tails may be where self-gravity is dominating evolution

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 3. Other factors are important for confinement

*Full virial theorem\**

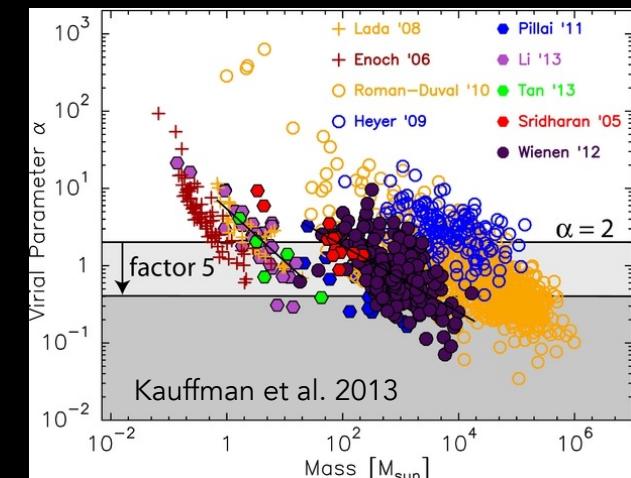
$$\frac{1}{2} \ddot{I} = 2(\mathcal{T} - \mathcal{T}_S) + \mathcal{B} + \mathcal{W}$$

$$\mathcal{T}_S = \int_S rP dS$$

Confining pressure over surface

$$\mathcal{B} = \frac{1}{8\pi} \int_V (B^2 - B_0^2) dV$$

Net magnetic energy (for field  $B$  in cloud)

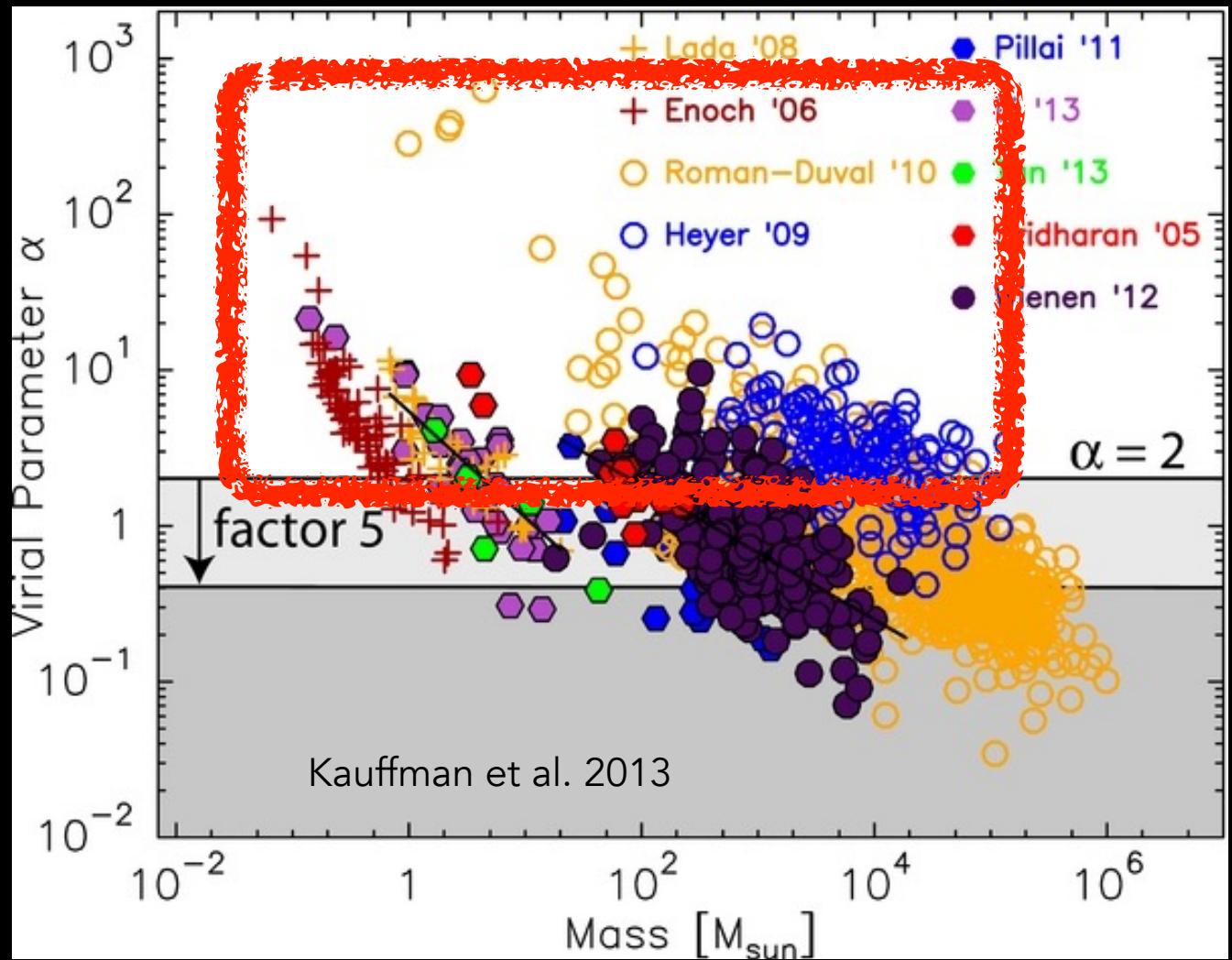


\*ignoring mass flows and assuming uniform external magnetic field  $B_0$

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 3. Other factors are important for confinement

Possible pressure confinement or magnetic support if these are stable



$$P = \rho \sigma^2 = \frac{\pi}{2} \phi_P G \Sigma_{\text{tot}}^2$$

Galaxy midplane pressure, where  $\varphi$  is order unity

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 3. Other factors are important for confinement

GMC's are “overpressurized” compared to the diffuse ISM

WNM/CNM:  $P \sim 3800 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ K}$

GMC ( $T=10, n=10^4$ ):  $P \sim 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ K}$

Without self-gravity, GMCs would be transient (via high pressure causing expansion).

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 4. Magnetic fields may be important

$$\Phi_B = \pi B R^2$$
 Magnetic flux through the cloud surface\*

Can calculate a “magnetic critical mass” for a cloud\*\*

$$M_\Phi \equiv \sqrt{\frac{5}{2}} \left( \frac{\Phi_B}{3\pi G^{1/2}} \right)$$

Clouds above this mass will collapse, and can never be halted by magnetic forces

\*Assuming flux freezing, which may not always hold

\*\*Which is constant as cloud collapses, if flux freezing holds

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 4. Magnetic fields may be important

“magnetic critical mass”

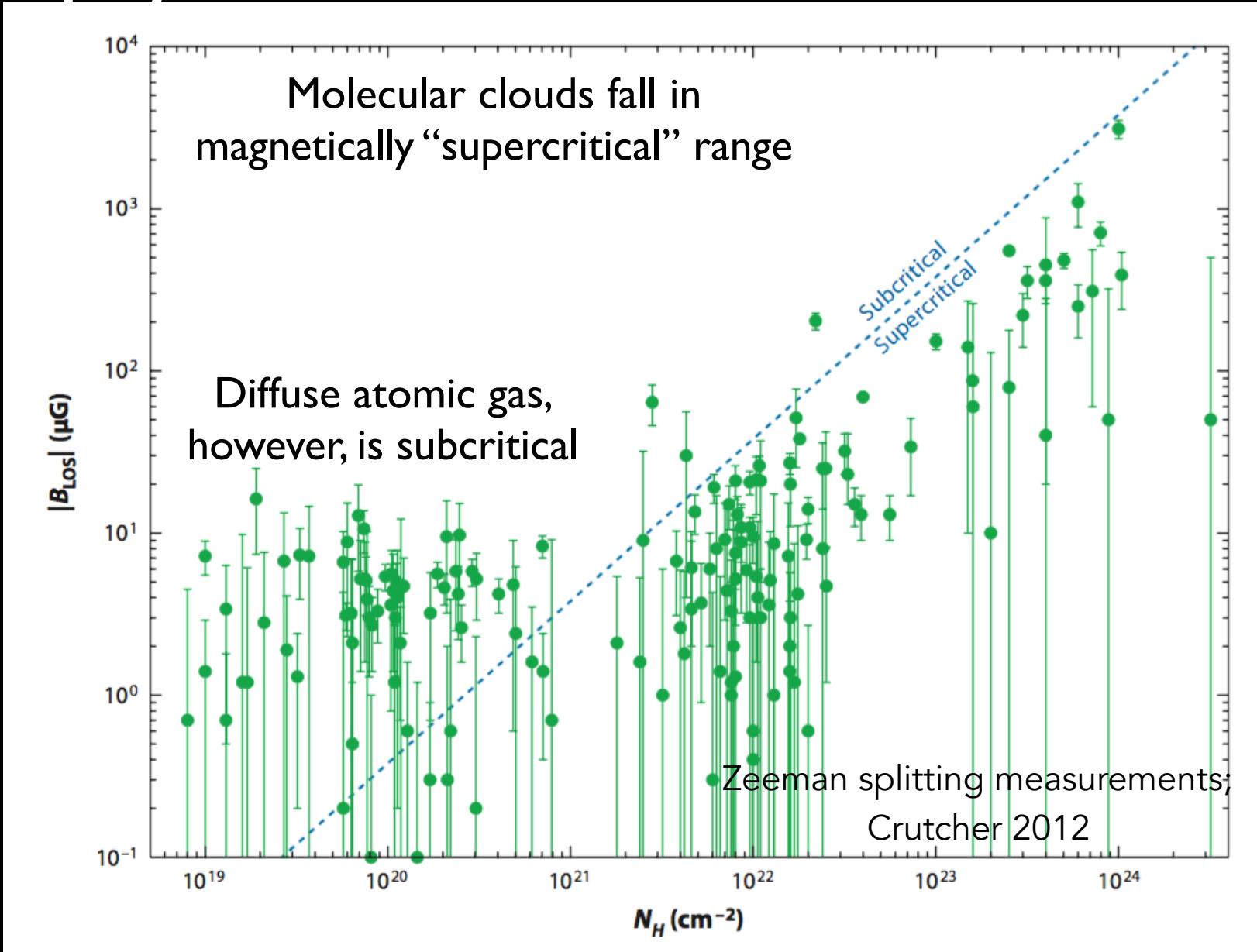
$$M_\Phi \equiv \sqrt{\frac{5}{2}} \left( \frac{\Phi_B}{3\pi G^{1/2}} \right)$$

Magnetically supercritical: Will collapse anyways

Magnetically subcritical: Can never collapse\*

\*Resists collapse more effectively as system collapses, so W can never win, unless flux-freezing breaks (ion-neutral drift), or external pressure somehow increases

# The physical state of molecular clouds



Magnetically supercritical: Will collapse anyways  
Magnetically subcritical: Can never collapse\*

# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 5. Characteristic timescales are short

Crossing time:

$$t_{\text{cr}} \equiv \frac{R}{\sigma} = \frac{0.95}{\sqrt{\alpha_{\text{vir}} G}} \left( \frac{M}{\Sigma^3} \right)^{1/4} = 14 \alpha_{\text{vir}}^{-1/2} M_6^{1/4} \Sigma_2^{-3/4} \text{ Myr}$$

Free-fall time\*:

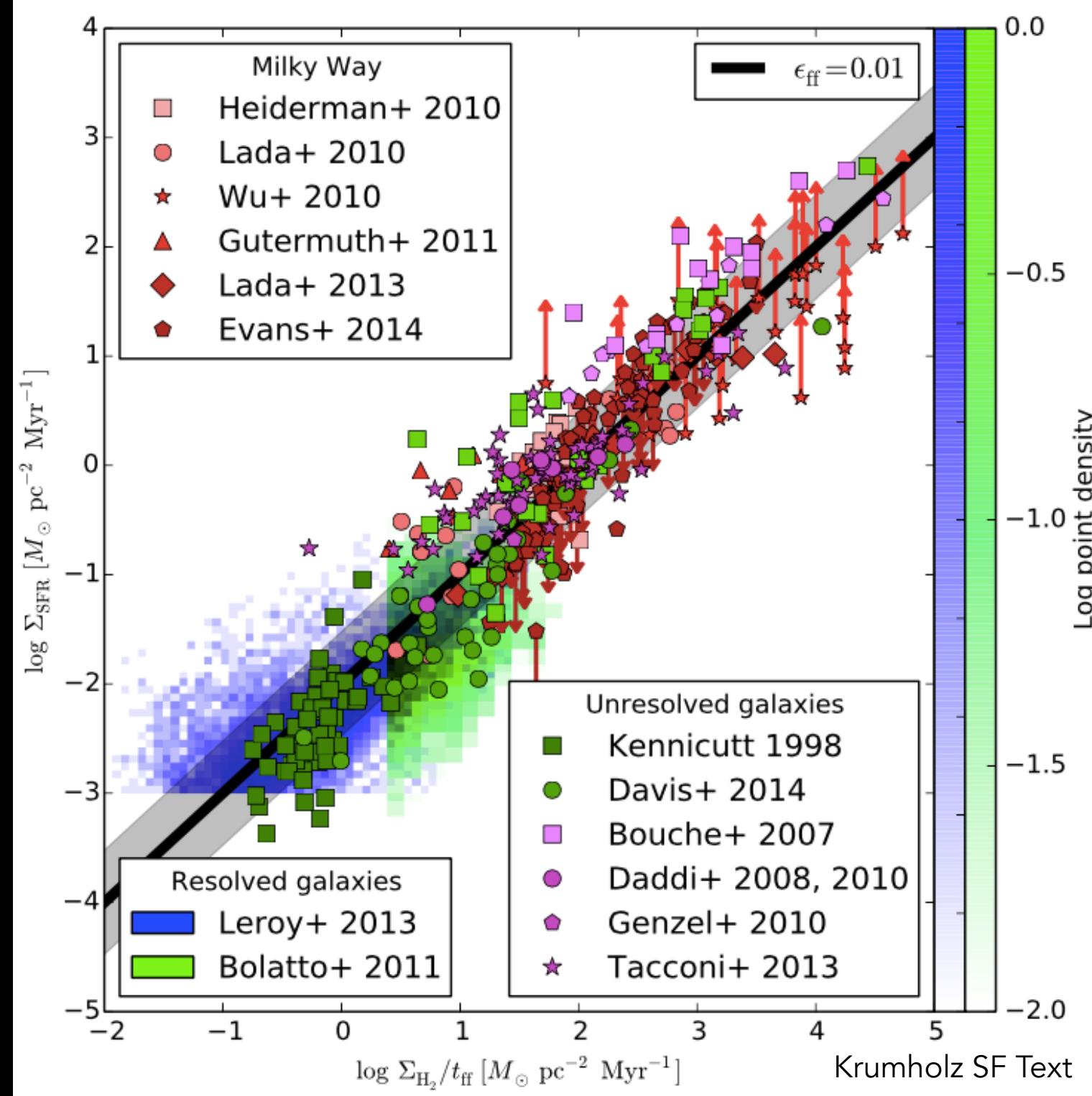
$$t_{\text{ff}} \equiv \sqrt{\frac{3\pi}{32G\rho}} = \frac{\pi^{1/4}}{\sqrt{8G}} \left( \frac{M}{\Sigma^3} \right)^{1/4} = 7.0 M_6^{1/4} \Sigma_2^{-3/4} \text{ Myr}$$

Of order 10 Myr\*\*

\*For pressureless collapse, which is not strictly applicable

\*\*And based on spherical, not filamentary structures, w/ uniform density

But, only a small (1%) fraction of molecular mass converts to stars on a free-fall time



# The physical state of molecular clouds

## 5. Characteristic timescales are short

Lifetimes are uncertain, though.

Clouds are destroyed by:

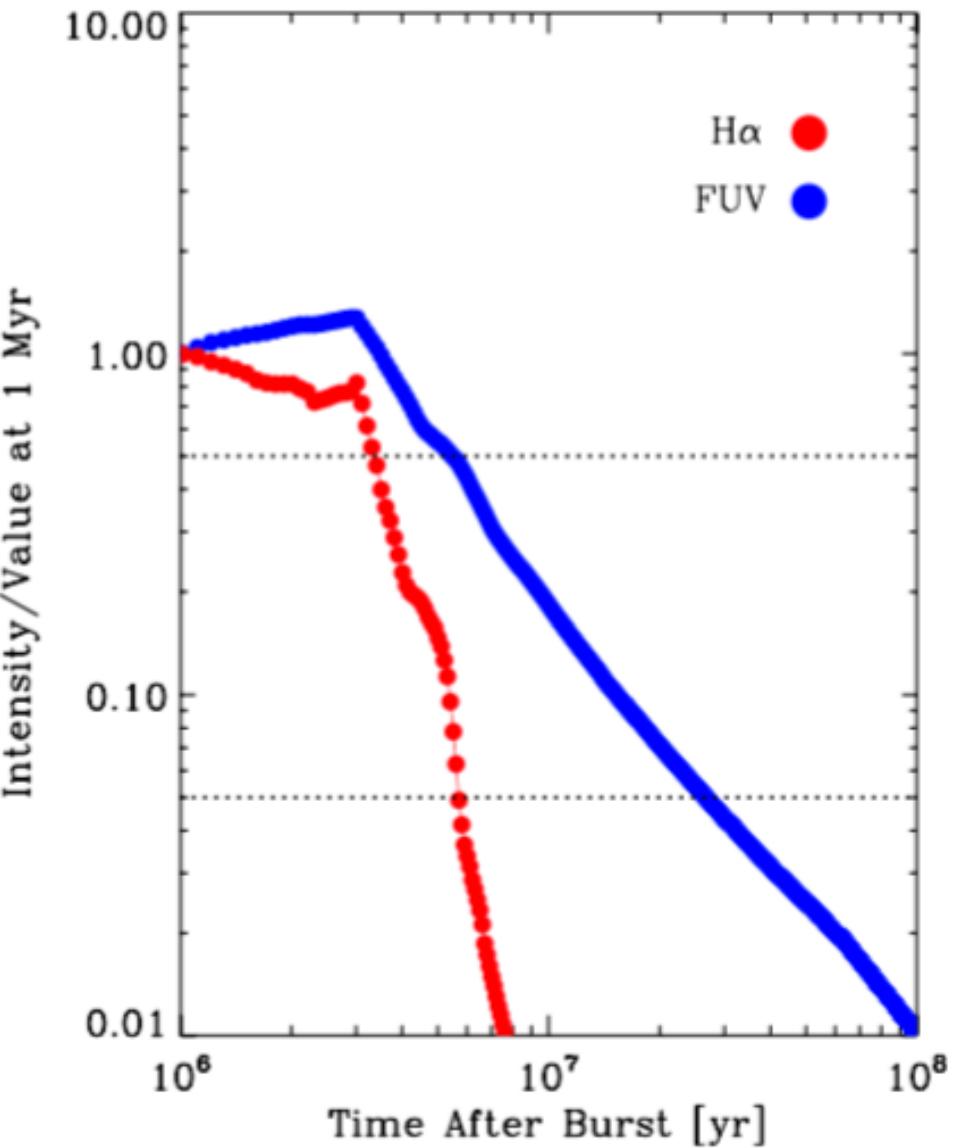
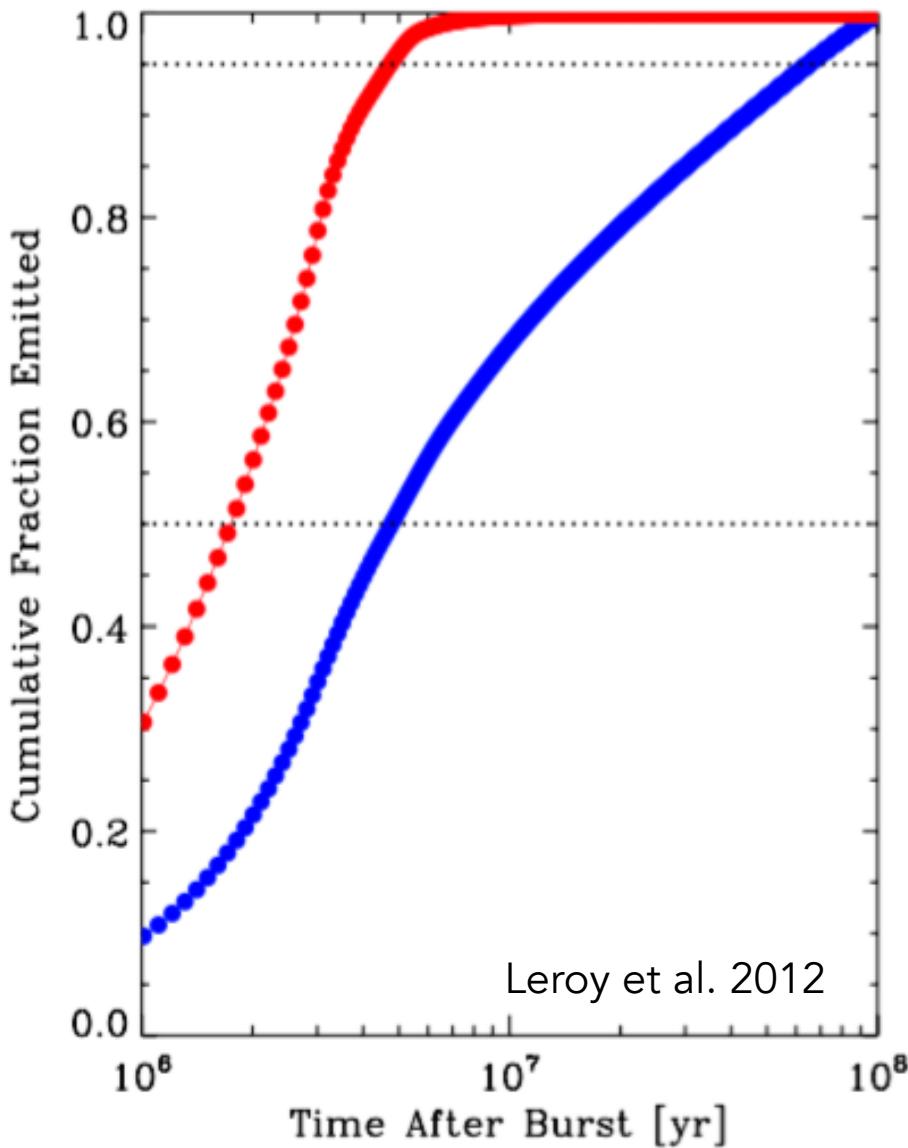
- Turbulence
- Radiative Feedback from stars
- Mechanical Feedback from stars  
(jets, winds, SNe)

# Turbulence washes out overdensities

Simulations by Fedderath

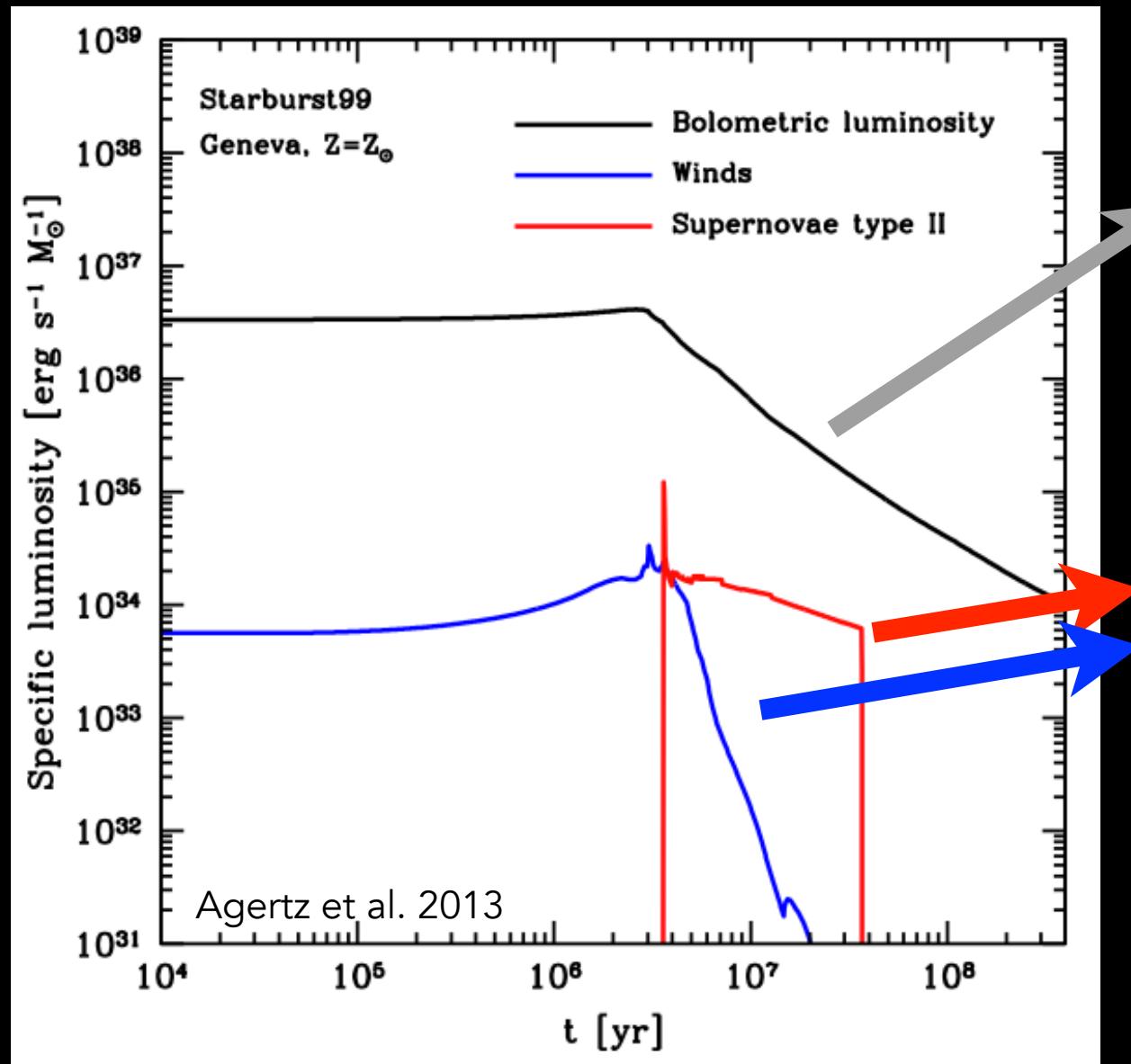


# Radiative Feedback



But, this is for synchronized burst w/ fully populated IMF,  
which may not reflect MC star formation

# Mechanical Feedback



fraction into ionization,  
photoelectric heating,  
dust heating?

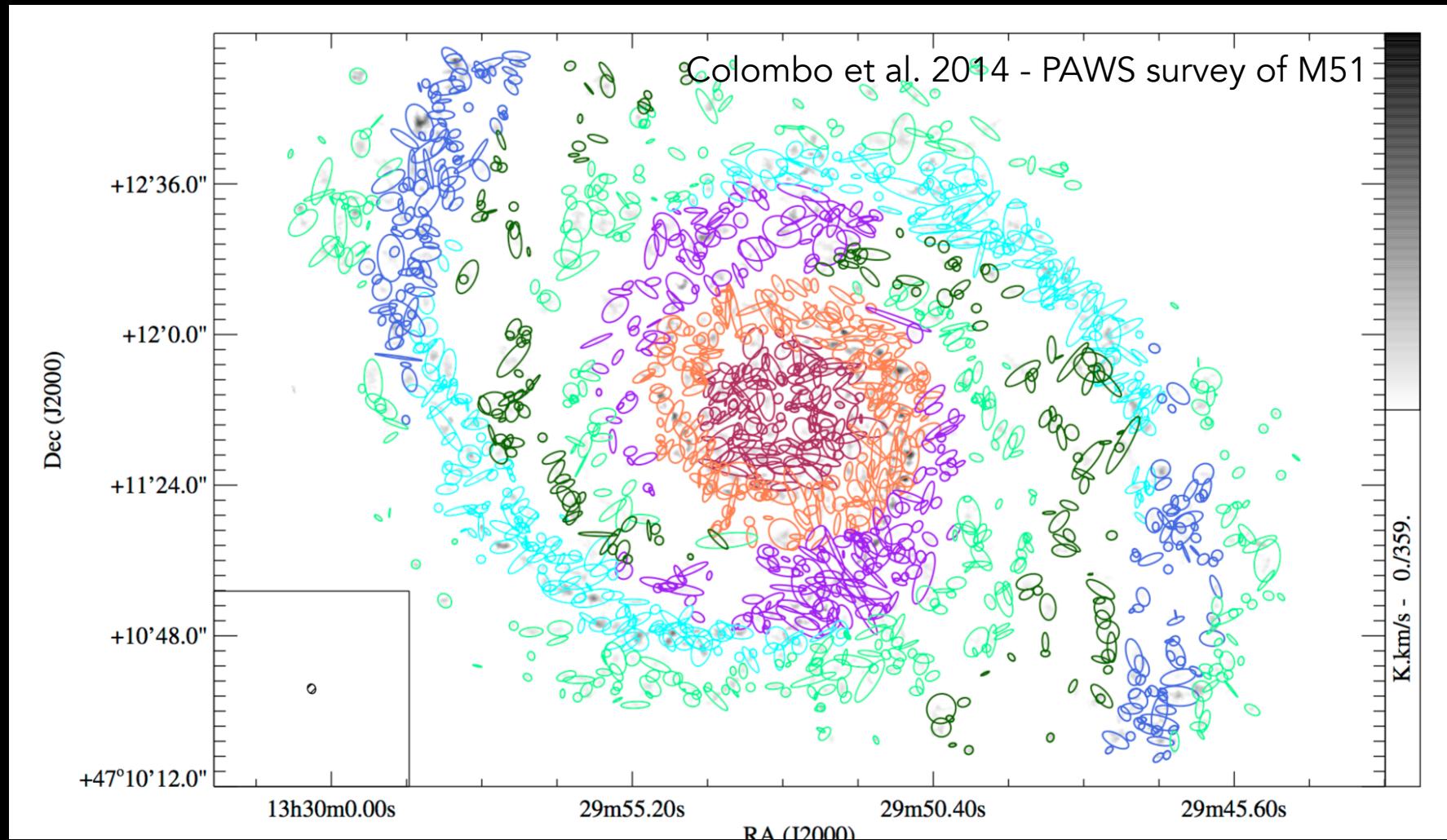
deposited where?

which phases are these  
deposited into, at what  
distances from stars?

Jets? What about  
stochastic IMF?

# The physical state of molecular clouds

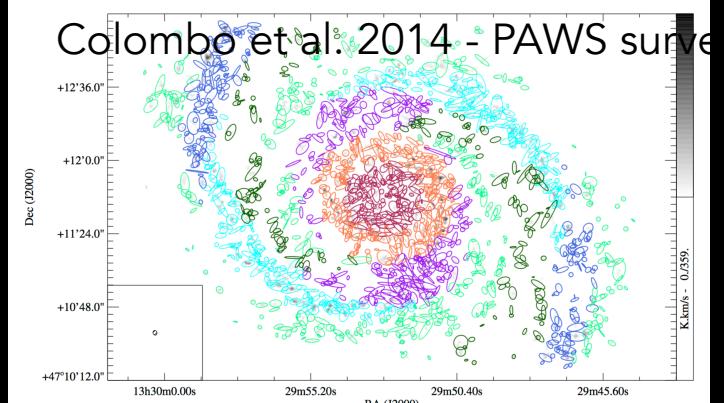
## 6. Masses span a range of values



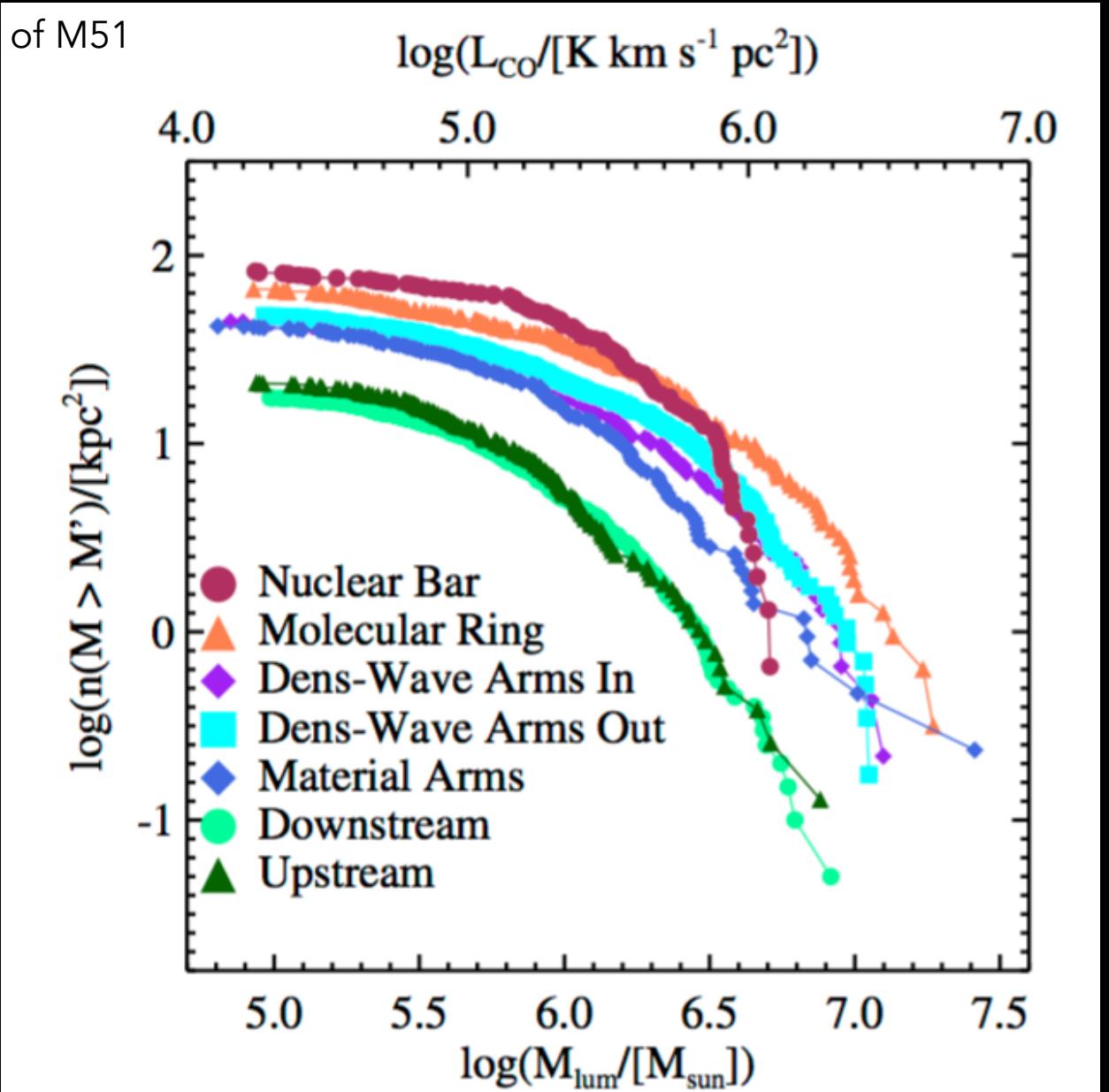
Molecular cloud identification in M51

# The physical state of molecular clouds

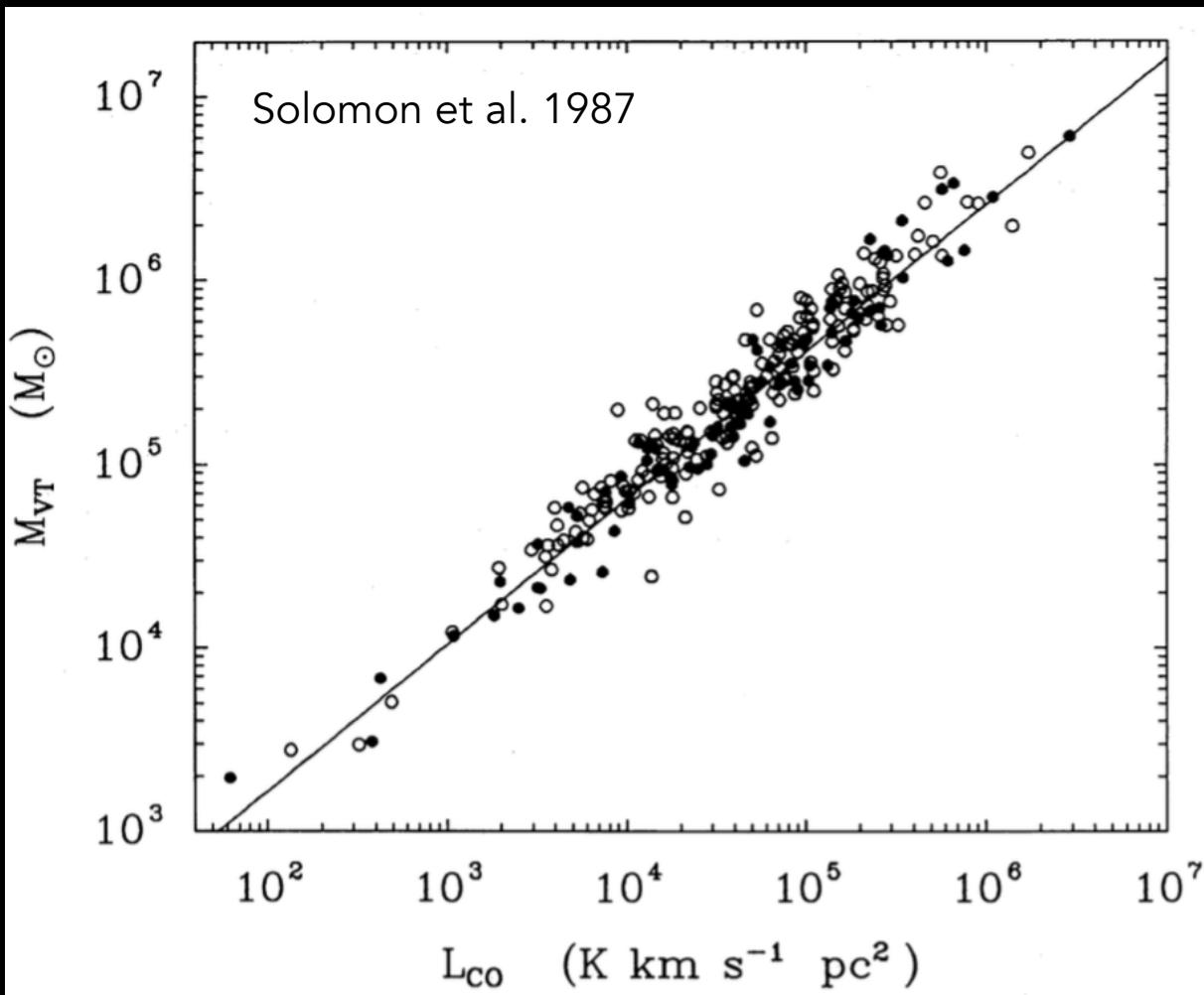
## 6. Masses span a range of values



Comparable distributions of GMC masses w/ environment



# Measuring masses of MCs



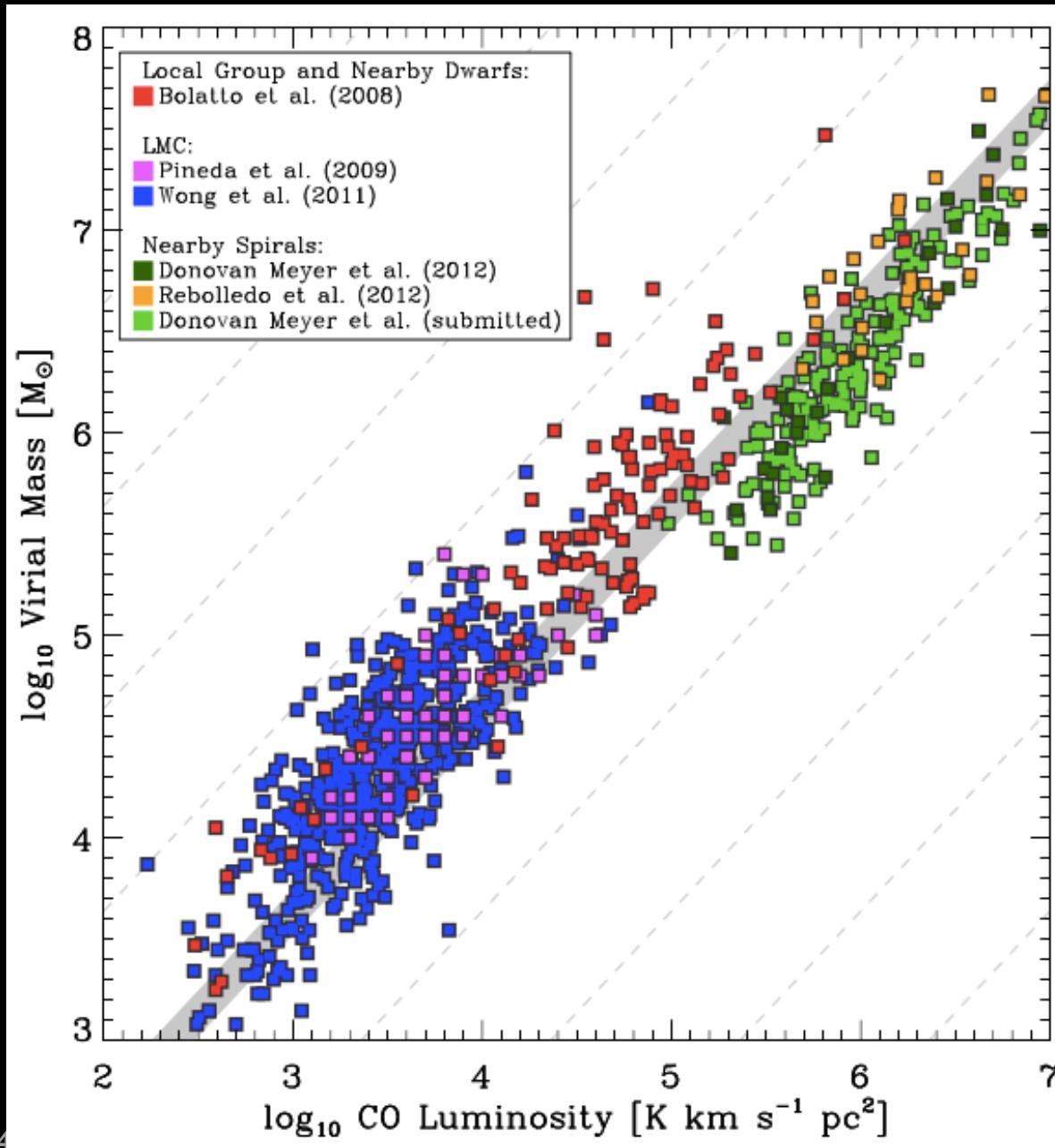
Assume clouds are in virial equilibrium (w/ no B-field, pressure,etc).

Use velocity dispersion & sizes to calculate their mass

$$(\alpha_{\text{vir}} = 5\sigma_v R/GM = 1)$$

Observed correlation between CO luminosity & inferred mass suggests scaling relation between the two

# If CO traces H<sub>2</sub>, expect CO luminosity to be perfectly correlated with cloud mass



Correlated but some scatter and systematic offsets.

Suggests environmental effects on X<sub>CO</sub>

# Understanding Observations of CO

# CO-to-H<sub>2</sub> Conversion Factors

- 2 common conventions in use
- Usually expressed in terms of column density rather than total mass

column density of H<sub>2</sub>

integrated intensity of CO line

$$N_{\text{H}_2} = X_{\text{CO}} I_{\text{CO}}$$

$X_{\text{CO}}$ : [cm<sup>-2</sup> (K km s<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>-1</sup>]

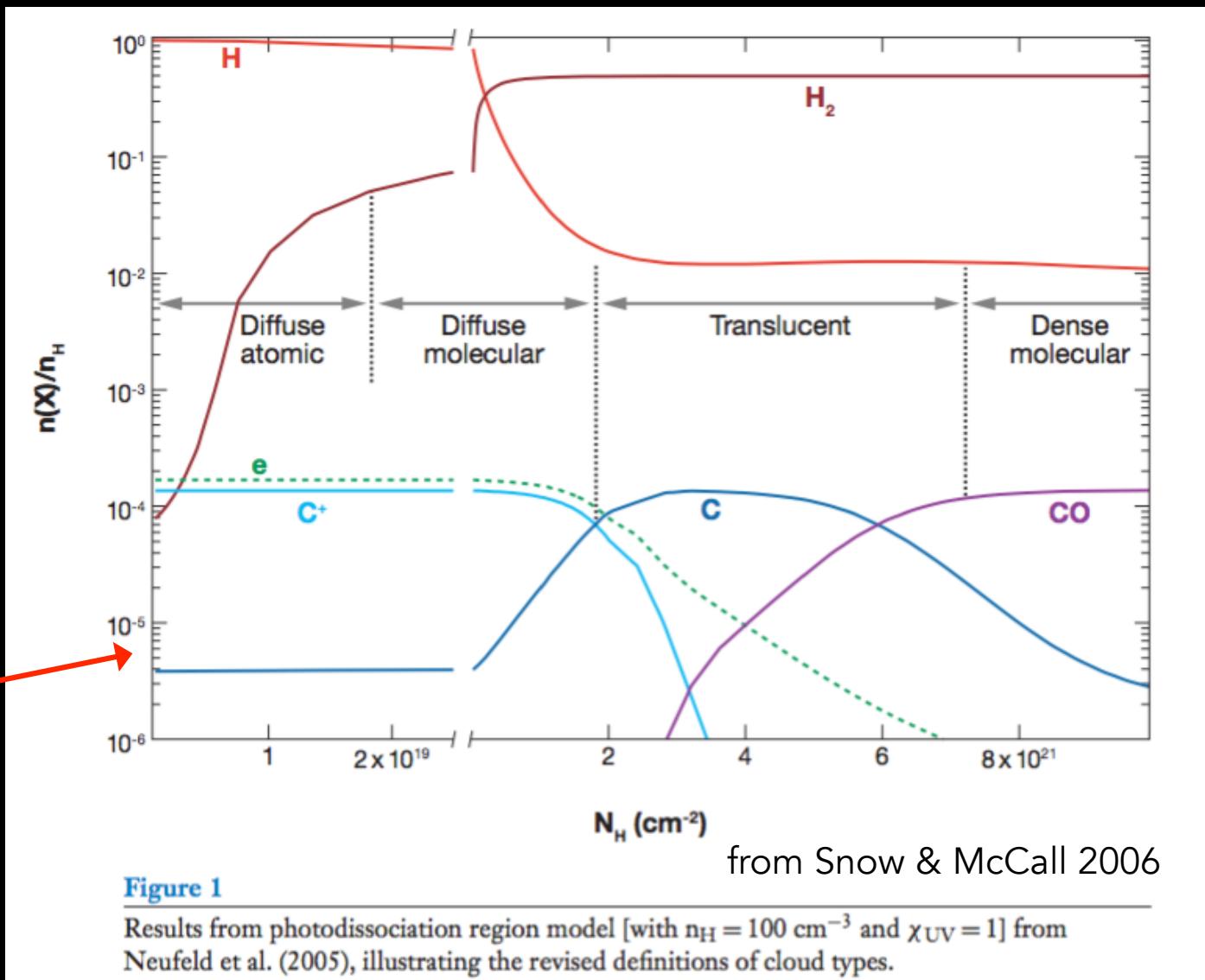
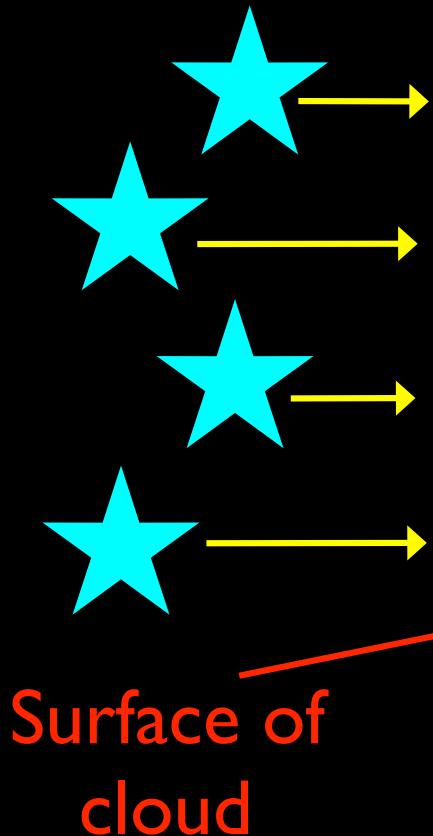
molecular gas mass surface density

$$\Sigma_{\text{mol}} = \alpha_{\text{CO}} I_{\text{CO}}$$

$\alpha_{\text{CO}}$ : [ $M_{\odot}$  pc<sup>-2</sup> (K km s<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>-1</sup>]

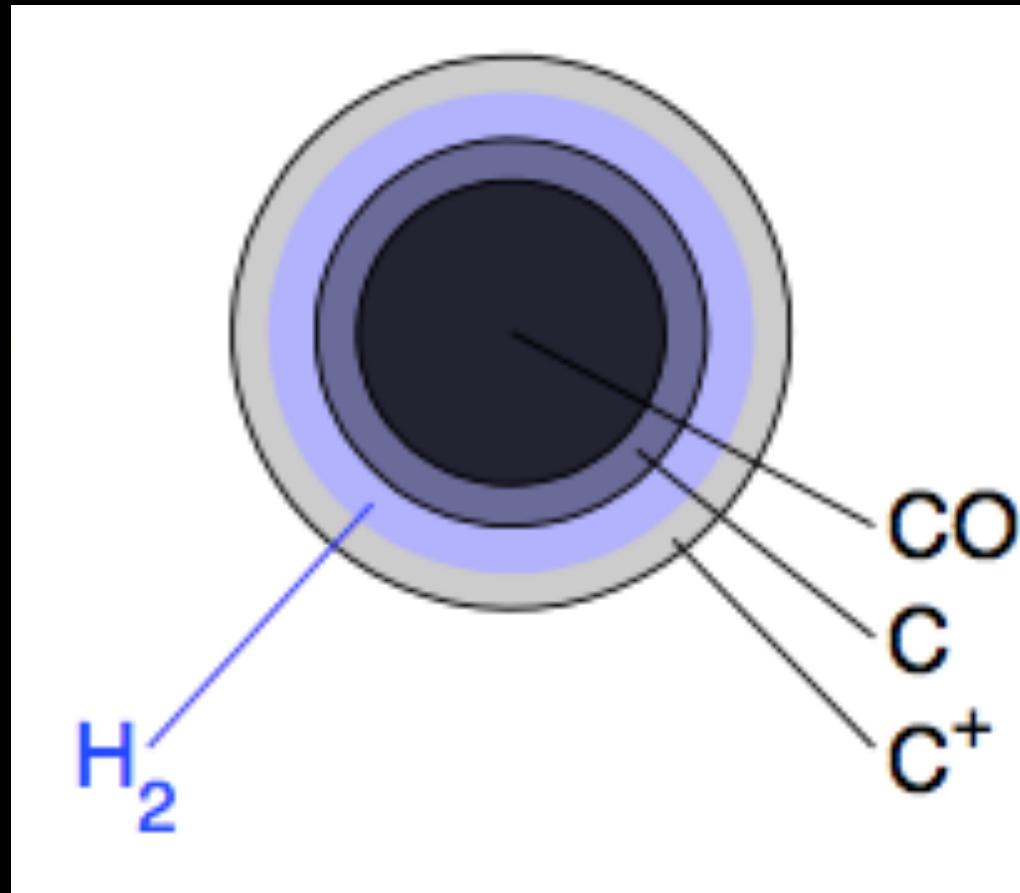
Why is CO not a uniform tracer of molecular gas mass?

# CO: Strongly affected by radiation field



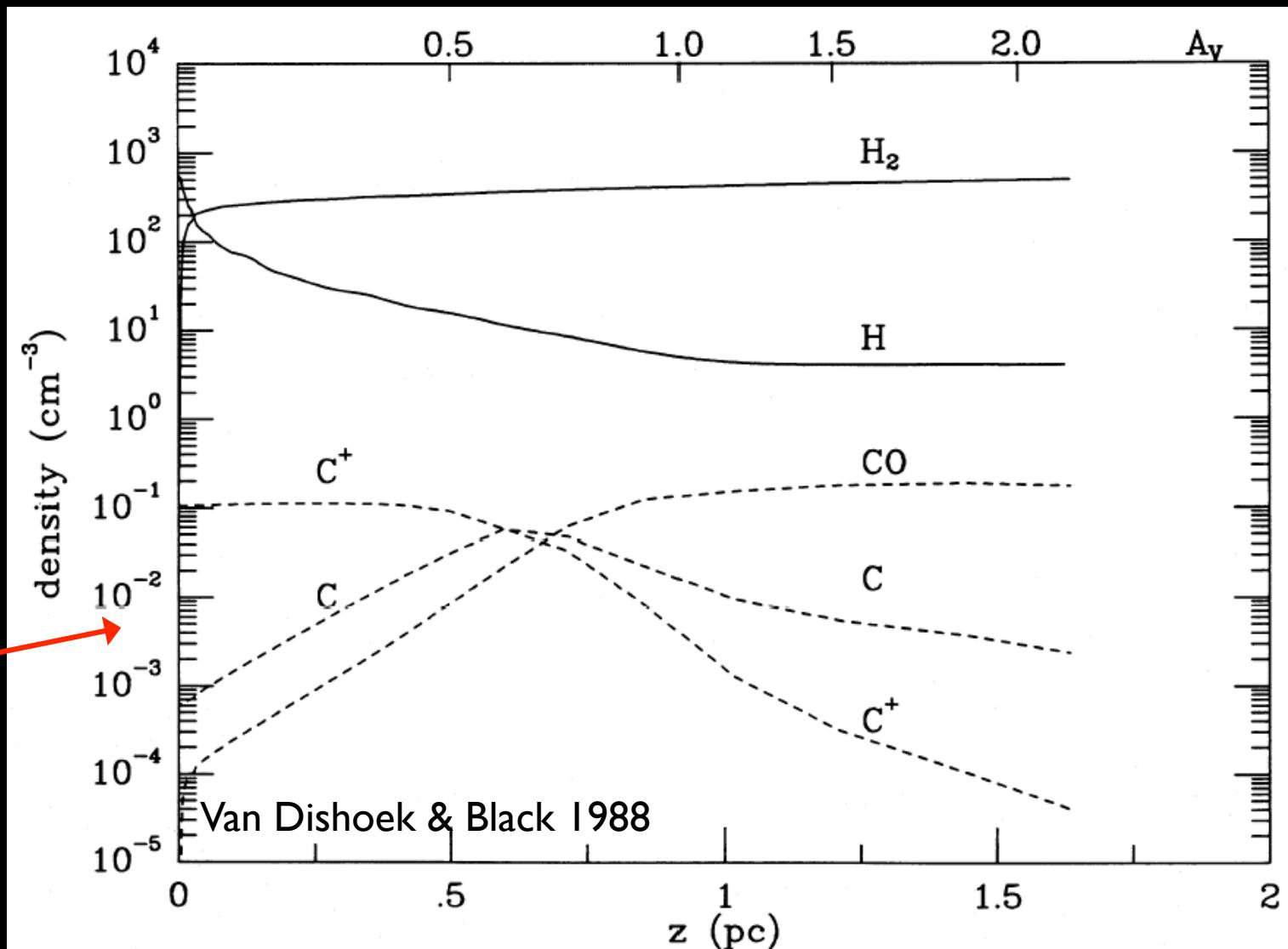
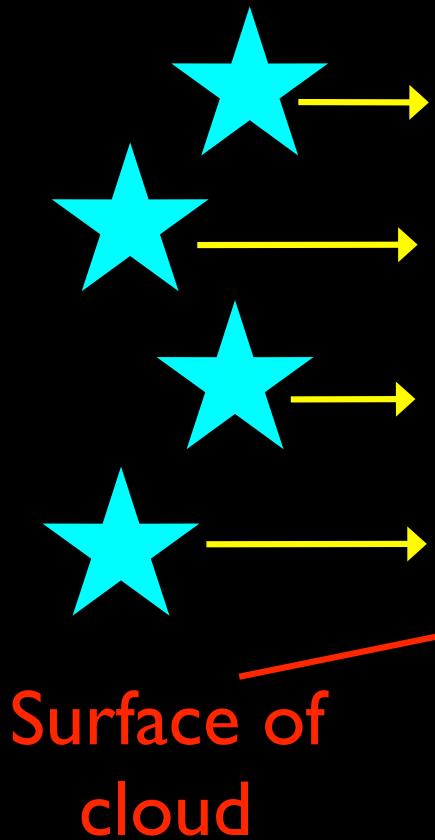
## “Photodissociation Region (PDR)”

CO is found in a smaller volume than H<sub>2</sub>



What affects relative extent of each?

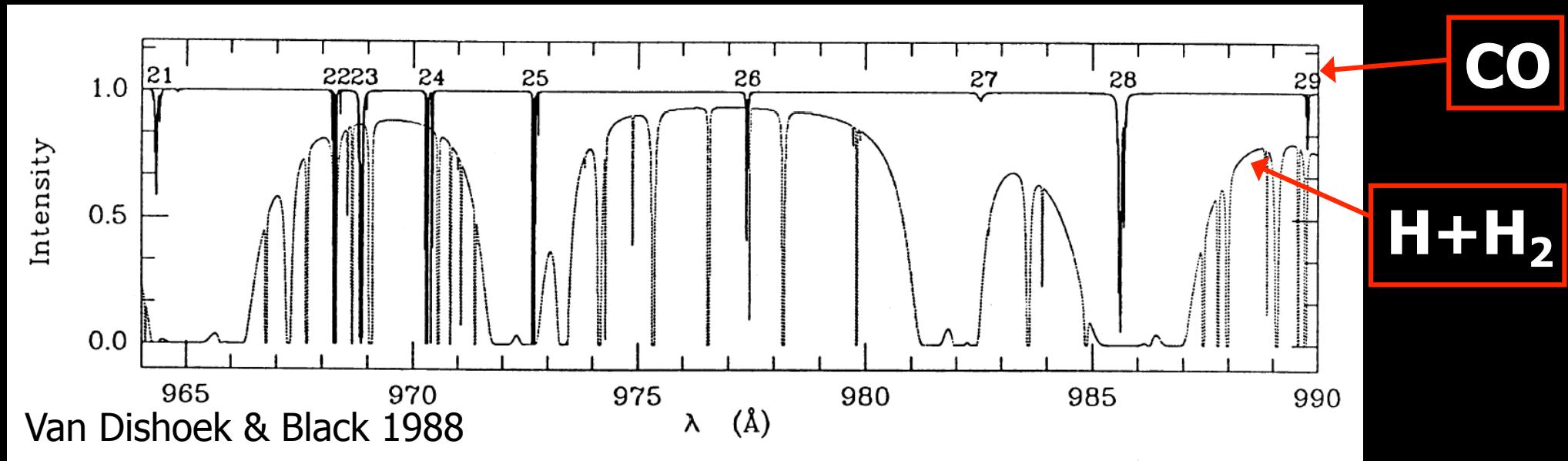
# CO: Strongly affected by radiation field



More shielding of CO by dust &  $\text{H}_2$  lines,  
which block dissociating UV photons



# Molecular dissociation proceeds by UV line absorption

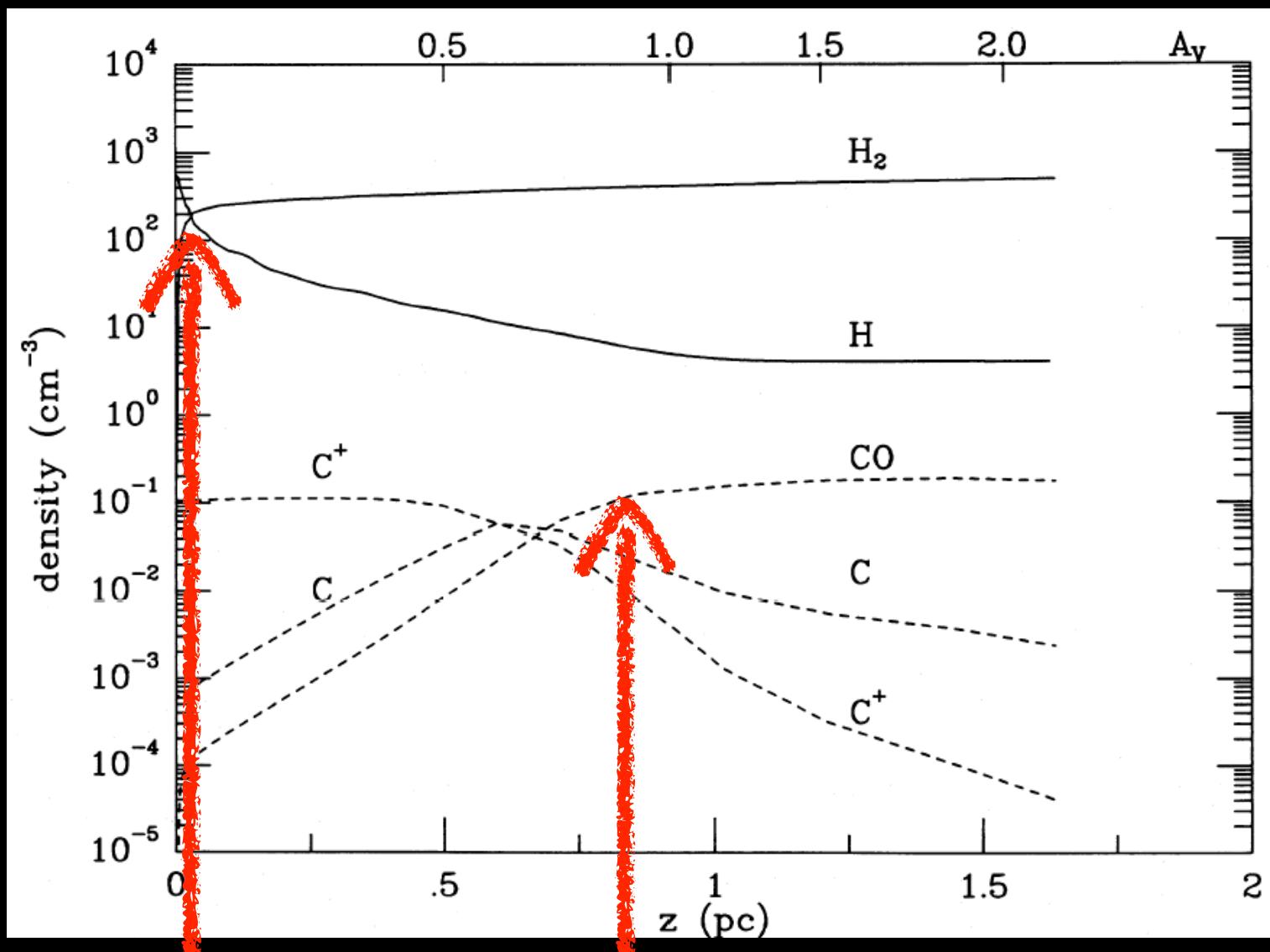
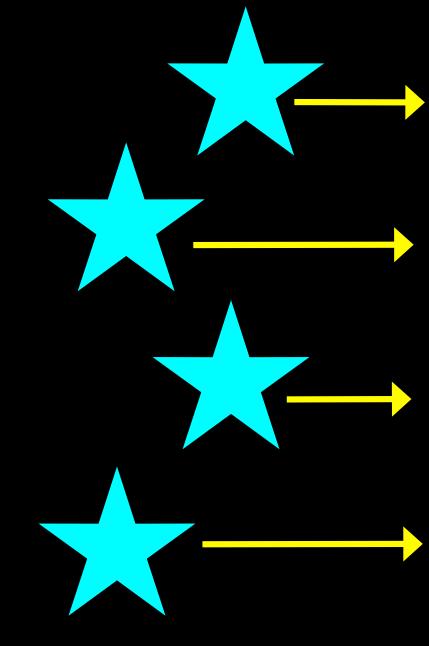


Absorption line spectrum of CO,  $H_2$ , and H

“Shielding”

If UV photons in each line have been absorbed (by molecules or dust), no more dissociation.

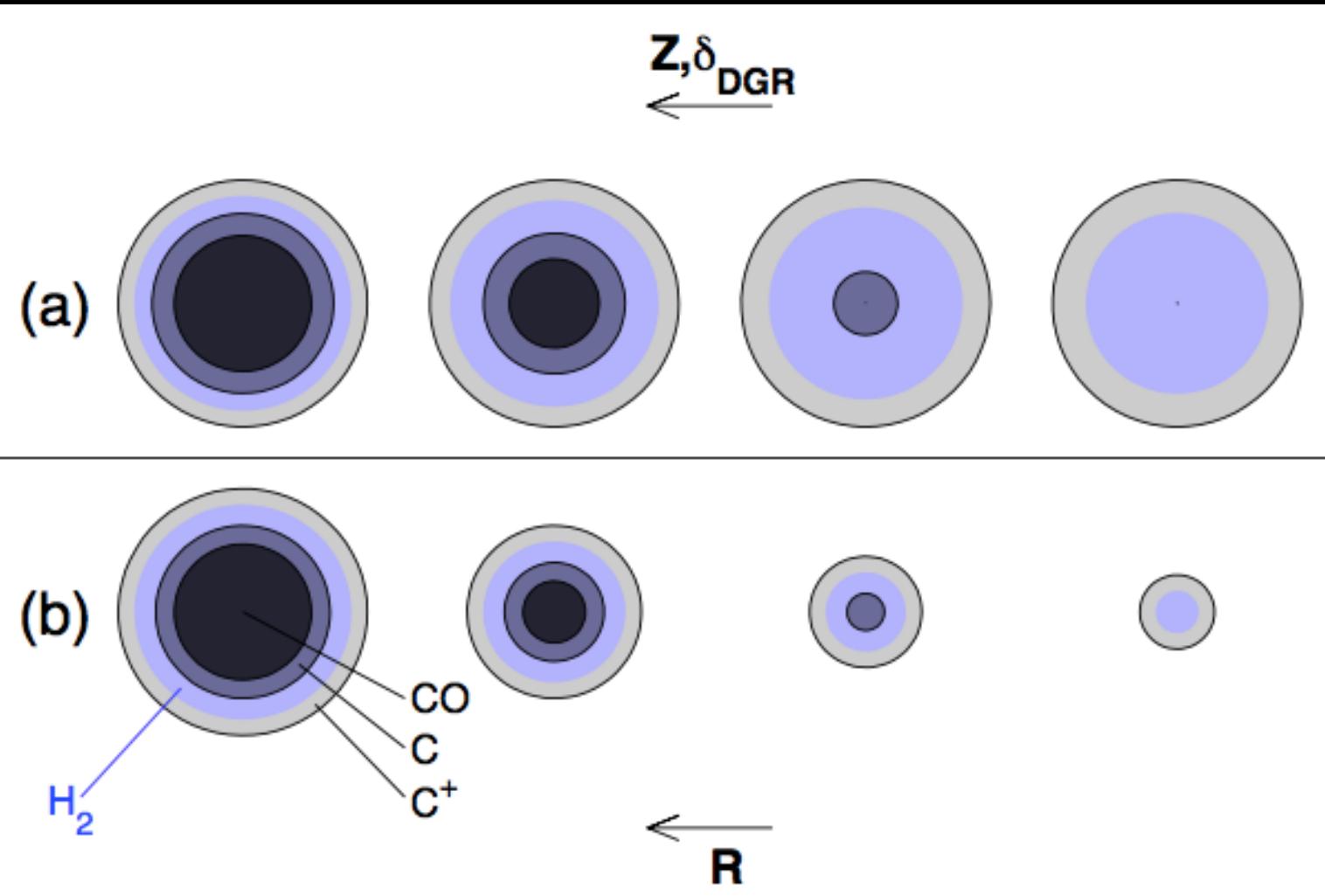
# CO: Strongly affected by radiation field



$\text{H}_2$  shields near surface,  
because abundant

CO shields deeper in,  
because rarer

# CO-to-H<sub>2</sub> mass not constant



Varying metallicity & dust-to-gas ratio

Varying cloud size

Also, CO does not sample full kinematics of cloud

FIG. 8.— Effect of metallicity on CO and H<sub>2</sub> in a spherical clump immersed in a uniform radiation field. Blue shading indicates the region where the gas is molecular, according to Eq. 25. Increasingly darker shading shows the regions where carbon is found as C<sup>+</sup>, C, or CO. The top sequence (a) illustrates the effect of decreasing metallicity and dust-to-gas ratio on the distribution of C<sup>+</sup>, CO, and H<sub>2</sub>. Mostly because of the increase in  $N_H$  required to attain a given  $A_V$ , the CO emitting region is pushed further into the clump until, for a fixed cloud size, it disappears at low enough metallicities. The bottom sequence (b) illustrates the effect of changing the clump size or column density at a fixed metallicity (adapted from Bolatto, Jackson & Ingalls 1999; Wolfire, Hollenbach & McKee 2010).

from Bolatto et al 2013

# $X_{\text{CO}}$ does increase towards low metallicity

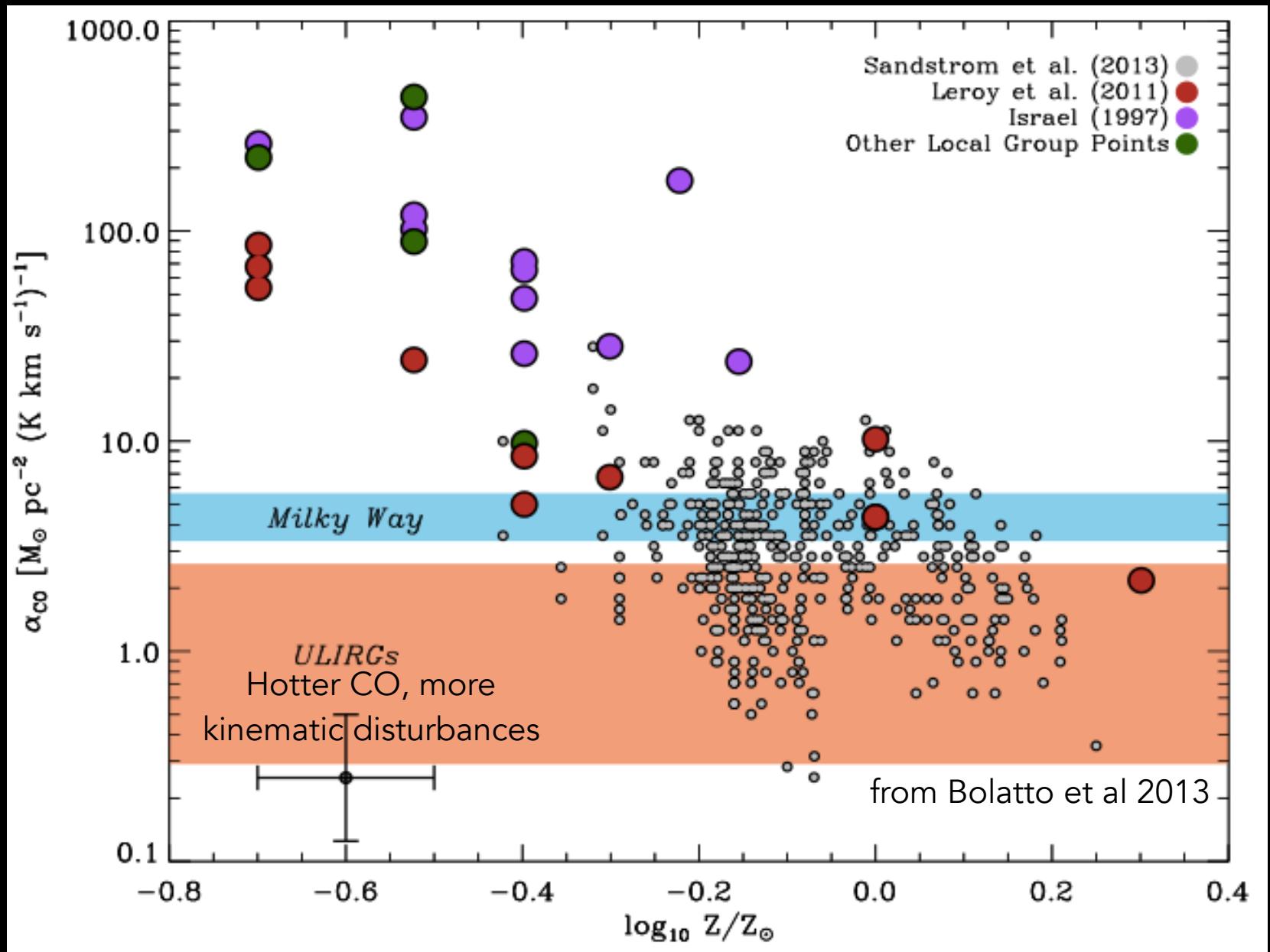
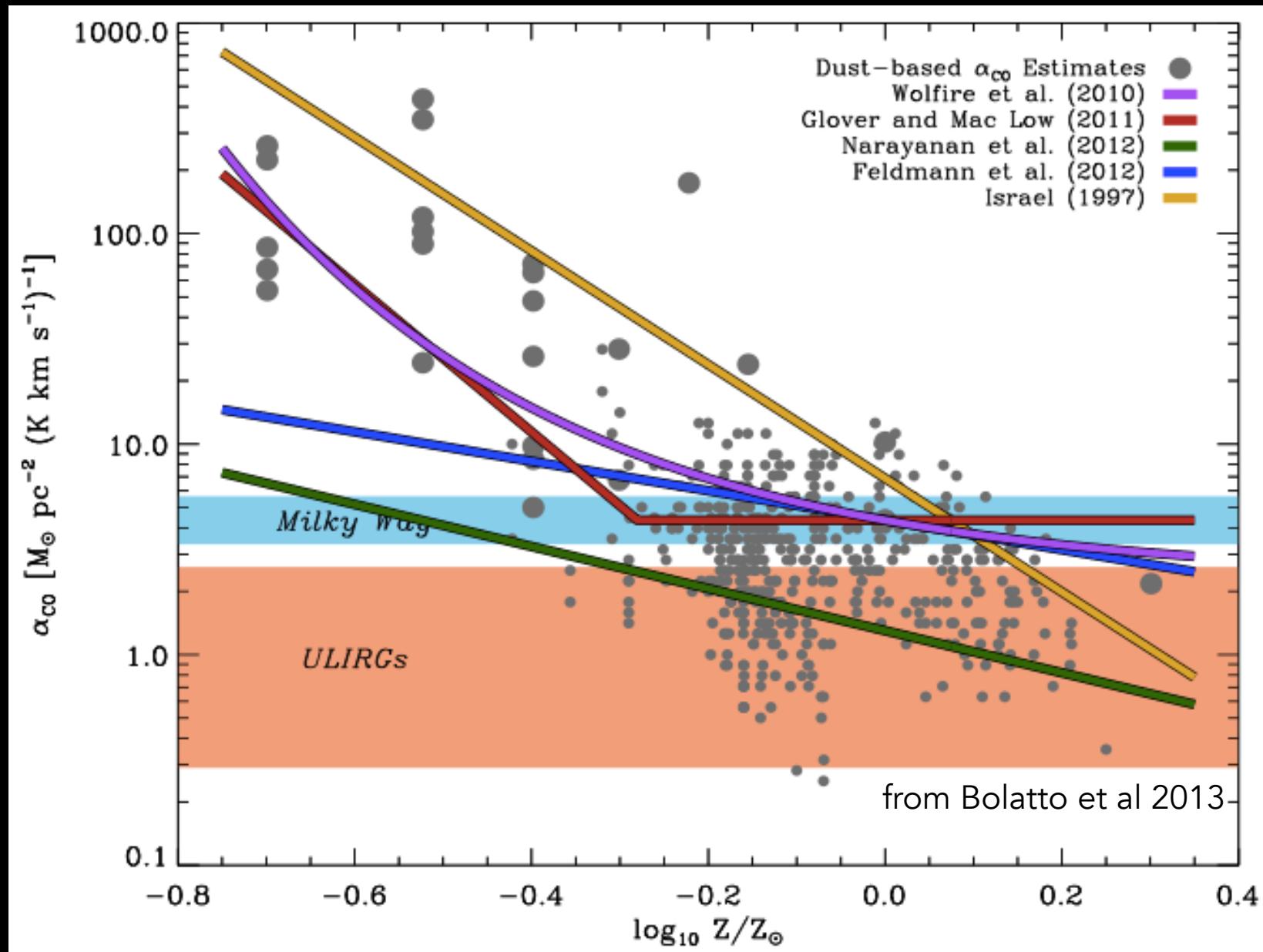


FIG. 9.— Conversion factor, estimated from dust-based approaches, as a function of gas-phase abundance. (Left) Color points show estimates for very nearby galaxies [Israel (1997), Madden et al. (1997), based on [CII]], [Leroy et al. (2007)], [Gratier et al. (2010)], [Roman-Duval et al. (2010)], [Leroy et al. (2011)], [Bolatto et al. (2011)], and [Smith et al. (2012)]. Gray points show high quality solutions from analysis of 22 nearby disk galaxies by [Sandstrom et al. (2012)], with typical uncertainties illustrated by the error bars near the bottom left corner. Metallicities are from [Israel (1997)], [Bolatto et al. (2008)], and [Moustakas et al. (2010)] and quoted relative to solar in the relevant system ( $12 + \log [\text{O}/\text{H}] = 8.7$  for the first two,  $12 + \log [\text{O}/\text{H}] = 8.5$  for the latter which uses the metallicity calibration by [Pilyugin & Thuan 2005]). Note that significant systematic uncertainty is associated with the x-axis. The color bands illustrate our recommended ranges in  $\alpha_{\text{CO}}$  for the Milky Way and ULIRGs. (Right) Colored lines indicate predictions for  $X_{\text{CO}}$  as a function of metallicity from the references indicated, normalized to  $X_{\text{CO},20} = 2$  at solar metallicity where necessary. For these predictions, we assume that GMCs have  $(\Sigma_{\text{GMC}}) = 100 \text{ M}_\odot \text{ pc}^{-2}$ , which we translate to a mean extinction through the cloud using Eq. 21. Dust-based determinations find a sharp increase in  $X_{\text{CO}}$  with decreasing metallicity below  $Z \sim 1/3-1/2 Z_\odot$ .

# $X_{\text{CO}}$ does increase towards low metallicity



Behavior not inconsistent w/ models

$\Sigma_{\text{H}_2}$

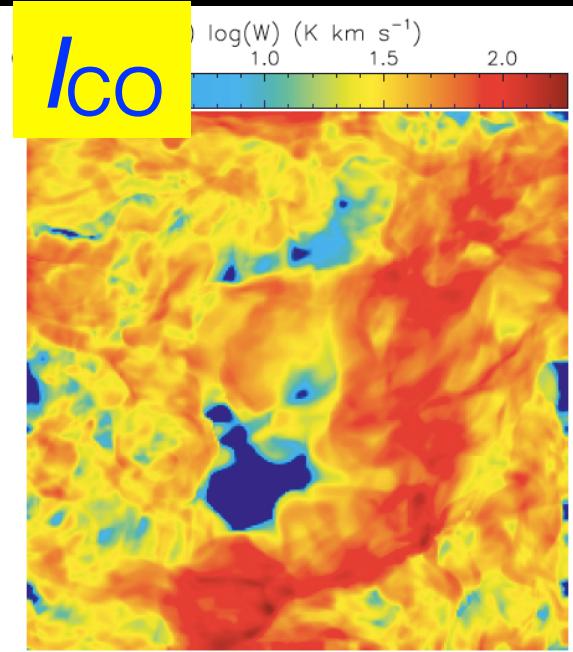
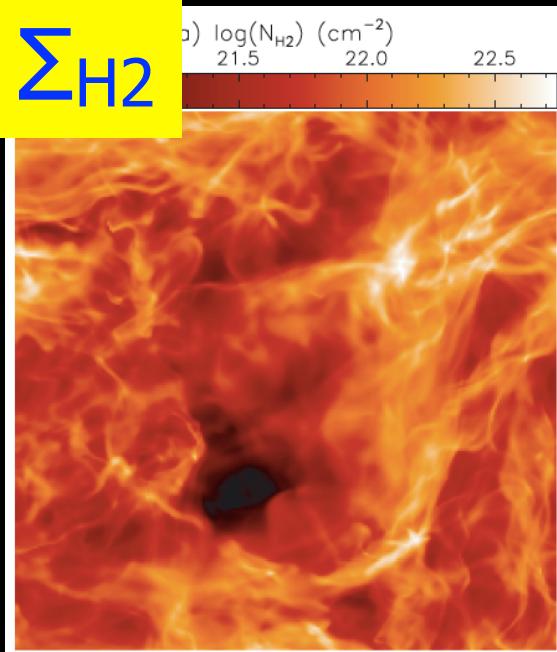
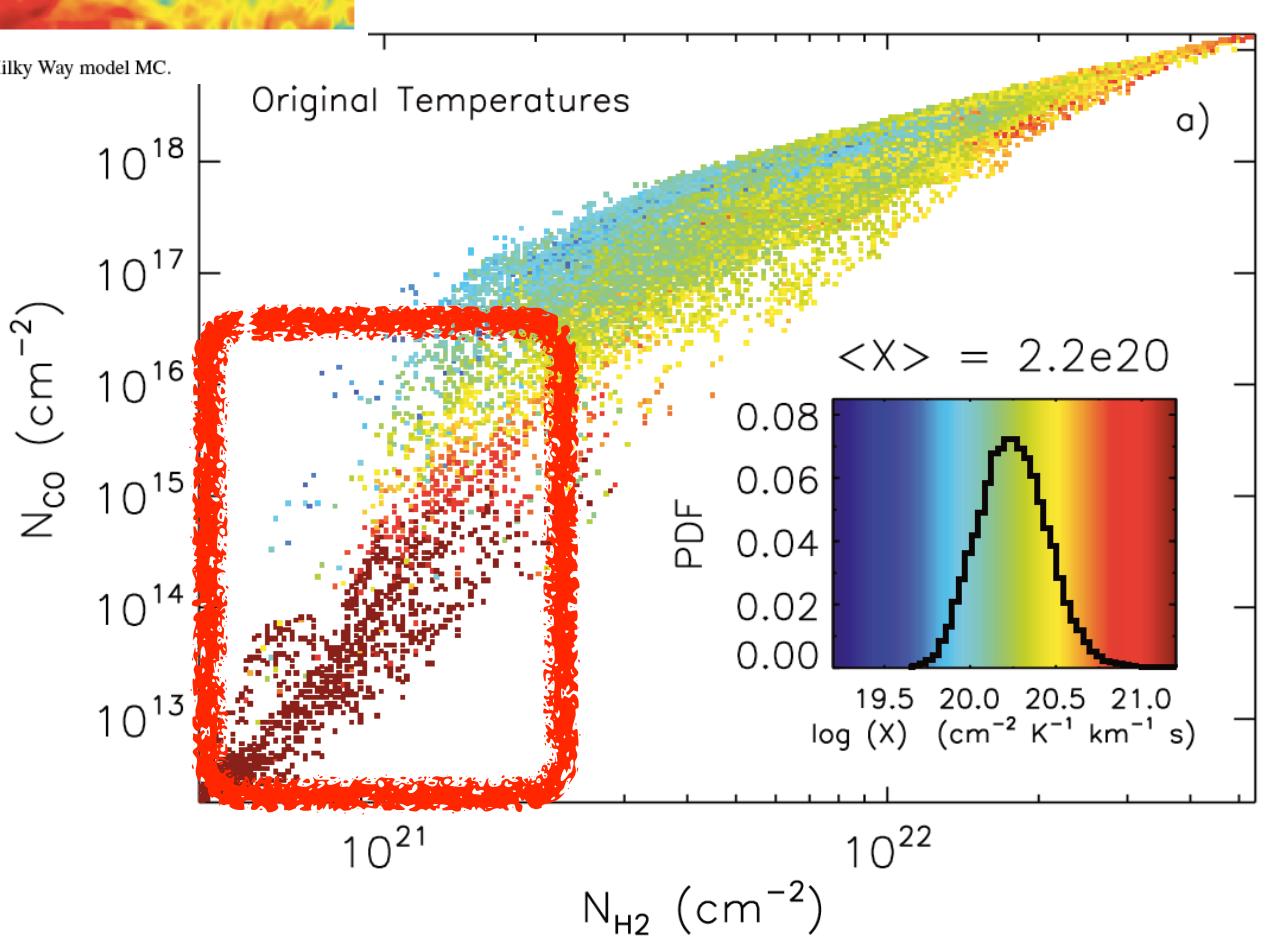


Figure 3. (a) Column density  $N_{\text{H}_2}$  and (b) integrated CO intensity of the Milky Way model MC.

# Simulations of MW X<sub>CO</sub> suggest CO underabundant at low column densities

Shetty et al 2011  
(see also Glover & MacLow 2011)

- Diffuse gas: much larger corrections to get to H<sub>2</sub>
- Global value depends on densest gas (where most gas is), so usually similar



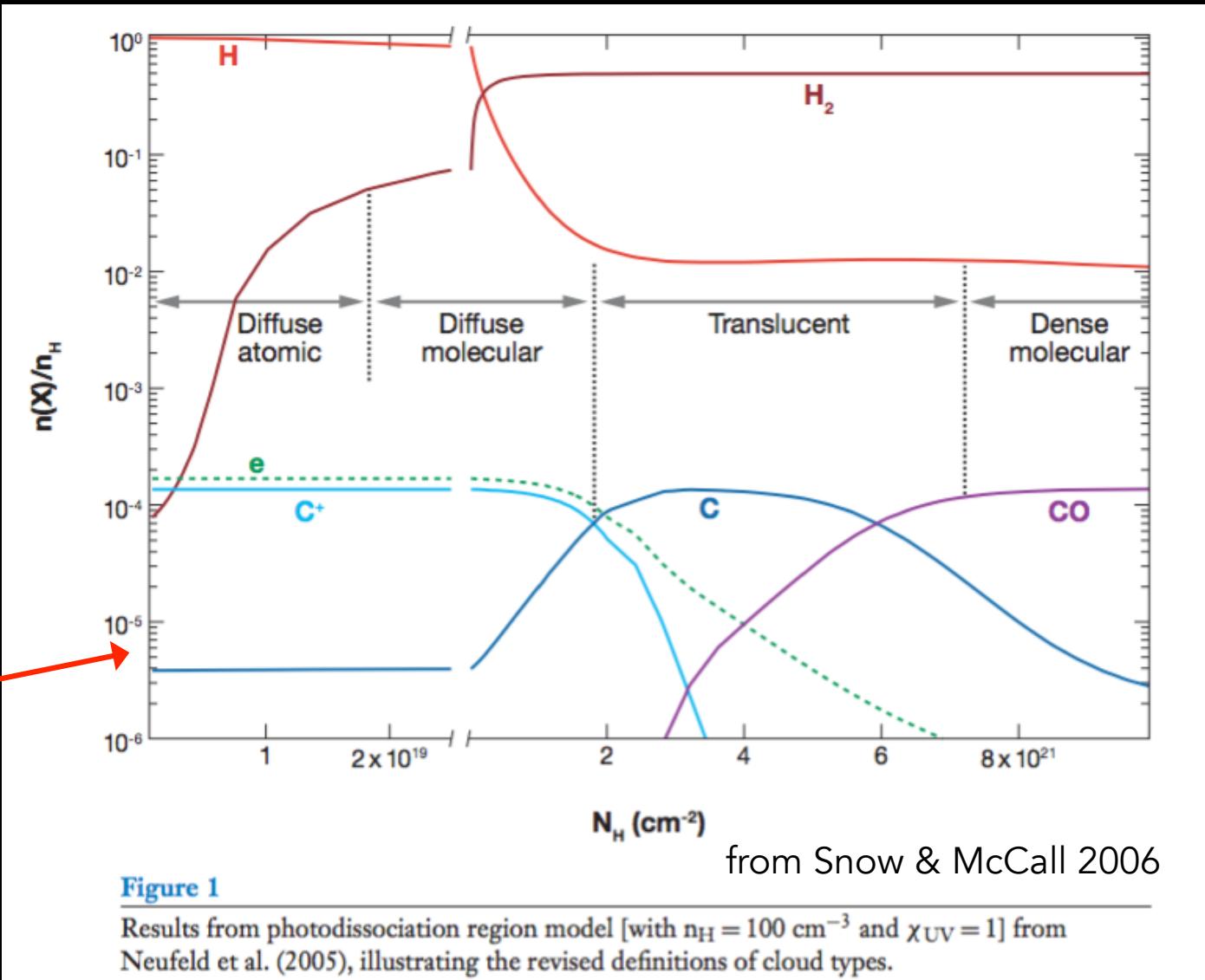
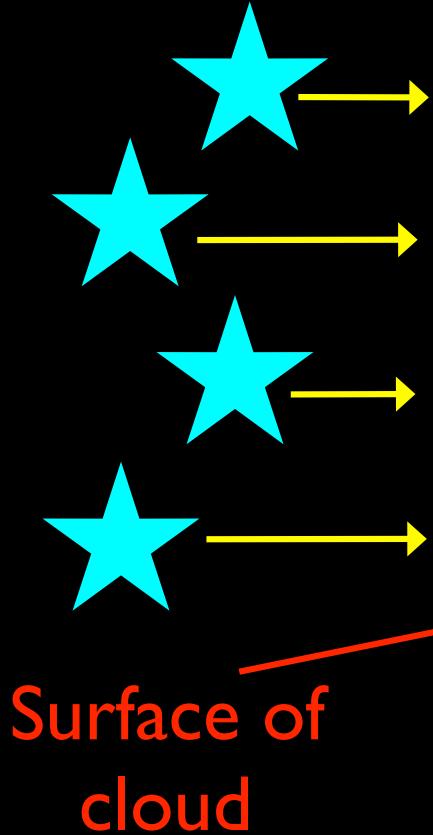
# Values of X<sub>CO</sub> from various techniques

**Table 1 Representative X<sub>CO</sub> values in the Milky Way disk**

from Bolatto et al. 2013

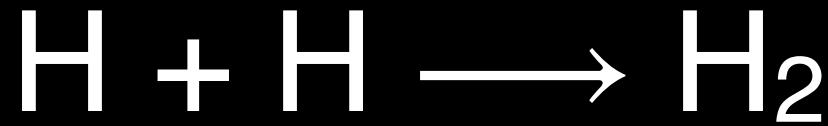
Method	X <sub>CO</sub> /10 <sup>20</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> (K km s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>-1</sup>	References
Virial	2.1	Solomon et al. (1987)
	2.8	Scoville et al. (1987)
Isotopologues	1.8	Goldsmith et al. (2008) <span style="color: blue;">Optically thin tracers</span>
Extinction	1.8	Frerking, Langer & Wilson (1982)
	2.9–4.2	Lombardi, Alves & Lada (2006)
	0.9–3.0	Pineda, Caselli & Goodman (2008)
	2.1	Pineda et al. (2010b) <span style="color: blue;">Unaffected by photodissociation</span>
	1.7–2.3	Paradis et al. (2012)
Dust emission	1.8	Dame, Hartmann & Thaddeus (2001)
	2.5	Planck Collaboration XIX et al. (2011)
$\gamma$ -rays	1.9	Strong & Mattox (1996)
	1.7	Grenier, Casandjian & Terrier (2005)
	0.9–1.9 <sup>a</sup>	Abdo et al. (2010c)
	1.9–2.1 <sup>a</sup>	Ackermann et al. (2011, 2012c)
	0.7–1.0 <sup>a</sup>	Ackermann et al. (2012a,b)

# Photodissociation also affects H<sub>2</sub>



Larger question of when you get H<sub>2</sub> vs HI

# The Formation of Molecular Gas

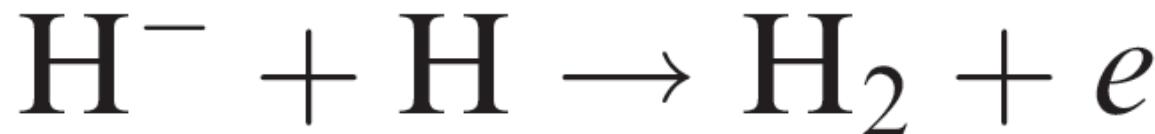
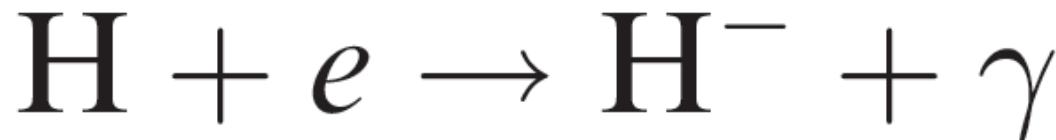


- Energetically favorable, but...
- Neutral-neutral, so fundamentally slow, plus...
- No dipole moments, which forbids many transitions

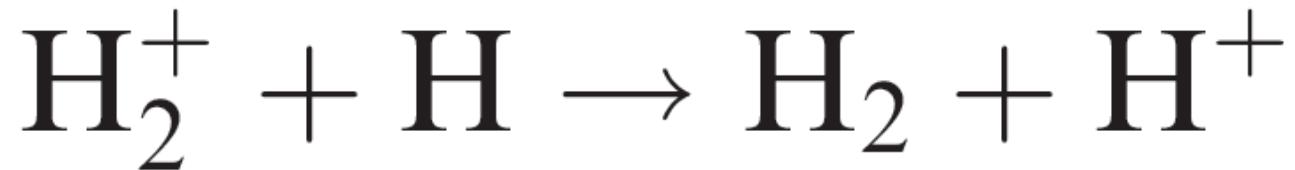
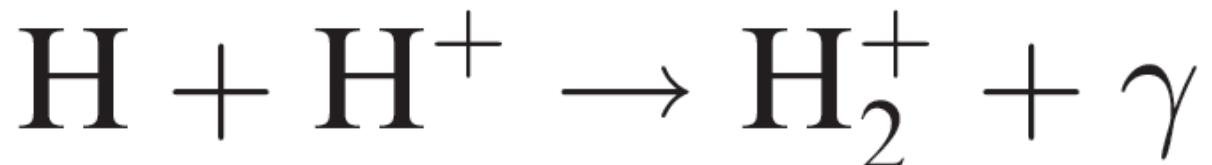
# The Formation of Molecular Gas

## I. Gas-phase formation

“Fast” H<sup>-</sup>  
channel



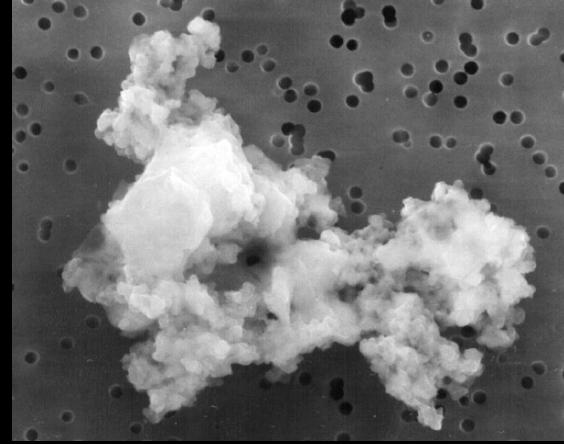
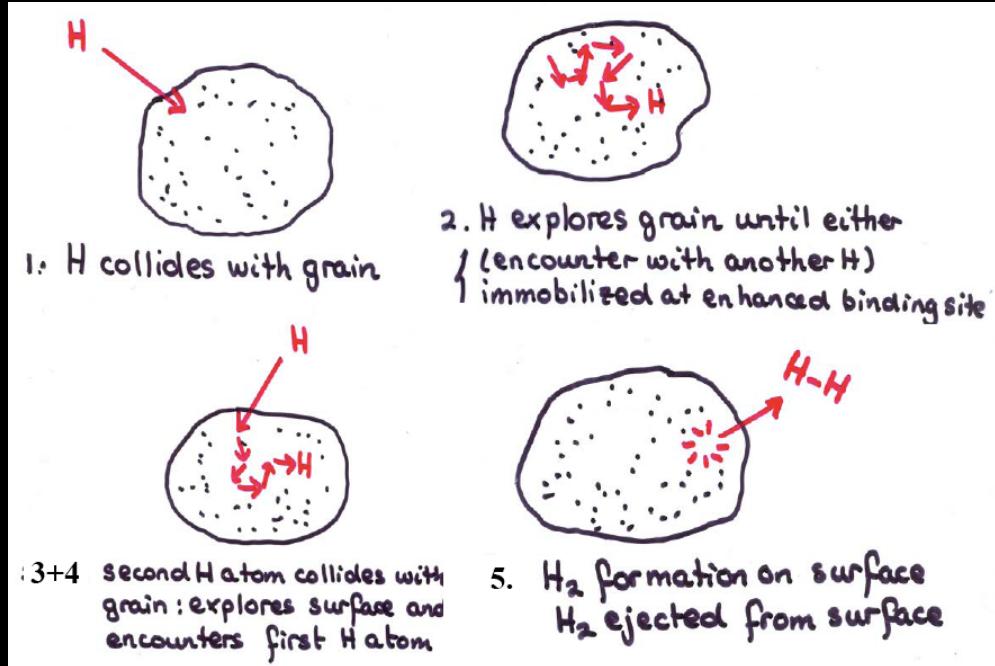
Slower H<sup>+</sup>  
channel



- Both are typically slow (charge-neutral) reactions
- Dominant pathway at high T and small dust-to-gas ratios (<1% of MW's)

# The Formation of Molecular Gas

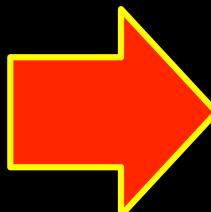
## 2. “Dust Catalyzed” formation



Dust has bigger cross-section

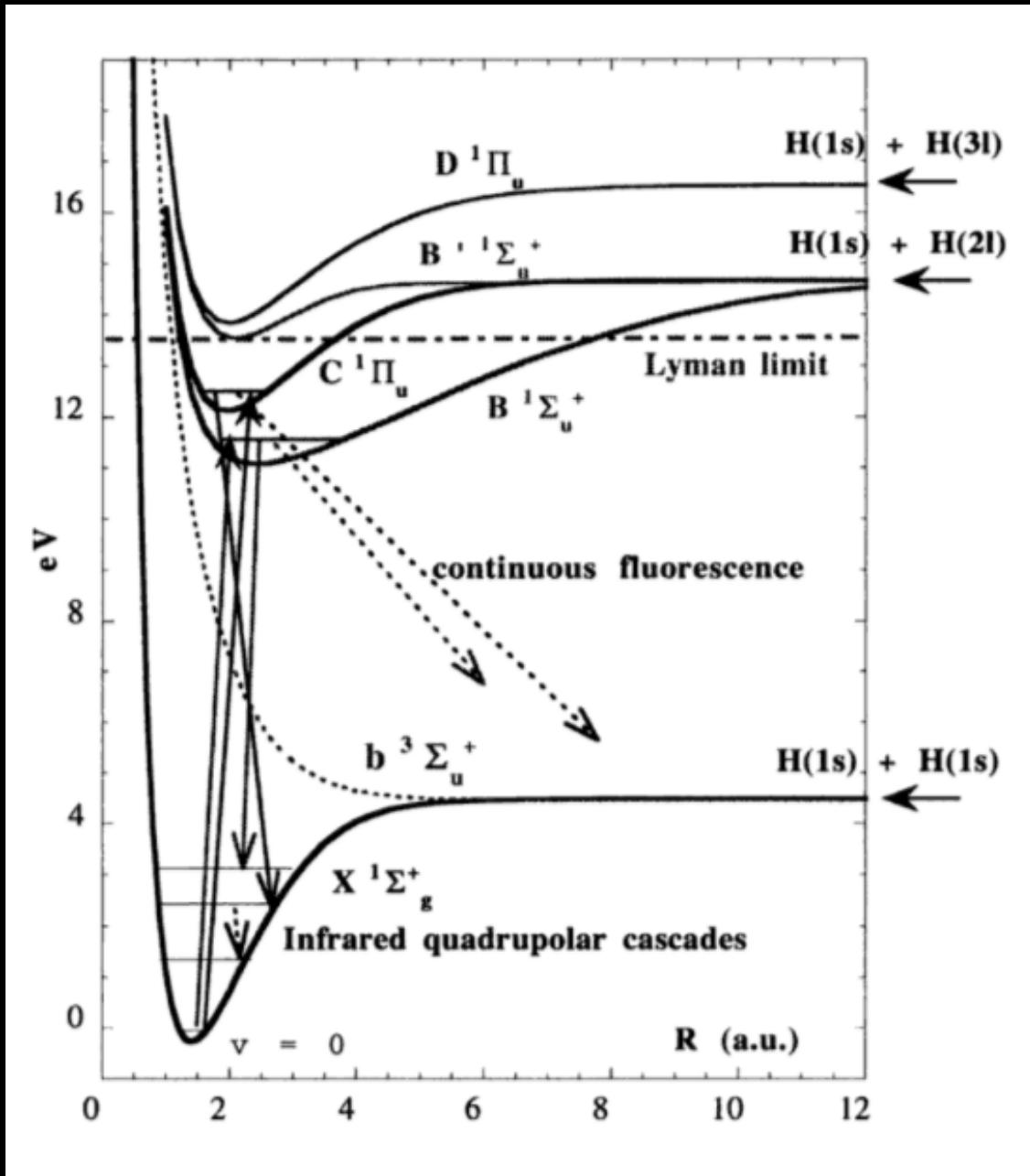
Favors H<sub>2</sub> formation at:

- High HI densities
- High dust-to-gas ratios
- Long H+dust lifetimes



- High gas densities
- High metallicity

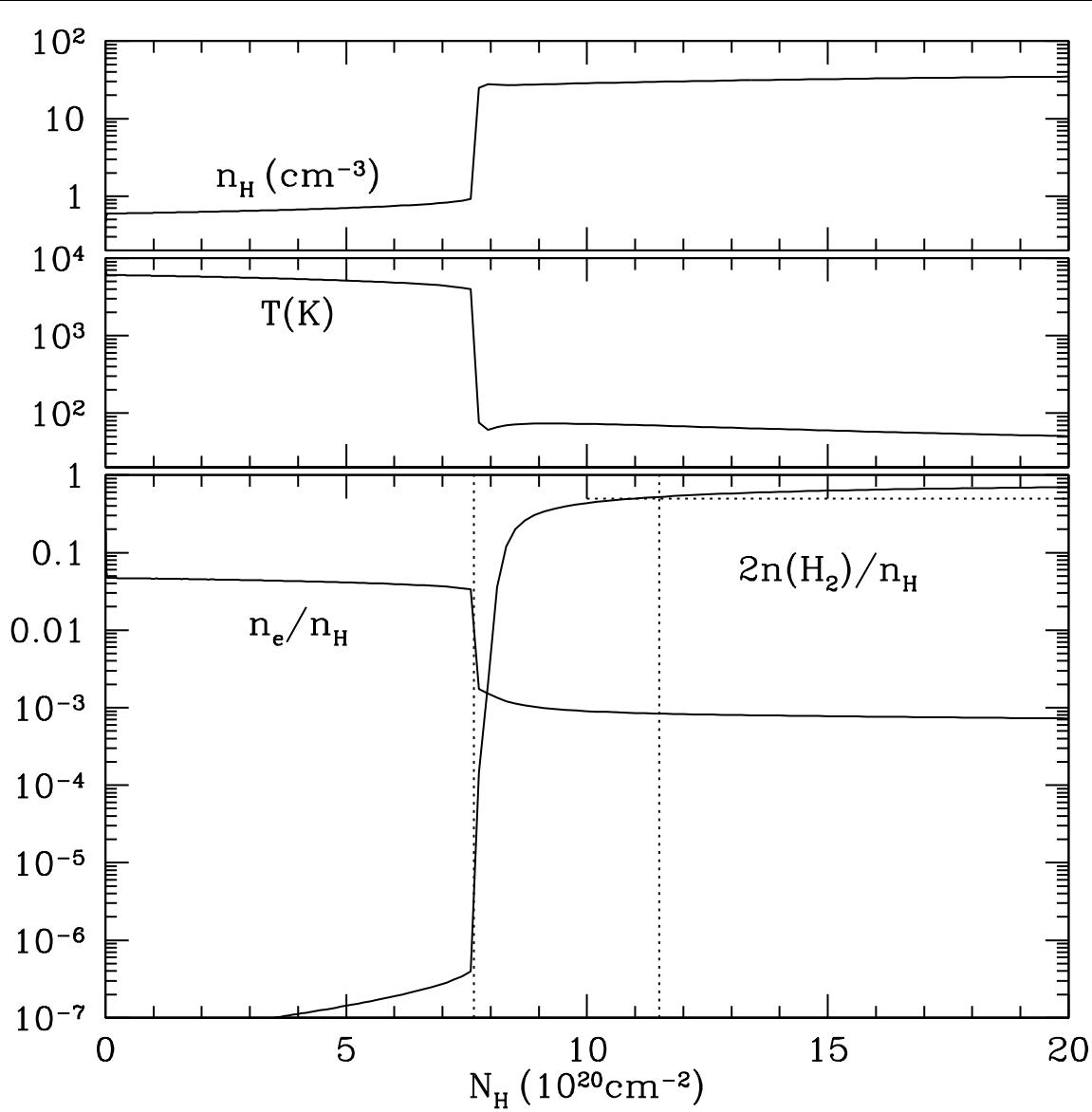
# The Destruction of Molecular Gas



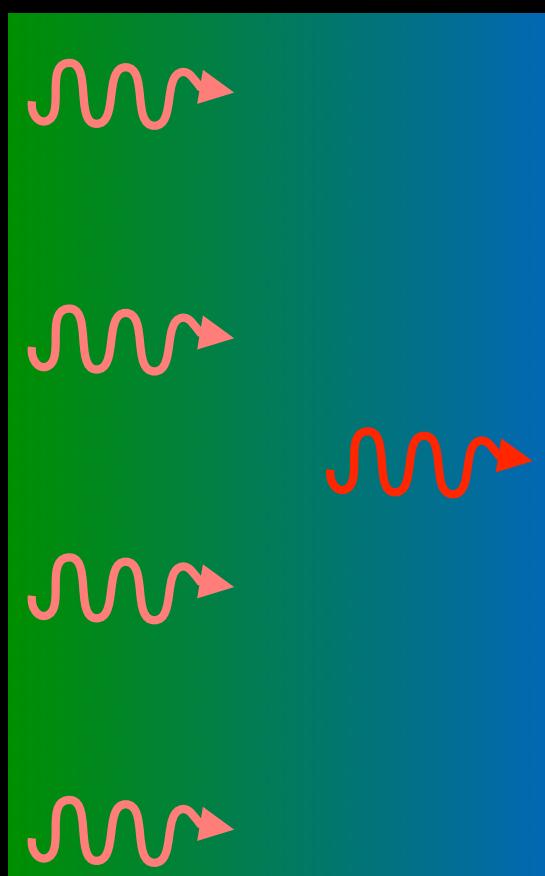
After  $\text{H}_2$  absorbs a UV photon from ground to one of the excited levels (Lyman-Werner bands), has  $\sim 85\%$  probability of radiative decay,  $\sim 15\%$  probability of photo dissociating

Lyman band = ground  $\rightarrow$  B  
Werner band = ground  $\rightarrow$  C

# H<sup>+</sup> to H to H<sub>2</sub>



external  
radiation field



plane-parallel  
distribution of gas

# Absorption constraints on H<sub>2</sub>

Hoopes et al 2004

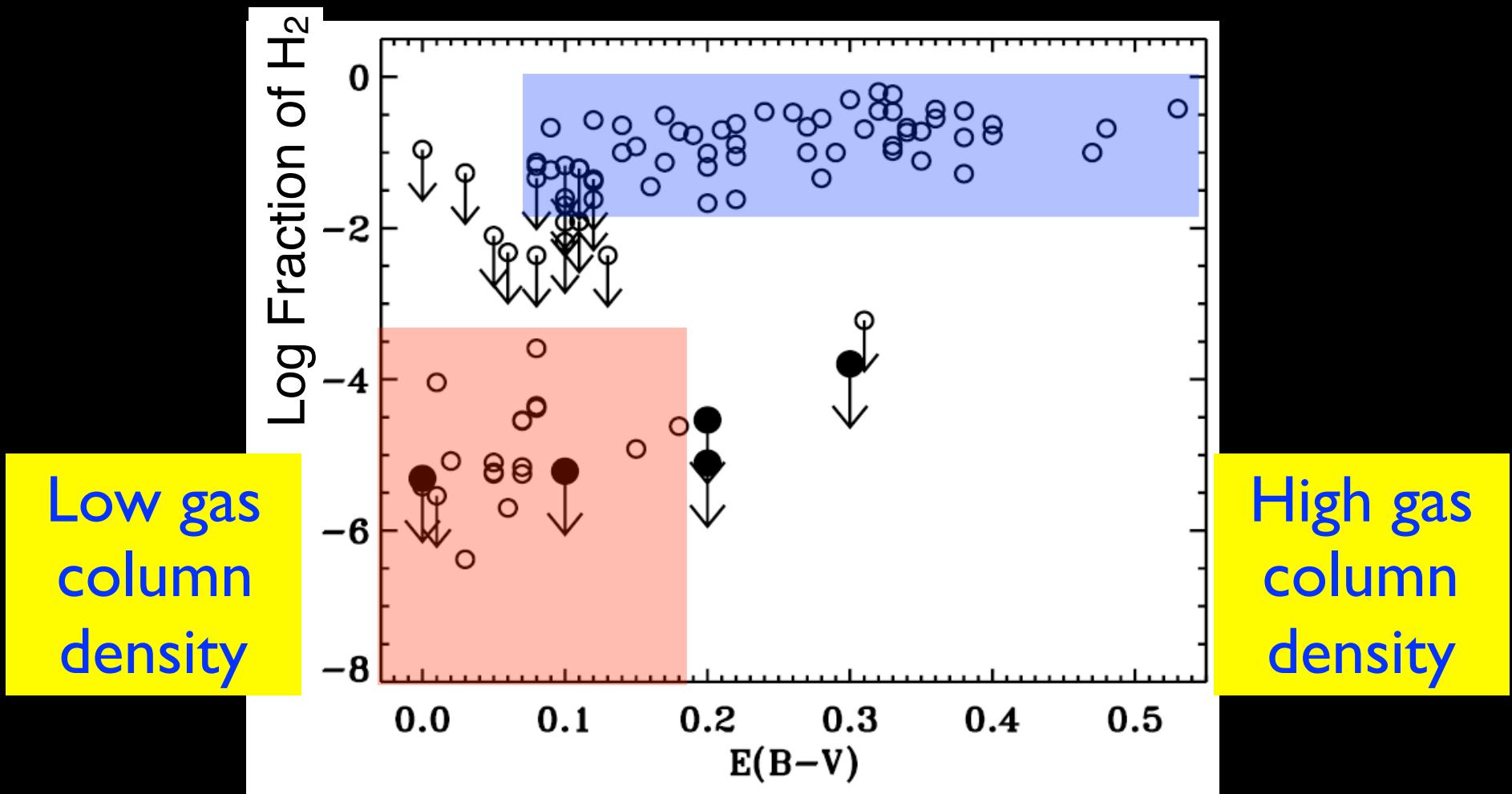


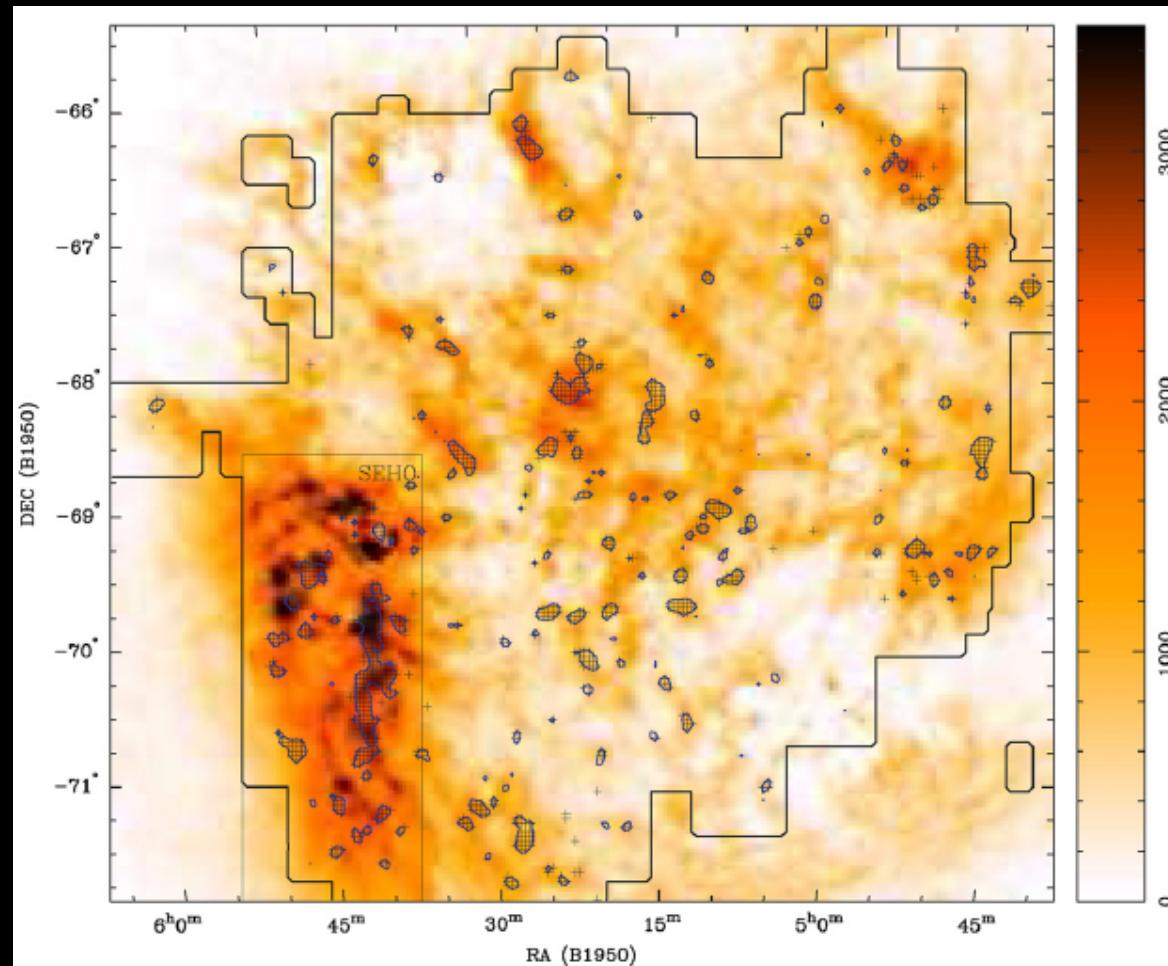
FIG. 7.—Top, H<sub>2</sub> column density vs. reddening; bottom, molecular fraction  $f$  vs. reddening. The solid circles show the FUSE starburst upper limits, and the open circles show Copernicus measurements and limits for Galactic sight lines (from Savage et al. 1977). The H<sub>2</sub> column densities and molecular fractions in the starbursts are lower than those of the Galactic sight lines for similar rednings (except for NGC 1705). Note that the molecular fractions for the starbursts are probably much lower than the derived upper limits due to the probable underestimation of the H I column density. The three highly reddened Galactic sight lines marked with double circles were noted by Savage et al. (1977) as possibly having strong radiation fields.

If  $E(B-V) < 0.1$ , H<sub>2</sub> can't shield. At higher  $A_V$ , it shields unless the UV background is particularly high

**Little diffuse H<sub>2</sub>!**

Can we predict where gas switches  
from H<sub>I</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>?

# What is empirical correlation between H<sub>2</sub> and measured properties of disks?



LMC:  
CO  
contours  
on HI map

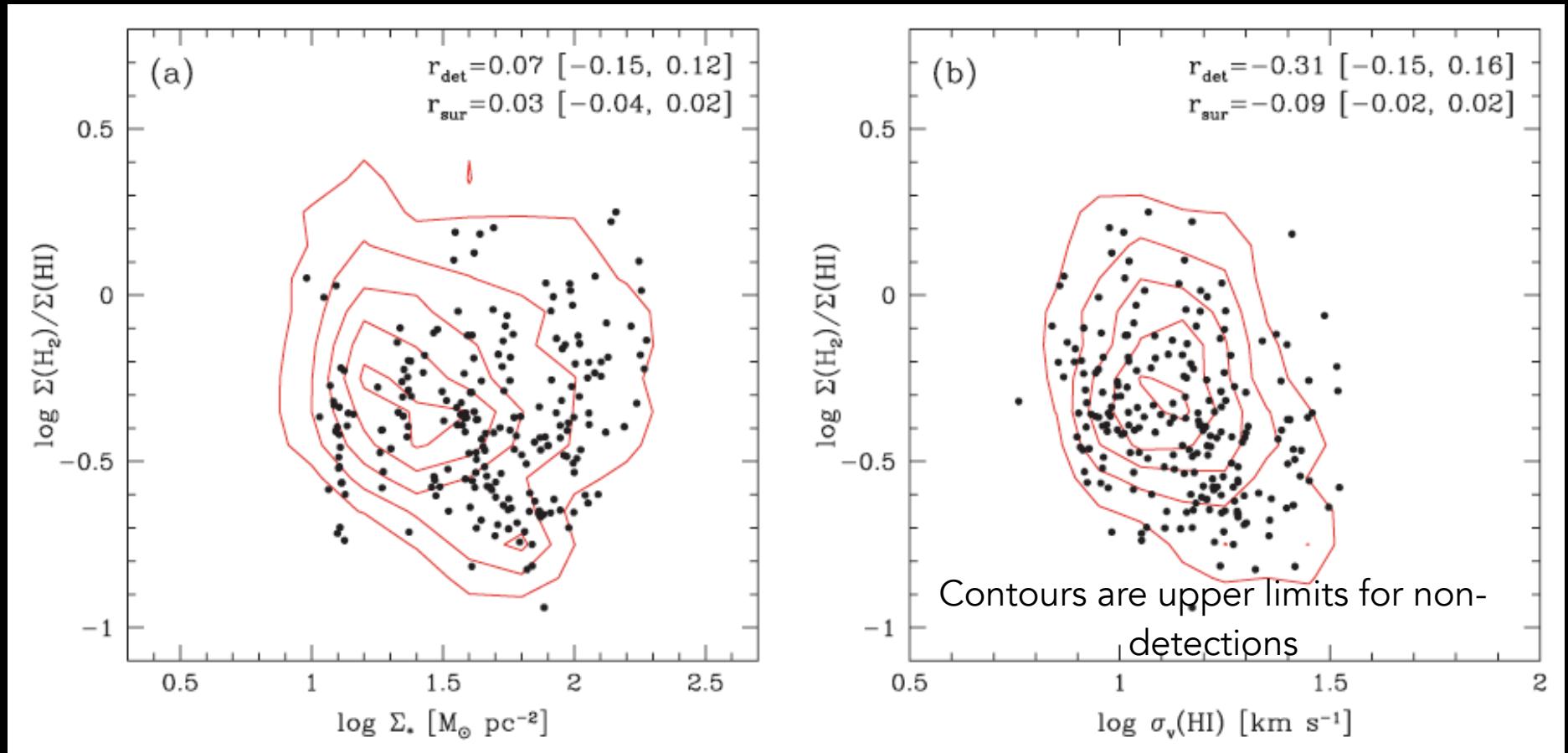
**Figure 1.** CO contours from NANTEL (at the  $1 \text{ K km s}^{-1}$  level) overlaid on integrated H<sub>I</sub> emission smoothed to the resolution of the CO data. Units of the H<sub>I</sub> intensity are also  $\text{K km s}^{-1}$ . To reject noise in the contour map, a blanking mask constructed with the CPROPS signal detection algorithm described in Section 3.3 has been applied. The heavy solid contour represents the region observed with NANTEL. Small crosses indicate the pixels which are considered CO detections without the use of a blanking mask. The southeastern H<sub>I</sub> overdensity (SEHO) is identified at the lower left of the map.

Wong et al 2009

# What does local molecular fraction depend on?

pixel-by-pixel

Molecular-to-atomic ratio

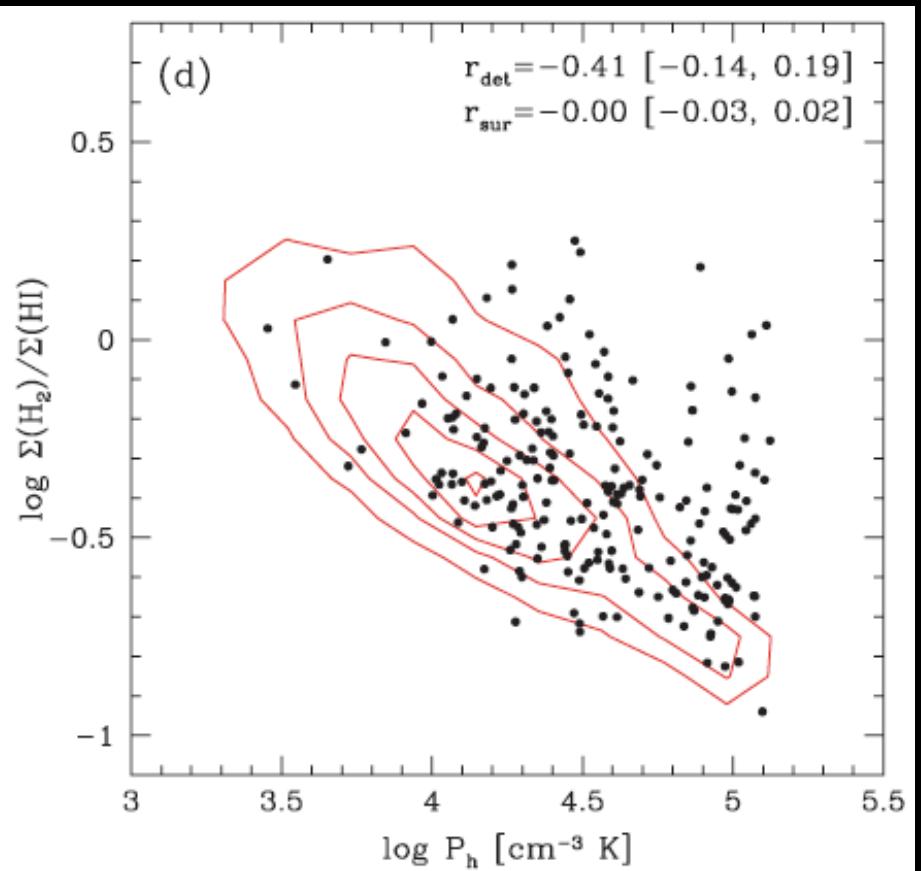
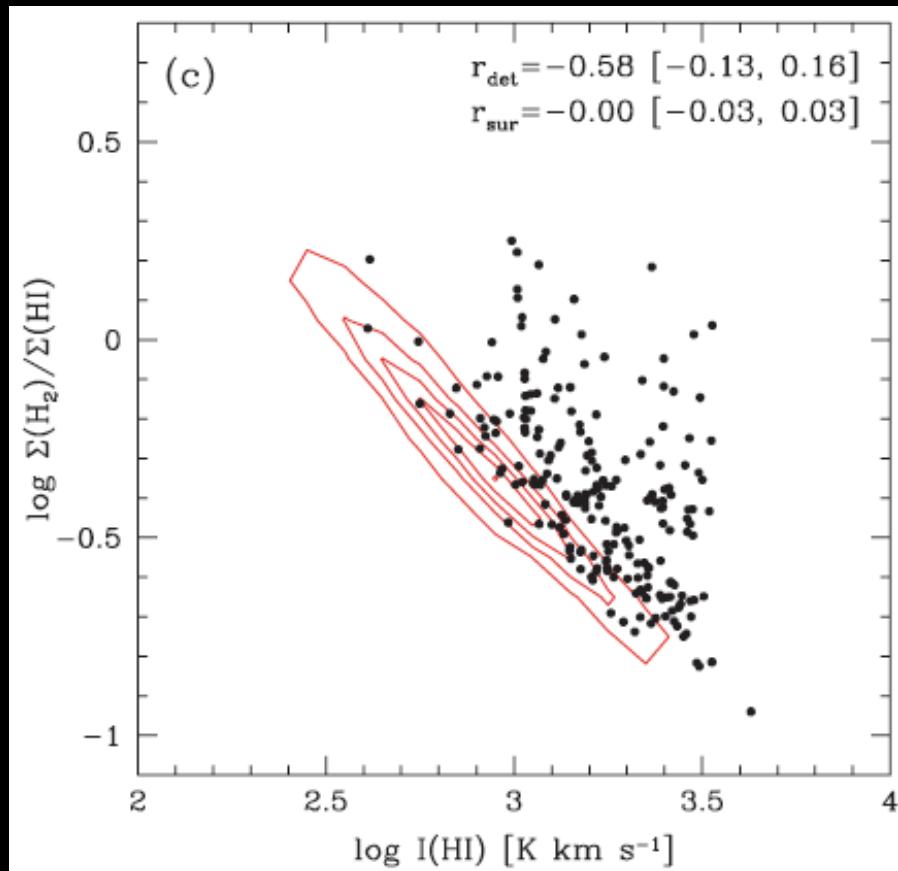


Contours are distribution of upper limits for CO non-detections

Not stellar surface density or gas velocity dispersion

# What does local molecular fraction depend on?

Molecular-to-atomic ratio



Contours are distribution of upper limits for CO non-detections

Maybe HI column density and/or midplane pressure?

# Correlation with pressure in Virgo Cluster galaxies

Molecular Hydrogen Fraction

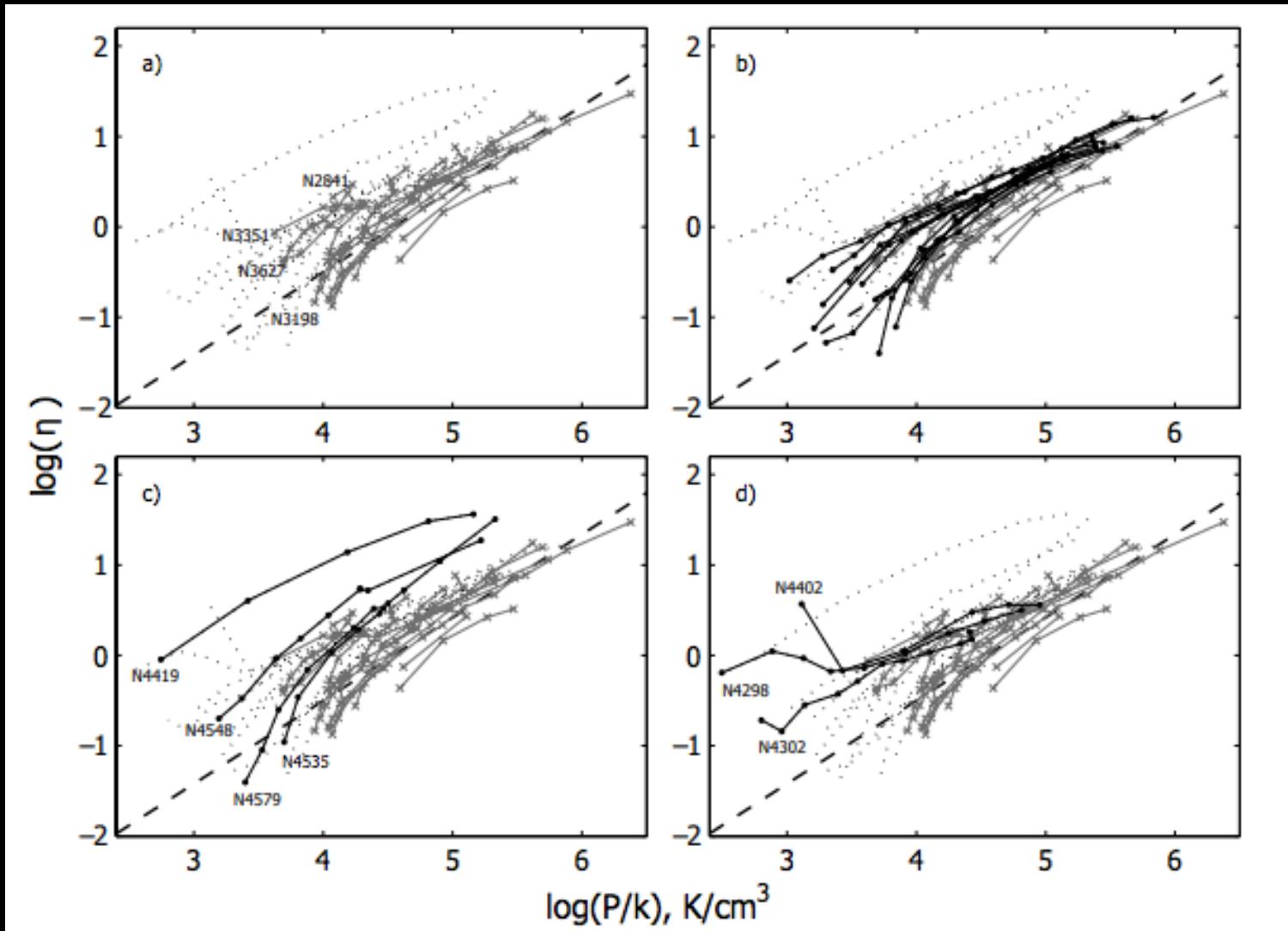


FIG. 1: Molecular hydrogen fraction  $\eta$  versus turbulent gas pressure in the disk midplane for the field (a) and cluster (b, c, d) galaxies. On all plots, the gray lines with crosses indicate the field galaxies and the dotted lines indicate the Virgo cluster galaxies. The dashed straight line corresponds to the dependence  $\eta \propto P^{0.92}$  (Blitz and Rosolowsky 2006). The cluster galaxies were divided into three groups described in the text. For clarity, each group is displayed on separate plots in comparison with the field galaxies: (b) for the Virgo cluster galaxies belonging to group I, (c) for group II, and (d) for group III.

Blitz & Rosolowski 2004 have argued that the correlation is due the extra pressure provided by the stars.

To estimate the macroscopic, total, midplane gas pressure,  $P_{\text{ism}}$ , Elmegreen (1989) derived

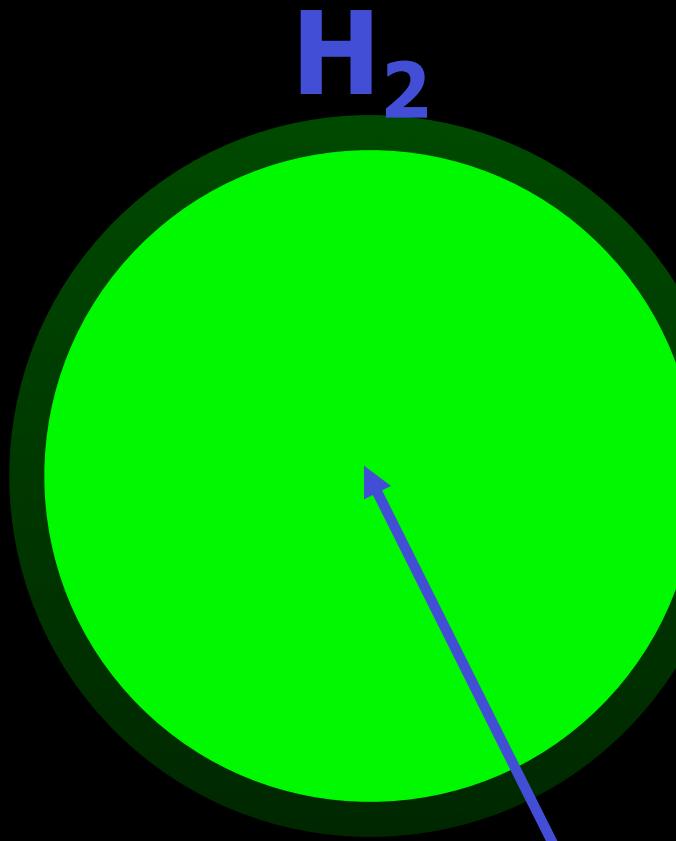
$$P_{\text{ism}} = \frac{\pi}{2} G \Sigma_{\text{gas}} \left( \Sigma_{\text{gas}} + \Sigma_{\text{stars}} \frac{\sigma_{\text{gas}}}{\sigma_{\text{stars}}} \right) \quad (1)$$

from numerical solutions to equations of hydrostatic equilibrium for a combined gas and stellar disk (where the  $\Sigma$  and  $\sigma$  are the surface densities and velocity dispersions of the gas and stars). We can obtain a lower limit to  $P_{\text{ism}}$  from sum of

High mean pressure helps to confine gas clouds, keeping them dense enough that they prefer the molecular phase.

# Alternate Model for HII vs H<sub>2</sub>

- Series of papers by Krumholz, McKee, & Tumlinson (2008,2009) treating dust- and self-shielding to derive analytic form for  $f(H_2)$



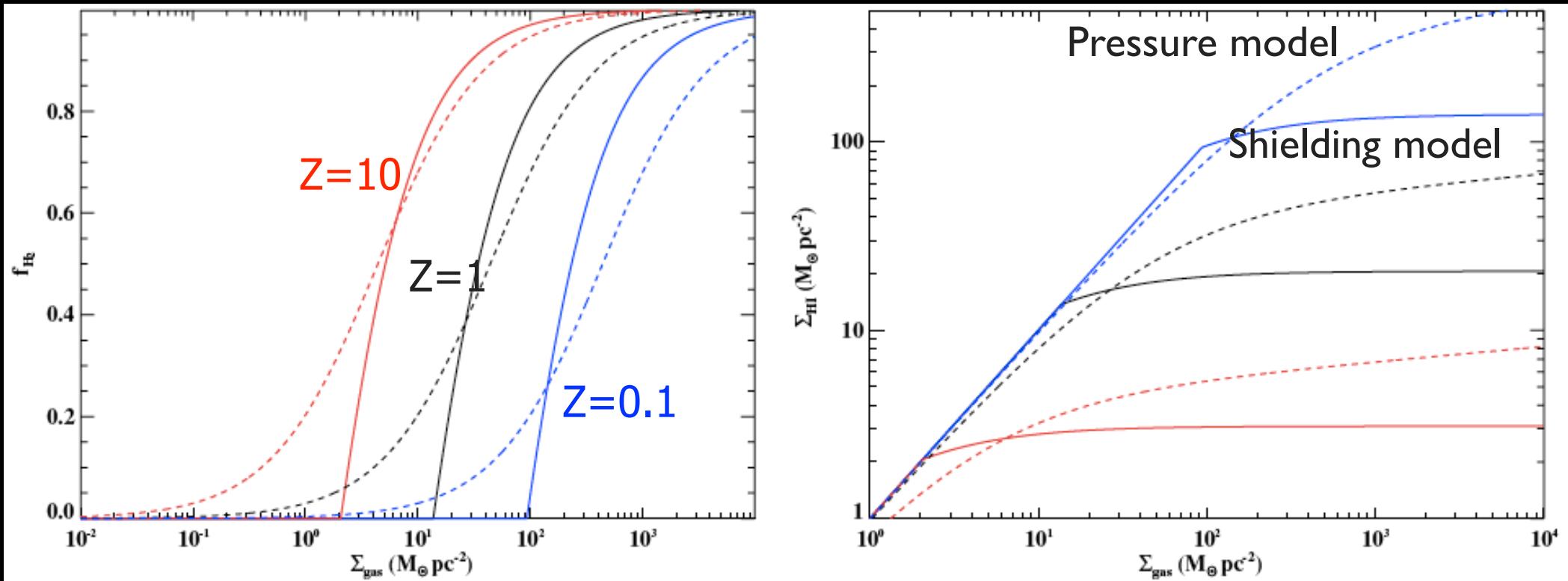
Fraction of molecular gas depends on radius of cloud and the thickness of the dissociated shell

Paper I gives analytic expression for the latter

Molecules Shielded

# Alternate Model for H<sub>I</sub> vs H<sub>2</sub>

- Series of papers by Krumholz, McKee, & Tumlinson (2008,2009) treating dust- and self-shielding to derive analytic form for  $f(H_2)$



**Figure 1.** Left panel: molecular fractions computed for the KMT (solid lines) and BR (dashed lines) models. Different lines represent three metallicities for the KMT model (from right to left:  $Z' = 0.1$ , blue;  $Z' = 1$ , black; and  $Z' = 10$ , red) or three stellar densities for the BR model (from right to left:  $\rho'_{\text{star}} = 0.001$ , blue;  $\rho'_{\text{star}} = 0.1$ , black; and  $\rho'_{\text{star}} = 10$ , red). For the KMT model, we assume a clumping factor  $c = 1$ . Blue compact dwarfs (BCDs) at low metallicities and high stellar densities are the optimal systems to disentangle between the two models which are degenerate in massive spiral galaxies with solar metallicity (compare the two black lines). Right panel: models for the H<sub>I</sub> surface density as a function of the total gas column density, for the same parameters adopted in the left panel. While the KMT model exhibits a well-defined saturation in the atomic hydrogen, in the BR model  $\Sigma_{\text{HI}}$  increases asymptotically with  $\Sigma_{\text{gas}}$ .