Mass of Molecular Cloud Clump

April 25, 2025

```
[1]: import warnings; warnings.filterwarnings("ignore")
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     import astropy.units as u
     import numpy as np
     from astropy.constants import m_p
     from spectral_cube import SpectralCube
     from astropy.io import fits
     from scipy.optimize import fsolve
     from astropy.visualization import simple_norm
     from photutils import CircularAperture, aperture_photometry
     from astropy.constants import k_B, G
[2]: eta = 0.5 # telescope efficiency (Introduction of this paper: https://www.
      ⇔sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0275106200000825)
[3]: files = {
         "12CO(1-0)": "ngc1333_12co10_fcrao.fits",
         "13CO(1-0)": "ngc1333_13co10_fcrao.fits",
         "C180(1-0)": "ngc1333_c18o10_fcrao.fits"
     }
```

(a) INTEGRATED INTENSITY MAPS Equation for the 0th moment (integrated intensity) is given by

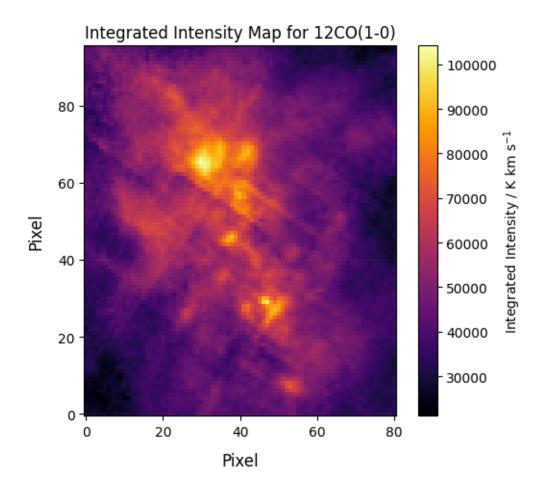
$$M_0 = \int I_v dv$$

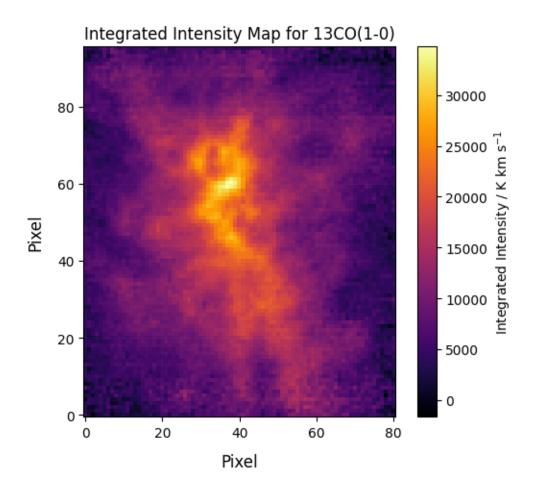
Oth moment - the integrated intensity over the spectral line. Units are cube unit times spectral axis unit (e.g., $K \ km/s$).

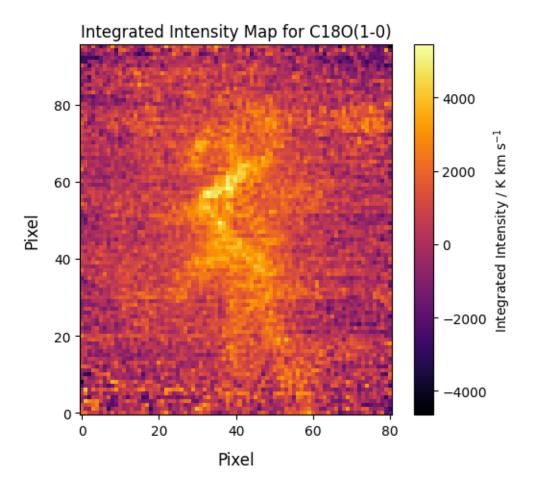
https://spectral-cube.readthedocs.io/en/latest/moments.html

```
[4]: moment0_maps = {}
    moment1_maps = {}
    for label, file in files.items():
        cube = SpectralCube.read(file) # load the cube
         # first of all we need to convert the antenna temperature to brightness,
      →temperature using the telescope efficiency
         cube_tb = cube / eta
         # the we calculate the moment 0 map (integrated intensity) using a build-in
      →function of SpectralCube
        moment0 = cube_tb.moment(order = 0)
        moment0_maps[label] = moment0
         # we can also calculate the moment 1 map (velocity field) using the same_
      ⇔build-in function of SpectralCube
        moment1 = cube_tb.moment(order = 1)
        moment1_maps[label] = moment1
        # plotting (0-th moment)
        fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize = (6, 5))
        ax.grid(alpha = 0.05)
        ax.set_xlabel('Pixel', fontsize = 12, labelpad = 10)
        ax.set_ylabel('Pixel', fontsize = 12, labelpad = 10)
        ax.set_title(f'Integrated Intensity Map for {label}', fontsize = 12, loc = 12
      im = plt.imshow(moment0.value, origin = 'lower', cmap = 'inferno')
        plt.colorbar(im, label = r'Integrated Intensity / K km s$^{-1}$')
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Discussion:

12CO(1-0) is usually the most abundance and optically thick molecule in the ISM; tracing more extended and diffuse molecular gas. We expect a broader and more widespread emission as seen from the integrated intensity map. 13CO(1-0) is less abundant than 12CO(1-0) but it is typically optically thinner; tracing denser gas in comparison to 12CO(1-0). We see from the integrated intensity more localised structures around cores and filaments. C18O(1-0) on the other side is even less abundant and usually optically thin; tracing the densest most shielded regions. Emission is more compact and tends to peaks at core positions. It is usually correlated with outflows in a perpendicular direction.

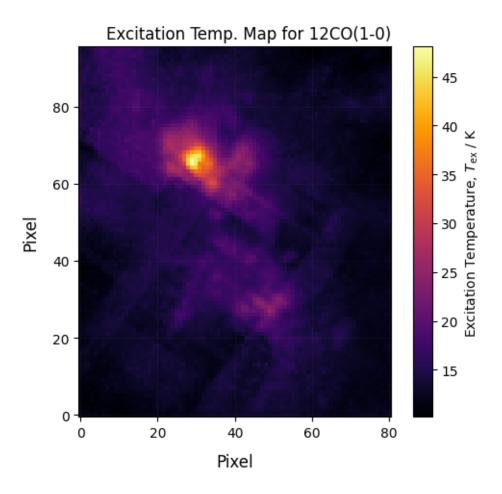
(b) EXCITATION TEMPERATURE MAP USING THE PEAK EMISSION OF THE 12CO(1-2) IN EACH PIXEL Let's assume Local Thermodynamic Equilibrium (LTE) and that 12CO(1-2) is optically thick ($\tau \gg 1$), so we can derive the excitation temperature ($T_{\rm ex}$) from the observed brightness temperature ($T_{\rm ex}$) using the radiative transfer equation (slide 16, class 19; Zhang et al. 2016, ApJ, 832, 158, pp. 9; Pineda et al. 2008, ApJ, 679, 481, eq. (6)):

$$T_{\rm ex} = \frac{5.5}{\log\left(1 + \frac{5.5}{T_{\rm B} + 0.82}\right)}$$

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```
[6]: tex_vals = 5.5 / np.log(1 + (5.5 / (tb_vals + 0.82)))
tex_vals[tb_vals < 1.0] = np.nan # ignore very faint regions, i.e., mask out_
low TB values that are likely noise
```

[7]: <matplotlib.colorbar.Colorbar at 0x137d18d50>



[8]: tex_vals.mean() # average excitation temperature

[8]: 14.615908

In this map we see excitation temperatures ranging roughly from 15 to 50 K for NGC 1333 which is typical for molecular clouds (Zhang et al. 2016, ApJ, 832, 158; Dunham et al. 2014, 783, 29). Higher $T_{\rm ex}$ regions (> 15 – 20 K) likely trace dense star-forming cores with embedded sources responsible for heating the gas, whilst lower $T_{\rm ex}$ (< 12 K) regions are colder, more quiescent gas. We assumed in this case that the 12CO(1-0) emission is optically thick, is under LTE, and uniform background temperature (CMB = 2.73 K).

(c) MASS OF THE CLOUD From Tools of Radio Astronomy (Wilson+; Eq. 16.43), $\rm H_2$ column density and CO column density are related via

$$\label{eq:NH2} {\rm N(H_2)} = \left[\frac{{\rm N(^{18}CO)}}{2.29 \times 10^{14}} \right] = \left[\frac{{\rm N(^{13}CO)}}{2.18 \times 10^{14}} \right] \times 10^{21},$$

where we define the "X"-factor as

$$X \equiv \left\lceil \frac{N(H_2)}{N(CO)} \right\rceil$$

However, (from Wilson+), as noted by the authors of various such studies, a scatter of factor two to five in the correlations is always present, so the exact ratio is not that one. I'll assume different ones in the following.

Also as noted in Plunkett+2013, The ratio of [H2/13CO] is an important source of uncertainty in the calculations. Some studies found this ratio to be about 0.5 times the value we use here (e.g. Pineda et al. 2008), so the outflow masses may be less according to this factor, but here we use the value of 7×10^5 from Frerking et al. (1982) to allow for more straight-forward comparisons with other similar studies.

```
[9]: # assumptions
     distance = 300 * u.pc # distance of the source
     pixel_size = 25 * u.arcsec
     tex = tex_vals.mean() # excitation temperature (Plunkett et al., 2013, ApJ, __
      →774, 22)
     # convert pixel size to cm
     pixel_size_rad = pixel_size.to(u.rad)
     pixel_size_cm = (pixel_size_rad * distance.to(u.cm)).value
     pix_area_cm2 = pixel_size_cm**2
                    # H2 / 12CO (lower, due to abundance); optical depth is often
     X_12C0 = 1e4
      →high for 12CO
     X_13C0 = 3e5 \# H2 / 13C0; Lower abundance, more optically thin. The ratio can
      ⇔be affected by isotope-selective photodissociation and chemical
      \hookrightarrow fractionation.
     X C180 = 3e6 # H2 / C180; Even lower abundance than 13CO assumed by one order
      →of magnitude. The ratio can be affected by photodissociation.
     # Similar assumed values also appear in Warin et al. 1996, A&A, 306, 935 (https:
      →//ui.adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1996A%26A...306..935W/abstract)
```

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```
[11]: # calculate Oth moments
mom0_12 = cube_12.moment0().value
mom0_13 = cube_13.moment0().value
mom0_18 = cube_18.moment0().value
```

CO isotopologues column density is given in general by

$${\rm N(CO)} = 3.0 \times 10^{14} \ T_{\rm ex} \ e^{\alpha/T_{\rm ex}} \cdot \int {\rm T_B} \ d{\rm v} \ [{\rm cm}^{-2}], \quad \alpha \approx 5.2 - 5.5$$

```
[13]: line_Eu_K_12CO = 5.53  # K
    line_Eu_K_13CO = 5.29  # K
    line_Eu_K_C18O = 5.27  # K

N_12CO = column_density_CO(momO_12, tex, line_Eu_K_12CO)  # column density

N_13CO = column_density_CO(momO_13, tex, line_Eu_K_13CO)
    N_C18O = column_density_CO(momO_18, tex, line_Eu_K_C18O)
```

```
# and convert to H2 column density via the X-factor
N_H2_12 = N_12C0 * X_12C0
N_H2_13 = N_13C0 * X_13C0
N_H2_18 = N_C180 * X_C180
```

Then, given the hydrogen column density, we can estimate the mass following (see e.g., Eq 7 in Garden et al. (1991), ApJ, 374, 540)

$$\mathbf{M} = \mu \ m_{\mathbf{H}} \ \sum \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{H}_2) A_{\mathbf{px}},$$

where we assume a mean molecular weight of 2.3, $m_{\rm H}$ is the hydrogen atom mass, and $A_{\rm px}$ is the pixel area in cm²

```
[14]: def mass_from_column(N_H2):
    return np.nansum(N_H2) * pix_area_cm2 * 2.3 * m_p.cgs.value
```

Mass from 12CO(1-0): 287.54 solMass Mass from 13CO(1-0): 1838.72 solMass Mass from C18O(1-0): 1452.41 solMass

[16]: # The mass of the cloud estimated from 13CO(1-0) and C18(1-0) are roughly_\infty similar but an order of magnitude higher than the mass estimated from 12CO(1-0) because the last is optically thick.

(d) OPACITY-CORRECTED MASS Let's assume that C18O is optically thin, so its peak brightness can be used directly.

13CO is partially optically thick and needs correction; the excitation temperatures are assumed to be the same for both lines.

Take

$$R = \frac{[^{13}\text{CO}]}{[\text{C}^{18}\text{O}]} \approx 7.3$$

We solve for τ_{13} in

$$\frac{T_{13}}{T_{18}} = \frac{1 - e^{-\tau_{13}}}{1 - e^{-\tau_{13}/R}}$$

and apply an opacity correction (see Eq. 1 in Goldsmith et al. (1984; 1984ApJ...286..599G); see also +/- Eq. 9 in Pineda et al., 2008, ApJ, 679, 481)

$$\label{eq:N1} {\rm N}(^{13}{\rm CO}) = {\rm N}_{\rm optically\ thin} \cdot \frac{\tau}{1-e^{-\tau}}$$

As noted, This approximation is accurate to within 15% for $\tau(13CO) < 2$ (Spitzer 1968), and always overestimates the column density for $\tau(13CO) > 1$ (Spitzer 1968), so it has limitations.

```
[17]: R = 7.3 \# 13CO / C18O abundance ratio (Ubagai et al 2019 Res. Notes AAS 3 78)
```

```
[18]: T13_peak = cube_13.max(axis = 0).value
T18_peak = cube_18.max(axis = 0).value
```

```
[19]: ratio_map = np.where(T18_peak > 0.3, T13_peak / T18_peak, np.nan)
```

```
N_13C0\_corrected = N_13C0\_thin * correction\_factor # corrected column density N_H2\_corrected = N_13C0\_corrected * X_13CO # corrected H2 column density
```

```
[21]: # and calculate total mass
mass_g = np.nansum(N_H2_corrected) * pix_area_cm2 * 2.3 * m_p.cgs.value
mass_Msun = (mass_g * u.g).to(u.Msun)

print(f'Opacity-corrected cloud mass from 13CO(1-0): {mass_Msun:.2f}')
```

Opacity-corrected cloud mass from 13CO(1-0): 3174.53 solMass

```
[22]: # Notice that
    mass_Msun / mass_13
# i.e., the opacity correction factor is about:
```

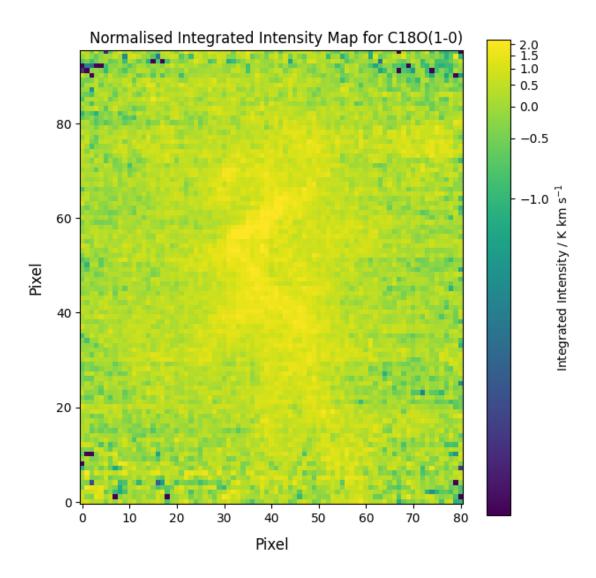
[22]: 1.726487

which is barely consistent with opacity-corrected H I column density factors like 1.2 in Pingel et al. (2018) ApJ 856:136.

(e/f) CORES IDENTIFICATION and MASS ESTIMATIVE

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[23]: <matplotlib.colorbar.Colorbar at 0x137e1ce90>



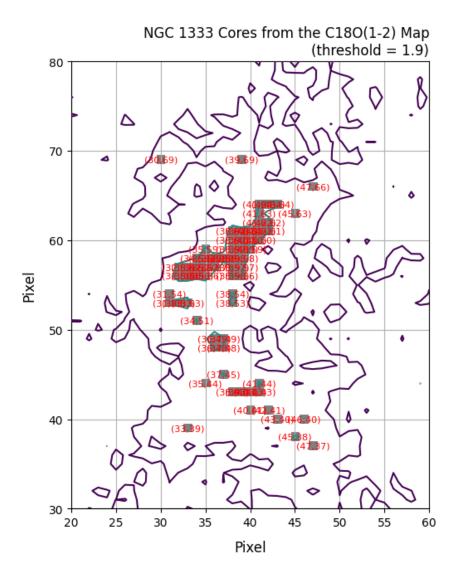
```
ax.set_title(f'NGC 1333 Cores from the C180(1-2) Map\n(threshold = 0)
{threshold})', fontsize = 12, loc = 'right')

y_coords, x_coords = np.where(core_mask)

# Annotate each core position
for (x, y) in zip(x_coords, y_coords):
    ax.text(x, y, f'({x},{y})', fontsize=8, color='red', ha='center', ova='center', zorder=200)

ax.set(ylim = (30, 80), xlim = (20, 60))
```

[24]: [(30.0, 80.0), (20.0, 60.0)]



(53,19)

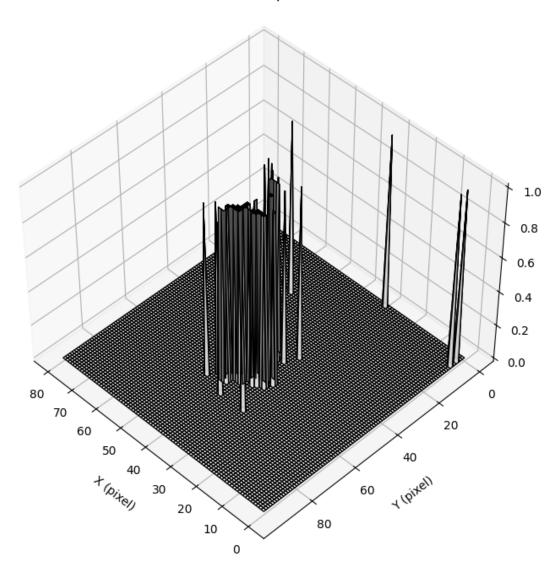
(1,6)

(1,3) (30,1)

```
[25]: y_coords, x_coords = np.where(core_mask)
      # 3D plot
      from mpl_toolkits.mplot3d import Axes3D
      data = core_mask.astype(float) # Convert True/False to 1/0
      ny, nx = data.shape
      x = np.arange(nx)
      y = np.arange(ny)
      X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
      # Create 3D plot
      fig = plt.figure(figsize = (10, 8))
      ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection = '3d')
      # Plot the surface
      ax.plot_surface(X, Y, data, cmap = 'Greys', edgecolor = 'k', alpha = 0.9, __
       ⇔rstride = 1, cstride = 1)
      # Adjust view angle
      ax.view_init(elev = 45, azim = 135)
      # Labels and title
      ax.set_xlabel('X (pixel)', labelpad = 10)
      ax.set_ylabel('Y (pixel)', labelpad = 10)
      ax.set_title(f'Cores from C$^{{18}}$0(1-2) Map (Threshold = {threshold})', pad_
       ⇒= 20)
```

[25]: $Text(0.5, 0.92, 'Cores from C180(1-2) Map (Threshold = 1.9)')$

Cores from $C^{18}O(1-2)$ Map (Threshold = 1.9)



```
[26]: y_coords, x_coords = np.where(core_mask)
    xy_coords = np.column_stack((x_coords, y_coords))

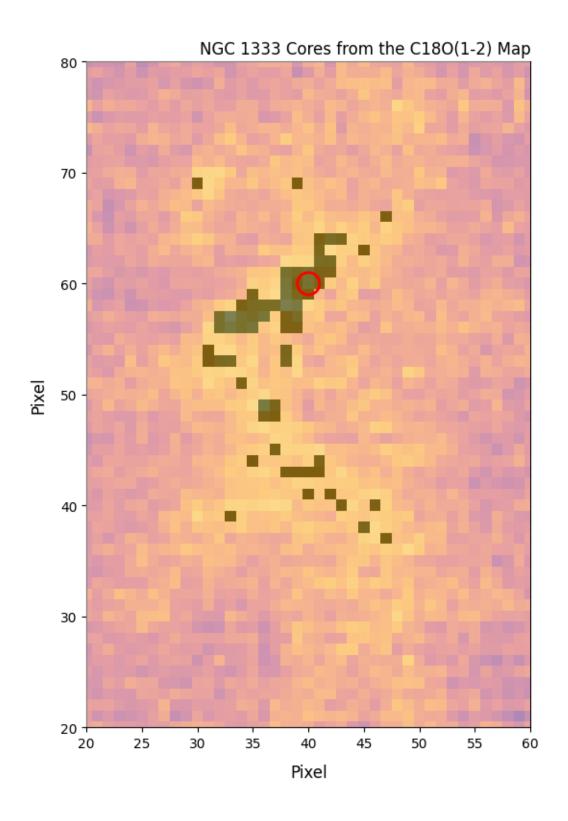
[27]: # perform aperture photometry
    position = (40, 60) # xy coordinates of the center of the core (roughly)
    r_aperture_pix = 1 # (2) pixels to just focus on the core
    aperture = CircularAperture(position, r_aperture_pix)

# physical area
    pix_size_cm = (pixel_size.to(u.rad) * distance.to(u.cm)).value
    area_pix_cm2 = pix_size_cm**2
```

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[27] : $9.7820758~{\rm M}_{\odot}$

[28]: Text(1.0, 1.0, 'NGC 1333 Cores from the C180(1-2) Map')



Is it stable against gravity or not?

We can determine if a core is stable or unstable against gravity (basically if it is forming stars or not) using the Jeans criterion and comparing to the actual mass of the core. In these cases, if $M_{\rm core} > M_{\rm Jeans}$ then the core is **unstable** and likely to collapse under gravity. Otherwise it is said that the core is stable and will resist gravitational collapse, i.e., not form stars.

The Jeans mass is given by

$$\mathrm{M_{Jeans}} = rac{\pi^{5/2}}{6} rac{c_s^3}{G^{3/2}
ho^{1/2}}$$

where c_s is the sound speed of the gas; related to its temperature via $c_s = \sqrt{\frac{k_B T}{\mu m_H}}$, ρ is the gas density ($\rho = n_{\rm H_2} \cdot \mu \cdot m_H$), μ is the mean molecular weight, which we assumed to be 2.3, and $m_H = 1.67 \times 10^{-24}$, g is the mass of a hydrogen atom

This expression can be also written as

$${\rm M_{Jeans}} = 2 \left(\frac{c_s}{0.2~{\rm km/s}} \right)^3 \left(\frac{n}{10^3~{\rm cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1/2} ~{\rm [M_{\odot}]}$$

```
[29]: mu = 2.3
m_H = m_p.cgs.value
G_cgs = G.cgs.value

T = tex_vals.mean() # average excitation tempetature
c_s = np.sqrt((k_B.cgs.value * T) / (mu * m_H)) # in cm/s

L_cm = (0.1 * u.pc).to(u.cm).value # depth
n_H2 = N_H2 / L_cm # number density [cm^-3]
```

```
[30]: cs_kms = (c_s*u.cm/u.s).to(u.km/u.s).value

MJ = 2 * (cs_kms / 0.2)**3 * (n_H2 / 1e3)**(1/2)

MJ * u.Msun
```

[30]: $\overline{61.134161} \ \mathrm{M}_{\odot}$

```
[31]: # Is it stable?
if mass_Msun.value < MJ:
    print("The core is stable.")
else:
    print("The core is unstable.")</pre>
```

The core is stable.