

C₂H observations toward the Orion Bar

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July 1, 2021

ABSTRACT

Context. The ethynyl radical (C₂H) is one of the first radicals to be detected in the interstellar medium. Its higher rotational transitions have recently become available with the *Herschel* Space Observatory.

Aims. We aim to constrain the physical parameters of the C₂H emitting gas toward the Orion Bar.

Methods. We analyse the C₂H line intensities measured toward the Orion Bar CO⁺ Peak and *Herschel*/HIFI maps of C₂H, CH, and HCO⁺, and a NANTEN map of [C_I]. We interpret the observed C₂H emission using the combination of *Herschel*/HIFI and NANTEN data with radiative transfer and PDR models.

Results. Five rotational transitions of C₂H (from $N=6-5$ up to $N=10-9$) have been detected in the HIFI frequency range toward the CO⁺ peak of the Orion Bar. Based on the five detected C₂H transitions, a single component rotational diagram analysis gives a rotation temperature of ~ 64 K and a beam-averaged C₂H column density of 4×10^{13} cm⁻². The rotational diagram is also consistent with a two-component fit resulting in rotation temperatures of 43 ± 0.2 K and 123 ± 21 K, and beam-averaged column densities of $\sim 8.3 \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻² and $\sim 2.3 \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻² for the three lower- N and for the three higher- N transitions, respectively. The measured five rotational transitions cannot be explained by any single parameter model. According to a non-LTE model, most of the C₂H column density produces the lower- N C₂H transitions and traces a warm ($T_{\text{kin}} \sim 100 - 150$ K) and dense ($n(\text{H}_2) \sim 10^5 - 10^6$ cm⁻³) gas. A small fraction of the C₂H column density is required to reproduce the intensity of the highest- N transitions ($N=9-8$ and $N=10-9$) originating from a high density ($n(\text{H}_2) \sim 5 \times 10^6$ cm⁻³) hot ($T_{\text{kin}} \sim 400$ K) gas. The total beam-averaged C₂H column density in the model is 10^{14} cm⁻². A comparison of the spatial distribution of C₂H to those of CH, HCO⁺, and [C_I] shows the best correlation with CH.

Conclusions. Both the non-LTE radiative transfer model and a simple PDR model representing the Orion Bar with a plane-parallel slab of gas and dust suggest, that C₂H cannot be described by a single pressure component, unlike the reactive ion CH⁺, which was previously analysed toward the Orion Bar CO⁺ peak. The physical parameters traced by the higher rotational transitions ($N=6-5, \dots, 10-9$) of C₂H may be consistent with the edges of dense clumps exposed to UV radiation near the ionization front of the Orion Bar.

Key words. stars: formation – ISM: molecules – ISM: individual objects: Orion Bar

1. Introduction

The ethynyl radical (C₂H) was one of the first radicals to be detected in the interstellar medium (Tucker et al. 1974). It has been observed toward several types of regions, including diffuse clouds (Lucas & Liszt 2000), massive star-forming regions (Beuther et al. 2008), photon-dominated regions (PDRs, e.g. Teyssier et al. 2004) and dark clouds (e.g. Pratap et al. 1997). C₂H is an important molecule in the carbon-chemistry, and is related to many C-bearing species. One example is the C₃H⁺ ion, which has recently been detected toward the Horsehead PDR (Pety et al. 2012). C₂H can also be an ingredient for the formation of carbon chain molecules, such as C₅, via a reaction with C₃. C₂H can also be converted to CO either by a neutral-neutral reaction with O, or by a reaction with carbon chain ions, such as HCO⁺. Due to its role in the carbon chemistry, understanding the abundance of C₂H is important to understand the chemical network related to carbon. The recent access to the higher rotational transitions provided by the *Herschel* Space Observatory

and the recently calculated inelastic collision rates (Spielfiedel et al. 2012) give an opportunity to probe the chemistry and excitation of C₂H. Using the higher rotational transitions accessible by *Herschel* and the available collision rates we probe the excitation of C₂H and the physical parameters that it traces toward the prototypical, high UV-illumination PDR, the Orion Bar. As photodissociation of larger carbon-chain molecules and PAHs is one of the possible formation routes of C₂H, PDRs provide a good source to study C₂H.

The Orion Bar is an ideal source to probe the excitation and chemistry of molecules in PDRs, due to its close distance of 414 pc (Menten et al. 2007) and its well-known structure and geometry. The Orion Bar is located between the Orion Molecular Cloud and an H_{II} region illuminated by the Trapezium cluster. The FUV radiation field of the Trapezium cluster at the location of the Orion Bar is equivalent to $(1 - 4) \times 10^4 \chi_0$ in Draine (1978) units. Its orientation changes from face-on to nearly edge-on where the molecular emissions peak. The observations presented in this paper also correspond to the nearly edge-on ori-

entation part of the Orion Bar. The geometrical enhancement of the column densities toward the nearly edge-on part of the Orion Bar was derived by multiple studies and is in the range between 4 and 20. The tilt angle compared to a completely edge-on orientation was suggested to be 3° in the model of Hogerheijde et al. (1995) and Jansen et al. (1995). A tilt angle of 3° is equivalent to an enhancement factor of 20 for the measured column densities. Based on Or 1.317 μm emission Walmsley et al. (2000) find a model that requires a geometrical enhancement factor of 5 to convert the observed column densities into face-on values. Neufeld et al. (2006) found the geometrical enhancement factor to be 4 based on measured C^+ column densities. Using a clumpy 3D PDR model, Andree-Labsch et al. (2014) successfully reproduced the Orion Bar stratification using a clumpy edge-on cavity wall, and claim that a model of a convex filament fails to describe the structure of the Orion Bar. The average kinetic temperature was estimated to be 85 K (Hogerheijde et al. 1995). Closer to the ionization front, higher temperatures are also measured, for example OH transitions observed with *Herschel*/PACS are consistent with 160–220 K gas (Goicoechea et al. 2011), and CH^+ observations with temperatures around 500 K (Nagy et al. 2013). Part of the molecular line emission measured toward the Orion Bar corresponds to an ‘interclump medium’ with densities between a few 10^4 and $2 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Simon et al. 1997). Other molecular lines have been suggested to originate in clumps with densities in the range between 1.5×10^6 and $6 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Lis & Schilke 2003).

Previous C_2H observations toward the Orion Bar cover the lower- N rotational transitions. Cuadrado et al. (2015) analyse the $N=1-0, \dots, 4-3$ transitions. The $N=4-3$ transition was observed by Hogerheijde et al. (1995), Jansen et al. (1995), and Van der Wiel et al. (2009), and the $N=1-0$ transition by Fuente et al. (1996). In this paper we analyse emission from five higher rotational transitions to constrain the physical parameters of the C_2H emitting gas toward the Orion Bar.

2. Observations and Data reduction

The observations presented in this paper are part of the HEXOS¹ guaranteed-time key program (Bergin et al. 2010) for the HIFI instrument (De Graauw et al. 2010) of the *Herschel* Space Observatory (Pilbratt et al. 2010). The CO^+ peak ($\alpha_{J2000} = 05^{\text{h}}35^{\text{m}}20.6^{\text{s}}$, $\delta_{J2000} = -05^\circ 25' 14''$) of the Orion Bar has been observed over the full HIFI range (480–1910 GHz) as a spectral scan. An overview of the full spectral line survey will be presented in a forthcoming paper (Nagy et al., 2015). The data were reduced using HIPE (Ott 2010) pipeline version 9.0 and 10.0 and are calibrated to T_{A}^* scale. The sideband deconvolution was done using the *doDeconvolution* task in HIPE. The double sideband (DSB) scans were first deconvolved with the strongest lines ($T_{\text{A}}^* > 10 \text{ K}$) removed. This deconvolution results in a single sideband (SSB) spectrum with very little contribution from deconvolution ghosts, but without data at the frequencies of the strongest lines. Therefore, we performed another deconvolution of the data including the strongest lines. The data around the frequencies of the strong lines was then used together with the first deconvolution result, providing a single sideband spectrum in the total observed frequency range. Finally, the strong lines were incorporated into the weak line SSB spectrum.

The continuum at the observed frequencies is negligible, as it is similar to the measured rms noise level. The C_2H transitions detected in the HIFI survey are listed in Table 1 includ-

ing spectroscopic parameters from the Cologne Database for Molecular Spectroscopy (CDMS, Müller et al. 2005). The hyperfine structure is not resolved by HIFI, therefore the detected lines are blends of multiple hyperfine components. Table 1 lists the spectroscopic parameters for the strongest hyperfine components. The spectral resolutions at the frequencies of the observed transitions (from $N=6-5$ to $N=10-9$) are 0.29, 0.25, 0.21, 0.19, and 0.17 km s^{-1} .

To compare the line intensities of the transitions detected with different beam sizes in the HIFI line survey, we convert all the observed line intensities to a common $\sim 40.5''$ resolution. We derive conversion factors between the original beam sizes and $\sim 40.5''$ based on the integrated intensity map of the C_2H 4–3 transition from the James Clerk Maxwell Telescope (JCMT) Spectral Legacy Survey (Van der Wiel et al. 2009). The derived correction factors between the beam sizes of the C_2H transitions and the $40.5''$ beam are 0.94, 0.88, 0.84, and 0.79 from beam sizes of $34.7''$, $30.4''$, $27.0''$, and $24.3''$, respectively. Table 1 includes the parameters that are measured with the original beam sizes. For the non-LTE models in Sect. 5 we use the values that have been corrected for the changing beam size.

In addition to the HIFI spectral scans, a $115'' \times 65''$ area centered on $\alpha_{J2000} = 05^{\text{h}}35^{\text{m}}20.81^{\text{s}}$, $\delta_{J2000} = -05^\circ 25' 17.1''$ with a position angle of 145° was mapped in the $N=6-5$ transition of C_2H with HIFI, in on-the-fly (OTF) mapping mode with position-switch reference. The center of the maps is consistent with the CO^+ peak (it is $4''$ off from the CO^+ peak) where the spectral scans are pointed. The CO^+ peak is close to the PDR surface and to the region where vibrationally excited H_2 peaks (e.g. Walmsley et al. (2000) and Fig. 1. of Nagy et al. (2013)). The fully sampled map was pipelined with HIPE 11.1 and exported to CLASS for further analysis, including baseline subtraction using linear baselines. As a comparison to the C_2H emission, we use maps of the HCO^+ $J=6-5$ transition (535061.6 MHz) and of the $\text{CH } ^2\Pi_{3/2}$ transitions around 536 GHz ($N=1-0$, $J=3/2-1/2$, $F=2^- - 1^+$ at 536.76115 MHz, $N=1-0$, $J=3/2-1/2$, $F=1^- - 1^+$ at 536.782.0 MHz, $N=1-0$, $J=3/2-1/2$, $F=1^- - 0^+$ at 536.79568). These maps have the same parameters and were reduced with the same HIPE version and methods as the C_2H $N=6-5$ map. The spectral resolution of the observed HCO^+ and CH transitions is 0.28 km s^{-1} .

In addition to the HIFI maps, we use a $[\text{C}1] \ ^3\Pi_1-^3\Pi_0$ (492.1607 GHz) map observed with the NANTEN2-4m antenna, which is located at 4865 m altitude in Pampa la Bola in northern Chile. The observations were taken in October and November 2011 with a dual-channel 460/810 GHz SMART receiver. The receiver temperature was $\sim 250 \text{ K}$ at the band center. The velocity resolution (or channel spacing) is 0.68 km s^{-1} at 460 GHz. The observed spectra were calibrated using the atmospheric model Atmospheric Transmission at Microwave (Pardo et al. 2001). The half power beam width (HPBW) is $\sim 37''$. The data were calibrated to main beam temperature using main beam and forward efficiencies of 0.50 and 0.86, respectively.

3. The spatial distribution and velocity structure of C_2H

Figure 1 shows the integrated intensity of the C_2H $N = 6 - 5$ $J = 13/2 - 11/2$ and $J = 11/2 - 9/2$ doublet. C_2H emission has been detected toward the Bar and also perpendicular to the Bar, corresponding to the Orion Ridge. The C_2H $N=6-5$ emission is not as extended as other species including CH and $[\text{C}1]$ (Fig. 4). The C_2H integrated intensity does not peak at the CO^+ peak (the

¹ Herschel observations of EXtra-Ordinary Sources

center of the maps), but toward the north-eastern part of the Bar covered by the C₂H map, around offsets (45'', 25''). The difference in the position where the C₂H and CO⁺ line intensities peak is likely to be a result of different physical parameters toward the two positions. As mentioned in Appendix 7, C₂H formation for the Orion Bar is expected to be dominated by a reaction of C₂ with H₂. CO⁺ is produced in a reaction between C⁺ and OH, where OH is produced from O and H₂. Therefore, the CO⁺ and C₂H peaks likely have different H₂ volume densities. The region where C₂H peaks overlaps with one of the OH⁺ intensity peaks (at a velocity of ~12 km s⁻¹, Van der Tak et al. 2013), which lies about 10'' south-east of the CO 10-9 intensity peak at a velocity of ~12 km s⁻¹, which is observed toward the H¹³CN clumps 2 and 3 identified by Lis & Schilke (2003).

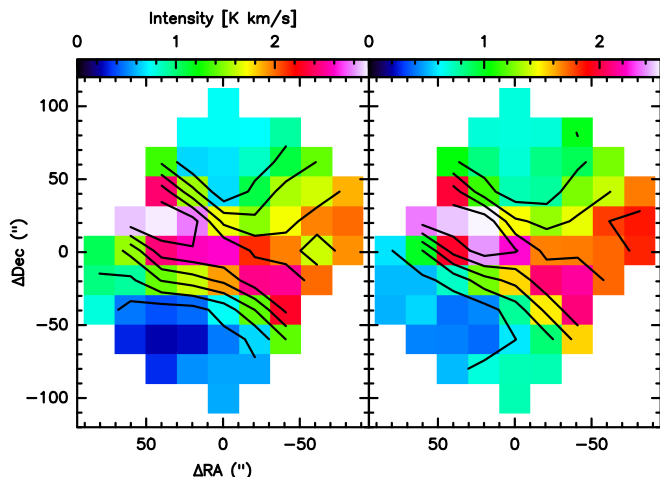


Fig. 1. Integrated intensities of the C₂H $N = 6 - 5 J = 13/2 - 11/2$ (left) and $J = 11/2 - 9/2$ (right) doublet. The contour levels go from 0.2 to 2.8 K km s⁻¹ spaced by 0.4 K km s⁻¹.

Apart from the $N=6-5$ doublet, four more doublets (from $N=7-6$ to $N=10-9$) have been detected toward the CO⁺ peak of the Orion Bar, which the $N=6-5$ map is centered on. Figure 2 shows the line profiles of the C₂H doublets observed there. The observed two lines, which are blends of hyperfine transitions, are shifted with ~62 MHz in every case, which is equivalent to different velocity intervals due to the change in the frequency of the transitions. Table 1 lists the line intensities of these C₂H transitions as obtained by Gaussian fitting. The observed doublet intensity ratios are 1.23, 1.16, 1.07, 1.26, and 0.66 for $N=6-5, \dots, 10-9$, respectively. In LTE, the doublet ratio is given by the ratio of the A coefficients so that we expect that the blue-shifted component to be about 2% brighter than the red one. The opposite ratio in $N=10-9$ is probably due to the lower S/N leading to an overestimate of the width and integrated intensity in the red-shifted component. The peak velocities are in the range between 10.6-11.1 km s⁻¹. The variation in the peak velocities falls slightly above the uncertainty from the frequency accuracy of the HIFI products and the fit accuracy so that it may indicate a small velocity variation within the C₂H emitting gas, but it is very small compared to the line width, so that we can ignore it here, still being sure to analyse the same gas in all transitions. As shown in Fig. 3 on the velocity channel maps of C₂H, the Orion Ridge is most prominent at velocities lower than 9 km s⁻¹. Most C₂H emission toward the Orion Bar is seen at velocities in the range between 9 and 11 km s⁻¹. The velocity structure of C₂H is similar to that seen in OH⁺ (Van der Tak et al. 2013): the blue-shifted part of the emission peaks toward the Orion Ridge, emis-

sion around the expected source velocity (10 km s⁻¹) has contributions both from the Orion Bar and the Orion Ridge, while emission corresponding to the red-shifted velocities only comes from the Bar. However, the peak velocities at which the Orion Bar and Ridge are detected are slightly shifted for C₂H compared to those for OH⁺. OH⁺ at velocities of 9–10 km s⁻¹ shows emission mainly toward the Orion Ridge. In the same velocity interval C₂H emission peaks toward the Orion Bar, and shows little emission toward the Orion Ridge. This could be explained by low-density gas in the Orion Ridge at $v < 9$ km s⁻¹ providing a lower C₂H excitation compared to OH⁺ for that component.

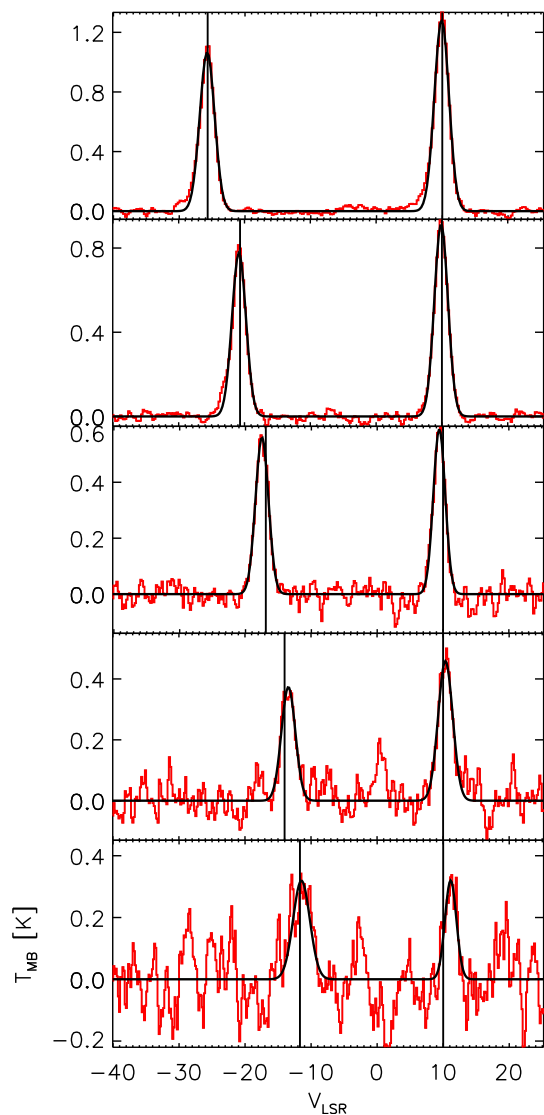


Fig. 2. Line profiles of the C₂H doublets observed toward the CO⁺ peak of the Orion Bar, from $N=6-5$ (top) to $N=10-9$ (bottom). The Gaussian fits shown in Table 1 are overlaid on the profiles. The black lines show the expected LSR velocity of 10 km s⁻¹ for both components.

Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution of C₂H $N=6-5$ and lines of other species that are expected to trace regions relatively close to the PDR surface (equivalent to low visual extinctions): CH ²Π_{3/2} $N=1-0 J=3/2-1/2$, HCO⁺ $J=6-5$, and [C_I] ³P₁-³P₀. Out of the four line emissions shown in Fig. 4, the lines of CH and [C_I] show the largest spatial extent over the area analysed in this paper. All these lines peak at a similar position toward the Orion Bar. HCO⁺ $J=6-5$ emission toward the Orion Bar is less ex-

Table 1. Spectroscopic and Gaussian fit parameters of the C₂H lines observed toward the CO⁺ peak of the Orion Bar.

Transition	A_{ij} (s ⁻¹)	E_u (K)	ν (MHz)	$\int T_{\text{MB}}dV$ (K km s ⁻¹)	V_{LSR} (km s ⁻¹)	ΔV (km s ⁻¹)	T_{peak} (K)	rms (K)	Θ_B ($''$)
$N = 6 - 5, J = 13/2 - 11/2$	4.54×10^{-4}	88.0	523971.6	3.64 ± 0.03	10.59 ± 0.08	2.65 ± 0.03	1.29	0.02	40.5
$N = 6 - 5, J = 11/2 - 9/2$	4.46×10^{-4}	88.0	524033.9	2.95 ± 0.03	10.58 ± 0.01	2.61 ± 0.03	1.06	0.02	40.5
$N = 7 - 6, J = 15/2 - 13/2$	7.30×10^{-4}	117.4	611267.2	2.38 ± 0.16	10.77 ± 0.07	2.44 ± 0.19	0.91	0.13	34.7
$N = 7 - 6, J = 13/2 - 11/2$	7.21×10^{-4}	117.4	611329.7	2.06 ± 0.14	10.70 ± 0.03	2.50 ± 0.20	0.78	0.11	34.7
$N = 8 - 7, J = 19/2 - 17/2$	1.10×10^{-3}	150.9	698544.8	1.32 ± 0.09	10.67 ± 0.07	2.12 ± 0.17	0.59	0.09	30.4
$N = 8 - 7, J = 17/2 - 15/2$	1.09×10^{-3}	150.9	698607.5	1.23 ± 0.10	10.67 ± 0.08	2.23 ± 0.21	0.52	0.10	30.4
$N = 9 - 8, J = 19/2 - 17/2$	1.58×10^{-3}	188.6	785802.1	1.21 ± 0.09	10.35 ± 0.09	2.51 ± 0.23	0.45	0.08	27.0
$N = 9 - 8, J = 17/2 - 15/2$	1.57×10^{-3}	188.6	785865.0	0.96 ± 0.10	10.56 ± 0.12	2.44 ± 0.28	0.37	0.09	27.0
$N = 10 - 9, J = 21/2 - 19/2$	2.18×10^{-3}	230.5	873036.4	0.82 ± 0.10	11.12 ± 0.15	2.23 ± 0.30	0.35	0.11	24.3
$N = 10 - 9, J = 19/2 - 17/2$	2.16×10^{-3}	230.5	873099.5	1.25 ± 0.11	10.11 ± 0.18	3.00 ± 0.50	0.30	0.09	24.3

tended compared to the lines of the other molecules, especially C₁ and CH. HCO⁺ $J=6-5$ is also the only line in Fig. 4 that peaks toward the Orion Ridge and not toward the Bar. The comparison of the spatial distribution of C₂H to those of HCO⁺, CH, and [C₁] based on the line emissions shown in Fig. 4 is straightforward, due to the similar beam size of the observed transitions. In the following paragraphs while comparing the spatial distribution of C₂H to those of CH, HCO⁺, and [C₁], we refer to the transitions shown in Fig. 4. The spatial distribution of the species may vary depending on the transitions used. The comparison of the spatial distributions can be converted to correlation plots (Fig. 5). C₂H shows the strongest correlation with CH, compared to HCO⁺ and [C₁]. The corresponding correlation coefficients for CH, HCO⁺, and [C₁] are 0.93, 0.81, and 0.68, respectively.

As seen on the velocity channel maps, the velocity range covered by the observed lines corresponds to at least two regions: the Orion Bar and the Orion Ridge. They represent two different PDRs with different conditions so that we expect a different behaviour. Therefore, the spatial correlation may be different for the spatially different regions. Fig. 6 shows spatial correlations between C₂H, CH, HCO⁺, and [C₁] calculated in three velocity intervals: 7–8.5 km s⁻¹, 8.5–10 km s⁻¹, and 10–11.5 km s⁻¹. The blue-shifted velocity interval is dominated by emission from the Orion Ridge. The central velocity interval has contributions both from the Orion Bar and the Orion Ridge. The red-shifted velocity interval is dominated by emission from the Orion Bar. The best correlation is found for the blue-shifted (correlation coefficients of 0.69–0.92), and the worst for the intermediate velocity intervals (correlation coefficients of 0.38–0.68). The decrease of the correlation coefficient for the central velocity interval may be related to optical depth effects. Based on these results, CH and HCO⁺ may be good tracers of C₂H for the Orion Ridge. Taking into account the red-shifted velocity interval only, these species may probe a similar gas to C₂H. Among the molecules studied here, the gas traced by [C₁] is the least related to the gas traced by C₂H both for the Bar and the Ridge.

4. C₂H column densities - single excitation temperature

One method to estimate the C₂H column density is interpreting the intensities of the observed five doublets by a rotational diagram. The observed integrated intensities can be directly converted to upper state column densities by assuming that the transitions are optically thin, the level populations can be characterized by a single excitation temperature, and that the line emission has a uniform beam filling. In the rotational diagram method the

measured integrated main-beam temperatures of lines ($\int T_{\text{MB}}dV$ K km s⁻¹) are converted to the column densities of the molecules in the upper level (N_u) using:

$$\frac{N_u}{g_u} = \frac{N_{\text{tot}}}{Q(T_{\text{rot}})} \exp\left(-\frac{E_u}{T_{\text{rot}}}\right) = \frac{1.67 \cdot 10^{14}}{\nu \mu^2 S} \int T_{\text{MB}}dV, \quad (1)$$

with g_u the statistical weight of level u , N_{tot} the total column density in cm⁻², $Q(T_{\text{rot}})$ the partition function for T_{rot} , E_u the upper level energy in K, ν the frequency in GHz, μ the permanent dipole moment in Debye and S the line strength value. A linear fit to $\ln(N_u/g_u) - E_u$ gives T_{rot} as the inverse of the slope, and N_{tot} , the column density as the intercept. The rotational temperature would be expected to be equal to the kinetic temperature if all levels were thermalized.

Fig. 7 shows the resulting rotation diagram when adding the hyperfine components of each rotational transition, which corresponds to a rotation temperature of $\sim 64 \pm 11$ K and a C₂H column density of $(4 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻². The ratios of the intensities of the hyperfine components are consistent with the optically thin assumption.

The curved rotational diagram in Fig. 7 may be an evidence for multiple density and temperature components to be present in the region covered by the HIFI beam. Therefore, we fitted the $N=6-5, \dots, 8-7$ and the $N=8-7, \dots, 10-9$ transitions separately as well. The rotation diagram of the lower- N transitions gives a rotation temperature of 43 ± 0.2 K and a column density of $(8 \pm 0.03) \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻². The rotation diagram fit for the higher- N transitions gives a rotation temperature of $\sim 123 \pm 21$ K and a column density of $(2 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻². In case of the two-component rotational diagram, the total beam-averaged C₂H column density is 10^{14} cm⁻². This is similar to the maximum value that Jansen et al. (1995) found along their observed cut toward the Orion Bar, and factors of 2-5 below the values that Van der Wiel et al. (2009) derived, both corresponding to beam sizes of $\sim 15''$.

5. C₂H column densities - non-LTE calculation

As inelastic collision rates for C₂H recently became available, a non-LTE analysis is also possible. Non-LTE excitation is expected to be important as the transitions studied here have critical densities above the average $\sim 10^5$ cm⁻³ Orion Bar H₂ volume density (Hogerheijde et al. 1995). For example, assuming a gas temperature of 100 K, for C₂H-H₂ collisions the $N=6-5, J=13/2-11/2$ transition have a critical density of 6.8×10^7 cm⁻³, and the $N=8-7, J=17/2-15/2$ a critical density of 1.6×10^8 cm⁻³.

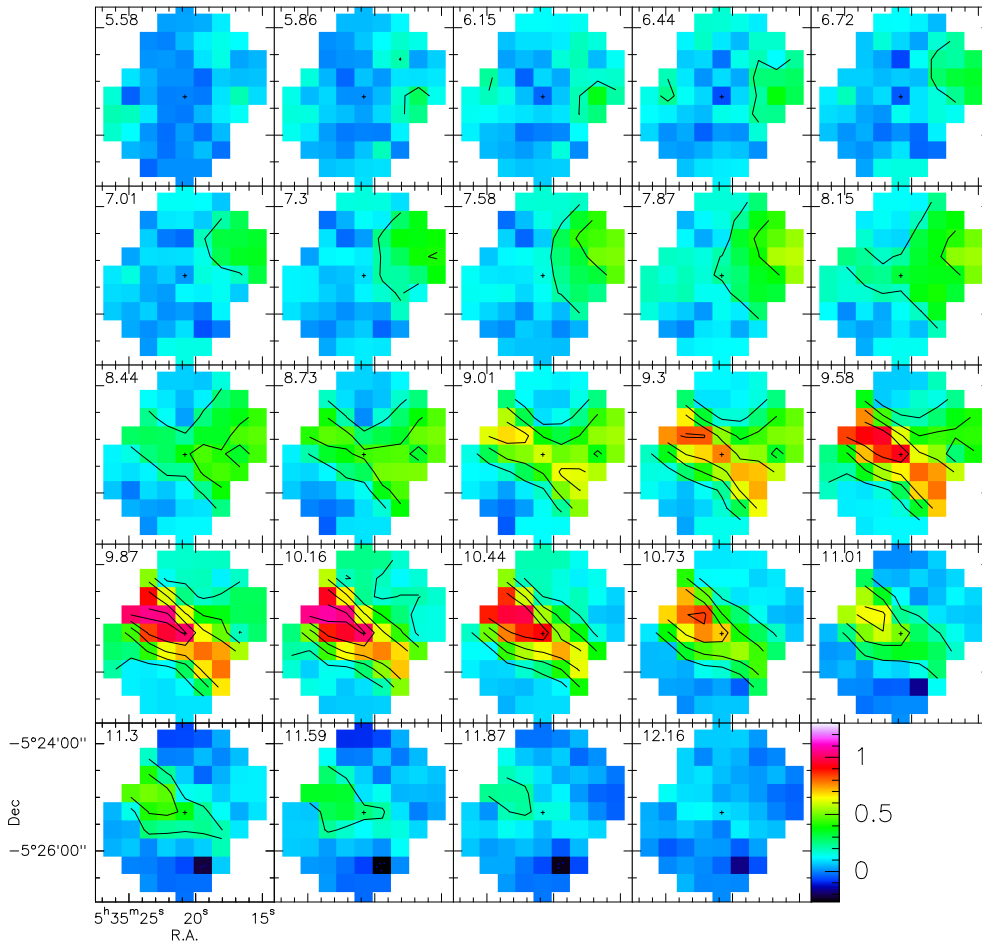


Fig. 3. Velocity channel maps of the C₂H $N = 6 - 5$ $J = 13/2 - 11/2$ transition toward the Orion Bar.

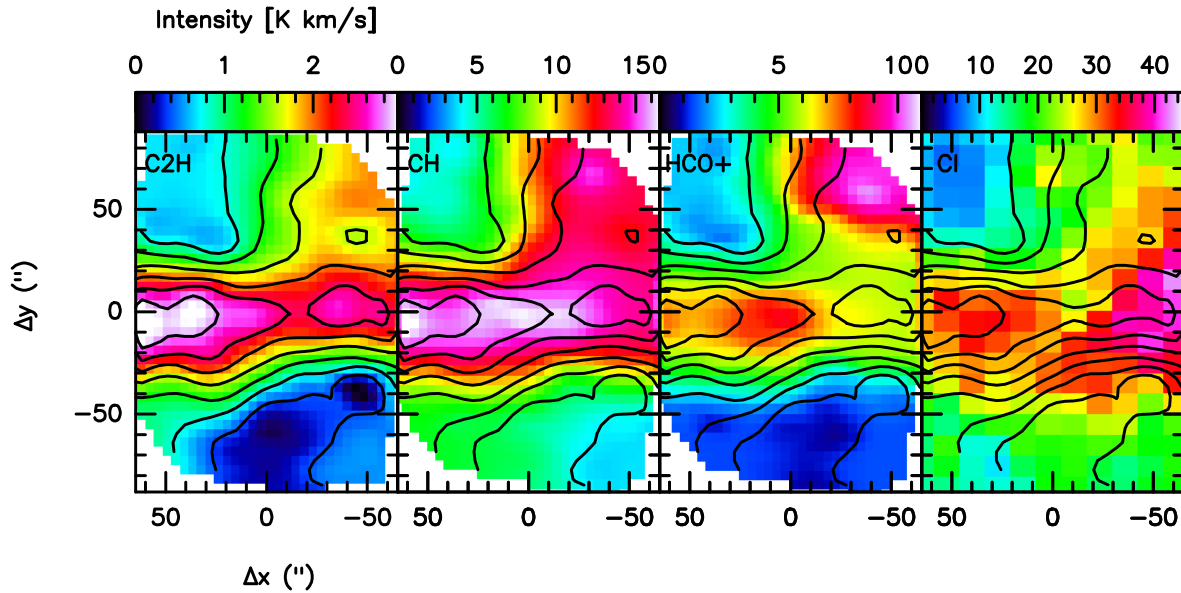


Fig. 4. Integrated intensity maps of C₂H $N=6-5$, CH $^2\Pi_{3/2}$, HCO⁺ $J=6-5$, and [C I] $^3P_1-^3P_0$ toward the Orion Bar. The C₂H integrated intensities are over-plotted on each map (black contours). The maps have been rotated by -35° .

While the LTE approach provides information on the C₂H column density and excitation temperature, the non-LTE analysis also gives an estimate on the kinetic temperature and H₂ volume density of the C₂H emitting gas. This is, of course, only possible if the excitation deviates from LTE, but this is expected

at least for the high- N transitions with very large critical densities. C₂H-He collision rates were calculated by Spielfiedel et al. (2012), which we scaled to represent C₂H-H₂ collisions following Schöier et al. (2005), by a factor of 1.36, based on the ratio of the reduced mass of the C₂H-He and C₂H-H₂ systems. These

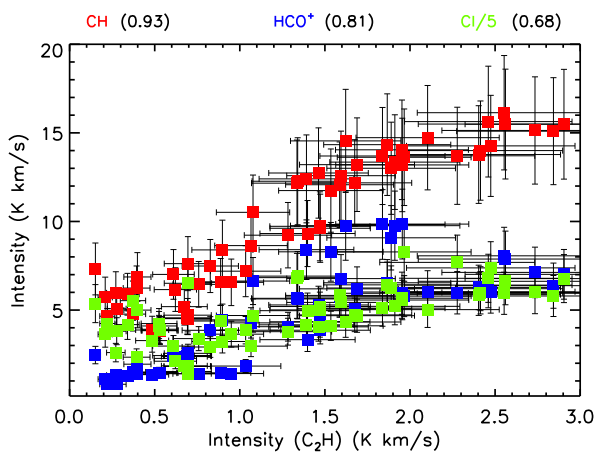


Fig. 5. Integrated line intensity correlations between the C_2H $N = 6 - 5$ $J = 13/2 - 11/2$ line and HCO^+ , CH, and [C]. The corresponding correlation coefficients are shown in parentheses.

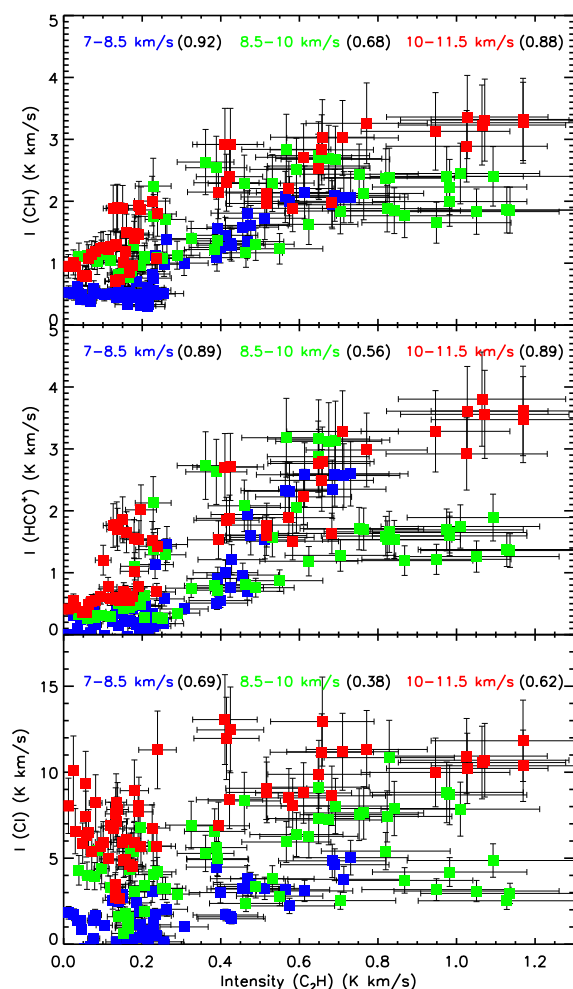


Fig. 6. Line intensity spatial correlations between the C_2H $N = 6 - 5$ $J = 13/2 - 11/2$ line and HCO^+ , CH, and [C]. The corresponding correlation coefficients are shown in parentheses.

collision rates are available for energies up to 104.9 cm^{-1} , covering three rotational transitions analysed in this paper ($N=6-5$, $7-6$, and $8-7$). The rates are calculated for a temperature range between 5 and 100 K. We extrapolated these collision rates for temperatures up to 400 K and energies up to $\sim 445 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (see Appendix B). Collisional rates for these higher levels and tem-

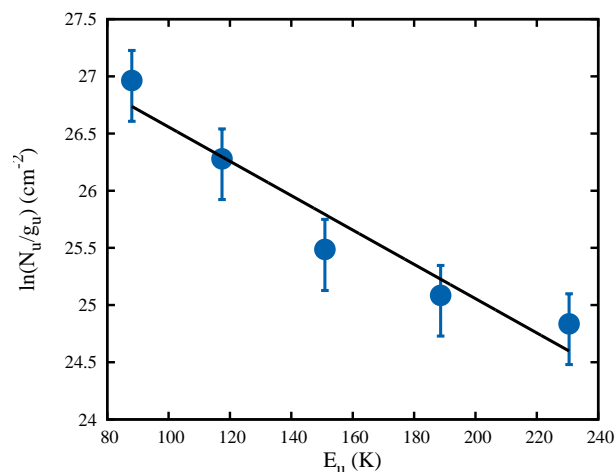


Fig. 7. The rotational diagram of C_2H , corresponding to a rotational temperature of $64 \pm 11 \text{ K}$ and a column density of $(4 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

peratures are clearly required and should be computed properly, in order to avoid extrapolations. We also use collision rates with electrons, calculated in the Born approximation with Infinite Order Sudden (IOS) recoupling, calculated for temperatures in the range between 10 and 1000 K (see Appendix A). We ran several RADEX (Van der Tak et al. 2007) models with physical parameters that are expected for the Orion Bar, i.e. kinetic temperatures between 50 and 400 K and H_2 volume densities between $5 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and 10^7 cm^{-3} . We also use a background radiation field based on Arab et al. (2012), which is a modified blackbody distribution with a dust temperature of $T_d=50 \text{ K}$ and a dust emissivity index of $\beta=1.6$. The used electron density has very little effect on the line intensities, which is a consequence of the small C_2H dipole moment (Appendix A).

The observed line intensities are not consistent with C_2H originating in a single gas component toward the Orion Bar CO^+ peak. A two-component model is required to fit the observed C_2H intensities. In this model the C_2H column density is dominated by a gas component with a temperature of 100-150 K, an H_2 volume density of $5 \times 10^5 - 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, and a C_2H column density of $8 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. To reproduce the integrated intensity of the highest- N ($N=9-8$ and $10-9$) doublets, a higher density ($5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) hot ($T \sim 400 \text{ K}$) gas component is required. This second component has a column density of $2 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The sum of the line intensities predicted by this two-component model are overplotted on the observed line intensities in Fig. 8. This model is consistent with the $N=6-5$, $7-6$, and $10-9$ doublets within the observational errors, and over-predict the $8-7$ and $9-8$ doublets by 40% and 30%, respectively. This model is also consistent with the assumption that the analysed C_2H transitions are optically thin: the opacity of every transition is less than 0.03 in each model. The doublet ratios are well reproduced (13% or better) by both two-component models for the $N=6-5, \dots, 9-8$ transitions. The doublet ratio for the $N=10-9$ transition is reproduced within a factor of two. The doublet ratios estimated with RADEX for the two-component model with $n(H_2)=10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $T_{kin}=100 \text{ K}$ and $n(H_2)=5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $T=400 \text{ K}$ are 1.32, 1.27, 1.23, 1.22, and 1.22 for $N=6-5, \dots, 10-9$, respectively. The doublet ratios for the two component model with $n(H_2)=5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $T_{kin}=150 \text{ K}$ and $n(H_2)=5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $T=400 \text{ K}$ are 1.28, 1.23, 1.20, 1.21, and 1.22.

The evidence of at least two different gas components observed toward the CO^+ peak is consistent with the clumpy pic-

ture of PDRs. Different density and temperature components are expected to be covered by the HIFI beam. The existence of such high-density gas toward the Orion Bar CO⁺ peak is consistent with what was found for OH (Goicoechea et al. (2011)).

The non-LTE models suggest a total C₂H column density of $\sim 10^{14}$ cm⁻², dominated by the lowest-*N* transitions. The models also suggest the evidence of a very high density gas component, that contributes only about 20% of the C₂H column density, but is required to fit the highest-*N* transitions. The hot and dense gas that C₂H traces toward the Orion Bar based on the transitions analysed in this paper may be consistent with the UV-illuminated edges of dense clumps close to the ionization front of the PDR.

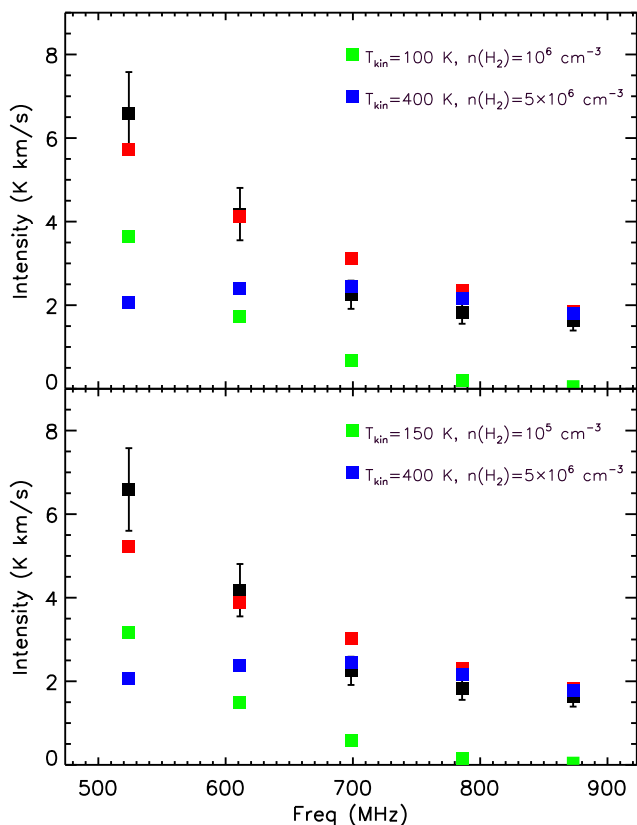


Fig. 8. Non-LTE C₂H line intensity predictions with RADEX vs the observed line intensities (black symbols). Top panel: The models corresponds to parameters of $n(\text{H}_2)=10^6$ cm⁻³, $T_{\text{kin}}=100$ K, $N(\text{C}_2\text{H})=8 \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻² (green symbols), and to $n(\text{H}_2)=5 \times 10^6$ cm⁻³, $T_{\text{kin}}=400$ K, $N(\text{C}_2\text{H})=2 \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻² (blue symbols). The sum of the two components is given by the red symbols. Bottom panel: The models corresponds to parameters of $n(\text{H}_2)=10^5$ cm⁻³, $T_{\text{kin}}=150$ K, $N(\text{C}_2\text{H})=8 \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻² (green symbols), and to $n(\text{H}_2)=5 \times 10^6$ cm⁻³, $T_{\text{kin}}=400$ K, $N(\text{C}_2\text{H})=2 \times 10^{13}$ cm⁻² (blue symbols). The sum of the two components is given by the red symbols.

6. Comparison to PDR models

In earlier works based on the Orion Bar HIFI line survey, we presented an isobaric PDR model, which explained the observed CH⁺ (Nagy et al. 2013) and OH⁺ (Van der Tak et al. 2013) emission toward the CO⁺ peak of the Orion Bar. This model was computed using the 1.4.4 version of the Meudon PDR code (Le Petit et al. 2006) and corresponds to a pressure of $P = 10^8$ cm⁻³ K and represents a plane-parallel slab of gas and dust illuminated from two sides by a radiation field of $\chi = 10^4$ on the front, and

by $\chi/1000$ on the back side. We have implemented the collision rates used in Sect. 5 in order to compute integrated intensities for the observed transitions.

Figure 9 shows the calculated C₂H integrated intensities corresponding to the model, over-plotted on the observed integrated intensities. The model over-predicts the intensity of the $N=6-5$, $N=7-6$, and $N=9-8$ doublets by about a factors of two, 1.5, and 20%. The model under-predicts the intensities of the $N=10-9$ and $N=11-10$ doublets by factors of 2.4 and 5.5. Even though the model predictions are close to most of the observed line intensities, it is clear that assuming a single pressure component is simplification, as the structure of PDRs is clumpy. The offset between the observed and modelled values may be explained by different gas components or clumps covered by the HIFI beam. The model predicts a face-on column density of 1.7×10^{14} cm⁻². Assuming a geometrical enhancement factor of four (e.g. Neufeld et al. 2006), this is equivalent to an edge-on column density of 6.8×10^{14} cm⁻². This value is about a factor of 7 above the values predicted by the two-component rotational diagram and RADEX models. Despite the higher column density compared to the rotational diagram and RADEX models this model under-predicts the intensity of the highest-*N* transitions. This confirms the result that the higher-*N* transitions contribute only a minor part of the total C₂H column density. The difference between the observed and modelled C₂H intensities suggests that most C₂H originates in a different gas component than CH⁺, which was used to constrain the PDR model.

Figure 10 shows the abundances of C₂H, CH, C⁺, HCO⁺, [C], and CH⁺ corresponding to the model, as a function of visual extinction up to a visual extinction of 10. Most C₂H is located near the surface of the PDR, in a relatively narrow region, at visual extinctions of $A_V \sim 1 - 2$. The gas temperature in this region predicted by the PDR model is in the range between ~ 570 K and 140 K, while the H₂ volume densities are in the range of 10^5 cm⁻³ and 6×10^5 cm⁻³, as shown in Fig. 11. In the range of $A_V = 0.8 \dots 1.5$ responsible for the main C₂H emission, the PDR model predicts temperatures that cover both components suggested by the RADEX models, 100-150 K and 400 K. The H₂ volume densities suggested by the RADEX model for the lower-*N* transitions (10^5 - 10^6 cm⁻³) is close to those corresponding to the PDR model. There are, however, two discrepancies: the RADEX H₂ volume density of 5×10^6 cm⁻³ for the hot component is above the density range predicted by the model for the C₂H emitting gas. Moreover, the temperature-density structure calculated in the isobaric model would predict the highest temperature gas to trace the lowest H₂ densities, and the lowest temperature gas to trace the highest H₂ densities. This behaviour results in the over-prediction of the intensities of lowest-*N* transitions and the under-prediction of the intensities of the highest-*N* transitions. This suggests that a single isobaric model to describe the C₂H emitting gas is an over-simplification. In contrast, the PDR is known to be out of equilibrium showing signs of photo-evaporation (Störzer & Hollenbach 1999). Fig. 10 also shows that the CH⁺ abundance peaks at lower visual extinctions compared to C₂H, and is consistent with gas at higher temperatures and lower H₂ densities compared to C₂H, which was also confirmed by non-LTE radiative transfer models (Nagy et al. 2013). This supports the assumption that most C₂H originates in a different gas compared to what CH⁺ traces. The dominant C₂H formation and destruction processes that the model suggests are shown in Sect. 7.

The PDR model quoted above is a simplification, but it confirms that C₂H toward the Orion Bar originates in more than one pressure component. Based on the physical parameters sug-

gested by the PDR model, the C_2H emitting gas is also most likely to trace the edges of dense clumps exposed to UV irradiation close to the ionization front of the PDR. Moreover, C_2H is predicted to be closely confined to the dense surface of the clump near $A_V \sim 1$. This is consistent with our excitation analysis which argues that this gas is directly heated by the UV photons.

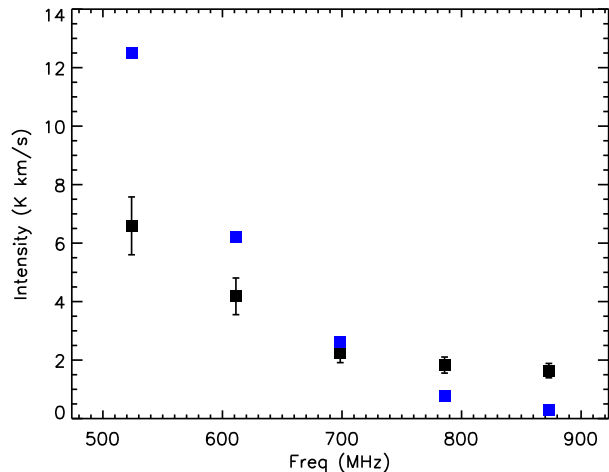


Fig. 9. C_2H line intensity predictions from a PDR model with a pressure of $P = 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ K}$ and a radiation field of $\chi = 10^4$ (blue symbols) overlaid on the observations (black symbols).

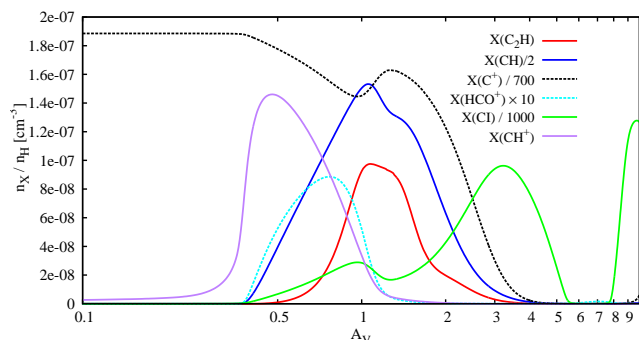


Fig. 10. The abundances of C_2H , CH , C^+ , HCO^+ , and $[Cl]$ corresponding to a PDR model with a pressure of $P = 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ K}$, illuminated by a radiation field of $\chi = 10^4$ on the front, and a radiation field of $\chi = 10$ on the back side of the cloud.

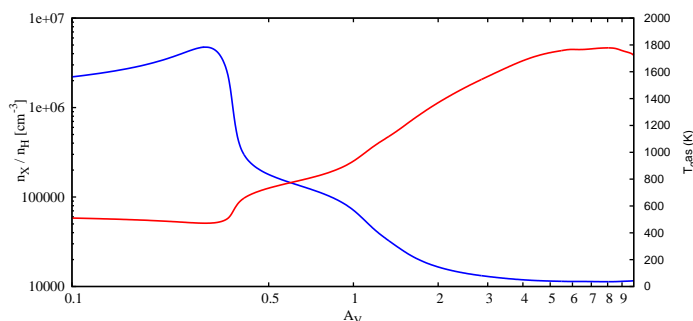
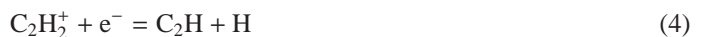


Fig. 11. The temperature (blue) and density (red) structure corresponding to the isobaric PDR model with a pressure of $P = 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ K}$, illuminated by a radiation field of $\chi = 10^4$ on the front, and a radiation field of $\chi = 10$ on the back side of the cloud.

7. Formation and destruction processes

Even though we cannot constrain the formation and destruction of C_2H with the observations presented in this paper, the PDR models explained above give an indication about the most important processes involved in the chemistry of C_2H . For Orion Bar conditions represented by the isobaric model with $P = 10^8 \text{ K cm}^{-3}$ and $\chi = 10^4$, the most important processes that contribute in the formation of C_2H are



These processes contribute $\sim 67.1\%$, $\sim 27.2\%$, $\sim 4.8\%$, and $\sim 0.9\%$ of the total C_2H abundance, respectively. These values refer to a depth equivalent to $A_V \sim 1$, which is part of the region, where C_2H abundances peak. An alternative formation route of C_2H can be expected in PDRs. Small hydrocarbons, such as C_2H can form via the photodissociation of small PAHs ($N_C \leq 24$) (Useli Bacchitta & Joblin 2007). This formation route is not included in the Meudon PDR code, however, based on a comparison of the spatial distribution of C_2H to that of a Spitzer map at $8 \mu\text{m}$ Cuadrado et al. (2015) conclude that this formation route cannot dominate the formation of C_2H for the Orion Bar. The most important destruction processes at the same $A_V \sim 1$ are



These processes are responsible for the destruction of $\sim 68.1\%$, $\sim 28.9\%$, $\sim 1.5\%$, and 0.66% of C_2H , respectively. C_2H abundances therefore peak in a region, where the molecular fraction ($f = 2N(H_2)/(N(H) + 2N(H_2))$) / H_2 density is high enough to produce C_2H via reactions between H_2 and C_2 , and the radiation field is low enough, that the C_2H production compensates its destruction by FUV photons. With the used model parameters, the molecular fraction is 30%, the H_2 volume density about 10^5 cm^{-3} , and the gas temperature is around 570 K at $A_V \sim 1$. At a depth equivalent to $A_V \sim 1.5$, where still significant C_2H is located, the temperature decreases to about 270 K, the molecular fraction increases to $\sim 50\%$, and the H_2 volume density is $3 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The reaction rates are summarized in Table 2.

8. Discussion

We presented C_2H observations toward the Orion Bar corresponding to five rotational transitions, in order to probe the physical parameters of the C_2H emitting gas. The observed line intensities are not consistent with a single gas component, but suggest that C_2H originates in at least two different components. The total C_2H column density of about 10^{14} cm^{-2} is dominated by gas corresponding to a kinetic temperature of 100-150 K, which is

Table 2. The rate coefficients for the formation and destruction reactions of C₂H toward the Orion Bar. For two-body reactions the rates are given by the Arrhenius-type formula of $\alpha \left(\frac{T}{300}\right)^\beta \exp\left(\frac{-\gamma}{T}\right)$ (cm³ s⁻¹), and for photo-reactions by the $k = \alpha \exp(-\gamma A_V)$ (s⁻¹) formula.

Reaction	α	β	γ	T (K)	Reference
(2)	1.78×10^{-10}	0	1469	295-493	Pitts et al. (1982)
(3)	3.30×10^{-9}	0	2.27	10-41000	Van Dishoeck et al. (2006)
(4)	1.35×10^{-7}	-0.5	0	-	Florescu-Mitchell & Mitchell (2006)
(5)	1.50×10^{-7}	-0.5	0	10-300	Prasad & Huntress (1980)
(6)	1.60×10^{-9}	0	2.3	-	Van Hemert & Van Dishoeck (2008), Van Dishoeck et al. (2006)
(7)	2.90×10^{-12}	1.75	539	178-4650	Kruse & Roth (1997)
(8)	1.00×10^{-9}	-0.5	0	10-41000	Prasad & Huntress (1980)
(9)	1.00×10^{-10}	0.0	0	10-2500	KIDA critical evaluation (based on experimental data)

consistent with the average value of 85 ± 30 K derived by Hogerheijde et al. (1995) and an H₂ volume density of 10^5 - 10^6 cm⁻³. The intensities of the higher-*N* transitions suggest the existence of a higher density (5×10^6 cm⁻³) hot ($T \sim 400$ K) gas component. This high-pressure gas contributes only a small fraction of the C₂H column density, but is required to explain the higher-*N* C₂H transitions. The rotational diagram is also consistent with at least two different gas components. A high-density gas component toward the Orion Bar, interpreted as photoevaporating dense clumps, was previously found to be traced by OH (Goicoechea et al. 2011). The rotational Λ -doublets detected using *Herschel*/PACS are consistent with warm (160-220 K) gas at densities of $n_{\text{H}} = 10^6$ - 10^7 cm⁻³. The high-*N* rotational transitions of C₂H analysed in this paper may trace similar areas of the dense filament surfaces.

Lower-*N* C₂H doublets ($N=1-0, \dots, 4-3$) toward the Orion Bar were analysed by Cuadrado et al. (2015). Based on a rotational diagram analysis and assuming a uniform beam filling factor, they derive C₂H column densities of $(4.2 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{14}$ cm⁻² and $(3.7 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{14}$ cm⁻² toward the dissociation front and the molecular peak of the Orion Bar, about a factor of four above the total C₂H column density derived from the high-*N* transitions presented in this paper. The rotational temperature they find for the $N=1-0, \dots, 4-3$ transitions 26 ± 1 K, which is significantly below our cold-component temperature of 43 ± 0.2 K, determined from the $N=6-5, \dots, 8-7$ doublets. The combination of the higher column density and lower excitation temperature provides a similar flux around $N=5-4$ consistent with our measurements, but leading to a continuation of our rotational diagram (Fig. 7) with a steeper slope towards smaller energies. The low-*N* observations of Cuadrado et al. (2015) therefore also trace somewhat more extended colder gas than our measurements. Based on non-LTE radiative transfer models Cuadrado et al. (2015) estimate an H₂ volume density of $\gtrsim 10^5$ cm⁻³ and a kinetic temperature of $\gtrsim 150$ K. These parameters are close to those that our RADEX models suggest for the bulk of the C₂H column density, corresponding mostly to the $N=6-5, \dots, 8-7$ doublets: $n(\text{H}_2) = 10^5$ - 10^6 cm⁻³, $T_{\text{kin}} \sim 100 - 150$ K.

The C₂H column density of 10^{14} cm⁻² can be converted to a C₂H abundance using C¹⁷O transitions observed as part of our HIFI line survey (Nagy et al. 2015, in prep.). The beam-averaged C¹⁷O column density based on the four observed transitions (from 5-4 to 8-7) based on a rotational diagram is 1.3×10^{15} cm⁻². This C¹⁷O column density is equivalent to a CO column density of 2.3×10^{18} cm⁻², adopting abundance ratios of $^{16}\text{O}/^{18}\text{O} = 560$ and $^{18}\text{O}/^{17}\text{O} = 3.2$ (Wilson & Rood 1994). Assuming a CO abundance of 1.1×10^{-4} for the Orion Bar PDR (Johnstone et al. 2003) this CO column density is equivalent to an H₂ column density of 2.1×10^{22} cm⁻². This value is close to the $N(\text{H}_2) = 3 \times 10^{22}$ cm⁻²

derived by Cuadrado et al. (2015) close to the CO⁺ peak position, based on the C¹⁸O 1-0, 2-1, and 3-2 transitions. This gives a C₂H abundance of 5×10^{-9} with respect to H₂. Van der Wiel et al. (2009) derived a C₂H abundance of 2×10^{-9} for a beam size of $15''$. Fuente et al. (1996) derived a C₂H abundance of 1.2×10^{-8} with respect to H₂ toward the Orion Bar within a $26''$ beam size. When comparing to the total hydrogen column density $N_{\text{H}} = N(\text{H}) + 2N(\text{H}_2)$ Cuadrado et al. (2015) measured C₂H abundances of $(0.7-2.7) \times 10^{-8}$ with respect to H nuclei. Adding the $N(\text{H}) = 3 \times 10^{21}$ cm⁻² from Van der Werf et al. (2013) to our H₂ column, gives a C₂H abundance of 2.2×10^{-9} with respect to H nuclei. The higher C₂H abundance measured by Cuadrado et al. (2015) is due to tracing a cooler component as well using lower-*N* transitions.

C₂H has been detected toward other PDRs with various physical conditions, including Mon R2 (Rizzo et al. 2005, Ginard et al. 2012, Pilleri et al. 2013), the Horsehead PDR (Teyssier et al. 2004, Pety et al. 2005), and NGC 7023 (Fuente et al. 1993). Similar to what we found for the Orion Bar, multiple C₂H transitions measured toward Mon R2 also suggest a two-component fit to describe C₂H toward this region (Pilleri et al. 2013). However, only one of the two components found toward the Mon R2 region corresponds to a dense highly UV-illuminated PDR, and the other to a low UV-illuminated lower density envelope. The PDR component toward the Mon R2 originates in an H₂ volume density of 3×10^6 cm⁻³, which is similar to what we found toward the Orion Bar for both components. Unlike the Orion Bar and Mon R2 PDRs, C₂H toward the NGC 7023 region is likely to be related to a low-density envelope of NGC 7023, based on the comparison of the observations and chemical models (Fuente et al. 1993). C₂H has also been detected toward the low UV-illumination (60 in Draine (1978) units) Horsehead PDR, and was found to be spatially correlated with HCO (Gerin et al. 2009).

In addition to PDRs, C₂H has also been detected in other types of regions as well. Watt et al. (1988) studied the C₂H $N=4-3$ transition in several molecular clouds. Based on the comparison of the observations and chemical models they conclude that C₂H emission arises from dense (10^4 - 10^5 cm⁻³) gas, but not from very dense gas with H₂ densities of $> 10^6$ cm⁻³. Padovani et al. (2009) studied the C₂H $N=1-0$ and $N=2-1$ transitions toward two prestellar cores, and found evidence of deviations from LTE level populations. Deviations from LTE are also important in the case of the transitions studied here for the Orion Bar, as the excitation temperatures derived from the rotational diagrams are well below the kinetic temperatures derived using the non-LTE analysis. Beuther et al. (2008) studied C₂H in regions that represent different evolutionary stages of high-mass star formation, including infrared dark clouds, high-mass proto-

stellar objects, and ultracompact HII regions. Based on chemical models they suggest that C₂H traces the initial conditions of massive star formation. In the outer cloud regions discussed in their models the C₂H abundance is high due to the interstellar UV radiation field, which dissociates CO, enlarging the abundance of carbon. These outer cloud regions discussed by [Beuther et al. \(2008\)](#) also represent a similar case to PDRs, including the Orion Bar. Toward the DR21(OH) high-mass star forming region [Mookerjea et al. \(2012\)](#) found that the observed C₂H and c-C₃H₂ abundances are consistent with a chemical model with an H₂ volume density of $5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, similar to what our RADEX models suggest toward the Orion Bar. Apart from star-forming regions, C₂H has also been detected toward several cold dark clouds ([Wootten et al. 1980](#)). They explain the C₂H/HC₃N abundance ratio to be consistent with gas-phase chemistry. C₂H has been detected toward planetary nebulae including NGC 7027 ([Zhang et al. 2008](#)). [Zhang et al. \(2008\)](#) suggested C₂H to be produced via the photodissociation of C₂H₂ toward this region. C₂H has also been observed toward diffuse clouds as well ([Lucas & Liszt 2000](#), [Gerin et al. \(2011\)](#)). Both [Lucas & Liszt \(2000\)](#) and [Gerin et al. \(2011\)](#) suggested a correlation between C₂H and c-C₃H₂ in diffuse clouds. [Gerin et al. \(2011\)](#) also suggest C₂H to be a tracer of molecular hydrogen in diffuse and translucent gas.

In conclusion, among the other environments mentioned above, C₂H toward the Orion Bar is likely to trace a similar gas component to what was found toward Mon R2 and toward DR21(OH).

9. Summary

We have presented *Herschel*/HIFI observations of five high-*N* C₂H rotational doublets ($N=6-5, \dots, 10-9$) toward the CO⁺ peak of the Orion Bar.

These observations helped to constrain the excitation of C₂H. A single-component rotational diagram of C₂H suggests a rotation temperature of 64 K and a C₂H column density of $\sim 4 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The rotational diagram is also consistent with two different gas components, corresponding to rotation temperatures of 43 K and 123 K, and column densities of $8 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and $2 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ for the three lower-*N* and for the three higher-*N* transitions, respectively.

A C₂H $N=6-5$ HIFI map shows C₂H emission along the Orion Bar and perpendicular to it, corresponding to the Orion Ridge. Based on the comparison of the C₂H integrated intensities to those of CH, HCO⁺, and [C I], CH and HCO⁺ are the best C₂H tracers both toward the Orion Ridge and toward the Orion Bar among the molecules studied in this paper. The calculated correlation coefficients toward the Orion Ridge (in the velocity interval of 7-8.5 km s⁻¹) are 0.92 and 0.89 for CH and HCO⁺, respectively. The correlation coefficients toward red-shifted velocities compared to the expected LSR velocity of the Orion Bar (10-11.5 km s⁻¹) are 0.88 and 0.89 for CH and HCO⁺, respectively. The correlation between C₂H and C I is lower toward both regions, suggesting that C₂H and C I do not entirely trace the same gas.

Based on non-LTE radiative transfer models, the detected C₂H line intensities are consistent with C₂H to originate at least in two different gas components. One of these gas components dominates the C₂H total column density and the intensity of the lower-*N* transitions, and can be related to warm ($T_{\text{kin}} \sim 100-150$ K) and dense ($n(\text{H}_2) \sim 10^5-10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) gas. The second component adds only a small fraction to the C₂H column density, but is required to fit the intensity of the higher-*N* transitions. This component is related to hot ($T_{\text{kin}} \sim 400$ K) and dense ($n(\text{H}_2) \sim 5 \times 10^6$

cm^{-3}) gas. A simple PDR model representing the Orion Bar with a plane-parallel slab of gas and dust confirms that C₂H is likely to be related to more than a single pressure component, unlike CH⁺ toward the Orion Bar.

Based on the physical parameters derived for the high-*N* C₂H transitions analysed in this paper, the $N=6-5, \dots, 10-9$ C₂H doublets may trace the edges of dense clumps exposed to UV radiation near the ionization front of the Orion Bar.

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Acknowledgements. We thank the referee and the editor Malcolm Walmsley for useful comments which helped to improve our manuscript. We thank Robert Simon for providing us with a C₁ 1-0 NANTEN map. We also thank Franck Le Petit for discussions related to including the excitation of new species in the Meudon code. HIFI has been designed and built by a consortium of institutes and university departments from across Europe, Canada and the US under the leadership of SRON Netherlands Institute for Space Research, Groningen, The Netherlands with major contributions from Germany, France and the US. Consortium members are: Canada: CSA, U. Waterloo; France: CESR, LAB, LERMA, IRAM; Germany: KOSMA, MPIfR, MPS; Ireland, NUI Maynooth; Italy: ASI, IFSI-INAF, Arcetri-INAF; Netherlands: SRON, TUD; Poland: CAMK, CBK; Spain: Observatorio Astronómico Nacional (IGN), Centro de Astrobiología (CSIC-INTA); Sweden: Chalmers University of Technology - MC2, RSS & GARD, Onsala Space Observatory, Swedish National Space Board, Stockholm University - Stockholm Observatory; Switzerland: ETH Zürich, FHNW; USA: Caltech, JPL, NHSC. HIPE is a joint development by the Herschel Science Ground Segment Consortium, consisting of ESA, the NASA Herschel Science Center, and the HIFI, PACS and SPIRE consortia.

Appendix A: C₂H–e[−] rate coefficients

The electronic ground state symmetry of the radical C₂H is $2^2\Sigma^+$. Each rotational level N is therefore split by the spin-rotation coupling between N and the electronic spin $S = 1/2$ so that each rotational level N has two sub-levels given by $j = N \pm 1/2$. In addition, owing to the non-zero nuclear spin of the hydrogen atom ($I=1/2$), each fine-structure level is further split into 2 hyperfine levels $F = j \pm 1/2$. The rotational constant of C₂H is 1.46 cm^{-1} . The fine- and hyperfine-splittings are typically 0.01 and 0.001 cm^{-1} , respectively. The dipole moment of C₂H is 0.77 D (Woon 1995).

There is, to our knowledge, no previous estimate for the electron-impact hyperfine excitation rate coefficients of the C₂H radical. Recent R-matrix calculations have considered electron scattering from C₂H (Harrison & Tennyson 2011) but they concentrated on bound states of the anion and electronic excitation of the neutral. Here, electron-impact hyperfine rate coefficients for C₂H were computed using a three step procedure, similar to that employed recently for the radicals OH⁺ (Van der Tak et al. 2013) and CN (Harrison et al. 2013): *i*) rotational excitation rate coefficients for the dipolar ($\Delta N = 1$) transitions were first computed using the Born approximation; *ii*) fine-structure excitation rate coefficients were then obtained, from the Born rotational rates, using the (scaled) Infinite Order Sudden (IOS) approximation and *iii*) hyperfine excitation rate coefficients were finally obtained using again the IOS approximation. In the case of polar molecules, the long-range electron dipole interaction is well-known to control the rotational excitation, especially at low collision energies (Itikawa & Mason 2005). Although the C₂H dipole is only moderate, the Born approximation is expected to be reasonably accurate for dipolar transitions. In practice Born cross sections were computed for collision energies ranging from 1 meV to 1 eV and rate coefficients were deduced for temperatures from 10 to 1000 K. The IOS approximation was

employed to derive the fine-structure rate coefficients in terms of the rotational rates for excitation out of the lowest rotational level $N = 0$, following the general procedure of Faure & Lique (2012) (see Eqs. 1-3 of Harrison et al. (2013)). The IOS approximation was also applied to derive the hyperfine rate coefficients (Eqs. 6-8 in Harrison et al. (2013)).

The above three step procedure was applied to the first 26 rotational levels of C₂H, that is up to the level $(N, j, F) = (25, 24.5, 24)$ which lies 945 cm^{-1} above the ground state $(0, 0.5, 0)$, resulting in 246 collisional transitions. The largest rate coefficients are of the order of $5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, i.e. typically four orders magnitude larger than the C₂H-He rate coefficients, and they are expected to be accurate to within a factor of 2. The complete set of de-excitation rate coefficients is available on-line from the LAMDA (Schöier et al. 2005) and BASECOL (Dubernet et al. 2013) database.

Appendix B: Extrapolation of collision rates

Spielfiedel et al. (2012) only provided collision rates for temperatures up to 100 K and for rotational levels with up to $N = 8$ corresponding to an upper level energy of about 150 K, as given in BASECOL. This is clearly insufficient to model our observations as we observed up to $N = 10 - 9$, the gas temperatures in the Orion Bar are around 150 K and densities of more than 10^6 cm^{-3} allow for a collisional excitation of much higher levels that will eventually decay radiatively, feeding the rotational ladder from levels above $N = 9$. A solution of the rate equations for the Orion Bar conditions thus asks for the inclusion of levels with energies of a few times the kinetic temperature.

Thus we have to extrapolate the rate coefficients from Spielfiedel et al. (2012) both in terms of additional levels and higher temperatures. A very general, but numerically demanding approach to extrapolate collision rates was proposed by Neufeld (2010). It is applicable to any type of molecules but needs some "training" through collision rates from similar species. For C₂H we have, however, the advantage that it is basically a linear rotor, only superimposed by the hyperfine interaction. As our measurements show no variation in the hyperfine ratio and the collision rates from Spielfiedel et al. (2012) at temperatures above 20 K are dominated by the pure rotational transitions of the linear configuration with $\Delta N = \Delta J = \Delta F$ (see Fig. B.1), it seems justified to concentrate on the rates for these transitions, treating C₂H as a simple linear rotor.

For such molecules, the IOS approximation is a handy approach to compute the collision rates for any series of ΔJ (see Appendix A) as long as the energy difference of the states is small compared to the kinetic energy of the collision partners. For higher levels, a correction is possible as summarized by Schöier et al. (2005). We use here their Eq. (13) derived originally by de Jong et al. (1975); Biegging et al. (1998) to extrapolate the collision coefficients to higher levels based on the energy level difference and the behaviour of the collision rates for lower J levels in the series. Due to the additional hyperfine split in C₂H we have to perform the fit individually for the different $F - J$ combinations in a pure rotational series. This assumes that we have no further interaction of the states, as justified by the behaviour of the collision rates at temperatures between 20 and 100 K. The result is shown in Fig. B.1. The figure shows the collision rate behaviour within the dominant series for the levels computed by Spielfiedel et al. (2012) and the extrapolation of the rates up to $N = 18$. All other collision rates are much lower so that they are not important for the population of the upper levels.

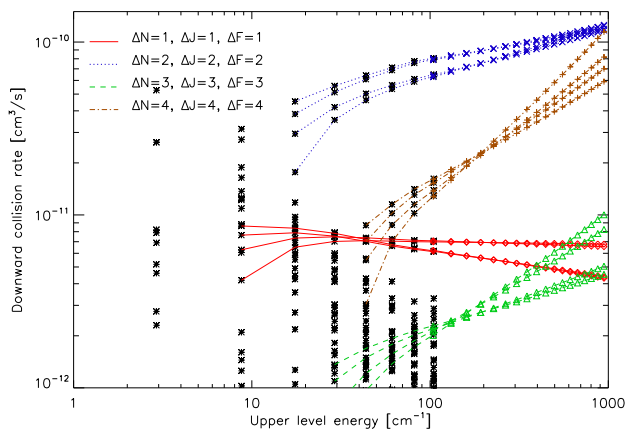


Fig. B.1. Rates for the deexcitation of C_2H through collision with H_2 at 100 K. Black crosses mark all collision rates from Spielfiedel et al. (2012) above $10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$. The curves indicate the different transition series for pure rotational transitions of the molecule, i.e. $\Delta N = \Delta J = \Delta F$. Each series consists of four curves according to the fine and hyperfine structure split of the four N states with approximately the same energy: $J = N \pm 1/2$ and $F = J \pm 1/2$. The continuations of those curves into the coloured symbols show the extrapolation of the rates to the higher level transitions using the formalism from Schöier et al. (2005) based on the IOS approximation.

Besides the extrapolation to higher level energies, we also need to extrapolate the rates from Spielfiedel et al. (2012) to higher temperatures. To obtain the rate at higher temperatures, we have to compute the integral over collision cross sections for energies of about ten times the kinetic temperature of the gas (Flower 2001). This makes the high-temperature computations in principle demanding. However, as we only want to expand the temperature range by a small extend, from 100 K to 400 K, we can use the temperature behaviour measured up to 100 K to estimate the rates above this temperature. The simplest approach would be an extrapolation with the square root of temperature, reflecting the velocity of the collision partners. When inspecting the rate coefficients at temperatures up to 100 K we see, however, that the majority of the rates shows a temperature dependence very different from an exponent of 0.5 (see Fig. B.2). But the double-logarithmic plot shows straight lines for basically all rate coefficients at high temperatures indicating that a power-law extrapolation with a free exponent is a good description of the temperature dependence. The curvature in the curves is very small.

We extrapolated from 100 K to 400 K using the power law determined either between 80 and 100 K or between 90 and 100 K. When comparing the two extrapolations, we found only 11 transitions with a deviation of about 10%. All other transitions showed a better agreement of the rates proving that the power-law description is quite accurate. One should take into account, however, that this approach should not be continued over large dynamic ranges as we clearly expect changing coupling when dealing with factors of ten or more.

To check the sensitivity of our overall results to the extrapolations, we also ran the RADEX fits performed in Sect. 5 with an alternative collision rate file created just by a constant continuation of the rates from 100 K towards higher temperatures and higher levels. For the same input parameters the average excitation temperature then drops from 26.9 K to 24.6 K eventually indicating an overall relatively minor sensitivity of our results to the details of the extrapolations.

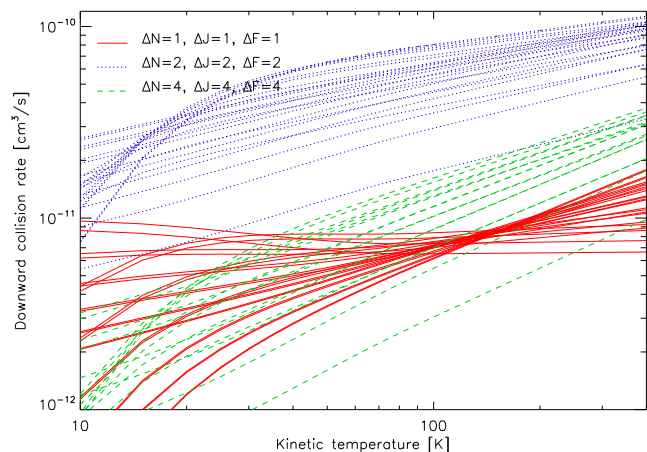


Fig. B.2. Temperature dependence for the main collision rates of C_2H with H_2 . The curves are sorted by ΔJ but cover all transitions of the corresponding series. Every connected dot in Fig. B.1 produces one temperature-dependence graph in this plot. To improve the readability, we have omitted the $\Delta N = \Delta J = \Delta F = 3$ series here. Up to 100 K, the lines show the rates computed by Spielfiedel et al. (2012), from 100 to 400 K we extrapolated as a power law with the same slope as measured between 90 and 100 K.

We finally note that rate coefficients for the fine-structure excitation of C_2H by para- $H_2(j = 0)$ have been published recently by Najjar et al. (2014). The largest rate coefficients, which correspond to transitions with $\Delta j = \Delta N = 2$, were found to differ from those of $C_2H\text{-He}$ by a factor of ~ 1.4 , as assumed here. Larger differences were however observed for other transitions, especially those with $\Delta j = \Delta N = 1$ (see Fig. 6 in Najjar et al. 2014). Hyperfine-resolved rate coefficients for $C_2H\text{-H}_2$, for high levels and high temperatures, are therefore urgently required in order to avoid both collider-mass scaling and extrapolations.