

THE ABUNDANCES OF SOLID N₂ AND GASEOUS CO₂ IN INTERSTELLAR DENSE MOLECULAR CLOUDS

S. A. SANDFORD,¹ M. P. BERNSTEIN,^{1,2} L. J. ALLAMANDOLA,¹ D. GOORVITCH,¹ AND T. C. V S. TEIXEIRA³

Received 2000 August 4; accepted 2000 October 4

ABSTRACT

We present 2338–2322 cm⁻¹ (4.277–4.307 μm) infrared spectra of a number of N₂-containing mixed molecular ices and demonstrate that the strength of the infrared “forbidden” band due to the N≡N stretch near 2328 cm⁻¹ (4.295 μm) is extremely sensitive to the composition of the ice. The strength of the 2328 cm⁻¹ N₂ fundamental is significantly enhanced relative to that of pure N₂ ice when NH₃, H₂O, or CO₂ are present, but it is largely unaffected by the presence of CO, CH₄, or O₂. We use the laboratory data in conjunction with *Infrared Space Observatory* (ISO) data that probe several lines of sight through dense molecular clouds to place limits on the abundance of interstellar solid phase N₂ and the composition of the ices. Deriving upper limits is complicated by the presence of overlapping absorptions due to CO₂ gas in the clouds and, in some cases, to photospheric CO in the background star. These upper limits are just beginning to be low enough to constrain interstellar grain models and the composition of possible N₂-bearing interstellar ices. We outline the search criteria that will need to be met if solid interstellar N₂ is to be detected in the future. We also discuss some of the implications of the presence of warm CO₂ gas along the lines of sight to embedded protostars and demonstrate that its presence may help resolve certain puzzles associated with the previously derived gas/solid CO₂ ratios and the relative abundances of polar and nonpolar ices toward these objects. Finally, we briefly comment on the possible implications of these results for the interpretation of N₂ detections on outer solar system bodies.

Subject headings: infrared: ISM: lines and bands — ISM: abundances — ISM: molecules — methods: laboratory — molecular data — techniques: spectroscopic

On-line material: machine-readable table

1. INTRODUCTION

In terms of its distribution and molecular state, nitrogen is the least well understood of the major elements in dense molecular clouds. A number of N-bearing molecular species have been identified in the gas phase in dense clouds via rotational transitions using radio techniques (see van Dishoeck et al. 1993; Irvine 1998), but these molecules only account for a minor fraction of the total cosmic abundance of nitrogen along these lines of sight. At the low temperatures typical of dense molecular clouds ($T < 30$ K), most molecular species should be largely depleted from the gas phase by condensation onto dust grains (Sandford & Allamandola 1993; Sandford 1996; Whittet et al. 1996). Thus, much of the nitrogen in dense clouds probably resides in ice mantles on interstellar grains.

To date, only a few N-bearing molecules have been identified in interstellar ices using infrared spectroscopy. The most abundant of these, ammonia (NH₃), has only recently been unequivocally identified (Lacy et al. 1998). The presence of NH₃ in the ices is not surprising since it is observed to be abundant in the gas phase in dense clouds (see Myers & Benson 1983), and gas-grain chemistry models predict that it should be a major product of H-addition reactions on grain surfaces (Tielens & Hagen 1982; d’Hendecourt, Allamandola, & Greenberg 1985). In the few objects where NH₃-containing ices have been detected to date, the NH₃/H₂O ratio is about 0.1, suggesting that NH₃ in ices

accounts for only a small portion of the total available cosmic nitrogen in clouds.

The only other N-bearing species seen in the solid state in dense clouds has yet to be identified unequivocally. The spectra of some protostars embedded in dense clouds contain an absorption feature near 2165 cm⁻¹ (4.619 μm; see Lacy et al. 1984; Tegler et al. 1993; Pendleton et al. 1999). This spectral position is characteristic of the C≡N stretching vibration, and the feature can be well matched by C- and N-containing laboratory ice analogs that are exposed to radiation (for recent discussions see Grim & Greenberg 1987; Bernstein, Sandford, & Allamandola 1997, 2000; Palumbo, Pendleton, & Strazzulla 2000a, 2000b). The abundance of this material is difficult to access since its identity and overall distribution are not known. However, there are indications that this band may have a large intrinsic strength (Bernstein et al. 1997), and it is unlikely that the carrier of this weak band can be responsible for more than a minor fraction of the nitrogen in dense clouds. Thus, the currently identified gas- and ice-phase N-bearing molecules leave the majority of the cosmic nitrogen in dense clouds unaccounted for.

There are good reasons for believing that much of the “missing” nitrogen is present in the form of N₂. Interstellar gas-grain chemistry models predict that N₂ should be formed on ice mantles by atom addition reactions under the proper conditions (see Tielens & Hagen 1982; d’Hendecourt et al. 1985; Brown & Charnley 1990; Hasegawa, Herbst, & Leung 1992). In dense cloud environments where H/H₂ is large, gas-surface reactions will be dominated by H atom addition and atoms like C, O, and N will be largely converted to simple hydrides like CH₄, H₂O, and NH₃. If H/H₂ is substantially less than 1, however, reactive

¹ NASA Ames Research Center, Mail Stop 245-6, Moffett Field, CA 94035.

² SETI Institute, 2035 Landings Drive, Mountain View, CA 94043.

³ Institute of Physics and Astronomy, University of Århus, Ny Munkegade, DK-8000 Århus C, Denmark.

species like O and N are free to react with one another to form molecules like O₂ and N₂. N₂ has fully occupied pi orbitals; it is therefore relatively unreactive, and once formed it is likely to remain largely unchanged by further gas-grain reactions (although particle irradiation can alter some of it; see Palumbo et al. 2000a). Thus, two qualitatively different types of ice mantles may be produced by grain surface reactions, one dominated by polar, H-bonded molecules and the other dominated by only slightly polar, highly unsaturated molecules. This basic concept is confirmed by the observation that CO in interstellar ices is found to be frozen in both H₂O- rich polar ices and some form of nonpolar ice (see Sandford et al. 1988; Tielens et al. 1991; Whittet et al. 1996; Elsila, Allamandola, & Sandford 1997; Ehrenfreund et al. 1998a, 1998b; Teixeira, Emerson, & Palumbo 1998).

Since N₂ will be most efficiently formed in regions with low atomic H, the N₂ should be incorporated into ices that are rich in O₂, CO, and CO₂ but that may also contain significant amounts of H₂O and NH₃ (see Tielens & Hagen 1982; d'Hendecourt et al. 1985). Cloud chemistry models predict an enormous range of N₂/H₂O, N₂/NH₃, and N₂/CO₂ ratios depending on assumed densities, H/H₂ ratios, initial atomic abundances, etc. For example, the models described in the two references above yield N₂/H₂O and N₂/NH₃ ratios that range over 6 orders of magnitude and N₂/CO₂ ratios that range over 2 orders of magnitude. Thus, the theoretical expectations for the abundance and distribution of N₂ in interstellar ices are currently poorly constrained.

It should be noted that there is some *indirect* evidence that much of the nitrogen in dense clouds is in the form of N₂. This evidence is based on the observation that some of the best fits in position and profile to the apolar interstellar CO ice feature near 2140 cm⁻¹ (4.67 μm), which is most prominent in quiescent regions of dense clouds, are provided by ices dominated by N₂, O₂, and CO₂, with possible contributions from some H₂O (Elsila et al. 1997; Ehrenfreund et al. 1998a, 1998b).

Unfortunately, the *direct* detection of N₂ in the interstellar medium is extremely difficult. As a homonuclear, diatomic molecule, it has no permanent dipole moment and so is not amenable to radio detection in the gas phase. The N≡N stretching vibration at 2328.2 cm⁻¹ (4.295 μm) does not induce a change in dipole moment and is therefore infrared inactive in the gas phase. The N≡N stretching vibration is weakly detectable in the solid state, however, because heterogeneous interactions with neighboring molecules induce small dipole moment changes. The strength, or “A value,” of pure α phase N₂ is about 1.8 × 10⁻²² cm/N₂, i.e., only about *one hundred thousandth* that of CO (Bohn et al. 1994; Bernstein & Sandford 1999). This makes it extremely difficult to detect directly the absorption of N₂ in interstellar ices, even if this molecule is very abundant. Additionally, since the N≡N stretch falls near 2328 cm⁻¹, it cannot be detected from the ground because of strong absorption produced by telluric atmospheric CO₂. However, this region has become accessible through *ISO*, and data containing potential information about solid molecular nitrogen can now be examined.

Since the N≡N stretching feature in ices is only detectable because it is induced by interactions with neighboring molecules, its intrinsic strength and profile are strong functions of the composition of the other molecules in the ice.

Recent laboratory experiments have shown that the strength of the induced feature can be highly variable. In particular, it can be enhanced by factors of 10–1000 over its value in pure N₂ ices by the presence of NH₃, H₂O, or CO₂ (Bernstein & Sandford 1999). Since these other molecules may well exist in the same interstellar ices that are expected to contain N₂, this makes the detection of interstellar N₂-containing ices a considerably more hopeful affair.

In this paper we make a first attempt to use the recent laboratory data to constrain the abundance of N₂ in interstellar ices. In the following sections we will briefly review how the strength and shape of the N₂ stretching fundamental are affected by the presence of other molecules and consider the N₂ band strengths that might be anticipated in interstellar ices (§ 2). We then present the spectra of several objects (W33A, NGC 7538 IRS 9, AFGL 2136, and Elias 16) observed by *ISO* (§ 3) and use the laboratory results to place constraints on the abundances and compositions of N₂-containing ices along the lines of sight to AFGL 2136 and Elias 16 (§ 4). The astrophysical implications of our results are then discussed (§ 5).

2. THE N₂ STRETCHING FUNDAMENTAL

Recent work in the Ames Astrochemistry Laboratory on binary ices containing N₂ mixed with CO, CH₄, O₂, NH₃, H₂O, or CO₂ has demonstrated that the strength of the N≡N stretching fundamental near 2328 cm⁻¹ is an extremely strong function of the identity and concentration of other molecules in the ice (Bernstein & Sandford 1999). In this section we briefly review the findings reported in that paper that are of astrophysical relevance.

2.1. Position and Profile of the Nitrogen Fundamental

The position and profile of the N≡N stretching fundamental are relatively insensitive to the presence of CO, CH₄, O₂, NH₃, H₂O, and CO₂ over a broad range of concentrations (Bernstein & Sandford 1999). Figure 1 and Table 1 summarize the 2338–2322 cm⁻¹ (4.277–4.307 μm) infrared spectra of a pure N₂ ice and six mixed, N₂-rich ices deposited and maintained at 12 K. The spectra were taken at a resolution of 0.9 cm⁻¹ (the width of the unresolved line). Pure N₂ produces an absorption band centered at

TABLE 1
POSITIONS, FWHM, AND STRENGTHS OF THE N≡N STRETCHING FEATURES SHOWN IN FIGURE 1

Ice Mixture	Position ^a (cm ⁻¹)	FWHM (cm ⁻¹)	A Value of N ₂ ^b (cm molecule ⁻¹)
“Pure” N ₂	2328.2 (4.295)	1.5	(1.8 ± 0.3) × 10 ^{-22c}
N ₂ /CO = 25/1	2328.2 (4.295)	1.6	(2.1 ± 0.7) × 10 ⁻²²
N ₂ /CH ₄ = 20/1	2327.9 (4.296)	1.3	(4.1 ± 0.7) × 10 ⁻²²
N ₂ /O ₂ = 20/1	2328.2 (4.295)	1.4	(2.4 ± 0.3) × 10 ⁻²²
N ₂ /NH ₃ = 22/1	2328.2 (4.295)	2.0	(5.1 ± 0.9) × 10 ⁻²²
N ₂ /H ₂ O = 20/1	2328.4 (4.295)	3.3	(1.6 ± 0.4) × 10 ⁻²¹
N ₂ /CO ₂ = 20/1	2328.6 (4.294)	1.4	(1.9 ± 0.1) × 10 ^{-20d}
	2332.0 (4.288)	1.4	

^a Values in parentheses in the second column are in μm.

^b A values reported in Bernstein & Sandford 1999 using their interference fringe technique.

^c For comparison, Bohn et al. 1994 report a value of A_{N₂} = (1.3 ± 0.6) × 10⁻²² cm molecule⁻¹.

^d Does not include any contribution from the area of the 2332.0 cm⁻¹ band.

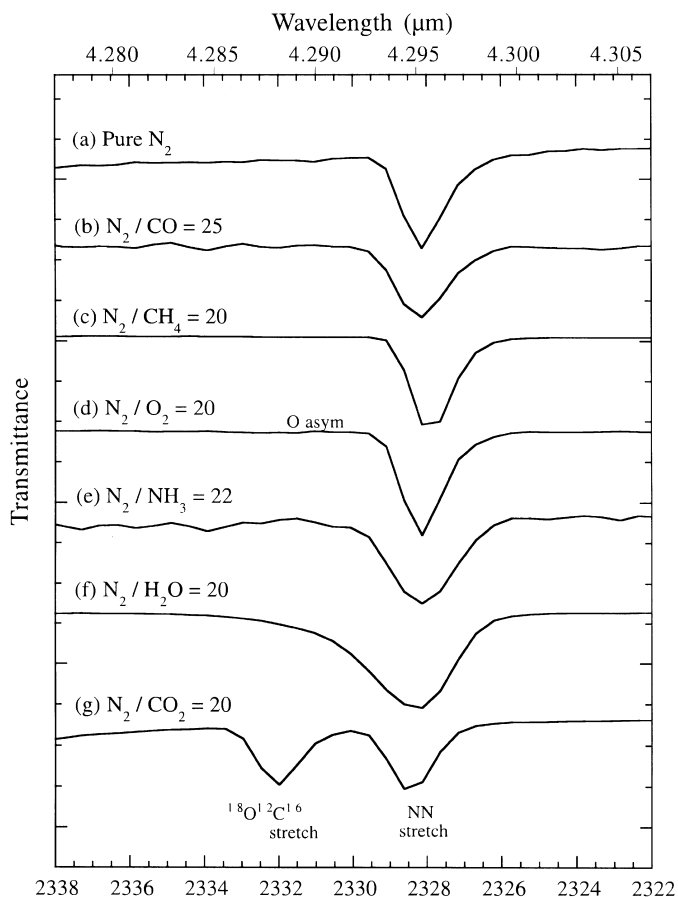


FIG. 1.—2338–2322 cm^{-1} (4.277–4.307 μm) spectra of the $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ stretching fundamental of (a) pure N_2 , (b) $\text{N}_2/\text{CO} = 25/1$, (c) $\text{N}_2/\text{CH}_4 = 20/1$, (d) $\text{N}_2/\text{O}_2 = 20/1$, (e) $\text{N}_2/\text{NH}_3 = 22/1$, (f) $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O} = 20/1$, and (g) $\text{N}_2/\text{CO}_2 = 20/1$ ices deposited and maintained at 12 K. The spectra have all been normalized to show the same band depths.

2328.2 cm^{-1} (4.2952 μm) that has an FWHM of $\sim 1.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (0.0028 μm). The addition of 5% CO , CH_4 , O_2 , or NH_3 has little effect on the position or profile of the N_2 stretching band, although NH_3 does cause the band to broaden slightly. Nitrogen ices containing 5% H_2O produce an N_2 band that is about twice as broad as the other ices. Nitrogen ices containing CO_2 show an $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ band with a width and position similar to that of the other apolar species plus an additional band at 2332.0 cm^{-1} (4.2882 μm) due to the ^{18}O isotopic band of the CO_2 asymmetric $\text{C}=\text{O}$ stretching mode.

2.2. Strength of the Nitrogen Fundamental

The variability caused in the absorption strength of the $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ stretch due to molecular environment complicates solid N_2 abundance estimates based on band areas and highlights the need to establish the intrinsic strengths of the $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ stretch under astrophysically relevant conditions. The relationship between column density (N , in molecules cm^{-2}), intrinsic strength (A , in cm molecule^{-1}), and peak area ($\int \tau(\nu) d\nu$, in cm^{-1}) is given by

$$A = \frac{\int \tau(\nu) d\nu}{N}$$

TABLE 2

THE STRENGTH OF THE INFRARED $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ STRETCHING FEATURE AS A FUNCTION OF GUEST MOLECULE COMPOSITION AND CONCENTRATION

Ice Composition and Ratios	Fraction of Guest Molecule (%)	A Value of N_2^a (cm molecule^{-1})
“Pure” N_2	0.0	$(1.8 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-22b}$
N_2/NH_3 :		
22	4.3	$(5.1 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-22}$
10.4	8.8	$(1.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-21}$
4.8	17.2	$(2.6 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-21}$
0.97	50.8	$(8.0 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-21}$
$\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$:		
325	0.3	$(2.0 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-22}$
130	0.8	3.3×10^{-22c}
100	1.0	$(4.0 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-22}$
43	2.3	$(9.5 \pm 1.3) \times 10^{-22}$
20	4.8	$(1.6 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-21}$
15.5	6.1	1.5×10^{-21e}
5.0	16.7	3.6×10^{-21e}
1.35	42.6	$(1.4 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-20}$
1.0	50.0	$(1.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-20}$
N_2/CO_2^d :		
400	0.25	$(1.4 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-21}$
200	0.5	$(4.0 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-21}$
75	1.3	$(5.3 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-21}$
20	4.8	$(1.9 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-20}$
10	9.1	$(4.4 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-20}$
5.0	16.7	1.2×10^{-19e}
3.6	21.7	1.7×10^{-19e}
3.0	25.0	$(2.1 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-19}$
2.25	30.8	$(2.7 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-19}$
2.0	33.3	2.2×10^{-19e}

NOTE.—This table is also available in machine-readable form in the electronic edition of the Journal.

^a A values reported in Bernstein & Sandford 1999 using their interference fringe technique.

^b For comparison, Bohn et al. 1994 report a value of $A_{\text{N}_2} = (1.3 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-22} \text{ cm molecule}^{-1}$.

^c Result of a single measurement.

^d A values do not include any contribution from the area of the 2332.0 cm^{-1} band.

The presence of CO , CH_4 , and O_2 has little effect on the intrinsic strength of the N_2 band (Table 2). Even at large CO , CH_4 , and O_2 concentrations, the N_2 band is enhanced in these ices by, at most, a factor of 4. In contrast, the presence of NH_3 , H_2O , or CO_2 causes the strength of the N_2 band to increase dramatically as their concentrations rise (Table 2). The effects of these molecules on the strength of the N_2 fundamental are shown graphically in Figure 2. (See Bernstein & Sandford 1999 for a more complete listing of A_{N_2} values.)

In N_2 - H_2O mixtures, the 2328 cm^{-1} N_2 band strength reaches a value of at least $A_{\text{N}_2} = 1.4 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm molecule}^{-1}$ at $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O} = 1$, i.e., almost 80 times greater than for pure solid N_2 ($A_{\text{N}_2} = 1.8 \times 10^{-22} \text{ cm molecule}^{-1}$; see Table 2 and Fig. 2). The enhancements produced by NH_3 are less dramatic but still exceed a factor of 40 at high NH_3 concentrations. These band strength enhancements are probably the result of hydrogen-bonding interactions, which are likely also responsible for the band broadening caused by these molecules (Fig. 1). These interactions produce greater breaking of the symmetry of the $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ stretching vibrations of N_2 in the ice, resulting in greater infrared activation.

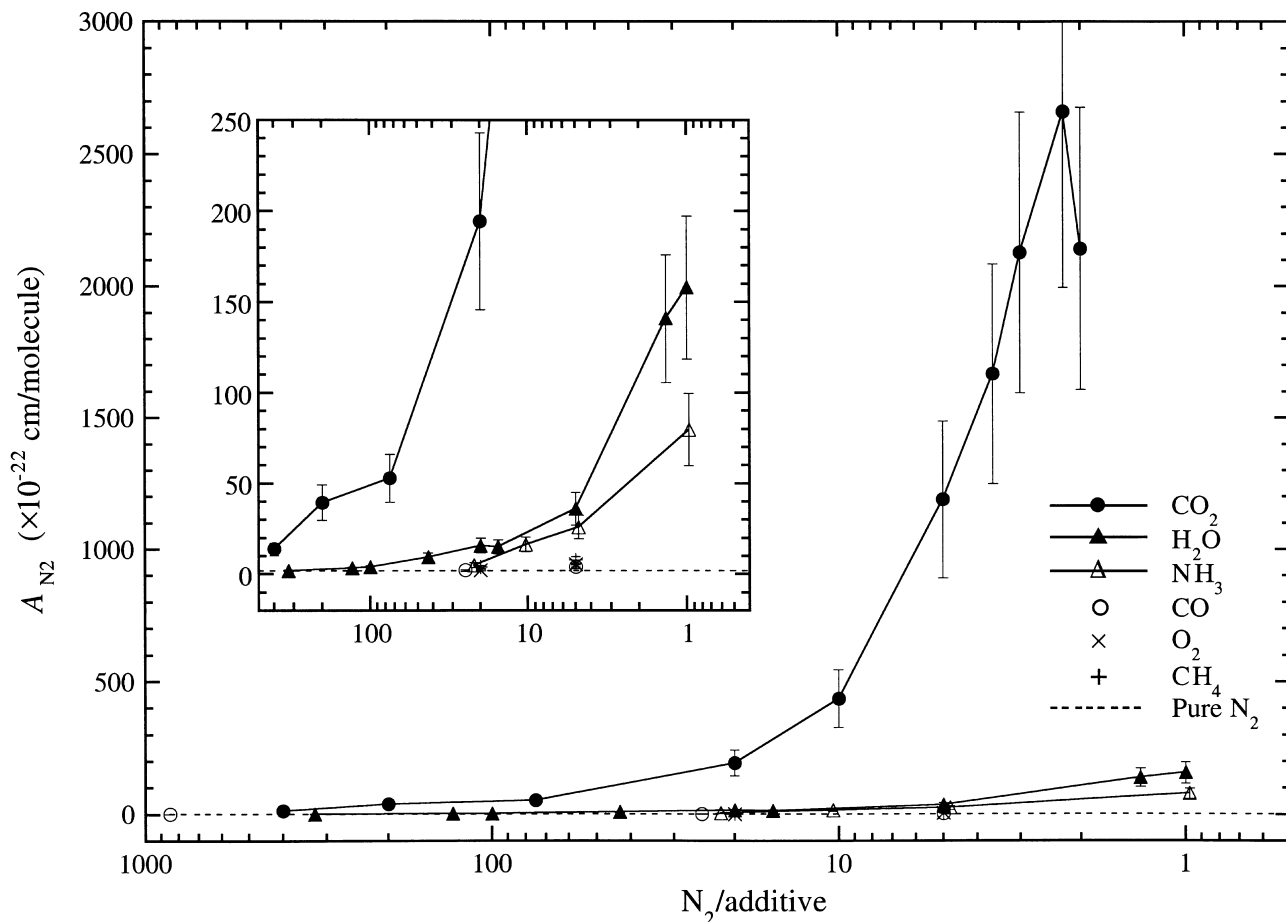


FIG. 2.—Intensity change of the 2328.2 cm^{-1} ($4.295\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ stretching band as a function of the concentration of added CO_2 (filled circles), H_2O (filled triangles), NH_3 (open triangles), CO (open circles), O_2 (crosses), and CH_4 (plus signs). The values plotted for the N_2 - CO_2 ices represent only the contribution from the band near 2328 cm^{-1} , i.e., they do not include the area of the 2332 cm^{-1} $^{18}\text{O}^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$ band. The dotted horizontal line near the bottom of the figure denotes the absorption strength of the 2328 cm^{-1} N_2 fundamental of a pure nitrogen ice.

The most dramatic effect, however, is produced by CO_2 . CO_2 measurably enhances the strength of the N_2 band even at concentrations as low as 0.25%, and at concentrations above 5% it enhances the N_2 band by factors of hundreds. In very CO_2 -rich ices the enhancement exceeds a factor of 1000 (Table 2 and Fig. 2). Concentration and isotopic substitution studies show that the enhancement of the $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$ fundamental in N_2 - CO_2 ices is due to a resonant interaction of the 2328 cm^{-1} N_2 band with the nearby $\text{O}=\text{C}$ asymmetric stretches of $^{18}\text{O}^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$ at 2332 cm^{-1} and $^{16}\text{O}^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$ at 2348 cm^{-1} (Bernstein & Sandford 1999).

It should be noted that, while it is possible to premix N_2 carefully with other molecules in the gas phase at known concentrations, it is difficult to control the precise extent to which different guest molecules will fractionate relative to the N_2 during deposition. However, this is *not* the cause of the effects just described as the observed enhancements do not correlate in any way with volatility.

Finally, it should be noted that the enhancements produced by NH_3 , H_2O , and CO_2 all start to level out as their concentrations exceed about 30%–50% that of the N_2 . Calculations suggest that this effect is largely due to nearest neighbor statistics. At guest molecule concentrations above $\sim 30\%$, nearly every N_2 in the ice sample will be located near a perturbing guest molecule. At this point, the addition of more of the guest molecule will result in little additional

perturbation/enhancement of the N_2 fundamental. The observed maxima for NH_3 , H_2O , and CO_2 are approximately 8×10^{-21} , 1.5×10^{-20} , and 2.5×10^{19} cm molecule^{-1} , respectively. For more information on the spectral properties of N_2 in mixed molecular ices, see Bernstein & Sandford (1999).

2.3. The Possible Range of N_2 Band Strengths for Interstellar Ices

The A values in Table 2 and Figure 2 show that the strength of the stretching fundamental of N_2 in ices can vary by orders of magnitude depending on the other molecules in the ice. If the N_2 fundamental is enhanced in interstellar ices, it will be much easier to detect this feature in the infrared spectra of dense molecular clouds. However, it will also be difficult to establish the abundance of any detected N_2 without a complete understanding of the other molecules in the ice. This highlights the need for relevant laboratory spectral data of comparable ice mixtures studied under astrophysically relevant conditions. In the remainder of this section we discuss the range of intensity enhancements that might be expected in interstellar ices and discuss the possible detectability of the 2328 cm^{-1} band of solid interstellar N_2 .

Theoretical models predict that the abundance of N_2 relative to CO , CH_4 , O_2 , NH_3 , H_2O , and CO_2 in the ices in

dense molecular clouds should vary considerably depending on the local environmental conditions, H/H₂ ratio, and the clouds' initial elemental composition and age (Tielens & Hagen 1982; d'Hendecourt et al. 1985; Caselli, Hasegawa, & Herbst 1998). However, since lab studies indicate that CO, CH₄, and O₂ produce little or no enhancements in the N₂ fundamental, we can restrict our discussion to the predicted N₂/H₂O, N₂/CO₂, and N₂/NH₃ ice ratios. The range of calculated N₂/H₂O ratios spans values from as low as a few times 10⁻⁶ to as high as 3, but models restricted to typical conditions and the most relevant timescales generally yield N₂/H₂O ratios of 0.03–0.15. Calculated N₂/CO₂ ratios also cover a wide range, 0.01–1, but again, models restricted to typical conditions and timescales generally yield N₂/CO₂ ratios on the order of 0.4. The calculated N₂/NH₃ ratio appears to be extremely sensitive to environmental conditions, and reported values range from a few times 10⁻³ up to as high as 25. Furthermore, the models do not agree as to what typical N₂/NH₃ values are likely to be, although there is general agreement that the N₂/NH₃ ratios should generally be larger than the N₂/CO₂ ratios.

Examination of Table 2 for these ranges of concentration values indicates that binary mixtures with NH₃ would be expected to produce A_{N2} values from about 8.0 × 10⁻²¹ to less than 5.1 × 10⁻²² cm molecule⁻¹ (enhancements of ~45 to <3 relative to pure N₂). Binary mixtures with H₂O would be expected to produce values of at least 1.6 × 10⁻²⁰ cm molecule⁻¹ (an enhancement of ~90). More impressively, binary mixtures with CO₂ would be expected to produce enhanced values around 2.5 × 10⁻¹⁹ cm molecule⁻¹ (an enhancement of ~1400). Given that all three of these species are seen in interstellar ices, it is likely that the N≡N stretching band of N₂ in interstellar ices is enhanced by at least a factor of 90, and possibly in excess of a factor of 1000, compared to that of pure N₂.

Given the likelihood of significant enhancement of the 2328 cm⁻¹ N₂ band in interstellar ices, we must ask how difficult it will be to detect it or place significant upper limits on its abundance. The expected optical depth of the N₂ feature (τ_{N2}) can be calculated from τ_{N2} ≈ (N_{N2} A_{N2})/Δv_{N2},

where N_{N2} is the column density of N₂ in molecules cm⁻², A_{N2} is the appropriate band strength in cm molecule⁻¹, and Δv_{N2} is the FWHM of the N₂ band. One can derive the depth of this feature relative to another feature in the spectrum, for example, that of an H₂O ice band, by assuming N_{N2}/N_{H2O} = f, using N_{H2O} ≈ (τ_{H2O} Δv_{H2O})/A_{H2O}, and substituting into the first equation:

$$\frac{\tau_{N_2}}{\tau_{H_2O}} = \frac{f A_{N_2} \Delta v_{H_2O}}{A_{H_2O} \Delta v_{N_2}}.$$

In Table 3 we present a series of values for the τ_{N2}/τ_{H2O} ratio using the 3250 cm⁻¹ (3.08 μm) H₂O band and assuming a variety of N₂ band enhancement factors and values of f that span the most likely range, namely, 0.03 < N_{N2}/N_{H2O} < 0.15. The band enhancement factors of 1, 30, 90, 350, and 1400 used in Table 3 correspond roughly to the enhancements that would be expected for pure N₂ ice, N₂ in an NH₃-rich ice or an ice containing a few percent H₂O, N₂ in an H₂O-rich ice, N₂ in a mixed N₂:H₂O:CO₂ ice having N₂/H₂O = 0.03 and N₂/CO₂ = 0.4, and a CO₂-rich ice, respectively. Also, as specific examples, we include in Table 3 the expected optical depth and percent absorption band depth for these various conditions for two specific objects, AFGL 2136 and Elias 16 (see § 3). These values give some indication of the (large) range in N₂ band depths that might be expected in interstellar ices.

It should be noted that the values reported in Table 3 are determined from binary ices. True interstellar ices contain more than two components, however, and this will have some effect on the expected overall enhancement of the N₂ feature. For example, a good spectral fit to the 2140 cm⁻¹ feature due to CO in apolar interstellar ices is provided by an ice analog having a composition of N₂:O₂:CO₂:CO = 1:5:0.5:1 (Elsila et al. 1997). Based on Bernstein & Sandford (1999), we could expect the O₂ and CO in this ice to have little effect on the strength of the N≡N stretch, but the CO₂ should have a dramatic effect. This ice has an N₂/CO₂ ratio of 2, for which Table 2 would imply an A_{N2} value of about 2.5 × 10⁻¹⁹ cm molecule⁻¹ (an enhancement of a

TABLE 3
EXPECTED STRENGTH OF THE INTERSTELLAR N₂ ICE BAND FOR A VARIETY OF CONDITIONS^a

N ₂ Concentration	Pure N ₂ ^b	N ₂ in NH ₃ ^c	N ₂ in H ₂ O ^d	N ₂ in H ₂ O:CO ₂ ^e	N ₂ in CO ₂ ^f
N ₂ /H ₂ O = 0.03:					
τ _{N2} /τ _{H2O} ^g	7.4 × 10 ⁻⁶	1.7 × 10 ⁻⁴	3.0 × 10 ⁻⁴	1.3 × 10 ⁻³	1.1 × 10 ⁻²
τ _{N2} in AFGL 2136 ^h	2.0 × 10 ⁻⁵ (0.002)	4.6 × 10 ⁻⁴ (0.05)	8.2 × 10 ⁻⁴ (0.08)	3.5 × 10 ⁻³ (0.35)	3.0 × 10 ⁻² (3.0)
τ _{N2} in Elias 16 ⁱ	9.3 × 10 ⁻⁶ (0.0009)	2.1 × 10 ⁻⁴ (0.02)	3.8 × 10 ⁻⁴ (0.04)	1.6 × 10 ⁻³ (0.16)	1.4 × 10 ⁻² (1.4)
N ₂ /H ₂ O = 0.15:					
τ _{N2} /τ _{H2O} ^g	3.7 × 10 ⁻⁵	8.4 × 10 ⁻⁴	1.5 × 10 ⁻³	6.5 × 10 ⁻³	5.5 × 10 ⁻²
τ _{N2} in AFGL 2136 ^h	1.0 × 10 ⁻⁴ (0.01)	2.3 × 10 ⁻³ (0.23)	4.1 × 10 ⁻³ (0.41)	1.8 × 10 ⁻² (1.8)	1.5 × 10 ⁻¹ (13.9)
τ _{N2} in Elias 16 ⁱ	4.7 × 10 ⁻⁵ (0.005)	1.1 × 10 ⁻³ (0.11)	1.9 × 10 ⁻³ (0.19)	8.2 × 10 ⁻³ (0.81)	6.9 × 10 ⁻² (6.7)

^a The A values and widths used here are those reported in Bernstein & Sandford 1999 using their interference fringe technique. Values of A_{H2O} = 1.7 × 10⁻¹⁶ cm molecule⁻¹ and Δv_{H2O} = 350 cm⁻¹ are used throughout and taken from Hudgins et al. 1993.

^b Enhancement factor equal to 1. Used A_{N2} = 1.8 × 10⁻²² cm molecule⁻¹ and Δv_{N2} = 1.5 cm⁻¹ [for comparison, Bohn et al. 1994 report a value of A_{N2} = (1.3 ± 0.6) × 10⁻²² cm molecule⁻¹].

^c Enhancement factor equal to 30. Used A_{N2} = 5.4 × 10⁻²¹ cm molecule⁻¹ and Δv_{N2} = 2.0 cm⁻¹.

^d Enhancement factor equal to 90. Used A_{N2} = 1.6 × 10⁻²⁰ cm molecule⁻¹ and Δv_{N2} = 3.3 cm⁻¹.

^e Enhancement factor equal to 350. Used A_{N2} = 6.3 × 10⁻²⁰ cm molecule⁻¹ and Δv_{N2} = 3.0 cm⁻¹ (H₂O:CO₂:N₂ = 100:7.5:3 ice).

^f Enhancement factor equal to 1400. Used A_{N2} = 2.5 × 10⁻¹⁹ cm molecule⁻¹ and Δv_{N2} = 1.4 cm⁻¹. Values do not include any contribution from the 2332.0 cm⁻¹ ¹⁸O¹²C¹⁶O band.

^g Ratio of the optical depth of the 2328 cm⁻¹ N₂ feature and the 3250 cm⁻¹ (3.08 μm) H₂O ice feature.

^h Used τ_{H2O} = 2.72 for the 3.08 μm band in AFGL 2136 (Willner et al. 1982). Values in parentheses are in absolute percent.

ⁱ Used τ_{H2O} = 1.257 for the 3.08 μm band in Elias 16 (Smith, Sellgren, & Brooke 1993). Values in parentheses are in absolute percent.

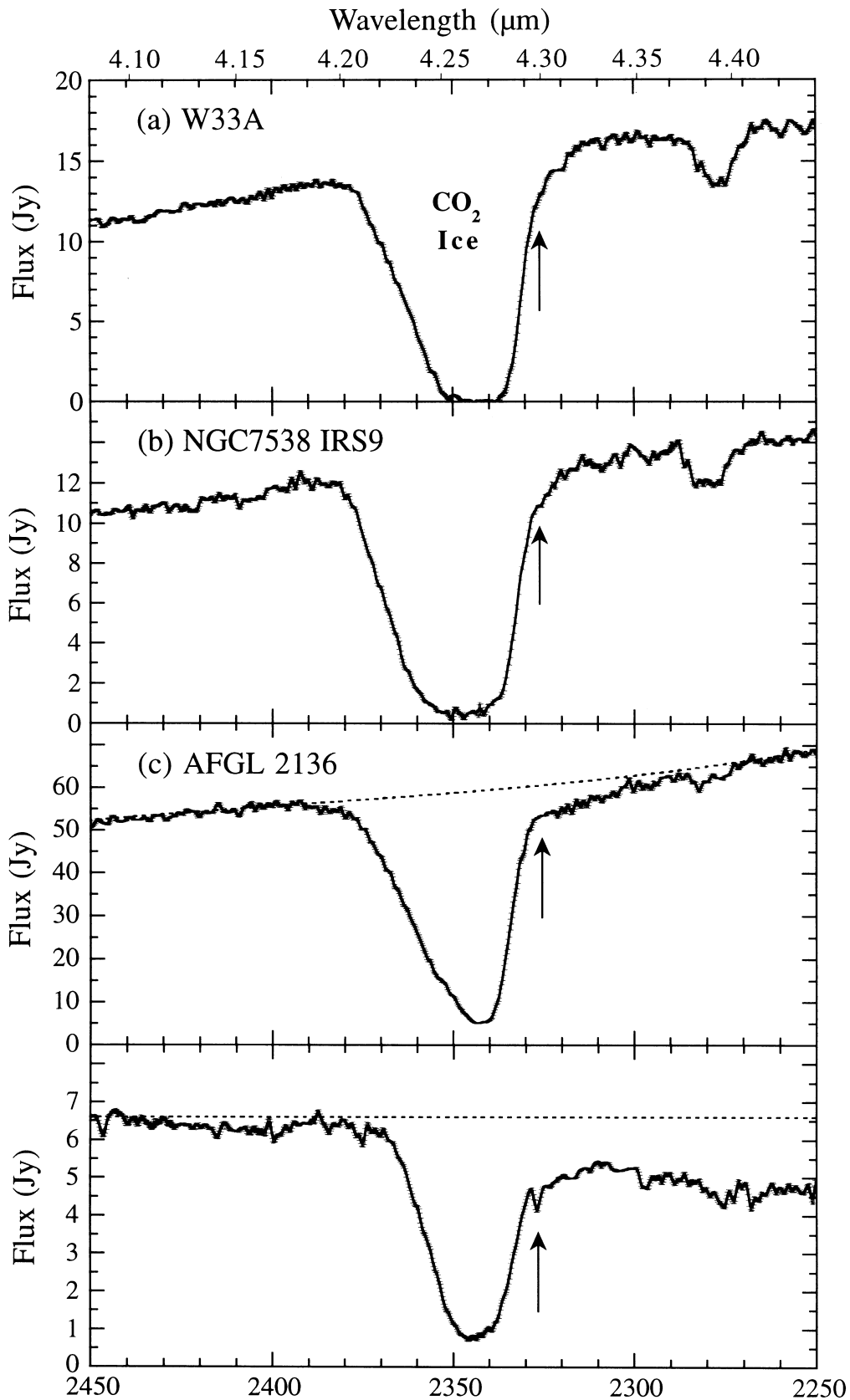


FIG. 3.—2450–2250 cm^{-1} (4.08–4.44 μm) spectra of several infrared sources along lines of sight passing through dense molecular cloud material: protostars (a) W33A, (b) NGC 7538 IRS 9, (c) AFGL 2136, and (d) a background field star, Elias 16. The strong band centered near 2345 cm^{-1} (4.26 μm) is due primarily to CO_2 frozen in interstellar ices. The isotopic band due to $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ in the ices is also visible in the spectra near 2280 cm^{-1} (4.39 μm). The expected position of the N_2 fundamental is marked with a vertical arrow in each spectrum. The dotted lines superimposed on the spectra of AFGL 2136 and Elias 16 represent the baselines used to calculate the optical depths shown in Figs. 4 and 7.

factor of ~ 1400 over a pure N_2 ice). However, the actual N_2 band strength enhancement in this ice is mitigated by the other, nonenhancing molecules in the ice. Molecules like O_2 , CO , and CH_4 may not effect the N_2 fundamental themselves, but they will partially isolate the N_2 from the other molecules that do, thereby decreasing the total enhancement. This increased isolation will be most important in environments with the lowest H/H_2 , i.e., the environments where very nonpolar ices dominate. However, even under these conditions a significant fraction of the N_2 molecules within the ice will still have an NH_3 , H_2O , or CO_2 neighbor. For example, in the case of an $N_2:O_2:CO_2:CO = 1:5:0.5:1$ ice, where the O_2 and CO provide significant isolation of the N_2 , we still expect $\sim 70\%$ of the N_2 to have at least one CO_2 neighbor. Thus, one would expect this ice to produce an N_2 feature with an A_{N_2} value in the neighborhood of 1.8×10^{-19} cm molecule $^{-1}$ (enhancement factor of ≈ 1000). This is consistent with the value of $\sim 2 \times 10^{-19}$ cm molecule $^{-1}$ (enhancement of ~ 1100) that we actually observe for an $N_2:O_2:CO_2:CO = 1:5:0.5:1$ ice.

Thus, laboratory studies demonstrate that the strength of the N_2 band produced by interstellar ices should be substantially enhanced relative to that of a pure N_2 ice. Such enhancements should significantly improve the possibility of direct detection of N_2 in interstellar ices but will complicate the interpretation of any N_2 bands thereby detected.

3. ASTRONOMICAL SPECTRA

To search for the absorption band of N_2 ice in interstellar dense clouds, one must measure the spectrum of a "background" infrared source. The source can either be a star that lies behind the dense cloud or a protostar embedded within. In the former case the line of sight will be dominated by the general, quiescent cloud medium, while in the latter case it will include contributions from material in both the general cloud and the "local" concentration of material associated with the forming star. The abundance of N_2 -containing ices along these two types of lines of sight may be very different, both because they represent environments having different H/H_2 ratios, chemical evolutionary histories, etc., and because the dust associated with embedded protostars is considerably warmer than in the general cloud medium. Volatile N_2 is more likely to have been lost from the grains via sublimation in the vicinity of protostars than in the general cloud medium. This would be in keeping with observations that these two types of lines of sight show different distributions in other ice-related materials (see Sandford et al. 1988; Tielens et al. 1991; Tegler et al. 1995; Whittet et al. 1996; Gerakines et al. 1999). Thus, ideally, a search for interstellar N_2 would include the use of both types of objects as background sources. To this end, we now consider the spectra of four infrared sources, three protostars and a star located behind a dense cloud.

The astronomical spectra described here were obtained with the *ISO* short-wavelength spectrometer (SWS; de Graauw et al. 1996a), used in grating mode AOT06. The spectra of the protostellar sources, W33A, NGC 7538 IRS 9, and AFGL 2136, are from Teixeira et al. (1999). Details on how those data were obtained and reduced are given in that paper. (Note that in Teixeira et al. 1999 the coordinates of NGC 7538 IRS 9 and AFGL 2136 were accidentally switched: the former object is located at $\alpha_{2000} = 23^h14^m01^s$, $\delta_{2000} = 61^\circ27'20''$, while the latter is located at $\alpha_{2000} = 18^h22^m26^s$, $\delta_{2000} = -13^\circ30'08''$.) The raw data of Elias 16

($\alpha_{2000} = 04^h39^m38^s$, $\delta_{2000} = 26^\circ11'25''$), a K1 III field star behind the Taurus molecular cloud (Elias 1978), were retrieved from the *ISO* Data Archive, from an original proposal by D. C. B. Whittet.

Data reduction of the protostellar objects was carried out in 1998 August using the *ISO* SWS IA³ package and the calibration files available at the time. Reduction of the Elias 16 data was done with OSIA v1.0. In all cases, data processing departed from the pipeline at the standard processed data stage. Dark revision and subtraction, as well as correction of glitches, jumps, and differences between up and down scans, were performed interactively. After extracting the spectra with filtering to the instrumental resolution for point sources for the relevant band(s) (1E and 2A in the case of the protostellar objects and 2A in the case of Elias 16), the spectra were further Hanning-smoothed using ISAP. The width of the smoothing bin was $0.0020375 \mu\text{m}$ for the protostellar objects and $0.002135 \mu\text{m}$ for Elias 16.

Figure 3 shows the resulting $2450\text{--}2250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($4.08\text{--}4.44 \mu\text{m}$) spectra of W33A, NGC 7538 IRS 9, AFGL 2136, and Elias 16. The first three of these infrared sources are protostars that probe a line of sight that passes through both quiescent dense molecular cloud material and material more local to the protostar. Elias 16 is a K1 III background star behind a dense cloud and is expected to probe only quiescent dense molecular cloud material. The expected position of the N_2 fundamental is marked with a vertical arrow in each spectrum. The dotted lines superimposed on the spectra of AFGL 2136 and Elias 16 (Figs. 3c and 3d) represent the baselines used to calculate the optical depths of the absorption bands seen in this spectral region (see §§ 4.1 and 4.2).

A band near 2345 cm^{-1} ($4.26 \mu\text{m}$) due to solid-state CO_2 dominates all the spectra. This band is badly saturated in the spectra of W33A and NGC 7538 IRS 9 and is becoming saturated in the spectra of AFGL 2136 and Elias 16. A second, weaker feature seen near 2280 cm^{-1} ($4.39 \mu\text{m}$) is due to solid-state $^{13}CO_2$. For more detailed descriptions of the interpretation of these features, the reader is invited to see Gerakines et al. (1999). While not visible on the scale of these figures, several of the spectra show evidence for the presence of the rotation lines of gas-phase CO_2 (see van Dishoeck et al. 1996 and § 4.1).

4. UPPER LIMITS ON N_2 ICE COLUMN DENSITIES

The detection of the interstellar 2328 cm^{-1} ($4.295 \mu\text{m}$) feature of solid N_2 is fraught with difficulty that extends beyond the problems associated with the intrinsic weakness of the band and its strong variability as a function of ice composition. Three added complications, at least for the astronomical data currently available, are (1) the presence of the strong, nearby $^{12}CO_2$ ice feature that complicates the selection of the baseline of any N_2 feature present; (2) the presence, especially for the lines of sight toward protostars, of gas-phase CO_2 that produces a system of molecular rotation lines that straddle the N_2 band position; and (3) in the case of the background star Elias 16, the presence of absorption lines in the same spectral region due to photospheric CO. As a result, we can currently only derive upper limits to the amounts of N_2 present toward these objects. In the sections that follow we examine the lines of sight toward protostars (particularly AFGL 2136; § 4.1) and the background field star Elias 16 (§ 4.2) and then briefly discuss

some implications of our work for the detection of N₂ in solar system objects (§ 5).

4.1. Upper Limits on the Amount of N₂ in Interstellar Ices on the Line of Sight toward Protostars

It is apparent from Figure 3 that it is very difficult to address the abundance of solid N₂ toward W33A and NGC 7538 IRS 9 because the N₂ band position falls on the slope of the extremely strong, saturated 2345 cm⁻¹ CO₂ ice bands in their spectra. These spectra serve to demonstrate

the enormous difficulty involved with detecting N₂ ice along lines of sight with very large column densities. In the discussion that follows we will concentrate on the spectrum of AFGL 2136, which has considerably less CO₂ ice band saturation. A continuum fit to the spectrum of AFGL 2136 was made using the same procedure as that of Gerakines et al. (1999), i.e., a third-order polynomial was fitted to the data points in the 4.0–4.1 and 4.4–4.5 μm spectral intervals. This baseline is shown as a dotted line in Figure 3c and was used to generate the optical depth plot shown in Figure 4.

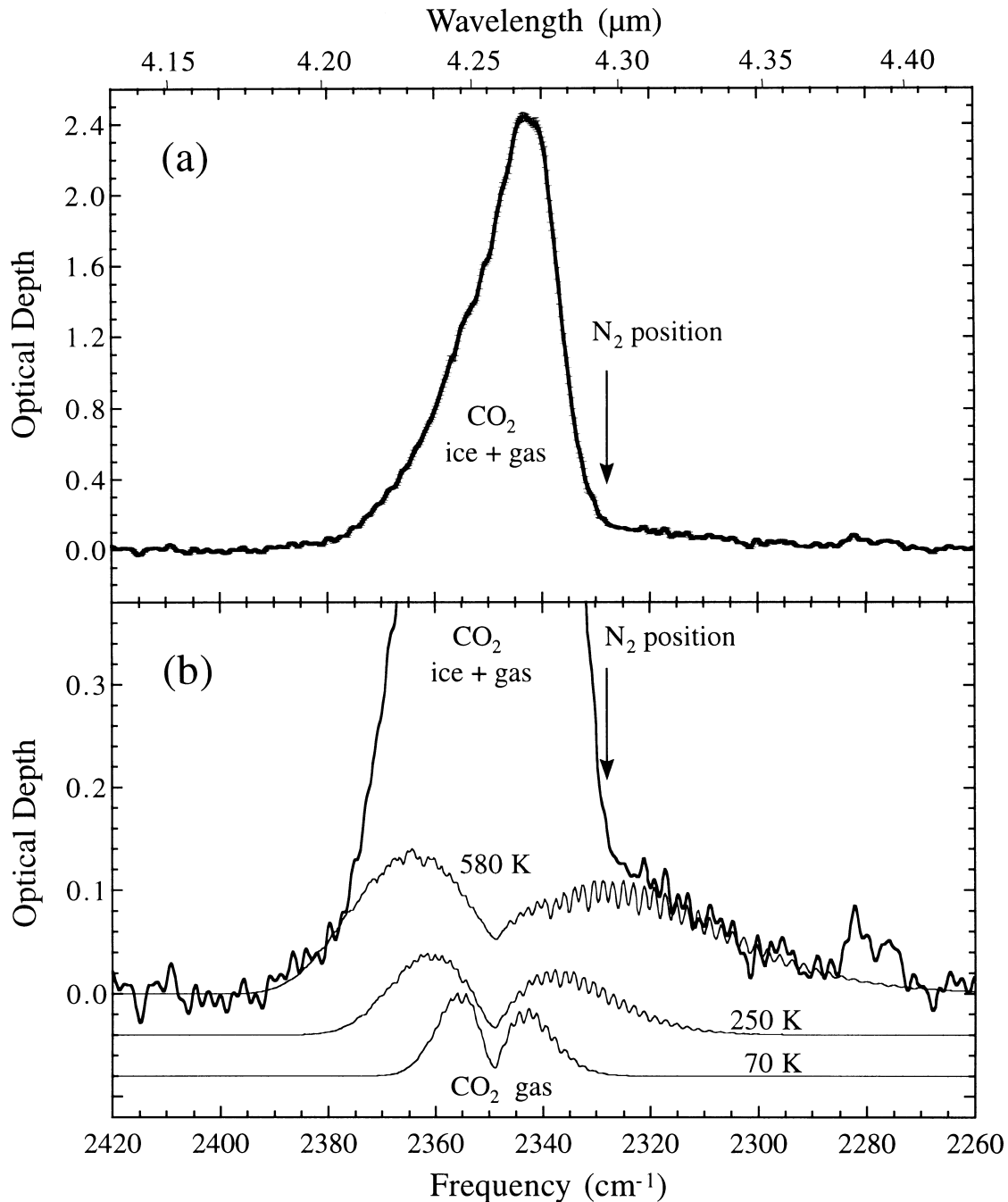


FIG. 4.—2420–2260 cm⁻¹ (4.13–4.42 μm) optical depth plot of (a) the CO₂ ice feature toward AFGL 2136 derived from the data and baseline shown in Fig. 3c and (b) the base of the AFGL 2136 CO₂ ice feature compared to the contributions expected from gas-phase CO₂ at 70, 250, and 580 K (see § 4.1). The 70 and 250 K CO₂ gas spectra in (b) have been displaced downward for clarity. The vertical arrows indicate the expected position of the solid-state N₂ feature.

As a very conservative upper limit on the column density of N_2 toward this object, one could simply use the optical depth at the 2328 cm^{-1} N_2 band position in the spectrum in Figure 4. However, it is known that this line of sight contains gas-phase CO_2 (van Dishoeck et al. 1996; Gerakines et al. 1999), the rotational lines of which can produce substantial absorption across the N_2 band position. We have examined the consequences of compensating for the gas-phase CO_2 contribution using a technique similar to that used by Gerakines et al. (1999).

The HITRAN 96 database was used to calculate the expected CO_2 lines for gases having temperatures of 70, 250, and 580 K using the HAWKS software (Rothman et al. 1998). Calculations were made for both the CO_2 asymmetric stretching mode lines in the $2430\text{--}2240\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($4.12\text{--}4.46\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) region and the $O=C=O$ bending mode lines in the $720\text{--}610\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($13.9\text{--}16.4\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) region. Only the $^{12}C^{16}O_2$ lines were calculated. The bands were then convolved with a Gaussian function with a fixed FWHM designed to match the resolution of the synthetic CO_2 spectra with the smoothed astronomical data. The FWHM used was 1.55 cm^{-1} for the CO_2 stretching band and 0.445 cm^{-1} for the CO_2 bending band.

Each of the 70, 250, and 580 K synthetic bending mode spectra were then scaled so that the central, unresolved

Q -branch of the $CO_2\ v_2$ band at 668 cm^{-1} ($14.97\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) matched the depth of the same feature in the data of AFGL 2136 from Gerakines et al. (1999). Figure 5 shows an example of this matching for the case of a 580 K CO_2 gas. The resulting scaling factors were then used to scale the strengths of the synthetic $CO_2\ v_3$ asymmetric stretching mode rotation lines. Figure 4b shows the CO_2 gas-phase absorption contributions that would be expected in the $2420\text{--}2260\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region if these different temperature gases were responsible for the 668 cm^{-1} CO_2 Q -branch (the 70 and 250 K spectra have been offset downward for clarity). Each of these contributions could then be subtracted from the overall optical depth spectrum of AFGL 2136.

The best fit to the data, both in absolute strength and overall profile, is provided by the 580 K gas. The presence of warm CO_2 gas is not entirely unexpected since this temperature is nearly the same as the blackbody temperature inferred from the infrared continuum emitted by the dust shell surrounding this protostar (Willner et al. 1982), and 580 K CO gas has been measured along this line of sight (Mitchell et al. 1990). This suggests that the observed CO_2 gas may be largely associated with the protostar, presumably in a zone where its radiation is causing the sublimation of nearby interstellar ices. It should be pointed out, however, that the good fit produced by the 580 K CO_2 gas

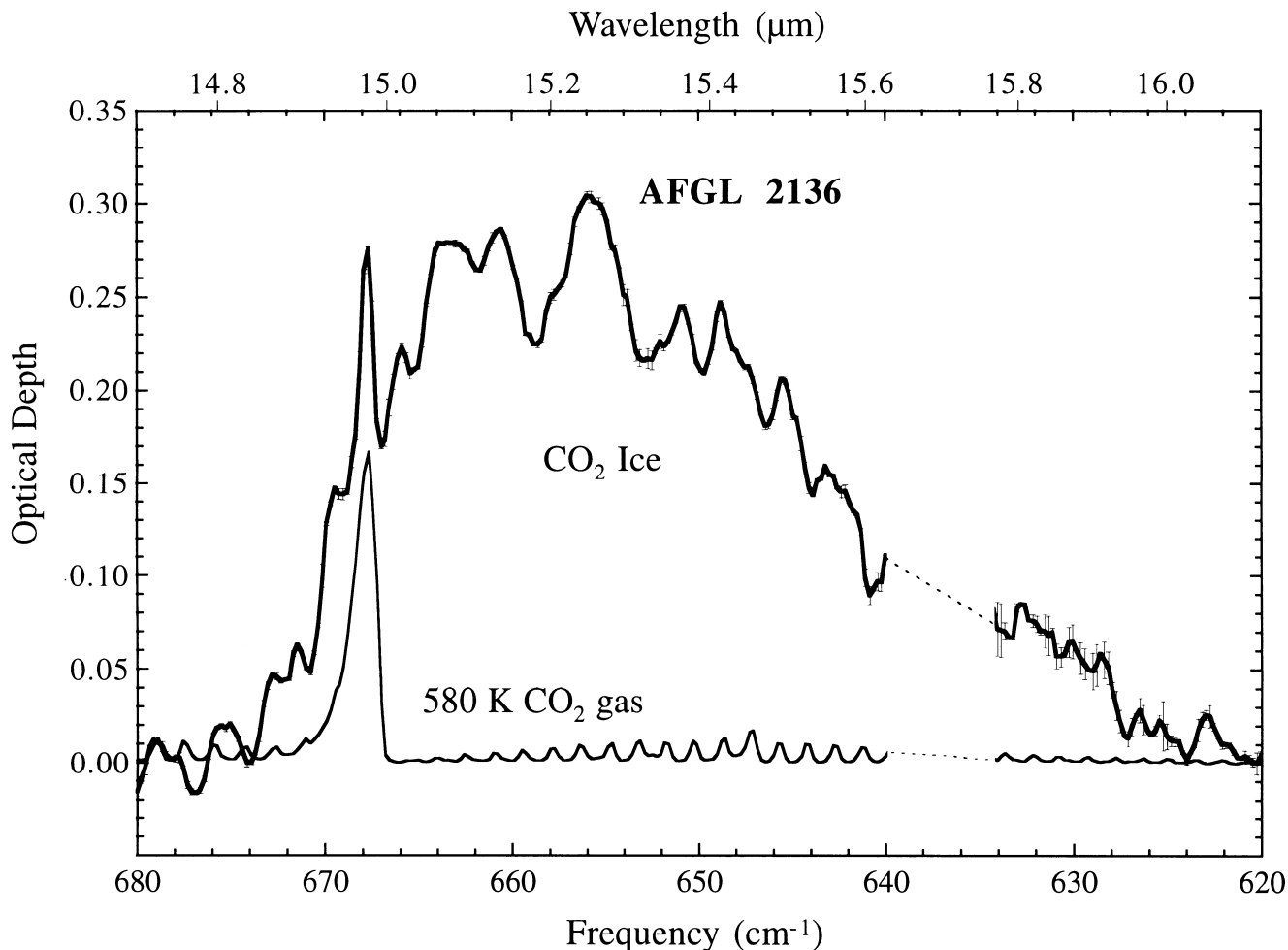


FIG. 5.— $680\text{--}620\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($14.7\text{--}16.1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) optical depth plot of AFGL 2136 (from Gerakines et al. 1999) compared to the scaled synthetic spectrum of a 580 K CO_2 gas calculated using HITRAN (see § 4.1). The strong feature at 668 cm^{-1} is due to the unresolved Q -branch rotation lines of the bending mode vibrations of gas-phase CO_2 . The broader absorption is due to solid-state CO_2 , and its position and profile provide extensive information about the state and composition of the ice (Ehrenfreund et al. 1998b; Gerakines et al. 1999).

does not preclude the presence of some CO₂ gas at lower temperatures, as such contributions would fall more under the solid CO₂ ice feature where it is not possible to constrain their presence by fitting to the data (see Fig. 4b). However, only a small amount of cold gas could be added in this manner without violating the initial constraint provided by the strength of the 668 cm⁻¹ CO₂ Q-branch. In any event, the presence of colder CO₂ gases is less critical to the issue at hand since they would contribute significantly less absorption to the N₂ band position.

Figure 6 shows the residual AFGL 2136 CO₂ ice feature remaining after the contributions of CO₂ gas at temperatures of 70, 250, and 580 K have been removed. While all these spectra show a minor absorption “bump” at the 2328 cm⁻¹ N₂ band position, it is not larger than many other deviations in the spectrum, i.e., none of these spectra show compelling evidence for the presence of a distinct band at the N₂ ice band position. The total residual optical depths at the 2328 cm⁻¹ N₂ ice band position in Figure 6 could be used to derive a very conservative estimate of the absorption due to solid N₂ along this line of sight (i.e., $\tau \approx 0.18, 0.13,$ and 0.07 for the 70, 250, and 580 K CO₂ gas subtractions, respectively). However, assuming that all the absorption at this position is due to N₂ would result in the remaining absorption having a very peculiar profile, especially for the spectra with lower temperature gas-phase CO₂ removed. For example, if all the absorption at 2328 cm⁻¹ in the spectrum in Figure 6a was due to solid N₂, the remaining absorption profile would have to drop from $\tau \sim 0.20$ at 2330 cm⁻¹ to zero absorbance at around 2329 cm⁻¹ and then spring back up to about $\tau \sim 0.13$ at about 2327 cm⁻¹ before continuing its monotonic descent to zero near 2290 cm⁻¹. Such a profile is clearly highly unlikely. A more reasonable estimate of the maximum absorption that could be due to solid N₂ can be found by determining, in each case, the maximum amount of absorption that can be removed from the 2–3 cm⁻¹ wide region centered on the N₂ band position without causing a significant discontinuity in the profile of the wing of the CO₂ ice feature. In all three cases, this corresponds to upper limits on the N₂ absorption that are largely defined by the signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) of the data in this region, i.e., a conservative value of $\tau \sim 0.04$ in all three cases. Table 4 shows the limiting N₂ column den-

sities and the N₂/H₂O and N₂/CO₂ ratios to which this value corresponds for the various enhancement factors described in § 2 and summarized in Table 3. The implications of these upper limits are discussed in § 5.

4.2. Upper Limits on the Amount of N₂ in Interstellar Ices on the Line of Sight toward Elias 16

Figure 7a shows the optical depth plot of Elias 16 derived from the spectrum and baseline shown in Figure 3d (see below for how the baseline was determined). Since Elias 16 is a background star behind the Taurus dense cloud, this line of sight should not be associated with any of the locally heated dust seen toward the protostars. Instead, it should be dominated by material in the quiescent cloud medium where temperatures are expected to be very low. Thus, gas-phase CO₂ should not represent as significant a problem as it did for the analysis of the AFGL 2136 spectrum. In addition, based on theoretical considerations, quiescent parts of interstellar clouds are expected to contain a larger proportion of N₂-bearing apolar ices.

Unfortunately, the spectrum of Elias 16 suffers from a different problem. Elias 16 is a cool K1 III field star whose spectrum contains substantial absorption from photospheric CO. While the center of the R- and P-branches of the stretching mode rotation lines of gas-phase CO falls near 2140 cm⁻¹ (4.67 μ m), the photospheric temperature of Elias 16 is sufficiently high (4580 K) that R-branch lines of highly excited states of the CO extend into the region of interest for the N₂ feature. Indeed, one of the CO band heads falls almost directly on top of the N₂ band position.

In order to account for this absorption contribution, we again calculated a synthetic gas-phase spectrum. We used the ¹²C¹⁶O lines between 2400 and 2200 cm⁻¹ from the line list of Goorvitch (1994). The strength of these lines was calculated for a temperature of 4580 K using the partition function, term energies, and transition frequencies given by Goorvitch (1994) and the well-known formula for the ratio of line strengths at two different temperatures. The bands were then convolved with a Gaussian function with a fixed FWHM that matched the resolution of the synthetic spectrum with the smoothed astronomical data (FWHM = 1.55 cm⁻¹). Figure 7a shows the optical depth spectrum of Elias 16 compared to the convolved spectrum expected from a

TABLE 4
UPPER LIMITS ON THE N₂ COLUMN DENSITY AND N₂/H₂O AND N₂/CO₂ RATIOS IN AFGL 2136 AND ELIAS 16^a

N ₂ Concentration	Pure N ₂ ^b	N ₂ in NH ₃ ^c	N ₂ in H ₂ O ^d	N ₂ in H ₂ O:CO ₂ ^e	N ₂ in CO ₂ ^f
AFGL 2136 ($\tau_{N_2} \leq 0.04$):					
Maximum N_{N_2} ^g	$< 3.3 \times 10^{20}$	$< 1.5 \times 10^{19}$	$< 8.3 \times 10^{18}$	$< 1.9 \times 10^{18}$	$< 2.2 \times 10^{17}$
Maximum N ₂ /H ₂ O	< 65	< 2.9	< 1.6	< 0.4	< 0.04
Maximum N ₂ /CO ₂ ^h	< 540	< 25	< 14	< 3.1	< 0.4
Elias 16 ($\tau_{N_2} \leq 0.08$):					
Maximum N_{N_2} ^g	$< 6.7 \times 10^{20}$	$< 3.0 \times 10^{19}$	$< 1.7 \times 10^{19}$	$< 3.8 \times 10^{18}$	$< 4.5 \times 10^{17}$
Maximum N ₂ /H ₂ O	< 260	< 12	< 6.4	< 1.5	< 0.2
Maximum N ₂ /CO ₂ ^h	< 1460	< 65	< 37	< 8.3	< 1.0

^a The values presented in this table were all derived using the same parameters used in Table 3.

^b Enhancement factor equal to 1.

^c Enhancement factor equal to 30.

^d Enhancement factor equal to 90.

^e Enhancement factor equal to 350.

^f Enhancement factor equal to 1400.

^g Units are in molecules cm⁻².

^h Calculated using $N_{CO_2} = 6.1 \times 10^{17}$ cm⁻² for AFGL 2136 (de Graauw et al. 1996b) and $N_{CO_2} = 4.6 \times 10^{17}$ cm⁻² for Elias 16 (Whittet et al. 1998).

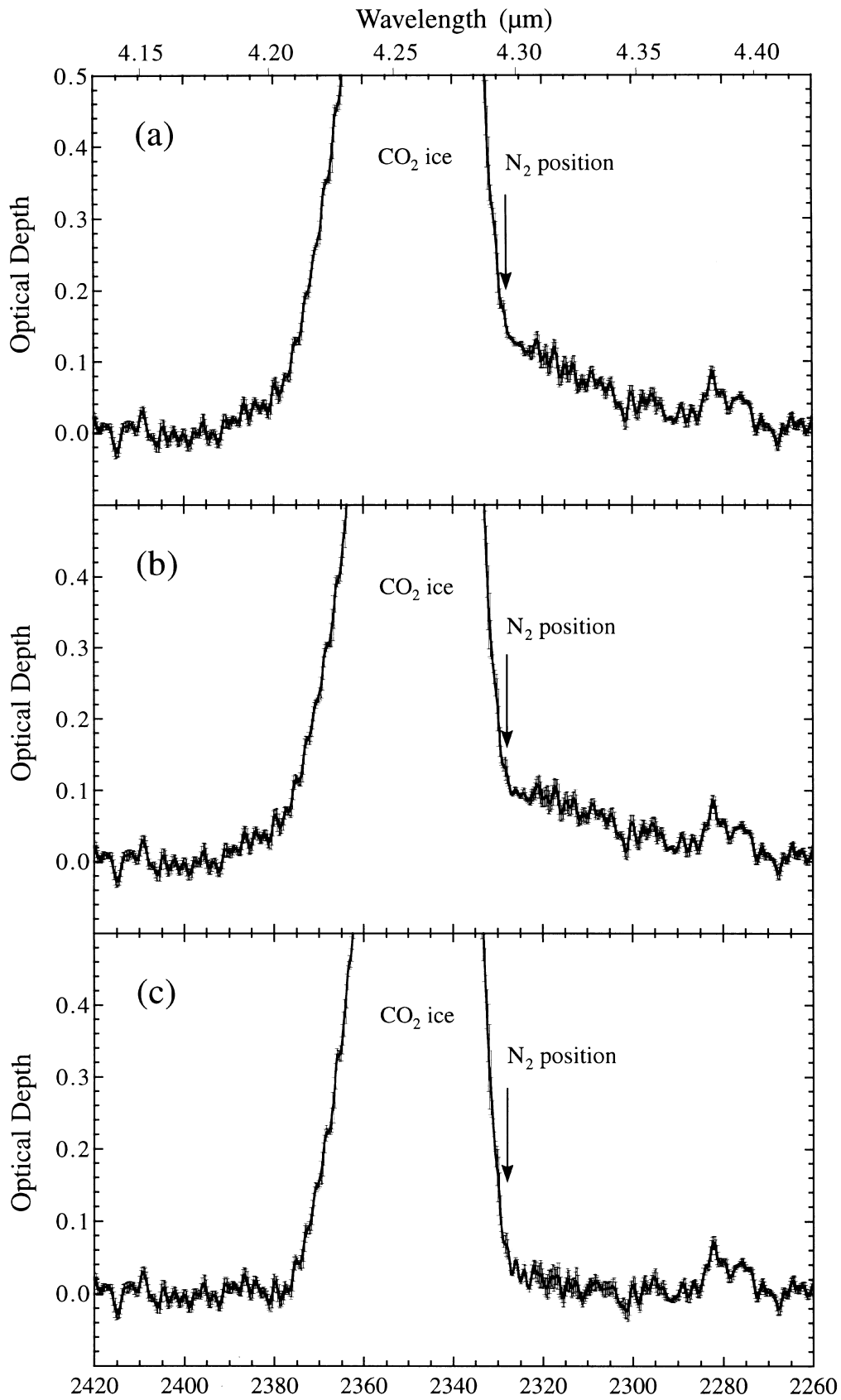


FIG. 6.—Residual AFGL 2136 CO₂ ice feature that remains after contributions of CO₂ gas at temperatures of (a) 70 , (b) 250, and (c) 580 K have been removed in a manner consistent with the observed strength of the unresolved *Q*-branch rotation lines at 668 cm⁻¹. The vertical arrows indicate the expected position of the solid-state N₂ feature.

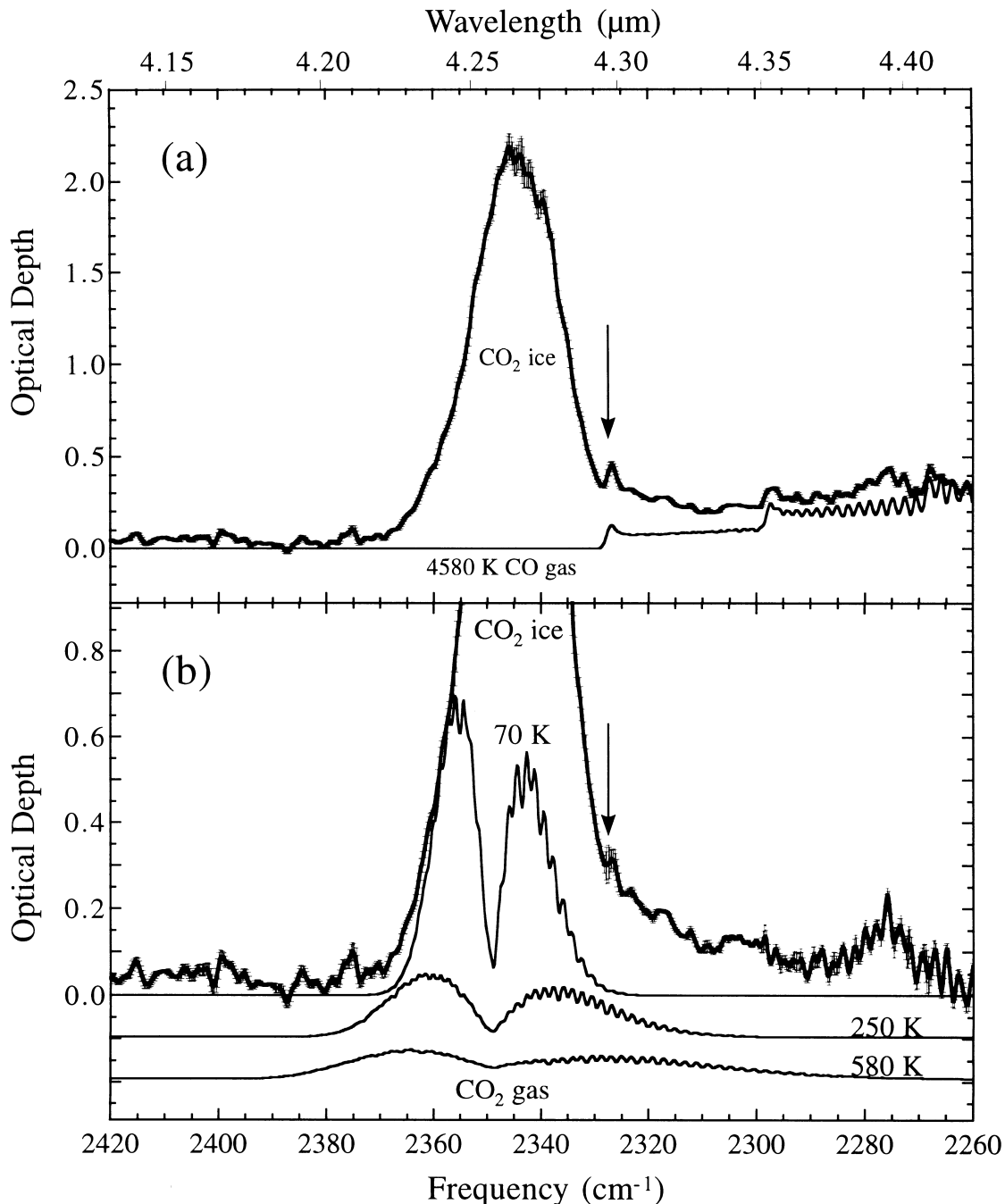


FIG. 7.—2420–2260 cm^{-1} (4.13–4.42 μm) optical depth plot of (a) the CO₂ ice feature toward Elias 16 derived from the data and baseline shown in Fig. 3d, compared with the synthetic spectrum of a 4580 K CO gas; and (b) the base of the Elias 16 CO₂ ice feature after removal of photospheric CO compared to the maximum possible contributions that could be made by gas-phase CO₂ at 70, 250, and 580 K (see § 4.2). The 250 and 580 K CO₂ gas spectra in (b) have been displaced downward for clarity. The vertical arrows indicate the expected position of the solid-state N₂ feature.

4580 K CO gas. Note the local peaks near 2327, 2298, and 2269 cm^{-1} due to the *R*-branch 0 → 1, 1 → 2, and 2 → 3 transition band heads, respectively, which are apparent in both the synthetic spectrum and that of Elias 16. The 0 → 1 band head falls almost directly on the N₂ ice position.

Since the photospheric CO absorption extends all the way to the edge of the CO₂ ice feature, it is not possible to establish a baseline across this spectral region by simply fitting a line or polynomial to the data as was done for AFGL 2136. Instead, it was necessary to carry out a simple iterative process in which a baseline was selected, an optical depth plot derived, the photospheric CO contribution

removed, and the resulting absorption spectrum investigated for evidence of residual photospheric CO *R*-branch 0 → 1, 1 → 2, and 2 → 3 band head features. Residual CO features were then used to iterate the chosen baseline until the solution converged on a baseline that yielded negligible CO features in the final spectrum. This resulted in the baseline shown in Figure 3d that was used to derive the optical depth plot shown in Figure 7a. Figure 7b shows the residual spectrum resulting from the removal of the synthetic photospheric CO contribution. Note that a very weak feature remains at the position of the N₂ ice band position, but its strength is comparable to the CO rotational line residuals

seen in the spectrum in the 2290–2260 cm^{-1} region and is most likely the result of a small amount of uncorrected photospheric CO.

Dealing with the issue of possible contributions from gas-phase CO_2 along the line of sight is problematic since no useful data are available in the 700–600 cm^{-1} spectral region for this object. Thus, it is not possible to use the strength of a 668 cm^{-1} CO_2 gas-phase Q -branch to constrain the possible abundance of CO_2 gas, as was done for AFGL 2136. Figure 7*b* shows the profiles and intensities of the *maximum* possible contributions from gas-phase CO_2 at temperatures of 70, 250, and 580 K that are compatible with the residual spectrum. In all cases, the strongest constraint is supplied by requirement that the CO_2 contribution not exceed the observed absorption in the 2375–2355 cm^{-1} range (see Fig. 7*b*). Because of its narrower rotational envelope, considerable absorption from cold CO_2 gas can be accommodated by the data. However, CO_2 gas at temperatures of 70 K produces very little absorption at 2328 cm^{-1} and therefore is of little consequence to deriving the upper limit on N_2 abundance. At most, 70 K CO_2 gas could be responsible for only about 6% of the absorption at this position (≤ 0.02 out of a total τ of 0.33). Little warm gas (250 and 580 K) would be expected in the quiescent dense cloud medium, which is consistent with the observation that very little can be introduced without exceeding the observed absorption at the high-frequency wing of the CO_2 ice feature. As a result, the maximum possible contribution of warm CO_2 gas at the 2328 cm^{-1} N_2 ice band position is small ($\tau < 0.07$ or less than 20% of the absorption at this position for a 250 K gas and $\tau \leq 0.05$ or less than 15% for a 580 K gas). (We would note that a cold CO_2 gas abundance as high as the maximum shown in Fig. 7*b* is highly unlikely since (1) CO_2 should begin to freeze efficiently onto grains at these temperatures and (2) it would require that the observed, roughly Gaussian CO_2 profile shown in Fig. 7*a* be made from the superposition of a double-lobed CO_2 gas-phase spectrum and a fortuitously offset double-lobed CO_2 ice feature unlike that seen in the spectra of any reasonable laboratory astrophysical analog ices so far examined; Sandford & Allamandola 1990; Gerakines et al. 1999.)

As with AFGL 2136, the total residual optical depths at the 2328 cm^{-1} N_2 ice band position could be used to derive a very conservative estimate of the absorption due to solid N_2 along this line of sight, but this would result in the remaining absorption having a very peculiar profile. Again, a more reasonable estimate of the maximum absorption that could be due to solid N_2 can be found by determining the maximum amount of absorption that can be removed from the 2–3 cm^{-1} wide region centered on the N_2 band position without causing a significant discontinuity in the profile of the wing of the CO_2 feature. Independent of any underlying minor contribution from gas-phase CO_2 , this corresponds to upper limits on the N_2 absorption that are largely defined by the quality of the residual data in this region, which, unfortunately, have both a lower S/N than the AFGL 2136 data and additional uncertainty associated with the possible presence of a small residual of the R -branch $0 \rightarrow 1$ photospheric CO band head. A conservative upper limit for the maximum absorption at 2328 cm^{-1} due to solid N_2 in the spectrum of Elias 16 is $\tau \sim 0.08$, i.e., about twice the upper limit found for AFGL 2136. Table 4 shows the limiting N_2 column densities and the $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and N_2/CO_2 ratios to which this value corresponds for the

various enhancement factors described in § 2 and summarized in Table 3. The implications of these upper limits are discussed in § 5.

5. DISCUSSION AND ASTROPHYSICAL IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Constraints on the Abundance and Composition of N_2 -bearing Interstellar Ices

While no clear detection of N_2 -bearing ices resulted from the efforts described above, examination of Tables 3 and 4 demonstrates that the N_2 column density upper limits derived from AFGL 2136 and Elias 16 are sufficiently low to begin to eliminate some possibilities.

As mentioned earlier, the range of theoretically predicted $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratios ranges from a few times 10^{-6} to as high as 3, but typical environments are generally expected to have $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratios of 0.03–0.15. The $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ upper limits given in Table 4 are already sufficient to eliminate the higher theoretical values, at least for ices in which the N_2 band strength is enhanced by the presence of CO_2 and, in the case of AFGL 2136, by H_2O . Even the nominal predicted $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ values of 0.03–0.15 are precluded in AFGL 2136 if there is band enhancement by CO_2 (although note that lower $\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ratios than predicted might well be expected for this object since local heating is likely to cause the evaporation of some or all of the local N_2). None of the current upper limits preclude the theoretical range of N_2 relative to H_2O in “typical” environments for ices in which the N_2 band is either unenhanced or enhanced only by the presence of NH_3 or H_2O .

A similar analysis can be made for N_2/CO_2 ratios. Calculated N_2/CO_2 ratios also span a wide range, 0.01–1, but models restricted to more typical conditions and timescales generally yield predicted N_2/CO_2 ratios on the order of 0.4. The upper limits derived in this work are just beginning to approach the higher theoretical values, at least for ices in which CO_2 is causing maximal enhancement of the N_2 band strength. Truly meaningful tests of theoretical N_2/CO_2 ratios will have to await improved upper limits or actual detection of the interstellar N_2 feature.

5.2. Gas-Phase CO_2 around AFGL 2136 and the Apolar Ice Component

The fit to, and removal of, a 580 K CO_2 gas in the spectrum of AFGL 2136 has several implications. Gas-phase CO_2 was first identified along the line of sight to this object by van Dishoeck et al. (1996) through the detection of the unresolved Q -branch of the CO_2 ν_2 band at 668 cm^{-1} (14.97 μm), which provides no information about the CO_2 gas temperature. Based on HITRAN calculations for 25 and 250 K CO_2 gases, they tentatively derived a gas-phase CO_2 column density of $1 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ from the detected ν_2 band. On the basis of a lack of obvious ν_3 P - and R -branch structure superimposed on the CO_2 ice feature near 2345 cm^{-1} , they derived an independent CO_2 upper limit of $N_{\text{CO}_2} < 5 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

As the assumed temperature of the CO_2 gas is increased, the abundance of the gas-phase CO_2 inferred from the ν_2 Q -branch will also increase. For our 70, 250, and 580 K fits to ν_2 Q -branch we derive CO_2 gas column densities of 1.9×10^{16} , 3.1×10^{16} , and $8.4 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, respectively. Thus, if the CO_2 gas is, in fact, cool ($T \leq 250$ K), we find gas-phase CO_2 column densities that are reasonably consistent with those of van Dishoeck et al. (1996), albeit a bit larger. However, if the CO_2 gas is warmer (580 K), we find

that there could be almost an order of magnitude more CO₂ in the gas phase than tentatively derived by van Dishoeck et al. (1996) on the basis of lower assumed gas temperatures. Although this sounds like a large difference, it does not in any way alter their major conclusion, namely, that the majority of CO₂ along this line of sight is in the solid form. It would, however, correspond to a gas/solid CO₂ ratio along this line of sight of ~ 0.17 , rather than the value of 0.02 they report. One of the puzzles raised by their earlier work was how the gas/solid ratio could be so low for CO₂ (0.02) while being significantly higher for both lower volatility H₂O (0.4) and higher volatility CO (200). The presence of warm CO₂ gas mitigates the need for the overall reservoir of CO₂ to have quite such a peculiar behavior.

The presence of warmer CO₂ gas may also have some implications for the interpretation of the 2345 cm⁻¹ CO₂ ice feature. Gerakines et al. (1999) used data from a variety of laboratory ice analogs to interpret the profile of the CO₂ ice feature in the spectrum of AFGL 2136. Prior to attempting to fit the ice feature, they removed a gas-phase contribution from this feature in the same manner we described in § 4.1. However, they removed a gas-phase contribution with an assumed temperature of only 250 K. The presence of warmer gas has several effects: it increases the total ν_3 absorption relative to ν_2 absorption, and it increases the spectral range over which the ν_3 rotational envelope extends. Thus, subtraction of a warmer gas results in residual CO₂ ice bands that will be slightly weaker and have weaker wings. Examination of Figure 3 of Gerakines et al. (1999) suggests that subtraction of 580 K CO₂ gas, rather than 250 K CO₂ gas, would result in their same ice analogs providing an even better fit to the astronomical data in the low-frequency wing of the CO₂ ice feature in AFGL 2136. The same is likely to be true of a number of their other fits, particularly to AFGL 2591, and possibly AFGL 490, AFGL 4176, W3 IRS 5, and W33A.

In addition, the increased total absorption to the presence of warmer gas will result in the removal of some of the absorption originally inferred to be due to CO₂ ice, with the low-frequency CO₂ gas lobe decreasing the amount of CO₂ inferred to be in polar ices and the high-frequency CO₂ gas lobe decreasing the amount of CO₂ inferred to be in apolar ices. The best fits found by Gerakines et al. (1999) demonstrate that the majority of interstellar ice-phase CO₂ is in the polar component. Thus, the small relative decrease suggested by the presence of warmer CO₂ gas should not greatly affect their derived polar ice abundances. However, the high-frequency lobe of the warmer CO₂ gas will produce a proportionally greater fractional reduction in the absorption ascribed to the less abundant nonpolar component. This may help alleviate one of the greater puzzles of the CO₂ ice data returned by *ISO*. Current fits to the CO₂ ice band data using background field stars like Elias 16, which probe the general, quiescent dense cloud medium, indicate that virtually all the absorption along these lines of sight is due to CO₂ frozen in *polar* ices (Whittet et al. 1998; Gerakines et al. 1999). In contrast, the best fits to protostars embedded in dense clouds usually require the presence of additional small amounts of CO₂ frozen in *apolar* ices (Gerakines et al. 1999). This is exactly the *opposite* of what would be expected since CO ice band data suggest that nonpolar ices have a greater relative abundance along quiescent lines of sight (see Elsila et al. 1997), a point predicted by theoretical models. In addition, the main com-

ponents of nonpolar astrophysical ices are considerably more volatile than the polar components, and they would be expected to be depleted *more* efficiently by sublimation in the vicinity of protostars, not less. Examination of the spectral fits in Gerakines et al. (1999) suggests that the presence of CO₂ gas that is warmer than previously assumed would decrease, and perhaps eliminate, the need for a nonpolar component to fit the CO₂ ice feature seen toward many embedded protostars, thereby potentially eliminating the apparent inconsistency between the inferred relative abundances of polar and nonpolar ices between protostellar and general cloud environments.

5.3. Strategies for the Future Detection of Interstellar N₂-bearing Ices

The efforts outlined above, while placing the first significant constraints on the abundance and nature of N₂ in interstellar ices, have only resulted in the determination of upper limits. Direct detections of N₂ in interstellar ices will require improvements over the current effort. A number of important criteria will have to be met if future efforts are to lead to the detection of interstellar N₂. First, and most obvious, the relative weakness of the 2328 cm⁻¹ N₂ band (even when it is enhanced by molecular interactions) indicates that any future detection of N₂ will require spectra with very high S/N. In addition, the detection of interstellar N₂ will be greatly simplified by searching for it along lines of sight that suffer from a minimum of interference from other molecular bands. Ideally, one would prefer lines of sight that do not produce a saturated CO₂ ice band near 2345 cm⁻¹ and that do not contain significant column densities of gas-phase CO₂, especially warm CO₂. In the case of utilizing background field stars as probes of the quiescent portions of clouds, it would be best to avoid using stars with photospheric absorption features, particularly M stars whose photospheric CO greatly complicates the search for N₂. Everything considered, it would probably be “easiest” to detect interstellar N₂ using background field stars since such lines of sight probe quiescent cloud regions that are predicted to be richer in apolar ices and should suffer from fewer problems with gas-phase CO₂. That being said, searches for N₂ toward embedded protostars, while being more difficult, are still of great interest as they probe a unique astrophysical environment in which interstellar ices are rapidly evolving.

Ultimately, it will also be desirable to obtain high-quality spectra of the probe stars across the entire 4000–500 cm⁻¹ (2.5–20 μ m) spectral range. Of particular importance is the 680–620 cm⁻¹ (14.7–16.1 μ m) region, as the unresolved *Q*-branch of the ν_2 CO₂ band at 668 cm⁻¹ (14.97 μ m) provides a very useful constraint on the contributions of gas-phase CO₂ to the N₂ band position. Once the interstellar N₂ band is detected, greater spectral coverage will be especially important. Since the strength of the N₂ ice band depends so critically on its molecular neighbors, it will be difficult to constrain the actual N₂ abundance implied by any detected band without a good understanding of what other molecules may be present in the ice.

Finally, this area would obviously benefit from additional theoretical modeling to understand better the expected abundances of N₂ in interstellar ices and how these abundances relate to local cloud conditions and previous evolutionary history. Of particular utility would be models that predict not only the abundances of N₂ but also the iden-

tities and abundances of their most likely molecular neighbors within the resulting ices.

5.4. Molecular Nitrogen in the Solar System

Both Pluto and Neptune's satellite Triton are known to have N₂-rich ices on their surfaces as evidenced by the first overtone of the N₂ stretching fundamental near 4656 cm⁻¹ (2.148 μm). The surface ices of these objects also contain CO, CH₄, H₂O, and, in the case of Triton, CO₂ (Cruikshank et al. 1993, 1998; Owen et al. 1993; Quirico et al. 1998).

It is not clear whether the enhancements described here have any direct application to the interpretation of the spectra of the N₂-rich ices on Pluto and Triton. First, our 12 K ices contained N₂ in the low-temperature α structural form relevant to interstellar conditions. The higher temperature N₂ ices on Triton and Pluto (*T* ~ 40 K) are thought to be predominantly in the β structural form (see Grundy, Schmitt, & Quirico 1993). Enhancements to the strength of the N₂ bands may well be different for the β structural form, and there is some evidence that the enhancements may be temperature dependent. In a limited number of experiments, Bernstein & Sandford (1999) monitored the strength of the N₂ band as samples were warmed from 10 to 20, 25, and 30 K. The H₂O- and CO₂-induced enhancements of the N₂ fundamental were seen to decrease slightly with warm-up, the effect being less than 30% for CO₂ and perhaps as much as 50% for H₂O. Additional experiments will be required to quantify this effect better as a function of sample composition.

Second, N₂ on Pluto and Triton has been identified via the first overtone of the N₂ stretching fundamental near 4656 cm⁻¹ (2.148 μm). Our data only address enhancements of the fundamental, not its overtone. In a limited number of cases, Bernstein & Sandford (1999) were able to detect the N₂ overtone band near 4656 cm⁻¹ in the spectra of their binary ices. Several samples with N₂/H₂O ratios between 10 and 20 were found to produce overtones having strengths of between 2.7×10^{-23} and 3.9×10^{-23} cm molecule⁻¹, values that are enhanced relative to those reported for pure N₂ (Bohn et al. 1994) by *at most* a factor of 2, whereas the fundamentals in these samples are enhanced by factors of about 8. Similarly, overtones seen in a few N₂/CO₂ = 20/1 and N₂/CO₂ = 5/1 samples yield *maximum* strengths of 4.2×10^{-22} and 1.4×10^{-21} cm molecule⁻¹, respectively. These correspond to enhancements of less than a factor of about 20 and 70 for the overtones, while the fundamentals are enhanced by factors of about 110 and 660, respectively. Thus, it appears that the N₂ overtone may be less enhanced by the presence of H₂O and CO₂ than is the fundamental. Additional spectral measurements with higher S/N in the 4700–4600 cm⁻¹ region will be needed to quantify this behavior better.

Finally, it is not clear that the N₂, CO₂, and H₂O in the ices on these bodies are in contact with each other at the molecular level. Current physical and spectral evidence suggests that the CH₄ and CO are mostly or entirely frozen in the N₂ ices, while the H₂O and CO₂ may be spatially segregated (Cruikshank et al. 1998; Quirico et al. 1998). Thus, the H₂O and CO₂ may not enhance the strength of the nitrogen features because they may not be in physical contact with the N₂.

Thus, the issue of whether other molecules produce enhancements of the absorption and reflection bands of N₂

in the spectra of Pluto and Triton will require additional laboratory studies that focus on conditions more relevant to these planetary environments.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The position, profile, and strength of the 2328 cm⁻¹ N≡N fundamental stretch of N₂ in ices are relatively insensitive to the presence of CO, CH₄, and O₂. However, the strength of this feature is significantly increased in the presence of NH₃, H₂O, or CO₂. The extent of the enhancement is dependent on the guest molecule and its concentration. At high concentrations, NH₃, H₂O, and CO₂ can lead to enhancement factors as high as 40, 80, and 1400, respectively.

Both theoretical models of interstellar ice mantle composition and direct observation of interstellar ices suggest that N₂ is likely to be abundant in dense molecular clouds. These same interstellar ices are also expected to contain NH₃, H₂O, and CO₂, implying that the N₂ fundamental near 2328 cm⁻¹ should be significantly enhanced in the spectra of interstellar ices. The expected enhancements relative to pure N₂ span the range from a minimum factor of ~30 to a maximum factor of over 1000, the actual value depending on the history and composition of the ice. Such enhancements significantly improve the possibility of direct detection of N₂ in interstellar ices but will make the interpretation of column densities of any N₂ detected more difficult.

Analysis of astronomical spectra probing dense cloud materials along lines of sight toward a protostellar object and a background field star yields upper limits for the abundance of interstellar N₂ ice that are just beginning to constrain interstellar grain models and the composition of possible N₂-bearing interstellar ices. The current upper limits indicate that N₂ cannot be present in CO₂-rich ices unless its abundance is lower than that predicted by models. None of the current upper limits preclude the theoretically predicted range of N₂ abundances in "typical" environments for ices in which the N₂ band is either unenhanced or enhanced only by the presence of NH₃ or H₂O.

If N₂-bearing ices are to be detected in the future, the search will require very high S/N spectra of stars that do not contain strong photospheric absorption bands (especially due to photospheric CO) and that do not probe lines of sight having saturated CO₂ ice bands. Emphasis should be placed on background stars rather than embedded protostars since field stars will probe lines of sight that (1) are likely to have formed larger relative concentrations of apolar, N₂-bearing ices; (2) will have considerably less spectral contamination by gas-phase CO₂; and (3) should suffer less N₂ ice depletion by sublimation.

Since the strength of the N₂ ice band depends so critically on molecular neighbors, it will be difficult to constrain the actual N₂ abundance implied by any detected band without a good understanding of what other molecules are present in the ice. In this vein, additional theoretical modeling designed to understand better the expected abundances of N₂ in interstellar ices and the identities and abundances of their most likely molecular neighbors within the resulting ices would be particularly useful.

Finally, the lines of sight toward protostars embedded in interstellar dense clouds may contain absorption contributions from modest amounts of relatively warm CO₂ gas. The presence of this gas may help resolve several puzzles

associated with the previously derived gas/solid CO₂ ratios and the relative abundances of polar and nonpolar ices toward these objects. In particular, the presence of warm CO₂ gas may mitigate the past apparent need for an increased contribution from CO₂ in apolar ices in protostellar regions relative to the general cloud medium, a finding that was the opposite of what would be expected. In addition, the presence of some warm CO₂ gas raises the derived gas/solid CO₂ ratios along these lines of sight to values that are more in keeping with those of other molecules and the relative volatility of CO₂.

This work was supported by NASA grants 344-38-12-04

(Exobiology), 344-37-44-01 (Origins of Solar Systems), and 399-20-61 (Long Term Space Astrophysics). The authors are grateful for useful discussions with D. Cruikshank, Eliot Young, Perry Gerakines, and Pascale Ehrenfreund, excellent technical support from R. Walker, and the helpful review of an anonymous referee. We also acknowledge IA³ and OSIA, joint developments of the SWS consortium. Contributing institutes are SRON, MPE, KUL, and the ESA Astrophysics Division. The *ISO* Spectral Analysis Package (ISAP) is a joint development by the LWS and SWS Instrument Teams and Data Centers. Contributing institutes are CESR, IAS, IPAC, MPE, RAL, and SRON.

REFERENCES

- Bernstein, M. P., & Sandford, S. A. 1999, *Spectrochim. Acta*, 55, 2455
 Bernstein, M. P., Sandford, S. A., & Allamandola, L. J. 1997, *ApJ*, 476, 932
 ———. 2000, *ApJ*, 542, 894
 Bohn, R. B., Sandford, S. A., Allamandola, L. J., & Cruikshank, D. P. 1994, *Icarus*, 111, 151
 Brown, P. D., & Charnley, S. B. 1990, *MNRAS*, 244, 432
 Caselli, P., Hasegawa, T. I., & Herbst, E. 1998, *ApJ*, 495, 309
 Cruikshank, D. P., Roush, T. L., Owen, T. C., Geballe, T. R., de Bergh, C., Schmitt, B., Brown, R. H., & Bartholomew, M. J. 1993, *Science*, 261, 742
 Cruikshank, D. P., Roush, T. L., Owen, T. C., Quirico, E., & de Bergh, C. 1998, In *Solar System Ices*, ed. B. Schmitt et al. (Dordrecht: Kluwer), 655
 de Graauw, T., et al. 1996a, *A&A*, 315, L49
 ———. 1996b, *A&A*, 315, L345
 d'Hendecourt, L. B., Allamandola, L. J., & Greenberg, J. M. 1985, *A&A*, 152, 130
 Ehrenfreund, P., Boogert, A. C. A., Gerakines, P. A., Tielens, A. G. G. M., & van Dishoeck, E. F. 1998a, *A&A*, 328, 649
 Ehrenfreund, P., Dartois, E., Demyk, K., & d'Hendecourt, L. 1998b, *A&A*, 339, L17
 Elias, J. H. 1978, *ApJ*, 224, 857
 Elsila, J., Allamandola, L. J., & Sandford, S. A. 1997, *ApJ*, 479, 818
 Gerakines, P. A., et al. 1999, *ApJ*, 522, 357
 Goorvitch, D. 1994, *ApJS*, 95, 535
 Grim, R. J. A., & Greenberg, J. M. 1987, *ApJ*, 321, L91
 Grundy, W. M., Schmitt, B., & Quirico, E. 1993, *Icarus*, 105, 254
 Hasegawa, T. I., Herbst, E., & Leung, C. M. 1992, *ApJS*, 82, 167
 Hudgins, D. M., Sandford, S. A., Allamandola, L. J., & Tielens, A. 1993, *ApJS*, 86, 713
 Irvine, W. M. 1998, *Origins of Life and Evolution of the Biosphere*, 28, 365
 Lacy, J. H., Baas, F., Allamandola, L. J., Persson, S. E., McGregor, P. J., Lonsdale, C. J., Geballe, T. R., & van der Bult, C. E. P. 1984, *ApJ*, 276, 533
 Lacy, J. H., Faraji, H., Sandford, S. A., & Allamandola, L. J. 1998, *ApJ*, 501, L105
 Mitchell, G. F., Maillard, J.-P., Allen, M., Beer, R., & Belcourt, K. 1990, *ApJ*, 363, 554
 Myers, P. C., & Benson, P. J. 1983, *ApJ*, 266, 309
 Owen, T. C., et al. 1993, *Science*, 261, 745
 Palumbo, M. E., Pendleton, Y. J., & Strazzulla, G. 2000a, *ApJ*, 542, 890
 Palumbo, M. E., Strazzulla, G., Pendleton, Y. J., & Tielens, A. G. G. M. 2000b, *ApJ*, 534, 801
 Pendleton, Y. J., Tielens, A. G. G. M., Tokunaga, A. T., & Bernstein, M. P. 1999, *ApJ*, 513, 294
 Quirico, E., Doute, S., Schmitt, B., de Bergh, C., Cruikshank, D., Owen, T., Geballe, T., & Roush, T. 1998, *Icarus*, 139, 159
 Rothman, L. S., et al. 1998, *J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transfer*, 60, 665
 Sandford, S. A. 1996, *Meteoritics and Planetary Science*, 31, 449
 Sandford, S. A., & Allamandola, L. J. 1990, *ApJ*, 355, 357
 ———. 1993, *ApJ*, 417, 815
 Sandford, S. A., Allamandola, L. J., Tielens, A. G. G. M., & Valero, G. J. 1988, *ApJ*, 329, 498
 Smith, R. G., Sellgren, K., & Brooke, T. Y. 1993, *MNRAS*, 263, 749
 Tegler, S. C., Weintraub, D. A., Allamandola, L. J., Sandford, S. A., Rettig, T. W., & Campins, H. 1993, *ApJ*, 411, 260
 Tegler, S. C., Weintraub, D. A., Rettig, T. W., Pendleton, Y. J., Whittet, D. C. B., & Kulesa, C. A. 1995, *ApJ*, 439, 279
 Teixeira, T. C., Devlin, J. P., Buch, V., & Emerson, J. P. 1999, *A&A*, 347, L19
 Teixeira, T. C., Emerson, J. P., & Palumbo, M. E. 1998, *A&A*, 330, 711
 Tielens, A. G. G. M., & Hagen, W. 1982, *A&A*, 114, 245
 Tielens, A. G. G. M., Tokunaga, A. T., Geballe, T. R., & Baas, F. 1991, *ApJ*, 381, 181
 van Dishoeck, E. F., Blake, G. A., Draine, B. T., & Lunine, J. I. 1993, in *Protostars and Planets III*, ed. E. H. Levy & J. I. Lunine (Tucson: Univ. Arizona Press), 163
 van Dishoeck, E. F., et al. 1996, *A&A*, 315, L349
 Whittet, D. C. B., et al. 1996, *A&A*, 315, L357
 ———. 1998, *ApJ*, 498, L159
 Willner, S. P., et al. 1982, *ApJ*, 253, 174