High-Resolution Submillimetre/Millimetre Interferometry of the Orion-KL Region

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Abstract. We review the structure of the Orion-KL region, an active site of high-mass star formation embedded in OMC-1, as derived from high-resolution submillimetre and millimetre observations. We discuss the different components of the OMC-1 cloud core and their relation to the energy sources in this region. We also present the results of line observations in transitions of the CH₃CN and C³⁴S molecules carried out with the Plateau de Bure interferometer.

1. Introduction

The region of the Kleinmann-Low infrared nebula (henceforth Orion-KL; Kleinmann & Low 1967) in the Orion molecular cloud 1 (OMC-1) behind the Orion Nebula is a "holy grail" in the study of star formation since it is the nearest location where highmass stars are presently being formed (Genzel & Stutzki 1989). Nevertheless, despite its relatively small distance of $\sim 500\,\mathrm{pc}$, one needs observations with high angular resolution to gain an insight into the massive stellar birth process comparable to that which we have for the three times closer regions of low-mass star formation such as Taurus-Auriga and Chamaeleon. This is even more the case when we consider the relatively complicated structure of the inner cloud core of OMC-1. High angular resolution millimetre interferometer and infrared studies of this region started some ten years ago, and it the goal of this chapter to give a general overview of the results obtained by these observations. Furthermore, we will discuss data from the Plateau de Bure interferometer in the CH₃CN J=5–4 and C³⁴S J=2–1 transitions which very nicely demonstrate the potential of molecular line interferometry.

2. Structure of Orion-KL: High-Resolution Data

2.1. The sources of luminosity

High angular resolution infrared images of Orion-KL have been made in the wavelength range $2-30 \mu m$ by Rieke, Low, & Kleinmann (1973), Downes *et al.* (1981), Grasdalen,

Gehrz, & Hackwell (1981), Lonsdale et al. 1982; Lee et al. (1983), Wynn-Williams et al. (1984), Gezari (1992), and Gezari, Backman, & Werner (1998) (see also the chapter by Deutsch et al.), and altogether more than ten individual infrared objects were found to be located in an area of 20×20 arcsec. Several lines of evidence point to the fact that many of these infrared sources are not self-luminous, but that they may only represent reprocessed radiation leaking out through the inhomogeneous cloud material surrounding the main energy source(s) or just light scattered off dense clumps (Downes et al. 1981; Minchin et al. 1991; Dougados et al. 1993). Through mid-infrared mapping (Downes et al. 1981; Wynn-Williams et al. 1984; Dougados et al. 1993) and additional polarization measurements (Werner, Capps, & Dinerstein 1983; Wynn-Williams et al. 1984; Minchin et al. 1991) of the Orion-KL region, the main energy source of the region turned out to be one or more deeply embedded objects close to or associated with IRc2. This powerful source (or sources) must play a central role for the thermal and dynamical structure of the whole region.

The total observed luminosity from the region is on the order of $10^5 L_{\odot}$ (Werner et al. 1976; Genzel et al. 1982; Drapatz et al. 1983; Jaffe et al. 1984; Chelli, Perrier, & Léna 1984; Wynn-Williams et al. 1984; Thronson et al. 1986) and the region is seen to be the source of a high-velocity outflow observed in SiO and H₂ (Beckwith et al. 1978; Wright et al. 1983; Allen & Burton 1993; Sugai et al. 1994). Downes et al. (1981) suggested that a single source, IRc2, produces most of the luminosity and drives the outflow, but later high-resolution near-infrared observations by Dougados et al. (1993) showed that IRc2 was not a discrete source, but at the subarcsecond level breaks up into four subcondensations named IRc2-A, B, C, and D. Similar high angular resolution observations at infrared, millimetre, and radio wavelengths have shown the region to be considerably more complicated than previously expected.

One particular problem is that many of the near- and mid-infrared sources many not be self-luminous, but rather are clumps of dust illuminated by embedded or nearby sources. One way of ascertaining which are the true sources of luminosity is to search for compact radio continuum sources, as signposts of ultracompact H II regions and thus deeply embedded massive stars: this has been done by several groups for the Orion-KL region (*e.g.*, Garay, Moran, & Reid 1987; Churchwell *et al.* 1987; Felli *et al.* 1993; Menten & Reid 1995; see also the chapter by Felli & Churchwell). The most prominent compact radio sources are B, I, and L¹, and these are presently felt to be the main luminosity sources in the region.

Radio source B is the Becklin-Neugebauer (BN) object, the brightest source in the region at near-infrared wavelengths (Becklin & Neugebauer 1967; Foy et al. 1979; Scoville et al. 1983). Although the BN object originally attracted significant attention because it was thought to be a massive protostar, more recent interpretations have shifted towards it being a deeply embedded B-type star with a luminosity of $\sim 2500\,L_\odot$ coming from the core source and a total of $\sim 10000\,L_\odot$ when the surrounding diffuse plateau of emission is also included (Gezari et al. 1998; Henning 1990).

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¹In general, sources in the Orion-KL region with capital letter identifiers such as B, I, and L are radio continuum sources following the nomenclature of Garay *et al.* (1987) and Churchwell *et al.* (1987), while lowercase identifiers such as g, n, and t refer to near-infrared sources in the region catalogued by Lonsdale *et al.* (1982). As noted by Menten & Reid (1985) however, the letter L was independently assigned to two separate radio sources by Garay (1987) and Gezari (1992): in this chapter, we follow Gezari (1992) in using L to refer to the radio source coincident with the near-infrared source n.

Radio source I is close to IRc2 and invisible at infrared wavelengths. Based on his mid-infrared imaging, Gezari (1992) reported an offset of \sim 0.8 arcsec between source I and the nominal IRc2 position, while Menten & Reid (1995) found an offset of \sim 0.5 arcsec between source I and IRc2-A of Dougados *et al.* (1993). It seems likely that the position of the radio source coincides with the actual location of the embedded object, and that the infrared source IRc2-A is simply scattered light, an interpretation which would be in agreement with the high degree of polarization measured at that position.

Several authors (Baud et al. 1980; Wright & Plambeck 1983; Wright et al. 1990) reported the detection of a powerful SiO maser at a position close to IRc2 and coincident with a 'shell' of H₂O masers (Moran et al. 1977). SiO masers are generally associated with late-type stars, and are only very rarely found in star-forming regions, where their presence is taken as evidence for a high-luminosity source with $> 10^4 \, \rm L_{\odot}$. Based on the SiO maser spectrum, Wright et al. (1990, 1995) proposed that the maser emission originates in a rotating and expanding 80–1000 AU diameter ring. Subsequent VLA observations by Menten & Reid (1995) and BIMA observations by Wright et al. (1995) resolved the velocity components of the SiO maser emission, and both teams concluded that the distribution could in general be reproduced by the model of a maser ring developed by Barvainis (1984) and Plambeck, Wright, & Carlstrom (1990). More recent very high spatial resolution VLBA studies (Greenhill et al. 1998; Doeleman, Lonsdale, & Pelkey 1999) have resulted in a quite different hypothesis, in which the SiO masers are formed in shocks and overdense clumps in a NW-SE bipolar outflow oriented quite close to the line-of-sight. The coincident shell of H_2O masers, seen covering an elongated 2×0.5 arcsec region oriented NE-SW (Gaume et al. 1998), then traces either another part of the same flow (Doeleman et al. 1999) or a second flow (Greenhill et al. 1998).

In the context of the present discussion, the most important point about the SiO and H_20 maser clusters is that both are closely coincident with the position of the radio continuum source I, and thus not with any of the near-infrared components of IRc2 (Menten & Reid 1995; Gaume *et al.* 1998). This finding effectively relegates IRc2 to the status of an 'also ran' source, with the most recent estimate of its luminosity being only $\sim 1000\,L_\odot$ (Gezari *et al.* 1998). Source I, on the other hand, must be a major source of luminosity: although no direct estimate can be made as it is not detected at near- or mid-infrared wavelengths, the central star must have > a few thousand L_\odot in order to power an H II region, and the SiO masers point to something even more luminous.

Finally, the role played by radio continuum source L plays remains open. It lies \sim 3 arcsec southwest of IRc2-A (Genzel *et al.* 1982; Hermsen, Wilson, & Bieging 1988; Migenes *et al.* 1989; Gezari 1992; Menten & Reid 1995; Gezari *et al.* 1998), and has a peculiar double-lobed structure (Menten & Reid 1995). It has a bright near-infrared counterpart, source n (Lonsdale *et al.* 1982; Wynn-Williams *et al.* 1984; Dougados *et al.* 1993), although it is nothing like as red as the IRc2 sub-components, and Lonsdale *et al.* (1982) classified it simply s a reddened star. Nevertheless, the double-lobed and variable radio continuum emission from source L (Menten & Reid 1995) marks it out as another self-luminous energetic source and indeed, it is located right at the centre of the dominant low-velocity H_2O maser outflow (Genzel *et al.* 1981), and thus is a plausible candidate for the driving source of the broader outflows seen in the region.

2.2. Molecular clumps and cores

The molecular cloud core of OMC-1 has been the subject of many radio continuum and line studies. A list of high-resolution studies in different line transitions using several

| Authors | Array | Maps | Beam size | | |
|--|-----------|--|---------------------------|--|--|
| Blake <i>et al.</i> (1996) | OVRO | 218 GHz cont., SiO <i>‡</i> 5–4, HC ₃ N, | 2"×1.5", | | |
| | | HCOOCH ₃ , C ₂ H ₅ CN, HNCO, HDO | $1.5'' \times 1''$ | | |
| Chandler & DePree (1995) | VLA | $SiO \neq 1-0, v = 0$ | 2.13 "×1.83" | | |
| Chernin & Wright (1996) | BIMA | CO #1-0 | 3.2 "×2.6" | | |
| Doeleman <i>et al.</i> (1999) | VLBA | SiO ± 1 –0, $v = 1$ maser | 0.39 "×0.175" | | |
| Gaume <i>et al.</i> (1998) | VLA | $H_2O \neq 6_{16} - 5_{23}$ maser | $0.1'' \times 0.09''$ | | |
| Genzel <i>et al.</i> (1982) | VLA | NH ₃ (3,2), (4,4), (4,2) | 2.7" | | |
| Genzel <i>et al.</i> (1981) | VLBI | 22 GHz H ₂ O maser | few milliarcsec | | |
| Hermsen <i>et al.</i> (1988) | VLA | NH ₃ (4,3) | 1.88"×1.86" | | |
| Mangum <i>et al.</i> (1993) | VLA | $H_2CO \neq 1$ $_{10}-1_{11}$ | 5.9"×4.4" | | |
| Massan at al. (1005) | BIMA | $H_2CO \neq 5_{14}-5_{15}$ 112.6, 112.9 GHz cont. | 7.9"×7.4" | | |
| Masson <i>et al.</i> (1985) | MWI | 112.6, 112.9 GHZ CORT. | 5.8"×8.7", 6.5"×12.4" | | |
| M (1007) | N // SS/T | CO. ¹³CO <i>‡</i> 1−0 | | | |
| Masson <i>et al.</i> (1987) | MWI | CO, "CO #1=0 | 5.8 "×8.7", 6.5"×12.4" | | |
| Masson & Mundy (1988) | OVRO | HC ₃ N <i>≵</i> 12–11 | 0.5° × 12.4° | | |
| Menten & Reid (1995) | VLA | SiO $\pm 1-0$, $v = 1$, maser, | 0.25 ", 0.22" | | |
| Wellell & Reid (1993) | VLA | 43.1, 8.4 GHz cont. | 0.23 , 0.22 | | |
| Migenes <i>et al.</i> (1989) | VLA | NH ₃ (3,2) | 1.24"×1.2" | | |
| Minh <i>et al.</i> (1993) | NMA | 88 GHz cont., | $5.2'' \times 4.2''$ | | |
| Willin et al. (1993) | 1 11/1/1 | CH ₃ OH ≠15 ₃ –14 ₄ A ⁻ , | J.2 AT.2 | | |
| | | $(CH_3)_2O \neq 15$ $_{2,13}-15_{1,14}$, | | | |
| | | HCOOCH ₃ #7 _{1,6} -6 _{1,5} E,A | | | |
| Mundy et al. (1986) | OVRO | 95 GHz cont., CS $\pm 2-1$ | 7.5 " | | |
| Murata & Hasegawa (1990) | NMA | NH ₃ (1,1), (2,2) | 6"×10" | | |
| Murata <i>et al.</i> (1991) | NMA | 95 GHz cont., CS $\neq 1-0$, 2-1 | 6 "×8", | | |
| | | ,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,, | 2"×3" | | |
| Pauls et al. (1983) | VLA | $NH_3(3,3)$ | $2.2'' \times 1.6''$ | | |
| Plambeck et al. (1982) | HC | 86 GHz cont., SO $\pm 2_{2}-1_{1}$ | $6'' \times 6''$ | | |
| Plambeck <i>et al.</i> (1995) | BIMA | 86 GHz cont. | $1'' \times 0.38''$ | | |
| | | | $1.67'' \times 0.76''$ | | |
| Plambeck et al. (1990) | HC | SiO $\neq 2-1$, $v = 1$, maser | 2.6 "×1.5" | | |
| Plambeck & Wright (1987) | HC | HDO <i>‡</i> 1 ₁₀ −1 ₁₁ | $3.5'' \times 3.3''$ | | |
| Rao et al. (1998) | BIMA | 1.3, 3.3 mm continuum polarization | $4.4'' \times 2.4''$ | | |
| | | | 6.8"×2.8" | | |
| Schilke et al. (1992) | PdB | 86 GHz cont., HC ¹⁵ N <i>≢</i> 1–0 | 5.3 "×4.5" | | |
| Wilner et al. (1994) | HC | CH ₃ CN <i></i> ≠ 5–4 | 6.5 "×5.5", | | |
| H. 1 (1006) | T 77 A | NH (10.0) | $4.1'' \times 3.5''$ | | |
| Wilson <i>et al.</i> (1996) | VLA | NH ₃ (10,9) | 1.77/ 0.07/ | | |
| Wright <i>et al.</i> (1996) | BIMA | 86 GHz cont., H ₂ CO, DCN, HDO, | $1.7'' \times 0.8'' -$ | | |
| | | CH ₃ CH ₂ CN, HC ₃ N, SO ₂ , SO, | $7.3'' \times 5.1''$ | | |
| | | OCS, ²⁹ SiO, SiO, H ¹³ CN, HCN, HCO ⁺ , | | | |
| Whight of al. (1005) | DIMA | CH ₃ CN, CH ₃ OH, CO, NH ₂ D | 17 // 0 7// | | |
| Wright et al. (1995) | BIMA | SiO $\pm 2-1$, $v = 0,1$ | 1.7 "×0.7" | | |
| Wright <i>et al.</i> (1990) Wright & Vogel (1985) | HC HC | SiO ± 2 –1, v = 1, maser 86–89 GHz cont. | 2.4 "×1.5" 4.4"×2.4" | | |
| Wright & vogel (1985) Wright <i>et al.</i> (1992) | HC HC | 80–89 GHz cont. 82–95 GHz cont. | $6.9'' \times 5.1''$ | | |
| | нс НС | SiO $\pm 2-1$, $v=0$ | 2 "×2" | | |
| Wright <i>et al.</i> (1983) | | | | | |

Key: PdB: Plateau de Bure interferometer; BIMA: Berkeley-Illinois-Maryland-Association Array; MWI: Caltech Millimeter-Wave Interferometer; HC: Hat Creek interferometer; NMA: Nobeyama Millimetre Array; OVRO: Owens Valley Millimeter-Wave Interferometer; VLA: Very Large Array; VLBI: Very Long Baseline Interferometry; VLBA: Very Long Baseline Array

Table 1. High-resolution submm/mm interferometer maps of Orion-KL.

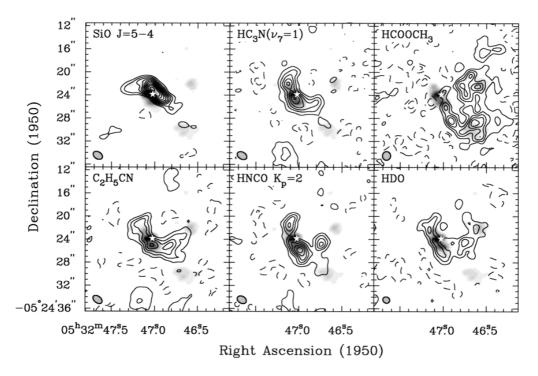


Figure 1. The Orion-KL region seen in different molecular transitions and in continuum at 218 GHz. In each panel, the grayscale presents the uniform-weighted dust continuum emission at 1.5×1.0 arcsec resolution. The contours depict the uniform-weighted maps obtained for selected molecules, noted in the upper left hand corner of each panel. Contour levels for the HCOOCH₃ $J=20_{417}-19_{416}$ A transition are spaced by 0.6 Jy beam⁻¹ (6 K); for SiO J=5-4 at 0.5 Jy beam⁻¹ (8 K); for HDO $J=2_{11}-2_{12}$ and HNCO $J=10_{29}-9_{28}$ at 0.4 Jy beam⁻¹ (4 and 7 K); and for HC₃N ($v_7=1$) J=24-23 (1 f) and C₂H₅CN $J=24_{222}-23_{221}$ at 0.3 Jy beam⁻¹ (5 K); contouring begins at the step level in each case. The white star marks the position of radio source I and the SiO($\not\equiv$ 1) maser ring. After Blake *et al.* (1996).

interferometers over the past decade has been compiled in Table 1. An important result of these studies that they show the cloud core of OMC-1 to consist of a number of clumps, each smaller than 2 arcsec, and referring to the results of Wright, Plambeck, & Wilner (1996) and Blake *et al.* (1996), the densest and 'hottest' region (the so-called hot core) appears as a chain of dense clumps, especially in nitrogen-rich components and in the continuum. A selection of the millimetre maps of Orion-KL in different molecular transitions and the dust continuum are shown in Figure 1.

Most of the line studies show that the radio source I is located at the western periphery of the hot core, whereas the infrared source n appears to be centred in the molecular cloud core. Only the SiO measurements by Chandler & DePree (1995) and Wright *et al.* (1996) imply a small elongated structure roughly centred at source I, with a position angle of 50–65°. This small-scale structure is also present in the continuum observations of Plambeck *et al.* (1995). Blake *et al.* (1996) proposed that source I lies behind the dense clumps of the hot core and interacts with them via energetic radiation and a wind from

outside. We should stress that Plambeck *et al.* (1995) found no evidence for protostellar condensations within the core itself in an analysis of their high-resolution continuum measurements.

Following a number of earlier molecular line studies, the inner cloud region of Orion-KL is generally separated in different molecular gas components. For the convenience of the reader, we summarize these components in Table 2, although we should stress that the general appearance of Orion-KL depends on the molecular transition observed and the spatial resolution of the measurements (see, *e.g.*, Figure 1). In fact, many of the structures split up in individual clumps when observed with higher resolution, and to clarify whether or not such clumps are real density enhancements or just temperature peaks always requires a detailed radiative transfer and abundance analysis.

2.3. Molecular outflows

The nature of the different molecular outflow systems in Orion-KL was extensively discussed in the review by Genzel & Stutzki (1989), and here we will only summarize the main properties of the outflows and add the results of a few more recent studies. Broadly, the dynamically-active gas can be separated into the 'low-velocity' (18 km s⁻¹ or "expanding doughnut") flow, the 'high-velocity' flow ($\Delta v \le 250 \,\mathrm{km \, s^{-1}}$), and the 'high-velocity shock-excited gas' seen in high-velocity H₂O masers and infrared and submillimetre cooling lines.

The low-velocity flow is mainly seen in observations using molecules with higher dipole moments, e.g., SiO (Wright et al. 1983) and SO (Plambeck et al. 1982), and it can also be identified by the low-velocity H_2O masers (Genzel et al. 1981). This flow is orientated in a northeast-southwest direction and forms a kind of expanding gas shell or torus (the 'expanding doughnut') around source I. The line emission covers a full velocity range of $\Delta v_{\rm full} \approx 35\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$. Many facts support a model of a spherically-symmetric outflow with the initially freely-streaming gas plunging into the dense ridge gas.

The high-velocity outflow is located approximately perpendicular to the expanding gas shell in the southeast-northwest direction. Studies in CO by Erickson *et al.* (1982), Masson *et al.* (1987), Schulz *et al.* (1995), and Chernin & Wright (1996), and in HCO⁺ by Vogel *et al.* (1984), as well as in H₂ by Beckwith *et al.* (1978), Scoville *et al.* (1982), Allen & Burton (1993), Sugai *et al.* (1994), and Chrysostomou *et al.* (1997) show that the flow seems to be poorly collimated (see also the chapter by Burton & Stone). The SiO measurements by Wright *et al.* (1983, 1995, 1996) trace the outflow to within a few arcseconds of source I. In general, this flow is seen in millimetre maps with beams ≥ 3 arcsec, and therefore Wright *et al.* (1996) concluded that the flow originates primarily from the more extended gas and is not produced by narrow jets. That having been said, the associated shocked H₂ emission appears very clumpy on scales less than 1 arcsec (Stolovy *et al.* 1998; Schultz *et al.* 1999; see also the chapter by Burton and Stone).

3. Plateau de Bure interferometer observations

In the following sections, we will concentrate on results from observations we have made with the Plateau de Bure submillimetre/millimetre interferometer, the properties of which are comprehensively described by Guilloteau *et al.* (1992).

We made observations in the CH₃CN J=5–4, K=0,1,2,3,4 and C³⁴S J=2–1 lines, the 86–99 GHz continuum, and the SO J=2₂–1₁ line (Schreyer 1997; Schreyer *et al.* in

| Component | Velocity range and remarks |
|----------------|---|
| Hot core | $2 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le 7{\rm kms^{-1}}$ Position of the peak emission in different molecular lines in OMC-1, 3–4 arcsec southeast of IRc2 (Migenes <i>et al.</i> 1989) and 1–2 arcsec east of source I (Plambeck <i>et al.</i> 1995); densest and hottest cloud clump in OMC-1 with gas and dust temperatures of 150–300 K, densities of $10^7-10^8{\rm cm^{-3}}$, a column density of N(H ₂) $\ge 10^{24}{\rm cm^{-2}}$, and a mass of $\sim 10{\rm M_{\odot}}$ (Genzel & Stutzki 1989); fully hydrogenated species and nitrogen-rich compounds are abundant (Blake <i>et al.</i> 1987; Sutton <i>et al.</i> 1995) |
| Compact ridge | $7 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le 9 {\rm km s^{-1}}$ (Johansson <i>et al.</i> 1984) Position ~ 8 arcsec southwest of IRc2 (Plambeck & Wright 1987), centred on IRc4/5; region with quiescent gas with temperatures between 100–150 K (Genzel & Stutzki 1989); different chemistry compared to hot core: high abundance of complex oxygen-rich molecules (Blake <i>et al.</i> 1987) |
| Spike | $v_{\rm lsr} = 8.5 {\rm km s^{-1}}$, $\Delta v = 3 {\rm km s^{-1}}$ (Migenes <i>et al.</i> 1989) Defined in single-dish measurements: gas of the compact and extended ridge which arises from a small region compared to the beam (Barrett, Ho, & Myers 1977; Wilson, Downes, & Beiging 1979; Morris, Palmer, & Zuckerman 1980; Zuckerman, Morris, & Palmer 1981; Ziurys <i>et al.</i> 1981) |
| Extended ridge | $8 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le 12 {\rm km s^{-1}}$ Extended gas > 40 arcsec along the position angle of 30° (Genzel & Stutzki 1989; Sutton <i>et al.</i> 1995) with embedded clumps, <i>e.g.</i> , CS1, a clump 24 arcsec northeast of IRc2 (Mundy <i>et al.</i> 1986; Wright <i>et al.</i> 1992); characterized by fairly simple carbon-rich species (Blake <i>et al.</i> 1987) |
| Plateau | Line centre at $7 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le 11 \rm km s^{-1}$, $\Delta v = 3-30 \rm km s^{-1}$, $\Delta v_{\rm full} = 100-200 \rm km s^{-1}$ Consists of material in a high-velocity outflow originating from the vicinity of IRc2; shock chemistry, abundance of SO, SO ₂ , and |
| Western clump | CO is enhanced (Sutton <i>et al.</i> 1995; Wright <i>et al.</i> 1996) $8 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le 14 \rm km s^{-1}$ Compact cloud clump 6 arcsec west of IRc2 with 2–3 $\rm M_{\odot}$ (<i>e.g.</i> , Pauls <i>et al.</i> 1983; Masson & Mundy 1988; Migenes <i>et al.</i> 1989; Wright <i>et al.</i> 1992, 1996) |

Table 2. Molecular components of the Orion-KL region

preparation). Here, we will only discuss the CH₃CN J=5–4 and C³⁴S J=2–1 results, which were obtained by observations using three 15-m antennae between November 1991 and January 1992 using five different configurations for C³⁴S and six for CH₃CN. In the case of the C³⁴S measurements, additional observations were made with a more compact configuration of the array in February 1993. The phase reference centre of the measurements is RA = 05^h 32^m 46.9^s, declination = -05° 24′ 26.0″ (B1950.0).

For the line observations, 128 channels of the spectral correlator were used in one band. The $C^{34}S$ J=2-1 line was centred at $v_{lsr}=9\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-1}}$ in the LSB and the CH₃CN J=5-4 K=3 transition was placed at $v_{lsr}=9\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-1}}$ in the USB. Since we intended to measure all fine-structure lines K=0,1,2,3,4 of the CH₃CN J=5-4 transition in a single band simultaneously, a somewhat lower velocity resolution of $1.02\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-1}}$ (312.5 kHz) was used for CH₃CN than for $C^{34}S$, where the highest velocity resolution of $0.24\,\mathrm{km\,s^{-1}}$ (78.1 kHz) was used.

In each period, the band pass and phase calibration was performed observing the quasar 3C84. An additional calibration of the phase and the amplitude was done by observing the quasar 0458-020 every 20 minutes. For the final phase calibration and data reduction, we used CLIC (Lucas 1992) and GRAPHIC (Guilloteau & Forveille 1992) in the Grenoble Software environment GAG. Zero-spacing information obtained with the IRAM 30 m telescope have been added to the $C^{34}S$ visibility data, contributing ~ 50 –90% to the total flux in the velocity range 7–11 km s⁻¹. The comparison between the CH₃CN interferometer data with IRAM 30 m data shows that, in this case, the missing flux is below the calibration errors and thus no zero-spacing information was included.

Finally, maps with 256×256 pixels with a 0.5 arcsec pixel size were produced by Fourier-transforming the calibrated visibilities, using natural weighting. The synthesized beam sizes (HPBW) are 4.7×1.8 arcsec for CH₃CN and 4.3×1.7 arcsec for C³⁴S with a position angle of 16° .

3.1. Morphology in CH₃CN and C³⁴S

In agreement with earlier line studies (*e.g.*, Migenes *et al.* 1989; Murata *et al.* 1991; Wright *et al.* 1996; see Table 1), Figure 2 shows that the clump structure seen in CH₃CN and C³⁴S is similar to that found in NH₃, H¹³CN, SO, and CS. The hot core (clump \mathcal{A} in Figure 2) is obviously the most intense emission region in both line transitions. The CH₃CN maps show this region to have a 'bean-like' structure, with source I located at the western periphery. The CH₃CN emission peaks at an offset of 1.5 arcsec east of source I, while the C³⁴S map shows a slightly smaller offset of only 0.5 arcsec between source I and the long axis of the hot core clump. The C³⁴S emission in fact peaks close to the near-infrared source n (radio source L) at v_{lsr} =6.2 km s⁻¹.

Source I was proposed by Blake *et al.* (1996) to lie behind the hot core, and to examine this hypothesis, we have analysed our high-spectral resolution $C^{34}S$ measurements. The emission at the position of source I peaks in intensity at a velocity of $v_{lsr}=5.4 \, \mathrm{km \ s^{-1}}$, nearly identical to the central velocity of the SiO maser emission determined by Menten & Reid (1995), and thus this emission is probably associated with source I itself. At the position of hot core, however, the peak $C^{34}S$ emission is seen at a somewhat lower velocity of $v_{lsr}=4.9 \, \mathrm{km \ s^{-1}}$, and if these different velocities are interpreted in terms of a spatial displacement, they would the support the suggestion of Blake *et al.* (1996).

Further distinct gas clumps are seen in Figure 2. Clump \mathcal{C} is clearly seen in the transitions of both molecules, and is associated with the infrared source IRc6, located 6.5 arcsec northwest of IRc2. The emission at this clump peaks at $v_{\rm lsr}({\rm CH_3CN})=9.5~{\rm km~s^{-1}}$

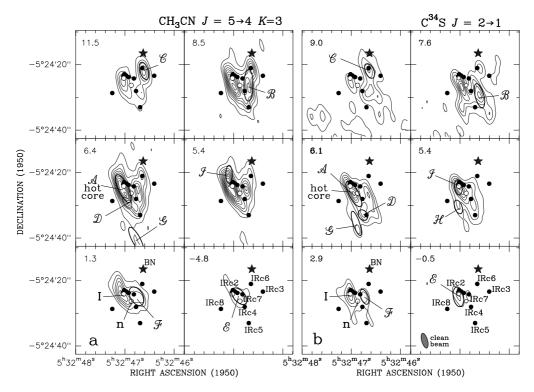


Figure 2. Six channel maps for each of CH₃CN J=5–4 (left panels) and C³⁴S J=2–1 (right panels). The central velocities are given in the top left corner of each panel. Our designations for the clumps range from \mathcal{A} to \mathcal{I} . The positions of the infrared sources IRc2–IRc8 and of the BN object (Dougados *et al.* 1993) are indicated by black dots and a star respectively. The radio source I and near-infrared source n are marked with open circles. Dashed ellipses show the half widths of the Gaussian-shaped clumps (beam-convolved).

and $v_{\rm lsr}({\rm C^{34}S})$ =9.0 km s⁻¹, quite different from that of the hot core. Clump ${\cal B}$ is also seen in the channel maps of both molecules, and is located at the western side of source I with an emission peak at $v_{\rm lsr} \sim 7.5$ km s⁻¹. There is quite some confusion regarding the nomenclature used for these clumps. The 'IRc6 clump' (here ${\cal C}$; also clump #10 of Migenes ${\it et\,al.}$ 1989) was described as the 'western clump' by Masson & Mundy (1988), while the term 'western clump' was used by Hermsen ${\it et\,al.}$ (1988) and Pauls ${\it et\,al.}$ (1983; their clump A) to refer to the clump labelled as ${\cal B}$ here (also clump #8 of Migenes ${\it et\,al.}$ 1989). However, it is clear that these are distinct clumps, well separated in space and velocity. In contrast to the clumps of hot core and clump ${\cal C}$ associated with IRc6, where the spatial location of the clumps is roughly identical in both molecules, clump ${\cal B}$ seems to be shifted slightly southwards in ${\rm C^{34}S}$ with respect to its CH₃CN position, and it is quite possible that this gas clump belongs to the compact ridge region rather than being a true independent clump.

As discussed in Section 2, radio source I appears to play perhaps the central role in the region. With that in mind, an important result of our study is that the CH₃CN spectra show their *broadest* lines not at source I, but rather at the position of infrared source n, despite the *strongest* CH₃CN emission being found close to source I. In ad-

dition, the whole region around source n, IRc4, and IRc7 shows two clearly separated velocity components with broad line wings.

In contrast, the $C^{34}S$ spectra contain many narrow velocity components implying the existence of many small and dense cloud clumps, embedded in the more extended clump envelopes detected in CH₃CN. These small clumps have linewidths of the order of the thermal linewidth, assuming kinetic temperatures of 50–200 K. A comparison of the $C^{34}S$ spectra with those of the CH₃CN K=3 line shows an absence of redshifted $C^{34}S$ emission in the spectra around the region of IRc5, associated with the compact ridge. It thus appears that the two molecular transitions are tracing rather different gas. Determinations of the optical depths in the two lines using excitation calculations (Schreyer 1997; Schreyer *et al.*, in preparation) suggest that the optical depth for the gas observed in CH₃CN is $\gg 1$, while lower values of ≈ 0.3 are obtained for $C^{34}S$, allowing a 'deeper' look through the envelopes surrounding the clumps.

In order to derive the brightness temperature, virial mass, and volume-averaged density of each clump, we have performed a statistical analysis following the procedure given by Stutzki & Güsten (1990). This procedure decomposes a 3-dimensional intensity distribution (S_{ν} versus right ascension, declination, and velocity) into individual Gaussian-shaped clumps which are convolved with the clean beam. In the next step, the Gaussian profiles are deconvolved in order to obtain the 'real' values of the different quantities for the clumps. We applied this procedure for all K lines of CH₃CN J=5–4 and for $C^{34}S$ J=2–1. As a check of the reliability of the results, we varied the input parameters for this analysis. The CH₃CN dataset (including all K lines) can be fit with approximately 100 Gaussian-shaped clumps, while the $C^{34}S$ intensity distribution can be reproduced with 30–40 clumps depending on the input parameters. We stress that all clumps with amplitudes $\geq 1\sigma$ above the noise were consistently found in several fit calculations. While the central coordinates remain roughly fixed as the parameters are varied, the size and amplitude in particular are seen to be variable for the weaker intensity clumps.

The parameters of the most prominent clumps found in CH₃CN and in C³⁴S are listed in Table 3, and the location and the sizes of these clumps are shown in the channel maps of Figure 2. Although the locations and sizes of these features are not exactly identical in the two lines, a uniform notation has been used for the clumps in both cases $(\mathcal{A},\mathcal{B}\mathcal{L},etc.)$. Based on the partial merging of the CH $_3$ CN $_4$ CO and $_4$ Cl lines in the spectra, the separation of clumps belonging to these lines is rather complicated, and the spatial and velocity extent of clumps found in the CH₃CN $_4$ C2 and 3 lines are similar due to their similar excitation conditions. Therefore, Table 3 shows only average quantities for these transitions². In addition, Table 3 lists the virial masses M_{vir} and the volume-averaged densities (n) for the various clumps, which were derived for Gaussian-shaped density distributions using the FWHM of the velocity (Mollowing the expression given by Stutzki & Güsten (1990):

$$\frac{GM_{\text{vir}}}{R}\sqrt{\frac{\ln 2}{2\pi}} = \frac{3\dot{\Delta}^2}{8\ln 2}\,,\tag{1}$$

²We note here again that the measurements by Blake *et al.* (1996) and Wright (1996) have demonstrated that the clumpy structure depends heavily on the observed molecular line transitions. Such differences are not only produced by different excitation conditions in the gas, but can also reflect distinct chemical processes occuring in the various cloud regions.

where G is the gravitational constant and Rs the half width of the geometrical mean of the beam-deconvolved major and minor axes. Due to its smallest hyperfine-splitting in the velocity range and a sufficient separation from other lines in the CH₃CN spectra, the RS line was used to determine M vir.

We also carried out statistical equilibrium excitation calculations, fitting the brightness temperatures $T_{\rm b}$ of the three most prominent clumps in order to determine their kinetic temperatures $T_{\rm kin}$, densities p and column densities p agree well with previous studies, while p and p and p and p and p are well with previous studies, while p and p and p and p are well with previous studies, while p and p and p and therefore the estimated p and p and p and therefore the estimated p and p and p and p and p and therefore the estimated p and p and p and p and p and p are p and p and p and p and p are p and p are p and p and p are p and p and p are p and p ar

3.2. Rotation around source I

To examine the velocity structure in the hot core/compact ridge region, we took a cut along the long axis of clump \mathcal{A} (hot core) to make position-velocity diagrams for both CH₃CN and C³⁴S. In particular, we wanted to see if the region the region breaks up into single clumps showing a chaotic motion as discussed by Migenes *et al.* (1989) and Plambeck *et al.* (1995), or if there is any evidence for systematic gas motion around hot core. The cut was made at a position angle of 15° at a distance of 0.3 arcsec from source I (see Figure 3b and d): the resulting position-velocity diagrams are shown in Figure 3a and c, where the intensity is plotted against the distance from source I.

The position-velocity maps for both molecules show a systematic velocity field within a radius of 3–4 arcsec around source I. Since they have four times better velocity resolution and a smaller optical depth, the C³⁴S measurements show more details than the CH₃CN measurements, but both maps show a clear suggestion of rotation of the gas around source I. This result is supported by the fact that the much smaller SiO maser ring proposed in the models of Barvainis (1984) and Plambeck *et al.* (1990) rotates in the same direction (although see Section 2.1. for an alternative model, in which the SiO masers arise in a bipolar outflow from Source I: Greenhill *et al.* 1998; Doeleman *et al.* 1999).

We compared the velocity field shown in Figures 3a and c with a simple model of Keplerian motion with the mass distribution introduced by Vogel *et al.* (1985). In the rotational equilibrium model, a central star and a cloud mass increasing linearly with radius are assumed. Following earlier models discussed by Vogel *et al.* (1985), Habing & Macdonald (1991), Murata *et al.* (1991), and Wilner, Wright, & Plambeck (1994), we used a central mass of 25 M_{\odot} in agreement with the mass of a main-sequence star with luminosity $10^5 L_{\odot}$ (Garmany, Conti, & Chiosi 1982) and a cloud radius of 10 arcsec adopted from the line measurements. For the gas mass, we took values between the limits found by the virial and dust mass estimates for clump \mathcal{A} (the hot core). The outer cloud radius was assumed to be 10 arcsec. Changing the cloud mass within the limits and varying the extent of the outer cloud (by 25%) had only a weak influence on the resulting rotation curve compared to that induced by varying the inclination angle.

| Clump (1) | x ₀ 5 ^h 32 ^m (2) | $y_0 - 5^{\circ}24'$ (3) | $\begin{bmatrix} v_{\rm lsr} \\ (4) \end{bmatrix}$ | $^{1/2}$ [km s ⁻¹] (5) | Å ₁ × Å ₂ ["×"] (6) | φ [°] (7) | FWHM ["] (8) | <i>d</i> 4 [km s ⁻¹] (9) | φ _v [°] (10) | $M_{ m vir}$ [M_{\odot}] (11) | $ \begin{array}{c} \langle n \rangle \times 10^8 \\ [\text{cm}^{-3}] \\ (12) \end{array} $ |
|---|---|--|--|---|---|---|--|---|--|--|--|
| | | | | СН | I ₃ CN (averaged o | over all Kines | s) | | | | |
| $egin{array}{c} \mathcal{A} \\ \mathcal{B} \\ \mathcal{C} \\ \mathcal{D} \end{array}$ | 47.033 ^s 46.700 ^s 46.613 ^s 46.953 ^s | 24.90" 26.30" 21.90" 29.20" | 5.8 8.1 11.7 8.4 | 6.3 5.2 6.4 2.3 | 8.1×2.4 8.6×1.6 2.9×1.7 (4.0×2.0) | 27.8 174.8 25.1 (86.9) | 4.17 3.45 3.17 2.20 | 0.256 0.482 1.110 0.340 | 152 91 -117 -46 | 70 40 38 ≤5 | 2.9 2.8 11.0 ≤1.0 |
| \mathcal{E} \mathcal{F} \mathcal{G} \mathcal{I} | 46.887 ^s 46.767 ^s 46.773 ^s 47.093 ^s | 24.80" 24.80" 40.50" 20.50" | -5.0 1.8 5.3 5.4 | 5.3 3.8 3.3 4.0 | 4.5×1.4 4.4×2.8 7.2×1.4 (5.5×2.0) | 64.9 55.1 32.5 (157.9) | 4.37 3.96 3.30 2.00 | 0.354 0.550 0.378 0.805 | -105 47 -130 98 | 29 21 15 ≤13 | 6.3 1.7 1.5 ≤5.7 |
| | | | | | C ³⁴ 5 | S | | | | | |
| A B C D E F G H I | 46.958° 46.614° 46.627° 46.764° 47.030° 46.736° 46.900° 47.035° 47.034° | 26.50" 29.45" 21.83" 33.00" 24.97" 24.94" 35.53" 30.52" 24.50" | 6.1 7.6 9.0 6.1 -0.5 2.9 8.0 5.4 8.0 | 4.1 3.3 2.5 1.7 2.2 3.5 1.6 1.3 0.8 | 7.5×2.1 6.3×2.2 2.5×1.4 (2.4×3.5) 4.6×2.4 2.3×1.7 6.5×1.1 2.9×1.0 2.6×1.1 | 31.2 11.1 66.9 (110.5) 5.9 36.6 20.1 36.0 156.8 | 3.82 3.71 3.27 2.83 3.81 3.06 2.78 2.75 3.05 | 0.339 0.362 0.129 0.324 0.369 0.188 0.186 0.323 0.037 | 26 60 -94 -108 2 -74 -16 -134 -120 | $\begin{array}{c} 28 \\ 17 \\ 4.8 \\ \leq 3.4 \\ 6.6 \\ 10 \\ 2.8 \\ 1.2 \\ 0.4 \end{array}$ | 1.5 1.1 2.5 ≤0.5 0.6 4.4 0.5 0.8 0.3 |

Table 3. Parameters of the most prominent clumps observed in CH_3CN and $C^{34}S$ in Orion-KL. (1) clump name; (2) RA (B1950); (3) declination (B1950); (4) lsr-velocity corresponding to £3; (5) clump velocity FWHM; (6) beam-deconvolved FWHM of the two principal spatial axes (convolved values are shown in parentheses if the clump is too small for deconvolution); (7) beam-deconvolved orientation angle (counter-clockwise from north; convolved values in parentheses); (8) geometrical mean of the beam-deconvolved major and minor axes; (9) clump internal velocity gradient; (10) direction of the internal velocity gradient (counter-clockwise from west); (11) virial mass; (12) volume-averaged density. Radio source I is at 47.085° , 23.936'', and the two radio components associated with infrared source n are at 46.929° , 25.927'' and 46.924° , 26.292'' (Menten & Reid 1995).

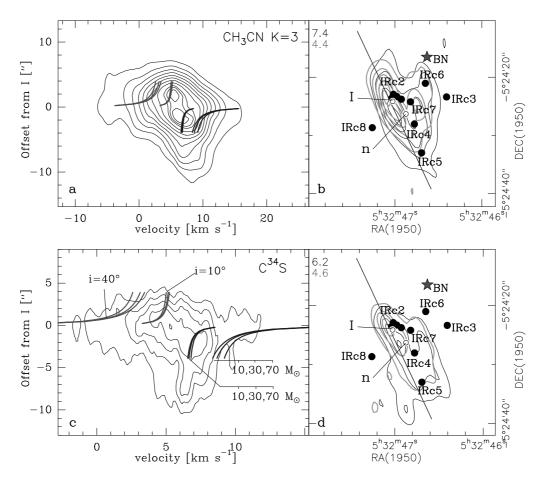


Figure 3. **a.** Position-velocity map through the long axis of clump \mathcal{A} (PA=15°) in CH₃CN $\mathcal{K}3$. Contours are at 0.5–4.5 K km s $^{-1}$ in 0.5 K km s $^{-1}$ steps, and then 4.7, 4.9, and 5.1 K km s $^{-1}$. The gas within ± 3 arcsec of source I shows a systematic velocity field modeled with Keplerian rotation curves $v=\mathcal{K}$ (thick lines) for cloud masses 10, 30, and 70 M $_{\odot}$ and inclination angles $i=10^{\circ}$ and 40° around a central star of $25\,\mathrm{M}_{\odot}$. **b.** CH₃CN channel maps at v_{lsr} =7.4 km s $^{-1}$ (black) and v_{lsr} =4.4 km s $^{-1}$ (grey). Contours are at 0.5–6 Jy beam $^{-1}$ in 1.0 Jy beam $^{-1}$ steps. The line indicates the cut of the position-velocity map. **c.** Position-velocity map for C³⁴S. Contours are at 0.5–2.5 K km s $^{-1}$ in 0.5 K km s $^{-1}$ steps. The rotation curves are the same as in **a. d.** C³⁴S channel maps at v_{lsr} =6.2 km s $^{-1}$ (black) and at v_{lsr} =4.6 km s $^{-1}$ (grey). Contours are at 0.35–4 Jy beam $^{-1}$ in 0.7 Jy beam $^{-1}$ steps.

The curves calculated for cloud masses of 10, 30, and $70\,\mathrm{M}_\odot$ and inclination angles of $i=10^\circ$ and 40° are plotted in Figures 3a and c as thick lines. The curves were centred at $v_\mathrm{lsr}=59\,\mathrm{km\,s}^{-1}$. Although an inclination angle on the order of 45° fits better in the much smaller maser ring models of Barvainis (1984) and Plambeck *et al.* (1990), we find that an inclination between $5-15^\circ$ fits the gas motion better in Figure 3, especially in the $C^{34}S$ data.

At the position of source I, the line emission shows the largest velocity dispersion, with $\Delta = 13 \,\mathrm{km\,s}^{-1}$ for $\mathrm{C^{34}S}$ and $\Delta = 22 \,\mathrm{km\,s}^{-1}$ for $\mathrm{CH_3CN}$, thus implying the highest rotation velocity near this central object. The velocity dispersion decreases with increasing distance from source I. This fact favours the possibility of a rotating gas motion inside a radius of $1350-1800 \,\mathrm{AU}$ (= 3–4 arcsec) around source I, on the order of twice the extent of the dust disks seen around low-mass stars in the Orion Trapezium Cluster with the Hubble Space Telescope (McCaughrean & O'Dell 1996; see also the chapter by McCaughrean).

Previous studies of the gas motion around the hot core were performed on larger scales than here (see, *e.g.*, Vogel *et al.* 1985; Habing & Macdonald 1991; Murata *et al.* 1991; Wilner *et al.* 1994), and these indicated a rotation of the northern gas condensation (known as CS1) and the compact ridge around a common centre, a finding supported by the clear difference in their central lsr-velocities. Most of these studies also made a Keplerian fit in their position-velocity diagrams, but the resulting rotation direction is in the opposite sense to that which we see in Figure 3, and to that which is derived from the SiO maser observations and included in the SiO ring models by Barvainis (1984) and Plambeck *et al.* (1990).

In contrast to the hypothesis that there is rotating gas in the hot core region, Plambeck *et al.* (1995) concluded from the clumpy structure of the hot core/compact ridge region (see, *e.g.*, the high-resolution data of Migenes *et al.* 1989) that there is no evidence for such organized gas motion. There are two ways of reconciling their conclusion with the data shown in Figure 3: first, the gas of the more extended envelope or single gas clumps may be coupled to the rotating gas disk around source I; second, the spatial resolution of our data may be too low to clearly separate rotating gas associated with source I and gas related to the hot core cloud clump.

Finally, high spatial resolution SiO measurements by Chandler & DePree (1995), Wright *et al.* (1995), and Blake *et al.* (1996) show a compact flattened gas/continuum structure around source I at a position angle of $\sim 50-60^{\circ}$ and with a clear offset from the centre of the hot core. To date, no other line study has shown position-velocity cuts comparable to ours, and evidence for a systematic gas motion has come from a shift of the emission peak in the SiO channel maps by Chandler & DePree (1995). Only future measurements at higher spatial resolution will be able to distinguish definitely between gas motion in the hot core and around source I, but in the meantime, the evidence does appear to point towards rotation of gas around source I.

3.3. The western clump: a new site of star formation?

In order to provide new insight into the known outflow systems in Orion-KL, we examined the distribution of the red- and blue-shifted emission in the broad line wings of CH₃CN, which traces low-velocity gas. Because the various Kines are partially merged, we selected the K3 line as showing the best separated line wings, and we re-

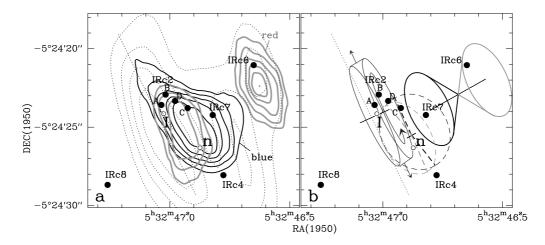


Figure 4. **a.** Overlay of the integrated intensities of the line wings of the CH₃CN $\cancel{K}3$ line in the velocity ranges $-63 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le -23\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$ (black lines) and $15 \le v_{\rm lsr} \le 20\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$ (thick grey thick lines). The dotted contour are the channel map of CH₃CN $\cancel{K}3$ at $v_{\rm lsr}=7.4\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$ and the dashed straight line shows the cut of the position-velocity map in Figure 3. **b.** Possible interpretation of the red- and blue-shifted line emission in the region around IRc2 with (1) an expanding and rotating gas disk/torus around source I; (2) a bipolar outflow centred between IRc6 and IRc7; and (3) another bipolar flow orientated along the line-of-sight and located near source n.

duced its blue-shifted wing emission in order to exclude velocity ranges covering contributions from the k2 red-shifted wing emission.

Figure 4a shows the integrated red- and blue-shifted line wing emission maps superimposed. Although any interpretation of the emission distribution is not without ambiguities, we have also examined the CH₃CN spectra in detail (Schreyer 1997; Schreyer *et al.*, in preparation), and propose that there are three outflow systems at work:

- (i) There appears to be a poorly-collimated outflow (with two broad bipolar lobes) originating from a position between IRc6 and IRc7, with a central velocity of $v_{\rm lsr}\approx 9\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$, and covering a velocity range of $E\approx 30\,{\rm km\,s^{-1}}$. In this picture, the infrared sources IRc6 and IRc7 would be explained as scattered light escaping through the bipolar outflow lobes. This flow is not the same as the known high-velocity flow described in Section 2.3., which spans a much larger velocity range and whose red- and blue-shifted emission regions are swapped with respect to the flow seen here.
- (ii) The red- and blue-shifted line emission roughly centred on source I traces the expanding gas shell/torus described in Section 2.3.. It is interesting to note that these emission regions lie mainly to the western side of the 'cut line' through centre of hot core, as does source I itself.
- (iii) There appears to be another bipolar outflow which originates near source n and is centred at a velocity $v_{\rm lsr} \approx 23$ km s $^{-1}$. The axis of the flow seems to be closer to the line-of-sight than that of the outflow centred on IRc6/IRc7 described above.

Figure 4b shows a model of the three flow systems. In order to resolve and to clarify the various gas flows, further line measurements with sub-arcsecond spatial resolution are necessary. We should note that apart from the broad CH₃CN lines in the regions of IRc6/IRc7, source I, and source n, much smaller line wings are also present in the region, *e.g.*, to the east of the hot core. We did not consider these data for the wing mapping presented here because of the complicated line profile structure, but we cannot exclude the possibility that other flow systems might be present, which may be found in both higher spatial and spectral resolution observations.

Can we now identify a stellar or protostellar driving source for the new outflow apparently originating from somewhere between the infrared sources IRc6 and IRc7? VLA radio continuum measurements (e.g., Garay et al. 1987; Felli et al. 1993; Menten & Reid 1995; see also the chapter by Felli & Churchwell) did not reveal any compact radio continuum source at this position, and millimetre continuum measurements with beam sizes ≥ 15 arcsec found only extended dust emission from near IRc6 (e.g., Wright et al. 1995; Blake et al. 1996). However, we note that in Section 3.1., we discussed the dense clump \mathcal{C} (see Table 3) near IRc6, which has a mass of 2–3 M_{\odot} , a large H_2 column density, and a high temperature of ≥ 110 K. These appear to be strong hints for ongoing low-mass star formation in this region.

4. Conclusions and Outlook

The main results of our Plateau de Bure observations can be summarized as follows:

- The C³⁴S spectra led to the detection of a large number of small and dense clumps with linewidths of the order of the thermal linewidth, while the CH₃CN measurements trace only the more extended cloud envelopes of the densest cloud cores.
- Looking at the broad line wings of the CH₃CN spectra, we conclude that the inner cavity surrounded by the denser clumps \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{B} , \mathcal{C} , and \mathcal{D} is filled by lower-density gas in a very turbulent state.
- Although the $C^{34}S$ spectra imply the existence of many small and dense cloud clumps, position-velocity cuts along the long axis of the hot core (clump \mathcal{A}) in CH₃CN and $C^{34}S$ show evidence for a systematic velocity fields whose pattern suggests rotation of the gas around source I.
- We found no emission related to the Orion-KL high-velocity outflow in either the CH₃CN or C³⁴S measurements, but maps in the broad CH₃CN line wings indicates at least two different low-velocity gas flows in the Orion-KL region, namely the rotating and expanding gas shell around source I and a poorly collimated bipolar outflow centred near the infrared source n.
- We have identified a new found bipolar outflow centred between IRc6 and IRc7, and the presence there of a small, warm, and dense cloud clump provide strong indications of on-going low-mass star formation in this region.

By integrating the various high-resolution infrared and millimetre data, we are approaching an unified model for the Orion-KL region, and such data are extremely important if we want to obtain a more detailed picture of high-mass star formation in this region. There is much evidence that source I is the main source of the large luminosity

emitted by the region, and we have presented evidence for gas rotating around source I. The presence of very young low-mass stars associated with the young high-mass stars has often been debated, but remains to be confirmed through observations. Higher angular resolution measurements of the mid- and far-infrared emission, as well as observations in higher molecular line transitions with very good spatial and spectral resolution are necessary in order to clarify the nature of the deeply embedded stellar source(s) and their relation to the ongoing outflow activities. In addition, the underlying reasons for chemical differentiation in the region need to be investigated. Another open question concerns the origin of the turbulent gas in the inner cavity of the Orion-KL region: possible sources of the turbulent motion include source I, source n, the impact of blue-shifted low-velocity outflow material driven by a source located close to IRc6, and a mixture of two or more of these. As the capabilities of existing interferometers are extended and as new instruments such as the VLTI, the SMA, and ALMA come into operation, we can anticipate significant further progress in our understanding of the Orion-KL region.

Acknowledgments. We are grateful to the organizers of the meeting for the opportunity to review the fascinating millimetre/submillimetre data on the Orion-KL region. We thank Rolf Güsten (MPI für Radioastronomie, Bonn) for initiating the PdB project and for a critical discussion of the paper. In addition, we thank Geoffrey Blake for permission to use his molecular line images in this paper. KS is supported by the "BMBF-Verbundforschungsprojekt Astronomie/Astrophysik" No. 053JN13A1.

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