Probing accretion of ambient cloud material into the Taurus B211/B213 filament

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ABSTRACT

Context. Herschel observations have emphasized the role of molecular filaments in star formation. However, the origin and evolution of these filaments are not yet well understood, partly because of the lack of kinematic information.
Aims. We confirm from a kinematic viewpoint that the Taurus B211/B213 filament is accreting background cloud material, and we investigate the potential influence of large-scale external effects on the formation of the filament.
Methods. To examine whether the B211/B213 filament is accreting background gas because of its gravitational potential, we produced a toy accretion model and compared its predictions to the velocity patterns observed in CO (1–0) and 13CO (1–0). We also examined the spatial distributions of the Hα, Planck 857 GHz dust continuum, and HI emission to search for evidence of large-scale external effects.
Results. We estimate that the depth of the Taurus cloud around the B211/B213 filament is ~0.3–0.7 pc under the assumption that the density of the gas is the same as the critical density of 12CO (1−0). Compared to a linear extent of >10 pc in the plane of the sky, this suggests that the 3D morphology of the cloud surrounding the B211/B213 filament is sheet-like. Position–velocity (PV) diagrams observed in 12CO (1–0) and 13CO (1–0) perpendicular to the filament axis show that the emission from the gas surrounding B211/B213 is redshifted to the northeast of the filament and blueshifted to the southwest, and that the velocities of both components approach the velocity of the B211/B213 filament as the line of sight approaches the crest of the filament. The PV diagrams predicted by our accretion model are in good agreement with the observed 12CO (1–0) and 13CO (1–0) PV diagrams, supporting the previously proposed scenario of mass accretion into the filament. Moreover, inspection of the spatial distribution of the Hα and Planck 857 GHz emission in the Taurus–California–Perseus region on scales up to >200 pc suggests that the B211/B213 filament may have formed as a result of an expanding supershell generated by the Per OB2 association.
Conclusions. Based on these results, we propose a scenario in which the B211/B213 filament was initially formed by large-scale compression of HI gas and is now growing in mass by gravitationally accreting molecular gas of the ambient cloud.

Key words. ISM: clouds – ISM: kinematics and dynamics

1. Introduction

The observations of the Herschel Gould Belt survey (HGBS) have revealed that parsec-scale filaments are ubiquitous in molecular clouds and emphasized their importance for solar-type star formation (e.g., André et al. 2010; Men’shchikov et al. 2010; Arzoumanian et al. 2011; Palmeirim et al. 2013). In particular, most Herschel prestellar cores are found to lie in dense (thermally supercritical) filaments, suggesting that cores generally form by filament fragmentation (e.g., Könyves et al. 2015; Marsh et al. 2016; Benedettini et al. 2018). Molecular line observations of the velocity field around cores and filaments further support this view (Tafalla & Hacar 2015). Based on the HGBS results, André et al. (2014) proposed a filament paradigm for star formation, whereby large-scale compression of interstellar material in supersonic flows generates a quasi-universal web of ~0.1-pc wide filaments in the cold interstellar medium (ISM) and then the denser filaments fragment into prestellar cores by gravitational instability. Recently, Shimajiri et al. (2017) found that the star formation efficiency in dense molecular gas ($\dot{M}_\ast > 8$), where filamentary structures dominate the mass budget, is remarkably uniform over a wide range of scales from 1–10 pc to >10 kpc (see also Gao & Solomon 2004; Lada et al. 2010, 2012; Chen et al. 2015). Furthermore, Shimajiri et al. (2017) proposed that this common star formation efficiency in dense gas results from the microphysics of star formation in filaments (see also André et al. 2014). This result suggests the existence of a universal “star formation law” for converting dense molecular gas into stars along filaments. Therefore, unveiling how molecular filaments grow in mass and fragment is crucial to understanding star formation in filaments.

The B211/B213 filament system is located in the Taurus molecular cloud, which is one of the nearest star-forming regions ($d \sim 140$ pc; Elias 1978). Wide-field mapping observations in 12CO, 13CO, C18O, N2H+, and SO emission revealed a whole network of filamentary structures in the B211/B213 area...
(Goldsmith et al. 2008; Hacar et al. 2013; Panopoulou et al. 2014; Tafalla & Hacar 2015). Goldsmith et al. (2008) and Palmeirim et al. (2013) found that many low-density striations are elongated parallel to the magnetic field, and that blueshifted and redshifted components in both $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission are distributed southwest and northeast of the B211/B213 filament, as shown in Fig. 1. This morphology was suggestive of mass accretion along magnetic field lines into the B211/B213 filament. To quantify mass accretion, Palmeirim et al. (2013) assumed cylindrical geometry and used the observed mass per unit length $M_{\text{line}}$ to estimate the gravitational acceleration $\ddot{R} = 2GM_{\text{line}}/R$ of a piece of gas in free-fall toward the filament (where $R$ and $G$ denote radius from filament center and the gravitational constant, respectively). The free-fall velocity of gas initially at rest at a cylindrical radius $R_{\text{init}} \sim 2$ pc was estimated to reach 1.1 km s$^{-1}$ when the material reached the outer radius $R_{\text{out}} \sim 0.4$ pc of the B211/B213 filament. This estimation was consistent with the velocity observed in CO, suggesting that the background gas accretes into the B211/B213 filament owing to the gravitational potential of the B211/B213 filament. However, the velocity structure was not investigated in detail. Investigation of the velocity structure is crucial to confirm this suggested scenario from the kinematic viewpoint. This is the topic of the present paper.

The paper is organized as follows: in Sect. 2 we describe the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) data, as well as complementary H$\alpha$, 857 GHz, and HI data. In Sect. 3 we estimate the optical depth of the $^{12}$CO (1–0) line and present the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) velocity structures observed in the B211/B213 cloud. In Sect. 4 we discuss the cloud structure, whether the surrounding material accretes onto the B211/B213 filament from the kinematic viewpoint, and whether the filament is formed by large-scale compression. In Sect. 5 we summarize our results.

2. Observational data

We used the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) data obtained by Goldsmith et al. (2008) and Narayanan et al. (2008) with the 14 m diameter millimeter-wave telescope of the Five College Radio Astronomy Observatory (FCRAO). The half-power beam width of the telescope was 45$''$ for $^{12}$CO (1–0) and 47$''$ for $^{13}$CO (1–0). We applied Gaussian spatial smoothing to improve the signal-to-noise ratio (S/N), resulting in an effective beam resolution of $\sim 76''$, corresponding to $\sim 0.05$ pc at a distance of 140 pc. The velocity resolution of the data is 0.26 km s$^{-1}$ for $^{12}$CO (1–0) and 0.27 km s$^{-1}$ for $^{13}$CO (1–0). The rms noise level is 0.1 K ($T_A^*$) for $^{12}$CO (1–0) and 0.05 K ($T_A^*$) for $^{13}$CO (1–0). As complementary observations of the Taurus cloud region and its large-scale environment, we also used the H$\alpha$ data of Finkbeiner (2003), as well as Planck 857 GHz$^2$ (Planck Collaboration I 2014) and HI data$^3$ (Kalberla et al. 2017) from the archive.

3. Analysis and results

3.1. $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) optical depths

The optical depth of the $^{12}$CO (1–0) line was estimated from the FCRAO $^{12}$CO and $^{13}$CO data. Assuming the same excitation temperature for the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) lines, an isotopic ratio, $R_i = 62$ for $^{12}$C/$^{13}$C (Langer & Penzias 1993), and the same beam filling factor in both lines, we evaluated the optical depth of $^{12}$CO (1–0) using the following equation:

$$\tau^{(12)CO}(T^*) = \frac{T^{(12)CO} - e^{-\tau^{(12)CO}/R_i}}{1 - e^{-\tau^{(12)CO}}}.$$ (1)

Here, $T^{(12)CO}$ and $\tau^{(12)CO}$ denote the peak intensity and the optical depth of $^{12}$CO (1–0), respectively. While the $^{12}$CO (1–0) optical depth

2. https://irsa.ipac.caltech.edu/data/Planck/release_1/all-sky-maps/previews/HFI_SkyMap_857_2048_R1.10_survey/2_ZodiCorrected/

Fig. 1. Left panel: $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission observed toward the B211/B213 filament. Right panel: schematic picture of the velocity components. The $^{12}$CO and $^{13}$CO data are described the velocity range of 5.6–6.4 km s$^{-1}$. Red color shows the distribution of $^{12}$CO (1–0) emission with a velocity range of 4.2–5.3 km s$^{-1}$, and the blue color shows $^{12}$CO (1–0) emission with a velocity range of 5.6–6.4 km s$^{-1}$, and the blue color shows $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission with a velocity range of 6.6–7.4 km s$^{-1}$. The white box perpendicular to the filament axis shows the cut line for the position velocity diagrams shown in Fig. 6.
emission preferentially traces the diffuse extended cloud, the $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ emission traces the central B211/B213 filament (see Fig. 1). The typical inner width of the filaments observed with Herschel is $\sim$0.1 pc (Arzoumanian et al. 2011, 2019; Palmeirim et al. 2013), which is larger than the 0.05 pc effective beam size of the FCRAO data. Thus, assuming the same beam filling factor in $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ is reasonable. Figure 2 displays the resulting map of the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ optical depth. The optical depth in this map ranges from $\sim$3 to $\sim$300, showing that the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ emission is optically thick. In particular, the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ optical depth toward the B211/B213 filament itself ($\tau(^{12}\text{CO}) \sim 100$) is much larger than that found for the surrounding lower density material ($\tau(^{12}\text{CO}) \sim 20$).

3.2. $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ velocity channel maps

Figure 3 shows the velocity channel maps observed in $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$. In the maps for $V_{\text{LSR}} < 3.7 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, both $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ emission is seen in the northeastern part of the maps (RA, Dec = 4h24m00s, 28°15′00″). In the channel maps for $4.0 < V_{\text{LSR}} < 7.3 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, enhanced emission is seen toward the B211/B213 filament in both $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$. The emission at these velocities is likely to be directly associated with the B211/B213 filament. Furthermore, while the emission at $4 \text{ km s}^{-1} < V_{\text{LSR}} < 6 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ is distributed southwest of the B211/B213 filament, the emission at $6 \text{ km s}^{-1} < V_{\text{LSR}} < 7 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ is distributed northeast of the filament. In the channel maps for $V_{\text{LSR}} > 7.3 \text{ km s}^{-1}$, the distribution of the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ emission is suggestive of an arc-like structure around L1495. Figure 1 (right) is a sketch showing the location of each velocity component.

4. Modeling the data and discussion

4.1. 3D morphology of the B211/B213 ambient cloud

Here, we discuss the 3D morphology of the material surrounding the B211/B213 filament by comparing the extent of the gas in the plane of the sky and its depth along the line of sight. Hereafter, we refer to the system consisting of the B211/B213 filament and its surrounding gas as the B211/B213 cloud (i.e., red, green, and dark blue areas in Fig. 1, right).

The projected extent of the B211/B213 cloud in the plane of the sky exceeds $\sim$10 pc. Taking the viewing angle into account, the real extent of the cloud may be larger. At the same time, we can estimate the depth of the cloud along the line of sight under the assumption that the surrounding material is filled by gas with a density exceeding the critical density of the $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ line, since $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ emission is observed throughout the entire mapped area. The critical density of $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$, $n_{\text{critical}}^{13}\text{CO}$, may be estimated as follows:

$$n_{\text{critical}}^{13}\text{CO} = \frac{A_{\text{al}}}{\sigma_{\text{cross}} v} = \frac{A_{\text{al}}}{10^{-15} \text{ cm}^{-2} \times 10^{4} \sqrt{T_{\text{ex}}}}$$

where $A_{\text{al}}$, $\sigma_{\text{cross}}$, $v$, and $T_{\text{ex}}$ are the Einstein spontaneous emission coefficient, collision cross section, collision velocity, and line excitation temperature. The values of $A_{10}$ and $\sigma_{\text{cross}}$ in the CO (1–0) emission traces the central B211/B213 filament (see Fig. 1). The typical inner width of the filaments observed with Herschel is $\sim$0.1 pc (Arzoumanian et al. 2011, 2019; Palmeirim et al. 2013), which is larger than the 0.05 pc effective beam size of the FCRAO data. Thus, assuming the same beam filling factor in $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ is reasonable. Figure 2 displays the resulting map of the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ optical depth. The optical depth in this map ranges from $\sim$3 to $\sim$300, showing that the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ emission is optically thick. In particular, the $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ optical depth toward the B211/B213 filament itself ($\tau(^{12}\text{CO}) \sim 100$) is much larger than that found for the surrounding lower density material ($\tau(^{12}\text{CO}) \sim 20$).

4.2. Accretion of background gas into the B211/B213 filament

The blueshifted and redshifted emission components in both $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ are distributed southwest and northeast of the B211/B213 filaments (see Fig. 1 and Sect. 3.2). This morphology is suggestive of the mass accretion into the B211/B213 filament. In this suggestion, we compare the velocity pattern seen in $^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)$ and $^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)$ with the prediction of an accretion gas model, in order to investigate whether the B211/B213 filament accretes ambient cloud gas from a kinematic viewpoint.

4.2.1. Observed position–velocity diagrams

As mentioned in Sect. 3.2, the highly blueshifted and redshifted components at $V_{\text{LSR}} < 3.7 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ and $V_{\text{LSR}} > 7.3 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ do not seem to be directly connected to the B211/B213 cloud/filament.

http://home.strw.leidenuniv.nl/~moldata/datafiles/13co.dat
Fig. 3. Velocity channel maps in the $^{12}$CO ($J = 1–0$, top panel) and $^{13}$CO ($J = 1–0$, bottom panel) emission lines in units of K obtained from the Goldsmith et al. (2008) data. The line of sight (LSR) velocities (in km s$^{-1}$) are indicated in the top left corner of each panel. The velocity width of each channel map is 0.3 km s$^{-1}$.
To focus on the velocity field of the gas associated with the B211/B213 filament, we subtracted these two components as follows. We applied Gaussian fitting with $N$ Gaussian components to each pixel, where $N = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$. When the S/N of the residual peak intensity was lower than 5, the fit was deemed to be acceptable and the corresponding spectrum was assumed to consist of $N$ Gaussian components. Then, if the peak LSR velocity of a Gaussian component was lower than 4.0 km s$^{-1}$ or higher than 7.0 km s$^{-1}$, the component was not considered to be associated with the B211/B213 filament or cloud and was subtracted from the data cube (see also Figs. 5 and A.1). Figure A.2 displays the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) velocity channel maps after subtracting these components. Hereafter, we used these subtracted data cubes.

Figure 6 shows the resulting position–velocity ($PV$) diagrams in $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) along a direction perpendicular to the B211/B213 filament as indicated in Fig. 1. In these $PV$ diagrams, distinct velocity pattern can be recognized in $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) toward the filament (offset < 10$^\prime$ ~ 0.4 pc). This is probably due to differing optical depths in the two lines. As described in Sect. 3.1, the $^{12}$CO (1–0) optical depth toward the filament is >50 and much larger than the optical depth toward the outskirts of the filament, suggesting that the $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission only traces the surface of the filament. In the outskirts of the B211/B213 filament (offset > 10$^\prime$), the blueshifted emission is distributed southwest (offset > 0$^\prime$) and the redshifted emission is distributed northeast (offset < 0$^\prime$) of the filament. The velocities of the blueshifted and redshifted components approach the velocity of the B211/B213 filament as the offset approaches 0 (i.e., the crest of the filament). Transverse velocity gradients perpendicular to the major axis of filaments have also been observed toward several dense filaments in the Serpens cloud (Dhabal et al. 2018) as well as toward the main filament in the northwestern part of the L1495 subregion (Arzoumanian et al. 2018).

4.2.2. Gas accretion model

The $PV$ diagrams in Fig. 6 show an asymmetric velocity distribution on either side of the 0 position (filament crest), suggesting that the sheet-like ambient cloud surrounding the B211/B213 filament has a different inclination to the plane of the sky northeast and southwest of the filament. To investigate whether the B211/B213 filament accretes gas from the ambient cloud, we thus constructed a three-component toy model (one filament component and two components for the northeastern and southwestern sheets) under the assumption that the sheet components northeast (redshifted) and southwest (blueshifted) lie on the near and far sides of the B211/B213 filament, respectively, as shown in Fig. 4. Our modeling procedure is summarized in the schematic picture shown in Fig. A.3.

Model for the central filament component. First, we produced a model for the filament. Herschel observations of nearby clouds have shown that the radial column density profiles of molecular filaments in the radial direction $R'$ (i.e., perpendicular to the filament crest) can be well described by the following
“Plummer-like” function (Arzoumanian et al. 2011; Palmeirim et al. 2013):

\[
\Sigma_p(R')/\mu m_H = \frac{N_{H_2}^0}{[1 + (R'/R_{flat})^2]^{1.5}} \rightarrow \rho_p(R') = \frac{\rho_c}{[1 + (R'/R_{flat})^2]^{1.5}},
\]

where \(\rho_c\), \(\Sigma_p\), \(\mu m_H\), \(N_{H_2}^0\), \(p\), and \(R_{flat}\) are the central density of the filament, the column density as a function of radius \(R'\), the mean molecular mass, the hydrogen atom mass, the central column density, the index of the power-law density profile at large radii \((R' \gg R_{flat})\), and the radius of the flat inner region, respectively. For the B211/B213 filament, we adopted \(N_{H_2}^0 = 1.4 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-2}\), \(p = 2.0\), and \(R_{flat} = 0.03 \text{ pc}\) from the fitting results of Palmeirim et al. (2013). We assumed that the filament itself lies in the plane of the sky and that the shape of the intensity profile of the B211/B213 filament as traced in \(^{12}\text{CO} (1–0)\) and \(^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)\) emission is the same as that found in the Herschel column density map. Then, we rescaled the peak integrated intensity to be 2 K km s\(^{-1}\) as observed in \(^{13}\text{CO} (1–0)\).

Approximating the Plummer density profile of the filament by a broken power-law, the gravitational potential in the radial direction \(R'\) can be expressed as follows\(^5\) (cf. Hennebelle & André 2013):

\[
\phi(R') = \begin{cases} 
G \rho_{flat} \pi R'^2, & \text{for } R' \leq R_{flat}, \\
GM_{line, flat} \left[1 + 2 \ln \left(\frac{R'}{R_{flat}}\right) + 2 \left(\ln \frac{R'}{R_{flat}}\right)^2\right], & \text{for } R_{flat} < R' \leq R_{out}, \\
+2GM_{line} \ln \left(\frac{R'}{R_{out}}\right), & \text{for } R_{out} < R'.
\end{cases}
\]

where \(\rho_{flat}\) and \(R_{out}\) are the density of the filament at \(R' \leq R_{flat}\) and outer radius of the filament, respectively. We adopted \(n_{H_2}^0 = \rho_{flat}/\mu m_H = 4.5 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}\), \(R_{flat} = 0.03 \text{ pc}\), and \(R_{out} = 0.4 \text{ pc}\) from Palmeirim et al. (2013), as summarized in Table 1. In the above equation, \(M_{line, flat}\) and \(M_{line}\) represent the inner and outer parts of the filament.

\(^5\) Here, \(R'\) denotes the radius corrected for inclination to the line of sight, where the relation between the corrected radius \(R'\) and radius in the plane of the sky \(R = R' / \sin(\theta_{flat})\) and \(\theta_{flat}\) is the inclination angle of the northeastern and southwestern sheet component to the line of sight.
Models for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components. Second, we produced models for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components assuming that the B211/B213 filament accretes the gas of the sheets as a result of its gravitational potential.

Taking into account the pressure gradient force, conservation of energy for a parcel of unit mass of the ambient cloud falling onto the central filament may be expressed as follows (cf. Smith 1994, 2012):

\[ \frac{1}{2} (V_{\text{init}N/S})^2 + \phi(R_{\text{init}N/S}) + C_{s,\text{eff}}^2 \ln(\rho_{\text{init}}) = \frac{1}{2} V(R')^2 + \phi(R') + C_{s,\text{eff}}^2 \ln(\rho(R')), \]

where \( V(R) \) is the projected velocity and \( C_{s,\text{eff}} \) is the effective sound speed. The projected velocity \( V(R) \) of the gas flow can thus be expressed as follows:

\[ V(R) = V_{\text{filament}} \pm \sqrt{2 \left( \frac{1}{2} (V_{\text{init}N/S})^2 + \phi(R_{\text{init}N/S}) - \phi(R') + C_{s,\text{eff}}^2 \ln(\rho_{\text{init}}) \right)} \times \cos(\theta(N/S)), \]

where \( V_{\text{filament}} \), \( \rho_{\text{init}} \), \( R_{\text{init}N/S} \), and \( C_{s,\text{eff}} \) are the systemic velocity of the filament, the velocity of the accreting gas at the initial point corrected for inclination, the initial radius of the accreting gas corrected for inclination, and the volume density at the initial point, respectively. Here, we define \( V_{\text{init}N/S} \) as \((V_{\text{init}N/S} - V_{\text{filament}})/\cos(\theta(N/S))\), where \( V_{\text{init}N/S} \) is the projected velocity of the northeastern and southwestern sheet component at \( R_{\text{init}N/S} \). We adopted \( C_{s,\text{eff}} = 0.9 \, \text{km s}^{-1} \) from

![Fig. 7. Assumed density profile for the three-component model. Red and blue lines indicate the densities for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components, respectively.](image-url)
20° for the southwestern sheet component in our model. In reality, however, the inclinations of the two components may vary smoothly with radius from the B211/B213 filament and match on the filament crest.

**Combined three-component model.** We first generated an integrated intensity distribution and a peak velocity field for each of the three components with IDL (Interactive Data Language). Using the MIRIAD task `velimage`, we then produced individual data cube components for the filament and the two sheet components assuming uniform velocity dispersions of 1.3 km s$^{-1}$ for the filament and 0.9 km s$^{-1}$ for the sheet components. The velocity dispersions were obtained from fitting the observed 13CO (1−0) spectra. One of the reasons for the larger velocity dispersion observed in 13CO toward the central filament may be that the B211/B213 filament contains several velocity subcomponents (or “fiber-like” structures; Hacar et al. 2013), possibly as a result of accretion-driven turbulence (cf. Hennebelle & André 2013; Heitsch 2013; André et al. 2014)$^7$. Finally, we used IDL to coadd the three individual data-cube components and produce a combined model data cube.

**Large-scale kinematic model.** We adopted initial velocities (corrected for inclination) of \( \nabla v_{\text{init}}^{0,\text{N}} = 1.8 \) km s$^{-1}$ (\( \nabla v_{\text{init}}^{0,\text{S}} = -1.9 \) km s$^{-1}$) for the northeastern sheet component and \( \nabla v_{\text{init}}^{0,\text{S}} = -1.9 \) km s$^{-1}$ (\( \nabla v_{\text{init}}^{0,\text{N}} = -\nabla v_{\text{filament}}(\cos(\theta_K)) \)) for the southwestern sheet component. This almost symmetric initial velocity pattern after correction for inclination is suggestive of gravitational accretion. If the accreting gas comes from far away positions \( R_{\text{far},\text{N}}^{\text{init}} = \beta \) pc and \( R_{\text{far},\text{S}}^{\text{init}} = \beta \) pc is accelerated by the gravitational potential of the B211/B213 filament/cloud, the line-of-sight velocity at \( R_{\text{inc},\text{N}}^{\text{far}} \) is likely to be similar to \( \nabla v_{\text{filament}} \). The positions \( R_{\text{far},\text{N}}^{\text{init}} \) for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components can be estimated from the equation \( \nabla v_{\text{init}}^{0,\text{N}} = \nabla v_{\text{filament}}(\cos(\theta_K)) \) since the pressure density gradient is probably small and can be neglected. We adopt \( R_{\text{init},\text{N}} = 10 \) pc and \( R_{\text{init},\text{S}} = 10 \) pc. Thus, assuming that the initial velocities are entirely generated by gravitational acceleration, the surrounding gas for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components would have come from \( R_{\text{inc},\text{N}}^{\text{far}} = 270 \) (260) pc and \( R_{\text{inc},\text{S}}^{\text{far}} = 520 \) (180) pc (see Fig. 8). Here, for simplicity, we did not include the mass of the sheets when we estimated the gravitational potential. Thus, these \( R_{\text{inc},\text{N}}^{\text{far}} \) values should be considered upper limits. The HI emission observed at \( V_{\text{LSR}} \sim 6 \) km s$^{-1}$, which corresponds to the systemic velocity of the B211/B213 filament, has an extended emission with an extent of several \( > 10 \) pc, which is consistent with the above value of \( R_{\text{inc},\text{N}}^{\text{far}} \) (see also Sect. 4.3 and Fig. A.4). Thus, one of the reasons why the initial velocities at \( R_{\text{inc},\text{N}}^{\text{far}} \) in the northeastern and southwestern sheet components differ from the velocity of the filament may be the large-scale effect of the gravitational potential of the B211/B213 cloud/filament. We discuss another possible explanation in Sect. 4.3.

4.2.3. Comparing the combined model with the observations

The synthetic PV diagram predicted by the model is shown in Fig. 6c for comparison with the PV diagrams observed in 12CO (1−0) and 13CO (1−0) (Figs. 6a and b). A good quantitative agreement especially with the 13CO (1−0) diagram can be seen. In particular, in both the model and the observed PV diagrams, the velocity of the gas surrounding the B211/B213 filament (red and dark blue area in Fig. 1, right) approaches the systemic velocity of the B211/B213 filament as the positional offset approaches 0 (i.e., the filament crest). While the gas is accelerated by the gravitational potential of the filament/cloud at large scales (several \( > 10 \) pc), it is decelerated by the pressure gradient force of the dense filament at small scales (several pc; see Figs. 8 and 9). The good agreement between the model and the data indicates that observational kinematic constraints are consistent with the B211/B213 filament accreting background cloud material as a result of its gravitational potential. This provides strong support to the scenario of mass accretion along magnetic field lines into the filament proposed by Palmeirim et al. (2013). The mass accretion rate onto the B211/B213 filament was estimated to be \( 27–50 \) \( M_\odot \) pc$^{-1}$ Myr$^{-1}$ by Palmeirim et al. (2013), suggesting that it took \( \sim 1–2 \) Myr to form the filament. Thus, accretion of gas from the ambient cloud in B211/B213 likely plays a key role in the evolution of the filament.

4.3. Formation of the B211/B213 filament by large-scale compression?

As described in Sect. 4.2, we adopted different inclinations for the northeastern sheet component (\( i = 70° \)) and for the southwestern sheet component (\( i = 20° \)) in our model to obtain a good agreement with the observations. This suggests that the B211/B213 cloud is shaped like a shell (see Fig. 9). One possibility is that this shell-like structure was produced by large-scale compression.

In this section, we investigate whether the cloud surrounding the B211/B213 filament is affected by large-scale flow phenomena using wide-field Hα maps that trace gas that

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$^6$ `velimage` makes a data cube output_cubex(y,z,velcond) from an input-integrated intensity image input_intensitex(y,z), input-centroid velocity image input_velocityx(y,z), and dispersion σ. The velcond values are the centroid velocity and are input as an \( (x,y) \) image. The output cube image is produced as output_cubex(y,z,velcond) = input_intensitex(y,z) \( \times \exp(-\text{velcond} - \text{input_velocityx}(y,z))/(2\sigma^2)) \).

$^7$ In recent numerical simulations of this process, Seifried & Walsh (2015) did find that the accretion flow increases the velocity dispersion of the central filament, and Clarke et al. (2017) suggested that fiber-like structures could be produced as a result of the vorticity generated by an inhomogeneous accretion flow.
is ionized by massive stars (Finkbeiner 2003), the Planck 857 GHz dust continuum map, which traces cold dust (Planck Collaboration I 2014), and an HI map that traces lower density atomic gas (HI4PI Collaboration 2016).

Figure 10 (see also Figs. A.4 and A.5) compare the spatial distributions of the Hα and 857 GHz emission in the Taurus–California–Perseus region (e.g., Taurus, Auriga, California, and Perseus). The 857 GHz dust emission traces each molecular cloud and exhibits a hole-like structure. This hole-like structure can also be seen in HI emission, as shown in Figs. A.4 and A.5. The Hα emission fills the hole-like structure seen in the 857 GHz dust emission near the center of the field. The Taurus, California, and Perseus molecular complexes traced by the 857 GHz dust emission are distributed at the edge of the hole-like structure. Lim et al. (2013) also found evidence of a shell-like structure using dust extinction and 12CO (1–0) maps. The hole-like structure may result from the expansion of a large-scale supershell produced by a supernova in the Per OB2 association that compresses the Taurus cloud from the far side (Olano & Poeppel 1987; Bally et al. 2008). An Hα absorption feature is detected toward the Taurus cloud (see Figs. 10 and A.6), suggesting that the Taurus cloud lies at the front surface of the large-scale supershell produced by the Per OB2 association. The distance to the Per OB2 association is estimated to be 340 pc from the Sun (Cernis 1993), while the distance to the Taurus cloud is ~140 pc (Elias 1978). These distances are consistent with the Taurus cloud lying in front of the Per OB2 association. The B211/B213 filament also appears to be in front of the HI shell (see Fig. 10 in Chapman et al. 2011). This morphology suggests that the B211/B213 filament may have formed as a result of an expanding supershell. This may provide another reason for the different initial gas velocities for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components in addition to large-scale acceleration by the gravitational potential of the B211/B213 cloud (see Sect. 4.2.3). The Local Bubble surrounding the Sun might also compress the Taurus cloud from the opposite direction. The Local Bubble surrounding the Sun was produced by supernovae (Snowden et al. 1998; Steir et al. 1999), and the wall of the Local Bubble is located close to the Taurus cloud (Könyves et al. 2007; Lallement et al. 2014).

Interestingly, the Planck 353 GHz data show variations in the polarization fraction (i.e., polarized intensity/total intensity) across the B211/B213 filament, with lower and higher polarization fractions in the southwestern and northeastern parts of the filament, respectively (see Fig. 10 in Planck Collaboration Int. XXXIII 2016). If the gas surrounding the filament is shaped as a shell-like structure with an ordered magnetic field in the plane of each sheet component and if the southwestern sheet component is oriented closer to the line of sight than the northeastern sheet component (cf. Fig. 4, right), the polarization fraction is expected to be lower in the southwestern area (dark blue in Fig. 1, right) than in the northeastern area (red in Fig. 1, right) assuming uniform dust grain properties. Moreover, both the polarization fraction and the polarization angle show smooth variations across the filament, which is consistent with the northeastern and southwestern sheets being curved (i.e., shell-like). The Planck polarization results therefore support the present model.

Using magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) numerical simulations, Inutsuka et al. (2015) and Inoue et al. (2018) have argued that multiple compressions associated with expanding bubbles can create star-forming filamentary structures within sheet-like molecular cloud. A similar model of anisotropic filament formation in shock-compressed layers has been proposed by Chen & Ostriker (2014), also based on MHD simulations. Such anisotropic filament formation models naturally account for the transverse velocity gradients observed across the B211/B213 filament (see Fig. 1) and other dense molecular filaments.
from the surrounding cloud, we investigated the velocity pattern observed in the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) lines. Our main findings may be summarized as follows:

1. The optical depth of the $^{12}$CO (1–0) line was estimated to be $\sim 3$–300. The $^{12}$CO optical depth toward the B211/B213 filament is much larger than that toward the outskirts of the filament. The PV diagrams observed in $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) exhibit different velocity patterns close to the filament, which is likely due to different optical depths.

2. The $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission from the B211/B213 filament are seen at an LSR velocity of $\sim 6$ km s$^{-1}$. In the northeastern and southwestern parts of the B211/B213 filament, the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission is redshifted and blueshifted, respectively. The line-of-sight velocities gradually approach the systemic velocity of the filament closer to the filament.

3. The linear extent of the cloud around the B211/B213 filament is more than 10 pc in the plane of the sky. In contrast, the depth of the cloud along the line of sight is estimated to be $\sim 0.3$–0.7 pc ($N_\text{H}_2/n_{\text{H}_2}^{\text{critical}}$) under the assumption that the density of the surrounding material is the same as the critical density of $^{13}$CO (1–0). These results suggest that the 3D morphology of the gas cloud surrounding the B211/B213 filament is sheet-like.

4. To investigate whether the B211/B213 filament is in the process of accreting the surrounding gas material, we compared the velocity patterns observed in $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) with our three-component model. The predictions of the model were found to be in good agreement with the distribution of $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) emission in the observed PV diagrams, supporting the scenario of mass accretion along magnetic field lines into the B211/B213 filament proposed by Palmeirim et al. (2013).

5. From an inspection of the wide-field spatial distributions of H$_\text{I}$ and $857$ GHz dust emission in the Taurus–California–Perseus region, we conclude that the B211/B213 filament was probably formed as a result of the expansion of a large-scale supershell originated in the Per OB2 association. This scenario provides a simple explanation for the different inclinations of the northeastern and southwestern sheet components inferred from our modeling analysis.

6. Based on these results, we propose that (a) large-scale compression(s) generated by the Per OB2 association initially formed the B211/B213 filament system, and (b) accretion of ambient gas material due to the gravitational potential of the filament is now responsible for the growth of the filament.

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References

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Appendix A: Complementary figures

Figure A.1 is a flowchart of our Gaussian fitting procedure with \( N \) components. Figure A.2 shows the 12CO(1–0) and 13CO(1–0) velocity channel maps after subtracting the components that are not associated with the B211/B213 filament (see Sect. 4.2.1). Figure A.3 is a flowchart for our three-component modeling procedure described in Sect. 4.2.2. Figures A.4 and A.5 show the large-scale spatial distribution of HI emission in the Taurus–Auriga–California–Perseus region based on the HI data from Kalberla et al. (2017). Figure A.6 shows the large-scale spatial distributions of the H\( \alpha \) emission (Finkbeiner 2003) and 857 GHz dust emission (Planck Collaboration I 2014; see also Fig. 10 and Sect. 4.3).

**Fig. A.1.** Flowchart of our Gaussian fitting procedure with \( N \) components. Gaussian fitting with \( N = 1 \) component is first applied to each pixel. Where the S/N of the residual peak intensity is lower than 5, we considered that the spectrum at this pixel consists of \( N = 1 \) Gaussian component. When the S/N of the residual peak intensity is higher than 5, we applied Gaussian fitting with \( N + 1 \) Gaussian components. This process was repeated for five components at most. Then, when the peak velocity is lower than 4.0 km s\(^{-1}\) or higher than 7.0 km s\(^{-1}\), we considered that the component is not associated with the B211/B213 cloud and subtracted it from the data cube.
Fig. A.2. $^{12}$CO ($J = 1–0$, top panel) and $^{13}$CO ($J = 1–0$, bottom panel) velocity channel maps after subtracting the components that are not associated with the B211/B213 filament. The intensity unit is K. The velocities in km s$^{-1}$ are indicated in the top left corner of each panel. The velocity width of each channel map is 0.3 km s$^{-1}$. 
Fig. A.3. Flowchart for the three-component modeling procedure (see Sect. 4.2.2).

Fig. A.4. HI velocity channel maps. The HI data are from the Effelsberg–Bonn HI Survey (EBHIS) and Galactic All-Sky Survey (GASS; HI4PI Collaboration 2016). The intensity unit is K. The contour indicates a level of 30 MJy sr$^{-1}$ at the Planck 857 GHz emission. The velocities are indicated in the top left corner of each panel. The velocity width of each channel map is 1.3 km s$^{-1}$. 
Fig. A.5. Large-scale spatial distribution of HI emission in the Taurus–Auriga–California–Perseus region from Kalberla et al. (2017). Red, green, and blue are the HI components at the velocity of $-29.7$ to $3.35$, $4.93$–$8.09$, and $8.88$–$14.41$ km s$^{-1}$. The contour indicates a level of 30 MJy str$^{-1}$ at the Planck 857 GHz emission.

Fig. A.6. Spatial distributions of the Hα (color; left panel; Finkbeiner 2003) and 857 GHz dust (gray; right panel; Planck Collaboration I 2014) emission. Same as Fig. 10, but the Hα and Planck 857 GHz maps are displayed separately for clarity. The contour indicates a level of 10 MJy str$^{-1}$ at the Planck 857 GHz emission.
Appendix B: Inclinations of the two sheet components in the model

To investigate the effect of the assumed inclinations for the two sheet components in our model, we expected a range of inclinations (10°, 20°, 30°, 40°, 50°, 60°, 70°, and 80°) and compared for each inclination the (peak) velocities predicted by the model with the $^{12}$CO/$^{13}$CO observations. The northeastern and southwestern sheet components were examined separately. We assumed the same parameters as listed in Table 1, except for the inclination angles ($\theta_{N/S}$). Figure B.1 shows the velocity offsets between models and observations. The velocity offset for the southwestern sheet component (offset > 0) increases as the inclination angle increases, while the velocity offset for the northeastern sheet component (offset < 0) increases as the inclination angle decreases. The velocity offset at offset < $R_{\text{out}}$ tends to be larger than that at offset > $R_{\text{out}}$. One possible reason is that the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) emissions do not trace the inner part of the filament (offset > $R_{\text{out}}$) since the $^{12}$CO (1–0) and $^{13}$CO (1–0) optical depths are much larger than unity (see Sect. 3.1). In order to further investigate the velocity fields of the accreting gas, observations in optically thin dense gas tracers such as $^{12}$N$_2$H$^+$ (1–0) and $^{13}$CO$^+$ (1–0), which trace the filament well (cf. Shimajiri et al. 2017, for $^{12}$CO (1–0)), are required. Table B.1 summarizes the mean values of the velocity offsets for the northeastern and southwestern sheet components for each model. Inclinations of 70° for the northeastern sheet component and 20° for the southwestern sheet component provide the minimum velocity offset. We therefore adopted these inclination values in the model presented in Sect. 4.2.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inclination$^a$</th>
<th>North/South</th>
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<td>North</td>
<td>$^{13}$CO</td>
<td>0.41 ± 0.49</td>
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<td>South</td>
<td>$^{13}$CO</td>
<td>0.25 ± 0.19</td>
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<td>20°</td>
<td>North</td>
<td>$^{12}$CO</td>
<td>0.48 ± 0.17</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>$^{12}$CO</td>
<td>0.26 ± 0.24</td>
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<td>North</td>
<td>$^{13}$CO</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South</td>
<td>$^{13}$CO</td>
<td>0.74 ± 0.60</td>
</tr>
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Notes. $^a$Assumed inclinations for the northeast and southwest sheet components in the model. $^b$Mean and standard deviation of the velocity offset between observations and model.
Fig. B.1. Velocity offset as a function of position between the model and $^{12}$CO (1–0)/$^{13}$CO (1–0) in the PV diagrams. The assumed inclination angles for the sheet in the model are indicated in the top left corner of each panel. Black and red indicate the velocity differences between the model and $^{12}$CO (1–0) data and between the model and $^{13}$CO (1–0) data, respectively.