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The messy death of a multiple star system and the resulting planetary nebula as observed by JWST

Orsola De Marco^{1,2*}, Muhammad Akashi^{3,4}, Stavros Akras⁵,
 Javier Alcolea⁶, Isabel Aleman⁷, Philippe Amram⁸, Bruce
 Balick⁹, Elvire De Beck¹⁰, Eric G. Blackman^{11,12}, Henri M.
 J. Boffin¹³, Panos Boumis⁵, Jesse Bublitz¹⁴, Beatrice
 Bucciarelli¹⁵, Valentin Bujarrabal⁶, Jan Cami^{16,17,18},
 Nicholas Chornay¹⁹, You-Hua Chu²⁰, Romano L.M.
 Corradi^{21,22}, Adam Frank²³, D. A. García-Hernández^{22,24},
 Jorge García-Rojas^{22,24}, Guillermo García-Segura²⁵,
 Veronica Gómez-Llanos^{22,24}, Denise R. Gonçalves²⁶, Martín
 A. Guerrero²⁷, David Jones^{22,24}, Amanda I. Karakas^{28,29},
 Joel H. Kastner^{30,31}, Sun Kwok³², Foteini Lykou^{33,34},
 Arturo Manchado^{22,24,35}, Mikako Matsuura³⁶, Iain
 McDonald^{37,38}, Brent Miszalski³⁹, Shazrene S.
 Mohamed^{40,41,42,43}, Ana Monreal-Ibero⁴⁴, Hektor Monteiro⁷,
 Rodolfo Montez Jr.⁴⁵, Paula Moraga Baez³¹, Christophe
 Morisset²⁴, Jason Nordhaus^{46,47}, Claudia Mendes de
 Oliveira⁴⁸, Zara Osborn^{28,29}, Masaaki Otsuka⁴⁹, Quentin A.
 Parker^{50,51}, Els Peeters^{16,17,18}, Bruno C. Quint⁵², Guillermo
 Quintana-Lacaci⁵³, Matt Redman⁵⁴, Ashley J. Ruiter⁵⁵,
 Laurence Sabin²⁵, Raghendra Sahai⁵⁶, Carmen Sánchez
 Contreras⁵⁷, Miguel Santander-García⁶, Ivo Seitenzahl⁵⁵,
 Noam Soker³, Angela K. Speck⁵⁸, Letizia Stanghellini⁵⁹,
 Wolfgang Steffen⁶⁰, Jesús A. Toalá⁶¹, Toshiya Ueta⁶²,
 Griet Van de Steene⁶³, Hans Van Winckel⁶⁴, Paolo
 Ventura⁶⁵, Eva Villaver⁵⁷, Wouter Vlemmings⁶⁶, Jeremy R.
 Walsh¹³, Roger Wesson³⁶, Albert A. Zijlstra³⁸

- ^{1*}School of Mathematical and Physical Sciences, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia.
- ^{2*}Astronomy, Astrophysics and Astrophotonics Research Centre, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia.
- ³Department of Physics, Technion, Haifa, 3200003, Israel.
- ⁴Kinneret College on the Sea of Galilee, Samakh 15132, Israel.
- ⁵Institute for Astronomy, Astrophysics, Space Applications and Remote Sensing, National Observatory of Athens, GR 15236 Penteli, Greece.
- ⁶Observatorio Astronómico Nacional (OAN/IGN), Alfonso XII, 3, 28014 Madrid, Spain.
- ⁷Instituto de Física e Química, Universidade Federal de Itajubá, Av. BPS 1303, Pinheirinho, Itajubá 37500-903, Brazil.
- ⁸Aix-Marseille Univ., CNRS, CNES, LAM (Laboratoire d'Astrophysique de Marseille), Marseille, France.
- ⁹Astronomy Department, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98105-1580, USA.
- ¹⁰Department of Space, Earth and Environment, Chalmers University of Technology, S-41296 Gothenburg, Sweden.
- ¹¹Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY 14627, USA.
- ¹²Laboratory for Laser Energetics, University of Rochester, Rochester NY, 14623, USA.
- ¹³European Southern Observatory, Karl-Schwarzschild Strasse 2, D-85748 Garching, Germany.
- ¹⁴Green Bank Observatory, 155 Observatory Road, PO Box 2, Green Bank, WV 24944, USA.
- ¹⁵INAF - Osservatorio Astrofisico di Torino, Via Osservatorio 20, 10023, Pino Torinese, Italy.
- ¹⁶Department of Physics & Astronomy, University of Western Ontario, London, ON, N6A 3K7, Canada.
- ¹⁷Institute for Earth and Space Exploration, University of Western Ontario, London, ON, N6A 3K7, Canada.
- ¹⁸SETI Institute, 399 Bernardo Avenue, Suite 200, Mountain View, CA 94043, USA.
- ¹⁹Institute of Astronomy, University of Cambridge, Madingley Road, Cambridge CB3 0HA, UK.
- ²⁰Institute of Astronomy and Astrophysics, Academia Sinica (ASIAA), No. 1, Section 4, Roosevelt Road, Taipei 10617, Taiwan.

- ²¹GRANTECAN, Cuesta de San José s/n, E-38712, Breña Baja, La Palma, Spain.
- ²²Instituto de Astrofísica de Canarias, E-38205 La Laguna, Tenerife, Spain.
- ²³Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY 14627, USA.
- ²⁴Departamento de Astrofísica, Universidad de La Laguna, E-38206 La Laguna, Tenerife, Spain.
- ²⁵Instituto de Astronomía, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Km. 107 Carr. Tijuana-Ensenada, 22860, Ensenada, B. C., Mexico.
- ²⁶Observatório do Valongo, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, Ladeira Pedro Antonio 43, Rio de Janeiro 20080-090, Brazil.
- ²⁷Instituto de Astrofísica de Andalucía, IAA-CSIC, Glorieta de la Astronomía, s/n, E-18008, Granada, Spain.
- ²⁸School of Physics & Astronomy, Monash University, Clayton VIC 3800, Australia.
- ²⁹ARC Centre of Excellence for All Sky Astrophysics in 3 Dimensions (ASTRO 3D).
- ³⁰Center for Imaging Science, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY 14623, USA.
- ³¹School of Physics and Astronomy and Laboratory for Multiwavelength Astrophysics, Rochester Institute of Technology, USA.
- ³²Department of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada.
- ³³Konkoly Observatory, Research Centre for Astronomy and Earth Sciences, Eötvös Loránd Research Network (ELKH), Konkoly-Thege Miklós út 15-17, 1121 Budapest, Hungary.
- ³⁴CSFK, MTA Centre of Excellence, Konkoly-Thege Miklós út 15-17, 1121 Budapest, Hungary.
- ³⁵Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Spain.
- ³⁶School of Physics and Astronomy, Cardiff University, The Parade, Cardiff CF24 3AA, UK.
- ³⁷Department of Physical Sciences, The Open University, Walton Hall, Milton Keynes, MK7 6AA, UK.
- ³⁸Jodrell Bank Centre for Astrophysics, Department of Physics and Astronomy, The University of Manchester, Oxford Road M13 9PL Manchester, UK.

- ³⁹Australian Astronomical Optics, Faculty of Science and Engineering, Macquarie University, North Ryde, NSW 2113, Australia.
- ⁴⁰Department of Physics, University of Miami, Coral Gables, FL 33124, USA.
- ⁴¹South African Astronomical Observatory, P.O. Box 9, 7935 Observatory, South Africa.
- ⁴²Astronomy Department, University of Cape Town, 7701 Rondebosch, South Africa.
- ⁴³NITheCS National Institute for Theoretical and Computational Sciences, South Africa.
- ⁴⁴Leiden Observatory, Leiden University, Niels Bohrweg 2, NL 2333 CA Leiden, The Netherlands.
- ⁴⁵Center for Astrophysics, Harvard & Smithsonian, 60 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA.
- ⁴⁶Center for Computational Relativity and Gravitation, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY 14623, USA.
- ⁴⁷National Technical Institute for the Deaf, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY 14623, USA.
- ⁴⁸Departamento de Astronomia, Instituto de Astronomia, Geofísica e Ciências Atmosféricas da USP, Cidade Universitária, 05508-900, São Paulo, SP, Brazil.
- ⁴⁹Okayama Observatory, Kyoto University, Honjo, Kamogata, Asakuchi, Okayama, 719-0232, Japan.
- ⁵⁰Department of Physics, CYM Physics Building, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong SAR, PRC.
- ⁵¹Laboratory for Space Research, Cyberport 4, Cyberport, Hong Kong SAR, PRC.
- ⁵²Rubin Observatory Project Office, 950 N. Cherry Ave., Tucson, AZ 85719, USA.
- ⁵³Dept. of Molecular Astrophysics. IFF-CSIC. C/ Serrano 123, E-28006, Madrid, Spain.
- ⁵⁴Centre for Astronomy, School of Physics, National University of Ireland Galway, Galway H91 CF50, Ireland.
- ⁵⁵University of New South Wales, Australian Defence Force Academy, Canberra, Australian Capital Territory, Australia.
- ⁵⁶Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, CA 91109, Pasadena, USA.

- ⁵⁷Centro de Astrobiología (CAB), CSIC-INTA, Camino Bajo del Castillo s/n, ESAC campus, 28692, Villanueva de la Cañada, Madrid, Spain.
- ⁵⁸University of Texas at San Antonio, Department of Physics and Astronomy, Applied Engineering and Technology Building, One UTSA Circle, San Antonio, TX 78249, United States.
- ⁵⁹NSF’s NOIRLab, 950 N. Cherry Ave., Tucson, AZ 85719, USA.
- ⁶⁰ilumbra, AstroPhysical MediaStudio, Hautzenbergstrasse 1, 67661 Kaiserslautern, Germany.
- ⁶¹Instituto de Radioastronomía y Astrofísica, UNAM, Antigua Carretera a Pátzcuaro 8701, Ex-Hda. San José de la Huerta, Morelia 58089, Mich., Mexico.
- ⁶²Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Denver, 2112 E Wesley Ave., Denver, CO 80208, USA.
- ⁶³Royal Observatory of Belgium, Astronomy and Astrophysics, Ringlaan 3, 1180 Brussels, Belgium.
- ⁶⁴Institute of Astronomy, KULeuven, Celestijnenlaan 200D, B-3001 Leuven, Belgium.
- ⁶⁵INAF – Osservatorio Astronomico di Roma, Via Frascati 33, I-00040, Monte Porzio Catone (RM), Italy.
- ⁶⁶Onsala Space Observatory, Department of Space, Earth and Environment, Chalmers University of Technology, Onsala, Sweden.

*Corresponding author(s). E-mail(s): orsola.demarco@mq.edu.au;

Abstract

Planetary nebulae (PNe), the ejected envelopes of red giant stars, provide us with a history of the last, mass-losing phases of 90% of stars initially more massive than the Sun. Here, we analyse James Webb Space Telescope (JWST) Early Release Observation (ERO) images of the PN NGC 3132. A structured, extended H₂ halo surrounding an ionised central bubble is imprinted with spiral structures, likely shaped by a low-mass companion orbiting the central star at ~ 40 – 60 au. The images also reveal a mid-IR excess at the central star interpreted as a dusty disk, indicative of an interaction with another, closer companion. Including the previously known, A-type visual companion, the progenitor of the NGC 3132 PN must have been at least a stellar quartet. The JWST images allow us to generate a model of the illumination, ionisation and hydrodynamics of the molecular halo, demonstrating the power of JWST to investigate complex stellar outflows. Further, new measurements of the A-type visual companion allow us to derive the value for

the mass of the progenitor of a central star to date with excellent precision: $2.86 \pm 0.06 M_{\odot}$. These results serve as pathfinders for future JWST observations of PNe providing unique insight into fundamental astrophysical processes including colliding winds, and binary star interactions, with implications for supernovae and gravitational wave systems.

Keywords: stars: AGB and post-AGB, stars: evolution, ISM: jets and outflows, ISM: molecules, planetary nebulae: individual: NGC 3132

Main

Introduction

Planetary nebulae (PNe) are the ejected envelopes of intermediate-mass ($\sim 1\text{--}8 M_{\odot}$) stars that have recently terminated their asymptotic giant branch (AGB) stage of evolution. Moving outwards from the hot pre-white dwarf star ($T \sim 10^5$ K) that is the progeny of the AGB star, the structure of a canonical quasi-spherical PN consists of a hot, sparse, wind-heated bubble ($T \sim 10^7$ K) surrounded by a dense shell of displaced, ionised AGB gas ($T \sim 10^4$ K), which in turn may still be surrounded by “pristine,” cold ($T \sim 10^2$ K), molecule- and dust-rich AGB ejecta. On the other hand, if the progenitor star interacted with a companion(s) during its post-main sequence evolution, we would expect departures from spherical symmetry, perhaps including spiral structures and arcs [e.g., 1–3], the presence of a dense, molecule-rich torus [e.g., 4], one or more pairs of polar lobes formed by fast, collimated outflows and jets [e.g., 5, 6], and/or a dusty, circumbinary disk [7]. The type of interaction depends on the orbital radius, and ranges from common envelope evolution for close binaries [8], to accretion disks and gravitational focussing of the wind for wider systems [9–11], to displacement of the central star from the geometric centre of the nebula for the widest systems [12].

The first Hubble Space Telescope (HST) images of PNe revealed a breathtaking new world of details and far more complex structures than had been gleaned from ground-based images [e.g., 13, 14]. The superb spatial resolution of HST, combined with high-resolution, kinematic mapping, enabled the construction of detailed 3D, morpho-kinematic models, which, together with hydrodynamic models [e.g., 15, 16], started to connect our understanding of the evolution of the structures and kinematics of PNe with their possible binary star origins [e.g., 17–19].

The James Webb Space Telescope (JWST), with its superb sensitivity and high spatial resolution from near- to mid-IR, is now poised to enable a leap of similar magnitude in our understanding of PNe. This journey began when JWST released near-IR and mid-IR images of just one PN, NGC 3132, as part of its ERO program. NGC 3132 is a nearby ($D \sim 750$ pc), molecule-rich [20, 21], ring-like PN, long known to harbour a visual binary comprising the central (progenitor) star and an A star companion. In this paper we show that

the JWST ERO images contain multiple, new lines of evidence that NGC 3132 is the recent product of a hierarchical multiple progenitor stellar system, which has experienced both indirect and direct interactions involving one or more components. Such binary interactions have taken on new importance in the era of gravitational wave detectors (LIGO [22], LISA [23]) and ambitious transient surveys [24]. Indeed, PNe like NGC 3132 offer unique insight into the formation pathways of the close, single and double degenerate binaries that are eventual gravitational wave sources and (perhaps) type Ia supernova progenitors [25–27].

Results

A flocculent molecular halo surrounding an ionised bubble

Figure 1 displays colour overlays of NIRC*am* and MIRI images of NGC 3132 that highlight JWST’s clean separation of the PN’s ionised (H II) and molecular (H₂) regions. The full resulting JWST image suite, along with basic information, is presented in Specification of JWST NIRC*am* and MIRI imaging and Supplementary Figure 1. The images reveal, for the first time, the extent and detailed structure of the halo of molecular gas that lies exterior to the nebula’s central, ionised cavity and its bright and thin, peripheral elliptical ring (cf. [28]). This molecular halo is well detected in rovibrational H₂ emission at 2.12 μm (1–0 S(1)), 4.7 μm (0–0 S(9)), and 7.7 μm (0–0 S(5)) out to 60 arcsec (~ 0.22 pc at the adopted distance of 754 pc, see Properties and distance of NGC 3132) from the central star. Spatially organised structures — arcs and patterns of spikes emanating radially outward — are observed in the halo H₂ emission on medium to large scales, while molecular arcs, loops, and knots are detected on size scales from ~ 500 au down to the limiting (~ 75 au) resolution of the images. The typical thickness of the bright H₂ rings that surround the nebular core is $\sim 1 - 2$ arcsec (~ 750 -1500 au), measured at 2.1, 4.7 and 7.7 μm .

Figure 1 conclusively demonstrates that the molecular gas is much clumpier than the ionised gas component of NGC 3132 (see also Supplementary Figure 3). In hydrogen recombination lines and [S III] emission (Figure 1, top-left), the nebula’s central ionised cavity (within ~ 25 arcsec of the central star) appears as a relatively smooth elliptical region that is bounded by a single, sharp-edged ring; whereas in H₂ (Figure 1, bottom-left), this same central region appears as a far more complex system of clumpy filaments. The regions in and around this bright, inner H₂ ring system contain as many as 20 dense clumps (knots) per square arcsec, implying the total number of H₂ knots in this region exceeds 10^4 . The H₂ knots in the outer (halo) region are less distinct and further apart.

The presence of radially-directed spike features in the H₂ halo indicates that direct irradiation by UV photons, leaking through less dense gas between the inner ring system’s H₂ knots, are most likely responsible for the excitation of the IR H₂ lines in the extended halo, although shock excitation cannot be

completely ruled out (see [29] and references therein). The relative lack of H₂ halo emission to the East-Northeast and West-Southwest of the central star then indicates a general lack of central star UV illumination, as opposed to lack of halo molecular mass in those directions (see Discussion). Measurements of the extinction of background nebulosity through representative knots suggests typical knot densities of $\sim 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and masses of $\sim 10^{-5} M_{\odot}$ (see Densities, masses and excitation of the H₂ knots), suggesting a total H₂ mass of $\sim 0.1 M_{\odot}$ in the central ring region.

The system of (broken) concentric arcs revealed in the H₂ halo by the JWST images is similar to those observed in the extended, dusty envelopes of many AGB stars, proto-PNe and PNe (e.g., [3, 30, 31]). A widely accepted scenario to explain the formation of such arc systems is the modulation of an AGB wind by a stellar or substellar companion, creating 3D spiral-like patterns along the orbital plane [see 1, 32–35, and references therein]. The average angular distance between the arc structures, 2 arcsec, implies an orbital period of 290-480 years and an orbital separation of 40-60 au between the central star and the companion that shapes the mass loss. Here, we have assumed a companion mass of $0.2 M_{\odot}$, the highest mass main-sequence star that could hide in the present-day central star’s glare yet still form a visible arc system (other parameters are an expansion velocity in the range 15-25 km s⁻¹ [31] and an assumed late-AGB central star mass of $\sim 0.8 M_{\odot}$; likely still $0.1\text{-}0.2 M_{\odot}$ larger than the post-AGB mass). The bright A2 V visual companion seen at ~ 1300 au projected separation from the central star cannot be responsible, suggesting (at least) a triple system in a stable configuration.

The dusty central star

In the MIRI images obtained at wavelengths longer than 10 μm , the faint central star appears as bright or brighter than its A2 V main sequence visual companion [36]; see Figure 2. This infrared excess was undetectable in the mid-infrared at lower spatial resolution (e.g., in WISE images [37]) because of the surrounding bright nebulosity. The JWST-discovered IR excess indicates that a considerable amount of warm dust is present around the ultra-hot (~ 110 kK) PN central star. The thermal infrared source appears marginally extended in the 11.3 and 12.8 μm MIRI images with an apparent size of ~ 300 au (FWHM) at 12.8 μm (see PSF measurements of the central star).

The bottom panel of Figure 2 displays the central star’s near-IR to mid-IR spectral energy distribution fitted by a combination of a hot stellar photosphere represented by a blackbody curve and two curves to fit the infrared data points. The two curves are generated with a model that follows closely that of [38] for the Helix nebula. A number of 100 μm grains are taken as blackbody spheres with temperatures set by absorption and re-emittance of the stellar luminosity ($200 L_{\odot}$; a correction factor is then applied to simulate a grain size distribution between 60 and 1000 μm , as done by [38]). The temperature varies as $d^{0.5}$, where d is the distance to the star. The surface density of the disk is taken as constant. The resulting blackbody radiation is calculated at each radius, and

the emission is summed over all radii. A better model will require radiative transfer, actual dust emissivities, a range of grains sizes, and for the silicate feature, the inclination of the disk. This will be explored in a future paper.

The best-fit model disk has an inner radius of 55 au and outer radius 140 au, and a dust mass of 3×10^{26} g or $2 \times 10^{-7} M_{\odot}$ (approximately 0.05 Earth masses). The dust temperature range (inner to outer radius) is 130 to 80 K. The outer radius of 140 au, though poorly constrained, is consistent with the deconvolved half-width of the marginally extended mid-IR source. These dimensions resemble those inferred for the disk orbiting the central star of the Helix (35–150 au; [38]), but the dust mass is somewhat smaller (cfr. 0.13 earth masses). The outer radius could be slightly larger, if the 18 μm flux is underestimated because of detector saturation. An additional inner, hotter disk — with radius between 3 and 8 au, a temperature between 550 to 335 K (inside to outside) and a very small mass of 2×10^{22} g (approximately 0.02 times the mass of Ceres) — is needed to fit the 3.5 and 7 μm fluxes. While this model does not constrain the geometry of the distribution to be that of a disk, the reasoning behind a disk structure is based on a physical reasoning whereby only a rotating Keplerian disk can be shown to be stable and relatively long-lived, while other structures, such as shells, are easily shown to be unstable [39].

The A2 V companion is slightly evolved [36] and has a mass of $M_{A2V} = 2.40 \pm 0.15 M_{\odot}$, using the PARSEC isochrones. Its visual companion, the PN central star, must have descended from a more massive star, as it has evolved faster. Extrapolating the same PARSEC isochrone gives an initial main sequence mass for the central star of $M_i = 2.86 \pm 0.06 M_{\odot}$. This is potentially the most precise initial mass for any PN central star or white dwarf yet determined. We estimate the error to be 0.16 M_{\odot} if we add systematic effects between different isochrone models (see Central star system’s masses).

The current (near-final) mass of a PN central star descended from such a $\sim 2.9 M_{\odot}$ progenitor is predicted to be $M_f \sim 0.66 \pm 0.05 M_{\odot}$ based on initial-final mass relations [40], albeit with larger systematic uncertainties that are dependent on details of the mass loss process adopted by the models. It is noteworthy that photoionisation models of the nebula require a cooler, dimmer and overall less massive central star ($0.58 \pm 0.03 M_{\odot}$) than what we have found.

We find that we can reconcile the mass of the star today and that of the photoionisation model, while also matching the nebular abundances and the nebular age, if we assume that the AGB evolution of a 2.86 M_{\odot} star, was interrupted by a binary interaction that ejected the envelope. We conjecture that the AGB evolution was interrupted at a core mass of 0.61 M_{\odot} , because for larger values, the C/O ratio of the stellar envelope gas would increase above unity (counter to the observation of crystalline silicate grains). At larger masses the N/O ratio would also increase above the observed value of 0.42.

Discussion

The first striking discovery of JWST is the presence of the dusty disk around the ultra-hot central star. This indicates that JWST can accurately detect dusty disks lighter than Ceres, as far as ~ 700 pc away. For our PN, the presence of such a disk orbiting the PN central star favours a close binary interaction, where the companion either merged with the primary star, or is still in orbit but is undetected (mass $< 0.2 M_{\odot}$; based on an unresolved or barely resolved, equal-brightness companion); in either case, the companion has donated a substantial fraction of its angular momentum to the gas [41, 42]. Observationally, such disks around PN central stars, though rare, appear to be by and large associated with known or strongly suspected binarity [39] and may be related to circumbinary disks detected around other classes of post-AGB binary stars [43].

An interacting binary scenario is reinforced by the shape of the ionised cavity, which represents the inner, most recent mass-loss phase, when the already hot central star emitted a fast, tenuous wind. Pairing the JWST images with spatially resolved spectroscopy we constructed a 3D visualisation of this cavity (see Morpho-kinematic modelling in Supplementary Material). In Figure 3 we show that this inner cavity is inferred to be an expanding prolate ellipsoid with its long axis tilted at approximately 30 deg to the line of sight. Its surface is not smooth and presents instead a number of protuberances, most of which can be paired via axes passing through, or very near the central star. Prolate cavities such as these, with misaligned structures, are common in PN and are likely sculpted by jets from interacting binaries in the earlier, pre-PN phase of the nebula [44], with additional details added during the interaction between the AGB wind and post-AGB fast wind and via the process of PN ionisation.

The numerous protuberances clearly evident in the 3D reconstruction could arise from ionised gas breaking out of the inner cavity through an uneven outer shell. The apparent pairing between these protuberances may argue instead for the presence of intermittent and toppling jets [45]. To generate jets over such a wide range of axes, an interacting binary is not enough, and one would have to conjecture that the central star is or was a member of not just a close binary, but of an interacting *triple* system [46]. Recent studies of interactions in triple systems [47, 48] also argue for the possibility of interactions yielding complex ejecta.

Outside the ionised ellipsoid, one encounters material ejected earlier in the star's history. The AGB mass loss, at rates of up to $\sim 10^{-5} M_{\odot} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and speeds of $\sim 10 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ over a $\sim 10^5$ yr timescale [49], generates an enormous, expanding envelope of molecular gas and dust. The H_2 halo imaged by JWST constitutes the most recently ejected (inner) region of this AGB envelope. The spikes observed in the halo (Figure 1, right panel) show that the inner cavity is very porous, though less so near the minor axis where the cavity edges are brightest, densest, and least fractured.

The JWST images motivated 2D hydrodynamic simulations to replicate these flocculent structures. In Figure 4 we see two time snapshots towards the

end of a simulation where an inner, faster wind from the heating central star and its ionising radiation, plough into the dense AGB (halo) material (see Methods, Section 66). The fragmentation that happens at the interface of the swept-up material also creates the variable opacity needed to shield some of the wind material from ionising radiation, which then quickly recombines and allows the formation of molecules. Non ionising radiation leaks more readily because the opacity above 913 Å is lower. These photons produce fluorescence of H₂.

In Figure 4 we see two time snapshots towards the end of the simulation. In the first panel we see a set of approximately radial spikes, but 200 years later those straight and thin spikes evolve to thicker and sometimes curved ones. In the right column of Figure 4 two different parts of the nebula exhibit thinner and straighter spikes (top-right panel) or thicker, bent ones (bottom-right panel). Although the entire nebula was ejected and ionized over a short time interval, there can be a delay in the evolution of a given spike in a specific part of the nebula, related to the local opacity in the swept-up shell. Figure 4 suggests that differences of only ~ 200 years in the timescales of mass ejection and/or the progress of illumination along specific directions can explain the marked differences observed in the flocculent structure around the nebula.

The successful modelling of illumination percolating unevenly into the molecular halo (Figure 4) motivated a further geometric model of the halo, presented in Figure 5. This Figure compares the extended H₂ structures as imaged by JWST with a model consisting of two thick, concentric, unbroken but clumpy, shells of material that are illuminated by the central star through a porous ellipsoid representing the boundary of the ionised cavity, with reduced opacity in the polar regions. As a result of the uneven illumination the distribution of H₂ material appears fragmented and is generally brighter toward the polar regions (and suppressed along the equatorial plane) of the central ellipsoidal, ionised region. The distribution seen in the JWST H₂ images could be reproduced more closely by altering the opacity of the inner ellipsoid. Fly-through movies of the 3D reconstructions of both the inner ellipsoid (Figures 3) and the outer H₂ halo (Figure 5) can be found following the links.

The arches in the JWST images, are not smeared as is typical of those seen in projection [e.g., 50], but are instead sharp. This possibly indicates that these arches are on or near the plane of the sky, indicating that the orbit of the companion at ~ 40 -60 au is closely aligned to the waist of the inner ellipsoid. This companion cannot partake in the formation of the disk around the central star, though it may play a secondary role in the shaping of other PN structures. It is also unlikely to have launched strong jets because at such distance the accretion rate would be very low. As such, this would be an additional companion to the inner binary (or triple), making it a tertiary (or quaternary) companion.

The visual A-type companion would then be a fourth (fifth) member of the group, an almost complete bystander from the point of view of interaction and shaping, but critically important for this study: Its well measured

mass, and slight evolved status, constrained the initial mass of the central star: $(2.86 \pm 0.06) M_{\odot}$.

To reconstruct the events that lead to the demise of the progenitor of NGC3132, the PN acts like a murder scene. The A-type companion, could not have partaken to the interaction that unravelled the AGB star, but was (and is) certainly present. A second companion at 40-60 au left an indelible trail of its presence in the form of arcs, but was not close enough to generate the dusty disk, nor shape the ionised cavity, implying that there must have been at least another accomplice. This points the finger at a close-by companion, that is either avoiding detection, or has perished in the interaction (merged). If the numerous protuberances seen in the ionised cavity come in pairs, then tumbling jet axes would be needed and this would point the finger to the presence of a *second*, close companion [47, 48], which would make the system a quintet. Even ignoring the putative second, close companion, we can state with good degree of certainty that the system is at least a quartet. Systems of four or five stars orbiting within a few $\times 1,000$ au are not impossibly rare for primary stars in the progenitor mass range of interest here [e.g., HD 104237; 51]; indeed, present estimates indicate that 50% or more of stars of 2-3 M_{\odot} are in multiple systems, and of order 2% of A-type stars have four companions [52].

JWST is at the starting gate of its promise as an astrophysical pathfinder. With complementary radio, interferometric and time resolved observations, it can find the temporal signatures of active convective mass ejection from the surfaces of AGB stars and the subsequent gravitational influence of companion stars in dynamically- and thermally-complex outflows. Thus JWST offers the potential to intimately connect the histories of PNe and the role of close stellar companions to studies of chemical evolution, nebular shaping and binary interactions for the next century.

Methods

Properties and distance of NGC 3132

The inner, ionised cavity of NGC 3132 is elliptical in shape, with a major axis of ~ 40 arcsec (0.15 pc) and an electron density of $n \sim 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The ionization structure and abundances were the subject of a recent study by [53]. The nebula is also known to be molecule-rich [20]; it is among the brightest PNe in near-IR H_2 emission [21, 54].

A bright A2 V star is found near the centre of the PN, but is too cool to be the ionizing star; the actual PN progenitor is much fainter and is located ~ 1.7 arcsec to the South-West of the A star [55, 56]. The A2 V star has the same radial velocity and extinction as the PN, and its proper motion ($\mu_{\alpha} = -7.747$ mas/yr $\sigma_{\mu_{\alpha}} = 0.026$; and $\mu_{\delta} = -0.125$ mas/yr $\sigma_{\mu_{\delta}} = 0.031$) agrees with that of the central star ($\mu_{\alpha} = -7.677$ mas/yr $\sigma_{\mu_{\alpha}} = 0.235$; and $\mu_{\delta} = 0.197$ mas/yr $\sigma_{\mu_{\delta}} = 0.275$), demonstrating that the PN progenitor and A-type companion constitute a comoving visual binary. The distance to NGC 3132 is obtained

from Gaia DR3 measurements of this visual binary. No Gaia DR3 radial velocity is available for the optically faint central star (the PN progenitor). However, the brighter (A-type) visual companion and the PN have the same radial velocity: (-11.4 ± 1.6) km s⁻¹ for the A star from Gaia, and (-10 ± 3) km s⁻¹ for the PN from [57]. The A star and PN central star also have compatible Gaia DR3 proper motions (within 1.5σ).

The brighter, A-type star has a Gaia DR3 geometric distance (median of geometric distance posterior) of 754 pc, with lower and upper 1σ -like confidence intervals (16th and 87th percentiles of the posterior) of 18 pc and 15 pc respectively [58]. The fainter central star has a Gaia DR3 geometric distance of 2124.7 pc, with lower and upper 1σ -like bars of 559.1 pc, and 1464.5 pc. The quality flags of the astrometric solution for this star are not optimal, most likely due to the vicinity of the much brighter A-star; in particular, the goodness-of-fit along the scan is 16.9, while it should be close to unity. We therefore adopt the Gaia DR3 distance to the central star's visual A-type companion, 754_{-18}^{+15} pc, as the distance to the PN.

Densities, masses and excitation of the H₂ knots

The clumpiness of NGC 3132 in H₂ emission links this nebula to other molecule-rich PNe, such as the Helix Nebula (NGC 7293, [59–62]), Ring Nebula (NGC 6720, [63]), and the hourglass-shaped (bipolar) nebula NGC 2346 [64], in which the molecular emission seems to be associated with dense knots that are embedded in or surround the ionised gas. The origin of such H₂ knots in PNe — as overdensities in the former AGB wind, vs. formation *in situ* following recombination of H, as the central star enters the cooling track — remains an open question [65]. In contrast to the Helix Nebula, there is little evidence for cometary tails emanating from the knots in the inner regions of NGC 3132. However, NGC 3132's system of approximately radially-directed H₂ spikes external to the main H₂-bright ring system has close analogues in, e.g., the Ring and Dumbbell Nebulae [21, 63].

Some H₂ knots in NGC 3132 are seen in absorption against the bright background nebular emission. This extinction is apparent not only in optical (HST) images but also, surprisingly, even in the JWST NIRCam near-infrared images (see Supplementary Figure 4). We measured the extinction at $1.87 \mu\text{m}$ for two knots seen in absorption against the (Pa α) nebula background: the largest knot on the west side (coordinates 10:07:00.4, $-40:26:08.8$), and one of the darkest on the east side (10:07:02.5, $-40:26:00.3$). The diameters of these knots are ~ 0.36 arcsec and ~ 0.15 arcsec, while their extinction is ~ 0.57 mag and ~ 0.25 mag (at $1.87 \mu\text{m}$), respectively; using the dust extinction law $A(\lambda)/A(V)$ from [66], the corresponding values of $A(V)$ are 3.9 and 1.7 mag assuming $R_V = 3.1$. We then estimate the hydrogen column densities $N(\text{H})$ from these extinction measurements, and convert to the hydrogen density $n(\text{H})$ of the knot by assuming that the knot diameters are roughly equivalent to their depths along the line of sight. Using the conversion between $A(V)$ and $N(\text{H})$ from [67], where H is the combination of H⁰, H⁺ and H₂, the estimated column densities

are $N(\text{H}) = 7.3 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and $N(\text{H}) = 3.2 \times 10^{21} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, respectively. For the adopted distance of 754 pc, the estimated densities are $n(\text{H}) \sim 2 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for both knots. These densities suggest knot masses of $10^{-5} M_{\odot}$, similar to the typical knot (“globule”) masses found in the Helix Nebula [68].

The critical density of excitation of the $2.12 \mu\text{m H}_2$ 1–0 S(1) line at a kinetic temperature of 2000 K is $9 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ [69], if the collision partner is H. The critical density is higher for the 1–0 S(1) line than for the 0–0 S(9) $4.69 \mu\text{m H}_2$ line [$6 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$; 69, 70]. Hence, the excitation of H_2 should be nearly thermal if the gas temperature is sufficiently high, with the caveat that both critical densities are higher if the primary collision partner is H_2 rather than H.

PSF measurements of the central star

To ascertain whether the mid-IR source associated with the PN central star is extended, we measured the JWST instrumental point spread function (PSF), using Gaussian fitting of field stars. We measured Gaussian FWHMs of 0.29, 0.40, 0.44 and 0.58 arcsec at 7.7, 11.3, 12.8 and 18 μm , respectively. We also measured two compact, slightly resolved galaxies in the field.

We then repeated the procedure for the central star. No fit was possible at 18 μm , due to saturation (see Supplementary Figure 5). At 7.7 μm the central star is on the edge of the diffraction spike of the A star, and only an upper limit on FWHM could be obtained. However, measurements of the PN central star image in the 11.3 and 12.8 μm filters gave consistent results, with measured FWHMs of 0.55 and 0.60 arcsec, significantly larger than the respective PSFs and comparable to the two field galaxies. Gaussian deconvolution using the PSF yields deconvolved FWHM values for the central star of ≤ 0.3 (≤ 230 au) at 7 μm , and 0.4 arcsec (300 au) at 11.3 and 12.8 μm . The extent of the central star at 18 μm is 0.9 arcsec in diameter (see Supplementary Figures 5 and 7).

Central star system’s masses

We determined the mass of the A-star companion using version 1.2 of the PARSEC isochrones [71] for solar metallicity, taken as $Z = 0.0152$. We used $M_{\text{bol},0} = (0.34 \pm 0.25)$ mag and the GAIA DR3 spectroscopic temperature $T_{\text{eff}} = (9200 \pm 200)$ K, where the errors are conservative. The star is confirmed to be beginning to turn off the main sequence, in a phase where the luminosity of $(57 \pm 15) L_{\odot}$ increases by 0.1% per Myr and the temperature decreases by 7 K per Myr (see Supplementary Figure 6). The isochrones yield an age of $(5.3 \pm 0.3) \times 10^8$ yr and a mass of $M_{\text{A}2\text{V}} = (2.40 \pm 0.15) M_{\odot}$. The central star of the PN is evolving on the same isochrone, but from a more massive star as it has evolved further. We use the same isochrones to determine the initial mass of a star on the thermal-pulsing AGB, the phase where the central star ejected the envelope. This gives an initial mass for the central star of $M_{\text{i}} = (2.86 \pm 0.06) M_{\odot}$. We have carried out the same isochrone fitting using an alternative stellar evolutionary model (the DARTMOUTH code; [72]). Both

the A2V star mass and the mass of the progenitor of the central star decrease by $0.15 M_{\odot}$.

The final, CS, mass for such a star is $0.66 M_{\odot}$. However, we have shown that such a star would show a high C/O \sim 2, while the presence of silicate features in the Spitzer spectrum indicate that C/O \sim 1. To reconcile the mass and the abundances we conjecture that the evolution was interrupted by the binary interaction that formed the disk, when the core mass was $0.61 M_{\odot}$. With such a mass the evolutionary time to the current position on the HR diagram is in better agreement with the age of the nebula. This mass is also in better agreement with that derived from the photoionisation model (0.58 ± 0.03) M_{\odot} .

Photoionisation modelling

The stratified ionisation and excitation structure of NGC 3132 is evident in Fig. 1, wherein the bright rim of ionized gas, as traced by [S III] and Br α emission, lies nestled inside the peak H $_2$ emission. However, significant ionised hydrogen and high-excitation plasma — traced by [Ne II] and [S III] emission in the MIRI F1280W and F1800W filter images, respectively — is observed beyond the bright inner, elliptical ring.

We constructed a three-dimensional photoionisation model using the code Mocassin [73]. To constrain the model we used the Multi Unit Spectroscopic Explorer (MUSE) emission line maps and absolute H β flux of [74], the optical integrated line fluxes from [75], the IR line fluxes from [76], as well as the velocity-position data obtained from the high-resolution scanning Fabry-Perot interferometer, SAM-FP, mounted on the SOAR telescope adaptive module. The observations were taken under photometric conditions. The seeing during the observations was 0.7 arcsec for the [N II] observations to 0.9 arcsec for the H α one. The FWHM of a Ne calibration lamp lines was 0.586 \AA or 26.8 km s^{-1} , which corresponds to a spectral resolution of about 11 200 at H α .

We determined the density structure by fitting the emission line maps to the SAM-FP images of [N II] $\lambda 6584$ and H α , using a distance of 754 kpc. The model adopts as free parameters the temperature and luminosity of the ionising source, and the elemental abundance of the gas component (assumed constant throughout the nebula); we assumed that no dust is mixed in the gas. For the ionising source we use the NLTE model atmospheres of central stars of planetary nebulae from [77].

We find that a model invoking an unobscured central star with effective temperature $T_{\text{eff}} = 110 \text{ kK}$ and luminosity $L = 200 L_{\odot}$ well matches the observational data. However, we find that the present-day central star mass implied by the comparison, between these stellar parameters and the evolutionary tracks of [40] ($0.58 \pm 0.03 M_{\odot}$) is inconsistent with the (large) initial mass inferred from consideration of the presence of the comoving, wide-separation A-type companion ($0.66 M_{\odot}$; see Central star system's masses). Furthermore, the tracks of [40] indicate that, for this mass, we would have a post-AGB age of 20 000 yrs, whereas the position-velocity data from the SAM-FP instrument

yield an expansion velocity of 25-35 km s⁻¹ implying a much shorter and inconsistent nebular dynamical age in the range 2200–5700 yrs.

The C/O and N/O abundances of the nebula, as well as the crystalline silicate nature of the dust in the PN, indicate that this object has not undergone hot bottom burning *and* that it has not undergone sufficient dredge up to have increased the C/O ratio above unity. By the time the 2.86-M_⊙ star reaches the tip of the AGB its C/O ratio is approximately 2. It therefore seems that the mass implied by the initial-to-final mass relation using a main sequence mass of 2.86 M_⊙, is too high. We have two ways to resolve this inconsistency (which may both be operating). The central star is shielded by dust in the circumstellar disk making it appear, to the PN, as a cooler star, and/or the central star mass is actually smaller than 0.66 M_⊙, because the AGB evolution was interrupted by a binary interaction.

If the stellar ascent of the AGB was interrupted, we can determine the upper limit for a mass that would produce a nebula with C/O1 and N/O~0.4. This is 0.61 M_⊙. The time for a star of this mass to move from the AGB to the location on the HR diagram with an approximate temperature and luminosity (110kK, 200 L_⊙) as measured above is ~10 000 yrs. The time-scale of the transition from AGB to post-AGB and PN is tightly connected with the rate at which the envelope is consumed: the results obtained are therefore sensitive to the mass-loss description. The time of 10 000 yr, is based on the classic mass loss rates dictated by Reimers or Blocker [78]. This estimate must be considered as an upper limit of the duration of this phase; indeed the recent works on the AGB to post-AGB transition by [79] and [80] showed that to reproduce the infrared excess of post-AGB stars in the Galaxy and in the Magellanic Clouds one has to invoke significantly higher mass-loss rates than those based on the aforementioned formulations, something that would reduce the time-scales by a factor of ~5. The timescale of 10 000 yrs is therefore easily reconciled with the observed timescale of 2200-5700 yrs implied by the nebula.

Hydrodynamic modelling

The hydrodynamic simulation used to interpret the fragmentation and radial spikes is a 2-dimensional hydrodynamic simulation using the magneto-hydrodynamic code ZEUS-3D. The computational grid is in spherical coordinates and consists of 800 × 800 equidistant zones in r and θ respectively, with an angular extent of 90°. The wind and UV luminosity inputs correspond to a stellar post-AGB model with 0.677 M_⊙ which evolves from an initial 2.5 M_⊙ main sequence star [81].

At simulation time 0 yr the star has $T_{\text{eff}} = 10\,000$ K and the AGB wind ($v = 10$ km s⁻¹, $\dot{M} = 10^{-6}$ M_⊙ yr⁻¹) has a homogeneous distribution outside of the pre-PN. The pre-PN has had 1000 yr of evolution prior to this moment, during which time a wide magnetic jet operated with a velocity $v = 230$ km s⁻¹, and a mass-loss rate $\dot{M} = 1.3 \times 10^{-7}$ M_⊙ yr⁻¹; this simulation is taken from Model C6 in [82]. At this time the star starts emitting a fast tenuous wind with a velocity v from 240 to 14 000 km s⁻¹ and a mass-loss rate, \dot{M} ranging

from 1.06×10^{-7} to $1.13 \times 10^{-10} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ over 4000 yrs that sweeps up the AGB wind material. At the same time (0 yr) the ionisation front propagates into the medium.

Data availability

HST data are available at *HST* Legacy Archive (<https://hla.stsci.edu>). JWST data were obtained from the Mikulski Archive for Space Telescopes at the Space Telescope Science Institute (<https://archive.stsci.edu/>). MUSE data were collected at the European Organisation for Astronomical Research in the Southern Hemisphere, Chile (ESO Programme 60.A-9100), presented by Monreal-Ibero et al. (2020) are available at the ESO Archive (<http://archive.eso.org>). San Pedro de Martir data is available at <http://kincatpn.astrosen.unam.mx>.

Code availability

The code MOCASSIN is available at the following URL: <https://mocassin.nebulousresearch.org/>. ZEUS3-D is available at the Laboratory for Computational Astrophysics [83]. The compiled version of *Shape* is available at <http://www.astrosen.unam.mx/shape>.

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Author contribution

The following authors have contributed majorly to multiple aspects of the work that lead to this paper, the writing and the formatting of figures: Odm (writing, structure, interpretation, synthesis), IA (H₂ interpretation), BBa (processing and interpreting images), GGS (2D hydro modelling), JHK (writing, H₂ measurements and interpretation), MM (imaging, photometry, H₂ interpretation), BM (stellar photometry), SSM (hydrodynamics of binaries), AMI (MUSE data analysis), HM (photoionisation and morpho-kinematic models), PMB (JWST image production), CM (photoionisation modelling), RS (disk model, comparative interpretation), NS (hydro modelling, interpretation), LSt (distances, abundance interpretation), WS (morpho-kinematic models), JRW (spatially resolved spectroscopy), AAZ (disk model, H₂ measurements, writing, interpretation).

The following authors have contributed key expertise to aspects of this paper: MA (hydrodynamic modelling and jet interpretation), JA (CO observations), SA (H₂ interpretation), PA (space-resolved spectroscopy), EGB (hydrodynamics), JB (HST and radio images of fast evolving PN), BBu (*Gaia* data), VB (radio observations, disk observation and interpretation, comparative studies), YC (disk interpretation), JC (molecular formation), RLMC (final review, interpretation), DAGH (IR dust/PAH features and abundances), JGR (photoionisation modelling), VGL (photoionisation modelling), DRG (comparative analysis), MAG (Xray imaging), DJ (close binaries), AIK (final review, stellar nucleosynthesis), AM (nebular morphology, H₂ interpretation),

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The following authors contributed by commenting on some aspects of the analysis and manuscript: EdB, HMJB, PB, NC, AF, SK, FL, JN, CMdO, BCQ, GQL, MR, EV, WV, RW, HVW.

Competing interest statement

We declare that no conflict of interest exists between any of the authors and the content and production of this paper.

Figures

Fig. 1 JWST images of the PN NGC 3132. Left column, top and bottom: color overlays of JWST NIRCam and MIRI images that clearly distinguish between the PN’s ionized gas (i.e., H II region; top panel) and molecular gas (as seen in H₂; bottom panel). Note the sharp contrast between the relatively smooth appearance of the H II region and the flocculent structure of the H₂ ring system and extended H₂ halo. These images are presented with square-root and log intensity stretches, respectively, from the background sky to peak intensity levels in each image. Right image: a grey-scale, single filter (F470N), zoomed-in NIRCam image that more readily displays details of the flocculent H₂ halo. North is towards the top, East is towards the left.

Fig. 2 The dusty central star of the PN NGC 3132. JWST NIRCam F187N (top left) and MIRI F1280W (top right) images of the central region of NGC 3132. The JWST MIRI images reveal the detection of a mid-IR excess at the nebula’s true (hot, compact) central star, which is seen projected $\sim 1.7''$ (~ 1300 au) SW of the main-sequence A-type companion (which is far brighter shortward of $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$). North up and East is to the left. Colour bars indicate surface brightness in log (MJy ster⁻¹). The bottom panel shows the near-IR to mid-IR spectral energy distribution of the central star of NGC 3132 overlaid with a model consisting of a combination of a hot blackbody spectrum representing the central star’s photosphere (blue line) and a dusty circumstellar double disk model to fit the NIR and MIR data points (red line, with the cooler disk as a dashed line). The wide companion, A star’s spectral energy distribution is shown as a dotted line. Vertical error bars are set at 10% of the flux values, while horizontal bars show the width of the bandpass.

Fig. 3 Morpho-kinematic reconstruction of the ionised cavity of PN NGC 3132. Emission in the [N II] line as seen from Earth (left image; North is towards the top and East is towards the left), a view from the East, which we call East-West view (middle image), and a view from the North which we call North-South view (right image). The colour-coding is for Doppler-shift as seen from Earth, with blue for material approaching the observer, red for receding gas and green for no velocity along the observer’s line of sight. We note the prominent green (zero Doppler shift) belt in the middle image, and the filament that wraps around the waist of the ellipsoid and which is red-shifted on one side and blue-shifted on the other. A fly-through movie of this model can be found as Supplementary Video 1 and also at this [link](#).

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Fig. 4 The physical interpretation of the flocculent H₂ structure. Left column: a hydrodynamic simulation showing the formation of nebular structures external to the main ionised region, compared with (right column) two quadrants of the JWST images of NGC 3132. Top row: the simulation snapshot at 3800 yr from the on-set of ionisation is compared with similar straight spikes in one region of the nebula (top right image North is to the left, East is towards the top) while, bottom row, at 4000 yr the spikes thicken and bend as is also seen in a different part of the nebula (North to the top, and East to the left). This demonstrates temporal evolution in different parts of the nebula.

Fig. 5 Approximate illumination model of the H₂ halo of PN NGC 3132. Left panel: the JWST colour composite image showing the H₂ extended structure. Right panel the projected *Shape* image after assuming two concentric, thick uninterrupted shells of material, illuminated by the central star, through a porous ellipsoid with reduced opacity in the polar regions. Fly through movie of this model can be found as Supplementary Video 2 and also at this [link](#).

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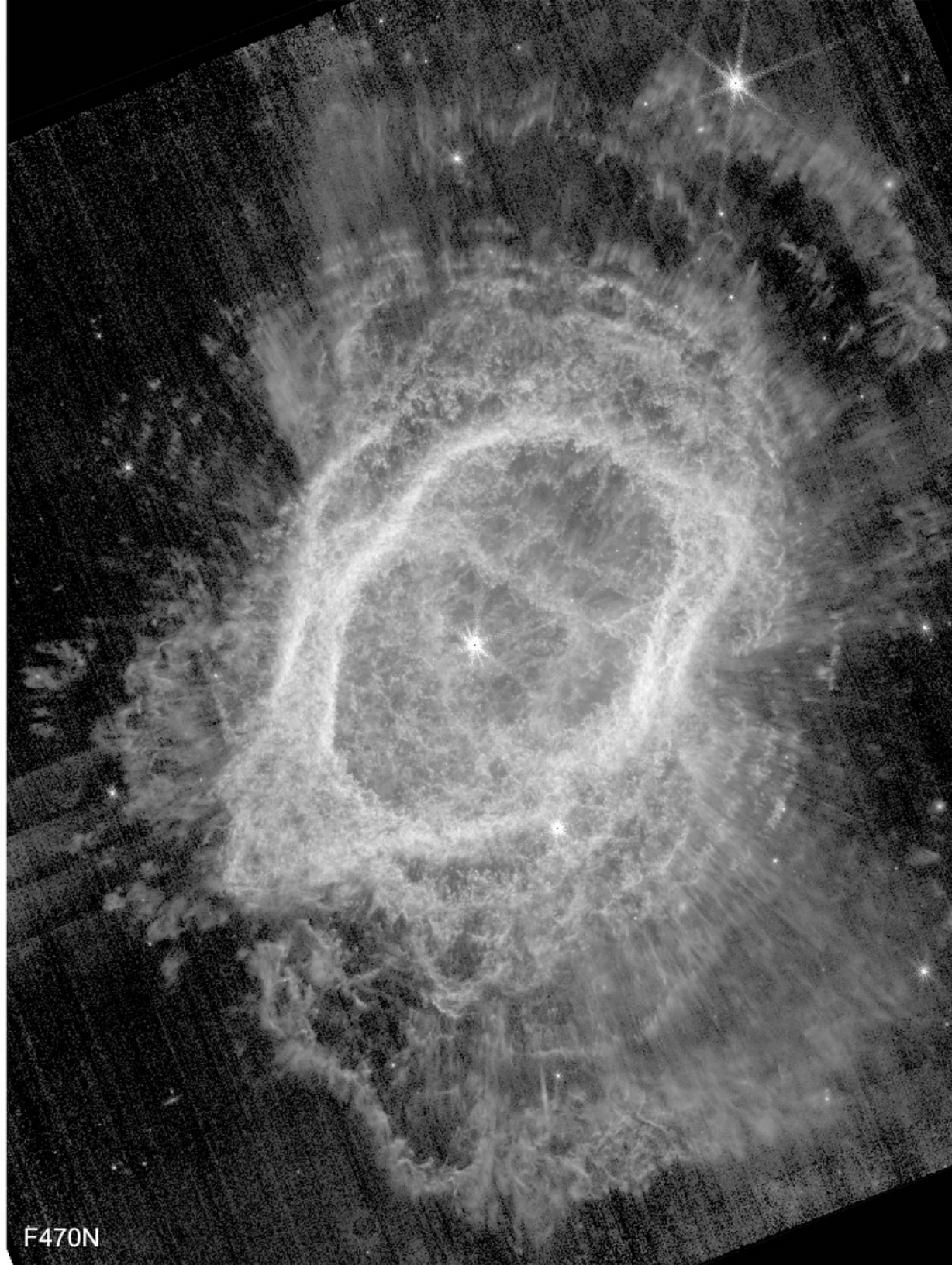
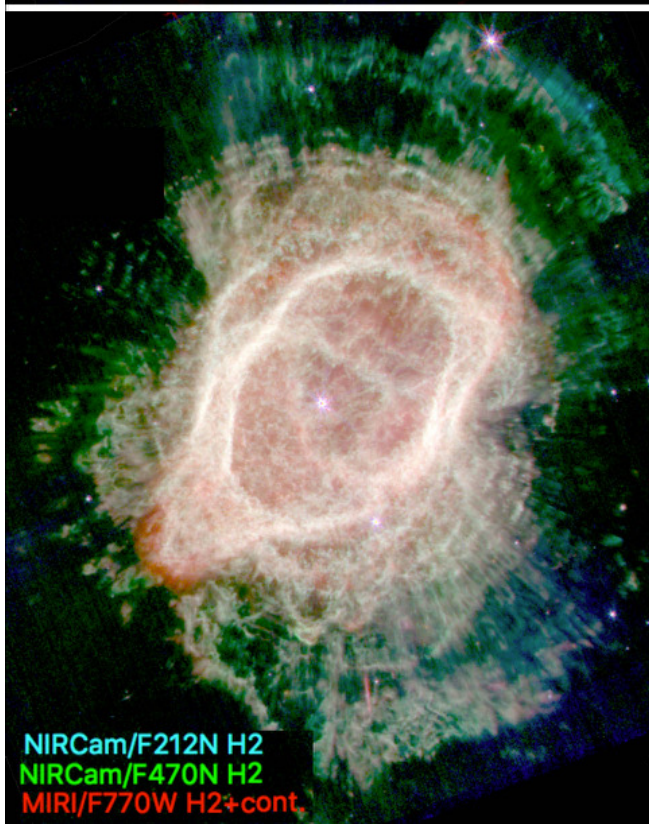
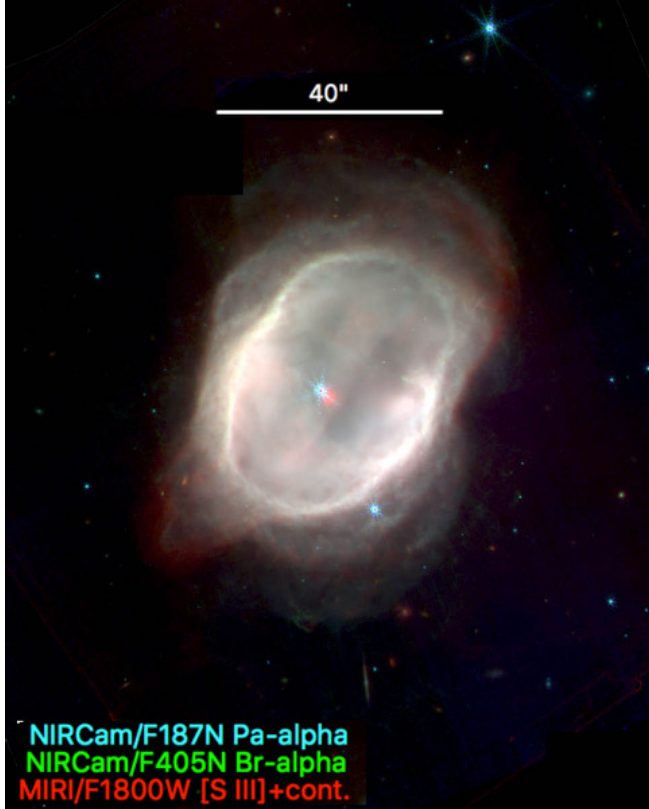
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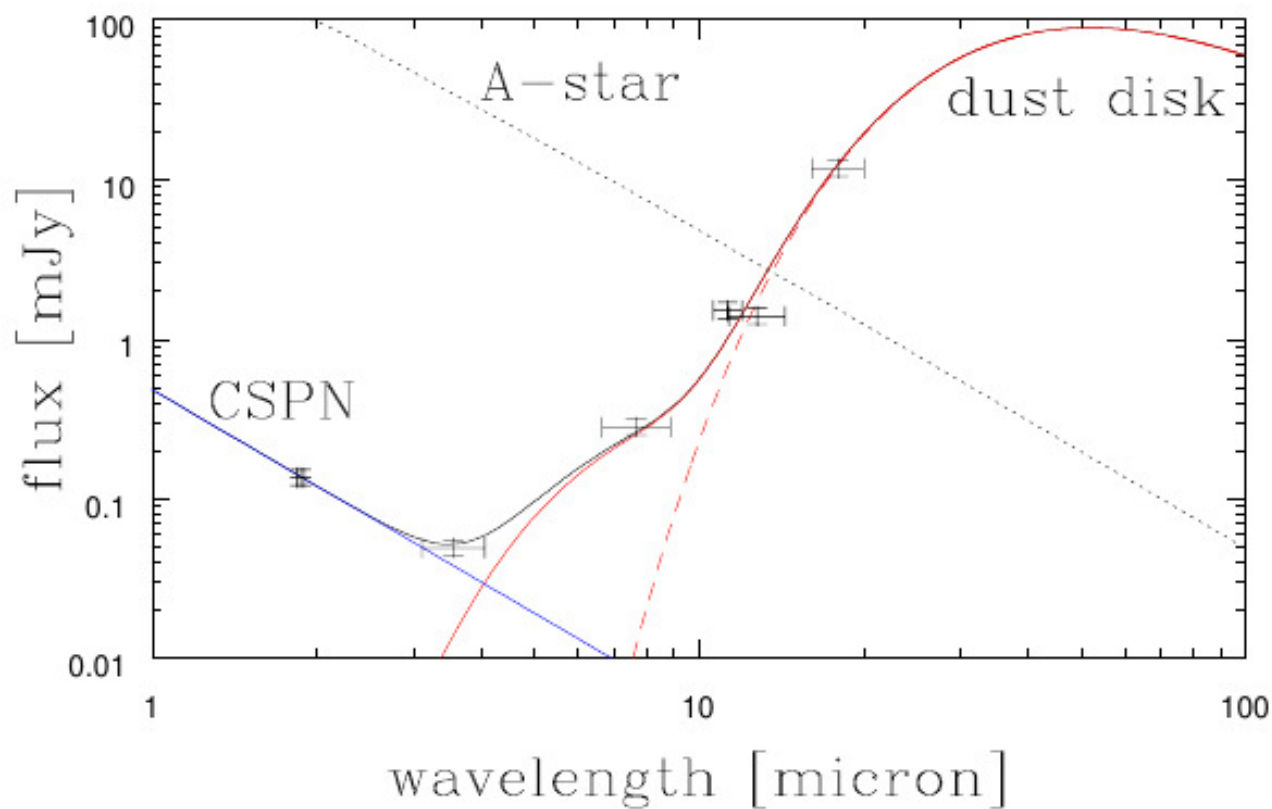
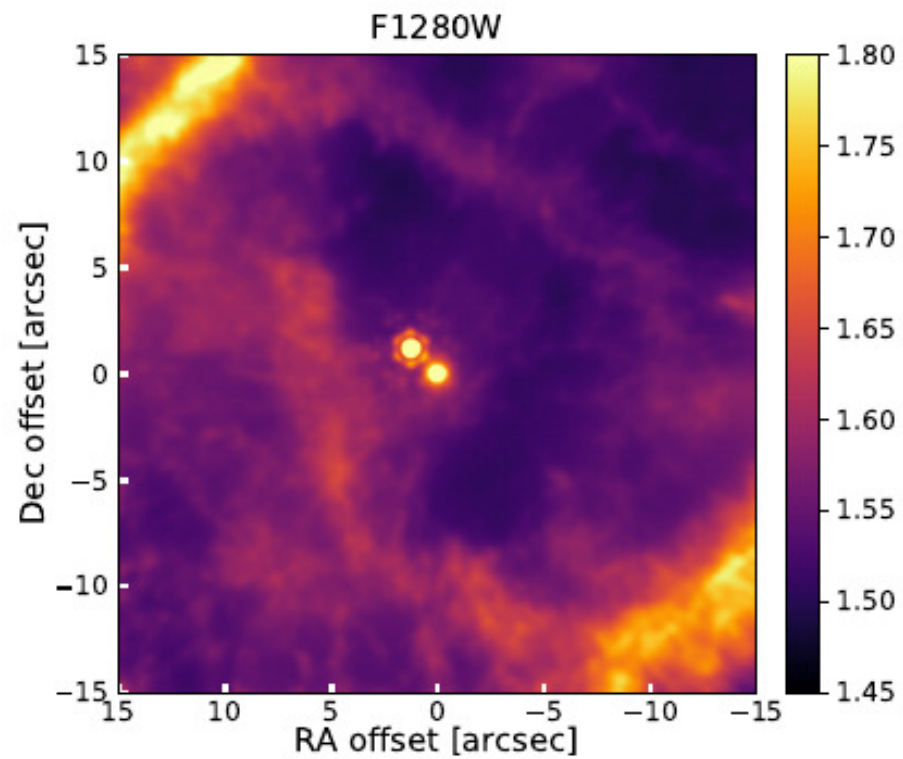
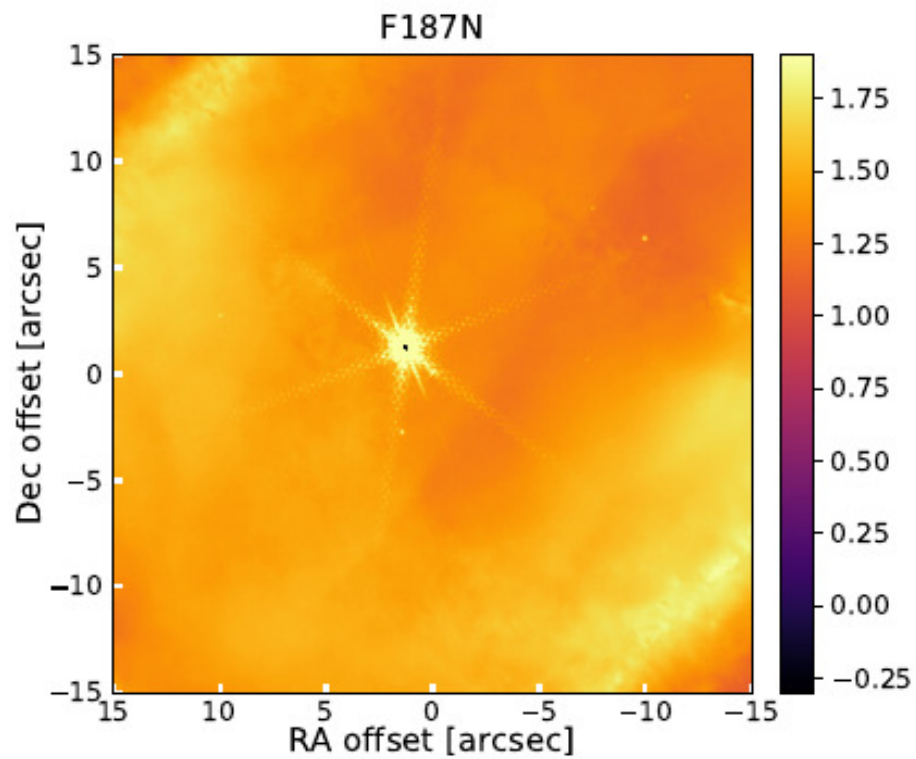
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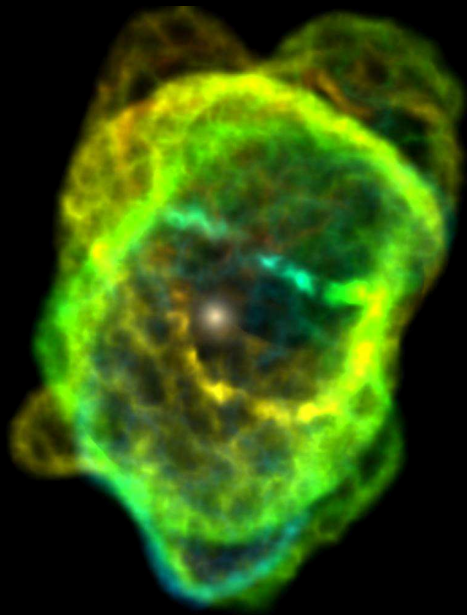
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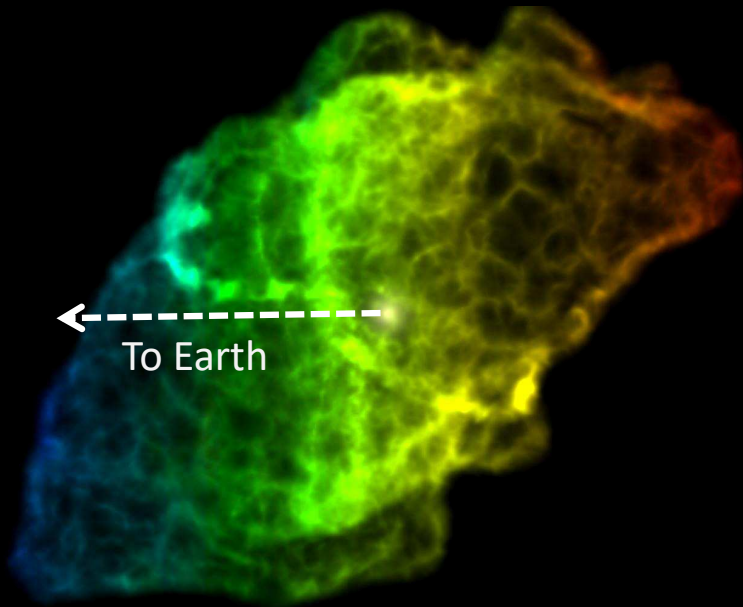
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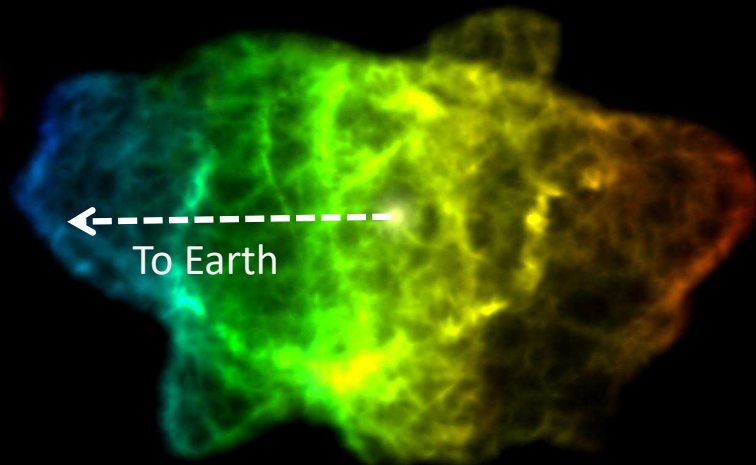




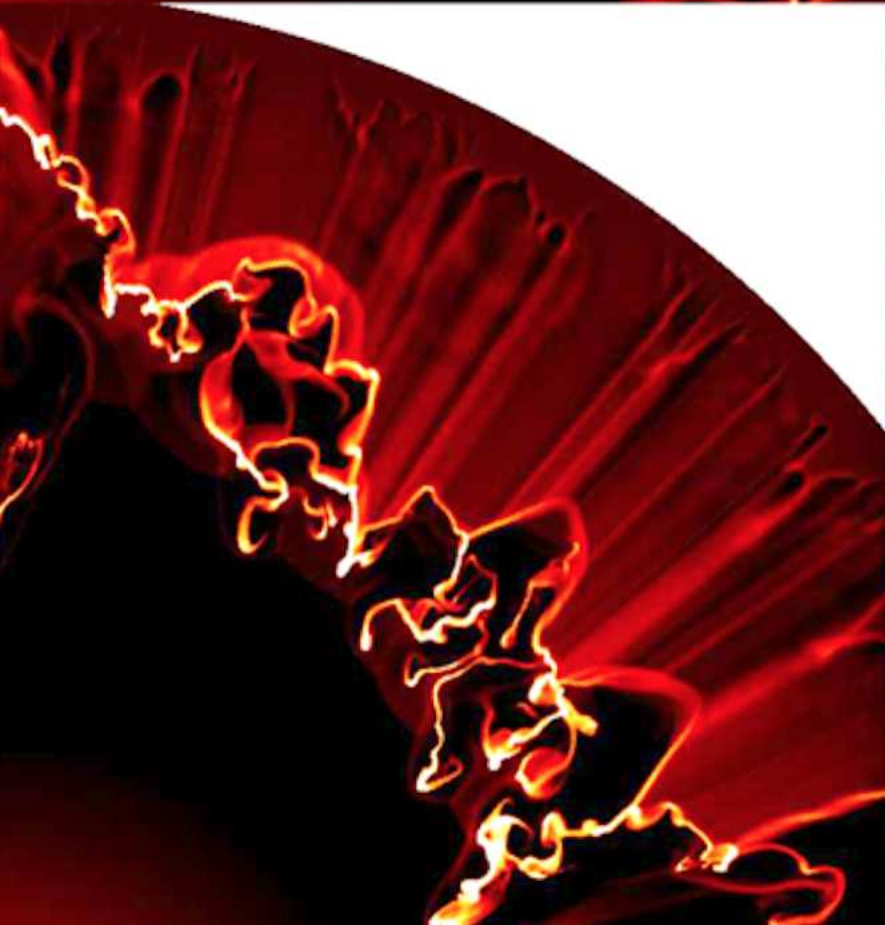
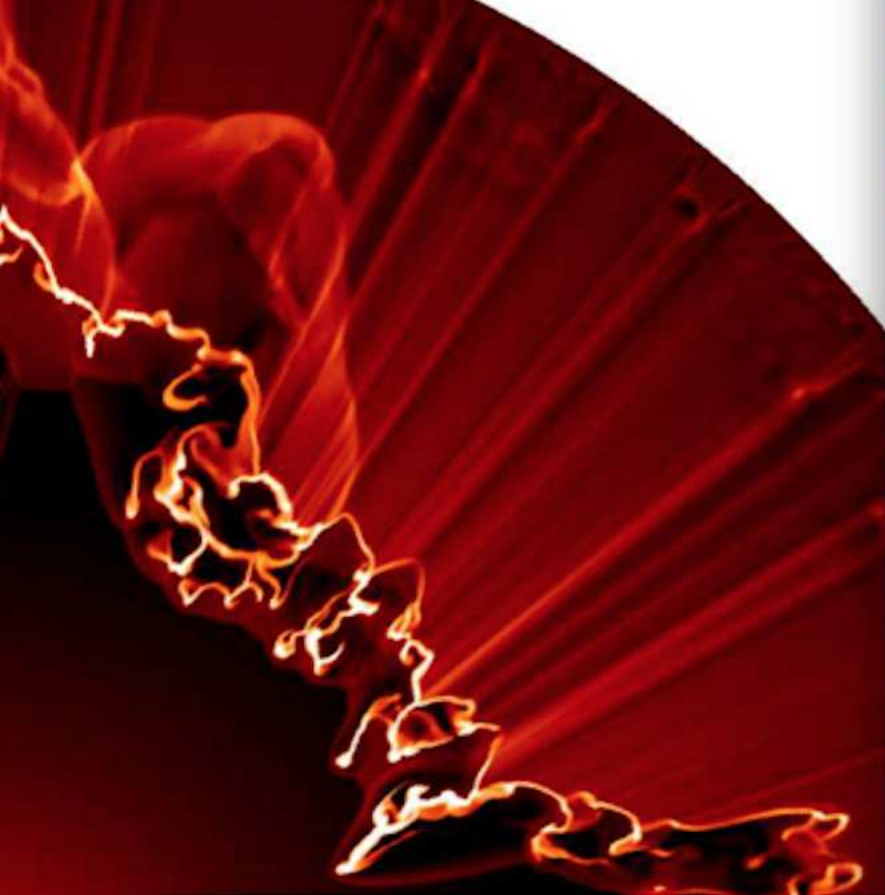
Earth view



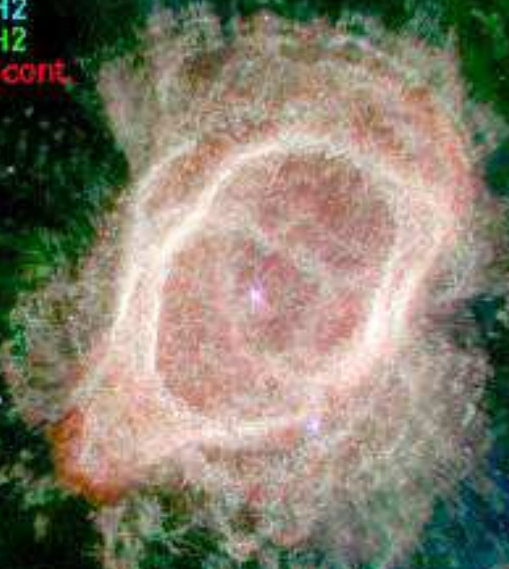
East-West view



North-South view



NIRCam/F212N H2
NIRCam/F470N H2
MIRI/F770W H2+cont.



40"

