

## Lecture

### Molecular cloud collapse II

Numerical Solution of Star Formation Equations

Theoretical and density evolution in 1D case

(1st and 2nd hydrostatic core)

○ Observational signature of infall

## Numerical Solution of Star Formation Equations

### Protostellar Collapse

(Continuity equation, Momentum equation,  
Poisson equation, Energy equation)

What are the problems: Scales, fragmentation, B loss

(1) Density needs to increase from molecular cloud density of  $10^4 - 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  $10^{24} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  as mean solar density: 20 orders of magnitude

(2) Central temperature needs to increase from  $10 \text{ K}$  to  $10^7 \text{ K}$  in order to start fusion

(3) Specific angular momentum needs to decrease

	$J/M \text{ (in } \text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1})$
Molecular clump	$10^{23}$
Binary ( $P \sim 10^4 \text{ yr}$ )	$4 \times 10^{20} - 10^{21}$
Binary ( $P \sim 10 \text{ yr}$ )	$4 \times 10^{19} - 10^{20}$
Binary ( $P \sim 3 \text{ yr}$ )	$4 \times 10^{18} - 10^{19}$
T Tauri star	$10^{17}$
Sun	$10^{15}$
Jupiter orbit	$10^{20}$

(4) Most of the stars are binaries or occur in higher-order hierarchical systems  
→ Fragmentation

(5) Magnetic flux loss necessary

Dense core:  $1 M_{\text{sun}}$   $R_c = 0.07 \text{ pc}$   $B_c = 30 \mu\text{G}$

T Tauri star:  $R_1 = 5 R_{\text{sun}}$

Flux freezing:  $BR^2 = \text{const.}$

$$\Rightarrow B_1 = 2 \cdot 10^7 \text{ G}$$

much larger than what is observed for T Tauri stars.

### Next step

Formulation of all equations with the necessary material equations and boundary and initial conditions

### A few remarks

#### Protostellar evolution from an unstable cloud core

- a) Dynamical collapse ( $t \approx t_{\text{ff}}$ )
- b) Accretion phase after formation of hydrostatic core (accretion from envelope)

Pre-main sequence evolution: Energy source  
quasistatic contraction of core.

#### Mathematical & physical problem

- a) Dynamical problem with dynamics on different scales
- b) Complex physics  $\rightarrow$  equations are non-linear
- c) Fragmentation must be treated (2D/3D)

(a) CONTINUITY EQUATION (1)

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} + \nabla (\rho \vec{v}) = 0$$

(b) MOMENTUM EQUATIONS (3)

$$\frac{\partial(\rho v_r)}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho v_r \vec{v}) = - \left( \rho \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\rho}{r} (v_\theta^2 + v_\phi^2)$$

$$\frac{\partial(\rho v_\theta)}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho v_\theta \vec{v}) = - \frac{1}{r} \left( \rho \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} \right) - \frac{\rho}{r} (v_r v_\theta - v_\phi^2 \cot \theta)$$

$$\frac{\partial(\rho A)}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho A \vec{v}) = - \left( \rho \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial \phi} \right)$$

$A = r \sin \theta v_\phi$  (specific angular momentum)

(c) POISSON'S EQUATION (1)

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = 4 \pi G \rho$$

(e) ENERGY EQUATION (1)

$$\frac{\partial(\rho e)}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho e \vec{v}) + p \nabla \vec{v} = L$$

$L = 4 \pi \rho \kappa (J - B)$  : time rate of change of energy per unit volume due to radiative transfer

(f) RADIATION EQUILIBRIUM (1)

$$\nabla \vec{H} + \rho \kappa (J - B(T)) = 0$$

(g) FLUX (EDDINGTON APPROXIMATION) (3)

$$\vec{H} = - \frac{1}{3\kappa\rho} \nabla J$$

## Initial and boundary conditions

### Standard initial conditions (Larson 1969)

Homogeneous sphere with const.  $T$  and density  
which is at rest at  $t=0$

### Standard conditions + rigid rotation $\omega_i$

Isothermal rotating clouds

$$\alpha_i = E_i^{\text{th}} / E_i^{\text{grav}} = \frac{5}{2} \frac{R_i R T_i}{G \pi_i \bar{\mu}}$$

$$\beta_i = E_i^{\text{rot}} / E_i^{\text{grav}} = \frac{\omega_i^2}{4\pi G \rho_i}$$

Adiabatic rotating cloud :  $\rho_i \sigma_i^{\text{th}} ; \alpha_i, \beta_i$

Nonisothermal clouds :  $\alpha_i, \beta_i, \pi_i, T_i$

### Boundary conditions

2 equations of second order for  $\phi$  and  $J$   
require boundary conditions

- Const.  $J$  order  $J$  from const. temperature conditions
- $\phi$  - no mass outside protostar

# Mathematical Formulation and Solution

## Coordinate System

Lagrangian or Eulerian Formulation of the problem

Eulerian Formulation: Numerical Diffusion has to be minimized

Lagrangian Formulation: Nonnumeric diffusion (no nonlinear advection terms)

- Very complicated for multi-dimensional processes (grid can be very distorted)
- Rezoning of grids (numerical diffusion re-introduced)

Application of particle methods (instead of grid methods)

Fluid divided in cells - "particles" - which move under the action of external forces and interact

## "Smoothed Particle Hydrodynamics" - SPH

(Lucy 1977, Gingold & Monaghan 1977)

Fluid divided in discrete elements. These particles have a spatial distance ("smoothing length") over which their properties are smoothed by a kernel function.

$$A(r) = \sum_j m_j \frac{A_j}{\rho_j} W(|r-r_j|, h)$$

↑  
kernel function

- Advantages:
- Large density gradients can be treated
  - Boundaries can be easily included
  - Grav. interaction can be easily integrated

Grid-based methods (Resolution increase)

a) Adaptive grids

Number of grid points is constant; will be increased where strong gradients occur

b) Nested grids

Individual grid points will be split; number of grid points no longer constant.

Adaptive mesh refinement (AMR)

Dynamical gridting during simulation; Starts with coarsely resolved Cartesian grid. Then individual cells are tagged for refinement.

(e.g. mass per cell should remain constant).

GC simulations have reached  $10^{-6}$  effective resolution per initial radius

Solutions - Explicit and implicit methods

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = L \vec{u} \quad ; \quad \vec{u} = \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)$$

(L. nonlinear operator)

$$\vec{u}^{n+1} = \vec{u}^n + L \vec{u} (1-\epsilon) \Delta t + L \vec{u}^{n+1} \epsilon \Delta t$$

$\epsilon$  - interpolation parameter

$\epsilon = 0$  explicit solutions (Time step limitation)

$\epsilon \neq 0$  implicit solutions (System of nonlinear algebr. equ.)

First numerical "solution" - 1D (Larson 1969)

$$1 M_{\odot} \quad \rho(t=0) = \rho_0 = 10^{-19} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

$$T(t=0) = T_0 = 10 \text{ K}$$

Result: Non-homologous evolution  
(density in outer regions  $\rho(r) \propto r^{-2}$ )

- After  $t_{\text{ff}}$  - Formation of hydrostatic core  
and free-falling envelope ( $\rho(r) \propto r^{-3/2}$ )

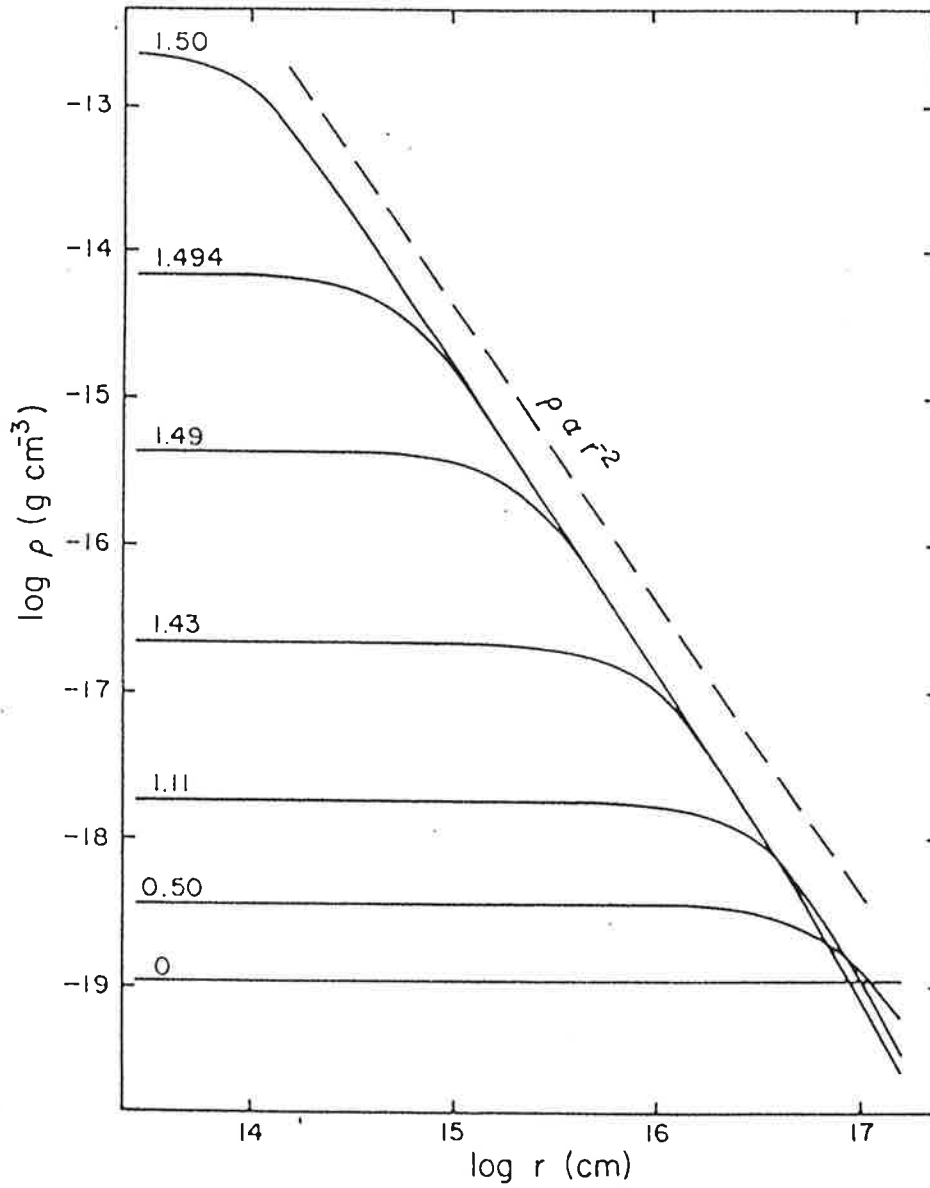
$$\rho_c = 10^{12} - 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3} \quad T_c = 100 \text{ K}$$

- Contraction of the core until 2000 K is reached and  $\rho_c = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow$   
Dissociation of molecular hydrogen.  
(endothermic reaction; central region starts to collapse again.)
- Formation of a second hydrostatic core  
at  $\rho_c = 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $T_c = 10^4 - 10^5 \text{ K}$   
(Core still accretes matter which goes through shock front)

$$\text{At the end:} \quad R = 2.1 R_{\odot} \quad L = 1.5 L_{\odot}$$

(Confirmed by Winkler & Newman:  $2.0 R_{\odot}$ ,  $1.0 L_{\odot}$ )  
(1986)





Evolution of the density distribution of a protostar of 1 solar mass, starting with  $T = 10$  K and a uniform density of  $1.1 \times 10^{-19} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , during isothermal collapse. The curves are labelled with the time, in units of the initial free-fall time, from the beginning of the calculation. After Larson [27].

# Thermal Evolution of Cloud (1D)

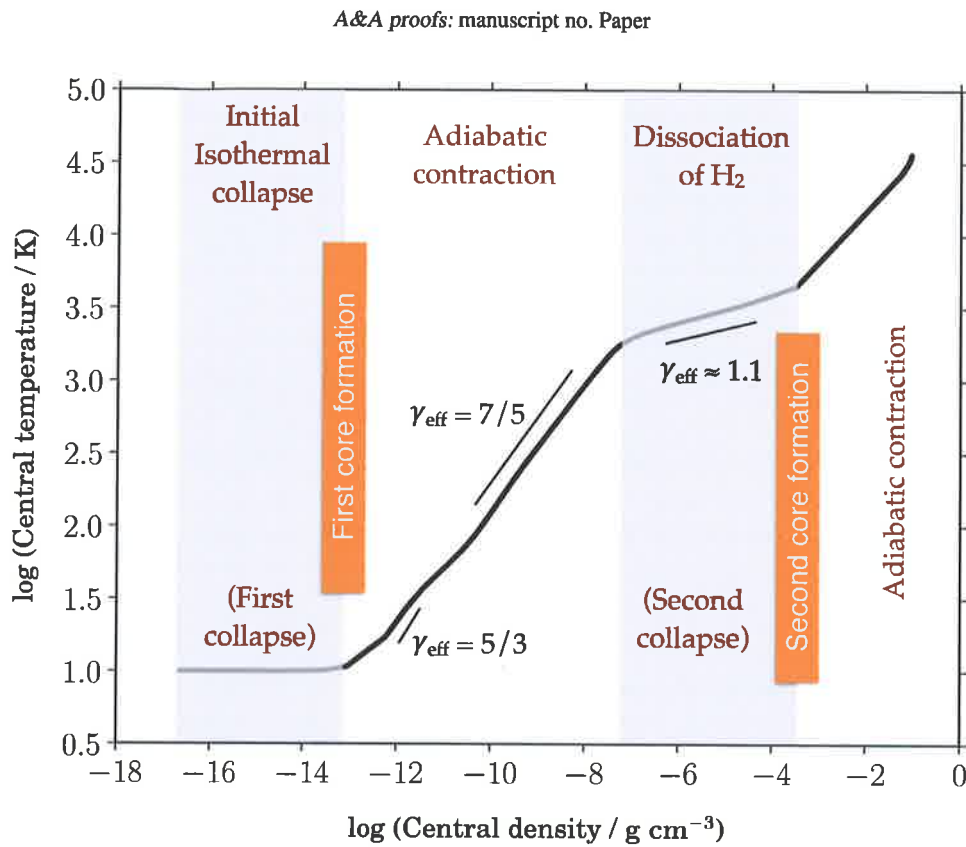


Fig. 3: Thermal evolution showing the first and second collapse phase for a  $1 M_{\odot}$  cloud at an initial temperature of 10 K. The change in effective gamma  $\gamma_{\text{eff}}$  indicates the importance of using a more complex gas equation of state.

a) Cloud collapses under own gravity  
(optically thin, isothermal)

b) Cloud becomes optically thick / heats up  
( $10^{-10} \text{ g/cm}^3$ )

takes  $\approx 10^4$  yrs ;  $R_c \approx 3 \text{ AU}$  ,  $n_c \approx 3 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

Temperature Estimate ( $w = -2u$ )

$$-GM^2/R = -3 n R_g T / \mu$$

$$T = \frac{\mu}{3R_g} \frac{GM}{R}$$

$$= 850 \text{ K} \left( \frac{n}{5 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right) \left( \frac{R}{5 \text{ AU}} \right)^{-1}$$

c) Once the temperature reaches 2000 K  
 $H_2$  molecule begins to dissociate

$$(x_{\text{eff}} = 1.1 < x_{\text{eff}} = 4/3 \text{ for stability})$$

Note thermal energy per  $H_2$  molecule is  
 small compared to dissoci. energy

$$u = \frac{3}{2} \frac{R_g \cdot T}{\mu} \quad ; \quad N = \frac{X \cdot \pi}{2 \mu t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Energy / molecule} = 3 \frac{R_g T}{X} = 0.74 \text{ eV}$$

Dissociation energy is 4.48 eV

(Compression energy goes in dissociation  
 $\rightarrow$  no large increase of T)

d) After all hydrogen is dissociated  
 $\rightarrow$  Second hydrostatic core forms

$$R \approx 1.8 \times 10^{-2} \text{ AU} \quad \pi \approx 4.6 \times 10^{-3} \pi_0$$

## Accretion of gas onto protostar

Gas reaches star with free-fall speed which causes an accretion shock front ( $T > 10^6 \text{ K}$ ;  $UV + X\text{-rays}$ )

$$L_{\text{acc}} = G M_* / R_* \left( \frac{dM}{dt} \right)$$

$$= 61 L_{\odot} \left( \frac{dM}{dt} / 10^{-5} M_{\odot} / \text{yr} \right)$$

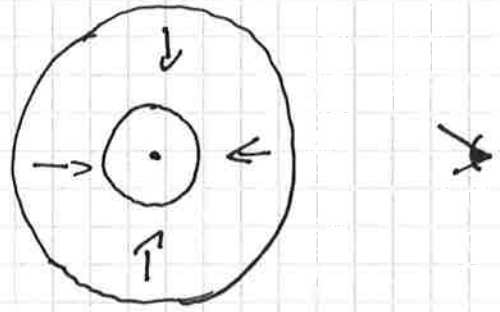
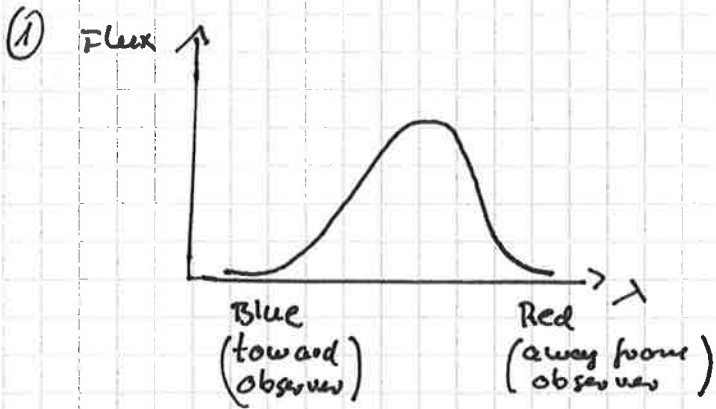
$$\cdot \left( M_* / M_{\odot} \right) \left( R_* / 5 R_{\odot} \right)^{-1}$$

Additional energy from contraction and early nuclear fusion are negligible compared to  $L_{\text{acc}}$  for low- to intermediate-mass stars

Def.: Low-mass protostar - mass gaining star with  $L$  from accretion shock surrounded by an envelope

- Opacity gap (no dust)
- Inner dust sublimation radius ( $\sim 1 \text{ AU}$ )
- Effective warm radiating surface observable at NIR wavelength ("dust photosphere") (few AU)
- Outer optically thin envelope (100-1000 AU)

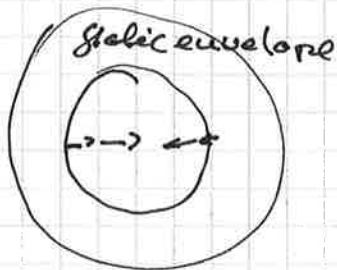
line profile of collapsing cloud



Temperature & Intensity in center is maximum

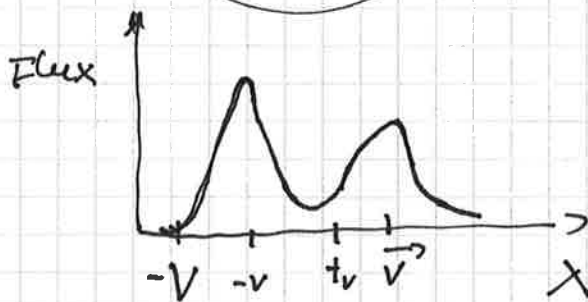
(optically thin emission)

② Profile from core (collapsing) with static envelope



Inside-out-collapse

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} v(r) \sim r^{-0.5} \\ \text{(free-falling)} \\ \text{inside a static envelope} \end{array} \right.$$



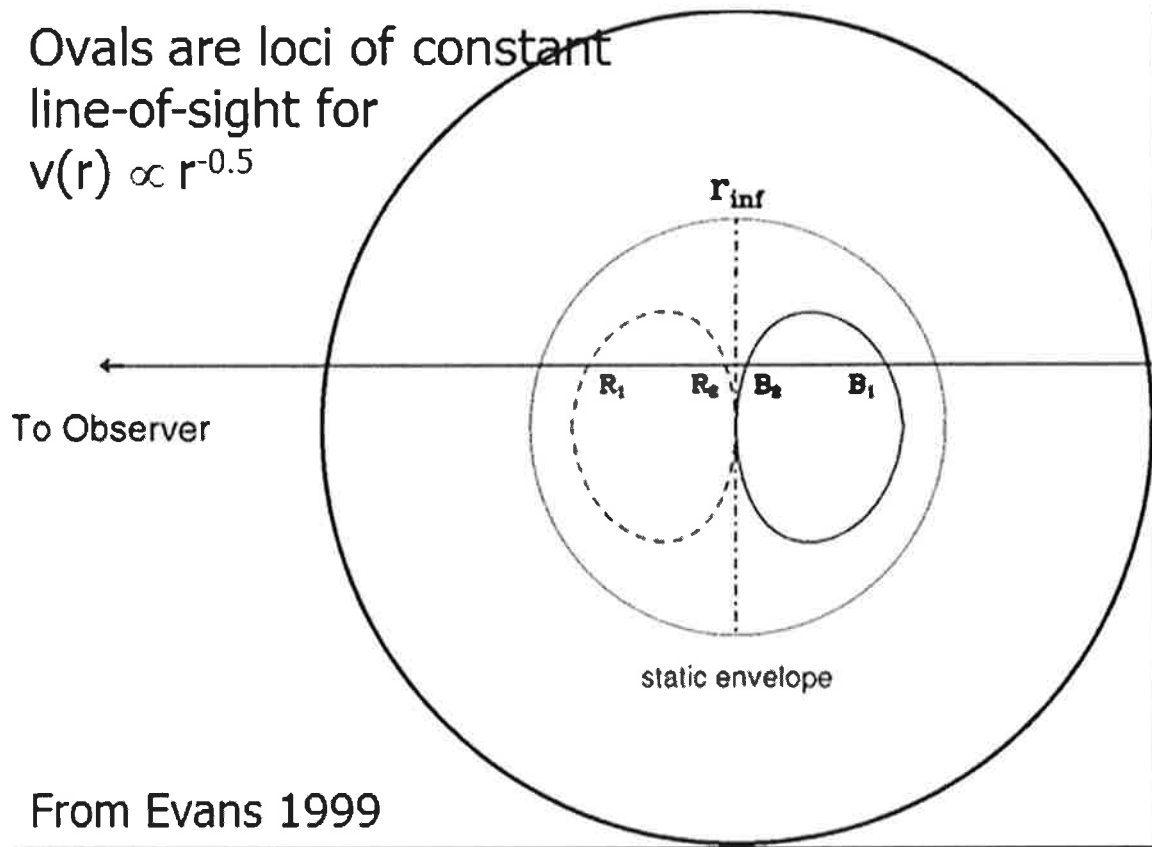
Redshifted absorption (absorption only on observer's side)

good example B 335.

(always opt. thin + opt. thick line to be observed)

Skewed to the blue. Each line of sight intersects the loci of constant line-of-sight velocity at two points. Points closer to center have higher  $v$ . Point  $R_1$  will obscure  $R_2$ , but  $B_2$  lies in front of  $B_1$ .

Ovals are loci of constant line-of-sight for  $v(r) \propto r^{-0.5}$



From Evans 1999

