

# Numerical Solution of Star Formation Equations

Description of protostellar collapse (Conservation equations):

Continuity equation, Momentum equation, Poisson equation, Energy equation

## What are the problems: Scales, fragmentation, loss of magnetic field

- (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 K to  $10^7$  K in order to start fusion
- (3) Specific angular momentum needs to decrease:

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

## What are the problems: Scales, fragmentation, loss of magnetic field

(4) Most of the stars are binaries or occur in higher-order hierarchical systems: fragmentation is needed

(5) Magnetic flux loss is necessary:

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

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

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

$B_1 = 2 \times 10^7 \text{ G}$  - This is much larger than what is observed for T Tauri stars

## Next steps:

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

## A few remarks

### **Protostellar evolution from an instable 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 from quasistatic contraction of the core

### **Mathematical and physical problem:**

- a) Dynamical problem with dynamics on different scales
- b) Complex physics ---> 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)

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

(gray radiative transfer: use of Rosseland mean opacity guarantees that radiative flux is identical to that in frequency-dependent case)

## (h) MATERIAL EQUATIONS

$$e = e(\rho, T)$$

$$\kappa = \kappa(\rho, T) \quad \text{see Wuchterl (1990)}$$

$$p = p(\rho, T)$$

3D  $\rightarrow$  2D equations: dropping all partial derivatives with respects to  $\phi$

2D  $\rightarrow$  1D equations: setting terms with  $v_\theta$  or  $v_\phi$  equal to zero, neglecting the equations for  $v_\theta$  and  $A(v_\phi)$ ; dropping terms with partial derivatives with respect to  $\theta$

# INITIAL CONDITIONS

STANDARD I.C.: Spherical cloud of uniform density and temperature, which initially everywhere at rest

STANDARD I.C. + SOLID BODY ROTATION:

- Isothermal rotating clouds:

$$\alpha_i = E_i^{th} / E_i^{grav} ; \beta_i = E_i^{th} / E_i^{grav}$$

- Adiabatic rotating clouds:

$$\gamma (p \propto \rho^\gamma), \alpha_i, \beta_i$$

(3D: Form of perturbation has to be added)

- Nonisothermal clouds:

$$\alpha_i, \beta_i, M_i, T_i$$

## BOUNDARY CONDITIONS ( $\Phi$ )

No mass exterior to the protostar

## Mathematical formulation (see Boss 1987)

### 13 physical quantities:

$\rho$  (density)  
 $\vec{v}$  (velocity)  
 $\Phi$  (gravitational potential)  
J (mean intensity)  
 $\vec{H}$  (Radiation flux)  
p (gas pressure)  
e (specific internal energy)  
 $\kappa$  (opacity)  
T (temperature)

### 13 equations:

(10 coupled, nonlinear, partial diff. equations of first and second order with strongly variable coefficients + 3 algebraic material equations)

- **Eulerian form** (equations are written with respect to a fixed frame of reference)
- **Spherical coordinates**  $r, \theta, \phi$



## Initial and boundary conditions

**Standard initial conditions** (Larson 1969)

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

**Standard initial conditions plus rigid rotation  $\omega_i$**

Isothermal rotating cloud:

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

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

Adiabatic rotating cloud:  $p \sim \rho^\gamma$  ;  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$

Non-isothermal clouds:  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  ,  $M_i$ ,  $T_i$

# Initial and boundary conditions

## Boundary conditions

Why do we need boundary conditions:

Two equations of second order for  $\Phi$  and  $J$

- Constant  $J$  or  $J$  from constant temperature condition
- $\Phi$  – no mass outside protostar (observations – not realistic)

## **Mathematical Formulation and Solution**

### **Coordinate System: Lagrangian or Eulerian formulation**

Eulerian formulation: Numerical diffusion has to be minimized

Lagrangian formulation: No numerical diffusion (no nonlinear advection term)

- Very complicated for multi-dimensional hydrodynamical processes
- 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

$A(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_j m_j A_j / \rho_j W(|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_j|, h)$  Here  $W$  is the kernel function.

## Advantages:

- Large density gradients can be treated
- Boundaries can be easily introduced (non-spherical clouds)
- Gravitational interaction can be easily integrated.

## Disadvantage:

Limited stability and accuracy in complex flows

## 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 refining (AMR):

Dynamical gridding during simulation; starts with coarsely resolved Cartesian grid. Then individual cells are tagged for refinement (e.g. condition – mass per cell should remain constant)

GMC simulations have reached  $10^{-7}$  effective resolution per initial radius

Solutions: Explicit and implicit methods

$$\delta \mathbf{u} / \delta t = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u}; \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{r}, t) \quad (\mathbf{L} - \text{non-linear operator})$$

$$\mathbf{u}^{n+1} = \mathbf{u}^n + \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u} (1 - \varepsilon) \Delta t + \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u}^{n+1} \varepsilon \Delta t; \quad \varepsilon - \text{interpolation parameter}$$

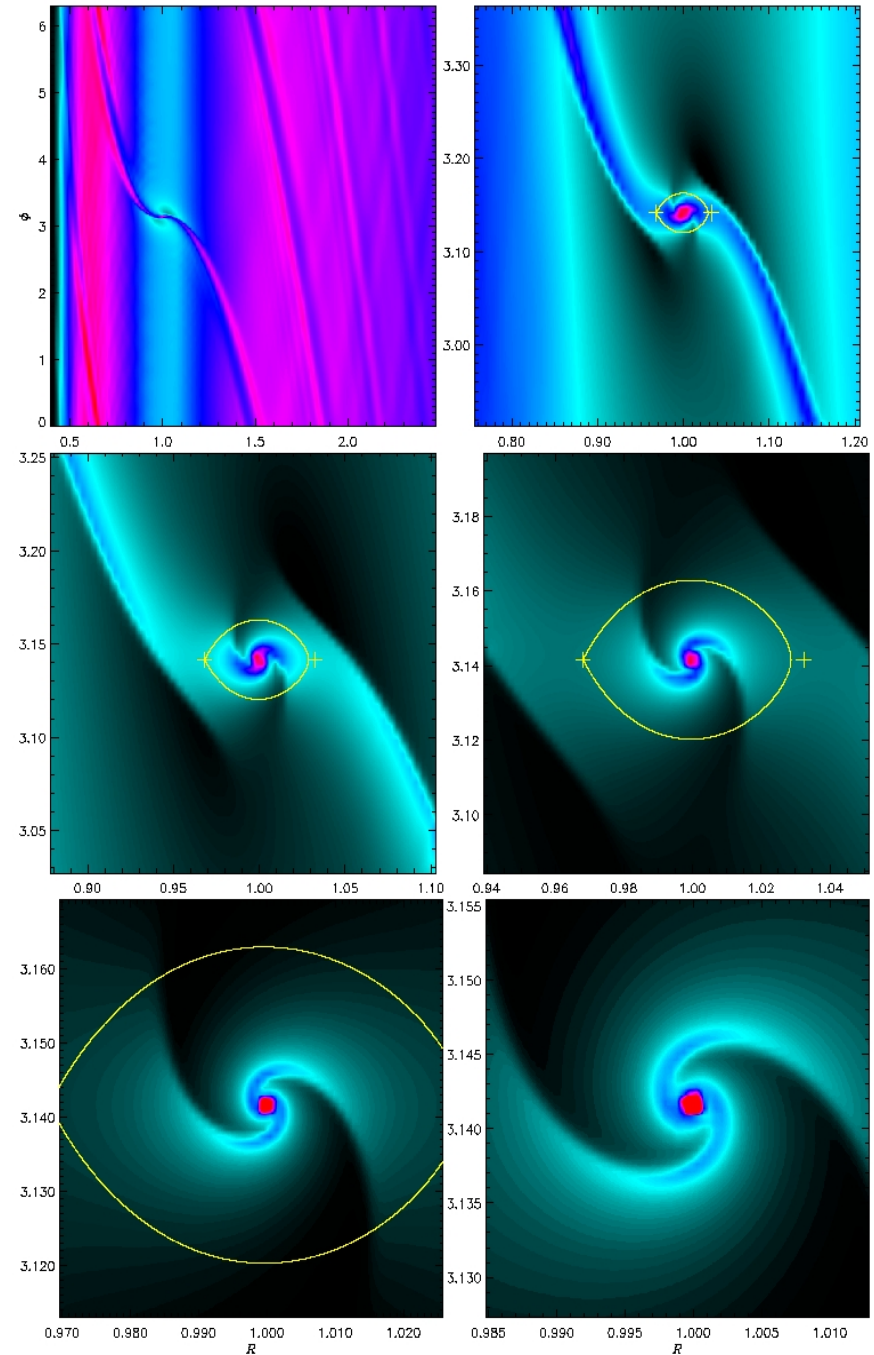
$\varepsilon = 0$  explicit solution (time step limitation);  $\varepsilon$  different from 0: Implicit solution (system of nonlinear algebraic equations)

# Planet-Disk Interaction

**Numerical multi-grid simulations**  
(D'Angelo, Kley, Henning 2003)

**Type I (lower mass planets)**  
Spiral density waves

**Type II (higher mass planets)**  
Creation of a gap



## First numerical solution – 1 D (Larson 1969)

$1 M_{\text{sun}}$ ,  $\rho(t=0) = 10^{-19} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ,  $T = 10 \text{ K}$

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

After free-fall time: Formation of hydrostatic core and free-falling envelope

(density  $\sim r^{-3/2}$ )

At a density of  $10^{12}$  to  $10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$   $T_c = 100 \text{ K}$

Contraction of the core until 2000 K is reached and density in center  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

Dissociation of molecular hydrogen (endothermic reaction; central region starts to collapse again)

Formation of a second hydrostatic core at central density:  $10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $T_c = 10^4 - 10^5 \text{ K}$   
(core still accretes matter which goes through shock front)

At the end:  $R = 2.1 R_{\text{sun}}$ ,  $L = 1.5 L_{\text{sun}}$  (Confirmed by Winkler & Newman:  $2 R_{\text{sun}}$ ,  $1.0 L_{\text{sun}}$ )

After Larson (1969)

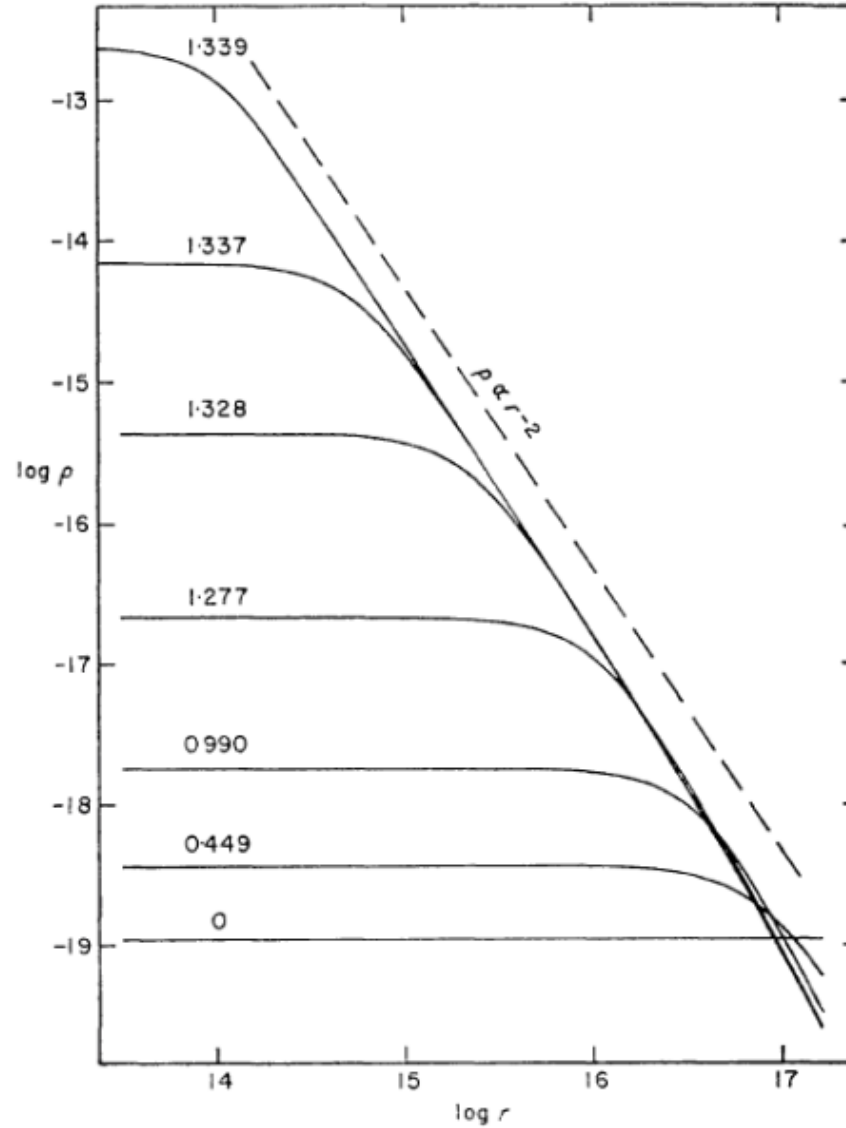
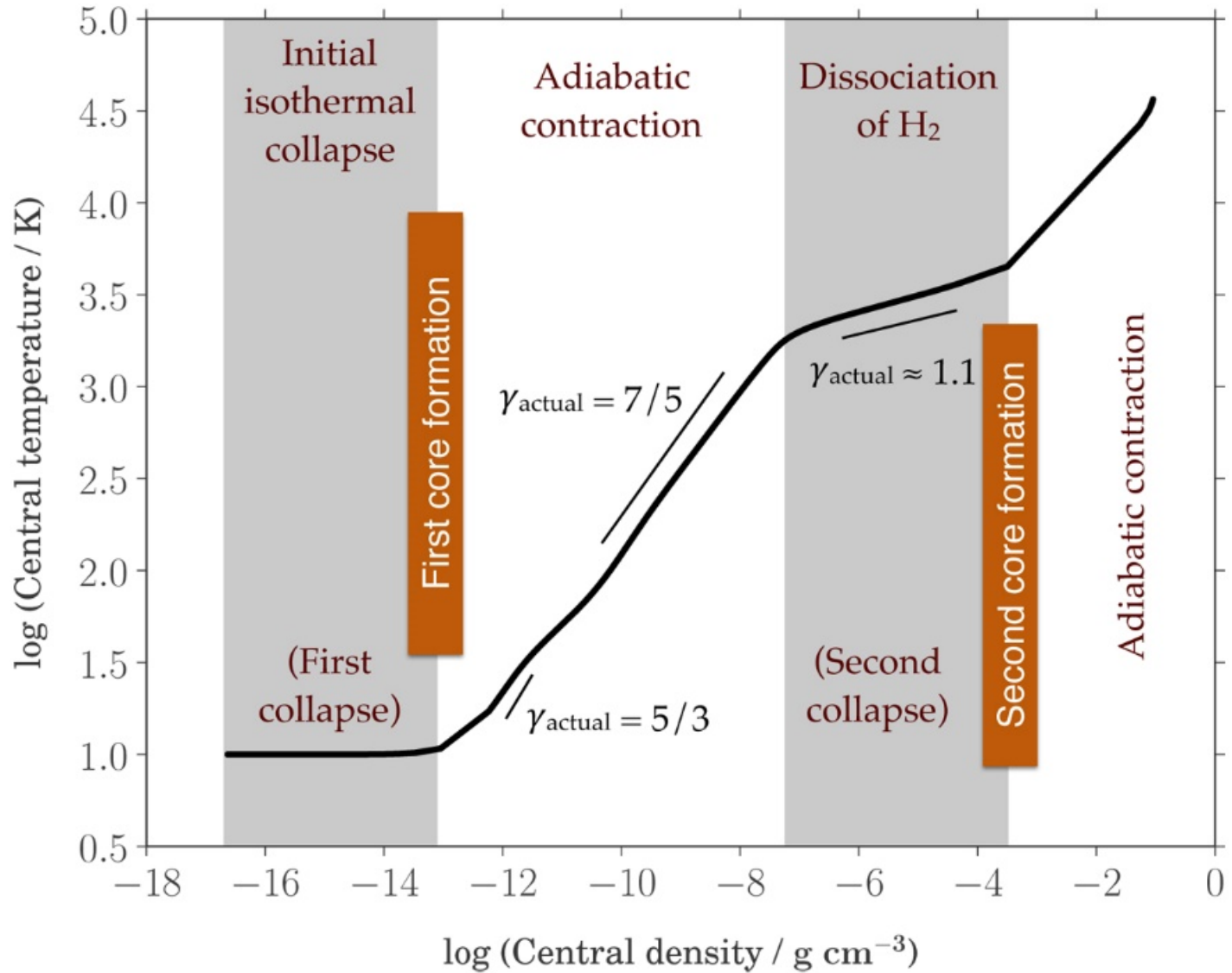


FIG. 1. *The variation with time of the density distribution in the collapsing cloud (CGS units). The curves are labelled with the times in units of  $10^{13}$  s since the beginning of the collapse. Note that the density distribution closely approaches the form  $\rho \propto r^{-2}$ .*



# Thermal Evolution of Cloud (1D)



Bhandare  
et al. 2018

- Cloud collapses under own gravity (optically thin, isothermal)
- Then cloud becomes optically thick /heats up

## Thermal Evolution in 1D

Cloud becomes optically thick at about  $10^{-10}$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>; this takes about  $10^4$  yrs

$$R_c = 3 \text{ au}, M_c = 3 \times 10^{-2} M_{\text{sun}}$$

Can we make a temperature estimate? Remember:  $W = -2 U$  (time average)

$$-GM^2/R = -3 M R_G T/\mu$$

$$\text{This means: } T = \mu/3 R_G (GM/R) = 850 \text{ K } (M/5 \times 10^{-2} M_{\text{sun}}) (R/5 \text{ au})^{-1}$$

Once  $T = 2000$  K the H<sub>2</sub> molecule begins to dissociate

( $\gamma_{\text{eff}} = 1.1$  smaller than  $4/3$  which is the value for stability)

Note: Thermal energy per H<sub>2</sub> molecule is small compared to dissociation energy

( $U = 3/2 R_G T/\mu M$ ; Energy/molecule = 0.74 eV; Dissociation energy; 4.48 eV)

Compression energy goes into dissociation! No longer increase of T.

After all H<sub>2</sub> is dissociated: Second hydrostatic core ( $R=1.8 \times 10^{-2}$  au;  $M=4.6 \times 10^{-3} M_{\text{sun}}$ )

## Accretion of gas onto protostar

Gas reaches star with free-fall speed which causes an accretion shock front ( $T > 10^6$  K; UV and X-rays to be expected)

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

$$= 61 L_{\text{sun}} (dM/dt/ 10^{-5} M_{\text{sun}}/\text{yr}) (M_*/1 M_{\text{sun}}) (R_*/5 R_{\text{sun}})^{-1}$$

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

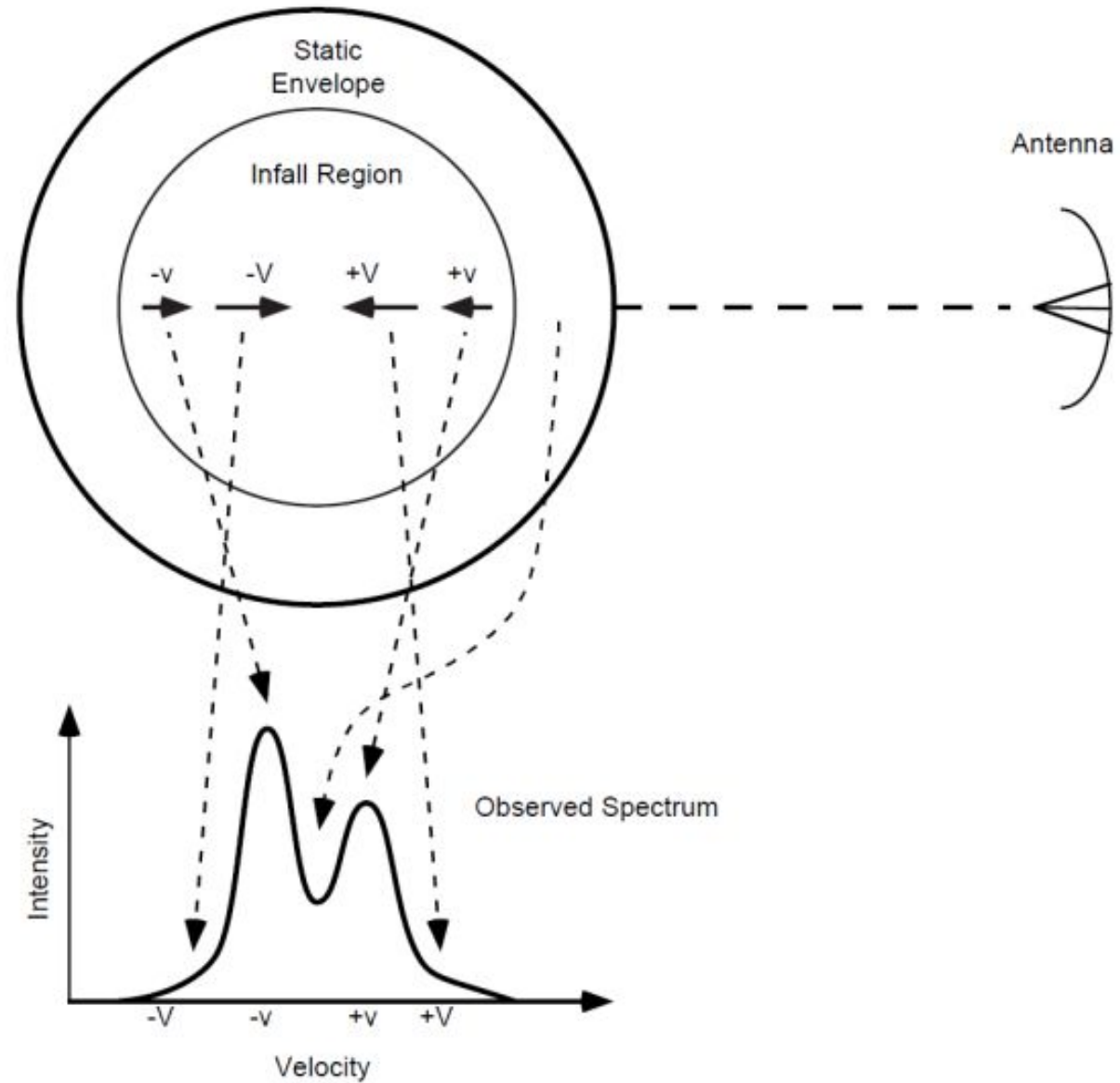
### **Definition: Low-mass protostar**

Mass gaining star with L from accretion shock surrounded by an envelope

- Opacity gap (no dust)
- Inner dust sublimation radius (at about 1 au)
- Effective warm radiating surface observable at mid-IR wavelengths („dust photosphere“) (few au)
- Outer optically thin envelope

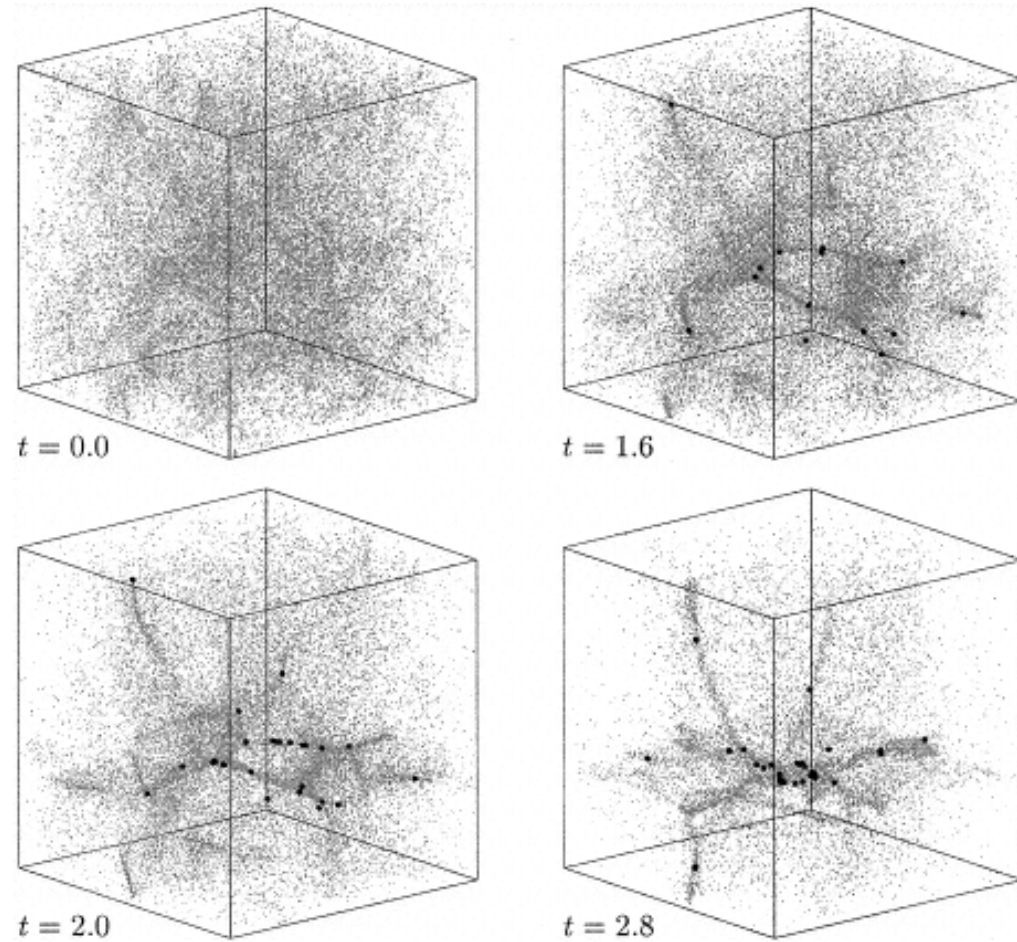
# Observing the Collapse of a Cloud

Evans (1999)



# Fragmentation of a Cloud (SPH Simulation)

Klessen et al.  
(1998)



- 222 Jeans masses
- Spectrum of Gaussian fluctuations