# N-body simulation of an open galactic cluster

PROJECT 5, FYS-3150

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#### Abstract

The aim of this project is to numerically find the critical temperature for the two dimentional Ising model by using the metropolis algorithm. We will first test the implementation of the algorithm carefully, first by comparing with theoretical values calculated for a small system. Then we will see if the algorithm behaves as expected according to our physical intuition for a larger system.

When we have found a estimate for the critical temperature we will compare it to Lars Onsagers analytical result.

All source codes can be found at: https://github.com/inakbk/Project\_5.

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#### 1 Introduction

The goal in this project is to develop a code that can perform simulations of an open cluster using Newtonian gravity. First, however we will compare the stability of two different methods. This is because when we are looking at a system with a large number of particles, we are more interested in the statistical properties of the system than in the individual motion of each of the particles. This means that the stability of the solution method is more important than its short term accuracy. This project is inspired by an article by Joyce *et al.*, see Ref. [1] below.

In the first part of this project we will explore the stability of two well-tested numerical methods for solving differential equations. The algorithms to test and implement are the fourth-order Runge-Kutta method and the Velocity-Verlet method.

### 2 Theory

The Newtonian two-body problem in three dimensions dimentionless variables

#### 3 Numerical methods

Runge-Kutta method and the Velocity-Verlet method discussed in the lecture notes.

a) Implement the Newtonian two-body (you can choose masses and dimensionalities as you wish) problem in three dimensions using the fourth order Runge-Kutta method and the Velocity-Verlet method discussed in the lecture notes.

Compare the stability of the two different methods. How do they work for large time steps? How do they work for very long times? Compare also the time used to advance one timestep for the two different methods. Comment your results. Which algorithm would you use for simulating systems that require long times?

We will now try to build a simple model of an open cluster, see Ref. [2]. An open cluster is a group of up to a few thousand gravitationally bound stars created from the collapse of a molecular cloud. This collapse leads to a flurry of star formation. Open clusters are usually found in the arms of spiral galaxies, or in irregular galaxies. Since stars in an open cluster have roughly the same age, and are made from the same material, they are interesting in the study of stellar evolution, since many of the variable parameters we have when comparing two stars are kept constant.

Once open clusters are formed they gradually dissipate as members get ejected from the cluster due to random collisions, this means that open clusters generally last only a few hundred million years. In figure 1, we see the Hertzsprung-Russell diagrams for two open clusters.

We will look at a simple model for how an open cluster is made from the gravitational collapse and interaction among a large number of stars. We want to study this collapse, and the statistical properties of the collapsed system.

One particle in our model represents one or a few stars, and we will work first with a few hundred particles. We will simulate what is called a "cold collapse", this means that we start the particles with little or no initial velocity.

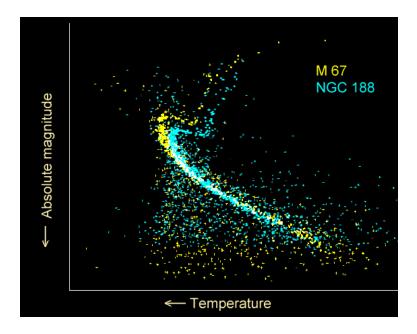


Figure 1: Hertzsprung-Russell diagrams for two open clusters, M67 and NGC 188. We see that most of the stars are on the main sequence. In the older cluster, NGC 188, we see that the heaviest stars are just now leaving the main sequence, while the younger cluster, M67, is following closely after.

b) Extend your code to an arbitrary number of particles, N, starting with a uniform (random) distribution within a sphere of a given radius  $R_0$ . Start the particles at rest, with masses randomly distributed by a Gaussian distribution around ten solar masses with a standard deviation of one solar mass. Use solar masses and light years as units of mass and length and make your equations dimensionless. The function GaussPDF included with this project can be used to generate random numbers which follow a Gaussian (or normal) distribution. The function for calculating these random numbers can be found at the webpage of the course together with the project files.

How large time steps are required given  $R_0 = 20ly$  (light years), and a N = 100? Do we have any units of time that fit this timescale? In the limit where  $N \to \infty$ , keeping  $\rho_0$  constant, we get a continuous fluid. In this case the system collapses into a singularity at a finite time  $\tau_{crunch} = \sqrt{\frac{3\pi}{32G\rho_0}}$ . (For the especially interested (Not required!): Can you derive this result? Hint: recall the Friedman equations [3]).

Why do we not observe this singularity in our model? Use  $\tau_{crunch}$  as the unit of time, and find G in these units (G will become a function of the number of particles N, and the average mass of the particles,  $\mu$ ).

You should run these calculations with both the fourth-order Runge-Kutta algorithm and the Velocity-Verlet method. Which method would you prefer? Give a critical discussion.

For the remaining exercises, you should use only one of the above methods.

c) Run the system for a few  $\tau_{crunch}$ . Save the positions of the particles at different times to file. Does the system reach an equilibrium? How long time does this take?

- d) Make a function that calculates the kinetic and potential energy of the system. Is the energy conserved? Some of the particles are ejected from the system, how can we identify these particles from the energies we have calculated? How much of the energy of the system is taken away by particle ejection? How does this change with different values of N? Are there still particles being ejected after the system reaches equilibrium?
- e) We will now introduce a smoothing function to take care of the numerical instability that arises when two of the particles come very close. There are a lot of ways of inserting such a smoothing, but we will just look at a very simple one. We will modify the Newtonian force law to make it finite at short ranges

$$F_{mod} = -\frac{GM_1M_2}{r^2 + \epsilon^2}.$$

The parameter  $\epsilon$  is a "small" real constant. What should the value of this parameter be? Try out different values (which one gives you the best energy conservation?). Can we justify this correction to the pure Newtonian force by noting that our particles do not represent actual point particles but rather mass distributions of some finite extent? Does the addition of this correction change any of the results from part e)?

f) Now we will look at the particles that are bound (not ejected). What is the distribution of potential and kinetic energy?

The virial theorem says that for a bound gravitational system in equilibrium we have

$$2\langle K\rangle = -\langle V\rangle,$$

where  $\langle K \rangle$  is the average (over time) kinetic energy of the system and  $\langle V \rangle$  is the average potential energy.

By the ergodic hypothesis we can take an ensamble average (average over a large system) instead of the time average.

Are your results consistent with the virial theorem?

h) Try to plot the radial density of the particles (the particle density as a function of radius) in the equilibrium state. How would you extract such an information from your calculations? (Hint: make a histogram for the radial particle density) What is the average distance? What is the standard deviation? Plot the radial distribution of particles.

Run the code for different number of initial particles, keeping the total mass constant. 

What is the average distance from the centre of the cluser as a function of N?

The radial distribution of particles in this kind of cold collapse can often be fit very well with the simple expression

$$n(r) = \frac{n_0}{\left(1 + \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^4\right)}.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The interpretation of one particle as one or a few stars will not be useful any more when you increase the number of particles beyond a few thousand, however the analysis of gravitationally bound systems of many particles have much broader applications than cold collapse of open clusters, so the results are still highly relevant.

Try to fit your data to this curve, what is the value  $n_0$  and  $r_0$ ? Can you find how these values depend on N?

How many particles can you simulate?

Compare your results with those found in Ref. [1].

If you want, you can also compare your results to the well-known Navarro-Frenk-White profile

$$\rho(r) = \frac{\rho_0}{\frac{r}{r_0} \left(1 + \frac{r}{r_0}\right)^2}.$$

Does this fit better?

#### References

- [1] M. Joyce, B. Marcos, and F. Sylos Labini, Cold uniform spherical collapse revisited, AIP Conf. Proc. 1241, 955 (2010); http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.3462740 and arXiv1011.0614 (2011), http://arxiv.org/abs/1011.0614.
- [2] P. J. E. Peebles, *The Large-Scale Structure of the Universe*, Princeton University Press, 1980. See also C. Payne-Gaposchkin, *Stars and clusters*, (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1979), or just https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open\_cluster.
- [3] A. Friedman, On the Curvature of Space, General Relativity and Gravitation 31, 1991 (1999), or just https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Friedmann\_equations.