

Modern Astronomy

Part 1. Interstellar Medium (ISM)

Week 4

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Dust Theory: cross section and efficiency factors

- **Cross Sections:**

- A dust grain has wavelength-dependent cross sections for absorption and scattering. Extinction is the sum of absorption and scattering processes.

$$C_{\text{ext}}(\lambda) = C_{\text{abs}}(\lambda) + C_{\text{sca}}(\lambda)$$

- For a population of dust grains with number density n_d , the extinction cross section is related to the extinction coefficient and the dust optical depth by:

$$\kappa_\lambda = n_d C_{\text{ext}}(\lambda)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_\lambda &= n_d C_{\text{ext}}(\lambda) L && L = \text{pathlength} \\ &= 1.086 A_\lambda \end{aligned}$$

- **Efficiency Factors:**

- The cross section is often expressed in terms of efficiency factors, normalized to the geometric cross section of an equal-solid-volume sphere:

$$Q_{\text{ext}}(\lambda) = \frac{C_{\text{ext}}(\lambda)}{\pi a^2}, \quad Q_{\text{abs}}(\lambda) = \frac{C_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)}{\pi a^2}, \quad Q_{\text{sca}}(\lambda) = \frac{C_{\text{sca}}(\lambda)}{\pi a^2}$$

$$V = \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 \quad a = \text{the radius of an equal-volume sphere}$$

- Albedo and Scattering phase function

- The **albedo** is defined by

$$\omega(\lambda) = \frac{C_{\text{sca}}(\lambda)}{C_{\text{ext}}(\lambda)}$$

In many cases, the albedo is denoted by a or ω .

- Scattering is a function of the scattering angle and thus expressed in terms of the differential scattering cross section:

$$C_{\text{sca}}(\lambda) = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{d\sigma_{\text{sca}}(\theta, \phi; \lambda)}{d\Omega} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

- The **scattering asymmetry factor** is defined by:

$$g \equiv \langle \cos \theta \rangle = \frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{sca}}} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos \theta \frac{d\sigma_{\text{sca}}}{d\Omega} \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

- The scattering phase function can be described by the Rayleigh function or Henyey-Greenstein function:

$$\mathcal{P}(\theta) \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{sca}}} \int_0^\pi \frac{d\sigma_{\text{sca}}}{d\Omega} d\phi \rightarrow$$

$\mathcal{P}_{\text{Ray}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos^2 \theta)$ $\mathcal{P}_{\text{HG}}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1 - g^2}{(1 + g^2 - 2g \cos \theta)^{3/2}}$	for $\frac{2\pi a}{\lambda} \ll 1$ \longrightarrow $\langle \cos \theta \rangle = 0$	for $\frac{2\pi a}{\lambda} \gg 1$ \longrightarrow $\langle \cos \theta \rangle = g$
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- The Henyey-Greestein phase function is only introduced for computational convenience and has no physical meaning.

Theoretical Model of the Extinction Curve

- Scattering Theory: How to calculate the theoretical extinction curve.
 - **Mie scattering** (Gustave Mie), the general solution for (absorbing or non-absorbing) spherical particles without a particular bound on particle size. ==> complex
- A model for interstellar dust must specify the **composition** of the dust as well as the geometry (**shape and size**) of the dust particles.
 - If the model is to reproduce the polarization of starlight, at least some of the grains should be nonspherical and aligned.
 - However, it is not yet possible to arrive at a unique grain model.

Models for Interstellar Dust

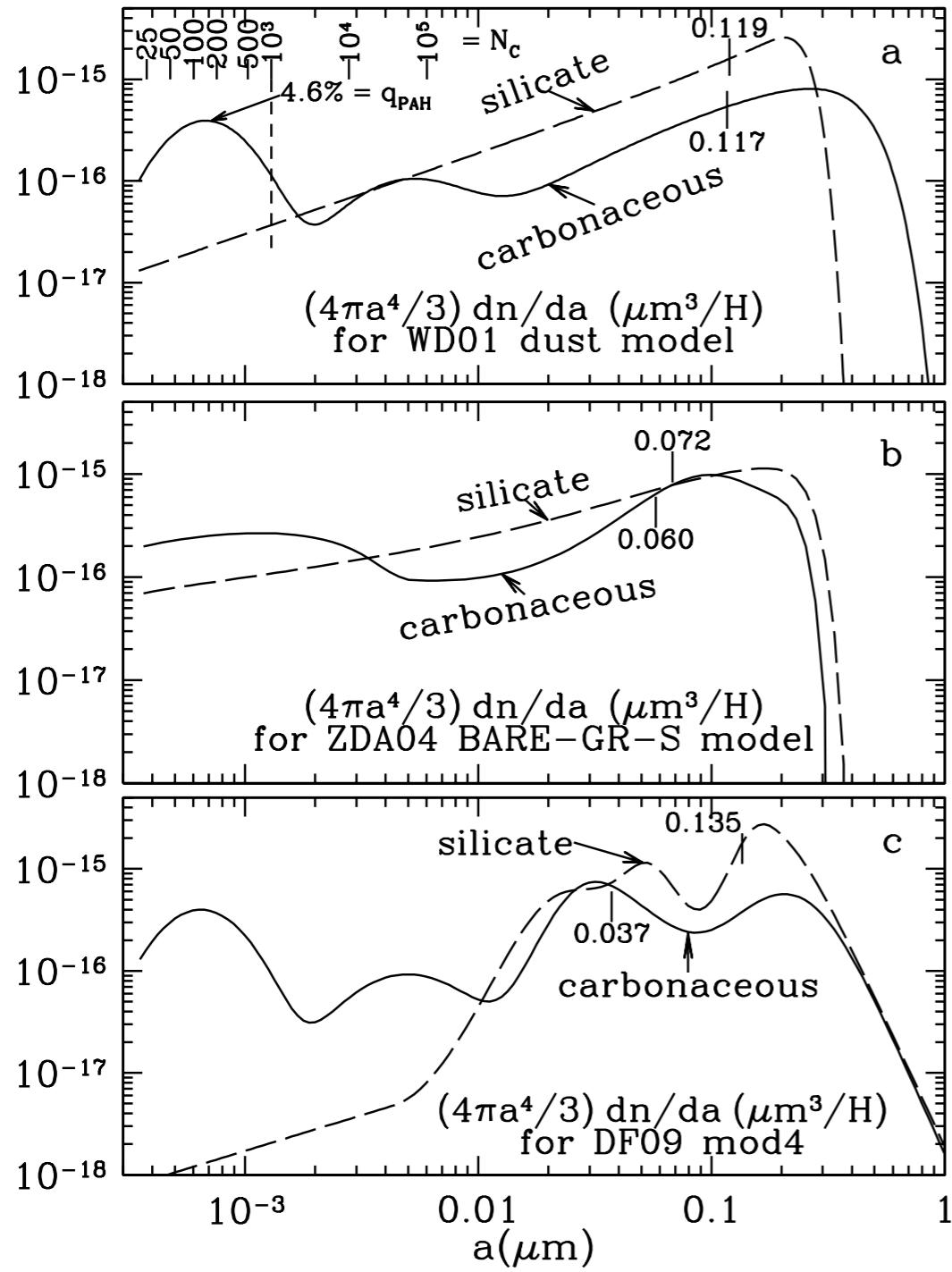
- A class of models that has met with some success assumes the dust to consist of two materials: (1) amorphous silicate, and (2) carbonaceous material.
 - ***Mathis, Rumpl, and Nordsieck (1977; MRN)*** found that models using two components, silicate and graphite spheres with power-law size distributions, could reproduce the observed extinction from the near-IR to the UV ($\lambda = 0.11\mu\text{m} - 1\mu\text{m}$).

$$\frac{dn_{\text{gr}}}{da} da = A_i n_{\text{H}} a^{-3.5} da \quad \text{for } a_{\min} \leq a \leq a_{\max}$$

$a_{\min} \approx 0.025\mu\text{m}$
 $a_{\max} \approx 0.25\mu\text{m}$

$$A_{\text{sil}} = 7.8 \times 10^{-26}, \quad A_{\text{gra}} = 6.9 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^{2.5} (\text{H atom})^{-1}$$

- ▶ Graphite was a necessary component. The other could be silicon carbide (SiC), magnetite (Fe_3O_4), iron, olivine, or pyroxene.
- ***Draine and Collaborators***
 - ▶ Draine & Lee (1984) presented self-consistent dielectric functions for graphite and silicate, and showed that the graphite-silicate model appeared to be consistent with what was known about dust opacities in the Far-IR. (extended the MRN model to the Far-IR).
- ***Zubko et al. (2004)***
 - ▶ The size distribution of the “BARE-GR-S” model of Zubko et al. (2004), composed of bare graphite grains, bare silicate grains, and PAHs, differs significantly from the WD01 size distribution.



A “typical” grain size may be taken as the half-mass grain size $a_{0.5}$, defined so that half the mass of dust is in grains of radius $a_{0.5}$ or greater.

Size distributions for silicate and carbonaceous grains for dust models from (a) Weingartner & Draine (2001), (b) Zubko et al. (2004), and (c) Draine & Faisse (2009).

In each case, tick-marks indicate the “half-mass” radii for the silicate grains and carbonaceous grains.

[Fig 23.10 Draine]

Temperatures of Interstellar Grains

- The “temperature” of a dust grain is a measure of the internal energy present in vibrational modes and possibly also in low-lying electronic excitations.
- Grain Heating
 - In diffuse regions, where ample starlight is present, grain heating is dominated by absorption of starlight photons.
 - In dense dark clouds, grain heating can be dominated by inelastic collisions with atoms or molecules from the gas (grain-grain collisions are too infrequent).
- When an optical or UV photon is absorbed by a grain, an electron is raised into an excited electronic state; three cases can occur.
 - If the electron is sufficiently energetic, it may be able to escape from the solid as a **“photoelectron.”**
 - In most solids or large molecules, however, the electronically excited state will deexcite nonradiatively, with the energy going into ***many vibrational modes - i.e., heat.***

Temperature of Large Grains and Small Grains

- Large Grains
 - Grains with radii $a \gtrsim 0.03 \mu\text{m}$, can be considered “classical.” These grains are macroscopic
 - absorption or emission of single quanta do not appreciably change the total energy in vibrational or electronic excitations.
 - The temperature of a large dust grain can be obtained by equating the heating rate to the cooling rate.
- Very Small Grains
 - For ultra-small particles, ranging down to large molecules, quantum effects are important (this include the “spinning” dust grains responsible for microwave emission).
 - When a dust particle is very small, its temperature will fluctuate. This happens because whenever an energetic photon is absorbed, the grain temperature jumps up by some not negligible amount and subsequently declines as a result of cooling.
 - To compute their emission, we need their optical and thermal properties.
 - ▶ The optical behavior depends in a sophisticated way on the the complex index of refraction and on the particle shape.
 - ▶ The thermal behavior is determined more simply from the specific heat.
 - We need to calculate the distribution function of temperature.

Heating & Cooling

- Radiative Heating rate (for a single particle):
 - the rate of heating of the grain by absorption of radiation can be written.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{dE}{dt} \right)_{\text{abs}} &= \int \frac{u_\nu d\nu}{h\nu} \times c \times h\nu \times Q_{\text{abs}}(\nu) \pi a^2 \\ &= \int d\nu 4\pi J_\nu Q_{\text{abs}}(\nu) \pi a^2 \end{aligned}$$

Here, $u_\nu d\nu/h\nu$ is the number density of photons; the photons move at the speed of light c and carry energy $h\nu$.

- Radiative Cooling rate (for a single particle)

- Kirchhoff's Law in LTE

j_ν = emissivity per unit volume

κ_ν = absorption coefficient per unit length

j_ν/n_d = emissivity per particle

$\kappa_\nu/n_d = C_{\text{abs}}(\nu)$ = absorption cross section

n_d = number density of dust particles

$$\frac{j_\nu}{\kappa_\nu} = B_\nu(T) \Rightarrow \frac{j_\nu}{n_d} = C_{\text{abs}}(\nu) B_\nu(T)$$

[$B_\nu(T)$ = Planck function, $\kappa_\nu = n_d C_{\text{abs}}(\nu)$]

- Grains lose energy by infrared emission at a rate:

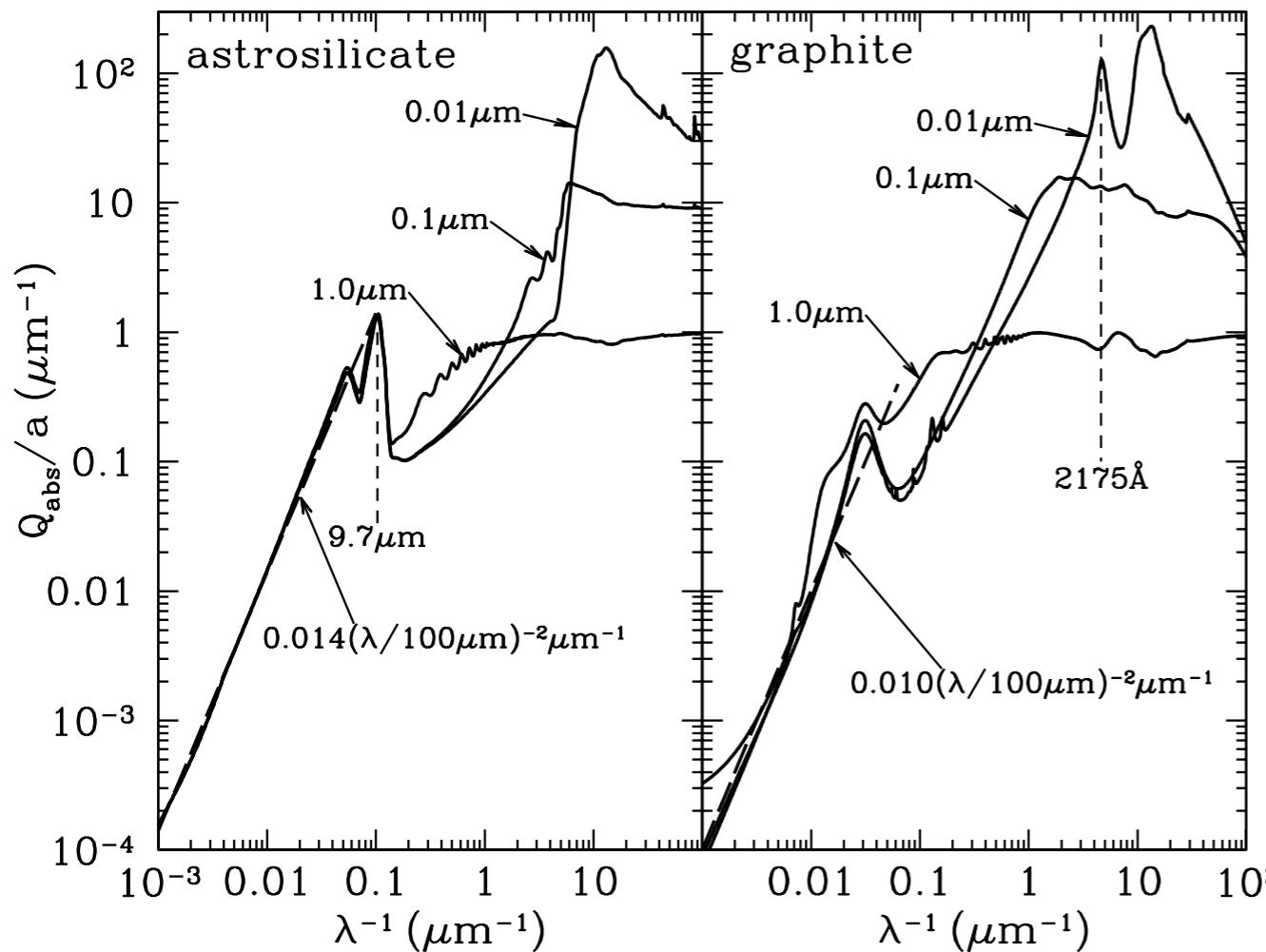
$$\left(\frac{dE}{dt} \right)_{\text{emiss}} = \int d\nu 4\pi j_\nu / n_d = \int d\nu 4\pi B_\nu(T_d) C_{\text{abs}}(\nu)$$

- In general, the absorption cross section in the far-IR can be approximated as a power-law in frequency,

$$Q_{\text{abs}}(\nu) = Q_0(\nu/\nu_0)^\beta = Q_0(\lambda/\lambda_0)^{-\beta} \quad (1 \lesssim \beta \lesssim 2)$$

in the far-IR

then the Planck average can be obtained analytically:



[Fig 24.1, Draine]

$$Q_{\text{abs}} \approx 1.4 \times 10^{-3} \left(\frac{a}{0.1 \mu\text{m}} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{100 \mu\text{m}} \right)^{-2}$$

silicate, $\lambda \gtrsim 20 \mu\text{m}$

$$\approx 1.0 \times 10^{-3} \left(\frac{a}{0.1 \mu\text{m}} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{100 \mu\text{m}} \right)^{-2}$$

graphite, $\lambda \gtrsim 30 \mu\text{m}$

Using the power-law approximation is valid because we are interested only in the Far-IR.

Equilibrium Temperature

- Steady state temperature of large grains
 - The balance equation between the heating and cooling is:

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dt} \right)_{\text{abs}} = \left(\frac{dE}{dt} \right)_{\text{emiss}} \Rightarrow \text{calculate the temperature of grains.}$$

- As a result, the temperature of a large grain is given by:

$$T_d \approx 16.4 (a/0.1 \mu\text{m})^{-1/15} U^{1/6} \text{ K, silicate } (0.01 \lesssim a \lesssim 1 \mu\text{m})$$

$$\approx 22.3 (a/0.1 \mu\text{m})^{-1/40} U^{1/6} \text{ K, graphite } (0.005 \lesssim a \lesssim 0.15 \mu\text{m})$$

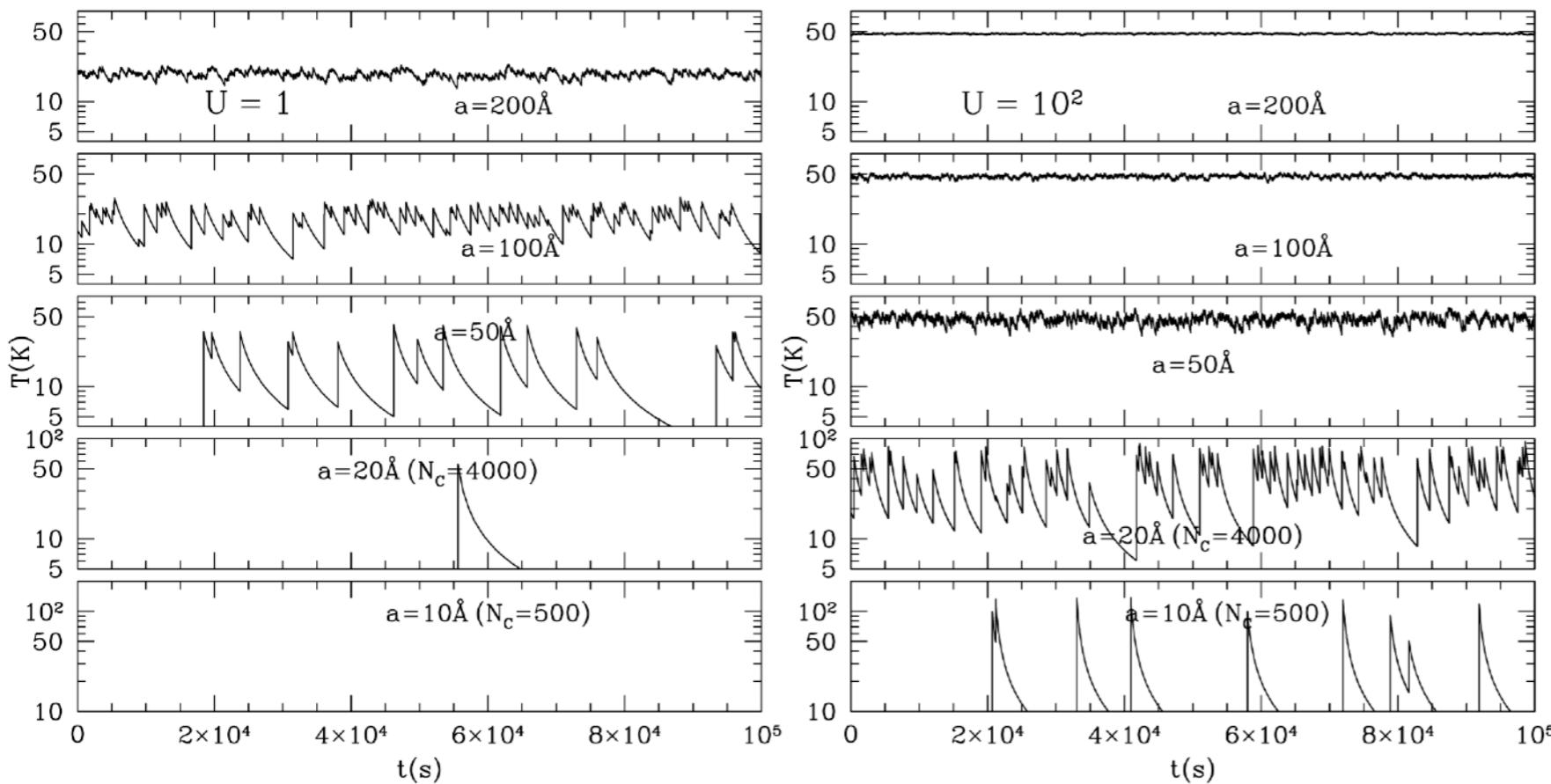
U = strength of the interstellar radiation field in units of Mathis model.

- Implications
 - ▶ If the ISRF is doubled, the grain temperature increases by $\sim 12\%$. In order to increase the temperature by a factor of 2, 64 times stronger radiation is required.
 - ▶ ***There is also little dependence of the grain temperature on grain radius. Therefore, large grains can be regarded to be grains with a single size.***

Stochastic Heating of Very Small Grains

- Temperature History:

- ▶ Two effects become increasingly important with diminishing grain size: (1) the heat capacity of the dust becomes sufficiently small that single-particle hits can cause large spikes in the dust temperature and (2) the absorption rate with photons becomes sufficiently low that the cooling of the dust between successive collisions becomes important.
- ▶ ***Therefore, for very small dust grains, it is clear that one cannot speak of a representative grain temperature under these conditions - one must instead use a temperature distribution function.***



Monte-Carlo simulations of the temperature fluctuation: Temperature versus time during 10^5 s (~ 1 day) for five carbonaceous grains in two radiation fields: the local starlight intensity ($U = 1$; left panel) and 10^2 times the local starlight intensity ($U = 10^2$; right panel). The importance of quantized stochastic heating is evident for the smallest sizes.

[Fig 24.5, Draine]

Virial Theorem

Virial Theorem

- For a collection of N point particles, the total moment of inertia is given by

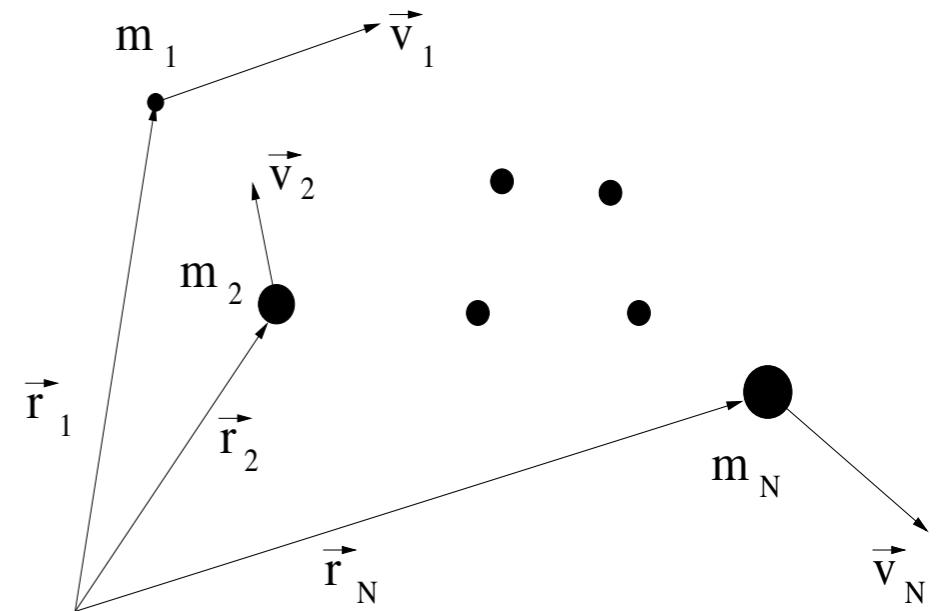
$$I = \sum_i m_i |\mathbf{r}_i|^2 = \sum_i m_i \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i$$

- The time derivative of the moment of inertia is called the **virial**:

$$Q = \frac{1}{2} \frac{dI}{dt} = \sum_i \mathbf{p}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i$$

Here, momentum vector:

$$\mathbf{p}_i = m_i \mathbf{v}_i \quad \left(= m_i \frac{d\mathbf{r}_i}{dt} \right)$$



Now take the time derivative of the viral

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dQ}{dt} &= \sum_i \mathbf{p}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_i + \sum_i \frac{d\mathbf{p}_i}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \\ &= \sum_i m_i \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_i + \sum_i \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \end{aligned}$$

Newton's second law:

$$\mathbf{F}_i = \frac{d\mathbf{p}_i}{dt} \quad (\text{the sum of all forces acting on particle } i)$$

The first term can be expressed in terms of the total kinetic energy of the system

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = 2K + \sum_i \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \quad \left(\text{where } K = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} m_i |\mathbf{v}_i|^2 \right)$$

Virial: from Latin “vis,” meaning “force” or “energy.”

- The total force on particle i is the sum of all the forces from the other particles j in the system:

$$\mathbf{F}_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \quad \text{Here, } \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \text{ is the force acting on particle } i \text{ from particle } j$$

Then,

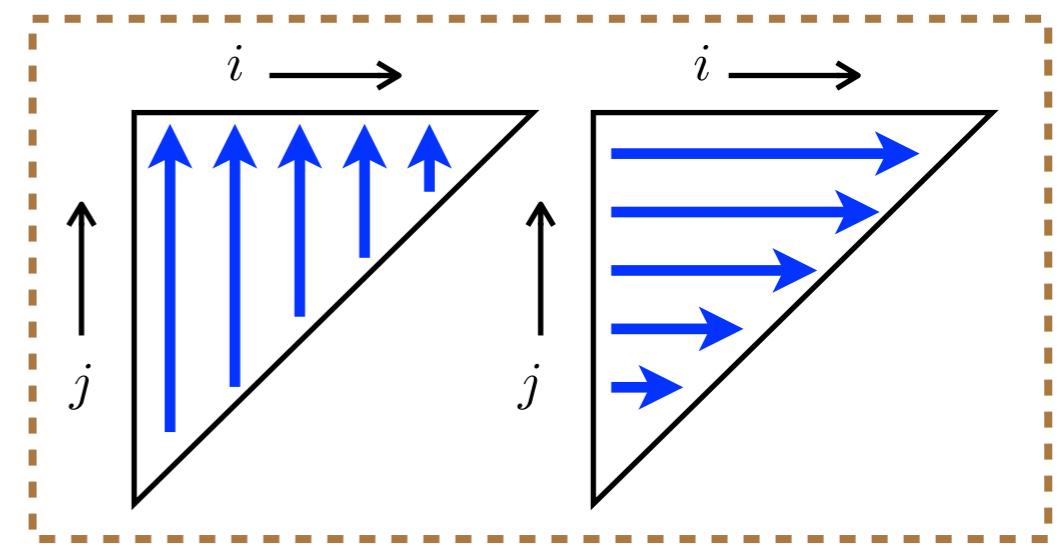
$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j > i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \end{aligned}$$

The last term can be rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j > i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i &= \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i < j} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \quad \text{interchange the ordering of the sums.} \quad \leftarrow \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} \mathbf{f}_{i \rightarrow j} \cdot \mathbf{r}_j \quad \text{interchange the name of the indices } i \text{ and } j. \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot \mathbf{r}_j \quad \text{Newton's third law: } \mathbf{f}_{i \rightarrow j} = -\mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} \mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j)$$



- Now, consider the gravitational force:

$$\mathbf{f}_{j \rightarrow i} = \frac{Gm_i m_j}{r_{ij}^3} (\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_i) \longrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i = - \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} \frac{Gm_i m_j}{r_{ij}}$$

where $r_{ij} = |\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_i|$

Note that the gravitational potential energy between particle i and j is given by $U_{ij} = -\frac{Gm_i m_j}{r_{ij}}$.

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j < i} U_{ij} = U \Rightarrow \text{total potential energy of the system}$$

The total potential energy of the system is the sum of the potential energy between all possible pairs of particles (note that one pair of particle should be counted only once, this is why there is a $j < i$ in the second sum).

- We finally obtain the following. Now we take the mean value of the derivative of the virial over a long period of time:

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = 2K + U \longrightarrow \left\langle \frac{dQ}{dt} \right\rangle = 2 \langle K \rangle + \langle U \rangle$$

- If **the system is bounded and the particles have finite momentum**, the average value will go to zero and we obtain the virial theorem:

$$\left\langle \frac{dQ}{dt} \right\rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{Q(T) - Q(0)}{T} = 0 \longrightarrow 2 \langle K \rangle + \langle U \rangle = 0 \quad \langle \rangle \text{ denotes both the ensemble average and time average.}$$

Ergodic hypothesis: Averaging system variables over a long time period is equal to averaging them over the ensemble.

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T dt \rightarrow \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N$$

If a bound system has a huge number of particles, it is equivalent to seeing the system over a long period of time.

Virial Mass Estimate

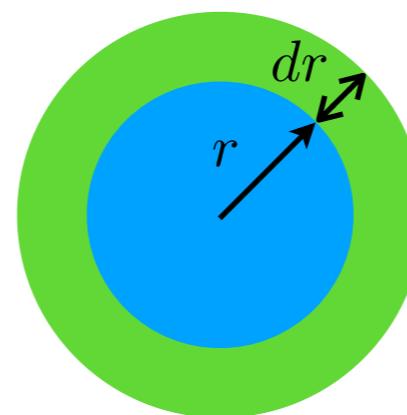
- A fundamental property is that GMCs are gravitationally bound and in viral equilibrium.
 - Their masses can then be estimated using line widths as a measure of the cloud velocities, following the arguments of Solomon et al.
 - The virial theorem provides a general equation that relates **the average over time of the total kinetic energy** of a stable, self-gravitating system of discrete particles, with **the total potential energy** of the system.

$$2 \langle K \rangle + \langle U \rangle = 0$$

- For a uniform density sphere with a mass M and radius R , the gravitational potential energy is

$$U = -\frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned} U &= - \int_0^R \frac{GM_r dM_r}{r} \\ &= - \int_0^R \frac{G}{r} \left(\frac{4\pi}{3} r^3 \rho \right) 4\pi r^2 \rho dr \\ &= - \frac{(4\pi)^2}{3 \times 5} G \rho^2 R^5 = -\frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R} \end{aligned}$$



constant density $\rho = \frac{M}{(4\pi/3)R^3}$

Mass within a radius r

$$M_r = \int_0^r \rho(4\pi r'^2 dr') = \frac{4\pi}{3} r^3 \rho$$

Mass within a shell $(r, r + dr)$

$$dM_r = \rho(4\pi r^2 dr)$$

- If the cloud is in equilibrium, with self-gravity being balanced by turbulent pressure, the virial theorem states that the turbulent velocity, in one dimension, to be

$$\langle K \rangle = \sum_i \frac{3}{2} m_i \langle v_i^2 \rangle = \frac{3}{2} \sum_i m_i \sigma_v^2 = \frac{3}{2} M \sigma_v^2 \quad \text{Here, } \sigma_v \text{ is the rms velocity dispersion.}$$

$$2 \langle K \rangle + \langle U \rangle = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \sigma_v^2 = \frac{1}{5} \frac{GM}{R}$$

- Therefore, we obtain the total mass of the self-gravitating cloud in terms of the line width (broadening parameter):

virial mass:
$$M = \frac{5b^2 R}{2G} \approx 600 M_{\odot} \left(\frac{b}{1 \text{ km s}^{-1}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{R}{1 \text{ pc}} \right)$$

Here, $b = \sqrt{2}\sigma_v$.

The rms velocity is defined as in

$$f(v) = \frac{1}{\sigma_v \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{v^2}{2\sigma_v^2}}$$

The broadening parameter is defined as in

$$f(v) = \frac{1}{b\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{v^2}{b^2}}$$

Formation of Stars

Star-Gas-Star Cycle

- Stars (and their planetary systems) are formed out of the ISM material through gravitational contraction, making for a kind of star-gas-star cycle.

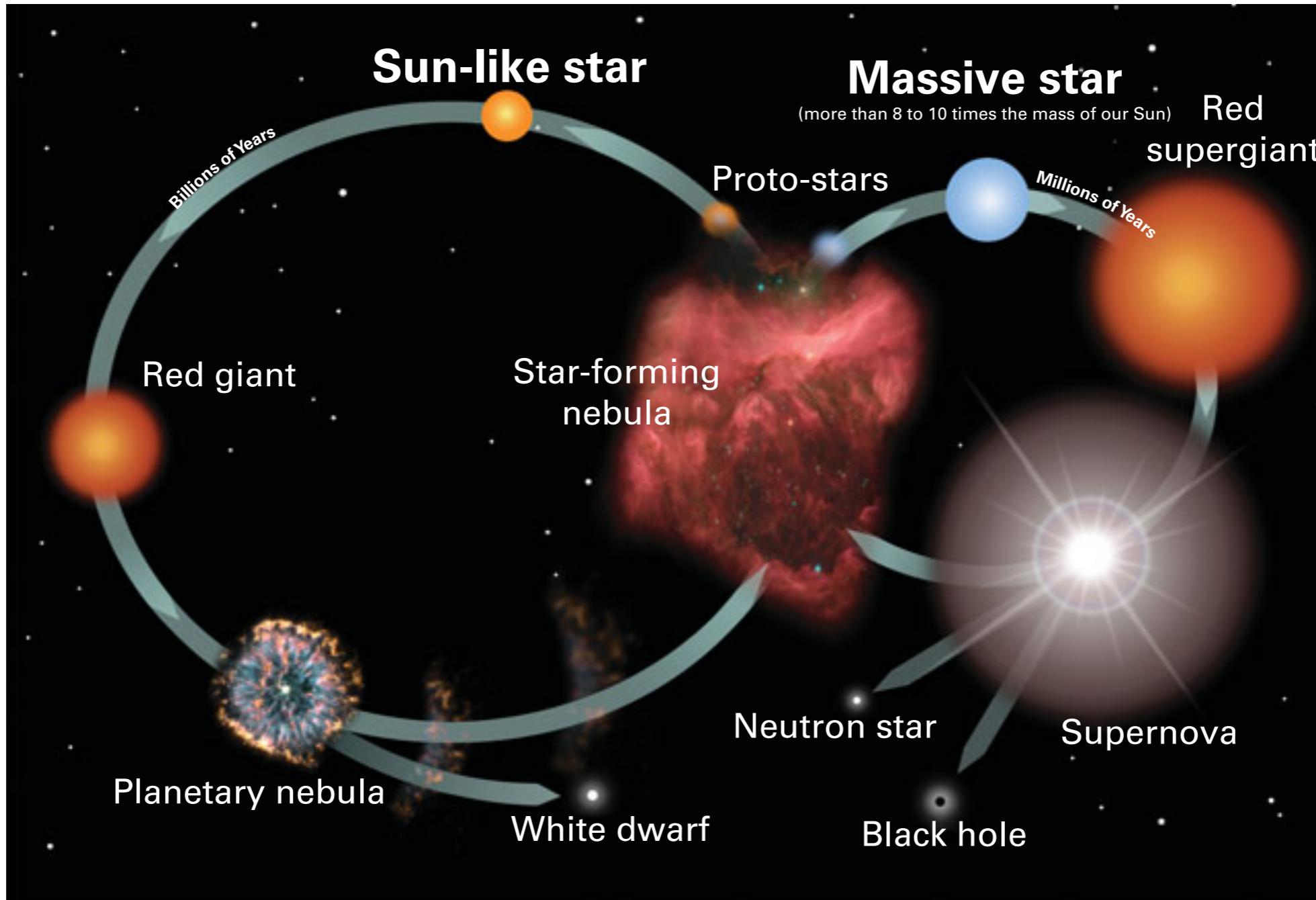


Illustration of formation of solar-type and massive stars from interstellar cloud [S. Owocki]

Star-Gas Cycle

- Assume that, on average, ***a typical atom spends roughly equal fractions of time in the star versus the ISM phase of this cycle,***
 - then the average density of gas in the ISM should be roughly equal to the mass of the stars spread out over the volume between them.
 - In the region of the Galaxy near the Sun (solar neighborhood), a typical separation between stars is

$$d \approx 2 \text{ pc}$$

- the mean number density of stars

$$n_* \approx 1/d^3 \approx 0.1 \text{ pc}^{-3}$$

- If we take the average mass of each star to be roughly that of the Sun, we obtain a mean mass density

$$\rho \approx M_\odot n_* \approx 7 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g/cm}^3$$

- With a composition dominated by hydrogen, the associated ISM hydrogen-atom number density is

$$n \approx \rho/m_p \approx 4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

- The characteristic ISM number $n \approx 1 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ is comparable to this “very rough” estimate.

Jeans Criterion for Gravitational Contraction

- Stars generally form in clusters from the gravitational contraction of a dense, cold GMC.
 - The requirements for such gravitational contraction depend on the relative magnitudes of the total internal thermal (kinetic) energy K versus the gravitational binding energy U .
 - For a cloud of mass M , uniform temperature T , and mean mass per particle μ , the total number of particles $N = M/\mu$ have an associated total thermal energy,

$$K = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T = \frac{3}{2} \frac{M k_B T}{\mu}$$

- For a spherical cloud with radius R and uniform density, the associated gravitational binding energy is

$$U = -\frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

- Recall that $K = -U/2$ is the condition for stably bound systems in virial equilibrium.
- Therefore, for a cloud with $K > -U/2$, the excess internal pressure would do work to expand the cloud against gravity, leading to it to be unbound.
- Conversely, for $K < -U/2$, the too-low pressure would allow the cloud to gravitationally contract, leading to a more strongly bound cloud.

- The critical requirement, known as the ***Jeans criterion***, for gravitational contraction can be obtained from the above argument.

$$K < -U/2 \implies \frac{3}{2} \frac{Mk_B T}{\mu} < \frac{3}{10} \frac{GM^2}{R} \implies \frac{M}{R} > \frac{5k_B T}{G\mu}$$

- ***Jeans radius*** (in terms of the number density of atom $n = \rho/\mu$)

$$M = \frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 n \mu \implies R > \left(\frac{15}{4\pi} \frac{k_B T}{G n \mu^2} \right)^{1/2} \equiv R_J$$

molecular hydrogen
↓

$$R_J \approx 15 \text{ pc} \left(\frac{T/100 \text{ K}}{n/10 \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{2m_p}{\mu} \right)$$

- ***Jeans mass***

$$M > \frac{4\pi}{3} R_J^3 n \mu = \frac{5}{\mu^2} \left(\frac{15}{4\pi n} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{G} \right)^{3/2} \equiv M_J$$

$$M_J \approx 7300 M_{\odot} \frac{(T/100 \text{ K})^{3/2}}{(n/10 \text{ cm}^{-3})^{1/2}} \left(\frac{2m_p}{\mu} \right)^2$$

- For typical ISM conditions, both the Jeans radius and mass are quite large, implying it can be actually quite difficult to initiate gravitational contraction.
- A general conclusion of such a large Jeans mass is that **stars tend typically to be formed in large clusters, resulting from an initial contraction of a GMC**, with mass of order 10^4 solar mass or more.
- ***Jeans fragmentation***: The Jeans length and mass both scale inversely with the square root of the density. This suggests that **a collapsing cloud may break into multiple smaller pieces** as it becomes denser.

Free-fall time (Dynamical time scale)

- **Free-fall timescale**

- In the absence of any support, the collapse can be described as a free-fall with acceleration determined by the gravitational force,

$$m \frac{d^2r}{dt^2} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2} \quad (m = \text{test particle mass})$$

- boundary condition: $v = \frac{dr}{dt} = 0$ at the outer radius $r = R$

$$\frac{d^2r}{dt^2} = \frac{dv}{dr} \frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{dv^2}{dr} \longrightarrow \frac{dv^2}{dr} = -\frac{GM}{r^2} \implies v^2 = 2GM \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{R} \right) \implies \frac{dr}{dt} = -\left[2GM \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{R} \right) \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\int_0^{t_{ff}} dt = - \int_R^0 \frac{dr}{\left[2GM \left(\frac{1}{R} - \frac{1}{r} \right) \right]^{1/2}} = \left(\frac{2R^3}{GM} \right)^{1/2} \frac{\pi}{4}$$

the negative sign is chosen because the core is collapsing.

- free-fall time (the times for the test particle to move from the outer radius to the center)

$$M = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho \rightarrow t_{ff} = \left(\frac{3\pi}{32G\rho} \right)^{1/2} = 3.6 \left(\frac{100 \text{ cm}^{-3}}{n} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{2m_p}{\mu} \right)^{1/2} \text{ Myr}$$

- Note that we assumed no force against the gravity. But, there will be a significant source of internal pressure against the gravity while the material collapse.

• Star Formation Efficiency

- In our Galaxy, the total mass in GMCs with density $n \gtrsim 100 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ is $M_{\text{GMC}} \approx 10^9 M_{\odot}$. Since this mass should collapse to stars over a free-fall time, it suggests an overall galactic star-formation rate is given by

$$\dot{M}_{\text{SFR}} = \frac{M_{\text{GMC}}}{t_{\text{ff}}} \approx 280 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$$

- But the observationally inferred star-formation rate is much smaller, only $\sim 1 M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, implying an star-formation efficiency of only

$$\epsilon_{\text{ff}} \lesssim 0.01$$

**star formation efficiency =
the mass fraction of a cloud that ultimately turns into stars in a unit time interval**

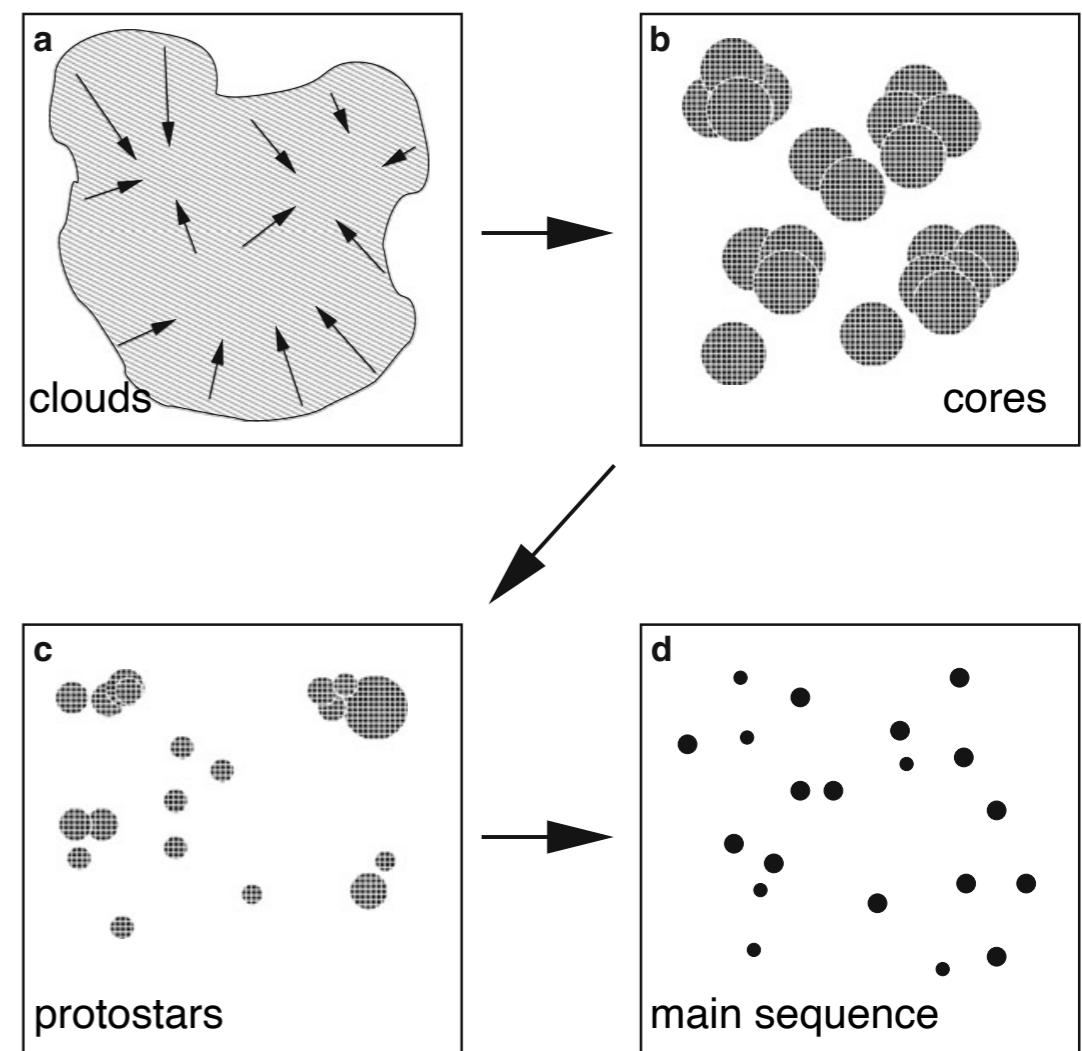
- The reasons for this are not entirely clear, but may stem in part from inhibition of gravitational collapse by **interstellar magnetic fields**, and/or by **interstellar turbulence**.
- Another likely factor is the **feedback from hot, massive stars**, which heat up and ionize the cloud out of which they form, thus preventing the further gravitational contraction of the cloud into more stars.
- Modeling this feedback loop is a major challenge and a topic of current research.

Fragmentation into Cold Cores

- Fragmentation
 - In those portions of a GMC that do undergo gravitational collapse, the contraction soon leads to higher densities, and thus to smaller Jeans mass and Jeans radius, along with a shorter free-fall time.

because $M_J \propto \rho^{-1/2}$, $R_J \propto \rho^{-1/2}$, and $t_{\text{ff}} \propto \rho^{-1/2}$

- This tends to cause the overall cloud, with total mass, to fragment into much smaller, stellar-mass cloud “cores” that will form into individual stars.
- The fragmentation process is a hierarchical process in which parent clouds break up into subclouds, which may themselves break into smaller structures.
 - ◆ 10 kpc - spiral arms of the Galaxy
 - ◆ 1 kpc - H I super clouds
 - ◆ 100 pc - giant molecular clouds
 - ◆ 10 pc - molecular clouds
 - ◆ 0.1 pc - molecular cloud cores
 - ◆ 100 AU - protostars
- Stars are the final step of fragmentation.



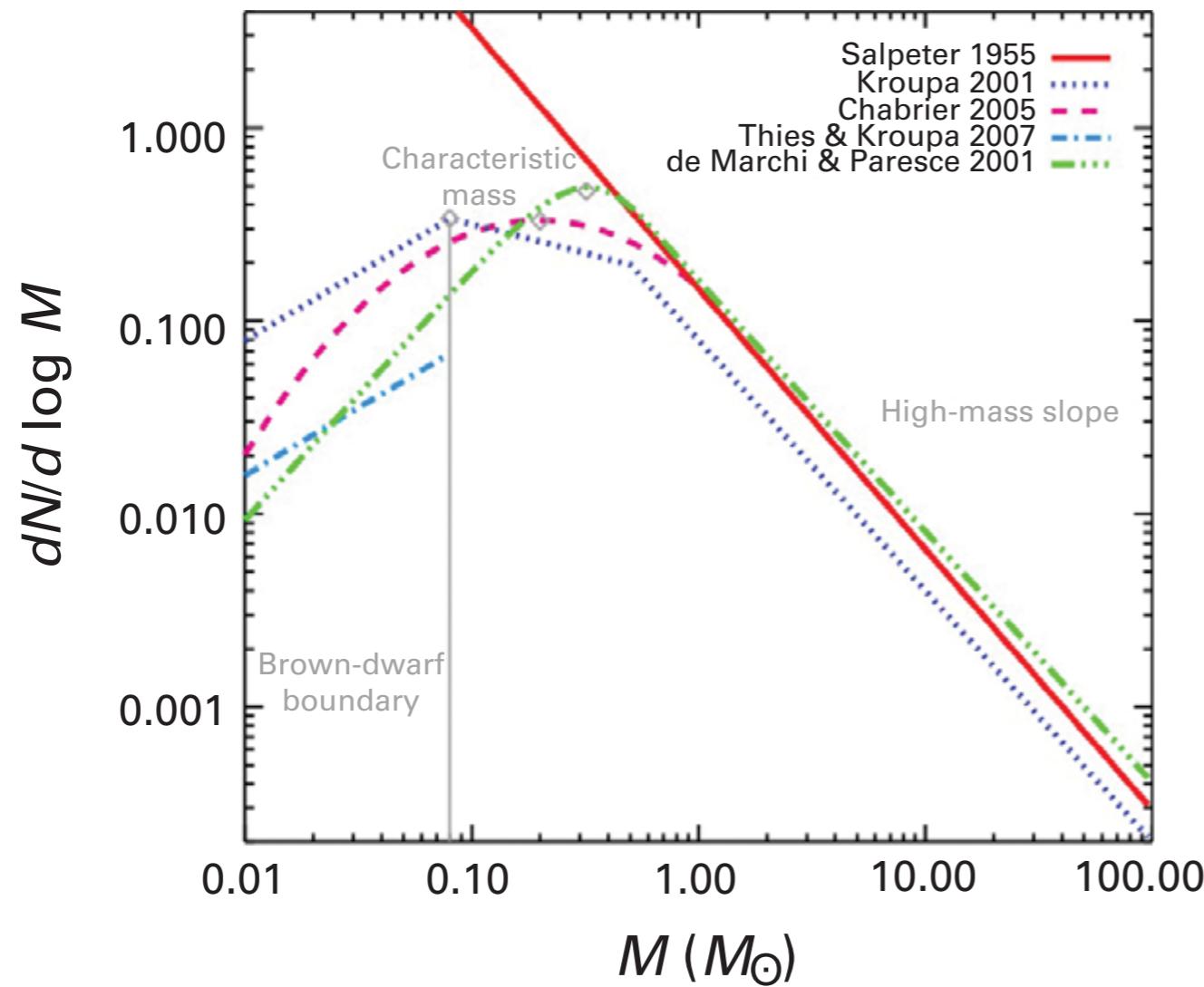
Initial Mass Function

- Initial Mass Function
 - A key, still-unsolved issue in star formation regards the physical processes and conditions that determine the mass distribution of these proto-stellar cores, leading then to what is known as the stellar initial mass function (IMF).
 - ***IMF = the number of stars per a unit mass range as a function of mass.***
 - Studies of the evolution of stellar clusters suggest that this can be roughly characterized by a power-law form:

$$\frac{dN}{dm} = K m^{-\alpha} \quad (\alpha \approx 2.35 \text{ for } m > 1 M_{\odot}; \text{ Salpeter IMF})$$

- Here, K is a normalization factor that depends on the total number of stars. ***The large power-law index reflects the fact that higher-mass stars are much rarer than lower-mass stars.***

- More modern models generally flatten the distribution at lower-mass, as illustrated in the following figure. This allows them to be normalized to a finite number when integrated over all masses.



Comparison of IMFs from various authors.

Except for the Salpeter pure-power-law form, the curves are normalized such that the integral over mass is unity.

[Offner et al. 2014]

- With a given form of the IMF for a collapsing GMC, one can model the evolution of the resulting stellar cluster, based on how each star with a given mass evolves through its various evolutionary phases, e.g., main sequence, red giant, etc.

The Bonnor-Ebert Sphere

- ***Resistance by thermal pressure***
 - The free-fall time is a useful guide to the scales involved in the collapse of a dense molecular core to form a star.
 - But, in practice, gravity is resisted by ***other forces. This can slow down collapse or allow stable cores to exist.***
- ***Bonnor-Ebert sphere*** = a spherical core in balance between self-gravity and thermal pressure
 - The balance can be described by the fluid equations for an ***isothermal cloud*** ($T = \text{constant}$), composed of molecular hydrogen, in spherical coordinates:

∇^2 : del squared / Laplacian

Poisson's equation	$\nabla^2\phi = 4\pi G\rho$
hydrostatic equilibrium	$\nabla P = -\rho\nabla\phi$
equation of state	$P = nk_B T$

→

Here, ϕ = gravitational potential
 P = pressure
 n = number density
 ρ = mass density

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dr} \right) = 4\pi G\rho$$

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho \frac{d\phi}{dr}$$

$$P = \rho c_s^2$$

$$c_s = (k_B T / m_{H_2})^{1/2}, \quad \rho = n m_{H_2}$$

$$c_s = \text{sound speed}$$

- ***singular isothermal sphere (SIS)***: a simple power law solution
 - The equations have a simple power law solution.

Assume:

$$\rho = \rho_0 r^\alpha \rightarrow P = \rho_0 c_s^2 r^\alpha \longrightarrow \frac{d\phi}{dr} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP}{dr} = -\alpha \frac{c_s^2}{r}$$

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dr} \right) = 4\pi G \rho \rightarrow \frac{\alpha c_s^2}{r^2} = -4\pi G \rho_0 r^\alpha$$

- This implies $\alpha = -2$ and the solution is given by

$$\rho = \frac{c_s^2}{2\pi G} r^{-2}$$

- This is called the singular isothermal sphere. It matched many of the early observations of dense molecular cores.
- However, it is physically unrealistic in that the density and mass increase without limit on small and large scales, respectively.

$$\rho(r=0) \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \int_0^\infty \rho (4\pi r^2) dr \rightarrow \infty$$

- Indeed, as technology allowed higher resolution observations at mm wavelengths, it became apparent that **core densities reached a plateau toward the center**.

- ***general solution*** (for the case of a finite central density)

- For a finite central density ρ_{cen} at $r = 0$, we must numerically integrate the equations. These can be simplified by combining the 2nd (hydrodynamic equilibrium) and 3rd (equation of state) equations to

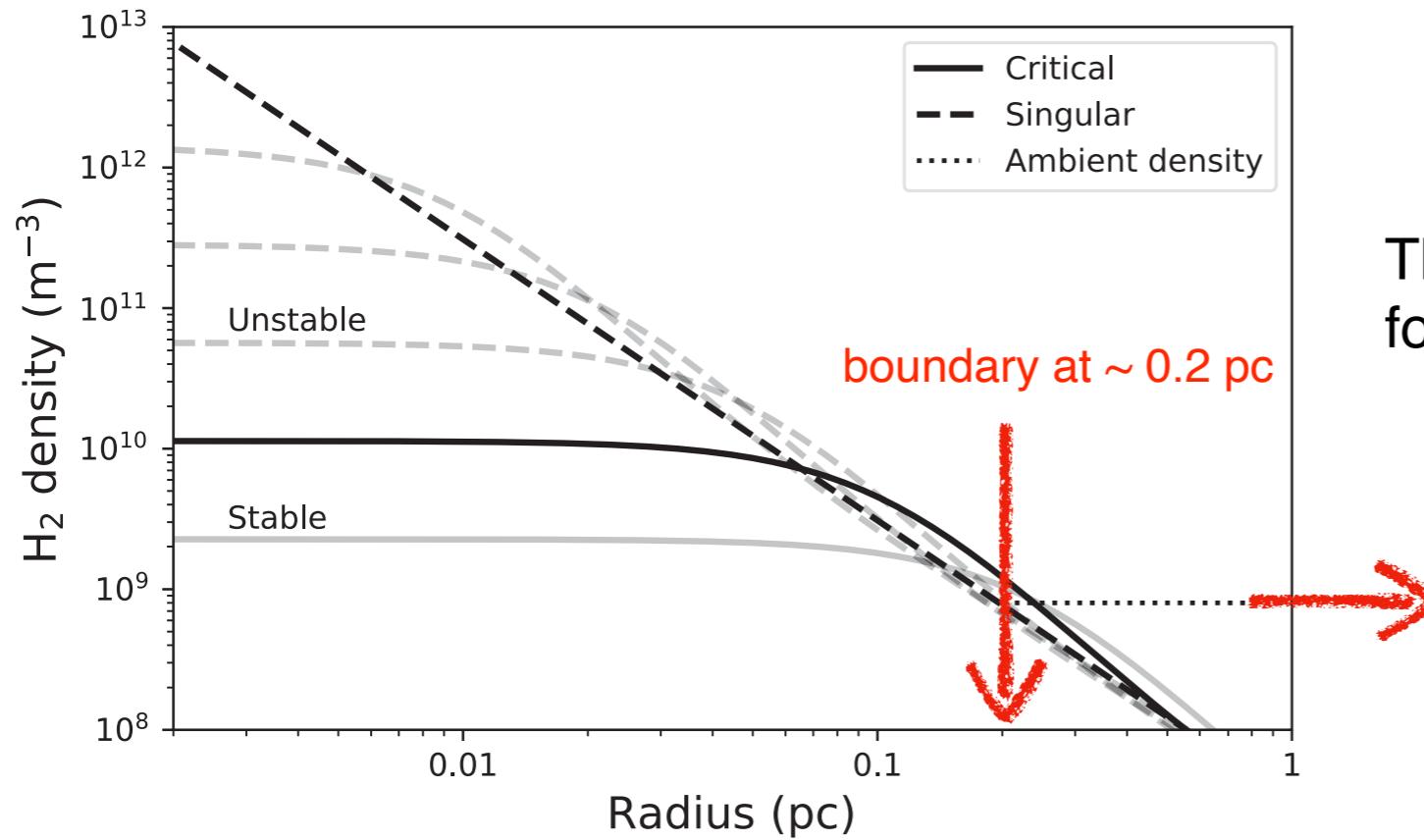
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho \frac{d\phi}{dr} &\rightarrow c_s^2 d\rho = -\rho d\phi & \rho = \rho_{\text{cen}} \text{ and } \phi = 0 \text{ at } r = 0 \\ &\rightarrow \int \frac{1}{\rho} d\rho = -\frac{1}{c_s^2} \int d\phi & \downarrow \\ && \rho = \rho_{\text{cen}} e^{-\phi/c_s^2} \end{aligned}$$

- Then, the Poisson equation (1st eq) becomes the dimensionless equation:

$$\frac{1}{x^2} \frac{d}{dx} \left(x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} \right) = e^{-y} \quad \text{where } x = \left(\frac{4\pi G \rho_{\text{cen}}}{c_s^2} \right)^{1/2} r, \quad y = \frac{\phi}{c_s^2}$$

- This is the Emden-Chandrasekhar equation and it can be numerically solved by numerically integrating outwards.

By the spherical symmetry, the boundary conditions are $\phi = d\phi/dr = 0$ at $r = 0$ ($y = y' = 0$ at $x = 0$).



The figure shows density profiles for different central densities.

ambient pressure $P_{\text{amb}} \simeq 10^{-13} \text{ Pa}$,
temperature $T = 10 \text{ K}$
ambient density $n_{\text{amb}} = P_{\text{amb}}/k_B T = 800 \text{ cm}^{-3}$

- There is no singularity at the center but ***they still have arbitrarily large masses at large scales*** since they have the same behavior as the SIS, $\rho \propto 1/r^2$ more or less independent of the central density.
- The density does not go to zero, but the core will merge into the ambient ISM. The outer radius will be set by the ambient density. This sets a finite boundary at ~ 0.2 pc in the above figure and therefore a finite mass.
- For the SIS, the outer boundary and the mass contained within this radius are

$$R_{\text{SIS}} = \frac{c_s}{(2\pi G \rho_{\text{amb}})^{1/2}} \quad \text{and} \quad M_{\text{SIS}} = \int_0^{R_{\text{SIS}}} 4\pi r^2 \rho dr = \left(\frac{2}{\pi G^3 \rho_{\text{amb}}} \right)^{1/2} c_s^3$$

- In general, the total enclosed mass is given by the dimensionless variables,

$$M_{\text{enclosed}} = \frac{c_s^3}{(4\pi G^3 \rho_{\text{amb}})^{1/2}} \left[\left(\frac{\rho_{\text{cen}}}{\rho_{\text{amb}}} \right)^{-1/2} \int_0^{x_{\text{amb}}} x^2 e^{-y} dx \right]$$

Here, x_{amb} is determined by the ambient density constraint,

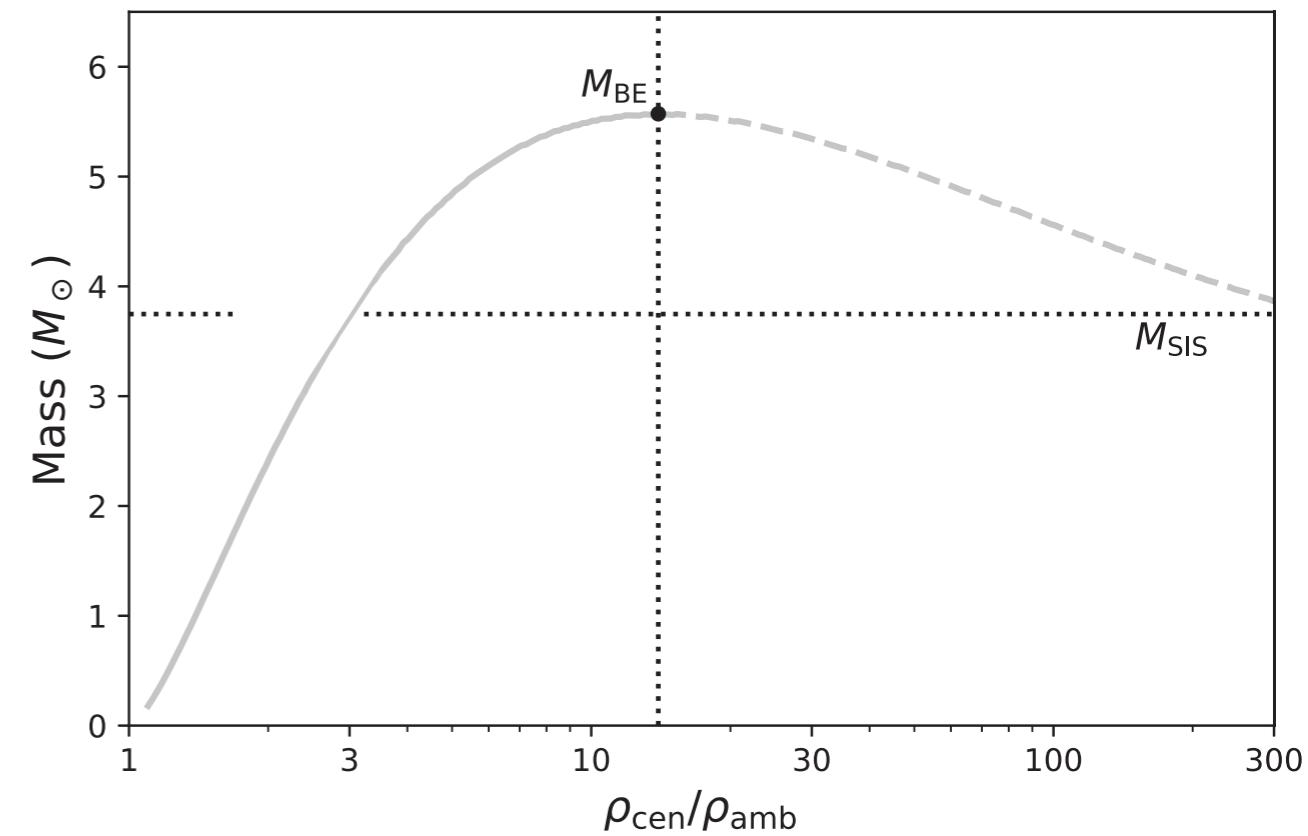
$$y(x_{\text{amb}}) = \ln(\rho_{\text{cen}}/\rho_{\text{amb}})$$

- The mass is plotted as a function of central density in the right side figure. **As the central density increase, the mass initially increases but eventually the core shrinks, the volume decreases, and the enclosed mass drops.**
- The maximum value of the enclosed mass is known as the **Bonnor-Ebert mass**, which is given by

$$M_{\text{BE}} = 1.5 M_{\text{SIS}} = 1.5 \left(\frac{2}{\pi G^3 \rho_{\text{amb}}} \right)^{1/2} c_s^3$$

occurring at $\rho_{\text{cen}}/\rho_{\text{amb}} = 14$

Total enclosed mass vs. the ambient density

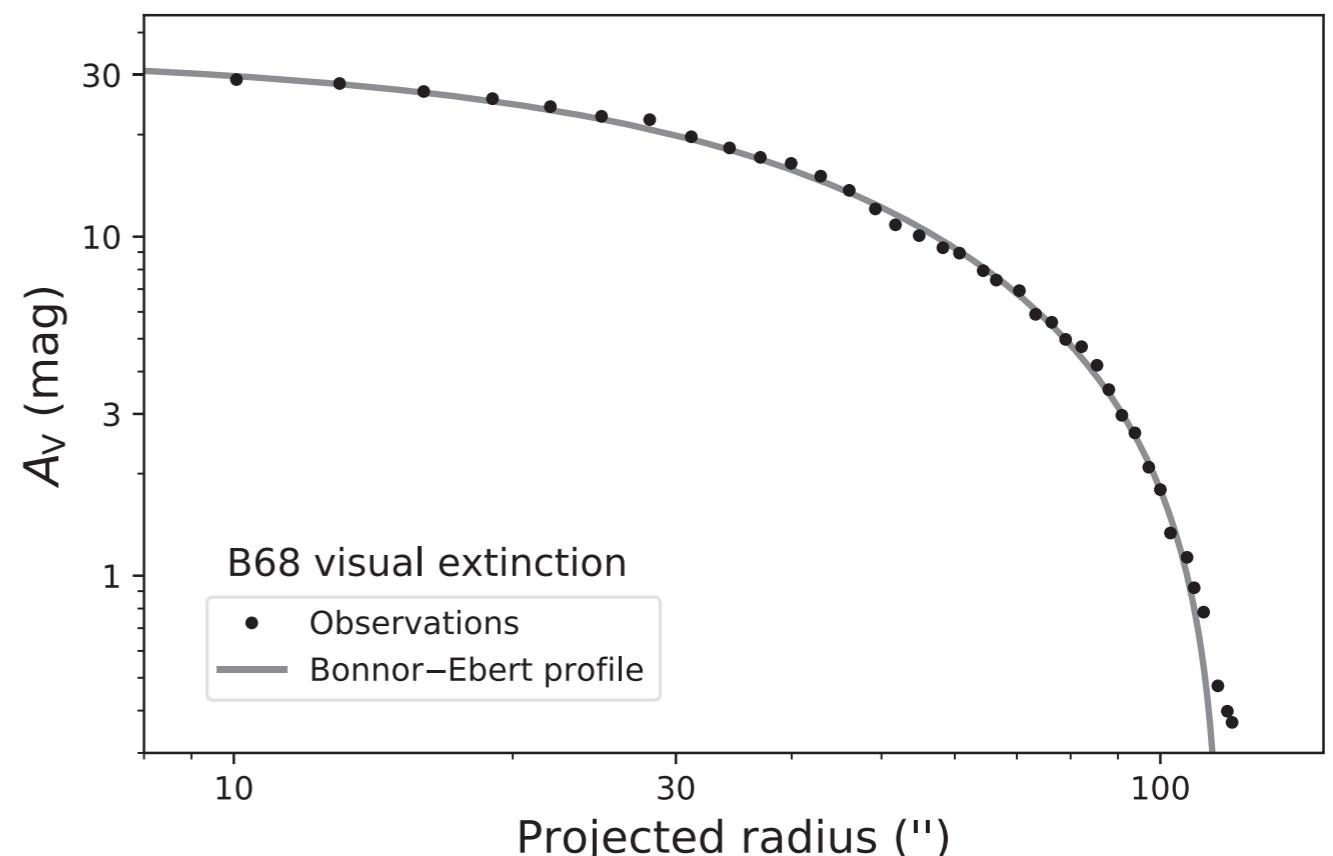


- Jeans mass vs. Bonnor-Ebert mass

$$\begin{aligned} M_J &= \frac{5}{\mu^2} \left(\frac{15}{4\pi n} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{G} \right)^{3/2} \\ &= 5 \left(\frac{15}{4\pi} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{G^3 \rho} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{m_{H_2}} \right)^{3/2} \end{aligned}$$

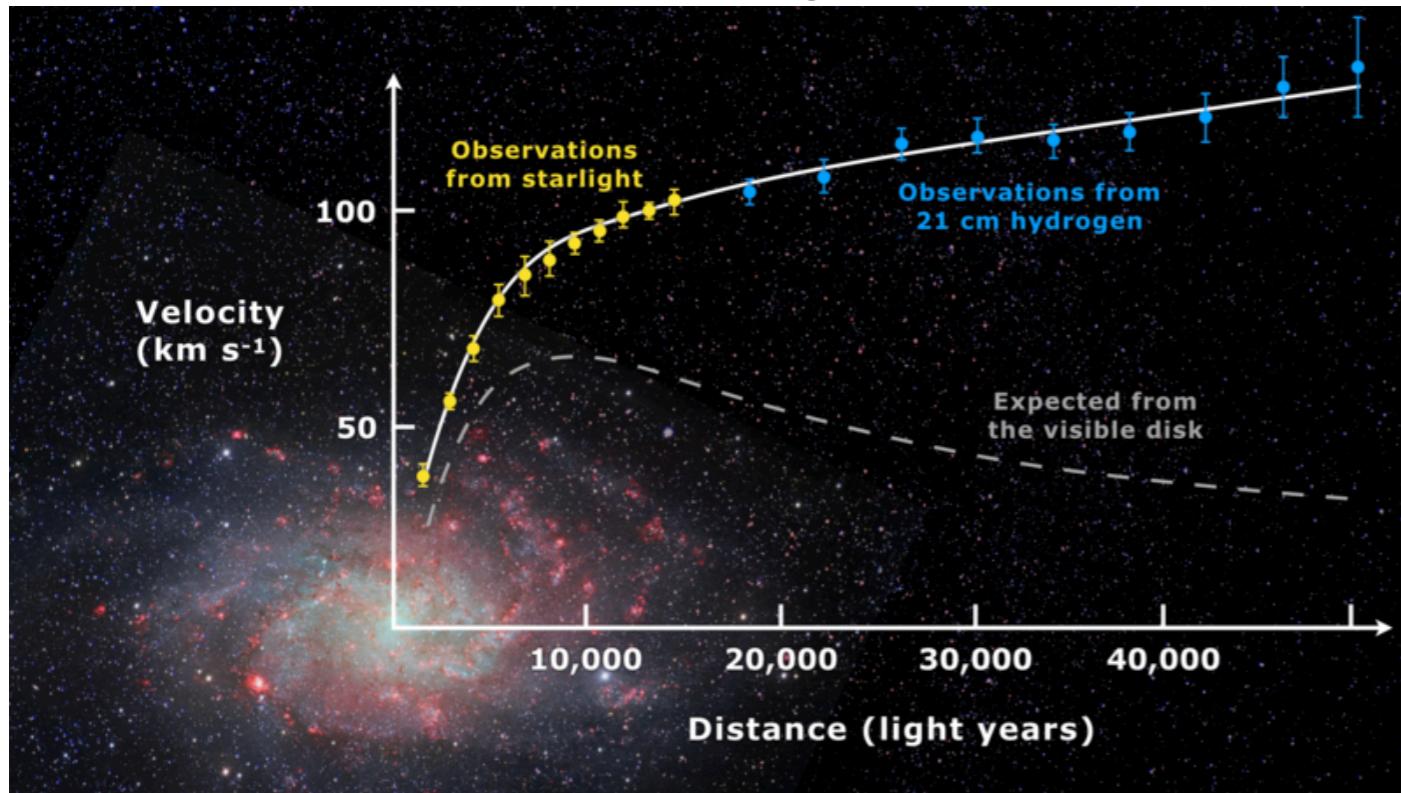
$$\begin{aligned} M_{BE} &= 1.5 \left(\frac{2}{\pi G^3 \rho_{amb}} \right)^{1/2} c_s^3 \\ &= 1.5 \left(\frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{G^3 \rho_{amb}} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{m_{H_2}} \right)^{3/2} \end{aligned}$$

- They have the same dependence on density and temperature, except for a numerical factor.
- Barnard 68 dark cloud
 - A_V was derived from star counts in the optical and Near-IR.
 - The inferred central density is close to the critical value of 14. Therefore, if it were to gain additional mass or externally perturbed, it would undergo collapse.

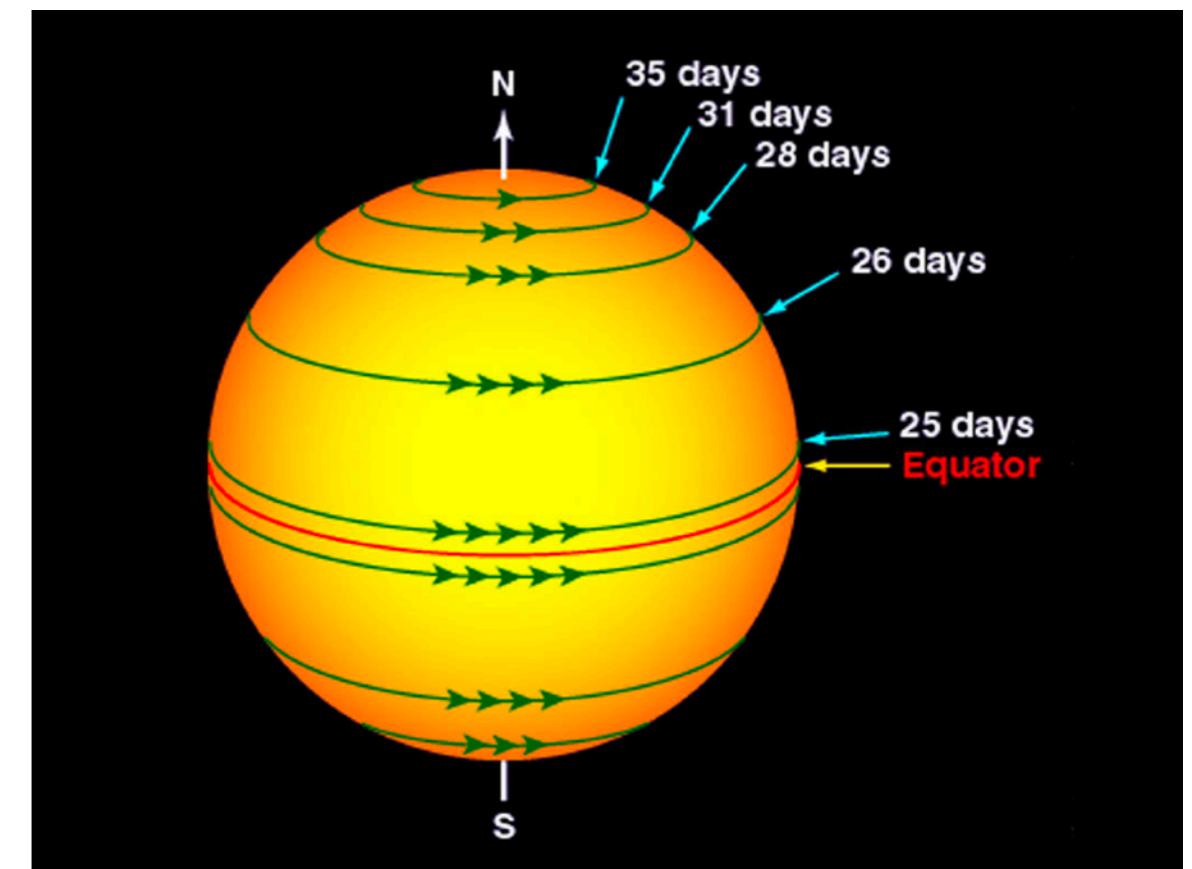


Angular Momentum: Rotation is ubiquitous

Rotation of spiral galaxy M33



Rotation of the Sun

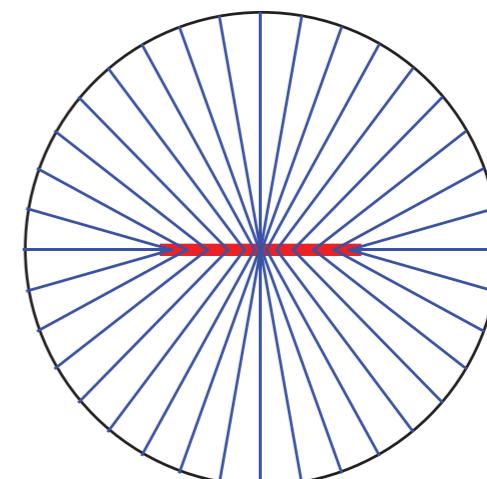


Core Collapse - Angular Momentum Conservation

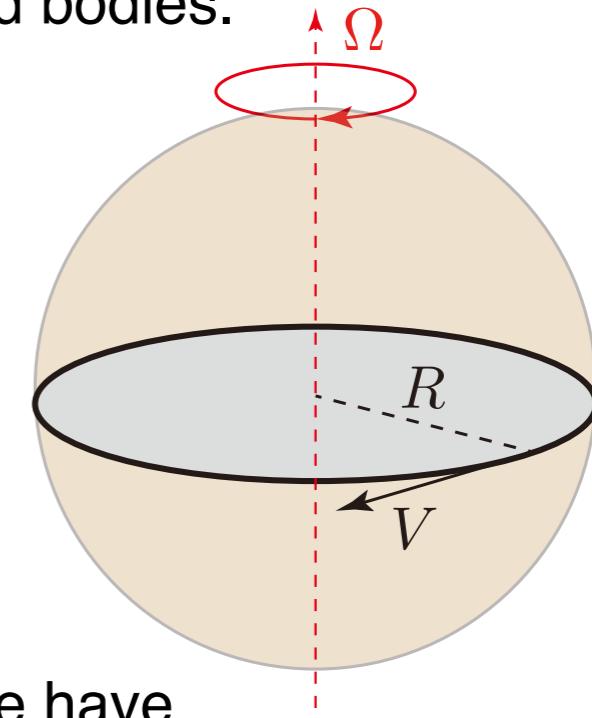
- The gravitational collapse of a cloud core to a star is accompanied by an enormous change in size scale, about six to seven orders of magnitude.

$$\frac{R_{\text{core}}}{R_{\text{star}}} \approx \frac{0.2 \text{ pc}}{3 \times 6.9 \times 10^5 \text{ km}} \approx 3 \times 10^6 \quad \leftarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Assuming} \\ R_{\text{star}} \approx 3R_{\text{sun}} \end{array}$$

- Rotation is a ubiquitous phenomenon from the largest to the smallest scales in our Galaxy; the Galaxy itself rotates as a whole, its individual stars spin too.
- In the same way as ice skaters spin faster as they pull in their arms, if all the angular momentum of the core were to be transferred to the star, it would rotate very rapidly.
- It is observed that molecular clouds do have a small amount of rotation, with velocities of order ***a few hundred meters per second*** ($\sim 0.15 \text{ km/s}$).
- ***The formation of “planets” around stars would not be possible if a certain amount of angular momentum was not present at the beginning of the star formation process.*** The angular momentum thus plays a significant role during the process of star and planet formation.



- Consider the gravitational collapse of a uniform spherical core with radius R_{core} and mass M to a star with radius R_{star} . We will assume that they are rigid bodies.



rotational speed (angular frequency): $\Omega = V/R$

moment of inertia: $I = (2/5)MR^2$

angular momentum: $J = I\Omega$

rotation period: $P = 2\pi/\Omega = 2\pi R/V$

- From the conservation of “mass” and “angular momentum,” we have

$$I_{\text{core}}\Omega_{\text{core}} = I_{\text{star}}\Omega_{\text{star}} \implies MR_{\text{core}}^2\Omega_{\text{core}} = MR_{\text{star}}^2\Omega_{\text{star}} \longrightarrow$$

$$\therefore \Omega_{\text{star}} = \left(\frac{R_{\text{core}}}{R_{\text{star}}}\right)^2 \Omega_{\text{core}}$$

$$P_{\text{star}} = \left(\frac{R_{\text{star}}}{R_{\text{core}}}\right)^2 P_{\text{core}}$$

For $R_{\text{core}} = 0.2 \text{ pc}$,

$R_{\text{star}} = 3R_{\odot} = 3 \times (7 \times 10^8) \text{ m}$,

$V_{\text{core}} = 150 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

We obtain $P_{\text{star}} \simeq 10^{-13} P_{\text{core}}$, $P_{\text{core}} \simeq 0.9 \text{ Myr}$, $P_{\text{star}} \simeq 0.5 \text{ mins}$

$P_{\text{sun}} \simeq 27 \text{ days}$ for reference

- **Stars cannot spin that fast because they would tear apart.** Instead, the core may fragment as its density increases and form more than one star. The bulk of the core rotation then goes into orbital motion of multiple stars (and/or planets) rather than the rotation of a single star.

Core Collapse - Disk Formation

- Ultimately, a core that collapses to a single object will contract until gravity is balanced by centrifugal force. This only acts perpendicular to the rotational axis so the spherical core flattens to a disk.
- If we consider a test particle with mass m at radius R rotating at speed V , the ratio of the two forces is

$$\frac{F_{\text{grav}}}{F_{\text{cen}}} = \frac{GMm/R^2}{mv^2/R} = \frac{GM}{R^3\Omega^2}$$

The condition of $F_{\text{grav}} = F_{\text{cen}}$ is called “Keplerian motion.”

- At the **outer boundary of the disk**, this ratio should be equal to 1.

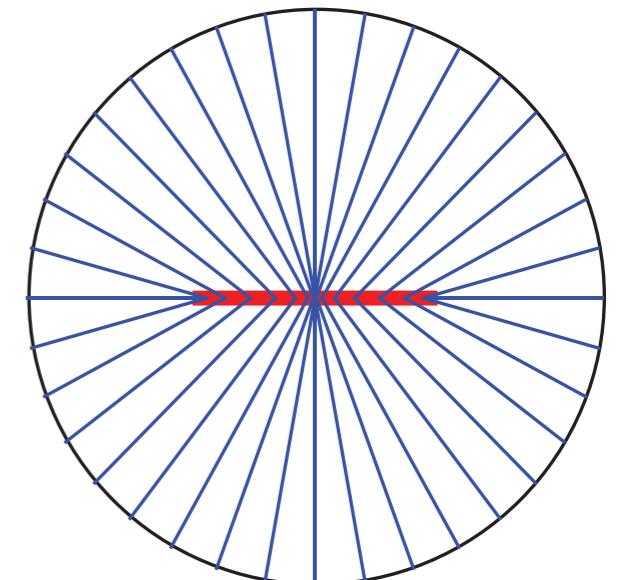
$$R_{\text{disk}}^3\Omega_{\text{disk}}^2 = GM \quad \text{Eq (a)}$$

- Assuming the conservation of angular momentum,

$$R_{\text{disk}}^2\Omega_{\text{disk}} = R_{\text{core}}^2\Omega_{\text{core}} \implies R_{\text{disk}}^4\Omega_{\text{disk}}^2 = R_{\text{core}}^4\Omega_{\text{core}}^2 \quad \text{Eq (b)}$$

- Therefore, after dividing Eq (b) by Eq (a), we have

$$R_{\text{disk}} = \frac{R_{\text{core}}^4\Omega_{\text{core}}^2}{GM} = 2\beta_{\text{eq}}R_{\text{core}} \iff \beta_{\text{eq}} \equiv \frac{\Omega_{\text{core}}^2 R_{\text{core}}^2 / 2}{GM/R_{\text{core}}}$$



Core Collapse - Disk Formation

- Here, β is ***the ratio of rotational to gravitational energy*** at the equator of the core.

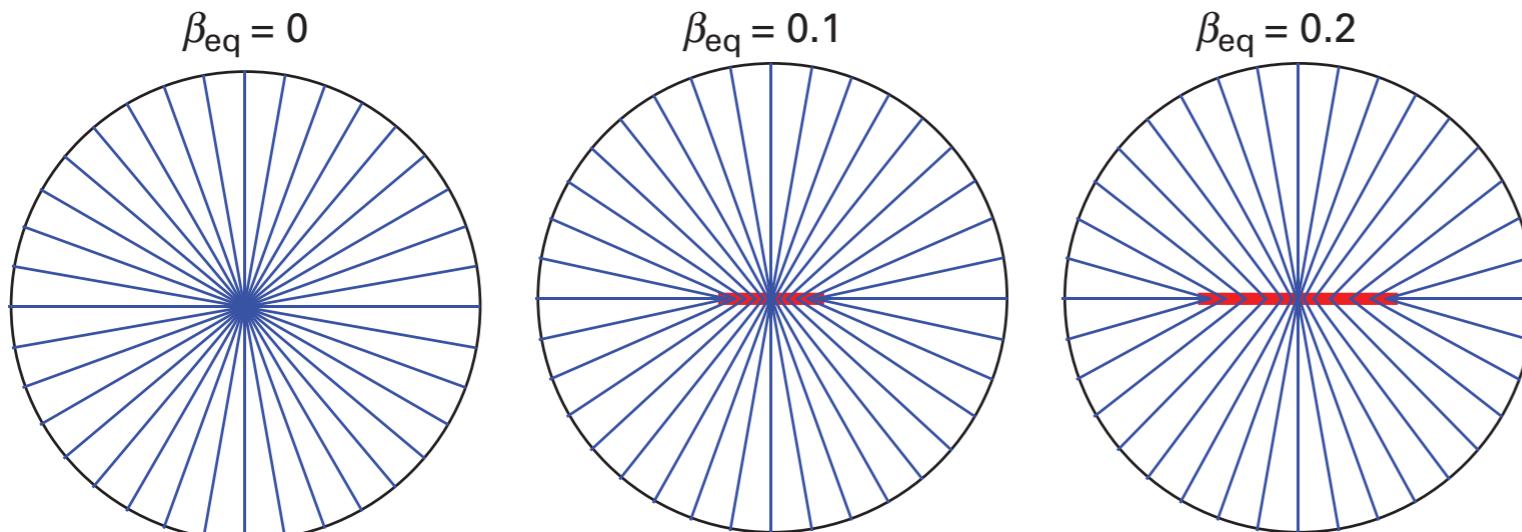
$$\beta_{\text{eq}} \equiv \frac{\Omega_{\text{core}}^2 R_{\text{core}}^2 / 2}{GM/R_{\text{core}}}$$

- Observations of cloud cores gives a typical value of $\beta_{\text{eq}} \approx 0.02$ (Goodman et al. 1993).
- For a cloud core size $R \approx 0.05$ pc, the expected disk radius is a few hundred AU, comparable to the inferred sized of proto-stellar disks.

$$R_{\text{disk}} \approx 410 \text{ AU} \left(\frac{\beta_{\text{eq}}}{0.02} \right) \left(\frac{R_{\text{core}}}{0.05 \text{ pc}} \right)$$

$R_{\text{heliosphere}} \approx 100 \text{ AU}$ for reference

- The following figure illustrates, for various values of β_{eq} , how material from various latitudes in the original clouds track toward the center star or disk under gravitational collapse.



black circle: rigidly rotating spherical cloud
red: orbiting disk

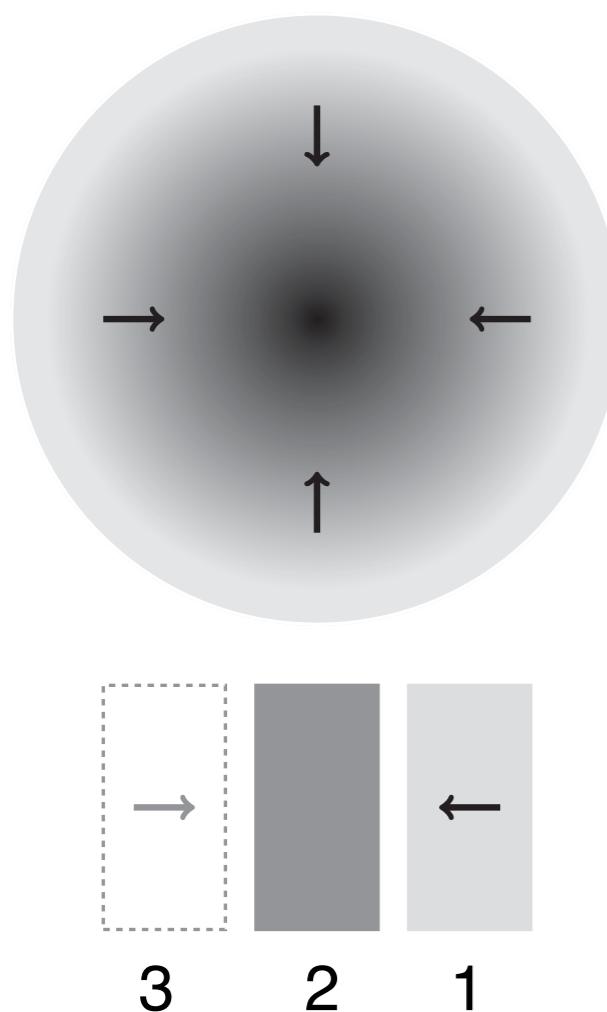
- In disks with Keplerian orbits, the orbital frequency increase inward with radius $\Omega \sim r^{-3/2}$, meaning that between two neighboring rings there is an overall shear in orbital speed.
 - ◆ Any frictional interaction - due to viscosity - between such neighboring rings will tend to transport angular momentum from the faster inner ring to the slower outer ring, allowing the inner mass to fall further inward, while the angular momentum receiving material moves further outward.
 - ◆ This outward viscous diffusion of angular momentum allows, over time, for most of the mass to accrete onto the star, with just a small mass fraction retaining the original angular momentum.
- Eventually, this remnant disk-mass can fragment into its own gravitationally collapsing cores to form planets.
 - ◆ In our solar system, the most massive planet Jupiter has only 0.1% the mass of the Sun, but 99% of the solar system's angular momentum.
 - ◆ Earth too originated from the evolving proto-solar disk.

Observations of Core Collapse: Molecular Emission

- Cooling by Molecular Emission
 - At low temperature $T < 100$ K, cooling by molecular radiation is dominated by CO (carbon monoxide).
 - Such CO molecular cooling is a key factor in initiating and maintaining cloud contraction, by allowing the cloud to shed the increased internal energy gained from the tighter gravitational binding.
 - In virial equilibrium only half of this energy is lost, and so the interior would still heat up in proportion to the stronger gravitational binding.
 - But, in practice, CO emission is often so efficient that the cloud interior can stay cool, or even become cooler, as it contracts.
 - The resulting dramatic reduction in interior pressure support then leads to a full gravitational collapse.

Observations of Core Collapse: Spectral Signature of Core Collapse

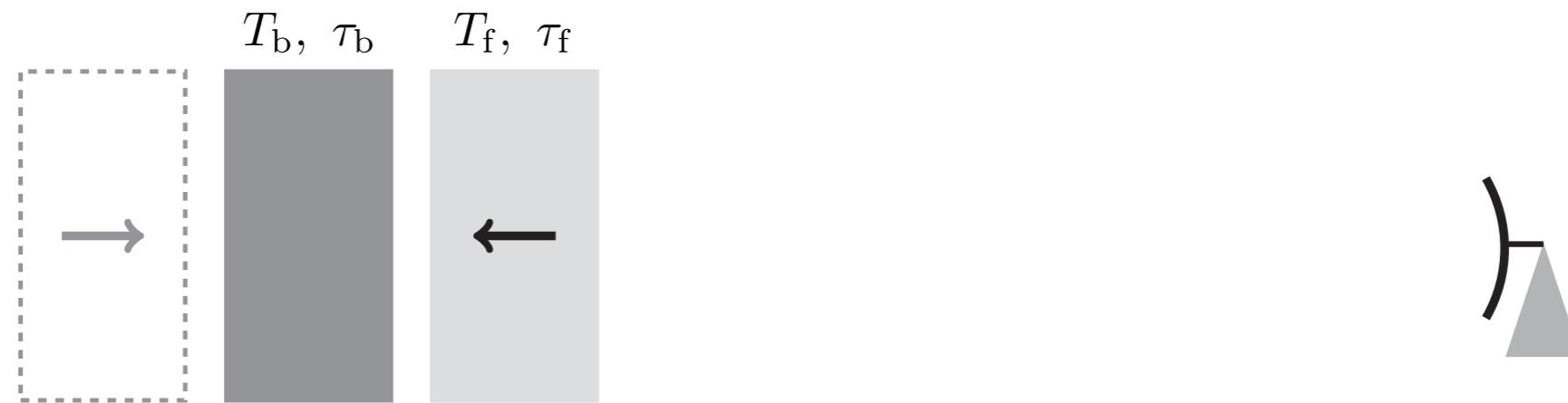
- The gravitational collapse of a cloud core, though fast by astronomical standards, can be observed ***through Doppler shifts of molecular spectral lines***.
- A collapsing core will have a greater velocity dispersion than a static core. However, because we only measure projected motions along the line of sight, we cannot distinguish collapse from expansion via the dispersion alone.
- The trick is to consider observations of an ***optically thick line*** such that we effectively only see the motion of the front side of the core relative to its center.



A collapsing core with a density gradient observed by a radio telescope can be approximated by a slab model for an optically thick line.



The observed emission comes predominantly from the central region “2” and the front layer “1” closest to the observer.



- The observed intensity is then the superposition of “1” the front layer and “2” the back, attenuated by the front.

$$I_\nu = B_\nu(T_f) (1 - e^{-\tau_f}) + B_\nu(T_b) (1 - e^{-\tau_b}) e^{-\tau_f}$$

- ◆ Here, the front layer absorb some of the emission from the back, a phenomenon known as ***self-absorption***.
- ◆ Now, in velocity space relative to the core center (back layer), we assume that the optical depth in each layer is distributed as a Gaussian with uniform velocity dispersion σ and peak values τ_{f0} and τ_{b0} such that

$$\tau_f = \tau_{f0} e^{-(v-v_{in})^2/2\sigma^2}$$

$$\tau_b = \tau_{b0} e^{-v^2/2\sigma^2}$$

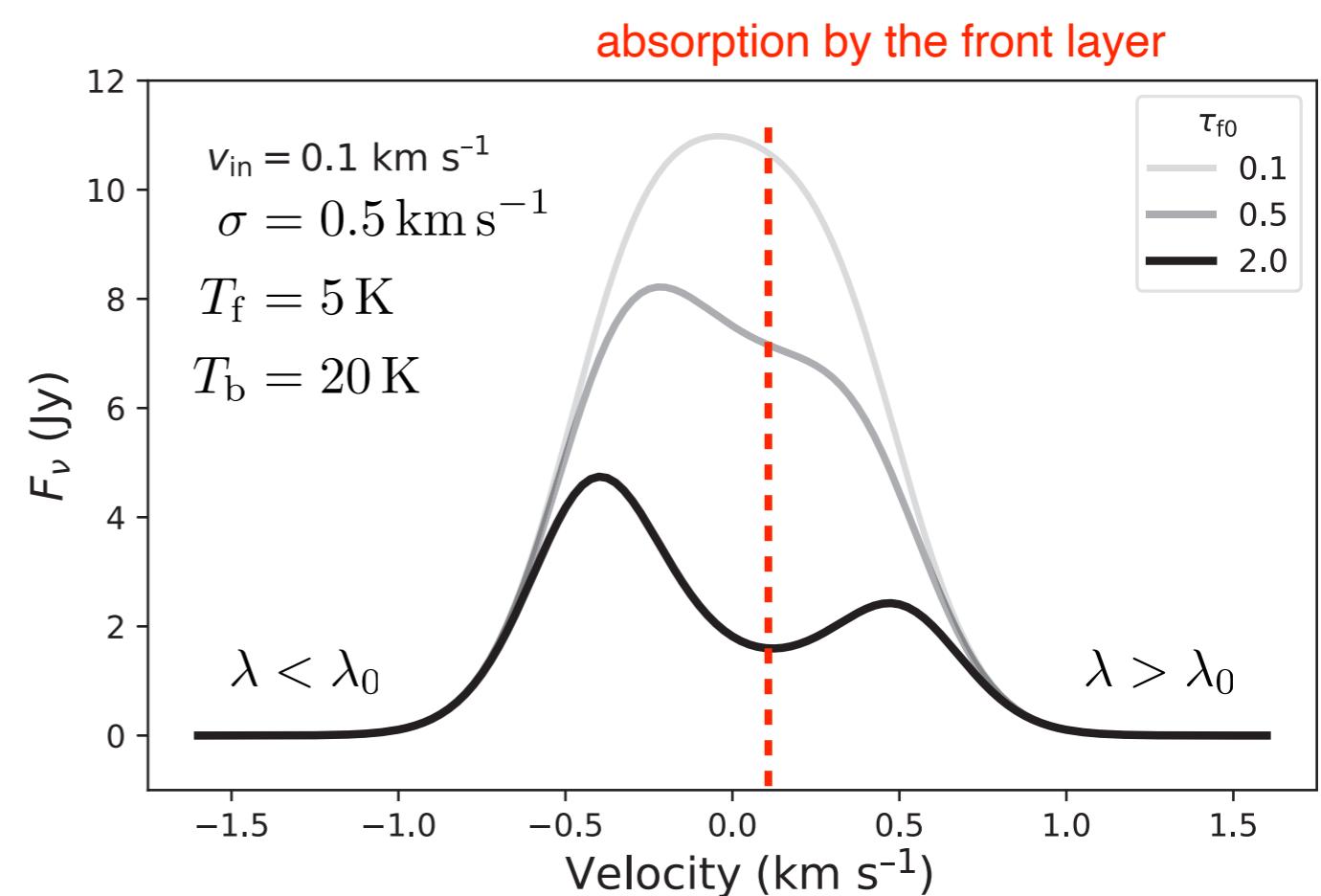
$$\text{where } \frac{v}{c} = \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{\lambda_0}$$

- ◆ Here, v_{in} (> 0) is the infall speed of the collapsing core.

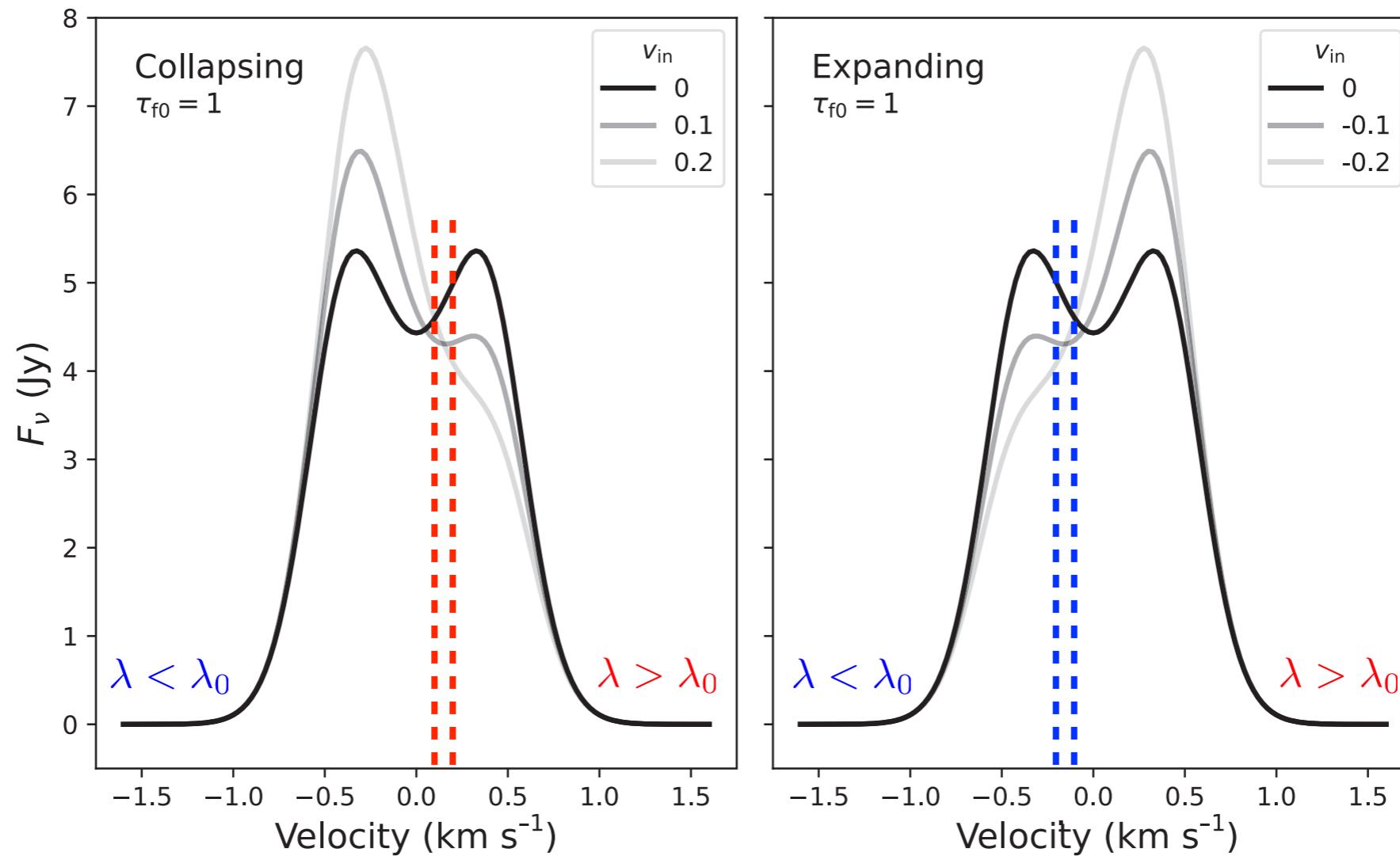
- The model has six parameters: two temperatures, a velocity dispersion, two optical depths, and an infall velocity.
 - ◆ The two temperatures determine the flux scale, and the dispersion sets the velocity scale.
 - ◆ The general spectral shape is primarily determined by the front layer optical depth and ratio of infall speed to dispersion.

- **Variation of optical depth:** The spectral profile changes from near-Gaussian for $\tau_{f0} \ll 1$ to double-peaked for $\tau_{f0} > 1$ as the front layer absorbs an increasing amount of the emission from the back layer.

- The low-velocity peak is greater than the high-velocity peak because ***the front layer is moving away from the observer, and therefore predominantly absorbs the redshifted side*** of the emission from the back layer.



- **Variation of infall velocity** (and expansion velocity): The sensitivity of the line profile to v_{in} shows that we can distinguish relative motions in a core and determine how fast they are.



- **P-Cygni profile:** Blue-shifted absorption, corresponding to expansion, is often seen in the spectra of massive stars due to a wind blowing away from the photosphere.
- Thus the signature of a collapsing core is referred to as an ***inverse P-Cygni profile***.

Young Stellar Objects (YSOs)

- Young Stellar Object denotes a star in its early stage of evolution.
 - ◆ This class consists of two groups of objects: protostars and pre-main-sequence stars.
 - ◆ A **protostar** is a very young star that is still gathering mass from its parent molecular cloud.
 - ▶ A dense core is initially in balance between self-gravity and gas/magnetic pressure. As the dense core acquires mass from its larger, surrounding cloud, self-gravity begins to overwhelm pressure, and collapse begins. The protostellar phase begins when the molecular cloud fragment first collapses under the force of self-gravity and an opaque, pressure supported core forms inside the collapsing fragment.
 - ▶ The gas that collapses toward the center of the dense core first builds up a low-mass protostar, and then a protoplanetary disk orbiting the object. As the collapse continues, an increasing amount of gas impacts the disk rather than the star, a consequence of angular momentum conservation.
 - ◆ The protostellar phase ends when the infalling gas is depleted, leaving a **pre-main-sequence star**.
 - ▶ **After the protostar blows away the envelope, it is optically visible, and appears on the Hayashi track** in the Hertzsprung-Russell diagram. A pre-main-sequence star contracts to later become a main-sequence star at the onset of hydrogen fusion producing helium.
 - ▶ **The energy source of PMS objects is gravitational contraction**, as opposed to hydrogen burning in main-sequence stars.

• **Protostar**

- **Maximum infall rate:** Combining the free-fall timescale and maximum stable core mass, we can derive an upper limit to the mass infall rate.

$$\dot{M}_{\text{in}} = \frac{M_{\text{BE}}}{t_{\text{ff}}} \approx 2.2 \frac{c_s^3}{G}$$

$$\approx 4 \times 10^{-6} M_\odot/\text{yr}$$

←

$$M_{\text{BE}} = 1.5 \left(\frac{2}{\pi G^3 \rho} \right)^{1/2} c_s^3$$

$$t_{\text{ff}} = \left(\frac{3\pi}{32G\rho} \right)^{1/2}$$

- **Accretion luminosity:** This is high enough that the release of gravitational energy, as gas falls from core to stellar scales, provides significant accretion luminosity.

$$L_{\text{acc}} = -GM\dot{M}_{\text{in}} \left(\frac{1}{R_{\text{core}}} - \frac{1}{R_*} \right)$$

$$\approx 9.3 \left(\frac{M}{1 M_\odot} \right) \left(\frac{\dot{M}_{\text{in}}}{10^{-6} M_\odot \text{ yr}^{-1}} \right) \left(\frac{R_*}{3R_\odot} \right)^{-1} L_\odot$$

← core radius $R_{\text{core}} \gg$ stellar radius R_*
typical size of solar-mass stars at early
times $R_* \approx 3R_\odot$

- This calculation shows that **a protostar is detectable well before it begins nuclear fusion.**
- Due to the high dust extinction of the surrounding core, the very earliest phase of star formation is only visible at $\lambda > 100 \mu\text{m}$.

- But, within $\sim 10^5$ yr after collapse, protostars become detectable in the near-IR and mid-IR.
- As the core is used up, both the dust emission and extinction decrease. The protostar becomes increasingly visible at shorter wavelengths and the longer wavelength emission decreases.
- The evolutionary state of a protostar is generally classified based on its IR SED, but mm wavelength imaging of its surrounding envelope and disk is increasingly used in addition (e.g., ALMA).

- **Pre-main sequence star**

- Once the collapse phase ends and the protostar had reached its final mass, it is known as a pre-main sequence star.
- It slowly contracts through the loss of gravitational energy by radiation on a **Kelvin-Helmholtz timescale (thermal timescale)**, which determines how quickly a star contracts before nuclear fusion starts - i.e. sets roughly the pre-main sequence lifetime

$$t_{\text{KH}} = \frac{U}{L_*} = \frac{GM_*^2/R_*}{L_*} \simeq 31.1 \left(\frac{M_*}{M_\odot} \right)^2 \left(\frac{R_*}{R_\odot} \right)^{-1} \left(\frac{L_*}{L_\odot} \right)^{-1} \text{Myr}$$

Here, U = internal thermal energy from the Virial theorem

- Pre-main sequence stars with $0.1 M_\odot < M_* < 2 M_\odot$ is known as **T Tauri stars**. These stars were first known in the 1940s and this name remains a common alternative name for pre-main sequence stars for historical reasons
- The intermediate mass counterpart, $2 M_\odot < M_* < 8 M_\odot$, are known as **Herbig Ae/Be stars**, where A and B refer to the stellar spectral types. The “e” denotes the photospheric emission lines that were used to identify their youth.
- More massive stars are much more luminous and they contract too quickly. Hence, they have no pre-main-sequence stage. By the time they become visible, the hydrogen in their centers is already fusing and they are main-sequence objects.

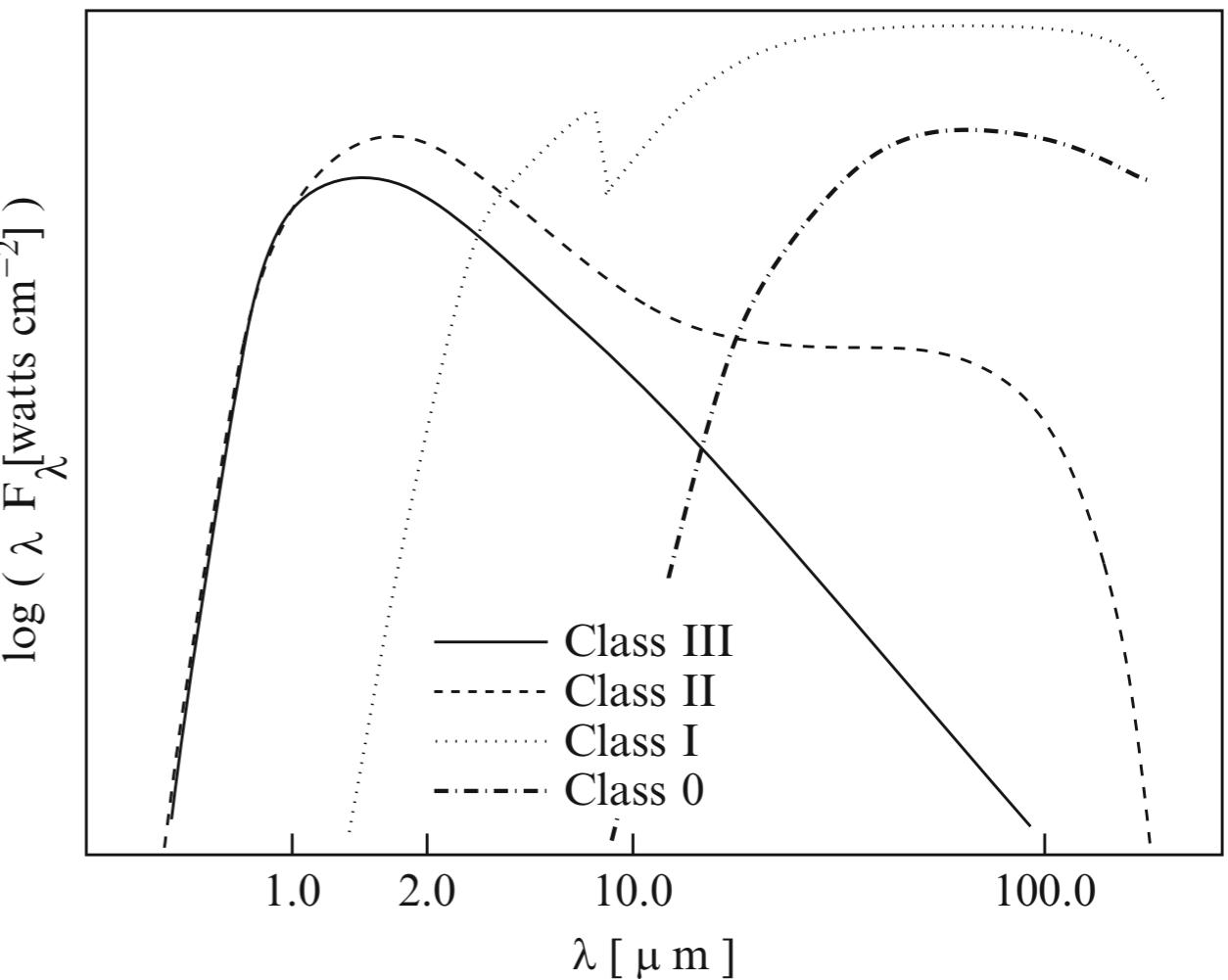
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- Timescales in stellar evolution
 - Free-fall timescale = dynamic timescale
 - Kelvin-Helmholtz timescale = thermal timescale
 - Nuclear time scale
 - ◆ Time scale on which the star will exhaust its supply of nuclear fuel if it keeps burning it at the current rate
 - ◆ Energy release from fusing one gram of H to He is 6×10^{18} erg. Therefore, the nuclear timescale is

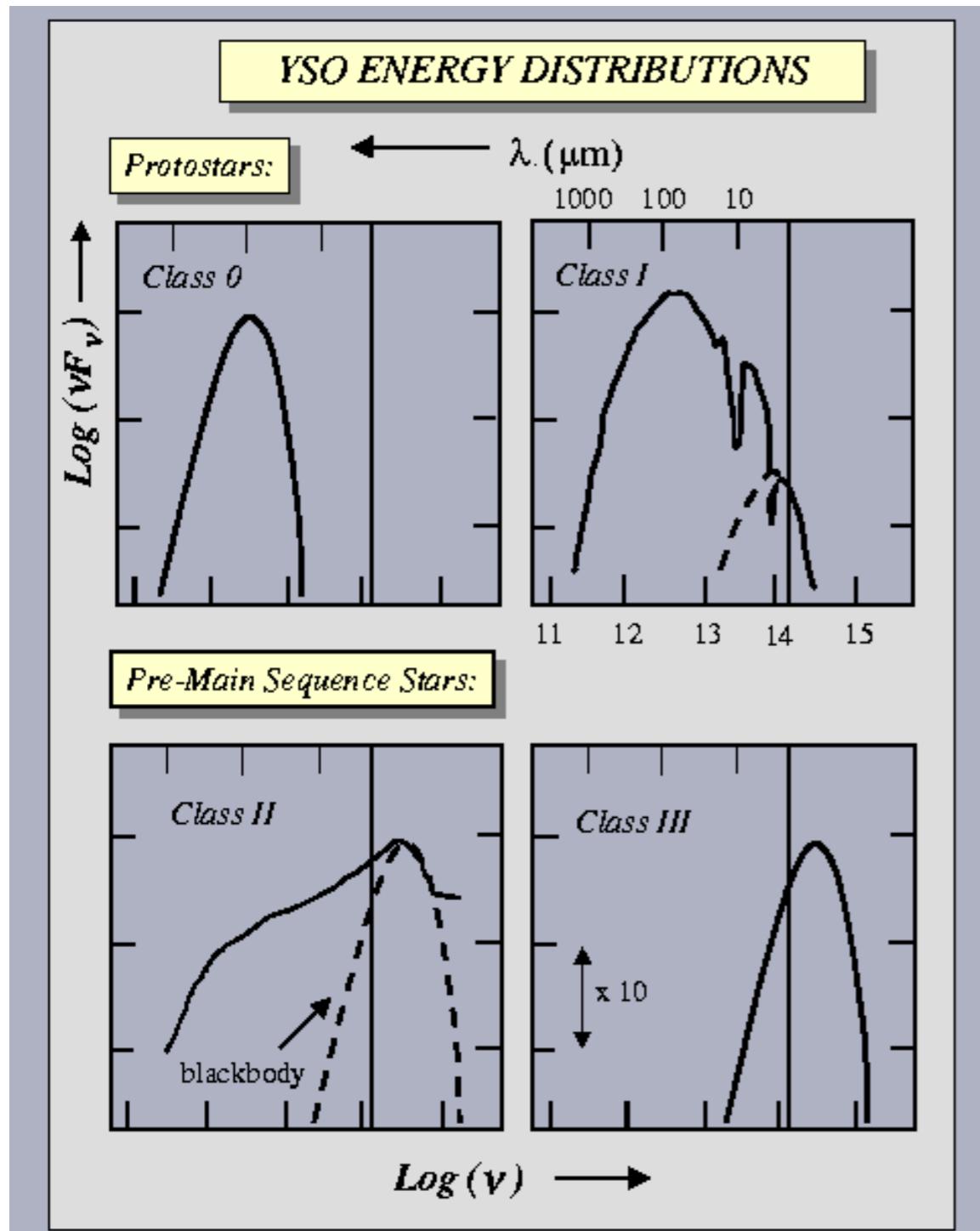
$$\begin{aligned} t_{\text{nuc}} &= \frac{q X M \times (6 \times 10^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1})}{L_*} \\ &\approx 7 \left(\frac{X}{0.7} \right) \left(\frac{q}{0.1} \right) \left(\frac{M}{M_\odot} \right) \left(\frac{L_\odot}{L_*} \right) \text{ Gyr} \end{aligned}$$

Here, X is the mass fraction of H initially present and q is the fraction of fuel available to burn in the core.

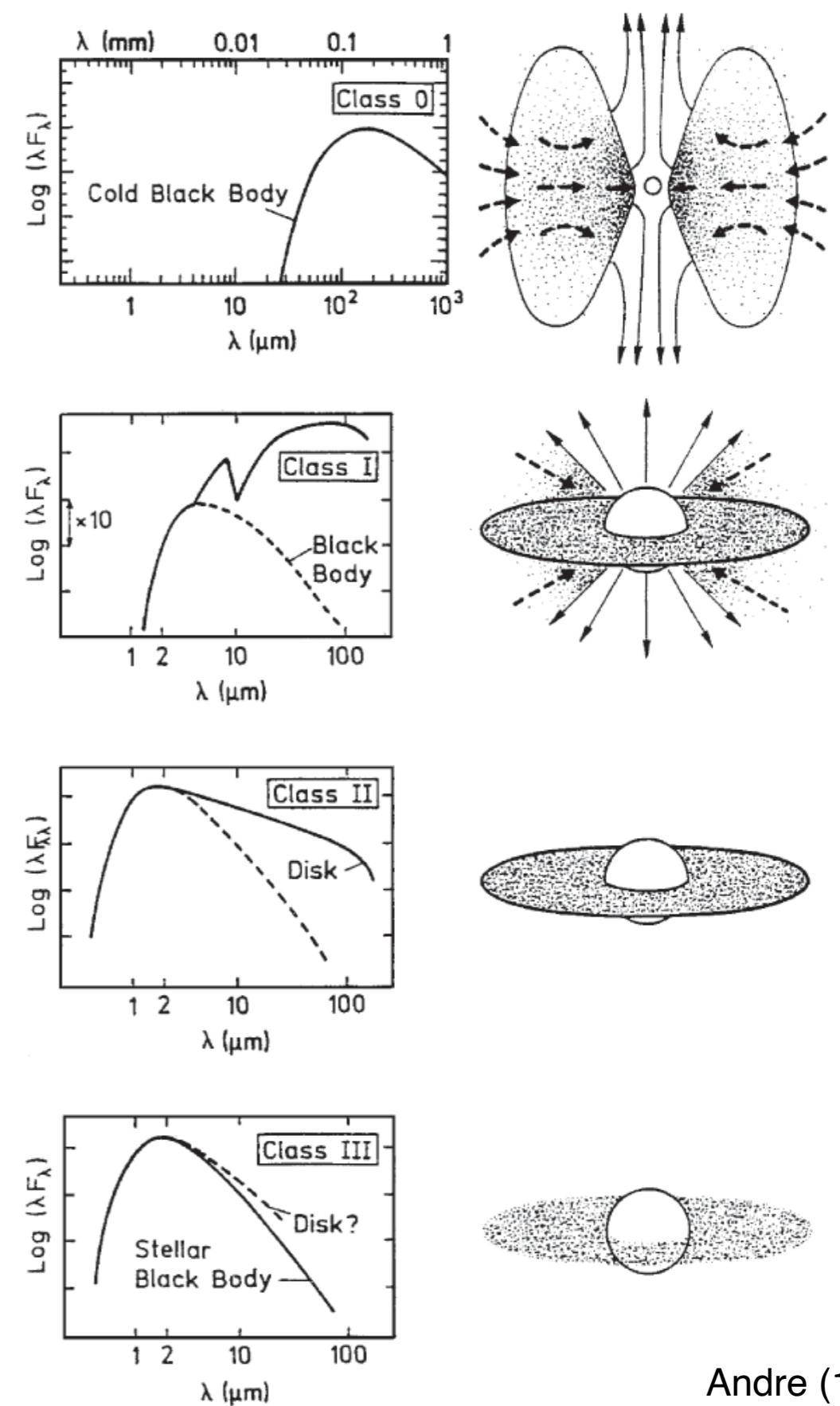
Spectral Energy Distributions (SEDs) of YSOs

- Lada & Wilking (1984) and Lada (1987) investigated SEDs of IR sources observed in the $1\text{-}100 \mu\text{m}$ wavelength band in the core of the Ophiuchi dark cloud, and proposed a general IR classification scheme.
 - ◆ A spectral index is defined between 2.2 and $25 \mu\text{m}$:
$$\alpha_{\text{IR}} = \frac{d \log(\lambda F_\lambda)}{d \log \lambda} \quad \lambda F_\lambda \propto \lambda^\alpha$$
 - ◆ Class I sources have very broad SEDs with $\alpha_{\text{IR}} > 0$.
 - ◆ Class 2 sources have $-2 < \alpha_{\text{IR}} < 0$.
 - ◆ Class 3 sources have $\alpha_{\text{IR}} < -2$.
 - ◆ The large IR excesses are attributed to thermal emission from dust in large circumstellar envelopes and Class I sources are likely to be evolved protostars.
- Andre et al. (1993) discovered embedded sources that remained undetected below $25 \mu\text{m}$ indicating significantly larger amounts of circumstellar material than in Class I sources and they proposed a younger Class 0 of YSOs.

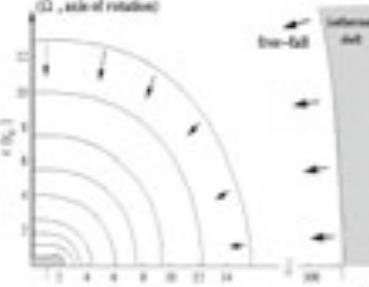
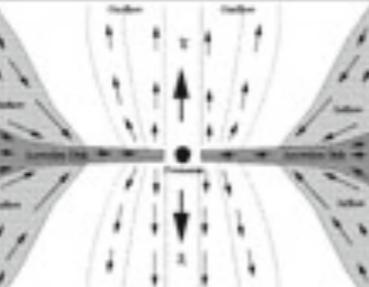
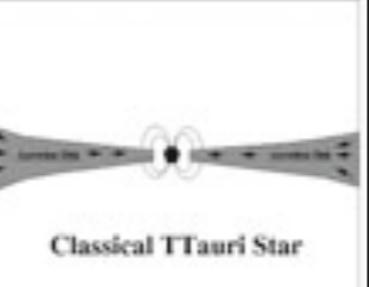




Lada (1999)



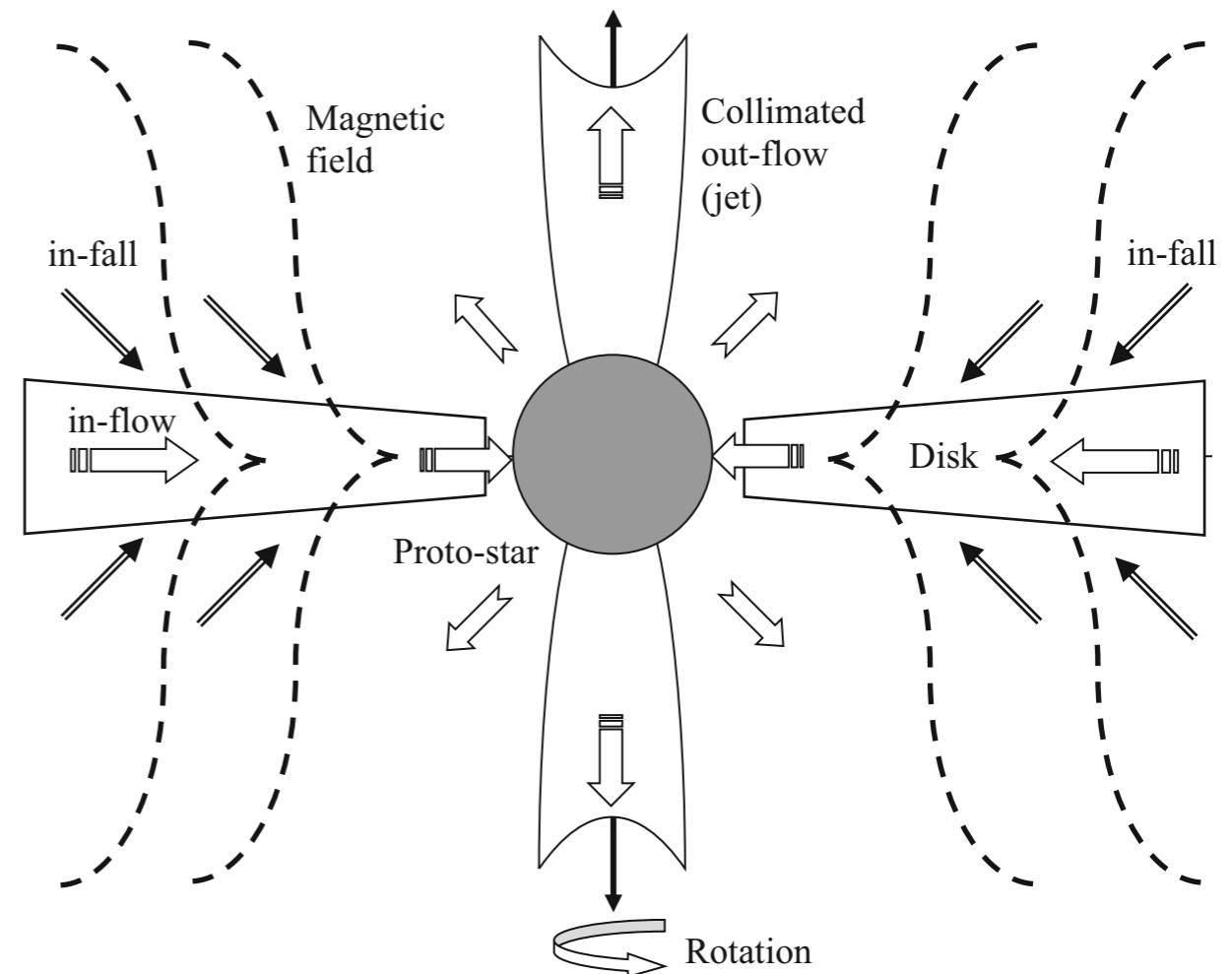
YSO classification

	Infalling protostar	Accreting protostar	Contracting PMS star	MS star
YSO properties				
Phase	adiabatic (A,B,C)	accretion (D) deuterium burning onset of convection	convective radiative onset of nuclear burning	convective radiative full nuclear burning
Matter flows	mostly infall disk & outflows form	some infall mostly accretion outflows, jets	low accretion	?
Envelope/disk size	< 10000 AU	< 1000 AU	< 400 AU	~ 100 AU
Infall/accretion rate	10^{-4}	10^{-5}	$10^{-6} -- 10^{-7}$?
Age	$10^4 - 10^5$ yr	10^5 yr	$10^6 -- 10^7$ yr	$10^6 -- 10^7$ yr
Emission bands (except IR)	thermal radio X-ray?	radio X-ray	radio optical strong X-ray	non-therm. radio optical strong X-ray
Classes	Class 0	Class I	Class II	Class III
				ZAMS

Accretion Disk & Bipolar Jets

- Schematic cross section through an accretion disk located about a newly forming protostar.

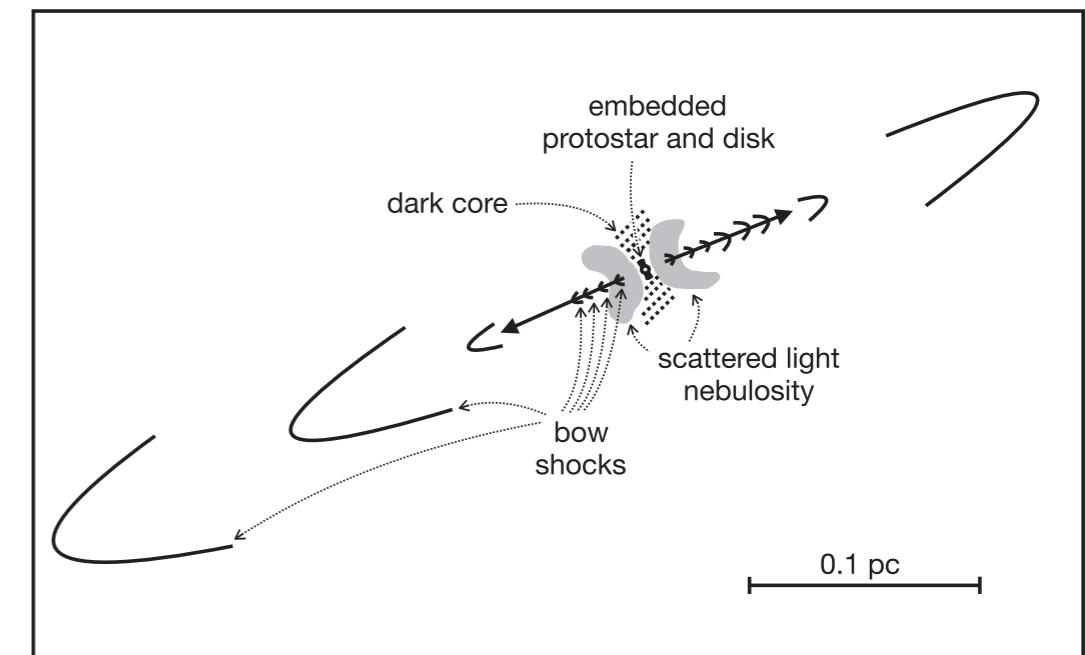
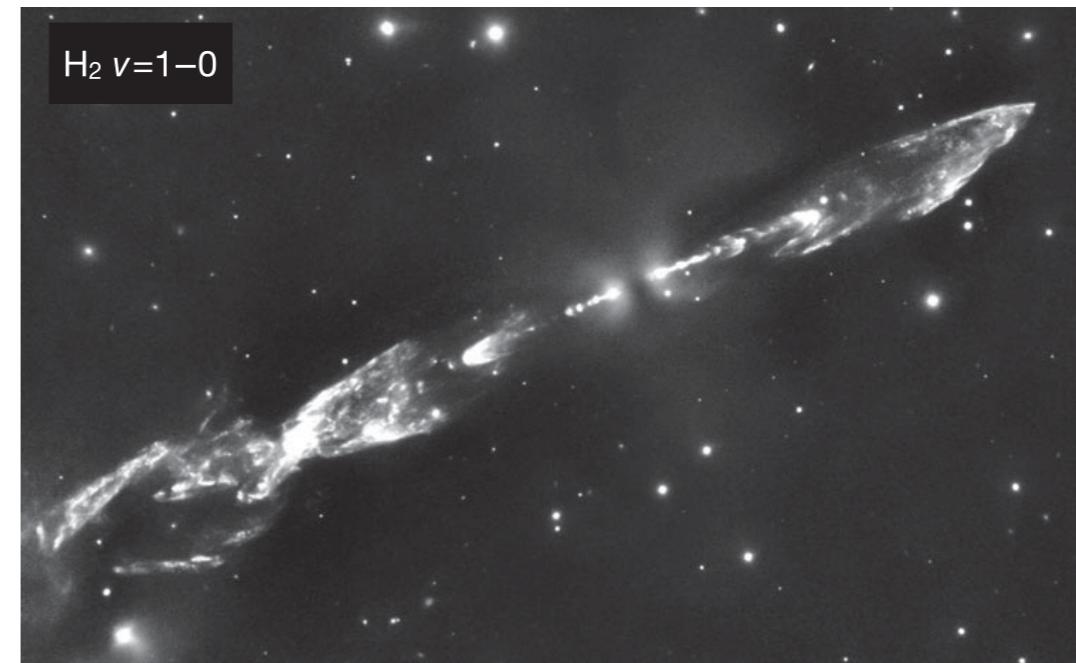
- Material falls onto the disk surface from the surrounding (and collapsing) natal cloud, and with appropriate angular momentum sorting moves through the disk to be accreted by the central protostar.
- As a consequence of the high surface temperature of the protostar, however, material at the inner edge of the disk will become ionized and therefore begin to strongly interact with any disk-threaded magnetic field lines.
- The combined effects of rotation and the winding up of the magnetic field lines result in the formation of bipolar jets along the spin-axis of the system, with material being carried away from the central object.



Protostellar outflow

- The disk is rotationally connected to the protostar through strong magnetic fields (which are also concentrated during the collapse).
- Their mutual interaction produces an outflow that can carry away angular momentum. These are high-velocity, unbound, flows of gas that originate at the star-disk interface or within the inner few AU of the disk.
- Observations show highly collimated, fast jets from very young, highly embedded protostars and broader flows from later evolutionary classes.
- Magnetic field exerts a torque on the disk and slows it down.
- Outflows also entrain and sweep away the surrounding molecular core. This removes much of the surrounding mass reservoir and helps advance the evolutionary sequence along from embedded protostar to optically visible pre-main sequence star.
- Eventually, the mass infall rate decreases and the outflow stops. Young, rapidly rotating, pre-main sequence stars slow down as they lose angular momentum through stellar winds.

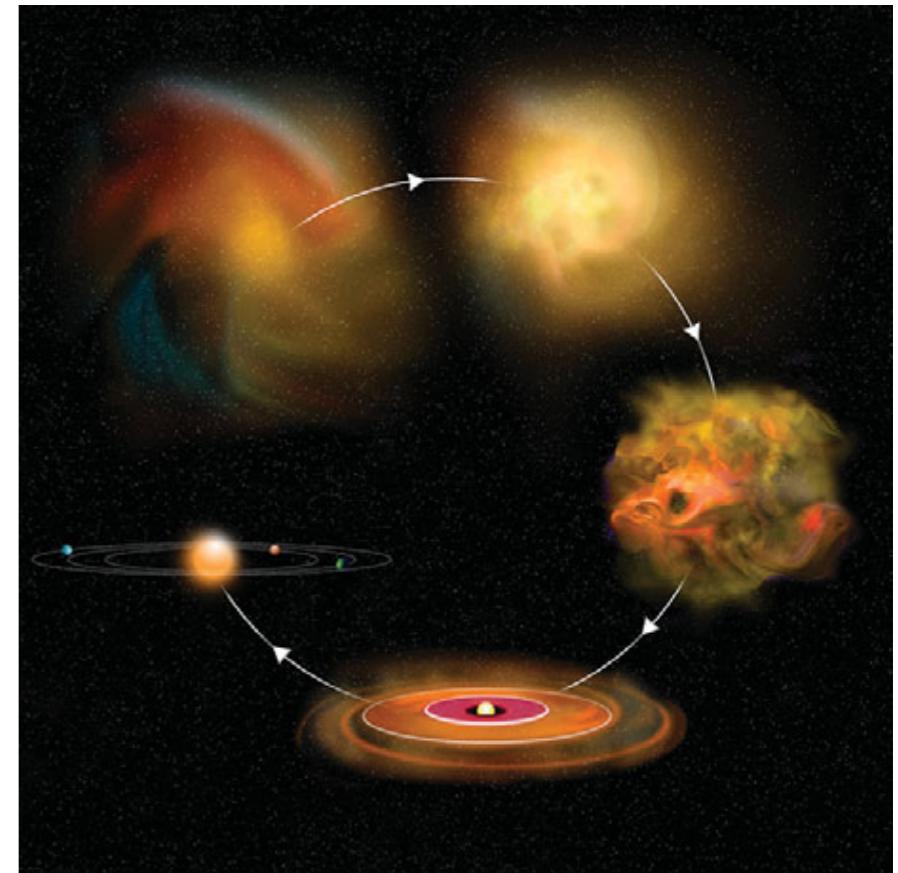
IR image of $v = 1-0$ line of H_2 at 2.12 μm produced by a protostellar outflow in Orion (named HH212 because of its prominence in this line) observed by the Very Large Telescope in Chile.



Planets

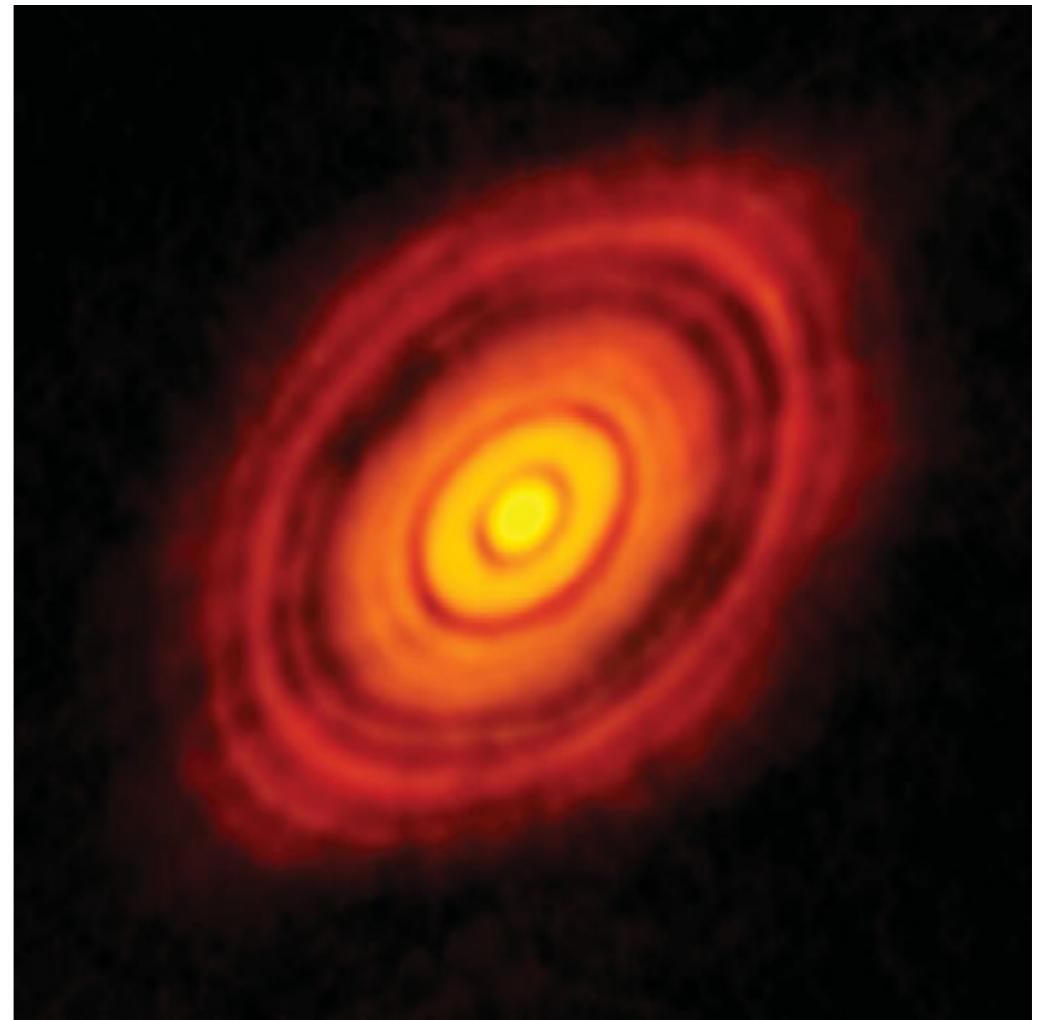
Origin of Planetary Systems

- The Nebular Model (basic ideas by Kant and Laplace)
 - The disk-formation process forms the basis for the “nebular model” for the formation of planetary systems, including our own solar system.
 - As a proto-stellar cloud collapses under the pull of its own gravity, conservation of its initial angular momentum leads naturally to form of an orbiting disk, which surrounds the central core mass.
 - This disk is initially gaseous, held **in a vertical hydrostatic equilibrium** about the disk mid-plane, **with radial support against gravity provided by the centrifugal force**.
 - This stops the rapid, dynamical infall, but as the viscous coupling between differentially rotating rings (and the entrainment of disk material by an outflowing stellar wind) transports angular momentum outward, there remains relatively slow inward diffuse flow of material that causes much of the initial disk mass to gradually accrete onto the young star.
 - This gradually depletes H and He gas (over a few million years). During this period, the heavier elements can gradually bond together to make molecules.
 - These in turn nucleate into grains of dust, and eventually into rocks.
 - Collisions among these rocks leads to a combination of fragmentation and accumulation, with the latter eventually forming asteroid-size (m to km) bodies. These then make planetoids, and eventually planets.



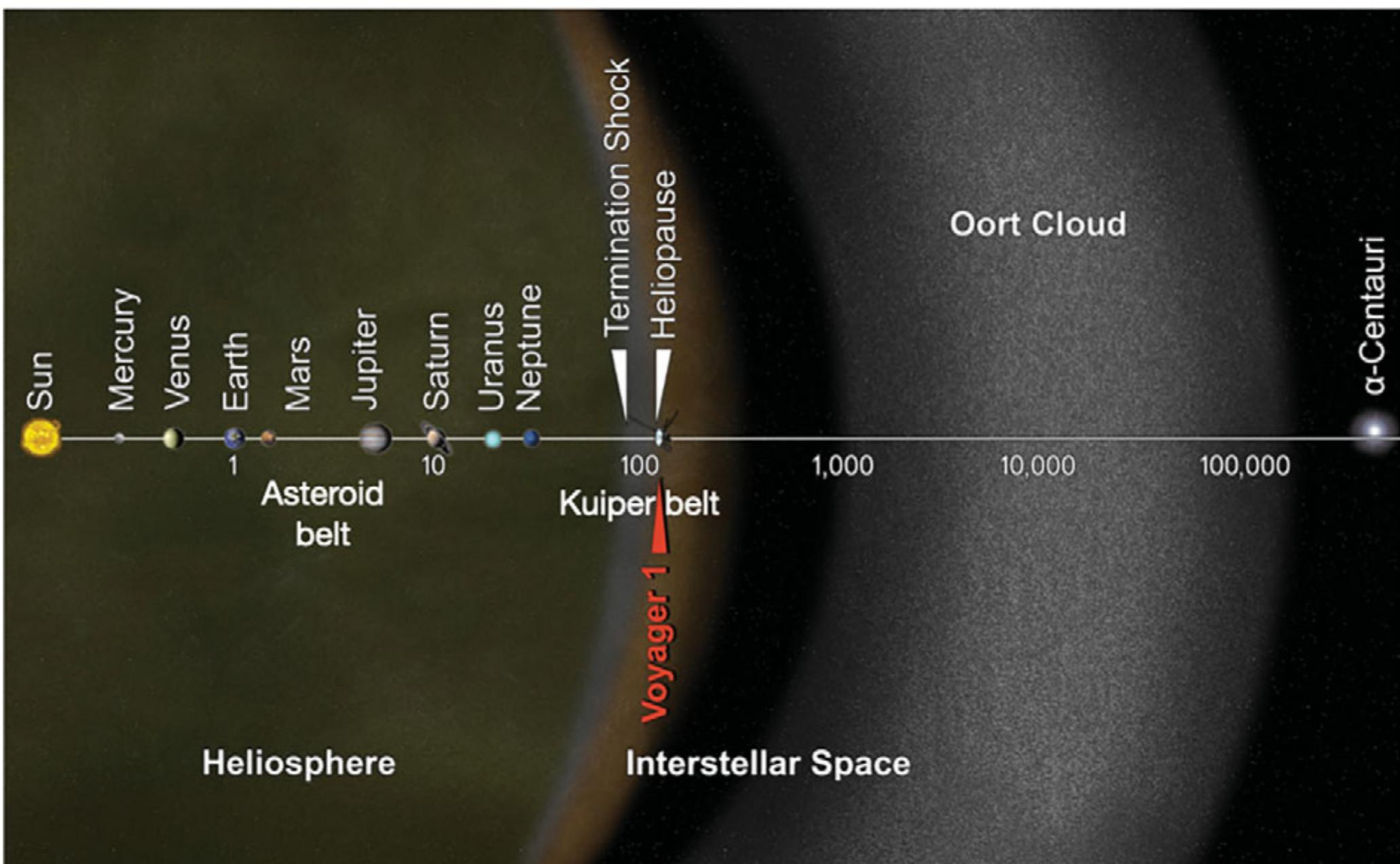
Observations of Proto-Planetary Disks

- Young stellar objects (YSOs) often show clear evidence of proto-planetary disks.
- With advent of telescope array (e.g., ALMA) observing in the far-IR and submm spectral regions, it is now becoming possible to image such disks directly.
- The figure shows an ALMA image of a proto-planetary disk in the T Tauri star HL Tauri, made in mm wavelengths.
- Interferometry from the array allows spatial resolution ranging down to 0.025 arcsec. At HL Tauri's distance of 140 pc, this corresponds to 3.5 AU, with the visible disk extending over a diameter of ~ 200 AU.
- The disk gaps likely represent regions where planet formation is clearing out disk debris, though there is so far no direct evidence of fully formed planets in this system.
- A key issue in planet formation is whether this can occur quickly enough to compete with disk depletion by various processes, like accretion onto the star, dissociation by stellar UV radiation, and entrainment in a outflowing stellar wind.



Our Solar System

- Planets
 - Rocky planets (rocky dwarfs; terrestrial planets): Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars
 - Gas giants: Jupiter and Saturn
 - Ice giants: Uranus and Neptune



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- **Snow line** (also known as the **ice line** or **frost line**)
 - the particular distance in the solar nebula from the central protostar where it is cold enough for volatile compounds such as water, ammonia, methane, carbon dioxide, and carbon monoxide to condense into solid ice grains.

In the solar system, the distance for the snow line is ~ 3 AU, between Mars and Jupiter
 - In the colder outer regions, these condensed to form ice, which gradually collected into ever larger solid cores, eventually growing massive enough to gravitationally attract and retain the even more abundant but lighter gases of hydrogen and helium.
 - ◆ This is the basis for formation of the outer gas and ice giant planets, with an overall composition similar to the solar nebula, and the present day Sun.
 - In the inner nebula, where it was too warm to form ice, such light atoms of H and He escaped from the weaker gravity of the smaller, rocky planets, effectively preventing their growth and so keeping them relatively small.

- Hot Jupiter

- ◆ a planet with a mass comparable to (actually even larger than) Jupiter, but orbiting at such a close distance that the stellar heating would make it quite hot.
- ◆ Such gas giants had been supposed to form only beyond the ice line. The detection of hot Jupiters around several stars was a real surprise.
- ◆ They are thought to have formed outside the snow line, and later migrated inwards to their current positions. Gravitational interaction with the proto-stellar disk and/or other giant planets out there is supposed to lead some to be flung into an inward migration, so that they finally ended up very close to their star.

Equilibrium Temperature

- For an absorbing sphere with radius r at a distance d from the star, the intercepted flux of the stellar luminosity L_* is

$$\frac{\pi r^2 L_*}{4\pi d^2} = \pi r^2 \sigma_{\text{SB}} T_*^4 \left(\frac{R_*}{d} \right)^2$$

- where R_* and T_* are the star's radius and effective temperature, and σ_{SB} is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.
- If we assume this sphere then radiates this energy as a blackbody over its surface area, then solving for its ***equilibrium temperature*** gives

$$\pi r^2 \sigma_{\text{SB}} T_*^4 \left(\frac{R_*}{d} \right)^2 = 4\pi r^2 \sigma_{\text{SB}} T_{\text{planet}}^4$$

$$T_{\text{planet}}(d) = T_* \sqrt{\frac{R_*}{2d}} \approx 280 \text{ K} \sqrt{\frac{1 \text{ AU}}{d}}$$

← $T_\odot = 5780 \text{ K}$
 $R_\odot = 6.9634 \times 10^5 \text{ km}$

Detection of Exoplanets (Extra-solar planets)

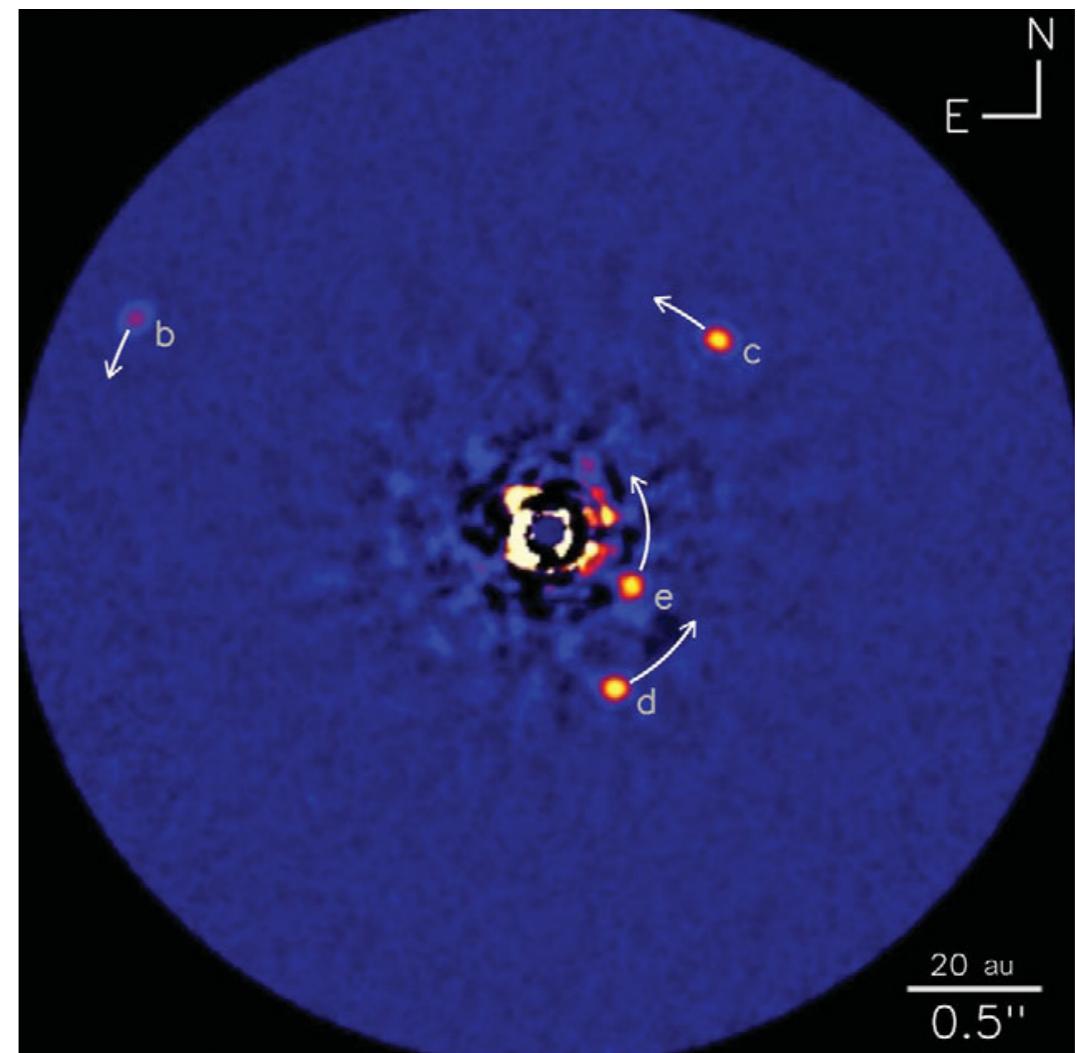
- Direct-Imaging Method
 - Because they are much cooler than stars, the thermal emission from planets is mostly in the IR.
 - Their appearance at visible wavelengths comes by reflected light from their host stars. This greatly complicates direct detection of extra-solar planets, since this reflected light is generally overwhelmed by the direct light from the stars.
 - Nowadays, there are ~ 20 such detect imaging detections of exoplanets.

Direct image by the Keck Observatory of 4 exoplanets orbiting HR8799.

The arrows indicates their orbital motion from monitoring their positions over more than a decade. The orbital periods are 49, 100, 189, and 474 years for planets e, d, c, and b, respectively.

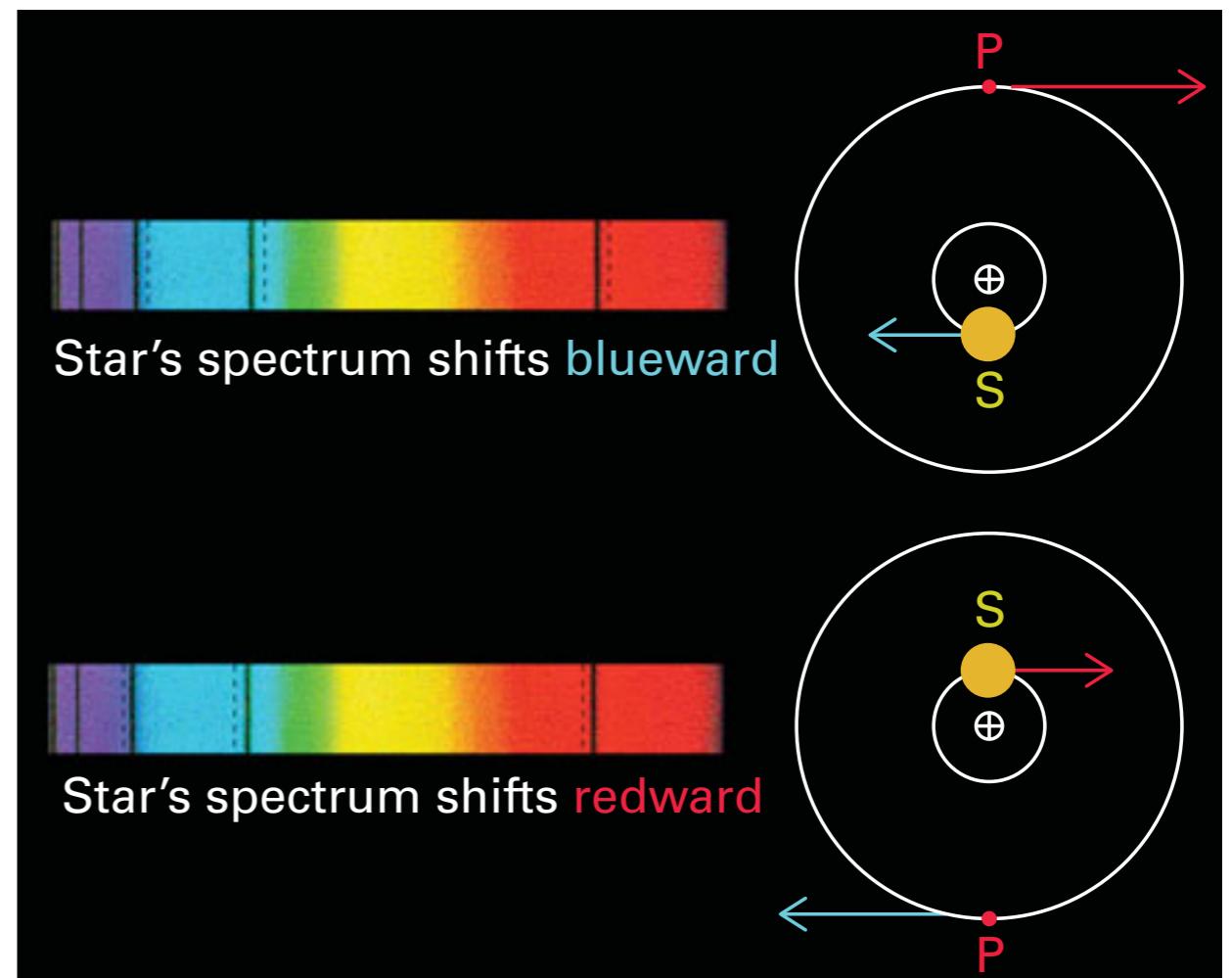
For reference, the orbital period of Neptune is 165 years.

[NTV-HIS/C. Marois/W. M. Keck Observatory]



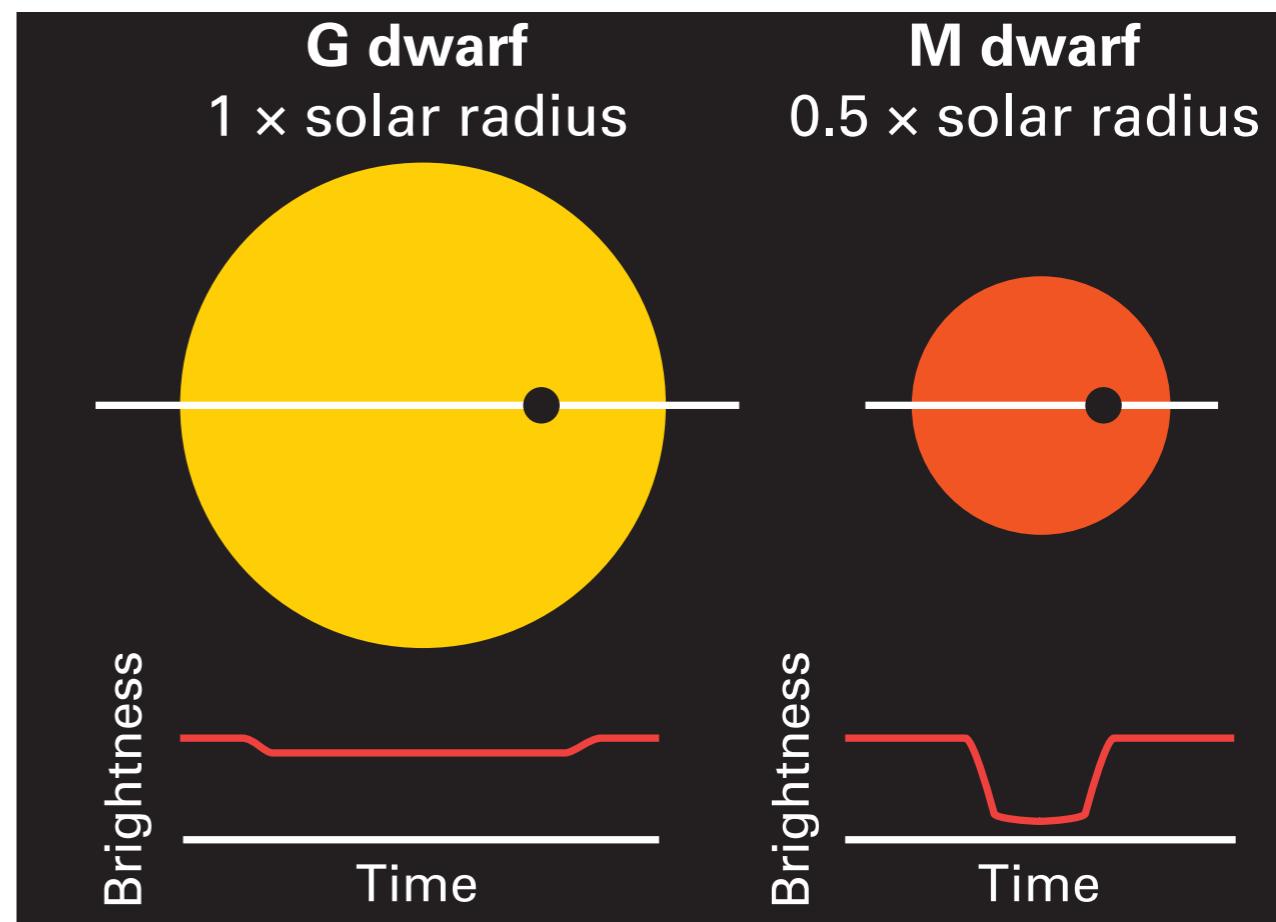
- Radial-Velocity Method

- The periodic movement of the host star due to the gravitational pull of the planet causes spatial “wobble.”
- This wobble is not directly detectable, but, its associated motion toward and away from the observer can be detected via very precise spectroscopic measurements of the systematic Doppler shift from multiple absorption lines in the star’s spectrum.
- This is the same method as used in spectroscopic binaries.



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- **Transit Method**
 - This method simply looks for the slight dimming of the star's apparent brightness whenever a planet “transits” in front of it.
 - Instead of elaborate spectroscopic measurement of the slight Doppler shift, this merely requires precise photometric measurements of changes in the star's total apparent brightness. (This is analogous to eclipsing binaries)
 - The fractional drop in the star's brightness will be

$$\frac{\Delta F}{F} = \left(\frac{R_p}{R_*} \right)^2$$

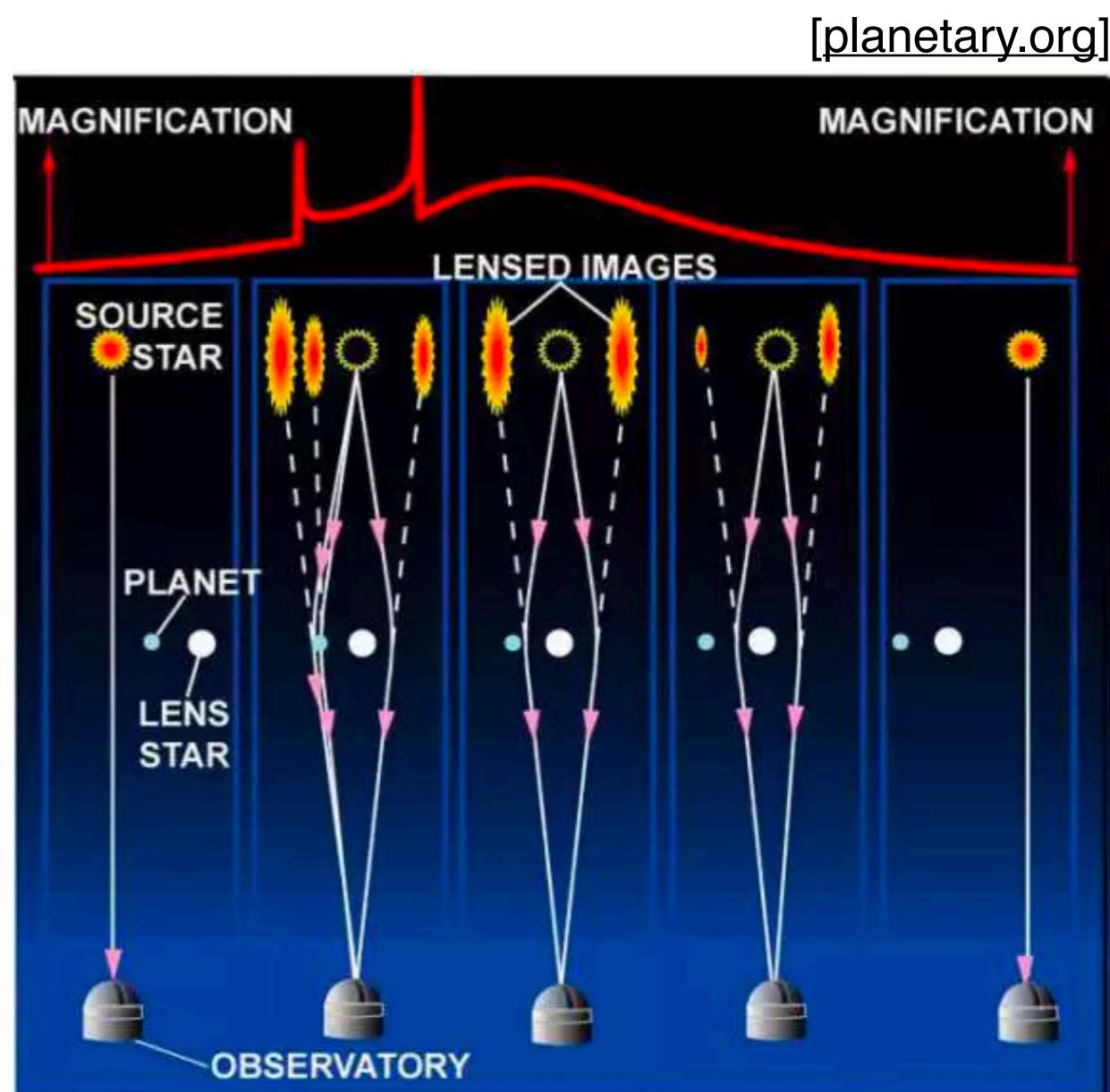


- Microlensing Method

- Microlensing is a form of gravitational lensing in which the light from a background source is bent by the gravitational field of a foreground lens to create distorted, multiple and/or brightened images.

The lensing star (white) moves in front of the source star (yellow) magnifying its image and creating a microlensing event.

In the second image (from left), the planet adds its own microlensing effect, creating the two characteristic spikes in the light curve.



Homework (due date: 04/11)

[Q6] - Virial Theorem

Consider a spherical cloud with a total mass M and a radius R . Assume that the cloud has a radial density profile of $\rho = \rho_0(r/R)^{-\beta}$. The gravitational potential energy can be expressed as follows:

$$U = -\alpha \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

- (a) For the above equation to be satisfied, what is the condition for β ?
- (b) Express α in terms of β .
- (c) What is the virial mass? Express the mass in terms of the cloud radius R .