AY 20

Fall 2010

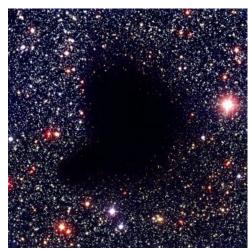
STAR FORMATION and PRE-MAIN SEQUENCE EVOLUTION

Andrea Isella
Sr. Postdoctoral Scholar
Office 214 – isella@astro.caltech.edu

Reading: Carroll & Ostile, Chaper 12.2 and 12.3

From the last class: Jeans criteria

Barnard 68: dark nebula



The collapse conditions are set from the balance between the gas pressure (i.e. temperature) and the cloud gravity (i.e. density)

Virial Theorem

$$2K + U = 0$$

$$2K > U$$
 Expansion
$$2K < U$$
 Collapse

The derivation: see previous lesson (Carroll, 12.2)

$$M_{J} = \left(\frac{5kT}{G\mu m_{H}}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi\rho_{0}}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$R_J = \left(\frac{15kT}{4\pi G\mu m_H \rho_0}\right)^{1/2}$$

Sir James Jeans (1877-1946)



From the last class: Free-fall collapse

If $M_c > M_J$ the core collapses. The cloud is optically thin and the gravitational energy is radiated away.

Hydrostatic equilibrium

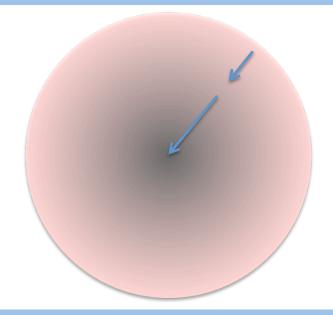
$$\rho_0 \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} = -G \frac{M_c \rho_0}{r^2} - \frac{dP}{dr} \qquad \text{Isothermal} \qquad \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} = -G \frac{M_c}{r^2} \qquad \text{Free-fall}$$

$$t_{ff} = \left(\frac{3\pi}{32} \frac{1}{G\rho_0}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{\pi^2}{8} \frac{R_c^3}{GM_c}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{3\pi}{32} \frac{1}{G\rho_0}\right)^{1/2}$$
 Homologous collapse

Typical numbers for the free-fall time scale

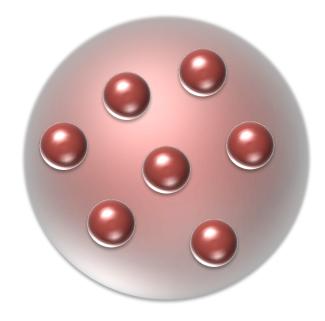
T = 10 K, M_c =1 Msun, R_c =0.1 pc, ρ =10⁻¹⁷ kg m⁻³ :: $t_{ff} \approx 4 \times 10^5 \text{ yr}$

From the last class: Fragmentation of the collapsing could



If the core density is not uniform, e.g., larger in the center, then the central part collapses faster than the outer part: INSIDE-OUT collapse

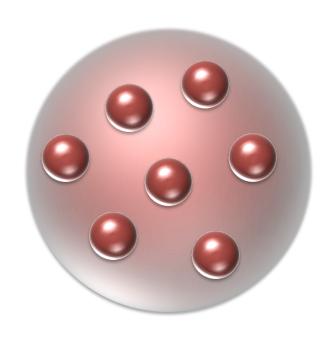
From the last class: Fragmentation of the collapsing could



During the collapse, T remain constant (10-100 K) and the density increases with time. These to facts imply that M_J decreases with time. The collapsing cloud can fragment.

$$M_J = \left(\frac{5kT}{G\mu m_H}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi\rho_0}\right)^{1/2}$$

From the last class: Adiabatic collapse stops the fragmentation



As the density increases (ρ >10⁻¹⁰ kg m⁻³) the core becomes more optically thick to the released gravitational radiation, the temperature starts to increase and the collapse becomes more adiabatic

$$\frac{dP}{dr} < G \frac{M_c \rho_0}{r^2}$$
 The collapse slows down

$$T \propto \rho^{\gamma-1}$$
 The temperature increases

$$M_J = \left(\frac{5kT}{G\mu m_H}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi\rho_0}\right)^{1/2} \propto \rho^{(3\gamma-4)/2}$$

For mono atomic gas (i.e. H), $\gamma=5/3$ $M_J \propto \rho^{1/2}$

During free-fall: $M_{J} \propto
ho^{-1/2}$

This leads to a minimum mass of 0.2-0.5 Msun

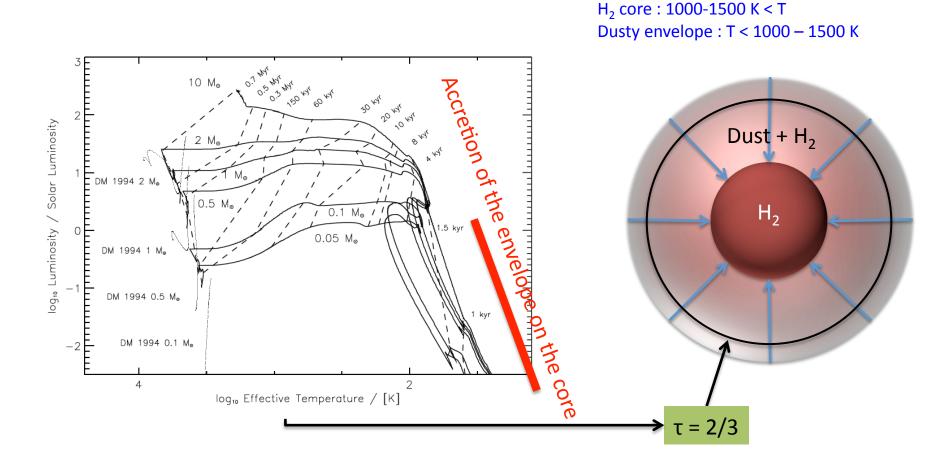
Formation of a protostar: qualitative description of a spherical collapse

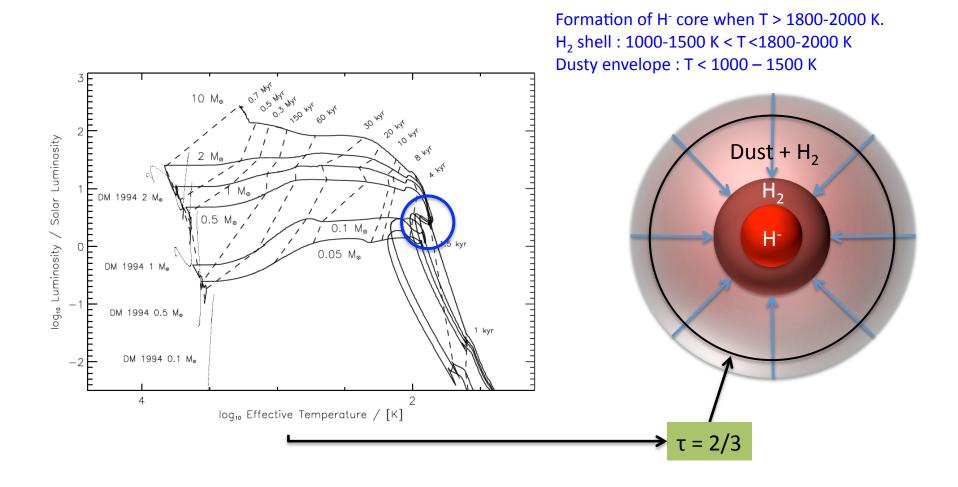
- 1 Msun cloud, initially follows the isothermal free-fall collapse with $t_{\rm ff} \approx 10^5$ yr
- At $\rho \approx 10^{-10}$ kg m⁻³, the cloud becomes more optically thick (due to the dust opacity) and the collapse more adiabatic (temperature increases)
- The gas pressure increases and the collapse slows down.
- The gravitational energy is converted into heat and radiated away as a b-b radiation.
- The core is *nearly* in hydrostatic equilibrium at a radius of about 5 AU. This is a protostar
- We can define a surface at τ = 2/3 (as for the stellar surface), and an effective temperature T_{eff} = $T(\tau$ = 2/3). The stellar surface is "cold" <1000 K and rich of dust which dominates the opacity

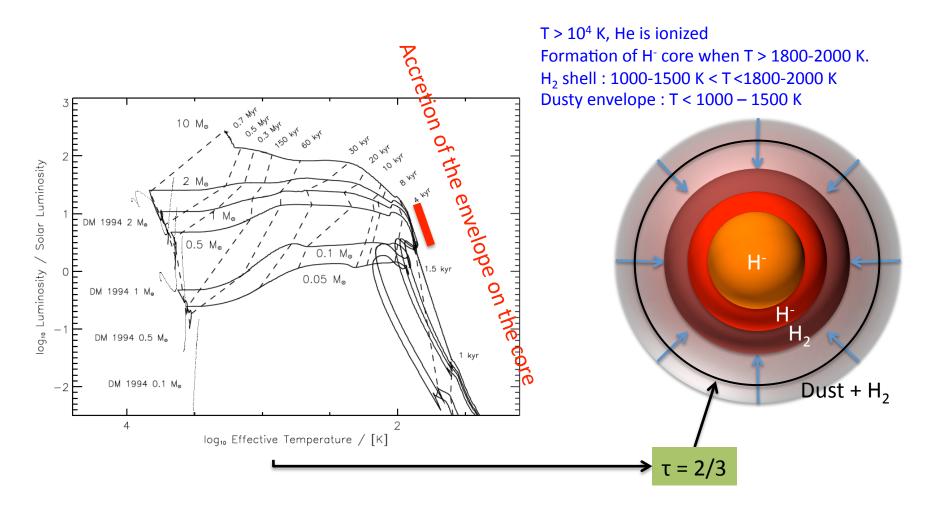
$$L = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T_{eff}^4$$

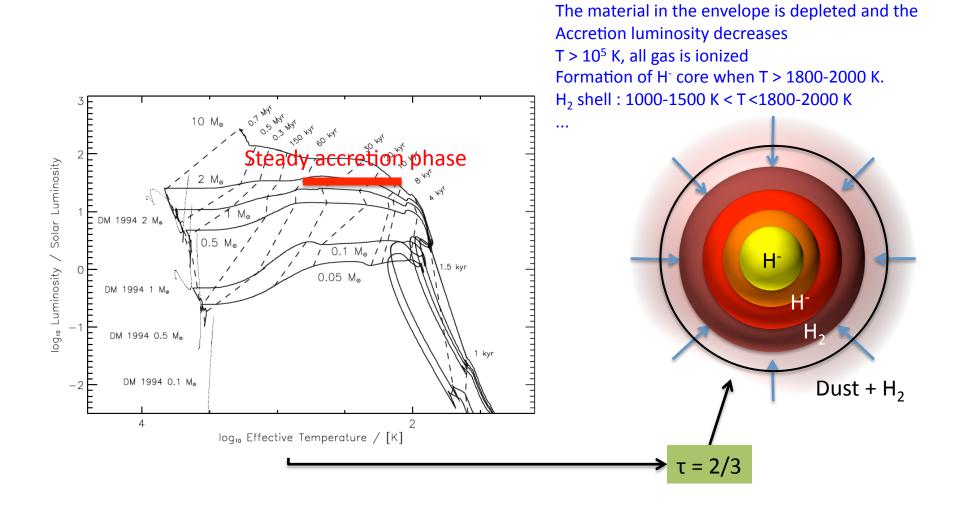
- The temperature increases toward the center of the protostar.
- A density increase toward the center leads to an INSIDE-OUT collapse, the core collapse becomes adiabatic before the collapse of the envelope.
- The envelope still collapses on a free-fall time scale and this can produce a shock front where the material falls on the core

We can follow the evolution of a protostar on the (theoretical) H-R diagram, i.e., plotting Log(L/Lsun) Vs $Log(T_{eff})$



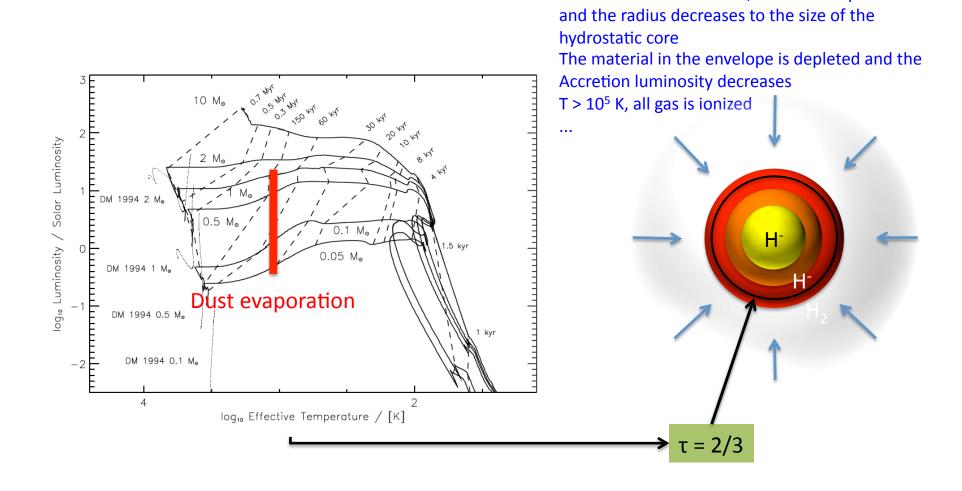




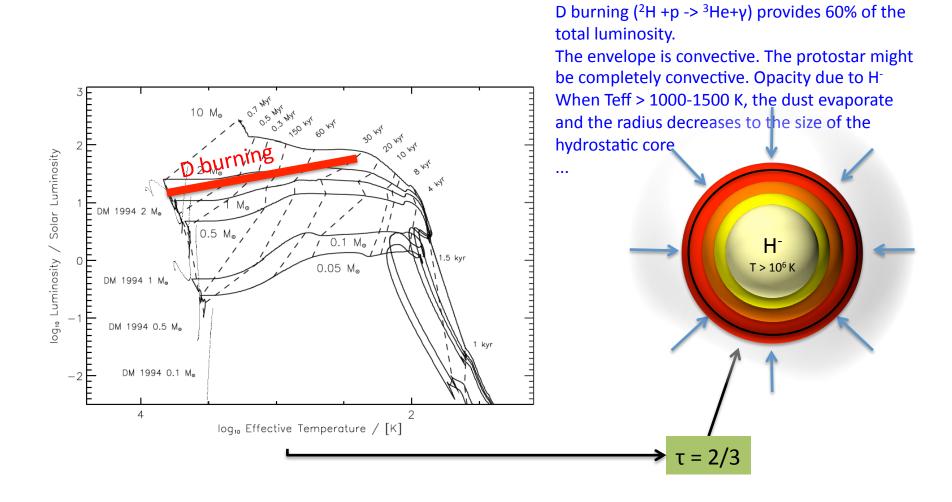


The luminosity during the protostellar phase is provided by the accretion luminosity, the release of gravitational energy, and, in the last phase, by the Deuterium burning

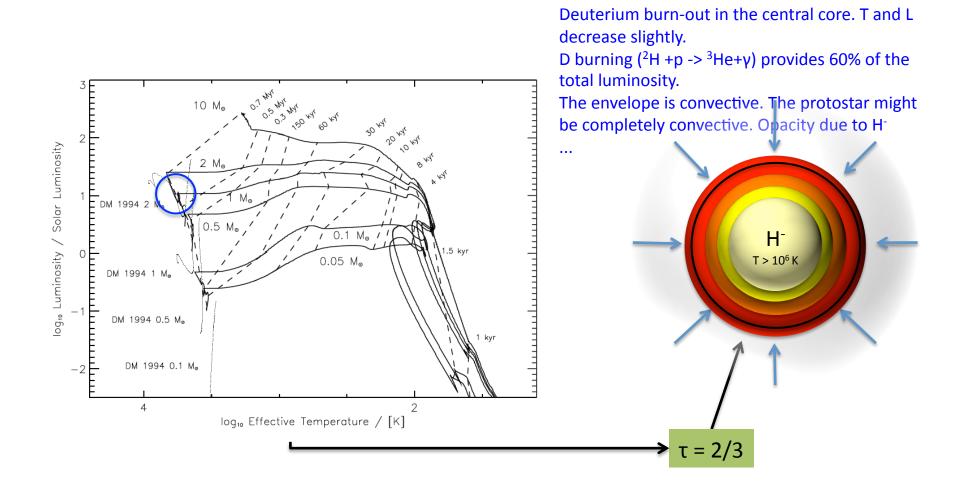
When Teff > 1000-1500 K, the dust evaporate

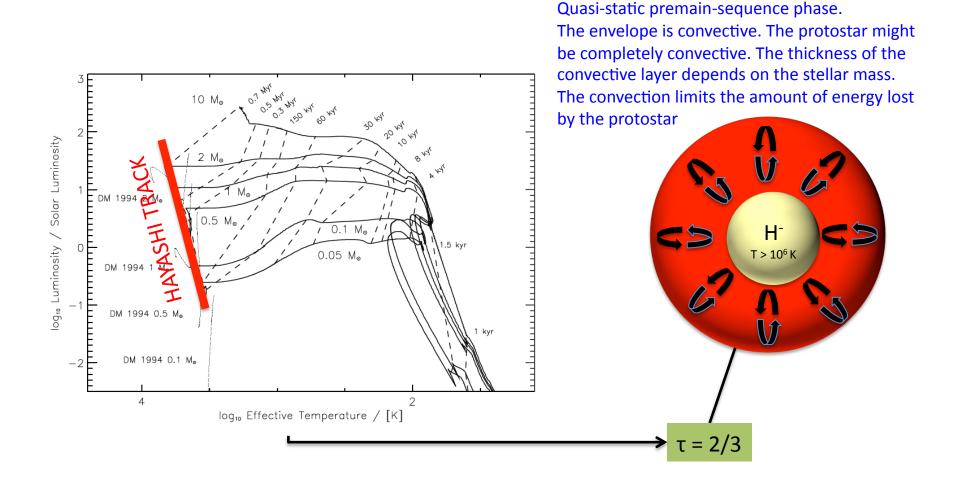


The luminosity during the protostellar phase is provided by the accretion luminosity, the release of gravitational energy, and, in the last phase, by the Deuterium burning

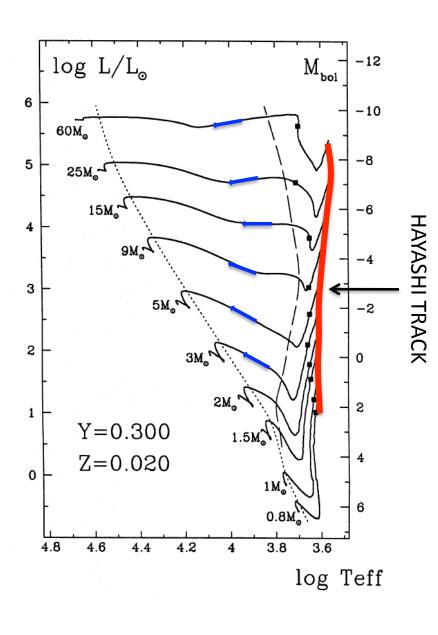


Suggested reading: Wuchterl & Tscharnuter, 2003, A&A, 398, 1081





Evolution of a protostar: HAYASHI track



- The protostar stops contracting
- Evolve on Kelvin-Helmholtz time scale

$$t_{KH} = \frac{\Delta E_g}{L_{sun}} \approx 10^7 \, yr >> t_{ff} \approx 10^4 \, yr$$

• the propostars can be convective or radiative, depending on the mass

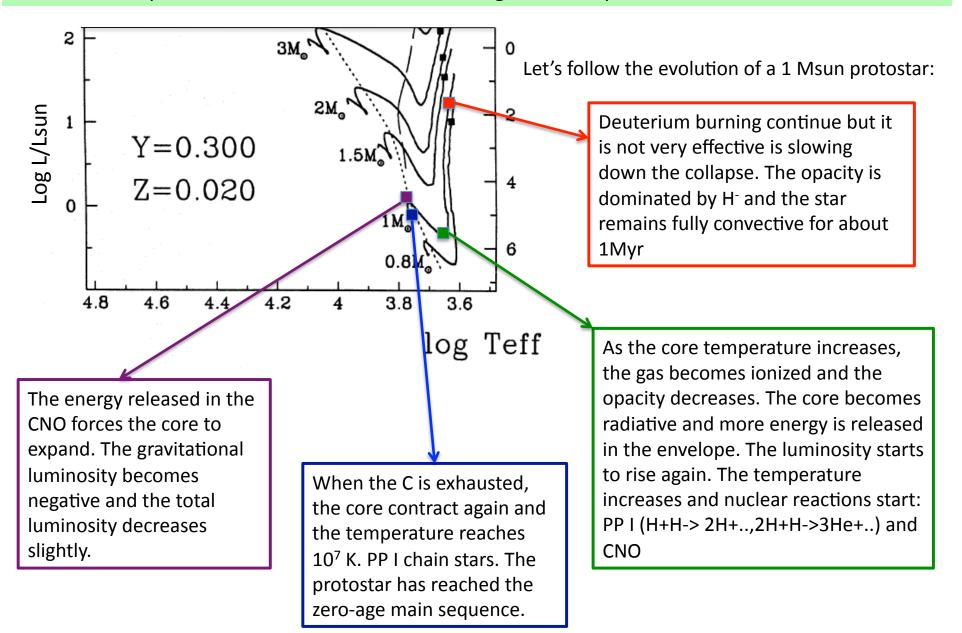
Left of HAYASHI track

The core structure is in equilibrium, i.e., the luminosity can be transported out by convection or radiation

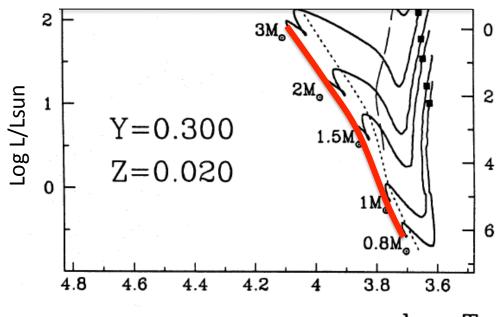
Right of HAYASHI track

The core structure is unstable. Free fall evolution in not hydrodynamic equilibrium

Evolution of a protostar: HAYASHI track and Zero-age main sequence



Evolution of a protostar: Zero-age main sequence



Time to reach the main sequence goes as 1/Mstar

1 Msun = 4×10^7 yr (very close to the t_{KH})

 $3 \text{ Msun} = 7 \times 10^6 \text{ yr}$

9 Msun = $3 \times 10^5 \text{ yr}$

15 Msun = $1 \times 10^4 \text{ yr}$

log Teff

Hydrogen burning, star is in hydrostatic equilibrium. Stellar life time on the main sequence is set by the Hydrogen Burning "lifetime"

For the Sun is t_n≈10¹⁰ yr

Kelvin-Helmholtz From Hayashi to main sequence

$$t_{KH} = \frac{3}{10} \frac{GM_*^2}{R_*} \frac{1}{L_*} \approx 10^7 \, yr$$

Free-fall
To reach the Hayashi track

$$t_{ff} = \left(\frac{3\pi}{32} \frac{1}{G\rho_0}\right)^{1/2} \approx 4 \times 10^5 \,\text{yr}$$

 $t_n >> t_{KH} >> t_{ff} \rightarrow$ Most stars are observed on the main sequence

Brown Dwarfs

Below 0.08 Msun - No stable nuclear reactions

0.002 Msun < Mstar < 0.08 Msun : Brown dwarfs

High opacity, low temperature: the core is fully convective

Energy sources: gravitational collapse, perhaps Deuterium burning ($10^5 - 10^6$ yr), NO H burning

Recall: PP I chain – D Burning most easily initiated in pre-main sequence phase

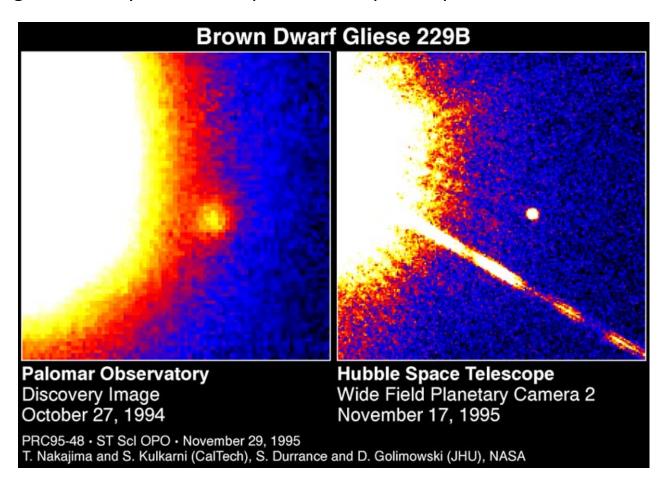
$${}_{1}^{1}H + {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{1}^{2}H + e^{+} + v_{e}$$

$${}_{1}^{2}H + {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{2}^{3}He + \gamma$$

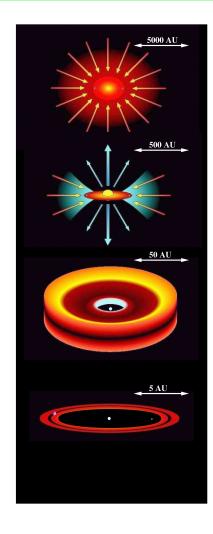
$${}_{2}^{3}He + {}_{2}^{3}He \rightarrow {}_{2}^{4}He + 2{}_{1}^{1}H$$

EXAMPLE: Gliese229B

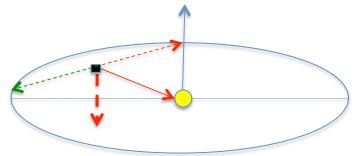
Distance = 5.8 pcMass = $20-50 \text{ M}_{J}$ 0.02-0.05 Msun $T_{eff} = 950 \text{ K}!$



Circumstellar disks and planetary systems



- Molecular cores rotate.
- The angular momentum is conserved during the collapse $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p} = \vec{r} \times m\vec{v}$
- The cloud rotate faster and flattens



• Collapse impeded when the centripetal force (v^2/r) is balanced by the gravitational force. If the core is in rigid rotation

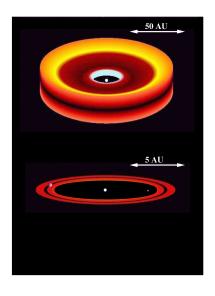
Measured observing velocity gradients in dense cores
$$R_c \approx 50 \times \left(\frac{\omega_c}{10^{-14}\,s^{-1}}\right)^2 \left(\frac{M_*}{1M_{sun}}\right)^3 AU$$
 Suggested reading: Hueso & Guillot (2005)

• disk carries most of the angular momentum R=0.1 pc, M=1 Msun, v = 1 km s⁻¹ R=1 Rsun, M=1 Msun

$$m_i v_i r_i = m_f v_f r_f$$

 $v_f = v_f r_f / r_i \approx 5 \times 10^6 \text{ km/s}$
Untenable for star!

Circumstellar disks and planetary systems



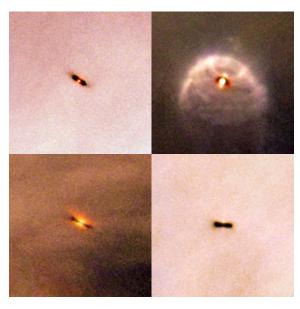
$$R_c \approx 50 \times \left(\frac{\omega_c}{10^{-14} \, s^{-1}}\right)^2 \left(\frac{M_*}{1 M_{sun}}\right)^3 AU$$
 Comparable to the size of the Solar System

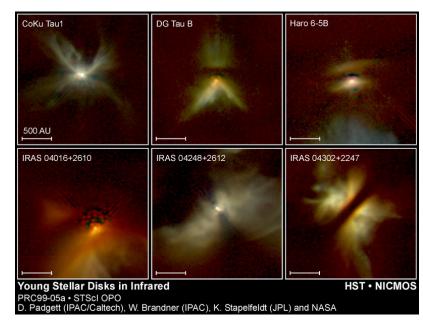
- disk is accreting on the central star at a rate of $10^{-7/-8}$ Msun/yr. The disk is dispersed after ~ 10-30 Myr ~ $t_{\rm KH}$
- Dust particles grow from 10⁻⁸ m (ISM) to 10⁶ m (planets)!

Observational evidences: R~150 AU, d~150 pc (i.e. Taurus), θ ~1"

HST Images – disks in the Orion and Taurus

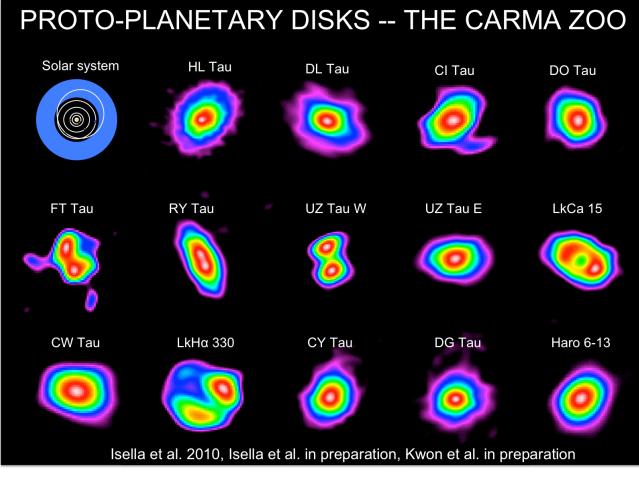
.. But in the optical we see only the disk surface!!





Observing protoplanetary disks at millimeter-wavelengths





At λ 1mm the disk emission is optically thin. We can see the disk interior!

But we need huge telescopes, since $D=\lambda/\theta > 200$ m to get $\theta<1$ "

We can use interferometers like CARMA