Supersonic Turbulence and Star Formation

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Why is the gas converted into stars? What sets the mass distribution and the formation rate of stars?

Gravitational Instability

Instability of linear density perturbations of a uniform, isothermal, static gas, extending to infinity (Jeans 1902):

$$\lambda > \lambda_{\rm J} = \left(\frac{\pi \,\sigma_{\rm th}^2}{G \,\rho_0}\right)^{1/2} \implies M_{\rm J} = \frac{4}{3} \,\pi \left(\frac{\lambda_{\rm J}}{2}\right)^3 \rho_0 = 24 \,M_{\rm sun} \left(\frac{n}{200 \,{\rm cm}^{-3}}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{T}{10 \,{\rm K}}\right)^{3/2}$$

The cold interstellar medium has a complex hierarchical structure:

$$n \approx 2 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3} \left(\frac{l}{1 \text{ pc}}\right)^{-1}, \qquad T \approx 10 \text{ K}$$

So clouds of 10 pc size have $n \sim 200$ cm⁻³, $M_{cl} \sim 10^4$ M_{sun} , and $M_{J} \sim 24$ M_{sun} .

Prediction 1:

The characteristic stellar mass in these molecular clouds is ~24 M_{sun}

At what rate is the gas converted into stars?

Without pressure support, a uniform sphere collapses in a free-fall time:

$$\tau_{\rm ff} = \left(\frac{3\,\pi}{32\,G\,\rho}\right)^{1/2} = 2.3 \times 10^6 \,\rm{yr} \left(\frac{n}{200\,\rm{cm}^{-3}}\right)^{-1/2}$$

(roughly a sound crossing time of the Jeans length).

Prediction 2:

Molecular clouds are converted into stars in two million years.

Both predictions from the linear gravitational instability are quite wrong....





1. Broad range of masses, characteristic mass $M_{ch} << M_{J}$ **2.** Gas conversion into stars ~ 2% per free-fall time

Why are the predictions from the gravitational instability so wrong?

The cold ISM is highly turbulent, $Re = \frac{UL}{-10^8}$

The turbulence is supersonic, $M_s \sim 30$

--> Highly non-linear velocity and density

Turbulence Solution to Star Formation

1) Mass range of stars:

Stellar masses are set by turbulence, not by self-gravity ($M > M_J$ is possible).

Density peaks that become stars are pieces of postshock gas.

Their size scales with the thickness of the postshock gas, set by shock jump conditions and velocity scaling.



MHD shocks:
$$\lambda = l / \mathcal{M}_{A}(l)$$
, $\rho(l) = \rho_0 \mathcal{M}_{A} \Rightarrow M \sim \lambda^3 \rho \sim l^3 \rho_0 / \mathcal{M}_{A}^2$

Velocity scaling: $\mathcal{M}_{A}(l) \sim u(l) \sim l^{\zeta_{2}/2} \Rightarrow M \sim l^{3-\zeta_{2}} \sim l^{2}$

$$\Rightarrow M_{\text{max}} / M_{\text{min}} = (L_0 / l_1)^{3-\zeta_2} = \mathcal{M}_{A,0}^{-2+6/\zeta_2} = \mathcal{M}_{A,0}^4$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{A,0} = 10 \implies M_{max} / M_{min} = 10^4$$

2) Characteristic stellar mass:

Bonnor-Ebert mass: isothermal sphere confined by external pressure (Ebert 1955; Bonnor 1956; McCrea 1957).

Thermal pressure:

$$M_{\rm BE} \approx \frac{\sigma_{\rm th}^4}{G^{3/2} P_{\rm th,0}^{1/2}} \approx \frac{\sigma_{\rm th}^3}{G^{3/2} \rho_0^{1/2}} \approx 10 M_{\rm sun} \left(\frac{n}{200 \,{\rm cm}^{-3}}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{T}{10 \,{\rm K}}\right)^{3/2} \approx \frac{M_{\rm J}}{2.47}$$

Dynamic pressure of turbulence (shocks --> nonlinear density jump):

$$M_{\text{BE,t}} \approx \frac{\sigma_{\text{th}}^4}{G^{3/2} P_{\text{dyn},0}^{1/2}} \approx \frac{\sigma_{\text{th}}^3}{G^{3/2} \rho_0^{1/2}} \left(\frac{\sigma_{\text{th}}}{\sigma_{\text{v}}} \right) = \frac{M_{\text{BE}}}{\mathcal{M}_{\text{s}}} \approx 0.4 M_{\text{sun}} \quad (\text{for } \mathcal{M}_{\text{s}} = 25)$$
(Notice that $M_{\text{BE,t}} \sim n^{-1/2} T^2 \sigma_{\text{v}}^{-1}$)

3) Rate of star formation:

Thermal energy

 $u_0 \gg C_{\rm S} \Rightarrow E_{\rm k,0} \gg E_{\rm th}$

Isothermal shocks create a complex filamentary density structure.



Gravitational energy

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{k}}}{\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{g}}} \sim \frac{\boldsymbol{u}^{2}}{\left(\rho L\right)^{2}}, \quad \boldsymbol{u} \sim L^{1/2}, \quad \frac{\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{0}}}{\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{g},\mathbf{0}}} \sim 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{k}}(L)}{\boldsymbol{E}_{\mathbf{g}}(L)} = \left(\frac{L}{L_{0}}\right)^{-1}$$

The turbulence can prevent the gravitational collapse.

Star formation occurs only where the density is enhanced and the turbulence is dissipated, few % of the total mass.

Supersonic turbulence is ubiquitous and energetically dominant in star-forming regions.

How do we study its role in the process of star formation?

Two different numerical approaches.....

1. Brute-force approach: AMR simulations of star-formation $5 \text{ pc} \rightarrow 0.5 \text{AU}, 512^3 \rightarrow (2 \times 10^6)^3$



2. Idealized experiments of supersonic turbulence

Statistics of turbulence (universal) --> Statistical theory of star formation

Experiment setup:

- Isothermal E.O.S.
- Periodic B.C.
- Uniform I.C. (rho, B)
- Random I.C. (u)
- Random acceleration (1 < k < 2)</p>
- No gravity
- Up to 2,048³ (or larger with AMR)
- The flow is relaxed for several t_{dyn} before computing statistics

Euler Codes:

PPM (Colella and Woodward 1984)
 PPML (Popov and Ustyugov 2007, 2008)
 Stagger (Nordlund)

1000³ HD, Mach=10, Stagger Code

1000³ ideal MHD, Mach=10, Stagger Code

Lognormal PDF of gas density Nordlund and Padoan (1999):



Consistent with observations (Alyssa Goodman et al. 2008)

Power-law velocity power spectrum:



Is there an energy cascade in supersonic turbulence?

Supersonic turbulence as inertial motions ending into oblique shocks:

 $\begin{array}{ll} u_{\perp} & \text{is dissipated by the shock} \\ u_{\parallel} & \text{goes into postshock shear} \end{array} \Rightarrow \frac{E_{\mathrm{C}}}{E_{\mathrm{S}}} \approx \frac{\epsilon_{\mathrm{C}}}{\epsilon_{\mathrm{S}}} \approx 1/2 \end{array}$

So there is a solenoidal cascade, but the dissipative flow geometry is primarily sheets (postshock regions), not filaments (vortices).

Energy cascade in incompressible turbulence

Kolmogorov (1941):
$$\delta u^2 \left(\frac{\delta u}{l} \right) = \text{constant} \Rightarrow \delta u^3 \propto l \Rightarrow \delta u^p \propto l^{p/3}$$

What are the scaling exponents in supersonic turbulence?

Kritsuk et al. (2007): 1,024³ and 2,048³ PPM simulations:



Energy cascade in supersonic turbulence

Lighthill (1955):
$$\rho \,\delta \, u^2 \left(\frac{\delta \, u}{l} \right) = \text{constant} \quad \Rightarrow \rho \,\delta \, u^3 \propto l$$

 $v \equiv \rho^{1/3} \, u \quad \Rightarrow \quad \delta \, v^p = \delta \, (\rho^{1/3} \, u)^p \propto l^{p/3}$



Kolmogorov scaling for \pmb{v} : $\Sigma(k) \sim k^{-1.7}$

Velocity
$$u$$
, $v\equiv
ho^{1/3}u$, and $w\equiv
ho^{1/2}u$



Kolmogorov scaling for $\boldsymbol{v}: S_3(\ell) \equiv \langle |\delta \boldsymbol{v}|^3 \rangle \sim \ell$

Structure function exponents of $v \equiv \rho^{1/3} u$



Summary

Supersonic turbulence can explain masses and formation rate of stars.

- A statistical theory of star formation can be derived from the statistics of supersonic turbulence.
- The pdf of gas density is a Lognormal and its standard deviation is a function of the rms Mach number.

The energy spectrum is a power law, with slope ~1.9, and *Es/Ec~*2.

- The "energy cascade" concept applies to supersonic turbulence, in the sense that the average kinetic energy density rate does not depend on scale.
- The Log-Poisson intermittency model works well in supersonic turbulence, and its parameters (scaling exponent and dimension of the most dissipative structures) have the correct physical meaning.