

# ORIGIN OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM

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An appendix with more complete notes including derivations of the Jeans Criteria and more detailed development of the angular momentum barrier are given.

The following are copies of the overheads shown in class.

On pp. 6 & 9 you should check the appendix for derivations and a more complete discussion.

# Where are stars formed?

In molecular clouds

cold, neutral, molecular gas + dust clouds

Evidence: All \*s in process of forming are found in mol. clouds

All very young \* clusters are found in or near mol. clouds.

## What do mol. clouds look like?

Opaque at UV + visible wavelengths

Bright + luminous at IR wavelengths

Bright rotational + vibrational molecular emission lines at radio + IR wavelengths

OH - mol. species #1

3 slides

## Properties of Mol. Clouds

Cold:  $8 \leq T_{\text{kin}} \leq 20 \text{ K}$  Typical  $\sim 10 \text{ K}$

Low ionization:  $\text{Ne}/n \approx 10^{-6} - 10^{-7} \Rightarrow$  very neutral

High density:  $N(\text{H}_2) \geq 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$

Massive:  $M \sim 10^4 - 10^6 M_\odot$

Large:  $D \sim 300 \text{ ly}$

Clumpy

Supersonic gas motions:  $\Delta v \sim 0.5 - 2 \text{ km s}^{-1}$   
 $v_s \sim 0.2 \text{ km s}^{-1}$

# Interstellar Molecules

Species	Name	Species	Name
H <sub>2</sub>	molecular hydrogen	• NH <sub>3</sub>	ammonia
C <sub>2</sub>	diatomic carbon	HNCO	isocyanic acid
CH	methylidyne	NOCO <sup>+</sup>	protonated carbon dioxide
CH <sup>+</sup>	methylidyne ion	HCNH <sup>+</sup>	protonated hydrogen dioxide
CN	cyanogen	HNCS	isothiocyanic acid
CO	carbon monoxide	C <sub>3</sub> N	cyanoethynyl
CS	carbon monosulfide	C <sub>3</sub> O	tricarbon monoxide
OH	hydroxyl	H <sub>2</sub> CS	thioformaldehyde
HCl	hydrogen chloride	H <sub>3</sub> O <sup>+</sup>	hydronium ion
NO	nitric oxide	C <sub>3</sub> S	
NS	nitrogen sulfide	C <sub>4</sub> H	butadiynyl
SiC	silicon carbide*	C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	cyclopropenylidene
SiO	silicon monoxide	H <sub>2</sub> CCC	propadienylidene
SiS	silicon sulfide	HCOOH	formic acid
SO	sulfur monoxide	CH <sub>2</sub> CO	ketene
PN	*	HC <sub>3</sub> N	cyanoacetylene
CP		CH <sub>2</sub> CN	cyanomethyl
SO <sup>+</sup>	sulfoxide ion	NH <sub>2</sub> CN	cyanamide
NaCl	sodium chloride*	CH <sub>2</sub> NH	methanimine
AlCl	aluminum chloride*	• CH <sub>4</sub>	methane
KCl	potassium chloride*	SiH <sub>4</sub>	silane*
AlF	aluminum fluoride*†	C <sub>4</sub> Si	*
H <sub>2</sub> D <sup>+</sup>	†	C <sub>5</sub>	pentatomic carbon*
C <sub>2</sub> H	ethynyl	C <sub>5</sub> H	pentynylidyne
CH <sub>2</sub>	methylene †	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	ethylene*
• HCN	hydrogen cyanide	H <sub>2</sub> CCCC	butatrienylidene
HNC	hydrogen isocyanide	CH <sub>3</sub> OH	methanol
HCO	formyl	CH <sub>3</sub> CN	methyl cyanide
HCO <sup>+</sup>	formyl ion	CH <sub>3</sub> NC	methyl isocyanide
HOC <sup>+</sup>	isoformyl ion †	CH <sub>3</sub> SH	methyl mercaptan
N <sub>2</sub> H <sup>+</sup>	protonated nitrogen	NH <sub>2</sub> CHO	formamide
HNO	nitroxyl	HC <sub>3</sub> HO	propynal
• H <sub>2</sub> O	water	C <sub>5</sub> O	pentacarbon monoxide †
OCS	carbonyl sulfide	C <sub>6</sub> H	
SO <sub>2</sub>	sulfur dioxide	CH <sub>2</sub> CHCN	vinyl cyanide
SiC <sub>2</sub>	silicon dicarbide	CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H	methylacetylene
	(silacyclopropyne)*	• CH <sub>3</sub> CHO	acetaldehyde
C <sub>2</sub> S		CH <sub>3</sub> NH <sub>2</sub>	methylamine
C <sub>2</sub> O	dicarbon monoxide †	HC <sub>5</sub> N	cyanodiacetylene
C <sub>3</sub>	triatomic carbon*		
C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	acetylene	HC <sub>7</sub> N	cyanoheptatriyne
C <sub>3</sub> H	propynylidyne (l and c)	CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>4</sub> CN	
• H <sub>2</sub> CO	formaldehyde	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>3</sub> CO	acetone †
HCOOCH <sub>3</sub>	methyl formate	HC <sub>9</sub> N	cyano-octa-tetra-yne
CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>3</sub> N	methylcyanoacetylene	HC <sub>11</sub> N	cyano-deca-penta-yne
CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>4</sub> H	methyldiacetylene		
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>3</sub> O	dimethyl ether		
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CN	ethyl cyanide		
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> OH	ethanol		

\* Detected in circumstellar envelopes only

† tentative

Conditions that favor initiation of star formation:

Decrease internal pressure

- or by decreasing  $T$  or  $\rho$  or both
- or by increasing the mean mass per particle
  - by transforming from an atomic  $\Rightarrow$  mol. gas.
- or by decreasing the ionization fraction
  - $f_e = N_e/n \rightarrow < 10^{-7} \Rightarrow$  gas decouples from any magnetic field present
    - $\Rightarrow$  magnetic pressure can't support the cloud.

Increase the external pressure

By partially focused shocks

[4 slides M17]

by ionization of the gas around a molecular clump

[ 3 slides M16 ]  
[ 2 slides M20 ]

Low Temp.	low fe
High Density	large mass clumpy structure

favor \* form

Mol. clouds have the "right stuff" for  
\* formation. Mols. are efficient coolants  
⇒ hard for mol. clouds to be heated  
to temps much above  $\sim 20\text{K}$ .

## Systematics of the Solar System

1. Coplanar orbits of the planets
2. Planets have prograde revolution
3. All but Venus + Uranus have prograde rotation
4. Sun contains all the mass
5. Planets contain ~all the angular momentum  
(mostly  $\ell \neq 0$ )
6. Small, <sup>dense,</sup> silicate + iron rich planets in the inner  $\leq 2\text{AU}$  (slow rotors, few or no moons, no rings)  
 $\rho \sim 3-5 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$
7. Large, <sup>low density</sup> gaseous planets in the outer solar system ( $\geq 5\text{AU}$ ).  
(composition  $\sim$  sun, low  $\rho$ , many moons, ring systems)
8. Abundance gradient  
Low abund. of volatiles (H, He, Li...) in inner solar system.  
Outer solar system abunds. like that of sun.
9. Revolution of rings + moons are all prograde for natural moons (those not believed to be captured).

Any successful theory for the origin of the solar system must account for these systematics.

There are two fundamental problems with understanding how stars and Planets form.

1. How does a cloud become gravitationally unstable in the first place? What initiates it?
2. How do stars shed angular momentum to allow matter to fall onto a forming protostar?

## Jeans Criteria

For gravitationally bound cloud we require that gravitational potential energy be greater than the internal thermal energy.

For a cloud of density  $\rho$ , temperature  $T$ , and mean mass per particle  $\mu$ :

The minimum radius for which the cloud is just balanced against gravity is:

$$R_J \approx (kT/G\mu\rho)^{1/2}$$

and the minimum mass for stability is

$$M_J \propto \left(\frac{T}{\mu}\right)^{3/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}} \quad n = \rho/\mu m_u$$

For example:  $n = 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ;  $\mu = 2.25 \text{ amu}$ ;  $T = 10 \text{ K}$

$$\begin{aligned} R_J &\sim 1.6 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm} & M_J &\sim 3.3 M_{\odot} \\ &\sim 104,000 A_U \\ &\sim 2.2 \times 10^7 R_{\odot} \end{aligned}$$

# Factors Favoring Star Formation

Low Temp

High Density

High Mean Mass/particle

Low Ionization Fraction  $f_e$

Massive clouds

Clumpy structures

Molecular clouds provide these conditions

How might nature achieve the conditions to initiate star formation?

3 OHs #2,3,4

Increase in external pressure

Stellar induced \* form.

Shock induced \* form.

5 Slides

3 - MIG showing erosion to reveal EGGS (evaporating gaseous globules)

2 - Rosette showing Bok Globules which probably contain EGGS.

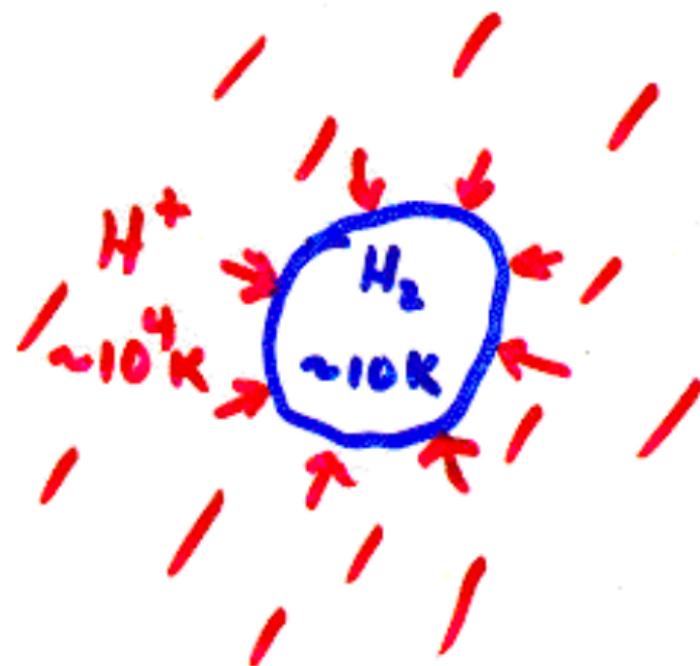
1 OH - Illustrating emergence of EGGS.

#5

Equilibrium  
Condition



Pressure  
Imbalance

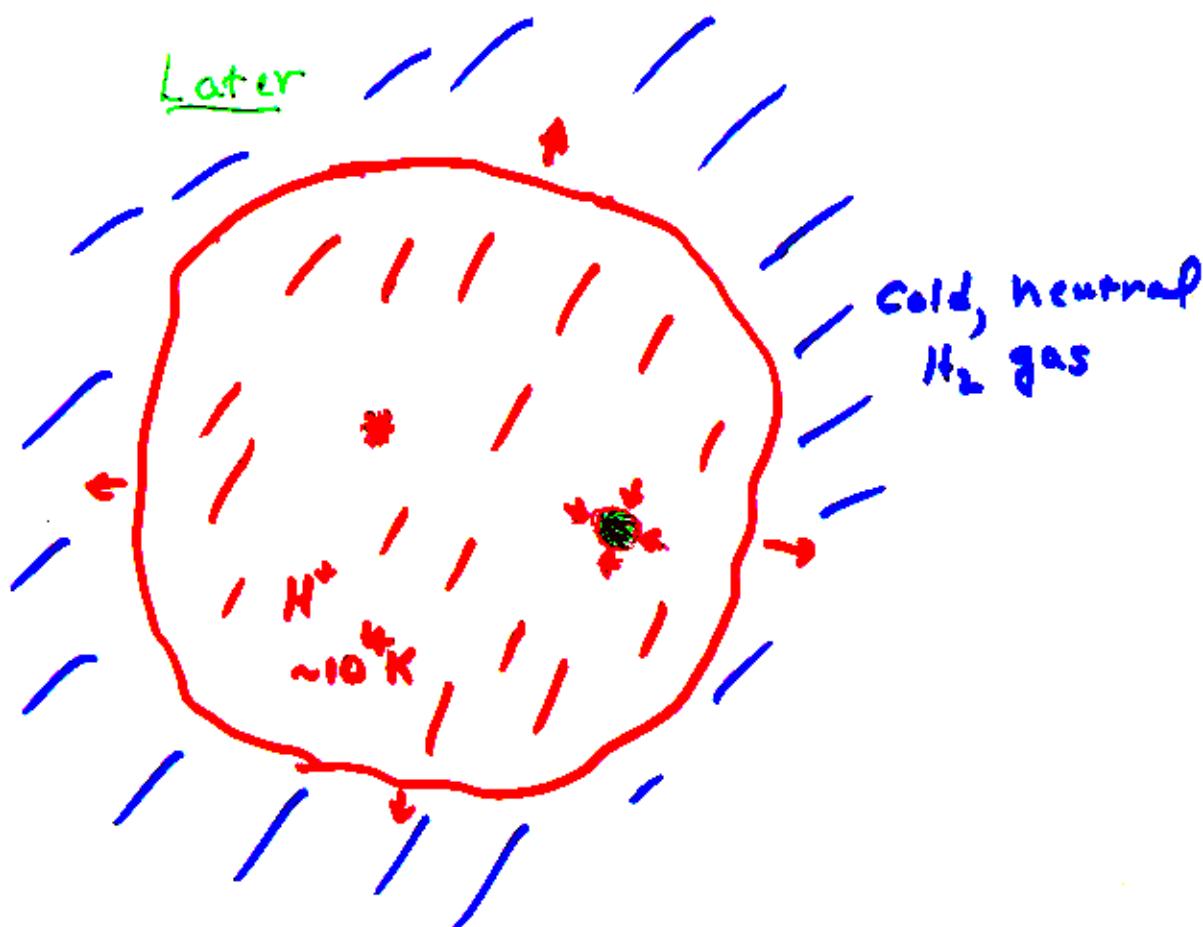


# Stellar Induced Star Formation

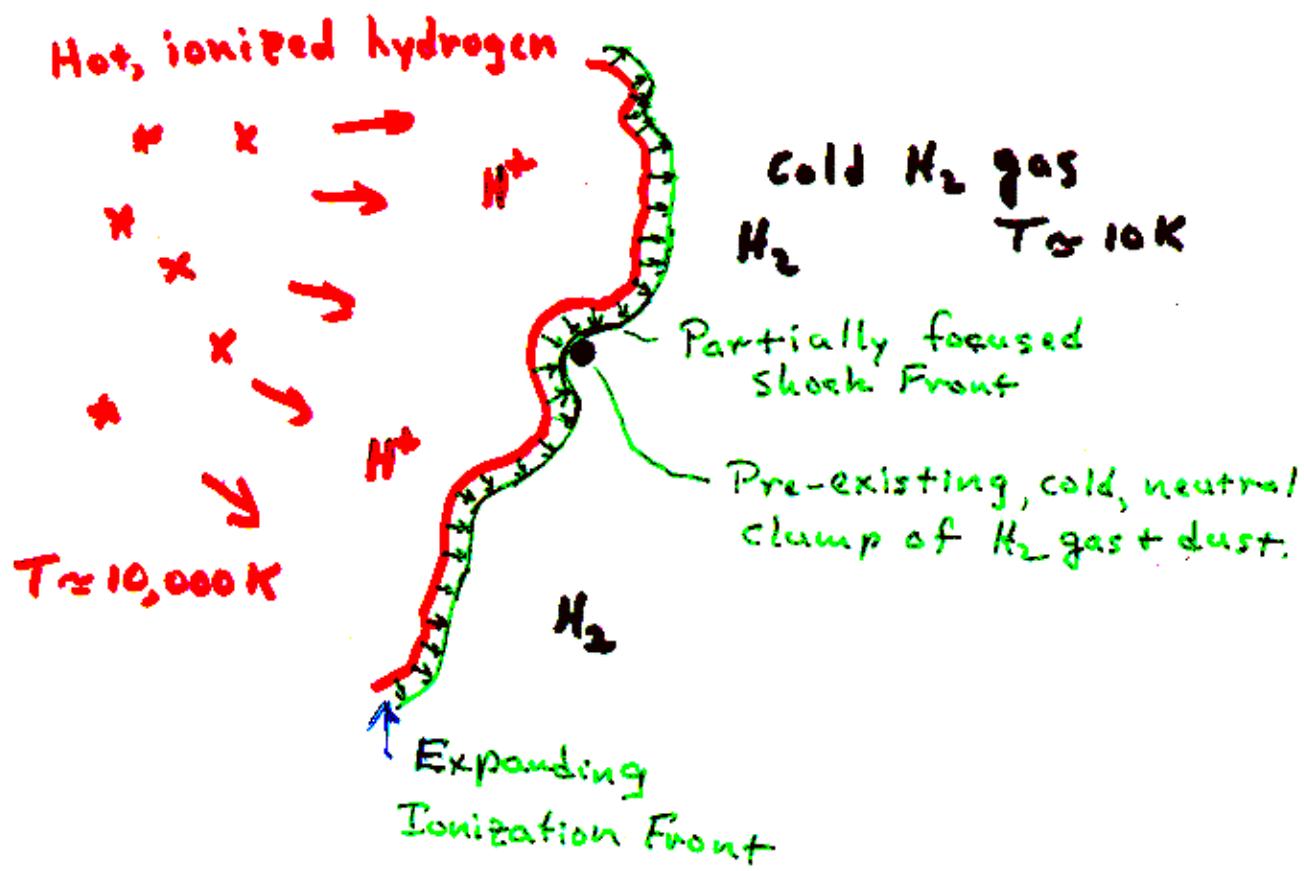
## Initial State



## Later



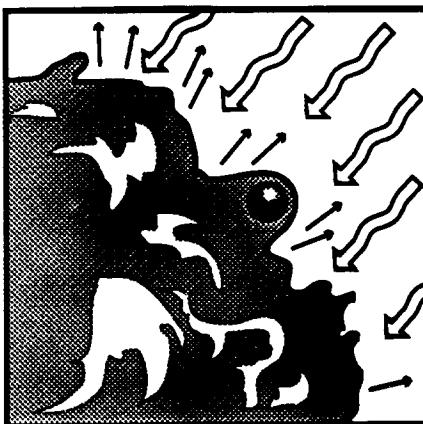
# Schematic of Shock Induced Star Formation



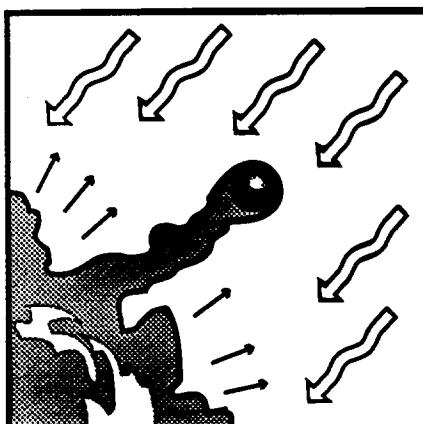
# Stellar EGGS in M16



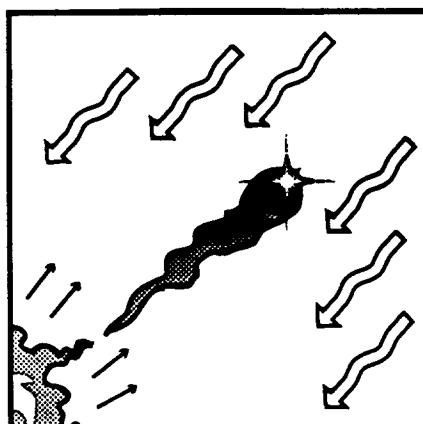
The surface of a molecular cloud is illuminated by intense ultraviolet radiation from nearby hot stars. The radiation evaporates material off of the surface of the cloud.



As the cloud is slowly eaten away by the ultraviolet radiation, a denser than average globule of gas begins to be uncovered



The EGG has now been largely uncovered. The shadow of the EGG protects a column of gas behind it, giving it a finger-like appearance.



Eventually the EGG may become totally separated from the molecular cloud in which it formed. As the EGG itself slowly evaporates, the star within is uncovered and may appear sitting on the front surface of the EGG.

Why is it difficult to get matter onto the protostar?

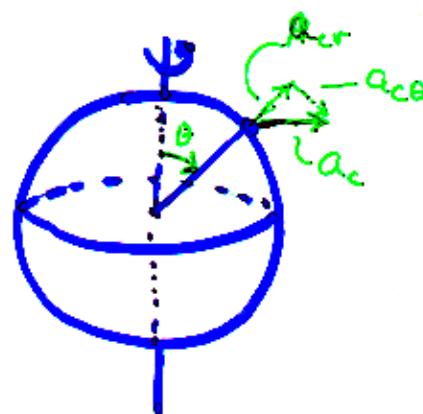
Cons. of Angular Momentum

⇒ Spin-up as  $r$  decreases

$$a_g(r) \propto 1/r^2$$

Opposing this is a centrifugal term due to rotation

$$a_{cr}(r) \propto 1/r^3$$



⇒  $a_{cr}$  increases faster than  $a_g$  as  $r$  decreases.

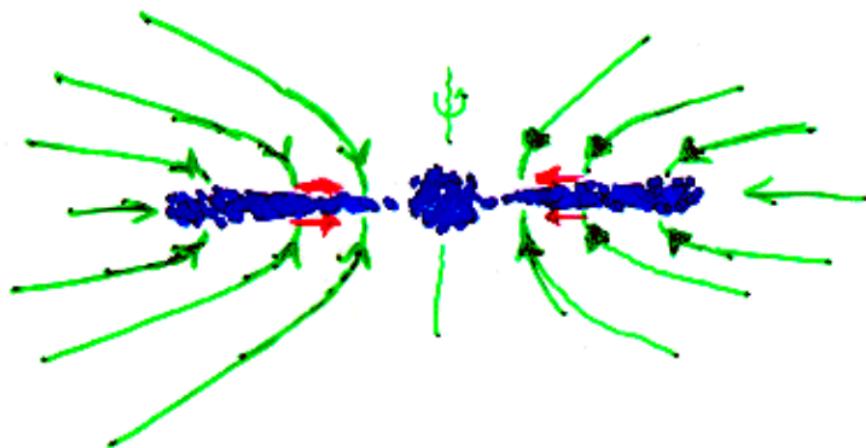
At small enough  $r$ :  $a_{cr} \approx a_g$   
+ no further collapse can occur!

Fragmentation to smaller clumps

Collapse of a fragment to a star via an accretion disk

Interplay between Ag + Qcr

causes an accreting protostellar cloud core to form an accretion disk



## Dilemma

Can't keep dropping high angular momentum mass onto a cloud core. It would soon reach critical speed, even with accretion through an accretion disk.

How does a protostar shed angular momentum?

Recall:  $r_0 \rightarrow R_*$  is  $\sim 10^7$  reduction,

$$\Rightarrow \omega_{R_*} \approx \omega_0 \left(\frac{r_0}{R_*}\right)^2 \quad (\omega \text{ is the angular speed})$$
$$\approx 10^{14} \omega_0$$

$$\Rightarrow P_* < 1^s \quad \text{but } P_0 \sim 1 \text{ mo.}$$

A star sheds angular momentum by throwing mass out via bipolar outflows.

Stars shed angular momentum by forming bipolar jets

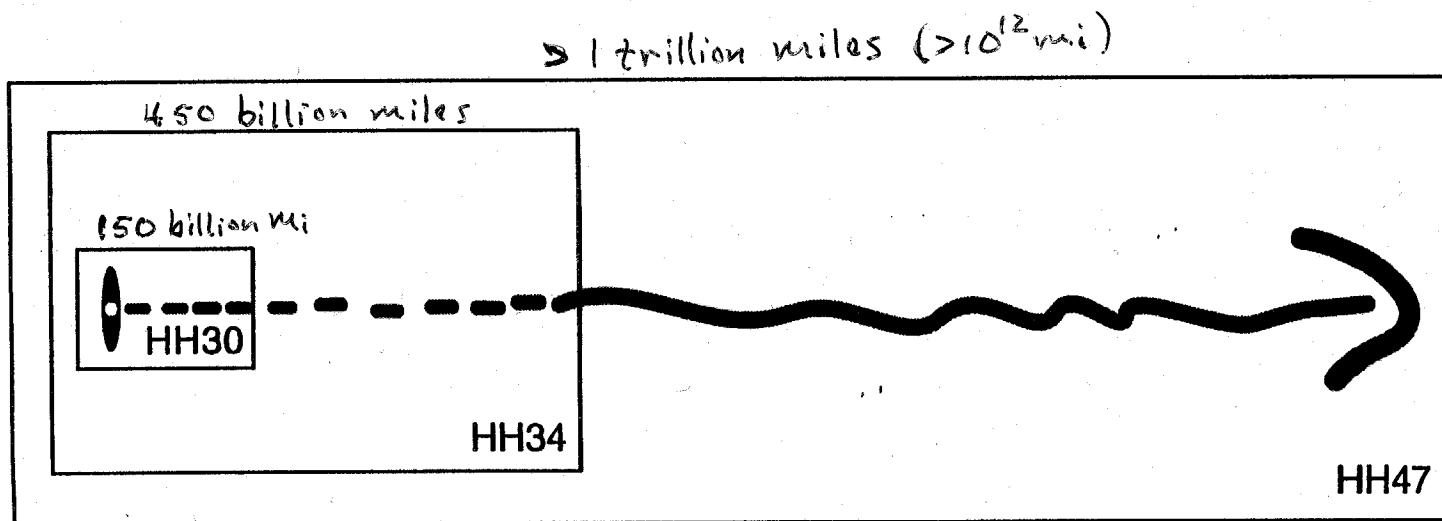


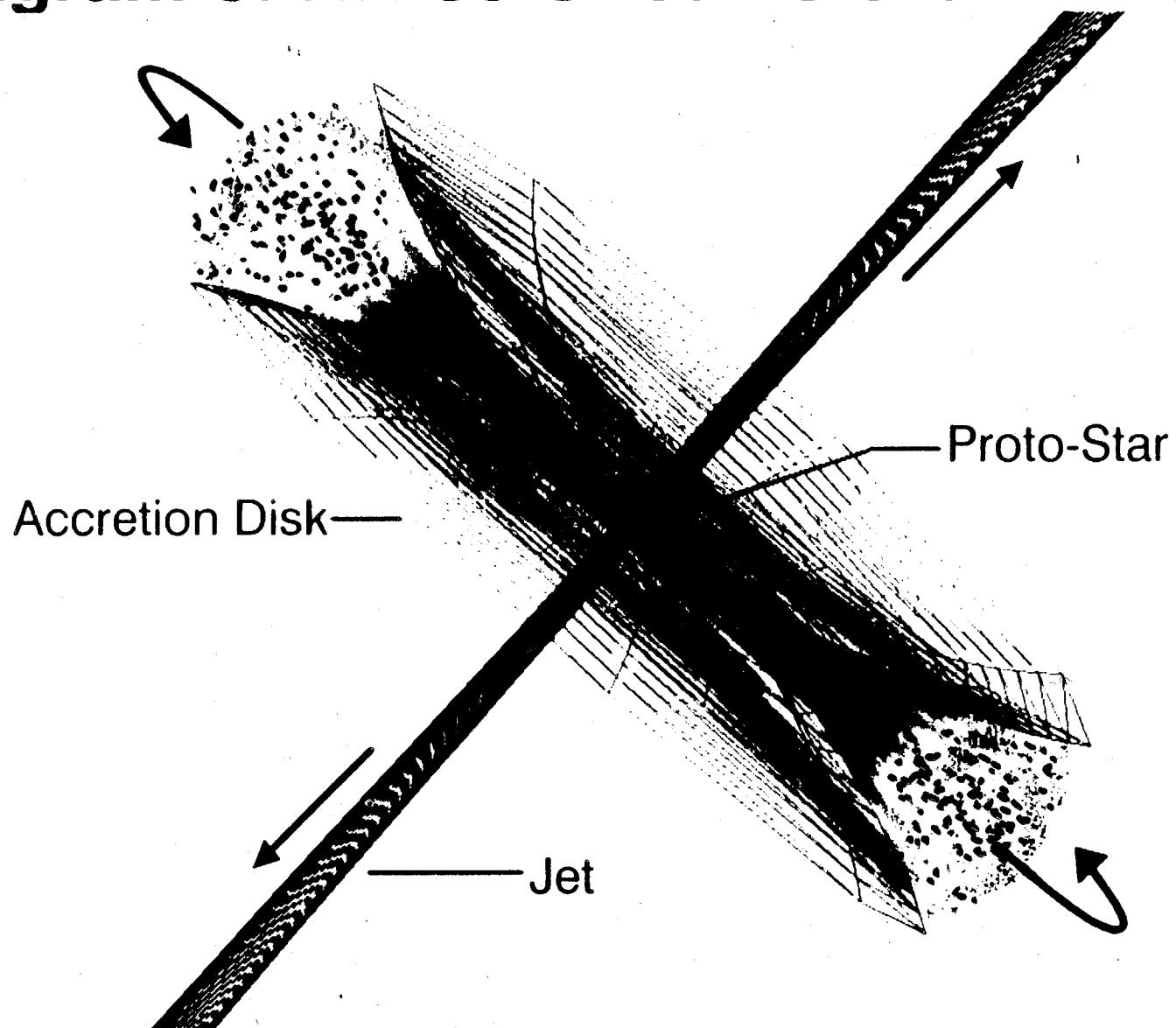
Diagram to accompany: *Jets From Young Stars* (prc-95-24a) Hubble Space Telescope Photo Release

This schematic shows the relative scale of Hubble Space Telescope images of stellar jets ejected from three different embryonic stars: HH30, HH34, and HH47. Though they are pictures of three different systems, when compared they provide a general view of how stellar jets behave as they propagate across space. The HH30 field of view, approximately 150 billion miles across, shows the jet as it emanates from a circumstellar disk that encircles a young star. The HH34 view, 450 billion miles across, shows that a jet remains narrow, and has a beaded structure. The HH47 view, more than a trillion miles across, shows how a jet plows through interstellar space, creating arrowhead-shaped bow shocks.

## **Destruction of Proto-Planetary Disks in Orion's Trapezium Explained**

Schematic of a protostar with accretion disk + bipolar Jet.

# Diagram of HH 30 Circumstellar Disk & Jet



# Schematic of the Initial stages of star formation.

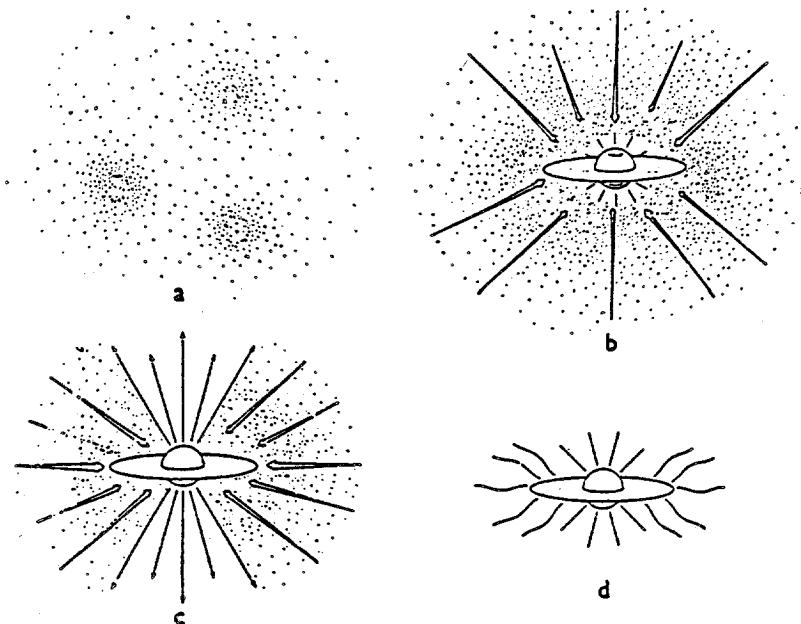


Figure 1. The four stages of star formation. (a) Cores form within molecular cloud envelopes as magnetic and turbulent support is lost through ambipolar diffusion. (b) Protostar with a surrounding nebular disk forms at the center of a cloud core collapsing from inside-out. (c) A stellar wind breaks out along the rotational axis of the system, creating a bipolar flow. (d) The infall terminates, revealing a newly formed star with a circumstellar disk. (From Shu, Adams, and Lizano 1987.)

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## Latter Stage.

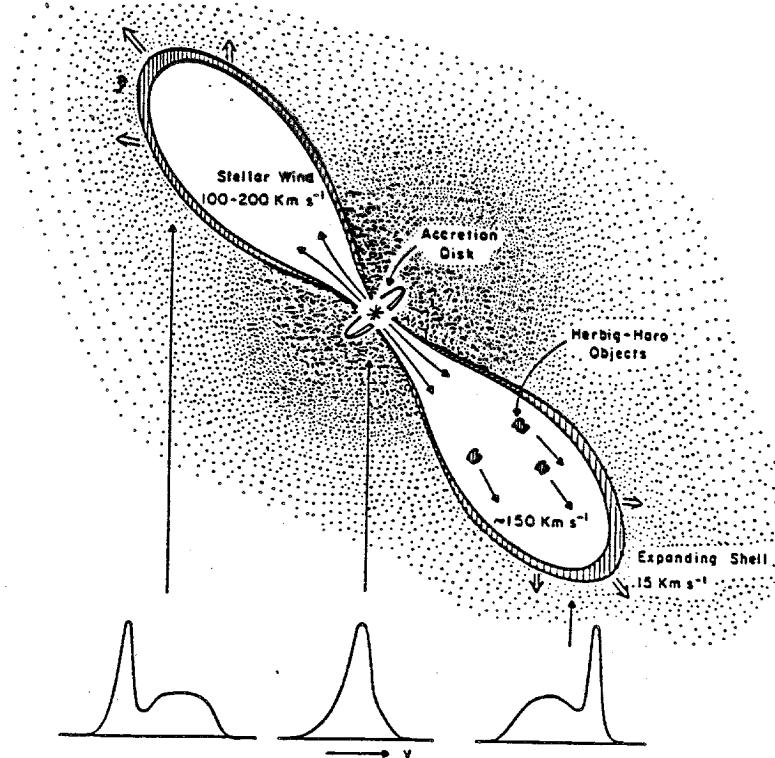
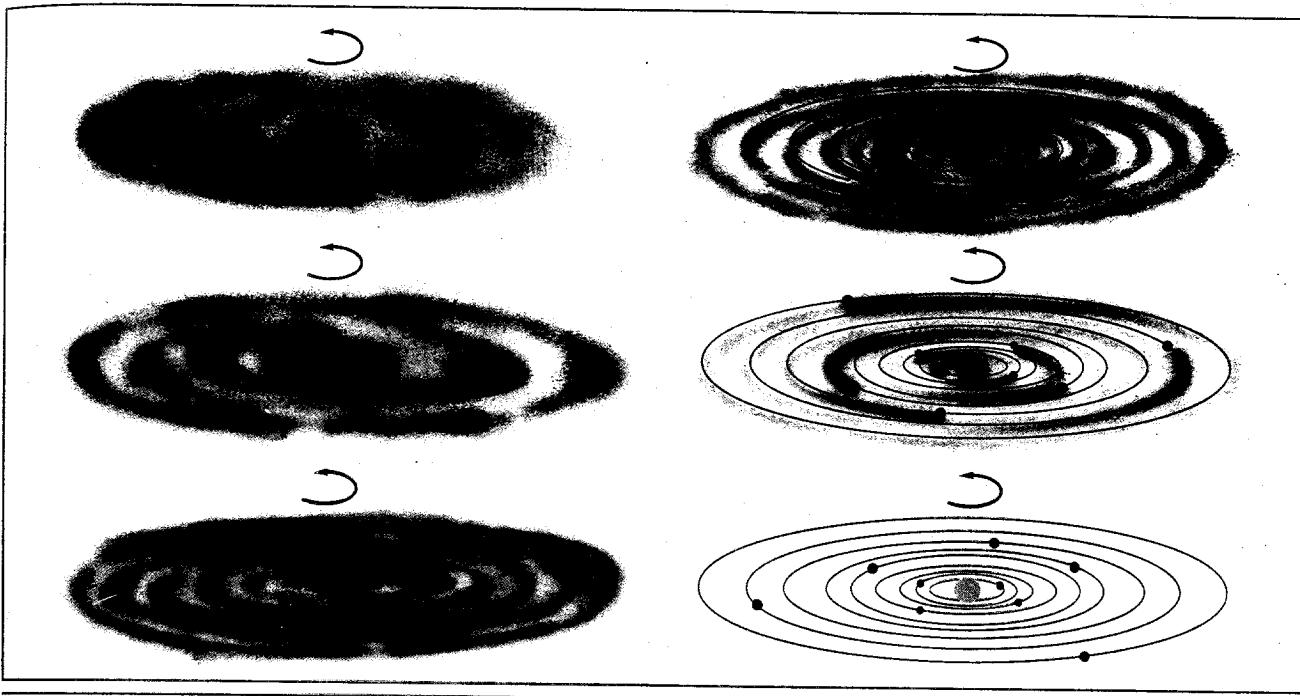


Figure 3. Schematic model for the bipolar flow in L1551 driven by a stellar wind emanating from IRS 5. At the bottom is depicted expected CO line profiles for different line of sights across the source. (From Snell, Loren, and Plambeck 1980.)

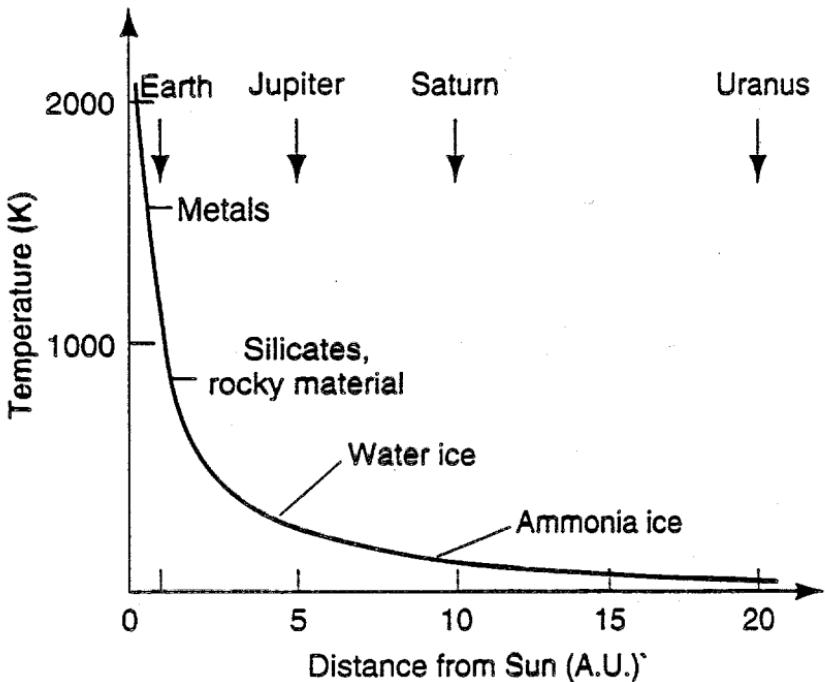
## From accretion disk to planets



**Figure 16.6 Steps in the Sun's formation.** An interstellar cloud, initially very extended and rotating very slowly, collapses under its own gravitation. This happens most quickly at the center. As the collapse occurs, the internal temperature rises and the rotation rate increases. Eventually the central condensation becomes hot and dense enough to be a star, with nuclear reactions in its core.

**Table 16.3 Timetable for solar system formation**

Approximate Time	Event
0	Collapse of interstellar cloud; disk formation
400,000 years	Central condensation becomes hot enough for pressure to balance gravity; matter still falling in
1 million years	Second collapse stage is followed by new nearly stable phase, with heating by slow gravitational contraction; central object is now called the protosun; infalling gas and dust shrouds protosun from exterior view
1–10 million years	Planetesimals form and accrete to form planets
1–100 million years	T Tauri wind
100 million years	Start of nuclear reactions in core
0.1–1 billion years	Magnetic braking slows Sun's rotation; major cratering occurs throughout solar system



**Figure 15.7** Theoretically computed variation of temperature across the primitive solar nebula. In the hot central regions, only metals could condense out of the gaseous state to form grains. At greater distances from the central protosun, the temperature was lower, so rocky and icy grains could also form. The labels indicate the minimum radii at which grains of various types could condense out of the nebula.

Accretion disk - bipolar jets account for:

1. Small, rocky, metal rich inner planets  
less matter near sun
2. Absence of Volatile elements ( $H$ ,  $He$ ) in  
the inner solar system.
3. Prograde rotation + revolution of planets  
& true moons.
4. Co-planar planetary orbits
5. Massive outer planets composed mostly  
of  $H$  &  $He$  (similar comp. as the Sun).
6. Most angular momentum in the  
outer planets + most mass in the  
Sun.

**Additional Material Can Be Referenced at the Fall'96 NEEP602 Website**