Few-Body Modes of Binary Formation in Core Collapse

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Abstract

At the moment of deepest core collapse, a star cluster core contains less than ten stars. This small number makes the traditional treatment of hard binary formation, assuming a homogeneous background density, suspect. In a previous paper, we have found that indeed the conventional wisdom of binary formation, based on three-body encounters, is incorrect. Here we refine that insight, by further dissecting the subsequent steps leading to hard binary formation. We find that the conventional treatment does remain valid for direct three-body scattering, but fails for resonant three-body scattering. Especially democratic resonance scattering, which forms an important part of the analytical theory of three-body binary formation, takes too much space and time to be approximated as being isolated, in the context of a cluster core around core collapse. We conclude that, while three-body encounters can be analytically approximated as isolated, subsequent strong perturbations typically occur whenever those encounters give rise to democratic resonances. We present analytical estimates postdicting our numerical results. If we only had been a bit more clever, we could have predicted this qualitative behaviour.

Key words: Stellar dynamics, Method: N-body simulation, globular clusters: general

1. Introduction

In our previous paper, Tanikawa et al. (2011), hereafter referred to as Paper I, we started to investigate in detail the formation mechanism of the first hard binary during core collapse of a dense star cluster. While many studies have appeared that have focused on the macroscopic aspects of core collapse, during the last fifty years, to the best of our knowledge our paper was the first one to address the microscopic aspects, including the actual reaction network of the stellar encounters that gave rise to the formation of a hard binary.

In that study, we encountered two surprising deviations from what had become accepted as the standard picture of binary formation in core collapse. First, in many cases more than three bodies are directly and simultaneously involved in the production of the first hard binary. Second, we concluded that the core at deepest collapse was smaller than expected before, typically containing half a dozen stars or less.

In contrast, in the standard picture developed in the nineteen eighties, it was first assumed that the formation of hard binaries was essentially a three-body process, whose rate could be estimated assuming estimates for the typical density and velocity dispersion in the core. Second, it was concluded that the core would bounce around the time its membership had dropped to a few dozen stars. In Paper I, we cited papers by Goodman (1984, 1987). An additional reference is Hut & Inagaki (1985), where analytical arguments were used to predict that three-body binary formation would revert core collapse when the core would shrink to contain of order 100 stars (80 in their section IVa, and 150 in their section IVbii). They also quoted simulations by McMillan & Lightman (1984) which showed core collapse to be reverted when the core contained 25 stars.

The two main flaws in the traditional picture are related. Given that the fluctuations in thermodynamic properties in a group of only a few stars are far larger than in a group of, say, thirty stars, the concept of a homogeneous temperature (or velocity dispersion) in the core is no longer valid for such a small core. Also, in a core containing only, say, five stars it is quite likely that all five are involved in the formation of a hard binary, with possibly some of the stars just outside...
the core also making a strong presence felt during a pass through the core.

Encouraged by the fact that the standard story of hard binary formation needed to be corrected on at least these two quite fundamental points, we continued our investigation, focusing in on only one of the many runs reported in Paper I, in an attempt to get further to the bottom of what is actually happening during core collapse in microscopic detail. Not wanting to introduce any bias, we decided to simply take the very first case described in Paper I.

The central new technique, introduced in Paper I, was to plot all pair-wise distances for all stars in the core, as a function of time, during a short period of time just before hard binary formation. Using this technique, and interpreting the results by eye, was only feasible given the very small number of stars in the core. Together with visual interactive inspection of the 3-D orbits of the stars in the core, our new technique allowed a determination of roughly how many stars were involved at which time during the successive stages leading to the formation of the first hard binary.

In this paper, we move beyond the detection of the new physics reported in Paper I, i.e. many-body binary formation, in order to perform a more detailed and quantitative analysis of this binary-formation process. For this purpose, we introduce two other new techniques. The first one is the use of work functions, and the second one is a form of subcluster analysis. In addition, we have employed a better interactive visualization tool, in the form of an open-GL program.

In the process of applying these new tools, we again found new physics: while the main conclusions of Paper I hold, we now understand in more detail exactly why they hold. The main reason is the presence of democratic resonance interactions. In contrast, we found that the traditional perturbative treatment is in fact satisfactory for direct three-body interactions. It is only because democratic resonance interactions last long and take up a large fraction of the space in the core that they will typically undergo strong encounters with other stars before a democratic resonance is finished.

This new paper has two main aims: first, to illustrate the new diagnostic tools and their uses (with a long-term goal of making this kind of analysis more streamlined and automatic), and, second, to explain our developed understanding of the new dynamical processes which we are exploring. This main finding is described in more detail in the discussion and conclusion sections below. The next two sections focus on a summary of what we found out about the first run in Paper I; and on what we learned in our new analysis in this paper, respectively. The section after that extends the analysis of Paper I to earlier times, where interesting processes were already happening that had not been flagged in Paper I. The paper finishes with a section of theoretical discussion, and then a summary of our conclusions and some outlook.

Fig. 2. Time evolution of the maximum binding energy between any two stars (among the stars we followed) at each time.

2. Summary of the first run in Paper I

The analysis in Paper I consisted mostly of inspection-by-eye, which sufficed to find the new physical phenomena, mainly the fact that more than three stars were involved in most instances of hard binary formation. Here follows a summary of brief summary of the first run of Paper I, the 1024 run with seed 1.

Figure 1 shows the time evolution of separations among stars involving binary formation. This figure is almost the same as figure 7 of Paper I. In Paper I, we drew the orbits of only six stars numbered from 1 to 6. Here we have added two more stars, in order to highlight further some of the earlier stages of these interactions, around time \( \tau = -4 \). In Paper I, the six stars were chosen in the following way.

First, we followed the run from the beginning in order to find the first binary with a total energy of more than 10\( kT \), which turned out to be the binary (1,2) at \( \tau = 0 \). Here, we define 3/2\( kT \) as the average kinetic energy of cluster stars at the initial time. Next, we extended our search backwards in time, from that point on, to look for stars that had significant reactions with the final binary components, from \( \tau = 0 \) back to \(-1.6 \). We concluded that the hard binary came into being only at \( \tau = -1.6 \), since before that time the maximum binding energy of any pair of stars is at most 3\( kT \) (see figure 2).

Second, by considering the distances of other stars from 1 and 2, in the top row of fig. 7 in Paper I (our figure. 1), we found that stars 3 and 5 also played an important role: the presence of binaries (1,5) and (2,3) is obvious during the periods \(-1.6 < \tau < -0.8 \) and \(-0.5 < \tau < 0 \), respectively. In addition, star 4 makes a close encounter to star 1 at \( \tau = -1.6 \) in the top left panel (though the details are somewhat crowded) and star 6 can be seen to dance with stars 1 and 5 in the panels of the third row from \( \tau = -0.8 \) onwards.

Table 1 summarises what can be gleaned from Paper I, in the left column. For comparison, we present in the right hand column somewhat refined information about these events as found in the current paper.
Fig. 1. Time evolution of separations among stars involving binary formation, which is almost the same as figure 7 in Paper I, and is plotted over the same range of scaled time $\tau$. This figure differs from Paper I, however, by the addition of stars 7 and 8, which are introduced in Sec.3.3.
This paper

Events in invasion of stars 2 and 3 into democratic triple [1,5,6] lead to interaction among stars 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 leads to formation of binary [1,2] (9 τ formation of binary [2,3] from subsystem [1,2,3,5,6] formation of democratic triple [1,5,6] formation of binary [1,5] (16 τ formation of binary [1,2] (36 τ formation of binary [2,3] (16kT) by direct exchange

3. A new analysis of the first run of Paper I

3.1. Work Functions

In Paper I, we showed that more than three stars come close to each other at the first binary formation. However, we did not quantify how each star contributes to the binary formation. For this purpose, in the present paper we use binding energies and “work functions”. The former and latter quantifies binary formations and contribution of stars to the binary formations, respectively. Actually, the two quantities are useful not only for binary formation, but also for binary evolution, such as hardening, softening, and ionisation. Furthermore, we can generalize them to subsystems or multiple stars (“tuples” for short) which have more than two stars, so that a tuple with two stars is a binary.

The compactness of a tuple consisting of more than one star may be quantified by a binding energy. The binding energy of tuple i is expressed as

\[ E_i(t) = \sum_{k<l}^n \frac{G m_{ik} m_{lj}}{|r_{ik} - r_{lj}|} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_k^{n_i} \frac{m_{ik} (v_{ik}^2 - v_{cm}^2)}{\sum_k^{n_i} m_{ik}}, \tag{1} \]

where \( n_i \) is the number of components of tuple i, and \( v_{cm} \) is the center-of-mass velocity of tuple i, i.e. \( v_{cm} = (\sum_k^{n_i} m_{ik} v_{ik}) / (\sum_k^{n_i} m_{ik}) \). If the binding energy \( E_i(t) \) is positive, tuple i is a bound system. We can extend this definition to a binding energy of a mixture of stars and subsystems. Then, we replace \( m_{ik}, r_{ik}, \) and \( v_{ik} \) in equation (1) by the mass and center-of-mass position and velocity of a subsystem, respectively. In this way we can speak of the binding energy of a star to a subsystem of other stars.

The binding energy allows us to identify bound subsystems that are temporarily almost unperturbed or isolated, as they have roughly constant binding energy. This raises the question of how these periods of roughly constant binding energy begin and end. Clearly, a significant amount of energy exchange between the subsystem and its surroundings is involved, at the beginning and the end of each such period. To characterize the energy exchange, we can look at the amount of work done during each event.

Table 1

| \( \tau \) | Paper I | This paper |
|---|---|---|
| \( \leq -1.5 \) | interaction among stars 1, 2, 4, and 5 leads to formation of binary [1,5] | interaction among stars 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 leads to formation of binary [1,5] (9kT) |
| \( > -1.0 \) | interaction among stars 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 leads to dissolution of binary [1,5] | invasion of star 6 into binary [1,5] leads to formation of democratic triple [1,5,6] |
| \( -0.5 \) | formation of binary [2,3] from subsystem [1,2,3,5,6] | invasion of stars 2 and 3 into democratic triple [1,5,6] leads to formation of binaries [2,3] and [5,6] |
| 0.0 | formation of binary [1,2] (> 10kT) by direct exchange | formation of binary [1,2] (16kT) by direct exchange |

3.2. Overview of the history for the binary formation

As we show in the remainder of this section, these diagnostics can be used to unravel the main interactions which eventually give rise to the first 10kT binary. On this basis it is possible to construct (manually) a schematic but detailed graphic description of these interactions (figure 3), in analogy with a diagram for a resonant three-body interaction presented by Hut & Bahcall (1983, fig.3). We sometimes refer to this as a kind of Feynman diagram, in analogy with somewhat similar figures used in perturbative quantum field theories. Though it depends on results which are still to be presented, it will aid the reader to follow the analysis with reference to this diagram.

In this reanalysis we divide the evolution into four phases: \(-6.75 < \tau < -4.2, -4.2 < \tau < -1.6, -1.6 < \tau < 0, \) and \( 0.0 < \tau < 1.1 \). The start and end points merely delimit the range of times which were considered in detail in Paper I (see figure 7 in Paper I, and figure 1 in the present paper). The other times are significant events identified in section 2 and table 1. These four phases are considered in
Fig. 3. Illustration for interactions involving the first binary formation. Close parallel lines indicate (schematically) temporary bound subsystems.
the following sub-sections, and the phase before $\tau = -6.75$ is analysed in section 4.

3.3. The Era $-6.75 < \tau < -4.2$

Turning to the analysis of the first phase, $-6.75 < \tau < -4.2$, we see from the solid curve in figure 4 that system $(1,2,3,4,5,6)$ is not isolated, as its binding energy changes abruptly at about $\tau = -4.5$ and $\tau = -4.2$. At the former time, figure 1 (or figure 7 in Paper I) shows a close approach to star 1 by a star which was unidentified in Paper I, but which we now label as star 7. In this encounter, the top panel of figure 5 shows that work is done by star 7 on a binary consisting of star 1 and the quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$. In this encounter, star 1 becomes bound to the quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$.

In the phase up to this event at $\tau = -4.5$, five stars of the sextet components (stars 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) are bound with a binding energy of about $10kT$ (see the thick dashed curve in figure 4), and the five stars compose a quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$. Star 1 is unbound to the quintuple system, as can be seen in the top panel of figure 6. The quintuple system is unperturbed until the event at $\tau = -4.5$, since its binding energy is kept constant. Actually, three hitherto unnumbered stars are weakly bound to the quintuple system at $\tau = -6.75$, but they have become unbound gradually by $\tau = -5$ (see the middle panel of figure 7). They are not members of the quintuple system. We conclude that the quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$ is nearly isolated from the other stars during this phase up to $\tau = -4.5$, while star 1 is unbound to the quintuple system.

Now we investigate the substructures of the quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$ described above. First, as seen in the top panel of figure 8, there is a binary $(3,5)$ with about $3kT$, and no binary among the other three stars. These three stars are not bound to each other as a democratic triple system (see the lowest solid black curve in the top panel of figure 8). Thus the quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$ consists of four components: one binary $(3,5)$, and three single stars 2, 4, and 6. These four components are bound with $6kT$ (see the bottom panel of figure 8).

Next, we analyse how these four components are structured. We can see from the middle panel of figure 8 that pairs between the binary $(3,5)$ and either of the other three stars have positive binding energies, and that their binding energies are kept almost constant. This means that the binary $(3,5)$ and the other three stars compose hierarchical triple systems individually, and that they are not perturbed so much by each other.

The binary $(3,5)$ plays an important role in binding these four components. Three of these four components have positive binding energies, if the three includes the binary $(3,5)$ (see the bottom panel of figure 8). On the other hand, the three single stars are unbound (see the top panel of figure 8). Therefore, the configuration of these four components is not democratic, but similar to a planetary system; the binary and single stars correspond to a sun and planets, respectively.

In summary, the quintuple system $(2,3,4,5,6)$ has four
components: a binary (3,5) and three single stars. The configuration of these four components is analogous to a planetary system. This configuration breaks down soon, however, since the mass ratios of the binary to the single stars are not large. In fact the binary (3,5) is destroyed at the end of the current phase. This binary is destroyed by star 4. As seen in figure 9, star 4 does work on the binary (3,5) at the moment when its binding energy becomes negative. No other stars do work on the binary (3,5).

Now we describe the other events around the close of the phase, i.e. $\tau = -4.2$. At this time the binding energies among the sextuple component (1,2,3,4,5,6) and among the quintet component (2,3,4,5,6) become larger (see figure 4), while the binding energy between the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) and star 1 is kept almost constant (see the top panel of figure 6). This means that the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) becomes bound more tightly. This event is done by a hitherto unnamed star which we subsequently refer to as star 8, and which intrudes into the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) at the time of the event (see figure 1). From the bottom panel of figure 5, we see that star 8 is almost entirely responsible for the increase in binding energy of the quintuple around $\tau = -4.2$. At the same time star 8 slightly hardens the binary consisting of star 1 and the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) (see the top panel of figure 5). However, its effect is small, compared to that of star 7 a short time earlier.

3.4. The Era $-4.2 < \tau < -1.6$

As we have seen, by the start of the second phase, star 1 has joined the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6). Throughout the second phase the binding energy between star 1 and the quintuple system is positive, about $2kT$, and constant (see the top panel of figure 6). The sextet (1,2,3,4,5,6) forms a bound sextuple system, and is unperturbed by other stars (figure 4). Indeed no other star is continuously bound to this sextuple system (see the top panel of figure 7). Since the binding energy of the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) is also constant (see figure 4), the quintuple system is unperturbed.
by other stars including star 1, as star 1 is far from the other numbered stars (see figure 1). In practice, the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) survives undisturbed from the previous phase.

In order to investigate the internal structure of the quintuple system, we focus on all the tuples consisting of its components. After a soft binary (3,5) is destroyed at $\tau \sim 4.25$, no persistent substructure is formed until the end of this phase. As seen in all the panels of figure 10, no binding energy of any tuple keeps constant during this phase. Occasionally, the binding energies of some of tuples are temporarily positive. However, their lifetime is less than unity in the unit of $\tau$, which is similar to the crossing time of the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6). We conclude that the quintuple system has a democratic configuration, and therefore we can write the configuration of the sextuple system: $(2,3,4,5,6),1$.

At $\tau \sim 1.6$, the end of the second phase, or the beginning of the third phase, the sextuple system (1,2,3,4,5,6) changes dramatically. Star 1 intrudes into the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6), an interaction which results in the ejection of star 4 from the sextuple system (1,2,3,4,5,6). During this interaction, the sextet (1,2,3,4,5,6), which are bound before $\tau = -1.6$, are unperturbed by the other cluster stars, since the binding energy among the sextet components is constant before and (for a short time) after this interaction (see figure 4). On the other hand, star 4 becomes unbound to the new quintuple system (1,2,3,5,6): the binding energy between star 4 and the new quintuple system becomes and remains essentially negative (see the bottom panel of figure 6). From the right second-row panel of figure 1, we can also see that star 4 recedes from all the components of the new quintuple system.

### 3.5. The Era $-1.6 < \tau < -0.8$

In the third phase $-1.6 < \tau < -0.8$, and indeed throughout the interval $-1.6 < \tau < 0.0$, the new quintet (1,2,3,5,6) are bound to each other. In fact the binding energy of the quintuple system is more than $20kT$, as can be seen in figure 4. It is almost isolated, since its binding energy keeps constant during this phase. No other star is continuously bound to this quintuple system (see the bottom panel of figure 7). Star 4 was ejected from the sextet (1,2,3,4,5,6) in the creation of the new quintet, and it can be seen in the lower panel of figure 6 that the binding energy between star 4 and the quintuple system is perturbed by an event at $\tau = -1.25$. This is caused by an encounter with an un-
named star (figure 1), which also affects the binding energy of the sextet (figure 4). In this section, we focus on the internal structure of the quintuple system (1,2,3,5,6).

First, we search for substructures which consist of binary stars. There is only one, a binary (1,5) with 9kT (see the top panel of figure 11), and the other three stars do not compose any binary or triple system (see the top panel of figure 11). Next, we seek stable substructures which contain the binary (1,5) and two single stars 2, 3, and 6. We can see from the middle panel of figure 11 that the binding energy among the binary (1,5) and two single stars 3 and 6 remains constant during $-1.5 < \tau < -0.8$. This means that the quadruple system (1,3,5,6) is unperturbed by star 2. This quadruple system is bound to star 2, and the pair consisting of this quadruple system and star 2 is unperturbed by the other stars (see the bottom panel of figure 11).

Now we focus attention on the internal structure of the quadruple system (1,3,5,6) containing the binary (1,5) and two single stars 3 and 6. The binding energy of pair (3,6) is negative (see the top panel of figure 11), and those between the binary (1,5) and either one of stars 3 and 6 are positive (see the middle panel of figure 11). This means that they compose a planetary system; the binary (1,5) is a sun and stars 3 and 6 are planets, similarly to the quintuple system (2,3,4,5,6) during $\tau < -4.2$. However, the binding energies between the binary (1,5) and either one of stars 3 and 6 are fluctuating, and therefore the “planets” perturb each other.

In summary, the structure of the quintuple system (1,2,3,5,6) may be summarised as $\{(1,5),3,6\}$. Note that
the quadruple system (1,3,5,6) is structured as a sort of planetary systems in which the binary (1,5) is a sun, and stars 3 and 6 are planets; they are not, however, a democratic triple system among the binary (1,5) and single stars 3 and 6.

We now consider the formation of the new substructures which originated near the start of this phase, i.e. the binary (1,5) and the quadruple system (1,3,5,6). The top panel of figure 12 shows the evolution of the binding energy of the binary (1,5) and the work done by stars 2, 3, 4, and 6 on this binary. We do not need to consider the work done by the other stars; the sextuple system (1,2,3,4,5,6) is isolated during this phase, which can be seen in the constancy of the binding energy of the sextuple system (1,2,3,4,5,6) throughout the current phase (see figure 4).

As seen in the top panel of figure 12, the binding energy of the binary (1,5) is mainly increased by work done by star 4. Stars 2 and 6 also contribute to the increase of its binding energy after the binary (1,5) has become hard (∼8kT). However, they perturb the binary (1,5) only marginally.

We also see the binding energy of the quadruple system (1,3,5,6) plotted in the bottom panel of figure 12. We can say that the quadruple system is formed and hardened by work done by star 4 at τ = −1.65, and by work done by star 2 at τ = −1.5, these two events which help to isolate the quadruple from external disturbance.

3.6. The Era \(-0.8 < τ < −0.5\)

In this phase, the quintuple system (1,2,3,5,6) survives without external disturbance from the previous phase (see the top panel of figure 11). However, its internal structure is changed.

First we consider substructures consisting only of two or three stars. There is no persistent binary in the quintuple system (see the top panel of figure 11), but there is a triple system (1,5,6) (see the top panel of figure 13). This triple system is democratic, since no pair in this triple system is bound to both stars 2 and 3. The democratic triple system (1,5,6) is bound to both stars 2 and 3. The pair between the triple system and star 3 is unperturbed by the other stars (see the bottom panel of figure 13). On the other hand, the pair between the triple system and star 2 is slightly perturbed: note that the binding energy of the pair continues to increase slowly throughout this phase (see the bottom panel of figure 13). This pair may be perturbed by star 3, since the separation between the triple system and star 2 is larger than that between the triple system and star 3; this can be seen with a little difficulty in figure 1, and also from the fact that star 3 is more tightly bound to the triple than star 2 is (the lower panel of figure 13). The assumption that no external star is involved is supported by the bottom panel of figure 11, which shows...
that the quadruple \((1,3,5,6)\) and star 2 are bound to each other and unperturbed. In summary, this discussion shows that the structure of the quintuple system may be written as \(\{(1,5,6),2\},3\).

The start of the present phase is marked by the destruction of binary \((1,5)\), as can be seen in the top panel of figure 11. It is clear that this event is caused by the invasion of star 6 into the binary \((1,5)\), and results in the formation of the democratic triple system \((1,5,6)\). We do not show the work function of star 6 for the binary \((1,5)\), but the close interaction of these three stars at \(\tau = -0.8\) is obvious enough in figure 1. From the point of view of our theoretical understanding, this is one of the most significant events in the entire evolution (see section 5.1).

### 3.7. The Era \(-0.5 < \tau < 0.0\)

In this phase, which strictly begins nearer \(\tau = -0.4\), the quintuple system \((1,2,3,5,6)\) persists from the previous phase, without perturbation by the other stars (see its binding energy in the top panel of figure 14). However, the internal structure is greatly changed. As seen in the top panel of figure 14, a hard binary \((2,3)\) and soft binary \((5,6)\) are formed. Their binding energies are, respectively, \(8kT\) and \(3kT\). Therefore, the five stars compose three components containing less than three stars: the hard binary \((2,3)\), soft binary \((5,6)\), and a single star 1.

We now investigate binding energies between each pair of the above three components (see the middle panel of figure 14). We observe first that the binding energy between the binary \((2,3)\) and star 1 is almost constant; in other words, they have a hierarchical configuration. The hierarchical triple system \([(1,2),3]\) and the soft binary \((5,6)\) are bound to each other (see also the middle panel of figure 14). We can abbreviate the structure of the quintuple system \((1,2,3,5,6)\) as \(\{(2,3),1\},(5,6)\).

Now we describe how the structure of the previous phase is transformed into the new structure, i.e. the transformation from \(\{(1,5,6),2\},3\) into \(\{(2,3),1\},(5,6)\). We have to consider in particular the destruction and formation of the innermost structures: the destruction of the democratic triple system \((1,5,6)\), and the formation of the hard binary \((2,3)\) and the soft binary \((5,6)\).

The democratic triple system is destroyed equally by both stars 2 and 3, which were its companions in the previous phase (see the top panel of figure 15). The triple also does work on stars 2 and 3, causing them to form a hard binary. In fact the work which forms this binary is mainly done by star 6, and marginally by star 1 (see the middle panel of figure 15).

Finally, we investigate the formation of the soft binary \((5,6)\). As seen in the bottom panel of figure 15, the work \((1,2)\) does on stars 1, 2 and 3 on the soft binary \((5,6)\) is complicated. However, it is clear that the work of star 1 contributes strongly to the binding of the soft binary \((5,6)\). After the work done by star 1, the binding energy of the two stars 5 and 6 becomes positive.

### 3.8. The Era \(\tau > 0.0\)

In the final phase, the structure becomes simple. As can be seen in the top panel of figure 14, there is one hard binary \((1,2)\) with binding energy \(16kT\), and one soft binary \((5,6)\). The formation of the harder binary was the event which determined the origin of scaled time \(\tau\) in Paper I. The soft binary lives from the previous phase. Thus the
In summary, the hard binary (1,2), the soft binary (5,6) and a single star 3 are left. They are unbound. This can be indicated by writing it as (1,2), (5,6), 3.

In the transition from the previous phase to the current one, at \( \tau = 0.0 \), the internal structure is changed from \([((2,3),1),(5,6))\) to three unbound components, which are two binaries (1,2) and (5,6) and one single star 3. This takes place in the following way. Star 3 is replaced by star 1. This exchange interaction exerts a kick on star 3 and the new binary (1,2). This kick unbinds the three components. Since it is clear how the quintuple system is destroyed, we do not investigate these interactions in any more detail.

4. The prehistory of the first run of Paper I

Section 3.3 began at a rather arbitrary time, when the interesting components of the system consisted of the bound subsystem (2,3,4,5,6) (see figure 4), which includes a binary (3,5) (the top panel of figure 8), and a loosely bound star 1 (the top panel of figure 6). What we show in the present section is that the history of these stars extends much further back. In particular, in order to investigate how the subsystem (1,2,3,4,5,6) and its binary (3,5) were formed, we now follow the orbits of the subsystem components and its surroundings before \( \tau = -6.75 \). We shall, however, confine the discussion to a presentation of results, and will generally not describe the use of binding energies and work functions on which the interpretation depends.

Figure 2 gives an overview of binary activity over a long period culminating with the formation of the 10\( kT \) binary (1,2) at \( \tau = 0 \). It shows the time evolution of the maximum binding energy between any pair of stars at each time. At least one binary is formed, and its binding energy reaches 9\( kT \) at \( \tau = -43 \). However, the binary is destroyed rather soon: it is strongly softened at \( \tau = -26 \). By \( \tau = -12 \), there is no longer any binary with more than 2\( kT \). Curiously, the components of the binary at \( \tau = -43 \) belong to the subsystem whose evolution we followed in Section 3, and one of them is also a member of the “final” binary.

Now we check the formation and destruction processes of the 9\( kT \) binary in detail. Figure 16 shows the distances between the stars composing the subsystem mentioned in section 3. However, star 7, which has no role in the prehistory, is replaced with star 9.

We can see immediately that the 9\( kT \) binary consists of stars 2 and 4. By analysis analogous to that of Section 3, it is found that this binary is gradually hardened by encounters with several distinct stars, including star 9, from \( \tau = -68 \) to \( \tau = -52 \). At \( \tau = -48.5 \), star 9 intrudes into the binary. The binary and star 9 become a hierarchical triple system, which survives until \( \tau = -38 \). At \( \tau = -37 \), star 4 is exchanged by star 9, and a binary (2,9) is formed. The binary (2,9) is almost unperturbed for a long time, until \( \tau = -26.6 \).

At \( \tau = -26.6 \), star 6 falls into the binary (2,9), and the three stars 2, 6, and 9 form a temporary bound triple with quintet (1,2,3,5,6) has three components: two binaries (1,2) and (5,6) and one single star 3. These three components eventually become unbound. As can be seen in the bottom panel of figure 14, the binding energies between star 3 and either one of the binaries (1,2) and (5,6) are negative. The two binaries are bound at the beginning of this phase, but their binding energy reaches zero at time \( \tau = 0.5 \). The binding energy among the three components behaves in the same way as that between the two binaries (1,2) and (5,6). Indeed, in the phase \( \tau > 0 \), the binding energy of the quintuple system (1,2,3,5,6) itself begins to change (see the top panel of figure 14). As we shall see, the quintuple system is destroyed due to interactions among its components themselves at \( \tau = 0 \), and gradually the quintuple system becomes more easily perturbed by other stars.
Fig. 16. The same as figure 1, except that star 7 is replaced with star 9, shown in gray.
a single ejection of star 9 which returns at $\tau = -25.8$. The temporary bound triple system ends up with the ejection of star 2, and the binary (6,9) is formed. The binary (6,9) is only half as hard as its progenitor binary (2,9) (as can just be seen in figure 2). The binary (6,9) is perturbed by stars 5 ($\tau = -24$) and 8 ($\tau = -21$), and finally destroyed by intrusions of stars 2, 3, 4, and 5 at $\tau = -15$. We return to this event at the end of this section.

There is no binary until a binary (3,4) appears at $\tau = -12$. The binary component 4 is exchanged with star 5 at $\tau = 10$. The binary (3,5) is the same as a binary which we see from $\tau = -6.75$ to $-4.2$ in figure 1. It was with that binary that our discussion of the history began, in Section 3.3.

In the prehistory, two binaries are formed not by exchange interactions but by encounters involving more than three stars, i.e. binaries (2,4) at $\tau = -66$, and (3,4) at $\tau = -13$. We analyse their formation using work functions. Figure 17 shows the time evolution of the binding energy of the binary (2,4), and work functions for the binary. The binary (2,4) becomes harder in three phases from $\tau = -66$ to $-63.5$. Its hardening involves five stars: one set of three stars, which we do not identify otherwise, and successively stars 10 and 9. Similarly we can see from figure 18 that the binary (3,4) is formed and hardened through encounters with stars 5 and 6, though it is also hardened by two other (unnumbered) stars.

Finally, we focus on the formation of the subsystem (2,3,4,5,6), which we observe at $\tau = -6.75$ in figure 4. Star 6 is a component of the preexisting binary (6,9). Stars 2, 3, 4, and 5 dissolve the binary (6,9) around $\tau = -15$, and share out the binding energy of the binary (6,9). Ejection of star 9 also contributes to the binding energy of the subsystem (2,3,4,5,6).

5. Discussion

Paper I established a new framework for understanding the formation of the first long-lived binary in an equal-mass $N$-body system at the end of core collapse. There it was shown that the standard paradigm of formation in a three-body encounter between single stars was very incomplete, in the sense that the encounters which form and harden a binary often involve four or more stars. In the present paper we sharpen and clarify this new picture, showing the complete dynamical history of the first long-lived binary in a system with $N = 1024$.

The system we have studied is the first model from Paper I, identified there as “seed 1”. The short narrative on this model in Paper I dealt with the genesis of three hard binaries, labelled there (by their components) as (1,5), (2,3) and (1,2). In the present paper we have nothing to add to what was said in Paper I on the formation of the last of these, but our more detailed analysis reveals the following phenomena:

1. In Paper I it was stated that the binary (1,5) formed in a four-body encounter, but in the present paper it has been shown (see figure 3, $\tau \approx -1.6$) to have formed in an interaction between a bound 5-body system and an interloper which leads to (i) one escaper, (ii) the binary and (iii) three loosely-bound companions.

2. Paper I stated that the binary (2,3) emerged from a system of 5 stars, but we have now seen (see figure 3, $\tau \approx -0.5$) that the event was an encounter between a temporarily bound three-body system and two interlopers, leading to the ejection of a soft binary from the triple system and the formation of a binary with a loosely bound companion.

3. What was described in Paper I is simply the end-
such a four-body encounter during the mean lifetime of the triple system is approximately

\[ P_4 \simeq 9000 \times 2^{3/2} \pi n \frac{(Gm)^{1/2} a^{5/2}}{V}, \]

where \( n \) is the number density of single stars. The relatively large numerical coefficient is a combination of those in the expressions for \( \tau_4 \), \( R \) and \( \Sigma \), the latter two arising from the relatively large mass of the triple system.

Suppose the encounter takes place in a core with one-dimensional velocity dispersion \( \sigma_c \) and central number-density \( n_c \). Then the conventional dynamical core radius is \( r_c = 3 \sigma_c / \sqrt{4 \pi G m n_c} \), and we shall write \( N_c = 4 \pi n_c r_c^3 / 3 \) to represent the number of stars in the core. Approximating \( n = n_c \) and \( V = \sqrt{3} \sigma_c \) we find that the probability of a four-body encounter during the mean lifetime of a temporary three-body system is

\[ P_4 \simeq \frac{2.0 \times 10^4}{N_c^2} \left( \frac{3 m \sigma_c^2 / 2}{E_b} \right)^{5/2}, \]

where \( E_b \), the binding energy of the binary, has been expressed in terms of the mean kinetic energy of stars in the core. Clearly, this expression has to be interpreted appropriately if it exceeds unity.

The above theory helps us to understand how typical the evolution studied in this paper is. Consider, for example, the triple system \((1,5,6)\) which survives from \( \tau \simeq -0.8 \) until \(-0.5\) (figure 3). In terms of the mean kinetic energy of all stars its binding energy is \( E_b \simeq 10 \times 3kT / 2 \) (the top panel of figure 13), and in terms of the mean kinetic of stars in the core the factor will be substantially less than 10. We see, therefore, that the probability of a four-body encounter during the lifetime of a temporarily bound triple system is large, even for a core with \( N_c \) as large as 10 (say). Such an example shows that the four-body behaviour seen in the system under study must occur quite frequently.

5.2. Bound few-body systems

As we have seen, it is easy to understand the formation of temporarily bound three-body systems. But the history discussed in the present paper has examples of temporarily bound systems with larger numbers of stars. Notable examples are the five-body systems to be found in the interval \( \tau \simeq -15 \) to \(-13 \) and in the interval from \(-4.2 \) to \(-1.6 \), which we refer to as \( V_1, V_2 \), respectively. Each of these appears to form around a smaller existing bound subsystem. \( V_1 \) forms from the triple \((6,8,9)\), which itself formed from the hard binary \((6,9)\) in a democratic resonant interaction, while \( V_2 \) forms when the hard binary \((3,5)\) captures three other single stars almost simultaneously. Roughly speaking, both of these five-body systems can be viewed as five-body analogues of a democratic resonance. In each case the binding energy of the natal binary, which acts as a kind of nucleus, leads to a temporarily bound system with five stars.
A complementary (but not contradictory) view of these five-body systems is that they represent temporary fluctuations in the size of the core. Such fluctuations are a notable feature of any $N$-body simulation, but their dynamical origin is little understood. The temporary capture of three single stars by a binary may be one mechanism by which the core contracts to small values of the core radius. This is a rather more dynamical and active picture of extreme fluctuations of the core, compared to what is perhaps the more common understanding, i.e., that fluctuations are caused by the random phases of stars as they orbit in and out of the core.

There is a sense in which the core of an $N$-body system is always a bound subsystem. If we compute the binding energy of that part of an isothermal model lying inside radius $r$, we find that its value is positive if $r > 1.58r_c$ approximately. In terms of star numbers, the binding energy is positive if $N > 2.22N_c$. In other words, if we removed the stars outside this radius, the remaining stars inside this radius would form a bound system which could not disperse to infinity as single stars. From this point of view one might think of a temporarily bound 5-body subsystem as the core of the entire system at a time when its core radius is extremely small.

5.3. Immortal binaries

The conventional view of core bounce is that high densities towards the end of core collapse lead to the formation of a hard binary, which interacts with other stars to heat the core and prevent its further collapse. In the process, the binary hardens almost relentlessly, and it is usually assumed that the binary will not be destroyed (ionised) in the stream of interactions. Instead, it eventually undergoes an encounter so energetic that the binary itself is ejected, at least from the core. It is therefore perhaps a surprise to observe a binary (the pair 2,4), with energy about $9.5kT$, which appears to be essentially destroyed, leading to a period when there is no binary with an energy above $2kT$.

The probability that a hard binary is destroyed has been considered in quantitative detail by Goodman & Hut (1993), in a theoretical study based on the picture of binary formation and evolution in a uniform background of single stars. Their results (their fig. 2b) imply that a $9.5kT$ binary has a disruption probability of only about 0.5%, reinforcing the unexpected behaviour of the binary to which we have drawn attention. On the other hand we have argued that there are episodes in the subsequent evolution of this binary (and its offspring) in which the core is a compact few-body system, and in that situation the mean kinetic energy in the “core” may considerably exceed that in the entire system (which determines the value of $kT$). In its environment, then, the binary is not as hard as the numerical result suggests, and the probability of its disruption is much higher. Indeed Goodman & Hut (1993) show that the probability rises to 50% for a binary of energy about $2.9kT$, and so the probability of disruption in a compact core is certainly much enhanced. Clearly the limit of $10kT$, which was selected in Paper I as the end-point of the analysis, is not robust, though in the case studied here, the energy of the final binary is actually a more comfortable $16kT$.

5.4. Delayed Core Bounce

There remains the question of why the traditional estimates of conditions at core bounce are wrong. As discussed in Paper I, and in some more detail in Section 1 of the present paper, several treatments in the nineteen eighties showed compelling arguments for core bounce to occur when the size of the core had shrunk to contain a few dozen stars. These arguments were based on the idea that core bounce occurs when two processes are balanced: the loss of heat from the core by two-body relaxation, causing it to shrink, and the production of heat by hard binaries formed in three-body encounters. When the latter exceeds the former, core collapse can be reversed.

In these estimates, the energy generation rate is calculated by multiplying an estimate of the formation rate by an estimate of the total energy emitted by a binary while it remains inside the cluster. In reality, however, it takes time for this energy to be emitted, and it could be argued that core bounce takes place provided that a hard binary has formed and that it heats the environment fast enough. At the very least, core bounce cannot occur until the first hard binary has formed, and it is quite possible that this leads to a different condition for core bounce, one in which the number of stars in the core is smaller.

Even such an estimate for the time of formation of the first hard binary is likely to be a poor guide to the occurrence of core bounce: as we saw in the previous subsection, the emergence of an effectively immortal hard binary is surprisingly difficult. This in itself results in a delay in core bounce, which therefore takes place at a smaller core star number.

We conclude that reliable heat production from a hard binary will make itself felt only after the core has shrunk significantly further, after the point where the core traditionally was estimated to contain a few dozen stars. The arguments presented above, though qualitative, are consistent with a core diminishing to contain only half a dozen stars, as observed in the simulations presented in Paper I.

6. Conclusion

We have dissected the spacetime history of the formation of the first hard binary in a 1024 run, in microscopic detail. This paper is the second in a series, following Paper I in which we presented the first such microscopic observation of hard binary formation during core collapse. The single run that we have investigated here in great detail is the very first
run we presented in that paper. The main improvements over Paper I are:

1. We have introduced a new type of reaction diagram, somewhat similar to Feynman diagrams in perturbative quantum field theory calculations, and also similar to what was used by Hut & Bahcall (1983) in the top part of their fig. 3 (section 3.2).
2. We have introduced a new tool, in the form of work functions (section 3.1).
3. We have introduced another new tool, subcluster analysis (section 3.1).
4. We have highlighted the central role played by democratic resonance scattering, in amplifying the many-body reactions taking place in the core of a star cluster around core bounce (section 3.7 and 5.1).
5. We have traced the network of reactions leading to the initial formation of the first hard binary back to earlier times, showing a complexity significantly larger even than what we had already unearthed in Paper I (section 4).
6. We have provided a new qualitative argument to derive the delay of core bounce, compared to standard expectations, based on the delay of hard binary heat production after formation (section 5.4).

It is interesting to note that we have employed four distinct levels of analysis:

1. **Visual analysis** of the motions of stars in the core, using an interactive visualization tool in the form of an open-GL program (we have not stressed this initial phase, but it has helped to guide our intuition and to resolve ambiguities).
2. **Geometric analysis** based on pairwise distances between interacting stars.
3. **Energetic analysis** based on the binding energies of pairs and higher-order multiple stars.
4. **Dynamic analysis** based on energy transfer between tuples of stars.

These steps lead to a compressed schematic rendition in the form of the Feynman like diagram depicted in figure 3.

The next step in our explorations will be to extend the applications of our new techniques to a large number of $N$-body core collapse simulations, for different values of $N$. In order to do so, much of the analysis presented here will have to be automated. Ideally, all of the figures presented here would be generated automatically by a single analysis package. In practice, the development of such a package will remain a formidable challenge for quite a while to come.

A more modest step would be to develop improved tools to help generate many of the figures semi-automatically, requiring far less time and energy than has been the case for Paper I and the current paper, by providing better graphics tools and other diagnostic tools covering the physical properties of the core.

A next step could be to generate a kind of artificially intelligent module that is trying to guess when an interesting network of reactions starts and ends, around the time of core collapse, and whether such a network includes the formation of a surviving hard binary. Using such a tool would still require human supervision to check whether the results make sense, and to arbitrate in ambiguous situations.

Ideally, after one or more steps, we could then build a software system that fully automatically would produce all the diagrams presented in this paper for any run, including the one introduced here that resembles a Feynman diagram.

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