Massive Stars from Gravoturbulent Fragmentation



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Literature

- Recent reviews on dynamic star formation and interstellar turbulence:
 - Elmegreen & Scalo (2004), Ann. Rev. Astron. Astrophys., 42, 211
 - Larson (2003), Prog. Rep. Physics, 66, 1651
 - Mac Low & Klessen (2004), Rev. Mod. Physics, 76, 125
 - Scalo & Elmegreen (2004), Ann. Rev. Astron. Astrophys., 42, 275
- Magnetically mediated star formation:
 - Shu, Adams, & Lizano (1987), Ann. Rev. Astron. Astrophys., 25, 23
- General turbulence:
 - Lesieur (1997), "Turbulence in Fluids" (Kluwer, Dordrecht), 3rd edition

The questions in star formation

- *How* do stars form?
- What determines *when* and *where* stars form?
- What regulates the process and determines its efficiency?
- How do global properties of the galaxy influence star formation (a local process)?
- Are there different modes of SF?
 (do high-mass stars always form in clusters, or are there isolated high-mass stars?)

What physical processes initiate and control the formation of stars?

Gravoturbulent star formation

Oynamic approach to star formation:

Star formation is controlled by interplay between gravity and supersonic turbulence!

• Dual role of turbulence:

stability on large scales

initiating collapse on small scales

(full detail in Mac Low & Klessen, 2004, Rev. Mod. Phys., 76, 125-194) Ralf Klessen: Acireale, May 19, 2005

Gravoturbulent star formation

Oynamic approach to star formation:

Star formation is controlled by interplay between gravity and supersonic turbulence!



This hold on *all* scales and applies to build-up of stars and star clusters within molecular clouds as well as to the formation of molecular clouds in galactic disk.

Overview

• Some comments on supersonic turbulence

GRAVOTURBULENT FRAGMENTATION

- Application to formation of stars and star clusters within molecular clouds
 - formation of stars and star clusters (when and where do massive stars form)
 - → importance of stochasticity
 - → importance of thermodynamic state of gas (implications for the IMF)

Properties of turbulence

 laminar flows turn *turbulent* at *high Reynolds* numbers

 $Re = \frac{advection}{dissipation} = \frac{VL}{v}$



V= typical velocity on scale L, $\nu = viscosity$, Re > 1000

vortex streching --> turbulence
 is intrinsically anisotropic
 (only on large scales you may get
 homogeneity & isotropy in a statistical sense;

see Landau & Lifschitz, Chandrasekhar, Taylor, etc.)

(ISM turbulence: shocks & B-field cause additional inhomogeneity)



Vortex Formation



Vortices are streched and folded in three dimensions

Turbulent cascade



Turbulent cascade



Properties of IMS turbulence

ISM turbulence is:

- Supersonic (rms velocity dispersion >> sound speed)
- Anisotropic (shocks & magnetic field)
- Driven on large scales (power in mol. clouds always dominated by largest-scale modes)

Microturbulent approach is NOT valid in ISM

No closed analytical/statistical formulation known --> necessity for numerical modeling

Turbulent cascade in ISM



energy source & scale *NOT known* (supernovae, winds, spiral density waves?) $\sigma_{\rm rms}$ << 1 km/s

dissipation scale not known (ambipolar diffusion, molecular diffusion?)

Comments on MICROturbulence

- von Weizsäcker (1943, 1951) and Chandrasekhar (1951): concept of <u>MICROTURBULENCE</u>
 - BASIC ASSUMPTION: separation of scales between dynamics and turbulence ℓ_{turb} ≪ ℓ_{dyn}
 - then turbulent velocity dispersion contributes to effective soundspeed:

$$C_c^2 \mapsto C_c^2 + \sigma_{rms}^2$$

- → Larger effective Jeans masses → more stability
- BUT: (1) turbulence depends on k:

(2) supersonic turbulence \rightarrow usually $\sigma_{rms}^2(k) >> c_s^2$

 $\sigma_{rms}^{2}(k)$



Driven turbulence, from Schmidt et al

Comments on MICROturbulence





- Turbulence is driven on LARGE scales.
 --> no scale separation possible
- Turbulence is supersonic!
- produces strong density contrasts: $\delta \rho / \rho \approx M^2$
 - --> with typical $M \approx 10 --> \delta \rho / \rho \approx 100!$

Microturbulence is not valid in ISM

- Example: High-mass star formation MORE complicated than using "effective" soundspeed ($c_s^2 \rightarrow c_s^2 + \sigma_{rms}^2$) to increase Jeans mass ($M_J \propto \rho^{-1/2} c_s^3$)
- --> instead of forming one single highmass star system will form cluster of lower-mass stars.

Gravoturbulent Star Formation

- Supersonic turbulence in the galactic disk creates strong density fluctuations (in shocks: $\delta \rho / \rho \propto M^2$)
 - chemical phase transition: atomic \rightarrow molecular
 - cooling instability
 - gravitational instability
- Cold *molecular clouds* form at the high-density peaks.
 - The process is *modulated* by large-scale *dynamics* in the galaxy

Star formation on global scales



density fluctuations in warm atomar ISM caused by supersonic turbulence

some are dense enough to form H2 within "reasonable timescale" →molecular clouds

external perturbuations (i.e. potential changes) increase likelihood

Molecular cloud formation

- ... in convergent large-scale flows
- ... setting up the turbulent cascade
 - colliding Mach 3 flows
 - Vishniac instability + thermal instability
 - compressed sheet breaks up and builds up cold, high-density "blobs" of gas
 - --> molecular cloud formation
 - clouds have internal supersonic turbulence



Correlation between H_2 and HI



⁽Deul & van der Hulst 1987, Blitz et al. 2004)

Gravoturbulent Star Formation

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 - chemical phase transition: atomic \rightarrow molecular
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- Cold *molecular clouds* form at the high-density peaks.
- Turbulence creates density structure, gravity selects for collapse

> GRAVOTUBULENT FRAGMENTATION

 Turbulent cascade: Local compression within a cloud provokes collapse → individual stars and star clusters



SF cloud

filaments in the Taurus molecular

Gravoturbulent fragmentation



<u>Gravoturbulent fragmen-</u> tation in molecular clouds:

- SPH model with 1.6x10⁶ particles
- large-scale driven turbulence
- Mach number \mathcal{M} = 6
- periodic boundaries
- physical scaling:

"Taurus":

- → density $n(H_2) \approx 10^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- \rightarrow L = 6 pc, M = 5000 M_{\odot}

What can we learn from that?

- global properties (statistical properties)
 - SF efficiency
 - SF time scale
 - IMF
 - description of self-gravitating turbulent systems (pdf's, △-var.)
 - chemical mixing properties
- *local properties* (properties of individual objects)
 - properties of individual clumps (e.g. shape, radial profile)
 - accretion history of individual protostars (dM/dt vs. t, j vs. t)
 - binary (proto)stars (eccentricity, mass ratio, etc.)
 - SED's of individual protostars
 - dynamic PMS tracks: T_{bol}-L_{bol} evolution

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Efficiency of star formation



Star formation efficiency is high for *large-scale turbulence* and low if most energy resides on *small scales*.

Efficiency *decreases* with *increasing* turbulent kinetic energy.

Local collapse can only be *prevented* completely if turbulence is driven on scales *below* the Jeans length. ← this is unrealistic

 \rightarrow It is very difficult prevent star formation in molecular clouds.

(see Klessen, Heitsch & Mac Low 2000, ApJ or Vazquez-Semadeni, Ballesteros-Paredes, & Klessen 2003, ApJ) lessen: Acireale, May 19, 2005

What can we learn from that?

- global properties (statistical properties)
 - SF efficiency
 - SF time scale
 - IMF formation of stellar clusters
 - description of self-gravitating turbulent systems (pdf's, △-var.)
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- *local properties* (properties of individual objects)
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Star cluster formation

Most stars form in clusters \rightarrow star formation = cluster formation



Trajectories of protostars in a nascent dense cluster created by gravoturbulent fragmentation (from Klessen & Burkert 2000, ApJS, 128, 287) Ralf Klessen: Acireale, May 19, 2005

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High-mass vs. low-mass stars

- High-mass stars build-up in central regions of the nascent cluster --> initial mass segregation
- High-mass stars *begin* to form *early*, but *end* to form *last*.
 They can maintain high accretion rates, because they sit in cluster center.



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- High-mass stars *begin* to form *early*, but *end* to form *last*.
 They can maintain high accretion rates, because they sit in cluster center.
- Stars that form *first* tend to gain mass from their *near surrounding*, gas that goes into collapse *later* is *well mixed* by turbulence (gas comes from larger distances)



Protostellar mass spectra I

 gravoturbulent fragmentation of self-gravitating isothermal clouds gives mass spectra that come close to IMF



⁽from Klessen & Burkert 2000, ApJS, 128, 287)

Dependency on EOS

• degree of fragmentation depends on EOS!

• polytropic EOS: $p \propto \rho^{\gamma}$

• γ <1: dense cluster of low-mass stars

• $\gamma > 1$: isolated high-mass stars

(see Li, Klessen, & Mac Low 2003, ApJ, 592, 975)

Dependency on EOS



for γ <1 fragmentation is enhanced \rightarrow *cluster of low-mass stars* for γ >1 it is suppressed \rightarrow formation of *isolated massive stars*

(from Li, Klessen, & Mac Low 2003, ApJ, 592, 975)

How does that work?

(1) $\mathbf{p} \propto \rho^{\gamma} \rightarrow \rho \propto p^{1/\gamma}$

(2) $M_{jeans} \propto \gamma^{3/2} \rho^{(3\gamma-4)/2}$

γ<1: → large density excursion for given pressure
 → ⟨M_{jeans}⟩ becomes small
 → number of fluctuations with M > M_{ieans} is large

• $\gamma > 1: \rightarrow small$ density excursion for given pressure $\rightarrow \langle M_{ieans} \rangle$ is large

 \rightarrow only few and massive clumps exceed M_{ieans}

Implications

• degree of fragmentation depends on EOS!

oplytropic EOS: p ∝ρ^γ

• γ <1: dense cluster of low-mass stars

• $\gamma > 1$: isolated high-mass stars

(see Li, Klessen, & Mac Low 2003, ApJ, 592, 975; also Jappsen, Klessen, Larson, Li, Mac Low, 2005, 435, 611)

- implications for very metal-poor stars (expect Pop III stars in the early universe to be massive and form in isolation)
- Observational findings: isolated O stars in LMC (and M51)?

(talk by H. Lamers; Lamers et al. 2002, Massey 2002; see however, de Witt et al. 2005 for Galaxy)

More realistic models

 But EOS depends on *chemical state*, on balance between *heating* and *cooling*

 $\rightarrow \gamma$ is function of $\rho \parallel \parallel$

- Next step: models with piecewise polytropic EOS: (Jappsen, Klessen, Larson, Li, Mac Low, 2004, A&A submitted)
- $\gamma = 0.7$ for $\rho < \rho_c$
- $\gamma = 1.1$ for $\rho \ge \rho_c$
- we vary ρ_c from 4.3×10⁴ cm⁻³ to 4.3×10⁸ cm⁻³

• most realistic case for Galactic MC's: $\rho_c \approx 2 \times 10^5$ cm⁻³

(see, e.g., Spaans & Silk, 2000, ApJ, 538, 115, Larson 2005)

Influence of EOS

 But EOS depends on *chemical state*, on balance between *heating* and *cooling*





(Jappsen, Klessen, Larson, Li, Mac Low, 2005, A&A, 435, 611)

IMF in starburst galaxies

• Nuclear regions of starburst galaxies are extreme:

• hot dust, large densities, strong radiation, etc.

 Thermodynamic properties of star-forming gas differ from Milky Way --> Different EOS! (see Spaans & Silk 2005)



IMF in starburst galaxies

Does it differ from ?

Is there observational evidence? Is there theoretical evidence?

Summary

- Dynamic approach of star formation:
- Stars form from complex interplay between gravity and supersonic turbulence

→ GRAVOTURBULENT STAR FORMATION

- Supersonic turbulence plays a dual role:
 - on large scales: supersonic turbulence carries sufficient energy to prevent global collapse
 - on small scales: turbulence provokes collapse by creating high-density peaks

Summary

Gravoturbulent star formation can explain

- all basic properties of star-forming regions on *local* (within molecular clouds) as well as on global (galactic) scales
- the IMF:
 - turbulence together with EOS determines density structure
 - gravity then selects fluctuations to collapse → characteristic mass
 - this interplay determines
 PEAK and WIDTH and SLOPE of IMF
 - top-heavy IMF may form in extreme environment

Summary

