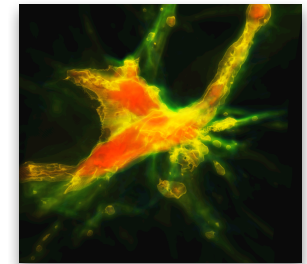
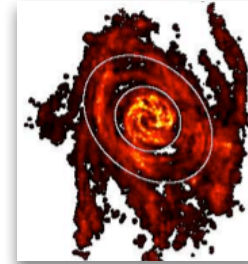
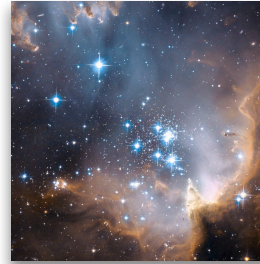
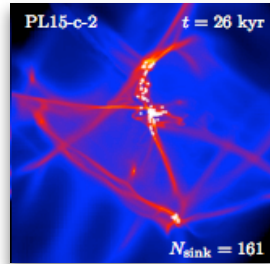
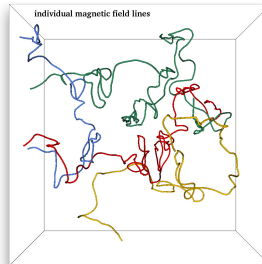


Star Formation



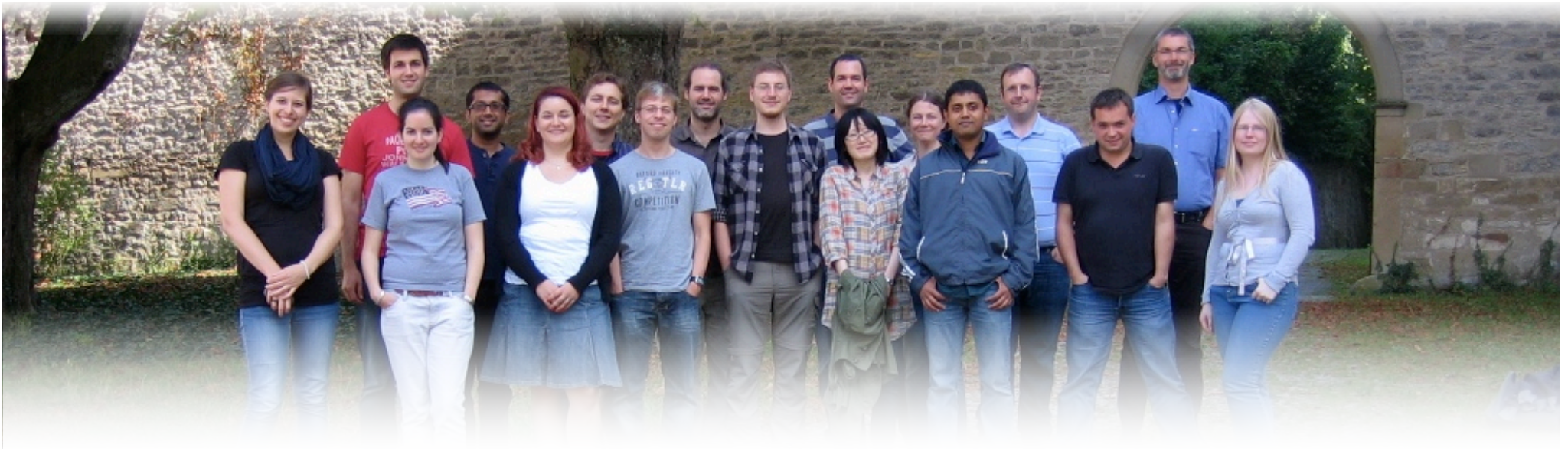
Ralf Klessen



Zentrum für Astronomie der Universität Heidelberg
Institut für Theoretische Astrophysik



thanks to ...



... people in the group in Heidelberg:

Christian Baczynski, Erik Bertram, Frank Bigiel, Rachel Chicharro, Roxana Chira, Paul Clark, Gustavo Dopcke, Jayanta Dutta, Volker Gaibler, Simon Glover, Lukas Konstandin, Faviola Molina, Mei Sasaki, Jennifer Schober, Rahul Shetty, Rowan Smith, László Szűcs, Svitlana Zhukovska

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... many collaborators abroad!



Deutsche
Forschungsgemeinschaft
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**BADEN-
WÜRTTEMBERG**
STIFTUNG
Wir stiften Zukunft

HGSP



agenda

- star formation theory
 - phenomenology
 - historic remarks
 - our current understanding and its limitations
- application
 - the stellar mass function at birth (IMF)

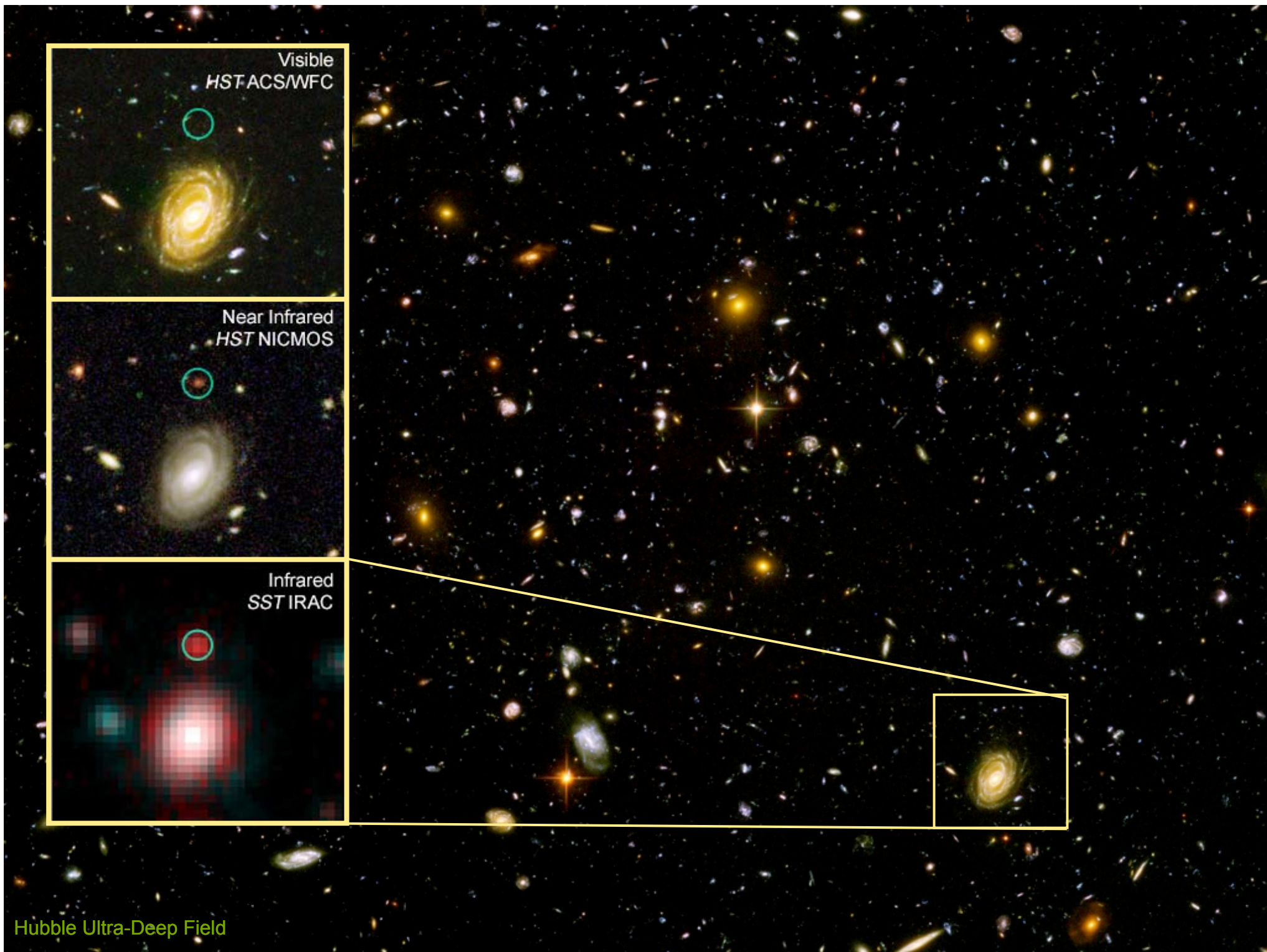


NGC 3324 (Hubble, NASA/ESA)

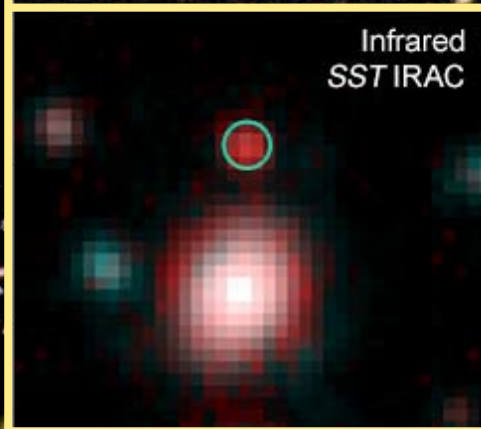
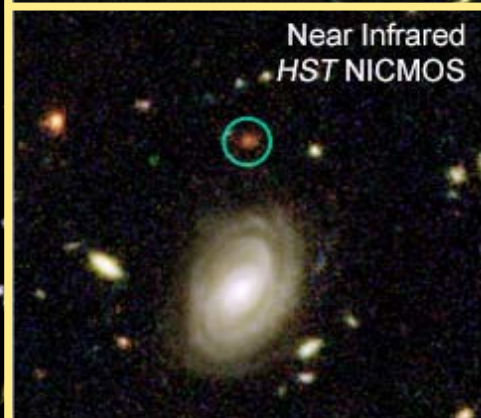
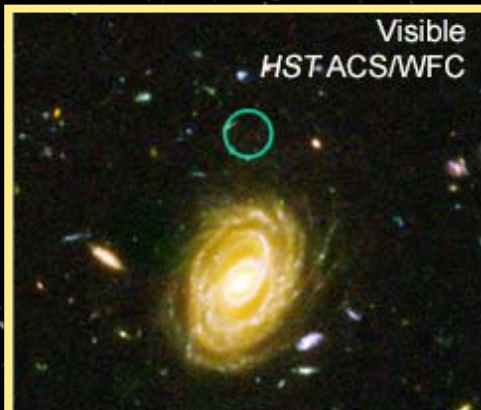
Phenomenology



Hubble Ultra-Deep Field

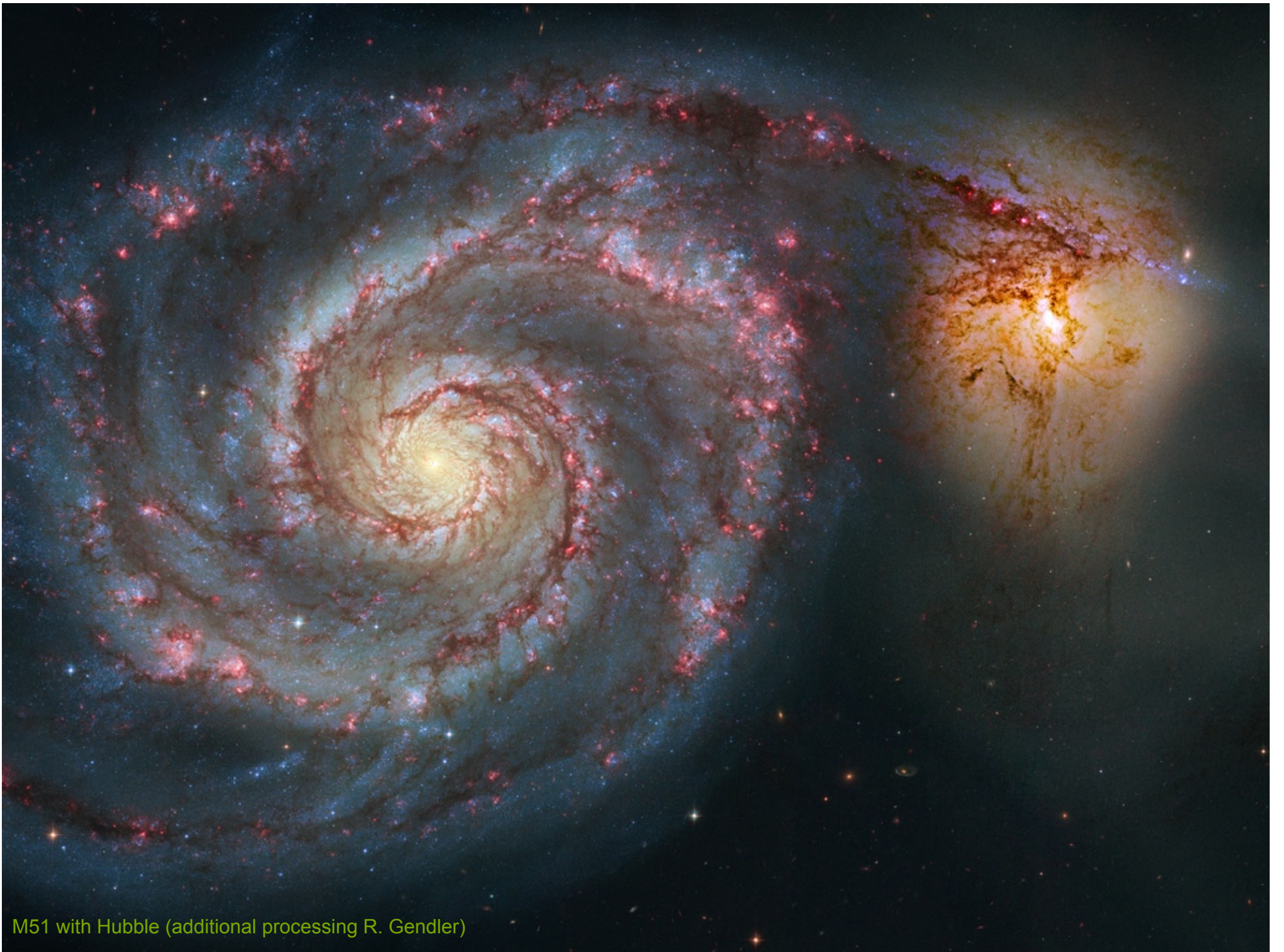


Hubble Ultra-Deep Field

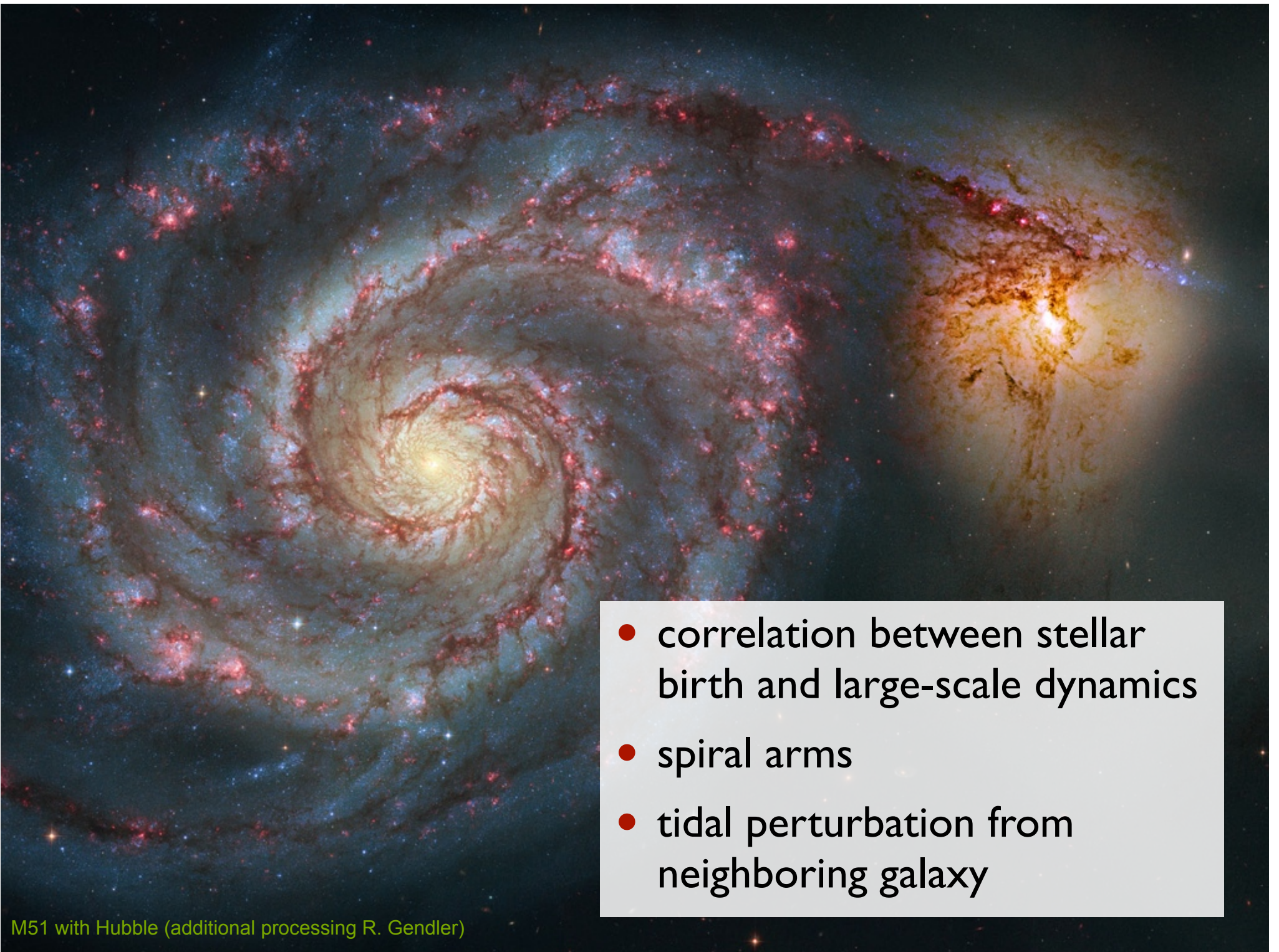


- star formation sets in very early after the big bang
- stars always form in galaxies and protogalaxies
- we cannot see the first generation of stars, but maybe the second one





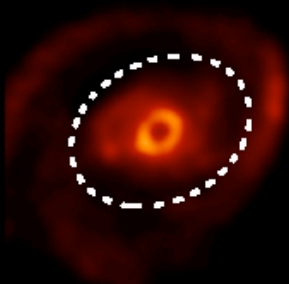
M51 with Hubble (additional processing R. Gendler)



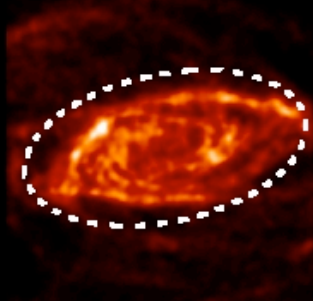
- correlation between stellar birth and large-scale dynamics
- spiral arms
- tidal perturbation from neighboring galaxy

M51 with Hubble (additional processing R. Gendler)

NGC 4736



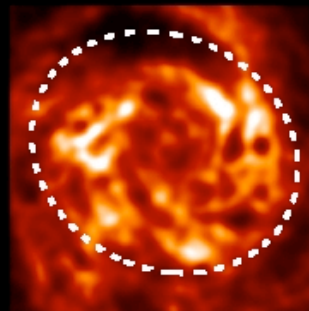
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

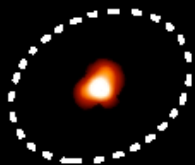


NGC 6946

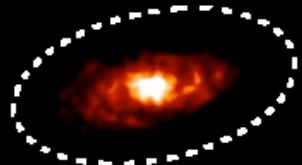


atomic hydrogen

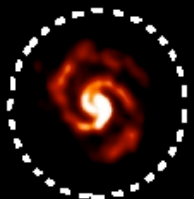
NGC 4736



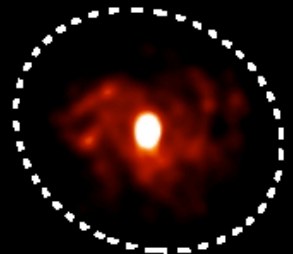
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

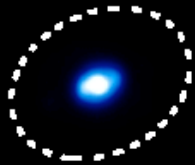


NGC 6946

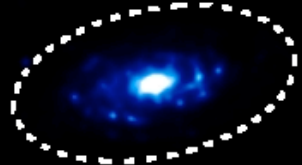


molecular hydrogen

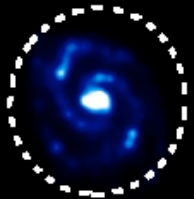
NGC 4736



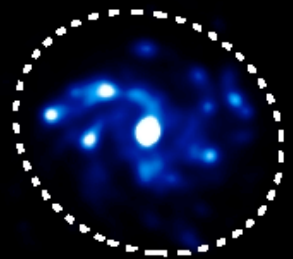
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

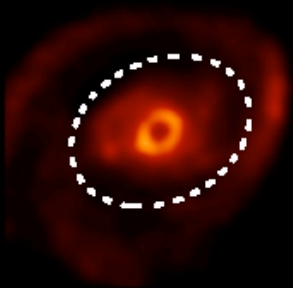


NGC 6946

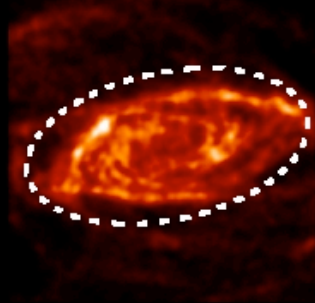


star formation

NGC 4736



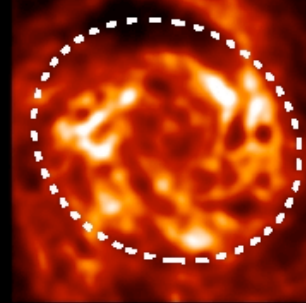
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

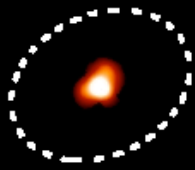


NGC 6946

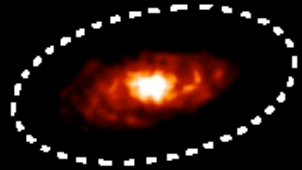


atomic hydrogen

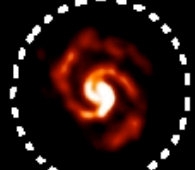
NGC 4736



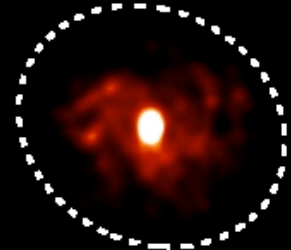
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

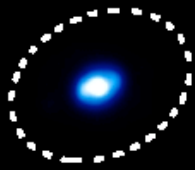


NGC 6946

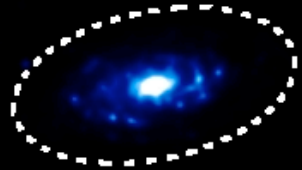


molecular hydrogen

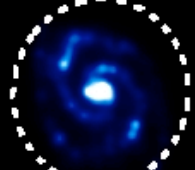
NGC 4736



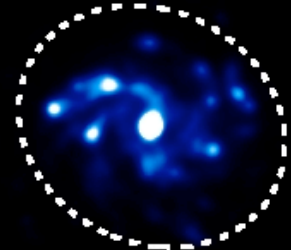
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

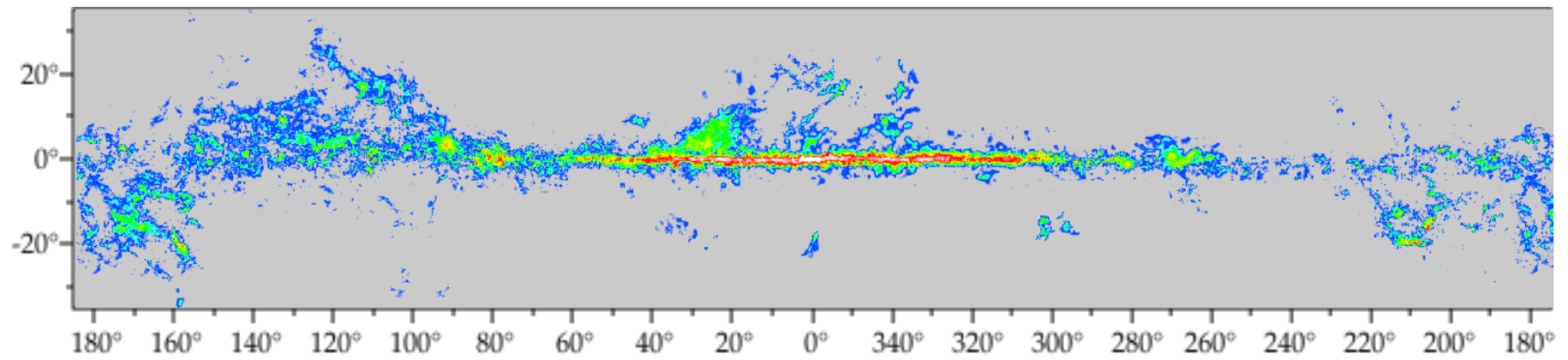


NGC 6946



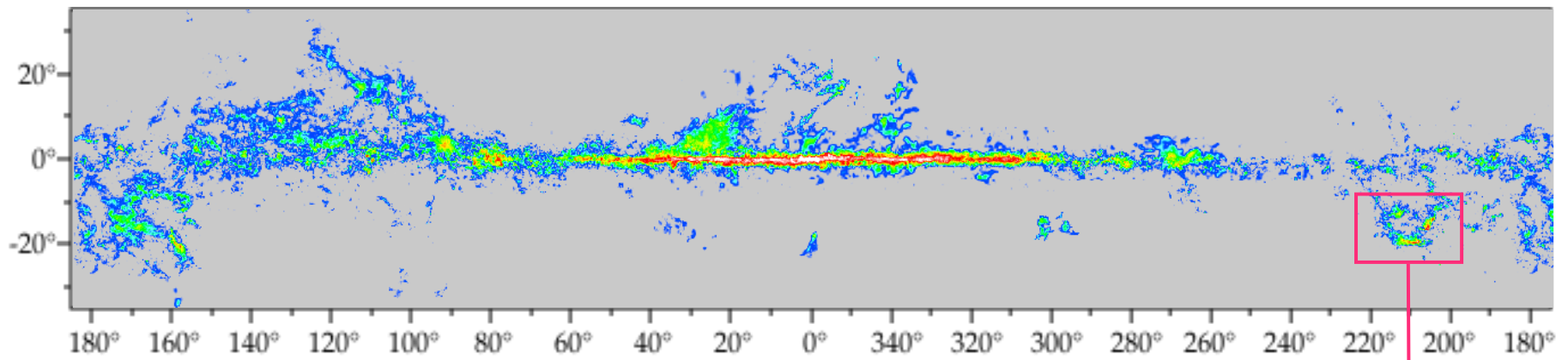
star formation

- HI gas more extended
- H2 and SF well correlated

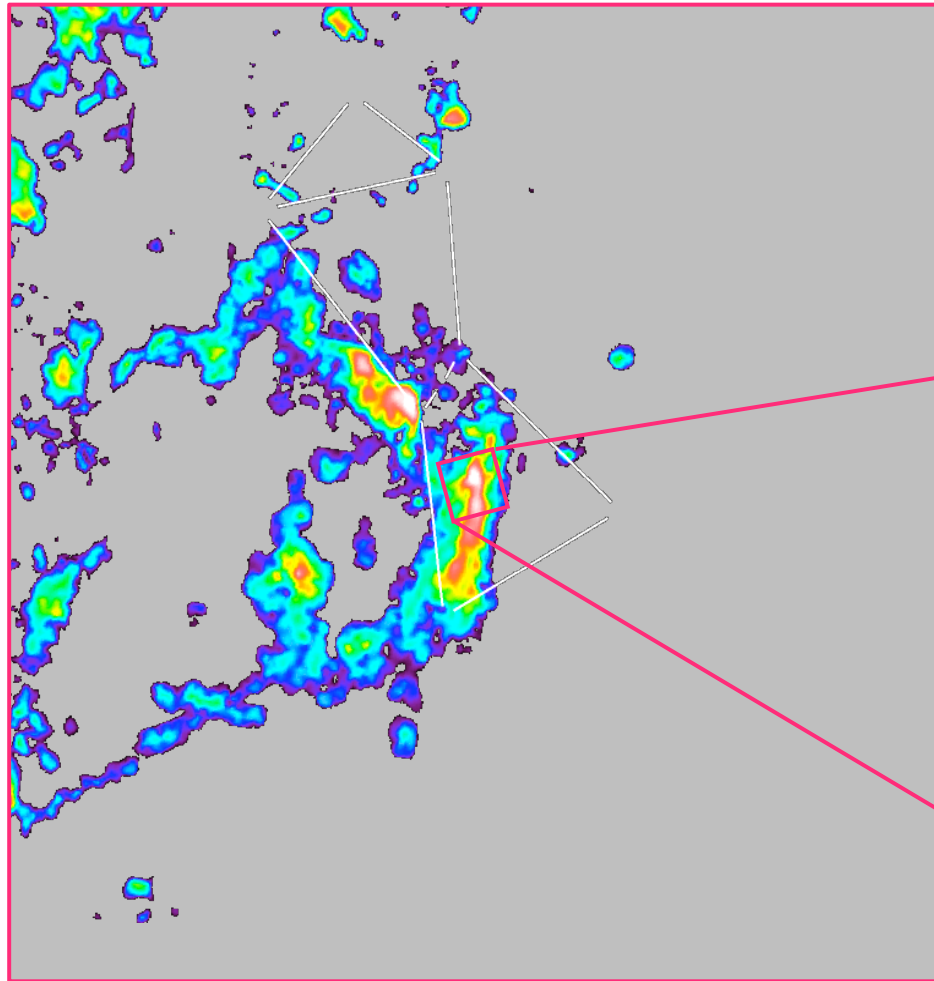


distribution of molecular gas in the Milky Way as traced by CO emission

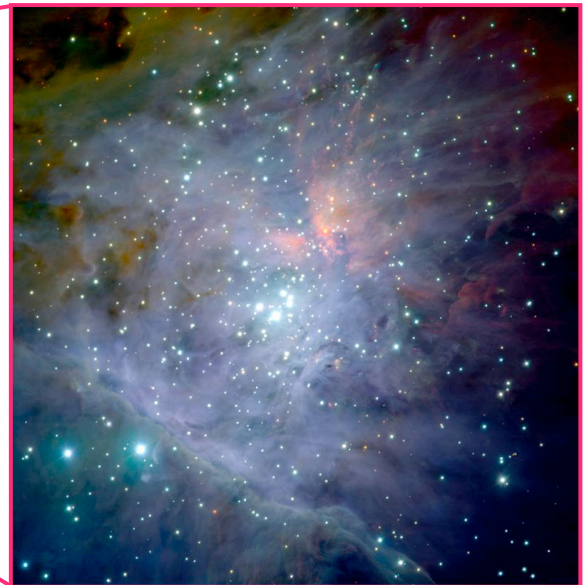
data from T. Dame (CfA)



Orion



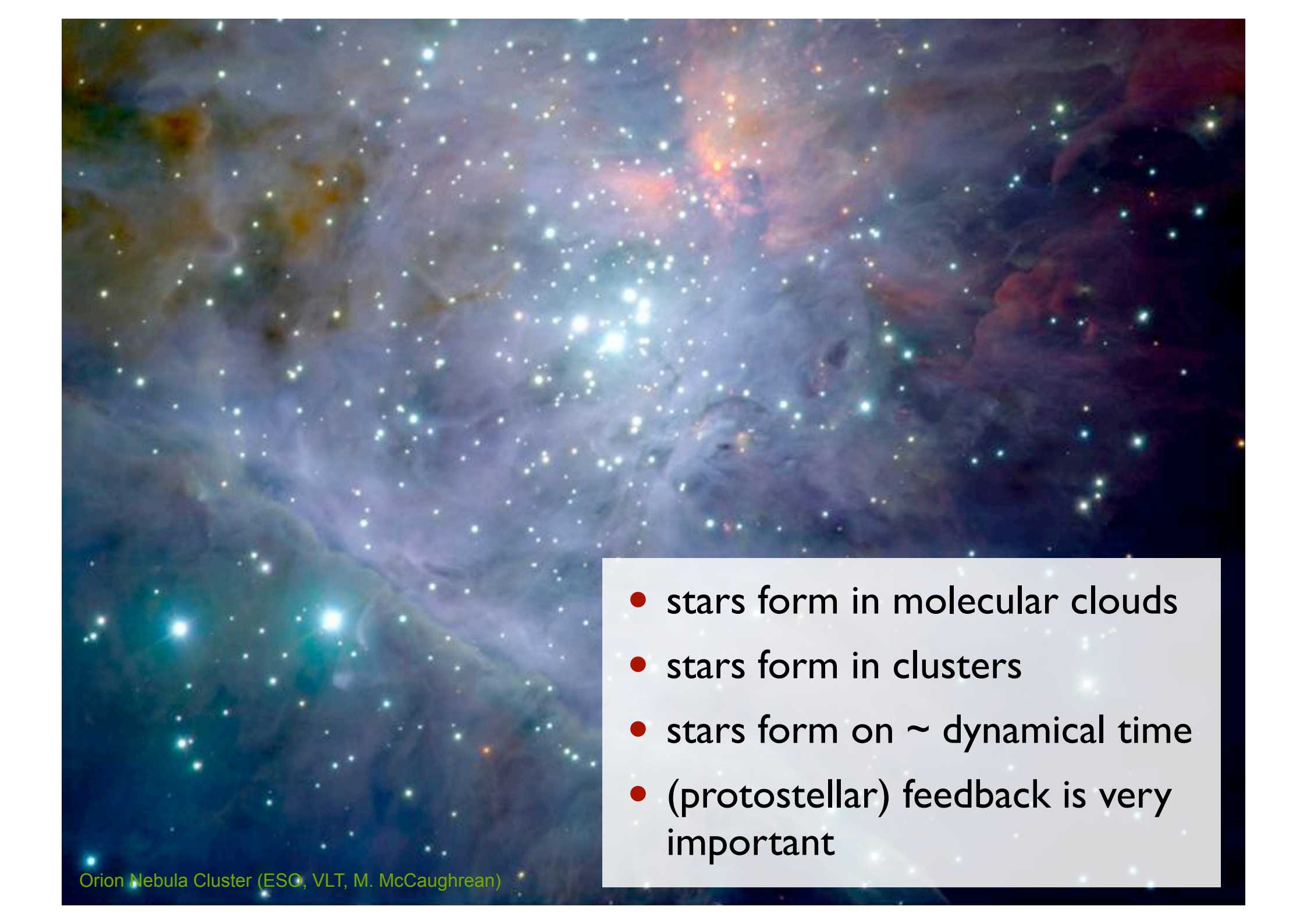
data from T. Dame (CfA)



Orion Nebula Cluster (ESO, VLT, M. McCaughrean)



Orion Nebula Cluster (ESO, VLT, M. McCaughrean)


- 
- A wide-field astronomical image of the Orion Nebula Cluster. The image shows a vast field of stars, many of which are bright and blue, set against a backdrop of colorful interstellar dust and gas. The dust is primarily blue and purple, with some reddish and orange hues. The stars are scattered throughout the field, with some appearing in small, dense clusters. The overall scene is a complex and dynamic environment of star formation.
- stars form in molecular clouds
 - stars form in clusters
 - stars form on \sim dynamical time
 - (protostellar) feedback is very important



Trapezium stars in the center of the ONC (HST, Johnstone et al. 1998)

- strong feedback: UV radiation from Θ 1 C Orionis affects star formation on all cluster scales

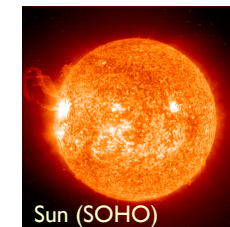
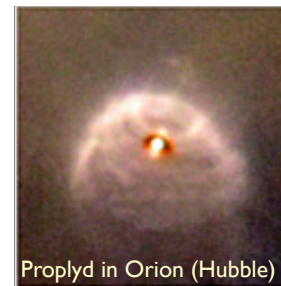
Trapezium stars in the center of the ONC (HST, Johnstone et al. 1998)



eventually, clusters like the ONC
(1 Myr) will evolve into clusters
like the Pleiades (100 Myr)

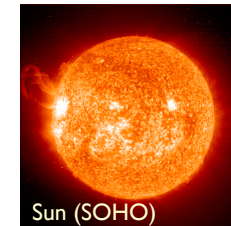
theoretical
approach

decrease in spatial scale / increase in density



- density
 - density of ISM: few particles per cm^3
 - density of molecular cloud: few 100 particles per cm^3
 - density of Sun: 1.4 g/cm^3
- spatial scale
 - size of molecular cloud: few 10s of pc
 - size of young cluster: $\sim 1 \text{ pc}$
 - size of Sun: $1.4 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}$

decrease in spatial scale / increase in density



- contracting force
 - only force that can do this compression is **GRAVITY**
- opposing forces
 - there are several processes that can oppose gravity
 - **GAS PRESSURE**
 - **TURBULENCE**
 - **MAGNETIC FIELDS**
 - **RADIATION PRESSURE**

Modern star formation theory is based on the complex interplay between *all* these processes.

early theoretical models

- *Jeans (1902)*: Interplay between self-gravity and thermal pressure
 - stability of homogeneous spherical density enhancements against gravitational collapse
 - dispersion relation:

$$\omega^2 = c_s^2 k^2 - 4\pi G \rho_0$$

- instability when $\omega^2 < 0$

- minimal mass: $M_J = \frac{1}{6} \pi^{-5/2} G^{-3/2} \rho_0^{-1/2} c_s^3 \propto \rho_0^{-1/2} T^{+3/2}$



Sir James Jeans, 1877 - 1946

first approach to turbulence

- *von Weizsäcker (1943, 1951) and Chandrasekhar (1951): concept of **MICROTURBULENCE***

- BASIC ASSUMPTION: separation of scales between dynamics and turbulence

$$l_{\text{turb}} \ll l_{\text{dyn}}$$

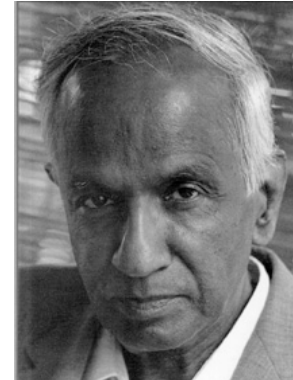
- then turbulent velocity dispersion contributes to effective soundspeed:

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

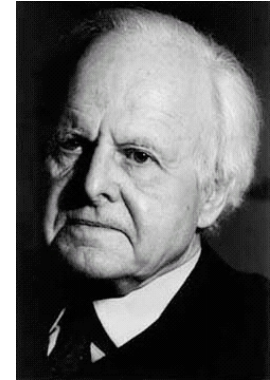
- → Larger effective Jeans masses → more stability

- BUT: (1) *turbulence depends on k* : $\sigma_{rms}^2(k)$

(2) *supersonic turbulence* → $\sigma_{rms}^2(k) \gg c_s^2$ usually



S. Chandrasekhar,
1910 - 1995



C.F. von Weizsäcker,
1912 - 2007

problems of early dynamical theory

- molecular clouds are *highly Jeans-unstable*, yet, they do *NOT* form stars at high rate and with high efficiency (Zuckerman & Evans 1974 conundrum) (the observed global SFE in molecular clouds is $\sim 5\%$)
→ *something prevents large-scale collapse.*
- all throughout the early 1990's, molecular clouds had been thought to be long-lived quasi-equilibrium entities.
- molecular clouds are *magnetized*

magnetic star formation

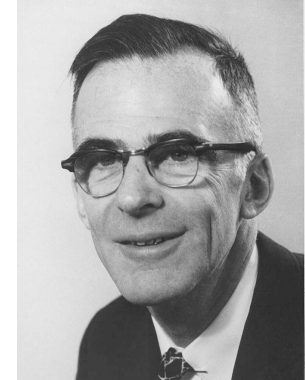
- *Mestel & Spitzer (1956)*: Magnetic fields can prevent collapse!!!
 - Critical mass for gravitational collapse in presence of B-field

$$M_{cr} = \frac{5^{3/2}}{48\pi^2} \frac{B^3}{G^{3/2} \rho^2}$$

- Critical mass-to-flux ratio (Mouschovias & Spitzer 1976)

$$\left[\frac{M}{\Phi} \right]_{cr} = \frac{\xi}{3\pi} \left[\frac{5}{G} \right]^{1/2}$$

- Ambipolar diffusion can initiate collapse



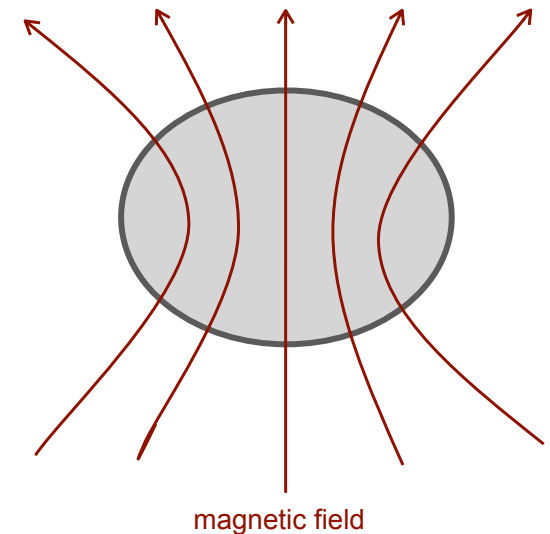
Lyman Spitzer, Jr., 1914 - 1997

“standard theory” of star formation

- BASIC ASSUMPTION: Stars form from magnetically highly subcritical cores
- Ambipolar diffusion slowly increases (M/Φ) : $\tau_{AD} \approx 10\tau_{ff}$
- Once $(M/\Phi) > (M/\Phi)_{crit}$: dynamical collapse of SIS
 - Shu (1977) collapse solution
 - $dM/dt = 0.975 c_s^3/G = \text{const.}$
- Was (in principle) only intended for isolated, low-mass stars



Frank Shu, 1943 -



problems of “standard theory”

- Observed B-fields are weak, at most marginally critical (Crutcher 1999, Bourke et al. 2001)
- Magnetic fields cannot prevent decay of turbulence (Mac Low et al. 1998, Stone et al. 1998, Padoan & Nordlund 1999)
- Structure of prestellar cores (e.g. Bacman et al. 2000, Alves et al. 2001)
- Strongly time varying dM/dt (e.g. Hendriksen et al. 1997, André et al. 2000)
- More extended infall motions than predicted by the standard model (Williams & Myers 2000, Myers et al. 2000)
- Most stars form as binaries (e.g. Lada 2006)
- As many prestellar cores as protostellar cores in SF regions (e.g. André et al 2002)
- Molecular cloud clumps are chemically young (Bergin & Langer 1997, Pratap et al 1997, Aikawa et al 2001)
- Stellar age distribution small ($\tau_{\text{ff}} \ll \tau_{\text{AD}}$) (Ballesteros-Paredes et al. 1999, Elmegreen 2000, Hartmann 2001)
- Strong theoretical criticism of the SIS as starting condition for gravitational collapse (e.g. Whitworth et al 1996, Nakano 1998, as summarized in Klessen & Mac Low 2004)
- Standard AD-dominated theory is incompatible with observations (Crutcher et al. 2009, 2010ab, Bertram et al. 2011)

gravoturbulent star formation

- BASIC ASSUMPTION:

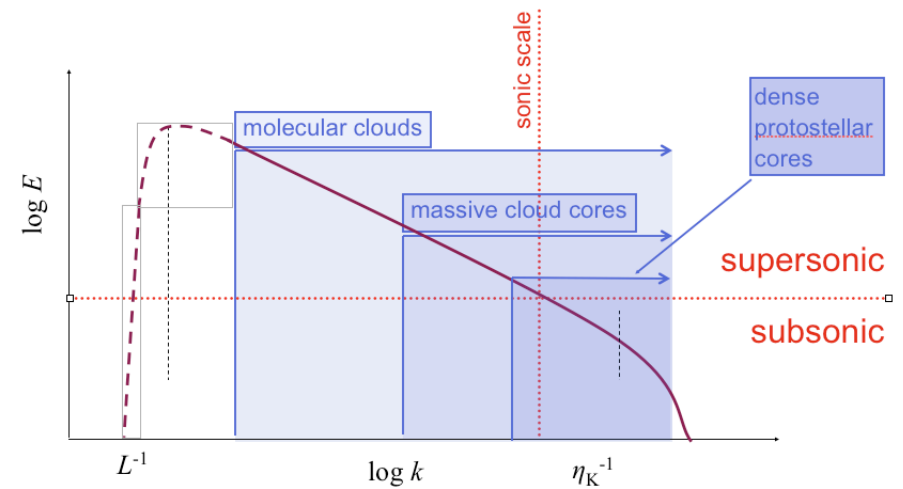
star formation is controlled by interplay between supersonic turbulence and self-gravity

- turbulence plays a *dual role*:

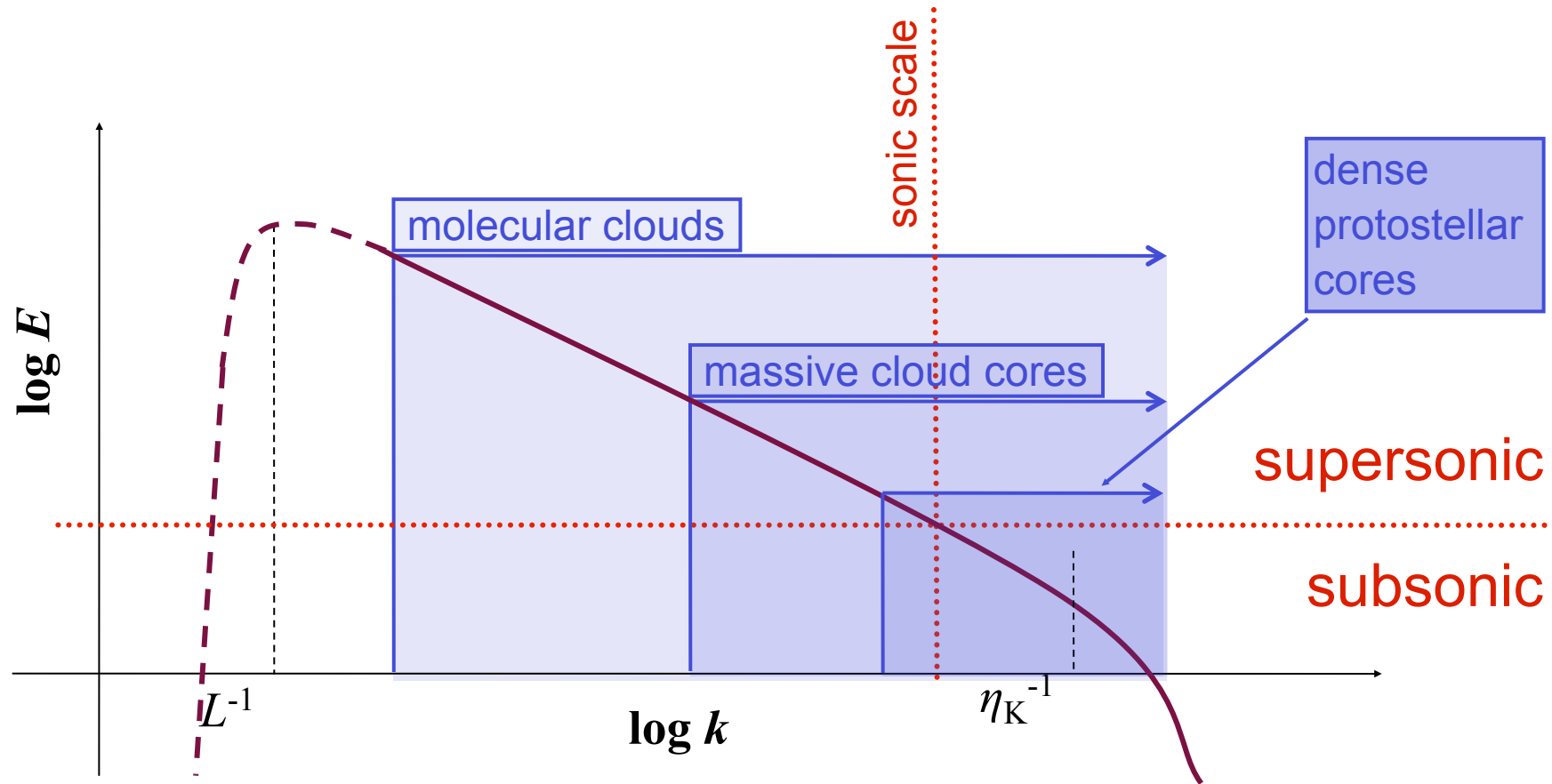
- on *large scales* it *provides support*
- on *small scales* it can *trigger collapse*

- some predictions:

- dynamical star formation timescale τ_{ff}
- high binary fraction
- complex spatial structure of embedded star clusters
- and many more . . .



turbulent cascade in the ISM



energy source & scale
NOT known
 (supernovae, winds,
 spiral density waves?)

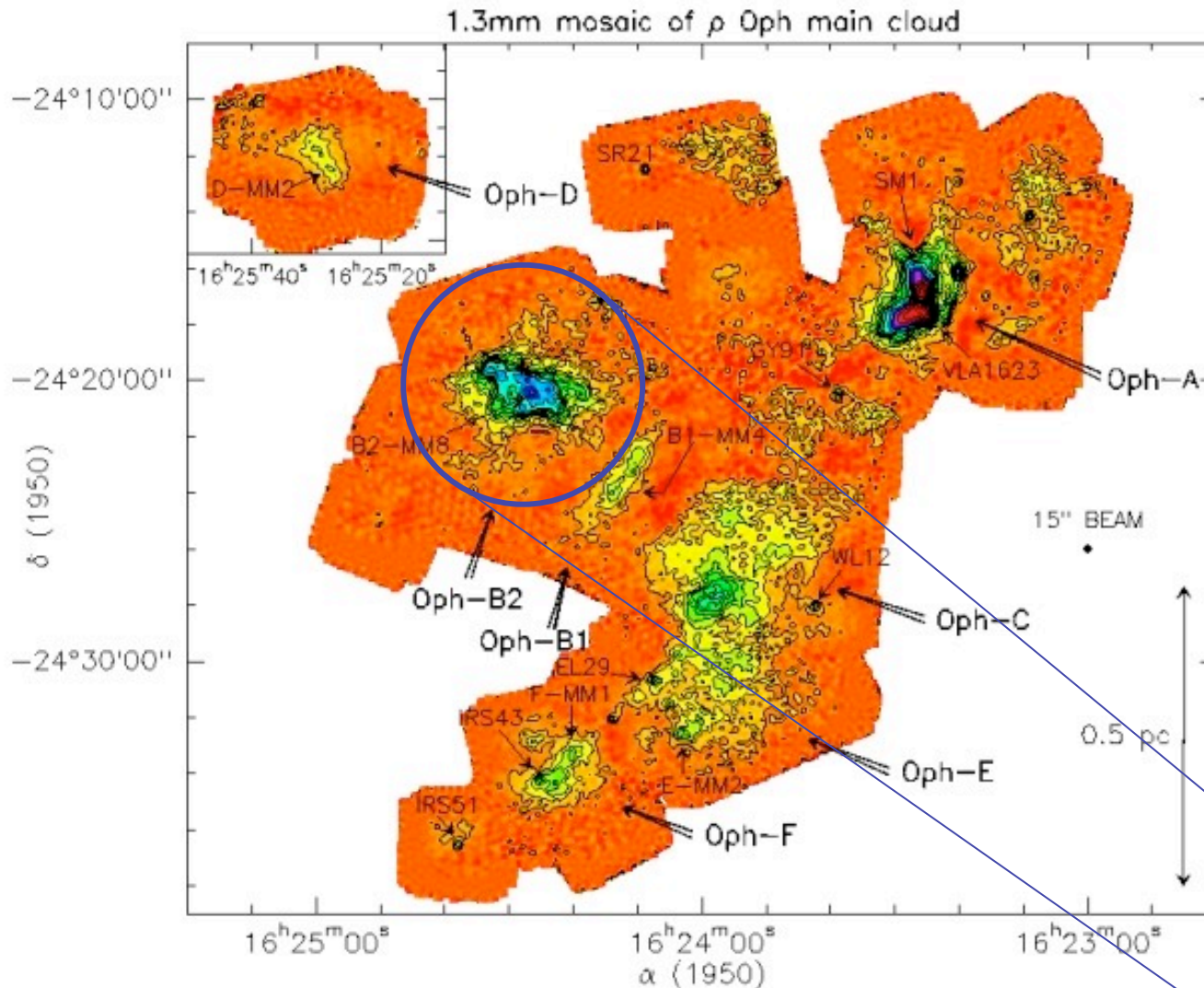
$$\sigma_{\text{rms}} \ll 1 \text{ km/s}$$

$$M_{\text{rms}} \leq 1$$

$$L \approx 0.1 \text{ pc}$$

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

Density structure of MC's



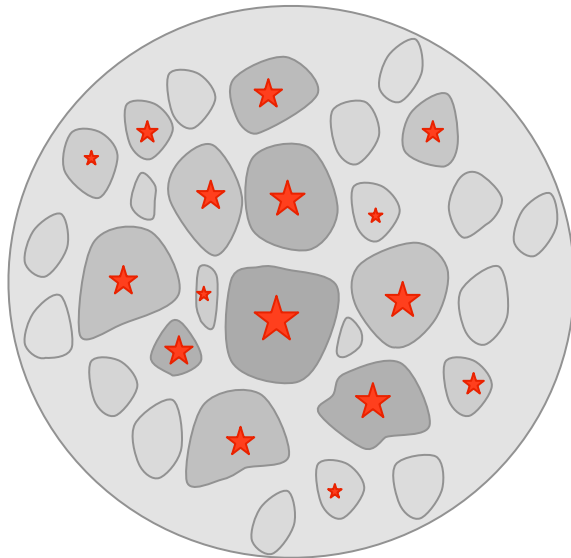
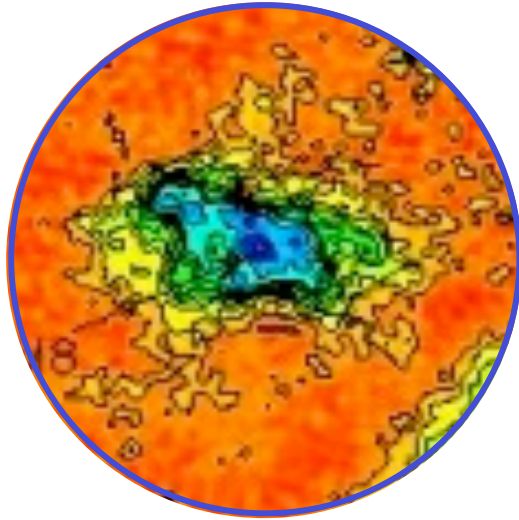
molecular clouds
are highly
inhomogeneous

stars form in the
densest and coldest
parts of the cloud

ρ -Ophiuchus cloud
seen in dust
emission

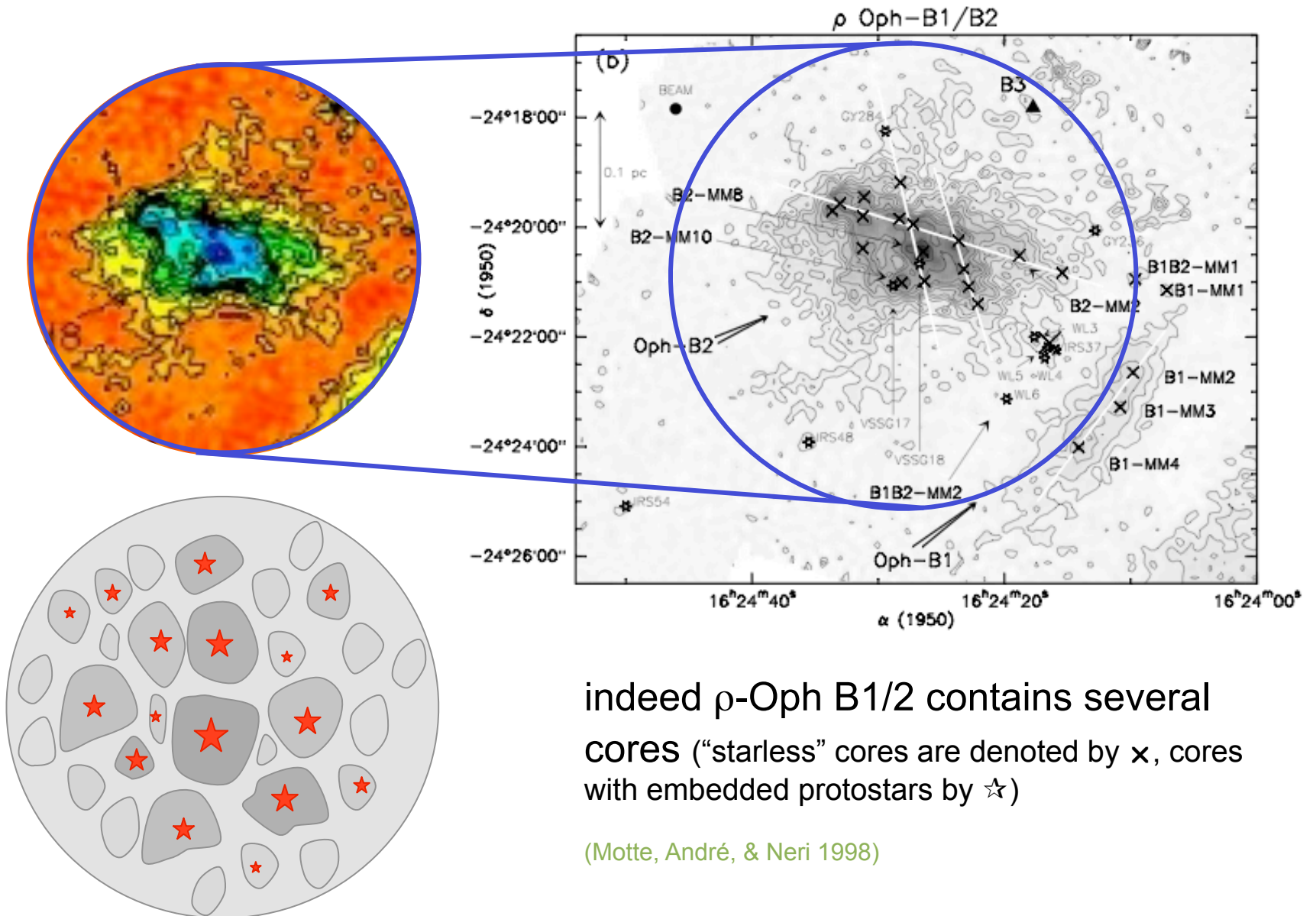
let's focus on
a cloud core
like this one

Evolution of cloud cores



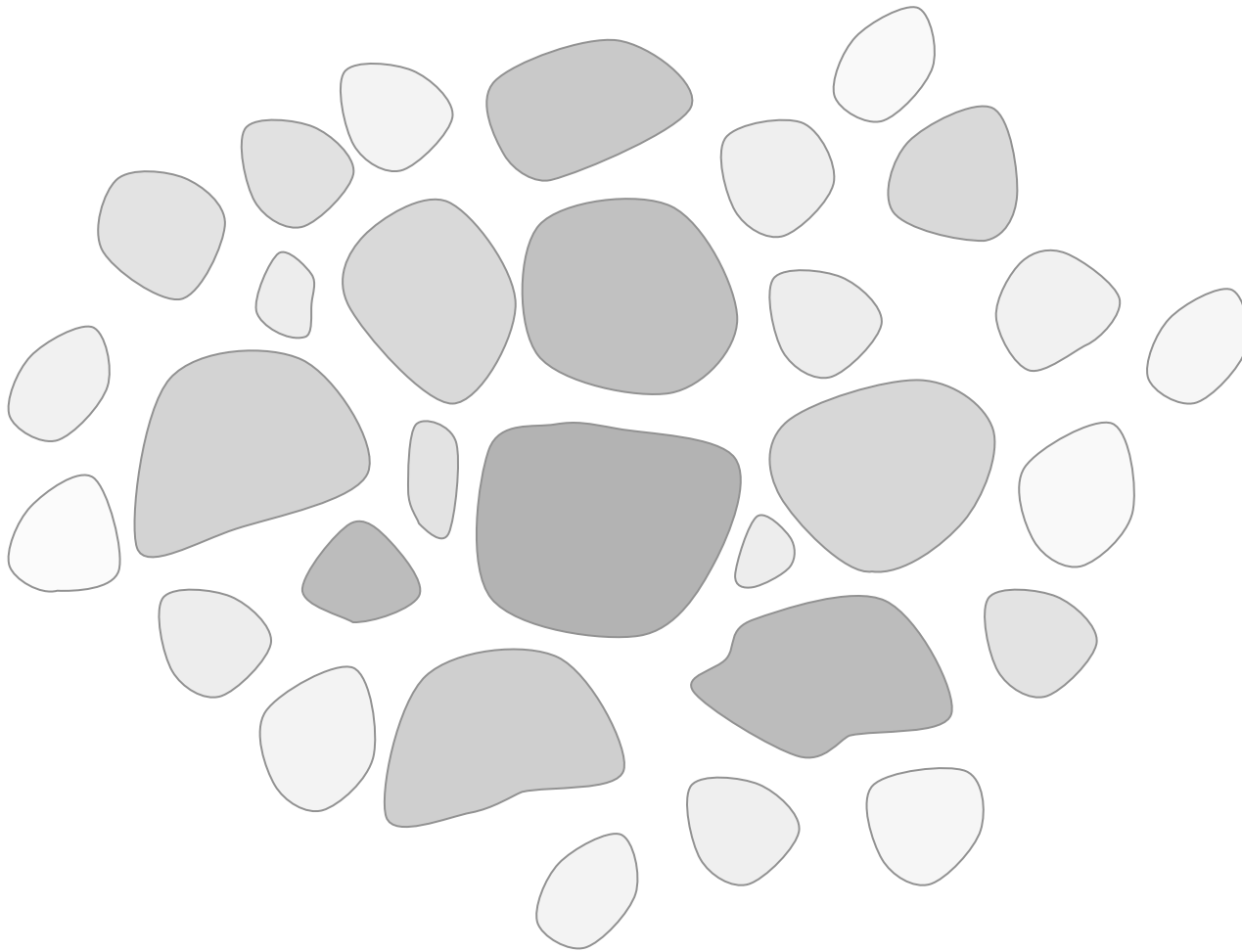
- How does this core evolve?
Does it form one single massive star or cluster with mass distribution?
- Turbulent cascade „goes through“ cloud core
--> NO *scale separation* possible
--> NO *effective sound speed*
- Turbulence is supersonic!
--> produces strong density contrasts:
 $\delta\rho/\rho \approx M^2$
--> with typical $M \approx 10$ --> $\delta\rho/\rho \approx 100!$
- many of the shock-generated fluctuations are Jeans unstable and go into collapse
- --> expectation: *core breaks up and forms a cluster of stars*

Evolution of cloud cores

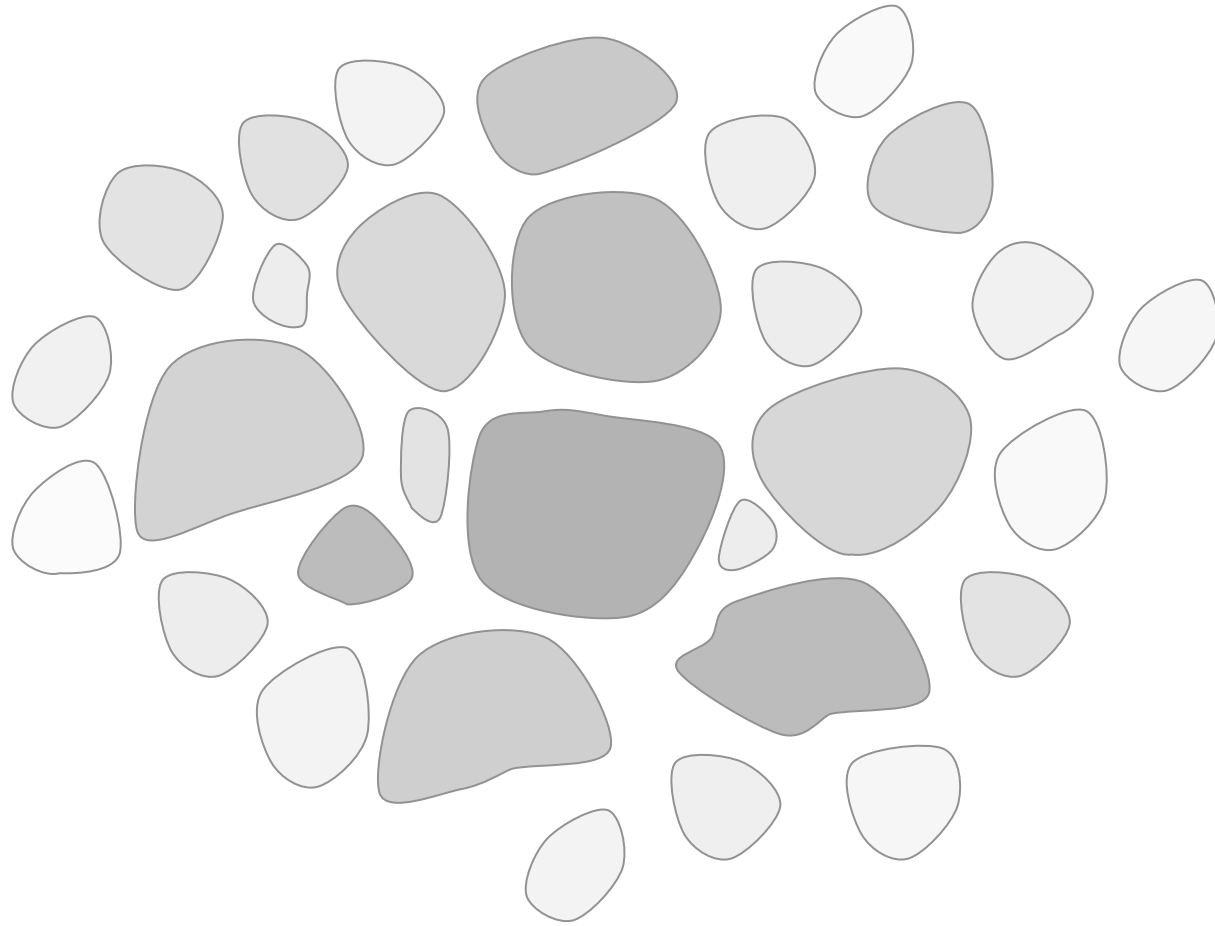


indeed ρ -Oph B1/2 contains several
CORES (“starless” cores are denoted by x, cores
with embedded protostars by ☆)

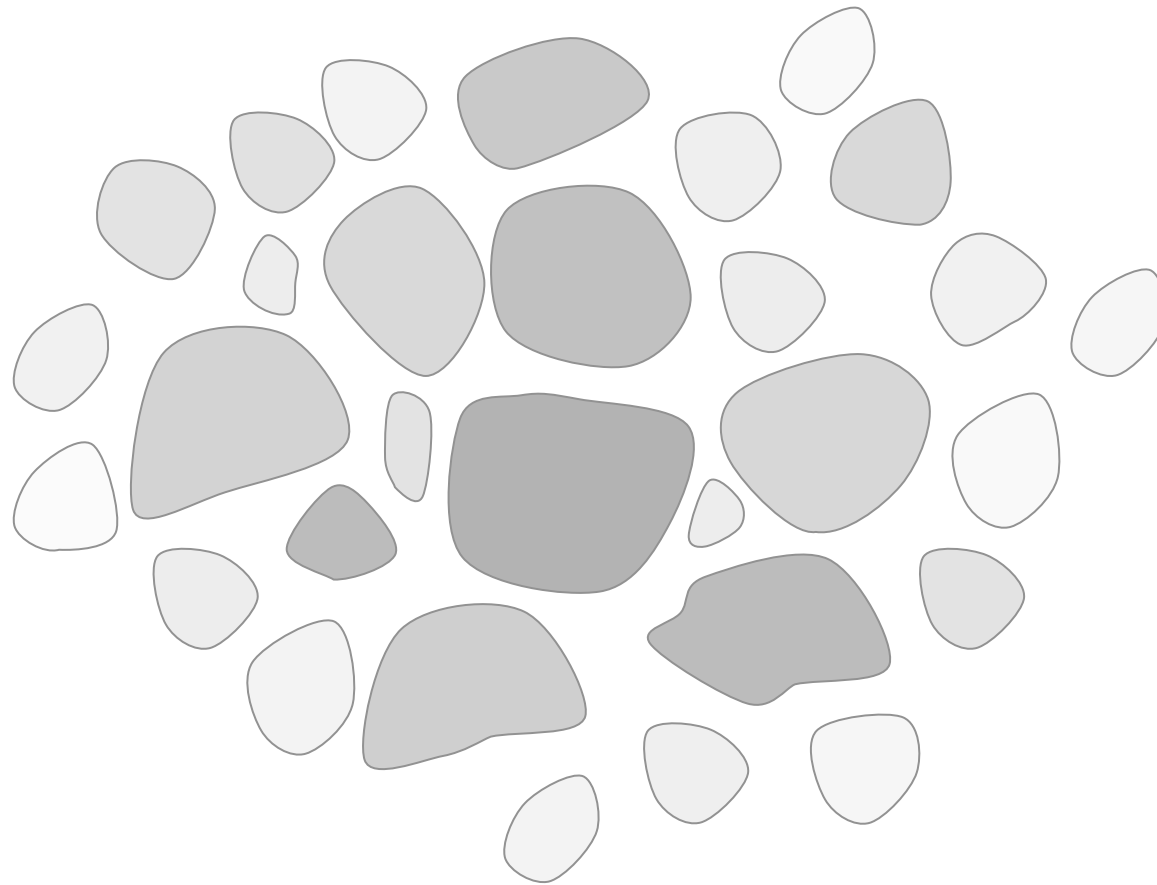
(Motte, André, & Neri 1998)



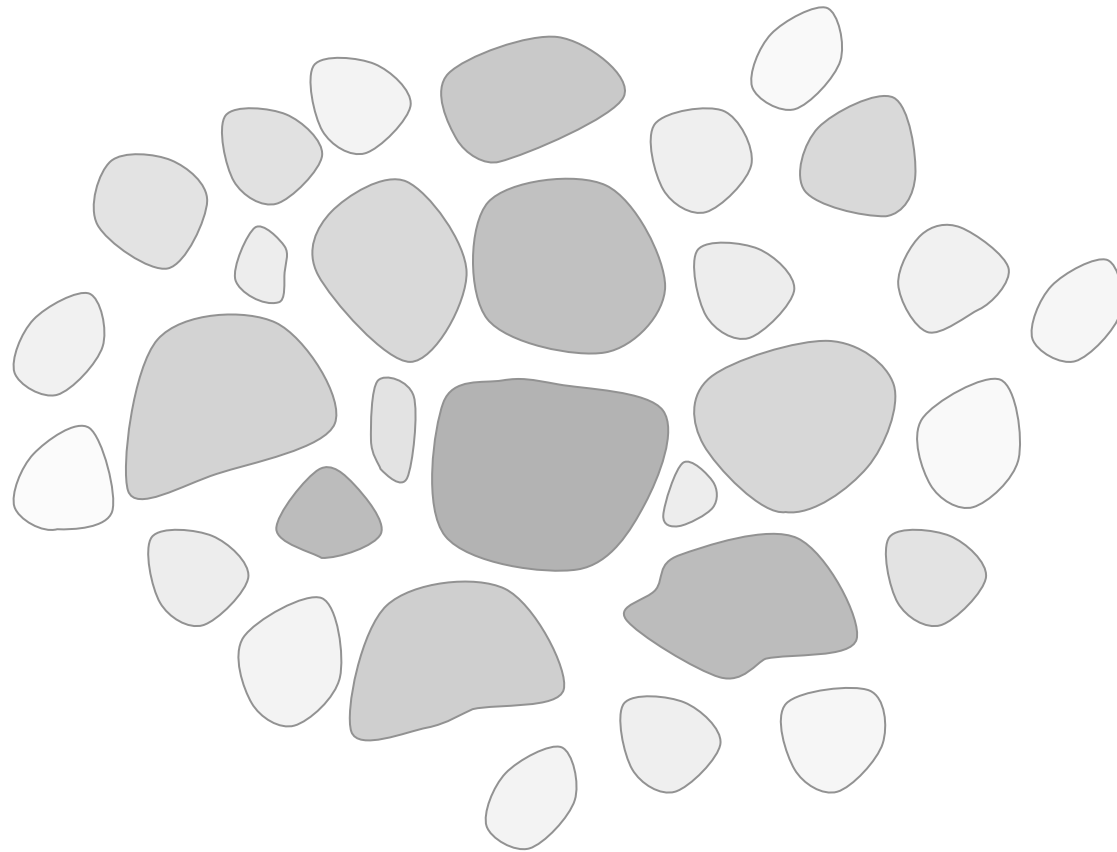
turbulence creates a hierarchy of clumps



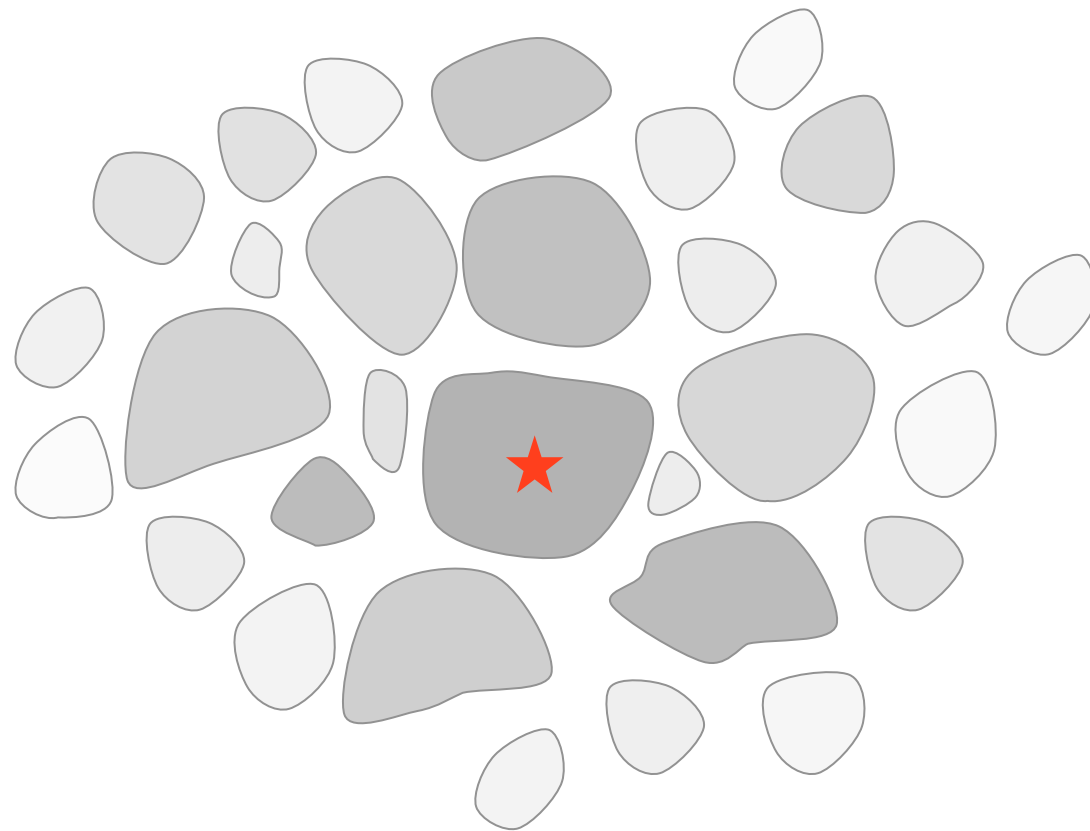
as turbulence decays locally, contraction sets in



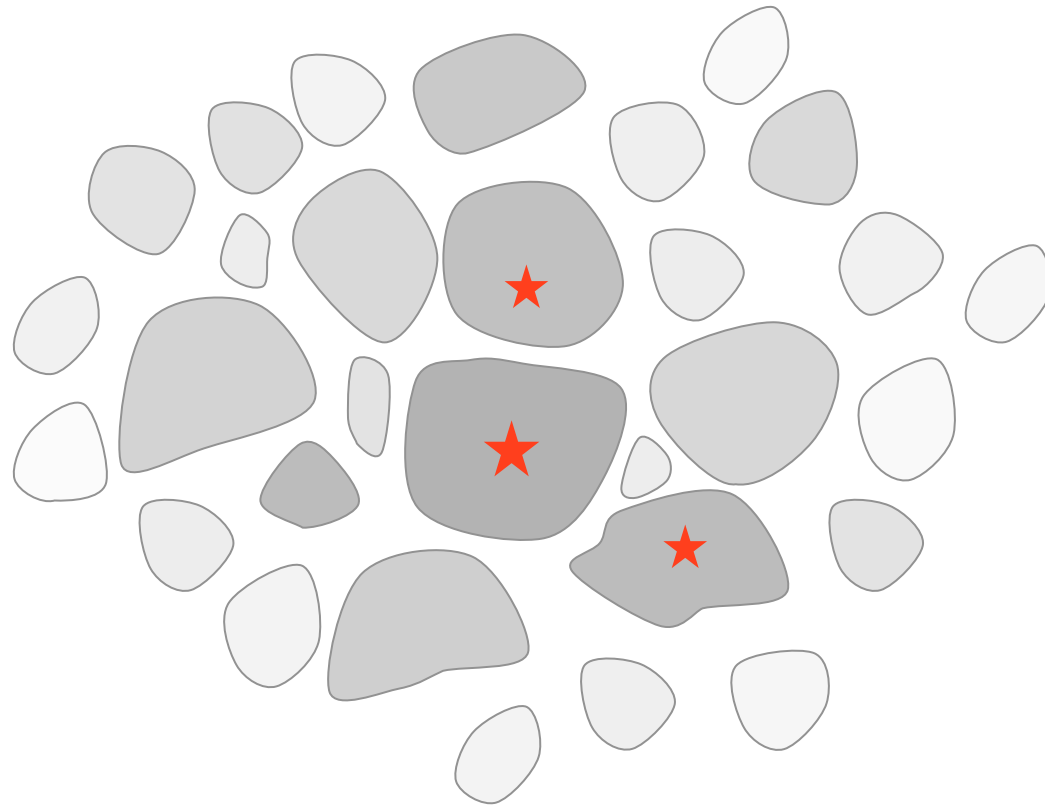
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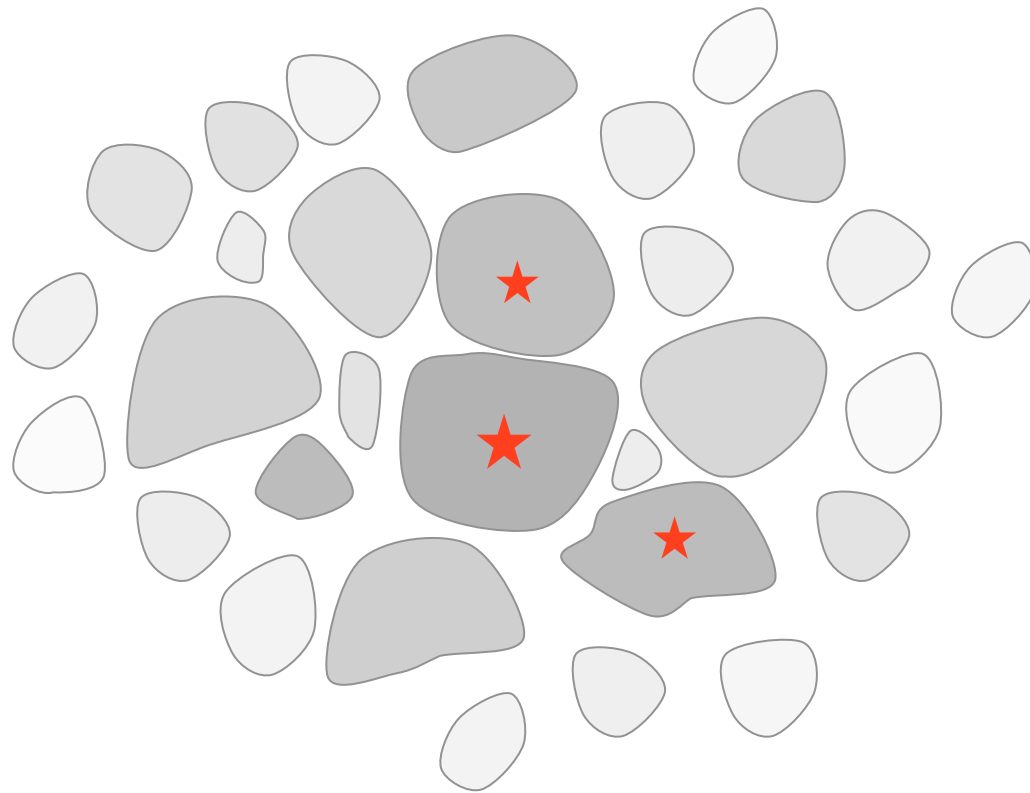
while region contracts, individual clumps collapse to form stars



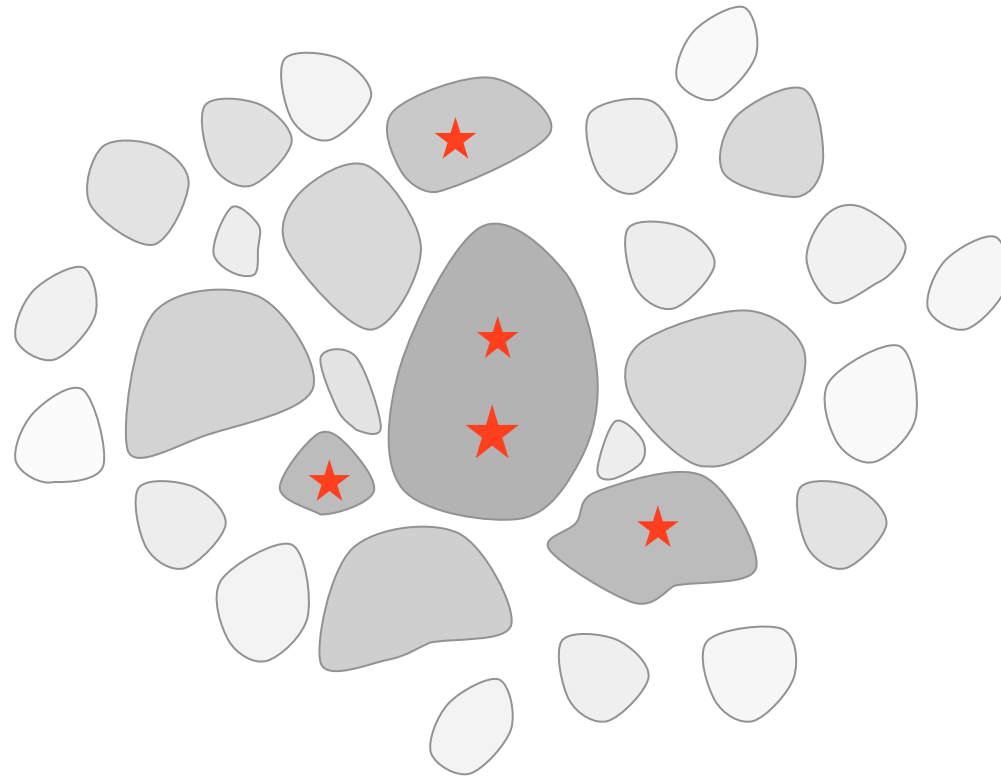
while region contracts, individual clumps collapse to form stars



individual clumps collapse to form stars

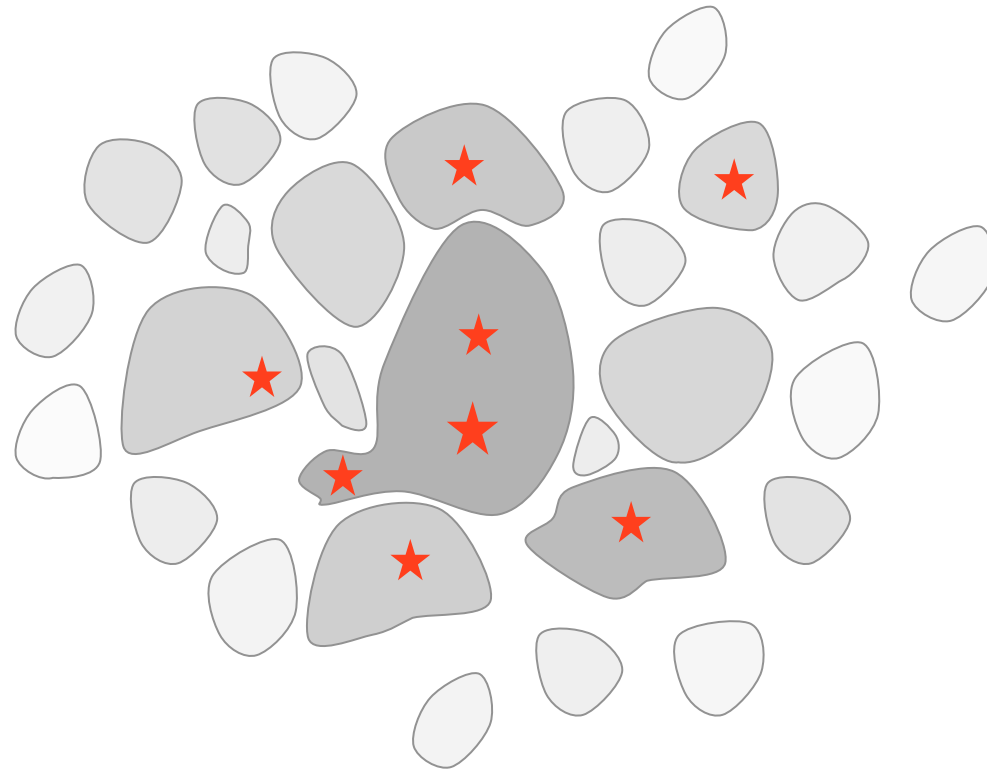


individual clumps collapse to form stars

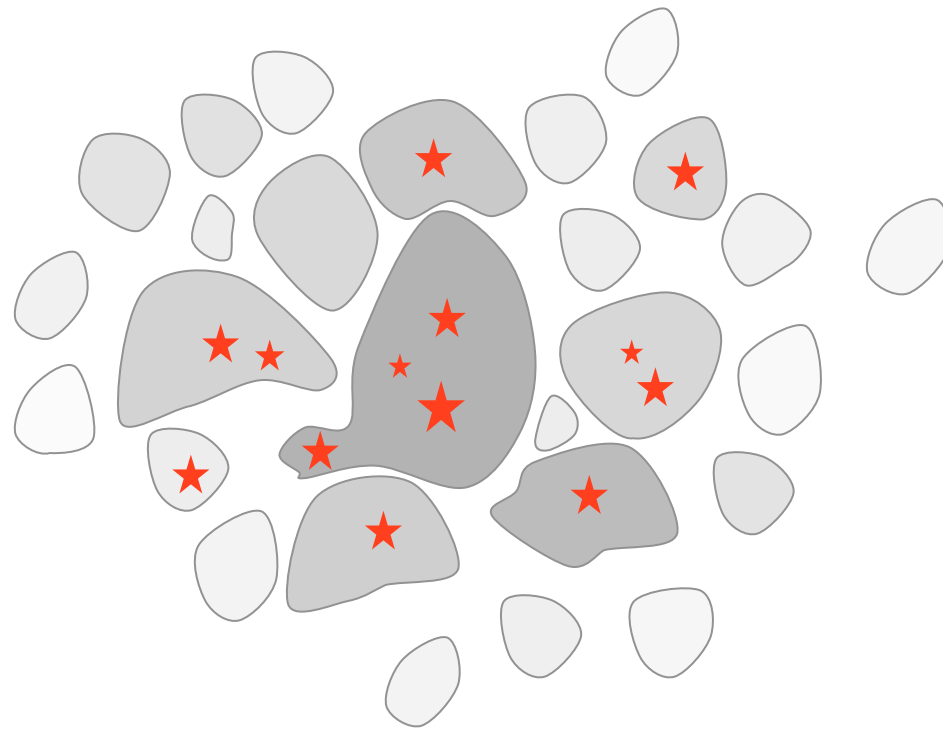


$$\alpha = E_{\text{kin}} / |E_{\text{pot}}| < 1$$

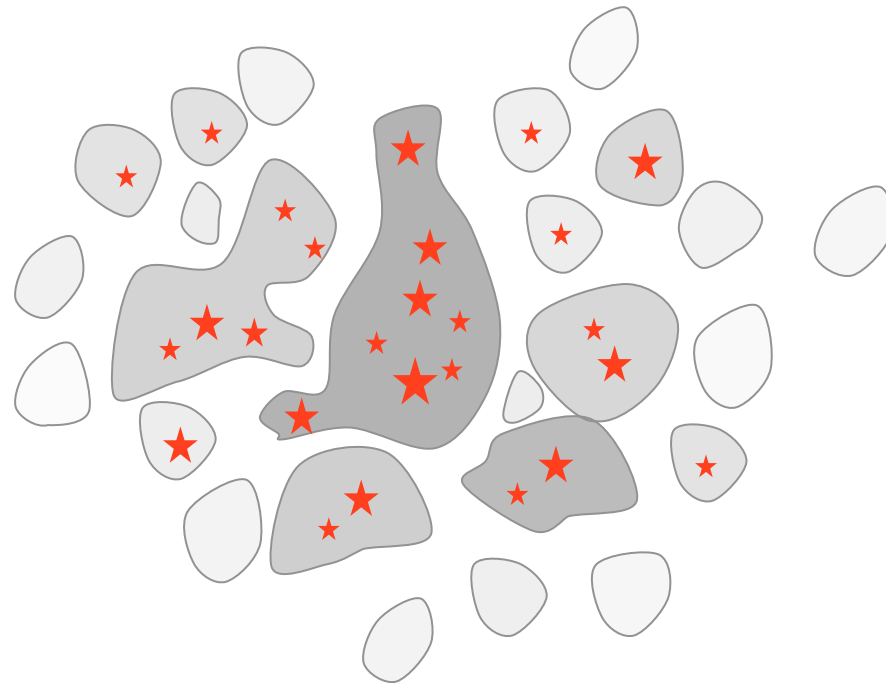
in *dense clusters*, clumps may merge while collapsing
--> then contain multiple protostars



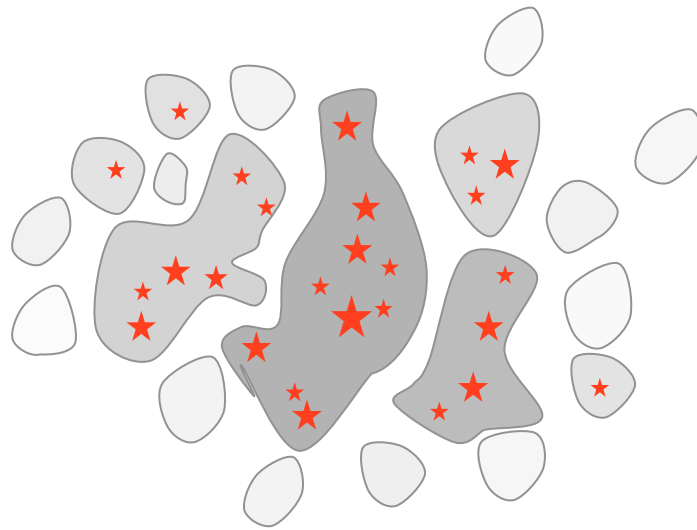
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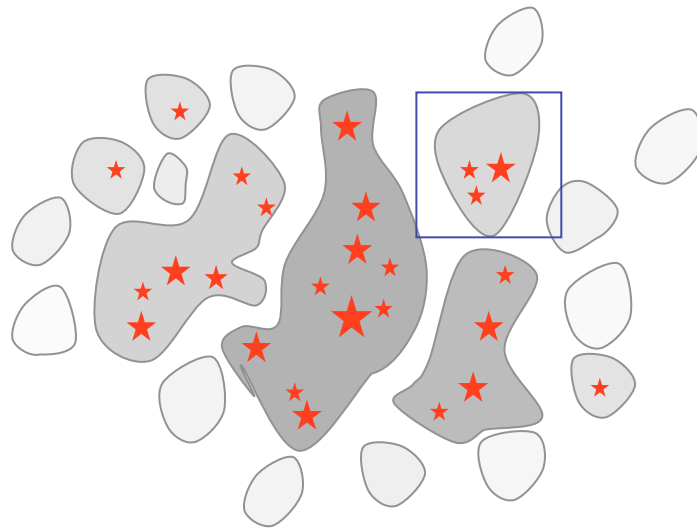
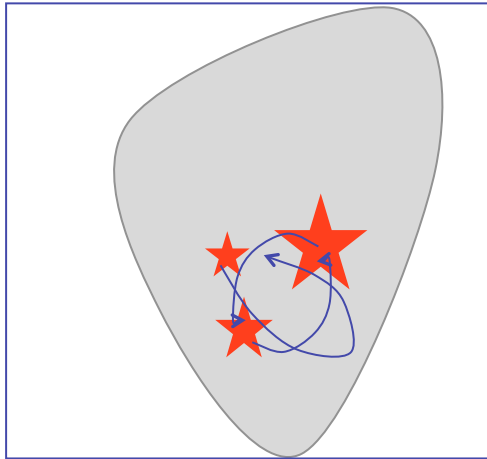
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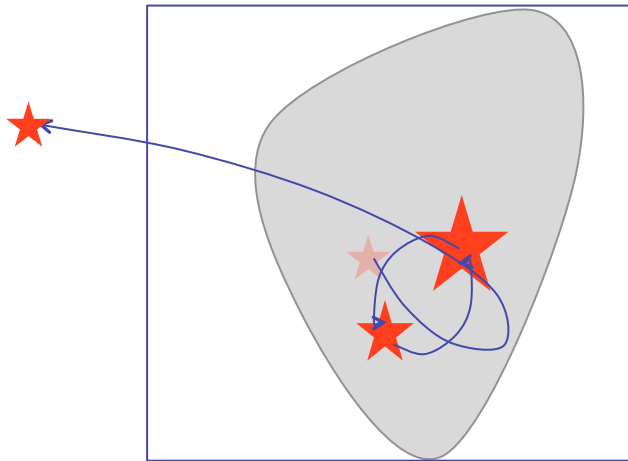
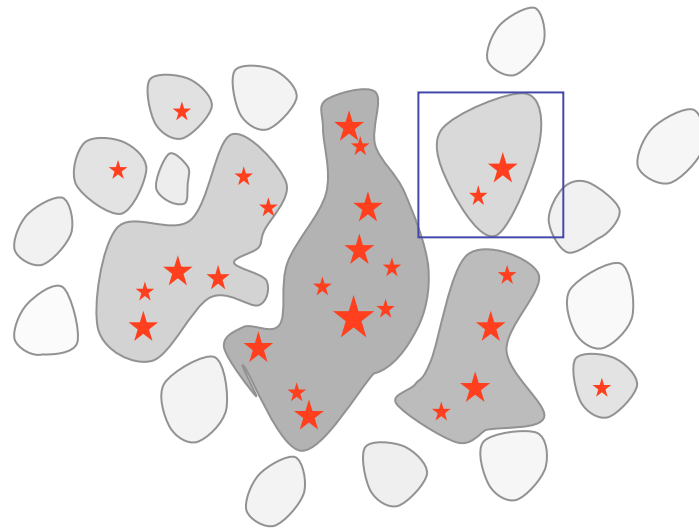
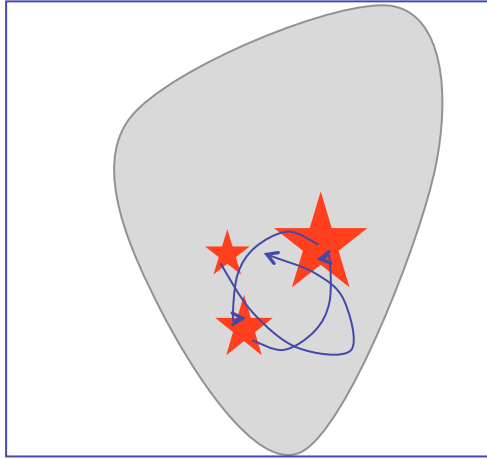
in *dense clusters*, competitive mass growth becomes important



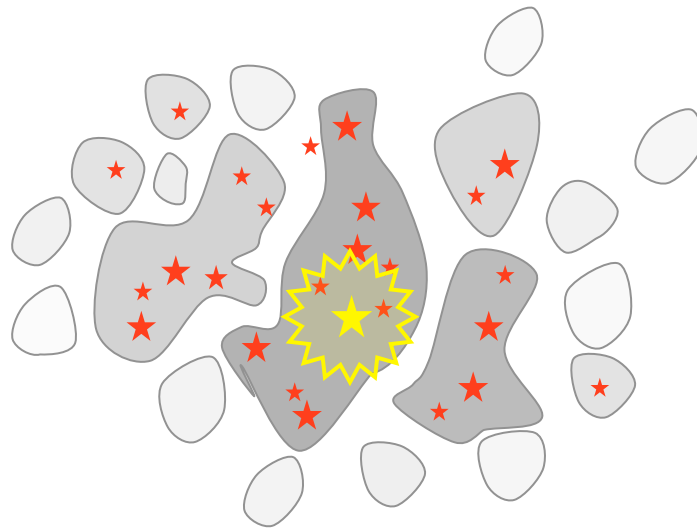
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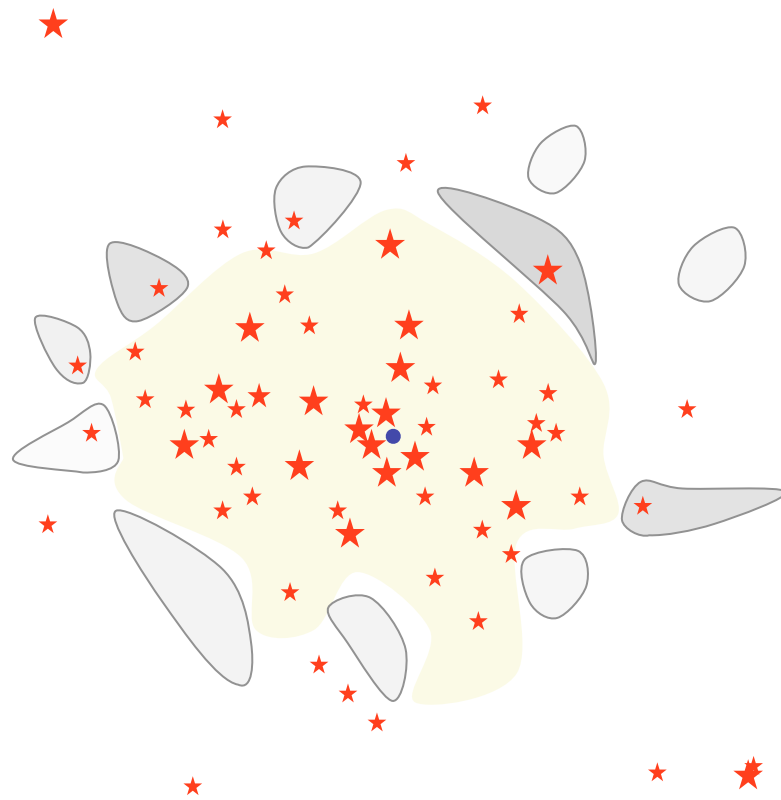
in *dense clusters*, N -body effects influence mass growth



low-mass objects may
become ejected --> accretion stops



feedback terminates star formation



result: *star cluster*, possibly with HII region

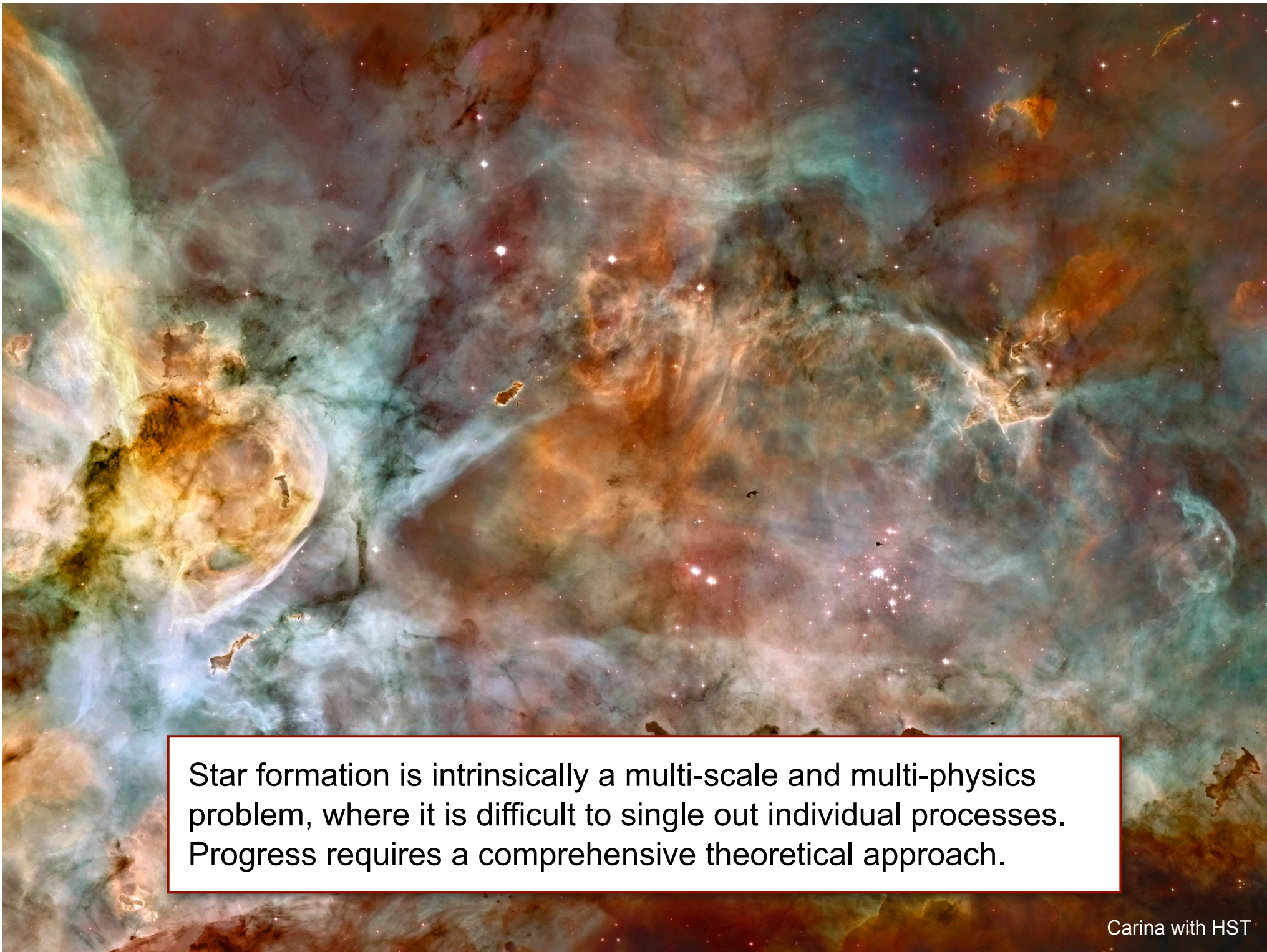


NGC 602 in the LMC: Hubble Heritage Image

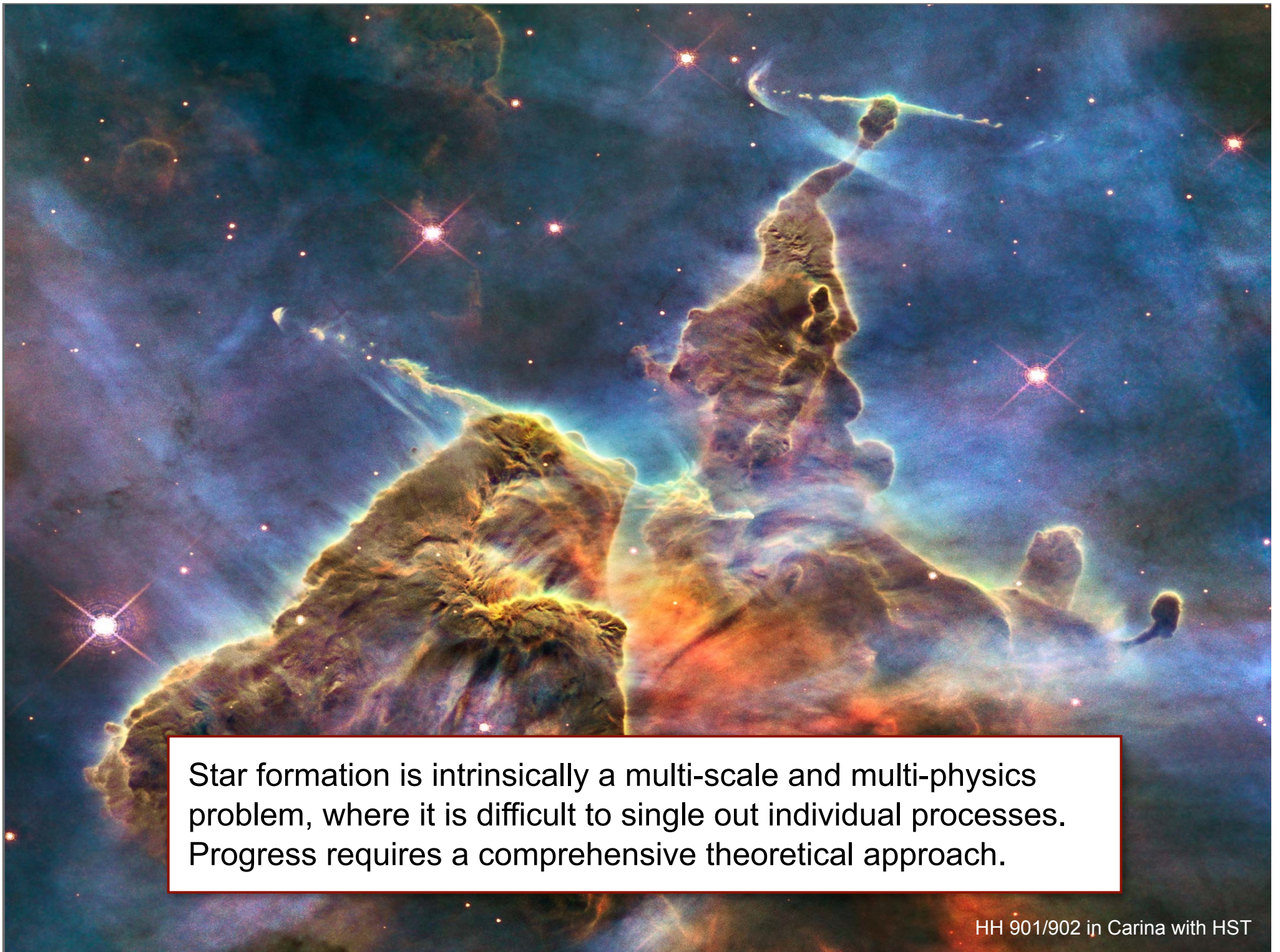
current status

- *stars form from the complex interplay of self-gravity and a large number of competing processes (such as turbulence, B-field, feedback, thermal pressure)*
 - *the relative importance of these processes depends on the environment*
 - prestellar cores --> thermal pressure is important
 - molecular clouds --> turbulence dominates } (Larson's relation: $\sigma \propto L^{1/2}$)
 - massive star forming regions (NGC602): radiative feedback is important
 - small clusters (Taurus): evolution maybe dominated by external turbulence
- *star formation is regulated by various feedback processes*
 - *star formation is closely linked to global galactic dynamics (KS relation)*

Star formation is intrinsically a multi-scale and multi-physics problem, where it is difficult to single out individual processes. Simple theoretical approaches usually fail.



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selected open questions

- what processes determine the initial mass function (IMF) of stars?
- what are the initial conditions for star cluster formation?
how does cloud structure translate into cluster structure?
- how do molecular clouds form and evolve?
- what drives turbulence?
- what triggers / regulates star formation on galactic scales?
- how does star formation depend on metallicity?
how do the first stars form?
- star formation in extreme environments (galactic center, starburst, etc.),
how does it differ from a more “normal” mode?

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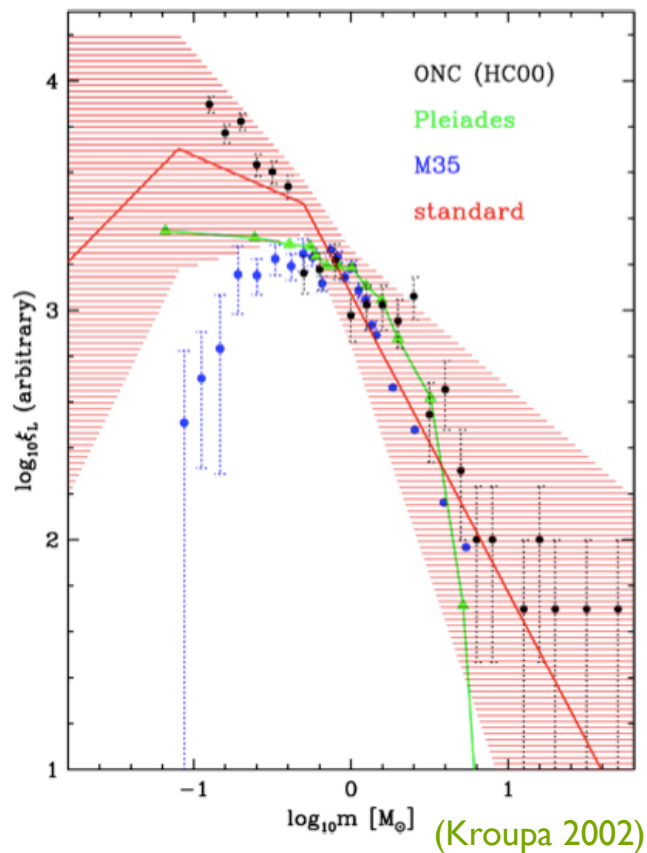
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stellar mass function

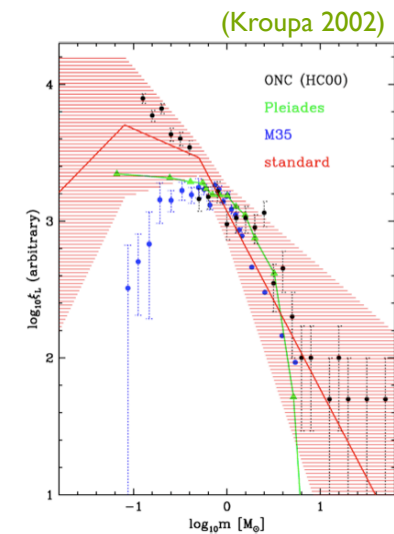
stars seem to follow a universal mass function at birth --> IMF



Orion, NGC 3603, 30 Doradus
(Zinnecker & Yorke 2007)

stellar masses

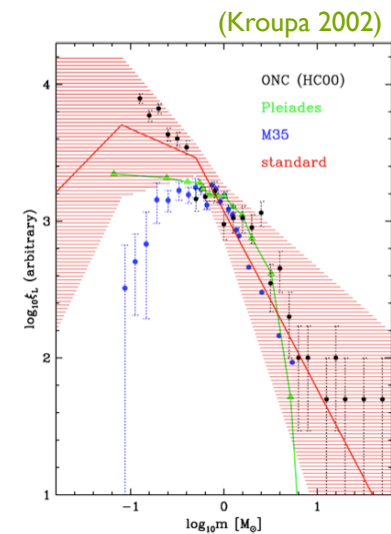
- distribution of stellar masses depends on
 - turbulent initial conditions
 - > mass spectrum of prestellar cloud cores
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 - ionizing radiation, bipolar outflows, winds, SN



stellar masses

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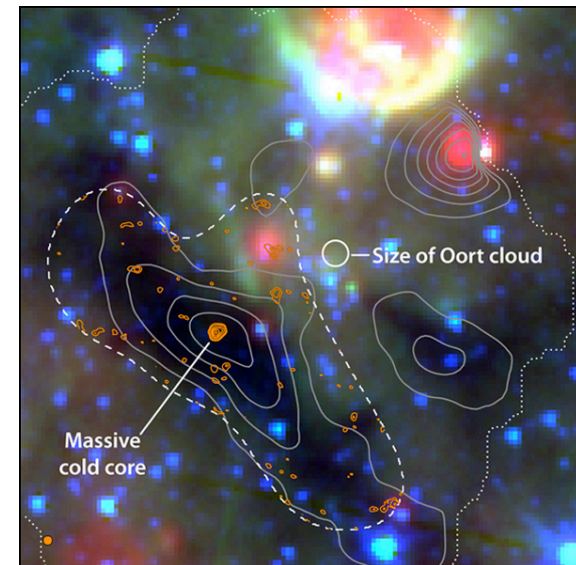
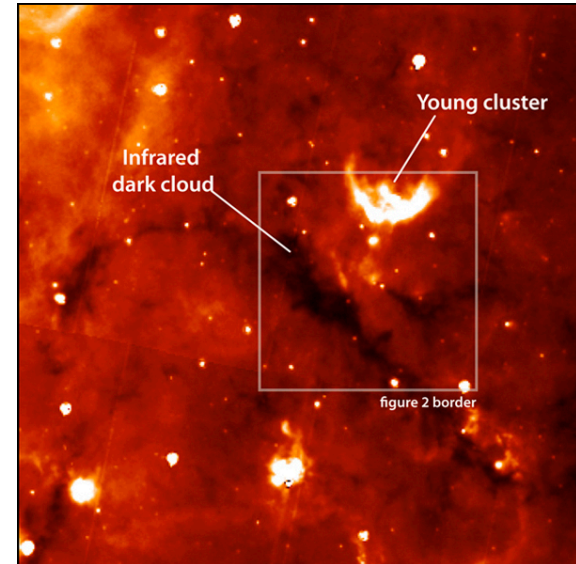
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important caveat:
initial conditions?

ICs of star cluster formation

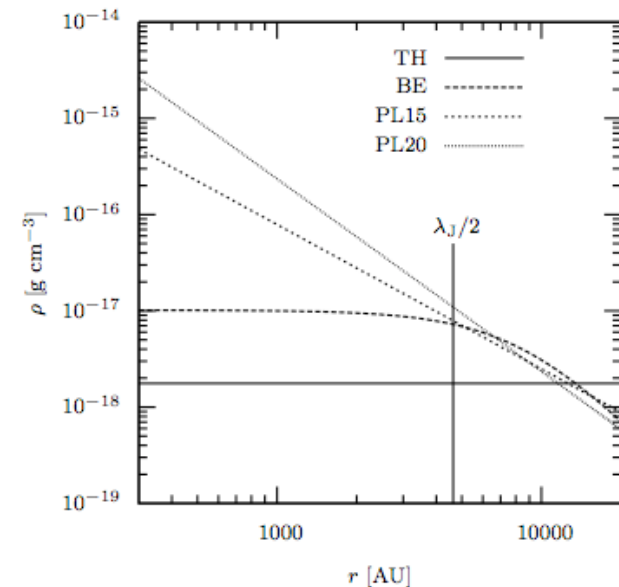
- key question:
 - what is the initial density profile of cluster forming cores? how does it compare low-mass cores?
- observers answer:
 - very difficult to determine!
 - ▶ most high-mass cores have some SF inside
 - ▶ infra-red dark clouds (IRDCs) are difficult to study
 - but, new results with Herschel



IRDC near Aquila rift, studied with the SMA: J. Swift & E. Churchwell

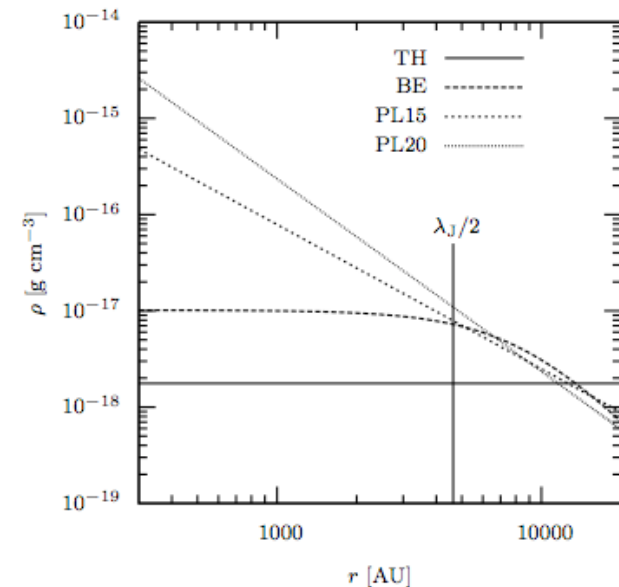
ICs of star cluster formation

- key question:
 - what is the initial density profile of cluster forming cores? how does it compare low-mass cores?
- theorists answer:
 - top hat (Larson Penston)
 - Bonnor Ebert (like low-mass cores)
 - power law $\rho \propto r^{-1}$ (logotrop)
 - power law $\rho \propto r^{-3/2}$ (Krumholz, McKee, et
 - power law $\rho \propto r^{-2}$ (Shu)
 - and many more



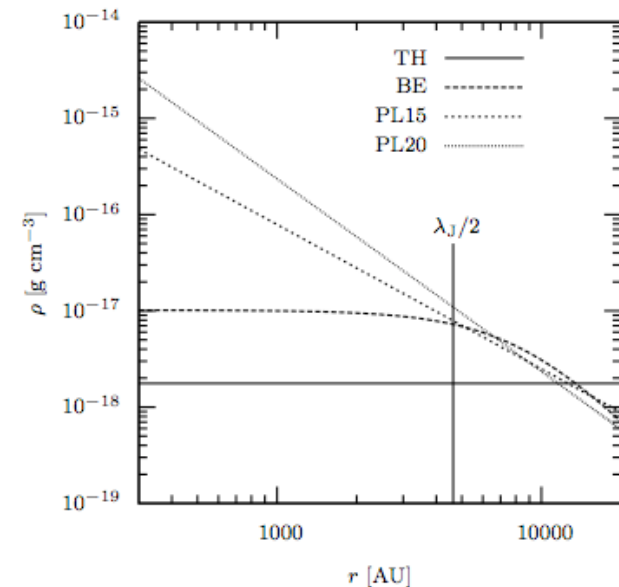
different density profiles

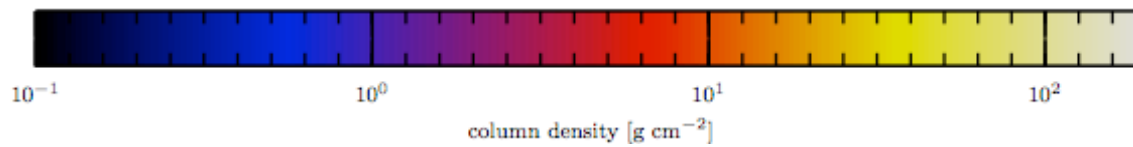
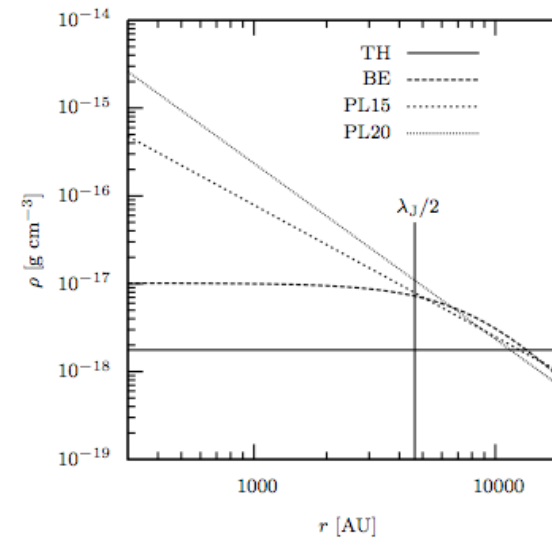
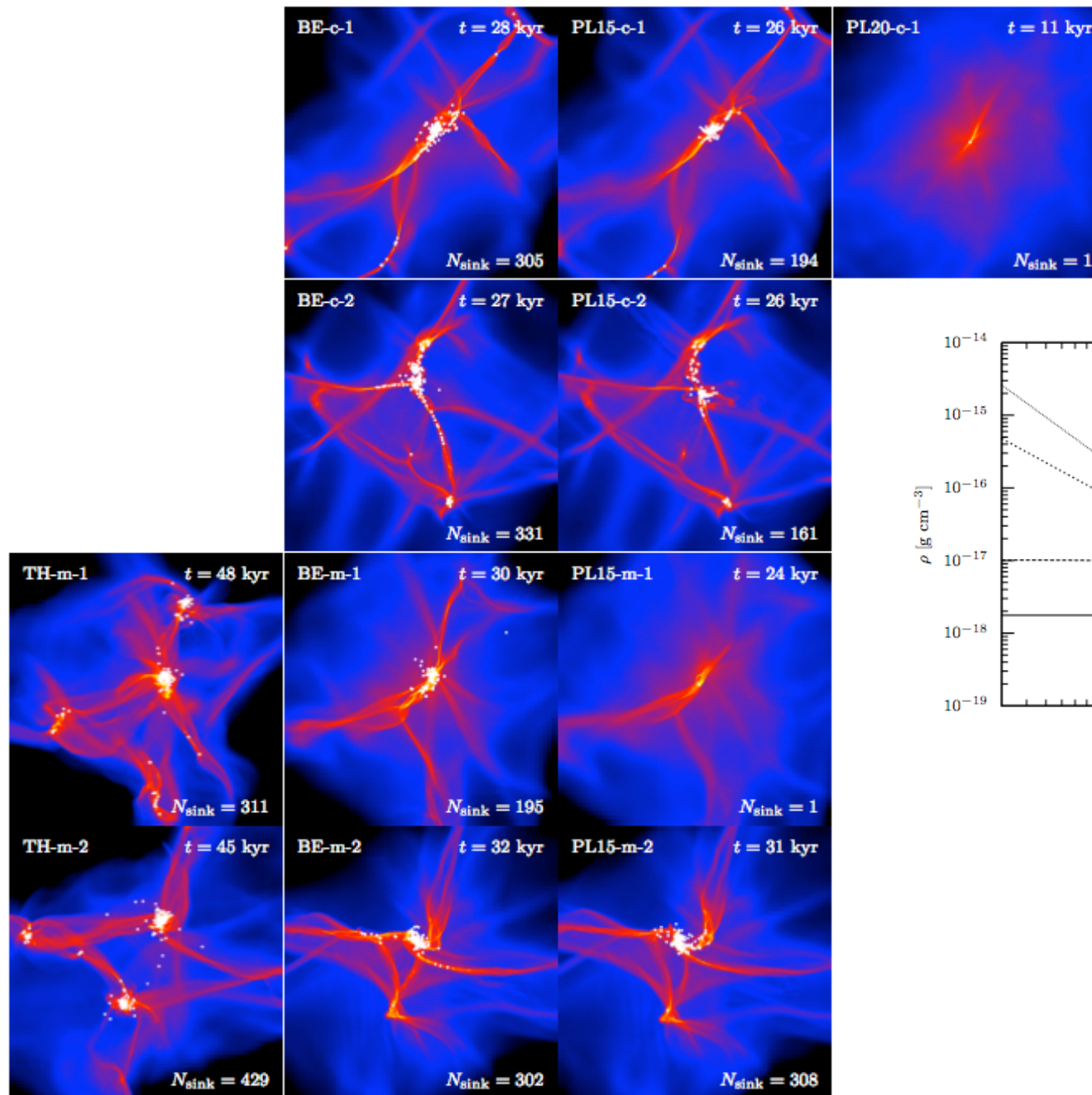
- does the density profile matter?
 -
 -
 -
- in comparison to
 - turbulence ...
 - radiative feedback ...
 - magnetic fields ...
 - thermodynamics ...



different density profiles

- address question in simple numerical experiment
- perform extensive parameter study
 - different profiles (top hat, BE, $r^{-3/2}$, r^{-3})
 - different turbulence fields
 - ▶ different realizations
 - ▶ different Mach numbers
 - ▶ solenoidal turbulence
dilatational turbulence
both modes
 - no net rotation, no B-fields
(at the moment)





Run	t_{sim} [kyr]	$t_{\text{sim}}/t_{\text{ff}}^{\text{core}}$	$t_{\text{sim}}/t_{\text{ff}}$	N_{sinks}	$\langle M \rangle [M_{\odot}]$	M_{max}
TH-m-1	48.01	0.96	0.96	311	0.0634	0.86
TH-m-2	45.46	0.91	0.91	429	0.0461	0.74
BE-c-1	27.52	1.19	0.55	305	0.0595	0.94
BE-c-2	27.49	1.19	0.55	331	0.0571	0.97
BE-m-1	30.05	1.30	0.60	195	0.0873	1.42
BE-m-2	31.94	1.39	0.64	302	0.0616	0.54
BE-s-1	30.93	1.34	0.62	234	0.0775	1.14
BE-s-2	35.86	1.55	0.72	325	0.0587	0.51
PL15-c-1	25.67	1.54	0.51	194	0.0992	8.89
PL15-c-2	25.82	1.55	0.52	161	0.1244	12.3
PL15-m-1	23.77	1.42	0.48	1	20	20.0
PL15-m-2	31.10	1.86	0.62	308	0.0653	6.88
PL15-s-1	24.85	1.49	0.50	1	20	20.0
PL15-s-2	35.96	2.10	0.72	422	0.0478	4.50
PL20-c-1	10.67	0.92	0.21	1	20	20.0

ICs with flat inner density profile on average form more fragments

number of protostars

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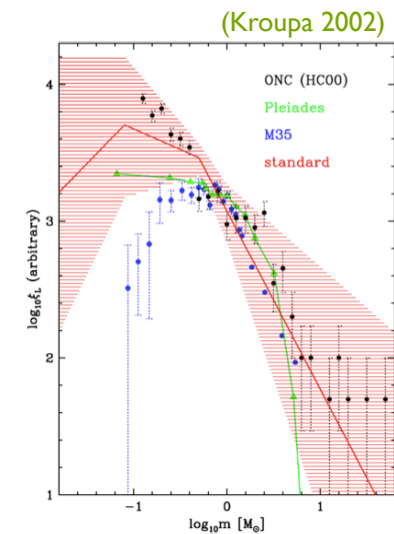
number of
protostars

ICs with flat inner density profile on average form more fragments

however, the real situation is very complex: details of the initial turbulent field matter

stellar mass function

- distribution of stellar masses depends on
 - turbulent initial conditions
 - > mass spectrum of prestellar cloud cores
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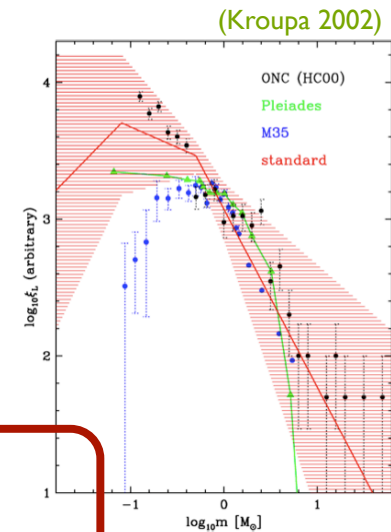


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application to early star formation



thermodynamics & fragmentation

degree of fragmentation depends on *EOS!*

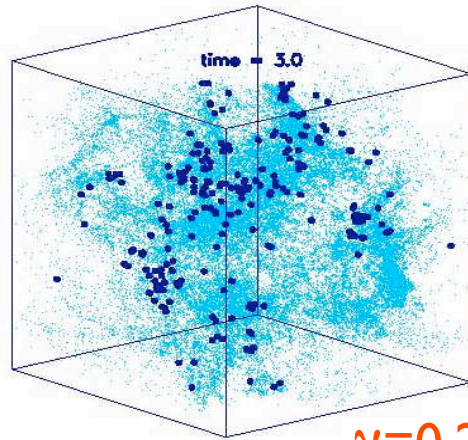
polytropic EOS: $p \propto \rho^\gamma$

$\gamma < 1$: dense cluster of low-mass stars

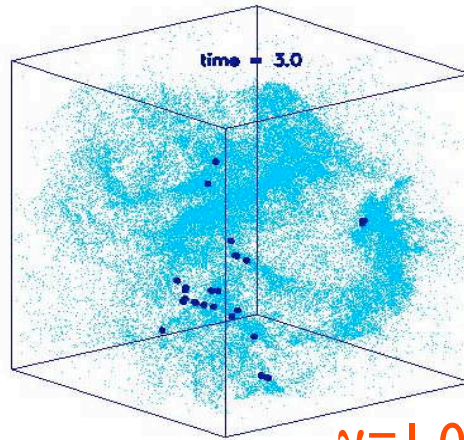
$\gamma > 1$: isolated high-mass stars

(see Li et al. 2003; also Kawachi & Hanawa 1998, Larson 2003)

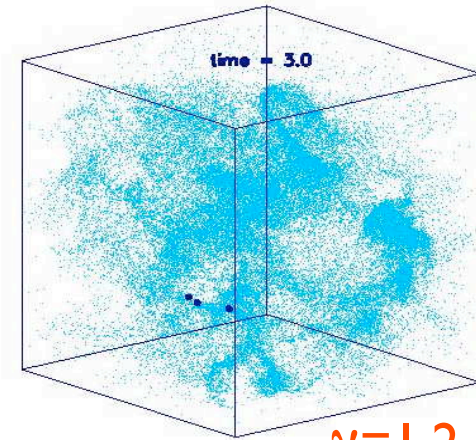
dependency on EOS



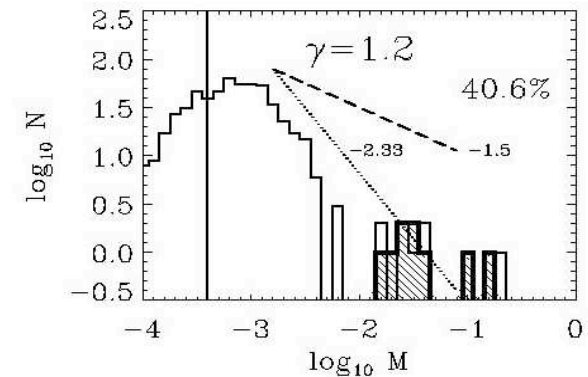
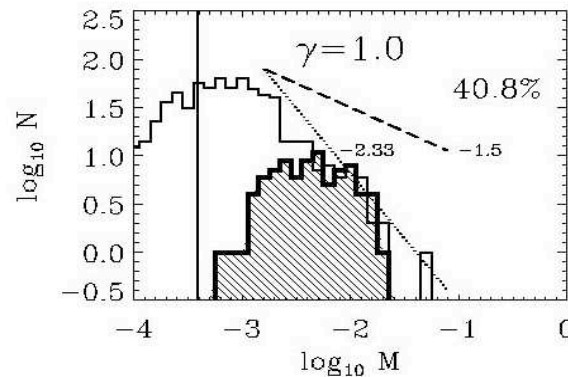
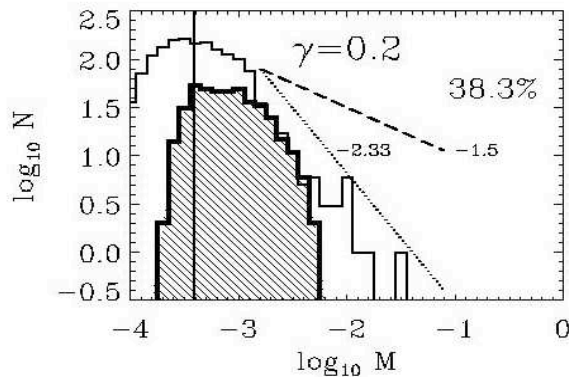
$\gamma=0.2$



$\gamma=1.0$



$\gamma=1.2$

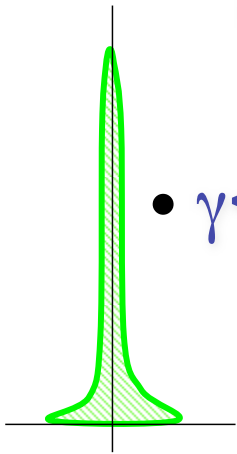


for $\gamma < 1$ fragmentation is enhanced \rightarrow *cluster of low-mass stars*
for $\gamma > 1$ it is suppressed \rightarrow *isolated massive stars*

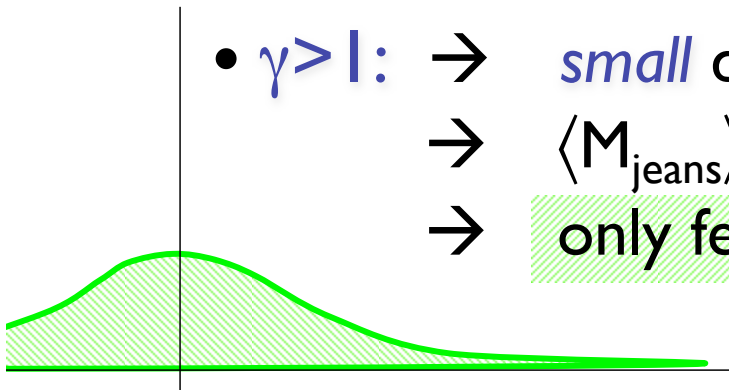
how does that work?

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

$$(2) \mathbf{M}_{\text{jeans}} \propto \gamma^{3/2} \rho^{(3\gamma-4)/2}$$

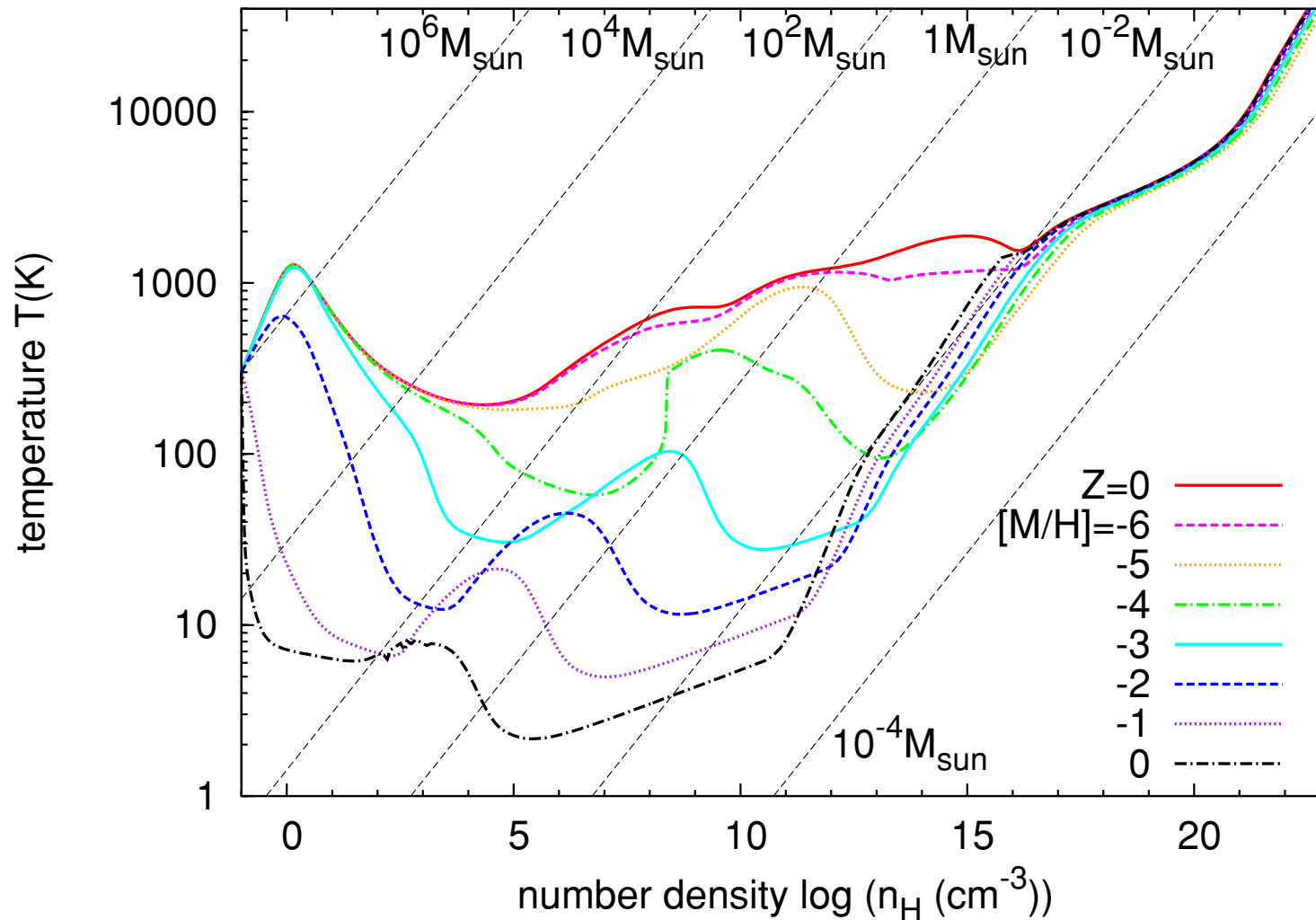


- $\gamma < 1$: \rightarrow *large* density excursion for given pressure
 - \rightarrow $\langle M_{\text{jeans}} \rangle$ becomes small
 - \rightarrow number of fluctuations with $M > M_{\text{jeans}}$ is large



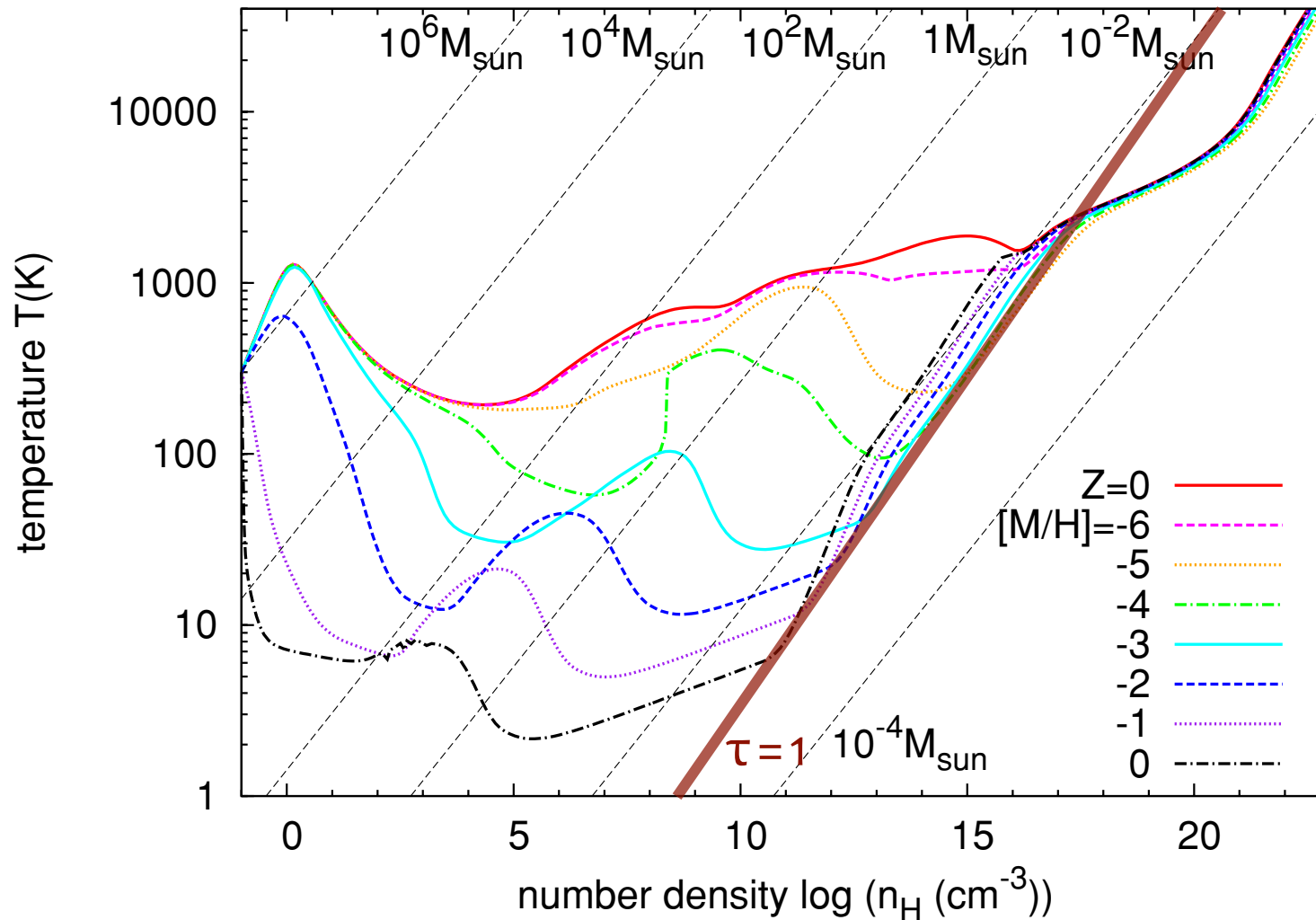
- $\gamma > 1$: \rightarrow *small* density excursion for given pressure
 - \rightarrow $\langle M_{\text{jeans}} \rangle$ is large
 - \rightarrow only few and massive clumps exceed M_{jeans}

EOS as function of metallicity



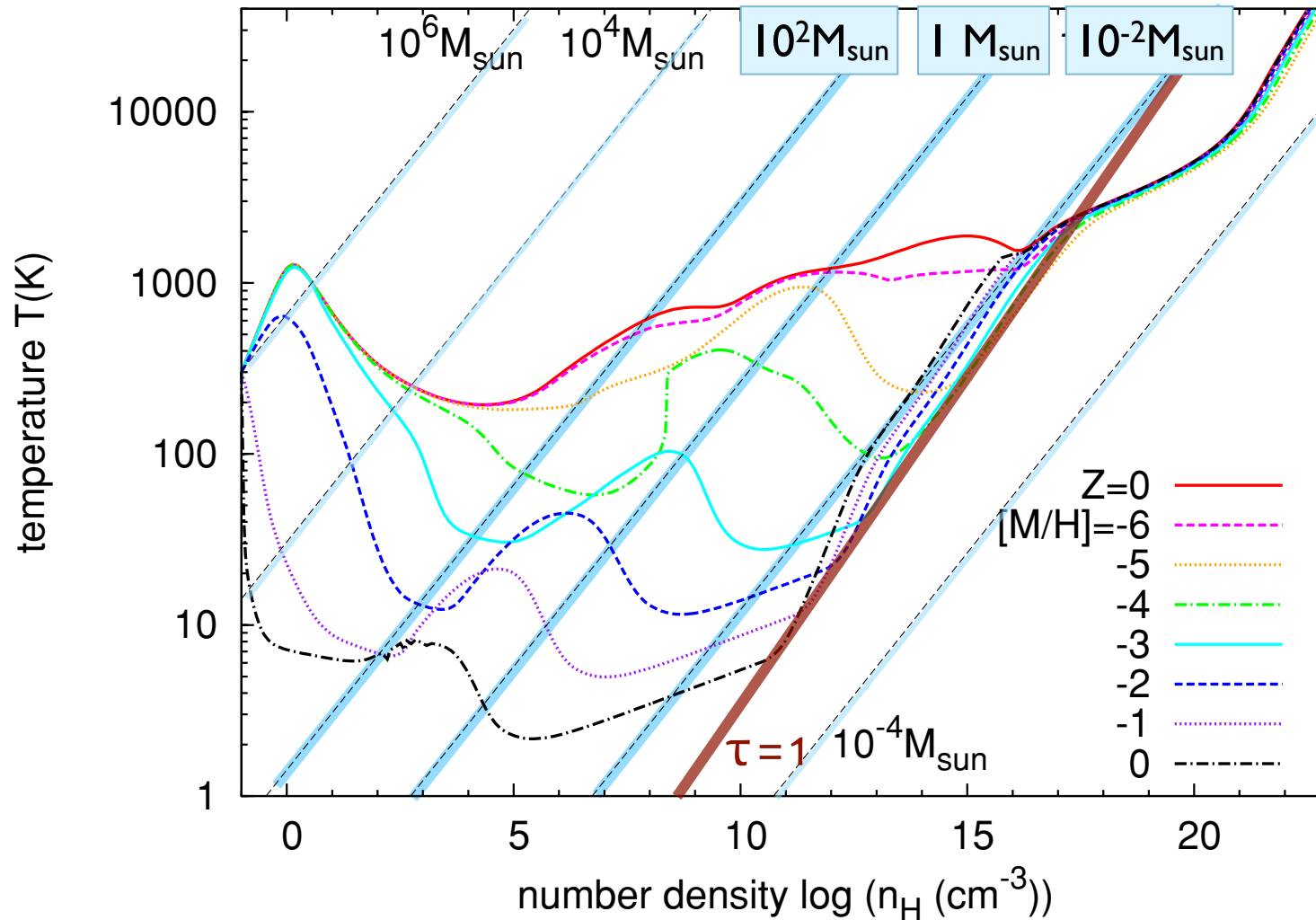
(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

EOS as function of metallicity



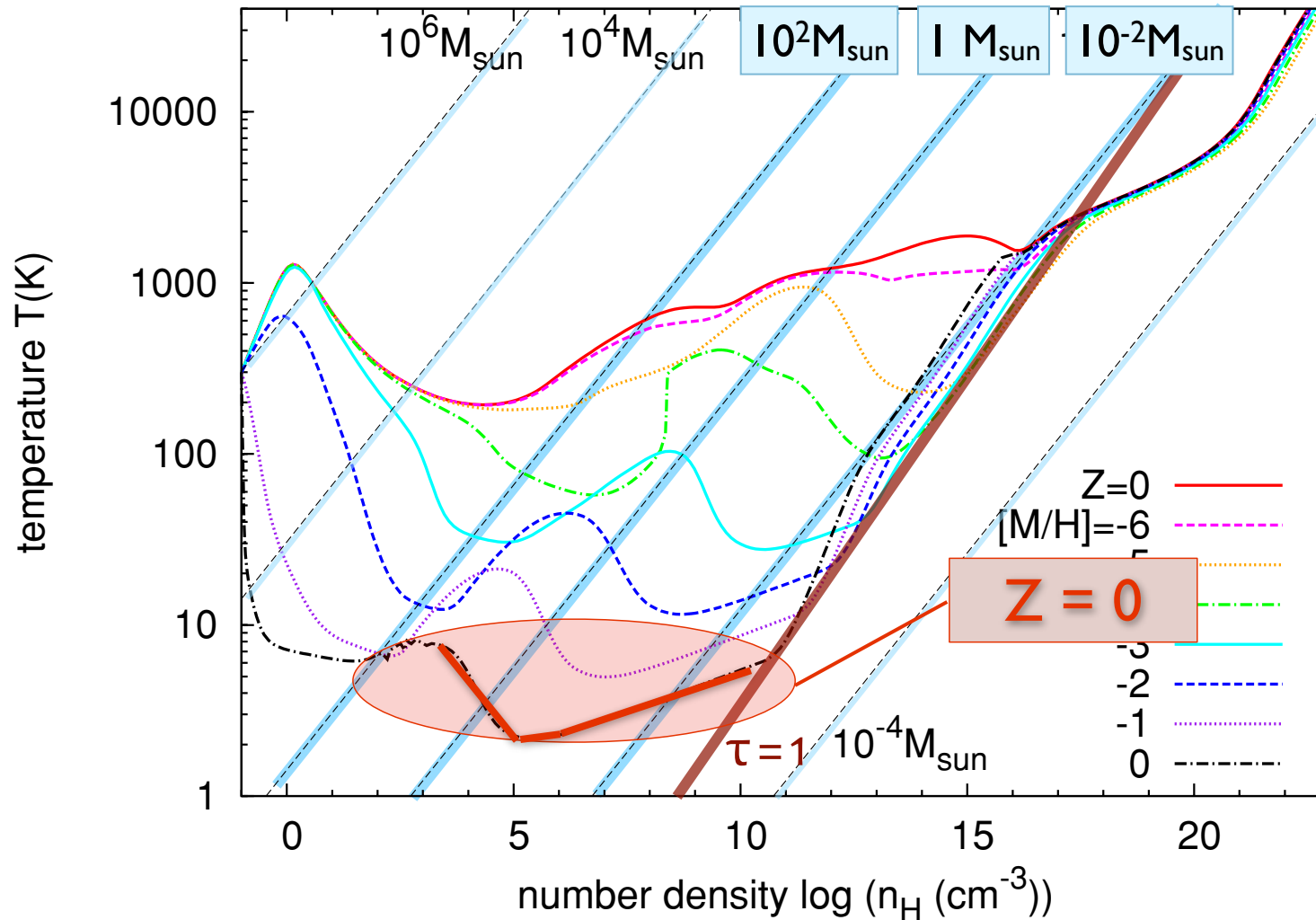
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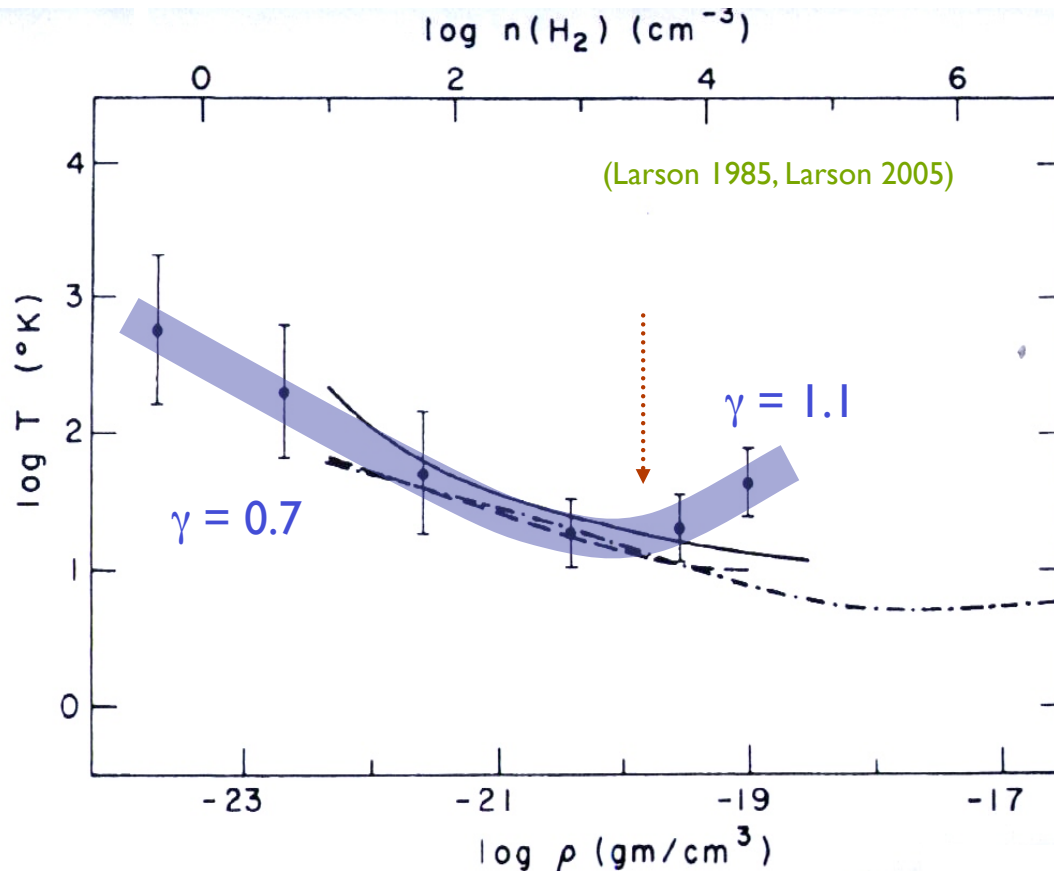
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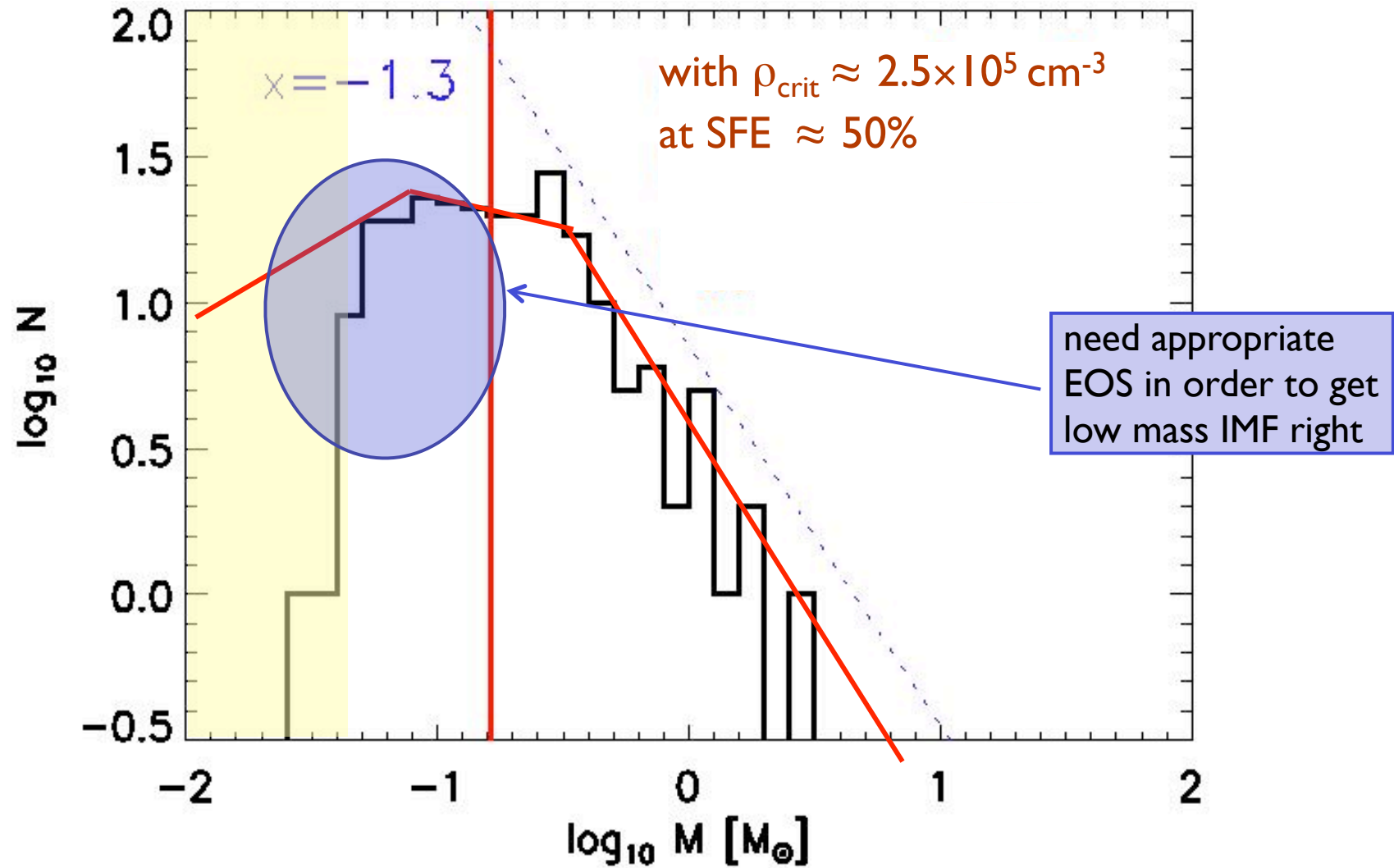


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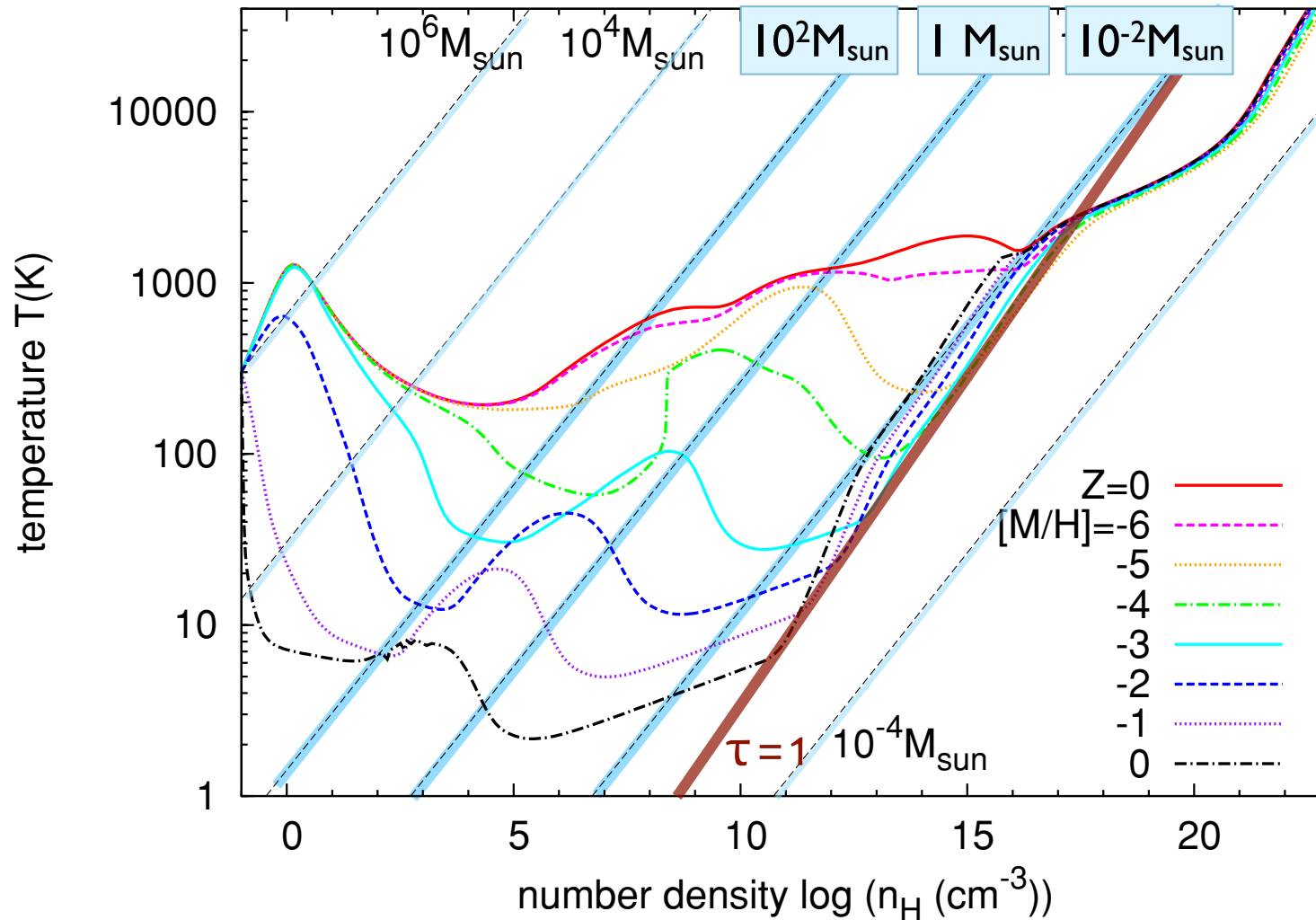
present-day star formation



IMF in nearby molecular clouds

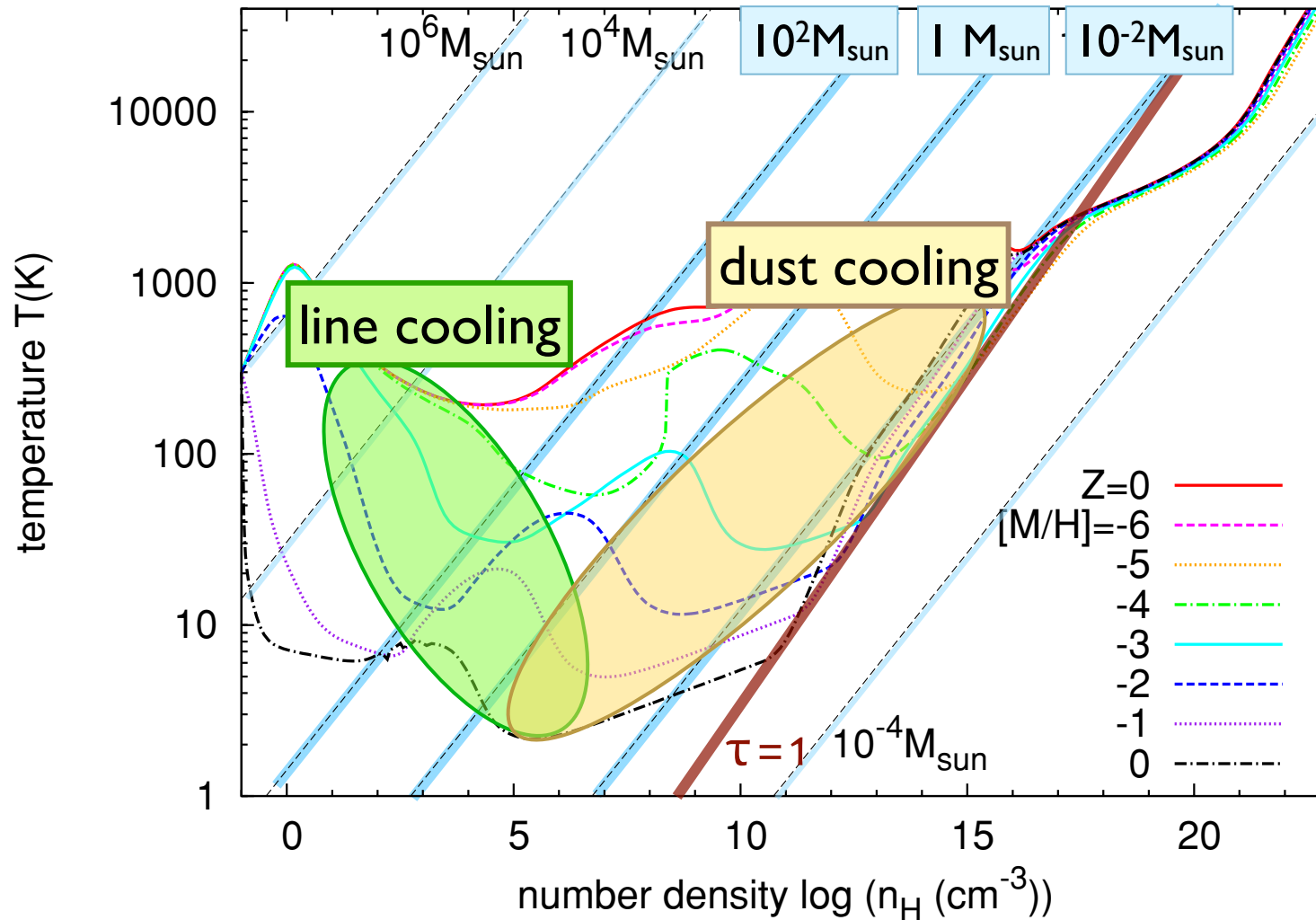


EOS as function of metallicity



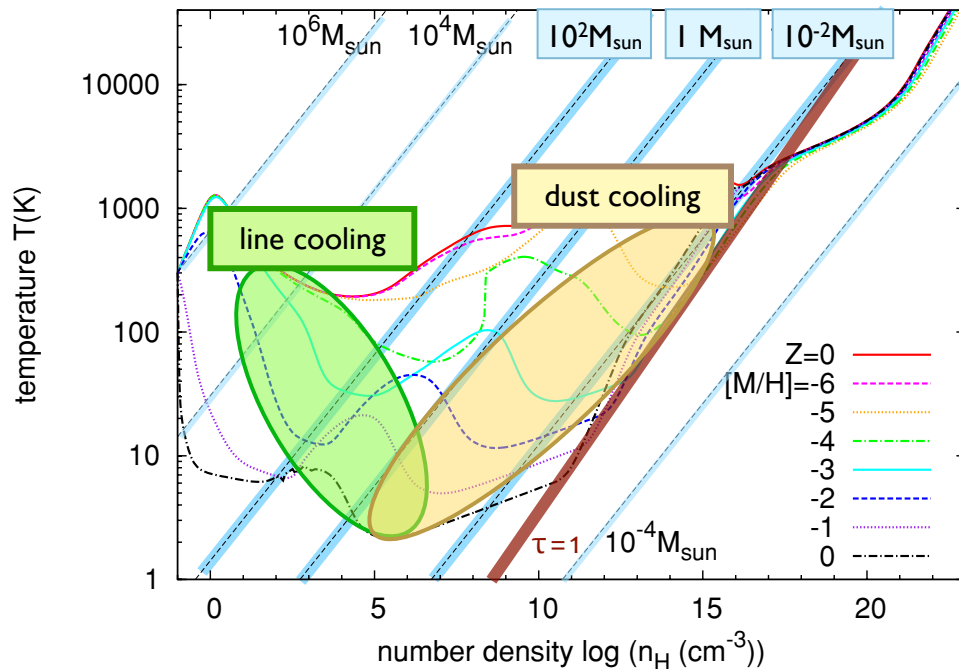
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EOS as function of metallicity



(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

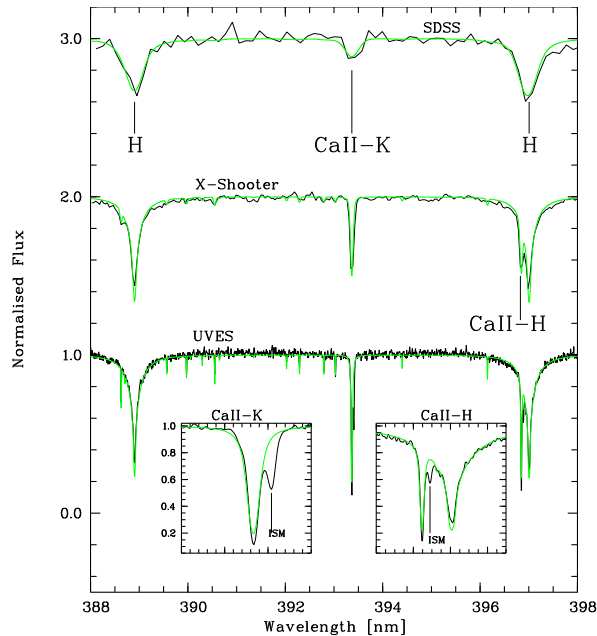
transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



two competing models:

- cooling due to atomic fine-structure lines ($Z > 10^{-3.5} Z_{\text{sun}}$)
- cooling due to coupling between gas and dust ($Z > 10^{-5 \dots -6} Z_{\text{sun}}$)
- which one explains origin of extremely metal-poor stars?
NB: lines would only make very massive stars, with $M > \text{few} \times 10 M_{\text{sun}}$.

transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



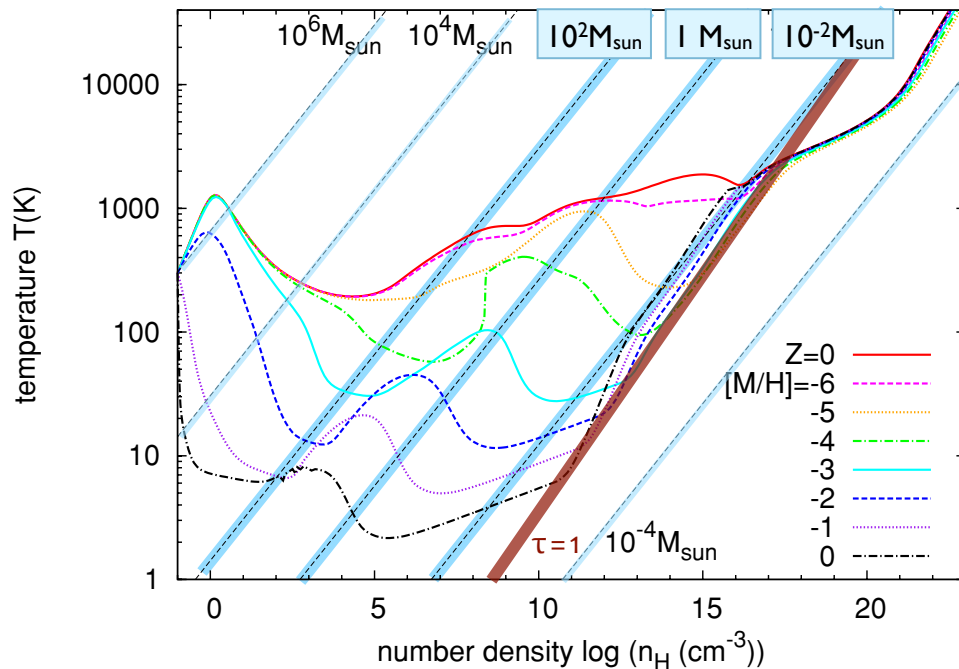
SDSS J1029151+172927

- is first ultra metal-poor star with $Z \sim 10^{-4.5} Z_{\text{sun}}$ for all metals seen (Fe, C, N, etc.)
[see Caffau et al. 2011]
- this is in regime, where metal-lines cannot provide cooling
[e.g. Schneider et al. 2011, 2012, Klessen et al. 2012]

- new ESO large program to find more of these stars (120h x-shooter, 30h UVES)
[PI E. Caffau]

Element		+3Dcor.	$[X/H]_{\text{1D}}$ +NLTE cor.	+ 3D cor + NLTE cor	N lines	S_{H}	$A(X)_{\odot}$
C	≤ -3.8	≤ -4.5			G-band		8.50
N	≤ -4.1	≤ -5.0			NH-band		7.86
Mg I	-4.71 ± 0.11	-4.68 ± 0.11	-4.52 ± 0.11	-4.49 ± 0.12	5	0.1	7.54
Si I	-4.27	-4.30	-3.93	-3.96	1	0.1	7.52
Ca I	-4.72	-4.82	-4.44	-4.54	1	0.1	6.33
Ca II	-4.81 ± 0.11	-4.93 ± 0.03	-5.02 ± 0.02	-5.15 ± 0.09	3	0.1	6.33
Ti II	-4.75 ± 0.18	-4.83 ± 0.16	-4.76 ± 0.18	-4.84 ± 0.16	6	1.0	4.90
Fe I	-4.73 ± 0.13	-5.02 ± 0.10	-4.60 ± 0.13	-4.89 ± 0.10	43	1.0	7.52
Ni I	-4.55 ± 0.14	-4.90 ± 0.11			10		6.23
Sr II	≤ -5.10	≤ -5.25	≤ -4.94	≤ -5.09	1	0.01	2.92

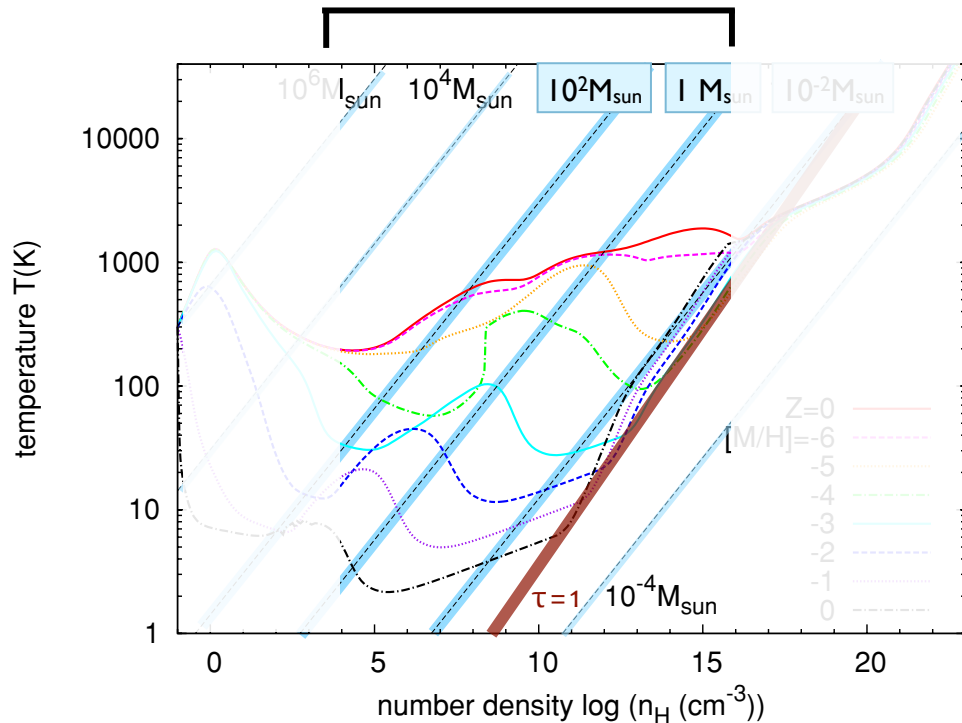
transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



approach problem with high-resolution hydrodynamic calculations of central parts of high-redshift halos

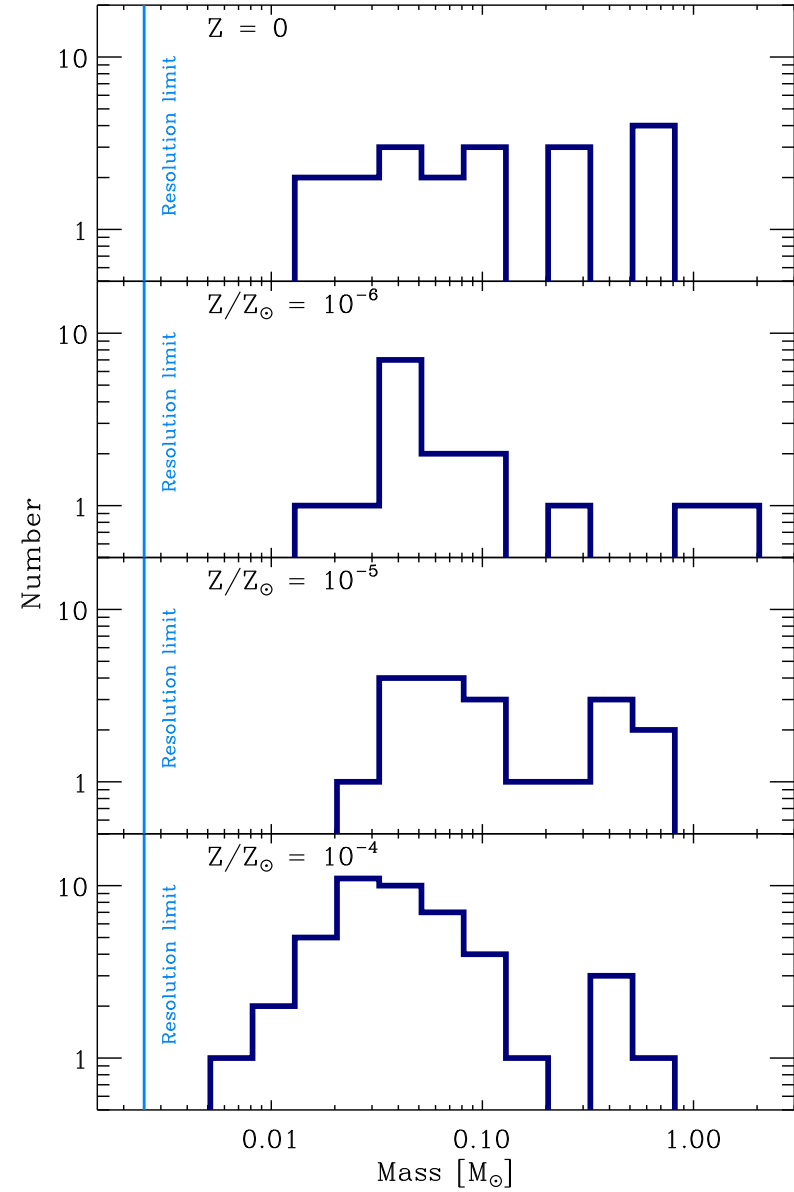
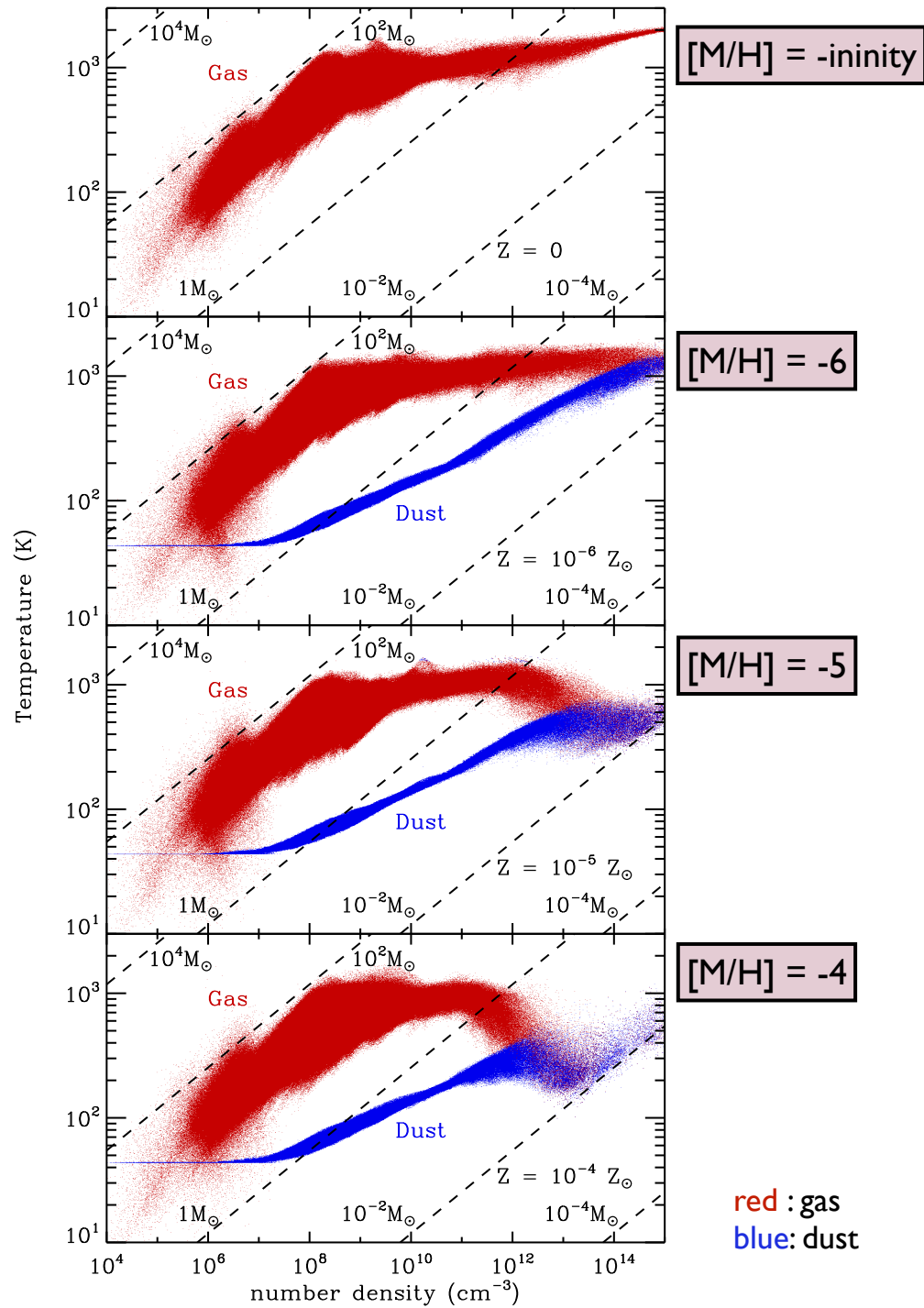
- SPH (40 million particles)
- time-dependent chemistry (with dust)
- sink particles to model star formation
- external dark-matter potential

transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



approach problem with high-resolution hydrodynamic calculations of central parts of high-redshift halos

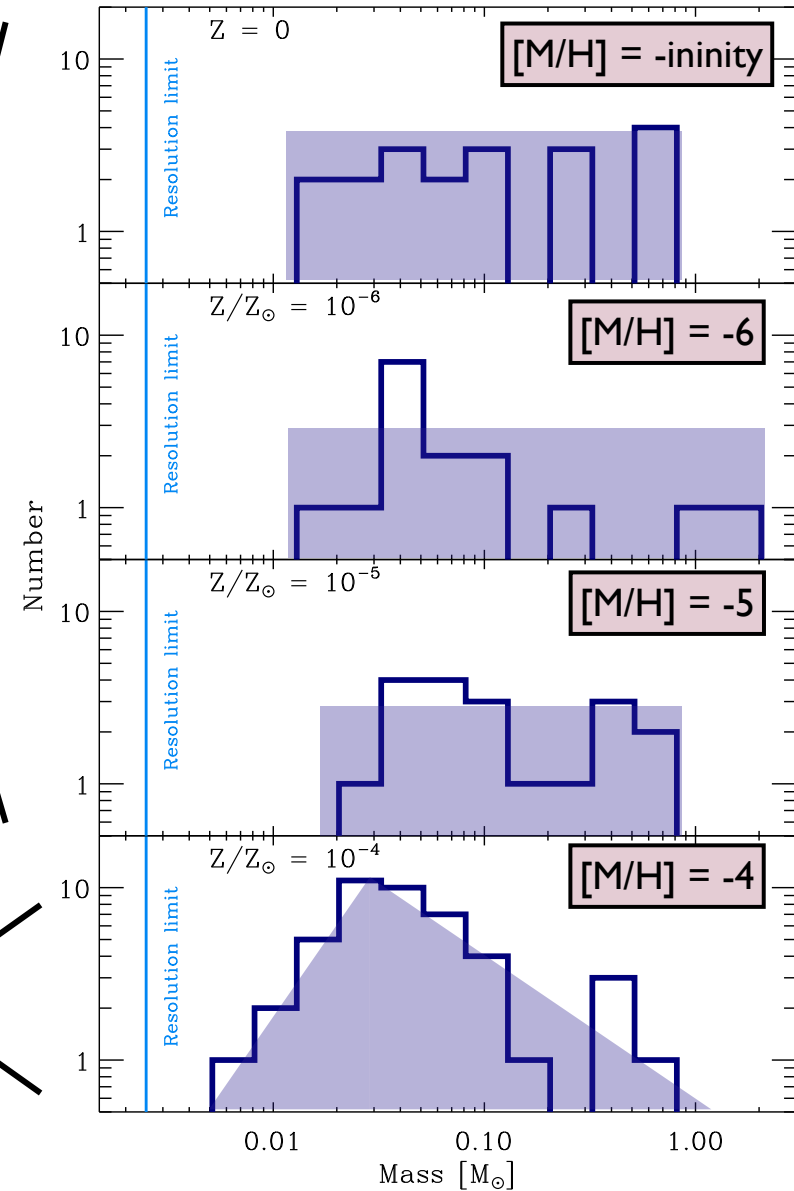
- SPH (40 million particles)
- time-dependent chemistry (with dust)
- sink particles to model star formation
- external dark-matter potential
- focus on relevant density regime (i.e. include dust dip and optically thick regime)



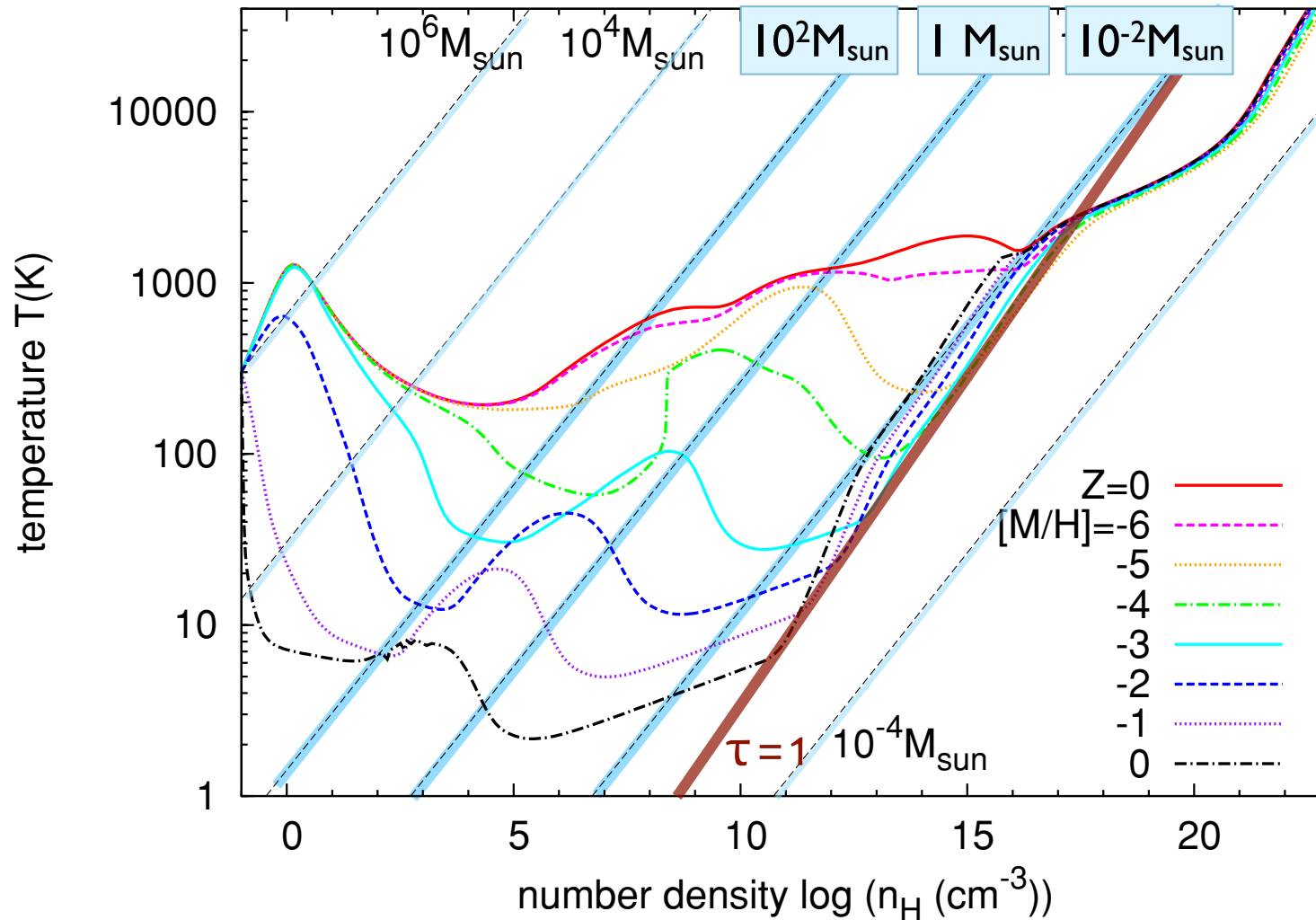
hints for differences
in mass spectrum

disk fragmentation mode

gravoturbulent fragmentation mode

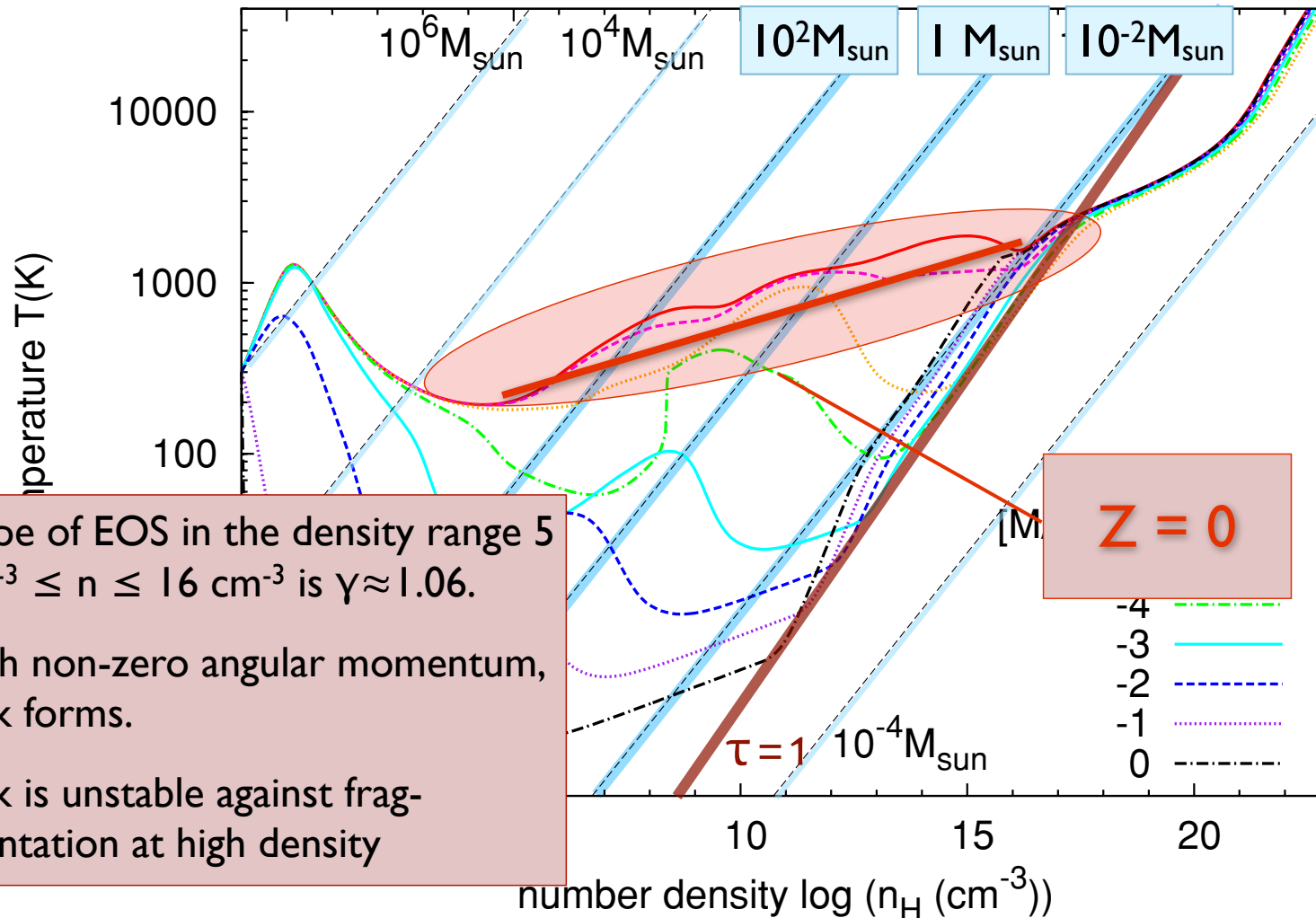


EOS as function of metallicity



(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

EOS as function of metallicity



- slope of EOS in the density range $5 \text{ cm}^{-3} \leq n \leq 16 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ is $\gamma \approx 1.06$.
- with non-zero angular momentum, disk forms.
- disk is unstable against fragmentation at high density

(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

metal-free star formation

- most current numerical simulations of Pop III star formation predict very massive objects (e.g. Abel et al. 2002, Yoshida et al. 2008, Bromm et al. 2009)
- similar for theoretical models (e.g. Tan & McKee 2004)
- there are some first hints of fragmentation, however (Turk et al. 2009, Stacy et al. 2010)

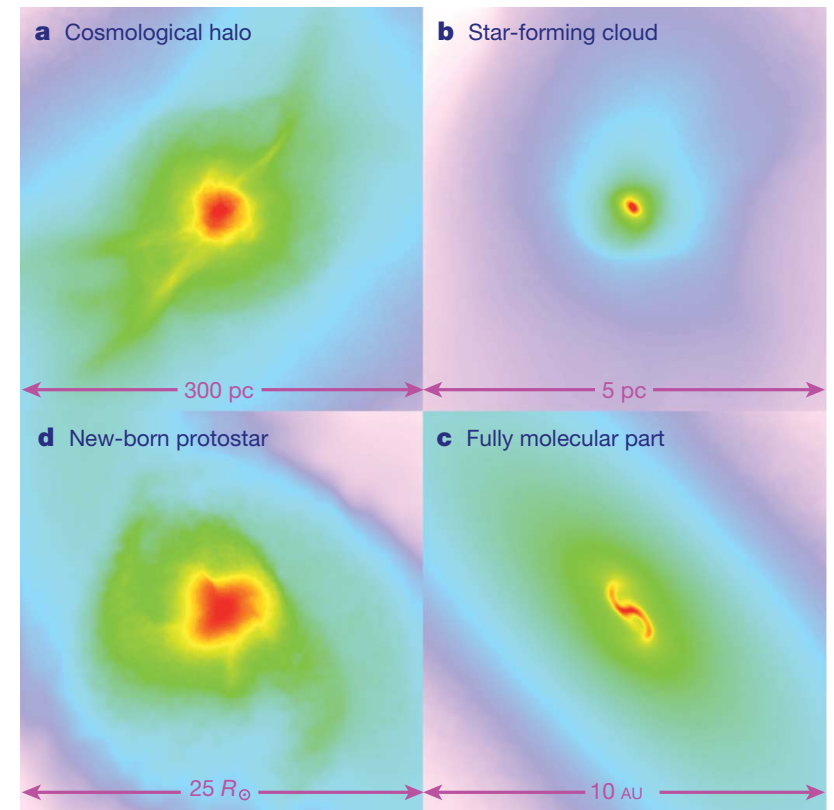
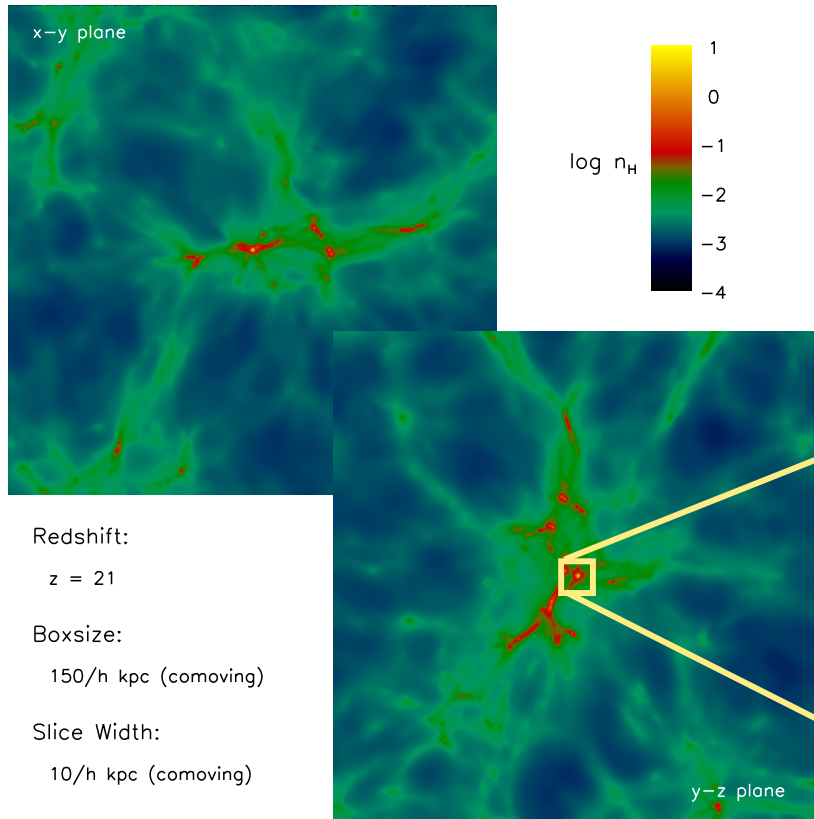


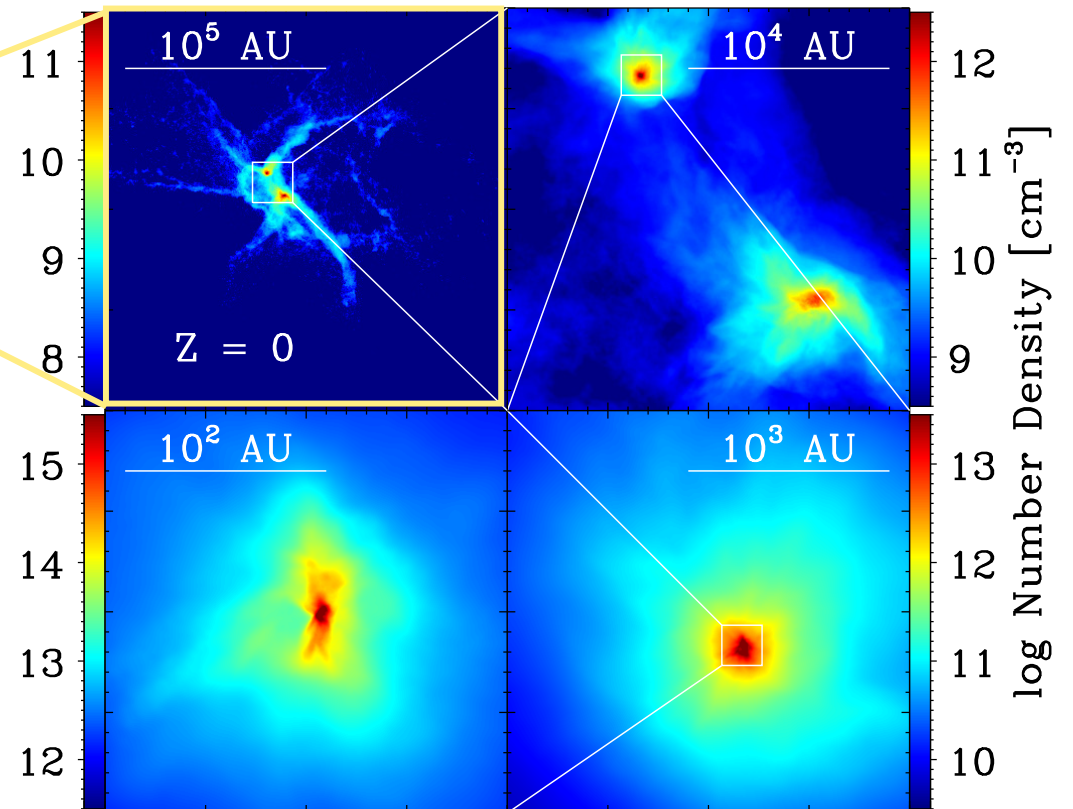
Figure 1 | Projected gas distribution around a primordial protostar. Shown is the gas density (colour-coded so that red denotes highest density) of a single object on different spatial scales. **a**, The large-scale gas distribution around the cosmological minihalo; **b**, a self-gravitating, star-forming cloud; **c**, the central part of the fully molecular core; and **d**, the final protostar. Reproduced by permission of the AAAS (from ref. 20).

(Yoshida et al. 2008, *Science*, 321, 669)

detailed look at accretion disk around first star



successive zoom-in calculation from cosmological initial conditions (using SPH and new grid-code AREPO)

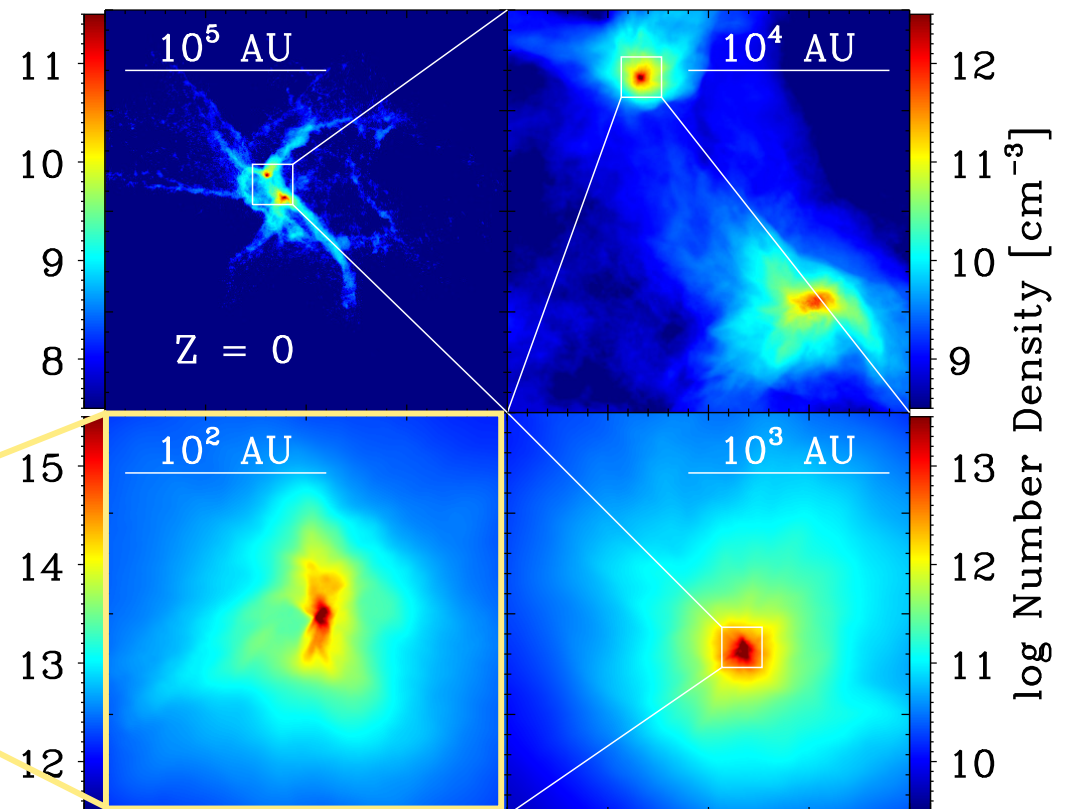


(Greif et al., 2007, ApJ, 670, 1)

(Greif et al. 2011, ApJ, 737, 75, Greif et al. 2012, MNRAS, 424, 399, Dopcke et al. 2012, ApJ in press, arXiv/1203.6842)

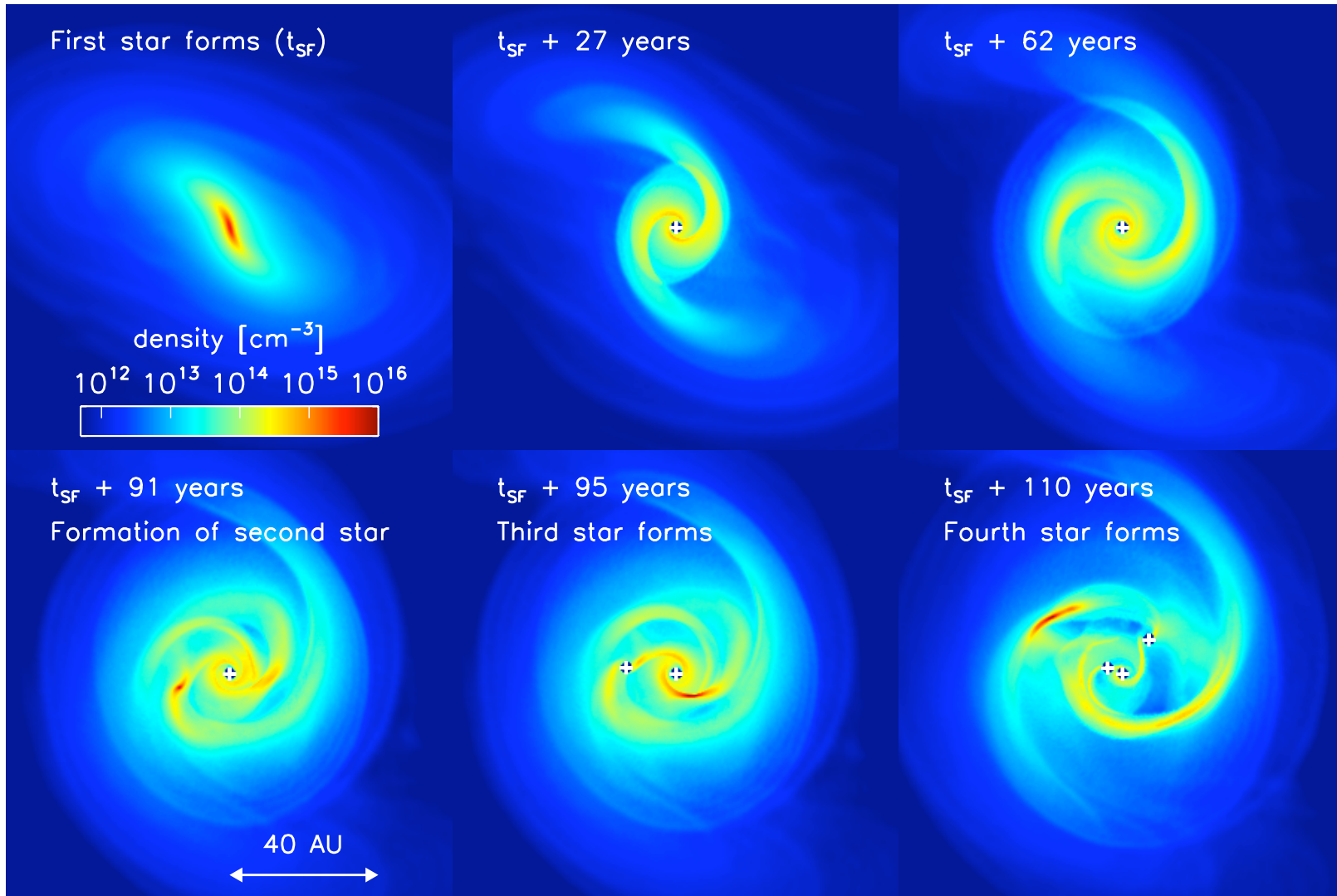
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what is the time evolution of accretion disk around first star to form?

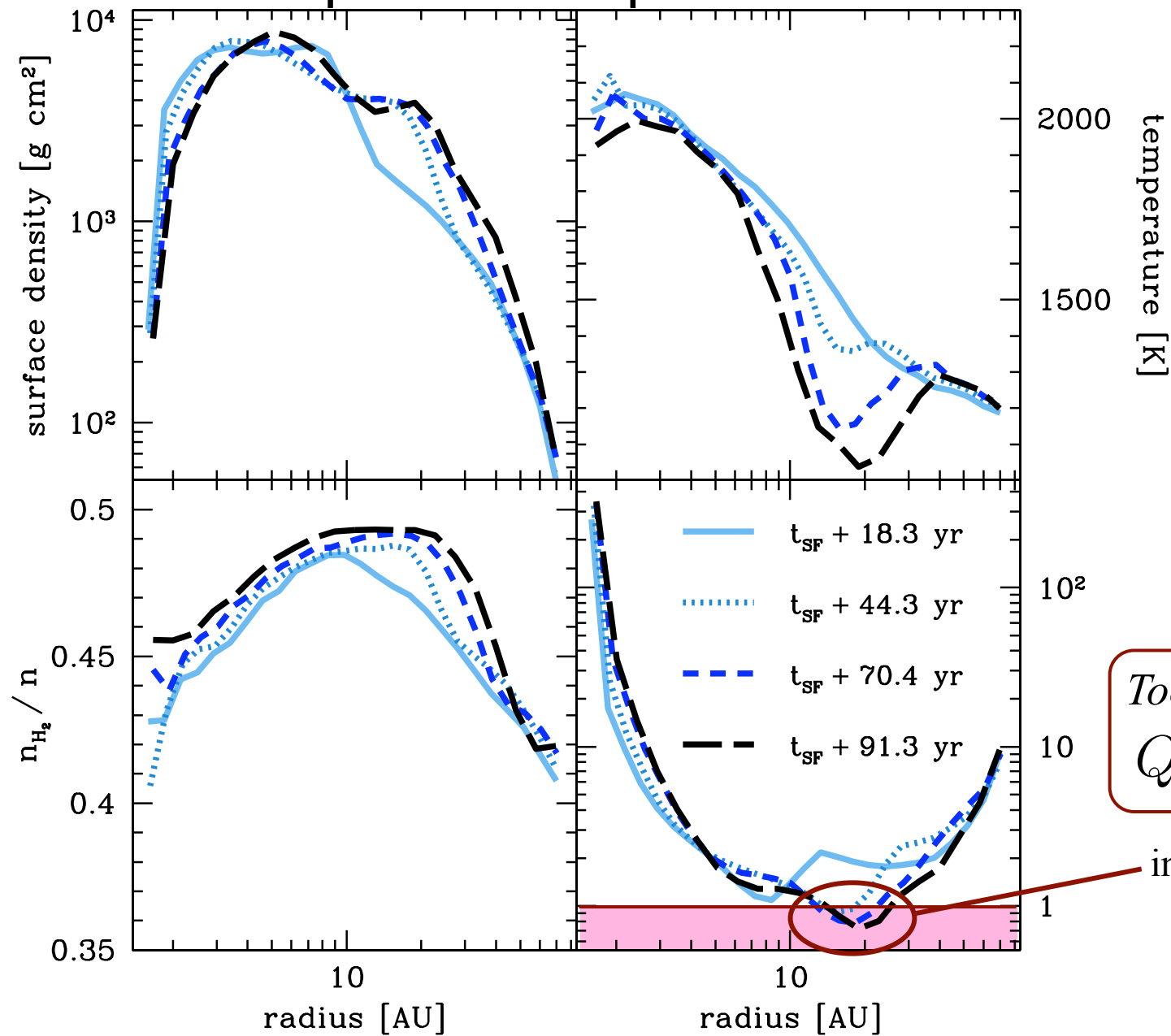
(Greif et al. 2011, ApJ, 737, 75, Greif et al. 2012, MNRAS, 424, 399, Dopcke et al. 2012, ApJ in press, arXiv/1203.6842)



detailed look at accretion disk

Figure 1: Density evolution in a 120 AU region around the first protostar, showing the build-up of the protostellar disk and its eventual fragmentation. We also see ‘wakes’ in the low-density regions, produced by the previous passage of the spiral arms.

important disk parameters



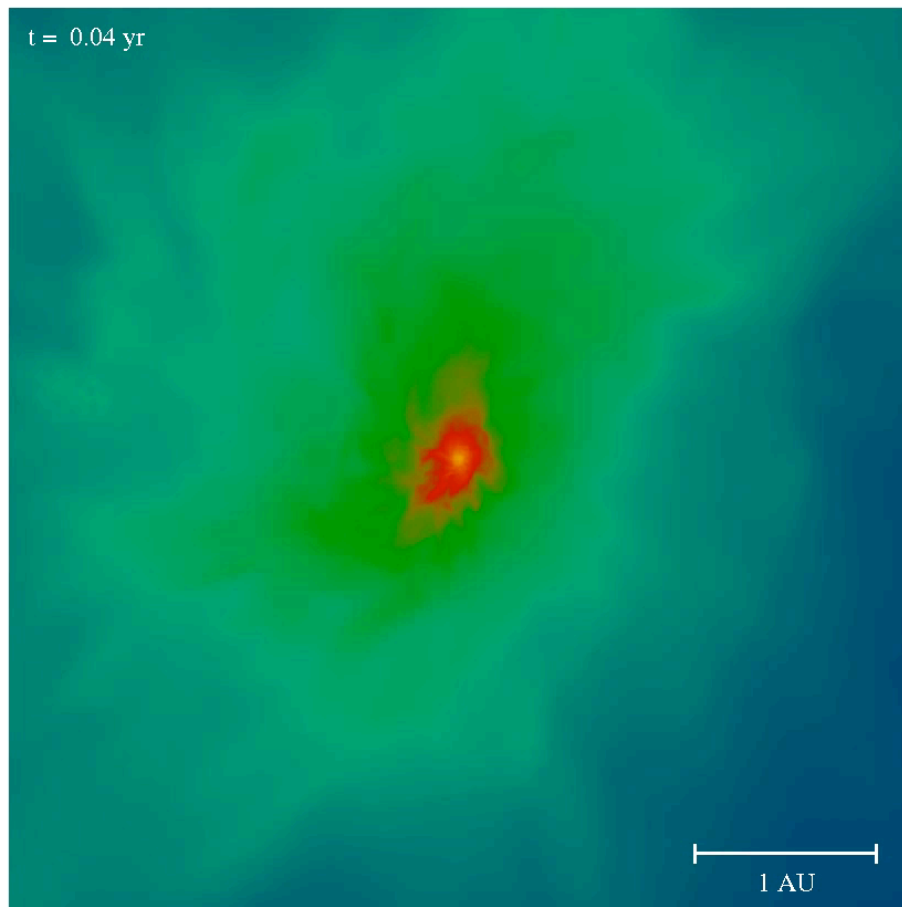
Toomre Q :

$$Q = c_s \kappa / \pi G \Sigma$$

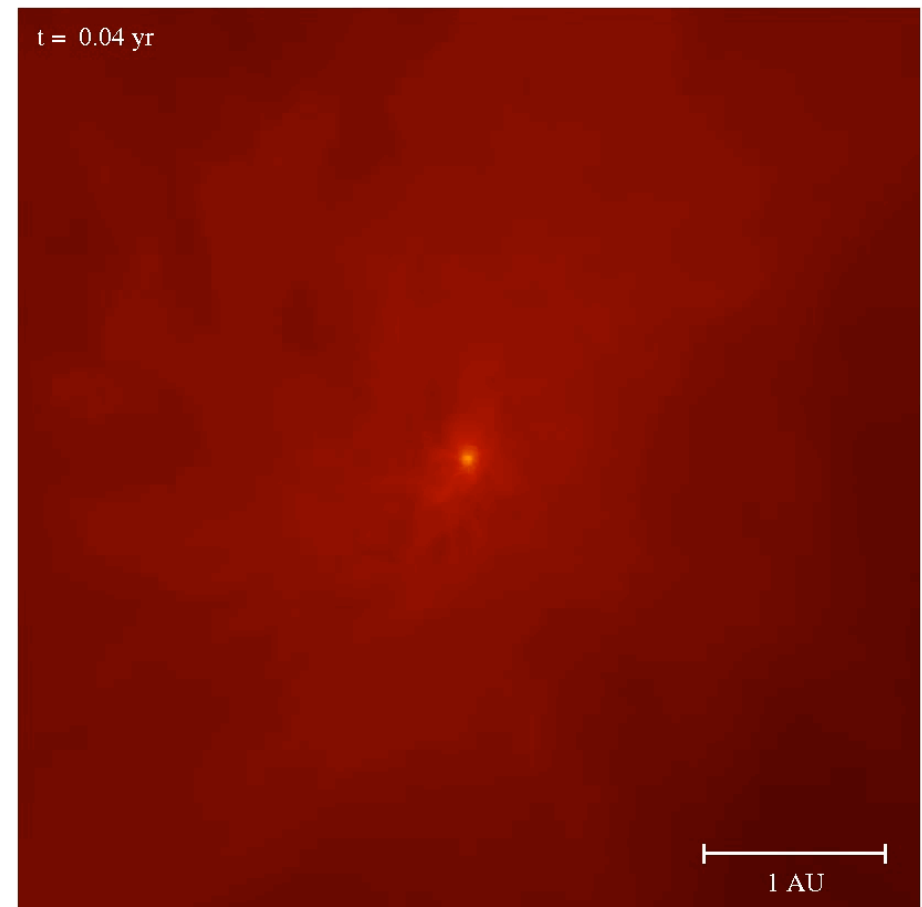
instability for $Q < 1$

Most recent calculations:

*fully sink-less simulations, following the disk build-up over ~ 10 years
(resolving the protostars - first cores - down to 10^5 km $\sim 0.01 R_{\odot}$)*



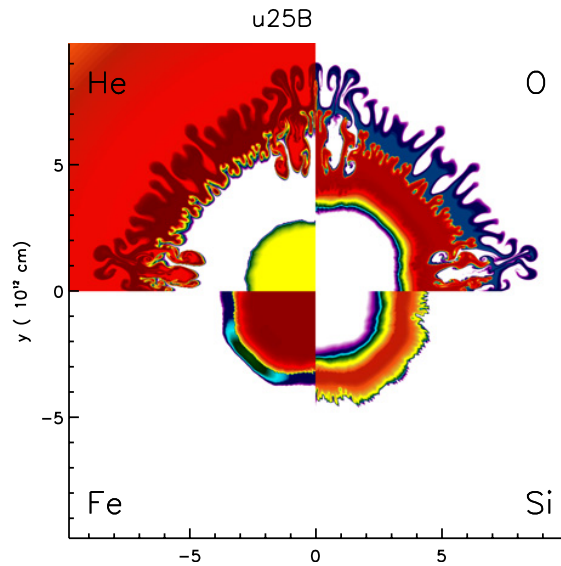
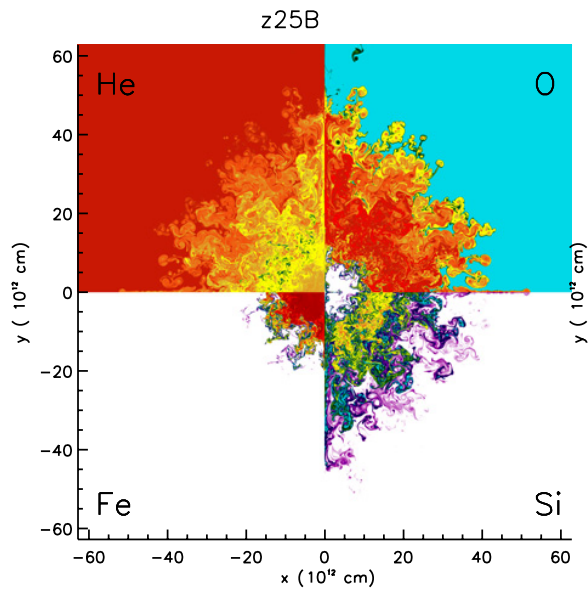
density



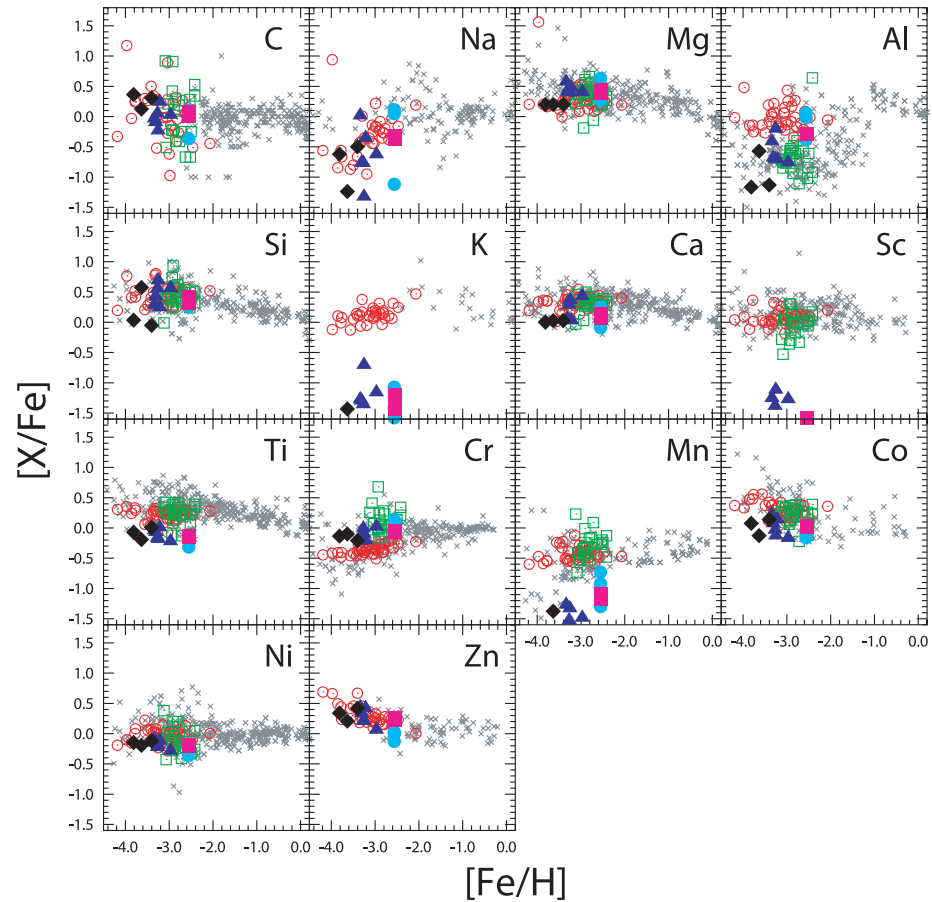
temperature

expected mass spectrum

- *expected IMF is flat* and covers a wide range of masses
- implications
 - because slope > -2 , most *mass is in massive objects* as predicted by most previous calculations
 - most high-mass Pop III stars should be in *binary systems* --> source of *high-redshift gamma-ray bursts*
 - because of ejection, some *low-mass objects* ($< 0.8 M_{\odot}$) might have *survived* until today and could potentially be found in the Milky Way
- consistent with abundance patterns found in second generation stars



(Joggerst et al. 2009, 2010)



(Tominaga et al. 2007)

The metallicities of extremely metal-poor stars in the halo are consistent with the yields of core-collapse supernovae, i.e. progenitor stars with 20 - 40 M_{\odot}

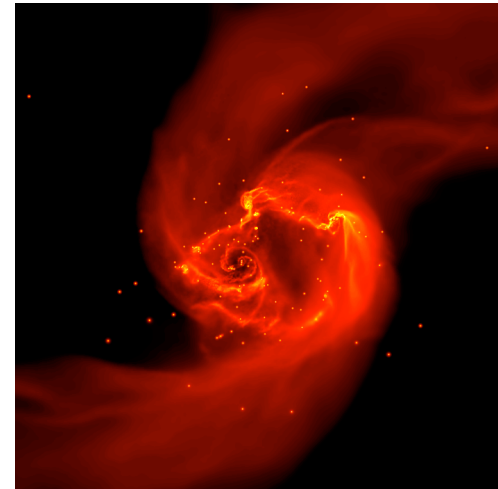
(e.g. Tominaga et al. 2007, Izutani et al. 2009, Joggerst et al. 2009, 2010)

primordial star formation

- just like in present-day SF, we expect
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 - *thermodynamics*
 - *feedback*
 - *magnetic fields*

to influence first star formation.

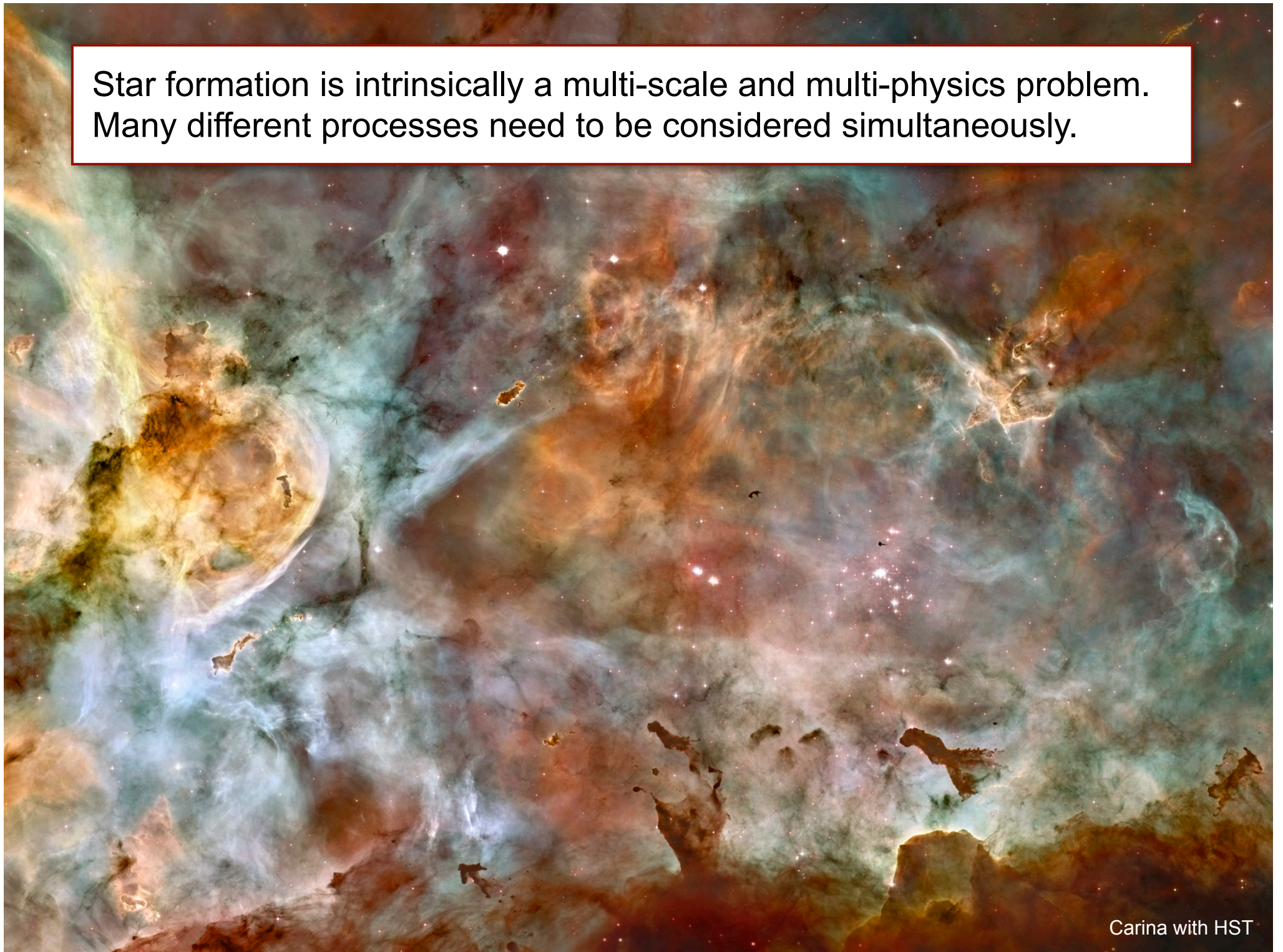
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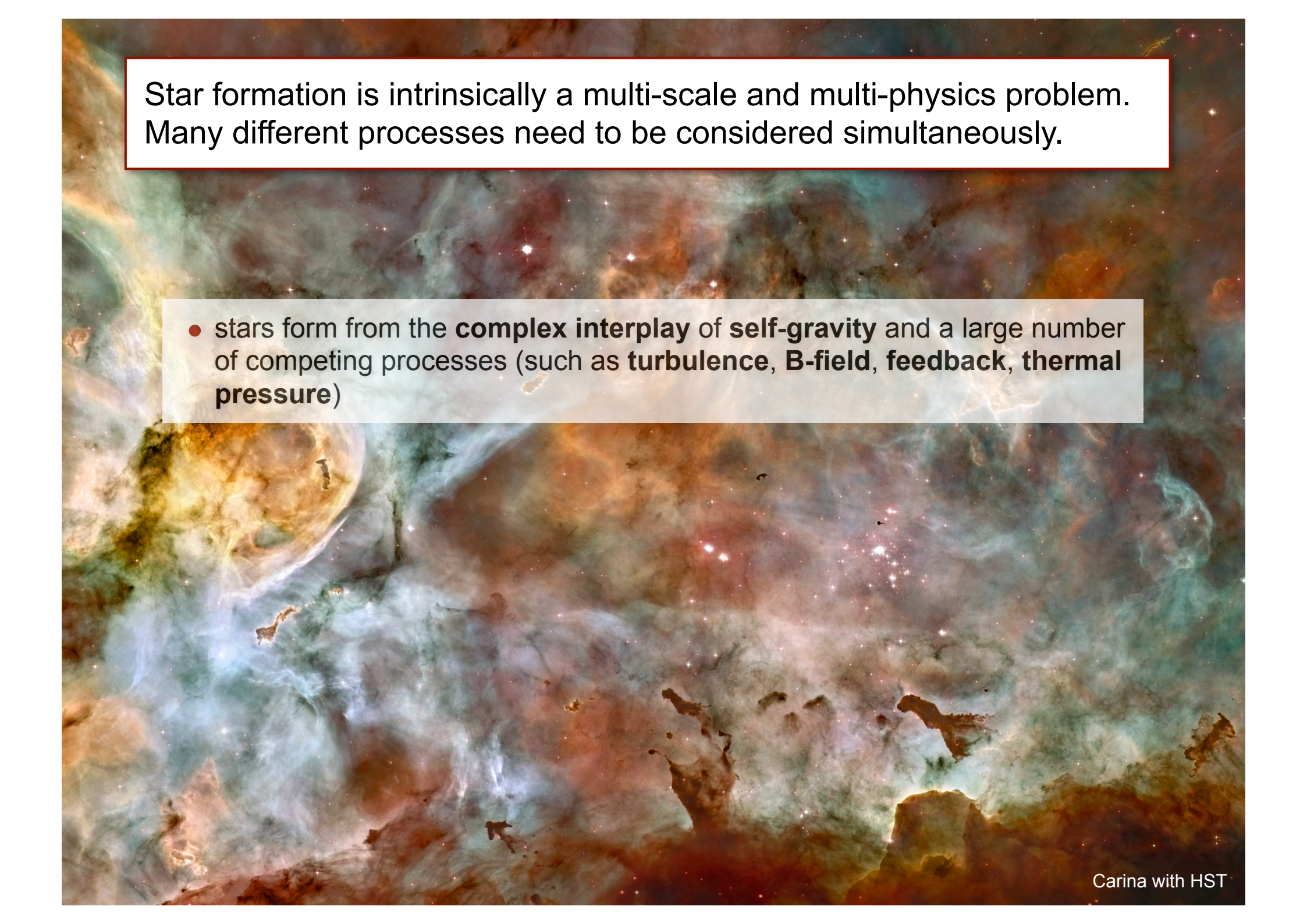


Carina with HST

Star formation is intrinsically a multi-scale and multi-physics problem. Many different processes need to be considered simultaneously.

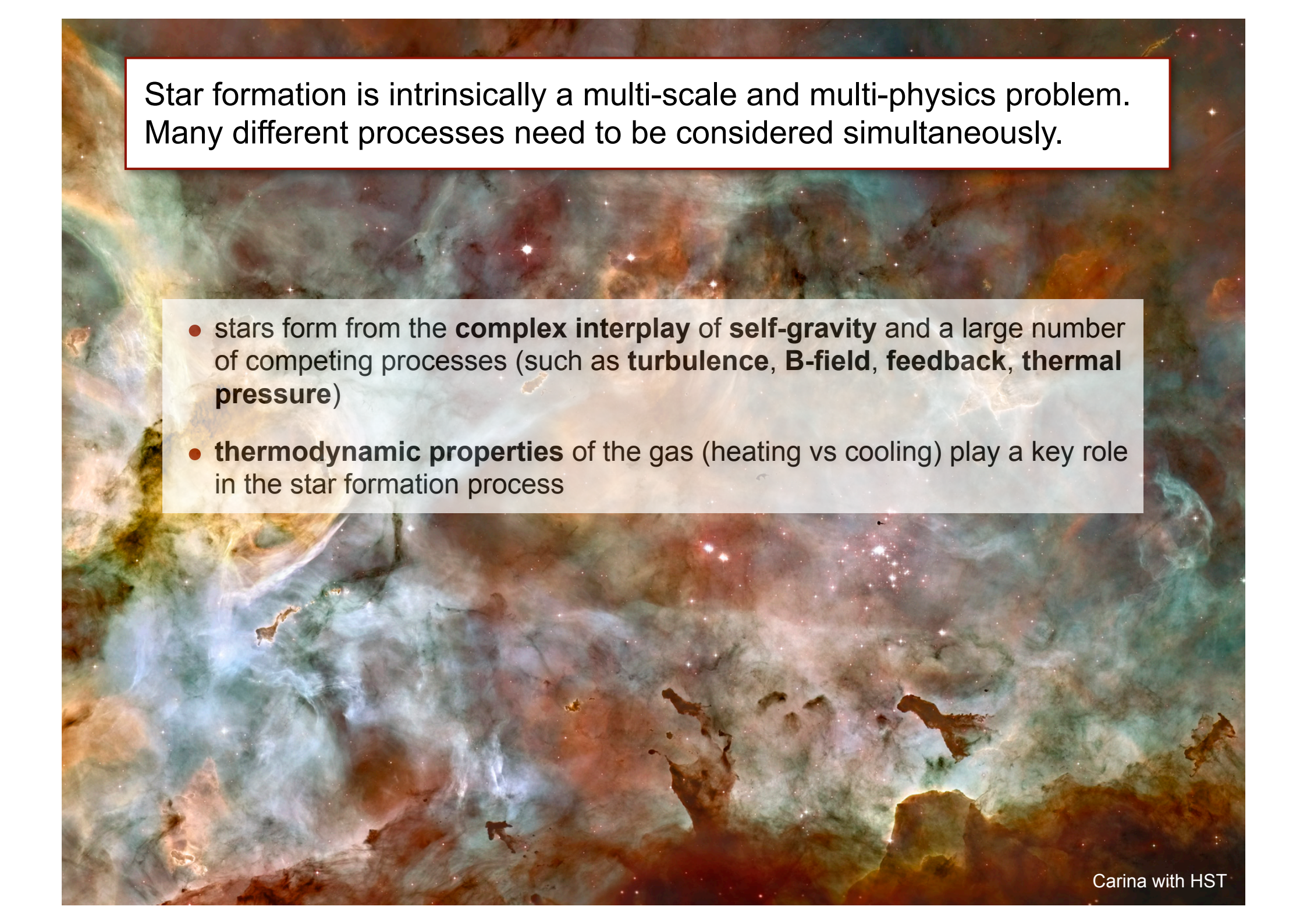


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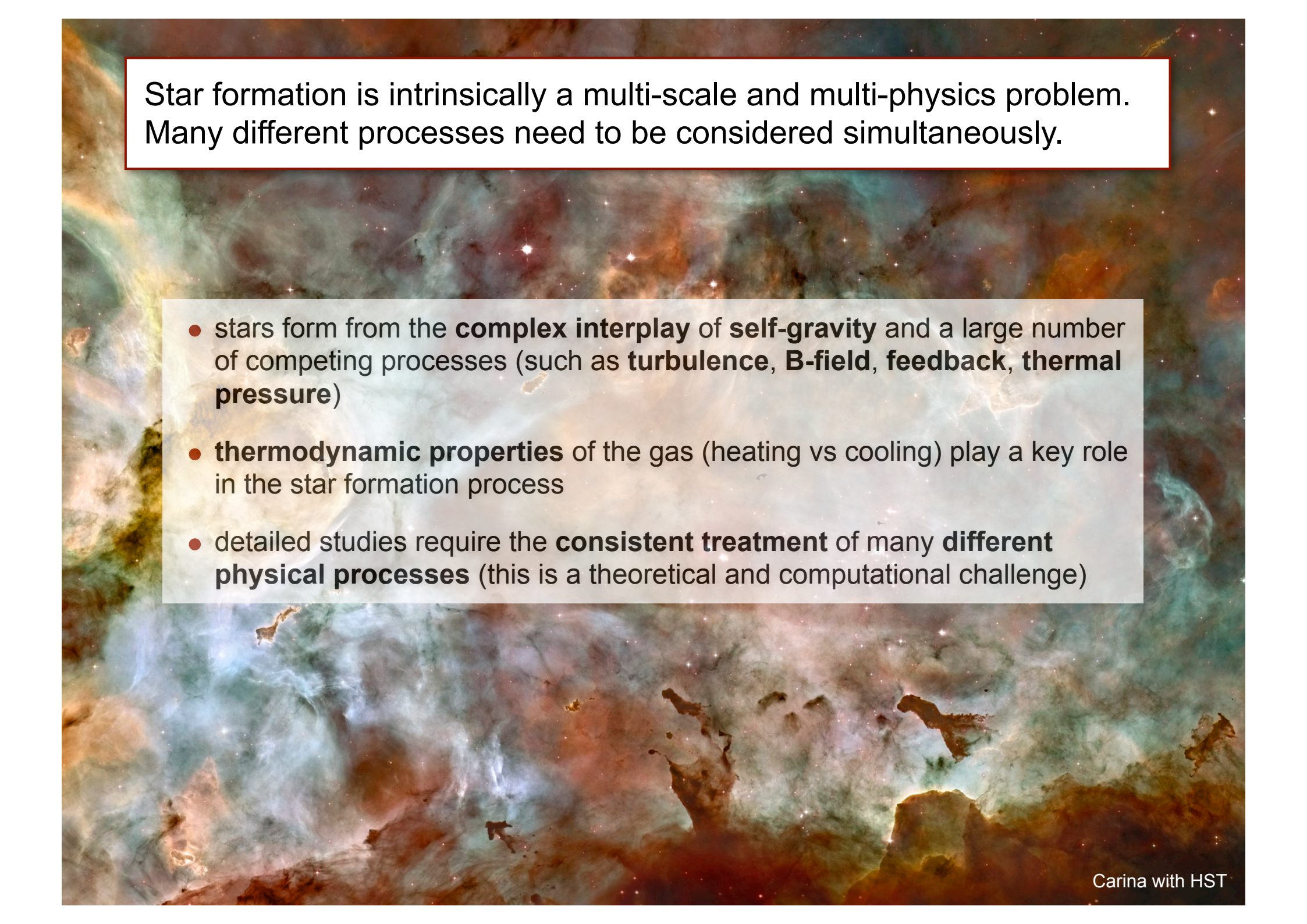
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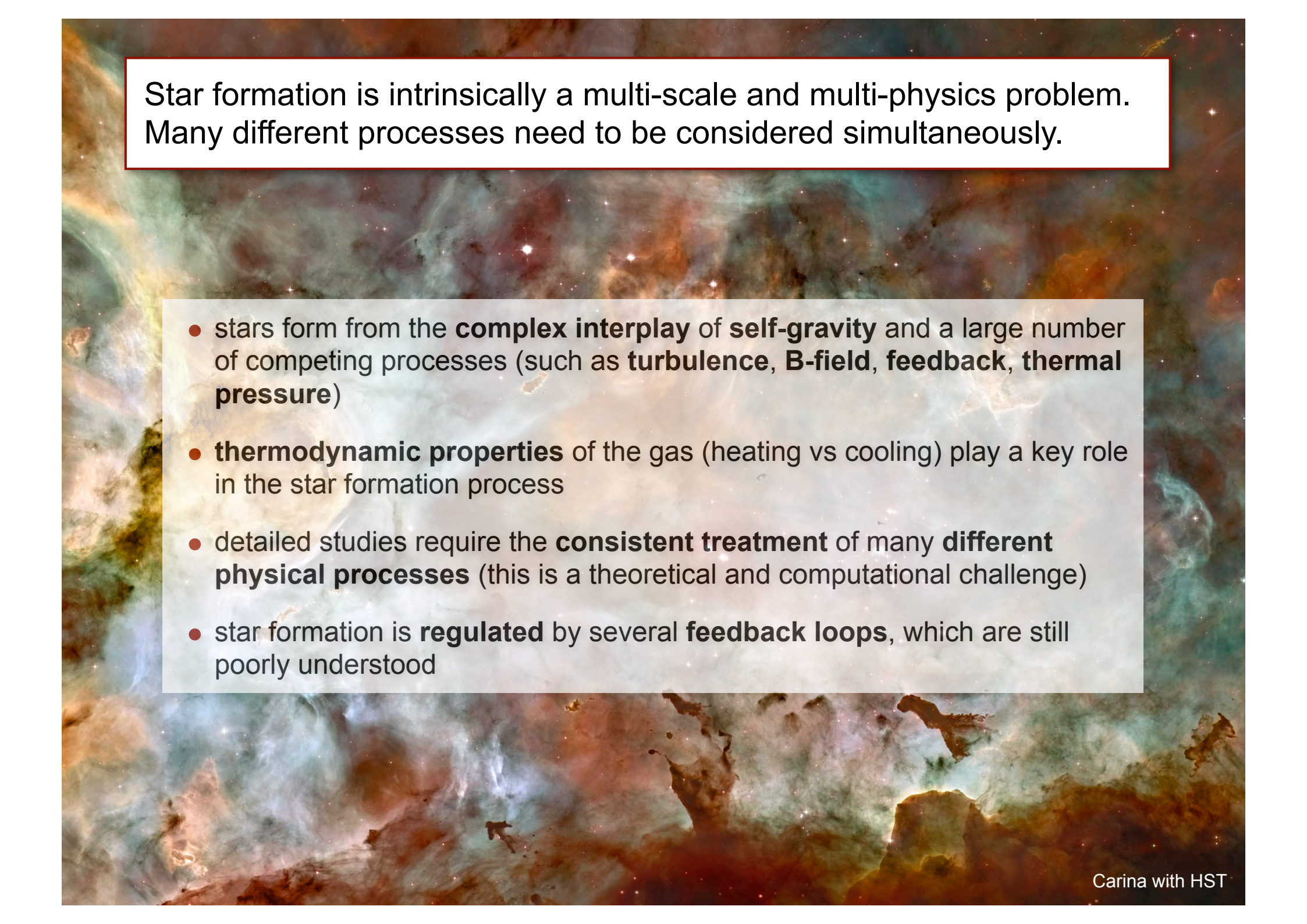
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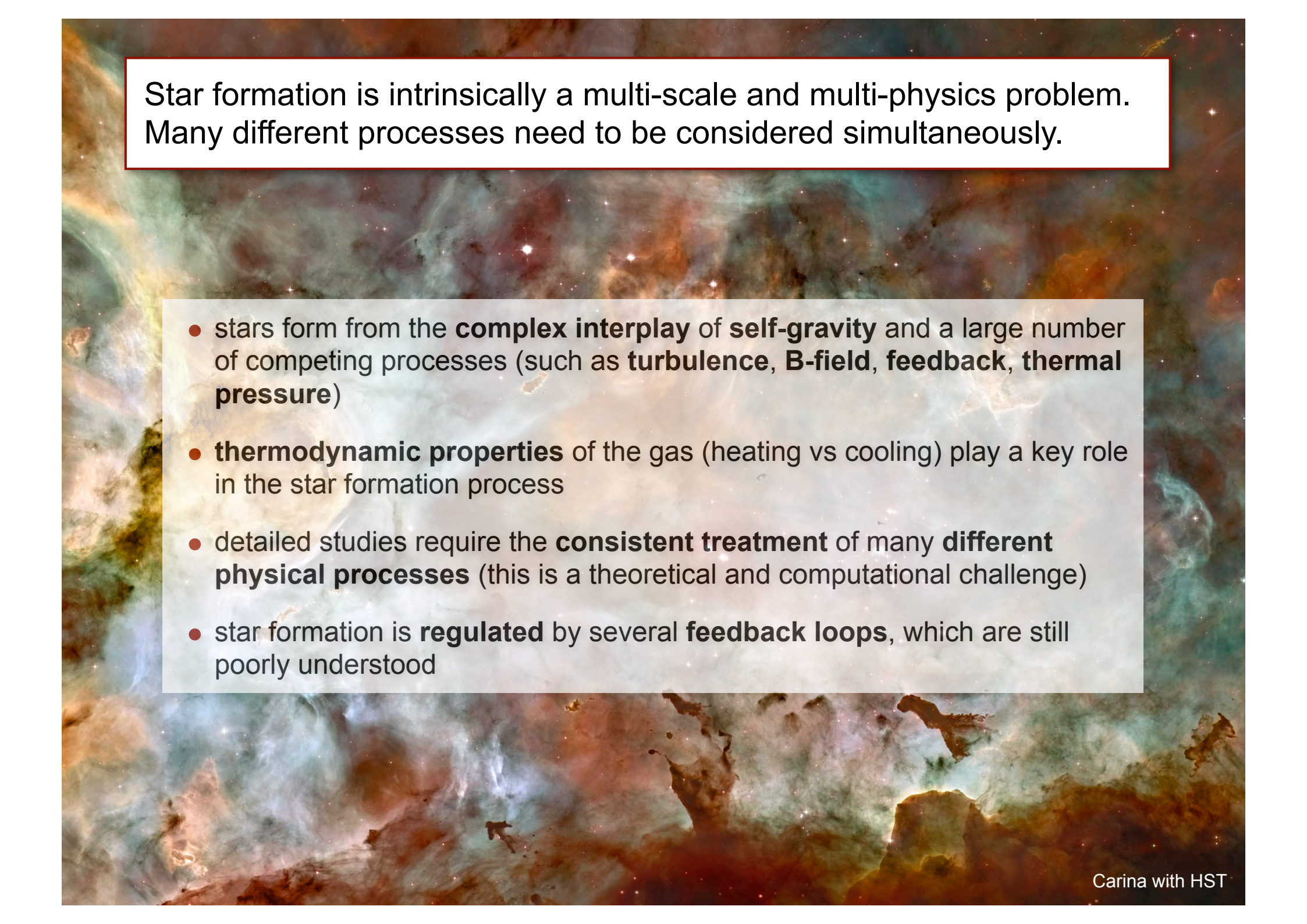
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- **primordial star formation** shares the same **complexities** as present-day star formation

thanks



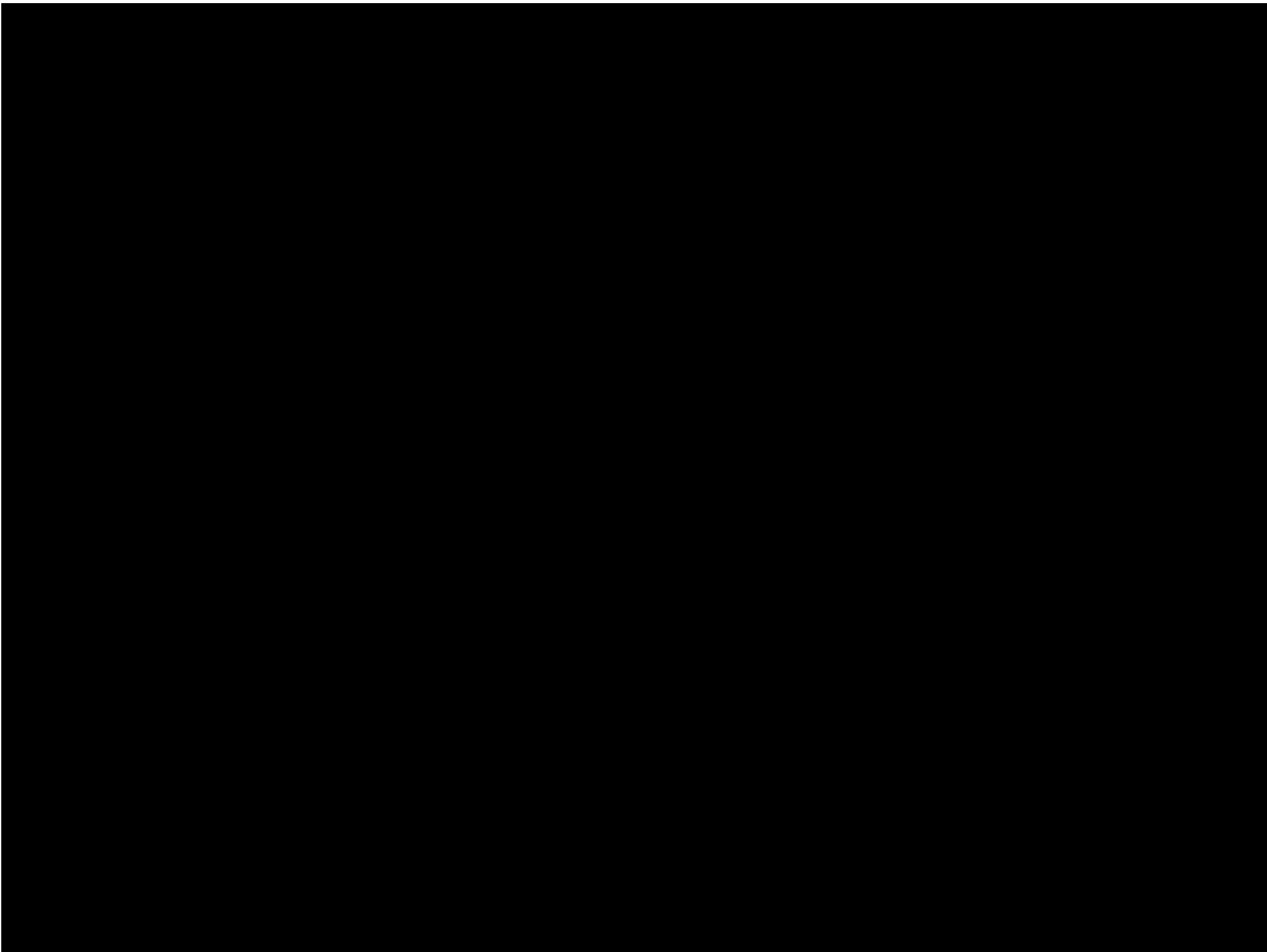
Protostars and Planets VI in July 15 - 20, 2013

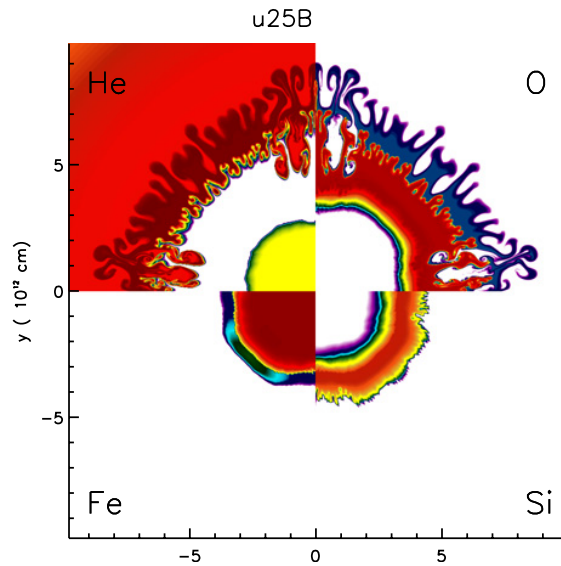
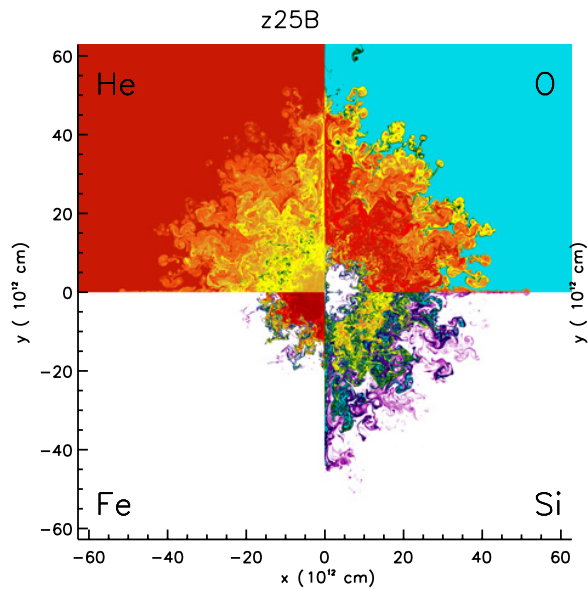




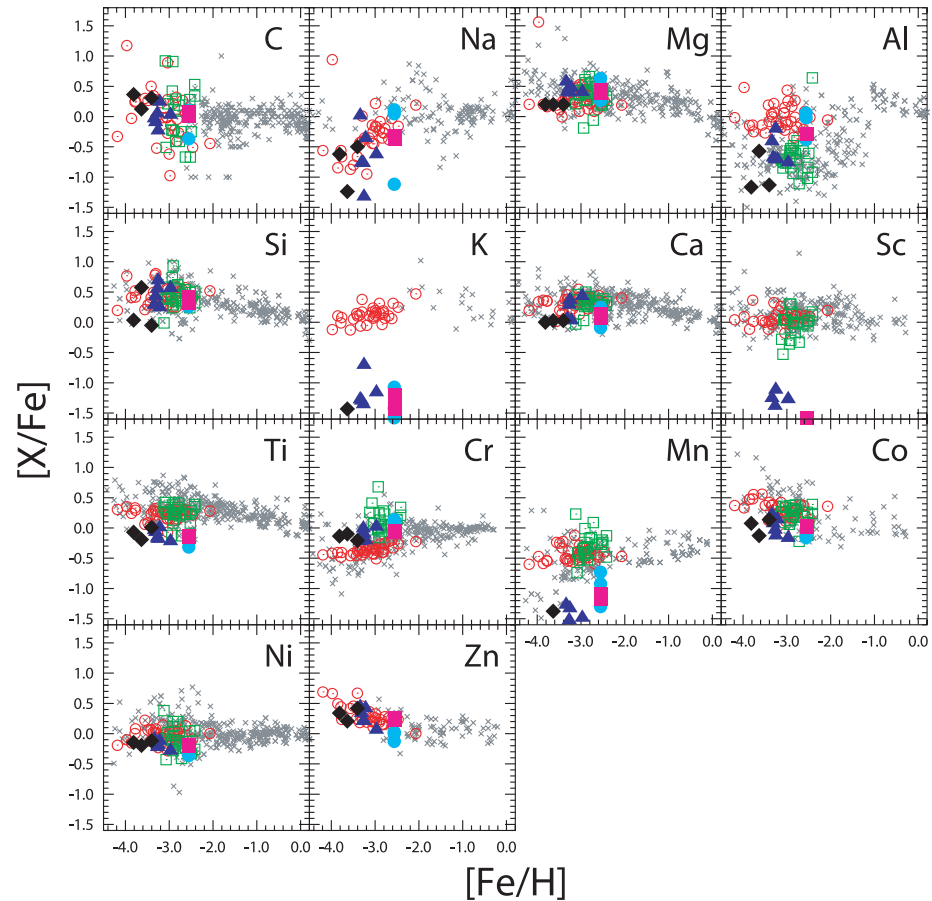
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*... hope to see you there!!!
(www.ppvi.org)*





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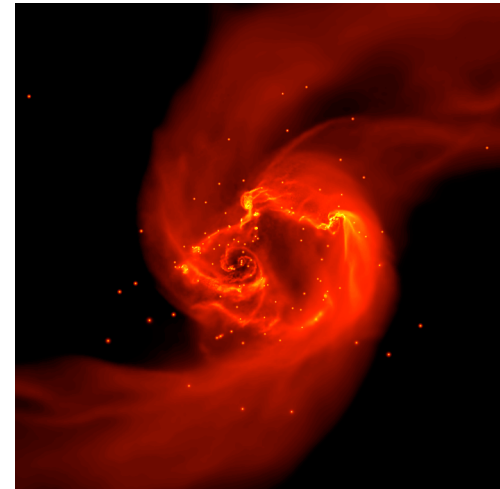
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reducing fragmentation

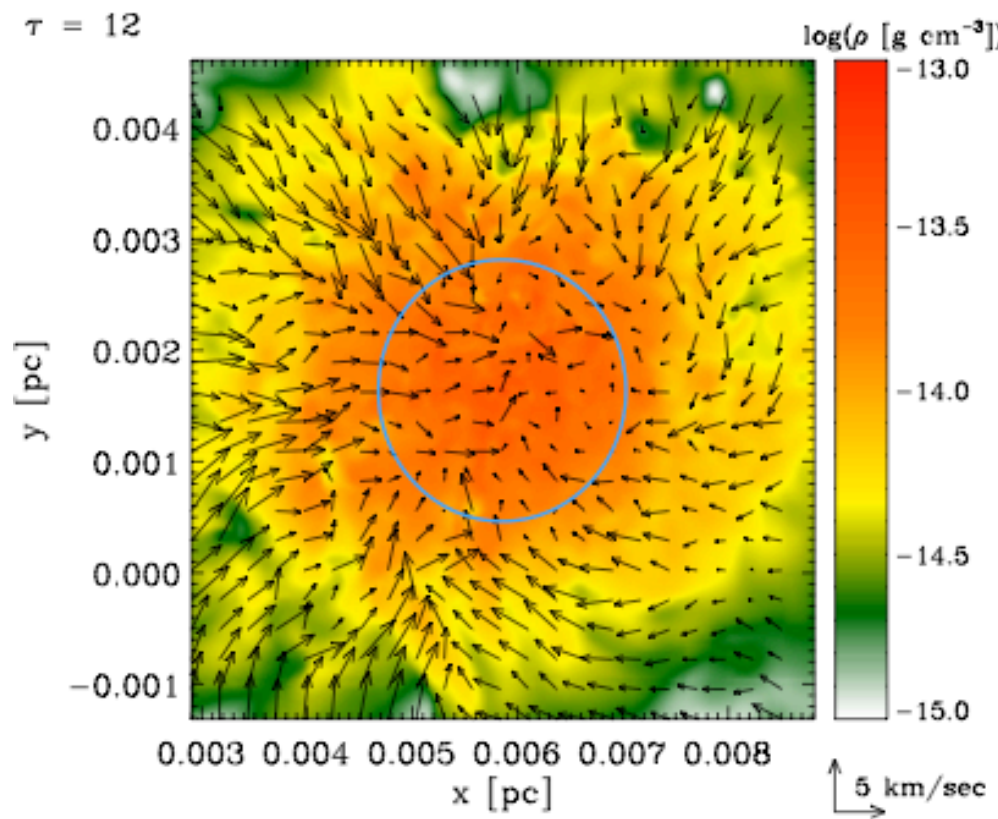
- from present-day star formation theory we know, that
 - magnetic fields (e.g. Peters et al. 2011, Seifried et al. 2012, Hennebelle et al. 2011)
 - accretion heating (e.g. Peters et al. 2010abc, Krumholz et al. 2009, Kuipers et al. 2011)can influence the fragmentation behavior.
- in the context of Pop III
 - radiation: talks by Hajime Susa, Athena Stacy, Takashi Hosokawa
 - magnetic fields: talks by Jeff Oishi and Matt Turk
- all these will reduce degree of fragmentation (but not by much, see also Smith et al. 2011, 2012)
- DM annihilation might become important for disk dynamics and fragmentation (see talk by Fabio Iocco, and poster by Rowan Smith)

B fields in the early universe?

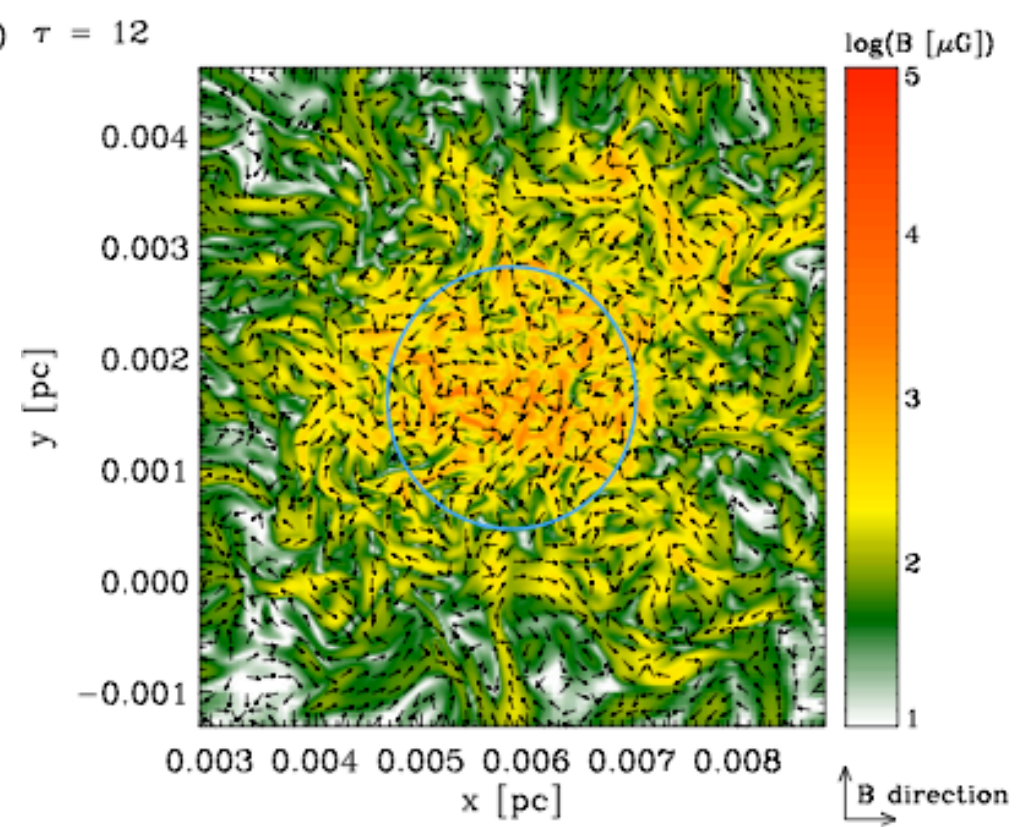
- we know the universe is magnetized (now)
- knowledge about B-fields in the high-redshift universe is extremely uncertain
 - inflation / QCD phase transition / Biermann battery / Weibel instability
- they are thought to be extremely small
- however, *THIS MAY BE WRONG!*

small-scale turbulent dynamo

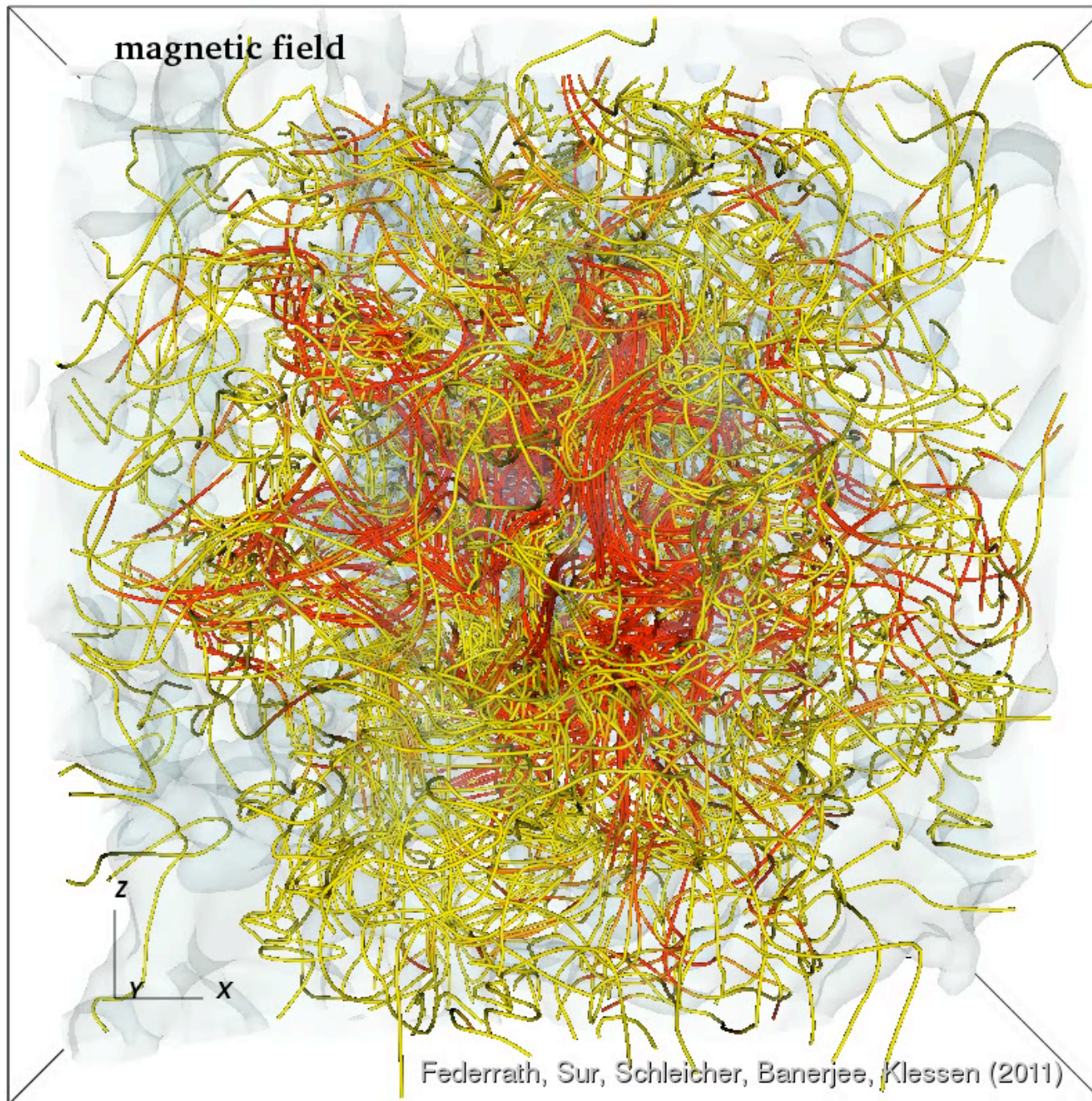
- *idea*: the small-scale turbulent dynamo can generate strong magnetic fields from very small seed fields
- *approach*: model collapse of primordial gas ----> formation of the first stars in low-mass halo
- *method*: solve ideal MHD with very high resolution
 - grid-based AMR code FLASH
 - polytropic EOS with $\gamma = 1.1$
 - resolution up to 128^3 cells per Jeans volume (effective resolution 65536^3 cells)
 - see: Schleicher et al. 2010, A&A, 522, A115, Sur et al. 2010, ApJ, 721, L734, Federrath et al., 2011, ApJ, 731, 62, Schober 2012, PRE, 85, 026303, Schober et al. 2012, ApJ, 754, 99



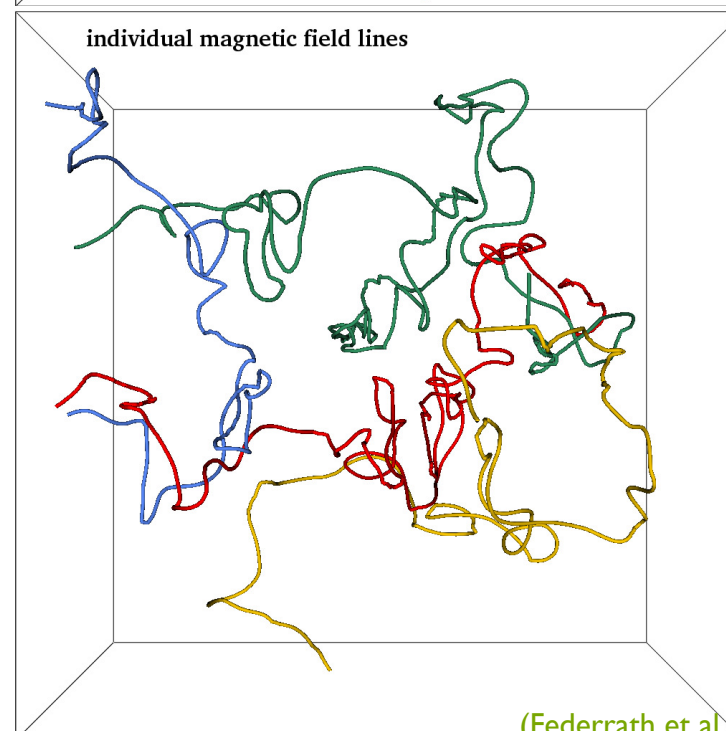
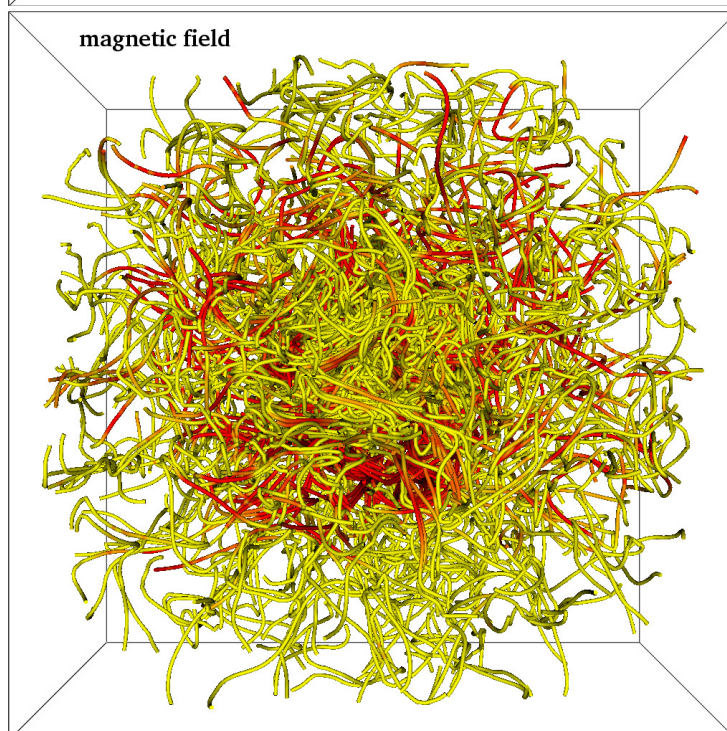
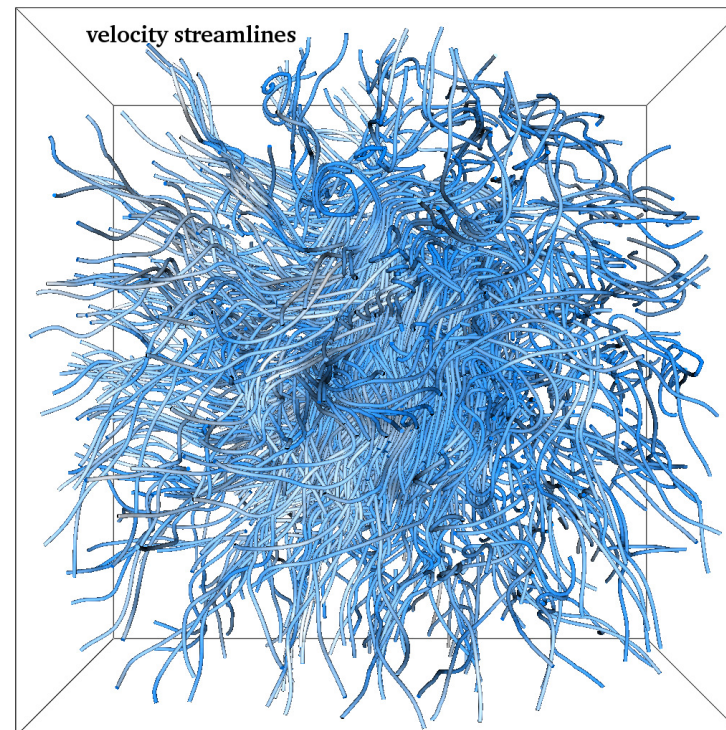
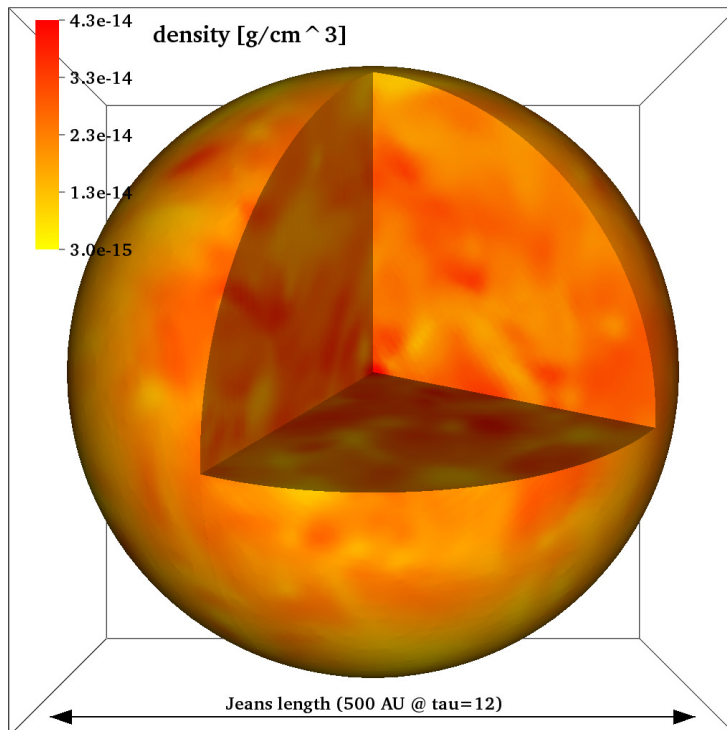
magnetic field structure

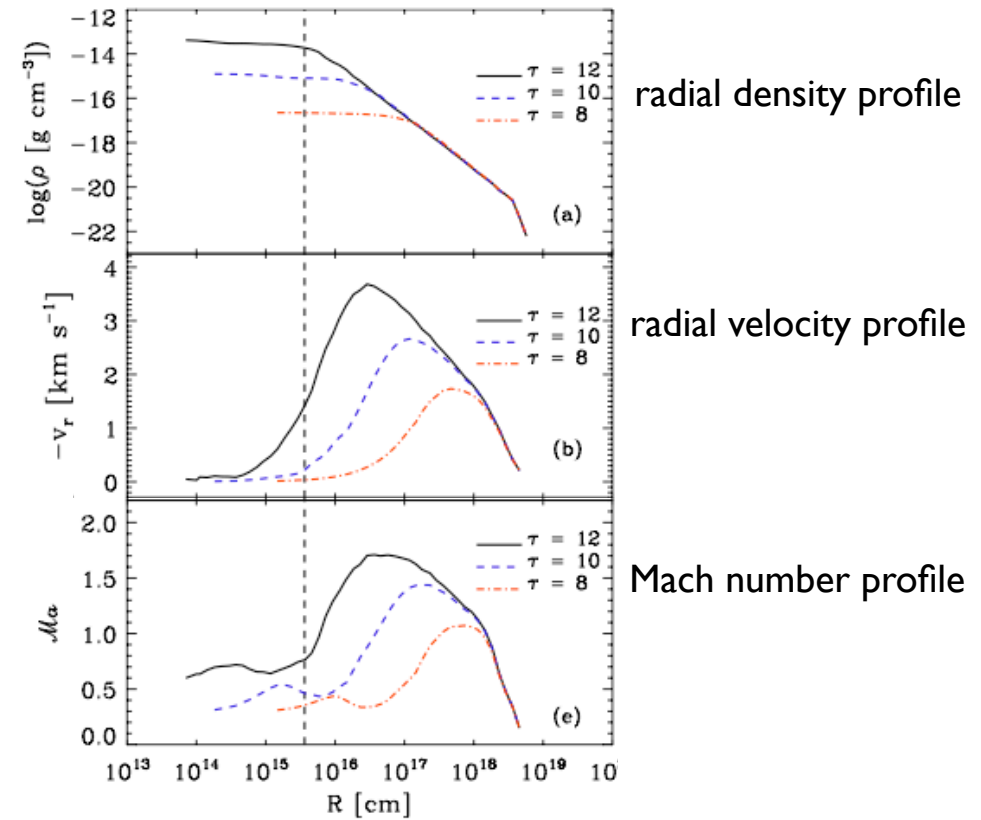
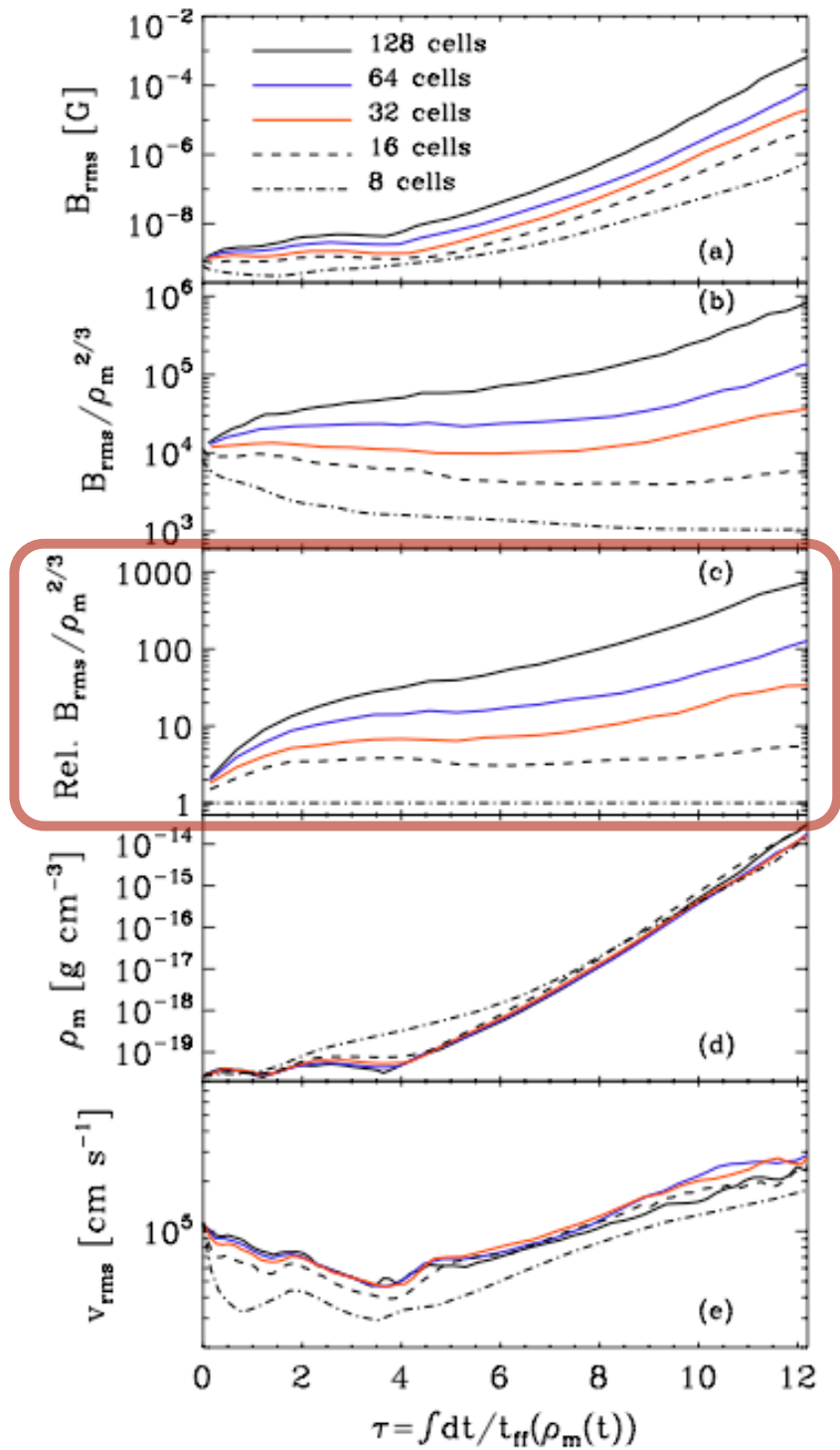


density structure



(Schleicher et al. 2010, A&A, 522, A115, Sur et al. 2010, ApJ, 721, L734, Federrath et al., 2011, ApJ, 731, 62)





Field amplification during first collapse seems unavoidable.

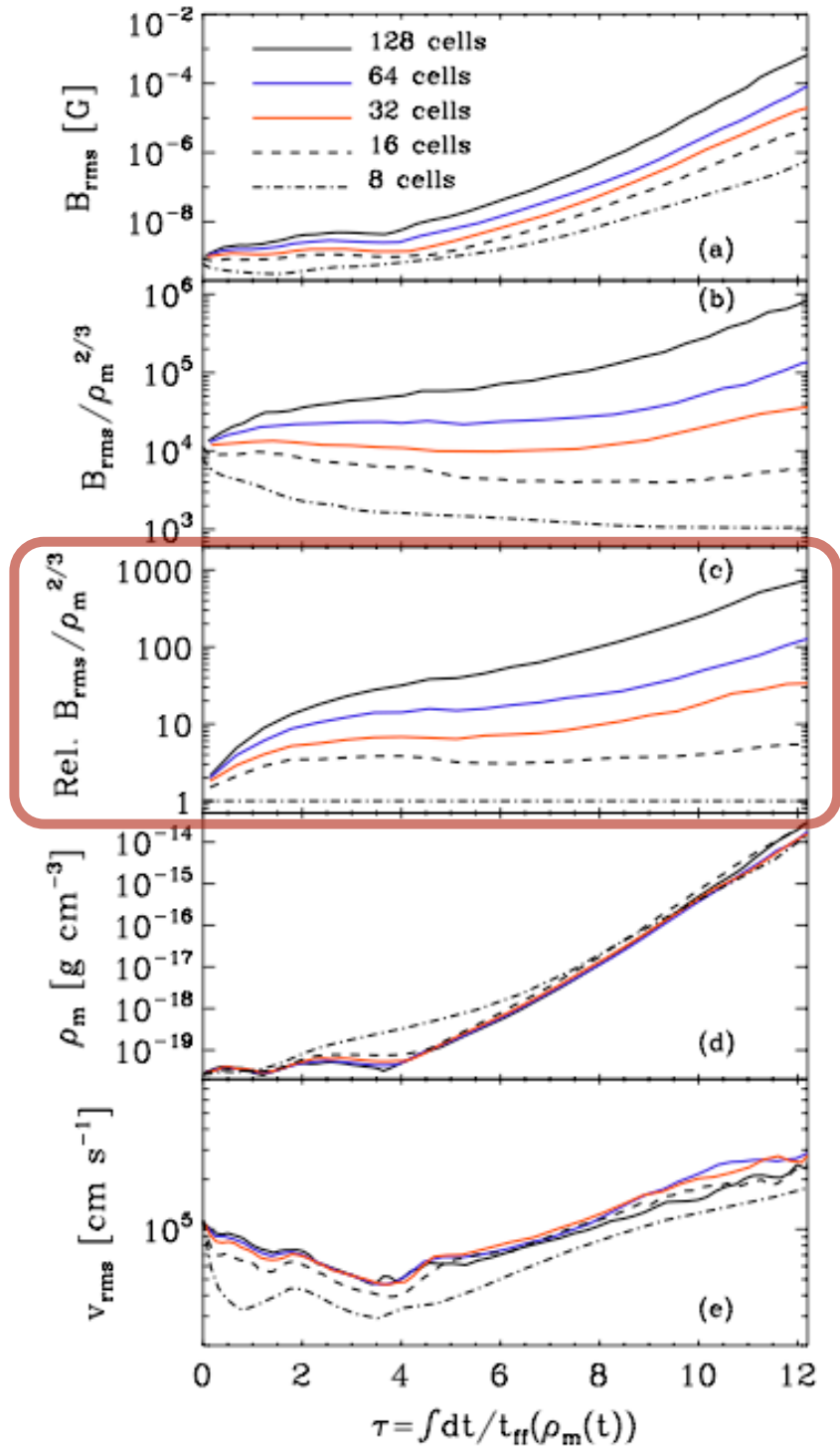
QUESTIONS:

- Is it really the small scale dynamo?
- What is the saturation value?
Can the field reach dynamically important strength?

Field amplification during first collapse seems unavoidable.

QUESTIONS:

- Is it really the small scale dynamo?
- What is the saturation value?
Can the field reach dynamically important strength?
- How does it depend on the thermodynamics of the gas (i.e. on the EOS)?

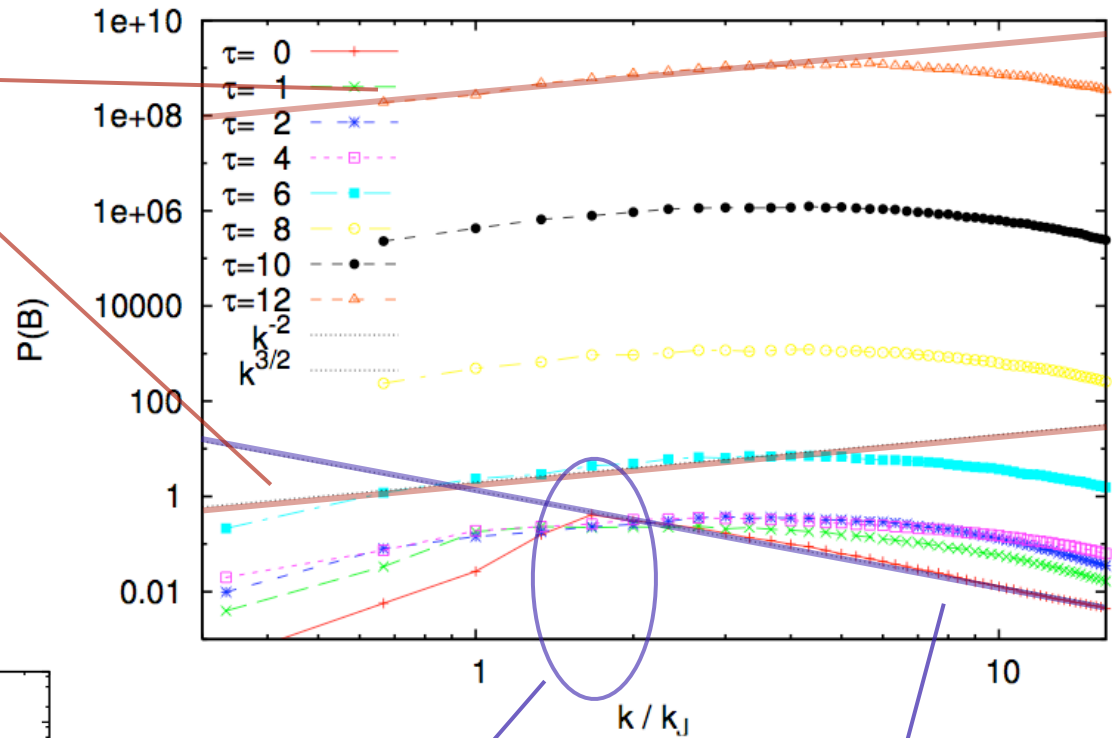


Kazantsev behavior

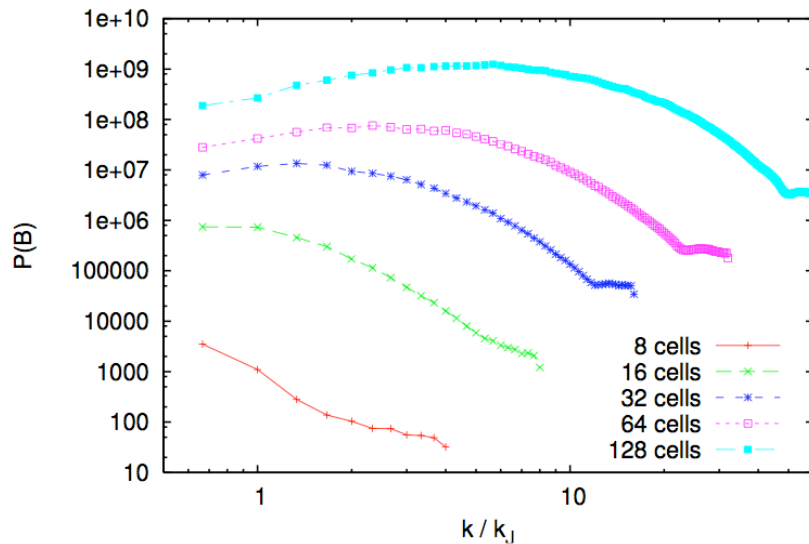
Slope +3/2 of
Kazantsev theory

(e.g. Brandenburg & Subramanian,
2005, Phys. Rep., 417, 1)

time evolution of magnetic field spectra (128 cell run)



resolution dependence ($\tau=12$)

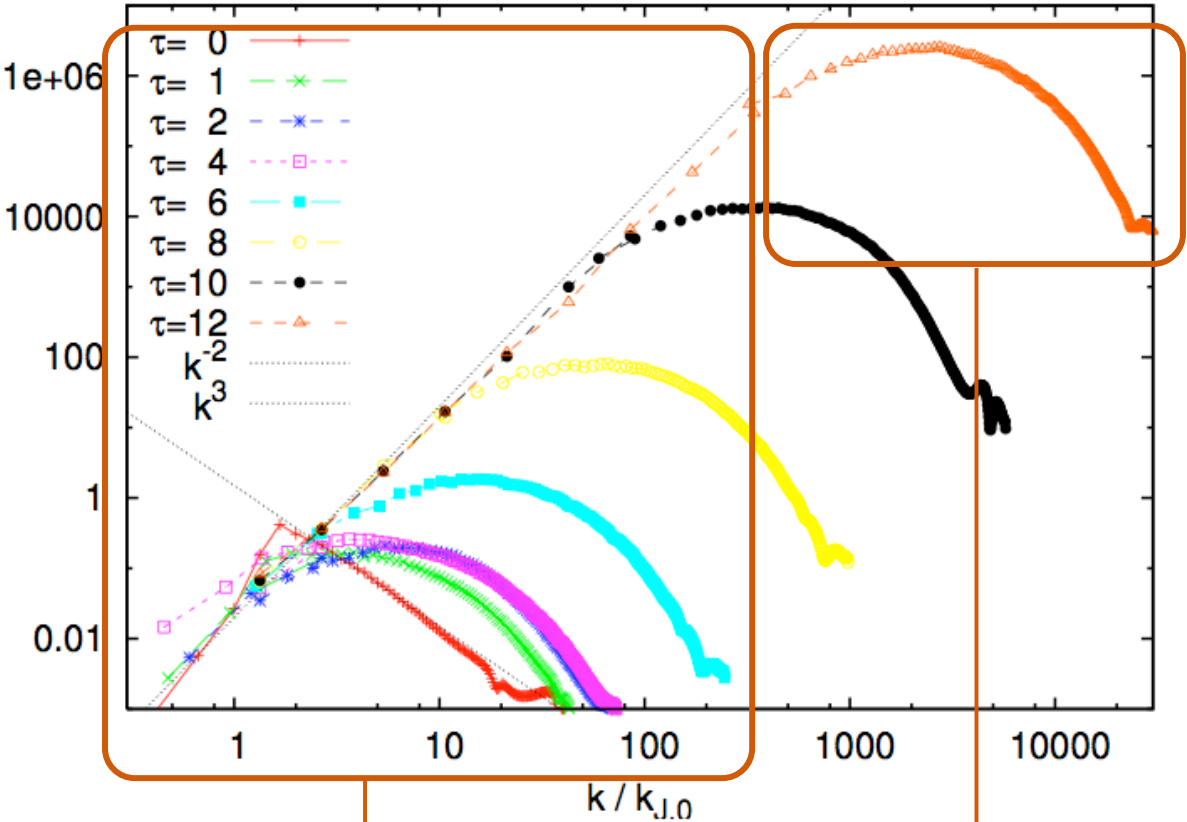


initial peak of
B fluctuation
spectrum

initial slope of
B fluctuations

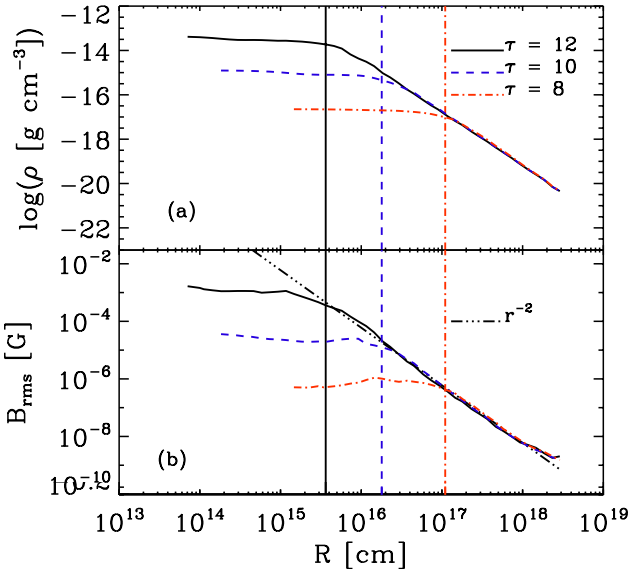
analysis of magnetic field spectra

time evolution of magnetic field spectra (128 cell run)



B fluctuation spectrum in $1/r^2$ fall-off

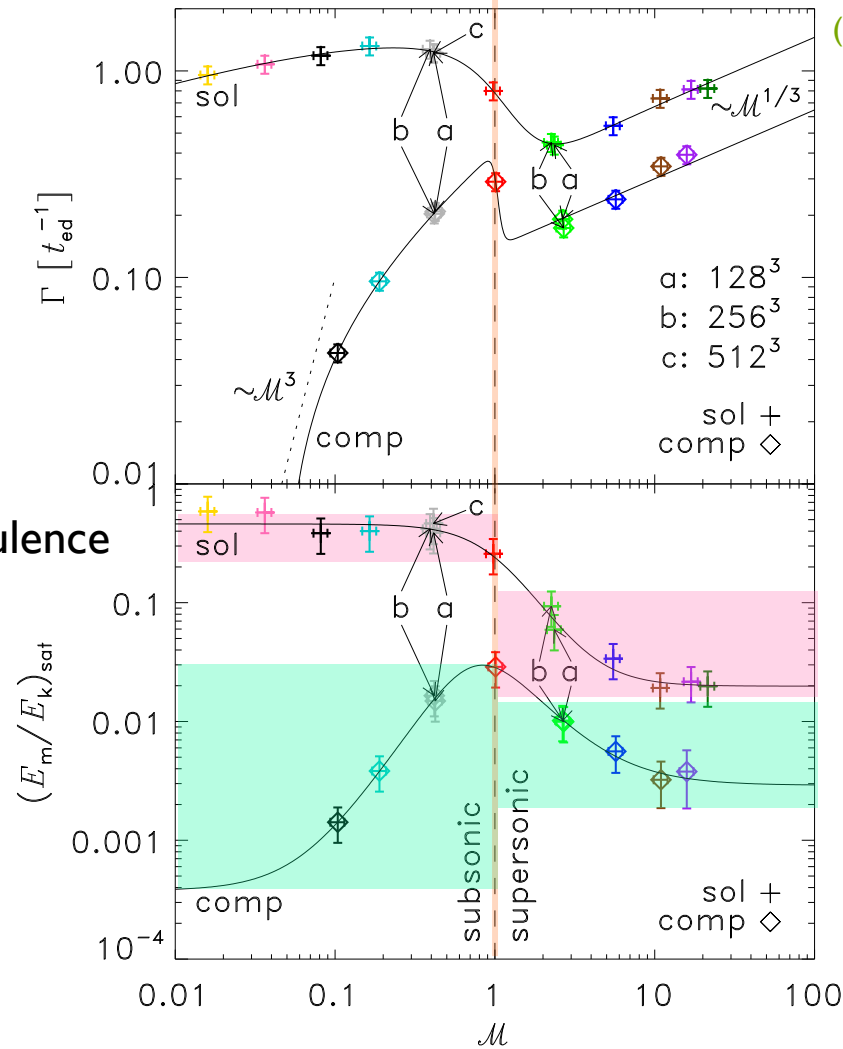
B fluctuation spectrum in flat inner core



(Federrath et al., 2011, ApJ, 731, 62)

Saturation level

(Federrath et al., 2011, PRL, 107, 114505)



subsonic, solenoidal turbulence

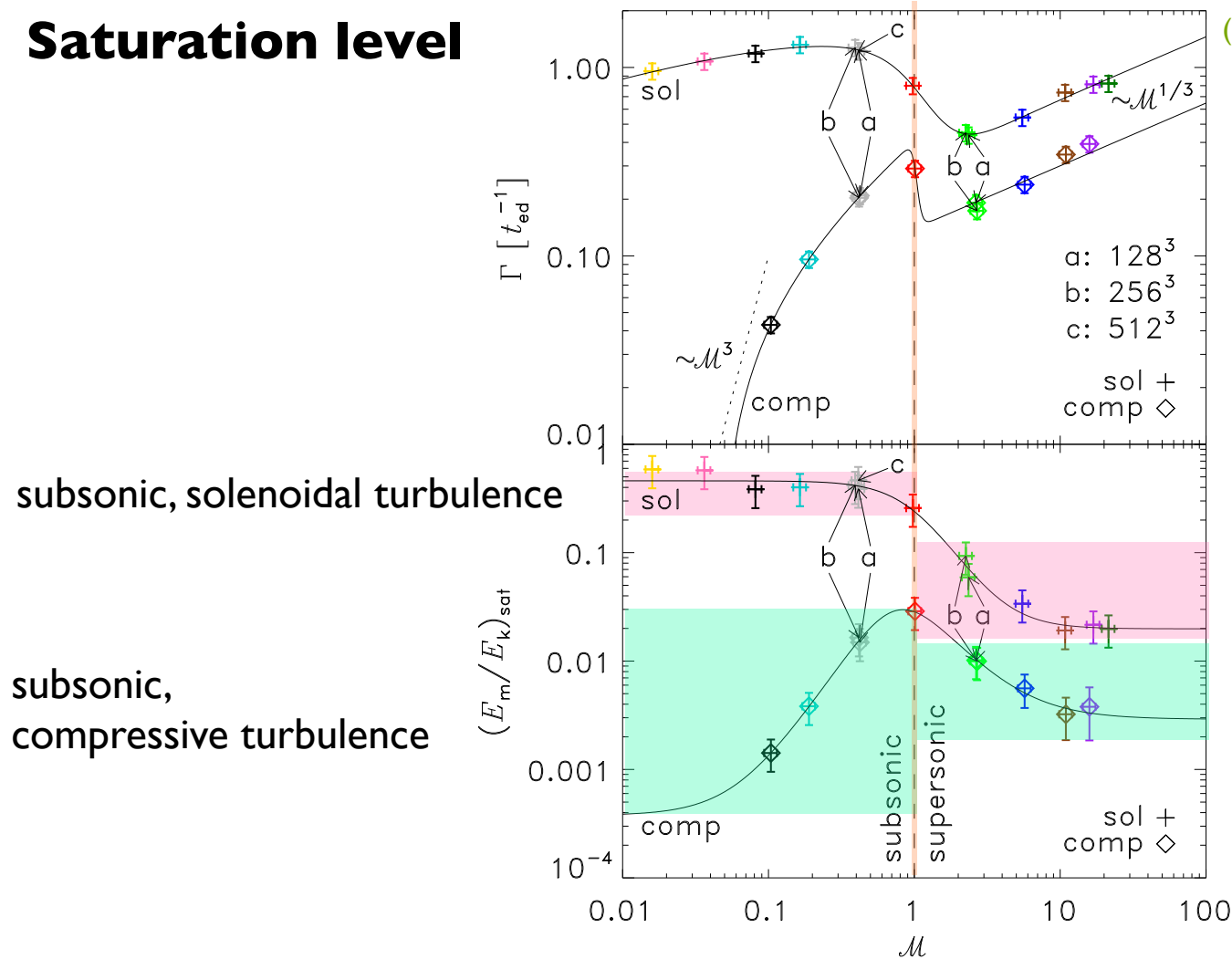
saturation level for supersonic, solenoidal turbulence

subsonic, compressive turbulence

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Saturation level

(Federrath et al., 2011, PRL, 107, 114505)

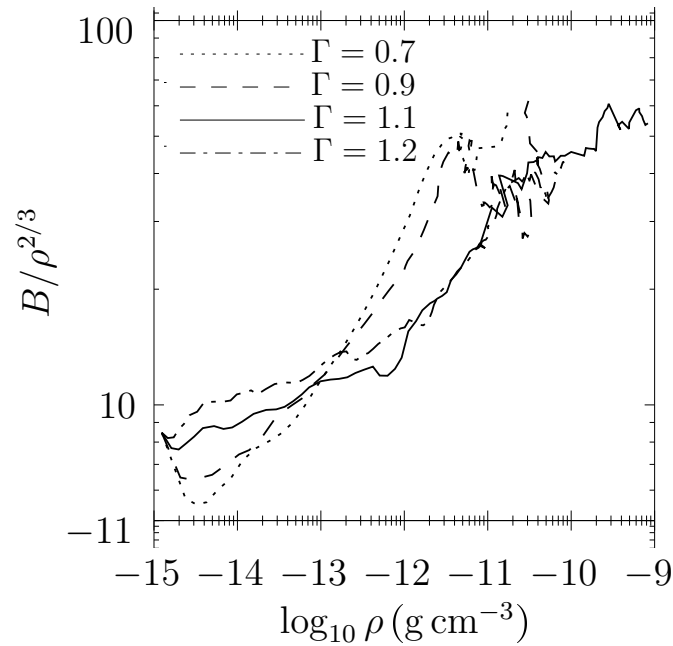


saturation level for supersonic, solenoidal turbulence
 saturation level for supersonic, compressive turbulence

This behavior is reproduced *analytically* using the *Kazantsev* formalism for very large and very small Prandtl numbers, and for the range from Kolmogorov to Burgers turbulence.

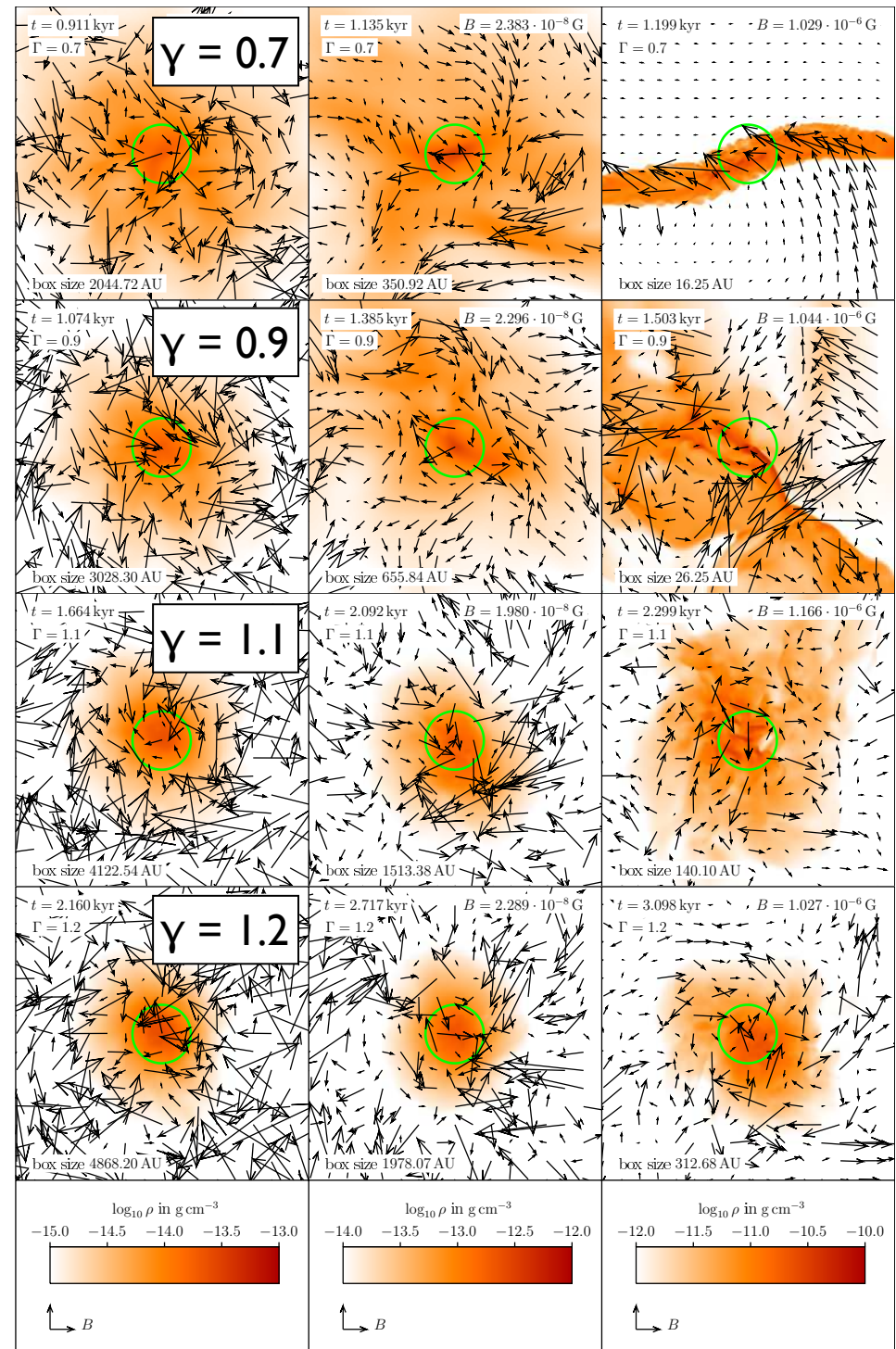
(Schober et al., 2012, PRE, 85, 026303, Schober et al. 2012, ApJ, 754, 99, Schober et al. 2012, PRE, submitted, Bovino et al., PRL, submitted)

Dependence on EOS



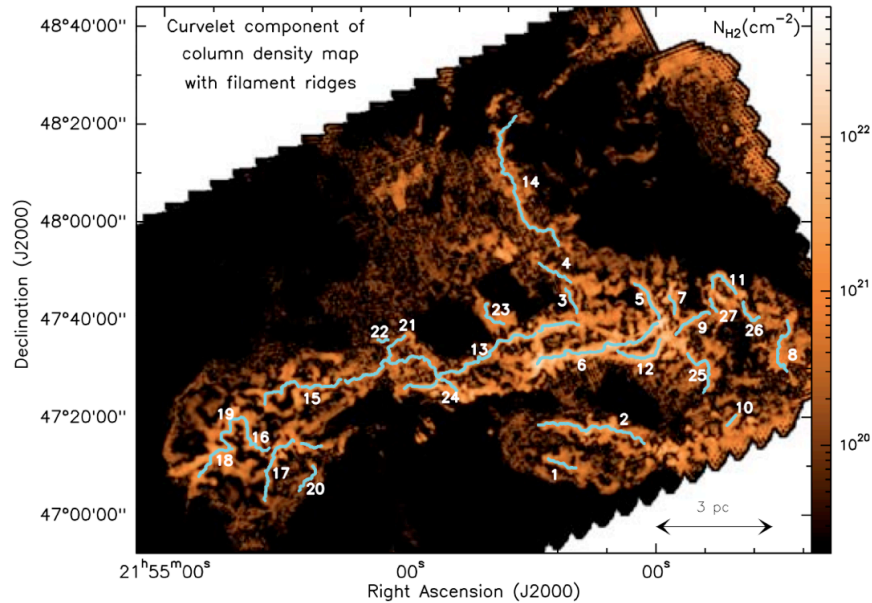
- magnetic field amplification for all gamma.
- *BUT*: very different morphology:
 - *filaments* for $\gamma < 1$ and
 - *roundish structures* for $\gamma > 1$
- implications for present-day molecular clouds?

Peters et al. (2012, ApJ, in press -- arXiv:1209.5861)



zooming in on collapsing core

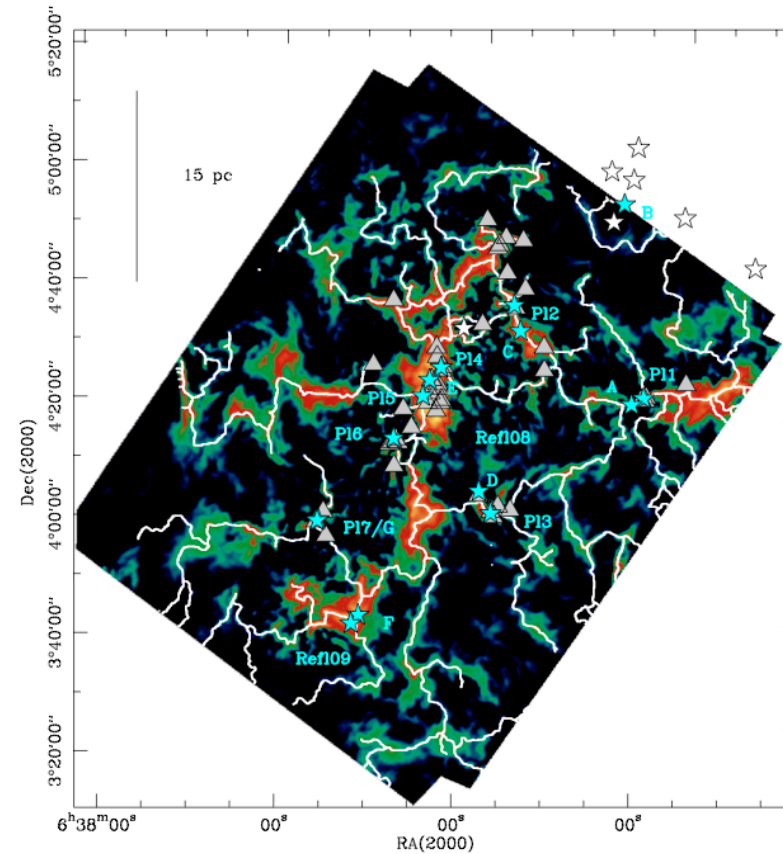
Filaments in nearby molecular clouds



IC 5146 as seen by Herschel

Arzoumanian et al. (2011, 529, L6)

- **QUESTION:** to what degree are the filaments seen in nearby molecular clouds caused by EOS effects.
- molecular clouds form in thermally unstable gas with $\gamma \sim 0.7$ (i.e. they are in a cooling regime)



Rosette as seen by Herschel

Schneider et al. (2012, A&A, 540, L11)