



Star Formation



Ralf Klessen



Astronomie der Universität Heidelberg ut für Theoretische Astrophysik





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



phenomenology







- 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

Hubble Ultra-Deep Field



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

M51 with Hubble (additional processing R. Gendler)



galaxies from THINGS and HERACLES survey (images from Frank Bigiel, ZAH/ITA)



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

data from T. Dame (CfA Harvard)







- stars form in molecular clouds
- stars form in clusters
- stars form on ~ 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 ΘIC 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)

Pleiades (DSS, Palomar Observatory Sky Survey)



decrease in spatial scale / increase in density





- density
 - density of ISM: few particles per cm³
 - density of molecular cloud: few 100 particles per cm³
 - density of Sun: I.4 g/cm³
- spatial scale
 - size of molecular cloud: few 10s of pc
 - size of young cluster: ~ I pc
 - size of Sun: 1.4 x 10¹⁰ 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:



- 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

 $\ell_{\rm turb} \ll \ell_{\rm dyn}$

 then turbulent velocity dispersion contributes to effective soundspeed:

$$\mathbf{C}_{c}^{2}\mapsto\mathbf{C}_{c}^{2}+\sigma_{rms}^{2}$$

- \rightarrow Larger effective Jeans masses \rightarrow more stability
- BUT: (1) turbulence depends on k: $\sigma_{rms}^2(k)$
 - (2) supersonic turbulence $\rightarrow \sigma_{rms}^{2}(k) \gg \omega_{k}^{2}$





S. Chandrasekhar, 1910 - 1995

C.F. von Weiszäcker, 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 ~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)

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

- 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/Φ) > (M/Φ)_{crit} : dynamical collapse of SIS
 - Shu (1977) collapse solution
 - $dM/dt = 0.975 c_s^3/G = const.$
- Was (in principle) only intended for isolated, low-mass stars



Frank Shu, 1943 -



magnetic field

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 (τ_{ff} << τ_{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 $\tau_{\rm ff}$
- high binary fraction
- complex spatial structure of embedded star clusters
- and many more . . .



Mac Low & Klessen, 2004, Rev. Mod. Phys., 76, 125-194 McKee & Ostriker, 2007, ARAA, 45, 565

turbulent cascade in the ISM



energy source & scale *NOT known* (supernovae, winds, spiral density waves?) $\sigma_{\rm rms} << 1$ km/s M_{rms} ≤ 1 L ≈ 0.1 pc dissipation scale not known (ambipolar diffusion, molecular diffusion?)



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



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

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


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in *dense clusters*, competitive mass growth becomes important



in *dense clusters*, competitive mass growth becomes important



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



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 $\left. \left\{ Larson's relation: \sigma \propto L^{1/2} \right\} \right\}$
 - 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?



stellar mass fuction

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
 - collapse and interaction of prestellar cores
 --> accretion and N-body effects
 - thermodynamic properties of gas
 --> balance between heating and cooling
 --> EOS (determines which cores go into collapse)
 - (proto) stellar feedback terminates star formation ionizing radiation, bipolar outflows, winds, SN



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example: model of Orion cloud

"model" of Orion cloud: 15.000.000 SPH particles, $10^4 M_{sun}$ in 10 pc, mass resolution 0,02 M_{sun} , forms ~2.500 "stars" (sink particles)

isothermal EOS, top bound, bottom unbound

has clustered as well as distributed "star" formation

efficiency varies from 1% to 20%

develops full IMF (distribution of sink particle masses)



⁽Bonnell, Smith, Clark, & Bate 2010, MNRAS, 410, 2339)





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stellar mass fuction

(Kroupa 2002)

ONC (HCOO

standard

0 log₁₀m [M_@]

-1

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application to early star formation

thermodynamics & fragmentation

degree of fragmentation depends on EOS!

polytropic EOS: $\mathbf{p} \propto \mathbf{p}^{\gamma}$ $\gamma < 1$: 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



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











present-day star formation



IMF in nearby molecular clouds



(Jappsen et al. 2005, A&A, 435, 611)





transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



two competing models:

- cooling due to atomic finestructure lines ($Z > 10^{-3.5} Z_{sun}$)
- cooling due to coupling between gas and dust (Z > 10^{-5...-6} Z_{sun})
- which one explains origin of extremely metal-poor stars? NB: lines would only make very massive stars, with M > few x10 M_{sun}.

transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



SDSS J1029151+172927

- is first ultra metal-poor star with Z
 ~ 10^{-4.5} Z_{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			[X/H] _{1D}		N lines	$S_{\rm H}$	A(X) _☉
		+3Dcor.	+NLTE cor.	+ 3D cor $+$ NLTE cor			
С	≤ -3.8	≤ -4.5			G-band		8.50
Ν	≤ -4.1	≤ -5.0			NH-band		7.86
Mg ı	-4.71 ± 0.11	-4.68 ± 0.11	-4.52 ± 0.11	-4.49 ± 0.12	5	0.1	7.54
Sii	-4.27	-4.30	-3.93	-3.96	1	0.1	7.52
Сат	-4.72	-4.82	-4.44	-4.54	1	0.1	6.33
Сап	-4.81 ± 0.11	-4.93 ± 0.03	-5.02 ± 0.02	-5.15 ± 0.09	3	0.1	6.33
Тіп	-4.75 ± 0.18	-4.83 ± 0.16	-4.76 ± 0.18	-4.84 ± 0.16	6	1.0	4.90
Feı	-4.73 ± 0.13	-5.02 ± 0.10	-4.60 ± 0.13	-4.89 ± 0.10	43	1.0	7.52
Niı	-4.55 ± 0.14	-4.90 ± 0.11			10		6.23
Sr 11	≤ -5.10	≤ -5.25	≤ -4.94	≤ -5.09	1	0.01	2.92

(Caffau et al. 2011, 2012)

modeling the formation of the first/second stares





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EOS as function of metallicity



EOS as function of metallicity



(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)



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.



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 ~ 0.01 R_{\odot})



density

temperature

expected mass spectrum



Greif et al. 2011, ApJ, 737, 75, Clark et al. 2011b, Science, 331, 1040, Smith et al. 2011, MNRAS, 414, 3633, Dopcke et al., 2013, ApJ, 766, 103 also talk by Athena Stacy

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_☉)
 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)



The metallicities of extremely metalpoor stars in the halo are consistent with the yields of core-collapse supernovae, i.e. progenitor stars with 20 - 40 M_☉

(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
 - turbulence
 - thermodynamics (i.e. heating vs. cooling)
 - feedback
 - magnetic fields

to influence first star formation.



- masses of first stars still uncertain, but we expect a wide mass range with typical masses of several 10s of M_{\odot}
- disks unstable: first stars in *binaries* or *part of small clusters*
- current frontier: include feedback and magnetic fields and possibly dark matter annihilation...

reducing fragmentation

- from present-day star formation theory we know, that
 - magnetic fields: Peters et al. 2011, Seifried et al. 2012, Hennebelle et al. 2011
 - accretion heating: Peters et al. 2010, Krumholz et al. 2009, Kuipers et al. 2011
 can influence the fragmentation behavior.
- in the context of Pop III
 - radiation: Hosokawa et al. 2012, Stacy et al. 2012a
 - magnetic fields: Turk et al. 2012, but see also Bovino et al. 2013
 Schleicher et al. 2010, Sur et al. 2010, Federrath et al. 2011, Schober et al. 2012ab, 2013
- all these will reduce degree of fragmentation (but not by much, see Rowan Smith et al. 2011, 2012, at least for accretion heating)
- DM annihililation might become important for disk dynamics and fragmentation (Ripamonti et al. 2011, Stacy et al. 2012b, Rowan Smith et al. 2012)





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