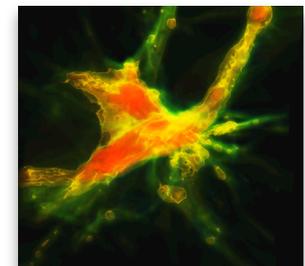
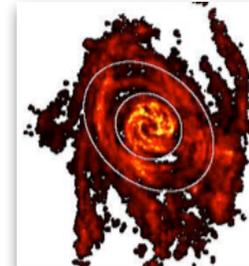
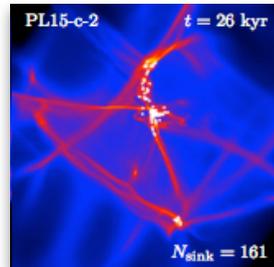
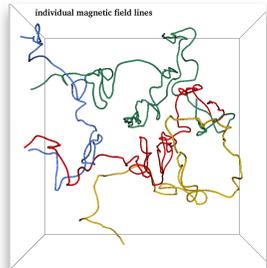


Modern Developments in Star Formation Theory



Ralf Klessen



Zentrum für Astronomie der Universität Heidelberg
Institut für Theoretische Astrophysik



thanks to ...



... people in the group in Heidelberg:

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

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... many collaborators abroad!



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Forschungsgemeinschaft
DFG

**BADEN-
WÜRTTEMBERG**
STIFTUNG
Wir stiften Zukunft

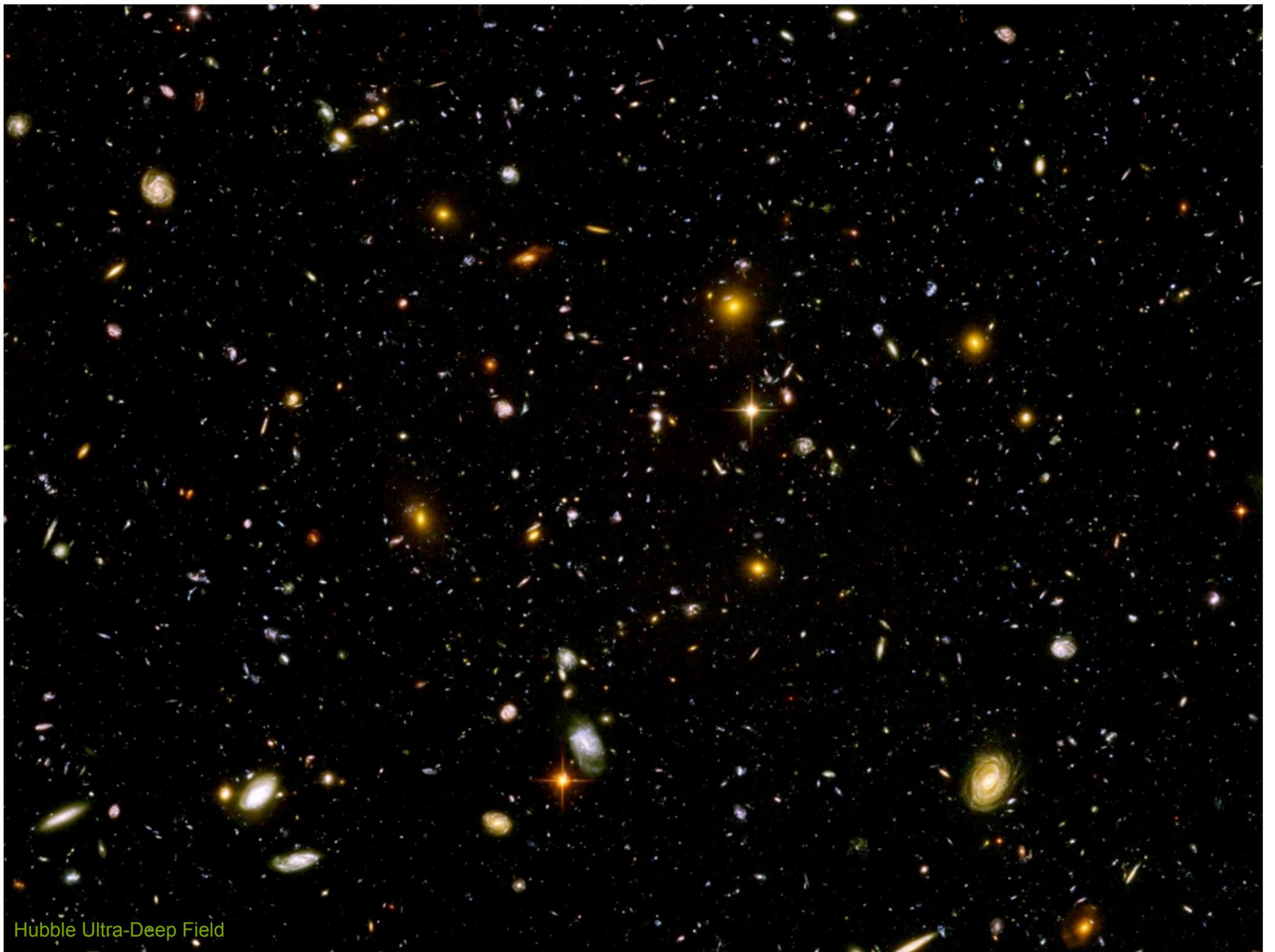


agenda

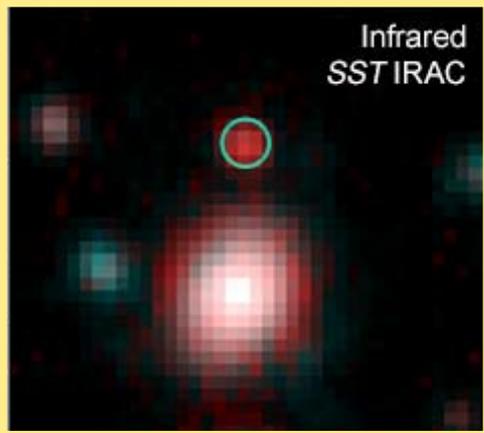
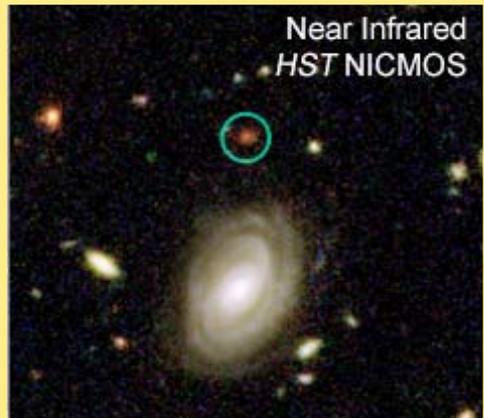
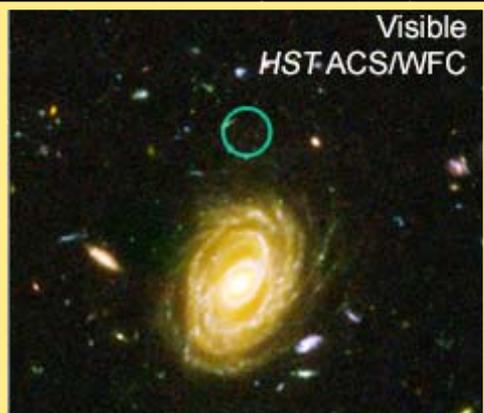
- star formation theory
 - phenomenology
 - historic remarks
 - our current understanding and its limitations
- application
 - the stellar mass function at birth (IMF)

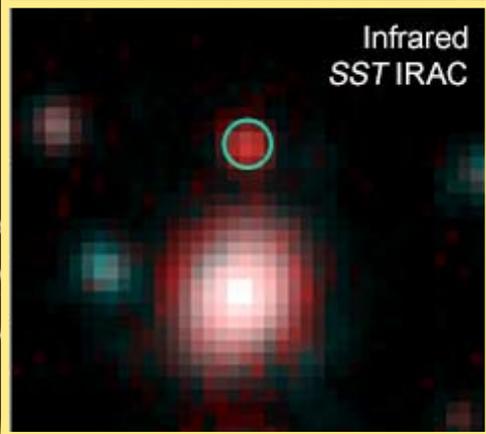
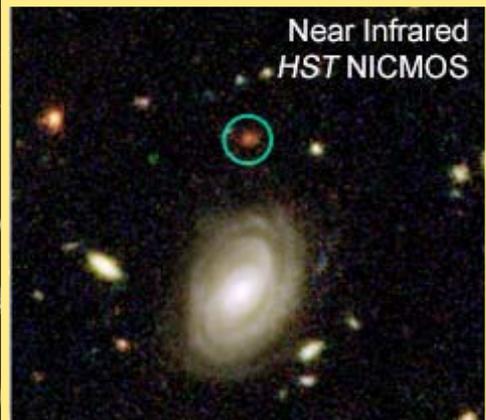
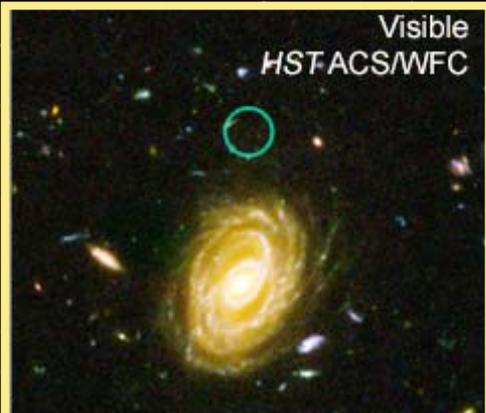


Phenomenology

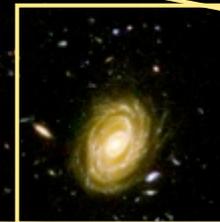


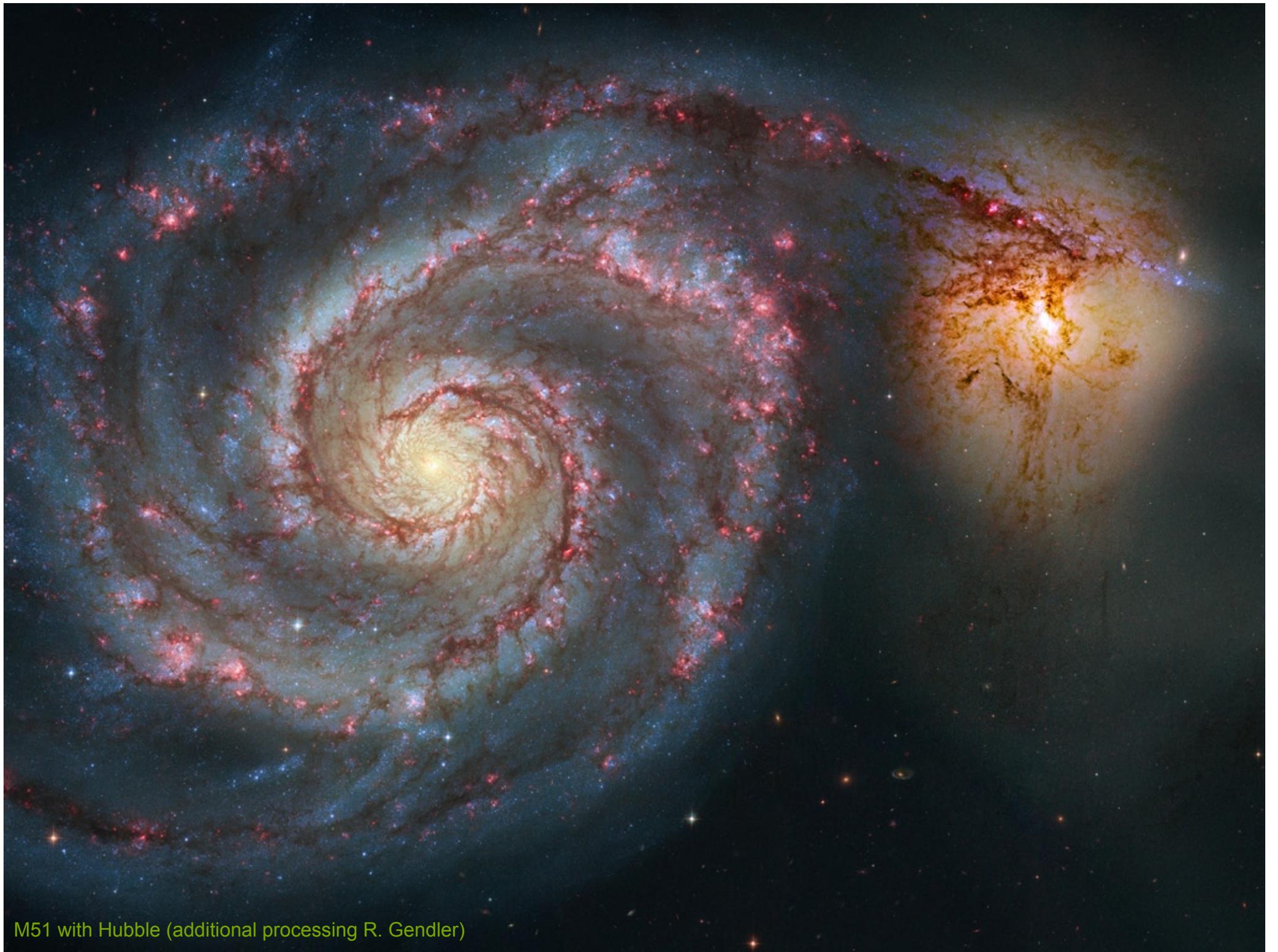
Hubble Ultra-Deep Field



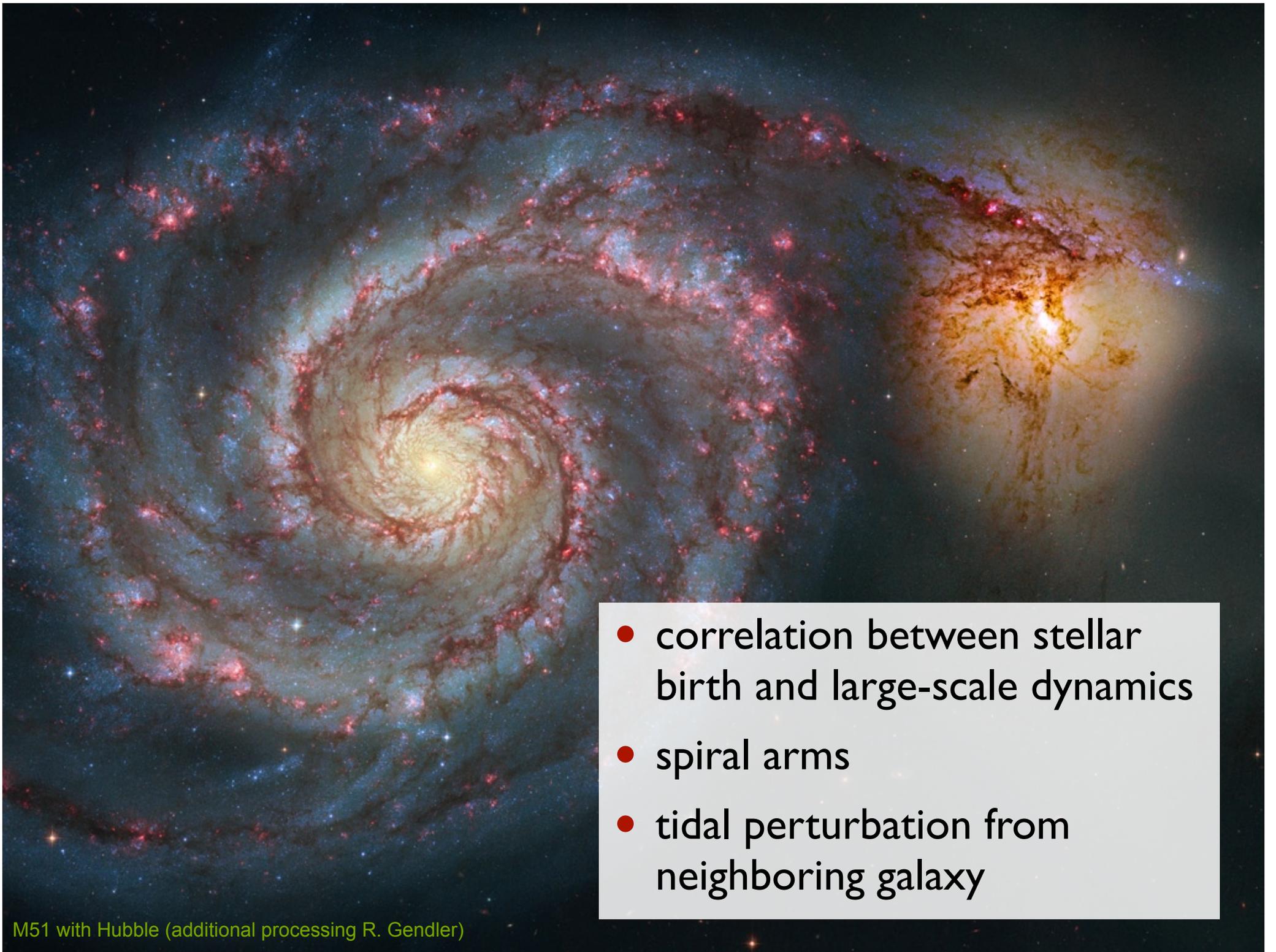


- star formation sets in very early after the big bang
- stars always form in galaxies and protogalaxies
- we cannot see the first generation of stars, but maybe the second one





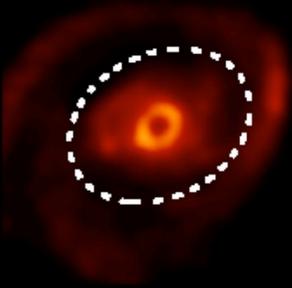
M51 with Hubble (additional processing R. Gendler)



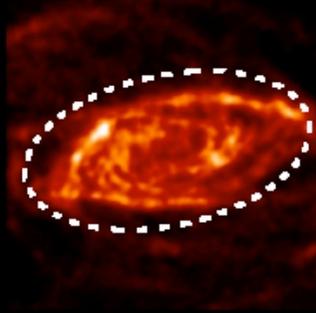
- correlation between stellar birth and large-scale dynamics
- spiral arms
- tidal perturbation from neighboring galaxy

M51 with Hubble (additional processing R. Gendler)

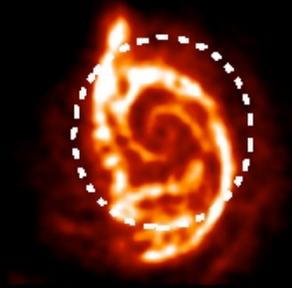
NGC 4736



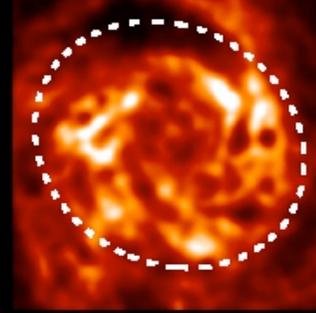
NGC 5055



NGC 5194



NGC 6946

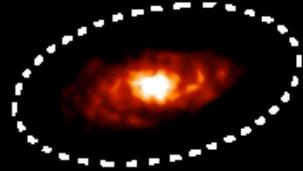


atomic
hydrogen

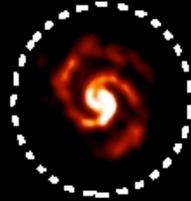
NGC 4736



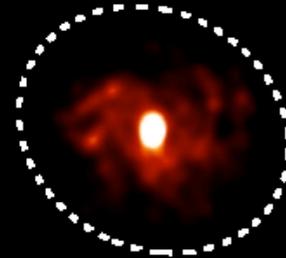
NGC 5055



NGC 5194



NGC 6946

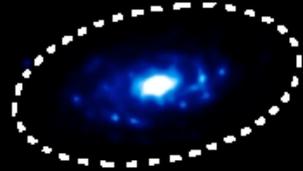


molecular
hydrogen

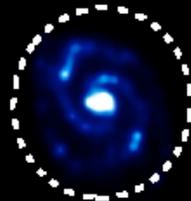
NGC 4736



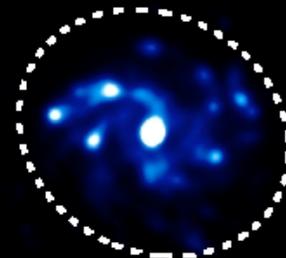
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

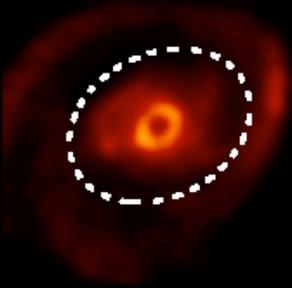


NGC 6946

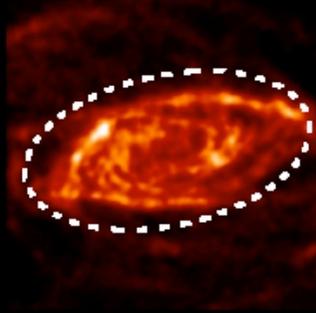


star
formation

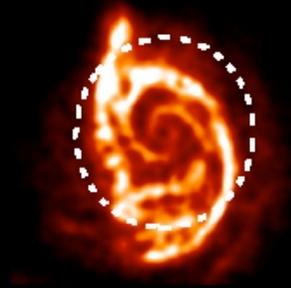
NGC 4736



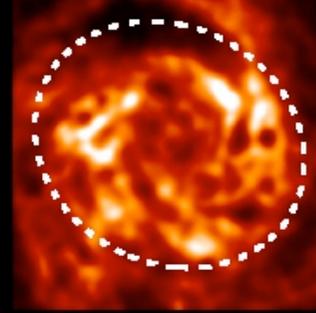
NGC 5055



NGC 5194



NGC 6946

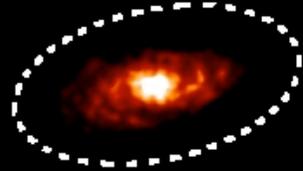


atomic hydrogen

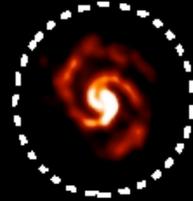
NGC 4736



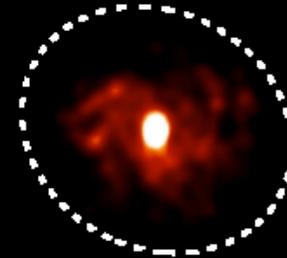
NGC 5055



NGC 5194



NGC 6946

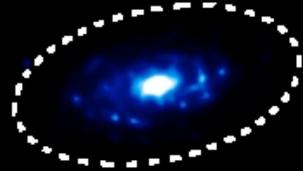


molecular hydrogen

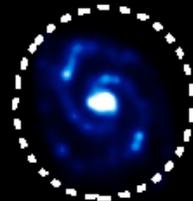
NGC 4736



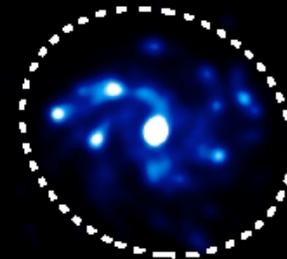
NGC 5055



NGC 5194

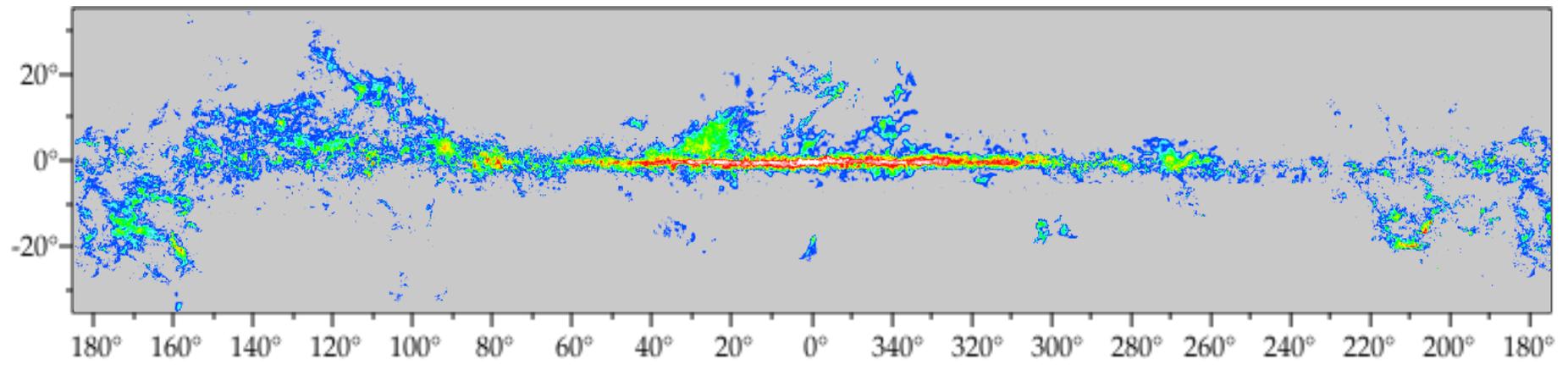


NGC 6946



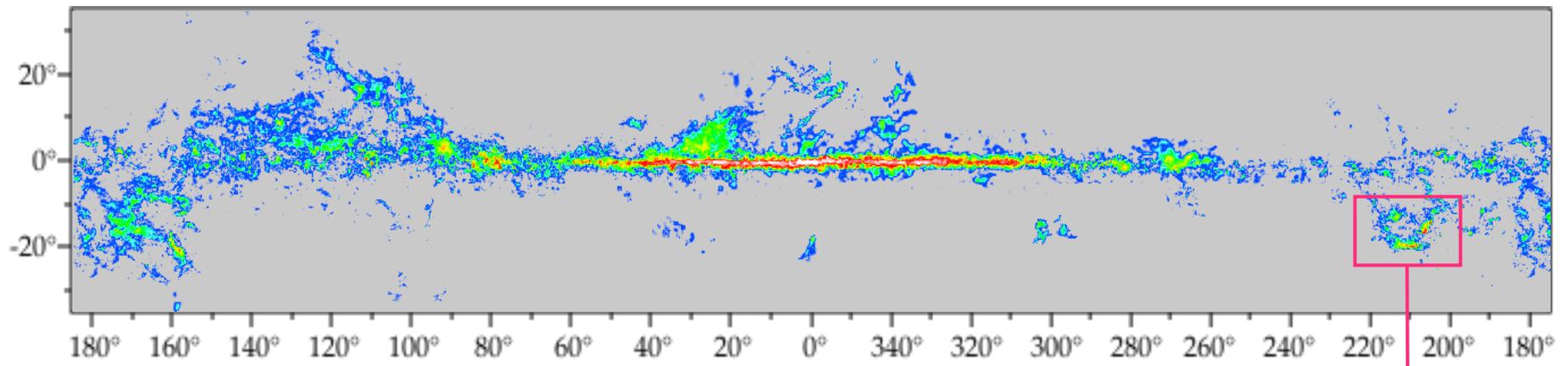
star formation

- HI gas more extended
- H2 and SF well correlated

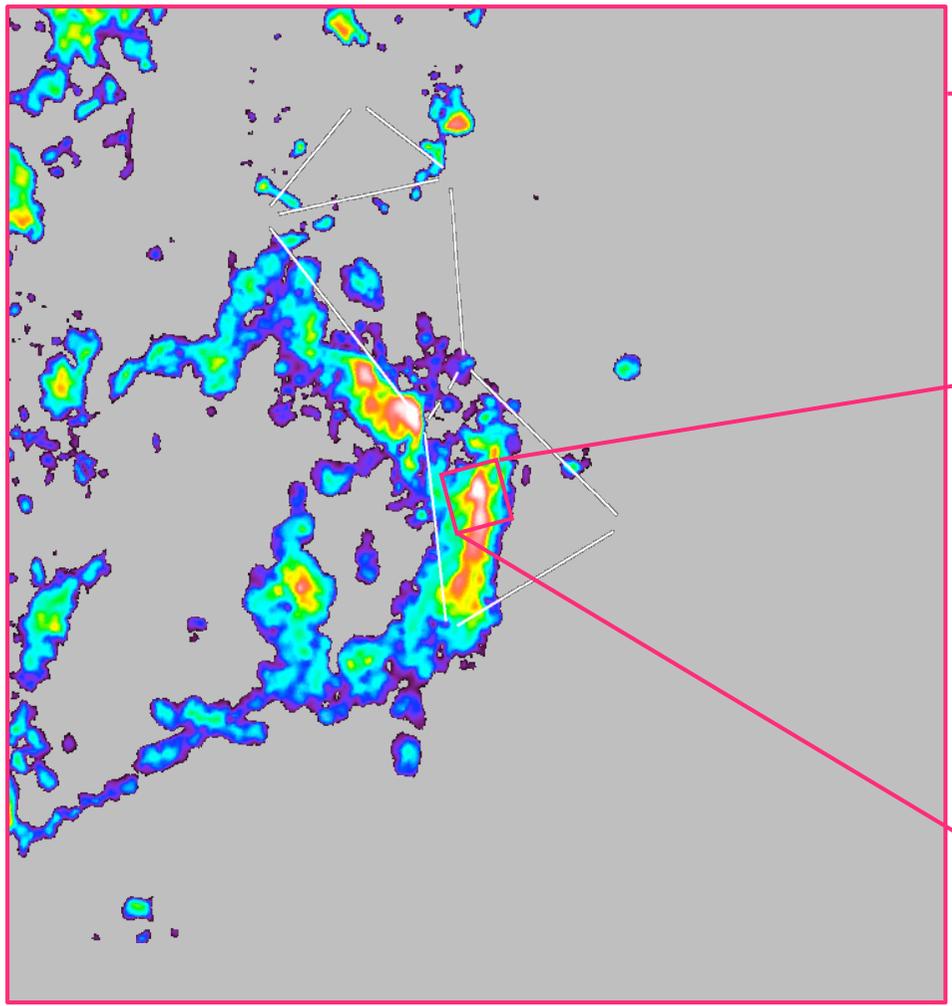


distribution of molecular
gas in the Milky Way as
traced by CO emission

data from T. Dame (CfA Harvard)



Orion



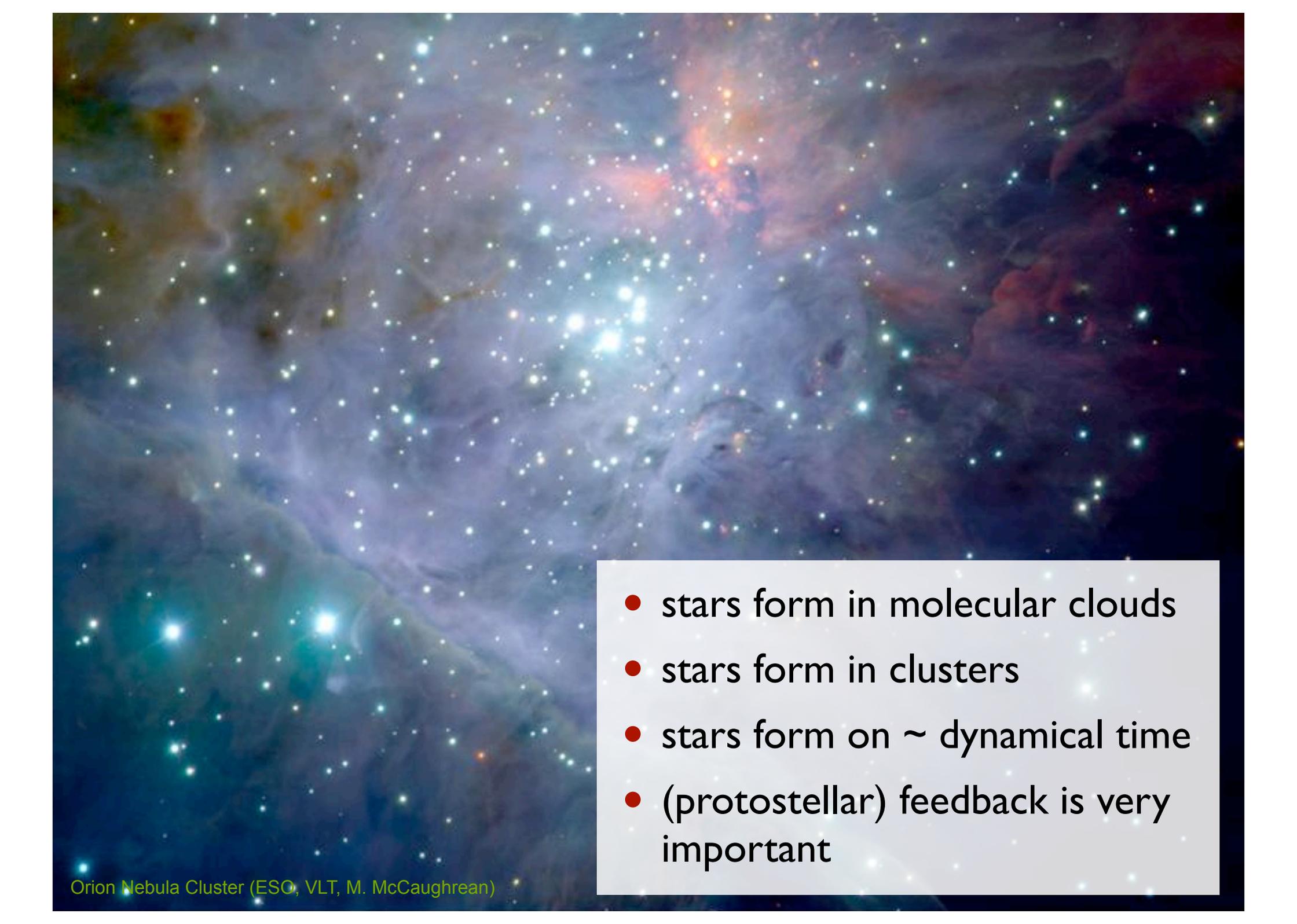
data from T. Dame (CfA Harvard)

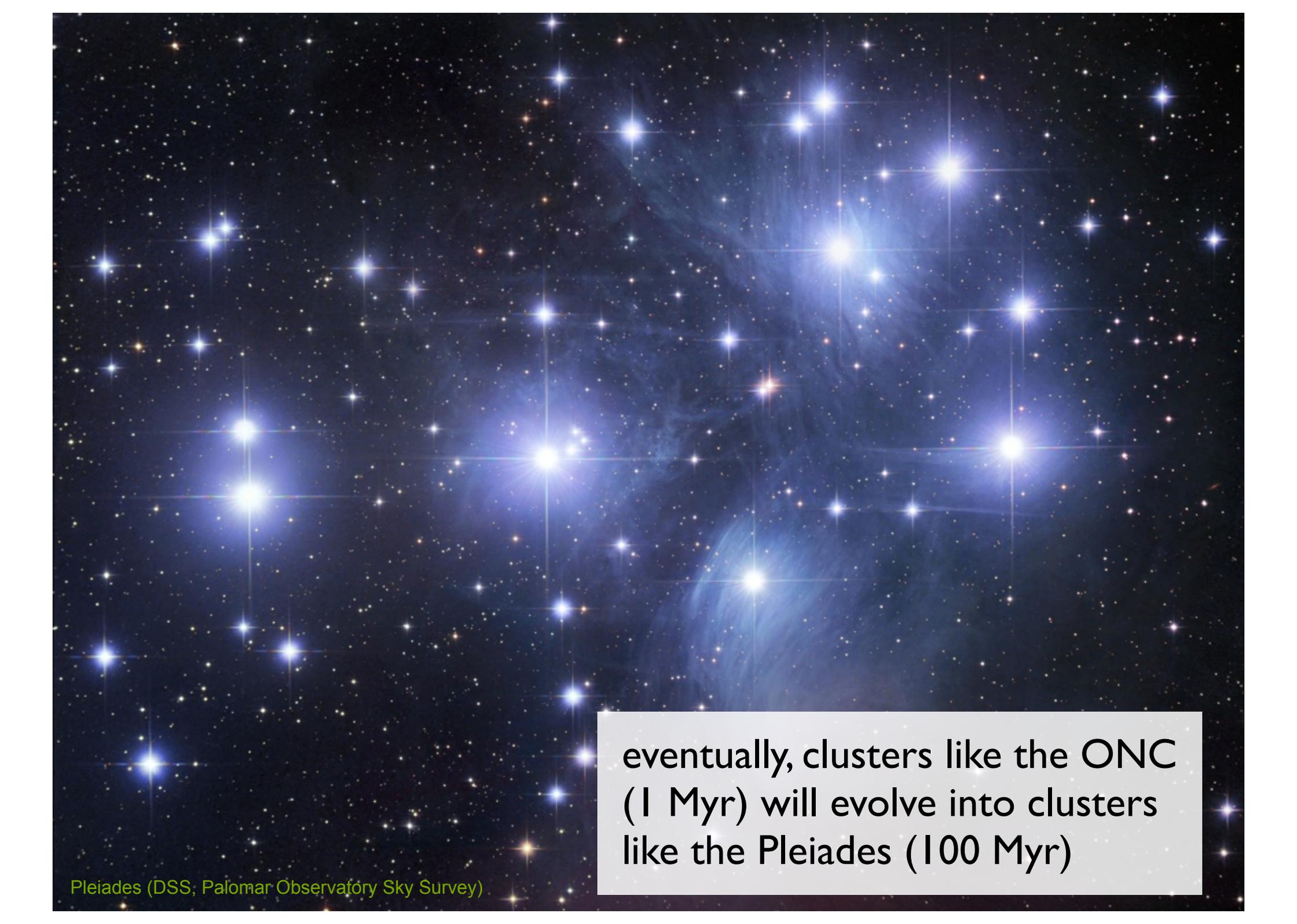


Orion Nebula Cluster (ESO, VLT, M. McCaughrean)



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

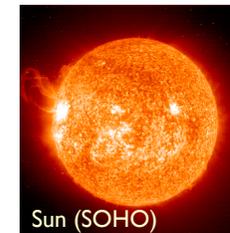
- 
- A wide-field astronomical image of the Orion Nebula Cluster, showing a vast field of stars of various colors (blue, white, yellow, red) and sizes, set against a backdrop of colorful interstellar dust and gas clouds in shades of blue, purple, and red. The stars are densely packed in some areas, particularly in the lower-left and upper-right quadrants.
- stars form in molecular clouds
 - stars form in clusters
 - stars form on \sim dynamical time
 - (protostellar) feedback is very important



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

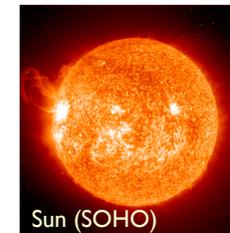
theoretical
approach

decrease in spatial scale / increase in density



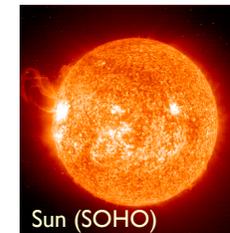
- density
 - density of ISM: few particles per cm^3
 - density of molecular cloud: few 100 particles per cm^3
 - density of Sun: 1.4 g/cm^3
- spatial scale
 - size of molecular cloud: few 10s of pc
 - size of young cluster: $\sim 1 \text{ pc}$
 - size of Sun: $1.4 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}$

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**

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

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

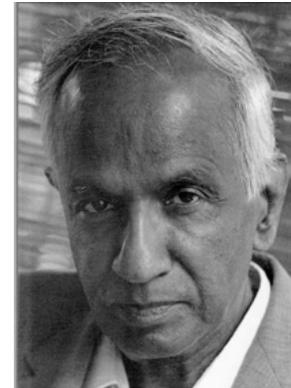
- then turbulent velocity dispersion contributes to effective soundspeed:

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

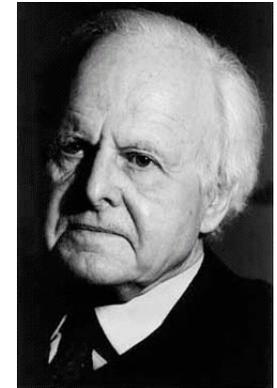
- → Larger effective Jeans masses → more stability

- 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

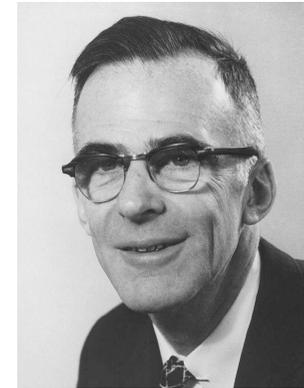
- *Mestel & Spitzer (1956)*: Magnetic fields can prevent collapse!!!
 - Critical mass for gravitational collapse in presence of B-field

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

- 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



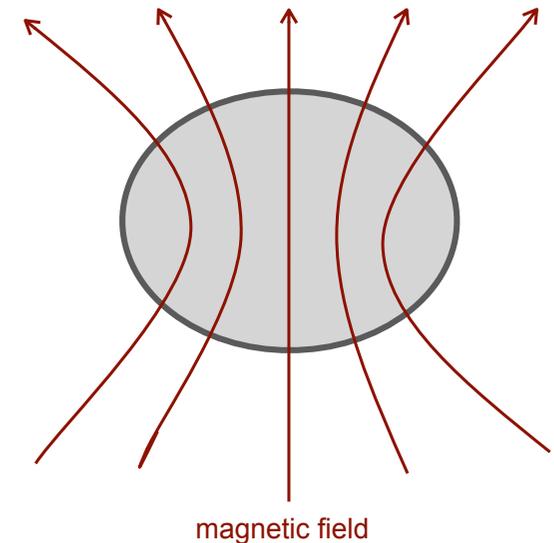
Lyman Spitzer, Jr., 1914 - 1997

“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:

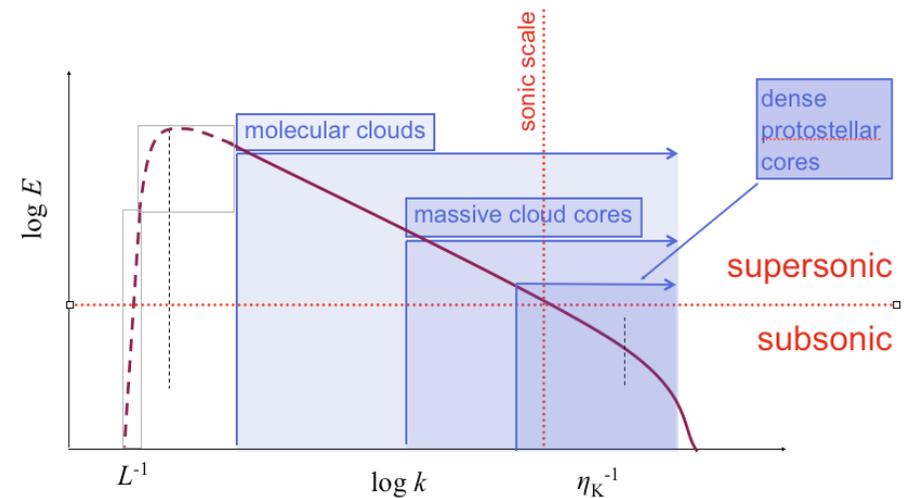
star formation is controlled by interplay between supersonic turbulence and self-gravity

- turbulence plays a *dual role*:

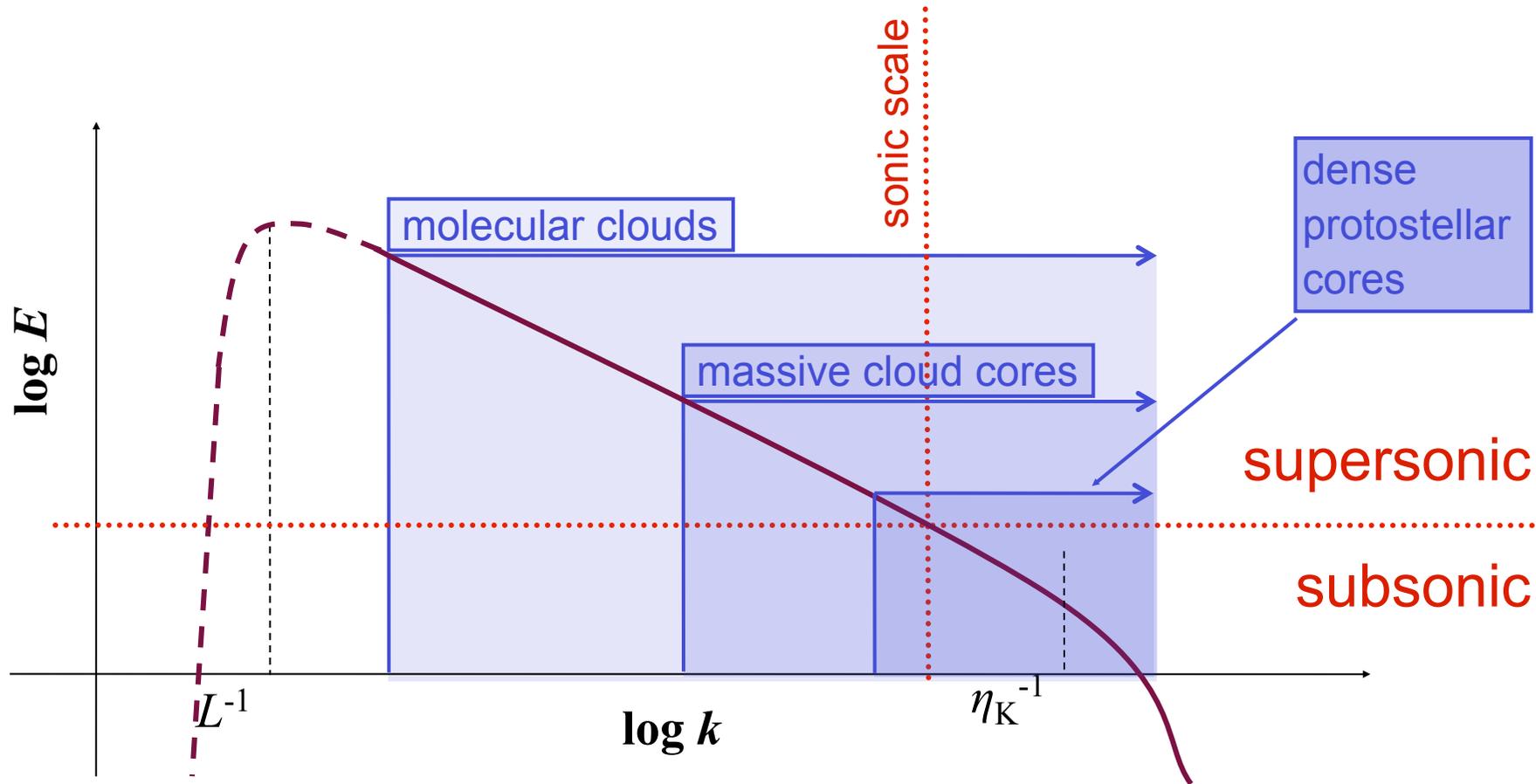
- on *large scales* it *provides support*
- on *small scales* it can *trigger collapse*

- 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

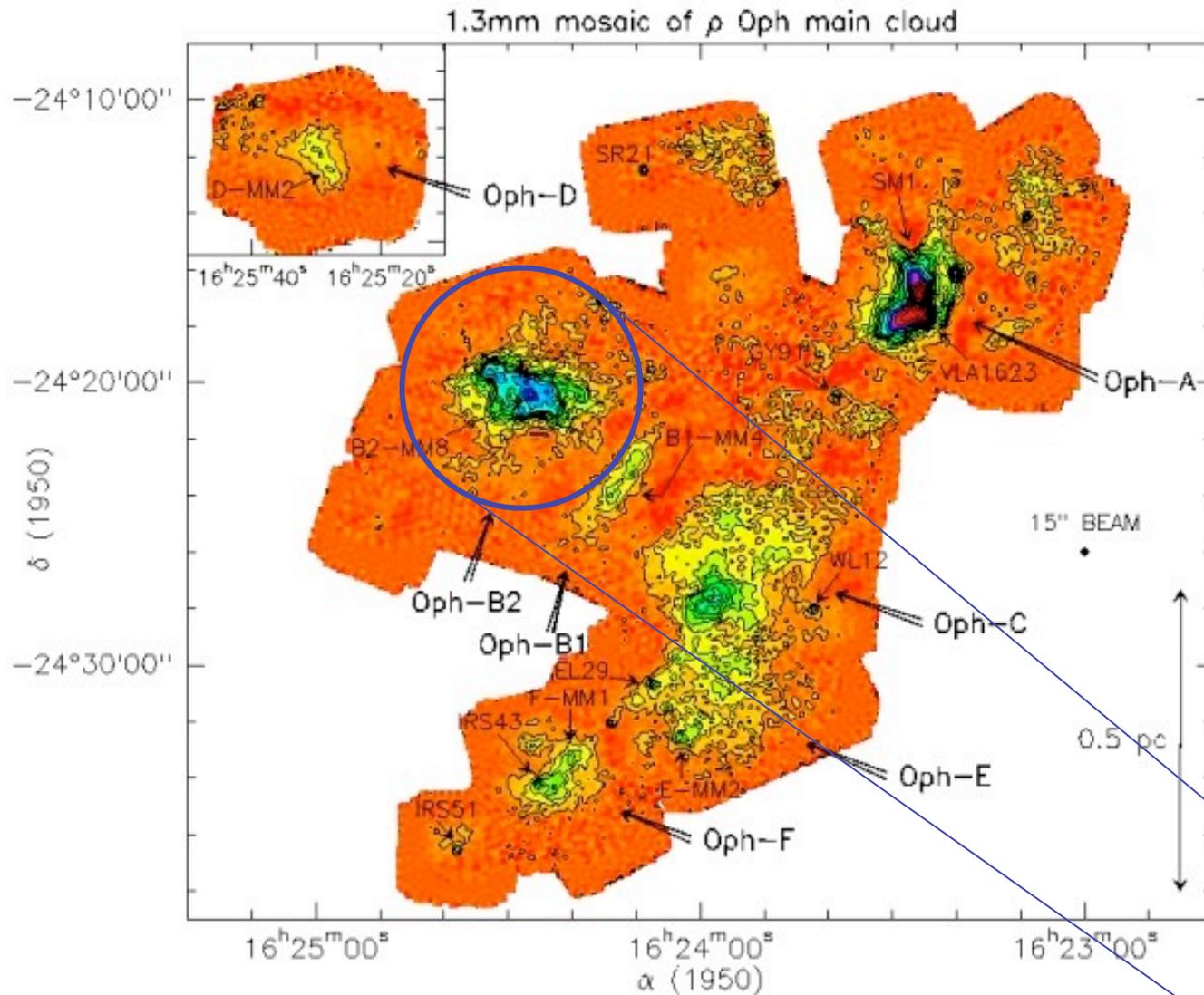


energy source & scale
NOT known
 (supernovae, winds,
 spiral density waves?)

$\sigma_{\text{rms}} \ll 1 \text{ km/s}$
 $M_{\text{rms}} \leq 1$
 $L \approx 0.1 \text{ pc}$

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

Density structure of MC's



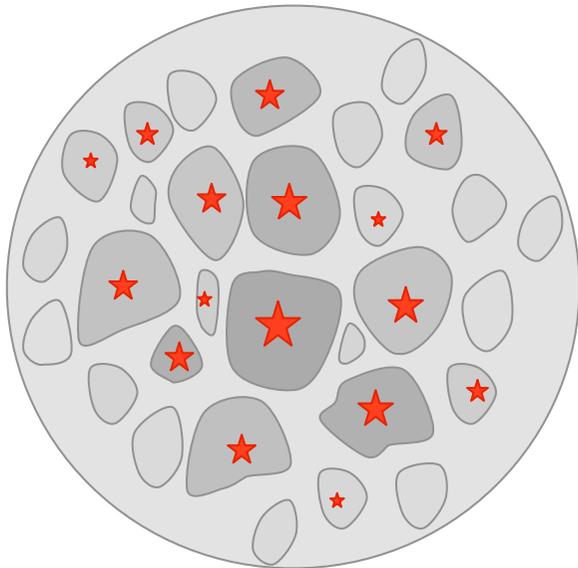
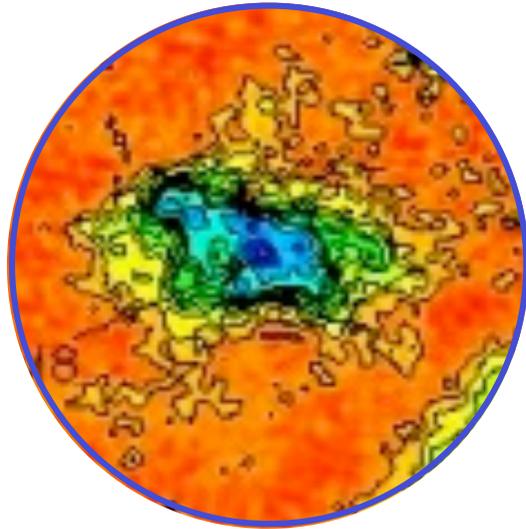
molecular clouds
are highly
inhomogeneous

stars form in the
densest and coldest
parts of the cloud

ρ -Ophiuchus cloud
seen in dust
emission

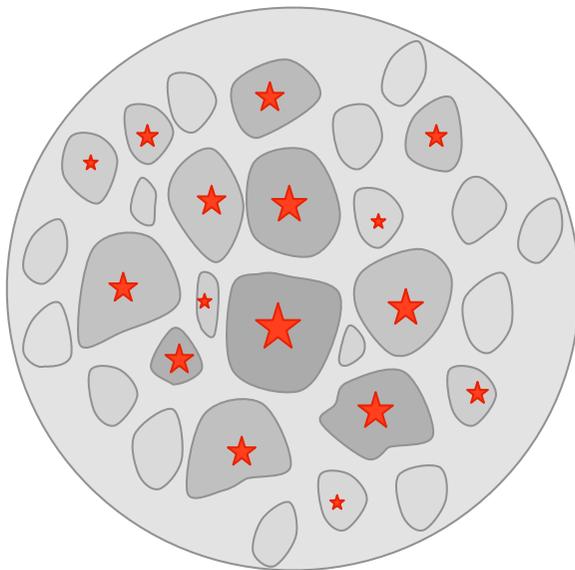
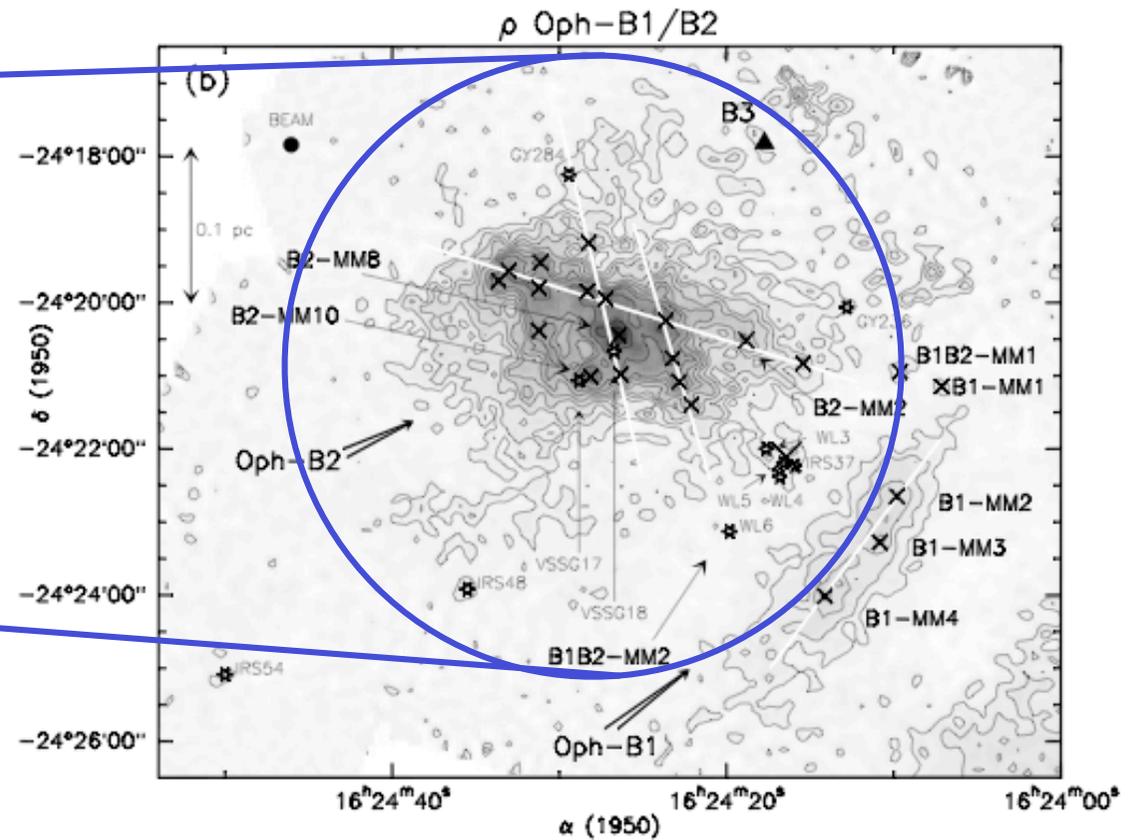
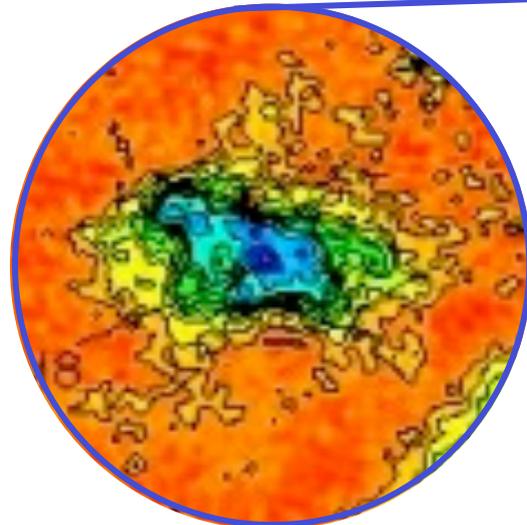
let's focus on
a cloud core
like this one

Evolution of cloud cores



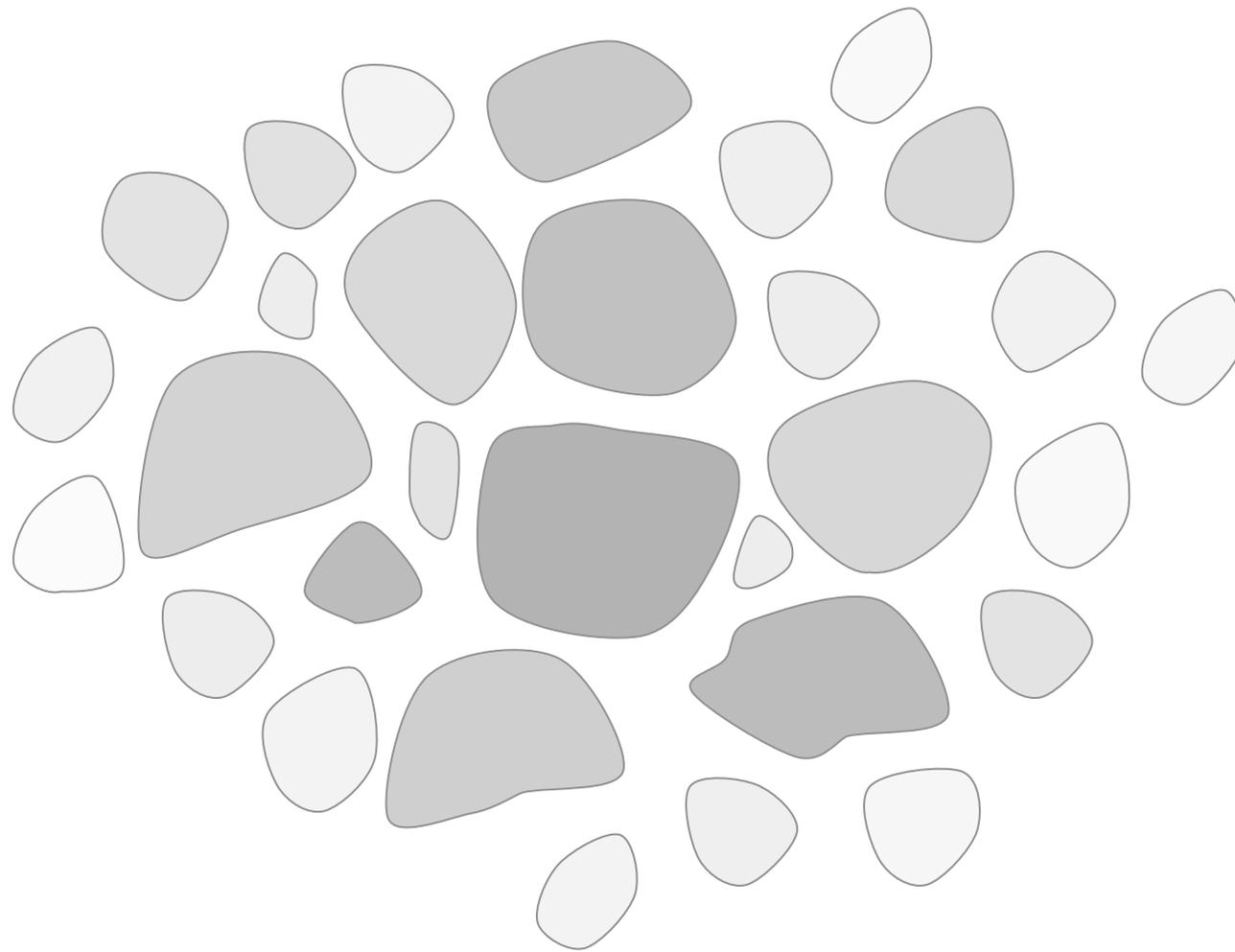
- How does this core evolve?
Does it form one single massive star or cluster with mass distribution?
- Turbulent cascade „goes through“ cloud core
--> NO *scale separation* possible
--> NO *effective sound speed*
- Turbulence is supersonic!
--> produces strong density contrasts:
 $\delta\rho/\rho \approx M^2$
--> 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

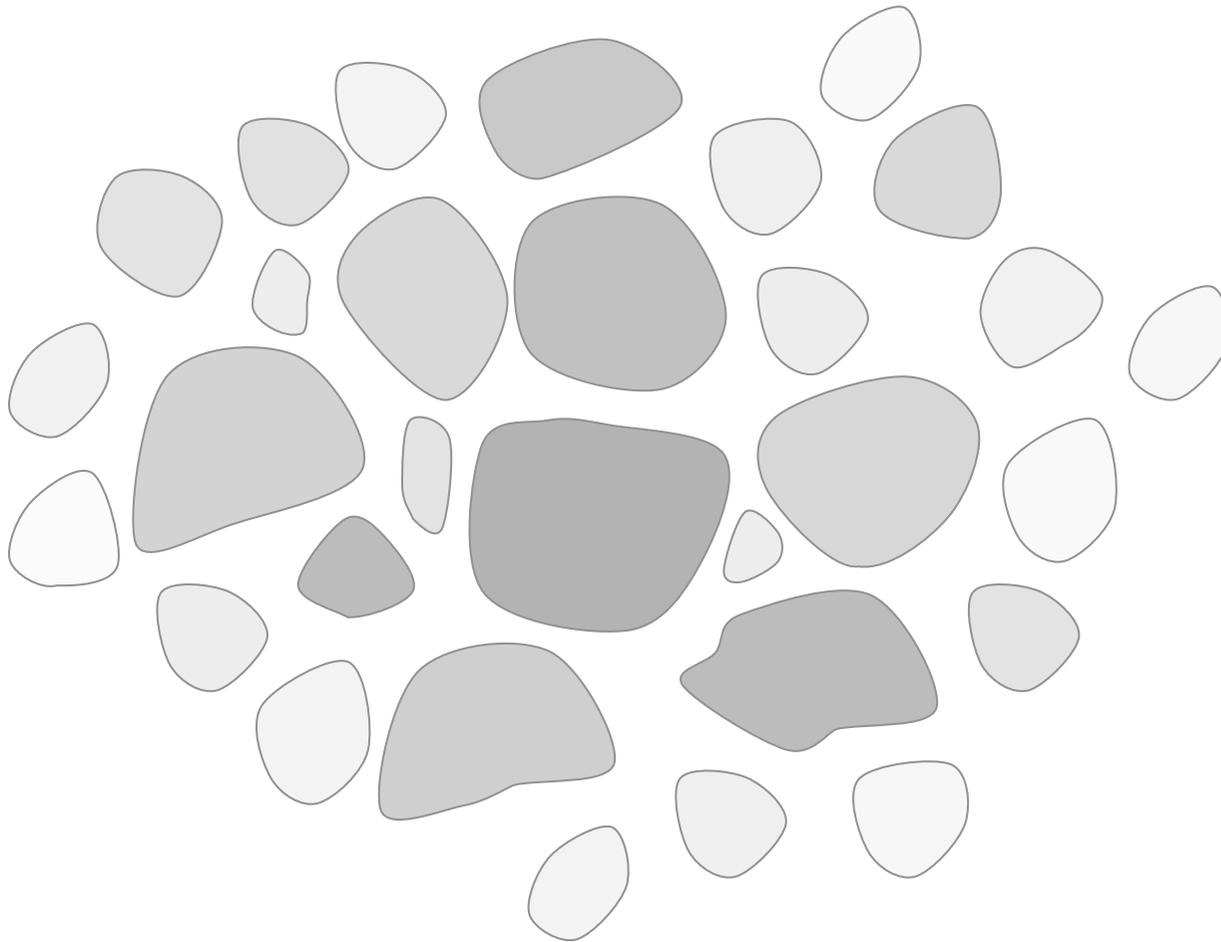


indeed ρ -Oph B1/2 contains several cores ("starless" cores are denoted by \times , cores with embedded protostars by \star)

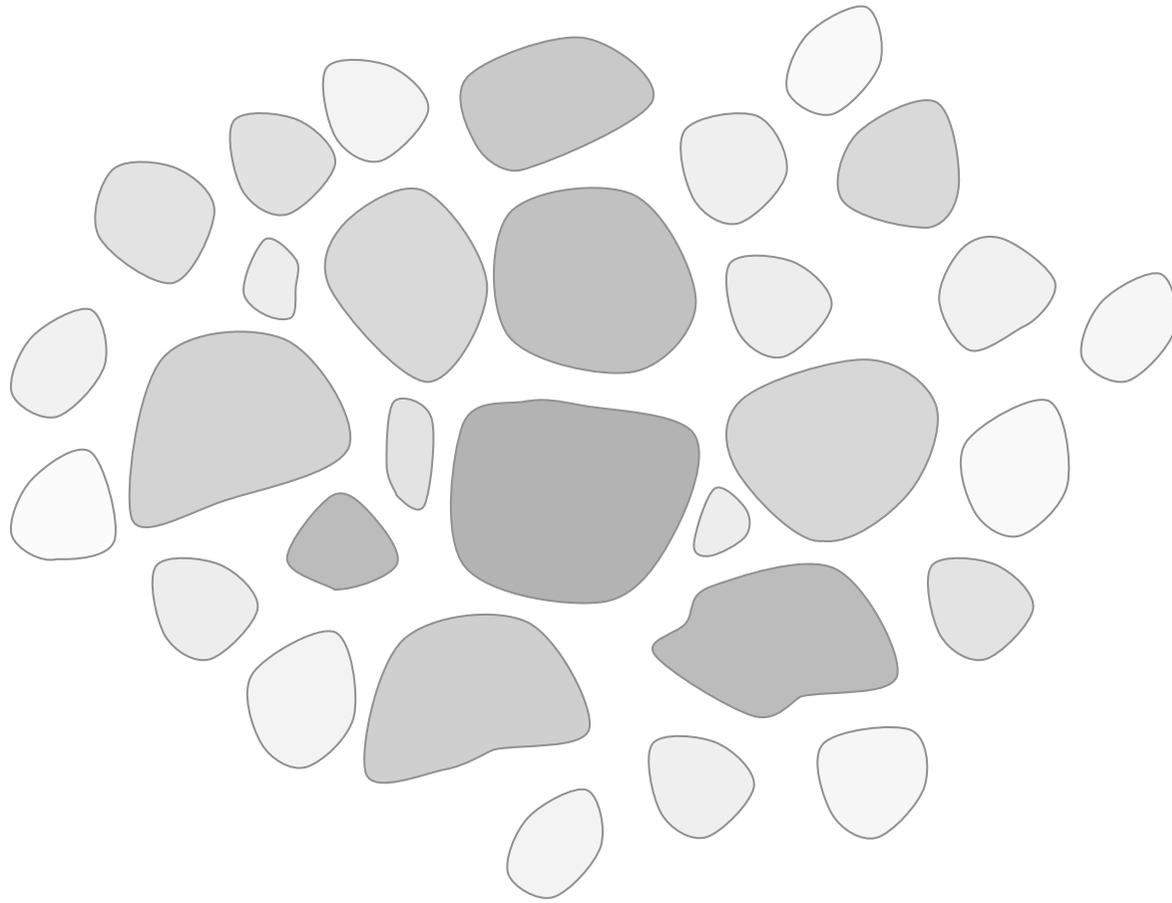
(Motte, André, & Neri 1998)



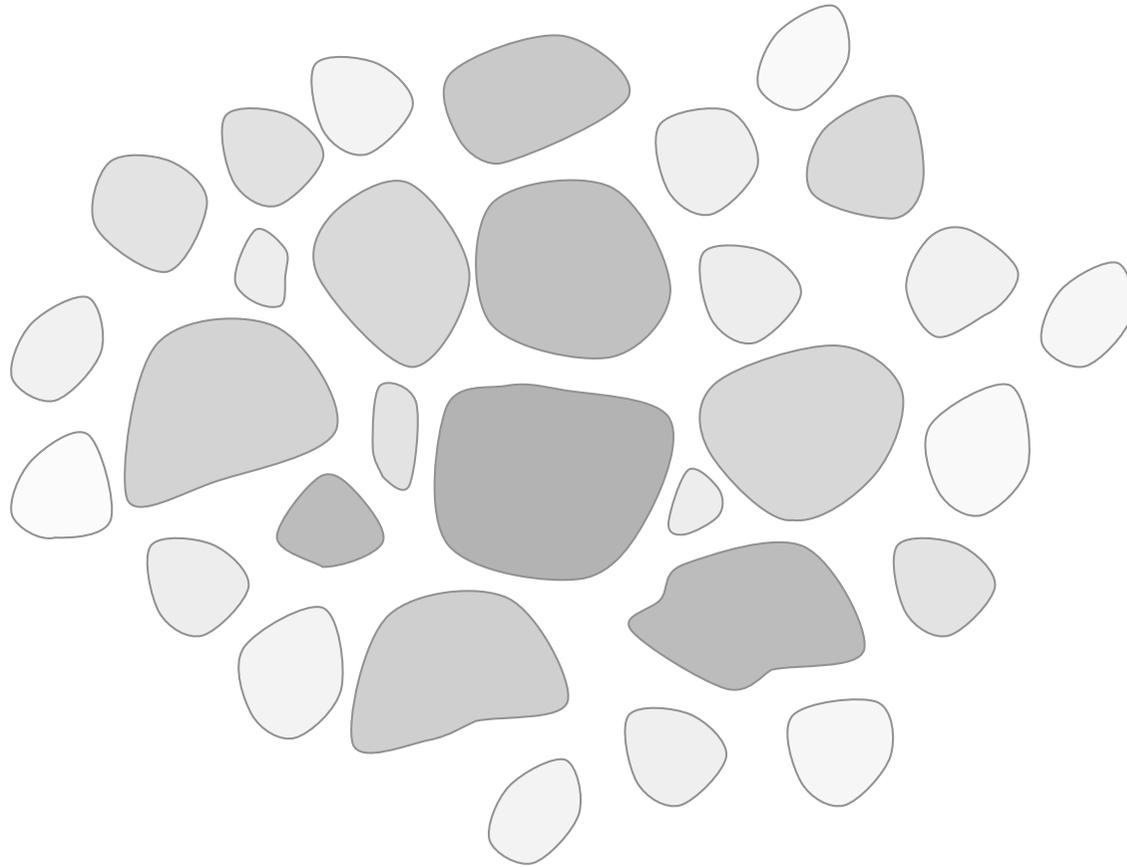
turbulence creates a hierarchy of clumps



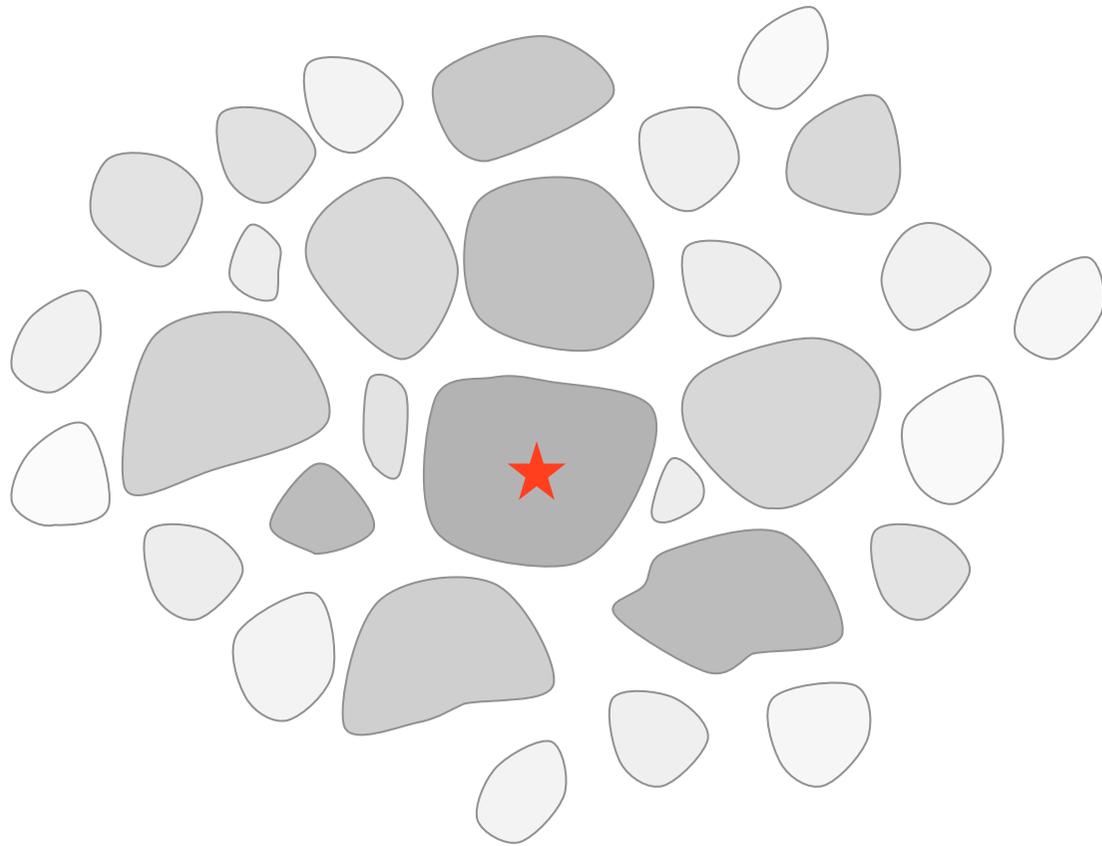
as turbulence decays locally, contraction sets in



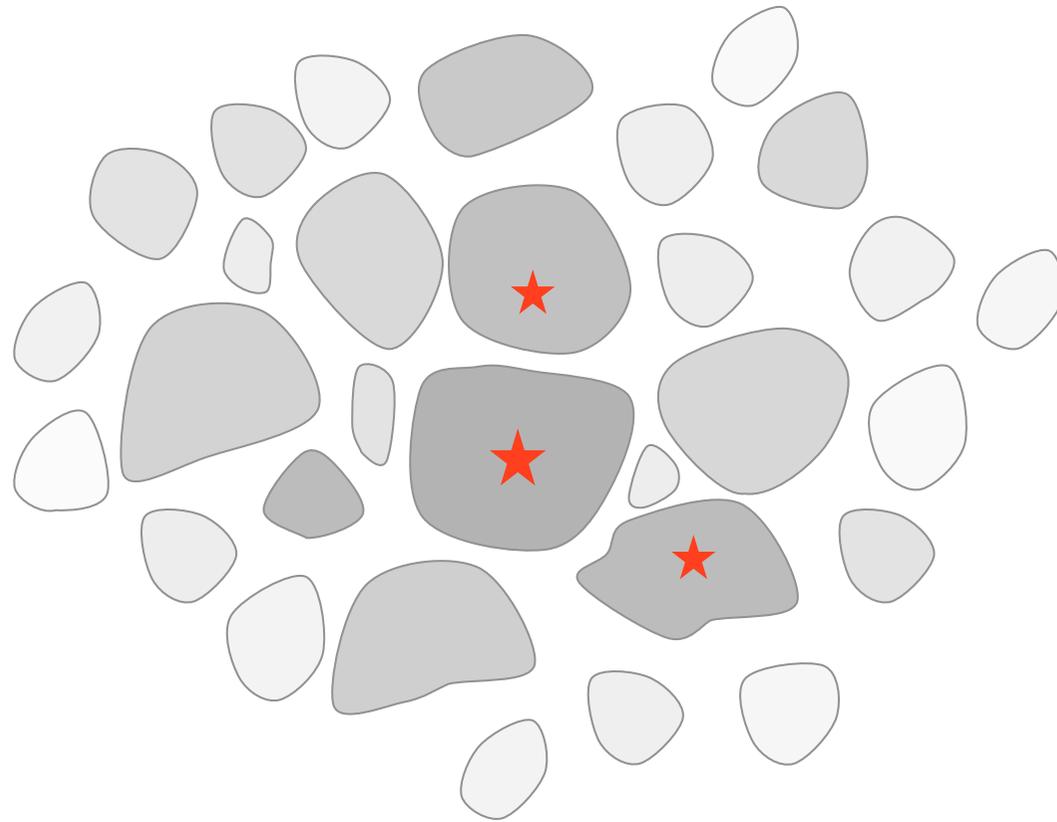
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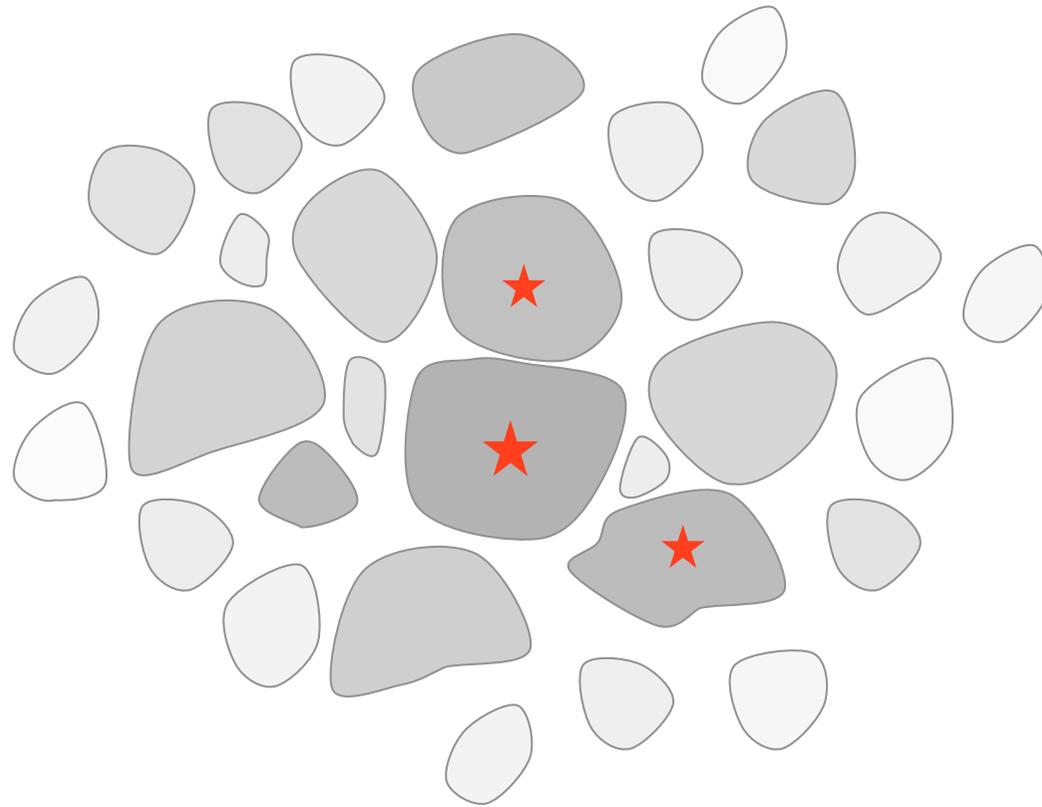
while region contracts, individual clumps collapse to form stars



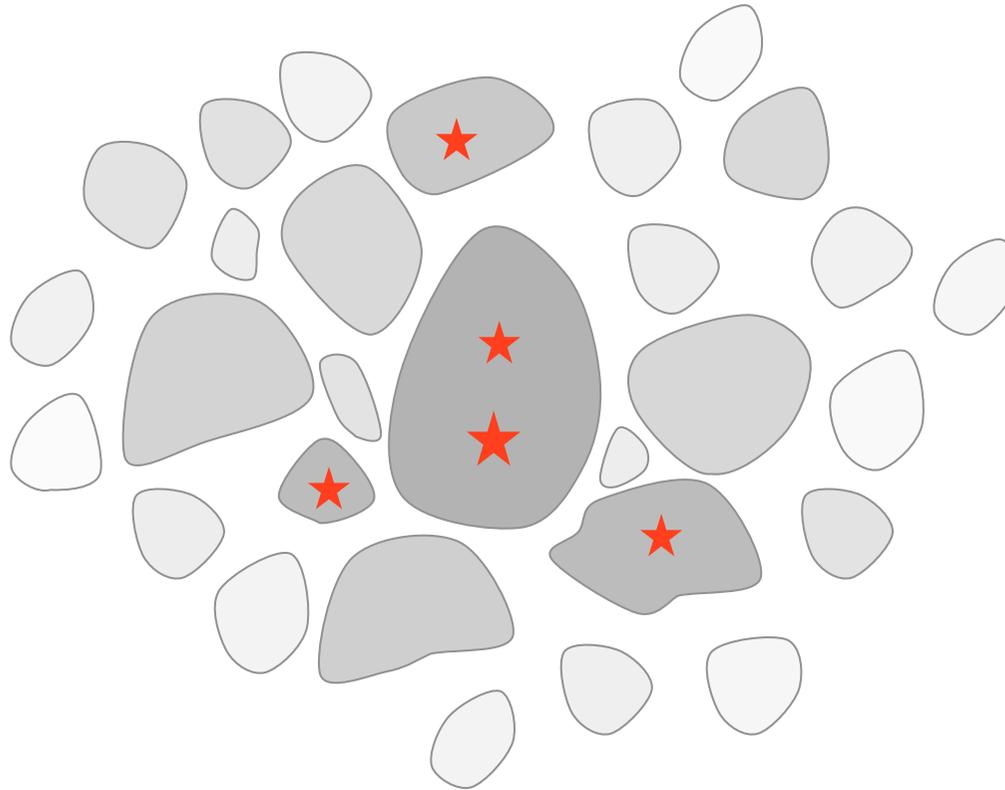
while region contracts, individual clumps collapse to form stars



individual clumps collapse to form stars

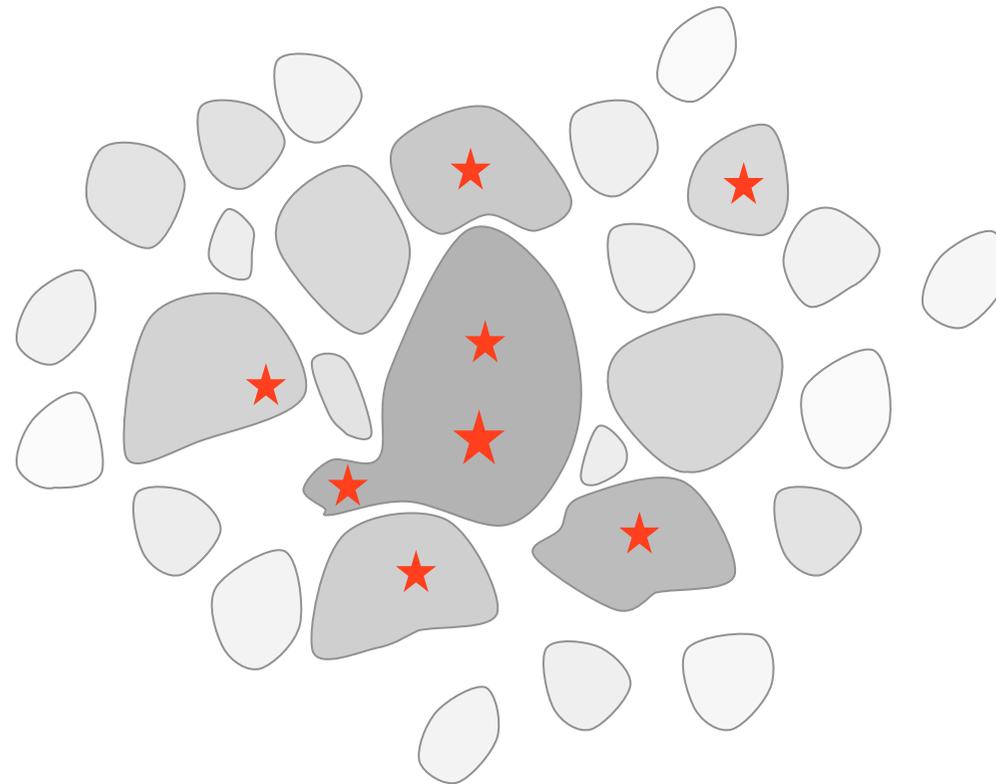


individual clumps collapse to form stars

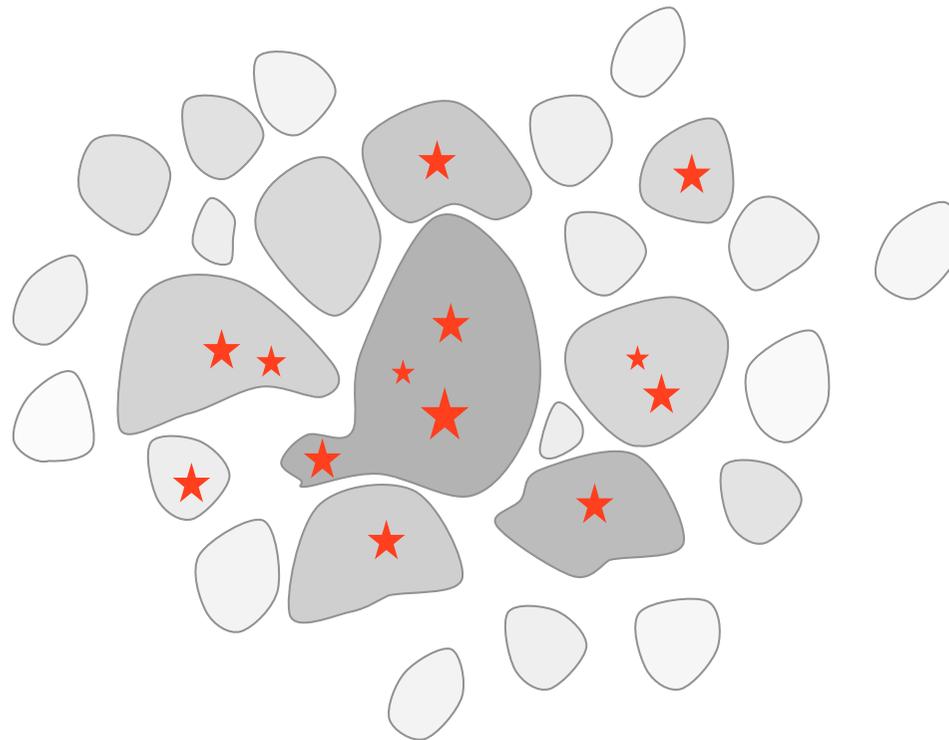


$$\alpha = E_{\text{kin}} / |E_{\text{pot}}| < 1$$

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



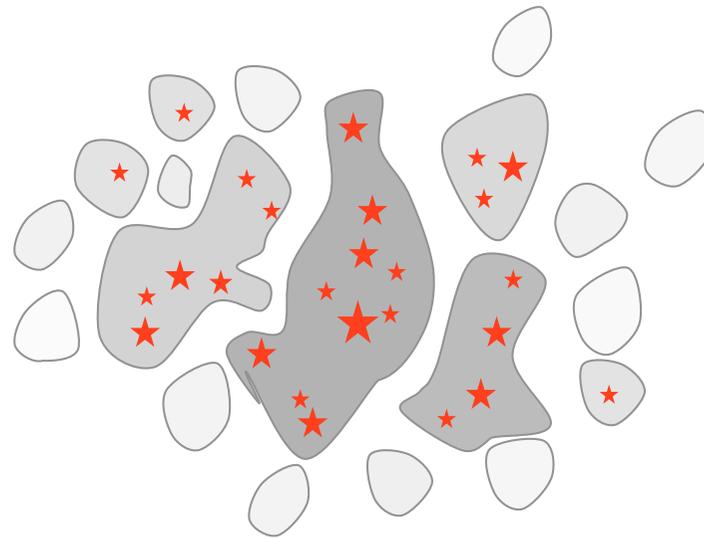
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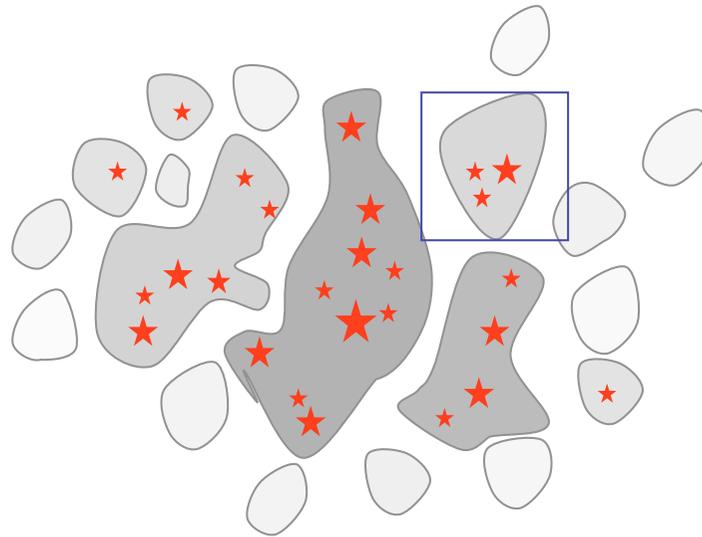
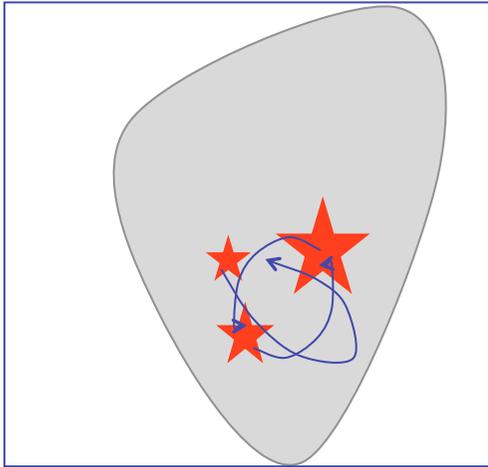
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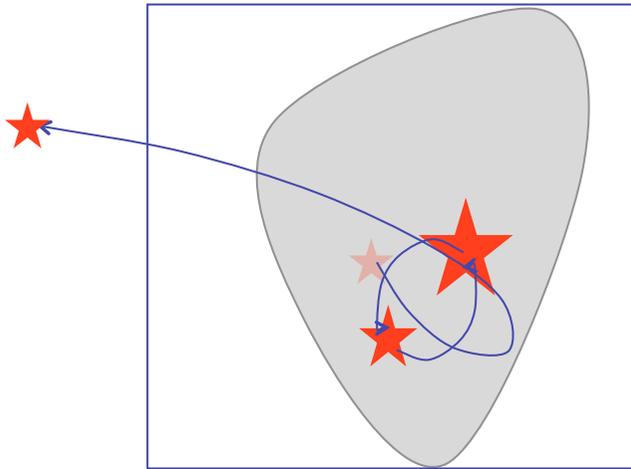
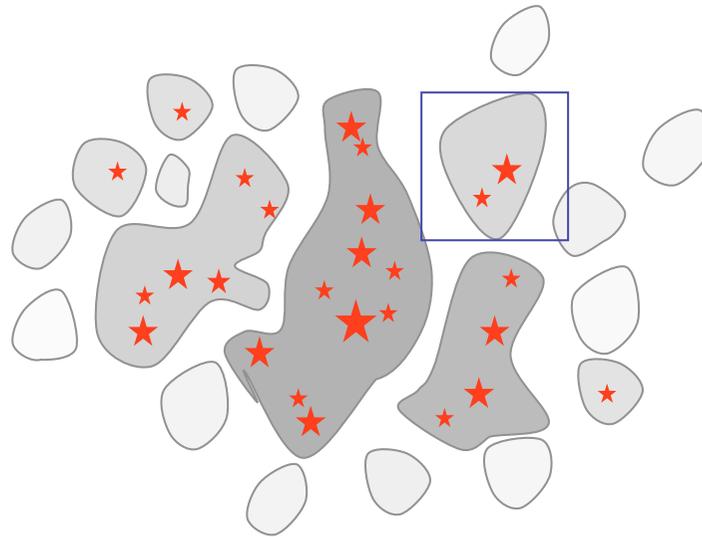
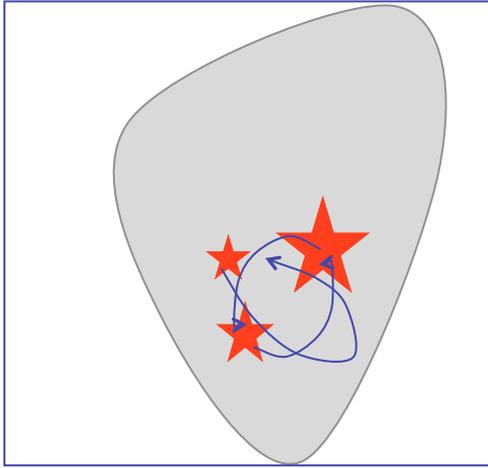
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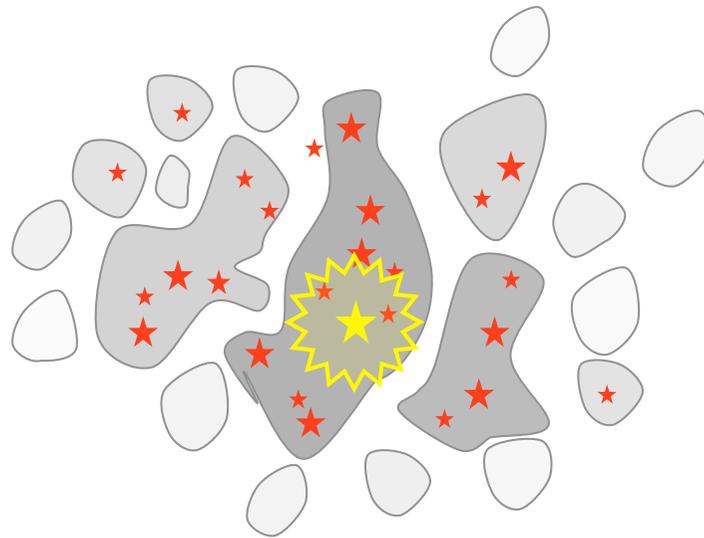
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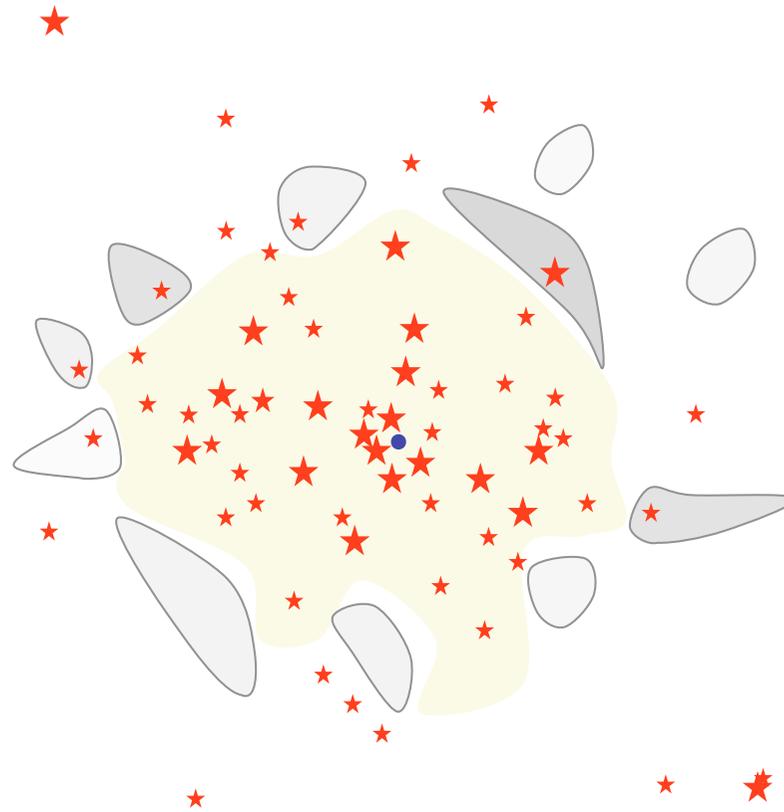
in *dense clusters*, *N*-body effects influence mass growth



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



feedback terminates star formation



result: *star cluster*, possibly with H_{II} region

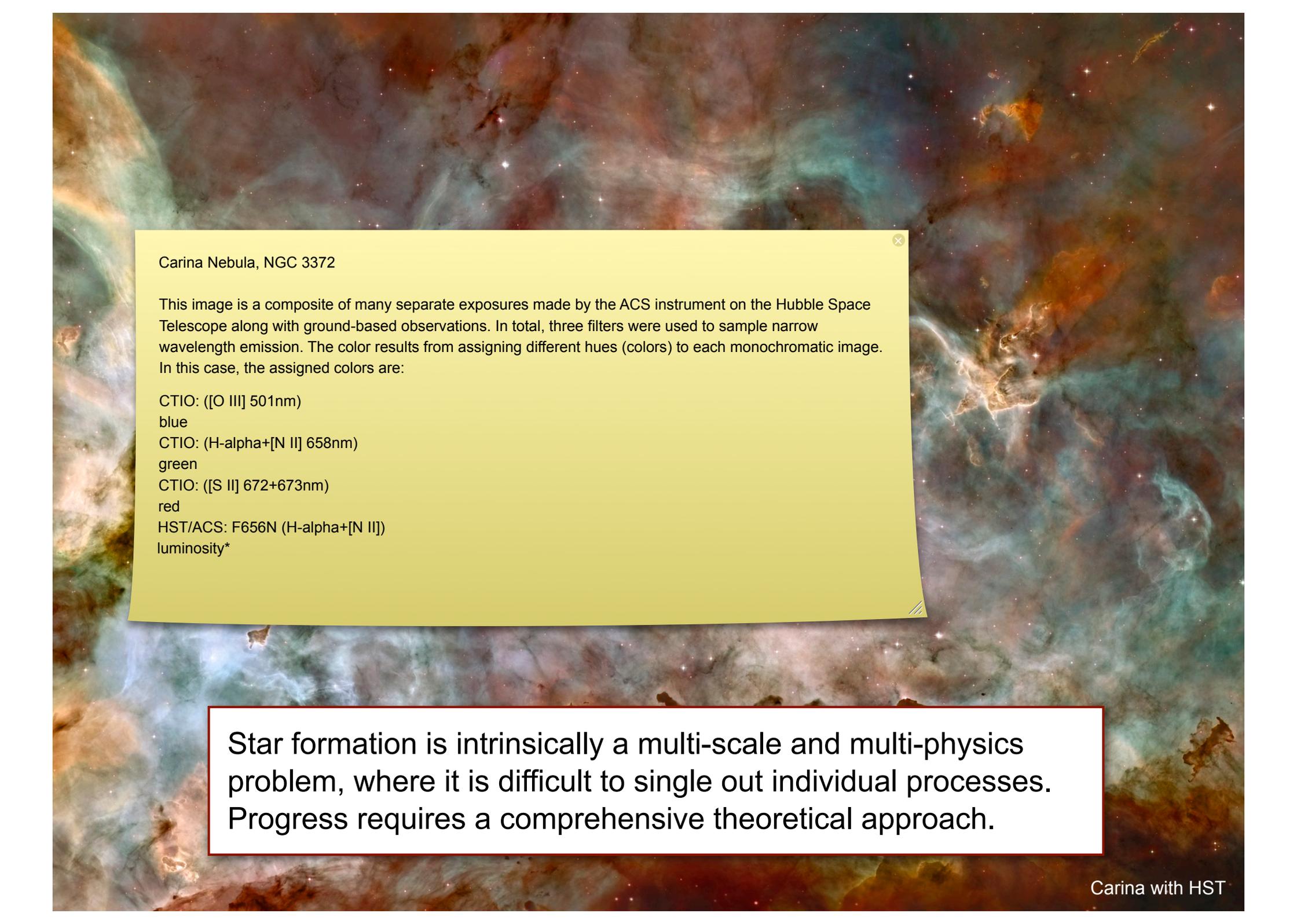


NGC 602 in the LMC: Hubble Heritage Image

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.



Carina Nebula, NGC 3372

This image is a composite of many separate exposures made by the ACS instrument on the Hubble Space Telescope along with ground-based observations. In total, three filters were used to sample narrow wavelength emission. The color results from assigning different hues (colors) to each monochromatic image. In this case, the assigned colors are:

CTIO: ([O III] 501nm)

blue

CTIO: (H-alpha+[N II] 658nm)

green

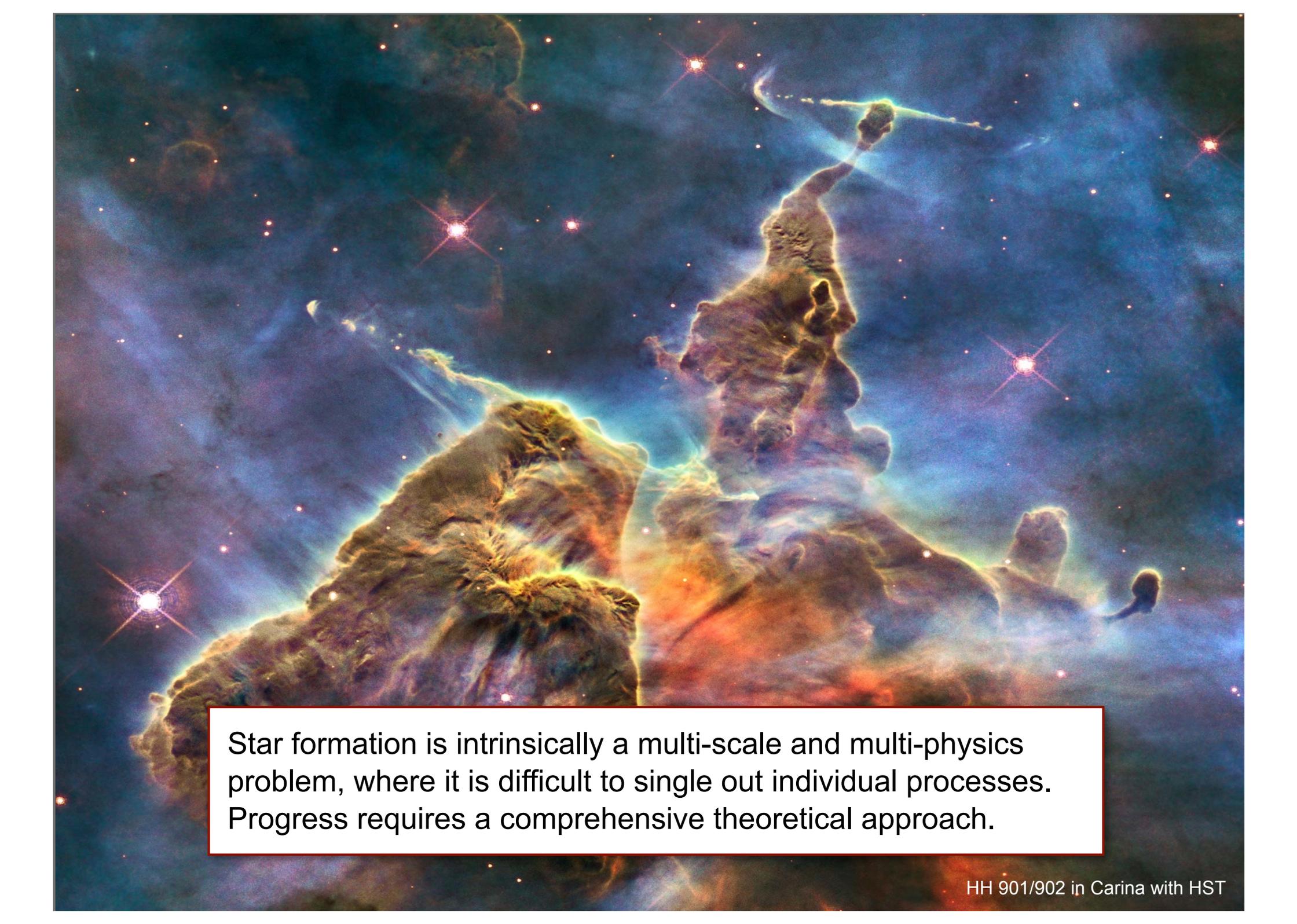
CTIO: ([S II] 672+673nm)

red

HST/ACS: F656N (H-alpha+[N II])

luminosity*

Star formation is intrinsically a multi-scale and multi-physics problem, where it is difficult to single out individual processes. Progress requires a comprehensive theoretical approach.



Star formation is intrinsically a multi-scale and multi-physics problem, where it is difficult to single out individual processes. Progress requires a comprehensive theoretical approach.

selected open questions

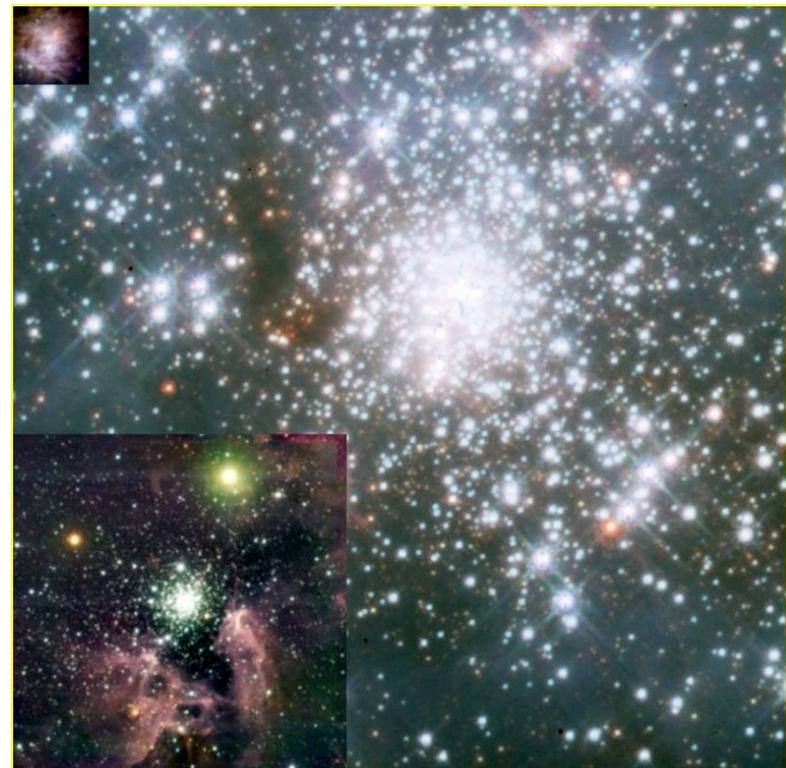
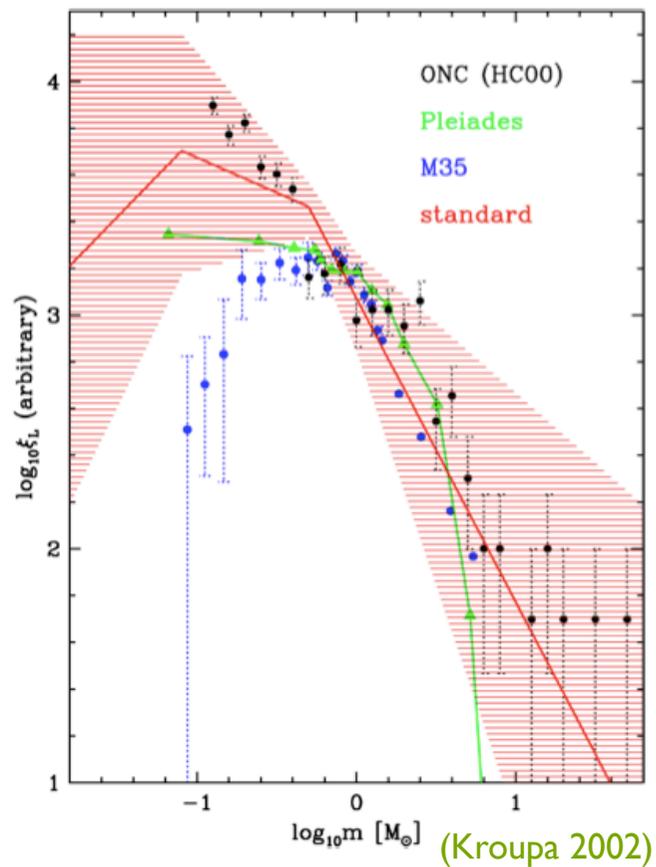
- what processes determine the initial mass function (IMF) of stars?
- what are the initial conditions for star cluster formation?
how does cloud structure translate into cluster structure?
- how do molecular clouds form and evolve?
- what drives turbulence?
- what triggers / regulates star formation 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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stellar mass function

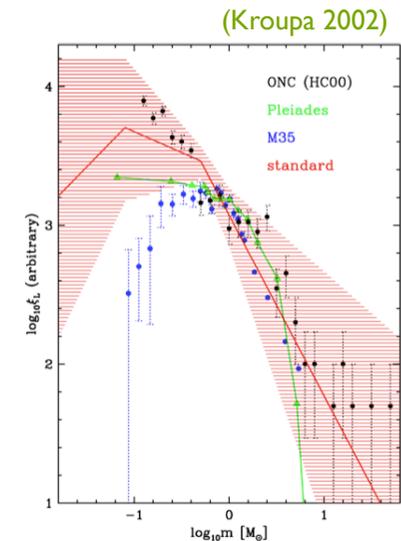
stars seem to follow a universal mass function at birth --> IMF



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

stellar masses

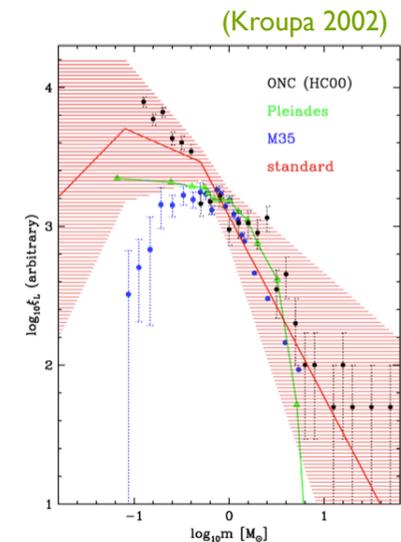
- distribution of stellar masses depends on
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stellar masses

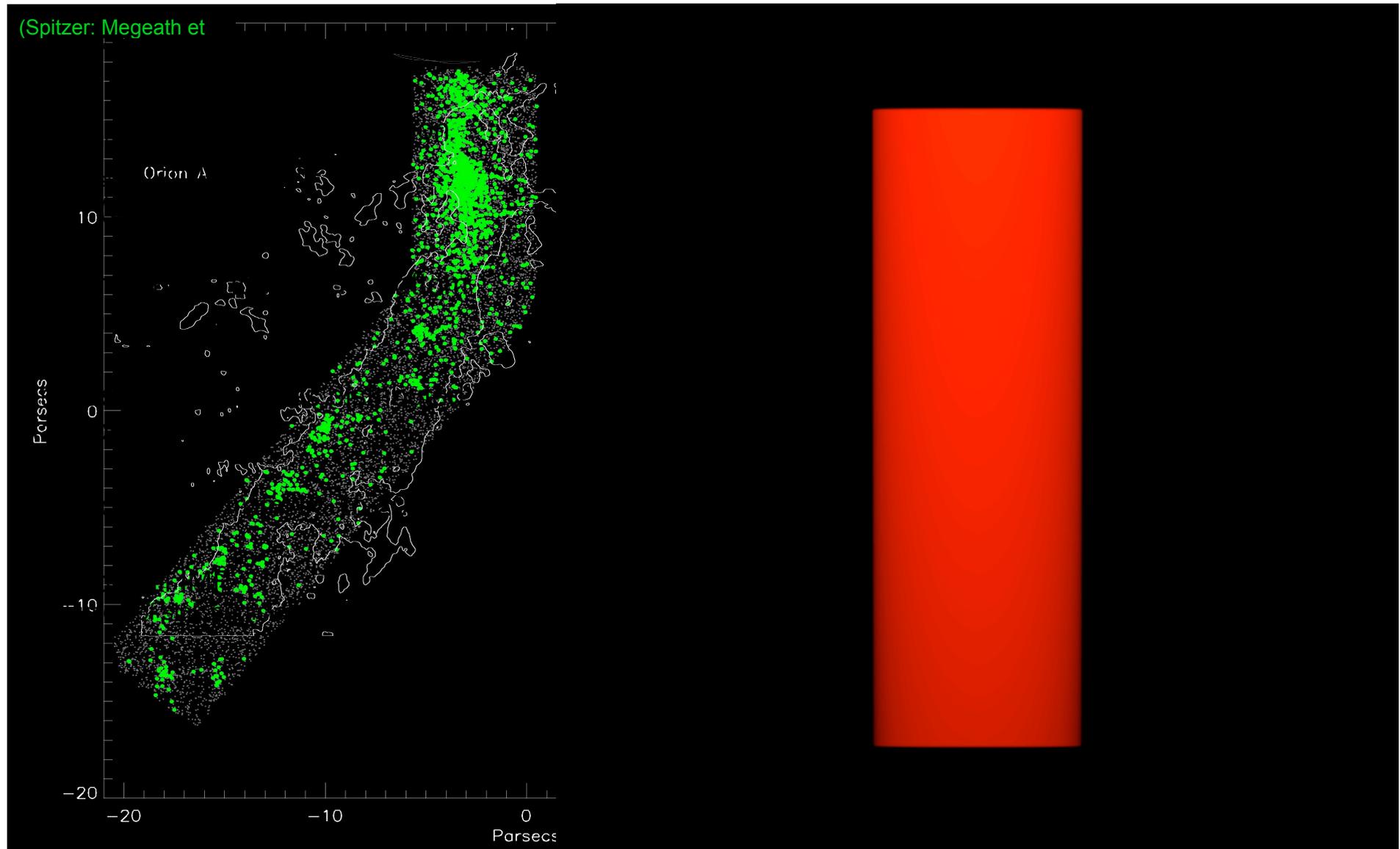
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example: model of Orion cloud

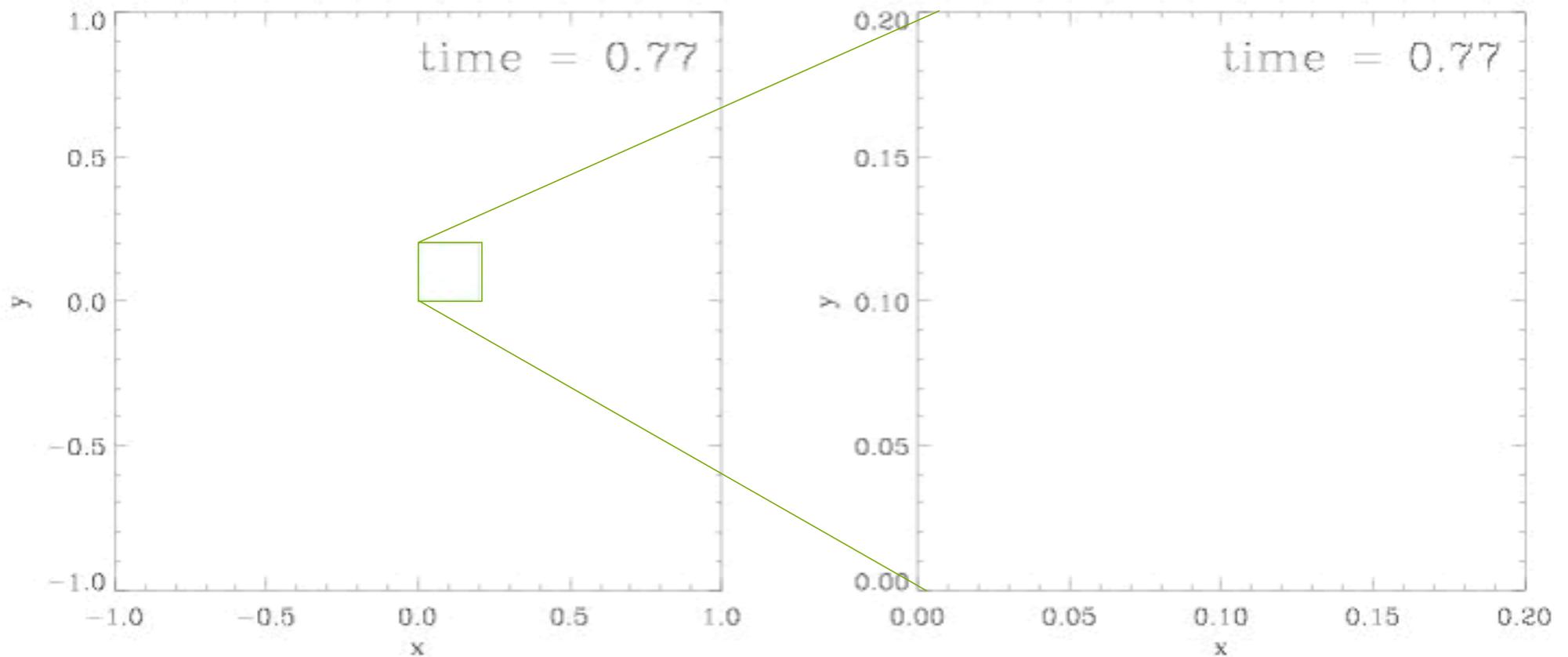


(Bonnell, Smith, Clark, & Bate 2010, MNRAS, 410, 2339)



dynamics of nascent star cluster

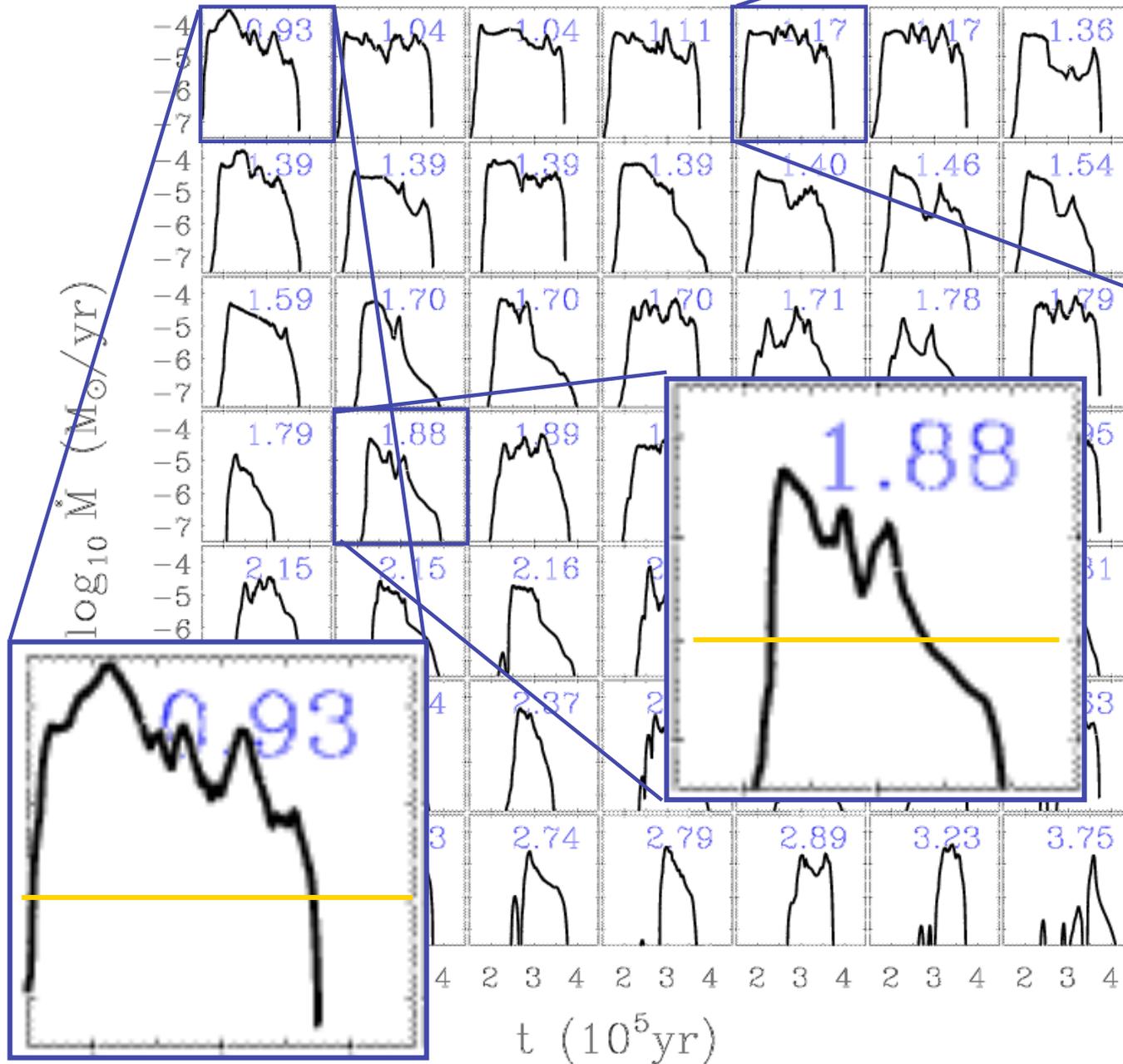
in dense clusters protostellar interaction may become important!



Trajectories of protostars in a nascent dense cluster created by gravoturbulent fragmentation
(from Klessen & Burkert 2000, *ApJS*, 128, 287)



accretion rates in clust



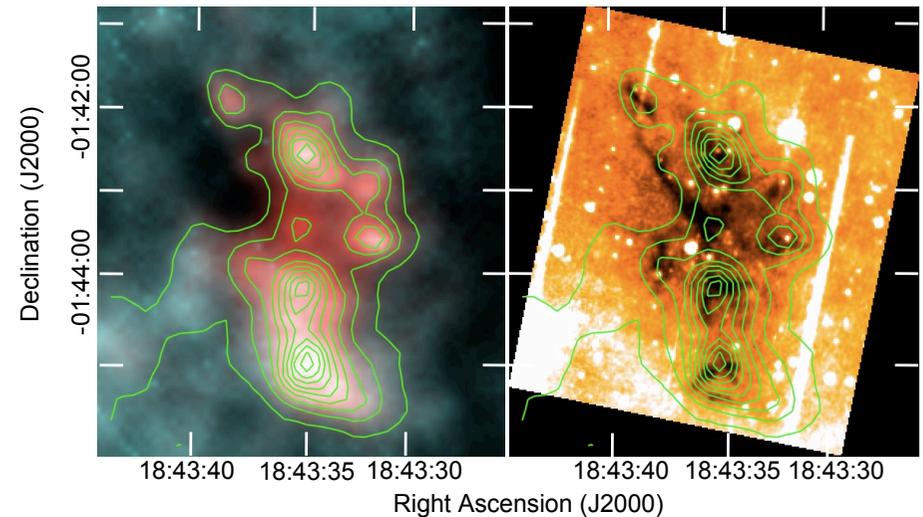
Mass accretion rates *vary with time* and are strongly *influenced* by the *cluster environment*.

(Klessen 2001, ApJ, 550, L77;
also Schmeja & Klessen,
2004, A&A, 419, 405)

important caveat:
initial conditions?

ICs of star cluster formation

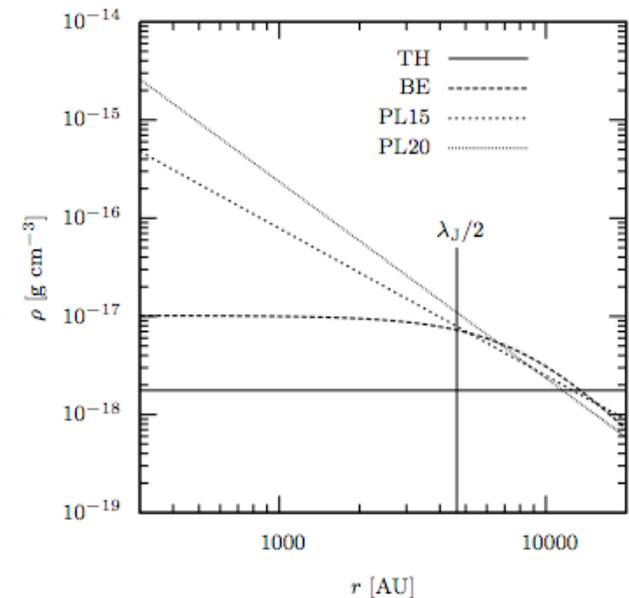
- key question:
 - what is the initial density profile of cluster forming cores?
how does it compare low-mass cores?
- observers answer:
 - very difficult to determine!
 - ▶ most high-mass cores have some SF inside
 - ▶ infra-red dark clouds (IRDCs) are difficult to study
 - but: new results with Herschel



IRDC observed with Herschel, Peretto et al. (2010)

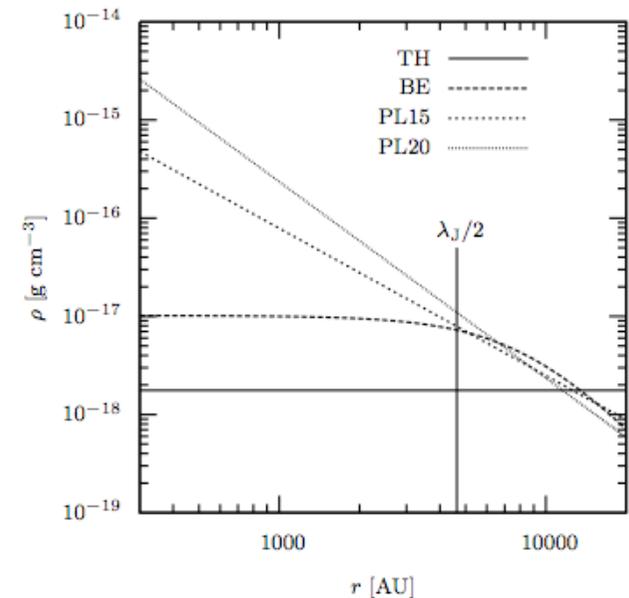
different density profiles

- 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



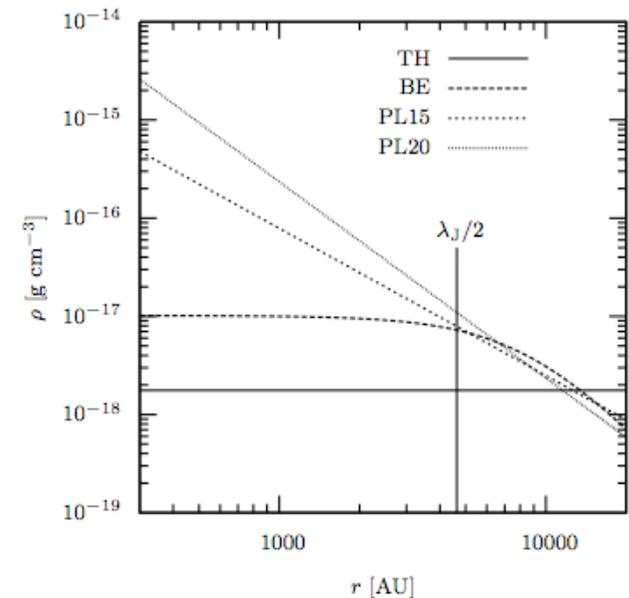
different density profiles

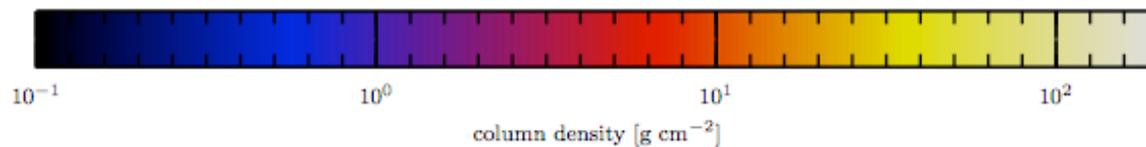
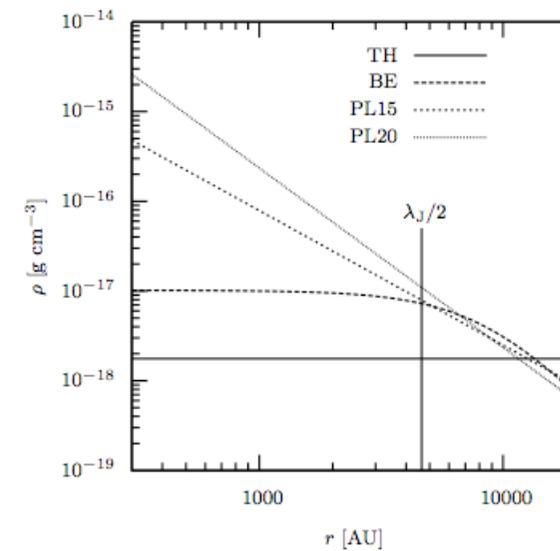
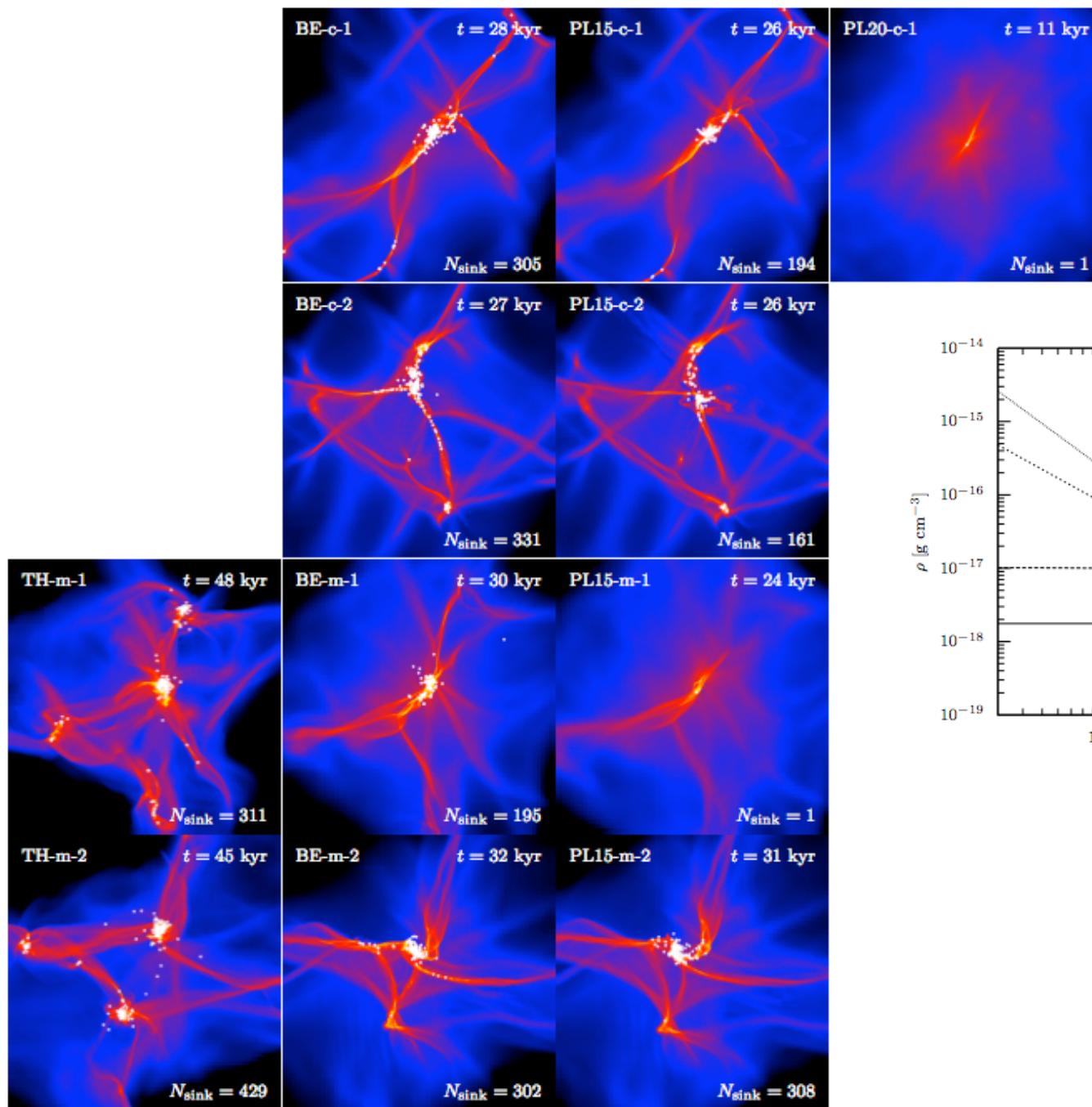
- does the density profile matter?
 -
 -
 -
- in comparison to
 - turbulence ...
 - radiative feedback ...
 - magnetic fields ...
 - thermodynamics ...



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

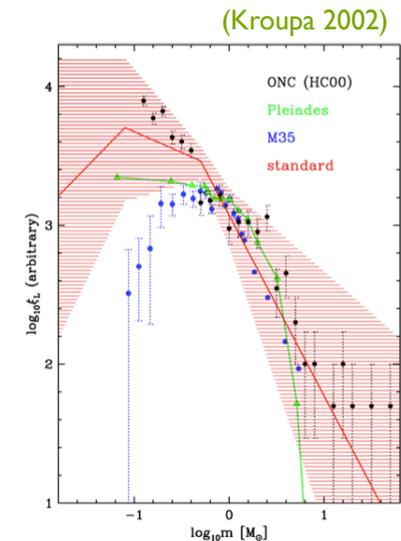
different density profiles

- different density profiles lead to very different fragmentation behavior
- fragmentation is strongly suppressed for very peaked, power-law profiles
- this is *good* because it may explain some of the theoretical controversy, we have in the field
- this is *bad*, because all current calculations are “wrong” in the sense that the formation process of the star-forming core is neglected.

• **CONCLUSION:** take molecular cloud formation into account in theoretical / numerical models!

stellar mass function

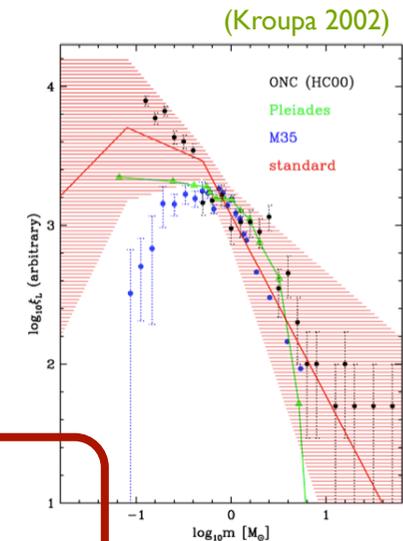
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application to early star formation



thermodynamics & fragmentation

degree of fragmentation depends on *EOS*!

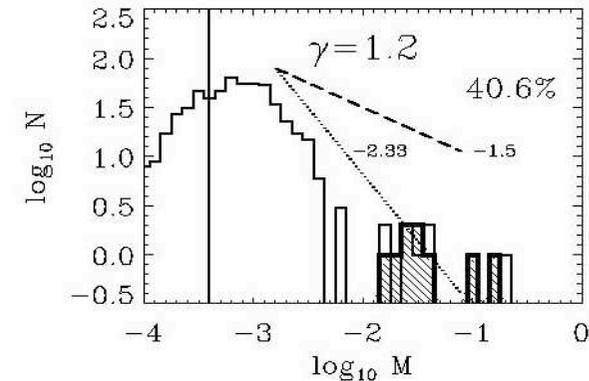
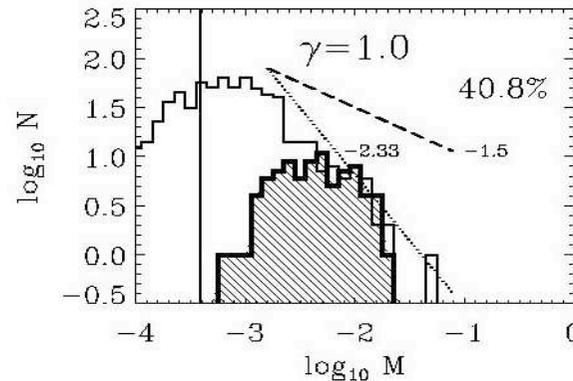
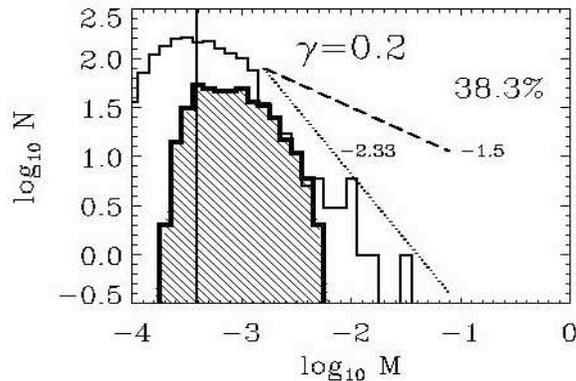
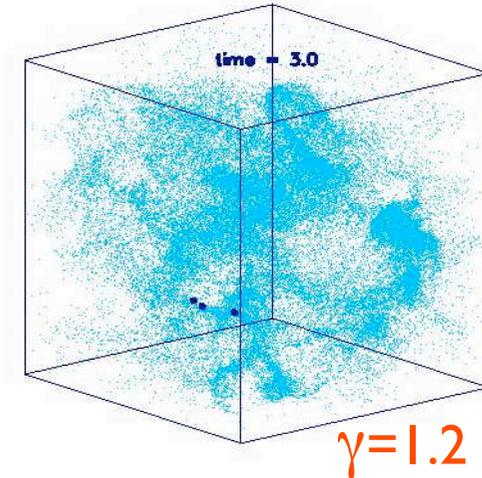
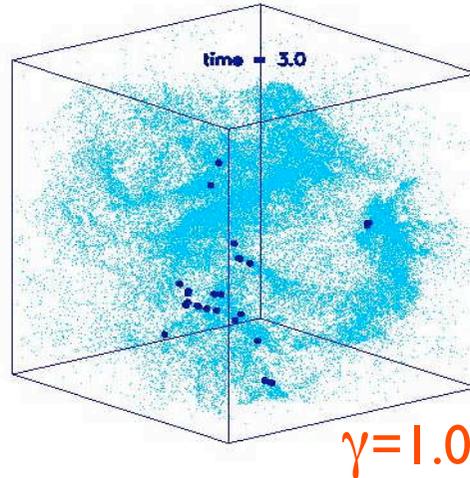
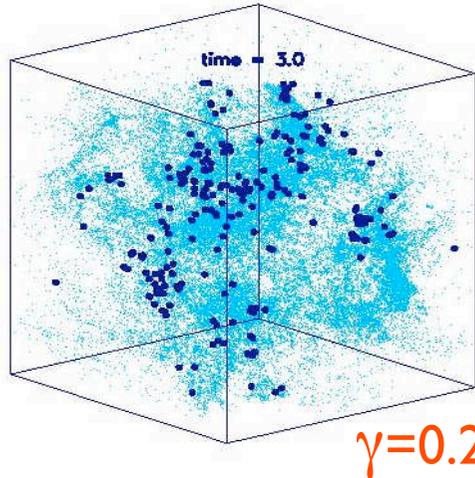
polytropic EOS: $p \propto \rho^\gamma$

$\gamma < 1$: 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

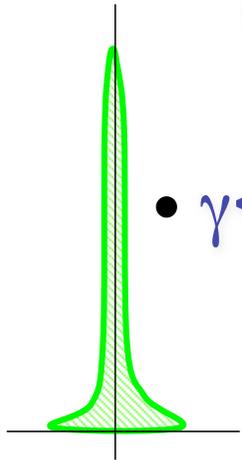


for $\gamma < 1$ fragmentation is enhanced \rightarrow *cluster of low-mass stars*
for $\gamma > 1$ it is suppressed \rightarrow *isolated massive stars*

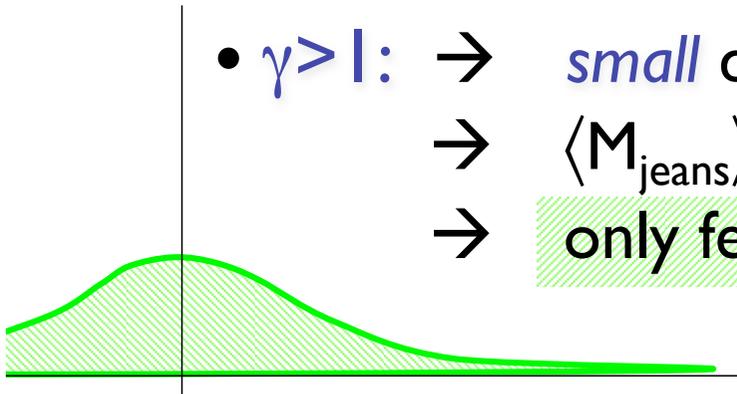
how does that work?

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

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

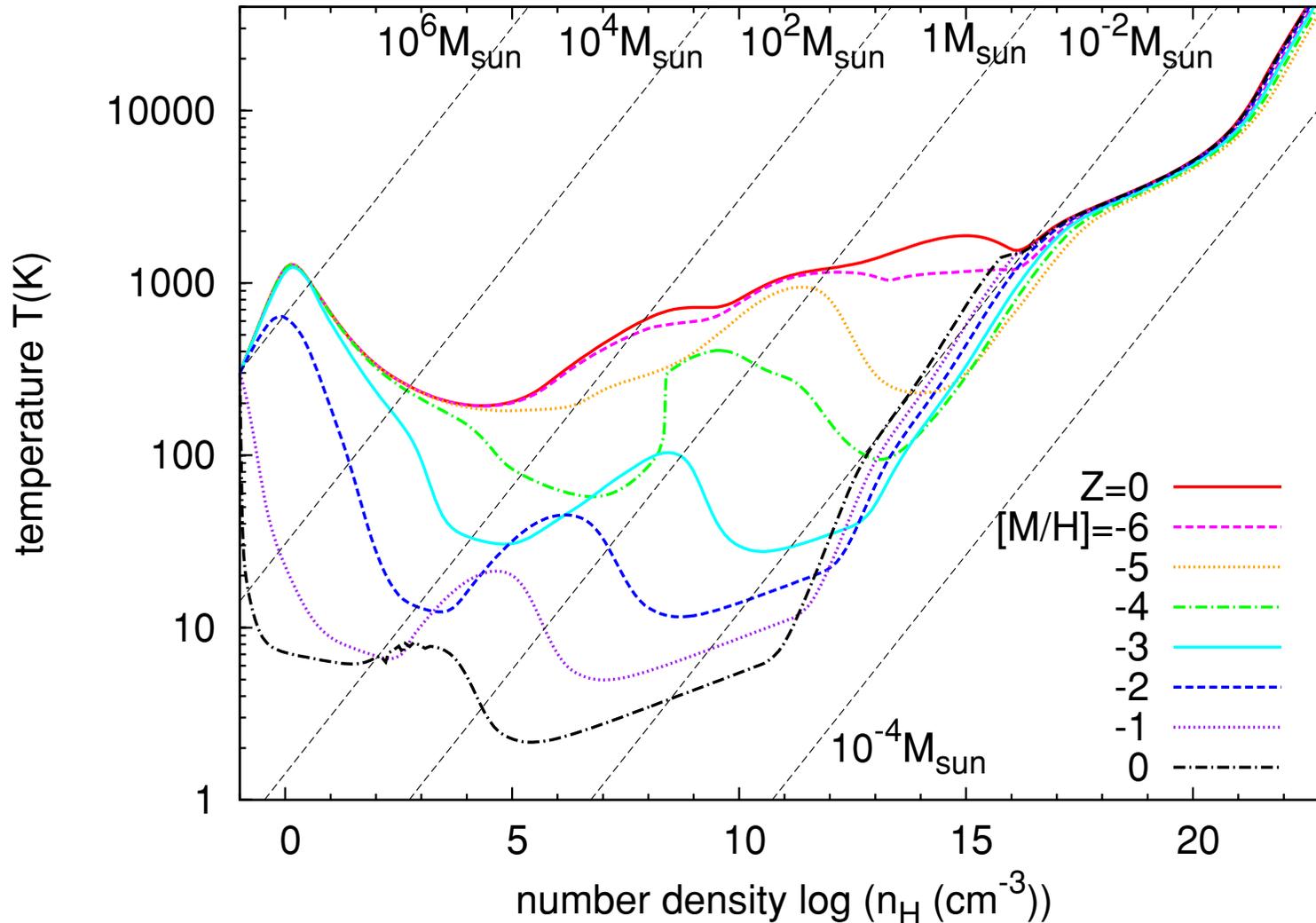


- $\gamma < 1$: \rightarrow *large* density excursion for given pressure
 - \rightarrow $\langle M_{\text{jeans}} \rangle$ becomes small
 - \rightarrow number of fluctuations with $M > M_{\text{jeans}}$ is large



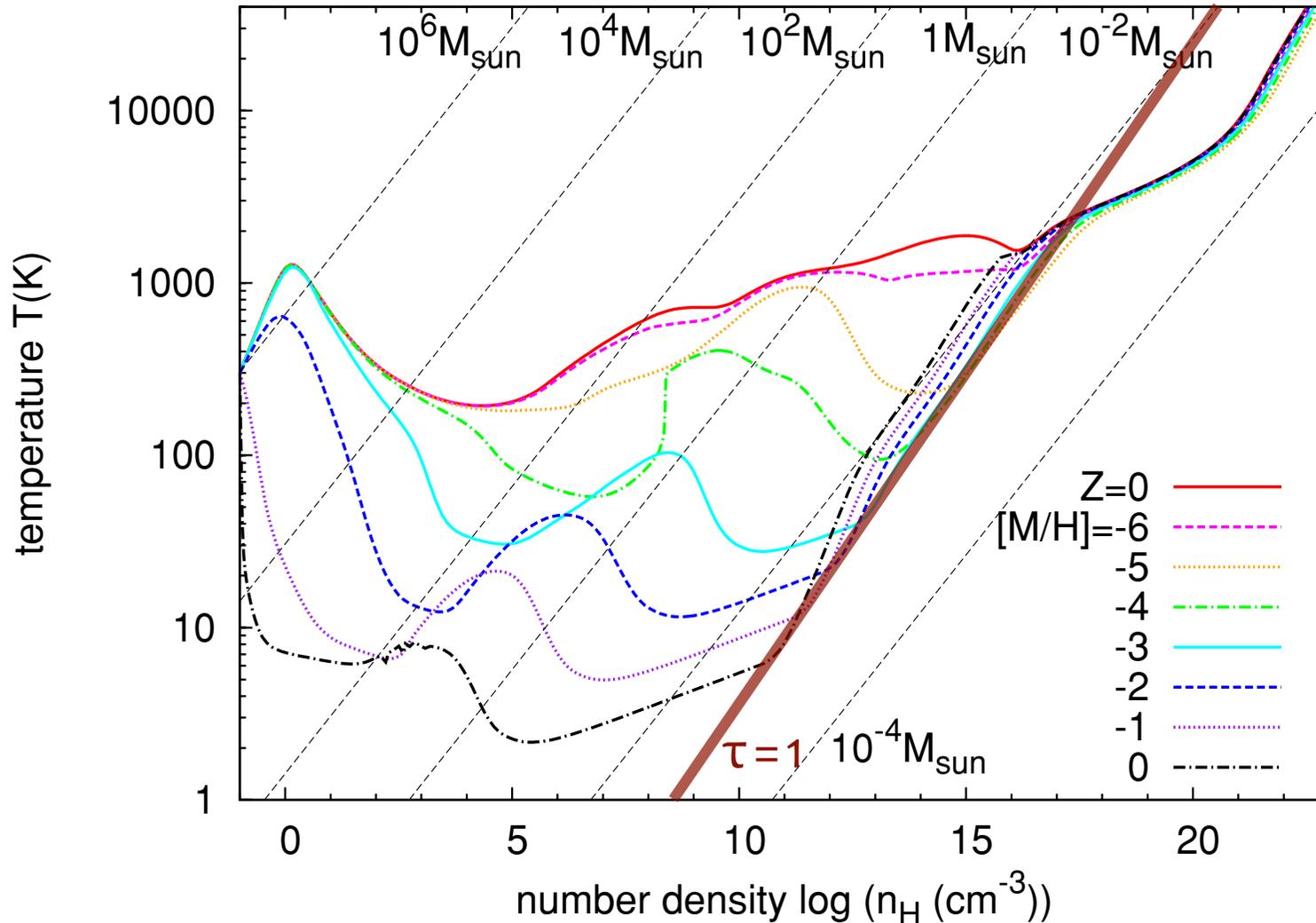
- $\gamma > 1$: \rightarrow *small* density excursion for given pressure
 - \rightarrow $\langle M_{\text{jeans}} \rangle$ is large
 - \rightarrow only few and massive clumps exceed M_{jeans}

EOS as function of metallicity



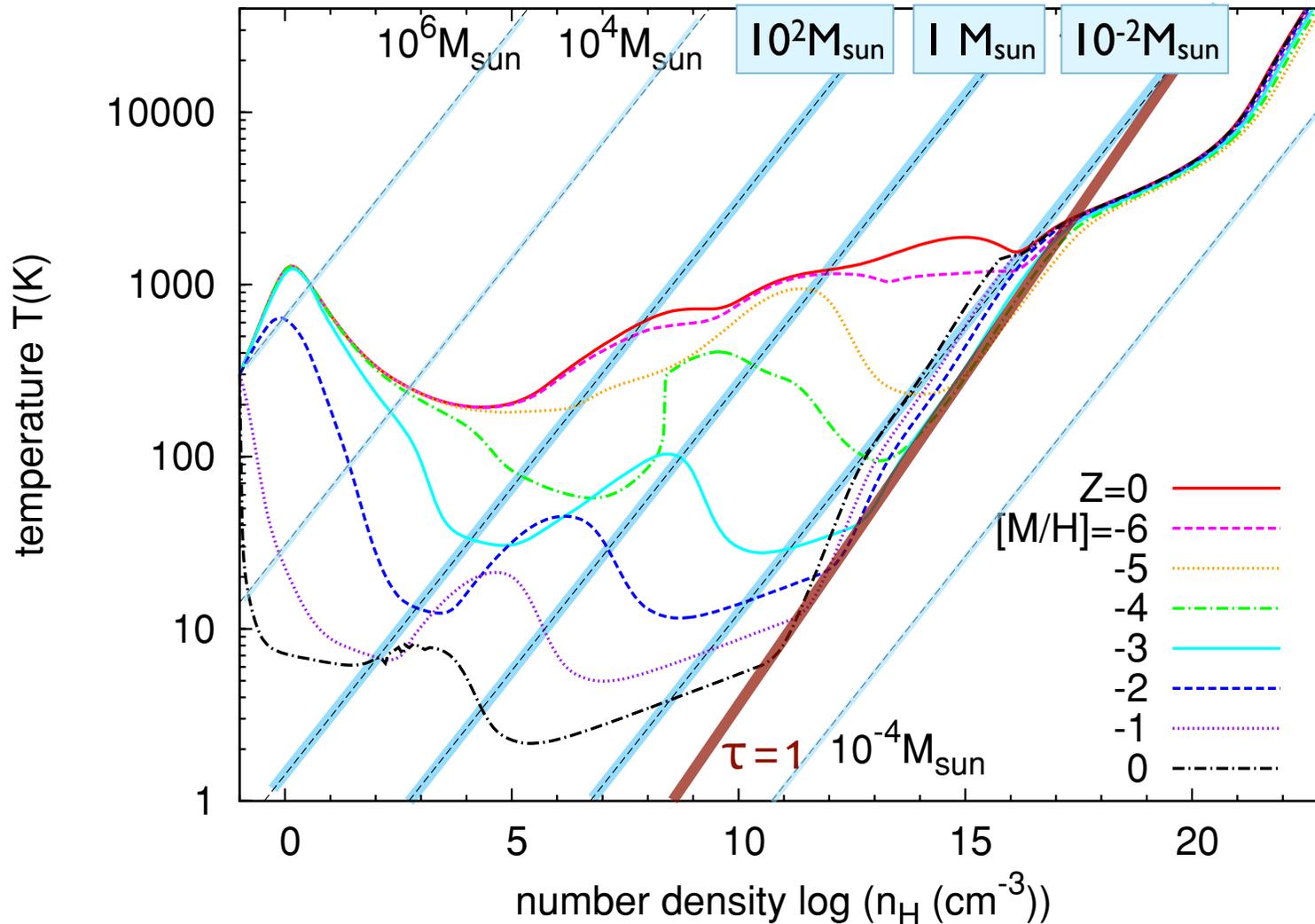
(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

EOS as function of metallicity



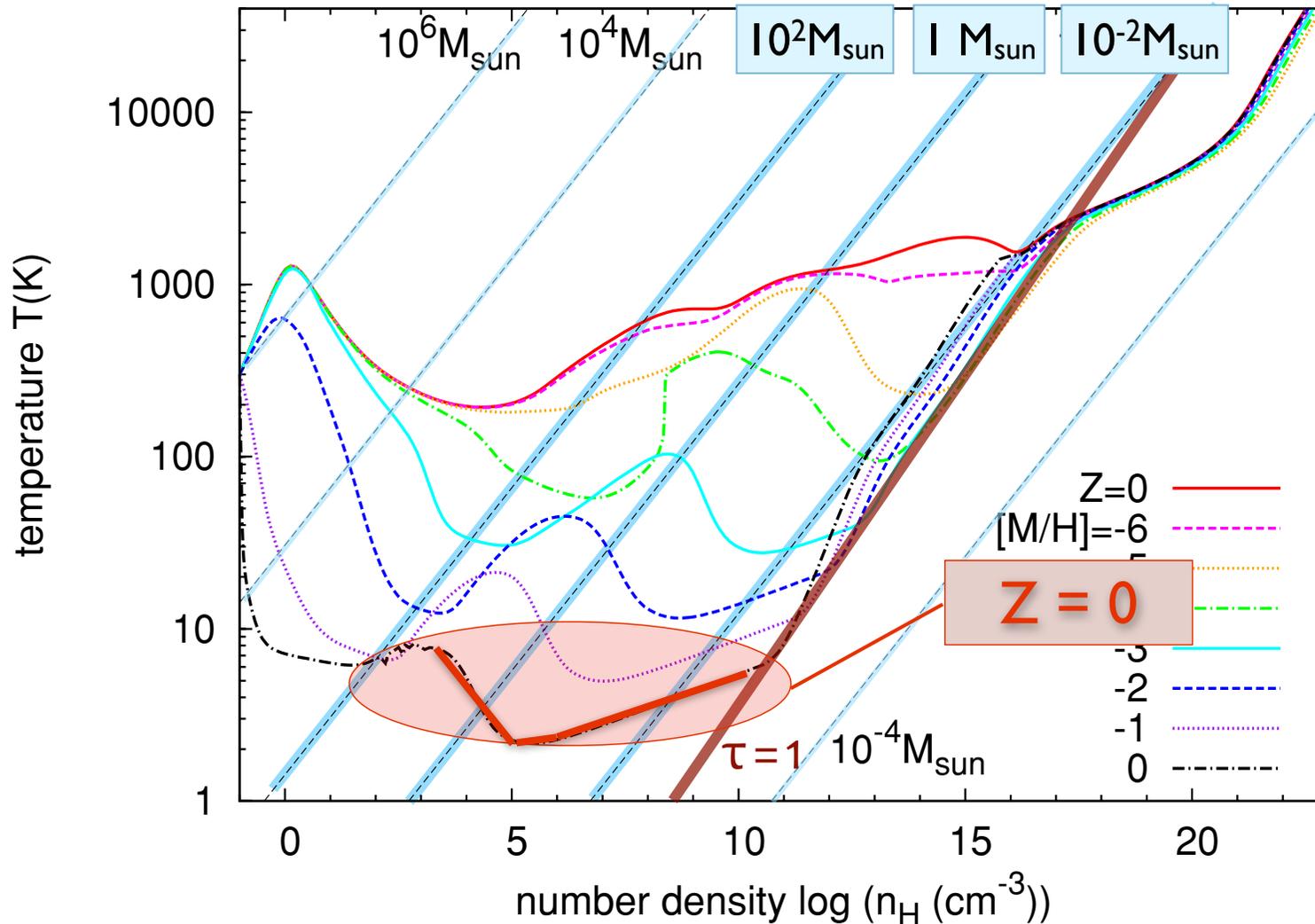
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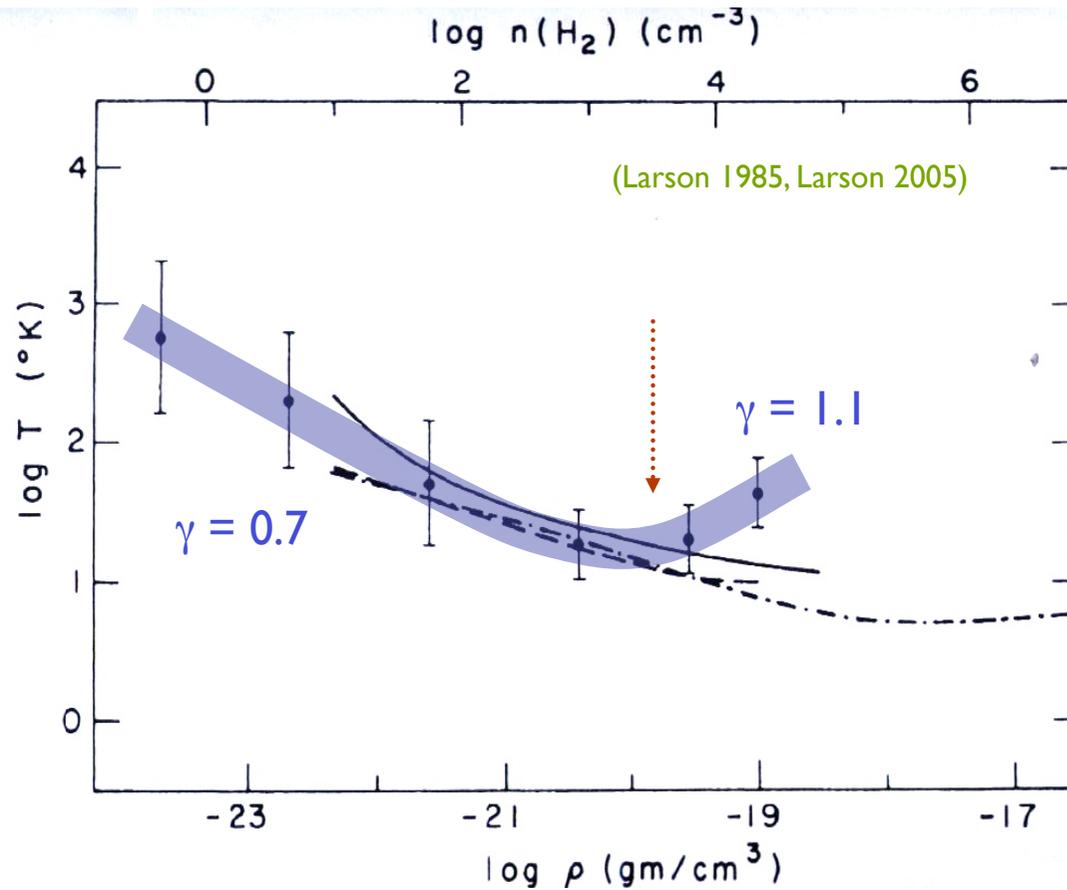
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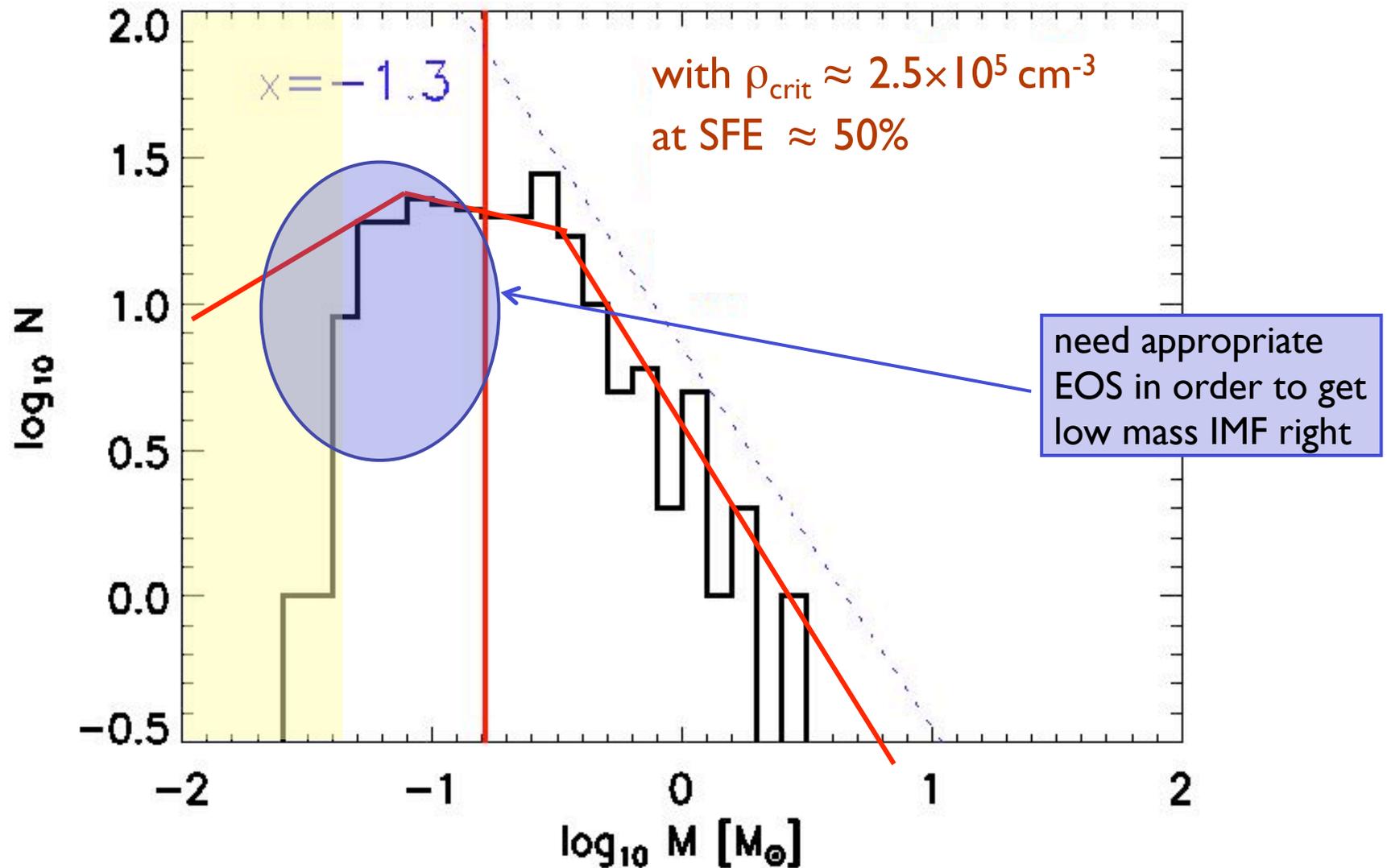


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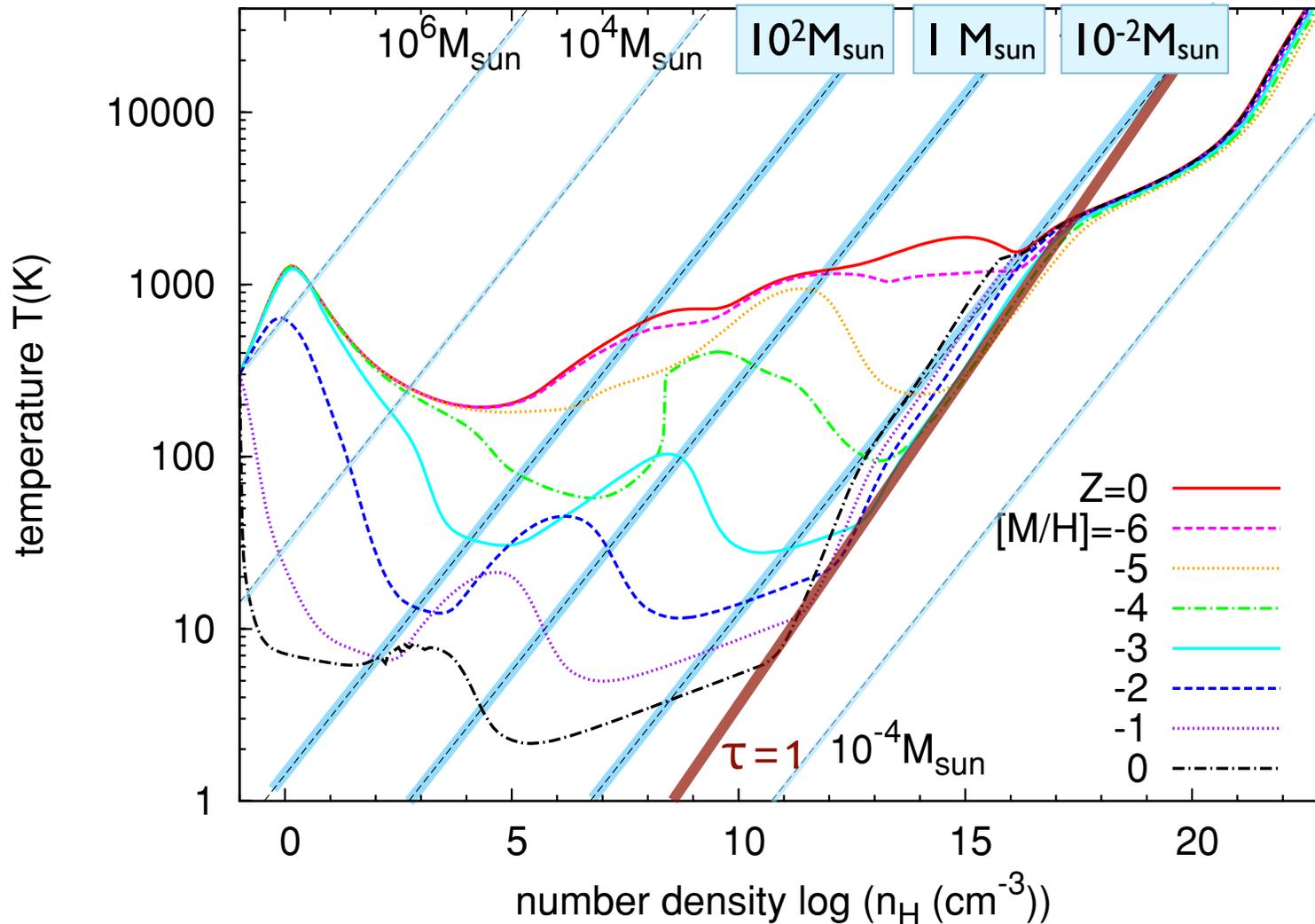
present-day star formation



IMF in nearby molecular clouds

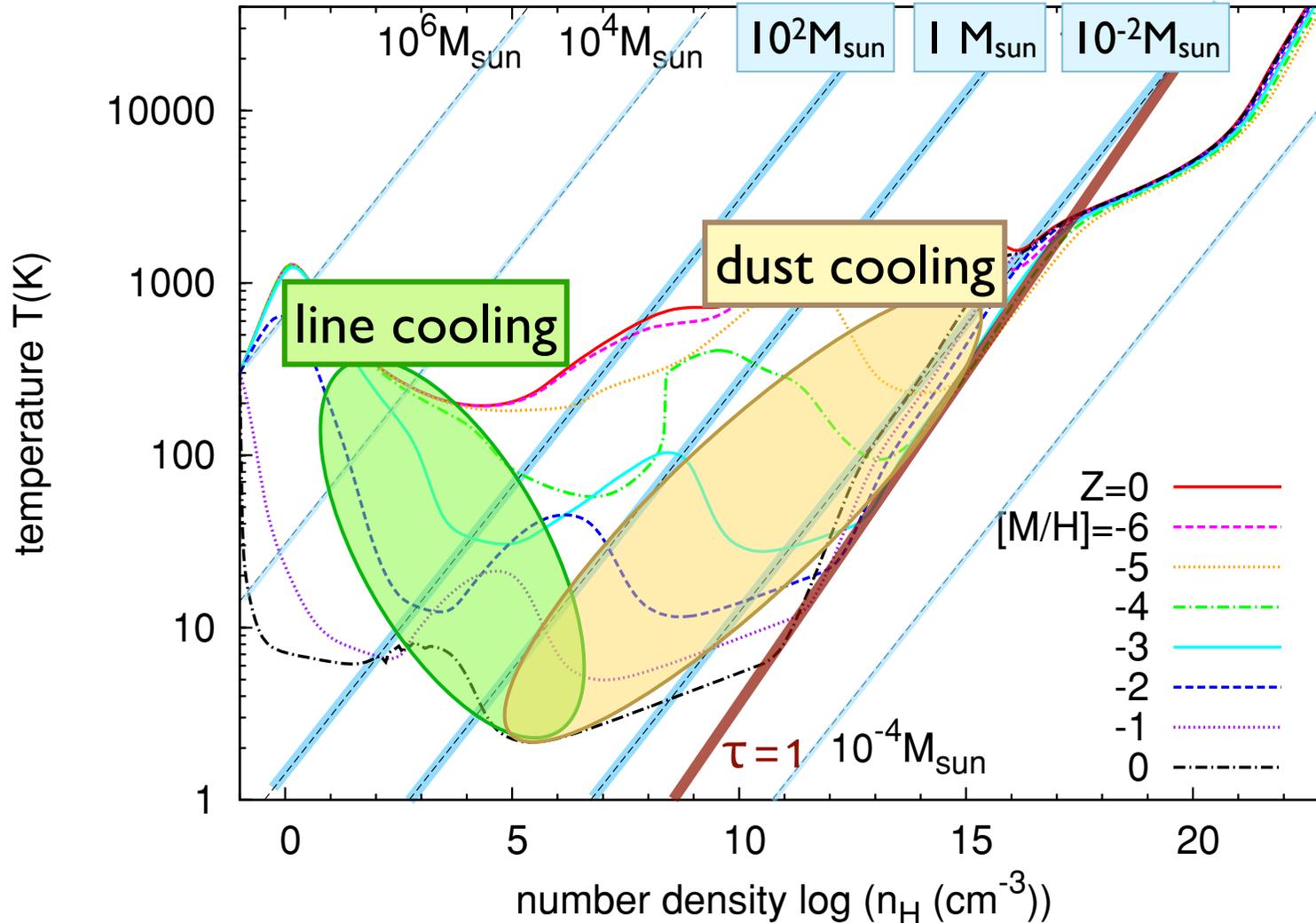


EOS as function of metallicity



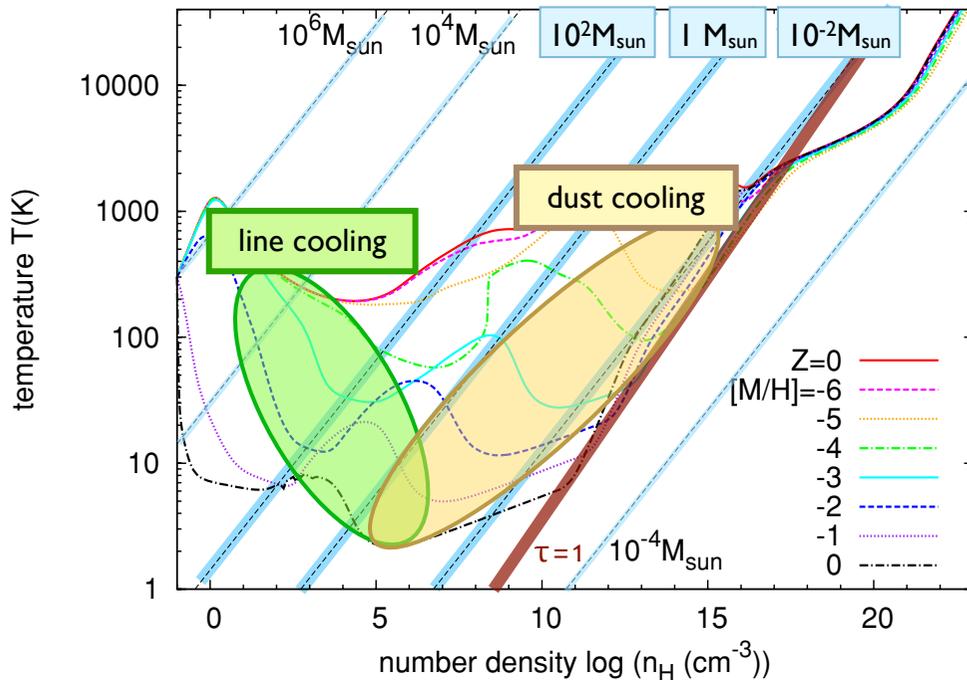
(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

EOS as function of metallicity



(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

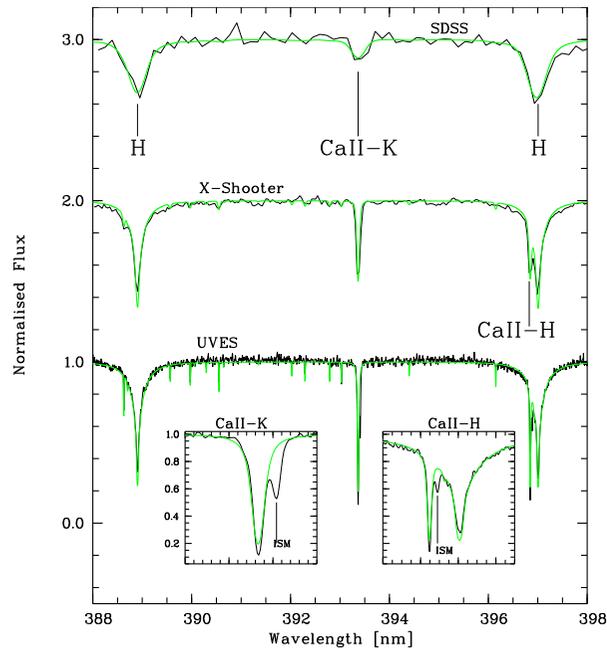
transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



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



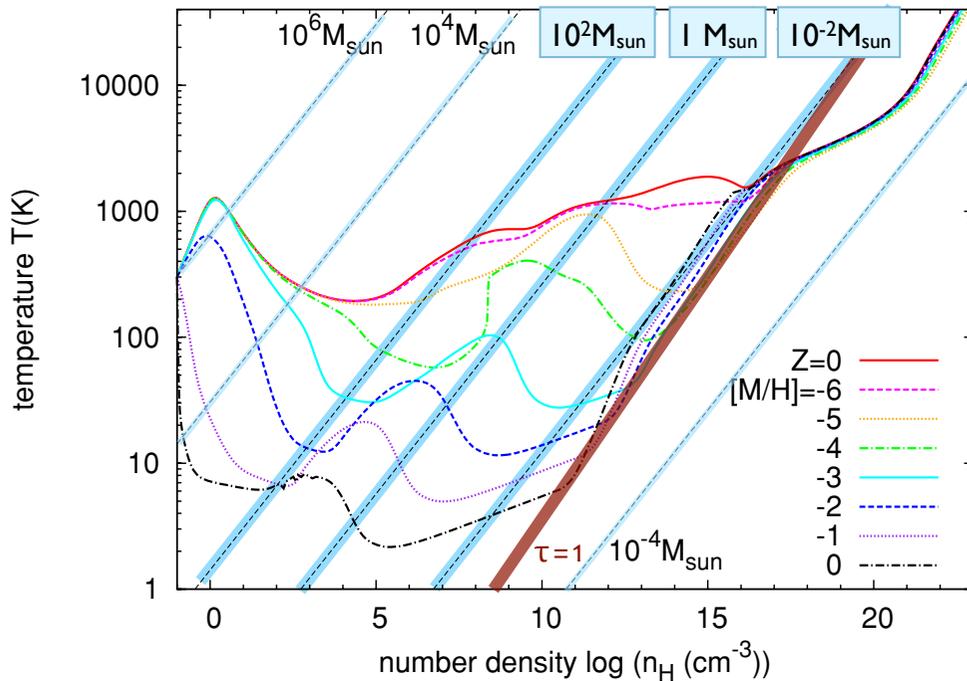
SDSS J1029151+172927

- 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.	$[X/H]_{\text{ID}}$ +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

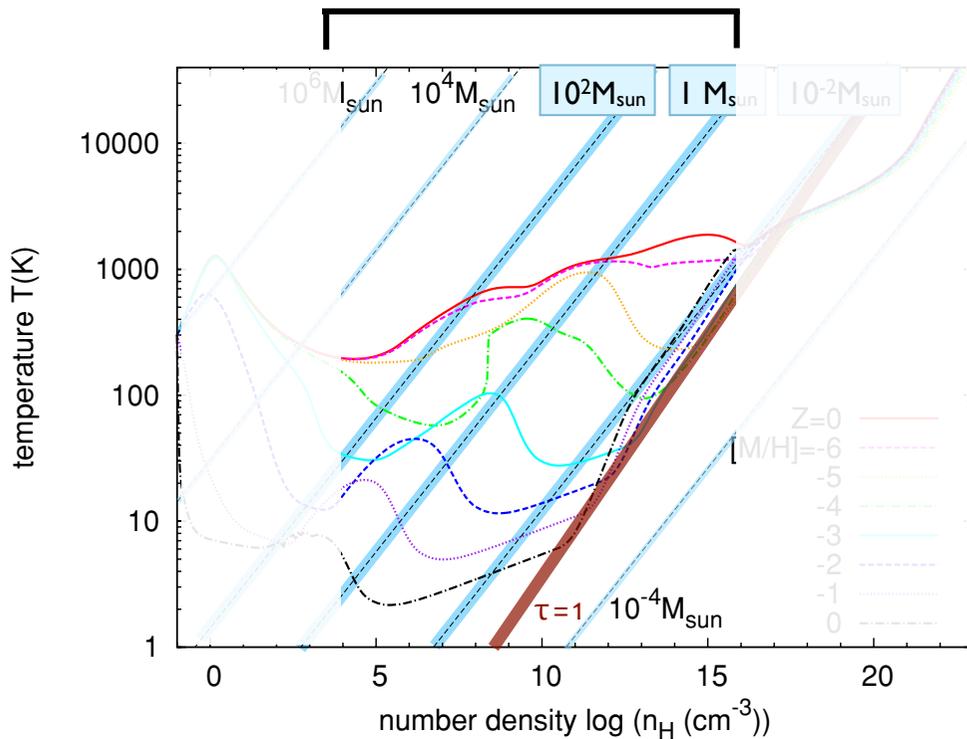
transition: Pop III to Pop II.5



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

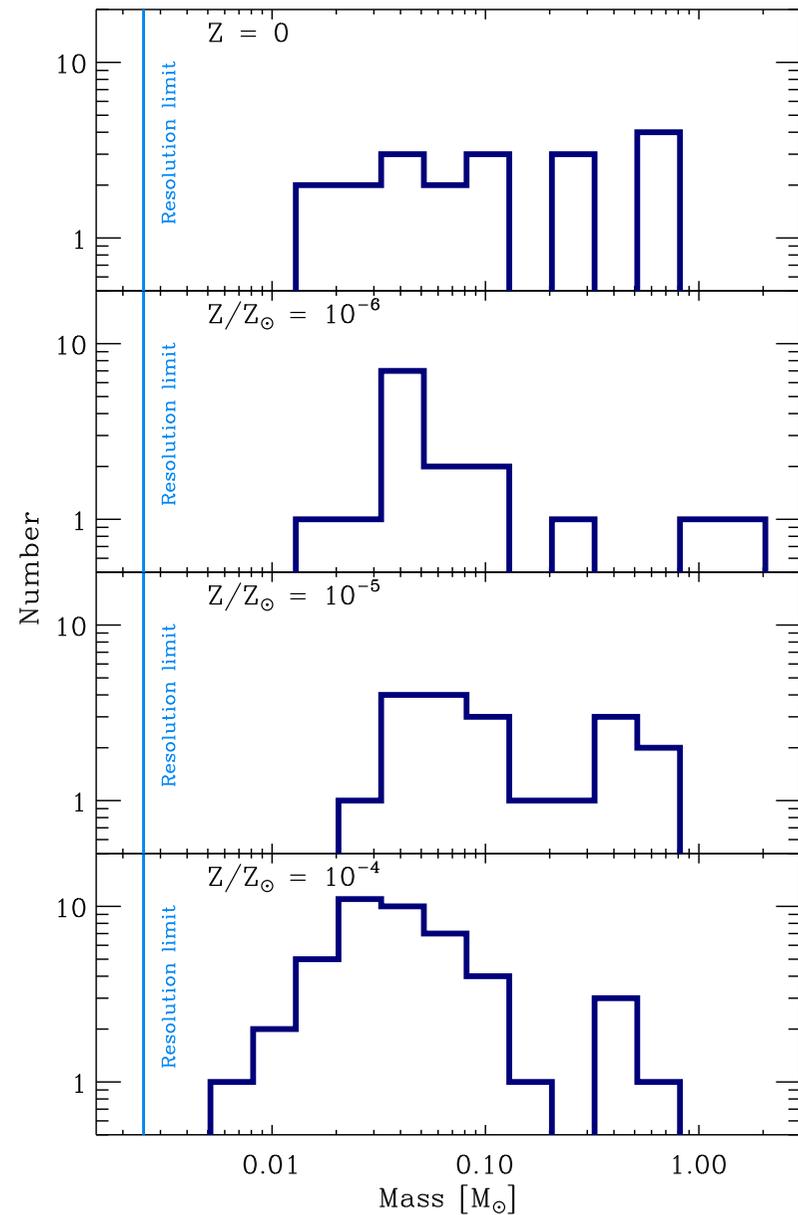
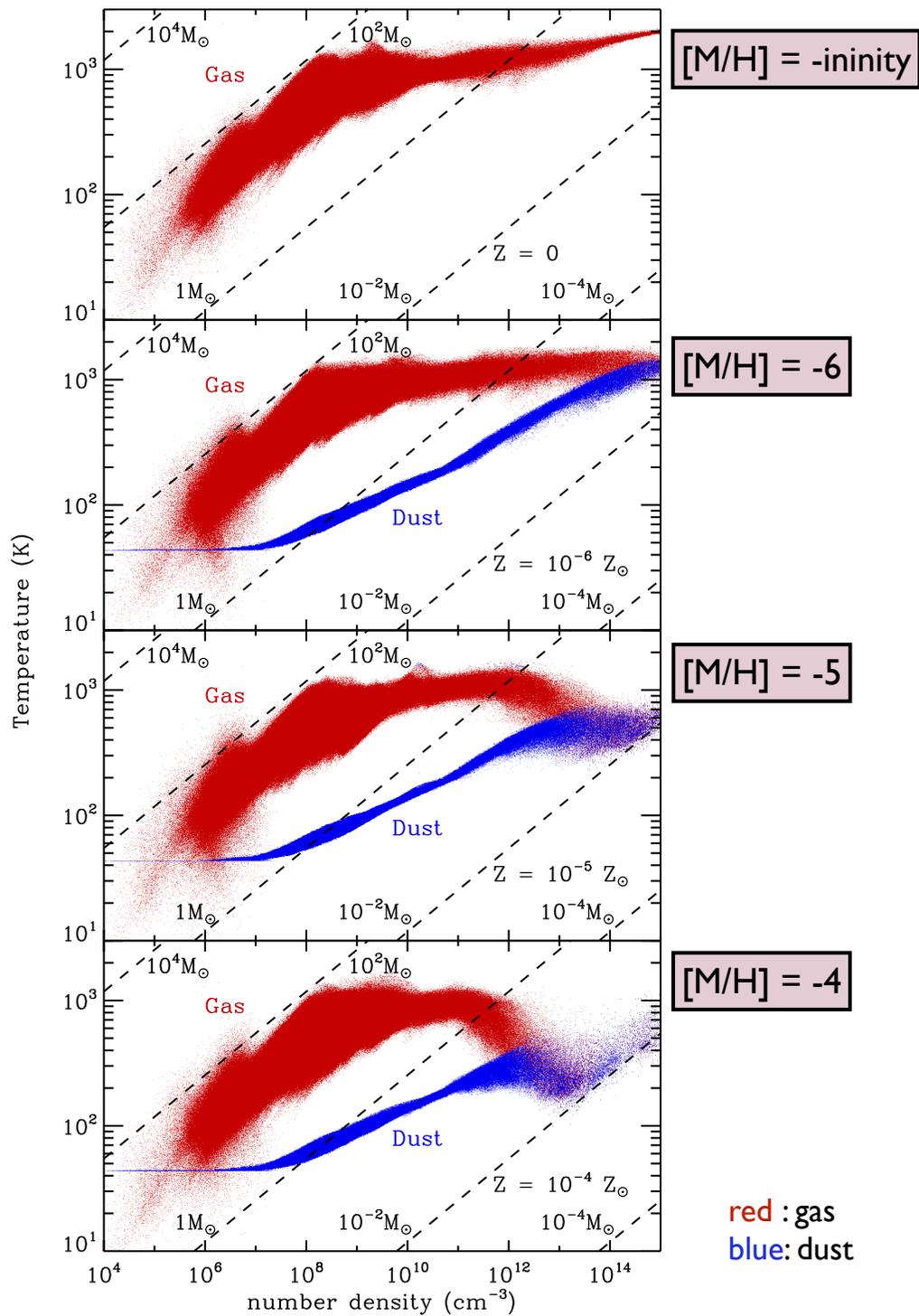
- SPH (40 million particles)
- time-dependent chemistry (with dust)
- sink particles to model star formation
- external dark-matter potential

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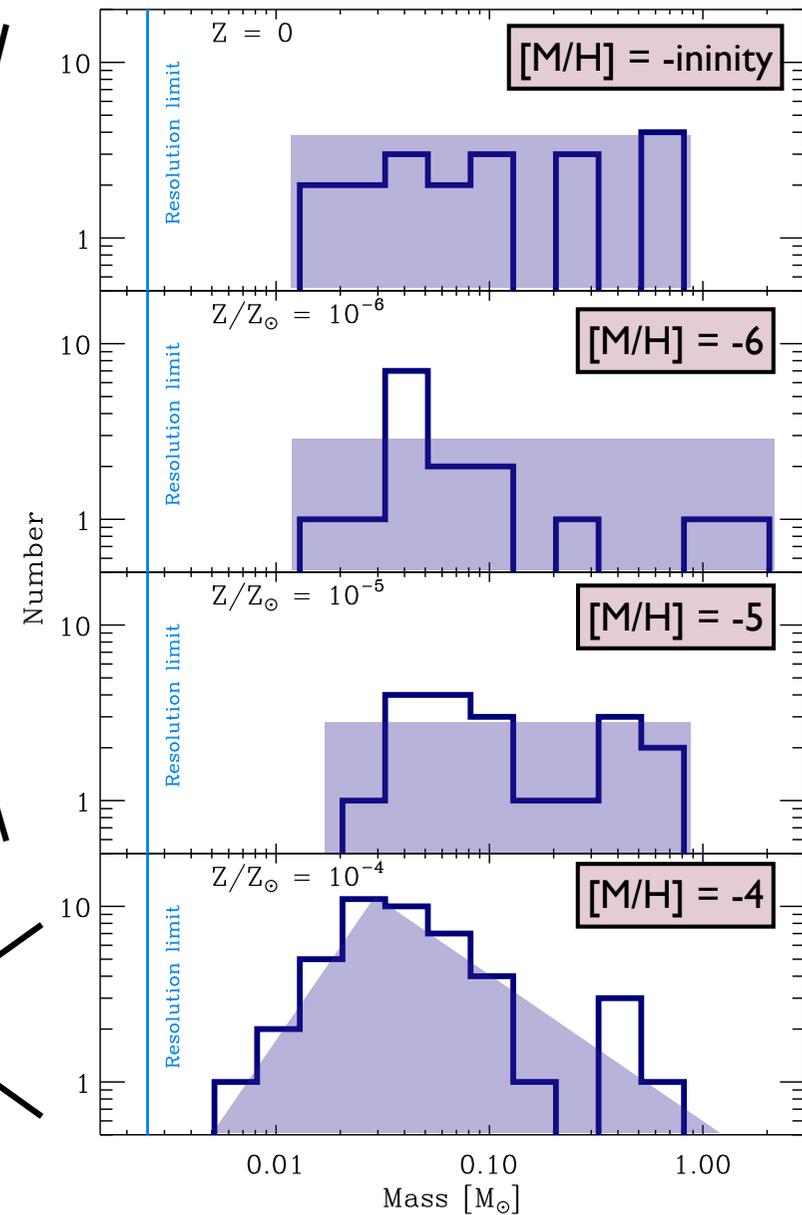
- SPH (40 million particles)
- time-dependent chemistry (with dust)
- sink particles to model star formation
- external dark-matter potential
- focus on relevant density regime (i.e. include dust dip and optically thick regime)



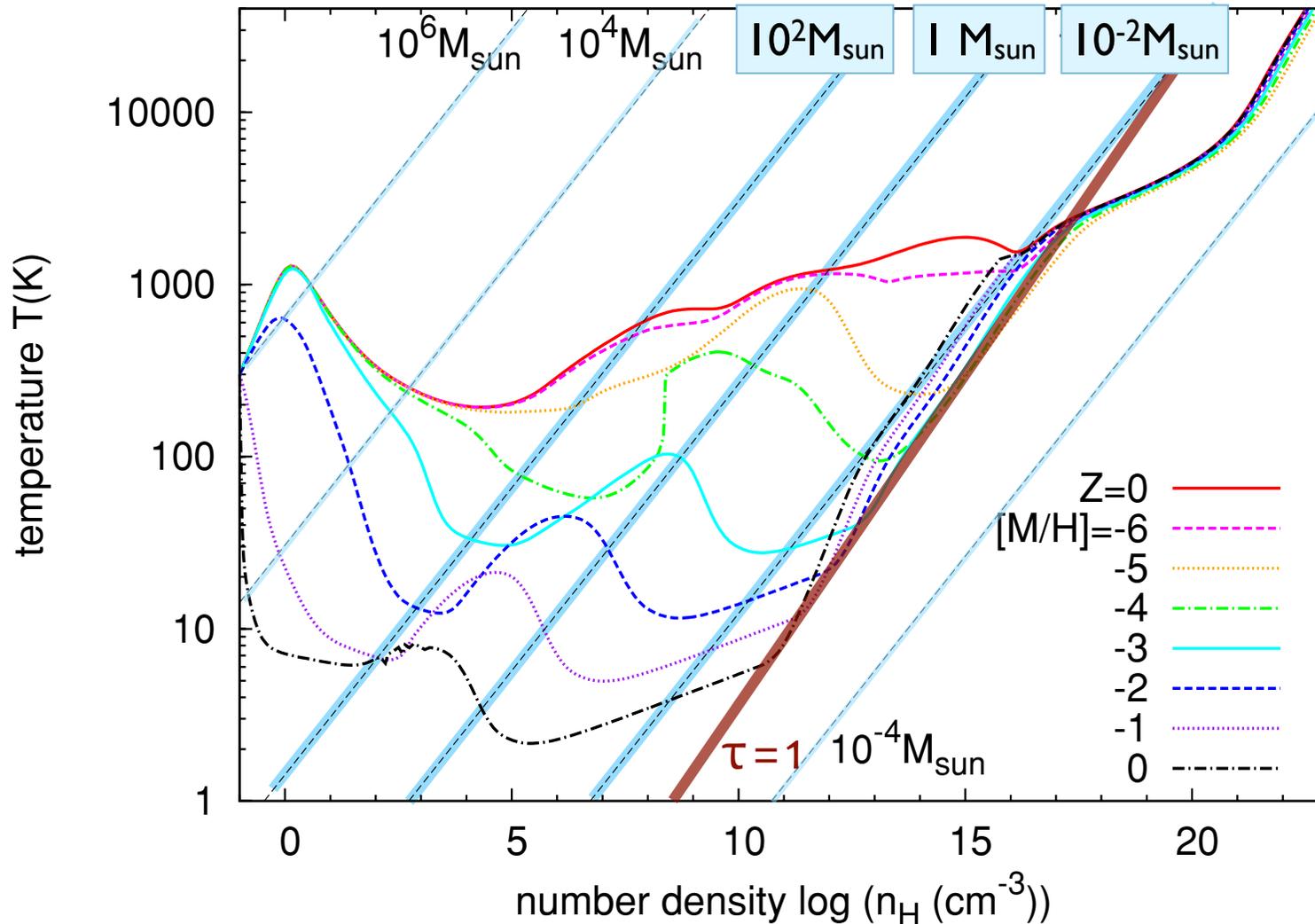
hints for differences
in mass spectrum

disk fragmentation mode

gravoturbulent fragmentation mode

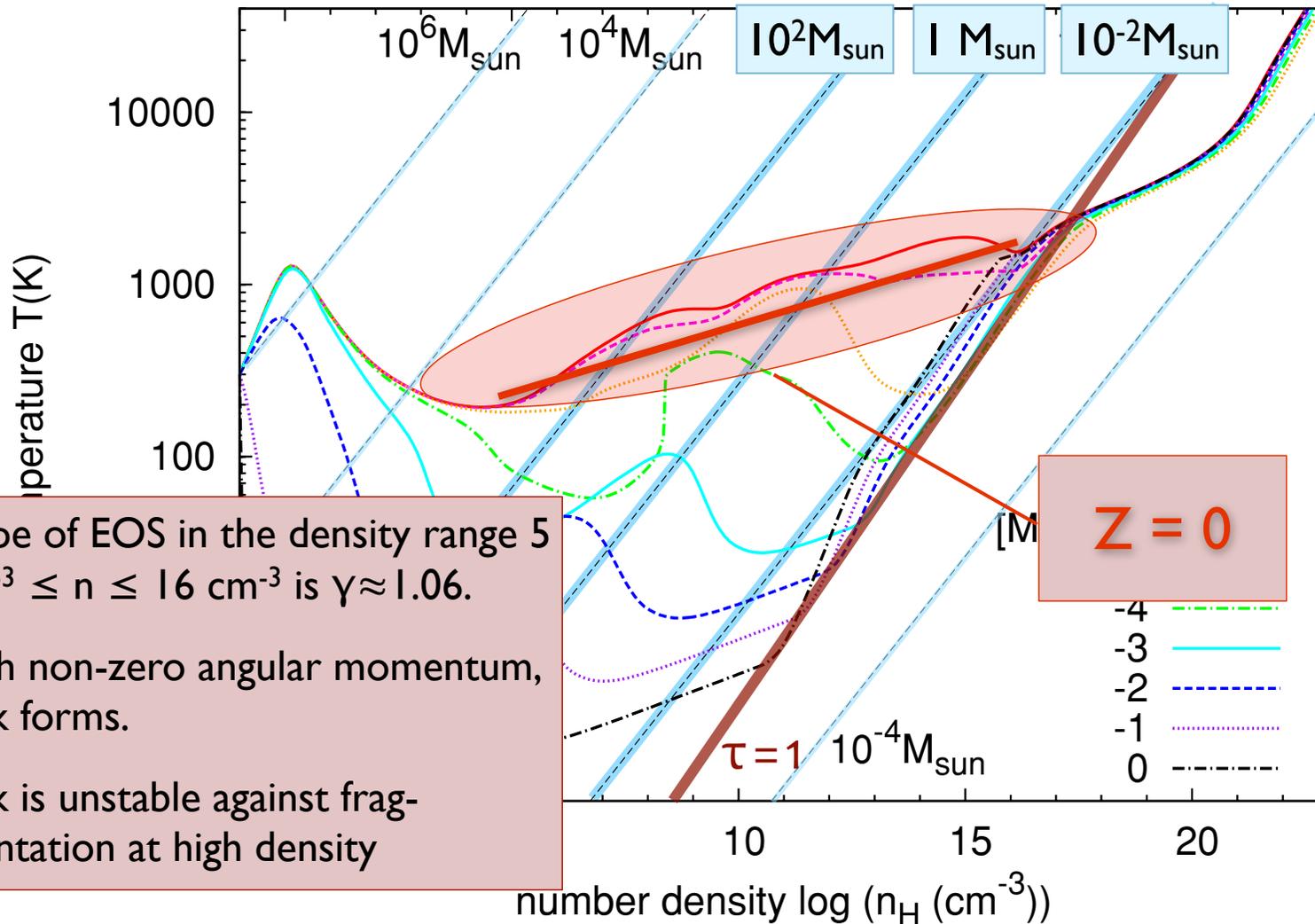


EOS as function of metallicity



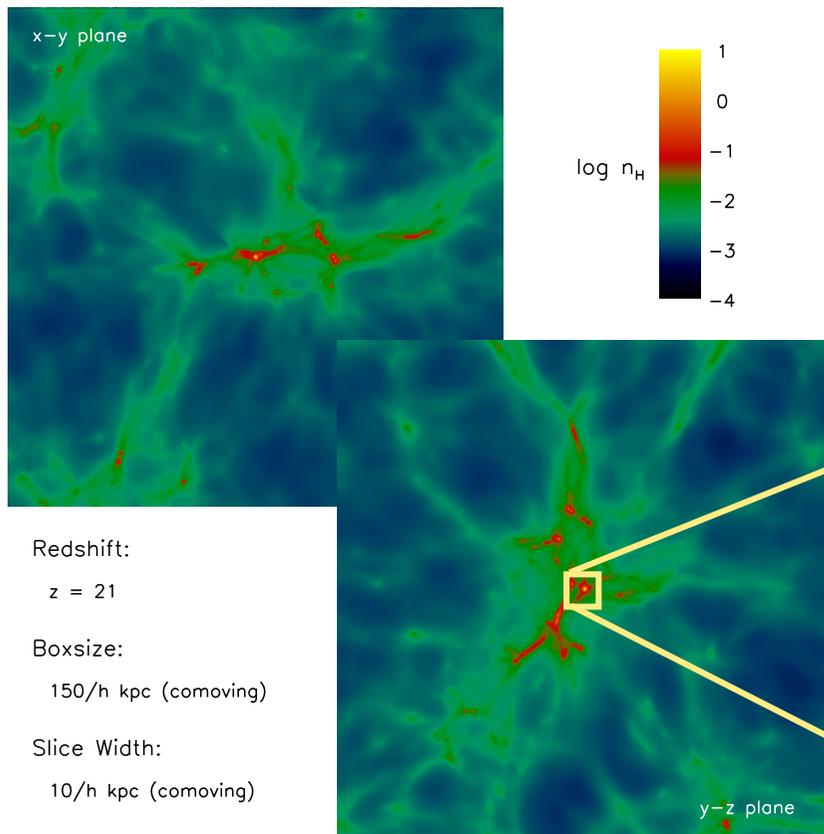
(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

EOS as function of metallicity

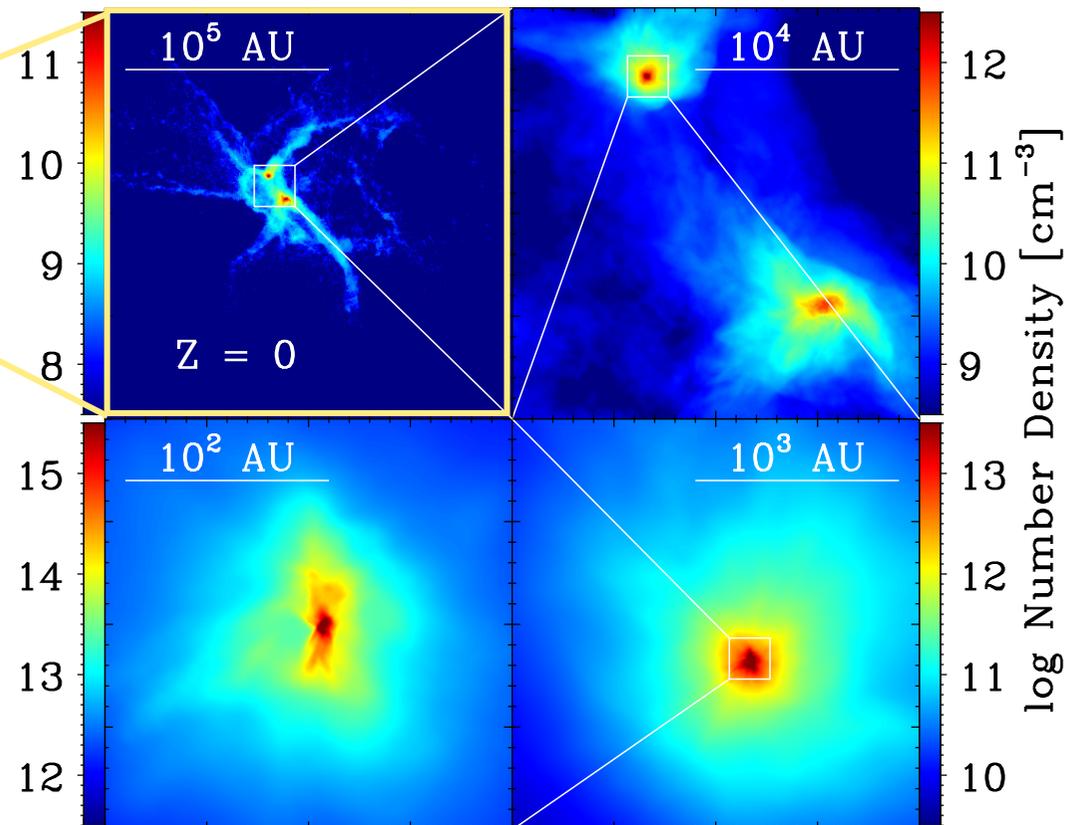


(Omukai et al. 2005, 2010)

detailed look at accretion disk around first star



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

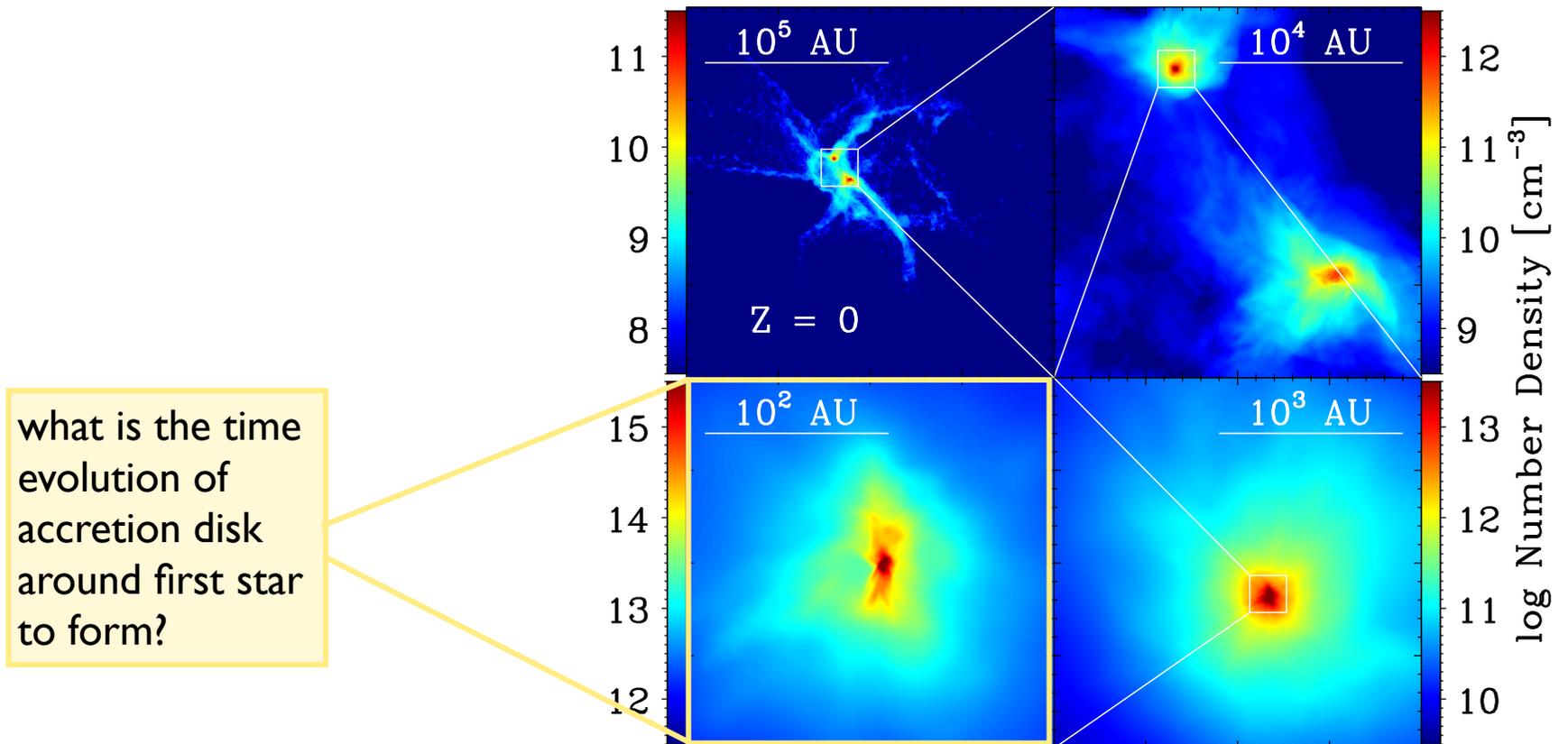


(Greif et al., 2007, ApJ, 670, 1)

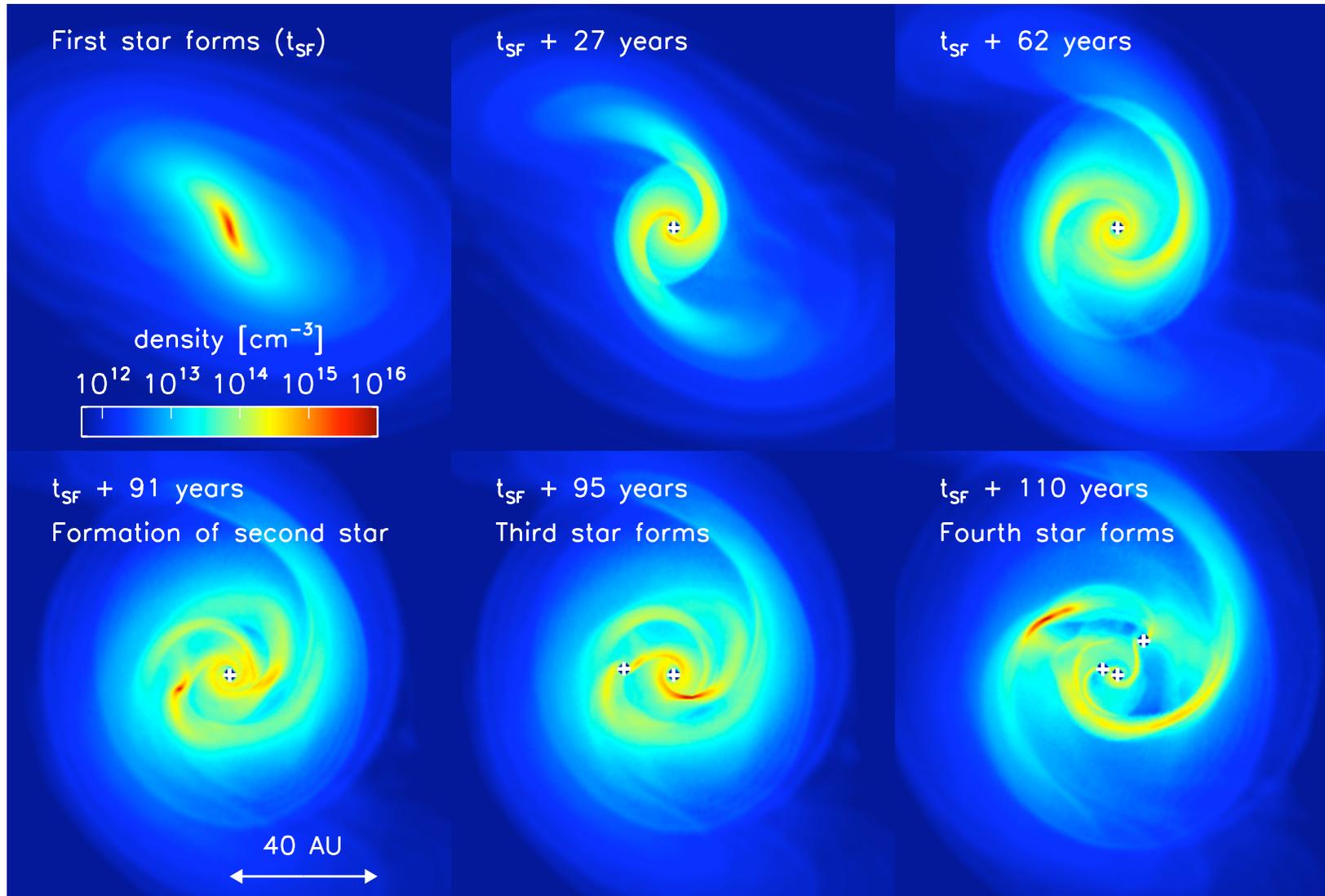
(Greif et al. 2011, ApJ, 737, 75, Greif et al. 2012, MNRAS, 424, 399, Dopcke et al. 2012, ApJ submitted, arXiv 1203.6842)

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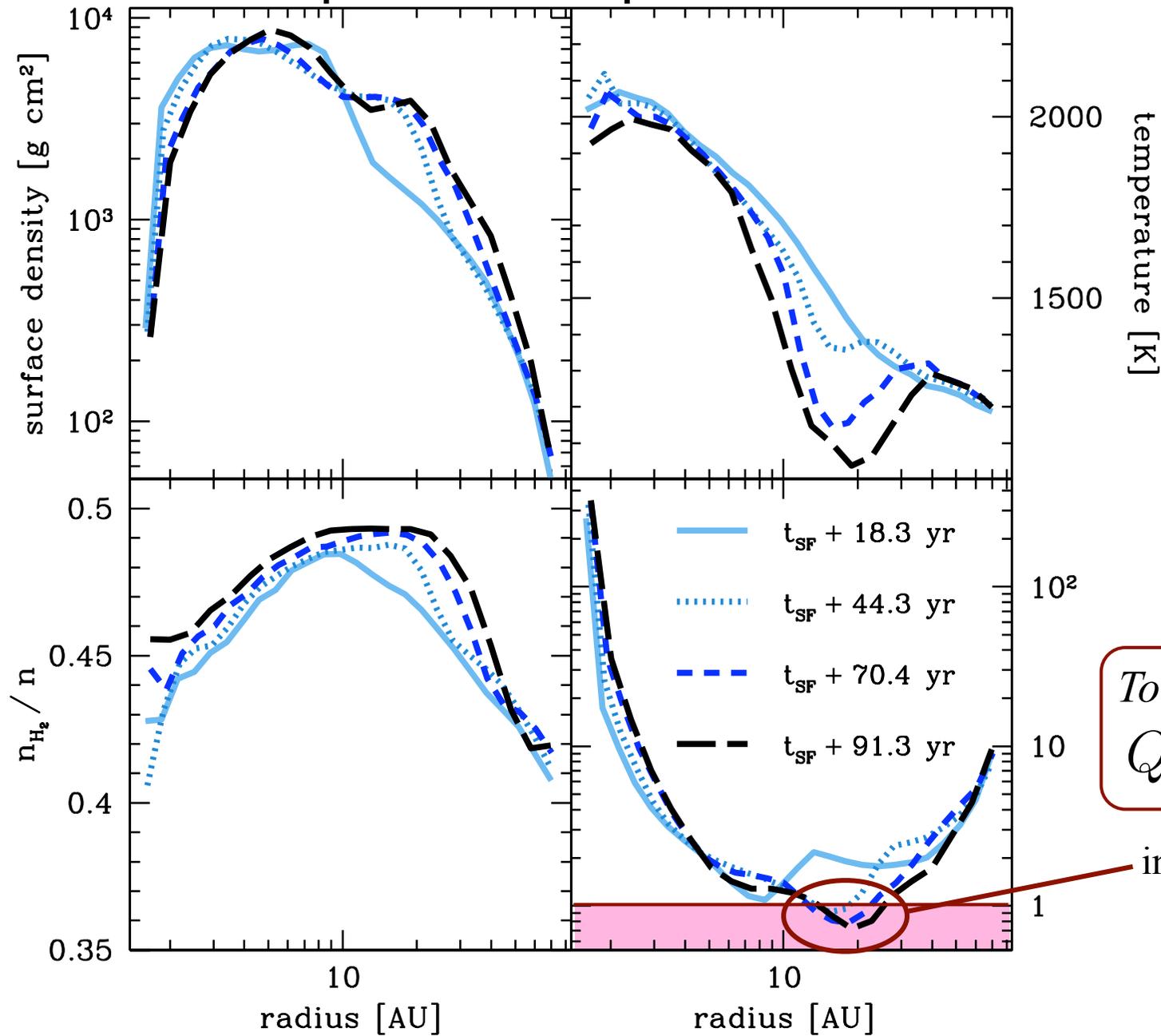
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detailed look at accretion disk

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



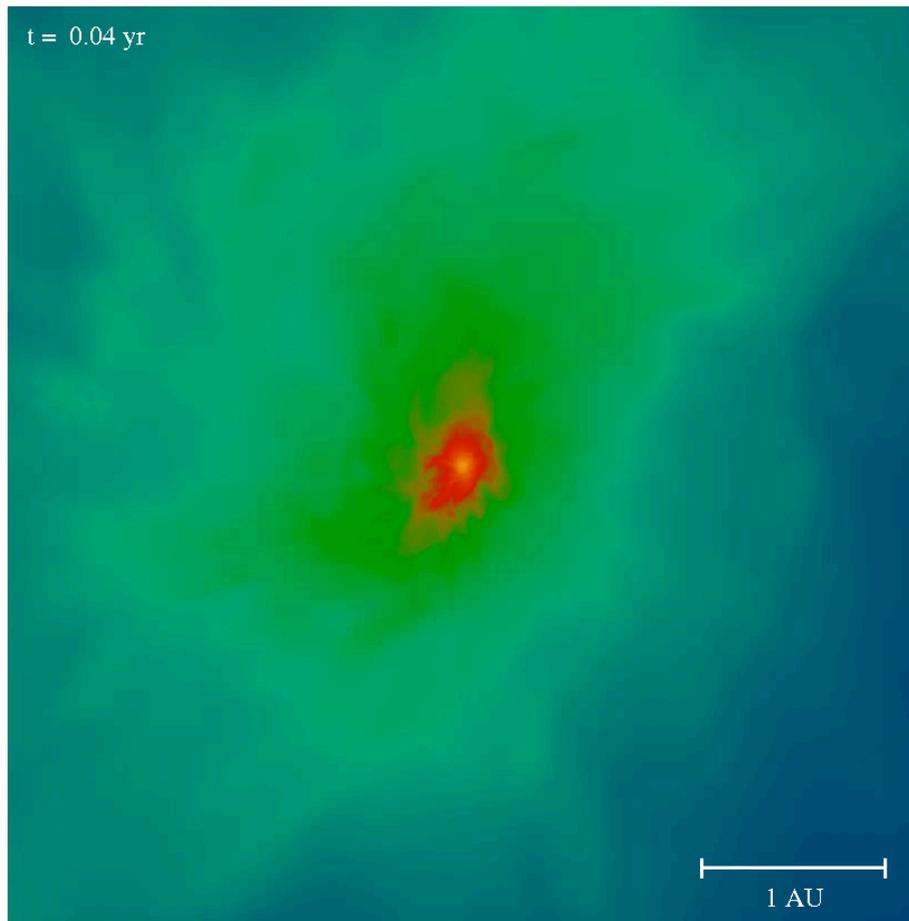
Toomre Q :

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

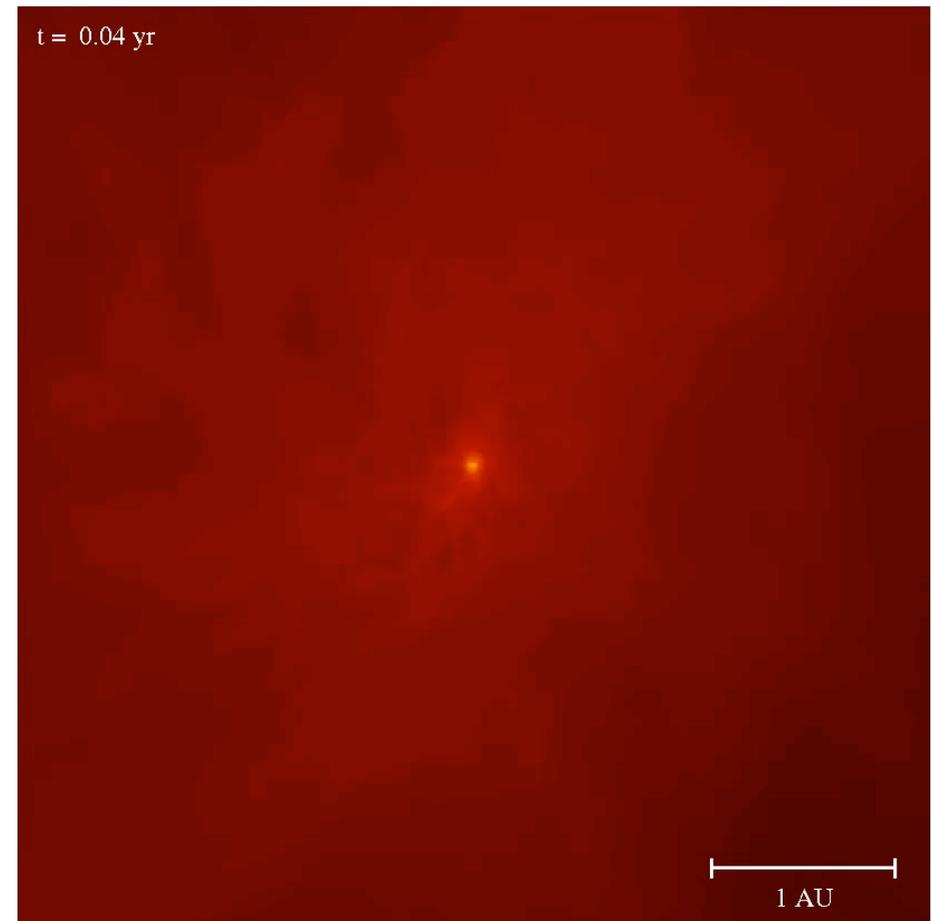
instability for $Q < 1$

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 $\sim 0.01 R_{\odot}$)*



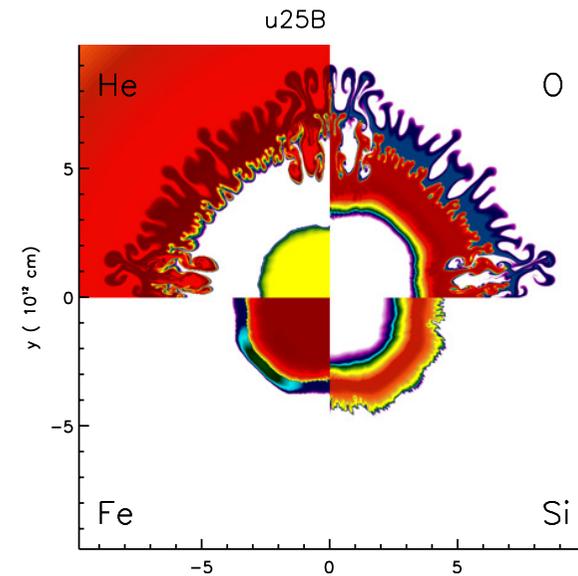
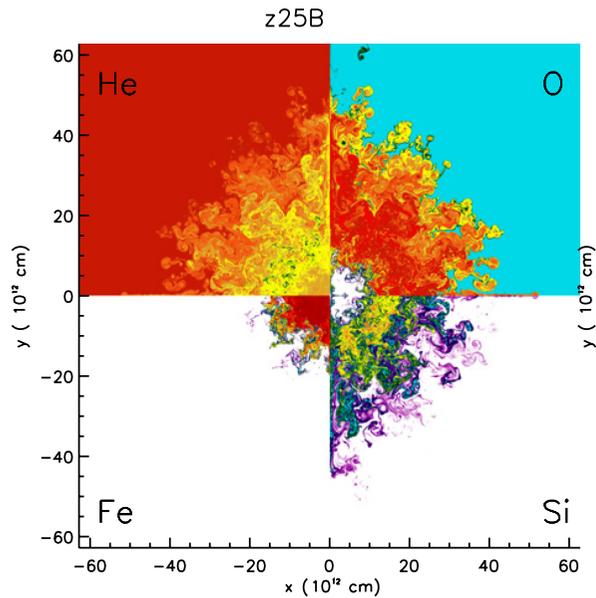
density



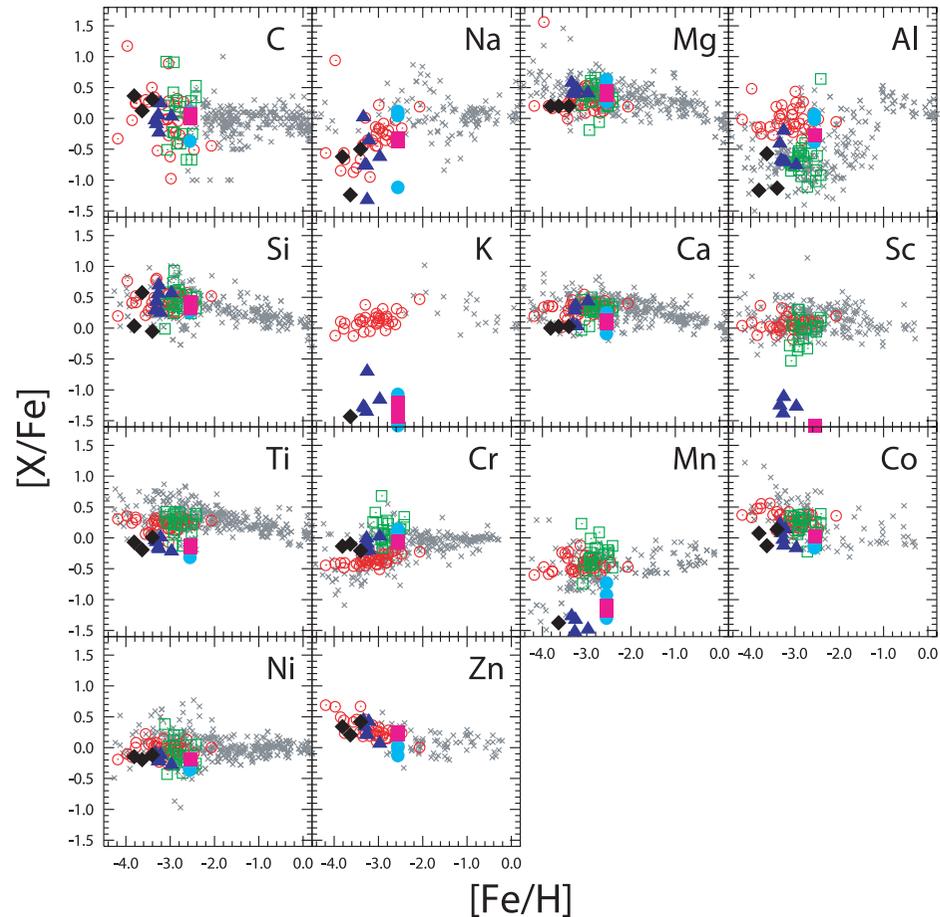
temperature

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}

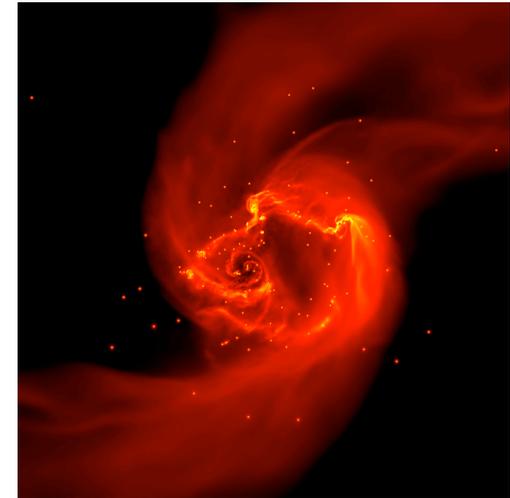
(e.g. Tominaga et al. 2007, Izutani et al. 2009, Joggerst et al. 2009, 2010)

primordial star formation

- just like in present-day SF, we expect
 - *turbulence*
 - *thermodynamics*
 - *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?*



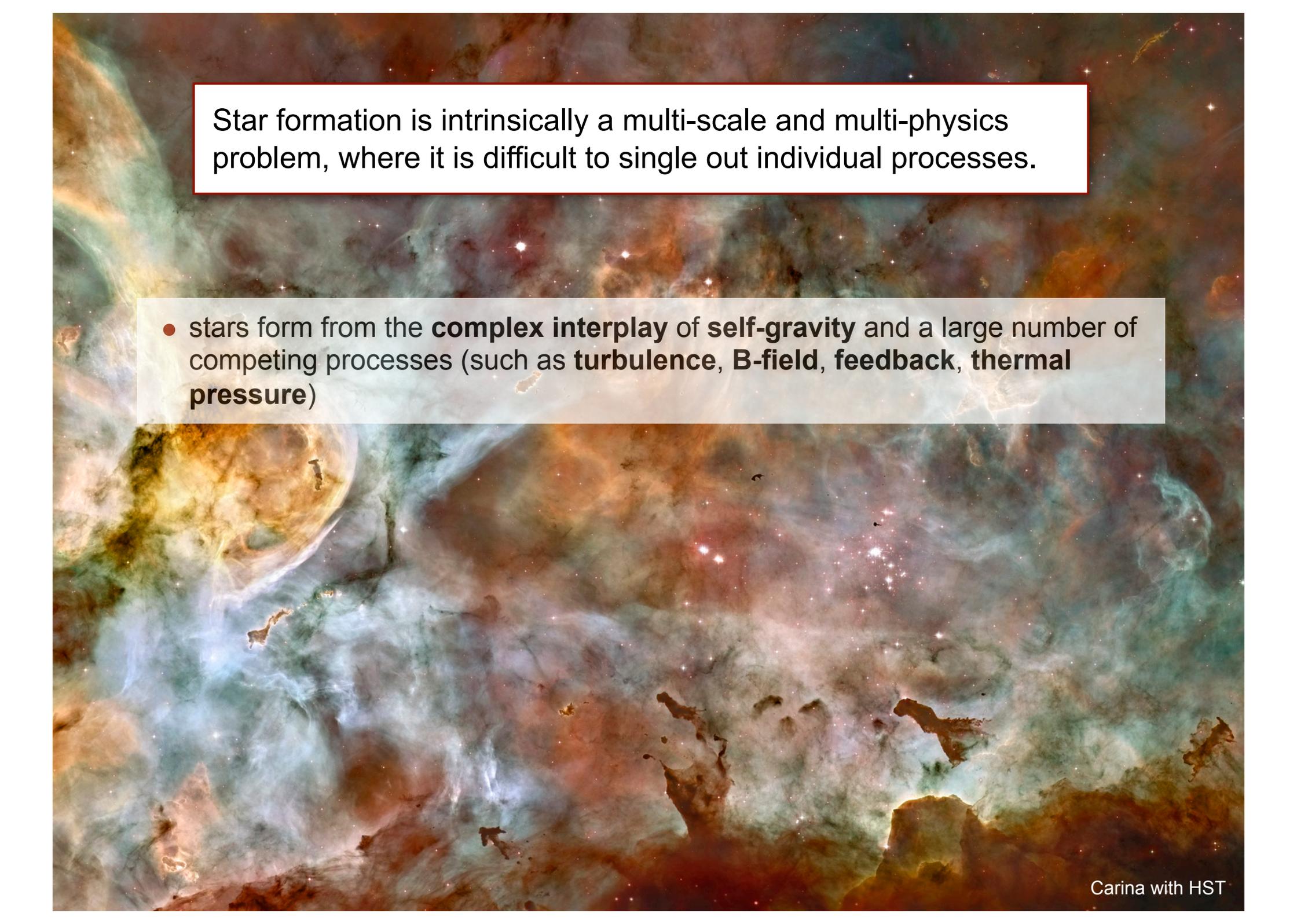
Star formation is intrinsically a multi-scale and multi-physics problem. Many different processes need to be considered simultaneously.



Carina with HST

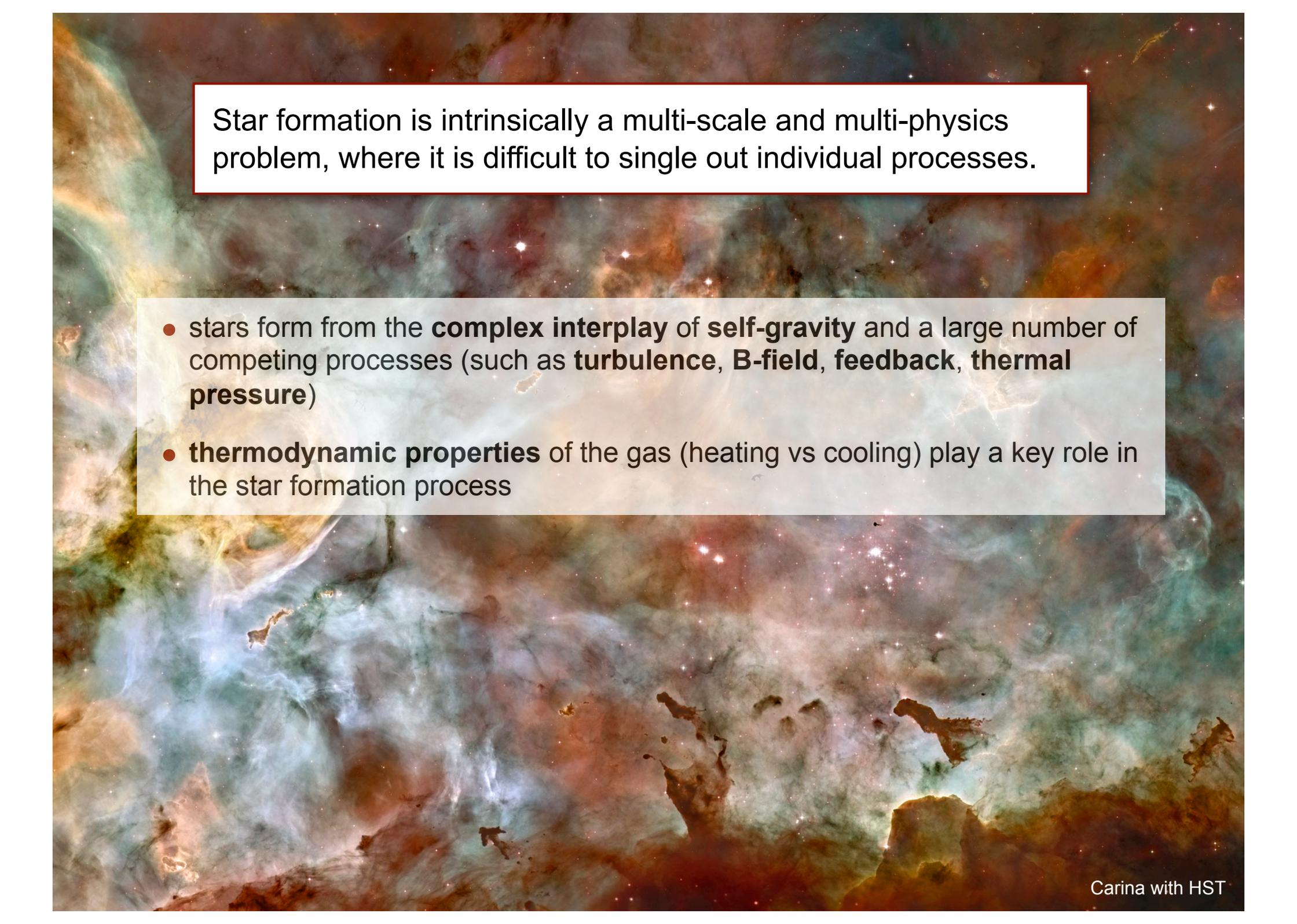
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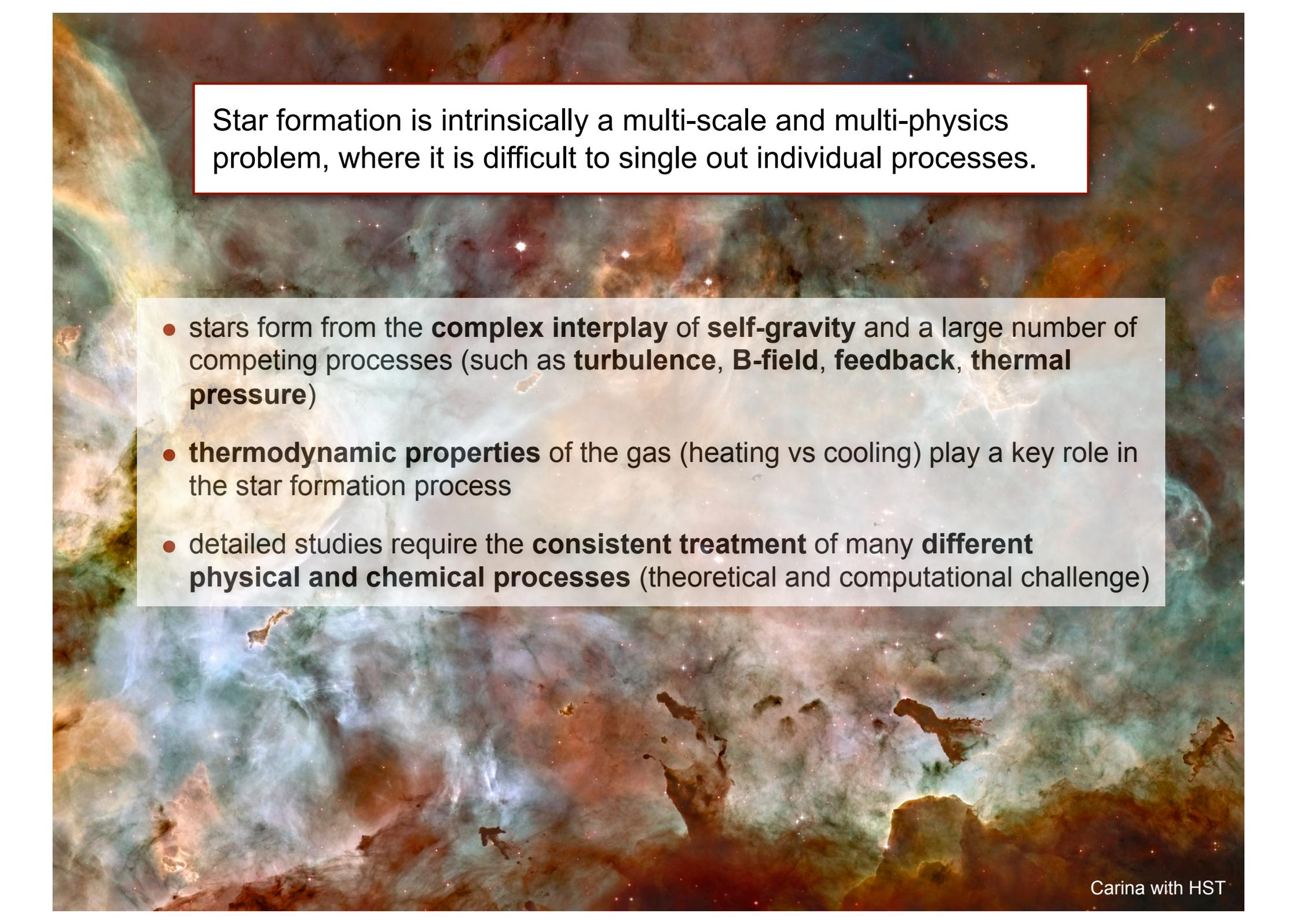
Star formation is intrinsically a multi-scale and multi-physics problem, where it is difficult to single out individual processes.

- stars form from the **complex interplay** of **self-gravity** and a large number of competing processes (such as **turbulence**, **B-field**, **feedback**, **thermal pressure**)



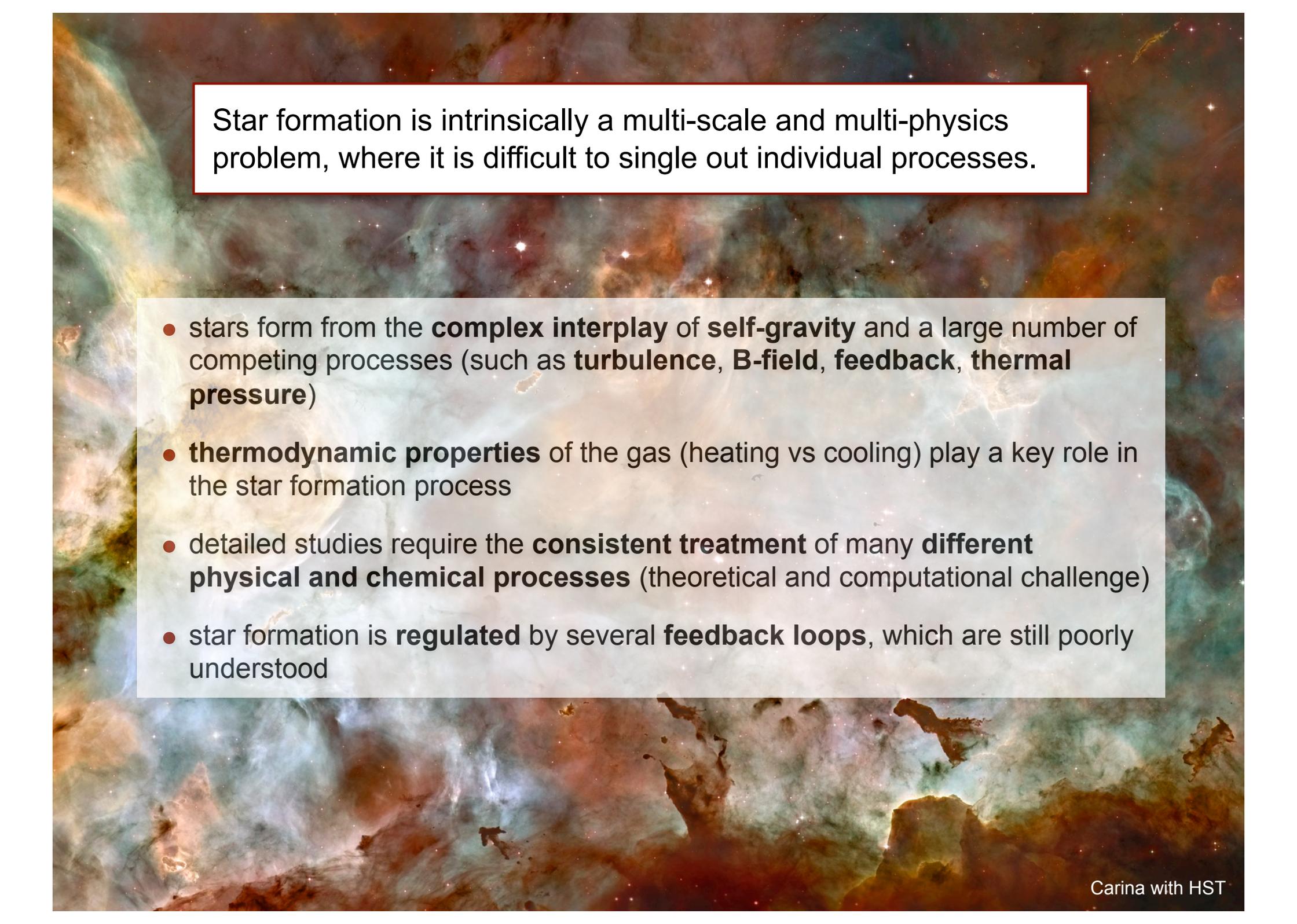
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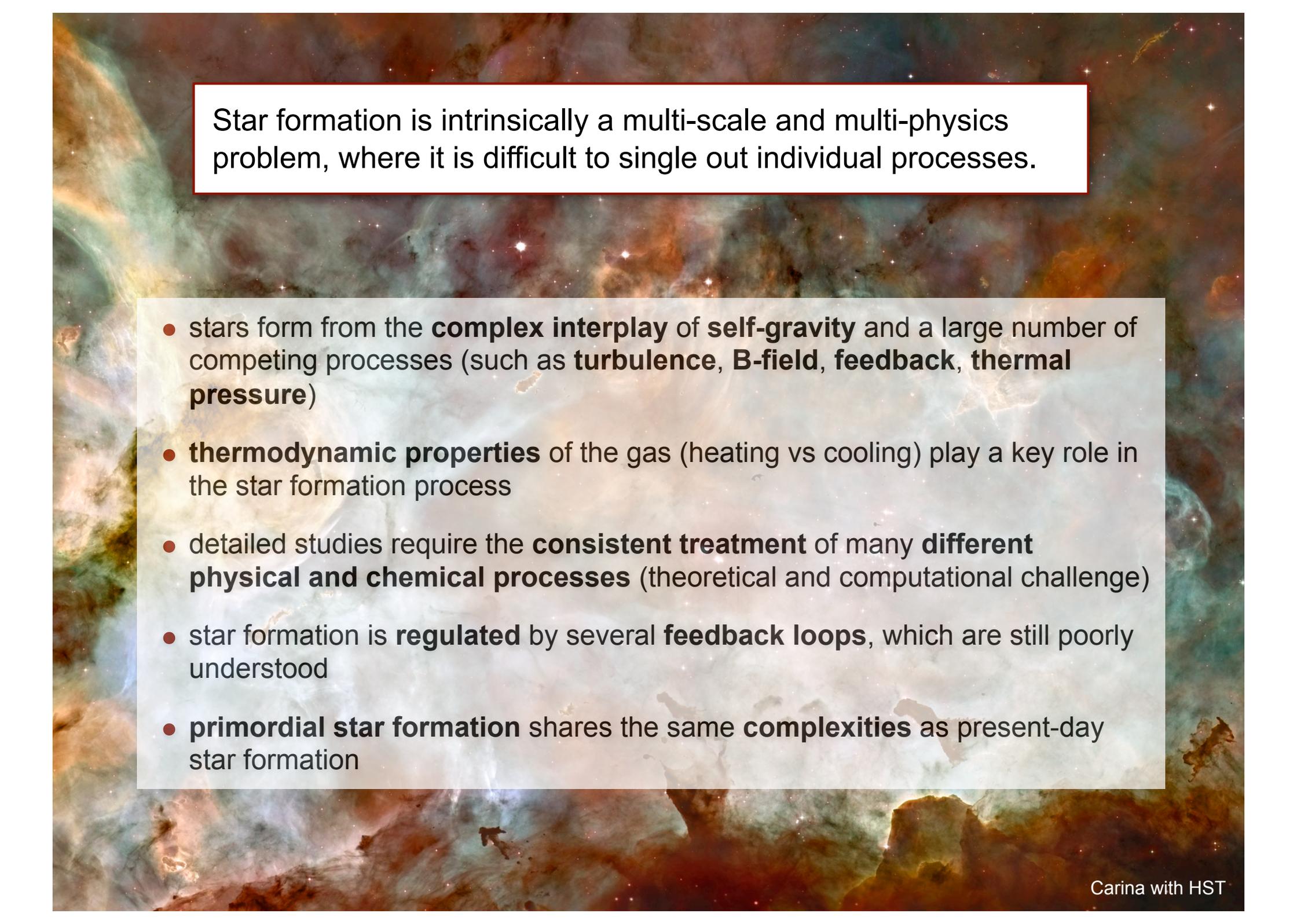
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- star formation is **regulated** by several **feedback loops**, which are still poorly understood
- **primordial star formation** shares the same **complexities** as present-day star formation



Protostars and Planets VI in Summer 2013





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