# Sternentstehung - Star Formation

#### Winter term 2022/2023

#### Henrik Beuther, Thomas Henning, & Jonathan Henshaw

- 18.10 Introduction & overview (Beuther)
- 25.10 Physical processes I (Beuther)
- 08.11 Physical processes II (Beuther)
- 15.11 Molecular clouds I: the birth places of stars (Henshaw)
- 22.11 Molecular clouds II: Jeans analysis (Henshaw)
- 29.11 Collapse models I (Beuther)
- 06.12 Collapse models II (Henning)
- 13.12 Protostellar evolution (Beuther)
- 20.12 Pre-main sequence evolution & outflows/jets (Beuther)
- 10.01 Accretion disks I (Henning)
- 17.01 Accretion disks II (Henning)
- 24.01 High-mass star formation, clusters & the IMF (Henshaw)
- 31.01 Extragalactic star formation (Henning)
- 07.02 Planetarium @ HdA, outlook, questions
- 13.02 Examination week, no star formation lecture

Book: Stahler & Palla: The Formation of Stars, Wileys

More information and the current lecture files: <u>https://www2.mpia-hd.mpg.de/homes/beuther/lecture\_ws2223.html</u> <u>beuther@mpia.de</u>, <u>henning@mpia.de</u>, <u>henshaw@mpia.de</u>

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- Whoever wants to get credit points and by that an examination at the end of the coarse should please send us an email telling us that. (<u>beuther@mpia.de</u>)

- The examinations should then be at the end of the term, some time in March, so that everything is done by the end of March.

# Today's lecture

#### Learning outcomes:

- Why are high-mass stars important?
- Why is high-mass star formation a difficult problem to solve?
- Different theories of high-mass star formation
- Observational evidence
- The IMF

#### Useful resources:

- Stahler & Palla 2004 Chapters 11.4, 12, 12.5, 15
- Beuther et al., 2007 (PPV chapter on the Formation of Massive Stars)
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ESA/Webb, NASA & CSA, J. Lee and the PHANGS-JWST Team. Credit: J. Schmidt

IMAGE: NASA, ESA, CSA, STScI, Webb ERO Production Team

SCIENCE: NASA, ESA, CSA, STScI; IMAGE: J. DePasquale (STScI), A. Pagan (STScI), A. M. Koekemoer (STScI).

#### Why are high-mass stars important?



- Few in number but incredibly luminous  $->L \propto M^3$
- They inject vast amounts of energy into ISM (radiation, outflows, winds, supernovae)
- They tend to form in groups, clusters and associations strengthens their influence on the surrounding interstellar medium
- Their "feedback" helps to sculpt the interstellar medium
- Drive galaxy evolution: produce all of the heavy elements, coordinated star bursts
- Directly influence the formation of low-mass stars

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- High-mass stars are rare (100x 1Msun star for each 30Msun star, plus 1Msun stars live ~1000x longer)
- No observable pre-main sequence phase
- Short lives
- They tend to form in clusters

Combined these factors make it extremely challenging to observe the formation of high-mass stars



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Consider the Kelvin-Helmholz timescale (S&P04; pg. 21): The time taken to radiate away thermal energy at a given luminosity (also the total time taken to reach a stars main-sequence values of M, R, L).

$$t_{\rm KH} = \frac{GM_*^2}{R_*L_*} \sim 3 \times 10^7 \,\rm{yrs} \left(\frac{M_*}{M_\odot}\right)^2 \left(\frac{R_*}{R_\odot}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{L_*}{L_\odot}\right)^{-1}$$

For a star 60x Msun, this can be as short as 10000 yrs -> high-mass stars ignite before the collapse/accretion has finished -> Live fast. Die young.

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Radiation exerts a force on freeelectrons via Thomson scattering.  $\sigma_{\rm T} = (q^2/mc^2)^2$ 

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Equating the two...

$$L_{\rm edd} = 4\pi GMc(m_p/\sigma_{\rm T}) = 4\pi GMc/\kappa \rightarrow \qquad \text{Opacity} = 4\pi GMc/\kappa \rightarrow \qquad \text{extinction cross}$$

Stars with  $L > L_{edd} = 1.3 \times 10^{38} (M/M_{\odot}) \text{ erg s}^{-1} = 3.2 \times 10^4 (M/M_{\odot}) L_{\odot}$  are not stable!

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If  $L > L_{edd}$  outer gas layers pushed out and star unstable if L provided by nuclear fusion

The accretion dilemma: What about radiation pressure on the dust cocoon surrounding a highmass star? Again, net force can only be directed inward if:

$$\frac{L}{M} < \frac{4\pi Gc}{\kappa} = 2500 \left(\frac{\kappa}{5 \,\mathrm{cm}^2 \,\mathrm{g}^{-1}}\right)^{-1} \frac{L_{\odot}}{M_{\odot}}$$

Dust opacity grows with radiation temperature (no single value can be used in equation above). Flow of material onto star is only maintained if accretion exceeds radiation pressure pressure at dust sublimation radius (T~1500K; kappa~10 cm<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>).

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But we know that much more massive stars exist...

An example: R136a1 Located in the Tarantula nebula in the LMC has a mass of ~200M<sub>sun</sub> and luminosity ~10<sup>6</sup> L<sub>sun</sub>!

Crowther et al. 2010



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#### Very high-mass stars do not grow via spherical accretion.

The accretion dilemma: A solution — spherical symmetry is likely a poor approximation, and relaxing it may reduce or eliminate the accretion dilemma



Krumholz et al. 2009

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If the radiation can be beamed, then the radiation force can be weaker than gravity over a significant solid angle —> disks, outflow cavity, or any other non-spherical feature can help (more on this later)



- Starting with 100 to 200Msun cores.
- Until ~17Msun smooth accretion flow.
- Low angular momentum gas accretes directly on protostar, high angular momentum gas forms Keplerian accretion disk.
- From 17Msun upwards, radiation pressure starts driving out gas, bubbles form. Further infalling gas moves along the bubble walls and falls onto disk.
- Disk gravitationally unstable forming more stars.
- Stars produced are 41.5Msun and 29.2Msun

Krumholz et al. 2009

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However, simply because there is a large supply of mass available does not guarantee that it can actually accrete onto a single object and therefore produce a very massive star

## Some challenges (there are more): 1. Radiation pressure **2. Fragmentation**

The fragmentation dilemma: Recall that when gravitationally unstable media collapse, they tend to produce objects with a characteristic mass comparable to the Jeans mass

$$M_J = \frac{\pi^{5/2}}{6} \frac{c_s^3}{\rho_0^{1/2} G^{3/2}} = 1.0 \left(\frac{T}{10 \text{ K}}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{n_{\text{H}_2}}{10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}}\right)^{-1/2} \text{ M}_{\odot}$$

A high-mass star is an object whose mass is far larger than the Jeans mass of the interstellar gas from which it is forming. Why, then does this gas not fragment into multiple small stars rather than forming a single large one?

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Possible solutions:

Radiation feedback
Magnetic fields



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Each of these models makes different predictions about how high-mass stars are assembled from interstellar gas, some of which are mutually exclusive and lead to differences in the assembly of the IMF.


### Core Accretion (monolithic collapse)

McKee & Tan 2002, 2003



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#### **Initial Conditions:**

- Self-gravitating, centrally condensed starless cores of gas that condense with a range of masses from a fragmenting clump.
- Internal pressure is mostly non-thermal, in the form of turbulence or magnetic fields.
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#### **Details**

- Core embedded in high-pressure environment. Acc. rate increases
- Accretion rate (through a disc):

$$\dot{m}_* \approx 0.5 \times 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{M_{\odot} \, yr^{-1}} \left(\frac{m_{*f}}{30 \,\mathrm{M_{\odot}}}\right)^{3/4} \Sigma_{\mathrm{cl}}^{3/4} \left(\frac{m_*}{m_{*f}}\right)^{1/2}$$

• Time for formation:

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#### **Potential problems/caveats and predictions**

- Predicts the existence of massive starless cores candidates exist but very few. Rapid evolution? Rare?
- A direct mapping of the CMF to the IMF (more on this later)
- Direct mapping has significant implications: e.g. requires that all cores have the same star formation efficiency
- Fragmentation must be suppressed earlier discussion on fragmentation magnetic fields important?
- Suggests relatively massive discs



#### **Competitive Accretion**

Bonnell et al., 1998, 2004, 2007, Image courtesy of Paul Clark



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#### **Initial Conditions:**

- Gas that forms a massive star is drawn chaotically from a wider region of the clump (no high-mass prestellar cores)
- Initially low-mass stars form (0.1Msun). Final star mass does not depend on initial core mass.
- Only operates in the presence of decaying turbulence - requires globally collapsing clouds (alpha\_vir<<1)</li>



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#### **Details**

- Stars forming deepest in the potential well accrete more the rich get richer.
- Accretion rate depends local gas density, the mass of the star and the relative velocity between the gas and the star:

$$\dot{m}_* = \pi \rho_{\rm cl} v_{\rm rel} r_{\rm acc}^2$$

Average accretion rate of a star

 $\langle \dot{m}_* \rangle \approx 1.5 \times 10^{-5} \,\mathrm{M_{\odot} \, yr^{-1}} \left(\frac{\epsilon_{\mathrm{ff}}}{0.1}\right) \left(\frac{\epsilon_{\mathrm{cl}}}{0.5}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{m_{*f}}{50 \,\mathrm{M_{\odot}}}\right) \Sigma_{\mathrm{cl}}^{3/4} M_{\mathrm{cl}}^{-1/4}$ 

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#### Potential problems/caveats and predictions

- No high-mass prestellar core phase
- Requires bound collapsing clouds to reproduce the IMF
- Because there is no relation between initial core mass and final star mass, no mapping between CMF and IMF
- · Massive stars always form at the centres of clusters
- Relatively small accretion discs, with chaotically varying orientations, reflected in outflow direction



## Global Hierarchical Collapse & Intertial Flow models

Vazquez-Semadeni et al. 2019, Padoan et al. 2020

Important note here: These are NOT the same thing and have important quantitative differences. However, they are qualitatively similar.



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- Both models seek to describe the hierarchical evolution of molecular clouds: mol. cloud -> filament -> clump -> core -> star.
- Neither model predicts the existence of starless high-mass, gravitationally bound cores in virial equilibrium. Instead, both models favour the view that the mass that ends up in the star can originate far away from the star.
- Key difference is in what drives the formation and evolution of structure:



Motte et al. 2018

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- In GHC, gravity dominates all scales, filaments are like rivers flowing towards collapsing cores. GHC locally consistent with competitive accretion.



#### Motte et al. 2018

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- Key difference is in what drives the formation and evolution of structure:
- In GHC, gravity dominates all scales, filaments are like rivers flowing towards collapsing cores. GHC locally consistent with competitive accretion.
- IF is distinct from core accretion and competitive accretion. Here turbulence is king. Forming filaments, stars form where multiple filaments intersect, but the flow towards smaller scales is driven by (convergent) turbulent flows - gravity only dominates on the smallest scales



#### Motte et al. 2018



#### Coalescence

Bonnell et al. 1998, Portegies Zwart et al. 1999, Bally & Zinnecker 2005



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#### **Initial Conditions:**

- In gas-rich clusters stars accrete gas, reduces total gas plus stellar kinetic energy - system contracts increasing density
- In gas-free clusters relies on mass segregation massive stars move to the centre of the cluster
- Stellar densities of 106-108 stars pc-3



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#### **Details**

- Cluster cores can puff up (two-body relaxation) faster than they can shrink (energy dissipation) - this depends on the cluster mass - puts a limit on the density that can be reached - rendering collisions unimportant in low-mass clusters
- Collision time needs to be shorter than the lifetime of high-mass stars to be effective - primordial mass segregation
- Depends on the physics of stellar collisions models generally assume that mass loss during the collision is negligible

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#### Potential problems/caveats and predictions

- Requires very high stellar densities
- Orion Nebula Cluster contains a star of ~38 Msun stars of at least this mass can form without collisions
- General tension with observations known massive clusters in the Galaxy are insufficiently dense for the effect to be important
- Impacts the IMF can produce an IMF that is under-populated between 10-100Msun and an over-population at very high masses due to collisions
- Problematic for outflows, jets, discs?

See Tan et al. 2014, Krumholz et al. 2014, Bonnell et al. 2007, Beuther et al. 2007, Motte et al. 2018, Vazquez-Semadeni et al. 2019, Padoan et al. 2020



This remains an open question.

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Nony et al. 2018

In general, such objects are extremely rare. And promising candidates often either fragment or exhibit signatures of SF when examined more closely.









### Observational evidence: Outflows (single-dish)

- Early observations claimed different collimation degrees for massive outflows. different formation? See high resolution image on next slide
- Outflow-mass scales with core mass.
- Outflow force implies non-radiative outflow driving.
- High outflow rates imply high accretion rates.



### Observational evidence: Outflows (interferometric)



Beuther et al. 2002

### Observational evidence: Outflows (evolution)



- Outflows are ubiquitous phenomena in star formation
- Jet-like (highly collimated) outflows exist at least up to early B and late O-type stars
- Outflow collimation may decrease with increasing protostellar mass evolution?

Beuther & Shepard 2005

### Observational evidence: Disks: G11.92–0.61 MM1a



# Today's lecture

#### Learning outcomes:

- Why are high-mass stars important?
- Why is high-mass star formation a difficult problem to solve?
- Different theories of high-mass star formation
- Observational evidence
- The IMF

#### Useful resources:

- Stahler & Palla 2004 Chapters 11.4, 12, 12.5, 15
- Beuther et al., 2007 (PPV chapter on the Formation of Massive Stars)
- Tan et al., 2014 (PPVI chapter on Massive Star Formation)
- Offner et al., 2014 (PPVI chapter on the IMF)
- Krumholz et al., 2014 (Review on the formation of very massive stars)
- Motte et al., 2020 (Review on High-mass Star and Cluster Formation)

Measuring the Stellar Initial Mass Function (IMF) and understanding its genesis, is one of the most important topics in contemporary astrophysics.



The IMF in a nutshell:

A star's mass determines its evolution. The IMF is simply a convenient way of parameterising the relative numbers of stars as a function of their mass.



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Parameterisation:

- >1Msun:  $dn/d\ln m \propto m^{\gamma}$  with  $\gamma = -1.35$ ; Salpeter 1955
- Peak/turnover in the range 0.1-1Msun
- Often described with a series of power-laws (Kroupa 2001), or a log-normal at low-mass and a power-law tail above 1Msun (Chabrier 2003, 2005)



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#### Universality:

- The shape and universality of the IMF are active areas of research
- Within measurement uncertainties however, there appears to be very little variation
- No clear evidence that the IMF varies strongly and systematically as a function of initial conditions after the first few generations of stars


### The IMF

The

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#### A star's mass dete simply a convenient v numbers of star

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The profile of the prestellar Core Mass Function is reminiscent of the IMF but shifted to higher masses

If the IMF derives directly from the CMF then "all" we need to do is understand the CMF, right? If the IMF derives directly from the CMF then "all" we need to do is understand the CMF, right?

Turns out it is not that simple.

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### Turns out it is not that simple.

<u>\*IF\*</u> the IMF derives directly from the CMF then:

- **1.** All observed cores in CMF derivation must be prestellar
- 2. Cores must not alter their mass by either accretion or mergers, if they do they must do so self-similarly
- **3.** All cores must have the same star formation efficiency
- 4. If cores fragment they must do so self-similarly
- 5. All cores must condense into stars at the same rate, otherwise cores that don't will be overrepresented in the CMF

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Graphic shows what happens if any of the conditions required for direct mapping from CMF to IMF fail?



iv) Fragmentation is not self-similar. Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if the cores in the CMF fragment based on the number of initial Jeans masses they contain.



v) Varying embedded phase timescale. Here we show the emerging IMF that could arise if the low-mass cores in the CMF finish before the high-mass cores.



Core Accretion (monolithic collapse)



### "Nature"

#### "Others" (competitive accretion, GHC, IF)



"Nurture"

## Something new...



**Conclusion: Core growth during protostellar phase?** 

Γ	HIGH MASS PROTOSTELLAR PHASE (-3 × 10 <sup>2</sup> years)
Material conditions	
MASSIVE DENSE CORE PHASES	3 Il-bright high-mass protostar
	NI ECON PALE (-10 <sup>2</sup> -10 <sup>4</sup> year)
	1

## Summary

### Learning outcomes:

- Why are high-mass stars important?
  - The energy input and heavy metals produced by high-mass stars influence everything from the evolution of galaxies to the emergence of life
- Why is high-mass star formation a difficult problem to solve?
  - Rare, rapid, reclusive
- Different theories of high-mass star formation
  - Accretion models of various flavours vs. Coalescence of lower-mass stars. The latter appears to be important under very specific circumstances (i.e. very dense high-mass star clusters), and therefore probably not generally applicable. More recent models are attempting to fold in the evolution of the parent cloud.
- Observational evidence
  - High-mass prestellar cores are incredibly elusive. It may be that they are rare and/or evolve rapidly. Alternatively, it may be that the progenitors of high-mass stars are not high-mass, starless cores. Outflows are ubiquitous in star formation.
    Evidence for disks around high-mass stars is in its infancy but the number of examples is increasing.
- The IMF
  - A parameterised description of the relative numbers of stars of different masses. Its genesis remains one of the big open questions in SF research. Its relationship to the CMF is unclear, direct mapping is the most simple idea, but comes with some pretty strong assumptions.

#### **Connecting Exoplanet Properties to Planet Formation: a New Paradigm Emerges**

#### Prof. Ralph E. Pudritz &, McMaster University

One of the great challenges of exoplanetary astrophysics is to understand how the observed properties of exoplanets – their masses, orbital characteristics, bulk properties and atmospheric composition – arise as a consequence of how planets are formed in protoplanetary disks. Where and what materials planets accrete from the disk depends in part upon how they migrate and how the gas and dust in the disks evolve both chemically and dynamically. The vast majority of papers over the last decades have assumed that disk turbulence is the fundamental driver of most of these processes. Recent theoretical and observational advances however point to the importance of the ubiquitous protostellar outflows, now shown observationally to be magnetohydrodynamical disk winds, as the key player. In this talk I will discuss the recent advances in observations, theory, and simulations of planet formation and explore the relative importance of disk winds versus turbulence in controlling planet formation and the observed properties and compositions of exoplanetary populations. Those unable to attend the colloquium in person are invited to participate online through Zoom (Meeting ID: 942 0262 2849, passcode 792771) using the link: https://zoom.us/j/94202622849? pwd=dGIPQXBiUytzY1M2UE50UDRhbzNOZz09 Prof. Pudritz is visiting the Institut fuer Theoretisches Astrophysik and is available for meetings by arrangement with his host, Ralf Klessen (klessen@uni-heidelberg.de).

Heidelberg Joint Astronomical Colloquium 24 Jan 2023, 16:00 Physikalisches Institut, Philosophenweg 12, Main lecture theatre