

# NEW TOPIC- Star Formation

- One of the most important processes for galaxy formation and evolution
- Big questions
  - When and how does star formation occur ?
  - How is it related to the evolution of galaxy properties?
  - What are the physical processes that drive star formation ?
    - star formation occurs (at least in spirals at low z) almost exclusively associated with molecular clouds
    - what is the rate at which stars form in this cloud
    - what mass fraction of the cloud forms stars
    - what controls the IMF?

# Star Formation in Spirals

- This is an enormous subject- lots of recent work (see Kennicutt 1989 for a review)
- Broadly.. Observations of nearby galaxies have shown, over a broad range of galactic environments and metallicities, that star formation occurs only in the molecular phase of the interstellar medium (ISM).
  - Star formation is inextricably linked to the molecular clouds
  - Theoretical models show that this association results from the correlation between chemical phase, shielding, and temperature.
- Interstellar gas converts from atomic to molecular only in regions that are well shielded from interstellar ultraviolet (UV) photons, and since UV photons are also the dominant source of interstellar heating, only in these shielded regions does the gas become cold enough to be subject to Jeans instability (Krumholz 2012)
- In the MW and other well studied nearby galaxies SF occurs mostly in (Giant molecular clouds (GMCs, which are predominantly molecular, gravitationally bound clouds with typical masses  $\sim 10^5 - 10^6 M_{\odot}$  )- but GMC formation is a local, not a global process
- Observationally one uses CO as a tracer for H<sub>2</sub> (not perfect but the best we have right now). This is time consuming but lots of work has been done (Leroy et al 2008)
-

# Star Formation

The physics of star formation (what processes produce stars) and the astrophysics (where and when were the stars produced) are two of the dominant issues in astrophysics at present- unfortunately they are not covered by the text.

- Stars form from dense, cold gas either in disks or in gas that is violently shock compressed (in mergers)

Current SF can be estimated from a variety of techniques

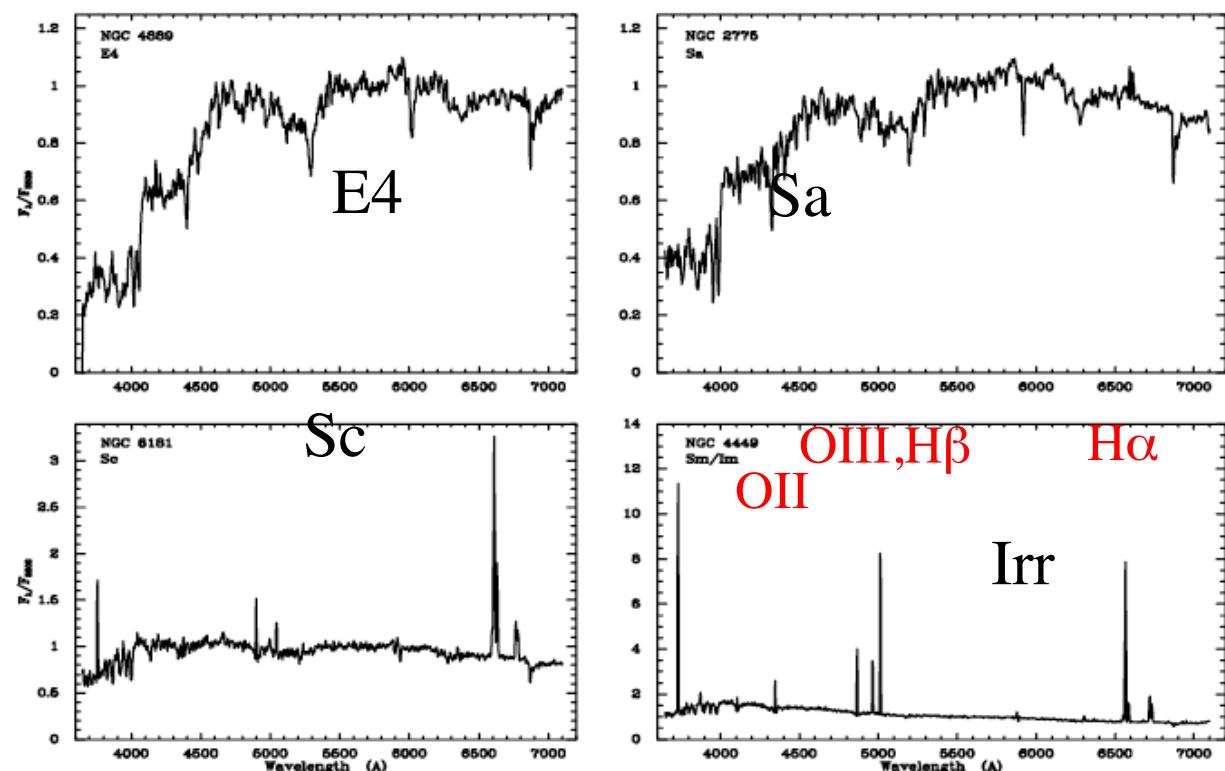
- H $\alpha$  observations, which gives the number of ionizing photons if one assumes that all ionizing photons are used and eventually re-emitted - ionizing photons are almost exclusively emitted by massive (hot) stars which have short lifetimes; slo the effects of dust can be large
- far-IR flux - this assumes that a constant fraction of the emitted stellar energy is absorbed by dust
- radio continuum emission - this statistically correlated very well with the IR radiation- physics is complex since radio emission comes from synchrotron radiation from relativistic electrons+ thermal bremmstrahlung from hot gas
- far-UV flux (- which is primarily emitted by young (hot) stars- but older /less massive than those responsible for H $\alpha$ )
- X-ray emission- produced by 'high mass' x-ray binaries (a Neutron star or black hole with a massive companion )

# How to Normalize SFR

- Since essentially all techniques measure the total (or ionizing) luminosity of massive stars we need to transform to ALL the stars
- Use the IMF
- For Kroupa IMF
  - $\Psi(M) \sim M^{-1.4}$   $0.1 < M < 1$
  - $\Psi(M) \sim M^{2.5}$   $1 < M < 100$
- Integrate  $\Psi$  from  $10-100M$  get .16 of all the mass (correction factor)- these are the stars which have short lifetimes and are hot and thus produce the signatures of star formation. Formation of low mass stars can only be detected in MW and Magellanic clouds!
- How to correct various indicators
- H $\alpha$ : emitted by gas ionized by stars with  $T_{\text{eff}} > \sim 20,000\text{K}$  ( $M > 10M_{\odot}$ ) which emit photons that can ionize Hydrogen ( $E_{\text{ioniz}} = 13.6\text{eV}$ ) -  $t < 20\text{Myrs}$
- IR Continuum- UV light absorbed by dust
- UV continuum- direct signature of massive, young stars

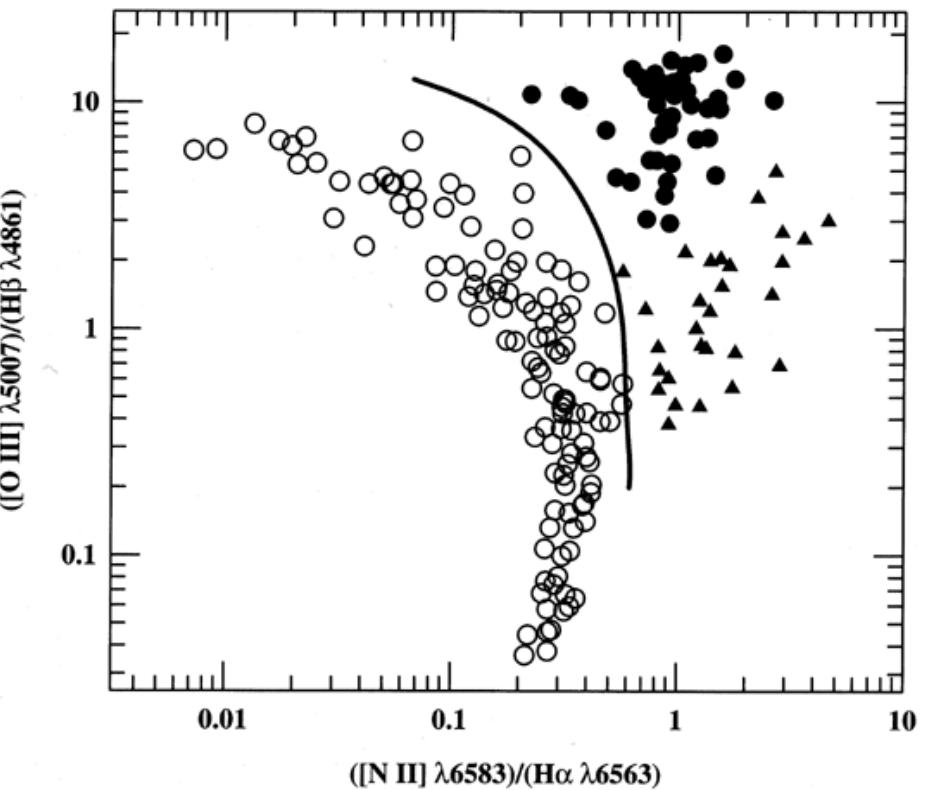
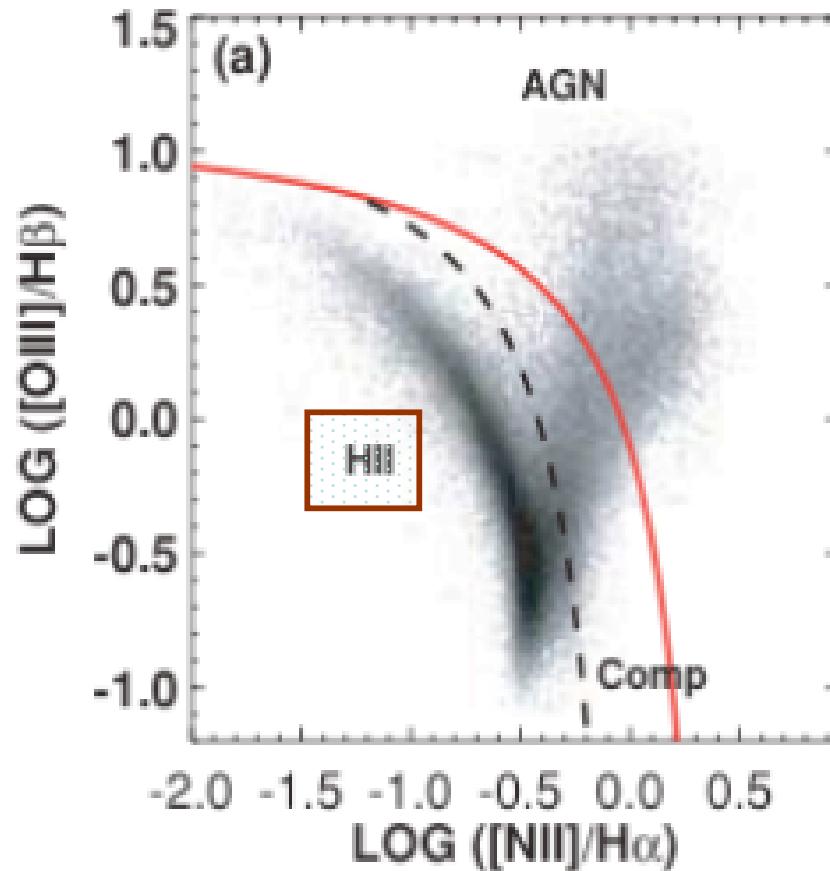
# Importance of Emission Lines

- As one moves on the Hubble sequence the galaxy spectra get more and more emission line dominates and relative prominence of lines changes
- Thus many authors use  $\text{H}\alpha$  or OII as SFR indicators (OIII is also produced by active galaxies and so it is often difficult to separate AGN from star formation)



Kennicutt 1998

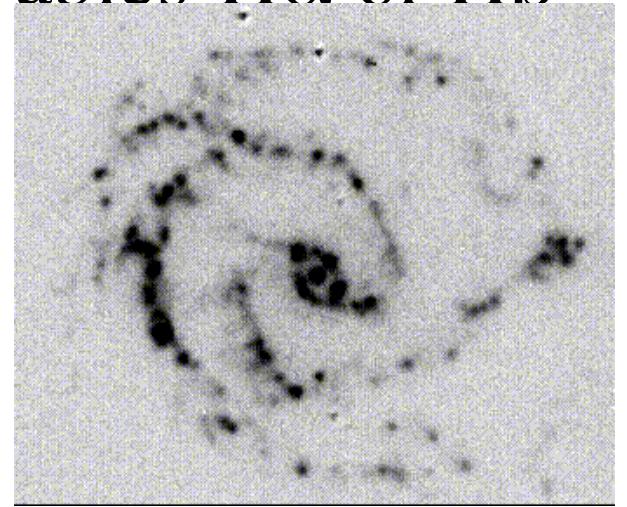
- From spectroscopy how does one classify a galaxy as star forming or an AGN??
- Observe strong lines to make life easier- but these are not necessarily to



Different lines have different dependences on temperature excitation mechanism (collisions, photoionization)  
 Ratios of certain lines (chosen to be close in wavelength do dust is not an issue)  
 AGN have 'harder' radiation field (higher UV/optical) and collisional excitation less important than in star forming regions.

# How to Determine SFR from Observables-H $\alpha$ or H $\beta$

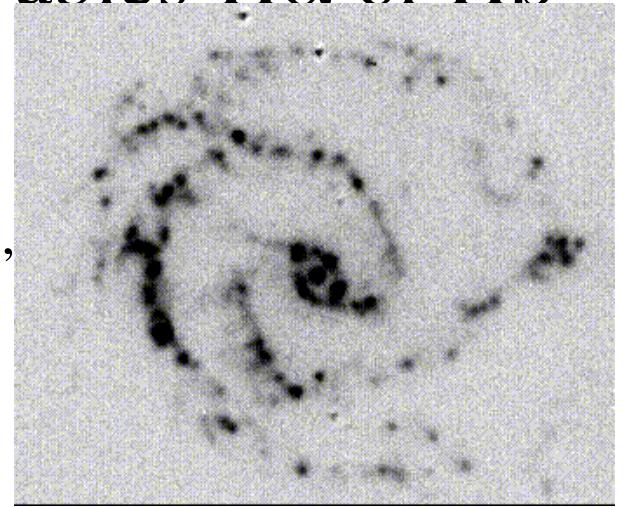
- The strength of the emission lines is the convolution of the number of ionizing photons, the fraction of them that are absorbed and the physical conditions of the gas.
- Simplifying assumptions: gas of constant temperature, given IMF, gas is internally dust free, Case B (optically thick to ionizing continuum)(H $\alpha$ /H $\beta$ =2.9)
  - H $\alpha$  only comes from ionized gas (HII regions)- very non-uniform images (pearls on a string)
- For one type of star (O7) one can calculate the number of H $\alpha$  photons=  $10^{38}$ ph/sec
- Using stellar models and the IMF one ends up with  $SFR(M_{\odot}/yr)=L(H\alpha)/7 \times 10^{41}$  ergs/sec for  $M>10M_{\odot}$  stars or
- $SFR(M_{\odot}/yr)=L(H\alpha)/1.1 \times 10^{41}$  ergs/sec for all stars
- while this seems great, have to worry about dust, the age of the population- the equation assumes a **zero age** IMF. The older the population is, the less H $\alpha$  there is- harder to see how much star formation occurred if it has turned off and the system is more than 20Myrs old.



H $\alpha$  image of a star forming galaxy

# How to Determine SFR from Observables-H $\alpha$ or H $\beta$

- Young, massive stars produce copious amounts of ionizing photons that ionize the surrounding gas. Hydrogen recombination cascades produce line emission, including the well-known Balmer series lines of H $\alpha$  (6563A) and H $\beta$  (4861A), which are strong.
- Only stars more massive than  $20M_{\odot}$  produce an ionizing photon flux.
- In a stellar population formed through an instantaneous burst with a Kroupa IMF the ionizing photon flux decreases by two orders of magnitude between 5Myr and 10Myr after the burst.
- So H $\alpha$  measures the '**instantaneous**' star formation rate

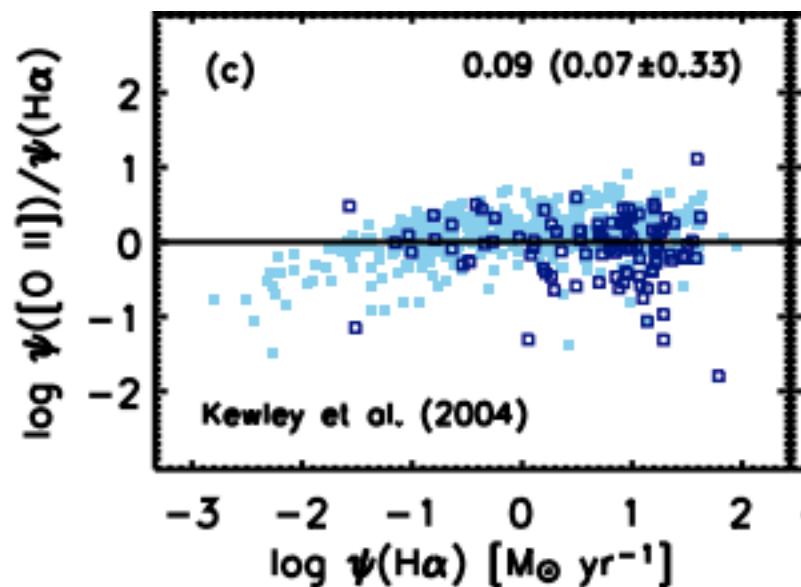


H $\alpha$  image of a star forming galaxy

• <http://www.astr.ua.edu/keel/galaxies/sfr.html>

# How to Determine SFR from Observables-[OII]

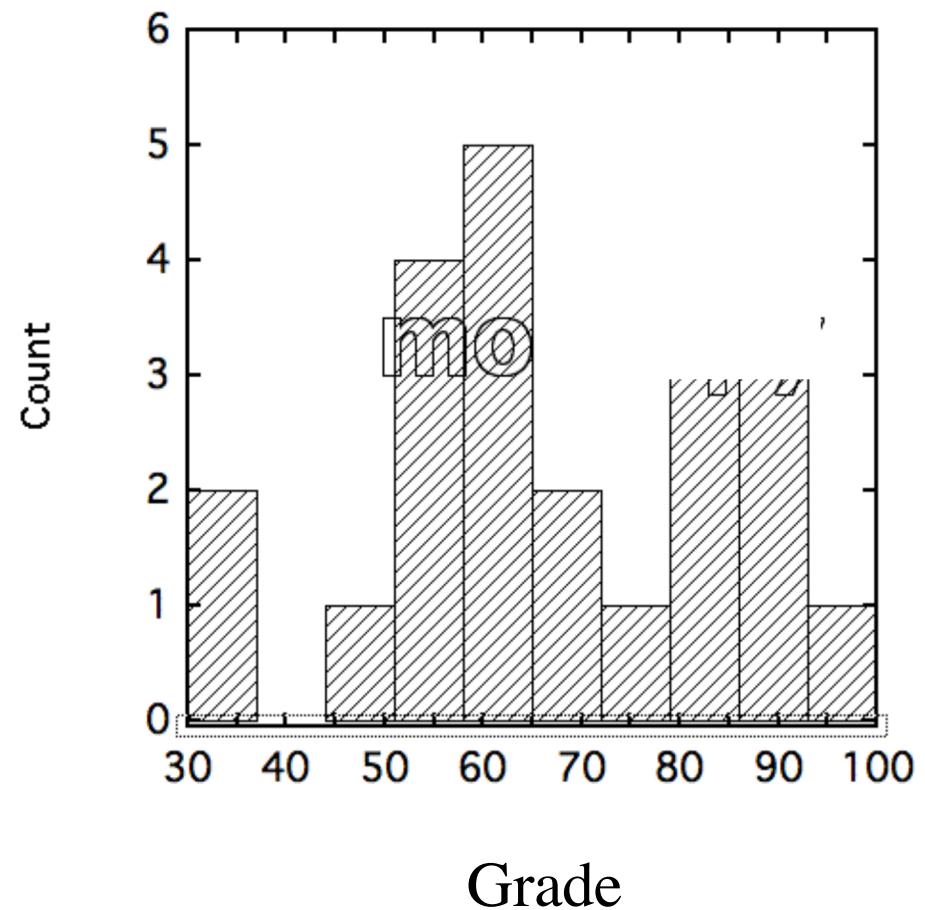
- [OII] (a forbidden line, collisionally de-excited in dense gas) is the next most prominent line and is visible until  $z \sim 1.4$  from the ground ( $H\alpha$  is only visible to  $z \sim 0.4$ )
- Calibrate it empirically using  $H\alpha$  since its luminosity is not directly coupled to the ionizing continuum (it is collisionally excited, not a cascade from photoionization)  
- but fairly wide variation in  $H\alpha$  / O[II] makes it noisier.



Ratio of SFR from [OII] to  
 $H\alpha$  rate vs  $H\alpha$  rate  
(Moustakas 2006)

- 23 students took the exam
- Class average 67, median 64, variance 18
- Dividing it up
- A:79-100      8A's
- B+ 70-78      1B+
- B: 58-70      7B's
- C:43-57      5C's
- D:30-42      2D's
  
- The exam was a bit too long
- I had hoped for a class average of 75 and a A/B boundary of 85. I adjusted the dividing lines to get a more reasonable A/B/C grade distribution
- Please look at the exam and see if there are any grading errors- I went thru them 3 times but one can never tell.

## Mid-term



# Summary and Look Forward

- The star formation rates is determined using many different indicators.
- The most important of are
  - far infrared emission tracing deeply embedded star formation
  - H $\alpha$  emission tracing H II regions;
  - and far ultraviolet emission tracing young, massive stars that have dispersed their natal gas and dust.
  - Radio emission tracing relativistic particles created by SF processes (e.g. supernova)
- Molecular hydrogen surface density correlates linearly with star formation rate -HI seems not to matter-

# Star Formation

- One of the most important processes for galaxy formation and evolution
- What are the general conditions for star formation?
  - in the low z universe star formation in spirals occurs mostly in molecular clouds
  - in ellipticals it is not understood; but is it clear that in some ellipticals stars are forming now.
  - special class of star forming galaxies- star bursts
- General scenario gas cloud collapses, fragments, stars form (somehow).

# SFR indicators

- SFR indicators are derived across the full electromagnetic spectrum, from the X-ray, through the ultraviolet (UV), via the optical and infrared (IR), radio, and using both continuum and line emission ( review Kennicutt 1998, Kennicutt & Evans (2012).
- The importance of these indicators change over cosmic time: it seems that most of the star formation at redshift  $z \sim 1-3$  was enshrouded in dust but at  $z > 3$  dust was much less important.

# UV

- The youngest stellar populations emit the bulk of their energy in the rest frame UV ( $<0.3\mu$ ); **in the absence of dust attenuation, this is the wavelength range ‘par excellence’ to investigate star formation in galaxies over timescales of  $\approx 100\text{--}300\text{Myr}$ ,**
- since both O and B stars are brighter in the UV than at longer wavelengths. the lifetime of an O6 star is  $\sim 6\text{Myr}$ , and that of a B8 star is  $\sim 350\text{Myr}$ .

The luminosity ratio at  $0.16\mu$  is  $\sim 90$ , but, weighting by the for a Saltpeter IMF SSP for every O6 star formed, 150 B8 stars are formed.

Thus, at age zero, the UV emission from the collective contribution of B8 stars is comparable to that of O6 stars. And since B8 stars live a lot longer they dominate the UV flux on longer timescales.

(Calzetti 2012)

# UV Continuum

- in principle great- direct measure of total luminosity of young massive stars.
- Three big problems
  - DUST- UV extinction is much larger than in optical - light that is absorbed is re-emitted in the IR -the most active and luminous systems are also richer in dust, implying that they require more substantial corrections for the effects of dust attenuation;
    - effects of dust are **BIG**-  $A_V = 0.9$  produces a factor ten reduction in the UV continuum at 1300A.
  - Observations show that at 'low' SFR dust is not a big effect, at high values critical
  - at low redshift must observe from space -
  - VERY sensitive to IMF- at best can only constrain 15% of all the stars forming
    - For a Kroupa IMF with constant star formation  
 $SFR(\text{UV})M_\odot/\text{yr} = 3.0 \times 10^{-47} L_{\text{UV}}(\text{ergs/sec})(912-3000\text{\AA})$

# IR Continuum

- Direct observations show that **~1/2 of total galaxy light in spirals appears in IR**
- This is thermal emission emitted by dust as a grey body
- Wavelength at which emission peaks is related to temperature of dust

$8\mu \sim 360k, 24\mu \sim 121k, 70\mu \sim 40k, 160\mu \sim 20k$  based on Black Body Formula

$$\lambda_{\text{peak}} \sim 29\mu/T_{100} \quad \lambda_{\text{peak}} \text{ in units of microns and } T \text{ in units of } 100k$$

(these are the common wavelengths for IR space borne instruments IRAS, Spitzer, WISE, Herschel)

$T \sim \lambda^{-1}$  but  $L \sim AT^4$  so to get a lot of luminosity at long wavelengths needs a large emitting area, A

Temperature is set primarily by equilibrium; energy absorbed=energy emitted and physics of dust grains.

Most galaxies are dominated by  $T \sim 20-40K$  dust, rapid star forming galaxies up  $T \sim 100k$ .

Need wide range of temperatures to produce observed spectra.

$$\text{Roughly SFR (M/r)} = L_{\text{total IR}} \times 4.5 \times 10^{-44} \text{ ergs/sec (integrating IR from } 8-1000\mu)$$

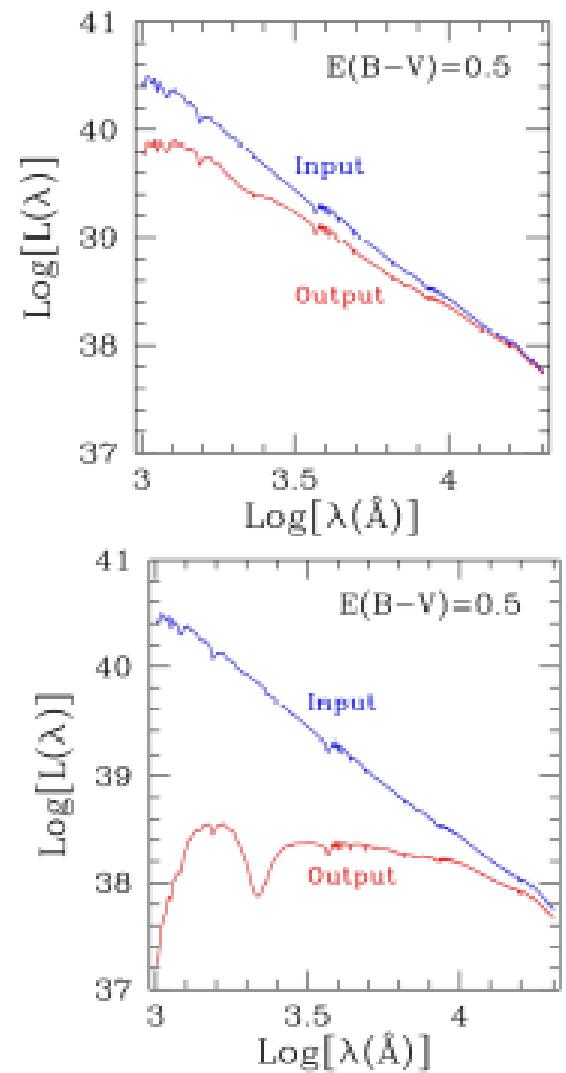
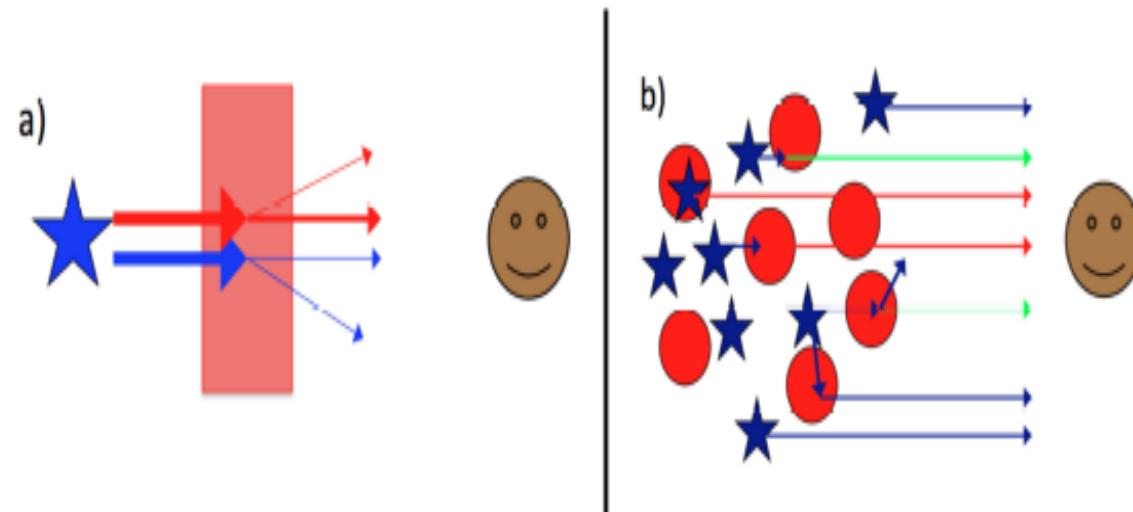
Advantages- relatively free from extinction, can do at high z with Herschel

Problems- requires lots of assumptions and scaling. Need to assume continuous SF

# IR Continuum

- Ideal for starburst galaxies because:
- Young stars dominate UV-optical radiation,  $\tau > 1$ ,  $L_{\text{IR}} \sim L_{\text{SB}}$  and cross-section of the dust grains for stellar light is higher in the UV than in the optical
- Not ideal for SF in disks of normal galaxies because:a fair fraction of the IR luminosity is produced by dust re-radiation of emission from 'old' stars e.g. cirrus in the MW. - that is the calibration between SFR and  $L_{\text{IR}}$  depends on the age of the system

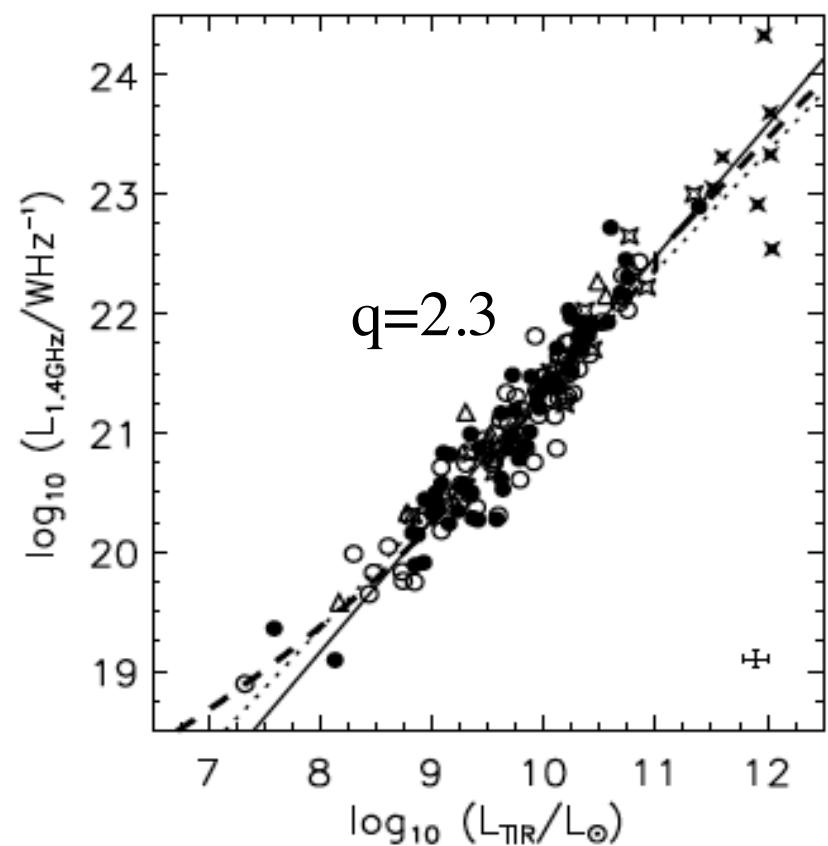
Geometry is a serious issue- the same amount of dust has different effects depending on the relative position of the stars and the dust



# Star Formation- Radio View

- Radio continuum emission from star-forming galaxies has two components: thermal bremsstrahlung from ionized Hydrogen and non-thermal synchrotron emission from cosmic ray electrons spiraling in the magnetic field of the galaxy
- The relative ratio is frequency dependent because of the different spectral slopes of the 2 processes ( $F_\nu \sim \nu^\alpha$ ,  $\alpha = -0.7$  for synch, -0.1 for TB)
- **This method does not depend on how one handles dust or ionizing continuum,**
- But physics is not fully understood- why cosmic rays/magnetic field are so finely tuned so that radio synchrotron traces star formation

$$q = \log \left( \frac{FIR}{3.75 \times 10^{12} W m^{-2}} \right) - \log \left( \frac{S_{1.4GHz}}{W m^{-2} Hz^{-1}} \right)$$

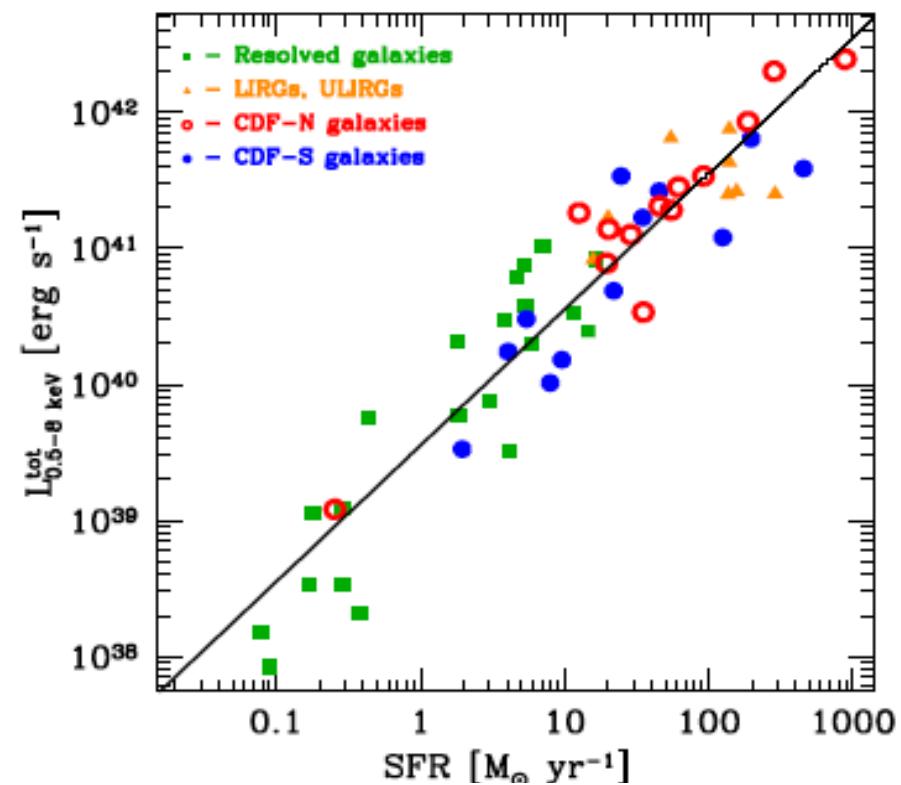


Bell 2002

# Star Formation X-rays

Mineo et al 2012

- In a rapidly star forming galaxies x-rays are produced by
  - 1) high mass x-ray binaries with a lifetime  $\tau \sim 2 \times 10^7$  yrs surprisingly the luminosity function of these sources is very similar from galaxy to galaxy with only the normalization  $\sim$  SFR changing
  - 2) hot gas from Supernova- results imply that only 5% of SN energy is needed to produce "diffuse" x-rays



major advantage of x-rays: do not need to be concerned about dust, can do this at high redshift

# How to Infer SFR from Optical Data

- Construct stellar evolutionary tracks containing parameters such as  $T_{\text{eff}}$ ,  $L_{\text{bol}}$ ,
  - These are typically obtained via atmospheric models & spectral libraries
- Construct IMFs containing parameters such as Luminosity, Color, Spectra of Single Age Population
- Add together IMFs from step 2 to get spectra & colors of a galaxy with an arbitrary star formation history
  - Lots of parameters to determine (see <http://arxiv.org/pdf/1208.5229.pdf>) for a detailed discussion of the steps and uncertainties

1) Star Formation History

2) Galaxy Age

3) Metal Abundance

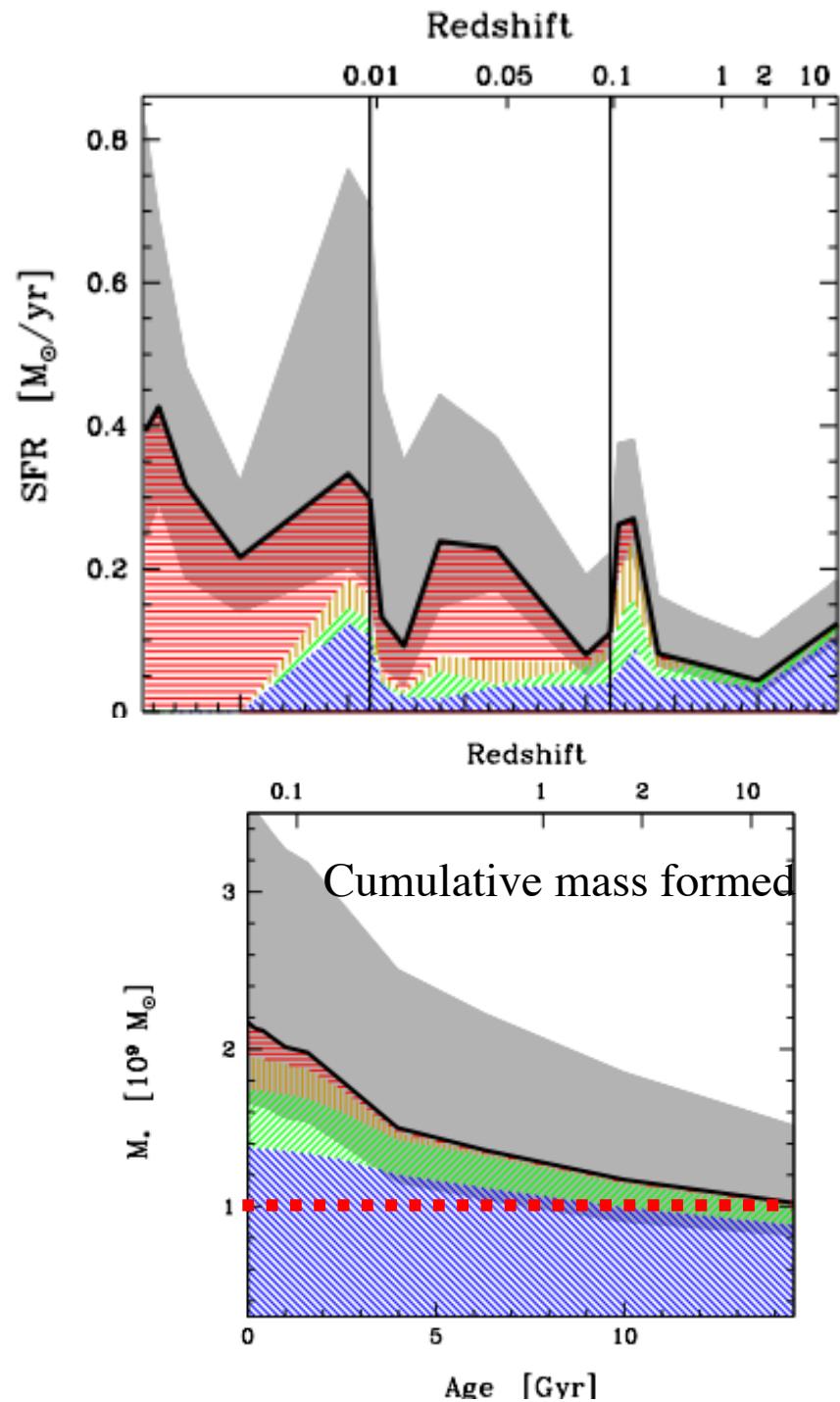
4) IMF

One iterates by comparing the actual galactic emission to the output of a set of galactic stellar population models. The models that best fit the observed data are then used to estimate the galactic properties of interest (e.g. stellar mass, present star formation rate, internal extinction etc.);

How to handle dust??

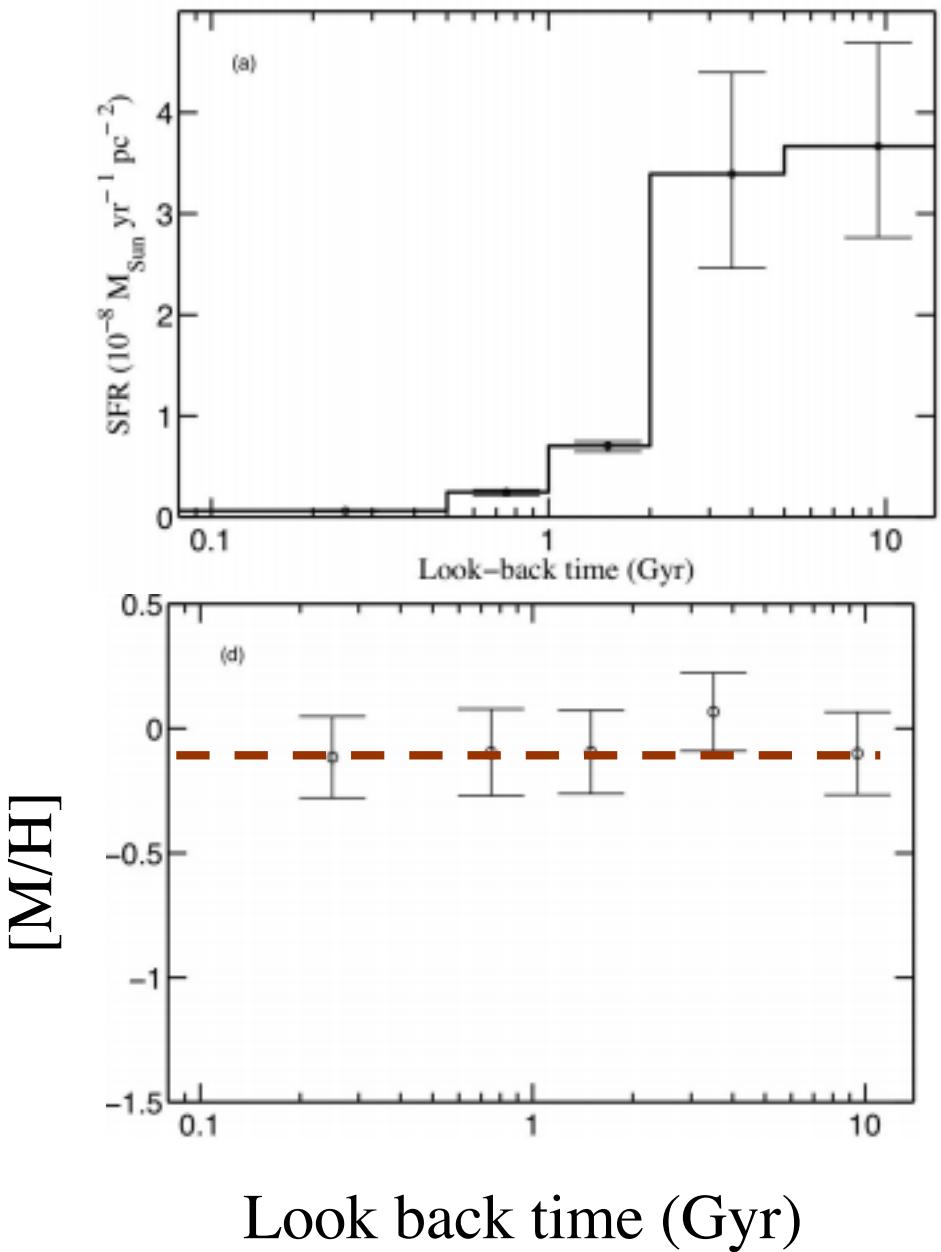
# Uncertainties in Estimating Stellar Masses

- Star formation history- only in a few nearby galaxies can the star formation history be determined
  - e.g. LMC an initial burst of star formation(1/2 mass formed), then a quiescent epoch from ~12 to 5 Gyr ago. Star formation then resumed and continues at an average rate of roughly  $0.2 M_{\odot}/\text{yr}$ , with variations at the factor-of-two level (Harris and Zaritsky 2010)
- IMF uncertainty: fundamental, factor of 2 in transformation of light to mass (also how many binaries!)
- Metallicity: less important (30% effect)
- Different stellar evolution codes- can be very important at different ages (factor of 2)
- Spatial variation in SF history/rate



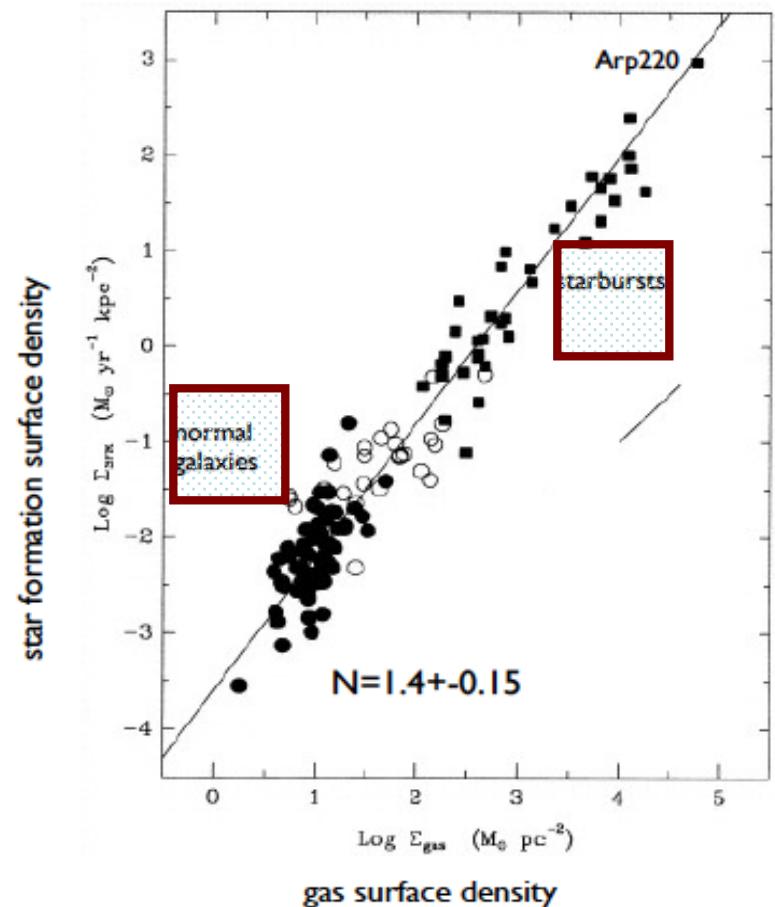
# Star Formation History of an Elliptical

- M32- a dwarf elliptical companion of M31 is close enough to have a CMD for resolved stars-
- very different history than the LMC
- ~95% of its mass formed 5-14 Gyr ago. 2 dominant populations;  $\sim 30\% \pm 7.5\%$  of its mass 5-8 Gyr old population,  $\sim 65\% \pm 9\%$  of the mass in a 8-14 Gyr old population (Monachisi et al 2012)
- Metallicity does not change with time (!)- where do the created metals go (another lecture)
- M31 has yet another history the stellar populations of the inner regions of the disk and spheroidal components of M31 are older and more metal-poor than M32



- Assume that SFR rate is proportional to total amount of gas
- $\text{SFR} \sim \rho_{\text{gas}} \sim d\rho_{\text{gas}}/dt$ ; sol't  $\rho_{\text{gas}} \sim \rho(0)_{\text{ga}} e^{-t/\tau}$
- More generally assume  $\text{SFR} \sim \rho_{\text{gas}}^n$
- e.g. as gas compresses stars form more easily or there maybe another timescale in the process such as the free-fall time of the gas  
 $\text{SFR} \sim \rho_{\text{ga}} / t_{\text{freefall}}$
- Frequently this expressed in terms of surface density (**an observable**)
- $\Sigma_{\text{SFR}} = A \Sigma_{\text{gas}}^n$   $n \sim 1.4$  can be explained by stars form with a characteristic timescale equal to the free-fall time in the gas disk, which in turn depends inversely on the square root of the gas volume density,  $\tau_{\text{ff}} \sim \rho_{\text{gas}}^{-1/2}$  **for a fixed scale height**  $\rho_{\text{gas}} \sim \Sigma_{\text{gas}}$   
 gas consumption efficiency is low  $\sim 1.5 \times 10^9$  yrs to convert the gas into stars

## Kennicutt Schmidt Law

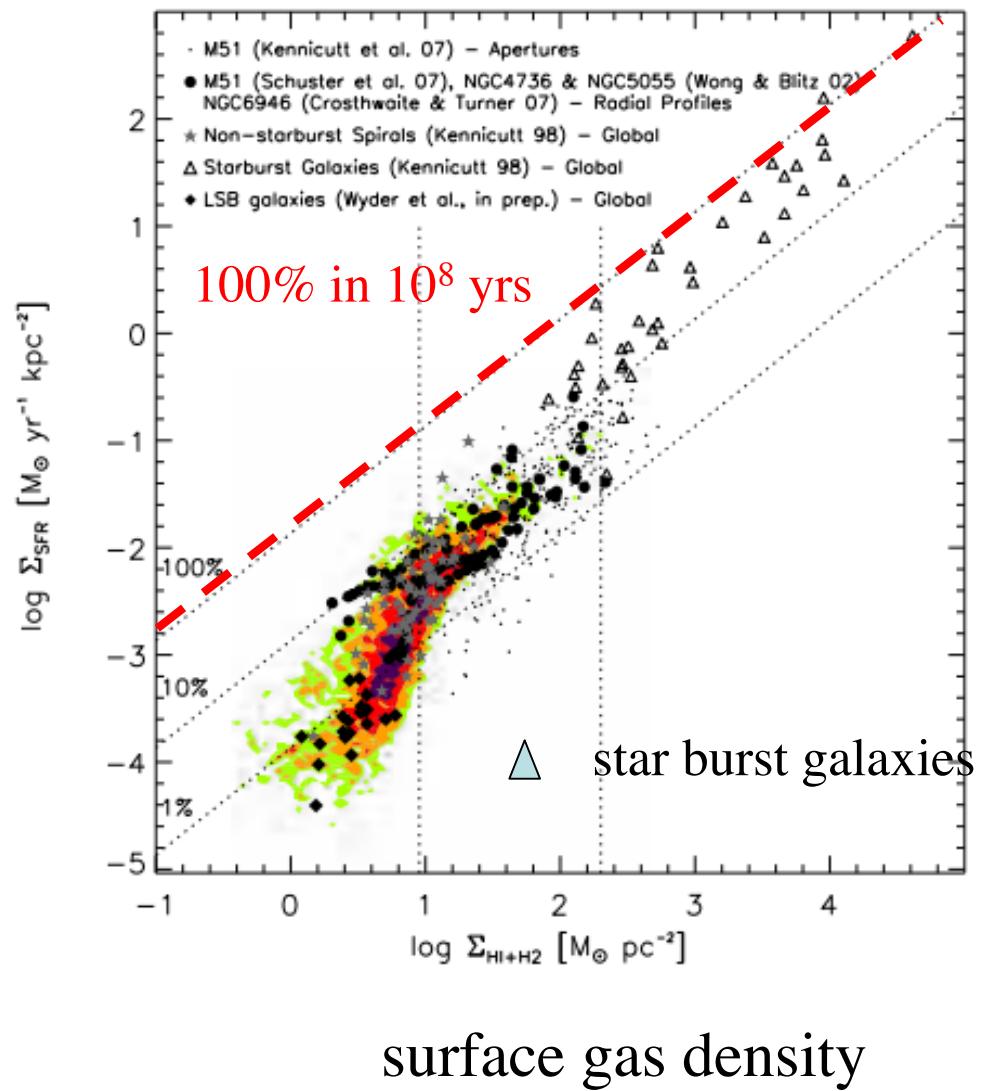


Kennicutt 1998

# Kennicutt Law with Starbursts

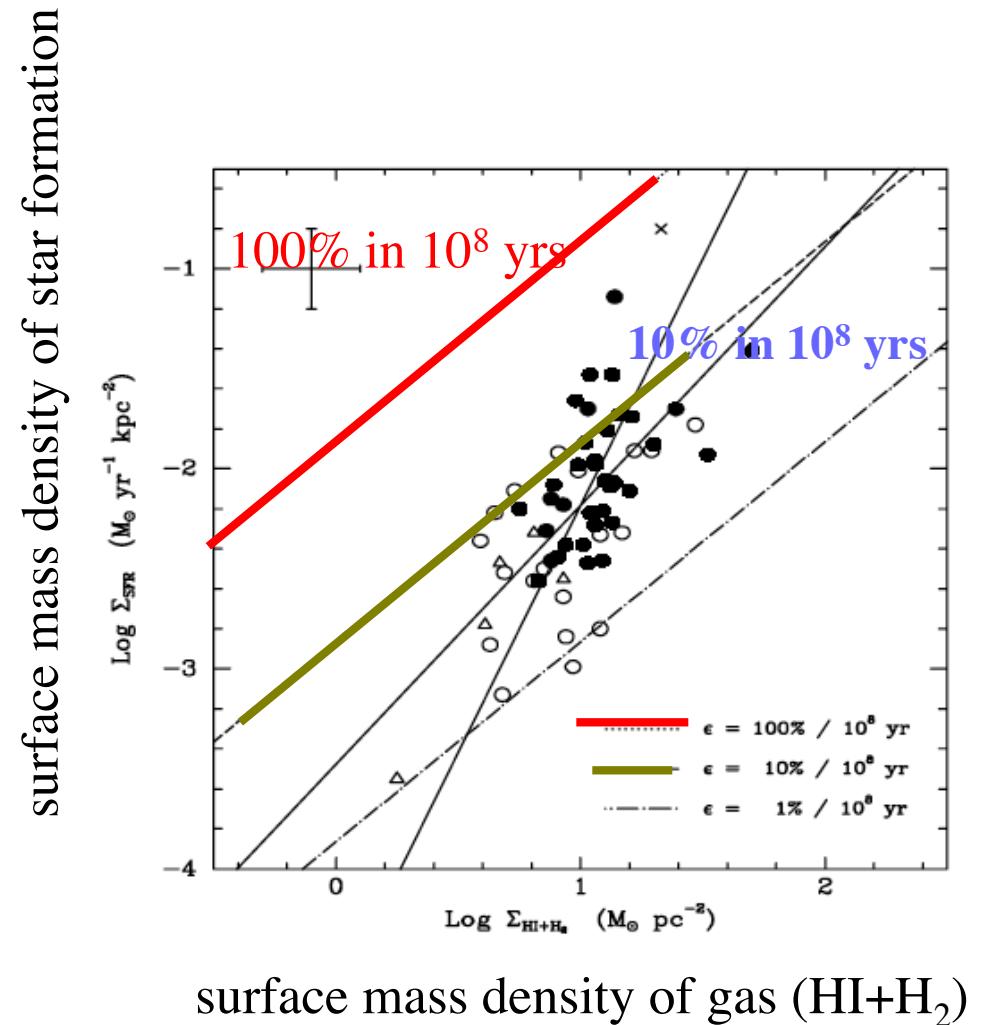
- Newer data show starburst galaxies- the highest star forming rate galaxies obey a different law
- They seem to convert the gas into stars 'as fast as possible'-e.g on freefall timescale.
- This produces a wind as a large amount of energy is injected by star formation in a short time.

star formation rate



- SF in normal galaxies uses about 5% of available gas every  $10^8$  yrs !
  - But this does not include 'recycling' - e.g. when stars die they recycle gas back into the ISM
- Since the typical gas mass fraction in disks  $\sim 20\%$  (but changes a lot as a function of mass), implies that stellar mass of the disk grows by about 1% per  $10^8$  years, i.e. the time scale for building the disk (at the present rate) is  $\sim$  Hubble time.
- In terms of the average gas depletion timescale,  $\sim$  is 2.1 Gyr.
- Recycling of interstellar gas from stars extends the actual time scale for gas depletion by factors of 2–3

## How Long Does the Gas Last



Relationship for 'normal' star formation  
 Kennicutt 1998

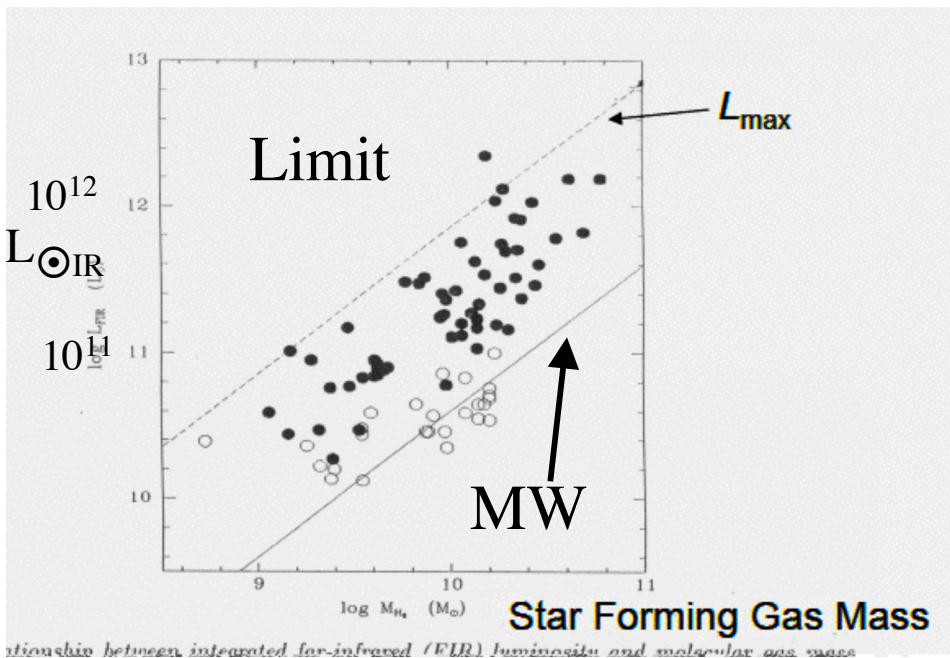
- Starburst use up their gas much faster
- $\langle 30\% \rangle$  of gas used every  $10^8$  yr
- Depletion timescale  $\approx 0.3$  Gyr
- How luminous are these objects?

$$\text{SFR}_{\max} \sim 100 \text{M/yr} (\text{M}_{\text{gas}}/10^{10} \text{M}_\odot) (10^8 \text{yrs}/\Delta t_{\text{dyn}})$$

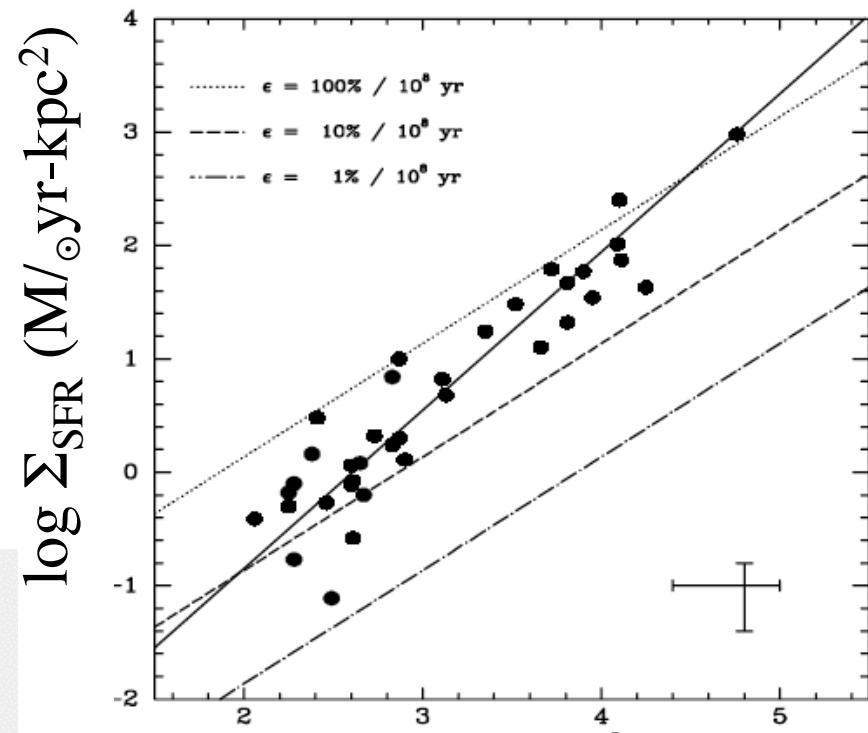
Now nuclear fusion is  $\sim 0.7\%$  efficient the fraction of rest mass convert to energy for a Saltpeter IMF is  $\epsilon \sim 0.05$  during  $10^8$  yrs

This gives  $L_{\max} \sim 0.07 \epsilon (dM/dt) c^2$

$$L_{\max} \sim 10^{11} L_\odot (\text{M}_{\text{gas}}/10^{10} \text{M}_\odot) (\epsilon/0.05)$$



## How Long Does the Gas Last- Star Bursts



$$\log \Sigma_{\text{H}_1+\text{H}_2} (\text{M}_\odot/\text{pc}^2)$$

# Possible Star Formation 'Laws'

- Define star formation efficiency  
 $SFE = \Sigma_{SFR}/\Sigma_{gas}$
  - to form stars in spirals need
    - cold phase ( $n \sim 4-80 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $T \sim 50-200 \text{ K}$ )
    - and gravitationally bound clouds
  - A star formation law *should* predict the SFE from local conditions (physics)
- 1) Kennicutt-Schmidt law  $\Sigma_{SFR} \sim \Sigma_{gas}^{1.5}$
- stars form on a characteristic timescale equal to the free-fall time in the gas disk,  $\sim \rho^{-1/2}$
  - since  $\rho_{gas} \sim \Sigma_{gas}$  and  $\Sigma_{SFR} \sim \Sigma_{gas}^{1.5}$
  - expect  $SFE \sim \Sigma_{gas}^{0.5}$

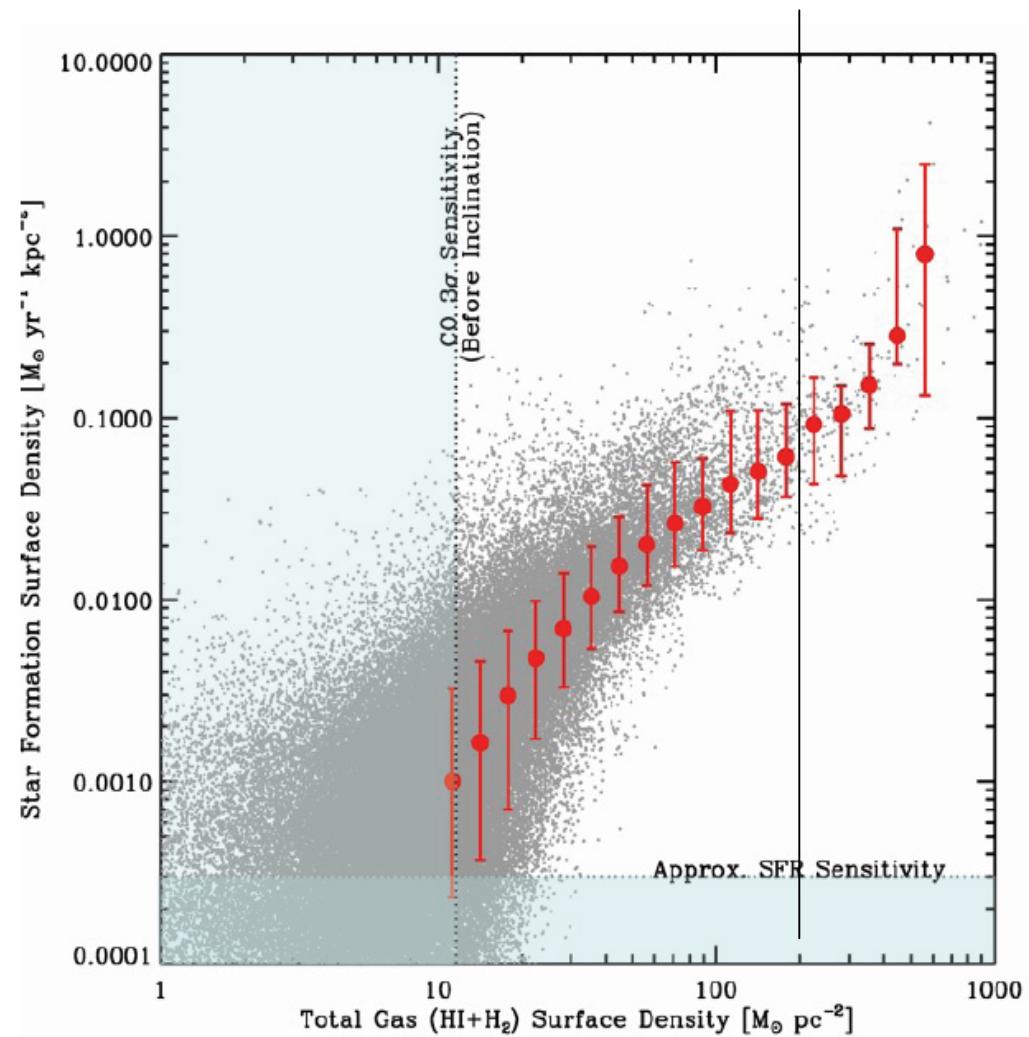
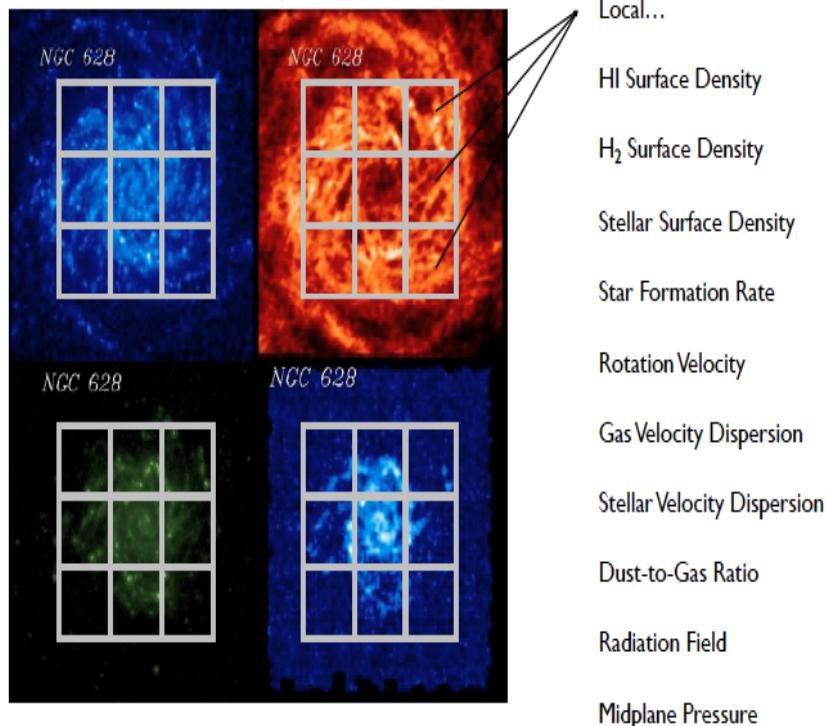
Disk free-fall time : if scale height of disk set by hydrostatic equilibrium then  $t_{ff} \sim \rho^{-1/2}$  related to the velocity field and density of stars and gas

or some other timescale such as orbital timescale such as orbital timescale  $t_{orb} = \Omega/2\pi = 2v(r)/2\pi r$

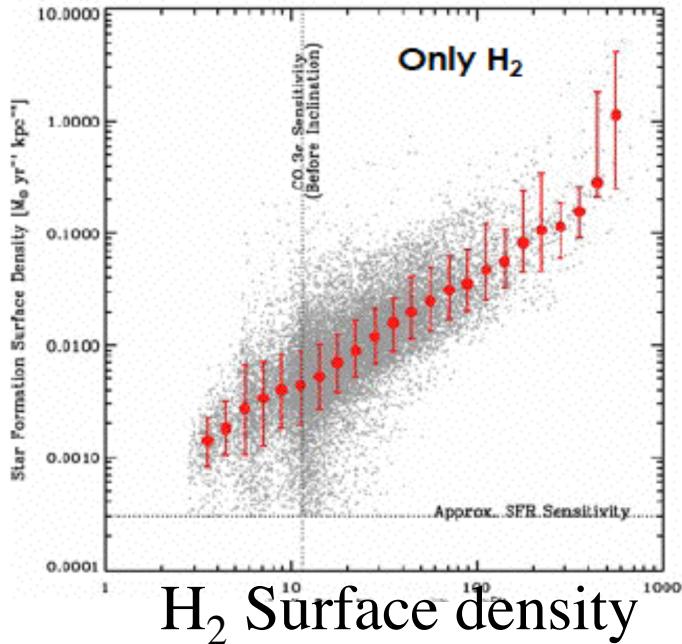
or perhaps gravitational instability - gas unstable against collapse when Toomre  $Q = \sigma_g \kappa / \pi G \Sigma_{gas} < 1$ ;  $\kappa$  is the epicyclic frequency; velocity dispersion of the gas  $\sigma_g$

# Kennicutt-Schmidt Updated GMC density

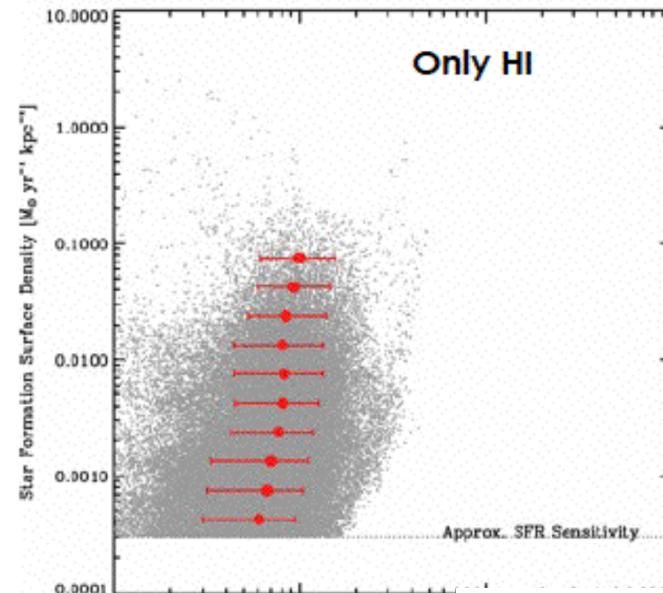
- SFR depends on surface density of **molecular gas**
- (red points are averages, gray points are individual samples in galaxies)



# Only H<sub>2</sub> Counts

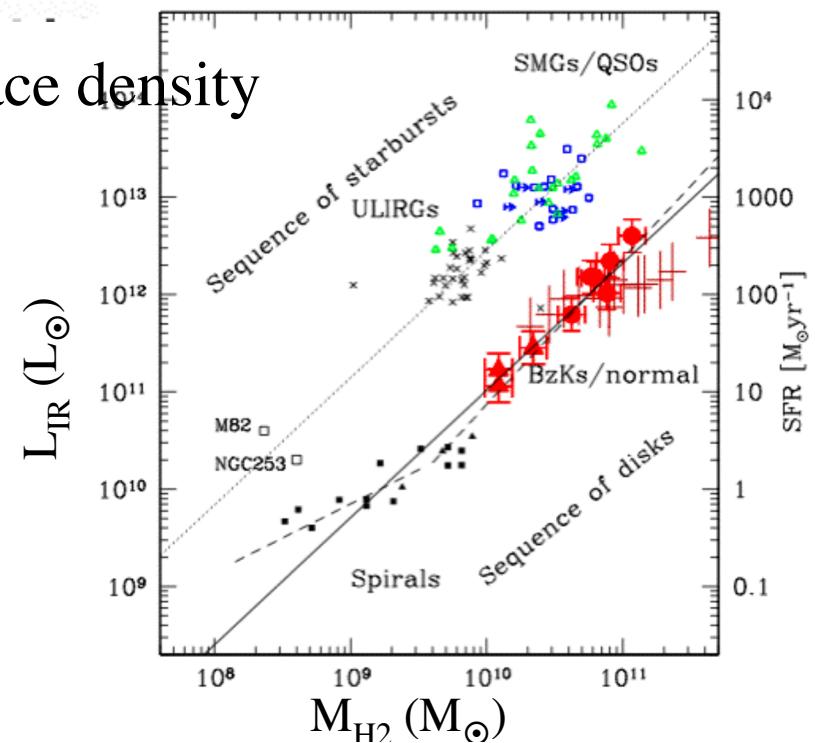


Bigiel et al. 2008/10, Leroy et al. 2008/11



stars seem to form only in dense molecular gas...

## HI Surface density



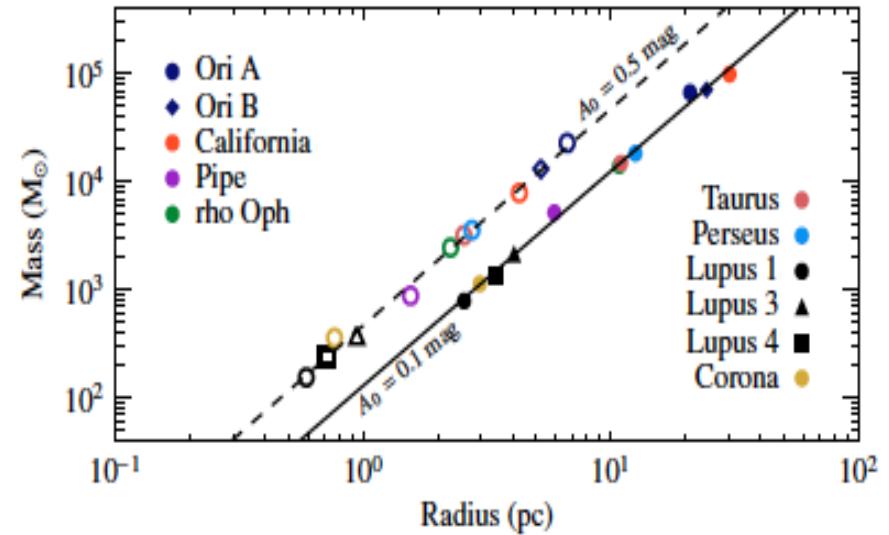
- In the low redshift universe there are very few, very high SFR objects- these are much more important in the high z universe
- It appears that the relations for very rapid SF galaxies are different

## Star formation Occurs in Giant Molecular Clouds

- Cooling to  $10^4$  K is not sufficient to form stars.
- The gas has to cool well below 100K and must be shielded from UV radiation by dust.
- Star formation occurs in giant molecular clouds with masses of  $10^3$ - $10^7$  M and radii of 1-100pc.
- These clouds can become gravitationally unstable and collapse and form stars .
- The effects of feedback (e.g. stellar winds and SNR) are not at all clear

# Molecular Clouds

- this is a vast subject with lots of details- not discussed in text
- As the gas density increases the fraction that is molecular increases rapidly (a sharp transition)- H<sub>2</sub> forms on dust grains when it is cold
- These clouds are in rough virial equilibrium  $2GM/\sigma^2 = R$ ,  $M \sim R^2$ ,  $\delta V \sim R^{1/2} \sim \rho^{-1/2}$
- $M \sim 10^5 - 5 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$ ,  $r \sim 10$ 's pc  $n_{H_2} \sim 100 - 500 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  but there is a lot of structure, in protostellar cores density much higher
- Cold  $T \sim 10 \text{ k}$  in MW) - UV light cannot penetrate- heating by Cosmic rays (?) - quite turbulent
- Strongly associated with young star clusters- short lived (?)  $t \sim 10^7 \text{ yrs}$



If self gravitating isothermal spheres collapse if mass exceeds the Jeans mass

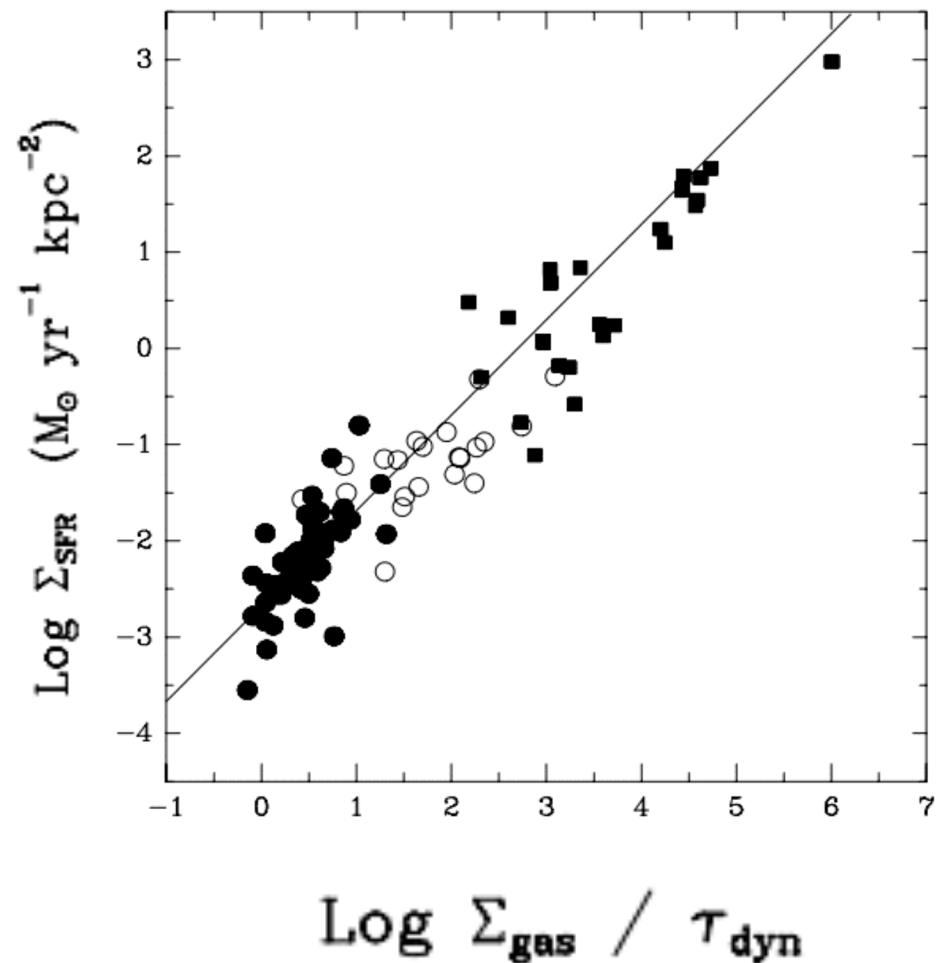
$$M_j \sim 40 M_{\odot} (c_s / 0.2 \text{ km/sec})^3 (n_{H_2} / 100)^{-1/2}$$

which they do by a lot~!  
collapse on free fall time

$$t_{ff} = (3\pi / 32G\rho)^{1/2} \sim 3.6 \times 10^6 (n_{H_2} / 100)^{-1/2} \text{ yrs}$$

- What other scaling relations seem to hold?
- Kennicutt shows that  $\Sigma_{\text{SFR}}$  is also correlated with  $\Sigma_{\text{gas}}/\tau_{\text{dynamical}}$  in a galaxy sample (but not inside a galaxy!)
- where  $\tau_{\text{dynamical}}$  is the orbital time at the radius of the star forming region  $2\pi R/V_{\text{rot}}(R)$
- In a disk galaxy there is another restoring force (other than pressure) which is important for the Jeans criterion- conservation of angular momentum (Coriolis force)
- Perturbations are unstable to gravitational collapse if
- $Q = c_s \kappa / p G \Sigma_{\text{mass}} < 1$  where  $\kappa$  is the epicyclic freq (MBW 9.10)
- The K-S  $\tau_{\text{dynamical}}$  law follows if  $Q < 1$  (Silk)

## Kennicutt Schmidt Continued



# Criteria for Collapse

- Jeans Criterion for collapse of spherical cloud
- Gravitational instability sets in if the free-fall time **is less than** the sound crossing time
- $t_{ff}^2 = 1/G\rho < (R/c_s)^2 = 10^8 n_H^{-1/2}$  yrs; free fall time from  $d^2r/dt^2 = -GM/r^2$ ;  $n_H$  is the number density of gas
- hydrodynamical timescale from  $d^2r/dt^2 = (-1/\rho(r))dP/dr = R/c_s$

**Characteristic mass for system to collapses is Jeans Mass**

$$\text{Jeans mass } M_J = 4/3\pi \lambda_J^3 \rho = 4/3\pi c_s^3 \rho^{-1/2}$$

$$\text{Jeans length } \lambda_J = \sqrt{\pi c_s^2 / G \rho}$$

For typical values

$$M_J \text{ SOLAR UNITS} = (T/10k)^{3/2} (n_H/10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3})^{-1/2}$$

$$\text{units of surface mass density } \lambda_J = c_s^2 / G \Sigma$$

$c_s$  = sound speed =  $\sqrt{dP/d\rho} = \sqrt{k_B T / \mu m_H}$  for hydrogen ( $k_B$  = Boltzmann's constant,  $m_H$  = mass of hydrogen atom,  $\mu$  = mean molecular weight)

- For typical values  $c_s = 0.3 \text{ km/sec}$   $(T/10k)^{1/2}$

However the gas cannot collapse unless it can radiate away the heat from conversion of potential energy so need  $t_{cool} < t_{ff}$  the rate at which gas cools depends on a strong function of temperature and the density squared.

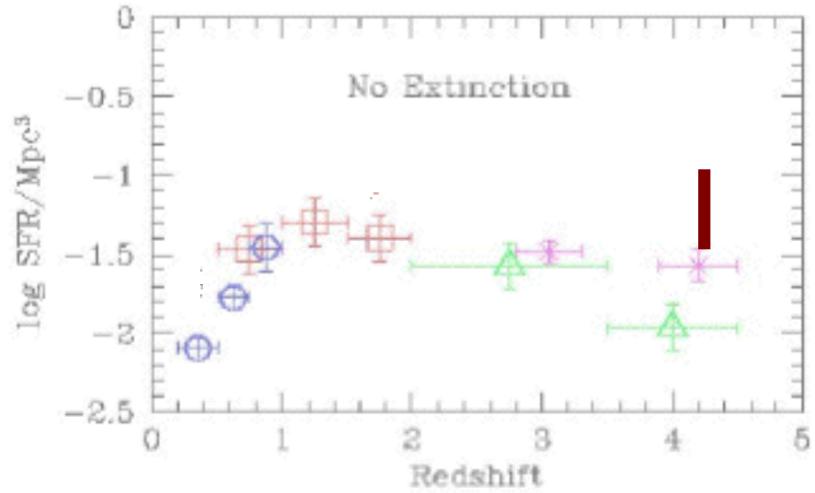
# Gravitational Instability

- Another derivation of Jeans length/mass
- Balance pressure and gravity (pg 355 of S+G)
- Potential energy=  $-1/2 \int \rho(x)\phi(x)d^3x \sim G\rho^2r^5$
- if gas moves as sound speed  $KE = c_s^2 M$
- $M = 4/3\pi\rho r^3$
- In equilibrium viral theorem says  $KE = PE/2$  so define a length  $\lambda_j$  where that is true and get  $\lambda_j = c_s \sqrt{\pi/G\rho}$

The cloud's radius is the Jeans' Length and its mass ( $4/3\pi\rho\lambda_j^3$ ) is the Jeans mass -when thermal energy per particle equals gravitational work per particle. At this critical length the cloud neither expands nor contracts. Dimensionally this is  $kT = GM/r$

# Dust

- As we discussed before the effects of dust and how one treats it can be a very large effect.
- As an example take the star formation history of the universe as revealed by deep 'optical' studies- it shows that 'correcting for dust' introduces a factor of 3 change!
- Correcting for dust is not easy to do



For those interested in more details on starbursts see Peter Barthels course notes

<http://www.astro.rug.nl/~pdb/starbursts.htm>

# Low Z SFR-Summary

Property	Kennicutt 1998	Spiral Disks	Star Bursts
Radius		1 – 30 kpc	0.2 – 2 kpc
SFR		0 – 20 $M_{\odot}$ yr <sup>-1</sup>	0 – 1000 $M_{\odot}$ yr <sup>-1</sup>
Bolometric Luminosity		$10^6$ – $10^{11}$ $L_{\odot}$	$10^6$ – $10^{13}$ $L_{\odot}$
Gas Mass		$10^8$ – $10^{11}$ $M_{\odot}$	$10^6$ – $10^{11}$ $M_{\odot}$
Star Formation Timescale		1 – 50 Gyr	0.1 – 1 Gyr
Gas Density		1 – 100 $M_{\odot}$ pc <sup>-2</sup>	$10^2$ – $10^5$ $M_{\odot}$ pc <sup>-2</sup>
Optical Depth (0.5 $\mu$ m)		0 – 2	<u>1 – 1000</u>
SFR Density		0 – 0.1 $M_{\odot}$ yr <sup>-1</sup> kpc <sup>-2</sup>	1 – 1000 $M_{\odot}$ yr <sup>-1</sup> kpc <sup>-2</sup>
Dominant Mode		steady state	steady state + burst

- $t_{\text{freefall}} = (R/G\Sigma)^{1/2}$
- $t_{\text{cross}} = (R/\sigma)$
- the fastest things can happen is when this are equal and make R the Jeans length  
 $R_{\text{Jeans}} \sim \sigma^2/G\Sigma$

# Summary of Situation

- Large scale SFR is determined by a hierarchy of physical processes spanning a vast range of physical scales:
  - the accretion of gas onto disks from satellite objects and the intergalactic medium(Mpc)
  - the cooling of this gas to form a cool neutral phase (kpc)
  - the formation of molecular clouds (10-100 pc);
  - the fragmentation and accretion of this molecular gas to form progressively denser structures such as clumps ( $\sim 1$  pc) and cores ( $\sim 0.1$  pc)
- The first and last of these processes operate on galactic (or extragalactic) and local cloud scales, respectively, but the others occur at the boundaries between these scales and the coupling between processes is not yet well understood.
- the challenge of explaining the low efficiency of star formation remains.
- Similarly, an understanding of the full IMF, remains elusive.

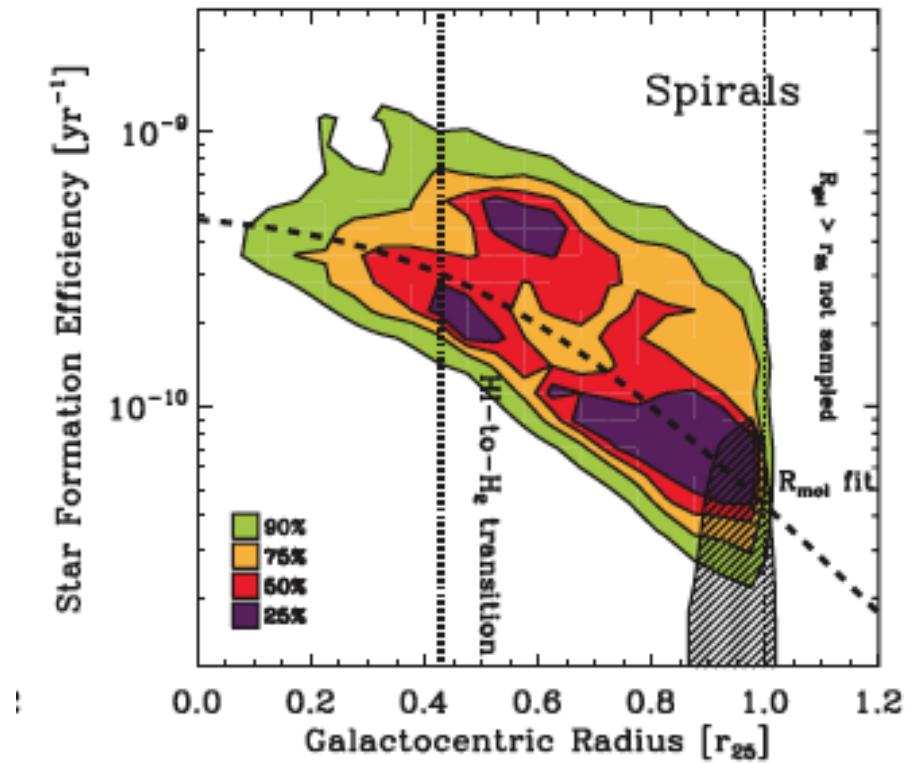
**Kennicutt and Evans 2012**

# Star Formation Efficiency Vs Galactocentric Radius

- Where H<sub>2</sub> dominates HI SFE is roughly constant and declines exponentially at larger radii.
- where the ISM is mostly H<sub>2</sub> in spiral galaxies, the SFE does not vary strongly with any of the obvious quantities : including radius,  $\Sigma_{\text{ga}}$ ,  $\Sigma_*$ , Ph,  $\Omega_{\text{orb}}$ ,

## Summary of results

- Molecular gas, star formation, and stellar surface density all decline with nearly equal exponential scale lengths,  $\sim 0.2r_{25}$ , giving the appearance of a long-lived star-forming disk embedded in a sea of HI.
- The ISM is mostly H<sub>2</sub> within  $\sim 0.5r_{25}$  and where  $\Sigma_* > 80 \text{ M}_\odot \text{ pc}^{-2}$

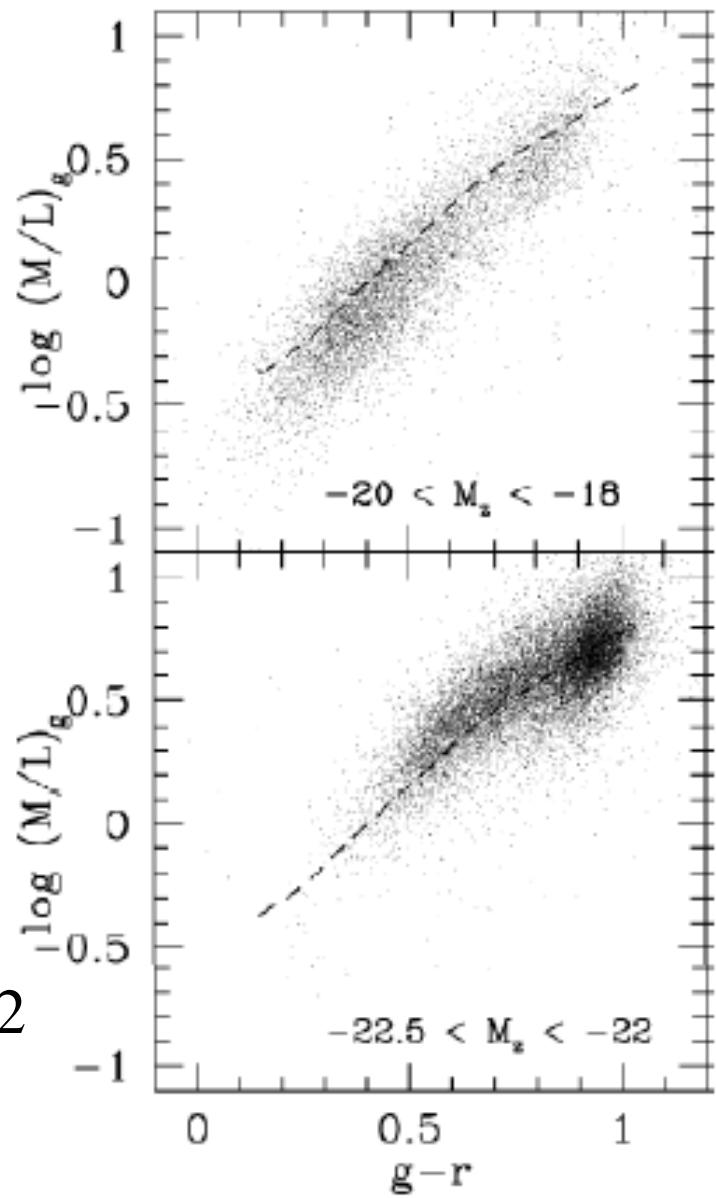


# What Does Not Work-Leroy et al 2008

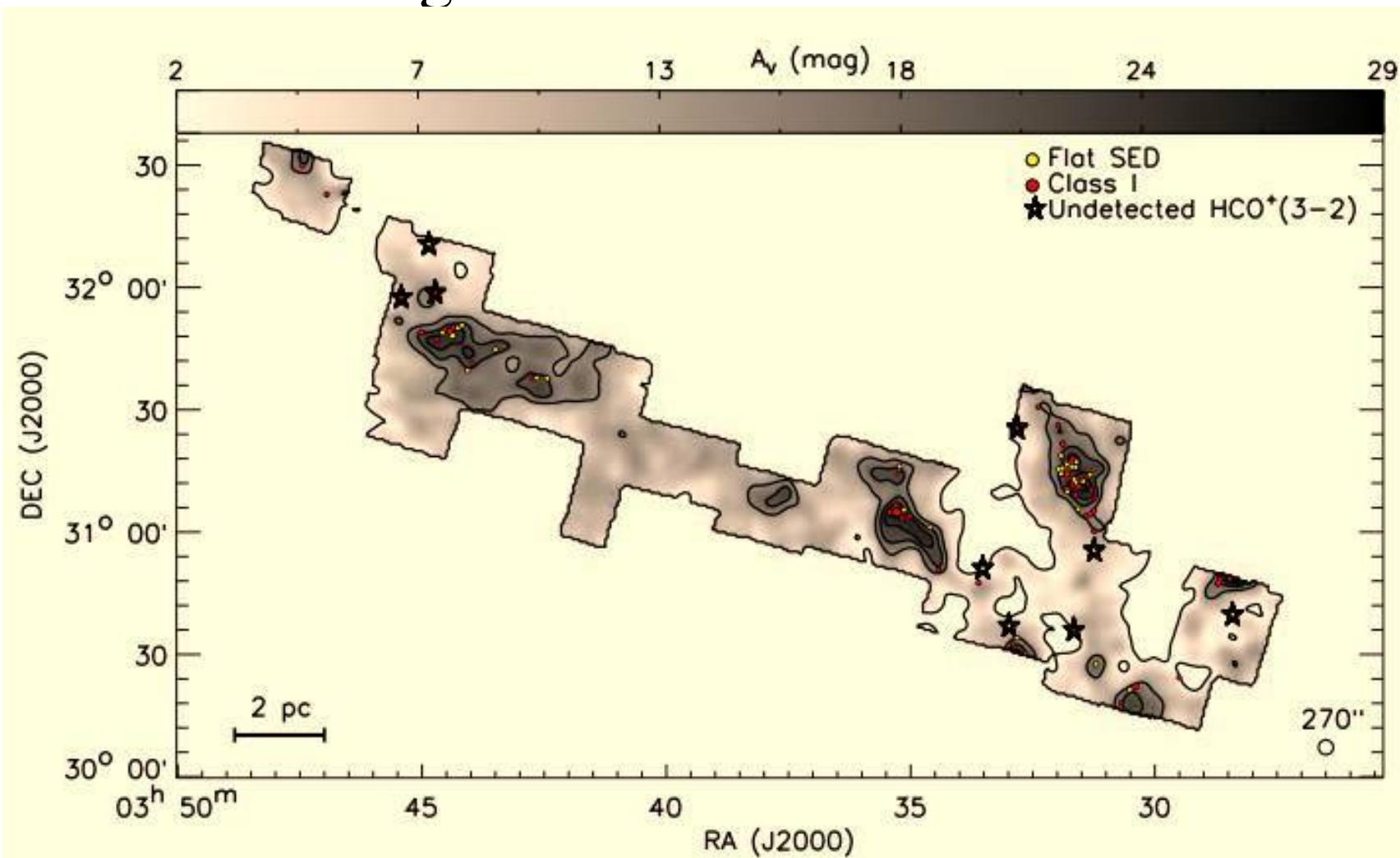
- the disk freefall time for a fixed scale height disk
- orbital timescale
- Rotation curve dependences (e.g. orbital timescales)
- $Q_{\text{gas}}$
- BUT
- SFE ( $\text{H}_2$ ) is constant as a function of a range of environmental parameters for disks of spiral galaxies, and **not** starbursts or low metallicity dwarf galaxies.
- Despite enormous amount of work at a resolution of 800pc NO unique driver for the SFE, but perhaps
- ISM physics —balance between warm and cold  $\text{H}\text{i}$  phases,  $\text{H}_2$  formation, and perhaps shocks and turbulent fluctuations driven by stellar feedback—govern the ability of the ISM to form GMCs out of marginally stable galaxy disk

- Integrated colors or spectra
  - Cannot be robustly inverted to yield  $f(t_{\text{age}}, [\text{Fe}/\text{H}])$
  - $(M/L)^*$  can be robustly (better than  $\times 2$ ) determined, for assumed IMF
  - Star formation rates (to  $\sim \times 2$ ) can be determined, from H $\alpha$ , UV, thermal IR

Bell and DeJong 2002



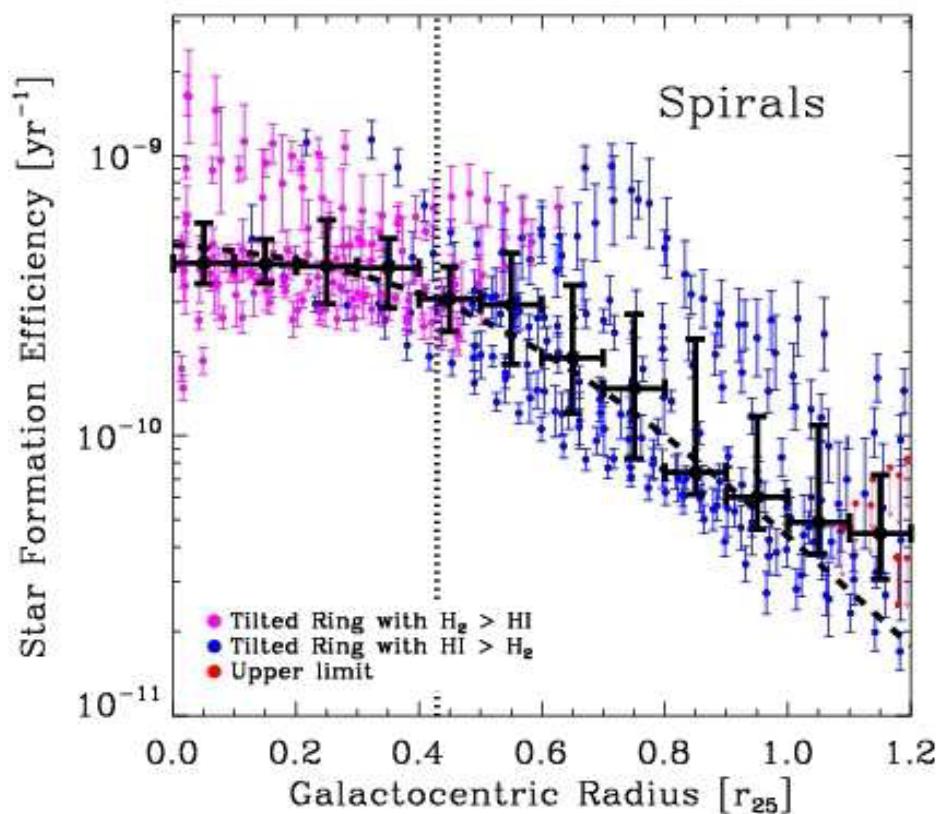
# Angular Resolution Matters



— Example of the strong concentration of star formation in regions of high extinction, or mass surface density in  
In Perseus molecular cloud all the young stars lie in very dusty regions

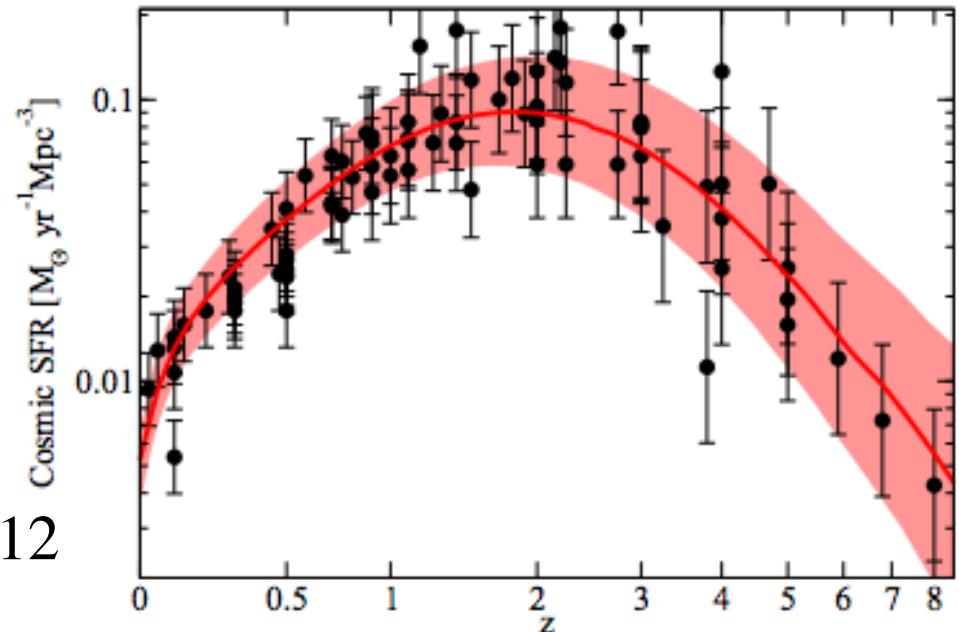
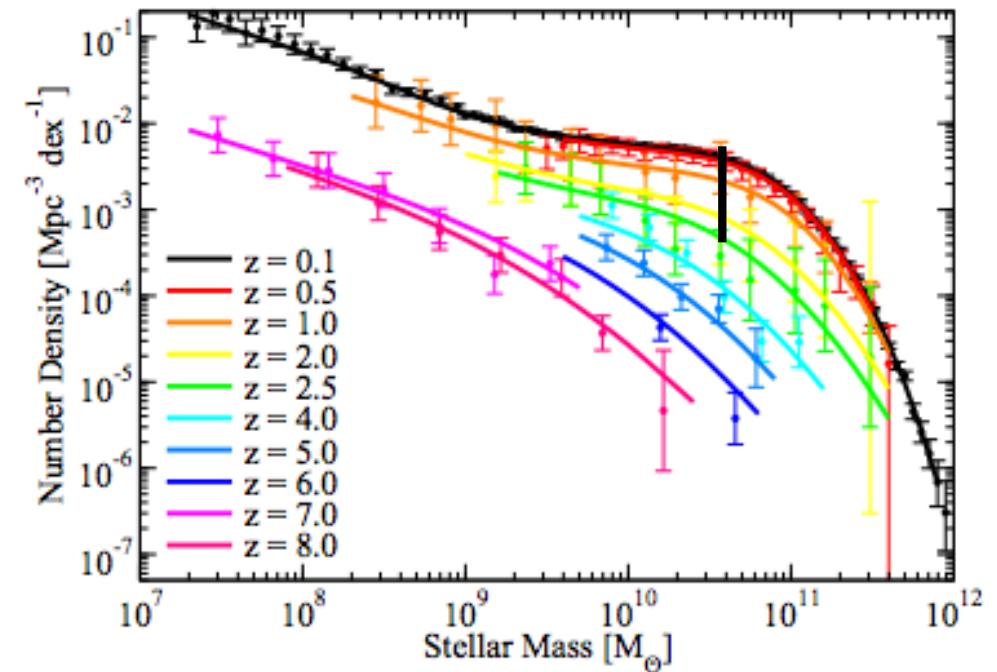
# Star Formation Efficiency Vs Radius and H<sub>2</sub>/HI

- Leroy et al (2008) show that star formation efficiency (how long it would take to convert all the gas into stars) changes with galactic radius and the relative fraction of gas in H<sub>2</sub> and HI.
- Where H<sub>2</sub> is dominant the SFE is constant at about  $5 \times 10^{-10}$  or it takes  $\sim 2 \times 10^9$  yrs to convert ALL the local gas into stars.



# General Results

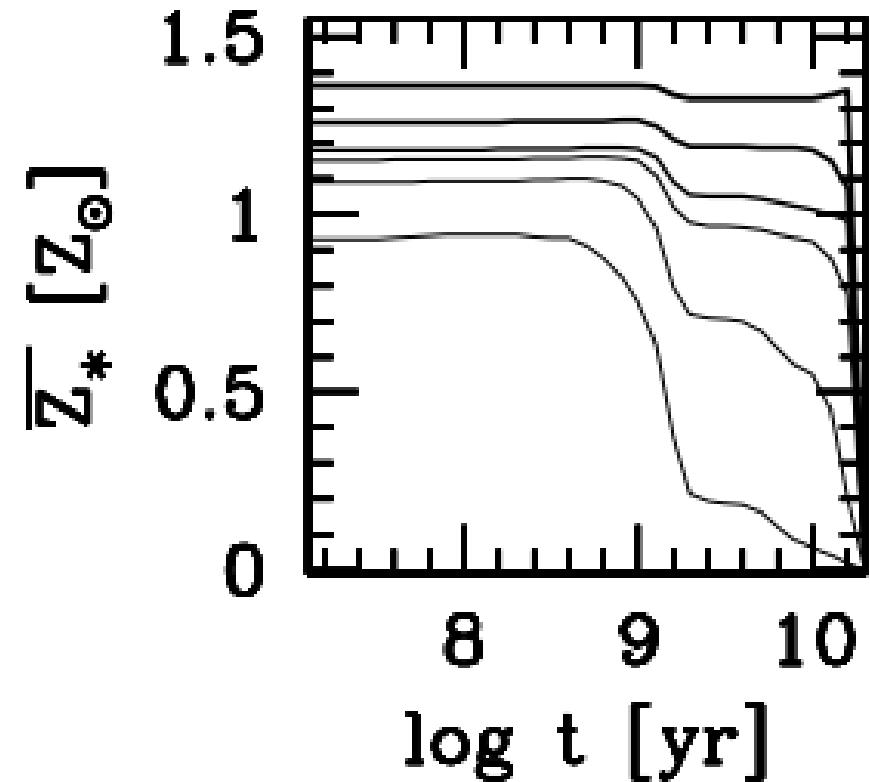
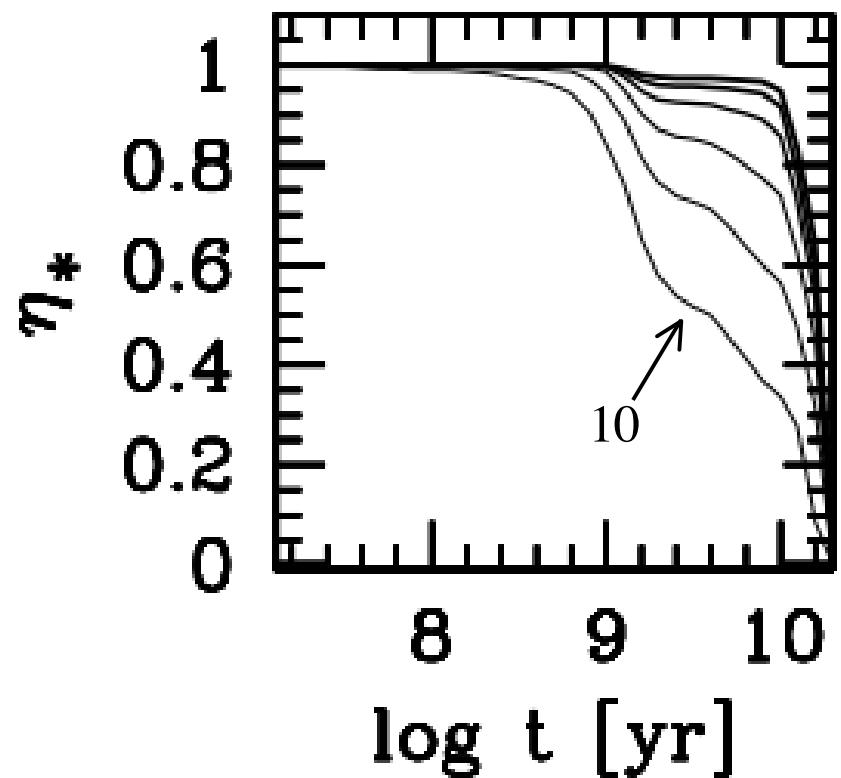
- 90% of all stars formed since  $z \sim 3$
- SFR has dropped by  $\sim 10x$  since  $z \sim 1$ .
- The most massive galaxies grow 50:50 by merging  $z < 1$
- Form stars vigorously at  $z > 2$
- Also at earlier epochs: most stars lived in the most massive galaxies at the time
- Effects of dust are dominant at  $z > 3$  and results are uncertain...



Behroozi et al 2012

# Results from Stellar Paleontology

- History of stellar growth in **6 mass bins 10,10.3,10.6,10.9, 11.2,11.5 vs time** - big objects form first, evolve rapidly and then remain the same for long times (Vale Asari et al 2009)



- Theoretical predictions are that galaxy formation is most efficient near a mass of  $10^{12} M_{\odot}$  based on analyses of supernova feedback and gas cooling times (Silk 1977; Rees & Ostriker 1977; Dekel & Silk 1986; White & Rees 1978; Blumenthal et al. 1984).
- Hydrodynamical simulations indicate that the host dark matter halo mass strongly influences gas accretion onto galaxies
- For low halo masses, simulations predict that gas accretes in cold filaments (“cold mode accretion”) directly to the galaxy disk, efficiently forming stars.
- Above a transition halo mass of  $\sim 10^{11} M_{\odot}$  a shock develops at the virial radius which heats accreting gas (“hot mode accretion”) and rapidly quenches instantaneous star formation

