

ISM dynamics and star cluster formation



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ISM dynamics www. star cluster formation



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thanks to ...



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... many collaborators abroad!



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theoretical perspective

- challenge
- historic remarks
- our current understanding and its limitations
- application
 - stellar initial mass function (importance of thermodynamics)
 - star cluster formation (CAVEAT: initial conditions matter)







HH 901/902 in Carina with HST

- star formation is a multi-scale multi-physics problem
 progress requires the combination of many different physical/chemical processes (often included as 'subgrid scale' models')
- analytic theories fail (much too simplified), numerical simulations are needed to face this complexity



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• density

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















- 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















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 - RADIATION PRESSURE

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

ACSJ0717.5+3745 (NASA,HST)

early theoretical models

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



- instability when

$$\omega^2 < 0$$

- minimal mass:

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



Sir James Jeans, 1877 - 1946

first approach to turbulence

- von Weizsäcker (1943, 1951) and Chandrasekhar (1951): concept of MICROTURBULENCE
 - BASIC ASSUMPTION: separation of scales between dynamics and turbulence

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

- then turbulent velocity dispersion contributes to effective soundspeed:

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

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



S. Chandrasekhar, 1910 - 1995

C.F. von Weiszäcker, 1912 - 2007

problems of early dynamical theory

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

magnetic star formation

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

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

- Critical mass-to-flux ratio

(Mouschovias & Spitzer 1976)

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

- Ambipolar diffusion can initiate collapse



Lyman Spitzer, Jr., 1914 - 1997

"standard theory" of star formation

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



Frank Shu, 1943 -



magnetic field

problems of "standard theory"

- Observed B-fields are weak, at most marginally critical (Crutcher 1999, Bourke et al. 2001)
- Magnetic fields cannot prevent decay of turbulence (Mac Low et al. 1998, Stone et al. 1998, Padoan & Nordlund 1999)
- Structure of prestellar cores (e.g. Bacman et al. 2000, Alves et al. 2001)
- Strongly time varying dM/dt (e.g. Hendriksen et al. 1997, André et al. 2000)
- More extended infall motions than predicted by the standard model (Williams & Myers 2000, Myers et al. 2000)
- Most stars form as binaries (e.g. Lada 2006)

- As many prestellar cores as protostellar cores in SF regions (e.g. André et al 2002)
- Molecular cloud clumps are chemically young (Bergin & Langer 1997, Pratap et al 1997, Aikawa et al 2001)
- Stellar age distribution small ($\tau_{\rm ff} << \tau_{\rm AD}$) (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)

(see e.g. Mac Low & Klessen, 2004, Rev. Mod. Phys., 76, 125-194 Klessen & Glover, 2014, Saas Fee Lecture, arXiv:1412.5182)

gravoturbulent star formation

• BASIC ASSUMPTION:

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

- turbulence plays a *dual role*:
- on large scales it provides support
- on small scales it can trigger collapse
- some predictions:
 - dynamical star formation timescale $\tau_{\rm ff}$
- high binary fraction
- complex spatial structure of embedded star clusters
- and many more . . .



Mac Low & Klessen, 2004, Rev. Mod. Phys., 76, 125-194 McKee & Ostriker, 2007, ARAA, 45, 565 Klessen & Glover, 2016, Saas Fee Lecture, 43, 86, arXiv:1412.5182)

properties of turbulence

• laminar flows turn *turbulent* at *high Reynolds* numbers

$$Re = \frac{\text{advection}}{\text{dissipation}} = \frac{VL}{\nu}$$

V= typical velocity on scale L, $v = \eta/\rho$ = kinematic viscosity, turbulence for Re > 1000 \rightarrow typical values in ISM 10⁸-10¹⁰

• Navier-Stokes equation (transport of momentum)

viscous stress tensor



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 vortex streching --> turbulence is intrinsically anisotropic (only on large scales you may get homogeneity & isotropy in a statistical sense; see Landau & Lifschitz, Chandrasekhar, Taylor, etc.)

(BUT: ISM turbulence: shocks & B-field cause additional inhomogeneity)



Tornado over Portofino

turbulent cascade in the ISM



NOT known (supernovae, winds, spiral density waves?) dissipation scale not known (ambipolar diffusion, molecular diffusion?)

turbulent cascade in the ISM



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

large eddie simulations - caveats!

- We use LES to model the large-scale dynamics
- Principal problem: only large scale flow properties
 - Reynolds number: Re = LV/v (Re_{nature} >> Re_{model})
 - dynamic range much smaller than true physical one
 - need **Subgrid model** (in our case simple: only dissipation)
 - but what to do for more complex when processes on subgrid scale determine large-scale dynamics (chemical reactions, nuclear burning, etc)
 - Turbulence is "space filling" --> difficulty for AMR (don't know what criterion to use for refinement)
- How large a Reynolds number do we need to catch basic dynamics right?





selected open questions

- what regulates star formation on galactic scales? global SF relations?
- what drives interstellar turbulence turbulence?
- how do molecular clouds form and evolve? is there unaccounted (molecular) gas in galaxies?
- what are the initial conditions for star cluster formation? how does cloud structure translate into cluster structure?
- what processes determine the initial mass function (IMF) of stars?
- 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 fuction

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





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

stellar mass function

- distribution of stellar masses depends on
 - turbulent initial conditions
 --> mass spectrum of prestellar cloud cores
 - collapse and interaction of prestellar cores
 --> accretion and N-body effects
 - thermodynamic properties of gas
 --> balance between heating and cooling
 --> EOS (determines which cores go into collapse)
 - (proto) stellar feedback terminates star formation ionizing radiation, bipolar outflows, winds, SN, etc.



stellar mass fuction

(Kroupa 2002)

ONC (HCOO)

standard

0 log_{ic}m [M_e]

-1

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application to early star formation

thermodynamics & fragmentation

degree of fragmentation depends on EOS!

polytropic EOS: $\mathbf{p} \propto \rho \gamma$ $\gamma < 1$: 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? (I) $\mathbf{p} \propto \rho^{\gamma} \rightarrow \rho \propto \mathbf{p}^{1/\gamma}$ (2) $M_{jeans} \propto \gamma^{3/2} \rho^{(3\gamma-4)/2}$ • $\gamma < I : \rightarrow$ large density excursion for given pressure $\rightarrow \langle M_{jeans} \rangle$ becomes small \rightarrow number of fluctuations with M > M_{jeans} is large • $\gamma > |: \rightarrow small$ density excursion for given pressure $\rightarrow \langle M_{ieans} \rangle$ is large

 \rightarrow only few and massive clumps exceed M_{jeans}

EOS as function of metallicity








present-day star formation



IMF in nearby molecular clouds



⁽Jappsen et al. 2005, A&A, 435, 611)





detailed look at accretion disk around first star





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.



highest resolution calculations:

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



density

expected mass spectrum

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

stellar masses

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model for Orion

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

isothermal EOS, top bound, bottom unbound

has clustered as well as distributed "star" formation

efficiency varies from 1% to 20%

develops full IMF (distribution of sink particle masses)



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

model for Orion



dynamics of nascent star clusters

in dense clusters protostellar interaction may be come important!



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



- 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!



- 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



• 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 $\frac{1}{4}$
 - power law $\rho \propto r^{-2}$ (Shu)
 - and many more



- 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)



Girichidis et al. (2011, MNRAS, 413, 2741) Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 613) Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 3264)



Girichidis et al. (2011, MNRAS, 413, 2741) Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 613) Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 3264)

column density [g cm⁻²]

 $\begin{array}{c}
 TH \\
 BE \\
 TH \\
 BE \\
 PL15 \\
 PL20 \\
 10^{-15} \\
 10^{-17} \\
 10^{-18} \\
 10^{-19} \\
 1000 \\
 10000 \\
 r [AU]$



for the r⁻² profile you need to crank up turbulence a lot to get some fragmentation!

Girichidis et al. (2011, MNRAS, 413, 2741) Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 613) Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 3264)

Run	$t_{ m sim}~[m kyr]$	$t_{ m sim}/t_{ m ff}^{ m core}$	$t_{ m sim}/t_{ m ff}$	$N_{ m sinks}$	$\langle M angle [M_\odot]$	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		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
PI15-s-2	35.96	2.10	0.72	422	0.0478	4.50
PL20-c-1	10.67	0.92	0.21	I	20	20.0
PL20-c-1b	10.34	0.89	0.21	2	10.139	20.0
PL20-c-1c	9.63	0.83	0.19	12	1.67	17.9
PL20-c-1d	11.77	1.01	0.24	34	0.593	13.3

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

number of protostars

very high Mach numbers are needed to make SIS fragment

Girichidis et al. (2011, MNRAS, 413, 2741), Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 613), Girichidis et al. (2012, MNRAS, 420, 3264)

- 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.

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modeling molecular cloud formatior



Simulation		$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Radiation Field} \\ \textbf{G}_0 \end{array}$
Milky Way	10	1
Low Density	1	1
Strong Field	10	10
Low & Weak	4	0.1



- Arepo moving mesh code (Springel 2010)
- *time dependent chemistry* (*Glover et al. 2007*) gives heating & cooling in a 2 phase medium
- two layers of refinement with mass resolution down to 4 M_{\odot} in full Galaxy simulation
- UV field and cosmic rays
- TreeCol (Clark et al. 2012)
- external spiral potential (Dobbs & Bonnell 2006)



current developments

current developments







image from THOR Galactic plane survey (PI H. Beuther): continuum emission around 21 cm

next step: produce all sky maps at various positions in the model galaxy (use RADMC-3D)

(Beuther et al., 2016, A&A, in press, arXiv:1609.03329, Bihr et al. 2016, A&A, 588, A97)



evelopments



current developments







[CII] surface brightness





details of CO emission


relation between CO and H₂



Filamentary molecular clouds in inter-arm regions are likely only the observable parts of much larger structures.

CUITPONT OPVP 00000015



Nessie filament (Jackson et al. 2010, Goodman et al, 2014)

Jackson et al. (2010, ApJ, 719, L185) also Ragan et al. (2014 A&A 568, A73)

Filamentary molecular clouds in inter-arm regions are likely only the observable parts of much larger structures.

dark gas fraction



46% molecular gas below CO column densities of 10¹⁶ cm⁻² 42% has an integrated CO emission of less than 0.1 K kms⁻¹

$$f_{DG} = 0.42$$
 $X_{co} = 2.2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{K}^{-1} \text{km}^{-1} \text{s}$

further evidence form detailed colliding flow calculations

= 10³

100

10

명 10⁴

10³

100

10

5

temperature [K]

15

X

temperature



Figure 3. Evolution with time of the maximum density (blue, solid line) and minimum temperature (red, dashed line) in the slow flow (top panel) and the fast flow (bottom panel). Note that at any given instant, the coldest SPH particle is not necessarily the densest, and so the lines plotted are strictly independent of one another.



Figure 5. The gas temperature–density distribution in the flows at the onset of star formation.

Clark et al. (2012, MNRAS, 424, 2599)

see also Pringle, Allen, Lubov (2001), Hosokawa & Inutsuka (2007)

further evidence form detailed colliding flow calculations



Figure 6. Chemical evolution of the gas in the flow. In the left-hand column, we show the time evolution of the fraction of the total mass of hydrogen that is in the form of H₂ (red solid line) for the 6.8 km s⁻¹ flow (upper panel) and the 13.6 km s⁻¹ flow (lower panel). We also show the time evolution of the fraction of the total mass of carbon that is in the form of C⁺ (green dashed line), C (orange dot–dashed line) and CO (blue double-dot–dashed line). In the right-hand column, we show the peak values of the fractional abundances of H₂ and CO. These are computed relative to the total number of hydrogen nuclei, and so the maximum fractional abundances of H₂ and CO are 0.5 and 1.4×10^{-4} , respectively. Again, we show results for the 6.8 km s⁻¹ flow in the upper panel and the 13.6 km s⁻¹ flow in the lower panel. Note that the scale of the horizontal axis differs between the upper and lower panels.

t al. (2012,MNRAS, 424, 2599)

see also Pringle, Allen, Lubov (2001), Hosokawa & Inutsuka (2007)

H₂ column CO emission

slow

fast

10.0

slow

fast

fraction of CO dark gas will also change with metallicity and with ambient radiation field

1.0 10.0 W_{CO} [K km s⁻¹] Clark et al. (2012, MNRAS, 424, 2599)



10²⁰

 10^{21}

 $N \left[cm^{-2} \right]$

10²²

 10^{23}

0.1

10²⁰ 10²² 10^{21} 10²³ 0.1 1.0 10.0 $N \left[cm^{-2} \right]$ W_{co} [K km s⁻¹]

10²⁰



new models that include self-consistent star formation

Treß et al. (in preparation)



new models that include self-consistent star formation



see also: Walch et al. 2015, MNRAS, 454, 238, Gatto et al. 2015, MNRAS, 449, 1057, Girichidis et al. 2016, MNRAS, 456, 3432

current developments

synthetic maps in further observables: HI, Halpha, other radio recombination lines

SILCC collaboration: <u>http://hera.ph1.uni-koeln.de/~silcc/</u>

zoom-in calculations to provide better boundary conditions for star cluster formation simulations

Ibanez Mejia et al. (2016, ApJ, 824, 41), Ibanez Mejia et al. (2016, in prep.), Seifried et al. (2016, in prep.)

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

- stars form from the complex interplay of self-gravity and a large number of competing processes (such as turbulence, B-field, feedback, thermal pressure)
- detailed studies require the consistent treatment of many different physical processes (this is a theoretical and computational challenge)
- thermodynamic properties of the gas (heating vs cooling) play a key role in the star formation process
- understanding initial conditions of star cluster formation is essential; what you put in is what you get out!
- knowledge about formation and evolution of molecular clouds is a prerequisite for understanding star (cluster) formation
- primordial star formation shares the same complexities as present-day star formation

thanks