Stellar Structure & Evolution
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# Contents

1 Introduction 1  
   1.1 Equations of hydrodynamics 2

2 Hydrostatic Balance 5

3 Dynamical Time 7

4 Virial Balance 8  
   4.1 Application of Virial Theorem 11

5 Equation of state for radiation dominated gases 13

6 Equation of state for degenerate gas 16

7 Structure of Polytropic Spheres 18  
   7.1 Application of polytropes 22

8 Energy Transport 25  
   8.1 Radiative Temperature Gradient 1 25
   8.2 Rosseland Mean Intensity 27
   8.3 Radiative Temperature Gradient 2 30  
   8.3.1 Example: A simple mass-luminosity relation based on Thomson scattering 30
   8.3.2 Example: Mass luminosity relation for low-mass Stars 32
   8.4 Pressure Scale Height 32
   8.5 Adiabatic Temperature Gradient 33

9 Nuclear Energy Source 37  
   9.1 Nuclear reaction rate and Gamow peak 41
   9.2 Power-law description 43
   9.3 Nuclear Reaction Rates 44
   9.4 Summary of Structure 50

10 Effects of Rotation 51

11 Magnetic Fields in Stars 57

12 The Early Stages of Stellar Evolution 60
## Contents

12.1 Proto-stellar Collapse: Jeans mass ........................................... 60
12.2 Proto-stellar Collapse: Pressure free Collapse and free-fall Time scale ... 62
12.3 gravitational collapse of isolated, isothermal gas spheres .................... 66
12.4 Interpretation ............................................................................... 70
12.5 Models of 1D collapse .................................................................. 74
12.6 Collapse in 3D $\rightarrow$ binary formation ....................................... 75

### 13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

13.1 Role of electron degeneracy ....................................................... 76
13.2 Lower-MS Stars ......................................................................... 81
13.3 Post main sequence evolution of very-massive stars ....................... 91
1 Introduction

Stars are huge self-gravitating spheres of gas

- stars are very massive
  - they must reach very high internal temperature
to generate stability against gravitational collapse

- stars have no walls
  - they must have outer boundaries which communicate
  all excess energy from their interior to space
  (they radiate energy away)

In the end, this means, they never are in the true equilibrium state
(however, we often assume quasi-equilibrium).

Stars are huge self-gravitating spheres of gas, with nuclear
reactions providing the energy source for quasi-equilibrium

Structure and evolution governed by equations of hydrodynamics

Our goal here: Understanding structure on main sequence;
i.e. structure of star in quasi-equilibrium;

We seek time-independent solutions of hydro equations

Fundamental assumption: stars are perfect spheres

we consider simple, 1D spherical symmetry

this simplifies our equations.
1 Introduction

1.1 Equations of hydrodynamics

Recall from theoretical astrophysics course. Derived from Boltzmann equation via moment-building.

- **continuity of mass:**
  \[
  \frac{d\varrho}{dt} = \frac{\partial \varrho}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \varrho = -\varrho \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}
  \]

- **Navier-Stokes: momentum equation**
  \[
  \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} = -\frac{1}{\varrho} \vec{\nabla} P - \vec{\nabla} \phi + \eta \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{v} + (\xi + \eta) \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v})
  \]

- **energy equation:**
  \[
  \frac{d\epsilon}{dt} = \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \epsilon = \frac{T ds}{dt} - \frac{P}{\varrho} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}
  \]
  \[
  = T \frac{ds}{dt} - \frac{P}{\varrho^2} \frac{d\varrho}{dt}
  \]
  \[
  = T \frac{ds}{dt} - P \frac{dV}{dt}
  \]

- **Poisson equation:**
  \[
  \vec{\nabla}^2 \phi = 4\pi G \varrho
  \]

- **Closure equation → equation of state:**
  \[
  P = fct(\varrho, T)
  \]

- **EOS of ideal gas:**
  \[
  PV = NkT
  \]
  \[
  P = \frac{kT \varrho}{\mu m_p}
  \]

  \[
  k = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{erg/K}
  \]
  \[
  \mu = \text{mean molecular weight}
  \]
  \[
  m_p = \text{mean mass of proton} = 1.67 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{g}
  \]
  [be careful, this changes throughout star]
1 Introduction

- **Polytropic EOS:**
  \[ P = K \varrho^\gamma \]
  \[ \gamma = \text{polytropic index} = \frac{\text{specific heat at constant } P}{\text{specific heat at constant } V} \]
  \[ \gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_v}; \quad c_p = c_v + R \]
  for monoatomic gas \( \gamma = \frac{5/2 R}{3/2 R} = 5/3 \)

- **Isothermal EOS:**
  \[ P = K \varrho = c_s^2 \varrho \]
  isothermal \( \gamma = 1 \)
  in general thermodynamic state of the gas depends on **balance** between **heating** and **cooling** processes
  \( \rightarrow \) the effective \( \gamma \) can have any value \( > 0 \)
  in general \( \gamma = 1 + \frac{d \ln T}{d \ln \varrho} \)

![Figure 1.1:](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( T \downarrow )</th>
<th>( T \uparrow )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gas cools more strongly as it gets compressed ( \Lambda \propto \varrho^2 )</td>
<td>coupling to dust ( \Rightarrow ) gas heats up again</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our goal is to determine, how \( \varrho, P, T, \epsilon \) change with position in star.
• **Fundamental assumption:** stars are spheres

→ 1D spherical symmetry

\[
(x, y, z) \rightarrow (r, \theta, \phi)
\]

\[
\vec{\nabla}_x = \vec{e}_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \vec{e}_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \vec{e}_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z}
\]

\[
\vec{\nabla}_r = \vec{e}_r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \vec{e}_\theta \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \vec{e}_\phi \frac{1}{r \sin(\theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}
\]

Spherical coordinates

→ only radial dependency remains.

We seek all “interesting” variables as function of

**Radius** \((r)\)

\[
\frac{dP}{dr} = ? \quad \frac{dM_r}{dr} = ?
\]

\[
\frac{dL_r}{dr} = ? \quad \frac{dT}{dr} = ?
\]

or equivalently (as there is a one-to-one relation between \(r\) and \(M_r\)) as function of

**Mass** \((M_r)\)

\[
\frac{dP}{dM_r} = ? \quad \frac{dr}{dM_r} = ?
\]

\[
\frac{dL_r}{dM_r} = ? \quad \frac{dT}{dM_r} = ?
\]

\(M_r = \text{Mass within radius } r\)

\(r = \text{Radius from center outwards}\)

\(P = \text{Pressure}\)

\(L = \text{Luminosity}\)

\(T = \text{Temperature}\)
2 Hydrostatic Balance

- Consider star in quasi-static equilibrium
  → no acceleration
- in Navier-Stokes:
  \[
  \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = 0
  \]
  \[
  \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\varrho} \vec{\nabla} P - \vec{\nabla} \Phi = 0
  \]
  \[
  \frac{dP}{dr} = -\varrho \frac{GM(r)}{r^2}
  \] (2.1)
force due to pressure gradient = force due to gravity
we use
\[
\vec{\nabla} \phi = \frac{d\phi}{dr} = \frac{d}{dr} \left[ -\frac{GM(r)}{r} \right] = \frac{GM(r)}{r^2}
\]
- Enclosed mass or: equivalence of \( r \) and \( M(r) \)

![Diagram of a star with radius \( r \) and mass \( M(r) \)]

\[
M_r = M(r) = \int_0^r 4\pi \varrho(r') r'^2 dr'
\]

= mass interior to \( r \)

\[
\frac{dM_r}{dr} = 4\pi \varrho(r) r^2 \quad \iff \quad \frac{dr}{dM_r} = \frac{1}{4\pi \varrho r^2}
\] (2.2)
using mass as independent variable
\[
\frac{dP}{dr} = -\varrho(r) \frac{GM(r)}{r^2}
\]
\[
\frac{dP}{dM_r} = -\frac{GM_r}{4\pi r^4}
\]
From equation (2.1) follows: star must be hot in the center in order to hold it up
against contraction by sufficient pressure gradients.
as first approach say

$$\frac{dP}{dr} \rightarrow \frac{P}{R} \quad (R = \text{radius of star})$$

and assume ideal gas law $P = \frac{\varrho kT}{\mu m_p}$

$$\frac{P}{R} \approx \langle \varrho \rangle \frac{GM}{R^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{\langle \varrho \rangle kT_c}{\mu m_p} \approx \langle \varrho \rangle \frac{GM}{R^2} \quad \rightarrow \quad kT_c \approx \mu \frac{GM m_p}{R}$$

$\hookrightarrow$ if star shrinks, it must get hotter for fixed $M$

$$R \downarrow \quad T_c \uparrow$$

$\hookrightarrow$ of mean molecular weight increases, star must get hotter in counter for fixed $M$ and $R$

$$\mu \uparrow \quad T_c \uparrow$$

(important for stellar evolution as H burns into He)
3 Dynamical Time

So far we assume quasi-equilibrium, i.e.

\[
d\vec{v}/dt = 0
\]

What happens, if this is not the case?

- Navier-Stokes:

\[
d\vec{v}/dt = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla P - \frac{GM}{r^2} \vec{e}_r
\]

- Collapse on a dynamical time scale:

\[
v \approx \frac{R}{\tau_{\text{dyn}}}; \quad M(r) \approx \langle \rho \rangle R^3; \quad \frac{d}{dt} \approx \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{dyn}}}
\]

\[
\frac{R}{\tau_{\text{dyn}}^2} \approx \frac{\langle \rho \rangle GR^3}{R^2}
\]

\[
\tau_{\text{dyn}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{G\langle \rho \rangle}} \approx \frac{1 \text{ hour}}{(\rho/1 \text{ g cm}^{-3})^{1/2}}
\]

- This is the shortest time scale available to the star.
4 Virial Balance

- Instead of looking at the balance of forces, we can compare energies
  \[ \rightarrow \text{virial theorem} \]
  Have we derive it by integrating equation (2.1)

- Take \( \frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{\rho G M(r)}{r^2} \) and multiply by \( 4\pi r^3 \, dr \) on both sides and integrate:
  \[
  \int_0^R 4\pi r^3 \frac{dP}{dr} \, dr = - \int_0^R \frac{GM(r)}{r} 4\pi r^2 \, dr \\
  = - \int_0^R \frac{GM(r)}{r} \, dM_r = +\omega
  \]

  LHS: integrate by parts:
  \[
  \int_0^R 4\pi r^3 \frac{dP}{dr} \, dr = 4\pi r^3 P(r) \left|_0^R \right. - 3 \int_0^R P(r) 4\pi r^2 \, dr \\
  \left[ \begin{array}{l}
  R: P(r) = 0 \\
  0: R = 0
  \end{array} \right]
  \]
  \[ = -3 \int_0^R P \, dV = -2U \]

- From the theoretical astrophysics lecture we know, the “full” virial theorem for self-grav-gas is
  \[
  \frac{1}{2} \ddot{I} = 2I + 2U + \omega
  \]
  in equilibrium \( \ddot{I} = 0 \) (tensor of inertia).
4 Virial Balance

- If there is no bulk motion or rotation, \( T = 0 \)
  \[
  2U + \omega = 0
  \]
  \[
  U = \frac{3}{2} \int P \, dV
  \]
  \[
  \omega = \frac{1}{2} \int \phi \, dV
  \]

- **Note:** \( U = \frac{3}{2} \int P \, dV \) is **NOT** the internal energy

\[
U_{\text{int}} = \frac{3}{2} NkT
\]

(not all the internal energy is able to do work!)

Internal energy density: \( \epsilon = \frac{3}{2} n k T \); Pressure: \( P = n k T \)

We know:

\[
\gamma \cdot \epsilon = \frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{3}{2} n k T
\]

\[
= \frac{5}{2} n k T
\]

\[
= \left( \frac{3}{2} + 1 \right) n k T
\]

\[
= \epsilon + P
\]

\[
P = (\gamma - 1) \epsilon \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_V}
\]

Thus:

\[
U = \frac{3}{2} \int P \, dV = \frac{3}{2} \int (\gamma - 1) \epsilon \, dV
\]

\[
= \frac{3}{2} (\gamma - 1) \int \epsilon \, dV
\]

\[
= \frac{3}{2} (\gamma - 1) U_{\text{int}}
\]

↔ Virial theorem:

\[
2U + \omega = 0
\]

\[
3(\gamma - 1) U_{\text{int}} + \omega = 0
\]
4 Virial Balance

- total energy:

\[ E_{\text{tot}} = U_{\text{int}} + \omega \]

together:

\[ E_{\text{tot}} = U_{\text{int}} - 3(\gamma - 1)U_{\text{int}} = -(3\gamma - 4)U_{\text{int}} \]

because \( U_{\text{int}} > 0 \), the equilibrium system is bound, i.e. \( E < 0 \), only if

\[ \gamma > \frac{4}{3} \]

this defines a critical polytrope for gravitational collapse to occur.

What happens as \( \gamma \) approaches \( 4/3 \)?

consider:

\[ \ddot{I} = 2U + \omega \]
\[ = 3(\gamma - 1)U_{\text{int}} + \omega \]
\[ = 3(\gamma - 1)(E - \omega) + \omega \]
\[ = 3(\gamma - 1)E - (3\gamma - 4)\omega \]

\[ E = \frac{\gamma - 4/3}{\gamma - 1} \omega + \frac{1}{3(\gamma - 1)} \ddot{I} \]

for \( \gamma \to 4/3 \) the first term on RNS vanishes and if we manage to keep \( E < 0 \)
then \( \ddot{I} < 0 \); implying contraction.

Also seen via linear stability analysis [Carroll and Ostlie, 2006, §14.3] for \( \gamma < 4/3 \)
exponentially growing

modes \( \to \) collapse.
4.1 Application of Virial Theorem: Kelvin - Helmholtz timescale

• for a star, the total energy is always negative

\[ E_{\text{tot}} = -(3 \gamma - 4) U_{\text{int}} \quad \& \quad E_{\text{tot}} = \frac{3\gamma-4}{3\gamma-3} \omega \]

if \( \gamma > \frac{4}{3} \)

\[ w = - \int_0^R \frac{GM(r)}{r} 4\pi \rho(r) r^2 dr \]
\[ = - \int_0^R \frac{4}{3} G\langle \rho \rangle r^3 \cdot 4\pi \langle \rho \rangle \cdot r dr \]
\[ = - \frac{16}{15} G\pi^2 \langle \rho \rangle^2 R^5 = - \frac{3 GM^2}{5R} \]

assume constant mean density \( \langle \rho \rangle = \frac{M}{4/3\pi R^3} \)

• for \( \gamma = \frac{4}{3} \)

\[ E_{\text{tot}} = \frac{5 - 4}{5 - 3} \omega = \frac{1}{2} \omega = - \frac{3 GM^2}{10 R} \]

• a star that loses (internal) energy must **contract**

\( E_{\text{tot}} \) gets smaller (more negative) if \( R \) gets smaller !

• luminosity of star

\[ L = -\frac{dE}{dt} = + \frac{3 GM^2}{10} \frac{\dot{R}}{R} \]

**constant** luminosity requires **constant** contraction \( \dot{R} \) !

• **characteristic timescale**

\[ \dot{R} = \frac{R}{t_{KH}} \implies t_{KH} = \frac{3 GM^2}{10 RL} \]

this is the **Kelvin - Helmholtz timescale**

for the Sun:

\[ L_{\bigodot} = 4 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ erg/s} = 4 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ g cm}^2/\text{s}^3 \]
\[ M_{\bigodot} = 2 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ g} \]
\[ G = 6.67 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^3/\text{g s}^2 \]
\[ R_{\bigodot} = 7 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ cm} \]
4 Virial Balance

\[ t_{KH} = 9.5 \cdot 10^{14} \text{s} = 30 \text{Myr} \]

this timescale is short compared to age of Earth.
⇒ gravitational contraction cannot be energy source of the Sun!

- **Note:** star is always in hydrostatic balance as it contracts, because
  \[ t_{KH} \gg \tau_{\text{dyn}} \approx 1 \text{ hour} \]

- a star radiates, i.e. loses energy continuously
  it can only escape contraction if a new source of energy becomes available to compensate for the radiative losses at surface

- What can that be?
  \[ E_{\text{grav}} \approx \frac{GM^2}{R} \rightarrow \frac{E_{\text{grav}}}{M} = \frac{GM}{R} \approx 10^{15} \text{ erg/g} \]
  
  chemistry: \[ \frac{5 \text{eV}}{\text{atom}} \approx 5 \cdot 10^{12} \text{ erg/g} \]
  nuclear reactions: \[ \frac{7 \text{eV}}{m_p} \approx 7 \cdot 10^{18} \text{ erg/g} \]

Figure 4.1:
5 Equation of state for radiation dominated gases

- Recall the polytropic EOS:
  \[ P = K \rho^\gamma \]

- Recall also the ideal gas law:
  \[ PV = NkT = \frac{R}{\mu}T \]

- Recall first law of thermodynamic:
  \[ dQ = dU + PdV \]
  \[ dQ = \text{heat change} \]
  \[ dU = \text{change of internal energy} \]

\[ U = uV \quad \& \quad P = \frac{1}{3}u \]

Energy density for radiation is

\[ u = \frac{4\pi}{c} \int B_\nu(T) d\nu \]

- Entropy change: \( ds = T^{-1}dQ \)

\[
\begin{align*}
  ds &= V \left( \frac{du}{T} \right)_v dT + \frac{u}{T} dT + \frac{1}{3} \frac{u}{T} dV \\
  &= V \left( \frac{du}{T} \right)_v dT + \frac{4}{3} \frac{u}{T} dV \\
  \text{build} \quad \frac{\partial s}{\partial T} \bigg|_V &= V \left( \frac{du}{T} \right)_v & \frac{\partial s}{\partial V} \bigg|_T &= \frac{4}{3} u \\
  \text{build} \quad \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial V \partial T} &= \frac{1}{T} \left( \frac{du}{T} \right)_v & \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial V \partial T} &= \frac{4}{3} \frac{u}{T^2} + \frac{4}{3} \frac{du}{dT} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Because

\[
\frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial V \partial T} - \frac{\partial^2 s}{\partial T \partial V} \rightarrow \frac{1}{3T} \frac{du}{dT} = \frac{4}{3} \frac{u}{T^2}
\]
5 Equation of state for radiation dominated gases

\[ \frac{du}{u} = \frac{4}{T} dT \quad \rightarrow \quad \ln u = 4 \ln T + \ln a \]

with \( \ln a = \) constant of integration

Stefan-Boltzmann law:

\[ U(T) = aT^4 \]

Radiation pressure:

\[ P_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{3} U = \frac{a}{3} T^4 \]

the total energy of the radiation-influenced gas is

\[ U = \frac{3}{2} \frac{R}{\mu} T + aT^4 V = c_v T + aT^4 V \]

total pressure:

\[ P = P_{\text{gas}} + P_{\text{rad}} = \frac{R}{\mu} \frac{T}{V} + \frac{a}{3} T^4 \]

Now define the ratio of gas pressure to total pressure:

\[ \beta = \frac{P_{\text{gas}}}{P} \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq \beta \leq 1 \]

then

\[ P_{\text{gas}} = \frac{gkT}{\mu m_p} = \beta P \quad \text{for gas pressure} \quad (5.1) \]

and

\[ P_{\text{rad}} = \frac{a}{3} T^4 = (1 - \beta)P \quad \text{for radiation pressure} \quad (5.2) \]

We are looking for a polytropic EOS that is independent of \( T \), we combine both expressions to eliminate \( T \).

- in (5.1): \( T = \beta P (gk)^{-1} \mu m_p \) insert in (5.2):

\[ \frac{a}{3} \left( \frac{\beta P \mu m_p}{gk} \right)^4 = (1 - \beta)P \]

- then: \( P = K \Phi^{4/3} \)

with \( K = \left( \frac{3 (1 - \beta)}{a} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{k}{\beta \mu m_p} \right)^{4/3} \)

- The EOS of radiation dominated systems has a polytropic index \( \gamma = 4/3 \)
  (this corresponds to a polytrop of index \( n = (\gamma - 1)^{-1} \))
This is similar to relativistic, degenerate objects (clear, because photons are relativistic)

Also radiation dominated stars are close to the stability limit!

We can estimate, when $P_{\text{rad}}$ dominates over $P_{\text{gas}}$:

- recall from hydrostatic balance:
  \[ kT \sim \frac{GMm_p}{R} \quad \text{set} \quad \mu = 1 \]

- we have
  \[
  \frac{P_{\text{rad}}}{P_{\text{gas}}} \sim \frac{aT^4m_p}{\varrho kT}
  \]

we know (theoretical astrophysics):

\[
\alpha \approx \frac{GMm_p}{\varrho c^4 R} \approx \frac{k}{(hc)^3} \quad \text{independent of $R$!}
\]

\[
\frac{P_{\text{rad}}}{P_{\text{gas}}} \sim \frac{k^4 T^4 m_p}{(hc)^3 \varrho kT} = \left( \frac{kT}{hc} \right)^3 \varrho = \left( \frac{GMm_p}{R} \right) \frac{R^3 m_p}{M (hc)^3} = \alpha \frac{GM^2}{hc} \frac{(M/m_p)^2}{\alpha} = \alpha \frac{(M/m_p)^2}{\alpha} = \frac{Gm_p^2}{hc} = \frac{6 \cdot 10^{-39}}{}
\]

\[
\sim \frac{M}{m_p} \quad \text{(only function of mass)}
\]

critical mass:

\[
M \approx \alpha_\text{G}^{-3/2} m_{\text{photon}}
\]
\[
\approx 2 \cdot 10^{57} m_p
\]
\[
\approx 4 \cdot M_{\odot}
\]

(Real Answer: $M \geq 60 M_{\odot}$ or so → we dropped to many pre-factors)
6 Equation of state for degenerate gas

- for non-relativistic particles: \( P = K \varrho^{5/3} \)
- for relativistic particles: \( P = K' \varrho^{4/3} \)

Derivation a la Padmanabhan, p.2 + 3:

\[
P = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^\infty n(\epsilon)p(\epsilon)v(\epsilon) \, d\epsilon
\]

\[
p = \gamma m v
\]
\[
\epsilon = (\gamma - 1)mc^2
\]
\[
\gamma = \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2}
\]

- rate of momentum transfer from particles with energy \( \epsilon \)
- \( 1/3 \) comes from isotropy

- the system is called ideal, when the kinetic energy dominates over their interaction energy

then:

\[
P = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^\infty n\epsilon \left(1 + \frac{2mc^2}{\epsilon}\right) \left(1 + \frac{mc^2}{\epsilon}\right)^{-1} \, d\epsilon
\]

Non-relativistic limit: \( mc^2 \gg \epsilon \)

\[
P \approx \frac{2}{3} \int_0^\infty n\epsilon \, d\epsilon = \frac{2}{3} \langle n\epsilon \rangle = \frac{2}{3} u
\]

Relativistic limit: \( mc^2 \ll \epsilon \) (or particles are massless: photons)

\[
P \approx \frac{1}{3} \int_0^\infty n\epsilon \, d\epsilon = \frac{1}{3} \langle n\epsilon \rangle = \frac{1}{3} u
\]

with \( u \) being energy density.
6 Equation of state for degenerate gas

- Kinematic energy $\epsilon$ for particle with momentum $p$ and mass $m$:
  \[
  \epsilon = \sqrt{p^2c^2 + m^2c^4} - mc^2 = \begin{cases} 
  \frac{p^2}{2m} & p \ll mc \\
  pc & p \gg mc
  \end{cases}
  \]

  $[P] = g \text{ cm/s}$

  For **DEGENERATE GAS**:  

- Uncertainty principle: gives minimum volume a free particle can occupy in phase space
  \[
  \Delta x \Delta p = h
  \]

- If particle separation, on average, given by number density, $\Delta x = n^{-1/3}$, then $p_F = h n^{1/3}$ (exclusion principle!)

- Because for isotropic gas
  \[
  P_{\text{deg}} = \frac{1}{3} U_F = \frac{1}{3} \epsilon \varrho \quad [\text{NR.}]
  \]
  \[
  P_{\text{deg}} = \frac{2}{3} U_F = \frac{2}{3} \epsilon \varrho \quad [\text{Rel.}]
  \]
  We can write in
  
  **Non-Relativistic** case  
  \[
  P_{\text{deg}} \propto \frac{p_F^2 n}{m} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P_{\text{deg}}^{\text{NR}} = K^{\text{NR}} \varrho^{5/3}
  \]

  **Relativistic** case  
  \[
  P_{\text{deg}} \propto p_F n \quad \Rightarrow \quad P_{\text{deg}}^{\text{ER}} = K^{\text{ER}} \varrho^{4/3}
  \]

- For degenerate relativistic particles that are compressed, the pressure increase is smaller since also the "apparent" mass is increased.
  The effect is as if the mean molecular weight is increased, the medium becomes **more compressible**! (EOS becomes softer)

  **Note:** the fully relativistic degenerate case has the same scaling as radiation EOS!
7 Structure of Polytropic Spheres

• We go back to the equations of hydrostatic balance:

\[ \frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho \frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \]  
(7.1)

\[ \frac{dM_r}{dr} = 4\pi \rho r^2 \]  
(7.2)

These are the first of the desired stellar structure equation:

We note, the system can be solved without reference to any energy or energy transport equation!

• We take the radial derivative of equation (7.1):

\[ \frac{d}{dr} \left( \frac{r^2 \rho dP}{dr} \right) = -G \frac{dM_r}{dr} \]

and use equation (7.2) for the RHS

\[ \frac{d}{dr} \left( \frac{r^2 \rho dP}{dr} \right) = -4\pi \rho r^2 \]  
(this is a Poisson equation)

or

\[ \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( \frac{r^2 \rho dP}{dr} \right) = -4\pi \frac{G \rho}{r} \]  
(7.3)

Because in hydrostatic equilibrium pressure gradients follow gravitational potential gradients:

\[ \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{d\phi}{dr} \]

We can also write:

\[ \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( \frac{r^2 \rho d\phi}{dr} \right) = +4\pi G \rho \]

We solve equation (7.3) by using a polytropic EOS:

\[ P = K \rho^\gamma \]

we get

\[ \frac{\gamma}{r^2} K \frac{d}{dr} \left[ r^2 \rho^{\gamma-2} \frac{d\rho}{dr} \right] = -4\pi G \rho \]
Structure of Polytropic Spheres

- Often people use a different notation:
  Define \( \gamma = (n + 1)/n \) where \( n = \text{polytropic index} \)

  \[
  \left( \frac{n + 1}{n} \right) K \frac{d}{dr} \left[ r^2 \frac{d\varrho}{dr} \right] = -4\pi G \varrho
  \]

- We simplify by expressing density in terms of scaling factor:
  central density \( \varrho_c \) and a dimensionless function \( D_n(r) \):

  \[
  \varrho(r) = \varrho_c [D_n(r)]^n \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq D_n(r) \leq 1
  \]

  we get:

  \[
  (n + 1) \left( \frac{K \varrho_c^{(1-n)/n}}{4\pi G} \right) \frac{1}{r^2} \left[ r^2 \frac{dD_n(r)}{dr} \right] = -D_n^n(r)
  \]

- simplify further:

  \[
  \lambda_n = \left( n + 1 \left( \frac{K \varrho_c^{(1-n)/n}}{4\pi G} \right) \right)^{1/2}
  \]

  and introduce dimensionless variable \( \xi \)

  \[
  r = \lambda_n \xi
  \]

  and we finally get

  \[
  \frac{1}{\xi^2} \frac{d}{d\xi} \left( \xi^2 \frac{dD_n}{d\xi} \right) = -D_n^n \quad \text{Lane-Emden equation (7.4)}
  \]

- Solving equation (7.4) for the dimensionless function \( D_n(\xi) \) in terms of \( \xi \)
  for specific index \( n \) leads directly to the density profile \( \varrho_n(r) \).

  The polytropic EOS \( P_n(r) = K \varrho_n^{(n+1)/n}(r) \) provides the pressure gradients.

  If we assume ideal gas law and a constant ratio of \( P_{\text{gas}} \) and \( P_{\text{rad}} \), we can also obtain
  the temperature profile \( T(r) \).

- To solve equation (7.4), we need to specify two boundary conditions.
  (1) We want the central density to be finite: \( \frac{d\varrho}{dr} \to 0 \) as \( r \to 0 \)

  \[
  \frac{dD_n}{d\xi} = 0 \quad \text{at} \quad \xi = 0
  \]

  (2) We want the density go to zero at the surface: \( \varrho(R) = 0 \)

  \[
  D_n(\xi) = 0 \quad \text{at surface} \quad \xi = \xi_1
  \]
7 Structure of Polytropic Spheres

- we also require the normalization \( D_n(0) = 1 \), so that \( \varrho_c = \) central density

- total mass: \( M = 4\pi \int_0^R \varrho r^2 \, dr \)

radius of (7.3): \( R = \lambda_n \xi_1 \)

\[
M = 4\pi \int_0^{\xi_1} \lambda_n^2 \xi_2 \varrho_c D_n^2(\xi) \, d(\lambda_n \xi) \\
= 4\pi \lambda_n^3 \varrho_c \int_0^{\xi_1} \xi^2 D_n^2 \, d\xi
\]

this integral can be solved directly.

**OR:** we note that \( \xi^2 D_n^2 = -\frac{d}{d\xi} \left[ \xi^2 \frac{dD_n}{d\xi} \right] \)

\[
M = -4\pi \lambda_n^3 \varrho_c \xi_1 \frac{dD_n}{d\xi} \bigg|_{\xi_1}
\]

that means, the total mass can be derived by evaluating the derivative of \( D_n \) at the surface \( \xi_1 \).

- Limitations: equation (7.4) contains **NO** information about energy generation and energy transport in the star.

- There are **three** analytic solutions

\[
\begin{align*}
 n = 0 & : \quad D_0(\xi) = 1 - \frac{\xi^2}{6} \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_1 = \sqrt{6} \\
n = 1 & : \quad D_1(\xi) = \frac{\sin \xi}{\xi} \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_1 = \pi \\
n = 5 & : \quad D_5(\xi) = \left(1 + \frac{\xi^2}{2}\right)^{-1/2} \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_1 \to \infty
\end{align*}
\]

although \( \xi_1 \to \infty \), the total mass remains finite for \( D_5 \).

This is no longer the case for \( n > 5 \! \)!

thus physically allowed: \( 0 \leq n \leq 5 \)

- The discussion of polytrops was originally motivated by adiabatic EOS.

\( \left( \gamma = \frac{5}{3} \Leftrightarrow n = 1.5 \right) \)
This holds very well for degenerate, non-relativistic objects, such as white dwarfs, here also (as discussed below):

$$\gamma = \frac{5}{3} \ & n = \frac{3}{2}$$

- $n = 3$ is the “Eddington” standard model of a star in radiative equilibrium.

We have seen before that in this case

$$P = K \rho^{4/3}$$
7.1 Application of polytropes

(A) White Dwarfs:
- non-relativistic electron degeneracy
- \( \gamma = \frac{5}{3} \Rightarrow n = \frac{3}{2} \)

(B) Chandrasekhar:
- limit for relativistic electron degeneracy
- \( \gamma = \frac{4}{3} \Rightarrow n = 3 \)

→ existence of critical mass!

The polytropic EOS with Lane-Emden equation leads to a relation between mass and radius:

\[
\left( \frac{GM}{M_n} \right)^{n-1} \left( \frac{R}{R_n} \right)^{3-n} = \text{Constant} \tag{7.5}
\]

with constants:

\[
M_n = -\xi_1^2 \left. \frac{dD_n}{d\xi} \right|_{\xi_1} 4\pi \lambda_n^3 \rho_c
\]

\[
R_n = \lambda_n \xi_1
\]

********** **********

For \( n = 3 \) (relativistic degeneracy or radiation dominated star) the dependence on radius \( r \) vanishes!

There is only one possible value for the mass given in terms of \( K \):

\[
M_{\text{crit}} = 4\pi M_3 \left( \frac{K}{\pi G} \right)^{3/2}
\]

only this mass satisfies hydrostatic equilibrium substitution: of constants and parameters:

\[
M_{\text{crit}} = \frac{5.83}{\mu_e} M_\odot
\]

for hydrogen- poor stars we get \( \mu_e = 2 \) and

\[
M_{\text{crit}} = 1.46 M_\odot \quad \text{Chandrasekhar mass}
\]
Note: This limiting mass can also be derived from the virial theorem:

- recall the condition for hydrostatic equilibrium:
  \[
  \frac{dP}{dr} = -\varrho(r) \frac{GM(R)}{r^2}
  \]
  \[
  \frac{P}{R} \approx \langle \varrho \rangle \frac{GM}{R^2} \rightarrow P \approx \varrho \frac{GM}{R} = n \frac{GM\mu m_p}{R} \]
  with \( \langle \varrho \rangle = \mu m_p n \)

- Fermi energy:
  \[
  p_F = \hbar k_F = \hbar n^{1/3} = \hbar \left( \frac{M}{\mu m_p R^3} \right)^{1/3} \quad \text{(Fermi momentum)}
  \]
  \[
  E_F = n p_F c = \hbar c \left( \frac{M}{\mu m_p} \right)^{1/3} \frac{n}{R} \quad \text{(Fermi energy)}
  \]

  with \( n \approx \frac{1}{R^3} \frac{M}{\mu m_p} \)

  in balance:
  \[
  p = \frac{GM\mu m_p}{R} n \approx \hbar c \left( \frac{M}{\mu m_p} \right)^{1/3} \frac{n}{R}
  \]
  \[
  G^3 M^3 (\mu m_p)^3 \approx (\hbar c)^3 \frac{M}{\mu m_p}
  \]
  \[
  \frac{M^2}{m_p^2} \approx \frac{(\hbar c)^3}{G^3 m_p^6} \quad \text{with } \mu \approx 1
  \]
  \[
  M \approx m_p \frac{1}{\alpha_G^{3/2}} \quad \text{with } \alpha_G = \frac{G m_p}{\hbar c} = 6 \cdot 10^{-39}
  \]

  similar to the radiation dominated case, there is a critical mass for relativistic electron degeneracy!

  \(\Rightarrow\) Chandrasekhar mass
now consider $n = 1.5$ polytropes: (non-relativistic degenerate EOS)

- examples: White Dwarfs
- from 7.4 we get:

$$R \propto M^{-1/3}$$
$$\langle \rho \rangle \propto MR^{-3} \propto M^2$$

- **sequence**: let’s start with a non-relativistic degenerate (low-mass) white dwarf
- if we add mass, material in the center gets denser, because the radius shrinks.
- $n$ will vary throughout the star; in the interior, you may reach $n = 3$
- as you add up more and more mass, more of the white dwarfs will be relativistic
- eventually everything is $n = 3$;

**BUT**: stability only for one mass: $M \approx 1.46 \, M_\odot$
- if the mass is larger ⇒ **collapse** sets in!
8 Energy Transport

There are three mechanisms to transport energy in the stellar interior:

- **RADIATION:**
  Energy transport by photons
  - photons can be absorbed and reemitted in different wavelength and direction
  - coupling to matter via opacity $\kappa$.

- **CONVECTION:**
  Energy is transported via bulk motion in the fluid
  - buoyant mass element carry excess heat outwards, while cooler elements more towards the center

- **CONDUCTION:**
  Heat transport via collisions between gas particles
  - usually is not important in stars

8.1 Radiative Temperature Gradient

- Radiation pressure gradient:
  \[
  \frac{dP_{rad}}{dr} = -\langle \kappa \rangle \frac{\rho}{c} F_{rad}
  \]
  where $F_{rad}$ = outwards radiative flux, $\rho$ = density, $c =$ speed of light and the material constant $\kappa =$ opacity.

- The opacity $\kappa$ describes coupling between radiation and matter.

- Recall: for blackbody radiation, the radiation pressure is $1/3$ of the energy density:
  \[
  P_{rad} = \frac{1}{3} u
  \]
8 Energy Transport

- Opacity = absorption coefficient:
  - in radiative transfer equation $dI_v = -\kappa_v \varrho I_v \, ds$, the intensity at frequency $v$ is attenuated along a distance $ds$ by the factor $\kappa_v \varrho$.
  - recall: formal integration gives
    \[ I_v = I_{v,0} e^{-\kappa_\varrho s} \]  
    (8.1)
  - recall also: for scattered photons, the characteristic distance $l$ is the mean free path of photons:
    \[ l = \frac{1}{\kappa_v \varrho} = \frac{1}{n\sigma_v} \]
    with $\sigma_v$ = interaction cross section (e.g. via Thomson scattering)
  - definition of optical depth:
    \[ d\tau_v = -\kappa_v \varrho ds \]
    along a light ray
  - formal integration turns into
    \[ I_v(s) = I_v(0) e^{-\kappa_\varrho s} \overset{\text{optical depth}}{=} I_v(\tau) = I_v(0) e^{-\tau} \]
    optical depth = number of mean free paths through the medium.

$\tau_v \ll 1$: **Optically thin Limit**  
(light with frequency $v$ passes through medium essentially unattenuated.)

$\tau \ll 1$: **Optically thick Limit**  
(light gets “caught” in the medium, you can’t see through.)

- Sources of opacity:
  1. **BOUND - BOUND - TRANSITION** (excitation de-excitation)
  2. **BOUND - FREE ABSORPTION**
  3. **FREE - FREE ABSORPTION** (scattering)
  4. **ELECTRON SCATTERING**

    scattering by free electron: **Thomson**
    scattering by loosely-bound electron

    **Compton** if $\lambda \gg R_{\text{atom}}$
    **Rayleigh** if $\lambda \ll R_{\text{photon}}$
8 Energy Transport

8.2 Rosseland Mean Intensity

- It is often useful to employ an opacity that is averaged over all wavelength (or frequencies) to produce a function that depends only on composition, density and temperature.

- the most common approach is to compute a harmonic mean weighted with the Planck function:

\[
\frac{1}{\langle \kappa \rangle} = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\kappa_v} \frac{d B_v(T)}{dT} dv \left( \int_0^\infty \frac{\partial B_v(T)}{\partial T} dv \right)^{-1}
\]

Rosseland mean opacity

- there is no analytic solution, however there are analytic approximations (fits) to the various process that may contribute to \( \langle \kappa \rangle \):
  - bound-free opacity:
    \[
    \langle \kappa_{bf} \rangle = 4.32 \cdot 10^{22} \frac{g_{bf}}{t} Z(1 + X) \frac{\varrho}{T^{3.5}} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}
    \]
  - free-free opacity:
    \[
    \langle \kappa_{ff} \rangle = 3.68 \cdot 10^{19} g_{ff} (1 - Z)(1 + X) \frac{\varrho}{T^{3.5}} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}
    \]
  - electron scattering:
    \[
    \langle \kappa_{es} \rangle = 0.2 (1 + X) \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}
    \]
  - H⁻:
    \[
    \langle \kappa_{H^-} \rangle \approx 7.9 \cdot 10^{-33} \left( \frac{Z}{0.02} \right) \varrho^{1/2} T^9 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}
    \]

- total Rosselland mean:

\[
\langle \kappa \rangle = \left( \frac{\kappa_{bb}}{(A)} + \frac{\kappa_{bf}}{(B)} + \frac{\kappa_{ff}}{(C)} + \frac{\kappa_{es}}{(D)} + \frac{\kappa_{H^-}}{(E)} \right)
\]

(A) There is no analytic fit to \( A \) because of complexity of contributions from different lines. (best from Tables)
8 Energy Transport

(B) + (C) have the well known form of **Kramer’s opacity law**:

\[
\langle \kappa \rangle = \kappa_0 \frac{\varrho}{T^3.5}
\]

\(X, Y, Z\) - mass fractions of \(\text{H}, \text{He}\) and the rest \((X + Y + Z = 1)\)

Gaunt factors \(g_{bf}\) and \(g_{ff}\) are quantum-mechanical corrections:

\(g \approx 1\)

\(t = \) guillotine factor, describes decrease of opacity after atoms have been ionized.

\(t = 1 \ldots 100\)

(D) Because electron scattering is wavelength independent \(\langle \kappa \rangle_{es}\) has a particularly simple form.

(E) in cooler stars such as the Sun bound-free and free-free transitions of \(\text{H}^-\) contribute significantly to the opacity in the range

\[3000 \text{ K} \lesssim T \lesssim 6000 \text{ K}\] \[10^{-10} \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \lesssim \varrho \lesssim 10^{-5} \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3}\]

\(\kappa_{\text{H}^-}\) increases with \(T\) as \(T^9\)!

**Note:**

(D) Electron scattering:

\[
dI_v = -\kappa_v \varrho I_v ds
\]

simple geometry

\[
\kappa = \frac{\sigma_v n_e}{\varrho} \quad [\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}]
\]

the cross section is

\[
\sigma_e = \frac{8\pi}{3} \left(\frac{e^2}{mc^2}\right)^2
\]

\(= 0.6652 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2\)

- as long as photon energy is below \(m_e c^2\), the opacity of Thomson scattering is independent of \(v\).

- number of \(e^-\) comes from ionization of hydrogen mostly
8 Energy Transport

- electron can absorb photon only when ion is present $j \varrho \propto n_en_i$
- for computing $\kappa_{ff}$ turn problem around and study bremsstrahlung
- integrate over all electrons (velocity) states
  integrate Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution function
  
  \[ 4\pi j_\omega \varrho dw = \frac{2\pi Z_e^2 e^6}{3 m_e c^2} \left( \frac{2\pi}{m_e kT} \right)^{1/2} n_en_i e^{-\hbar \omega / kT} d\omega \]

  $\leftrightarrow$ yields $j \propto T^{-1/2}$! (note change in sign)

- together:
  
  \[ j \varrho \propto n_e n_i T^{1/2} \]

  fully ionized H
  
  \[ n_e = n_i = \frac{\varrho}{m_i} = n \]

- in equilibrium:
  
  \[ dI = (-\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho I + j \varrho) ds = 0 \]

  \[ \langle \kappa_{ff} \rangle = \frac{j}{I} \]

- in LTE:
  
  \[ I = S = B(T) \quad \text{Planck Function (integrated)} \]
  \[ = aT^4 \quad \text{Stefan-Boltzmann law} \]

  \[ \langle \kappa_{ff} \rangle \propto \frac{nT^{1/2}}{T^4} \propto nT^{-3.5} \quad \text{Kramers opacity law} \]

(B) similar for bf: $\kappa_{bf} \propto nT^{-3.5}$!
8.3 Radiative Temperature Gradient 2:

- Now that we have studied possible sources of opacity in the stellar interior, we can turn back to computing the temperature stratification in the star.

  - radiation pressure gradient:
    \[
    \frac{dP_{\text{rad}}}{dr} = -\frac{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho}{c} F_{\text{rad}}
    \]

  - from \( P_{\text{rad}} = \frac{1}{3} U_{\text{rad}} = \frac{a}{3} T^4 \) we also get
    \[
    \frac{dP_{\text{rad}}}{dr} = \frac{4}{3} a T^3 \frac{dT}{dr}
    \]

  - combining both we get for \( \frac{dT}{dr} \):
    \[
    \frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{3}{4} \frac{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho}{acT^3} F_{\text{rad}}
    \]

  - We can now express the radiative flux in terms of the local radiative luminosity at radius \( r \).
    \[
    F_{\text{rad}} = \frac{L_r}{4\pi r^2}
    \]

  - thus:
    \[
    \frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{3}{4} \frac{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho}{acT^4} \frac{L_r}{4\pi r^2}
    \]

  temperature gradient for radiative transport.

8.3.1 Example: A simple mass-luminosity relation based on Thomson scattering (for hot, high-mass stars)

\[
L \propto M^3 \mu^5
\]

- Stars are hot in center:
  \[
  kT_c \approx \frac{\mu G M m_p}{R}
  \]  \hspace{1cm} (8.2)

  cold at surface → heat transport

- energy flux
  \[
  F_{\text{rad}} = -\frac{c}{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho} \frac{dP_{\text{rad}}}{dr}
  \]

  \[
  = -\frac{c}{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho} \frac{4}{3} a T^3 \frac{dT}{dr}
  \]
8 Energy Transport

- Electron scattering (Thomson):
  \[ \langle \kappa \rangle = \frac{\sigma_e n_e}{\varrho} \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma_e = \frac{8\pi}{3} \left( \frac{e^2}{mc^2} \right)^2 \]
  \[ F_{\text{rad}} = -\frac{c}{n_e \sigma_e} \frac{4}{3} a T^3 \frac{dT}{dr} \]

- with equation (8.2):
  \[ F_{\text{rad}} \approx -\frac{4}{3} \frac{ca}{n_e \sigma_e} T^3 \frac{T}{R} \approx -\frac{4}{3} \frac{ca}{n_e \sigma_e} \left( \frac{\mu G M m_p}{kR} \right)^4 \frac{1}{R} \]

- luminosity:
  \[ L \approx 4\pi R^2 F \approx \frac{16}{3} \pi R^2 \frac{a c \mu m_p}{\sigma_e \varrho} \left( \frac{\mu G M m_p}{kR} \right)^4 \frac{1}{R} \]
  drop all constants and use \( \varrho \propto M R^{-3} \)
  \[ L \propto R^2 \frac{R^3 M^4}{M^2 R^5} \]
  \[ L \propto M^3 \mu^5 \]

- Plugging in all constants, gives a pre-factor not that far from \( L_\odot = 4 \cdot 10^{33} \text{erg/s} \) for \( M_\odot = 2 \cdot 10^{33} \text{g} \).

- Dependencies:

  When Thomson scattering dominates opacity \((M > M_\odot)\)
  \(L\) is **independent** of stellar radius and proportional to \(M^3\).

  Composition determines luminosity, also:
  
  pure H:
  \[ P = \frac{2kT m_p}{\varrho} \rightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{2} \]

  pure He:
  \[ P = n_\alpha kT + 2n_\alpha kT = 3n_\alpha kT \]
  \[ = \frac{3}{4} \frac{gkT}{m_p} \rightarrow \mu = \frac{4}{3} \]
  \((L \uparrow \text{for He})\)
8 Energy Transport

8.3.2 Example: Mass luminosity relation for low-mass Stars (where Kramer’s opacity dominates)

- Again:

\[ F_{\text{rad}} = -\frac{4}{3} a T^4 \frac{dT}{dr} \]

- Use \( \langle \kappa \rangle \propto g T^{-3.5} \) and \( T_c \approx \frac{GM\mu m_p}{kR} \)

\[
F_{\text{rad}} \propto -\frac{4}{3} c_s \rho^{-2} T^{6.5} \left( \frac{dT}{dr} \right) \approx \frac{T_c^{6.5}}{R^{1.5}}
\]

\[
\propto \frac{R^6}{M^2} T_c^{7.5} \propto \frac{M^{5.5}}{R^{8.5}}
\]

- the luminosity: \( L \approx 4\pi R^2 F_{\text{rad}} \)

\[
L \propto R^2 \frac{M^{5.5}}{R^{2.5}} \rightarrow L \propto \frac{M^{5.5}}{R^{0.5}}
\]

- Low-mass stars have very strong mass dependence

\[ L \propto M^{5.5} \quad (R = \text{constant}) \]

and luminosity also depends on stellar radius

\[ L \propto R^{-0.5} \quad (\text{for } M = \text{constant}) \]

8.4 Pressure Scale Height

- before we turn to convention transport, it is useful to define a characteristic length-scale associated with \( p \) pressure gradients:

\[
\frac{1}{H_p} = -\frac{1}{P} \frac{dP}{dr}
\]

The negative accounts for the fact that \( P(r) \) decreases outwards.
8 Energy Transport

Table 8.1: Table of ZAMS parameters
(from Shore “The Tapestry of Modern Astrophysics”)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(M/M_\odot)</th>
<th>(\log L/L_\odot)</th>
<th>(\log T_{\text{eff}}/K)</th>
<th>(T_c/10^7 K)</th>
<th>(R/R_\odot)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>-1.90</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-1.42</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.44</td>
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<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.9*</td>
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<td>2.2</td>
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<td>4.32</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* our Sun is already chemically evolved

- if we assume \(H_p = \text{const.}\) throughout star we get (in linear approximation)

\[
P = P_0 e^{-r/H_p}
\]

\(H_p = \text{distance over which gas pressure decreases by factor of } e.\)

- hydrostatic equilibrium (pressure grad. balances gravity):

\[
\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho g = -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \rho
\]

\[
H_p = \frac{P}{g \rho} = \frac{P r^2}{GM(r) \rho}
\]

- **Note:** a typical value for the Sun is \(H_p \approx 1/10 R_\odot!\)

8.5 Adiabatic Temperature Gradient

- Start with ideal gas law: \((PV = NkT)\)

\[
P_{\text{gas}} = \frac{\rho kT}{\mu m_p}
\]

\[
\frac{dP_{\text{gas}}}{dr} = -\frac{P}{\mu} \frac{d\mu}{dr} + \frac{P}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{dr} + \frac{P}{T} \frac{dT}{dr}
\]

\(\mu = \text{mean mol. weight}\)

\(V = \rho^{-1} \text{ specific volume}\)
8 Energy Transport

• Use polytropic EOS: \( P = K \rho^\gamma \)
  \[
  \frac{dP}{dr} = \gamma \frac{P d\rho}{\rho dr}
  \]

• Let's assume now \( \mu = \text{const.} \), then we can combine both equations.
  \[
  \frac{\gamma P d\rho}{\rho dr} = \frac{P d\rho}{\rho dr} + \frac{P dT}{T dr}
  \]
  \[
  \left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = (\gamma - 1) \frac{T d\rho}{\rho dr}
  \]

OR:
  \[
  \left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \frac{I}{P} \frac{dP}{dr} \quad (8.3)
  \]

in hydrostatic balance, we can express \( \frac{dP}{dr} \) by the gravitational force:
  \[
  \left. \frac{dP}{dr} \right|_{ad} = -GM(r) r^{-2} \rho
  \]
  \[
  \left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = - \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \frac{T GM(r)}{P} \frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \rho
  \]

with ideal gas law: \( P = \frac{\mu k T}{m_p \mu} \) we finally get

\[
\left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = - \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \frac{\mu m_p GM(r)}{k} \frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \quad \text{adiabatic temperature gradient}
\]

• rephrase using: \( g = GM(r) r^{-2} \) and \( nR = k(\mu m_p)^{-1} \) and \( \gamma = c_p/c_v \) and \( c_p - c_v = nR \)

\[
\left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = - \frac{g}{c_p}
\]

• think of a hot bubble that rises due to buoyancy effects: if it rises fast enough such heat transfer with surrounding is negligible, it evolves adiabatically. it is in pressure equilibrium with its surrounding (if sound-waves have sufficient time to travel across, which is usually the case). after some time, finally thermalizes with surrounding and losses its identity and dissolves.

• the temperature evolution of bubble is given by
  \[
  \left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = - \frac{g}{c_p}
  \]
• if the actual temperature gradient in the star is **LARGER** than the adiabatic value, i.e. if it is **SUPERADIABATIC**, then **CONVECTION** sets in.

  buoyancy effects grow as the bubble climbs up and the upwards motion continues ← convective instability

• **Criterium for convection:**

\[
\left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{act}} > \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{ad}}
\]

convection sets in even if \( \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{act}} \) is only slightly larger than \( \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{ad}} \). this sufficient to carry almost all energy outwards by convection.

• if convection sets in, it brings the **effective** temperature gradient close to the convective/adiabatic value.

\[
\left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{eff}} \approx \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{ad}}
\]

• **fully convective stars** can be well described as **polytropes** with \( \gamma = 5/3 \), i.e. with index \( n = (\gamma - 1)^{-1} = 3/2 \).

• we can find another criterion for the onset of convection:
  
  – Revisit equation (8.3)

\[
\frac{dT}{dr} \bigg|_{\text{ad}} = \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \frac{T}{P} \frac{dP}{dr}
\]

  – and recall \( \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{act}} > \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{ad}} \) for instability

  combine:

  \[
  \left| \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{\text{act}} > \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \frac{T}{P} \frac{dP}{dr}
  \]

  – both \( T \) and \( P \) decrease with increasing radius \( r \)

  – \( \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) > 0 \) as \( \gamma < 1 \)

\[
\frac{dT}{dr} \bigg|_{\text{act}} > \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \frac{T}{P} \frac{dP}{dr}
\]

\[
\frac{P}{T} \frac{dT}{dP} > 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}
\]

\[
\frac{d\ln T}{d\ln P} > \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \rightarrow \frac{d\ln P}{d\ln T} < \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}
\]
• for an ideal monoatomic gas, convection will assure in regions of the star where
\[
\frac{d \ln p}{d \ln T} < 2.5 \quad \text{(recall } \gamma = 5/3)\]

in this case the temperature gradient is
\[
\frac{dT}{dr} \approx \left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad} = -\left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) \frac{\mu m_p GM_r}{k} \frac{1}{r} \quad (8.4)
\]

Otherwise, radiation dominates and
\[
\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{3}{4} \frac{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho}{acT^3} \frac{L_r}{4\pi r^2} \quad (8.5)
\]

• another way of looking at the question of when convection dominates over radiation comes from comparing (8.4) with (8.5):
\[
-\left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) \frac{\mu m_p GM_r}{k} \frac{1}{r} \approx -\frac{3}{4ac} \frac{\langle \kappa \rangle \varrho}{T^3} \frac{L_r}{4\pi r^2}
\]

Convection occurs:
(1) when the stellar opacity is large, then an unachievable temperature gradient would be necessary for transporting away all energy by radiation
\[\Rightarrow \text{convection then is more efficient for energy transport}\]
(2) in regions where ionization occurs, because of large specific heat and low adiabatic gradients.
(3) when the temperature dependence of nuclear energy generation is large, causing steep radiative flux gradients and thus a large temperature difference.

In stellar atmospheres often (1) + (2) are met simultaneously (e.g. Sun)
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- For nuclei less massive than iron, nuclear fusion releases energy. For heavier elements, energy is released by “fission”.

![Diagram of nuclear energy release](image)

**Figure 9.1:**

- **Example:** Can nuclear fusion power Sun for long enough?

  Assume:
  - initially 100% hydrogen
  - only 10% of Sun can burn H to He
  - 0.7% of H mass gets converted into energy when forming He.

\[
E_{\text{nucl}} \approx 0.1 \cdot 0.007 \, M_\odot \, c^2
\approx 1.3 \cdot 10^{51} \, \text{erg}
\]
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time scale:

\[
\begin{align*}
t_{\text{nucl}} & \approx \frac{E_{\text{nucl}}}{L_{\odot}} \approx \frac{1.3 \cdot 10^{51} \text{ erg}}{4 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ erg}} \\
& \approx 3.25 \cdot 10^{17} \text{ s} \\
& \approx 10^{10} \text{ yr}
\end{align*}
\]

compare to gravitational contraction timescale:

\[
t_{\text{Kelvin-Helmholtz}} \approx 30 \cdot 10^{6} \text{ yr}
\]

\[t_{\text{nucl}} \gg t_{\text{KH}}\]

- Quantum mechanical tunneling is necessary for nuclear fusion to work in the stellar interior.

To show that, check temperature required in the fully classical approximation.

**we ask:** what temperature is required for two protons to come close enough so that strong forces overwhelm Coulomb repulsion?
use Maxwell-Boltzmann velocity distribution.

peak:

$$\frac{1}{2} \mu_m \langle v^2 \rangle = \frac{3}{2} kT = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r}$$

$$\mu_m = \text{reduced mass}$$

$$T = \frac{1}{6\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{kr}$$

for $$Z_1 = Z_2 = 1$$ and $$r \approx 1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

$$\Rightarrow T \approx 10^{10} \text{ K}$$

this is too hot compared to $$T_c = 14 \cdot 10^6 \text{ K}$$ of the Sun.
even in Maxwell-tail is considered (instead of peak)

Other process required for fusion ⇒ tunneling

**Approximation:** tunneling becomes important when De Broglie wavelength of
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particle gets of order of the extent of potential well, i.e. of order fm.

kinetic energy:

\[ \frac{1}{2} \mu_m \langle v^2 \rangle = \frac{p^2}{2\mu_m} = \frac{(h/\lambda)^2}{2\mu_m} \]  
(Heisenberg: \( \lambda \mu \approx h \))

put together:

\[ \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\lambda} = \frac{(h/\lambda)^2}{2\mu_m} \]

\[ T = \frac{\mu_m}{12\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_1^2 Z_2^2 e^4}{h^2k} \]

Again for collision of two protons: \( \mu_m = \frac{1}{2} m_p \) and \( Z_1 = Z_2 = 1 \)

\[ \Rightarrow \ T \approx 10^7 \text{ K} \]

this temperature is consistent with estimates of stellar interior
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9.1 Nuclear reaction rate and Gamow peak

number of reactions per nucleus per time interval = probability for reaction X incident flux

- \( dN_E = \sigma(E)v(E)n_i dE dt \)
  \[
  \sigma(E) = \text{cross section} \\
  v(E) = \text{velocity, corresponding to } E \\
  n_i = \text{number of incident particles with energy } E
  
  \]

- \( v(E) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{\mu_m}} \)

- number of reactions per second per nucleus
  \[
  \frac{dN_E}{dt} = \sigma(E)v(E)\frac{n_i}{n}n_E\,dE
  
  n_E\,dE = 2n\sqrt{\frac{E}{\pi(kT)^3}}e^{-E/kT}\,dE
  
  = \text{number of particles with energy } E \text{ in } [E, E + dE]
  
  = \text{from Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution}
  
  \]

- reaction-rate between incident flux \( n_i v(E) \) and \( n_x \) targets is then
  \[
  R_{ix} = \int_0^\infty n_x n_i \sigma(E)v(E)\frac{n_E}{n} \,dE
  
  \]

- now obtain \( \sigma(E) \): with tunneling probability we get:
  \[
  \sigma(E) \propto e^{-\frac{2\pi U_c}{E}} \tag{9.1}
  
  \]

where \( U_c = \text{height of Coulomb barrier.} \)

because

\[
\frac{U_c}{E} = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{2\pi \epsilon_0 h\nu} \propto E^{-1/2}
\]

we get:

\[
\sigma(E) \propto e^{-bE^{1/2}}
\]
with \( b = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_m \pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{2 \epsilon_0 h}} \)

Also from estimate of De Broglie wavelength:

\[
\sigma(E) \propto \pi \lambda^2 \propto \pi \left( \frac{n}{p} \right)^2 \propto \frac{1}{E} \tag{9.2}
\]

Both “together”:

\[
\sigma(E) = \frac{S(E)}{E} e^{-bE^{-1/2}}
\]

with \( S(E) \) slowly varying in \( E \).

**Putting all together:**

\[
R_{tx} = \left( \frac{2}{kT} \right)^{3/2} \frac{n_i n_x}{\sqrt{\mu_m a}} \int_0^\infty S(E) e^{-bE^{-1/2}} e^{-E/kT} dE
\]

numbers:

\[
R_{tx} = 6.48 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{n_i n_x}{\mu_m Z_1 Z_2} S(E_0) \left( \frac{E_G}{4kT} \right)^{2/3} \exp \left( -3 \left[ \frac{E_G}{4kT} \right]^{1/3} \right) \frac{1}{m^3 s}
\]

\[
R_{tx} \propto n_i n_x \left( \frac{E_G}{4kT} \right)^{2/3} \exp \left( -3 \left[ \frac{E_G}{4kT} \right]^{1/3} \right)
\]

\( e^{-E/kT} \) : high energy wing of MB distribution

\( e^{-bE^{-1/2}} \) : comes from penetration probability

**together strongly peaked curve!**

Maximum at \( E_0 = \left( \frac{bkT}{2} \right)^{2/3} \)

besides this continuum description, there may be **Resonances** and **Electron screening** effects (polarization).
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9.2 Power-law description

- often the rate $R_{ix}$ can be described as power law:

$$R_{ix} \approx R_0 X_0 X_x \varrho^{\alpha'} T^\beta$$

if energy per reaction is $\epsilon_{0x}$, then the total energy per unit mass is

$$\epsilon_{ix} = \frac{\epsilon_{0x}}{\varrho} R_{ix} = \epsilon_{0x} X_1 X_x \varrho^{\alpha} T^\beta \quad (\alpha = \alpha' - 1)$$

- total energy released, sum over all reactions

$$\epsilon = \sum_x \epsilon_{0x} X_1 X_x \varrho^{\alpha} T^\beta$$

- the resulting luminosity gradient:

$$dL = \epsilon \, dm$$

where $\epsilon = \epsilon_{\text{nuclear}} + \epsilon_{\text{gravity}}$

**Note:** $\epsilon_{\text{gravity}}$ can be negative if star is expanding!

- with $dm = dM_r = \varrho \, dV = 4\pi r^2 \varrho \, dr$

$$\frac{dL_r}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \varrho \epsilon$$
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• this is the last stellar structure equation.
now we have everything to compute the structure of star as function of mass, radius, composition, etc.

9.3 Nuclear Reaction Rates

• Stars consists mostly of protons, so let’s starts with

\[ p + p \rightarrow d + e^+ + \nu_e \]

this would be fast if it were not to need a weak interaction (to convert \( p \rightarrow n \))

\[ p \rightarrow n + e^+ + \nu \] needs 1.8 MeV, but this is paid back by binding energy of deuteron, which is 2.22 MeV

\[ p \rightarrow n + e^+ + \nu \] needs 1.8 MeV, but this is paid back by binding energy of deuteron, which is 2.22 MeV

the p-p fusion rate is \( 5 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ m}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1} \)

− a proton in center of Sun hangs around for \( 9 \cdot 10^9 \) yr
− on average before it fuses with other proton
− this sets nuclear timescale.

• once there is d, it quickly reacts with another p to build \(^3\text{He}\).

\[ p + d \rightarrow ^3\text{He} + \gamma \]

• now there are several ways to make \(^4\text{He}\).
  I) \(^3\text{He}\) fuses with \(^3\text{He}\) to make \(^4\text{He} + 2p\)

\[ \frac{3}{2}\text{He} + \frac{3}{2}\text{He} \rightarrow \frac{4}{2}\text{He} + 2p \]

\[ \Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 26.2 \text{ MeV} \]

II) or \(^3\text{He}\) fuses with \(^3\text{He}\) to \(^7\text{Be}\) and

\[ \frac{3}{2}\text{He} + \frac{4}{2}\text{He} \rightarrow \frac{7}{2}\text{Be} + \gamma \]

\[ \frac{7}{2}\text{Be} + e^- \rightarrow \frac{3}{2}\text{Li} + \nu_e \]

\[ \frac{3}{2}\text{Li} + p \rightarrow 2\frac{4}{2}\text{He} \]

\[ \Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 25.2 \text{ MeV} \]
III) or $^3_2\text{He}$ fuses again with $^4_2\text{He}$ to $^7_4\text{Be}$, but now

$$^3_2\text{He} + ^4_2\text{He} \rightarrow ^7_4\text{Be} + \gamma$$

$$^7_4\text{Be} + p \rightarrow ^8_5\text{B} + \gamma$$

$$^8_5\text{B} \rightarrow ^8_4\text{Be} + e^+ + \nu$$

$$^8_4\text{Be} \rightarrow 2^4_2\text{He}$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 19.1 \text{ MeV}$$

- The rate limiting reaction is the very first one:

$$S_{\text{pp}(0)} = 3.8 \cdot 10^{-22} \text{ keV barn}$$

$$S_{\text{ppd}(0)} = 2.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ keV barn}$$

this is $10^{18}$ times larger! (barn = $10^{-24}$ cm$^2$)

- in summary: pp Chain (dominant for solar-type stars)

\[ 1^1\text{H} + 1^1\text{H} \rightarrow 2^2\text{H} + e^+ + \nu_e \]

\[ 2^1\text{H} + 1^1\text{H} \rightarrow 2^2\text{H} + \gamma \]

\[ 69\% \ [85\%] \quad 31\% \ [15\%] \]

$$^3_2\text{He} + ^3_2\text{He} \rightarrow ^4_2\text{He} + 2^1_1\text{H}$$

$$^3_2\text{He} + ^4_2\text{He} \rightarrow ^7_4\text{Be} + \gamma$$

$$\text{ppI}$$

$$99.7\% \quad 0.3\%$$

$$^7_4\text{Be} + e^- \rightarrow ^6_3\text{Li} + \nu_e$$

$$^7_3\text{Li} + ^1_1\text{H} \rightarrow 2^4_2\text{He}$$

$$\text{ppII}$$

$$8_5\text{Be} \rightarrow ^8_4\text{Be} + e^+ + \nu_e$$

$$^8_4\text{Be} \rightarrow 2^4_2\text{He}$$

$$\text{ppIII}$$

Note: branching ratios differ from Carroll and Ostlie [2006] to Phillips
effective energy gain:

\[
\Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 69\% \cdot \frac{26.2 \text{ MeV}}{2} + 31\% \cdot 25.2 \text{ MeV} \\
= 16.9 \text{ MeV} \quad \text{[Carroll and Ostlie, 2006]}
\]

\[
\Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 0.85 \cdot \frac{26.2 \text{ MeV}}{2} + 0.15 \cdot 25.2 \text{ MeV} \\
= 15 \text{ MeV} \quad \text{(Phillips)}
\]

• all together:

\[
\epsilon_{pp} \approx 1.08 \cdot 10^{-5} \frac{\text{erg/s}}{\text{cm}^3\text{g}} \varrho X^2 T^4 \int_{pp,pp} C_{pp} \quad QM factors \approx 1 \\
\epsilon_{pp} \propto T_6^4 \quad \text{at} \quad T_6 \approx 15 \quad (**) T_6 = 10^6 \text{ K}
\]

this is very modest \(T\) dependency.

• CNO cycle for massive star’s

– while the pp cycle can account for hydrogen burning in solar-type main
sequence star’s it fails for massive star’s.

– as \(L \propto M^{5.5}\) (for stars similar to Sun) even a modest mass increase results in
enormous luminosity gain. this is too much for the “modest” \(T^4\)-dependency
of pp chain
(recall: \(T \propto M/R\))
→ something else must govern heat production in massive star’s.

– steeper \(T\)-dependency required → larger Coulomb barrier → must involve
heavy elements → but as their abundance (at best!) is very low, they must
be recycled to prolong \(H\) burning

– CNO cycle with carbon, nitrogen, oxygen as catalysts!

\[
p + ^{12}C \rightarrow ^{13}N \quad + \gamma \\
S(0) = 1.5 \text{ keV barn}
\]

\[
p + ^{13}C \rightarrow ^{14}N + \gamma \\
S(0) = 5.5 \text{ keV barn}
\]

\[
p + ^{14}N \rightarrow ^{15}O + \gamma \\
S(0) = 3.3 \text{ keV barn}
\]

\[
p + ^{15}N \rightarrow ^{12}C + ^{4}_2\text{He} \\
S(0) = 78 \text{ keV barn}
\]

the net result is

\[4p \rightarrow ^{4}_2\text{He} + 3\gamma + 2e^+ + 2e\nu \quad \Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 23.8 \text{ MeV}\]
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– just like in pp, there are several CNO chains

\[ ^{12}\text{C} + ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow ^{13}\text{N} + \gamma \]
\[ ^{13}\text{N} \rightarrow ^{13}\text{C} + e^+ + \nu_e \]
\[ ^{13}\text{C} + ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow ^{14}\text{N} + \gamma \]
\[ ^{14}\text{N} + ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow ^{15}\text{O} + \gamma \]
\[ ^{15}\text{O} \rightarrow ^{15}\text{N} + e^+ + \nu \]

\[ ^{15}\text{N} + ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow ^{16}\text{O} + \gamma \]
\[ ^{16}\text{O} + ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow ^{17}\text{F} + \gamma \]
\[ ^{17}\text{F} \rightarrow ^{17}\text{O} + e^+ + \nu_e \]
\[ ^{17}\text{O} + ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow ^{14}\text{N} + ^{2}\text{He} \]

\[ \epsilon_{\text{CNO}} = 8.24 \cdot 10^{-24} \frac{\text{erg/s}}{\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-2} \theta X Z T_6^{19.9}} \text{ at } T_6 \approx 15 \]

**very steep** \( T \) dependency:

\[ \epsilon_{\text{CNO}} \propto T^{20} \text{ at } T_6 \approx 15 \]

\( X = \) H fraction
\( Z = \) “metal” fraction

47
- **Comparison pp & CNO:**
  - for Sun \((T_6 = 15, \, X = 0.7, \, Z \approx 0.02)\)
    \[
    \epsilon_{\text{pp}} \approx 10 \cdot \epsilon_{\text{CNO}}
    \]
    only 10% of Sun’s energy production from CNO [Note: Phillips (***) gives 2%]

\[
\begin{align*}
\epsilon_{\text{pp}} & \approx 11 \ldots 17 \text{MeV} \\
\epsilon_{\text{CNO}} & \approx 23 \ldots 27 \text{MeV}
\end{align*}
\]

for solar models

- **Triple \(\alpha\)-Process of Helium Burning**
  once the central density and temperature gets high enough, He burning can set in:

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{4}{2}\text{He} + \frac{4}{2}\text{He} & \longrightarrow \frac{8}{4}\text{Be}^* \\
\frac{8}{4}\text{Be} + \frac{4}{2}\text{He} & \longrightarrow \frac{12}{6}\text{C} + \gamma
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\Delta E_{\text{eff}} = 7.3 \text{MeV}
\]

* unstable, decays back to \(\frac{4}{2}\text{He}\) if not hit by other \(\frac{4}{2}\text{He}\)

\[
\epsilon_{3\alpha} = \epsilon_{0,3\alpha} \varrho^2 Y^3 T_8^{41} \quad (Y = \text{He fraction})
\]

very steep \(T\) dependence: \(\Delta T = 10\% \rightarrow \Delta L \text{ of } 5000\%\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!
• Carbon and Oxygen Burning

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{12}{6}C + \frac{4}{2}He & \rightarrow \frac{16}{8}O + \gamma \\
\frac{16}{8}O + \frac{4}{2}He & \rightarrow \frac{20}{10}Ne + \gamma
\end{align*}
\]

Production of \(\alpha\)-Elements!

Near \(6 \cdot 10^8\)K:

\[
\frac{12}{6}C + \frac{12}{6}C \rightarrow \begin{cases} 
\frac{16}{8}O + 2\frac{4}{2}He & \Delta E < 0 \\
\frac{20}{10}Ne + \frac{4}{2}He & \Delta E > 0 \\
\frac{23}{11}No + p^+ & \Delta E > 0 \\
\frac{23}{11}Mg + n & \Delta E < 0 \\
\frac{24}{12}Mg + \gamma & \Delta E > 0
\end{cases}
\]

Further oxygen burning at \(T > 10^9\)K

\[
\frac{16}{8}O + \frac{16}{8}O \rightarrow \begin{cases} 
\frac{24}{12}Mg + 2\frac{4}{2}He & \Delta E < 0 \\
\frac{28}{14}Si + \frac{4}{2}He & \Delta E > 0 \\
\frac{31}{15}P + p^+ & \Delta E > 0 \\
\frac{31}{16}S + n & \Delta E > 0 \\
\frac{32}{16}S + \gamma & \Delta E > 0
\end{cases}
\]

\(\Delta E < 0\): energy is absorbed rather than released.

• Fusion goes up to \(^{56}\)Fe!

This is the most stable element.
## 9.4 Summary of Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lower main sequence</th>
<th>upper main sequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$M &lt; 1.5 M_\odot$</td>
<td>$M &gt; 1.5 M_\odot$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(FO)$</td>
<td>$(FO)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pp-chain</td>
<td>CNO-cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\epsilon_{pp} \propto T^4$</td>
<td>$\epsilon_{CNO} \propto T^{20}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low $T$-dependency; less concentrated energy source $\rightarrow$ small $T$-gradients</td>
<td>in center larger flux and steep temperature gradient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Radiative Core</strong></td>
<td><strong>Convective Core</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_c &gt; 20 \cdot 10^6 &gt; T_c$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convective envelope</td>
<td>radiative envelope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the smaller $M$, the further convective zone reaches into star.</td>
<td>the larger $m$, the larger the convective core</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 Effects of Rotation

- **Don Clayton**: Rotation effects the evolution of a star in at least two ways:
  
  1. Conservation of angular momentum during structural changes (contraction / expansion)
  2. Onset of fluid circulation to maintain energy balance.

  1. Centrifugal forces render rotating star **non-spherical**!
  2. **von Zeipels Theorem & gravity darkening**

- Let’s start with observation:
  - Massive stars rotate rapidly
  - Low-mass stars rotate slowly

\[
V_{\text{circ}} = \text{break-up velocity} = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R}}
\]

**Figure 10.1**: Plot of average equatorial velocity for different stellar populations.
– Stars with masses below $1.5\, M_\odot$ (later than $FO$) have significant convection in envelope

**Recall:**

lower main sequence: core radiation envelope convective

upper main sequence: core convective envelope radiative

– Winds can carry away **angular momentum:**

The amount of angular momentum loss depends at radius at which wind decouples from stellar interior:

– Simple winds decouples near the photosphere.

But: if wind couples to magnetic field it can be forced to **corotate** with the star well **beyond** the photosphere!

The B-field is rooted in stellar interior and as corotating wind moves beyond the photosphere it gains angular momentum at the expense of the interior.

– Low-mass star’s have significant convection
10 Effects of Rotation

→ relatively strong fields & winds.
→ strong angular momentum loss
high-mass star’s weaker fields → weaker mass loss.
– Implication:
Stars slow down during their evolution!

• von Zeipel’s theorem
– consider a star that is in mechanical & thermal equilibrium
  * rotation alters the shape of star
  * equations of hydrostatic equilibrium must include centrifugal force
– centrifugal acceleration can be associated with centrifugal potential:
  Force: $\Omega^2 R \overrightarrow{e}_R = -\overrightarrow{\nabla} \psi$
  $$\psi = -\int_0^R \Omega^2 R' dR' = \frac{-1}{2} \Omega^2 R^2$$
  for rigid rotator.
– effective potential:
  $$\phi_{\text{eff}} = \phi + \psi = \phi - \frac{\Omega^2 R^2}{2}$$
– equation of hydrostatic equilibrium:
  $$\frac{1}{\varrho} \overrightarrow{\nabla} P = -\overrightarrow{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}} = -\overrightarrow{\nabla} \phi + \Omega^2 \overrightarrow{e}_R \quad (10.1)$$
  $$= \overrightarrow{g}_{\text{eff}} \quad \text{acceleration due to local effective gravity.}$$
  also: Poisson: $\overrightarrow{\nabla}^2 \phi = 4\pi G \varrho$ (note, culy true gravity, $\phi$, appears here.)

• consider “level” surfaces of constant $\phi_{\text{eff}}$
  $\overrightarrow{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}}$ evaluated on such surface is always 1 to surface
consider $d\phi_{\text{eff}} = d\overrightarrow{r} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}}$, with $d\overrightarrow{r}$ being tangent vector
$$d\phi_{\text{eff}} = 0$$
back in (10.1) → $\varrho^{-1} d\overrightarrow{r} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla} P = 0$ as well
  $P = \text{constant an equipotential surface}$
for barotropic (10.1): $P = P(\varrho)$
$$P = P(\phi_{\text{eff}}) \& \phi_{\text{eff}} = \phi_{\text{eff}}(P)$$
with (10.1) $\varrho^{-1} \frac{d\phi_{\text{eff}}}{dP} = \text{constant on equipotential surface}$
$$\varrho = \varrho(\phi_{\text{eff}})$$
• now consider chemically homogeneous star ($\mu = \text{const.}$)

$$P = \frac{\mu k T}{\mu m_p} \Rightarrow T = T(\phi_{\text{eff}})$$

• So, the only “thing” not constant on equipol. surface is effective acceleration $\vec{g}_{\text{eff}}$.

it is always $\perp$ to surface, but its magnitude varies over surface!

• consider 2nd constraint: Thermal equilibrium

thermal balance: $\frac{dL}{dr} = 4\pi r^2 \varrho \varepsilon$

in terms of radiative flux:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = \varrho \varepsilon$$

$$F_{\text{rad}} = -\frac{c}{\kappa \varrho} \frac{dP_{\text{rad}}}{dr} = -\frac{4}{3} \frac{c}{\kappa \varrho} aT^3 \frac{dT}{dr}$$

for spherical star.

for the rotating star, rephrase in terms is $d\phi_{\text{eff}}$

$$\vec{F} = -\frac{4ac}{\kappa \varrho} T^3 \frac{dT}{d\phi_{\text{eff}}} \vec{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}}$$

if the star is thermally stable, then

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = 0$$

but, this is NOT full filled:

take $\vec{F} = K \vec{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}}$ then

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = \vec{\nabla} K \vec{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}} + K \vec{\nabla}^2 \phi_{\text{eff}}$$

$$= \frac{dK}{d\phi_{\text{eff}}} \left( \vec{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}} \vec{\nabla} \phi_{\text{eff}} \right) + K \vec{\nabla}^2 \phi_{\text{eff}}$$

our assumption is $T = \text{constant}$, $P = \text{constant}$, $\varrho = \text{const.}$

on $\phi_{\text{eff}}$ surface $\frac{dK}{d\phi_{\text{eff}}} = 0$ on surface

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{F} = K \vec{\nabla}^2 \phi_{\text{eff}} = K \left[ 4\pi G \varrho - 2\Omega \right]$$

this cannot vanish every where!

this is the von Zeipel’s paradox.

• Solution: not in equilibrium $\rightarrow$ MERIDIONAL MOTIONS

– surface area per unit solid angle greater an equator than on pole
10 Effects of Rotation

- in equilibrium: same flux transported through larger surface area as through smaller one

- temperature drops locally on equator to compensate for that and rises on poles.
- because of bouncy effects warmer gas close to rotational axis begins to rise and colder gas at the equator begins to fall.

• meridional circulation will mix the star

• star is hotter = brighter on poles and colder = darker on equator

  gravity darkening $T_{\text{eff}} \propto g^{1/4}$

• Note: the timescale for meridional circulation is long:

  critical parameters $\beta = \frac{E_{\text{rot}}}{|E_{\text{grav}}|} = \frac{R^3 \omega^2}{GM}$

  $E_{\text{rot}} : \Omega^2 R^2 M$
  $E_{\text{grav}} : \frac{GM^2}{R}$
10 Effects of Rotation

\[ t_{\text{circ}} \approx \frac{t_{KH}}{\beta} = \left( \frac{GM}{R^5 \omega^2} \right) t_{KH} \]

- for rapid rotators \( \beta = 0.1 \)
  \[ t_{\text{circ}} \approx 10^2 t_{KH} \approx 10^9 \text{yr} \]

  This is larger than main sequence lifetime!

  \[ \hookrightarrow \] mixing is not efficient

- for slow rotators \( \beta \lesssim 0.01 \)
  \[ t_{\text{circ}} \approx 10^4 t_{KH} \approx 10^{11} \text{yr} \]

  still larger than main sequence lifetime.

- **Note:** this meridional motion may also be induced by tidal perturbations in close binary systems.
11 Magnetic Fields in Stars

A brief deviation into dynamo theory

- relation between current, and electric and magnetic field $\vec{E}$, $\vec{B}$:
\[
\vec{j} = \sigma \left( \vec{E} + \frac{\vec{v}}{c} \times \vec{B} \right) \quad \sigma = \text{electrical conductivity}
\]

- chance of $B$:
\[
\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -c \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} \quad \text{(induction equation)}
\]
\[
\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) - \frac{c}{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{j}
\]
\[
= \vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) + \eta \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{B}
\]

with $\eta = \frac{4\pi c^2}{\sigma}$ = diffusion coefficient.

- if we decompose all fields into a mean part and a fluctuating par:
\[
\vec{j} = \langle \vec{j} \rangle + \vec{j}'
\]
\[
\vec{E} = \langle \vec{E} \rangle + \vec{E}'
\]
\[
\vec{B} = \langle \vec{B} \rangle + \vec{B}'
\]

then we get:
\[
\langle \vec{j} \rangle = \sigma \left( \langle \vec{E} \rangle + \frac{1}{c} \langle \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \rangle + \frac{1}{c} \langle \vec{v}' \times \vec{B}' \rangle \right)
\]
\[
\frac{\partial \langle \vec{B} \rangle}{\partial t} = \vec{\nabla} \times \left( \langle \vec{v} \rangle \times \langle \vec{B} \rangle \right) + \eta \vec{\nabla}^2 \langle \vec{B} \rangle + \vec{\nabla} \times \epsilon
\]

\[
\epsilon = \text{mean electromotive force}
\]
\[
= \langle \vec{v}' \times \vec{B}' \rangle
\]
• assume $\epsilon$ comes from turbulent motions!

if $\vec{v}'$ and $\vec{V}'$ (the fluctuating parts) are completely uncorrelated then

$$\langle \vec{v}' \times \vec{B}' \rangle = \langle \vec{v}' \rangle \times \langle \vec{B}' \rangle = 0$$

• assume $\vec{v} = 0$

  - what remains is:

$$\frac{\partial \langle \vec{B} \rangle}{\partial t} = \eta \nabla^2 \langle \vec{B} \rangle$$

this is a diffusion equation: the magnetic field “diffuses” away: it decays in the absence of dynamo action!

  - time scale: $\tau$

$$\langle \vec{B} \rangle \tau^{-1} \approx \eta \langle \vec{B} \rangle L^{-2}$$

$$\tau \approx \frac{L^2}{\lambda} \approx \frac{4\pi\sigma L^2}{c^2}$$

Earth: $L \approx 3 \cdot 10^8$ cm $\sigma \approx 10^{16}$ esu $\rightarrow$ $\tau \approx 3 \cdot 10^5$ yr

Sun: $L \approx 5 \cdot 10^{10}$ cm $\sigma \approx 10^{17}$ esu $\rightarrow$ $\tau \approx 10^{11}$ yr

Galaxy: $L \approx 3 \cdot 10^{20}$ cm $\sigma \approx 10^{10}$ esu $\rightarrow$ $\tau \approx 3 \cdot 10^{23}$ yr

• assume $\epsilon = 0$ and $\eta = 0$

$$\frac{\partial \langle \vec{B} \rangle}{\partial t} = \nabla \times \left( \vec{v} \times \langle \vec{B} \rangle \right)$$

this leads to flux freezing!

the $\vec{B}$-field is compressed just like density

$$\frac{d \langle \vec{B} \rangle}{dt} = -\vec{B} \left( \nabla \cdot \vec{v} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d \varrho}{dt} = -\varrho \nabla \vec{v}$$

with $\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \vec{v} \cdot \nabla$

$$B = \left| \langle \vec{B} \rangle \right| = f \varrho \rightarrow \text{scales linearly with} \varrho$$
• Dynamo amplification of field comes from electromotive force $\epsilon$

Statistical turbulence theory allows for the ansatz:

$$\epsilon = \left\langle \vec{v}' \times \vec{B}' \right\rangle = \alpha \left\langle \vec{B} \right\rangle - \eta_T \vec{\nabla}_x \times \left\langle \vec{B} \right\rangle$$

with $\eta_T$ being $\frac{1}{3} \left\langle \vec{v}' \cdot \vec{u}' \right\rangle \tau$ the turbulent resistivity.

It turns out $\eta_T \gg \eta$ (molecular resistivity) if $\alpha$ is much larger than $nT$, $\alpha$ dominates the system and we call it $\alpha$-$\Omega$ dynamo.

• **Note:** dynamos can only amplify preexisting fields $\rightarrow$ need a seed field
12 The Early Stages of Stellar Evolution: Proto-stellar Collapse and Pre-Main-Sequence Contraction

- Stars form from gravitationally unstable gas in molecular clouds: pre-stellar cloud cores
- Stars (in particular higher-mass stars) typically form as members of a binary or higher order multiple system.
- Stars typically form in clusters (of several hundred objects)

12.1 Proto-stellar Collapse: Jeans mass

- Gravitational instability: Jeans criterion
- Often the first approach to determine stability properties is to analyze the linearized set of equations and derive a dispersion relation for the perturbation assumed.
- Linearized equation’s for isothermal self-gravitating fluid:
  \[
  \frac{\partial \varrho_1}{\partial t} + \varrho_0 \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}_1 = 0 \quad \text{(continuity)}
  \]
  \[
  \frac{\partial \vec{v}_1}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} c_s^2 \frac{\varrho_1}{\varrho_0} - \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\Phi}_1 \quad \text{(momentum)}
  \]
  \[
  \nabla^2 \varphi_1 = 4\pi G \varrho_0 \quad \text{(Poisson)}
  \]
- \[\vec{\nabla} c_s^2 \varrho_1 \varrho_0^{-1} = \varrho_0^{-1} \vec{\nabla} p_1\] with \[p_1 = c_s^2 \varrho_1\] from EOS.
- Neglecting viscous effects (\[\eta = \xi = 0\])
- Equilibrium characterized by \[\varrho_0 = \text{const.}\] and \[\vec{v}_0 = 0\]
- Jeans swindle: Poisson’s equation considers only perturbed potential (set \[\varphi_0 = 0\])
- With \[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} [\text{continuity}] + \vec{\nabla} [\text{momentum}]\] it follows:
  \[
  \frac{\partial^2 \varrho_1}{\partial t^2} - c_s^2 \nabla^2 \varrho_1 - 4\pi G \varrho_0 \varrho_1 = 0
  \]
  Wave equation for \[\varrho_1(\vec{x}, t)\]
analyze in Fourier space:

\[ \bar{\rho}(\vec{x},t) = \int d^3k A(\vec{k}) e^{i[\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - w(k)t]} \]

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rightarrow iw \quad \nabla \rightarrow i\vec{k} \]

• dispersion relation:

\[ w^2 = c_s^2 k^2 - 4\pi G \rho_0 \]

– if density \( \rho_0 \) is small \( \rightarrow \) dispersion relation of sound waves \( w^2 = c_s^2 k^2 \)

– or small wavelength \( \lambda = 2\pi/k \)

– self-gravity acts “strongest” on large scales (small \( k \))

(\text{gravity is long-range force})

– \( \lambda \) increases/\( k \) decreases/\( \rho_0 \) grows: frequency decreases and eventually \( w^2 = 0! \)

\[ \leftrightarrow \text{ time evolution } \propto e^{\pm \alpha t} \text{ (if } \alpha^2 = -w^2 \text{) Exponentially unstable.} \]

• Gravitational collapse for wave numbers

\[ k^2 < k^2_J \equiv \frac{4\pi G \rho_0}{c_s^2} \]

– Jeans wave-number

\( k_J \)

– Jeans wave length

\[ \lambda_J = \frac{2\pi}{k_J} = \left( \frac{\pi c_s^2}{G \rho_0} \right)^{1/2} \]

– Jeans mass

\[ M_J = \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho_0 \left( \frac{\lambda_J}{2} \right)^3 = \frac{\pi}{6} \rho \left( \frac{\pi c_s^2}{G \rho_0} \right)^{3/2} \]

for a spherical perturbation with \( \phi = \lambda_J \)

\[ M_J = \frac{\pi^{5/2}}{6} \left( \frac{R}{G} \right)^{3/2} \theta^{-1/2} T^{3/2} \]

\[ = \frac{\pi^{5/2}}{6} G^{-3/2} \theta^{-1/2} c_s^3 \quad (c_s^2 = RT) \]

• Energy of sound wave \( E_{\text{sound}} > 0 \); gravitational Energy < 0

Instability sets in, when net energy is negative, i.e. when \( \lambda \) exceeds \( \lambda_J \).
12.2 Proto-stellar Collapse: Pressure free Collapse and free-fall

Time scale

- solve hydrodynamic equations in 1D (keep time dependency!)

\[
\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = -\varrho \nabla \phi - \nabla P \quad \text{(equation of motion)}
\]

\[
0 = \frac{d\varrho}{dt} + \varrho \nabla \cdot \vec{v} \quad \text{(continuity)}
\]

\[
\nabla \phi = 4\pi G \varrho \quad \text{(Poisson equation)}
\]

- consider special case: no pressure force!

\[
\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = -\nabla \phi
\]

- 1D spherical symmetry:

\[
\nabla \rightarrow \frac{d}{dr}
\]

\[
\nabla^2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{d}{dr} \right)
\]

- Lagrangian description of spherical mass shells:

\[
\frac{dM}{dr} = 4\pi \varrho r^2
\]

\[
\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dr} \right) = 4\pi G \varrho \quad \text{Poisson}
\]

\[
\frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dr} \right) = 4\pi G \varrho r^2 = G \frac{dM}{dr}
\]

\[
r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dr} = GM \quad \text{integration}
\]

\[
\frac{d\phi}{dr} = \frac{GM}{r^2}
\]

- in equation of motion:

\[
\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{d\phi}{dr} = -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \quad | \cdot 2v \, dt
\]

\[
2v \frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \cdot 2v \, dt \quad | v = \frac{dr}{dt} \rightarrow v \, dt = \frac{dr}{v} \, dt = dr
\]

\[
= -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \cdot 2 \, dr
\]

\[
d(v^2) = -2GM \frac{dr}{r^2} \quad \text{integration}
\]

\[
v^2 = 2GM(r_i) \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_i} \right) + v_i^2
\]
with integration constant $v_i^2$; assume cloud initially at rest $v_i = 0$ at radius $r_i$ with Mass $M(r_i)$

$$v(t) = -\left[2GM(r_i)\left(\frac{1}{r(t)} - \frac{1}{r_i}\right)\right]^{1/2}$$

“−” because of collapse (radial vector points away from center)

time dependence disguised in $r(t)$

• use $M(r_i) = \frac{4\pi}{3} \varrho_i r_i^3$ (cloud is originally homogeneous)

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = -\left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i r_i^2 \left(\frac{r_i}{r} - 1\right)\right]^{1/2}$$

• substitute $\cos^2 \xi = \frac{r(t)}{r_i} \rightarrow \frac{dr}{dr_i} = 2 \cos \xi \sin \xi \, d\xi$

$$r_i 2 \cos \xi \sin \xi \, d\xi = -\left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i r_i^2 \left(\frac{1}{\cos^2 \xi} - 1\right)\right]^{1/2} \, dt$$

$$= +\left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i\right]^{1/2} \left[\frac{\sin^2 \xi}{\cos^2 \xi}\right]^{1/2} \, dt$$

$$2 \cos \xi \sin \xi \, d\xi = +\left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i\right]^{1/2} \frac{\sin \xi}{\cos \xi} \, dt$$

$$2 \cos^2 \xi \, d\xi = +\left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i\right]^{1/2} \, dt$$

• use $2 \cos^2 \xi = 1 + \cos 2\xi$:

$$(1 + \cos 2\xi) \, d\xi = \left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i\right]^{1/2} \, dt \quad \text{integrate}$$

$$\xi + \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 2\xi = \left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i\right]^{1/2} t + c$$

• with initial condition $r = r_i$ (i.e. $\xi = 0$) at $t = 0$ parameter $\xi$ is in general function of both $r_i$ and $t$!

• free-fall time: $r(t) \rightarrow 0$: this means $\xi \rightarrow \pi/2$

this happens in a finite time: $\tau_{ff}$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin \pi = \left[\frac{8\pi}{3} G \varrho_i\right]^{1/2} \tau_{ff}$$

$$\tau_{ff} = \sqrt{\frac{3\pi}{32G \varrho_i}} \quad \text{free-fall time}$$
12 The Early Stages of Stellar Evolution

- \( \tau_{ff} \) is a function of initial mean density \textbf{only}.

  for a homogeneous sphere with initial density \( \rho_i \)
  \textbf{all} fluid elements have the same \( \tau_{ff} \)
  \( \Rightarrow \) they all arrive at the center at the same time.

- for a homogeneous sphere, the density evolution can be computed analytically:
  - use the continuity equation:
    \[
    \frac{d \rho}{dM} + \rho \nabla \cdot \vec{v} = 0
    \]
    \[
    \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d \rho}{dt} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} (r^2 v) = 0
    \]
    \[
    \frac{d}{dt} (\ln \rho) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} (r^2 v) = 0
    \]
  recall, the divergence in spherical coordinates is:
  \[
  \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 A_r) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (A_\theta \sin \theta) + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Phi} (A_\Phi)
  \]
  - with \( r/r_i = \cos^2 \xi \) it follows:
    \[
    r^2 v = -\frac{\pi}{2\tau_{ff}} \frac{3}{2} \frac{\sin \xi}{\cos \xi}
    \]
    and \( dt = \frac{4\tau_{ff}}{\pi} \cos^2 \xi \, d\xi \)
  for a general density profile.
  \[
  d \ln \rho = 6 \tan \xi \, d\xi [1 + X]
  \]
  with \( X = \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} (3 \tan \xi + \cot \xi) - \frac{d \ln \tau_{ff}}{d \ln r} \right] \)
  - for \( \rho = \rho_i \) = constant, \textbf{both} \( \tau_{ff} \) and \( \xi \) are independent of radius \( \Rightarrow X = 0 \) in this case.
  - integration of \( d \ln \rho = 6 \tan \xi \, d\xi \) gives
    \[
    \frac{\rho(t)}{\rho_i} = \sec^6 \xi
    \]
    if \( v_i = 0 \)
Figure 12.1:

- if $\varrho_i(r)$ decreases outwards, the central parts have smaller $\tau_f$ than outer parts $\rightarrow$ inner parts collapse further $\rightarrow$ density profile steepens $\rightarrow$ non-homologous nature of gravitational collapse.

\[
\frac{\varrho}{\varrho_i} = 2 \quad \text{at} \quad t = 0.5 \tau_f
\]
\[
\frac{\varrho}{\varrho_i} = 10 \quad \text{at} \quad t = 0.85 \tau_f
\]
12.3 gravitational collapse of isolated, isothermal gas spheres

(similarity sln. a la shu, Larson, Penston, Hunter [1977], Whitworth and Ward-Thompson [2001], etc. . . .)

- hydro equations in 1D and spherical symmetry

  closure: \( \varphi = c_s^2 \varrho \) \hspace{2cm} (12.1)
  
edition{equation of motion: \( \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} = -\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} - \frac{c_s^2}{\varrho} \frac{\partial \varrho}{\partial r} \) \hspace{2cm} (12.2)}
  
edition{continuity: \( \frac{dM}{dt} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial M}{\partial r} = 0 \) \hspace{2cm} (12.3)}

  with \( \frac{\partial M(r)}{\partial r} = 4\pi r^2 \varrho(r) \)

- SIMILARITY SLN:

  by introducing \textbf{one single independent variable} \( \xi = c_s t/r \)
  
  (following Hunter [1977])

  \( \xi = \xi(r,t) \quad \xi \quad \text{replaces both} \quad r \quad \text{and} \quad t \)

- set also:

  \( M(r,t) = \frac{c_s^3 t}{G} m(\xi) \)
  
  \( \varrho(r,t) = \frac{c_s^2}{4\pi G r^2} P(\xi) \)
  
  \( v(r,t) = -c_s U(\xi) \)

- Then (12.1), (12.2), (12.3) reduce to 2 coupled ODE’s for \( P \) and \( U \) and one algebraic equation defining \( m(\xi) \):

  \( \frac{dU}{d\xi} = \frac{(\xi U + 1) [P(\xi U + 1) - 2]}{(\xi U + 1)^2 - \xi^2} \)
  
  \( \frac{dP}{d\xi} = \frac{\xi P [2 - P(\xi U + 1)]}{(\xi U + 1)^2 - \xi^2} \)
  
  \( m(\xi) = P \left( U + \frac{1}{\xi} \right) \)
He extended the solutions towards \( t \rightarrow -\infty \) and \( t \rightarrow +\infty \).

This solution's obey \( v \rightarrow 0 \) for \( t \rightarrow -\infty \).

- \( t = 0 \) is instance of core formation (i.e. occurrence of central singularity)
- originally:
  - LP only for \( t < 0 \)
  - Sln only for \( t > 0 \)

The portion of each curve with zero slope indicates \( \rho \propto r^{-2} \).

**Figure 12.2:**

- \( LP = \) Larson (1969) - Penston (1969) (***) sln:
  - at \( t \rightarrow -\infty \) \( \rho = \rho_0 = \text{const.} \) \( v = 0 \)

  (collapse of homogeneous sphere from rest)
- \( S = \) Shu (1977) (***) sln:
  - at \( t = 0 \) sis: \( \rho = \frac{1}{r^2} \) \& \( v = 0 \)

(collapse of singular isothermal sphere)
• $H = \text{Hunter [1977] "in between" solution}$

• Physical insight can be gained by looking at the behavior in various limits:
  
  (A) $\xi \to -\infty$
  
  \[
  U \approx \frac{2}{3} \left( -\frac{1}{\xi} \right) + 45 \left[ -\frac{2}{3} \exp(Q_0) \right] \left( -\frac{1}{\xi} \right)^3
  \]
  \[
  \ln(\xi^2 P) \approx Q_0 + \frac{1}{6} \left[ 2 \left( -\frac{2}{3} \exp(Q_0) \right) \left( -\frac{1}{\xi} \right)^2
  \]
  
  with $Q_0 > 0$ constant

  (B) $\xi \approx 0$
  
  \[
  U \approx U_0 + \xi (P_0 - 2) \xi^2 U_0 + \xi^3 \left[ (P_0 - 2) \left( 1 - \frac{P_0}{6} \right) - \frac{2}{3} U_0^2 \right]
  \]
  \[
  P \approx P_0 - \xi^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} P_0 (P_0 - 2) \right]
  \]
  
  with $U_0$ and $P_0$ positive constants

  (C) $\xi \to +\infty$
  
  \[
  U \approx \sqrt{2m_0 \xi}
  \]
  \[
  P \approx \sqrt{M_0/2\xi}
  \]

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• Conversion into physical quantities (in the various limits)
  
  \[ r \ll c_s |t| \text{ and } t < 0 \]
  
  \[
  v(r,t) \approx -\frac{2}{3} \frac{r}{-t}
  \]
  \[
  g(r,t) \approx \frac{\exp(Q_0)}{4\pi G} t^2
  \]

  \[ r \ll c_s |t| \text{ and } t > 0 \]
  
  \[
  v(r,t) \approx -\left( \frac{2m_0}{c_s} \right)^{1/2} t^{1/2} r^{-1/2}
  \]
  \[
  g(r,t) \approx \frac{1}{4\pi G} \left( \frac{m_0 c_s^3}{2} \right)^{1/2} t^{-1/2} r^{-3/2}
  \]
\[ r \gg c_s |t| \quad \forall t \]

\begin{align*}
  v(r, t) & \approx -c_s U_0 \\
  g(r, t) & \approx \frac{c_s^2 P_0}{4\pi G} r^2
\end{align*}

- \textit{S} and \textit{LP} sln’s mutually exclude each other

\textit{S}: only \(0 < \xi < +\infty\):

claim is that \textit{S} describes the accretion flow of an isothermal \(1/r^2\) envelope onto a recently formed proto-stellar core.

\textit{LP} only \(-\infty < \xi < 0\):

transformation of homogeneous sphere into strongly centrally condensed supersonically collapsing cloud.

- \(\xi \to -\infty\) \((t \to -\infty)\):

initial condition of collapse

\(\xi = 0\) \((t = 0)\)

formation of central zero velocity (and zero radius) core, which for \(0 < t \ll -\infty\)
grows with \(\dot{M} = c_s^3 m_0 / G\)

\(\xi \to +\infty\) \((t \to +\infty)\):

very late stages of collapse when most of the original cloud mass is contained in core.
12.4 Interpretation

• for any stage of collapse prior to core formation, \( t < 0 \), there will be a region \( r \ll c_s(t) \) that is collapsing homologously maintaining uniform density structure and a velocity profile \(-v \propto r\).

• there will also be a region \( r \gg c_s(t) \) exhibits a \( \varrho \propto r^{-2} \) density profile.

• exactly at \( t = 0 \) the cloud exhibits a \( \varrho \propto r^{-2} \) profile everywhere (note, the velocity differs for the different models)

• often core formation, \( t > 0 \), there is a region at large radii, \( r \gg c_s(t) \), that still has \( \varrho \propto r^{-2} \) and \( v \approx \) constant.

• while near the center, \( r \ll c_s(t) \), the cloud structure will change to \(-v \propto r^{-1/2} \) and \( \varrho \propto r^{-3/2} \)

There are important observable differences between \( S \) and \( LP \) solution, as discussed in previous lectures.

• Shu accretion rate: S-sln maintains

\[
M(0,t) = \frac{c_s^3 m_0}{G} t \quad \forall \ t > 0
\]

\[
M(0,t) = \frac{c_s^3 t}{G} m(\xi)
\]

\[
[c_s] = \frac{cm}{s}
\]

\[
[G] = \frac{cm^3}{g s^2}
\]

\[
[t] = s
\]

• “inside-out” collapse: rarefaction wave moves outwards with speed of sound \( c_s \)

• at \( t = 0 \) \( LP \) & \( S \) differ in the velocity field:

\[
s \rightarrow -v = 0
\]

\[
LP \rightarrow -v \gg c_s
\]

Note: compare Shu rate with Bondi-Hoyle-Lyttleton accretion rate
The Early Stages of Stellar Evolution

- Bondi accretion rate:
  \[
  \dot{M}_B = \lambda_c 4\pi \varrho_\infty \frac{(GM)^3}{c_\infty^4}
  \]
  \[
  \lambda_c = \frac{1}{4} e^{3/2} = 1.12
  \]
  \[
  \varrho_\infty = \varrho \text{ at } \infty
  \]
  \[
  c_\infty = c_s \text{ at } \infty
  \]

- Shu rate:
  \[
  \dot{M}_s = \frac{c_s^3}{G} m_0
  \]
  \[
  m_0 = 0.95a
  \]

- if we set \( c_s = c_\infty \), and if we set \( M = \dot{M} t \), and if we identify \( 4\pi G \varrho_\infty = t^{-2} \) with the inverse square of the free-fall time, then we see.
  \[
  \dot{M}_B = \lambda_c \frac{1}{t^2 G} \frac{G^2}{c_\infty^3} \dot{M}_B t^2
  \]
  \[
  1 = \lambda_c \frac{G}{c_\infty} \dot{M}_B
  \]
  \[
  \dot{M}_B = \frac{1}{\lambda_c G} \frac{c_s^3}{\dot{M}_s} \approx \dot{M}_s \text{ as } \lambda_c^{-1} m_0
  \]

- Bondi problem:
  spherical accretion of gas by a gravitating point mass \( M \).
  (self-gravity of gas is ignored)

- Hoyle-lyttleton:
  if star moves with \( v_x \) through the medium
  \[
  \dot{M} = \lambda_s 4\pi \varrho_\infty \frac{(GM)^2}{(v_x^2 + c_\infty^2)^{3/2}}
  \]
• **in REALITY**: NO SIS ⇒ time varying $\dot{M}$

example 1:

multiple power law:

compare, e.g. with density profile of B68 or the sample of pre-stellar cores by Bacmann et al. (2000)(**)

\[ \rho = \rho_N \]
\[ r = r_N \]
\[ \rho \propto r^{-2/D_1} \]
\[ r = r_B \]

**Figure 12.4**: Density vs. radius

resulting accretion rates

**Figure 12.5**: Accretion rate

**Figure 12.6**: Absolute value of the accretion rate

(from Hendriksen et al. 1997 (**))
example 2: Plummer sphere (modeled to fit LI544)

generalized Plummer density distribution

\[ \rho(r, t = 0) = \rho_{\text{core}} \left[ \frac{r_{\text{core}}}{(r_{\text{core}}^2 + r^2)^{1/2}} \right]^\eta \]

original Plummer sphere: \( \eta = 5 \)

Figure 12.7: Volume-density profiles

Figure 12.8: Inward radial velocity profiles

Figure 12.9: Accretion rate

(from Whitworth and Ward-Thompson [2001])
12.5 Models of 1D collapse

\[ \rho - T \] condition in the center of a 3 M\textsubscript{\odot} proto-star

(A) end of isothermal phase

(B) onset of H\textsubscript{2} dissociation

(C) end of H\textsubscript{2} dissociation, begin of final adiabatic core
12.6 Collapse in 3D → binary formation

- almost ALL stars form as part of a binary or higher-order multiple system.
- pre-stellar coves have angular momentum \( J \approx 10^{20} - 10^{22} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s} \)
- formation of rotationally supported disk during collapse
- further proto-stellar mass accretion via viscous transport processes (see next lectures)
- often disk “too massive”
  → grav. instability
  → binary formation by disk fragmentation
- for a recent review see Bodenheimer et al (2000, PP IV)(**)

---

**Figure 12.11:** Evolution of the high-beta case with the SPH code. [see Burkert et al., 1997, Fig. 4]
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

13.1 Role of electron degeneracy

• onset of degeneracy provides pressure support that allows stability at (almost) any temperature.

• when degeneracy occurs, temperature “decouples” from hydrostatic balance.

• first we need to consider electron degeneracy, only for very compact objects (when $e^-$ are “pushed into” $p^+$, to give $n^0$) we need to also take neutrons degeneracy into account (neutron stars)

• recall: Fermi energy

$$E_F \approx \frac{p_F^2}{2m_e}$$

to estimate $p_F$:

$$n_e = \frac{\rho}{m_p} = \frac{8}{3} \frac{\pi}{\hbar^3} p_F^3 \quad \text{(electron density)}$$

$$p_F^3 = \frac{3}{8} \frac{\hbar^3 \rho}{\pi m_p}$$

fully ionized

$$n_e = n_p = n = \frac{\rho}{m_p}$$

• critical temperature when

$$E_F \approx E_{\text{thermal}}$$

$$\frac{p_F^2}{2m_e} \approx kT$$

$$kT \approx \left( \frac{3h^3}{8\pi m_p} \right)^{2/3} \frac{1}{2m_e} \rho^{2/3}$$

critical temp:

$$T_c \approx 3 \cdot 10^5 K \left( \frac{\rho}{1g/cm^3} \right)^{2/3}$$
recall for hydrostatic balance:

\[ T_c \approx 2 \cdot 10^6 K \left( \frac{M}{1 M_\odot} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{\rho}{1 g/cm^3} \right)^{1/3} \]

- so star contracts until either degeneracy is reached, or nuclear burning occurs:

Figure 13.1: non-degenerate/degenerate EOS. [for more details see Iben, 1985]
Stars with initial mass below $\approx 10 \, M_\odot$ will turn into white dwarfs after heavy mass loss.

low-mass stars develop $e^-$-degeneracy core before He burning starts
(He burning then may occur in degenerate phase)

low-to intermediate-mass stars can burn He and develop $e^-$-degenerate core made of carbon and oxygen (C,O core)
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

- recall evolution ON main sequence:
  for $M \gtrsim 1 \text{M}_\odot$: CNO cycle produces energy
  
  $$L \propto M^3 \mu^4$$

  as H burns into He, the mean molecular weight $\mu$ increases, as $M \approx$ constant
  
  $$\mu \uparrow \Rightarrow L \uparrow$$

  because $L_{\text{CNO}} \propto T^{20}$, the central temperature increase only slightly to match the growing demand in luminosity

  $$T \approx \text{constant}$$

- evolution OFF main sequence:
  as H is depleted, star contracts and heats up, further evolution again mass dependent
  - low masses: $e^-$-degeneracy kicks in before onset of He burning
  - intermediate masses: He burning
  - higher masses: C/O burning
  - up to Fe and SN
- post main-sequence evolution is very diverse, depending on initial stellar mass:

\[ \text{Figure 13.3: Paths in H-R diagram for metal-rich stars. [Iben, 1967, Figure 3]} \]
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

– phase 1-2:
corresponds to He burning phase = main sequence
– phase 2-3:
rapid phase: contraction of stellar core as H is rapidly depleted
– phase 3-6:
correspond to RED GIANT BRANCH:
* continuous expansion of envelop
* reddening of surface to cooler temperatures

13.2 Lower-MS Stars

example: 2.25 M⊙ star Iben [1985]

• core completely convective → is always well mixed
  → H burning stops when
  \( \approx 0.2 \, M_{\odot} \) He has been produced.

• now: He core contracts:
  ← \( T_c \) increases and H ignites in SHELL around core
  ← Star moves up red giant branch.

• He flash ignites (off center)
  – this is an almost explosive event (He ignition under electron degenerate conditions)
  – released energy goes into heat \( T \) increases, but because of \( e^- \)-degeneracy the pressure is not increased!
    ← star cannot cool by expansion!
  – as \( T \) increases rapidly, the energy production in \( 3\alpha \) process increases dramatically (eventually the outer convective zone depends and begins to transport away the energy released) \(^1\)
    – He core burns quietly. star expands dramatically (and reddens) \(^2\)
    – Red giant phase

• while He burns (quietly) in core C and O build up and eventually He burning ceases.
  → He shell burning still continues

\(^1\) also He is transported outwards
← first dredge up
\(^2\) also H burning shell expands → gets cooler
← \( L \) decreases!
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

- **Asymptotic Giant BRANCH** (He shell dominates)
  - there is the possibility for He shell flashes (and additional dredge ups)
    and for higher mass objects: thermal pulses that can revitalize H burning outer shells.
  - now heavy mass loss in post-AGB phase (line driven winds)
    ↪ formation of planetary nebulae
    ↪ remnant $\approx 0.6 \, M_\odot$ CO white dwarf

![Image](figure13-4.png)  
**Figure 13.4:**

![Image](figure13-5.png)  
**Figure 13.5:**
• very similar: Evolution of $1 \text{M}_\odot$ star

**Figure 13.6:** Evolution of $1 \text{M}_\odot$ star. [Carroll and Ostlie, 2006, Chapter 13]
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

Figure 13.7: Evolutionary tracks in the Hertzsprung-Russell diagram for model stars of mass $2.25 \, M_\odot$ and $3 \, M_\odot$. [see Iben, 1985, Figure 1]
Figure 13.8: Evolution of 5 M\(_{\odot}\) star.

[after Iben, 1985, Figure 3], [see also Carroll and Ostlie, 2006, Figure 13.5]

- similar to the 1 M\(_{\odot}\) star, but now a well-established **HORIZONTAL BRANCH** phase occurs.
The HB occurs when He **burns** in the core which becomes **convective** (no longer $e^{-}$-degenerate).

HB is the analog to the fully convective CNO H-burning cores of upper-main sequence stars.
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

- when the evolution of the star reaches the blue-ward point of the HD, then $\mu$ has changed (dominated by C and O) so that the core needs to contract again to produce required luminosity
  $\leftarrow$ envelope expands and cools
  $\rightarrow$ star moves red-wards.

- in red part of HB core helium is exhausted.
  $\leftarrow$ core contracts (just like in sub giant phase: SGB)
  $\leftarrow$ as stars more through HB, instabilities and pulsation may occur.

- then the (early) AGB comes, where the luminosity is generated by He shell burning (similar to H shell burning at RGB)

- intermediate-mass stars then may go through thermal pulses: narrow He shell may turn and off:
  - as star contracts, dormant H shell wakes up.
  - H shell produces He ashes that rain down on He shell.
  - as mass of He shell increases it may become slightly degenerate.
  - then, when the temperature at the base of the shell increases sufficiently, He may ignite again and a He flash occurs
    (analogous to the earlier He flash of low-mass stars).
  - eventually He burning ceases and H burning recovers and the process repeats.

Figure 13.10: Eye fit to data. The fit is similar to the $5 \, M_\odot$. [see Iben, 1985, Figure 4]
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

- structure of star during RGB, shortly after H-burning shell ignited.

\[
\begin{align*}
L_* &= 1130 L_\odot \\
T_e &= 16,900 \, K
\end{align*}
\]

\[R_* = 3.94 R_\odot\]

H, He envelope

H-burning shell

He core

0.12 \(R_*\)

0.06 \(R_*\)

- structure of star during He flash

\[
\begin{align*}
L_* &= 1940 L_\odot \\
T_e &= 5770 \, K
\end{align*}
\]

\[R_* = 44.1 R_\odot\]

H, He envelope

H-burning shell

He

He-burning shell

CO core

0.0056 \(R_*\)

0.0029 \(R_*\)

0.0009 \(R_*\)

0.0008 \(R_*\)

[Carroll and Ostlie, 2006, Chapter 13]
- thermal pulses at end of AGB phase:

![Figure 13.11: Time dependence of luminosity and bolometric magnitude during the thermally pulsing phase for a model of mass 0.6 M_⊙. [see Iben, 1982, Figure 2]](image)

- during He flashes, a convection zone occurs between He and H burning shell; this zone may merge with the convection zone of the envelope
  → carbon may be mixed up all the way to the stellar surface
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

• this is the “third dredge up” which leads to carbon-rich giants (C spectral type)

![Evolutionary track in the H-R diagram of an 0.6 M⊙ model with a carbon-oxygen core.][1]

Figure 13.12: Evolutionary track in the H-R diagram of an 0.6 M⊙ model with a carbon-oxygen core. [after Iben, 1985, Fig. 16], [see also Carroll and Ostlie, 2006]

• AGB stars are know to lose mass at high rate (up to $\dot{M} = 10^{-4} M_\odot/yr$)
  $T_{surface} \approx 300$ K they are quite cool
  $\rightarrow$ dust can form
  – silicates in O-rich environment
  – graphite in C-rich stars

• this dust may couple to radiation and this radiation may drive the large mass loss.
  (not well understand, maybe thermal pulses)

• as the envelope expands, it eventually becomes optical thin.
  thus exposing the central star, which typically shows spectrum of F-type or G-type super-giant.
  the evolutionary track moves more or less horizontally to the blue

• eventual expelled envelope + central white dwarf make up a planetary nebula (PN)

---

[1]: https://example.com/figure1312.png
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

13.3 Post main sequence evolution of very-massive stars

- stars initially more massive than \( \sim 8 \ldots 10 \, M_\odot \) end their lives in supernova explosions.

- before that, they go through several higher-element nuclear burning phases and several mass-loss phases.
  
  - **luminous blue variables** (LBVs)
    
    * have surface temperatures, luminosities and masses
      
      \[
      T \approx 15,000 \text{ K} - 30,000 \text{ K} \\
      L \gtrsim 10^6 \, L_\odot \\
      M \gtrsim 85 \, M_\odot
      \]
      
      \( \rightarrow \) sit in upper left of H-R diagram.
    
    * these stars have huge mass loss rates and they are rapid rotators.
  
  - **Wolf-Rayet stars** (WR)
    
    * are closely related to LBVs
    
    * there are \( \sim 1000 - 2000 \) WRs in the Galaxy
    
    * have \( T_{\text{eff}} \approx 25,000 \text{ K} - 100,000 \text{ K} \) and show very strong emission lines
    
    * have huge mass loss rate \( 10^{-5} \, M_\odot/\text{yr} \) with wind speeds \( \gtrsim 800 \text{ km/s} \)
    
    * have masses \( \gtrsim 20 \, M_\odot \)
    
    * three classes:
      
      WC have emission lines of C and He (no N & H)
      
      WN have N and He
      
      WO have strong O-lines
  
  - there are also **blue super-giants** (BSG), **red super-giants** (RSG), and **OF stars** (O super-giants with pronounced emission lines)

- the general evolutionary sequence is as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
10 & < M/\,M_\odot < 20 : & O \rightarrow RSG \rightarrow BSG \rightarrow \text{SN} \\
20 & < M/\,M_\odot < 25 : & O \rightarrow RSG \rightarrow WN \rightarrow \text{SN} \\
25 & < M/\,M_\odot < 40 : & O \rightarrow RSG \rightarrow WN \rightarrow WC \rightarrow \text{SN} \\
40 & < M/\,M_\odot < 85 : & O \rightarrow Of \rightarrow WN \rightarrow WC \rightarrow \text{SN} \\
85 & < M/\,M_\odot : & O \rightarrow Of \rightarrow LBV \rightarrow WN \rightarrow WC \rightarrow \text{SN}
\end{align*}
\]
• supernovae
  – supernovae describe the explosive, sudden mass loss (very-)massive stars experience at the end of their lives.
  – there are two classes of SN
    Type I: no hydrogen lines
    Type II: strong H lines

Type I's are sub-classified according to other spectral features:
  Type Ia: strong Si II line (615 nm)
  Type Ib: strong He I line
  Type Ic: no He I line

![Diagram of supernova types](image)

Figure 13.13:
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

Figure 13.14: Type I SN (blue light curve)

Figure 13.15: Type II-P SN (blue light curve)

Figure 13.16: Type II-L SN (blue light curve)
13 Evolution off the Main Sequence

- a typical Type II SN releases $10^{53}$ erg energy:
  - $\sim 99\%$ in neutrinos
  - $\sim 1\%$ in kinetic energy of ejecta (similar values for Type Ib and Ic)
  - $\sim 0.01\%$ in radiation

- Type II, Ib and Ic are core collapse supernovae
  Type Ia occur in binary system, when mass transfer onto white dwarf causes ignition of degenerate He and sends a shock wave into CO core which ignites carbon and oxygen burning as well.
  The WD gets completely disrupted, leaving the binary companion “alone”.

- core collapse SN:
  this type of SN occurs in shell-burning massive stars.
  He-shell adds C and O ashes to CO core, as the core continues to contract (not degenerate!) it ignites C burning, generating elements like
  \[ ^{16}O, ^{20}Ne, ^{23}Na, ^{23}Mg, ^{24}Mg \]
  this triggers a variety of further burning processes:
  Ne-O core will burn to Si.
  \[ ^{28}Si + \frac{4}{2}He \rightleftharpoons ^{32}S + \gamma \]
  \[ ^{32}S + \frac{4}{2}He \rightleftharpoons ^{36}Ar + \gamma \]
  \[ ^{52}Cr + \frac{4}{2}He \rightleftharpoons ^{56}Ni + \gamma \]
  eventually an iron-rich core builds up

- at very high temperatures in the core photo-disintegration of heavy elements occurs:
  \[ ^{56}Fe + \gamma \longrightarrow 13\frac{4}{2}He + 4n \]
  \[ \frac{4}{2}He + \gamma \longrightarrow 2p^+ + 2\nu \]
  \( (T_c \approx 8 \cdot 10^9 \text{ K} \& \rho_c \approx 10^{10} \text{ g cm}^{-3}) \)
  now, the free electrons that had assisted in supporting the star against further collapse (by degeneracy pressure) are captured by protons:
  \[ p^+ + e^- \rightarrow n + \nu_e \]
  there is a gigantic burst of neutrino emission, the neutrino luminosity is orders of magnitude larger than nuclear burning luminosity.
  $\leftarrow$ degeneracy pressure is gone + enormous energy loss by $\nu_e$ emission.
  $\leftarrow$ core collapse extremely rapidly.
depending on mass a **neutron star** remnant builds up in center
(for stars with $M_{ZAMS} \lesssim 25 \, M_\odot$)
$\rightarrow$ reverse shock expels outer layers
for stars with $M_{ZAMS} \gtrsim 25 \, M_\odot$, the remnant is too heavy and cannot be stabilized
by n degeneracy $\rightarrow$ collapse to **black hole**!
still a reverse shock expels material just like with neutron star.

- the energy in the light curve comes from **radioactive decay** of expelled material:

\[
\begin{align*}
^{56}_{28}\text{Ni} & \rightarrow \, ^{56}_{28}\text{Co} + e^+ + \nu_e + \gamma \quad (\tau = 6.1 \text{ days}) \\
^{56}_{27}\text{Co} & \rightarrow \, ^{56}_{26}\text{Fe} + e^+ + \nu_e + \gamma \quad (\tau = 77.7 \text{ days})
\end{align*}
\]
• typical light curve:

Figure 13.18:
summary of post-main sequence evolution:

Figure 13.19: Tracks in the HR diagram of a representative selection of stars. [see Iben, 1985, Figure 15]


Bibliography


# List of Figures

1.1 ................................................................. 3

4.1 ................................................................. 12

7.1 The analytic solution to the Lane-Emden equation .................. 21
7.2 Mass-Radius relationship for white dwarfs ......................... 24

9.1 ................................................................. 37
9.2 p-p interaction .................................................. 39
9.3 ................................................................. 43
9.4 ................................................................. 48

10.1 Plot of average equatorial velocity for different stellar populations. 51

12.1 ................................................................. 65
12.2 ................................................................. 67
12.3 ................................................................. 67
12.4 Density vs. radius ............................................... 72
12.5 Accretion rate ................................................... 72
12.6 Absolute value of the accretion rate ................................ 72
12.7 Volume-density profiles ......................................... 73
12.8 Inward radial velocity profiles .................................. 73
12.9 Accretion rate ................................................... 73
12.10 Effects of EOS: from Bodenheimer 1980 (**)) ...................... 74
12.11 Evolution of the high-beta case with the SPH code. ............ 75

13.1 non-degenerate/degenerate EOS. ................................ 77
13.2 [Iben, 1985, Figure 2] .......................................... 78
13.3 Paths in H-R diagram for metal-rich stars. ....................... 80
13.4 ................................................................. 82
13.5 ................................................................. 82
13.6 Evolution of 1 M\(_\odot\) star .................................... 83
13.7 Evolutionary tracks in the Hertzsprung-Russell diagram for model stars of mass 2.25 M\(_\odot\) and 3 M\(_\odot\). .......................... 84
13.8 Evolution of 5 M\(_\odot\) star .................................... 85
13.9 [Carroll and Ostlie, 2006, Chapter 13] ............................ 86
13.10 Eye fit to data. The fit is similar to the 5 M\(_\odot\). ............. 87
13.11 Time dependence of luminosity and bolometric magnitude during the thermally pulsing phase for a model of mass $0.6 \, M_\odot$.

13.12 Evolutionary track in the H-R diagram of an $0.6 \, M_\odot$ model with a carbon-oxygen core.

13.13

13.14 Type I SN (blue light curve).

13.15 Type II-P SN (blue light curve).

13.16 Type II-L SN (blue light curve).

13.17

13.18

13.19 Tracks in the HR diagram of a representative selection of stars.