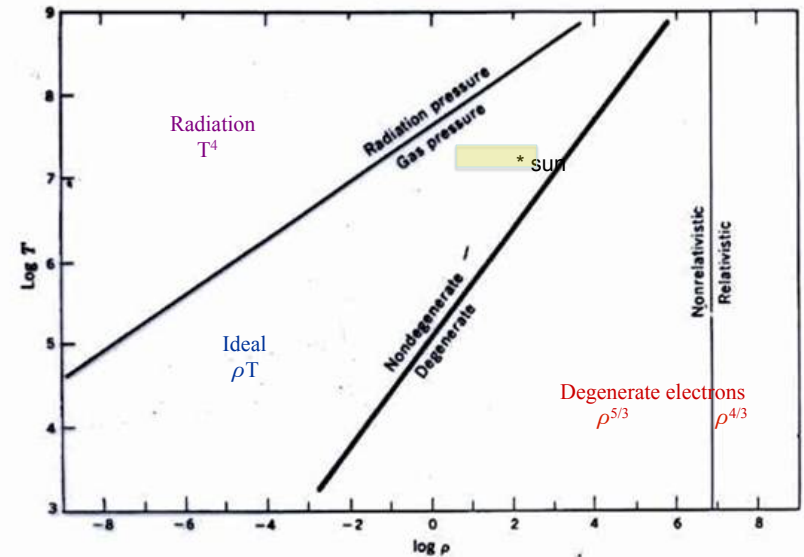
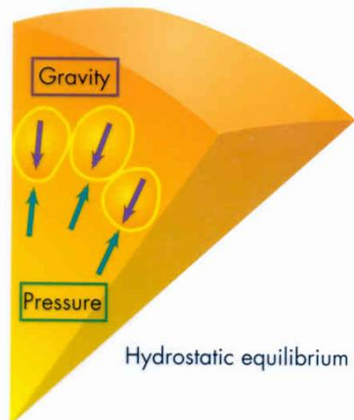


Stellar Interiors - Hydrostatic Equilibrium and Ignition on the Main Sequence

<http://apod.nasa.gov/apod/astropix.html>



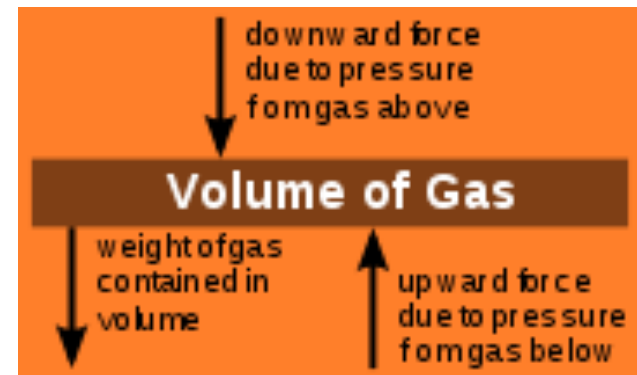
Inside a star the weight of the matter is supported by a *gradient* in the pressure. If the pressure on the top and bottom of a layer were exactly the same, the layer would fall because of its weight.



The difference between pressure times area on the top and the bottom balances the weight

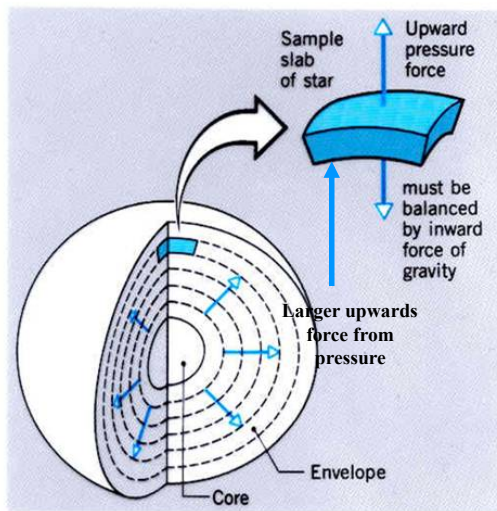
HYDROSTATIC EQUILIBRIUM

forces must balance if nothing is to move



E.g. the earth's atmosphere or a swimming pool

Hydrostatic Equilibrium

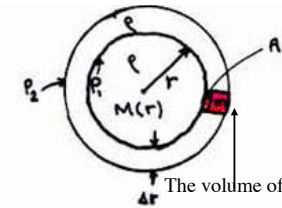


The balance of gas pressure and gravity in a star.

$$\Delta P = P_1 - P_2$$

$$\text{Force up} = P_1 A - P_2 A$$

$$\text{Force down} = \frac{GM(r)m}{r^2}$$



The volume of the red solid is its area, A , times its thickness, Δr . For example, for a cylinder $A = \pi a^2$ where a is the radius of the cylinder and the volume is $V = \pi a^2 \Delta r$

$$\Delta P \cdot A = - \left(\frac{GM(r)}{r^2} \right) (\rho A \Delta r)$$

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta r} = - \frac{GM(r)\rho}{r^2}$$

or more properly

For all kinds of gases – ideal, degenerate, whatever.

If $M(r)$ is the mass *interior* to radius r and $\rho(r)$ is the density at r

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = - \frac{GM(r)\rho(r)}{r^2}$$

For a sphere of constant density, $M(r) = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \rho$ and one may integrate this equation to obtain

$$P_{\text{central}} = \frac{GM\rho}{2R}$$

This (top) equation is one of the fundamental equations of stellar structure. It is called the “equation of hydrostatic equilibrium”. Whenever dP/dr differs from this value, matter moves.

Proof

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = - \frac{GM(r)\rho(r)}{r^2}$$

Assume density is constant $M(r) = \frac{4\pi r^3 \rho_o}{3}$

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{-G\rho_o^2 4\pi r^3}{3r^2}$$

$$\int_{P_c}^0 dP = \frac{-4\pi G\rho_o^2}{3} \int_0^R dr$$

$$P_{\text{central}} = \frac{4\pi G\rho_o^2}{3} \frac{R^2}{2}$$

$$P_{\text{central}} = \frac{G\rho_o}{2R} \frac{4\pi R^3 \rho_o}{3} = \frac{GM\rho_o}{2R}$$

Note implications for central temperature. If an ideal gas, 75% H and 25% He, fully ionized

$$P_c = 1.69 \rho N_A k T_c = \frac{GM\rho}{2R} \quad \text{for a sphere of constant density}$$

or

$$T_c = \frac{GM}{3.38 N_A k R}$$

For example, for the sun (not really constant in density), so answer is an underestimate

$$T_c \approx \frac{(6.67 \times 10^{-8})(2.00 \times 10^{33})}{(3.38)(6.02 \times 10^{23})(1.38 \times 10^{-16})(6.96 \times 10^{10})}$$

$$= 6.8 \times 10^6 \text{ K} \quad 1.69 \rightarrow 1.19$$

off by a factor of 2; using 25% H would help. $6.8 \rightarrow 9.7$

Ignition happens when the nuclear energy generation rate becomes comparable to the luminosity of the contracting proto-star. As we shall see shortly, nuclear burning rates are very sensitive to the temperature. Almost all main sequence stars burn hydrogen in their middles at temperatures between 1 and 3×10^7 K. (The larger stars are hotter in their centers). If ϵ_{nuc} is the equation for the energy release per second in a gram of matter because of nuclear reactions

$$\epsilon_{nuc} \propto T^n \quad n \gg 1$$

on the main sequence $n \approx 4$ to 16

$$T_c \propto \frac{M}{R}$$

For stars supported by ideal gas pressure and near uniform structure (not red giants)

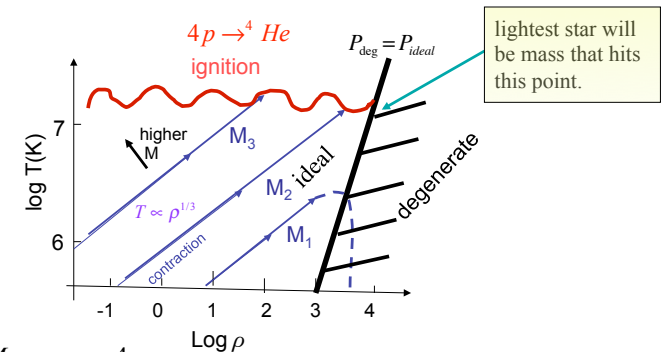
Note that as the radius gets smaller, the central temperature *increases*.

What is the time scale for this increase (if gravity is the only source of power)?

$$\tau_{KH} = \frac{3GM^2}{10RL}$$

which is ~ 10 million years for the sun.

(20 - 30 My is more accurate)



$$T \propto \frac{M}{R} \quad M \sim \frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 \rho$$

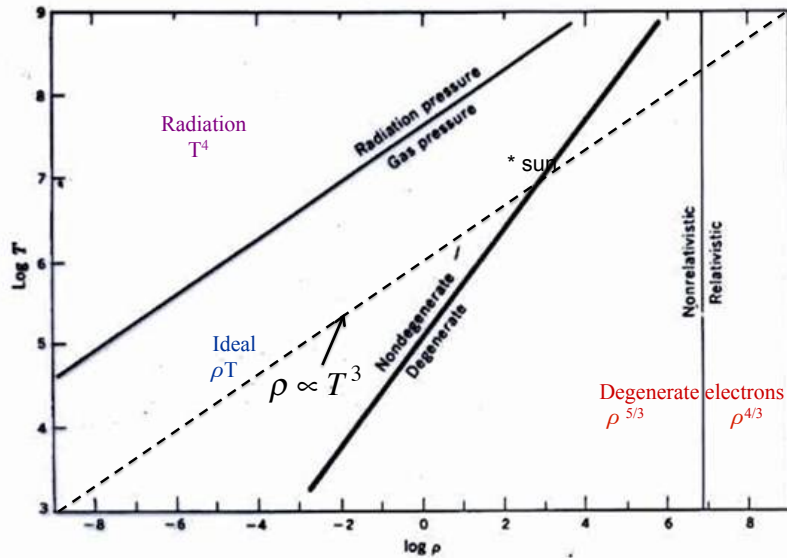
$$\Rightarrow R \propto \left(\frac{M}{\rho} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$T \propto \frac{M\rho^{1/3}}{M^{1/3}}$$

$$T \propto M^{2/3} \rho^{1/3}$$

$T \propto \rho^{1/3}$ for a given M and
T at a given ρ is higher
for bigger M

This gives the blue lines in the plot



Combining terms we have

$$3.2 \times 10^{18} \approx \frac{(G M \rho)(4\pi\rho)^{1/3}}{2(3M)^{1/3}}$$

$$M^{2/3} \approx \frac{2(3.2 \times 10^{18})(3^{1/3})}{G \rho^{4/3}(4\pi)^{1/3}}$$

and using again $\rho \approx 2300 \text{ gm cm}^{-3}$

$$M \approx 8.7 \times 10^{31} \text{ gm}$$

or 0.044 solar masses.

For constant density

$$P = \left(\frac{GM\rho}{2R} \right)$$

$$R = \left(\frac{3M}{4\pi\rho} \right)^{1/3}$$

A more detailed calculation gives **0.08 solar masses.**

Protostars lighter than this can never ignite nuclear reactions.

They are known as brown dwarfs (or planets if the mass is

less than 13 Jupiter masses, or about 0.01 solar masses.

[above 13 Jupiter masses, some minor nuclear reactions occur that do not provide much energy - "deuterium burning"]

Minimum Mass Star

Solve for condition that ideal gas pressure and degeneracy pressure are equal at 10^7 K .

$$P_{\text{deg}} \approx P_{\text{ideal}}$$

$$1.69 \rho N_A k T \approx 1.00 \times 10^{13} (\rho Y_e)^{5/3} \quad (\text{assuming 75\% H, 25\% He by mass})$$

At 10^7 K , this becomes

$$1.40 \times 10^8 \rho (10^7) \approx 8.00 \times 10^{12} \rho^{5/3} \quad (\text{taking } Y_e = 0.875)$$

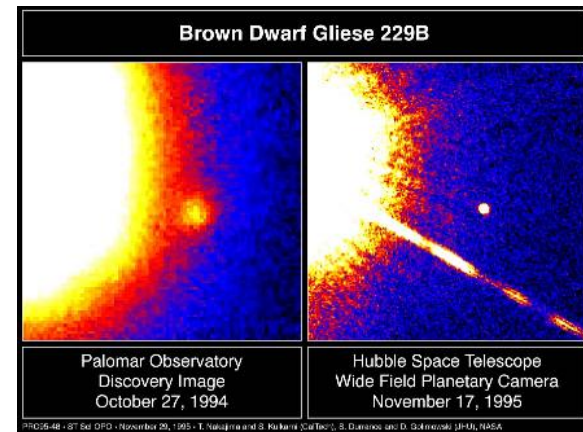
which may be solved for the density to get $\rho \approx 2300 \text{ gm cm}^{-3}$

The total pressure at this point is

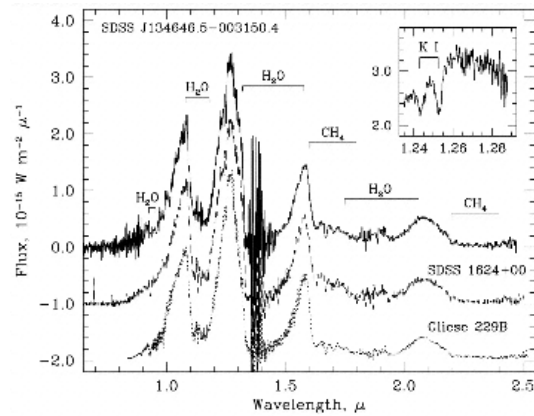
$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{tot}} &\approx \frac{1}{2}(P_{\text{deg}} + P_{\text{ideal}}) \approx \frac{1}{2}(2P_{\text{ideal}}) \approx P_{\text{ideal}} \\ &\approx 1.40 \times 10^8 (2300)(10^7) \approx 3.2 \times 10^{18} \text{ dyne cm}^{-2} \\ &= \left(\frac{GM\rho}{2R} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{But } R = \left(\frac{3M}{4\pi\rho} \right)^{1/3} \quad \text{i.e., } \rho = \frac{M}{4/3 \pi R^3}$$

Brown Dwarfs - heavier than a planet (13 M_{Jupiter}) and lighter than a star



14 light years away in the constellation Lepus orbiting the low mass red star Gliese 229 is the brown dwarf Gliese 229B. It has a distance comparable to the orbit of Pluto but a mass of 20-50 times that of Jupiter. Actually resolved with the 60" Palomar telescope in 1995 using adaptive optics.



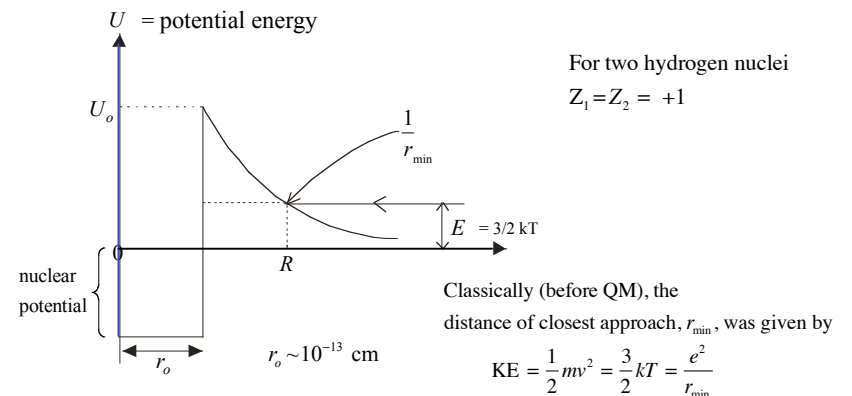
Spectrum of Gliese 229B

Nuclear Fusion Reactions

Main Sequence Evolution (i.e., Hydrogen burning)

The basis of energy generation by nuclear fusion is that two ions come together with sufficient collisional energy to get close enough to experience the strong force. This force has a range $\sim 10^{-13} \text{ cm}$, i.e., about 1/100,000 the size of the hydrogen atom. Beyond this short range, it is zero.

- Before 2 protons can come close enough to form a bound state, they have to overcome their electrical repulsion.



Low temperature:
small speeds



High temperature:
large speeds



$$\frac{3}{2} kT = \frac{e^2}{r_{\min}} \Rightarrow r_{\min} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2}{kT}$$

At 10^7 K this gives $r \sim 10^{-10}$ cm, i.e., far too distant for the strong force to have any effect or for a nuclear reaction to occur

The range of the nuclear force is about 10^{-13} cm

Two solutions to this quandry

- Use protons far out on tail of velocity distribution (~ 10 k T)
- Quantum mechanical barrier penetration

$$\exp(x) \equiv e^x$$

$$e = 2.71828...$$

$$P_0 \propto \exp(-4\pi e^2 / (h v))$$

is the probability that two protons with center of mass velocity v approach to zero separation. Note that if either v or h goes to zero, this probability is zero, but for finite values of both, it is non-zero.

QM Barrier Penetration

The *classical turning radius* is given by

energy conservation

$$\frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{3}{2} kT = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r} \Rightarrow r_{\text{turning}} = \frac{2 Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{m v^2} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{kT}$$

The De Broglie wavelength of the particle with mass m is,

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{m v}$$

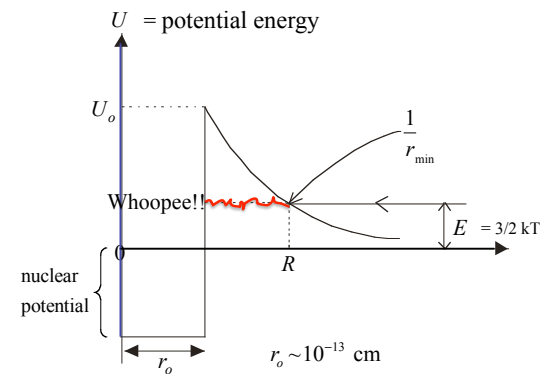
So the ratio

$$\frac{r_{\text{turning}}}{\lambda} = \frac{2 Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{3 m v^2} \frac{m v}{h} = \frac{2 Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{3 h v} \quad v \propto \sqrt{T}$$

Which is approximately the factor in the penetration function

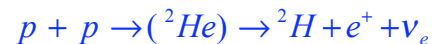
$$P \sim \exp(-r_{\text{turning}} / \lambda) \propto \exp\left(\frac{-\text{const } Z_1 Z_2}{\sqrt{T}}\right) \quad \text{note: } r_{\text{turning}} \gg \lambda$$

Note that as the charges become big or T gets small, P gets very small.



But when two protons do get close enough to (briefly) feel the strong force, they almost always end up flying apart again. The nuclear force is strong but the “diproton”, ${}^2\text{He}$, is not sufficiently bound to be stable.

One must also have, while the protons are briefly together, a **weak** interaction.



That is, a proton turns into a neutron, a positron, and a neutrino. The nucleus ${}^2\text{H}$, deuterium, is permanently bound.

The rate of hydrogen burning in the sun is thus quite slow because:

- The protons that fuse are rare, only the ones with about ten times the average thermal energy
- Even these rare protons must penetrate a barrier to go from 10^{-10} cm to 10^{-13} cm and the probability of doing that is exponentially small
- Even the protons that do get together generally fly apart unless a weak interaction occurs turning one to a neutron while they are briefly together

and that is all quite good because if two protons fused every time they ran into each other, the sun would explode.

Proton-proton fusion chain process

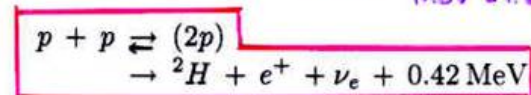


1st step: In two separate reactions, 2 protons in each reaction fuse

THE PP 1 CYCLE

Bethe 1939
(Nobel 1967)

MeV = 1.602×10^{-6} erg

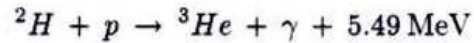


nb. strong and weak interaction

where $1 \text{ MeV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-6} \text{ erg}$ and the energy comes off in the form of radiation and the kinetic energy of the products.

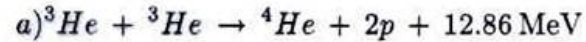
In shorthand this can also be written $p(p, e^+ \nu) {}^2\text{H}$.

So now we have protons, ^4He , and ^2H . Next



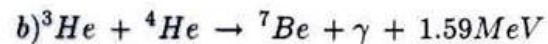
no weak interaction needed,
very fast

or $^2\text{H}(p,\gamma)^3\text{He}$. This may be followed by either

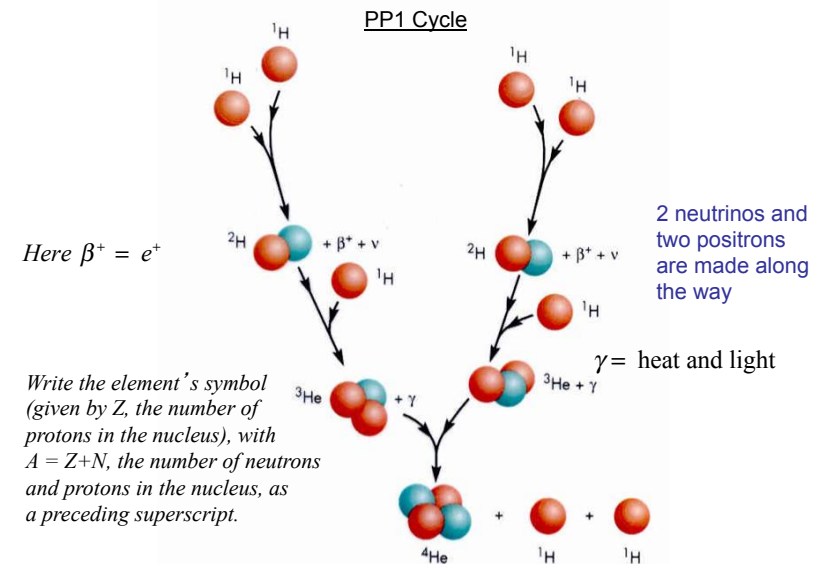


pp1

or ^4Li is unbound



pp2,3



Lifetimes against various reactions

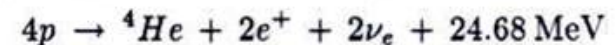
Reaction	Lifetime (years)
$^1\text{H}(p,e^+\nu)^2\text{H}$	7.9×10^9
$^2\text{H}(p,\gamma)^3\text{He}$	4.4×10^{-8}
$^3\text{He}(^3\text{He},2p)^4\text{He}$	2.4×10^5
$^3\text{He}(^4\text{He},\gamma)^7\text{B}$	9.7×10^5

For 50% H, 50% He at a density of 100 g cm^{-3} and a temperature of 15 million K

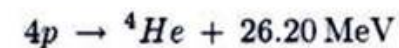
The time between proton collisions, for a given proton, is about a hundred millionth of a second.

or in shorthand $^3\text{He}(^3\text{He},2p)^4\text{He}$ or $^3\text{He}(\alpha,\gamma)^7\text{Be}$. In the sun the former is much more likely than the latter.

Neglecting for now reaction b), the total effect is



The neutrinos carry away 0.26 MeV (on the average each) and are lost (more about these later). The positrons annihilate with two electrons to give an additional $2 \times 0.511 \text{ MeV} \times 2 = 2.04 \text{ MeV}$. Thus



$$\text{i.e. } 24.68 + 2.04 - 0.52 = 26.20$$

How many ergs per gram is this?

$$Q_{pp} = (26.20)(1.602 \times 10^{-6})(6.02 \times 10^{23})/4$$

$$= 6.4 \times 10^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1} \quad \text{i.e. per gram of H burned}$$

Implication for the sun

$$\tau_{nuc} \approx \frac{(6.4 \times 10^{18})(1.99 \times 10^{33})(0.15)(0.70)}{(3.93 \times 10^{33})}$$

$$= 3.4 \times 10^{17} \text{ sec}$$

or 10.4 billion years!



H. A. Bethe (b 1906)
Nobel 1967

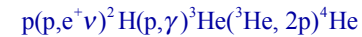
Nuclear reaction shorthand:

$I(j,k)L$

I = Target nucleus j = incident particle
 L = Product nucleus k = outgoing particle
 or particles

If there is no incident particle put the outgoing particles together without a comma

E.g., pp1



E.g., the main CNO cycle (later)



NUCLEAR REACTION RATES

Because of the exponential dependence of barrier penetration on energy and charge, the rates of nuclear fusion reactions are extremely temperature sensitive. It also obviously takes a higher temperature to fuse heavier isotopes that have larger charge.

For the pp 1 cycle

$$\epsilon_{pp} = 0.076 \rho X_H^2 (T_c/10^7)^4 \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

where X_H is the mass fraction of hydrogen.

Assume that the sun is hot enough to run the pp 1 cycle only in the inner 10% of its mass

$$\begin{aligned}
 L &\approx 0.1 M_{\odot} \epsilon_{pp} \\
 &\approx 7.4 \times 10^{30} \rho (T_c/10^7)^4 \\
 &\approx 7.4 \times 10^{30} (100)(1.5)^4 \\
 &\approx 3.7 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

$X_H \sim 0.7$
actually less

which is pretty close to correct

How much mass burned per second?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \dot{M} &= \frac{L_{\odot}}{q} = \frac{3.8 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1}}{6.4 \times 10^{18} \text{ erg gm}^{-1}} \\
 &= 5.9 \times 10^{14} \text{ gm s}^{-1} = 650 \text{ million tons per second}
 \end{aligned}$$

How much mass energy does the sun lose each year?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \dot{M} &= \frac{L_{\odot}}{c^2} = \frac{3.83 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg/s}}{(3.0 \times 10^{10})^2 \text{ erg/gm}} = 4.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ gm s}^{-1} \\
 &\text{or about } 7 \times 10^{-14} M_{\odot} \text{ per year}
 \end{aligned}$$

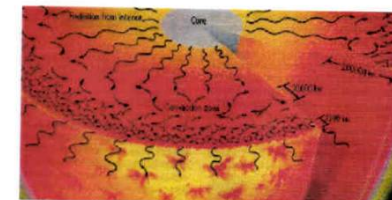
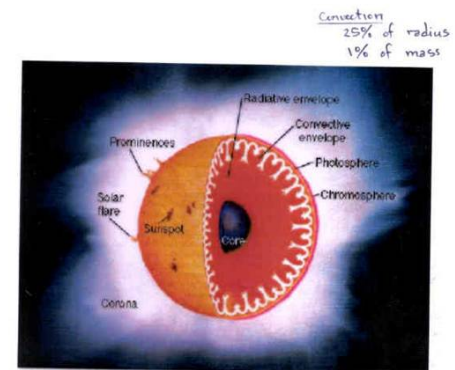
Now...

Radiative

Convective

Mass (M_{\odot})	Radius (R_{\odot})	Luminosity (L_{\odot})	Temperature (10^6 °K)	Density (g cm^{-3})
0.0000	0.000	0.0000	15.513	147.74
0.0001	0.010	0.0009	15.48	146.66
0.001	0.022	0.009	15.36	142.73
0.020	0.061	0.154	14.404	116.10
0.057	0.090	0.365	13.37	93.35
0.115	0.120	0.594	12.25	72.73
0.235	0.166	0.845	10.53	48.19
0.341	0.202	0.940	9.30	34.28
0.470	0.246	0.985	8.035	21.958
0.562	0.281	0.997	7.214	15.157
0.647	0.317	0.992	6.461	10.157
0.748	0.370	0.9996	5.531	5.566
0.854	0.453	1.000	4.426	2.259
0.951	0.611	1.000	2.981	0.4483
0.9809	0.7304	1.0000	2.035	0.1528
0.9964	0.882	1.0000	0.884	0.042
0.9999	0.965	1.0000	0.1818	0.00361
1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	0.005770	1.99×10^{-7}

*Adapted from Turck-Chièze et al. (1988).
Composition X = 0.7046, Y = 0.2757, Z = 0.0197



ENERGY TRANSPORT IN STELLAR INTERIORS

1) Diffusion of Radiation:

Light diffuses slowly out of the star

$$\tau_{\text{dif}} = \frac{R^2}{l_{\text{mfp}} c} \quad \text{i.e., } \tau_{\text{dif}} = \left(\frac{R}{l}\right)^2 \left(\frac{l}{c}\right)$$

$$l_{\text{mfp}} = \frac{1}{\kappa \rho} \quad \kappa \text{ is the "opacity" (cm}^2 \text{ gm}^{-1}\text{)}$$

2) Convection: <http://www.lcse.umn.edu/index.php?c=movies>

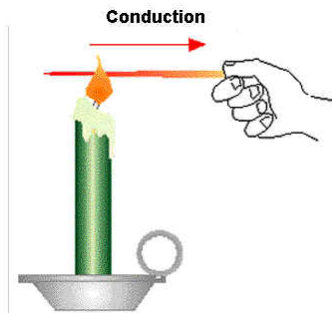
Mass moves, carrying energy with it.

Happens in regions where the temperature gradient or opacity is large.

3) Conduction:

Heat carried by electrons like in a metal.

Important in white dwarfs.



© 1990 Wadsworth Publishing Company/ITP

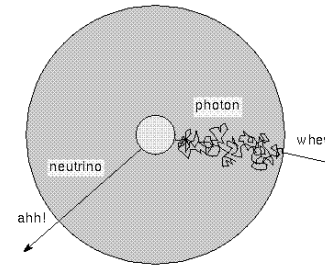
Diffusion time for the sun

On the average, $\rho \sim 1 \text{ gm cm}^{-3}$

$$\kappa \sim 10 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ gm}^{-1}$$

$$l \sim 1/\kappa \rho \approx 0.1 \text{ cm} \quad (\text{less in center, more farther out})$$

$$R = 6.96 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}$$



Photons take tortuous paths out of the Sun's interior. Neutrinos pass right on through in just two seconds.

$$\tau = \frac{R^2}{lc} = \frac{(6.96 \times 10^{10})^2}{(0.1)(3.0 \times 10^{10})} = 1.6 \times 10^{12} \text{ sec}$$

$$= 51,000 \text{ years}$$

Mitalas and Sills, ApJ, 401, 759 (1992) give 170,000 y. Eq above lacks factor of 3 and they say κ is $0.09 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$.

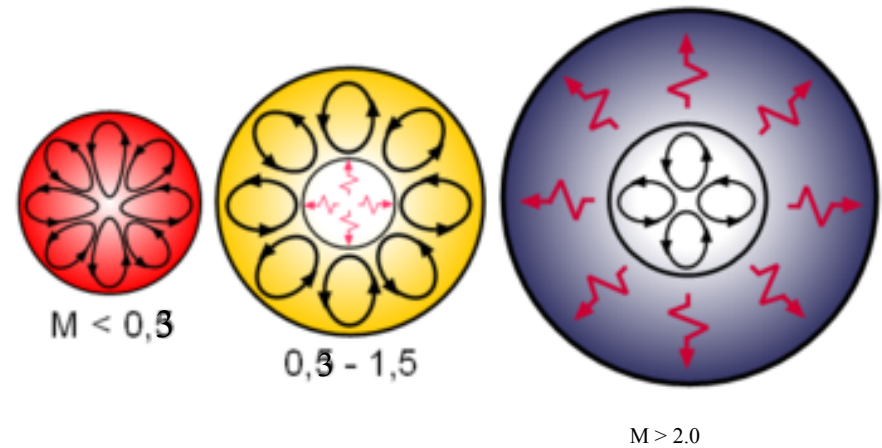
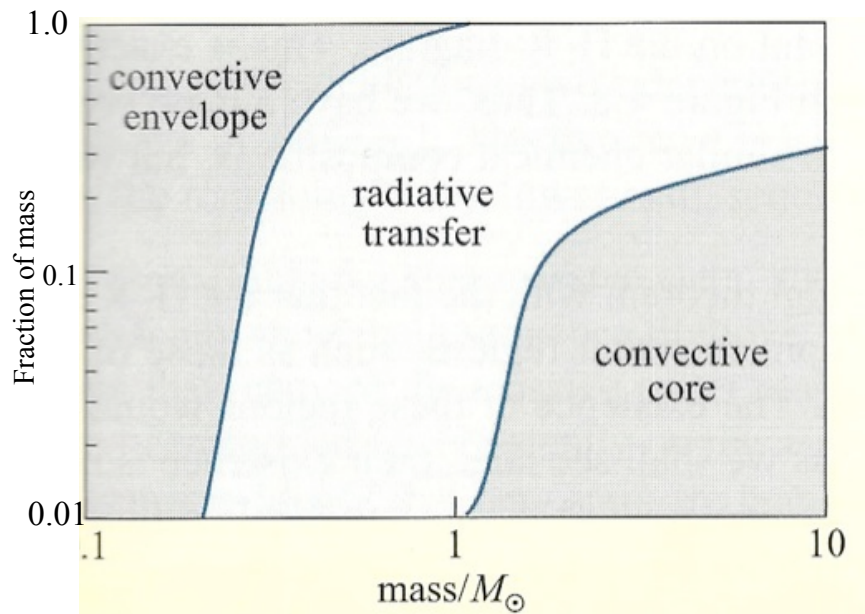
ON THE MAIN SEQUENCE

$\leq 0.30 M_{\odot}$ - Star completely convective

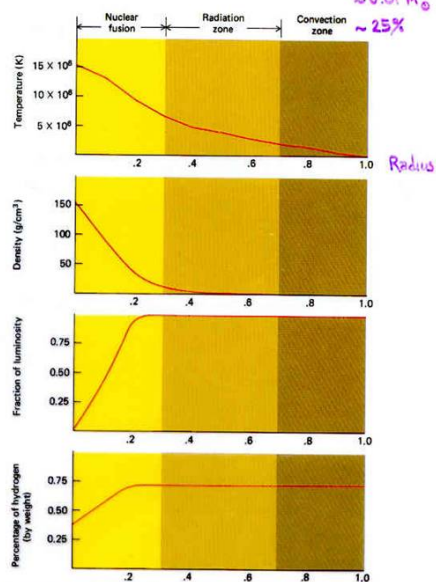
$1.0 M_{\odot}$ - Only outer layers convective

$1.5 M_{\odot}$ - Whole star radiative

$\geq 2.0 M_{\odot}$ - Surface stable; core convective



STRUCTURE OF THE SUN

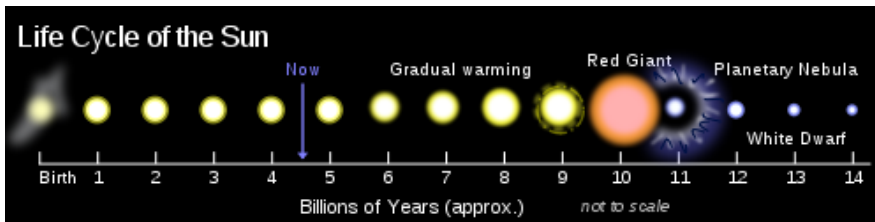


Time (10^9 years)	Luminosity (L_{\odot})	Radius (R_{\odot})	T_{central} (10^8 °K)
Past			
0	0.7688	0.872	13.35
0.143	0.7248	0.885	13.46
0.856	0.7621	0.902	13.68
1.863	0.8156	0.924	14.08
2.193	0.8352	0.932	14.22
3.020	0.8855	0.953	14.60
3.977	0.9522	0.981	15.12
Now			
4.587	1.000	1.000	15.51
Future			
5.506	1.079	1.035	16.18
6.074	1.133	1.059	16.65
6.577	1.186	1.082	17.13
7.027	1.238	1.105	17.62
7.728	1.318	1.143	18.42
8.258	1.399	1.180	18.74
8.7566	1.494	1.224	18.81
9.805	1.760	1.361	19.25

*Adapted from Turck-Chièze et al. (1988).
Composition $X = 0.7046$, $Y = 0.2757$, $Z = 0.0197$.
Present values are R_{\odot} and L_{\odot} .

**For time t before the present age $t_0 = 4.6 \times 10^9$ years,
 $L/L_{\odot} \approx 1/[1+0.4(1-t/t_0)]$

Red Giant



STELLAR STABILITY

$$P_{cent} \propto T$$

$$P_{cent} \sim \frac{GM\rho}{R} \Rightarrow T \propto \frac{1}{R}$$

$$\epsilon_{nuc} \propto T^n \quad (n \approx 4)$$

So if start to run reactions faster

$$\begin{aligned} T \uparrow &\Rightarrow \rho \uparrow \\ &\Rightarrow R \uparrow \quad \text{because an ideal gas expands when heated} \\ &\Rightarrow T \downarrow \Rightarrow \epsilon \downarrow \end{aligned}$$

Similarly if the rate of reactions declines for some reason,

$$\begin{aligned} T \downarrow &\Rightarrow \rho \downarrow \\ &\Rightarrow R \downarrow \\ &\Rightarrow T \uparrow \Rightarrow \epsilon \uparrow \end{aligned}$$

Thus a tight equilibrium is maintained

Important exception:
Degenerate matter

$$\tau_{nuc} \lesssim \tau_{diff}$$

Why is $L \propto M^3$ for main sequence stars?

$$\text{Luminosity} \approx \frac{\text{Heat content in radiation}}{\text{Time for heat to leak out}} = \frac{E_{\text{radiation}}}{\tau_{\text{diffusion}}}$$

*True even if star is not supported by P_{rad}
Note this is not the total heat content, just the radiation.*

$$E_{\text{radiation}} \approx \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 a T^4 \propto R^3 T^4 \propto \frac{R^3 M^4}{R^4} = \frac{M^4}{R}$$

$$\tau_{\text{diffusion}} \approx \frac{R^2}{l_{\text{mfp}} c} \quad l_{\text{mfp}} = \frac{1}{\kappa \rho} \quad \kappa \text{ is the "opacity" in cm}^2 \text{ gm}^{-1}$$

Assume κ is a constant

$$M \approx \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 \rho \Rightarrow \rho \approx \frac{3M}{4\pi R^3}$$

$$l_{\text{mfp}} \propto \frac{R^3}{M} \quad \tau_{\text{diffusion}} \propto \frac{R^2 M}{R^3} = \frac{M}{R}$$

$$L \propto \frac{M^4}{R} / \frac{M}{R} = M^3$$

Other powers of M possible when κ is not a constant but varies with temperature and density