

The following people have participated in creating these solutions: Nicolaas E. Groeneboom, Magnus Pedersen Lohne, Karl R. Leikanger *NOTE: There might be errors in the solution. If you find something which doesn't look right, please let me know.*

Partial solutions to problems: Lecture 13-14

Problem 1

1. Full range given in following answer
2. Full range given in following answer
3. Using the HR-diagram (figure 1 in the lecture notes), the luminosity of a $G0$ star ranges between 0.8 and 60 L_{sun} , but these numbers are all approximate. In the same range, the absolute magnitude M would be between 2 and 6.
4. Recall that it is possible to decide the distance r to a star from the difference between apparent (m) and absolute (M) magnitude:

$$M - m = -5 \log_{10}\left(\frac{r}{10pc}\right)$$

solving for r gives

$$r = 10pc \cdot 10^{\frac{m-M}{5}}$$

With an apparent magnitude $m = 1$, we find that the range of distance for a $G0$ star becomes

$$r_{min} = 10pc \cdot 10^{\frac{1-6}{5}} = 1pc$$

$$r_{max} = 10pc \cdot 10^{\frac{1-2}{5}} = 6pc$$

which isn't very accurate.

Problem 2

1. For small values of θ , the diameter is given as $D = d \cdot \theta = 200pc \cdot 3.5' \approx 0.2pc$. The radius is then $d = D/2 = 0.1pc$.
2. The volume of a sphere is given as $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$, so assuming a uniformly distributed mass density ρ we obtain

$$M = \rho \cdot V = 3 \cdot 10^{-17} kg/m^3 \cdot \frac{4}{3}\pi(0.1pc)^3 \approx 3.62 \cdot 10^{30} kg$$

which approximately is 1.8 solar masses.

- The mass of hydrogen is $m_h = 1.71 \cdot 10^{-27}$ kg, while the mean molecular weight is assumed to be $\mu = 1$ (that is, there are only hydrogen atoms in the cloud). The Jean mass is defined as

$$M_J = \left(\frac{5kT}{G\mu m_H} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi\rho} \right)^{1/2}$$

and describes the mass threshold for whether a molecular cloud will collapse to a more compact object ($M > M_J$) or not ($M < M_J$). Inserting the values (where $T=10K$), we obtain a Jeans mass of $M_J \approx 4.2 \cdot 10^{31}$ kg, or 21 solar masses. This is more than the result obtained in 13.2.2, so this cloud will not collapse (alone) and form a protostar.

- Recall that the condition for a cloud to collapse is that $2K < |U|$, where U is the potential energy and K kinetic energy. If a supernova in the vicinity contributes to compressing the gas, the gravitational attraction becomes stronger. This is because the mass density increases while the radius of the cloud decreases, thus U grows. But why would K on average not grow? Increasing the mass density should decrease the jeans mass ($M_J \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\rho}}$). It is therefore plausible that a supernova could contribute to the creation of protostars.
- See the last answer.
- The spiral shaped pressure wave will compress the gas at the tops of the wave and thus increase the probability for star birth in these areas.

Problem 3

- The volume V of a sphere as function of radius r is given as $V(r) = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$. The total mass is the mass density times the volume, so

$$M(r) = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \rho$$

if we assume ρ to be constant.

- The hydrostatic equation reads

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho G \frac{M(r)}{r^2} = -\frac{4}{3}\pi G \rho^2 r$$

where the $M(r)$ from 13.3.1 was inserted. We start by fluffing around with differentials:

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{dP}{dr} \frac{dT}{dT} = \frac{dT}{dr} \frac{dP}{dT}$$

The pressure is given as $P = \rho kT/(\mu m_H)$. Then

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{dT}{dr} \frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{dT}{dr} \frac{d}{dT} \left(\frac{\rho kT}{\mu m_H} \right) = \frac{dT}{dr} \frac{\rho k}{\mu m_H}$$

Insert this expression into the hydrostatic equation and obtain

$$\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{4}{3}\pi G \rho r \frac{\mu m_H}{k} \quad (0.1)$$

3. We now integrate this solution from 0 to r . Letting

$$C = \pi G \frac{\mu m_H}{k}$$

equation 0.1 becomes

$$\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{4}{3}C\rho \cdot r$$

integrating with regards to r from 0 to R gives

$$T(R) - T_C = -\frac{4}{3}C\rho \cdot \int_0^R r = -\frac{2}{3}C\rho R^2$$

such that

$$T_C = \frac{2}{3}C\rho R^2 + T(R)$$

4. Assuming the Sun to be spherical with a homogeneous (homogeneous means that $\rho(\vec{x}) \equiv \rho_0$ is constant) density, the total mass is expressed as

$$M = V \cdot \rho = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \cdot \rho$$

solving for ρ

$$\rho = M \frac{3}{4\pi R^3} \approx 1.4 \cdot 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

We now use this ρ for estimating the core temperature of the sun:

$$T_C = T(R) + \frac{2}{3}R^2 \pi G \rho \frac{\mu m_H}{k} \approx 11.5 \text{ million K}$$

where $R = 700\,000\text{km}$, k the Boltzmann-constant, $\mu = 1$ (assuming only protons populate the sun), $T(R) \approx 0$ as the surface temperature is way lower than the core temperature, m_H is the proton mass and G the gravitational constant. The “real” temperature when accounting for varying density ρ is ~ 15 million K. Pretty hot, that is.

5. The pp -chain dominates as the core temperature $T_C < 20$ million K.

6. We already saw that

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

inserting into

$$T_C = \frac{2}{3} C \rho R^2 + T(R)$$

we find

$$T_C = \frac{2}{3} C R^2 M \frac{3}{4\pi R^3} \propto \frac{M}{R}$$

7. The temperature in the core T_C is proportional to

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

so if the temperature increases by a factor of 10, then for a constant mass M the radius has to be decreased by a factor 10.

8. This is a nice exercise, as one has to utilize all previous knowledge from this exercise. It is basically just a repetition of things already done, but with a different pressure P . Return to the fact that

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho \frac{GM}{r^2} = \frac{dP}{dT} \frac{dT}{dr} \quad (0.2)$$

where now $P = \frac{1}{3} a T^4$ is pure good old relativistic radiation pressure. Then

$$\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{4}{3} a T^3$$

inserting this back into 0.2 to obtain

$$\frac{dT}{dr} = -\rho \frac{GM}{r^2} \left(\frac{dP}{dT} \right)^{-1} = -\rho \frac{GM}{r^2} \frac{3}{4aT^3}$$

Separating the r and T on each side, we obtain a separable differential equation:

$$T^3 dT = -\rho GM \frac{3}{4a} \frac{1}{r^2} = -\frac{\pi G}{a} r \rho^2 dr$$

where we used that the mass $M = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \rho$. Integrating both sides gives

$$\int_{T_C}^{T(R)} T^3 dT = -\rho^2 \frac{\pi G}{a} \int_0^R r dr$$

such that

$$\frac{1}{4} (T_C^4 - T(R)^4) = \rho^2 \frac{\pi G}{2a} R^2$$

Solving for T_C alone gives

$$T_C^4 = T(R)^4 + \rho^2 \frac{2\pi G}{a} R^2$$

Take the 4th root on both sides, and Voilà! We're done.

Problem 4

1. We are now given a variable (and much more realistic) mass density of a star which is dependent on r and the radius R :

$$\rho(r) = \frac{\rho_C}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2}$$

The mass inside a spherical shell of radius r is given as $M = \int \rho \cdot dV$, where the volume element $dV = 4\pi r^2 dr$. Then

$$M(r) = \int_0^r \rho(r) 4\pi r^2 dr = 4\pi \int_0^r \frac{\rho_C r^2}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2} dr$$

Substituting $x = r/R$ gives $r = xR$ and $dr = Rdx$, such that

$$M(r) = 4\pi \int_0^x \frac{\rho_C x^2 R^2}{1 + x^2} R dx = 4\pi \rho_C R^3 \int_0^x \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} dx$$

Using the fact that

$$\int_0^x \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} dx = x - \arctan x$$

the mass is expressed as

$$M(r) = 4\pi \rho_C R^3 \left(\frac{r}{R} - \arctan \frac{r}{R} \right)$$

2. The hydrostatic equilibrium is expressed as

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho(r) \frac{GM}{r^2} = -4\pi \frac{\rho_C}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2} \rho_C R^3 \left(\frac{r}{R} - \arctan \frac{r}{R} \right) \frac{G}{r^2} \quad (0.3)$$

We use the ideal gas law $P = \rho(r)kT(r)/(\mu m_H)$, and take the derivative with respect to r . Then

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{T(r)\rho(r)k}{\mu m_h} \right)$$

Inserting this expression into 0.3 and move the constants μ, m_H and k to the right hand side yields

$$\frac{d}{dr} \left(\rho(r)T(r) \right) = -\frac{\mu m_H}{k} 4\pi \frac{\rho_C^2}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2} R^3 \left(\frac{r}{R} - \arctan \frac{r}{R} \right) \frac{G}{r^2}$$

puh.

3. This is again a separable differential equation, so we separate the r 's and the T 's on each side:

$$\rho(r)T(r) - \rho_C T_C = - \int_0^r \frac{\mu m_H}{k} 4\pi \frac{\rho_C^2}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2} R^3 \left(\frac{r}{R} - \arctan \frac{r}{R}\right) \frac{G}{r^2} dr$$

Ni-ice. Now move the constants outside the integral:

$$\rho(r)T(r) - \rho_C T_C = - \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C^2 4\pi R^3 G \right) \int_0^r \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2} \left(\frac{r}{R} - \arctan \frac{r}{R}\right) \frac{1}{r^2} dr$$

and use the same substitution as in exercise 13.4.1:

$$\rho(r)T(r) - \rho_C T_C = - \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C^2 4\pi R^2 G \right) \int_0^x \frac{1}{1 + x^2} (x - \arctan x) \frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

where one of the R 's in the denominator disappeared due to the change of variable. Including the $1/x^2$, we split the integral into two parts:

$$\rho(r)T(r) - \rho_C T_C = - \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C^2 4\pi R^2 G \right) \int_0^x \left(\frac{1}{(1 + x^2)x} - \frac{\arctan x}{(1 + x^2)x^2} \right) dx \quad (0.4)$$

4. We magically use that

$$\int_0^x \frac{1}{x(x^2 + 1)} dx = \ln x - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + 1)$$

and

$$\int_0^x \frac{\arctan x}{x^2(x^2 + 1)} dx = -\frac{1}{2}(\arctan x)^2 - \frac{1}{x} \arctan x + \ln x - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + 1) + 1$$

The extra $+1$ has a curious origin: in the limit when $x \rightarrow \infty$, then by L'hôpital's rule, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \arctan(x)/x = 1$. Inserting these two fellows into equation 0.4, the logarithmic parts luckily cancel (as $\ln_{x \rightarrow 0} x = -\infty!$). Then:

$$\rho(r)T(r) - \rho_C T_C = - \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C^2 4\pi R^2 G \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\arctan \left(\frac{r}{R} \right) \right)^2 + \frac{R}{r} \arctan \frac{r}{R} - 1 \right)$$

Rearranging terms and dividing by ρ_C results in

$$T_C = \frac{\rho(r)}{\rho_C} T(r) + \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C 4\pi R^2 G \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\arctan \left(\frac{r}{R} \right) \right)^2 + \frac{R}{r} \arctan \frac{r}{R} - 1 \right)$$

inserting for $\rho(r)$ gives

$$T_C = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2} T(r) + \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C 4\pi R^2 G\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\arctan\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\right)^2 + \frac{R}{r} \arctan\left(\frac{r}{R}\right) - 1\right) \quad (0.5)$$

which is the end result.

5. What happens when the arctan's $r \propto x \rightarrow \infty$? From basic arithmetic's, we know that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi/2} \tan(x) = \infty$, so $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \arctan x = \pi/2$. Inserting this into equation (0.5) one obtains

$$T_C = \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C 4\pi R^2 G\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 1\right)$$

where the 1st and 3rd terms disappear as $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 1/(1+x^2) = 0$.

6. From

$$\rho(r) = \frac{\rho_C}{1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2}$$

it is easy to see that the density $\rho(r) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_C$ when $r = R$. We now need to decide what this R is. The core stops where $r = 0.2R_{sun}$, and at this point $\rho(r) = \frac{1}{10}\rho_C$. Then

$$\frac{1}{10}\rho_C = \frac{\rho_C}{1 + \left(\frac{0.2R_{sun}}{R}\right)^2}$$

where R is the point that the density is halved. Inverting both sides and removing ρ_C yields

$$10 = 1 + \left(\frac{0.2R_{sun}}{R}\right)^2$$

such that

$$\sqrt{9} = \frac{0.2R_{sun}}{R}$$

or

$$R = \frac{0.2R_{sun}}{3} \approx 0.067R_{sun}$$

7. We now use the approximation in the core:

$$T_C = \left(\frac{\mu m_H}{k} \rho_C 4\pi R^2 G\right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 1\right)$$

where R was given in 13.4.6. Solve for ρ_C :

$$\rho_C = \frac{T_C k}{\mu m_H G R^2 4\pi (\pi^2/8 - 1)} \approx 2.9 \cdot 10^5 \text{ kg}$$

or 200 times the mean density (assuming 1400 kg/m^3), about a factor two wrong. Not bad!