



Stellar Atmospheres: Lecture 11, 2020.06.01

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Lamers & Casinelli, Introduction to Stellar Winds, Ch. 1-3



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Rate at which KE deposited into the ISM: $\frac{1}{2}\dot{M}v_{\infty}^2$. Momentum transfer rate: $\dot{M}v_{\infty}$. A massive star deposits way more KE/momentum than a Sun-like star, but fewer massive stars.



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AGB stars: $10^{-9} - 10^{-4} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Massive stars: $10^{-6} - 10^{-3} M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

Can exceed nuclear burning rate (H \rightarrow He) \Longrightarrow drive further evolution.



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Observational evidence for winds:

Sun - cometary tails, magnetosphere (van Allen Belts), aurorae · · ·

Hot stars – P Cygni profiles of highly-ionised species. P Cygni is a luminous blue variable (LBV) \sim 6 imes 10⁵ L $_{\odot}$.

Cool stars – expansion velocity → Doppler-shifted lines → asymmetric line profiles Infrared excess due to reprocessing of radiation by circumstellar dust. Parabolic or double-horned line profiles in the sub-mm/radio.

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Outflow speed as a function of distance from stellar surface. Depends on wind mechanism. Starts out small, increases drastically in the acceleration zone very close to surface, reaches a constant value (v_{∞}) at large radii.



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OB stars: steep velocity law, $\beta \sim 0.8$. $v_{\infty} \sim 10^3$ km s⁻¹. Acceleration due to radiation pressure (can be line-driven) close to surface.

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 $\Psi =$ gas:dust mass ratio $\sim 10^2 - 10^3$, but grains drag molecules out with them via momentum coupling.



We need $v_{\text{gas}} > v_{\text{esc}} \equiv \left(\frac{2GM}{r}\right)^{1/2}$. The winds can be driven by radiation pressure, thermal pressure gradients, or waves.



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Radiation-driven wind

Absorption of stellar photons \rightarrow radially outward recoil. Reemission isotropic, so average recoil = 0.



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Wave-driven wind

Shocks (e.g., due to pulsations), acoustic, MHD/magnetoacoustic waves. Inefficient on their own, but can heat up material to increase pressure or increase density of material to enhance interaction with radiation.

Rotation

Transfer of angular momentum in rotating systems – outflowing disks from rotating stars, magnetic rotators.



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Atoms in ground state

– Resonance line scattering $(1 \longrightarrow j \longrightarrow 1)$. "Scattered" photon has random direction. P Cygni profiles typically produced by this method.



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Ionised species

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- (1) Transition that emits photon at same frequency as the stimulating photon,
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Masers seen in many astrophysical environments. Stellar outflows: massive AGB stars (OH/IR stars).

Continuity Equation for the material in the outflow:

$$\frac{d\rho(r)}{dt} = \frac{\partial\rho(r)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (v(r)\rho(r)) = 0$$

Stationary state $\Longrightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0 \Longrightarrow \nabla \cdot (v(r)\rho(r)) = 0.$



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 $\implies \dot{M} \equiv 4\pi r^2 v(r) \rho(r) = \text{constant.}$



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The velocity dependence is usually such that the material is accelerated beyond the sonic speed and escape velocity within a small zone close to the star, and a terminal velocity v_{∞} is achieved. In this region, a stationary wind implies an inverse-square density profile.



Equation of motion for pressure-driven stationary wind

Relations to solve for v(r, t): equation of continuity, equation of motion (hydrostatic/hydrodynamic), and energy equation.



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Hydrostatic equation and boundary condition $p(r \rightarrow \infty) = p_{ISM}$ not simultaneously satisfied \Longrightarrow outward acceleration due to pressure gradient.

Acceleration $\frac{dv(r,t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial v(r,t)}{\partial t} + v(r,t)\frac{\partial v(r,t)}{\partial r}$



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Energy equation: Simplest model is isothermal, T = constant.



Temperature constant in the wind layer, pressure gradient and gravity are only external forces on the gas. One of the simplest models. Easily solved. Can study how v_{∞} and ρ depend on the forces. MLR for stationary wind model uniquely determined by boundary conditions at $r = R_*$.



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Isothermal wind: $T = T_0$ in a region starting at $r = r_0$. Valid for solar corona.

 $\implies
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Critical/singular point: $r = r_c$ such that denominator is zero. Sonic point: $v(r_5) = c_5$. Escape point: $v(r_{esc}) = v_{esc}(r)$. For an isothermal pressure-driven wind, critical point = sonic point.



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For an isothermal outflow, $r_c \ge r_0 \implies v_{esc}(r_c) \ge 2c_s$ (sonic point < escape point) and $\frac{d \ln v}{dr} \ge 0$. The critical solution is the only solution satisfying these criteria.





$$\frac{d\ln v}{dr} = \frac{1}{v^2 - c_s^2} \left[\frac{2c_s^2}{r} - \frac{GM}{r^2} \right]$$



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Solutions in families I and II are unphysical (non-monotonic).

Solutions in family III (C > -3) are always supersonic.

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Near surface $(\xi < 1)$, $\eta \approx \xi^{-2} \exp \left[-2/\xi + 3/2\right]$. At large distances $(\xi \gg 1)$: $\eta \sim \sqrt{\ln \xi}$. The outflow velocity diverges, which is unphysical. True behaviour deviates from the isothermal model prediction (T drops, v becomes constant, ρ falloff steeper than hydrostatic solution beyond critical point).



Limitation of isothermal pressure-driven winds

Consider an O star: $T_{\rm eff} \approx 40\,000$ K, $M \approx 40$ M_{\odot}, $R \approx 20R_{\odot}$ (Carroll & Ostlie, Appendix G). Compute: $c_{\rm s} \approx 20$ km s⁻¹, $v_{\rm esc}(R_*) \approx 600$ km s⁻¹ $\Longrightarrow r_c \approx 220R_*$. Observed sonic point: very close to R_* .

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Non-isothermal wind: temperature gradient will change c_s and hence location of critical point, and therefore MLR. Maintaining a temperature gradient requires higher pressure gradients which have to be sourced from other mechanisms.



Cool stars: continuum absorption by freshly-formed dust. Hot stars: resonance scattering from ionised metal lines.



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$$\dot{M}v_{\infty} = \frac{\hat{L}_{*}}{c} \quad (\overbrace{1-e^{-\tau}}^{\text{min}}) \Longrightarrow \frac{\dot{M}}{10^{-7}M_{\odot} \text{ yr}^{-1}} \approx 200 \left(\frac{L_{*}}{10^{4}L_{\odot}}\right) \left(\frac{v_{\infty}}{10 \text{ km s}^{-1}}\right)^{-1} (1-e^{-\tau}).$$



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Pressure gradient in terms of moments of intensity:

$$\frac{d\rho_{\rm rad}}{dz} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \int \alpha_{\nu}^{\rm ext} \frac{dK_{\nu}}{d\tau_{\nu}} d\nu = \frac{1}{c} \int \alpha_{\nu}^{\rm ext} \frac{d}{d\tau_{\nu}} \left(4\pi K_{\nu} \right) d\nu = \frac{1}{c} \int \alpha_{\nu}^{\rm ext} F_{\nu} d\nu.$$



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Hydrostatic equilibrium:
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Optically thin: $\dot{M} \approx \frac{L_*}{c_{\nu_{\infty}}} \tau \propto \frac{L_*}{c_{\nu_{\infty}}} \kappa_{\rm dust}$. Optically thick: $\dot{M} \approx \frac{L_*}{c_{\nu_{\infty}}}$.

Pressure gradient in terms of moments of intensity:

 $\begin{aligned} \frac{d\rho_{\rm rad}}{dz} &= \frac{4\pi}{c} \int \alpha_{\nu}^{\rm ext} \frac{dK_{\nu}}{d\tau_{\nu}} d\nu = \frac{1}{c} \int \alpha_{\nu}^{\rm ext} \frac{d}{d\tau_{\nu}} \left(4\pi K_{\nu} \right) d\nu = \frac{1}{c} \int \alpha_{\nu}^{\rm ext} F_{\nu} d\nu. \\ \text{Hydrostatic equilibrium:} \quad \frac{GM}{r^2} &= \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d\rho_{\rm rad}}{dz} = \frac{1}{c} \int \kappa_{\nu}^{\rm ext} F_{\nu} d\nu \approx \frac{\overline{\kappa}}{c} F = \frac{\overline{\kappa}}{c} \frac{L_*}{4\pi r^2}. \\ \text{Star blows away surface material if } L > L_{\rm Edd} \equiv \frac{4\pi GMc}{\overline{\kappa}} = 3.2 \times 10^4 \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \right) \left(\frac{\overline{\kappa}}{0.020 \text{ m}^2 \text{ km}^{-1}} \right)^{-1} L_{\odot}. \end{aligned}$

Star blows away surface matching in $L > L_{Edd} = \frac{1}{\kappa} - 3.2 \times 10 \left(\frac{1}{M_{\odot}}\right) \left(\frac{1}{0.039 \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^-}\right)$ Where $\kappa = 0.039 \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ is the Thomson opacity for fully ionised hydrogen.



Cool stars: continuum absorption by freshly-formed dust. Hot stars: resonance scattering from ionised metal lines.

Radiation pressure and the Eddington Limit

Momentum balance: momentum of the wind is obtained from photon absorption.

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Where $\overline{\kappa}=0.039~\text{m}^2~\text{kg}^{-1}$ is the Thomson opacity for fully ionised hydrogen.

AGB and RSG stars have L \sim 0.1 - 0.3L $_{
m Edd}$. η Car is an example with L \sim L $_{
m Edd}$.



 $_{v_{\infty}} \sim 10-30 \ \text{km} \ \text{s}^{-1}, \ T_{\rm eff} \sim 2700-4000 \ \text{K}. \ \text{AGB} \ (1-5 \ \text{M}_{\odot}, \ 3000-10^5 \ \text{L}_{\odot})$ and RSG $(5-25 \ \text{M}_{\odot}, \ 10^5-10^6 \ \text{L}_{\odot}).$



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Pulsators. Semi-regular variables (small amplitude, P < 100 d), long-period variables (large amplitude, fundamental mode, $P \sim 100 - 300$ d). Mira-type stars are LPVs. Pulsations can also drive a weak wind.



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Nowotny et al. 2010 A&A 514, A35

Gas layers levitated by pulsations travel on ballistic trajectories to cooler regions ($R \sim 1.5 - 3R_{*}, T \lesssim 1300$ K) where condensation into solid particles (dust) occurs, which immediately drives a strong outflow. The dust drags the gas along with it.



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AGB star atmospheres start out oxygen-rich. Stars with masses $2 - 4 M_{\odot}$ become carbon-rich by the third dredge-up process. The chemistry of the molecules and dust in the envelope is regulated accordingly.

O-rich dust: refractory oxides (AI, Mg), amorphous silicates (olivine, pyroxene), crystalline silicates (enstatite).

C-rich dust: amorphous carbon, diamond/graphite, silicon carbide, MgS, hydrogenated amorphous carbons (HACs).



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The MLR depends on the chemistry – in general, carbonaceous dust has higher κ and hence is more efficient in absorbing radiation. Silicate dust requires iron to enhance its opacity (e.g., Höfner 2007 ASPC 378, 145).



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