

Lectures on Nuclear Astrophysics

Center for Astroparticle Physics

Laboratori Nazionali del Gran Sasso (Italy), January 27 – February 2, 2014

Pulsars and compact stars

observations and theoretical models

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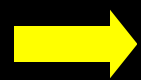
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Pulsars and compact stars: observations and theoretical models

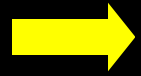
1st Lecture

Pulsars

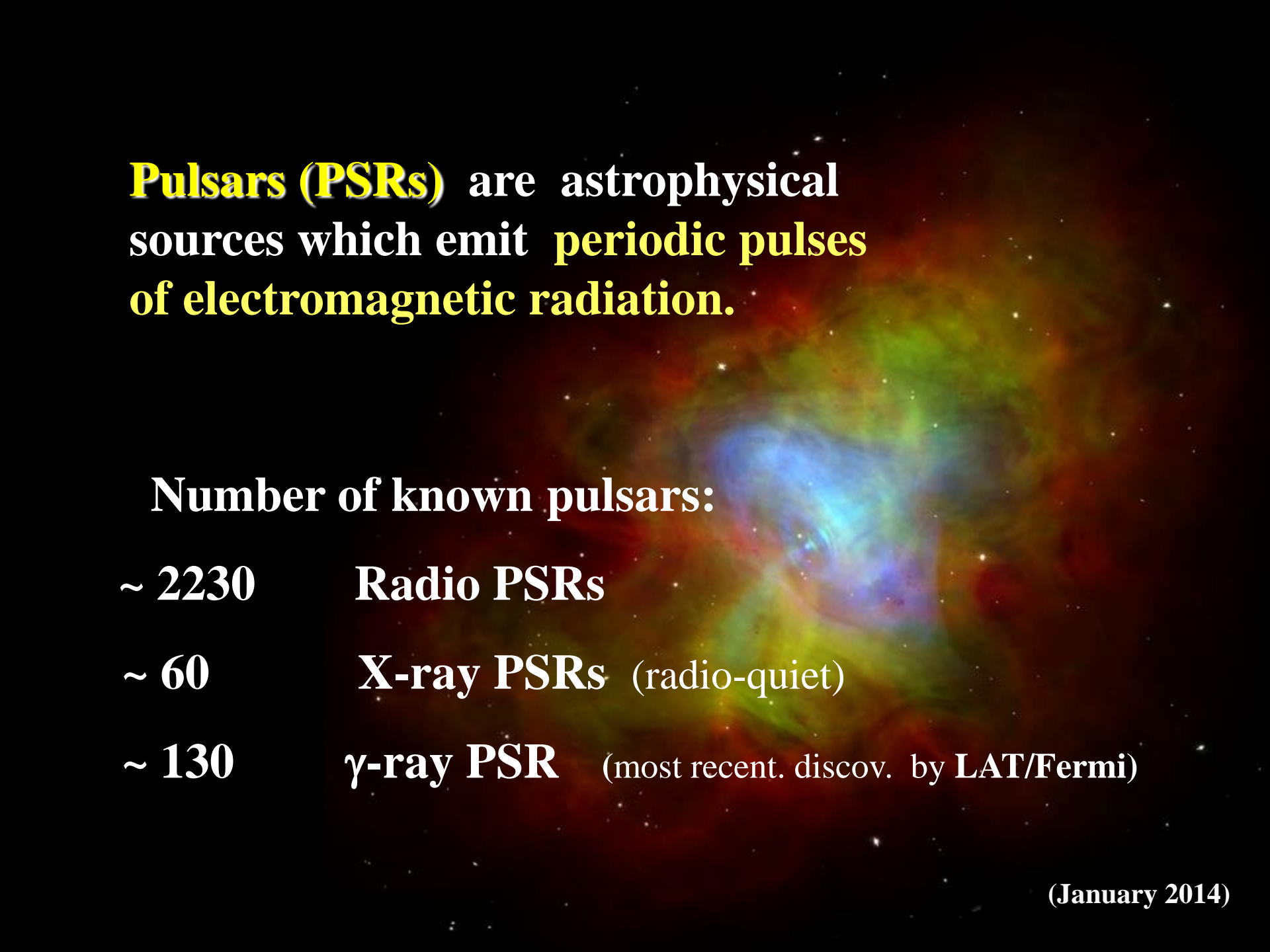
1st Lecture: Pulsars (PSRs)



The basic observational properties of PSRs



Pulsars as magnetized rotating Neutron Stars
The magnetic dipole model for PSRs



Pulsars (PSRs) are astrophysical sources which emit **periodic pulses of electromagnetic radiation.**

Number of known pulsars:

~ 2230 Radio PSRs

~ 60 X-ray PSRs (radio-quiet)

~ 130 γ -ray PSR (most recent. discov. by LAT/Fermi)

(January 2014)

1st discovered pulsar: PSR B1919 +21

radio pulsar at **81.5 MHz**

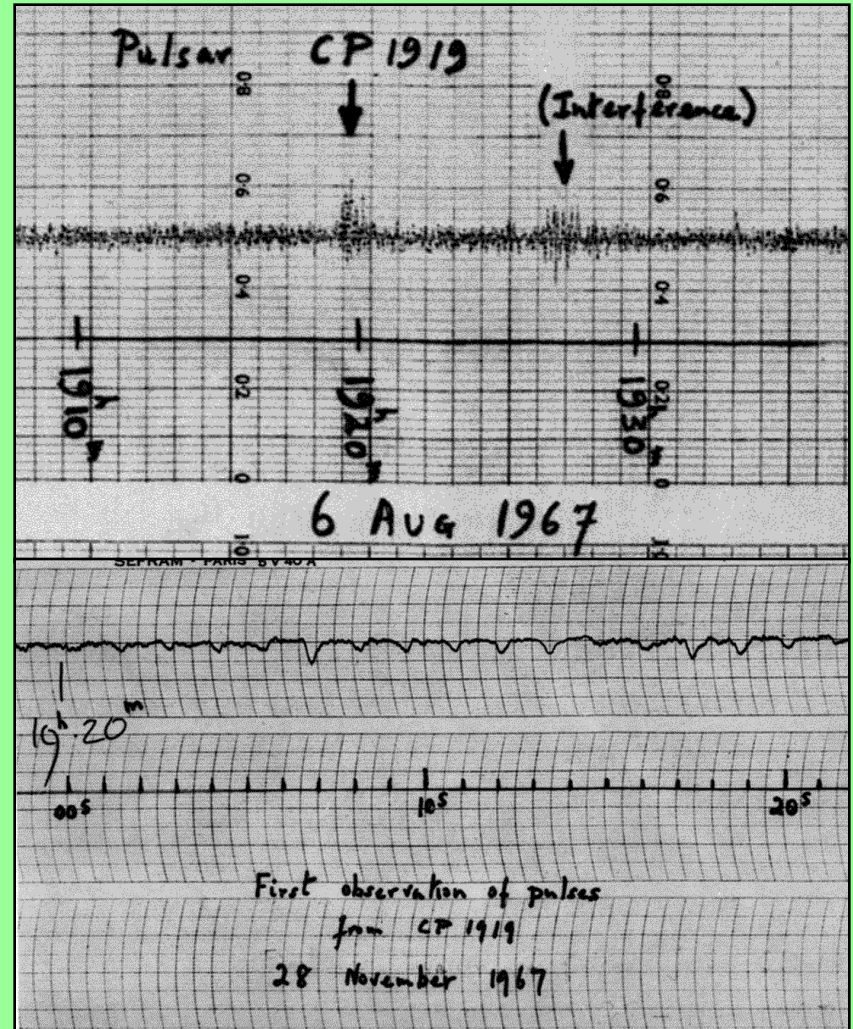
Pulse period

P = 1.337 s

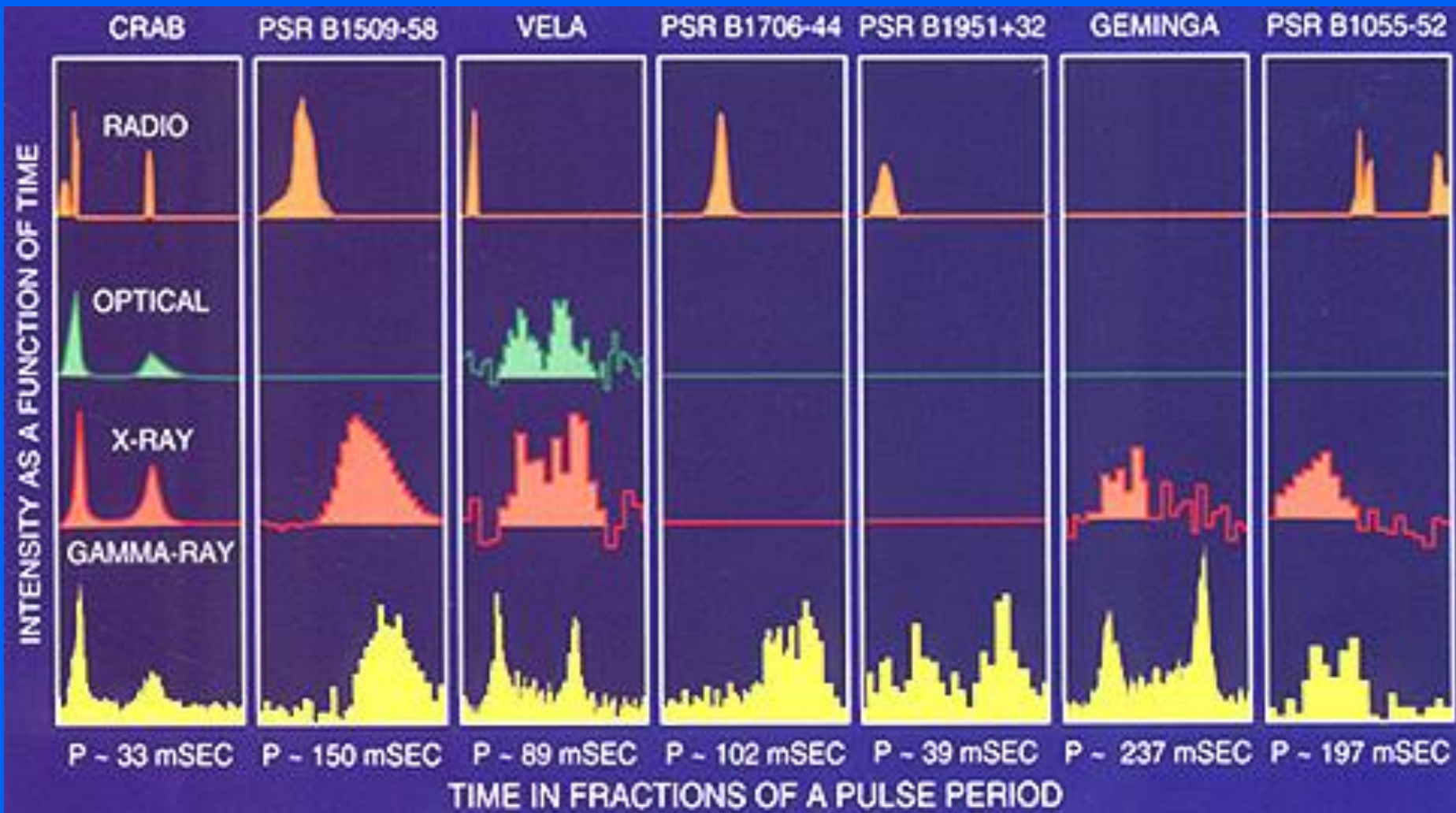
Hewish et al., 1968, Nature 217

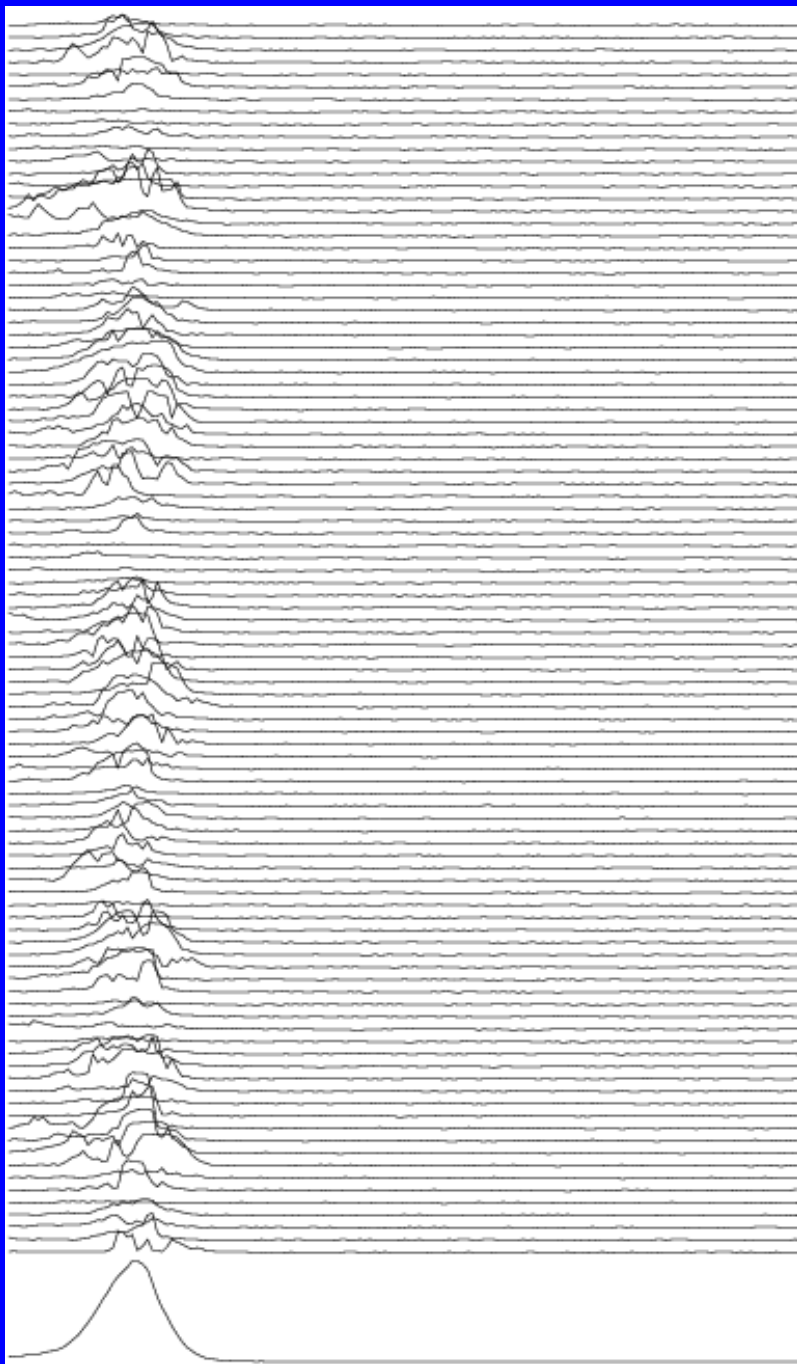


Tony Hewish and Jocelyn Bell
(Bonn, August 1980)



Pulse shape at different wavelength





Top: 100 single pulses from the pulsar B0950+08 ($P = 0.253$ s), demonstrating the pulse-to-pulse variability in shape and intensity.

Bottom: Integrated (cumulative) pulse profile for this pulsar over 5 minutes (about 1200 pulses).

This averaged “**standard profile**” is reproducible for a given pulsar at a given frequency.

The large noise which masks the “true” pulse shape is due to the interaction of the pulsar electromagnetic radiation with the ionized **interstellar medium (ISM)**

Observations taken with the Green Bank Telescope (Stairs et al. 2003)

The Arecibo Radio Telescope

$d = 304.8 \text{ m}$

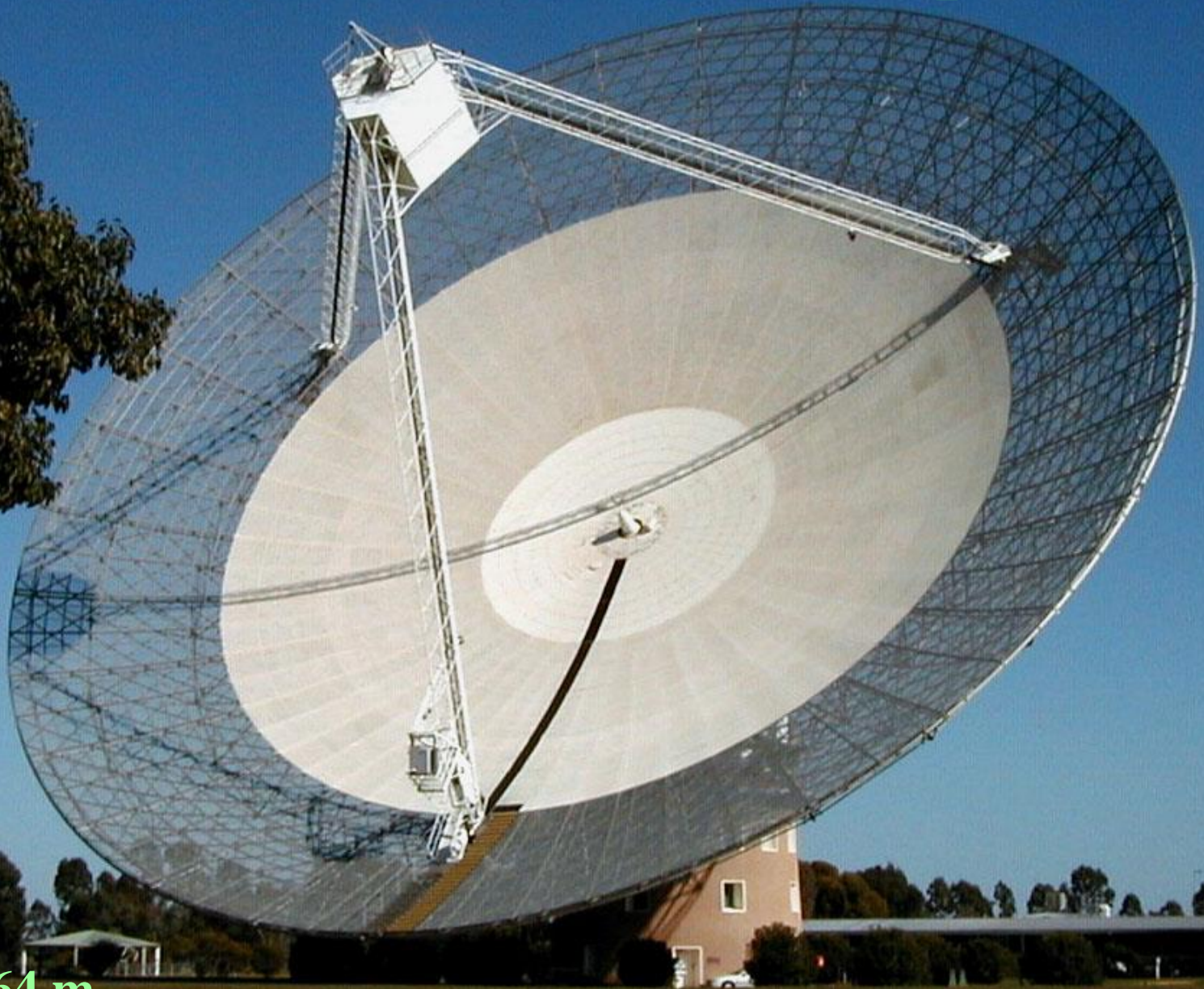


The Green Bank Radio Telescope

$d = 100 \text{ m}$

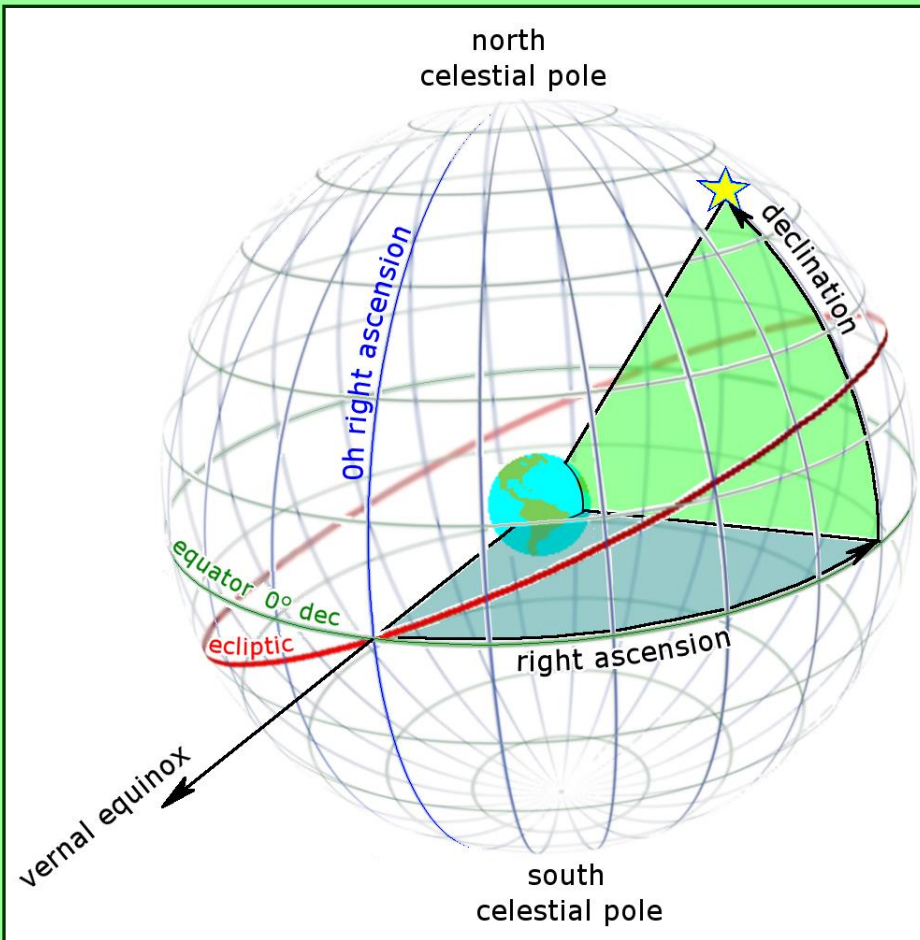


The Parkes Radio Telescope



$d = 64 \text{ m}$

The **name of a pulsar (PSR)** is derived from its position in the celestial sphere using **equatorial coordinates**, i.e. the pulsar's **right ascension α** (hours and minutes) and the **declination δ** (degrees and minutes of degree)



For example **PSR J0437-7515** has $\alpha = 4$ hours and 37 minutes and $\delta = -75^\circ 15'$

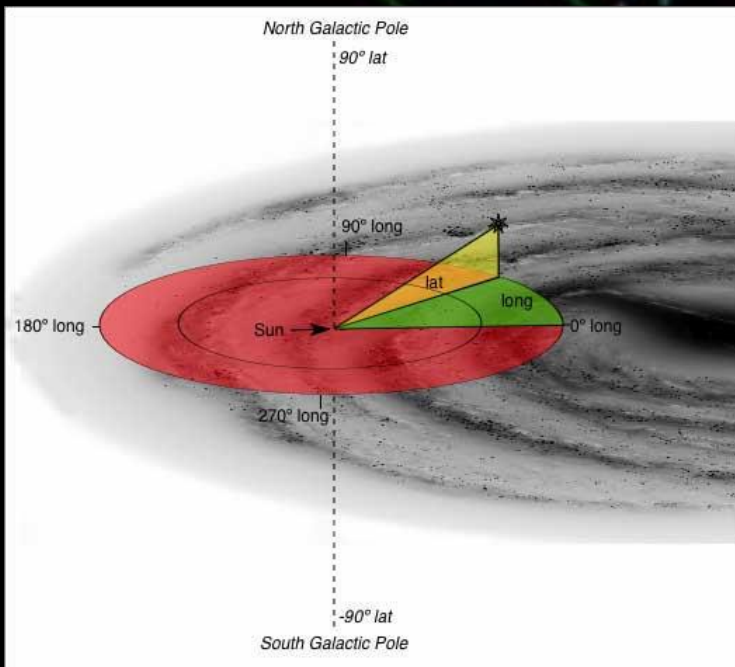
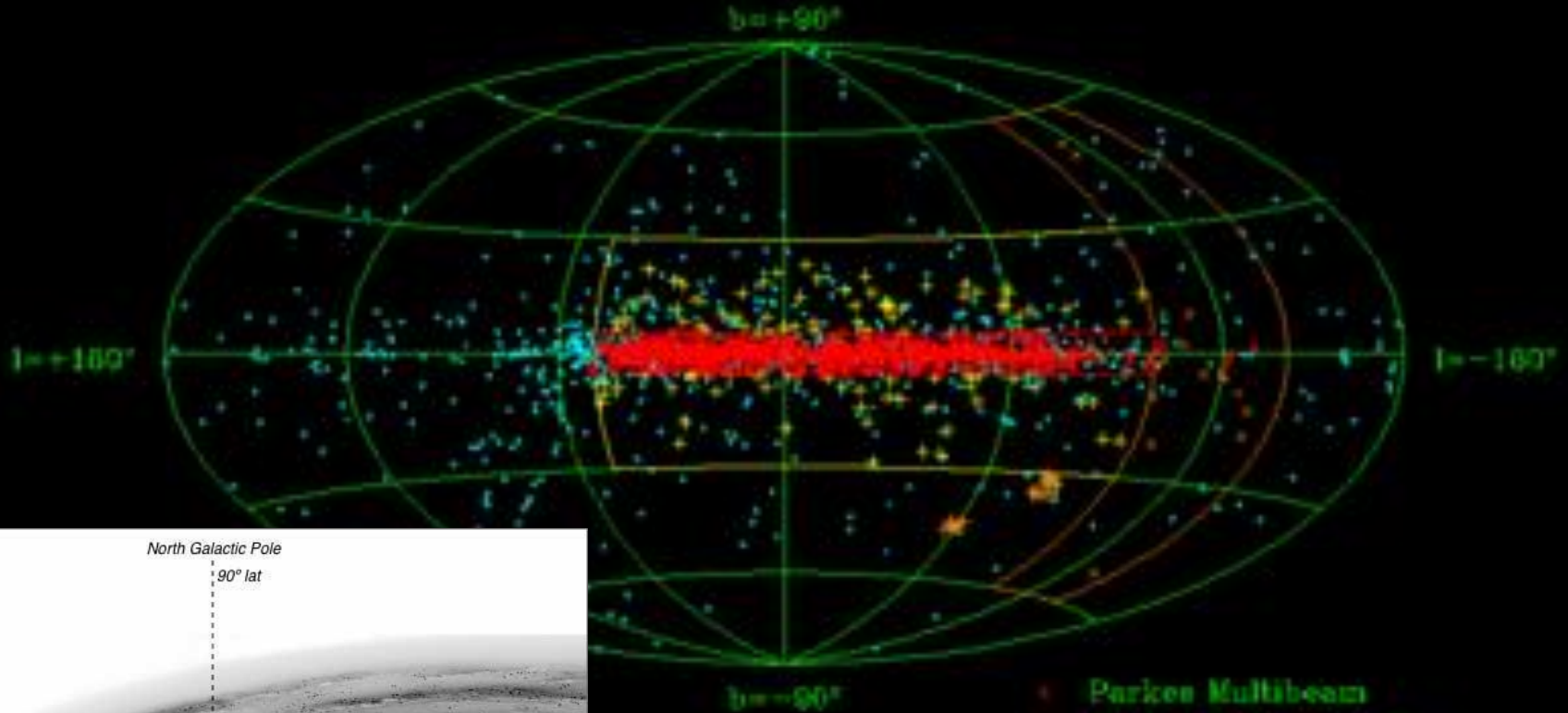
PSR B1919+21 has right ascension $\alpha = 19$ hours and 19 minutes and $\delta = +21^\circ$

The prefix “J” meaning the coordinates are for the “**Julian epoch**” **J2000.0** (Jan.1, 2000 at 12:00 TT)

The prefix “B” meaning the coordinates are for “**Besselian epoch**” (1950).

The **vernal equinox positions** and thus the PSRs equatorial coordinates change in time due to the **precession** and **nutation motion of the earth rotation axis**.

Pulsar Spatial Distribution

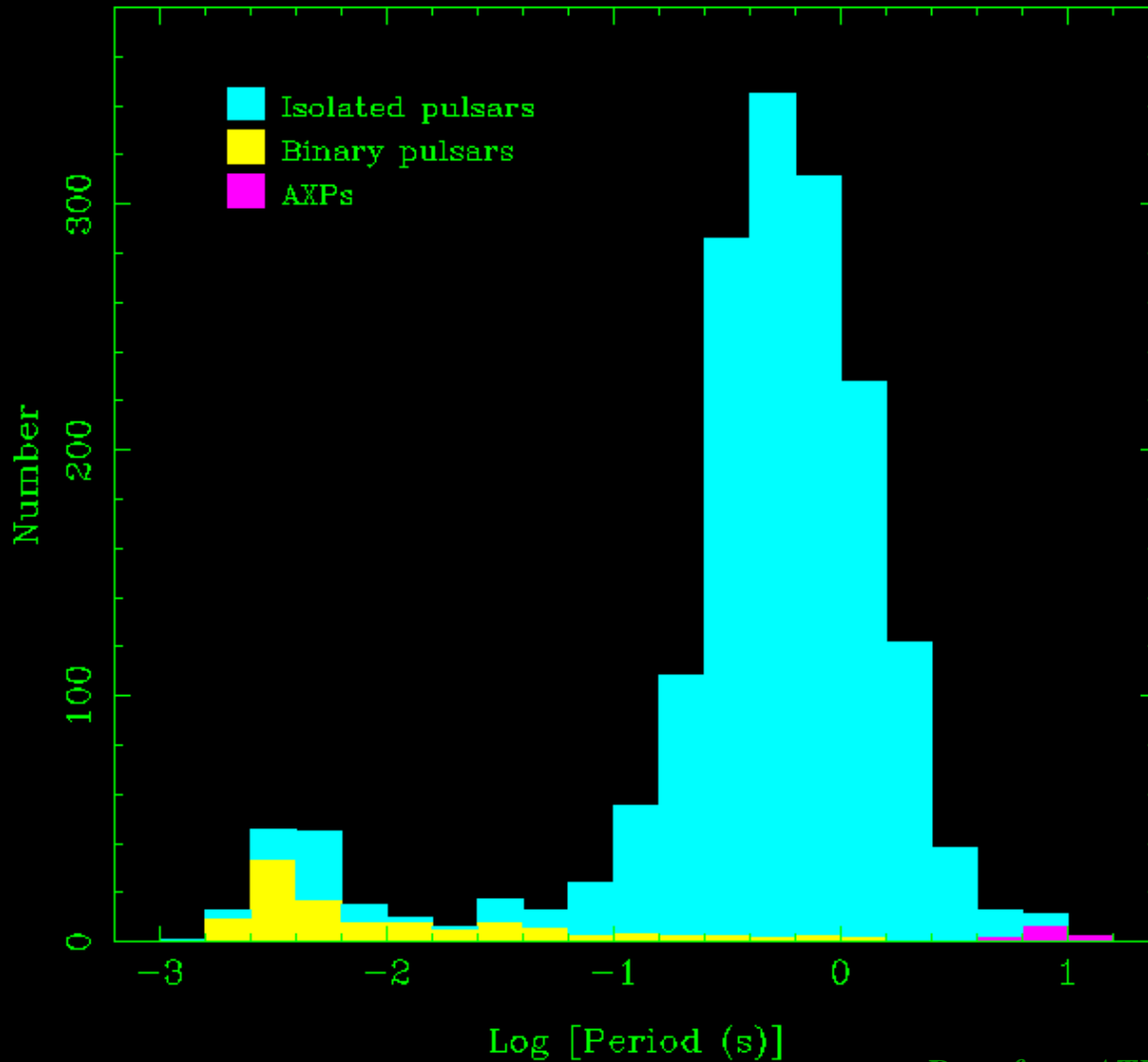


- Parkes Multibeam
- Parkes High Latitude
- Swinburne Multibeam
- Magellanic Cloud
- Other pulsars

galactic coordinates

Pulsar Period Distribution

$\sim 10^{-3}$ seconds $< P < a$ few seconds



The “fastest” Pulsar”

PSR J1748 –2446ad (in Terzan 5)

$P = 1.39595482(6) \text{ ms}$ *i.e.* **$\nu = 716.3 \text{ Hz}$** **Fa# (F#)**

J.W.T. Hessel *et al.*, march 2006, Science 311, 1901



Terzan 5

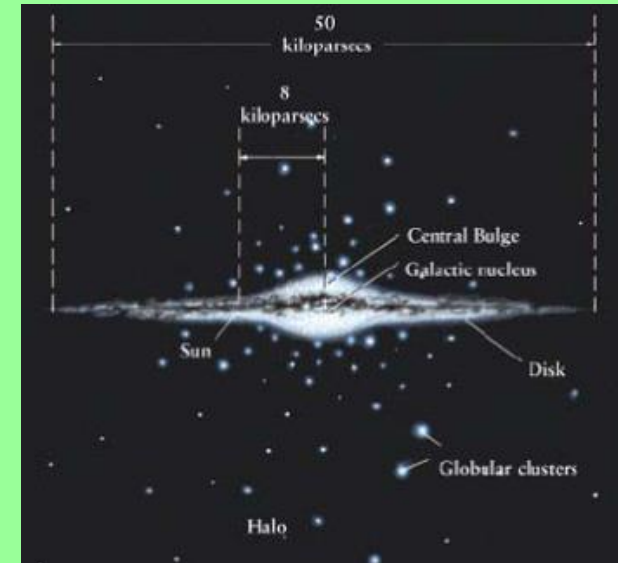
Terzan 5

is a **Globular Cluster** in the bulge of our Galaxy. It was discovered in 1968 by the armenian astronomer

Agop Terzan.

Distance = 5.9 ± 05 kpc.

This globular cluster contains **34 millisecond radio pulsars**



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J.W.T. Hessel *et al.*, march 2006, Science 311, 1901

PSR name	frequency (Hz)	Period (ms)
J1748 –2464ad	716.358	1.3959
B1937 +21	641.931	1.5578
B1957 +20	622.123	1.6074
J1748 –24460	596.435	1.6766

● PSRs are remarkable astronomical clocks

extraordinary stability of the pulse period:

P(sec.) can be measured up to 18 significant digits!

e.g. on Jan 16, 1999, **PSR J0437-4715** had a period of:

$5.757451831072007 \pm 0.0000000000000008$ ms

PSRs are remarkable astronomical clocks

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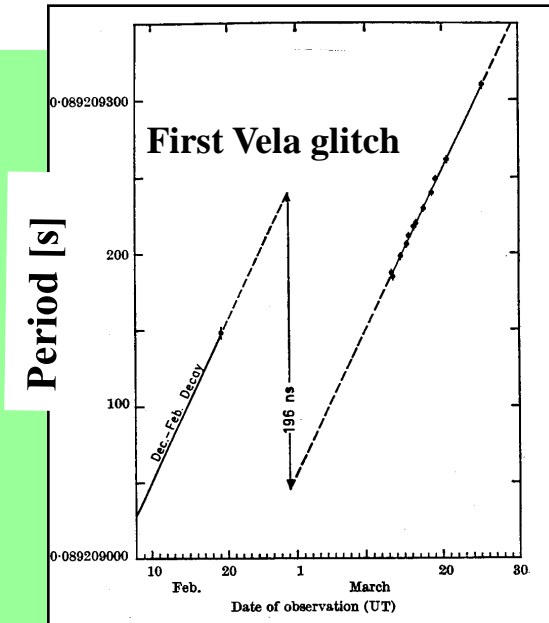
e.g. on Jan 16, 1999, **PSR J0437-4715** had a period of:

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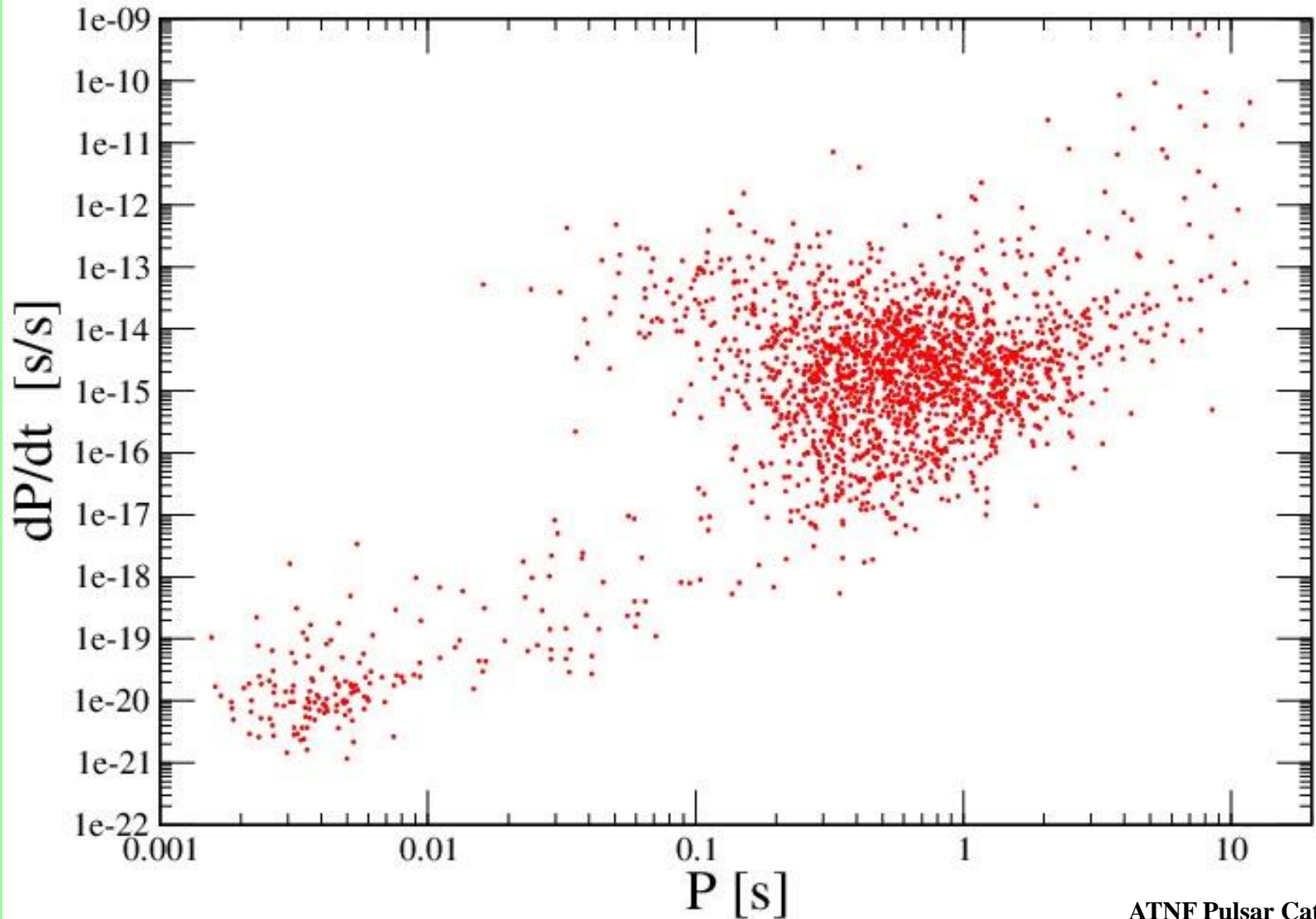
Pulsar periods always (*) increase very slowly

$$\dot{P} \equiv dP/dt = 10^{-21} \text{ --- } 10^{-10} \text{ s/s} = 10^{-14} \text{ --- } 10^{-3} \text{ s/yr}$$

(*) except in the case of PSR “**glitches**”,
or **spin-up** due to **mass accretion**



Pulsars distribution in the P- Pdot plane

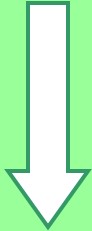


ATNF Pulsar Catalogue:
1968 PSR data points (Jan. 2014)

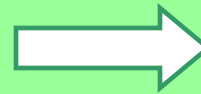
What is the nature of pulsars?

Due to the extraordinary stability of the pulse period the different parts of the source must be connected by **causality condition**

$$R_{\text{source}} \leq c P \sim 9900 \text{ km} \quad (P_{\text{crab}} = 0.033 \text{ s})$$



Pulsars are compact stars



White Dwarfs ?

or

Neutron Stars ?

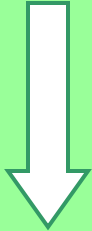
A famous white dwarf, **Sirius B**: $R = 0.0074 R_{\odot} = 5150 \text{ km}$

What is the nature of pulsars?

Due to the extraordinary stability of the pulse period the different parts of the source must be connected by **causality condition**

$$R_{\text{source}} \leq c P \sim 9900 \text{ km} \quad (P_{\text{crab}} = 0.033 \text{ s})$$

$$R_{\text{source}} \leq 450 \text{ km} \quad (P \sim 1.5 \text{ ms})$$



PSR B1937+21 ($P \sim 1.5 \text{ ms}$) discovered in 1982

Pulsars are compact stars



White Dwarfs ?

or

Neutron Stars ?

A famous white dwarf, **Sirius B**: $R = 0.0074 R_{\odot} = 5150 \text{ km}$

Pulsars as rotating white dwarfs

Mass-shed limit

For a particle at the equator of a **rigid rotating sphere**:

$$G \frac{M}{R^2} = \Omega_{\text{lim}}^2 R$$

$$\Omega \leq \Omega_{\text{lim}} = \sqrt{G \frac{M}{R^3}} \quad , \quad P \geq P_{\text{lim}} = \frac{2\pi}{\Omega_{\text{lim}}}$$

Sirius B : $M = 1.03 M_{\odot}$, $R = 5150 \text{ km}$ (Provencal et al. ApJ 494, 1998)

$$\rightarrow P_{\text{lim}} = 6.3 \text{ s}$$

Pulsars can not be rotating white dwarfs

Earth: $P_{\text{lim}} = 84 \text{ min.}$

Neutron Star ($M = 1.4 M_{\odot}$, $R = 10 \text{ km}$): $P_{\text{lim}} \sim 0.5 \text{ ms}$

Pulsars as vibrating white dwarfs

WD models $\Rightarrow P \geq P_{lim} \sim 2 \text{ s}$

In the case of **damped oscillations**:

- Decreasing oscillation amplitude
- Constant period ($dP/dt = 0$)

For **PSRs** $dP/dt > 0$

Pulsars can not be vibrating white dwarfs

Pulsars as rotating Neutron Stars

The Neutron Star idea: (Baade and Zwicky, 1934)

“With all reserve we advance the view that supernovae represent the transition from ordinary stars into neutron stars, which in their final stages consist of extremely closely packed neutrons.”

1st calculation of Neutron Star properties:
(Oppenheimer and Volkov, 1939)

Discovery of Pulsars (Hewish et al. 1967)

Interpretation of PSRs as rotating Neutron Stars:
(Pacini, 1967, Nature 216), (Gold, 1968, Nature 218)

The “fastest” Pulsar”

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Terrestrial fast spinning bodies

Centrifuge of a modern washing machine.

$$\Omega \cong 1,800 \text{ round/min} = 30 \text{ round/s}$$

$$P = 0.0333 \text{ s}$$

Engine Ferrari F2004 (F1 world champion 2004)

$$\Omega \cong 19,000 \text{ round/min} = 316.67 \text{ round/s}$$

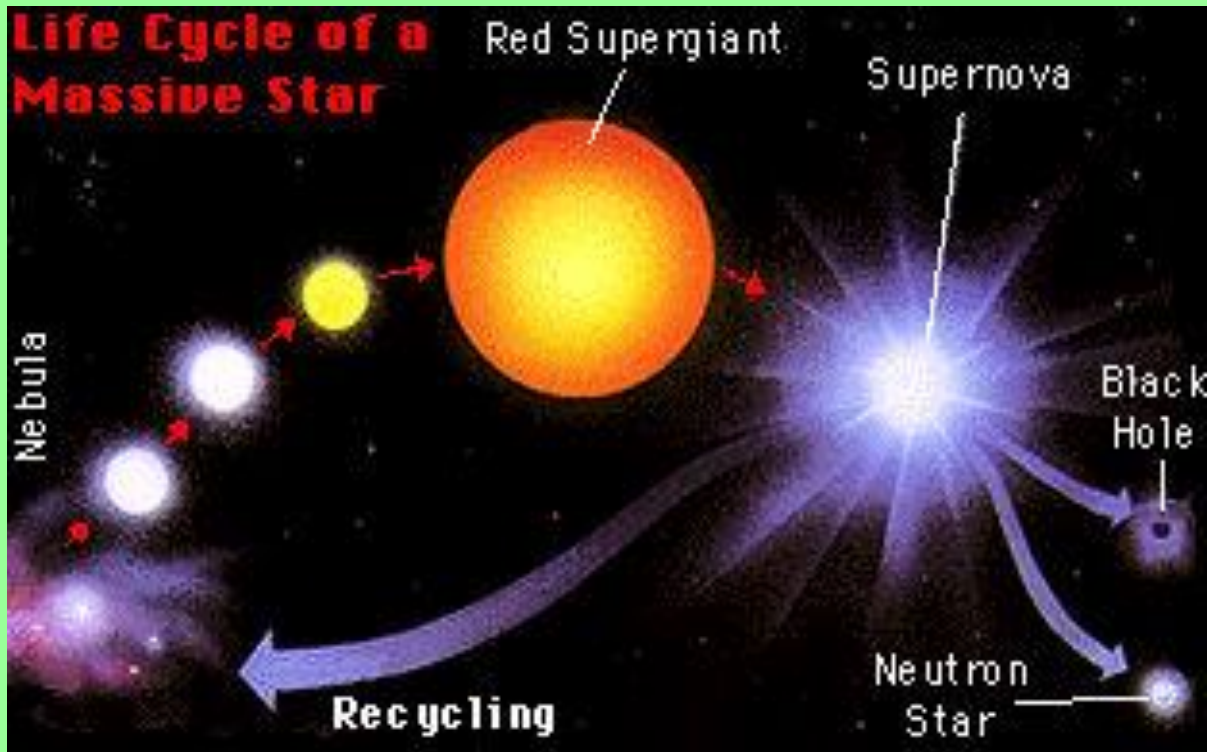
$$P = 3.158 \text{ ms}$$

Ultracentrifuge (Optima L-100 XP, Beckman-Coulter)

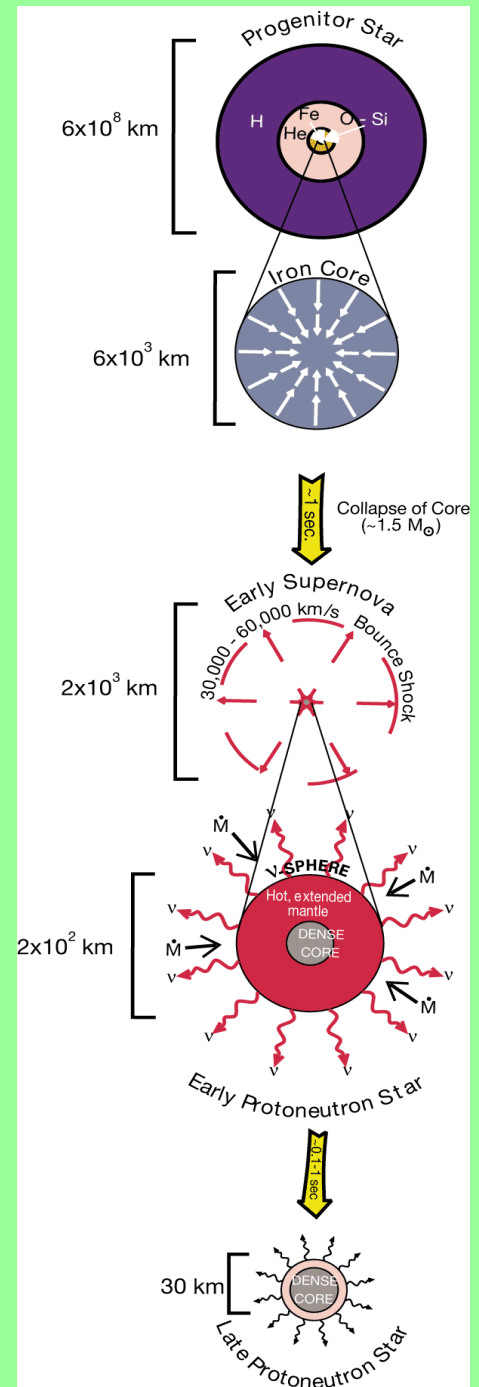
$$\Omega \cong 100,000 \text{ round/min} = 1666.67 \text{ round/s}$$

$$P = 0.6 \text{ ms}$$

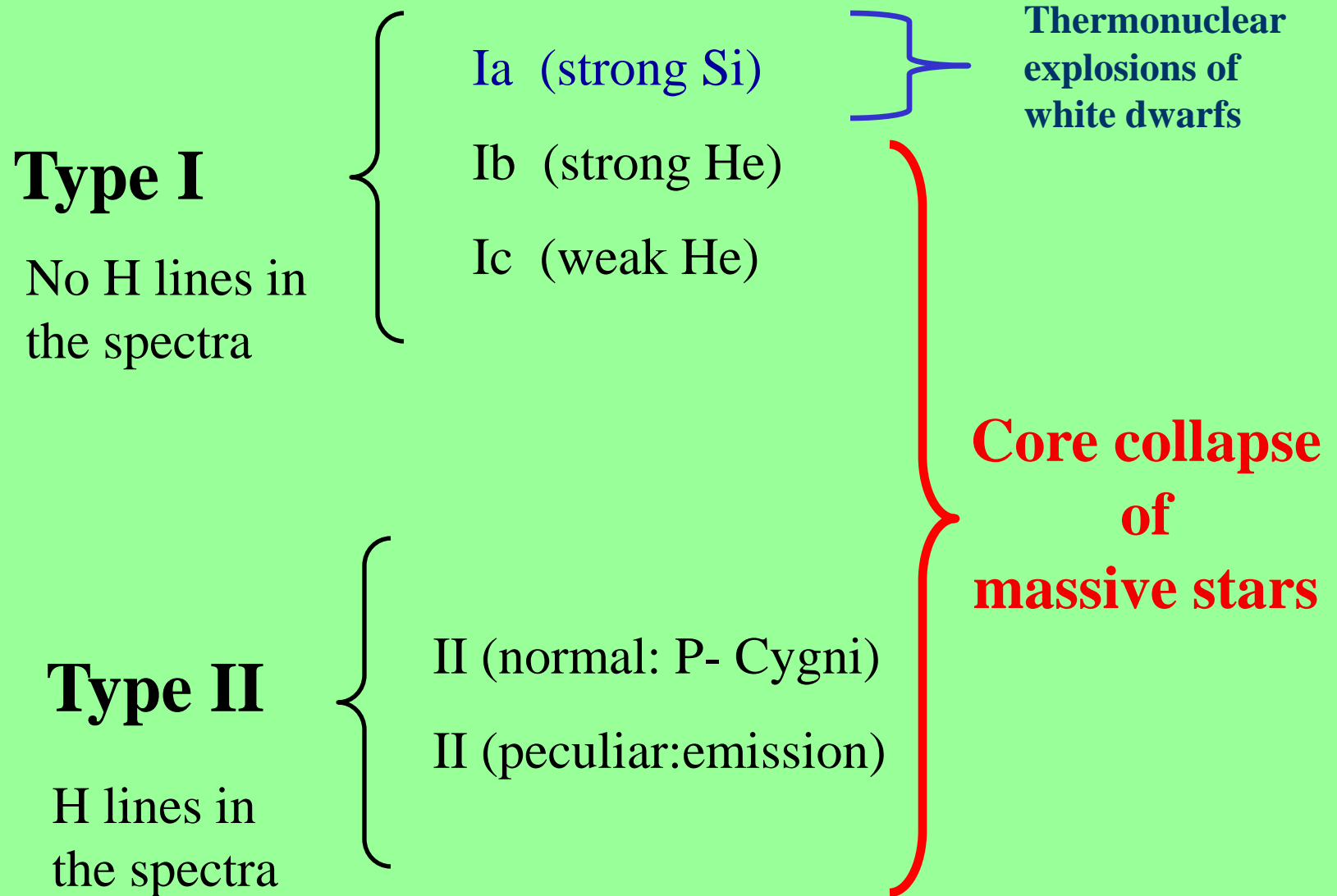
The birth of a Neutron Star



Neutron stars are the **compact remnants** of type II **Supernova explosions**, which occur at the end of the evolution of massive stars ($8 < M/M_{\odot} < 25$).



Supernova Classification



“Historical” Supernovae

Table 1 Supernovae that have exploded in our Galaxy and the Large Magellanic Cloud within the last millennium

Supernova	Year (AD)	Distance (kpc)	Peak visual magnitude
SN1006	1006	2.0	-9.0
Crab	1054	2.2	-4.0
SN1181	1181	8.0	?
RX J0852-4642	~1300	~0.2	?
Tycho	1572	7.0	-4.0
Kepler	1604	10.0	-3.0
Cas A	~1680	3.4	~6.0?
SN1987A	1987	50 ± 5	3.0

New stars (novae) in the sky were considered by ancient people as a possible signal for inauspicious events.

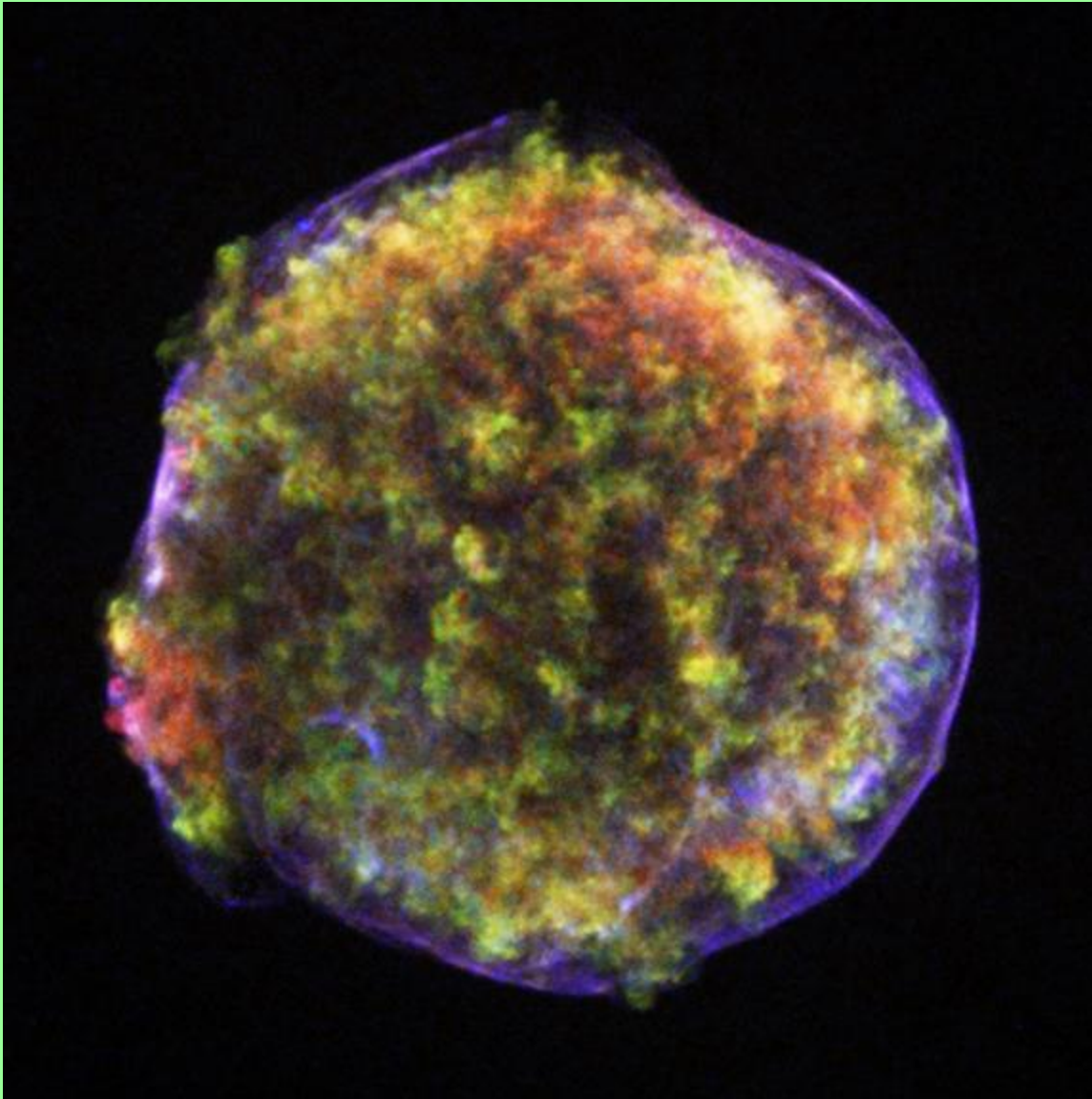
Aristotle – Ptolemy vision of the World

Supra-Lunar world: perfect, incorruptible, immutable.

new stars interpreted as **Sub-Lunar world** events

Tycho Brahe observed a *new star* in the **Cassiopea constellation** in **1572** and using his **observational data** demonstrated that **the star was much further than the Moon** (**T. Brahe, *De nova et nullius aevi memoria prius visa stella, 1573***)

Tycho's Supernova Remnant



X-ray image (Chandra satellite, sept. 2005)

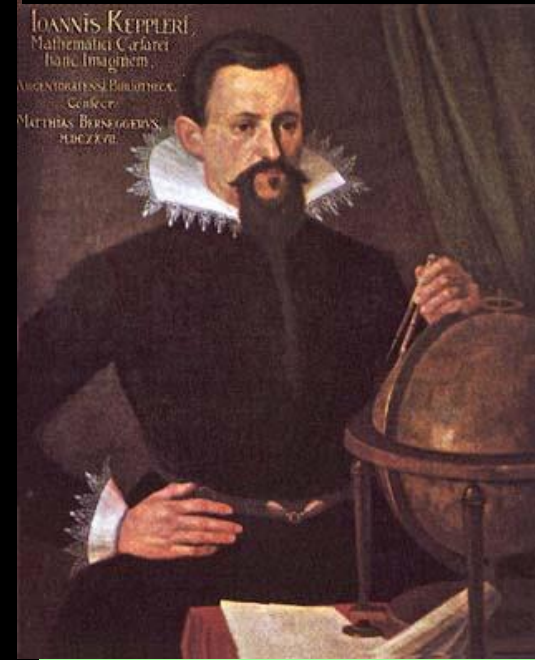
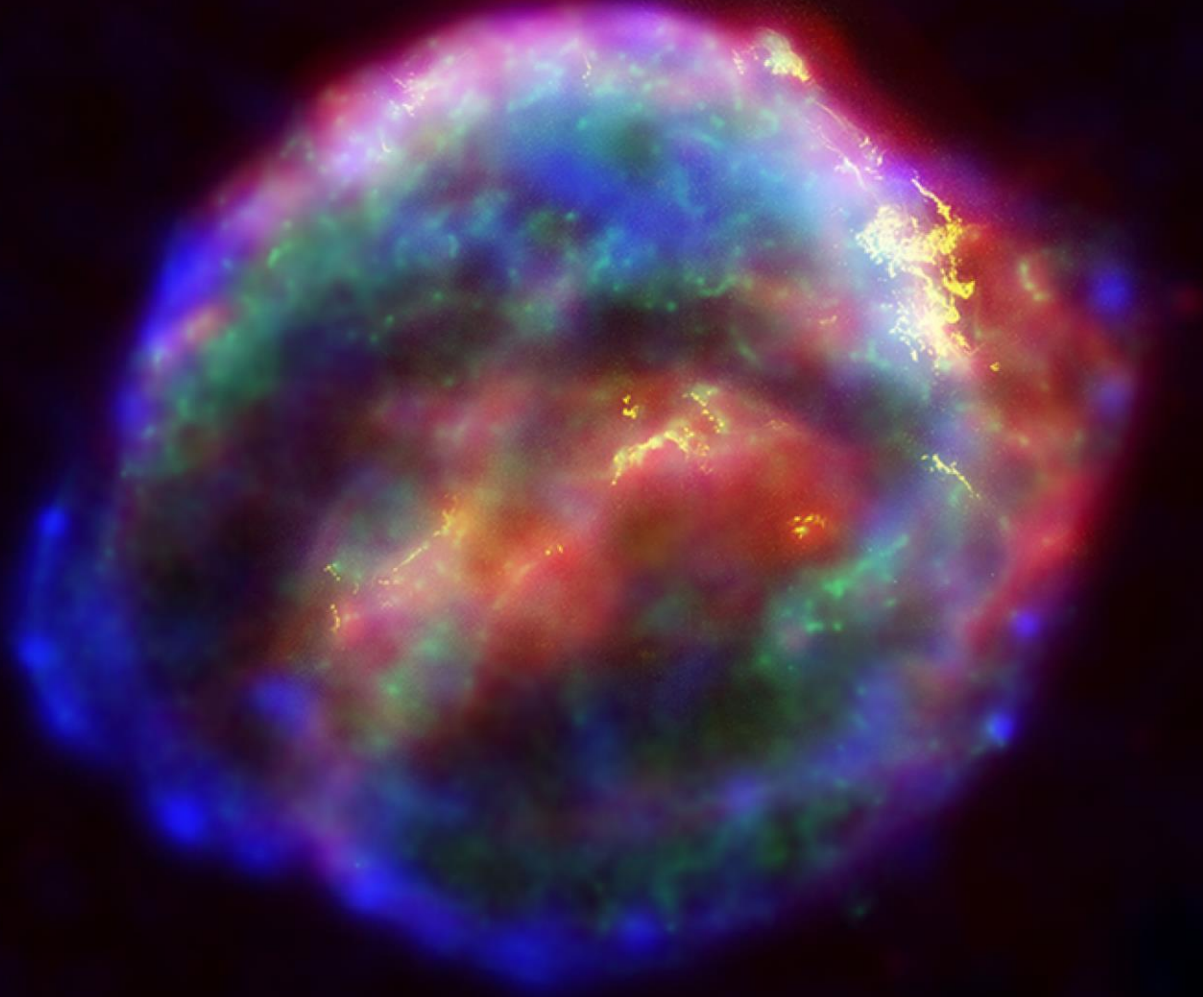


**Supernova observed by
Tycho Brahe in 1572**

No central point source has
been so far detected.:

Type Ia supernova

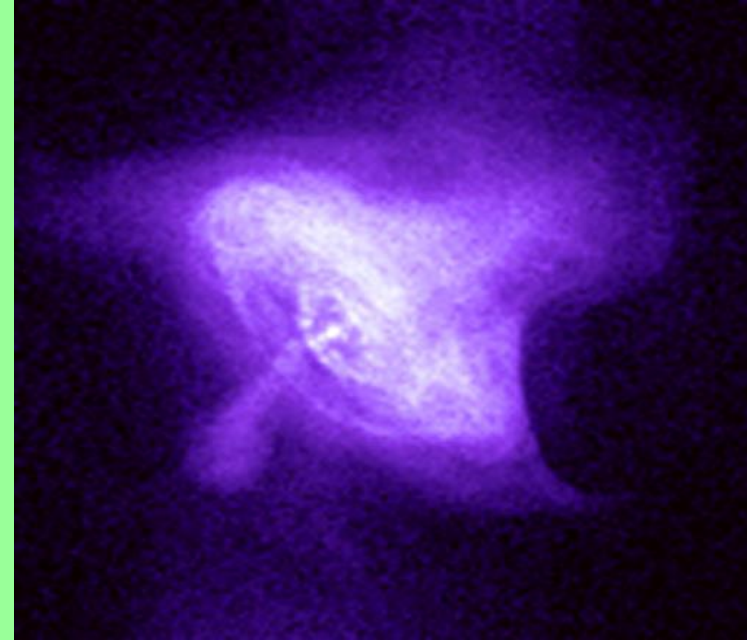
Kepler's supernova Remnant, SN1604



**Supernova
observed by
Johannes Kepler
in october 1604**

**Supernova type:
unclear**

The Crab Nebula



Optical (left) and X-ray (right) image of the Crab Nebula.

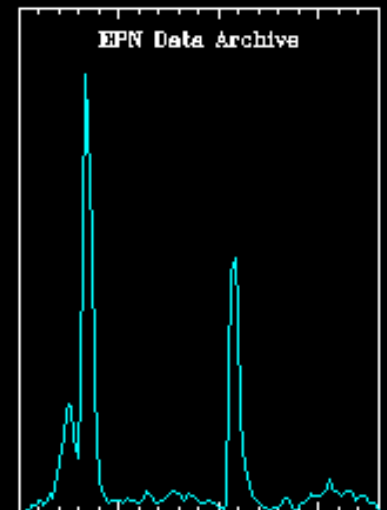
The Crab Nebula is the remnant of a supernova explosion that was seen on Earth in 1054 AD. Its distance to the Earth is 6000 lyr. At the center of the nebula is a pulsar which emits pulses of radiation with a period $P = 0.033$ seconds.

**Multi wave
length image
of the Crab:**

Blue: X-ray

Red: optical

Green: radio



The magnetic dipole model for pulsars



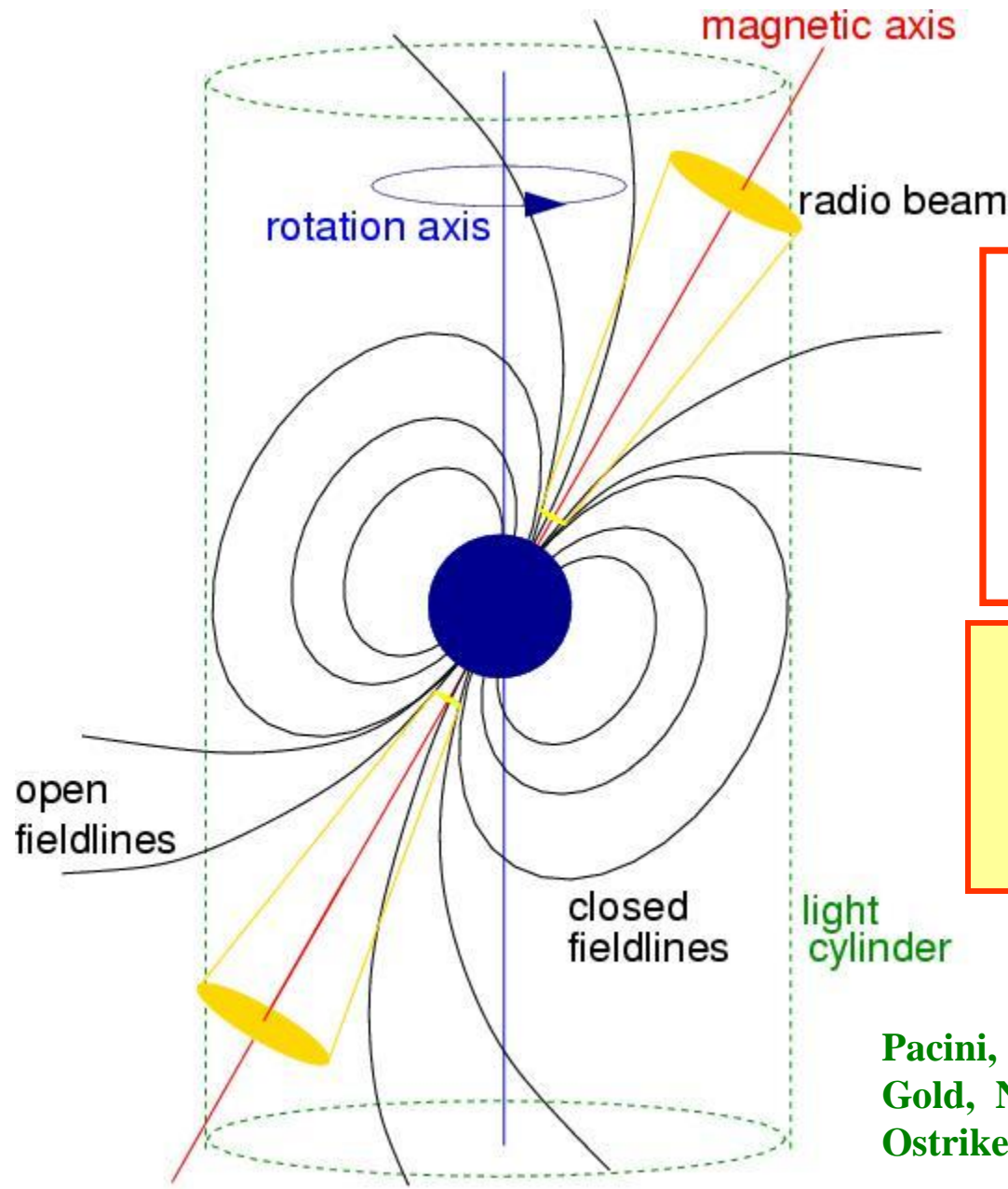
The lighthouse model

Pulsars are believed to be **highly magnetized rotating Neutron Stars** radiating at the expenses of their rotational energy

$$\dot{E}_{mag} = -\frac{2}{3c^3} \left| \ddot{\vec{\mu}} \right|^2$$

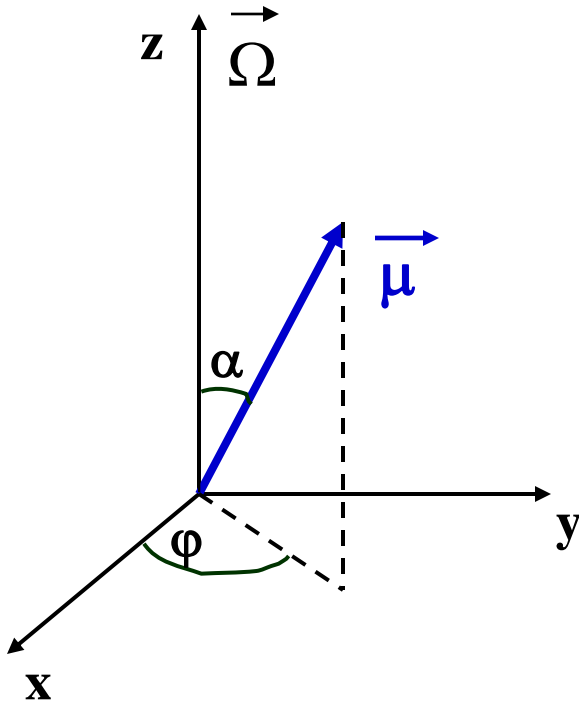
$\vec{\mu} \equiv$ magnetic dipole moment

Pacini, *Nature* 216 (1967), *Nature* 219 (1968)
Gold, *Nature* 218 (1968), *Nature* 221 (1969)
Ostriker and Gunn, *ApJ* 157 (1969)



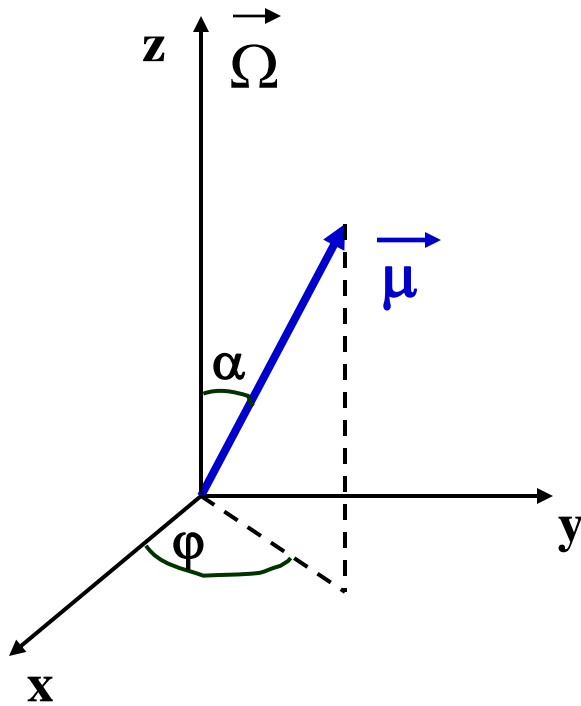
The magnetic dipole model for pulsars

Suppose: $\alpha = \text{const}$, $\mu \equiv |\vec{\mu}| = \text{const}$



$$\Omega = \frac{d\phi}{dt} \equiv \dot{\phi}$$

Suppose: $\alpha = \text{const}$, $\mu \equiv |\vec{\mu}| = \text{const}$

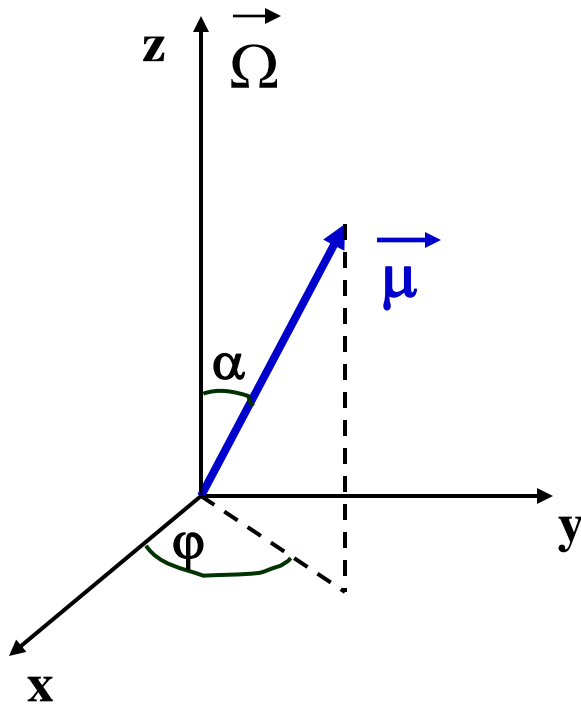


$$\Omega = \frac{d\varphi}{dt} \equiv \dot{\varphi}$$

$$\vec{\mu} = \mu \sin \alpha \cos \varphi \vec{e}_x + \mu \sin \alpha \sin \varphi \vec{e}_y + \mu \cos \alpha \vec{e}_z$$

Next one calculates $\dot{\vec{\mu}} = \frac{d}{dt} \vec{\mu}$ and $\ddot{\vec{\mu}}$

Suppose: $\alpha = \text{const}$, $\mu \equiv |\vec{\mu}| = \text{const}$



$$\left| \ddot{\vec{\mu}} \right|^2 = \mu^2 \sin^2 \alpha \left(\Omega^4 + \dot{\Omega}^2 \right)$$

$$\dot{\Omega}^2 \ll \Omega^4 \quad \star$$

$$\left| \ddot{\vec{\mu}} \right|^2 \approx \mu^2 \sin^2 \alpha \cdot \Omega^4$$

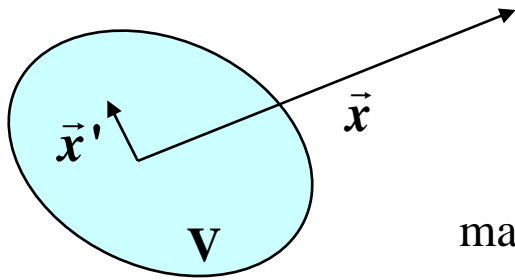
$$\dot{E}_{mag} = -\frac{2}{3c^3} \mu^2 (\sin \alpha)^2 \Omega^4$$



Crab PSR: $P = 0.0330847 \text{ s}$, $\dot{P} = 4.22765 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s/s}$

→ $\dot{\Omega}^2 = 5.9 \times 10^{-18} \text{ s}^{-4} \ll \Omega^4 = 1.31 \times 10^9 \text{ s}^{-4}$

Magnetic field for a localized steady-state current distribution



$$\vec{j}(\vec{x}') \neq 0 \quad \vec{x} \in V$$

magnetic dipole moment:
$$\vec{\mu} = \frac{1}{2c} \int \vec{x}' \times \vec{j}(\vec{x}') d^3 \vec{x}'$$

magnetic field

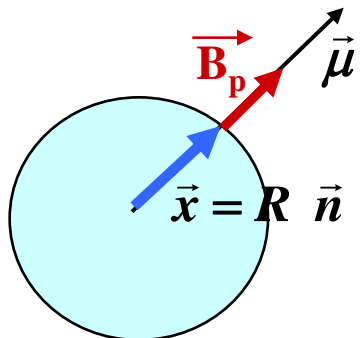
$$\vec{B}(\vec{x}) = \frac{3\vec{n}(\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\mu}) - \vec{\mu}}{|\vec{x}|^3}$$

$$\vec{n} = \frac{\vec{x}}{|\vec{x}|}$$

For a **spherical** (with radius **R**) **current distribution**

the **B-field** at the magnetic pole is

$$\vec{B}_p = \frac{2\vec{\mu}}{R^3}$$



at the magnetic equator:
$$\vec{B}_e = -\frac{\vec{\mu}}{R^3}$$

$$\dot{E}_{mag} = - \frac{1}{6c^3} R^6 B_p^2 \sin^2 \alpha \Omega^4$$

$$\dot{E}_{mag} = - \frac{1}{6c^3} R^6 B_p^2 \sin^2 \alpha \Omega^4$$

Rotational
kinetic
energy

$$E_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} I \Omega^2 \xrightarrow{\dot{I} = 0}$$

$$\dot{E}_{rot} = I \Omega \dot{\Omega}$$

$$\dot{E}_{mag} = -\frac{1}{6c^3} R^6 B_p^2 \sin^2 \alpha \Omega^4$$

Rotational
kinetic
energy

$$E_{rot} = \frac{1}{2} I \Omega^2 \xrightarrow{\dot{I}=0}$$

$$\dot{E}_{rot} = I \Omega \dot{\Omega}$$

Energy rate balance:

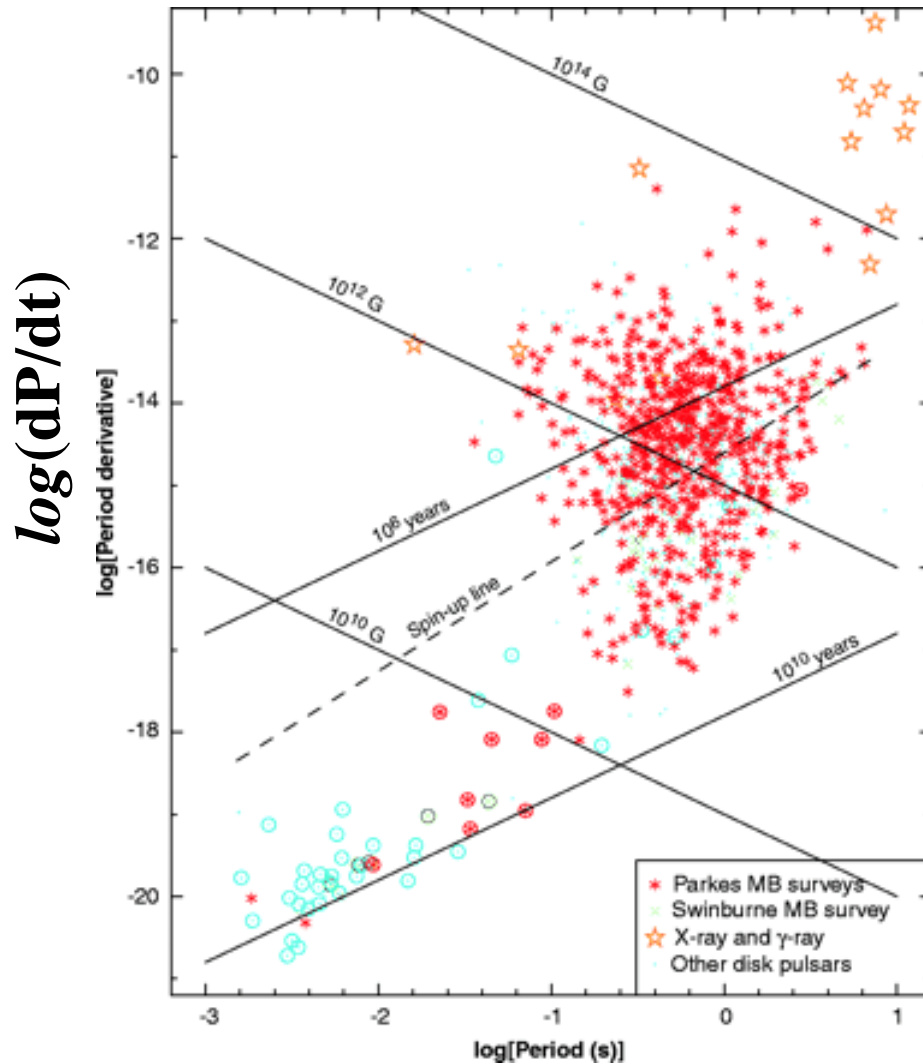
$$\dot{E}_{rot} = \dot{E}_{mag}$$

$$\dot{\Omega} = -K \Omega^3$$

$$P \dot{P} = (2\pi)^2 K$$

$$K \equiv \frac{1}{6c^3} \frac{R^6}{I} (B_p \sin \alpha)^2$$

Distribution of PSRs on the $P - \dot{P}$ plane



$\log(P[\text{sec.}])$

$$B_{\perp} = \frac{\sqrt{6c^3}}{2\pi} \frac{I^{1/2}}{R^3} \left(P \dot{P} \right)^{1/2}$$

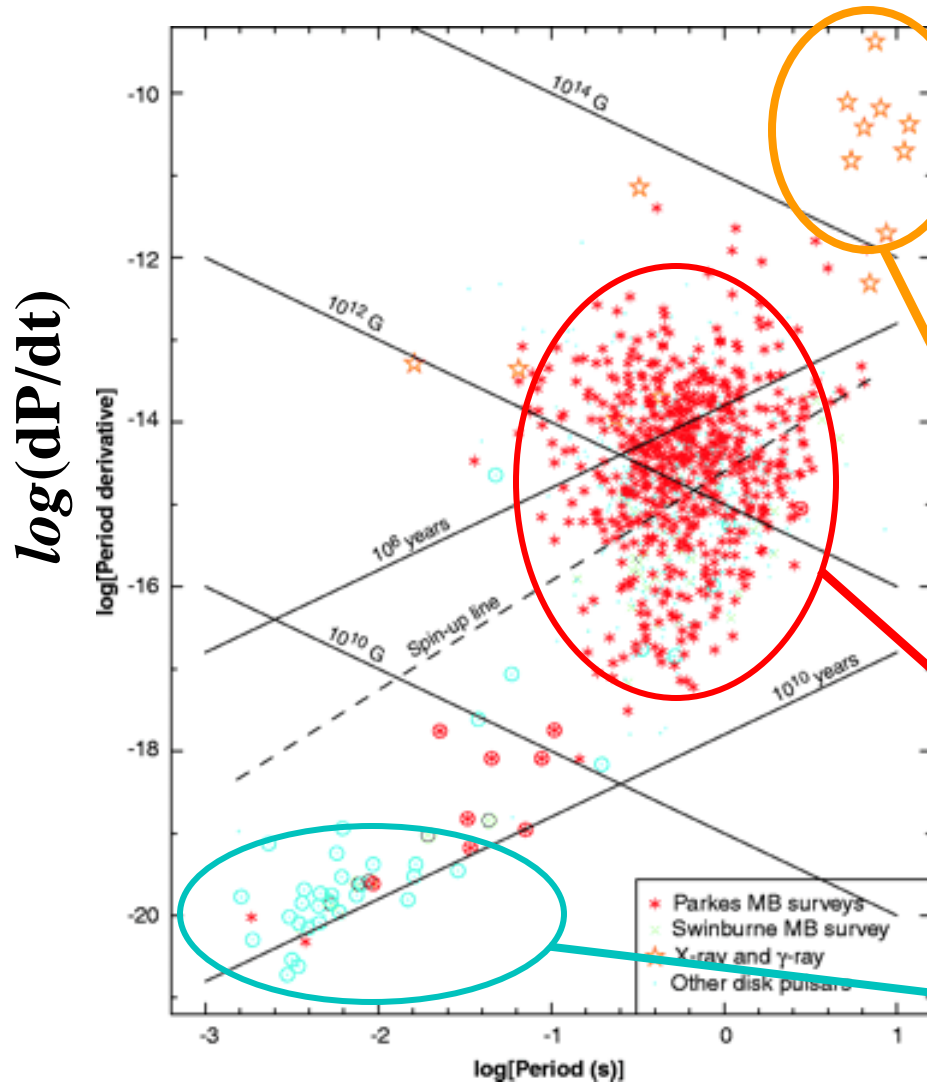
$$= 6.4 \times 10^{19} \left(P \dot{P} \right)^{1/2} \text{ Gauss}$$

$$B_{\perp} \equiv B_p \sin \alpha$$

$$R = 10 \text{ km}$$

$$I = 10^{45} \text{ g cm}^2$$

Distribution of PSRs on the $P - \dot{P}$ plane



$$B_{\perp} = \frac{\sqrt{6c^3}}{2\pi} \frac{I^{1/2}}{R^3} \left(P \dot{P} \right)^{1/2}$$

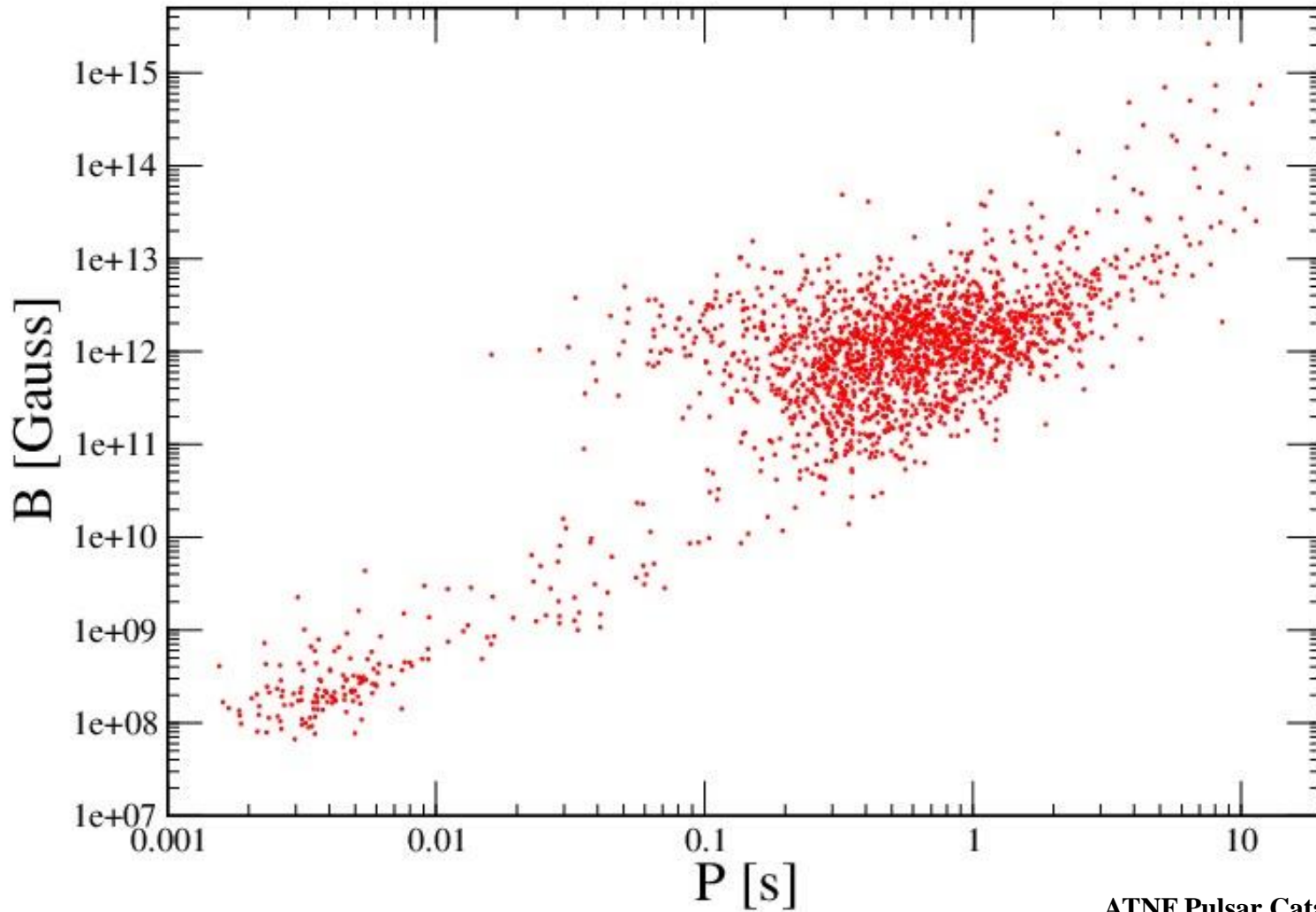
$$= 6.4 \times 10^{19} \left(P \dot{P} \right)^{1/2} \text{ Gauss}$$

$B \sim 10^{14} - 10^{15} \text{ G}$ “Magnetars”

$B \sim 10^{12} \text{ G}$ “normal” PSR

$B \sim 10^8 - 10^9 \text{ G}$ millisecond PSR

$\log(P[\text{sec.}])$



**ATNF Pulsar Catalogue:
1968 PSR data points (Jan. 2014)**

The PSR evolution differential equation can be rewritten as:

$$\dot{\Omega} = -K\Omega^n$$

$$P^{n-2} \dot{P} = (2\pi)^{n-1} K$$

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$$\dot{\Omega} = -K\Omega^n$$

$$P^{n-2} \dot{P} = (2\pi)^{n-1} K$$

Differentiating this equation, with $\mathbf{K} = \text{const}$, one obtains:

braking index

$$n \equiv \Omega \ddot{\Omega} / \dot{\Omega}^2 = 2 - P \ddot{P} / \dot{P}^2$$

$n = 3$ within the **magnetic dipole model**

The three quantities \mathbf{P} , $\dot{\mathbf{P}}$ and $\ddot{\mathbf{P}}$ have been measured for a few PSRs.

Measured value of the braking index n

PSR name	n	P (s)	\dot{P} (10^{-15} s/s)	Dipole age (yr)
PSR B0531+21 (Crab)	2.515 ± 0.005	0.03308	422.765	1238
PSR B0833-45 (Vela)	1.4 ± 0.2	0.08933	125.008	11000
PRS B1509-58	2.839 ± 0.005	0.1506	1536.5	1554
PSR B0540-69	2.01 ± 0.02	0.0505	478.924	1672
PSR J1119-6127	2.91 ± 0.05	0.40077	4021.782	1580

The **deviation of the braking index from 3** could probably be due
 (i) to **torque on the pulsar from outflow of particles**;
 (ii), **Change with time of the “constant” K** , *i.e.* $I(t)$, or/and $B(t)$ or/and $\alpha(t)$

Solutions of the PSR time evolution differential equation

$$\Omega(t) = \Omega_0 [(n-1)K\Omega_0^{n-1} t + 1]^{-1/(n-1)}$$

$$P(t) = P_0 [(n-1)K\Omega_0^{n-1} t + 1]^{1/(n-1)}$$

 $n \neq 1$

$t_0 = 0$ (NS birth), $P_0 = P(t_0)$, $\Omega_0 = \Omega(t_0)$; $K = \text{const}$

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 $n \neq 1$

$$P(t) = P_0 [(n-1)K\Omega_0^{n-1} t + 1]^{1/(n-1)}$$

$$\Omega(t) = \Omega_0 [2K\Omega_0^2 t + 1]^{-1/2}$$

 $n = 3$

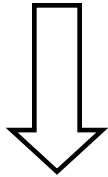
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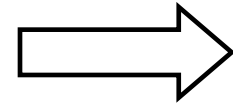
$$\dot{\Omega} = -K\Omega^n$$

with $\mathbf{K} = \text{const}$

$n \neq 1$



$$\frac{1}{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{\Omega^{n-1}(t)} - \frac{1}{\Omega_0^{n-1}} \right) = K t$$



The Pulsar age

The solution of the PSR differential equation can be rewritten as:

$$t = -\frac{1}{n-1} \frac{\Omega(t)}{\dot{\Omega}(t)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{\Omega(t)}{\Omega_0} \right)^{n-1} \right]$$

(*)

$n \neq 1$

“true” pulsar age

The Pulsar age

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$$t = -\frac{1}{n-1} \frac{\Omega(t)}{\dot{\Omega}(t)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{\Omega(t)}{\Omega_0} \right)^{n-1} \right] \quad (*)$$

$n \neq 1$

or,

$$t = \tau - \left\{ (n-1) K \Omega_0^{n-1} \right\}^{-1}$$

“true” pulsar age

$$\tau \equiv -\frac{1}{n-1} \frac{\Omega}{\dot{\Omega}} = \frac{1}{n-1} \frac{P}{\dot{P}}$$

$n = 3$

dipole age

$$\tau = P/(2\dot{P}) = -\Omega/(2\dot{\Omega})$$

if $\Omega(t) \ll \Omega_0$

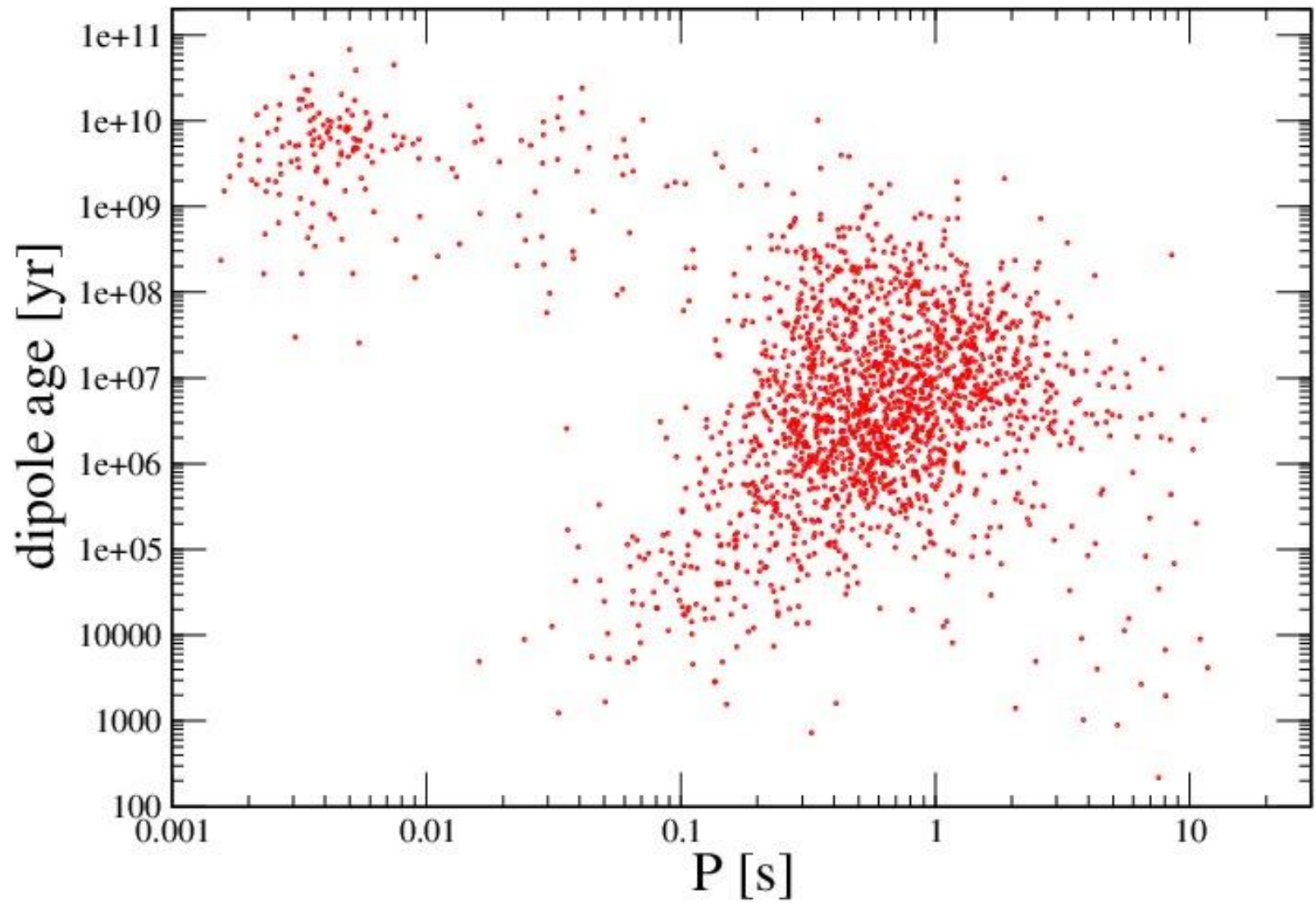
($t \equiv$ present time)

$$t \approx \tau$$

The measure of P and \dot{P} gives the pulsar dipole age

This determination of the PRS age is valid under the assumption **$K = \text{const.}$**

Pulsar dipole age



Example: the age of the Crab Pulsar

SN explosion: 1054 AD

$$P = 0.0330847 \text{ s}, \quad \dot{P} = 4.22765 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s/s}$$

$$\text{braking index: } n = 2.515 \pm 0.005$$



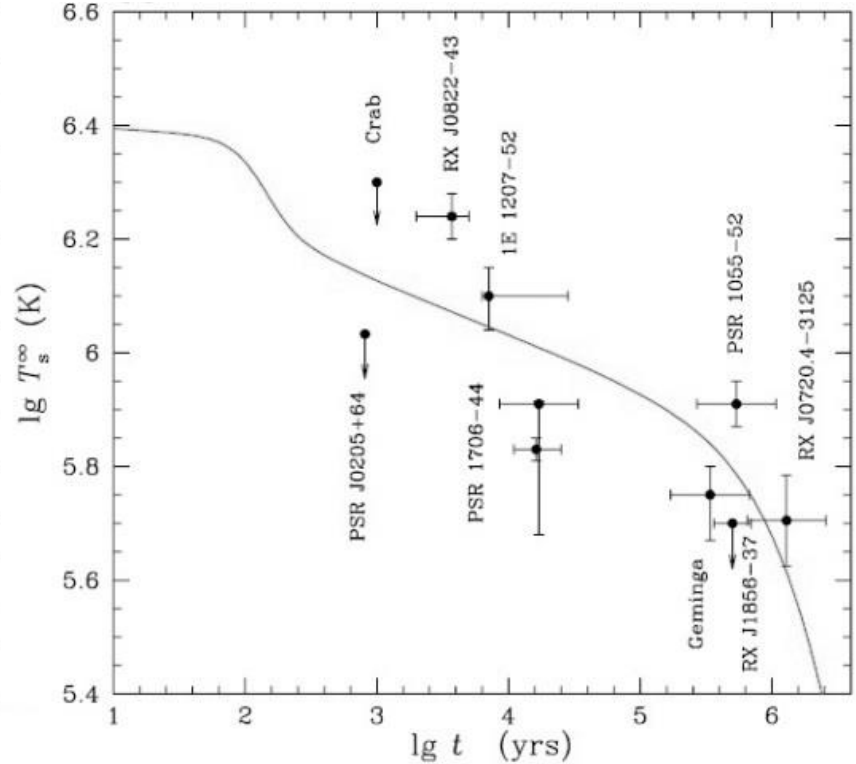
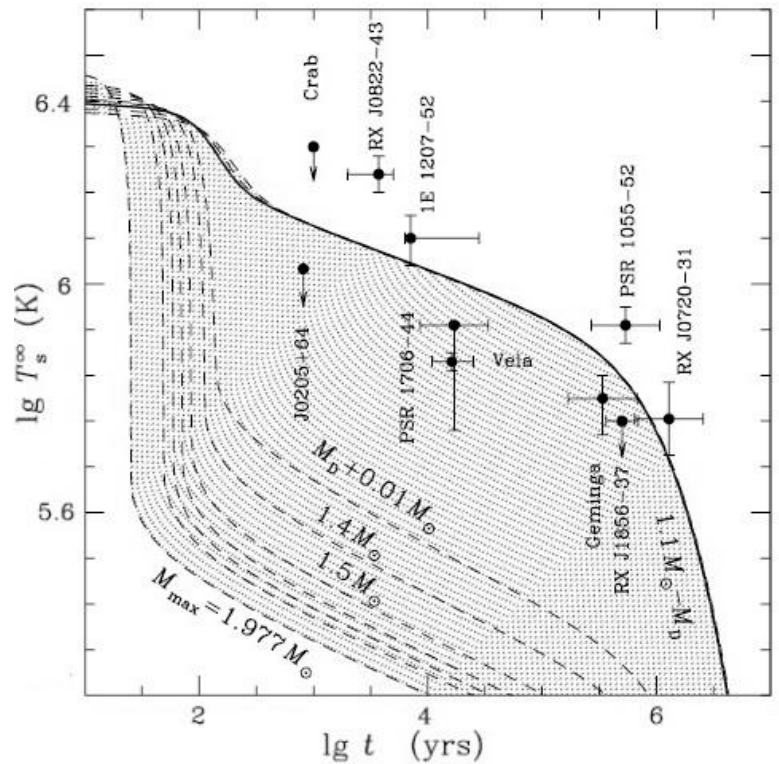
$$t_{\text{crab}} = (2014 - 1054) \text{ yr} = 960 \text{ yr}, \quad \tau = 1238 \text{ yr} \text{ (dipole age)}$$

Assuming the validity of the PSR dipole model, using the previous equation (*) for the pulsar true age, we can infer the initial spin period of the Crab

$$P_0 = P (1 - t_{\text{crab}}/\tau)^{1/2} \\ \cong 0.01568 \text{ s}$$

But $n_{\text{crab}} \neq 3$

pulsar age determination is relevant for many aspects of pulsar and neutron star physics, for example for modeling the **thermal evolution (cooling) of neutron stars**



Yakovlev, et al. Astr. And Astrophys. 42 (2004)

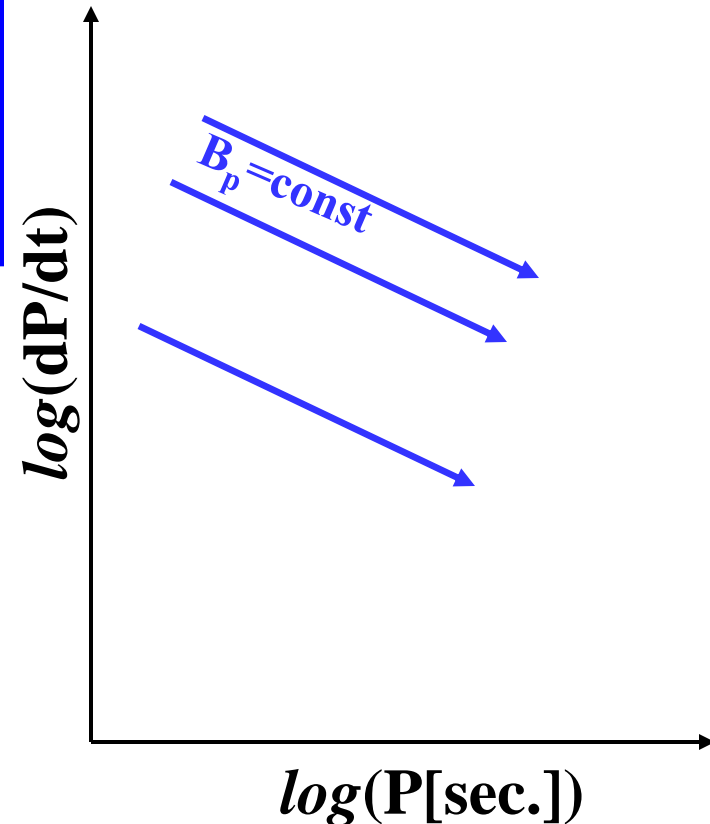
Pulsar evolutionary path on the $P-\dot{P}$ plane

$$P \dot{P} = (2\pi)^2 K$$

$$K \equiv \frac{1}{6c^3} \frac{R^6}{I} (B_p \sin \alpha)^2$$

Taking the logarithm of this equation we get:

$$\log \dot{P} = \log \left[\frac{(2\pi)^2 R^6}{6c^3 I} B_p^2 \sin^2 \alpha \right] - \log P$$



Pulsar evolutionary path on the $P-\dot{P}$ plane

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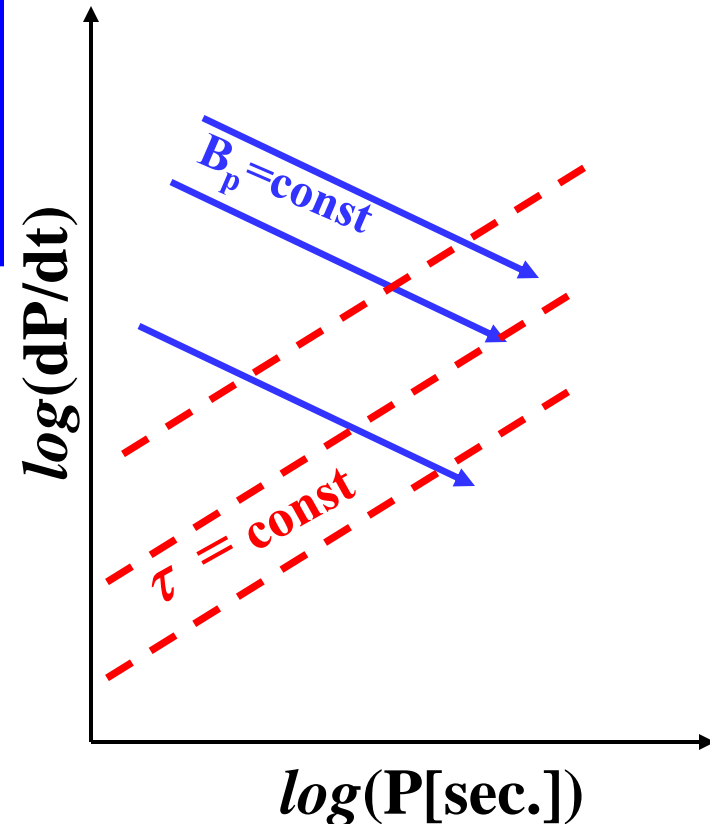
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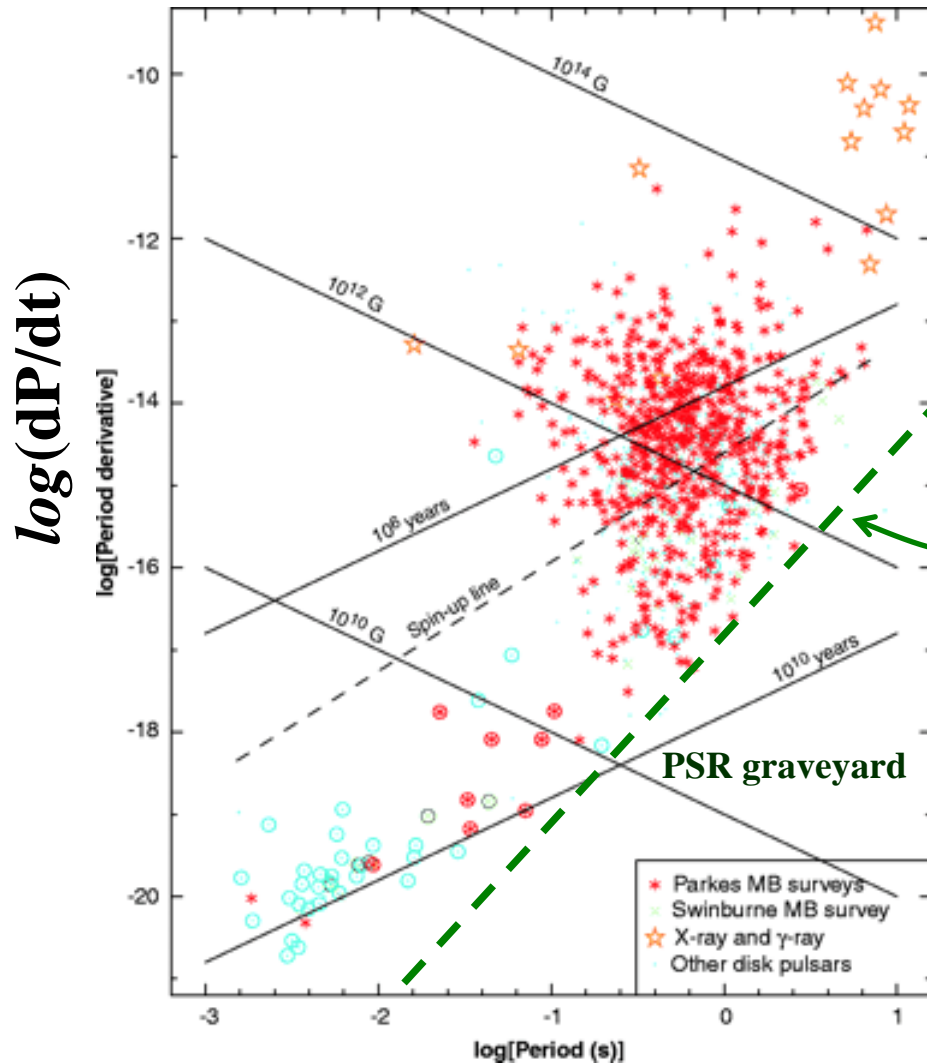
$$\log \dot{P} = \log \left[\frac{(2\pi)^2 R^6}{6c^3 I} B_p^2 \sin^2 \alpha \right] - \log P$$

$$\tau = P/(2\dot{P})$$

$$\log \dot{P} = \log P - \log(2\tau)$$



Pulsar evolutionary path on the $P-\dot{P}$ plane



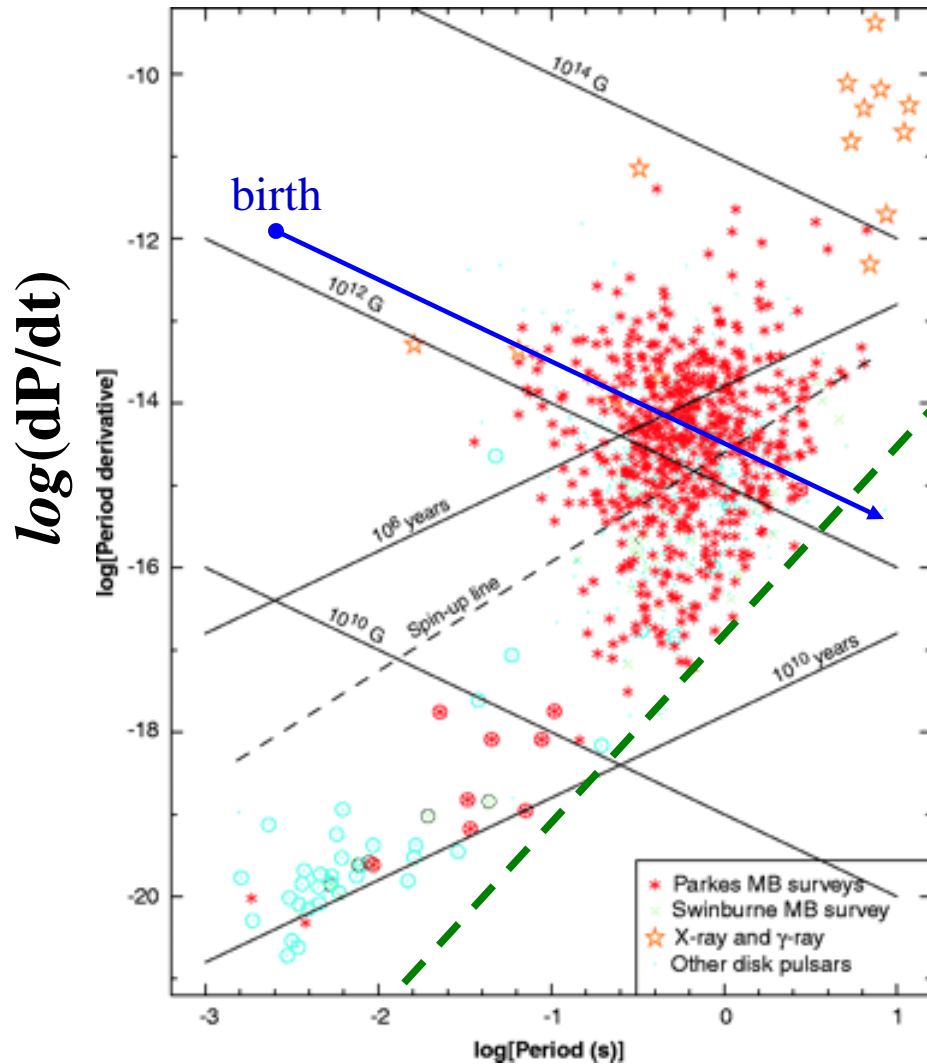
$\log(P[\text{sec.}])$

Radio emission from rotating powered pulsars has its origin in the relativistic outflow of e^+e^- pairs along the polar magnetic field lines of the NS magnetic field.

Pulsar death line

The pulsar “**death line**” is defined as the line in the P - \dot{P} plane which correspond to the cessation of pair creation over the magnetic poles of the NS.

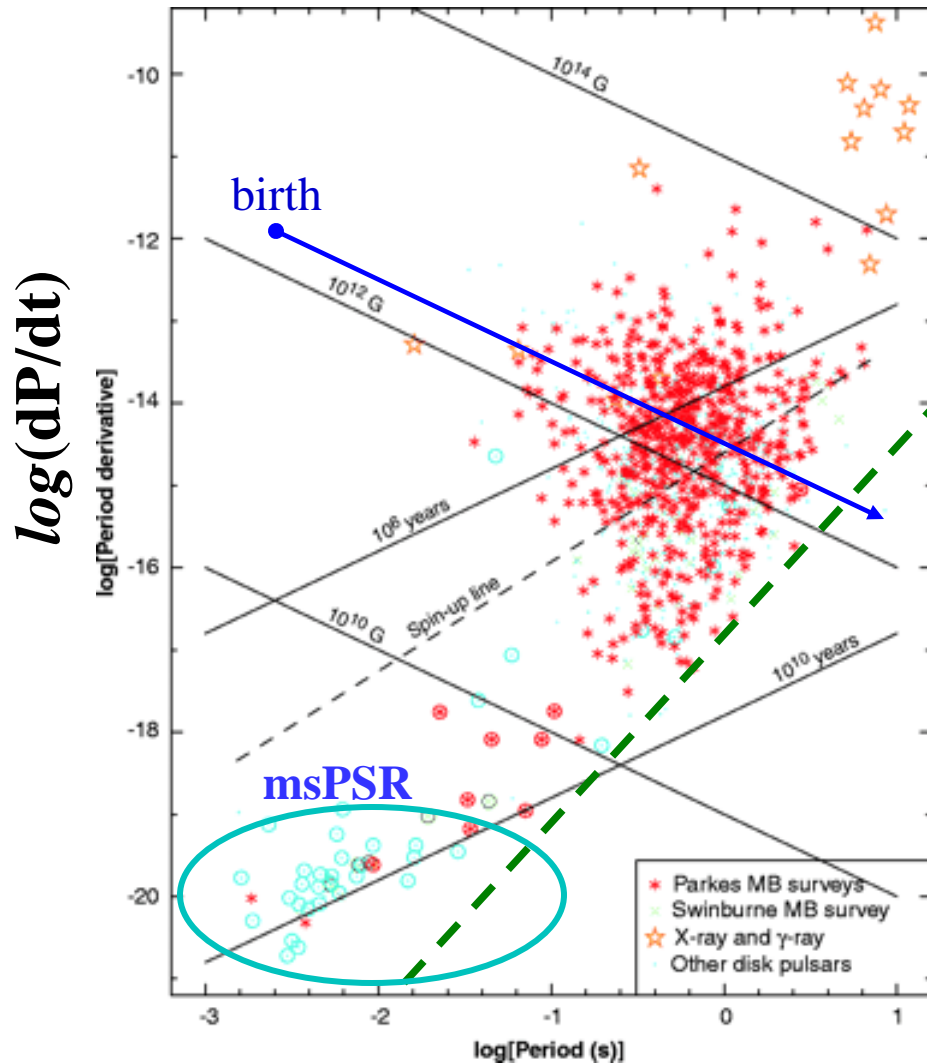
Pulsar evolutionary path on the $P-\dot{P}$ plane



A plausible **evolutionary track** for a “normal” pulsar would be the birth at short spin period followed by a spin down into the “pulsar island” on a time scale of 10^5 – 10^6 yr eventually becoming too faint to be detectable or crossing the death line after 10^7 – 10^8 yr.

$\log(\text{P}[\text{sec.}])$

Pulsar evolutionary path on the $P-\dot{P}$ plane

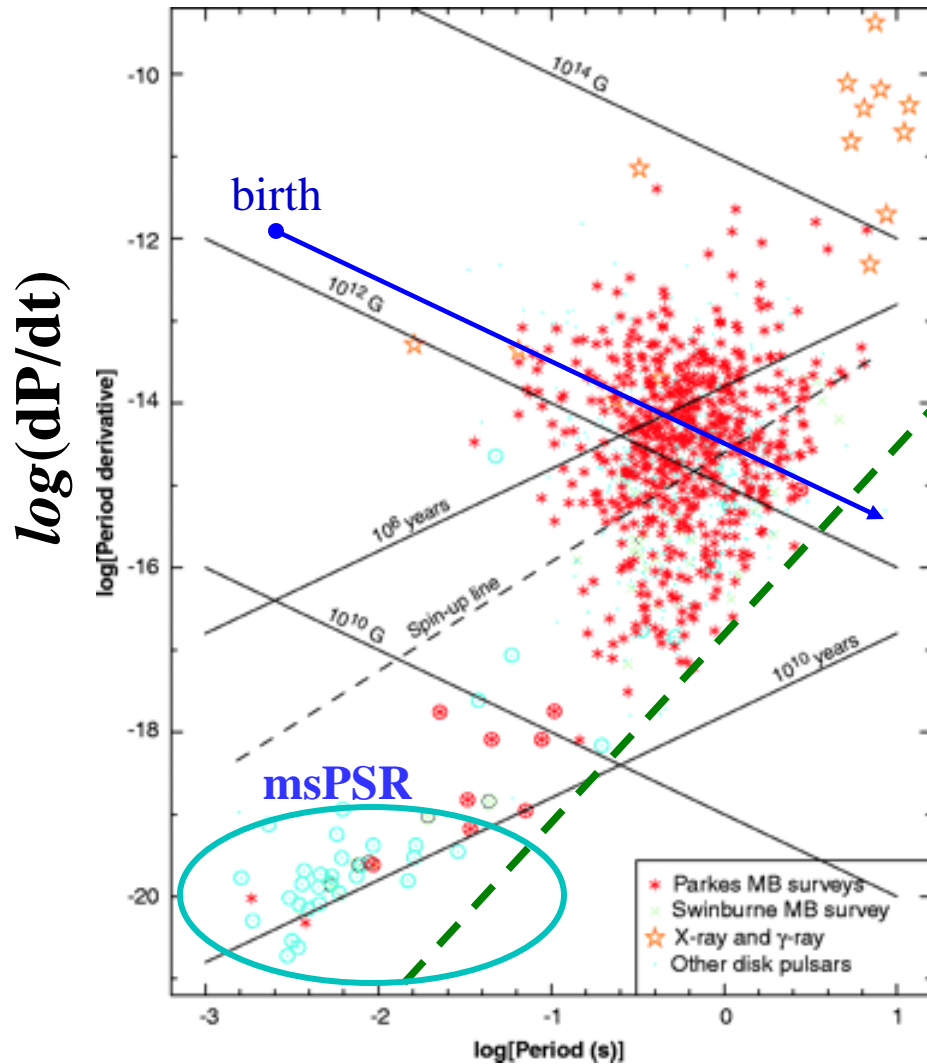


millisecons PSRs have dipole ages in the range $10^9 - 10^{10}$ yr thus they are **very old** pulsars.

about 80% of msPSRs are observed in **binary systems**

$\log(P[\text{sec.}])$

Pulsar evolutionary path on the $P-\dot{P}$ plane



millisecons PSRs have dipole ages in the range $10^9 - 10^{10}$ yr thus they are **very old** pulsars.

What is the origin of millisecond pulsars?

Millisecond pulsar are believed to result from the **spin-up** of a “slow” rotating neutron star through **mass accretion** (and **angular momentum transfer**) from a companion star in a binary stellar system. (“**recycled pulsars**”)

The PSR/NS magnetic field

Based on the magnetic dipole model for PSRs: $B \sim 10^{14}\text{--}10^{15}$ G “Magnetars”
 $B \sim 10^{12}$ G “normal” PSR, $B \sim 10^8\text{--}10^9$ G millisecond PSR

Key questions

1. Where does the PSR/NS magnetic field come from?
2. Is the magnetic field constant in time? Or, does it decay?

If **B decays in time** what are the **implications** for the determination of the **pulsar age** and **braking index** ?

Where does the NS magnetic field come from?

There is as yet no satisfactory theory for the generation of the magnetic field in a Neutron Star.

■ Fossil remnant magnetic field from the progenitor star:

Assuming **magnetic flux conservation** during the birth of the neutron star

$$\Phi(\mathbf{B}) \sim B R^2 = \text{const.}$$

Progenitor star: $R_* \sim 10^6 \text{ km}, \quad B_* \sim 10^2 \text{ G}$

$$B_{\text{NS}} \sim (R_*/R_{\text{NS}})^2 B_* \sim 10^{12} \text{ G}$$

Earth (at the magnetic poles): $B = 0.6 \text{ G}, \quad \text{Refrigerator magnet: } B \sim 100 \text{ G}$

Where does the NS magnetic field come from?

■ The field could be generated after the formation of the NS by some long living **electric currents** flowing in the highly conductive neutron star material.

■ Spontaneous **“ferromagnetic” transition** in the neutron star core

Magnetic field decay in Neutron Stars

There are strong theoretical and observational arguments which indicate a decay of the neutron star magnetic field. (Ostriker and Gunn, 1969)

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{B}_\infty + [\mathbf{B}_0 - \mathbf{B}_\infty] \exp(-t / \tau_B)$$

\mathbf{B}_∞ = residual magnetic field

$$\tau_B \sim 1 \text{ } \square \text{ } 10 \text{ Myr}$$

B-field decay



**Decrease with time of
the magnetic braking**

Pulsar evolution with a time dependent magnetic field

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{B}_0 \exp(-t/\tau_B)$$

$$P \dot{P} = (2\pi)^2 K(t)$$

$$\mathbf{n} = 3$$

$$K(t) = A B^2(t) = A B_0^2 \exp(-2t/\tau_B) = K_0 \exp(-2t/\tau_B)$$

$$A = \frac{R^6 \sin^2 \alpha}{6c^3 I}$$

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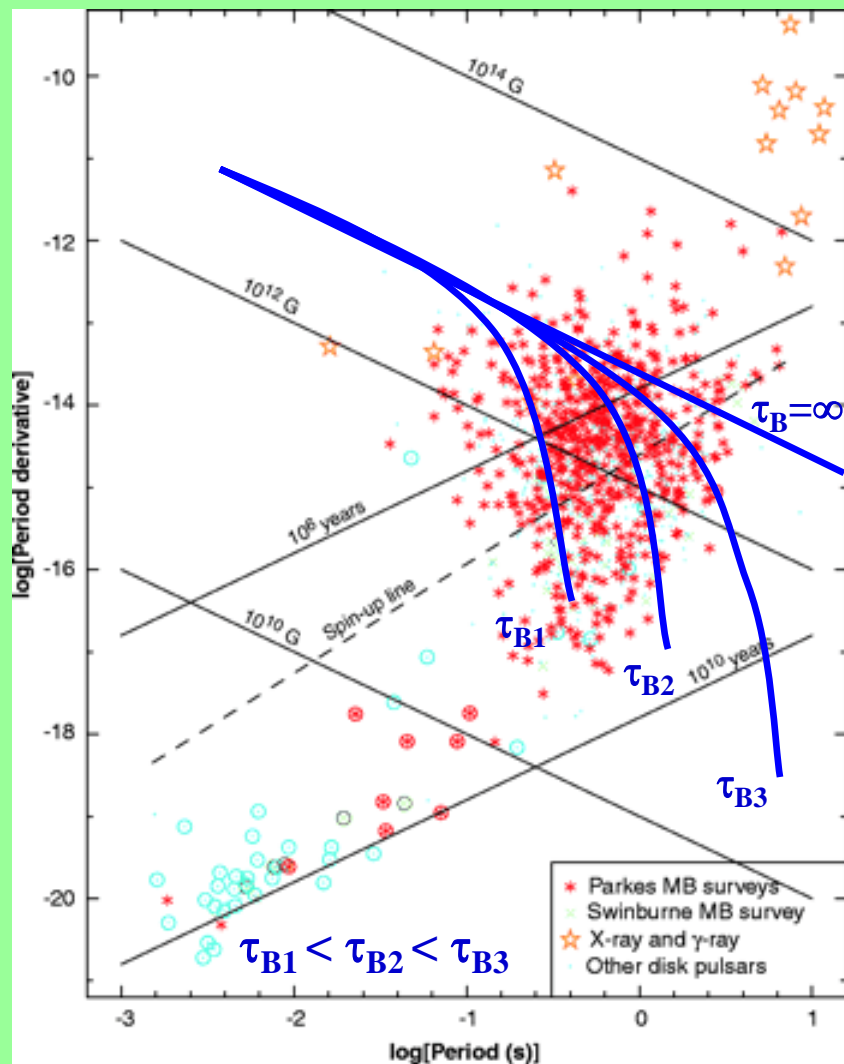
$$K(t) = A B^2(t) = A B_0^2 \exp(-2t/\tau_B) = K_0 \exp(-2t/\tau_B)$$

$$P \dot{P} = (2\pi)^2 K_0 \exp(-2t/\tau_B)$$

$$A = \frac{R^6 \sin^2 \alpha}{6c^3 I}$$


$$P(t) = P_0 \left[\Omega_0^2 K_0 \tau_B (1 - \exp(-2t/\tau_B)) + 1 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\log \dot{P} = \log \left[(2\pi^2) K_0 \right] - \log P - 2 \frac{t}{\tau_B} \log(e)$$



$$\dot{\Omega} = -K(t)\Omega^n = -A B^2(t) \Omega^n$$

$$\ddot{\Omega} = n \frac{\dot{\Omega}^2}{\Omega} + 2\dot{\Omega} \frac{\dot{B}}{B}$$

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apparent braking index

$$\tilde{n}(t) \equiv \Omega \ddot{\Omega} / \dot{\Omega}^2$$

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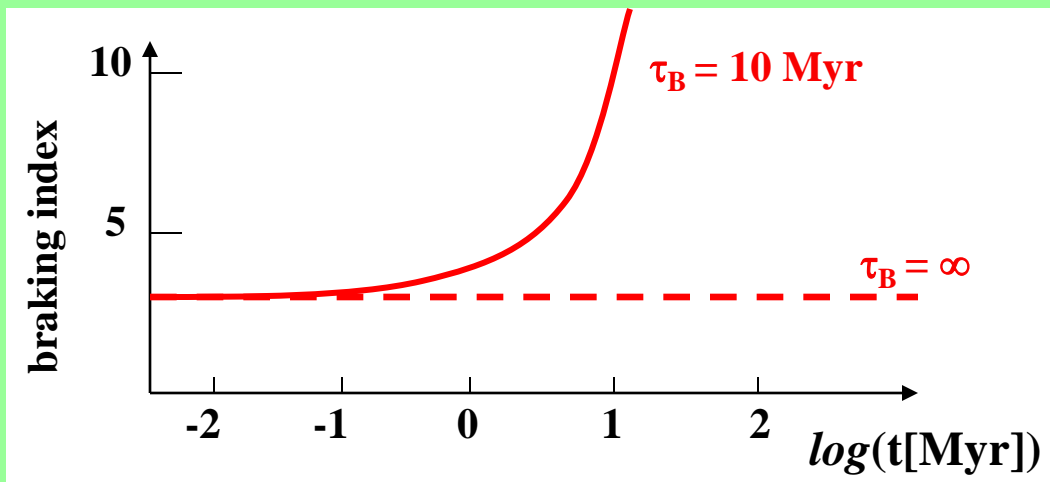
$$\tilde{n}(t) = n + 2 \frac{\Omega \dot{B}}{\dot{\Omega} B} = n - \frac{2\dot{B}}{AB^3 \Omega^{n-1}}$$

$$n = 3$$

$$K(t) \equiv \frac{1}{6c^3} \frac{R^6}{I} (B_p(t) \sin \alpha)^2$$

$$\tilde{n}(t) = 3 - \frac{12c^3 I \dot{B}}{R^6 B^3 \sin^2 \alpha \Omega^2}$$

B is the field at the magnetic pole

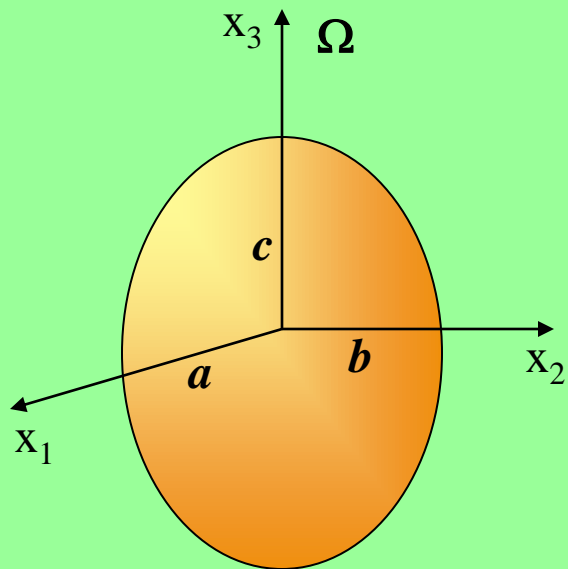


Tauris and Konar,
Astron. and Astrophys. 376 (2001)

Gravitational radiation from a Neutron Star

The **lowest-order gravitational radiation is quadrupole**. Thus in order to radiate gravitational energy a **NS** must have a **time-varying quadrupole moment**

Gravitational radiation from a spinning triaxial ellipsoid



$$a \neq b \neq c$$
$$I_1 \neq I_2 \neq I_3$$

ellipticity: $\varepsilon = \frac{a-b}{(a+b)/2}$

If: $\varepsilon \ll 1$

$$\dot{E}_{grav} = - \frac{32 G}{5 c^5} I_3^2 \varepsilon^2 \Omega^6$$

$$\dot{E}_{rot} = I_3 \Omega \dot{\Omega}$$

$$\dot{\Omega} = -K_g \Omega^5$$

braking index for
gravitational quadrupole radiation

$$n \equiv \frac{\ddot{\Omega}}{\dot{\Omega}^2} = 5$$

pulsar age

$$\tau_{n-1} \equiv -\frac{1}{n-1} \frac{\Omega}{\dot{\Omega}} = \frac{1}{n-1} \frac{P}{\dot{P}}$$

$$\tau_4 = P/(4\dot{P}) = -\Omega/(4\dot{\Omega})$$

An application to the case of the Crab pulsar

Suppose that the Crab Nebula is powered by the emission of gravitational radiation of a spinning Neutron Star (triaxial ellipsoid).

We want to calculate the deformation (ellipticity ϵ) of the Neutron Star.

$$L_{\text{crab}} = 5 \times 10^{38} \text{ erg/s}$$

$$P = 0.033 \text{ s}$$

$$\dot{P} = 4.227 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s/s}$$

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$$L_{\text{crab}} = |\dot{E}_{\text{grav}}| = \frac{32}{5} (2\pi)^6 \frac{G}{c^5} \frac{I_3^2}{P^6} \varepsilon^2 \equiv A \varepsilon^2$$

assuming:

$$I_3 = 10^{45} \text{ g cm}^2$$



$$A = 8.38 \times 10^{44} \text{ erg/s}$$


$$\varepsilon \sim 7.7 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$R = 10 \text{ km}$$


$$a - b \cong \varepsilon R \cong 7.7 \text{ m}$$

A rotating neutron star with a **8 meter high mountain** at the equator could power the **Crab nebula** via **gravitational wave emission**

Is it possible to have a 8 meter high mountain on the surface of a Neutron Star?

Is there a limit to the maximum possible height of a mountain on a planet?

On the Earth: Mons Everest: $h \sim 9 \text{ km}$ ($\sim 4 \text{ km}$ high from the Tibet plateau)
Mauna Kea (Hawaii): $h \sim 10 \text{ km}$ (from the ocean bottom to the peak)
 $R_{\oplus} = 6380 \text{ km}$ (equatorial terrestrial radius)

h_{max} will depend on: (i) **inter-atomic forces (rock stress, melting point)**,
(ii) the **planetary gravity acceleration g**

Pressure at the base of the mountain: $\mathbf{P} \sim \rho \mathbf{g} \mathbf{h} < \mathbf{P}_{\max}$ ($\rho = \text{const}$, $\mathbf{g} = \text{const}$)

$$\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{M} / \mathbf{R}^2, \quad (\mathbf{R} = \text{planet's radius})$$

For a constant density planet ($\mathbf{M} \propto \mathbf{R}^3$), one has:

$$h_{\max} = \frac{P_{\max}}{\rho} \frac{1}{g} \propto \frac{1}{g} \propto \frac{R^2}{GM} \propto \frac{R^2}{R^3} = \frac{1}{R}$$

Assuming for the **Earth**: $\mathbf{h}_{\max \oplus} = 10 \text{ km}$, using the previous eq. we can calculate the maximum height of a mountain in a terrestrial-like planet (rocky planet):

$$\mathbf{h}_{\max} = (\mathbf{R}_{\oplus} / \mathbf{R}) \mathbf{h}_{\max \oplus} \quad (\mathbf{R}_{\oplus} = 6380 \text{ km})$$

The planet **Mars**:

$$\mathbf{R} = 3400 \text{ km} = 0.53 \mathbf{R}_{\oplus} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{h}_{\max} = 19 \text{ km}$$

mons Olympus $\mathbf{h} = 25 \text{ km}$

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For a **Neutron Star** this simple formula can **not** be used.

More reliable calculations give: $\mathbf{h}_{\max, \text{NS}} \sim 1 \text{ cm}$

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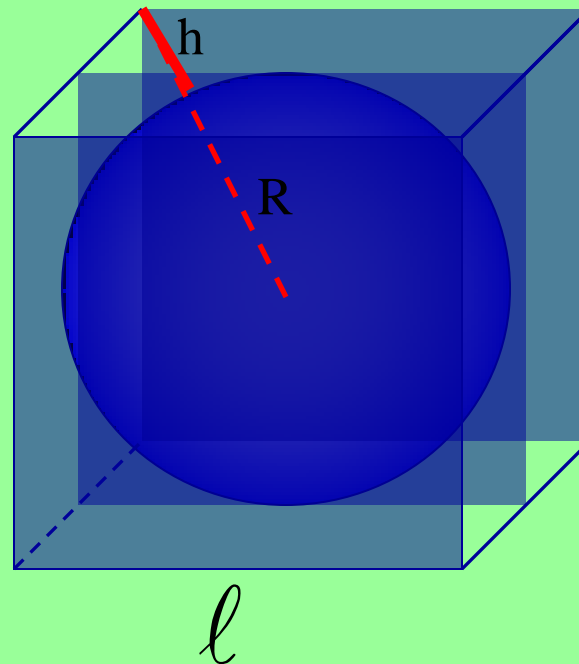
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Crab pulsar: $n = 2.515 \pm 0.005$

$t_{\text{crab}} = 960 \text{ yr}$, $\tau_4 = 619 \text{ yr}$ (quadrupole age)

Exercise: using this simple argument, estimate the maximum size of a **cubic Earth-like planet**

$$\ell = 2R = 590 \text{ km}$$



Time dependent moment of Inertia

Up to now we supposed that the NS moment of inertia does not depend on frequency and on time (Ω changes with time as the NS spins down).

Suppose now: $I = I(t) = I(\Omega(t))$

Rotational kinetic energy

$$\dot{E}_{rot} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} I \Omega^2 \right) = I \Omega \dot{\Omega} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{dI}{d\Omega} \dot{\Omega} \Omega^2$$

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We can write the energy rate radiated by the star due to some **general braking mechanism** as

$$\dot{E}_{brak} = -C \Omega^{n+1}$$

n braking index

Energy balance: $\dot{E}_{brak} = \dot{E}_{rot}$ 



$$\dot{\Omega} = -K(t) \left(1 + \frac{I' \Omega}{2I} \right)^{-1} \Omega^n$$

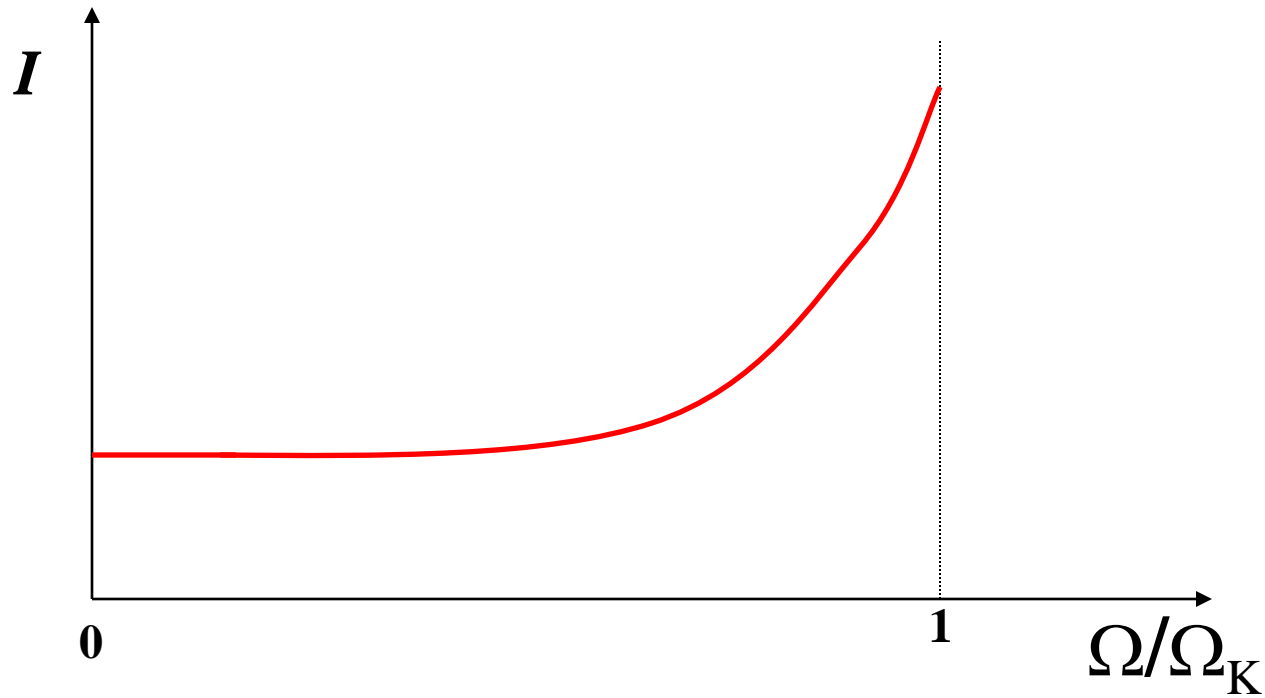
$$K(t) \equiv C / I(t)$$

$$I'(t) \equiv dI / d\Omega$$

In the case of a pure magnetic dipole braking mechanism ($n = 3$), this equation generalizes to the case of time-dependent moment of inertia, the “standard” magnetic dipole model differential equation

$$\dot{\Omega} = -K\Omega^3$$

$$K \equiv \frac{1}{6c^3} \frac{R^6}{I} (B_p \sin \alpha)^2$$



$$I' \equiv dI/d\Omega > 0$$

B-field determination from \mathbf{P} and $\dot{\mathbf{P}}$ in the case $dI/d\Omega \neq 0$

The value of the magnetic field deduced from the **measured values of \mathbf{P} and $d\mathbf{P}/dt$** , when the proper frequency dependence of the moment of inertia is considered, is given by

$$\tilde{B}_p = \left(1 + \frac{I' \Omega}{2I} \right)^{1/2} B_p$$

B_p being the value obtained for constant moment of inertia I .

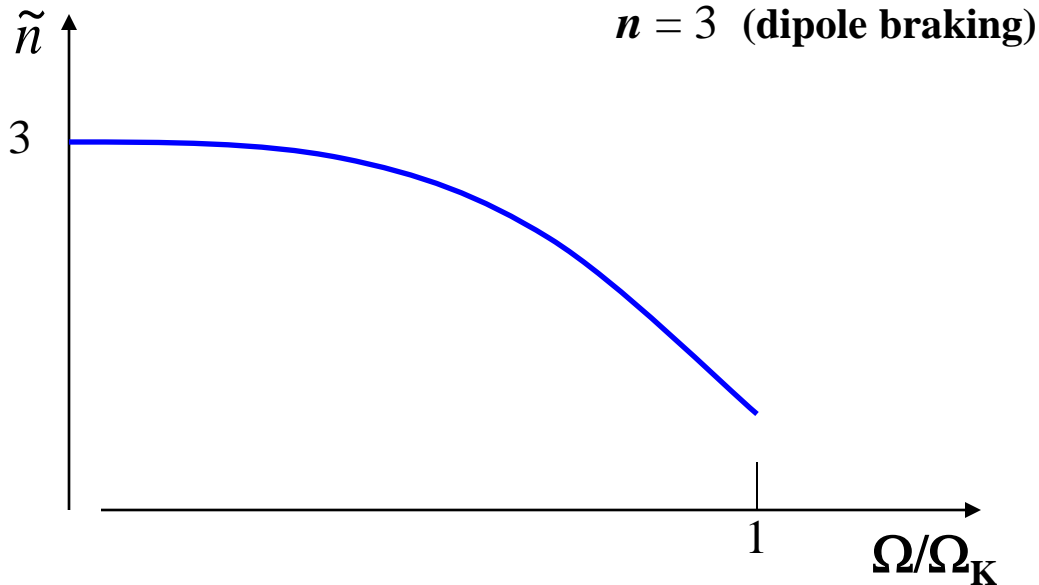
$$B_p \sin \alpha = \frac{\sqrt{6c^3}}{2\pi} \frac{I^{1/2}}{R^3} \left(\mathbf{P} \dot{\mathbf{P}} \right)^{1/2}$$

$I' \equiv dI/d\Omega > 0$, thus the “**true**” value B_p of the magnetic field is **larger** than the value B_p deduced assuming $I' = 0$.

apparent braking index

$$\tilde{n}(\Omega) \equiv \Omega \ddot{\Omega} / \dot{\Omega}^2 = n - \frac{3I'\Omega + I''\Omega^2}{2I + I'\Omega}$$

$\tilde{n}(\Omega) < n$ because $I' > 0$ and $I'' > 0$ (the moment of inertia increases with Ω and the centrifugal force grows with the equatorial radius).



Dramatic consequences on the apparent braking index when the stellar core undergoes a phase transition

Lectures on Nuclear Astrophysics, Center for Astroparticle Physics
Laboratori Nazionali del Gran Sasso (Italy), January 27 – February 2, 2014

End of the 1st Lecture

