

Neutron stars NS models

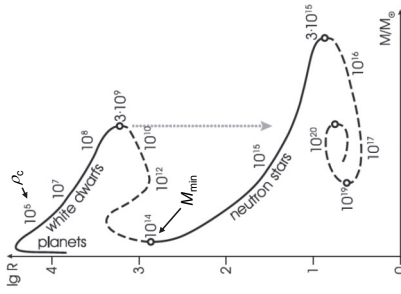


Fig. 38.3. Schematic mass-radius relation (R in km) for configurations of cold catalyzed matter, from the planetary regime to ultradense neutron stars. Some values of ρ_c (in g cm^{-3}) are indicated along the curve. At the extrema of M (open circles) the stability problem has a zero eigenvalue. Solid branches are stable, dashed branches are unstable. The grey vertical arrow indicates the collapse of a white dwarf exceeding the maximum stable mass to a neutron star.

Neutron stars History

- Baade & Zwicky (Dec. 1933, published 1934): "With all reserve we advance the view that supernovae represent the transitions from ordinary stars to **neutron stars**, which in their final stages consist of extremely closely packed neutrons".
- But: Lev Landau completed a paper in (1931) in which he writes for stars heavier than $1.5 M_{\odot}$ "the density of matter becomes so great that atomic nuclei come in close contact, forming one gigantic nucleus."
- Note: the neutron was discovered later by J. Chadwick in January 1932 (publ. Feb. 1932).
- 1939: Oppenheimer & Volkoff compute first neutron star model, assuming a free (ideal) neutron gas (EOS) and hydrostatic equilibrium in General Relativity (GR) $\rightarrow M_{\text{max}} = 0.7 M_{\odot}$.
- 1967: First Pulsar discovered by J. Bell & A. Hewish, identified as a NS, independently by Pacini (1967) and T. Gold (1968).
- Today: more than 1700 radio pulsars discovered. 10^9 NS in our Galaxy expected!

Neutron stars Introduction

- NS are remnants of supernova (II) explosions of massive stars, with initial masses between $\sim(8-10) M_{\odot}$ and $\sim(25-30) M_{\odot}$. Also, if a WD accretes matter from its companion in a close binary system and exceeds M_{ch} , then it may collapse & explode as a supernova type Ia, or collapse to become a NS.

- The main source of the pressure needed to counter balance the gravitational force is the **degenerate neutrons**, since e^- degeneracy cannot support objects with $M > M_{\text{ch}}$.

remember: M_{ch} is obtained for UR, degenerate (ideal) e^- gas, and is independent of rest mass $m_b c^2$. Since neutrons are also fermions (i.e. obeying Pauli's exclusion principle) M_{ch} is also valid as a limiting mass for **ideal, degenerate, UR** neutron gas with $A_0=1$, but this **limit is too high!**

Neutron stars Introduction

- NSs are born hot (10^{10} - 10^{11} K) in the collapse of a highly evolved star, but after a few days $7 \cdot 10^9 \dots 10^{10}$ K, due to efficient neutrino losses, it may even drop to 10^8 K after 100 years.
- 10^8 K ($kT=10$ keV) is low (cold) compared to the characteristic excitation energies in the nuclei of ~ 1 MeV (10^{10} K) and to the nearly relativistic & degenerate neutrons ($E_F \approx 1000$ MeV).
- During NS formation (i.e. relatively high T) nuclear reactions are very rapid and thermodynamic equilibrium (TD) is reached very quickly. Such matter is called **catalyzed matter** (T and ρ are the catalysts), also called **nuclear equilibrium**. The free energy of a macroscopic volume V , containing N_b baryons (nucleons, hyperons, deconfined quarks,...), which is electrically neutral, is

$$\text{Free Energy} = (E - TS)_{V, N_b} \rightarrow \text{minimum.}$$

- if extrapolated to degenerate (cold) state, the TS term can be neglected and, because EOS (and therefore E) does not depend on $T \rightarrow$ **cold catalyzed matter**, i.e. NS is in its lowest energy state, the **ground state of matter**.
- remember: ground state (@ zero pressure) consists of
 - n & p are packaged in to ^{56}Fe nuclei, the most tightly bound nucleus,
 - Nuclei are arranged in a lattice to minimize configuration energy (free energy, see above)
 - e^- are in ferromagnetic state
 - \rightarrow expect NS surface layers to be a ferromagnetic iron lattice.

Neutron stars

Introduction

NS characteristics:

From observations: $M \sim 1 - 2 M_{\odot}$ $\rightarrow \bar{\rho} \approx \frac{M_{\odot}}{(10 \text{ km})^3} \approx 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$
 $R \sim 10 - 20 \text{ km}$

another observation: most rapidly rotating pulsar ($\nu = 716 \text{ Hz}$, $\omega = 4499 \text{ s}^{-1}$):
 $m\omega^2 R < \frac{GMm}{R^2} \rightarrow \frac{M}{R^3} > \frac{\omega^2}{G} \rightarrow \bar{\rho} \geq 7.2 \times 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$
 (central density is much larger),
 centrifugal force
 gravitational force

Note: nuclear density: $\rho_{\text{nuc}} := \rho_0 \approx m_n / (4\pi/3)r_0^3 \approx 2.8 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$; $r_0 \approx 10^{-15} \text{ m}$
 nuclei start to touch each other @ $\bar{\rho} \approx 1.5 \times \rho_0 \approx 4 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

\rightarrow NS are like giant atomic nuclei: but NS is held together by gravity, nuclei by strong forces.

Average inter-particle distance: $< 1 \text{ fm}$ (10^{-15} m) \rightarrow strong interactions \rightarrow crucial for EOS

Temperatures: surface $\sim 10^6 \text{ K}$, interior up to 10^{11} K

Magnetic fields: $10^{12} - 10^{15} \text{ G}$!

Space-time is strongly curved: $\frac{R}{r_g} \approx 2 - 4$ where $r_g := \frac{2GM}{c^2} = 2.95 M/M_{\odot} \text{ km}$.

Schwarzschild radius (event horizon), no signal can escape from within sphere with radius r_g

Theoretical NS compositions (structures)

Neutron stars

-depending on NS mass and rotational frequ., NS may be compressed to densities $\sim 10 \times \rho_{\text{nuc}}$.

numerous subatomic particle processes are likely to compete with each other (Figure):

e.g., generation of hyperons and baryons resonances ($\Sigma, \Lambda, \Xi, \Omega$)
 quark (u,d,s) deconfinement,
 formation of boson condensates (π, K, H - matter).

Mesons are bosons (integer spin)
 Baryons are fermions (1/2 integer spin)

Fig. 1. Neutron star compositions predicted by theory.

H - H dibaryon (a six-quark composite)
 CFL ... colour-flavoured locked quark pairing (CQD); all 3 quark flavours participate symmetrically
 2SC ... two-flavour superconducting phase

Neutron stars

particle overview

$m_p \approx 207 m_e$ $m_n \approx 207 \times 16.8 m_e$
 $t_{1/2} \approx 2.2 \mu\text{s}$ $t_i \approx 2.9 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s}$

Elementary		Composite	
Fermions	Quarks: u, d, s, c, b, t, u, d, s, c, b, t	Hadrons	Baryons / Hyperions: p, n, $\Lambda, \Sigma, \Xi, \Omega$ Mesons / Quarkonia: $\pi, \rho, \eta, \omega, \phi, \psi, \chi, \Upsilon, \theta, K, B, D, T$
Bosons	Leptons: e, μ, τ Gauge: γ, g, W^{\pm}, Z Others: A^0, D	Hypothetical	Others: Atomic nuclei, Atoms, Diquarks, Exotic atoms (Positronium, Muonium, Tauonium, Onia), Superatoms, Molecules, Exotic baryons, Dibaryon, Pentaquark, Skyrmion, Exotic hadrons, Glueball, Tetraquark, Exotic mesons, Others: Mesonic molecule, Pomeron
Others	Ghosts	Others	

Particles in physics

Baryons (composed of 3 quarks) Neutron stars

$J^P = 3/2^+$ baryons

Particle name	Symbol	Quark content	Rest mass (MeV/c ²)	I	J ^P	Q (e)	S	C	B ^T	Mean lifetime (s)
nucleon/proton ^[1]	p / p^+	uud	938.27203 ± 0.00025	1/2	1/2 ⁺	+1	0	0	0	Stable
nucleon/neutron ^[1]	n / n^0	udd	939.56546 ± 0.00025	1/2	1/2 ⁺	0	0	0	0	8.857 ± 0.008 × 10 ⁻¹⁰
Lambda ^[1]	Λ^0	uds	1,115.683 ± 0.006	0	1/2 ⁺	0	-1	0	0	2.631 ± 0.020 × 10 ⁻¹⁰
Stripped Lambda ^[1]	Λ_c^+	uuc	2,286.46 ± 0.14	0	1/2 ⁺	+1	0	+1	0	2.00 ± 0.08 × 10 ⁻¹¹
Bottom Lambda ^[1]	Λ_b^0	udb	5,620.2 ± 1.6	0	1/2 ⁺	0	0	0	-1	1.391 ^{+0.338} _{-0.037}
Sigma ^[2]	Σ^+	uus	1,189.37 ± 0.07	1	1/2 ⁺	+1	-1	0	0	8.018 ± 0.026 × 10 ⁻¹¹
Sigma ^[3]	Σ^0	uds	1,192.442 ± 0.024	1	1/2 ⁺	0	-1	0	0	7.4 ± 0.7 × 10 ⁻²⁰
Sigma ^[4]	Σ^-	dds	1,197.449 ± 0.030	1	1/2 ⁺	-1	-1	0	0	1.479 ± 0.011 × 10 ⁻¹⁰

$J^P = 1/2^+$ baryons

Particle name	Symbol	Quark content	Rest mass (MeV/c ²)	I	J ^P	Q (e)	S	C	B ^T	Mean lifetime (s)
Delta ^[2]	Δ^{++} (1232)	uuu	1,232 ± 1	3/2	3/2 ⁺	+2	0	0	0	5.68 ± 0.09 × 10 ⁻²⁴
Delta ^[2]	Δ^+ (1232)	uud	1,232 ± 1	3/2	3/2 ⁺	+1	0	0	0	5.58 ± 0.09 × 10 ⁻²⁴
Delta ^[2]	Δ^0 (1232)	udd	1,232 ± 1	3/2	3/2 ⁺	0	0	0	0	5.58 ± 0.09 × 10 ⁻²⁴
Delta ^[2]	Δ^- (1232)	ddd	1,232 ± 1	3/2	3/2 ⁺	-1	0	0	0	5.58 ± 0.09 × 10 ⁻²⁴

Neutron stars

Hyperons (baryon including at least 1 strange quark (s))

Particle	Symbol	Makeup	Rest mass (MeV/c ²)	Isospin I	Spin(Parity)	Q	S	C	B*	Mean lifetime s
Lambda ⁽¹⁾	Λ^0	uds	1 115.683(6)	0	$\frac{1}{2}^+$	0	-1	0	0	2.60×10^{-10} [2]
Sigma ⁽³⁾	Σ^+	uus	1 189.37(0.7)	1	$\frac{1}{2}^+$	+1	-1	0	0	$8.018 \pm 0.028 \times 10^{-11}$
Sigma ⁽⁴⁾	Σ^0	uds	1 192.642(24)	1	$\frac{1}{2}^+$	0	-1	0	0	$7.4 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{-20}$
Sigma ⁽⁵⁾	Σ^-	dds	1 197.449(30)	1	$\frac{1}{2}^+$	-1	-1	0	0	$1.479 \pm 0.011 \times 10^{-10}$
Sigma resonance ⁽⁶⁾	Σ^{*+} (1385)	uus	1 382.8(4)	1	$\frac{3}{2}^+$	+1	-1	0	0	
Sigma resonance ⁽⁶⁾	Σ^{*0} (1385)	uds	1 383.74(1.0)	1	$\frac{3}{2}^+$	0	-1	0	0	
Sigma resonance ⁽⁶⁾	Σ^{*-} (1385)	dds	1 387.2(5)	1	$\frac{3}{2}^+$	-1	-1	0	0	
Xi ⁽⁷⁾	Ξ^0	uss	1 314.83(20)	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}^+$	0	-2	0	0	$2.90 \pm 0.09 \times 10^{-10}$
Xi ⁽⁸⁾	Ξ^-	ds s	1 321.31(13)	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}^+$	-1	-2	0	0	$1.639 \pm 0.015 \times 10^{-10}$
Xi resonance ⁽⁹⁾	Ξ^{*0} (1530)	uss	1 531.80(22)	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}^+$	0	-2	0	0	
Xi resonance ⁽⁹⁾	Ξ^{*-} (1530)	ds s	1 535.0(6)	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}^+$	-1	-2	0	0	
Omega ⁽¹⁰⁾	Ω^-	sss	1 672.45(29)	0	$\frac{3}{2}^+$	-1	-3	0	0	$8.21 \pm 0.11 \times 10^{-11}$

Mesons (composed of 1 quark & 1 antiquark)

Neutron stars

Pseudoscalar mesons

Particle name	Antiparticle symbol	Quark content	Rest mass (MeV/c ²)	I ³	J ^{PC}	S	C	B*	Mean lifetime (s)
Pion ⁽¹⁾	π^+	$u\bar{d}$	139.57018 ± 0.00035	1 ⁻	0 ⁻	0	0	0	$2.6033 \pm 0.0005 \times 10^{-8}$
Pion ⁽¹⁾	π^0	Self	134.9766 ± 0.0006	1 ⁻	0 ⁺	0	0	0	$8.4 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-17}$
Eta meson ⁽²⁾	η	Self	547.863 ± 0.024	0 ⁺	0 ⁺	0	0	0	$5.0 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-19}$
Eta prime meson ⁽³⁾	$\eta(558)$	Self	957.78 ± 0.06	0 ⁺	0 ⁺	0	0	0	$3.39 \pm 0.16 \times 10^{-21}$
Charmed eta meson ⁽⁴⁾	$\eta_c(1S)$	Self	$2.980.3 \pm 1.2$	0 ⁺	0 ⁺	0	0	0	$2.30 \pm 0.17 \times 10^{-21}$
Bottom eta meson ⁽⁵⁾	$\eta_b(1S)$	Self	$9.390.9 \pm 2.8$	0 ⁺	0 ⁺	0	0	0	Unknown
Kaon ⁽¹²⁾	K^+	$u\bar{s}$	493.677 ± 0.016	$\frac{1}{2}$	0 ⁻	0	1	0	$1.2300 \pm 0.0021 \times 10^{-8}$
Kaon ⁽¹³⁾	K^0	$d\bar{s}$	497.614 ± 0.024	$\frac{1}{2}$	0 ⁻	1	0	0	∞

There are also vector Mesons; there are 24 different Mesons.

Neutron stars

Theoretical NS compositions (structures)

- depending on NS mass and rotational frequ., NS may be compressed to densities $\sim 10x \rho_{nuc}$.

numerous subatomic particle processes are likely to compete with each other (Figure):

Boson condensate: Mesons obey Bose-Einstein statistics; fundamental property: at low enough T an ideal Bose gas will undergo Bose-Einstein condensation (all particles are in the zero-momentum state). It is a condensation in momentum space and not in coordinate space. Phenomenon of **superfluidity** (frictionless, similar to He @ low T). The π and K mesons in NS will therefore not contribute to the pressure (but to r !), and therefore the EOS gets "softer" (i.e. more compressible).

Fig. 1. Neutron star compositions predicted by theory.

H H dibaryon (a six-quark composite)
 CFL colour-flavoured locked quark pairing (QCD), all 3 quark flavours participate symmetrically
 ZSC two-flavour superconducting phase

Neutron stars

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- depending on NS mass and rotational frequ., NS may be compressed to densities $\sim 10x \rho_{nuc}$.

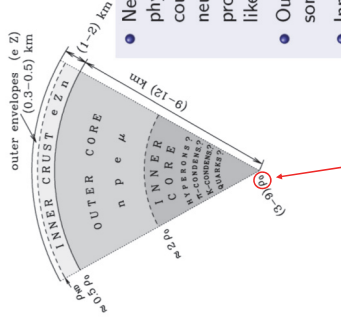
numerous subatomic particle processes are likely to compete with each other (Figure):

SQM: quark (u,d,s) deconfinement: Note: free quarks do not exist, because the force between them increases with distance. One can therefore argue that for very short distances (high T) the force between quarks (gluon) can be neglected \rightarrow Fermi sea of quarks \rightarrow deconfined (quark-gluon matter) with $n_q = n_d = n_s$ and total baryon density $n_b = (n_u + n_d + n_s) / 3$.

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Neutron stars Crust and outer core



- Neutron star crusts: plasma and nuclear physics (10^5 g cm^{-3} – $10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ (strongly coupled Coulomb plasma, unstable neutron-rich nuclei, nuclear many-body problem, ...). Basic constituents - n , p , e - like in "terrestrial physics".
- Outer core: $(1.5 - 5) \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ npe , some admixture of muons. (if $E_F > 105.7 \text{ MeV}$).
- Inner core: $(0.5 - 3) \times 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ - uncertainty increasing with ρ

$\rho_0 \approx 2.8 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

Baryon density = nucleon density $\rho_0 \approx 0.16 \text{ fm}^{-3} = 1.6 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

Neutron stars

Nuclear equilibrium @ high densities (below neutron drip)

Table 1. Nuclei in the ground state of cold dense matter. Upper part: experimental nuclear masses. Lower part: from mass mass formula of Möller [59]. Last line corresponds to the neutron drip point. After Haensel and Pichon [39].

element	Z	N	Z/A	ρ_{max} (g cm^{-3})
^{56}Fe	26	30	0.4643	$7.96 \cdot 10^6$
^{62}Ni	28	34	0.4516	$2.71 \cdot 10^8$
^{64}Ni	28	36	0.4375	$1.30 \cdot 10^9$
^{66}Ni	28	38	0.4242	$1.48 \cdot 10^9$
^{86}Kr	36	50	0.4186	$3.12 \cdot 10^9$
^{84}Se	34	50	0.4048	$1.10 \cdot 10^{10}$
^{82}Ge	32	50	0.3902	$2.80 \cdot 10^{10}$
^{80}Zn	30	50	0.3750	$5.44 \cdot 10^{10}$
^{78}Ni	28	50	0.3590	$9.64 \cdot 10^{10}$
^{126}Ru	44	82	0.3492	$1.29 \cdot 10^{11}$
^{124}Mo	42	82	0.3387	$1.88 \cdot 10^{11}$
^{122}Zr	40	82	0.3279	$2.67 \cdot 10^{11}$
^{120}Sr	38	82	0.3167	$3.79 \cdot 10^{11}$
^{118}Kr	36	82	0.3051	$(4.33 \cdot 10^{11})$

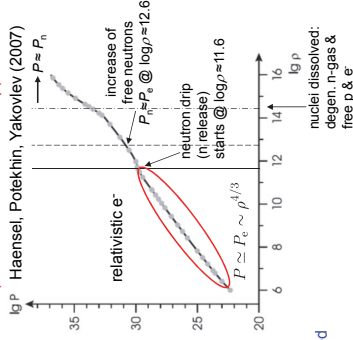
neutron drip point

- with increasing ρ the balance between attractive and repelling forces in isolated nuclei (Z,A) is shifted to heavier and neutron-enriched nuclei, because a neutron replaces a proton by a neutron decreases the repulsive Coulomb force inside the nucleus, and resulting β decay is inhibited by Fermi sea ($E_F \sim \rho^{2/3}$).

Neutron stars

Nuclear equilibrium @ high densities (crust: below neutron drip)

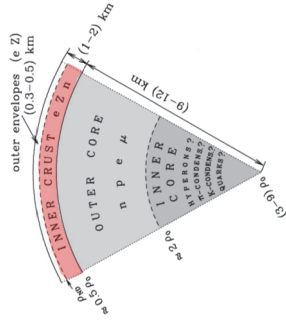
- the equilibrium composition is that composition, for which the total (Gibbs, $T=0$) energy G_{tot} (in a Wigner-Seitz cell) is a minimum. Basically one imposes only the baryon number per volume and ask for the corresponding equilibrium composition.



- with increasing ρ the balance between attractive and repelling forces in isolated nuclei (Z,A) is shifted to heavier and neutron-enriched nuclei, because replacing a proton by a neutron decreases the repulsive Coulomb force inside the nucleus, and resulting β decay is inhibited by Fermi sea ($E_F \sim \rho^{2/3}$).

Neutron stars

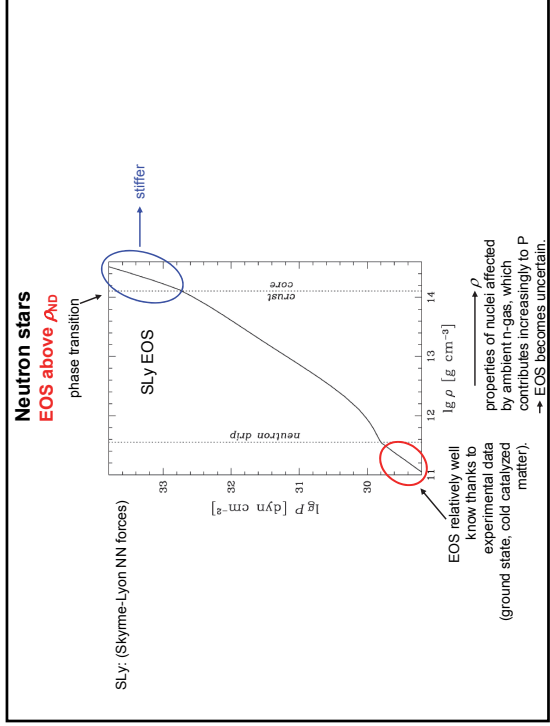
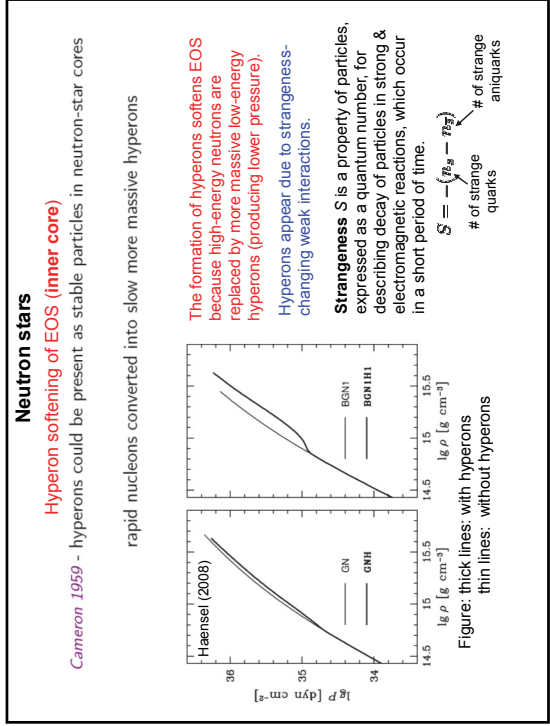
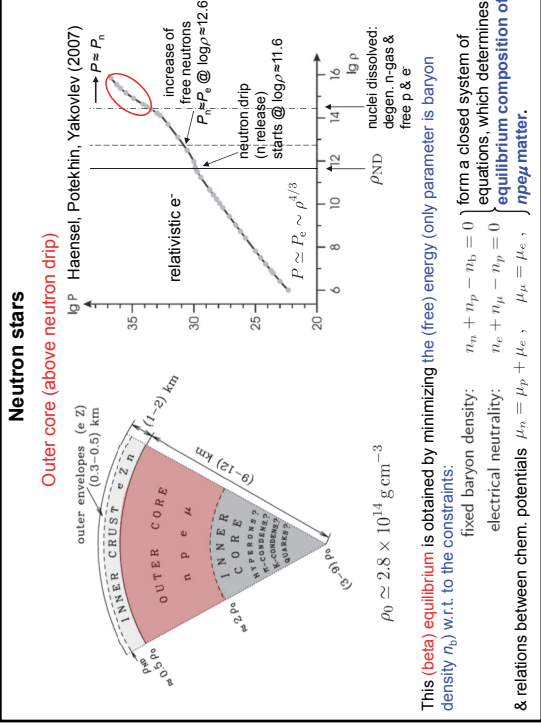
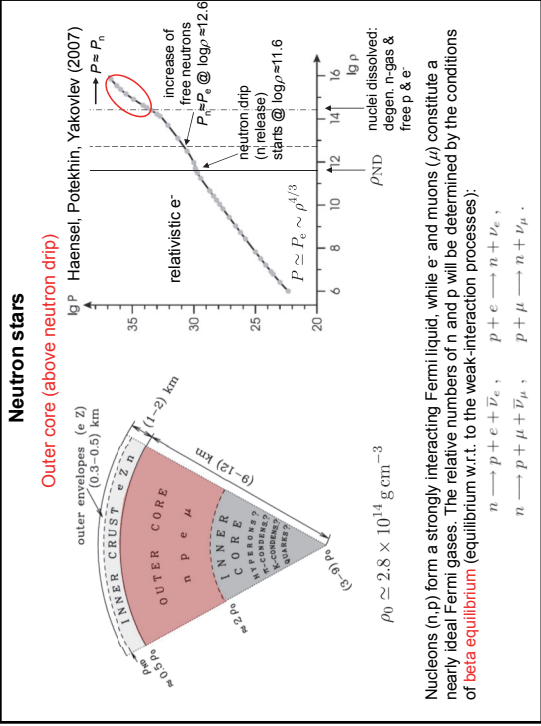
Inner crust (neutron drip ND)



$\rho_0 \approx 2.8 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

Onset of ND has severe consequences for EOS: increase in $d\rho$ mainly increases n_n at the expense of n_p (which provides the pressure) such that dP increases less \rightarrow EOS becomes more compressible i.e. the EOS gets softer. At even higher ρ the increasingly freed neutrons contribute increasingly to P .

Note: protons are never released, but the number of free neutrons increases with density!



Neutron stars

NS models (special relativity effects: mass-energy density)

Neutron pressure $P_n \approx 0.8P$ @ $\rho \geq 1.5 \times 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$, i.e. P_n essentially determines total P .

EOS for ideal fully degenerate neutrons similar to e- EOS, because n are also fermions, but m_n is replaced by m_n and μ_n by 1 (i.e. one nucleon per fermion).

$$P_n = K_{\gamma} \varrho_0^{\gamma} \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma = \frac{5}{3}, \quad K_{5/3} = \frac{1}{20} \left(\frac{3}{\pi} \right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{m_n^3}, \quad \text{for } \varrho_0 \ll 6 \times 10^{15}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{4}{3}, \quad K_{4/3} = \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{3}{\pi} \right)^{1/3} \frac{hc}{m_n^4}, \quad \varrho_0 \gg 6 \times 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

Above we have used the rest-mass density $\rho_0 = n_n m_n$, but for relativistic configurations one has, instead of ρ_0 to use the total mass-energy density

$$\rho = \rho_0 + u/c^2.$$

This distinction was not necessary for e- gas, because ρ_0 was always determined mainly by the non-degenerate nuclei (ions) and was therefore always larger than the energy density u/c^2 of the degenerated e- gas.

Here, however, both ρ_0 and u/c^2 are now provided by the degenerate neutrons!

Neutron stars

NS models (special relativity effects: mass-energy density)

For non-relativistic neutrons $\rho_0 \gg u/c^2$ and $\rho \approx \rho_0$.

For relativistic neutrons $\rho \approx u/c^2$.

For a relativistic gas we also have

$$P_n = \frac{1}{3} u = \frac{1}{3} \rho c^2,$$

internal energy per unit volume

and consequently the pressure provided by the degenerated neutrons can be written as

$$P_n \sim \varrho^{\kappa},$$

$$\kappa = 5/3 \quad (\text{non-relativistic}),$$

$$\kappa = 1 \quad (\text{relativistic}).$$

Also, the squared sound speed is $v_s^2 = (dP/d\varrho)_{\text{ad}} = c^2/3 \rightarrow v_s = 0.577c$.

Non-ideal effects (e.g. electrostatic interactions) become important already for $\rho_0 < 6 \times 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$.

Neutron stars

NS models (including GR)

Hydrostatic equilibrium in General Relativity (GR):

Note: $\frac{r_g}{R_{\text{NS}}} \simeq 0.25, \dots, 0.5 \rightarrow$ GR becomes important

$$r, \theta, \varphi - \text{Schwarzschild coordinates in ref. frame at } \infty \quad e^{\lambda/2} = (1 - 2Gm/c^2 r)^{-1/2}$$

$$ds^2 = e^{\nu} c^2 dt^2 - e^{\lambda} dr^2 - r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2) \quad \text{with } \nu = \nu(r), \lambda = \lambda(r).$$

Black holes

GR (Field equation)

Field equation in Newtonian theory: $\nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi G \rho$,

or:
$$\nabla^2 g_{00} = \frac{2}{c^2} \nabla^2 \phi = \frac{8\pi G}{c^2} \rho \xrightarrow{\text{Newtonian mass density}} \text{source of gravity}$$

In general, i.e. GR: $\nabla^2 g_{00} \xrightarrow{\text{(replace)}} G_{\mu\nu} = f(g_{\mu\nu}, \nabla g_{\mu\nu}, \nabla^2 g_{\mu\nu}),$

Einstein: mass-energy density

Field equation (GR):
$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}, \quad T_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho c^2 & & & \\ & p & & \\ & & p & \\ & & & p \end{pmatrix}.$$

(measure of curvature of spacetime) = $\frac{8\pi G}{c^4}$ (measure of energy density)

Matter tells space how to curve.

Curved space tells matter how to move (Geodesic equation).

Neutron stars

NS models (including GR)
Hydrostatic equilibrium in General Relativity (GR):

Note: $\frac{r_g}{R_{\text{NS}}} \simeq 0.25, \dots, 0.5 \rightarrow$ GR becomes important

r, θ, φ - Schwarzschild coordinates in ref. frame at ∞ $e^{\lambda/2} = (1 - 2Gm/c^2 r)^{-1/2}$
with $\nu = \nu(r), \lambda = \lambda(r)$.

$$ds^2 = e^{\nu} c^2 dt^2 - e^{\lambda} dr^2 - r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2)$$

Tolman-Oppenheimer-Volkoff (TOV) equation:

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{Gm}{r^2} \varrho \left(1 + \frac{P}{\varrho c^2}\right) \left(1 + \frac{2Gm}{rc^2}\right)^{-1}$$

together with mass-conservation equation (gravitational mass):

$$m = \int_0^r 4\pi r'^2 \varrho dr$$

Note: $\rho = \text{mass-energy density!}$
 $\rho = \rho_0 + u/c^2$

The apparent Newtonian formula for m is misleading, because $dV = 4\pi r^2 [1 - 2Gm/(rc^2)]^{-1/2} dr > (dV)_{\text{Newt.}}$. Space-time is curved along r and t !

With an EOS the NS equations can be solved numerically to construct NS models.

Neutron stars

NS models (including GR)
Hydrostatic equilibrium in General Relativity (GR):

Note: $\frac{r_g}{R_{\text{NS}}} \simeq 0.25, \dots, 0.5 \rightarrow$ GR becomes important

r, θ, φ - Schwarzschild coordinates in ref. frame at ∞ $e^{\lambda/2} = (1 - 2Gm/c^2 r)^{-1/2}$
with $\nu = \nu(r), \lambda = \lambda(r)$.

$$ds^2 = e^{\nu} c^2 dt^2 - e^{\lambda} dr^2 - r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2)$$

Gravity is enhanced by coupling to pressure in the general relativistic description.

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{Gm}{r^2} \varrho \left(1 + \frac{P}{\varrho c^2}\right) \left(1 + \frac{2Gm}{rc^2}\right)^{-1}$$

together with mass-conservation equation (gravitational mass):

$$m = \int_0^r 4\pi r'^2 \varrho dr$$

Note: $\rho = \text{mass-energy density!}$
 $\rho = \rho_0 + u/c^2$

The apparent Newtonian formula for m is misleading, because $dV = 4\pi r^2 [1 - 2Gm/(rc^2)]^{-1/2} dr > (dV)_{\text{Newt.}}$. Space-time is curved along r and t !

With an EOS the NS equations can be solved numerically, to construct NS models.

Neutron stars

NS models (including GR)
Gravitational mass

The total stellar mass M is always the "gravitational mass", which is the value measured from an outside observer, i.e. it is the mass that would be detected through Kepler's law for the orbital motion if the star were a component of a well-separated binary system.

In the Newtonian limit $m(r) = 4\pi \int_0^r \rho(r') r'^2 dr$,

can be unambiguously interpreted as the mass contained within the radius r .

For relativistic stars (including space-time curvature) we have

$$m(r) = m_0(r) + U(r)/c^2 + \Omega(r) = m_0(r) + W(r)/c^2,$$

$$m_0 = \int_0^r \rho_0 dV = 4\pi \int_0^r (1 - 2mG/c^2 r)^{-1/2} \rho_0 r^2 dr,$$

$$U/c^2 = \int_0^r (\rho - \rho_0) dV = 4\pi \int_0^r (1 - 2mG/c^2 r)^{-1/2} (\rho - \rho_0) r^2 dr,$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{W}{c^2} = m - m_0 = 4\pi \int_0^r \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{2mG}{c^2 r}\right)^{-1/2} \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right] \rho r^2 dr < 0.$$

\rightarrow The "gravitational mass" $M=m(R)$ is less than the proper (baryon) rest mass $M_0=m_0(R)$!

Neutron stars

NS models

density within core rather uniform for $M=1.2, \dots, 1.5 M_\odot$, most pronounced drop occurs near the crust bottom edge.

There is a steepening in the density drop near the neutron drip, where EOS is 'softer'.

Increasing M leads to a sharper drop of the density profiles and to thinner crust as a result of the increasing gravitational pull, most pronounced at $M=M_{\text{max}}$.

Medium-stiff BBB2 EOS (core) leads to a crust containing 1.4% & 10.8% for $M_{\text{grav}} = 1.24$ & $1.51 M_\odot$ with a crust thickness of 1.01 km & 0.72 km. For $M_{\text{max}}, M_{\text{crust}}/M_{\text{max}} = 0.2\% \& 0.29\%$ crust thickness.

For softer (core) EOS the crust mass and thickness are smaller.

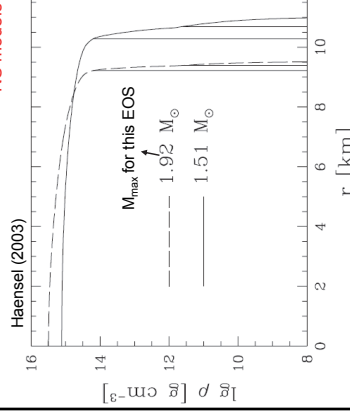
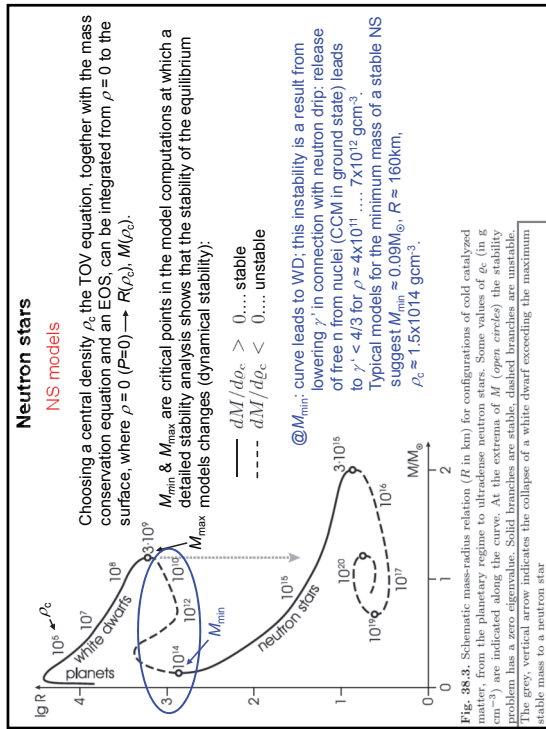
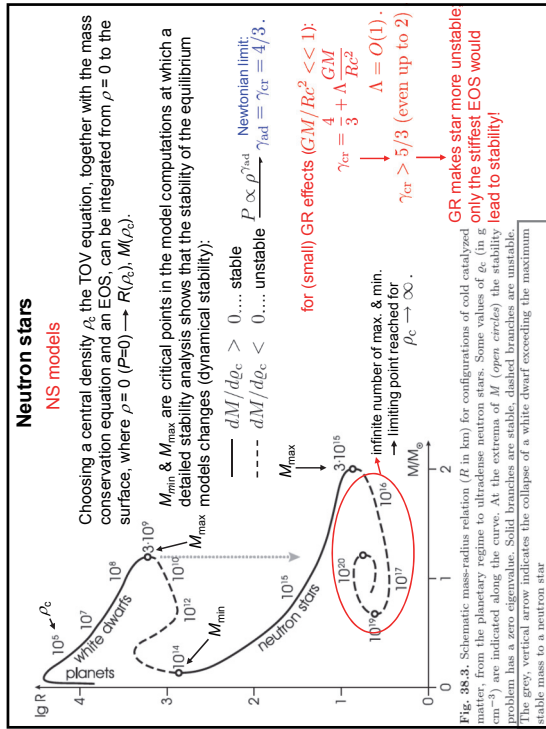
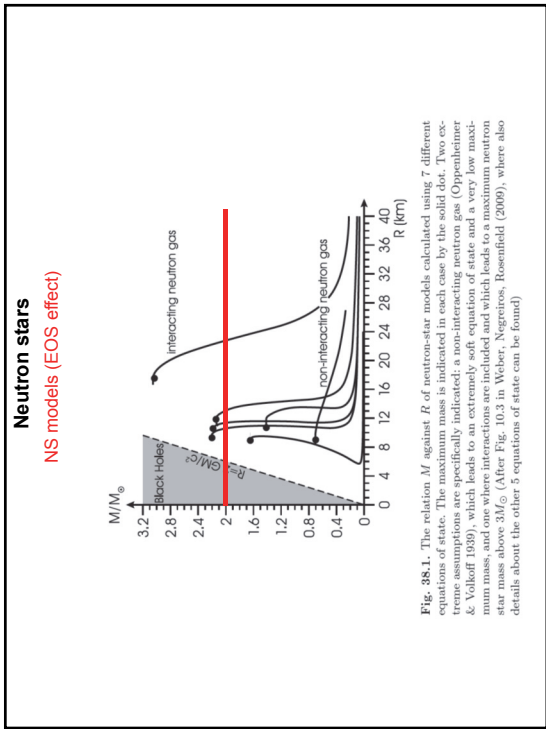
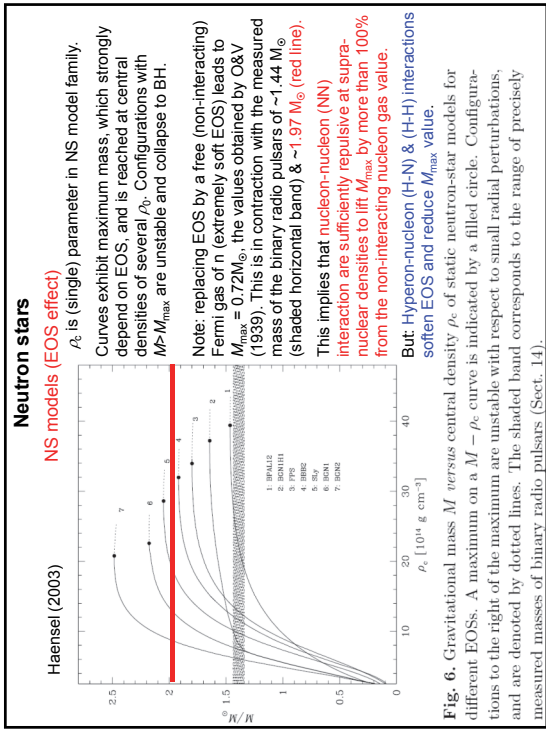


Fig. 4. Mass density *versus* radial coordinate for neutron-star models of gravitational mass $1.51 M_\odot$ (solid line) and $1.92 M_\odot$ (long dash-dotted line). Calculations are performed for the BBB2 EOS of the core, for which $1.92 M_\odot$ is the maximum allowable mass. The positions of the crust-core interface and the neutron-drip point are indicated by thin vertical lines.



Neutron stars

Maximum mass of a NS

- NS are subject to a M_{max} (similarly as WD), because of (1) the degenerate behaviour of cold matter at ultrahigh densities and (2) General Relativity.

- M_{max} important also for identifying compact objects with $M > M_{\text{max}}$ as black holes (BH).

- Simple argument for the existence of $M_{\text{max}} \ll 5 M_{\odot}$ by neglecting GR effects, but including special relativity (SR) effects (i.e. considering u/c^2 in addition to neutron (n) rest mass):

from hydrostatic support: $P \propto M^2/R^4$; with $\rho \propto M/R^3$ to replace $R \rightarrow P \propto M^{2/3} \rho^{1/3}$.

from the ideal (polytropic) EOS: $\rho \propto P^{1/\kappa} \rightarrow M \propto \rho^{3(\kappa-1/3)/2}$.

non-relativistic: $\kappa = 5/3 \rightarrow M \propto \rho^{1/2} \rightarrow dM/d\rho > 0$, } somewhere in between
 these limits $dM/d\rho = 0$

relativistic: $\kappa = 1 \rightarrow M \propto \rho^{-1/2} \rightarrow dM/d\rho < 0$, } $\rightarrow M_{\text{max}}$ must exist when n
 start to become relativistic, i.e. $u/c^2 \approx$ rest mass ρ_0 .

Note: $M_{\text{Ch}} = 0.197 \left[\frac{(\hbar c)^3}{G} \frac{1}{m_n} \right]^{3/2} \frac{1}{m_n} \approx 5.83 M_{\odot}$ one nucleon per fermion

was obtained with neglecting the energy density term (SR effect) u/c^2 , i.e. $\rho = \rho_0$!

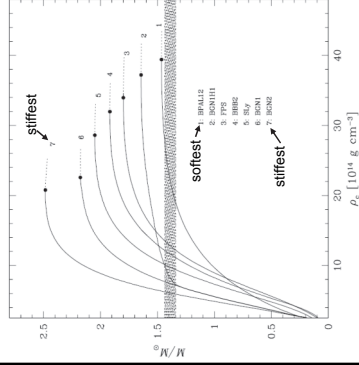
$\rightarrow M_{\text{max}} < M_{\text{Ch}} \approx 5.83 M_{\odot}$.

Note: M_{Ch} does also not depend on rest mass!

Neutron stars

Maximum mass of a NS (effect of EOS)

ρ_0 is (single) parameter in NS model family. Curves exhibit maximum mass, which strongly depend on EOS, and is reached at central densities of several ρ_0 . Configurations with $M > M_{\text{max}}$ are unstable and collapse to BH.



Increasing the 'stiffness' (1 \rightarrow 7) makes matter less compressible; for given M one expects a larger R and a smaller ρ_0 . Or, for given ρ_0 , more mass can be put on top until reaching the surface with $\rho = 0$. This lowers the gravity inside the model and M_{max} is higher.

Neutron stars

Maximum mass of a NS

- upper mass limit for NS depends on EOS (soft/stiff).

- is there a way to estimate an upper limit that is independent of EOS?

- YES: Rhodes & Ruffini (1974) reported such a way with the help of the "causal condition":

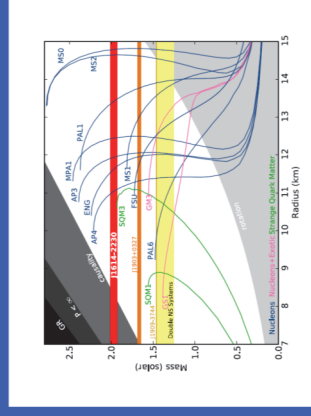
(1) adopt GR (&SR), i.e. use the TOV equation for hydrostatic support

(2) EOS satisfies "microscopic stability" condition: $\frac{dP}{d\rho} \geq 0$, $0 \leq \frac{dP}{d\rho} \leq c^2$.

(3) EOS satisfies "causality" condition: $\frac{dP}{d\rho} \leq c^2$.

(4) EOS is known below some, i.e. $\rho < \rho_0$, "matching density" ρ_0 .

Constraints on the Mass–Radius Relation (Lattimer and Prakash 2004)



Schwarzschild limit (GR): $R > 2GM = R_s$

causality limit for EOS: $R > 3GM$

mass limit from PSR J1614-2230 (red band): $M = (1.97 \pm 0.04) M_{\odot}$

