The relativistic kinetic theory of gases with applications to black hole accretion

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- Cotangent bundle and Hamiltonian structure
- Most general collisionless distribution function on a Schwarzschild background
- Spherical steady-state solutions
- Stability
- Conclusions and outlook

Relativistic kinetic theory: Motivation

- Description of dilute, relativistic gas in the presence of strong gravitational field.
- Accretion into a black hole
- Distribution of stars around supermassive black holes (in this case collisionless).
- Cosmic Censorship Hypothesis: Provide a description of the matter that goes beyond the scalar field model or the traditional perfect fluids and magneto-fluids.



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General covariance requires geometric formulation of the theory!

Relativistic kinetic theory: Motivation

- Previous work regarding the formulation of relativistic kinetic theory: Jüttner, Synge, Taubner & Weinberg, Israel, Lindquist, Ehlers, Cercignani & Kremer, ...
- Mathematical questions (well-posedness, global existence, static and stationary solutions): Rein & Rendall, Andréasson, Kunze, Dafermos, Ringström, Fajman, Joudioux, Smulevici, ...

In this work we start with a simple case: A collisionless, relativistic gas propagating on a Schwarzschild black hole background.

Collaborators: Paola Rioseco, Thomas Zannias (IFM)

Geometry of the cotangent bundle

- Spacetime manifold: (M, g)
- Relativistic phase space (cotangent bundle):

 $T^*M = \{(x, p) : x \in M, p \in T^*_xM\}$

- Natural projection map: $\pi: T^*M \to M, (x, p) \mapsto x$
- Poincaré (or canonical) one-form: $\Theta_{(x,p)}(X) = p(\pi_{*x}(X))$
- Symplectic form: $\Omega = d\Theta = dp_{\mu} \wedge dx^{\mu}$
- Free particle Hamiltonian: $H(x,p) := \frac{1}{2}g_x^{-1}(p,p) = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\nu}(x)p_{\mu}p_{\nu}$



Geometry of the cotangent bundle

• Liouville vector field is defined as corresponding Hamiltonian vector field:

 $dH = -i_L \Omega = \Omega(\cdot, L)$

- Explicitly: $L = g^{\mu\nu}(x)p_{\nu}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} - \frac{1}{2}p_{\alpha}p_{\beta}\frac{\partial g^{\alpha\beta}(x)}{\partial x^{\mu}}\frac{\partial}{\partial p_{\mu}}$
- Relativistic Boltzmann equation:



one-particle distribution function

• In the collisionless case this reduces to the Liouville equation.



• Assume a Schwarzschild background (mass = 1) in ingoing Eddington-Finkelstein coordinates (also works for Kerr!). The free-particle Hamiltonian is

$$H(x,p) = \frac{1}{2} \left[-\left(1 + \frac{2}{r}\right) p_t^2 + \frac{4}{r} p_t p_r + \left(1 - \frac{2}{r}\right) p_r^2 + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(p_{\vartheta}^2 + \frac{p_{\varphi}^2}{\sin^2 \vartheta}\right) \right]$$

- Conserved quantities: rest mass (m), energy (E), angular momentum
- Integrable Hamiltonian system, so can apply standard tools from dynamical systems. Invariant subsets:

$$\Gamma_{m,E,\ell_z,\ell} := \left\{ (x,p) \in T^*M : H(x,p) = -\frac{1}{2}m^2, p_t = -E, p_\varphi = \ell_z, p_\vartheta^2 + \frac{p_\varphi^2}{\sin^2\vartheta} = \ell^2 \right\}$$

• (t, φ) are free, and give a $\mathbb{R} \times S^1$ factor.



• Motion in the radial direction:

$$\left[\left(1 - \frac{2}{r}\right) p_r - \frac{2}{r} E \right]^2 + V_{m,\ell}(r) = E^2 \text{ with } V_{m,\ell}(r) = \left(1 - \frac{2}{r}\right) \left(m^2 + \frac{\ell^2}{r^2}\right)$$



• New symplectic coordinates defined by generating function

$$S(x;m,E,\ell_z,\ell) = \int_{\gamma_x} \Theta = \int_{\gamma_x} p_\mu dx^\mu$$

- $P_0 = m^2/2, P_1 = E, P_2 = \ell_z, P_3 = \ell^2$ $Q^{\mu} := \frac{\partial S}{\partial P_{\mu}} (Q^2 \text{ and } Q^3 \text{ are angles})$
- In terms of the new coordinates the Hamiltonian is simply $H = -P_0$ and hence the Liouville equation becomes trivial:

$$L[f] = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial Q^0} = 0$$

• Most general solution:

$$f(x, p) = F Q^{1} Q^{2} Q^{3}, P_{0}, P_{1}, P_{2}, P_{3})$$

t + ... φ + ...

• Stationary and axisymmetric if independent of the first two variables.



Spherical steady-state solutions

• For a spherical, steady-state solution:

 $f(x,p) = F(m, E, \ell)$

• Assume, further, a simple gas which is in equilibrium at infinity:

 $f(x,p) = \alpha \delta \left(\sqrt{-2H(x,p)} - m \right) e^{-\beta E}, \quad \beta: \text{ inverse temperature}$

• Compute the observables: current density and stress energy-momentum tensor:

$$J_{\mu}(x) = \int_{\pi^{-1}(x)} p_{\mu}f(x,p)\frac{d^4p}{\sqrt{-g}}, \qquad T_{\mu\nu}(x) = \int_{\pi^{-1}(x)} p_{\mu}p_{\nu}f(x,p)\frac{d^4p}{\sqrt{-g}}$$

• Decomposition

 $J^{\mu} = n u^{\mu}, \qquad T^{\mu\nu} = \mathfrak{S}_{0}^{\mu} e_{0}^{\nu} + \sum_{j=1,2,3} p_{j} p_{j}^{\mu} e_{j}^{\nu}$ **particle density energy density principle pressures**In general, e_{0}^{μ} is not proportional to u^{μ} , and $p_{1} \neq p_{2} \neq p_{3}$.

Spherical steady-state solutions

• Observables have three contributions:

 $T_{\mu\nu} = T_{\mu\nu}^{(in)} + T_{\mu\nu}^{(scat)} + T_{\mu\nu}^{(bounded)}$ bounded trajectories absorbed by BH no contribution at infinity scattered particles

scattered particles no contribution at horizon

• At infinity, gas behaves like isotropic fluid with ideal gas equation of state $(z = m\beta)$

$$n_{\infty}(z) = 4\pi\alpha m^{4} \frac{K_{2}(z)}{z}, \qquad \varepsilon_{\infty}(z) = 4\pi\alpha m^{5} \left[\frac{K_{1}(z)}{z} + \frac{3K_{2}(z)}{z^{2}} \right], \qquad p_{\infty}(z) = \beta^{-1} n_{\infty}(z)$$

• At the horizon, the gas ceases to be isotropic. For high z:

$$\frac{\varepsilon_H}{n_H} = \frac{mc^2}{2\sqrt{3}} \left(3 + \sqrt{\frac{31}{3}} \right) \simeq 1.79mc^2$$
$$\frac{p_{rad}}{n_H} = \frac{mc^2}{2\sqrt{3}} \left(-3 + \sqrt{\frac{31}{3}} \right) \simeq 0.062mc^2, \quad \frac{p_{tan}}{n_H} = \frac{mc^2}{4\sqrt{3}} \simeq 0.144mc^2$$

The tangential pressure is about twice as large as the radial one!

Spherical steady-state solutions

• Accretion rate for large z:

$$\mu = \frac{4\pi J^r}{n_\infty} \simeq -16M^2 \sqrt{2\pi z}$$

- Compression rate for large z: $\frac{n_H}{n_{\infty}} \simeq \sqrt{\frac{6z}{\pi}}$
- Both are smaller by a factor of z = mβ compared to the hydrodynamic case (Bondi accretion). For accretion from the interstellar medium, z ~ 10⁹ (see book by Shapiro & Teukolsky and references therein for corresponding Newtonian-based calculation)
- Interpretation (?): When collisions are taken into account, particles with large angular momentum will collide and augment radial pressure.

Stability result for time-dependent case

The general solution takes the form (for fixed mass m):

 $f(x,p) = F(G-t,Q^2,Q^3,E,\ell_z,\ell^2)$

with G independent of t.

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Suppose the initial distribution function satisfies the following conditions:
(1) F = 0 for bounded orbits
(2) 0 ≤ F ≤ αe^{-βE} (i.e. bounded by an equilibrium distribution function)
(3) lim_{G→±∞} F(G, Q², Q³, E, ℓ_z, ℓ²) = f_∞(E) uniformly in (Q², Q³, ℓ_z, ℓ²)

Then, along the world line of static observers, the current density and stress energymomentum converge pointwise to the corresponding observables of the steady-state solution with distribution function $f_{\infty}(E)$

In particular, if $f_{\infty}(E) = 0$ the gas disperses completely.

Conclusions and Outlook

- Rich structure of the cotangent bundle leads naturally to symplectic structure and many other nice properties no mentioned in this talk (bundle metric, volume form, ...)
- When geodesic motion on spacetime manifold is integrable, one can introduce "good" symplectic coordinates on relativistic phase space, which trivialize the Liouville vector field (action-angle-like variables).
- Using these coordinates, one can study the behavior of observables "by inspection", and prove stability results, for instance.
- In future work, we want to study disk solutions around Kerr black holes (in this case Carter constant replaces the total angular momentum)
- The use of "good" symplectic coordinates might be useful for the study of perturbed systems, for example when taking into account collisions or the self-gravity of the gas at the perturbative level.