



The Physics of Galaxy Clusters
5th Lecture

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Masters Program at Potsdam University*

The Physics of Galaxy Clusters

Recap of last week's lecture

⇒ We learned how to count clusters and how clusters are built up:

- **The Press-Schechter mass function**

- * probability of high-density excursions in the filtered density contrast on scale R = fraction of volume filled with halos of mass M
- * correct normalization: considering halo formation as a random walk and identify collapse threshold δ_c as absorbing barrier



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- **Halo density profiles**

- * self-gravitating systems have a negative heat capacity: once they cool they become hotter
- * singular/cored isothermal sphere is a simple model for spherically-symmetric, self-gravitating systems of single-temperature particles
- * Navarro-Frenk-White (NFW) density profile is a two-parameter model (normalization + scale radius or halo mass + concentration) measured in dark-matter simulations



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⇒ today: adiabatic processes and conservation laws



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Specific heats – 1

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$$dq = Tds = d\epsilon + Pd\tilde{V}.$$

where $\tilde{V} \equiv \rho^{-1}$ is the specific volume, q is the heat per unit mass, s is the specific entropy, $\epsilon \equiv \varepsilon/\rho$ is the specific internal energy and ε is the internal energy density.



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- The specific heat at constant volume is defined as

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At constant volume, the internal energy can only be changed by adding or releasing heat, $d\epsilon = dq$.



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At constant volume, the internal energy can only be changed by adding or releasing heat, $d\epsilon = dq$.

- If ϵ depends only on temperature (and not density), $\epsilon(\tilde{V}, T) = \epsilon(T)$, then

$$c_V \equiv \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial T} \right)_V = \left(\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial T} \right)_V = \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial T}$$

implying

$$dq = c_V dT + Pd\tilde{V}.$$



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Using $dq = c_V dT + Pd\tilde{V}$, the specific heat at constant pressure is

$$c_P \equiv \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial T} \right)_P = c_V + P \frac{d\tilde{V}}{dT} = c_V + \frac{k_B}{\bar{m}}.$$



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- Why does changing the temperature at constant pressure require more heat than at constant volume?
⇒ because some of the energy goes into $Pd\tilde{V}$ work



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What is the adiabatic index for a diatomic gas that has five degrees of freedom (3 translational and 2 rotational)?



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- The specific energy of a gas with f_{DOF} number of degrees of freedom is

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon &= \frac{f_{\text{DOF}}}{2} \frac{k_B T}{\bar{m}} \implies c_V = \left(\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial T} \right)_V = \frac{f_{\text{DOF}}}{2} \frac{k_B}{\bar{m}} \\ &\implies c_P = \frac{f_{\text{DOF}} + 2}{2} \frac{k_B}{\bar{m}} \\ &\implies \gamma \equiv \frac{c_P}{c_V} = \frac{f_{\text{DOF}} + 2}{f_{\text{DOF}}}\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\gamma = 7/5$ for a diatomic gas with $f_{\text{DOF}} = 5$.



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Hence, $\gamma = 7/5$ for a diatomic gas with $f_{\text{DOF}} = 5$.

- In general, the equation of state for an ideal gas is given by

$$\epsilon = \frac{f_{\text{DOF}}}{2} \frac{k_B T}{\bar{m}} = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{k_B T}{\bar{m}}$$

- Check out Appendix A.1 on “Equation of State and Mean Molecular Weight”, which introduces the mean molecular weight $\mu = \bar{m}/m_H$ to relate the mean particle mass \bar{m} and the mass of a hydrogen atom m_H .



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$$d\epsilon = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \left(\frac{dP}{\rho} - \frac{P}{\rho^2} d\rho \right).$$

- For adiabatic ($dq = ds = 0$) changes, we can combine this with the first law of thermodynamics ($\tilde{V} = \rho^{-1}$)

$$d\epsilon = -P d\tilde{V} = \frac{P}{\rho^2} d\rho$$

and find (after multiplying with ρ/P)

$$\frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \left(\frac{dP}{P} - \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \right) = \frac{d\rho}{\rho},$$

implying

$$\frac{dP}{P} = \gamma \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \implies P = P_0 \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} \right)^\gamma \equiv K \rho^\gamma.$$

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$$K = \frac{P}{\rho^\gamma} = \frac{k_B T}{\bar{m} \rho^{\gamma-1}}, \text{ and}$$
$$K_e = \frac{k_B T_e}{n_e^{\gamma-1}} \propto K$$

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- K_e which can be conveniently computed with the X-ray observables $k_B T_e$ and n_e and has typical values of

$$K_e \sim 100 \left(\frac{k_B T_e}{1 \text{ keV}} \right) \left(\frac{n_e}{10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-2/3} \text{ keV cm}^2.$$

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- For a single species gas, we have

$$s = c_V \ln(P \rho^{-\gamma}) + \text{const.} = \frac{k_B}{(\gamma - 1) \bar{m}} \ln K + \text{const.}$$

or

$$s = c_V \ln \left(\frac{K}{K_0} \right) \iff K = K_0 \exp \left(\frac{s}{c_V} \right).$$



Fluid description

When can a system be well described as a fluid? Is this justified in a low-mass and a high-mass cluster (with $k_B T = 1$ keV and 10 keV) on scales of a few kpc? What does this imply for modelling clusters?



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When can a system be well described as a fluid? Is this justified in a low-mass and a high-mass cluster (with $k_B T = 1$ keV and 10 keV) on scales of a few kpc? What does this imply for modelling clusters?

- A system can be well described as a fluid, if the particle mean free path is much shorter than the characteristic system size, $\lambda_{\text{mfp}} \ll L$. The electron mean free path is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_{\text{mfp}} &= \frac{1}{n\sigma \ln \Lambda} \sim \frac{1}{n\pi r_e^2 \ln \Lambda} \sim \frac{1}{\pi n \ln \Lambda} \left(\frac{k_B T_e}{Ze^2} \right)^2 \\ &\sim 12.6 \left(\frac{n}{10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3}} \right)^{-1} \left(\frac{k_B T_e}{10 \text{ keV}} \right)^2 \text{ kpc},\end{aligned}$$

where $\ln \Lambda \approx 40$ is the Coulomb logarithm. Equivalently, we get $\lambda_{\text{mfp}} = 0.14$ kpc for $k_B T_e = 1$ keV (which implies $\ln \Lambda \approx 36$). Since $\lambda_{\text{mfp}} < L \sim$ a few kpc, the fluid description is justified for a small cluster according to standard text book knowledge. However, in a massive cluster $\lambda_{\text{mfp}} > L \sim$ a few kpc and we would have to use kinetic plasma theory.



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- In particular on small scales and in cluster outskirts, the fluid description is not justified and would have to be supplemented by kinetic plasma physics. Moreover, plasma physics on scales $\lambda_{\text{mfp}} < 0.1 - 10$ kpc could modify the effective fluid prescription and could feedback on global cluster scales \Rightarrow subject to active research!



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- The Boltzmann equation describes the evolution of the phase space distribution function $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, t)$ and is given by

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla f + \mathbf{g} \cdot \nabla_{\mathbf{u}} f = \left. \frac{df}{dt} \right|_c.$$

- The term $df/dt|_c$ represents discontinuous motions of particles through phase space as a result of collisions. While collisions happen at a fixed point in space, they can instantaneously change particle velocities and thus cause particles to jump in phase space.



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- The term $df/dt|_c$ represents discontinuous motions of particles through phase space as a result of collisions. While collisions happen at a fixed point in space, they can instantaneously change particle velocities and thus cause particles to jump in phase space.
- We take mass, momentum, and energy moments of this equation to derive the conservation laws. The right-hand side vanishes each time because of local ...
 - 1 **mass conservation:** collisions do not create or destroy particles at a fixed position, they can only discontinuously shift them in velocity space.
 - 2 **momentum conservation:** collisions do not create or destroy momentum at a fixed position, the shift in momentum space is symmetric with respect to the center of momentum (neglecting internal degrees of freedom such as atomic or nuclear transitions during the interaction).
 - 3 **energy conservation:** collisions do not create or destroy energy at a fixed position (again neglecting internal degrees of freedom).



Conservation laws – 2

Show explicitly that the Navier-Stokes equation (Eq. 3.43) conserves momentum.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \mathbf{v}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T + P \bar{\mathbf{1}} - \bar{\mathbf{\Pi}}) = \rho \mathbf{g}.$$



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- Integrating the Navier-Stokes equation over configuration space yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{\Omega} \rho \mathbf{v} d^3x + \int_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T + P \bar{\mathbf{1}} - \bar{\mathbf{\Pi}}) d^3x &= \int_{\Omega} \rho \mathbf{g} d^3x, \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}}{\partial t} + \lim_{\partial \Omega \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\partial \Omega} [(\rho \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T + P \bar{\mathbf{1}} - \bar{\mathbf{\Pi}}) \cdot \mathbf{n}] d^2A &= \frac{d \mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}}}{dt} = \int_{\Omega} \rho \mathbf{g} d^3x. \end{aligned}$$

In the last line, we exchanged the total for the partial time derivatives since \mathbf{p}_{tot} depends neither on position nor on velocity.



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In the last line, we exchanged the total for the partial time derivatives since \mathbf{p}_{tot} depends neither on position nor on velocity.

- This demonstrates explicitly that the total momentum, $\mathbf{p}_{\text{tot}} = \int \rho \mathbf{v} d^3x$ is conserved in the absence of an external force field \mathbf{g} that acts as a source of momentum.



Anisotropic viscous stress tensor – 1

Why is the anisotropic viscous stress tensor, $\bar{\Pi}$, traceless and symmetric?

- The anisotropic viscous stress tensor, $\bar{\Pi}$, is defined as

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- It is a traceless tensor because

$$\text{tr}(\bar{\Pi}) \equiv 3P - \rho \langle |\mathbf{w}|^2 \rangle = \rho \langle |\mathbf{w}|^2 \rangle - \rho \langle |\mathbf{w}|^2 \rangle = 0.$$



Anisotropic viscous stress tensor – 2

- The momentum equation can be written as

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{g} - \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla P + \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla \cdot \bar{\Pi}.$$

- Explain, what viscosity does to shearing and interpenetration motion.



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- To see this, we adopt an ansatz for the viscous stress tensor and assume a “Newtonian fluid”, i.e., we assume that Π_{ij} is linearly proportional to the velocity gradient, $\partial v_i / \partial x_j$. The most general symmetric tensor that is linear in $\partial v_i / \partial x_j$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_{ij} &= \eta D_{ij} + \xi \delta_{ij} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}), \text{ where} \\ D_{ij} &= \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x_i} - \frac{2}{3} \delta_{ij} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \end{aligned}$$

is the deformation tensor that vanishes for uniform expansion or contraction. η and ξ are the coefficients of shear and bulk viscosity, respectively and have units of $\text{g cm}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$.



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- *Bonus:* derive the energy conservation equation.

Conductive heat flux and entropy equation

Name and explain the condition for a non-vanishing conductive heat flux \mathbf{Q} .

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- If the distribution of the random velocity component, \mathbf{w} , is symmetric about zero, then \mathbf{Q} vanishes. If the distribution is skewed, then hot particles drift relative to cold particles and produce a heat flux in the direction of the drift. In most cases, a temperature gradient produces a conductive flux,

$$\mathbf{Q} = -\chi \nabla T.$$



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- Are the energy and entropy equations linearly independent?



Conductive heat flux and entropy equation

Name and explain the condition for a non-vanishing conductive heat flux \mathbf{Q} .

- The conductive heat flux \mathbf{Q} is defined as:

$$\mathbf{Q} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \rho \langle \mathbf{w} |\mathbf{w}|^2 \rangle.$$

- If the distribution of the random velocity component, \mathbf{w} , is symmetric about zero, then \mathbf{Q} vanishes. If the distribution is skewed, then hot particles drift relative to cold particles and produce a heat flux in the direction of the drift. In most cases, a temperature gradient produces a conductive flux,

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AIP

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- $-P \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}$ term has to conserve entropy and accounts for adiabatic changes: converging flow has $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} < 0 \Rightarrow$ energy is increased (adiabatic heating)



System of hydrodynamic equations – 1

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- Each of these equations is a continuity law, one for the mass, one for the momentum, and one for the total energy. The equations hence form a set of hyperbolic conservation laws (because of the divergence operator on the LHS). In the form given above, they do not form a complete set because these are 5 equations for 7 unknowns: ρ , ϵ , P , \mathbf{v} , Φ .



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- Hence, we need two further expressions that relate the pressure P and the gravitational potential Φ to the other thermodynamic variables.



System of hydrodynamic equations – 2

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- The equations relating P and Φ to the other variables are the equation of state and Poisson's equation. For an ideal gas, the equation of state reads

$$P = (\gamma - 1)\rho\epsilon$$

where $\gamma = c_p/c_v$ is the ratio of specific heats. For a mono-atomic, non-relativistic gas, we have $\gamma = 5/3$.



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- The gravitational potential obeys Poisson's equation:

$$\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G\rho$$

These 7 equations close the system of equations and make it well-posed.



Gas in an NFW Halo – 1

The NFW density profile diverges in the center, i.e., for $x \rightarrow 0$. Gas filled in the halo's gravitational potential Φ satisfies hydrostatic Euler's equation

$$\frac{\nabla P}{\rho_{\text{gas}}} = -\nabla\Phi(r), \quad (1)$$

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- The ideal gas law is

$$P = \frac{\rho_{\text{gas}} k_B T}{\bar{m}} \quad \text{and we assume } k_B T = \text{const.}$$

- Substituting into Eq. (1) we get

$$\frac{\nabla P}{\rho_{\text{gas}}} = \frac{k_B T}{\bar{m}} \nabla \ln \rho_{\text{gas}} = -\nabla\Phi \quad \text{since } \nabla T = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln \rho_{\text{gas}} = -\frac{\bar{m}\Phi}{k_B T} + C \quad \text{and } C = \text{const.}$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_{\text{gas}} = e^C \exp\left(-\frac{\bar{m}\Phi}{k_B T}\right) = A \exp\left(-\frac{\bar{m}\Phi}{k_B T}\right)$$



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$$\Phi(r) = -\frac{GM_s}{r_s} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} \quad \text{with} \quad x = \frac{r}{r_s} \quad \text{and} \quad M_s = 4\pi r_s^3 \rho_s.$$



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- Using the virial theorem ($E_{\text{pot}} = -2E_{\text{kin}}$), we get

$$\begin{aligned} -\bar{m}\Phi_0 &= 2 \times \frac{3}{2} k_B T \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\bar{m}\Phi_0}{k_B T} &= -3 \\ \Rightarrow -\frac{\bar{m}\Phi}{k_B T} &= -\frac{\bar{m}\Phi_0}{k_B T} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 3 \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} \\ \Rightarrow \rho_{\text{gas}} &= A \exp\left(-\frac{\bar{m}\Phi}{k_B T}\right) = A \exp\left(3 \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x}\right) \end{aligned}$$



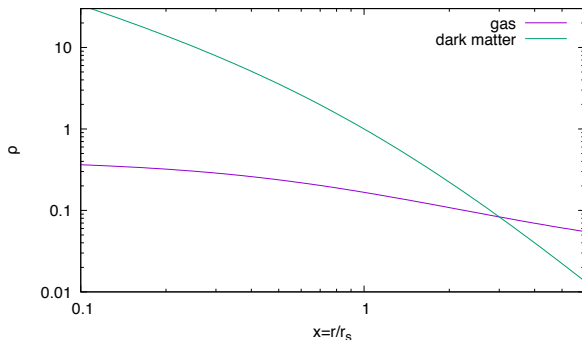
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Gas in an NFW Halo – 3



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- Differences are due to gas pressure of hot gas instead of non-interacting cold dark matter. What about large radii?



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What happens to the gas-to-dark matter mass density ratio ρ_{gas}/ρ at large radii? Is this a realistic behavior and if not, what would have to be changed in the model to make it more realistic?



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instead of approaching the universal baryon fraction $\ln f_b \Rightarrow$ what is wrong?

- Our assumption $k_B T = \text{const.}$ is unrealistic. Including $\nabla T \neq \mathbf{0}$ in Euler's equation will change the gas density profile so that the constraint $\rho_{\text{gas}}/\rho \rightarrow f_b$ for $x \gg 1$ is fulfilled.



The Physics of Galaxy Clusters

Recap of today's lecture

⇒ We studied adiabatic processes, conservation laws and filled gas into dark matter potentials:

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 - * we discussed the anisotropic viscous stress tensor and the conductive heat flux

- Dark Matter halo profiles

- * in the exercises, you played with the NFW profile and derived the corresponding potential

- * we filled gas in the NFW potential and derived the density profile assuming an isothermal gas in hydrostatic equilibrium

- * we showed that this would cause the gas to dominate over dark matter at large radii, violating the constraint $\rho_{\text{gas}}/\rho \rightarrow f_b$

- ⇒ **isothermal assumption for gas not realistic!**



AIP