

2.5 Supernova:

Nova: increase of luminosity by a factor $10^2 - 10^4$ for several hours
 $\hat{=}$ appear to be a new star

Supernova: luminosity exceeds that of a nova by several orders of magnitude, $L > 10^3 L_{\odot}$ tends to be larger than luminosity of surrounding galaxy

example: supernova 1054, July 5, 1054 (Chinese astronomers)
occurred at Perseus arm of Milky Way, 6200 ly away from us
luminosity decayed after several months

gas envelope is ejected with a velocity of about 10^4 km/s

remark: on average there is one supernova each $10-30$ years in Milky Way.

Phenomenologically one discriminates two types of supernova

	type I	type II
optical outburst of energy	$10^{-5} - 10^{-4} M_{\odot} c^2$	$10^{-6} - 10^{-5} M_{\odot} c^2$
ejected mass	$0.1 - 1 M_{\odot}$	$1 - 10 M_{\odot}$
spectra	no hydrogen lines	hydrogen lines

dramatic increase of observed light intensity comes from which energy source

mass defect: discussed in context of star equilibrium

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} M' : \text{mass of all its constituents} \\ M : \text{gravitational mass} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \Delta M = M' - M > 0 \\ = - \frac{E_{\text{grav.}}}{c^2} \end{array}$$

stability border: $R = \frac{9}{8} r_s$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta M}{M} = 0.64$$

10% of energy goes into the ejection of mass

Detailed description of a supernova goes beyond this lecture.

1) Type II: star of mass $M \sim 10 - 30 M_\odot$, metallic core

at some point fusion process stops, star cools down, thermal pressure is reduced, gravitational gets larger, center gets pressed together



$\Rightarrow$ loss of Fermi pressure due to loss of electrons

$\Rightarrow$ implosion of inner part:

inner part gets pressed together

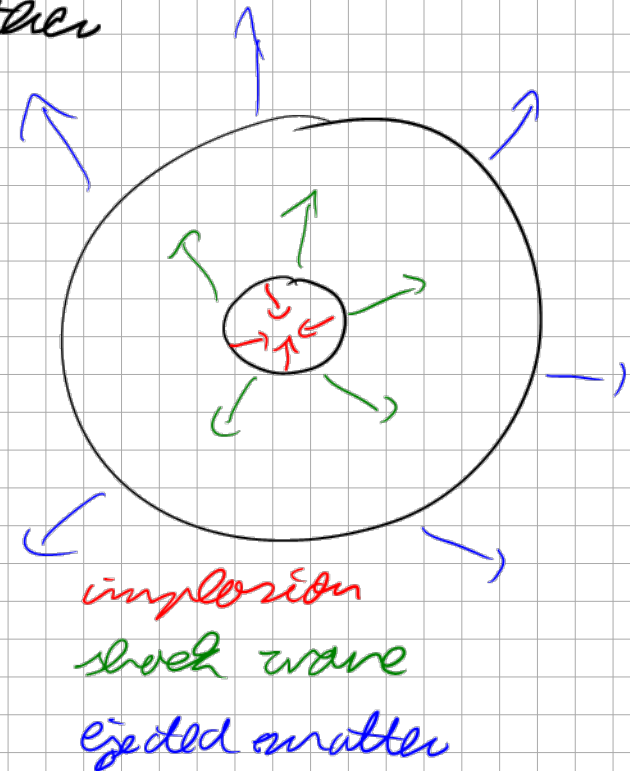
$\Rightarrow$ fusion to higher elements up to iron
but also leads to heavier elements

$\Rightarrow$ generation of heavier elements

$\Rightarrow$ shock wave: ejection of matter

Time of type II: 10^5 y

today: Crab nebula, extension of about 3 ly



$\Rightarrow$ remnant here: neutron star

Another example: SN 1987A (24.02.1987)

Large Magellanic Cloud, neighbouring galaxy of Milky Way, 160.000 ly from us

$\rightarrow$ 19 neutrinos ("multi-messenger astronomy")

SN stems from a star $M = M_{\odot} 17$

$\Rightarrow$ no neutron star or black hole observed until now

2) Type I: based on white dwarfs (helium) in a double star system

accretion of mass until Chandrasekhar mass which is the maximally possible mass of a white dwarf due to equilibrium

$\Rightarrow e^{-} + p \rightarrow n + \nu_e$

Finite pressure of electrons breaks down $\Rightarrow$ gravitational collapse occurs until $M \leq M_c \approx 1.3 M_{\odot}$

Fate: neutron star or black hole

Prime example: SN 1994, occurred in galaxy NGC 4526, which is 60.000.000 ly away from us

Type Ia supernovae turn out to be quite homogeneous

$\Rightarrow$ used in astronomy as distance measurement

$\Rightarrow$ list of observed supernovae

2.6 Black Hole: Physics Today 24(1), 30 - 41 (1971)

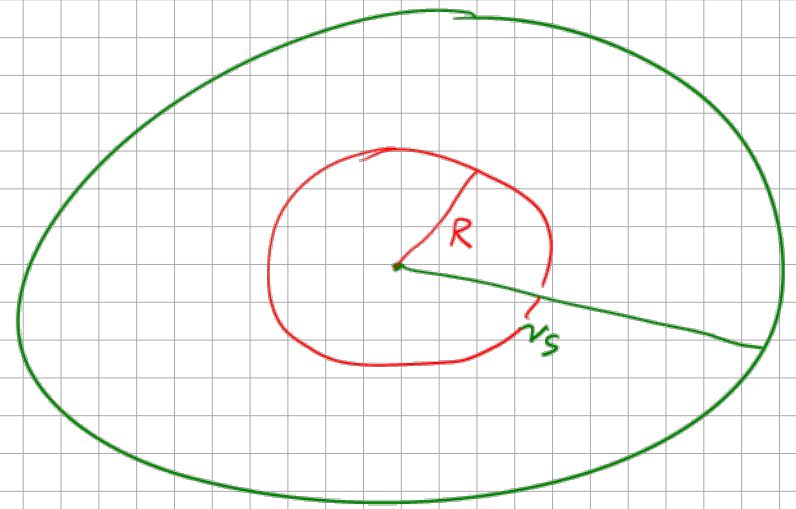
2.6.1 Introduction:

black hole = star inside its own

Schwarzschild radius

"black": no radiation from star surface
gets outside the Schwarzschild radius

"hole": outside observer can not receive
any information from it



$$R < r_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

Pierre-Simon Laplace (1749 - 1827):

flight velocity to escape a planet

$$E_{kin} = \frac{m}{2} v_{flight}^2 = |E_{grav}| = \frac{GMm}{R} \Rightarrow v_{flight} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}$$

$$\text{photons } (m=0): v_{flight} \Rightarrow c \Rightarrow R = \frac{2GM}{c^2} = r_s$$

critical mass density for achieving a black hole (assume: no mass defect)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} R \approx r_s &= \frac{2GM}{c^2} \\ M &= \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho_{crit} R^3 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} M &= \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho_{crit} \frac{8G^3 M^3}{c^6} \Rightarrow \rho_{crit} = \frac{3}{4\pi} \frac{M_{\odot}}{r_{s,\odot}^3} \left(\frac{M_{\odot}}{M} \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{3}{4\pi} \frac{3 \cdot 10^{30} \text{ kg}}{(3 \text{ km})^3} = 1.8 \cdot 10^{19} \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} \end{aligned}$$

largest densities: neutron star, nucleus $\Rightarrow \rho = 10^{17} \text{ kg/m}^3$

$$M = 10^8 M_{\odot} \Rightarrow \rho_{crit} = 2 \cdot \frac{\rho}{\text{cm}^3} \stackrel{!}{=} \text{density of water}$$

$$R = r_s \approx \frac{26M}{c^2} = 3 \text{ km} \frac{M}{M_\odot} \uparrow = 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ km} \quad (1 \text{ AU} = 1.5 \cdot 10^8 \text{ km})$$

$$M = 10^8 M_\odot$$

relativistic star cluster: Zeldovich and Podurets (1965)

2.6.2 Gravitational collapse

0 inside of star $ds^2 = c^2 d\tau^2 - R^2(\tau) \cdot \left[\frac{dr^2}{1 - \frac{r_s^2}{R^2}} + r^2 (d\vartheta^2 + \sin^2 \vartheta d\varphi^2) \right]$ Gaussian normal coordinates adapted to free radial fall		star radius		outside of star $r \geq r_0$ $ds^2 = \left(1 - \frac{r_s}{r}\right) c^2 dt^2 - \frac{1}{1 - \frac{r_s}{r}} dr^2 - r^2 (d\vartheta^2 + \sin^2 \vartheta d\varphi^2)$ Schwarzschild metric: time dependence due to Birkhoff theorem	→ radial direction
--	--	-------------	--	--	--------------------

star surface: $4\pi r_0^2 R^2(\tau) = 4\pi r_0^2(t)$

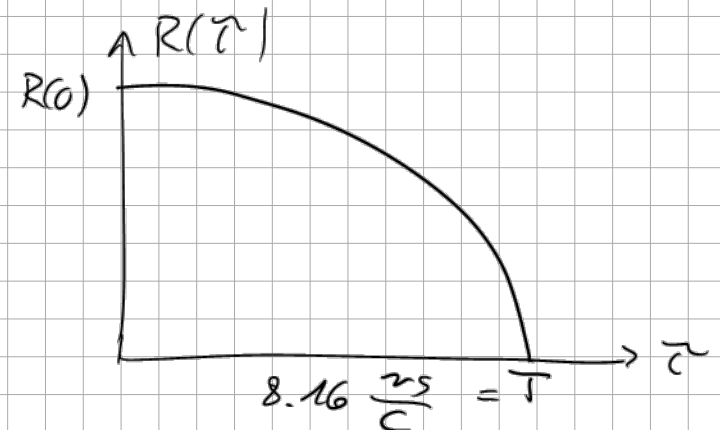
$\underbrace{r_0}_{=1} \underline{R(\tau)} = \underline{r_0(t)}$
 without loss of generality

initial condition: $R(0) = r_0(0), \quad \dot{R}(0) = 0$

$M_0 = \frac{4\pi}{3} \rho R(0)^3, \quad r_s = \frac{26M}{c^2}$

see earlier lecture $\frac{26M}{c^2} \frac{1}{R(0)} = \frac{r_s}{R(0)} = 3 \frac{1}{3} < 1$

dimensionless parameters



$$\frac{r_s}{c} = \frac{2 G M_\odot}{c^3} \left(\frac{M}{M_\odot} \right) = 10^{-5} \text{ s} \left(\frac{M}{M_\odot} \right)$$

