

Lecture VII

- Magnetorotational Instability (MRI)

$\rightarrow \text{In the}$

While studying the Taylor-Couette problem we already found that the stability criterion of Rayleigh is

$$\frac{1}{r^3} \frac{d(r^2 \Omega)^2}{dr} > 0$$

What happens if there is a constant magnetic field in the vertical direction?

We linearize the equations with the following unperturbed state

$$\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, \Omega(r)r)$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \underline{\underline{0}},$$

$$\mathbf{v} = (0, \Omega(r)r, 0)$$

$$\mathbf{B} = (0, 0, B)$$

And look for perturbations that are functions of z only. Then we obtain

$$-i\omega \delta v_r - 2\Omega \delta v_\phi - \frac{ikB}{2\mu_0} \delta b_r = 0$$

$$-i\omega \delta v_\phi + \frac{k^2}{2\Omega} \delta v_r - \frac{ikB}{2\mu_0} \delta b_\phi = 0$$

$$\cancel{-i\omega \delta b} - \omega \delta b_r = kB \delta v_r$$

$$-i\omega \delta b_\phi = \epsilon b_r \frac{d\Omega}{dr} + ikB \delta v_\phi$$

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with epicyclic frequency $\kappa^2 = \frac{1}{r^3} \frac{d}{dr} (r^2 \Omega)^2$

The dispersion relation:

$$\omega^4 - \omega^2 [k^2 + 2(k c_A)^2] + (k c_A)^2 \left[(k c_A)^2 + \frac{d\Omega^2}{dr} \right] = 0$$

where $c_A = \text{Alfvén velocity} = \frac{B}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \rho_0}}$

~~it can become negative when~~

stability criterion:

$$(k c_A)^2 > - \frac{d\Omega^2}{dr}$$

The problem can always become unstable unless

$$\frac{d\Omega^2}{dr} > 0$$

so the \Rightarrow Rayleigh criterion

$$\frac{d}{dr} (r^2 \Omega)^2 > 0$$

should be replaced by

$$\frac{d\Omega^2}{dr} > 0$$

- angular momentum must be replaced by angular velocity.

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- The maximum growth rate of the instability:

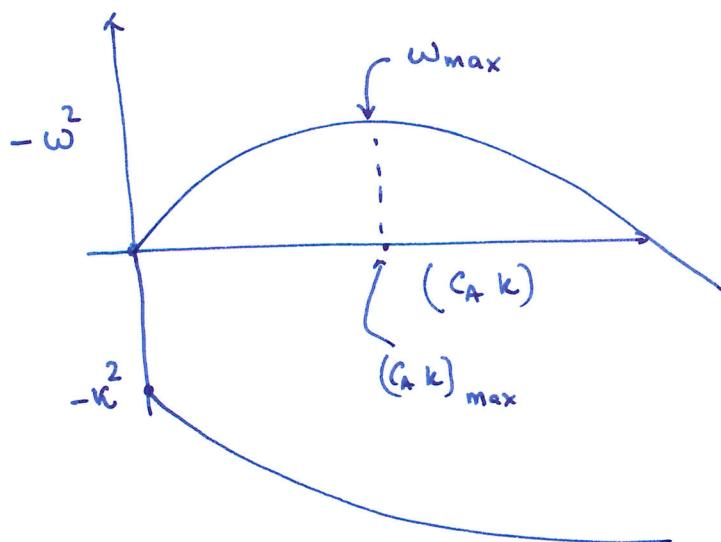
$$|\omega_{\max}| = \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{d\Omega}{d\ln r} \right|$$

when $(\kappa c_A)^2_{\max} = -\left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{\kappa^2}{16\Omega^2}\right) \frac{d\Omega^2}{d\ln r}$

- Keplarian rotation profile:

$$\Omega^2 r = \frac{GM_0}{r^2} \Rightarrow \Omega = \Omega_0 r^{-3/2}$$

$$\omega_{\max} = \frac{3}{4} \Omega \quad (c_A \cdot \kappa)_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{15}{4}} \Omega$$



$$\kappa_{\max} \sim \frac{1}{c_A}$$

smaller the magnetic field larger κ_{\max} will be.

- It is the slow magnetosonic wave that becomes unstable.

This is the essence of the magnetorotational instability.

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- Is the magnetic field ever too small small to be dynamically ignored?
- A turbulent disk:
 - why do we need the MRI? Is not a Keplerian disk hydrodynamically unstable?

Rayleigh criterion implies, $\frac{d}{dr} (r^2 \Omega)^2 > 0$

$$\Omega \sim r^{-3/2}, \quad r^2 \Omega \sim \sqrt{r}$$

$$\frac{d}{dr} (r^2 \Omega)^2 = \frac{d}{dr} r = 0.$$

Numerical simulations show that a Keplerian disk is not nonlinearly stable.

Although a shear flow in general is not!

- The difference could be from boundary conditions.

(5)

- Steady state Keplerian disk (ideal)

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} + \operatorname{div}(\mathbf{g} \mathbf{v}) = 0$$

$$\partial_r (\mathbf{g} \mathbf{v}) + \operatorname{div} (\mathbf{g} \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_j + \mathbf{p} \delta_{ij})$$

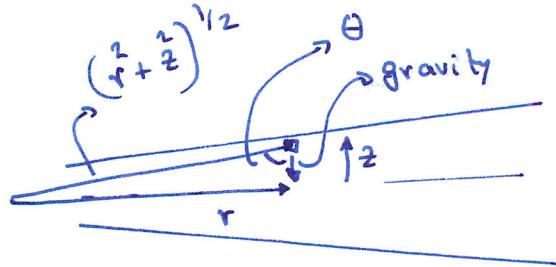
$$= \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B} + \nabla \Phi$$

$$\mathbf{v}_\phi = \mathbf{v}_\phi + \Omega(r) \mathbf{r}$$

$$c^2 = \gamma p/\rho$$

~~$$\partial_r \mathbf{B} = \nabla \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$$~~

$$\Omega^2 = \frac{GM_\odot}{R^3}$$



The vertical structure of the disk

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial z} = - \frac{GM_\odot}{(r^2 + z^2)^{1/2}} \cos \theta S(z)$$

$$= - \frac{GM}{(r^2 + z^2)} \frac{z}{(r^2 + z^2)^{1/2}} S(z)$$

$$\approx - \frac{GM}{r^3} z S = - S \Omega^2 z$$

$$\Rightarrow S = S_0 \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{H^2}\right) \quad H = \frac{\sqrt{2} c_s}{\Omega}$$

For large r , $\Omega r > c_s$ is possible; actually quite common in astrophysical applications.

Then $\frac{H}{r} = \frac{\sqrt{2} c_s}{\Omega r} < 1$, thin disk approximation.

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- Equation for angular momentum

$$\partial_t (r v_\phi) + \nabla \cdot \left[r v_\phi v - \frac{r B_\phi}{2\mu_0} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) (\hat{r} B_r + \hat{\phi} B_\phi) \right. \\ \left. + \alpha r \left(p + \frac{B_r^2 + B_z^2}{\mu_0} \right) \hat{e}_\phi \right] = 0$$

$$- \nabla \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{dissipative terms} \end{array} \right] = 0$$

On averaging

$$\partial_t \langle l \rangle + \nabla \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{flux} \end{array} \right] = 0$$

$$\overline{u} = u - \bar{u} r$$

↑
fluctuating part

The radial component of the flux

$$w_{r\phi} = \left\langle r \left[3 \{ u_r + \alpha r + u_\phi \} - \frac{B_r B_\phi}{\mu_0} \right] \right\rangle$$

turbulent transport.

$$= \sum r [r \alpha \langle u_r \rangle_g + \langle u_r u_\phi - c_A r c_A \phi \rangle_g]$$

where $\Sigma = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g dz$

$$c_A = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\mu_0 \delta_0}}$$

$$\langle X \rangle_g = \frac{1}{2\pi \sum \Delta R r} \int_{r \in \Delta R} \int_{\phi \in 2\pi} \int_{z \in \Sigma} X g d\phi dr dz$$

If there is a non-vanishing angular momentum flux outward, then matter slowly loses angular momentum and ~~will~~ accrete inwards. So the disk loses mass at the following rate:

$$\dot{M} = - 2\pi r \Sigma \langle u_r \rangle_p$$

It can be shown that there is a flux of energy inward, contributing to the luminosity of the disk. Typical boundary conditions are stress-free at the inner boundary.

The Shakura-Sunayev model

$$w_{r\phi} \sim \alpha c_s^2$$

- Can the MRI produce sustained turbulence?
How does it saturate?
- Can we calculate α from first principles?

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How does instabilities saturate?

Consider the problem in an abstract manner.

There is a critical number, the Reynolds number, the Taylor number, or the Richardson number, which when exceeds a critical value an ~~is~~ instability develops. This instability is typically of the following form:

$$u(x, t) \sim A(t) f(x)$$

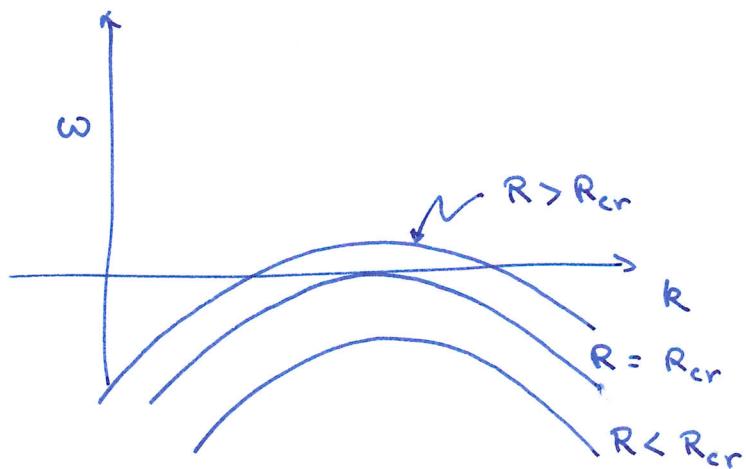
where $f(x)$ is an appropriate eigenfunction that satisfies the boundary conditions. $A(t)$ is typically complex. In the simplest case it obeys the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} A(t) &= e^{-i\omega_i t} = e^{rt - i\omega_i t} & \frac{dA}{dt} &= (r - i\omega_i) e^{rt - i\omega_i t} \\ \frac{d}{dt} (A A^*) &= A^* \frac{dA}{dt} + A \frac{dA^*}{dt} & & \\ &= e^{rt} e^{i\omega_i t} (r - i\omega_i) e^{rt - i\omega_i t} + c.c. \\ &= 2r (A A^*) \end{aligned}$$

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This is merely a restatement of the fact that the amplitude of the eigenfunctions are complex and their magnitude grows exponentially.

Now consider the problem near the critical point



Near $R = R_{cr}$ there are only a few (maybe even one) unstable mode that grows exponentially with time with a rate γ and oscillates with a frequency ω_1 . So near this point we can ignore all the other possible modes. So our dynamical equation becomes

$$\frac{d|A|^2}{dt} = 2\gamma |A|^2 + \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{functions of} \\ |A|^2 \text{ that} \\ \text{makes } |A|^2 \\ \text{saturate} \end{array} \right)$$

Next possible term:

$$\bar{A}^2 A^*, \quad (A^*)^2 A$$

* They are not allowed by two arguments:

- (i) they contain terms $e^{-i\omega_i t}$ which when averaged over time scales longer than $1/\omega_i$ becomes zero.
- (ii) they are not real.

So the first non-zero term is

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dt} |A|^2 = 2\gamma |A|^2 + \mu |A|^4}$$

First example of an amplitude equation.

• Consequences:

(a) The instability saturates when $\frac{d}{dt} |A|^2 = 0$

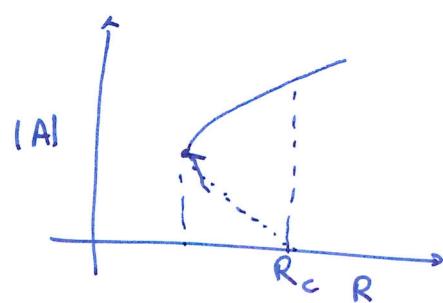
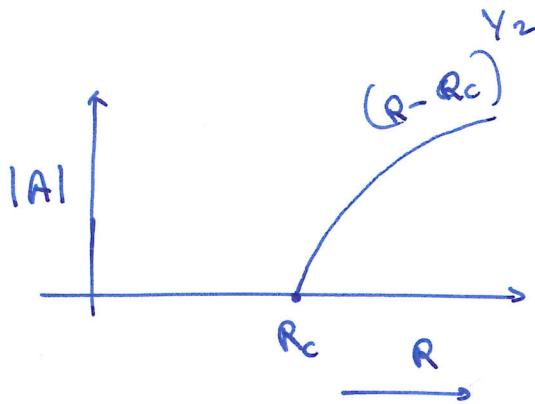
$$\Rightarrow 2\gamma |A|^2 = -\mu |A|^4$$

$$\Rightarrow |A|^2 = \frac{2\gamma}{-\mu} \left(\frac{2\gamma}{\mu}\right)$$

Note that δ is also a function of $R - R_c$
and goes to zero at $R = R_c$.

$$\Rightarrow \delta \sim (R - R_c) \quad \text{for } R - R_c \text{ small}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{|A|^2 \sim R - R_c}{|A| \sim (R - R_c)^{\gamma_2}}$$



(11)

very similar to Landau's theory of phase transition.

- If $\mu < 0$ Then $|A|$ will grow fast and very soon the amplitude eqn will not remain applicable.

But we can still apply the eqn. to study fluctuations below $R = R_c$.

Then γ is negative; but

$$\frac{d|A|^2}{dt} = 2\gamma |A|^2 - \mu |A|^4$$

can become positive for large enough $|A|$.

\Rightarrow The motion will become unstable even for $R < R_{cr}$ but not for infinitesimal ~~ampl~~ perturbations but for finite perturbations for which

$$\mu |A|^4 > 2\gamma |A|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow |A|^2 > \frac{2\gamma}{\mu}$$

$$\Rightarrow A > \left(\frac{2\gamma}{\mu}\right)^{\gamma_2}$$

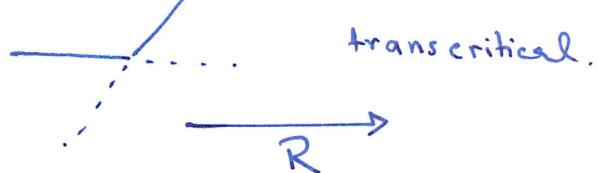
- The above arguments apply only when the instability selects a few unstable modes. If there are whole ranges of unstable modes then we ~~is~~ immediately land up in a more complicated situation.
- Furthermore, e.g. for shear flow ~~to~~ instabilities, it is not clear how this mechanism may work, as the linear theory does not give any instability in many cases.
- δ can be calculated from linearized equations but not μ . How do we obtain μ from the dynamical equations? We have to average our equations of ω_i and write an effective theory. This has been done in certain cases by using the method of ~~well~~ multiple scales.

Bifurcations

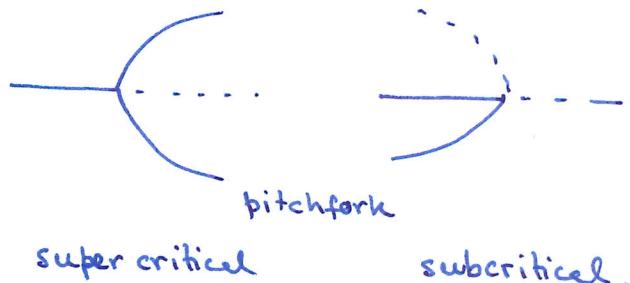
- $\partial_t A = R - A^2$



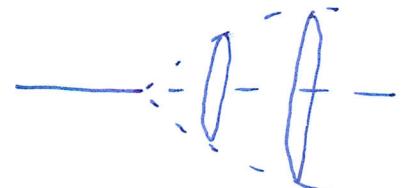
- $\partial_t A = RA - A^2$



- $\partial_t A = RA - gA^3$



- $\partial_t A_1 = -A_2 + RA_1 - (A_1^2 + A_2^2)A_1$



- $\partial_t A_2 = -A_1 + RA_2 - (A_1^2 + A_2^2)A_2$

Hopf bifurcation.

6 Nonlinear stability

If ~~the~~ a point in the neighbourhood of a fixed point remains close to it ~~for~~ for all times then the ~~point~~ is stable. Fixed point is nonlinearly stable. If the point asymptotically tends to the fixed point then it is asymptotically stable.