

# UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI PADOVA

## Dipartimento di Fisica e Astronomia "Galileo Galilei" Corso di Laurea in Fisica

Tesi di Laurea

## Relativistic non-ideal flows

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#### **Abstract**

Stuff emits radiation when it falls into a black hole. I'd like to see exactly how much of it.

### 1 Notational preface

I will use greek indices ( $\mu$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $\rho$ ...) to denote 4-dimensional indices ranging from 0 to 3, and latin indices (i, j, k...) to denote 3-dimensional indices ranging from 1 to 3.

I will use the "mostly plus" metric for flat Minkowski space-time,  $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag} -, +, +, +$ : therefore four-velocities will have square norm  $u^{\mu}u_{\mu} = -1$ . I will use Einstein summation convention: if an index appears multiple times in the same monomial, it is meant to be summed over

Take a diffeomorphism  $x \to y$ , with Jacobian matrix  $\partial y^{\mu}/\partial x^{\nu}$ . The indices of contravariant vectors, trasforming as

$$V^{\mu} \rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial y^{\mu}}{\partial x^{\nu}}\right) V^{\nu}$$
 (1.1)

will be denoted as upper indices, while the indices of covariant vectors, trasforming as

$$V_{\mu} \rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial x^{\nu}}{\partial y^{\mu}}\right) V_{\nu}$$
 (1.2)

will be denoted as lower indices; the same applies to higher rank tensors.

Unless otherwise specified, I will work in geometrized units, where c = G = 1.

Take a tensor with many indices,  $T_{IJ}$ , where I is shorthand for the n indices  $\mu\nu\rho\dots$  and the same applies to J. These indices can be symmetrized and antisymmetrized, and I will use the following conventions:

$$T_{(I)J} = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} T_{\sigma(I)J} \tag{1.3}$$

$$T_{[I]J} = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sign} \sigma T_{\sigma(I)J} \tag{1.4}$$

where  $S_n \ni \sigma$  is the group of permutations of n elements, and sign  $\sigma$  is 1 if  $\sigma$  is an even permutation (it can be obtained in an even number of pair swaps) and -1 otherwise.

#### 2 Useful formulas

#### 2.1 Nobili

**Tensor calculus** The covariant derivative keeps account of the shifting of the basis vectors:

$$\nabla_{\mu}A^{\nu} = \partial_{\mu}A^{\nu} + \Gamma^{\nu}_{\alpha\mu}A^{\alpha} \tag{2.1}$$

The rank-3 objects  $\Gamma$  are called Christoffel symbols. They are not tensors! they depend on the choice of basis  $e_{\alpha}$ , and they satisfy  $\nabla_{\mu}e_{\alpha}=\Gamma^{\nu}_{\mu\alpha}e_{\nu}$ .

If we have the metric, they can be calculated as:

$$\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\rho} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\alpha} \left( \partial_{\rho} g_{\alpha\nu} + \partial_{\nu} g_{\alpha\rho} - \partial_{\alpha} g_{\nu\rho} \right) \tag{2.2}$$

This also tells us that they are symmetric in the lower two indices:  $\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\rho} = \Gamma^{\mu}_{\rho\nu}$ .

The divergence of a vector field  $A^{\mu}$  can be calculated as:

$$\nabla_{\mu}A^{\mu} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}}\partial_{\mu}\left(\sqrt{-g}A^{\mu}\right) \tag{2.3}$$

where g is the determinant of the metric.

We can also define the Dalambertian operator  $\Box = \nabla_{\mu} \nabla^{\mu} = \nabla_{\mu} \partial^{\mu}$ , which can only act on scalars, and it does so like:

$$\Box A = \nabla_{\mu}(\partial^{\mu}A) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}}\partial_{\mu}\left(\sqrt{-g}\partial^{\mu}A\right) \tag{2.4}$$

If we differentiate and antisymmetryze (so, take the rotor of) an antisymmetric tensor  $F_{[\mu\nu]}$ , the Christoffel symbols cancel:

$$\nabla_{[\mu} F_{\nu\rho]} = \partial_{[\mu} F_{\nu\rho]} \tag{2.5}$$

The derivative with respect to proper time is  $\frac{d}{d\tau} = u^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}$ .

Covariant acceleration is defined as:

$$a^{\nu} = u^{\mu} \nabla_{\mu} u^{\nu} \tag{2.6}$$

**Curvature** The curvature of spacetime is fully described by the Riemann curvature tensor, which is a fourth rank tensor: for any generic vector  $V^{\mu}$ ,

$$R^{\mu}_{\nu\rho\sigma}V^{\nu} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [\nabla_{\rho}, \nabla_{\sigma}]V^{\mu} \tag{2.7}$$

It can be calculated using the Christoffel symbols, and while they are not tensors  $R^{\mu}_{\nu\rho\sigma}$  is one. This result follows by direct computation from formula (2.7).

$$R^{\mu}_{\nu\rho\sigma} = \partial_{\rho}\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma} - \partial_{\sigma}\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\rho} + \Gamma^{\mu}_{\rho\lambda}\Gamma^{\lambda}_{\sigma\nu} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\sigma\lambda}\Gamma^{\lambda}_{\rho\nu}$$
 (2.8)

The Christoffel symbols can be nonzero if we choose certain coordinates even for flat spacetime, but the Riemann tensor is zero iff the spacetime is flat.

**Geodesics** If we have a path  $x^{\mu}(\lambda)$ , we would like to see if it is a geodesic, that is, if it is stationary with respect to path length. To do this we can stationarize the action corresponding to the lagrangian  $\mathcal{L}(x,\dot{x}) = g_{\mu\nu}\dot{x}^{\mu}\dot{x}^{\nu}$  (where we use  $\dot{x} = \mathrm{d}x/\mathrm{d}\lambda$ ). The Lagrange equations then are:

$$\ddot{x}^{\mu} + \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\rho}\dot{x}^{\nu}\dot{x}^{\rho} = 0 \tag{2.9}$$

Where  $\Gamma$  are the Christoffel symbols, which can be calculated by differentiating the metric, as shown in (2.2).  $\mathcal{L}$  is an integral of these Lagrange equations.

If the parameter  $\lambda$  is taken to be the proper time s, then the equation is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}u^{\mu}}{\mathrm{d}s} + \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\rho}u^{\nu}u^{\rho} = 0 \tag{2.10}$$

Notice that this is equivalent to the covariant acceleration (2.6) being zero.

**Fermi-Walker transport** Take a general vector field  $V^{\mu}(s)$  defined along a curve, with its tangent vector  $u^{\mu}$  whose covariant acceleration is  $a^{\mu}$ . Then we say that  $V^{\mu}$  is transported according to Fermi-Walker iff it satisfies

$$\dot{V}^{\mu} = u^{\nu} \nabla_{\nu} V^{\nu} = V_{\rho} (u^{\mu} a^{\rho} - a^{\mu} u^{\rho}) \tag{2.11}$$

This condition is always satisfied by  $V^{\mu}=u^{\mu}$ , since  $a^{\mu}u_{\mu}=0$ , whether or not the curve is a geodesic. The tangent vector is *parallel* transported only for geodesics.

**Tetrads and projectors** We want to work in a reference in which the velocity  $u^{\mu}$  is purely timelike. This can always be found by the equivalence principle. Such a reference can be completed into what is called a tetrad, for which the metric becomes the Minkowski metric in a neighbourhood of the point we consider.

We call the velocity  $u^{\mu} = V^{\mu}_{(0)}$ , and add to it three other vectors  $V^{\mu}_{(i)}$  such that

$$g_{\mu\nu}V^{\mu}_{(\alpha)}V^{\nu}_{(\beta)} = \eta_{(\alpha)(\beta)}$$
 (2.12)

where the brackets around the indices denote the fact that they label four vectors, not the components of a tensor.

We can choose the vectors  $V_{(i)}^{\mu}$  so that they are Fermi-Walker transported along the worldline defined by  $u^{\mu}$ : this allows us to find the relativistic equivalent of a nonrotating frame of reference.

It is useful to project tensors onto the space-like and time-like subspaces defined by our tetrad (and we wish to do so in a coordinate-independent manner, so just taking the 0th and i-th components in the tetrad will not suffice). We therefore define the projectors:

$$h_{\mu\nu} = u_{\mu}u_{\nu} + g_{\mu\nu} \qquad \pi_{\mu\nu} = -u_{\mu}u_{\nu}$$
 (2.13)

respectively onto the space- and time-like subspaces.

**Metrics** The simplest physically relevant one is the Schwarzschild metric. It describes a spherically symmetric object of mass M, in spherical coordinates. Defining  $\Phi = -M/r$ , we have:

$$ds^{2} = -(1+2\Phi) dt^{2} + \frac{1}{1+2\Phi} dr^{2} + r^{2} \left( d\theta^{2} + \sin^{2}\theta d\varphi \right)$$
 (2.14)

or, equivalently,

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}\left(-(1+2\Phi), \frac{1}{1+2\Phi}, r^2, r^2 \sin^2\theta\right)$$
 (2.15)

We can see that it approaches the flat metric  $\eta_{\mu\nu}={\rm diag}\,(-,+,+,+)$  in the limit  $M\to 0$ . Its determinant is  $g=-r^4\sin^2\theta$ .

**Fluid mechanics** In usual relativistic single-body mechanics, we use the 4-velocity  $u^{\mu}$  and the corresponding 4-momentum  $p^{\mu} = mu^{\mu}$ . The 0-th component of this vector is the energy of the body, while the *i*-th components are its momentum: we then have  $p^{\mu}p_{\mu} = m^2 = E^2 - |p|^2$ .

When dealing with a continuum, we will have a certain density of particles per unit of volume, we call this n. The current of particles is then  $N^{\mu} = nu^{\mu}$ . If these particles have a certain rest mass  $m_0$ , we can then define the vector  $\rho_0 u^{\mu} = m_0 n u^{\mu} = m_0 N^{\mu}$ .

This satisfies a conservation equation:  $\nabla_{\mu}(\rho_0 u^{\mu}) = 0$ .

Particles in a fluid can have three kinds of energy we concern ourselves with: mass, kinetic energy and other forms of energy (thermal, chemical, nuclear...). We can always perform a change of coordinates to bring us to a frame in which the kinetic energy is zero. We write the sum of the other two forms of energy as  $\rho = \rho_0(1 + \epsilon)$ . So,  $\epsilon$  is the ratio of the internal non-mass energy to the mass.

Now, the vector  $\rho u^{\mu}$  describes the flux of energy. We can then write the equation for the conservation of momentum:

$$f^{\mu} = \nabla_{\nu}(\rho u^{\mu} u^{\nu}) \tag{2.16}$$

**Spherical accretion** We work with the Schwarzschild metric (2.14); we treat a fluid with 4-velocity  $u^{\mu}$  in spherical coordinates, since the problem we are looking at is stationary and spherically symmetric the velocity is:

$$u^{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma^2/y \\ yv \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{2.17}$$

where we define the Lorentz factor as usual,  $\gamma = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2}$ , and  $y = \gamma \sqrt{1 + 2\Phi}$ .

The conservation of mass holds: if  $\rho_0$  is the rest mass density of the fluid, we must have  $\nabla_{\mu}(\rho_0 u^{\mu}) = 0$ . This, using the formula for covariant divergence (2.3), yields:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\Big(\rho_0 y v r^2\Big) = 0\tag{2.18}$$

In the newtonian limit both  $\gamma$  and y approach 1; also, the infalling mass rate  $\dot{M}$  at a certain radius is  $\rho_0(r)v(r)4\pi r^2$ . Then, by continuity to the newtonian limit, the quantity which is constant wrt the radius must be  $\dot{M}/(4\pi)$ .

We also have the Euler equation:

$$(p+\rho)a^{\mu} = -h^{\mu\nu}\partial_{\nu}p\tag{2.19}$$

And the equation for the variation of the total internal energy:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\rho}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{p + \rho}{\rho_0} \frac{\mathrm{d}\rho_0}{\mathrm{d}\tau} \tag{2.20}$$

From these we can show that the quantity  $\gamma h \sqrt{1+2\Phi}$  (where  $h=(p+\rho)/\rho_0$  is the specific enthalpy), is a constant of motion. In the nonrelativistic, weak-field limit this becomes

$$\gamma h \sqrt{1+2\Phi} \approx \frac{p}{\rho_0} + \frac{v^2}{2} - \frac{M}{r} + \epsilon = \text{const}$$
 (2.21)

#### 2.2 Taub

This section summarizes my study of A. H. Taub's review of relativistic fluid dynamics, [Tau78].

**Nonrelativistic** Nonrelativistic fluid mechanics are described by the equations:

$$\partial_t \rho + \partial_i (\rho v^i) = 0 \tag{2.22a}$$

$$\rho\left(\partial_t v^i + v^j \partial_j v^i\right) = \partial_j T^{ij} \tag{2.22b}$$

$$\rho \partial_t E + v^i \partial_i E = \partial_i \left( T^{ij} v_j + \kappa \partial^i T \right)$$
 (2.22c)

where  $\rho$  is the density of the fluid,  $v^i$  are the components of its velocity,  $T^{ij}$  is the stress tensor (or, equivalently, the space-like components of the energy-momentum tensor), E is the energy of the fluid,  $\kappa$  is the thermal conductivity, T is the temperature of the fluid.

The nonrelativistic stress tensor can be written as:

$$T_{ij} = -(p + \xi \partial_k v^k) \delta_{ij} + \eta \partial_{(i} v_{j)}$$
(2.23)

where p is the (isotropic) pressure,  $\eta$  the viscosity,  $\xi$  is the compression viscosity. We are assuming that the normal stresses are only those exerted by pressure, so the diagonal terms  $T_{ii}$  (not summed) must just be -p. So, the term  $-\xi \partial_k v^k$  must equal  $\eta \partial_{(i} v_{i)} = 2\eta \partial_i v_i$  (not summed). Therefore, by isotropy,  $\xi = 2\eta/3$ .

Note that we are working in Euclidean 3D space, so the metric is the identity and upper and lower indices are equivalent.

The energy is a sum of kinetic and specific energy:

$$E = v^i v_i / 2 + \varepsilon \tag{2.24}$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the specific energy (of a type that is different from kinetic) per unit mass.

**Relativistic** The dynamics of the fluid are described by the conservation of the stress-energy tensor  $\nabla_{\mu}T^{\mu\nu} = 0$  and the conservation of mass  $\nabla_{\mu}(\rho u^{\mu}) = 0$ .

Any stress-energy tensor can be decomposed in its space and time-like parts in the local rest frame of the fluid:

$$T_{\mu\nu} = w u_{\mu} u_{\nu} + w_{\mu} u_{\nu} + u_{\mu} w_{\nu} + w_{\mu\nu} \tag{2.25}$$

where

$$w = T_{\mu\nu}u^{\mu}u^{\nu} = \rho_0(1+\varepsilon) \tag{2.26a}$$

$$w_{\mu} = T_{\nu\sigma}h_{\mu}^{\sigma}u^{\nu} = -\kappa h_{\mu}^{\sigma}(\partial_{\sigma}T + Ta_{\sigma})$$
 (2.26b)

$$w_{\mu\nu} = T_{\rho\sigma}h^{\rho}_{\mu}h^{\sigma}_{\nu} = (p - \xi\theta)h_{\mu\nu} - 2\eta\sigma_{\mu\nu} \tag{2.26c}$$

with  $\theta = \nabla_{\mu}u^{\mu}$ ,  $a_{\mu}$  is the covariant acceleration,  $\sigma_{\sigma\tau} = 1/2 \Big( \nabla_{\mu}u_{\nu} + \nabla_{\mu}u_{\nu} \Big) h_{\sigma}^{\mu}h_{\tau}^{\nu} - 1/3\theta h_{\sigma\tau}$ , and as in the nonrelativistic section  $\eta$  is the viscosity,  $\xi$  is the compression viscosity,  $\kappa$  is the thermal conductivity, T is the temperature field, p is the pressure,  $\rho_0$  is the rest mass density while  $\rho = \rho_0(1+\varepsilon)$  is the rest energy.

## 3 Nobili, Turolla, Zampieri

The cooling function of the infalling gas is

$$\Lambda(T) = \left( \left( 1.42 \times 10^{-27} T^{1/2} \left( 1 + 4.4 \times 10^{-10} T \right) + 6.0 \times 10^{-22} T^{-1/2} \right)^{-1} + 10^{25} \left( \frac{T}{1.5849 \times 10^4 \,\mathrm{K}} \right)^{-12} \right)^{-1} \,\mathrm{erg cm}^3 / \mathrm{s}$$
(3.1)

## **Bibliography**

[Tau78] A H Taub. "Relativistic Fluid Mechanics". In: Annual Review of Fluid Mechanics 10.1 (1978), pp. 301–332. URL: https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.fl.10.010178.001505.