

# The Radius Cutoff for Relativistic Clusters

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## Abstract

In this work we consider an isothermic relativistic kinetic gas under relativistic conditions, as a model for high center density galaxies. We apply the radius cutoff of the Emden type, in order to remove infinities. Numerically we find some theoretical configurations with very high values of masses concentrated in small volumes. Profiles of some thermodynamic quantities such as density, pressure, will be independent from the choice of radius cutoff, whereas temperature and gravitational potential depend essentially on the cutoff value.

## 1. Introduction

Many galaxies (like NGC4258) are thought to contain massive black holes-exceeding ten million solar masses-at their centres, and the best evidence comes from observing stars rotating rapidly within a small region around a central body (see for example [1-4]). These systems of high velocity stars raise once more the well-known idea of treating them as configurations of kinetic gas. In this work we consider a self-gravitating sphere of relativistic kinetic gas, using general relativistic theory, with the aim of answering some important questions of astrophysics, such as:

It is possible to have objects of high density? Of very high values of energy?

Is it possible to construct a very massive object (ex.  $10^{8-10}M_{sun}$ ) in a very small volume (ex.  $R=0.1$  pc) ? etc.

In fact, it is well known that the classic types of these spheres are not limited. The classic equation describing these configurations, called the Emden equation [5], is

$$\frac{1}{\eta^2} \frac{d}{d\eta} \left( \eta^2 \frac{d\psi}{d\eta} \right) = e^{-\psi}. \quad (1)$$

Here,  $r \equiv \left( \frac{kT}{4\pi\rho_0 mG} \right)$  is the distance from the center and  $V \equiv \frac{kT}{m} \psi$  is the classic gravitational potential ( $T$  being temperature;  $\rho_0$  mass density at center and  $m$ , the particle

mass). This equation gives a mass density of the form  $\rho \sim \eta^{-2}$  for large  $\eta$ . This causes the total mass integrated over large distances to become infinite. To resolve this difficulty, two methodes can be employed: a cutoff for energy values greater than the cutoff energy; or confine the self-gravitating sphere in a perfectly reflecting spherical box, which could have every possible radius.

The first method has recently been used, with the truncated Boltzmann distribution function by the cutoff energy. Here, the stability against the relativistic collapse is investigated as well [6-7]. The second method was used very early by Emden, in the case of classical configurations and is known by the name of Emden sphere. In our work we treat the analogous relativistic Emden sphere.

## 2. Heuristic Treatment

Let us suppose that our relativistic gas composed by  $N$  stars is confined inside a self-gravitating sphere of mass  $M$  and radius  $R$  :  $M \sim R, (c = G = 1)$ . Since these stars are relativistic (mostly neutron stars and black holes), we have  $m \sim r$  (respectively their mass and radius). Then  $\frac{R^3}{N}$  is the free volume for each particle (star) and  $d \sim \frac{R}{N^{1/3}}$  is the mean distance between these particles.

Next, we require the condition  $d \gg r$  to be accomplished in such a way that the gravitational attraction between the constituents be weak and the risk of their collision and fusion be negligible. It means that :

$$d \sim \frac{R}{N^{1/3}} \sim \frac{M}{N^{1/3}} \sim \frac{Nm}{N^{1/3}} \sim N^{2/3}r. \quad (2)$$

So, the condition  $\frac{d}{r} \gg 1$  is fulfilled if  $N^{2/3} \gg 1$  and  $N \gg 1$ .

We advance in our questions and ask the approximate number of stars (constituents) for having such rare collisions that the configuration survive  $10^{10}$  years  $\sim 10^{17}$  s. Let us calculate the free mean distance, by considering relativistic velocities  $v \sim 1$ :

$$l \sim \frac{1}{\pi nr^2} \sim \frac{1}{\pi \frac{N}{R^3} r^2} \sim \frac{R^3}{Nr^2} \sim \frac{M^3}{Nm^2} \sim \frac{N^3 m^3}{Nm^2} \sim N^2 m. \quad (3)$$

The average time between two collisions will be

$$\tau \sim \frac{l}{1} \sim N^2 m. \quad (4)$$

Then  $\tau \sim 3 \times 10^{17}$  s and  $m \sim 10^{33}$  kg  $\sim 10^{-5} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Consequently, the last relation gives  $N^2 \sim 10^{22}$  and  $N \sim 10^{11}$ . So, normal-mass galaxies  $M \sim 10^{11} M_{sun}$  with lower limited radius  $R \sim M \sim 10^{-2}$  parces are obtained.

## 3. General Considerations

The general relativistic equations for static and spherically symmetric configurations can be written as follows ( $c = G = 1$ ) :

$$\begin{aligned} 8\pi p &= e^{-\lambda} \left( \frac{\nu'}{r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \right) - \frac{1}{r^2} \\ 8\pi \rho &= e^{-\lambda} \left( \frac{\lambda'}{r} - \frac{1}{r^2} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where the metric is :

$$ds^2 = e^\nu dt^2 - e^\lambda dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2. \quad (6)$$

We consider a simple perfect relativistic gas of material particles with proper mass  $m$  at temperature  $T$ . So, the velocities of particles are considered very high and the gas statistics follow the Jutner-Synge distribution [8]:

$$N = \frac{n}{4\pi m^2 K_2 \left( \frac{m}{kT} \right) kT} \exp \left( \frac{M_l \lambda_l}{kT} \right). \quad (7)$$

$M_l$  and  $\lambda_l$  are the fourvectors characterizing energetic state of the system and  $n$  is the numerical density of particles with mass  $m$  in the rest frame of the gas.  $K_2$  is the Bessel function of the second order. For the Bessel function  $K_n(x)$  we have the following formulae:

$$K_n(x) = \int_0^\infty \exp(-x \cosh t) \cosh nt dt \quad (8)$$

$$xK'_n(x) + nK_n(x) = -xK_{n-1}(x). \quad (9)$$

Using the above distribution function, the state of the relativistic perfect gas is represented by the equations (see [8]):

$$\begin{aligned} p &= nkT \\ \rho + p &= mn \left( \frac{2kT}{m} - \frac{K'_2 \left( \frac{m}{kT} \right)}{K_2 \left( \frac{m}{kT} \right)} \right) \\ n &= 4\pi C_1 m^2 kT K_2 \left( \frac{m}{kT} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where  $C_1$  is a constant.

In the case of absence of the gravitational field,  $T$  is the temperature measured by the observer in the rest frame. So, it would have same value measured every where. In the case of the gravitational field, the thermodynamic equilibrium will be realised by a varied temperature, dependent on the gravitational field. It has been found that the temperature  $T$  measured by the local observer fulfills the relation  $T\sqrt{g_{00}} = \text{const}$ (see[9]), which in our case could be written:

$$Te^{\nu/2} = \text{const.} \quad (11)$$

Noting  $a \equiv \frac{m}{k_{\text{const}}}$ , the state equation is transformed to:

$$\begin{aligned} n(r) &= 4\pi m^3 C_1 \frac{K_2(ae^{\nu/2})}{ae^{\nu/2}} \\ p(r) &= 4\pi m^4 C_1 \frac{K_2(ae^{\nu/2})}{(ae^{\nu/2})^2} \\ \rho(r) &= 4\pi m^4 C_1 \frac{K_2(ae^{\nu/2})}{ae^{\nu/2}} \left[ \frac{3}{ae^{\nu/2}} + \frac{1}{\frac{K_0}{K_1} + \frac{2}{ae^{\nu/2}}} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

#### 4. Reduction of Parameters

Let us make the following transformation:

$$U(r) \equiv ae^{\nu/2}. \quad (13)$$

The system of differential equations for the field  $\lambda$  and  $\nu$  takes the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\lambda}{dr} &= r \left[ e^\lambda \left( 8\pi\rho - \frac{1}{r^2} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \right] \\ \frac{dU}{dr} &= \frac{Ur}{2} \left[ e^\lambda \left( 8\pi\rho + \frac{1}{r^2} \right) - \frac{1}{r^2} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} n(r) &= 4\pi m^3 C_1 \frac{K_2(U)}{U} \\ p(r) &= 4\pi m^4 C_1 \frac{K_2(U)}{U^2} \\ \rho(r) &= 4\pi m^4 C_1 \frac{K_2(U)}{U} \left[ \frac{3}{U} + \frac{1}{\frac{K_0}{K_1} + \frac{2}{U}} \right] \\ &= 4\pi m^4 C_1 \left[ \frac{3K_0}{U^2} + \frac{6K_1}{U^3} + \frac{K_1}{U} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Applying the scaling  $r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1}} \chi$ , the system to be resolved becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\bar{\lambda}}{d\chi} &= \chi \left[ e^{\bar{\lambda}} \left( \bar{\rho} - \frac{1}{\chi^2} \right) + \frac{1}{\chi^2} \right] \\ \frac{d\bar{U}}{d\chi} &= \frac{\bar{U}\chi}{2} \left[ e^{\bar{\lambda}} \left( \bar{p} + \frac{1}{\chi^2} \right) - \frac{1}{\chi^2} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{p} &= \frac{K_0}{U^2} + \frac{2K_1}{U^3} \\ \bar{\rho} &= \left[ \frac{3K_0}{U^2} + \frac{6K_1}{U^3} + \frac{K_1}{U} \right]. \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

It is clear that  $\bar{\lambda}(\chi) = \lambda(\chi/\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1})$ ,  $\bar{U}(\chi) = U(\chi/\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1})$ ,  $\bar{p}(\chi) = p(\chi/\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1})$ ,  $\bar{\rho}(\chi) = \rho(\chi/\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1})$ . Bessel functions were used to arrive at the final forms.

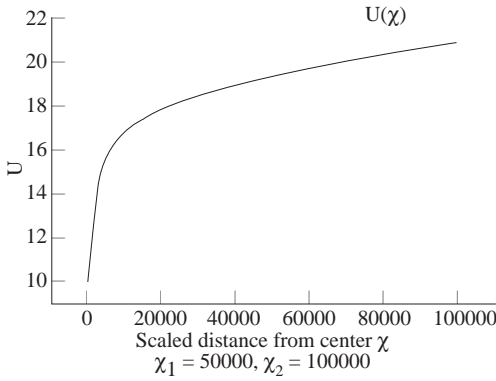
### 5. The boundary conditions

#### At center

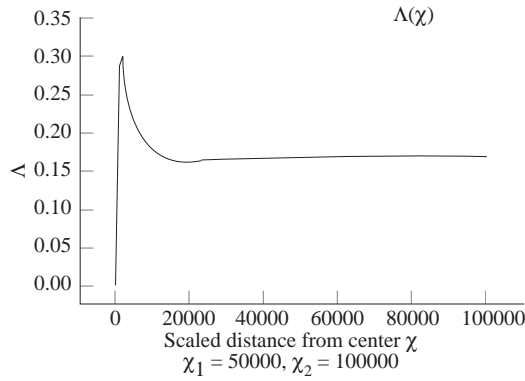
To resolve numerically the equations (16) and (17) with the Runge-Kuta method, we must determine the boundary conditions at center of the spherical configuration :  $U_0, \bar{p}_0, \bar{\rho}_0, \bar{\lambda}_0$ . Due to the fact that in origin the metrics is locally flat, we have  $\bar{\lambda}_0 = \lambda_0 = 0$ . Equations (17) show that if we know  $U_0$ , then  $\bar{p}_0$  and  $\bar{\rho}_0$  are determined. Consequently the only necessary condition at origin for resolving equations (16) and (17) is  $U_0 = \frac{m}{KT_0}$ .

#### At the surface

We consider the surface at  $R$ , such that the condition of the Emden sphere  $\nu(R) = -\lambda(R)$  be fulfilled. So,  $ae^{\nu(R)/2} = ae^{-\lambda(R)/2}$ ,  $U(R) = ae^{-\lambda(R)/2}$ ;  $a = a(R) = U(R)e^{\lambda(R)/2}$ . We conclude that  $R$  could determine only the constant  $a$ . In the configuration (16), (17) the constant  $a$  has a no influence and  $R$  can not play any role in the profile  $U(\chi)$  and  $\lambda(\chi)$  (see Fig. 1., Fig. 2).



**Figure 1.** The profile  $U(\chi)$  for condition at center  $U(0) = 10$ . The numerical calculation stops at the arbitrary values  $\chi_1$  and  $\chi_2$ .



**Figure 2.** The profile  $\lambda(\chi)$  for condition at center  $U(0) = 10$ . The numerical calculation stops at the arbitrary values  $\chi_1$  and  $\chi_2$ .

Then, for resolving (16), (17), let us determine  $U_0$  and  $\chi_1$  (the surface).  $U_0$  is the only one parameter conditioning the profiles  $\bar{U}(\chi), \bar{\lambda}(\chi)$  and afterwards  $\bar{p}(\chi), \bar{\rho}(\chi)$  with

the help of Eqs. (17). These profiles could not depend on the choice of  $\chi_1$ ; the last is needed only to stop the integration. If we first choose  $\chi_1$  and afterwards carry out another integration with  $\chi_2 > \chi_1$ , in the second case we obtain the same profile for  $0 < \chi < \chi_1$  as in the first case. We do not find the same conclusion for the value of  $a$  and  $\nu_0$ , which will depend directly on  $\chi_1$ :

$$a = a(R) = U(R)e^{\lambda(R)/2} = \bar{U}(\chi_1)e^{\lambda(\bar{\chi}_1)/2}. \quad (18)$$

Knowing that

$$U_0 = ae^{\nu_0/2} = \bar{U}(\chi_1)e^{\lambda(\bar{\chi}_1)/2}e^{\nu_0/2}, \quad (19)$$

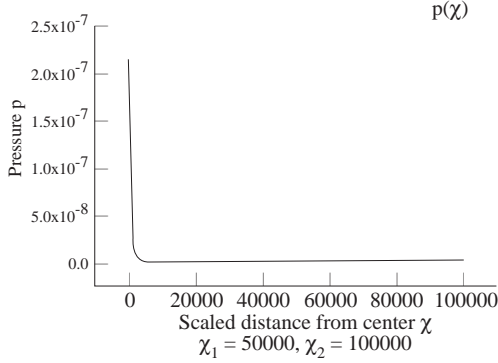
then

$$\nu_0 = 2 \log \frac{U_0}{\bar{U}(\chi_1)} - \bar{\lambda}(\chi_1) = \nu(T_0, R\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1}) = \nu_0(T_0, R, p_0). \quad (20)$$

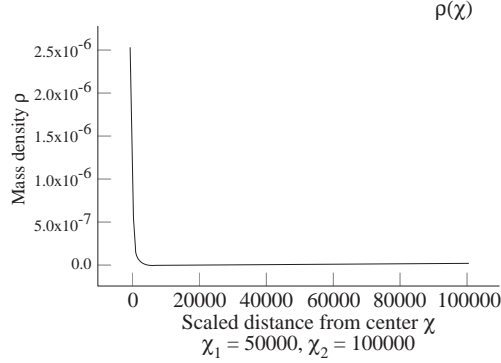
The last set of equations is due to the fact that  $4\pi^2 m^2 C_1 = \frac{p_0}{\bar{p}_0}$ . We made also use of the relation :  $\chi_1 = \sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1} R$ . Knowing that the temperature is included in the  $a$  value, it is also dependent on  $R$ .

### 6. Passing to $r$

When we pass to  $r$ , we need to determine two center conditions:  $U_0, p_0$  (or  $\rho_0$ ) and the surface  $R$ . Afterwards, with the value  $U_0$  we determine profiles  $\bar{U}(\chi), \bar{\lambda}(\chi), \bar{T}(\chi), \bar{p}(\chi), \bar{\rho}(\chi)$ . We stop the integration at  $\chi_1 = R\sqrt{8\pi\frac{p_0}{\bar{p}_0}}$ . Finally we have  $U(r) = \bar{U}(r\sqrt{8\pi\frac{p_0}{\bar{p}_0}})$ ,  $\lambda(r) = \bar{\lambda}(r\sqrt{8\pi\frac{p_0}{\bar{p}_0}})$  etc., as dilatations of  $U(\chi), \lambda(\chi)$  etc.

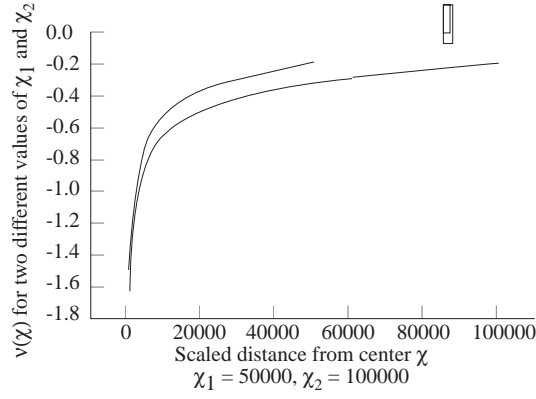


**Figure 3.** The profile  $p(\chi)$  for condition at center  $U(0) = 10$ . The numerical calculation stops at the arbitrary values  $\chi_1$  and  $\chi_2$ .



**Figure 4.** The profile  $\rho(\chi)$  for condition at center  $U(0) = 10$ . The numerical calculation stops at the arbitrary values  $\chi_1$  and  $\chi_2$ .

The numerical integration is done using the Runge-Kuta method with the boundary conditions:  $U_0 = 10, R$  of the order of 0.1 parces,  $\rho_0 = 10^3 g/cm^3$  to find  $M = 10^{11} M_{sun}$ .



**Figure 5.** The profile  $\nu(\chi)$  for two different boundary values  $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ . We remark the dependence of the profile from the surface  $R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{32\pi^2 m^4 C_1}} \chi_1$ .

## 7. Conclusions and Acknowledgements

We considered galaxies as configurations of relativistic kinetic gas, selfgravitating in their own strong gravitational fields. We made use of the radius cutoff for removing the infinities. We found that the profile of some interior quantities characterizing the gas can be reduced through scaling, in one sole model. We find masses of  $\sim 10^{8-10} M_{sun}$  confined in a sphere of 0.1 parces.

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