The Virial Theorem, MHD Equilibria, and Force-Free Fields

Nick Murphy

Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics

Astronomy 253: Plasma Astrophysics

February 8, 2016

These lecture notes are largely based on Plasma Physics for Astrophysics by Russell Kulsrud, Lectures in Magnetohydrodynamics by the late Dalton Schnack, Ideal Magnetohydrodynamics by Jeffrey Freidberg, Hydrodynamic and Hydromagnetic Stability by S. Chandrasekhar, Classical Electrodynamics by J. Jackson, and examples by A. Savcheva and A. Spitkovsky.

Outline

- ► We will look at the properties and key characteristics of MHD equilibria. Our discussion will focus on:
 - ▶ The virial theorem

$$0 = 2\mathcal{E}_V + 3(\gamma - 1)\mathcal{E}_p + \mathcal{E}_B + \mathcal{E}_g$$

▶ MHD equilibria

$$\frac{\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}}{c} = \nabla p$$

► Force-free fields

$$\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B} = 0 \Rightarrow \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \alpha \mathbf{B}$$

The Virial Theorem for MHD (following Kulsrud §4.6)

- ► The Virial Theorem allows us to understand broadly the equilibrium properties of a system in terms of energies
- ► Suppose there exists a magnetized plasma within a finite volume. The scalar moment of inertia is

$$\mathcal{I} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \rho r^2 \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} \tag{1}$$

where r is the position vector about some arbitrary origin

- Our strategy:
 - ▶ Calculate $d\mathcal{I}/dt$ and $d^2\mathcal{I}/dt^2$
 - Ignore surface integrals by assuming the volume is large
 - ▶ Put the result in terms of energies
 - ▶ Set $d^2 \mathcal{I}/dt^2 = 0$ for an equilibrium
 - Determine the conditions under which the resulting equation can be satisfied

Take the first time derivative of \mathcal{I}

▶ Use the continuity equation, the radial form $\nabla r^2 = 2\mathbf{r}$, the identity $\nabla \cdot (f\mathbf{A}) \equiv f \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla f$, and Gauss' theorem.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathcal{I}}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} r^{2} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{V}) \, r^{2} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V}
= -\frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{V}} \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{V} r^{2}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} + \frac{1}{2} \int \rho \mathbf{V} \cdot \nabla r^{2} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V}
= -\frac{1}{2} \oint_{\mathcal{S}} r^{2} \rho \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S} + \int_{\mathcal{V}} \rho \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{r} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V}$$
(2)

- ► The moment of inertia changes when mass enters or leaves the system, or mass moves toward or away from the origin
- Consider a volume large enough so that no mass enters or leaves. The surface integral then vanishes:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathcal{I}}{\mathrm{d}t} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} \rho \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{r} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} \tag{3}$$

Take the second time derivative of ${\cal I}$

▶ Use the momentum equation, $\nabla \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{I}$, the tensor identity $\mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla \cdot \mathbf{T} = \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{T}) + \mathbf{T} : \nabla \mathbf{A}$, and Gauss' theorem

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^{2}\mathcal{I}}{\mathrm{d}t^{2}} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} \mathbf{r} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho \mathbf{V}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} = -\int_{\mathcal{V}} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{T}) \cdot \mathbf{r} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V}$$

$$= -\int_{\mathcal{V}} \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{r}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} + \int_{\mathcal{V}} \mathbf{T} : \nabla \mathbf{r} \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V}$$

$$= -\oint_{\mathcal{S}} \mathrm{d}\mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{r} + \int_{\mathcal{V}} \mathrm{trace}(\mathbf{T}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} \tag{4}$$

The first term represents surface stresses. If we assume that surface stresses are negligible, then we are left with

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \mathcal{I}}{\mathrm{d}t^2} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} \operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{T}) \,\mathrm{d}\mathcal{V} \tag{5}$$

Let's look again at the stress tensor **T** (with gravity)

We need to take

$$\mathbf{T} = \rho \mathbf{V} \mathbf{V} + p \mathbf{I} + \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{B}}{4\pi} + \frac{(\nabla \phi)^2 \mathbf{I}}{8\pi G} - \frac{(\nabla \phi)(\nabla \phi)}{4\pi G}$$
 (6)

► The Reynolds stress is

$$\rho \mathbf{VV} = \begin{pmatrix} V_x V_x & V_x V_y & V_x V_z \\ V_x V_y & V_y V_y & V_y V_z \\ V_x V_z & V_y V_z & V_z V_z \end{pmatrix}$$
(7)

Then take its trace by adding up the diagonal elements:

trace
$$(\rho \mathbf{VV})$$
 = $\rho \left(V_x^2 + V_y^2 + V_z^2\right)$
= ρV^2 (8)

It's just twice the kinetic energy density!

Now evaluate the traces of the other terms in **T**

► The traces of the stress tensors yield energy densities times constants!

$$trace(p\mathbf{I}) = 3p (9)$$

$$\operatorname{trace}\left(\frac{B^2}{8\pi}\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}}{4\pi}\right) = \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \tag{10}$$

trace
$$\left(\frac{(\nabla \phi)^2 \mathbf{I}}{8\pi G} - \frac{(\nabla \phi)(\nabla \phi)}{4\pi G}\right) = -\frac{(\nabla \phi)^2}{8\pi G}$$
 (11)

▶ Recall that the internal energy density is given by $p/(\gamma-1)$

Now let's put these back into the volume integral

By replacing trace (T) in Eq. 5 we arrive at

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^{2}\mathcal{I}}{\mathrm{d}t^{2}} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} \left(\rho V^{2} + 3\rho + \frac{B^{2}}{8\pi} - \frac{(\nabla \phi)^{2}}{8\pi G} \right) \mathrm{d}\mathcal{V}$$
$$= 2\mathcal{E}_{V} + 3(\gamma - 1)\mathcal{E}_{\rho} + \mathcal{E}_{B} + \mathcal{E}_{g}$$
(12)

where

- ▶ Kinetic energy: $\mathcal{E}_V \ge 0$
- ▶ Internal energy: $\mathcal{E}_p > 0$
- ▶ Magnetic energy: $\mathcal{E}_B \ge 0$
- Gravitational energy: $\mathcal{E}_g \leq 0$ (only possible negative term!)
- ▶ In an equilibrium, $\frac{d^2\mathcal{I}}{dt^2}$ must equal zero.
- ► The Virial Theorem is:

$$0 = 2\mathcal{E}_V + 3(\gamma - 1)\mathcal{E}_p + \mathcal{E}_B + \mathcal{E}_g$$
 (13)

What happens when we neglect magnetic and internal energy?

• If $\mathcal{E}_B = \mathcal{E}_p = 0$, then we recover

$$\mathcal{E}_V = -\frac{1}{2}\mathcal{E}_g \tag{14}$$

The kinetic energy must equal half the magnitude of the gravitational energy.

- ► This is a well-known result in self-gravitating systems such as star clusters, galaxies, and galaxy clusters
- ▶ This result has been used to infer the presence of dark matter

What happens when we drop gravity in a static system?

▶ In the absence of gravity and bulk motions, we are left with

$$0 = 3(\gamma - 1)\mathcal{E}_p + \mathcal{E}_B \tag{15}$$

But $\mathcal{E}_p \geq 0$ and $\mathcal{E}_B \geq 0$! We have a contradiction!

- A magnetized plasma cannot be in MHD equilibrium under forces generated solely by its own internal currents.
- Equilibria are possible if there are external currents as in laboratory plasmas
 - Accounted for from the surface integrals we dropped
- ▶ In astrophysics, this might not be satisfied¹

¹One might say, neglecting gravity will be your downfall!

What limits on the magnetic energy does the Virial Theorem imply?

▶ If $\mathcal{E}_V = \mathcal{E}_p = 0$, then

$$\mathcal{E}_B + \mathcal{E}_g = 0 \tag{16}$$

For a stable equilibrium, the magnetic energy must not exceed the magnitude of the gravitational energy.

► The virial theorem provides broad insight into the equilibrium properties of a relaxed system without having to worry about the details

MHD Equilibria

- ▶ We often care about systems that are in equilibrium
- Let's look at the momentum equation (neglecting gravity)

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \mathbf{V} \cdot \nabla \right) \mathbf{V} = \frac{\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}}{c} - \nabla \rho \tag{17}$$

For a static equilibrium, the configuration must have

$$\frac{\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}}{c} = \nabla p \tag{18}$$

in the absence of other forces

Properties of MHD equilibria

Dot B with the equilibrium equation:

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot (\nabla p) = \mathbf{B} \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}}{c}\right) \tag{19}$$

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla p = 0 \tag{20}$$

where we use that **B** is orthogonal to $\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}$.

- ▶ $\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla p$ is the directional derivative of p in the direction of \mathbf{B}
- ▶ Plasma pressure is constant along magnetic field lines
- ► Similiarly, if we dot **J** with the equilibrium equation then

$$\mathbf{J} \cdot \nabla \rho = 0 \tag{21}$$

since **J** is orthogonal to $\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}$ also.

Effects of fast thermal conduction on equilibria

- Ideal MHD does not include thermal conduction
- ▶ However, thermal conduction is very fast along field lines!
- ▶ If temperature is approximately constant along field lines, then

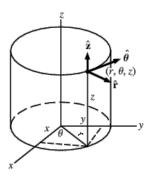
$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla T \approx 0 \tag{22}$$

For p = nkT, then we also have

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla n \approx 0 \tag{23}$$

Eqs. 22 and 23 are not exact results, but rather commonly result from fast parallel thermal conduction.

We will next consider 1D and 2D equilibria



▶ We will use cylindrical coordinates (r,θ,z) such that

$$\mathbf{B}(r,z) = B_r \hat{\mathbf{r}} + B_\theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \tag{24}$$

Example: equilibria with a unidirectional magnetic field

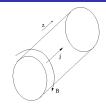
- ► Consider a configuration where the magnetic field is purely in the **ẑ** direction
- ▶ The equilibrium condition is then

$$p + \frac{B_z}{8\pi} = p_{tot} \tag{25}$$

where the total pressure, p_{tot} , is a constant

► The tension forces disappear because the field lines are straight

Example: consider 1D cylindrical equilibria



- ► A 'Z-pinch' (above) has current flowing in the **ẑ** direction so that **B** is purely azimuthal
- A ' θ -pinch' has current flowing in the $\hat{\theta}$ direction so **B** is purely axial
- ► A 'screw pinch' has components of J and B in both the axial and azimuthal directions
- For these configurations, we look for solutions of the form

$$p = p(r)$$
; $\mathbf{J} = J_{\theta}(r)\hat{\theta} + J_{z}(r)\hat{\mathbf{z}}$; $\mathbf{B} = B_{\theta}(r)\hat{\theta} + B_{z}(r)\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ (26)

for which $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ is trivially satisfied

Finding a Z-pinch 1D equilibrium

- Set $J_{\theta}=0$ and $\mathbf{B}_z=0$ since current is purely axial
- Ampere's law becomes

$$J_z(r) = \frac{c}{4\pi} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r} (rB_\theta)$$
 (27)

The $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$ component of the momentum equation is

$$J_{z}B_{\theta} = \frac{\mathrm{d}p}{\mathrm{d}r} \tag{28}$$

We then apply Eq. 27

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}p}{\mathrm{d}r} + \frac{c}{4\pi} \frac{B_{\theta}}{r} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r} (rB_{\theta}) = 0 \tag{29}$$

Finding a Z-pinch 1D equilibrium

▶ This can be rearranged to

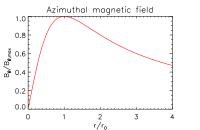
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r} \underbrace{\left(p + \frac{B_{\theta}^{2}}{8\pi}\right)}_{\text{total pressure}} + \underbrace{\frac{B_{\theta}^{2}}{4\pi r}}_{\text{tension}} = 0$$
 (30)

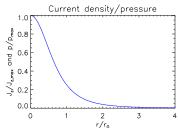
Or, putting this in terms of the curvature vector,

$$\nabla_{\perp} \left(p + \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \right) - \frac{B^2}{4\pi} \kappa = 0 \tag{31}$$

Total pressure and tension balance each other

A Z-pinch equilibrium can be found by specifying $B_{\theta}(r)$ and then solving for p(r)





▶ Shown above is the 'Bennett pinch' with

$$B_{\theta} \propto \frac{r}{r^2 + r_0^2} \; ; \; \; p, J_z \propto \frac{r_0^2}{(r^2 + r_0^2)^2}$$
 (32)

▶ If the domain is $r \in [0, \infty]$ then the magnetic energy diverges! Need an outer wall, which is not present in astrophysics. Recall the Virial Theorem...

Axisymmetric equilibria are found by solving the *Grad-Shafranov equation*

- ► Fundamentally important for fusion devices like tokamaks
- Astrophysical applications include:
 - Magnetic flux ropes in the solar corona/wind and planetary magnetospheres
 - Compact object magnetospheres

The elements of the Grad-Shafranov equation

► The Grad-Shafranov equation comes from the equilibrium relation

$$\frac{\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}}{c} = \nabla p \tag{33}$$

 \blacktriangleright We introduce a flux function ψ such that

$$B_{r} = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z}$$

$$B_{z} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r}$$
(34)

$$B_z = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \tag{35}$$

which satisfies the divergence constraint for any $B_{\theta}(r,z)$.

- \blacktriangleright Contours of constant ψ represent the projection of magnetic field lines into the poloidal (r-z) plane
- ▶ Both *p* and rB_{θ} are functions of ψ alone:

$$p = p(\psi) \tag{36}$$

$$p = p(\psi)$$
 (36)
$$rB_{\theta} = F(\psi)$$
 (37)

How do we find a solution of the Grad-Shafranov equation?

▶ The Grad-Shafranov equation is given by

$$\Delta^* \psi + F \frac{\mathrm{d}F}{\mathrm{d}\psi} = -4\pi r^2 \frac{\mathrm{d}p}{\mathrm{d}\psi},\tag{38}$$

where

$$\Delta^* \equiv r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$
 (39)

$$F(\psi) \equiv rB_{\theta} \tag{40}$$

- ▶ To solve the Grad-Shafranov equation, we need to
 - Specify $p(\psi)$
 - Specify F(ψ)
 - Solve for ψ
- The Grad-Shafranov equation is usually solved numerically

Equilibria and the Virial Theorem

- ▶ The natural state of a flux rope is to try to expand to infinity
- In laboratory plasmas, conducting wall outer boundaries and externally applied magnetic fields prevent this
 - ▶ These show up as surface integrals in the Virial Theorem
- ▶ In astrophysical plasmas, a flux rope can be held in place from $\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}$ and $-\nabla p$ forces from the surrounding medium
- ➤ The surrounding medium, in turn, can be held in place by gravitational forces
 - ► Example: the solar corona

How does gravity change things?

▶ The equilibrium condition becomes

$$0 = \frac{\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}}{c} - \nabla p + \rho \mathbf{g} \tag{41}$$

B and **J** are no longer necessarily orthogonal to ∇p

$$\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla p = \rho \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{g} \tag{42}$$

$$\mathbf{J} \cdot \nabla p = \rho \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{g} \tag{43}$$

- A radially outward flux tube reduces to the case of hydrostatic equilibrium: $\nabla p = \rho \mathbf{g}$
- ► The Grad-Shafranov equation can be generalized to include gravitational forces
 - I decided against assigning this as a homework problem.

Force-free fields

▶ When pressure is constant or in the limit of $\beta \to 0$, the pressure gradient force vanishes. Equilibria then have

$$\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B} = 0 \tag{44}$$

- Such configurations are called 'force-free' because there is no Lorentz force and no plasma pressure gradient force
- Using Ampere's law, this reduces to

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \alpha \mathbf{B} \tag{45}$$

where α is constant along field lines

Vector fields parallel to their own curl are called Beltrami fields

Linear force-free fields have constant α

Start with the condition for a force-free field:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \alpha \mathbf{B} \tag{46}$$

Take its curl and use that α is constant:

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{B}) = \alpha \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \tag{47}$$

Use Eq. 46 for the RHS and vector identities

$$\nabla \left(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} \right) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} = \alpha^2 \mathbf{B} \tag{48}$$

Linear force-free fields obey the Helmholtz equation

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{B} + \alpha^2 \mathbf{B} = 0 \tag{49}$$

which can be solved using separation of variables, Green's functions, Fourier series, or numerically.

Nonlinear force-free fields (NLFFF) have non-constant α

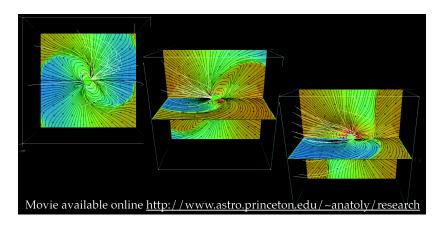
► Finding nonlinear force-free fields requires solving

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \alpha (\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{B} \tag{50}$$

where α must still remain constant along field lines

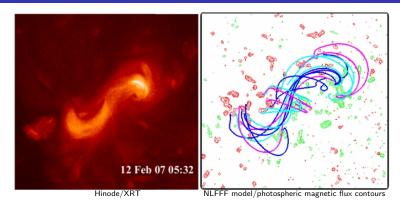
- ► Some analytical examples exist in 2D
- ▶ 3D solutions must generally be found numerically

Example: pulsar magnetospheres



- ► Force-free field models are able to capture features that do not exist in a vacuum solution
- Figure of oblique rotator by Anatoly Spitkovsky. Color marks direction of toroidal field.

Example: NLFFF modeling of sigmoidal solar active regions



- ► Significant free energy is stored in the sheared magnetic field of sigmoids (S-shaped structures in the corona)
- ► The modeling strategy is to insert a flux rope into a potential field model, let it relax, and see if it matches the observed X-ray emission (Savcheva et al. 2012)

Potential magnetic fields represent the minimum energy condition for a configuration's boundary conditions

- ▶ Potential fields are force-free fields with $\alpha = 0$
- ▶ Potential fields have J = 0, so Ampere's law becomes

$$0 = \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \tag{51}$$

The curl of a gradient is zero, so this is satisfied if

$$\mathbf{B} = -\nabla \zeta \tag{52}$$

where ζ is a scalar magnetic potential

▶ Taking the divergence of both sides shows that ζ can be found by solving Laplace's equation

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = -\nabla \cdot \nabla \zeta \tag{53}$$

$$0 = \nabla^2 \zeta \tag{54}$$

Potential magnetic fields may be calcuated using Laplace's equation for the vector potential

From Ampere's law with no currents we know that

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \tag{55}$$

$$0 = \frac{c}{4\pi} \nabla \times \mathbf{B} \tag{56}$$

From these two expressions we arrive at

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) = 0 \tag{57}$$

Using vector identities and choosing the Coulomb gauge $(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0)$ we arrive at

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{A} = 0 \tag{58}$$

Determining the magnetic free energy of a system

▶ The magnetic free energy of a system is given by

$$\Delta \mathcal{E}_{M} \equiv \int_{\mathcal{V}} \left(\frac{B^{2}}{8\pi} - \frac{B_{p}^{2}}{8\pi} \right) d\mathcal{V}$$
 (59)

where B_p is the potential field solution for the system's boundary conditions

However, the quantity

$$\frac{B^2}{8\pi} - \frac{B_p^2}{8\pi} \tag{60}$$

should *not* be considered a free energy density since free energy is an integral quantity

 Current density is a good proxy for how much stress exists in a magnetic field

Summary

- ► The Virial Theorem allows us to understand key requirements for equilibria even before we know the details
 - ▶ A plasma cannot be in an MHD equilibrium generated solely by its internal currents
- 2D MHD equilibria are found using the Grad-Shafranov equation
 - ► However, many equilibria are *unstable*
 - ▶ 3D MHD equilibria are difficult to find and/or generalize
- ▶ Force-free fields have $\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{0}$ so that $\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \alpha \mathbf{B}$
 - Linear force-free fields have constant α and can be solved for using the Helmholtz equation
 - Nonlinear force-free fields have nonconstant α and usually are solved numerically
- Potential fields are the minimum energy state for given boundary conditions and are force-free fields with $\alpha=0$