PUTTING A DAMPER ON THINGS:

Mode depression in red giant stars

and how ray tracing might shed some light on the role of magnetic fields...

Stars are self-gravitating fluid bodies in which waves can propagate. These waves may be excited through **convection**, flares and global instabilities. Constructive interference produces standing waves, i.e. global modes of oscillation. These can be detected by monitoring fluctuations in the brightness of a star, which arise from surface temperature fluctuations due to the fluid motions. Properties such as the frequencies, amplitudes and widths of peaks in the power spectrum contain information about a star's material properties. The study of stellar interiors by analysing their free modes of oscillation is called asteroseismology, and relies on a good theoretical understanding of the fluid behaviour of stars.

Mode depression: an ongoing mystery

The study

of stellar oscillations

Amongst the 10,000+ red giant stars observed by the Kepler space telescope, it was found that in ~20% of these, their non-radial modes have amplitudes significantly lower than the rest of the population¹. Radial modes appear not to be affected. This phenomenon is restricted to those stars massive enough to have previously had convective cores when on the main sequence². With convection closely linked to dynamo action, and non-radial modes being those localised to the core (rather than the envelope, as for radial modes), this strongly hints at the possible role of a hidden, leftover magnetic field.



However, preliminary magnetic theories predict 100% suppression of the core portion of affected modes³, which is inconsistent with observations⁴. Rather, they show that **depression is only partial**.

Twisted-torus magnetic fields

This work aims to study the problem of wave damping for realistic stellar models. The field configuration used here is an axisymmetric twisted torus, believed to be a good description of a **magnetic equilibrium**⁵. This is shown in Fig. 1, where the flux function

 $\psi(r,\theta) = \Psi(r) \sin^2 \theta$ defines the field according to $1 - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\lambda \psi}{\lambda \psi}$

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{r\sin\theta} \nabla \psi \times \boldsymbol{\phi} - \frac{1}{r\sin\theta} \boldsymbol{\phi} \ .$$



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Figure 2. Ray launching parameters

Hamiltonian ray tracing

Wave propagation was modelled using Hamiltonian ray tracing, which calculates the **path of wave packets** launched in a system with known background properties. The time evolution of the position, **x**, and conjugate momentum (i.e. wavevector), **k**, are given by solving Hamilton's equations

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}}{t} = \nabla_{\mathbf{k}} H$$
, $\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{k}}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\nabla H$

where the Hamiltonian, $H = H(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{k})$, is given by the wave dispersion relation, $\omega = \omega(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{k})$. For **magneto-gravity waves**, this is

 $\omega^2 = (\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_A)^2 + \kappa_{\perp}^2 N^2$. For each stellar model, 1200 gravity rays were launched into the core, from 30 different colatitudes, θ_0 , and with 40 different initial polarisations, α (see Fig. 2).



Hamiltonian. The wave packet undergoes periodic bouncing between inner and outer turning points. Wavevector components (bottom) remain bounded and periodic. of-plane motion occurring where the magnetic field is non-zero. The extent of the magnetised region is indicated with a green circle. Here the ray spirals irreversibly inwards, its group velocity decreasing and wavenumber diverging continuously.

periodic reflections, with bounded wavevector.

Field strength/configuration, wave frequency,

background stellar model etc. are identical.

Importantly, the only differences compared to Fig.

4 (trapped ray) are the launch values of θ_0 and α .

When will magnetic fields be important?

With rotation nealected, the three main types of wave in a magnetised star are acoustic, Alfvén and gravity waves. Deep in red giant cores, fluctuations mainly take the form of gravity waves, while in the envelope, fluctuations tend to be acoustic in nature. In general, two wave modes will interact when their frequencies ω and wavenumbers k coincide, i.e. a **resonance condition** is met. The dispersion relations $\omega = \omega(k)$ for the three wave modes are shown in the box below. While acoustic and Alfvén

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Acoustic} & \boldsymbol{\omega} = k c_s \\ \text{Alfvén} & \boldsymbol{\omega} = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{v}_A \\ \text{Gravity} & \boldsymbol{\omega} = \kappa_\perp N \end{array}$$

waves will only interact when the plasma beta $c_s/v_A \sim O(1)$, thus requiring a minimum field strength, gravity and Alfvén waves will always interact in some part of parameter space, regardless of the field strength. This is given by the intersection point between the curves in the right panel of Fig. 6, and occurs at lower frequencies when the field is weaker. Solving for this intersection point

of wave parameters,

occur.

There, mode conversion may



Figure 6. Comparison of wave dispersion relations

Why are some rays trapped while others reflected?

The key feature distinguishing trapped rays from reflected ones lies in their time-dependent behaviour of the gravity and Alfvén contributions to the total wave frequency. These are shown in red and blue, respectively, in Fig. 7. For trapped rays, the red and blue envelopes strongly overlap, indicating acquisition of substantial Alfvén character. Thus trapped rays are those that encounter a critical surface, i.e. the resonance criterion is satisfied somewhere along their trajectory.

However, for reflected rays the two envelopes do not overlap, and the gravity component always dominates. Thus reflected rays are those that are **able to avoid critical surfaces**. How this might be possible can be deduced from Fig. 8, which shows the 1200 launch points, colour-coded by outcome: blue for trapped rays and red for reflected. Different θ_0 are plotted on different latitudes, while different α are plotted on different longitudes. Hence reflected rays are those that are equatorially orbiting with zonal polarisation vectors. These are able to minimise the Alfvén component by having near-perpendicular \mathbf{k} and \mathbf{v}_{A} .



Figure 7. Gravity and Alfvén frequencies

Trapped ray

40



Figure 8. Distribution of trapped (blue) and reflected (red) rays

Comparison with observations

The loss of energy via trapping causes **damping** of the modes, at a rate proportional to the area of the sphere covered by blue points in Fig. 8, which we call the **trapping fraction**, f_{T} . This is a function of many parameters, including the field strength, wave frequency ω and the spherical harmonic degree *l* (Fig. 9, left). Measurements of f_{T} using the ray tracing method suggest that trapping/damping rates are higher at lower frequencies, **predicting the existence of stars** with a positive gradient in mode amplitudes with frequency. Several of these are known in the literature, e.g. KIC 6975038 (Fig. 9, right). For more quantitative comparisons, note that the observable

Table 1. Theoretical predictions

SH degree	/ = 1	1 = 2	1 = 3
T ²	0.4	0.03	10 ⁻³
f_{T}	0.55	0.65	0.7
τ _m (d)	5.6	64	1.8×10 ³
V^2_{dep}/V^2_{norm}	0.27	0.81	0.99

What is happening?

Waves are excited by convective motions in the envelope.

A fraction of these tunnel through the evanescent region and resume ~ propagation in the stably stratified core.

If there is no magnetic field, the wave reflects near the centre and returns to the envelope, reinforcing the standing wave pattern. This gives rise to "normal" stars.

If a strong magnetic field is present, the wave experiences one of two outcomes, depending on its polarisation and where it impacts the magnetised region.

note that the observable quantity is the visibility (V²) ratio between depressed and normal modes, given in terms of the convective and magnetic damping times $\tau_c \sim 15$ d and τ_m by $\frac{V_{depressed}^2}{V_{normal}^2} = \frac{1}{1 + \tau_c/\tau_m}$, where $\tau_m = \frac{1}{\nu_{dyn}T^2f_T}$, $T = \exp\left(\int_{\tau_c}^{\tau_p} ik_r dr\right)$ and $\nu_{dyn} = \frac{1}{2\pi}\sqrt{\frac{GM_*}{R_*^3}}$.

envelope

CORE

EVENE B

DISCUSSION



Figure 9. Variation with frequency (right panel from ref. 4)

Measured/calculated values of relevant quantities are shown in Table 1, along with the predicted V² ratio, for a $2M_{\odot}$ red giant model generated using the stellar evolutionary code 'Modules for Experiments in Stellar Astrophysics⁶'. Values are shown for different spherical harmonic degrees, and the results appear to be **quantitatively consistent with observations**, as can be seen in Fig. 10 which shows the V² values of the two populations of stars, for *I*=1. Horizontal lines have been drawn at the characteristic value of the normal population (white), and predicted value of the depressed population (yellow) according to Table 1. The yellow pentagram indicates the v_{max} value of the stellar model considered.

If the resonance criterion is satisfied, i.e. the wave meets a critical surface, it acquires significant Alfvén character and becomes trapped. Its wavenumber diverges and the energy is dissipated at small scales by viscosity/ resistivity.

However, this work has shown that even with a strong field, there exist trajectories that never meet a critical surface. These waves are reflected, allowing for partial energy return to the surface.

This partial energy return is required to explain observations of partial depression.

References

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5. Braithwaite & Nordlund (2006), A&A, 450, 1077 6. Paxton et al. (2011), ApJSS, 192, 3



Figure 10. Observed dichotomy (ref. 2)

For more details, please see the journal article: 'Magneto-gravity wave packet dynamics in strongly magnetized cores of evolved stars', by Shyeh Tjing Loi (2020), Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, vol. 493, no. 4, pp. 5726-5742