

Department of Physics and Astronomy

Astronomy 1X

Session 2007-08

Solar System Physics I

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5 lectures, beginning Autumn 2007



Section 5: The Ideal Gas Law

The atmospheres of planets (and the Sun too) can be modelled as an **Ideal Gas** - i.e. consisting of **point-like particles** (atoms or molecules) moving in random directions and interacting through **perfectly elastic collisions**.

Section 5: The Ideal Gas Law

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We assume that the atmosphere has an **equation of state**, which links its pressure, density and temperature:

The diagram shows the equation $PV = NkT$ enclosed in a red rounded rectangle. Four blue arrows point from descriptive text labels to the variables in the equation: P , V , N , and T .

- Volume of the gas**
 m^3
- Gas pressure, a measure of the force of the collisions**
 $\text{Pa} \equiv \text{Nm}^{-2}$
- Number of particles in the gas**
- Gas temperature, a measure of the K.E. of the particles**
degrees Kelvin K
- Boltzmann constant:**
 $1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J K}^{-1}$

(5.1)

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Average mass of a gas particle

So if we introduce

$$\mu = \frac{\bar{m}}{m_H}$$

(5.4)

$1.674 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

Average mass of a gas particle
in units of mass of hydrogen atom

Then, from eqs. (5.2) - (5.4)

$$P = \frac{\rho kT}{\mu m_H}$$

(5.5)

The temperature of the gas is a measure of the **average kinetic energy** of the particles.

Suppose all particles have mass m . Then we define

$$\frac{1}{2} m \overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2} kT \quad (5.6)$$

Note

- $\overline{v^2}$ is the "**mean square speed**" of the gas particles
- Factor of 3 on the RHS comes from the 3 dimensions ("**degrees of freedom**") in which the particles can move.

The gas has energy of $\frac{1}{2} kT$ per degree of freedom

From eq. (5.5)

$$\frac{1}{3} m \overline{v^2} = kT$$

(5.7)

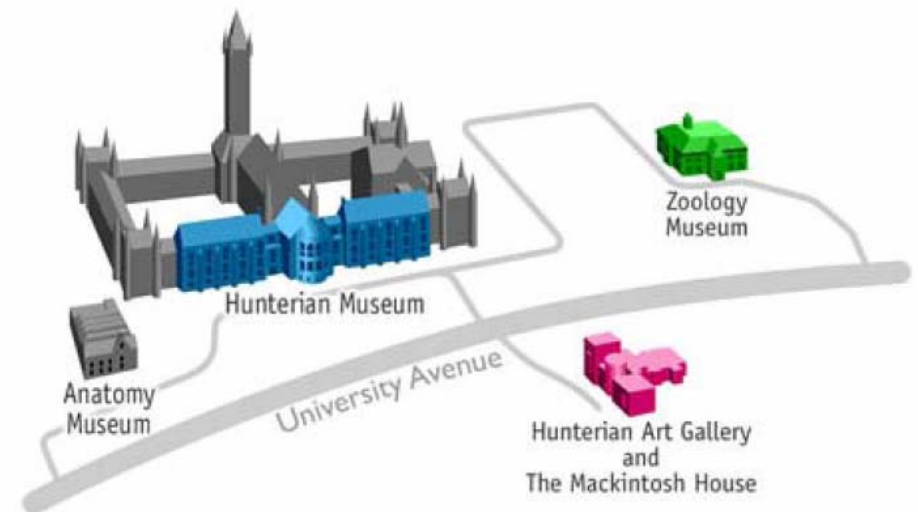
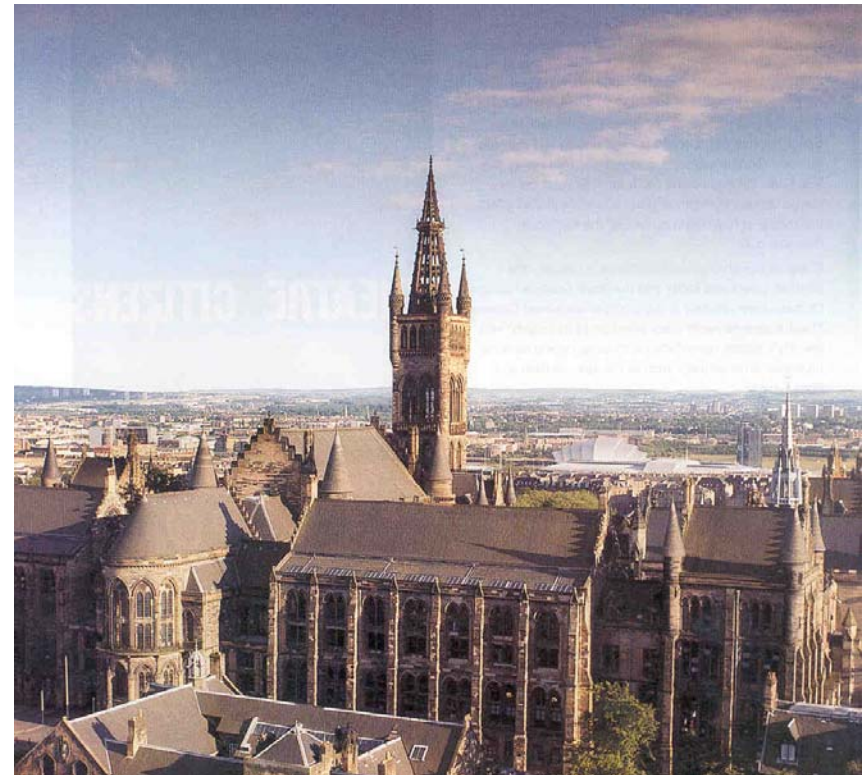
Substituting from eqs. (5.2) and (5.3)

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \rho \overline{v^2}$$

(5.8)

At a temperature of **absolute zero**, i.e. 0 K , all gas motions cease. Gas pressure drops to zero.





Section 6: Hydrostatic Equilibrium

The pressure (and hence the density and temperature) is not constant throughout a planetary atmosphere. A balance is maintained between the outward **pressure force** and the inward **gravitational force**.

We call this balance **hydrostatic equilibrium**.

Let's assume (as we did in section 2 for the interior of a planet) that the density of gas in the atmosphere is **spherically symmetric**.

We can then derive an expression for how the pressure changes as a function of height in the planet's atmosphere.

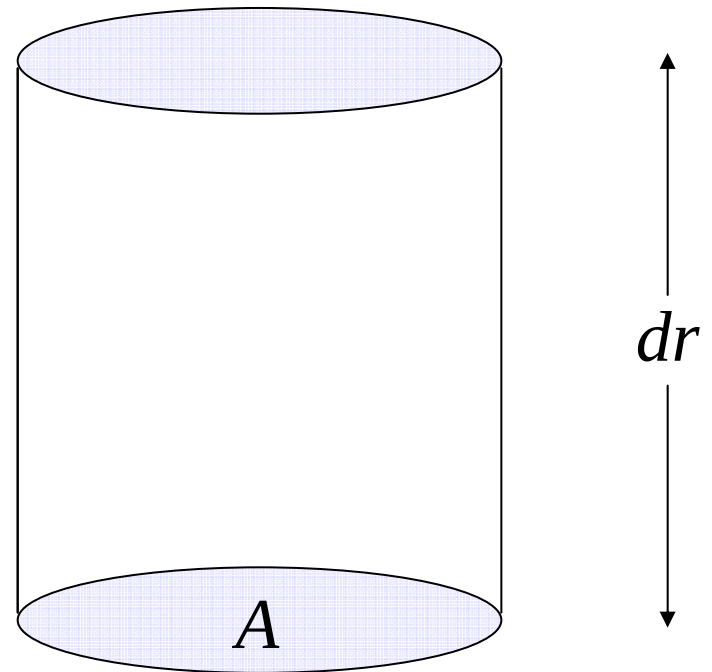
(we do this using calculus, forming a differential equation)

Consider a small cylinder of gas in the planet's atmosphere, the bottom of which is a distance r from the centre of the planet.

Let the area of the cylinder be A and its height be dr .

Suppose the cylinder contains a mass m of gas.

What forces will be exerted on this cylinder by the rest of the atmosphere?...

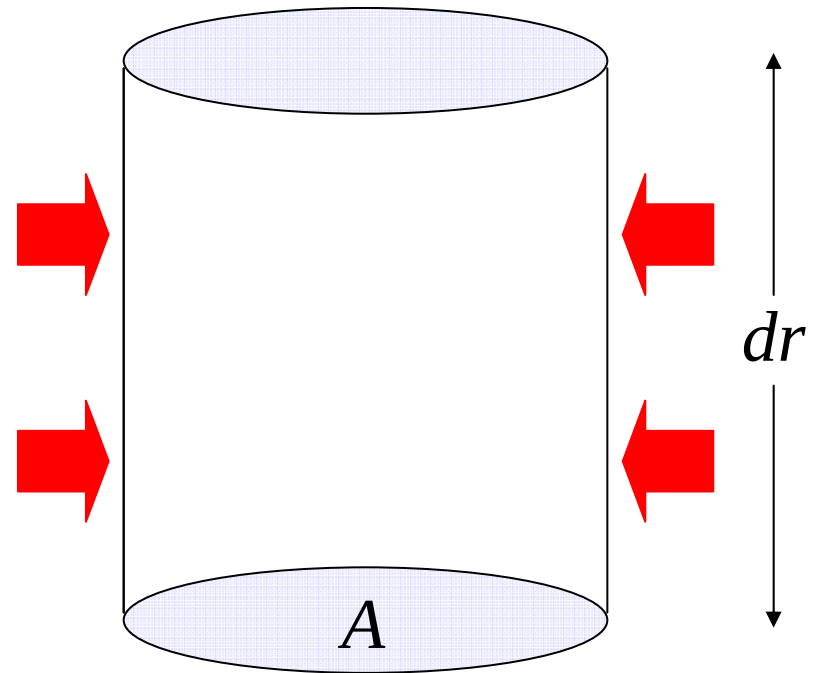


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The horizontal forces on the walls of the cylinder will cancel out

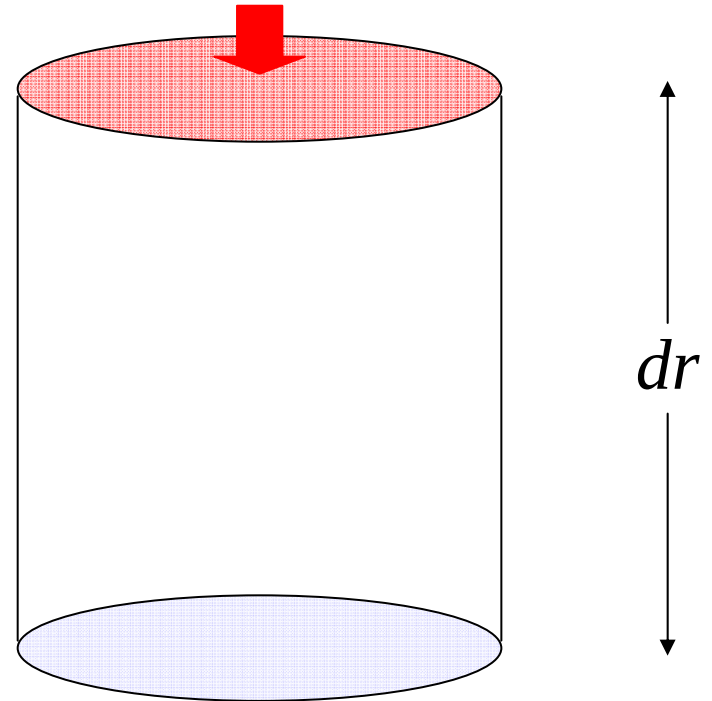
Upper face:

Downward force, due to pressure exerted by gas above the cylinder *

$$F_{\text{upper}} = -A P(r + dr) \quad (6.1)$$

Notes: (1) we are taking upwards as positive

(2) we are using here the relation
pressure = force per unit area

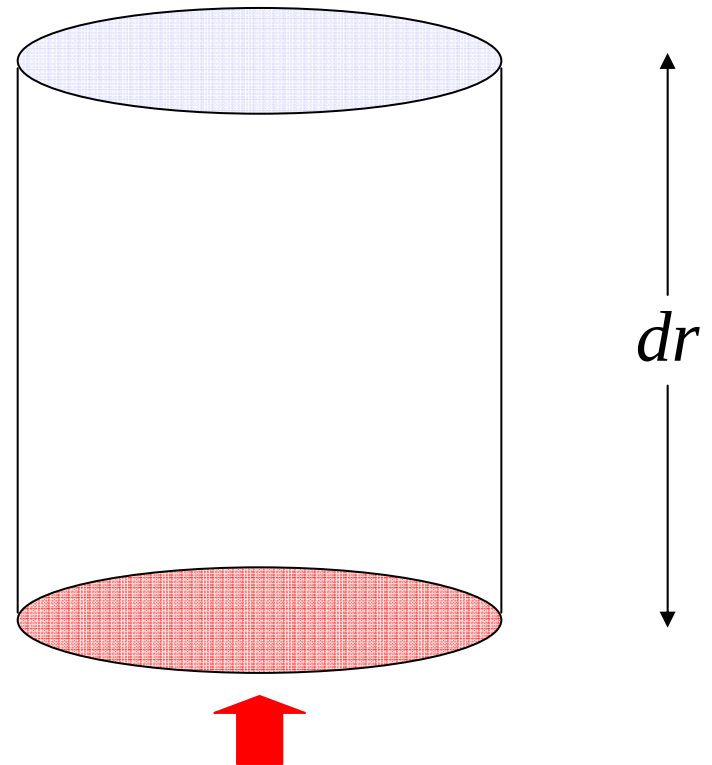


- * There will also be a downward force due to the weight of atmosphere above the cylinder, but we don't consider that here since it will also apply to the lower face.

Lower face:

Upward force, due to pressure of the gas below the cylinder, and
downward force, due to the weight of the gas in the cylinder.

$$F_{\text{lower}} = A P(r) - \frac{GM(r)m}{r^2} \quad (6.2)$$



Notes: (1) $M(r)$ is the mass contained within radius r from the planet's centre

(2) The gravitational force term in eq. 6.2 is an approximation, since the cylinder does not all lie at distance r from the centre.

This is OK provided $dr \ll r$

We can re-write eq. (6.2) as

$$F_{\text{lower}} = A P(r) - m g \quad (6.3)$$

We can also write the mass of gas in the cylinder as **density x volume**:

$$m = \rho A dr \quad (6.4)$$

Substituting into eq. (6.3) gives

$$F_{\text{lower}} = A P(r) - A \rho g dr \quad (6.5)$$

To keep the cylinder static, we require that there be no **net force** on it, i.e.

$$F_{\text{lower}} + F_{\text{upper}} = 0$$

So

$$AP(r + dr) - AP(r) + A\rho g dr = 0 \quad (6.6)$$

Dividing by $A dr$ and re-arranging

$$\frac{P(r + dr) - P(r)}{dr} = -\rho g \quad (6.7)$$

In the limit as $dr \rightarrow 0$ the LHS is the **derivative** of $P(r)$ with respect to r i.e. the rate of change of pressure with radius.

Finally, then, we have

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\rho g \quad (6.8)$$

Also referred to as the
pressure gradient



Since the density and gravitational acceleration are both **positive**, this means that

$$\frac{dP}{dr} < 0$$

(6.9)

i.e. $P(r)$ *decreases* with increasing radius.

How fast?...

We define the **pressure scale height** via

$$\frac{1}{H_p} = -\frac{1}{P(r)} \frac{dP}{dr}$$

(6.10)

If we make the assumption that H_p is **constant**, then we can find an expression for the pressure as a function of radius.

Re-arranging eq. (6.10)

$$\frac{dP}{P} = -\frac{dr}{H_P} \quad (6.11)$$

This is a **differential equation**. We solve it by integrating both sides.

$$\int \frac{dP}{P} = -\int \frac{dr}{H_P} = -\frac{1}{H_P} \int dr$$

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(6.12)

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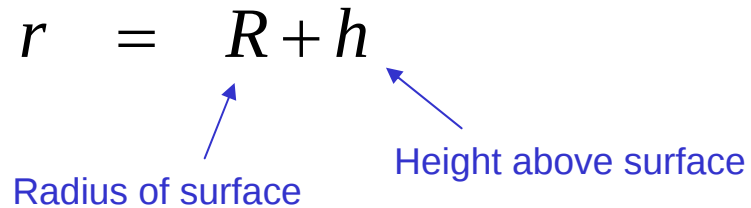
$$\log P = -\frac{r}{H_P} + \text{constant} \quad (6.12)$$

The constant can be fixed by the pressure at $r = 0$, say $P = P_0$

$$P(r) = P_0 \exp\left(-\frac{r}{H_P}\right) \quad (6.13)$$

Eq. (6.13) makes sense for e.g. the Sun, which is gaseous throughout.

For a planet like the Earth, with a solid interior, we can write

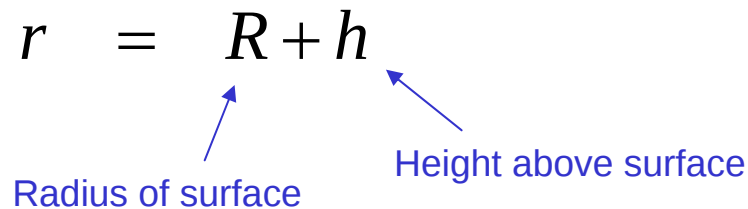
$$r = R + h$$


Radius of surface

Height above surface

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$$r = R + h$$


Radius of surface

Height above surface

We then fix the constant to be the pressure at the surface, $h = 0$

$$P(h) = P_s \exp\left(-\frac{h}{H_p}\right) \quad (6.14)$$

The Earth's surface pressure is defined as **1 atmosphere**

From eqs. (6.8) and (6.10) $H_P = \frac{P}{\rho g}$

For an **ideal gas**, from eq. (5.5) $P = \frac{\rho kT}{\mu m_H}$

So

$$H_P = \frac{kT}{\mu m_H g} \quad (6.15)$$

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As T **increases**, so does H_P , i.e. the atmosphere extends **further**.

As μ, g **increase**, H_P **decreases**. i.e. atmosphere **less** extended.

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Substituting in eq. (6.14) $P(h) = P_s \exp\left(-\frac{\mu m_H g h}{kT}\right)$ (6.16)

Section 7: Escape of a Planetary Atmosphere

The atoms or molecules in a planet's atmosphere are constantly moving. If they are moving fast enough, they can **escape**.

From eq. (3.7), this requires

$$v > v_{\text{escape}} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM_P}{R_P}} \quad (7.1)$$

But the particles will have a **distribution** of speeds - some will exceed the escape speed, while others will not.

When a sufficient fraction of the particles exceed the escape speed, the planet will effectively 'lose' its atmosphere.

A good 'rule of thumb' is:

A particular component of a planet's atmosphere will be lost if, for that component, $v_{\text{rms}} > \frac{1}{6} v_{\text{escape}}$

v_{rms} is the '**root mean square**' speed, the square root of the mean square speed we met in Section 5.

$$v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\overline{v^2}}$$

(7.2)

We can use the results of Section 5 to relate the escape criterion to **temperature**, using:

$$\frac{1}{3} m v_{\text{rms}}^2 = kT$$

(7.3)

So a particle of mass m will escape if

$$kT = \frac{1}{3} m v_{\text{rms}}^2 > \frac{1}{3} m \frac{1}{36} v_{\text{escape}}^2 = \frac{1}{54} \frac{GM_p m}{R_p} \quad (7.4)$$

We define the **escape temperature**

$$T_{\text{escape}} = \frac{1}{54} \frac{GM_p m}{kR_p}$$

(7.5)

The more massive the planet, the hotter it must be before a given atmospheric component is lost.