

Orbital Motion about a Black Hole

ACM40980 Presentation

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Agenda

- Introduction to General Relativity
- Schwarzschild Black Holes
- Kerr Black Holes
- Resonant Orbits

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Introduction to General Relativity

In the beginning...

Newton's Law of Universal Gravitation (1687)

- ▶ Every particle in the universe attracts every other particle.

Einstein's Theory of Special Relativity (1907)

- ▶ The speed of light is fixed for any observer.

Einstein's Theory of General Relativity (1915)

- ▶ Gravitation can be thought of as a curved spacetime, instead of a force.

Introduction to General Relativity

Metrics and the Einstein Field Equations

From general relativity came the Einstein Field Equations

$$G_{ab} + \Lambda g_{ab} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{ab}. \quad (1)$$

This relates the geometry of spacetime to the distribution of matter within it.

Exact solutions to these equations are called metrics.

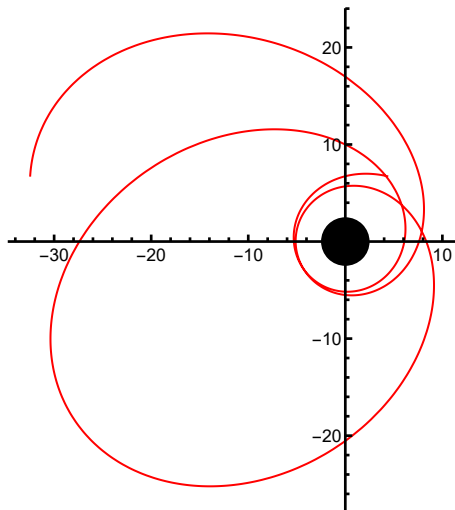
Schwarzschild Black Holes

History & Properties

The Schwarzschild metric was discovered in 1916 by Karl Schwarzschild.

A good starting point for understanding orbital motion, primarily because of the following two properties:

- No angular momentum
- No electrical charge



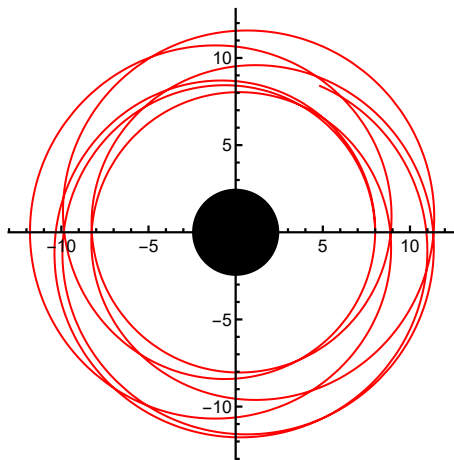
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Schwarzschild Black Holes

The Schwarzschild Metric

Before we move on, we first define the Schwarzschild metric as

$$g_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} -f(r) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f(r)^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & r^2 \sin(\theta) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2)$$

where we note that only the non-zero entries are along the diagonal, also we define

$$f(r) = \frac{r - 2M}{r}. \quad (3)$$

Schwarzschild Black Holes

Orbital Motion: Two Ways

Euler-Lagrange Equation

$$\frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial u^\alpha} \right) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x^\alpha}$$

- We know there are constants because of Noether's Theorem

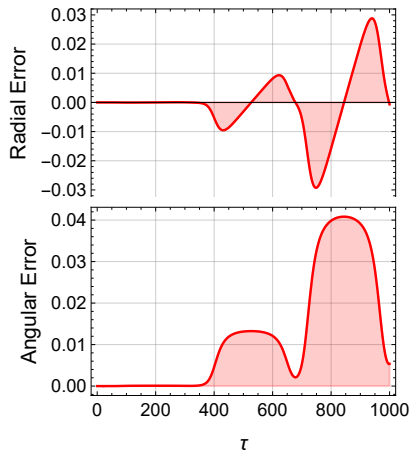
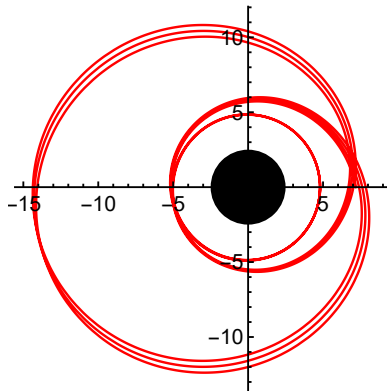
Geodesic Equation

$$\frac{d^2 x^\alpha}{d\lambda^2} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\delta} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\lambda} \frac{dx^\delta}{d\lambda} = 0$$

- This is the most straightforward way to solve for the motion of a particle

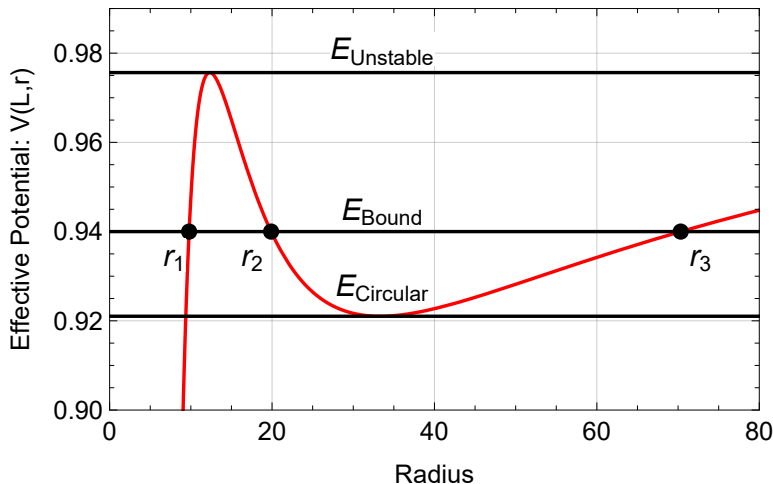
Schwarzschild Black Holes

Orbital Motion: Results



Schwarzschild Black Holes

Bound Orbits



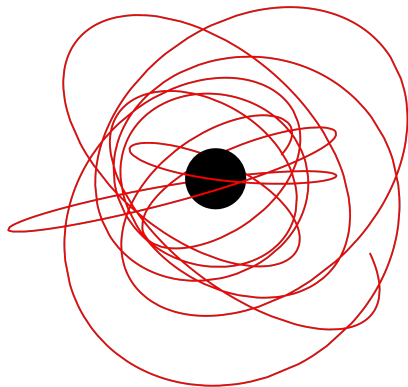
Kerr Black Holes

History & Properties

The Kerr metric was discovered in 1963 by Roy Kerr.

It describes the geometry about uncharged black holes with non-zero angular momentum.

We now take an interest in orbits outside the equatorial plane.



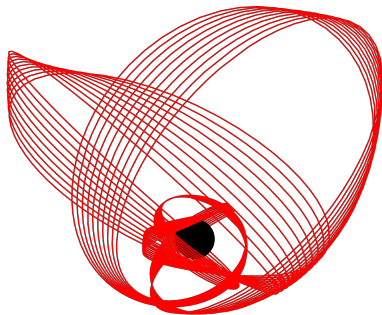
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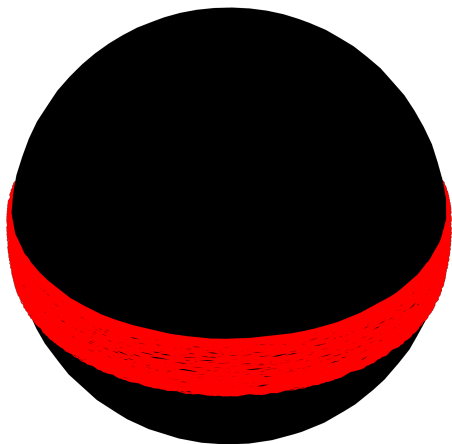
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Kerr Black Holes

The Kerr Metric

Let us now define the line element of the Kerr metric:

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 = & - \left(1 - \frac{2Mr}{\Sigma} \right) dt^2 + \frac{\Sigma}{\Delta} dr^2 + \Sigma d\theta^2 \\ & + \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2Ma^2r \sin^2(\theta)}{\Sigma} \right) \sin^2(\theta) d\phi^2 \\ & - \frac{4Mar \sin^2(\theta)}{\Sigma} dt d\phi, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where

$$\Delta = r^2 - 2Mr + a^2, \quad (5)$$

$$\Sigma = r^2 + a^2 \cos^2(\theta). \quad (6)$$

Kerr Black Holes

Orbital Frequencies

As bound Kerr orbits are triperiodic, there are three frequencies that we can examine.

Υ_r : Radial oscillations

Υ_θ : Polar oscillations

Υ_ϕ : Rotations about the black hole's axis of spin

Kerr Black Holes

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Resonant Orbits

Definition

Resonant orbits occur when the following equation is satisfied

$$k\Upsilon_{\theta} = n\Upsilon_r, \quad (7)$$

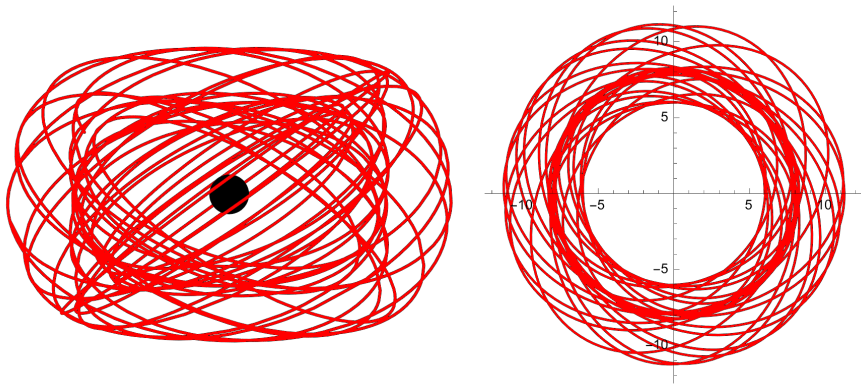
where k and n are two relatively prime integers.

It says that it takes an equal amount of time for the polar motion to pass through k turning points as it does for the radial motion to pass through n turning points.

Resonant Orbits

Example

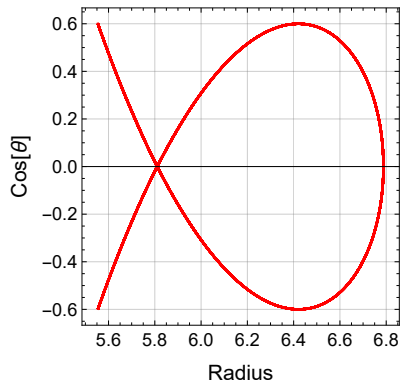
An example of a $(k, n) = (2, 3)$ resonant orbit is shown below



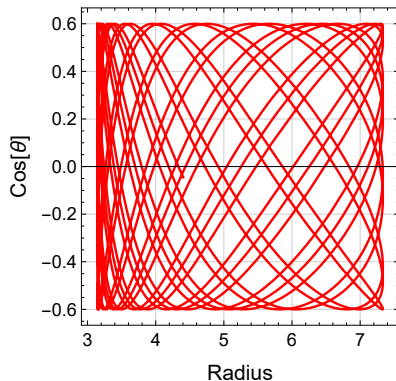
Resonant Orbits

$(r, \cos(\theta))$ Plot

(2,3) Resonant Orbit



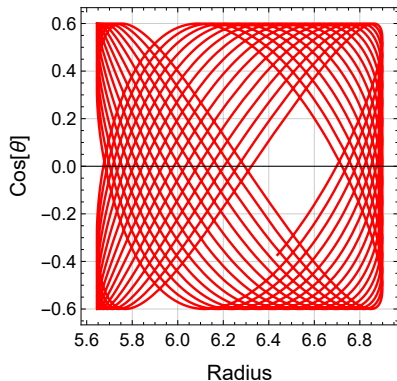
Non-Resonant Orbit



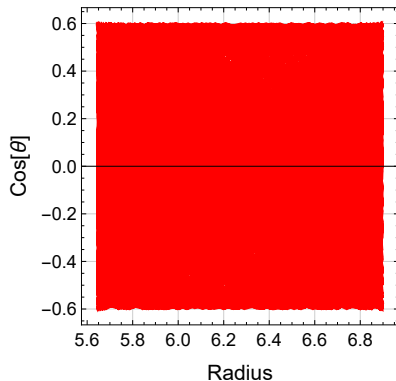
Resonant Orbits

Perturbations and Long Timeframes

Perturbed



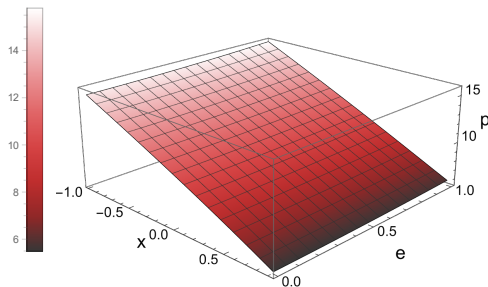
Perturbed & Long Timeframe



Resonant Orbits

A Strange Observation

Setting the spin of the black hole, a , to 0.9, the following plot was produced which shows the plane of all resonant $(p, e, x)^1$ values for (2, 3)-type resonances.



¹**Note:** p is the size of the orbit, e is the eccentricity, and x is the inclination angle from the equatorial plane.

Resonant Orbits

Root-Finding: Creating a Plane of Initial Values

We want to develop a way to estimate these resonant p values, so we set $e = 0$ and solve the equation

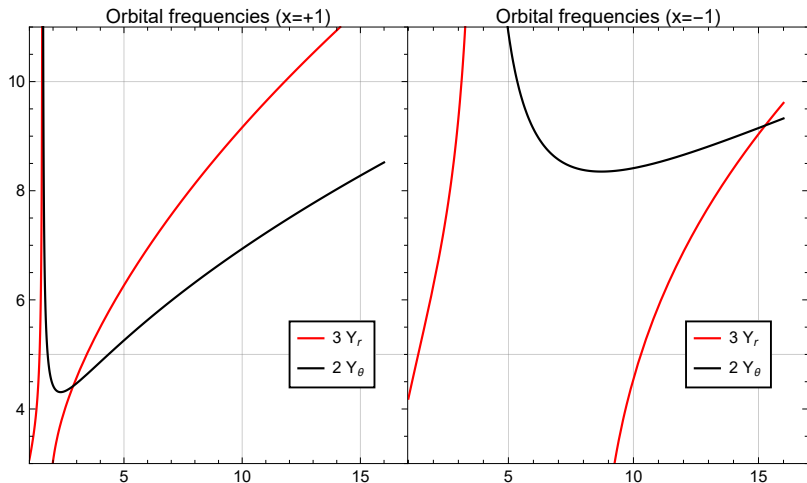
$$2\Upsilon_{\theta} = 3\Upsilon_r \quad (8)$$

for p when $x = +1$ and $x = -1$.

This will allow us to create a line in the (p, x) plane at $e = 0$ and then extrapolate out for $0 < e \leq 1$.

Resonant Orbits

Root-Finding: The Equations to be Solved



Resonant Orbits

Root-Finding: The Results

Solving for the points of intersection in the previous plots gives us

$$p_{x=+1} = 4.9626, \quad p_{x=-1} = 15.2677. \quad (9)$$

We now calculate the equation for the line between the two points $(+1, 4.9626)$ and $(-1, 15.2677)$, which gives us

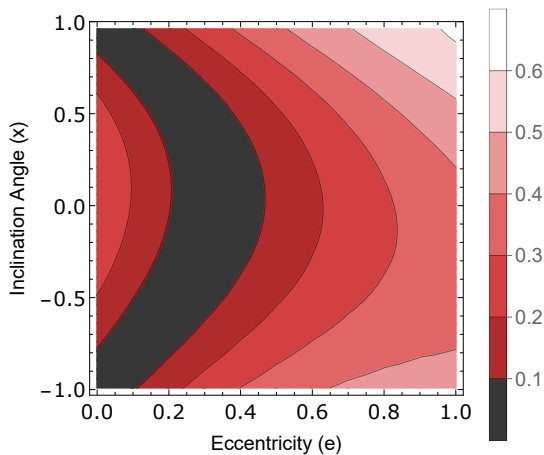
$$f(x) = 10.1152 - 5.1525x. \quad (10)$$

Finally, we extend this line out to a plane for $0 < e \leq 1$:

$$f(e, x) = 10.1152 - 5.1525x + e. \quad (11)$$

Resonant Orbits

Root-Finding: Error Compared to True Values



Thank you all for coming,
I am happy to answer any questions.