

Classical Black Holes

O6. Astrophysics of Supermassive Black Holes Edward Larrañaga

Outline for Part 1

- 1. Supermassive Black Holes in the Astrophysical Scenario
 - 1.1 Supermassive Black Holes
 - 1.2 Origin of Supermassive Black Holes
 - 1.3 Intermediate-Mass Black Holes
- 2. Mathematical Description of the Collapse
 - 2.1 Spherically Symmetric Collapse
 - 2.2 Dust Collapse
 - 2.3 Homogeneous Dust Collapse
 - 2.4 Inhomogeneous Dust Collapse

Supermassive Black Holes

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In the Milky Way, the central black hole, called Sagittarius A* has a mass $\sim 4\times 10^6 M_{\odot}$.

There are many hypotheses on the origin of supermassive black holes. For example:

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- Primordial fluctuations

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After that, Galaxies formed around these early black holes.

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The gas accumulated in the center producea very massive central object producing a black hole with a mass of $\sim 10^4 M_{\odot}$ or higher.

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Collisions of stars in the cluster are frequent and they can produce a black hole of $\sim 10^2-10^4 M_{\odot}$

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This process create an object called a *Dark Matter Star* for which the annihilation radiation supports the gravitational collapse.

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When the dark matter is completely annihilated, the object will collapse into a massive black hole.

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This process create primordial black holes with masses up to $\sim 1000 M_{\odot}$.

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They can also be created at the center of stellar clusters by merger of different kinds of objects, or they can be a supermassive black hole in the process of growth.

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Thus, the conclusion from these observations is that there are intermediate-mass black holes or some stellar black holes having accretion luminosity exceeding the Eddington limit.

$$\frac{\mathsf{M}^{4/3}}{\mathsf{r}^5} \propto \frac{\mathsf{G}\mathsf{M}^2}{\mathsf{r}^5}$$

$$\frac{M^{4/3}}{r^5} \propto \frac{GM^2}{r^5}$$

This relations is satisfied by the unique mass

$$M_{\rm C} = 0.197 \left[\left(\frac{hc}{G} \right)^3 \frac{1}{m_p^2} \right] \frac{1}{\mu_e^2}$$

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$$M_C \approx 1.4 M_{\odot}$$

Mass of a completely degenerated star.

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"...supernovae represent the transitions from ordinary stars into neutron stars which in their final stages consist of extremely closely packed neutrons."

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"...when all thermonuclear sources of energy are exhausted a sufficiently heavy star will collapse. This contraction will continue indefinitely till the radius of the star approaches asymptotically its gravitational radius. Light from the surface of the star will be progressively reddened and can escape over a progressively narrower range of angles till eventually the star tends to close itself off from any communication with a distant observer".

Black Holes

If the collapsing core is too massive to be supported by the degenerate pressure of neutrons, there is no known mechanism capable of finding a new equilibrium configuration, and the body should undergo a complete collapse.

In this case, the final product is a black hole.

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 Suppose that the collapsing body can be described as a perfect fluid.

Then, we consider that coordinates t and r are attached to every collapsing particle (co-moving coordinates).

• In the co-moving frame, the 4-velocity of the fluid is just

$$u^{\mu} = \left(e^{-\alpha}, 0, 0, 0\right)$$

and thus $u^2 = -1$.

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The energy-momentum tensor in the co-moving frame is

$$T^{\mu}_{\nu} = diag(\rho, P, P, P)$$

The Einstein equations for this metric give

$$G_t^t = 8\pi T_t^t \implies \frac{F'}{R^2 R'} = 8\pi \rho$$

$$G_r^r = 8\pi T_r^r \implies \frac{\dot{F}}{R^2 \dot{R}} = -8\pi P$$

$$G_r^t = 0 \implies \dot{R}' - \dot{R}\alpha' - \dot{\beta}R' = 0$$

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$$F = R \left(1 - e^{-2\beta}R'^2 + e^{-2\alpha}\dot{R}^2\right)$$
Misner-Sharp mass

The Misner-Sharp mass

$$F = R \left(1 - e^{-2\beta} R'^2 + e^{-2\alpha} \dot{R}^2 \right)$$

is defined by the relation

$$1 - \frac{F}{R} = g_{\mu\nu} (\partial^{\mu} R) (\partial^{\nu} R)$$

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* Note that $n^{\mu} = \partial^{\mu}R$ is normal to the surfaces $R = {\rm constant.}$ Thus, when $1 - \frac{F}{R} = 0$, the corresponding surface is null.

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$$F(r) = \int_0^r F' d\tilde{r} = 8\pi \int_0^r \rho R^2 R' d\tilde{r} = 2M(r)$$

Finally, the conservation of the energy-momentum tensor gives the equation

$$\nabla_{\mu} T^{\mu}_{\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha' = -\frac{P'}{\rho + P}$$

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Then

$$F = F(r)$$
$$\alpha = \alpha(t)$$

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* If $P \neq 0$ the exterior metric must be a non-vacuum Vaidya spacetime.

 $\alpha = \alpha(t)$: One can re-define the time coordinate such that

$$e^{\alpha(t)}dt \Rightarrow dt$$

and therefore $g_{tt} = -1$

$$\dot{R}' - \dot{R}\alpha' - \dot{\beta}R' = 0$$

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$$R' = e^{\beta + h(r)}$$

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Introducing $f(r) = e^{2h(r)} - 1$ we have

$$e^{2\beta} = \frac{R'^2}{1+f}$$

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + \frac{R^{2}(t, r)}{1 + f(r)}dr^{2} + R^{2}(t, r)d\Omega^{2}$$

Lemaitre-Tolman-Bondi Metric

Kretschmann Scalar:

$$K = 12\frac{F'^2}{R^4 R'^2} - 32\frac{FF'}{R^5 R'} + 48\frac{F^2}{R^6}$$

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Divergence at R = 0

One can re-scale to set R(t, r) to equal the co-moving radius r at the time t = 0, i.e. we impose R(0, r) = r and introduce a scale factor a such that

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The collapse also impose the condition $\dot{a} < 0$

One of the field equations,

$$\frac{F'}{R^2R'} = 8\pi\rho$$

implies that a regular value of the density at t = 0 is obtained if the Misner-Sharp mass has the form

$$F(r) = r^3 m(r)$$

where m(r) is a (sufficiently) regular function in the region $[0, r_b]$.

We have $F' = 3r^2m + r^3m'$ and therefore

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$$\frac{3m + rm'}{a^2(a + ra')} = 8\pi\rho$$

It is usual to consider m(r) as a polynomial around r = 0,

$$m(r) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} m_k r^k$$

where m_k are constants

From the definition of the Misner-Sharp mass we have

$$\dot{R}^2 = \frac{F}{R} + f$$

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Using the proposed forms for F and R we obtain

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$$\dot{a} = -\sqrt{\frac{m}{a} + \frac{f}{r^2}}$$

Evaluating at the time t = 0 we have a(0, r) = 1 and thus

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Note that the function f defines the initial velocity of the particles in the cloud. It is usual to write this function as an expansion around r = 0 as

$$f(r) = r^2 b(r)$$

with

$$b(r) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k r^k$$

Simplest Model of Gravitational Collapse. Oppenheimer-Snyder (1939)

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Homogeneous: $\rho = \rho(t)$

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This implies that

$$m' = 0 \longrightarrow m = m_0$$

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which is accomplished by choosing $b = b_0$
Then
$$\dot{a} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a} + b_0}$$

The Lemaitre-Tolman-Bondi line element becomes

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + \frac{R^{2}(t, r)}{1 + f(r)}dr^{2} + R^{2}(t, r)d\Omega^{2}$$

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For $b_0 = 0$ this line element becomes

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) [dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2]$$

and describes the counterpart of a flat spacetime, in which the collapse is marginally bound (i.e. the falling particles have vanishing velocity at infinity).

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$${2 \over 3}a^{3/2} - {2 \over 3}a^{3/2}(0) = -\sqrt{m_0}t$$

The value of the initial condition was supposed as a(0) = 1. Thus

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Therefore, the singularity R=0 occurs at the time t_s for which $a(t_s)=0$. This is

$$t_{\rm s} = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{m_0}}$$

The curve $t_H(r)$ describing the time at which the shell r crosses the horizon can be obtained from the condition

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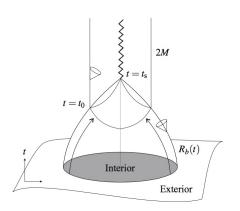
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$$t_H(r) = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{m_0}} - \frac{2}{3}m_0r^3$$

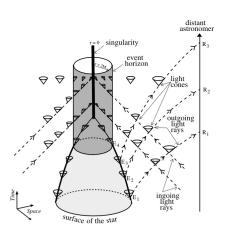
Gravitational Collapse of a Homogeneous Cloud of Dust

Eddington-Finkelstein Diagram



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$$\rho = \rho(t, r)$$

$$m = m(r)$$

$$b = b(r)$$

$$a = a(t, r)$$

The simplest form for the function m(r) is

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^{*} $m_1 = 0$ in order to have a non divergent density.

The equation

$$\dot{R}^2 = \frac{F}{R} + f$$

gives this time

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$$a(\dot{t},r) = -\sqrt{\frac{m}{a} + b}$$

$$a(\dot{t},r) = -\sqrt{\frac{m(r)}{a}}$$

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$$\frac{2}{3}a^{3/2}(t,r) - \frac{2}{3}a^{3/2}(0,r) = -\sqrt{m(r)}t$$

The value of the initial condition was supposed as a(0) = 1. Thus

$$a(t,r) = \left[1 - \frac{3\sqrt{m(r)}}{2}t\right]^{2/3}$$

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This equation shows how each shell of the distribution (each r) collapses with a different scale factor and with a different velocity.

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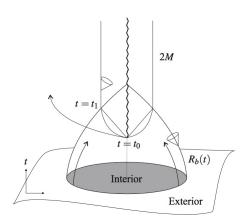
Using $m(r) = m_0 + m_2 r^2$ gives the functions

$$t_{s}(r) = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{m_0 + m_2 r^2}}$$

$$t_H(r) = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{m_0 + m_2 r^2}} - \frac{2}{3}r^3 (m_0 + m_2 r^2)$$

Gravitational Collapse of a Inhomogeneous Cloud of Dust

Eddington-Finkelstein Diagram



Next Lecture

06. Black Holes Astrophysics