

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

Astrophysical observations have discovered evidence of the existence of black holes, with masses in the range $M \sim 10^5 - 10^{10} M_{\odot}$.

Astrophysical observations have discovered evidence of the existence of black holes, with masses in the range $M \sim 10^5 - 10^{10} M_{\odot}$.

Dynamical evidence supports that supermassive black holes are located at the center of almost all galaxies (there are some exceptions such as the galaxy A2261-BCG).

Astrophysical observations have discovered evidence of the existence of black holes, with masses in the range $M \sim 10^5 - 10^{10} M_{\odot}$.

Dynamical evidence supports that supermassive black holes are located at the center of almost all galaxies (there are some exceptions such as the galaxy A2261-BCG).

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:

 Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars (Population III)

- Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars (Population III)
- Gas-dynamical instabilities

- Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars (Population III)
- Gas-dynamical instabilities
- Stellar-dynamical stabilities

- Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars (Population III)
- Gas-dynamical instabilities
- Stellar-dynamical stabilities
- Dark Matter collapse

- Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars (Population III)
- · Gas-dynamical instabilities
- Stellar-dynamical stabilities
- Dark Matter collapse
- Primordial fluctuations

Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars

The first hypothesis on the origin of supermassive black holes states that,

Population III stars are formed out of the collapse of zero-metallicity gas.

Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars

The first hypothesis on the origin of supermassive black holes states that,

Population III stars are formed out of the collapse of zero-metallicity gas.

These stars are expected to be very massive, $M_* > 100 M_{\odot}$

Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars

The first hypothesis on the origin of supermassive black holes states that.

Population III stars are formed out of the collapse of zero-metallicity gas.

These stars are expected to be very massive, $M_* > 100 M_{\odot}$

Then, they will die with a gravitational collapse, leaving behind black holes with masses between 40 and $1000M_{\odot}$

Gravitational collapse of the first generation of stars

The first hypothesis on the origin of supermassive black holes states that,

Population III stars are formed out of the collapse of zero-metallicity gas.

These stars are expected to be very massive, $M_* > 100 M_{\odot}$

Then, they will die with a gravitational collapse, leaving behind black holes with masses between 40 and $1000M_{\odot}$

After that, Galaxies formed around these early black holes.

Gas-dynamical instabilities

The mechanism of gas-dynamical instabilities states that

Gas-dynamical instabilities

The mechanism of gas-dynamical instabilities states that

If fragmentation is inhibited in early massive cloud by, for example, turbulences, and cooling proceeds gradually, the gas will contract until rotation stops the collapse.

Gas-dynamical instabilities

The mechanism of gas-dynamical instabilities states that

If fragmentation is inhibited in early massive cloud by, for example, turbulences, and cooling proceeds gradually, the gas will contract until rotation stops the collapse.

Then, global dynamical instabilities (like bar-instabilities) can transport angular momentum outwards, allowing the core collapse to continue.

Gas-dynamical instabilities

The mechanism of gas-dynamical instabilities states that

If fragmentation is inhibited in early massive cloud by, for example, turbulences, and cooling proceeds gradually, the gas will contract until rotation stops the collapse.

Then, global dynamical instabilities (like bar-instabilities) can transport angular momentum outwards, allowing the core collapse to continue.

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

Stellar-dynamical stabilities

The mechanism of stellar-dynamical stabilities states that

Stellar-dynamical stabilities

The mechanism of stellar-dynamical stabilities states that

If fragmentation occurs, star formation in a collapsing cloud of gas produces a compact nuclear stellar cluster.

Stellar-dynamical stabilities

The mechanism of stellar-dynamical stabilities states that

If fragmentation occurs, star formation in a collapsing cloud of gas produces a compact nuclear stellar cluster.

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

Dark Matter collapse

The mechanism of Dark Matter collapse states that

Dark Matter collapse

The mechanism of Dark Matter collapse states that

Dark matter collapse proceeds as described for a cloud of dust.

Dark Matter collapse

The mechanism of Dark Matter collapse states that

Dark matter collapse proceeds as described for a cloud of dust.

No heating in the collapse until the rate of annihilation of dark particles becomes significant.

Dark Matter collapse

The mechanism of Dark Matter collapse states that

Dark matter collapse proceeds as described for a cloud of dust.

No heating in the collapse until the rate of annihilation of dark particles becomes significant.

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

The temperature of this Dark Matter star is estimated between 4000 and 10000 K and its radius of approximately 10¹² m.

The temperature of this Dark Matter star is estimated between 4000 and 10000 K and its radius of approximately 10¹² m.

The luminosity of these objects is about $10^6 L_{\odot}$ and their mass is estimated in $1000 M_{\odot}$

The temperature of this Dark Matter star is estimated between 4000 and 10000 K and its radius of approximately 10¹² m.

The luminosity of these objects is about $10^6 L_{\odot}$ and their mass is estimated in $1000 M_{\odot}$

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

Primordial fluctuations

The last hypothesis for the origin of supermassive black holes is from primordial fluctuations.

Primordial fluctuations

The last hypothesis for the origin of supermassive black holes is from primordial fluctuations.

At the regions where the density fluctuations are large enough, the gravitational force may overcome the pressure, giving as a result a complete collapse.

Primordial fluctuations

The last hypothesis for the origin of supermassive black holes is from primordial fluctuations.

At the regions where the density fluctuations are large enough, the gravitational force may overcome the pressure, giving as a result a complete collapse.

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

Intermediate-Mass Black Holes

Intermediate-Mass Black Holes

Intermediate-mass black holes (IMBH) have masses in the range $10^2-10^4 M_{\odot}$

Intermediate-mass black holes (IMBH) have masses in the range $10^2-10^4M_{\odot}$

They can be created beginning with Population III stars collapse. Then, they will grow by accretion.

Intermediate-mass black holes (IMBH) have masses in the range $10^2-10^4M_{\odot}$

They can be created beginning with Population III stars collapse. Then, they will grow by accretion.

However, accretion from diffuse matter is to slow to grow an IMBH on the Hubble time. Thus, they may form in dense clusters.

Intermediate-mass black holes (IMBH) have masses in the range $10^2 - 10^4 M_{\odot}$

They can be created beginning with Population III stars collapse. Then, they will grow by accretion.

However, accretion from diffuse matter is to slow to grow an IMBH on the Hubble time. Thus, they may form in dense clusters.

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.

Up to today, there are no dynamical measurements of their masses but only some luminosity observations that evidence black holes with masses beyond the stellar limit.

Up to today, there are no dynamical measurements of their masses but only some luminosity observations that evidence black holes with masses beyond the stellar limit.

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

Outline for Part 2

- 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

• Spherical Symmetry:

$$ds^{2} = -e^{2\alpha(t,r)}dt^{2} + e^{2\beta(t,r)}dr^{2} + R^{2}(t,r)d\Omega^{2}$$

Spherical Symmetry:

$$ds^{2} = -e^{2\alpha(t,r)}dt^{2} + e^{2\beta(t,r)}dr^{2} + R^{2}(t,r)d\Omega^{2}$$

 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 $u^2 = -1$.

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

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

and thus $u^2 = -1$.

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

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

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

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

The Einstein equations for this metric give

$$G_{t}^{t} = 8\pi T_{t}^{t} \Rightarrow \frac{F'}{R^{2}R'} = 8\pi \rho$$

$$G_{r}^{r} = 8\pi T_{r}^{r} \Rightarrow \frac{\ddot{F}}{R^{2}\dot{R}} = -8\pi P$$

$$G_{r}^{t} = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{R}' - \dot{R}\alpha' - \dot{\beta}R' = 0$$

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

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

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

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

* 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.

From (t, t)-component of the Field equations we obtain the Misner-Sharp mass as

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

From (t, t)-component of the Field equations we obtain the Misner-Sharp mass as

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

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

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

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

Dust is characterized by P = 0.

Dust is characterized by P = 0.

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

$$G_r^r = 8\pi T_r^r \quad \Rightarrow \qquad \frac{\dot{F}}{R^2 \dot{R}} = 0$$

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

$$\nabla_{\mu} T_{\nu}^{\mu} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \qquad \alpha' = 0$$

Dust is characterized by P = 0.

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

$$G_r^r = 8\pi T_r^r \quad \Rightarrow \qquad \frac{\dot{F}}{R^2 \dot{R}} = 0$$

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

$$\nabla_{\mu} T_{\nu}^{\mu} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \qquad \alpha' = 0$$

Then

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

F = F(r): No inflow or outflow of energy through spherical shells. Thus, the exterior metric is Schwarzschild.

F = F(r): No inflow or outflow of energy through spherical shells. Thus, the exterior metric is Schwarzschild.

If the boundary of the cloud of dust is located at the co-moving coordinate $r = r_b$, we have $F(r_b) = 2M$ with M the Schwarzschild's mass of the exterior metric.

F = F(r): No inflow or outflow of energy through spherical shells. Thus, the exterior metric is Schwarzschild.

If the boundary of the cloud of dust is located at the co-moving coordinate $r = r_b$, we have $F(r_b) = 2M$ with M the Schwarzschild's mass of the exterior metric.

* 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 $g_{tt} = -1$

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

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

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

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

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

$$\frac{1}{R'}\frac{d(R')}{dt} = \frac{d\beta}{dt}$$

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

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

$$\frac{1}{R'}\frac{d(R')}{dt} = \frac{d\beta}{dt}$$

$$\frac{d(\log R')}{dt} = \frac{d\beta}{dt}$$

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

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

$$\frac{1}{R'}\frac{d(R')}{dt} = \frac{d\beta}{dt}$$

$$\frac{d(\log R')}{dt} = \frac{d\beta}{dt}$$

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

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

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

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:

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

Kretschmann Scalar:

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

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

$$R(t,r) = ra(t,r)$$

$$a(0, r) = 1$$

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

$$R(t,r) = ra(t,r)$$

$$a(0, r) = 1$$

 $a(t_s, r) = 0$ (at the time of the formation of the singularity, $t = t_s$)

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

$$R(t,r) = ra(t,r)$$

$$a(0, r) = 1$$

 $a(t_s, r) = 0$ (at the time of the formation of the singularity, $t = t_s$)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

From the definition of the Misner-Sharp mass we have

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

Using the proposed forms for F and R we obtain

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

From the definition of the Misner-Sharp mass we have

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

Using the proposed forms for F and R we obtain

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

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

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

$$\dot{a}(0,r) = -\sqrt{m + \frac{f}{r^2}}$$

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

$$\dot{a}(0,r) = -\sqrt{m + \frac{f}{r^2}}$$

Note that the function *f* defines the initial velocity of the particles in the cloud.

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

$$\dot{a}(0,r) = -\sqrt{m + \frac{f}{r^2}}$$

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)

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

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

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

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

This implies that

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

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

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

$$a' = 0 \longrightarrow \frac{f}{r^2} = \text{constant}$$

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

$$a' = 0 \longrightarrow \frac{f}{r^2} = \text{constant}$$

 $f(r) = r^2 b(r) = r^2 \text{constant}$

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

$$a' = 0 \longrightarrow \frac{f}{r^2} = \text{constant}$$

 $f(r) = r^2 b(r) = r^2 \text{constant}$
which is accomplished by choosing $b = b_0$

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

$$a' = 0 \longrightarrow \frac{f}{r^2} = \text{constant}$$
 $f(r) = r^2b(r) = r^2\text{constant}$
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

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

The Lemaitre-Tolman-Bondi line element becomes

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

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + \frac{a^{2}(t)}{1 + r^{2}b_{0}}dr^{2} + r^{2}a^{2}(t)d\Omega^{2}$$

The Lemaitre-Tolman-Bondi line element becomes

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + \frac{R'^{2}(t, r)}{1 + f(r)}dr^{2} + R^{2}(t, r)d\Omega^{2}$$

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + \frac{a^{2}(t)}{1 + r^{2}b_{0}}dr^{2} + r^{2}a^{2}(t)d\Omega^{2}$$

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t)\left[\frac{dr^{2}}{1 + b_{0}r^{2}} + r^{2}d\Omega^{2}\right]$$

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a^{2}(t) \left[\frac{dr^{2}}{1 + b_{0}r^{2}} + r^{2}d\Omega^{2} \right]$$

For $b_0 = 0$ this line element becomes

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

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).

$$\dot{a} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a} + b_0}$$

$$\dot{a} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a} + b_0}$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a}}$$

$$\dot{a} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a} + b_0}$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a}}$$

$$\sqrt{a}da = -\sqrt{m_0}dt$$

$$\dot{a} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a} + b_0}$$

$$\frac{da}{dt} = -\sqrt{\frac{m_0}{a}}$$

$$\sqrt{a}da = -\sqrt{m_0}dt$$

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

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

$$a(t) = \left[1 - \frac{3\sqrt{m_0}}{2}t\right]^{2/3}$$

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

$$a(t) = \left[1 - \frac{3\sqrt{m_0}}{2}t\right]^{2/3}$$

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

$$1 - \frac{F}{R} = 0$$

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

$$1 - \frac{F}{R} = 0$$

$$1-\frac{m_0r^3}{ra(t_H)}=0$$

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

$$1 - \frac{F}{R} = 0$$

$$1-\frac{m_0r^3}{ra(t_H)}=0$$

$$a(t_H) = m_0 r^2$$

$$a(t_H) = m_0 r^2$$

$$a(t_H) = m_0 r^2$$

For $b_0 = 0$ wehave

$$\left[1 - \frac{3\sqrt{m_0}}{2} t_H\right]^{2/3} = m_0 r^2$$

$$a(t_H) = m_0 r^2$$

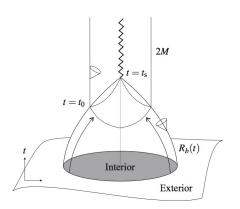
For $b_0 = 0$ wehave

$$\left[1 - \frac{3\sqrt{m_0}}{2}t_H\right]^{2/3} = m_0 r^2$$

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

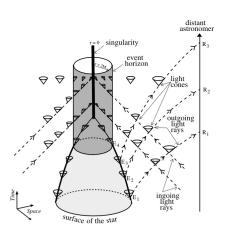
Gravitational Collapse of a Homogeneous Cloud of Dust

Eddington-Finkelstein Diagram



Gravitational Collapse of a Homogeneous Cloud of Dust

Eddington-Finkelstein Diagram



 ρ depends on both t and r, and thus

 ρ depends on both t and r, and thus

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

$$m = m(r)$$

$$b=b(r)$$

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

The simplest form for the function m(r) is

$$m(r) = m_0 + m_2 r^2$$

The simplest form for the function m(r) is

$$m(r) = m_0 + m_2 r^2$$

This function defines the density interms of the two parameter m_0 and m_2 .

The simplest form for the function m(r) is

$$m(r) = m_0 + m_2 r^2$$

This function defines the density interms of the two parameter m_0 and m_2 .

The condition that ρ must be a decreasing function of r implies that $m_2 < 0$.

The simplest form for the function m(r) is

$$m(r) = m_0 + m_2 r^2$$

This function defines the density interms of the two parameter m_0 and m_2 .

The condition that ρ must be a decreasing function of r implies that $m_2 < 0$.

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

The equation

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

gives this time

$$ra(\dot{t},r) = -\sqrt{\frac{mr^2}{ra} + br^2}$$

The equation

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

gives this time

$$ra(\dot{t},r) = -\sqrt{\frac{mr^2}{ra} + br^2}$$

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

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

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

$$\sqrt{a(t,r)}da = -\sqrt{m(r)}dt$$

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

$$\sqrt{a(t,r)}da = -\sqrt{m(r)}dt$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

The time to reach the singularity and the horizon are, respectively,

The time to reach the singularity and the horizon are, respectively,

$$t_{s}(r)=\frac{2}{3\sqrt{m(r)}}$$

The time to reach the singularity and the horizon are, respectively,

$$t_s(r) = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{m(r)}}$$

$$t_{H}(r) = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{m(r)}} - \frac{2}{3}m(r)r^{3}$$

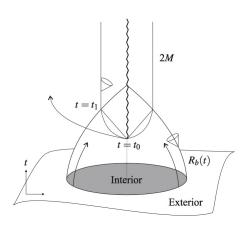
Using $m(r) = m_0 + m_2 r^2$ gives the functions

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

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

Gravitational Collapse of a Inhomogeneous Cloud of Dust

Eddington-Finkelstein Diagram



Next Lecture

06. Black Holes Astrophysics