

# Black hole graphic simulation

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## I. MATHEMATICS

### A. Schwarzschild metric

The variation of action gives rise to the Euler-Lagrange equations

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma}(g_{\alpha\nu}\frac{dx^\nu}{d\sigma}) - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu,\alpha}\frac{dx^\mu}{d\sigma}\frac{dx^\nu}{d\sigma} = 0 \quad (1)$$

The simplest, spherical symmetric metric of a Schwarzschild black hole is given as:

$$ds^2 = \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) c^2 dt^2 - \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right)^{-1} dr^2 - r^2 d\theta^2 - r^2 \sin^2(\theta) d\phi^2 \quad (2)$$

The (pseudo-) energy and (pseudo-) angular-momentum conservation can be obtained from setting  $\alpha = 0, 3$  in the geodesic eq.(1). These are:

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{r}\right) \frac{dt}{d\sigma} = e \quad (3)$$

$$r^2 \sin^2(\theta) \frac{d\phi}{d\sigma} = l \quad (4)$$

When  $\alpha = 2$ , the geodesic eq.(1) reads

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma}(r^2 \frac{d\theta}{d\sigma}) = r^2 \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta) d\phi^2 \quad (5)$$

Thus, the orbit remains in the plane if taking polar angle  $\frac{\theta}{2} = 0$ , hence eq.(2) becomes:

$$ds^2 \longrightarrow \left(1 - \frac{1}{r}\right) dt^2 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{r}\right)^{-1} dr^2 - r^2 d\phi^2 \quad (6)$$

Without loss of generality, a natural selection of unit 1 is applied as  $c = 1$  and the Schwarzschild radius  $R_s = 2GM/c^2 = 1$ .

#### 1. Photon orbit

The photon orbit is a null curve  $g_{\mu\nu}\dot{x}^\mu\dot{x}^\nu = ds^2 = 0$ , Combining the energy and angular moment term with the metric ends up with:

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\sigma}\right)^2 = e^2 - \left(\frac{1}{r^2} - \frac{1}{r^3}\right) l^2 \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{d^2 r}{d\sigma^2} = \frac{l^2}{r^3} \left(1 - \frac{3}{2r}\right) \quad (8)$$

which indicates a stable circular orbit of light takes a radius of  $r_{circ.} = \frac{3R_s}{2}$ .

Rewriting these two photon orbit equations with  $\phi$  instead of the affine parameter  $\sigma$ , one gets:

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi}\right)^2 = \frac{e^2}{l^2} + (u^3 - u^2) \quad (9)$$

$$\frac{d^2 r}{d\phi^2} = \frac{3}{2}u^2 - u \quad (10)$$

#### 2. Massive particles

For massive particles,  $ds^2 = d\tau^2$ . Replacing  $\sigma$  with  $\tau$  in the geodesic, energy and angular momentum equations, with the notation  $r \rightarrow \frac{1}{u}$ , one gets:

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi}\right)^2 = \frac{r^4 e^2}{l^2} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{r}\right) \left(\frac{r^4}{l^2} + r^2\right)$$

or,

$$\left(\frac{du}{d\phi}\right)^2 = (u')^2 = \frac{e^2}{l^2} - (1 - u)(l^{-2} + u^2) \quad (11)$$

We see the only difference between the massive particle orbit and photon is an additional  $l^{-2}$  term (if we ignore the different form of energy and angular momentum, that essentially changes  $e \rightarrow e/m$  and  $l \rightarrow l/m$ ). This equation derived from the metric resembles an energy conservation equation, where  $K = \frac{1}{2}(u')^2$  is the kinetic term and  $V = \frac{1}{2}(1 - u)(l^{-2} + u^2)$  is the minus potential. Hence the gradient of the potential w.r.t.  $u$  gives rise to the acceleration  $u''(\phi)$ :

$$u''(\phi) = \nabla_u V = \frac{3}{2}u^2 - u + \frac{1}{2}l^{-2} \quad (12)$$

One can also use the chain rule to derive the same relation.

This second-order differential equation is preferred than the first-order one in terms of the computational efficiency, since square root is computational heavy.

## B. Geometry

In the plane of equator [Fig.1], a camera is placed at  $\vec{p}_0$  and it traces back light at a direction  $\vec{d}$ .  $\vec{d}$  has a "seen angle"  $\xi$  with  $\vec{p}_0$ . Assuming this light is deviated under the

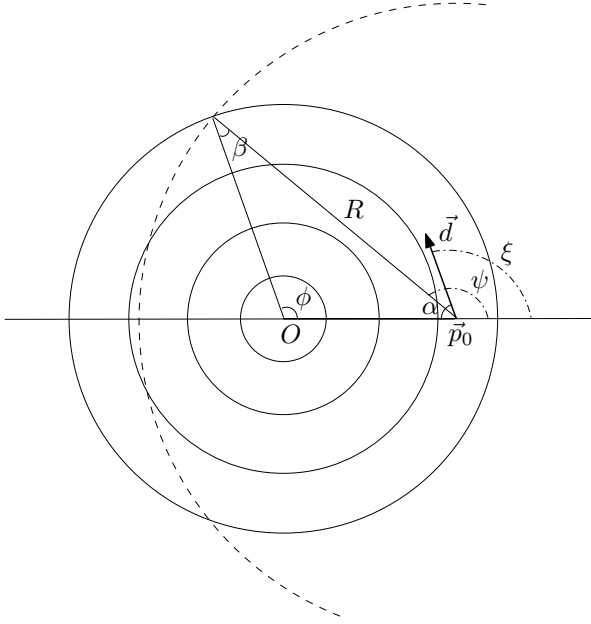


FIG. 1. The black hole sits at the centre  $O$  of the polar coordinate. The camera located at  $\vec{p}_0$ , coinciding with  $\phi_0 = 0$ , traces rays orienting  $\vec{d}$ , which is at a seen angle  $\xi = \pi - \alpha$  with  $\vec{p}_0$ . The deviated angle  $\psi$  specifies the angle when the ray travels a radial distance  $R$  from the camera. The polar angle of this updated location is  $\phi$ , and the angle opposing  $\vec{p}_0$  is  $\beta$ .

metric, and travels a radial distance  $R$  from the camera. The updated location has a polar angle  $\phi$ , and is with a "deviate angle"  $\psi$  seen by the camera. Trigonometry tells us that

$$\frac{\|\vec{p}_0\|}{\sin(\beta)} = \frac{R}{\sin(\phi)} \quad (13)$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi = \phi + \beta = \phi + \arcsin\left(\frac{R}{\|\vec{p}_0\| \sin(\phi)}\right) \quad (14)$$

To solve for equation 12, two initial conditions are taken as:

$$u(\phi_0) = \frac{1}{\|\vec{p}\|} \quad (15)$$

$$u'(\phi_0) = -\frac{1}{u(\phi_0) \tan(\alpha)} \quad (16)$$

where we define the orthonormal basis  $\hat{n}$  and  $\hat{t}$  as:

$$\hat{n} = \frac{\vec{p}}{\|\vec{p}\|} \quad (17)$$

$$\hat{t} = \frac{(\hat{n} \times \vec{d}) \times \hat{n}}{\|(\hat{n} \times \vec{d}) \times \hat{n}\|} \quad (18)$$

The initial condition of  $u'(\phi)$  is calculated geometrically. For a supplementary angle  $\alpha = \pi - \xi$ , a small

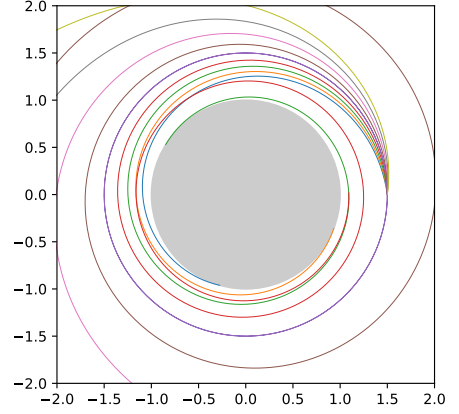


FIG. 2. The equatorial plane view of photon orbits. The photon emits from  $1.5 R_s$  (photon sphere) at different angles and orbits until it runs off the view or falls into the event horizon. Notice the photon sphere at  $1.5 R_s$

increment of polar angle  $\delta\phi$  gives rise to the first order change to  $u$  and subsequently a zeroth order  $u'$ :

$$\begin{aligned} u(\phi_0 + \delta\phi) &= u(\phi_0) + u'(\phi_0)\delta\phi \\ &= u(\phi_0) + \vec{d} \cdot \hat{n} \\ &\Downarrow \\ u'(\phi_0) &= (\vec{d} \cdot \hat{n})/\delta\phi \\ &= \frac{(\vec{d} \cdot \hat{n})}{(\vec{d} \cdot \hat{t})/\|\vec{p}_0\|} \\ &= \frac{\vec{d} \cdot \hat{n}}{u(\phi_0)\vec{d} \cdot \hat{t}} \\ &= -\frac{1}{u(\phi_0) \tan(\alpha)} \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

We can certainly go to a higher order:

$$u(\phi_0 + \delta\phi) = u(\phi_0) - \frac{1}{u(\phi_0) \tan(\alpha)} \delta\phi \quad (20)$$

$$u'(\phi_0 + \delta\phi) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{3}{2} u^2(\phi_0) - u(\phi_0) \right) \delta\phi - \frac{1}{u(\phi_0) \tan(\alpha)}$$

In fact, this above first order is used for the code implementation.