

Black holes



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BH : according to Laplace



He gave a talk before Royal Astronomical Society in 1783 on the gravitation of stars. He used a thought experiment to explain that light would not leave the surface of a very massive star if the gravitation was sufficiently large.

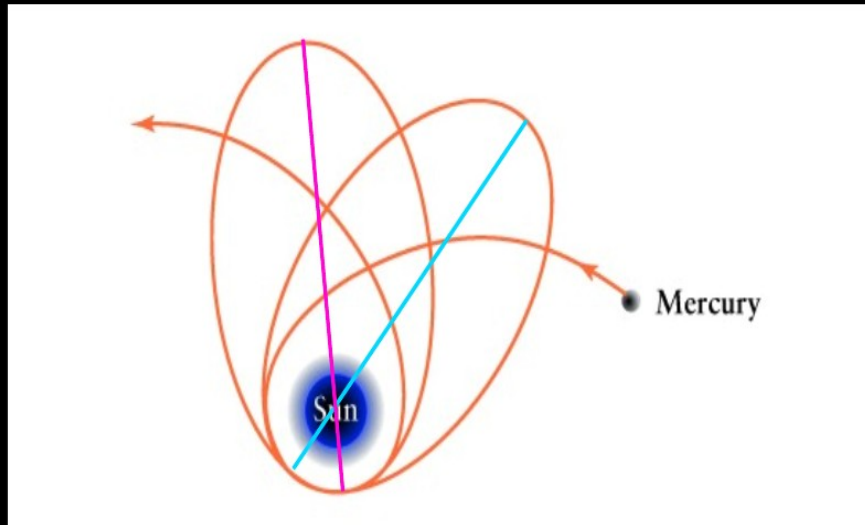
And he deduced: "**Should such an object really exist in nature, its light could never reach us.**"

$$v_e = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}},$$

$$\text{B.H. radius} \rightarrow r = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

General Relativity 1915

Mercury orbit precession

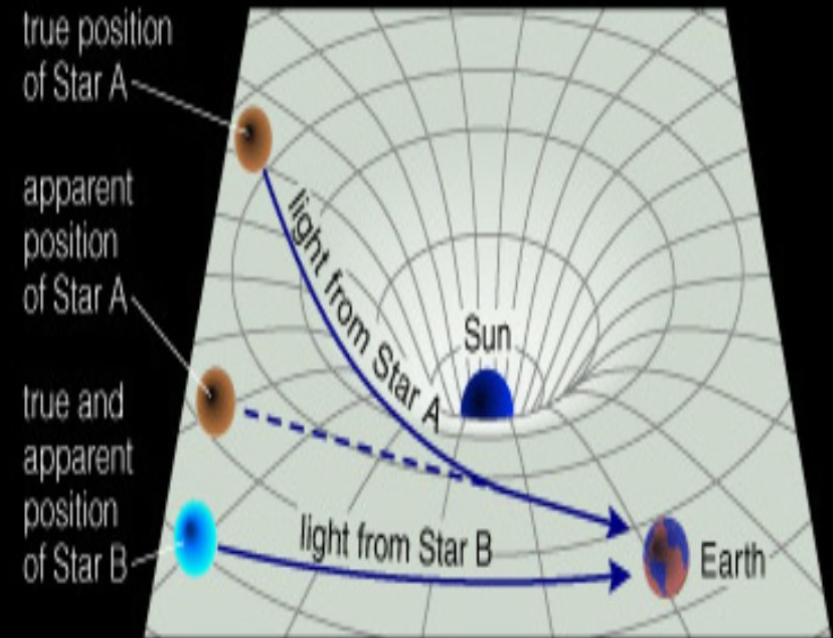


Newtonian Gravity Predicts: 5557.62 arcsec/century

Observed Value: 5600.73 arcsec/century

Difference: 43.11 ± 0.45 arcsec/century too fast!!

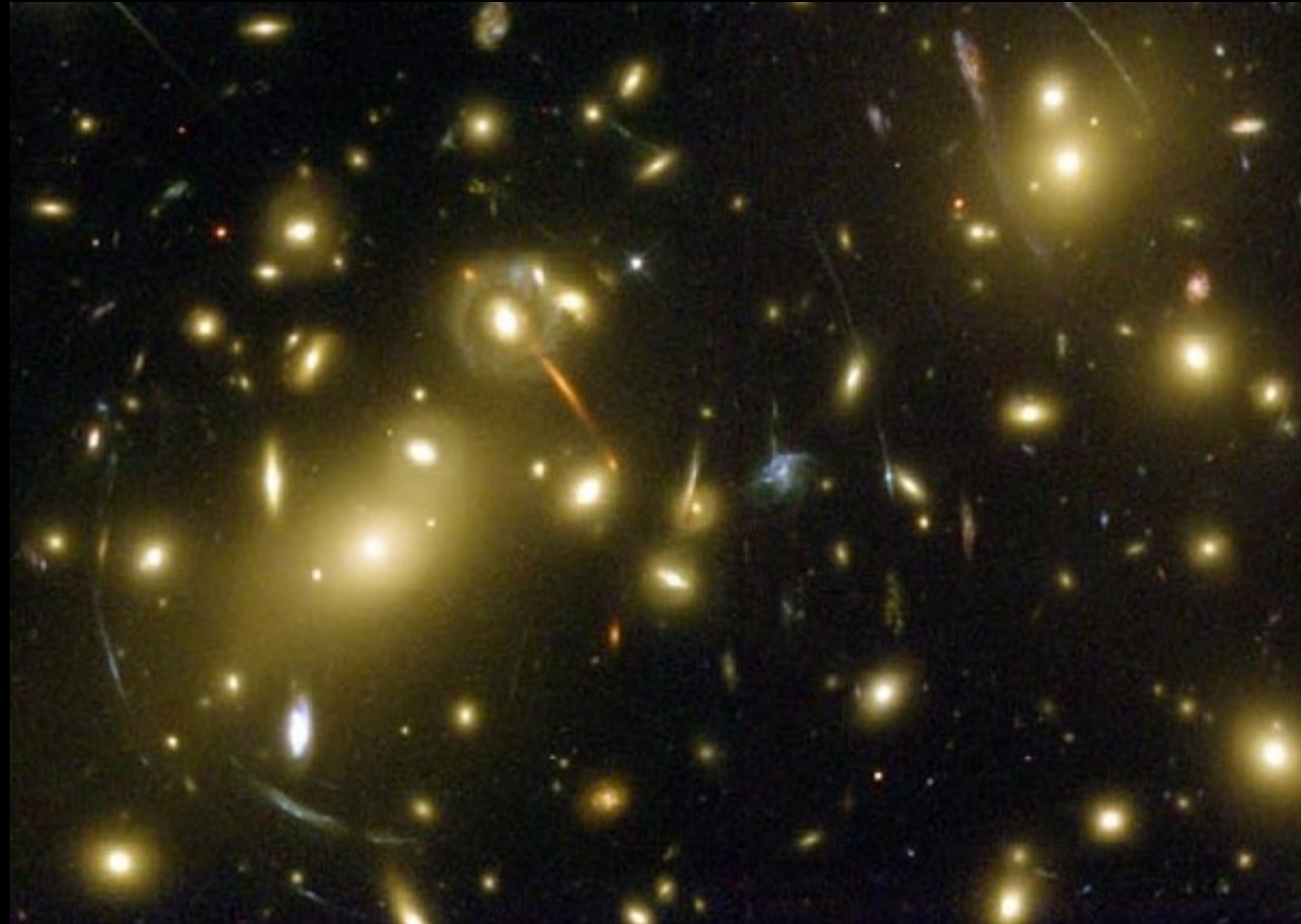
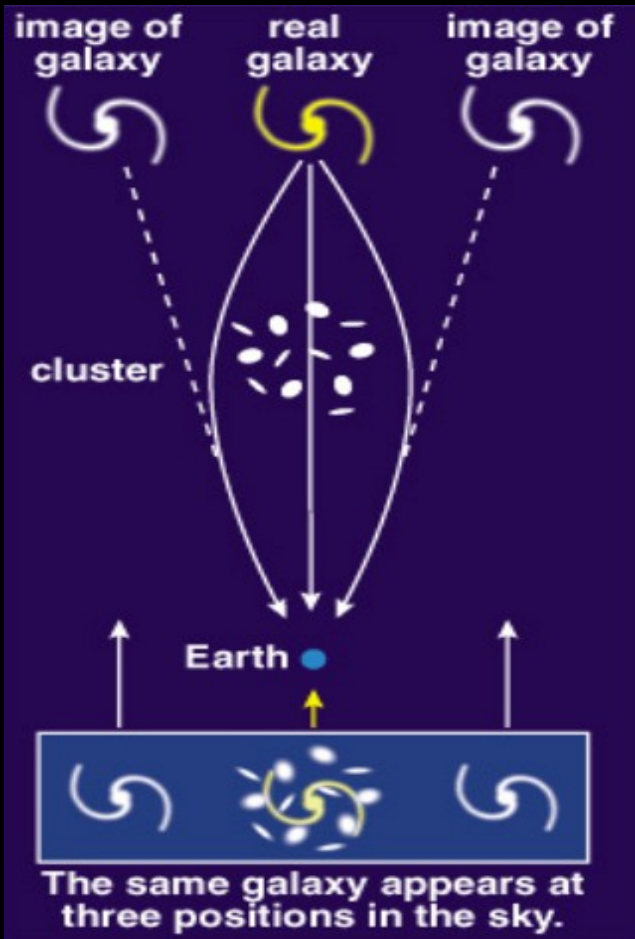
Deflection of starlight



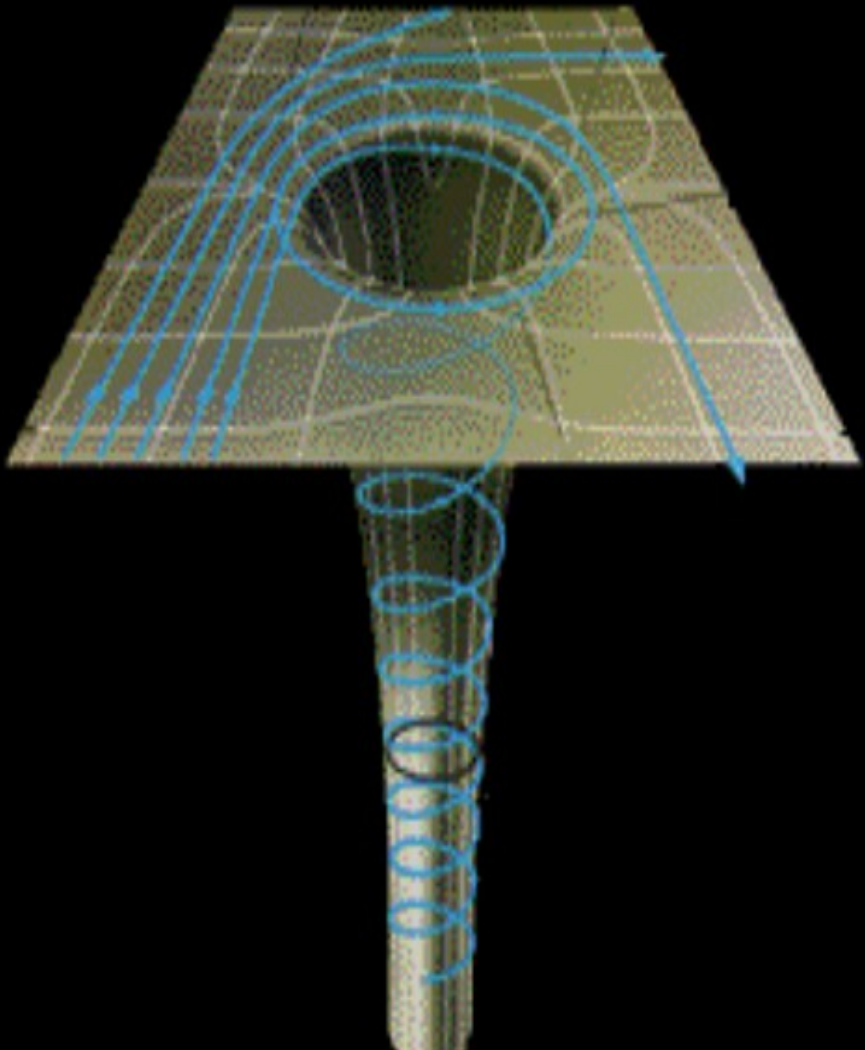
Eddington observation (1919)



Gravitational Lensing



Black Holes



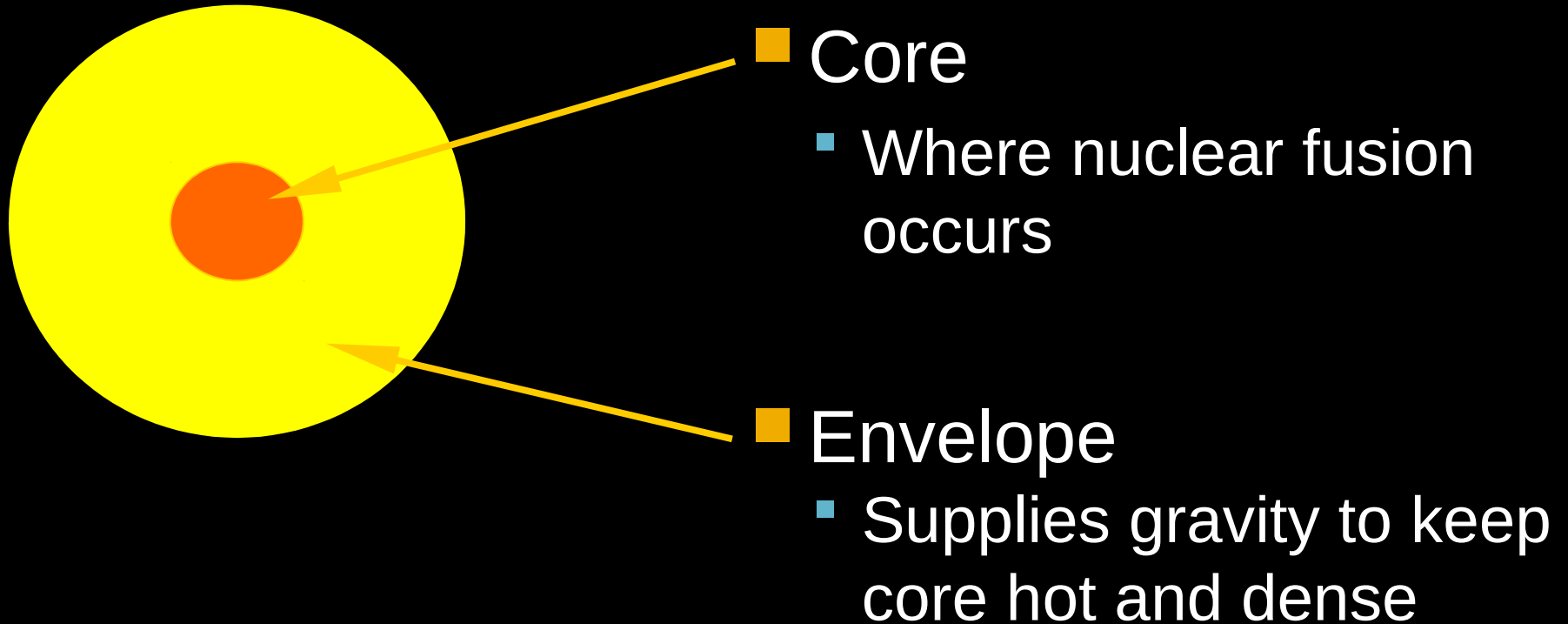
Black holes are a fundamental prediction of the theory of general relativity (Einstein 1915).

A defining feature of black holes is their event horizon, a one-way causal boundary in spacetime from which not even light can escape (Schwarzschild 1916).

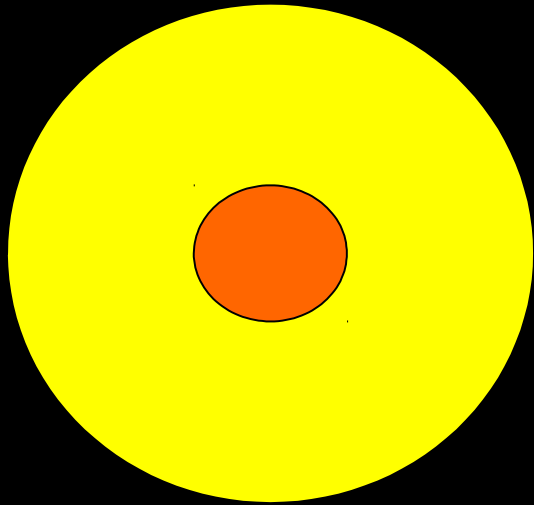
Schwarzschild radius:

$$R_S = \frac{2GM}{c^2} \approx 3 \frac{M}{M_{Sun}} \text{ km}$$

Sun's Structure



Main Sequence Evolution



- Core starts with same fraction of hydrogen as whole star
- Fusion changes $H \rightarrow He$
- Core gradually shrinks and Sun gets hotter and more luminous

Main Sequence Evolution

When stars initiate H burning in their cores, they are located on the *zero-age main sequence* (ZAMS).

As they age, they evolve slowly away from the ZAMS.

Most stars, regardless of their mass, spend roughly 90% of their total lifetimes as main sequence stars.

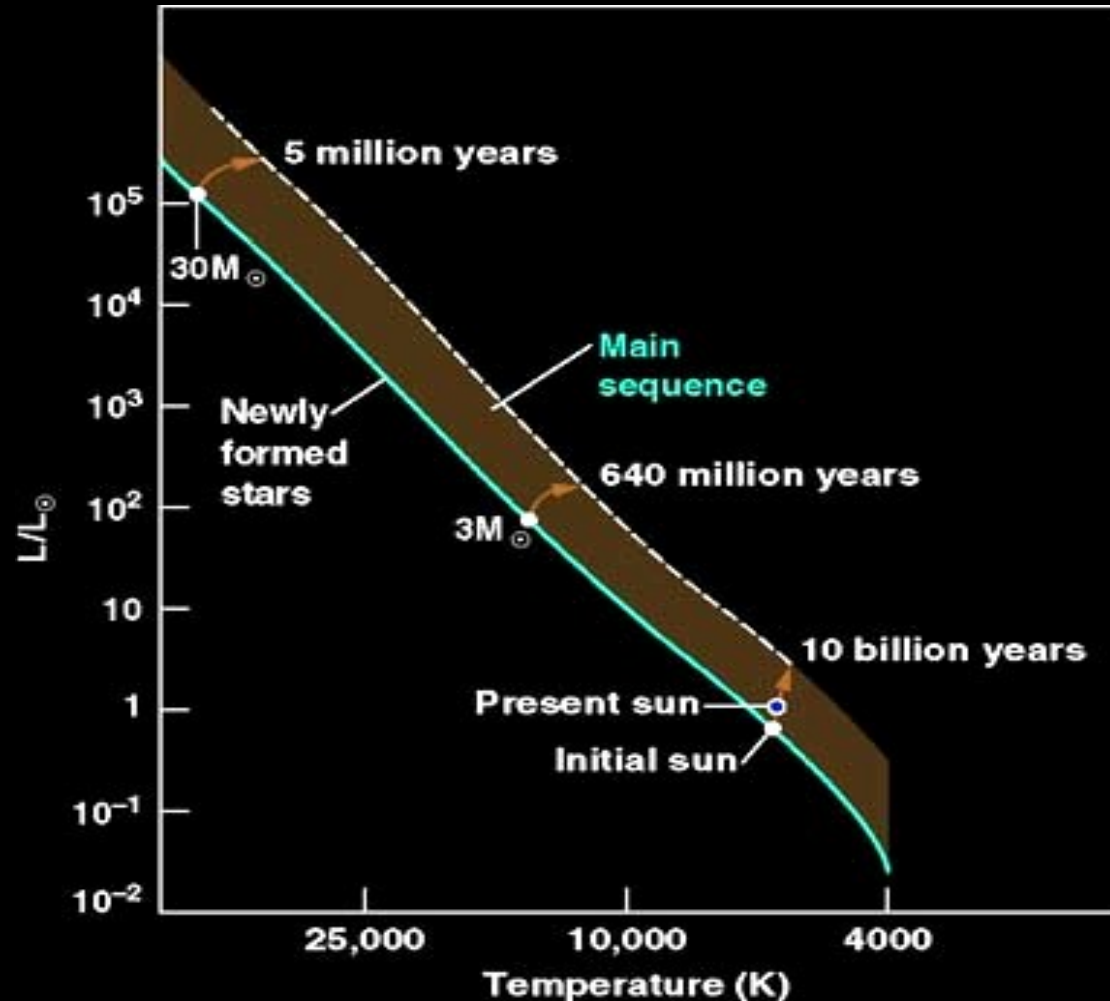
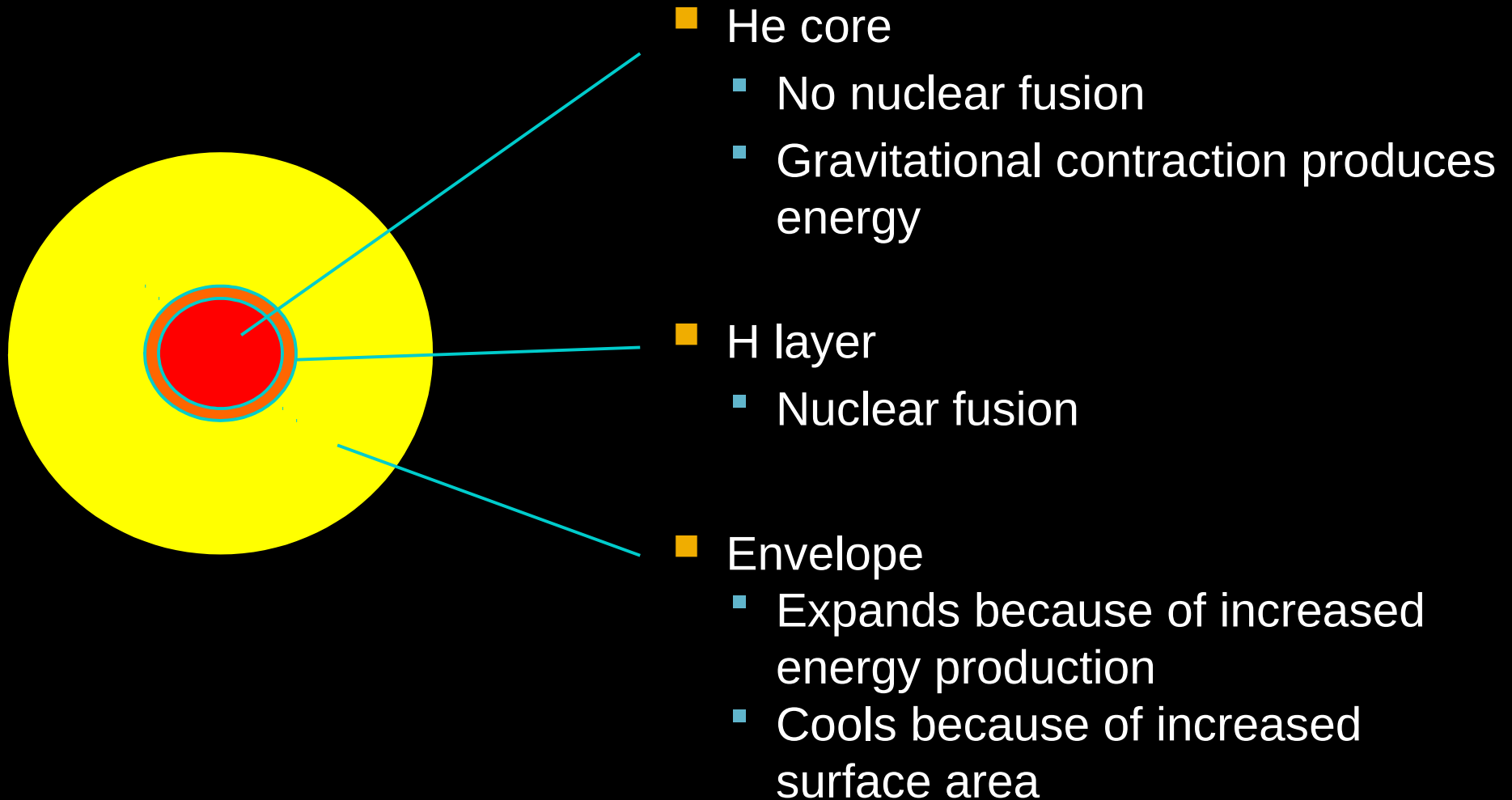


Table 21-1

Main-Sequence Lifetimes

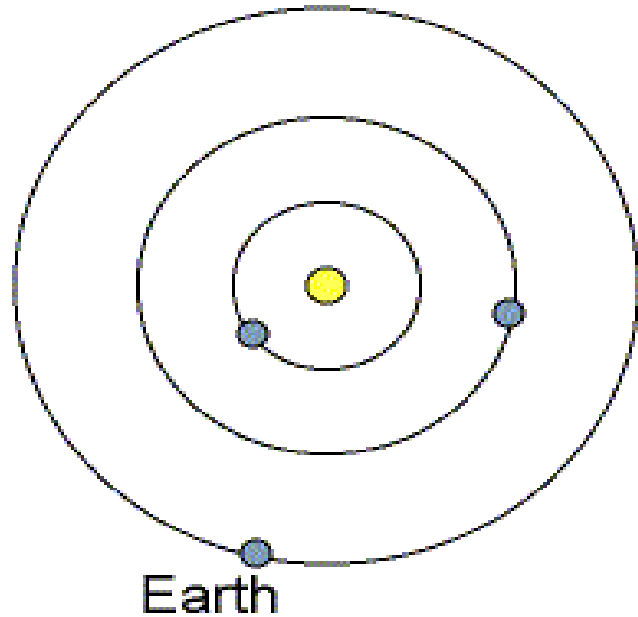
Mass (M_{\odot})	Surface temperature (K)	Spectral class	Luminosity (L_{\odot})	Main-sequence lifetime (10^6 years)
25	35,000	O	80,000	3
15	30,000	B	10,000	15
3	11,000	A	60	500
1.5	7000	F	5	3000
1.0	6000	G	1	10,000
0.75	5000	K	0.5	15,000
0.50	4000	M	0.03	200,000

Red Giant Phase

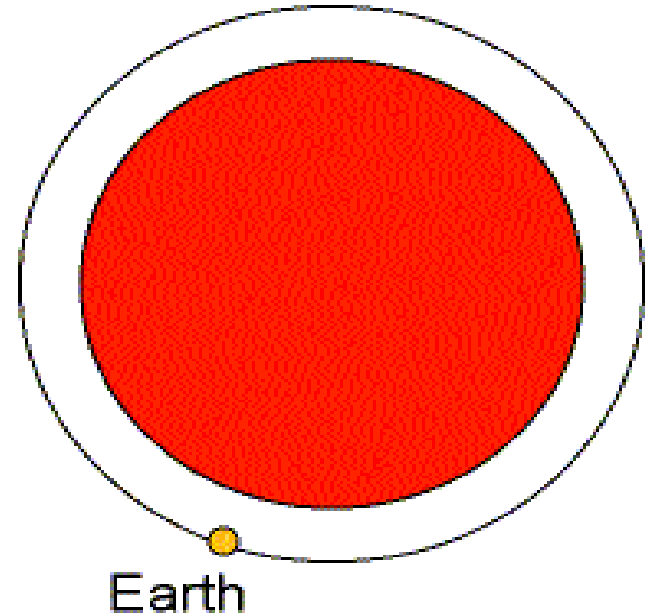


- He core
 - No nuclear fusion
 - Gravitational contraction produces energy
- H layer
 - Nuclear fusion
- Envelope
 - Expands because of increased energy production
 - Cools because of increased surface area

Sun's Red Giant Phase

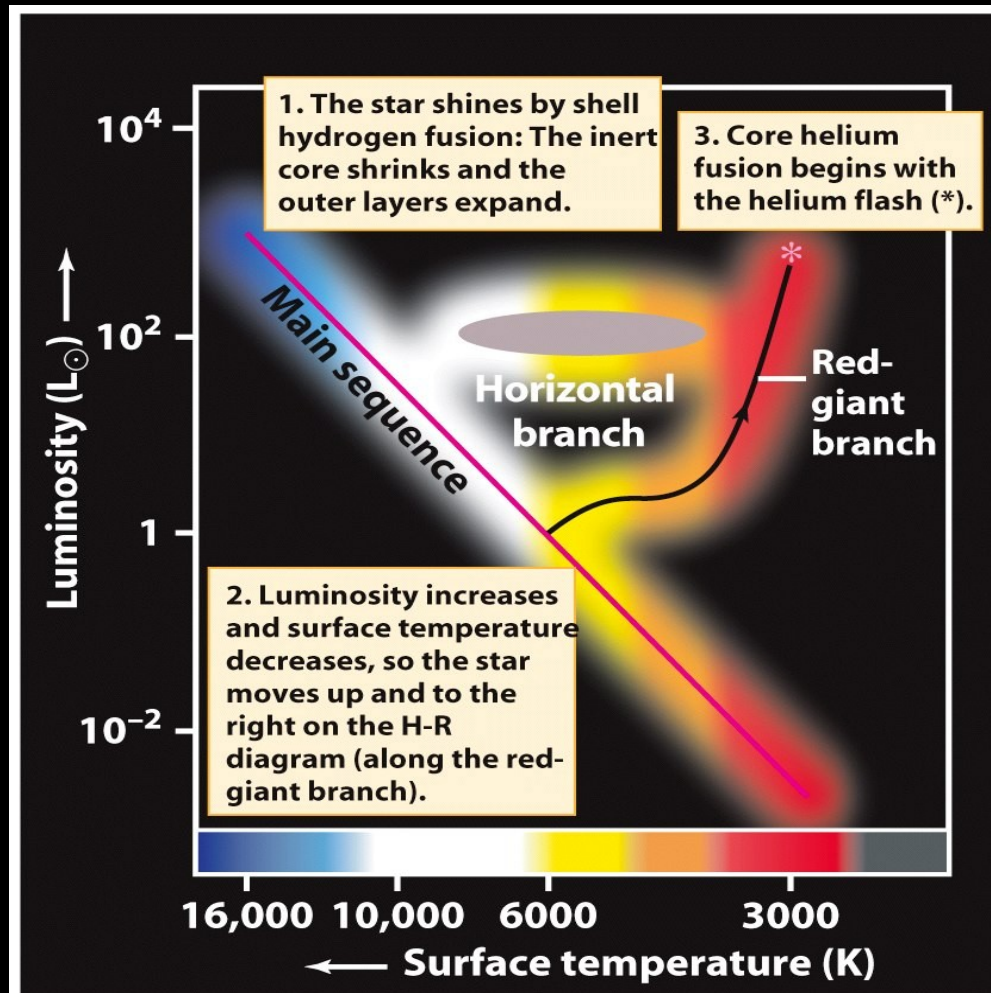


Now: hot core + warm surface; small size.



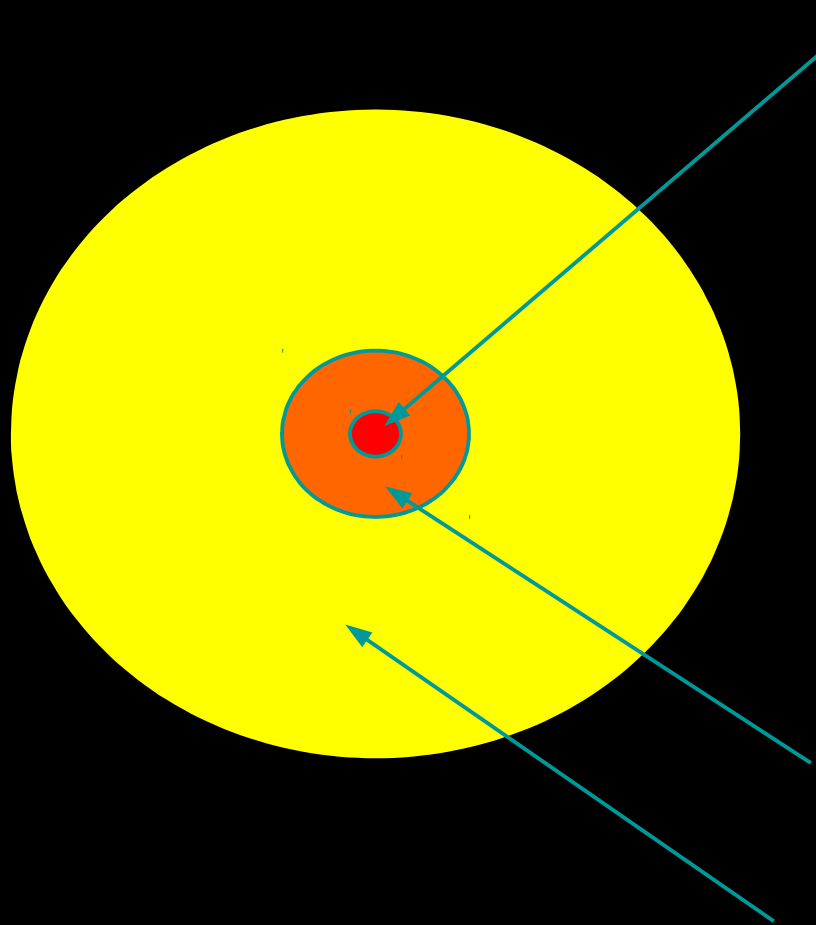
Future: very hot core + cool surface. Large size

Movement on HR diagram



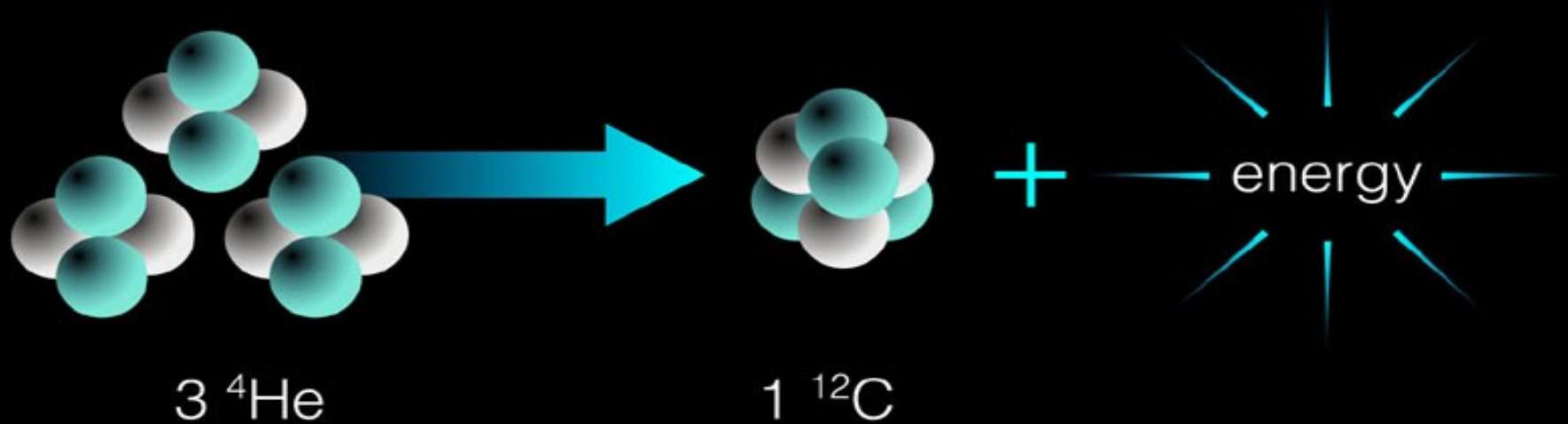
Before the helium flash: A red-giant star

Helium Flash



- He core
 - Eventually the core gets hot enough to fuse Helium into Carbon.
 - This causes the temperature to increase rapidly to 300 million K and there's a sudden flash when a large part of the Helium gets burned all at once.
 - We don't see this flash because it's buried inside the star.
- H layer
- Envelope

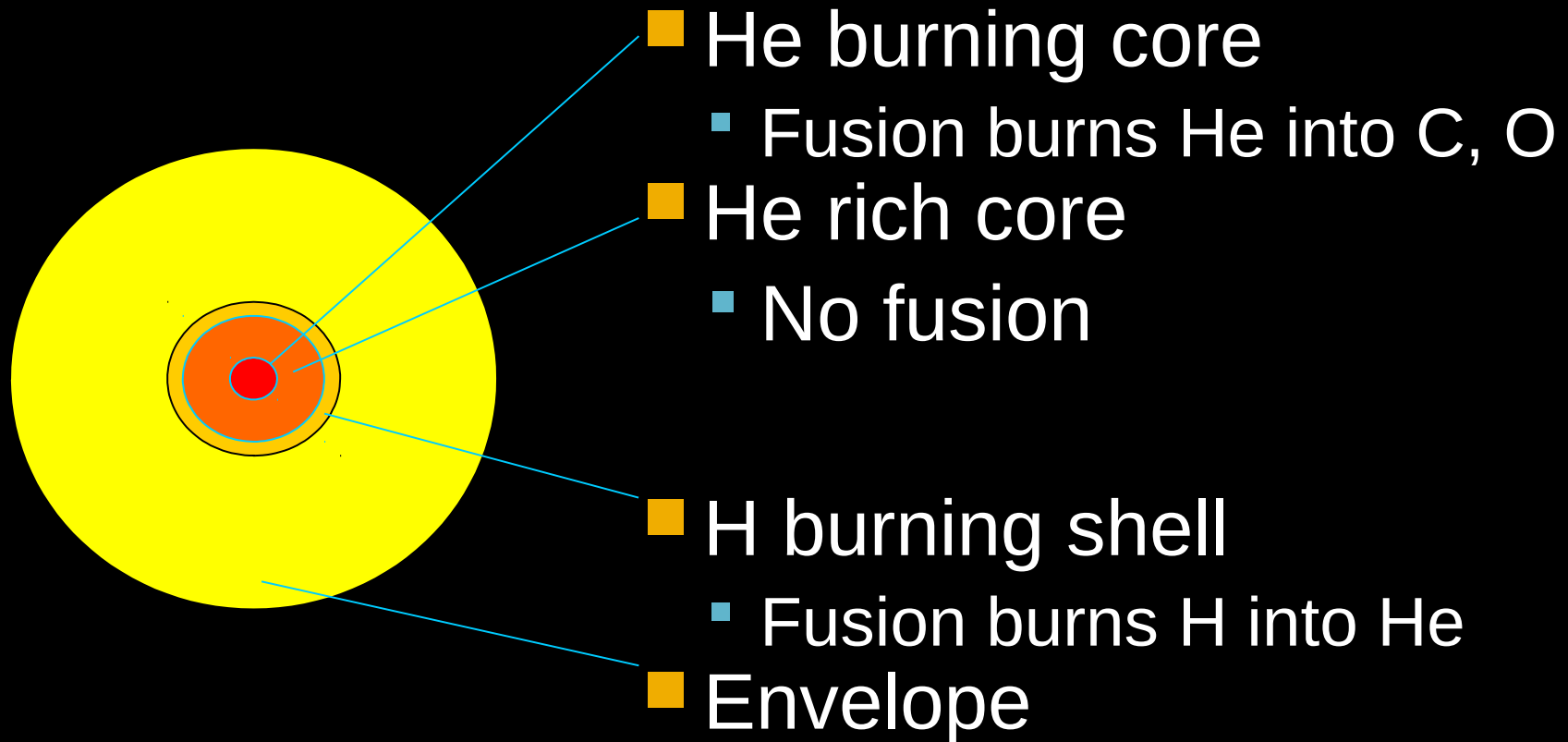
Helium fusion



Helium fusion does not begin right away because it requires higher temperatures than hydrogen fusion—larger charge leads to greater repulsion

Fusion of two helium nuclei doesn't work, so helium fusion must combine three He nuclei to make carbon

Red Giant after Helium Ignition

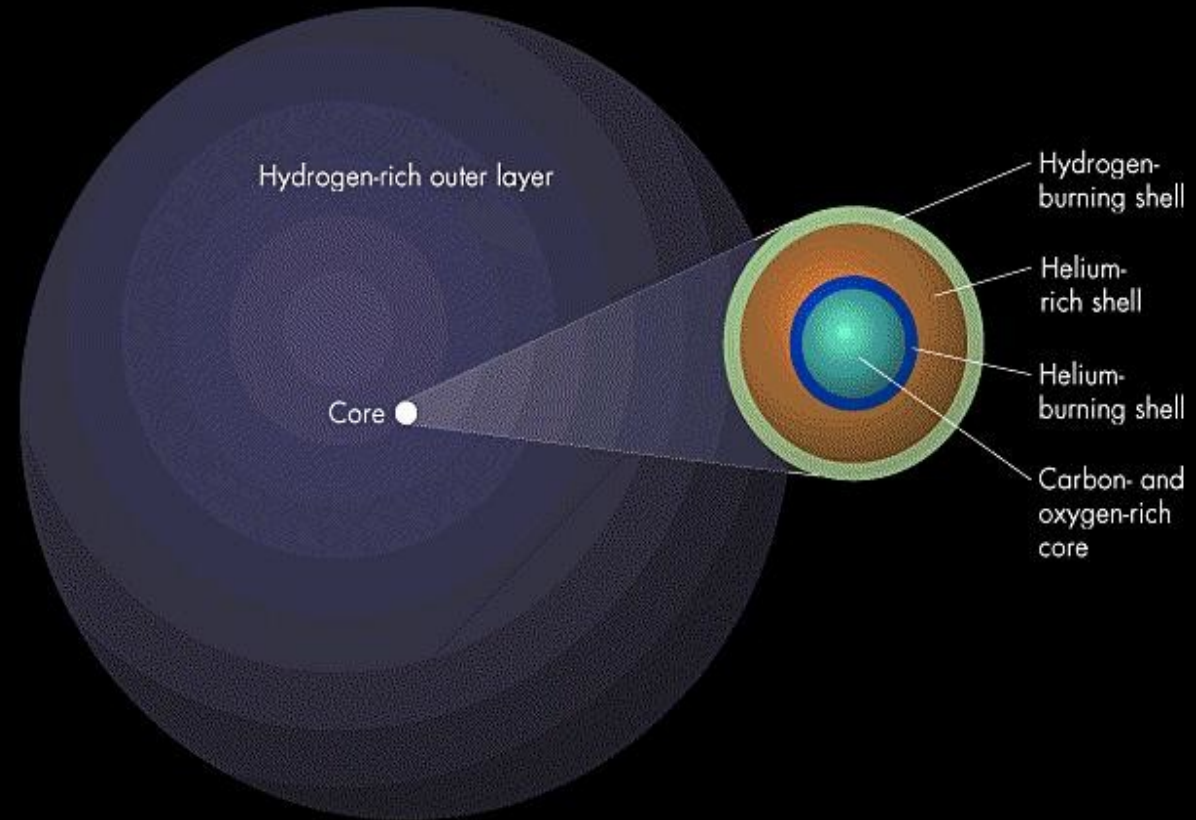


Helium burning in the core stops

H burning is continuous

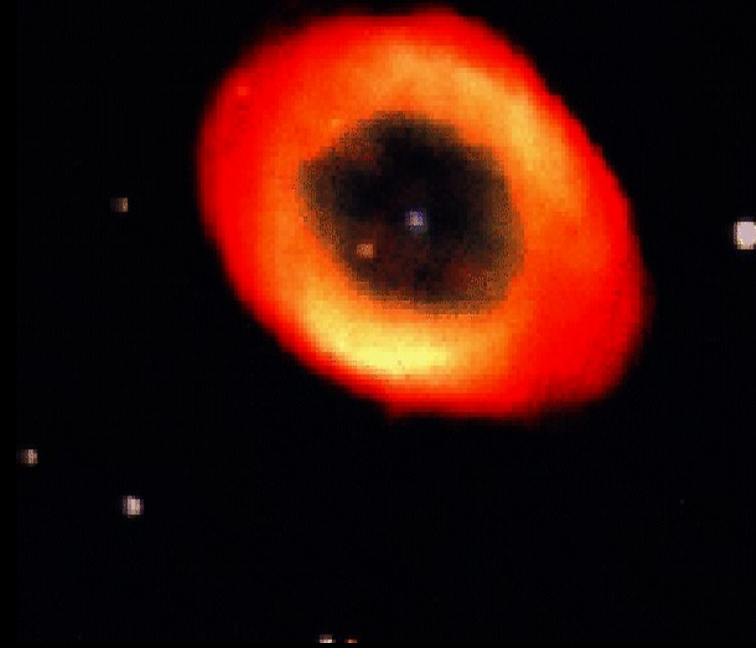
He burning happens in “thermal pulses”

Core is degenerate

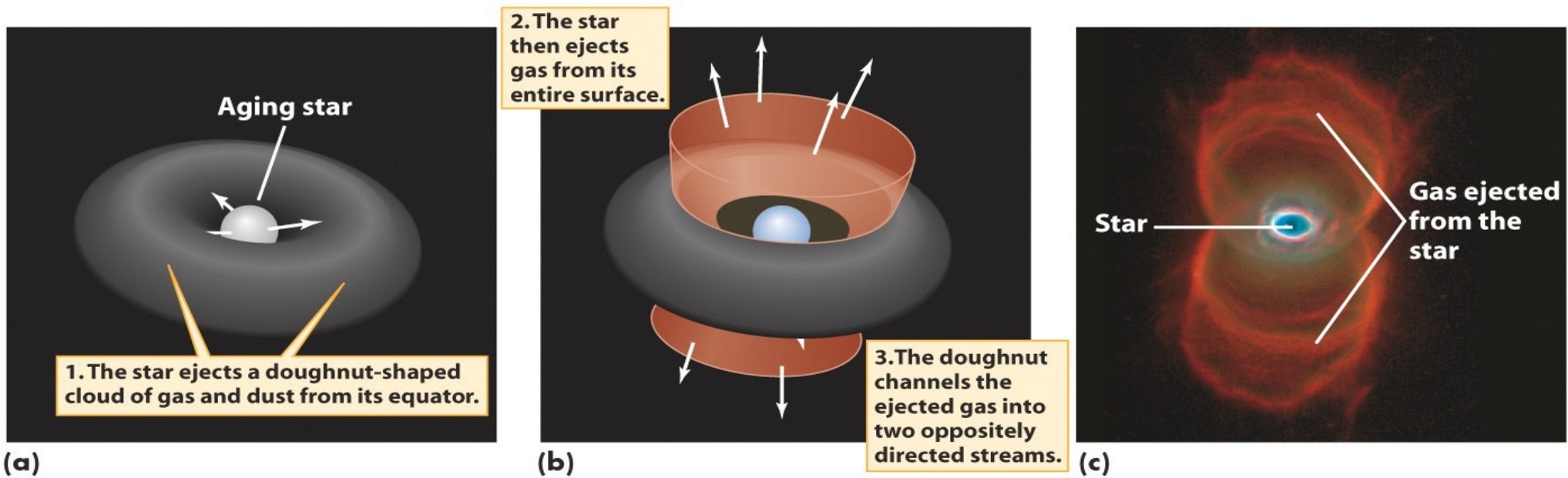


Sun loses mass via winds

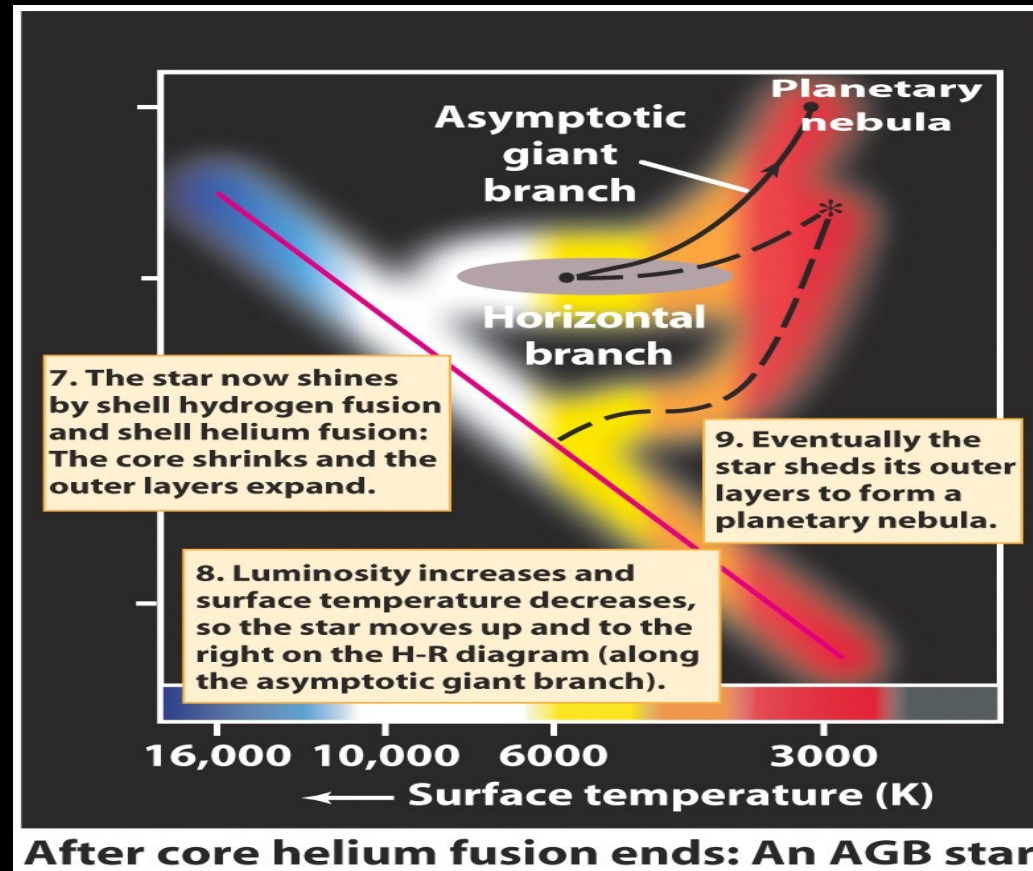
- Creates a “planetary nebula”
- Leaves behind core of carbon and oxygen surrounded by thin shell of hydrogen
- Hydrogen continues to burn



Bipolar planetary nebulae



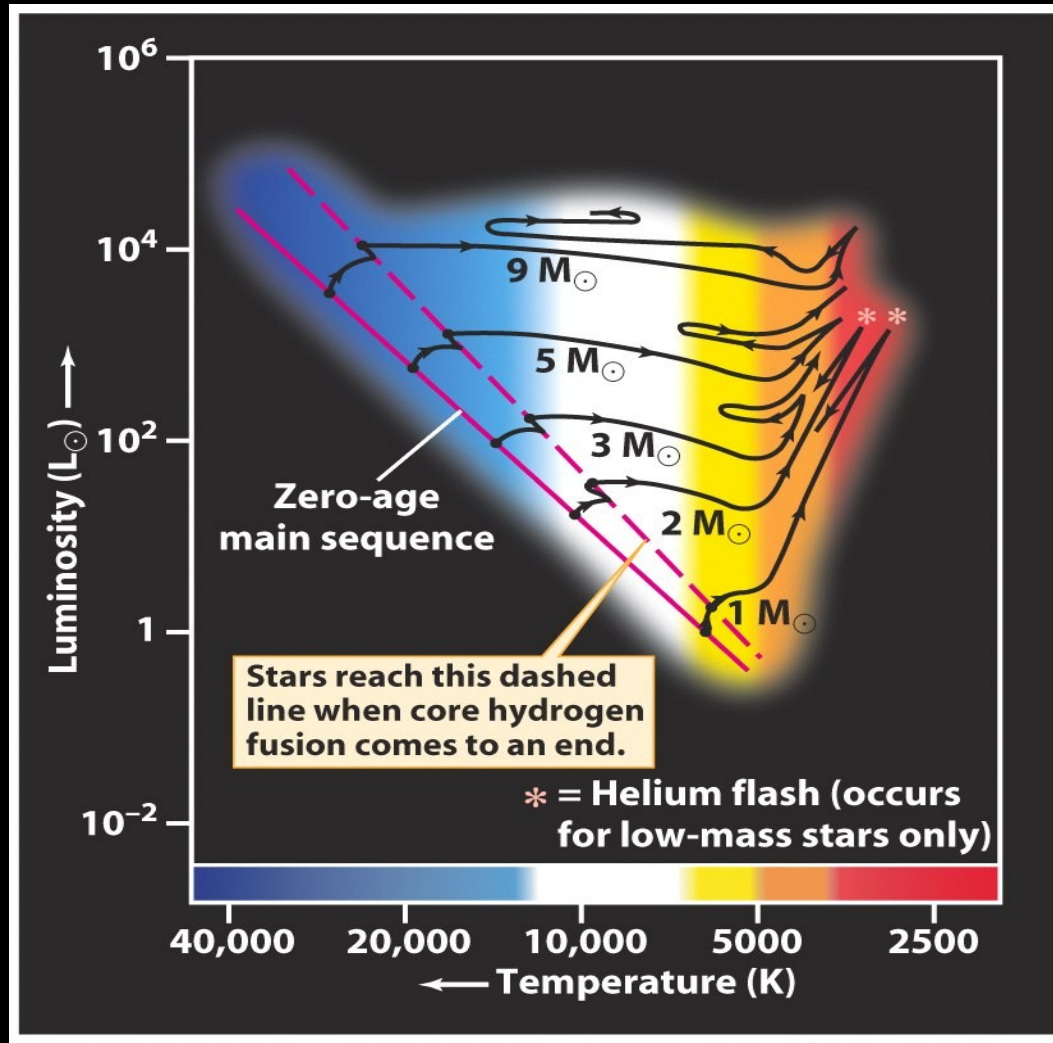
Sun moves onto Asymptotic Giant Branch (AGB)



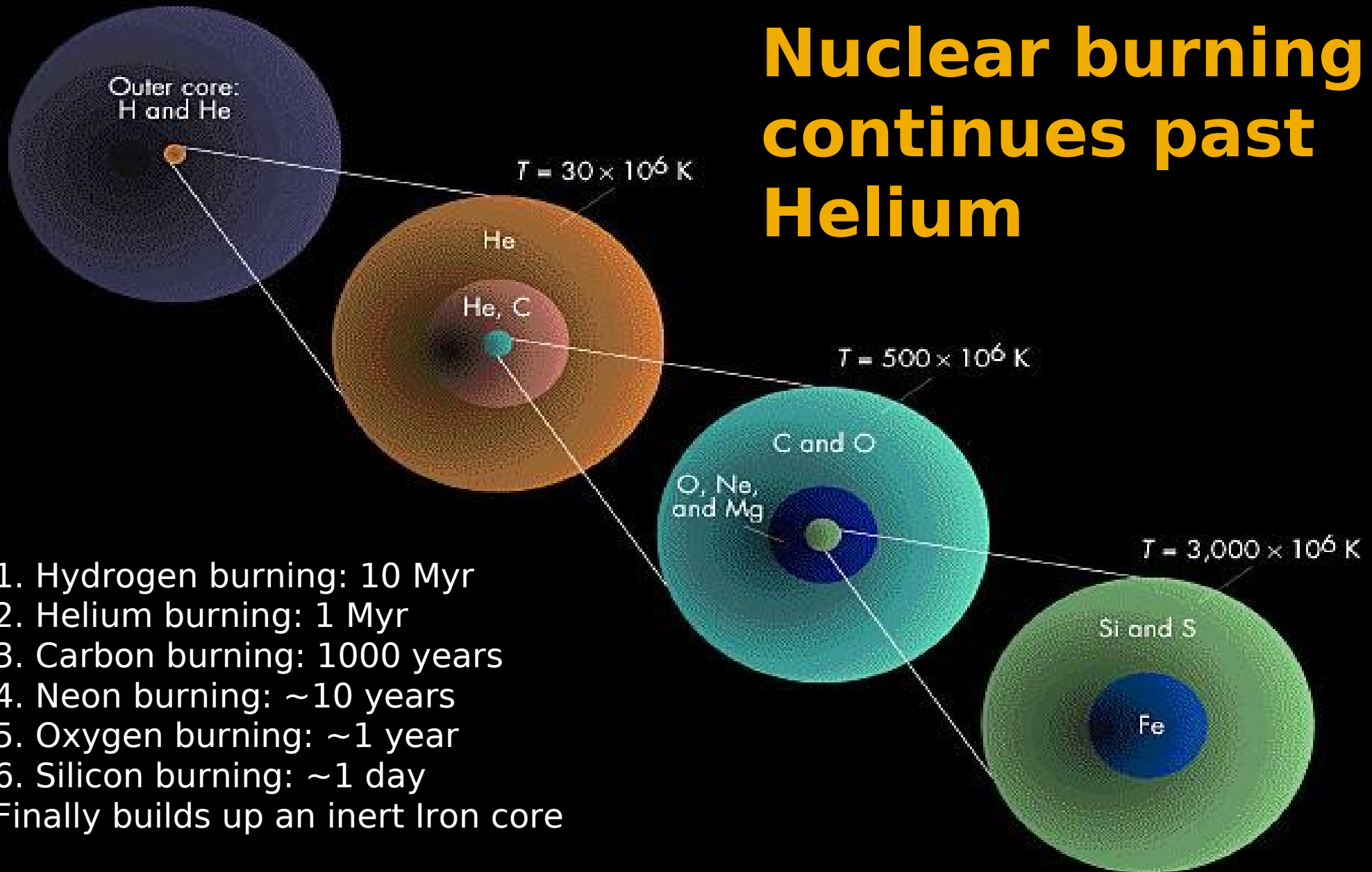
White dwarf

- Star burns up rest of hydrogen
- Nothing remains but degenerate core of Oxygen and Carbon
- “White dwarf” cools but does not contract because core is degenerate
- No energy from fusion, no energy from gravitational contraction
- White dwarf slowly fades away...

Higher mass stars do not have helium flash

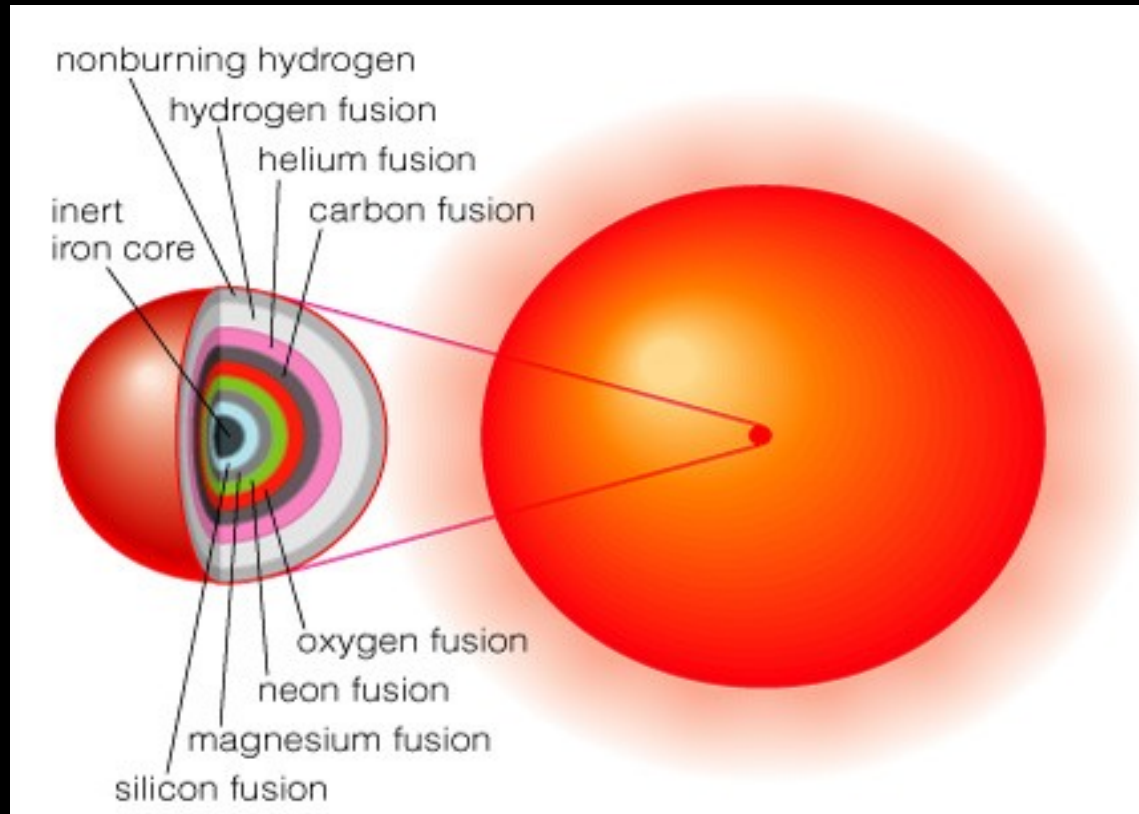


Nuclear burning continues past Helium



1. Hydrogen burning: 10 Myr
 2. Helium burning: 1 Myr
 3. Carbon burning: 1000 years
 4. Neon burning: ~ 10 years
 5. Oxygen burning: ~ 1 year
 6. Silicon burning: ~ 1 day
- Finally builds up an inert Iron core

Multiple Shell Burning



- Advanced nuclear burning proceeds in a series of nested shells

Key

- 12 — Atomic number
- Mg** — Element's symbol
- Magnesium — Element's name
- 24.305 — Atomic mass*

*Atomic masses are fractions because they represent a weighted average of atomic masses of different isotopes—in proportion to the abundance of each isotope on Earth.

1 H Hydrogen 1.00794	2 He Helium 4.003																
3 Li Lithium 6.941	4 Be Beryllium 9.01218																
11 Na Sodium 22.990	12 Mg Magnesium 24.305																
19 K Potassium 39.098	20 Ca Calcium 40.08	21 Sc Scandium 44.956	22 Ti Titanium 47.88	23 V Vanadium 50.94	24 Cr Chromium 51.996	25 Mn Manganese 54.938	26 Fe Iron 55.847	27 Co Cobalt 58.9332	28 Ni Nickel 58.69	29 Cu Copper 63.546	30 Zn Zinc 65.39	31 Ga Gallium 69.72	32 Ge Germanium 72.59	33 As Arsenic 74.922	34 Se Selenium 78.96	35 Br Bromine 79.904	36 Kr Krypton 83.80
37 Rb Rubidium 85.468	38 Sr Strontium 87.62	39 Y Yttrium 88.9059	40 Zr Zirconium 91.224	41 Nb Niobium 92.91	42 Mo Molybdenum 95.94	43 Tc Technetium (98)	44 Ru Ruthenium 101.07	45 Rh Rhodium 102.906	46 Pd Palladium 106.42	47 Ag Silver 107.868	48 Cd Cadmium 112.41	49 In Indium 114.82	50 Sn Tin 118.71	51 Sb Antimony 121.75	52 Te Tellurium 127.60	53 I Iodine 126.905	54 Xe Xenon 131.29
55 Cs Cesium 132.91	56 Ba Barium 137.34	72 Hf Hafnium 178.49	73 Ta Tantalum 180.95	74 W Tungsten 183.85	75 Re Rhenium 186.207	76 Os Osmium 190.2	77 Ir Iridium 192.22	78 Pt Platinum 195.08	79 Au Gold 196.967	80 Hg Mercury 200.59	81 Tl Thallium 204.383	82 Pb Lead 207.2	83 Bi Bismuth 208.98	84 Po Polonium (209)	85 At Astatine (210)	86 Rn Radon (222)	
87 Fr Francium (223)	88 Ra Radium 226.0254	104 Rf Rutherfordium (261)	105 Db Dubnium (262)	106 Sg Seaborgium (263)	107 Bh Bohrium (262)	108 Hs Hassium (265)	109 Mt Meitnerium (266)	110 Uun Ununnilium (269)	111 Uuu Unununium (272)	112 Uub Ununbium (277)							

Lanthanide Series

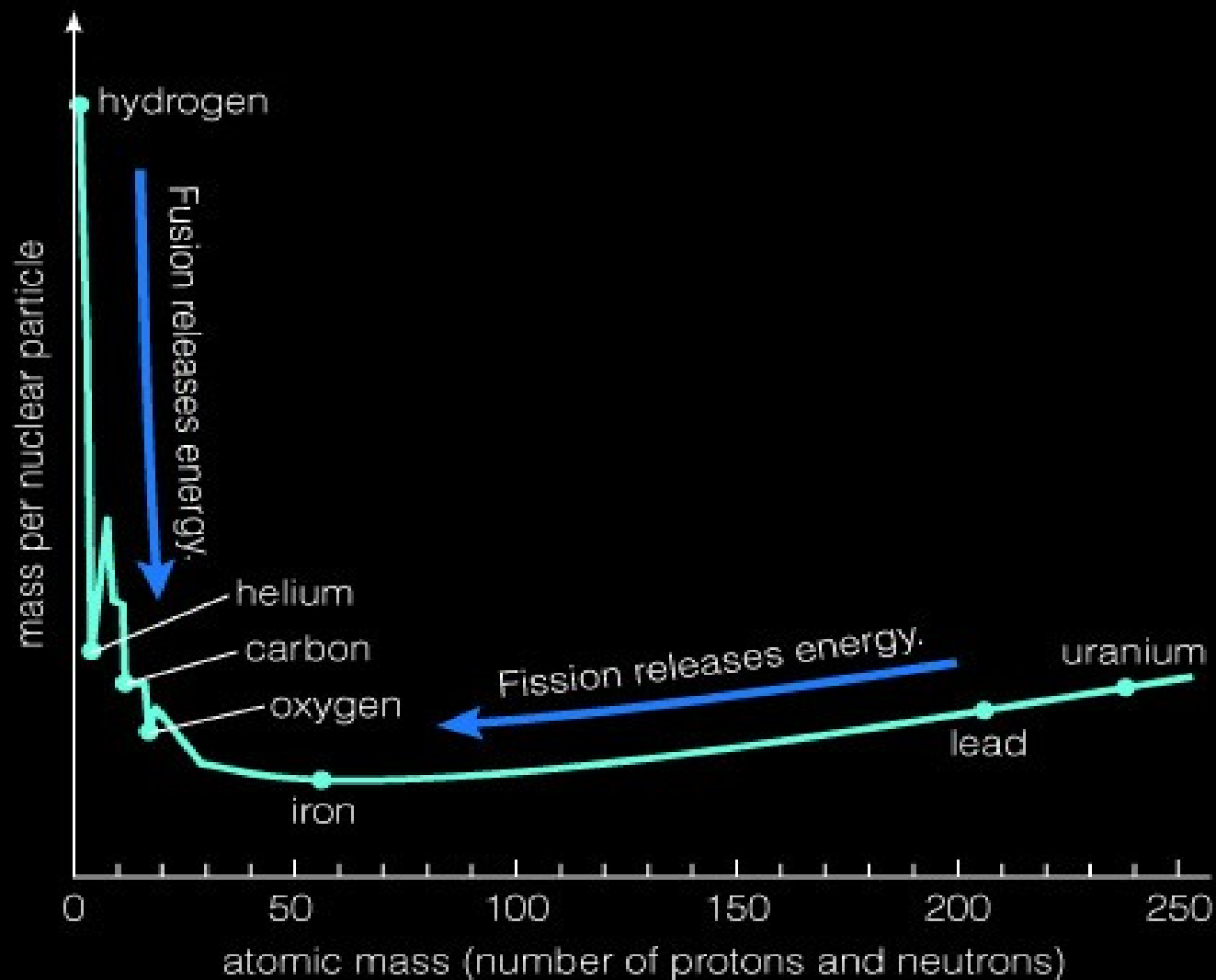
57 La Lanthanum 138.906	58 Ce Cerium 140.12	59 Pr Praseodymium 140.908	60 Nd Neodymium 144.24	61 Pm Promethium (145)	62 Sm Samarium 150.36	63 Eu Europium 151.96	64 Gd Gadolinium 157.25	65 Tb Terbium 158.925	66 Dy Dysprosium 162.50	67 Ho Holmium 164.93	68 Er Erbium 167.26	69 Tm Thulium 168.934	70 Yb Ytterbium 173.04	71 Lu Lutetium 174.967
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Actinide Series

89 Ac Actinium 227.028	90 Th Thorium 232.038	91 Pa Protactinium 231.036	92 U Uranium 238.029	93 Np Neptunium 237.048	94 Pu Plutonium (244)	95 Am Americium (243)	96 Cm Curium (247)	97 Bk Berkelium (247)	98 Cf Californium (251)	99 Es Einsteinium (252)	100 Fm Fermium (257)	101 Md Mendelevium (258)	102 No Nobelium (259)	103 Lr Lawrencium (260)
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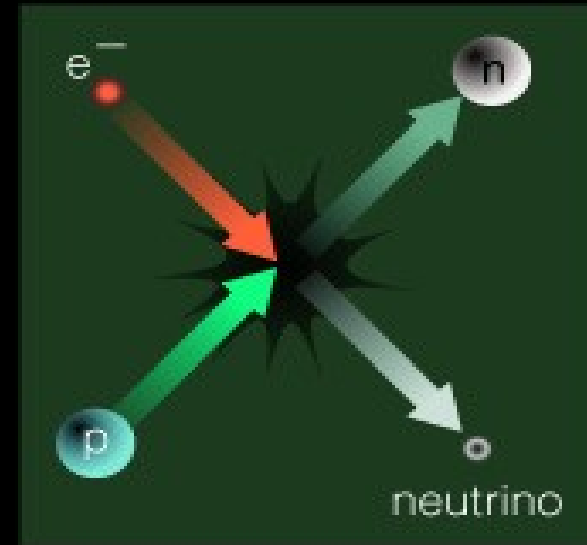
Advanced reactions in stars make elements like Si, S, Ca, Fe

Why does fusion stop at Iron?

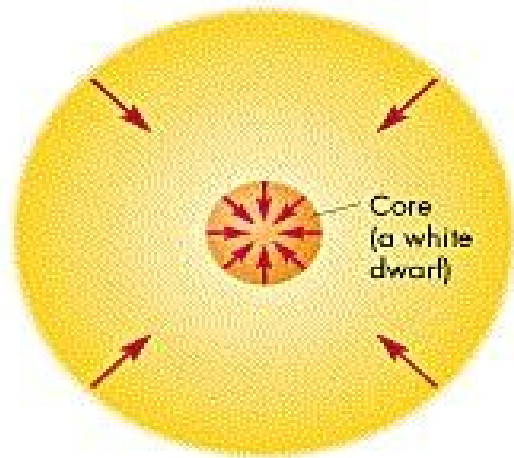


Core collapse

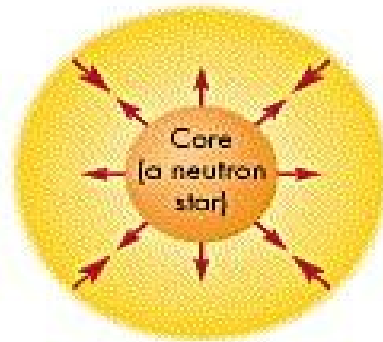
- Iron core is degenerate and grows until it is too heavy to support itself
- Core collapses and iron nuclei are converted into neutrons with the emission of neutrinos
- Core collapse stops, neutron star is formed
- Rest of the star bounces off the new neutron star (also pushed outwards by the neutrinos)



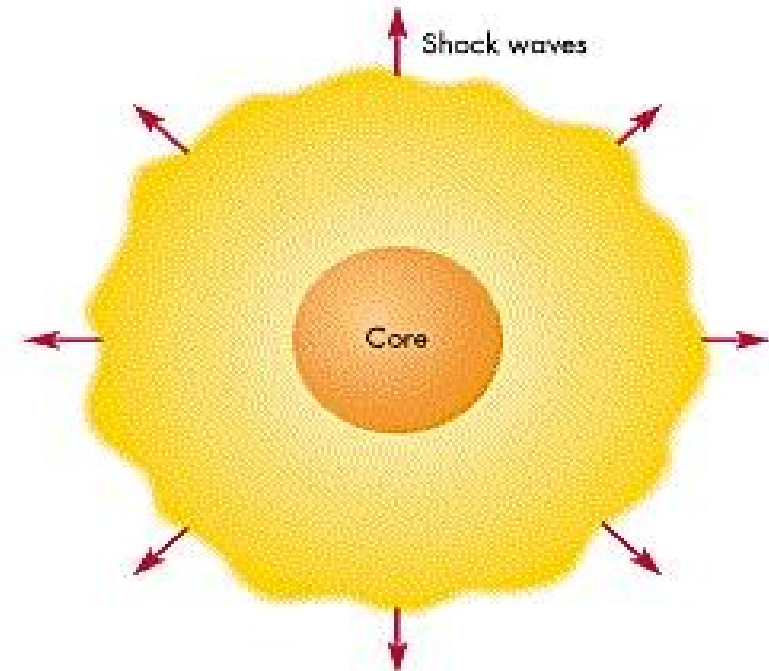
Supernova explosion



A Step 1: The iron core of the red giant collapses



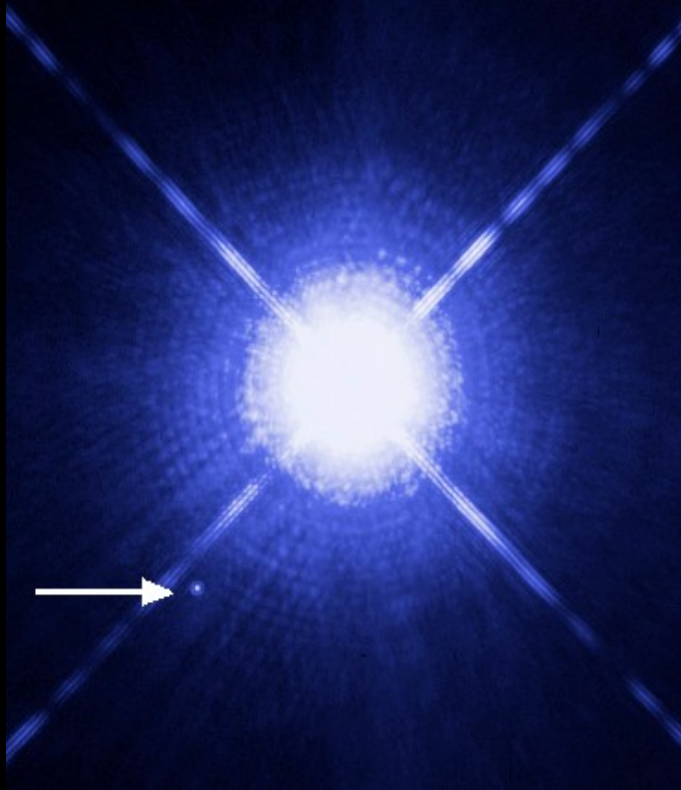
B Step 2: Neutron-rich core rebounds



C Step 3: The shock wave moves outward through the star

Compact objects

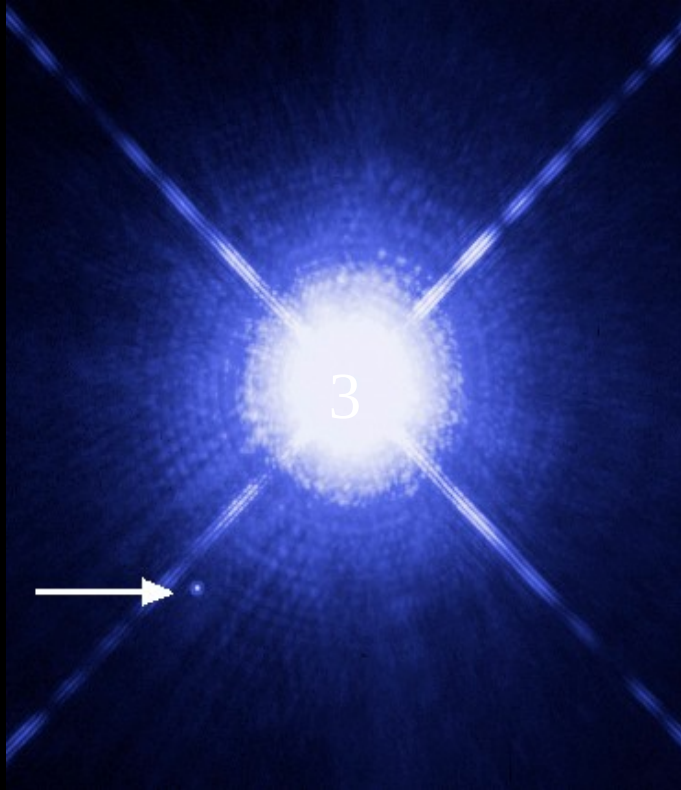
Sirius B



- Sirius B discovered in 1862
- Luminosity : 0.056 sol. Lum.
- Temp. : 25 000° K

- Radius ?

White Dwarfs

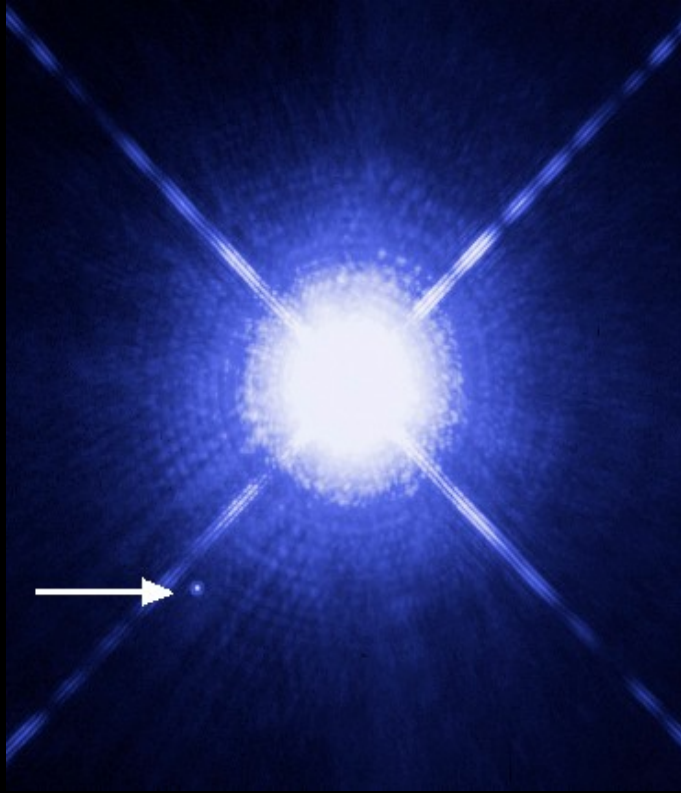


- Sirius B discovered in 1862
- Luminosity : 0.056 sol. Lum.
- Temp. : 25 000° K

- $$R = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\sigma T^4}} \simeq 0.01R_{\odot}$$

- Density ?

White Dwarfs



- Sirius B discovered in 1862
- Luminosity : 0.056 sol. Lum.
- Temp. : 25 000° K

- $$R = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\sigma T^4}} \simeq 0.01R_{\odot}$$

- $$\rho = \frac{3M}{4\pi R^3} \simeq 10^6 \text{ g/cm}^3$$

Degenerate gas

For a degenerate gas :

$$\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right)^2 \frac{R^3 p_f^3}{\hbar^3} \simeq \frac{M}{m_p} \quad \rightarrow \quad p_f = \left(\frac{3\rho}{4\pi m_p}\right)^{1/3} \hbar$$

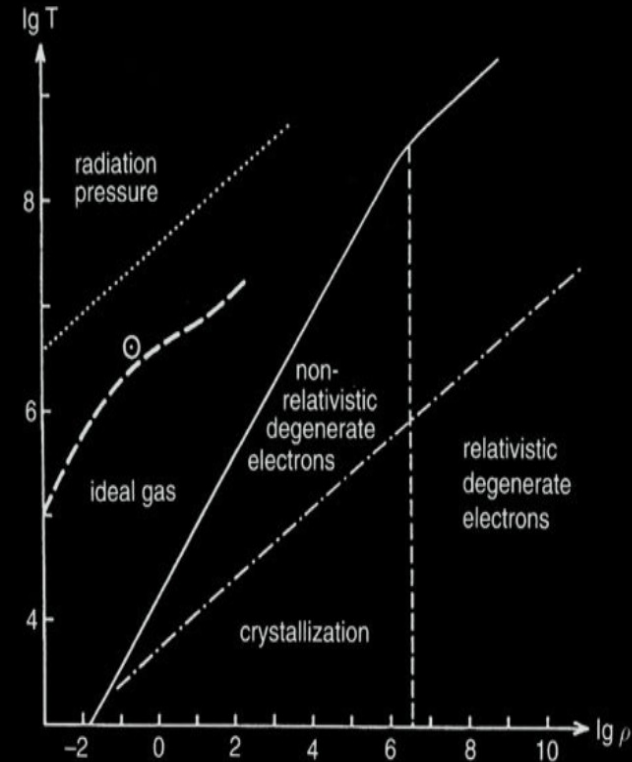
In a ideal gas :

$$E = \frac{3}{2}KT = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

Therefore :

$$3mKT \gg \left(\frac{3\rho}{4\pi m_p}\right)^{2/3} \hbar^2$$

$$\rho \ll 4\sqrt{3}\pi \left(\frac{mKT}{\hbar}\right)^{3/2} m_p$$



A sketch of the density–temperature plane showing the regions in which different types of equation of state are applicable. In addition to the regions discussed in the text, the diagram also shows the regions in which radiation pressure exceeds the gas pressure and also the region in which the degenerate gas is expected to become a solid, that is, it represents the melting temperature of the stellar material. The heavy dashed line shows the location of the Sun from its core to envelope (Kippenhahn and Weigert, 1990).

The Chandrasekhar's limit

General argument by **Landau** (1932) on limiting mass for a degenerate gas of **electrons** (WDs) or **neutrons** (NSs)

N fermions in star of radius $R \Rightarrow n \sim N/R^3$

Volume per fermion $\sim 1/n$ (Pauli exclusion principle) and momentum $\sim \hbar n^{1/3}$ (Heisenberg principle)

Fermi energy of fermionic gas in relativistic regime:

$$E_F = p_F c \sim \hbar n^{1/3} c \sim \hbar c N^{1/3} / R$$

Gravitational energy per fermion:

$$E_G \sim -GMm_B/R \quad (M = Nm_B, \text{ most of the mass in baryons})$$

Equilibrium at a minimum of the total energy function:

$$E = E_F + E_G = \hbar c N^{1/3} / R - GNm_B^2 / R$$

The Chandrasekhar's limit

$$E(N) = E_F + E_G = \hbar c N^{1/3}/R - GNm_B^2/R$$

For arbitrary large N , E is always negative \Rightarrow if R decreases, E continues to decrease \Rightarrow collapse continues indefinitely $\Rightarrow M_{max}$

For small N , first term dominates ($E > 0$) \Rightarrow minimum at $E(N)=0$

$$N_{max} \sim (\hbar c/Gm_B^2)^{3/2} \sim 2 \times 10^{57} \Rightarrow M_{max} \sim N_{max} m_B \sim 1.7 M_{\odot}$$

From this simplified calculation, same M_{max} for WDs and NSs.

Equilibrium radius: $E_F \sim mc^2$ in the relativistic regime and m is the mass of electrons or neutrons, giving WD and NS radius, respectively

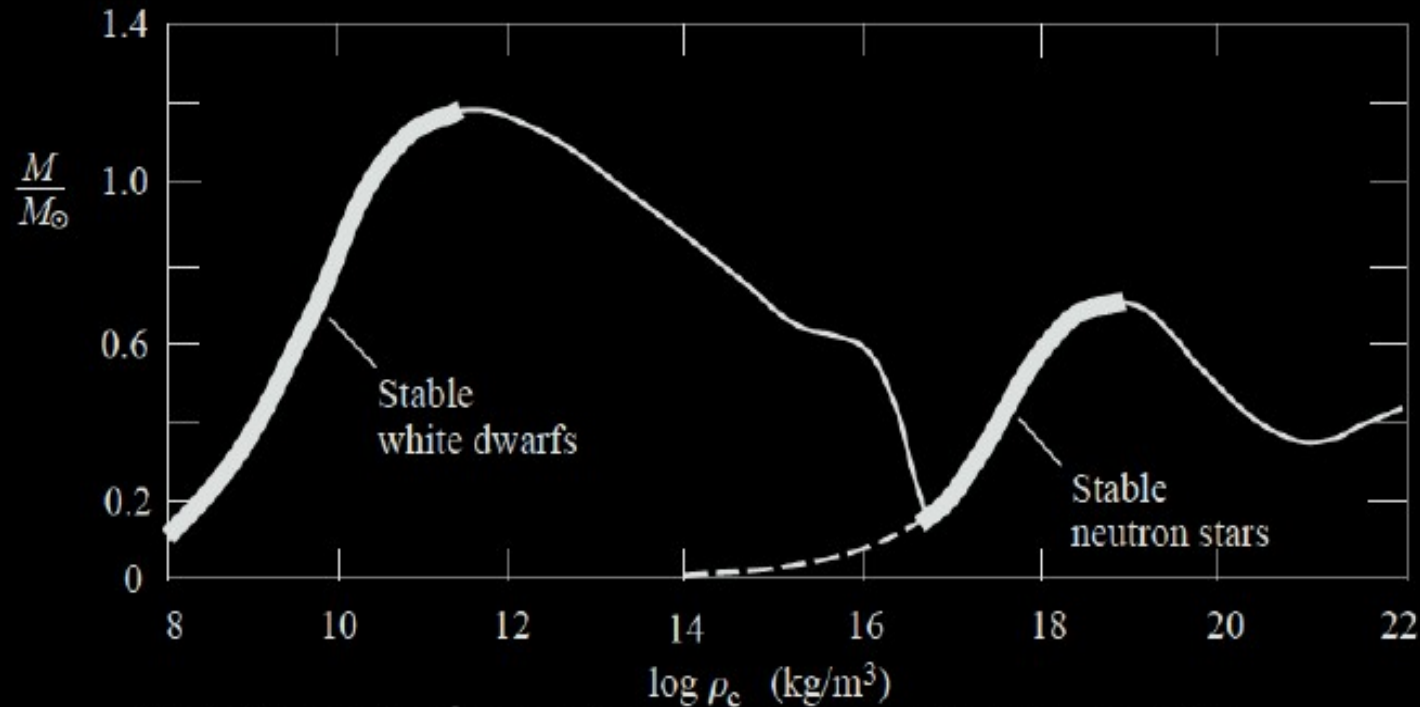
$$E_F \sim \hbar c N^{1/3}/R \sim mc^2 \quad R \sim \hbar/mc(N_{max})^{1/3} \sim \hbar/mc (\hbar c/Gm_B^2)^{1/2}$$

$$R_{WD} \sim 5 \times 10^8 \text{ cm for } m=m_e; \quad R_{NS} \sim 3 \times 10^5 \text{ cm for } m=m_n$$

NS radii m_n/m_e times smaller than WD radii

Stability of Wds and NSs

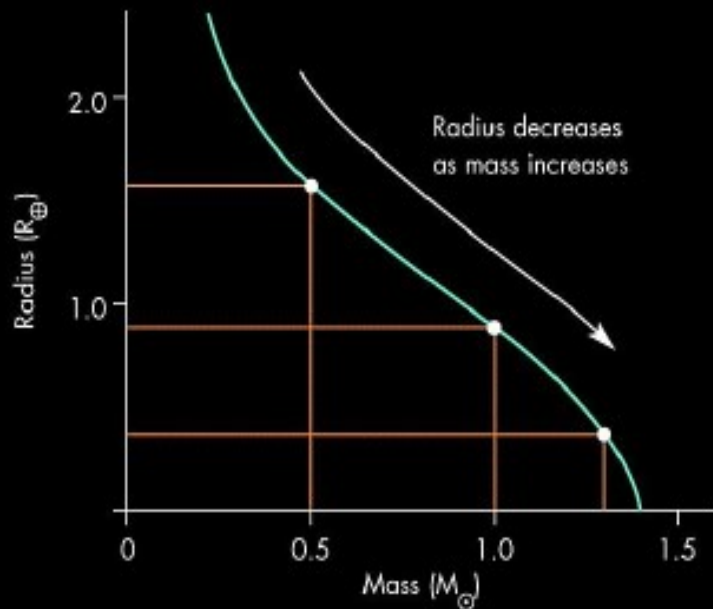
HW (1958) and OV (1939) equations of state, *ignoring nuclear forces*.



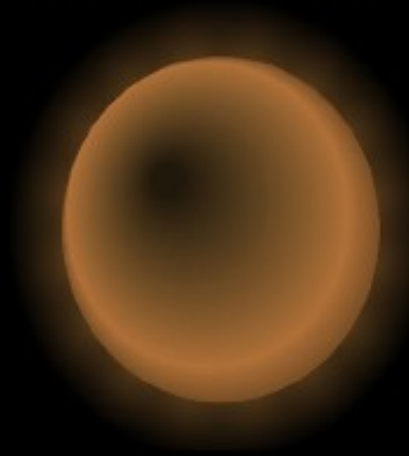
Stability only if mass increase implies larger density
 \Rightarrow larger pressure to contrast gravity ($P \propto \rho^\gamma$)

White Dwarfs

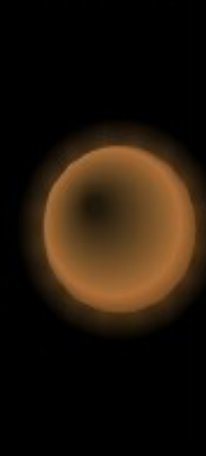
- The more mass the star has, the *smaller* the star becomes!
 - increased gravity makes the star denser
 - greater density increases degeneracy pressure to balance gravity



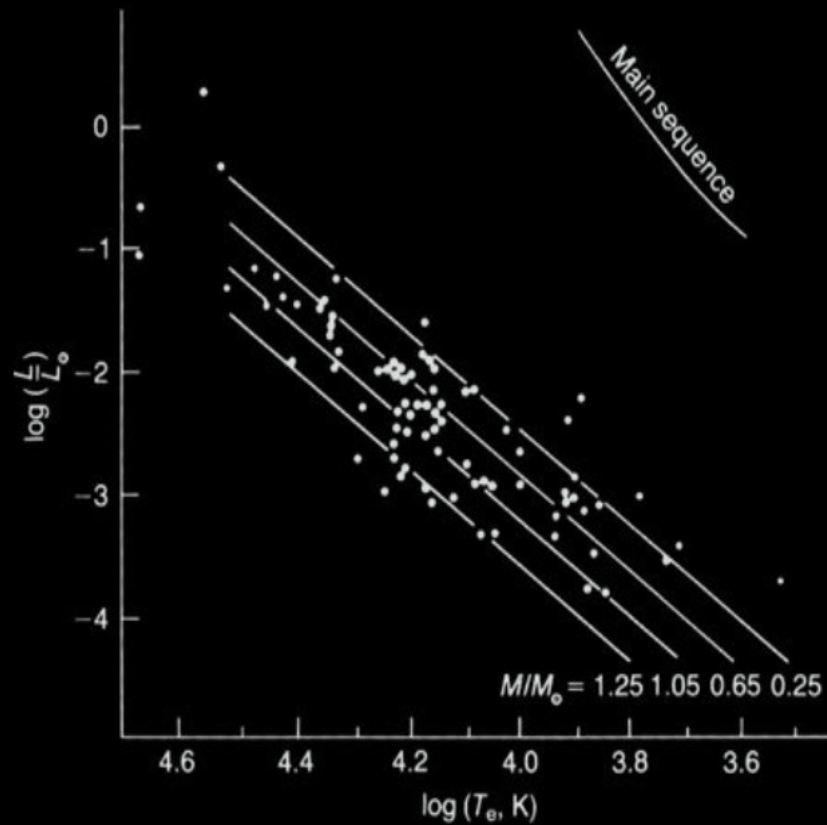
$1.0M_{\text{Sun}}$ white dwarf



$1.3M_{\text{Sun}}$ white dwarf



White Dwarfs

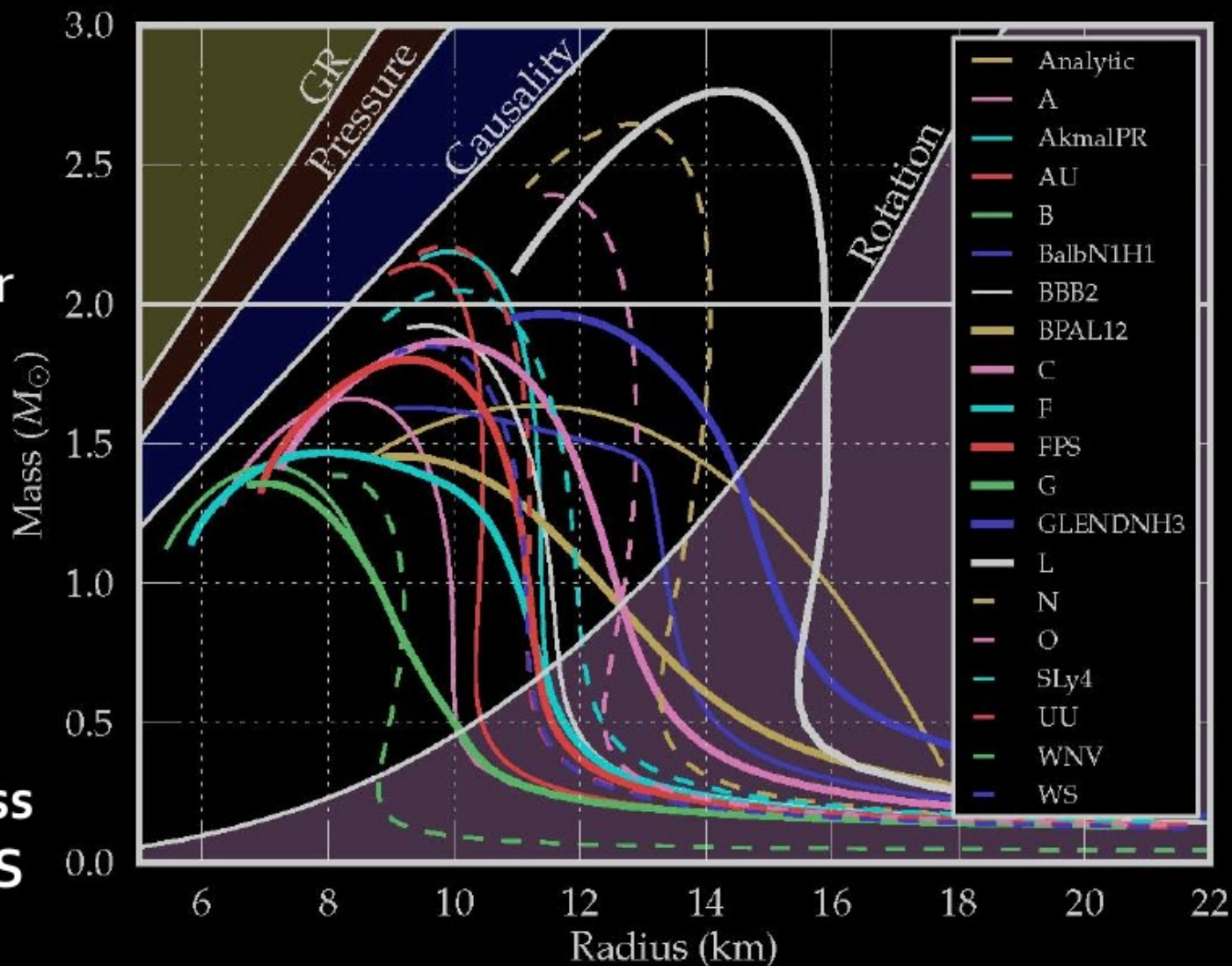


Neutrons Stars

To determine NS Equation of State (EoS) we need to know the behavior of matter at supranuclear density and use General Relativity

$$\left(\frac{GM_{NS}}{R_{NS}c^2} \approx 0.1 \right)$$

Maximum NS mass < 3 M_⊙ for any EoS



Neutrons Stars

Surface layers $\rho \leq 10^6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

- Atomic polymers of ^{56}Fe in the form of a close packed solid.
- Strong surface magnetic fields \rightarrow the atoms become cylindrical, the matter behaves like a one-dimensional solid
- High conductivity parallel to the magnetic field and zero conductivity across it.

Outer Crust $10^6 \leq \rho \leq 4.3 \times 10^{11} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

- Solid region of matter similar to that found in white dwarfs, heavy nuclei forming a Coulomb lattice embedded in a relativistic degenerate gas of electrons.
- Inverse β decay increases the numbers of neutron-rich nuclei which would be unstable on Earth.

Inner Crust $4.3 \times 10^{11} \leq \rho \leq 2 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

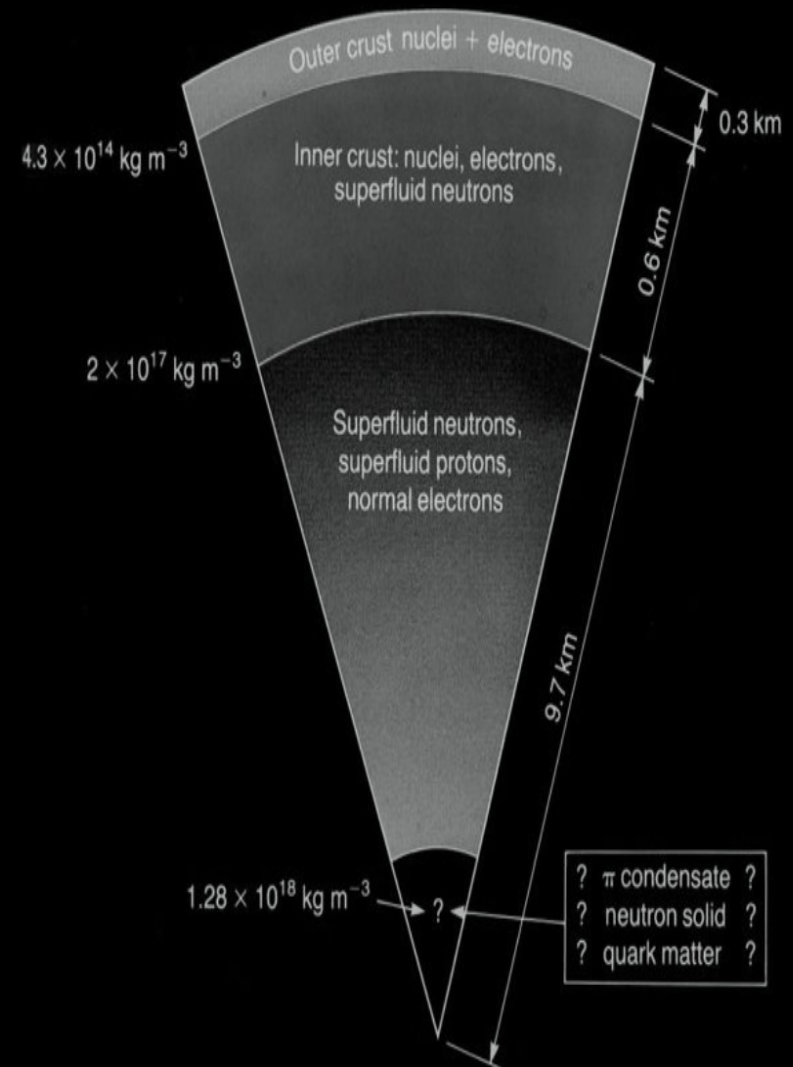
- Lattice of neutron-rich nuclei together with free degenerate neutrons and a degenerate relativistic electron gas.
- Nuclei begin to dissolve, the neutron fluid provides most of the pressure.

Neutron liquid phase $\rho > 2 \times 10^{14} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

- Mainly of neutrons with a small concentration of protons and electrons.

Core $\rho \geq 3 \times 10^{15} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$

- May or may not exist, it depends upon the behaviour of matter in bulk at very high energies and densities.
- Neutron solid ? quark matter ? (Camenzind 2007).



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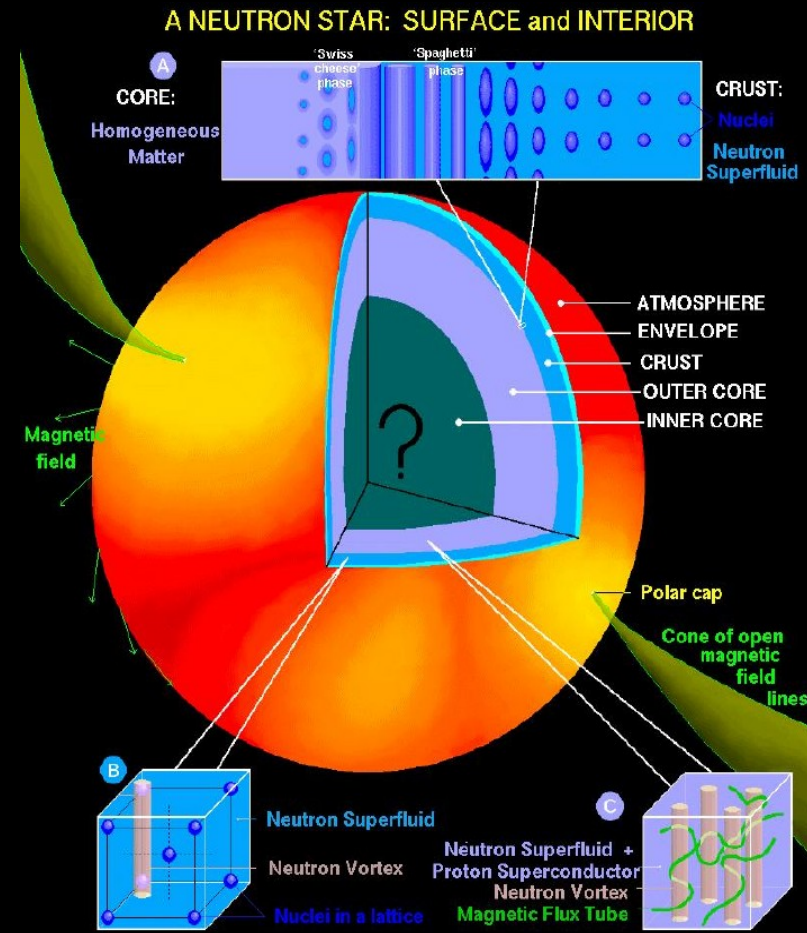
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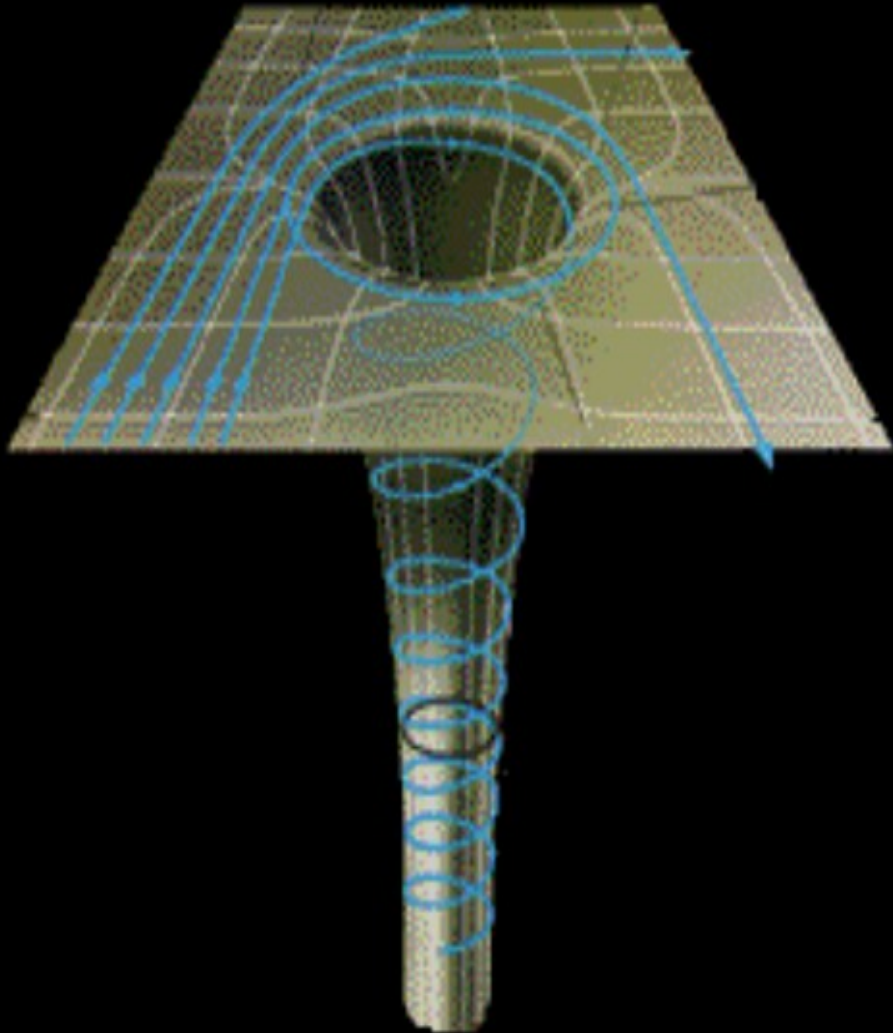
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BH: Einstein & Schwarzschild

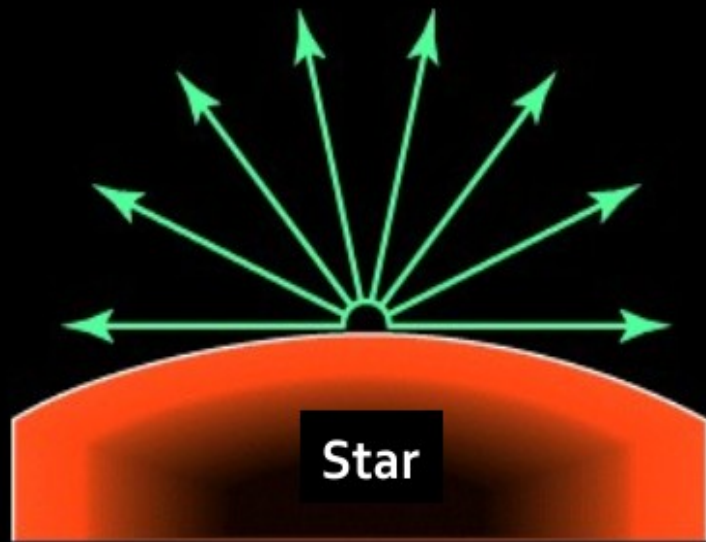


Black holes are a fundamental prediction of the theory of general relativity (GR; Einstein 1915).

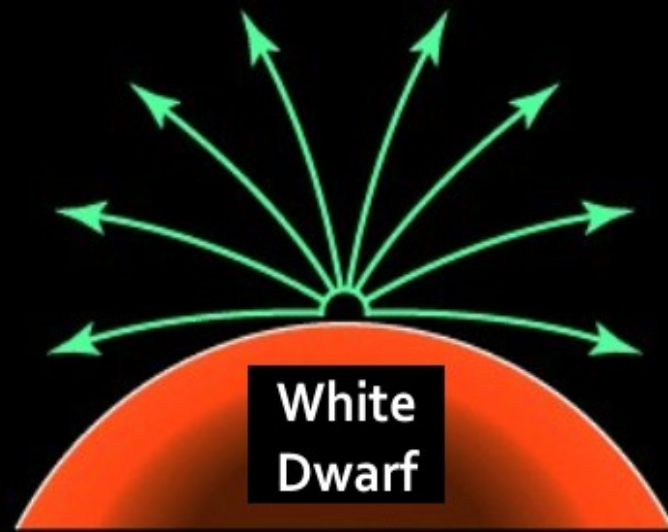
A defining feature of black holes is their event horizon, a one-way causal boundary in spacetime from which not even light can escape (Schwarzschild 1916).

Schwarzschild radius:

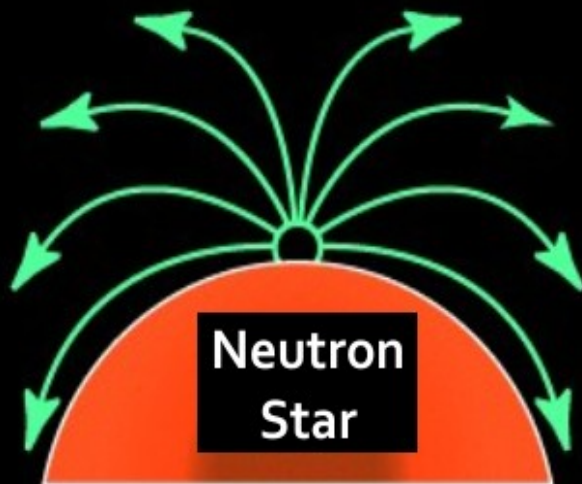
$$R_S = \frac{2GM}{c^2} \approx 3 \frac{M}{M_{Sun}} \text{ km}$$



a



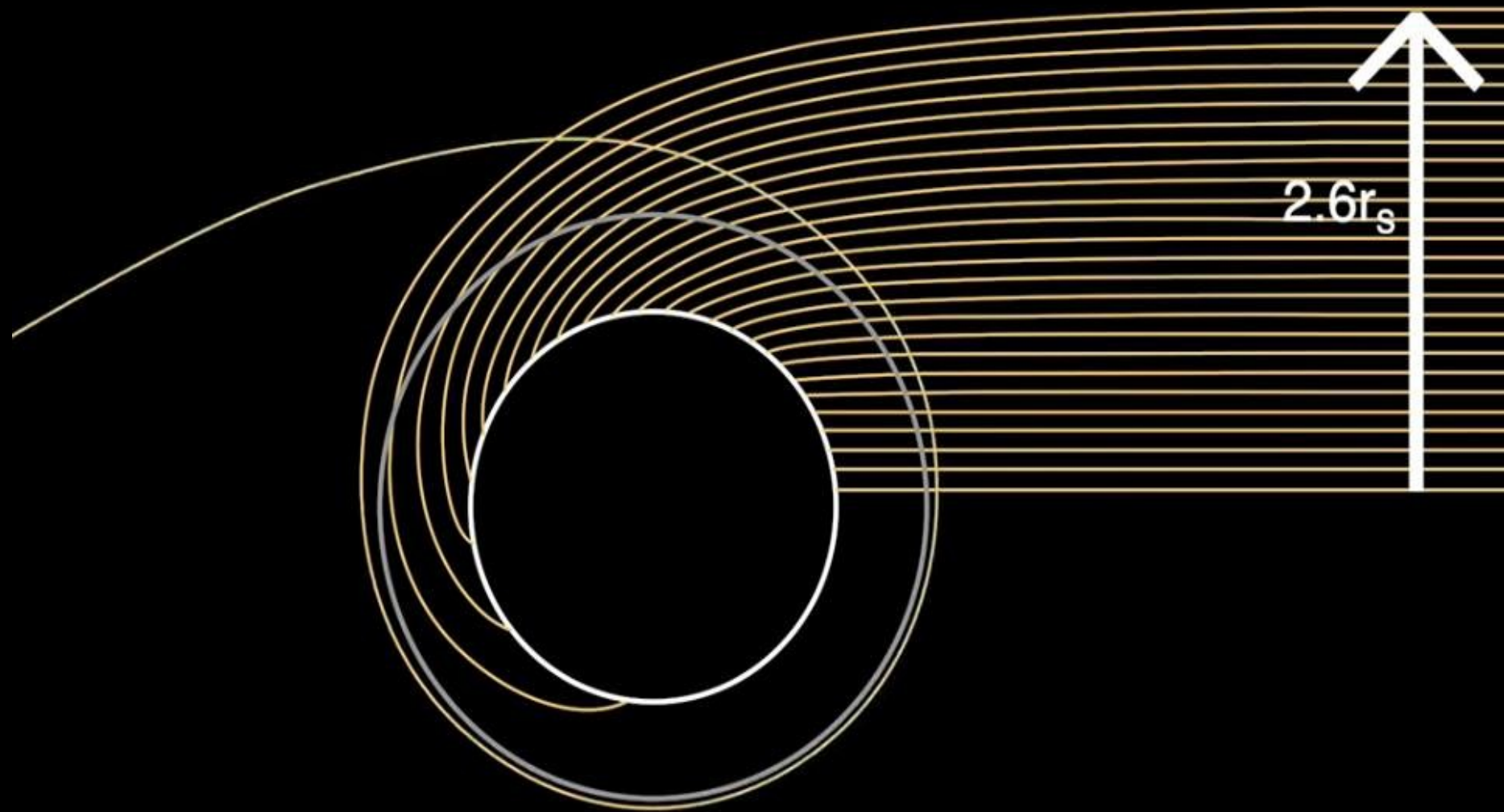
b



c



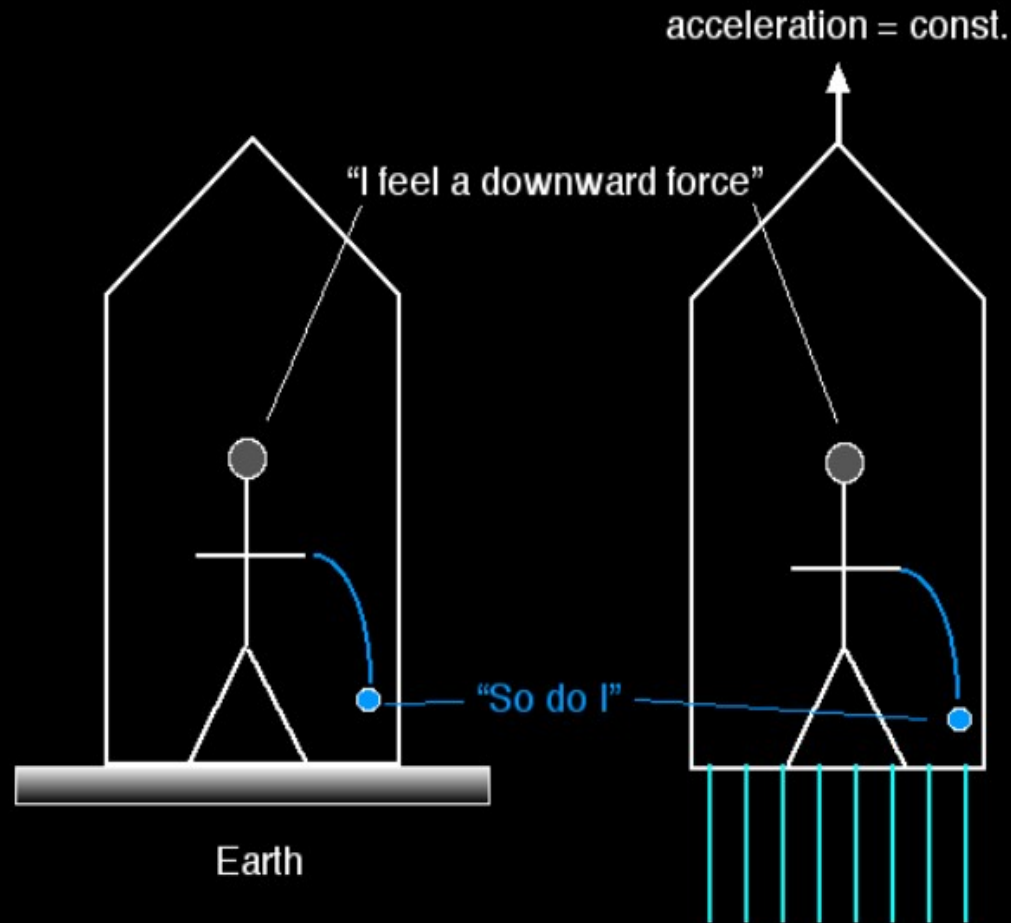
d





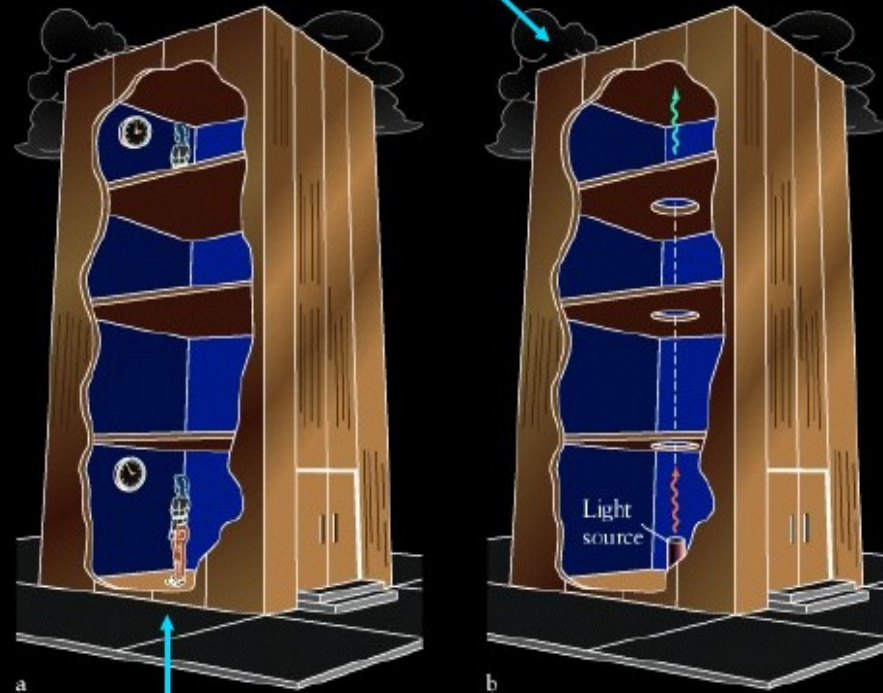
General Relativity

The force of gravity is indistinguishable from the force due to accelerated motion.



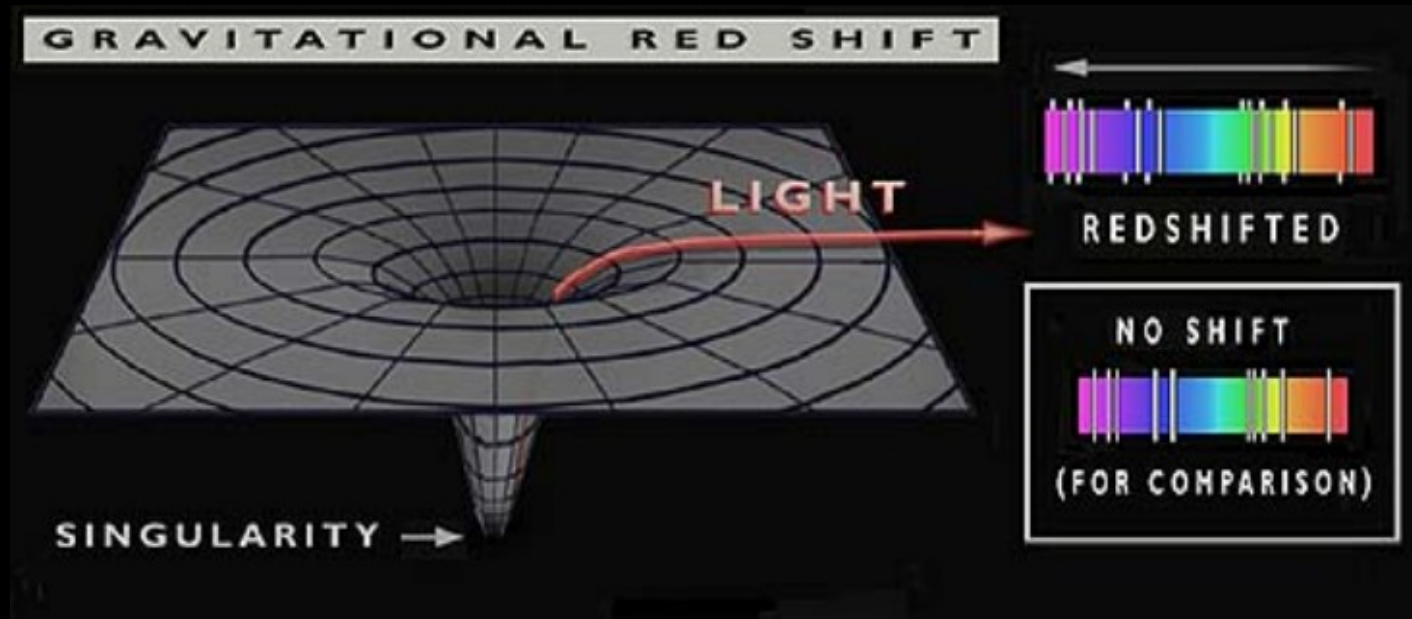
Equivalence principle

Light loses energy as it travels away from a source of gravity



Equivalent viewpoint: time runs more slowly the closer you are to a source of gravity!

Gravitational redshift



$$\frac{\nu}{\nu_r} = \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}\right)^{1/2} \Rightarrow \nu \rightarrow 0 \text{ for } r \rightarrow R_S$$

Black holes

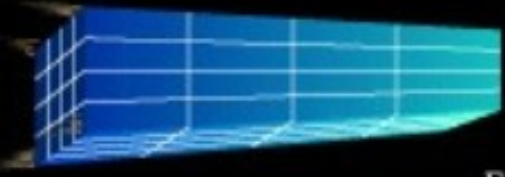
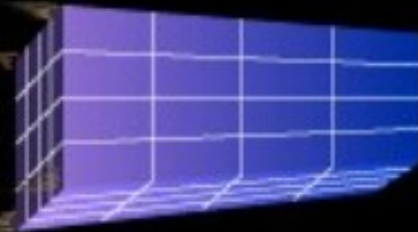
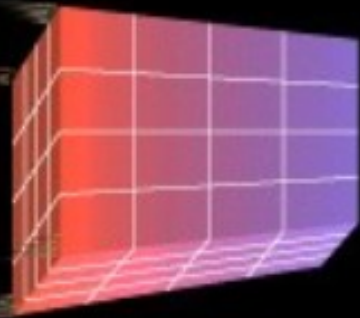
- With a sufficiently *large* black hole, a **freely falling observer** would pass right through the event horizon in a finite time, **would not feel the event horizon**.
- A **distant observer** watching the freely falling observer would never see him/her fall through the event horizon (takes an **infinite time**).
- Signals sent from the freely falling observer would be **time dilated** and **redshifted**.

Spaghettification

Probe far from
black hole



Probe close to black hole



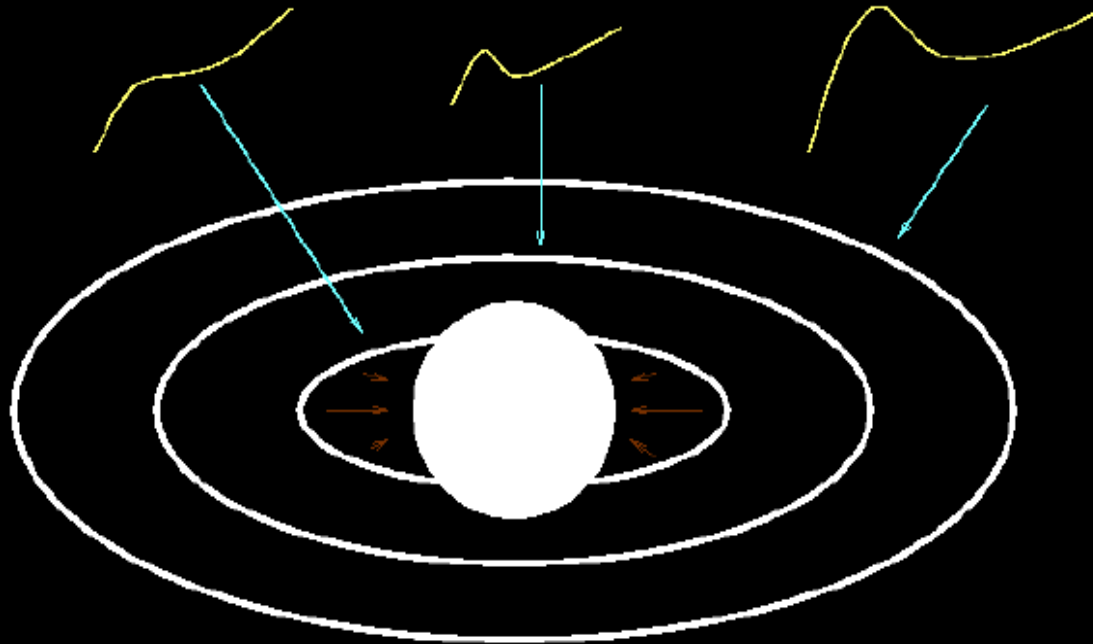
Black hole
Event horizon



Black holes

- Once **inside the event horizon**, **no communication** with the universe outside the event horizon is possible.
- But **incoming** signals from external world can enter.
- A black hole of mass M has exactly the same gravitational field as an ordinary mass M **at large distances**.

Black holes



By altering angular momentum, we get **stable orbits** at different radii: stable circular orbit at a minimum of potential.

At $R=6GM/c^2=3R_S$ the minimum becomes a point of inflection \Rightarrow **Innermost Stable Circular Orbit (ISCO)**

Hawking radiation

1. Pairs of virtual particles spontaneously appear and annihilate everywhere in the universe.

2. If a pair appears just outside a black hole's event horizon, tidal forces can pull the pair apart, preventing them from annihilating each other.



3. If one member of the pair crosses the event horizon, the other can escape into space, carrying energy away from the black hole.

Extremely low luminosity (undetectable), but may cause evaporation of micro-BH (formed at Big Bang?)

Black holes

Three parameters completely describe the structure of a BH

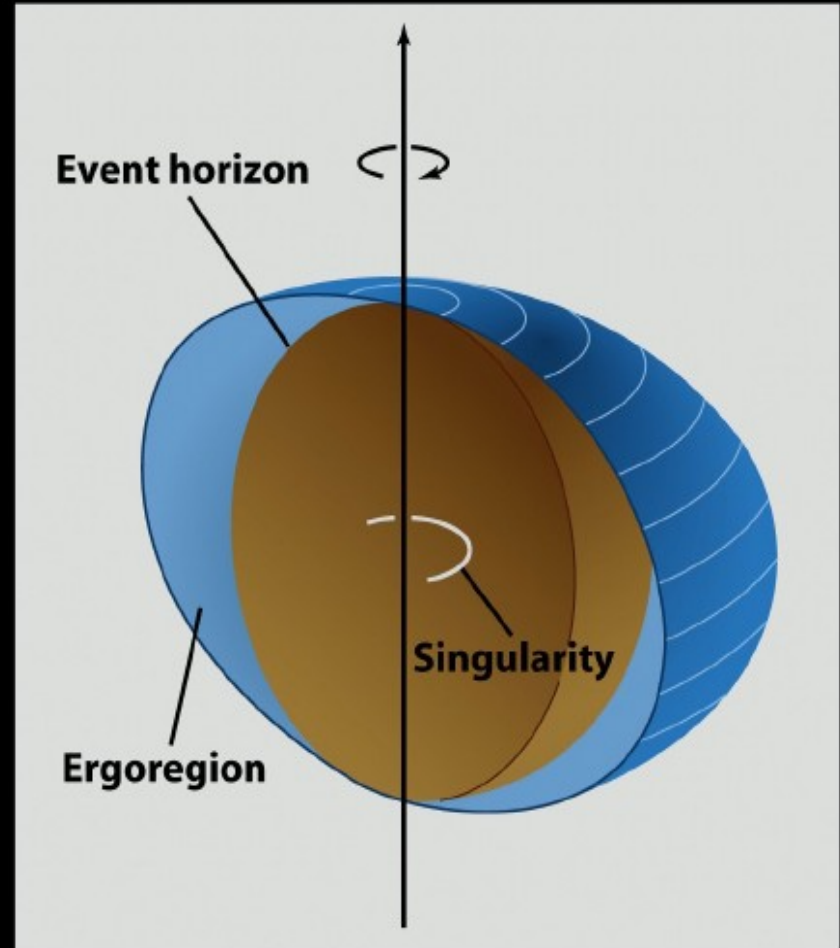
- Mass (M)
 - As measured by the black hole's effect on orbiting bodies, such as another star
- Total electric charge (Q)
 - As measured by the strength of the electric force ($Q = 0$)
- Spin = angular momentum (a_*)
 - How fast the black hole is spinning ($a_* < 1$)

Kerr black holes

- A rotating black hole has an **ergosphere** around the outside of the event horizon
- In the ergosphere, space and time themselves are dragged along with the rotation of the black hole
- If maximum spin ($a_* = 1$):
event horizon at

$$R = GM/c^2 = 1/2 R_S ;$$

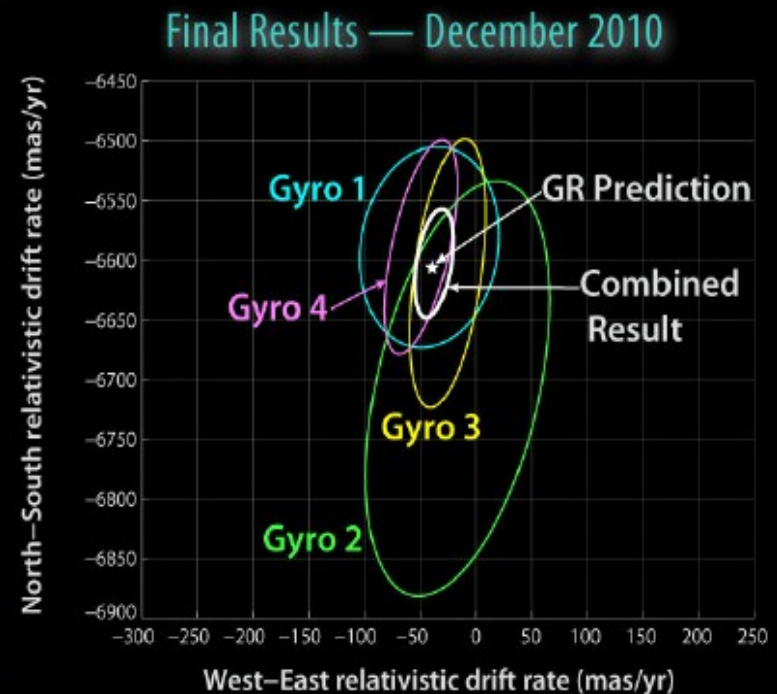
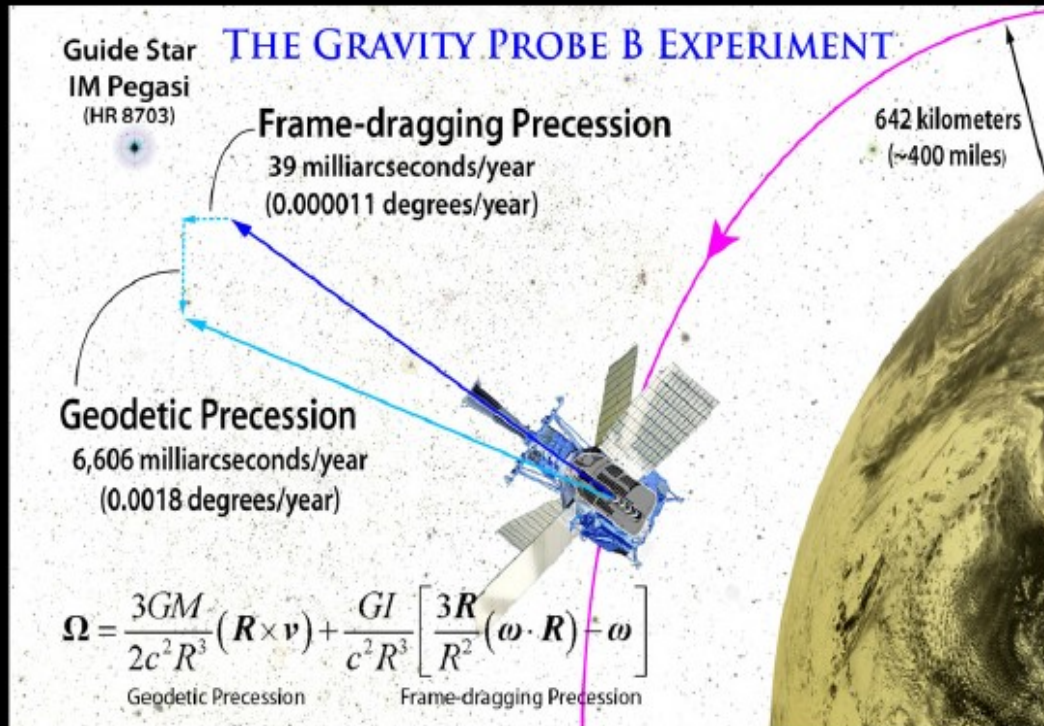
$$R_{ISCO} = GM/c^2 = R$$



A rotating mass has a tendency to pull space-time along with it

Gravity Probe B

Launched 20 April 2004 to test geodetic and frame-dragging GR effects, by means of cryogenic gyroscopes in Earth orbit



Binary systems

Accretion in binary systems

Compact star M_2 , normal star M_1 with $M_2 < M_1$



Normal star expanded or binary separation decreased \Rightarrow normal star feeds compact star

The mass function

$$a_* = a \frac{M_o}{M_* + M_o}$$

Kepler's 3rd law becomes:

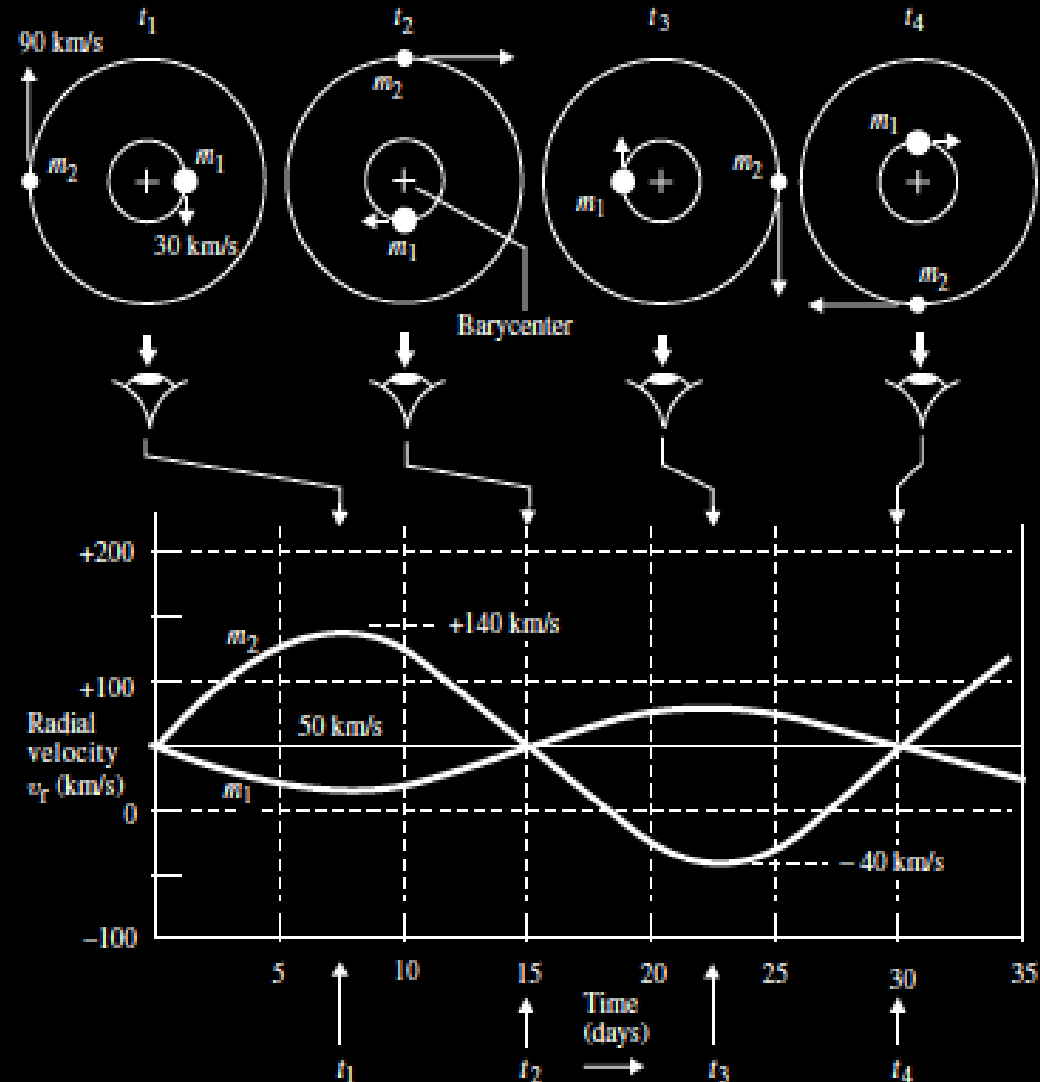
$$\omega^2 = G \frac{M_* + M_o}{a^3}$$

We can also measure :

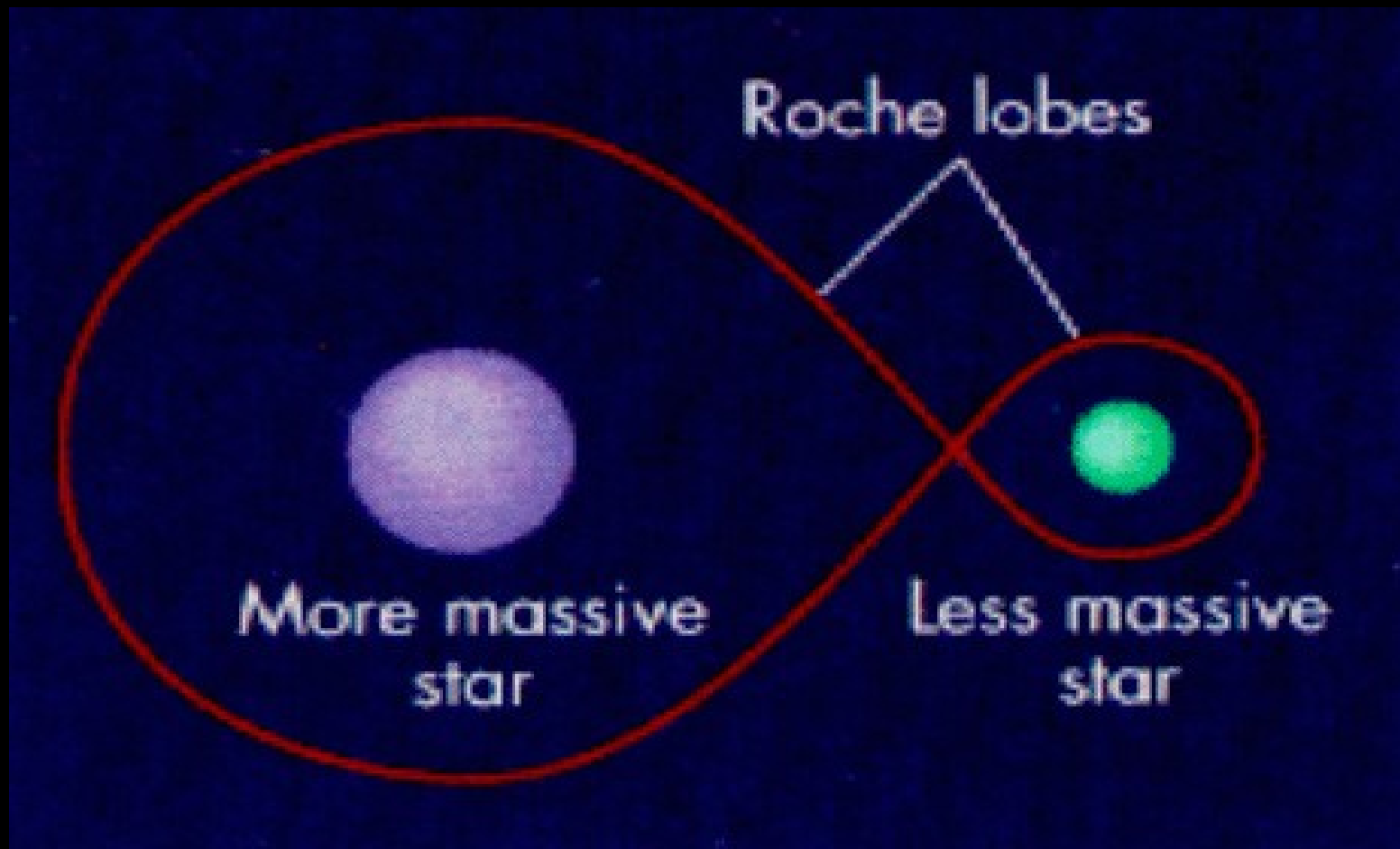
$$v_{max} = \omega a_* \sin(i)$$

We define *mass function* :

$$f = \frac{v_m^3}{\omega G} = \frac{M_o^3 \sin^3 i}{(M_* + M_o)^2}$$

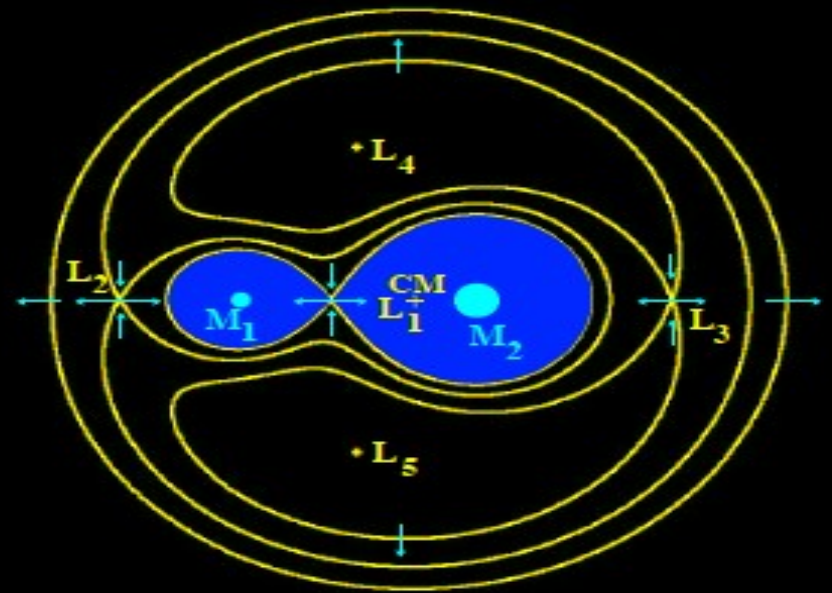
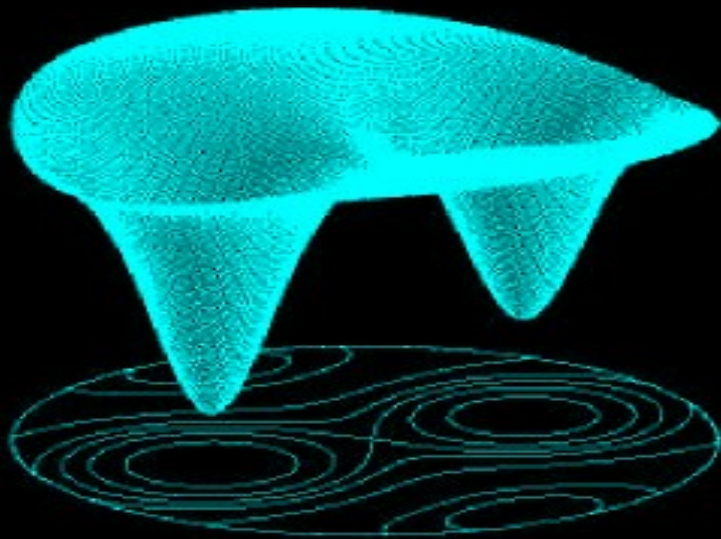


Roche Lobes



Roche lobes and Lagrangian points

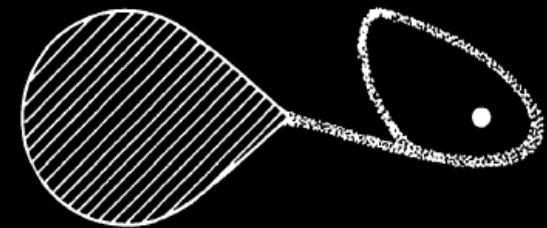
Test particle in binary system: equipotential surface



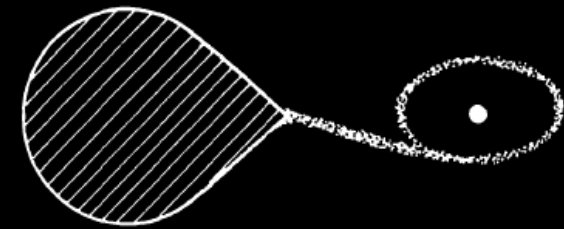
5 equilibrium points: Lagrangian points

If a star fills its Roche lobe \Rightarrow mass transfer \Rightarrow accretion

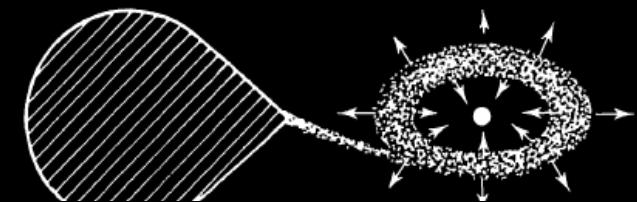
Formation of an accretion disk



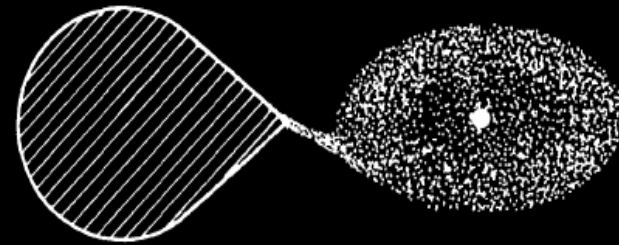
a) initial gas stream



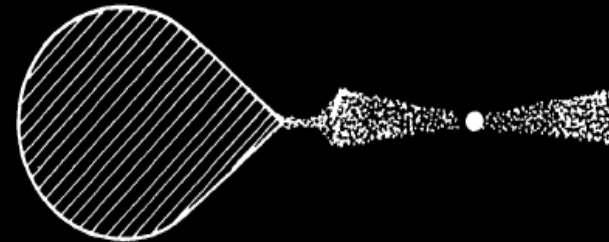
b) formation of ring



c) ring spreads



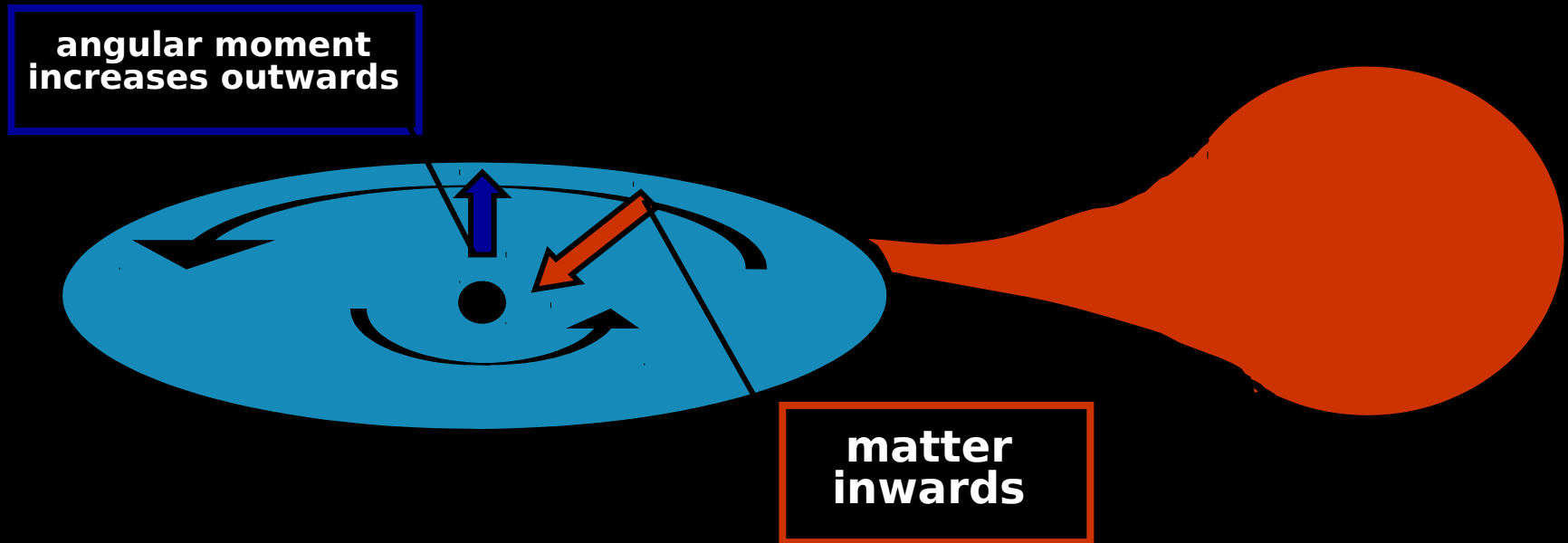
d) disk is formed



d') side view

Accretion disk formation

Matter circulates around the compact object:



Accretion disk

- Material transferred has high **angular momentum** so must lose it before accreting => disk forms
- Gas loses angular momentum through collisions, shocks, **viscosity** and magnetic fields: kinetic energy converted into **heat** and radiated.
- Matter sinks deeper into **gravity** of compact object

Viscosity

Accretion Disc



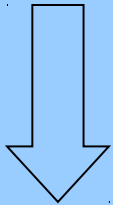
Disc+ viscosity

☐ Converts shear to heat

☐ Heat radiated away

☐ Energy being lost

Gravitational potential energy

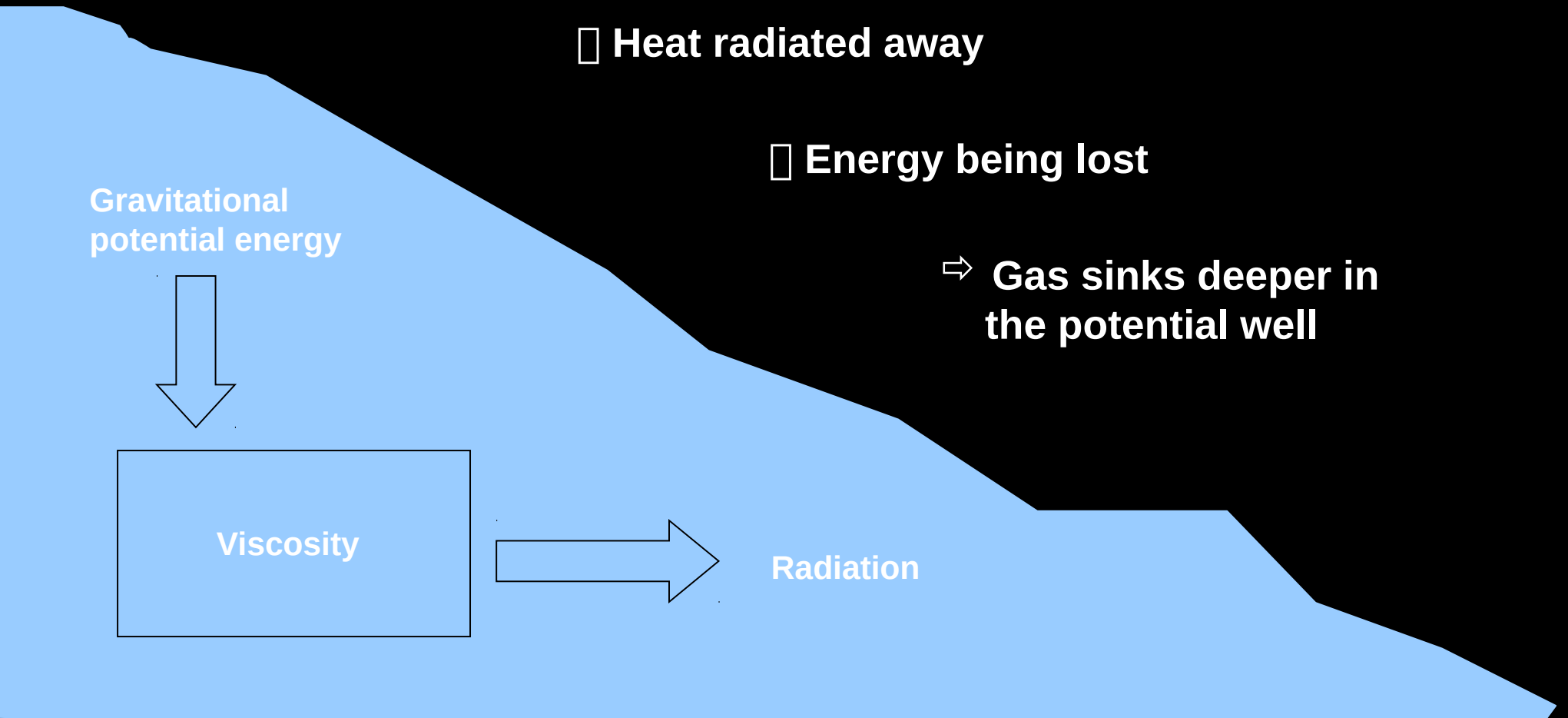


⇒ Gas sinks deeper in the potential well

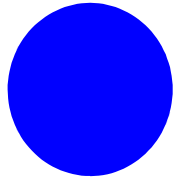
Viscosity



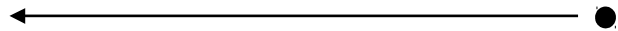
Radiation



Gravitational Energy



M,R



m

surface gravity: $g = \frac{GM}{r^2}$

grav. force: $F = mg$

work: $dE = Fdr$

total work / potential energy:

$$E = m \int_R^{\infty} g dr = m \int_R^{\infty} \frac{GM}{r^2} dr$$

$$E = m \left[\frac{GM}{r} \right]_R^{\infty}$$

$$E = \frac{GMm}{R}$$

Accretion: gravitational power plant

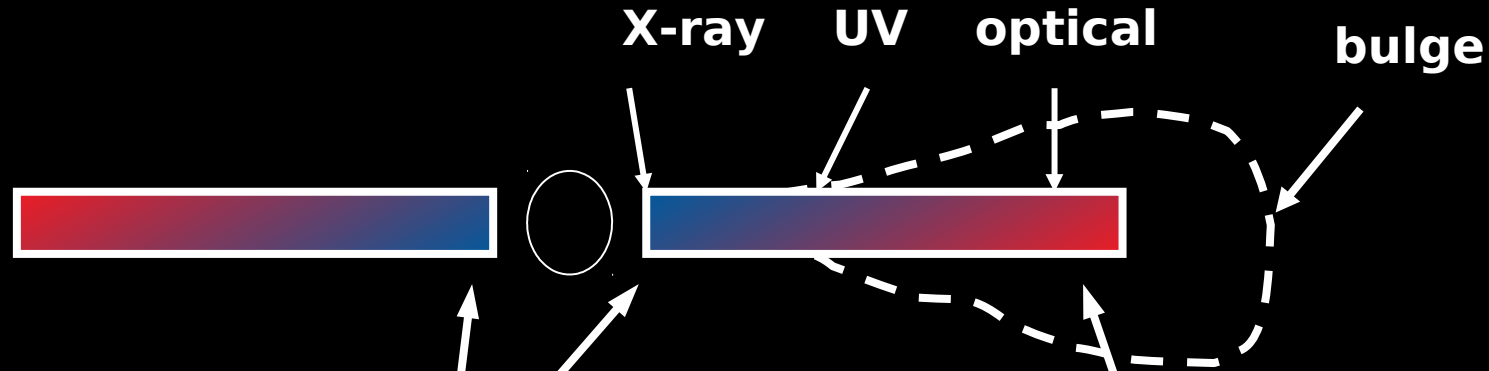
potential energy: $\frac{GM_c m}{R_c}$

→ kinetic energy: $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$

→ thermal energy: $\frac{3}{2}kT$

→ radiation: $h\nu$

Disk structure



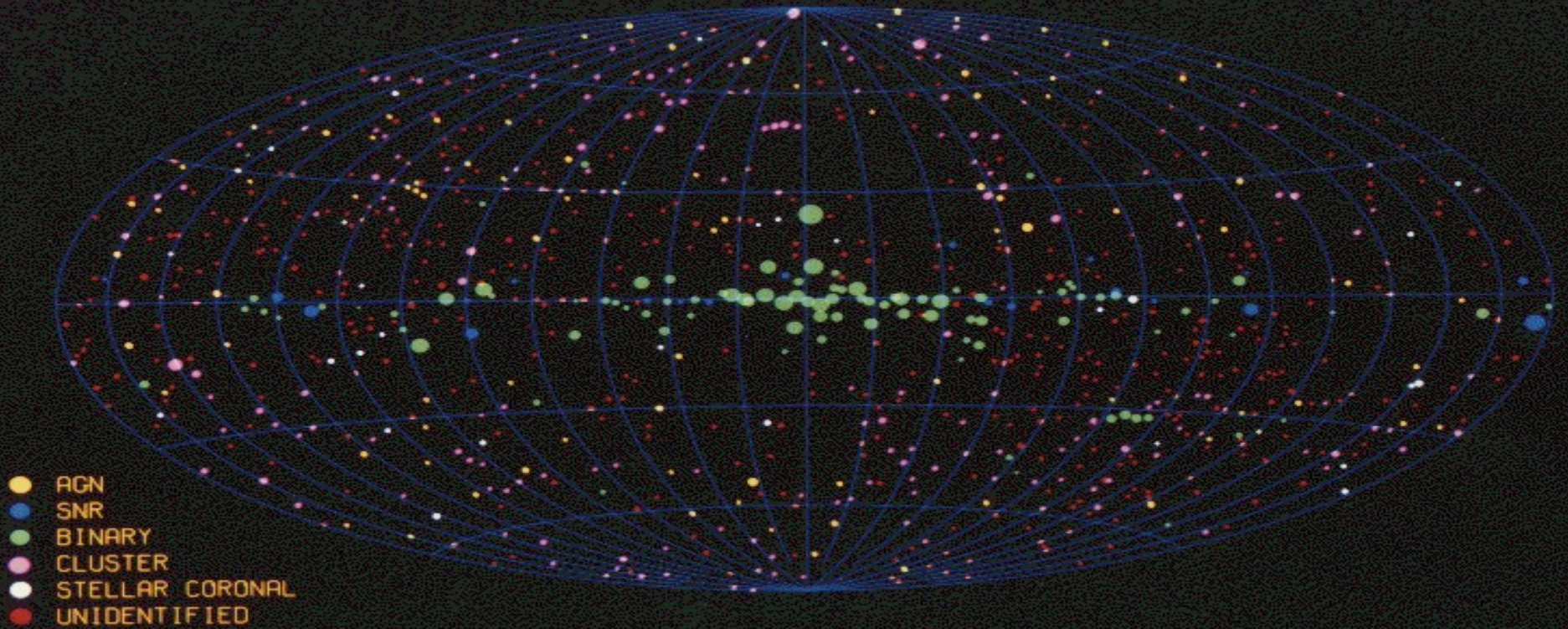
**Hot, optically-thin
inner region; emits
bremsstrahlung**

**Outer regions are cool,
optically-thick and emit
blackbody radiation**

The other half of the accretion luminosity is released very close to the star.

X-ray sky

HEAO A-1 ALL-SKY X-RAY CATALOG
NAVAL RESEARCH LABORATORY

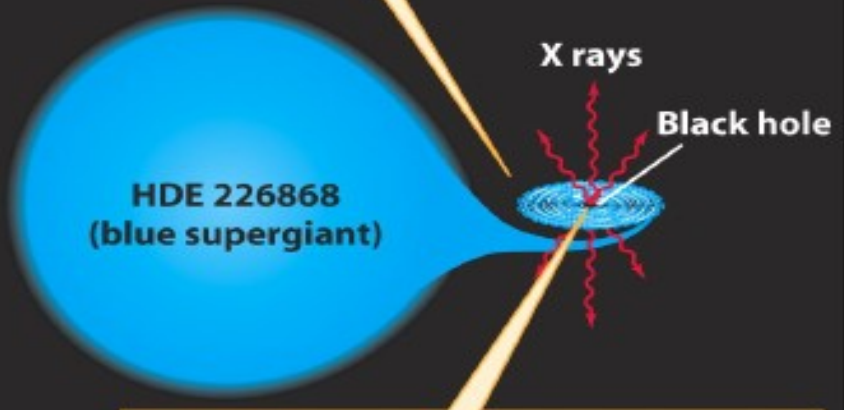


Cyg X-1

Bright X-ray sources when in accreting binary systems



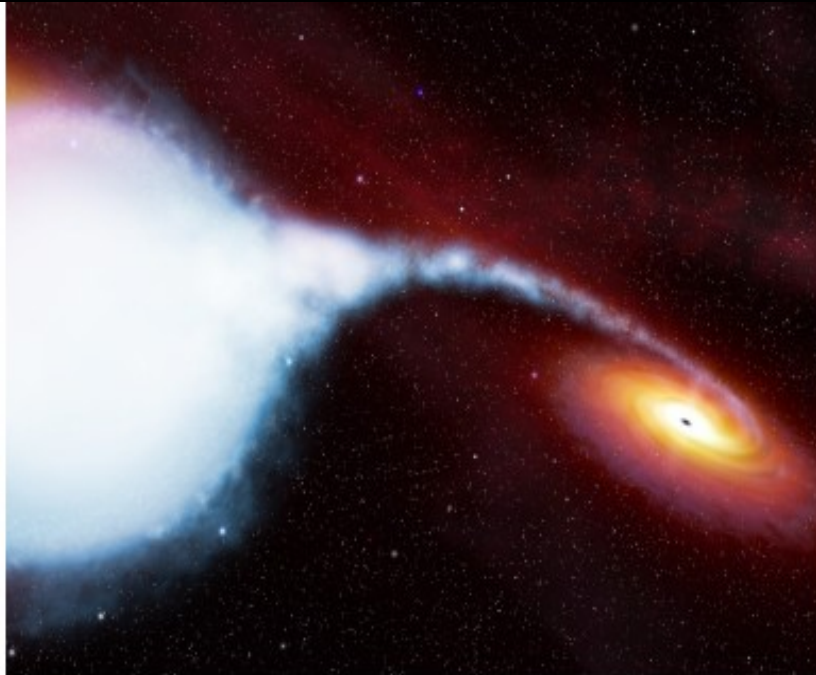
1. Gases from the supergiant are captured into an accretion disk around the black hole.



2. As gases spiral toward the black hole, they are heated by friction: Just outside the black hole, they are hot enough to emit X rays.

Cyg X-1: X-ray variability on < 1 s timescale; $M \sim 15 M_{\odot}$

Efficiency

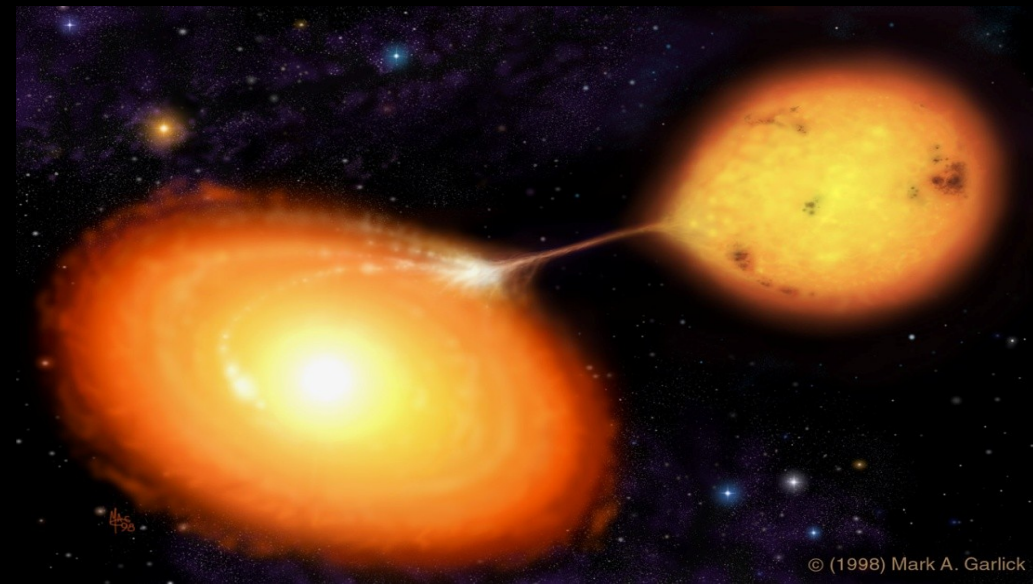


Gravitational energy at ISCO ($R_{ISCO} = 3R_S \sim 100 \text{ km}$ for a $10 M_\odot$ BH):

$$E_G \sim GmM/3R_S = GmMc^2/6GM = mc^2/6$$

Efficiency: $E_G/mc^2 \sim 1/6 \sim \mathbf{20\%} \gg 0.7\%$ (nuclear fusion)

Examples: White dwarf



$$M = 0.6 M_{\odot}$$

$$R = 10\,000 \text{ km}$$

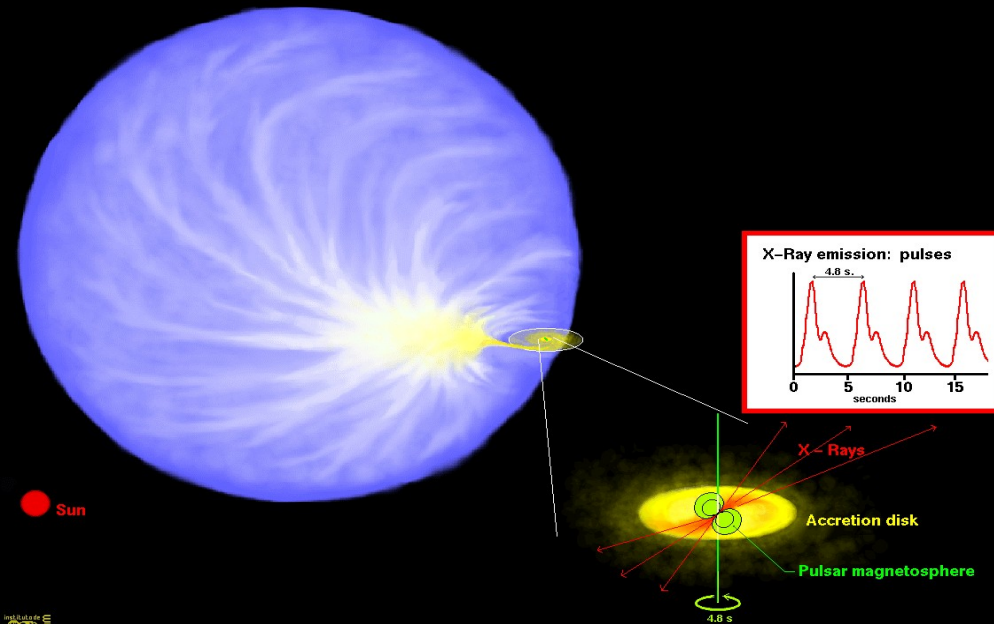
$$E = GMm/R$$

$$m = 1 \text{ g} \Rightarrow$$

$$E \approx 8 \times 10^{16} \text{ erg}$$

Example: Neutron star

CENTAURUS X-3: A HIGH MASS X-RAY BINARY



$$M = 1.4 M_{\odot}$$

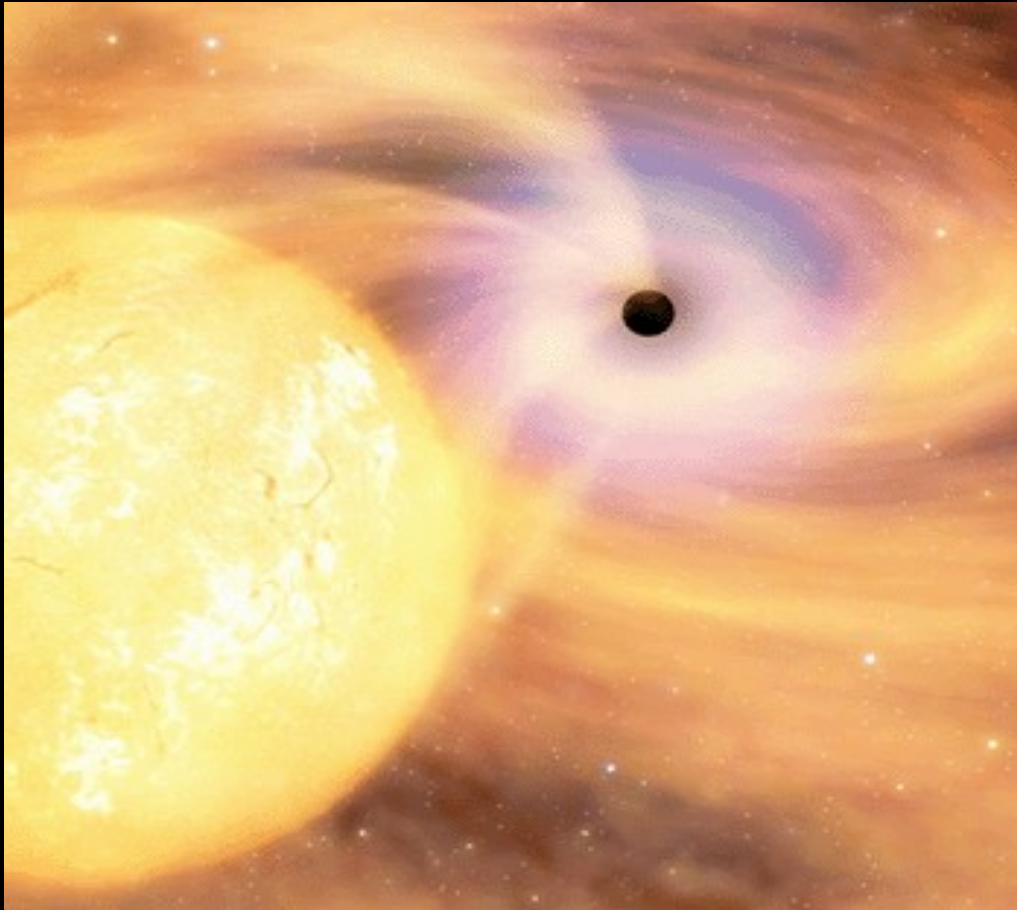
$$R = 10 \text{ km}$$

$$E = GMm/R$$

$$m = 1 \text{ g} \Rightarrow$$

$$E \approx 2 \times 10^{20} \text{ erg}$$

Example: Stellar black hole



$$M = 6 M_{\odot}$$

$$R \approx 2GM/c^2 \approx 18 \text{ km}$$

$$E = GMm/R \approx 0.5 mc^2$$

$$m = 1 \text{ g} \Rightarrow$$

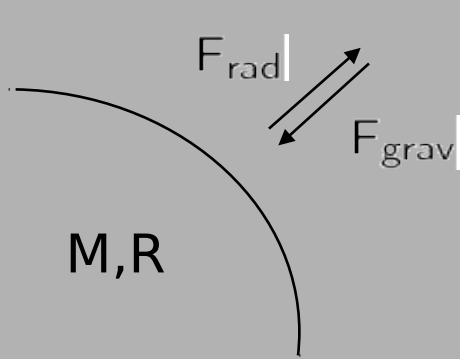
$$E \approx 4 \times 10^{20} \text{ erg}$$

$$m = 1 M_{\odot} \Rightarrow$$

$$E \approx 8 \times 10^{53} \text{ erg}$$

\Rightarrow If energy released in seconds/minutes: **GRB** luminosity (collapsar model)

The Eddington luminosity



$$L = 4\pi R^2 F \implies F_{\text{rad}} = \frac{\sigma_T L}{4\pi R^2 c}$$

$$m_p = 1830 m_e \implies F_{\text{grav}} = \frac{GMm_p}{R^2}$$

$$F_{\text{rad}} = F_{\text{grav}} \implies \boxed{L_E = \frac{4\pi GMm_p c}{\sigma_T}}$$

Accretion rate: \dot{M} (measured in [g/s] or [M_{\odot}/yr])

Accretion luminosity: $L_{\text{acc}} = \frac{GM\dot{M}}{R}$ [erg/s]

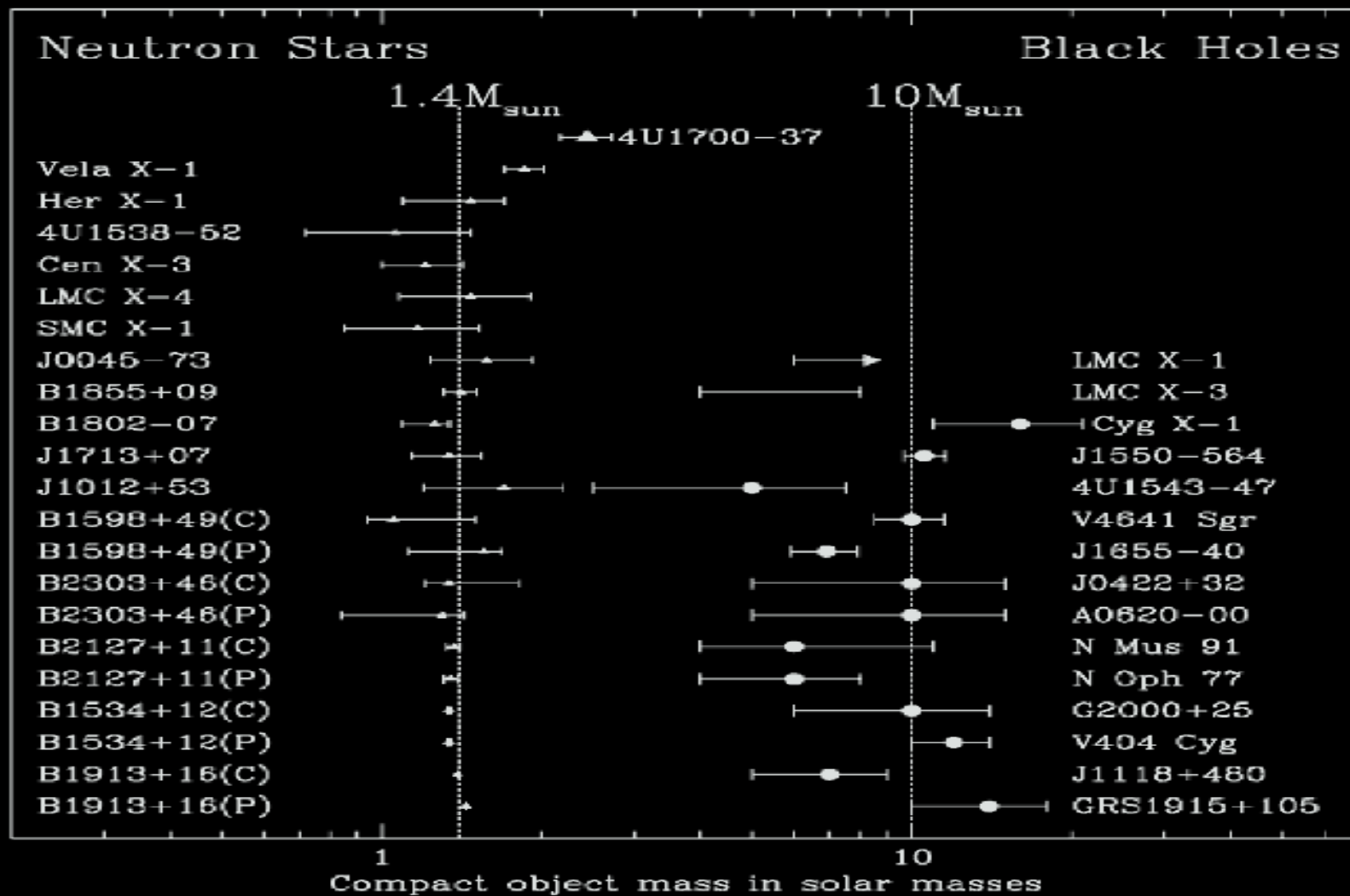
Maximum accretion rate onto a **neutron star**:

$$L_{E,NS} \approx 1.8 \times 10^{38} \text{ erg/s} \implies \dot{M}_{E,NS} = \frac{L_{E,NS} R}{GM} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot/\text{yr}}$$

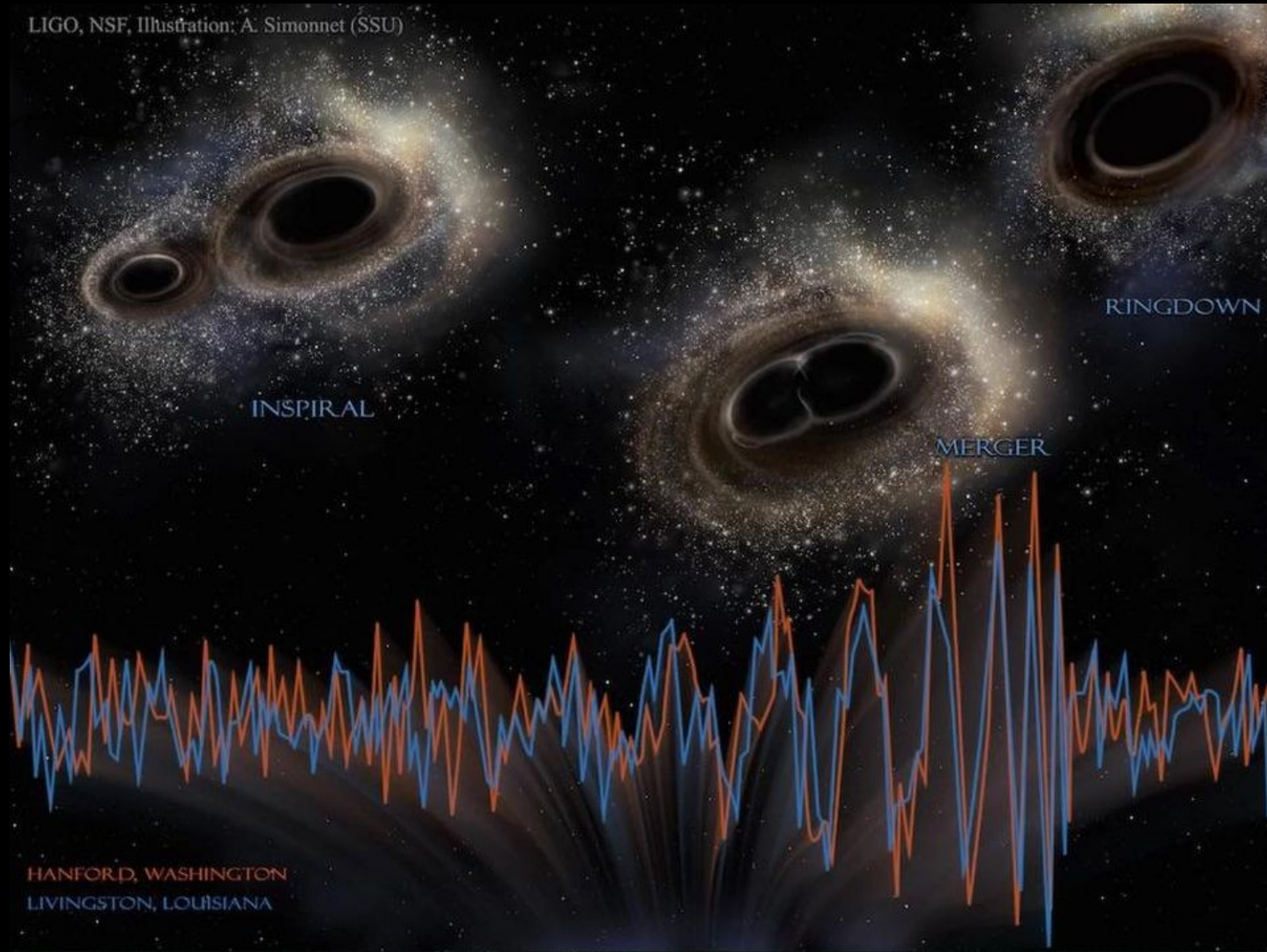
Maximum accretion onto a **supermassive** (10^8) **black hole**:

$$L_{E,AGN} \approx 10^{46} \text{ erg/s} \implies \dot{M}_{E,AGN} \approx 0.5 M_{\odot/\text{yr}}$$

Compact objects on binary systems

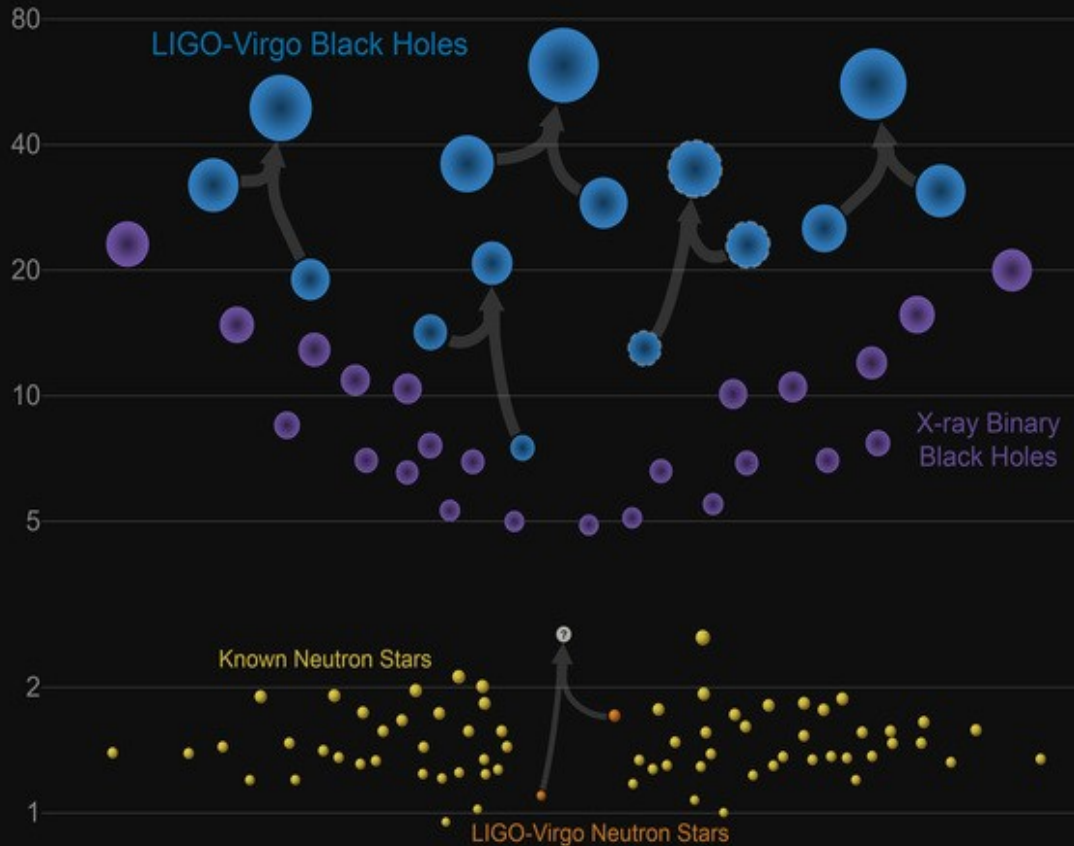


GWs detection



BHs masses

Masses in the Stellar Graveyard *in Solar Masses*



Quasars

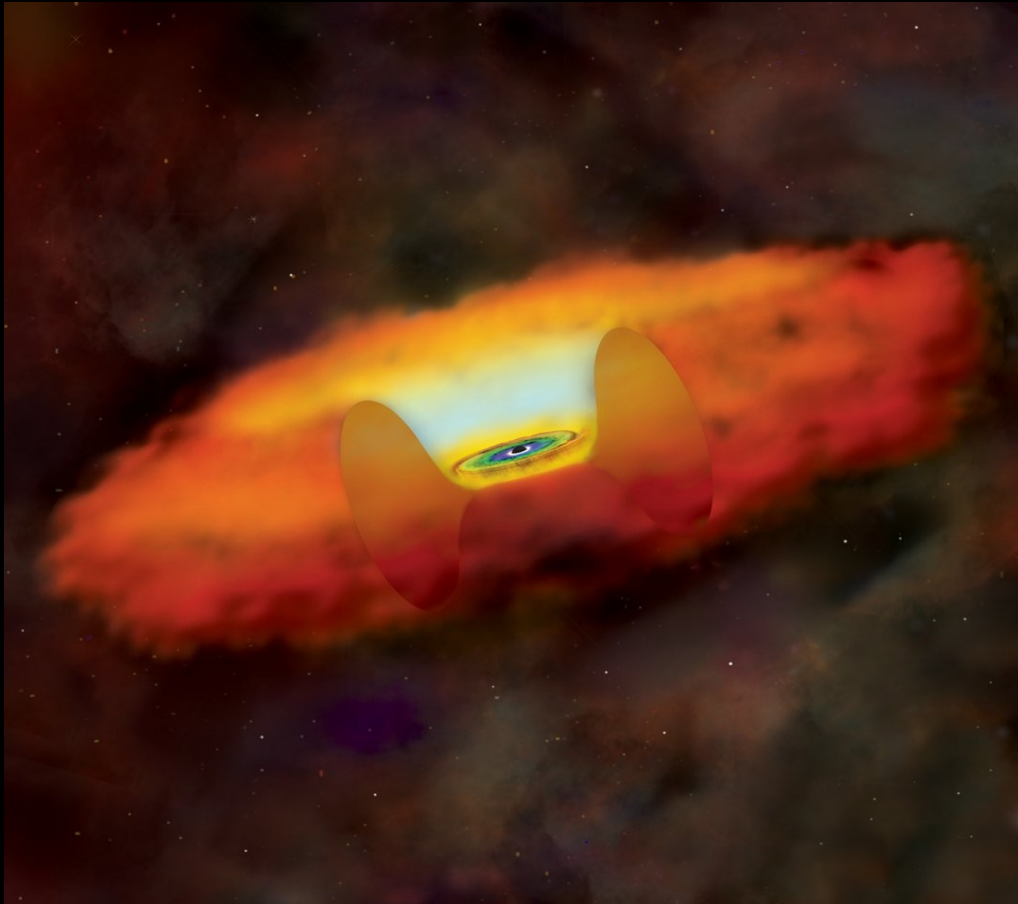
Quasar is short for “quasi-stellar radio source,” as the first quasars visually looked like stars but were extremely far away and were emitting tremendous amount of energy.

Quasars are now recognized as active galactic nuclei, which are particularly bright galactic centers that are emitting more light, upwards of 1000 Milky Way galaxies.

The energy source of a quasar is theorized to be from a large accretion disk emitting intense radiation as matter from the disk spirals into a supermassive black hole.



Example: Active galactic nucleus (AGN)



$$M = 10^8 M_{\odot}$$

$$R = 2GM/c^2$$

$$E = GMm/R \approx 0.5 mc^2$$

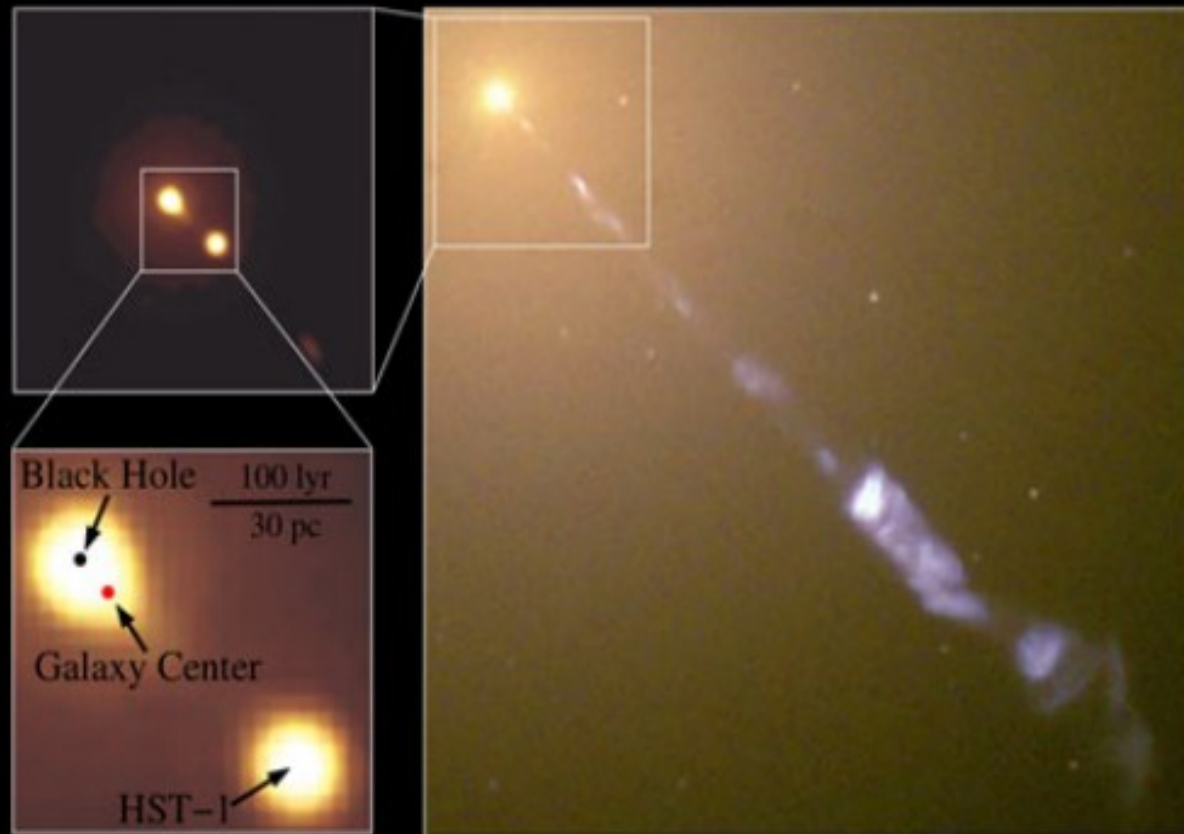
$$m = 1 \text{ g} \Rightarrow$$

$$E \approx 4 \times 10^{20} \text{ erg}$$

\Rightarrow Are stellar BH as bright as AGN?!

M 87

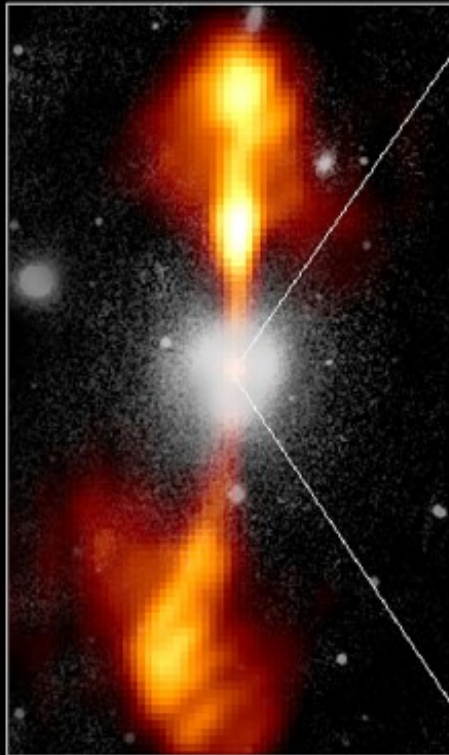
Accreting supermassive BHs (up to billions of Solar masses) at the center of galaxies



NGC 4261

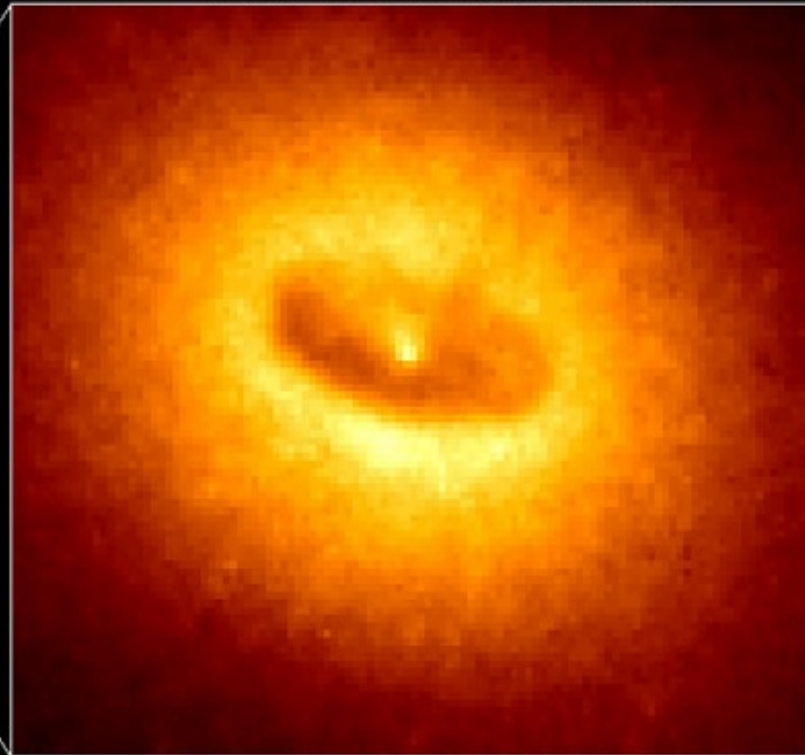
Hubble Space Telescope
Wide Field / Planetary Camera

Ground-Based Optical/Radio Image

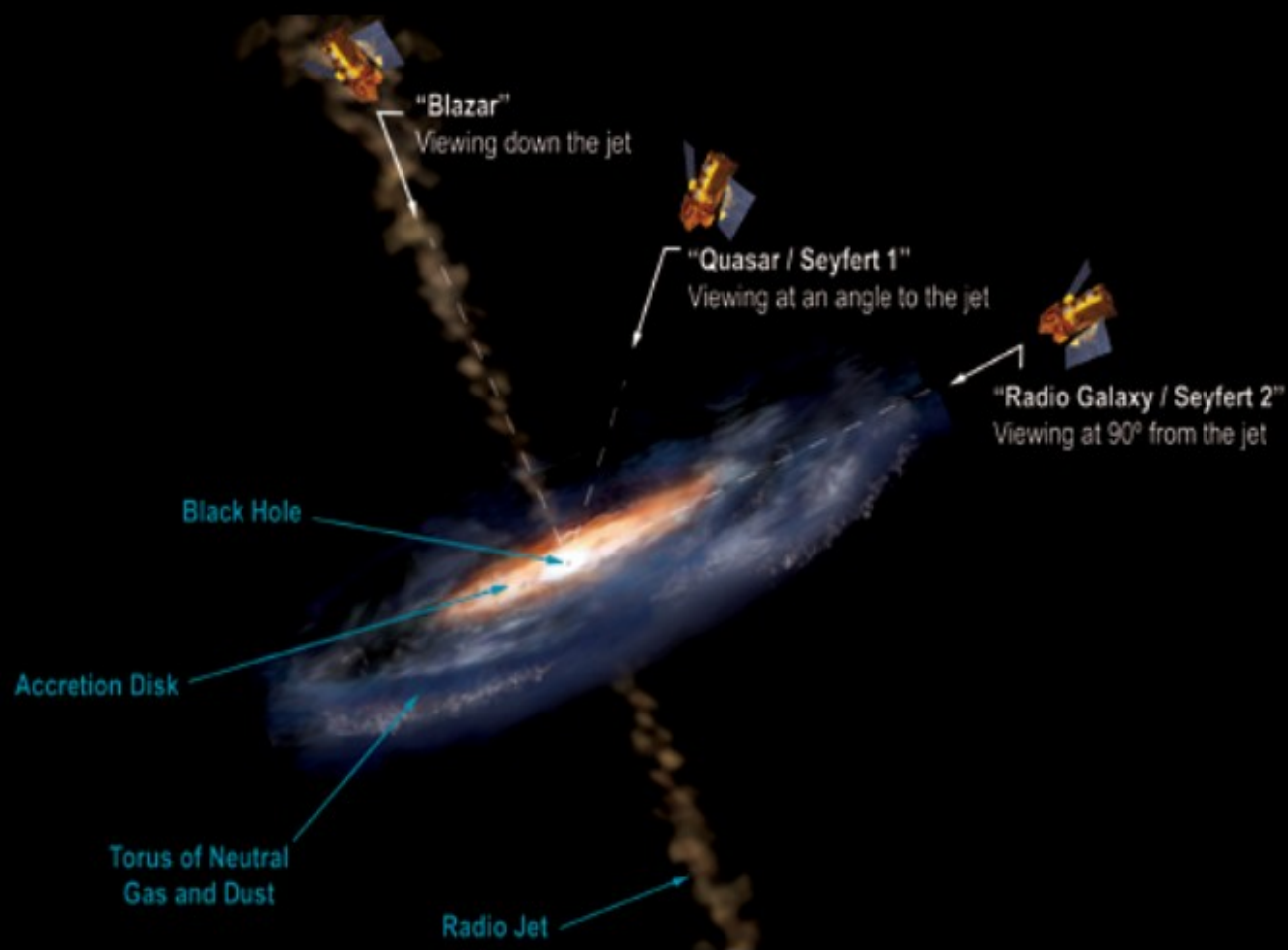


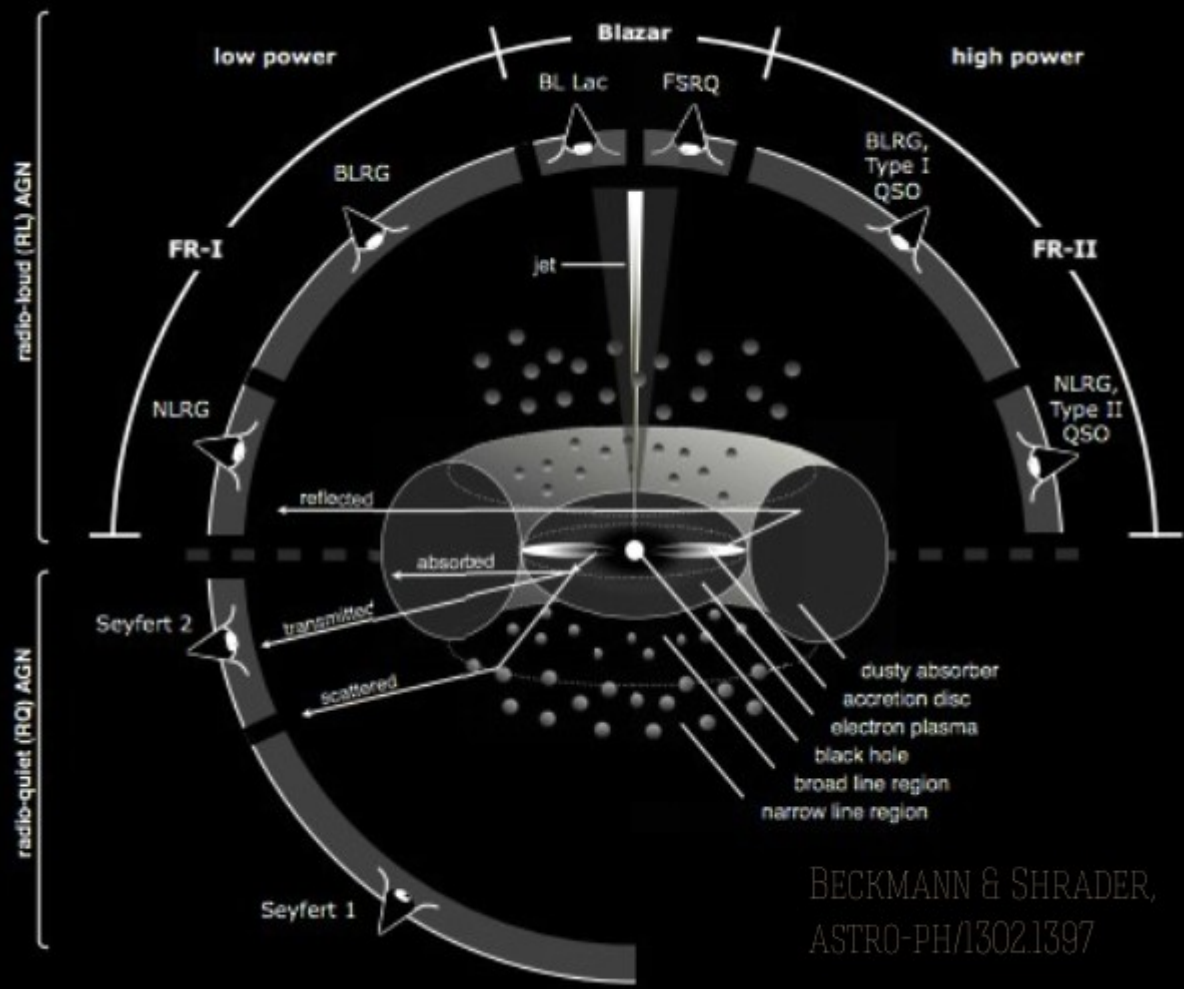
380 Arc Seconds
88,000 LIGHT-YEARS

HST Image of a Gas and Dust Disk



17 Arc Seconds
400 LIGHT-YEARS

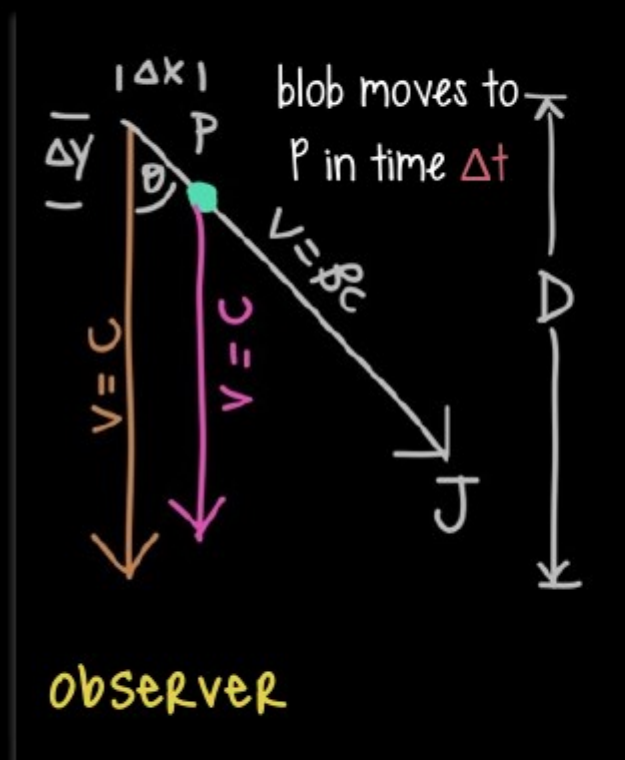




BECKMANN & SHRADER,
 ASTRO-PH/1302.1397

Superluminal motion

FIRST PROPOSED BY REES IN 1966 (NATURE, 211, 468) YEARS BEFORE IT WAS FIRST OBSERVED WHEN VLBI TECHNIQUES WERE DEVELOPED

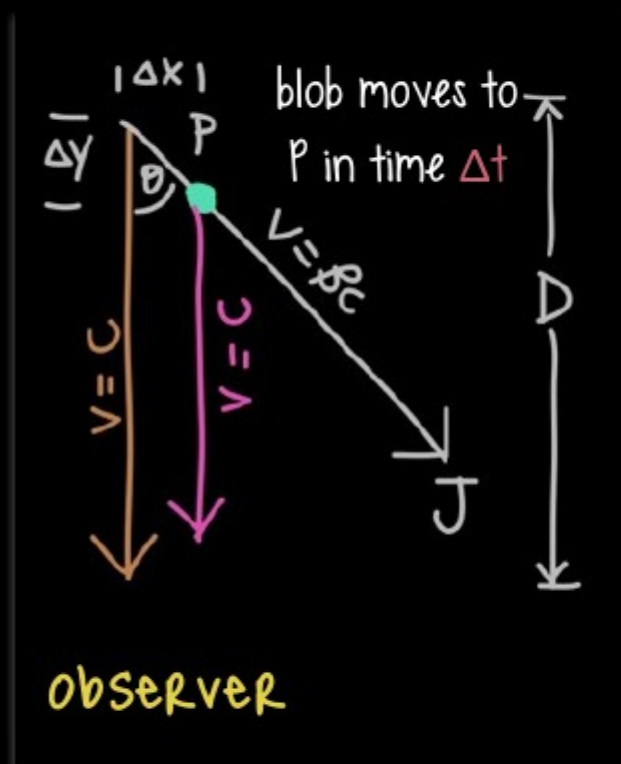


first pulse travels to observer in time D/c ; the second, emitted time Δt later, has a shorter distance to travel: $D - \Delta y$.

Difference in arrival time is:

$$\Delta t_{\text{obs}} = \left[\Delta t + \frac{(D - \Delta y)}{c} \right] - \left[\frac{D}{c} \right]$$

Superluminal motion



Difference in arrival time is:

$$\Delta t_{\text{obs}} = \left[\Delta t + \frac{(D - \Delta y)}{c} \right] - \left[\frac{D}{c} \right]$$

substitute for Δy & rearrange:

$$\Delta t_{\text{obs}} = \Delta t (1 - \beta \cos \theta)$$

measured transverse velocity, v_{obs}

$$v_{\text{obs}} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t_{\text{obs}}} = \frac{\beta c \sin \theta}{(1 - \beta \cos \theta)}$$

therefore:

$$\beta_{\text{obs}} = \frac{\beta \sin \theta}{(1 - \beta \cos \theta)}$$

Superluminal motion

So, if the plasma velocity was $0.95c$ and the angle to the observer was 5° , the apparent velocity would be $1.5c$. The effect is maximised when $\cos\theta = \beta$

$$\beta_{obs} = \frac{\beta \sin\theta}{(1 - \beta \cos\theta)}$$

Relativistic beaming

- Another relativistic effect occurs because the knots of plasma are moving at velocities close to that of light
- When an emitting plasma has a bulk relativistic motion relative to a fixed observer, its emission is beamed in the forward direction in the fixed frame
- The flux density is thus changed by relativistic time dilation so an observer sees much more intense emission than if the plasma were at rest
- The observed emission, S_{obs} is boosted in energy over that emitted in the rest frame, S

Definitions:

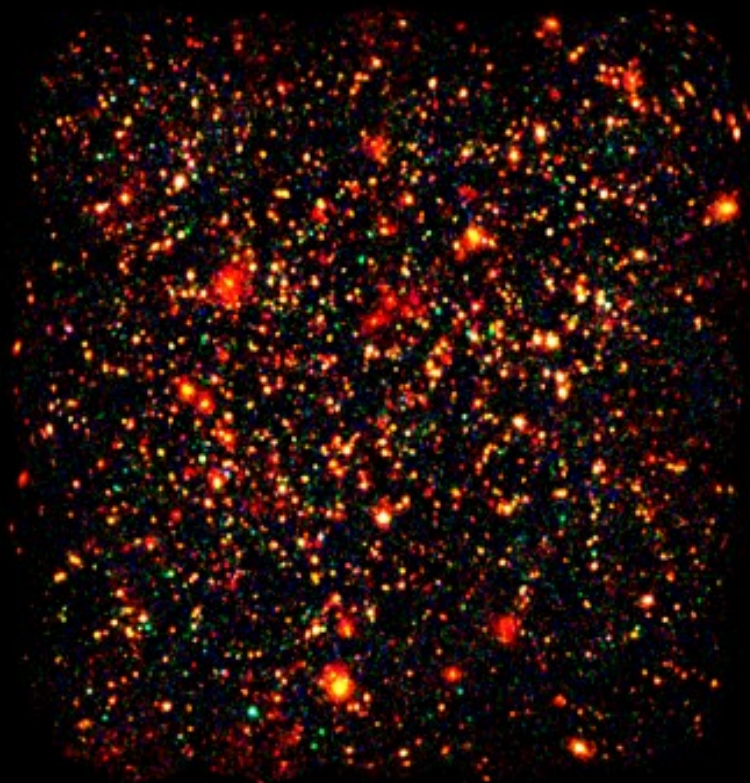
The Doppler factor is a measure of the strength of the beaming: $\delta = [\Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta)]^{-1}$

The Lorentz factor: $\Gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$ where $\beta = \frac{v}{c}$

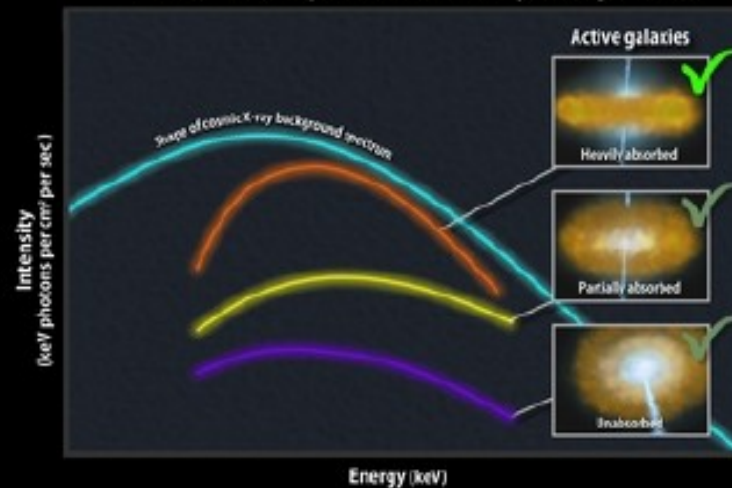
$$S_{obs} = S [\Gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta)]^{-3}$$

If plasma velocity is $0.95c$ and θ is 5deg , the boosting factor will be ~ 198

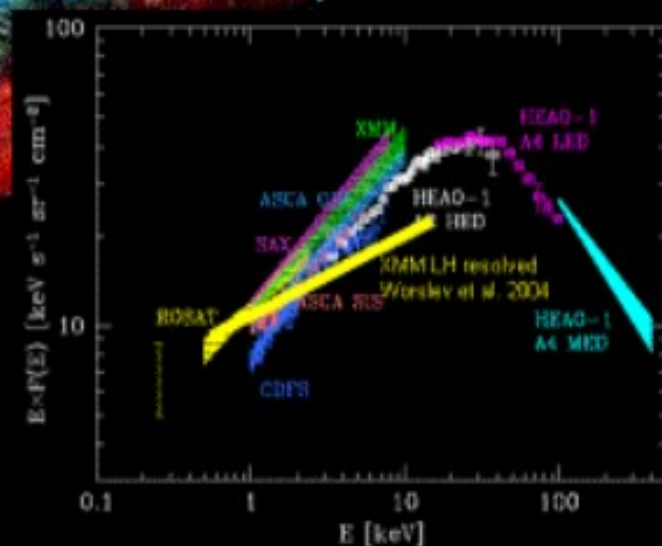
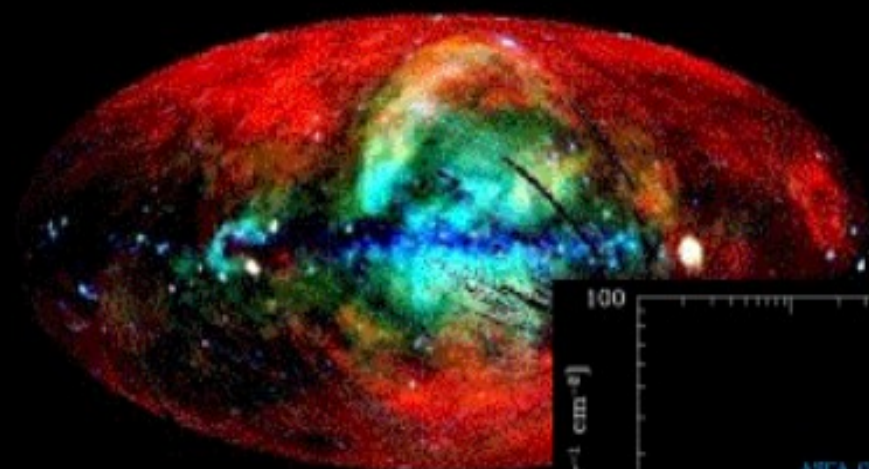
CBX



What makes up the cosmic X-ray background?

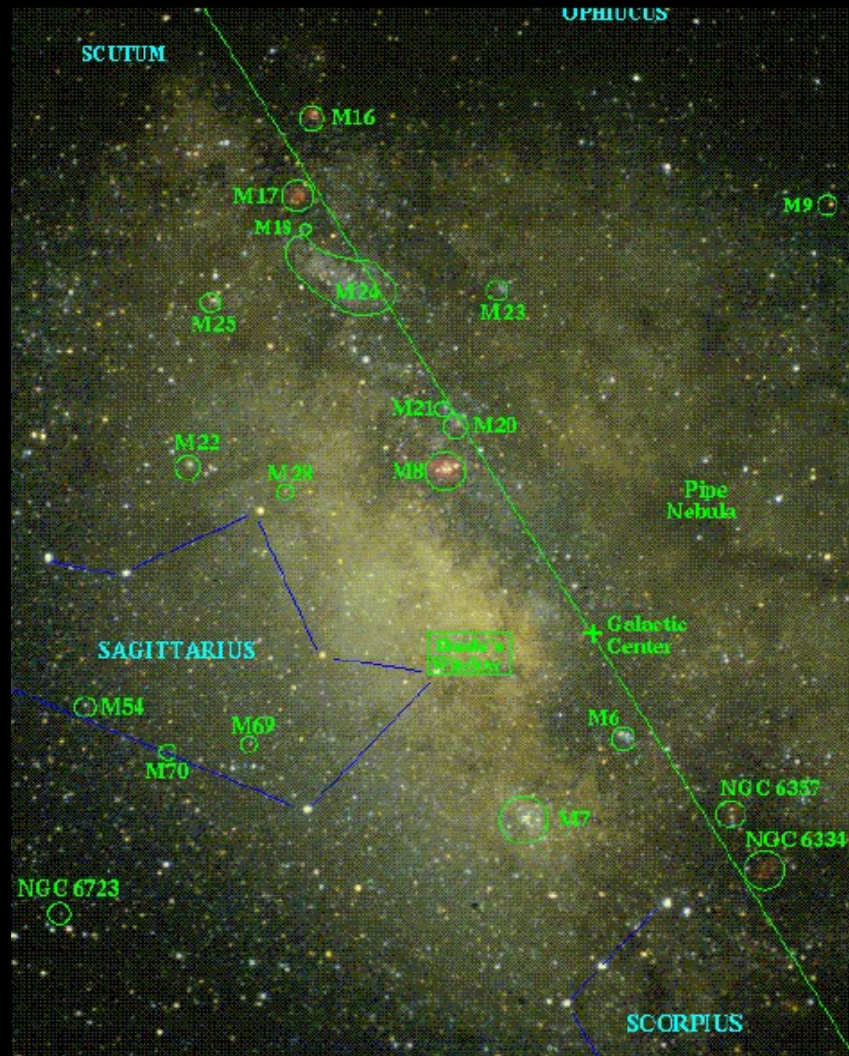


CXB is due to unresolved X-ray emission from distant AGNs



Removing discrete X-ray sources, residual diffuse emission

Sgr A*



Center of our galaxy:
radio source Sgr A*

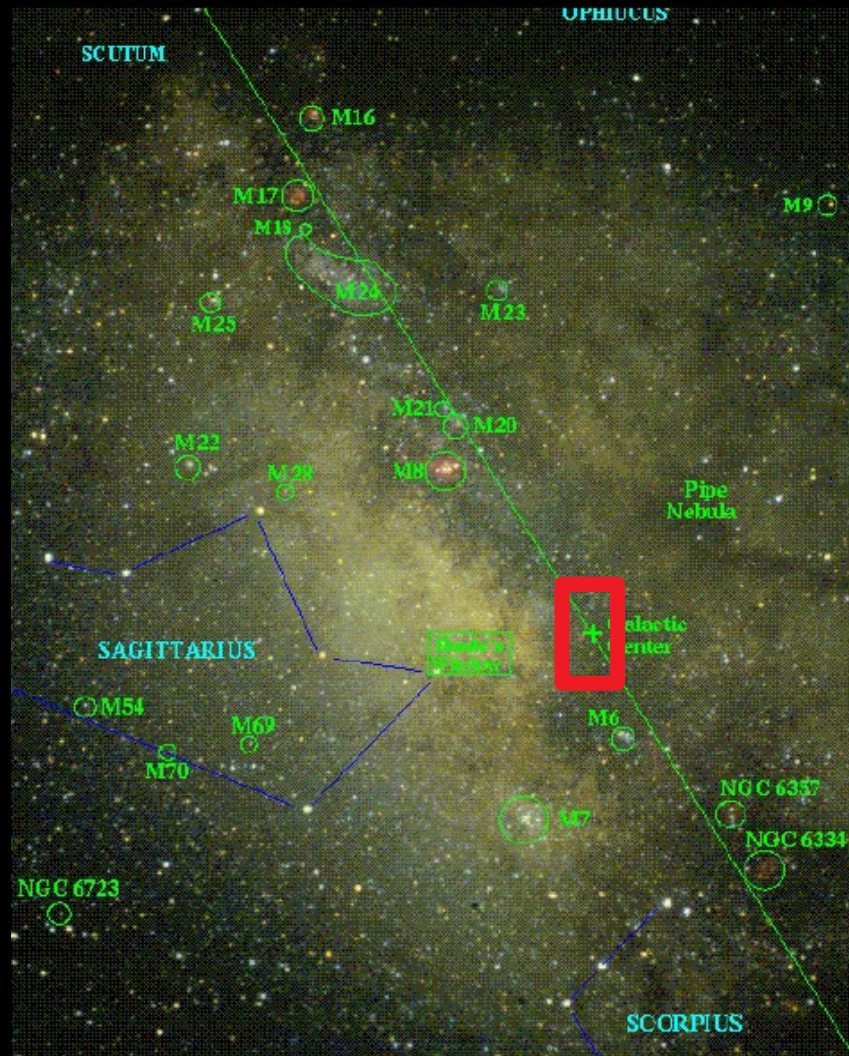
Distance: 8 kpc

Highly obscured in
optical

Dense central star
cluster visible in infrared

Photo/illustration from A. Tanner, UCLA

Sgr A*



Center of our galaxy:
radio source Sgr A*

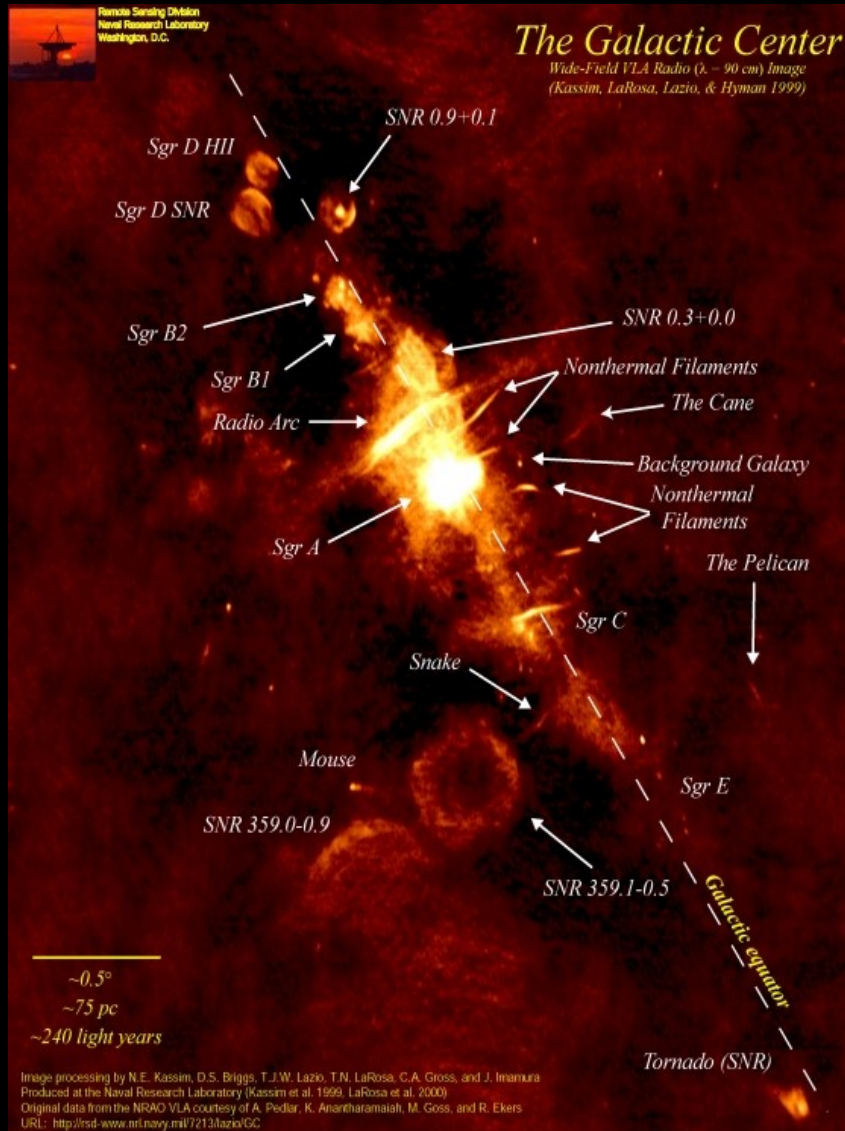
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Dense central star
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Photo/illustration from A. Tanner, UCLA

Sgr A*



Center of our galaxy:
radio source Sgr A*

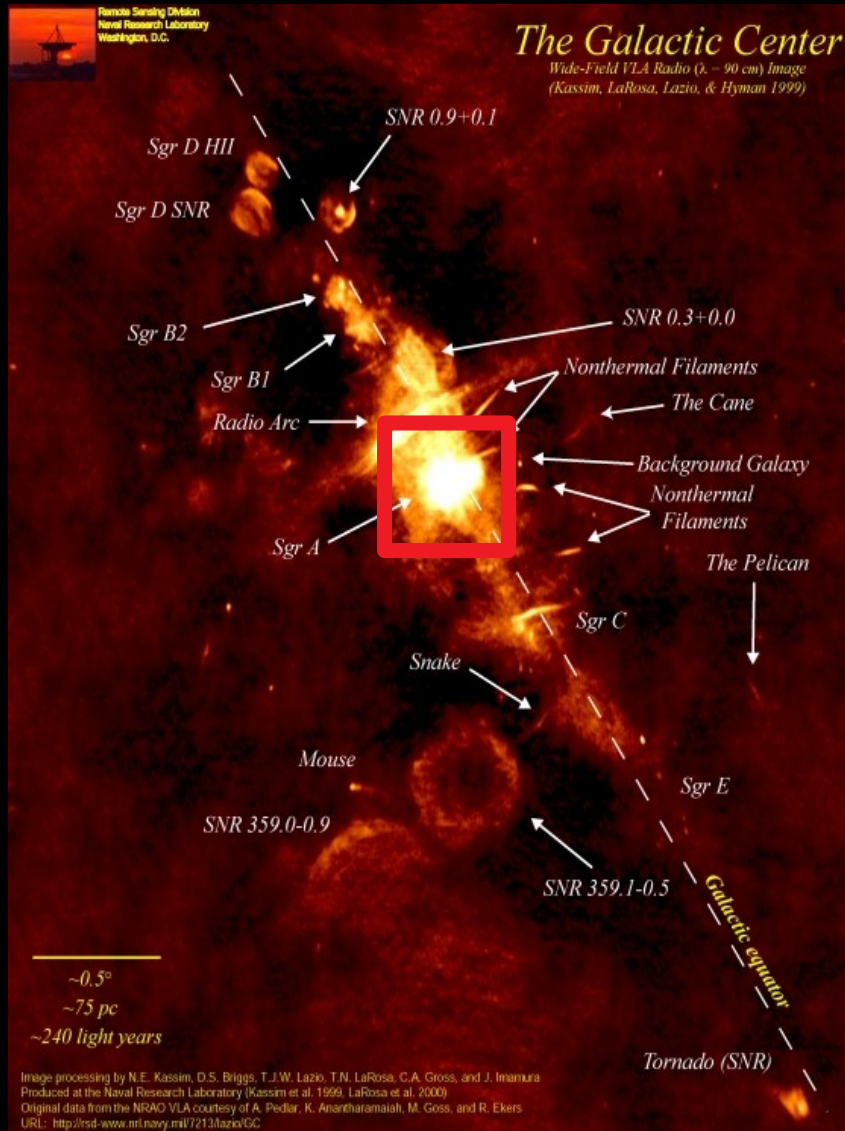
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Photo/illustration from A. Tanner, UCLA

Sgr A*



Center of our galaxy:
radio source Sgr A*

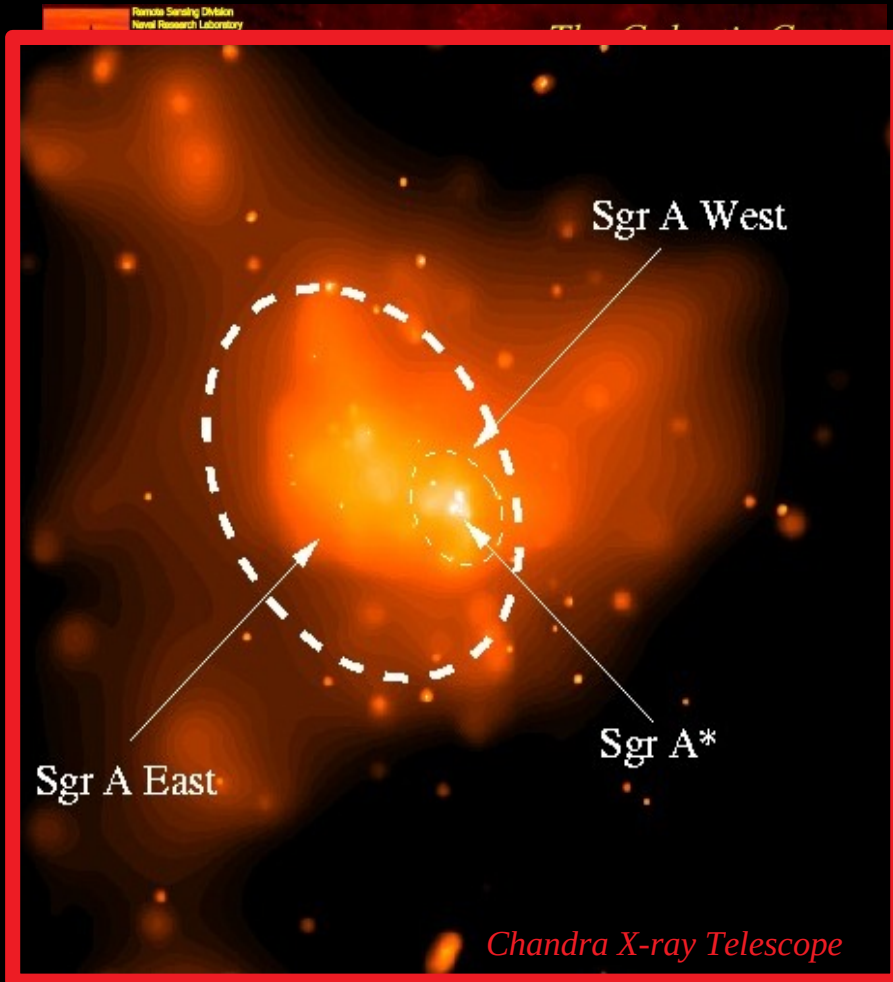
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Sgr A*



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Dense central star
cluster visible in infrared

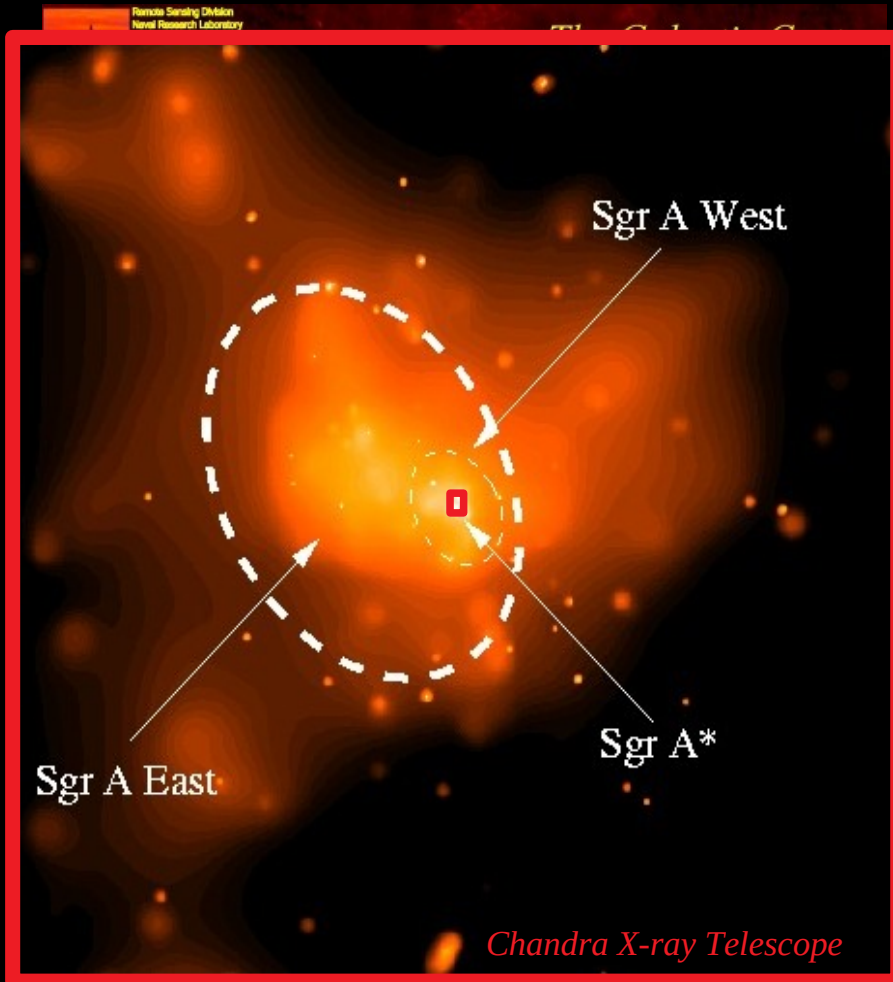
Photo/illustration from A. Tanner, UCLA

~75 pc
~240 light years

Tornado (SNR)

Image processing by N.E. Kassim, D.S. Briggs, T.J.W. Lazio, T.N. LaRosa, C.A. Gross, and J. Inamura
Produced at the Naval Research Laboratory (Kassim et al. 1999; LaRosa et al. 2000)
Original data from the NRAO VLA courtesy of A. Pedlar, K. Anantharamaiah, M. Goss, and R. Ekers
URL: <http://rtd-www.nrl.navy.mil/7213/lazio/GC>

Sgr A*



Center of our galaxy:
radio source Sgr A*

Distance: 8 kpc

Highly obscured in
optical

Dense central star
cluster visible in infrared

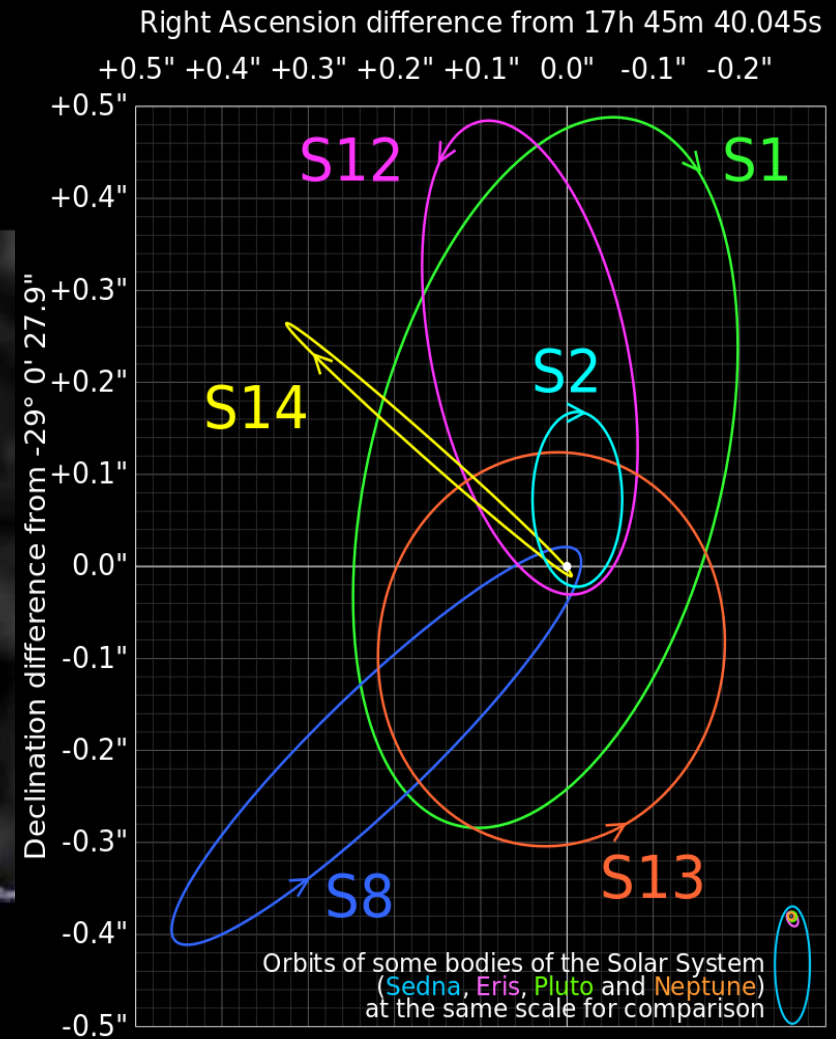
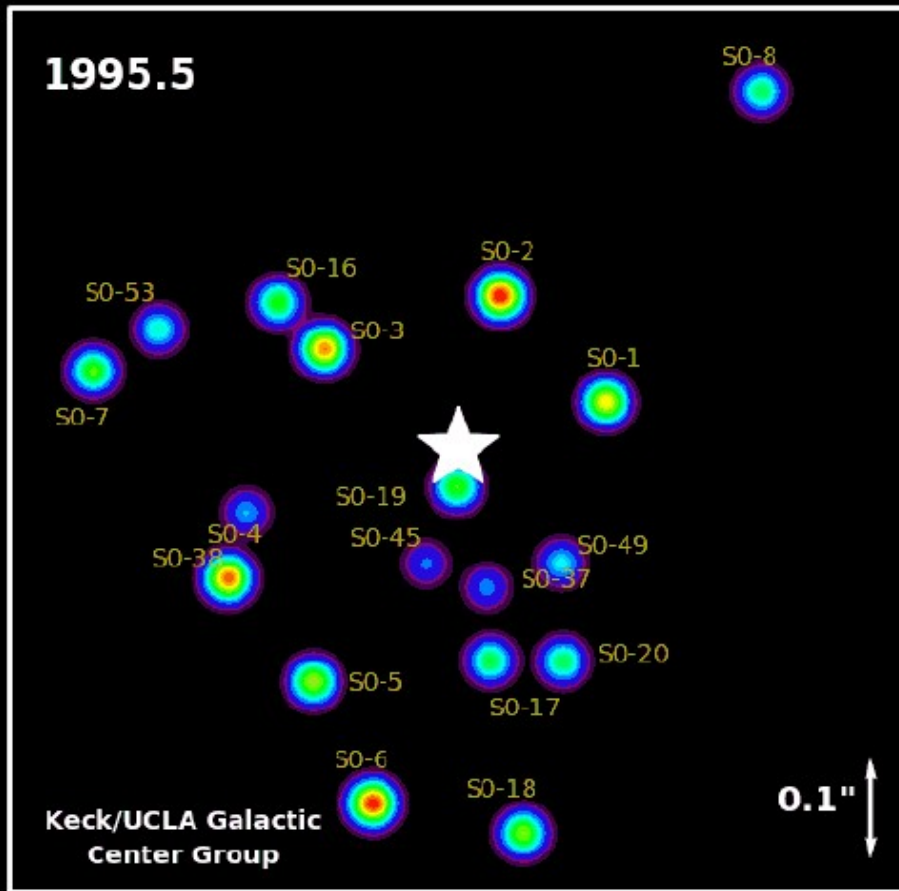
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Sag A*



Mass = $4 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$; $R_S \sim 10^7 \text{ km} \sim 10 R_{\odot} \sim 1/15 \text{ AU}$

Cloud G2

LETTER

Nature 481, 51–54 (05 January 2012)

Received 25 August 2011 Accepted 17 October 2011

Published online 14 December 2011

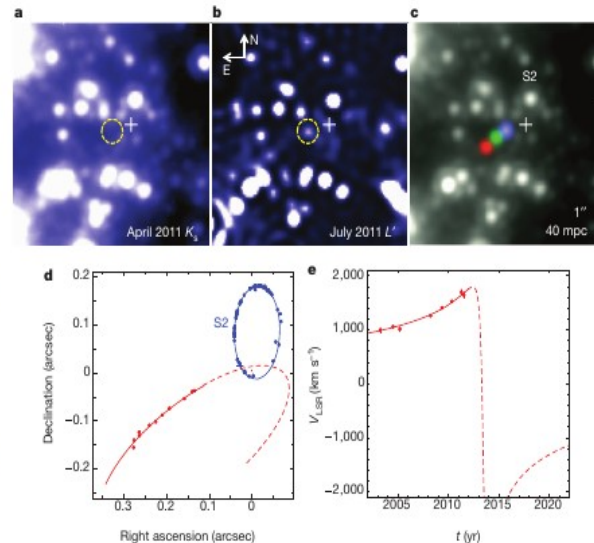
doi:10.1038/nature10652

A gas cloud on its way towards the supermassive black hole at the Galactic Centre

S. Gillessen¹, R. Genzel^{1,2}, T. K. Fritz¹, E. Quataert³, C. Alig⁴, A. Burkert^{4,1}, J. Cuadra⁵, F. Eisenhauer¹, O. Pfuhl¹, K. Dodds-Eden¹, C. F. Gammie⁶ & T. Ott¹

Measurements of stellar orbits^{1–3} provide compelling evidence^{4,5} that the compact radio source Sagittarius A* at the Galactic Centre is a black hole four million times the mass of the Sun. With the exception of modest X-ray and infrared flares^{6,7}, Sgr A* is surprisingly faint, suggesting that the accretion rate and radiation efficiency near the event horizon are currently very low^{3,8}. Here we report the presence of a dense gas cloud approximately three times the mass of Earth that is falling into the accretion zone of Sgr A*.

Our observations tightly constrain the cloud's orbit to be highly eccentric, with an innermost radius of approach of only ~3,100 times the event horizon that will be reached in 2013. Over the past three years the cloud has begun to disrupt, probably mainly through tidal shearing arising from the black hole's gravitational force. The cloud's dynamic evolution and radiation in the next few years will probe the properties of the accretion flow and the feeding processes of the supermassive black hole. The kilo-electronvolt X-ray emission of Sgr A* may brighten significantly when the cloud reaches pericentre. There may also be a giant radiation flare several years from now if the cloud breaks up and its fragments feed gas into the central accretion zone.



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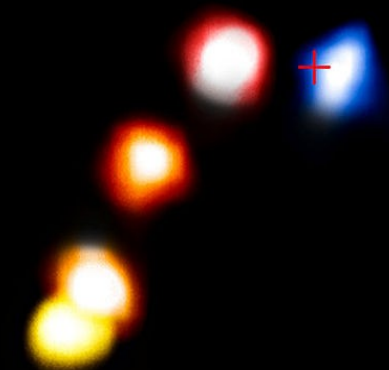
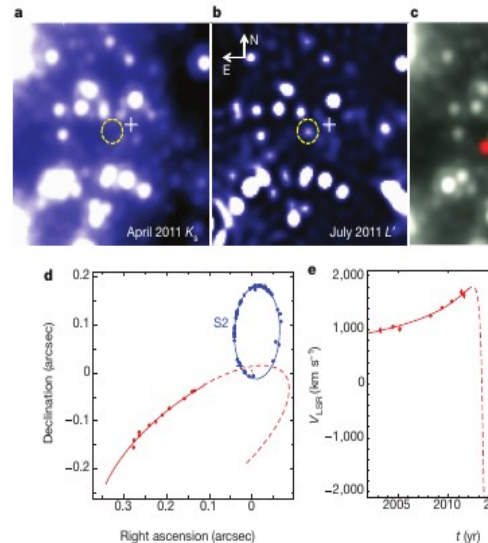
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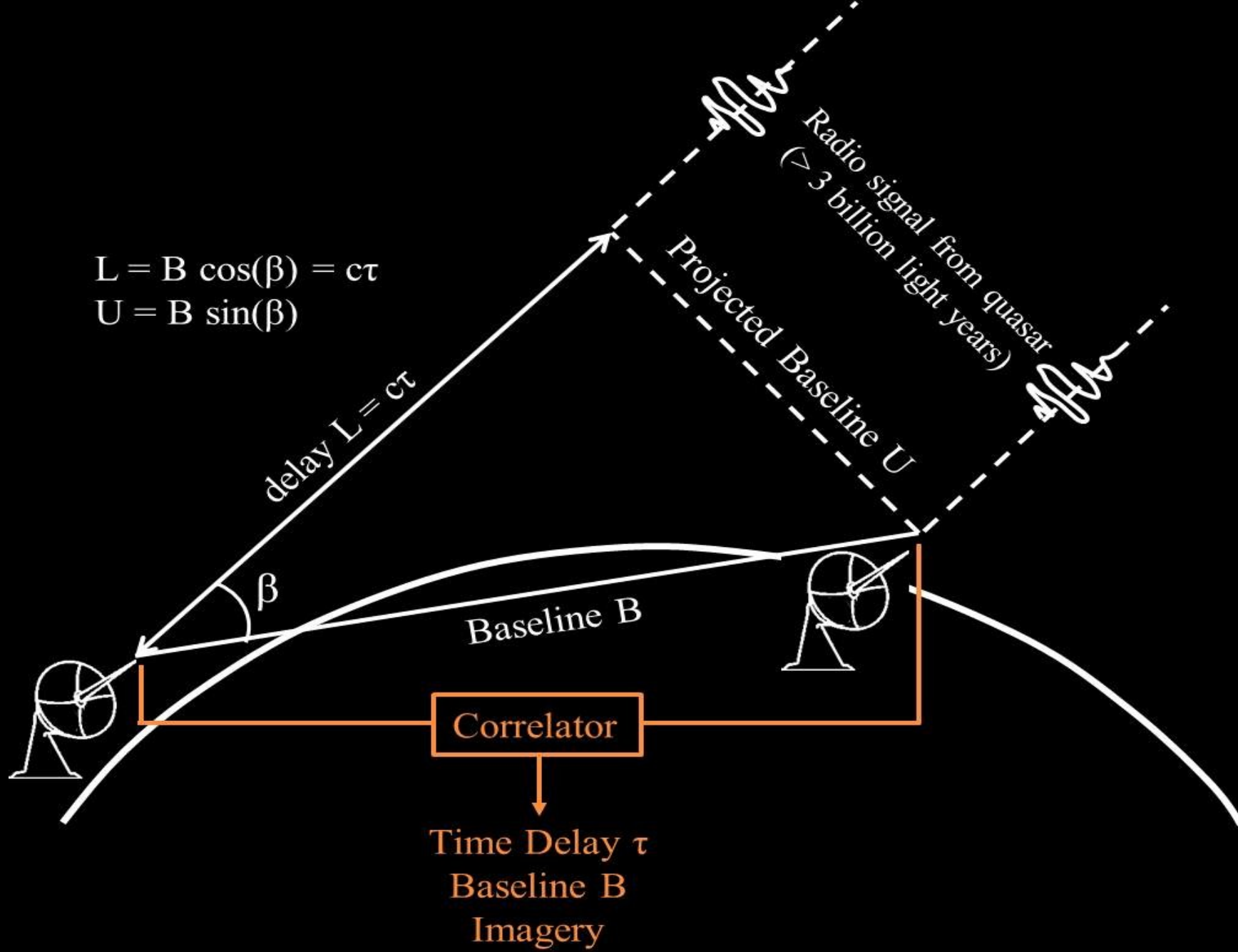
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...and in 2015



$$L = B \cos(\beta) = c\tau$$
$$U = B \sin(\beta)$$

delay $L = c\tau$

Radio signal from quasar
(> 3 billion light years)

Projected Baseline U

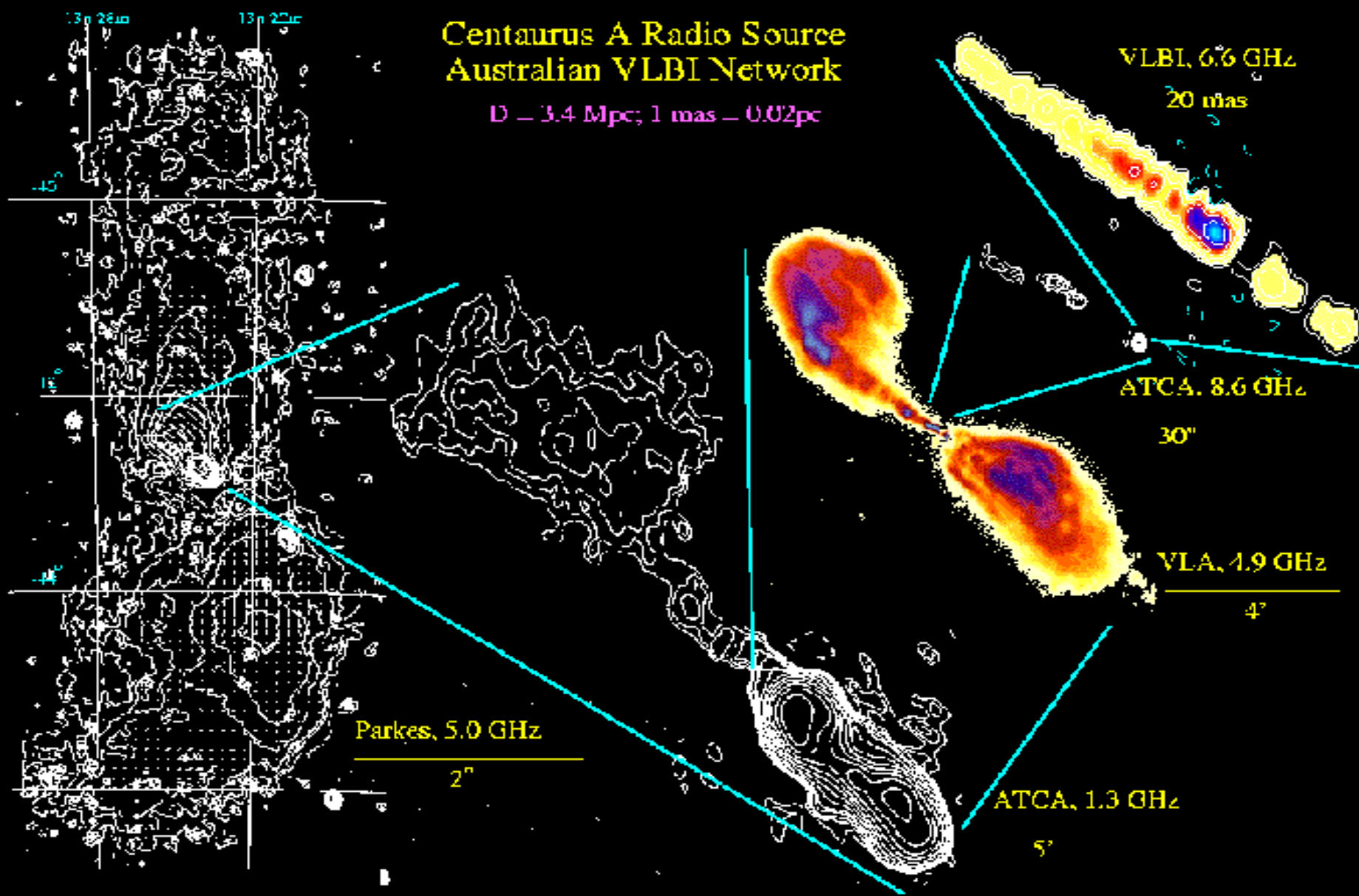
Baseline B

Correlator

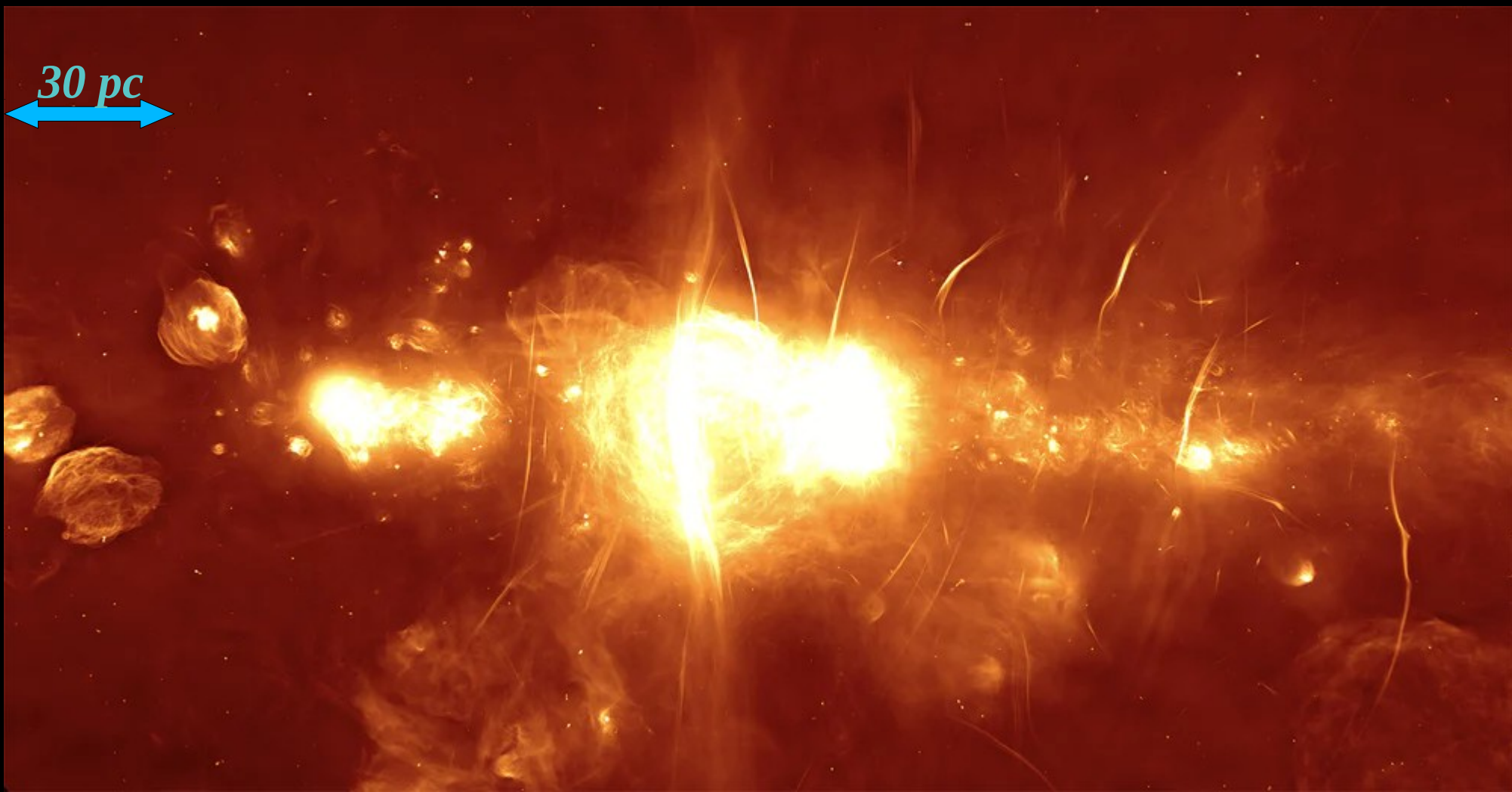
Time Delay τ
Baseline B
Imagery

Centaurus A Radio Source Australian VLBI Network

$D = 3.4 \text{ Mpc}; 1 \text{ mas} = 0.02 \text{ pc}$



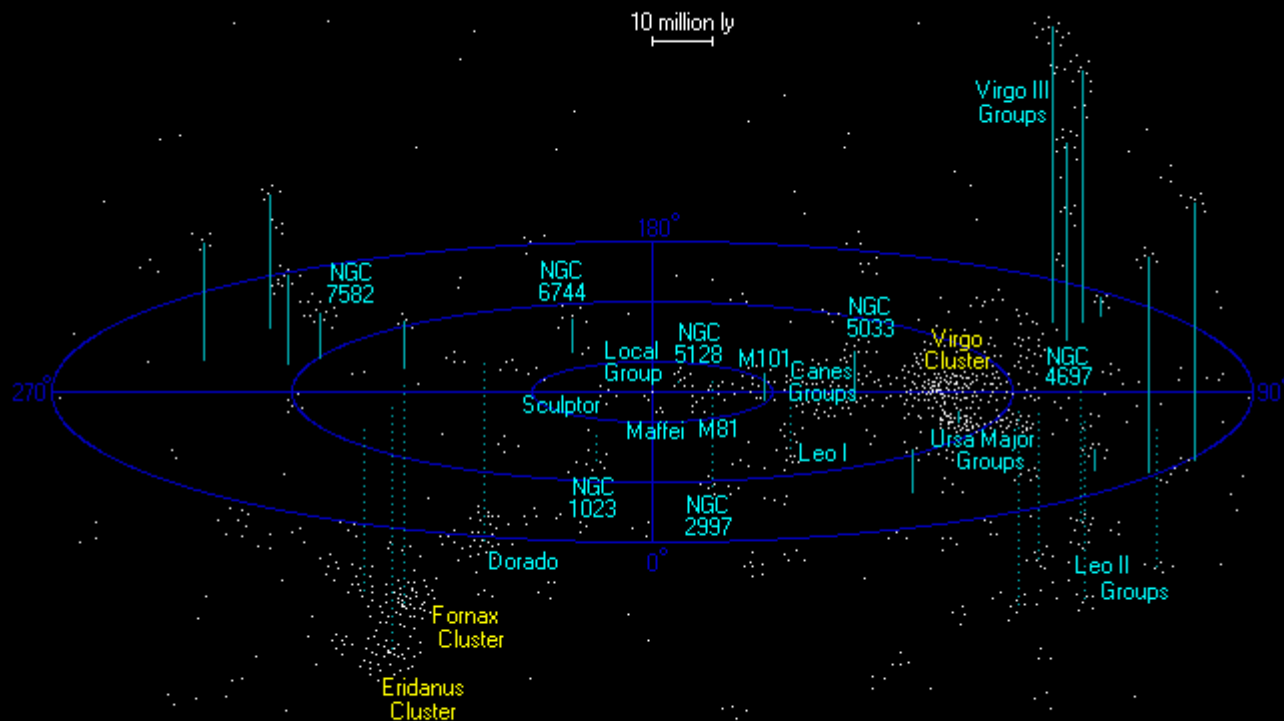
Galaxy center

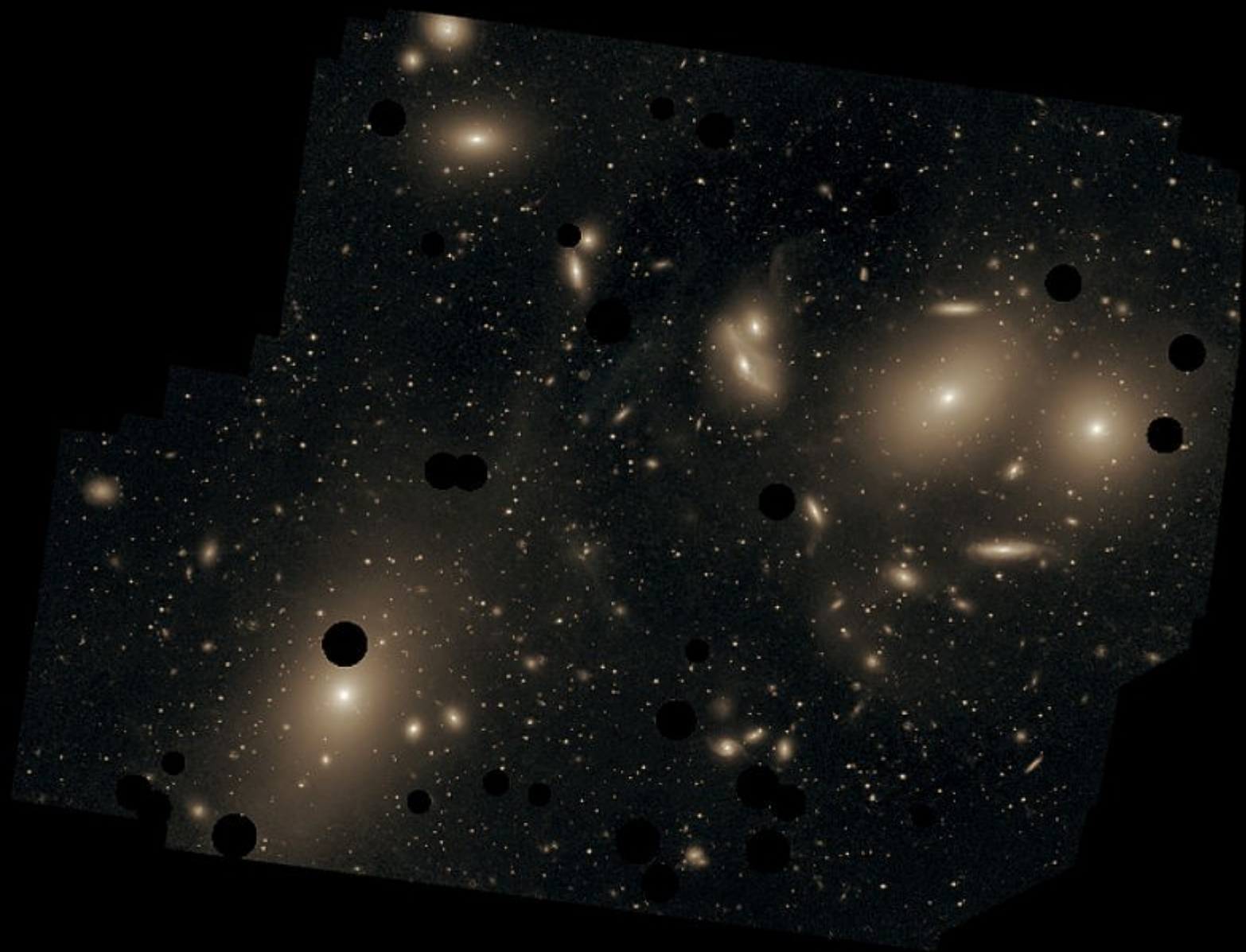


30 pc

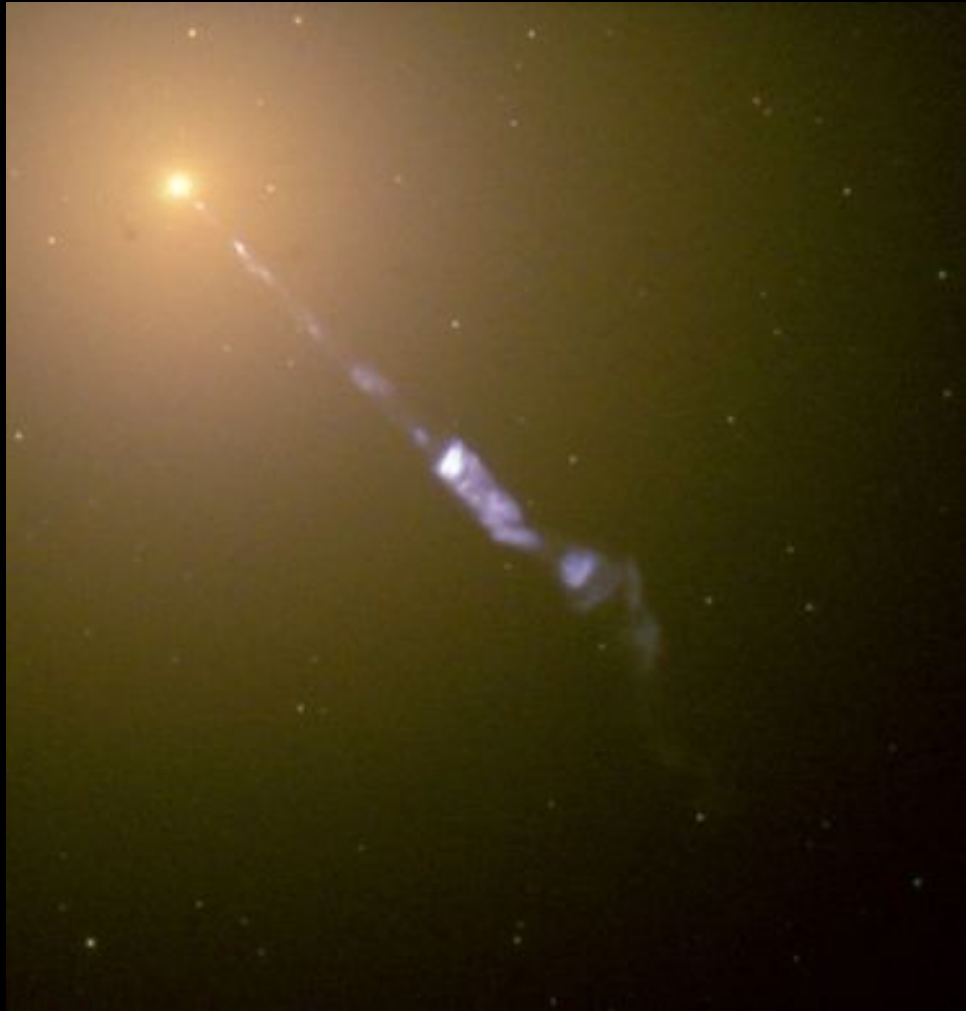


Virgo Supercluster



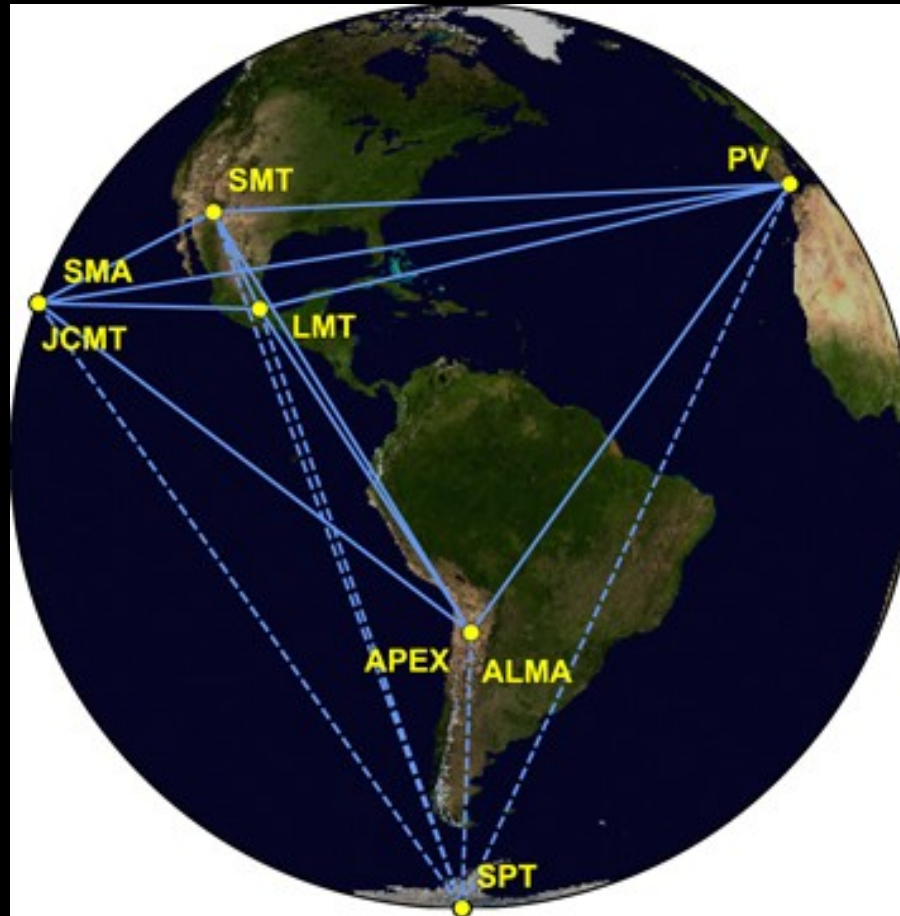


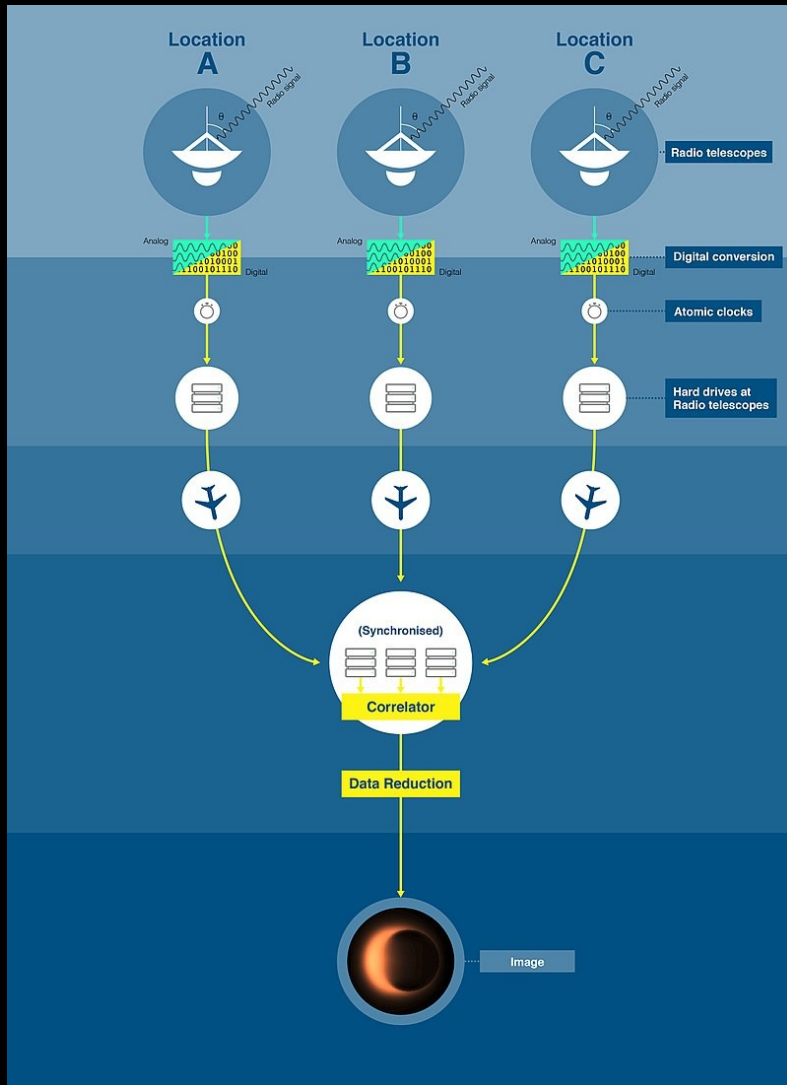
M 87

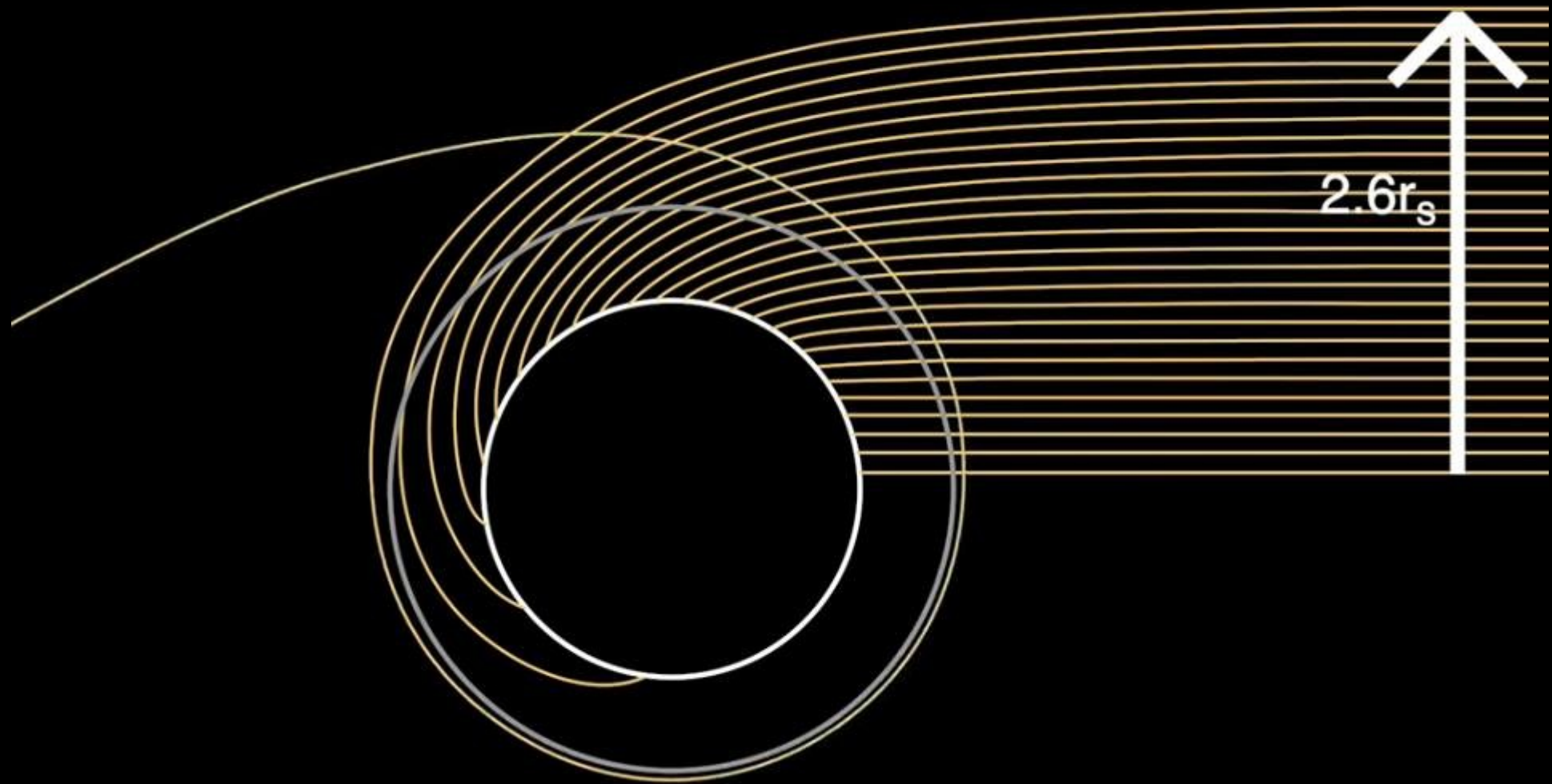




Event Horizon Telescope

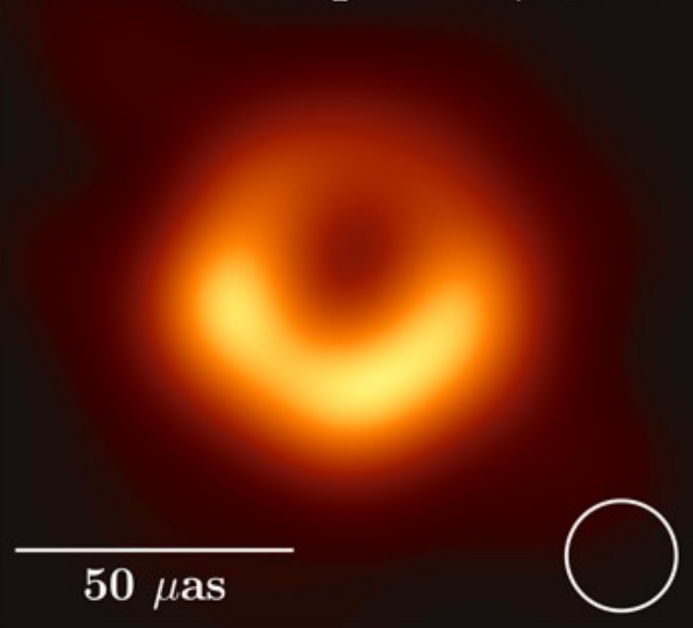






M87*

April 11, 2017



April 5

April 6

April 10



Brightness Temperature (10^9 K)

SIZE COMPARISON:
THE M87 BLACK HOLE
AND
OUR SOLAR SYSTEM

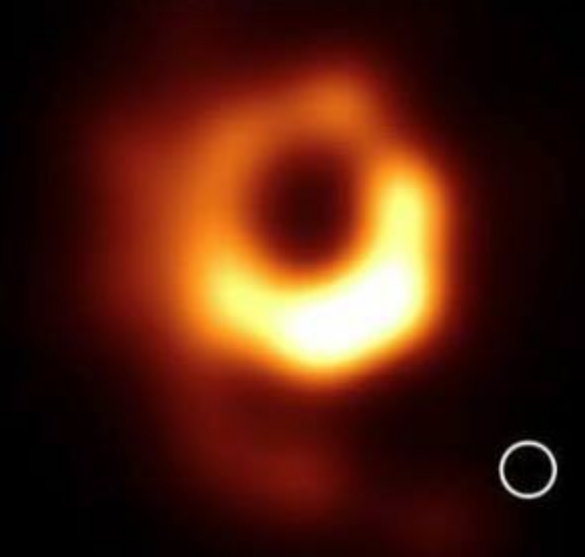
EHT BLACK HOLE IMAGE
SOURCE: NSF



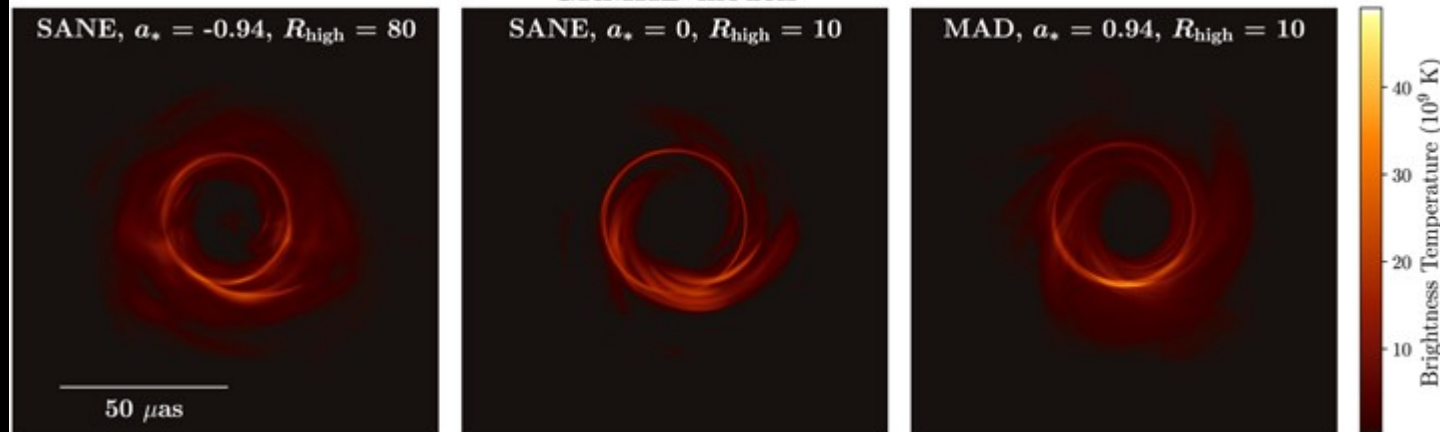
Simulation



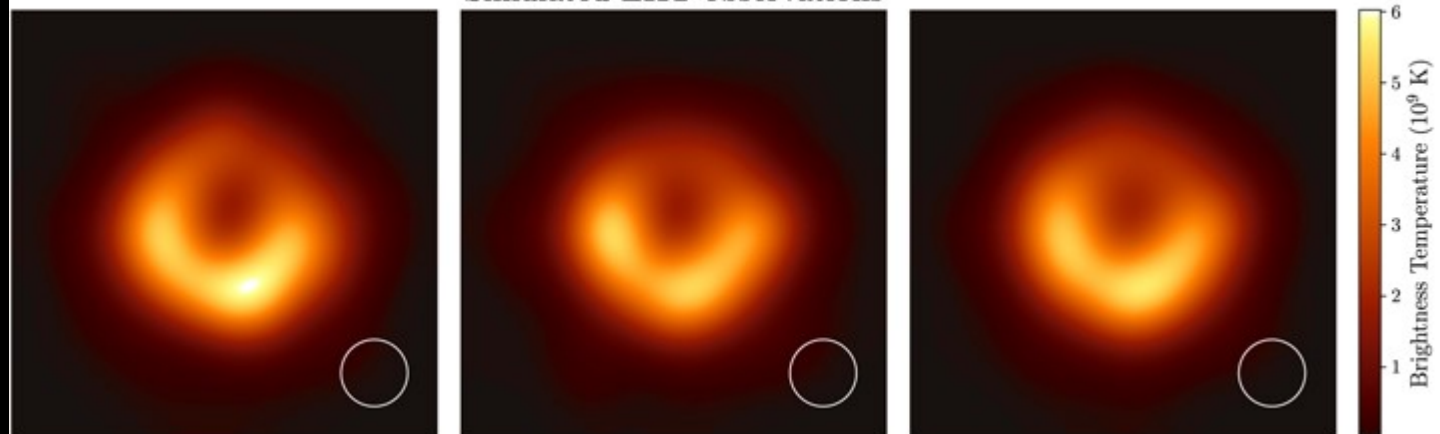
EHT Reconstruction



GRMHD models

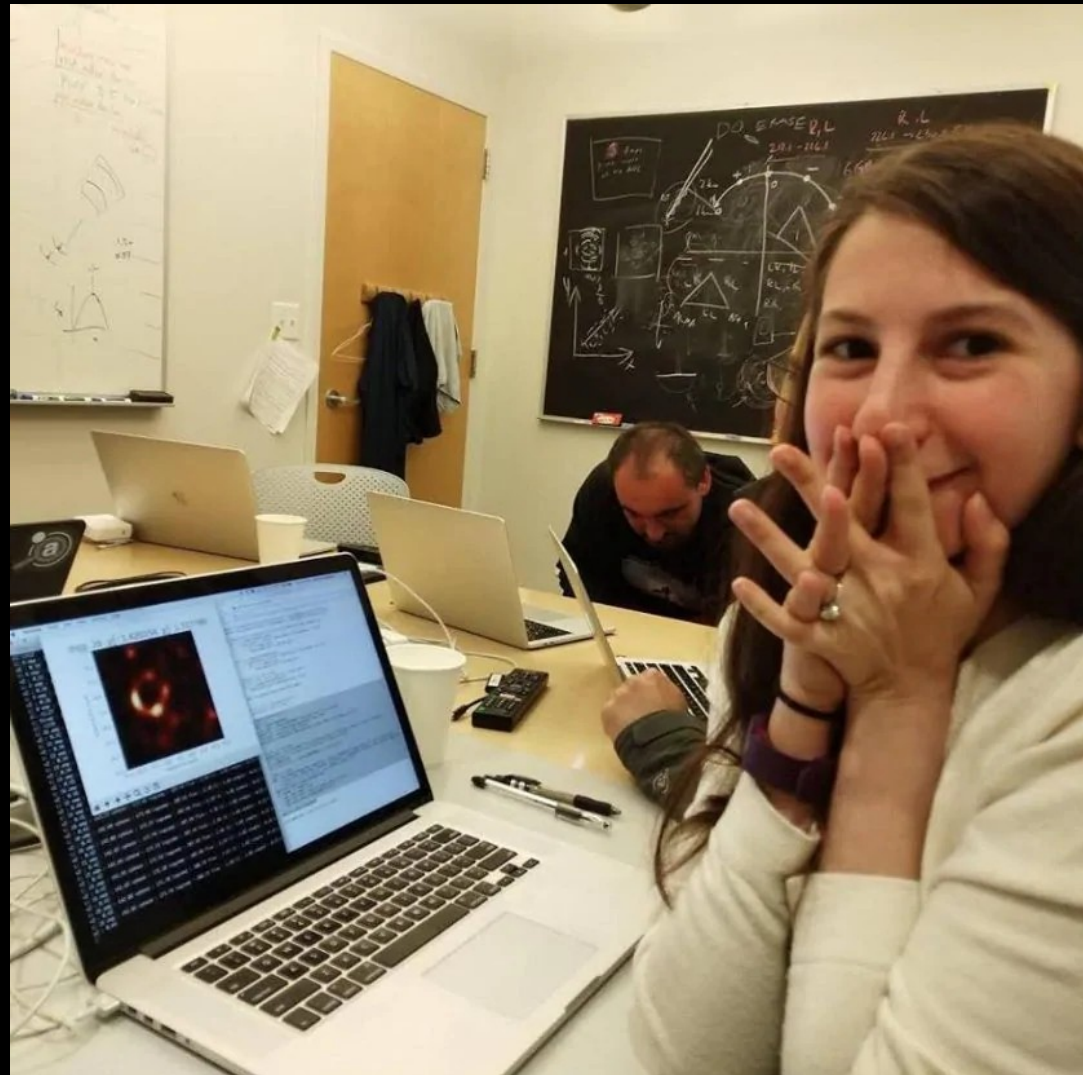


Simulated EHT observations



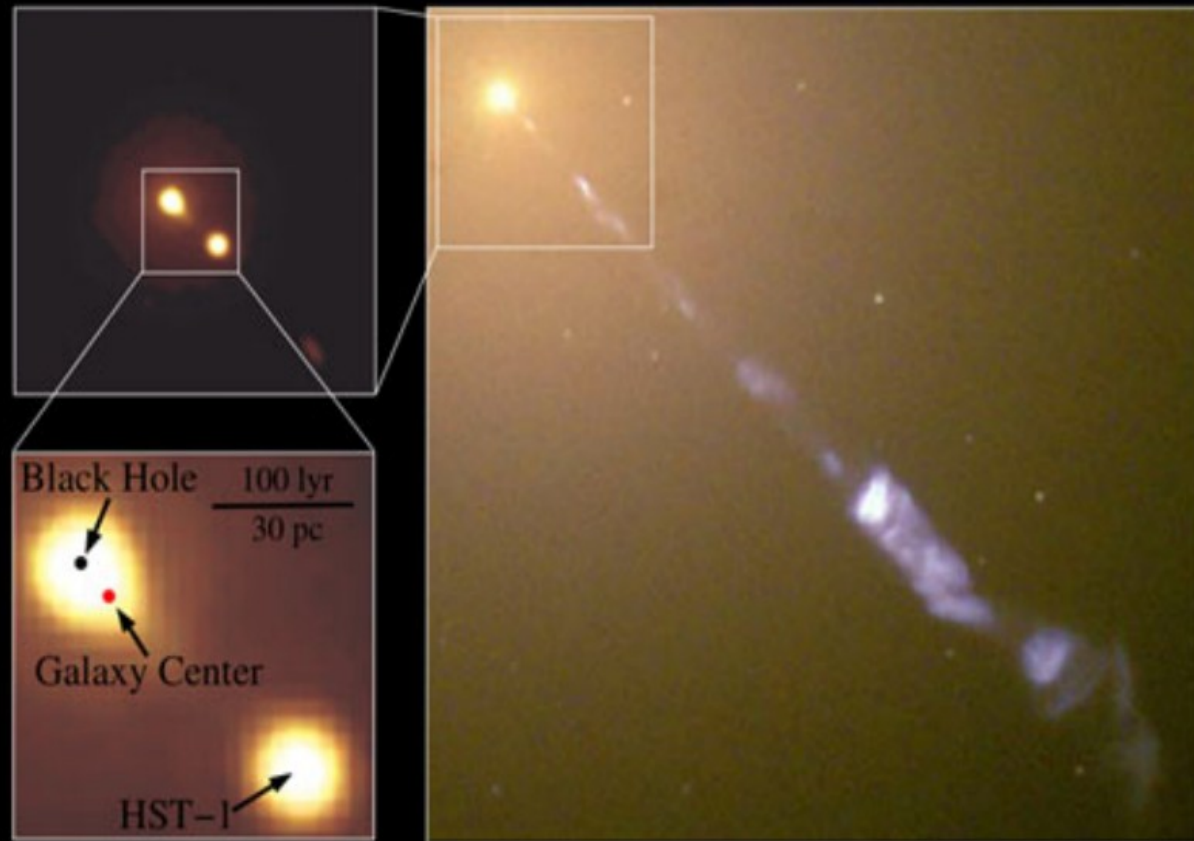
Parameter	Estimate
Ring diameter ^a d	$42 \pm 3 \mu\text{as}$
Ring width ^a	$< 20 \mu\text{as}$
Crescent contrast ^b	$> 10:1$
Axial ratio ^a	$< 4:3$
Orientation PA	$150^\circ - 200^\circ$ east of north
$\theta_g = GM/Dc^2$ ^c	$3.8 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{as}$
$\alpha = d/\theta_g$ ^d	$11^{+0.5}_{-0.3}$
M ^e	$(6.5 \pm 0.7) \times 10^9 M_\odot$

Parameter	Prior Estimate
D ^e	$(16.8 \pm 0.8) \text{ Mpc}$
$M(\text{stars})$ ^e	$6.2^{+1.1}_{-0.6} \times 10^9 M_\odot$
$M(\text{gas})$ ^e	$3.5^{+0.9}_{-0.3} \times 10^9 M_\odot$

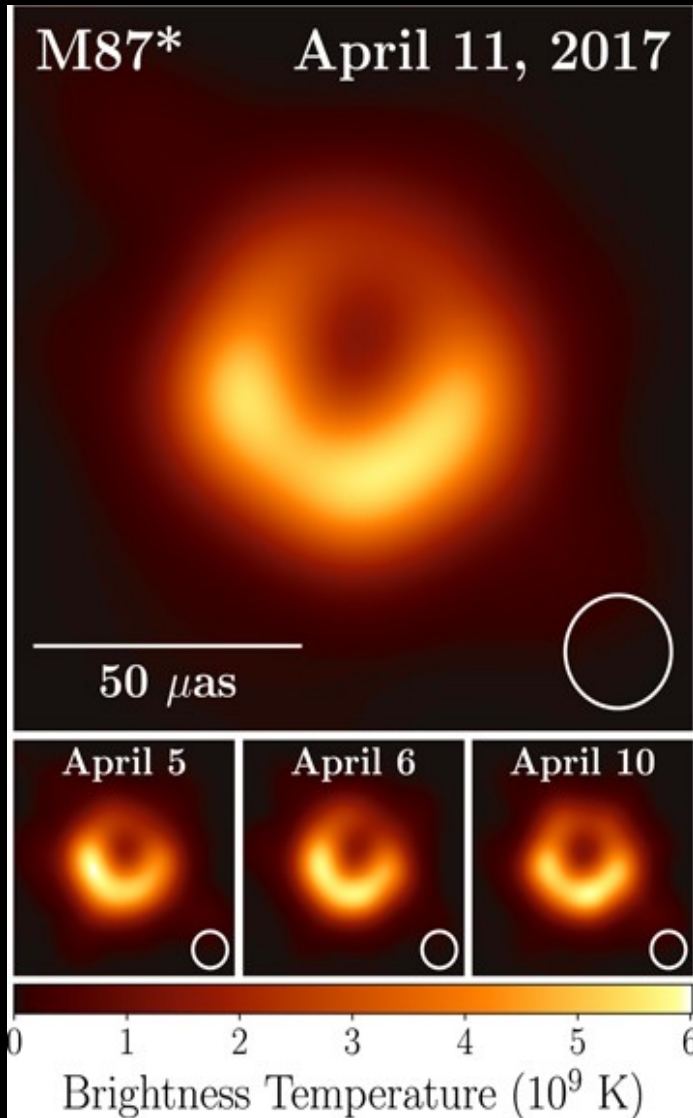


SuperMassive BHs

Accreting supermassive BHs (up to billions of Solar masses) at the center of galaxies



M87*



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M87*

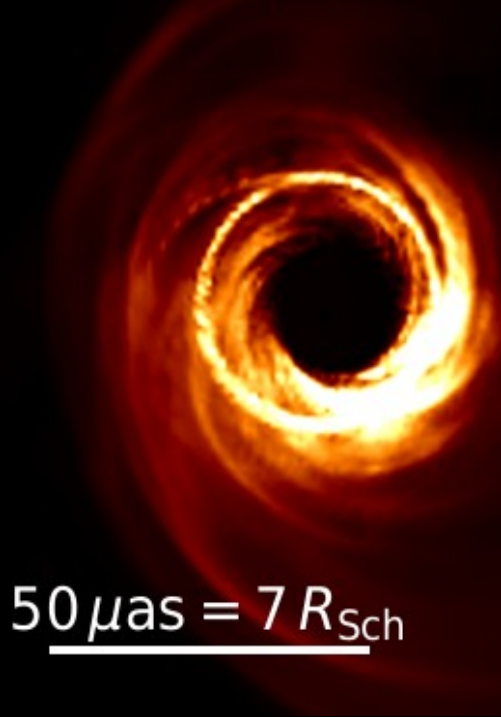
SIZE COMPARISON:
THE M87 BLACK HOLE
AND
OUR SOLAR SYSTEM

EHT BLACK HOLE IMAGE
SOURCE: NSF

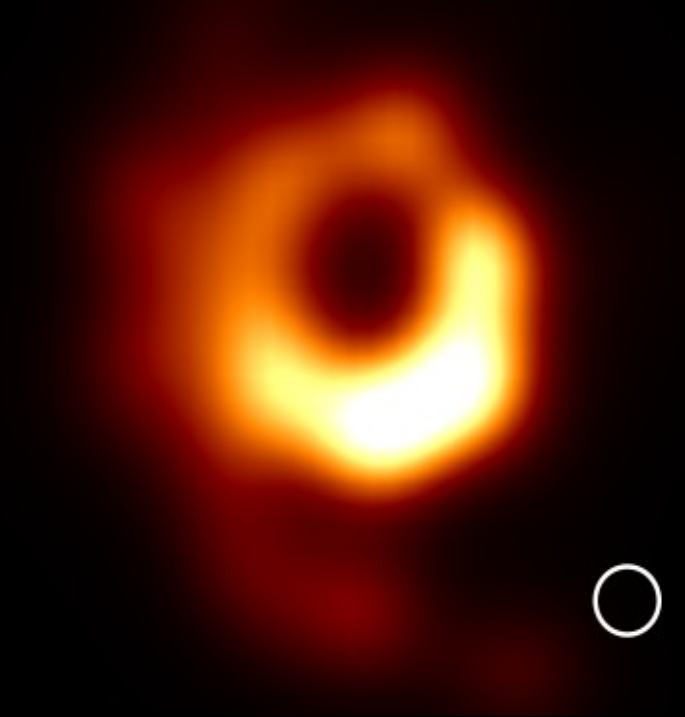


Simulated M87*

Simulation



EHT Reconstruction



Black holes masses



Stellar
Black Hole



Intermediate Mass
Black Hole



Supermassive
Black Hole



Object Mass
(Relative to the Sun)