

Astronomy, Astrophysics, and Cosmology

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- Metric Spaces
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The hunter and the bear

- A hunter is tracking a bear
- Starting at his camp 📍 he walks one mile due south
- The bear changes direction and the hunter follows it due east
- After one mile 📍 the hunter loses the bear's track
- He turns north and walks for another mile
at which point he arrives back at his camp
- What was the color of the bear?

- ✧ This certainly does not work everywhere on Earth
but it does if you start at North pole



- ✧ Therefore \Rightarrow color of bear has to be white
- ✧ Surprisingly \Rightarrow sum of all three angles is greater than 180°
- ✧ This implies space is curved

- To understand the idea of curved metric space we'll simplify discussion considering only 2-dimensional surfaces
- Parameterization of surface maps points (u, v) in domain to points $\vec{\sigma}(u, v)$ in space

$$\vec{\sigma}(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} x(u, v) \\ y(u, v) \\ z(u, v) \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

- First derivatives $\vec{\sigma}_u(u, v)$ and $\vec{\sigma}_v(u, v)$ span tangent plane to surface at point $\vec{\sigma}(u, v)$
- Surface normal \hat{n} at point $\vec{\sigma}$

$$\hat{n}(\vec{\sigma}) = \frac{\vec{\sigma}_u \times \vec{\sigma}_v}{\|\vec{\sigma}_u \times \vec{\sigma}_v\|} \quad (2)$$

- Tangent vectors and surface normal define orthogonal coordinate system at point $\vec{\sigma}(u, v)$ which is framework for describing local shape of surface

- First fundamental form

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &\equiv ds^2 = d\vec{\sigma} \cdot d\vec{\sigma} = (\vec{\sigma}_u du + \vec{\sigma}_v dv) \cdot (\vec{\sigma}_u du + \vec{\sigma}_v dv) \\
 &= (\vec{\sigma}_u \cdot \vec{\sigma}_u) du^2 + 2(\vec{\sigma}_u \cdot \vec{\sigma}_v) dudv + (\vec{\sigma}_v \cdot \vec{\sigma}_v) dv^2 \\
 &= Edu^2 + 2Fdudv + Gdv^2
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

☞ distance of neighboring points on surface

with parameters (u, v) and $(u + du, v + dv)$

- Area bounded by vertices

$$\vec{\sigma}(u, v), \vec{\sigma}(u + \delta u, v), \vec{\sigma}(u, v + \delta v), \vec{\sigma}(u + \delta u, v + \delta v)$$

$$\delta A = |\vec{\sigma}_u \delta u \times \vec{\sigma}_v \delta v| = \sqrt{EG - F^2} \delta u \delta v \tag{4}$$

- In differential form

$$dA = \sqrt{EG - F^2} du dv \tag{5}$$

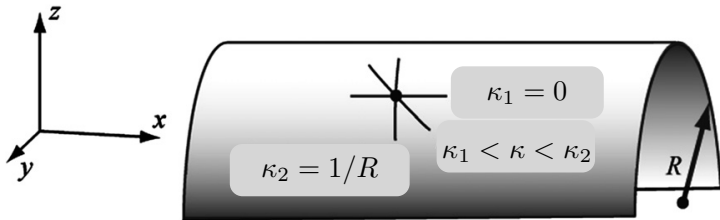
- Expression under square root ☞ $|\vec{\sigma}_u \times \vec{\sigma}_v|$

and so it is strictly positive at regular points

Gaussian curvature

- At any point on $\vec{\sigma}$ we can find \hat{n}
- Planes containing normal vector are called normal planes
- Intersection of normal plane and $\vec{\sigma}$ forms curve \Rightarrow normal section
- Curvature of normal section \Rightarrow normal curvature
- For most points on most surfaces
different sections will have different curvatures
- Maximum (κ_2) and minimum (κ_1) values \Rightarrow principal curvatures
- Gaussian curvature $\Rightarrow K = \kappa_1 \kappa_2$

E.g. \Rightarrow



- Second fundamental form

$$\begin{aligned}\text{II} &= (\vec{\sigma}_{uu} \cdot \hat{n}) du^2 + 2(\vec{\sigma}_{uv} \cdot \hat{n}) dudv + (\vec{\sigma}_{vv} \cdot \hat{n}) dv^2 \\ &= e du^2 + 2f du dv + g dv^2\end{aligned}\quad (6)$$

- K calculated using first and second fundamental coefficients
- At each grid point 2 matrices are defined
- Matrix of first fundamental form

$$\text{I} = \begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix}\quad (7)$$

- Matrix of second fundamental form

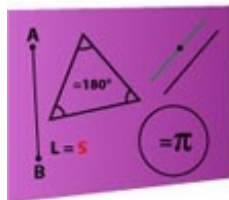
$$\text{II} = \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ f & g \end{pmatrix}\quad (8)$$

- Gaussian curvature

$$K = \frac{\det \text{II}}{\det \text{I}}\quad (9)$$

Geometry classification according to Gaussian curvature

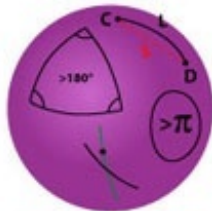
PLANE



Zero Curvature

Euclidian geometry

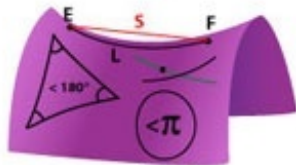
SPHERE



Positive Curvature

Elliptic geometry

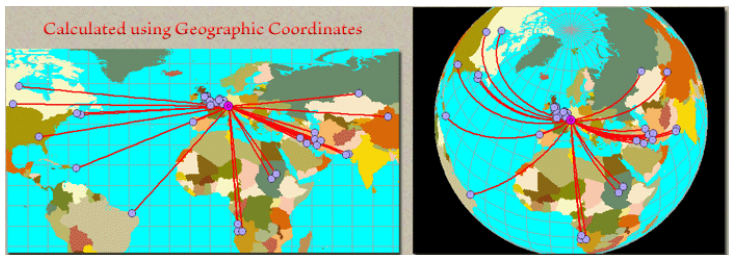
SADDLE



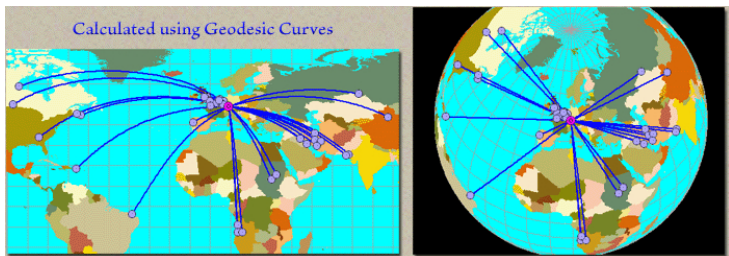
Negative Curvature

Hyperbolic geometry

Gedestic \rightarrow curve $\gamma(t)$ on surface $\vec{\sigma}(u, v)$
 for which at every point $\dot{\gamma}(t)$ is either 0 or \parallel to \hat{n}



Straight line distances are not shortest route on Earth



Ricci scalar

- Scalar curvature R
simplest curvature invariant of n -dimensional hypersurface
- To each point on hypersurface
assigns number determined by intrinsic geometry near that point
- R measures degree to which given metric
might differ from that of ordinary Euclidean n -space
- In two dimensions $\Rightarrow R = 2K$
and completely characterizes curvature of surface
- In more than two dimensions \Rightarrow curvature of hypersurfaces
involves more than one functionally independent quantity

- Consider freely falling spacecraft in gravitational field of radially symmetric mass distribution with total mass M
- Because spacecraft is freely falling
no effects of gravity are felt inside
- Spacetime coordinates from $r \rightarrow \infty$ \Rightarrow valid inside spacecraft
 $\vec{\Sigma}_\infty(t_\infty, x_\infty, y_\infty, z_\infty)$ $\Rightarrow x_\infty$ \parallel to movement & $y_\infty, z_\infty \perp$ to movement
- Spacecraft has velocity v at the distance r from mass M
measured in system $\vec{\Sigma} = (r, \theta, \phi, t)$ with mass M at rest @ $r = 0$
- As long as the *gravitational field is weak*
to first order approximation laws of special relativity hold
Lorentz transformation relates $\vec{\Sigma}$ @ rest and $\vec{\Sigma}_\infty$ moving with β

- We'll define shortly what “weak” means in this context
- For the moment \Rightarrow assume effects of gravity are small $\rightarrow v \ll c$
- If this were case

$$\begin{aligned}
 dt_{\infty} &= dt\sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \\
 dx_{\infty} &= \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \\
 dy_{\infty} &= r d\theta \\
 dz_{\infty} &= r \sin \theta d\phi
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

- Infinitesimal distance between two spacetime events

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^{\mu} dx^{\nu} = c^2 dt_{\infty}^2 - dx_{\infty}^2 - dy_{\infty}^2 - dz_{\infty}^2 \tag{11}$$

for case at hand

$$ds^2 = (1 - \beta^2)c^2 dt^2 - \frac{dr^2}{1 - \beta^2} + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \tag{12}$$

- Consider energy of spacecraft with rest mass m

$$(\gamma - 1)mc^2 - \frac{G\gamma mM}{r} = 0 \quad (13)$$

- Dividing by γmc^2

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) - \frac{GM}{rc^2} = 0 \quad (14)$$

- Introducing $\alpha = GM/c^2$

$$\sqrt{1 - \beta^2} = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{r} \quad (15)$$

yielding

$$1 - \beta^2 = 1 - \frac{2\alpha}{r} + \frac{\alpha^2}{r^2} \approx 1 - \frac{2\alpha}{r} \quad (16)$$

- Schwarzschild line element

$$ds^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha}{r}\right) c^2 dt^2 - \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha}{r}\right)^{-1} dr^2 - r^2 d\Omega^2 \quad (17)$$

- ds^2 \Leftrightarrow time and spatial distance between two spacetime events
- t measured by observer in instantaneous rest frame $\Leftrightarrow d\tau = ds/c$
- Δt between two events at same point $\Leftrightarrow dx^i = 0$
- Consider two static observers at position r and r' in Sch. metric then \Leftrightarrow

$$dr = d\phi = d\theta = 0$$

$$\frac{d\tau(r)}{d\tau(r')} = \frac{\sqrt{g_{00}(r)}dt}{\sqrt{g_{00}(r')}dt} = \sqrt{\frac{g_{00}(r)}{g_{00}(r')}} \quad (18)$$

- Time intervals $d\tau(r')$ and $d\tau(r)$ are different
time measured by clocks at different r from M will differ too
- In particular \Leftrightarrow time τ_∞ measured by observer at infinity
will pass faster than time experienced in gravitational field

$$\tau_\infty = \frac{\tau(r)}{\sqrt{1 - 2\alpha/r}} < \tau(r) \quad (19)$$

Gravitational redshift

- Since frequencies are inversely proportional to time
frequency of photon traveling from r to r'
will be affected by gravitational field

$$\frac{\nu(r')}{\nu(r)} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - 2\alpha/r}{1 - 2\alpha r'}} \quad (20)$$

- Observer @ $r' \rightarrow \infty$ will receive photons emitted @ r with ν

$$\nu_\infty = \sqrt{1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}} \nu(r) \quad (21)$$

- Photon frequency is redshifted by gravitational field
- Size of effect is of order Φ/c^2
 $\Phi = -GM/r$ ☞ Newtonian gravitational potential
- Weak gravitational field ☞ As long as $|\Phi|/c^2 \ll 1$ deviation of

$$g_{00} = 1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2} \approx 1 - 2\frac{\Phi(r)}{c^2} \quad (22)$$

from $g_{00} = 1$ of Minkowski spacetime is small
and Newtonian gravity is sufficient approximation

Event horizon

- What is the meaning of $r = R_{\text{Sch}} = 2\alpha$?
- At

$$R_{\text{Sch}} = \frac{2GM}{c^2} = 3 \text{ km} \frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \quad (23)$$

Schwarzschild coordinate system becomes ill-defined

- Apparent singularity
 - physical quantities like tidal forces doesn't become infinite
- Whether or not singularity is moved to origin
 - only depends on coordinate frame used
 - and has no physical significance whatsoever
- If gravitating mass is concentrated inside radius smaller than R_{Sch} we can't obtain any information about what is going on inside R_{Sch}
- $r = R_{\text{Sch}}$ ☞ defines event horizon
- Black hole ☞ object smaller than its Schwarzschild radius
 - object that has "cut itself off" from rest of universe

- Light rays are characterized by $ds^2 = 0$
- Consider light ray traveling in radial direction $\Rightarrow d\phi = d\theta = 0$

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha}{r}\right) c \quad (24)$$

- As seen from far away \Rightarrow light ray approaching a massive star will travel slower and slower as it comes closer to R_{Sch}
- For observer at infinity
signal will reach $r = R_{\text{Sch}}$ only asymptotically for $t \rightarrow \infty$
- Factors $(1 - 2\alpha/r)$ in line element control bending of light
phenomenon known as gravitational lensing
- First observation of light deflection
change in position of stars as they passed near the Sun
- Observations performed in May 1919 during total solar eclipse

Animated simulation of gravitational lensing caused by a black hole

- Binary X-ray sources → places to find black hole candidates
- Companion star → source of infalling material for black hole
- As matter falls or is pulled towards black hole
it gains kinetic energy, heats up, and is squeezed by tidal forces
- Heating ionizes atoms → atoms emit X-rays when $T > 10^6$ K
- X-rays are sent off into space before the matter crosses R_{Sch}
- Then → we can see this X-ray emission
- Cygnus X-1 first black hole candidate
- There is natural limit to luminosity L
that can be radiated by compact object of mass M
- Limit arises because both:
 - (i) attractive gravitational force acting on an electron-ion pair
 - (ii) repulsive force due to radiation pressure
 decrease inversely with square of distance from black hole
- When luminosity exceeds Eddington limit

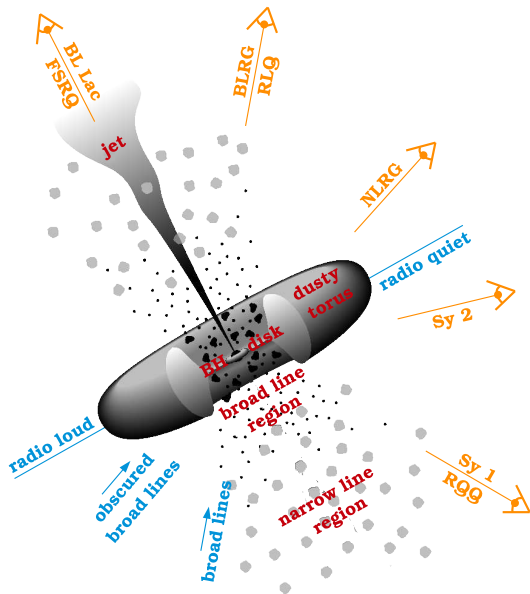
$$L_{\text{Edd}} = 30,000(M/M_{\odot})L_{\odot} \quad (25)$$

gas will be blown away by radiation

Active galactic nuclei

- AGNs are galaxies that harbor compact masses at center exhibiting intense non-thermal emission that is often variable which indicates small sizes (light months to light years)
- Under favorable conditions accretion leads to formation of highly relativistic collimated jet
- Formation of the jet is not well constrained \Rightarrow overall:
 - magnetic-field-dominated near central engine
 - particle dominated beyond pc distances
- AGN taxonomy \Rightarrow controlled by dichotomy between radio-quiet and radio-loud classes

AGN taxonomy



Kruskal coordinates

- Elegant coordinate substitution $\Leftrightarrow xy = \left(\frac{r}{2M} - 1\right) e^{r/(2M)}$ and $x/y = e^{t/(2M)}$
- Schwarzschild line element becomes

$$ds^2 = -16M^2 \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{dx}{x} \frac{dy}{y} - r^2 d\Omega^2 = -\frac{32M^3}{r} e^{-r/(2M)} dx dy - r^2 d\Omega^2$$

- Zero and pole at $r = 2M$ have cancelled out

