Black Holes and Gamma-Ray Bursts

Some Properties of Black Holes

- Entirely defined by their mass, rotation rate, and charge.
- Believed that all the mass is concentrated at the center in a small quantum-mechanical "singularity"
- Effective density of stellar mass black holes is very high, but there are supermassive black holes in active galactic nuclei with "densities" no greater than water. they are just very big
- The gravitational field of a black hole close to the event horizon is complicated, but by the time you are several Schwarzschild radii away, it is indistinguishable from that of an ordinary star.

Event Horizon

$$R_{\rm g} = \left(\frac{2GM}{c^2}\right) = 2.96 \ {\rm km}\left(\frac{{\rm M}}{{\rm M}_\odot}\right)$$

Note that this is proportional to M. Very massive black holes – some over 10⁹ solar masses have been inferred to exist in some Galactic centers. These black holes would be 20 AU in size.

Note that the "density" of a black hole scales as M^{-2} .

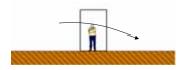
$$\rho = \frac{M}{(4/3)\pi R^3} \propto \frac{M}{M^3} \propto \frac{1}{M^2}$$
$$= 1.8 \times 10^{16} \left(\frac{M_{\odot}}{M}\right)^2 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

Kinds of black holes:

Class	Mass (solar masses)	Size
Supermassive	~10 ⁵ - 10 ⁹	0.001 - 10 AU
Intermediate	~1000	~ R _{earth}
Stellar	~10	~30 km
Primordial	Up to ~Moon	Up to ~0.1 mm

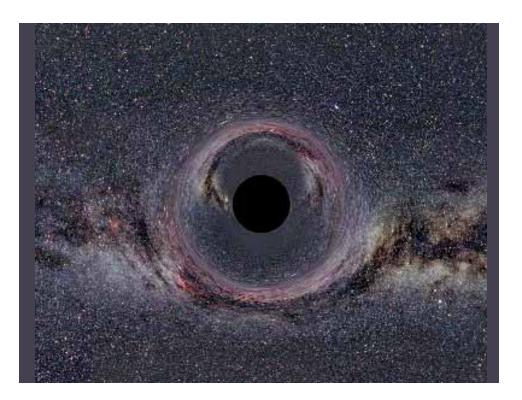
$$R_{s} = \left(\frac{2GM}{c^{2}}\right) = 2.96 \text{ km}\left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}}\right)$$

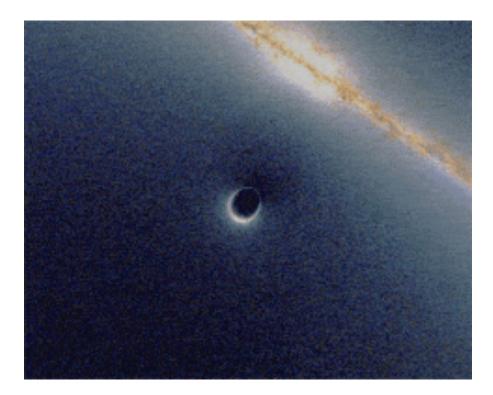
EQUIVALENCE PRINCIPLE





Gravity "bends" light





Circumference of orbit	Time experienced by outside observer per orbiter day	
20,000 km	1.41 days	
15,000 km	1.73 days	
12,000 km	2.44 days	
11,000	3.32	
10,500	4.50	
10,250	6.4	
10,050	14.18	
10,025	20.02	
10,005	44.73	
10,000.75	115.47	
10,000.50	141.42	
10,000.25	200.00	
10,000.125	282.84	
10,000.005	447.21	
10,000.001	3162.28 days	

For a black hole with circumference 10,000 km

About 500 solar masses

http://www.upscale.utoronto.ca/PVB/Harrison/GenRel/TimeDilation.html

Planck mass
$$\left(\frac{c\hbar}{G}\right)^{1/2} = 2.2 \text{ x } 10^{-5} \text{ gm}$$
 Hawking Penrose radiation
 $\tau \sim 8.4 \times 10^{-17} \left(\frac{M}{kg}\right)^3 \text{ sec}$
 $2 \times 10^{67} \text{ years for a 1 solar mass BH}$
Planck time $\left(\frac{G\hbar}{c^5}\right)^{1/2} = 5.4 \text{ x } 10^{-44} \text{ sec}$ $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$
Planck length $\left(\frac{G\hbar}{c^3}\right)^{1/2} = 1.6 \text{ x } 10^{-33} \text{ cm} = \frac{G \text{ (Planck mass)}}{c^2}$
 $\approx R_s \text{ for the Planck mass}$
Planck density $= \left(\frac{\text{Planck mass}}{(\text{Planck length})^3}\right) = 5 \text{ x } 10^{93} \text{ gm/cm}^3$

Scale of things: http://apod.nasa.gov/apod/ap120312.html

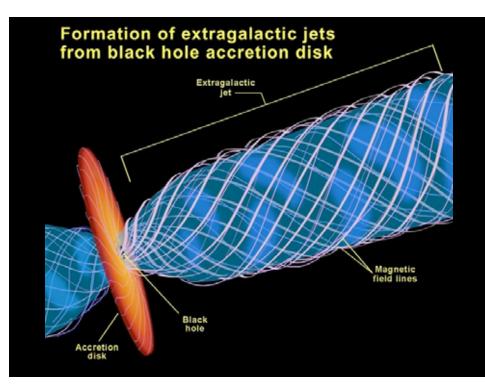
$$c = 2.99.. \times 10^{10} \text{ cm s}^{-1}$$

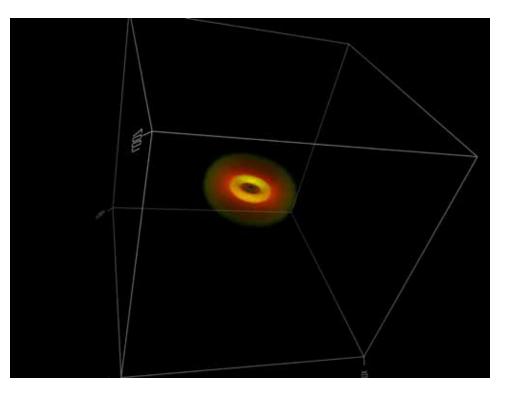
 $G = 6.67.. \times 10^{-8} \text{ dyne } \text{ cm}^2 \text{ gm}^{-2}$
 $\hbar = 1.05.. \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg s}$

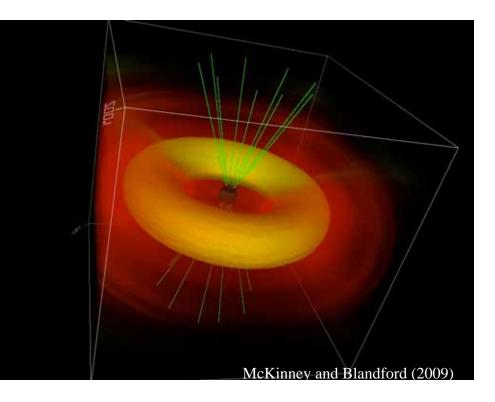
$$\frac{\hbar c}{G} = \frac{\left(2.99 \times 10^{10}\right) \left(1.05 \times 10^{-27}\right)}{\left(6.67 \times 10^{-8}\right)} \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{s}} \frac{\text{gm}^2}{\text{dyne cm}^2} \text{ erg s}$$
$$= 4.70 \times 10^{-10} \frac{\text{gm}^2 \text{ erg}}{\text{dyne cm}} = 4.70 \times 10^{-10} \text{ gm}^2$$
$$\left(\frac{\hbar c}{G}\right)^{1/2} = 2.17 \times 10^{-5} \text{ gm}$$

Uncertainty Principle

(Uncertainty in energy)(Uncertainty in time)~ \hbar $\left(Planck \; Mass \times c^2\right) \left(Planck \; time\right) \sim \hbar$ $\left(\frac{c\hbar}{G}\right)^{1/2} c^2 \left(\frac{G\hbar}{c^5}\right)^{1/2} = \hbar$









SS433 - a "microquasar" lies in the supernova remnant W50 (artist's conception). Red and blue shifts seen from jet. Jet speed 0.26 c. Period 13.1 days (in Aquila, 5.5 kpc).q

Gamma-Ray Bursts

http://apod.nasa.gov/apod/ap120312.html

http://apod.nasa.gov/apod/ap120310.html

A *Cosmic Gamma-Ray Burst*, GRB for short, is a brief, bright flash of gamma-rays lasting typically about 20 seconds that comes from an unpredictable location in the sky.

Some, in gamma-rays, are as bright as the planet Venus. Most are as bright as the visible stars. It is only because of the Earth's atmosphere and the fact that our eyes are not sensitive to gamma-rays that keeps us from seeing them frequently.

With appropriate instrumentation, we see about one of these per day at the Earth. They seem never to repeat from the same source.

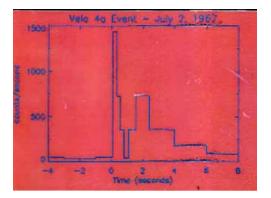
Velar – to watch

Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, 1963 First Vela satellite pair launched 1963



The Vela 5 satellites were placed in orbit by the Advanced Research Projects of the DoD and the AEC. Launched on May 23, 1969 into high earth orbit (118,000 km), this pair of satellites and their predecessors, Vela 4, discovered the first gamma-ray bursts. The discovery was announced in 1973.

First Gamma-Ray Burst



The Vela 5 satellites functioned from July, 1969 to April, 1979 and detected a total of 73 gamma-ray bursts in the energy range 150 – 750 keV (n.b., Greater than 30 keV is gamma-rays). Discovery reported Klebesadel, Strong, and Olson (1973).



Ian Strong – left Ray Klebesadel – right September 16, 2003

Gamma-ray bursts (GRBs) discovered 1969 - 72 by Vela satellites. Published by Klebesadel, Strong and Olson (1973)

An Observational Dilemma

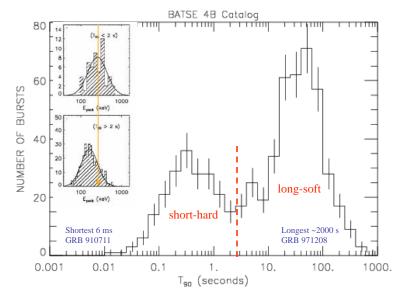
The gamma-ray detectors could detect brightness and spectra but had only crude angular resolution (> several degrees).

After the burst was over, these huge error boxes showed nothing particularly unusual (or maybe too many unusual things).

We thus had no idea of the nature of the objects emitting the bursts – and hence no knowledge of their burst or energy.

Early on some weak indication of association with the Galactic disk

GRBs come in at least two flavors

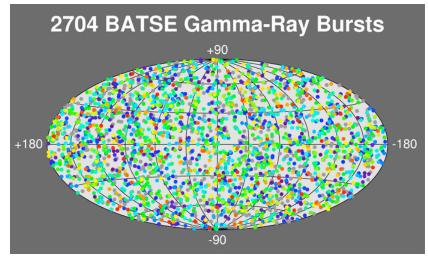


• Interstellar warfare

- Primordial black hole evaporation
- Flares on nearby stars
- Distant supernovae
- Neutron star quakes
- Comets falling on neutron stars
- Comet anti-comet annihilation
- Thermonuclear explosions on neutron stars
- Name your own

During the 1970's until the early 90's. uncertainty in distance – a factor of one billion.

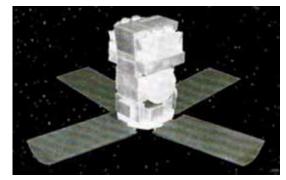
In the late 90' s



Bright long bursts are red; short fainter bursts are purple. The rest are intermediate. Note – no correlation with Galactic disk. Each burst was localized to about 1 degree.

Intermezzo – HETE – 1 (High Energy Transient Explorer)

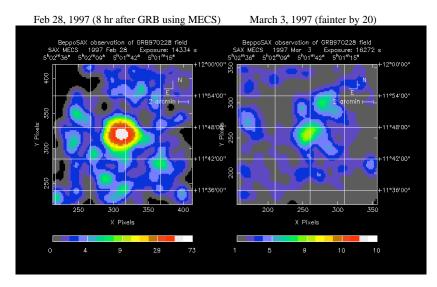
Launch April 11, 1996; died April 14, 1996



http://nssdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/nmc/spacecraftDisplay.do?id=1996-061A 175 kg; Instruments – FREGATE, WXM, UVC, SXC

(HETE - 2 - launched September 9, 2000)

BeppoSax GRB 970228 (discovered with WFC)

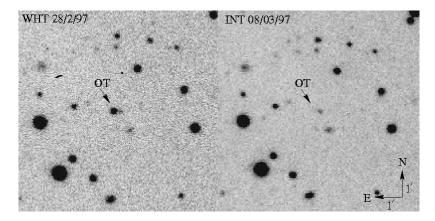


Each square is about 6 arc min or 1/5 the moon's diameter

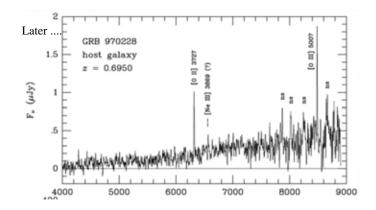
GRB 970228

William Hershel Telescope

Isaac Newton Telescope



Groot, Galama, von Paradijs, et al IAUC 6584, March 12, 1997 Looked hard and found a little faint galaxy when the OT faded



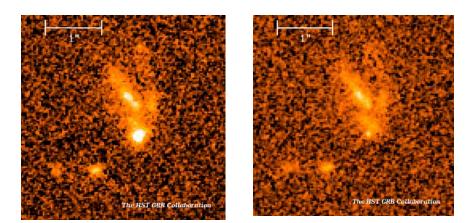
Spectrum of the host galaxy of GRB 970228 obtained at the Keck 2 Telescope.Prominent emission lines of oxygen and neon are indicated and show that the galaxy is located at a redshift of z = 0.695. (Bloom, Djorgovski, and Kulkarni (2001), ApJ, 554, 678. See also GCN 289, May 3, 1999.

From the red shift a distance can be inferred – billions of light years. Far, far outside our galaxy.

From the distance and brightness an energy can be inferred.

1.6 x 10⁵² erg in gamma rays alone

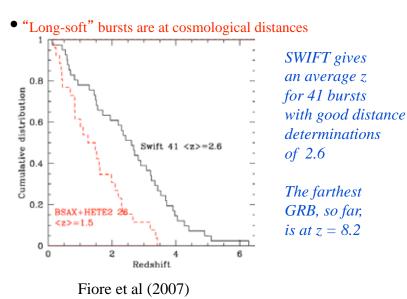
This is 13 times as much energy as the sun will radiate in its ten billion year lifetime, but emitted in gamma-rays in less than a minute. It is 2000 times as much as a really bright supernova radiates in several months.



Two HST images of GRB 990123. The image on the left was taken February 8, 1999, the one on the right March 23, 1999. Each picture is 3.2 arc seconds on a side. Three orbits of HST time were used for the first picture; two for the second – hence the somewhat reduced exposure. The spectrum of host galaxy (Kelson et al, IAUC 7096) taken using the Keck Telescopes gives a redshift of 1.61.

Given the known brightness of the burst (in gamma-rays) this distance implies an energy of over several times 10⁵⁴ erg. About the mass of the sun turned into pure energy.

Had this burst occurred on the far side of our Galaxy, at a distance of 60,000 light years, it would have been as bright – in gamma-rays – as the sun. This is ten billion times brighter than a supernova and equivalent to seeing a one hundred million trillion trillion megaton explosion. Now from the study of many GRBs



Swift bursts Most distant galaxy (z=8.55) (2=7.08) Meon: z = 2.24 Median: z = 1.956 pre-Swift bursts quasar Mean: z = 1.35 Median: z = 1.02Most distant Number 4 GRB 090429B GRB 050904 GRB 080913 GRB 090423 2 0 0 2 3 5 6 7 8 9 10 1 4

z

Age of the Universe (Billions of years) 3.4 2.2 1.6 1.2 1.0 0.8

0.7

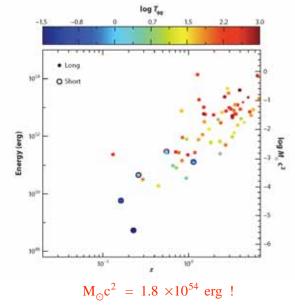
0.6

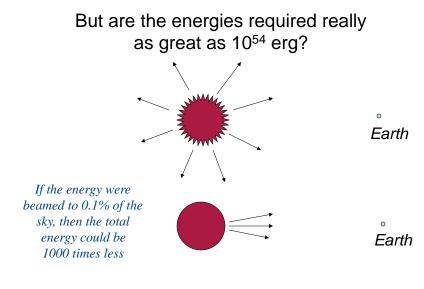
0.5

13.8

6.0

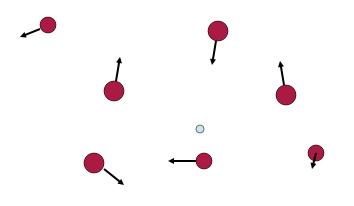
Inferred energy if bursts emit their radiation equally at all angles extends up to 10^{54} erg



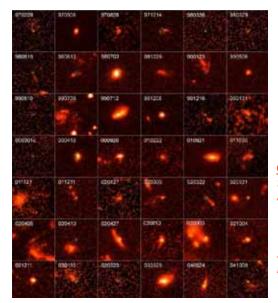


Nothing seen down here

But then there would be a lot of bursts that we do not see for every one that we do see. About 300 in fact.



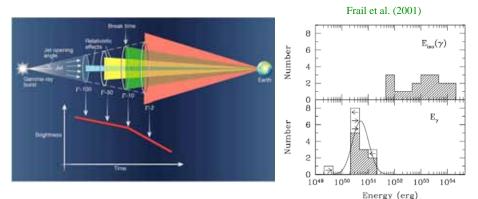
LS-GRBs occur in star-forming regions



Fruchter et al (2005).

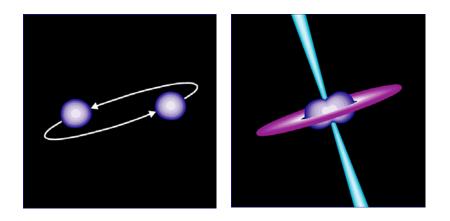
The green circles show GRB locations to an accuracy of 0.15 arc sec.

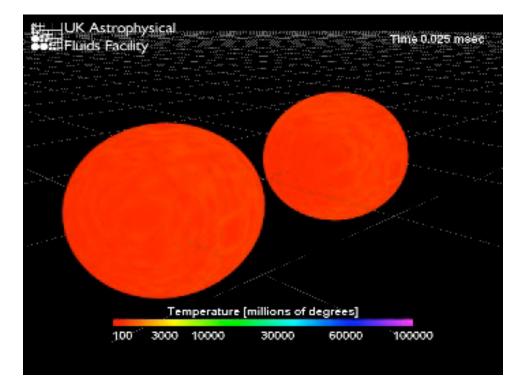
<u>Conclusion</u>: *GRBs trace star* formation even more than the average core-collapse supernova. They are thus to be associated with the most massive stars. They also occur in young, small, star forming galaxies that might be metal poor. GRBs are beamed and their total energy in relativistic ejecta is $\sim 10^{51}$ erg.



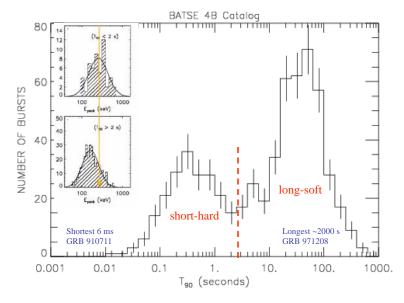
As a relativistic jet decelerates we see a larger fraction of the emitting surface until we see the edges of the jet. These leads to a panchromatic break slope of the the afterglow light curve.

One Model: Merging Neutron Stars





But what about the long soft bursts?

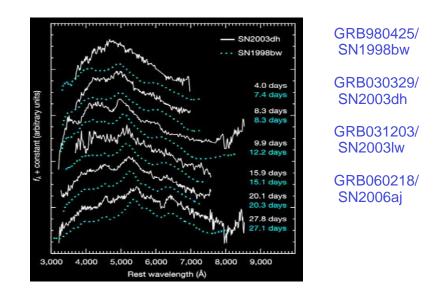


Starting in May 2005, about a half dozen short hard bursts were localized by the HETE-2 and SWIFT satellites.

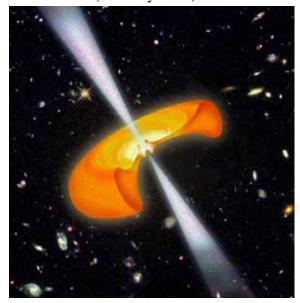
These bursts did not come from star forming regions, and in fact showed all the characteristics expected of merging neutron stars. It is widely believed that merging neutron stars (and neutron stars merging with black holes) have now been observed as short hard gamma-ray bursts. In the next 10 - 15 years, gravitational radiation detectors may detect these mergers.

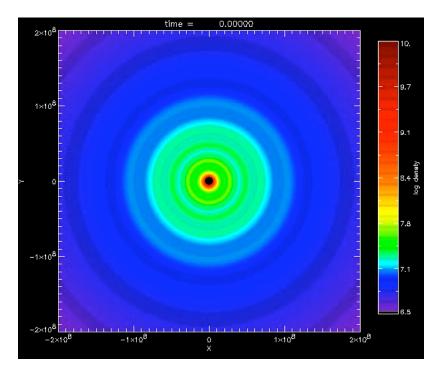
These GRBs are much closer than the LS GRBs and have ~30 times less energy.

LS-GRBs, at least frequently, occur in simultaneous conjunction with supernovae of Type Ic



The Collapsar Model (Woosley 1993)





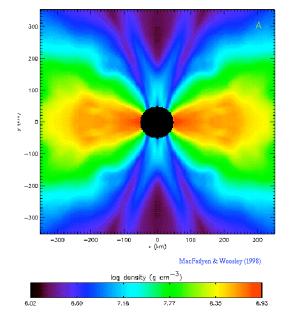
Usually massive stars make supernovae. Their iron core collapses to a neutron star and the energy released explodes the rest of the star.

But what if the explosion fizzled? What if the iron core collapsed to an object too massive to be a neutron star – a black hole.

A star without rotation would then simply disappear....

But what if the star had too much rotation to all go down the (tiny) black hole?

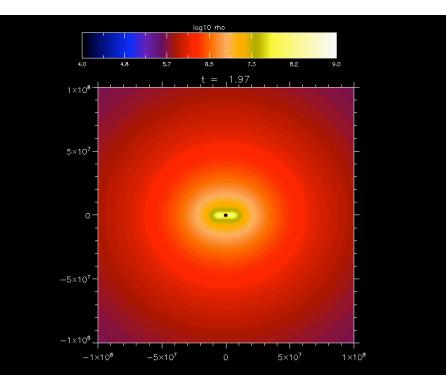
If supernovae are the observational signal that a neutron star has been born, what is the event that signals the birth of a black hole?

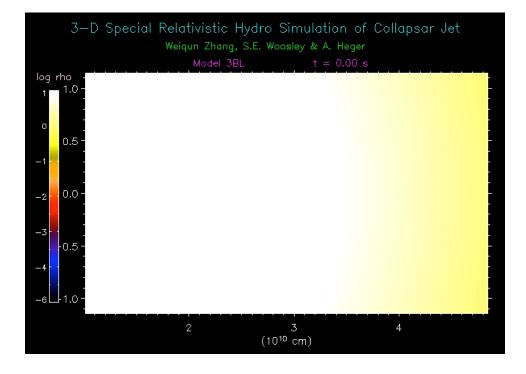


In the vicinity of the rotational axis of the black hole, by a variety of possible processes, energy is deposited.

The exact mechanism for extracting this energy either from the disk or the rotation of the black hole is fascinating physics, but is not crucial to the outcome, so long as the energy is not contaminated by too much matter.

7.6 s after core collapse; high viscosity case.

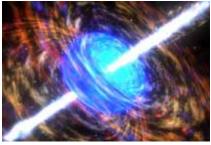










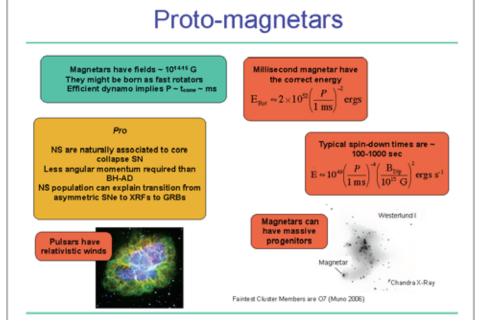


Dana Berry (Skyworks) and SEW

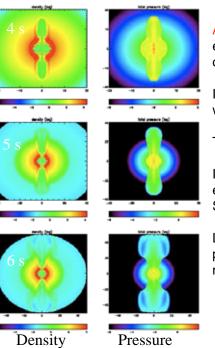


Predictions of the Collapsar Model

- Gamma-ray bursts should occur in star regions
- GRBs should be accompanied by Type I b or c supernovae (the jet doesn't get out of a giant star in time, need to lose envelope)
- ✓ GRBs should be favored by low metallicity and high redshift



Slide from N. Bucciantini



Assume a pre-existing supernova explosion in the stripped down core of a 35 solar mass star.

Insert a spinning down 1 ms magnetar with B ~ 10^{15} gauss.

Two phase wind:

Initial magetar-like wind contributes to explosion energy. Analog to pulsar wind. Sub-relativistic

Later magnetically accelerated neutrino powered wind with wound up B field makes jet.





A 10^{53} erg event situated 30,000 light years away (distance from here to the Galactic center) would give as much energy to the earth in 10 seconds as the sun – equivalent to a 200 megaton explosion.

Does it matter having an extra sun in the sky for 10 seconds?

Probably not. This is spread all over the surface of the earth and the heat capacity of the Earth's atmosphere is very high. Gamma-rays would deposit their energy about 30 km up. Some bad nitrogen chemistry would happen.

Noticeable yes, deadly to all living things – No.

Biological Hazards of Gamma-Ray Bursts

Distance (kpc)	Events /10 by	Megatons	Results
10	100 - 1000	200	Some ozone damage, EMP acid rain
1	1 – 10	20,000	Ozone gone, acid rain, blindnes 2 nd and 3 rd degree burns [*]
0.1	0.01 – 0.1	two million	Shock waves, flash incineration tidal waves, radioactivity (¹⁴ C) End of life as we know it.

* Depends on uncertain efficiency for conversion of energetic electrons to optical light