

# 相対性理論

アインシュタインはどこまで正しいのか

## 1. 序論

## 2. 特殊相対性理論

時間の進み方は観測者によって異なる

$E=mc^2$ , 原子核反応, 星の一生

干渉計

GPS

## 3. 一般相対性理論

時間の進み方は重力によって異なる

ブラックホール, 重力波

光格子時計

真貝寿明 (しんかい ひさあき)

大阪工業大学 情報科学部 教授

武庫川女子大学 非常勤講師

理化学研究所 客員研究員



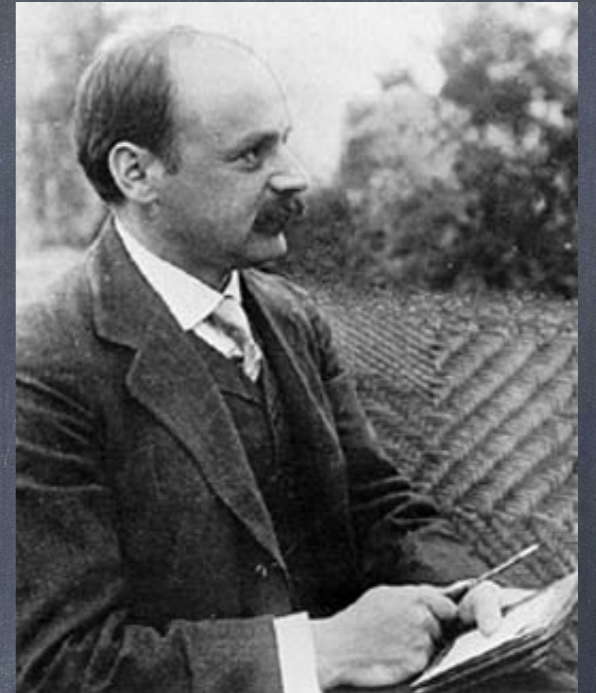
<http://www.oit.ac.jp/is/shinkai/>

# ブラックホール解 いろいろ

Schwarzschild (1916)

球対称, 真空でのEinstein方程式の厳密解

$$ds^2 = - \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}\right) c^2 dt^2 + \frac{dr^2}{1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}} + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2)$$



	電荷なし	電荷あり
宇宙項なし	Schwarzschild 1916	Reissner-Nordstrom 1916, 1918
宇宙項あり	Sch-de Sitter (Kottler) 1918	RN-de Sitter

$$ds^2 = -V(R)dT^2 + \frac{dR^2}{V(R)} + R^2 d\Omega^2$$

$$V(R) = 1 - \frac{2M}{R} + \frac{Q^2}{R^2} - \frac{\Lambda}{3} R^2$$

GRAVITATIONAL FIELD OF A SPINNING MASS AS AN EXAMPLE  
OF ALGEBRAICALLY SPECIAL METRICS

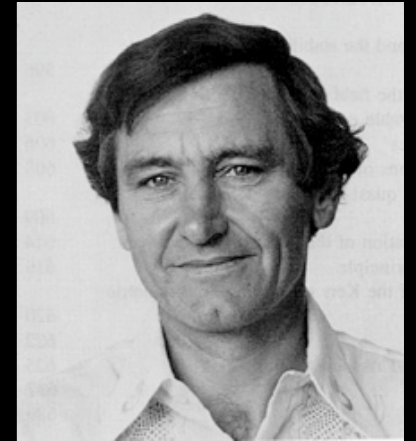
Roy P. Kerr\*

University of Texas, Austin, Texas and Aerospace Research Laboratories, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio  
(Received 26 July 1963)

Kerr (1963)

軸対称, 真空でのEinstein方程式の厳密解

$$ds^2 = -\frac{\Delta_r}{\Sigma\Xi^2} [dt - a \sin^2 \theta d\phi]^2 + \frac{\Sigma}{\Delta_r} dr^2 + \frac{\Sigma}{\Delta_\theta} d\theta^2 + \frac{\Delta_\theta \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma\Xi^2} [(r^2 + a^2)d\phi - a dt]^2$$



$$\Delta_r = r^2 - 2Mr + a^2$$

$$\Delta_\theta = 1$$

$$\Sigma = r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta,$$

$$\Xi = 1$$

	電荷なし	電荷あり
宇宙項なし	Kerr 1963	Kerr-Newman 1963
宇宙項あり	Kerr-de Sitter	KN-de Sitter

# ○○対称の牛アプローチ【時空】

「乳牛の乳の生産量を増やすにはどうしたらよいか」

「まず、球対称の牛がいた、と考えよう」

「次に、円筒対称の牛がいた、と考えよう」

「次に、面対称の牛がいた、と考えよう」

「次に、軸対称の牛がいた、と考えよう」

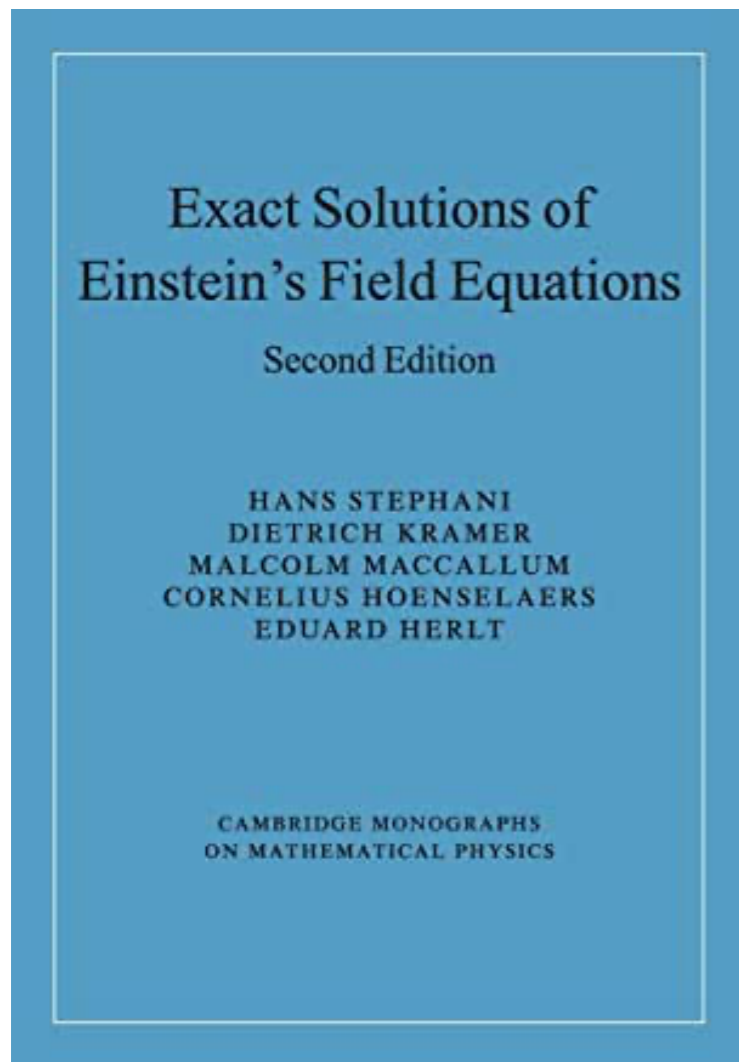
「次に、歪んだ牛がいた、と考えよう」

「次に、帯電した牛がいた、と考えよう」

「次に、膨張している牛がいた、と考えよう」

「次に、2頭の牛がいた、と考えよう」





- 出版社 : Cambridge University Press; 第2版 (2009/9/24)
- 発売日 : 2009/9/24
- 言語 : 英語
- ペーパーバック : 732ページ

Einstein方程式を解くのは簡単はずだ。Exact Solutionの本には数百の解が載っている。

S. Chandrasekhar (伝聞)



**BH解の安定性 (stability) ?**

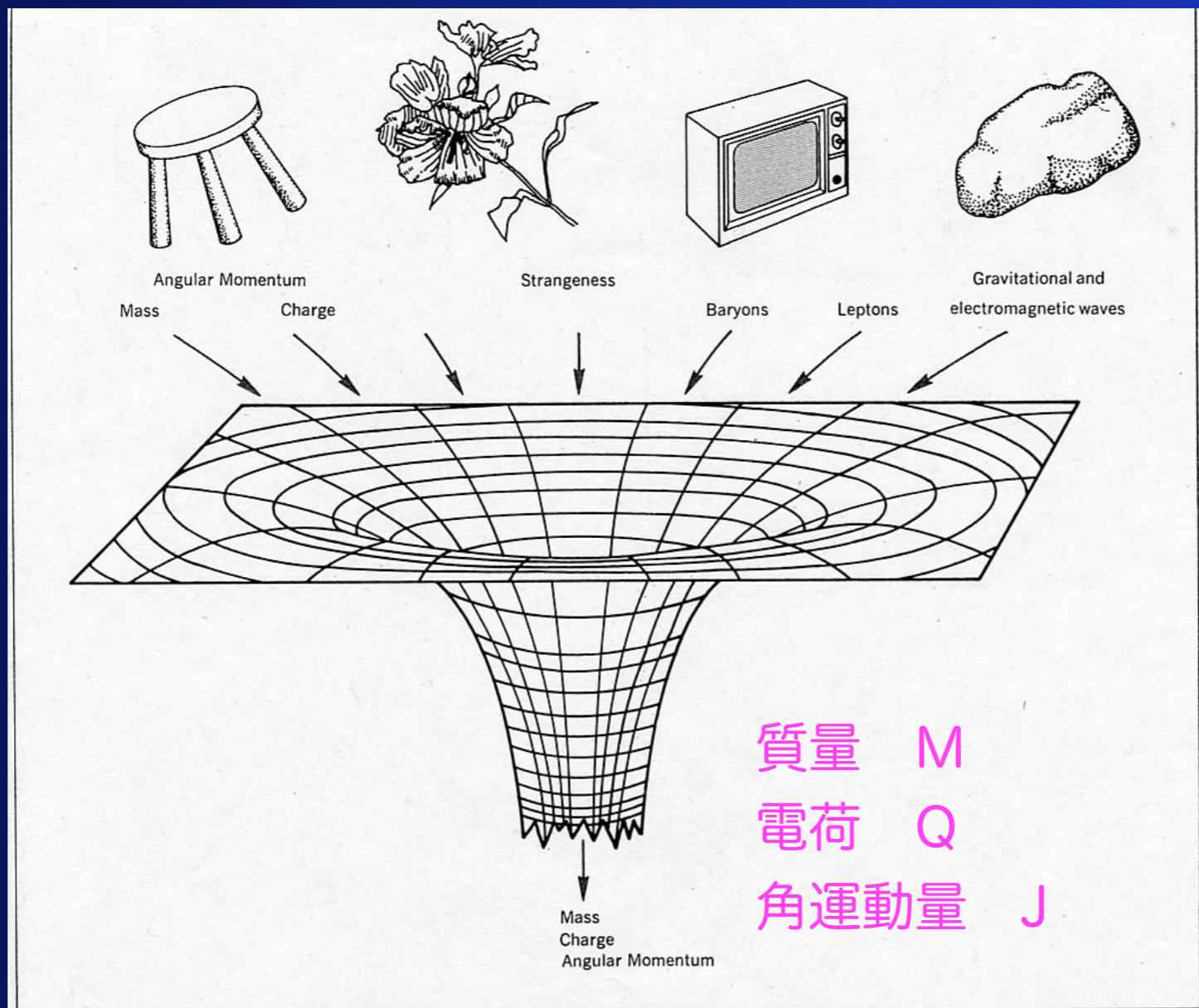
1957-69 Regge-Wheeler, Zerilli, Teukolsky-Press

**BH解の唯一性 (uniqueness) ?**

1967-75 Israel, Carter, Robinson

# ブラックホール脱毛定理

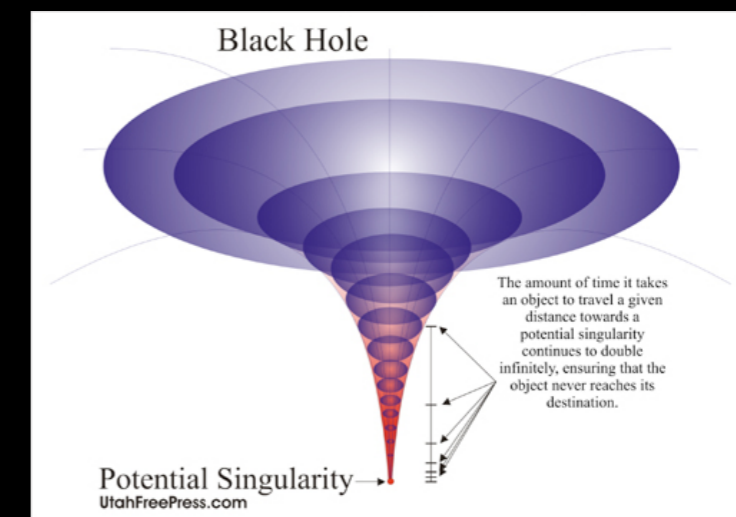
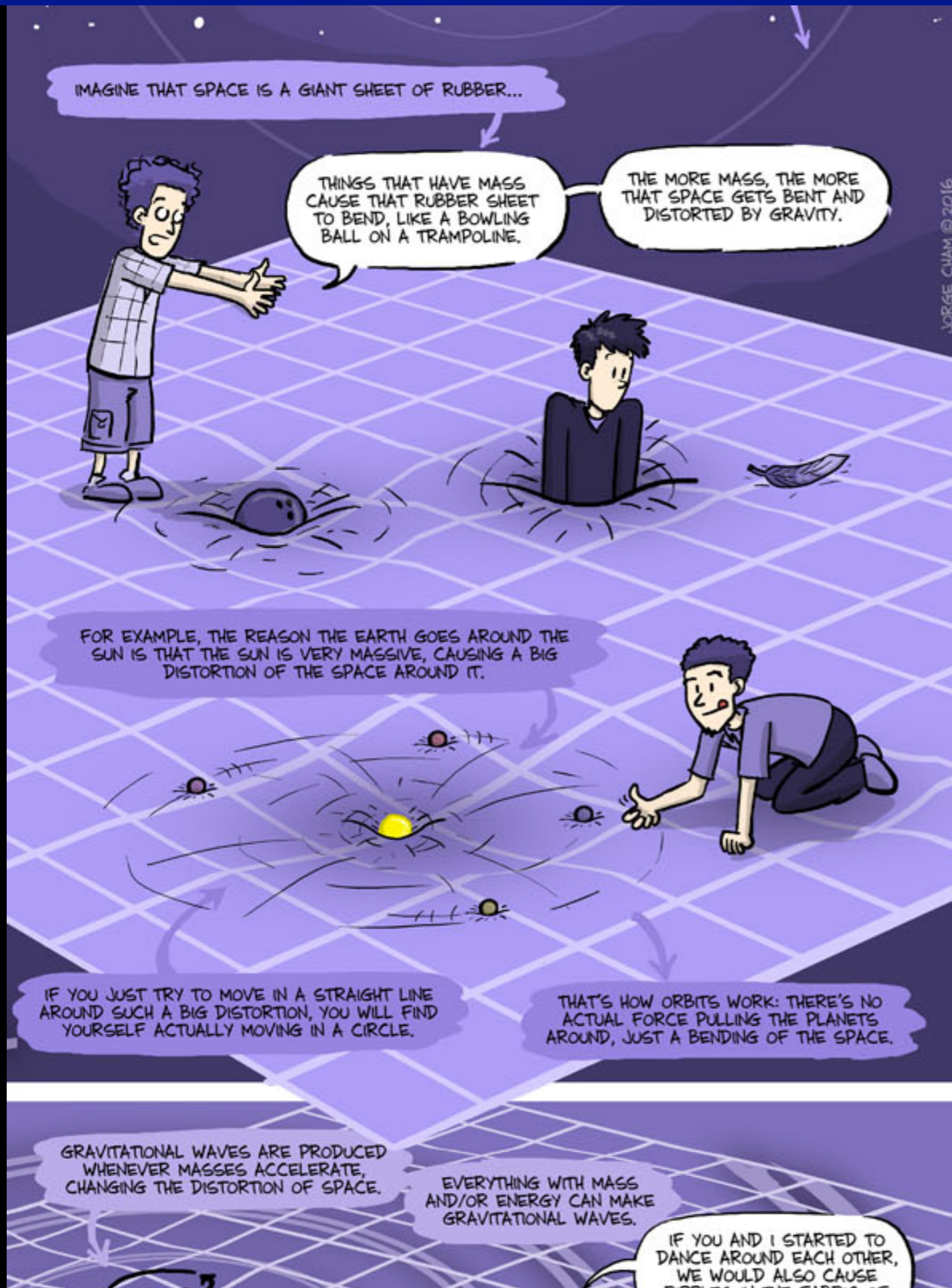
## black-hole no-hair theorem



Figurative representation of a black hole in action. All details of the infalling matter are washed out. The final configuration is believed to be uniquely determined by mass, electric charge, and angular momentum. Figure 1



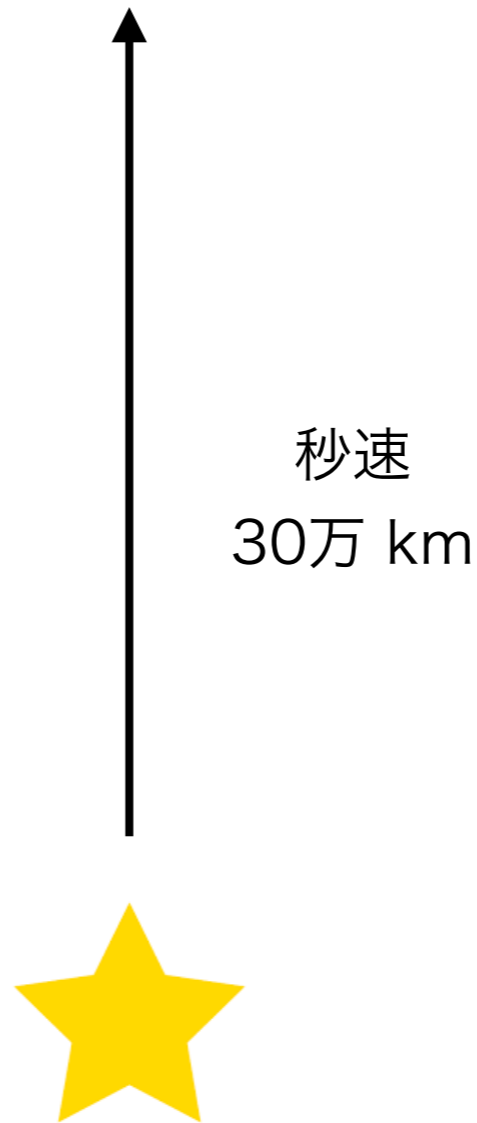
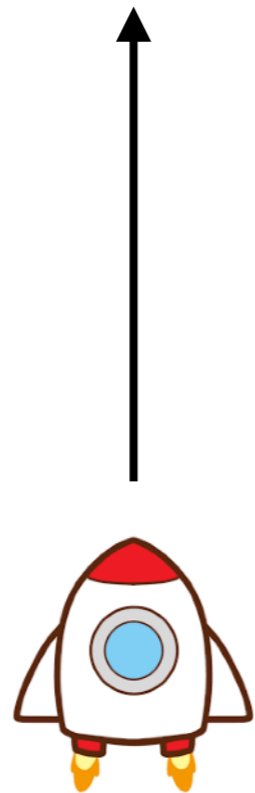
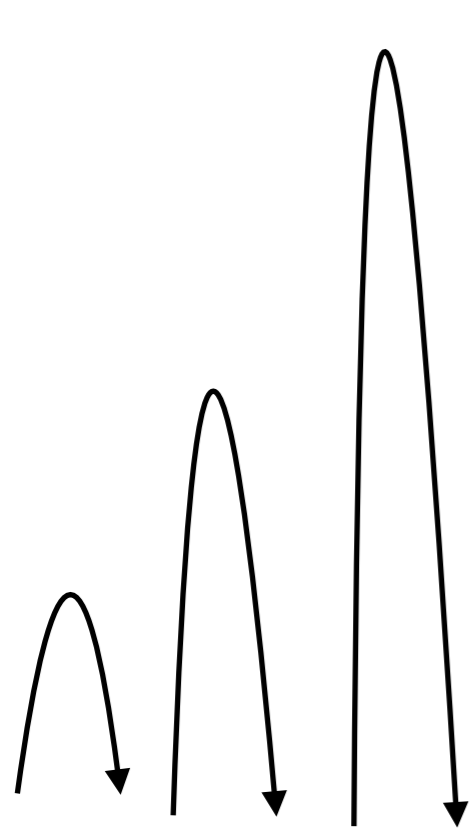
# ブラックホール



# 光も脱出できない天体とは・・・

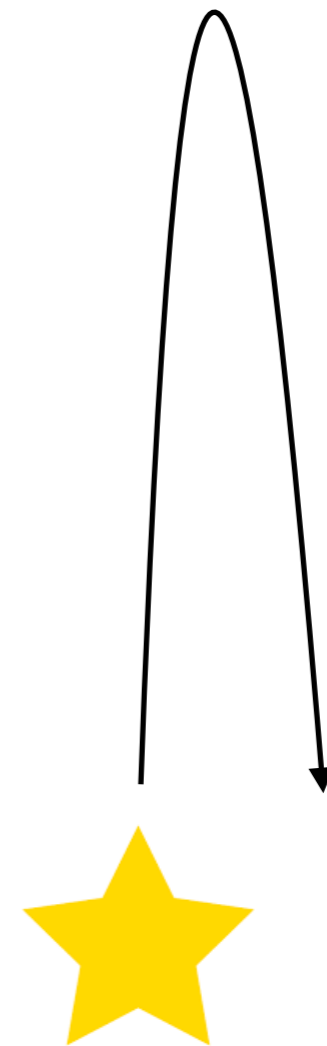
とてつもなく  
重くて小さな天体では

ボールを速く投げ上げると、  
高くまで飛ぶ



秒速  
30万 km

光は当然  
脱出できる



光も  
脱出できない



地球からの脱出速度  
秒速 12 km

**地球質量が半径9mmに  
なったら、  
ブラックホール**

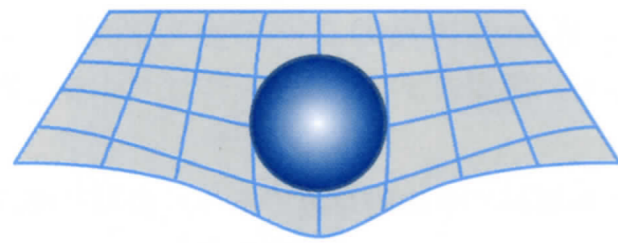


# ブラックホールの定義 (一般向け)

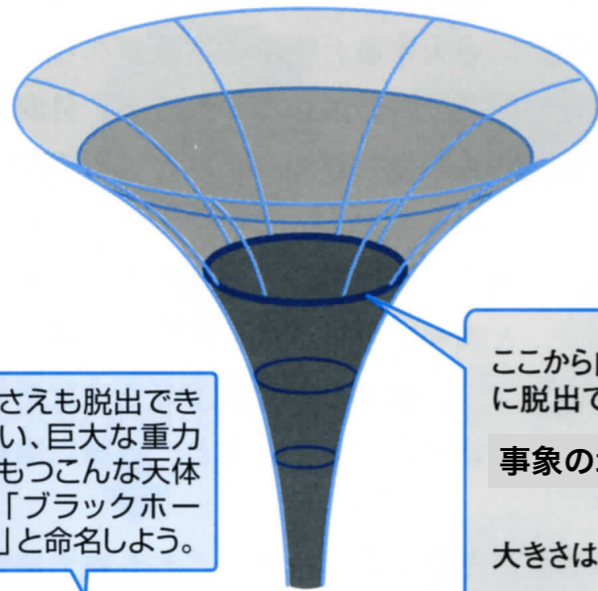
## ブラックホール

= 重力が強く，光速でも脱出できない天体

= 因果的に隔離される領域



重い物体の周りでは  
時空がゆがむ。



非常に重い物体のまわりでは時空が大きくゆがんで、ブラックホールになる。

光さえも脱出できない、巨大な重力をもつこんな天体を「ブラックホール」と命名しよう。

ここから内側からは光さえも外向きに脱出できない。

事象の地平面 (event horizon)

大きさはシュワルツシルト半径  $r$

$$r = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

( $M$ : 物体の質量,  $G$ : 重力定数,  $c$ : 光速)

太陽なら半径3km、地球なら半径9mmにそれぞれの全質量を押しこめば、ブラックホールになる。

境界 = 事象の地平面  
(event horizon)

$$R_{\text{Sch}} = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

表 4.1: シュワルツシルト半径 (対応するブラックホールの大きさ). 質量  $M$  の物体がどの位の半径  $R_{\text{Sch}}$  に押し込まれたらブラックホールになるか, という目安. Sgr A\* は天の川銀河中心の超巨大ブラックホール.

天体	$M$	$R_{\text{Sch}}$
地球	$6.0 \times 10^{24}$ kg	8.9 mm
太陽	$M_{\odot} = 2.0 \times 10^{30}$ kg	2.95 km
Sgr A*	$4.2 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$	$1.24 \times 10^7$ km

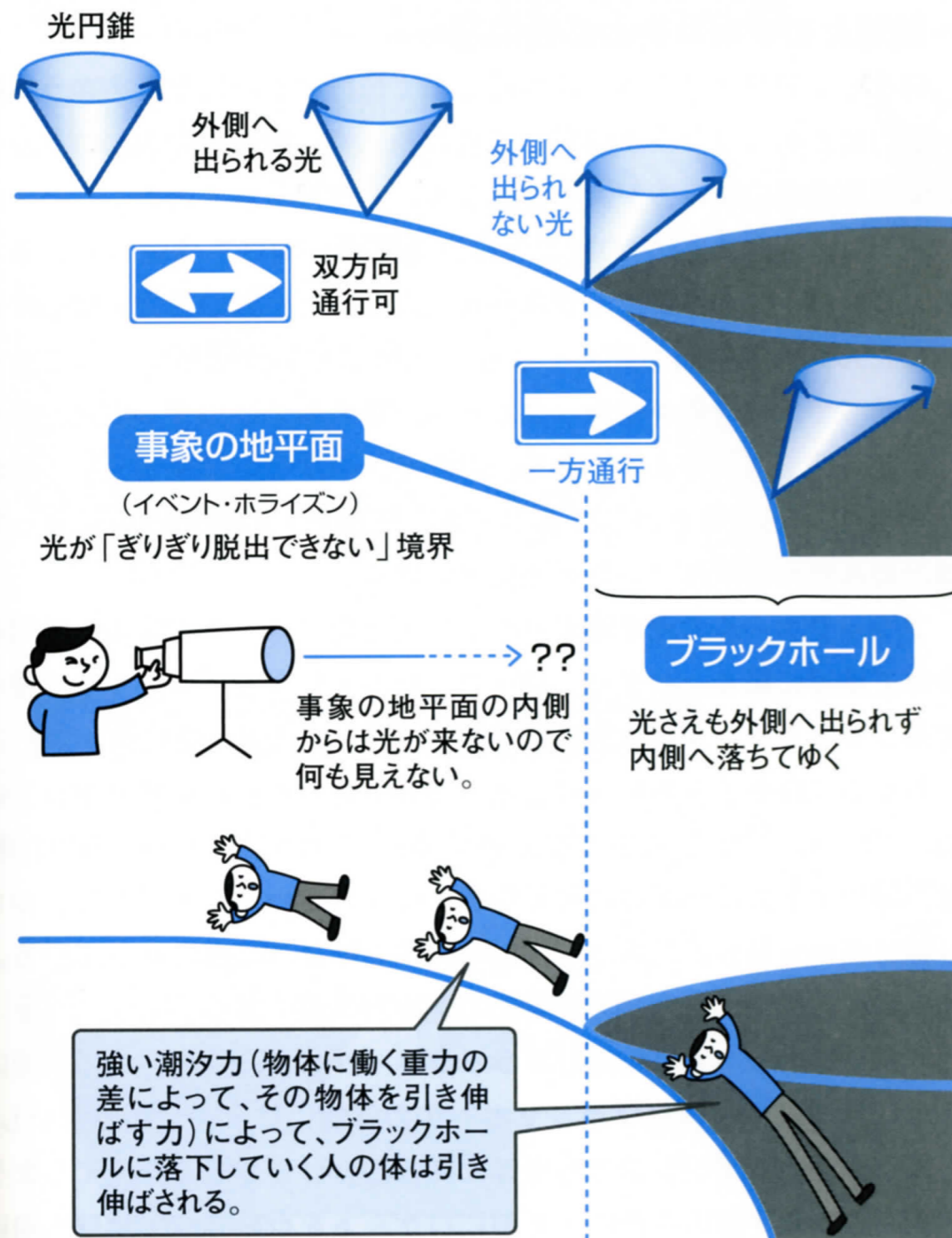


ホイーラー

Wheeler

# ブラックホールの定義 (一般向け)

## ブラックホールの事象の地平面



ブラックホール

= 重力が強く、光速でも脱出できない天体

= 因果的に隔離される領域

**境界 = 事象の地平面**  
**(event horizon)**

$$R_{\text{Sch}} = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

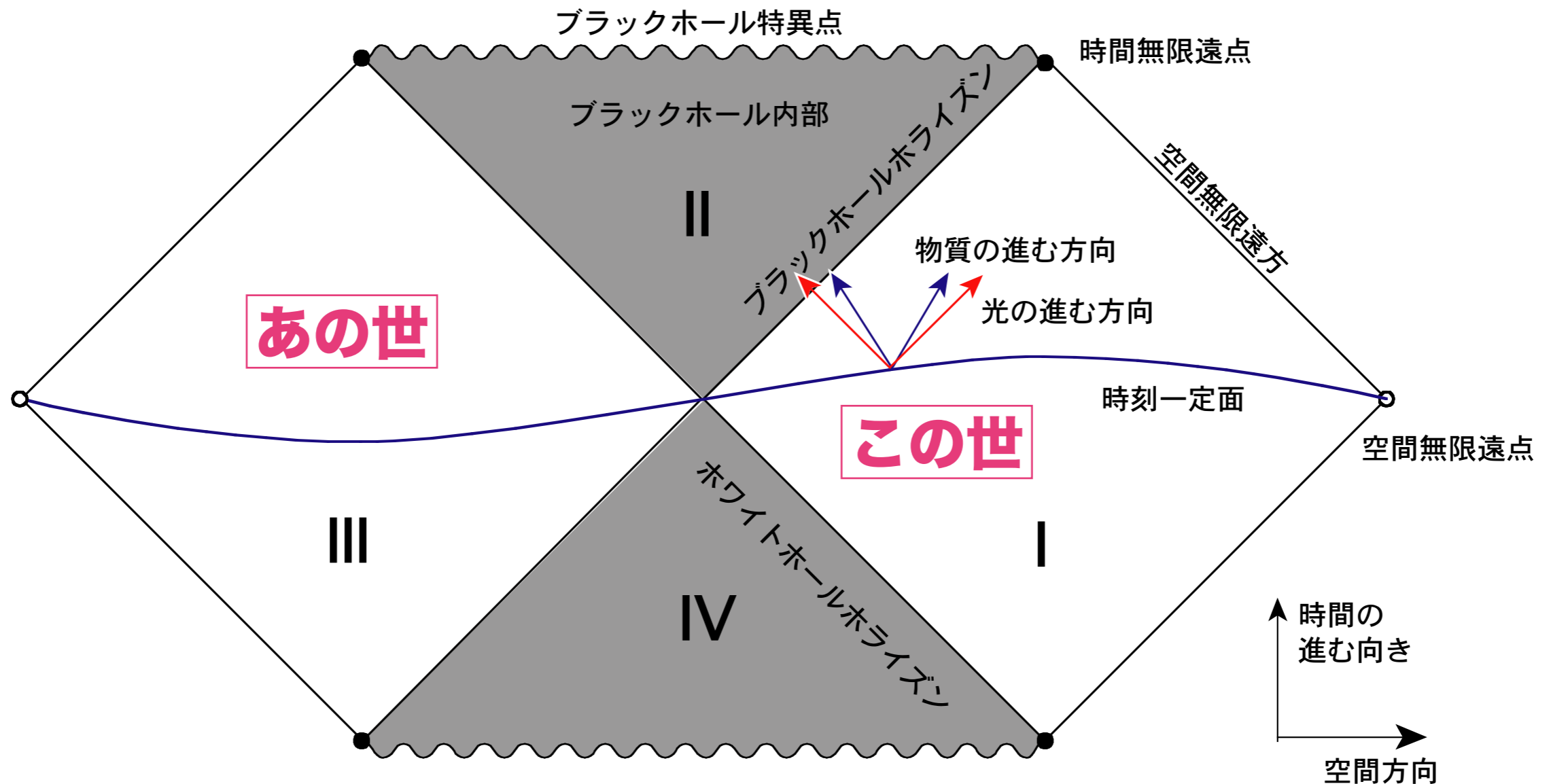
表 4.1: シュヴァルツシルト半径 (対応するブラックホールの大きさ)。質量  $M$  の物体がどの位の半径  $R_{\text{Sch}}$  に押し込まれたらブラックホールになるか、という目安。Sgr A\* は天の川銀河中心の超巨大ブラックホール。

天体	$M$	$R_{\text{Sch}}$
地球	$6.0 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$	8.9 mm
太陽	$M_{\odot} = 2.0 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}$	2.95 km
Sgr A*	$4.2 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$	$1.24 \times 10^7 \text{ km}$

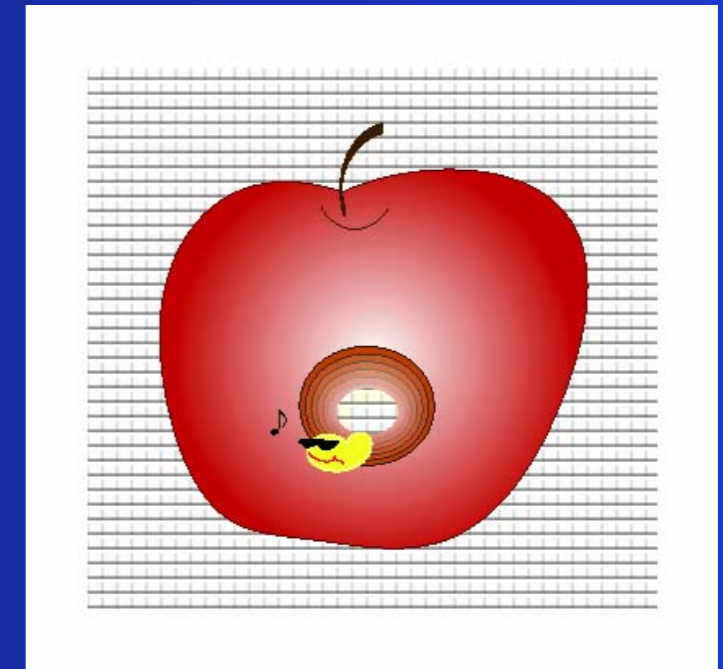
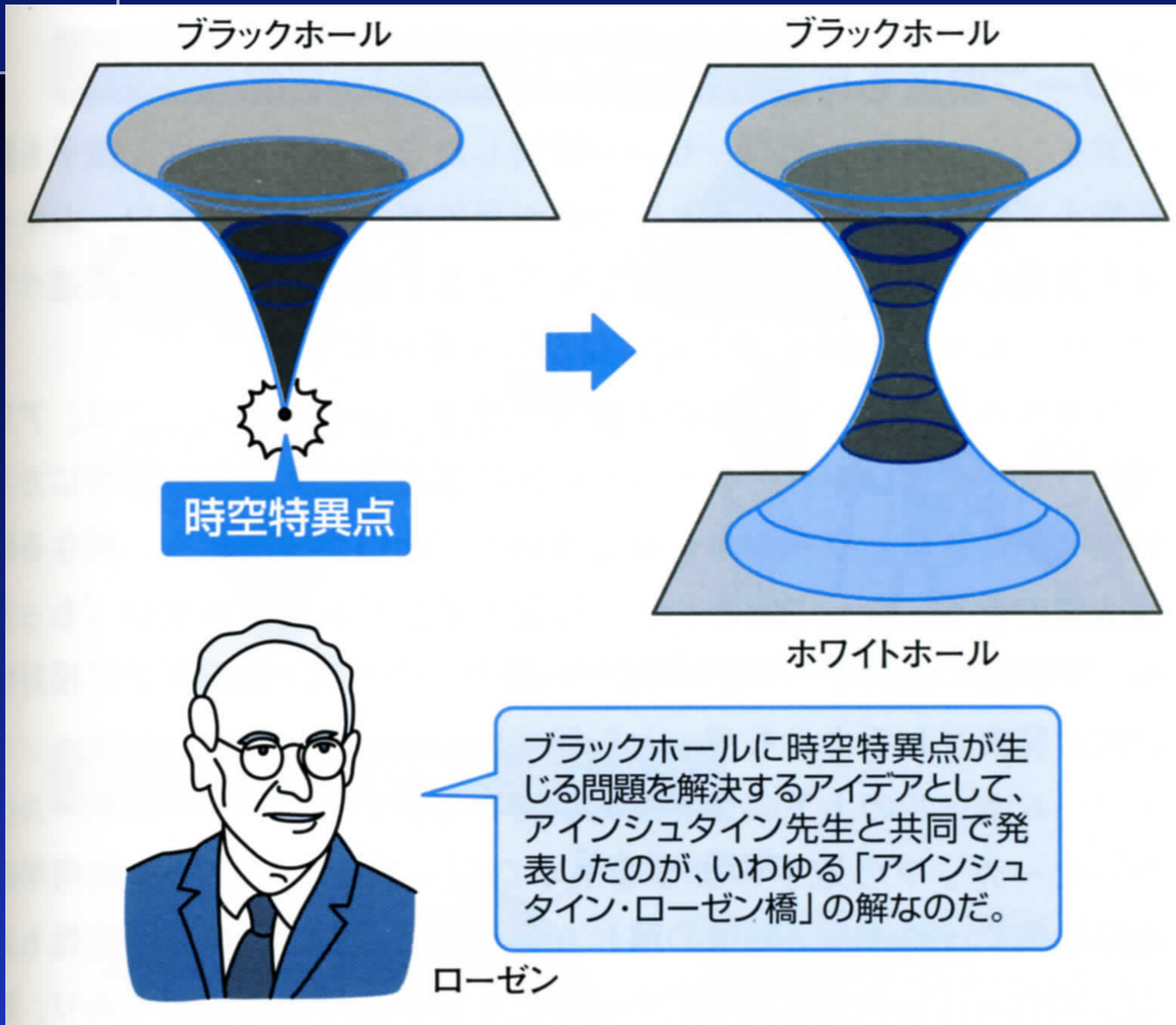
# ブラックホールの定義 (専門家向け)

ブラックホール=光が空間無限遠方に到達できない時空領域

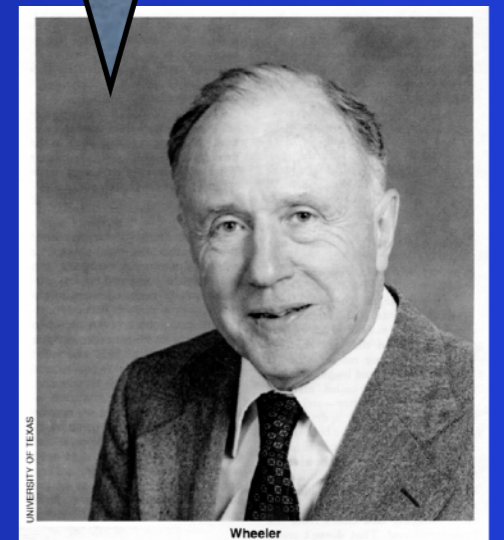
## Schwarzschild Black HoleのPenrose図



# アインシュタイン・ローゼンブリッジ



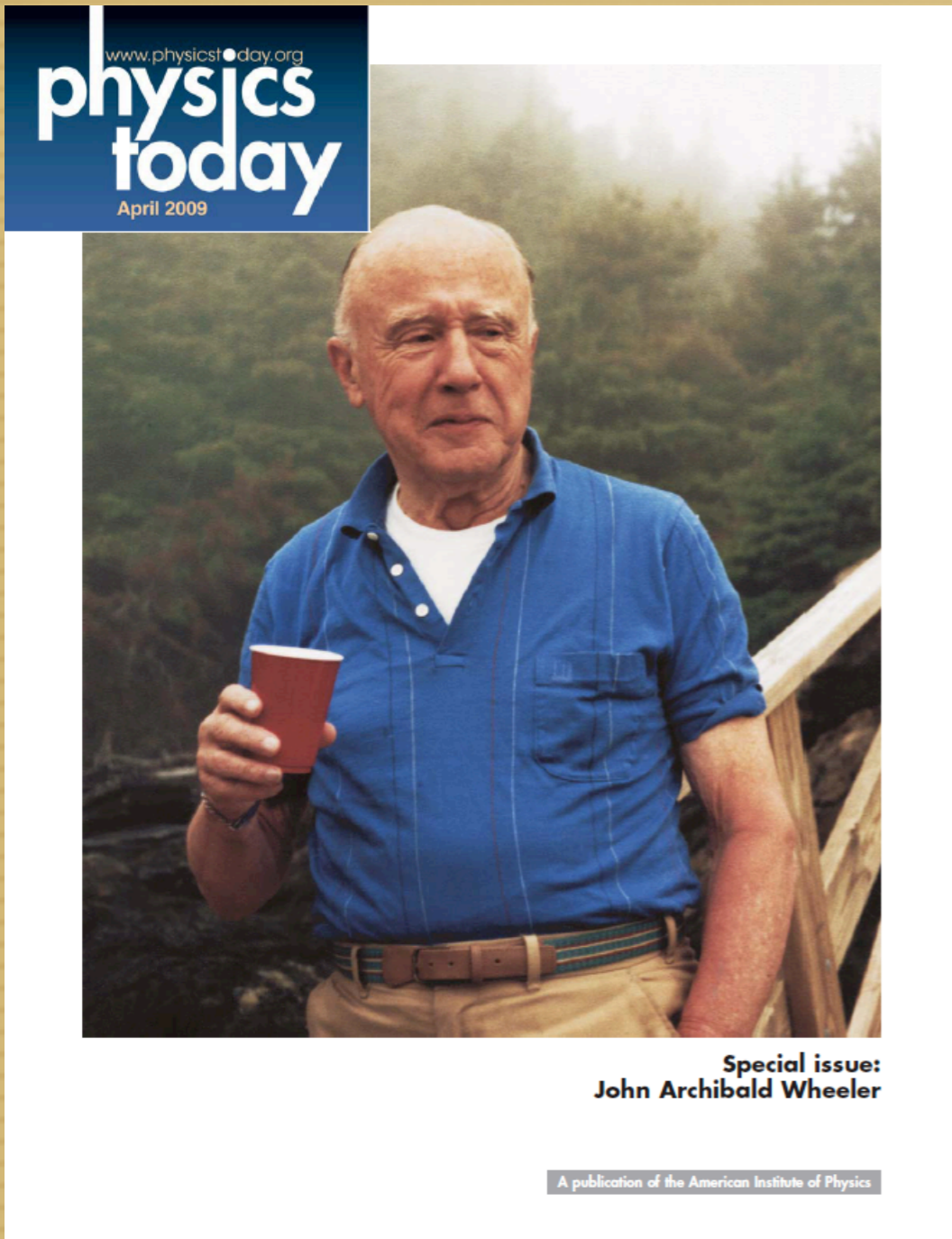
ワームホール  
と呼ぼう



ホイーラー

# John A. Wheeler

(July 9, 1911 – April 13, 2008)



# Wheelerの育てた人材

Richard Feynman (PhD 1942)  
Hugh Everett (PhD 1956)  
Charles Misner (PhD 1957)  
David Sharp (AB 1960)  
Richard Lindquist (PhD 1962)  
Kip Thorne (PhD 1965)  
Robert Geroch (PhD 1967)  
Yavuz Nutku (PhD 1969)  
Wojciech Zurek (PhD 1979)  
William Unruh (PhD 1971)  
Demetrios Christodoulou (PhD 1971)  
Robert Wald (PhD 1972)  
Jacob Bekenstein (PhD 1972)  
Warner A. Miller (PhD 1986)

.....

**Mentoring at Princeton University 1938–78\***

Professor	PhD theses supervised	PhDs per year	Extra acknowledgments†	Senior theses supervised
John Wheeler	46	1.22	19	46
Thomas Carver	16	0.76	13	21
Robert Dicke	25	0.81	8	11
Val Fitch	15	0.71	5	5
Marvin Goldberger	19	0.95	10	4
Rubby Sherr	14	0.45	17	11
Sam Trieman	24	1.04	16	4
Arthur Wightman	24	0.93	14	11
Eugene Wigner	25	0.83	16	0

\* Physics PhD and senior theses supervised during 1938–78 at Princeton by the nine professors who supervised the most doctoral theses during that period.

† Acknowledgments in PhD theses thanking a professor other than the adviser of record.

# Wheelerの創った言葉

## Box 1. Wheeler coinages

John Wheeler believed that the names given to concepts or to descriptions of an idea strongly influence how we think about concepts and ideas, even how we work on them and build on them. In short, the word inspires the deed. Accordingly, Wheeler spent many hours (often soaking in a warm bathtub) searching for the most apt terms. Here, in rough chronological order, are some of his coinages:

**S-Matrix** the scattering operator in quantum mechanics

**Sum over histories** Richard Feynman's path-integral method

**Moderator** the material that slows neutrons in a nuclear reactor

**Stellarator** a plasma magnetic confinement device

**Planck length, Planck time** the scales at which quantum gravity dominates

**Geon** an object made from waves bound together by their energy's gravity

**Mass without mass** gravitating object containing no massive particles

**Charge without charge** wormholes as sources and sinks of electric field lines

**Wormhole** a topological "handle" in the geometry of curved space

**Quantum foam** quantum fluctuations in the geometry of spacetime

**Black hole\*** the object formed by implosion of a sufficiently massive star

**A black hole has no hair** a classical black hole's properties are determined by only its mass, spin angular momentum, and charge

**Space tells matter how to move and matter tells space how to curve** the summarized content of general relativity

**Law without law\*\*** emergence of law from random processes

**It from bit\*\*** a physical world built of information units

**Mutability\*\*** susceptibility of physical law to evolution and change

**Observer-participancy\*\*** influence of the observer on reality

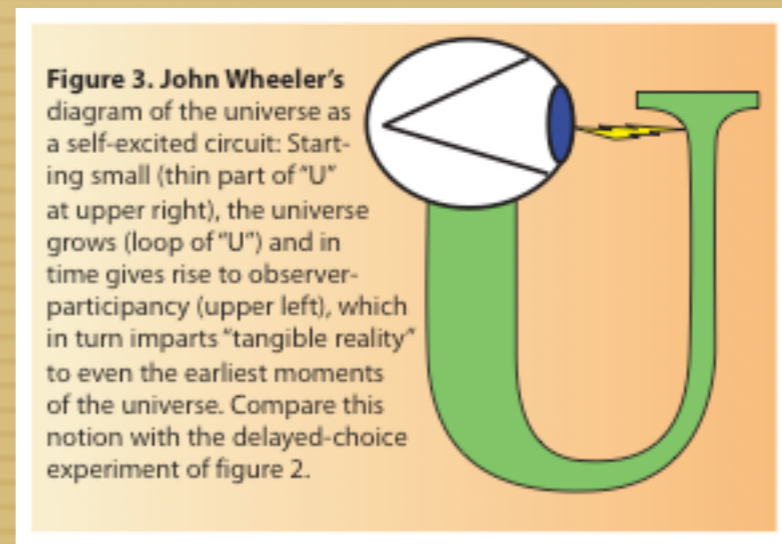
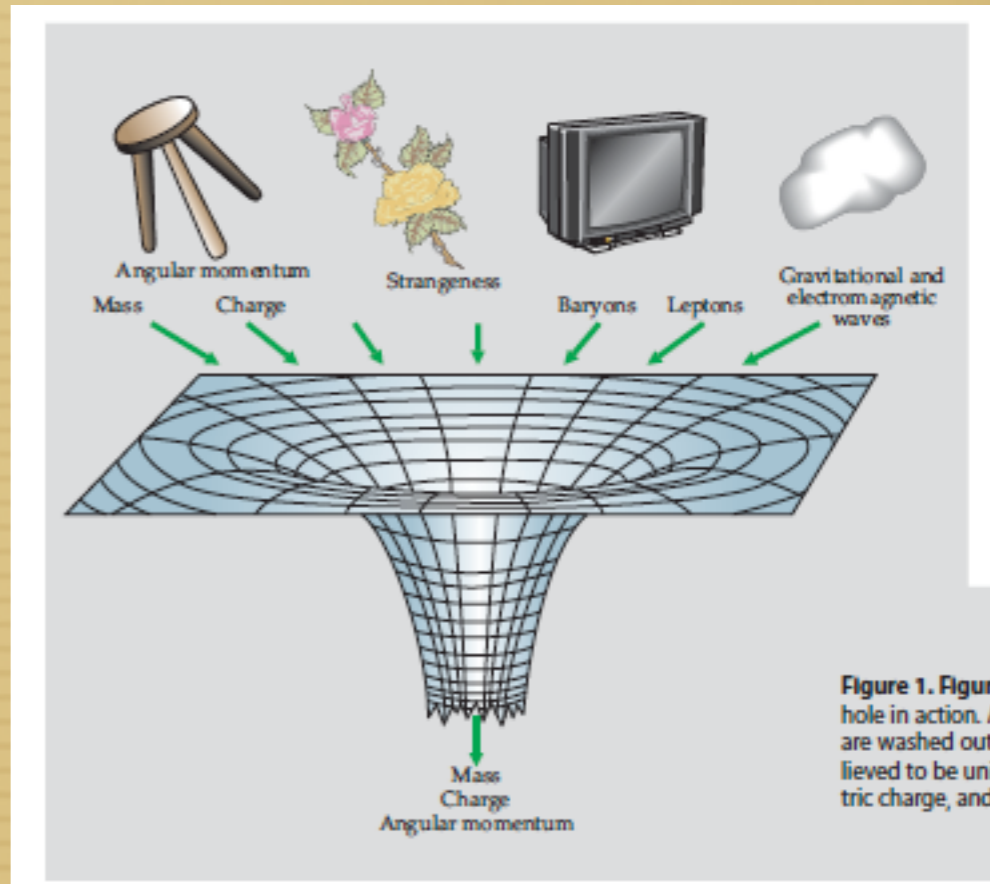
**The universe as a self-excited circuit\*\*** shaping the past from the present

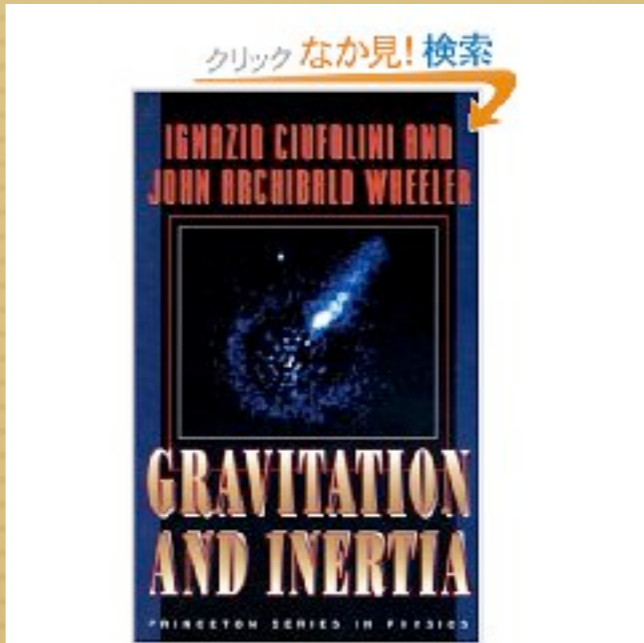
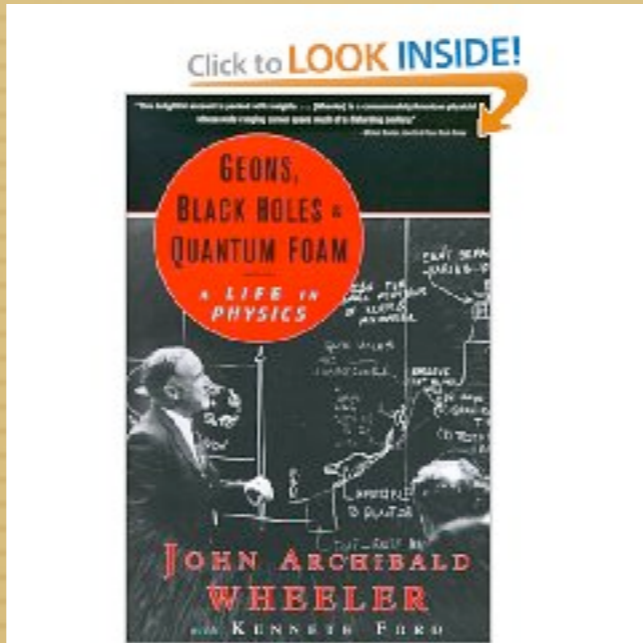
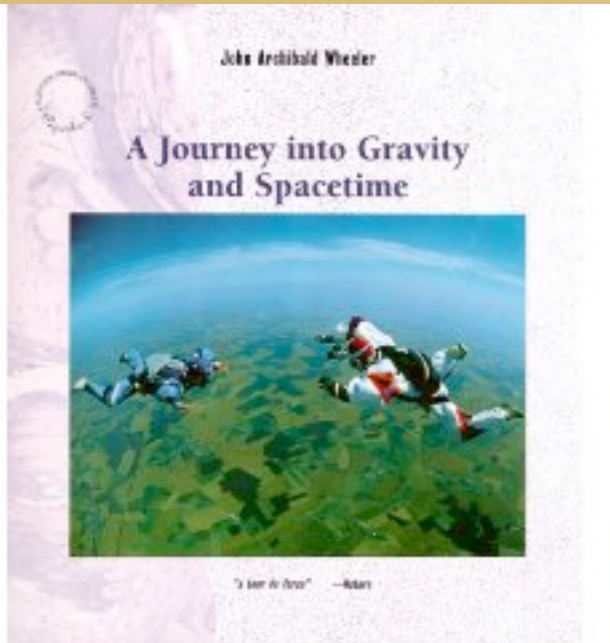
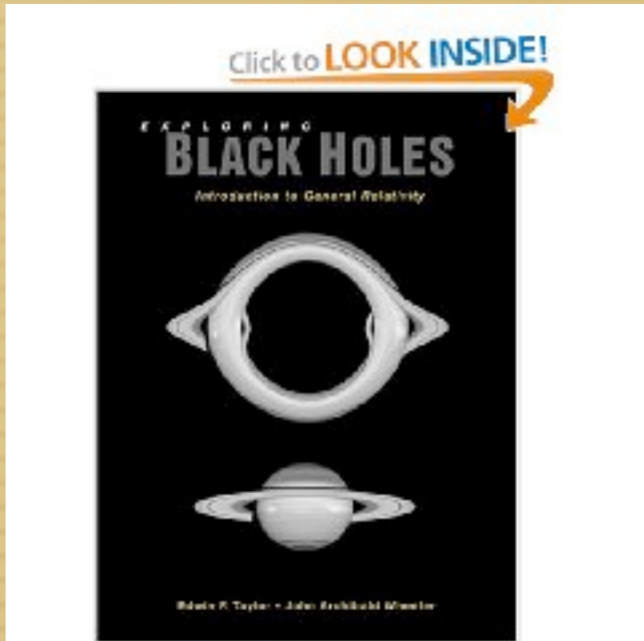
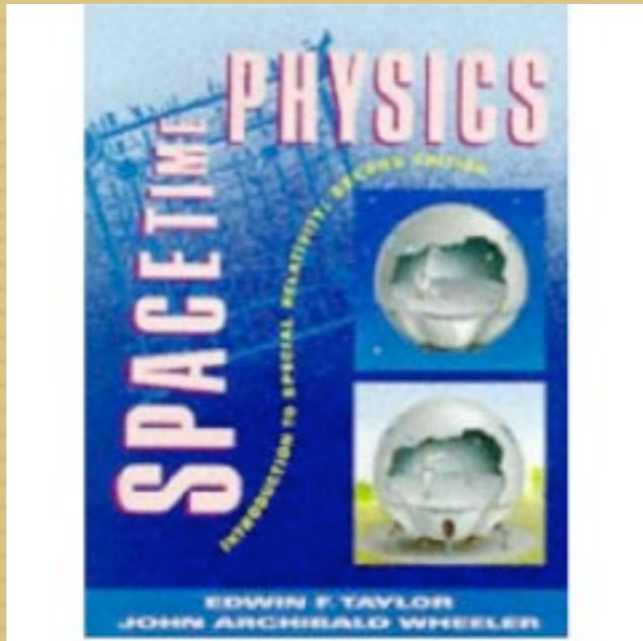
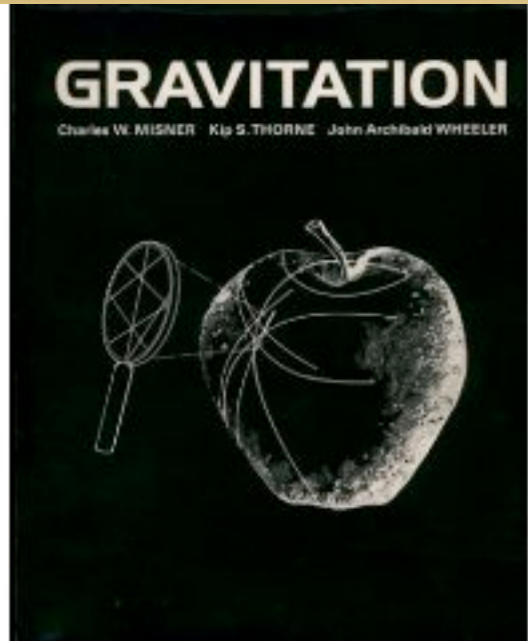
**A single quantum cannot be cloned** a theorem that puts a limit on quantum amplifiers

\* The phrase "black hole" appears to have been used first, for the object formed by stellar implosion, by one or more non-physicists shortly after the 1963 discovery of quasars, but it did not stick. Wheeler recalls adopting it in 1968 after somebody at a lecture he was giving shouted it out as a suggestion, and in his hands it was quickly adopted worldwide.

\*\*An influential, speculative idea due to Wheeler.

S-Matrix,  
Sum over histories,  
Planck length,  
Planck time,  
Wormhole,  
Black Hole,  
Geon,  
Quantum foam,  
A BH has no hair,  
law without law,  
it from bit, ...



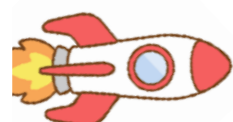




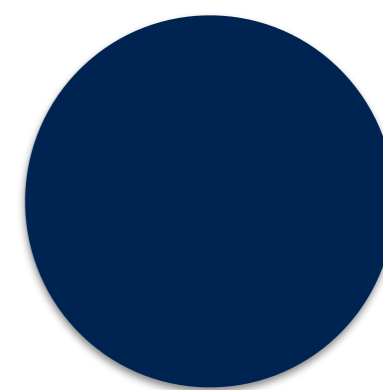
## 互いに「相手の時計が遅れている」というパラドックス

ブラックホールに落ち込むまでには無限の時間がかかる

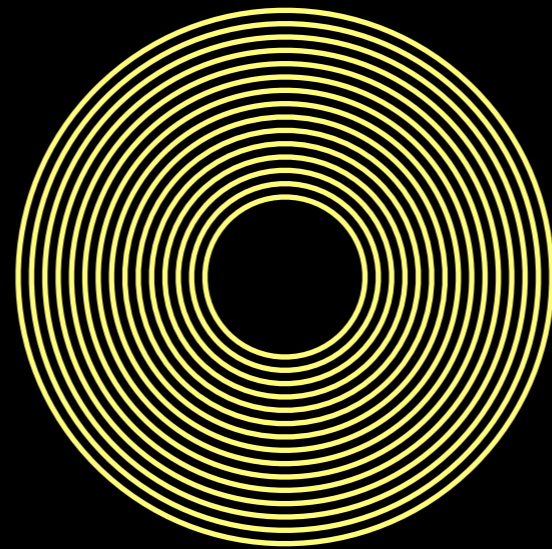
ブラックホールに落下していくロケットが10秒ごとにSOSの信号を地球に向けて発信していたとする。地球では、だんだんと信号の間隔が伸びてきて、ロケットがブラックホールに落ち込むまでに無限の時間がかかる。



ロケットは、まだブラックホールの手前にいる！



**本当**



中心にあるブラックホールへ落ちていく宇宙ロケットが、  
同じ間隔でパルス光信号を周囲に放つときの光信号の伝播  
(光が次第にブラックホール近くから出てくるのに時間がかかる)

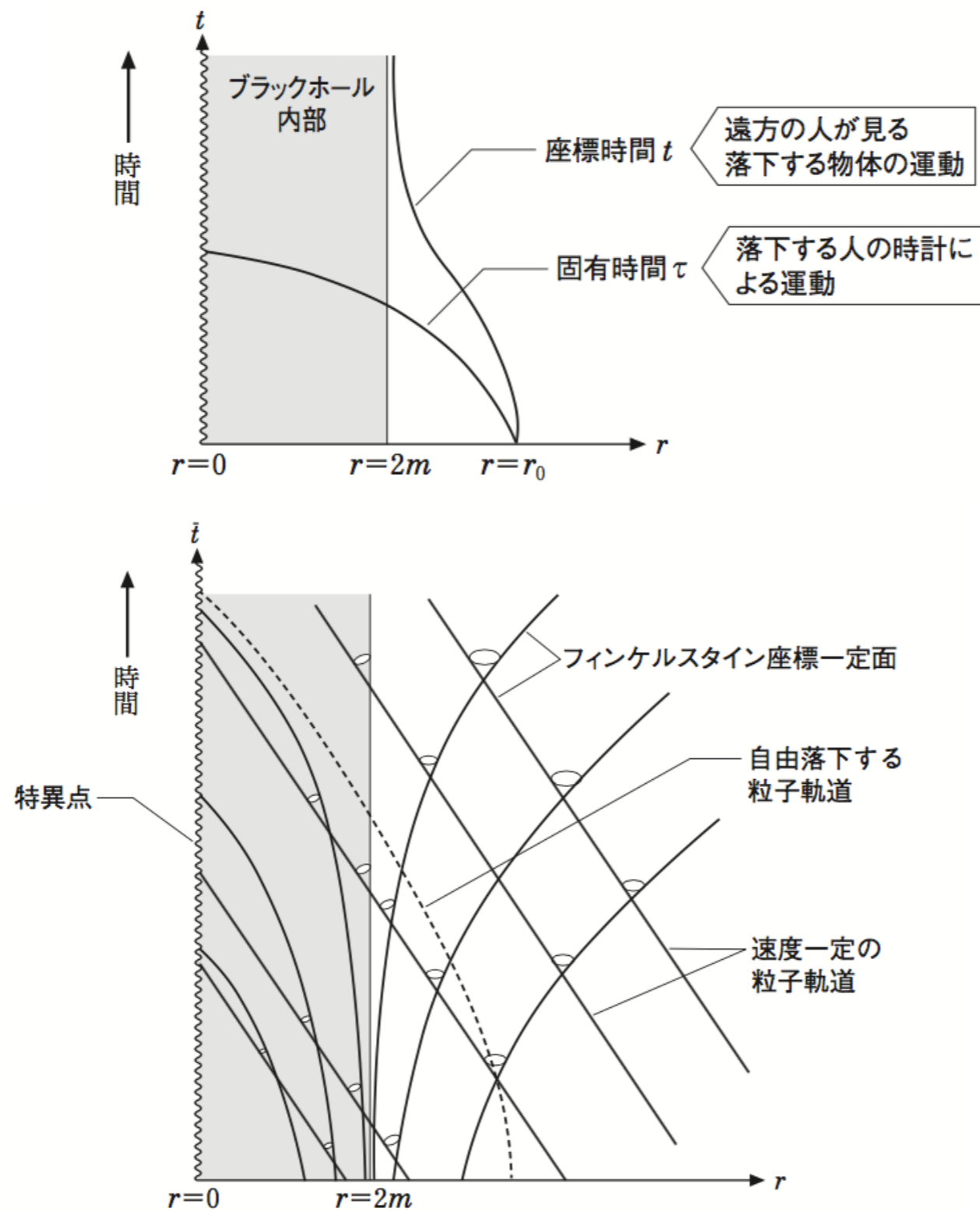
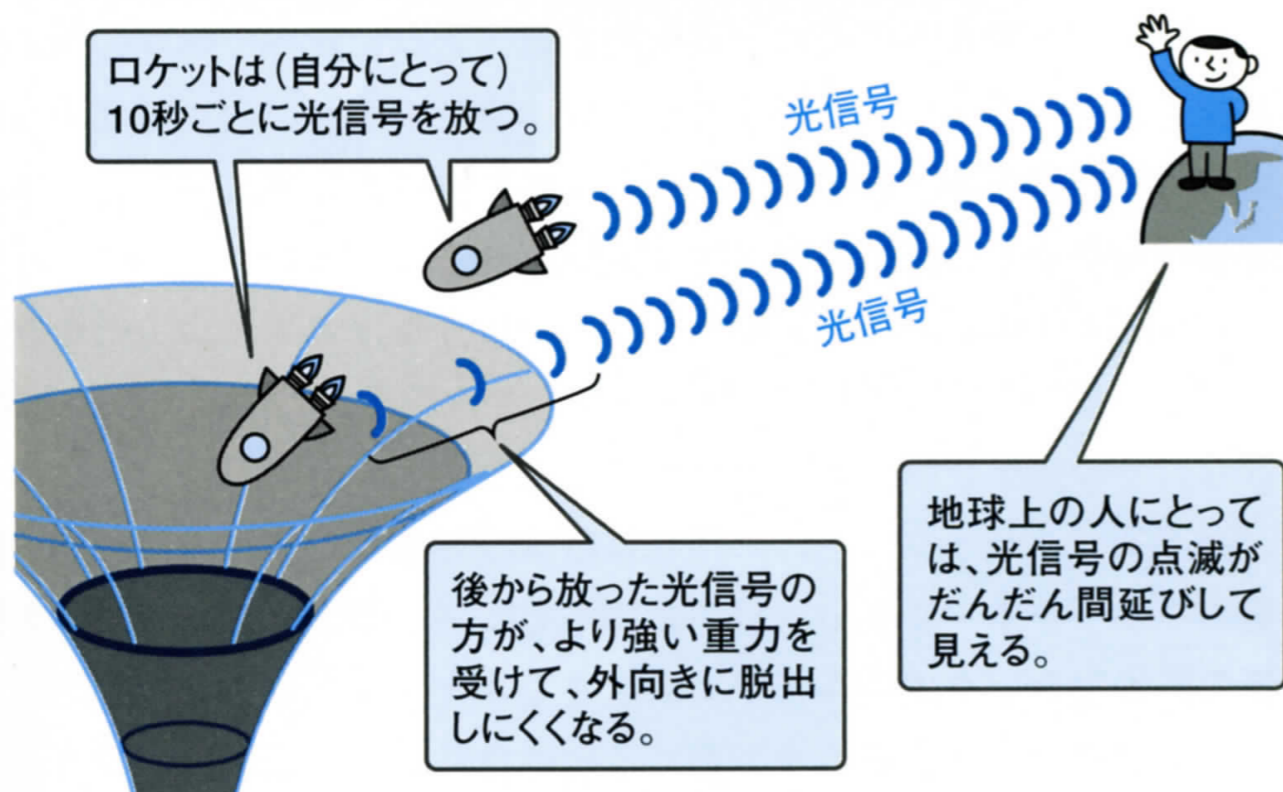


図27 シュヴァルツシルト解の振る舞い [上] もともとの座標で見ると、星が重力崩壊して落ち込んでいく人は有限時間で落下するが、遠方から見て人にとっては無限の時間が経っても地平面までしか到達しないように見える。[下] 縦軸と横軸がもとのシュヴァルツシルト座標で、フィンケルスタインの考案した座標は図中の実線。フィンケルスタインの考案した座標を使うと、地平面を通過して扱うことが可能になる。各時刻と位置から光を出した時の円錐も描いてある。



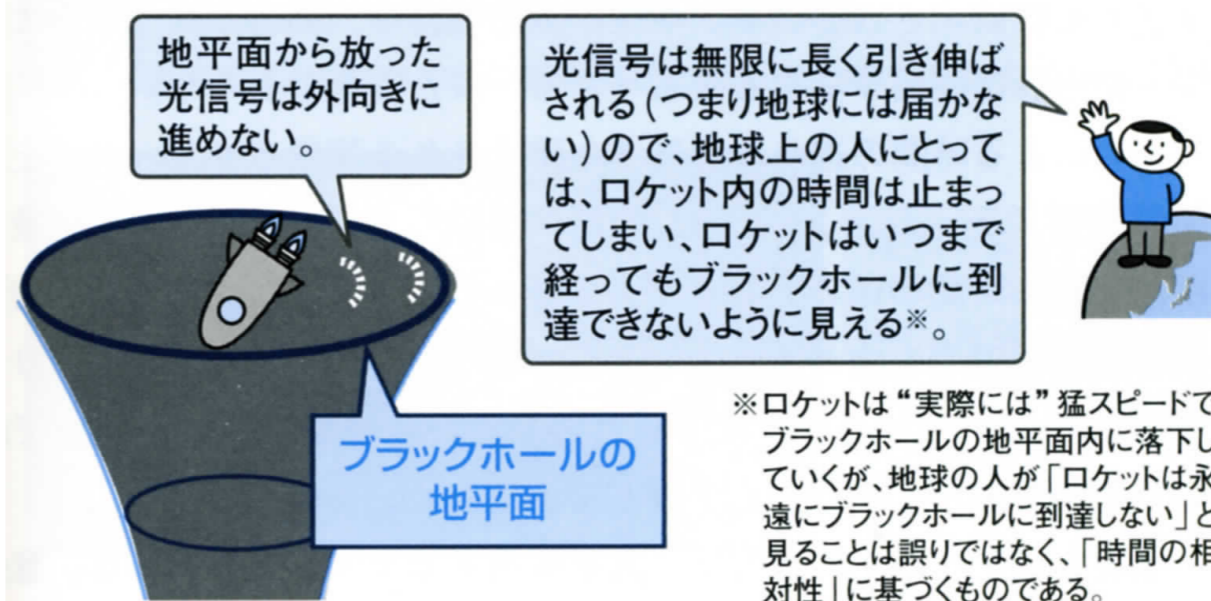
## 互いに「相手の時計が遅れている」というパラドックス

### ブラックホールに近づくロケットが放つ光信号



**重力が強いところでは、時間の進み方は相対的に遅くなる。**

### ブラックホールの地平面から放つ光信号



## ブラックホールは明るい天体である

### ■物理学者の考えるブラックホール，天文学者の考えるブラックホール

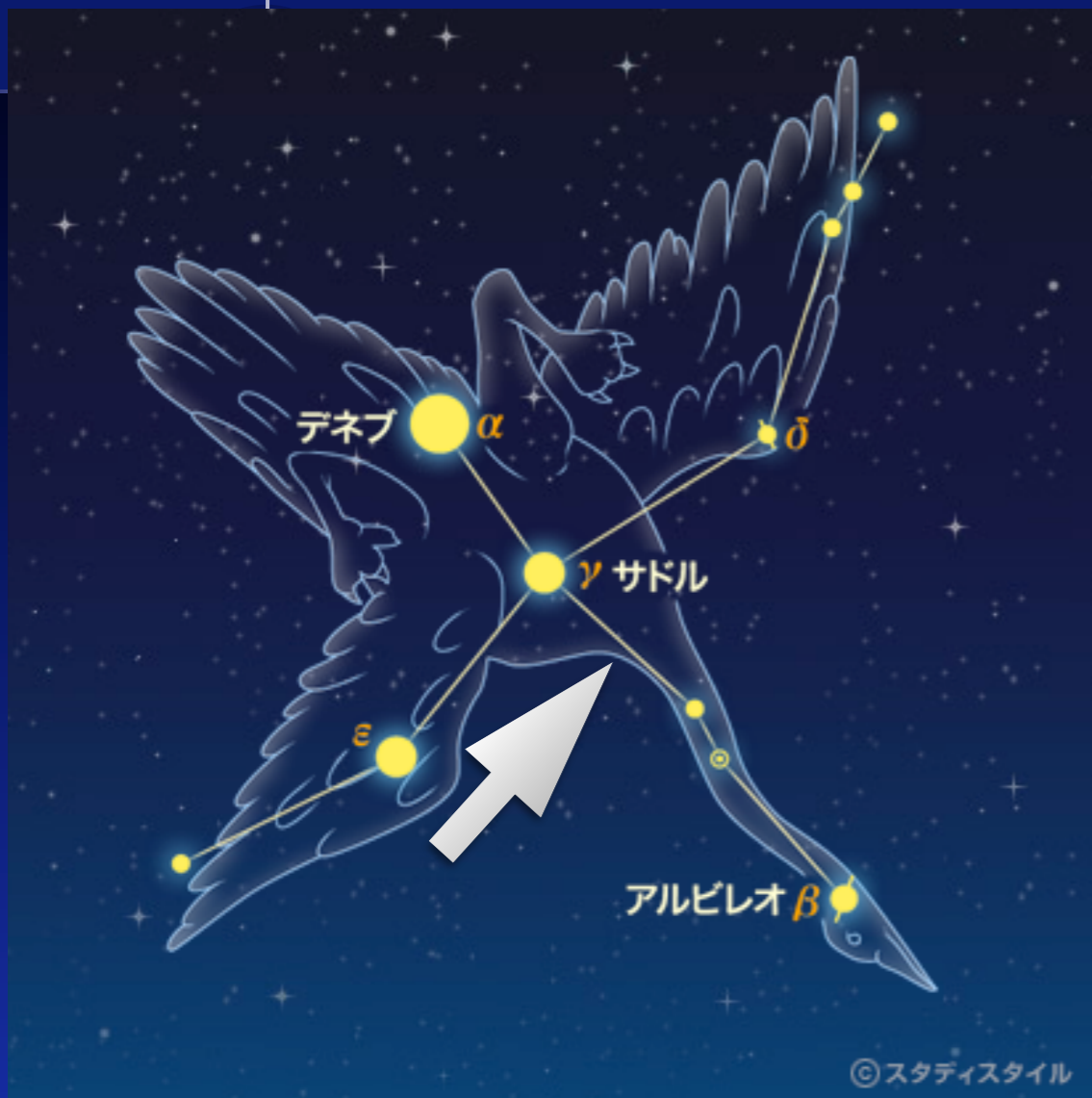
ここまでの説明は，物理学者の定義するブラックホールである．ブラックホールは，光さえも脱出できない領域であり，「事象の地平面」の内側で定義され，その内部には「時空特異点」が存在する．ところが，天文学者は次のように考える．

ブラックホールは明るい天体である

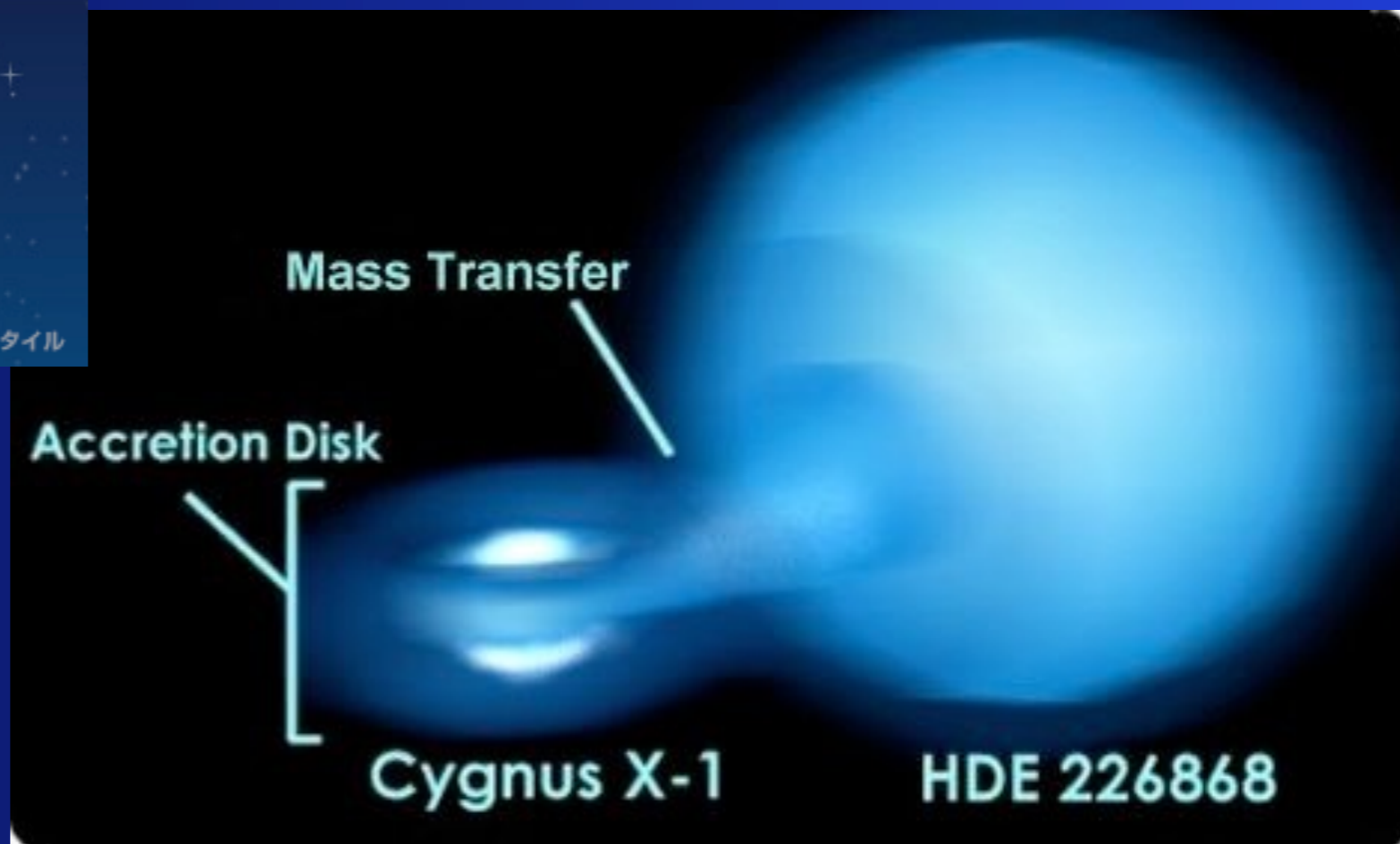
普通の天体では考えられないようなエネルギーを放出している天体は，ブラックホールである．

**本当**

# はくちょう座 X-1はブラックホール



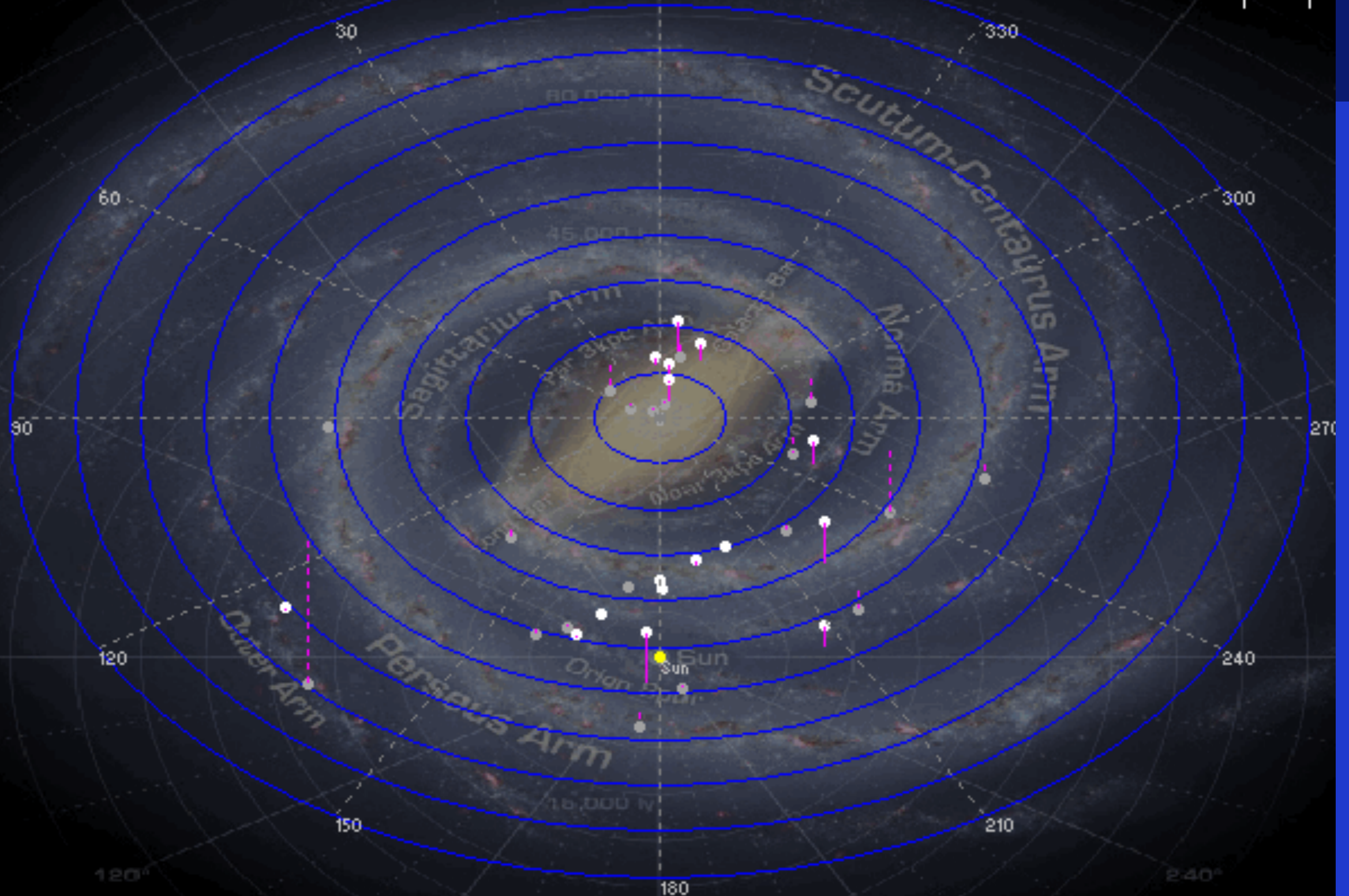
6000光年先



# The 37 black hole candidates within 50,000 LY of the galactic centre

5,000 LY

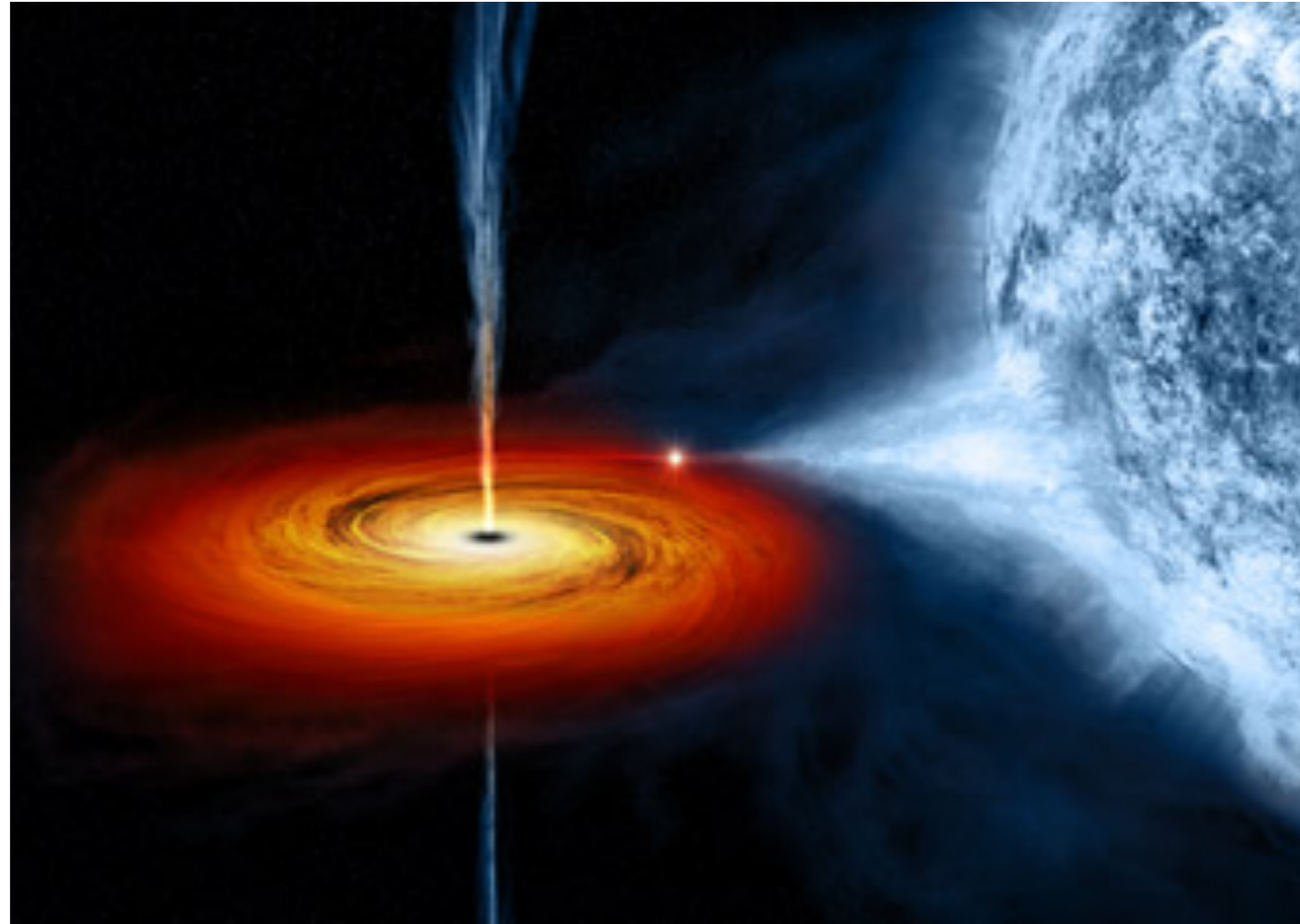
Galactic centric (galactic longitude and latitude)



3D Diagram by Larry McNish © 2012, All Rights Reserved

# ブラックホールの存在はどのようにしてわかるのか？

落下していくガスが高い温度で輝く  
(降着円盤 accretion disk)



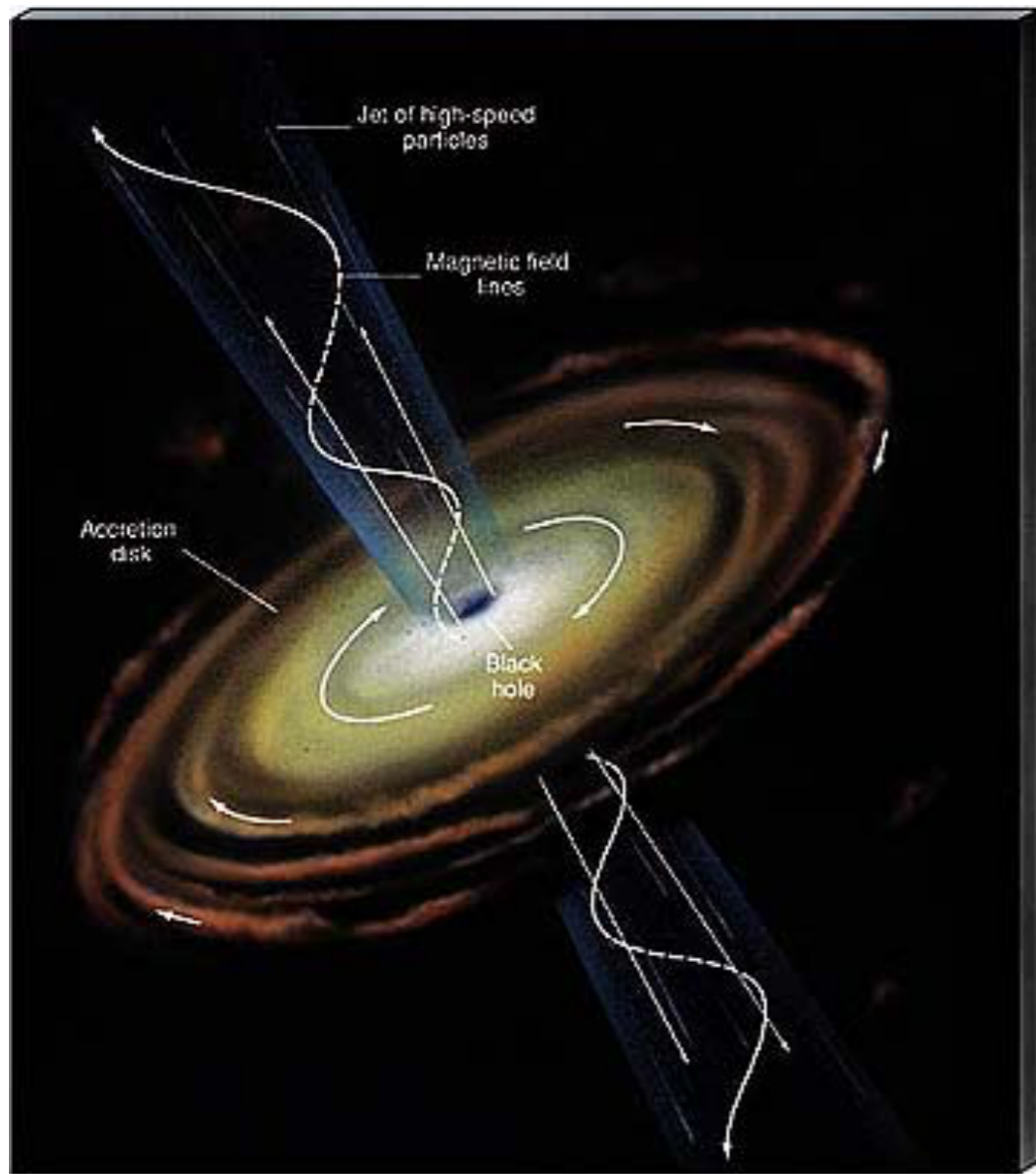
想像図

<http://www.skyandtelescope.com/astronomy-news/black-hole-spews-atoms/>

すべてのガスが吸い込まれるわけではない  
軸方向にジェットが吹き出す

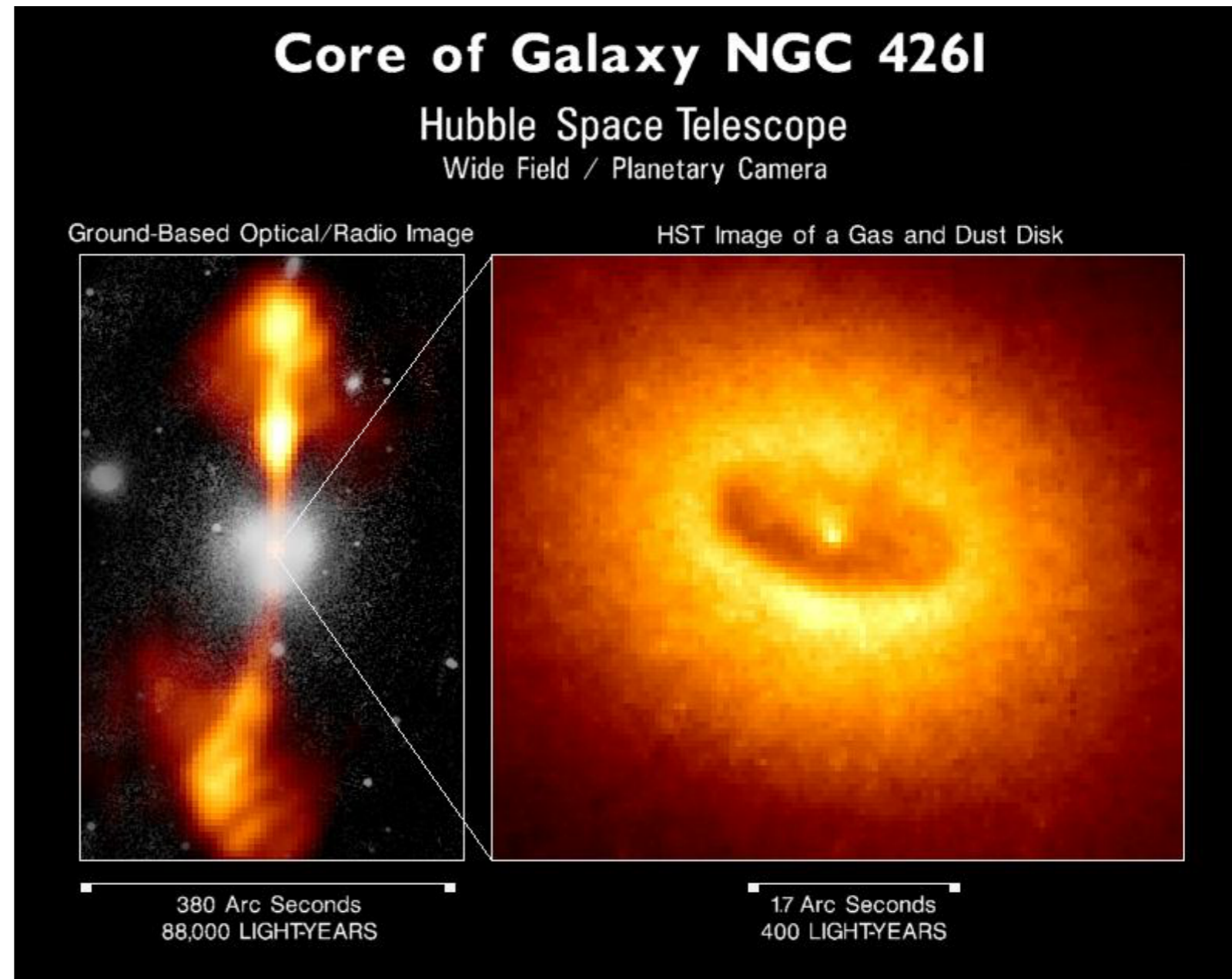


# ブラックホールの存在はどのようにしてわかるのか？



<http://www2.astro.psu.edu/users/rbc/a1/lec26n.html>

想像図



銀河中心からジェットが吹き出す  
(活動銀河核 active galactic nuclei)

# 2020年のノーベル物理学賞 受賞者

<http://www.nobelprize.org/>

## “ブラックホール”

ロジャー・ペンローズ (89) 英オックスフォード大

「ブラックホール形成が一般相対性理論におけるごく自然な帰結となることの発見に対して」

ラインハルト・ゲンツェル (68) 独マックスプランク研究所

アンドレア・ゲズ (55) 米カリフォルニア大ロサンゼルス校

「天の川銀河の中心に超大質量なコンパクト天体を発見したことに対して」



Roger Penrose “for the discovery that black hole formation is a robust prediction of the general theory of relativity”

Reinhard Genzel and Andrea Ghez “for the discovery of a supermassive compact object at the centre of our galaxy”.



# 解説

## 2020年のノーベル物理学賞

### ～脚注の多い解説～

真貝寿明（大阪工業大学）

#### 1. 今年も宇宙分野、に驚く

ノーベル物理学賞は、こここのところしばらくは、宇宙・素粒子分野と物性物理分野を毎年交互に授賞対象としていた。昨年の物理学賞は、宇宙論の理論を開拓したピーブルズ<sup>1</sup>と太陽系外惑星を初めて発見したマイヨールとケローだった<sup>2</sup>。そのため、私を含め多くの方は、今年は宇宙以外の分野に贈賞されるものと想定していた。ところが、10月6日夕方に発表された今年の受賞者は、ブラックホール研究でまとめられた3氏だった。嬉しい誤算である。本稿では、受賞者の業績<sup>3</sup>を含め、最近のブラックホール研究について紹介したい。教育者向けの余談を盛り込んだところ、脚注の多い解説になってしまったことを先にお断りしておく。

今年の受賞者は、英オックスフォード大のロジャー・ペンローズ (Roger Penrose, 89)、独マックスプランク研究所のラインハルト・ゲンツェル (Reinhard Genzel, 68)、米カリフォルニア大ロサンゼルス校のアンドレア・ゲズ (Andrea Ghez, 55) の3氏である。贈賞理由は、ペンローズは「ブラックホール

形成が一般相対性理論におけるごく自然な帰結となることの発見に対して<sup>4</sup>」、ゲンツェルとゲズは「天の川銀河の中心に超大質量なコンパクト天体を発見したことに対して<sup>5</sup>」となっている。ペンローズは「特異点定理」をはじめとして一般相対性理論分野を中心に世界をリードしてきた理論物理学者・数学者であり、ゲンツェルとゲズはそれぞれ独立に私たちのいる天の川銀河の中心を観測して、超大質量ブラックホールが存在していることを示した天文学者である。



図1 左からペンローズ、ゲンツェル、ゲズの似顔絵。ノーベル財団が受賞者発表に用いたもの。

<sup>1</sup> P.J.E. Peebles (1935～)。よく「ピーブルズ」と発音され、表記されているが、「ピーブルズ」と表記するのが正しいようだ。(2020年9月の日本物理学会での須藤靖氏の講演から)

<sup>2</sup> ノーベル賞は各部門での受賞者が毎年3名までと定められている。昨年の3名の組み合わせはやや強引に感じた。今年も当初はそう感じさせる3名であったが、ノーベルの遺言にある「物理学の分野で最も重要な発見または発明をした人物」という点については誰も異論を唱えないだろう。

<sup>3</sup> 受賞者の業績など、ノーベル財団の発表した資料は、Webページ(英語)から取得できる。  
<https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/physics/2020/press-release/>

<sup>4</sup> 原文は「for the discovery that black hole formation is a robust prediction of the general theory of relativity」。robustという単語は、辞書では「強靱な、頑丈な」と出てくるが、研究分野では「多少のゆらぎは問題とならない」という意味で使われる。ここでは、ブラックホール形成が特殊なものではなく一般的に発生する、という意味になるので、「自然な帰結」と訳した。ペンローズの業績がこのタイトルの通り「発見」と言えるかどうかは、本稿読後の皆様の判断に任せたい。

<sup>5</sup> 原文は「for the discovery of a supermassive compact object at the centre of our galaxy」

# 論座 RONZA

16636 本の記事が読み

論座とは? | よくある質問 | お問い合わせ

- 政治・国際
- 経済・雇用
- 社会・スポーツ
- 科学・環境
- 文化・エン

論座 > 科学・環境 > 記事一覧 > 記事

科学・環境

## 「ブラックホール」でまとめたノーベル物理学賞

### 理論家ペンローズの並外れた業績と、「謎」を「実在」に転換させた長年の天文観測

真貝寿明 大阪工業大学教授 (相対性理論、宇宙物理学、天文学史)

ノーベル賞 | ブラックホール | 基礎科学 | 宇宙

2020年10月13日

- ツイート
- おすすめ 221
- シェア
- B! 0
- noteで書く
- コメント 0件
- 印刷

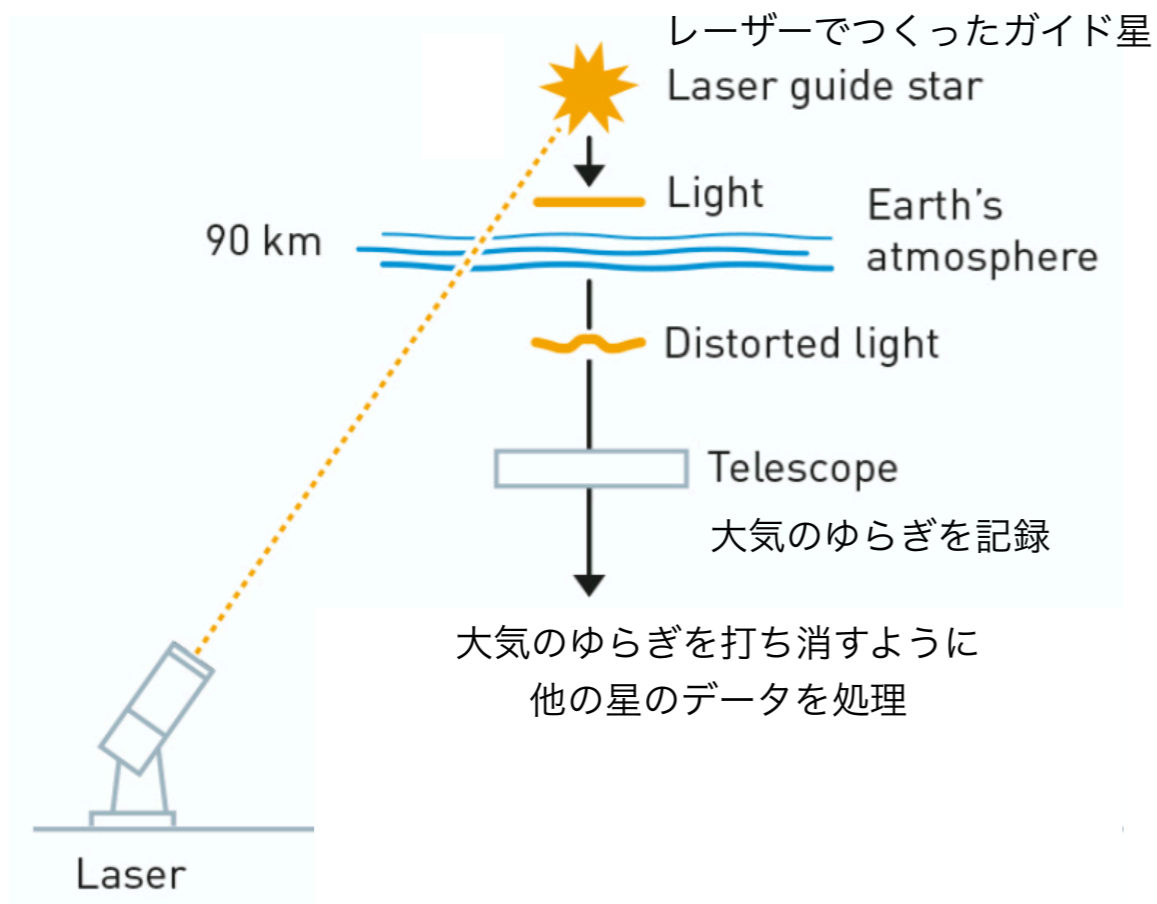


イラストはNASA提供

# ラインハルト・ゲンツェル

# アンドレア・ゲズ

## 「天の川銀河の中心に超大質量なコンパクト天体を発見したことに対して」



<https://ja.wikipedia.org/wiki/ヨーロッパ南天天文台>



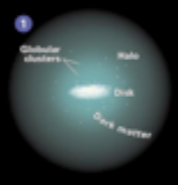
補償光学

<https://www.quantamagazine.org/>

## THE MILKY WAY

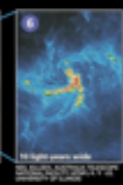
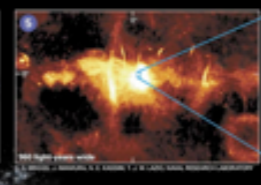
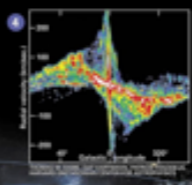
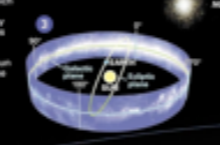
NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC

Home galaxy of Earth, the Milky Way is a spiral-shaped system of a few hundred billion stars. Bright regions of recently formed stars highlight its arms, while older stars explode or expel their outer layers as beautiful planetary nebulas, then fade away and die. A thick swarm of orange and red stars marks the galactic bulge, encapsulating the star-packed galactic center. At its core may lie a black hole, a region so dense that not even light can escape its gravitational pull. All objects in the Milky Way orbit the galactic center, much like planets in Earth's solar system revolve around the sun. But the scale is staggering: Light from a star at one edge of the galaxy takes about 100,000 years to reach the opposite side.



### GUIDE TO THE GALAXY

- 1 Far beyond the galactic disk, yet drawn by its gravity, some stars and globular clusters orbit the galaxy's core. Regions of dark matter—invisible but felt through its gravitational effects—extend beyond that.
- 2 Most clouds of interstellar dust block much of our night sky view of the Milky Way, which from our position in the flat galactic disk appears as a fuzzy band of light. Infrared cameras can see through the dust to reveal the galaxy's structure.
- 3 Even a orbit around the sun takes at a steep angle to the galactic plane.



### A TURBULENT HEART

- 1 A graph based on a radio survey reveals the rotational motion of molecular gas in the inner part of our galaxy, gas moving away from Earth (top half) and toward Earth (bottom half). The densest gas appears white; least dense, blue.
- 2 Massive amounts of energy are released near the center of the Milky Way, producing electrons that race along magnetic field lines, illuminating remnants of stellar explosions.
- 3 Probing even deeper into the core, a radio image detects a spiral of hot gas that is falling toward what may be a black hole some 2.6 million times as massive as the sun.

This computer-generated image of the Milky Way... incorporates the actual positions of hundreds of thousands of stars and nebulas.

- Galactic star cluster
- Interstellar gas and dust
- Nebulae
- Younger star region (H II area)
- Stellar stream
- Galactic bulge or center
- Other star region

### PLANETARY NEBULA M2 9



Exotic laboratories of the Milky Way... Just as our sun will die in its death throes some five billion years from now, a dying star expanded into a red giant and was transformed into the nebula M2 9 (above). At its center shines a small, hot core, which will cool and fade over eons to come, its stellar wind, streams of charged particles, rushes outward in opposite directions, the exhaust from back-to-back jet engines. This bipolarity, revealed by the Hubble Space Telescope, is common among planetary nebulas. The wispy light from the star heats M2 9's gases and makes them glow. Other types of nebulae exist in our galaxy, including dark nebulae that block our view of stars beyond. When a star adjusts a fresh nebula, the dust particles reflect starlight and the black

galaxy, including dark nebulae that block our view of stars beyond. When a star adjusts a fresh nebula, the dust particles reflect starlight and the black

retiness, however, every star in the cluster is about the same age, billions of years older than our 4.5-billion-year-old sun.

orbit. Light from the hot star is absorbed by and re-emits the dust, making it glow. As stars die, they become factories for interstellar dust. Celestial soot—the remnants of its red giant stage—surrounds the tiny hot central star of NGC 7527 (above right). Shown clockwise, the most recent nebulae that view of the central star of NGC 7527 were it not for this remarkable composite image in infrared and

visible light from the Hubble Space Telescope. Clouds of interstellar dust (right, shown over other regions along the central plane of the Milky Way) are not thick and smooth but seem as frilly as the head for a globe of hair. Supernova shock waves and stellar wind from

invoking stars may have shaped this surprising pattern. When a massive star comes to the end of its nuclear fuel supply, it collapses and then rebounds in a brief, powerful explosion, or supernova. The Chinese called these celestial fireworks "guest stars" and recorded one such event in the constellation Taurus in July 1054 that was visible in broad daylight.

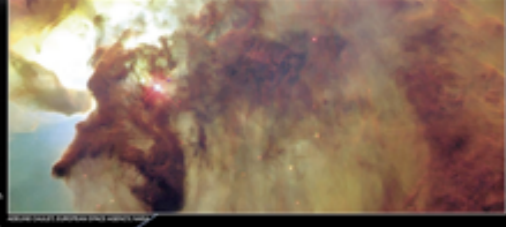
In that location today, astronomers find the fast-expanding Crab Nebula (left), a supernova remnant. At its heart lies a pulsar—a collapsed star—whirling 30 times a second. Scenic galaxies of the Milky Way are equally remarkable celestial phenomena. In the Large Magellanic Cloud (above right), 100,000 light-years from

Earth, clumpy, filamentary clouds of hydrogen gas recently had their stars march in a radio wave from the Australia Telescope Compact Array. The lower half of the cloud (left) is igniting toward the Earth while the upper half turns away.

Each, clumpy, filamentary clouds of hydrogen gas recently had their stars march in a radio wave from the Australia Telescope Compact Array. The lower half of the cloud (left) is igniting toward the Earth while the upper half turns away.

With new tools, astronomers are unraveling the nature of the Milky Way and measuring distances to stars and nebulae with greater accuracy. Still, they ask, How did the Milky Way form in the first place? How and when did the arms form? How many more galaxies circle nearby stars besides the 100 already discovered? And the biggest question of all: Do any of them harbor life?

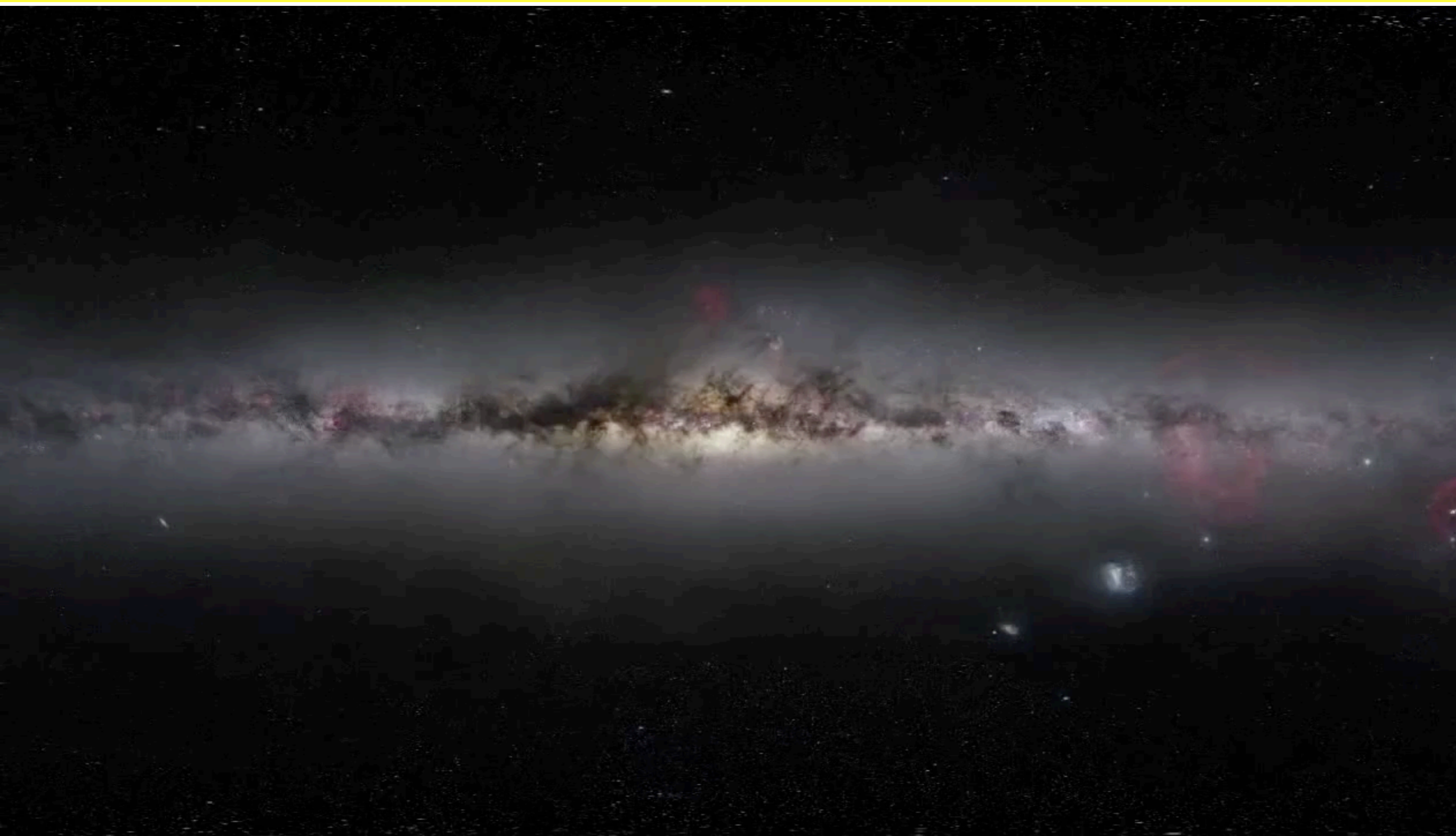
### LAGOON NEBULA



With new tools, astronomers are unraveling the nature of the Milky Way and measuring distances to stars and nebulae with greater accuracy. Still, they ask, How did the Milky Way form in the first place? How and when did the arms form? How many more galaxies circle nearby stars besides the 100 already discovered? And the biggest question of all: Do any of them harbor life?

Copyright © 2002 National Geographic Society, Washington, D.C. Reprinted August 2005.

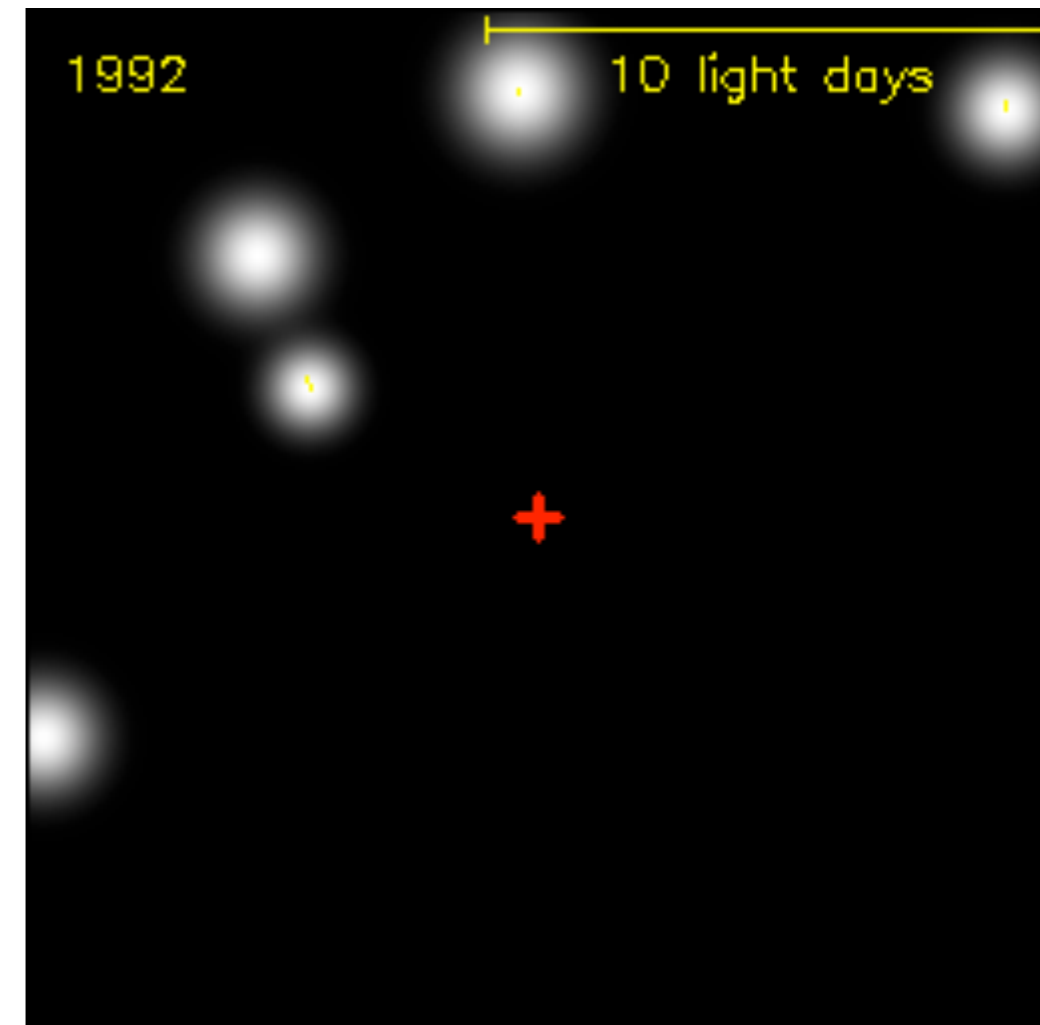
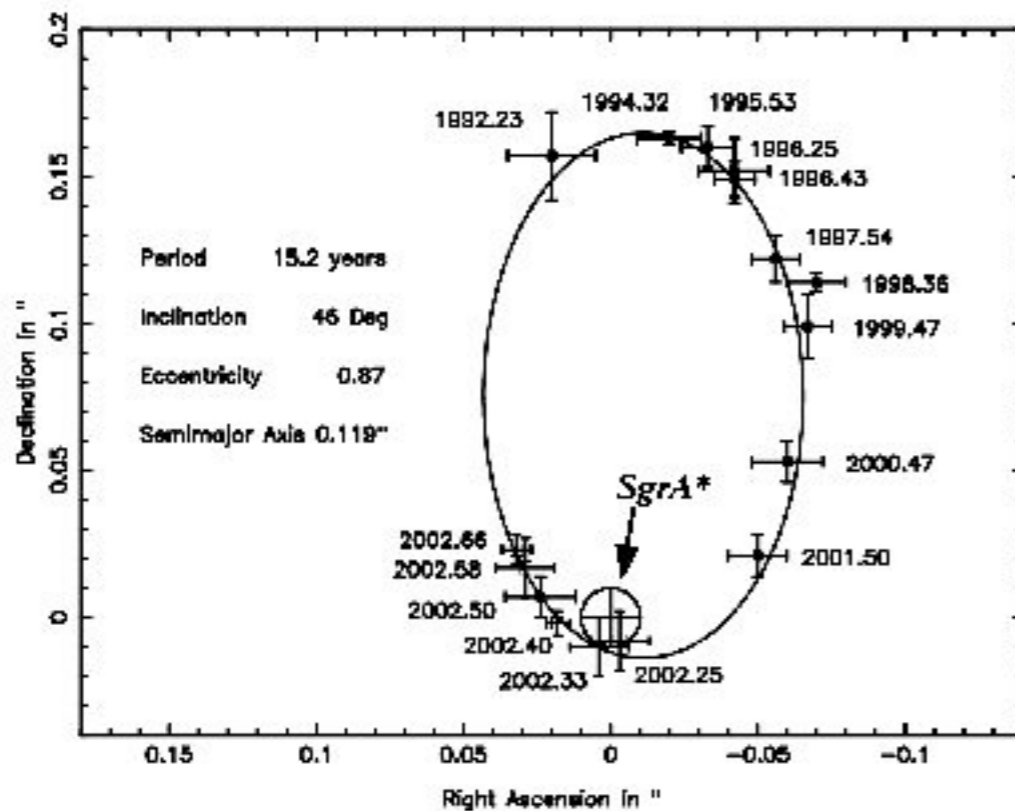
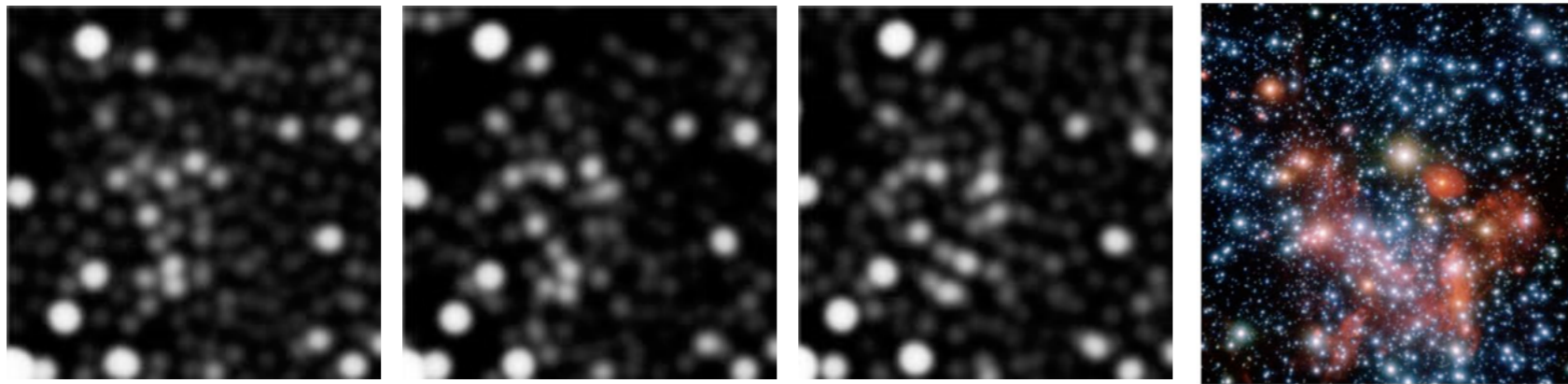
# 銀河系の中心には巨大ブラックホールがある



Zooming in on the centre of the Milky Way

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XhHUNvEKUY8> (1:15)

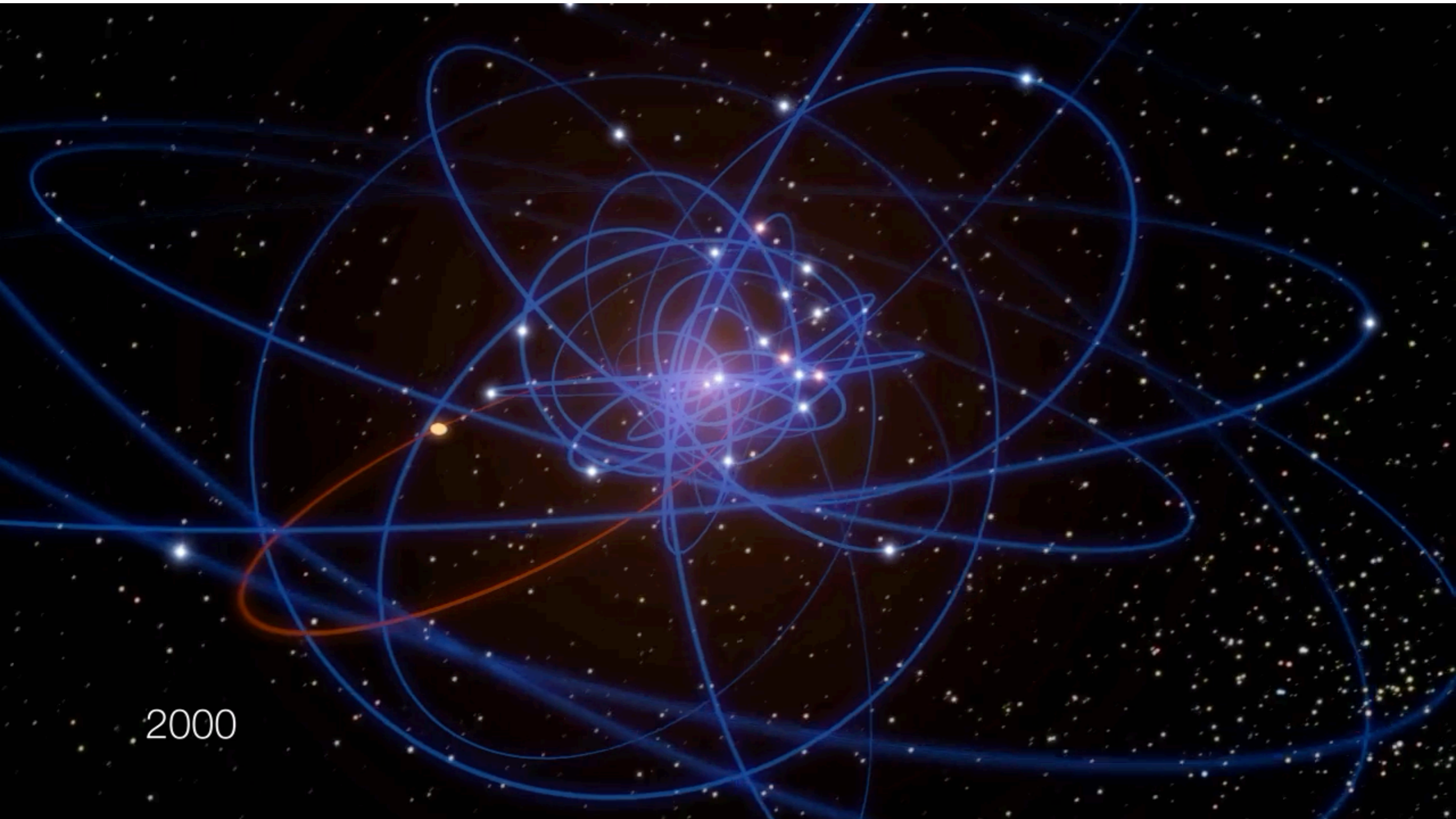
# S2 orbit around Sgr A\*



<http://www.extinctionsift.com/SignificantFindings08.htm>

<http://www.brighthub.com/science/space/articles/13435.aspx#>

## 天の川銀河 中心付近の星の動き (アニメーション)



Reinhard Genzel and Andrea Ghez independently tracked the activity around the supermassive black hole at the Milky Way's center over a period of decades.

<https://www.quantamagazine.org/physics-nobel-awarded-for-black-hole-breakthroughs-20201006>



# 望遠鏡の角分解能の話

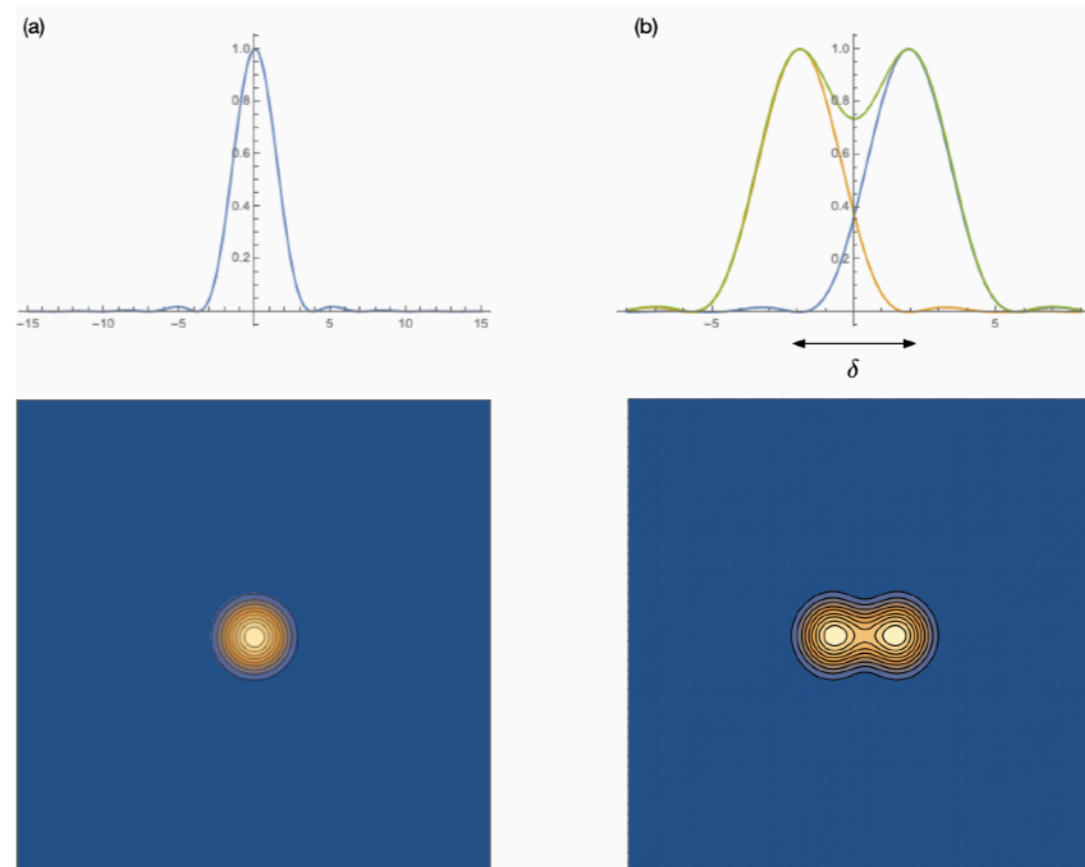
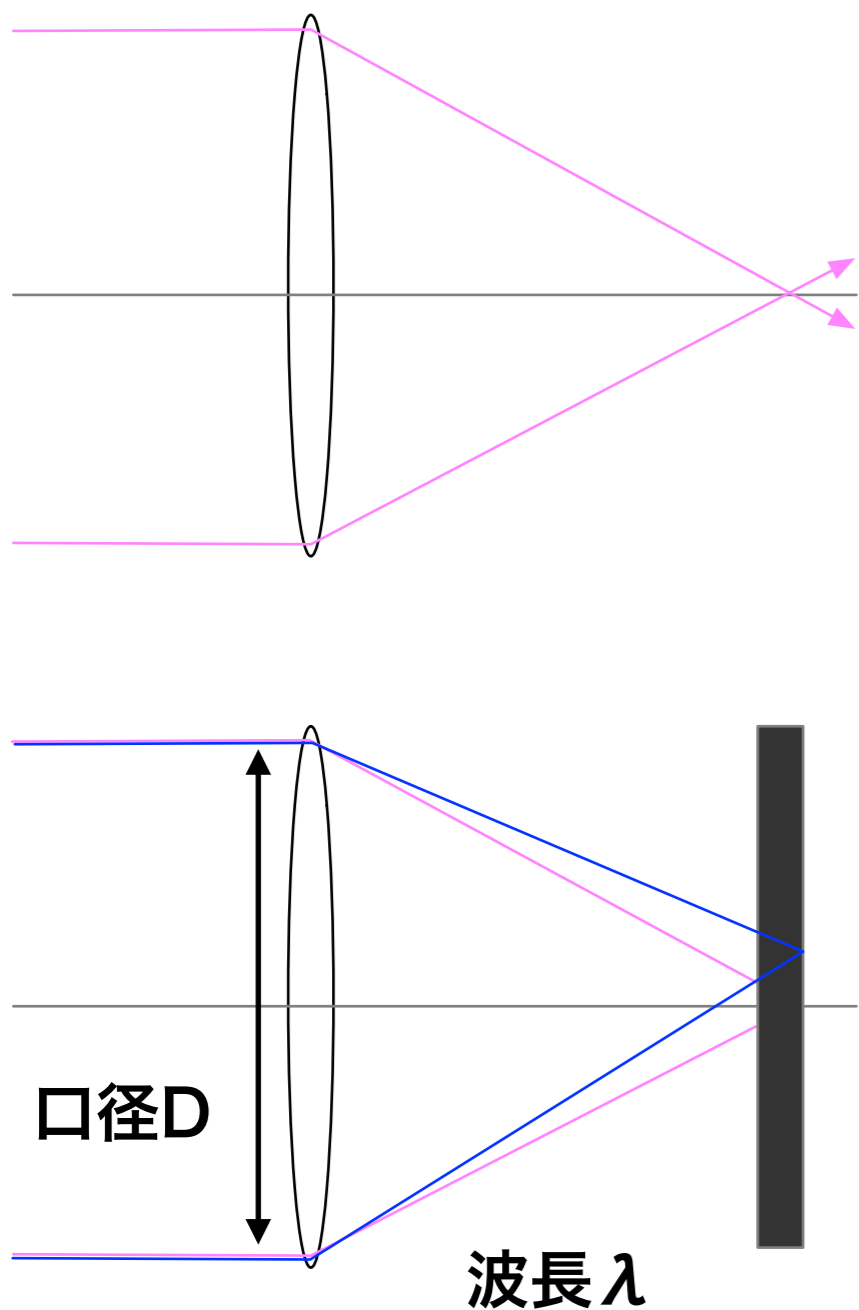


図 31: (a) 焦点付近での輝度分布の例. 円形レンズを想定して,  $(2J_1(x)/x)^2$  をプロットした. (b) 近接する輝度分布で 2 つの像が分解できるかどうかは  $\delta$  の値で決まる.

## Airy 回折限界

$$\text{分解能 (rad)} = 1.22 \times \frac{\text{波長 } \lambda [\text{m}]}{\text{レンズ口径 } D [\text{m}]}$$

$$\text{分解能 (秒角)} = 0.25 \times \frac{\text{波長 } \lambda [\mu \text{m}]}{\text{レンズ口径 } D [\text{m}]}$$

---

## 課題 3.8. 【視力と分解能】

人間の視力は、ランドルト環の空いている部分が見えるかどうかで判定される。5 [m] 離れたところにある直径 7.5 [mm]、切れ目の間隔が 1.5 [mm] のランドルト環が見えれば視力  $V = 1.0$  となる。これは  $\theta = 1$  [分角] の角分解能に相当する。視力  $V$  は

$$V = \frac{1}{\theta [\text{分角}]}$$

で換算される。

- (1) 視力 2.0 の人の角分解能はいくらか。
  - (2) 人間の目の瞳孔は、直径約 4 [mm] である。可視光（中央値 550 [nm]）に対する人間の目の分解能はいくらか。このときの視力はいくらか。
- 



図 32: Landolt 環

# 望遠鏡の角分解能の話 銀河中心のブラックホールをみたい話

## 課題 3.9. 【レンズの分解能】

天の川銀河の中心は「Sgr A\* (いて座 A スター)」と呼ばれ、太陽の 400 万倍の質量をもつブラックホールである。万有引力定数  $G = 6.672 \times 10^{-11}$  [m<sup>3</sup>/kg/s<sup>2</sup>], 太陽質量  $M_{\odot} = 1.989 \times 10^{30}$  [kg], 光速  $c = 2.998 \times 10^8$  [m/s] とする。ブラックホールの半径は Schwarzschild 半径  $R_g = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$  で与えられるが、太陽質量ならば、 $R_g = \boxed{\text{ア}}$  [km] であるから、SgrA\* の Schwarzschild 半径はその 400 万倍である。

太陽から Sgr A\* までの距離は 25640 光年である。1 光年は光が 1 年間に進む距離で、 $9.46 \times 10^{12}$  km である。

- (1) Sgr A\* の直径を我々が観測するならば、見込み角  $\alpha$  は、何  $\mu$  秒角の大きさか。
- (2) 望遠鏡の分解能 (解像度)  $\theta$  は、レンズの口径 (直径)  $D$  と、観測する電磁波の波長  $\lambda$  を用いて  $\theta \sim \frac{\lambda}{D}$  で与えられる。いま、 $D = 8000$  [km] の望遠鏡があり、 $\lambda = 1$  [mm] の電波 (すなわち、 $\boxed{\text{イ}}$  [GHz]) で観測するとき、分解能はいくらか。

# 大気の窓

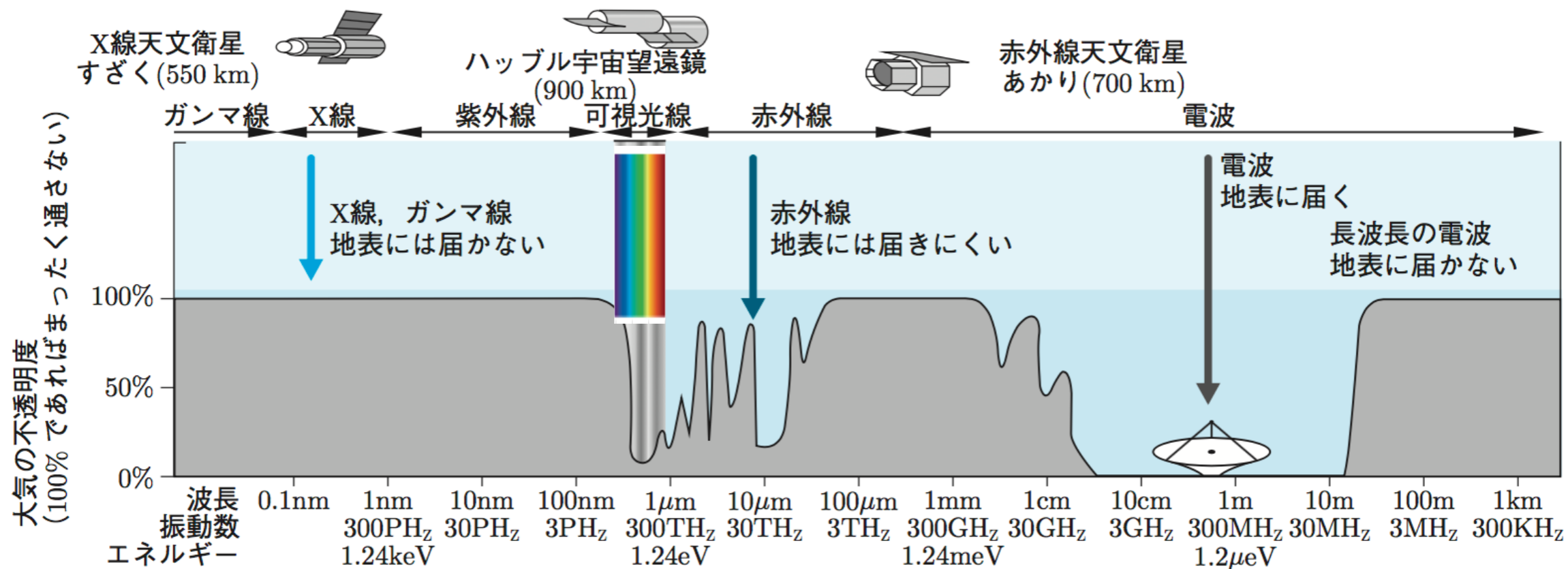



図 A.12 大気の窓. 電磁波にとって大気を通過できるのは可視光と電波の領域である. したがって, 可視光と電波の観測は地上で可能だが, ガンマ線・X線・赤外線での観測は不可能である.

	宇宙線	ガンマ線	X線	光			電磁波					
				紫外線	可視光線	赤外線	マイクロ波	超短波	短波	中波	長波	超長波
波長[m]	$10^{-13}$	$10^{-10}$	$10^{-9}$	$3.8 \times 10^{-7}$	$7.7 \times 10^{-7}$	$10^{-4}$	1	10	$10^2$	$10^3$	$10^4$	
波長[nm]				380	770							
振動数[Hz]		$3 \times 10^{18}$	$3 \times 10^{17}$				$3 \times 10^{12}$	$3 \times 10^8$	$3 \times 10^7$	$3 \times 10^6$	$3 \times 10^5$	$3 \times 10^4$
利用例		医療 食品照射	医療 X線写真	殺菌	光学機器	赤外線写真	携帯電話 電子レンジ	テレビ FMラジオ	短波ラジオ	AMラジオ	電波時計	飛行機の通信

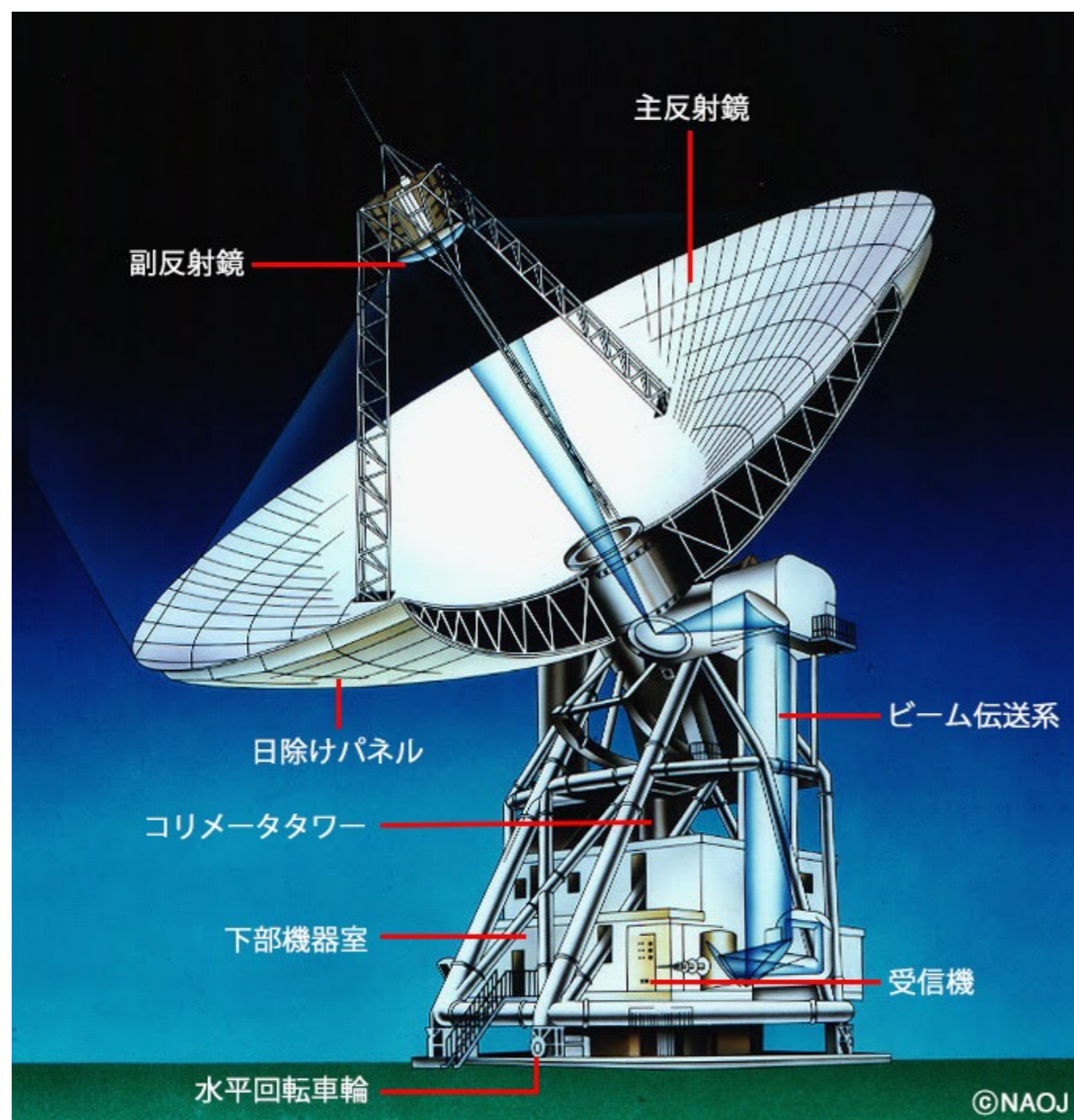
2019年4月10日, 国立天文台グループ「ブラックホールの直接撮像に初めて成功」



地球から5500万光年

<https://alma-telescope.jp/news/press/eht-201904>

# 電波望遠鏡 口径が大きいほど集光力高い, 分解能高い

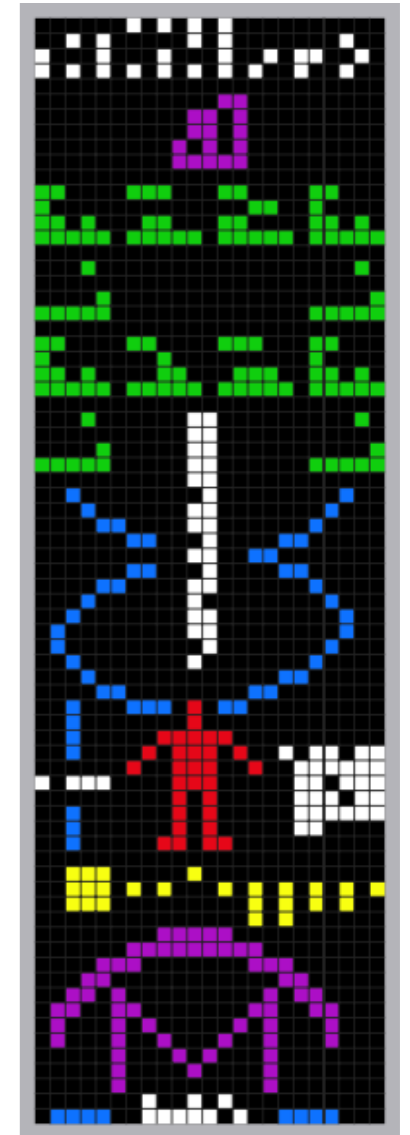


$$\text{分解能} = \text{波長} / \text{口径}$$

## 野辺山45m望遠鏡

# アレシボ電波望遠鏡 305メートル球面電波望遠鏡 (1963-2020)

(Arecibo Observatory, プエルトリコ)



- 1964 水星の自転周期55日の発見
- 1968 かにパルサー中心に中性子星発見
- 1974 連星中性子星発見
- 1989 小惑星カスターリア直接観測
- 1992 パルサーを公転する太陽系外惑星発見

アレシボ・メッセージ (1974)  
SETI (1999-)

# アルマ望遠鏡 Atacama Large Millimeter/Submillimeter Array

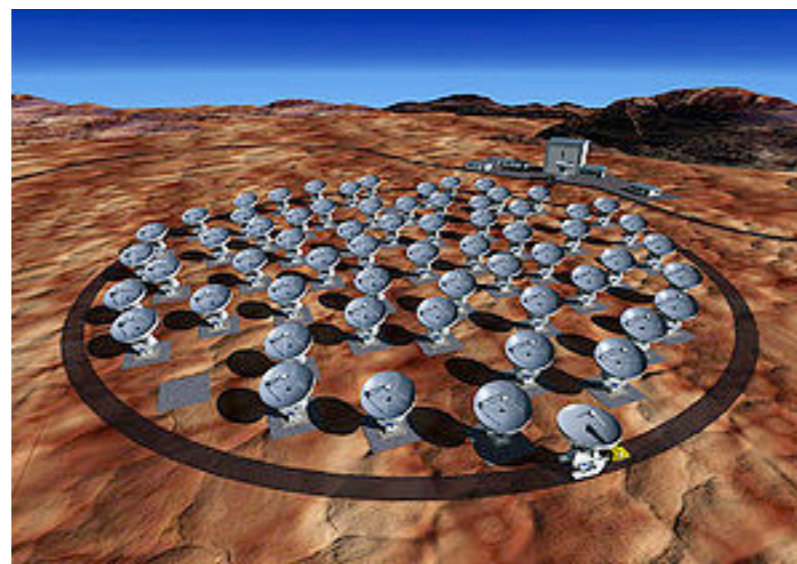
日本が、欧米と共同で、チリのアタカマに建設した電波望遠鏡

全66台のアンテナが設置され、日本は16台を担当。「いざよい」と命名。  
標高5000m地点に設置されている。

直径12メートルのアンテナを50台組み合わせるアンテナ群と、直径12メートルのアンテナ4台と直径7メートルアンテナ12台からなる。最大18.5キロメートルまでアンテナ間隔を広げることができ、最大の空間分解能は、0.05 マイクロラジアン。



「大阪にある一円玉を東京から見分けられるほどの高い解像度」





# 中国「天眼 (FAST)」 500メートル球面電波望遠鏡 (2016一)

(Five-hundred-meter Aperture Spherical radio Telescope: FAST)



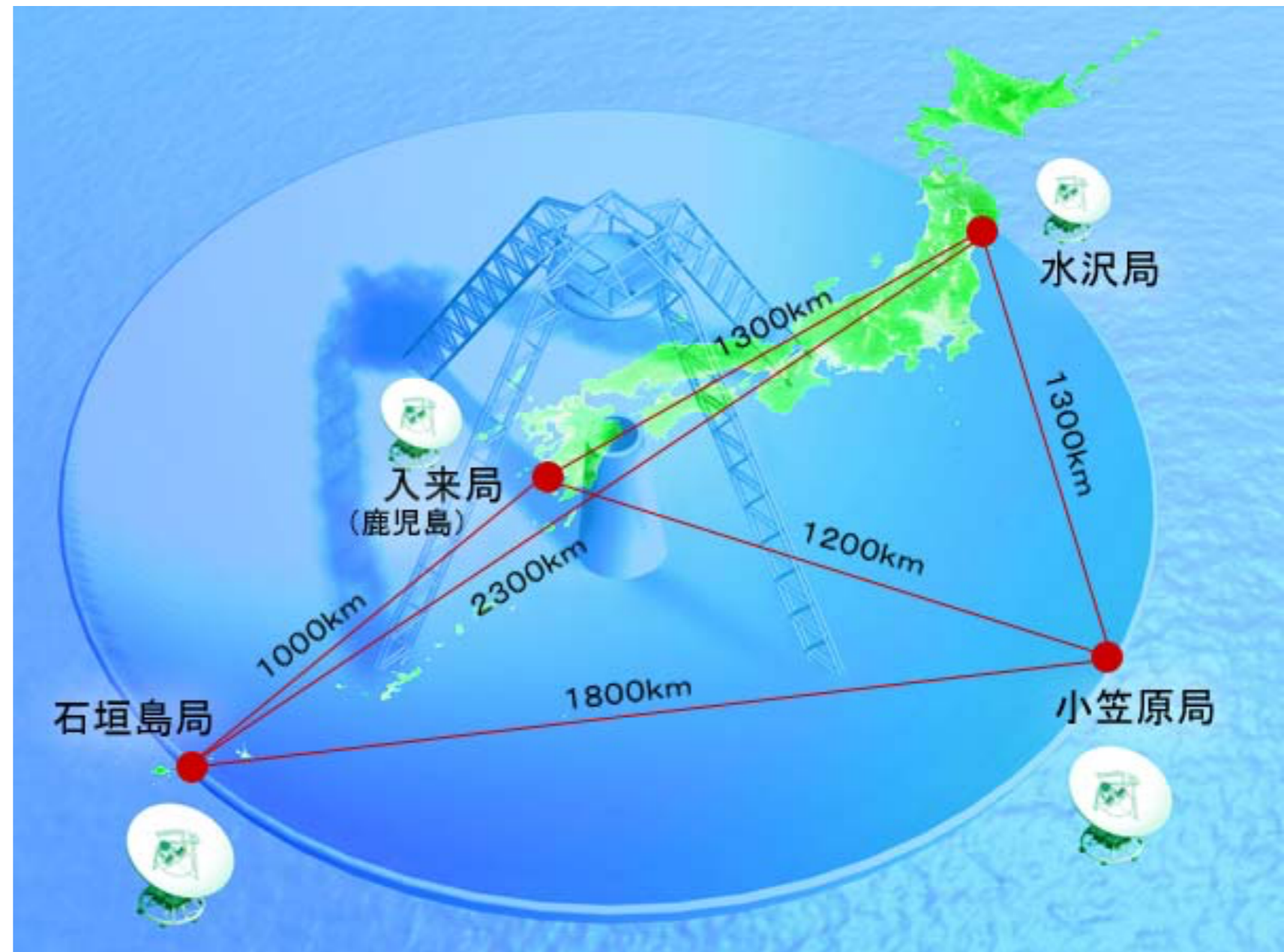
中国南西部の貴州省, 185億円, 天頂から40度の範囲を観測可能,  
1万人強制移住, 半径5 km以内携帯電話禁止

[http://japanese.china.org.cn/business/txt/2016-07/04/content\\_38806293.htm](http://japanese.china.org.cn/business/txt/2016-07/04/content_38806293.htm)

# 電波干渉計

VLBI = Very Long Baseline Interferometer

VERA = VLBI Exploration of Radio Astrometry



<http://veraserver.mtk.nao.ac.jp/system/index.html>

## 2019年4月10日, 国立天文台グループ「ブラックホールの直接撮像に初めて成功」



世界8カ所の電波望遠鏡を結び、2017年4月に、1週間の共同観測。解像度は20マイクロ秒角（視力300万、月面のゴルフボールを判別できる能力）。2年間のデータ解析で1枚の写真をつくる。

<https://www.nao.ac.jp/news/science/2019/20190410-eht.html>



## First M87 Event Horizon Telescope Results. I. The Shadow of the Supermassive Black Hole

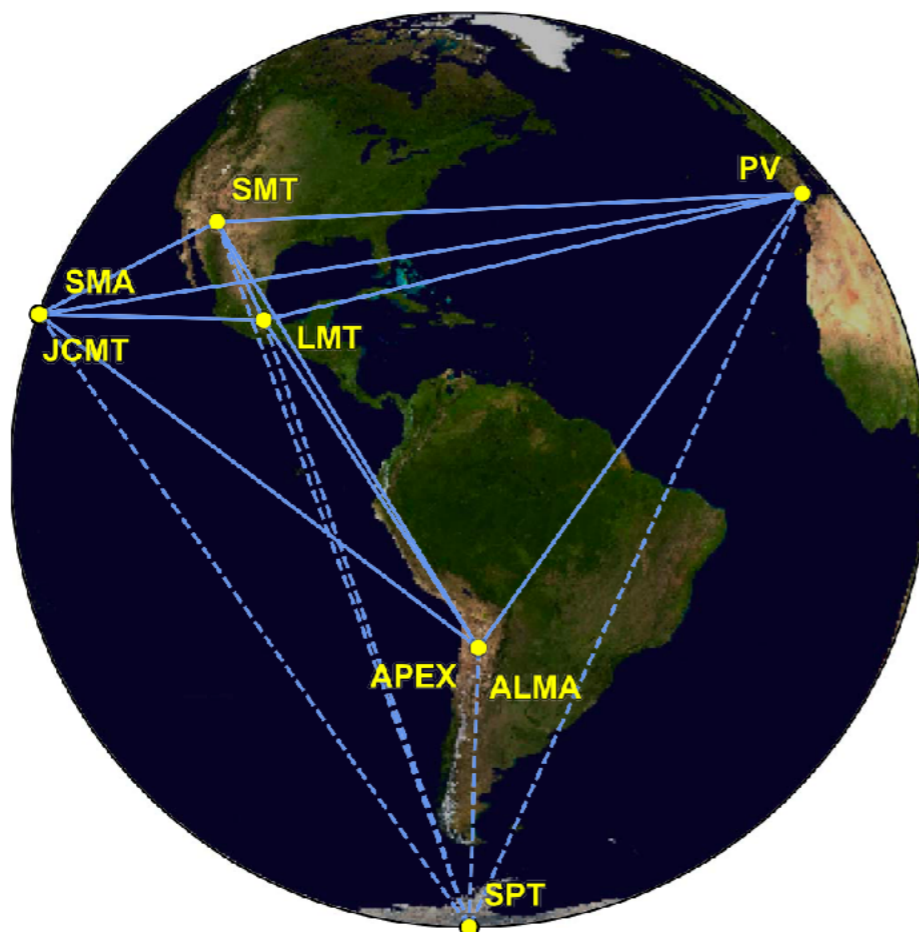
The Event Horizon Telescope Collaboration

(See the end matter for the full list of authors.)

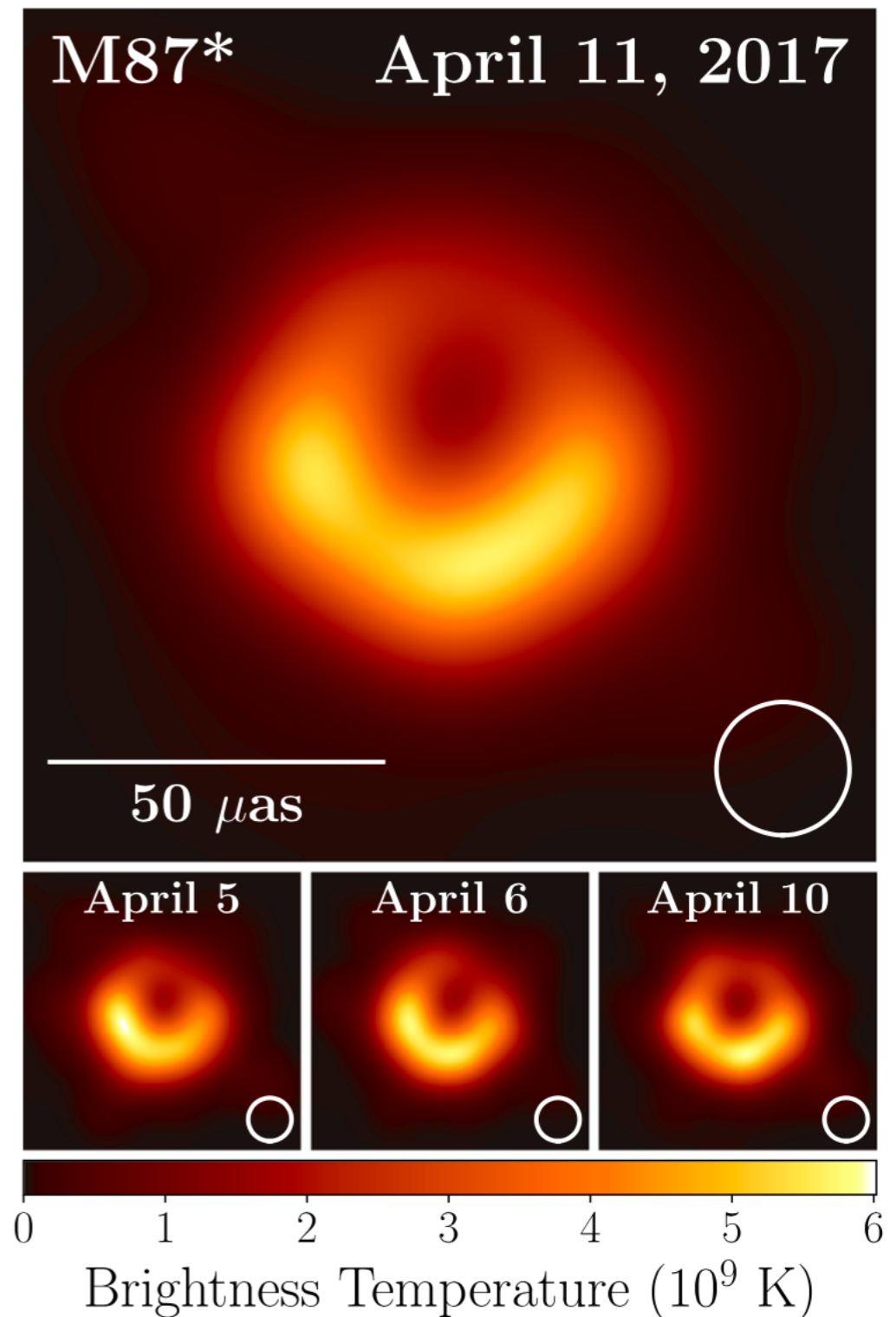
Received 2019 March 1; revised 2019 March 12; accepted 2019 March 12; published 2019 April 10

### Abstract

When surrounded by a transparent emission region, black holes are expected to reveal a dark shadow caused by gravitational light bending and photon capture at the event horizon. To image and study this phenomenon, we have assembled the Event Horizon Telescope, a global very long baseline interferometry array observing at a wavelength of 1.3 mm. This allows us to reconstruct event-horizon-scale images of the supermassive black hole candidate in the center of the giant elliptical galaxy M87. We have resolved the central compact radio source as an asymmetric bright emission ring with a diameter of  $42 \pm 3 \mu\text{as}$ , which is circular and encompasses a central depression in brightness with a flux ratio  $\gtrsim 10:1$ . The emission ring is recovered using different calibration and imaging schemes, with its diameter and width remaining stable over four different observations carried out in different days. Overall, the observed image is consistent with expectations for the shadow of a Kerr black hole as predicted by general relativity. The asymmetry in brightness in the ring can be explained in terms of relativistic beaming of the emission from a plasma rotating close to the speed of light around a black hole. We compare our images to an extensive library of ray-traced general-relativistic magnetohydrodynamic simulations of black holes and derive a central mass of  $M = (6.5 \pm 0.7) \times 10^9 M_{\odot}$ . Our radio-wave observations thus provide powerful evidence for the presence of supermassive black holes in centers of galaxies and as the central engines of active galactic nuclei. They also present a new tool to explore gravity in its most extreme limit and on a mass scale that was so far not accessible.



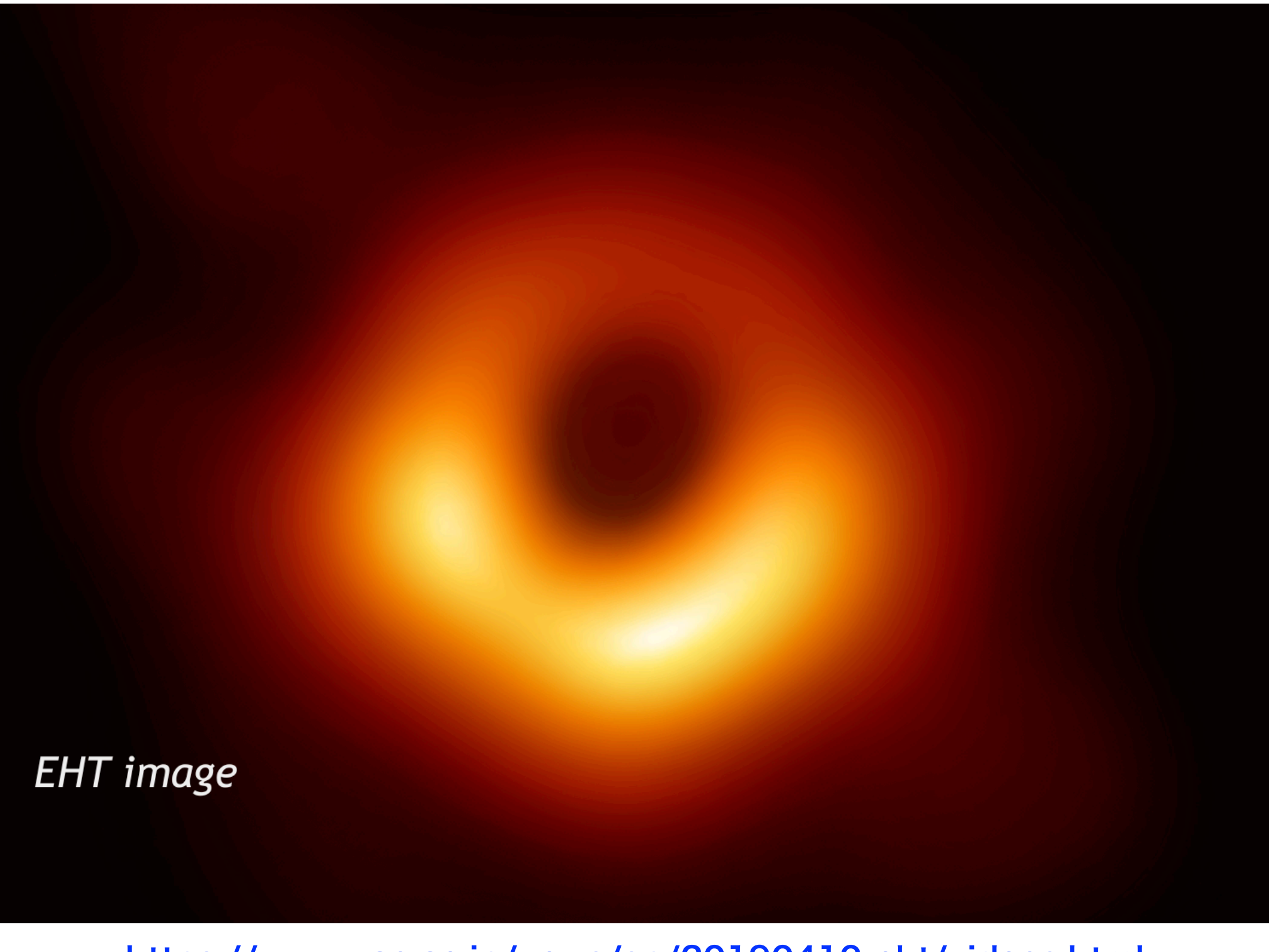
**Figure 1.** Eight stations of the EHT 2017 campaign over six geographic locations as viewed from the equatorial plane. Solid baselines represent mutual



**Figure 3.** Top: EHT image of M87\* from observations on 2017 April 11 as a representative example of the images collected in the 2017 campaign. The image is the average of three different imaging methods after convolving each with a circular Gaussian kernel to give matched resolutions. The largest of the three kernels ( $20 \mu\text{as}$  FWHM) is shown in the lower right. The image is shown in units of brightness temperature,  $T_b = S\lambda^2/2k_B\Omega$ , where  $S$  is the flux density,  $\lambda$  is the observing wavelength,  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $\Omega$  is the solid angle of the resolution element. Bottom: similar images taken over different days showing the stability of the basic image structure and the equivalence among different days. North is up and east is to the left.

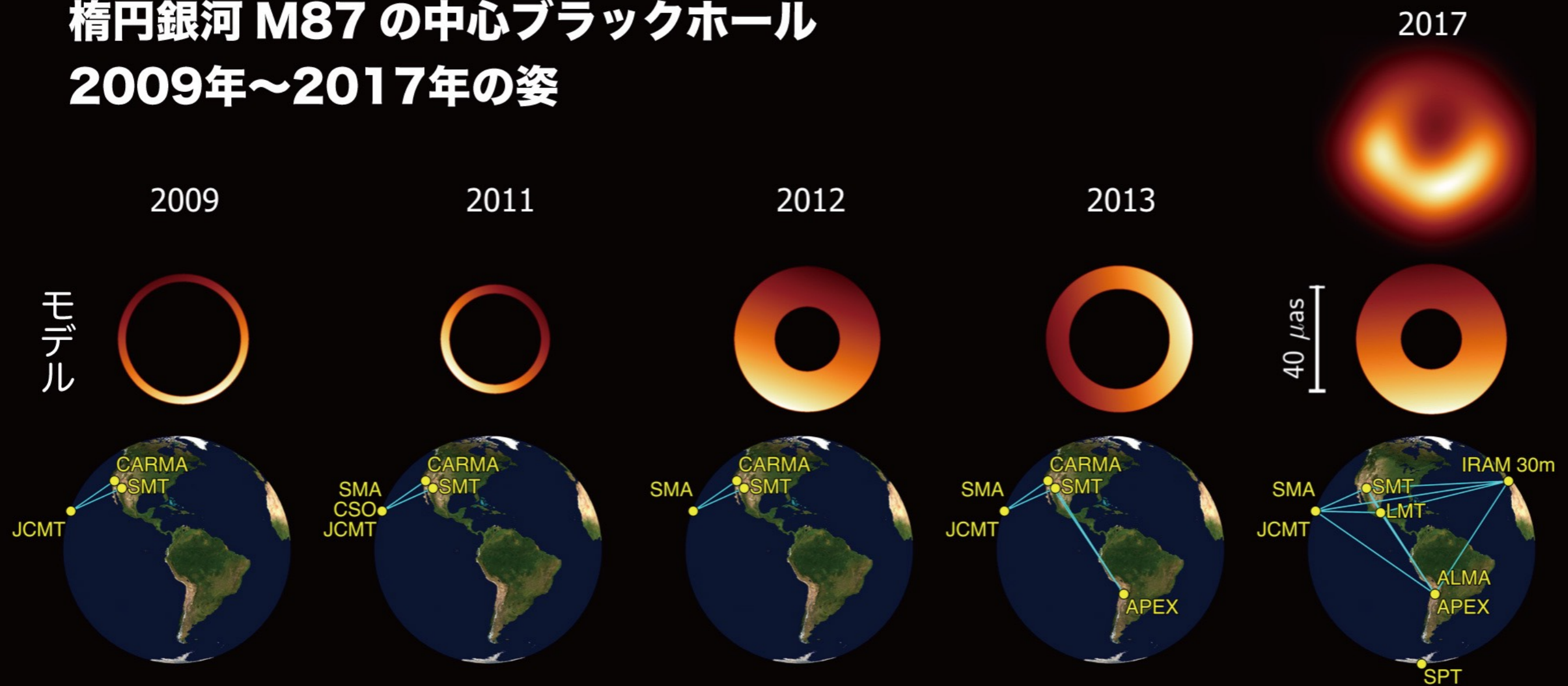
# ブラックホールシャドウのメカニズム解説映像

*EHT image*



## M87 ブラックホールのリング像は揺れ動いていた

# 楕円銀河 M87 の中心ブラックホール 2009年～2017年の姿



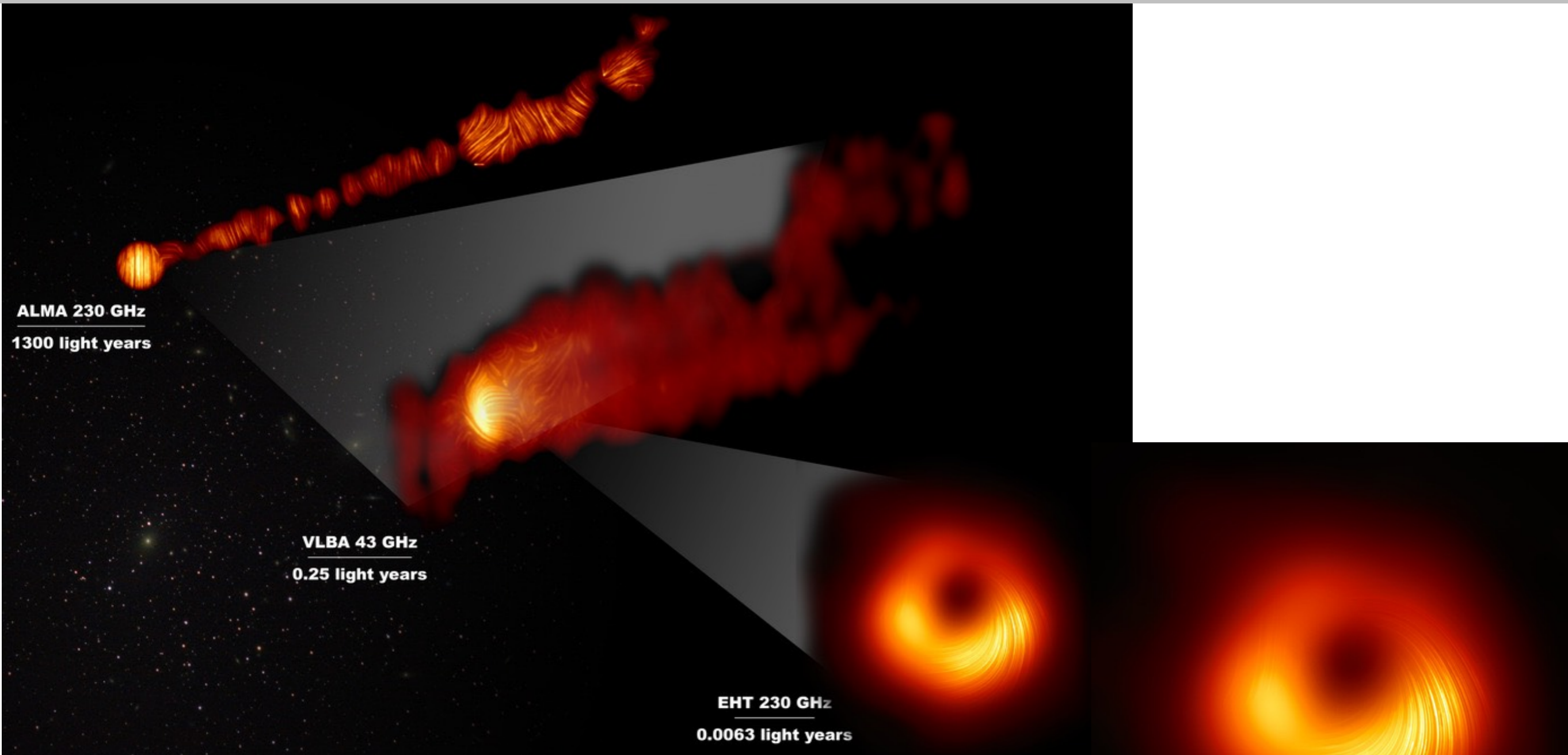
Event Horizon Telescope

Credit: M. Wielgus, D. Pesce

ブラックホールを取り囲む非対称なリング構造が8年間にわたり定常的に存在する一方で、リングの明るい部分の向きが揺れ動いていた。（過去の試験データを解析）

<https://www.miz.nao.ac.jp/eht-j/c/pr/pr20200923>

## M87 ブラックホール近傍の偏波画像. (周辺の磁場の向きを表す)



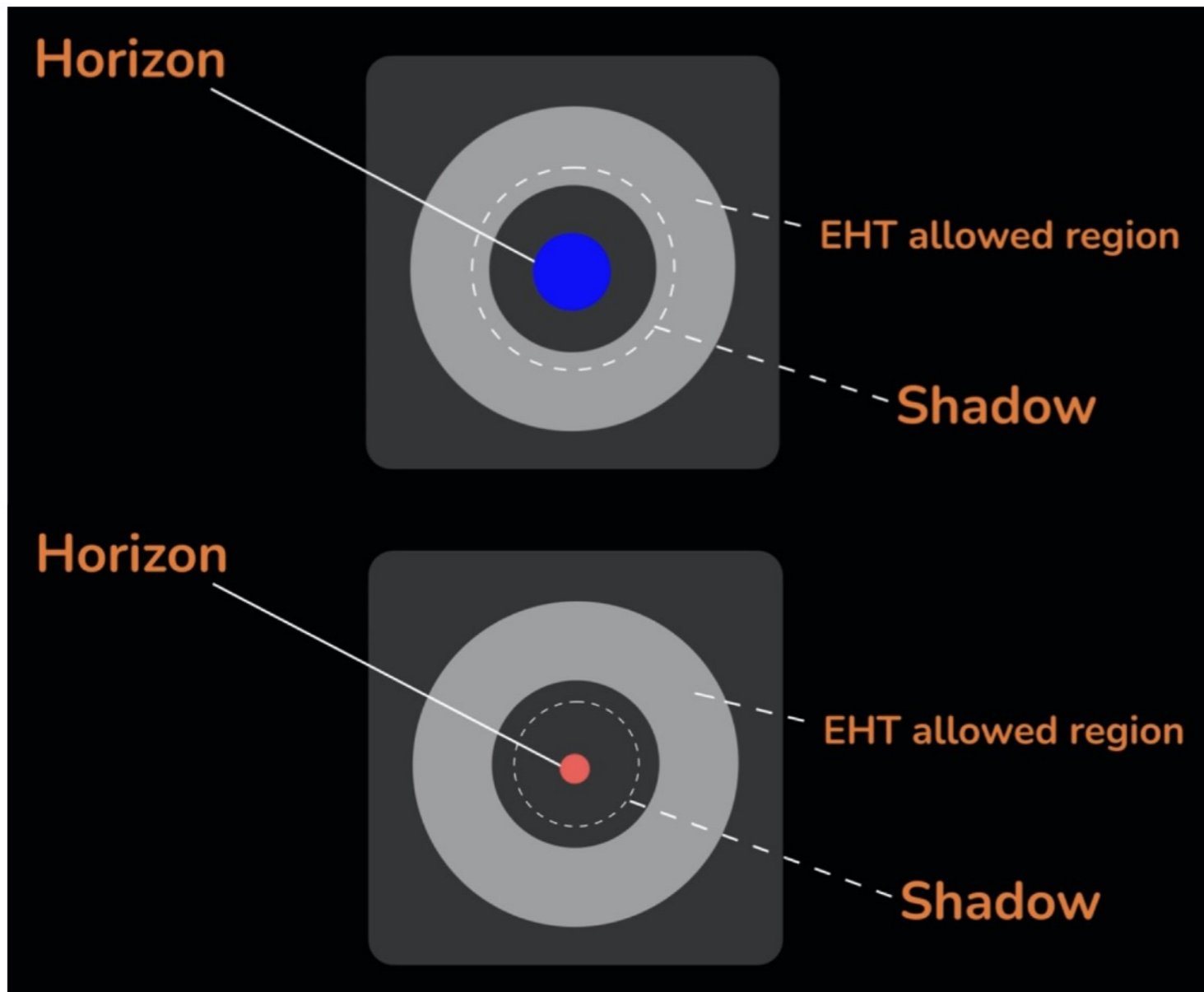
M87は最も代表的な活動銀河ジェット天体の1つ

2017年データを再解析. 電波の偏光の画像を得た.

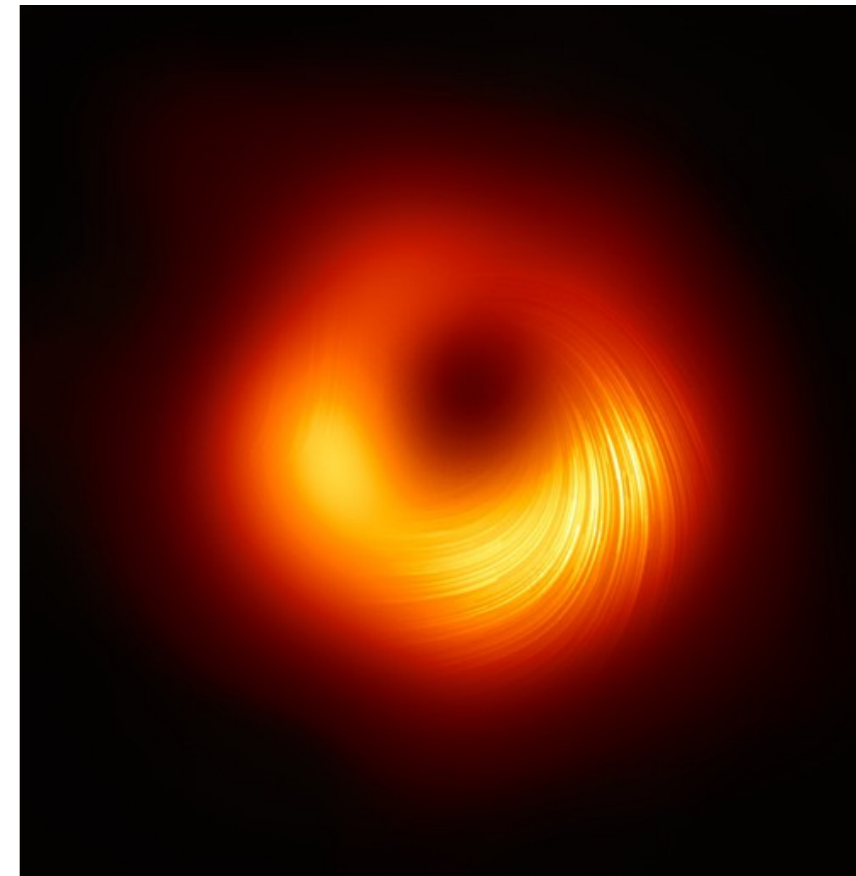
→ ブラックホール周囲の磁場について, 初めての情報となった

<https://www.miz.nao.ac.jp/eht-j/c/pr/pr20210324>

## M87 ブラックホールの画像で、相対性理論の検証



理論によって、ブラックホール・シャドウの大きさは異なる。



→ M87の観測データは、一般相対性理論と見事に一致し、  
超ひも理論に基づく重力理論ともある程度一致



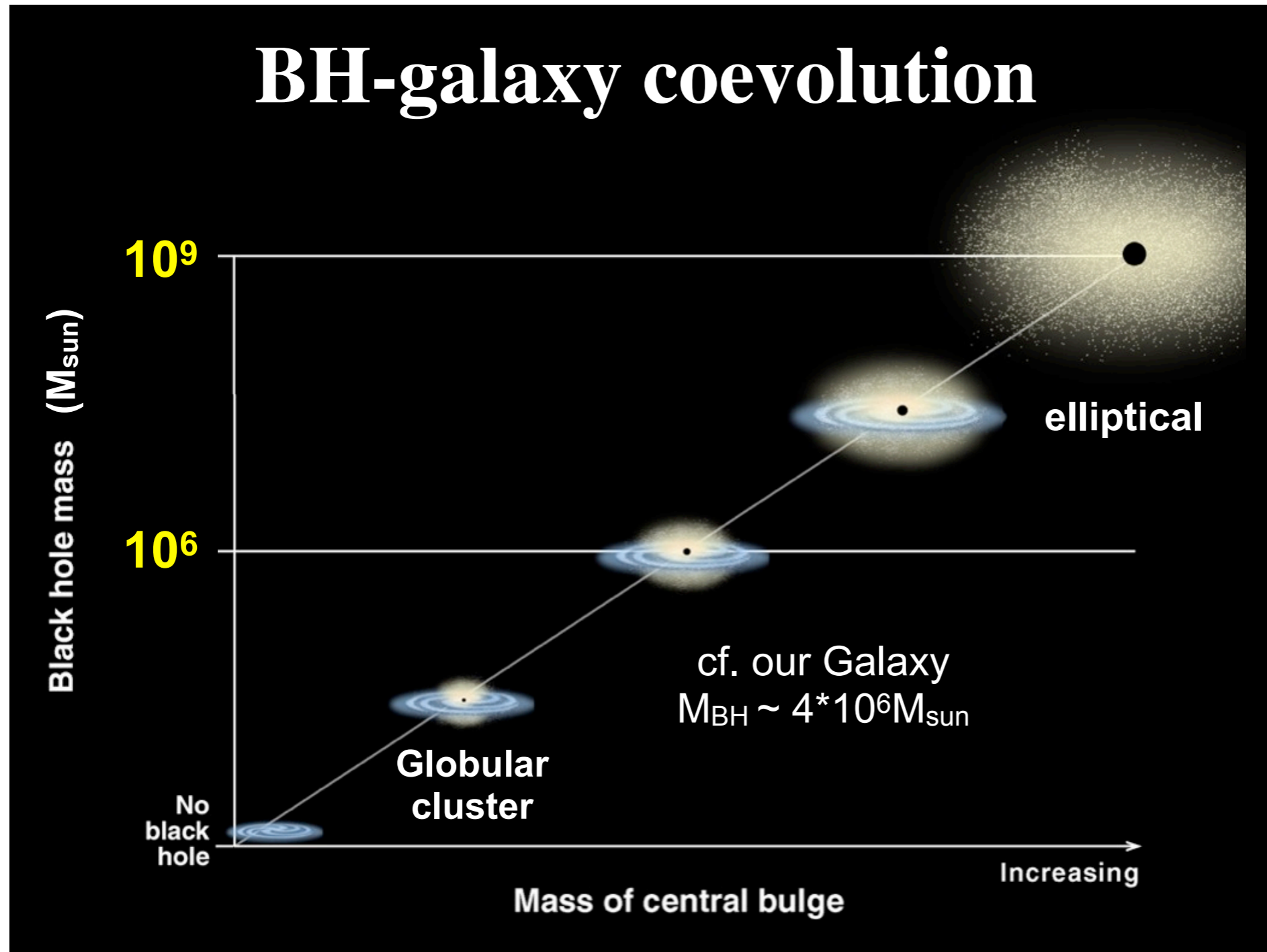
# ブラックホールの未解決問題

- A. 銀河中心ブラックホールの形成
- B. 時空特異点の問題
- C. 重力波観測で見つかった正体不明天体

# 銀河中心の超巨大ブラックホールはどうやってできたのか

super-massive BH

太陽質量の10-30倍のブラックホールの形成プロセスは説明できる。  
でも、銀河中心にある太陽質量の数100万倍のブラックホールは??



銀河中心のブラックホールと、銀河は共に進化してきたはず

「共進化」  
co-evolution

「宇宙生態系」  
cosmic ecosystem

# 銀河中心の超巨大ブラックホールはどうやってできたのか

super-massive BH

太陽質量の10-30倍のブラックホールの形成プロセスは説明できる。  
でも、銀河中心にある太陽質量の数100万倍のブラックホールは??



銀河中心のブラックホールと、銀河は共に進化してきたはず

「共進化」  
co-evolution  
「宇宙生態系」  
cosmic ecosystem

「共進化」

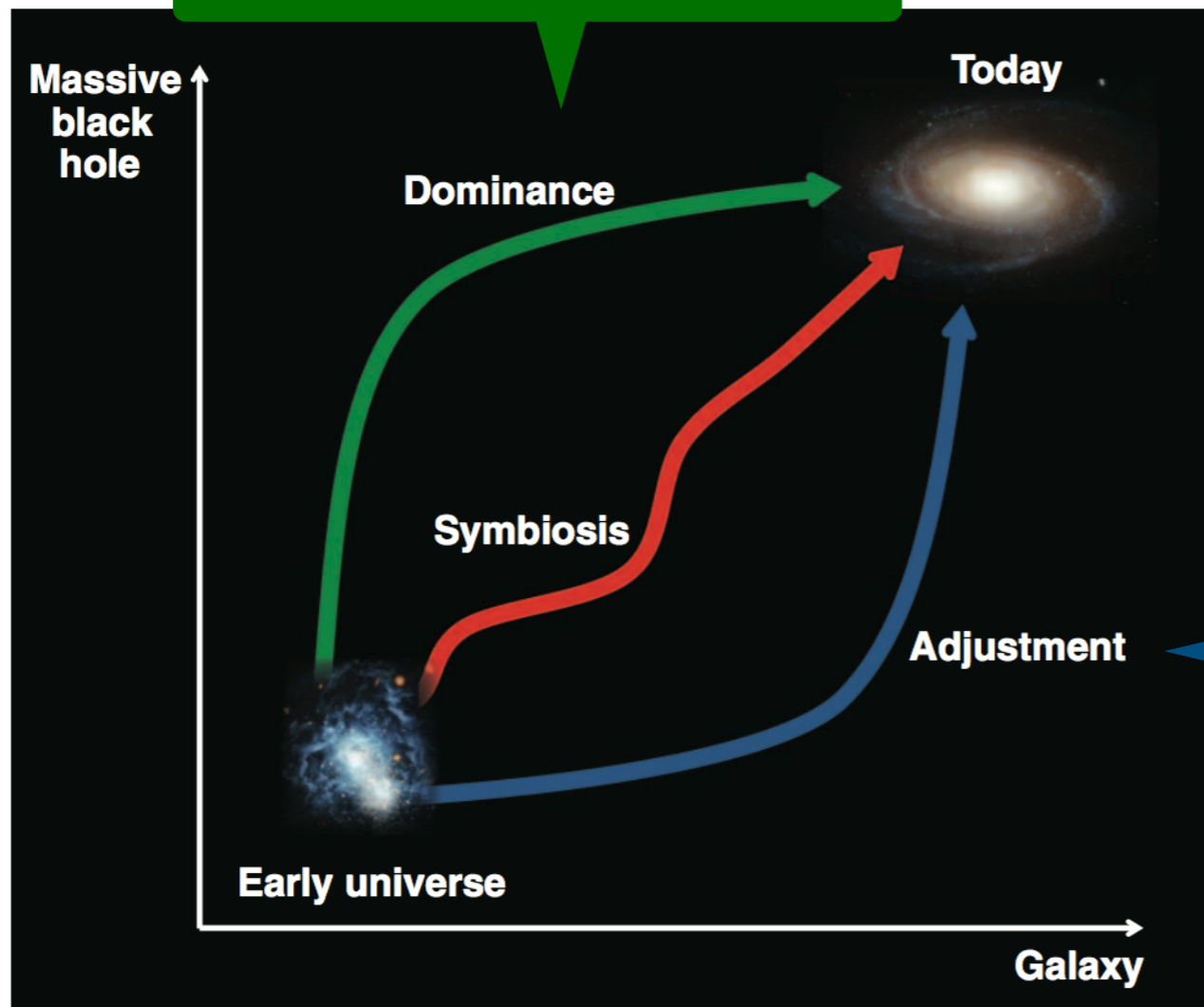
co-evolution

「宇宙生態系」

cosmic ecosystem

中心のBHが先にできて  
銀河をつくった

はじめにできて  
その後は？

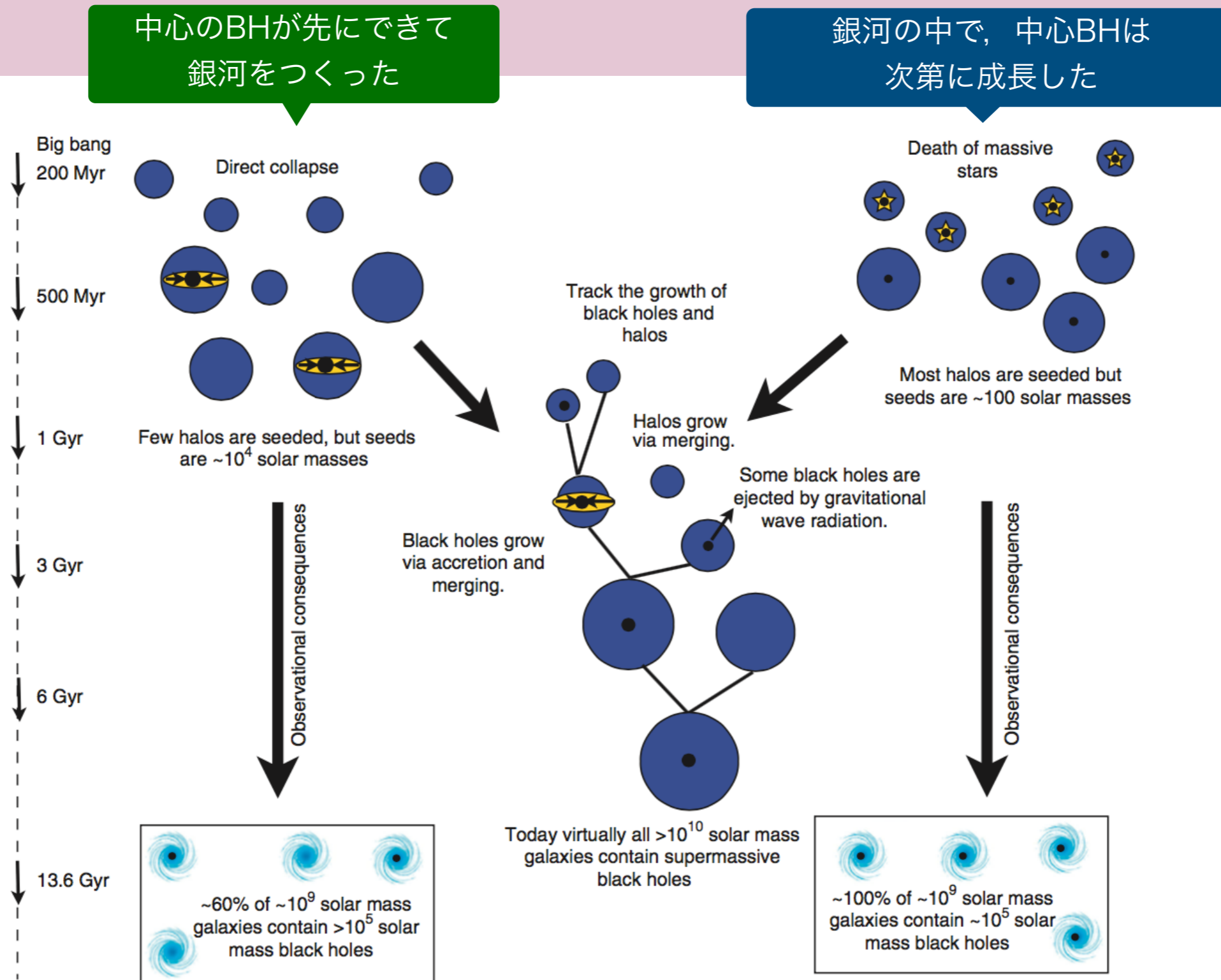


銀河の中で、中心BHは  
次第に成長した

合体形成の時間が  
足りない？

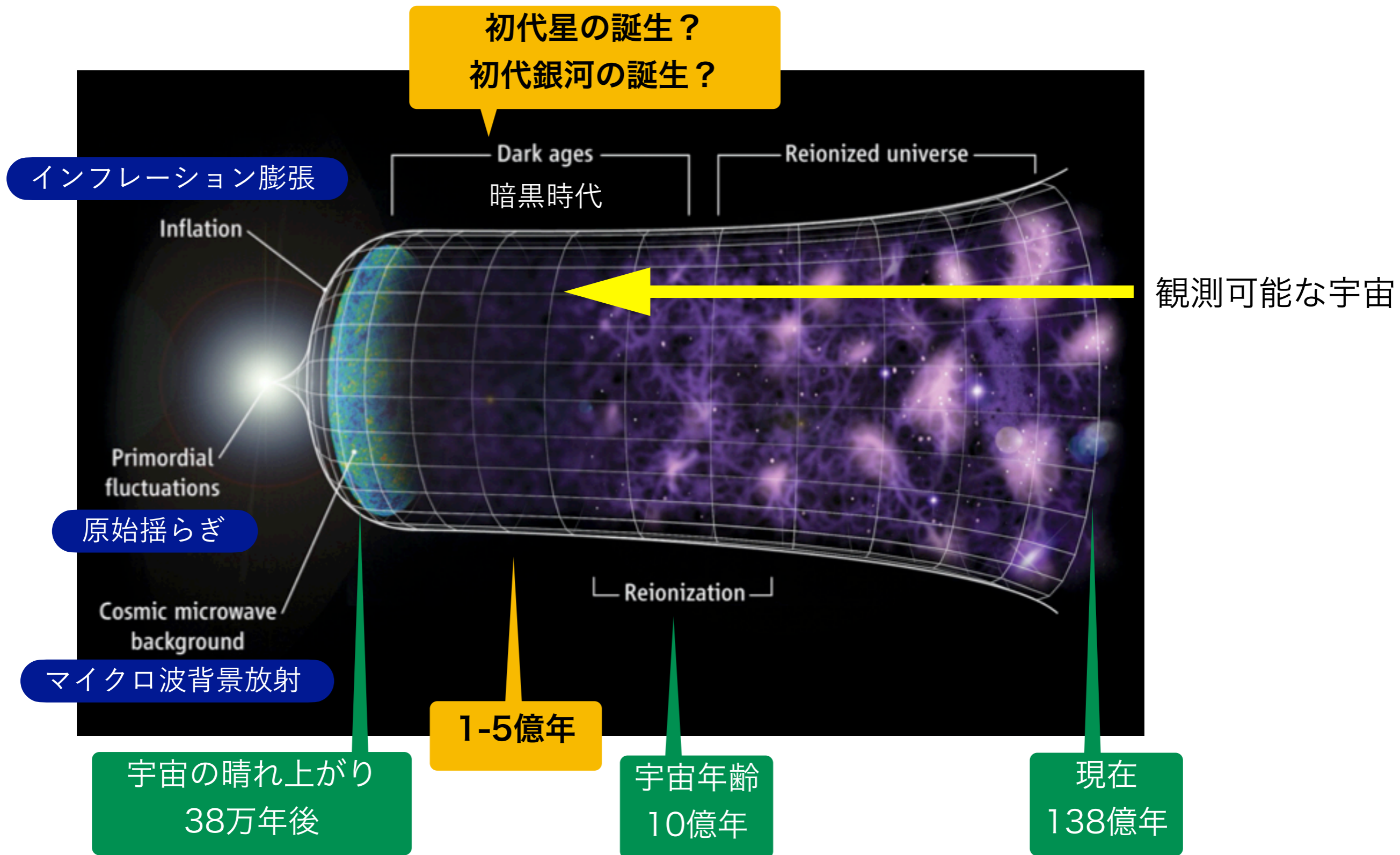
**Fig. 3.** Possible routes to MBH and galaxy coevolution, starting from black holes forming in distant galaxies in the early universe. [Image credits: NASA, European Space Agency (ESA), A. Aloisi (Space Telescope Science Institute and ESA, Baltimore, MD), and The Hubble Heritage Team (Space Telescope Science Institute/ Association of Universities for Research in Astronomy)]

# ブラックホールの未解決問題：超巨大ブラックホールの形成



**Figure 1 | Evolution of seed black holes.** Schematic of the evolution of seed black holes assuming two different formation mechanisms (the death of the first generation of massive stars versus the direct collapse of gas into a black hole). Dark matter halos and the galaxies in them grow through merging. Black holes grow both via merging and by accreting gas. One additional complication is that after merging, gravitational radiation 'recoil' (see text for details) may send the black hole out of the galaxy. At present, we can distinguish between the two scenarios based on the fraction of small galaxies that contain massive black holes (we call this the 'occupation fraction').

# 宇宙の暗黒時代（ダーク・エイジ）



# 中間質量ブラックホール

100

$10^5$

$M_{\text{sun}}$

Stellar-mass BH

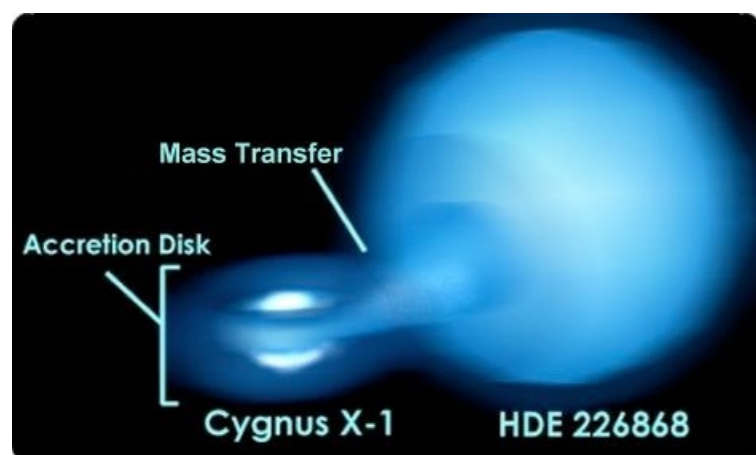
Intermediate-mass BH

Super-massive BH

星質量

中間質量？

超巨大質量



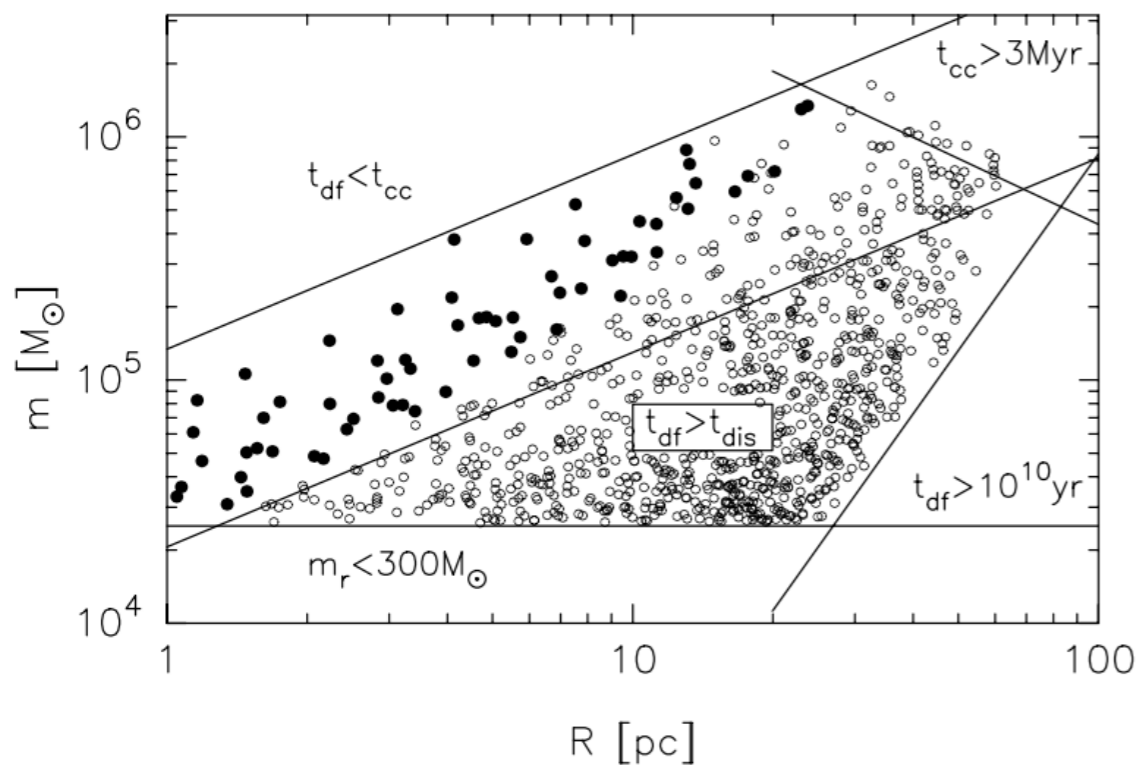
最近, 100-180  $M_{\text{sun}}$   
のBHが重力波で見つかった

もう少し広い質量範囲でBHを  
発見することが望まれる

M87 by EHT  
質量  $6.5 \times 10^9 M_{\text{sun}}$   
距離 5500万光年  
16.9 Mpc

# 銀河中心には、多数の超巨大ブラックホールがある？

銀河のシミュレーションを行うと、銀河中心にはたくさんの超巨大ブラックホールが集まってくる = 力学的摩擦 (dynamical friction)



THE ASTROPHYSICAL JOURNAL, 641:319–326, 2006 April 10  
© 2006. The American Astronomical Society. All rights reserved. Printed in U.S.A.

## THE ECOLOGY OF STAR CLUSTERS AND INTERMEDIATE-MASS BLACK HOLES IN THE GALACTIC BULGE

SIMON F. PORTEGIÉS ZWART,<sup>1,2</sup> HOLGER BAUMGARDT,<sup>3</sup> STEPHEN L. W. McMILLAN,<sup>4</sup>  
JUNICHIRO MAKINO,<sup>5</sup> PIET HUT,<sup>6</sup> AND TOSHI EBISUZAKI<sup>7</sup>

Received 2005 November 11; accepted 2005 December 5



# 銀河中心には、多数の超巨大ブラックホールがある？

L7-1



Publ. Astron. Soc. Japan (2016) 68 (3), L7 (1–6)  
 doi: 10.1093/pasj/psw031  
 Advance Access Publication Date: 2016 April 19  
 Letter



天の川銀河中心に、  
 太陽質量の1万倍の天体を発見

Letter

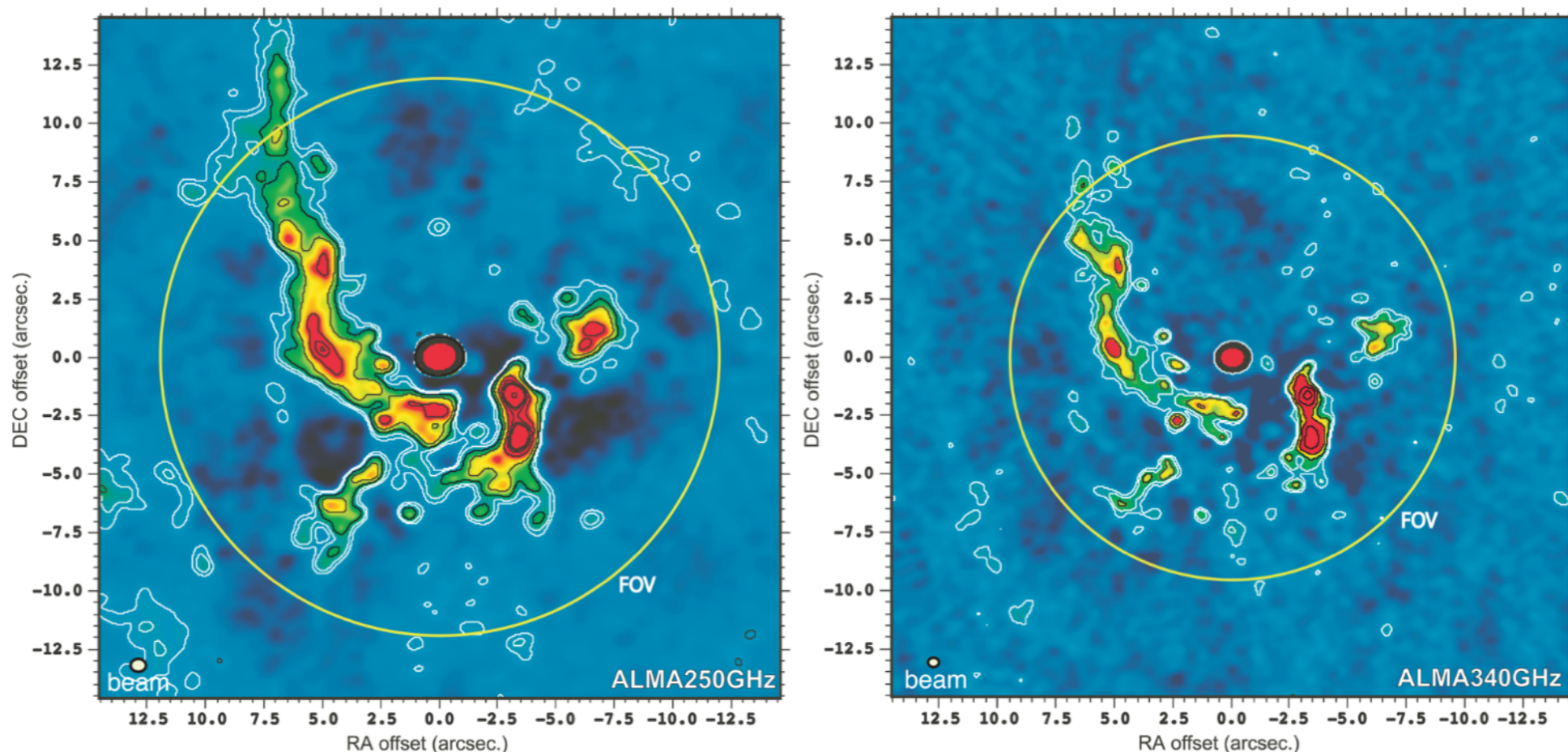
## Galactic center mini-spiral by ALMA: Possible origin of the central cluster

Masato Tsuboi,<sup>1,2,\*</sup> Yoshimi Kitamura,<sup>1</sup> Makoto Miyoshi,<sup>3</sup> Kenta Uehara,<sup>2</sup>  
 Takahiro Tsutsumi,<sup>4</sup> and Atsushi Miyazaki<sup>3,5</sup>

arXiv:1602.05325

0.15 pc from SgrA\*

$1-2 \times 10^4$  Msun



**Fig. 2.** Left panel: ALMA map in the 250 GHz band of the “mini-spiral” including Sgr A\*. The four spectral windows of  $f_c = 245, 247, 257,$  and  $259$  GHz are combined to improve the sensitivity. The diameter of the FOV is  $24''$  (circle). The angular resolution is  $0''.63 \times 0''.53$  at  $PA = -84^\circ$ , which is shown

# 銀河中心には、多数の超巨大ブラックホールがある？

## 天の川銀河で中質量ブラックホール候補の実体を初めて確認

2017年9月5日 | [研究成果](#)



中質量ブラックホールによる重力散乱でガス雲が加速される様子の想像図 [オリジナルサイズ \(5.0MB\)](#)

慶應義塾大学理工学部物理学科の岡朋治（おかともはる）教授らの研究チームは、アルマ望遠鏡を使用して、天の川銀河の中心部分に発見された特異分子雲「CO-0.40-0.22」の詳細な電波観測を行いました。この特異分子雲は、天の川銀河中心核「いて座A\*（エー・スター）」から約200光年離れた位置にあり、その異常に広い速度幅から内部に太陽の10万倍の質量をもつブラックホールが潜んでいる可能性が指摘されました。観測の結果、特異分子雲「CO-0.40-0.22」の中心近くに、コンパクトな高密度分子雲と点状電波

天の川銀河中心に、  
太陽質量の10万倍の天体を発見

60pc from SgrA\*  
10<sup>5</sup> Msun

nature  
astronomy

Altmetric: 660

[More detail >>](#)

Letter

## Millimetre-wave emission from an intermediate-mass black hole candidate in the Milky Way

Tomoharu Oka , Shiho Tsujimoto, Yuhei Iwata, Mariko Nomura & Shunya Takekawa

*Nature Astronomy* (2017)

doi:10.1038/s41550-017-0224-z

[Download Citation](#)

Received: 16 March 2017

Accepted: 14 July 2017

Published online: 04 September 2017

# 銀河中心には、多数の超巨大ブラックホールがある？

Science (2018 Jan 8)

NEWS | IN DEPTH

ASTRONOMY

## Middleweight black holes found at last

Discovery could explain the origin of million-solar-mass monsters at galactic centers

By Daniel Clery

How did giant black holes grow so big? Astronomers have long had evidence of baby black holes with masses of no more than tens of suns, and of million- or billion-solar-mass behemoths lurking at the centers of galaxies. But middle-size ones, with thousands or tens of thousands of solar masses, seemed to be missing. Their absence forced theorists to propose that supermassive black holes didn't grow gradually by slowly consuming matter, but somehow emerged as ready-made giants.

Now, astronomers appear to have located some missing middleweights. An international team has scoured an archive of galaxy spectra and found more than 300 small galaxies that have the signature of intermediate mass black holes (IMBHs) in their cores. The team confirmed that 10 of those candidates really do have middleweight black holes by consulting other data sets, raising their confidence that the original list "must include at least a few dozen genuine [IMBHs]," says team leader Igor Chilingarian of the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Ezequiel Treister of the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile in Santiago salutes the work. "Black hole measurements are really hard; we've been trying to do this for many years." Volker Bromm of the University of Texas in Austin says the team's technique is "pretty original" and calls their work "careful and responsible." The findings, researchers say, could begin to unravel the mystery of supermassive black hole formation.

Black holes of any size are hard to find because they don't emit light of their own. They can reveal themselves by sucking in nearby gas and dust, heating it so fiercely along the way that it emits x-rays. X-rays pouring from the centers of many galaxies betray the presence of supermassive black holes, known as active galactic nuclei (AGNs). But x-rays from an IMBH would be much fainter, and existing x-ray satellites are geared toward detailed observations of distant sources, not wide-ranging surveys of multiple galaxies. The archive from NASA's Chandra X-ray Observa-

tory, for example, only covers 2.5% of the sky. So Chilingarian's team searched for an alternative, visible-light signal in a catalog of 930,000 galaxy spectra from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey (SDSS). The x-rays produced by an AGN ionize clouds of hydrogen gas in the galactic bulge around it, setting them aglow at particular frequencies that produce distinct peaks in the galaxy's spectrum. The clouds closest to the black hole swirl around it at high speed, which shifts the frequencies via the Doppler effect and smears out each peak. Gas clouds farther out move more slowly, so the peaks remain sharp. To identify galaxies that have a small AGN, the team looked for spectral peaks that were sharp at the top but smeared out around the base.

That is enough to challenge recent thinking about how supermassive black holes formed. Theorists needed alternatives to gradual growth not just because IMBHs were missing, but also because astronomers have identified giant quasars—very luminous AGNs—shining when the universe was less than a billion years old. "How could very massive black holes grow so big [so early]?" asks theorist Avi Loeb of Harvard University. He and others proposed that in the early universe, huge gas clouds collapsed directly into black holes of between 100,000 and 1 million solar masses, which formed the seeds of the early quasars. That scenario would explain the rapid formation and the lack of IMBHs.

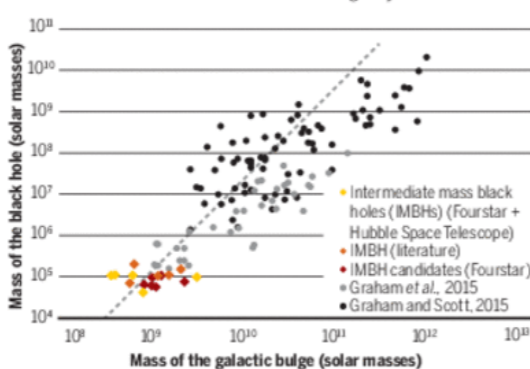
The new result suggests, however, that at least some giant black holes grew from smaller seeds. The 10 confirmed IMBHs fit a pattern of gradual growth: Their masses correlate with the size of galactic bulge around them, suggesting each is growing in step with its host (see diagram, left). "There is not one scenario: both happen," Treister says. "Now, the question is, which is more common?"

Bromm says direct collapse might only have been possible in the very early universe. The big bang generated only hydrogen and helium; heavier elements, forged by early stars, did not join the mix for millions of years. They helped cool the primordial gas when they became ionized, causing it to glow and shed heat. A cooler gas cloud is more likely to fragment into many stars—the seeds of small black holes. In contrast, a hot primordial cloud could collapse into a single giant object, with help from the gravitational pull of dark matter, Bromm suggests. It would be a rare occurrence, he admits, something of a "cosmic miracle."

The only way to find out which scenario dominates is to find more middleweights. The hurdle, Chilingarian says, is the lack of x-ray surveys. A German-built x-ray survey telescope called eROSITA is expected to be launched later this year or early next year on board the Russian observatory Spektr-RG. "It'll produce a very nice data set," Chilingarian says. He's betting it will yield hundreds more confirmed IMBHs—and shed more light on black hole origins. ■

### Black hole growth chart

Black holes, including the newly discovered middleweights (color), have masses that correlate with the size of their host galaxy.

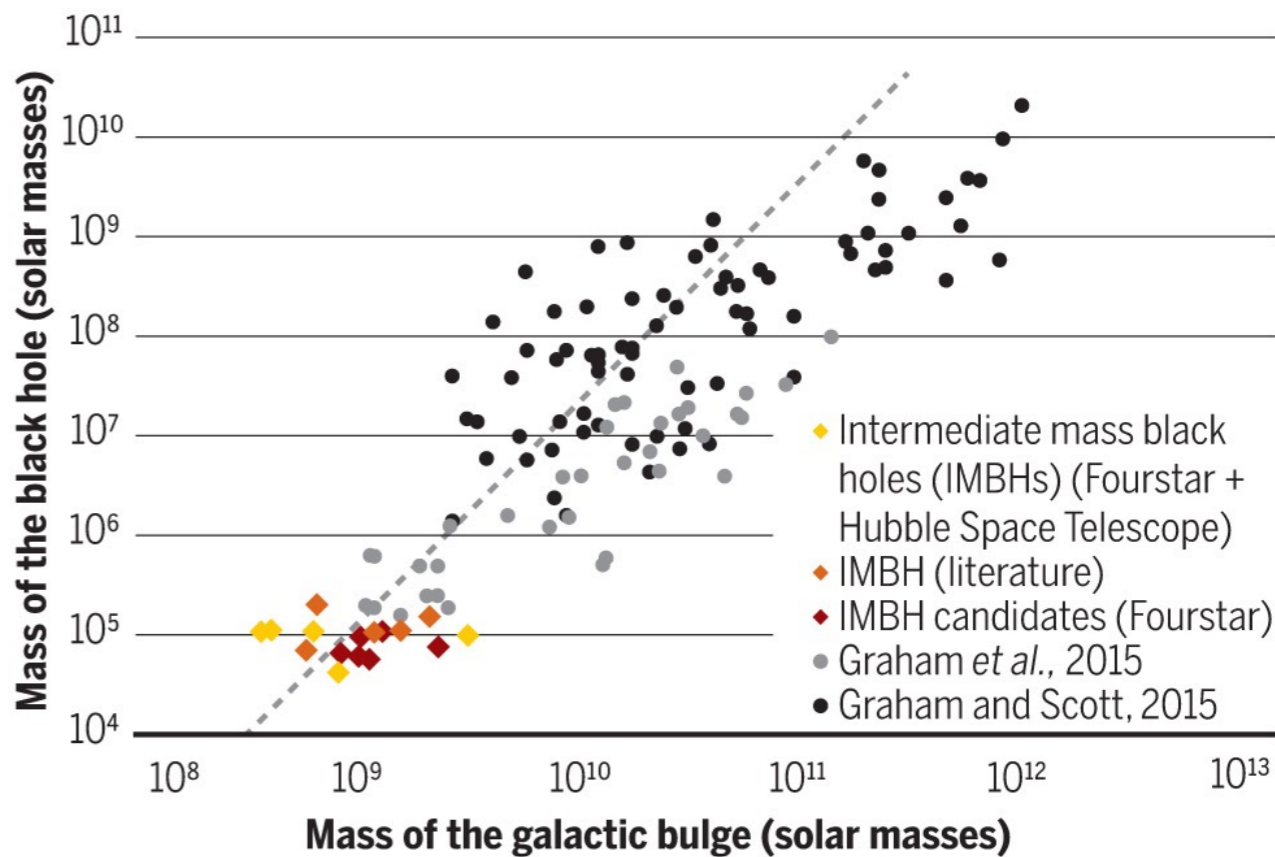


The search of the SDSS catalog yielded 305 candidates. Because other short-lived phenomena could mimic the key signal, the team checked other surveys, gathered at different times, to be sure the candidate galaxies showed the same smeared peaks. They also inspected some of the galaxies with the Giant Magellan Telescope in Chile. But the real clincher of an AGN is the telltale x-ray signal, so the team searched archived observations from NASA's Chandra and Swift satellites and Europe's X-ray Multi-Mirror Mission to see whether, by chance, they had observed any of those candidates. The result was a final short list of 10, the team reports in a paper posted on arXiv and submitted to *The Astrophysical Journal*.

## 中間質量ブラックホール ついに見つかる

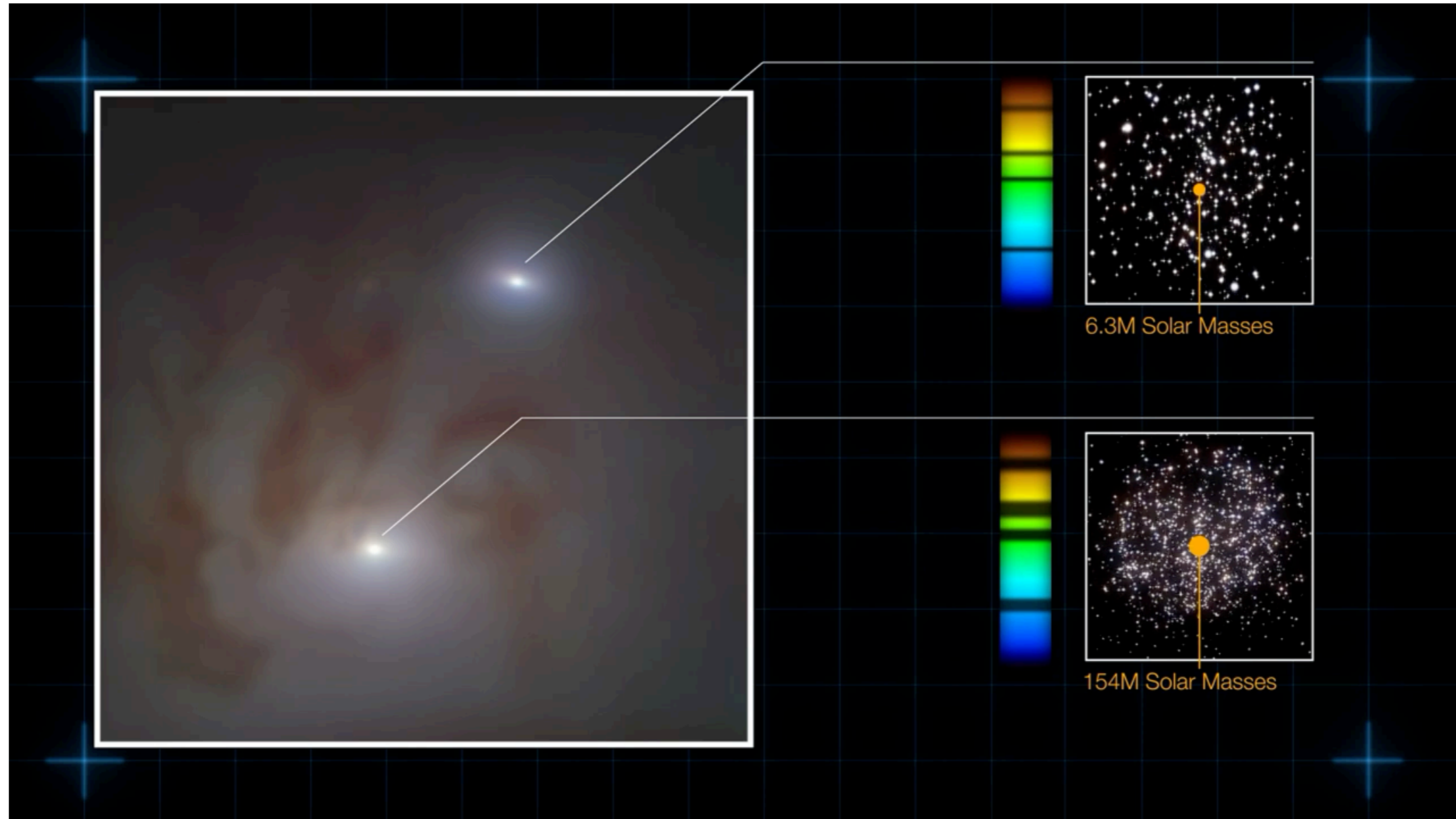
### Black hole growth chart

Black holes, including the newly discovered middleweights (color), have masses that correlate with the size of their host galaxy.



GRAPH: CHILINGARIAN ET AL., ARXIV:1805.04621 (2018); ADAPTED BY A. CUORIN/SCIENCE

## NGC7727の銀河に，超巨大ブラックホールのペア発見



8900万光年先の銀河NGC7727に，太陽質量の1億5400万倍のBHと630万倍のBHが近接して存在している．それぞれの周囲の星の動く速さから測定．アニメーション表示．  
欧州南天天文台発表．

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HnHZY9Py51l>

<https://www.eso.org/public/videos/eso2117c/>

# ブラックホールの未解決問題

- A. 銀河中心ブラックホールの形成
- B. 時空特異点の問題
- C. 重力波観測で見つかった正体不明天体

# 2020年のノーベル物理学賞 受賞者

<http://www.nobelprize.org/>

## “ブラックホール”

ロジャー・ペンローズ (89) 英オックスフォード大

「ブラックホール形成が一般相対性理論におけるごく自然な帰結となることの発見に対して」

ラインハルト・ゲンツェル (68) 独マックスプランク研究所

アンドレア・ゲズ (55) 米カリフォルニア大ロサンゼルス校

「天の川銀河の中心に超大質量なコンパクト天体を発見したことに対して」



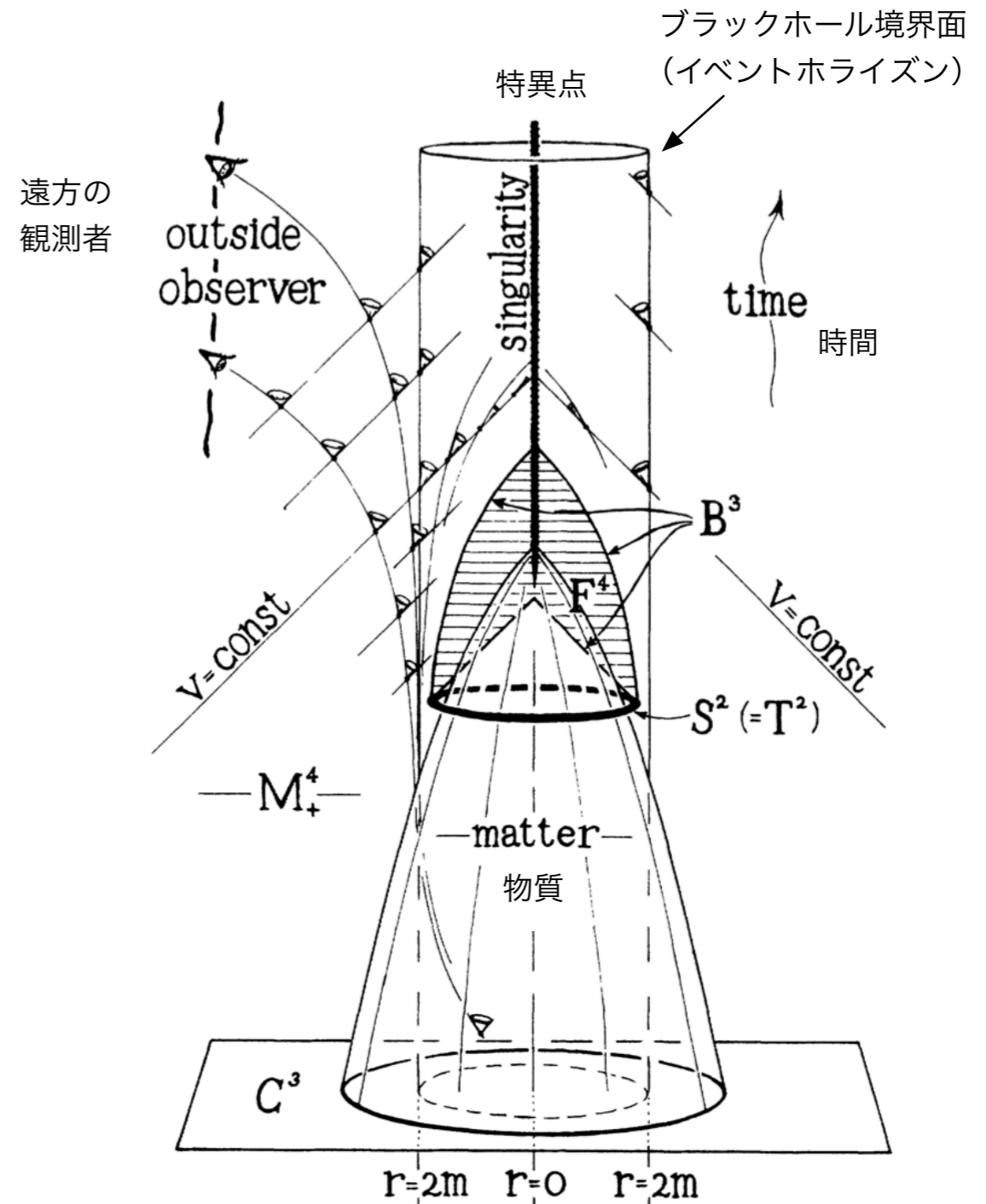
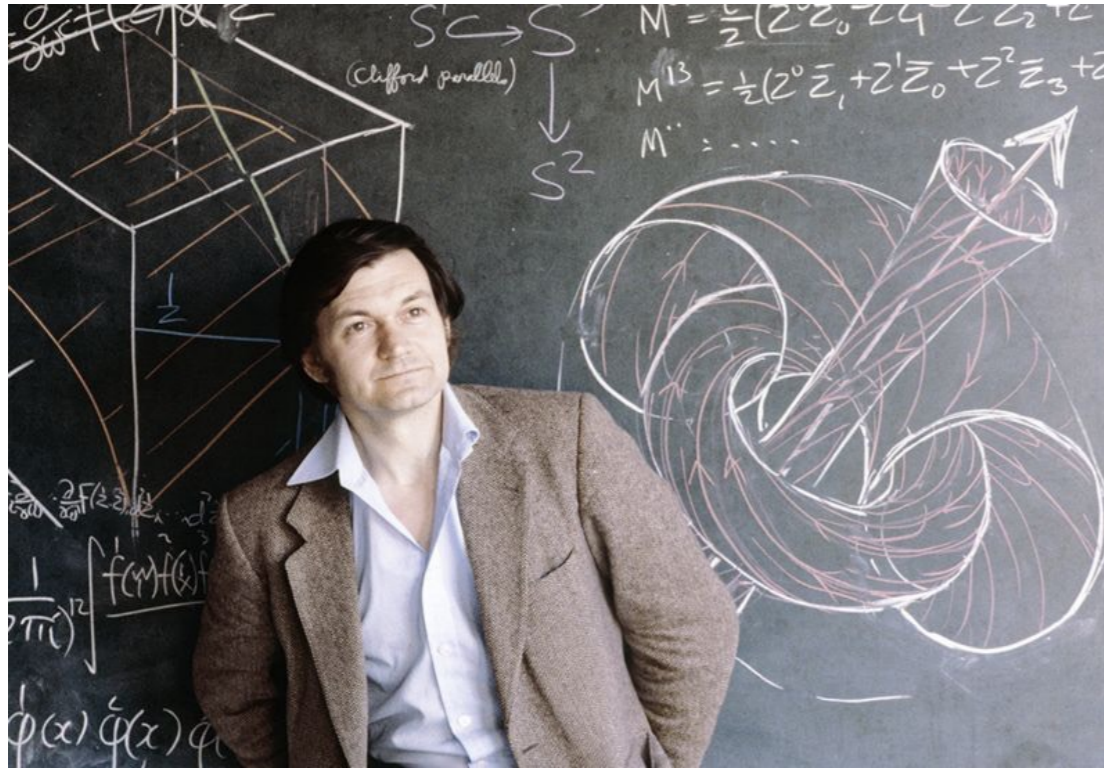
**Roger Penrose** “for the discovery that black hole formation is a robust prediction of the general theory of relativity”

**Reinhard Genzel and Andrea Ghez** “for the discovery of a supermassive compact object at the centre of our galaxy”.



# ロジャー・ペンローズ

「ブラックホール形成が一般相対性理論におけるごく自然な帰結となることの発見に対して」

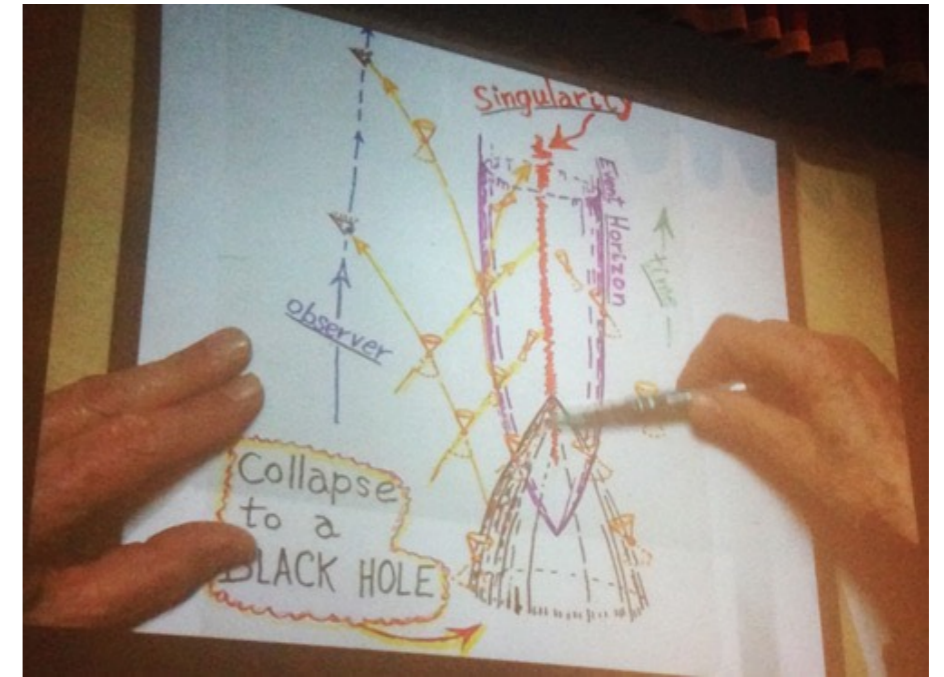
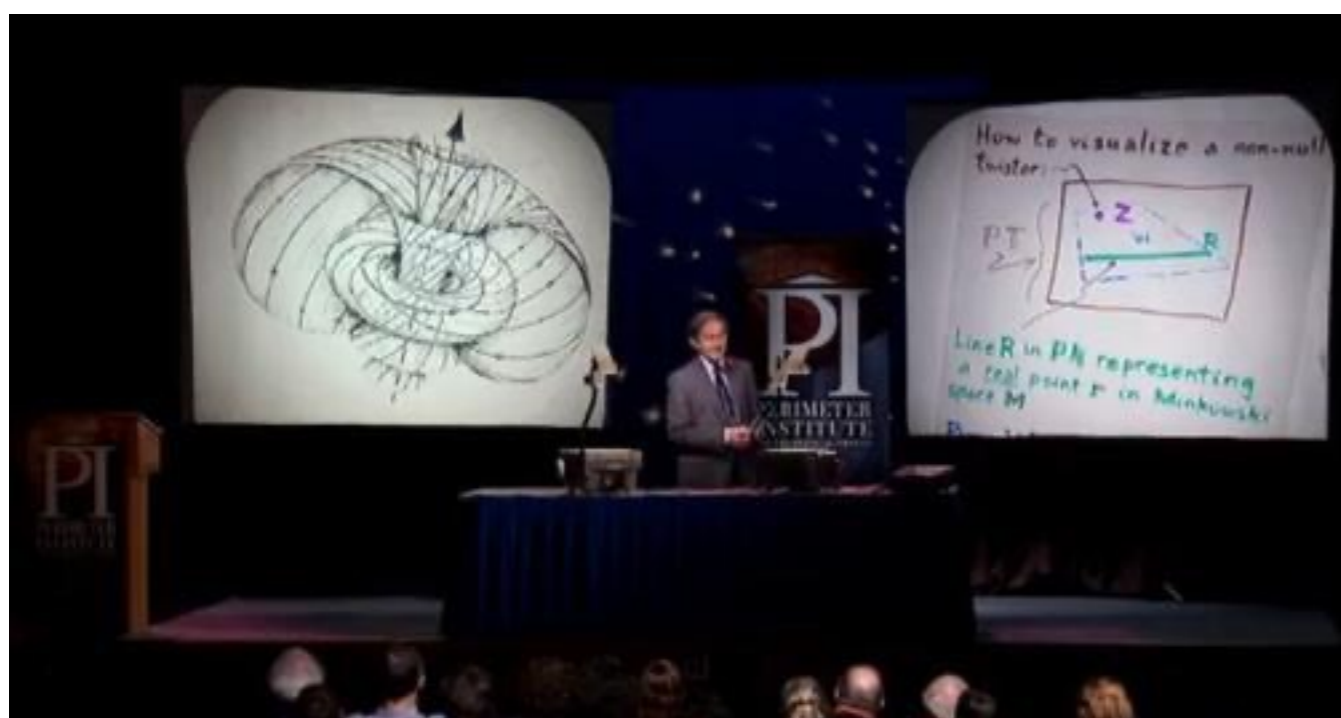
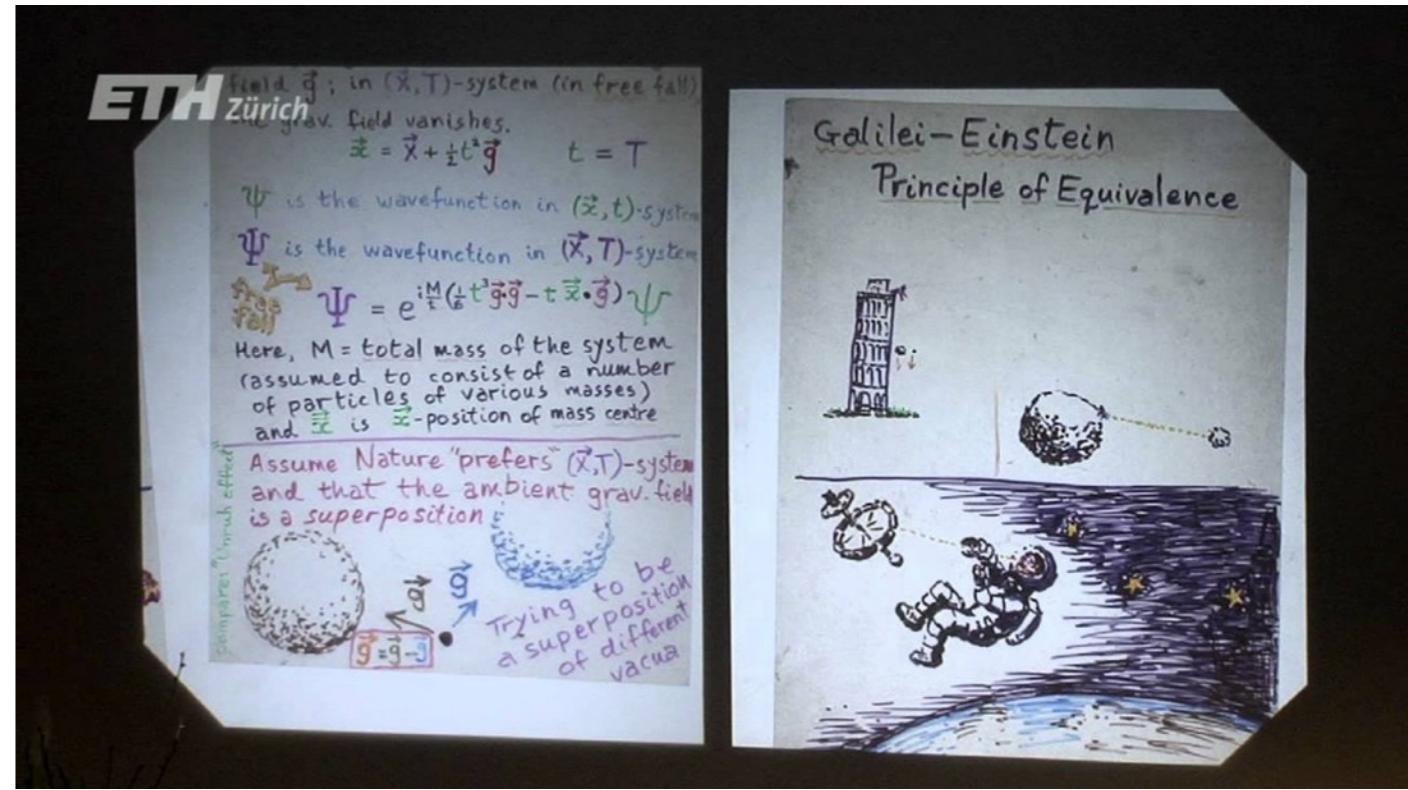
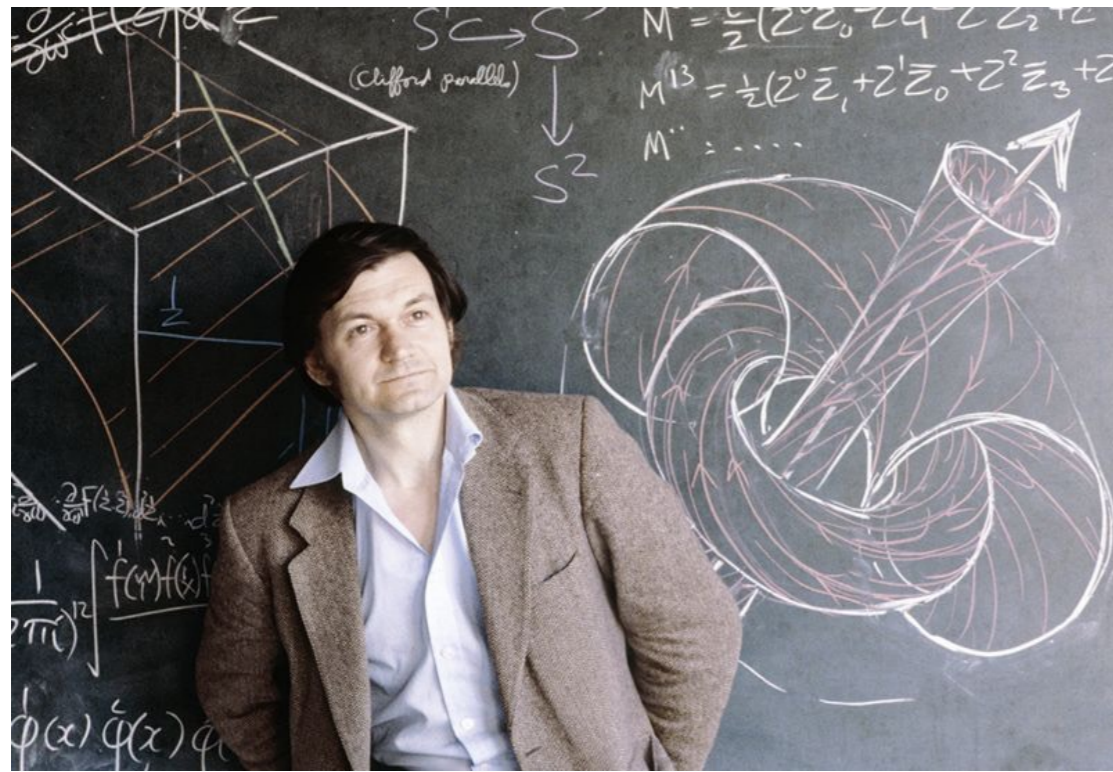


ペンローズが描いたブラックホール形成の図。横の広がりが空間（2次元で表している）、縦方向上向きに時間の進みを表す。物質が重力崩壊してつぶれ、光（円錐で描かれているのが光の広がり方を示す）が遠方へ到達しない領域が出現する。中心では特異点が発生するが、それはブラックホール境界面の内側にあるので、遠方の物理を乱さない。

(R. Penrose, Phys. Rev. Lett. 14 (1965) 57の図を加工。)

# ロジャー・ペンローズ

「ブラックホール形成が一般相対性理論におけるごく自然な帰結となることの発見に対して」

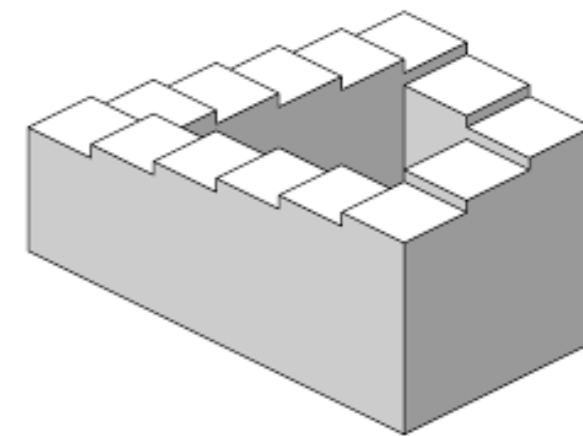
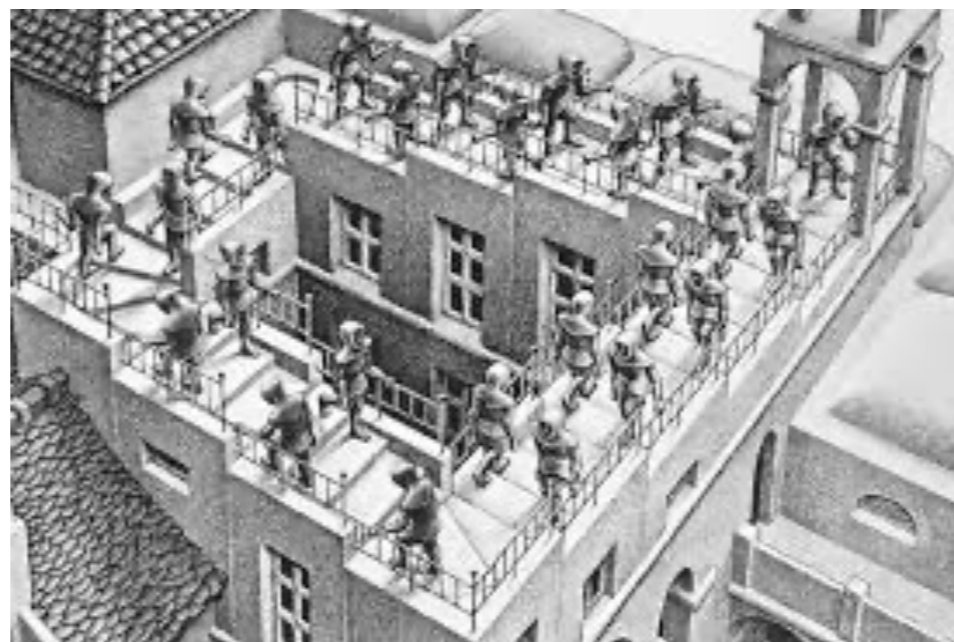




## ロジャー・ペンローズ &amp; M. C. エッシャー



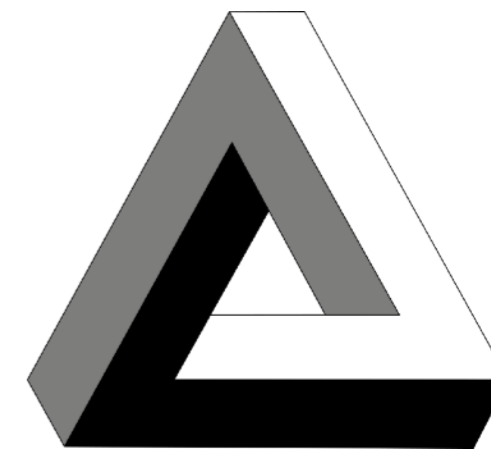
*Ascending and Descending* by M. C. Escher



Penrose Stairs

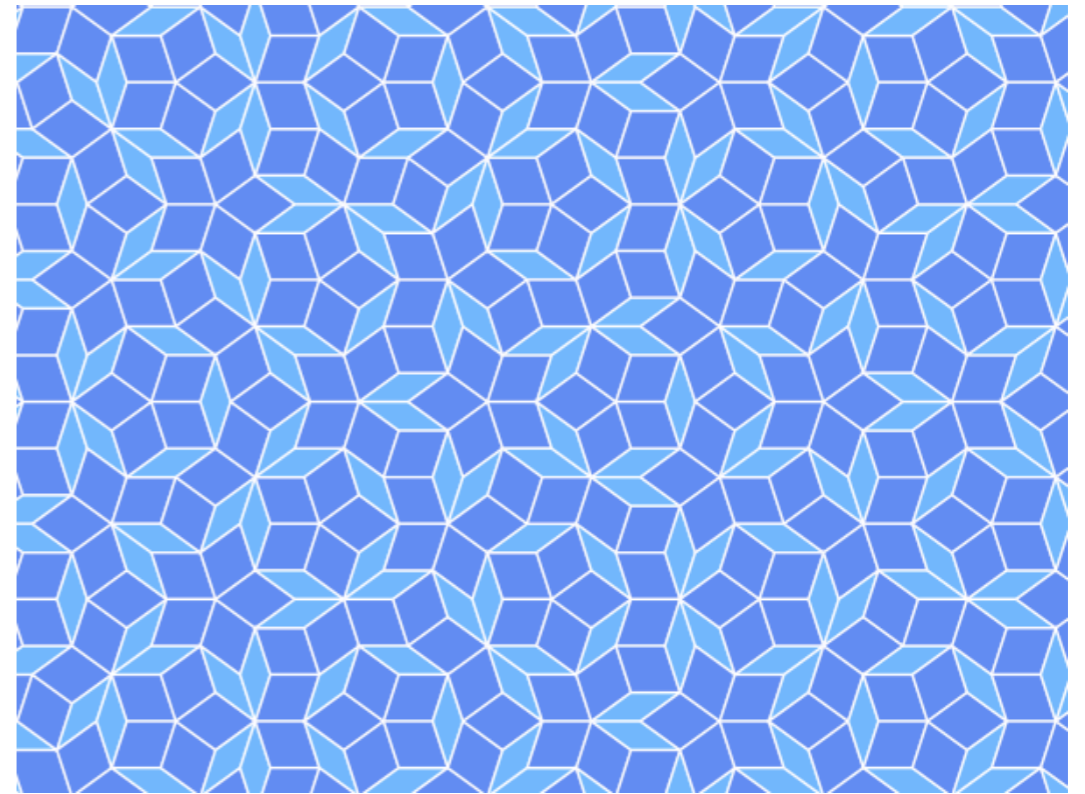
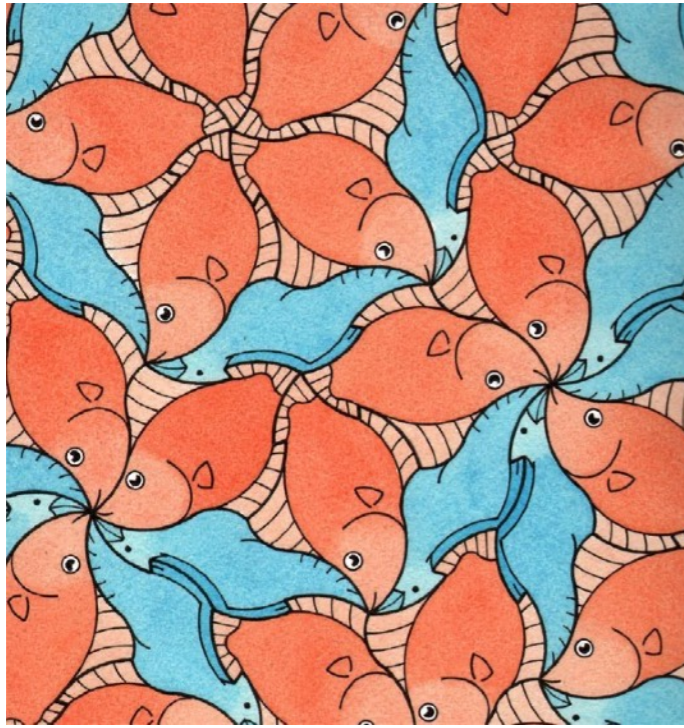


*Relativity* (1953) by M. C. Escher



Penrose Triangle

# ロジャー・ペンローズ & M. C. エッシャー



Penrose Tiling



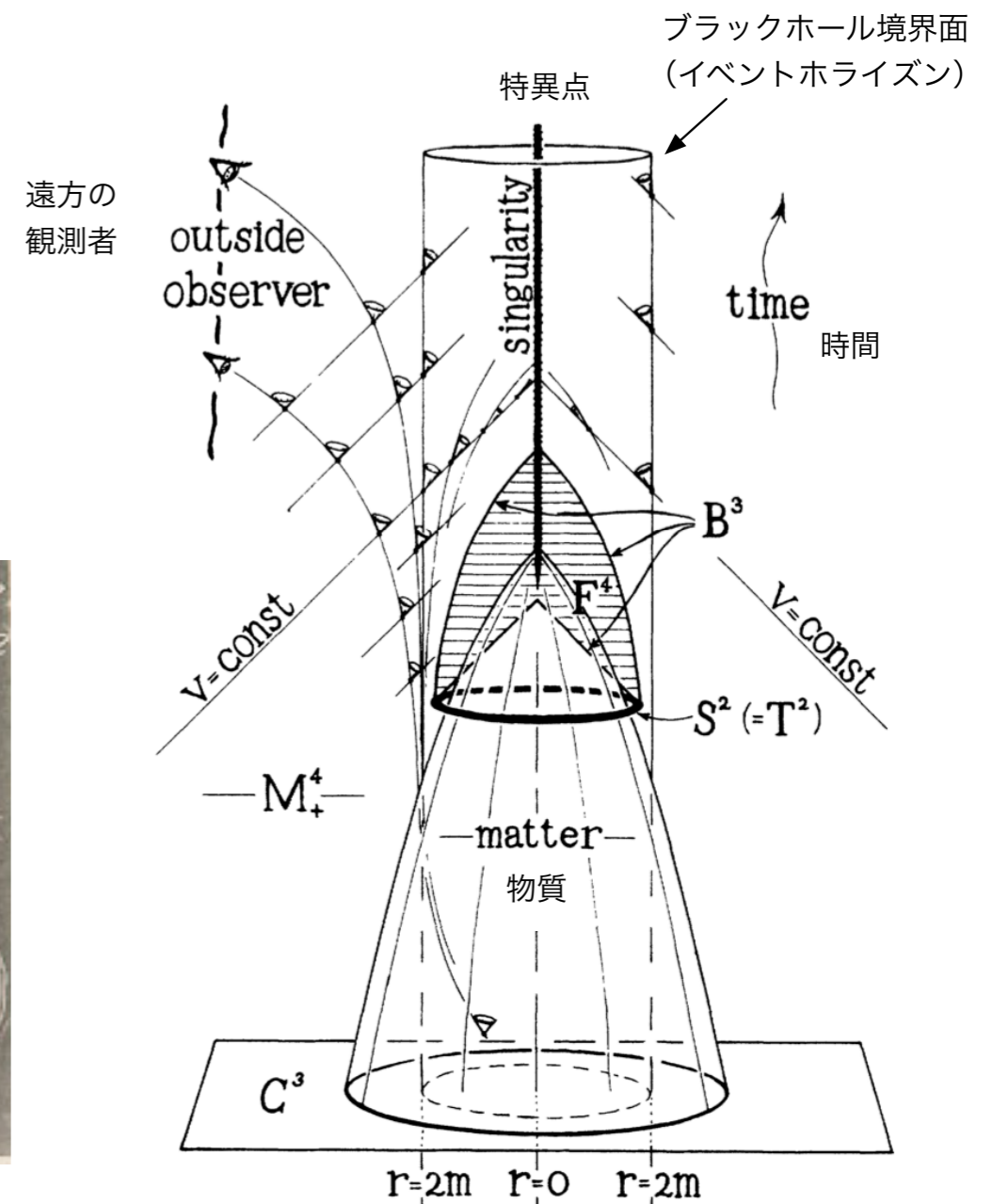
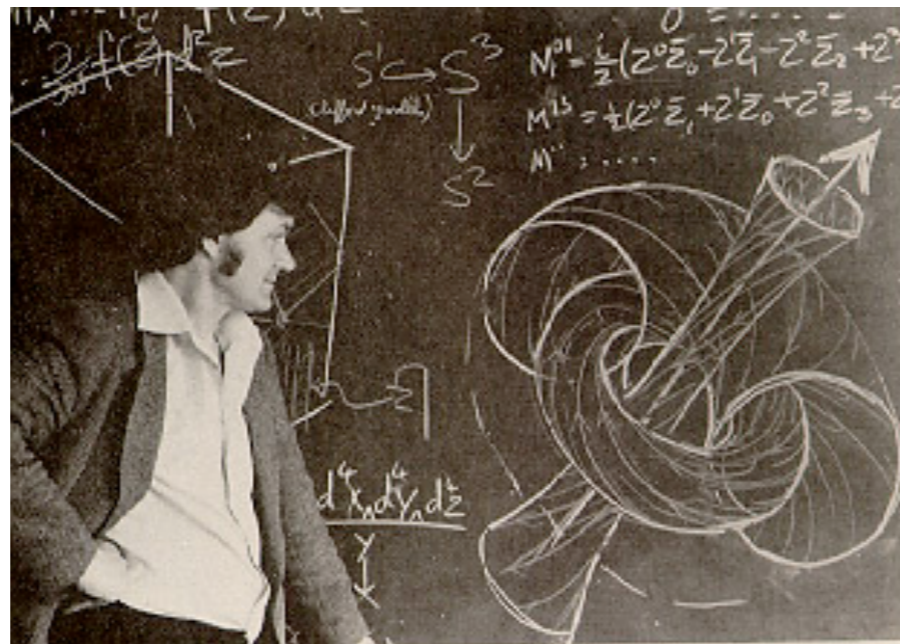
# 時空特異点の問題

## 1960年代はじめまで

特異点を含む解が出てきたのは、球対称や軸対称の特殊な仮定をしたからでは？ 現実には存在しない？

## 1965年 ペンローズ, 特異点定理

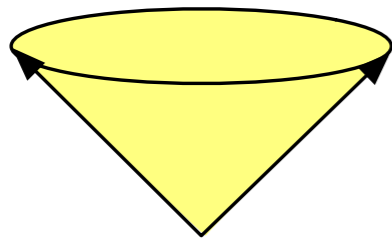
星が重力崩壊すれば、必ず特異点  
が形成される。



# 特異点定理 (ペンローズ, 1965年)

ブラックホールの定義 = 光が無限遠まで届かない空間領域  
(事象の地平面の内側)

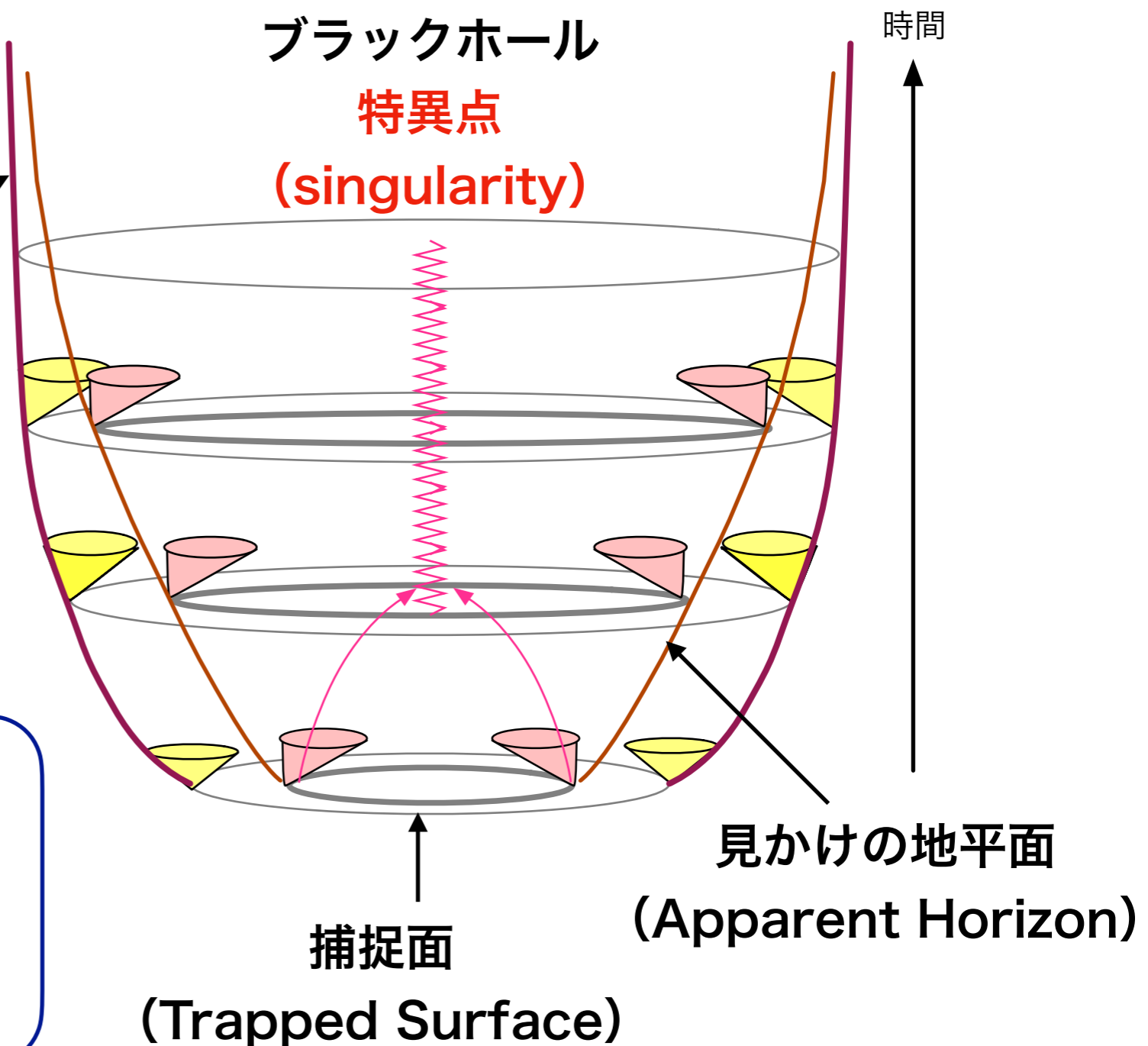
光円錐(light cone)



事象の地平面  
(Event Horizon)

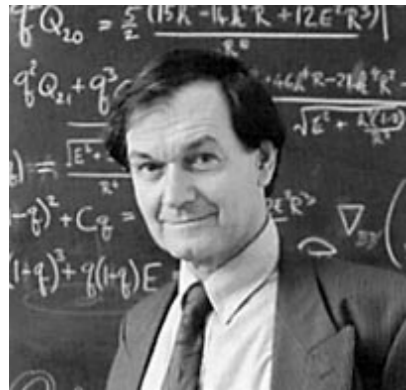
大域的に双曲的な漸近平坦時空において、光的エネルギー条件が成立すれば、捕捉面はブラックホール内部に含まれる

大域的に双曲的な漸近平坦時空が、  
(1) 光的エネルギー条件が成立  
(2) 宇宙が空間的に無限大  
(3) 捕捉面が存在  
の条件をみたせば、特異な測地線が存在する



時空の対称性に関係なく、特異点は形成される!

## 宇宙検閲仮説（ペンローズ，1969/79年）



特異点が発生すると，物理の議論ができなくなって困る。  
特異点発生は，物理的に禁止されているのではないか？  
cosmic censorship conjecture

### 弱い宇宙検閲仮説 R. Penrose (1969)

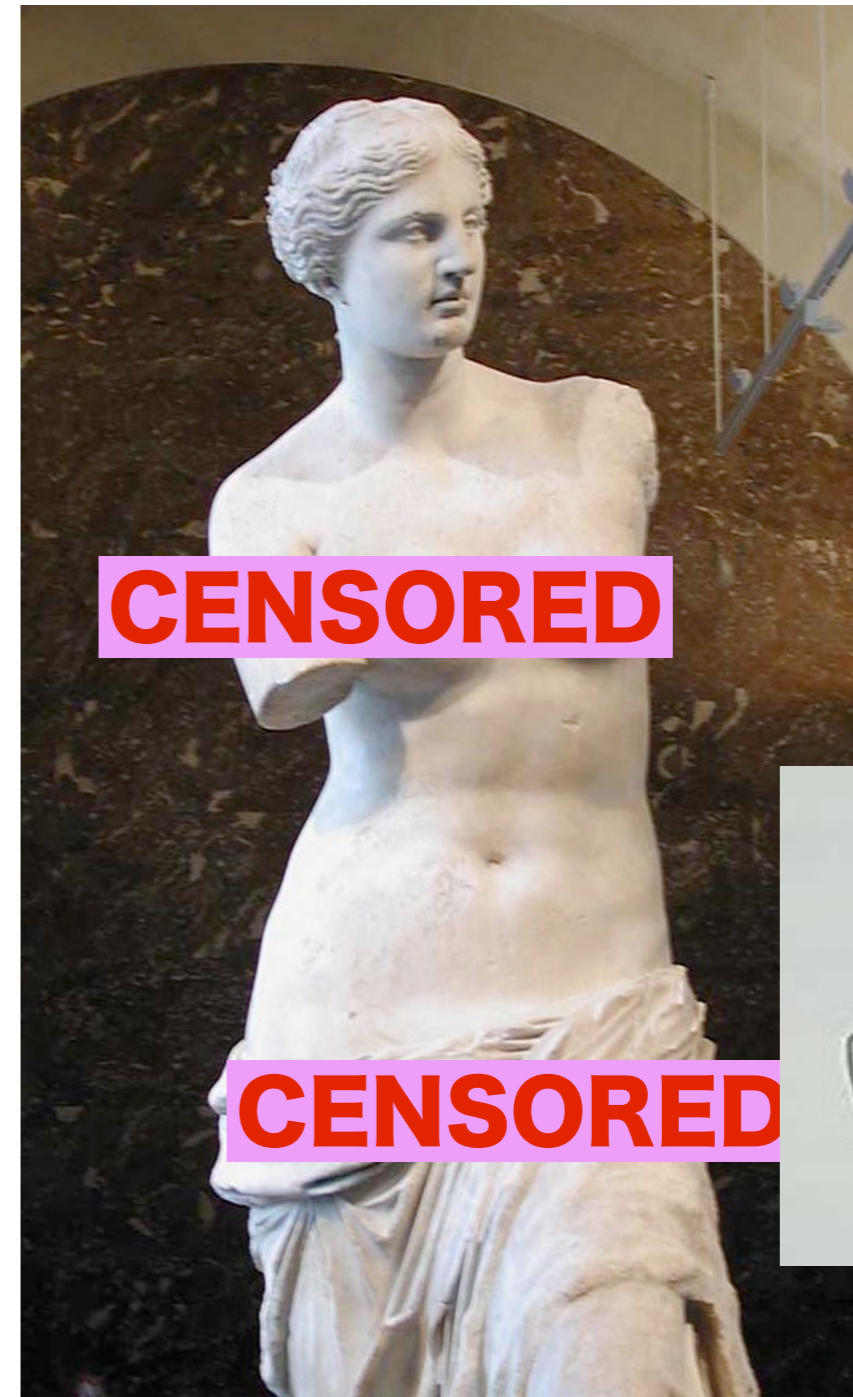
適切なエネルギー条件をみたす漸近平坦時空では，重力崩壊によって発生するすべての特異点は，ブラックホールの事象の地平面に覆われる。

「裸の特異点は，見えてはならない」

### 強い宇宙検閲仮説 R. Penrose (1979)

適切なエネルギー条件をみたす漸近平坦時空では，裸の特異点は形成されない。

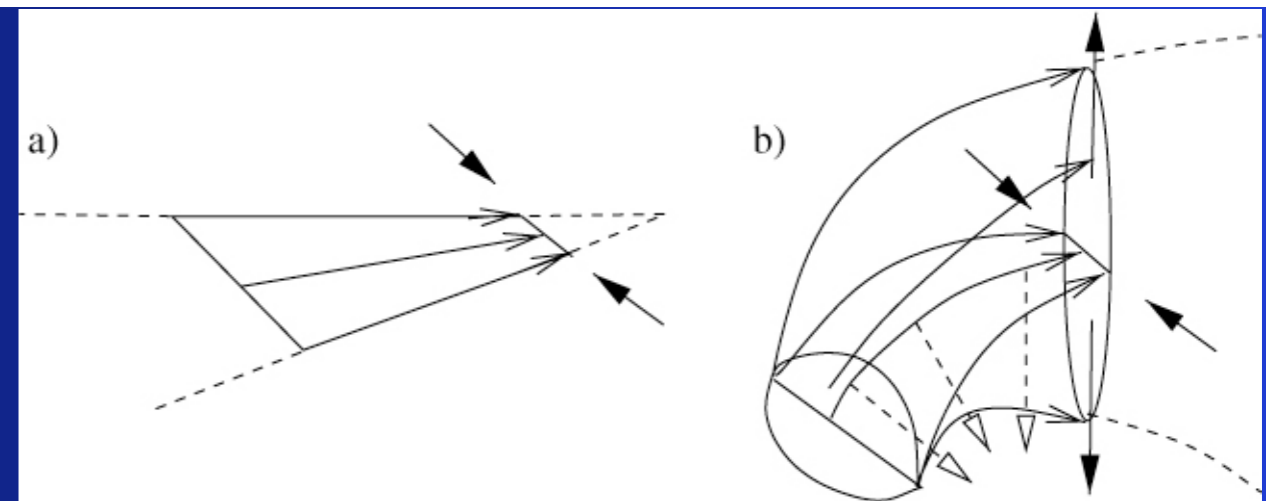
「裸の特異点は，存在しない」



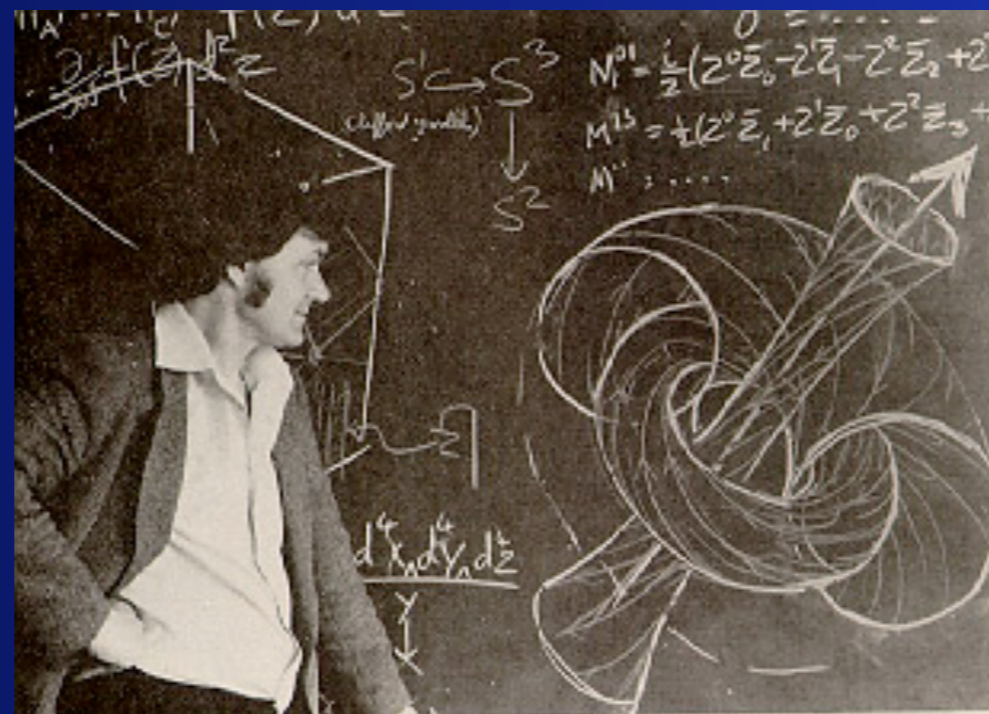
# 特異点定理

## 特異点定理 (singularity theorem)

一般相対性理論の方程式の解には、真空や普通の物質を考える限り、必ず特異点が存在する



<http://iopscience.iop.org/1475-7516/2005/10/017>

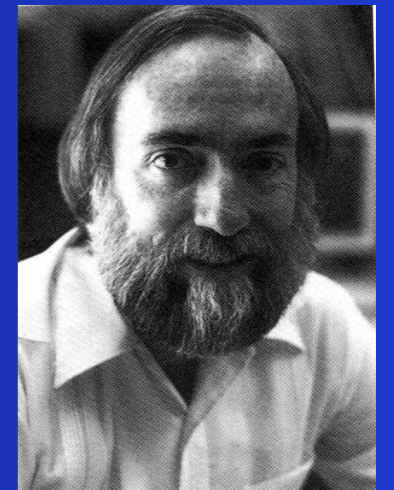


# ホーキングとソーンの賭け



ホーキング

「裸の特異点は物理法則によって  
禁止されている」



ソーン, プレスキル  
「あり得る」

敗者は裸体を覆う着物を勝者に  
与えること

*Whereas Stephen W. Hawking firmly believes that naked singularities are an anathema and should be prohibited by the laws of classical physics,*

*And whereas John Preskill and Kip Thorne regard naked singularities as quantum gravitational objects that might exist unclothed by horizons, for all the Universe to see,*

*Therefore Hawking offers, and Preskill/Thorne accept, a wager with odds of 100 pounds sterling to 50 pounds sterling, that when any form of classical matter or field that is incapable of becoming singular in flat spacetime is coupled to general relativity via the classical Einstein equations, the result can never be a naked singularity.*

*The loser will reward the winner with clothing to cover the winner's nakedness. The clothing is to be embroidered with a suitable concessionary message.*



*John P. Preskill Kip S. Thorne*

Stephen W. Hawking    John P. Preskill & Kip S. Thorne  
Pasadena, California, 24 September 1991

1991年9月24日

### Formation of Naked Singularities: The Violation of Cosmic Censorship

Stuart L. Shapiro and Saul A. Teukolsky

Center for Radiophysics and Space Research and Departments of Astronomy and Physics,  
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14853

(Received 7 September 1990)

We use a new numerical code to evolve collisionless gas spheroids in full general relativity. In all cases the spheroids collapse to singularities. When the spheroids are sufficiently compact, the singularities are hidden inside black holes. However, when the spheroids are sufficiently large, there are no apparent horizons. These results lend support to the hoop conjecture and appear to demonstrate that naked singularities can form in asymptotically flat spacetimes.

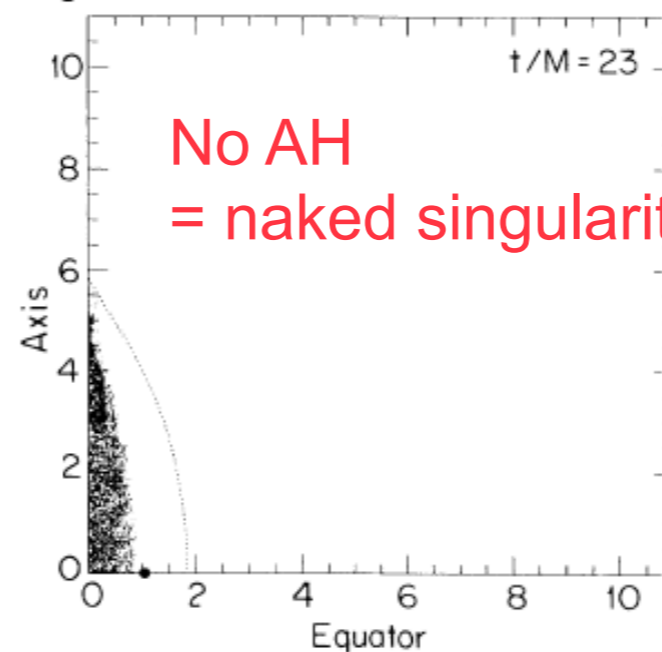
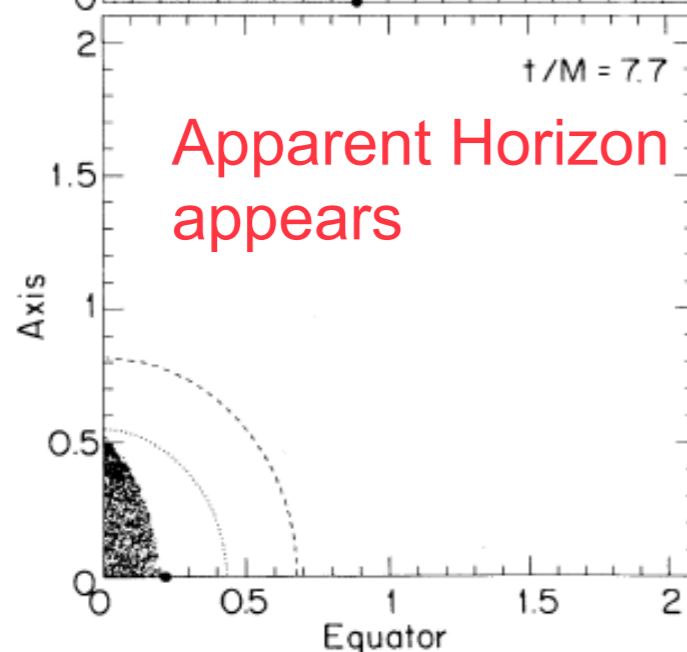
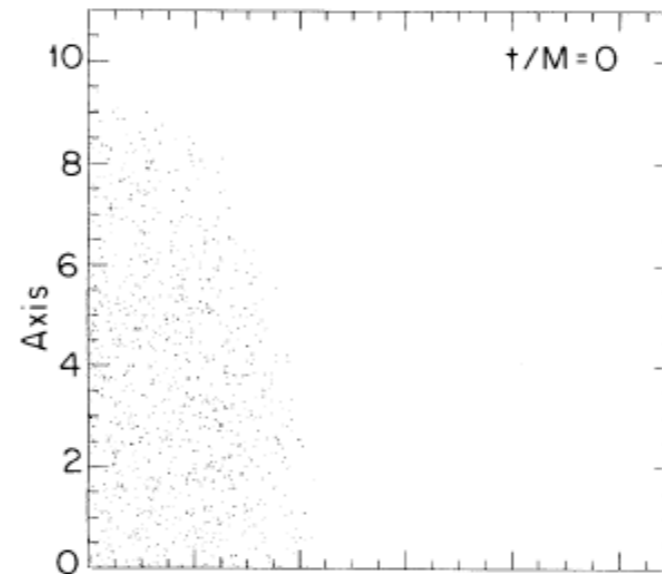
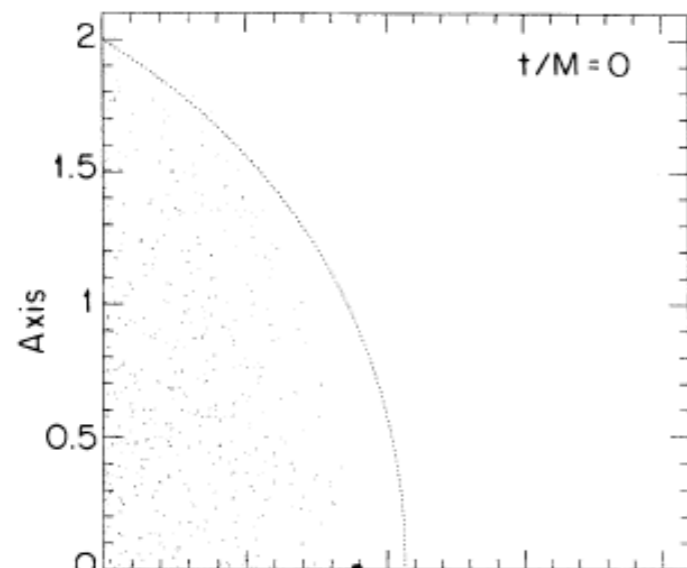


FIG. 1. Snapshots of the particle positions at initial and late times for prolate collapse. The positions (in units of  $M$ ) are projected onto a meridional plane. Initially the semimajor axis of the spheroid is  $2M$  and the eccentricity is 0.9. The collapse proceeds nonhomologously and terminates with the formation of a spindle singularity on the axis. However, an apparent horizon (dashed line) forms to cover the singularity. At  $t/M=7.7$  its area is  $\mathcal{A}/16\pi M^2=0.98$ , close to the asymptotic theoretical limit of 1. Its polar and equatorial circumferences at that time are  $c_{\text{pole}}^{\text{AH}}/4\pi M=1.03$  and  $c_{\text{eq}}^{\text{AH}}/4\pi M=0.91$ . At later times these circumferences become equal and approach the expected theoretical value 1. The minimum exterior polar circumference is shown by a dotted line when it does not coincide with the matter surface. Likewise, the minimum equatorial circumference, which is a circle, is indicated by a solid dot. Here  $c_{\text{eq}}^{\text{min}}/4\pi M=0.59$  and  $c_{\text{pole}}^{\text{min}}/4\pi M=0.99$ . The formation of a black hole is thus consistent with the hoop conjecture.

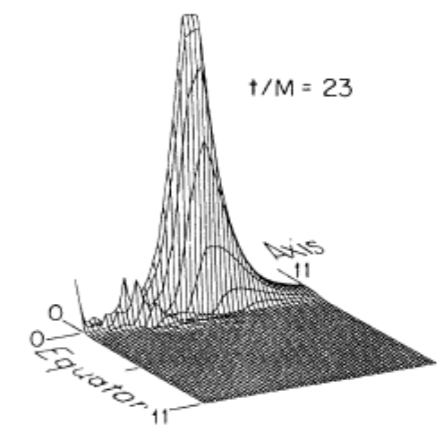


FIG. 4. Profile of  $I$  in a meridional plane for the collapse shown in Fig. 2. For the case of 32 angular zones shown here, the peak value of  $I$  is  $24/M^4$  and occurs on the axis just outside the matter.



## Formation of naked singularities in five-dimensional space-time

Yuta Yamada<sup>1,\*</sup> and Hisa-aki Shinkai<sup>1,2,†</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*Faculty of Information Science and Technology, Osaka Institute of Technology,  
1-79-1 Kitayama, Hirakata, Osaka 573-0196, Japan*

<sup>2</sup>*Computational Astrophysics Laboratory, Institute of Physical and Chemical Research (RIKEN),  
Hirosawa, Wako, Saitama 351-0198, Japan*

(Received 18 December 2010; published 4 March 2011)

We numerically investigate the gravitational collapse of collisionless particles in spheroidal configurations both in four- and five-dimensional (5D) space-time. We repeat the simulation performed by Shapiro and Teukolsky (1991) that announced an appearance of a naked singularity, and also find similar results in the 5D version. That is, in a collapse of a highly prolate spindle, the Kretschmann invariant blows up outside the matter and no apparent horizon forms. We also find that the collapses in 5D proceed more rapidly than in 4D, and the critical prolateness for the appearance of an apparent horizon in 5D is loosened, compared to 4D cases. We also show how collapses differ with spatial symmetries comparing 5D evolutions in single-axisymmetry,  $SO(3)$ , and those in double-axisymmetry,  $U(1) \times U(1)$ .

DOI: [10.1103/PhysRevD.83.064006](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevD.83.064006)

PACS numbers: 04.20.Dw, 04.20.Ex, 04.25.dc, 04.50.Gh

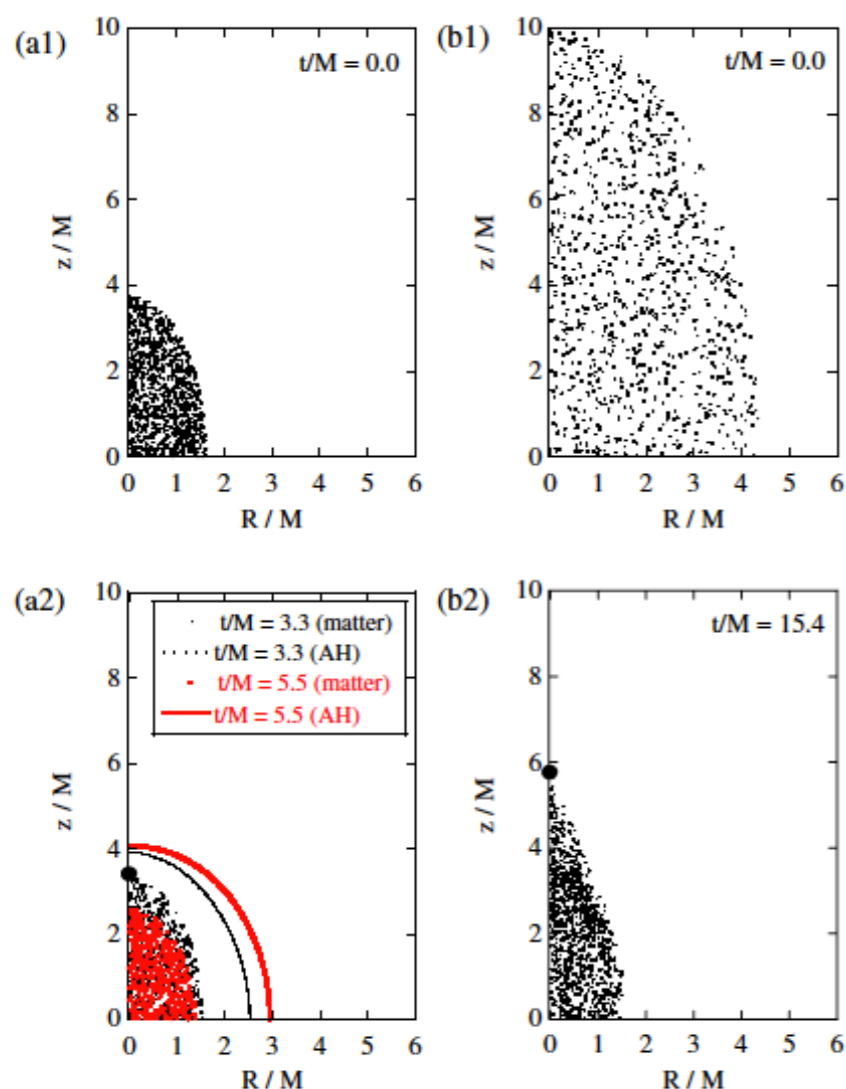


FIG. 2 (color online). Snapshots of 5D axisymmetric evolution with the initial matter distribution of  $b/M = 4$  [(a1) and (a2); model 5DS $\beta$  in Table I] and 10 [(b1) and (b2); model 5DS $\delta$ ]. We see the apparent horizon (AH) is formed at the coordinate time  $t/M = 3.3$  for the former model and the area of AH increases, while AH is not observed for the latter model up to the time  $t/M = 15.4$ , when our code stops due to the large curvature. The big circle indicates the location of the maximum Kretschmann invariant  $I_{\max}$  at the final time at each evolution. Number of particles are reduced to 1/10 for figures.

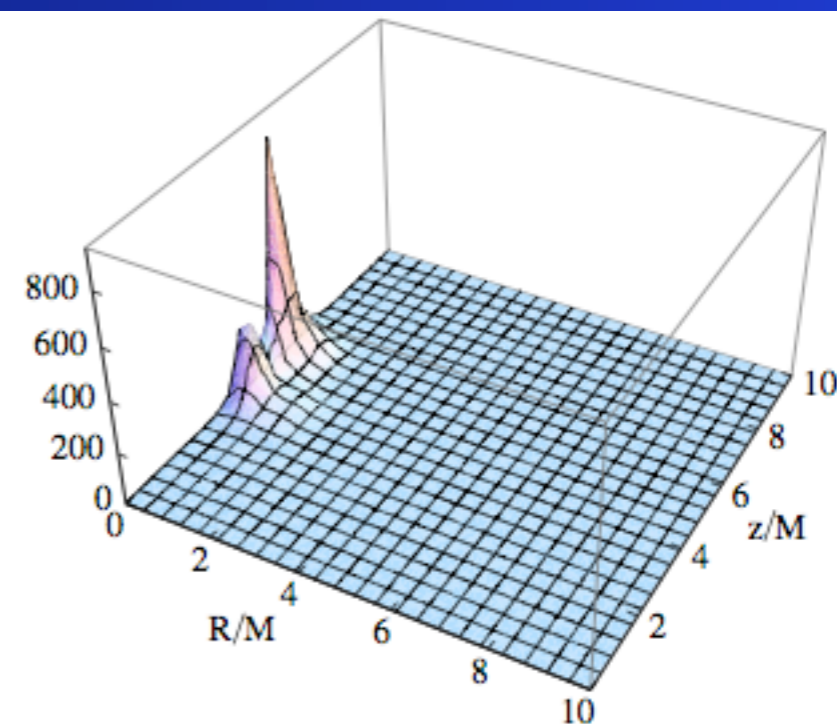


FIG. 3 (color online). Kretschmann invariant  $I$  for model 5DS $\delta$  at  $t/M = 15.4$ . The maximum is  $O(1000)$ , and its location is on  $z$ -axis, just outside of the matter.

# ホーキングとソーンの賭け 2

Whereas Stephen W. Hawking (having lost a previous bet on this subject by not demanding genericity) still firmly believes that naked singularities are an anathema and should be prohibited by the laws of classical physics,

And whereas John Preskill and Kip Thorne (having won the previous bet) still regard naked singularities as quantum gravitational objects that might exist, unclothed by horizons, for all the Universe to see,

Therefore Hawking offers, and Preskill/Thorne accept, a wager that

*When any form of classical matter or field that is incapable of becoming singular in flat spacetime is coupled to general relativity via the classical Einstein equations, then*

**A dynamical evolution from generic initial conditions (i.e., from an open set of initial data) can never produce a naked singularity (a past-incomplete null geodesic from  $\mathcal{I}_+$ ).**

The loser will reward the winner with clothing to cover the winner's nakedness. The clothing is to be embroidered with a suitable, truly concessionary message.

  
Stephen W. Hawking

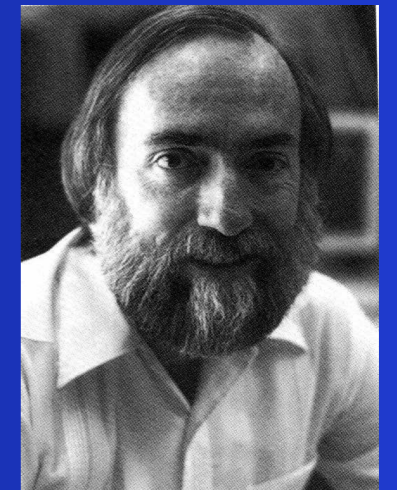
   
John P. Preskill & Kip S. Thorne

Pasadena, California, 5 February 1997



ホーキング

「一般的な初期条件では、裸の特異点は発生しない」



ソーン, プレスキル  
「あり得る」

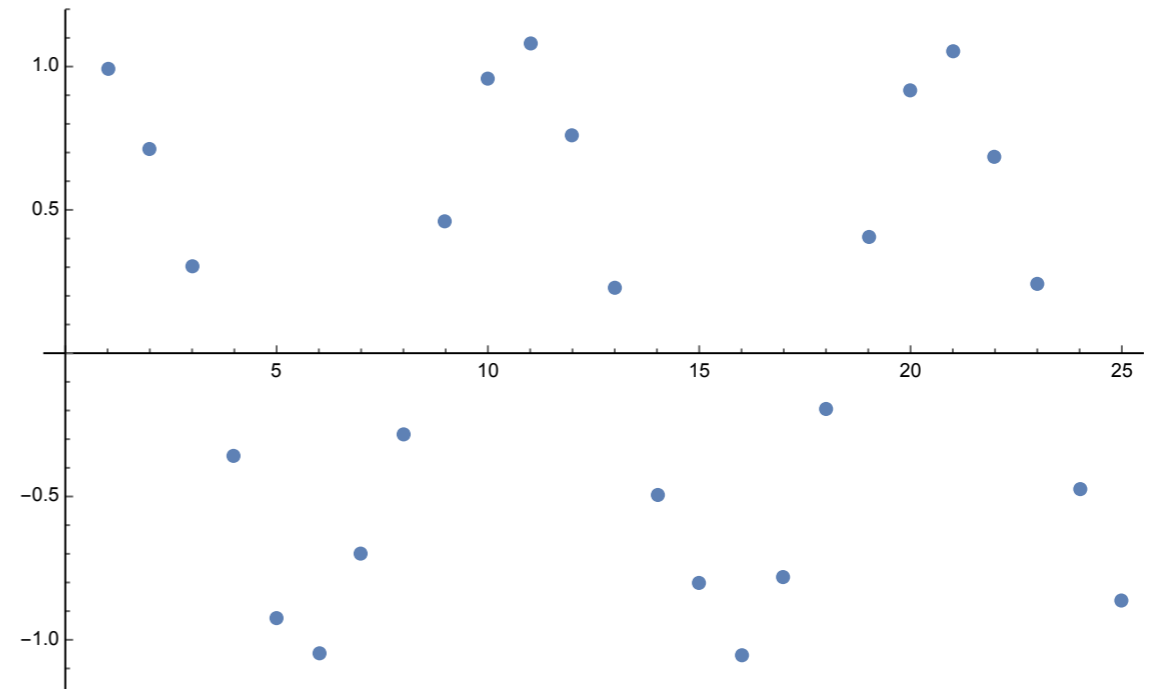
敗者は裸体を覆う着物を勝者に与え、その着物には敗北を認める文章を入れること。

1997年2月5日

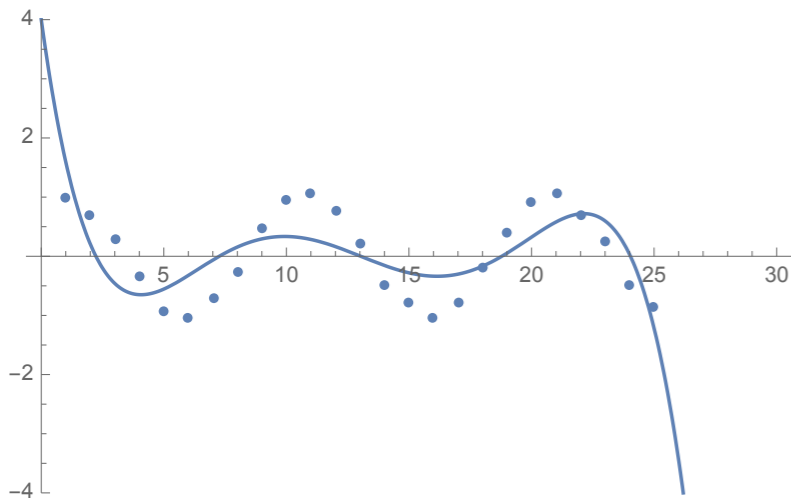
# Sparse modeling (疎性モデリング) introduction

`Sin[i Pi/5 + Pi/3]`  
`+ RandomReal[{-0.1, 0.1}]`

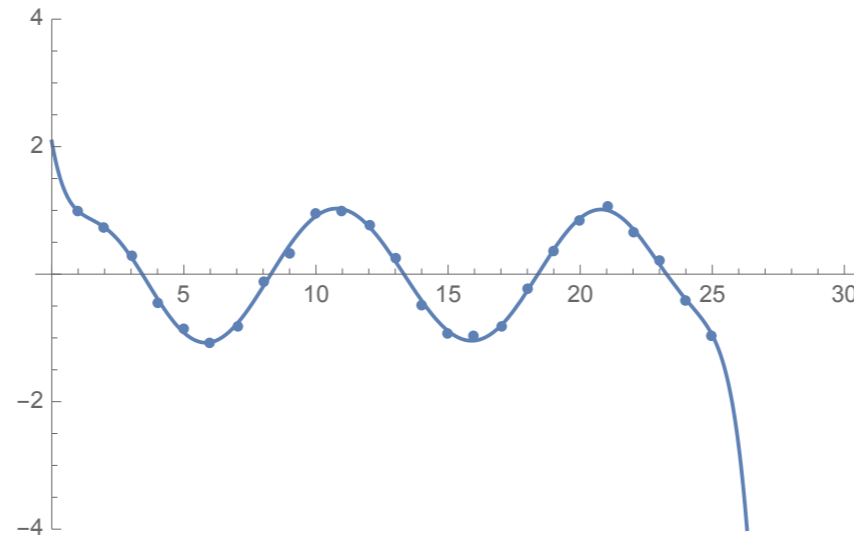
25 pt data



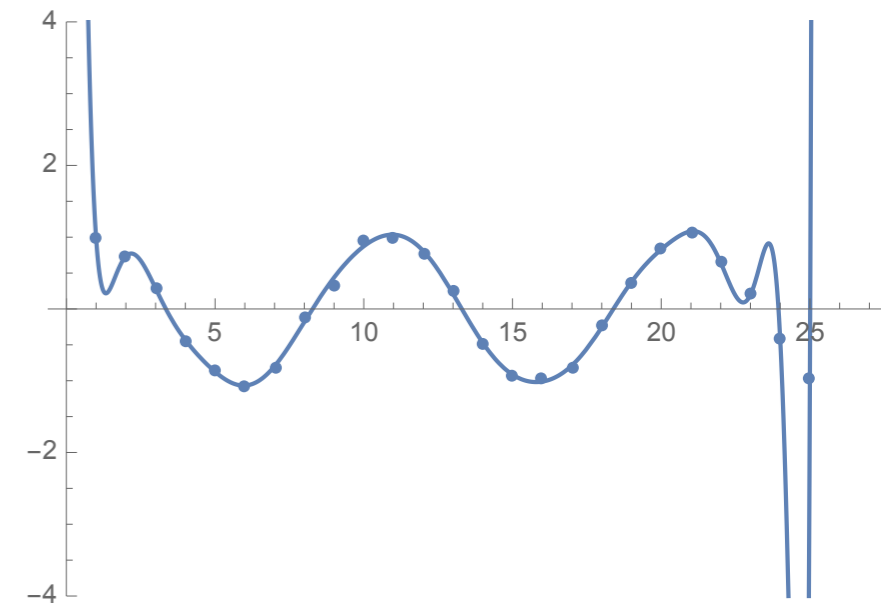
fitting up to  $x^5$



fitting up to  $x^{10}$



fitting up to  $x^{25}$

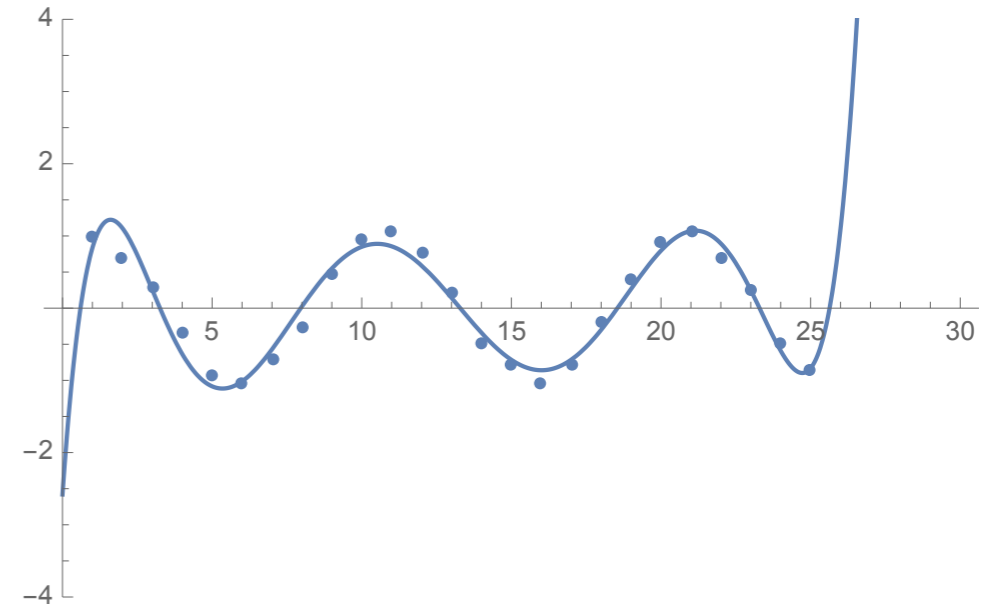


$53.7899 - 151.583 x + 178.296 x^2 - 115.918 x^3 + 46.9704 x^4 - 12.6065 x^5 + 2.30156 x^6 - 0.28538 x^7 +$   
 $0.0230585 x^8 - 0.00104673 x^9 + 8.43045 \times 10^{-6} x^{10} + 1.54191 \times 10^{-6} x^{11} - 4.25305 \times 10^{-8} x^{12} -$   
 $2.23891 \times 10^{-9} x^{13} + 7.47783 \times 10^{-11} x^{14} + 4.10585 \times 10^{-12} x^{15} - 9.09328 \times 10^{-14} x^{16} -$   
 $8.04044 \times 10^{-15} x^{17} + 4.79003 \times 10^{-17} x^{18} + 1.46216 \times 10^{-17} x^{19} + 1.02793 \times 10^{-19} x^{20} -$   
 $2.5521 \times 10^{-20} x^{21} - 2.74335 \times 10^{-22} x^{22} + 5.38566 \times 10^{-23} x^{23} - 1.39172 \times 10^{-24} x^{24} + 1.17278 \times 10^{-26} x^{25}$

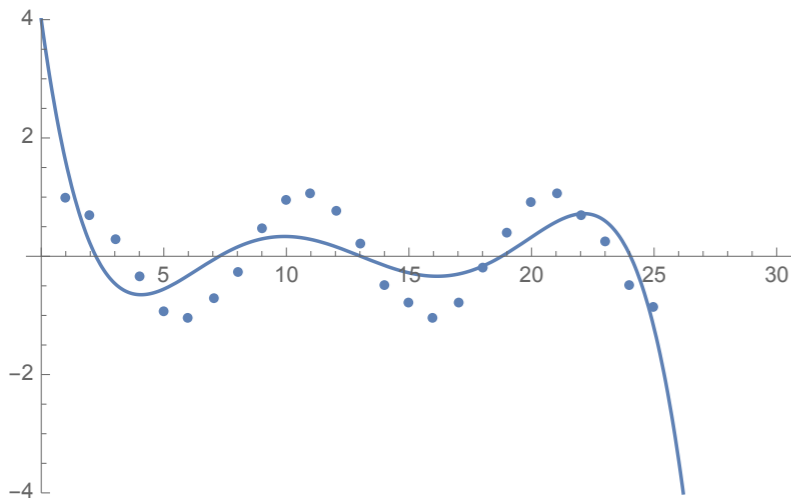
# Sparse modeling (疎性モデリング) introduction

## fitting up to $x^7$

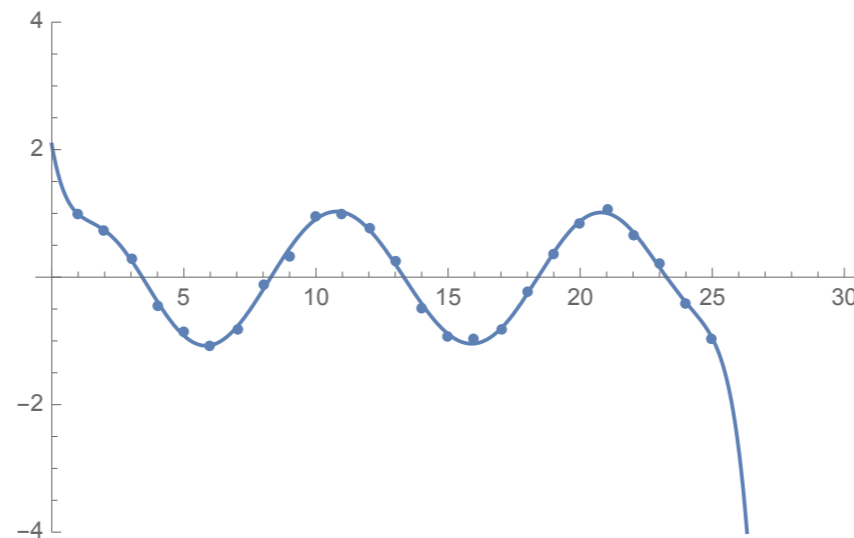
$$-2.58003 + 5.95476 x - 3.14124 x^2 + 0.668408 x^3 - 0.0698719 x^4 + 0.0038123 x^5 - 0.000104163 x^6 + 1.12509 \times 10^{-6} x^7$$



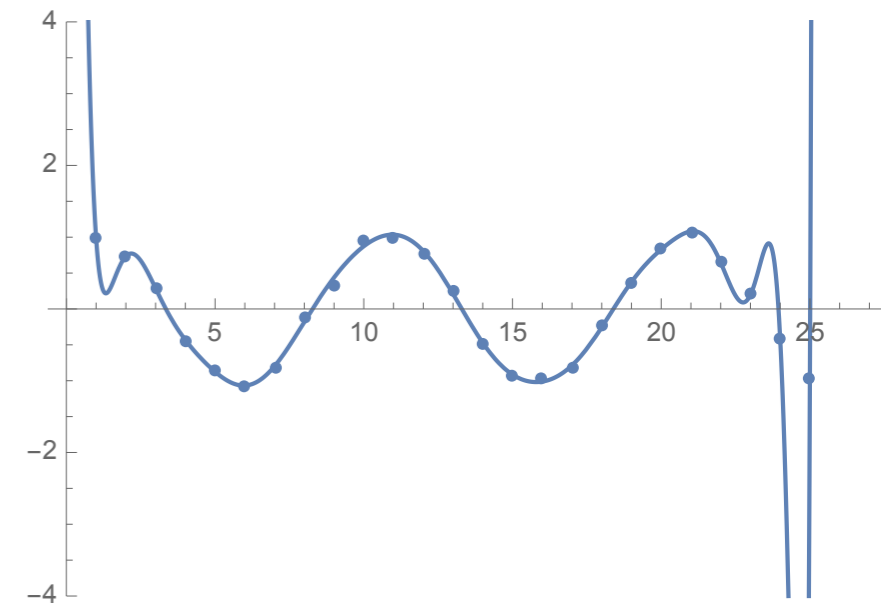
## fitting up to $x^5$



## fitting up to $x^{10}$



## fitting up to $x^{25}$



$$53.7899 - 151.583 x + 178.296 x^2 - 115.918 x^3 + 46.9704 x^4 - 12.6065 x^5 + 2.30156 x^6 - 0.28538 x^7 + 0.0230585 x^8 - 0.00104673 x^9 + 8.43045 \times 10^{-6} x^{10} + 1.54191 \times 10^{-6} x^{11} - 4.25305 \times 10^{-8} x^{12} - 2.23891 \times 10^{-9} x^{13} + 7.47783 \times 10^{-11} x^{14} + 4.10585 \times 10^{-12} x^{15} - 9.09328 \times 10^{-14} x^{16} - 8.04044 \times 10^{-15} x^{17} + 4.79003 \times 10^{-17} x^{18} + 1.46216 \times 10^{-17} x^{19} + 1.02793 \times 10^{-19} x^{20} - 2.5521 \times 10^{-20} x^{21} - 2.74335 \times 10^{-22} x^{22} + 5.38566 \times 10^{-23} x^{23} - 1.39172 \times 10^{-24} x^{24} + 1.17278 \times 10^{-26} x^{25}$$

fitting the data with noise

=> we do not need a fitting function which passes all the data  
(overfitting, 過適合)

=> rather we should find a fitting as it has more zero-components

signal

redundant dictionary

data

$$\begin{pmatrix} s_1 \\ s_2 \\ \vdots \\ s_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & A_{m2} & \dots & A_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (m < n), \quad \text{rank}(A) = \min(m, n)$$

with many zero components

=> minimize

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \equiv |\text{supp}(\mathbf{x})| \equiv |\{i = \{1, 2, \dots, n\} : x_i \neq 0\}|$$

## LASSO

Linear regression problem.

$$y_i = \beta_1 x_i^{(1)} + \beta_2 x_i^{(2)} + \dots + \beta_p x_i^{(p)} + \varepsilon_i \quad \blacktriangledown \text{ error} \quad (1)$$

Find  $\beta$ , which minimize

$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_i^{(j)} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

and also with sparse  $\beta$ .

◀ **sparse = as much zero-components**

### LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator)

Tibshirani (1996)

$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_i^{(j)} \right)^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{i=1}^N |\beta_j| \leq t$$

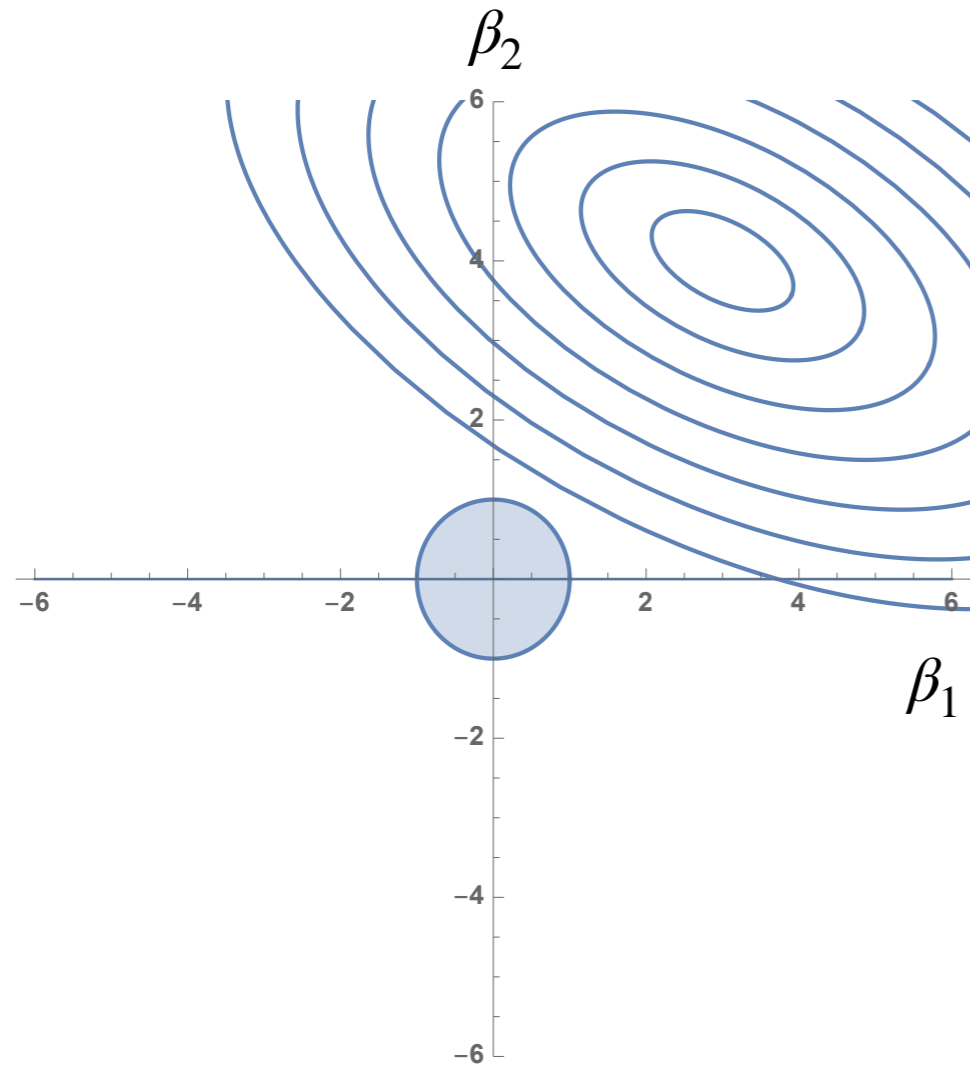
which is equivalent with finding  $\beta$  which minimize the following equation:

$$\min_{\beta} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N \left( y_i - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j x_i^{(j)} \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N |\beta_j| \right] = \min_{\beta} \left[ \left\| \mathbf{y} - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \mathbf{x}^{(j)} \right\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{\beta}\|_1 \right]$$

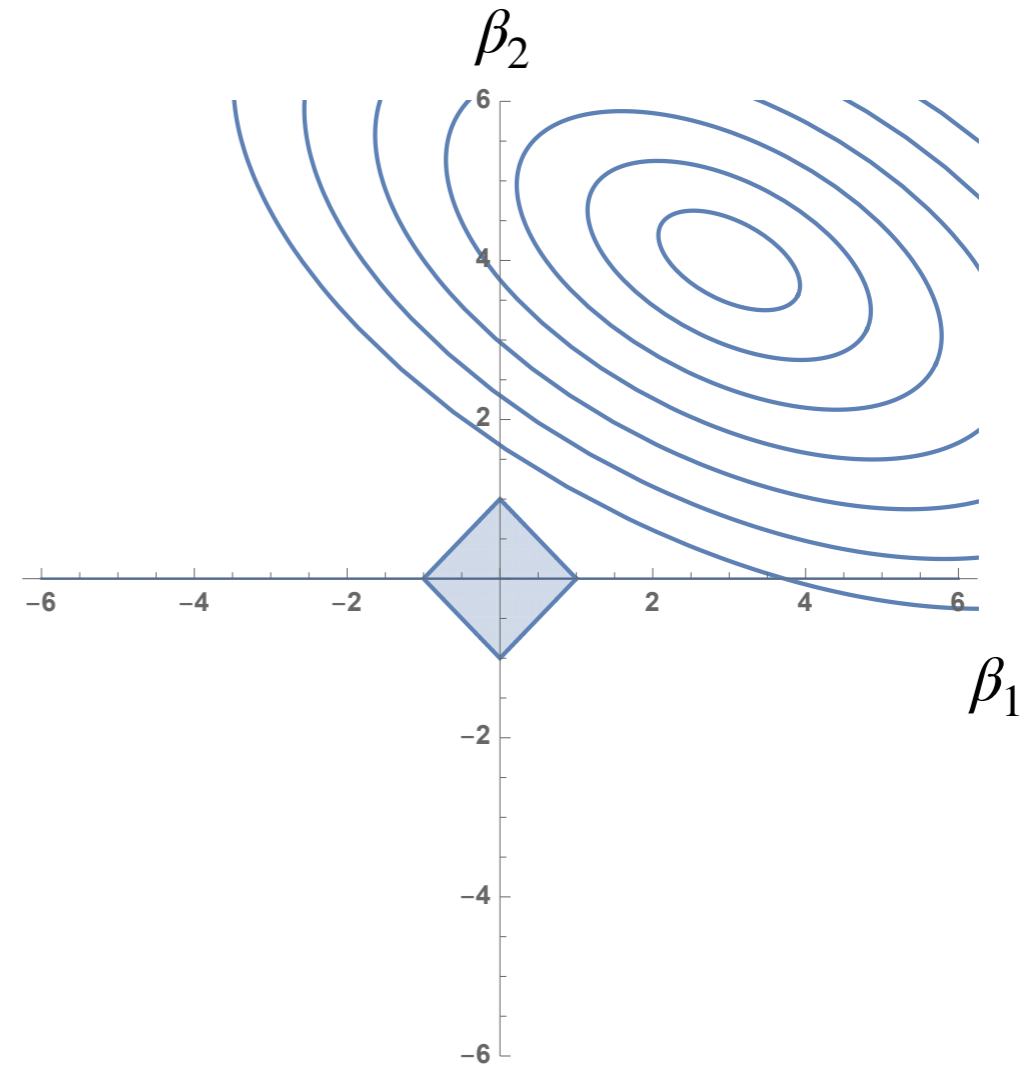
▲ **L1-norm** ▲ **L1-norm**

# Why L1-norm constraint makes sparse solution?

## Rigide Regression



## LASSO



$$\min_{\beta} \left[ \left\| \mathbf{y} - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \mathbf{x}^{(j)} \right\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_2 \right]$$

▲ L2-norm

$$\min_{\beta} \left[ \left\| \mathbf{y} - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \mathbf{x}^{(j)} \right\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1 \right]$$

▲ L1-norm

## LASSO variations

- elastic net = LASSO + Ridge Regression

$$\min_{\beta} \left[ \left\| \mathbf{y} - \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j \mathbf{x}^{(j)} \right\|_2^2 + \lambda \left( (1 - \alpha) \|\beta\|_1 + \alpha \|\beta\|_2 \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

- fused LASSO (for time series data) ▶ Image Processing ▶ time-series data

$$\min_{\beta} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \beta_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} |\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i| \right] \quad (2)$$

- Classification problem: Set the logistic regression for probability function

$$p(y | \mathbf{x}; \beta, \beta_0) = \frac{\exp [y(\beta_0 + \sum_j \beta_j \mathbf{x}^{(j)})]}{1 + \exp [\beta_0 + \sum_j \beta_j \mathbf{x}^{(j)}]} \quad (3)$$

and consider

$$\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^N [-\log p_i(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i; \beta, \beta_0) + \lambda \|\beta\|_1] \quad (4)$$

▶ Machine Learning

▶ Big-data analysis



# Exercise of Noise Removing

## LASSO

From noisy data  $I_{\text{input}}$  to reconstructed data  $I_{\text{output}}$ . Try to minimize

$$F = \frac{1}{2}|I_{\text{output}} - I_{\text{input}}|^2 + \lambda|I_{\text{output}}|. \quad (1)$$

In actual, let the output (each cell component)  $x_i$  and the input  $b_i$ . Set  $x_i = a_i e_i$ , where  $a_i > 0$  and  $e_i = +1$  or  $-1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (x_i - b_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_i |x_i| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (a_i e_i - b_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_i |e_i| a_i \end{aligned}$$

If we want to minimize this equation,  $e_i = \text{sgn}(b_i)$ , therefore

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (a_i \text{sgn}(b_i) - b_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_i |e_i| a_i \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (a_i - |b_i|)^2 + \lambda \sum_i |e_i| a_i \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (a_i - |b_i| + \lambda)^2 + 2\lambda|b_i| - \lambda^2 \end{aligned}$$

so that we obtain  $a_i = \max(|b_i| - \lambda, 0)$ .

# Exercise of Noise Removing

## Total Variation (Bregman Iteration)

From noisy data  $I_{\text{input}}$  to reconstructed data  $u \equiv I_{\text{output}}$ . Try to minimize

$$F = |\nabla_x u| + |\nabla_y u| + \frac{\lambda}{2} |u - I_{\text{input}}|^2 \quad (1)$$

This makes differences of each nearest cells are sparse, which makes monotonic colors.

To weakly enforce the constraints in this formulation as to minimize

$$\text{minimize}_{u, d_x, d_y} |d_x| + |d_y| + \frac{\lambda}{2} |u - I_{\text{input}}|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} (|\nabla_x u - d_x|^2 + |\nabla_y u - d_y|^2) \quad (2)$$

where  $d_x \equiv \nabla_x u$ ,  $d_y \equiv \nabla_y u$  (independent values to  $\nabla_x u$  and  $\nabla_y u$ ). **Bregman Iteration** is to split this converging process in  $k$ -steps as

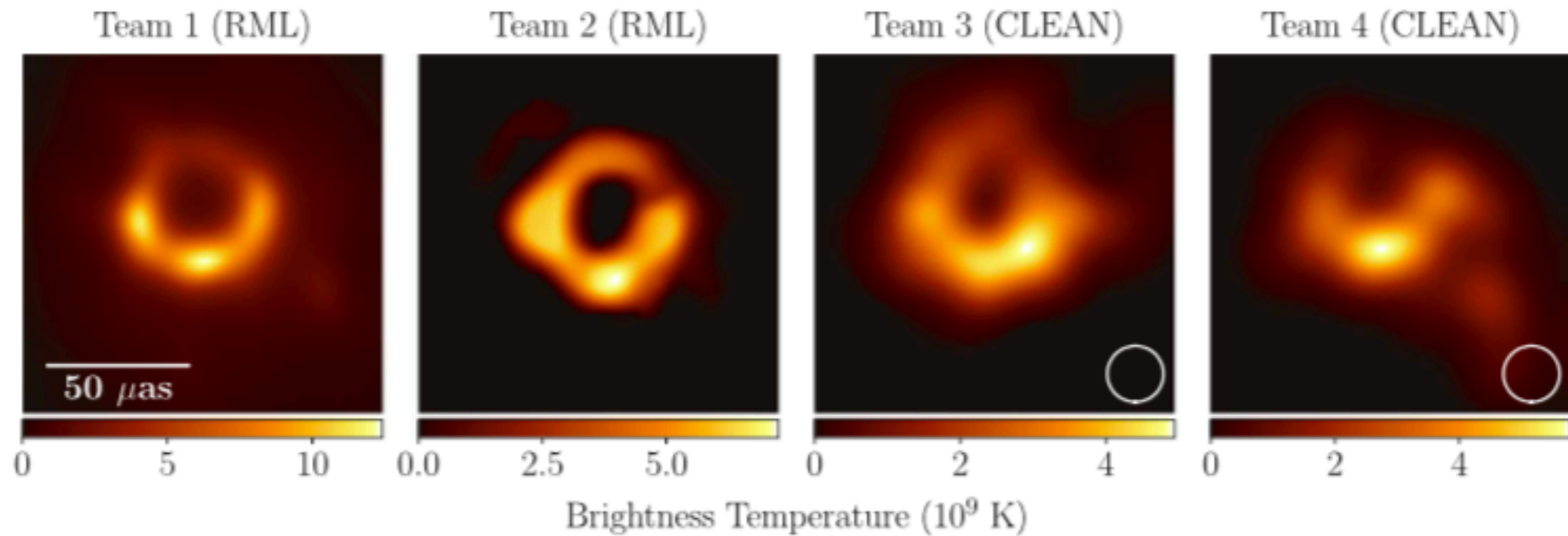
$$u^{k+1} = \text{minimize}_{u, d_x, d_y} |d_x| + |d_y| + \frac{\lambda}{2} |u - I_{\text{input}}|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} (|\nabla_x u - d_x - b_x^k|^2 + |\nabla_y u - d_y - b_y^k|^2) \quad (3)$$

## First Image of a black hole : center of M87



地球から5500万光年

<https://alma-telescope.jp/news/press/eht-201904>



**Figure 4.** The first EHT images of M87, blindly reconstructed by four independent imaging teams using an early, engineering release of data from the April 11 observations. These images all used a single polarization (LCP) rather than Stokes  $I$ , which is used in the remainder of this Letter. Images from Teams 1 and 2 used RML methods (no restoring beam); images from Teams 3 and 4 used CLEAN (restored with a circular  $20 \mu\text{as}$  beam, shown in the lower right). The images all show similar morphology, although the reconstructions show significant differences in brightness temperature because of different assumptions regarding the total compact flux density (see Table 2) and because restoring beams are applied only to CLEAN images.

## Independent methods:

- >>inverse modeling (CLEAN) the standard deconvolution method
- >>forward modeling (RML) regularized maximum likelihood (classical maximum entropy method)

THE ASTROPHYSICAL JOURNAL LETTERS, 875:L4 (52pp), 2019 April 10  
 © 2019. The American Astronomical Society.  
<https://doi.org/10.3847/2041-8213/ab0e85>

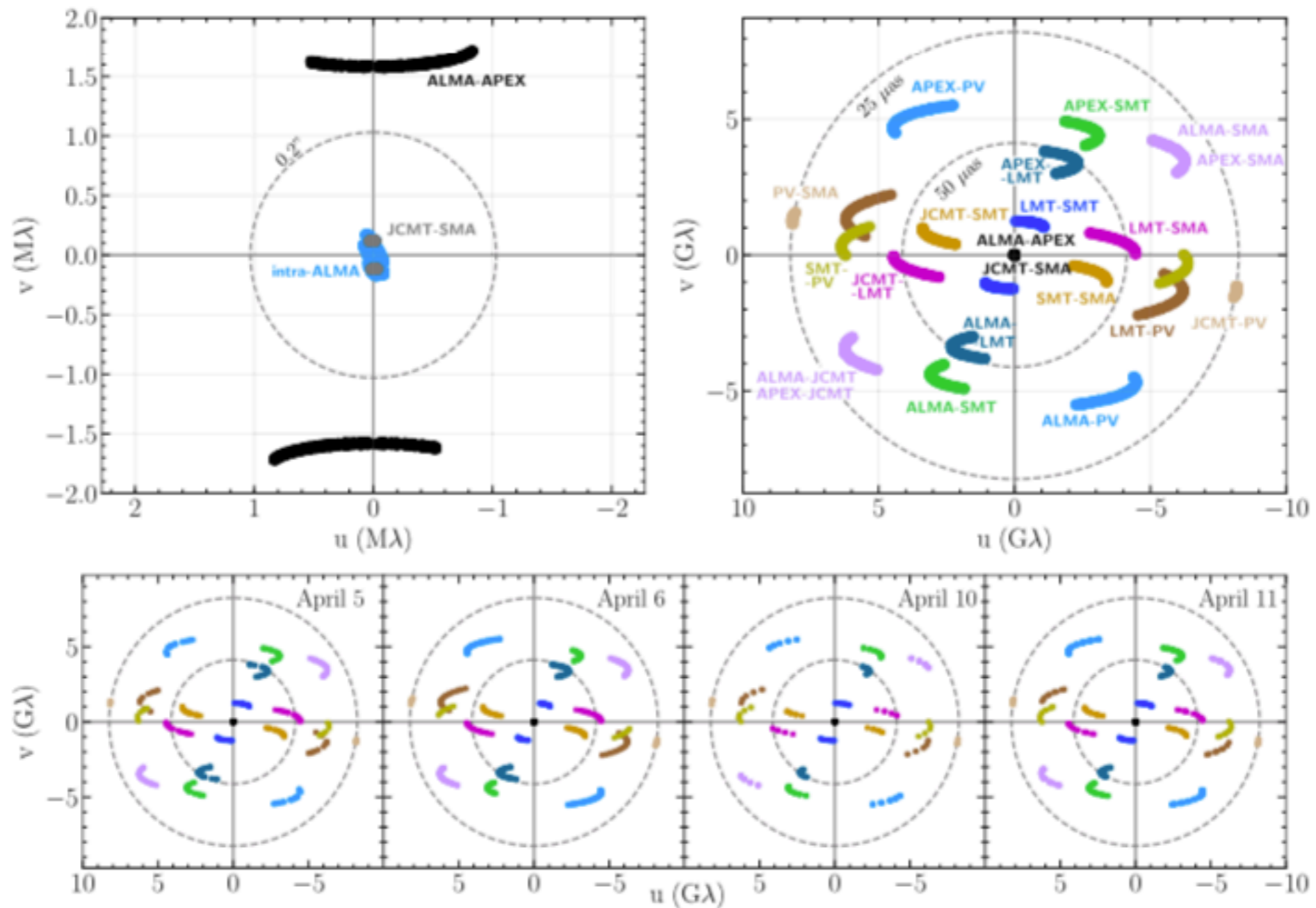
**OPEN ACCESS**

**First M87 Event Horizon Telescope Results. IV.  
 Imaging the Central Supermassive Black Hole**

The Event Horizon Telescope Collaboration  
 (See the end matter for the full list of authors.)

Received 2019 February 11; revised 2019 March 5; accepted 2019 March 6; published 2019 April 10

CrossMark



**Figure 1.** Top panels: aggregate baseline coverage for EHT observations of M87, combining observations on all four days. The left panel shows short-baseline coverage, comprised of ALMA interferometer baselines and intra-site EHT baselines (SMA–JCMT and ALMA–APEX). These short baselines probe angular scales larger than  $0.1''$ . The right panel shows long-baseline coverage, comprised of all inter-site EHT baselines. These long baselines span angular scales from 25 to  $170 \mu\text{as}$ . Each point denotes a single scan, which range in duration from 4 to 7 minutes. Bottom panels: the full baseline coverage on M87 for each observation. In all panels, the dashed circles show baseline lengths corresponding to the indicated fringe spacings ( $0.2''$  for the upper-left panel; 25 and  $50 \mu\text{as}$  for the remaining panels).

Observed “Visibility”  $\mathbf{V}$  is Fourier-transformed image  $\mathbf{I}$ :  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{I}$ .

- LASSO

$$\mathbf{I} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{I}} \left[ \|\mathbf{V} - \mathbf{F}\mathbf{I}\|_2^2 + \Lambda_\ell \|\mathbf{I}\|_1 \right], \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{I} \geq 0 \quad (1)$$

- LASSO with Total Variance of the image

$$\mathbf{I} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{I}} \left[ \|\mathbf{V} - \mathbf{F}\mathbf{I}\|_2^2 + \Lambda_\ell \|\mathbf{I}\|_1 + \Lambda_t \|\mathbf{I}\|_{\text{TV}} \right], \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{I} \geq 0 \quad (2)$$

where  $\|\mathbf{I}\|_{\text{TV}}$  is either isotropic TV [Akiyama+, ApJ 838 (2017) 1]

$$\|\mathbf{I}\|_{\text{isoTV}} = \sum_i \sum_j \sqrt{|I_{i+1,j} - I_{i,j}|^2 + |I_{i,j+1} - I_{i,j}|^2} \quad (3)$$

or total squared variation [Kuramochi+, ApJ 858 (2018) 56]

$$\|\mathbf{I}\|_{\text{TSV}} = \sum_i \sum_j (|I_{i+1,j} - I_{i,j}|^2 + |I_{i,j+1} - I_{i,j}|^2) \quad (4)$$

