Black Hole Clusters: The Dark Matter

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Abstract
Supermassive black holes were created during the Big Bang. As such, they were available for clustering in the early Universe. This paper describes the role these clusters could play in explaining dark matter, and it answers the following question: What is the energy source for the extremely hot gas found in galactic clusters?

Keywords
Dark Matter, Galaxies, Clusters

1. Introduction
Apart from the disk of a spiral galaxy, every bound stellar system in the Universe is a cluster. This broad statement refers to the random motion of stars in the core of spiral galaxies, in elliptical galaxies, in dwarf galaxies and star clusters, as well as in the recently discovered dark star clusters and dark galaxies. Moreover, it refers to the random motion of galaxies and hot (X-ray emitting) gas in galactic clusters. With the exception of spiral galaxies, it is natural to think that a black hole cluster is responsible for the dark matter in each of these structures. (A previous article provides a model for the missing mass of a spiral galaxy [1]. It is summarized in the Appendix.)

In two recent papers, the supermassive black hole is treated as a neutral gas of electrons and positrons, confined by gravitation [2,3]. The smaller masses—up to $8 \times 10^6 M_\odot$—are supported against gravity by electron degeneracy pressure. Larger masses are supported by ideal gas and radiation pressure. To date, the smallest mass which has been observed is $5 \times 10^4 M_\odot$, while the largest is $2 \times 10^{10} M_\odot$. These values correspond to the predictions of the electron-positron model. The presence of positrons shows that supermassive black holes must have formed in the Big Bang, during and after the lepton epoch. They did so via gravitational collapse and fragmentation. Thus, black hole clusters are to be expected in the very early Universe.
2. Dark Matter

It is generally believed that the early Universe was populated by a great many small galaxies. These galaxies did not possess sufficient hydrogen gas to ignite the black hole of a quasar. It would be a billion years or more before quasars made their appearance. Similarly, a black hole cluster of mass \(10^{10} - 10^{12} \text{ M}_\odot\) would slowly gather hydrogen gas from the intergalactic medium. A loose cluster of \(10^3 - 10^5\) black holes provides a gravitational potential which is spatially uniform, when compared with that of a quasar. Within this cluster, one can imagine the accumulation and eventual collapse of hydrogen gas into the protostars of an elliptical galaxy. The uniformity in the stellar population (all low-mass stars) argues for such an in situ process. In the above scenario, the black holes remain as dark matter. They also serve to heat the large volume of hot \((10^7 \text{ K})\) gas, which now surrounds all elliptical galaxies. The astronomers have found dark matter in the largest galaxies, while it is less obvious in the smaller galaxies. This is consistent with the observation that black holes tend to inhibit star formation. An extreme example is that of a dark galaxy, in which the black hole cluster is, perhaps, too concentrated to allow any significant production of stars.

The evolution of dwarf galaxies \((10^7 - 10^9 \text{ M}_\odot)\) appears to have begun with the merger of primitive galaxies. As the small galaxies merged, their black holes formed a cluster in the dwarf galaxy. The violence of the mergers caused a period of rapid star formation. This coincided with the quasar period, which was also violent and active. It is thought that the dwarfs were eventually stripped of their stars and gas by the larger spiral and elliptical galaxies. They now remain as satellite galaxies devoid of gas, with a dark matter black hole cluster.

A very large cluster of black holes \((10^{14} - 10^{15} \text{ M}_\odot)\) would preclude the formation of stars. However, it could provide the gravitational anchor for a cluster of galaxies. A galactic cluster harbors a vast quantity of extremely hot \((10^8 \text{ K})\) gas, with an x-ray energy flux of \(10^{43} - 10^{45} \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}\). The black hole cluster is massive enough to sustain this flux for tens of billions of years.

Finally, there are the recently discovered dark star clusters. Black holes of mass \(10^4 \text{ M}_\odot\) are rare, and so one would not expect to find dark matter in the small star clusters of the Milky Way. However, dark matter has been observed in more massive star clusters, which may contain a number of small black holes.

3. Conclusion

The narrative presented here is meant to be plausible. Regardless of the exact course of historical events, the experimental facts remain. The facts clearly call for an additional mass, in a wide variety of stellar structures. This work demonstrates that a black hole cluster can account for the additional mass in each one of the structures.

Conflicts of Interest

The author declares no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.
Appendix

“The Missing Mass of the Milky Way Galaxy”, a summary of [1].

A spiral galaxy is distinguished by its well-defined center, which is generally occupied by a supermassive black hole. The black hole and the surrounding stars generate a flow of ionized gas (stellar wind), in large part consisting of electrons and protons. The working hypothesis of [1] is that the magnetic field in the disk causes a charge separation in the gas. The electrons are preferentially trapped by the magnetic field and then flow outwardly through the disk. This leaves an excess of protons, which move rapidly away from one another in every direction. They travel at nearly the speed of light so that the galactic plasma is unable to respond, i.e., no “screening” occurs. The protons constitute a nonneutral plasma, which generates its own internal electromagnetic field [4]. Microscopically, the field is a series of sharp pulses attached to the protons [5]. Macroscopically, the field is continuous, radial and electrostatic. At large radii, the energy density of this field decreases as $1/r^2$, producing a gravitational field that decreases as $1/r$. This, in turn, yields the flat rotation curve observed in the experiments. The total energy of the electric field is the missing mass of the Galaxy. When [1] was published, the total galactic mass was estimated to be 350 billion solar masses. This has now increased to 800 billion solar masses. Consequently, the radius of the electric field must be increased to about 10 times the size of the visible disk. Beyond that point, the electrons and protons reunite to form a neutral plasma.