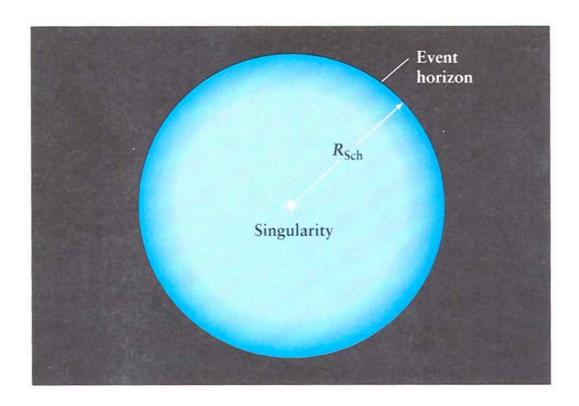
Black Holes (sec. 22.5-22.8)

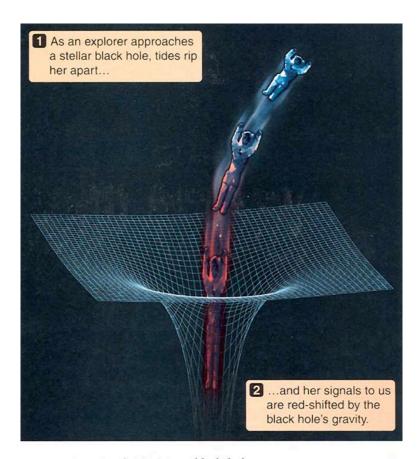
For stars: if mass of core greater than about 3Mo, neutron degeneracy cannot prevent collapse \Rightarrow "black hole" *singularity*.

<u>Event horizon</u> = distance from BH within which even light cannot escape (also known as "Schwarzschild radius"). This is *not* size of black hole itself (in principle infinitesimal radius, infinite density).



Object falling into BH:

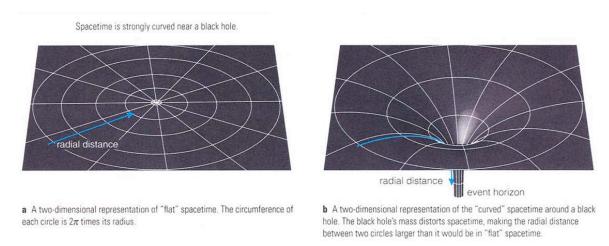
- 1. Matter falling toward BH is stretched and squeezed by huge tidal forces \Rightarrow heating to x-ray temperatures (will be one way to indirectly detect BHs).
- 2. Gets redder due to gravitational redshift. This is *not* Doppler shift; it occurs because time slows down (see below), and a light wave is like a clock. Or can interpret this redshift as energy used by photon trying to get out of the increased gravitational "well." (See illustration later. But remember, the photons still travel at the speed of light.)
- 3. Appears to slow down, then freezes at event horizon due to "time dilation." (We'll return to this below.)



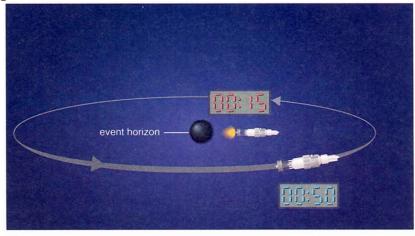
A trip into a black hole.

Most of the strange effects near a black hole are just phenomena predicted by Einstein's theory of relativity, but at extremely strong gravitational fields. The main effects:

Curved paths of light \Rightarrow gravity distorts space so shortest paths are not straight lines. Well-verified experimentally (e.g. deflection of starlight passing near sun).



Time slows down in gravitational field. Tested in 1959 (using physics building at Harvard), and then from aircraft, space flights. For sun's effect, Viking spacecraft (1976) sent pulses of radio waves toward Earth that passed near the sun.



Time runs slower on the clock nearer to the black hole, and gravitational redshift makes its glowing blue numerals appear red from your spaceship.

Detection of Black Holes

In binary systems: For stellar-mass black holes, strong evidence for existence of BHs comes from <u>spectroscopic binary star systems with an invisible companion of mass greater than about 3Mo</u>.

Best candidate: Cygnus X-1. Three main lines of evidence;

- 1. Visible companion has mass around 25Mo. Using the known period and the primary star's orbital speed from the radial velocity, get sum of masses, and hence mass of invisible companion: about 10Mo ⇒ must be black hole (assuming theoretical calculation of neutron star/black hole mass limit is ok).
- 2. Hot x-ray emitting gas is observed flowing toward the invisible companion. This is consistent with a black hole, but it would also be consistent with a neutron star.
- 3. Small duration of x-ray variations (about 1 millisecond) implies size less than about 300 km \Rightarrow could be neutron star or black hole.

So can see that only (1) above unambiguously identifies the invisible companion as a BH.

Two other good candidates: LMC X-3 (mass of invisible companion about 10 Mo) and A0620-00 (mass about 3.8 Mo).

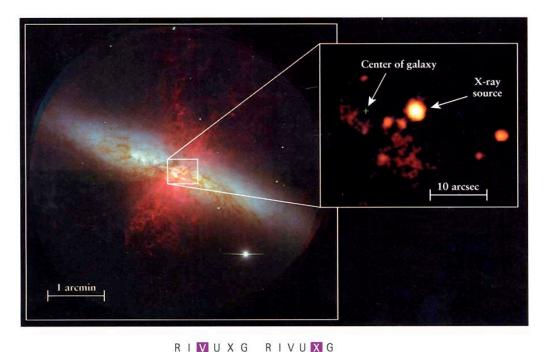
Note that BHs in binary systems may provide our best chance to detect gravity waves, a major prediction of Einstein's theory of general relativity that has been impossible to verify directly because it is an extremely small effect. Read Discovery 22-1 in your text on this subject; what is the result that most astronomers consider as an *indirect* confirmation of the existence of gravitational radiation?

Homework: search the web for current status of the LIGO experiment. Has there been a recent detection?

In globular clusters: Sept. 2002: UT astronomer Karl Gebhardt et al. discover intermediate mass BH in center of globular cluster.

At the centers of galaxies: Stars and gas very near the centers of galaxies (including our own) are moving very rapidly, orbiting some unseen object. Masses inferred from Newton's laws are millions to billions of solar masses! ⇒ supermassive black holes. This was uncertain until a few years ago, but in the past few years very accurate observations have confirmed the existence of these "monsters."

In young super star clusters in "starburst" galaxies like M82 (see pp. 595)—inferred BH masses thousands of Mo. These are inferred from presence of bright compact x-ray sources (i.e. consistent with accretion onto BH). These are "intermediate-mass" black holes, and they appear to have formed recently. No one knows how, but collisions and coalescence between massive stars in these dense clusters is one possibility.



A "Mid-Mass" Black Hole? M82 is an unusual galaxy in the constellation Ursa Major. The inset shows an image of the central region of M82 from the orbiting Chandra X-ray Observatory (see Section 6-7). The bright, compact X-ray source shown by the arrow varies in its light output over a period of months. The properties of this source suggest that it may be a black hole of roughly 500 solar masses or more. (Subaru Telescope, National Astronomical Observatory of Japan; inset: NASA/SAO/CXC)

So we see evidence for BHs all the way from stellar masses to billions of solar masses.

Detection of an event horizon? See "decaying pulses from blob" discussed on p. 593.

[Additional topics below will NOT be covered on exam.]

Rotating black holes: singularity is a ring! BH drags space-time around with it. Could accelerate a star ship by whipping through the "ergoregion" outside the event horizon.

Wormholes: time travel, baby universes ("multiverse") possible.

Visual review of all of stellar evolution and how it depends on the initial mass of a star:

Main-sequence mass (Mo) -0.1 100 Main-sequence stars Red giants Helium Supergiants flash AGB stars Planetary nebulae Supernovae Neutron Black holes White dwarfs stars 0.5 10 Stellar corpse mass $(M_{\odot}) \longrightarrow$