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Fascinating and misunderstood black holes are areas of space with such strong surface gravity that even light can't escape. Its boundary is called an event horizon and is considered a point of no return. When a substance reaches the event horizon, it is absorbed into the singularity of the black hole, which scientists say is an infinitely small and dense spot where the laws of physics no longer apply. Black holes are not visible, so scientists can distinguish their presence only according to how the surrounding substance works. Albert Einstein is sometimes mistakenly regarded as finding black holes, but professor John Michell of the University of Cambridge came up with the idea in 1783. Michell eventually began asking how quickly the projectile would have to move to escape the gravitational pull of a star 500 times the diameter of the sun. This idea was revived by Albert Einstein, who took it to another level with his theory of relativity. Later, Carl Schwarzschild used Einstein's theory of relativity to calculate that any mass could turn into a black hole if pressed tightly enough. Astronomers who discovered the Gremlin/Getty Images Uhuru X-ray Satellite in 1971, studying the constellation Cygnus, found X-rays that they suspected was a black hole known as Cygnus X-1. It is more than 6,000 light-years from Earth, and about 15 times the mass of the sun, it is one of the heaviest star black holes ever discovered. Since it rotates 800 times per second, a time-space vortex has come around it. GM Stock Films/Getty Images Research suggests there may be three types of black holes: star, supermassive and miniature. When massive stars die and collapse, the result is a black hole in the stars. The black holes in the stars are about 10-20 times larger than the mass of the Sun. They are in the midst of many large galaxies and can play a role in the formation of galaxies. Small black holes have never been found, but they have been theoretically part of the Big Bang. cokada/Getty Images Measuring the rotation of a fixed surface area is difficult. Due to the behavior of proxymal objects, scientists have learned that some black holes rotate, while others do not. The non-rotating black hole - known as schwarzschild's black hole - has a singularity and event horizon. Rotating black holes, Kerr's black holes, are more common and are formed by a collapsed rotating star. They have the same parts as Schwarzschild, as well as a toragosphere and a static boundary. Gremlin/Getty Images In 1974, scientists discovered that in the center of the Milky Way galaxy, 25,640 light-years from Earth, there is a supermassive black hole called Sagittarius A\*. Sgr A\* is surrounded by millions of degrees of gas and about four million times the mass Sun. Scientists confirmed that Sgr A\* was actually there by watching a small star in orbit, the S2, go into black hole gravity well every 16 years, as well as flares that travel at a speed of about 30 percent light. Pobytov / Getty Images When an object falls towards a black hole, gas, plasma or dust is formed. The workflow they create is called an accumulation disk. Through gravitational pull, they form many objects, including planets, stars and black holes. When the gas twists at high speed into supermassive black holes, jets of energy particles shoot out of the middle. It is believed that accretion plays a role in this process because it is a more efficient power source. mirquurius/Getty Images In 2009, the Hubble Space Telescope detected the 25-solar mass star N6946-BH1 burning more than a million times brighter than normal in a few months. It was expected to become a supernova. Instead, it exploded and formed a black hole. A direct collapse occurs when a star succumbs to his own attraction when he dies and collapses into himself, forming a black hole. Scientists estimate that 10 to 30 percent of massive stars fail like this. Petrovich9 /Getty Images NASA notes that supermassive black holes have more than a million solar mass energy. However, the black hole in galaxy NGC 4889 is about 80 billion miles in diameter. It has been dormant for billions of years, allowing stars to form and circulate peacefully. But if it collides with another galaxy, it could be activated again. Fortunately, this supermassive black hole is 300 million light-years away and is not a threat to the Milky Way or andromeda galaxies. Just\_Super/Getty Images In 2011, researchers actually captured a case of connecting black holes in NGC 3393. It appeared that the black hole at the heart of the galaxy was eaten by a larger one with only 490 light-years between it. When black holes merge, it can be a violent phenomenon in which objects and matter are torn off or even out. However, a small merger like this turned out to be a relatively peaceful event. Pitris/Getty Images Black holes are so powerful that nothing can get off its event horizon unless they go faster than the speed of light. What about the area of space where nothing gets into the event horizon? White holes are the theoretical opposite of black holes. In 2014, theoretical physicists Carlo Rovelli and Francesca Vidotto suggested that dead black holes that could no longer shrink would die and become white holes. Questions are being formed and answered about their possible existence and what would happen if they met with black holes. scyther5/Getty Images To answer this question, we first need to look at what black holes are and how they work. the gap remains when the massive star dies. A A The star usually has a core at least three times the mass of the sun. The stars are huge, incredible fusion reactors. Because the stars are so large and made of gas, a powerful gravitational field always tries to collapse the star. Fusion reactions at the core are like a giant fusion bomb trying to blow up a star. The balance between gravity and explosive power determines the size of the star. When a star dies, nuclear fusion reactions stop because these reactions run out of fuel. At the same time, the gravity of the star pulls the material inward and compresses the core. As the core condenses, it warms up and eventually creates a supernova explosion in which material and radiation blow into space. That leaves a very packed and very massive core. This object is now a black hole. It literally disappears from view. Because the gravity of the core is so strong, the core sinks through the structure of space-time, creating a hole. The core of the original star now becomes the middle of the black hole. The hole opening is called the event horizon. Streams of gas fall to their doom, plunge into black holes, locked out of the universe forever. In their final moments, these gaseous tatters emit the last flare, some of the brightest emissions in the universe. These death dives are too far away to be seen directly, but astronomers have come up with a new technique to detect their panicked cries for help. They're testing our knowledge of gravity in extreme universe environments. In a new study, physicists looked at the peculiarities of this light to find out the closest to a black hole without you have to work hard to prevent a catastrophe - a threshold called the inring stable circular orbit or ISCO. The researchers found that their method could work with more sensitive X-ray telescopes. Related: 9 ideas about black holes blowing your mind over Waterfall The black hole event horizon is an invisible line in the sand that you can never return to. When something passes through the event horizon, even the light itself, it can no longer return to the universe. The gravity of the black hole is too strong in that area. Outside the black hole, however, everything is just great. A certain black hole has a certain mass (anywhere a few times from the mass of the sun to the smaller up to billions of times heavier in the galaxy for real monsters roaming the cosmos), and circling a black hole is like orbiting any other similar mass. Gravity is gravity only, and orbits are orbits. In fact, many things in the universe circulate black holes. When these foolhardy adventurers get caught in a black hole. embrace, they begin their journey towards the end. When the material falls towards the black hole, it tends to be compressed into the thin strip of the razor, known as the accumulation plate. The disc rotates and rotates, and heat, friction and magnetic and electrical forces turn it on, causing the material to glow brightly. In the case of the most massive black holes, the accumulation plate around them glows so intensely that they get a new name: active galactic cores (AGNs) capable of crossing millions of individual galaxies. On the accumulation plate, individual bits of material rub against other bits, absorb them from the rotational energy and always drive them inwards into the gaping maw of the black hole event horizon. But without friction forces, the material could circle the black hole forever, in the same way that planets can orbit the sun for billions of years. However, when you get closer to the center of the black hole, you will reach a certain point where any hope of stability is dashed against the stones of gravity. Just outside the black hole, but before reaching the event horizon, gravity is so extreme that stable orbits become impossible. Once you reach this area, you can't stay in a calm orbit. You only have two options: if you have rockets or some other source of energy, you can drive yourself to safety. But if you're an unhappy piece of gas, you're doomed to fall freely towards the dark nightmare waiting below. This boundary, the innermost stable circular orbit (or ISCO for lovers of astronomical jargon), is a solid prediction of Einstein's general theory of relativity, the same theory that predicts the existence of black holes. Related: 8 ways you can see Einstein's theory of relativity in real lifeDepite to predict and explain the phenomena of the success of general relativity throughout the universe and our certain knowledge that black holes are real, we have never been able to verify the existence of ISCO and whether it matches the predictions of general relativity. But a gas that falls to its doom can provide us with a way to ensure its existence. Dance LightsA group of astronomers recently published an article in the journal Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, which was also uploaded to the preprint journal arXiv, which describes how to utilize this dying light to study ISCO. Their technique is based on an astronomical trick known as reverberation mapm, which takes advantage of the fact that there are different areas around the black hole. Related: Where do black holes lead? When the gas flows from the accumulation plate past ISCO - the innate part of the accumulation plate - and into the black hole itself, it heats up so that it emits extensive high-energy X-ray radiation. That X-ray light shines away from the black hole. We can see this release all the way from Earth, but the details of the accumulation plate structure disappear into the flames of X-ray glory. (Understanding more information about the accumulation plate will help astrophysicists get ISCO on the handle as well.) The same X-ray light also illuminates areas well outside the accumulation plate, areas dominated by a cold gas rope. Cold gas is powered by X-rays and begins to emit its own light in a process called fluorescencies. We can also detect this release, separate from the X-ray that comes from the areas closest to the black hole. It takes time for the light to travel outwards from ISCO and the outer part of the accumulation plate to the cold gas; if we look closely, we can initially observe the central areas (ISCO and the innermost parts of the accumulation plate) flare, which will soon be followed outside ISCO by a reverberation of the layers and an immediately surrounding accumulation plate. The timing and details of post-light depend on the structure of the accumulation disk, which astronomers have previously used to estimate the mass of black holes. In this latest study, researchers used advanced computer simulations to see how the movement of gas in ISCO - how gas dies when it finally falls toward the event horizon of a black hole - affects emissions of X-rays both nearby and in the waste gas. They found that while we do not currently have the sensitivity to measure doomed gas, the next generation of X-ray telescopes should be able to, allowing us to confirm the existence of ICSCO and test whether it agrees with general relativity predictions, perhaps in the most gravity extreme areas of the entire universe. Originally published in live science magazine. Science.

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