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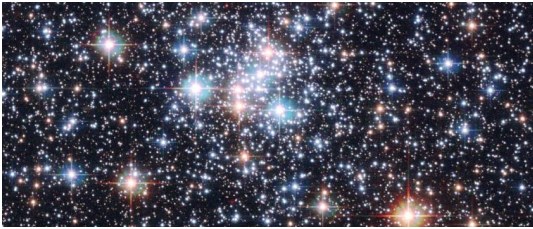
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ASTRONOMY

Chapter 18 THE STARS: A CELESTIAL CENSUS
PowerPoint Image Slideshow

18.1 A STELLAR CENSUS 




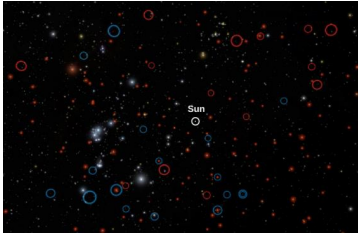
► **Variety of Stars.** Stars come in a variety of sizes, masses, temperatures, and luminosities. This image shows part of a cluster of stars in the Small Magellanic Cloud (catalog number NGC 290). Located about 200,000 light-years away, NGC 290 is about 65 light-years across. Because the stars in this cluster are all at about the same distance from us, the differences in apparent brightness correspond to differences in luminosity; differences in temperature account for the differences in color. The various colors and luminosities of these stars provide clues about their life stories.

Stars within 21 Light-Years of the Sun


Spectral Type	Number of Stars
A	2
F	1
G	7
K	17
M	94
White dwarfs	8
Brown dwarfs	33

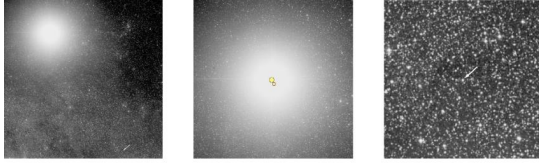
Table 18.1

Figure 18.2 



► **Dwarf Simulation.** This computer simulation shows the stars in our neighborhood as they would be seen from a distance of 30 light-years away. The Sun is in the center. All the brown dwarfs are circled; those found earlier are circled in blue, the ones found recently with the WISE infrared telescope in space (whose scientists put this diagram together) are circled in red. The common M stars, which are red and faint, are made to look brighter than they really would be so that you can see them in the simulation. Note that luminous hot stars like our Sun are very rare. (credit: modification of work by NASA/ JPL-Caltech)

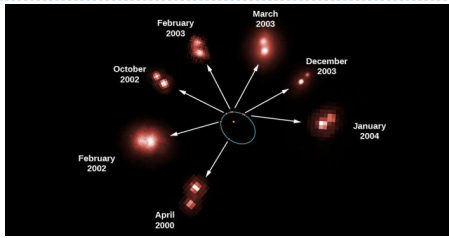
Figure 18.3 



► **The Closest Stars.**

- (a) This image, taken with a wide-angle telescope at the European Southern Observatory in Chile, shows the system of three stars that is our nearest neighbor.
- (b) Two bright stars that are close to each other (Alpha Centauri A and B) blend their light together.
- (c) Indicated with an arrow (since you'd hardly notice it otherwise) is the much fainter Proxima Centauri star, which is spectral type M. (credit: modification of work by ESO)

18.2+18.3 MEASURING STELLAR MASSES & DIAMETERS



▶ **Revolution of a Binary Star.** This figure shows revolution of two stars, one a brown dwarf and one an ultra-cool L dwarf. Each red dot on the orbit, which is shown by the blue ellipse, corresponds to the position of one of the dwarfs relative to the other. The reason that the pair of stars looks different on the different dates is that some images were taken with the Hubble Space Telescope and others were taken from the ground. From these observations, an international team of astronomers directly measured the mass. Barely the size of the planet Jupiter, the dwarf star weighs in at just 8.5% of the mass of our Sun.

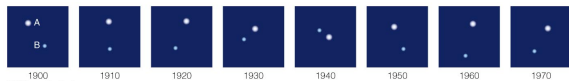
Types of Binary Star Systems

- ▶ Visual binary
- ▶ Eclipsing binary
- ▶ Spectroscopic binary

About half of all stars are in binary systems.

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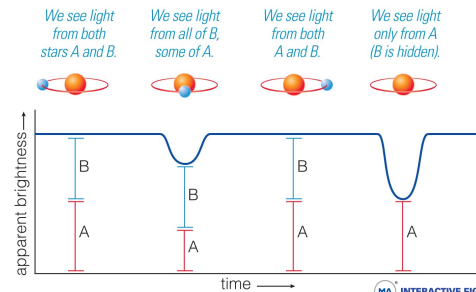
Visual Binary



We can directly observe the orbital motions of these stars.

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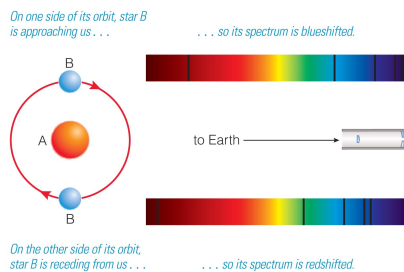
Eclipsing Binary



We can measure periodic eclipses.

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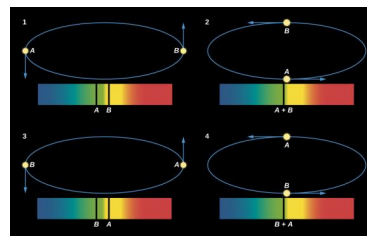
Spectroscopic Binary



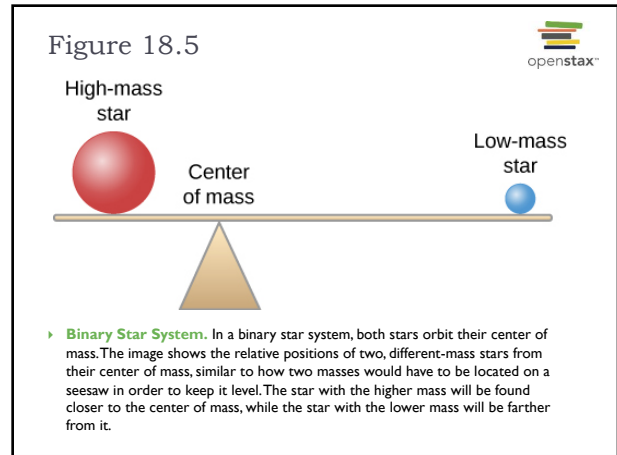
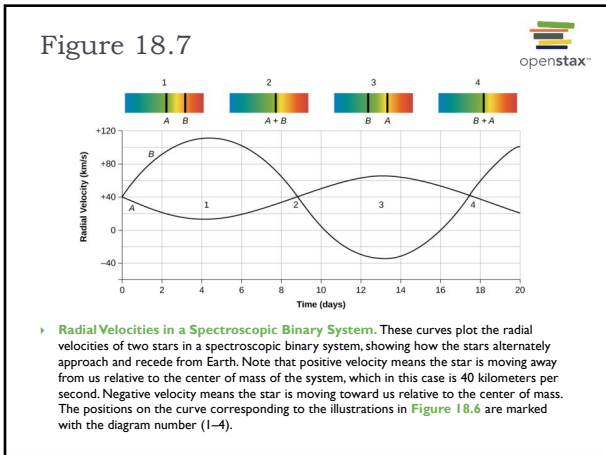
We determine the orbit by measuring Doppler shifts.

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Figure 18.6



▶ **Motions of Two Stars Orbiting Each Other and What the Spectrum Shows.** We see changes in velocity because when one star is moving toward Earth, the other is moving away; half a cycle later, the situation is reversed. Doppler shifts cause the spectral lines to move back and forth. In diagrams 1 and 3, lines from both stars can be seen well separated from each other. When the two stars are moving perpendicular to our line of sight (that is, they are not moving either toward or away from us), the two lines are exactly superimposed, and so in diagrams 2 and 4, we see only a single spectral line.



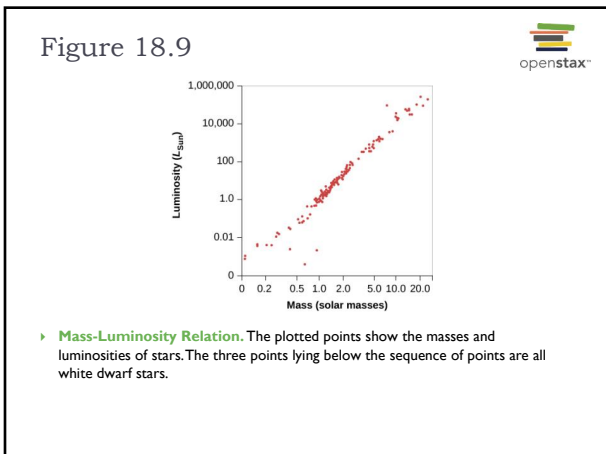
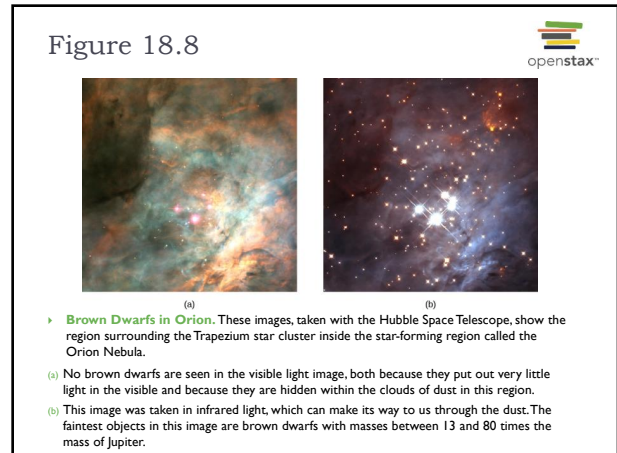
We measure mass using gravity.

Direct mass measurements are possible only for stars in binary star systems.

$$p^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(M_1 + M_2)} a^3$$

p = period
 a = average separation

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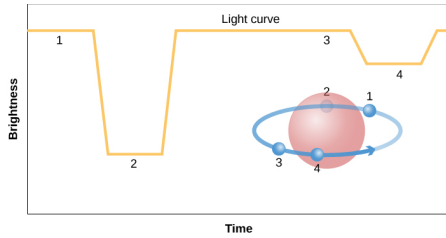
Need two out of three observables to measure mass:

- Orbital period (p)
- Orbital separation (a or r = radius)
- Orbital velocity (v)

For circular orbits, $v = 2\pi r / p$

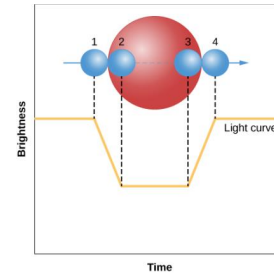
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Figure 18.10

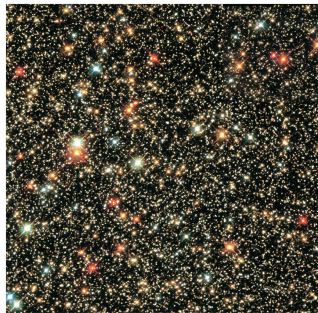


► **Light Curve of an Eclipsing Binary.** The light curve of an eclipsing binary star system shows how the combined light from both stars changes due to eclipses over the time span of an orbit. This light curve shows the behavior of a hypothetical eclipsing binary star with total eclipses (one star passes directly in front of and behind the other).

Stellar Diameters



► **Light Curve of an Edge-On Eclipsing Binary.** Here we see the light curve of a hypothetical eclipsing binary star whose orbit we view exactly edge-on, in which the two stars fully eclipse each other. From the time intervals between contacts, it is possible to estimate the diameters of the two stars.



Most luminous stars:

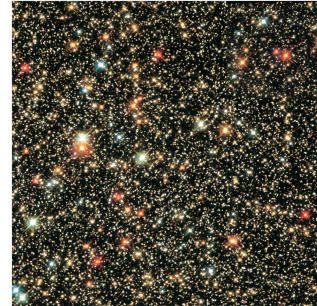
$$10^6 L_{\text{Sun}}$$

Least luminous stars:

$$10^{-4} L_{\text{Sun}}$$

(L_{Sun} is luminosity of the Sun)

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Most massive stars:

$$100 M_{\text{Sun}}$$

(some very rare stars may have $> 100 M_{\text{Sun}}$)

Least massive stars:

$$0.08 M_{\text{Sun}}$$

(M_{Sun} is the mass of the Sun.)

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Hottest stars:

$$50,000 \text{ K}$$

Coollest stars:

$$3000 \text{ K}$$

(Sun's surface is 5800 K)

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Stellar Properties Review

Luminosity: from brightness and distance

$$(0.08 M_{\text{Sun}}) 10^{-4} L_{\text{Sun}} - 10^6 L_{\text{Sun}} (100 M_{\text{Sun}})$$

Temperature: from color and spectral type

$$(0.08 M_{\text{Sun}}) 3000 \text{ K} - 50,000 \text{ K} (100 M_{\text{Sun}})$$

Mass: from period (p) and average separation (a) of binary-star orbit

$$0.08 M_{\text{Sun}} - 100 M_{\text{Sun}}$$

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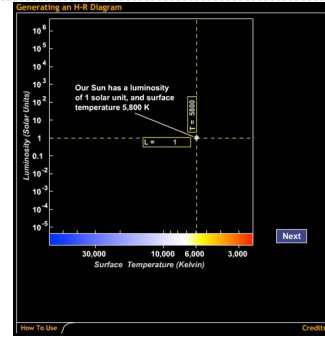
18.4 THE H-R DIAGRAM



(a)

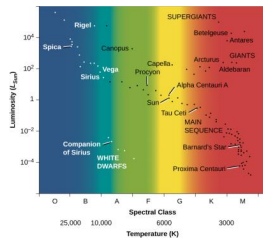
(b)

► **Hertzsprung (1873–1967) and Russell (1877–1957).** (a) Einar Hertzsprung and (b) Henry Norris Russell independently discovered the relationship between the luminosity and surface temperature of stars that is summarized in what is now called the H–R diagram.



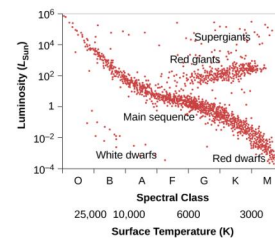
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Figure 18.14

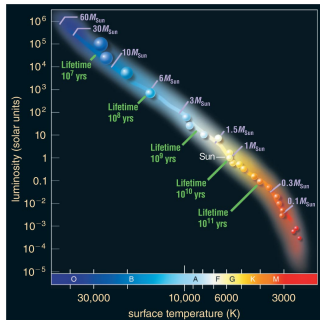


► **H–R Diagram for a Selected Sample of Stars.** In such diagrams, luminosity is plotted along the vertical axis. Along the horizontal axis, we can plot either temperature or spectral type (also sometimes called spectral class). Several of the brightest stars are identified by name. Most stars fall on the main sequence.

Figure 18.15

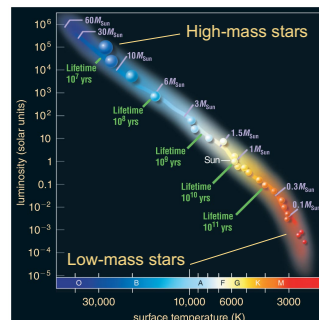


► **Schematic H–R Diagram for Many Stars.** Ninety percent of all stars on such a diagram fall along a narrow band called the main sequence. A minority of stars are found in the upper right; they are both cool (and hence red) and bright, and must be giants. Some stars fall in the lower left of the diagram; they are both hot and dim, and must be white dwarfs.



Most stars fall somewhere on the **main sequence** of the H-R diagram.

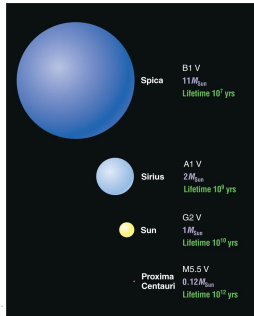
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Mass measurements of main-sequence stars show that the hot, blue stars are much more massive and have higher luminosity than the cool, red ones.

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Main-Sequence Star Summary



High-mass:
High luminosity
Short-lived
Large radius
Blue

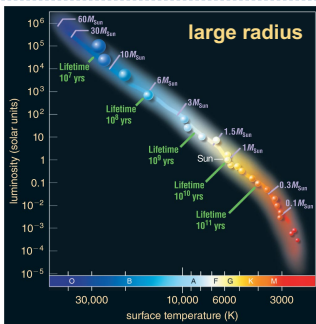
Low-mass:
Low luminosity
Long-lived
Small radius
Red

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Off the Main Sequence

- ▶ Stellar properties depend on both mass and age: those that have finished fusing H to He in their cores are no longer on the main sequence.
- ▶ All stars become larger and redder after exhausting their core hydrogen: **giants** and **supergiants**.
- ▶ Most stars end up small and white after fusion has ceased: **white dwarfs**.

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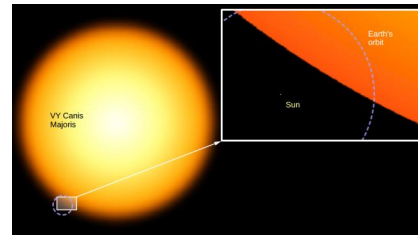


Stars with lower T and higher L than main-sequence stars must have larger radii:

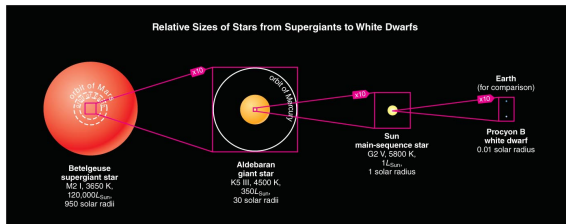
giants and **supergiants**

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Figure 18.16

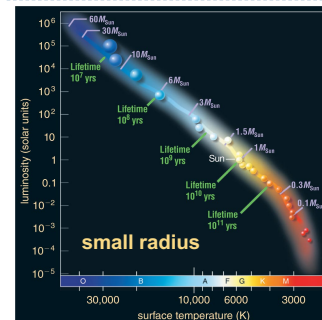


- ▶ **The Sun and a Supergiant.** Here you see how small the Sun looks in comparison to one of the largest known stars: VY Canis Majoris, a supergiant.



Giants and supergiants are far larger than main-sequence stars and white dwarfs.

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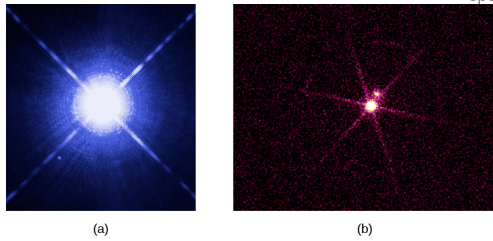


Stars with higher T and lower L than main-sequence stars must have smaller radii:

white dwarfs

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Figure 18.17



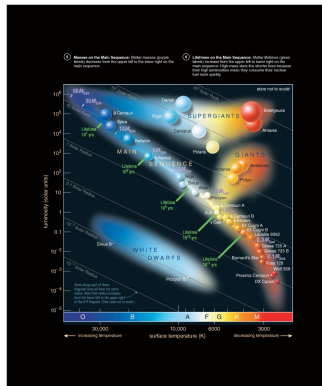
(a) Two Views of Sirius and Its White Dwarf Companion.
 (a) The (visible light) image, taken with the Hubble Space Telescope, shows bright Sirius A, and, below it and off to its left, faint Sirius B.
 (b) This image of the Sirius star system was taken with the Chandra X-Ray Telescope. Now, the bright object is the white dwarf companion, Sirius B. Sirius A is the faint object above it; what we are seeing from Sirius is probably not actually X-ray radiation but rather ultraviolet light that has leaked into the detector.

A star's full classification includes spectral type (line identities) and luminosity class (line shapes, related to the size of the star):

- I — supergiant
- II — bright giant
- III — giant
- IV — subgiant
- V — main sequence

Examples: Sun — G2 V
 Sirius — A1 V
 Proxima Centauri — M5.5 V
 Betelgeuse — M2 I

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H-R diagram depicts:

- Temperature
- Color
- Spectral type
- Luminosity
- Radius
- Life expectancy

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Stellar Properties Review

Luminosity: from brightness and distance

$$(0.08M_{\text{Sun}}) 10^{-4}L_{\text{Sun}} - 10^6L_{\text{Sun}} (100M_{\text{Sun}})$$

Temperature: from color and spectral type

$$(0.08M_{\text{Sun}}) 3000 \text{ K} - 50,000 \text{ K} (100M_{\text{Sun}})$$

Mass: from period (p) and average separation (a) of binary-star orbit

$$0.08M_{\text{Sun}} - 100M_{\text{Sun}}$$

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Mass and Lifetime

Sun's life expectancy: 10 billion years

Life expectancy of a $10M_{\text{Sun}}$ star:

10 times as much fuel, uses it 10^4 times as fast

$$10 \text{ million years} \sim 10 \text{ billion years} \times 10/10^4$$

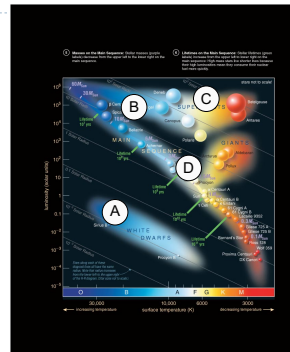
Life expectancy of a $0.1M_{\text{Sun}}$ star:

0.1 times as much fuel, uses it 0.01 times as fast

$$100 \text{ billion years} \sim 10 \text{ billion years} \times 0.1/0.01$$

Until core hydrogen (10% of total) is used up

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Which star is a main-sequence star?

Which star is the hottest?

Which star is the most luminous?

Which star has the largest radius?

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Links

- ▶ [brown white dwarfs 1 min](#)

Reading

- ▶ 18.1
- ▶ 18.2
- ▶ 18.3
- ▶ 18.4

