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# ASTRONOMY

**Chapter 23 THE DEATH OF STARS**
PowerPoint Image Slideshow


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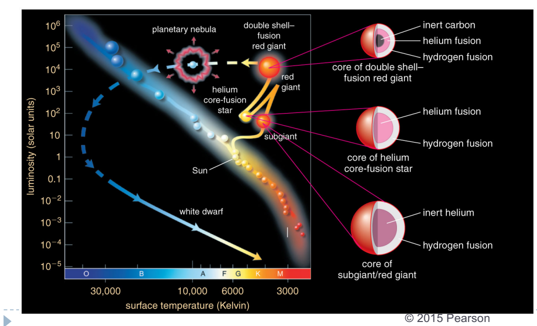
## 23.1 THE DEATH OF LOW-MASS STARS

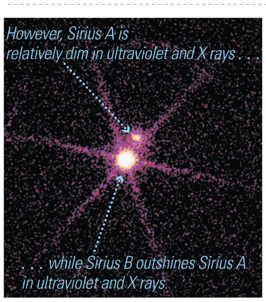
- **Stellar Life Cycle.** This remarkable picture of NGC 3603, a nebula in the Milky Way Galaxy, was taken with the Hubble Space Telescope. This image illustrates the life cycle of stars. In the bottom half of the image, we see clouds of dust and gas, where it is likely that star formation will take place in the near future. Near the center, there is a cluster of massive, hot young stars that are only a few million years old. Above and to the right of the cluster, there is an isolated star surrounded by a ring of gas. Perpendicular to the ring and on either side of it, there are two bluish blobs of gas. The ring and the blobs were ejected by the star, which is nearing the end of its life.

## White dwarfs cool off and grow dimmer with time.






## White Dwarfs

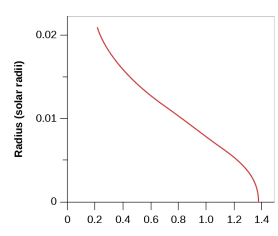



**b** Sirius as seen by the Chandra X-Ray Telescope.

- White dwarfs are the remaining cores of dead stars.
- Electron degeneracy pressure supports them against gravity.

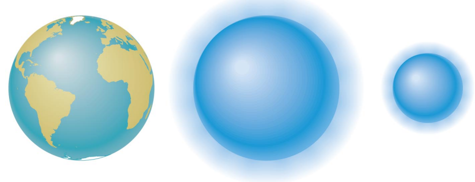


## Figure 23.2




- **Relating Masses and Radii of White Dwarfs.** Models of white-dwarf structure predict that as the mass of the star increases (toward the right), its radius gets smaller and smaller.

## Size of a White Dwarf




- White dwarfs with the same mass as the Sun are about the same size as Earth.
- Higher-mass white dwarfs are smaller.



## The White Dwarf Limit

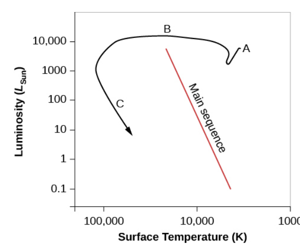
- Quantum mechanics says that electrons must move faster as they are squeezed into a very small space.
- As a white dwarf's mass approaches $1.4M_{Sun}$, its electrons must move at nearly the speed of light.
- Because nothing can move faster than light, a white dwarf cannot be more massive than $1.4M_{Sun}$, the *white dwarf limit* (also known as the *Chandrasekhar limit*).



## Figure 23.3

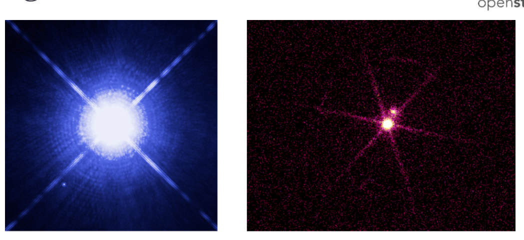
- **S. Chandrasekhar (1910–1995).** Chandra's research provided the basis for much of what we now know about stellar corpses. (credit: modification of work by American Institute of Physics)

## Figure 23.4



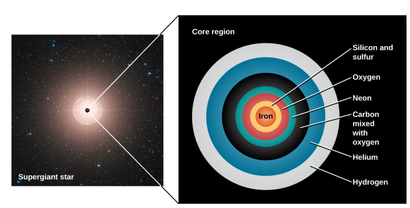

- **Evolutionary Track for a Star Like the Sun.** This diagram shows the changes in luminosity and surface temperature for a star with a mass like the Sun's as it nears the end of its life. After the star becomes a giant again (point A on the diagram), it will lose more and more mass as its core begins to collapse. The mass loss will expose the hot inner core, which will appear at the center of a planetary nebula. In this stage, the star moves across the diagram to the left as it becomes hotter and hotter during its collapse (point B). At first, the luminosity remains nearly constant, but as the star begins to cool off, it becomes less and less bright (point C). It is now a white dwarf and will continue to cool slowly for billions of years until all of its remaining store of energy is radiated away. (This assumes the Sun will lose between 46–50% of its mass during the giant stages, based upon various theoretical models).

## Figure 23.5




- **Visible Light and X-Ray Images of the Sirius Star System.**
  - (a) This image taken by the Hubble Space Telescope shows Sirius A (the large bright star), and its companion star, the white dwarf known as Sirius B (the tiny, faint star at the lower left). Sirius A and B are 8.6 light-years from Earth and are our fifth-closest star system. Note that the image has intentionally been overexposed to allow us to see Sirius B.
  - (b) The same system is shown in X-ray taken with the Chandra Space Telescope. Note that Sirius A is fainter in X-rays than the hot white dwarf that is Sirius B.

## 23.2 THE DEATH OF HIGH-MASS STARS

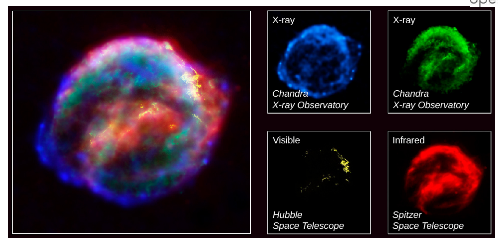



- **Structure of an Old Massive Star.** Just before its final gravitational collapse, the core of a massive star resembles an onion. The iron core is surrounded by layers of silicon and sulfur, oxygen, neon, carbon mixed with some oxygen, helium, and finally hydrogen. Outside the core, the composition is mainly hydrogen and helium. (Note that this diagram is not precisely to scale but is just meant to convey the general idea of what such a star would be like.) (credit: modification of work by ESO, Digitized Sky Survey)

## Figure 23.7

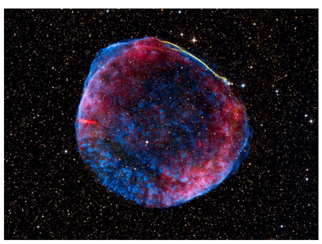

- **Five Supernova Explosions in Other Galaxies.** The arrows in the top row of images point to the supernovae. The bottom row shows the host galaxies before or after the stars exploded. Each of these supernovae exploded between 3.5 and 10 billion years ago. Note that the supernovae when they first explode can be as bright as an entire galaxy. (credit: modification of work by NASA, ESA, and A. Riess (STScI))

## Figure 23.8



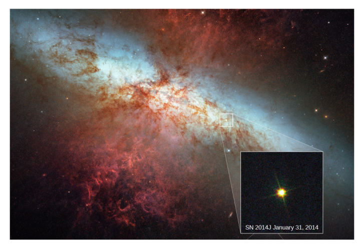

- **Kepler Supernova Remant.** This image shows the expanding remains of a supernova explosion, which was first seen about 400 years ago by sky watchers, including the famous astronomer Johannes Kepler. The bubble-shaped shroud of gas and dust is now 14 light-years wide and is expanding at 2,000 kilometers per second (4 million miles per hour). The remnant emits energy at wavelengths from X-rays (shown in blue and green) to visible light (yellow) and into the infrared (red). The expanding shell is rich in iron, which was produced in the star that exploded. The main image combines the individual single-color images seen at the bottom into one multi-wavelength picture

## Figure 23.9



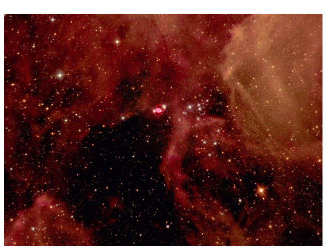
- **Supernova 1006 Remnant.** This composite view of SN 1006 from the Chandra X-Ray Observatory shows the X-rays coming from the remnant in blue, visible light in white-yellow, and radio emission in red. (credit: modification of work by NASA, ESA, Zolt Levay(STScI))

## Figure 23.10



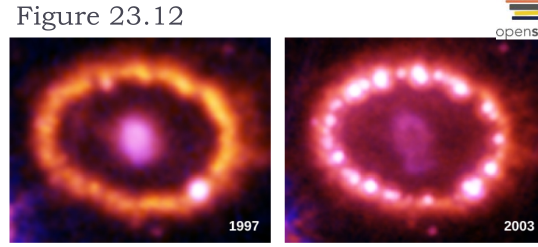

- **Supernova 2014J.** This image of supernova 2014J, located in Messier 82 (M82), which is also known as the Cigar galaxy, was taken by the Hubble Space Telescope and is superposed on a mosaic image of the galaxy also taken with Hubble. The supernova event is indicated by the box and the inset. This explosion was produced by a type Ia supernova, which is theorized to be triggered in binary systems consisting of a white dwarf and another star—and could be a second white dwarf, a star like our Sun, or a giant star. This type of supernova will be discussed later in this chapter. At a distance of approximately 11.5 million light-years from Earth, this is the closest supernova of type Ia discovered in the past few decades. In the image, you can see reddish plumes of hydrogen coming from the central region of the galaxy, where a considerable number of young stars are being born.

## Figure 23.11



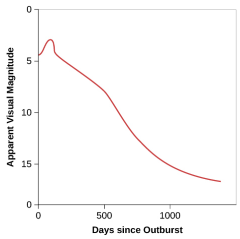
- **Hubble Space Telescope Image of SN 1987A.** The supernova remnant with its inner and outer red rings of material is located in the Large Magellanic Cloud. This image is a composite of several images taken in 1994, 1996, and 1997—about a decade after supernova 1987A was first observed. (credit: modification of work by the Hubble Heritage Team (AURA/STScI/NASA/ESA))

## Figure 23.12




- **Ring around Supernova 1987A.** These two images show a ring of gas expelled about 30,000 years ago when the star that exploded in 1987 was a red giant. The supernova, which has been artificially dimmed, is located at the center of the ring. The left-hand image was taken in 1997 and the right-hand image in 2003. Note that the number of bright spots has increased from 1 to more than 15 over this time interval. These spots occur where high-speed gas ejected by the supernova and moving at millions of miles per hour has reached the ring and blasted into it. The collision has heated the gas in the ring and caused it to glow more brightly. The fact that we see individual spots suggests that material ejected by the supernova is first hitting narrow, inward-projecting columns of gas in the clumpy ring. The hot spots are the first signs of a dramatic and violent collision between the new and old material that will continue over the next few years.

# Figure 23.13




- **Change in the Brightness of SN 1987A over Time.** Note how the rate of decline of the supernova's light slowed between days 40 and 500. During this time, the brightness was mainly due to the energy emitted by newly formed (and quickly decaying) radioactive elements. Remember that magnitudes are a backward measure of brightness: the larger the magnitude, the dimmer the object looks.