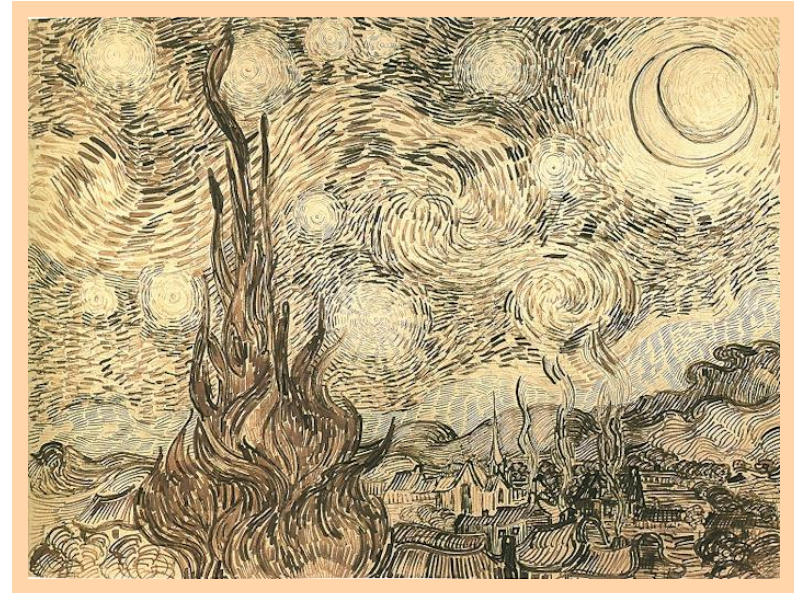
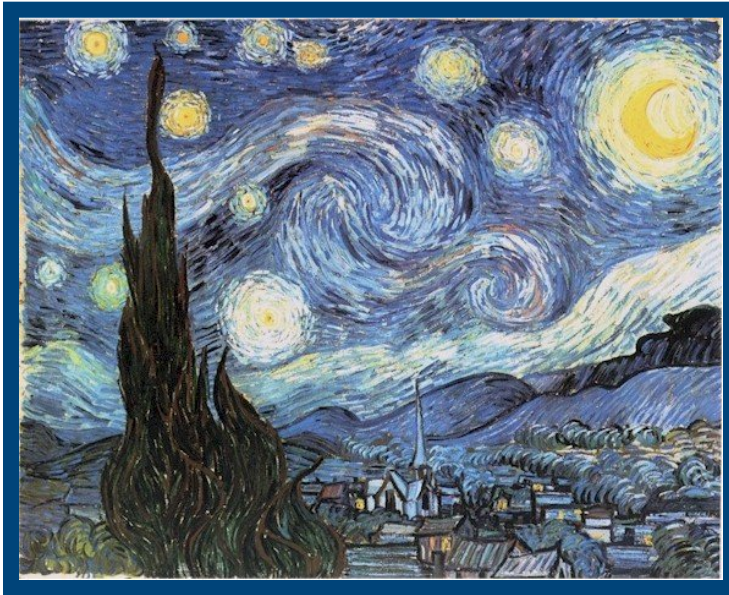


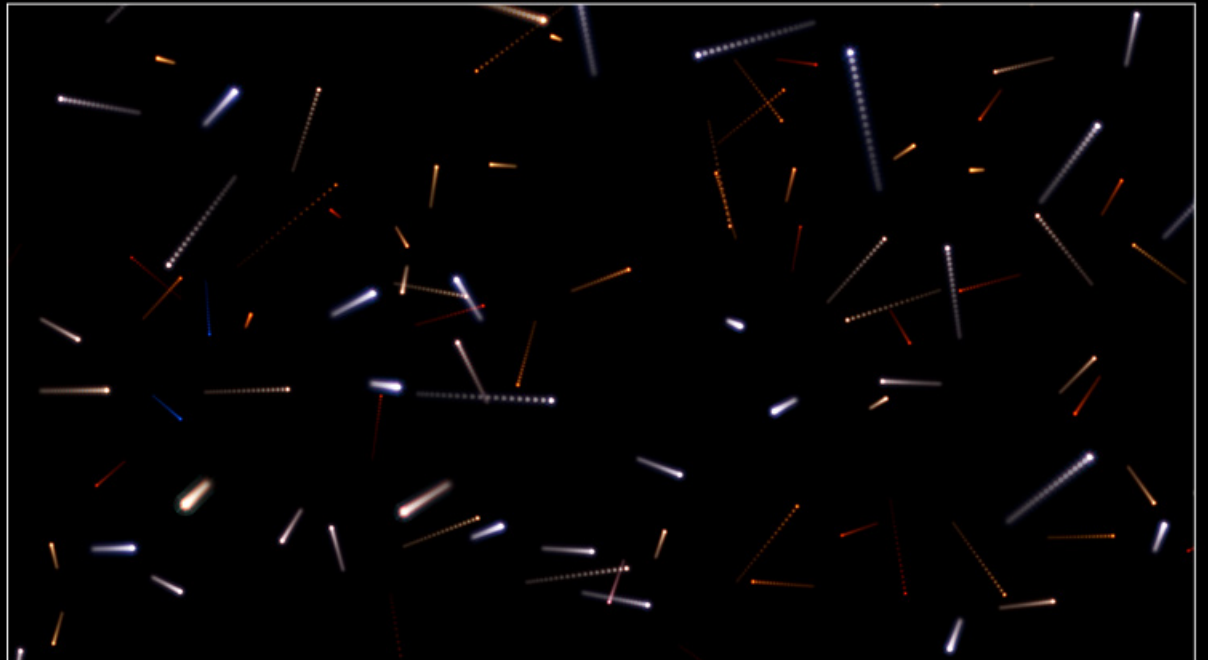
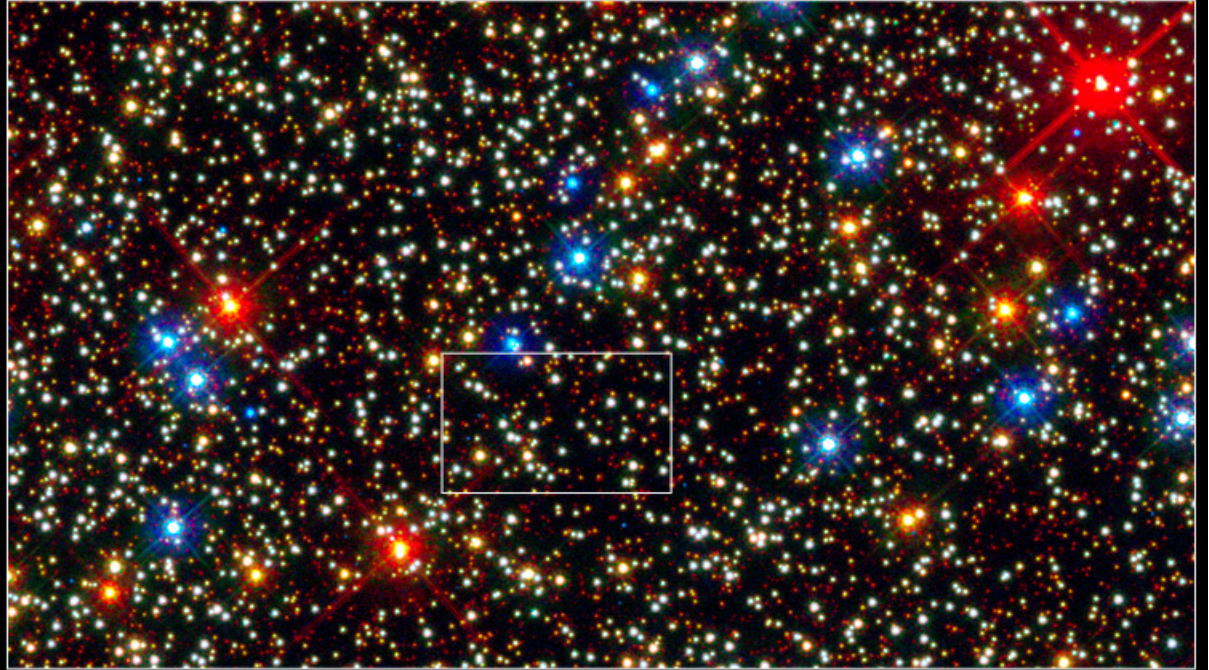
# Astronomical Study: A Multi-Perspective Approach



# Overview of Stars

- Motion
- Distances
- Physical Properties
- Spectral Properties
  - Magnitudes
  - Luminosity class
  - Spectral trends
- Binary stars and getting masses
- Stellar census

Visualization of Motion of Stars in Globular Cluster Omega Centauri

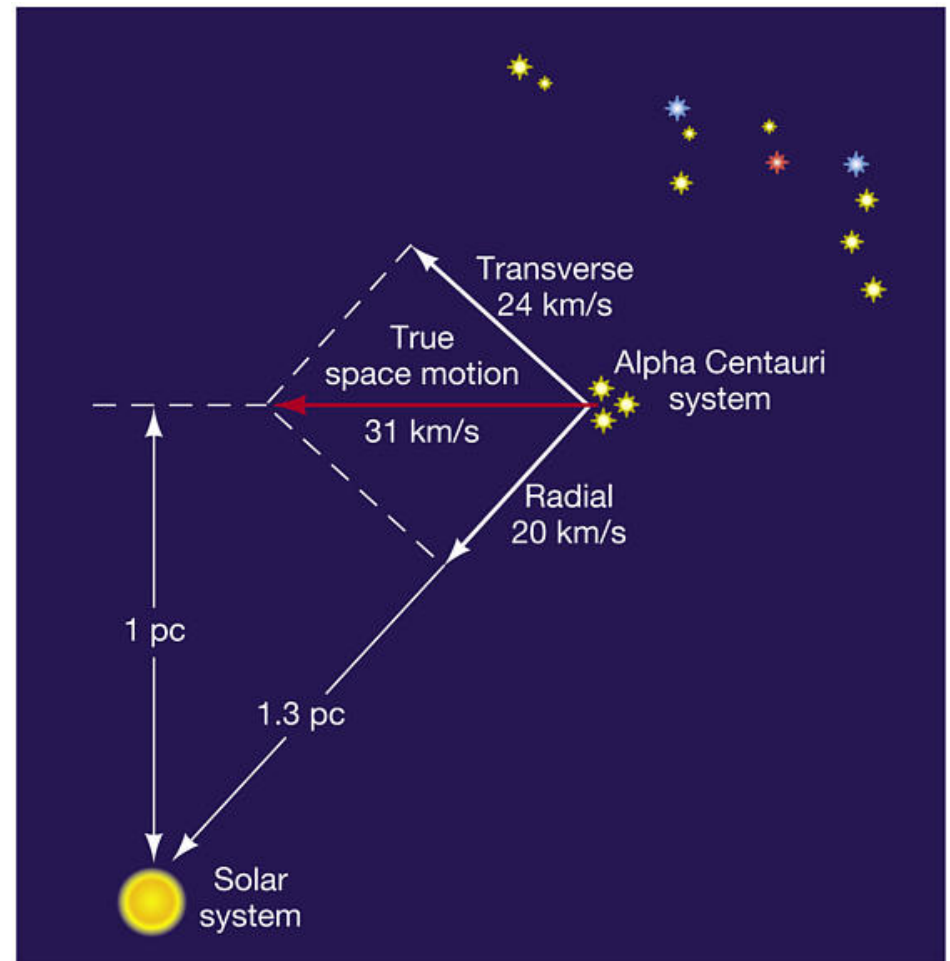


**Stars Move!**

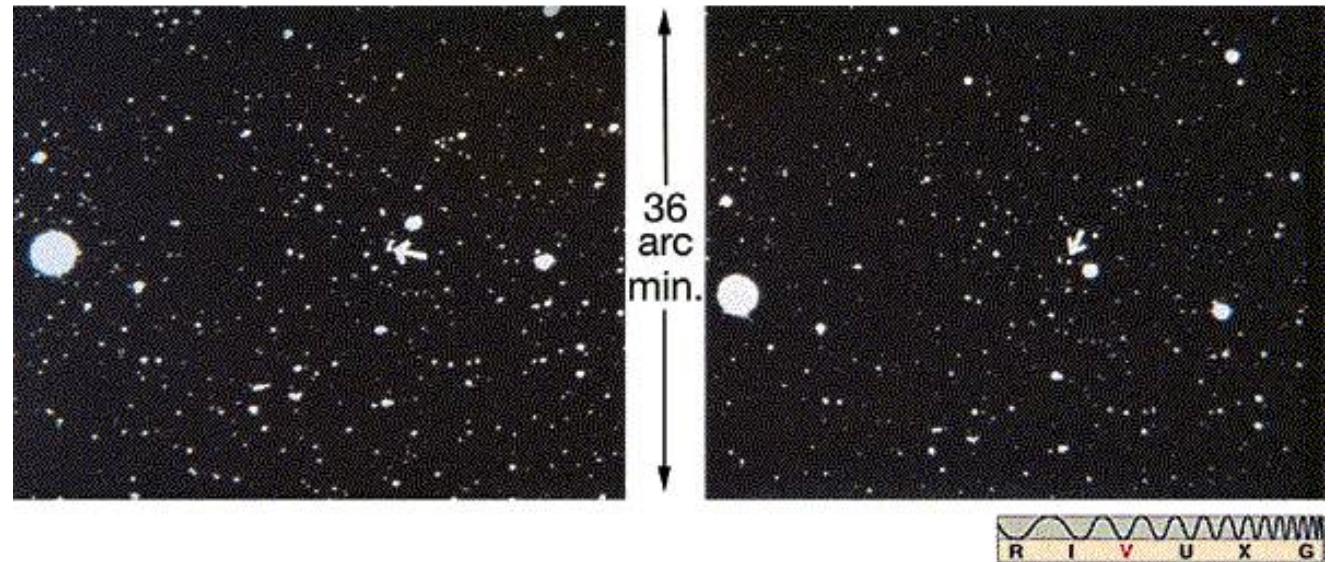


# Motion through Space

- Everything moves!
- From an Earth perspective, velocity has a component toward and transverse
- Radial velocity is toward or away – measure this with the Doppler effect
- Tangential velocity is transverse in the sky

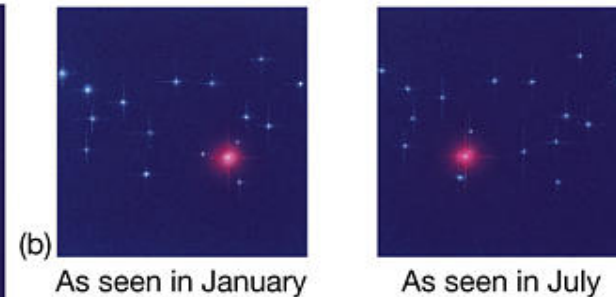
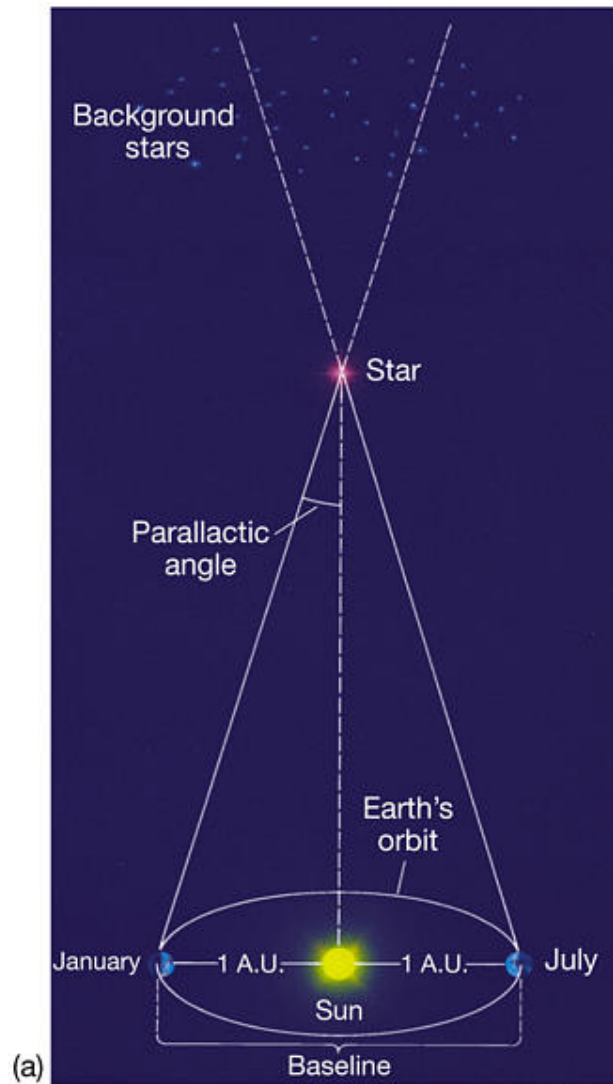


# Proper Motion



*Proper motion* refers to the apparent change of position of an object in the sky. This is a result of the tangential (transverse) space motion of stars. This example is for Barnard's star.

# Distances: Stellar Parallax



- Distances are important for understanding stars
- Use geometry to infer distances to stars
- Applies when star is somewhat nearby
- Based on Earth's orbit



# Stars Come in Colors

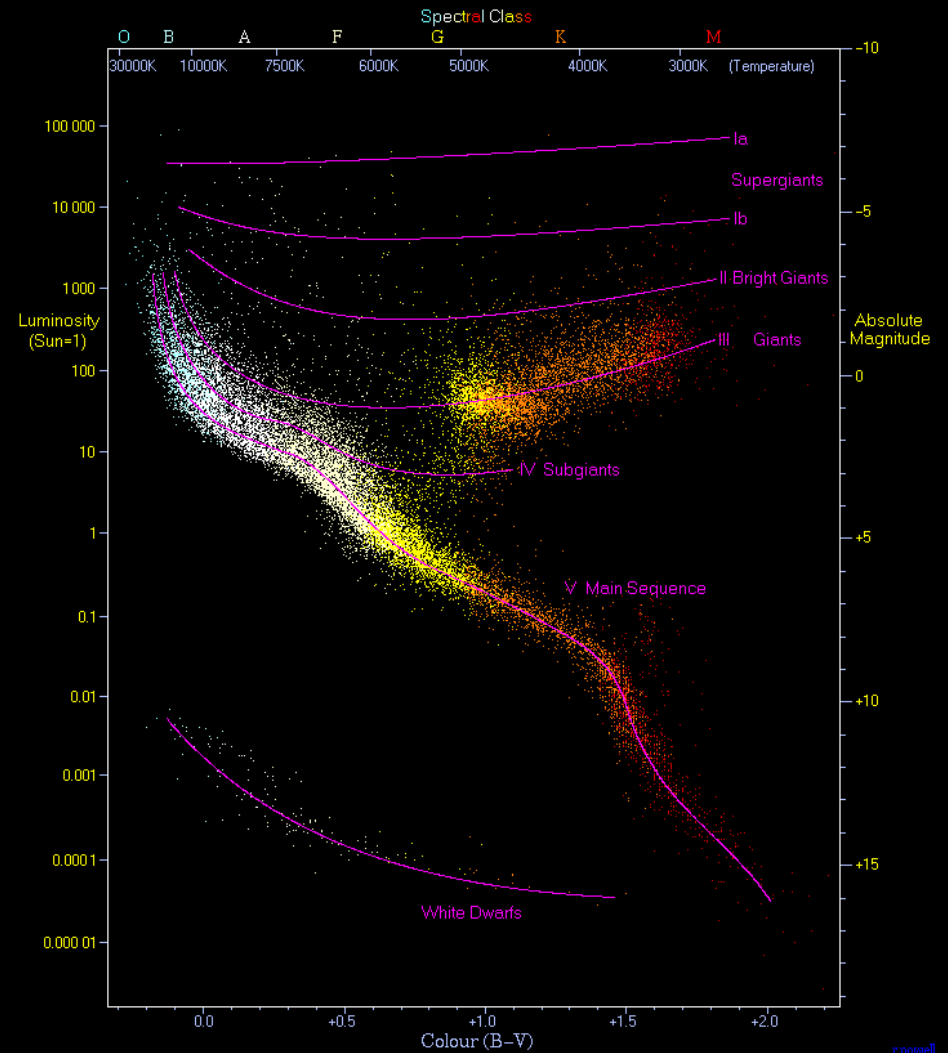
(Canary Islands)



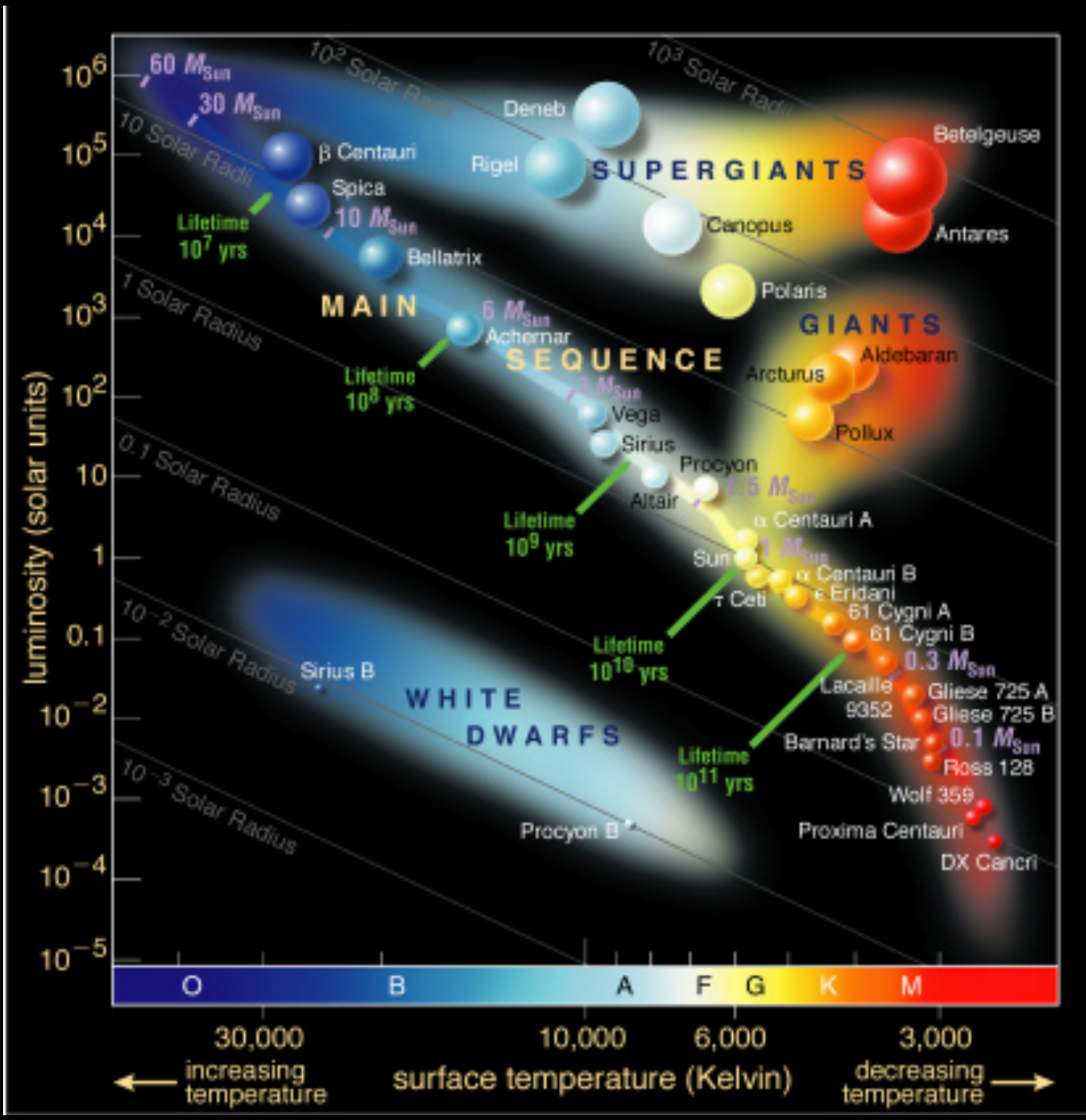
*Daniel López*  
*cielosdelteide.com*

# Hertzsprung-Russell Diagrams

- The “HRD” represents one way of grouping stars
- Three versions:
  - Theoretical - temperature plotted against luminosity
  - Observational - “color” plotted against apparent brightness
  - A 3rd version plots spectral class for color or for temperature





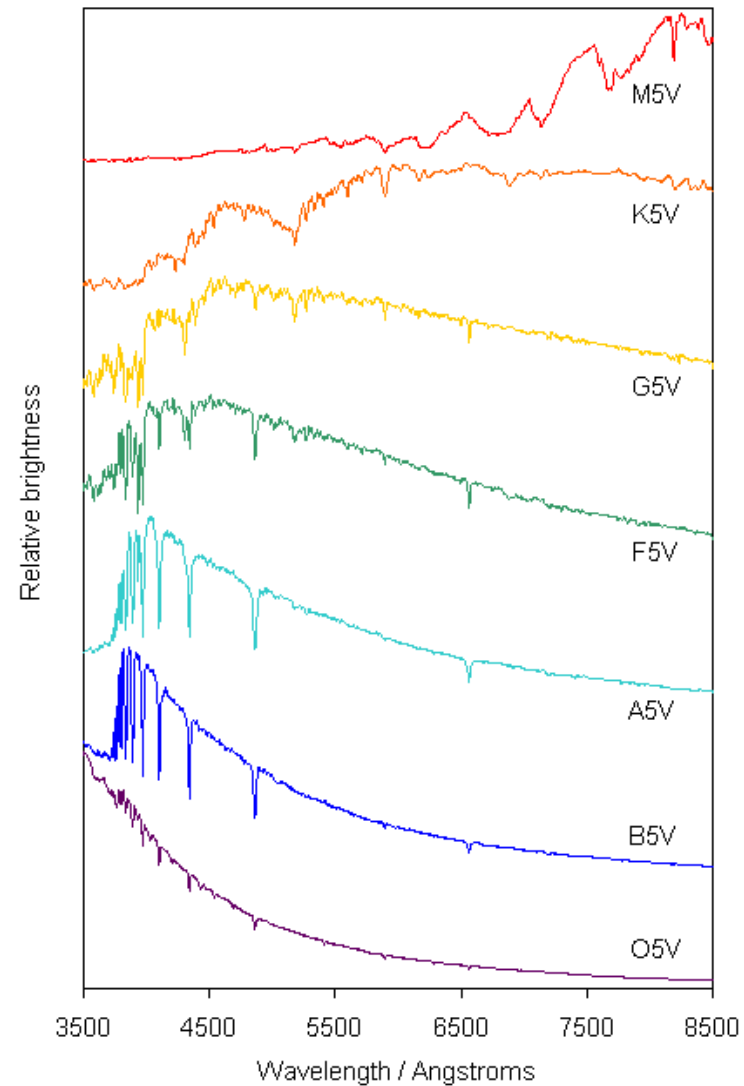


**Table 16.1 The Spectral Sequence**

Spectral Type	Example(s)	Temperature Range	Key Absorption Line Features	Brightest Wavelength (color)	Typical Spectrum
O	Stars of Orion's Belt	>30,000 K	Lines of ionized helium, weak hydrogen lines	<97 nm (ultraviolet)*	
B	Rigel	30,000 K–10,000 K	Lines of neutral helium, moderate hydrogen lines	97–290 nm (ultraviolet)*	
A	Sirius	10,000 K–7,500 K	Very strong hydrogen lines	290–390 nm (violet)*	
F	Polaris	7,500 K–6,000 K	Moderate hydrogen lines, moderate lines of ionized calcium	390–480 nm (blue)*	
G	Sun, Alpha Centauri A	6,000 K–5,000 K	Weak hydrogen lines, strong lines of ionized calcium	480–580 nm (yellow)	
K	Arcturus	5,000 K–3,500 K	Lines of neutral and singly ionized metals, some molecules	580–830 nm (red)	
M	Betelgeuse, Proxima Centauri	<3,500 K	Molecular lines strong	>830 nm (infrared)	

\*All stars above 6,000 K look more or less white to the human eye because they emit plenty of radiation at all visible wavelengths.

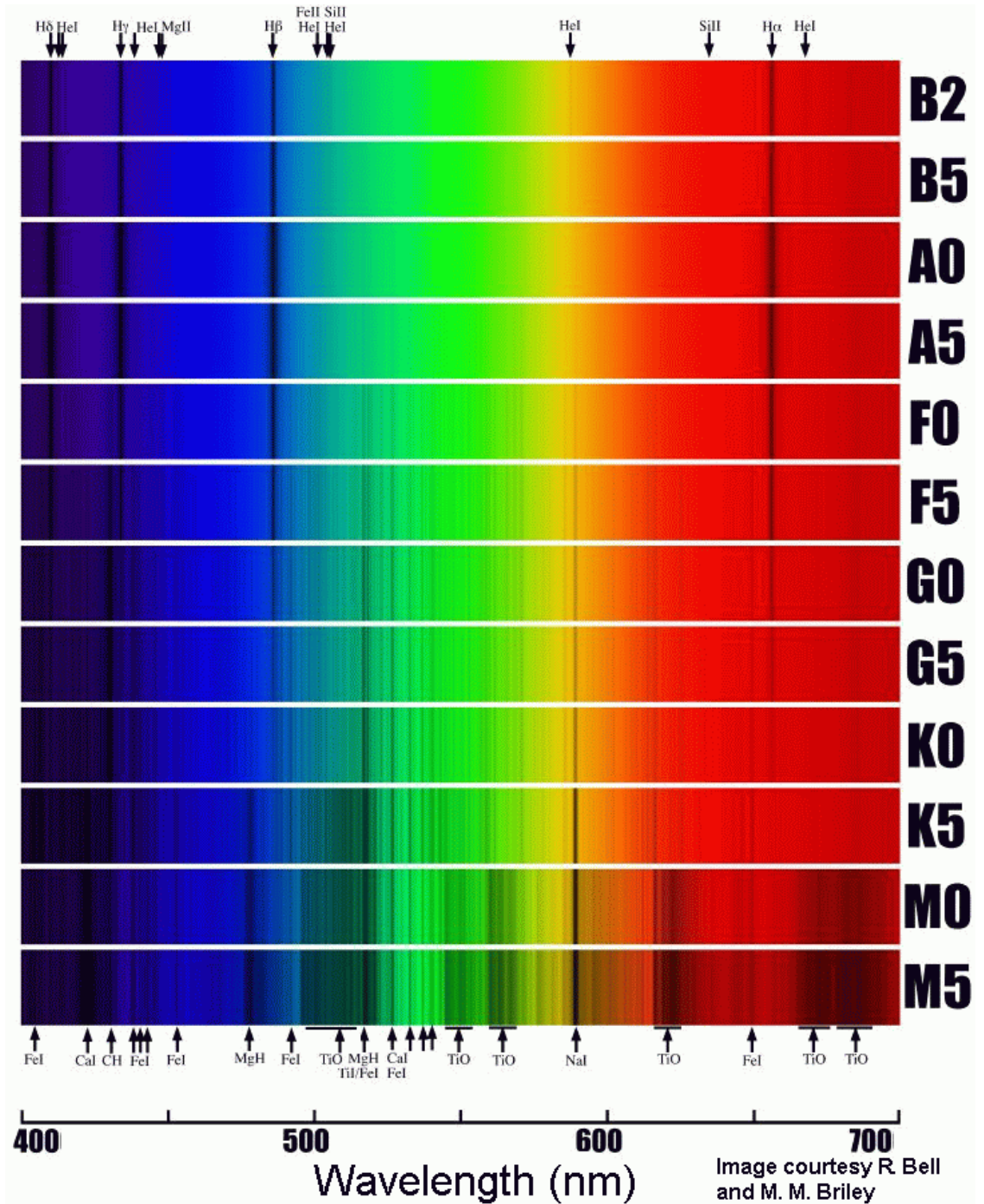
# Spectral Sequence in Visible Light



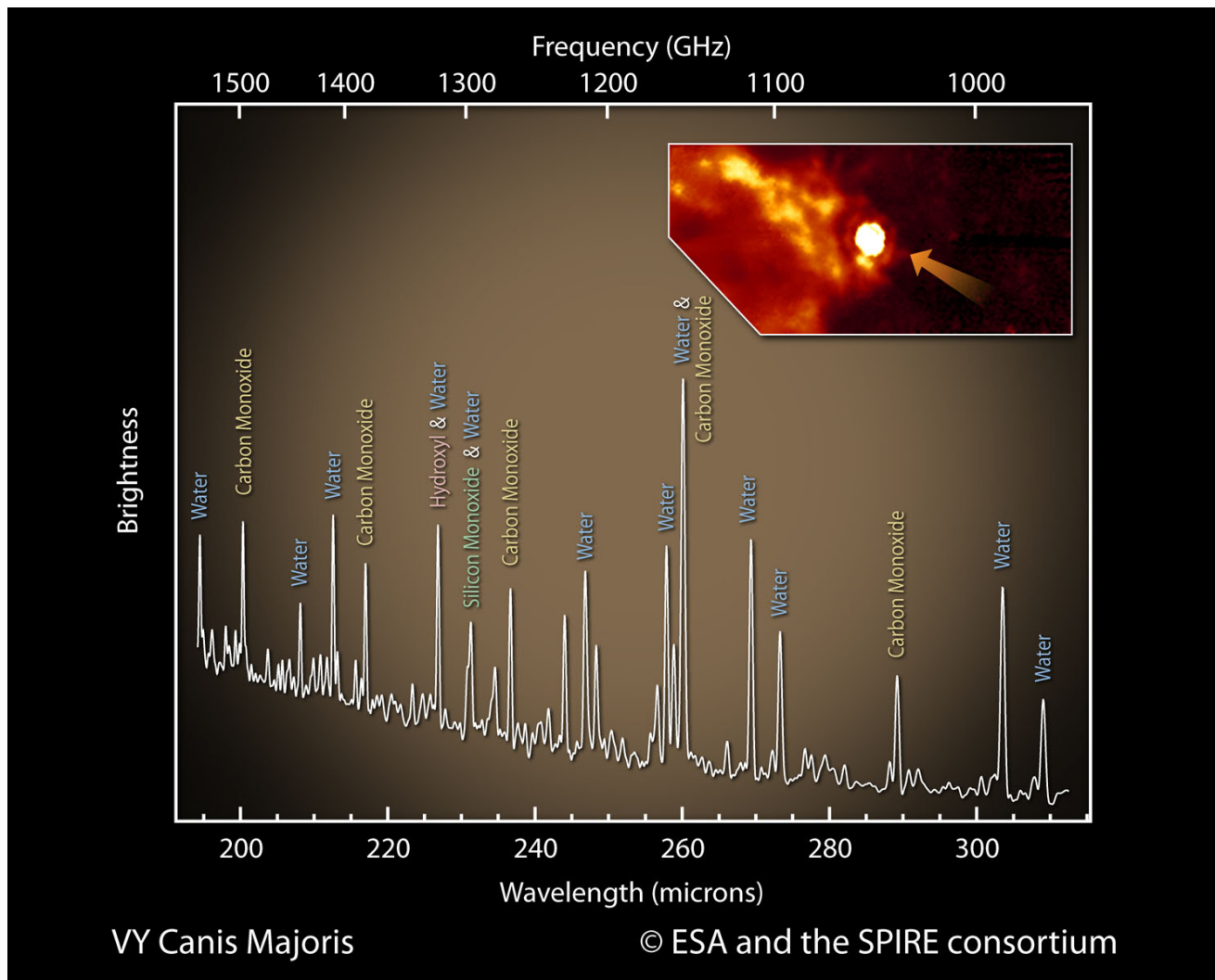


# Detailed Line IDs

Just for show ...

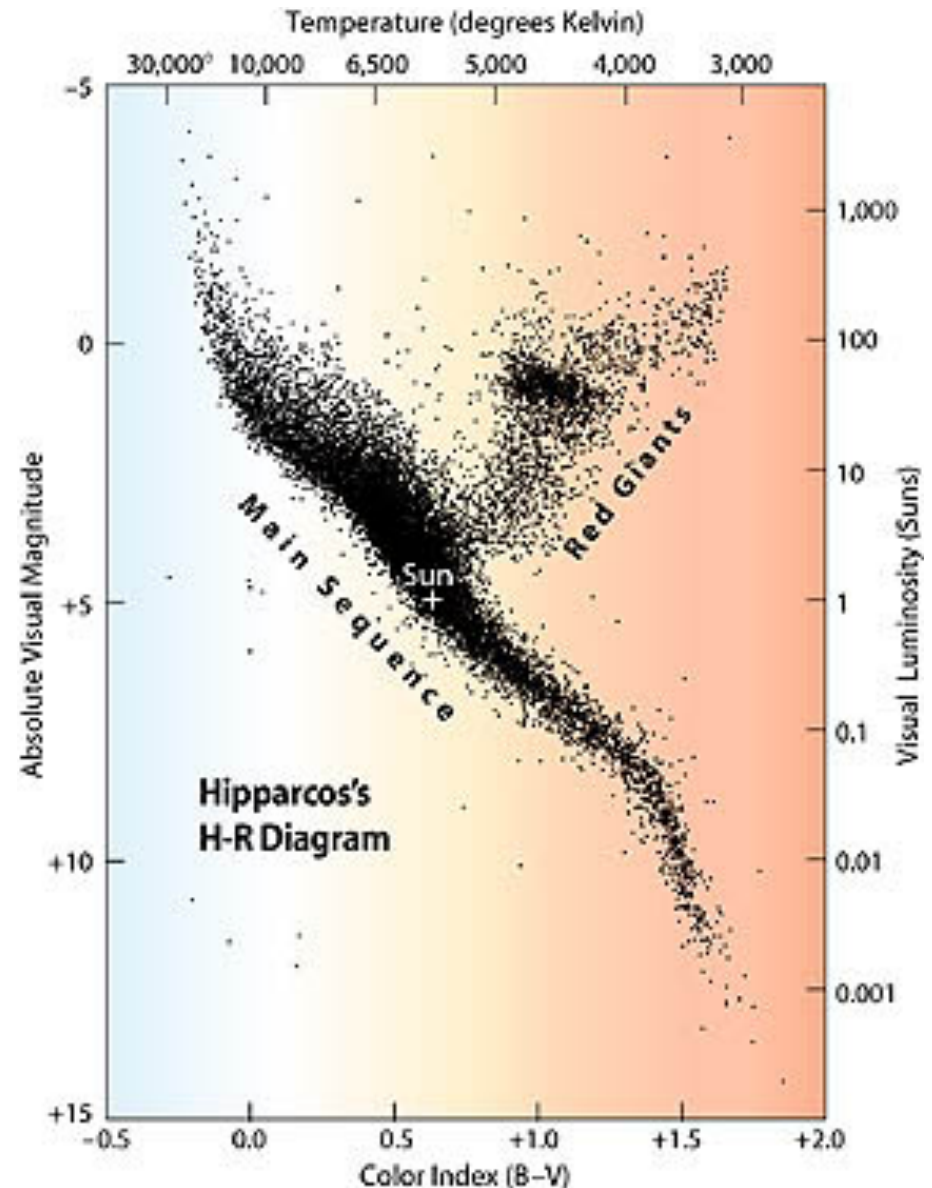


*The Largest Known Star.* This red hypergiant with about 35 times the Sun's mass is about 2600x bigger than the Sun (like Jupiter's orbit)



# Observational HRD

Astronomers can easily construct color-magnitude diagrams which are just like a HRD, because color relates to temperature and magnitude to luminosity. For a bunch of stars at the same distance, brighter ones are more luminous (and vice versa).





# Magnitudes

Magnitudes are a logarithm (i.e., powers of ten) approach to specifying brightnesses

- Apparent magnitude

$$m = -2.5 \log (\text{flux}) + \text{constant}$$

so  $m$  relates to apparent brightness

- Absolute magnitude  $M$  is  $m$  at a particular distance, namely 10 parsecs, so

$$M = -2.5 \log [ L / 4\pi (10 \text{ pcs})^2 ] + \text{constant}$$

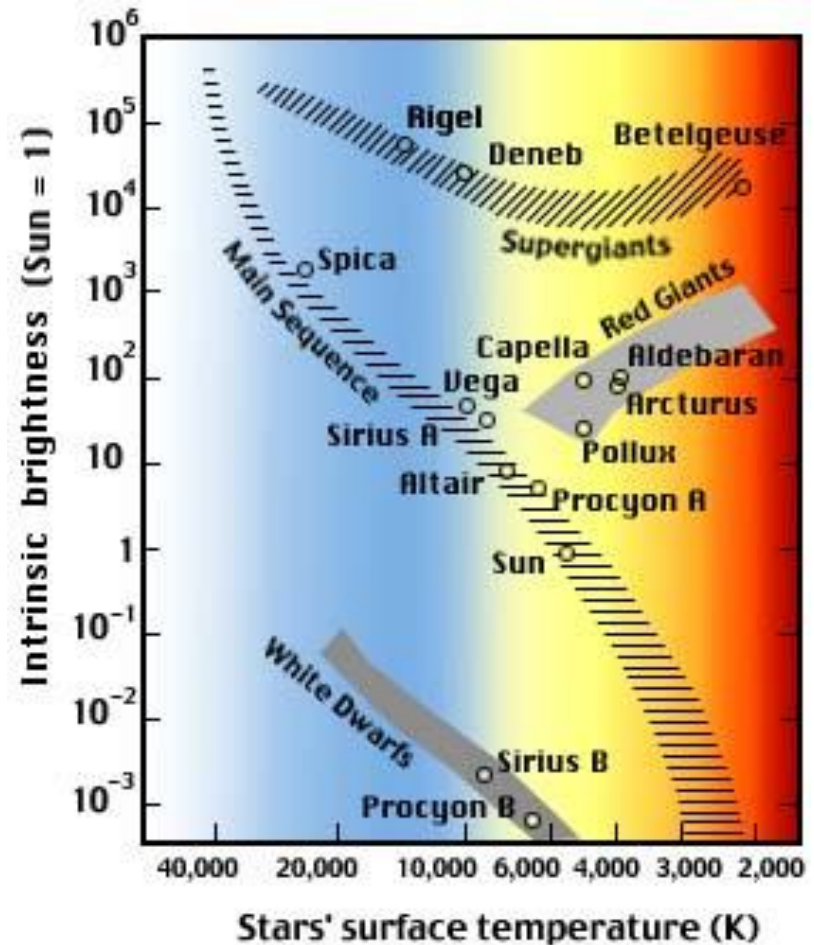
so  $M$  relates to intrinsic brightness, in terms of luminosity

- Distance modulus is a way of relating an object's distance to its magnitude

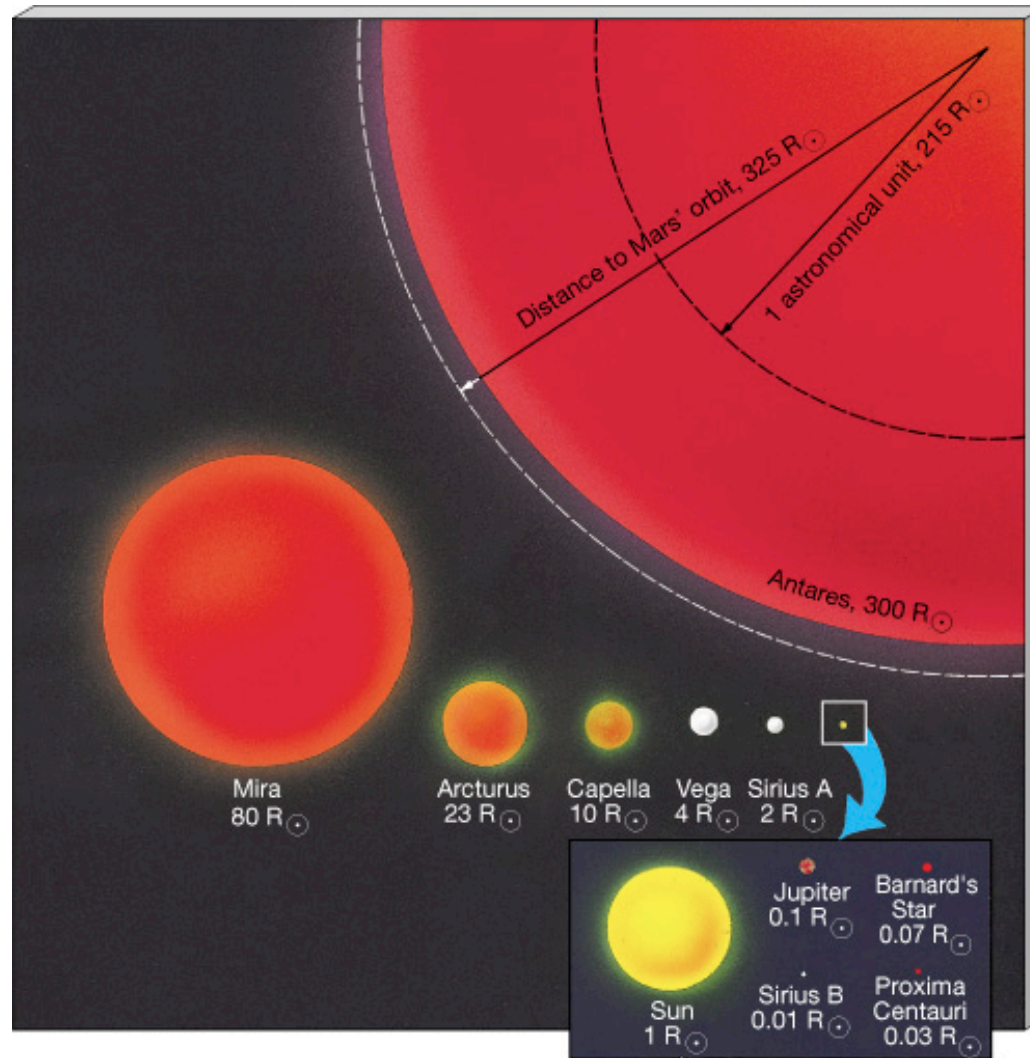
$$m - M = -5 \log( d / 10 \text{ pcs } )$$

# HRD Zones

- Main Sequence - where stars spend most of their lives; stars on the Main Seq. are undergoing core hydrogen fusion
- Giants – beginning of the end for a star
- Supergiants – as above, but for massive stars
- White Dwarf Branch - “dead” low-mass stars



# Range of Stellar Sizes





# How are spectral types useful?

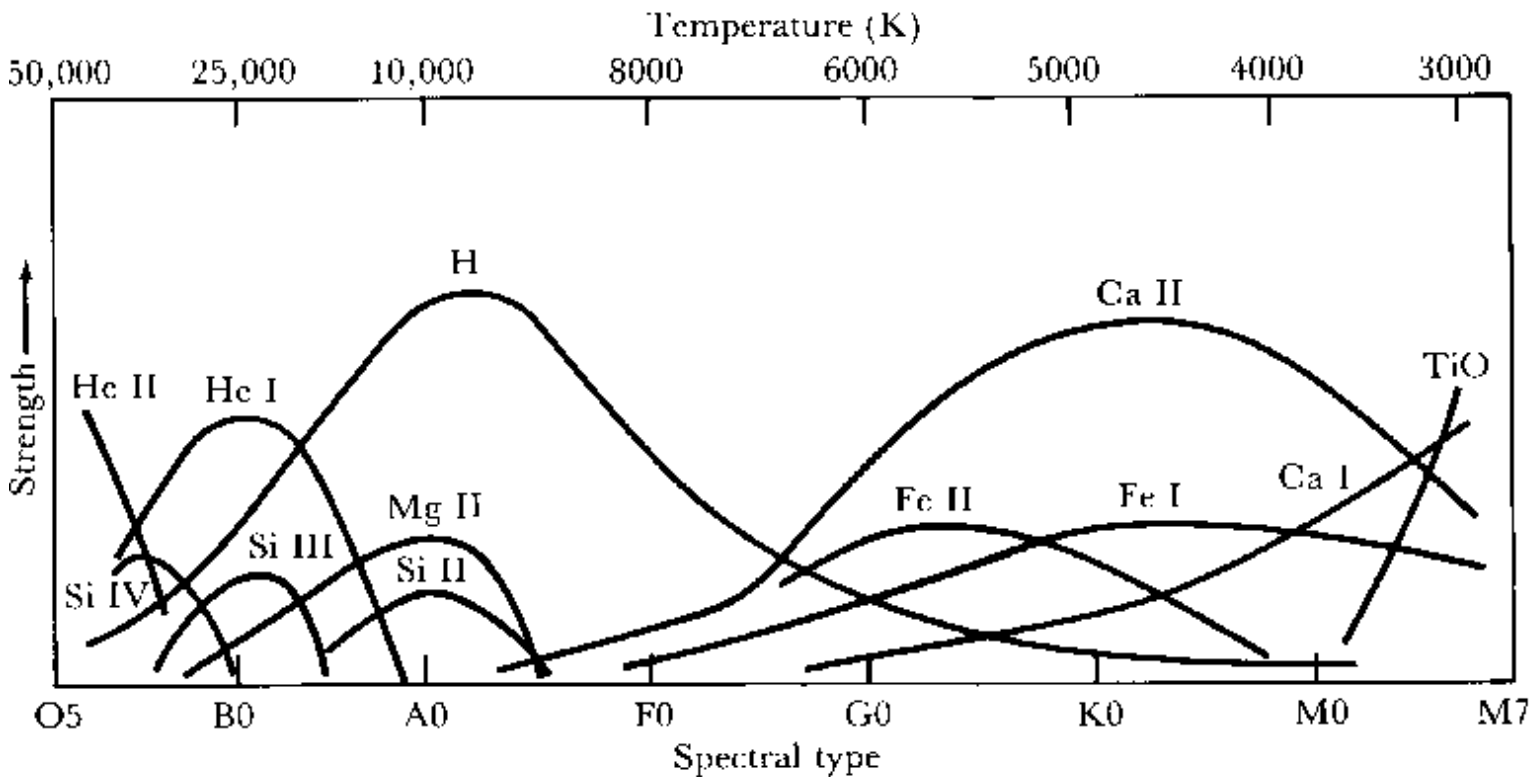
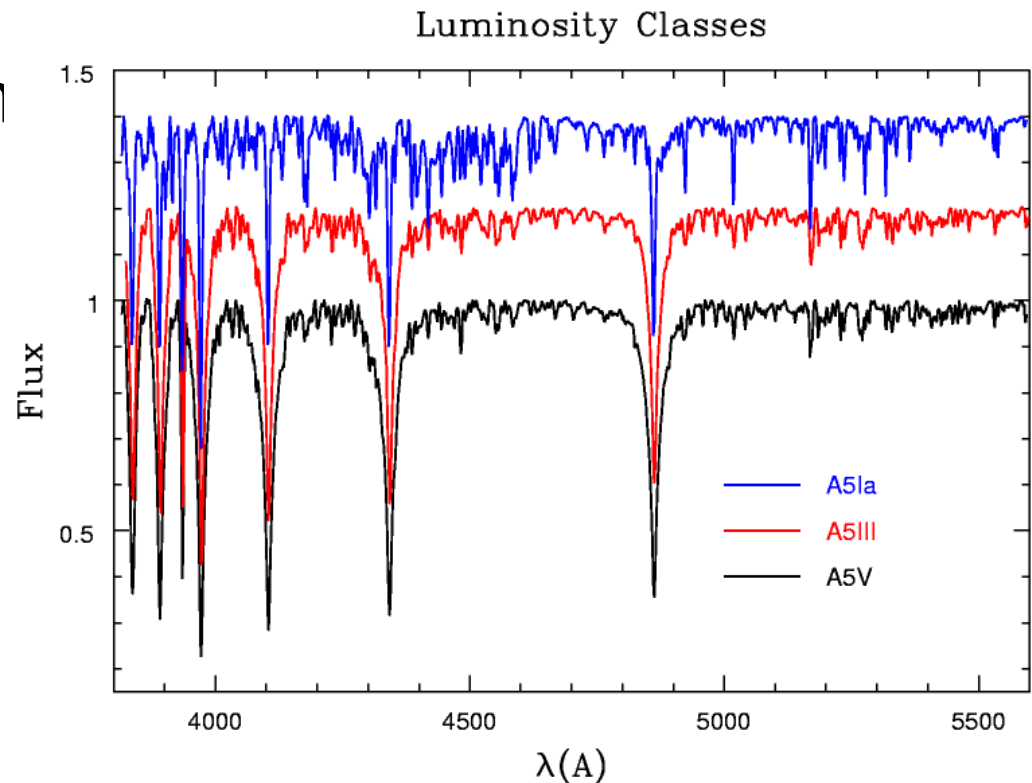


Figure 12-9  
Kaulman  
DISCOVERING THE UNIVERSE  
Second Edition  
© 1990, W. H. Freeman and Company

# Luminosity Classes

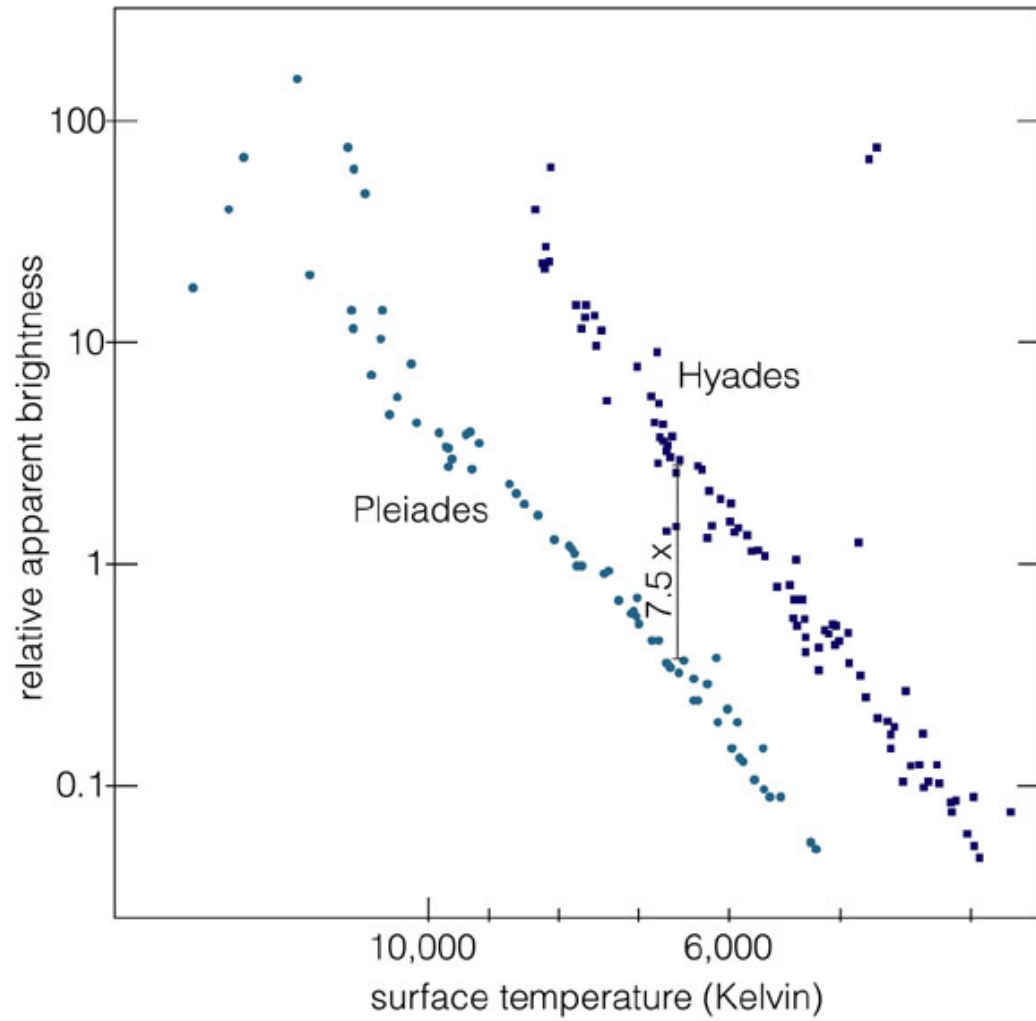
Luminosity classes are distinguished from using measures of spectral line widths

- I = supergiant
- III = giant
- V = main sequence



# Spectroscopic Parallax

- Examples of two clusters of stars
- The points lying along straight lines make up the main seq.
- The vertical gap results from the clusters being at different **distances**.

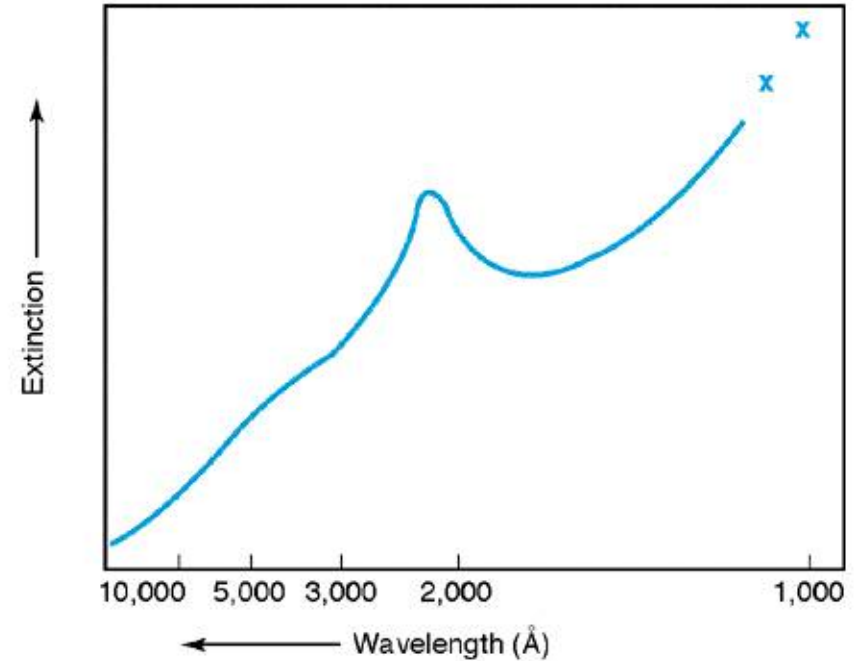
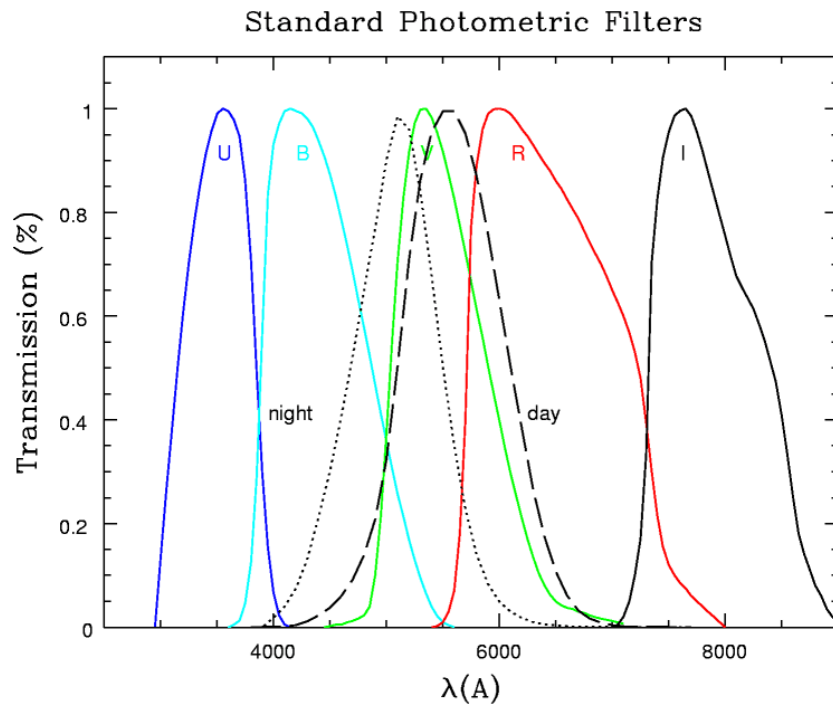


# A Challenge for Magnitudes: Extinction

- The space between stars (the Interstellar Medium, or ISM) is not a vacuum, but filled with gas and dust.
- Extinction is “space haze” that makes objects appear dimmer than they really are
  - observed flux  $<$  true flux
  - so, inferred distance  $>$  true distance



# Getting Star Colors



- Left are how color bands are defined
- Right shows how extinction becomes worse toward bluer light

# Reddening

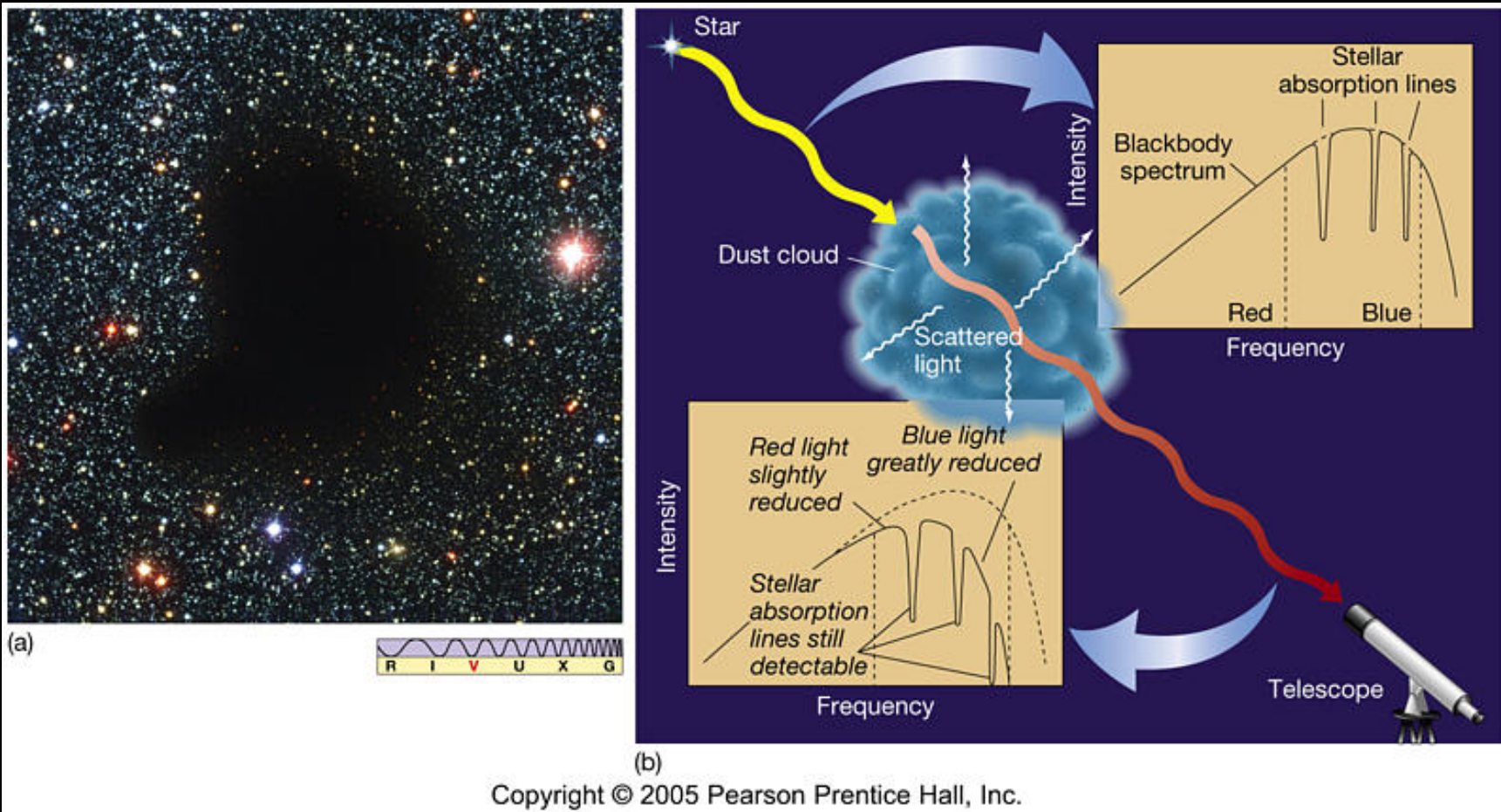
- Extinction dims starlight, but dimming by dust and gas is more severe for blue light than red
- *Reddening is color-dependent extinction*, resulting in an object appearing more red than it should
  - mMesses up spectral typing!
  - observed  $L_B/L_V < \text{true } L_B/L_V$

Extinction/reddening are difficult to correct; they reduce confidence in distances derived from spectroscopic parallax

# Severe Reddening



# Influence of Reddening on Spectra





# Stellar Census

- Most stars are on the Main Seq. Of these, most are low mass, low luminosity, red stars.
- Hot, massive stars are rare.
- HOWEVER, massive stars and giant stars are so much more luminous than red dwarfs, that they *dominate* the light output from galaxies

# Binary Star Systems

## **EXTREMELY IMPORTANT**

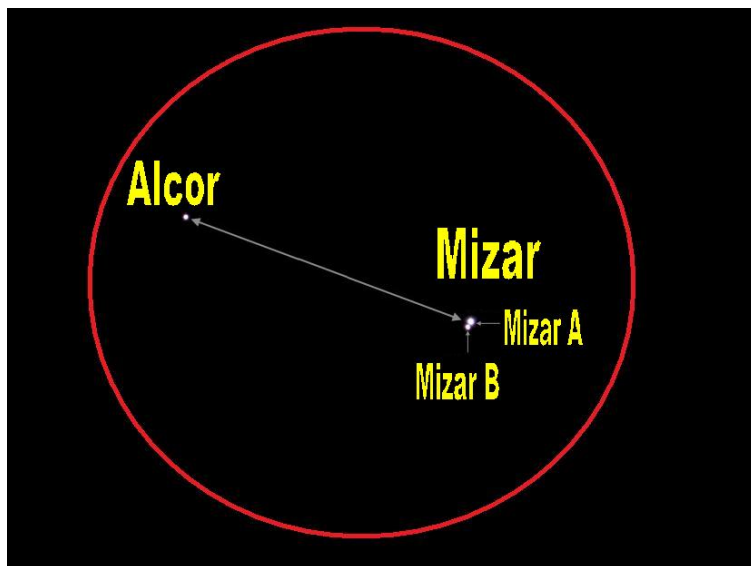
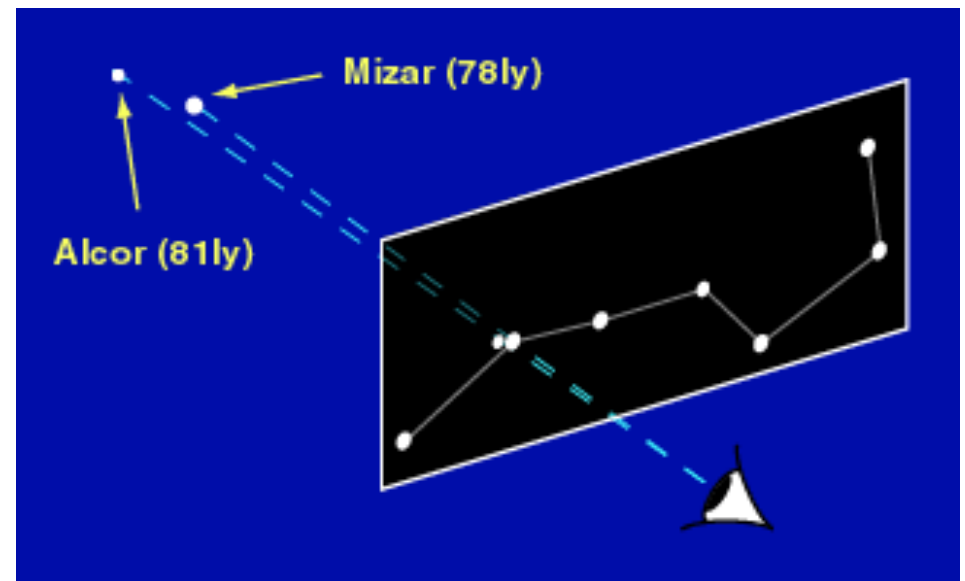
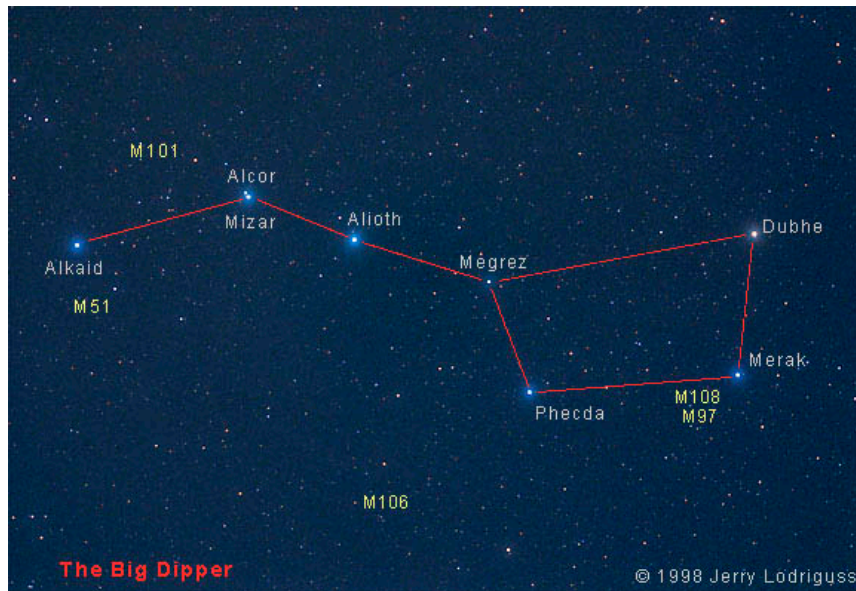
- Binaries consist of two stars orbiting one another because of gravity
- Can use Kepler's Laws to derive masses directly!

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

# Wide and Close Binaries

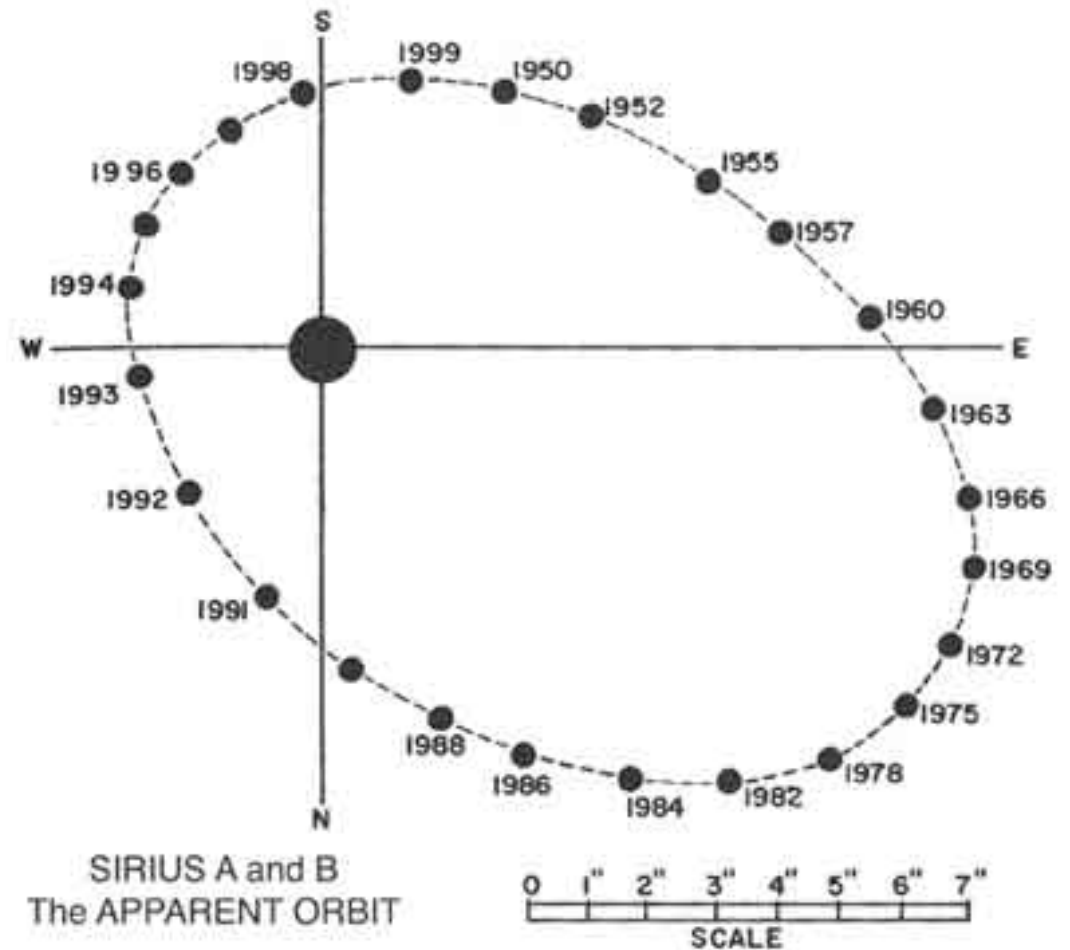
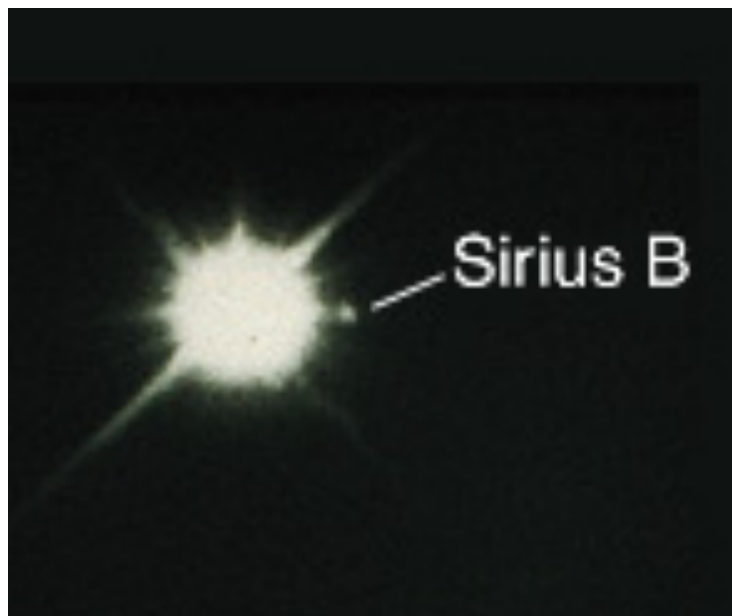
- *Wide*: two stars are so far apart that they hardly interact, as if each were in isolation
- *Close*: two stars are near enough to interact; for example, mass exchange (possibly even engulfment)

# Alcor and Mizar





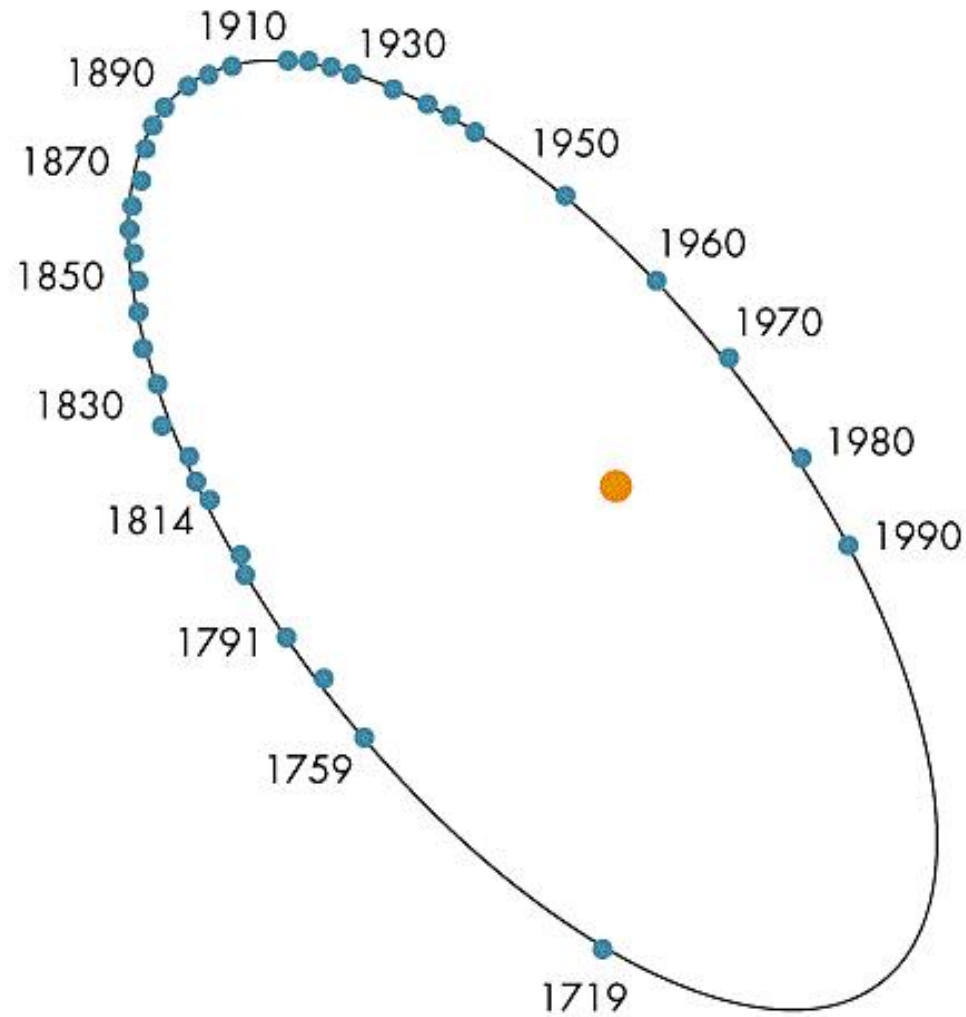
# The Binary Sirius



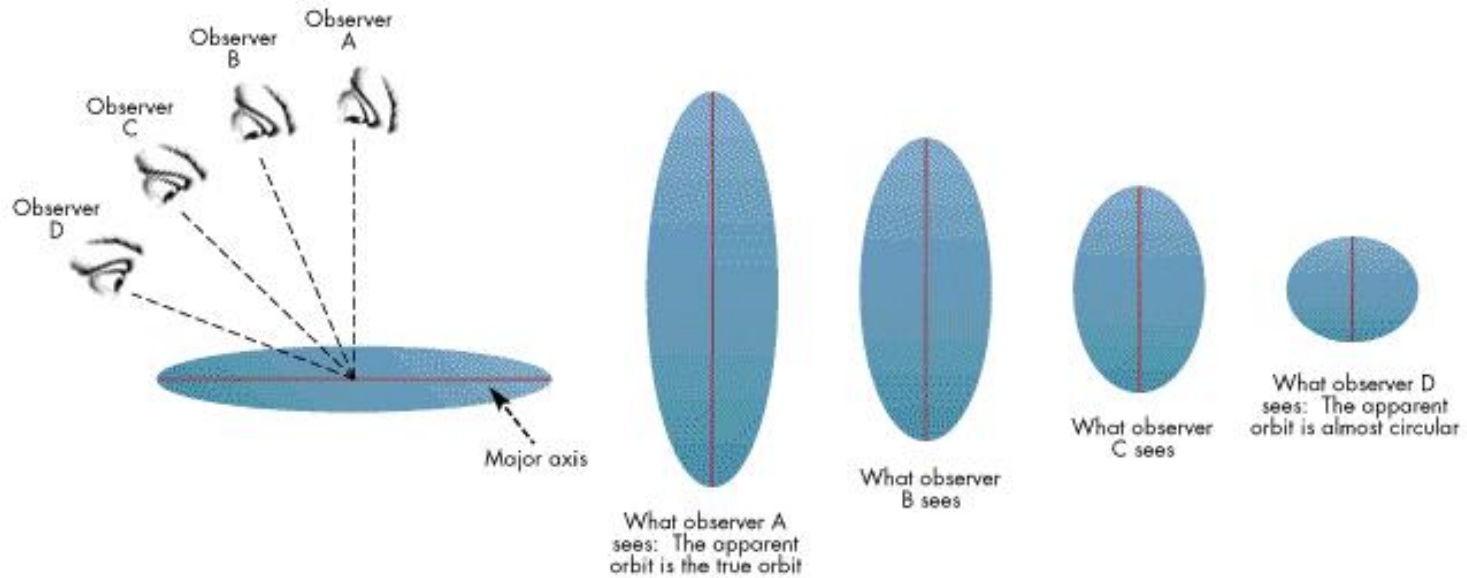
# Binary Types

- i. Visual double – not a true binary
- ii. Visual binary – true binary in which each star can be seen
- iii. Spectroscopic binary – binarity as evidenced by periodic movement of spectral lines owing to the Doppler effect as stars execute their orbital motion
- iv. Eclipsing binary – orientation is such that the two stars alternately pass in front of each other over one full orbit

# The Binary of Castor (Gemini)

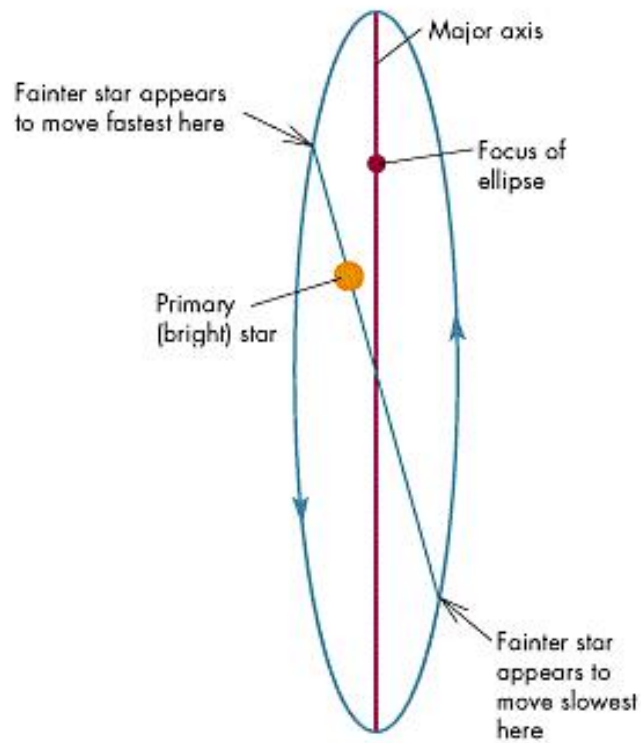


# Orbit Projections

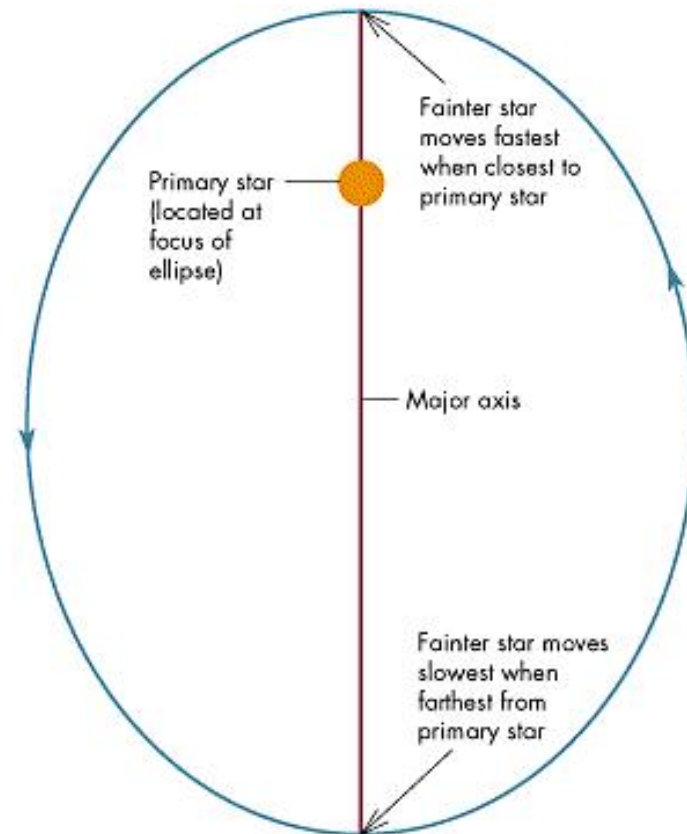




# The alpha Cen Example



**A** Apparent orbit: Kepler's laws appear to be violated

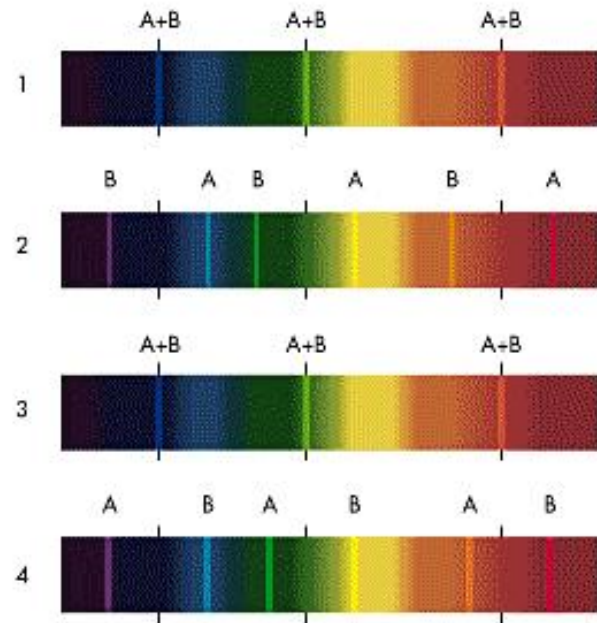
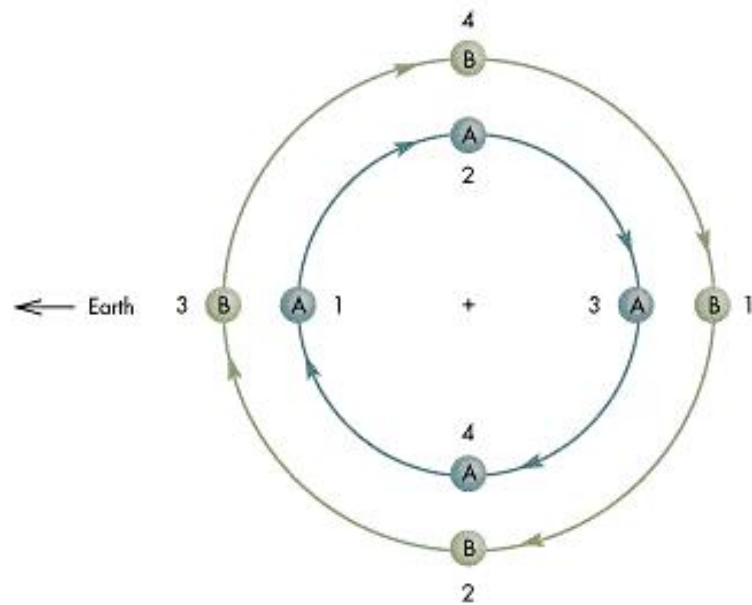


**B** True orbit: Kepler's laws are obeyed

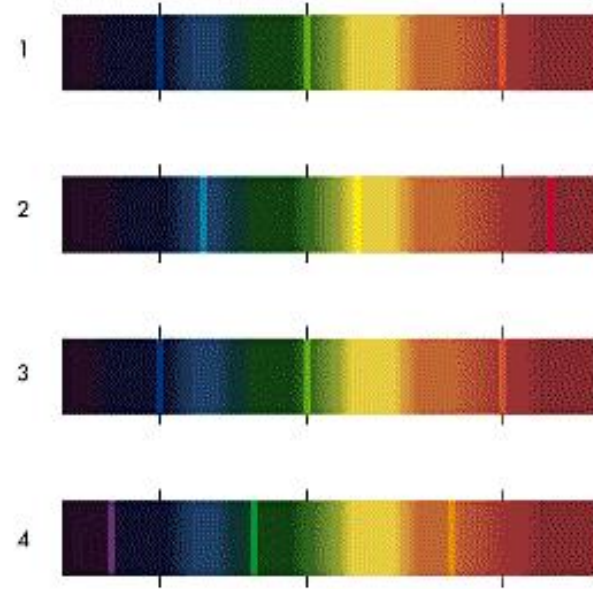
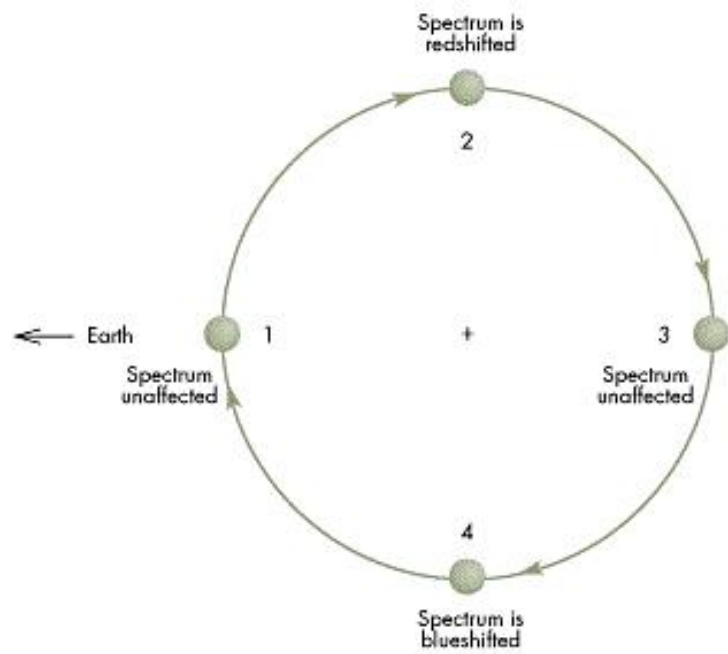
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- iii. **Spectroscopic binary – binarity as evidenced by periodic movement of spectral lines owing to the Doppler effect as stars execute their orbital motion**
- iv. Eclipsing binary – orientation is such that the two stars alternately pass in front of each other over one full orbit

# Double-Lined Spectroscopic Binaries



# Single-Lined Spectroscopic Binaries

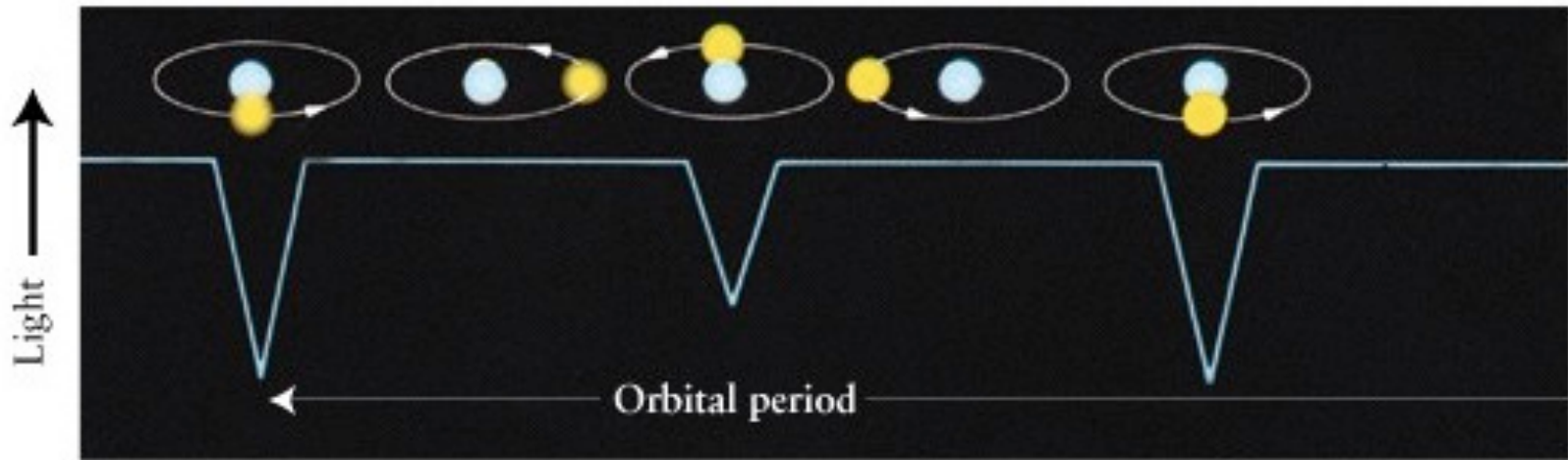


# Binary Types

- i. Visual double – not a true binary
- ii. Visual binary – true binary in which each star can be seen
- iii. Spectroscopic binary – binarity as evidenced by periodic movement of spectral lines owing to the Doppler effect as stars execute their orbital motion
- iv. **Eclipsing binary – orientation is such that the two stars alternately pass in front of each other over one full orbit**

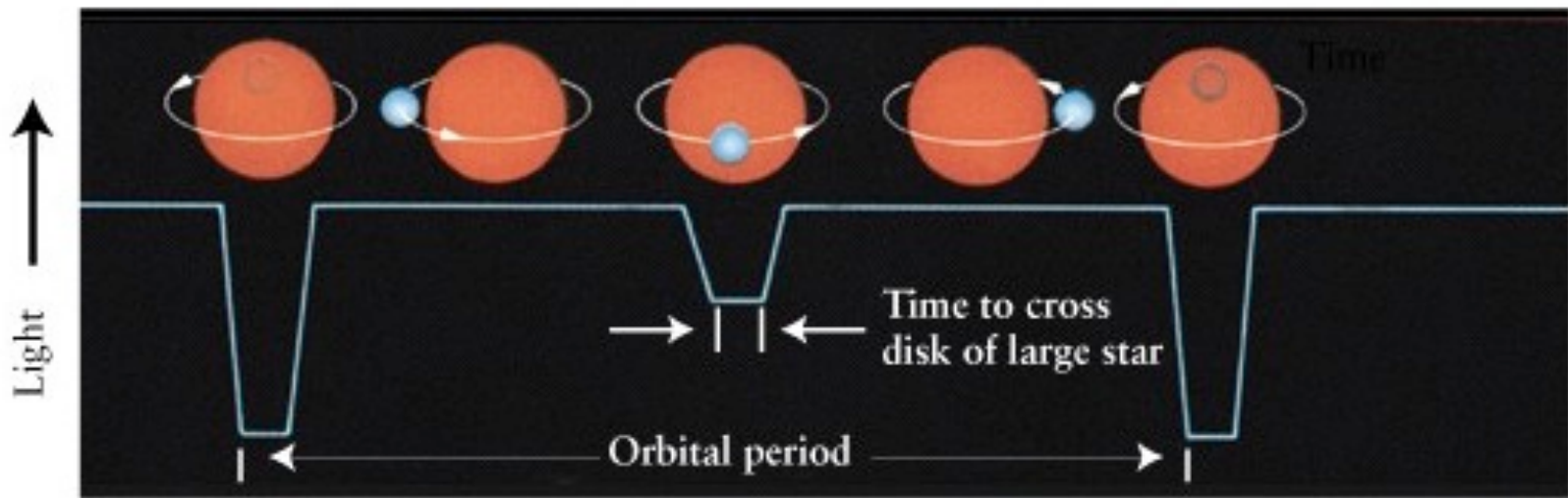


# Eclipse Effects



a Partial eclipse

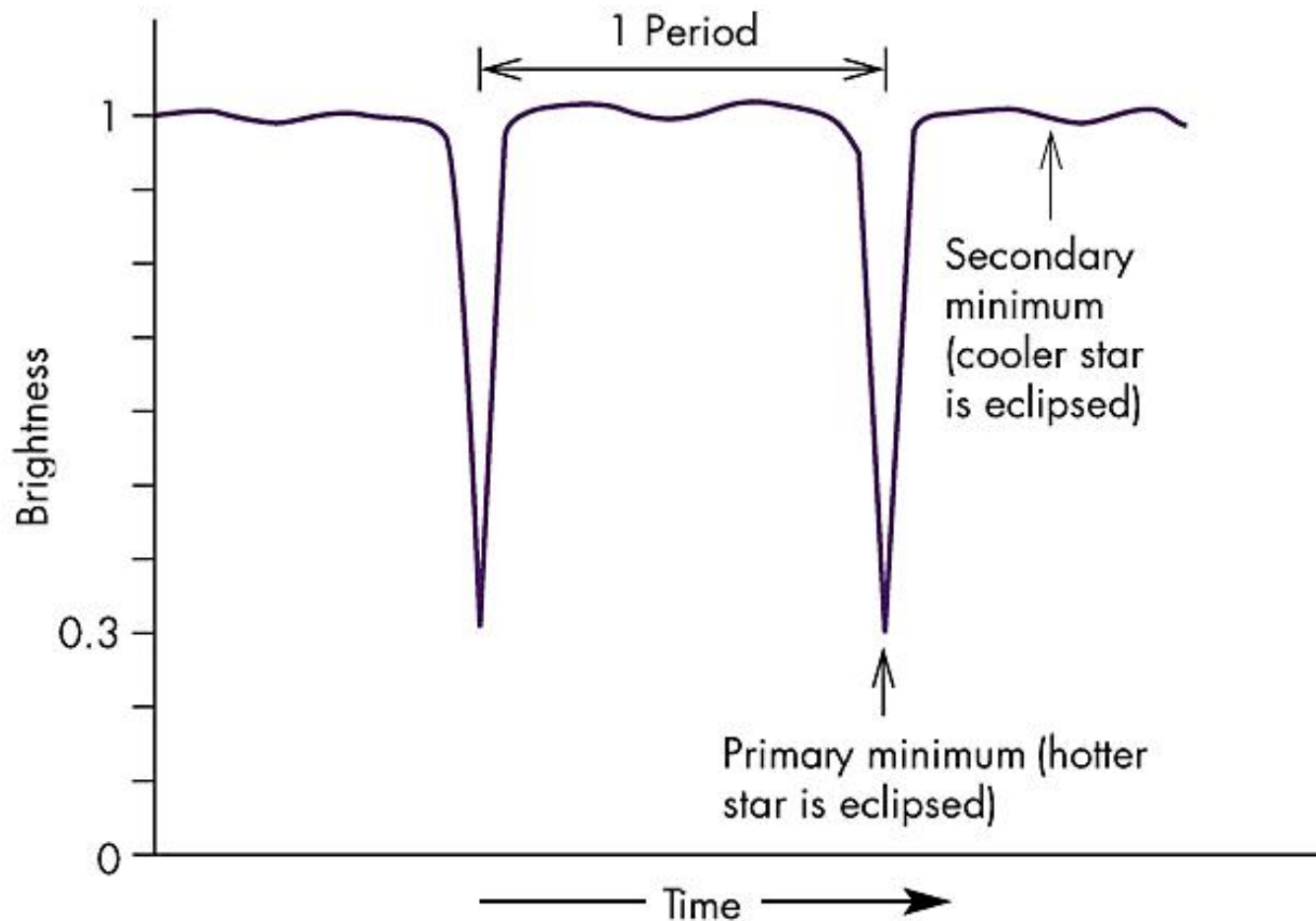
Time →



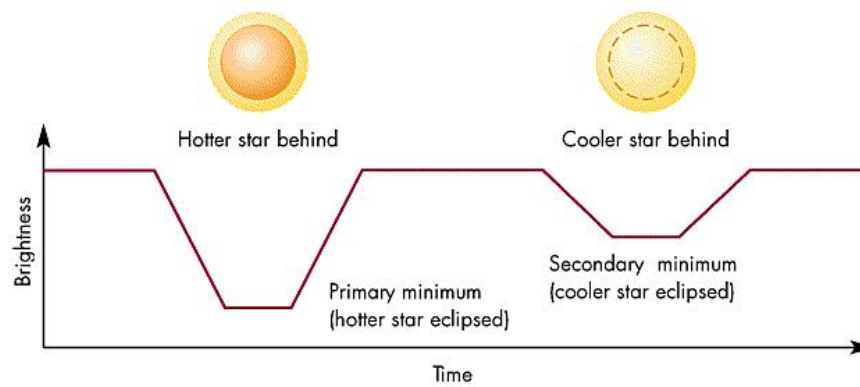
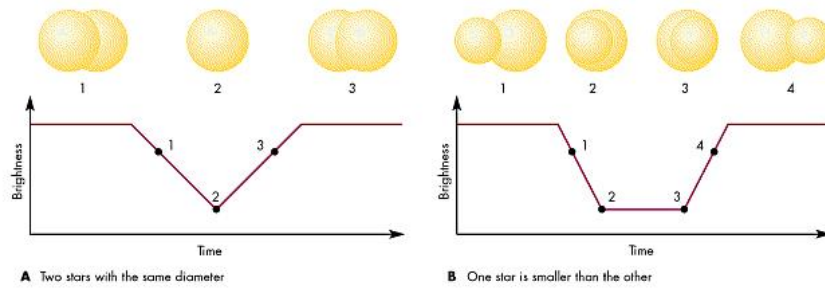
b Total eclipse

Time →

# The Eclipsing Binary Algol



# The Edge-On Case



# Stellar Structure

- Stars change rather slowly with time, maintaining overall nearly constant  $L$ ,  $M$ ,  $R$ ,  $T$  over millions or even billions of years
- Can we develop models to accurately represent the interior portions of stars?

YES!

# Relevant Rules of Physics

- Assume spherical symmetry and that nothing changes with time, then
  - Conserve mass
  - Conserve energy
  - Conserve momentum ( $F=ma$ ): balance forces, hydrostatic equilibrium
  - Energy transport (e.g., convection)
  - Energy generation (e.g., fusion)
  - Opacity (absorption of light)
  - Composition (amount of H, He, ...)

*Hey, just turn the crank!*



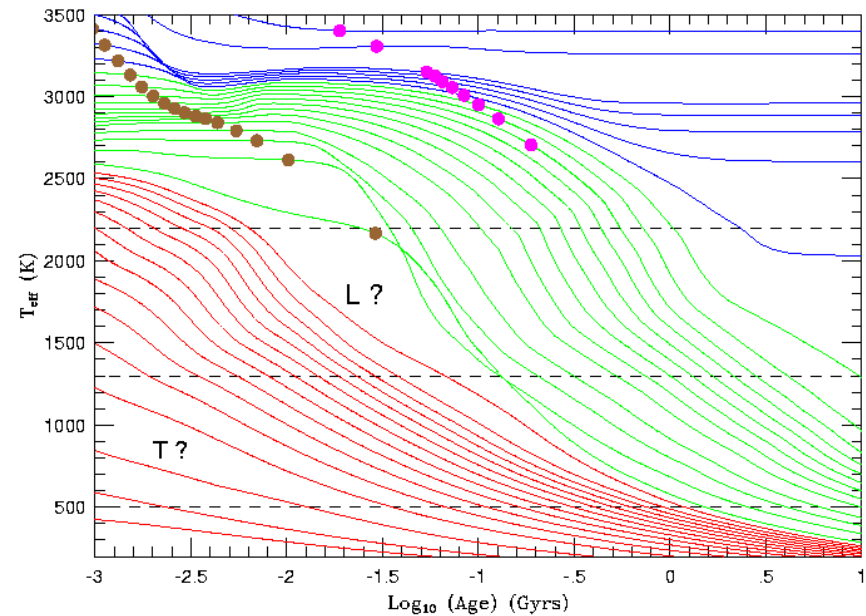
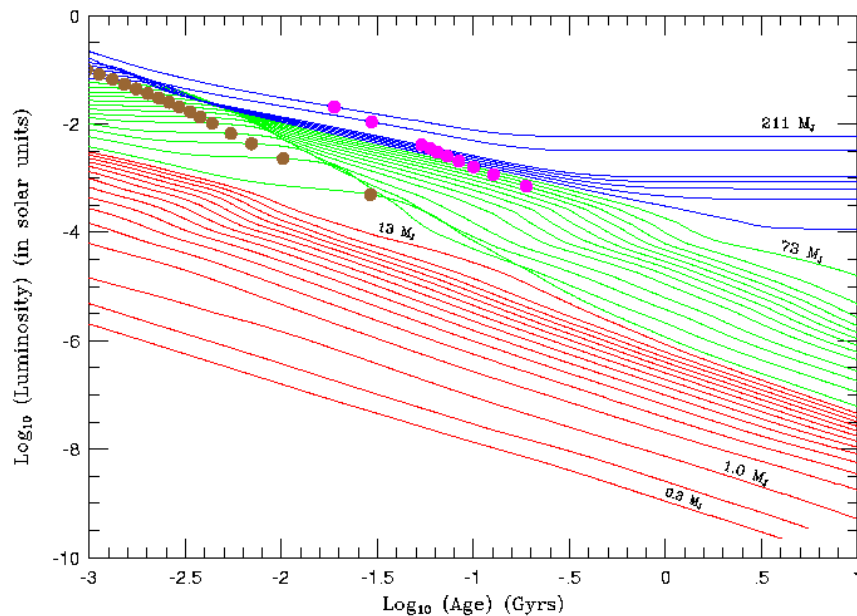
# HSEQ

- OK, gravity generally seeks to pull matter together, so what prevents the Earth, Moon, and Sun from collapsing under their own weight?!
- For Earth and Moon, the structure of rock can uphold itself against gravity.
- For Sun (a big ball of gas), gas pressure does the trick.

# Brown Dwarfs

- Stars are by definition large gaseous bodies that undergo core H-fusion
- Only bodies with  $M > 0.08 M_{\odot}$  do so
- Less massive bodies are “failed stars”, or Brown Dwarfs (BDs)
- If mass low enough, it is a planet (e.g., Jupiter is *not* a BD)

# Brown Dwarf Properties



Red: stars with hydrogen burning; Green: brown dwarfs with lithium and deuterium burning; Blue: planets can have some deuterium burning

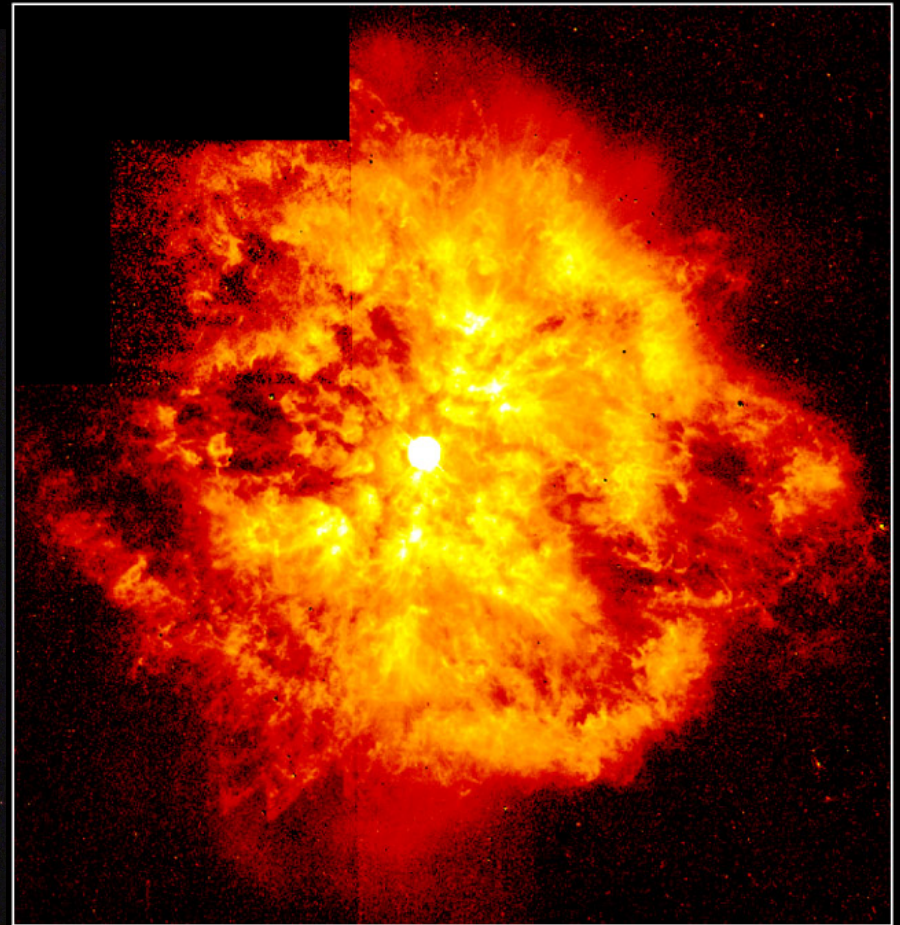
# Eddington Limit

- Photons “random walk” or diffuse from core to photosphere. This occurs as atoms and electrons absorb and scatter (bounce) the photons.
- Aside from energy, photons also possess momentum, and so they give an outward “kick” against gravity as they work out.
- If strong enough, sum of kicks can exceed gravity, and star cannot hold together (unstable)

$$\frac{L}{L_{\odot}} > 30,000 \frac{M}{M_{\odot}}$$

- “Super-Eddington” if limit is exceeded

# Examples of Mass Loss



**Nebula M1-67 around Star WR124**

**HST • WFPC2**

PRC98-38 • STScI OPO • November 5, 1998

Y. Grosdidier and A. Moffat (University of Montreal) and NASA