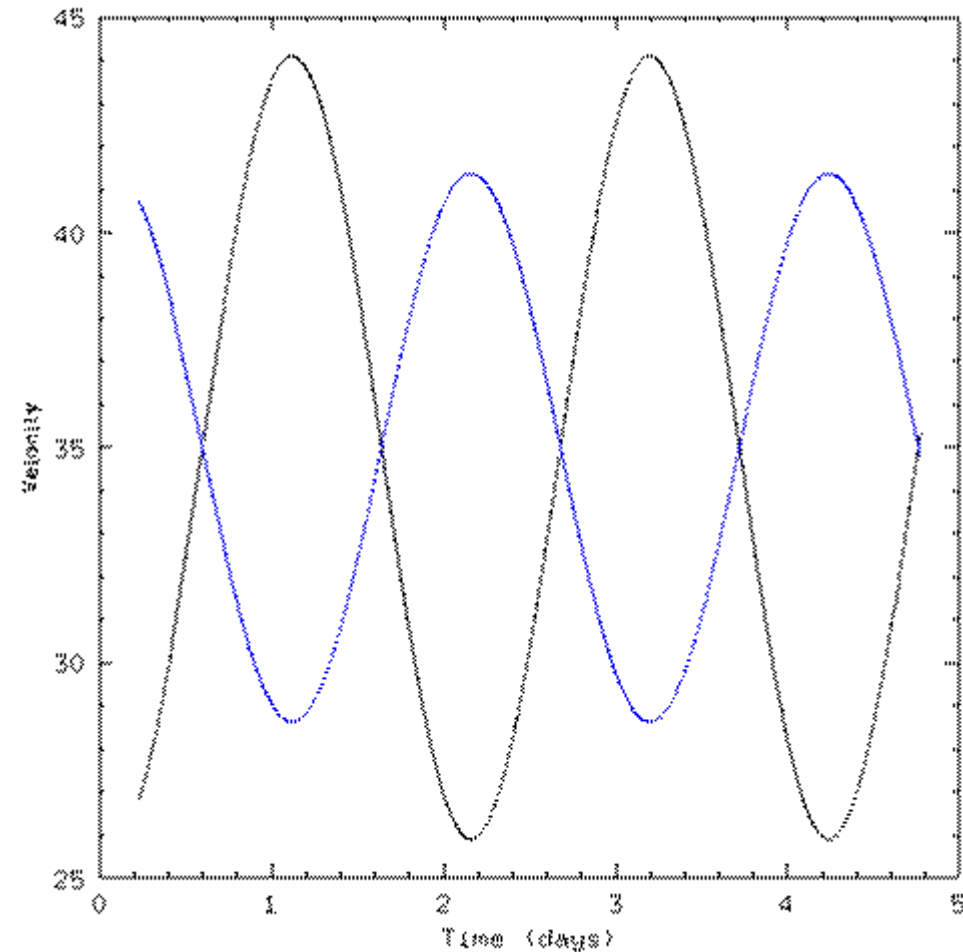


“Good people do not need laws to act responsibly,
while bad people will find ways around the laws.”

Plato



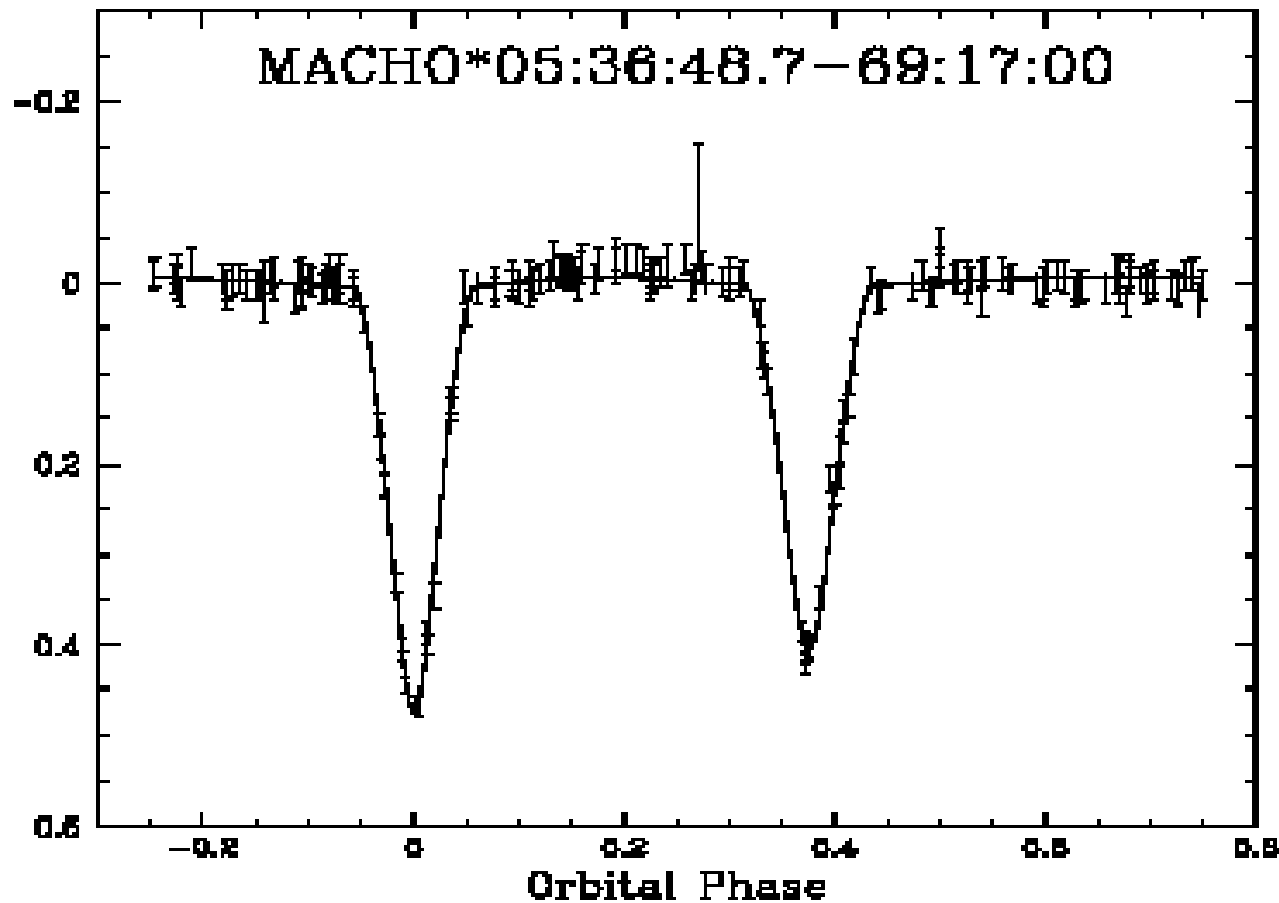
Because the **blue** track is for a star with slightly more mass than the black track. The star with the most mass moves the least.



Binary stars give us mass.

This is important! The *only* way we can determine masses of stars (besides our Sun) is from binaries!

Binary stars can also give extra information.

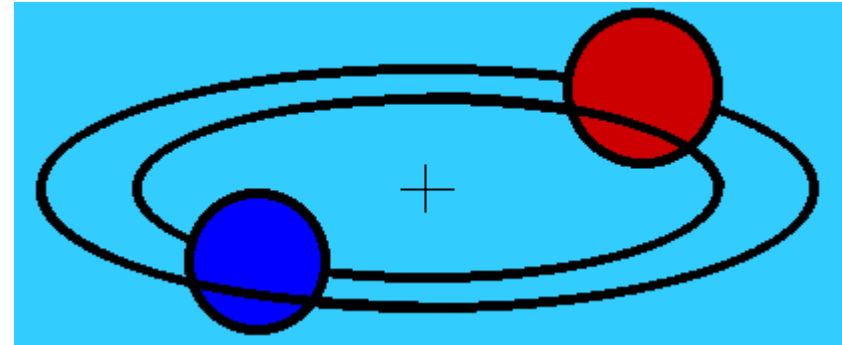
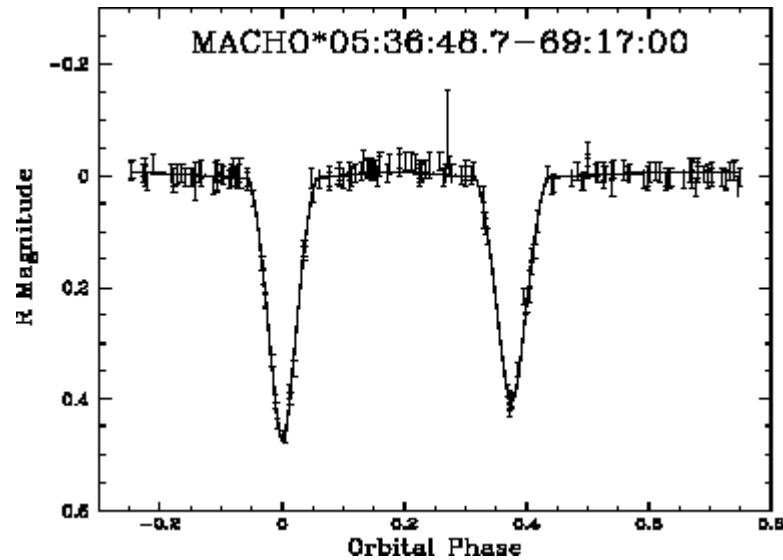


This is actual data.

The
y- axis is
brightness and the
x-axis is time
through one orbit.

Why is the
brightness
changing?

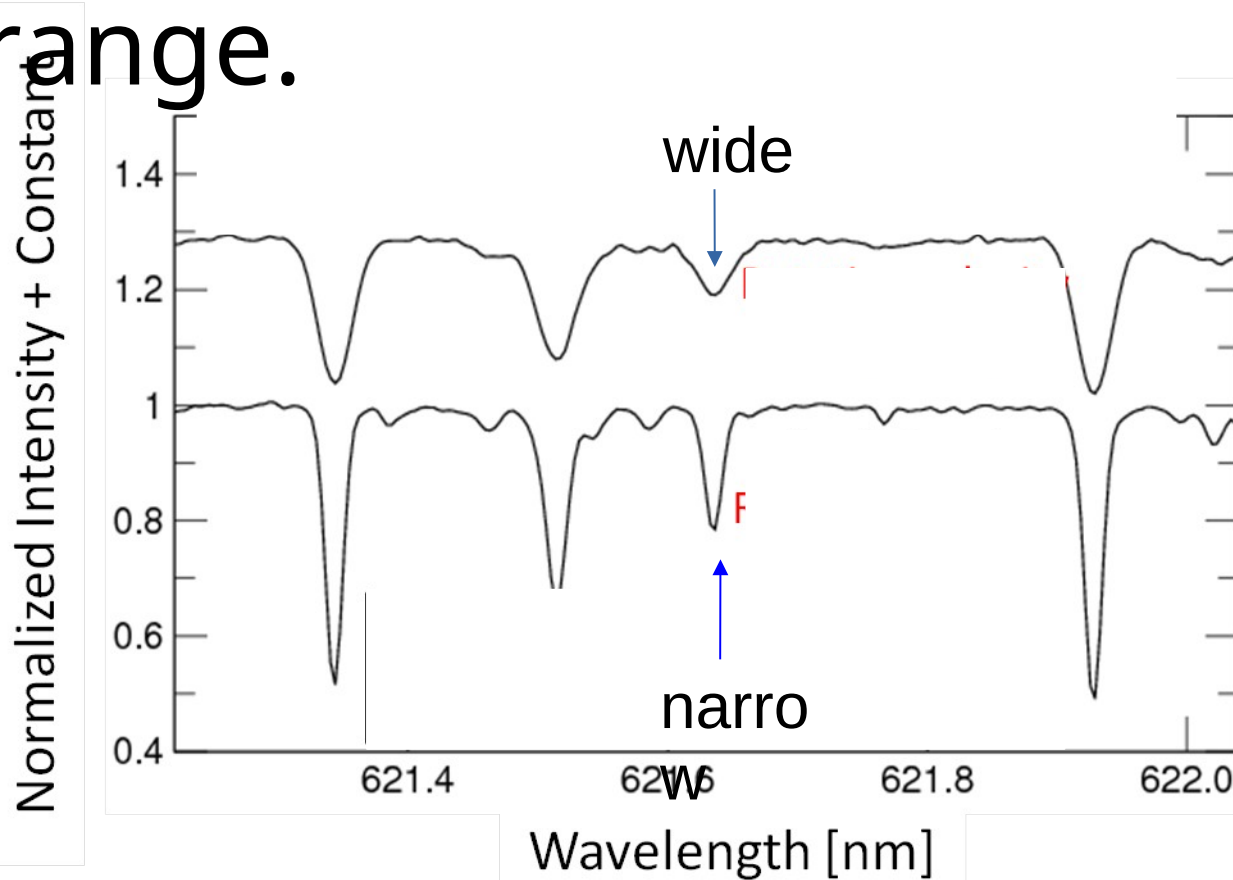
Because this is an eclipsing binary.



As one star passes in front of another star, the total light is reduced.

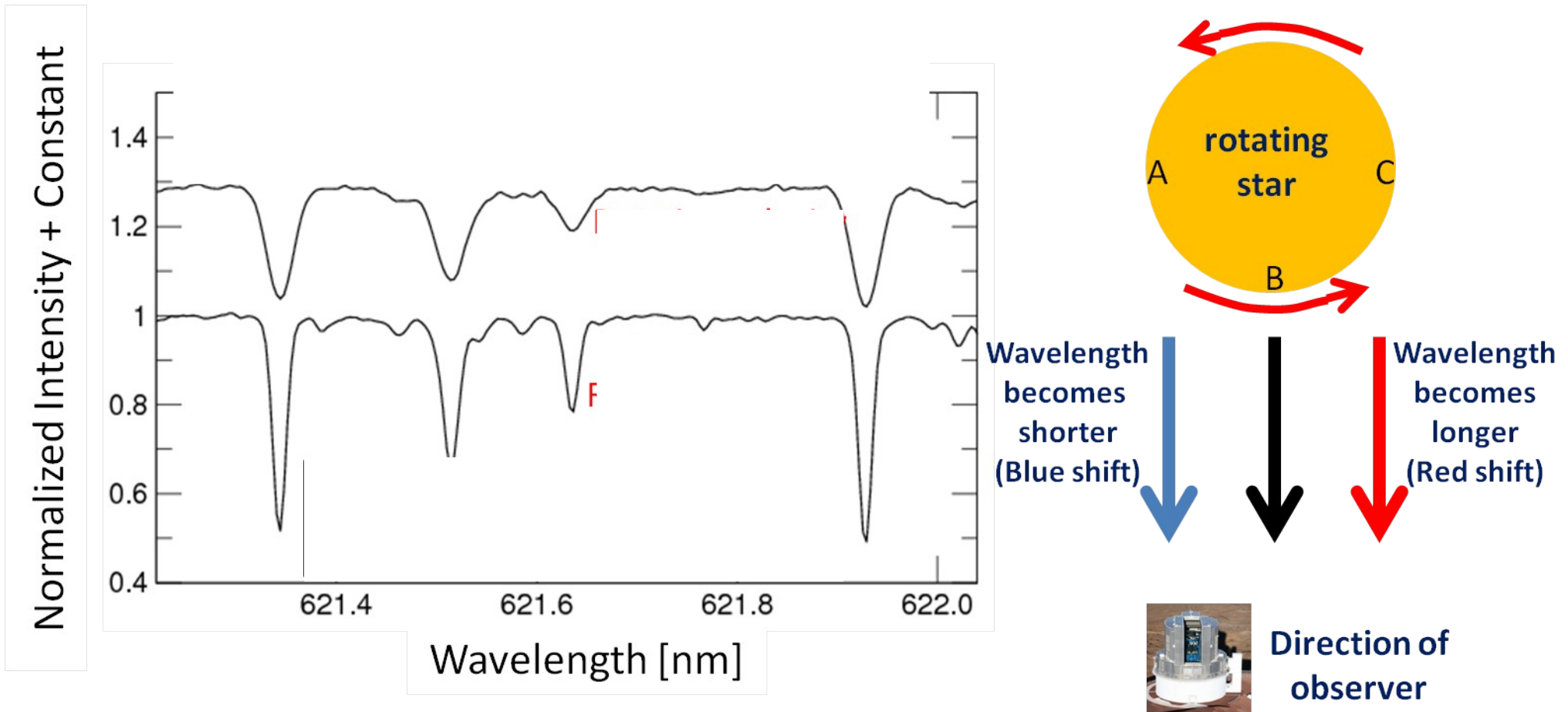
But there's more!

Two spectra covering the same range.

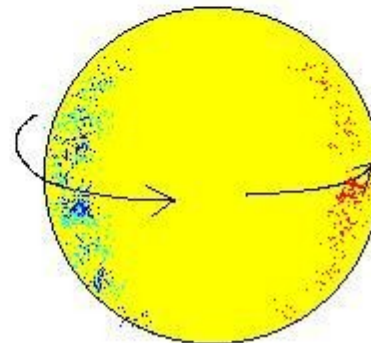
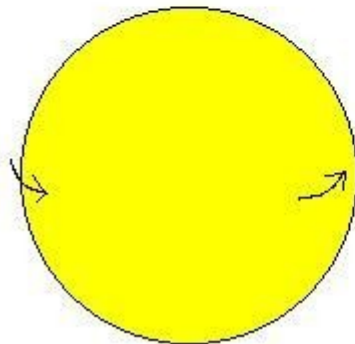
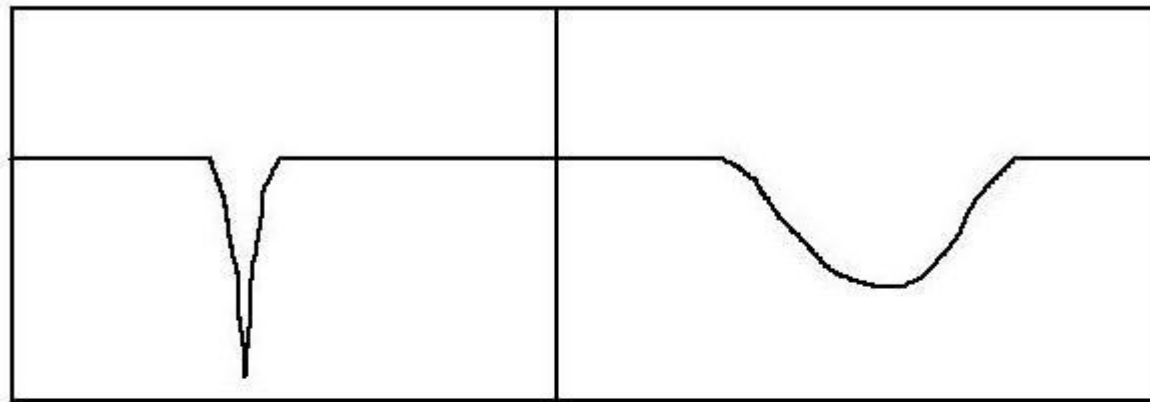


Why are the same lines in one star wider than in the other?








From the width of the lines we can get spin- again, just Doppler shift.



The star on the left is spinning slowly, so the line appears normal. The star on the right is rapidly rotating, so the left edge of the star is blueshifted, the right edge redshifted. This **broadens** (stretches) the lines.



We want to know:

- How hot are stars?  $T = 2.9 \times 10^6 / \lambda$
- How BIG are stars (size)?  Parallax, Eclipsing binaries
- How massive are stars?  Binaries
- What are stars made of?  Spectral lines: H, He
- How much energy do stars emit?  Luminosity
- Where does that energy come from?  Fusion: $E=mc^2$
- How far away are stars?  Parallax, eclipsing binaries.

Holy cow, that's everything!

Plus spin, the structure of the Sun, neutrinos, etc.

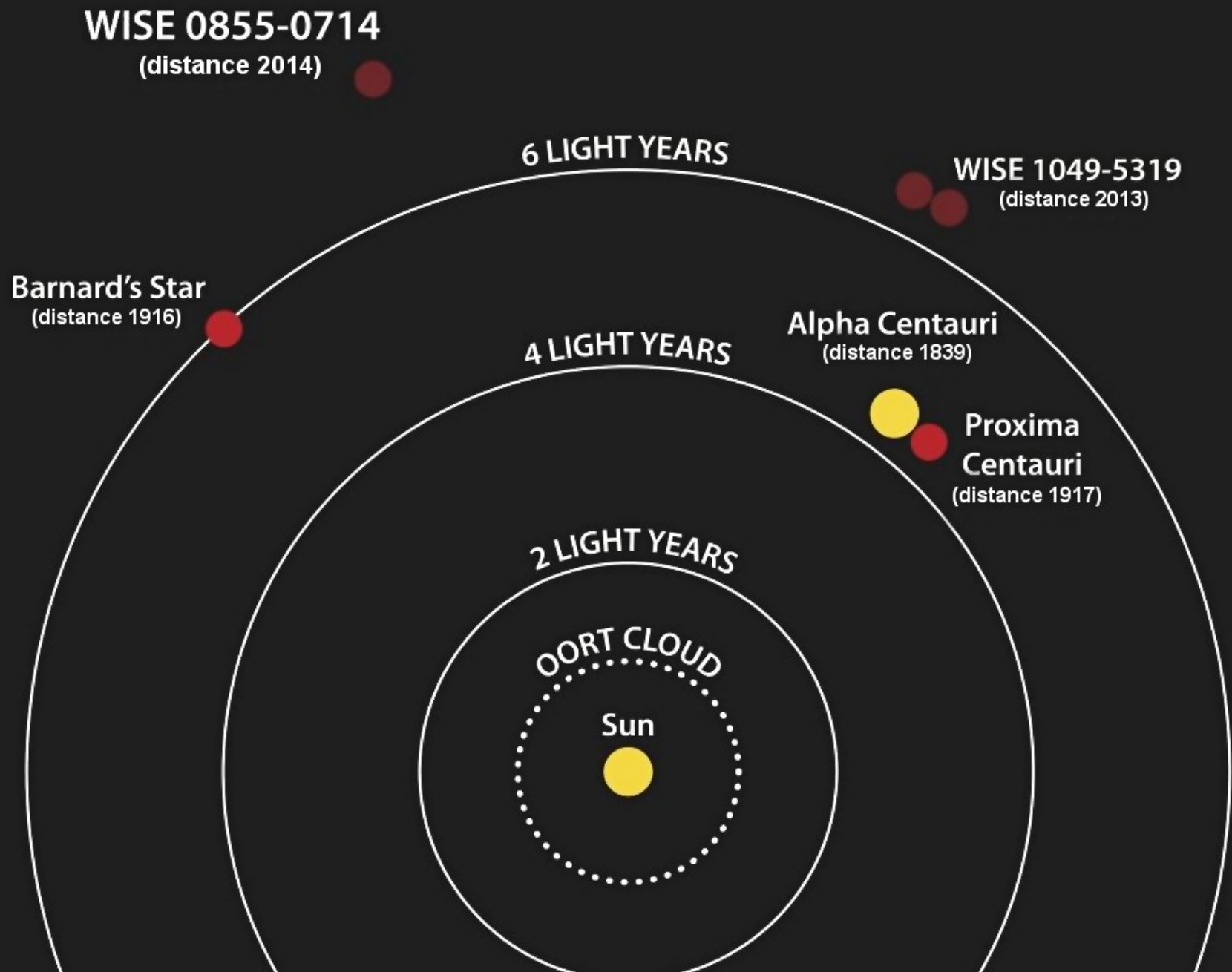
Reminder: How to make a star

brighter: $L_{\text{ap}} = R^2 \text{☞} T^4 / d^2$

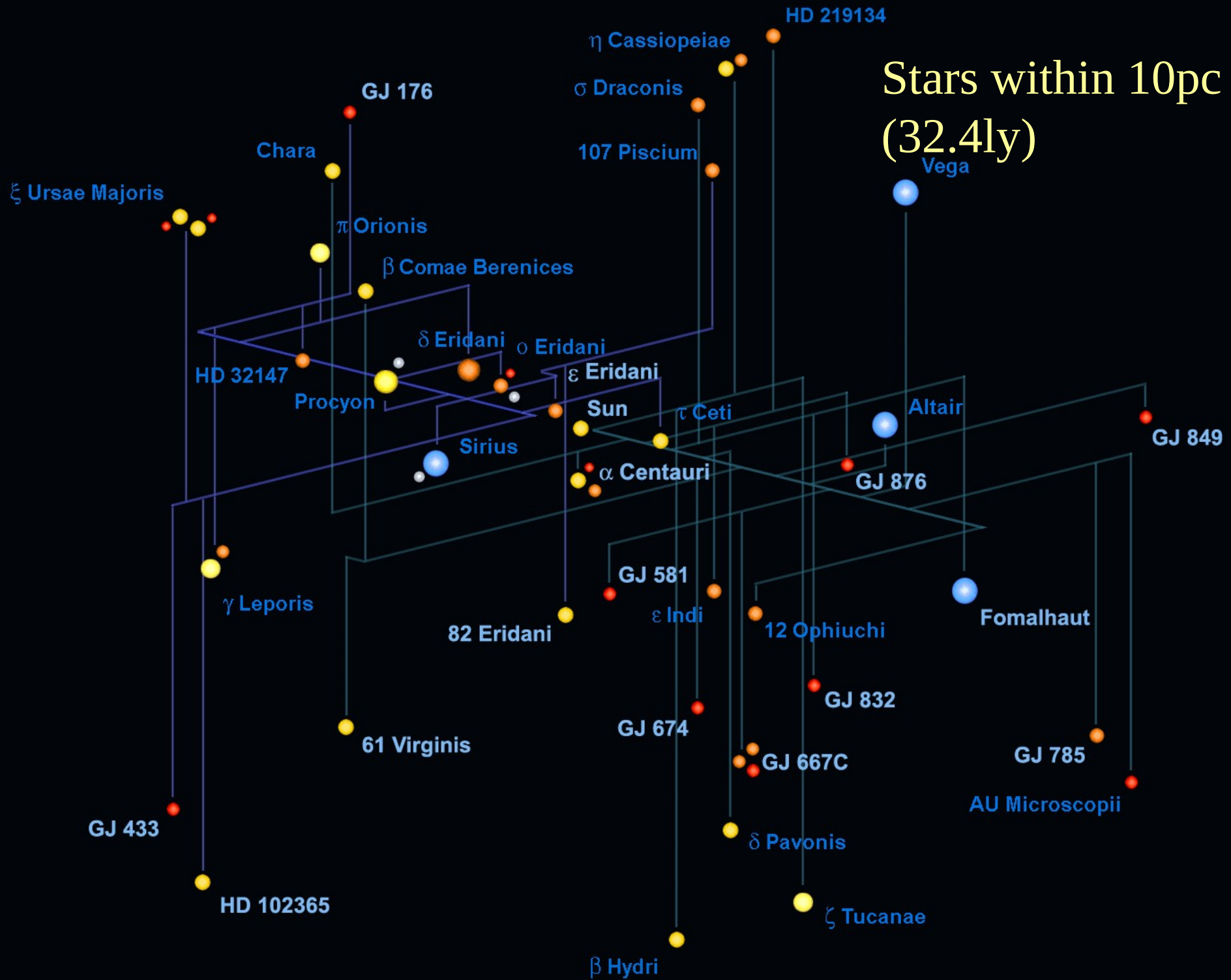
- Make it **hotter**: $E \sim T^4$
- Make it **bigger**: $E \sim R^2$
- Make it **closer**: $E \sim 1/d^2$

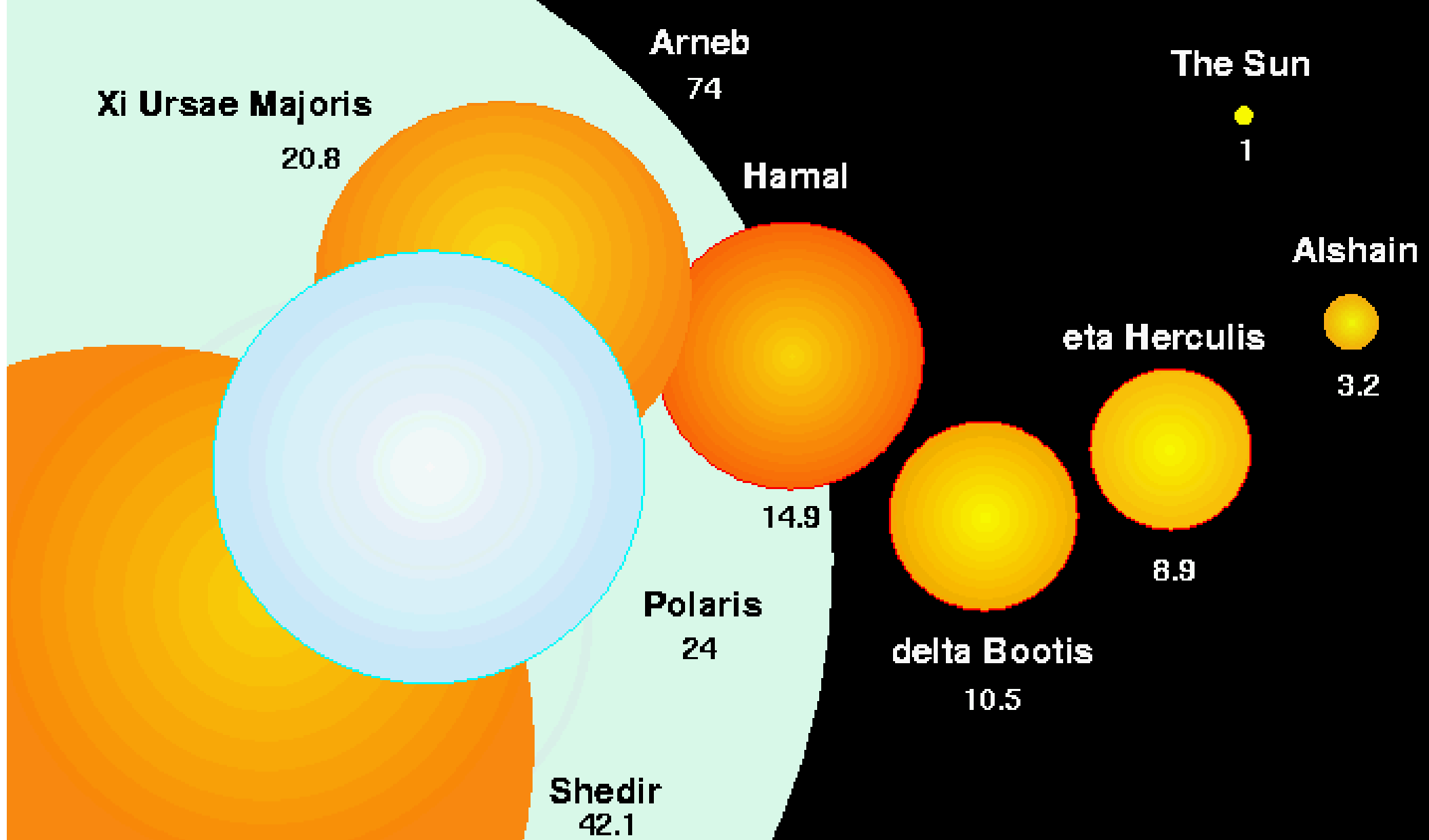
Hotter is most powerful.

THE SUN'S CLOSEST NEIGHBORS



Stars within 10pc (32.4ly)

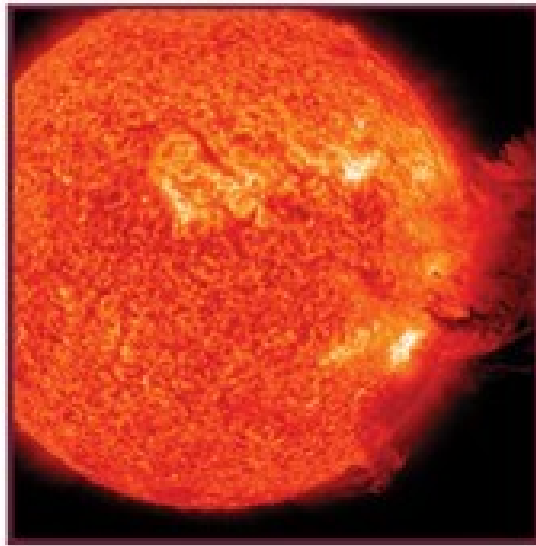




Stars come in a great variety of sizes and masses.

Our Sun's a Super Star

Don't call the Sun average!



Most stars we see are larger and/or hotter (more massive) than our Sun.

But the most common stars have $0.0079L_{\text{Sun}}$, $T_{\text{Surface}} = 2,600\text{K}$, $0.2M_{\text{Sun}}$, and $0.32R_{\text{Sun}}$

Stars within 10pc (33ly)

Mass 40 17 2.5 1.5 0.9 0.7 0.3

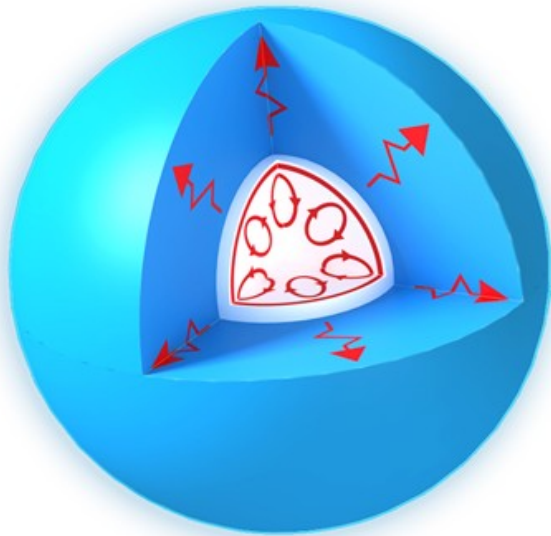
Objects	Systems	O	B	A	F	G	K	M	WD	BD	Planets
369	256	0	0	4	6	20	44	247	20	28	15

T_{surface} (kK) 35 13.5 8.1 6.5 5.4 4.0 2.6

Radius 18 4.0 1.8 1.2 0.93 0.74 0.32

Heat Transfer of Stars

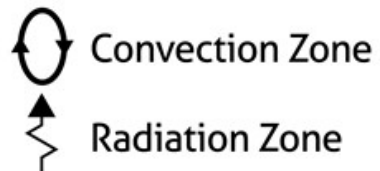
> 1.5 solar masses



0.5 - 1.5 solar masses

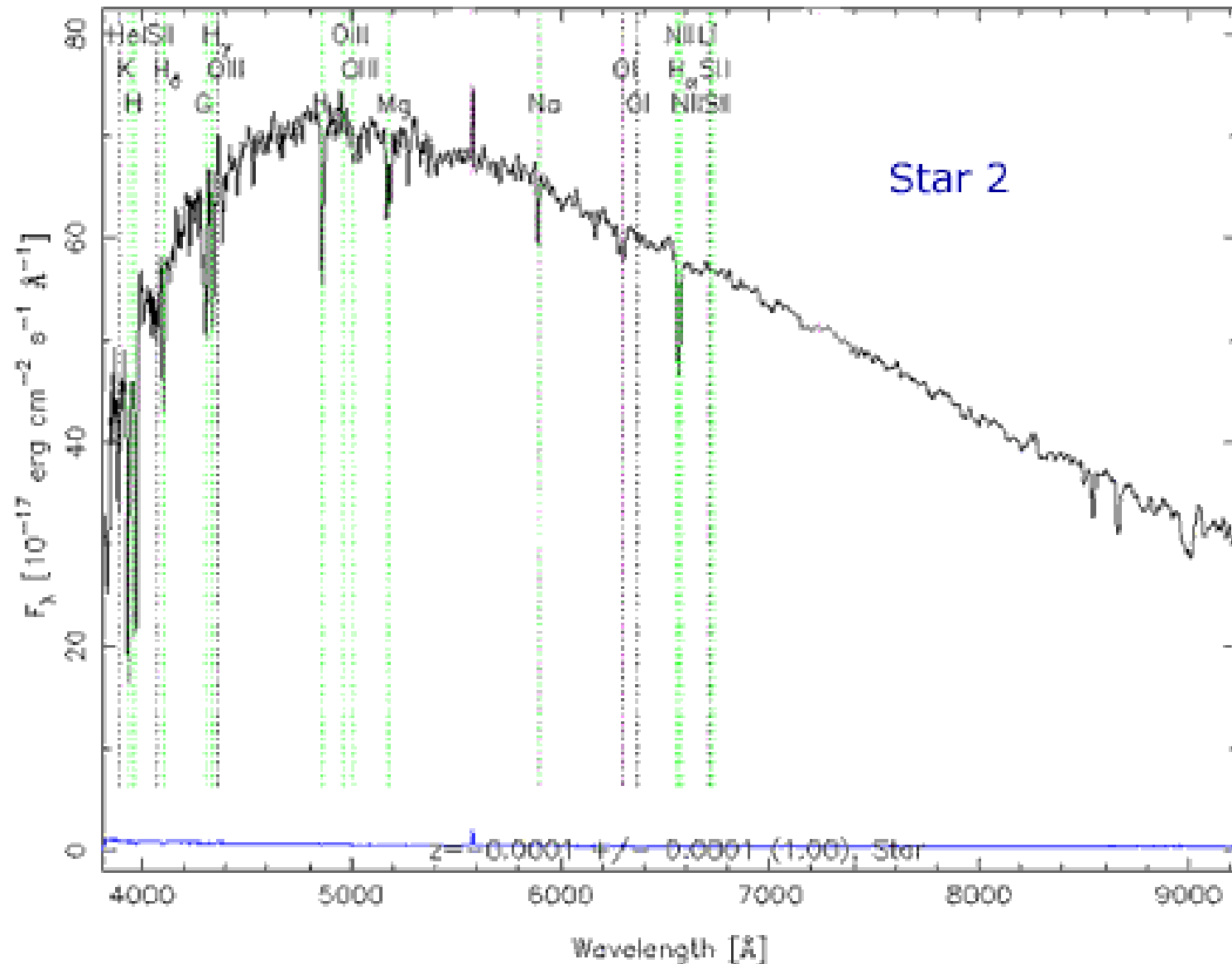


< 0.5 solar masses



Stars have continuous spectra with absorption lines.

RA=146.52448, DEC= 0.83016, MJD=51608, Plate= 267, Fiber=322

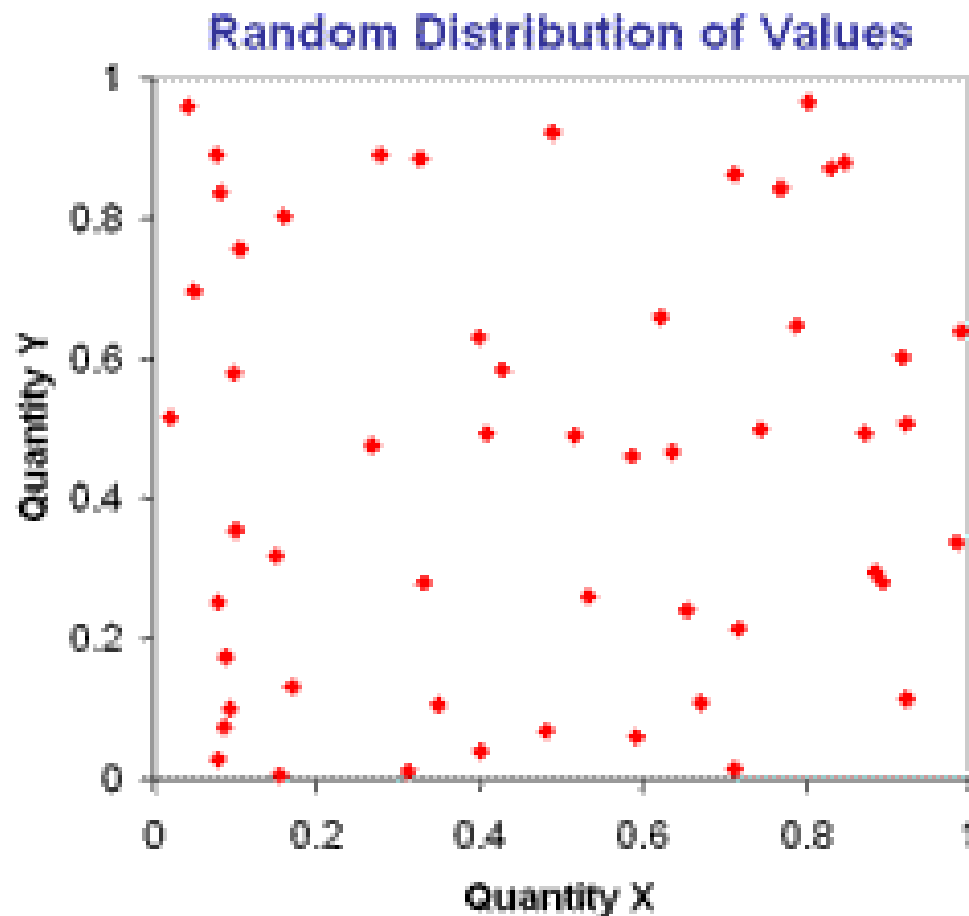


Classifying stars

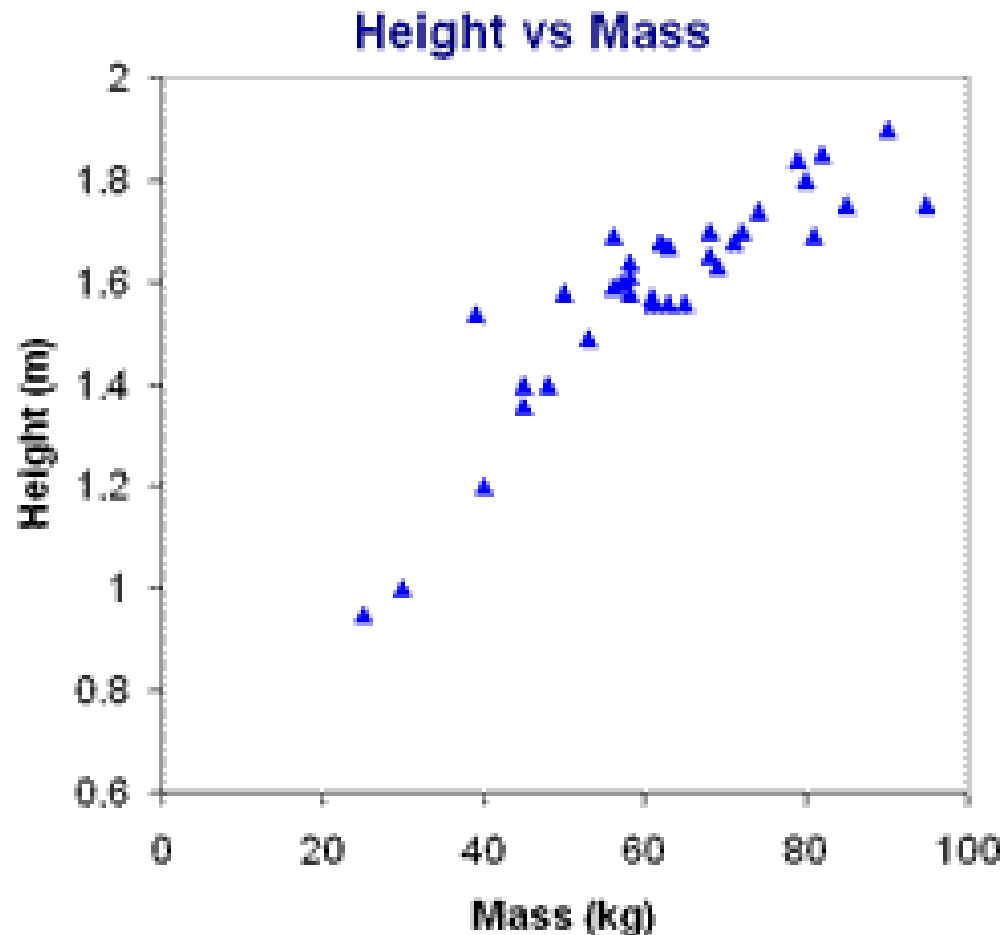


In science, if we can measure 2 things, we plot them against each other and look for relationships.

This is what random (unrelated) looks like



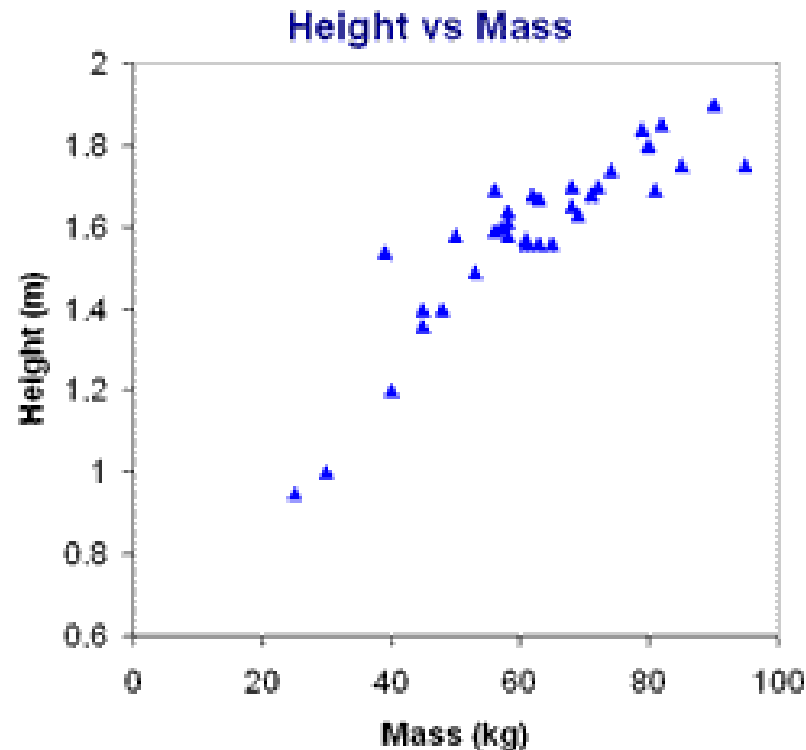
If we plot height versus mass (weight) of people, we get the graph below.
What's the underlying relationship



If we plot height versus mass (weight) of people, we get the graph below.

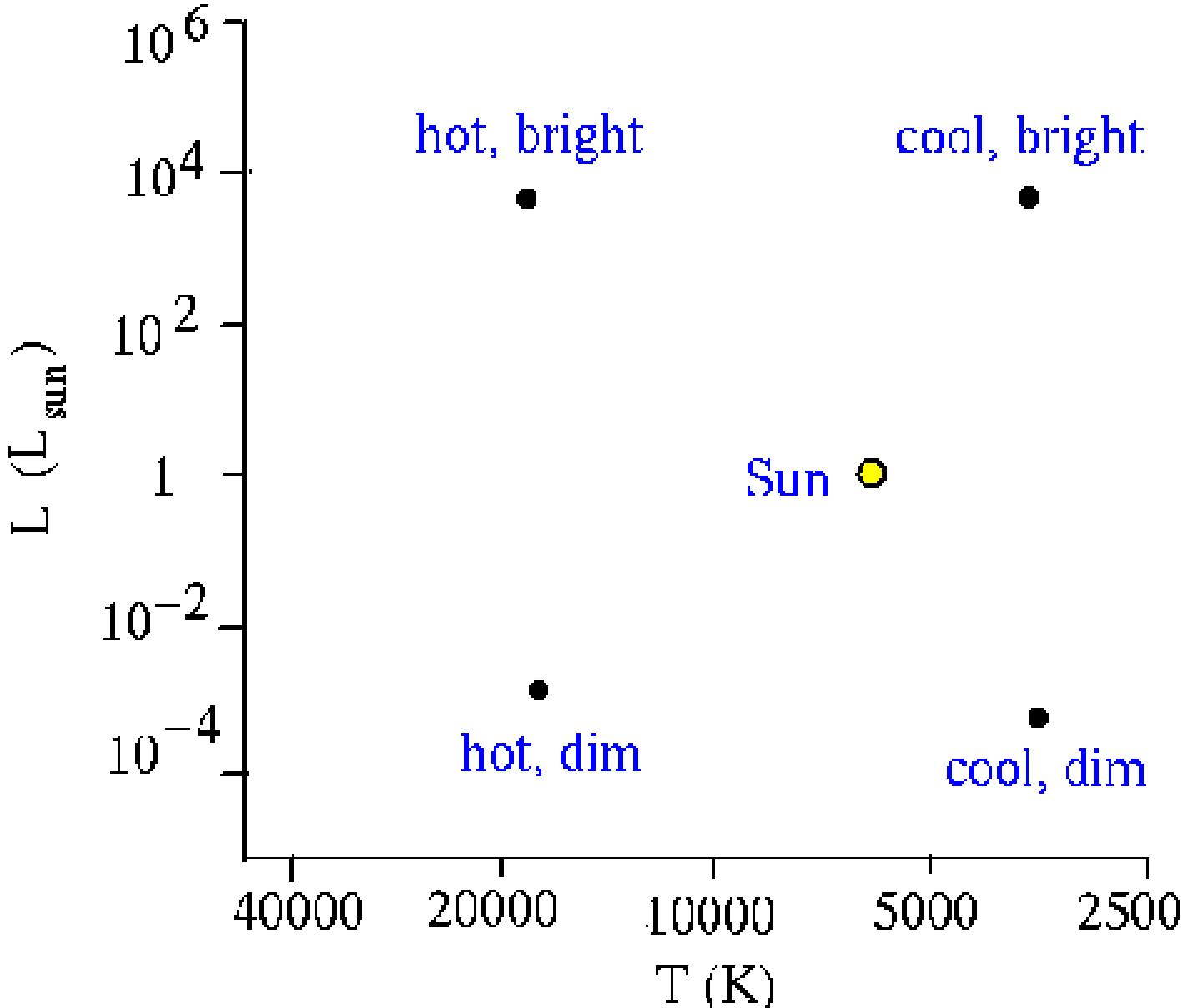
As people grow up (age), they gain weight. A child (shorter) weighs less than an adult.

There is an underlying reason for the relationship.

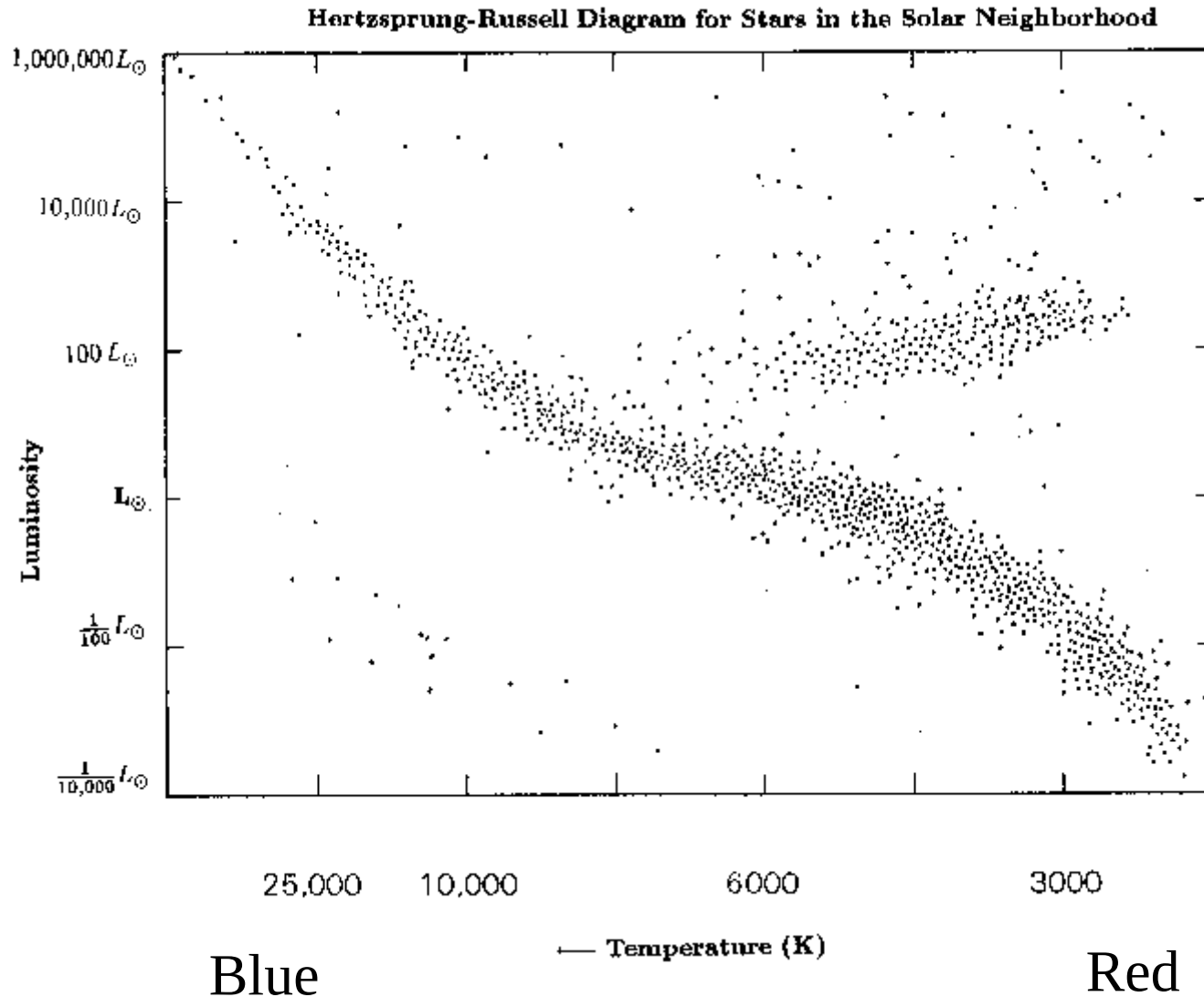


For stars, in an image we can measure
2 things: brightness and color.
So make a plot for that!

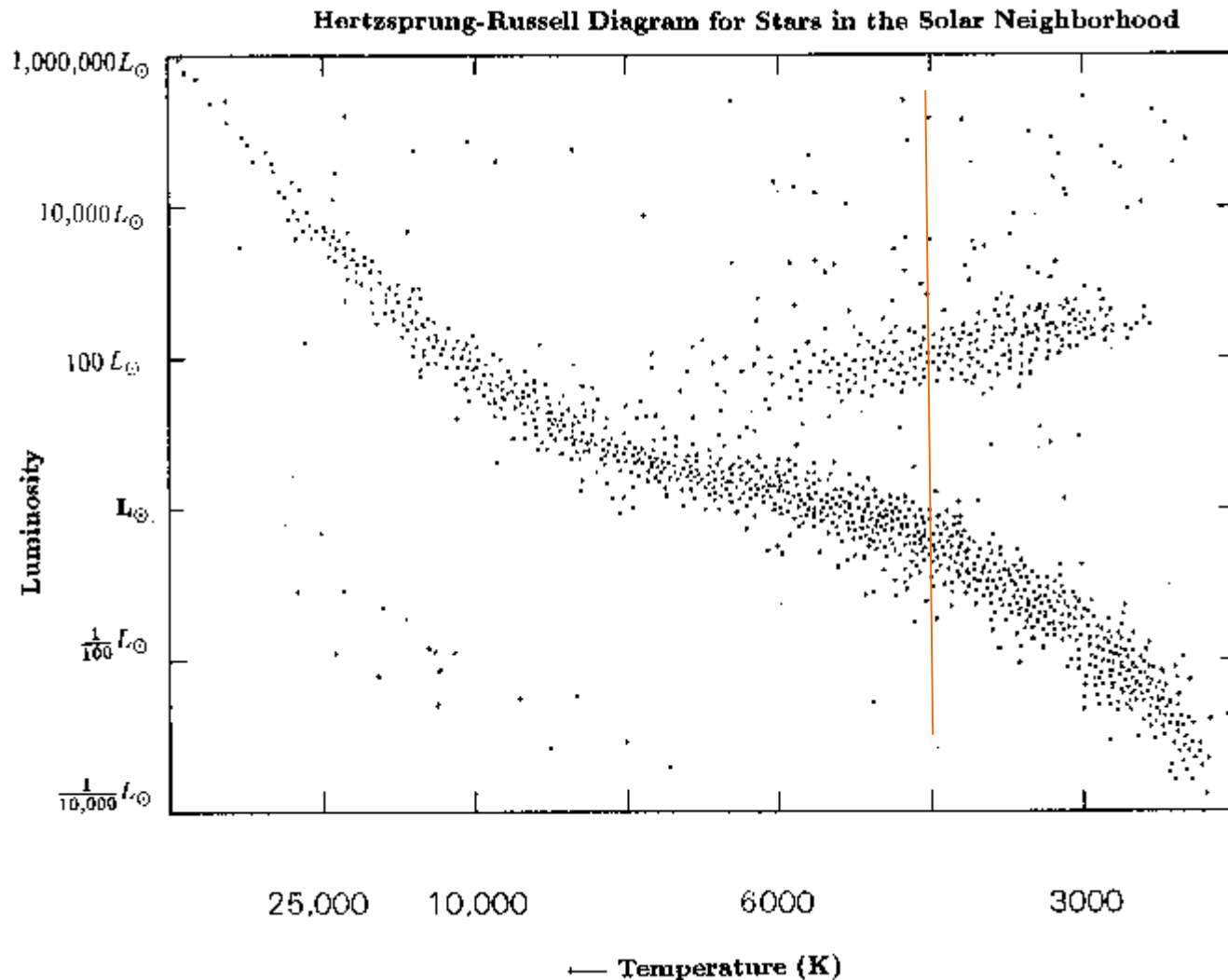
Regions in this diagram correspond to different kinds of stars.



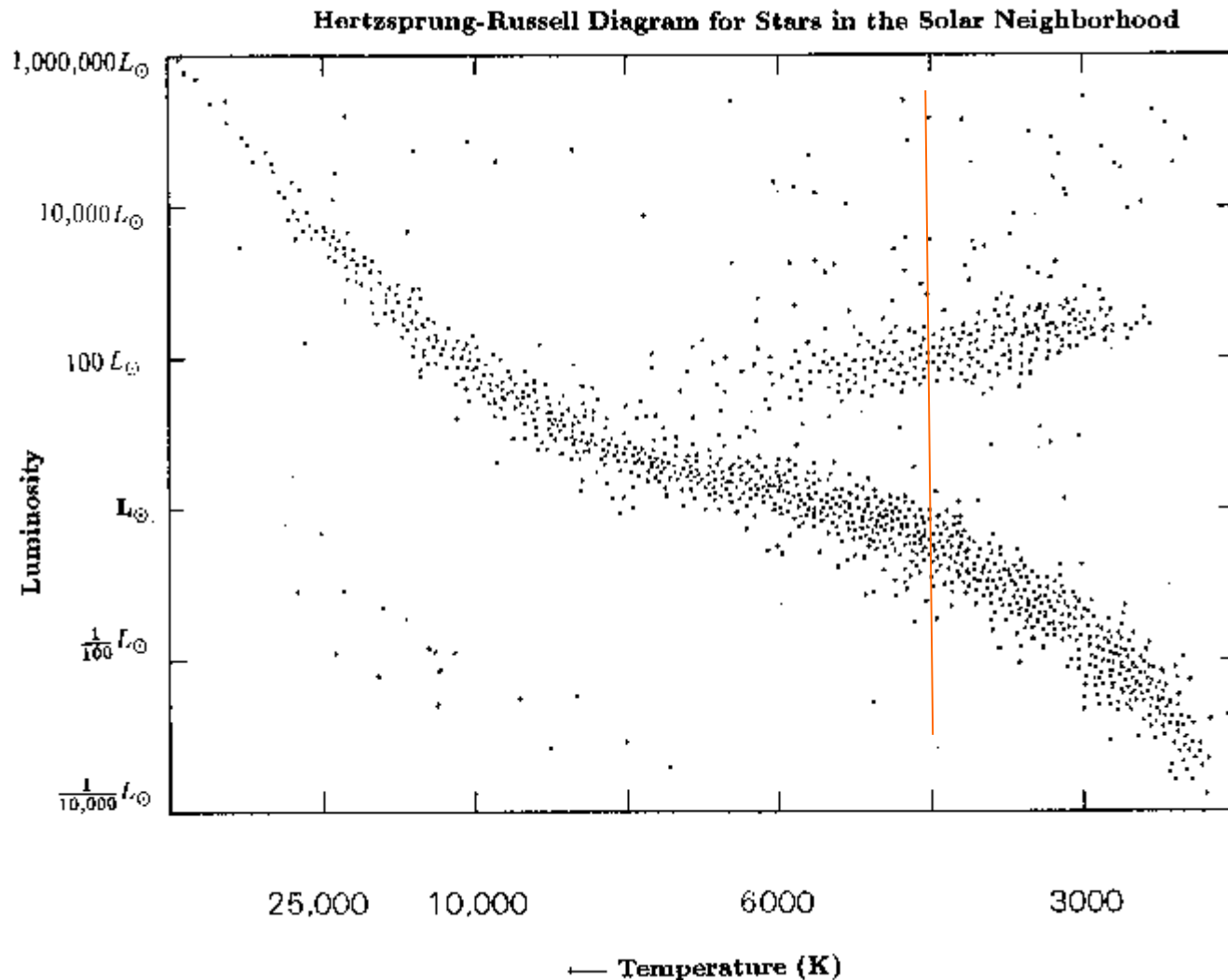
Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram of nearby stars. They had parallaxes for these stars.



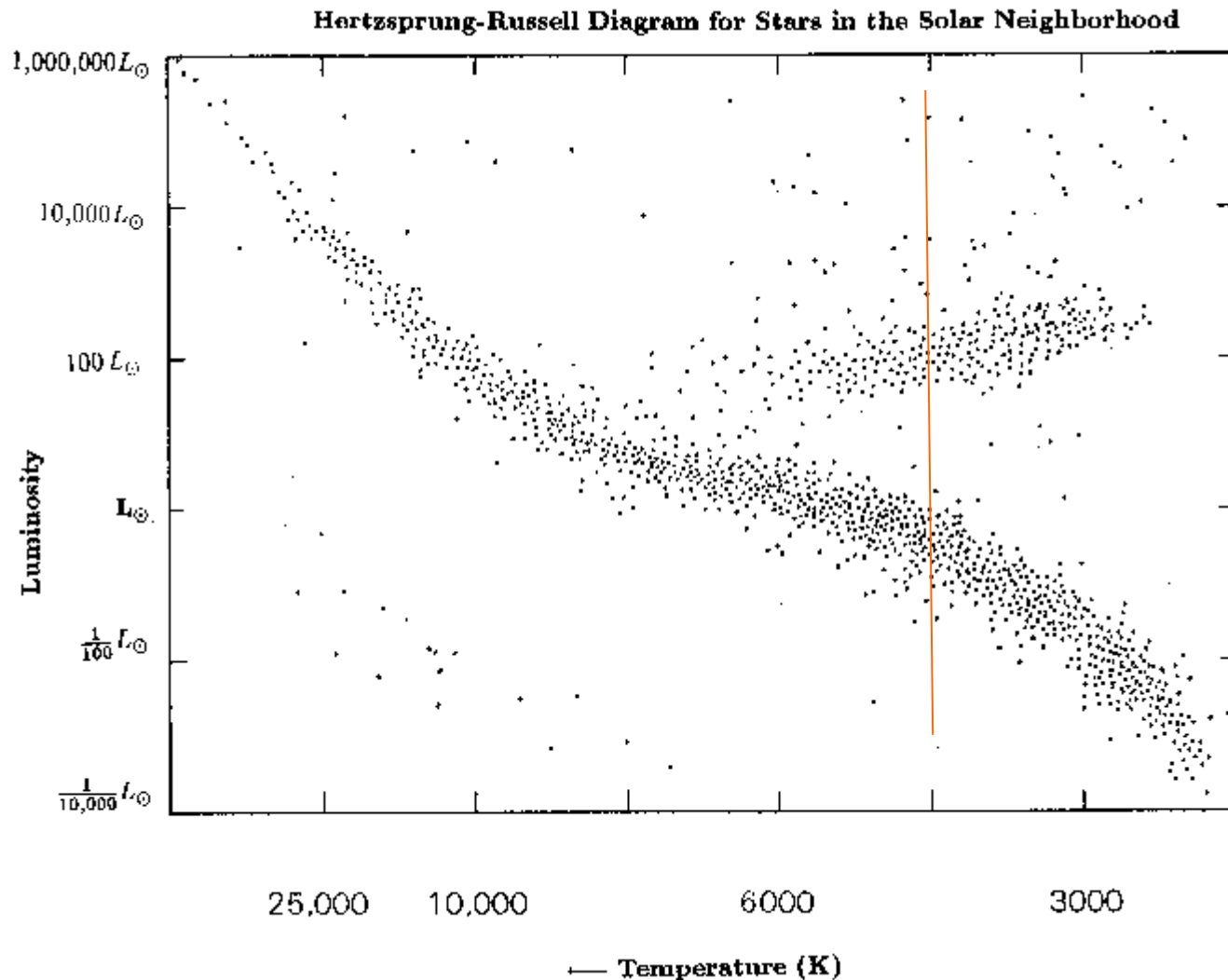
Consider the orange line I've drawn through the graph below. It is at 1 temperature (color) but passes through 3 regions of stars: the main sequence, red giants, and supergiants. Recall that (distance independent) brightness has an equation: $L=4\pi R^2T^4$.



Consider the orange line I've drawn through the graph below. It is at 1 temperature (color) but passes through 3 regions of stars: the main sequence, red giants, and supergiants. Recall that (distance independent) brightness has an equation: $L=4\pi R^2T^4$. If T is the same, but some stars are brighter, **then they must be *larger***.

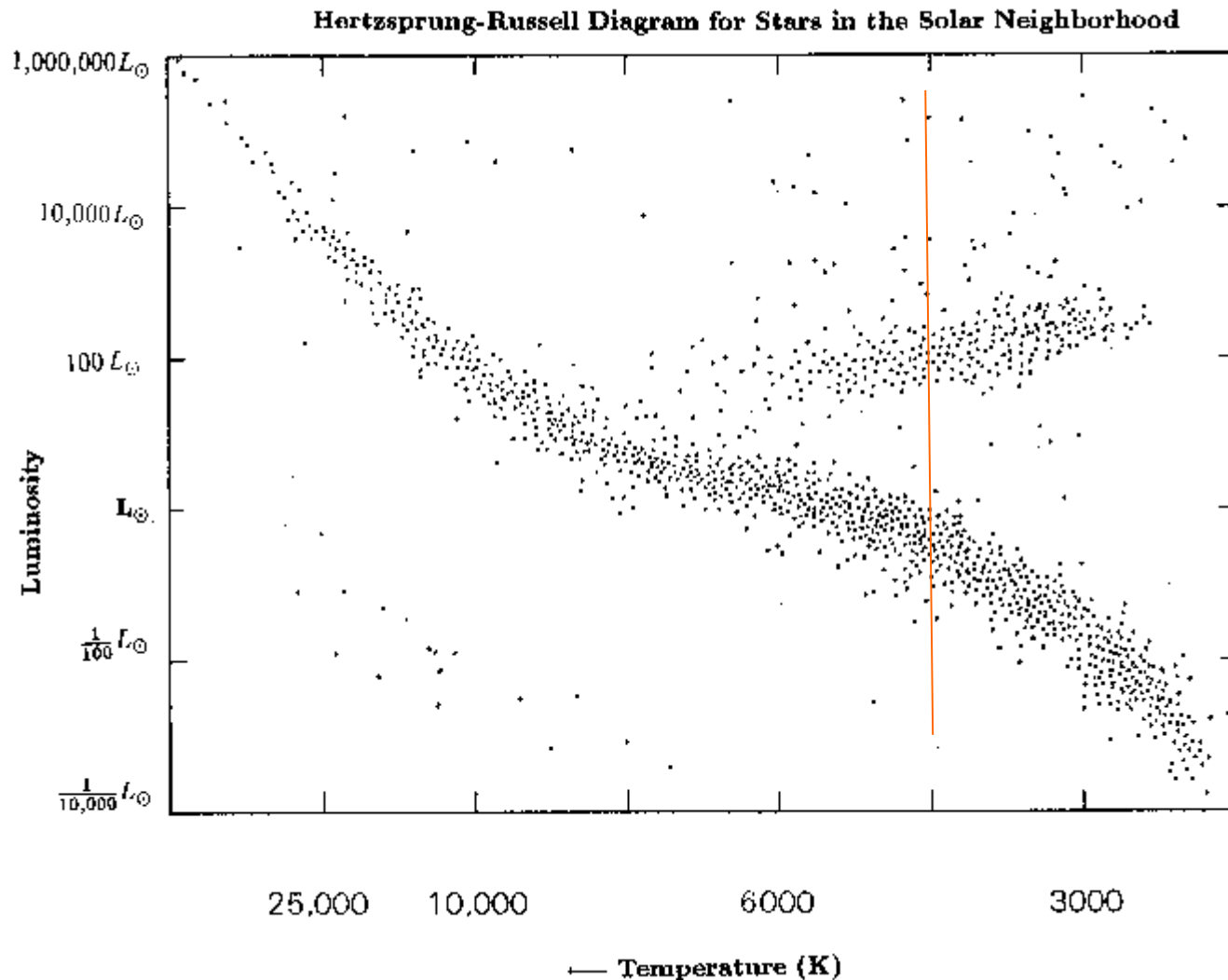


As the main sequence contains most stars, the stars on the main sequence are considered to be the ‘*normal*’ size. The group of stars directly above them must therefore be larger, and these were called ‘*giants*’. Since they are only on the cooler side of the diagram, they are called *red giants*.

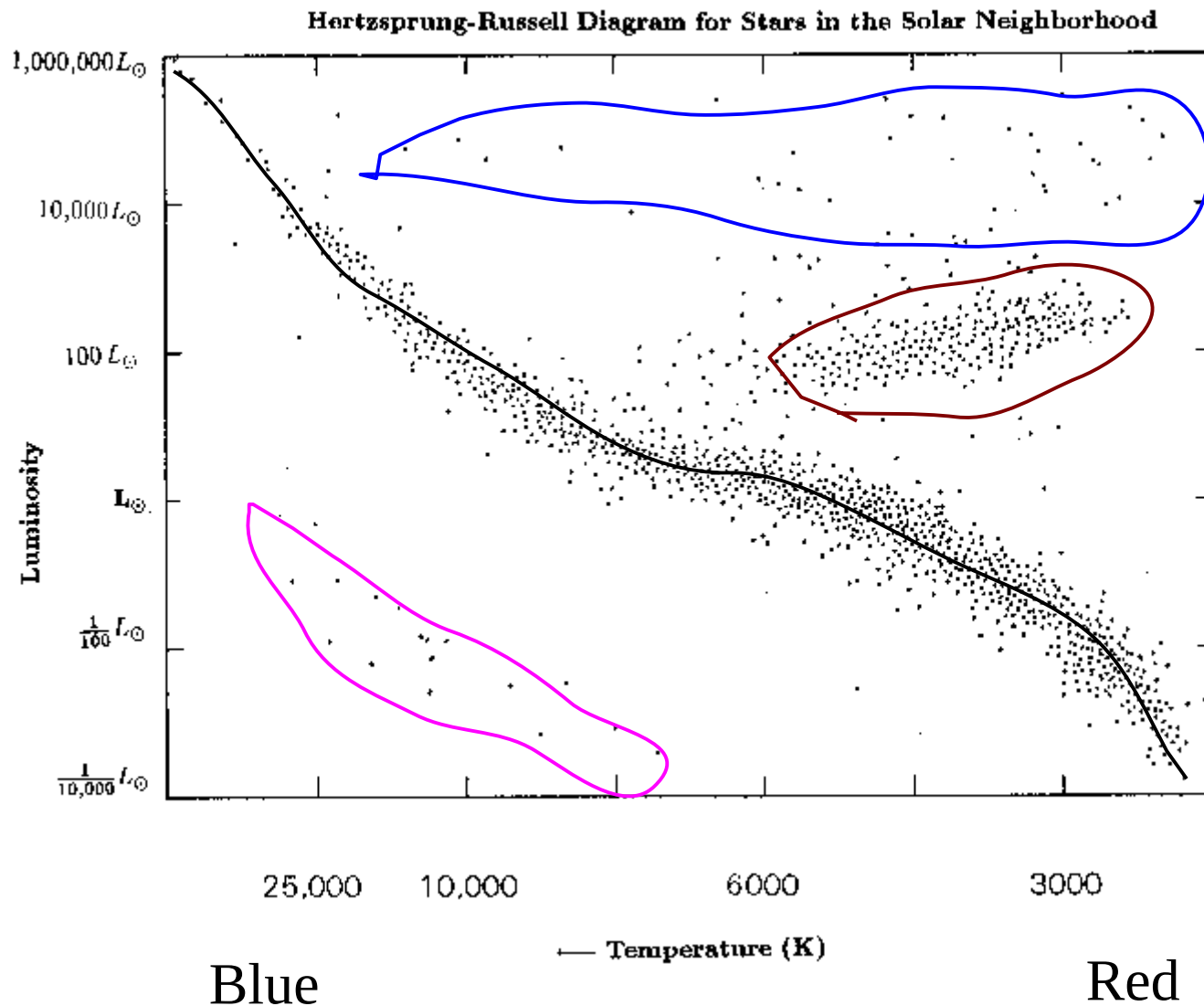


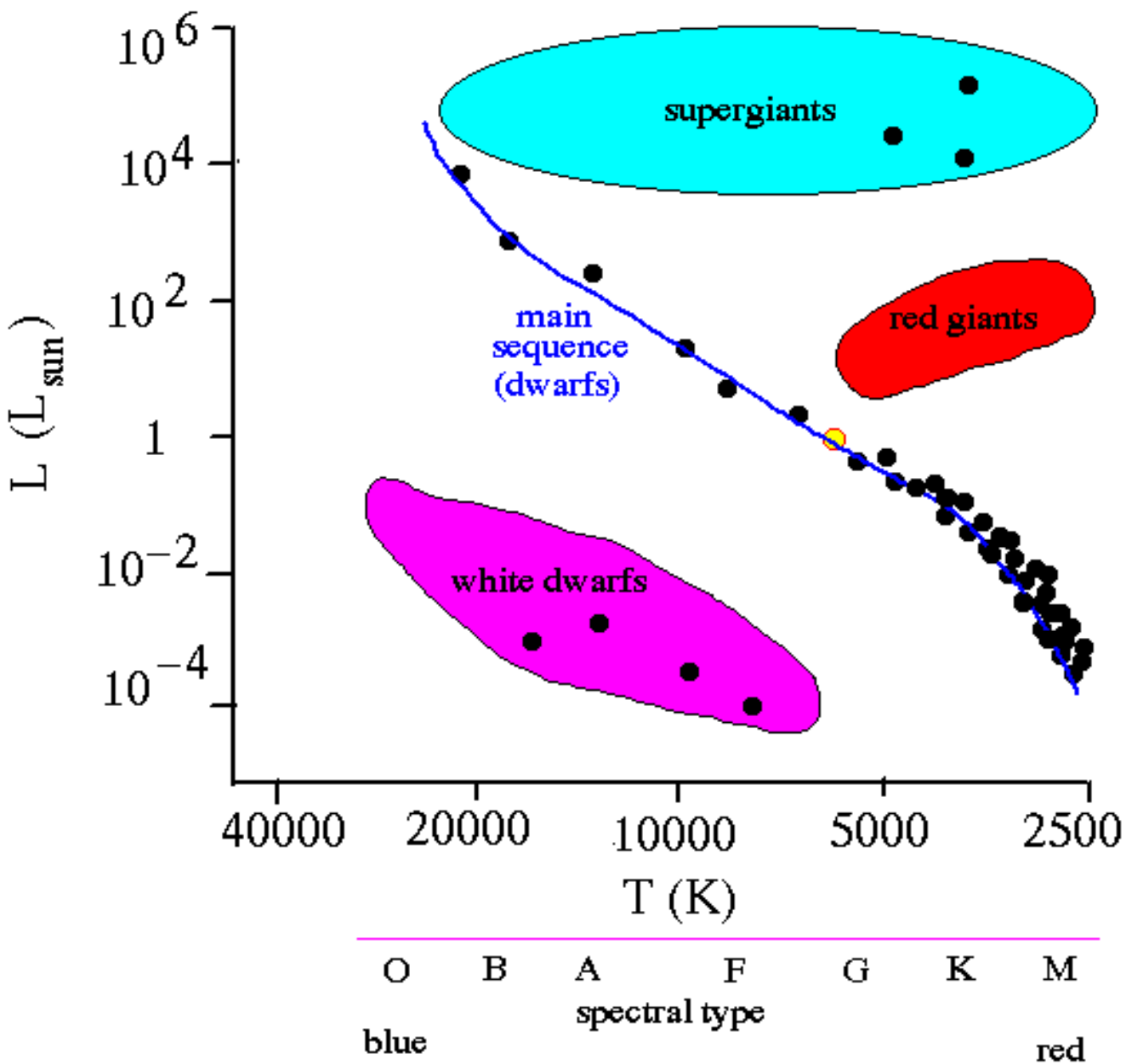
But there is another group even more luminous than the *red giants*.
Since these must be bigger, they are called *supergiants*.

Fortunately, no stars larger than supergiants have been discovered, so we don't need anything like super-duper-giants.



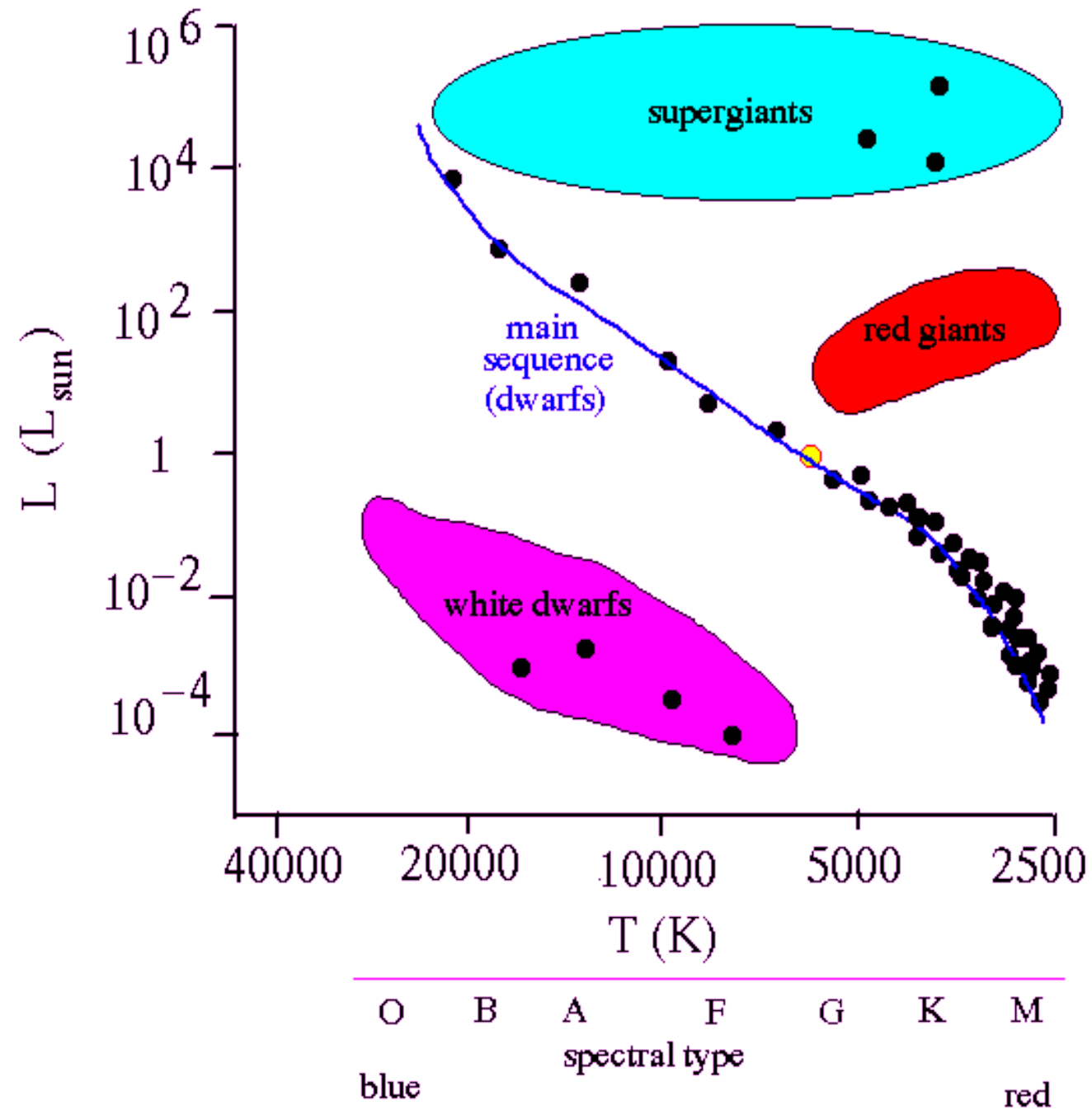
They noticed that stars do not appear randomly on this graph, but rather form groups. Why?

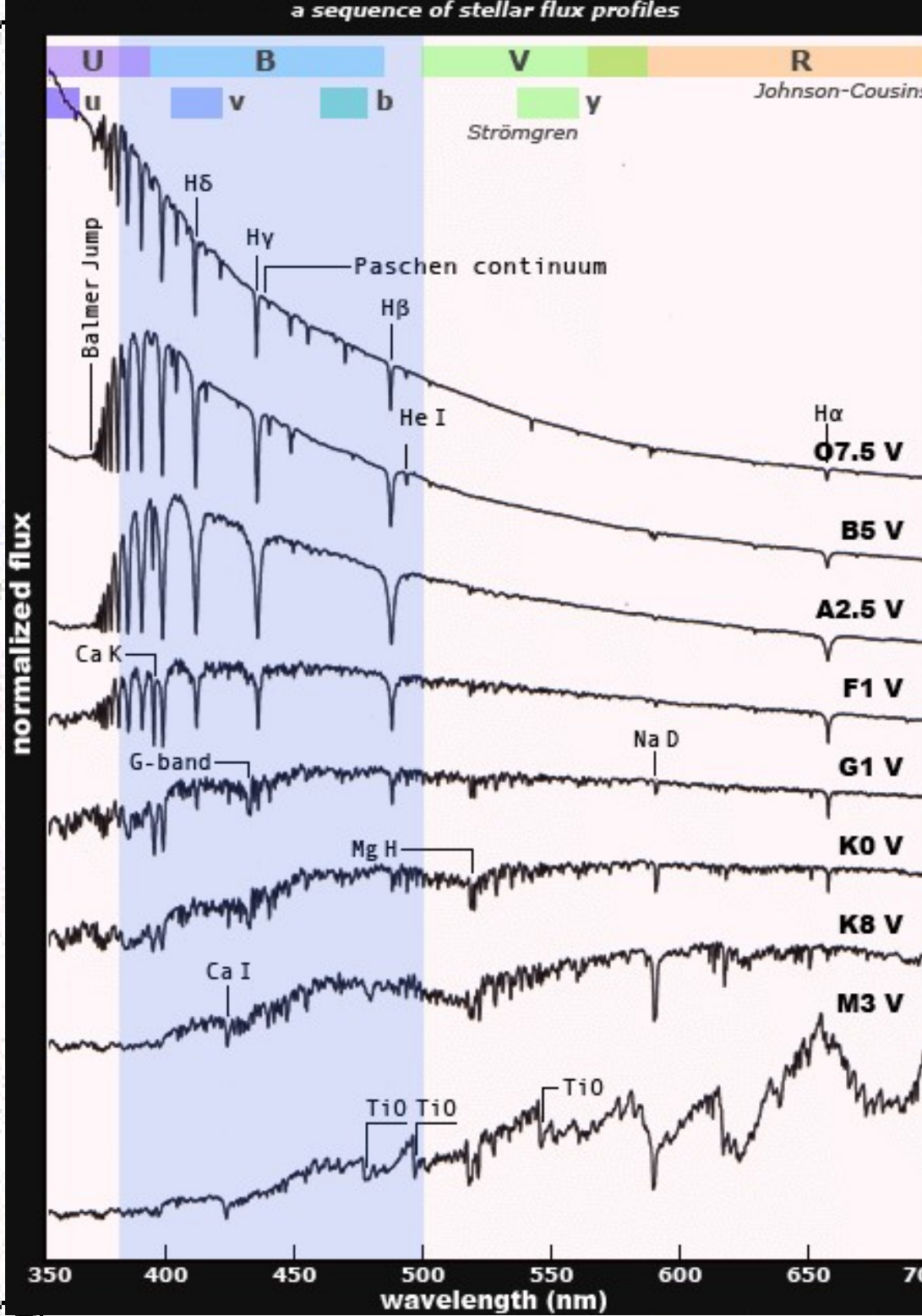
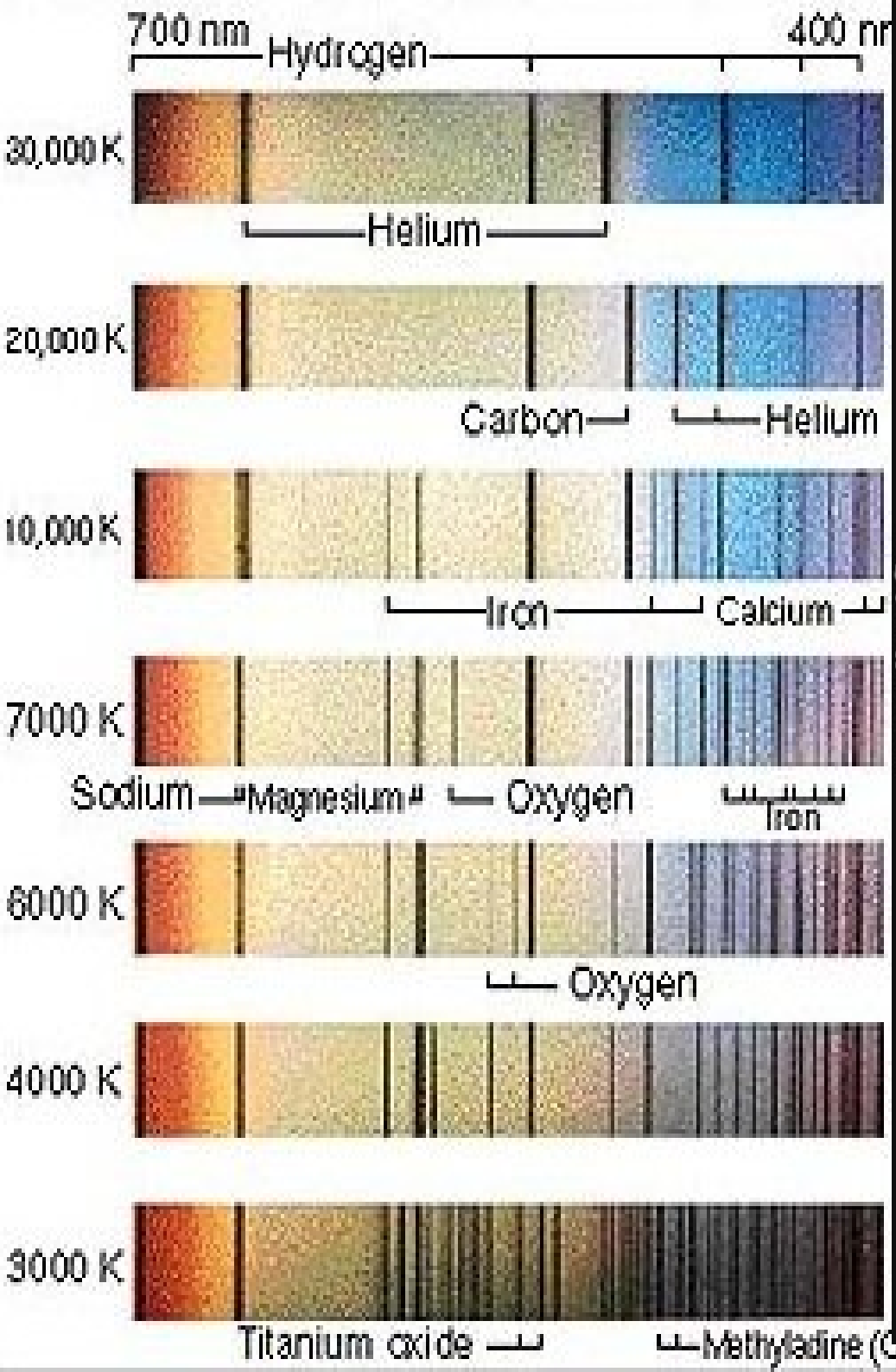




The stars fall into groups. The group where we see the most stars is called the Main Sequence. Stars of similar temperature, but brighter are called Red Giants, and smaller stars are called white dwarfs.

About this plot:
The X axis-
Temperature- hotter
to the left, cooler to
the right.
Color: blue is hot,
red is cool
And spectral types



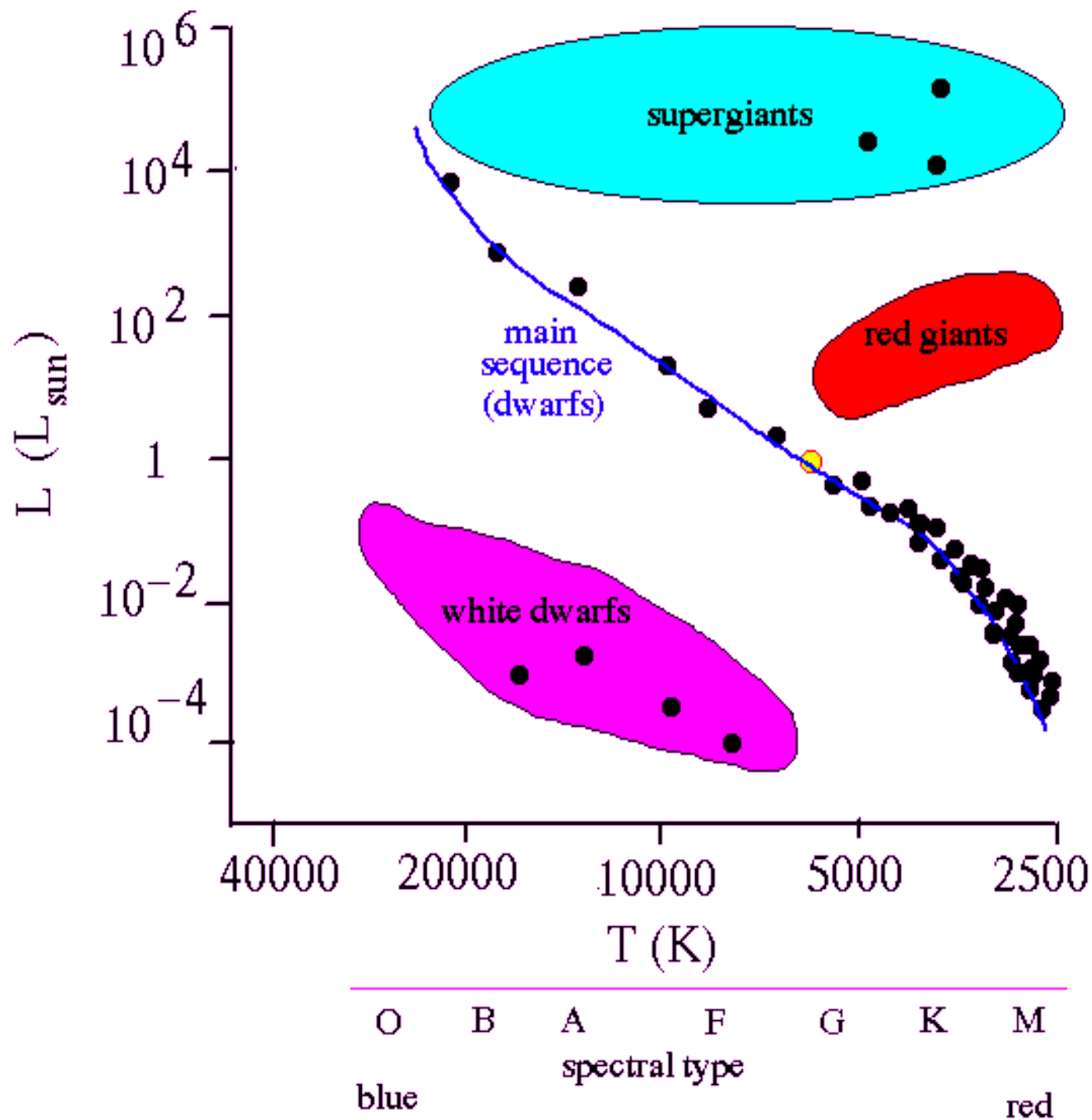


Spectral type mnemonic

Oh Be A Fine Girl/Guy Kiss Me

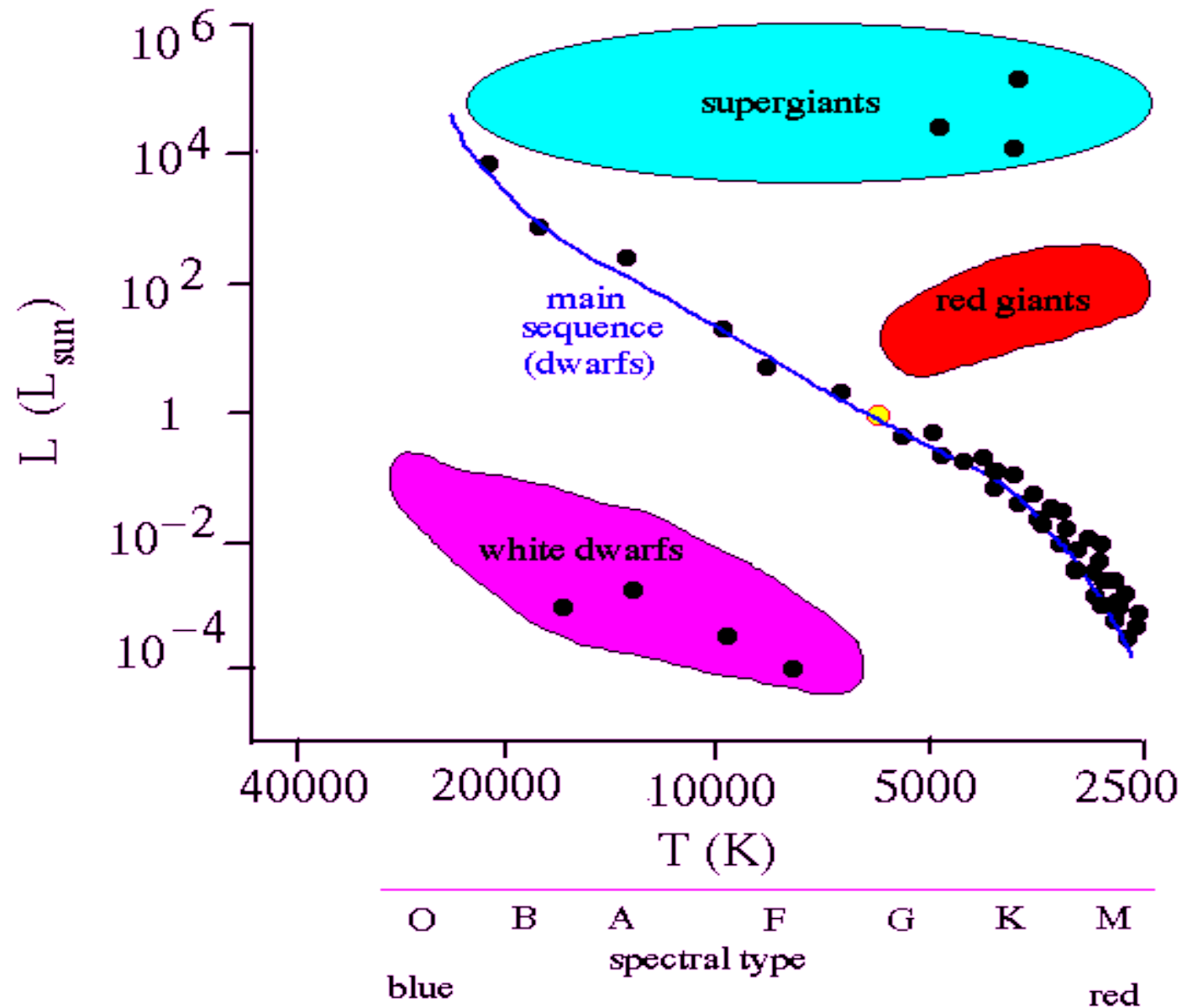
I like:

Oh Boy! Astronomy Faculty Get Killed Monday



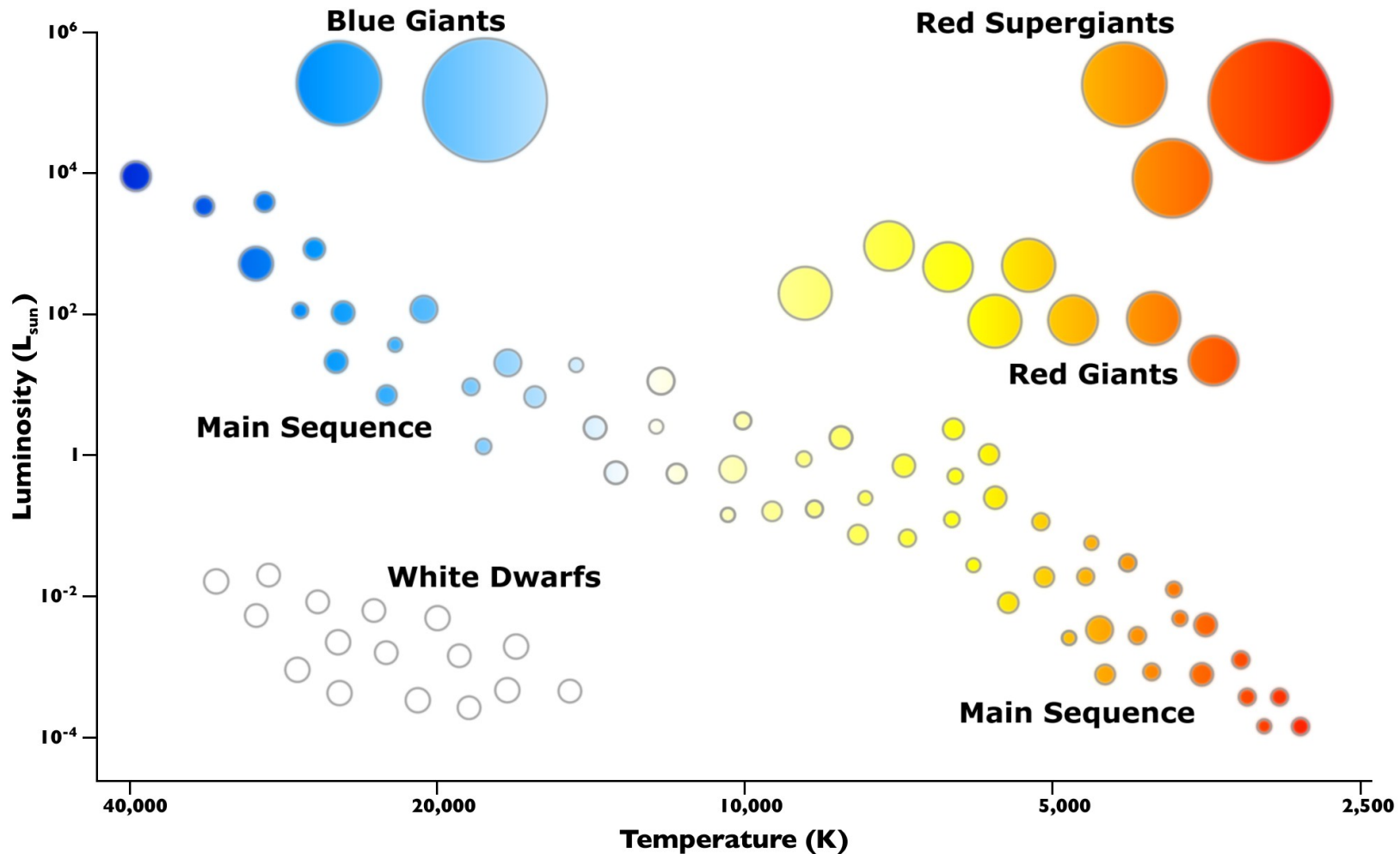
About this plot:
The Y axis-
Luminosity (in this
case, in solar
luminosities).
Brighter towards the
top.

So what determines where a star is in the HR diagram?



Russell-Vogt theorem:

A star's location on the HR diagram is determined by only 3 things:
its mass, age, and (barely) composition.

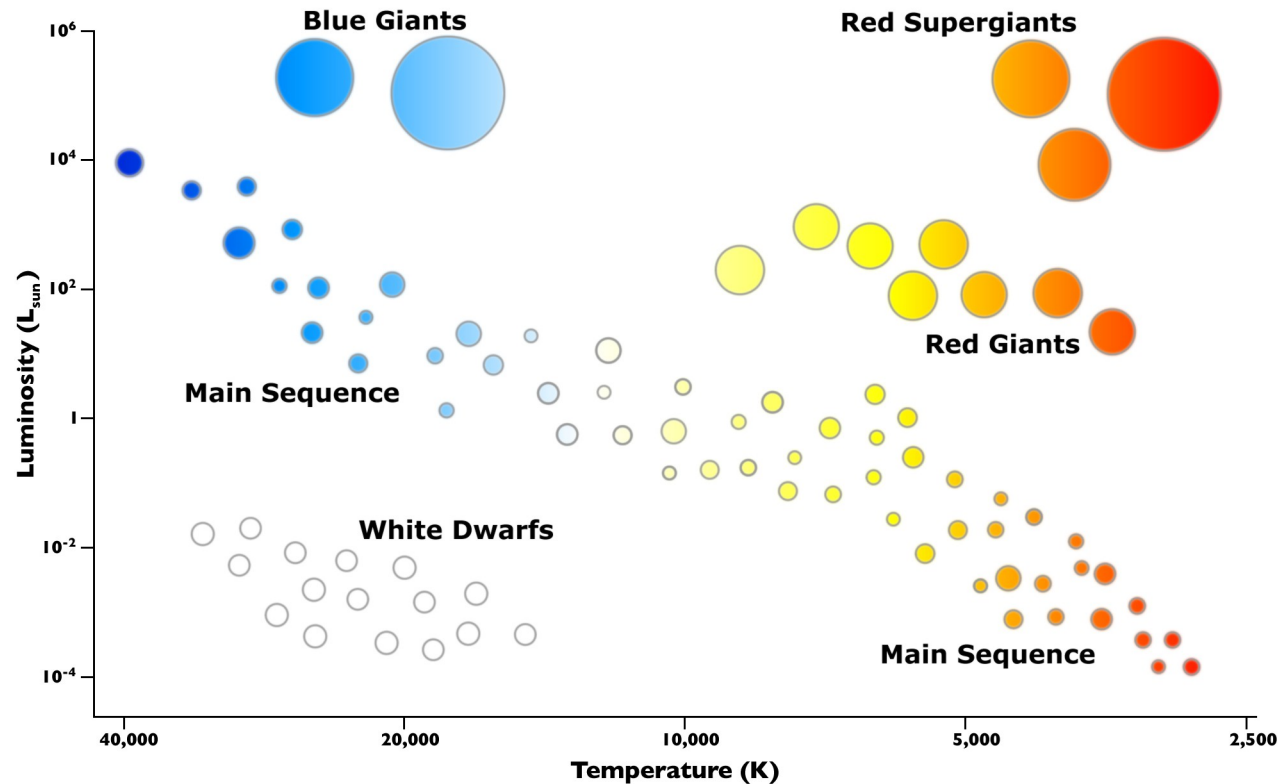


We will start with mass. Along the main sequence, luminosity goes as mass to the 3.5 power.

That is $L=M^{3.5}=M \times M \times M \times (M^{1/2})$

In solar units (the Sun=1).

$$L = M^{3.5} = \sqrt{M} \times M \times M \times M$$



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$$\text{That is } L = M^{3.5} = M \times M \times M \times (M^{1/2})$$

In solar units (the Sun=1).

Let's try one: How bright (compared to our Sun) is a 4 solar mass star?

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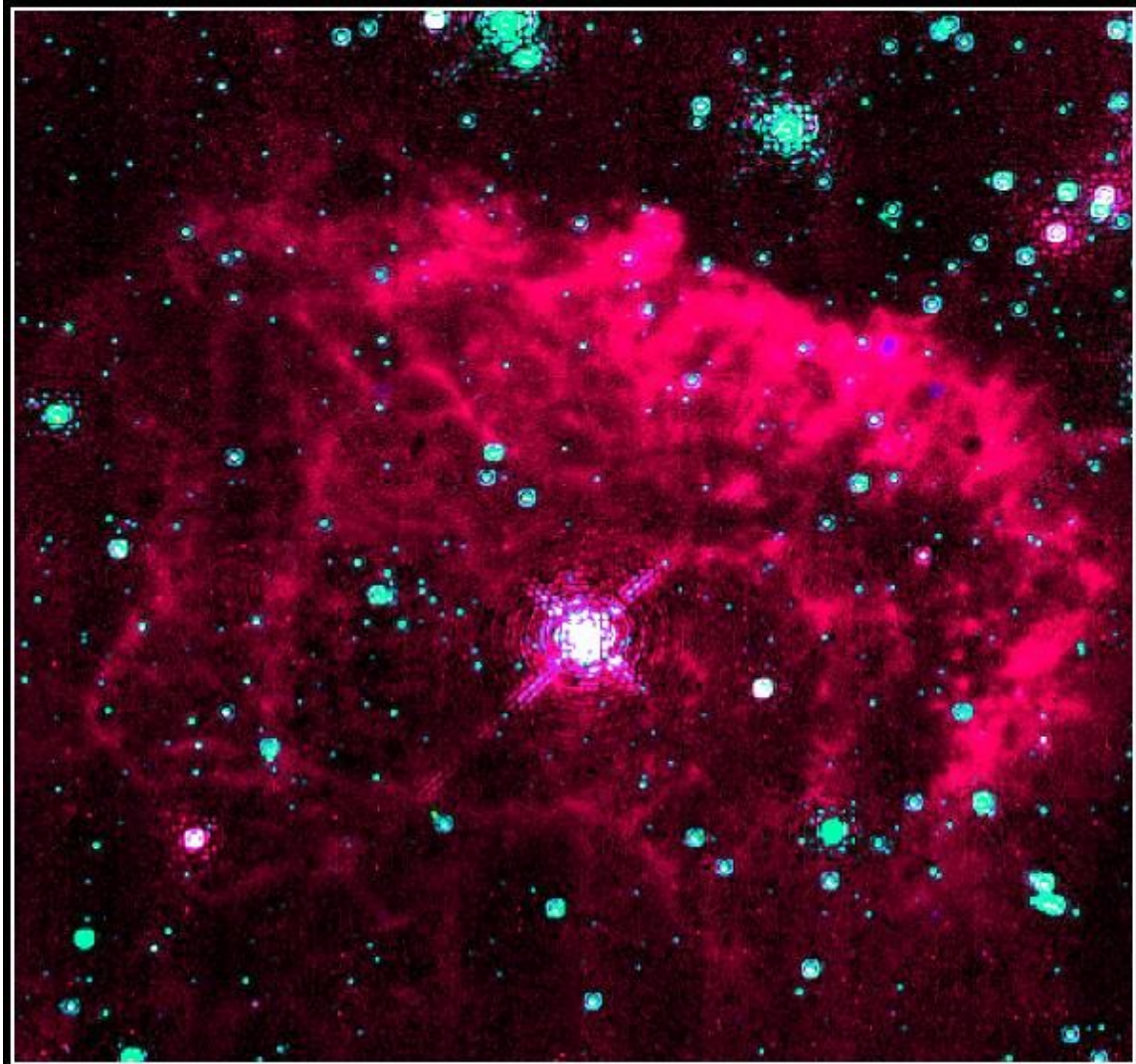
Let's try one: How bright (compared to our Sun) is a 4 solar mass star?

$$L = M^{3.5} = \sqrt{M} \times M \times M \times M$$

$$L = M^{3.5} = 2 \times 4 \times 4 \times 4 = 128$$

This MS star is 128 times brighter than our Sun.

Upper range for mass:
The Pistol star is about $100\text{-}200M_{\text{Sun}}$



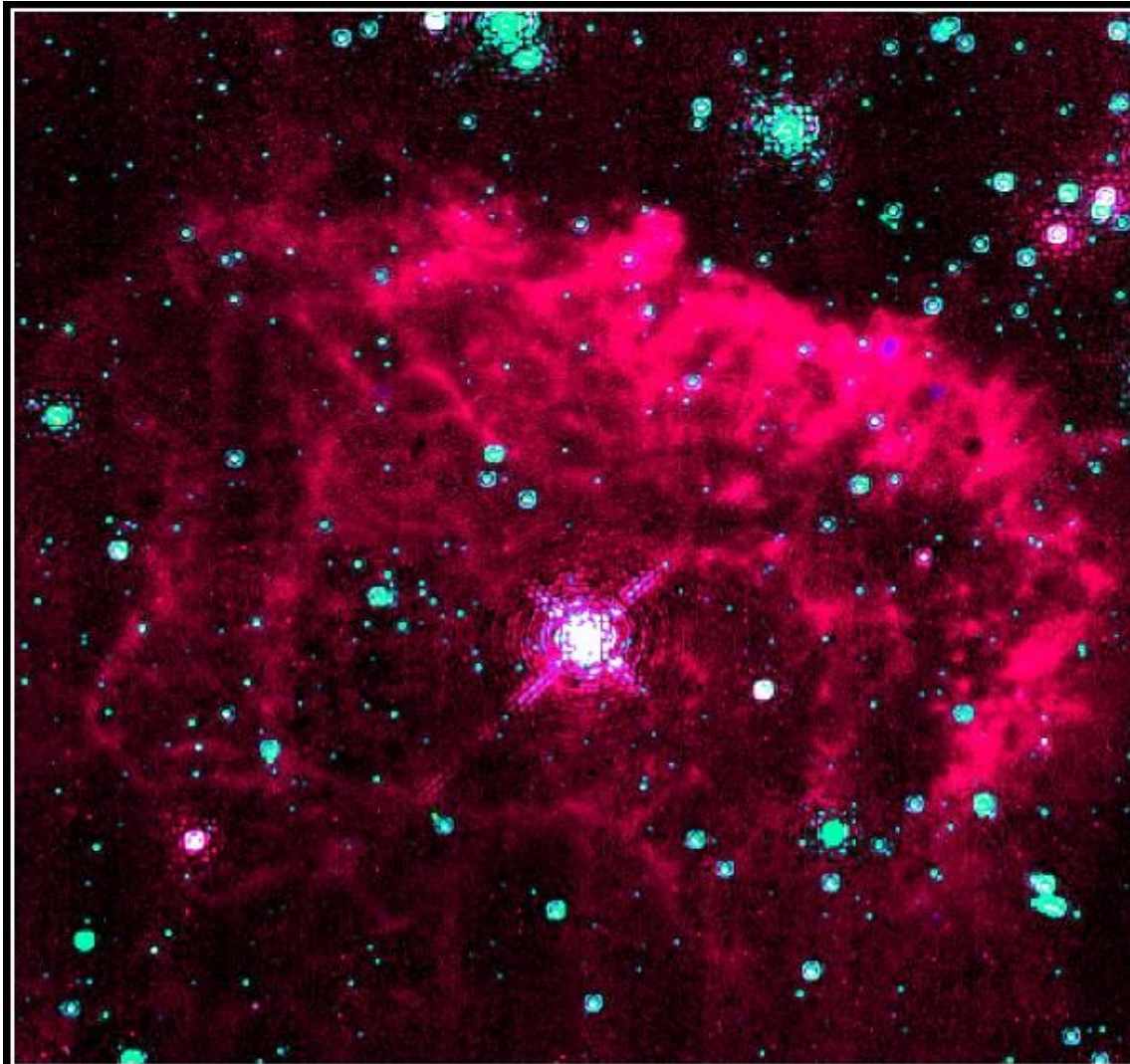
However,
stars that
big are
extremely
rare.

Pistol Nebula and Massive Star HST • NICMOS
PRC97-33 • ST ScI OPO • D. Figer (UCLA) and NASA

If the Pistol star is $100M_{\text{Sun}}$ how bright should it be

using: $L = M^{3.5} = M^{1/2} \times M \times M \times M$

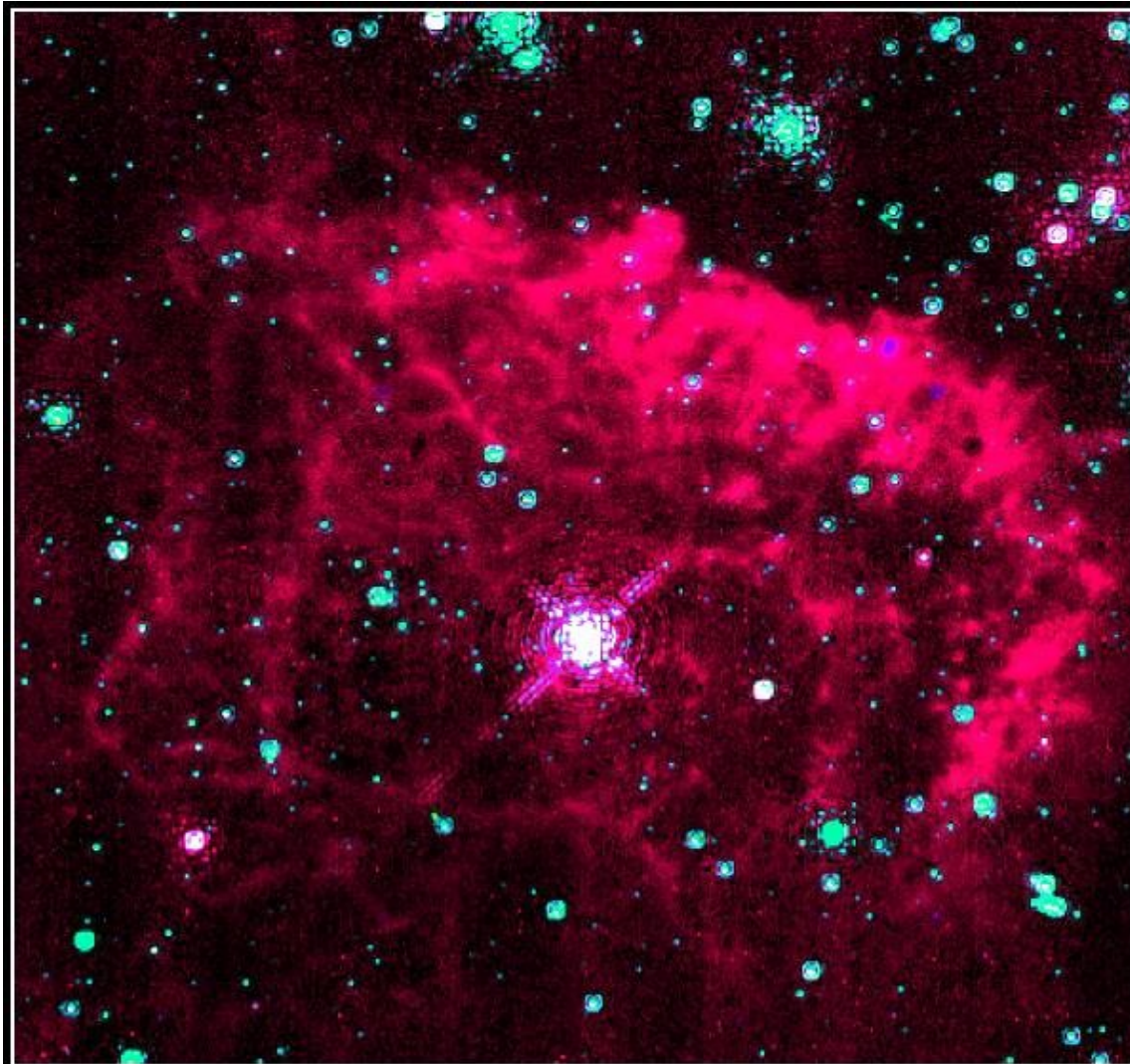
$$L = M^{3.5} = \sqrt{M} \times M \times M \times M$$



Pistol Nebula and Massive Star HST • NICMOS

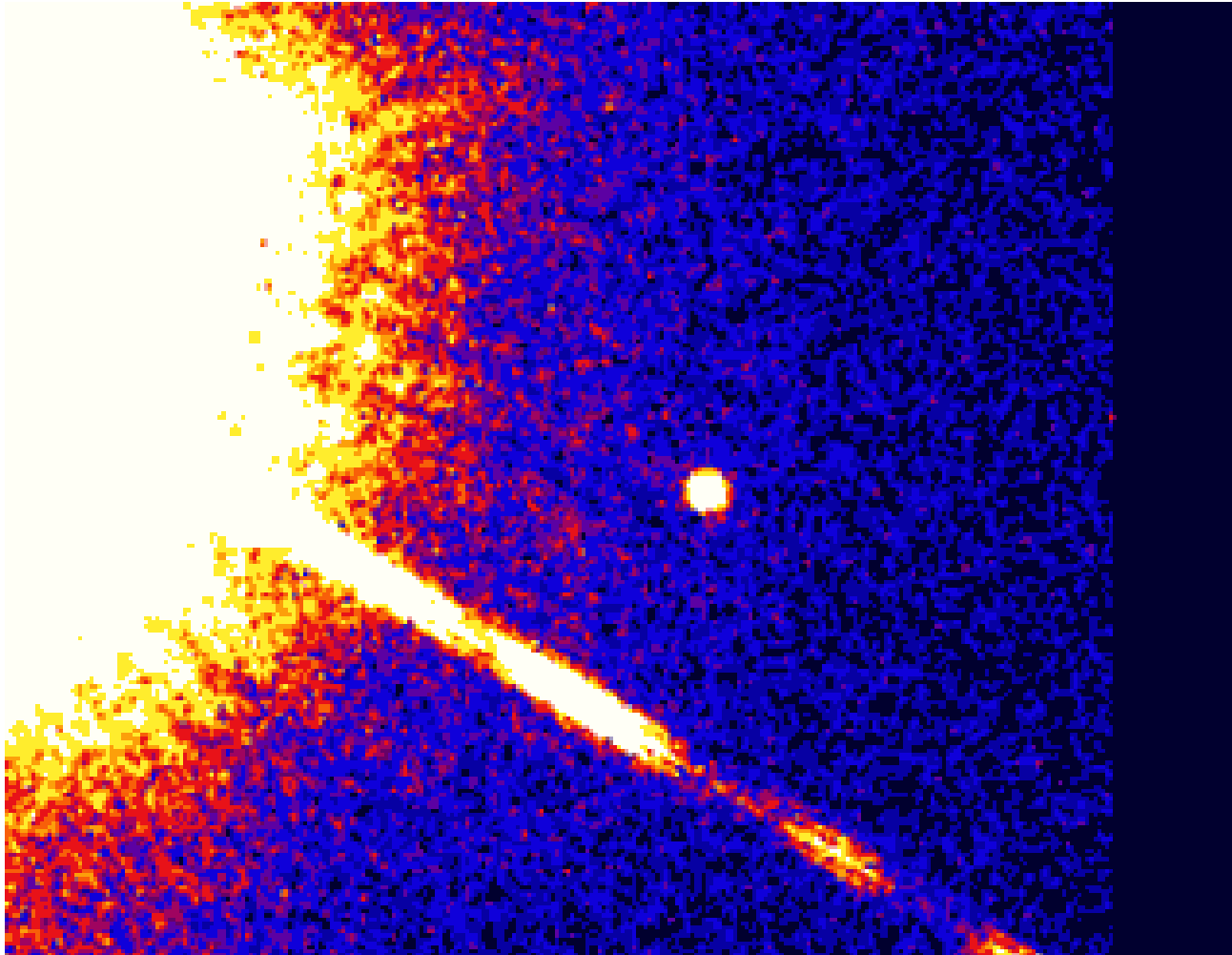
PRC97-33 • ST Scl OPO • D. Figer (UCLA) and NASA

If the Pistol star is $100M_{\text{Sun}}$ how bright should it be
using: $L = M^{3.5} = M^{1/2} \times M \times M \times M = 10 \text{ million!}$



Pistol Nebula and Massive Star HST • NICMOS
PRC97-33 • ST ScI OPO • D. Figer (UCLA) and NASA

Gliese 229B is in a binary with a Red Giant star. It is only 20-50 times more massive than Jupiter or $0.019M_{\text{Sun}}$. (How bright?)

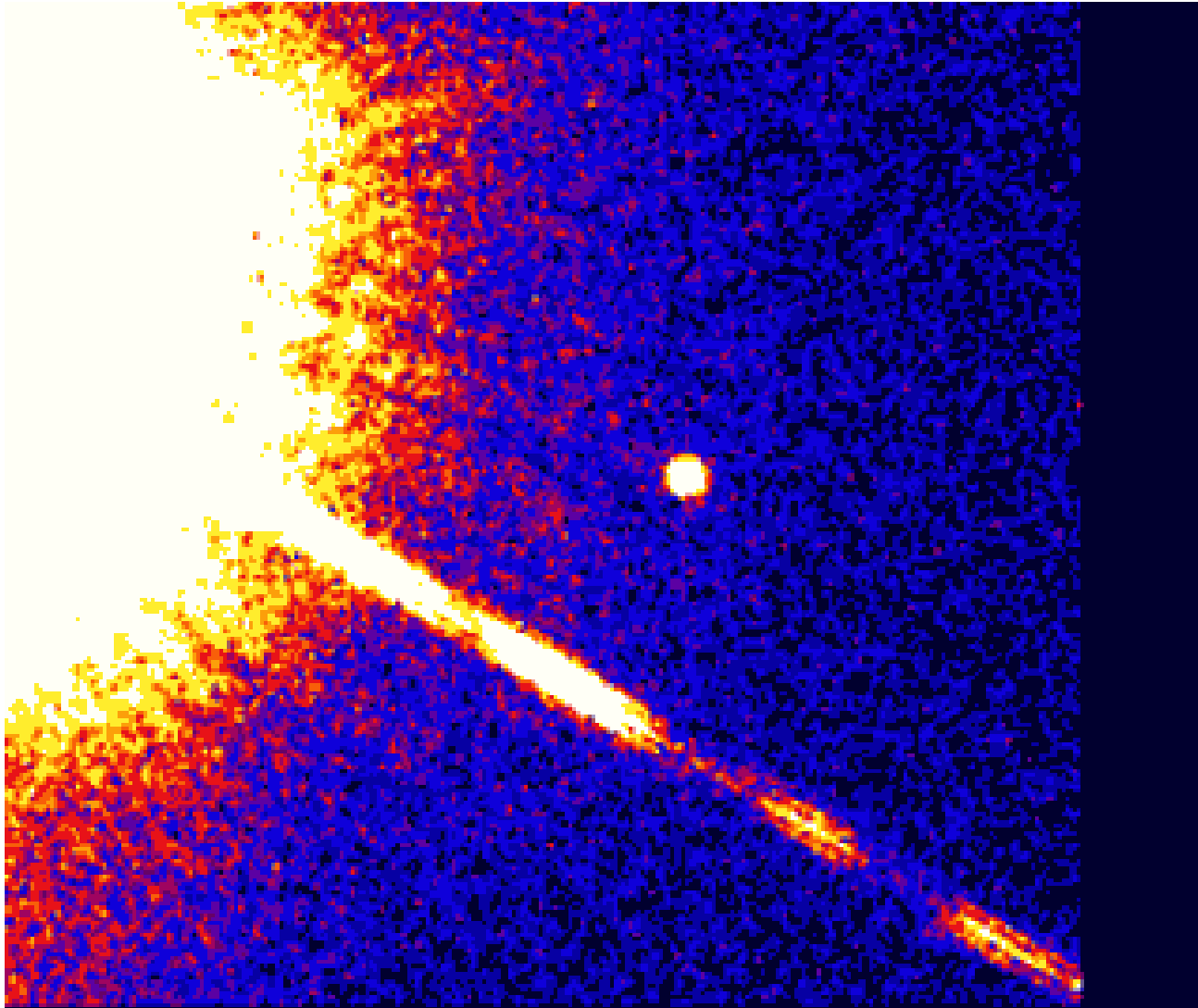


$$L = M^{3.5} = \sqrt{M} \times M \times M \times M$$

Gliese 229B is $0.019M_{\text{Sun}}$. How bright?

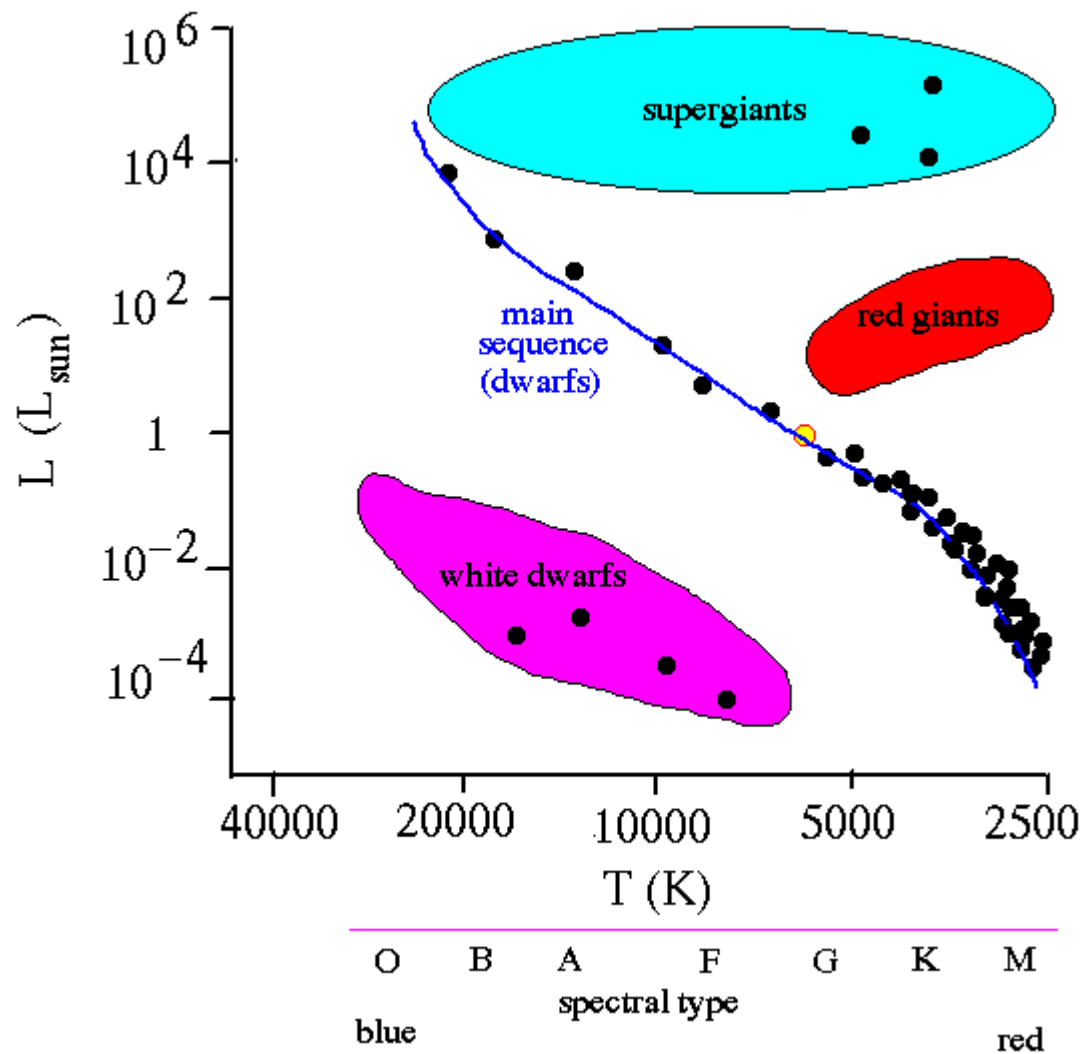
$$L=(0.019)^{3.5} = 9.5 \times 10^{-7} = 0.00000095$$

9.5 ten-millionths!



So stars can get ~ 200 times the mass of the Sun, but millions of times brighter. What does that mean for fuel consumption?

Do stars with more mass live longer or shorter?



Massive stars have shorter main sequence lifetimes.

They have more mass, so more fuel to burn, but have to burn it quicker to support their massive weight.

$$t_{\text{MS}} = 1 \times 10^{10} / M^{2.5} = 1 \times 10^{10} / (M \times M \times M^{1/2}) \text{ in years.}$$

If you put in mass in solar units.

So for $M=1$ (our sun), $t=1 \times 10^{10}=10$ billion years.

Stellar lifetimes.

So our Sun will be on the main sequence for 10 billion years. What about a star with 100 solar masses?

$$t_{\text{MS}} = 1 \times 10^{10} / (M_x M_x M^{1/2})$$

Stellar lifetimes.

So our Sun will be on the main sequence for 10 billion years. What about a star with 100 solar masses?

$$t = 1 \times 10^{10} / 100^{2.5} = 1 \times 10^{10} / (100 \times 100 \times 10) = 1 \times 10^{10} / 10^5 = 10^5$$

Only 100,000 years!