Dead & Variable Stars

Supernovae – Death of massive Stars

- As the core collapses, it overshoots and "bounces"
- A shock wave travels through the star and blows off the outer layers, including the heavy elements – a supernova
- A million times brighter than a nova!!
- The actual explosion takes less than a second



Type I vs Type II Supernovae

- Different light curves (patterns of Nature)
- Different processes produce these patterns
 - Type Ia: White dwarf
 - "overeats"
 - Type II: massive star's core collapses because fusion of iron sucks up energy



SN Type Ia – "Assisted Suicide"

- Implosion of a white dwarf after it accretes a certain amount of matter, reaching about 1.4 solar masses → can only happen in binaries
- Very predictable; used as a standard candle
 Estimate distance to host galaxy



Extra mass comes from companion star • Reason for instability: failure of quantum pressure of electrons (gravity wins!)

> Was worked out by Chandrasekhar (age 19) on the boat from India to Britain 1930
> Implies Black Holes



Illustration by Don Dixon, adapted from Wolfgang Hillebrandt, Hans-Thomas Janka, and Ewald Müller, "How to Blow Up a Star," Scientific American, October 2006

Type II – "Normal Supernova"

- Implosion of a massive star, as we already saw
- Expect one in our galaxy about every hundred years
- Six in the last thousand years; none since 1604



1. As a massive star nears its end, it takes on an onion-layer structure.

Hydrogen

Helium

Carbon

2×10^{6} km



200 km

3. Within a second, the core collapses to nuclear density. Inward-falling material rebounds off the core, setting up an outward-going pressure wave.

rich core Pressure wave

Neutron-

Shock wave

- Neutrinoheated gas bubble

Downdraft of cool gas

4. Neutrinos pouring out of the developing neutron star propel the shock wave outward, unevenly.

5. The shock wave sweeps through the entire star, blowing it apart.

Illustration by Don Dixon, adapted from Wolfgang Hillebrandt, Hans-Thomas Janka, and Ewald Müller, "How to Blow Up a Star," *Scientific American,* October 2006

Supernova Remnants



Crab Nebula



From Vela Supernova

Formation of the Elements in SN

- Light elements (hydrogen, helium) formed in Big Bang
- Heavier elements formed by nuclear fusion in stars and thrown into space by supernovae
 - Condense into new stars and planets
 - Elements heavier than iron form during supernovae explosions

Evidence:

- Theory predicts the observed elemental abundance in the universe very well
- Spectra of supernovae show the presence of unstable isotopes like Nickel-56
- Older globular clusters are deficient in heavy elements

What's Left?

- Type Ia supernova
 Nothing left behind
- Type II supernova
 - While the parent star is destroyed, a tiny ultracompressed remnant may remain – a neutron star
 - This happens if the mass of the parent star was above the Chandrasekhar limit

More Massive Stars end up as Neutron Stars

- The core cools and shrinks
- Nuclei and electrons are crushed together
- Protons combine with electrons to form neutrons
- Ultimately the collapse is halted by neutron pressure, the core is composed of neutrons
- Size ~ few km
- Density ~ 10¹⁸ kg/m³; 1 cubic cm has a mass of 100 million kg!



How do we know Neutron Stars exist? →Pulsars



- First discovered by Jocelyn Bell (1967)
 - Little Green Men?!? Nope...
- Rapid pulses of radiation
- Periods: fraction of a second to several seconds
- Small, rapidly rotating objects
- Can't be white dwarfs; must be neutron stars



(a) One of the beams from the rotating neutron star is aimed toward Earth: We detect a pulse of radiation.

- Pulsars rotate very rapidly
- Extremely strong magnetic fields guide the radiation
- Results in "beams" of radiation, like in lighthouse

The "Lighthouse Effect"



(b) Half a rotation later, neither beam is aimed toward Earth: We detect that the radiation is "off."

Super-Massive Stars end up as Black Holes

- If the mass of the star is sufficiently large (M > 25 M_{Sun}), even the neutron pressure cannot halt the collapse in fact, no known force can stop it!
- The star collapses to a very small size, with ultrahigh density
- Nearby gravity becomes so strong that nothing not even light – can escape!
- The edge of the region from which nothing can escape is called the event horizon
 - Radius of the event horizon called the Schwarzschild Radius

Table 12-1Evolutionary Stages of a 25-M $_{\odot}$ Star			
Stage	Core temperature	Core density (kg/m ³)	Duration of stage
Hydrogen fusion	$4 imes 10^7$	5×10^{3}	$7 imes 10^6$ years
Helium fusion	$2 imes 10^8$	7×10^{5}	$7 imes 10^5$ years
Carbon fusion	6×10^{8}	2×10^{8}	600 years
Neon fusion	1.2×10^{9}	4×10^{9}	1 year
Oxygen fusion	1.5×10^{9}	1010	6 months
Silicon fusion	2.7×10^{9}	3×10^{10}	1 day
Core collapse	5.4×10^{9}	3×10^{12}	¹ /4 second
Core bounce	$2.3 imes 10^{10}$	4×10^{17}	milliseconds
Explosive supernova	about 10 ⁹	varies	10 seconds

Evidence for the existence of Black Holes

- Fast Rotation of the Galactic Center only explainable by Black Hole
- Other possible Black Hole Candidates:
 Cygnus X-1 (X-ray source), LMC X-3
- Observational evidence very strong

Surface Gravity is strongest if mass is concentrated in a small volume



Novae – "New Stars"

- Actually an old star

 a white dwarf –
 that suddenly flares
 up
 - Accreted hydrogen begins fusing
- Usually lasts for a few months
- May repeat ("recurrent novae")





Variable Stars

- Eclipsing binaries (stars do not change physically, only their relative position changes)
- Nova (two stars "collaborating" to produce "star eruption")
- Cepheids (stars do change physically)
- RR Lyrae Stars (stars do change physically)
- Mira Stars (stars do change physically)

Eclipsing Binaries (Rare!)

- The orbital plane of the pair almost edge-on to our line of sight
- We observe periodic changes in the starlight as one member of the binary passes in front of the other



Cepheids

- Named after δ Cephei
- Period-Luminosity Relations
- Two types of Cepheids:
 - Type I: higher luminosity, metal-rich, Pop. 1
 - Type II: lower lum., metal-poor, Population 2
- Used as "standard candles"
- "yard-sticks" for distance measurement
- Cepheids in Andromeda Galaxies established the "extragalacticity" of this "nebula"

Cepheids

- Henrietta Leavitt (1908) discovers the period-luminosity relationship for Cepheid variables
- Period thus tells us luminosity, which then tells us the distance
- Since Cepheids are brighter than RR Lyrae, they can be used to measure out to further distances





Properties of Cepheids

- Period of pulsation: a few days
- Luminosity: 200-2000 suns
- Radius: 10-100 solar radii





(c) Surface temperature versus time for δ Cephei

The star does change physically: Its radius & surface temperature oscillate

Properties of RR Lyrae Stars

- Period of pulsation: less than a day
- Luminosity: 100 suns
- Radius: 5 solar radii



Distance Measurements with variable stars

- Extends the cosmic distance ladder out as far as we can see Cepheids – about 50 million ly
- In 1920 Hubble used this technique to measure the distance to Andromeda (about 2 million ly)
- Works best for periodic variables



Cepheids and RR Lyrae: Yard-Sticks

- Normal stars undergoing a phase of instability
- Cepheids are more massive and brighter than RR Lyrae
- <u>Note:</u> all RR Lyrae have the same luminosity
- Apparent brightness thus tells us the distance to them!
 - Recall: $\mathbf{B} \propto \mathbf{L}/\mathbf{d}^2$

