Stellar Evolution

I. How are stars born?

- What do they look like before they're born?
- What is the pre-stellar material made of?
- How can stellar nurseries be identified?
- When does a blob of gas officially become a star?
- How long does it take?

II. How do stars evolve?

- How do they change in mass, luminosity, temperature, radius, etc?
- Do all stars evolve in the same manner?
- Do all stars evolve at the same timescale?
- If stars evolve differently, what determines how a star will evolve?
- Do stars run out of power?

III. How do stars die?

- What does it mean for a star to "die"?
- Do all stars die the same way?
- How does a star's death influence its surroundings?

I. How are stars born?

Short answer: they form out of collapsing clouds of gas and dust within a galaxy.

The gas and dust between the stars is called the *Inter-Stellar Medium*, or *ISM*.

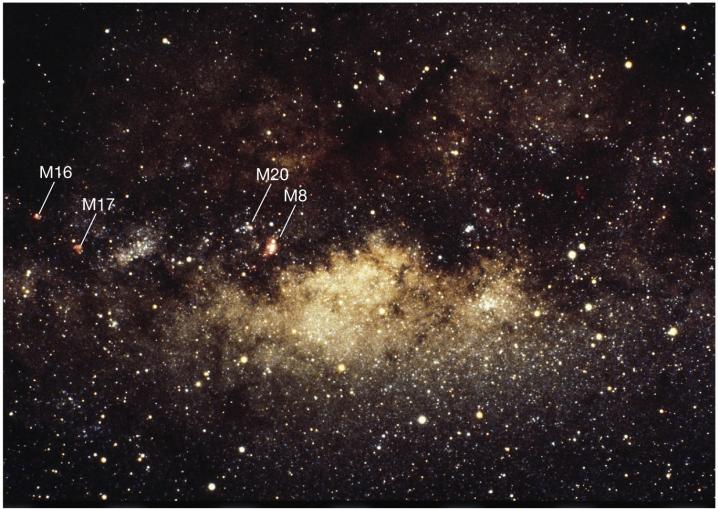
Let's take a look at the ISM ...

Figure 18-5 Milky Way Mosaic

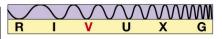


180 degrees of the sky!!

Figure 18-1 The Milky Way (zoomed a little) in visible light.

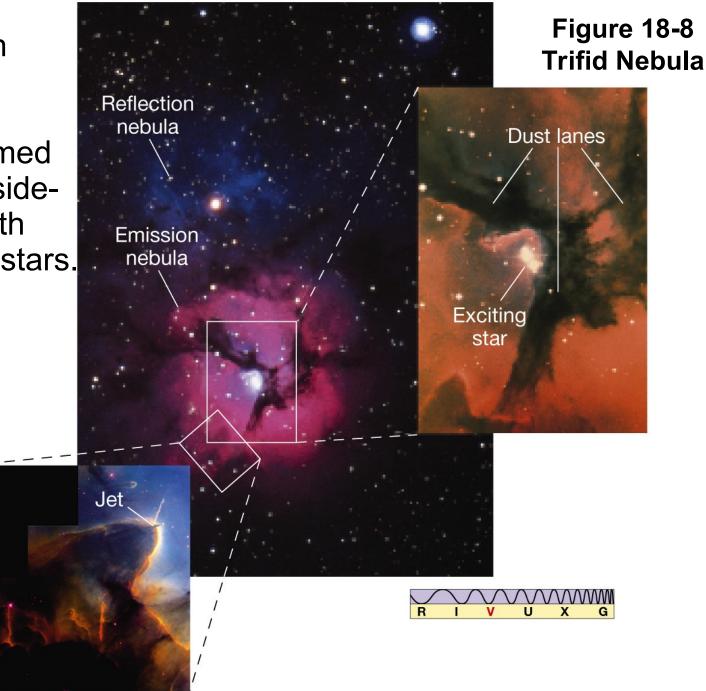


Glowing nebulosities indicate recently formed stars. The dark clouds may hide protostars!



Zoomed in on "M20".

Newly formed stars are sideby-side with unformed stars.



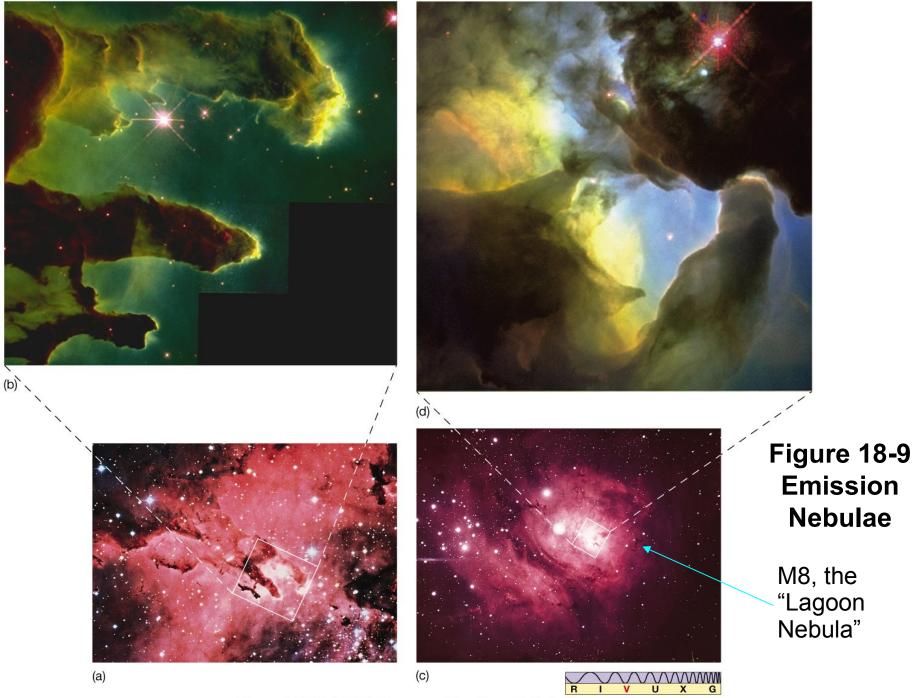
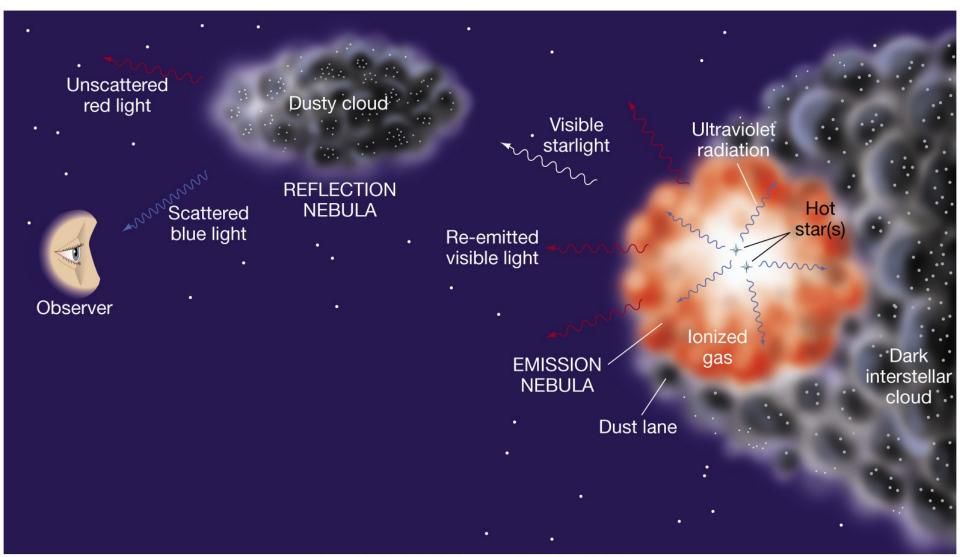


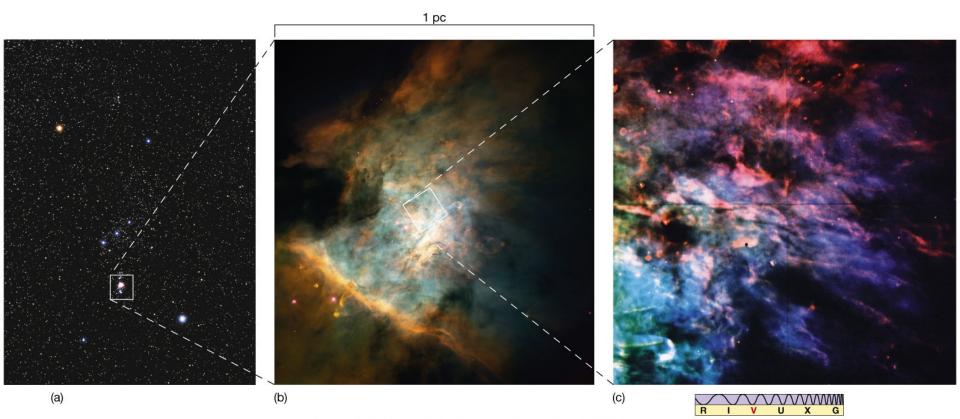
Figure 18-10 Nebular Structure



Reflection Nebula- the Pleiades



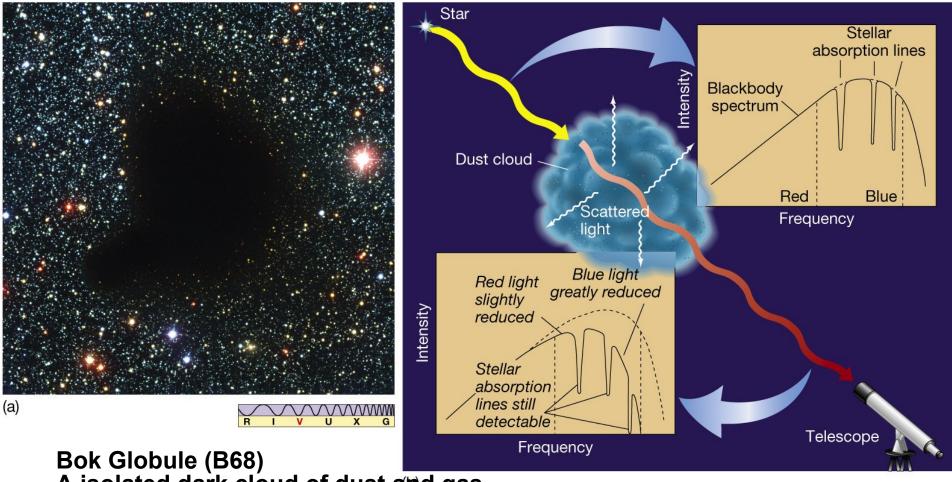
Figure 18-12 Orion Nebula



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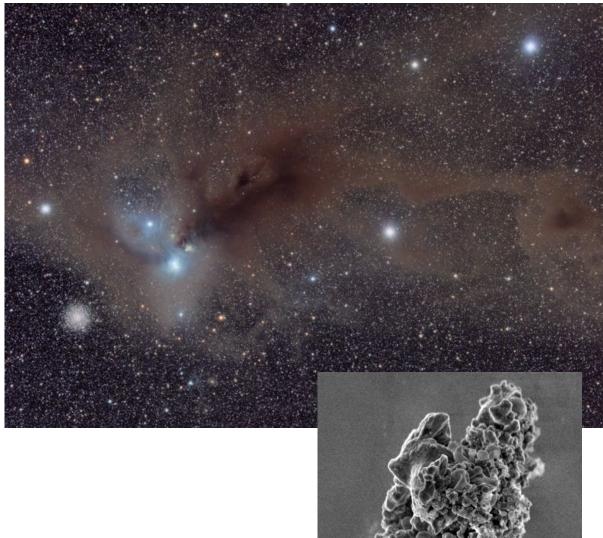
(See "Star Formation" presentation for observatory.)

Figure 18-2 Reddening

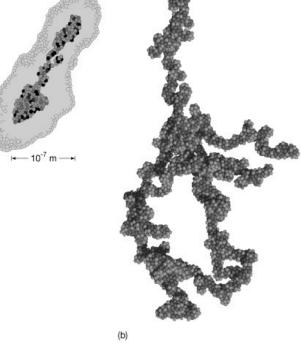


Bok Globule (B68)FrequencyA isolated dark cloud of dust and gas.A few LY across. <10 Msort the 2005 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.</td>

Dust Clouds



Polarization \rightarrow elongation



Hot dust: Al,Fe,Mg Cold dust: H₂O,CH₄ ices

Sizes ~0.1-1 micron. I.S. grains found in Earth's atmosphere!

Figure 18-15 Horsehead Nebula dust *in front* of an emission nebula



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ISM

ISM = interstellar medium (gas and dust between stars).

Temperature and density vary widely in the ISM.

Composition: mostly H in these forms, or *phases*:

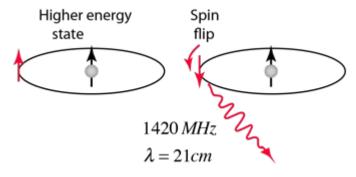
 H_2 – cold, molecular hydrogen. Invisible, detected in UV.

- HI cool to warm atomic hydrogen. Invisible, except absorption & emission in UV and radio.
- HII hot, singly ionized hydrogen gas. Emits Balmer lines, pretty and pink!

Cold regions also contain complex molecules (organic!) and dust. Most molecules are detectable in radio.

HI gas and the 21 cm "spin flip" transition of hydrogen





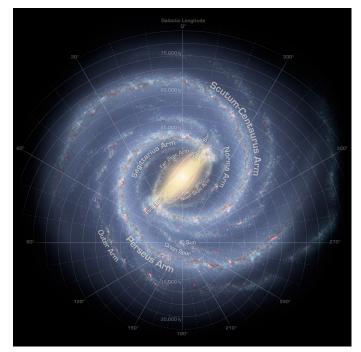
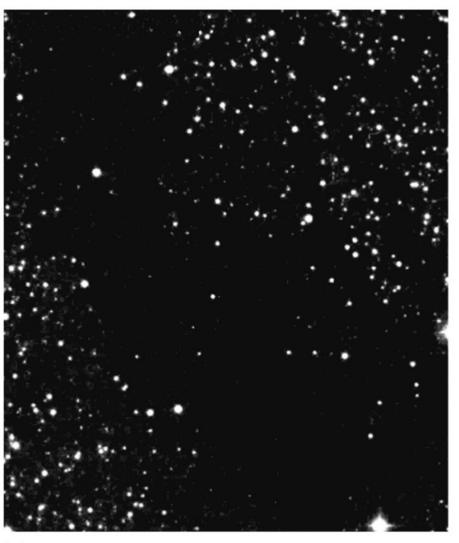
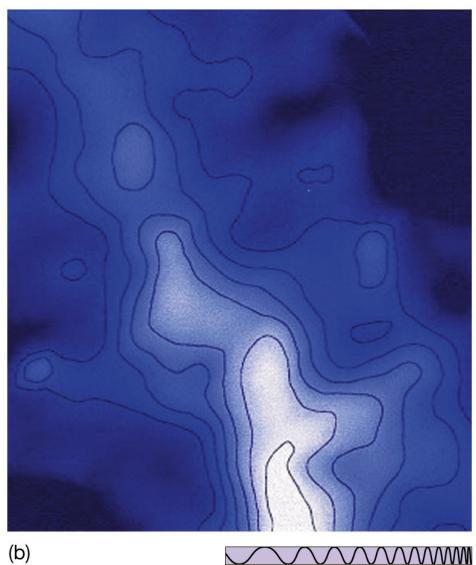


Figure 18-13 Obscuration (in visible) and Emission (in radio, from CO molecules)





^(a) "L977"

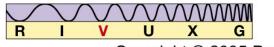
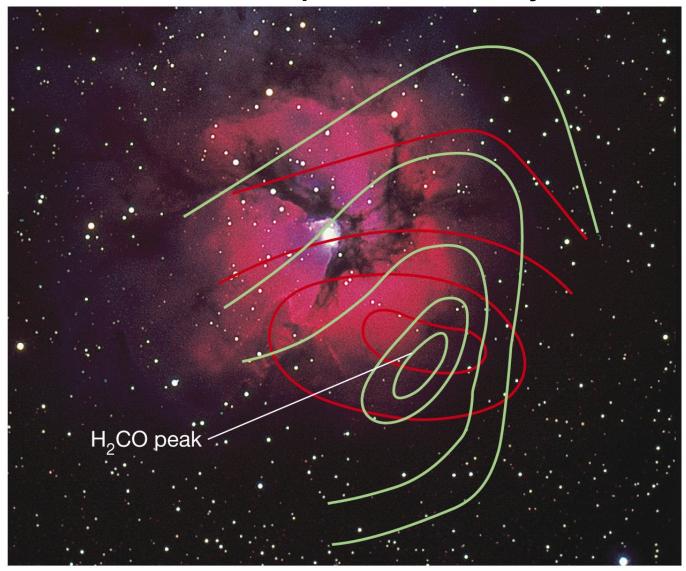
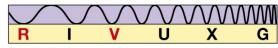


Figure 18-21 M20 Radio Map ... in formaldehyde





Summary of Molecular clouds (MCs and GMCs):

Stars form in big molecular clouds made of mostly H_2 .

We study these clouds with radio and infrared emission because H_2 is almost undetectable in other wavelengths.

Molecules like CO and H_2CO coexist with H_2 and are more detectable in radio emission and absorption. Infrared can "see" hot protostars within the dust.

One molecular cloud can form hundreds to thousands of stars. (Star clusters!)

The first stars to form will "light up" the cloud and begin blowing away the cloud.

Starting questions - checkpoint

I. How are stars born?

a) What do they look like before they're born?

Dark clouds of dust and gas molecules called <u>molecular clouds</u>. We can "see" into these cold clouds in radio and IR wavelengths revealing warmer clumps of collapsing gas. Parts of these clouds will light up with emission and reflection nebula as new stars emerge.

b) What is the pre-stellar material made of?

Mostly H_2 (molecular hydrogen), but a large variety of molecules (e.g., chloroform) have been identified.

c) How can stellar nurseries be identified?

In optical: as bright emission line nebulae, also called HII regions. In IR: as bright (hot) spots inside of molecular clouds.

d) When does a blob of gas officially become a star?

It is a "protostar" as it's cocoon of gas is being shed (stages 3-5, next page), and it is a "star" when H fusion begins.

e) How long does it take (to reach fusion)?

About 5x10⁷ for a 1 solar mass star, but faster for more massive stars.

I. How are stars born?

Table 19-1Prestellar Evolution of a Solar-Type Star

| TABLE 19.1 | Prestellar Evo | lution of | a Solar-1 | Type Star |
|-------------------|----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
|-------------------|----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|

| Stage | Approximate Time to Next Stage | Central Temperature | Surface Temperature | Central Density | Diameter [*] | Object |
|-------|-----------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| | (yr) | (K) | (K) | (particles/m ³) | (km) | |
| 1 | 2×10^{6} | 10 | 10 | 10 ⁹ | 10 ¹⁴ | Interstellar cloud |
| 2 | 3×10^4 | 100 | 10 | 10^{12} | 10 ¹² | Cloud fragment |
| 3 | 10^{5} | 10,000 | 100 | 10^{18} | 10^{10} | Cloud fragment/protostar |
| 4 | 10^{6} | 1,000,000 | 3000 | 10 ²⁴ | 10^{8} | Protostar |
| 5 | 10 ⁷ | 5,000,000 | 4000 | 10^{28} | 10^{7} | Protostar |
| 6 | 3×10^7 | 10,000,000 | 4500 | 10 ³¹ | 2×10^{6} | Star |
| 7 | 10^{10} | 15,000,000 | 6000 | 10 ³² | 1.5×10^{6} | Main-sequence star |

*Round numbers; for comparison, recall that the diameter of the Sun is 1.4×10^6 km, while that of the solar system is roughly 1.5×10^{10} km.

Figure 19-6 Interstellar Cloud Evolution

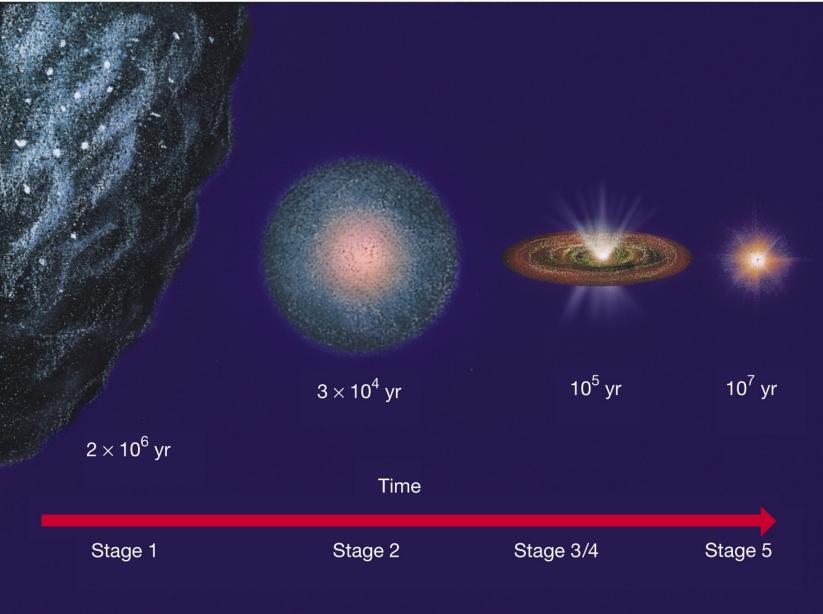
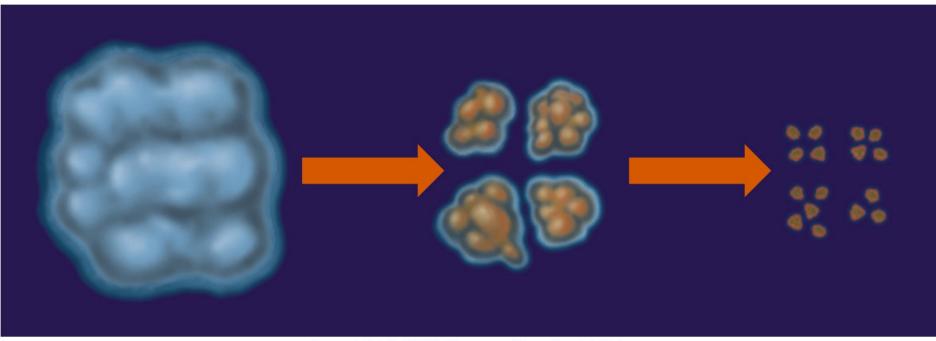
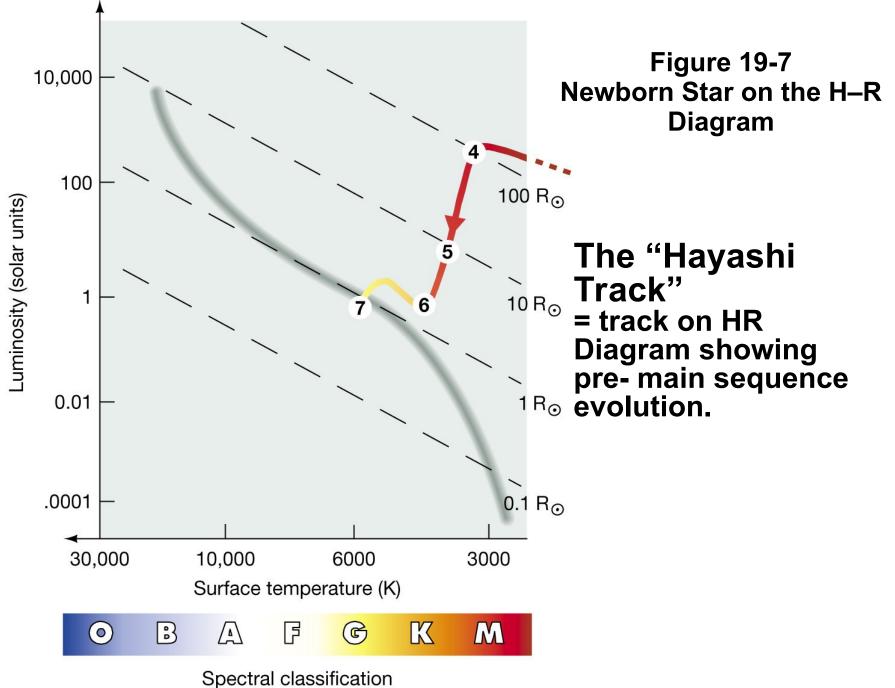


Figure 19-4 Cloud Fragmentation



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(Stages 2 and 3)



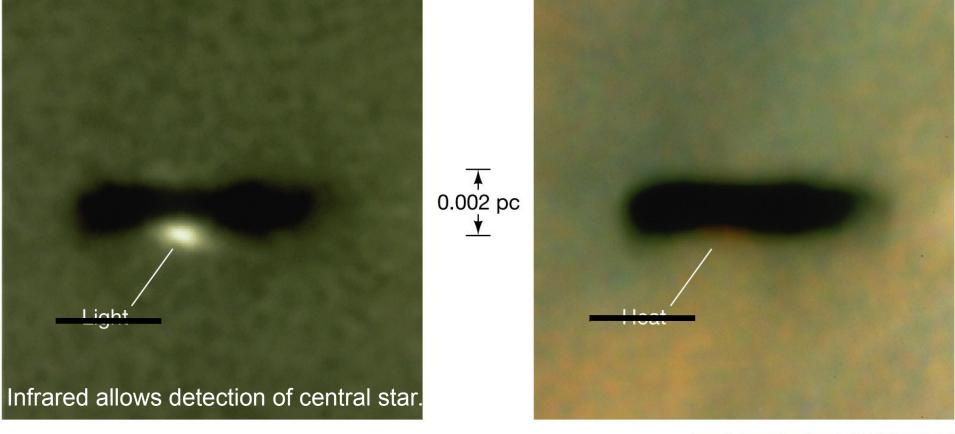
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Factors influencing star formation

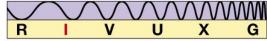
- 1. Factors promoting collapse of gas cloud
 - a) gravity primary reason for collapse
 - b) dust radiates away heat in the IR; evaporation of dust grains consumes heat.
 - c) H₂ (molecular hydrogen) uses up heat in breaking bonds
 - d) external factors: spiral density waves, shock waves from adjacent regions of star formation, galaxy mergers, tidal interactions, etc.
- 2. Factors prohibiting collapse of gas cloud
 - a) heat / pressure primary resistance to collapse
 - b) magnetic fields plasma can't move across field lines easily
 - c) rotation collapse happens mainly along spin axis
 - d) external factors: winds from nearby hot stars / supernova, winds and ionizing radiation from active nuclei

Figure 19-11 Protostars in *Proplyds*

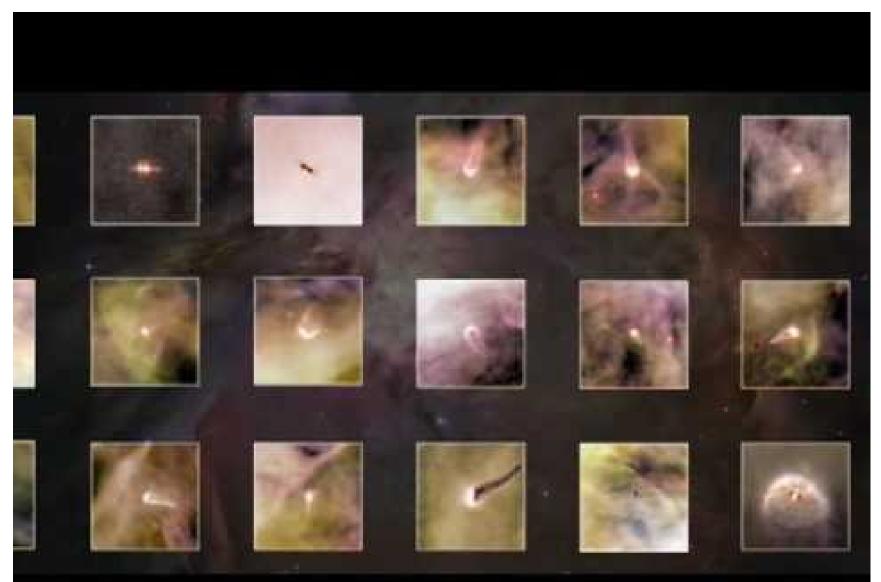
Proplyds stands for Protoplanetary disks. The scale bar shows .002pc = 400 AU, so these are about 5 solar systems across. These are *dark proplyds* protected from ionizing radiation.



(Stages 3-5)

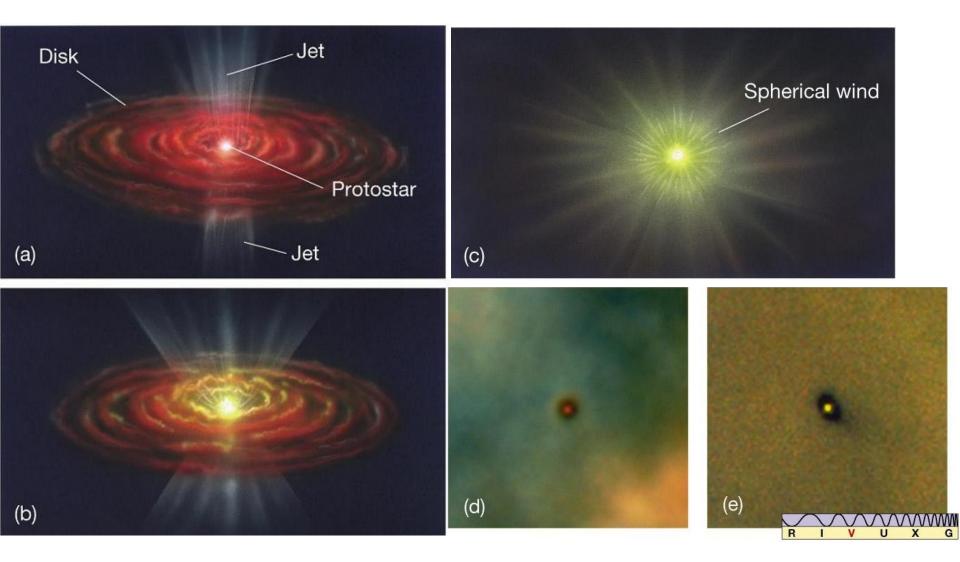


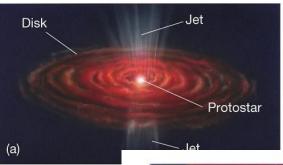
A multitude of *Proplyds* in Orion.



(See APOD version)

Figure 19-12 Protostellar Wind





(b)

Young Stellar Objects (YSOs) in the IR

These are basically proplyds, but in these IR HST images, the disks and outflows are more obvious, and bow shocks and photoionization fronts are not seen.

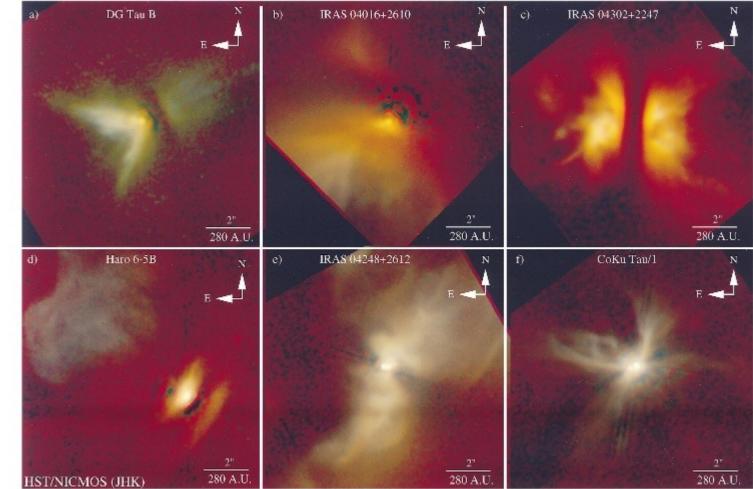


Fig. 1.—HST/NICMOS images of Taurus young stellar objects, arranged in order of decreasing circumstellar mass. These are pseudo-true color composites of NICMOS F110W (1.1 μm), F160W (1.6 μm), and F205W (2.05 μm) broadband observations. Each image was deconvolved using theoretical point-spread functions, resulting in a factor of 3 reduction in extended PSF features. Note that objects (e) and (f) are subarcsecond binaries. North is up in all images.

Evaporating Gaseous Globules (EGGs) and Herbig-Haro objects in the Carina Nebula

Visible

(This picture used to be the cover photo!) (Try Zoomit!)

Infrared

Star formation terms

Interstellar cloud: denser than average region of ISM that includes other types of clouds (GMCs, MCs, diffuse clouds). Typically 10-500 LYacross. Molecular Cloud: an interstellar cloud or part of an interstellar cloud with at least some regions cold enough to have molecules, especially H₂. <u>Giant Molecular Cloud (GMC)</u>: large complex of molecular clouds (diam > 100 LY) usually containing over 100,000 M☉ of gas. Temps 10-50 K. Mostly H2 with ~1% dust, 5% He. Ripe for star formation. Emission nebula: a small region of an interstellar cloud which is glowing because its H gas is excited by UV from hot, young stars. EGGs = Evaporating Gaseous Globules – blobs of gas along the edge or making up the edge of dust "pillars" and clouds undergoing photoevaporation. These are generally larger than proplyds and may contain many proplyds and hidden, young stars. Proplyds = protoplanetary disks. 100-1000 AU across (tiny compared to molecular cloud. Traditionally identified in visible wavelength HST images. <u>YSOs</u> = Young Stellar Objects – young stars still embedded in gas and dust disks but exhibiting strong, polar winds and jets. Traditionally identified in infrared data, but basically these are proplyds that show outflows. These objects are also called <u>*T* Tauri stars</u> if they are $< 2 \text{ M}_{\odot}$. Herbig-Haro Objects = blobs making up the jets shooting out of YSOs. Also identified in the IR.

Star formation terms

<u>Protostar</u> = object destined to become a star. It may or may not still have a dust disk or envelope around it. It is not yet hot and dense enough for fusion to occur. It is powered by gravitational collapse (Kelvin-Helmholtz contraction.) Stages 4-5 of star formation; before fusion.

<u>Photoevaporation</u> = the dissipation or blowing away of dusty clouds caused by light (especially UV) and winds from hot, massive young stars.

Figure 19-18 Open Cluster

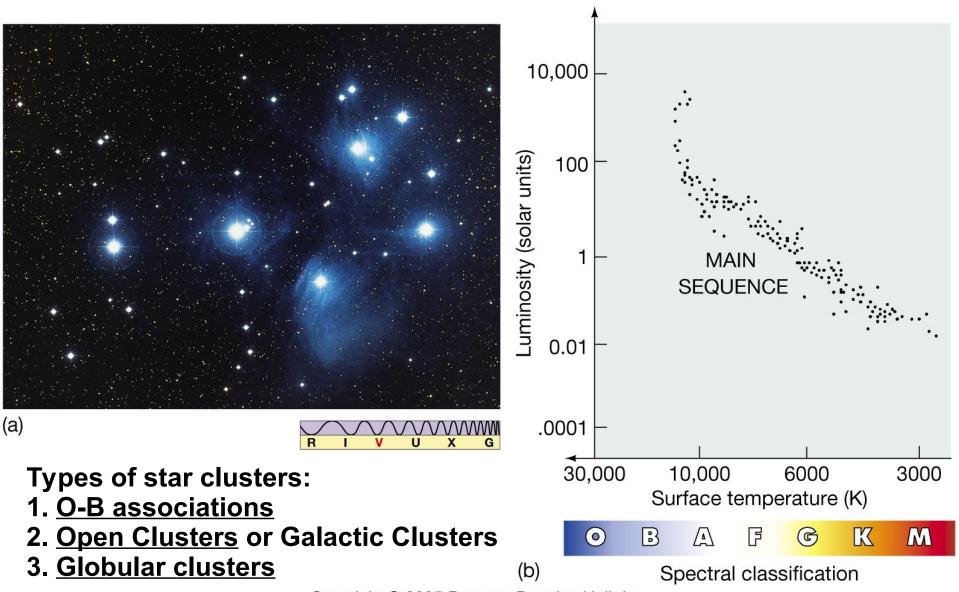


Figure 19-17 Newborn Cluster

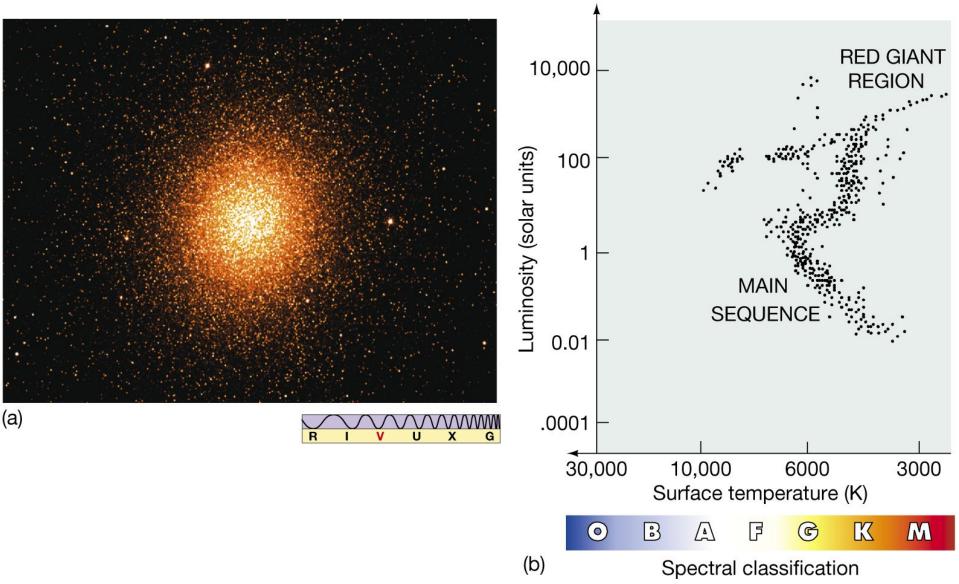
NGC 3603 ~2million yrs old. 20 LY field of view.



R I V U X G Copyright © 2005 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.

Figure 19-18 Globular Cluster

Omega Centauri, 5 kpc away, 120 LY FOV.



II. Stellar Evolution: The Life and Death of a Star



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The Helix Nebula

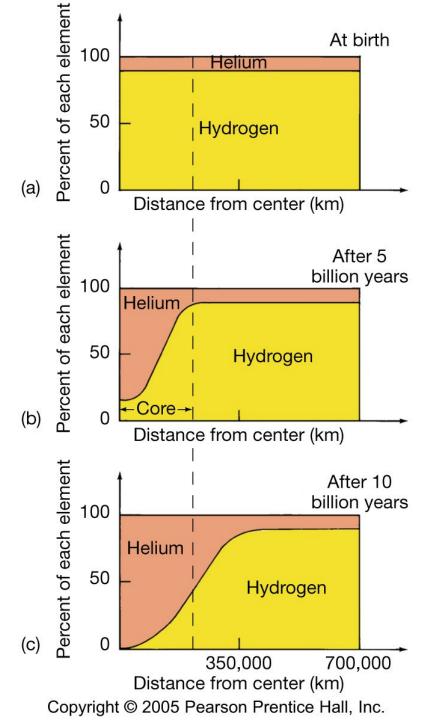
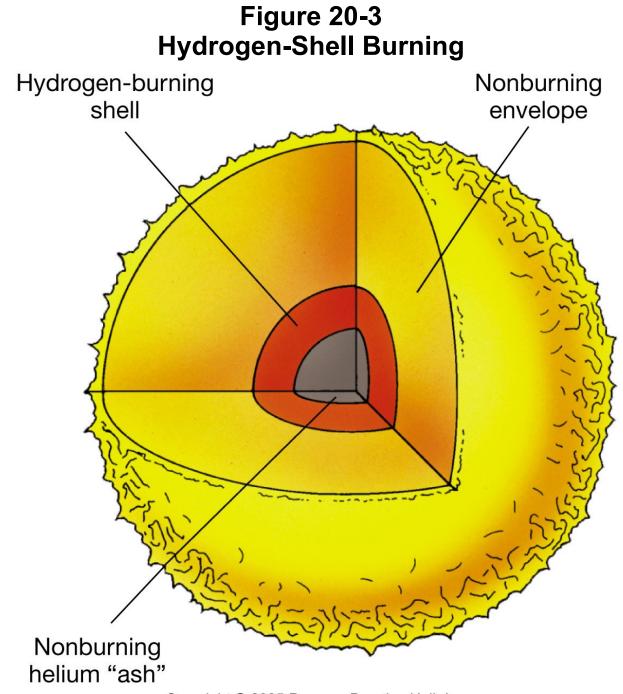
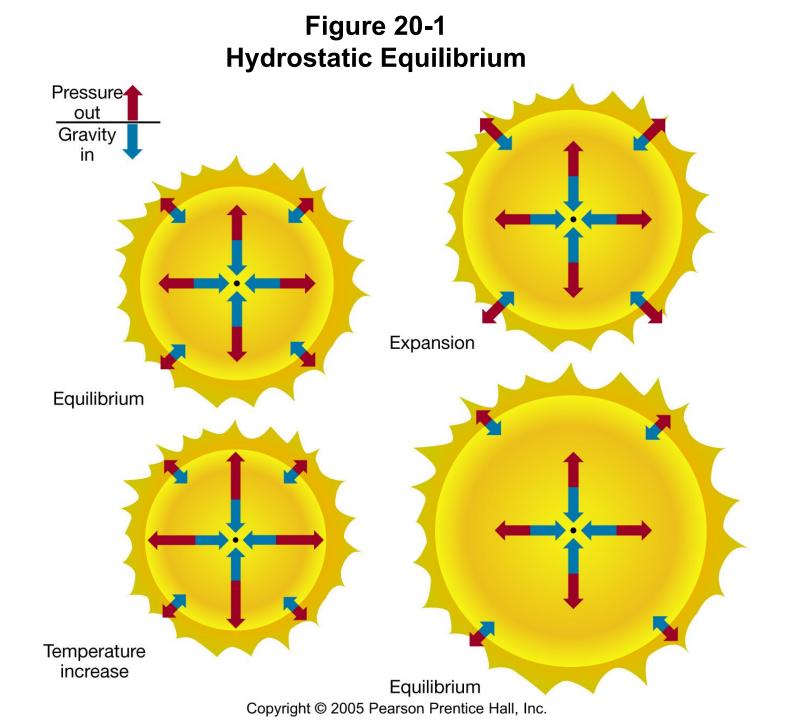


Figure 20-2 Change in Solar Composition



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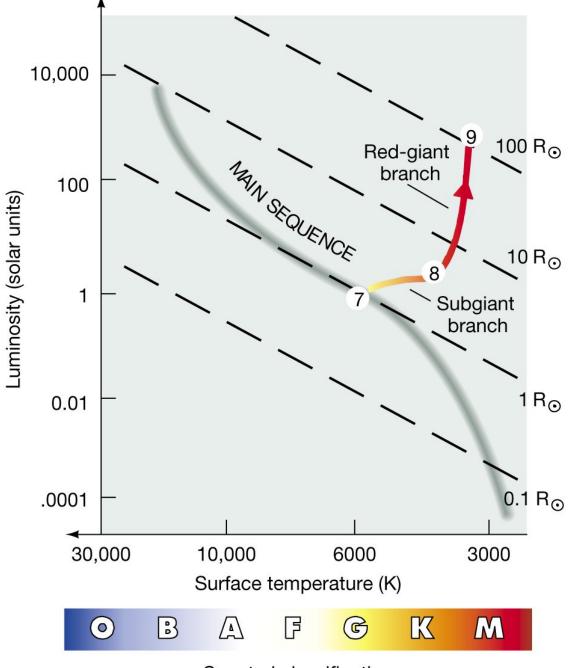


Figure 20-4 Red Giant on the H–R Diagram

Example of low-mass star on red giant branch: Arcturus (KIII).

As core collapses, the outer shells expand.

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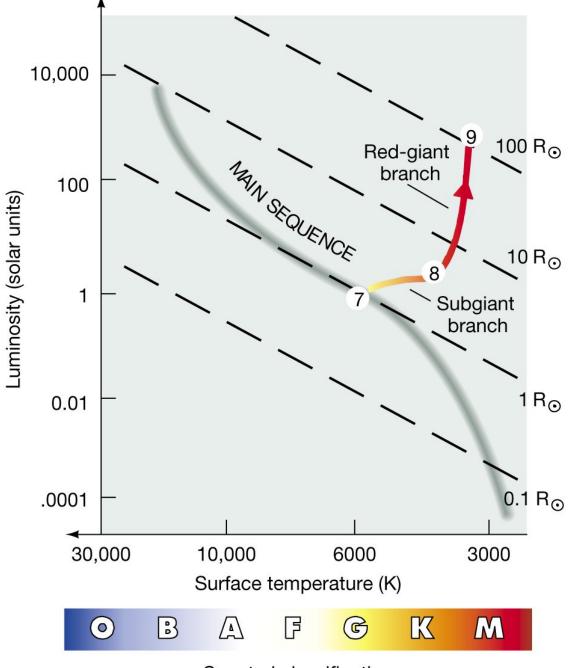


Figure 20-4 Red Giant on the H–R Diagram

Example of low-mass star on red giant branch: Arcturus (KIII).

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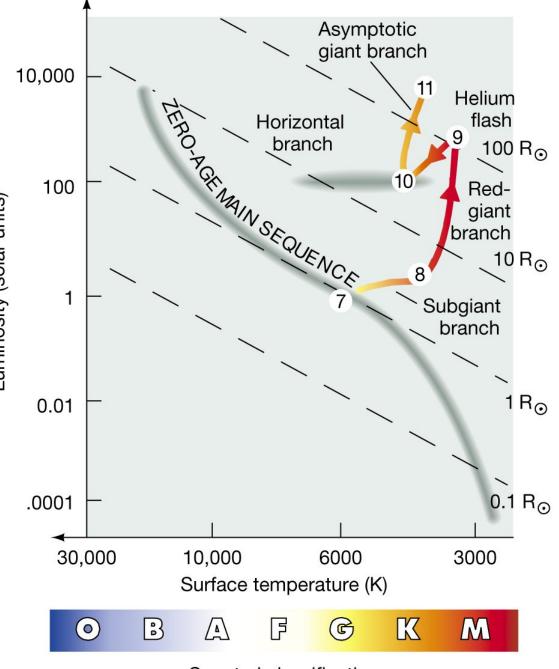
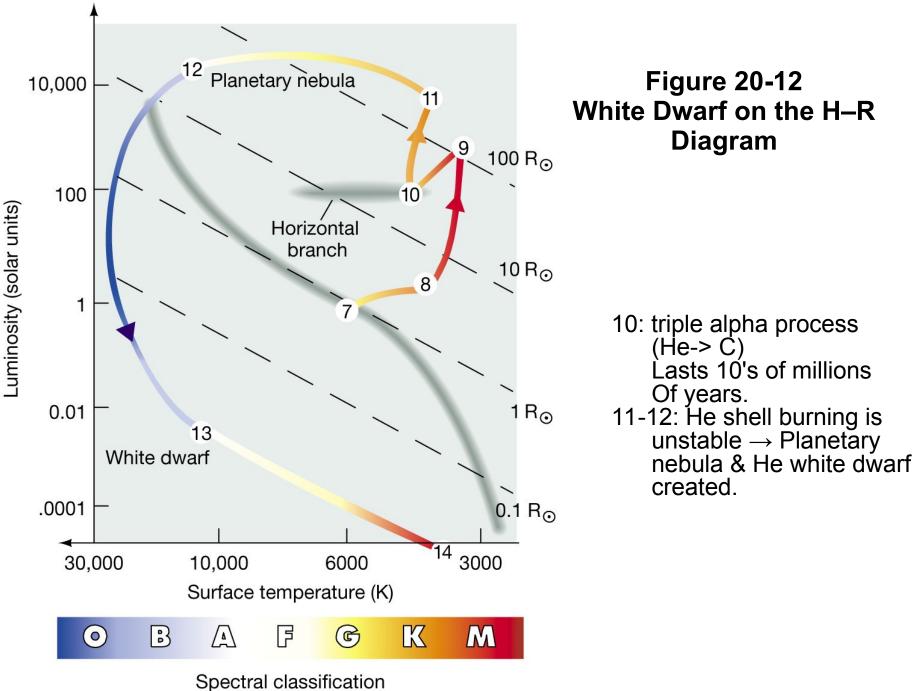


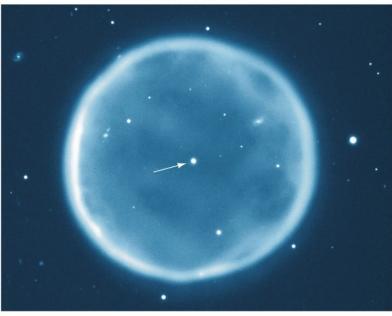
Figure 20-6 **Red-Giant Branch Revisited**

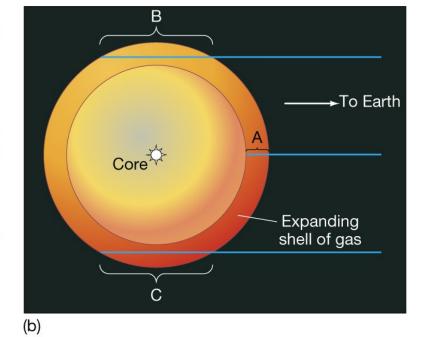
Luminosity (solar units)

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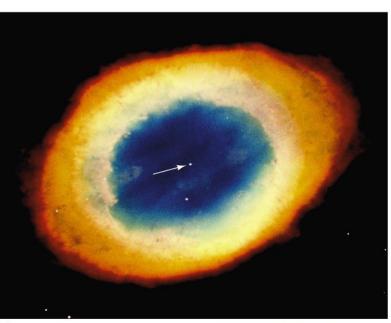


Figure 20-10 Ejected Envelope

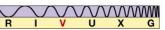


Table 20-2Sirius B, a Nearby White Dwarf

| TABLE 20.2Sirius B, a | Nearby White Dwarf |
|-----------------------|--|
| Mass | 1.1 solar masses |
| Radius | 0.0073 solar radius (5100 km) |
| Luminosity (total) | 0.025 solar luminosity (9.8 \times 10 ²⁴ W) |
| Surface temperature | 27,000 K |
| Average density | $3.9 \times 10^9 \mathrm{kg/m^3}$ |

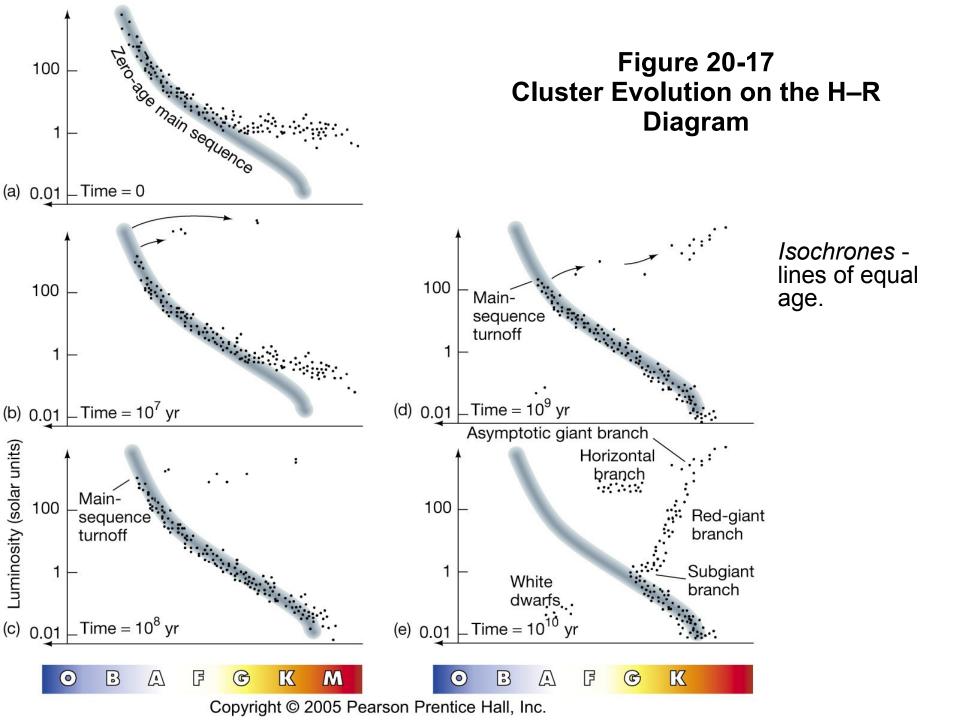
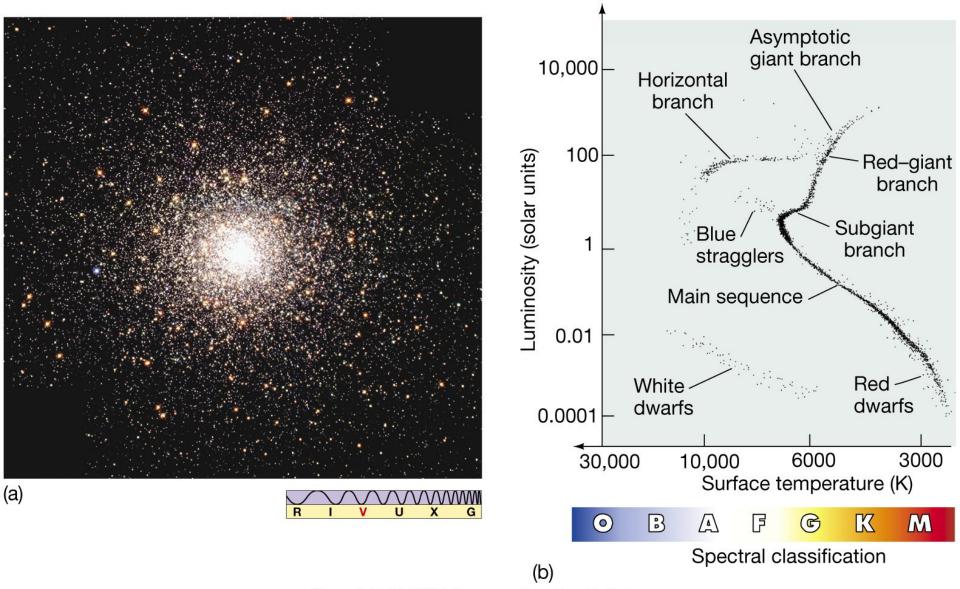


Figure 20-15 Globular Cluster H–R Diagram



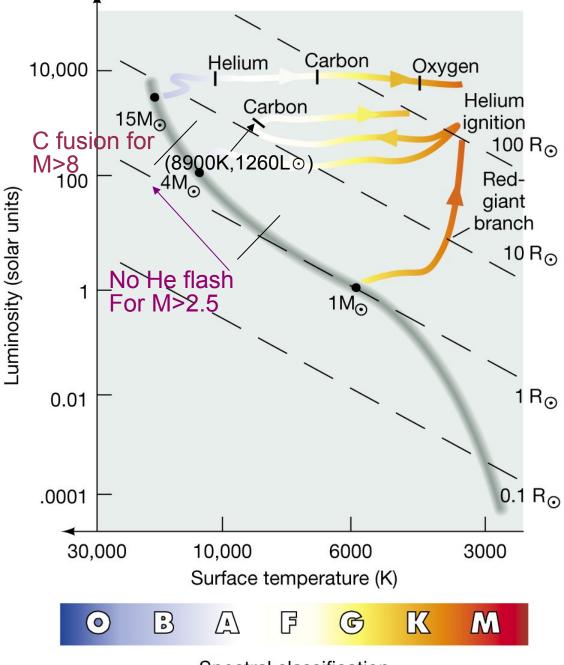


Figure 20-16 High-Mass Evolutionary Tracks

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High mass evolution

G. Bertelli et al.: Scaled solar tracks and isochrones in a large region of the Z-Y plane

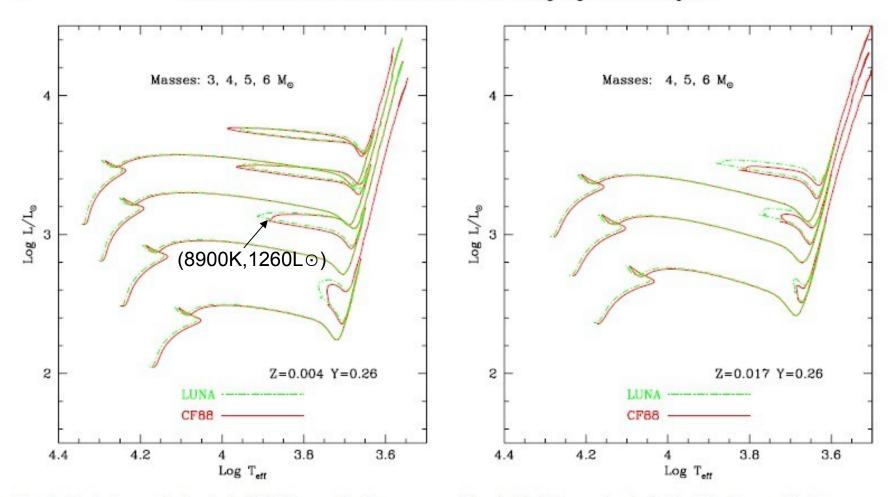


Fig. 3. Evolutionary tracks in the HR diagram for the composition Z = 0.004, Y = 0.26 computed with the new LUNA rate for the ¹⁴N(p, γ)¹⁵O nuclear reaction (dot-dashed line) and with the rate according to Caughlan & Fowler (1988)(solid line).

6

Fig. 4. Evolutionary tracks in the HR diagram for the composition Z = 0.017, Y = 0.26 computed with the new LUNA rate for the ¹⁴N(p, γ)¹⁵O nuclear reaction (dot-dashed line) and with the rate according to Caughlan & Fowler (1988)(solid line).

From A&A Nov 2009

High mass evolution

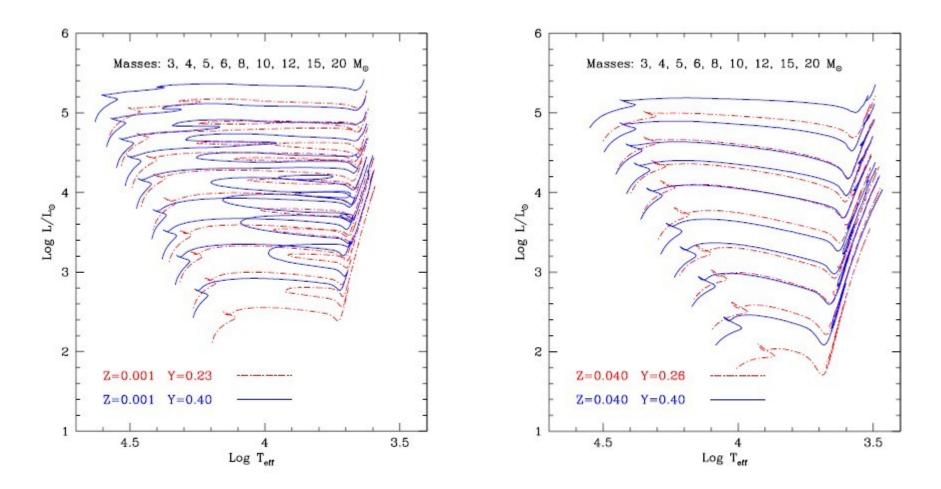


Fig. 1. Evolutionary tracks in the HR diagram for the compose Fig. 2. Evolutionary tracks in the HR diagram for the composition Z = 0.001, Y = 0.23 (dot-dashed line) and Z = 0.001, Y = tion Z = 0.040, Y = 0.26 (dot-dashed line) and Z = 0.040, Y = 0.40 (solid line). 0.40 (solid line).

From A&A Nov 2009

III How do stars die?

Low mass; blow off atmosphere and cool as white dwarf

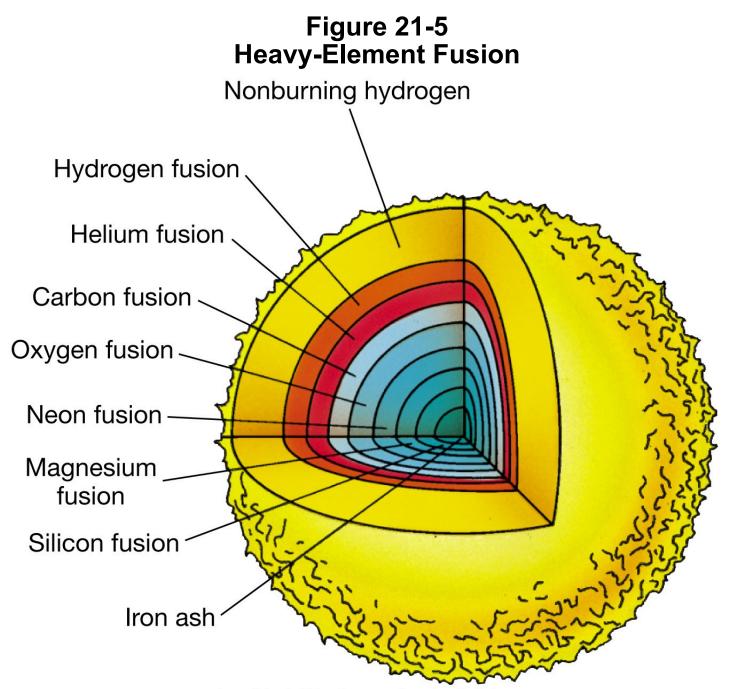
High mass: explode leaving neutron star, pulsar, or BH, (or nothing) at the center of a supernova remnant.

Table 20-3End Points of Evolution for Stars of Different Masses

| TABLE 20.3 | End Points of Evolution for Stars of | |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| | Different Masses | |

| Initial Mass (Solar Masses) | Final State |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| less than 0.08 | (hydrogen) brown dwarf |
| 0.08–0 XX 0.5 | helium white dwarf |
| 0.25-8 | carbon–oxygen white dwarf |
| 8–12 (approx.) [*] | neon–oxygen white dwarf |
| greater than 12 [*] | supernova (Chapter 21) |

*Precise numbers depend on the (poorly known) amount of mass lost while the star is on, and after it leaves, the main sequence.



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Figure 21-2 Close Binary System

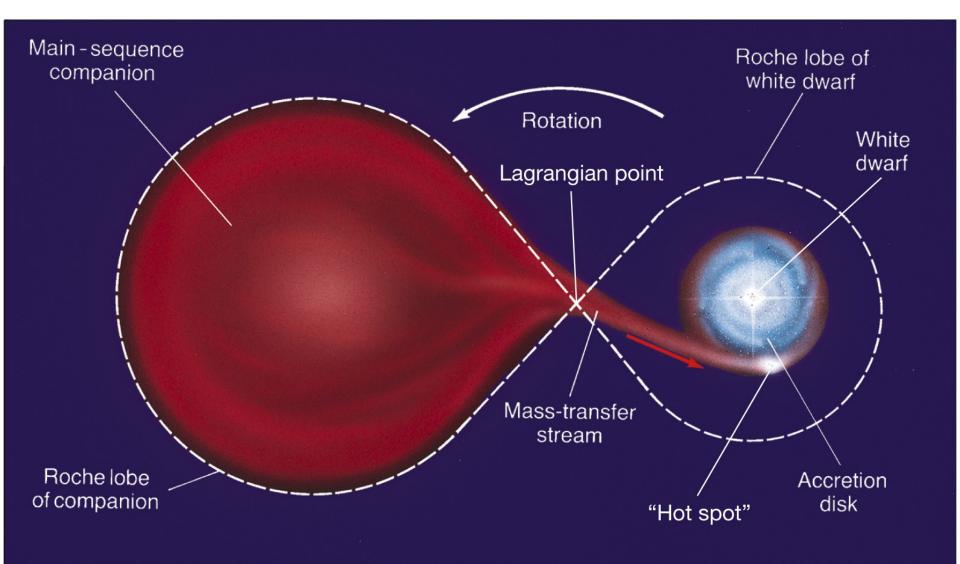
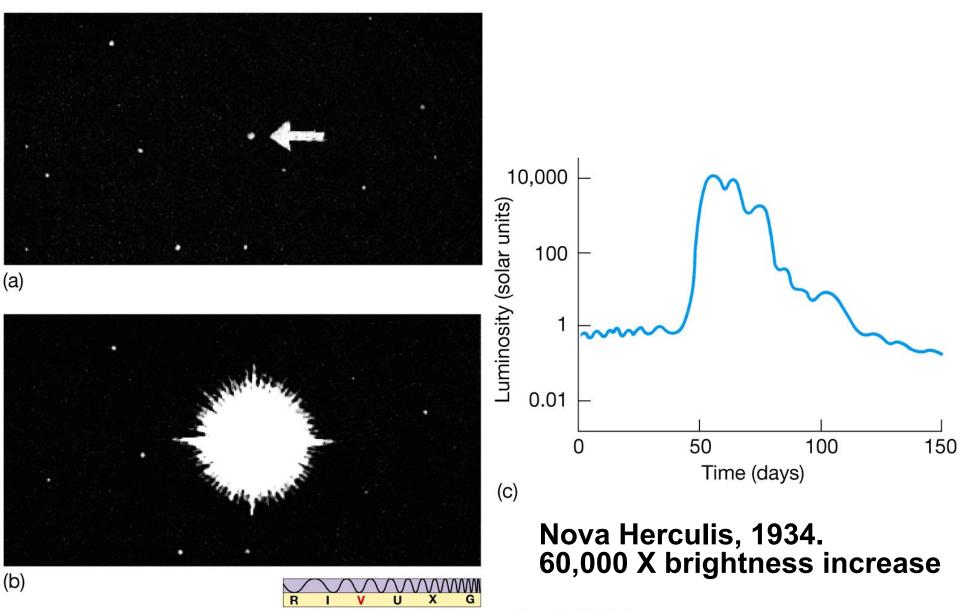


Figure 21-1 Nova



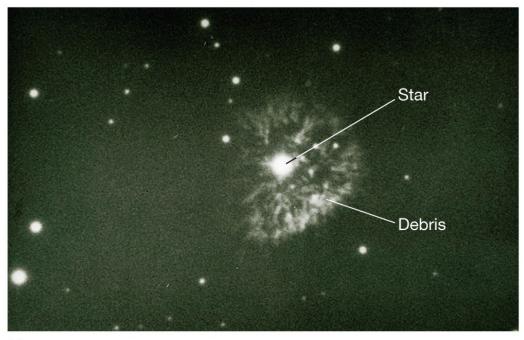


Figure 21-4 Nova Matter Ejection

(a)

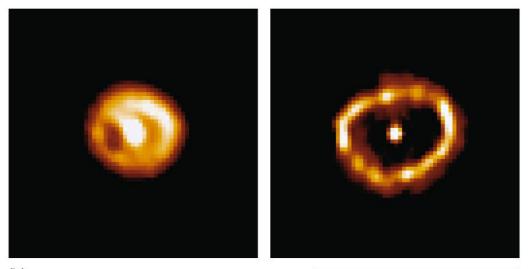




Figure 21-3 Nova Explosion

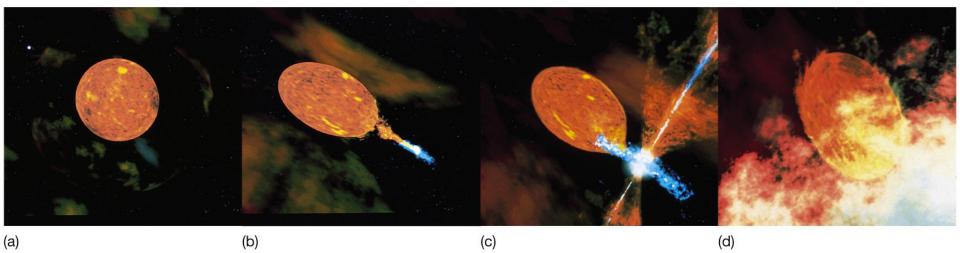
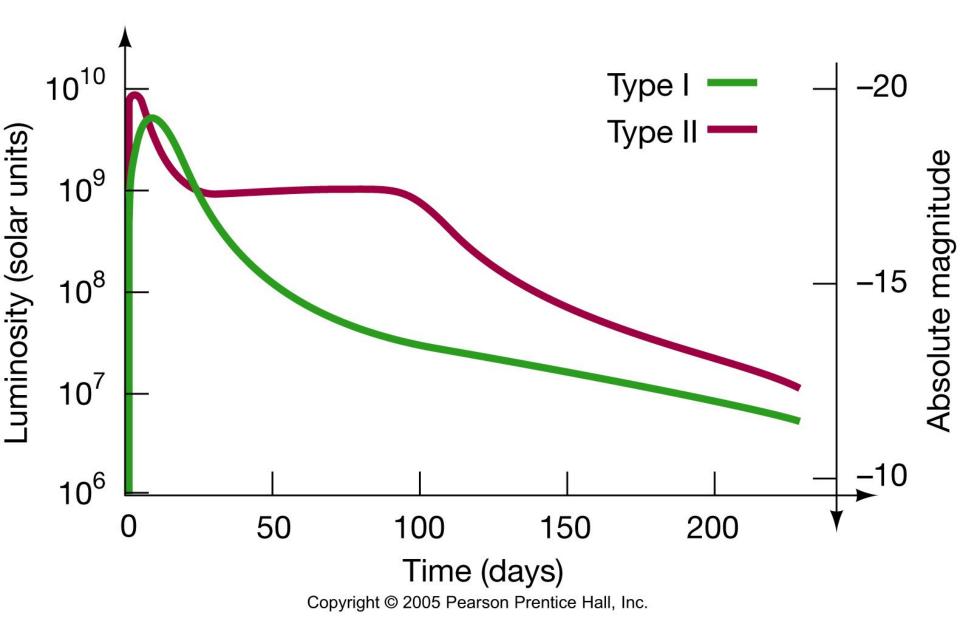


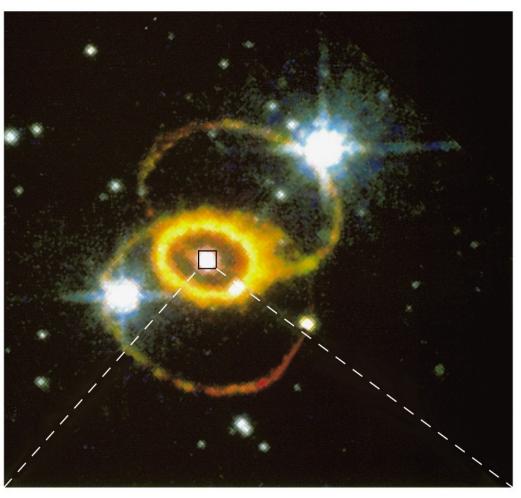
Figure 21-7 Supernova 1987A

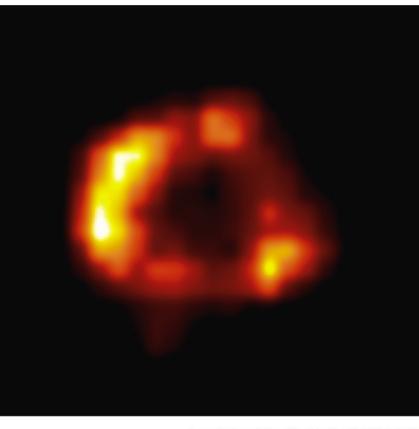


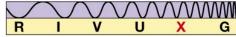


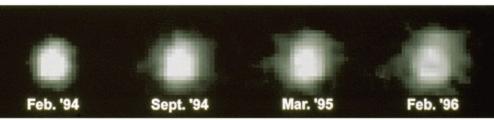
Figure 21-8 Supernova Light Curves











Discovery 21-1b Supernova 1987A

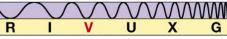


Figure 21-9 Two Types of Supernova

(a) Type I Supernova

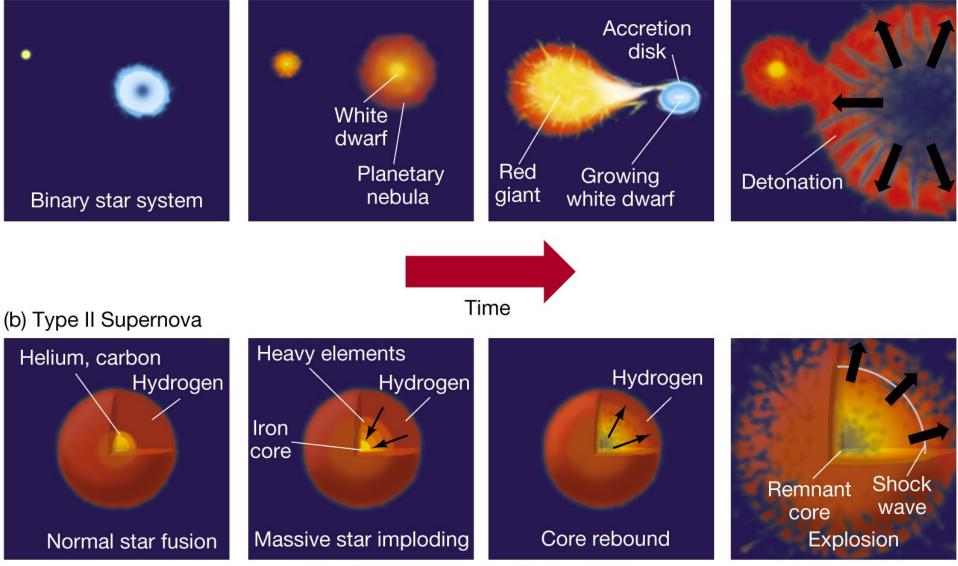
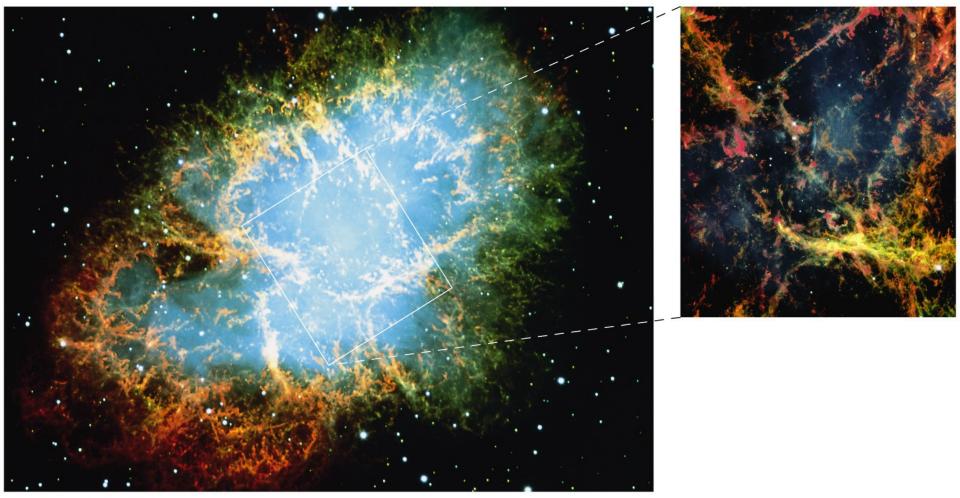


Figure 21-10 Crab Supernova Remnant



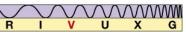
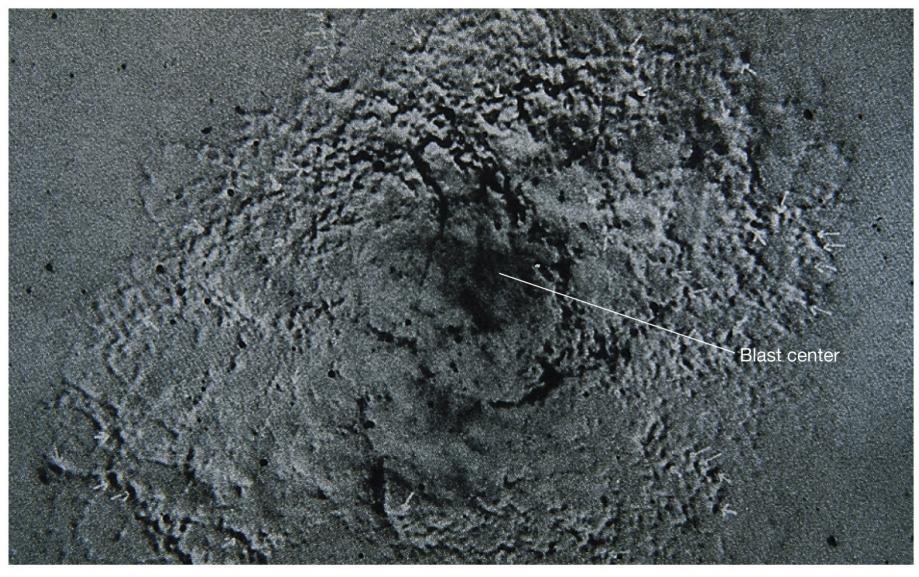
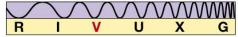
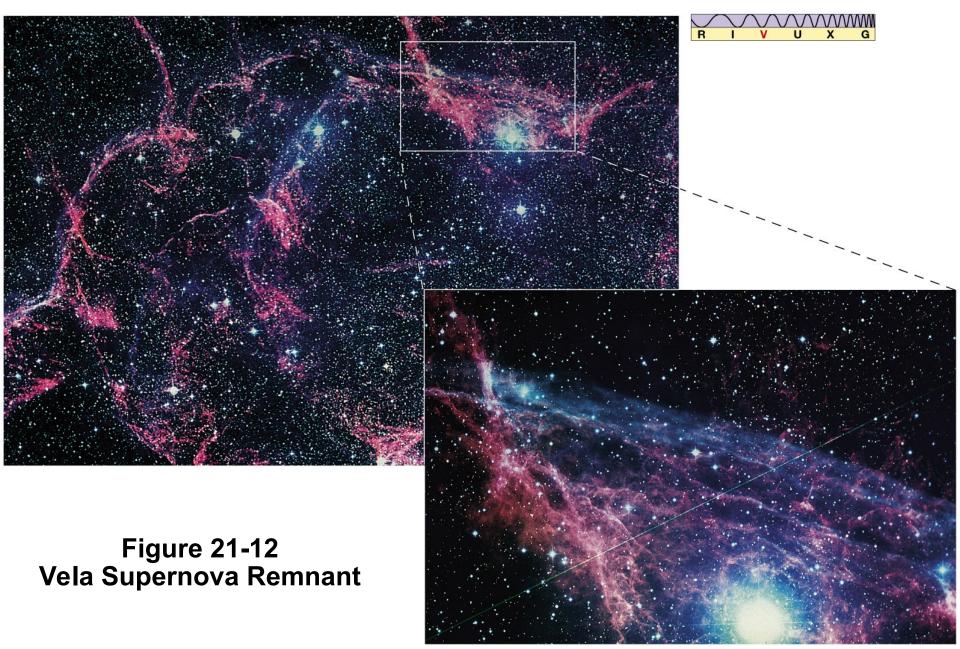


Figure 21-11 The Crab in Motion







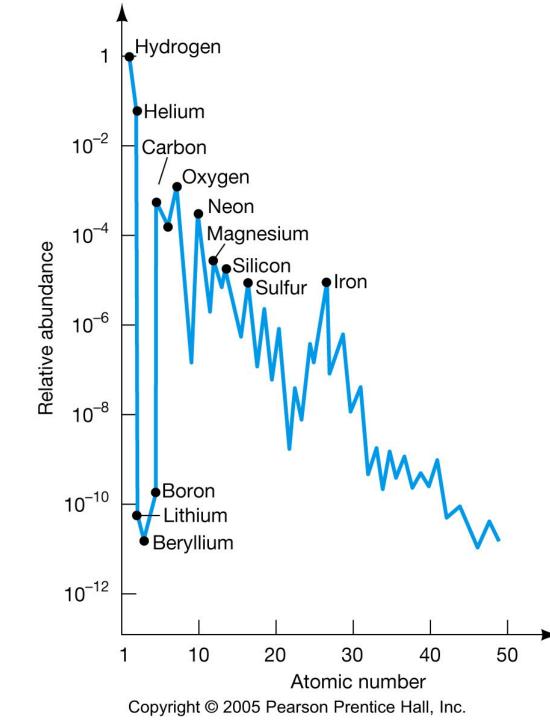
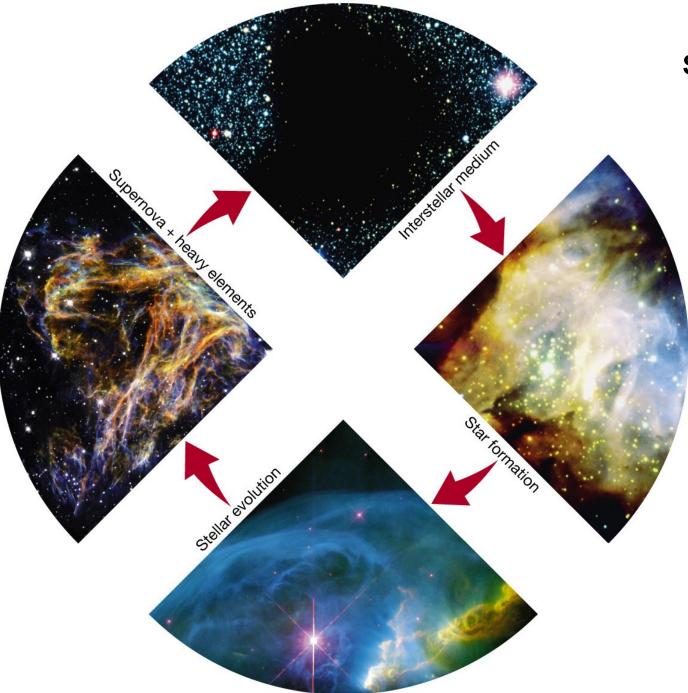


Figure 21-13 Elemental Abundance



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Figure 21-19 Stellar Recycling