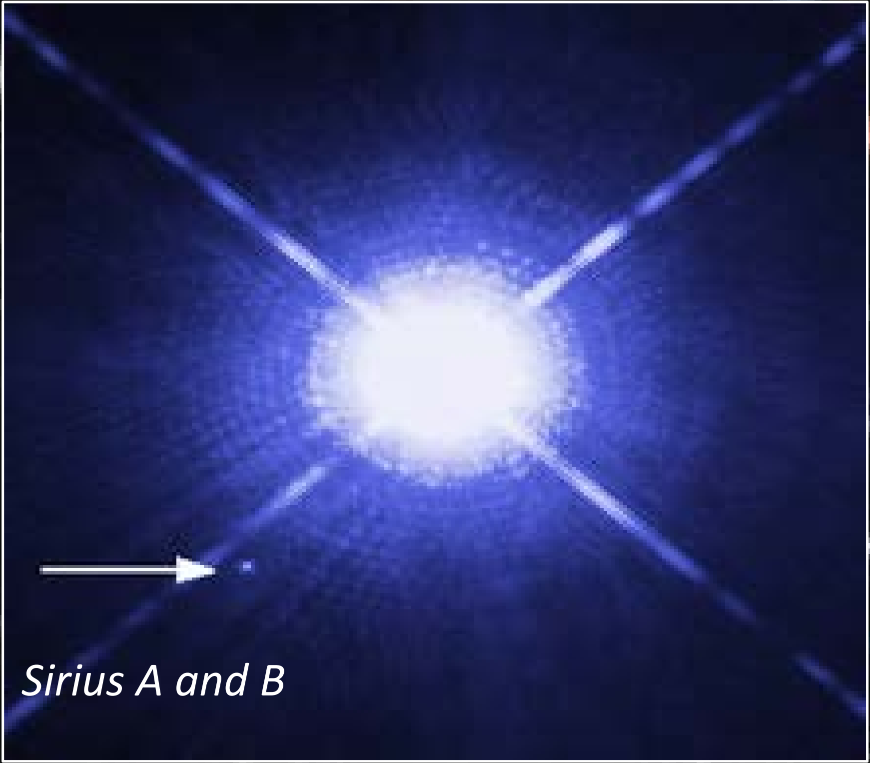
White Dwarfs , Neutron Stars, & Degeneracy

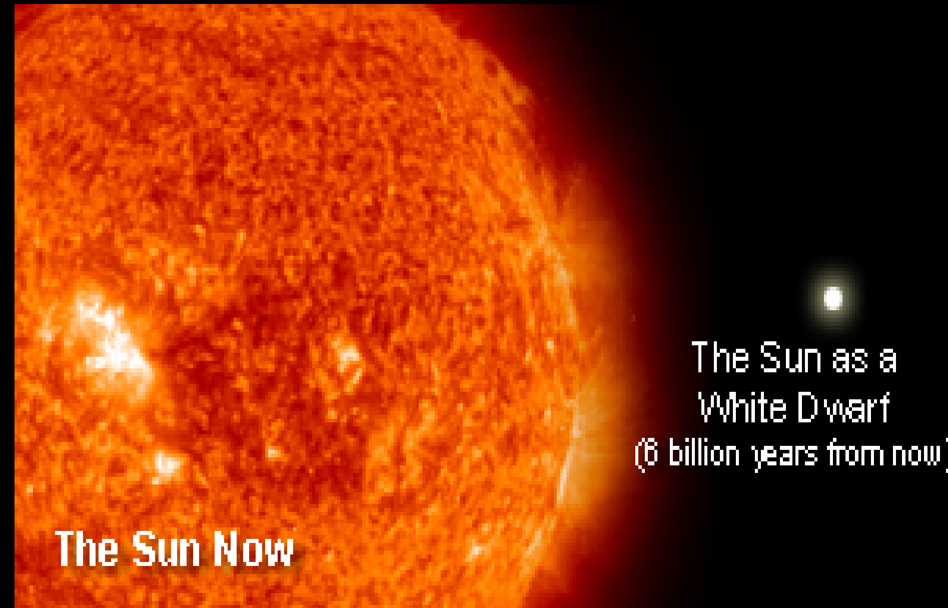


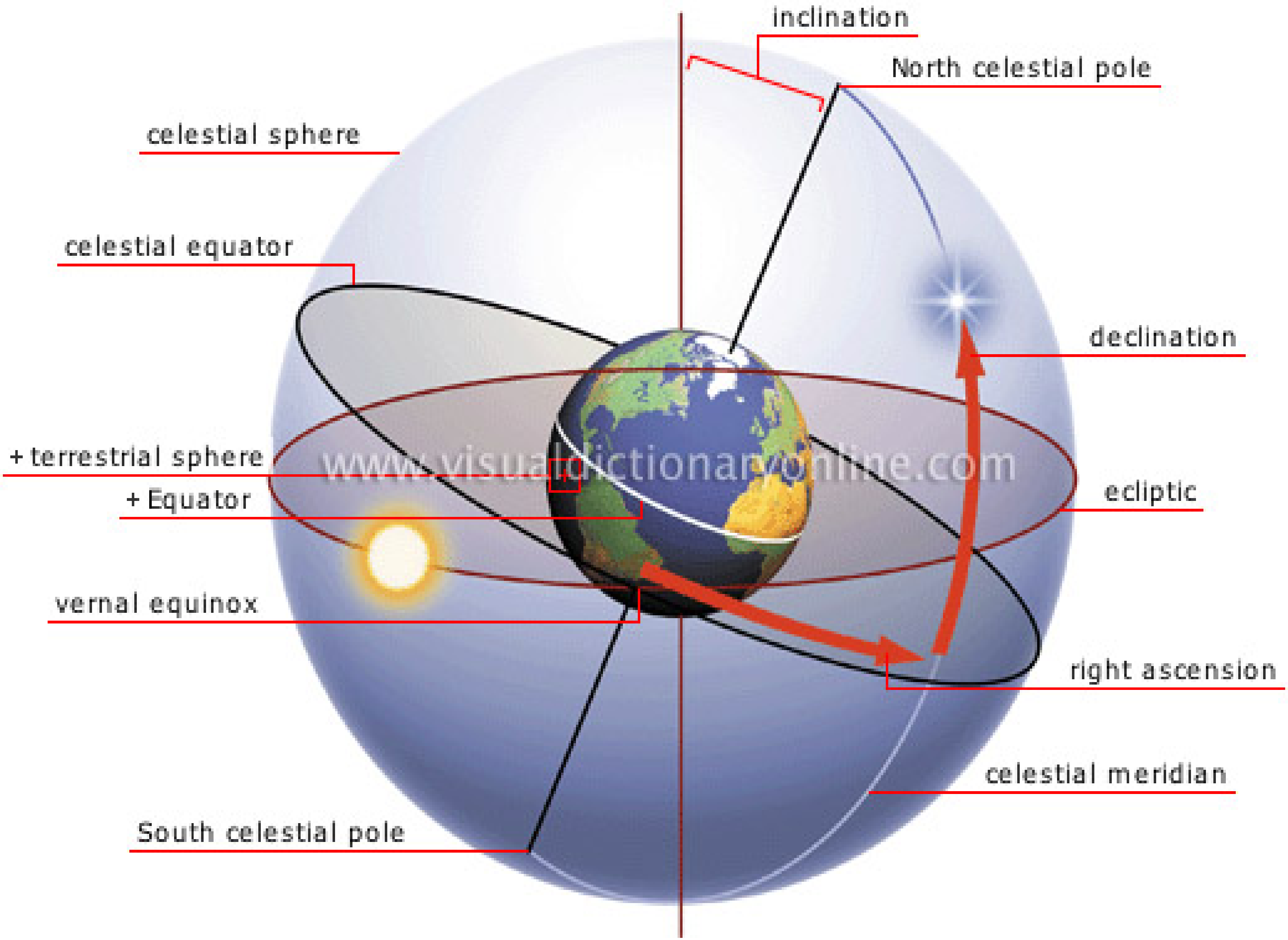
Sirius A and B

Farley V. Ferrante
Southern Methodist University

Outline

- Stellar astrophysics
- White dwarfs
  - Dwarf novae
  - Classical novae
  - Supernovae
- Neutron stars




inclination
North celestial pole
celestial sphere
celestial equator
declination
+ terrestrial sphere
+ Equator
ecliptic
vernal equinox
right ascension
celestial meridian
South celestial pole
www.visualdictionaryonline.com

Apparent magnitude	Brightness relative to magnitude 0	Example
−27	6.31×10^{10}	Sun
−26	2.51×10^{10}	
−25	1×10^{10}	
−24	3.98×10^{9}	
−23	1.58×10^{9}	
−22	6.31×10^{8}	
−21	2.51×10^{8}	
−20	1×10^{8}	
−19	3.98×10^{7}	
−18	1.58×10^{7}	
−17	6.31×10^{6}	
−16	2.51×10^{6}	
−15	1×10^{6}	
−14	3.98×10^{5}	
−13	1.58×10^{5}	Full moon
−12	6.31×10^{4}	
−11	2.51×10^{4}	
−10	1×10^{4}	
−9	3.98×10^{3}	Iridium flare
−8	1.58×10^{3}	

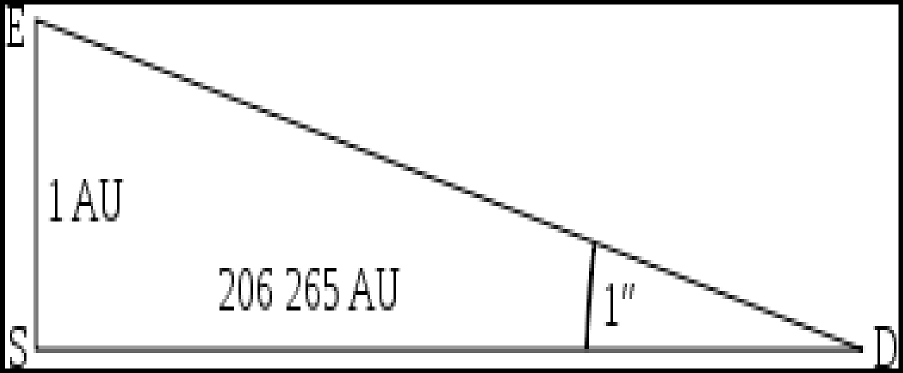
Apparent magnitude	Brightness relative to magnitude 0	Example
−7	631	SN 1006 supernova
−6	251	ISS (max)
−5	100	Venus (max)
−4	39.8	
−3	15.8	Jupiter (max), Mars (max)
−2	6.31	Mercury (max)
−1	2.51	Sirius
0	1	Vega, Saturn (max)
1	0.398	Antares
2	0.158	Polaris
3	0.0631	Cor Caroli
4	0.0251	Acubens
5	0.01	Vesta (max), Uranus (max)
6	3.98×10^{-3}	**typical limit of naked eye**[note 2]
7	1.58×10^{-3}	Ceres (max)
8	6.31×10^{-4}	Neptune (max)
9	2.51×10^{-4}	
10	1×10^{-4}	typical limit of 7x50 binoculars
11	3.98×10^{-5}	
12	1.58×10^{-5}	

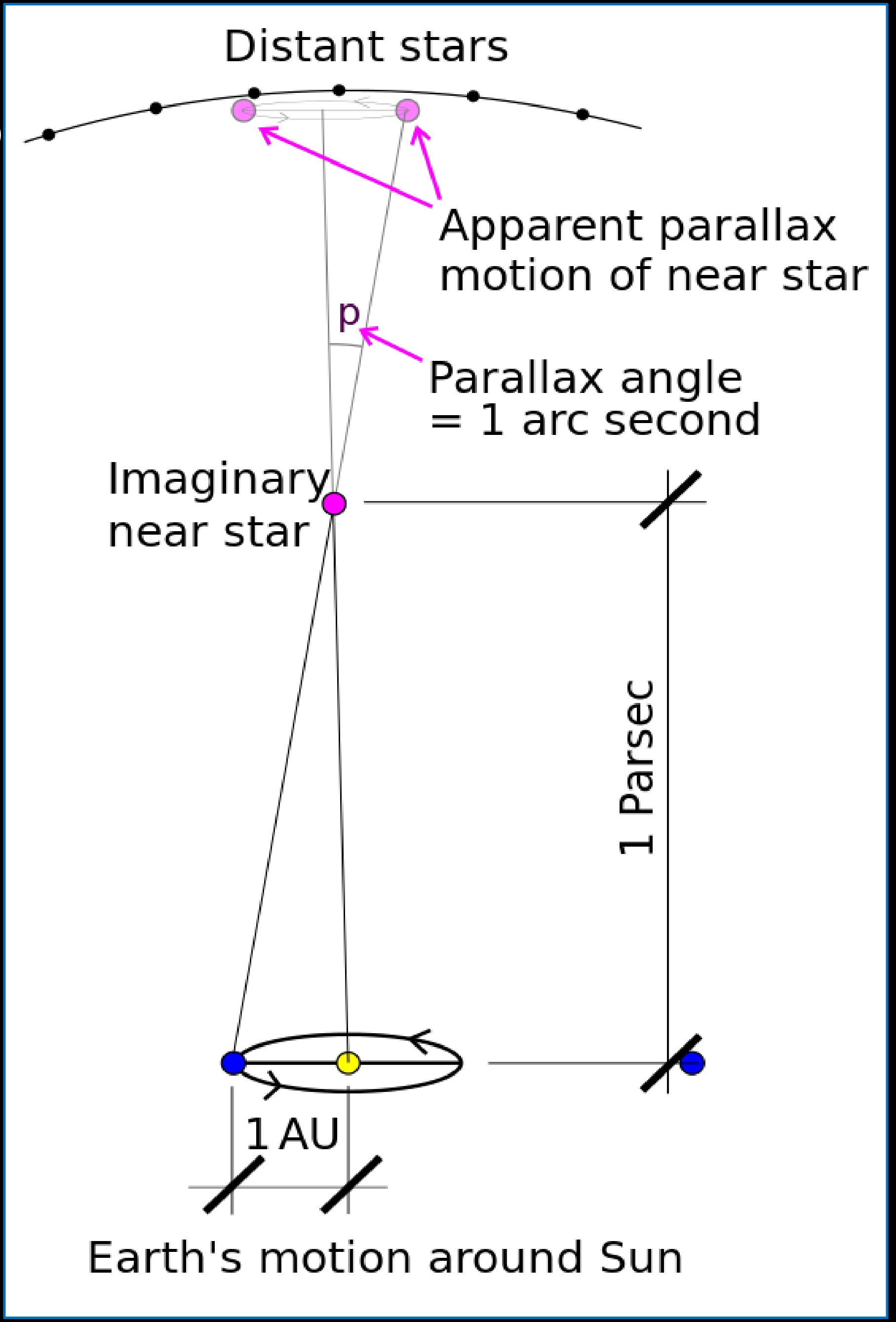
Apparent magnitude	Brightness relative to magnitude 0	**Pogson's ratio:** $\sqrt[5]{100} \approx 2.512$ Example
13	6.31×10^{-6}	3C 273 quasar / limit of 4.5–6" (11–15 cm) telescopes
14	2.51×10^{-6}	Pluto (max) / limit of 8–10" (20–25 cm) telescopes
15	1×10^{-6}	
16	3.98×10^{-7}	Charon (max)
17	1.58×10^{-7}	
18	6.31×10^{-8}	
19	2.51×10^{-8}	
20	1×10^{-8}	
21	3.98×10^{-9}	Callirrhoe (satellite of Jupiter)
22	1.58×10^{-9}	
23	6.31×10^{-10}	
24	2.51×10^{-10}	
25	1×10^{-10}	Fenrir (satellite of Saturn)
26	3.98×10^{-11}	
27	1.58×10^{-11}	visible light limit of 8m telescopes
28	6.31×10^{-12}	
29	2.51×10^{-12}	
30	1×10^{-12}	
31	3.98×10^{-13}	
32	1.58×10^{-13}	visible light limit of HST

Distance Modulus

$$m - M = 5\left[\log_{10}(d) - 1\right]$$

- Absolute magnitude (*M*)
  - Apparent magnitude of an object at a standard luminosity distance of exactly 10.0 parsecs (~32.6 ly) from the observer on Earth
  - Allows true luminosity of astronomical objects to be compared without regard to their distances
- Unit: parsec (pc)
  - Distance at which 1 AU subtends an angle of 1″
  - 1 AU = 149 597 870 700 m (≈1.50 x 10^8 km)
  - 1 pc ≈ 3.26 ly
  - 1 pc ≈ 206 265 AU





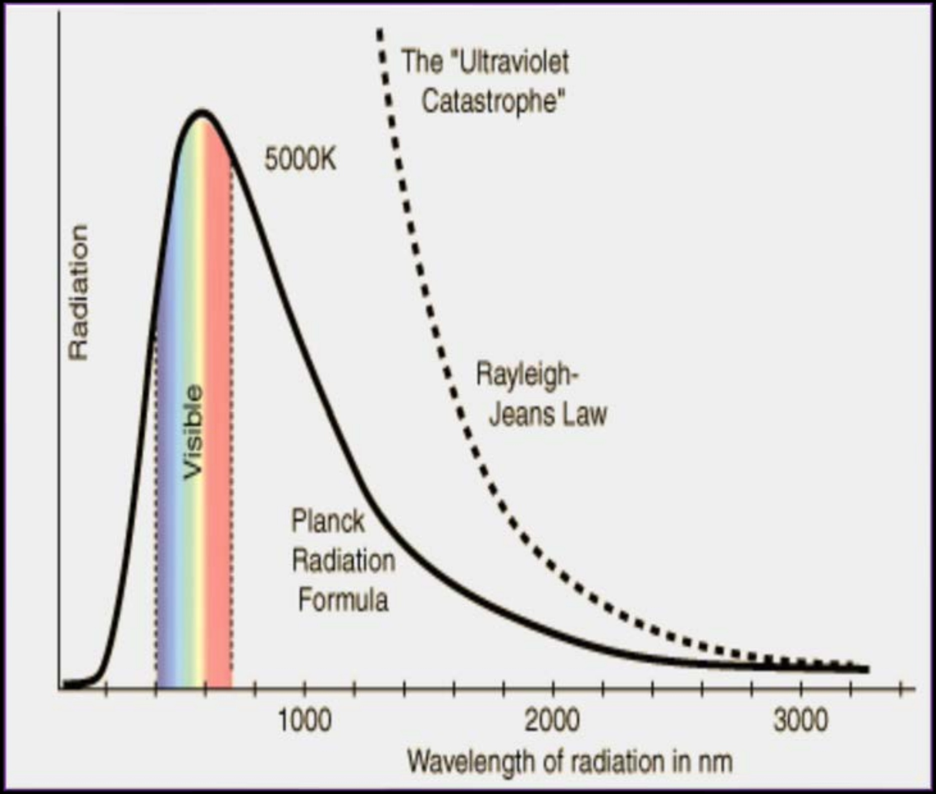
Stellar Astrophysics

- Stefan-Boltzmann Law:

$$F_{bol} = \sigma T^4; \sigma = \frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15c^2h^3} = 5.67x10^{-5} ergs^{-1}cm^{-2}K^{-4}$$

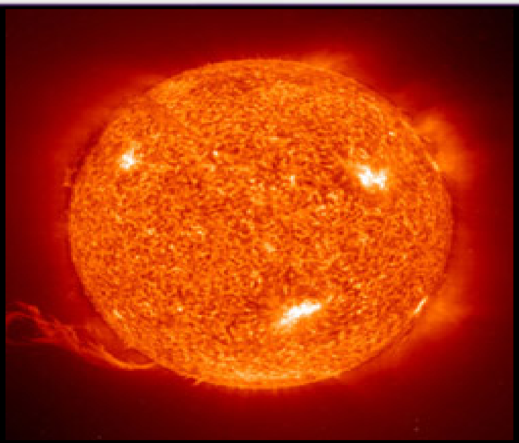
  - Effective temperature of a star: Temp. of a black body with the same luminosity per surface area
  - Stars can be treated as black body radiators to a good approximation
  - Effective surface temperature can be obtained from the B-V color index with the Ballesteros equation:

$$T = 4600\left(\frac{1}{0.92(B-V)+1.70} + \frac{1}{0.92(B-V)+0.62}\right)$$

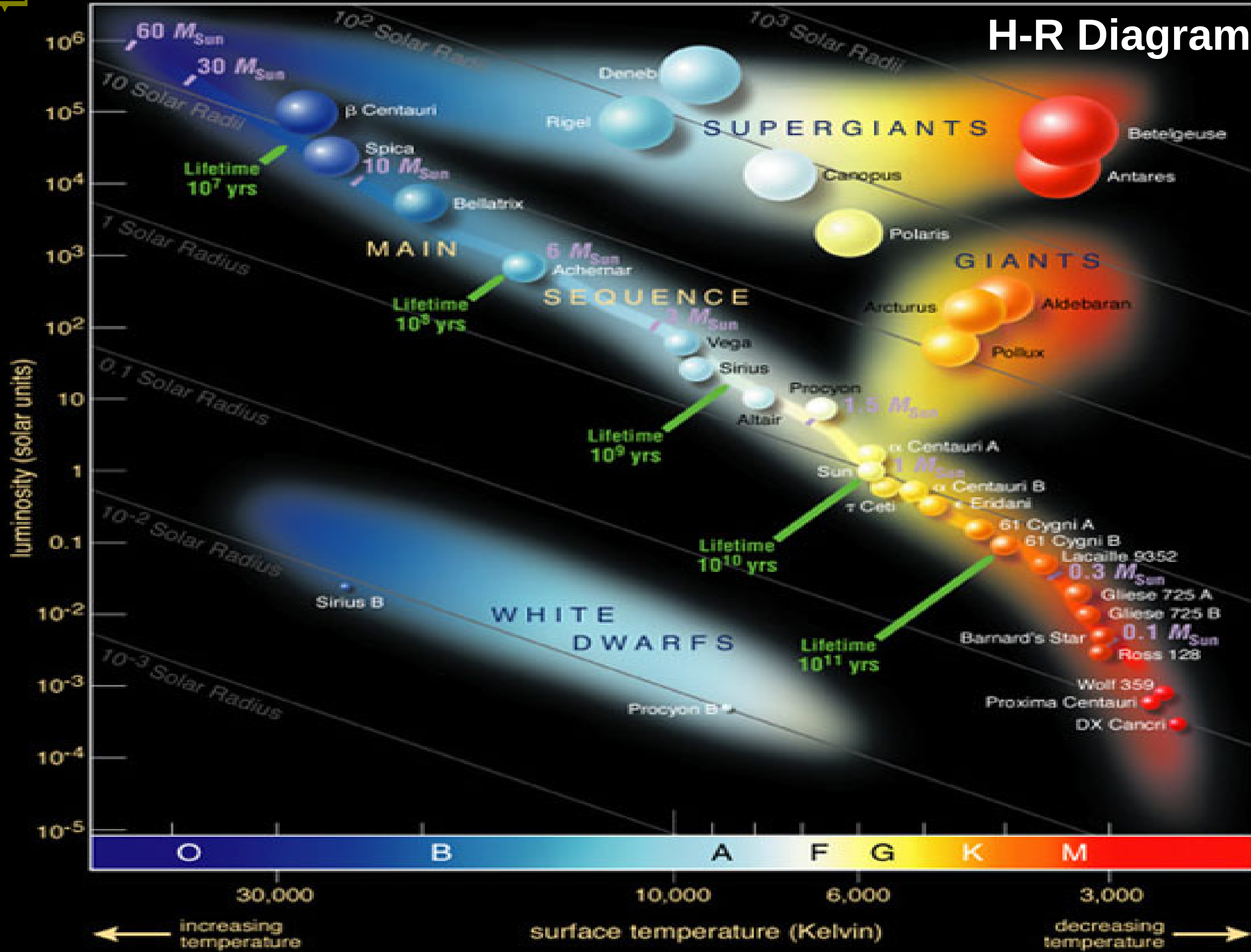


- **Luminosity**:

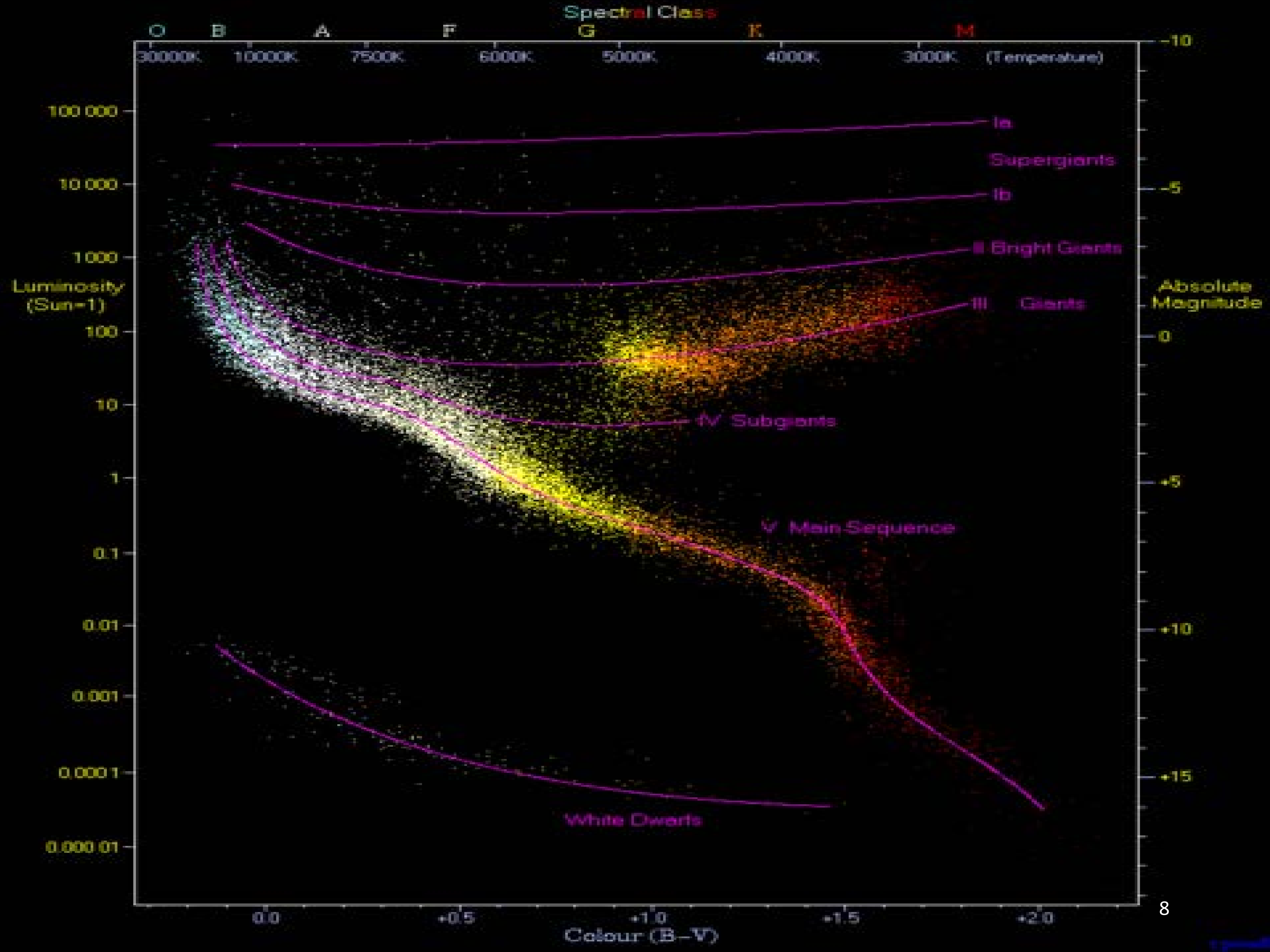
$$L = 4\pi r_*^2 \sigma T_E^4$$



H-R Diagram



60 M_{Sun}
30 M_{Sun}
10 M_{Sun}
6 M_{Sun}
3 M_{Sun}
1.5 M_{Sun}
1 M_{Sun}
0.3 M_{Sun}
0.1 M_{Sun}
10^2 Solar Radii
10^3 Solar Radii
10 Solar Radii
1 Solar Radius
0.1 Solar Radius
10^{-2} Solar Radius
10^{-3} Solar Radius
Deneb
Rigel
β Centauri
Spica
Bellatrix
Achernar
Vega
Sirius
Altair
Procyon
Canopus
Polaris
Betelgeuse
Antares
Arcturus
Aldebaran
Pollux
α Centauri A
Sun
α Centauri B
τ Ceti
ε Eridani
61 Cygni A
61 Cygni B
Lacaille 9352
Gliese 725 A
Gliese 725 B
Barnard's Star
Ross 128
Wolf 359
Proxima Centauri
DX Cancri
Sirius B
Procyon B
SUPERGIANTS
GIANTS
MAIN SEQUENCE
WHITE DWARFS
Lifetime 10^7 yrs
Lifetime 10^8 yrs
Lifetime 10^9 yrs
Lifetime 10^{10} yrs
Lifetime 10^{11} yrs
luminosity (solar units)
10^6
10^5
10^4
10^3
10^2
10
1
0.1
10^{-2}
10^{-3}
10^{-4}
10^{-5}
O B A F G K M
30,000
10,000
6,000
3,000
increasing temperature
surface temperature (Kelvin)
decreasing temperature


Spectral Class
O B A F G K M
30000K 10000K 7500K 6000K 5000K 4000K 3000K (Temperature)
100 000
10 000
1000
Luminosity (Sun=1)
100
10
1
0.1
0.01
0.001
0.0001
0.000 01
-10
-5
0
+5
+10
+15
Absolute Magnitude
Ia
Supergiants
Ib
II Bright Giants
III Giants
IV Subgiants
V Main Sequence
White Dwarfs
0.0
+0.5
+1.0
+1.5
+2.0
Colour (B–V)

Life History of Stars

Mass	Core Details	Comments
> $0.08M_{sun}$	Low mass ball of gas, not hot enough for hydrogen fusion	Stars in this mass range are not stars, but brown dwarfs of spectral type L and T.
$0.08M_{sun} < M < 0.5M_{sun}$	Fusion of H -> ^{4}He. Star is never hot enough to fuse ^{4}He to ^{12}C or ^{16}O.	Stars in this mass range are M on the main sequence. End up white dwarfs made of helium.
$0.5M_{sun} < M < 5M_{sun}$	Fusion of H -> ^{4}He -> ^{12}C and ^{16}O. Center is not hot enough to fuse ^{12}C and ^{16}O.	Stars in this mass range are A, F, G and K on the main sequence. End up white dwarfs made of ^{12}C and ^{16}O.
$5M_{sun} < M < 7M_{sun}$	Fusion of H -> ^{4}He -> ^{12}C and ^{16}O -> ^{20}Ne and ^{24}Mg.	Stars in this mass range are B on main sequence. End up as white dwarfs made of ^{20}Ne and ^{24}Mg.
$M > 7M_{sun}$	Fusion of H -> ^{4}He -> ^{12}C and ^{16}O -> ^{20}Ne and ^{24}Mg -> heavier elements .	Stars in this mass range are O on the main sequence. End up as neutron stars or black holes.

White dwarf

- Core of solar mass star
- Pauli exclusion principle:
  Electron degeneracy
- Degenerate Fermi gas of e^-
  (C-O primary constituents)
- 1 teaspoon weigh ~5 tons
- No energy produced from fusion
  or gravitational contraction

Hot white dwarf NGC 2440. The white dwarf is surrounded by a "cocoons" of the gas ejected in the collapse toward the white dwarf stage of stellar evolution.

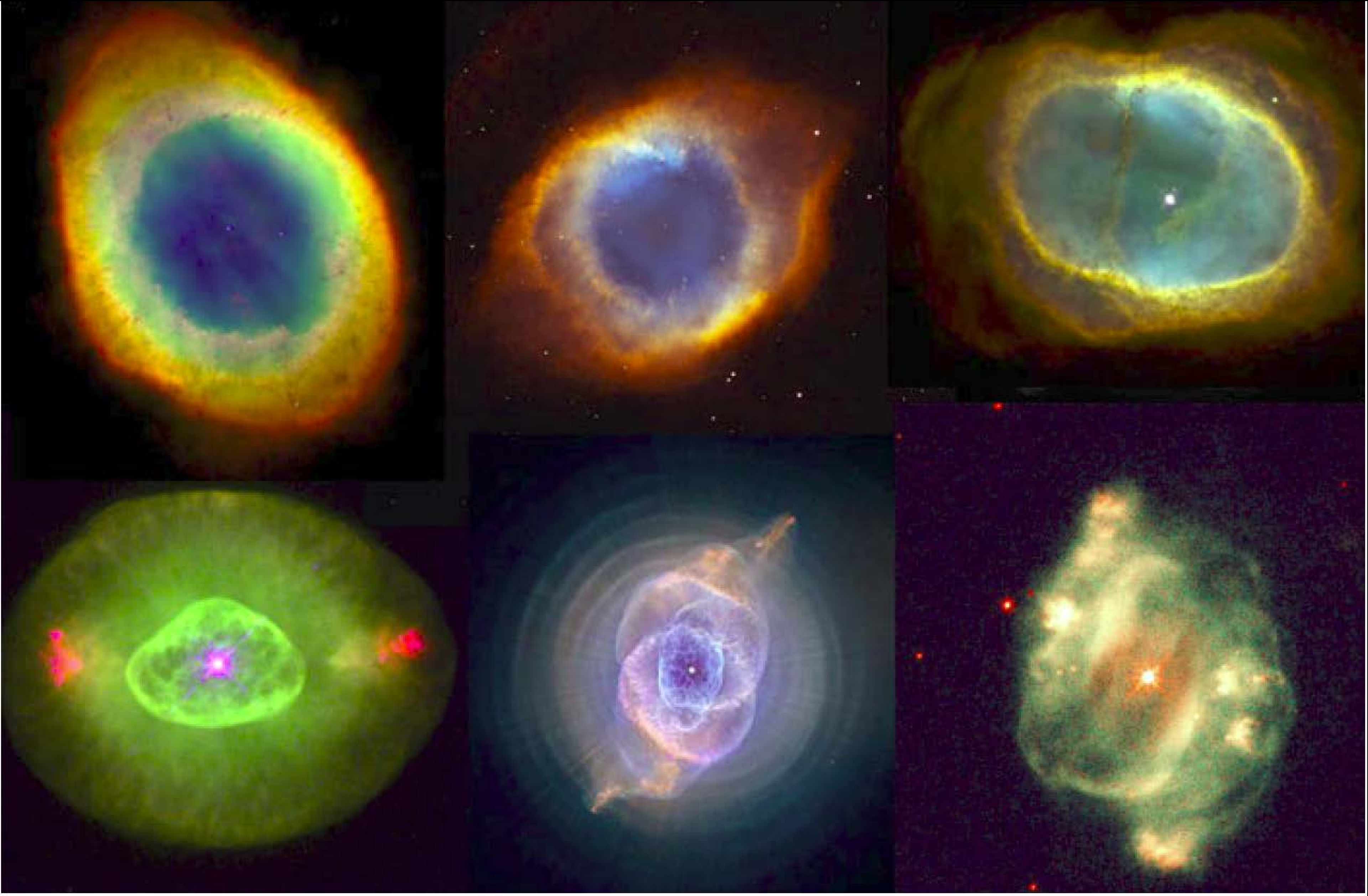
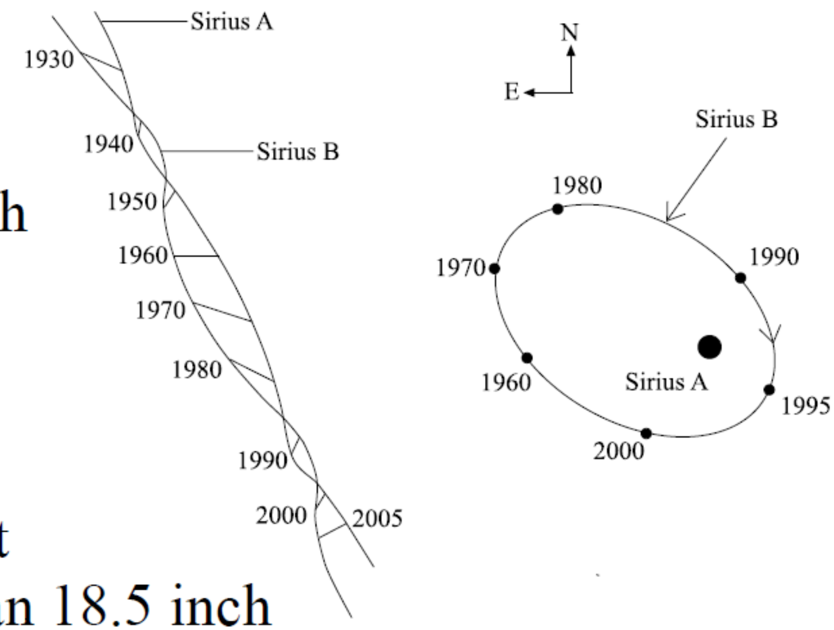


Figure 4.2 Several examples of planetary nebulae, newly formed white dwarfs that irradiate the shells of gas that were previously shed in the final stages of stellar evolution. The shells have diameters of $\approx 0.2 - 1$ pc. Photo credits: M. Meixner, T.A. Rector, B. Balick et al., H. Bond, R. Ciardullo, NASA, NOAO, ESA, and the Hubble Heritage Team

White Dwarfs

Sirius B is a white dwarf companion to Sirius A.



In 1844 German astronomer Friedrich Bessel deduced the existence of a companion star from changes in the proper motion of Sirius.

In 1862, astronomer Alvan Clark first observed the faint companion using an 18.5 inch refractor telescope at the Dearborn Observatory.

In 1915 Walter Adams observed the spectrum of the star, determining it was a faint whitish star. This lead astronomers to conclude it was a white dwarf.

Matter at Quantum Densities

As stars evolve, their cores contract and the core density increases. At some point the distance between the atoms is smaller than their de Broglie wavelengths and classical assumptions can no longer be used.

Recall: **de Broglie Wavelength**

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{(2mE)^{1/2}} \approx \frac{h}{(3mkT)^{1/2}}$$

Since,

$$p = mv$$

$$p = \sqrt{2mE}$$

$$E_K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{m}}$$

$$E \sim \frac{3kT}{2}$$

mean energy of a particle

Question: Which will reach the quantum domain first, electrons or protons?

Although both electrons and protons share the same energy, electrons have smaller mass and longer wavelengths. The electron density will reach the quantum domain first.

When the inter particle spacing is of order 1/2 a de Broglie wavelength, quantum effects will become important.

$$\rho_q \approx \frac{m_p}{(\lambda/2)^3} = \frac{8m_p(3m_e kT)^{3/2}}{h^3}$$

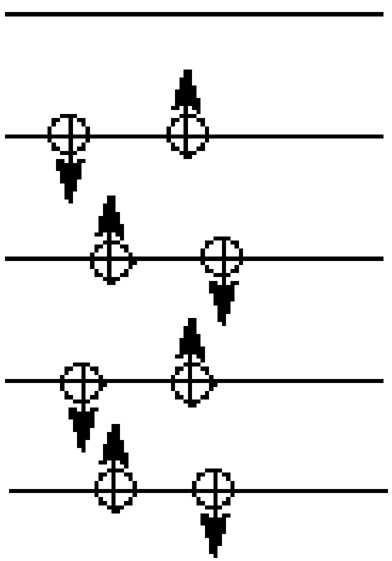
Calculate the quantum density at the center of the sun (T = 15 x 10^6 K).

$$\rho_q \approx \frac{8 \times 1.7 \times 10^{-24}\ \mathrm{g}\ (3 \times 9 \times 10^{-28}\ \mathrm{g} \times 1.4 \times 10^{-16}\ \mathrm{erg\ K^{-1}} \times 15 \times 10^6\mathrm{K})^{3/2}}{(6.6 \times 10^{-27}\ \mathrm{erg\ s})^3}$$

$$p_q = 640\ g\ cm^{-3}$$

The core density of the sun is 150 g cm^{-3}.
Much below the quantum regime.

Electron Energy Levels



Degenerate gas: all lower energy levels filled with two particles each (opposite spins). Particles **locked** in place.

- Only two e^- (one up, one down) can go into each energy level
- In a degenerate gas, all low energy levels are filled
- Electrons have kinetic energy; therefore in motion & exert pressure even if $T = 0$
- White dwarfs stars are supported against gravitational collapse by e^- degeneracy

Fermi Energy

Fermi Energy:

$$E_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\frac{3\pi^2 N}{V}\right)^{2/3}$$

Fermi Temperature:

$$T_F = \frac{E_F}{k_B}$$

Fermi Momentum:

$$p_F = \sqrt{2m_e E_F}$$

Fermi Velocity:

$$v_F = \frac{p_F}{m_e}$$

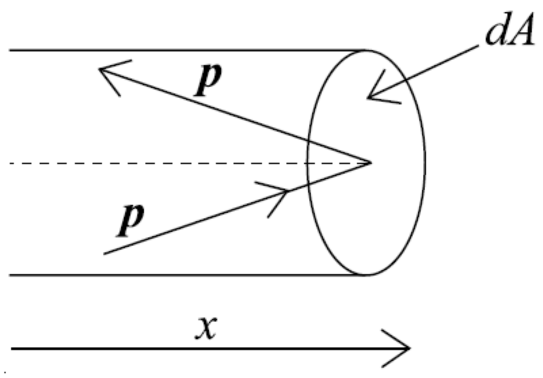
White Dwarfs:

$$E_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e}\left(\frac{3\pi^2(10^{36})}{1\ \mathrm{m}^3}\right)^{2/3} \approx 3 \times 10^5\ \mathrm{eV} = 0.3\ \mathrm{MeV}$$

Pressure Exerted by Ideal Gas

Consider ideal gas particles hitting the sides of a container.

Recall, that particles with momentum p_x impart $2p_x$ to the surface with each reflection.



The force per unit area imparted is then

$$\frac{dF_x}{dA} = \frac{2p_x}{dAdt} = \frac{2p_x v_x}{dAdx} = \frac{2p_x v_x}{dV}$$

where we used:

$$v_x = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

To get the pressure, we sum forces due to particles of all momenta.

$$P = \int_0^\infty dN(p) \frac{p_x v_x}{dV} dp$$

Note: half the particles are not moving towards walls.

$$P = \int_0^\infty dN(p) \frac{p_x v_x}{dV} dp$$

Simplify:

$$p_x v_x = m v_x^2 = \frac{1}{3} m v^2 = \frac{1}{3} p v$$

If we assume the velocities are isotropic: $v_x^2 = v_y^2 = v_z^2$

Substitute:

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^\infty n(p) p v \, dp$$

where we used: $dN/dV \equiv n$

For a non-relativistic degenerate gas:

$$n_e(p)dp = \begin{cases} 8\pi p^2 \frac{dp}{h^3} & \text{if } |\mathbf{p}| \leq p_f \\ 0 & \text{if } |\mathbf{p}| > p_f \end{cases}$$

$$v = p/m_e$$

$$P_e = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^{p_f} \frac{8\pi}{h^3} \frac{p^4}{m_e} dp = \frac{8\pi}{3h^3 m_e} \frac{p_f^5}{5}$$

$$= \left(\frac{3}{8\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{5m_e} n_e^{5/3}$$

$$n_e = \frac{8\pi}{3h^3} p_f^3$$

Finally, noting $n_e = Zn_+ = Z\rho/Am_p$

$$\boxed{P_e = \left(\frac{3}{\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{20 m_e m_p^{5/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{5/3} \rho^{5/3}}$$

Re-derive scaling relations between mass and radius with an index $(4 + \varepsilon)/3$.

$$P \sim b\rho^{5/3} \longrightarrow P \sim \rho^{(4+\epsilon)/3} = \frac{M^{(4+\epsilon)/3}}{r^{(4+\epsilon)}}$$

Equating with pressure from our stellar equations.

$$\boxed{P \sim \frac{GM\rho}{r} \sim \frac{M^2}{r^4}}$$

$$\frac{M^{4/3}M^{\epsilon/3}}{r^4 r^\epsilon} = \frac{M^{(4+\epsilon)/3}}{r^{4+\epsilon}} \sim \frac{M^2}{r^4}$$

$$r^\epsilon \sim M^{(\epsilon-2)/3}$$

$$r \sim M^{(\epsilon-2)/3\epsilon}$$

When $\epsilon \longrightarrow 0$

$$r \longrightarrow M^{-\infty} = 0$$

$$P_e = \left(\frac{3}{\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{20 m_e m_p^{5/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{5/3} \rho^{5/3}$$

Comments:

The electron pressure does not depend on temperature.

For a typical white dwarf, $\rho \sim 10^6$ g cm^{-3} and T ~ 10^7 K.
Their Z/A ~ 0.5.

$$P_e \sim \frac{(6.6 \times 10^{-27}\ \mathrm{erg\ s})^2}{20 \times 9 \times 10^{-28}\ \mathrm{g}\ (1.7 \times 10^{-24}\ \mathrm{g})^{5/3}} 0.5^{5/3} (10^6\ \mathrm{g\ cm^{-3}})^{5/3} = 3 \times 10^{22}\ \mathrm{dyne\ cm^{-2}}$$

Compare to the thermal pressure of nuclei at this temperature.

$$P = n\ \ kT = 2 \times 10^{20}\ dyne\ cm^{-2}$$

Thus, degenerate electron pressure completely dominates the pressure in these stars.

Properties of White Dwarfs

Mass-Radius Relationship:

Recall the EOS for a degenerate non-relativistic electron gas:

$$P_e = \left(\frac{3}{\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{20 m_e m_p^{5/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{5/3} \rho^{5/3}$$

The scaling relation for this equation is

$$P \sim b\rho^{5/3} \sim b\frac{M^{5/3}}{r^5}$$

where b is a constant

Recall our scaling relations from the equations of stellar structure:

$$P \sim \frac{GM\rho}{r} \sim \frac{GM^2}{r^4}$$

Equating these pressures yields:

$$r \sim \frac{b}{G} M^{-1/3}$$

What?

Notice: The radius decreases with increasing mass!

$$\boxed{r \sim \frac{b}{G} M^{-1/3}}$$

A white dwarf with Z/A = 0.5 and M = 1M_{sun} has a radius of ~ 4000 km.

Fully working out the equations of stellar structure gives an equation for radius of

$$\boxed{r_{\rm wd} = 2.3 \times 10^9 \mathrm{cm} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{5/3} \left(\frac{M}{M_\odot}\right)^{-1/3}}$$

mass increases

radius decreases

density increases

electrons pushed to larger momenta

Mass/radius relation for degenerate star

- Stellar mass = *M;* radius = *R*
- Gravitational potential energy:

$$Egr = -\frac{3GM^2}{5R}$$

- Heisenberg uncertainty:

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \hbar$$

- Electron density:

$$n = \frac{3N}{4\pi R^3} \approx \frac{M}{m_p R^3}$$

$$\Delta x \approx n^{-1/3} \qquad \Delta p \approx \frac{\hbar}{\Delta x} \approx \hbar n^{1/3}$$

- Kinetic energy:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{p^2}{2m_e} \qquad K = N\varepsilon = \frac{M}{m_p}\varepsilon \approx \frac{\hbar^2 M^{5/3}}{m_e m_p^{5/3} R^2}$$

Mass/radius relation for degenerate star

- Total energy:

$$E = K + U \approx \frac{\hbar^2 M^{5/3}}{m_e m_p^{5/3} R^2} - \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

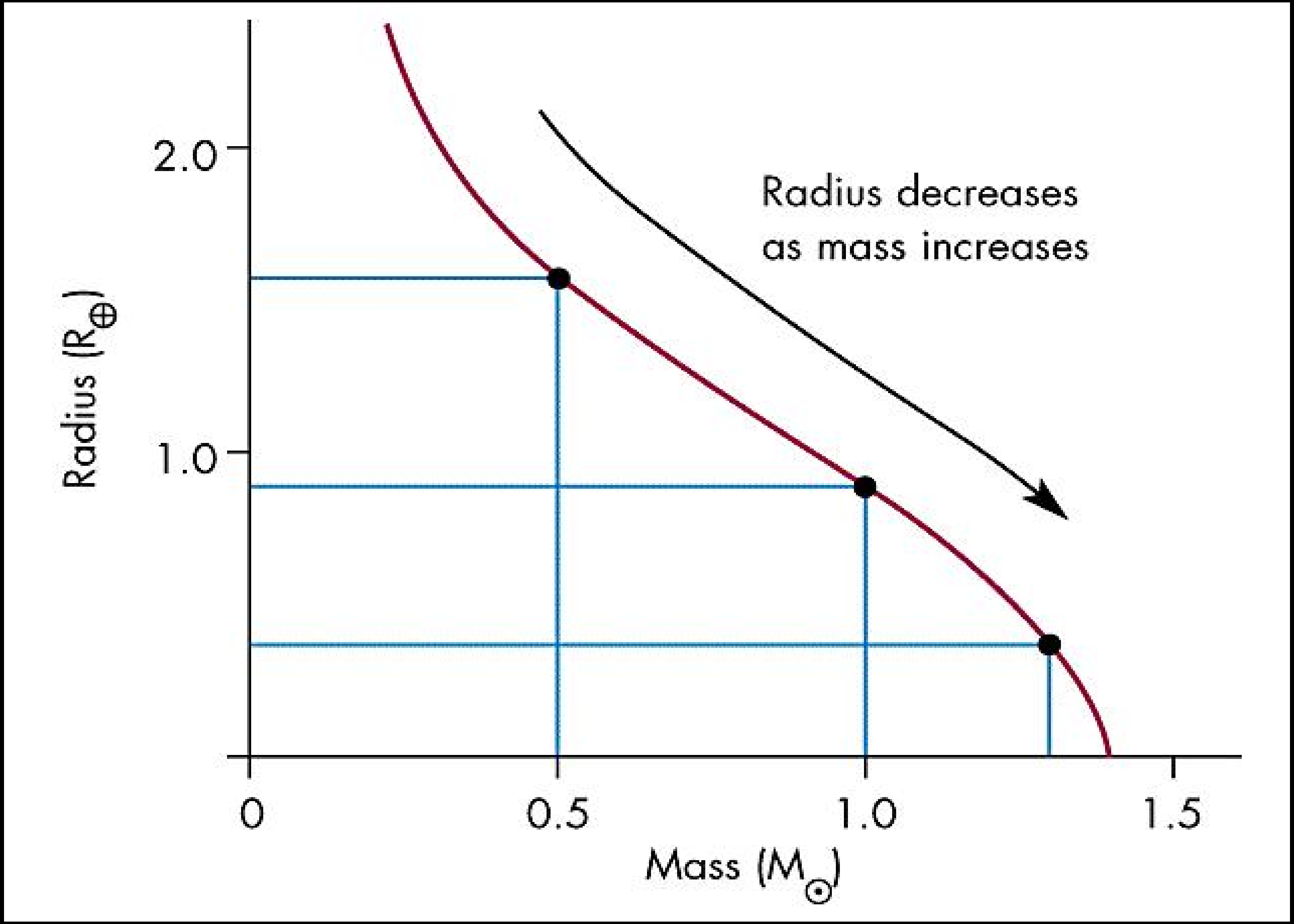
- Find *R* by minimizing *E:*

$$\frac{dE}{dR} \approx -\frac{\hbar^2 M^{5/3}}{m_e m_p^{5/3} R^3} + \frac{GM^2}{R^2} = 0$$

- Radius decreases as mass increases:

$$R \approx \frac{\hbar^2 M^{-1/3}}{G m_e m_p^{5/3}}$$

Mass vs radius relation



$$r \to M^{-\infty} = 0$$

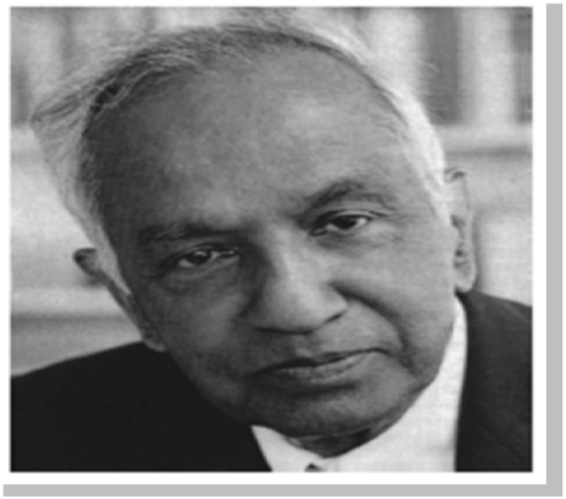
What does it mean?

At masses so high that electrons become ultra-relativistic, the electron pressure is unable to support the star against gravity.

If the density is high enough, degeneracy pressure due to protons and neutrons begins to operate. Stops collapse and produces a neutron star.

Chandrasekhar Mass:

The maximum stellar mass that can be supported by electron degeneracy pressure.



Subrahmanyan Chandrasekhar (1910–1995)

Estimate Chandrasekhar Mass

Start with virial theorem

$$\bar{P}V = -\frac{1}{3}E_{\mathrm{gr}}$$

Substitute the ultra-relativistic electron degeneracy pressure and self gravity

$$\boxed{P_e = \left(\frac{3}{8\pi}\right)^{1/3} \frac{hc}{4m_p^{4/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{4/3} \rho^{4/3}}$$

$$\left(\frac{3}{8\pi}\right)^{1/3} \frac{hc}{4m_p^{4/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{4/3} \rho^{4/3} V \sim \frac{1}{3}\frac{GM^2}{r}$$

$$\boxed{\rho \sim \frac{M}{V}}$$

$$\boxed{V = \frac{4\pi}{3}r^3}$$

Simplify:

$$M \sim 0.11 \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^2 \left(\frac{hc}{Gm_p^2}\right)^{3/2} m_p$$

Full Solution using Equations of Stellar Structure:

$$\boxed{M_{\mathrm{ch}} = 0.21 \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^2 \left(\frac{hc}{Gm_p^2}\right)^{3/2} m_p}$$

Accurately calculated value is 1.4 M_{sun}.

As electron velocities increase, the rates at which momentum transfers approaches c. So, we need to modify the EOS for degenerate electron gas.

$$P_e = \left(\frac{3}{8\pi}\right)^{1/3} \frac{hc}{4m_p^{4/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{4/3} \rho^{4/3}$$

← **EOS for an ultra-relativistic degenerate spin-1/2 fermion gas**

Compare to non-relativistic case:

$$P_e = \left(\frac{3}{\pi}\right)^{2/3} \frac{h^2}{20 m_e m_p^{5/3}} \left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{5/3} \rho^{5/3}$$

← **EOS for a degenerate non-relativistic electron gas**

Notes: The power index changes.

The electron mass disappears.

For ultra-relativistic particles, the rest mass is negligible.

As we go from small to large white dwarf masses, we transition gradually from non-relativistic to ultra-relativistic.

Notes:

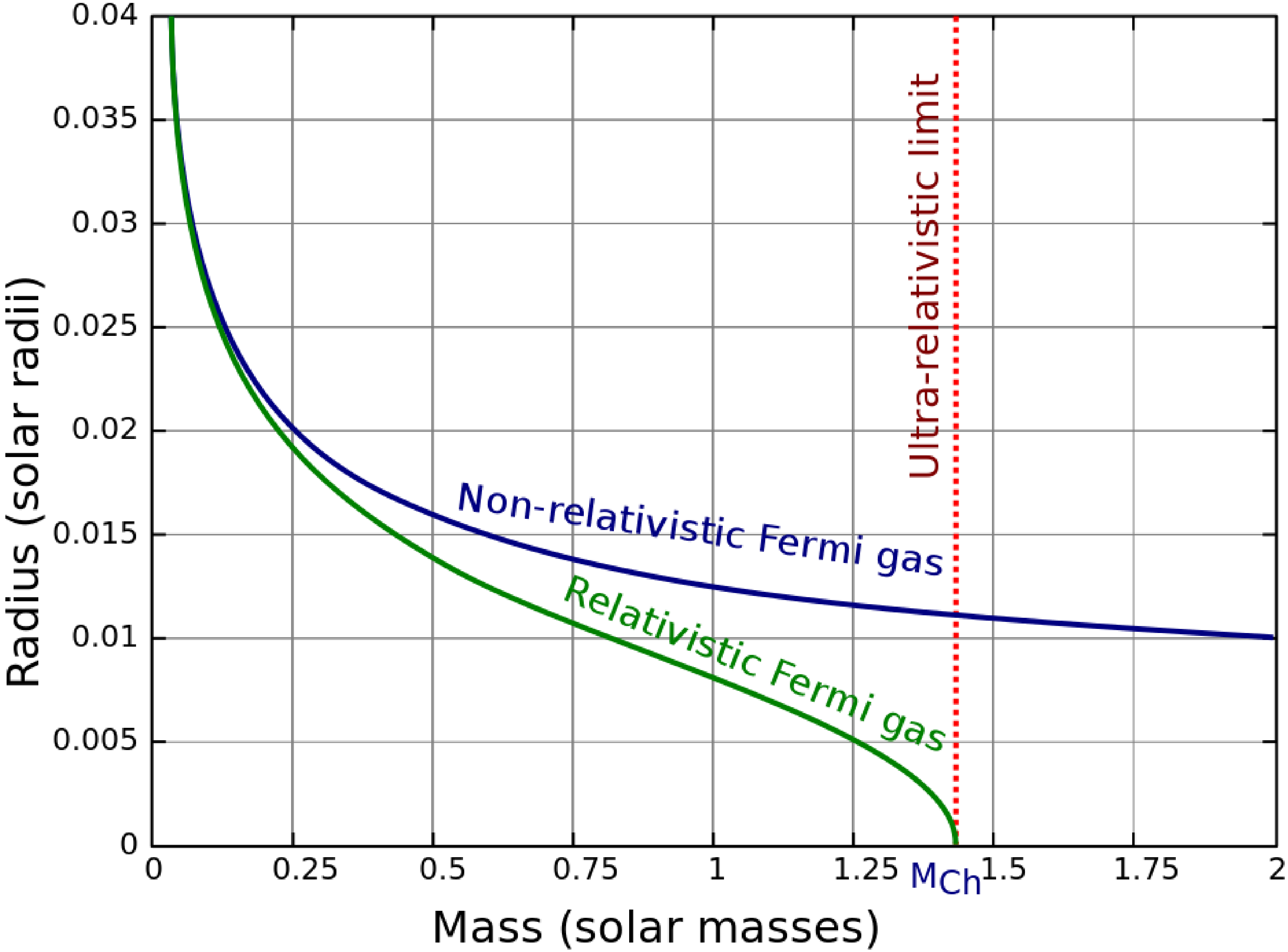
The accurately calculated Chandrashaker mass is 1.4 M_{sun}.

No white dwarfs with masses greater than M_{ch} have ever been found.

The lower bound of isolated white dwarfs found is 0.25 M_{sun}. Why is there a lower bound?

The universe is too young! Stars that have mass < 0.8 M_{sun} could produce smaller white dwarfs. However, even if they were formed in the early universe, they have not yet gone though their main sequence lifetime.

Mass vs radius relation



White Dwarf Cooling

The temperature inside a white dwarf is approximately constant with radius. Let's estimate the temperature.

The white dwarf contacts until the degeneracy pressure stops the contraction of the thermal core. Just before equilibrium:

$$E_{\rm th} \sim \frac{1}{2}\frac{GM^2}{r} = \frac{3}{2}NkT$$

What are WD composed of?

Ans: Helium!

$N_{nuclei} = M/4m_H$ and $N_e = M/2m_H$.

$$E_{\rm th} = \frac{3}{2}\frac{M}{m_p}(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4})kT = \frac{9}{8}\frac{M}{m_p}kT$$

Thus,

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{GM^2}{r} \sim \frac{9}{8}\frac{M}{m_p}kT \longrightarrow kT \sim \frac{4}{9}\frac{GMm_p}{r}$$

$$kT \sim \frac{4}{9}\frac{GMm_p}{r} \qquad\qquad r_{\rm wd} \sim \frac{h^2}{20m_e m_p^{5/3}G}\left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{5/3} M^{-1/3}$$

Put it all together and we have:

$$\boxed{kT \sim \frac{80G^2 m_e m_p^{8/3}}{9h^2}\left(\frac{Z}{A}\right)^{-5/3} M^{4/3}}$$

For a 0.5 M_{sun} white dwarf this give T ~ 8 x 10^8 K.

The WD is then endpoint in stellar evolution. No nuclear reactions occur. Hence, it cools over time by radiating it's energy. The radiated luminosity is given by

$$L = 4\pi r_{\rm wd}^2 \sigma T_E^4$$

We will assume that white dwarf is at a constant temperature and estimate the cooling time.

$$L = 4\pi r_{\mathrm{wd}}^2 \sigma T_E^4 \qquad E_{th} = \frac{3}{8}\frac{M}{m_p}kT$$

Putting it together:

We only take nuclei, not electrons.

$$4\pi r_{\mathrm{wd}}^2 \sigma T^4 \sim \frac{dE_{\mathrm{th}}}{dt} = \frac{3Mk}{8m_p}\frac{dT}{dt}$$

$$dt = \frac{3Mk}{32\pi\sigma m_p r^2} T^{-4} dT$$

Integral is left to the student. Put in $M = 0.5M_{\mathrm{sun}}$ and $r_{\mathrm{wd}} = 4000$ km.

$$\tau_{\mathrm{cool}} \sim \frac{3Mk}{8m_p 4\pi r_{\mathrm{wd}}^2 \sigma 3T^3} = 3 \times 10^9 \mathrm{yr} \left(\frac{T}{10^3\mathrm{K}}\right)^{-3}$$

It would take our WD several Gyr to cool to 10^3 K. In reality, the insulating non-degenerate surface layers would result in an even slower cooling rate. Detailed models take this and other effects into account. For carbon/oxyen WD, cooling over 10^{10} yrs only brings temperatures down to 3000 - 4000 K. This explains the high temperatures (and blue/white colors).

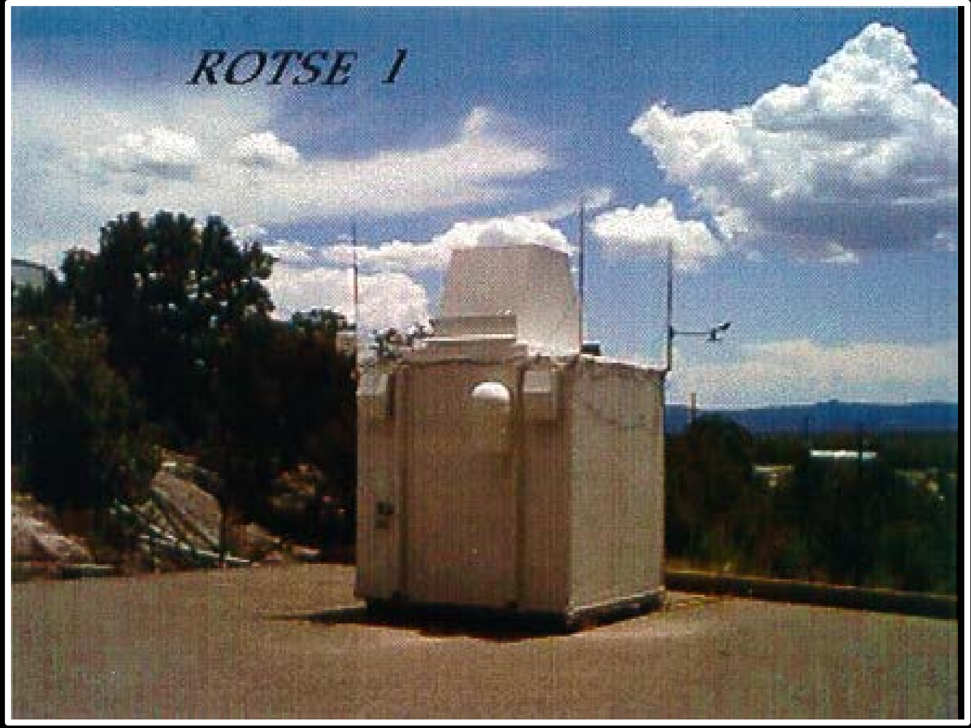
ROTSE

- Robotic Optical Transient Search Experiment
- Original purpose: Observe GRB optical counterpart (“afterglow”)
- Observation & detection of optical transients (seconds to days)
- Robotic operating system
  - Automated interacting Linux daemons
  - Sensitivity to short time-scale variation
  - Efficient analysis of large data stream
  - Recognition of rare signals
- Current research:
  - GRB response
  - SNe search (RSVP)
  - Variable star search
  - Other transients: AGN, CV (dwarf novae), flare stars, novae, variable stars, X-ray binaries


ROTSE-IIIa
Australian National Observatory

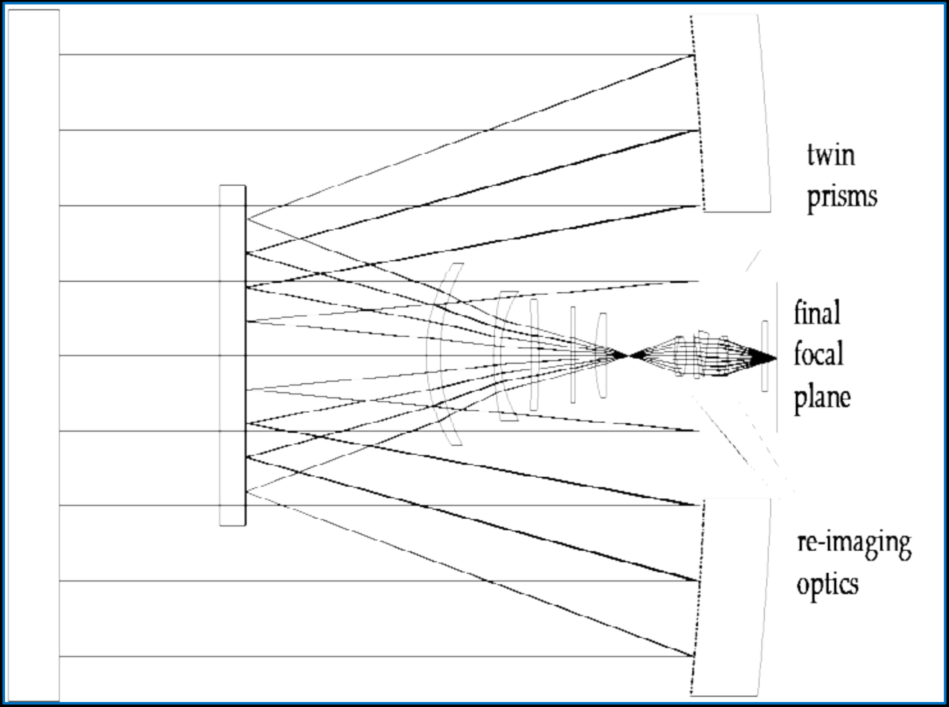
ROTSE-I

- 1st successful robotic telescope
- 1997-2000; Los Alamos, NM
- Co-mounted, 4-fold telephoto array (Cannon 200 mm lenses)
- CCD
  - 2k x 2k Thomson
  - “Thick”
  - Front illuminated
  - Red sensitive
  - R-band equivalent
  - Operated “clear” (unfiltered)
- Optics
  - Aperture (cm): 11.1
  - f-ratio: 1.8
  - FOV: 16°×16°
- Sensitivity (magnitude): 14-15
  - Best: 15.7
- Slew time (90°): 2.8 s
- 990123: Observed 1st GRB afterglow in progress
  - Landmark event
  - Proof of concept

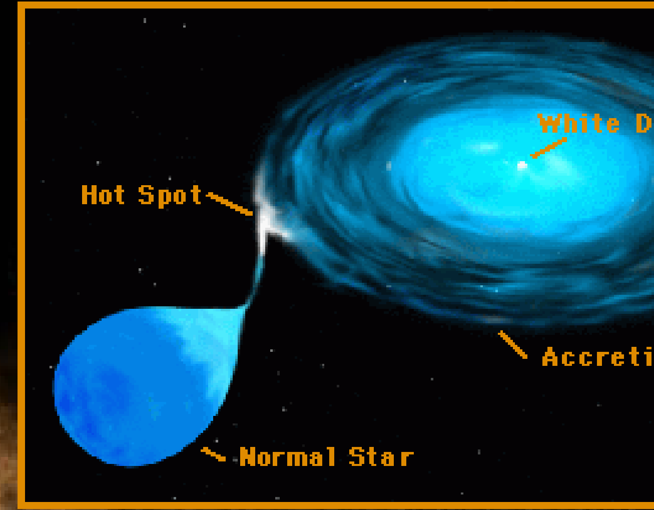


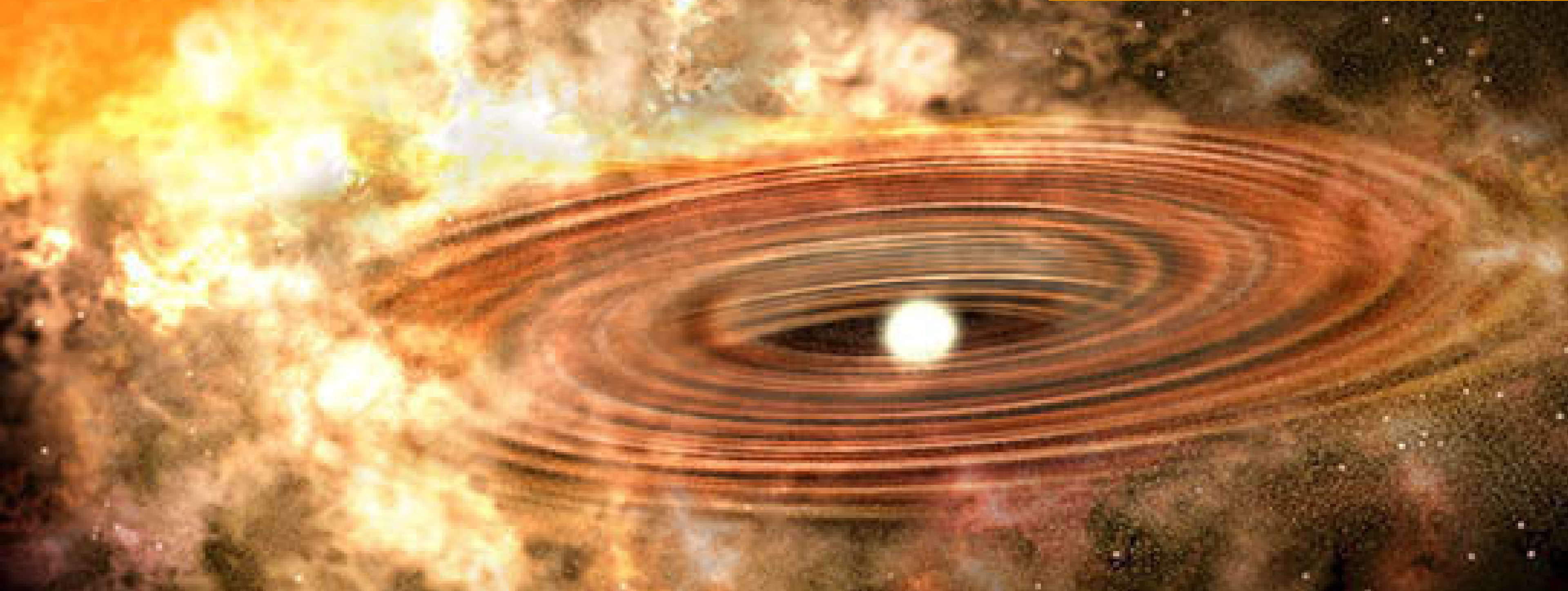
ROTSE-III

- 2003 – present
- 4 Cassegrain telescopes
- CCD
  - o "Thin"
  - o Back illuminated
  - o Blue-sensitive
  - o High QE (UBVRI bands)
  - o Default photometry calibrated to R-band
- Optics
  - o Aperture (cm): 45
  - o f-ratio: 1.9
  - o FOV: 1.85°×1.85°
- Sensitivity (magnitude): 19-20
- Slew time: < 10 s



Dwarf Novae

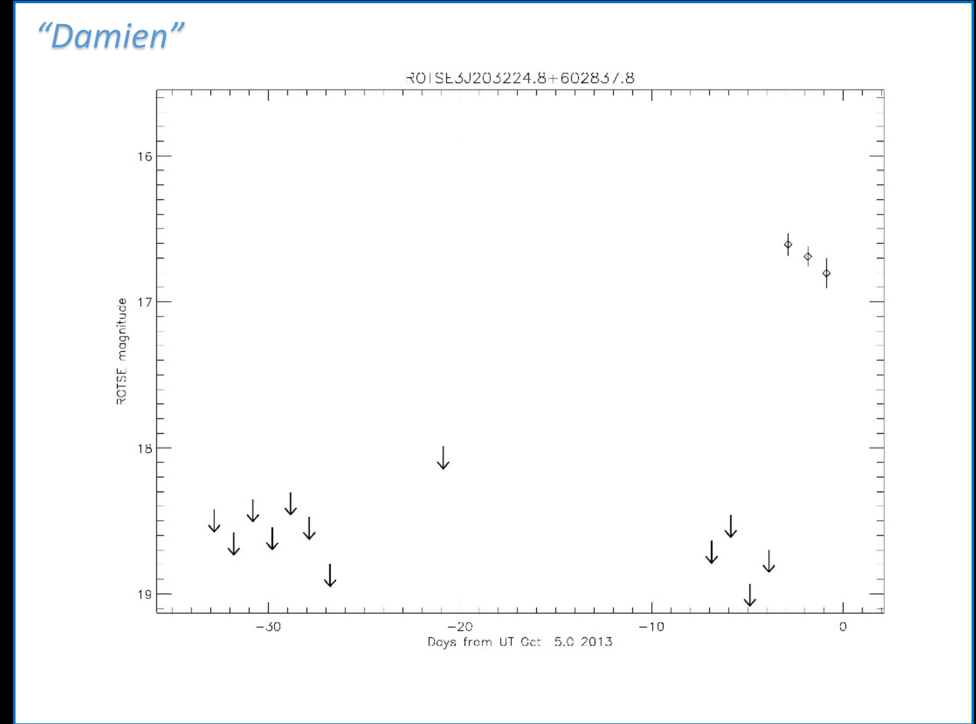


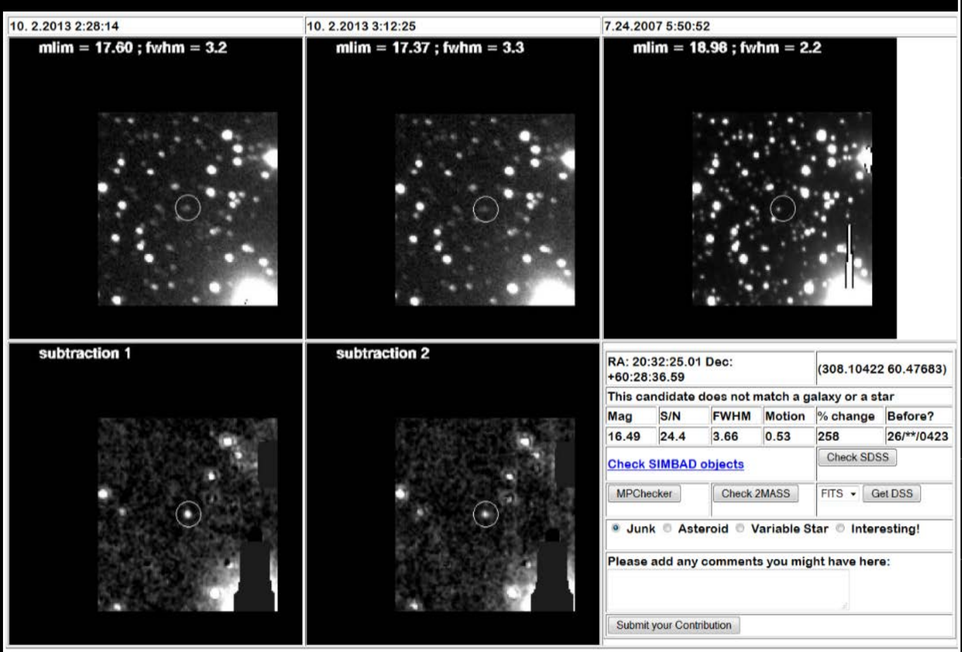


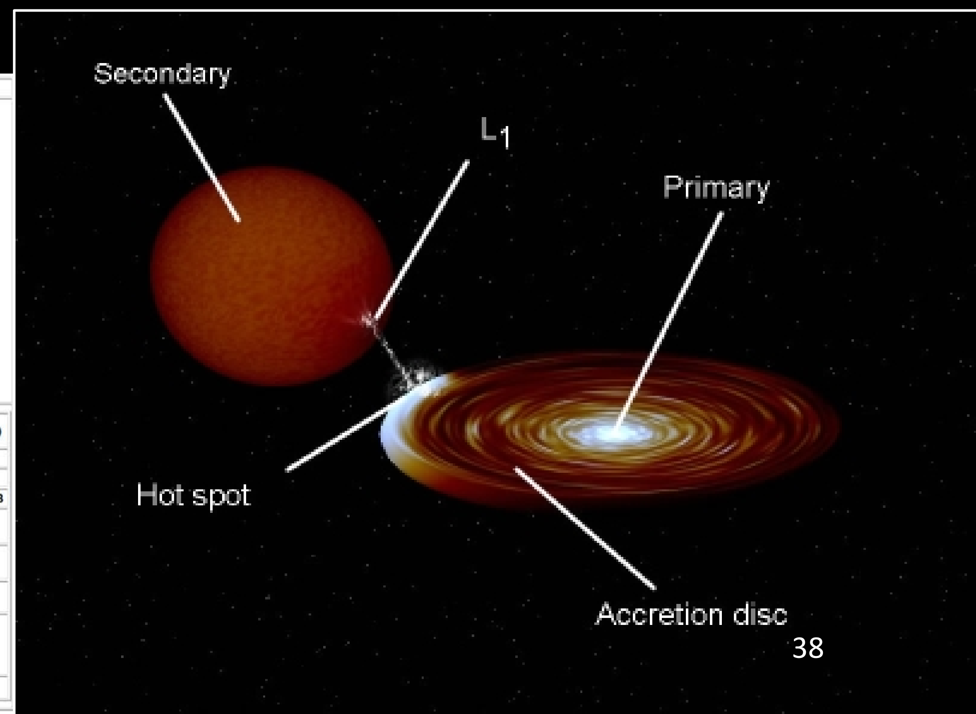
An artist's concept of the accretion disk around the binary star WZ Sge. Using data from Kitt Peak National Observatory and N Spitzer Space Telescope, a new picture of this system has emer which includes an asymmetric outer disk of dark matter.

ROTSE3 J203224.8+602837.8

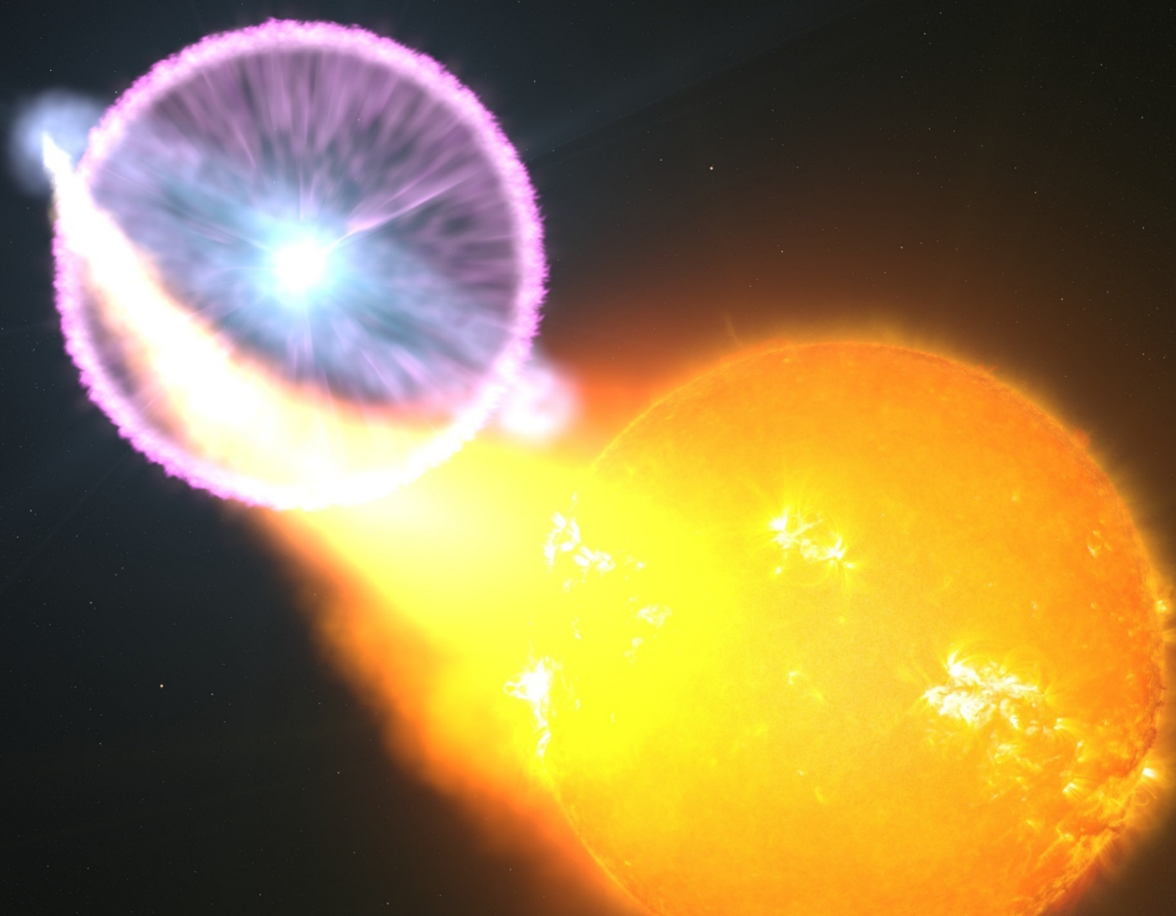
- 1st detection (110706):
  - ROTSE-IIIb & ROTSE-IIId
  - ATel #2126
- Outburst (131002 – 131004):
  - ROTSE-IIIb
  - ATel #5449
- Magnitude (max): 16.6
- (RA, Dec) = (20:32:25.01, +60:28:36.59)
- UG Dwarf Nova
  - Close binary system consisting of a red dwarf, a white dwarf, & an accretion disk surrounding the white dwarf
  - Brightening by 2 - 6 magnitudes caused by instability in the disk
  - Disk material infalls onto white dwarf







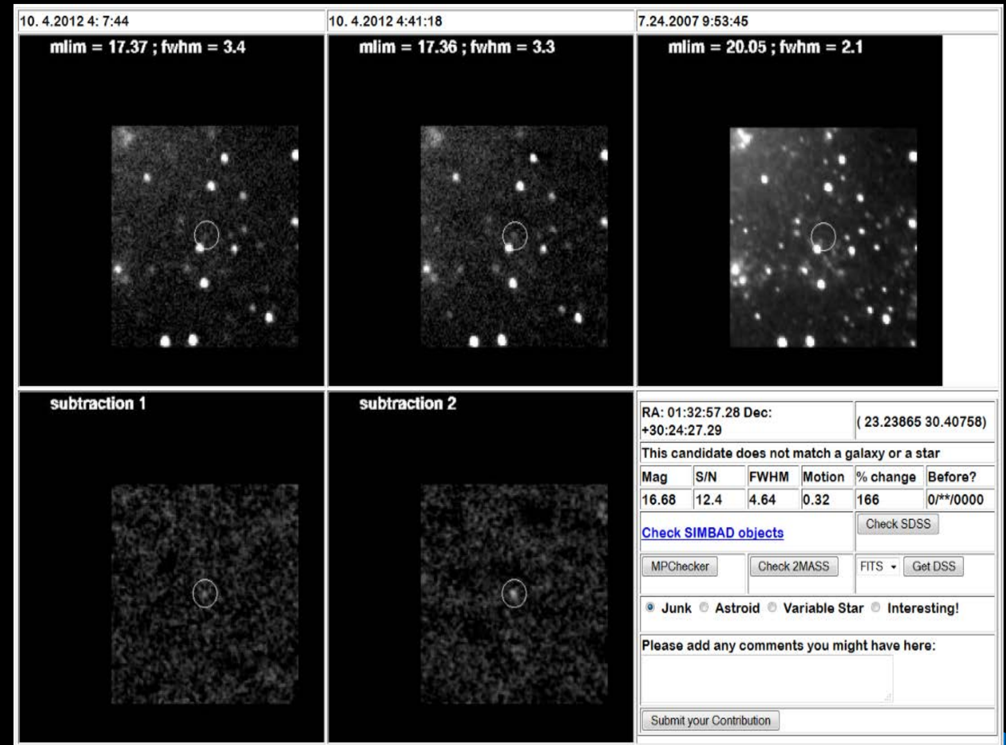
Novae (classical)

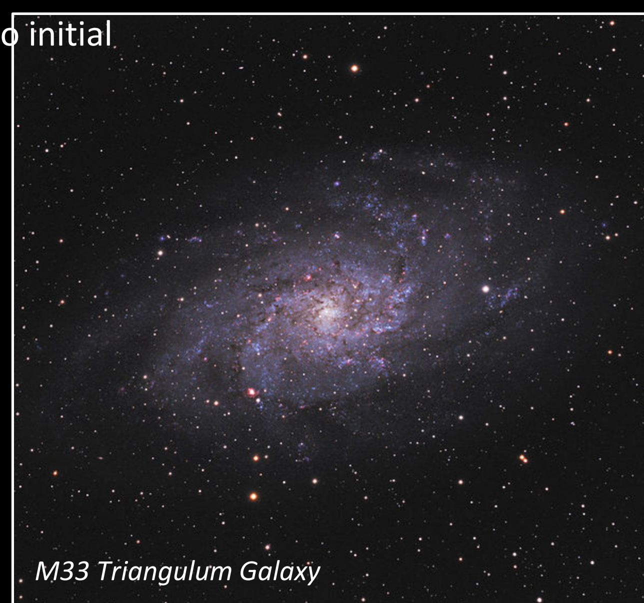


Novae typically originate in binary systems containing sun-like stars, as shown in this artist's rendering.

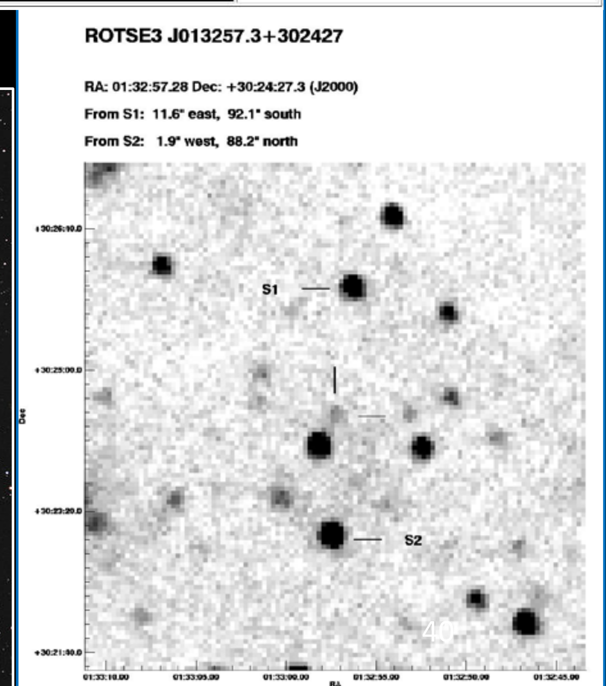
M33N 2012-10a

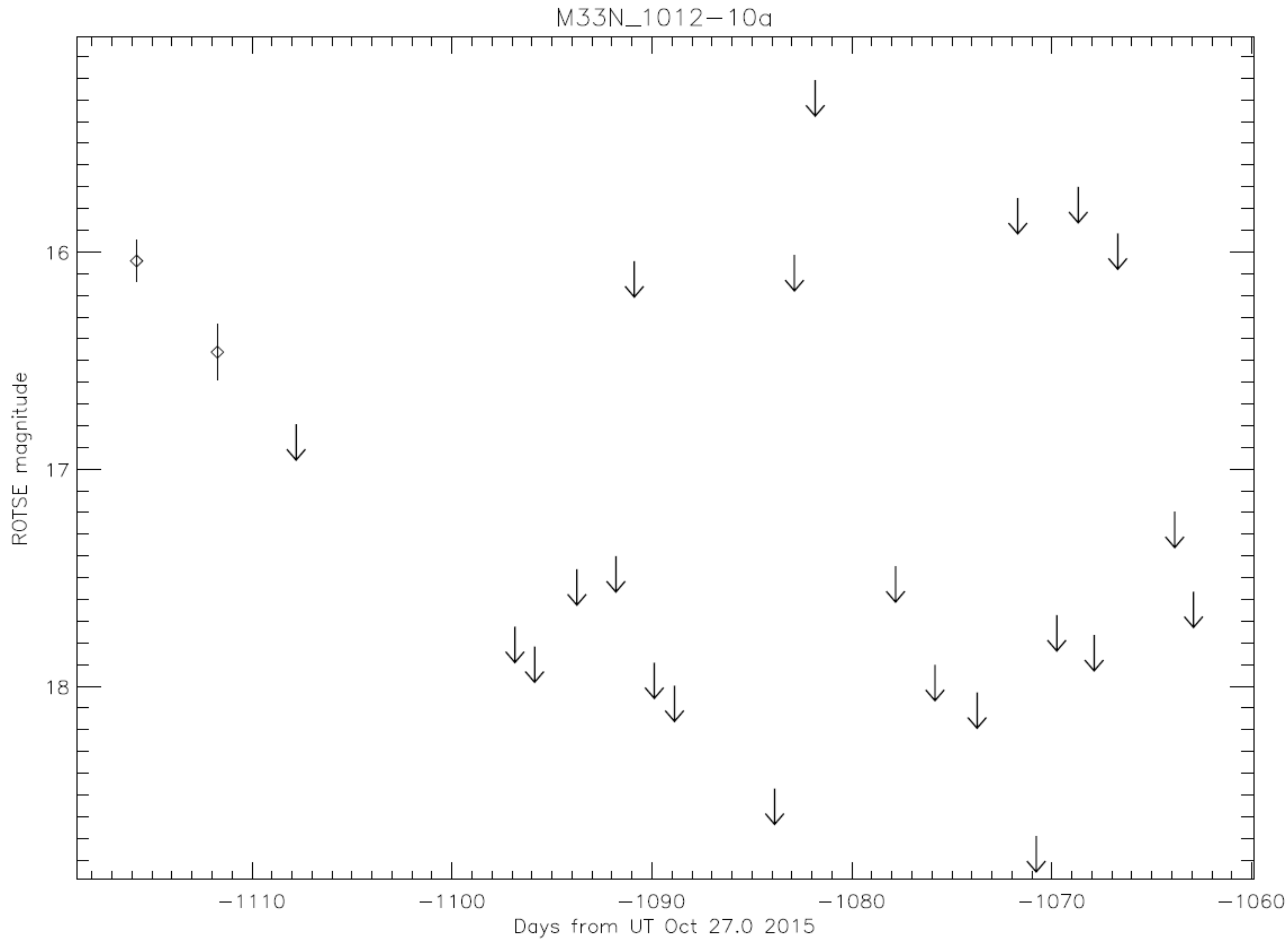
- 1st detection: 121004 (ROTSE-IIIb)
- (RA, Dec) = (01:32:57.3, +30:24:27)
- Constellation: Triangulum
- Host galaxy: M33
- Magnitude (max): 16.6
- z = 0.0002 (~0.85 Mpc, ~2.7 Mly)
- Classical nova
  - o Explosive nuclear burning of white dwarf surface from accumulated material from the secondary
  - o Causes binary system to brighten 7 - 16 magnitudes in a matter of 1 to 100s days
  - o After outburst, star fades slowly to initial brightness over years or decades
- CBET 3250





M33 Triangulum Galaxy

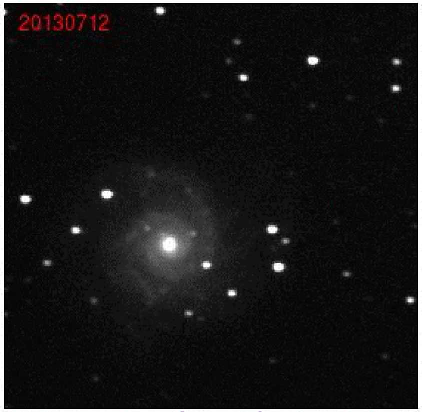




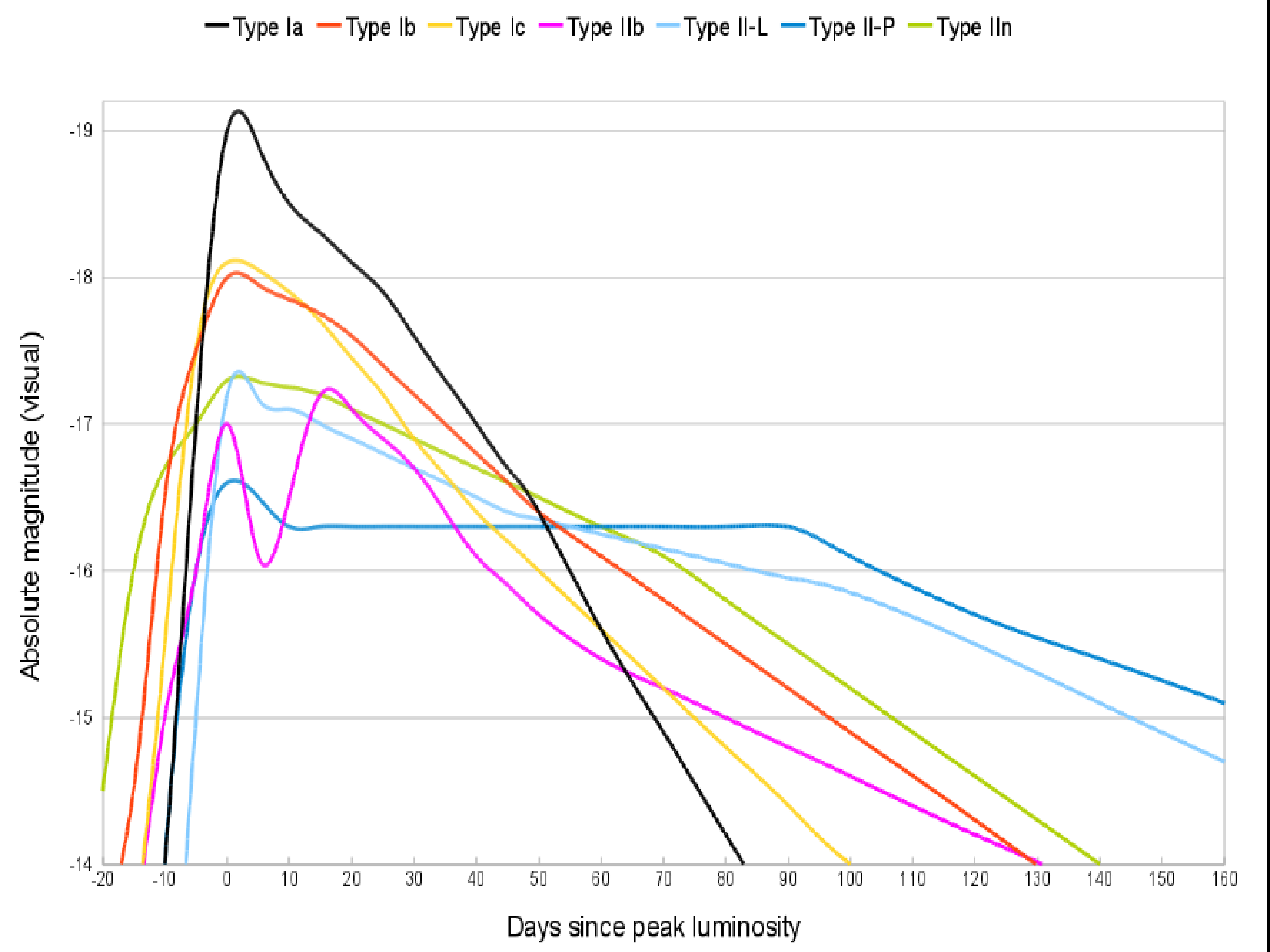
M33N_1012-10a
ROTSE magnitude
16
17
18
−1110
−1100
−1090
−1080
−1070
−1060
Days from UT Oct 27.0 2015

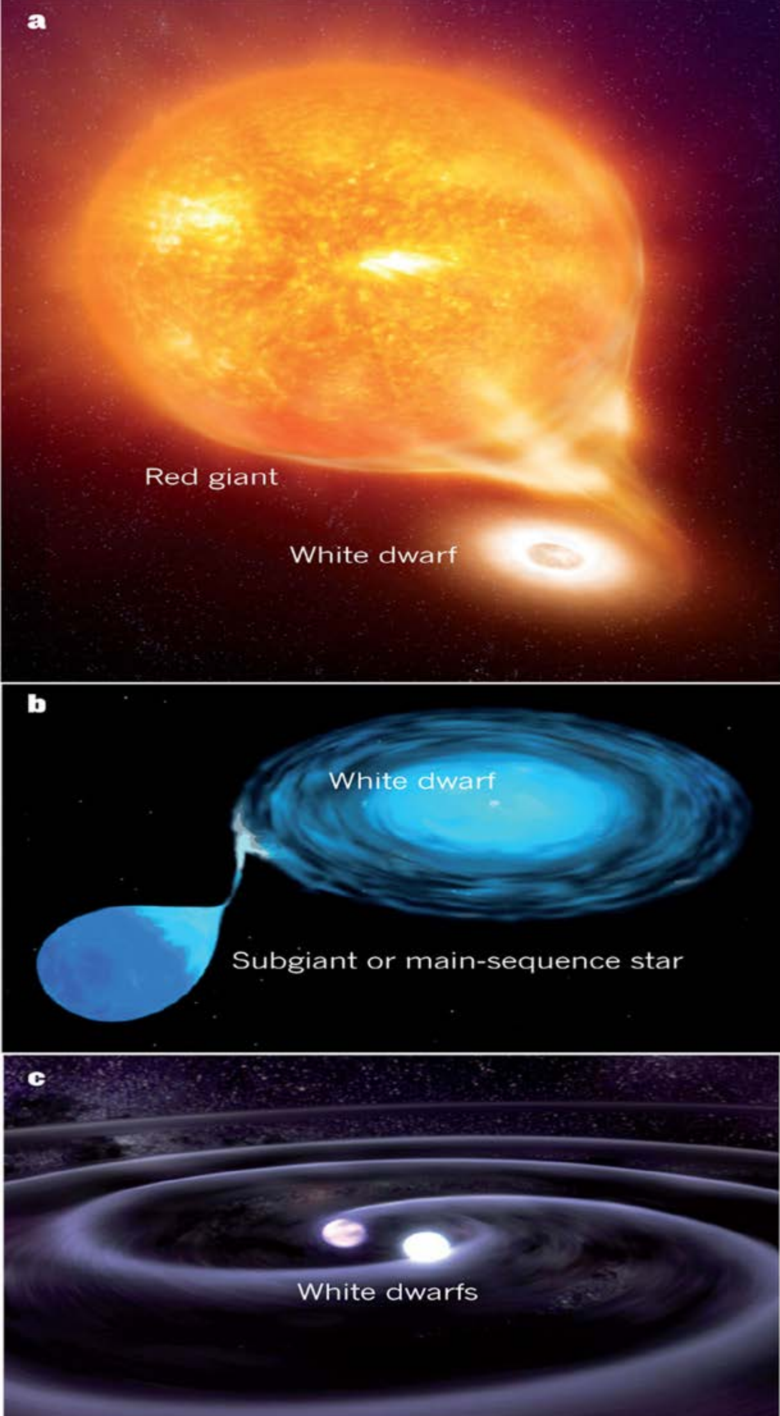
Supernovae

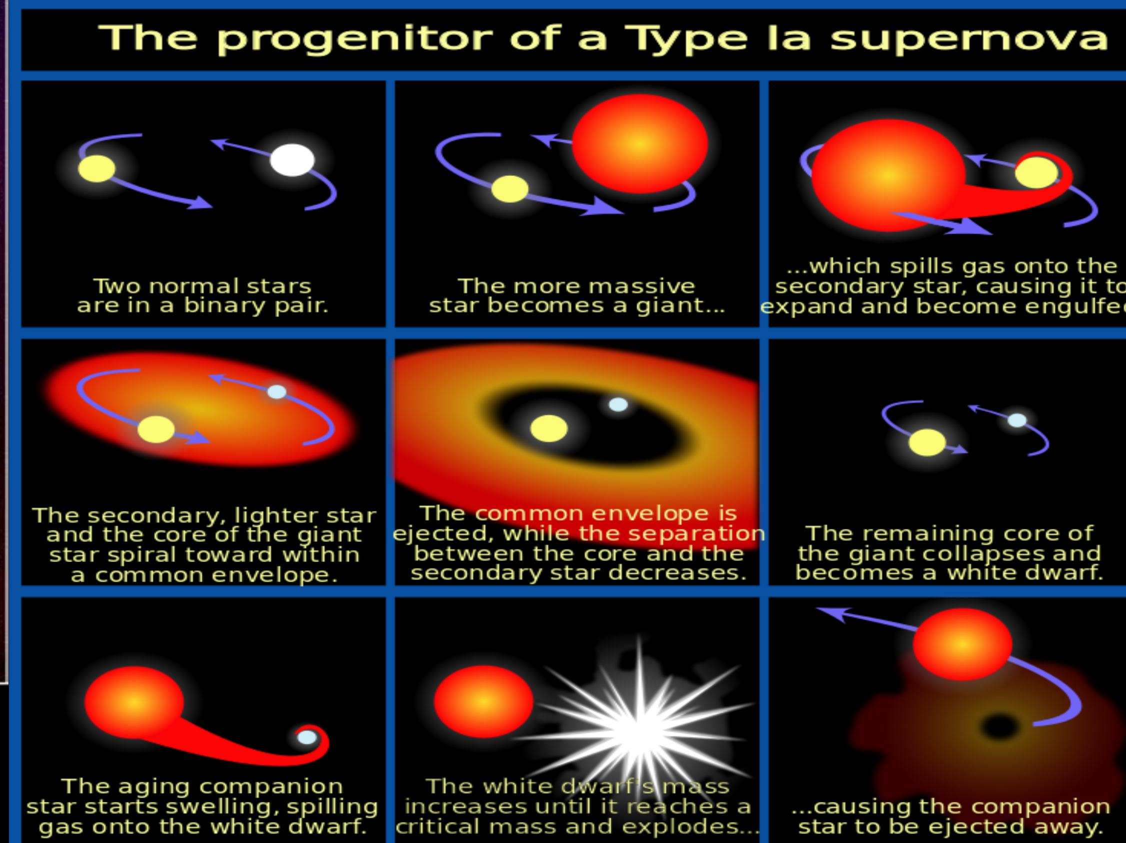
SN 1994D (NGC 4526)

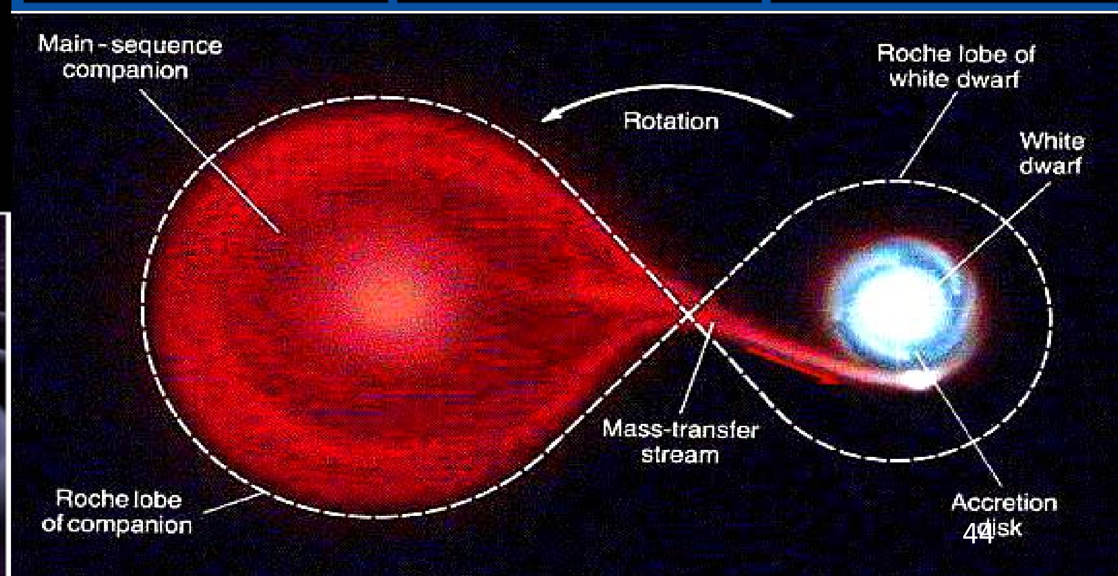


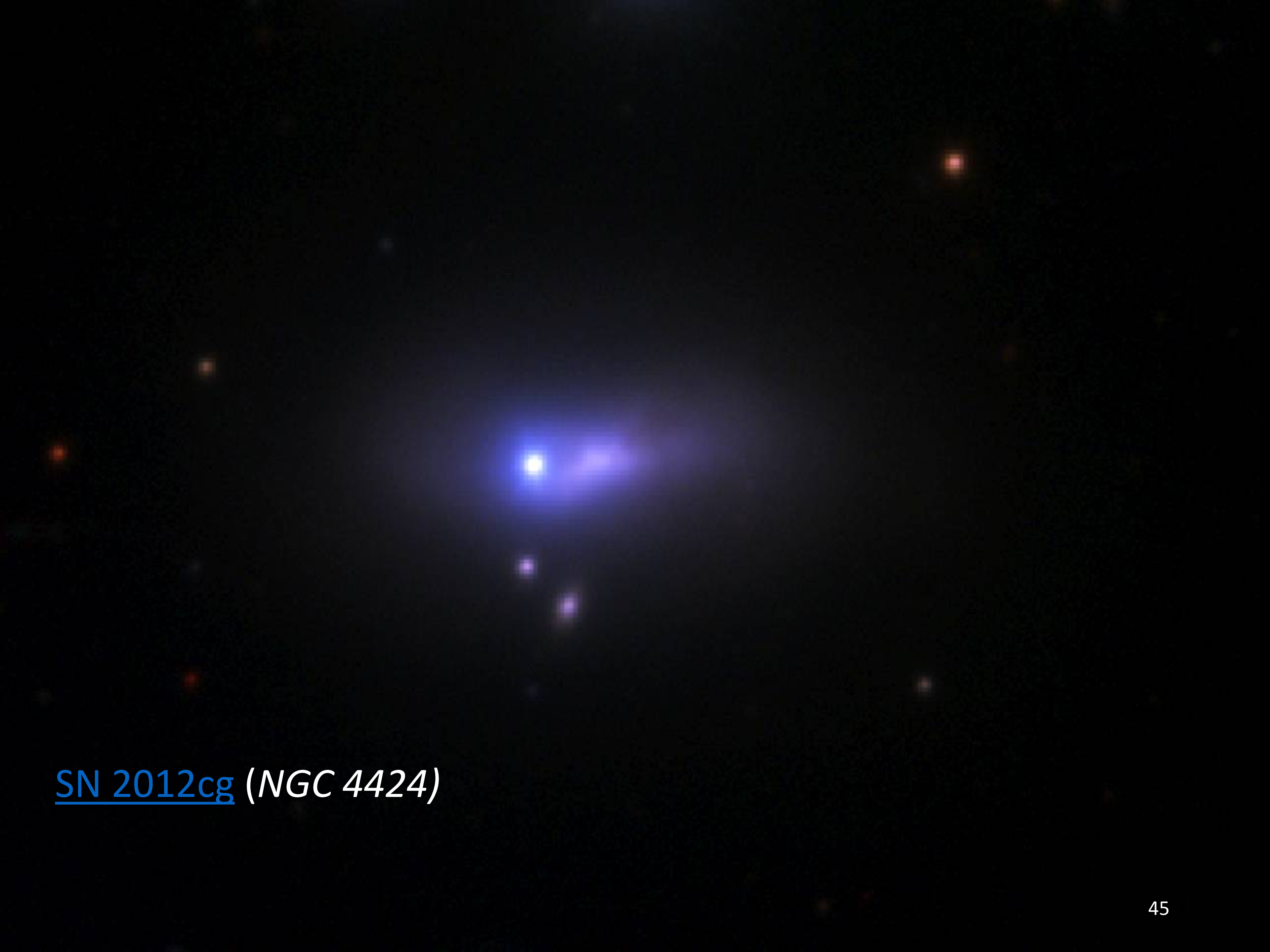
SN 2013ej (M74)


Type Ia
Type Ib
Type Ic
Type IIb
Type II-L
Type II-P
Type IIn
Absolute magnitude (visual)
-19
-18
-17
-16
-15
-14
-20
-10
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
70
80
90
100
110
120
130
140
150
160
Days since peak luminosity


a
Red giant
White dwarf
b
White dwarf
Subgiant or main-sequence star
c
White dwarfs


The progenitor of a Type Ia supernova
Two normal stars are in a binary pair.
The more massive star becomes a giant...
...which spills gas onto the secondary star, causing it to expand and become engulfed.
The secondary, lighter star and the core of the giant star spiral toward within a common envelope.
The common envelope is ejected, while the separation between the core and the secondary star decreases.
The remaining core of the giant collapses and becomes a white dwarf.
The aging companion star starts swelling, spilling gas onto the white dwarf.
The white dwarf's mass increases until it reaches a critical mass and explodes...
...causing the companion star to be ejected away.

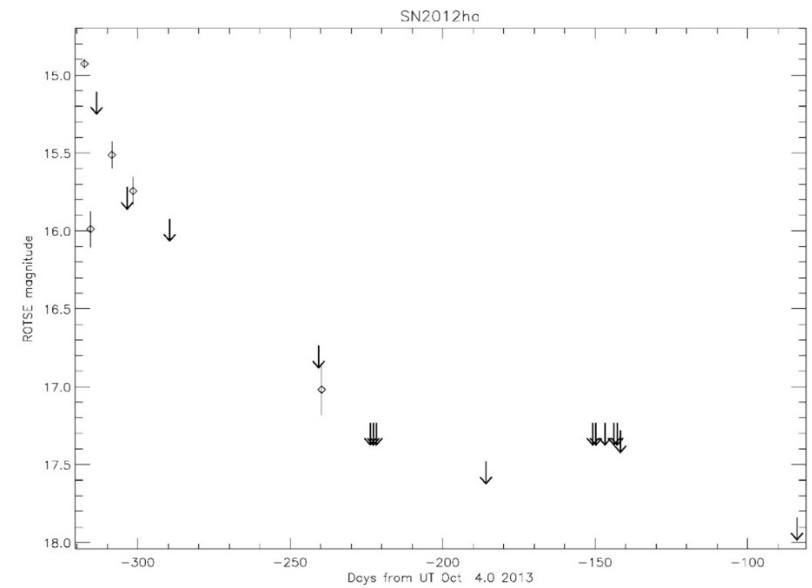

Main-sequence companion
Rotation
Roche lobe of white dwarf
White dwarf
Mass-transfer stream
Roche lobe of companion
Accretion disk

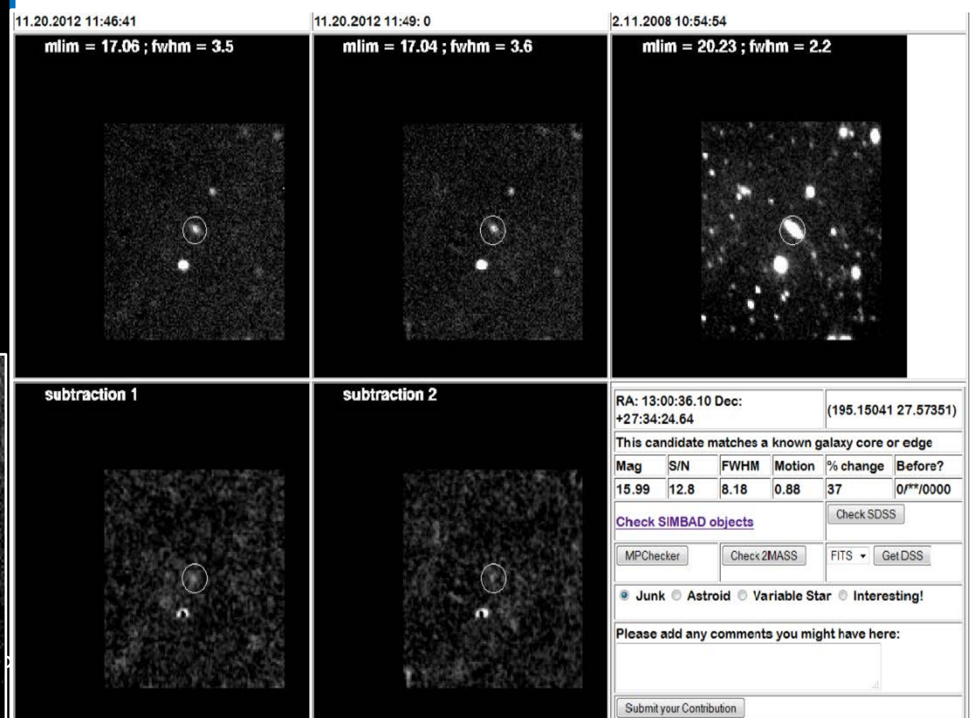


[SN 2012cg] (*NGC 4424)*

SN 2012ha *("Sherpa")*

- 1st detection: 121120 (ROTSE-IIIb)
- Type: Ia-normal
  - o Electron degeneracy prevents collapse to neutron star
  - o Single degenerate progenitor: C-O white dwarf in binary system accretes mass from companion (main sequence star)
  - o Mass → Chandrasekhar limit (1.44 $M_{\odot}$)
  - o Thermonuclear runaway
  - o Deflagration or detonation?
  - o Standardizable candles
    - ❑ acceleration of expansion
    - ❑ dark energy
- Magnitude (max): 15.0
- Observed 1 month past peak brightness
- (RA, Dec) = (13:00:36.10, +27:34:24.64)
- Constellation: Coma Berenices
- Host galaxy: PGC 44785
- z = 0.0170 (~75 Mpc; ~240 Mly)
- CBET 3319

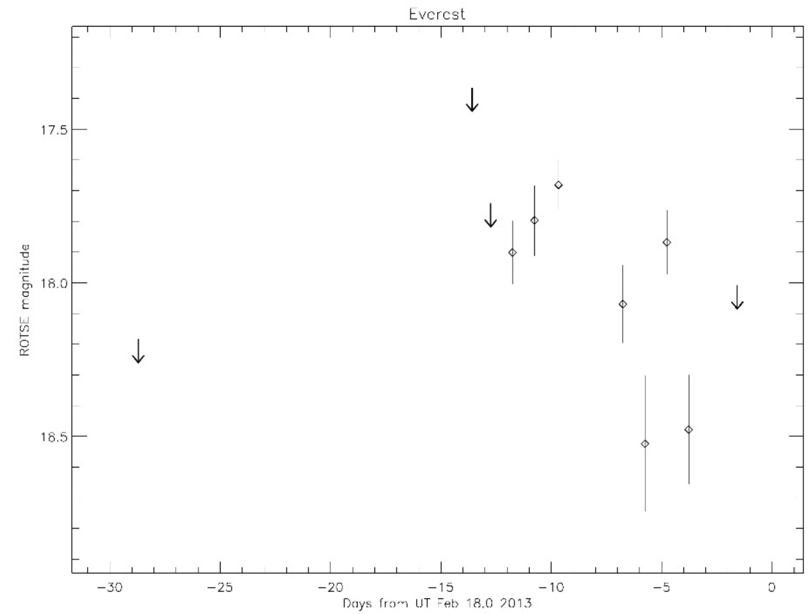


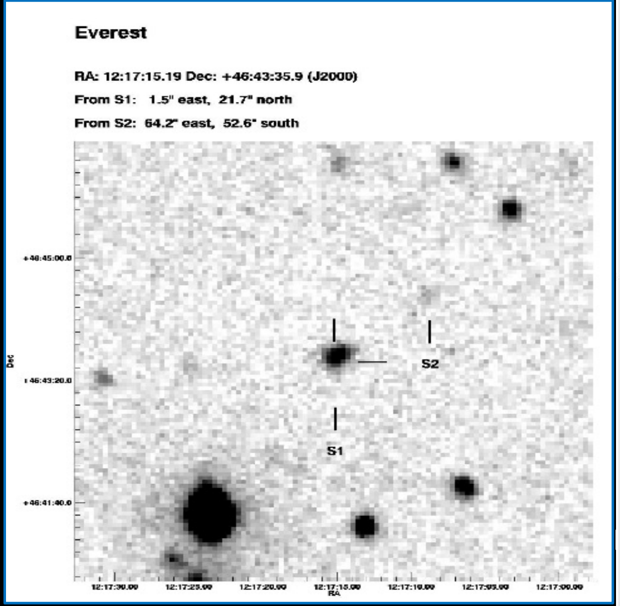


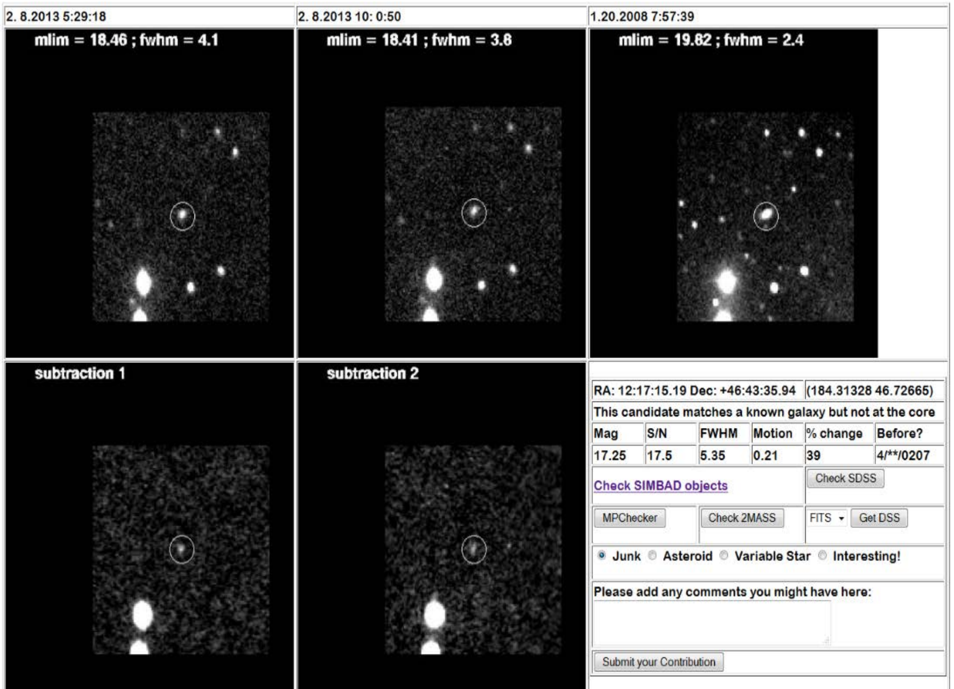

SN 2012ha: HET finder scope

SN 2013X *("Everest")*

- Discovered 130206 (ROTSE-IIIb)
- Type Ia 91T-like
    - o Overluminous
    - o White dwarf merger?
        - o Double degenerate progenitor?
- Magnitude (max): 17.7
- Observed 10 days past maximum brightness
- (RA, Dec) = (12:17:15.19, +46:43:35.94)
- Constellation: Ursa Major
- Host galaxy: PGC 2286144
- z = 0.03260 (~140 Mpc; ~450 Mly)
- CBET 3413





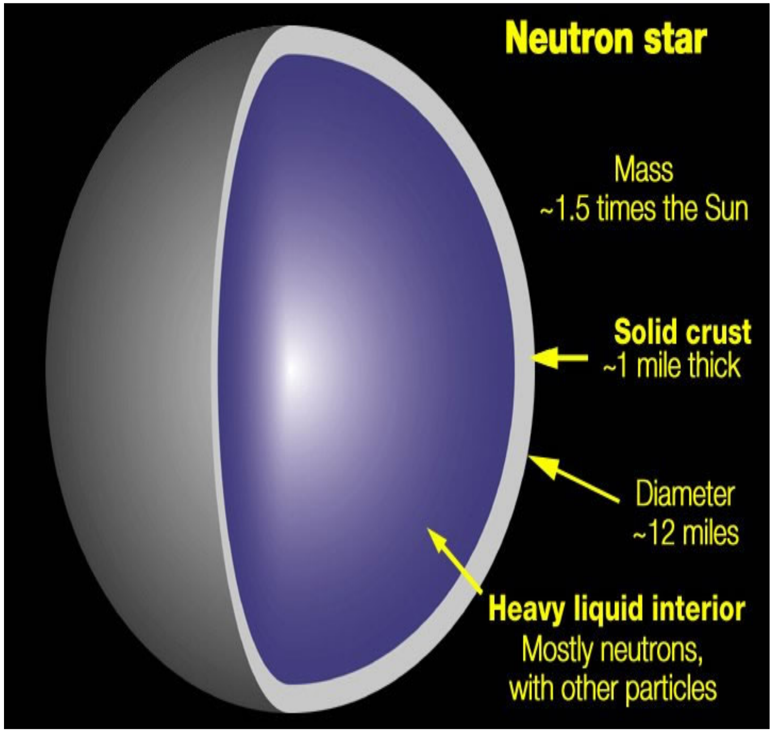


What happens to a stellar core more massive than 1.44 solar masses?

1. There aren't any
2. They shrink to zero size
3. They explode
4. They become something else

Neutron Stars

- Extremely compact: ~ 10 km radius @ 1.44 $M_\odot$
- Extreme density: 1 teaspoon weighs ~ 10^9 tons (as much as all the buildings in Manhattan)
- Spin rapidly - up to 600 *rev/s*
- Pulsars: Rotating neutron stars which emit lighthouse type sweeping beams as they rotate
- High magnetic fields (~ 10^{10} T): Compressed from magnetic field of progenitor star

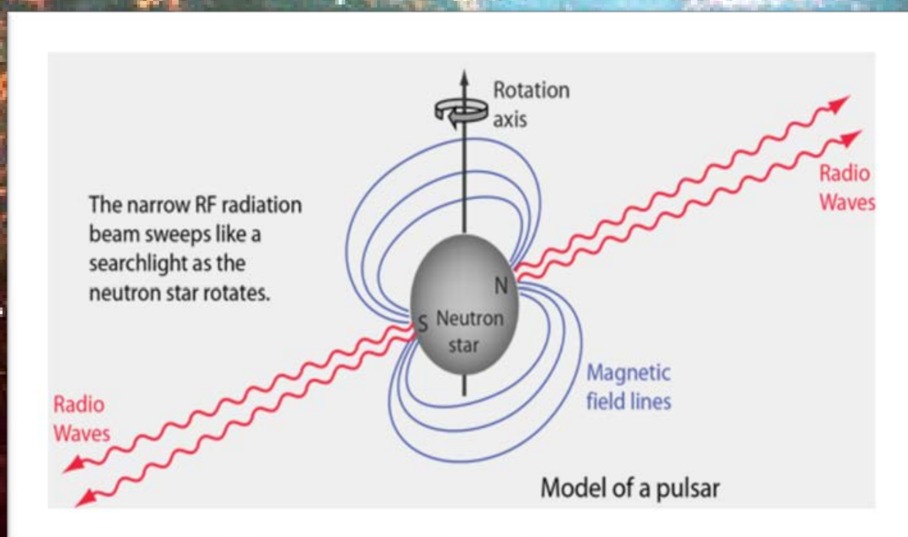


An artist's rendering of a neutron star compared with the skyline of Chicago. Neutron stars are about 12 miles in diameter and are extremely dense.

CreditDaniel Schwen/Northwestern, via LIGO-Virgo

Neutron Stars / Pulsars

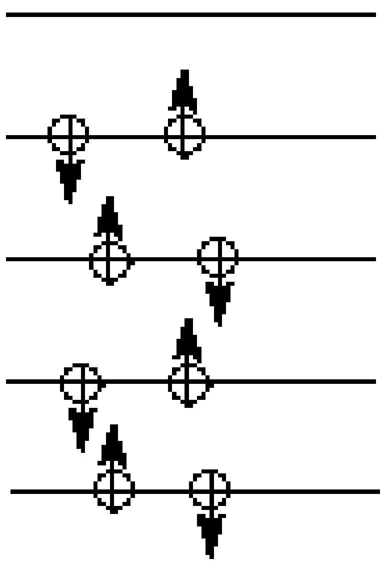
- Degenerate stellar cores more massive than 1.44 solar masses collapse to become neutron stars
- Formed in supernovae explosions
- Electrons are not separate
  - e^- capture
  - Combine with protons to form neutrons
- Neutron stars are degenerate Fermi gas of neutrons
- Pulsars:



Near the center of the Crab Nebula is a neutron star (pulsar) that rotates 30 times per second.

Photo Courtesy of NASA.

Neutron Energy Levels



Degenerate gas: all lower energy levels filled with two particles each (opposite spins). Particles **locked** in place.

- Only two neutrons (one up, one down) can go into each energy level
- In a degenerate gas, all low energy levels are filled
- Neutrons have kinetic energy; therefore in motion and exert pressure even if T = 0
- Neutron stars are supported by neutron degeneracy

Neutron Stars

Similar to white dwarfs - basic physics is degenerate fermion gas. However, we have neutrons, not electrons. Replace m_e with m_p.

$$r_{\rm ns} \approx 2.3 \times 10^9 \ {\rm cm} \ \frac{m_e}{m_n} \left(\frac{\mathcal{Z}}{A}\right)^{5/3} \left(\frac{M}{M_\odot}\right)^{-1/3} \approx 14 \ {\rm km} \left(\frac{M}{1.4 M_\odot}\right)^{-1/3}$$

Note: the Z/A factor is one, since almost all nucleons are neutrons.

Important Effects (we neglected):

1. Nuclear interactions play an important role in the EOS. The EOS is poorly known due to our poor understanding of details of the strong interaction.
2. The star is so compact that the effects of GR must be taken into account.

Compare gravitational and rest mass energies of a test particle of mass m.

$$E_{gr} = \frac{GMm}{2r} \qquad \text{and} \qquad E = mc^2$$

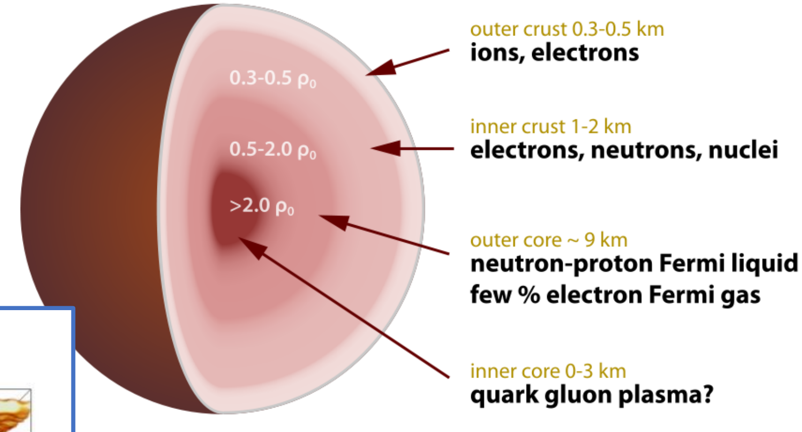
$$\frac{E_{\rm gr}}{mc^2} = \frac{GM}{rc^2} \approx \frac{6.7 \times 10^{-8}\ {\rm cgs} \times 1.4 \times 2 \times 10^{33}\ {\rm g}}{10 \times 10^5\ {\rm cm}\ (3 \times 10^{10}\ {\rm cm\ s^{-1}})^2} \approx 20\%$$

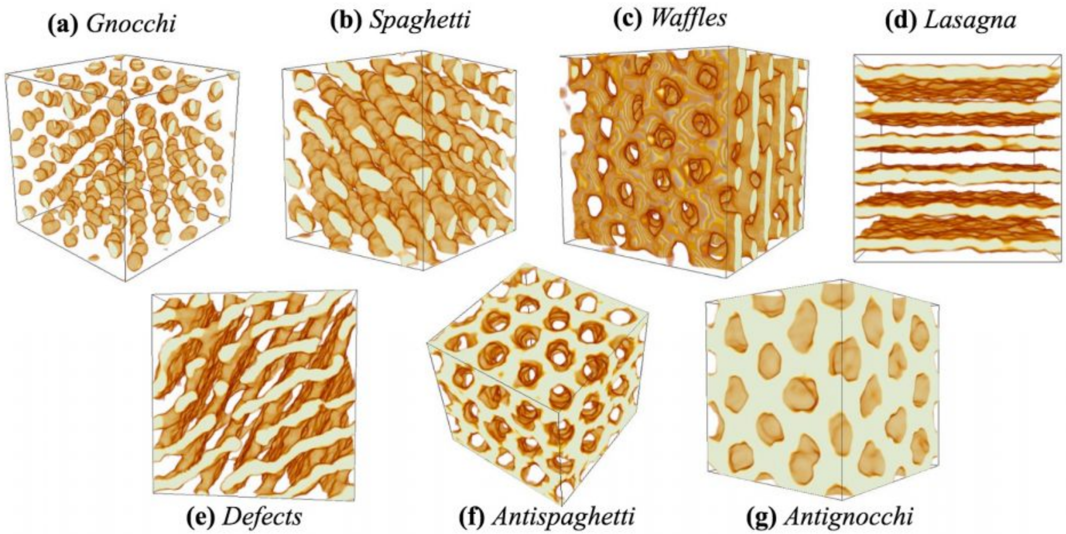
Matter falling onto a neutron star loses 20% of its rest mass and the mass of the star as measured via Kepler's law is 20% smaller than the total mass that composed it!

Detailed calculations that take into account GR and nuclear interactions give a radius of 10 km for a neutron star of $1.4M_{sun}$.

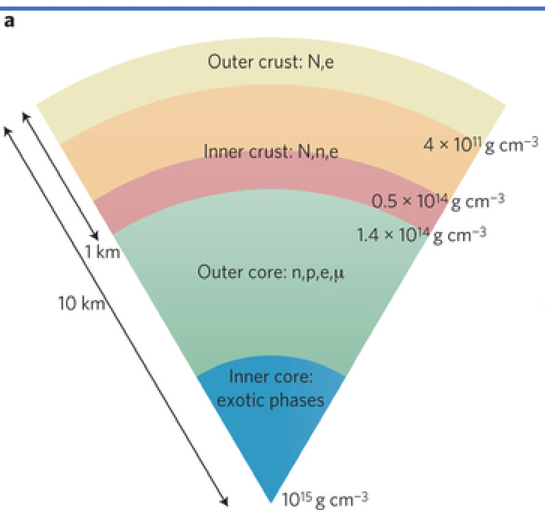
Limiting mass of a neutron star is not accurately known. The value is between $2M_{sun}$ and $3.2M_{sun}$.

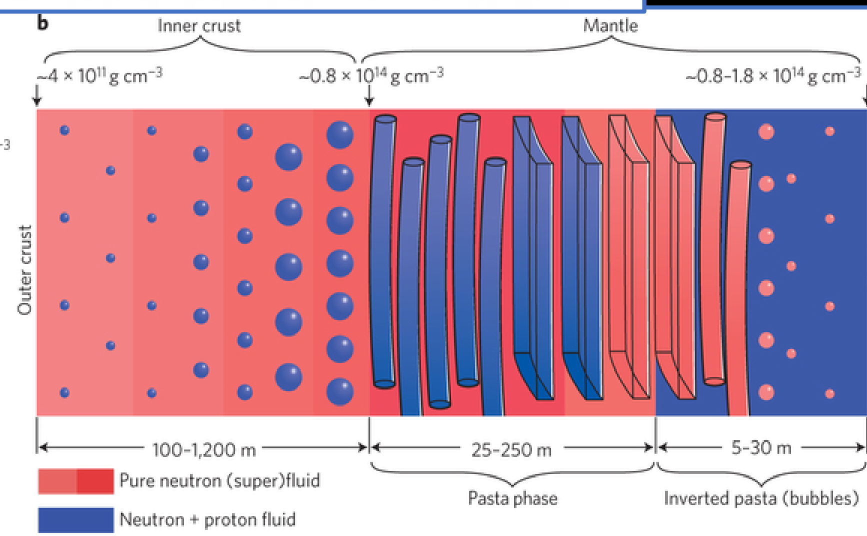
Nuclear Pasta





- $\rho_0 \sim 10^{14}$ g/cm^3
- Nuclear interaction (strong) ≈ Coulomb repulsion force
- Nuclear pasta phases theorized to exist n inner crust
  - Forms transition region between conventional matter at surface & ultradense matter at core

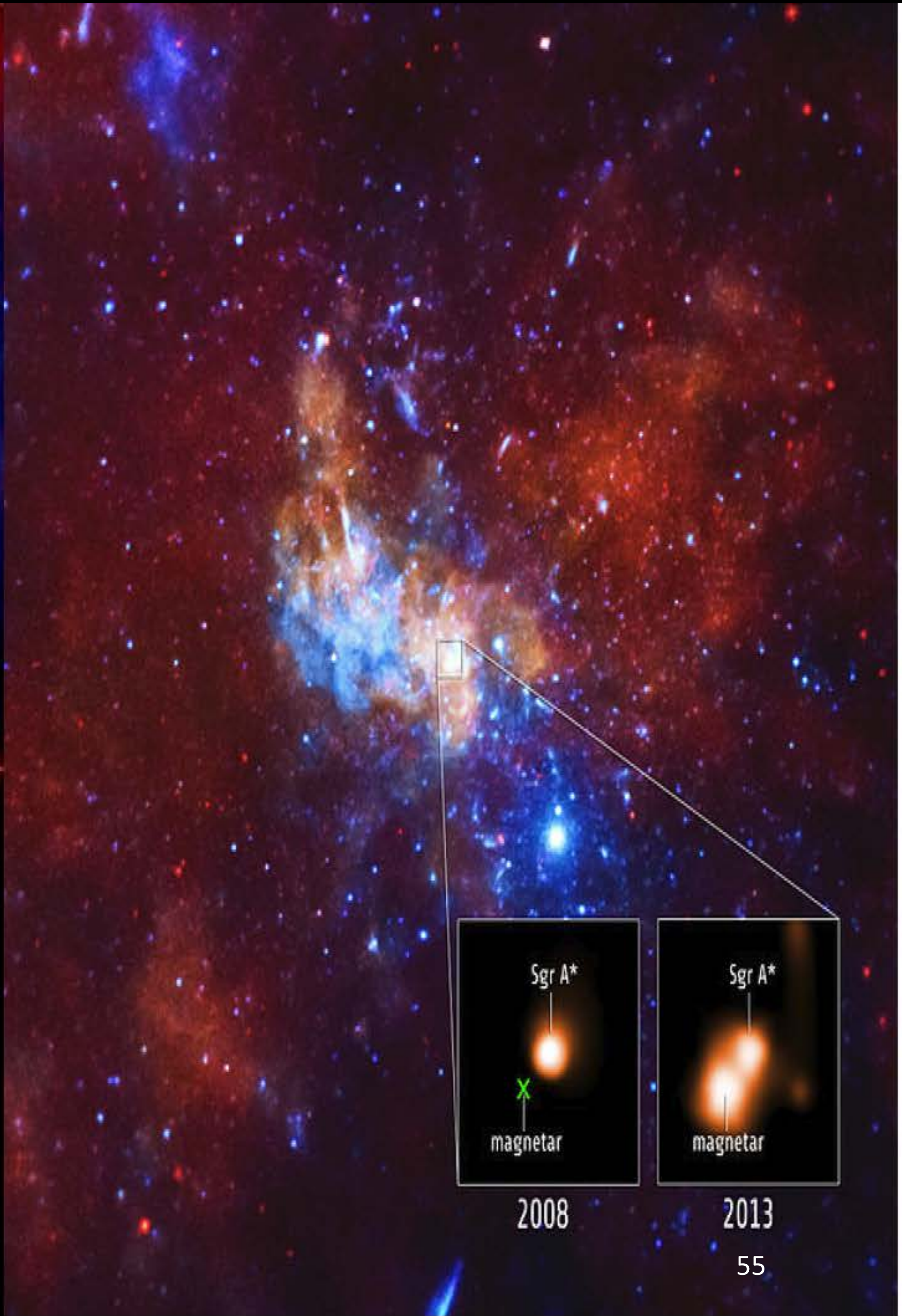




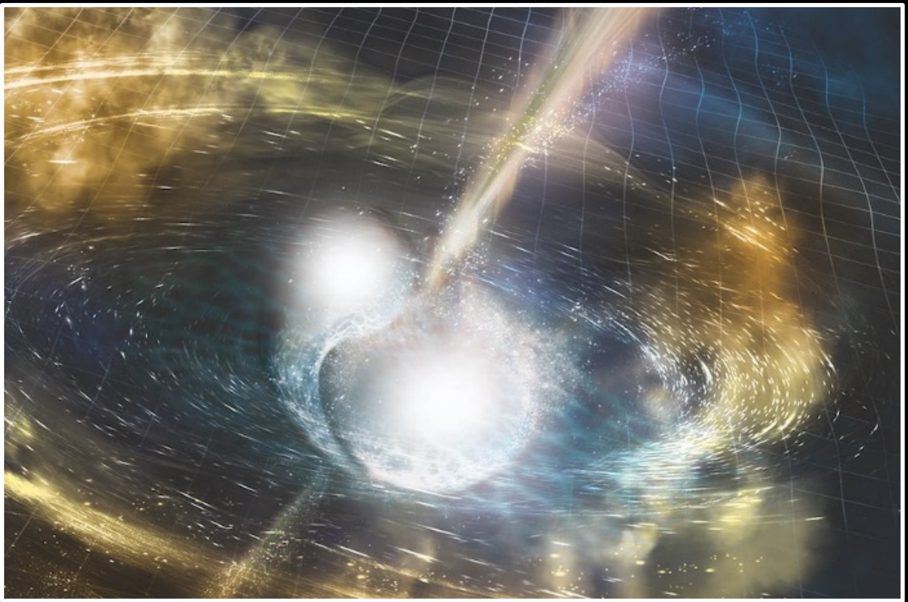
Nuclear Pasta

/NuclearPastaBlog @NuclearPasta

Magnetars

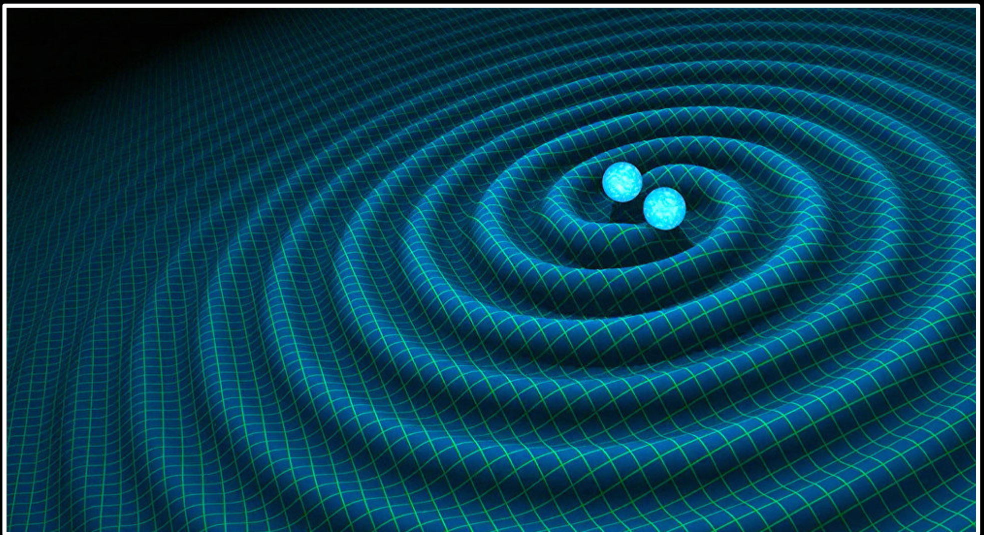


GW 170817



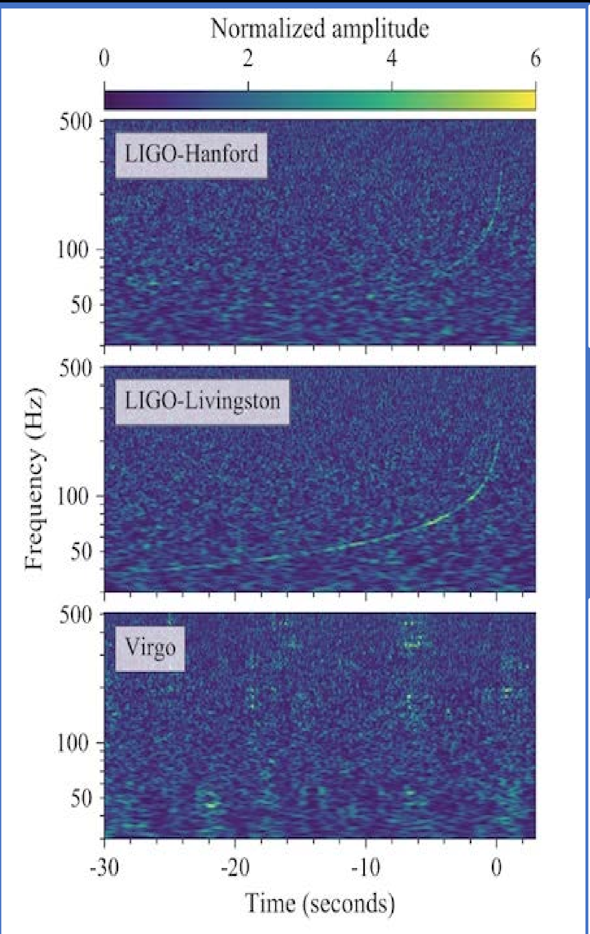
This illustration depicts the first moments after a neutron-star merger. A jet of gamma rays erupts perpendicular to the orbital plane, while radioactively heated ejecta glow in multiple wavelengths.

Credit: NSF/LIGO/Sonoma State University/A. Simonnet



NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center

GW 170817: Multimessenger Astronomy



The two LIGO detectors measured a clear signal from the merging neutron stars. Virgo data helped localize the source.

Credit: B. P. Abbott et al., Phys. Rev. Lett., 2017

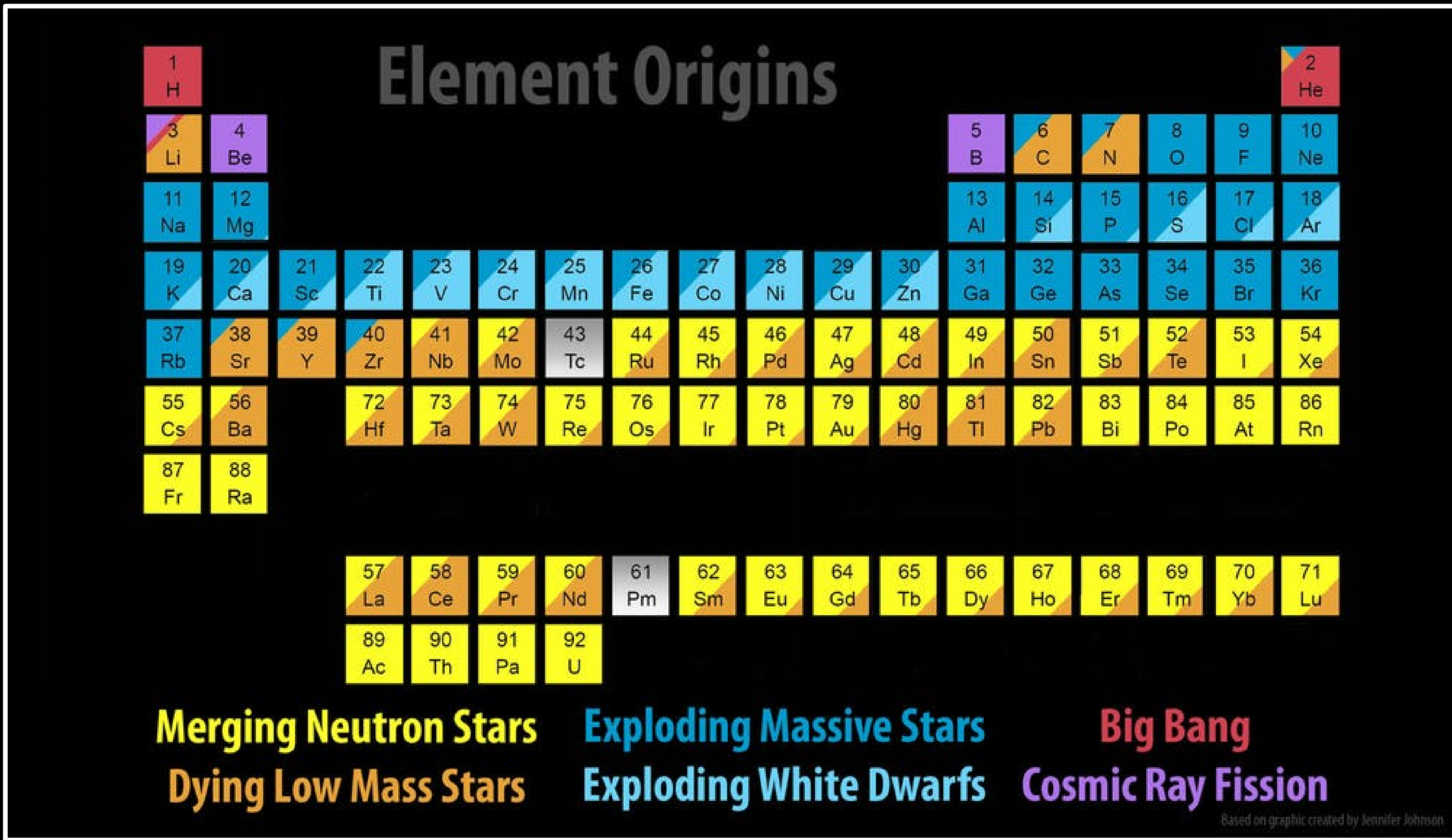
The Swope and Magellan Telescopes in Chile captured the first optical and near-IR images of the aftermath of the 17 August neutron-star collision. Over 4 days the source became dimmer and redder.

Credit: 1M2H/UC Santa Cruz and Carnegie Observatories/Ryan Foley

National Optical Astronomy Observatory

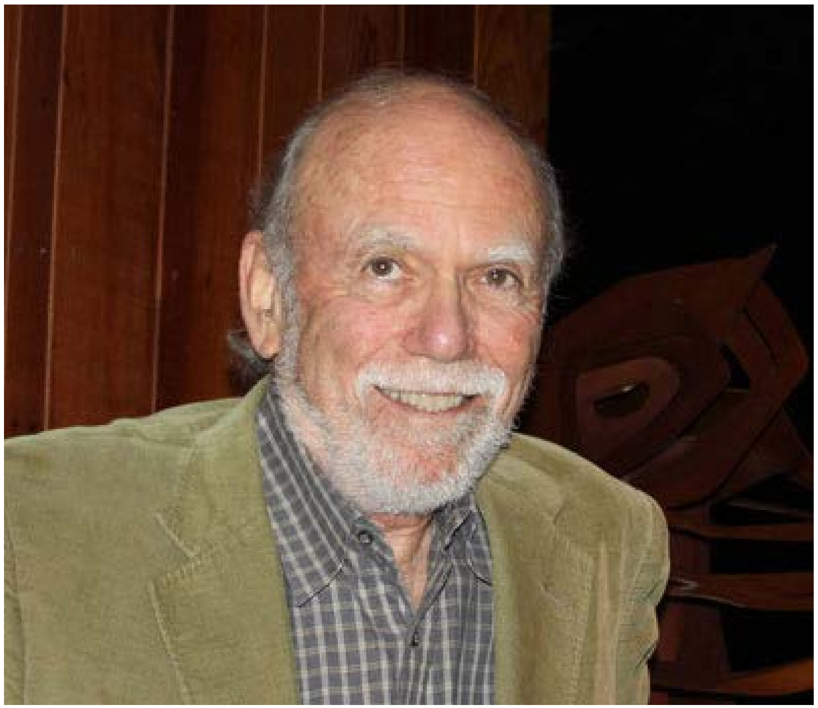
- Detection by LIGO Hanford, LIGO Livingston, & Virgo (Italy)
  - 3 LIGO detectors enabled triangulation of event to be within 60 square degrees
  - Much improved over previous binary black hole mergers (600 square degrees)
  - "Chirps" lasted 1.5 min, 3300 oscillations
- GRB 170817: Detection of short-duration GRB (kilonova) by Fermi & INTEGRAL satellites 1.7 s after GW detection
  - Followed by ground-based observations by 70+ telescopes in Southern Hemisphere
  - Both GW & EM (γ-ray, X-ray, UV, optical, IR, radio) event
- NGC 4993, 40 Mpc
- Binary neutron star merger
  - 1.6 ʘ mass neutron star merged with 1.1 ʘ mass neutron star = 2.7 ʘ neutron star (or black hole)
  - End product:, Neutron star @ upper limit, quark star, black star, black hole? (probable black hole)
  - Origin of heavy elements Ag, Pt, Au, & U by nuclear *r*-process
  - Produced ~10^4 Earth masses of elements heavier than Fe; 10-15 Earth masses of Au
  - Crucible of cosmic alchemy
- New era of multi-messenger astronomy begins!

GW 170817: Cosmic Alchemy



Black Holes

Nobel laureate Barry C. Barish to receive honorary SMU doctorate during 103rd Commencement, May 19, 2018



Barry Clark Barish, Nobel Prize in Physics, 2017 (LIGO)

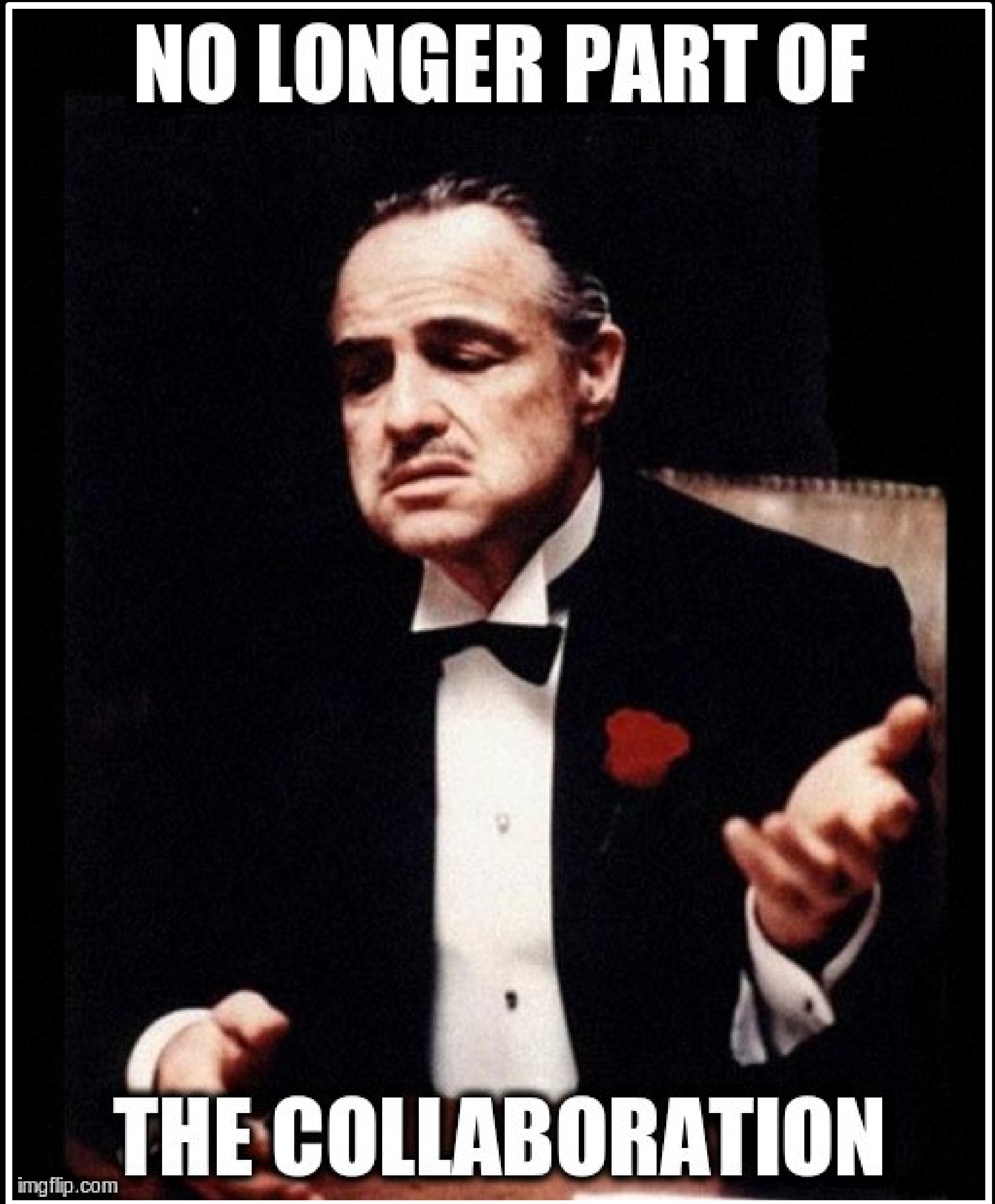
Nobel laureate Barry Clark Barish, Ph.D., Linde Professor *Emeritus* of Physics at the California Institute of Technology and a leading expert on cosmic gravitational waves, will receive an honorary doctoral degree during SMU's 103rd all-University Commencement ceremony. The event begins at 9 a.m. **Saturday, May 19, 2018**, in Moody Coliseum.

Barish shared the Nobel Prize in Physics in 2017 for his work in establishing the Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory(LIGO) and the first observations of gravitational waves – disturbances in the fabric of space and time predicted by Albert Einstein based on his General Theory of Relativity.
He will receive the Doctor of Science degree, *honoris causa*, from SMU during the ceremony.

On Friday, May 18, Dr. Barish will give a free public lecture on campus. "Einstein, Black Holes and Gravitational Waves" will begin at 3 p.m. in Crum Auditorium, Collins Executive Education Center, on the SMU campus. The lecture will be preceded by a reception at 2:15 p.m. Free parking will be available in the University's Binkley and Moody garages, accessible from the SMU Boulevard entrance to campus.

"Dr. Barry Barish has changed the way we see the universe with his work," said SMU President **R. Gerald Turner**. "His accomplishments as an experimental physicist have broken new ground and helped to confirm revolutionary theories about the structure of our cosmos."

"Conferring an honorary degree is an important tradition for any university," said SMU Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs **Steven C. Currall**. "For SMU, this year's decision takes on special meaning, as the University is the home of a highly-regarded Department of Physics deeply involved in research ranging from variable stars to the Higgs boson. Dr. Barish and his record of world-changing accomplishment represent the very best of his field. He's an outstanding example of what all our graduates can aspire to as they begin their own professional endeavors."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