What’s your address?

You know your address at home. You also know your address at school. But do you know your address in space? You live on a planet called Earth that revolves around a star called the Sun. Earth and the Sun are part of a galaxy called the Milky Way. It looks similar to galaxy M83, shown in the photo.

Science Journal Write a description in your Science Journal of the galaxy shown on this page.
Why do clusters of galaxies move apart?

Astronomers know that most galaxies occur in groups of galaxies called clusters. These clusters are moving away from each other in space. The fabric of space is stretching like an inflating balloon.

1. Partially inflate a balloon. Use a piece of string to seal the neck.
2. Draw six evenly spaced dots on the balloon with a felt-tipped marker. Label the dots A through F.
3. Use string and a ruler to measure the distance, in millimeters, from dot A to each of the other dots.
4. Inflate the balloon more.
5. Measure the distances from dot A again.
6. Inflate the balloon again and make new measurements.
7. Think Critically Imagine that each dot represents a cluster of galaxies and that the balloon represents the universe. Describe the motion of the clusters in your Science Journal.
1 **Learn It!** When you make inferences, you draw conclusions that are not directly stated in the text. This means you “read between the lines.” You interpret clues and draw upon prior knowledge. Authors rely on a reader’s ability to infer because all the details are not always given.

2 **Practice It!** Read the excerpt below and pay attention to highlighted words as you make inferences. Use this Think-Through chart to help you make inferences.

Notice how the front two stars of the Big Dipper point almost directly at Polaris, which often is called the North Star. Polaris is located at the end of the Little Dipper in the constellation Ursa Minor.

—from page 725

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Inferences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the front two stars of the Big Dipper</td>
<td>Which are the “front” two stars?</td>
<td>The two “bowl” stars which are farthest from the “handle?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>point almost directly at Polaris</td>
<td>How do the two stars “point?”</td>
<td>Visualize a straight line through the two stars toward the Little Dipper?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>located at the end of the Little Dipper</td>
<td>Which is the “end” of the Little Dipper?</td>
<td>The last star in the handle away from the bowl?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 **Apply It!** As you read this chapter, practice your skill at making inferences by making connections and asking questions.
Use this to focus on the main ideas as you read the chapter.

1 **Before you read** the chapter, respond to the statements below on your worksheet or on a numbered sheet of paper.
   - Write an A if you *agree* with the statement.
   - Write a D if you *disagree* with the statement.

2 **After you read** the chapter, look back to this page to see if you’ve changed your mind about any of the statements.
   - If any of your answers changed, explain why.
   - Change any false statements into true statements.
   - Use your revised statements as a study guide.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before You Read A or D</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>After You Read A or D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A constellation is a group of stars which are close together in space.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>A light-year is a measurement of time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The color of a star indicates its temperature.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The Sun is the closest star to Earth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Light from the Sun reaches Earth in about eight minutes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Most of the heat energy produced by the Sun is caused by the fission, or radioactive decay, of helium into hydrogen in the Sun’s core.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A black hole is a location in space where there is no mass, gravity, or light.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The Milky Way Galaxy is located within the solar system.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>A red shift in the light spectrum coming from a star means that the star is becoming hotter.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Most scientific evidence currently suggests that the universe is expanding.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It’s fun to look at clouds and find ones that remind you of animals, people, or objects that you recognize. It takes more imagination to play this game with stars. Ancient Greeks, Romans, and other early cultures observed patterns of stars in the night sky called constellations. They imagined that the constellations represented mythological characters, animals, or familiar objects.

From Earth, a constellation looks like spots of light arranged in a particular shape against the dark night sky. Figure 1 shows how the constellation of the mythological Greek hunter Orion appears from Earth. It also shows that the stars in a constellation often have no relationship to each other in space.

Stars in the sky can be found at specific locations within a constellation. For example, you can find the star Betelgeuse (BEE tul jooz) in the shoulder of the mighty hunter Orion. Orion’s faithful companion is his dog, Canis Major. Sirius, the brightest star that is visible from the northern hemisphere, is in Canis Major.

As you read

**What You’ll Learn**

- **Explain** why some constellations are visible only during certain seasons.
- **Distinguish** between absolute magnitude and apparent magnitude.

**Why It’s Important**

The Sun is a typical star.

**Review Vocabulary**

**star**: a large, spherical mass of gas that gives off light and other types of radiation

**New Vocabulary**

- constellation
- absolute magnitude
- apparent magnitude
- light-year
Modern Constellations Modern astronomy divides the sky into 88 constellations, many of which were named by early astronomers. You probably know some of them. Can you recognize the Big Dipper? It’s part of the constellation Ursa Major, shown in Figure 2. Notice how the front two stars of the Big Dipper point almost directly at Polaris, which often is called the North Star. Polaris is located at the end of the Little Dipper in the constellation Ursa Minor. It is positioned almost directly over Earth’s north pole.

Circumpolar Constellations As Earth rotates, Ursa Major, Ursa Minor, and other constellations in the northern sky circle around Polaris. Because of this, they are called circumpolar constellations. The constellations appear to move, as shown in Figure 2, because Earth is in motion. The stars appear to complete one full circle in the sky in about 24 h as Earth rotates on its axis. One circumpolar constellation that’s easy to find is Cassiopeia (ka see uh PEE uh). You can look for five bright stars that form a big W or a big M in the northern sky, depending on the season.

As Earth orbits the Sun, different constellations come into view while others disappear. Because of their unique position, circumpolar constellations are visible all year long. Other constellations are not. Orion, which is visible in the winter in the northern hemisphere, can’t be seen there in the summer because the daytime side of Earth is facing it.

Figure 2 The Big Dipper, in red, is part of the constellation Ursa Major. It is visible year-round in the northern hemisphere. Constellations close to Polaris rotate around Polaris, which is almost directly over the north pole.

Observing Star Patterns

Procedure
1. On a clear night, go outside after dark and study the stars. Take an adult with you.
2. Let your imagination flow to find patterns of stars that look like something familiar.
3. Draw the stars you see, note their positions, and include a drawing of what you think each star pattern resembles.

Analysis
1. Which of your constellations match those observed by your classmates?
2. How can recognizing star patterns be useful?
Absolute and Apparent Magnitudes

When you look at constellations, you’ll notice that some stars are brighter than others. For example, Sirius looks much brighter than Rigel. Is Sirius a brighter star, or is it just closer to Earth, making it appear to be brighter? As it turns out, Sirius is 100 times closer to Earth than Rigel is. If Sirius and Rigel were the same distance from Earth, Rigel would appear much brighter in the night sky than Sirius would.

When you refer to the brightness of a star, you can refer to its absolute magnitude or its apparent magnitude. The **absolute magnitude** of a star is a measure of the amount of light it gives off. A measure of the amount of light received on Earth is the **apparent magnitude**. A star that’s dim can appear bright in the sky if it’s close to Earth, and a star that’s bright can appear dim if it’s far away. If two stars are the same distance away, what might cause one of them to be brighter than the other?

What is the difference between absolute and apparent magnitude?

Are distance and brightness related?

The apparent magnitude of a star is affected by its distance from Earth. This activity will help you determine the relationship between distance and brightness.

### Identifying the Problem

Luisa conducted an experiment to determine the relationship between distance and the brightness of stars. She used a meterstick, a light meter, and a lightbulb. She placed the bulb at the zero end of the meterstick, then placed the light meter at the 20-cm mark and recorded the distance and the light-meter reading in her data table. Readings are in luxes, which are units for measuring light intensity. Luisa then increased the distance from the bulb to the light meter and took more readings. By examining the data in the table, can you see a relationship between the two variables?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance (cm)</th>
<th>Meter Reading (luxes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>4150.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1037.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>461.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>259.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Solving the Problem

1. What happened to the amount of light recorded when the distance was increased from 20 cm to 40 cm? When the distance was increased from 20 cm to 60 cm?
2. What does this indicate about the relationship between light intensity and distance? What would the light intensity be at 100 cm? Would making a graph help you visualize the relationship?
Measurement in Space

How do scientists determine the distance from Earth to nearby stars? One way is to measure parallax—the apparent shift in the position of an object when viewed from two different positions. Extend your arm and look at your thumb first with your left eye closed and then with your right eye closed, as the girl in Figure 3A is doing. Your thumb appears to change position with respect to the background. Now do the same experiment with your thumb closer to your face, as shown in Figure 3B. What do you observe? The nearer an object is to the observer, the greater its parallax is.

Astronomers can measure the parallax of relatively close stars to determine their distances from Earth. Figure 4 shows how a close star’s position appears to change. Knowing the angle that the star’s position changes and the size of Earth’s orbit, astronomers can calculate the distance of the star from Earth.

Because space is so vast, a special unit of measure is needed to record distances. Distances between stars and galaxies are measured in light-years. A light-year is the distance that light travels in one year. Light travels at 300,000 km/s, or about 9.5 trillion km in one year. The nearest star to Earth, other than the Sun, is Proxima Centauri. Proxima Centauri is a mere 4.3 light-years away, or about 40 trillion km.

Figure 3  A Your thumb appears to move less against the background when it is farther away from your eyes. B It appears to move more when it is closer to your eyes.

Figure 4  Parallax is determined by observing the same star when Earth is at two different points in its orbit around the Sun. The star’s position relative to more distant background stars will appear to change. Infer whether star A or B is farther from Earth.
Properties of Stars

The color of a star indicates its temperature. For example, hot stars are a blue-white color. A relatively cool star looks orange or red. Stars that have the same temperature as the Sun have a yellow color.

Astronomers study the composition of stars by observing their spectra. When fitted into a telescope, a spectroscope acts like a prism. It spreads light out in the rainbow band called a spectrum. When light from a star passes through a spectroscope, it breaks into its component colors. Look at the spectrum of a star in Figure 5. Notice the dark lines caused by elements in the star’s atmosphere. Light radiated from a star passes through the star’s atmosphere. As it does, elements in the atmosphere absorb some of this light. The wavelengths of visible light that are absorbed appear as dark lines in the spectrum. Each element absorbs certain wavelengths, producing a unique pattern of dark lines. Like a fingerprint, the patterns of lines can be used to identify the elements in a star’s atmosphere.

Figure 5  This star spectrum was made by placing a diffraction grating over a telescope’s objective lens. A diffraction grating produces a spectrum by causing interference of light waves. Explain what causes the lines in spectra.
The Sun’s Layers

The Sun is an ordinary star, but it’s important to you. The Sun is the center of the solar system, and the closest star to Earth. Almost all of the life on Earth depends on energy from the Sun.

Notice the different layers of the Sun, shown in Figure 6, as you read about them. Like other stars, the Sun is an enormous ball of gas that produces energy by fusing hydrogen into helium in its core. This energy travels outward through the radiation zone and the convection zone. In the convection zone, gases circulate in giant swirls. Finally, energy passes into the Sun’s atmosphere.

The Sun’s Atmosphere

The lowest layer of the Sun’s atmosphere and the layer from which light is given off is the photosphere. The photosphere often is called the surface of the Sun, although the surface is not a smooth feature. Temperatures there are about 6,000 K. Above the photosphere is the chromosphere. This layer extends upward about 2,000 km above the photosphere. A transition zone occurs between 2,000 km and 10,000 km above the photosphere. Above the transition zone is the corona. This is the largest layer of the Sun’s atmosphere and extends millions of kilometers into space. Temperatures in the corona are as high as 2 million K. Charged particles continually escape from the corona and move through space as solar wind.

Figure 6  Energy produced in the Sun’s core by fusion travels outward by radiation and convection. The Sun’s atmosphere shines by the energy produced in the core.
Surface Features

From the viewpoint that you observe the Sun, its surface appears to be a smooth layer. But the Sun’s surface has many features, including sunspots, prominences, flares, and CMEs.

Sunspots  Areas of the Sun’s surface that appear dark because they are cooler than surrounding areas are called sunspots. Ever since Galileo Galilei made drawings of sunspots, scientists have been studying them. Because scientists could observe the movement of individual sunspots, shown in Figure 7, they concluded that the Sun rotates. However, the Sun doesn’t rotate as a solid body, as Earth does. It rotates faster at its equator than at its poles. Sunspots at the equator take about 25 days to complete one rotation. Near the poles, they take about 35 days.

Sunspots aren’t permanent features on the Sun. They appear and disappear over a period of several days, weeks, or months. The number of sunspots increases and decreases in a fairly regular pattern called the sunspot, or solar activity, cycle. Times when many large sunspots occur are called sunspot maximums. Sunspot maximums occur about every 10 to 11 years. Periods of sunspot minimum occur in between.

Prominences and Flares  Sunspots are related to several features on the Sun’s surface. The intense magnetic fields associated with sunspots might cause prominences, which are huge, arching columns of gas. Notice the huge prominence in Figure 8. Some prominences blast material from the Sun into space at speeds ranging from 600 km/s to more than 1,000 km/s.

Gases near a sunspot sometimes brighten suddenly, shooting outward at high speed. These violent eruptions are called solar flares. You can see a solar flare in Figure 8.
CMEs Coronal mass ejections (CMEs) occur when large amounts of electrically-charged gas are ejected suddenly from the Sun’s corona. CMEs can occur as often as two or three times each day during a sunspot maximum.

CMEs present little danger to life on Earth, but they do have some effects. CMEs can damage satellites in orbit around Earth. They also can interfere with radio and power distribution equipment. CMEs often cause auroras. High-energy particles contained in CMEs and the solar wind are carried past Earth’s magnetic field. This generates electric currents that flow toward Earth’s poles. These electric currents ionize gases in Earth’s atmosphere. When these ions recombine with electrons, they produce the light of an aurora, shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8 Features such as solar prominences and solar flares can reach hundreds of thousands of kilometers into space. CMEs are generated as magnetic fields above sunspot groups rearrange. CMEs can trigger events that produce auroras.
The Sun—An Average Star

The Sun is an average star. It is middle-aged, and its absolute magnitude is about average. It shines with a yellow light. Although the Sun is an average star, it is much closer to Earth than other stars. Light from the Sun reaches Earth in about eight minutes. Light from other stars takes from many years to many millions of years to reach Earth.

The Sun is unusual in one way. It is not close to any other stars. Most stars are part of a system in which two or more stars orbit each other. When two stars orbit each other, it is called a binary system. When three stars orbit each other, it is called a triple star system. The closest star system to the Sun—the Alpha Centauri system, including Proxima Centauri—is a triple star.

Stars also can move through space as a cluster. In a star cluster, many stars are relatively close, so the gravitational attraction among the stars is strong. Most star clusters are far from the solar system. They sometimes appear as a fuzzy patch in the night sky. The double cluster in the northern part of the constellation Perseus is shown in Figure 9. On a dark night in autumn, you can see the double cluster with binoculars, but you can’t see its individual stars. The Pleiades star cluster can be seen in the constellation of Taurus in the winter sky. On a clear, dark night, you might be able to see seven of the stars in this cluster.

Figure 9 Most stars originally formed in large clusters containing hundreds, or even thousands, of stars.

**Draw and label a sketch of the double cluster.**

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**Summary**

**The Sun’s Layers**
- The Sun’s interior has layers that include the core, radiation zone, and convection zone.

**The Sun’s Atmosphere**
- The Sun’s atmosphere includes the photosphere, chromosphere, and corona.

**Surface Features**
- The number of sunspots on the Sun varies in a 10- to 11-year cycle.
- Auroras occur when charged particles from the Sun interact with Earth’s magnetic field.

**The Sun—An Average Star**
- The Sun is an average star, but it is much closer to Earth than any other star.

---

**Self Check**

1. Explain why the Sun is important for life on Earth.
2. Describe the sunspot cycle.
3. Explain why sunspots appear dark.
4. Explain why the Sun, which is an average star, appears so much brighter from Earth than other stars do.
5. Think Critically When a CME occurs on the Sun, it takes a couple of days for effects to be noticed on Earth. Explain.
6. Communicate Make a sketch that shows the Sun’s layers in your Science Journal. Write a short description of each layer.
Sunspots can be observed moving across the face of the Sun as it rotates. Measure the movement of sunspots, and use your data to determine the Sun’s period of rotation.

**Real-World Question**
Can sunspot motion be used to determine the Sun’s period of rotation?

**Goals**
- **Observe** sunspots and estimate their size.
- **Estimate** the rate at which sunspots move across the face of the Sun.

**Materials**
- several books
- clipboard
- piece of cardboard
- small tripod
- drawing paper
- scissors
- refracting telescope

**Safety Precautions**
WARNING: Handle scissors with care.

**Procedure**
1. Find a location where the Sun can be viewed at the same time of day for a minimum of five days. **WARNING:** Do not look directly at the Sun. Do not look through the telescope at the Sun. You could damage your eyes.
2. If the telescope has a small finder scope attached, remove it or keep it covered.
3. Set up the telescope with the eyepiece facing away from the Sun, as shown. Align the telescope so that the shadow it casts on the ground is the smallest size possible. Cut and attach the cardboard as shown in the photo.
4. Use books to prop the clipboard upright. Point the eyepiece at the drawing paper.
5. Move the clipboard back and forth until you have the largest image of the Sun on the paper. Adjust the telescope to form a clear image. Trace the outline of the Sun on the paper.
6. Trace any sunspots that appear as dark areas on the Sun’s image. Repeat this step at the same time each day for a week.
7. Using the Sun’s diameter (approximately 1,390,000 km), estimate the size of the largest sunspots that you observed.
8. **Calculate** how many kilometers the sunspots move each day.
9. **Predict** how many days it will take for the same group of sunspots to return to the same position in which they appeared on day 1.

**Conclude and Apply**
1. What was the estimated size and rate of motion of the largest sunspots?
2. **Infer** how sunspots can be used to determine that the Sun’s surface is not solid like Earth’s surface.

**Communicating Your Data**
Compare your conclusions with those of other students in your class. For more help, refer to the Science Skill Handbook.
Evolution of Stars

Classifying Stars

When you look at the night sky, all stars might appear to be similar, but they are quite different. Like people, they vary in age and size, but stars also vary in temperature and brightness.

In the early 1900s, Ejnar Hertzsprung and Henry Russell made some important observations. They noticed that, in general, stars with higher temperatures also have brighter absolute magnitudes.

Hertzsprung and Russell developed a graph, shown in Figure 10, to show this relationship. They placed temperatures across the bottom and absolute magnitudes up one side. A graph that shows the relationship of a star’s temperature to its absolute magnitude is called a Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) diagram.

The Main Sequence As you can see, stars seem to fit into specific areas of the graph. Most stars fit into a diagonal band that runs from the upper left to the lower right of the graph. This band, called the main sequence, contains hot, blue, bright stars in the upper left and cool, red, dim stars in the lower right. Yellow main sequence stars, like the Sun, fall in between.

Figure 10 The relationships among a star’s color, temperature, and brightness are shown in this H-R diagram. Stars in the upper left are hot, bright stars, and stars in the lower right are cool, dim stars. Classify Which type of star shown in the diagram is the hottest, dimmest star?
**Dwarfs and Giants** About 90 percent of all stars are main sequence stars. Most of these are small, red stars found in the lower right of the H-R diagram. Among main sequence stars, the hottest stars generate the most light and the coolest ones generate the least. What about the ten percent of stars that are not part of the main sequence? Some of these stars are hot but not bright. These small stars are located on the lower left of the H-R diagram and are called white dwarfs. Other stars are extremely bright but not hot. These large stars on the upper right of the H-R diagram are called giants, or red giants, because they are usually red in color. The largest giants are called supergiants. **Figure 11** shows the supergiant, Antares—a star 300 times the Sun’s diameter—in the constellation Scorpius. It is more than 11,000 times as bright as the Sun.

![Reading Check](image)

**What kinds of stars are on the main sequence?**

**How do stars shine?**

For centuries, people were puzzled by the questions of what stars were made of and how they produced light. Many people had estimated that Earth was only a few thousand years old. The Sun could have been made of coal and shined for that long. However, when people realized that Earth was much older, they wondered what material possibly could burn for so many years. Early in the twentieth century, scientists began to understand the process that keeps stars shining for billions of years.

**Generating Energy** In the 1930s, scientists discovered reactions between the nuclei of atoms. They hypothesized that temperatures in the center of the Sun must be high enough to cause hydrogen to fuse to make helium. This reaction releases tremendous amounts of energy. Much of this energy is emitted as different wavelengths of light, including visible, infrared, and ultraviolet light. Only a tiny fraction of this light comes to Earth. During the fusion reaction, four hydrogen nuclei combine to create one helium nucleus. The mass of one helium nucleus is less than the mass of four hydrogen nuclei, so some mass is lost in the reaction.

Years earlier, in 1905, Albert Einstein had proposed a theory stating that mass can be converted into energy. This was stated as the famous equation $E = mc^2$. In this equation, $E$ is the energy produced, $m$ is the mass, and $c$ is the speed of light. The small amount of mass “lost” when hydrogen atoms fuse to form a helium atom is converted to a large amount of energy.
Fusion Shown in Figure 12, fusion occurs in the cores of stars. Only in the core are temperatures high enough to cause atoms to fuse. Normally, they would repel each other, but in the core of a star where temperatures can exceed 15,000,000 K, atoms can move so fast that some of them fuse upon colliding.

Evolution of Stars The H-R diagram explained a lot about stars. However, it also led to more questions. Many wondered why some stars didn’t fit in the main sequence group and what happened when a star depleted its supply of hydrogen fuel. Today, scientists have theories about how stars evolve, what makes them different from one another, and what happens when they die. Figure 13 illustrates the lives of different types of stars.

When hydrogen fuel is depleted, a star loses its main sequence status. This can take less than 1 million years for the brightest stars to many billions of years for the dimmest stars. The Sun has a main sequence life span of about 10 billion years. Half of its life span is still in the future.

Nebula Stars begin as a large cloud of gas and dust called a nebula. As the particles of gas and dust exert a gravitational force on each other, the nebula begins to contract. Gravitational forces cause instability within the nebula. The nebula can break apart into smaller and smaller pieces. Each piece eventually might collapse to form a star.
**A Star Is Born** As the particles in the smaller pieces of nebula move closer together, the temperatures in each nebula piece increase. When the temperature inside the core of a nebula piece reaches 10 million K, fusion begins. The energy released radiates outward through the condensing ball of gas. As the energy radiates into space, stars are born.

**How are stars born?**

**Main Sequence to Giant Stars** In the newly formed star, the heat from fusion causes pressure to increase. This pressure balances the attraction due to gravity. The star becomes a main sequence star. It continues to use its hydrogen fuel.

When hydrogen in the core of the star is depleted, a balance no longer exists between pressure and gravity. The core contracts, and temperatures inside the star increase. This causes the outer layers of the star to expand and cool. In this late stage of its life cycle, a star is called a **giant**.

After the core temperature reaches 100 million K, helium nuclei fuse to form carbon in the giant’s core. By this time, the star has expanded to an enormous size, and its outer layers are much cooler than they were when it was a main sequence star. In about 5 billion years, the Sun will become a giant.

**White Dwarfs** After the star’s core uses much of its helium, it contracts even more and its outer layers escape into space. This leaves behind the hot, dense core. At this stage in a star’s evolution, it becomes a **white dwarf**. A white dwarf is about the size of Earth. Eventually, the white dwarf will cool and stop giving off light.

**Figure 13** The life of a star depends on its mass. Massive stars eventually become neutron stars or black holes. **Explain** what happens to stars that are the size of the Sun.
**Supergiants and Supernovas** In stars that are more than about eight times more massive than the Sun, the stages of evolution occur more quickly and more violently. Look back at Figure 13. In massive stars, the core heats up to much higher temperatures. Heavier and heavier elements form by fusion, and the star expands into a supergiant. Eventually, iron forms in the core. Because of iron’s atomic structure, it cannot release energy through fusion. The core collapses violently, and a shock wave travels outward through the star. The outer portion of the star explodes, producing a supernova. A supernova can be millions of times brighter than the original star was.

**Neutron Stars** If the collapsed core of a supernova is between about 1.4 and 3 times as massive as the Sun, it will shrink to approximately 20 km in diameter. Only neutrons can exist in the dense core, and it becomes a neutron star. Neutron stars are so dense that a teaspoonful would weigh more than 600 million metric tons in Earth’s gravity. As dense as neutron stars are, they can contract only so far because the neutrons resist the inward pull of gravity.

**Black Holes** If the remaining dense core from a supernova is more than about three times more massive than the Sun, probably nothing can stop the core’s collapse. Under these conditions, all of the core’s mass collapses to a point. The gravity near this mass is so strong that nothing can escape from it, not even light. Because light cannot escape, the region is called a black hole. If you could shine a flashlight on a black hole, the light simply would disappear into it.

**What is a black hole?**

Black holes, however, are not like giant vacuum cleaners, sucking in distant objects. A black hole has an event horizon, which is a region inside of which nothing can escape. If something—including light—crosses the event horizon, it will be pulled into the black hole. Beyond the event horizon, the black hole’s gravity pulls on objects just as it would if the mass had not collapsed. Stars and planets can orbit around a black hole.

The photograph in Figure 14 was taken by the Hubble Space Telescope. It shows a jet of gas streaming out of the center of galaxy M87. This jet of gas formed as matter flowed toward a black hole, and some of the gas was ejected along the polar axis.
Recycling Matter  A star begins its life as a nebula, such as the one shown in Figure 15. Where does the matter in a nebula come from? Nebulas form partly from the matter that was once in other stars. A star ejects enormous amounts of matter during its lifetime. Some of this matter is incorporated into nebulas, which can evolve to form new stars. The matter in stars is recycled many times.

What about the matter created in the cores of stars and during supernova explosions? Are elements such as carbon and iron also recycled? These elements can become parts of new stars. In fact, spectrographs have shown that the Sun contains some carbon, iron, and other heavier elements. Because the Sun is an average, main sequence star, it is too young and its mass is too small to have formed these elements itself. The Sun condensed from material that was created in stars that died many billions of years ago.

Some elements condense to form planets and other bodies rather than stars. In fact, your body contains many atoms that were fused in the cores of ancient stars. Evidence suggests that the first stars formed from hydrogen and helium and that all the other elements have formed in the cores of stars or as stars explode.

Figure 15  Stars are forming in the Orion Nebula and other similar nebulae.

Describe a star-forming nebula.

Summary

Classifying Stars
- Most stars plot on the main sequence of an H-R diagram.
- As stars near the end of their lives, they move off of the main sequence.

How do stars shine?
- Stars shine because of a process called fusion.
- During fusion, nuclei of a lighter element merge to form a heavier element.

Evolution of Stars
- Stars form in regions of gas and dust called nebulae.
- Stars evolve differently depending on how massive they are.

Self Check
1. Explain how the Sun is different from other stars on the main sequence. How is it different from a giant star? How is it different from a white dwarf?
2. Describe how stars release energy.
3. Outline the past and probable future of the Sun.
4. Define a black hole.
5. Think Critically  How can white dwarf stars be both hot and dim?

Applying Math
6. Convert Units  A neutron star has a diameter of 20 km. One kilometer equals 0.62 miles. What is the neutron star’s diameter in miles?
Galaxies

If you enjoy science fiction, you might have read about explorers traveling through the galaxy. On their way, they visit planets around other stars and encounter strange alien beings. Although this type of space exploration is futuristic, it is possible to explore galaxies today. Using a variety of telescopes, much is being learned about the Milky Way and other galaxies.

A galaxy is a large group of stars, gas, and dust held together by gravity. Earth and the solar system are in a galaxy called the Milky Way. It might contain as many as one trillion stars. Countless other galaxies also exist. Each of these galaxies contains the same elements, forces, and types of energy that occur in Earth’s solar system. Galaxies are separated by huge distances—often millions of light-years.

In the same way that stars are grouped together within galaxies, galaxies are grouped into clusters. The cluster that the Milky Way belongs to is called the Local Group. It contains about 45 galaxies of various sizes and types. The three major types of galaxies are spiral, elliptical, and irregular.

Spiral Galaxies  Spiral galaxies are galaxies that have spiral arms that wind outward from the center. The arms consist of bright stars, dust, and gas. The Milky Way Galaxy, shown in Figure 16, is a spiral galaxy. The Sun and the rest of the solar system are located near the outer edge of the Milky Way Galaxy.

Spiral galaxies can be normal or barred. Arms in a normal spiral start close to the center of the galaxy. Barred spirals have spiral arms extending from a large bar of stars and gas that passes through the center of the galaxy.

Figure 16  This illustration shows a side view and an overhead view of the Milky Way.
Describe where the Sun is in the Milky Way.
Elliptical Galaxies  A common type of galaxy is the elliptical galaxy. Figure 17 shows an elliptical galaxy in the constellation Andromeda. These galaxies are shaped like large, three-dimensional ellipses. Many are football shaped, but others are round. Some elliptical galaxies are small, while others are so large that several galaxies the size of the Milky Way would fit inside one of them.

Irregular Galaxies  The third type—an irregular galaxy—includes most of those galaxies that don’t fit into the other categories. Irregular galaxies have many different shapes. They are smaller than the other types of galaxies. Two irregular galaxies called the Clouds of Magellan orbit the Milky Way. The Large Magellanic Cloud is shown in Figure 18.

The Milky Way Galaxy

The Milky Way might contain one trillion stars. The visible disk of stars shown in Figure 16 is about 100,000 light-years across. Find the location of the Sun. Notice that it is located about 26,000 light-years from the galaxy’s center in one of the spiral arms. In the galaxy, all stars orbit around a central region, or core. It takes about 225 million years for the Sun to orbit the center of the Milky Way.

The Milky Way often is classified as a normal spiral galaxy. However, recent evidence suggests that it might be a barred spiral. It is difficult to know for sure because astronomers have limited data about how the galaxy looks from the outside.

You can’t see the shape of the Milky Way because you are located within one of its spiral arms. You can, however, see the Milky Way stretching across the sky as a misty band of faint light. You can see the brightest part of the Milky Way if you look low in the southern sky on a moonless summer night. All the stars you can see in the night sky belong to the Milky Way.

Like many other galaxies, the Milky Way has a supermassive black hole at its center. This black hole might be more than 2.5 million times as massive as the Sun. Evidence for the existence of the black hole comes from observing the orbit of a star near the galaxy’s center. Additional evidence includes X-ray emissions detected by the Chandra X-ray Observatory. X rays are produced when matter spirals into a black hole.
Origin of the Universe

People long have wondered how the universe formed. Several models of its origin have been proposed. One model is the steady state theory. It suggests that the universe always has been the same as it is now. The universe always existed and always will. As the universe expands, new matter is created to keep the overall density of the universe the same or in a steady state. However, evidence indicates that the universe was much different in the past.

A second idea is called the oscillating model. In this model, the universe began with expansion. Over time, the expansion slowed and the universe contracted. Then the process began again, oscillating back and forth. Some scientists still hypothesize that the universe expands and contracts in a cycle.

A third model of how the universe formed is called the big bang theory. The universe started with a big bang and has been expanding ever since. This theory will be described later.

Expansion of the Universe

What does it sound like when a train is blowing its whistle while it travels past you? The whistle has a higher pitch as the train approaches you. Then the whistle seems to drop in pitch as the train moves away. This effect is called the Doppler shift. The Doppler shift occurs with light as well as with sound. Figure 19 shows how the Doppler shift causes changes in the light coming from distant stars and galaxies. If a star is moving toward Earth, its wavelengths of light are compressed. If a star is moving away from Earth, its wavelengths of light are stretched.

**Figure 19** The Doppler shift causes the wavelengths of light coming from stars and galaxies to be compressed or stretched.
**The Doppler Shift** Look at the spectrum of a star in Figure 20A. Note the position of the dark lines. How do they compare with the lines in Figures 20B and 20C? They have shifted in position. What caused this shift? As you just read, when a star is moving toward Earth, its wavelengths of light are compressed, just as the sound waves from the train’s whistle are. This causes the dark lines in the spectrum to shift toward the blue-violet end of the spectrum. A red shift in the spectrum occurs when a star is moving away from Earth. In a red shift, the dark lines shift toward the red end of the spectrum.

**Red Shift** In 1929, Edwin Hubble published an interesting fact about the light coming from most galaxies. When a spectrograph is used to study light from galaxies beyond the Local Group, a red shift occurs in the light. What does this red shift tell you about the universe?

Because all galaxies beyond the Local Group show a red shift in their spectra, they must be moving away from Earth. If all galaxies outside the Local Group are moving away from Earth, then the entire universe must be expanding. Remember the Launch Lab at the beginning of the chapter? The dots on the balloon moved apart as the model universe expanded. Regardless of which dot you picked, all the other dots moved away from it. In a similar way, galaxies beyond the Local Group are moving away from Earth.
The big bang theory states that the universe probably began about 13.7 billion years ago with an enormous explosion. Even today, galaxies are rushing apart from this explosion.

Within fractions of a second of the initial explosion, the universe grew from the size of a pinhead to 2,000 times the size of the Sun.

By the time the universe was one second old, it was a dense, opaque, swirling mass of elementary particles.

Matter began collecting in clumps. As matter cooled, hydrogen and helium gases formed.

More than a billion years after the initial explosion, the first stars were born.
The Big Bang Theory

When scientists determined that the universe was expanding, they developed a theory to explain their observations. The leading theory about the formation of the universe is called the big bang theory. Figure 21 illustrates the big bang theory. According to this theory, approximately 13.7 billion years ago, the universe began with an enormous explosion. The entire universe began to expand everywhere at the same time.

Looking Back in Time The time-exposure photograph shown in Figure 22 was taken by the Hubble Space Telescope. It shows more than 1,500 galaxies at distances of more than 10 billion light-years. These galaxies could date back to when the universe was no more than 1 billion years old. The galaxies are in various stages of development. One astronomer says that humans might be looking back to a time when the Milky Way was forming.

Whether the universe will expand forever or stop expanding is still unknown. If enough matter exists, gravity might halt the expansion, and the universe will contract until everything comes to a single point. However, studies of distant supernovae indicate that an energy, called dark energy, is causing the universe to expand faster. Scientists are trying to understand how dark energy might affect the fate of the universe.

Figure 22 The light from the galaxies in this photo mosaic took billions of years to reach Earth.

Summary

Galaxies
- The three main types of galaxies are spiral, elliptical, and irregular.

The Milky Way Galaxy
- The Milky Way is a spiral galaxy and the Sun is about 26,000 light-years from its center.

Origin of the Universe
- Theories about how the universe formed include the steady state theory, the oscillating universe theory, and the big bang theory.

The Big Bang Theory
- This theory states that the universe began with an explosion about 13.7 billion years ago.

Self Check
1. Describe elliptical galaxies. How are they different from spiral galaxies?
2. Identify the galaxy that you live in.
3. Explain the Doppler shift.
4. Explain how all galaxies are similar.
5. Think Critically All galaxies outside the Local Group show a red shift. Within the Local Group, some show a red shift and some show a blue shift. What does this tell you about the galaxies in the Local Group?
6. Compare and contrast the theories about the origin of the universe.

ScienceOnline earth.msscience.com/self_check_quiz
Design Your Own

Measuring Parallax

Real-World Question
Parallax is the apparent shift in the position of an object when viewed from two locations. How can you build a model to show the relationship between distance and parallax?

Form a Hypothesis
State a hypothesis about how parallax varies with distance.

Test Your Hypothesis

Make a Plan
1. As a group, agree upon and write your hypothesis statement.
2. List the steps you need to take to build your model. Be specific, describing exactly what you will do at each step.
3. Devise a method to test how distance from an observer to an object, such as a pencil, affects the parallax of the object.
4. List the steps you will take to test your hypothesis. Be specific, describing exactly what you will do at each step.
5. Read over your plan for the model to be used in this experiment.
6. How will you determine changes in observed parallax? Remember, these changes should occur when the distance from the observer to the object is changed.

7. You should measure shifts in parallax from several different positions. How will these positions differ?

8. How will you measure distances accurately and compare relative position shift?

Follow Your Plan
1. Make sure your teacher approves your plan before you start.
2. Construct the model your team has planned.
3. Carry out the experiment as planned.
4. While conducting the experiment, record any observations that you or other members of your group make in your Science Journal.

Analyze Your Data
1. Compare what happened to the object when it was viewed with one eye closed, then the other.
2. At what distance from the observer did the object appear to shift the most?
3. At what distance did it appear to shift the least?

Conclude and Apply
1. Infer what happened to the apparent shift of the object’s location as the distance from the observer was increased or decreased.
2. Describe how astronomers might use parallax to study stars.

Prepare a chart showing the results of your experiment. Share the chart with members of your class. For more help, refer to the Science Skill Handbook.
Stars and Galaxies

Did you know...

... A star in Earth’s galaxy explodes as a supernova about once a century. The most famous supernova of this galaxy occurred in 1054 and was recorded by the ancient Chinese and Koreans. The explosion was so powerful that it could be seen during the day, and its brightness lasted for weeks. Other major supernovas in the Milky Way that were observed from Earth occurred in 185, 386, 1006, 1181, 1572, and 1604.

... The large loops of material called solar prominences can extend more than 320,000 km above the Sun’s surface. This is so high that two Jupiters and three Earths could fit under the arch.

... The red giant star Betelgeuse has a diameter larger than that of Earth’s Sun. This gigantic star measures 450,520,000 km in diameter, while the Sun’s diameter is a mere 1,390,176 km.

**Write About It**

Visit earth.msscience.com/science_stats to learn whether it might be possible for Earth astronauts to travel to the nearest stars. How long would such a trip take? What problems would have to be overcome? Write a brief report about what you find.
Copy and complete the following concept map that shows the evolution of a main sequence star with a mass similar to that of the Sun.
Using Vocabulary

- absolute magnitude p.726
- apparent magnitude p.726
- big bang theory p.745
- black hole p.738
- chromosphere p.729
- constellation p.724
- corona p.729
- galaxy p.740
- giant p.737
- light-year p.727
- nebula p.736
- neutron star p.738
- photosphere p.729
- sunspot p.730
- supergiant p.738
- white dwarf p.737

Explain the difference between the terms in each of the following sets.

1. absolute magnitude—apparent magnitude
2. galaxy—constellation
3. giant—supergiant
4. chromosphere—photosphere
5. black hole—neutron star

Checking Concepts

Choose the word or phrase that best answers the question.

6. What is a measure of the amount of a star’s light that is received on Earth?
   A) absolute magnitude
   B) apparent magnitude
   C) fusion
   D) parallax

7. What is higher for closer stars?
   A) absolute magnitude
   B) red shift
   C) parallax
   D) blue shift

8. What happens after a nebula contracts and its temperature increases to 10 million K?
   A) a black hole forms
   B) a supernova occurs
   C) fusion begins
   D) a white dwarf forms

9. Which of these has an event horizon?
   A) giant
   B) white dwarf
   C) black hole
   D) neutron star

10. What forms when the Sun fuses hydrogen?
    A) carbon
    B) oxygen
    C) iron
    D) helium

Use the illustration below to answer question 11.

11. Which of the following best describes giant stars?
    A) hot, dim stars
    B) cool, dim stars
    C) hot, bright stars
    D) cool, bright stars

12. Which of the following are loops of matter flowing from the Sun?
    A) sunspots
    B) auroras
    C) coronas
    D) prominences

13. What are groups of galaxies called?
    A) clusters
    B) supergiants
    C) giants
    D) binary systems

14. Which galaxies are sometimes shaped like footballs?
    A) spiral
    B) elliptical
    C) barred
    D) irregular

15. What do scientists study to determine shifts in wavelengths of light?
    A) spectrum
    B) parallax
    C) corona
    D) nebula
16. Interpret Data  Use the table above to answer the following questions. *Hint: lower magnitude values are brighter than higher magnitude values.*

a. Which star appears brightest from Earth?
b. Which star would appear brightest from a distance of 10 light-years?
c. Infer which star in the table above is the Sun.

17. Infer  How do scientists know that black holes exist if these objects don’t emit visible light?

18. Recognize Cause and Effect  Why can parallax only be used to measure distances to stars that are relatively close to Earth?

19. Compare and contrast  the Sun with other stars on the H-R diagram.

20. Concept Map  Make a concept map showing the life history of a very large star.

21. Make Models  Make a model of the Sun. Include all of the Sun’s layers in your model.

22. Story  Write a short science-fiction story about an astronaut traveling through the universe. In your story, describe what the astronaut observes. Use as many vocabulary words as you can.

23. Photomontage  Gather photographs of the aurora borealis from magazines and other sources. Use the photographs to create a photomontage. Write a caption for each photo.

24. Travel to Vega  Vega is a star that is 26 light-years away. If a spaceship could travel at one-tenth the speed of light, how long would it take to reach this star?

25. Constellation Cepheus  The illustration above shows the constellation Cepheus. Answer the following questions about this constellation.

a. Which of the line segments are nearly parallel?
b. Which line segments are nearly perpendicular?
c. Which angles are oblique?
d. What geometric shape do the three stars at the left side of the drawing form?
Record your answers on the answer sheet provided by your teacher or on a sheet of paper.

Use the illustration below to answer question 1.

1. The illustration above shows the interior of which object?
   A. Earth
   B. Saturn
   C. the Sun
   D. the Moon

2. Which is a group of stars, gas, and dust held together by gravity?
   A. constellation
   B. supergiant
   C. black hole
   D. galaxy

3. The most massive stars end their lives as which type of object?
   A. black hole
   B. white dwarf
   C. neutron star
   D. black dwarf

4. In which galaxy does the Sun exist?
   A. Arp’s galaxy
   B. Barnard’s galaxy
   C. Milky Way galaxy
   D. Andromeda galaxy

5. Which is the closest star to Earth?
   A. Sirius
   B. the Sun
   C. Betelgeuse
   D. the Moon

6. In which of the following choices are the objects ordered from smallest to largest?
   A. stars, galaxies, galaxy clusters, universe
   B. galaxy clusters, galaxies, stars, universe
   C. universe, galaxy clusters, galaxies, stars
   D. universe, stars, galaxies, galaxy clusters

7. Which is the most abundant element in the Sun?
   A. hydrogen
   B. helium
   C. oxygen
   D. carbon

8. How will this circle graph change as the Sun ages?
   A. The hydrogen slice will get smaller.
   B. The hydrogen slice will get larger.
   C. The helium slice will get smaller.
   D. The circle graph will not change.

Test-Taking Tip

Process of Elimination If you don’t know the answer to a multiple-choice question, eliminate as many incorrect choices as possible. Mark your best guess from the remaining answers before moving on to the next question.
9. How can events on the Sun affect Earth? Give one example.

10. How does a red shift differ from a blue shift?

11. How do astronomers know that the universe is expanding?

12. What is the main sequence?

13. What is a constellation?

Use the illustration below to answer questions 14–16.

14. According to the illustration, how many light-years from Earth is Proxima Centauri?

15. How many years would it take for light from Proxima Centauri to get to Earth?

16. At this scale, how many centimeters would represent the distance to a star that is 100 light-years from Earth?

17. How can a star’s color provide information about its temperature?

18. Approximately how long does it take light from the Sun to reach Earth? In general, how does this compare to the amount of time it takes light from all other stars to reach Earth?

19. How does the size, temperature, age, and brightness of the Sun compare to other stars in the Milky Way Galaxy?

20. The graph above shows the brightness of a supernova that was observed from Earth in 1987. Describe how the brightness of this supernova changed through time. When was it brightest? What happened before May 20? What happened after May 20? How much did the brightness change?

21. Compare and contrast the different types of galaxies.

22. Write a detailed description of the Sun. What is it? What is it like?

23. Explain how parallax is used to measure the distance to nearby stars.

24. Why are some constellations visible all year? Why are other constellations only visible during certain seasons?

25. What are black holes? How do they form?

26. Explain the big bang theory.

27. What can be learned by studying the dark lines in a star’s spectrum?