



Pares físicos (estrellas dobles) en los que las estrellas se mueve en torno al centro de masa del sistema, de acuerdo con las leyes de Kepler

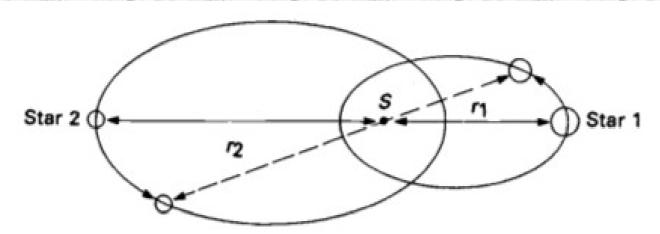


Fig. 9.1. In a binary system the two stars, Star 1 and Star 2 orbit their center of gravity, S.

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- → derivar masas y radios en forma directa
- → 50 85 % estrellas binarias



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→ 50 - 85 % estrellas binarias

Clasificación:

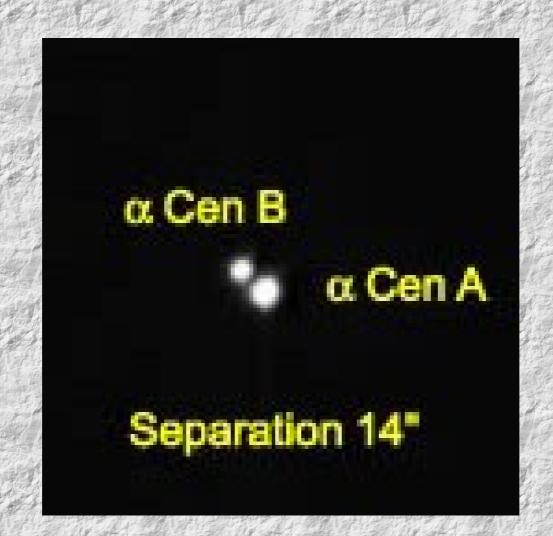
- Binarias visuales
- Binarias astrométricas
- Binarias fotométricas o eclipsantes
- Binarias espectroscópicas (uno/dos espectros visibles)

Falsas binarias "estrellas dobles"

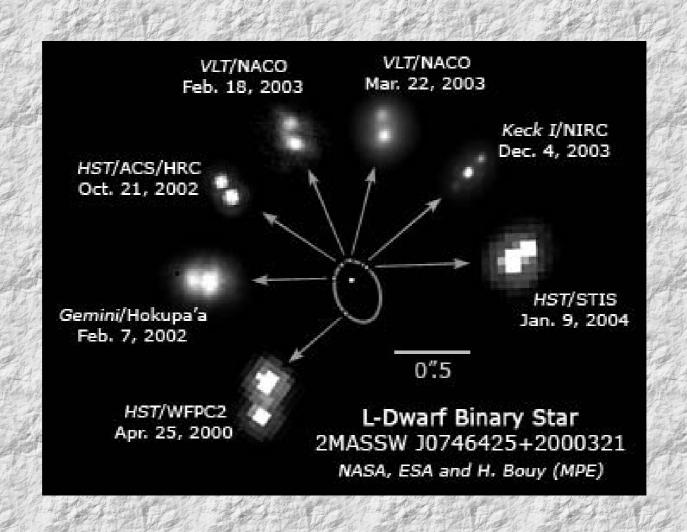
Mizar – Alcor (1650)



Se resuelven independientemente



Se resuelven independientemente



Binarias astrométricas

No es (era) posible observar ambas directamente

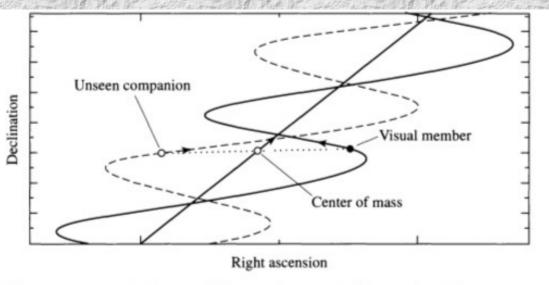
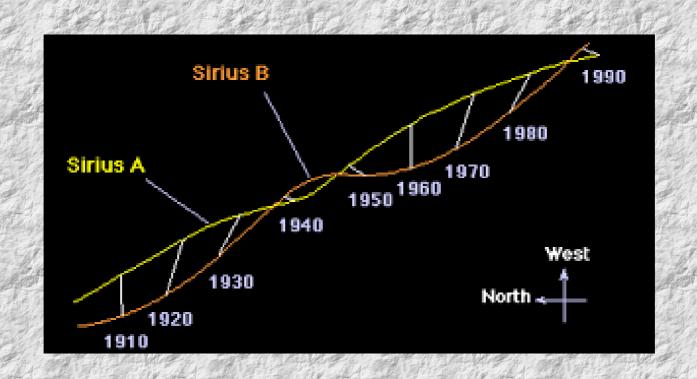


FIGURE 7.1 An astrometric binary, which contains one visible member. The unseen component is implied by the oscillatory motion of the observable star in the system. The proper motion of the entire system is reflected in the straight-line motion of the center of mass.

Binarias astrométricas

No es (era) posible observar ambas directamente



Variaciones regulares en la luz recibida

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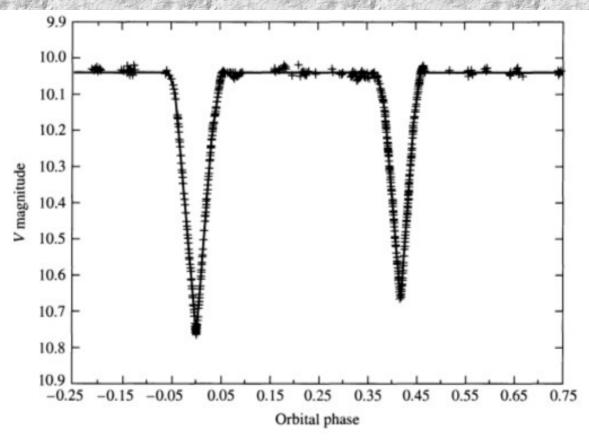


FIGURE 7.2 The V magnitude light curve of YY Sagittarii, an eclipsing binary star. The data from many orbital periods have been plotted on this light curve as a function of phase, where the phase is defined to be 0.0 at the primary minimum. This system has an orbital period P = 2.6284734 d, an eccentricity e = 0.1573, and orbital inclination $i = 88.89^{\circ}$ (see Section 7.2). (Figure adopted from Lacy, C. H. S., Astron. J., 105, 637, 1993.)

Variaciones regulares en la luz recibida

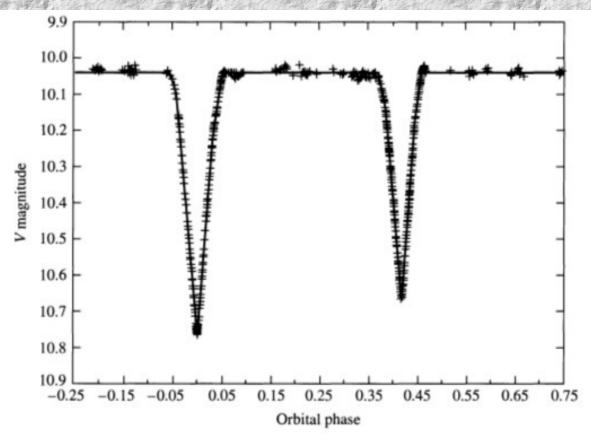
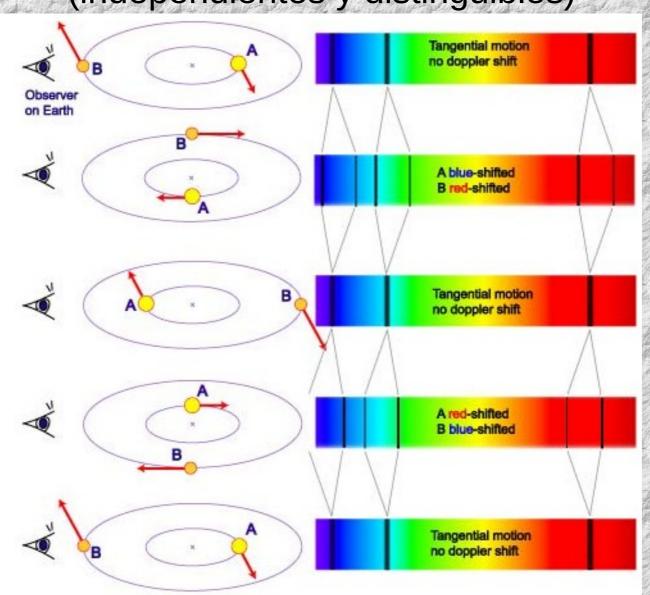


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Binarias espectroscópicas

Dos espectros superpuestos

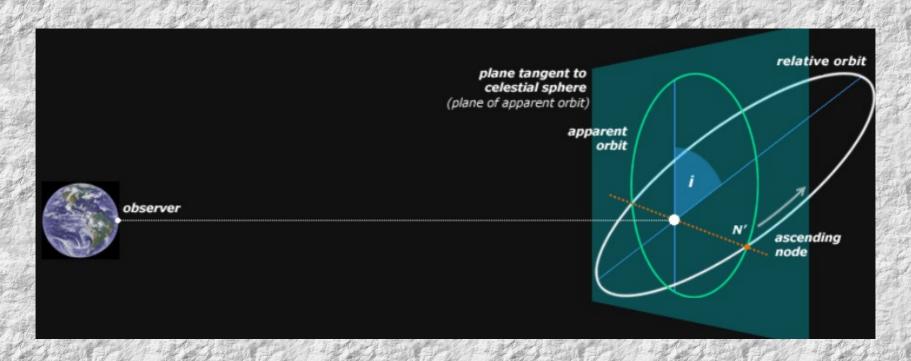
(independientes y distinguibles)



Sirius A

Sirius B





Binarias visuales Determinación de masas

To see how a visual binary can yield mass information, consider two stars in orbit about their mutual center of mass. Assuming that the orbital plane is perpendicular to the observer's line of sight, we see from the discussion of Section 2.3 that the ratio of masses may be found from the ratio of the angular separations of the stars from the center of mass. Using Eq. (2.19) and considering only the lengths of the vectors \mathbf{r}_1 and \mathbf{r}_2 , we find that

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{r_2}{r_1} = \frac{a_2}{a_1},\tag{7.1}$$

where a_1 and a_2 are the semimajor axes of the ellipses. If the distance from the observer to

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the binary star system is d, then the angles subtended by the semimajor axes are

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{a_1}{d}$$
 and $\alpha_2 = \frac{a_2}{d}$,

where α_1 and α_2 are measured in radians. Substituting, we find that the mass ratio simply becomes

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}. (7.2)$$

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(m_1 + m_2)}a^3,$$

gives the sum of the masses of the stars, provided that the semimajor axis (a) of the orbit of the reduced mass is known. Since $a = a_1 + a_2$ (the proof of this is left as an exercise), the semimajor axis can be determined directly only if the distance to the system has been determined. Assuming that d is known, $m_1 + m_2$ may be combined with m_1/m_2 to give each mass separately.

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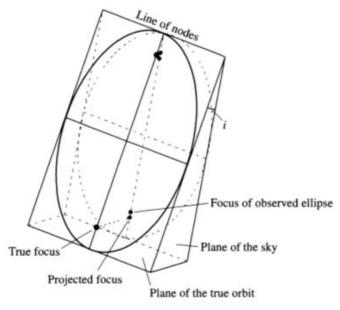


FIGURE 7.4 An elliptical orbit projected onto the plane of the sky produces an observable elliptical orbit. The foci of the original ellipse do not project onto the foci of the observed ellipse, however.

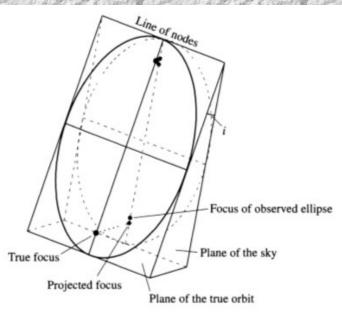


FIGURE 7.4 An elliptical orbit projected onto the plane of the sky produces an observable elliptical orbit. The foci of the original ellipse do not project onto the foci of the observed ellipse, however.

Let *i* be the **angle of inclination** between the plane of an orbit and the plane of the sky, as shown in Fig. 7.4; note that the orbits of both stars are necessarily in the same plane. As a special case, assume that the orbital plane and the plane of the sky (defined as being perpendicular to the line of sight) intersect along a line parallel to the minor axis, forming a **line of nodes**. The observer will not measure the actual angles subtended by the semimajor axes α_1 and α_2 but their projections onto the plane of the sky, $\tilde{\alpha}_1 = \alpha_1 \cos i$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_2 = \alpha_2 \cos i$. This geometrical effect plays no role in calculating the mass ratios since the cos *i* term will simply cancel in Eq. (7.2):

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1} = \frac{\alpha_2 \cos i}{\alpha_1 \cos i} = \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_2}{\tilde{\alpha}_1}.$$

However, this projection effect can make a significant difference when we are using Kepler's third law. Since $\alpha = a/d$ (α in radians), Kepler's third law may be solved for the sum of

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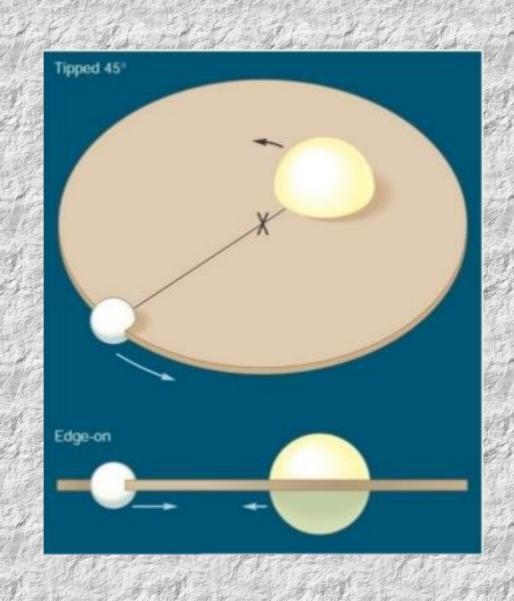
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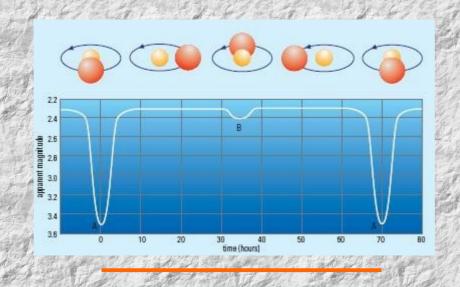
$$m_1 + m_2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G} \frac{(\alpha d)^3}{P^2} = \frac{4\pi^2}{G} \left(\frac{d}{\cos i}\right)^3 \frac{\tilde{\alpha}^3}{P^2},$$
(7.3)

Variación periódica del brillo: no es intrínseca

→ las dos componentes se eclipsan mutuamente en su movimiento orbital en torno al CM.



- Variación periódica del brillo: no es intrínseca → las dos componentes se eclipsan mutuamente en su movimiento orbital en torno al CM.
- Variaciones → fotometría → magnitud (tiempo).
- La representación gráfica de las observaciones: curva de luz.
- Curva de luz: se caracteriza por la presencia de dos mínimos en cada período.



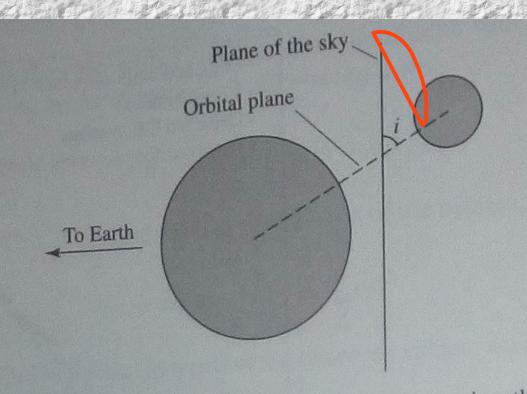
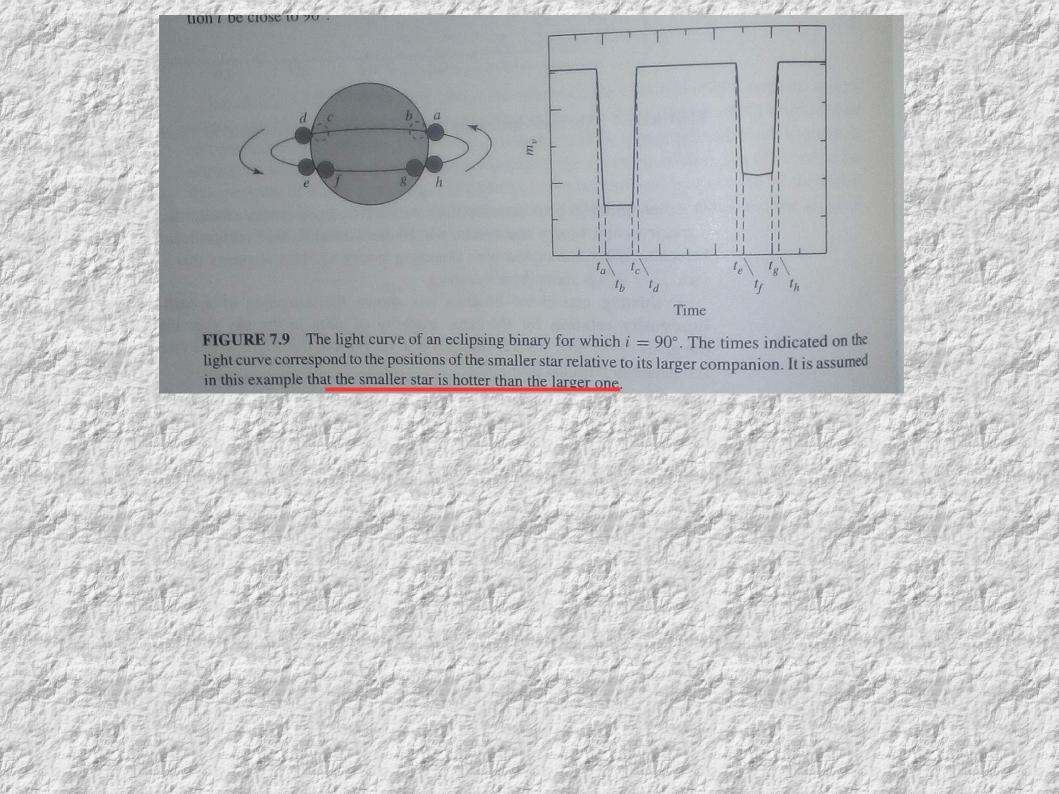


FIGURE 7.8 The geometry of an eclipsing, spectroscopic binary requires that the angle of inclination i be close to 90° .



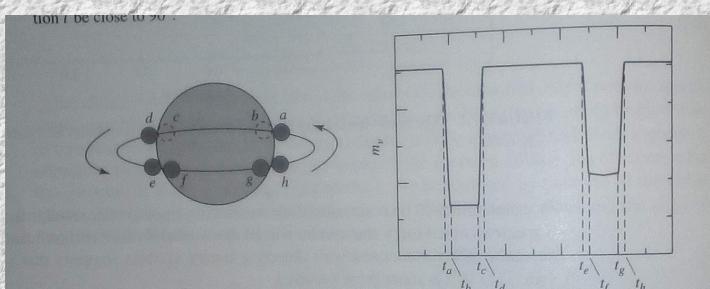
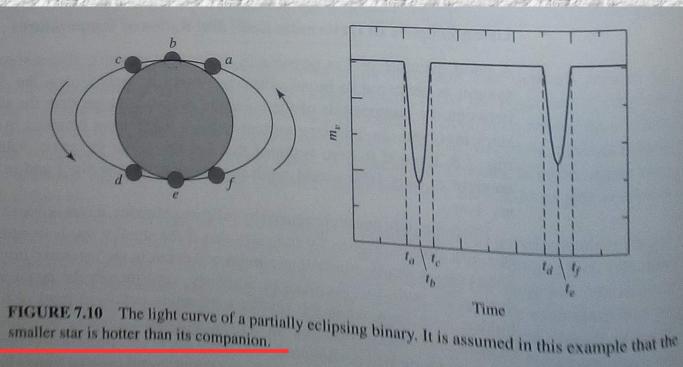
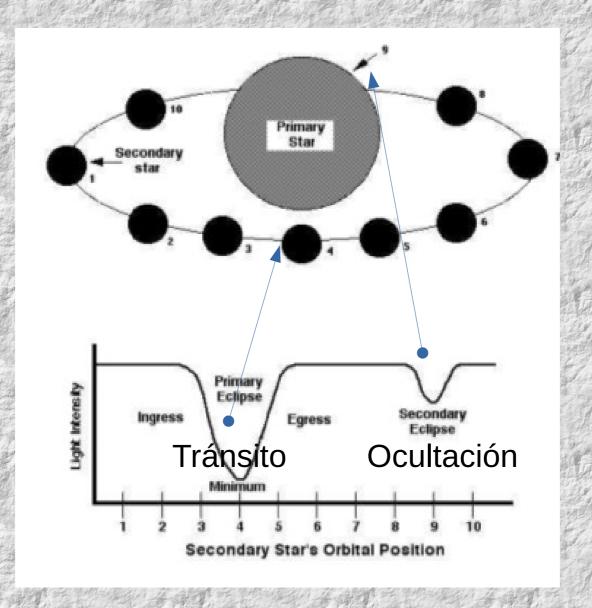


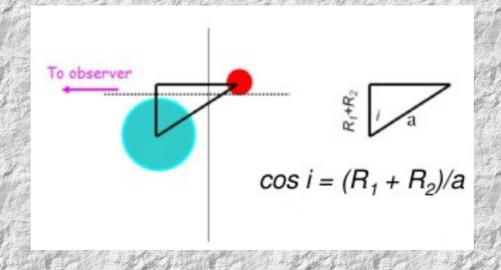
FIGURE 7.9 The light curve of an eclipsing binary for which $i = 90^{\circ}$. The times indicated on the light curve correspond to the positions of the smaller star relative to its larger companion. It is assumed in this example that the smaller star is hotter than the larger one.

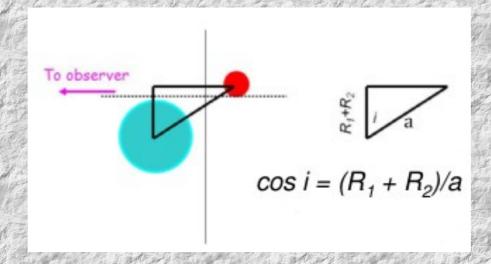
Time

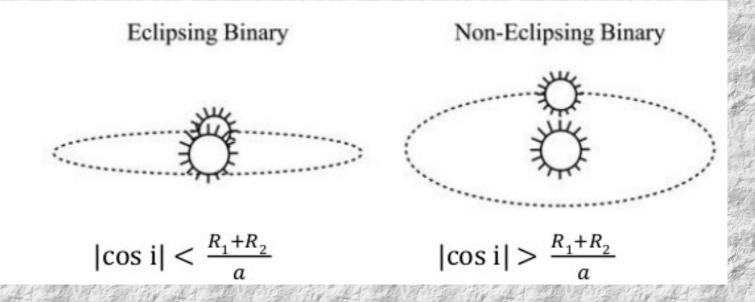




Estrella de mayor tamaño: mayor temperatura









Radios relativos

$$t_{\rm e}/P = \frac{2R_A + 2R_B}{2\pi r},$$

where R_A and R_B are the radii of stars A and B respectively, and r is the orbital radius of star A around star B. Equation (9.15) assumes that star B is much more massive than star A such that the velocity of star B can be neglected. It also assumes $r \gg R_A$ and R_B .

$$V_{\text{r(max)}} = 2\pi r_A/P. \tag{9.16}$$

$$t_t/P = (2R_R - 2R_A)/2\pi r_A.$$
 (9.17)

if again the mass of star B is much larger than the mass of star A. Equation (9.16) determines the orbital radius r_A . From (9.15) and (9.17) we obtain

$$(t_{\rm e} - t_{\rm t})/P = \frac{4R_A}{2\pi r_A} \tag{9.18}$$

and

$$(t_{\rm e} + t_{\rm t})/P = \frac{4R_B}{2\pi r_A}. (9.19)$$

These equations determine the radii of both stars.

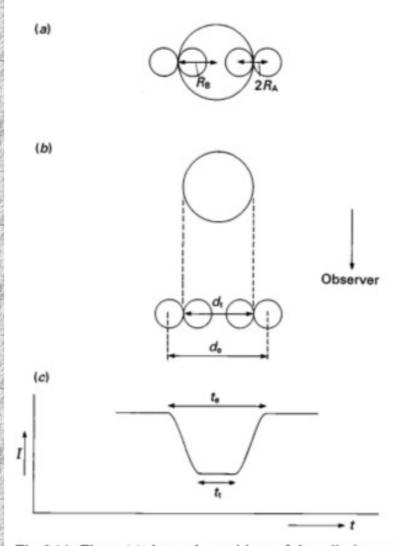


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These equations determine the radii of both stars.

If stars A and B have comparable masses we have to consider the motions of both stars. The eclipse times will then be shorter, because the relative velocities of the two stars will be larger, namely $V_A + V_B$, with $V_A = 2\pi r_A/P$ and $V_B = 2\pi r_B/P$.

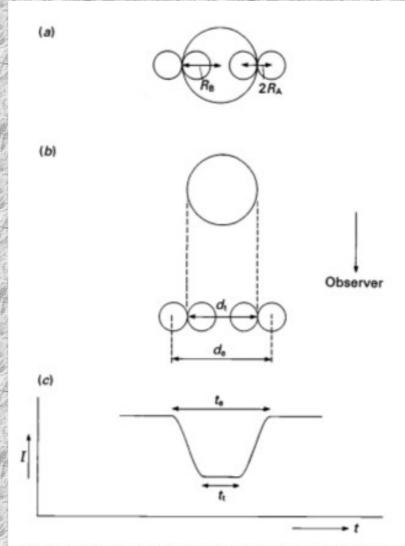
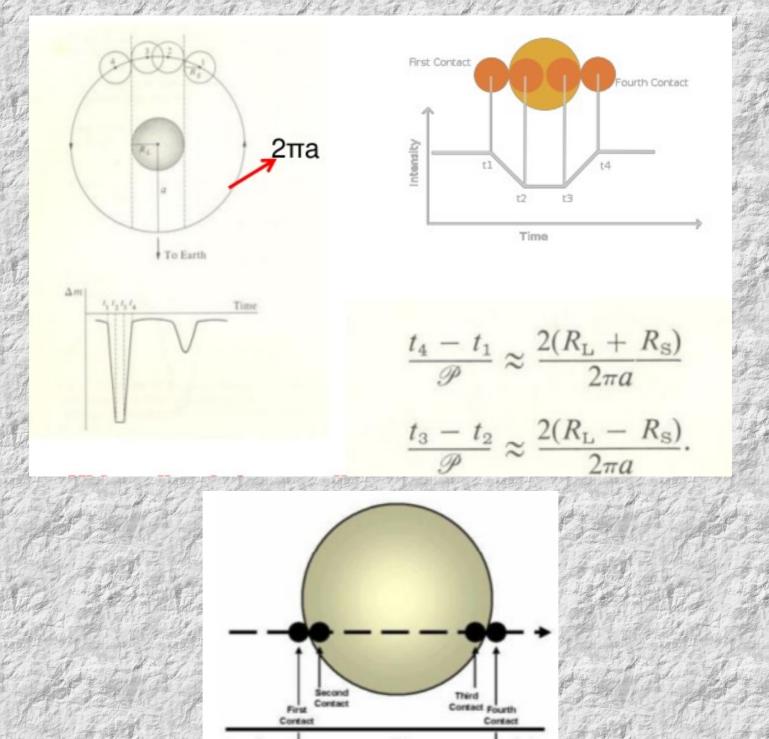


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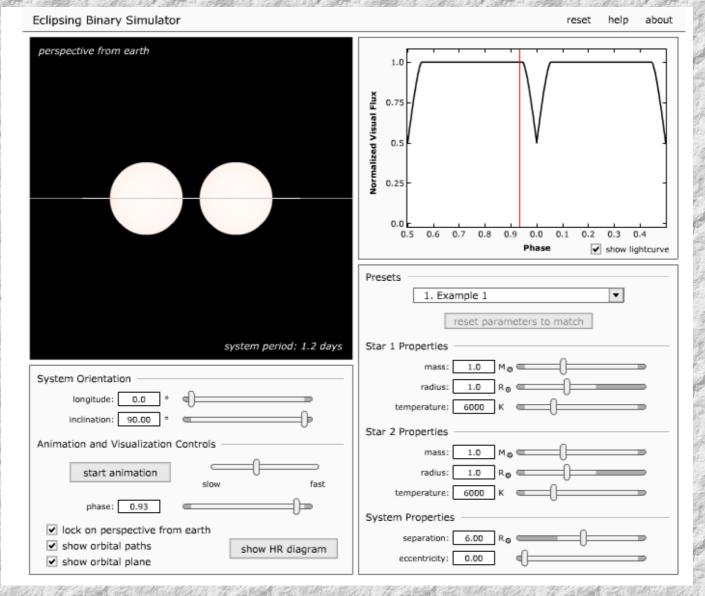


transit

Post-

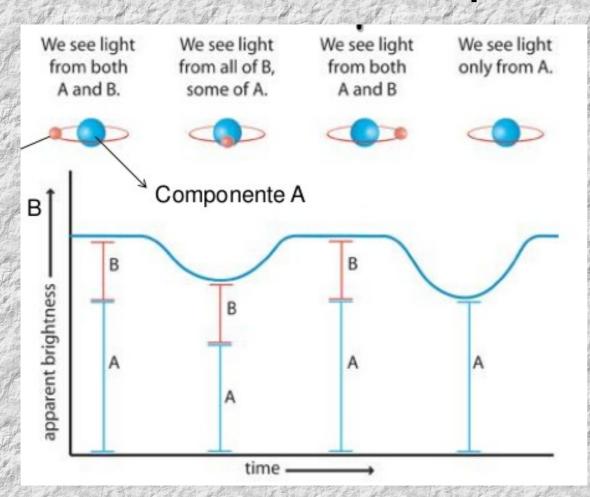
First Contact

Preingress



https://ccnmtl.github.io/astro-simulations/eclipsing-binary-simulator/

Brillo superficial de las binarias eclipsantes



"La razón de los flujos medidos en los eclipses primario y secundario es proporcional el cociente de sus temperaturas"

Binarias eclipsantes

$$I_{\text{max}} = (\pi R_B^2 \cdot F_B + \pi R_A^2 \cdot F_A) \text{const.}$$

he first eclipse the minimum intensity I_1 is given by

$$I_1 = [(\pi R_B^2 - \pi R_A^2) \cdot F_B + \pi R_A^2 \cdot F_A] \text{const.}$$

the second eclipse the minimum intensity I_2 is give

$$I_2 = (\pi R_B^2 \cdot F_B)$$
 const..

his we derive

$$I_{\text{max}} - I_2 = (\pi R_A^2 \cdot F_A) \text{const.}$$

$$I_{\text{max}} - I_1 = (\pi R_A^2 \cdot F_B) \text{const.}$$

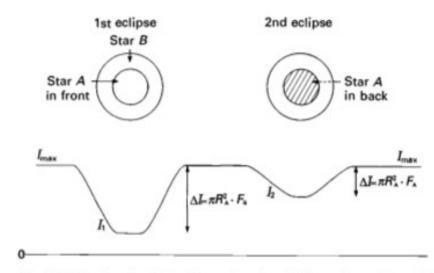


Fig. 9.15. During the first eclipse a fraction of the surface of star B is occulted. During the second eclipse star A is completely covered up. The depths of the light minima depend on the surface fluxes of star A and star B.

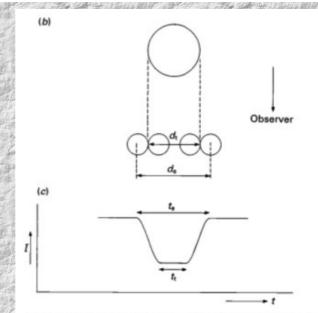


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$$\frac{I_{\text{max}} - I_2}{I_{\text{max}} - I_1} = \frac{F_A}{F_R}.$$
 (9.25)

If we know the flux for one star, we can determine the flux of the other star. Since the radiative fluxes F_A and F_B determine the effective temperatures of the stars we can also determine the ratio of the effective temperatures of the two components of an eclipsing binary system.

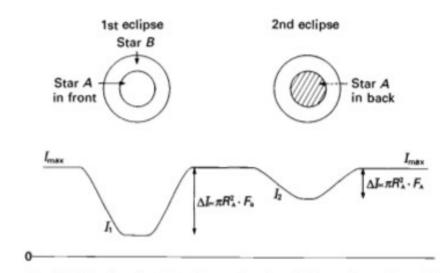


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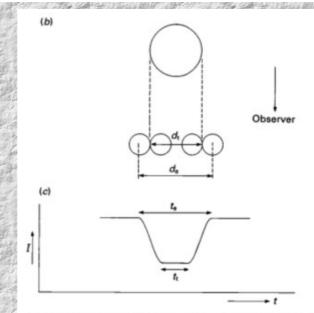


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$$F_i = \sigma T_i^4$$

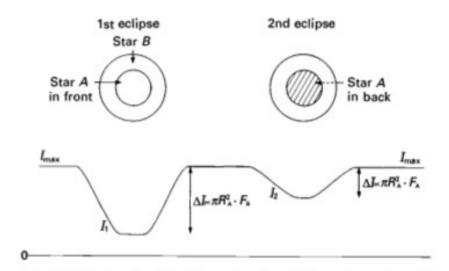


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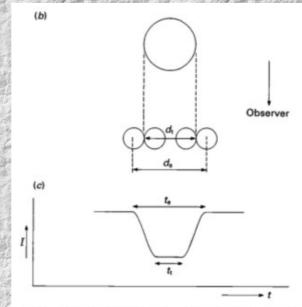
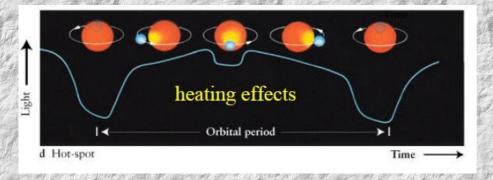


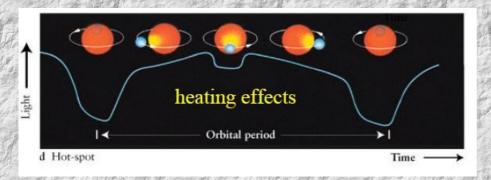
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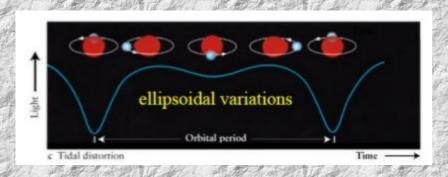
- Efecto de elipticidad
- Efecto de reflexión entre las componentes
- Efecto de oscurecimiento gravitatorio
- Efecto de oscurecimiento hacia el limbo

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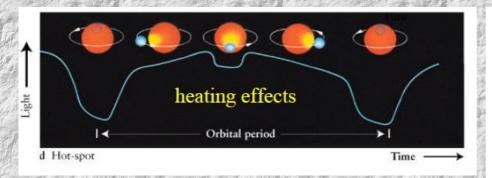


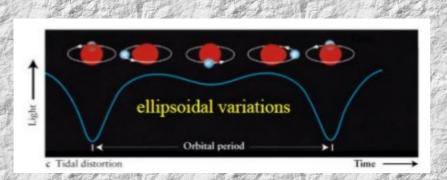
Efecto de elipticidad

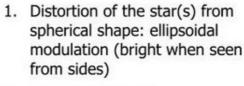
Efecto de reflexión entre las componentes

Efecto de oscurecimiento gravitatorio

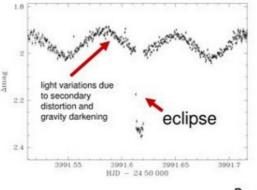
Efecto de oscurecimiento hacia el limbo

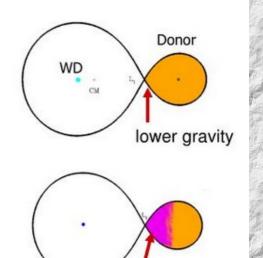






Gravity darkening

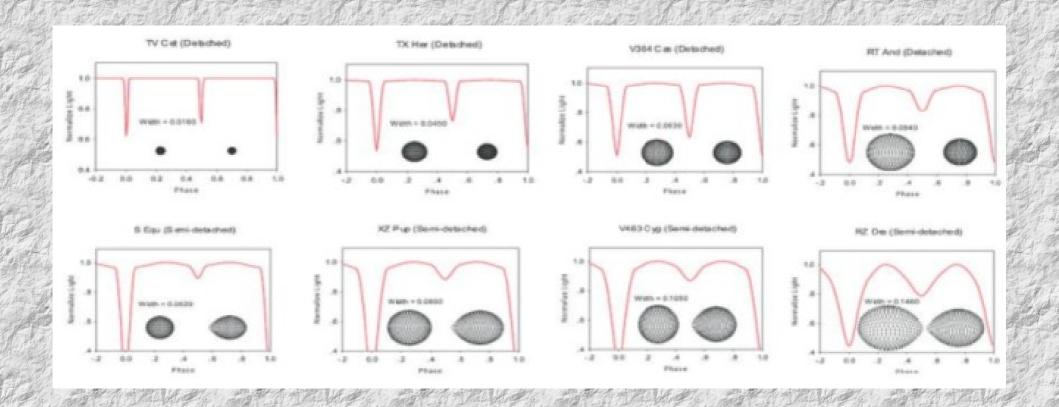




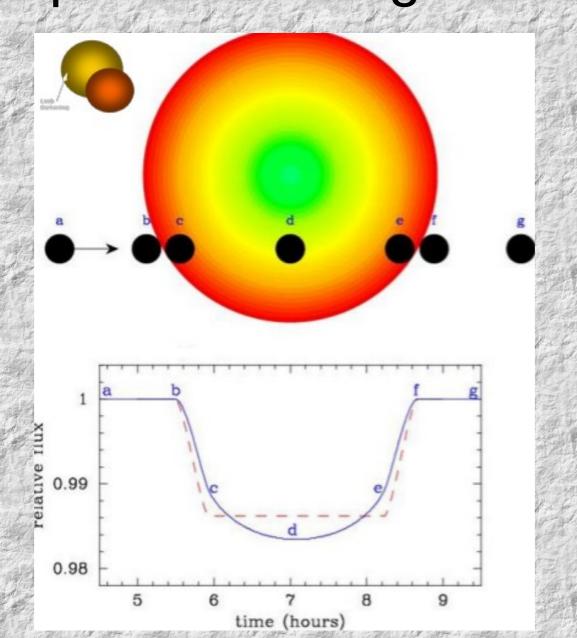
hotter

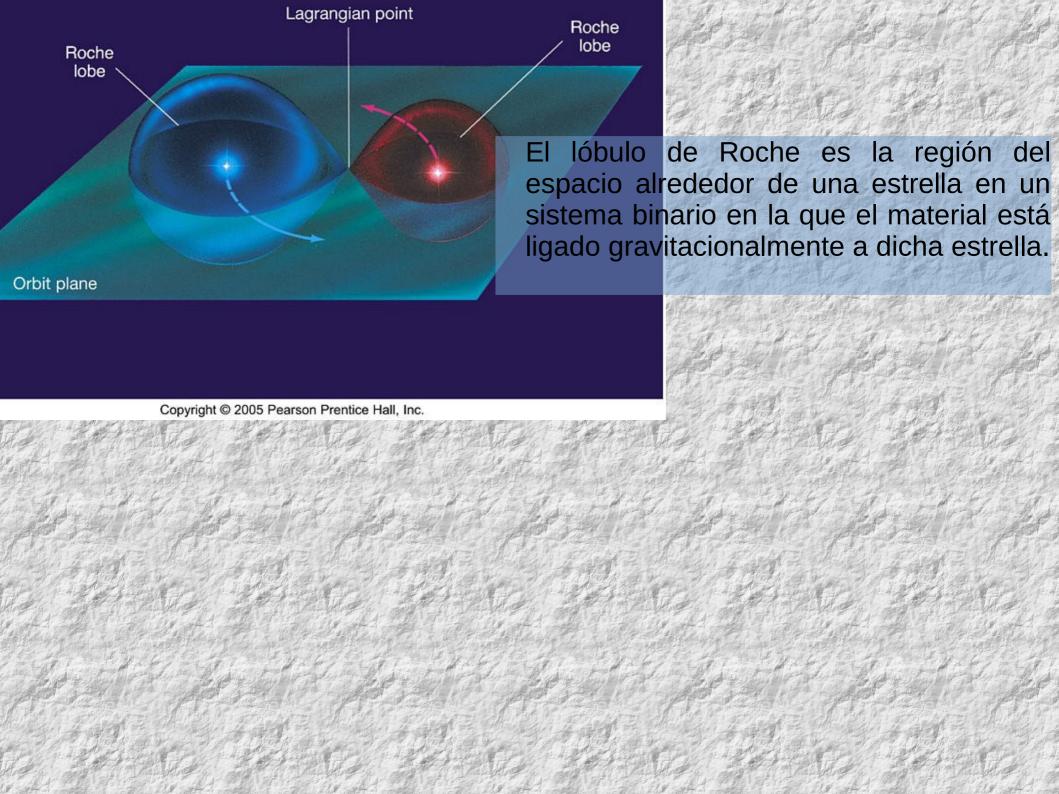
3. Irradiation & heating: reflection effect

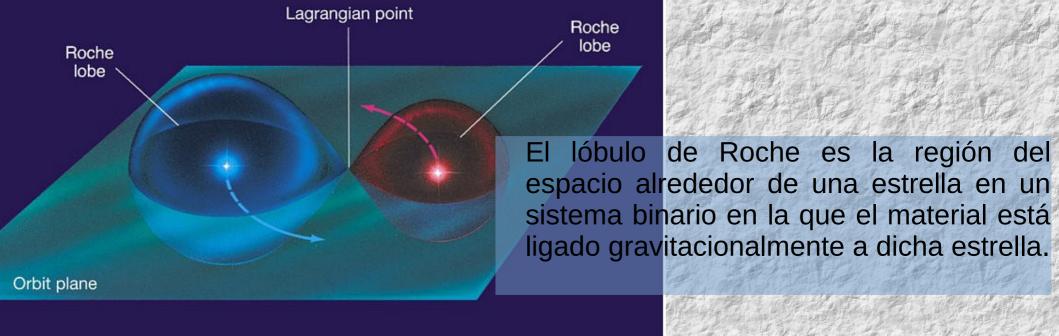
Deformaciones por proximidad de sus componentes

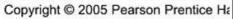


Efecto de oscurecimiento hacia el limbo (depende de long. onda)

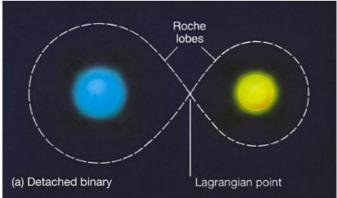


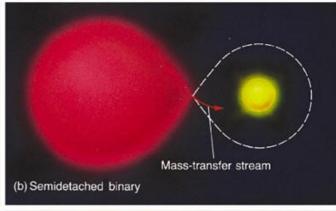


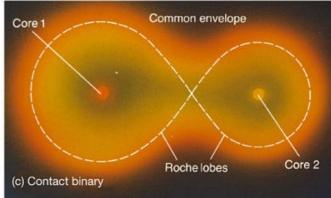




Si la estrella se expande más allá de su lóbulo de Roche entonces el material exterior al lóbulo es atraído por la otra.







Detached Binary

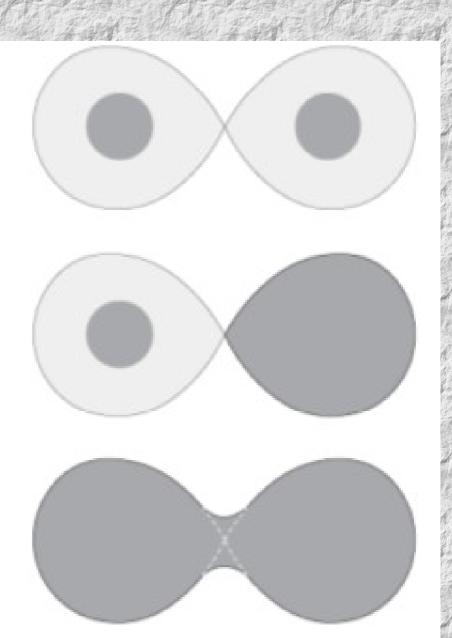
Neither star fills its Roche lobe. Mass transfer unlikely except through strong winds.

Semidetached Binary

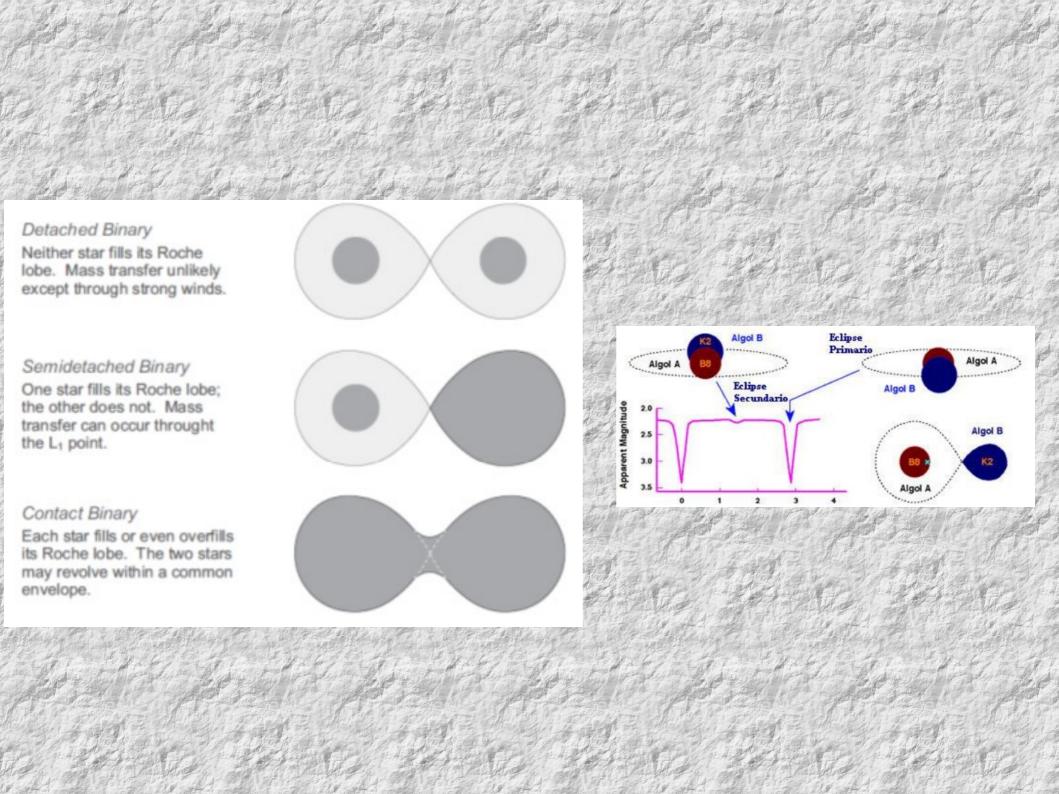
One star fills its Roche lobe; the other does not. Mass transfer can occur throught the L₁ point.

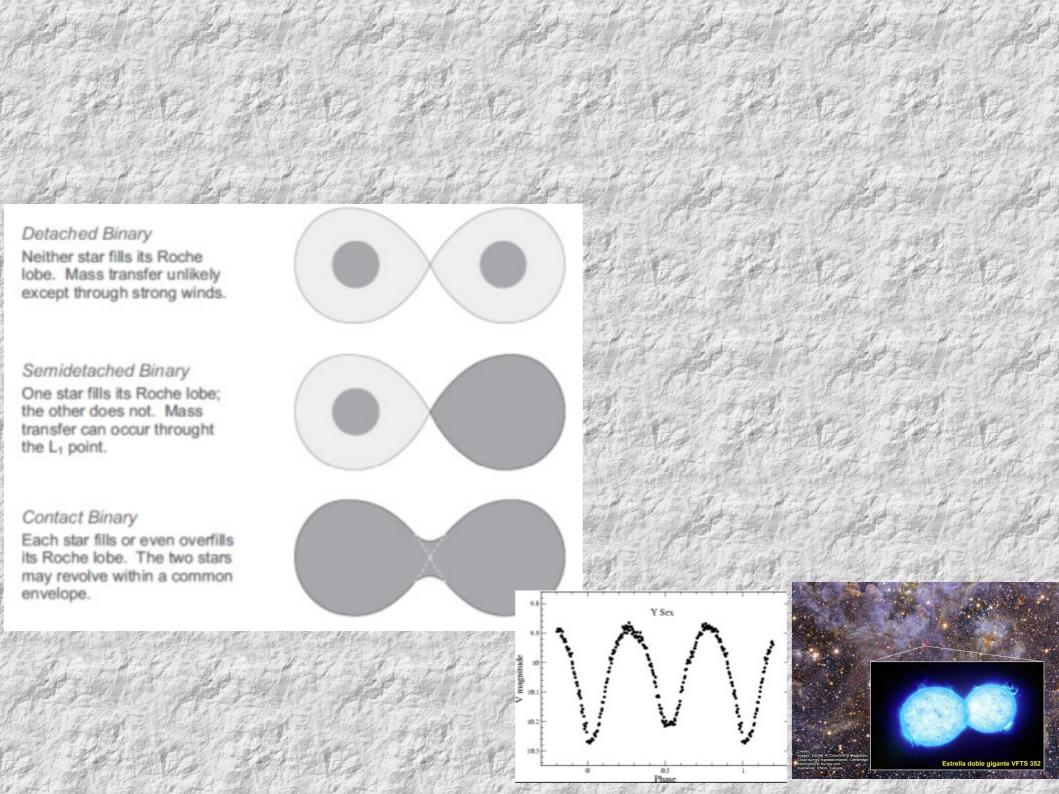
Contact Binary

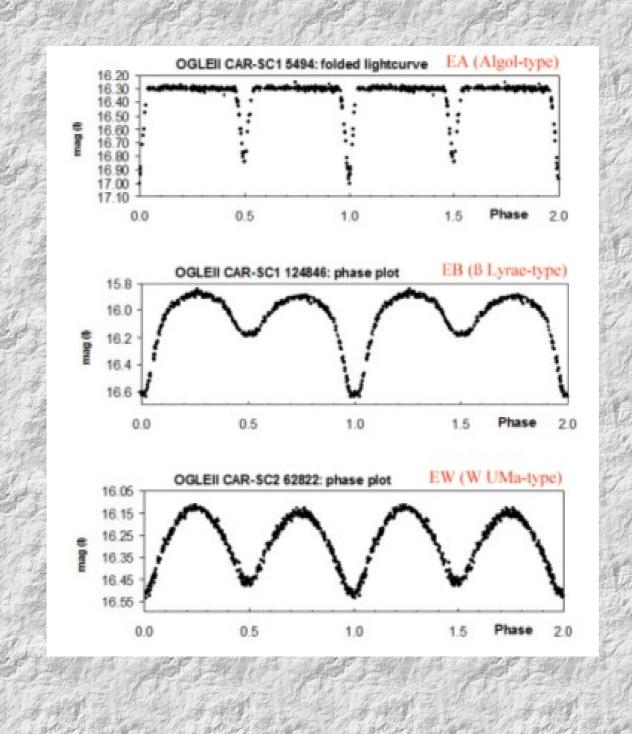
Each star fills or even overfills its Roche lobe. The two stars may revolve within a common envelope.



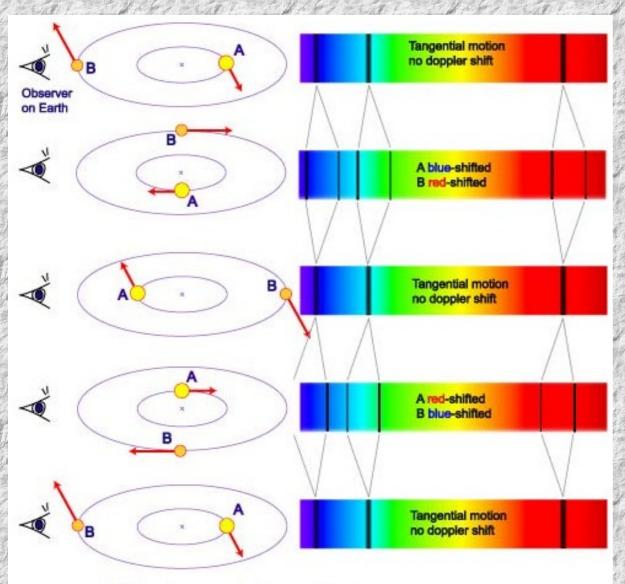
V466 Cyg 10.4 10.5 10.8 Detached Binary Neither star fills its Roche 11.2 lobe. Mass transfer unlikely except through strong winds. Semidetached Binary One star fills its Roche lobe; the other does not. Mass transfer can occur throught the L₁ point. Contact Binary Each star fills or even overfills its Roche lobe. The two stars may revolve within a common envelope.







Binarias espectroscópicas (efecto Doppler)

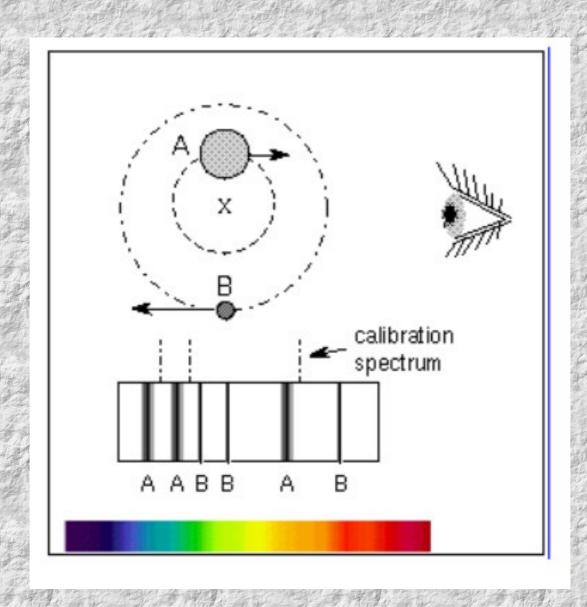


La estrella más masiva A y la estrellas menos masiva B, orbitan alrededor del CM del sistema. El espectro observado muestra líneas espectrales con componentes dobles y desplazamientos de las líneas con relación a la posición de reposo.

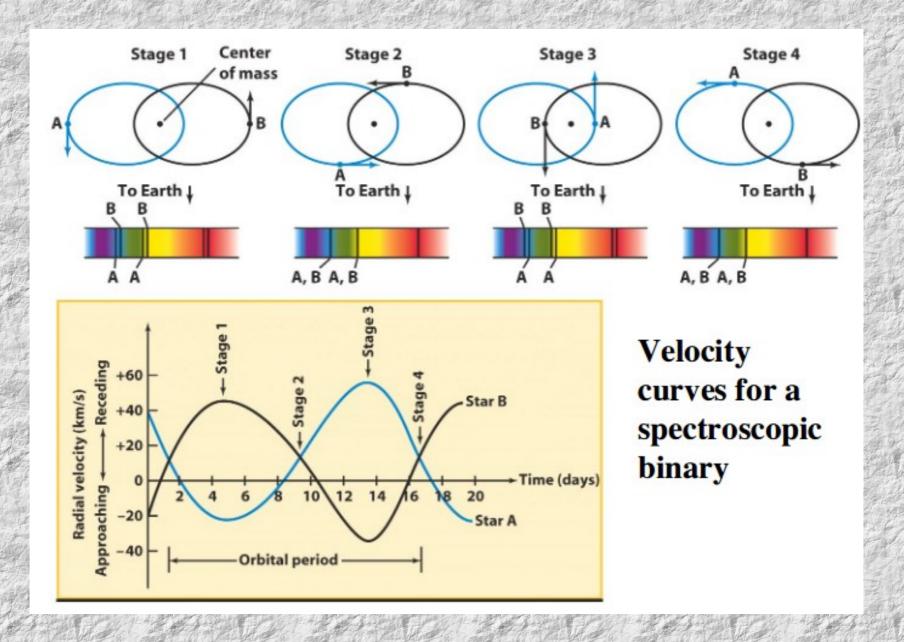
El del desplazamiento depende del grado de alineamiento con el observador y la velocidad orbital de la estrella.

$$\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_0} = \frac{v_{\rm r}}{c},$$

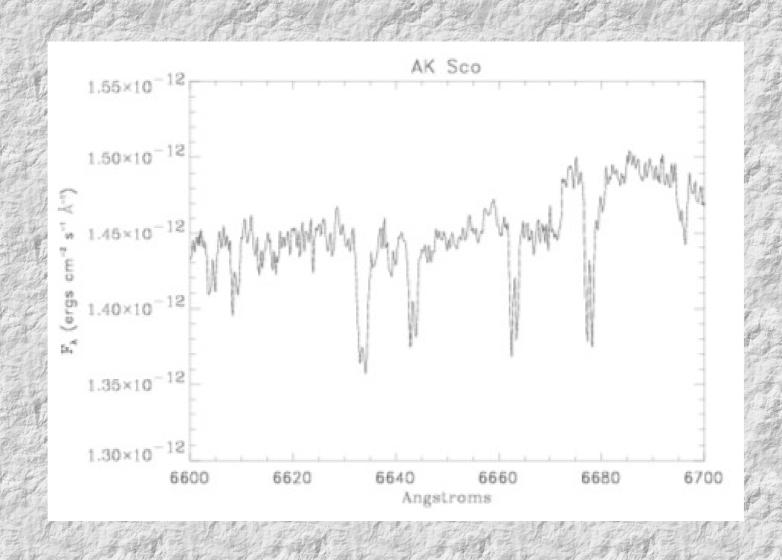
Binarias espectroscópicas



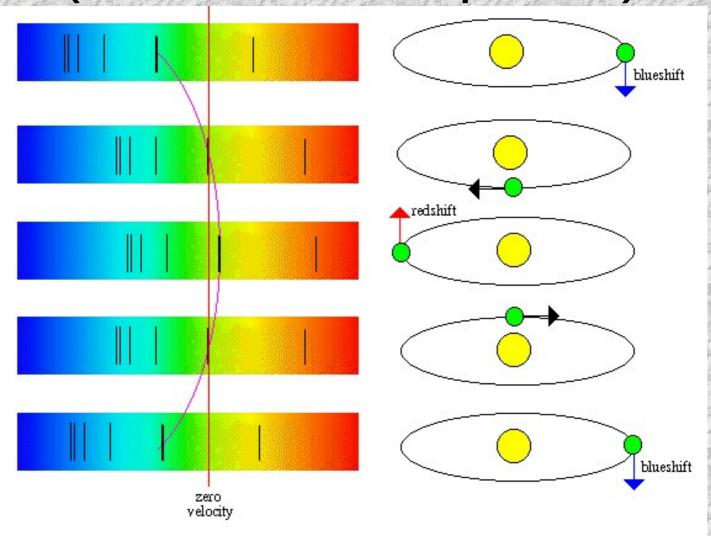
Binarias espectroscópicas



Binarias espectroscópicas (con dos espectros)



Binarias espectroscópicas (con un solo espectro)



Se observa evidencia del movimiento orbital (desplazamiento Doppler de las líneas espectrales) de la componente más luminosa

Binarias espectroscópicas Velocidades radiales

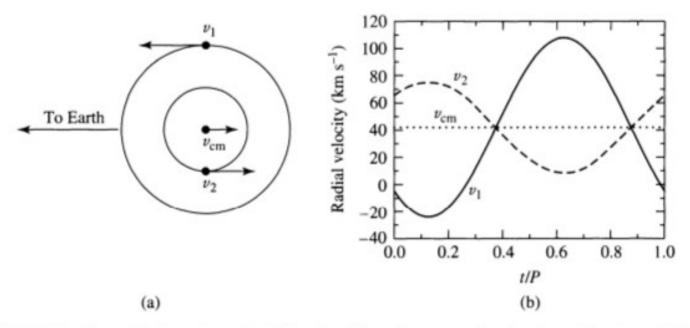


FIGURE 7.5 The orbital paths and radial velocities of two stars in circular orbits (e = 0). In this example, $M_1 = 1 \text{ M}_{\odot}$, $M_2 = 2 \text{ M}_{\odot}$, the orbital period is P = 30 d, and the radial velocity of the center of mass is $v_{\rm cm} = 42 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. v_1 , v_2 , and $v_{\rm cm}$ are the velocities of Star 1, Star 2, and the center of mass, respectively. (a) The plane of the circular orbits lies along the line of sight of the observer. (b) The observed radial velocity curves.

Binarias espectroscópicas Velocidades radiales

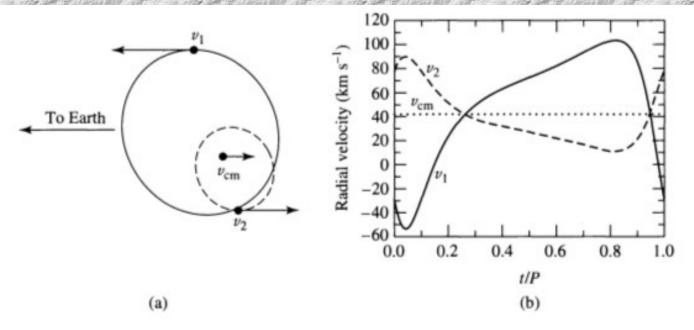
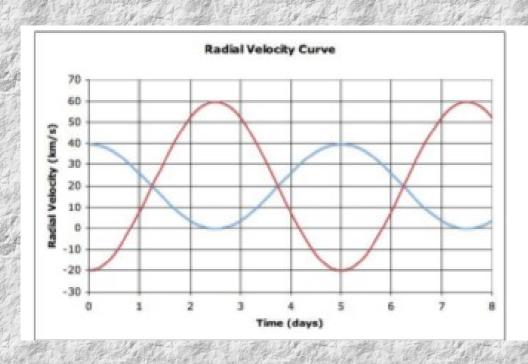


FIGURE 7.6 The orbital paths and radial velocities of two stars in elliptical orbits (e = 0.4). As in Fig. 7.5, $M_1 = 1 \text{ M}_{\odot}$, $M_2 = 2 \text{ M}_{\odot}$, the orbital period is P = 30 d, and the radial velocity of the center of mass is $v_{\rm cm} = 42 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. In addition, the orientation of periastron is 45° . v_1 , v_2 , and $v_{\rm cm}$ are the velocities of Star 1, Star 2, and the center of mass, respectively. (a) The plane of the orbits lies along the line of sight of the observer. (b) The observed radial velocity curves.

Velocidad del sistema (centro de masa)

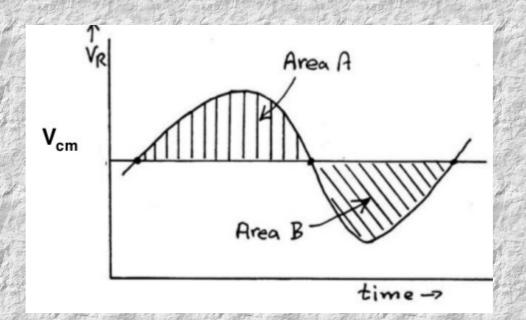


En el caso de dos espectros visibles, la V_{cm} resulta el valor alrededor de cual ambas curvas de velocidad radial tiene igual amplitud.

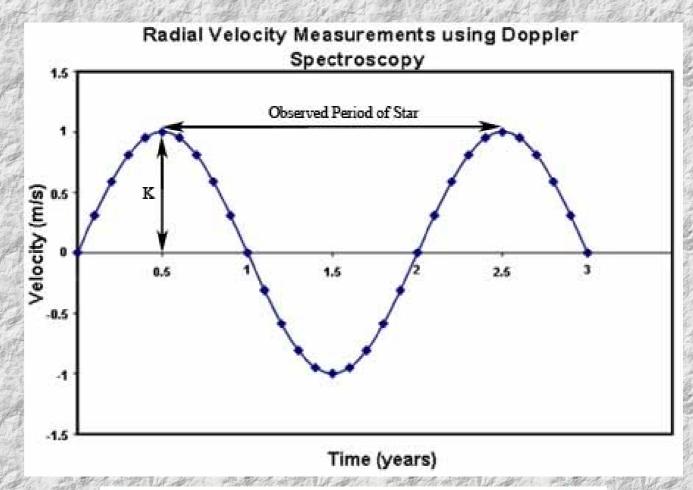
Velocidad del sistema (centro de masa)

Vr = V_CM + Vo → Vo = velocidad de la estrella en la órbita absoluta

- La estrella se mueve en una órbita elíptica alrededor del CM
- Como la distancia que se mueve la estrella desde y hacia el Sol se encuentra integrando la velocidad en el intervalo de tiempo apropiado, V_CM se obtiene trazando la línea recta que deja igual área por encima y por debajo de ella.



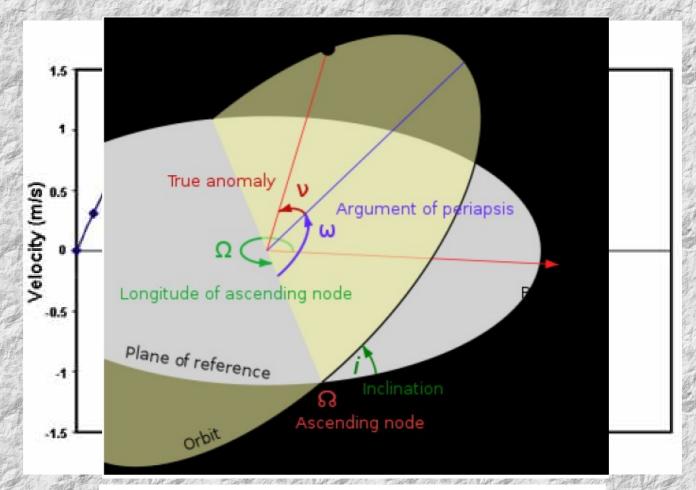
Curva de velocidades radiales



$$V_{r,1} = V_0 + K_1[e\cos\omega + \cos(\nu + \omega)]$$

$$K_1 = \frac{2\pi}{P} \frac{a_1 \operatorname{sen} i}{\sqrt{1 - e^2}}$$

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Si
$$i = 90^{\circ} \text{ y } e = 0 \rightarrow \text{ K}_i = 2 \text{ ("pi") } a_i / \text{ P}$$

$$\rightarrow K_1/K_2 = a_1/a_2$$

Como a = $a_1 + a_2$ y $m_1a_1 = m_2a_2$

$$\rightarrow$$
 (m₁+m₂) = a³ / P²

Mido masas de las estrellas!!!!

Sea la órbita elíptica, con el plano orbital perpendicular al plano del cielo (i = 90°).

Las veloci dependen observado

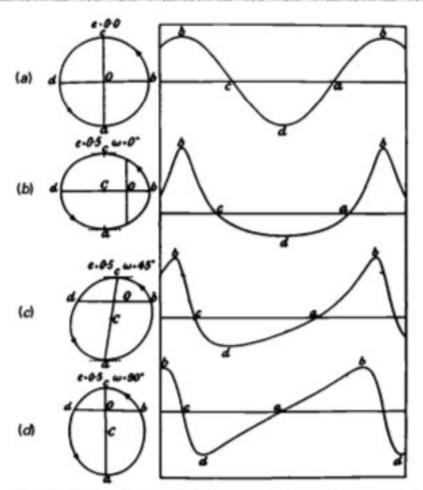


Fig. 9.8. Plotted are radial velocity curves to be seen for stellar orbits with zero ellipticities (a) and with an ellipticity e = 0.5 for $\omega = 0$ (b), and for the same ellipticity but $\omega = 45^{\circ}$ (c), and also for $\omega = 90^{\circ}$ (d). $e \neq 0$ generally introduces a difference between maximum positive and negative velocities (see (c) and (d)) except in the case when $\omega = 90^{\circ}$. In this case the time difference between points b and d on the one side and between points d and b on the other side (d) gives a measure of the ellipticity. (From Becker 1950.)

soidales y cto al Sea la órbita elíptica, con el plano orbital perpendicular al plano del cielo (i = 90°).

Las velocidades radiales observadas no son sinusoidales y dependen de la orientación de la órbita con respecto al observador (de ω , argumento del periastro)

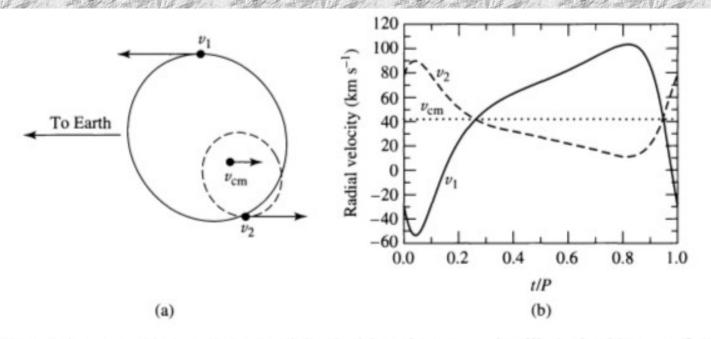


FIGURE 7.6 The orbital paths and radial velocities of two stars in elliptical orbits (e = 0.4). As in Fig. 7.5, $M_1 = 1 \text{ M}_{\odot}$, $M_2 = 2 \text{ M}_{\odot}$, the orbital period is P = 30 d, and the radial velocity of the center of mass is $v_{\rm cm} = 42 \text{ km s}^{-1}$. In addition, the orientation of periastron is 45°. v_1 , v_2 , and $v_{\rm cm}$ are the velocities of Star 1, Star 2, and the center of mass, respectively. (a) The plane of the orbits lies along the line of sight of the observer. (b) The observed radial velocity curves.

Función de masa

If we assume that the orbital eccentricity is very small ($e \ll 1$), then the speeds of the stars are essentially constant and given by $v_1 = 2\pi a_1/P$ and $v_2 = 2\pi a_2/P$ for stars of mass m_1 and m_2 , respectively, where a_1 and a_2 are the radii (semimajor axes) and P is the period of the orbits. Solving for a_1 and a_2 and substituting into Eq. (7.1), we find that the ratio of the masses of the two stars becomes

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{r_2}{r_1} = \frac{a_2}{a_1} \qquad \qquad \frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{v_2}{v_1}. \tag{7.4}$$

Because $v_{1r} = v_1 \sin i$ and $v_{2r} = v_2 \sin i$, Eq. (7.4) can be written in terms of the observed radial velocities rather than actual orbital velocities:

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{v_{2r}/\sin i}{v_{1r}/\sin i} = \frac{v_{2r}}{v_{1r}}.$$
 (7.5)

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 (7.5)

In the ratio the $\sin i$ factor cancels out. But if we want to determine the mass sum we are in trouble. We know that $r_1 = v_1 P/(2\pi)$ and similarly $r_2 = v_2 P/(2\pi)$. Since we only know $v_1 \sin i$ and $v_2 \sin i$ we also can

only determine $r_1 \sin i$ and $r_2 \sin i$. According to (9.8) we therefore can determine only

$$(M_1 + M_2)\sin^3 i = \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^3 \sin^3 i}{P^2} \frac{4\pi^2}{G}.$$
 (9.26)

The mass sum remains uncertain by the factor $\sin^3 i$, and therefore both masses remain uncertain by the same factor.

Binarias espectro-fotométricas (dos espectros + curva de luz)

→ masas y radios de cada estrella

```
De las dos curvas de velocidades radiales obtengo:
```

 $M_1 \sin^3 i$ y $M_2 \sin^3 i$

a₁ sin i y a₂ sin i luego tengo: a sen i

De la curva de luz obtengo:

 R_1/a y R_2/a además de i

Luego puedo determinar M_1 , M_2 , R_1 , R_2 ,

LIGHT-CURVE AND RADIAL VELOCITY STUDY OF THE CONTACT BINARY BD +42 2782

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ABSTRACT

BD +42 2782 was recently discovered to be a variable star with a W UMa-type, eclipsing-binary light curve. We have obtained the first photoelectric light curves ($R_{\rm C}$, $I_{\rm C}$) and also the first radial velocity curves for this binary. These show the system to be a W UMa binary of the W type, with the less massive component eclipsed at primary minimum. The light and velocity curves have been analyzed in a consistent manner using the Wilson-Devinney synthetic light-curve

of 34%. Absolute paran $7 M_{\odot}$, $R_2 = 0.95 R_{\odot}$, L

fer between the two con is to explain this are ex

code. The binary has an orbital inclination of 74°, a mass ratio of 0.4

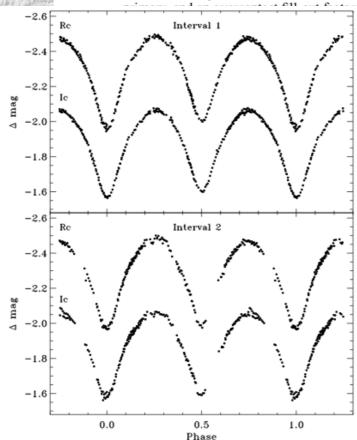


Fig. 1.—Differential light curves of BD+42 2782 from observing intervals I and 2 in 2004.

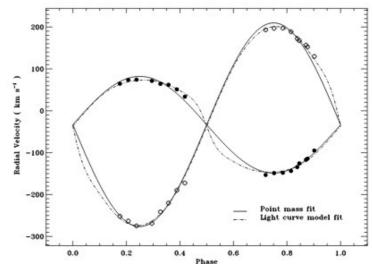
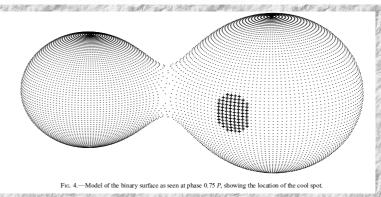


Fig. 2.—Radial velocity of BD+42 2782. Shown are the observations, along with the fits based a point-mass solution and the light-curve solution.



Relación masa-luminosidad (secuencia principal)

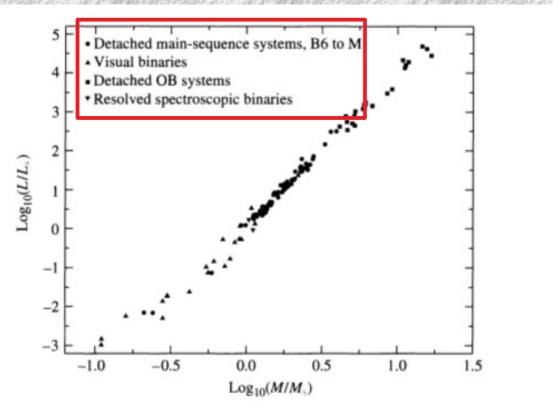


FIGURE 7.7 The mass-lui 115, 1980.)

$$\frac{L}{L_{\Theta}} \approx \left(\frac{M}{M_{\Theta}}\right)$$

. Rev. Astron. Astrophys., 18,

Relación masa-luminosidad (secuencia principal)

