

ASTRO

Chapter 1 : TOOLS OF ASTRONOMY

UNITS & COORDINATES

cgs
SI

- **Units & dimensions:**
 - [L]: **Length:** cm, 100cm = 1m
 - [M]: **Mass:** g, 1000g = 1kg
 - [T]: **Time:** s
 - [LT⁻¹]: **Speed:** cms⁻¹, 100 cms⁻¹ = 1ms⁻¹
 - [MLT⁻²]: **Force:** dyne = gcms⁻², 10⁵ dyne = 1N
 - [ML²T⁻²]: **Energy:** erg = gcm²s⁻², 10⁷ erg = 1J
 - [ML²T⁻³]: **Power:** ergs⁻¹ = gcm²s⁻³, 10⁷ ergs⁻¹ = 1W
 - [IT], [M^{1/2}L^{3/2}T⁻¹]: **Charge:** esu = g^{1/2}cm^{3/2}s⁻¹, 3x10⁹ esu = 1C !?

Relative units:

Astronomical units (AU) is the average distance from Earth to sun $1\text{AU} = 1.50 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$

Light year (ly) is the distance light travels in a year $1\text{ly} = 9.46 \times 10^{12} \text{ km}$

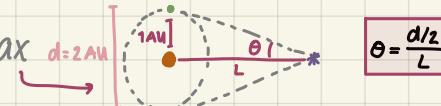
Parsec (pc) is $\sim 3.21\text{ ly}$

- **Measurements:** we get direct information from the stars & other objects, from their light (EM spectrum), matter (cosmic rays), and gravitational waves

photometry is the measurement of brightness as a fxn of wavelength/freq.

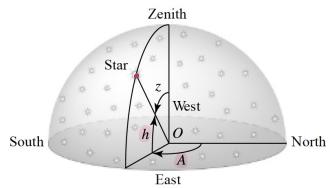
spectroscopy is the study of spectral lines

astrometry is the measurement of motions & parallax



$$\theta = \frac{d}{L}$$

- **Altitude/Azimuth coordinate system:** viewing objects in the night sky requires only directions to them, not their distances



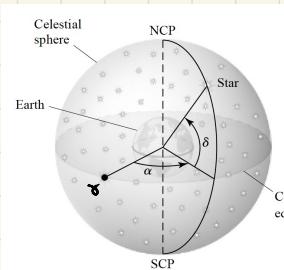
altitude (h) = angle measured from horizon

zenith distance (z) = angle from zenith, $z + h = 90^\circ$

azimuth (A) = angle measured along horizon eastward from north

- Difficult to use in practice, specific to local latitude & longitude

- **Equatorial coordinate system:** similar to latitude/longitude but on celestial sphere

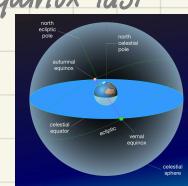
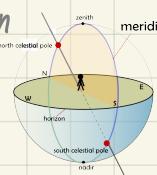


declination (δ) = equiv. to latitude, measured in degrees north/south of celestial equator

Right ascension (α) = equiv. to longitude, measured eastward along celestial equator from the vernal equinox (γ)

IST (of observer) = amount of time that has elapsed since the vernal equinox last traversed the meridian

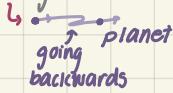
equiv. to hour angle (h) of the vernal equinox



· Celestial motion: lunar & solar motions (wrt Earth)

planetary motions (planets moving on the fixed star background, Retrograde motion)

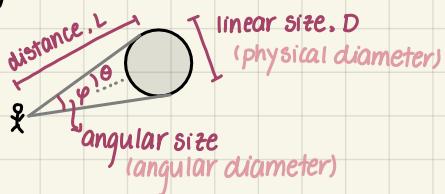
stellar motions (stars are fixed to the sky)



· direct proof of Earth's motion: stellar parallax

Earth's rotation → Foucault's pendulum

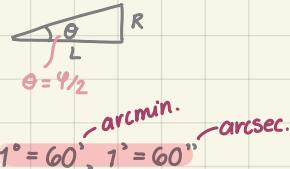
· Angular size / distance:



$$\tan(\frac{\theta}{2}) = \frac{D}{2L}$$

\Downarrow small angle

$$\theta = \frac{D/2}{L}$$



$$1^\circ = 60' \quad 1' = 60''$$

arcmin. arcsec.

→ can do this with Earth orbit & far away objects

· parsec: The distance something has to be to yield $\theta = 1''$ (ie. parallax of $1''$)

$$\tan \theta = \frac{R_\odot}{d}$$

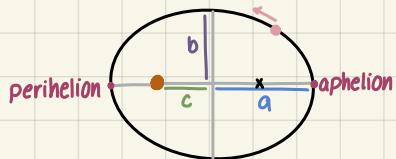
\downarrow small angle

$$d = \frac{1 \text{ AU}}{\theta}$$

\downarrow
in pc in rad
(convert arcsec ('')
to rad first)

KEPLER'S LAWS

· 1st law: A planet orbits the sun in an **ellipse**, with the sun at one focus of the ellipse



· 2nd law: A line connecting a planet to the sun sweeps out **equal areas in equal times**

$$\cdot 3\text{rd law: } T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{GM}}$$

semi-major axis
(general)
 \downarrow
mass of sun

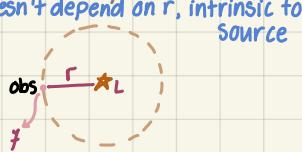
* Or $T^2 = a^3$ if in years & AU

BRIGHTNESS MEASURES

- **Flux (γ)**: Total amount of light energy (at all wavelengths) received per unit time per unit area, W m^{-2}
Depends on intrinsic luminosity & distance to observer (same star but farther away = less bright)

inverse square law of light!

$$\gamma = \frac{L}{A} = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$$



*doesn't depend on r, intrinsic to source

- **flux density (γ_v)**: flux at a specific frequency (or wavelength), $\text{W m}^{-2} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$ (for γ_λ) & $\text{W m}^{-2} \cdot \text{Hz}^{-1}$ (for γ_ν)

$$\gamma_v = \frac{L_v}{4\pi r^2}$$

- **Photometric bands**: some standard wavelength bands...

U : 365 nm
B : 440 nm
V : 550 nm
R : 680 nm
I : 800 nm
J : 1220 nm
H : 1630 nm
K : 2190 nm

- Magnitudes are the old way to refer to luminous flux & luminosity

- **Apparent magnitude, m** : How bright a star appears in the sky, lower = brighter

$$m_B = -2.5 \log \left(\frac{\gamma_{v,\lambda}(B)}{C_{v,\lambda}(B)} \right)$$

flux density of star
in band B

apparent
magnitude
in band B

flux density in band B
for a star of magnitude 0

equiv. $\frac{\gamma_{v,\lambda}(B)}{C_{v,\lambda}(B)} = 10^{-0.4m_B}$

- Traditionally the zero point calibration was set by the star Vega → $m_u = m_v = m_B = \dots = 0.0$
flux density of Vega varies w/ wavelength so C_v, C_λ depend on band...

$$C_\nu(V) = 3.64 \times 10^{-20} \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{Hz}^{-1},$$

$$C_\lambda(V) = 0.361 \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3},$$

$$C_\nu(B) = 4.26 \times 10^{-20} \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{Hz}^{-1},$$

$$C_\lambda(B) = 0.660 \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$$

- Most photometric measurements are made relative to "standard stars" of known apparent magnitudes eg. comparing the B-band flux densities of 2 stars

$$m_{B,1} - m_{B,2} = -2.5 \left[\log \left(\frac{\gamma_{v,1}(B)}{C_{v,1}(B)} \right) - \log \left(\frac{\gamma_{v,2}(B)}{C_{v,2}(B)} \right) \right]$$

$$m_{B,1} - m_{B,2} = -2.5 \log \left(\frac{\gamma_{v,1}(B)}{\gamma_{v,2}(B)} \right)$$

Absolute magnitude, M: apparent magnitude a star would have if it were located at a distance of 10 pc

flux ratio: $\frac{f_2}{f_1} = 100^{(m_1 - m_2)/5}$

Distance modulus: $m - M = 5 \log_{10}(d) - 5$

a measure
of distance!

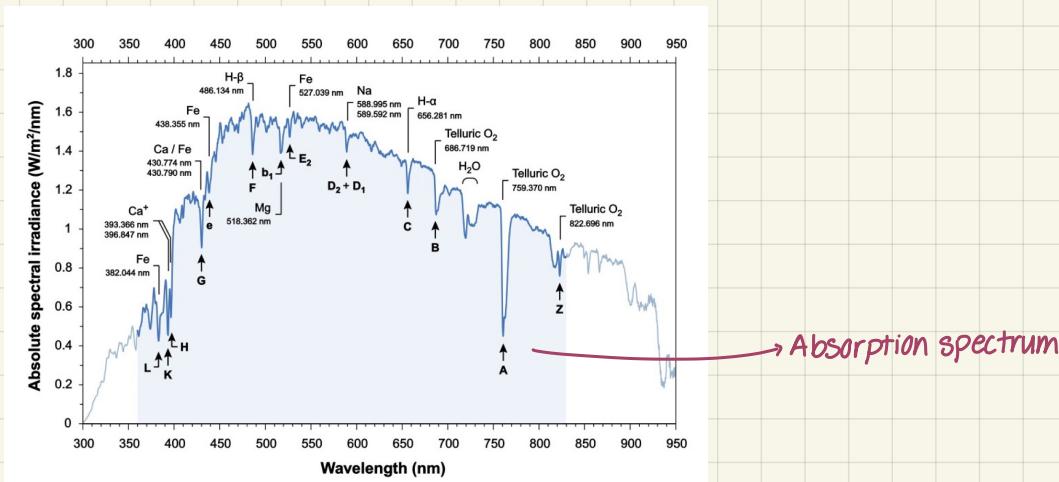
Star's distance
in pc

SPECTROSCOPY

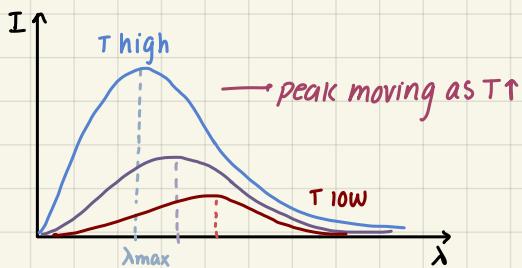
photons: $E = h\nu$
 $= 6.6 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$

$1 \text{ eV} = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

Star spectrum → close to a perfect blackbody



Blackbody:



Wien's displacement law:

$$\lambda_{\max}T = CST = 2.9 \times 10^6 \text{ nm} \cdot \text{K}$$

$$= 2.9 \times 10^3 \text{ mK}$$

R-T law: $I = \frac{2Ck_B T}{\lambda^4}$ λ big

Wien's law: $I = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} e^{-hc/\lambda k_B T}$ λ small

} per wavelength

w catastrophe!

↙ planck combined both

Planck: $I_\lambda = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \cdot \frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda k_B T} - 1}$ all λ

so when we Taylor expand,
we get the right thing for
large & small λ

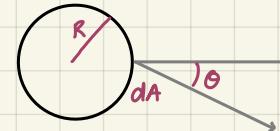
Perceived outside blackbody

Power per area: $\frac{P}{A} = L_\lambda d\lambda = \int I d\Omega dA d\lambda \cos\theta$

$$= \int I(\lambda) d\lambda \int_{r=0}^{\infty} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi/2} \sin\theta \cos\theta d\theta d\phi dA$$

monochromatic luminosity

$$L_\lambda d\lambda = 4\pi r^2 R^2 I(\lambda) d\lambda \quad \Rightarrow \quad L = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T_e^4$$



flux at a given distance per unit λ: $f_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{L_\lambda}{4\pi r^2} d\lambda$

$$= \frac{4\pi^2 R^2 I_\lambda d\lambda}{4\pi r^2}$$

monochromatic flux

$$f_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{\pi R^2}{r^2} I_\lambda d\lambda \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_{\text{surface}} = \sigma T_e^4$$

Total flux: $\int I(\lambda) d\lambda = \int_0^\infty \frac{2hc^2/\lambda^5}{e^{hc/\lambda KT} - 1} d\lambda$

→ Integ. I_λ over all λ

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sub } \lambda &= \frac{hc}{xKT} \quad & d\lambda &= \frac{hc}{x^2 KT} dx \\ &= 2hc^2 \left(\frac{KT}{hc}\right)^5 \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{hc}{KT}\right)^5 \frac{x^5}{x^2} \frac{hc}{KT} \frac{1}{e^x - 1} dx \\ &= \frac{K^4 T^4 \pi^4}{15 h^3 c^2} \end{aligned}$$

bolometric flux

$$f = \sigma T^4 \quad \text{Stefan Boltzmann law} \quad \text{W/m}^2$$

do $f = \int I_\lambda d\lambda$
to get f [W/m²]

summary

*using $r = R$

$$L_\lambda = \pi dA \cdot I_\lambda \rightarrow L = dA \cdot f$$

$$f_\lambda = \pi I_\lambda \rightarrow f = \sigma T^4$$

$$* I = \frac{f}{\pi} = \frac{f}{\pi} \text{ for } R = r$$

by freq.: knowing $c = \lambda v$ $\Rightarrow \int I_\nu dv = \int I_\lambda d\lambda$

$$I_\nu dv = I_\lambda d\lambda$$

$$I_\nu = I_\lambda \frac{d\lambda}{dv}$$

$$I_\nu = \frac{2hv^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{hv/KT} - 1}$$

Balmer's lines: $\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$ $n = 3, 4, 5, \dots$

(Hydrogen)

$$R = \text{Rydberg cst.}, \frac{1}{R} = 91.18 \text{ nm}$$

Why do spectral lines exist?

ang. mom. of e⁻ around nucleus

semi-classical: $L = n\hbar = mv r$ (quantize L)

$$\Rightarrow v = \frac{n\hbar}{mr}$$

energy of e⁻ in orbit around nucleus

$$E = \frac{1}{2} mv^2 - \frac{e^2}{r}$$

force keeping e⁻ bound

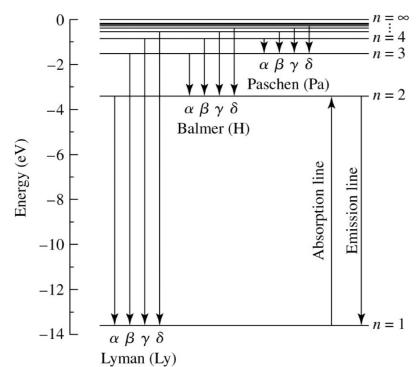
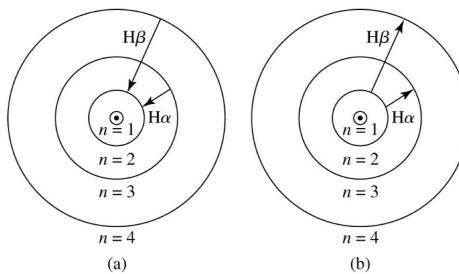
$$\frac{m}{r} \left(\frac{n\hbar}{mr} \right)^2 = \frac{e^2}{r^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow r = \frac{n^2 \hbar^2}{me^2}$$

$$E_n = \frac{-13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2} \quad \text{energy of } n^{\text{th}} \text{ shell/orbital level}$$

Energy level diagrams:

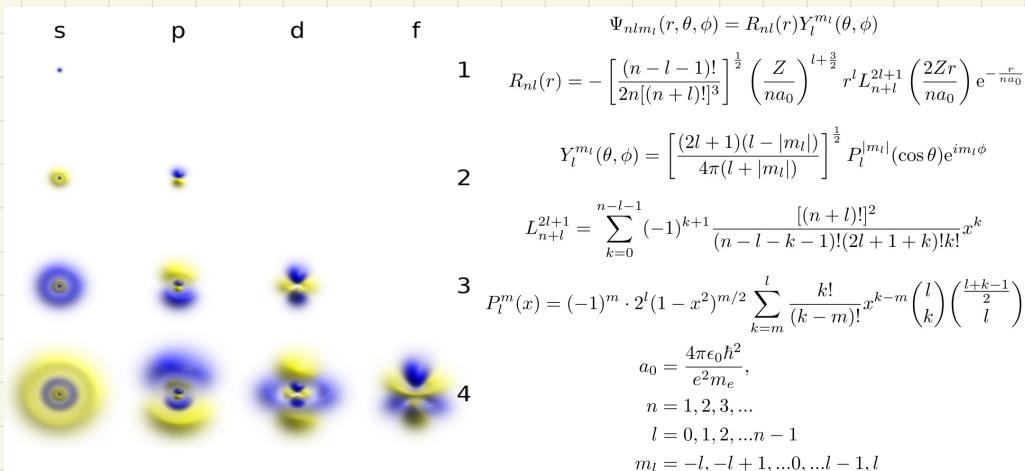
$$\Delta E = E_i - E_f = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$



General formula: $\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{m^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$

Series Name	Value of m
Lyman	1
Balmer	2
Paschen	3
Brackett	4

Quantum:



Stellar spectra:

Observed spectral lines → composition of gas (fingerprint)
 Excitation ⇒ lines
 Ionization ⇒ Opacity

THERMO

- **Thermodynamic temperature:** If two thermo systems are both in thermal equilibrium with a 3rd system, then the two systems are in thermal equilibrium with each other
 - Any physical quantity that changes with the application of heat can be used to measure temperature

only thing that can change in thermal equil.

Kinetic temperature: the temperature of a gas is a measure of the mean kinetic energy of the gas
higher temp. = greater motion

Collisions can result in transfer from thermal (kinetic) energy to orbital (electron) energy

Average thermal energy of particles : $E = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$

$$\text{Average thermal velocity: } E = \frac{3}{2} k_B T = \frac{1}{2} m V_{\text{avg}}^2$$

(per particle)

$$\Rightarrow V_{avg} = \sqrt{\frac{3K_B T}{m}}$$

• **Atomic excitation:** In Local Thermodynamic Equilibrium, this corresponds to the classical Boltzmann distribution

The probability of finding an atom with an electron in an excited state with energy E_n above the ground state is st .

- it \downarrow exponentially with E_n
 - it \uparrow exponentially with temp. T_K

$$\frac{n_j}{n_i} = \frac{q_i}{q_j} e^{-(E_j - E_i)/k_B T}$$

$i, j \Rightarrow$ upper & lower energy states ; $g_i, g_j \Rightarrow$ num. of degeneracies
in each level

eq. H1 has $g_n = 2n^2$

- **Atomic ionization:** In LTE, ionization is dominated by collisions

ionization rate = recombination rate (equilibrium)

$$n_e \frac{N(X_{r+1})}{N(X_r)} = 2 \frac{Q_{r+1}}{Q_r} \left(\frac{2\pi m_e k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{-x_i/k_B T}$$

↓ e⁻ mass
 ↓ X = E_{r+1} - E_r
 ↓ energy diff between lvs

e⁻ density density of species X_r in ionized state r partition fnxn of state i

$$\text{Ex: } ① \frac{n_2}{n_1} = \frac{g_2}{g_1} e^{-10.2/KT} \xrightarrow{\text{E Balmer}}$$

$$\hookrightarrow g_1 = 2(1)^2, g_2 = 2(2)^2$$

$$= \frac{2(2)^2}{2(1)^2} e^{-10.2/KT}$$

$$\textcircled{2} Q_{II} = 1 \quad \& \quad Q_I = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g_n e^{-(E_f - E_i)/KT}$$

$$= 2(1)^2 e^{-13.6(1^2-1)/KT} + 2(2)^2 e^{-13.6(1^2-2^2)/KT} + \dots$$

$$= 2$$

$$\text{so } \frac{P}{KT} \frac{N_{II}}{N_I} = \frac{2}{2} \left(\dots \right)^{3/2} e^{-13.6/KT}$$

\uparrow looking for this

Doppler shift: allows us to calculate radial velocities (along line of sight)

$$\frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{rest}}}{\lambda_{\text{rest}}} = \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_{\text{rest}}} = \frac{v_r}{c}$$

TELESCOPES

Chapter 2 : NATURE OF STARS

Chapter 3: INTERSTELLAR MEDIUM & STAR FORMATION

INTERSTELLAR DUST

• **Interstellar medium:** ISM, gas & dust between stars. During a star's lifetime, much of the material may be returned to the ISM through stellar winds & explosive events