

Chapter 9: Measuring the Stars

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AST 1002

Spring 2018

Astronomy vs. Cosmology

Dictionary

as·tron·o·my

/ə'stränəmē/ 

noun

the branch of science that deals with celestial objects, space, and the physical universe as a whole.

 **Study of everything in the Universe**

Dictionary

cos·mol·o·gy

/käz'mäləjē/ 

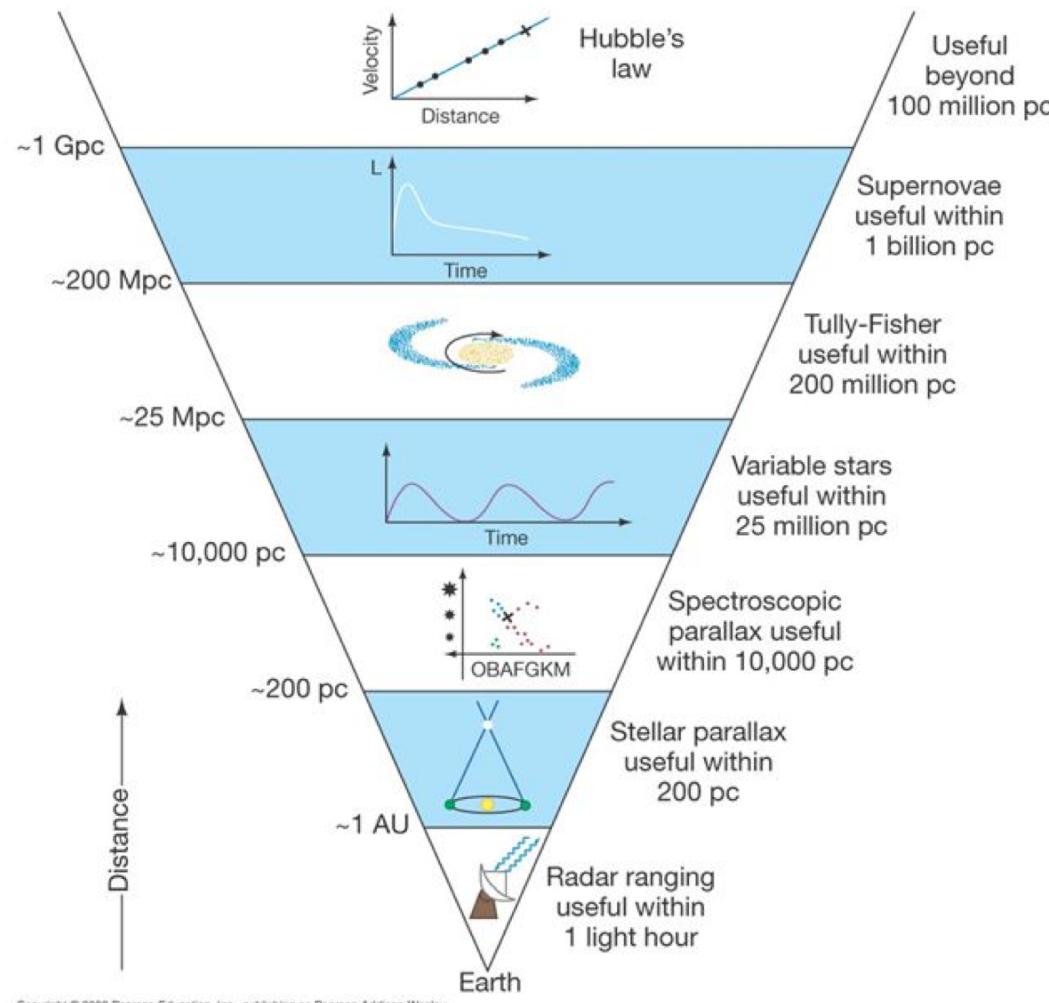
noun

the science of the origin and development of the universe. Modern astronomy is dominated by the Big Bang theory, which brings together observational astronomy and particle physics.

- an account or theory of the origin of the universe.
plural noun: **cosmologies**

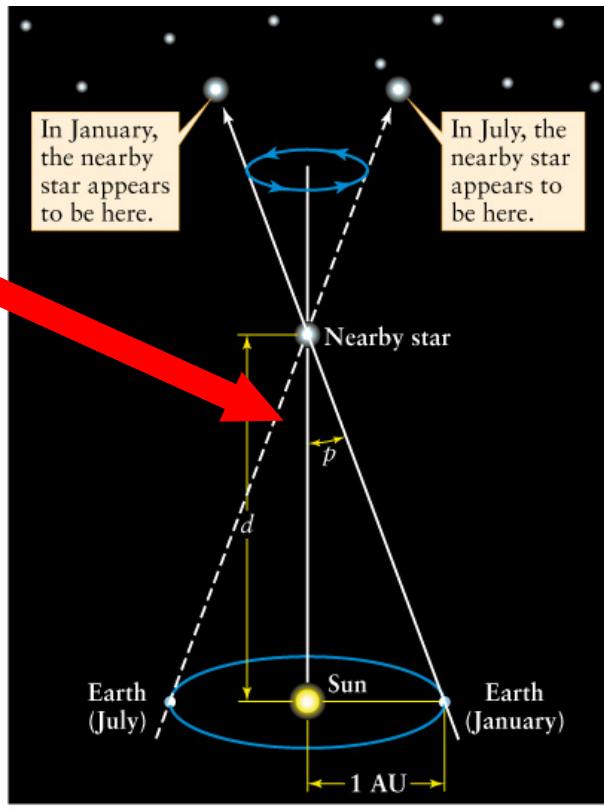
Study of large scale structure of the Universe 

Cosmic Distance Ladder



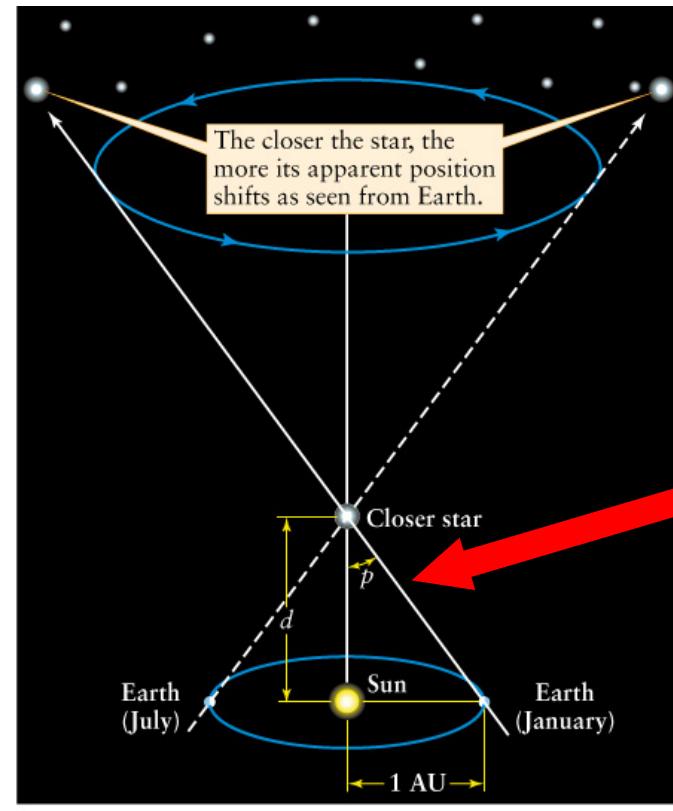
Stellar Parallax

**Smaller parallax
→ larger distance**



(a) Parallax of a nearby star

**Larger parallax
→ smaller distance**



(b) Parallax of an even closer star

Stellar Parallax Calculations

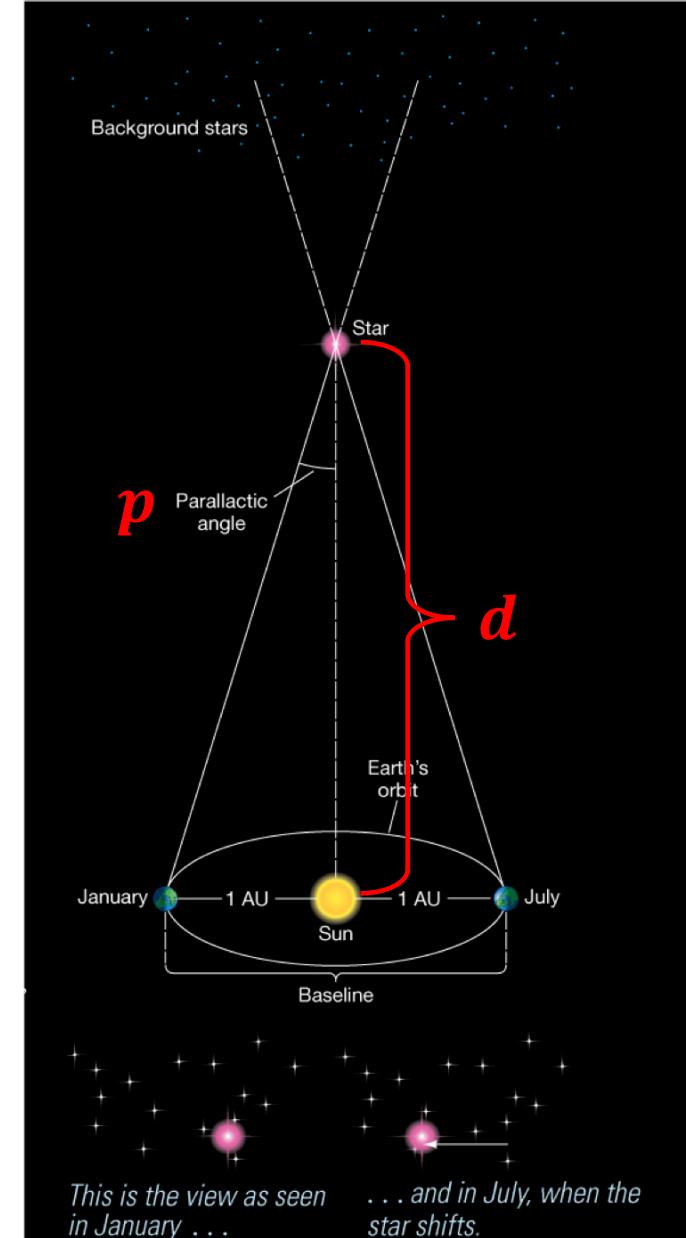
$$d = \frac{1}{p}$$

Distance in parsecs (pc)

Angle in arcseconds (")

$$1 \text{ pc} = 3.26 \text{ ly}$$

Same order of magnitude!

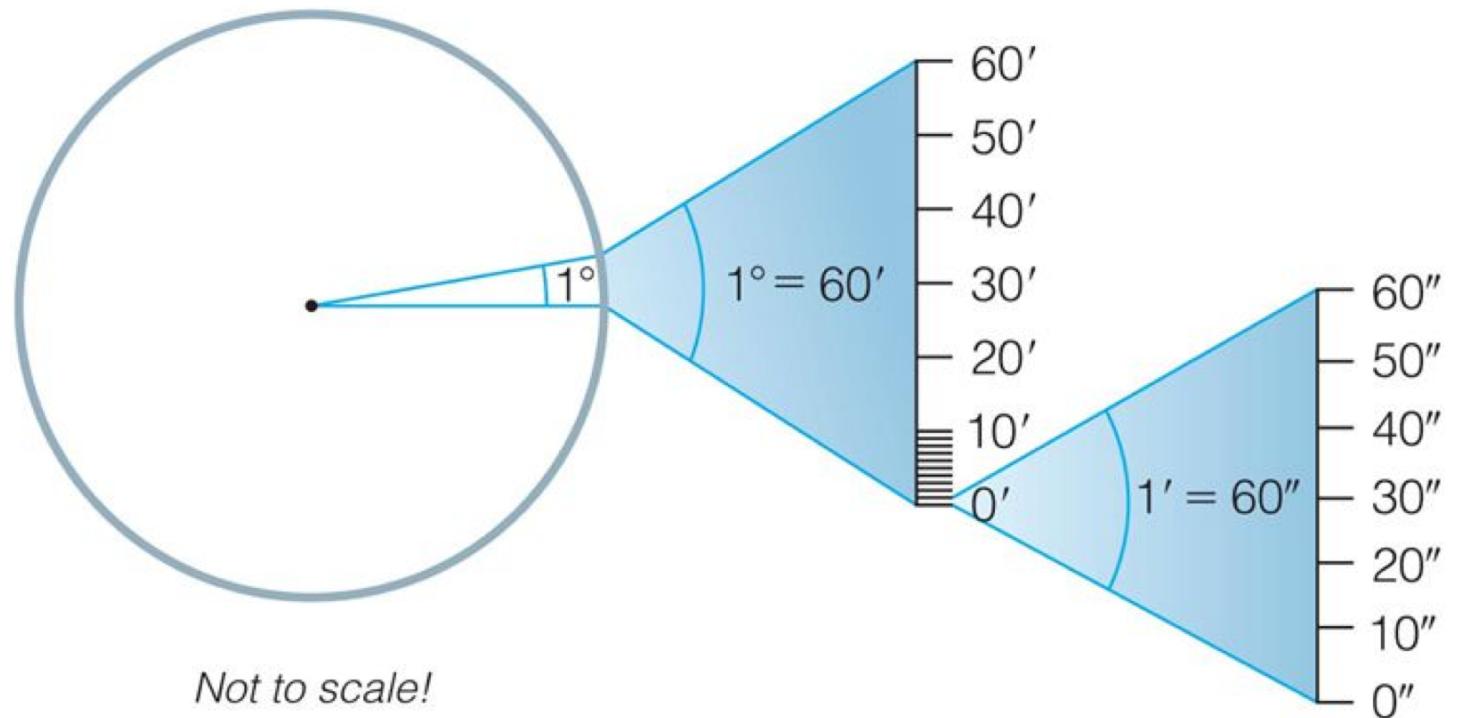


Arcminutes and Arcseconds

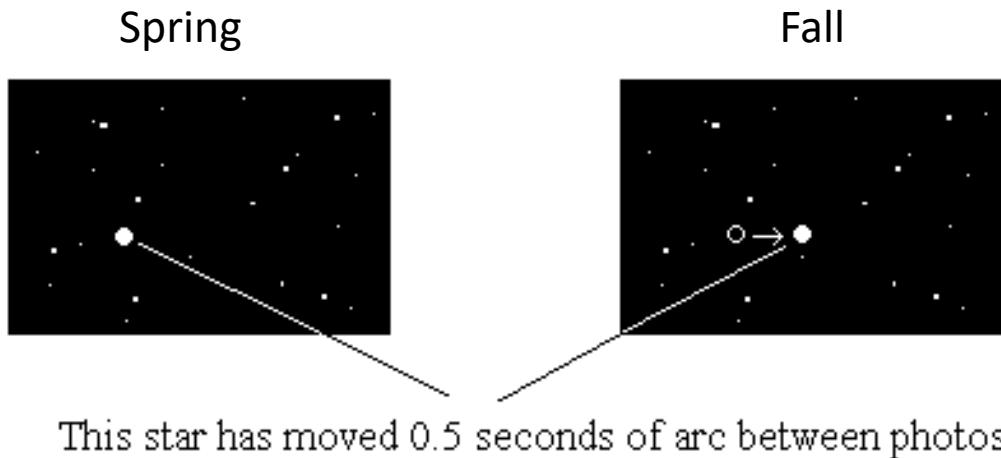
$$1 \text{ circle} = 360^\circ$$

$$1^\circ = 60'$$

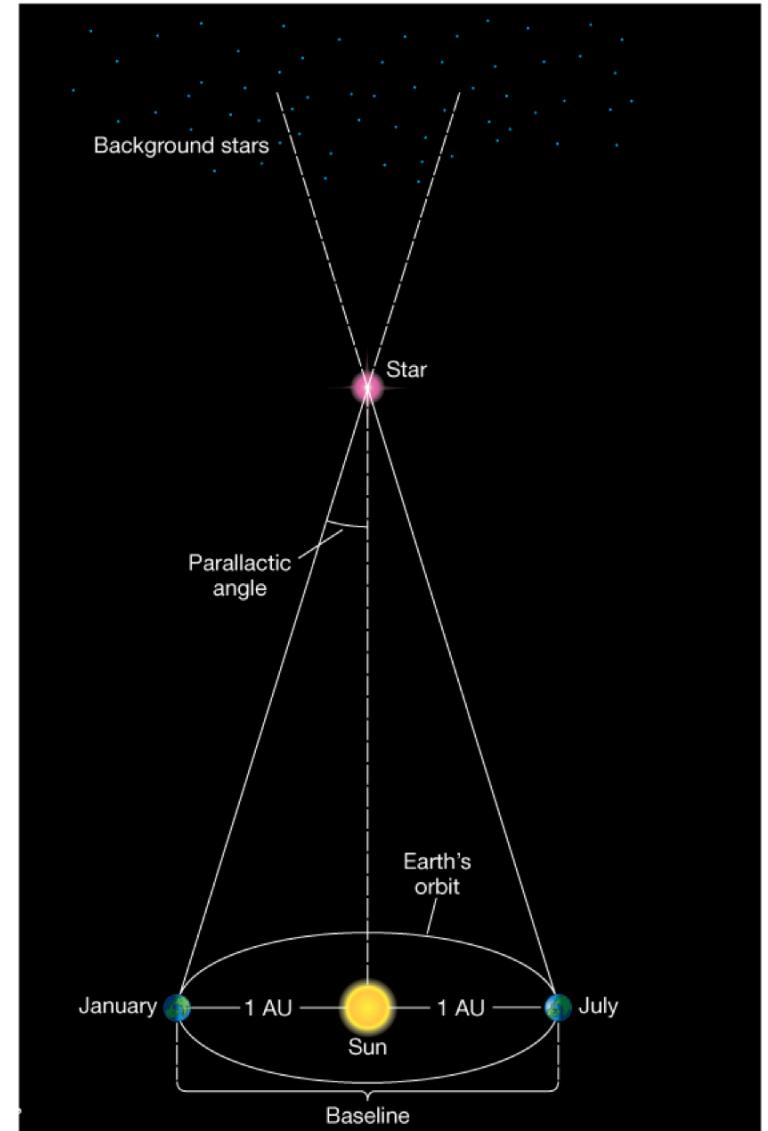
$$1' = 60''$$



Measuring Parallax



$$d = \frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{0.25''} = 4\text{pc}$$



Limits of Parallax

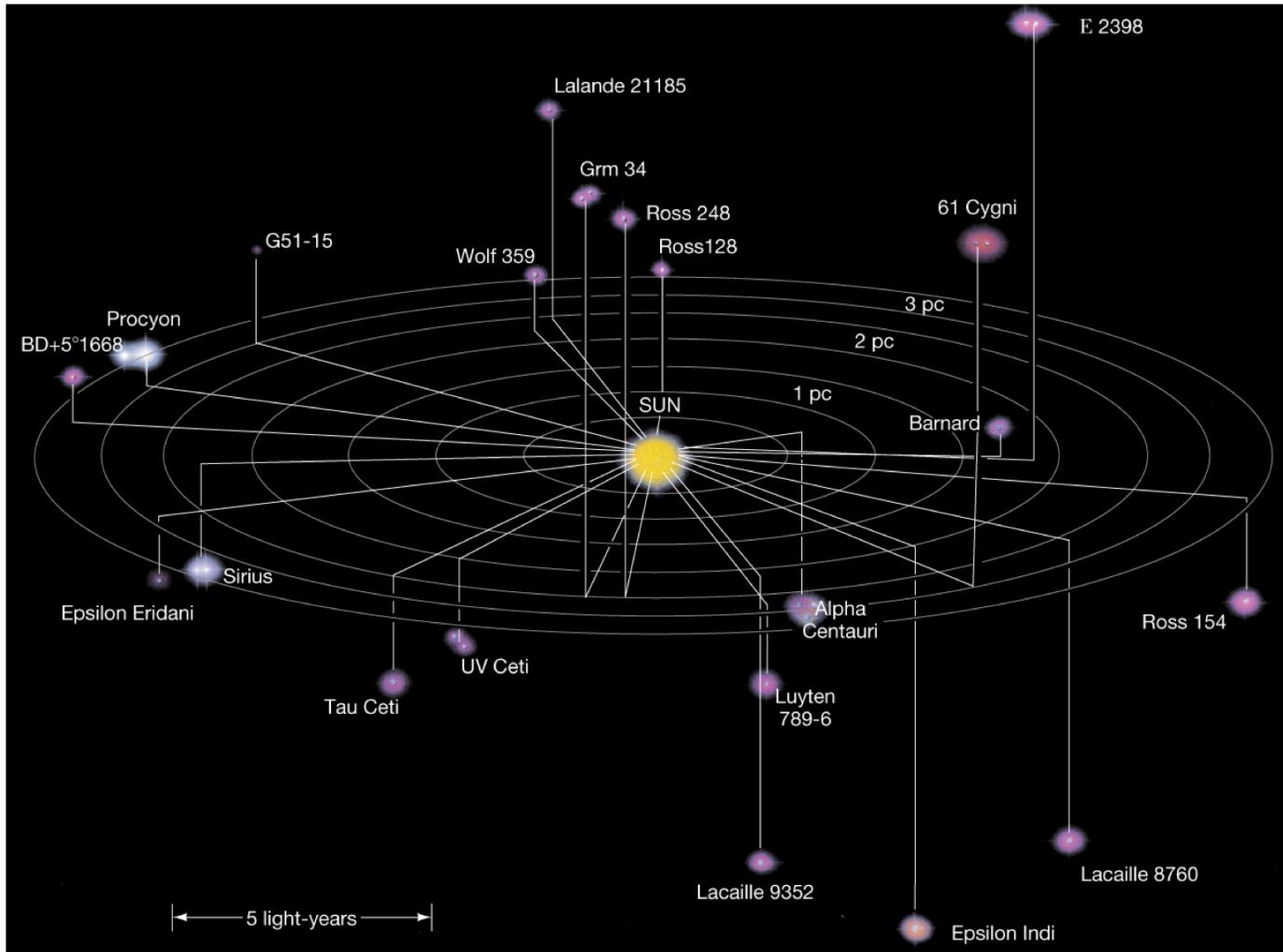
Angles smaller than $0.01''$ are hard to measure from Earth

$$d_{\max} = \frac{1}{0.01''} = 100\text{pc}$$

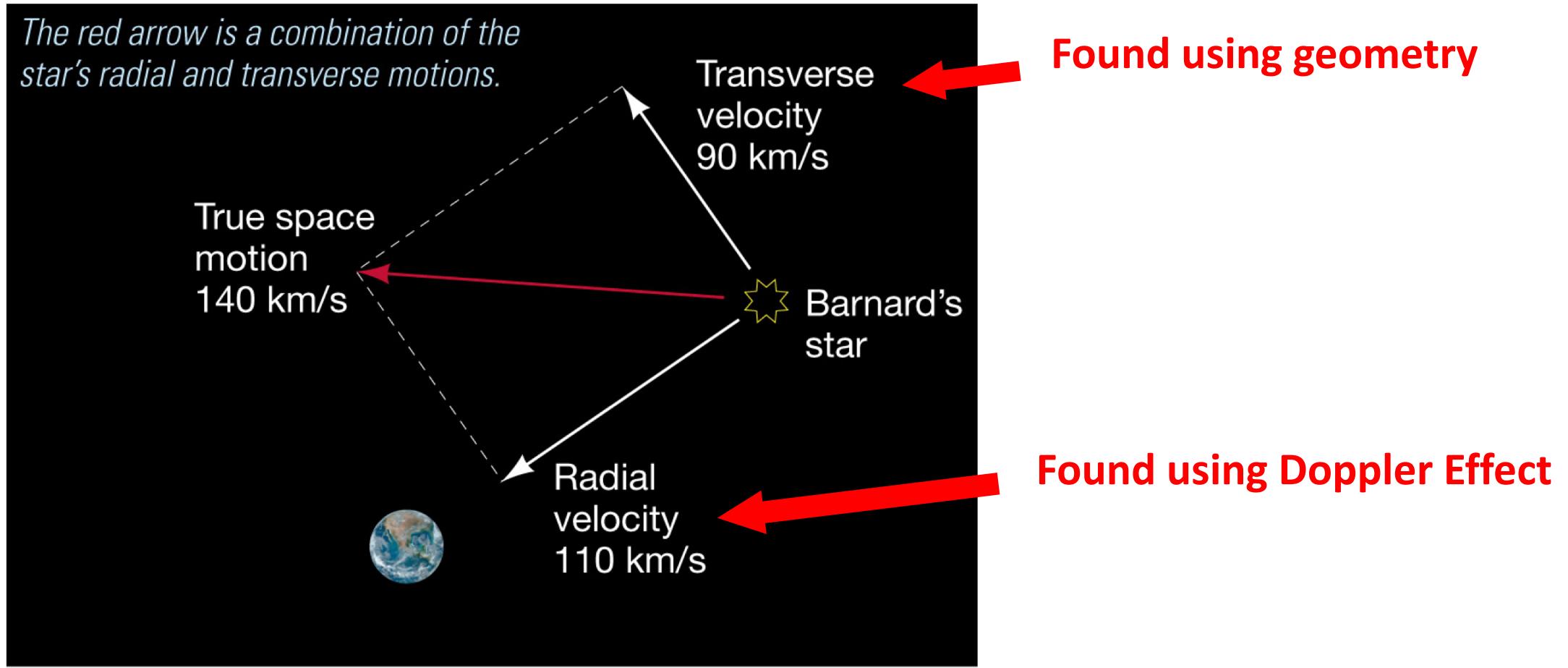
Angles smaller than $0.001''$ are hard to measure from Space

$$d_{\max} = \frac{1}{0.001''} = 1000\text{pc}$$

Nearest Neighbors



Motion of Stars



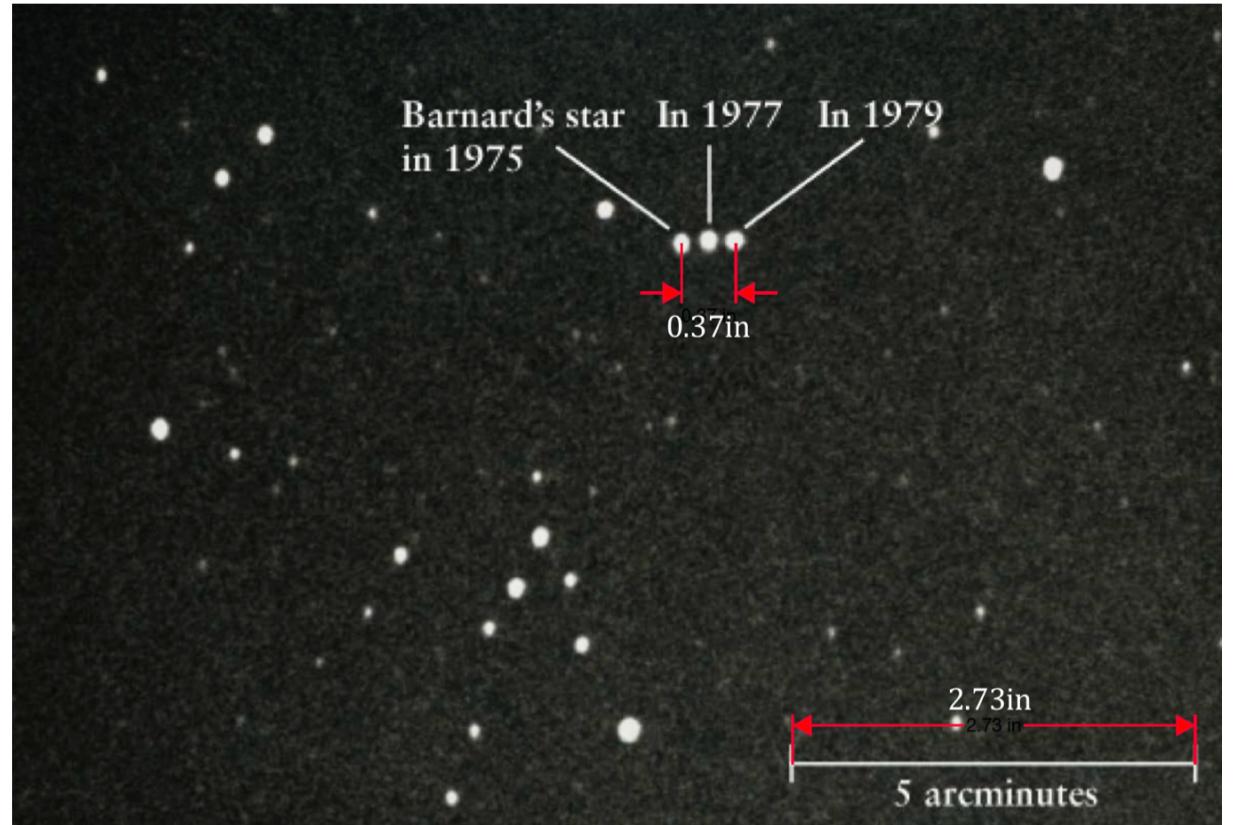
Translational Motion

Distance traveled (arcsec/year)

$$v_t = 4.74\mu d$$

Transverse velocity (km/s)

Distance to star (pc)



Radial Motion

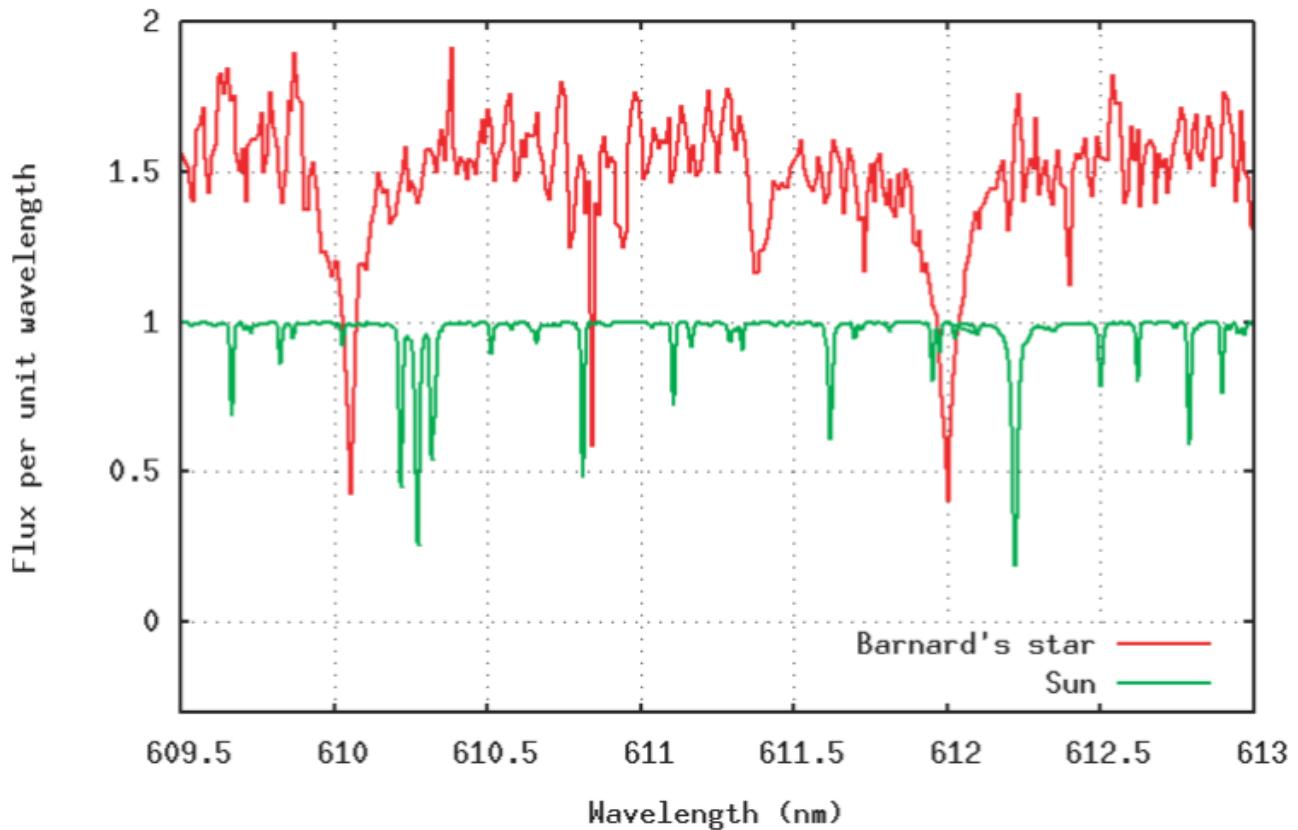
Shifted wavelength

$$\frac{\lambda}{\lambda_0} - 1 = \frac{v_r}{c}$$

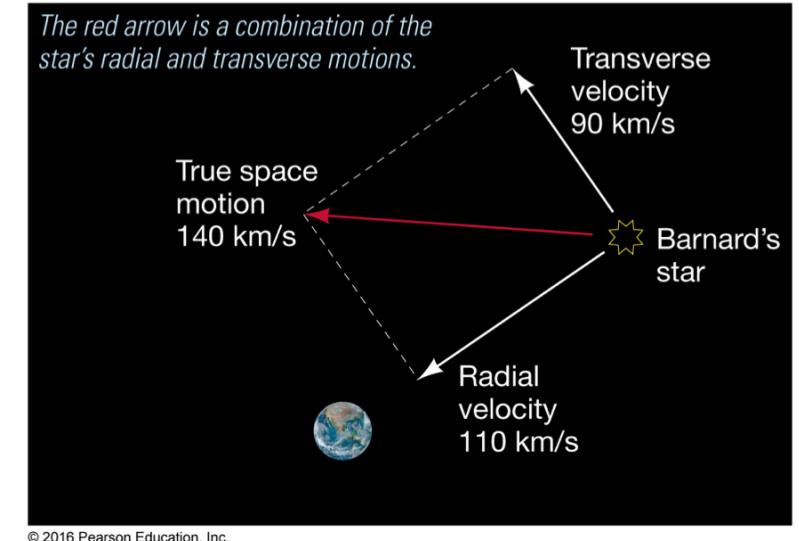
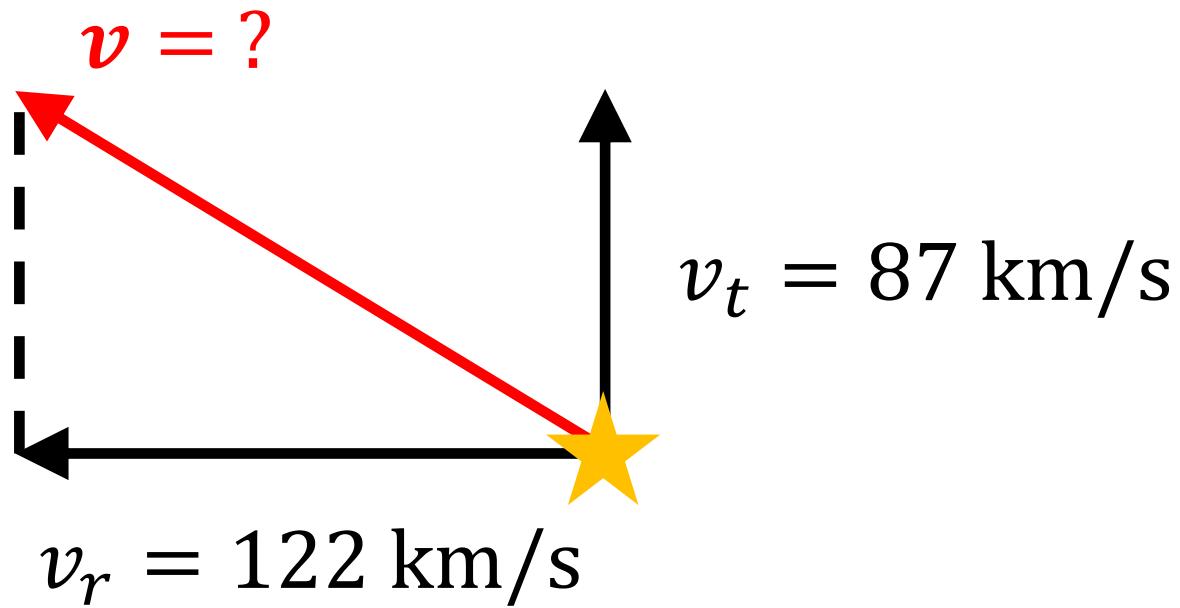
Proper wavelength

Figure 1: Barnard Star and Sun's Spectrum

A tiny portion of the red spectrum



Total Motion

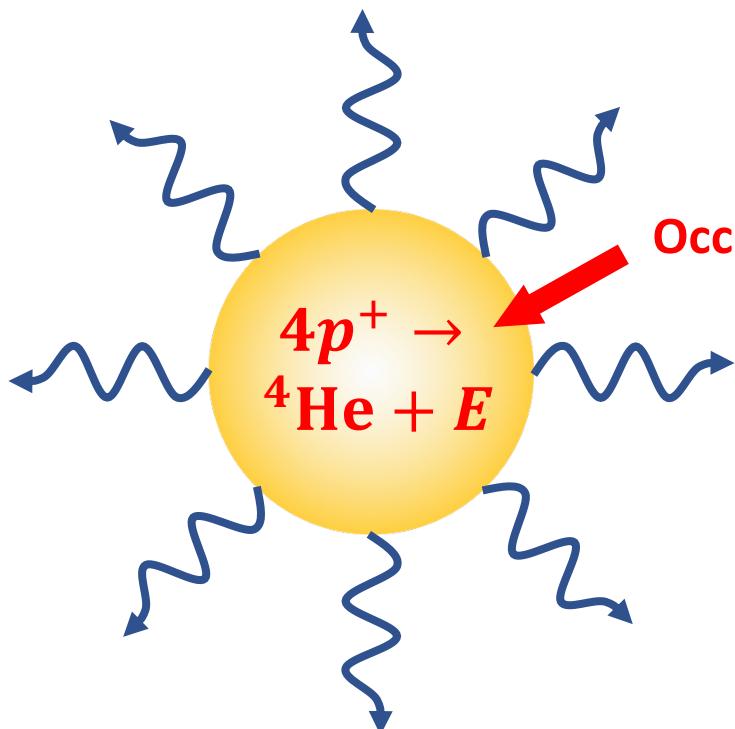


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Luminosity

Brightness is what we call **Luminosity, L**

- It's the amount of energy released per second (Watts, W)
- It's an **inherent quantity** of a star



Occurs 9.58×10^{37} times every second

$$L_{\odot} = 3.828 \times 10^{26} \text{ W}$$

↑
○ = Sun

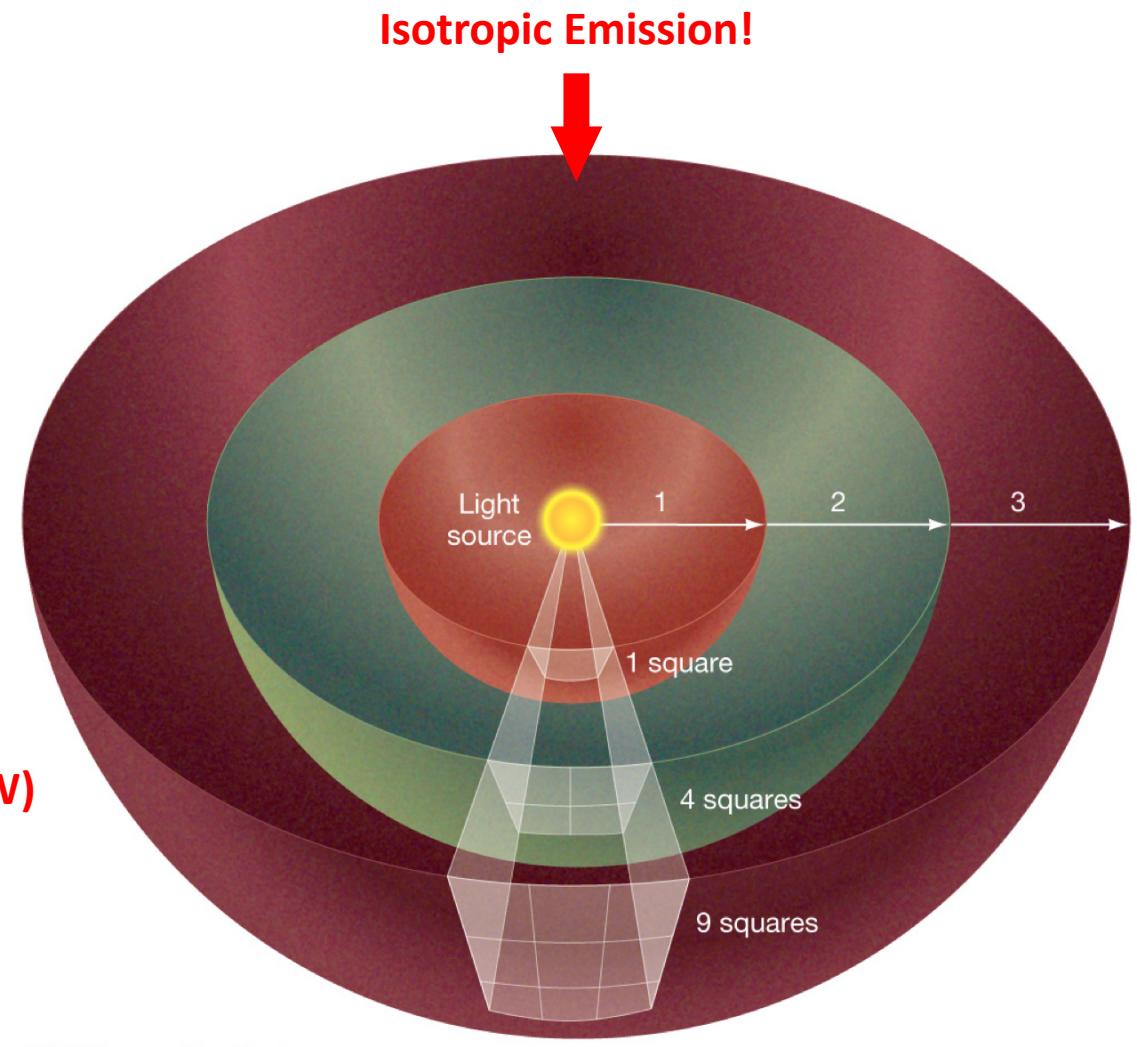
Flux

We don't measure the brightness of a star, but it's **apparent brightness**

- This is known as **Flux**, F (W/m^2)
- Flux measures how the luminosity spreads out over a sphere for isotropic emission

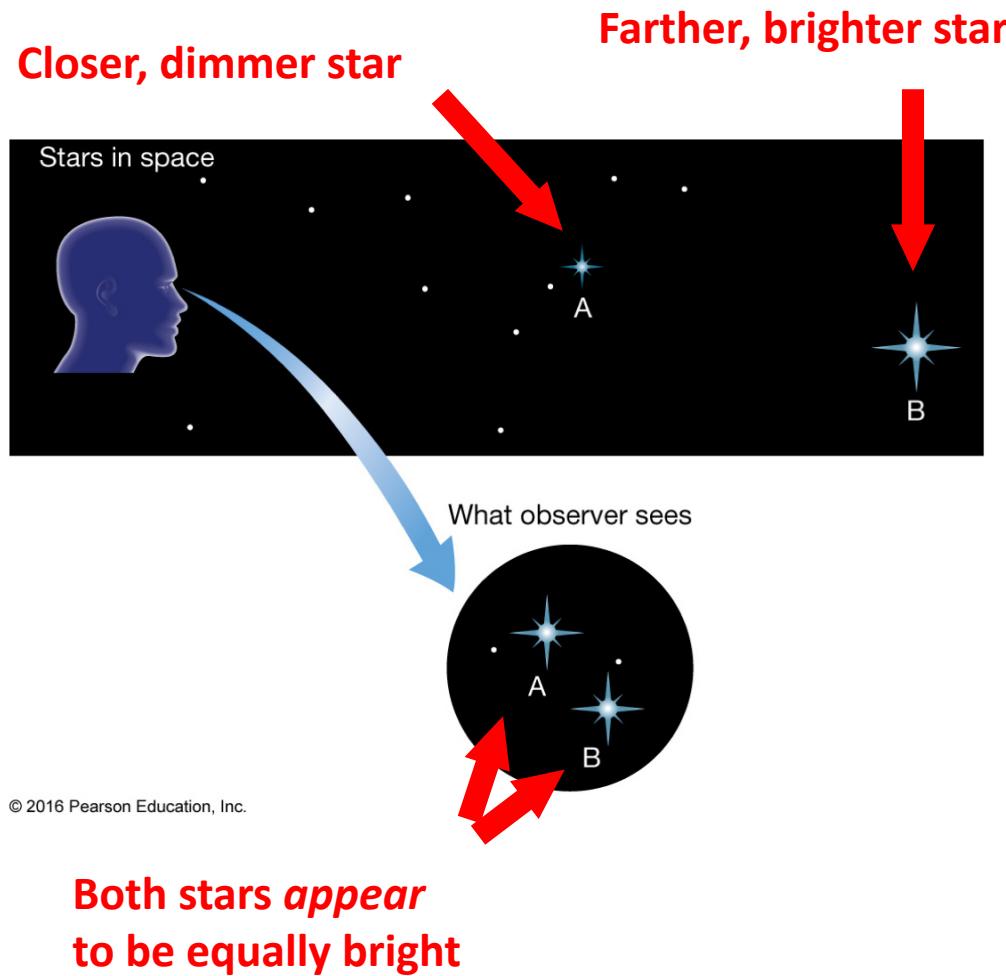
$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$$

Flux (W/m^2) Luminosity (W) Surface area of sphere (m^2)

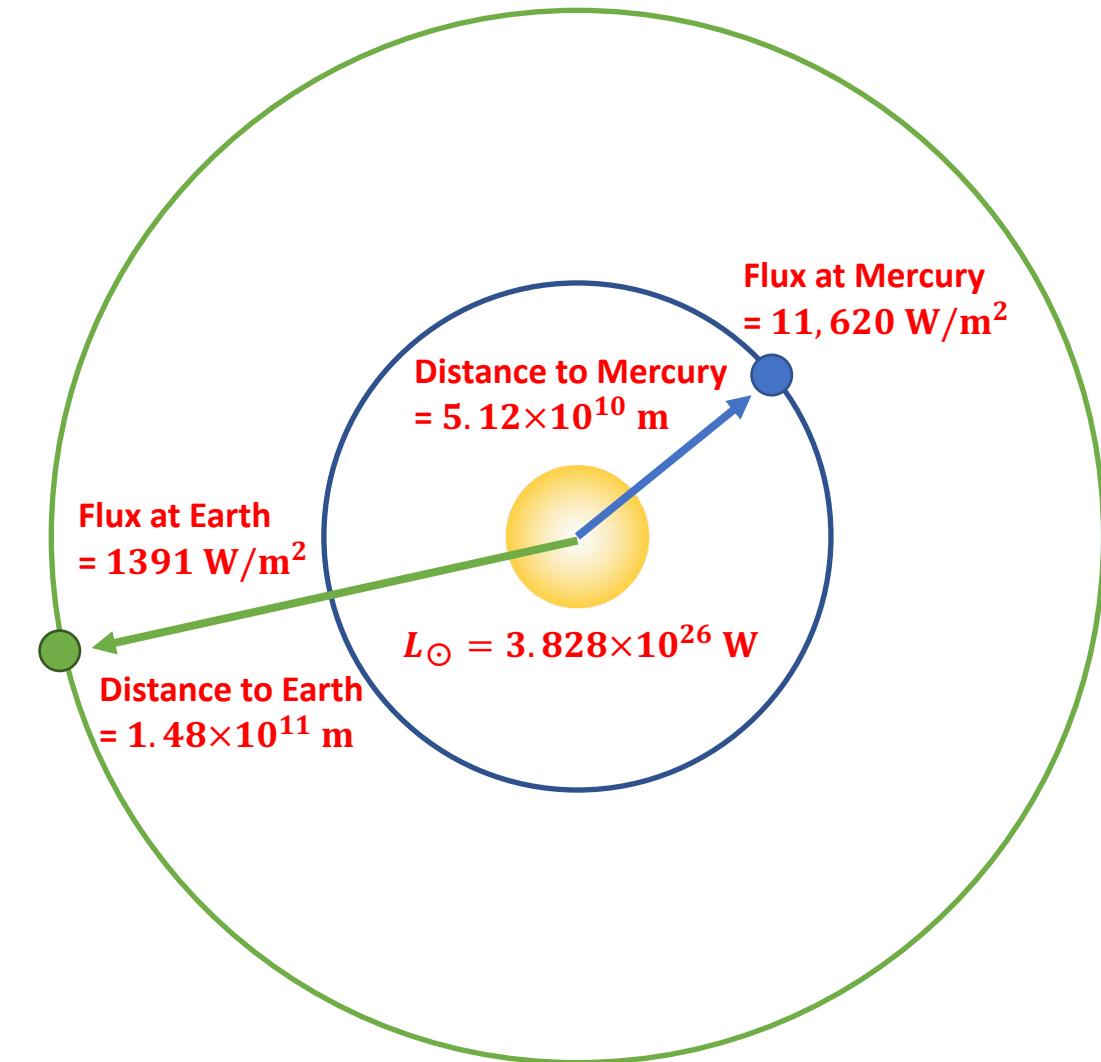


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Flux and Distance



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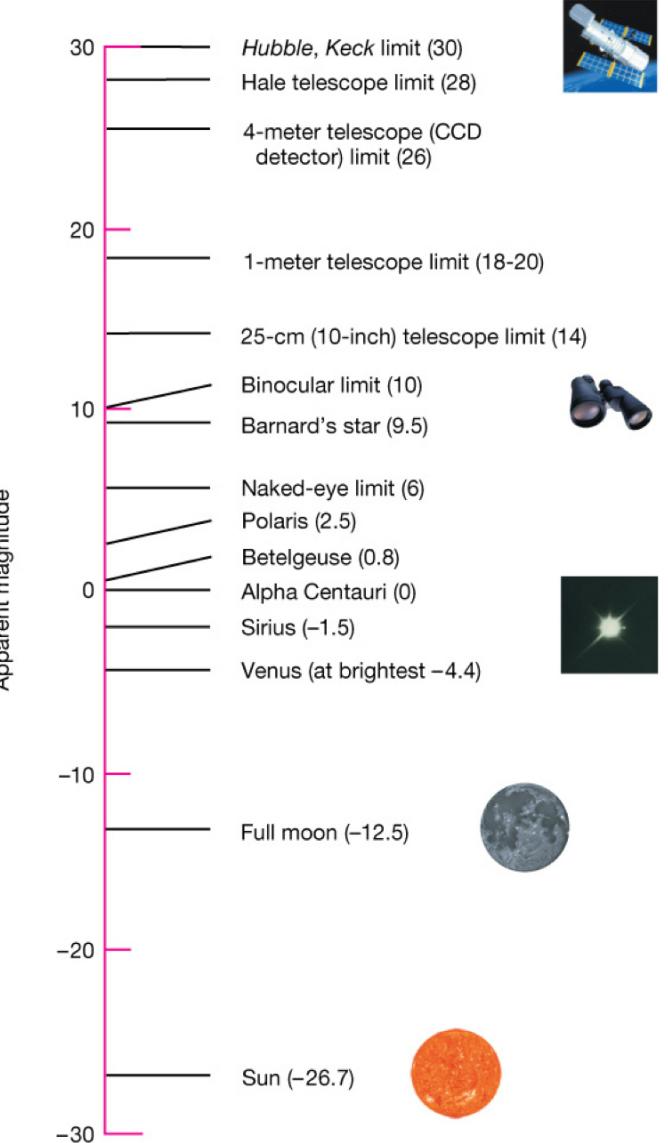
Magnitude (of Brightness)

A common way to measure brightness is not in terms of luminosity or flux, but in terms of **magnitude** (of brightness)

- The **absolute magnitude (M)** replaces luminosity
- The **apparent magnitude (m)** replaces flux

Magnitude runs “in reverse” – the larger the magnitude, the dimmer the object is.

- 0 is the magnitude of Vega
- 6 is the dimmest object the human eye can see
- Negative magnitude are objects brighter than Vega
- The Sun is the brightest object in the sky at -26.7



Brighter objects have smaller apparent magnitudes.

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Converting Brightnesses

$$M = m - 5 \log d + 5$$

Apparent magnitude  

Absolute magnitude  Distance to star (in pc) 

Absolute magnitude 

$$L = 2.51^{4.83-M}$$

Luminosity (in L_{\odot}) 

Example: Sirius

$$m = -1.46$$

$$d = 2.64 \text{ pc}$$

$$\begin{aligned}M &= (-1.46) - 5 \log(2.64) + 5 \\&= 1.43\end{aligned}$$

$$L = 2.51^{4.83-(1.43)} = 22.8L_{\odot}$$



Brightness Calculator

<http://www.1728.org/magntudj.htm>

Use apparent magnitude
(m) and distance (d)

Abbreviations used:
M = absolute magnitude L = luminosity
m = visual magnitude d = distance in light years

1) Magnitude difference TO Brightness difference
2) Brightness difference TO Magnitude difference
3) M to L 4) L to M
5) m & d 6) M & d 7) M & m 8) L & d 9) m & L
Light Years Parsecs

APPARENT MAGNITUDE= >> -1.46
DISTANCE (Parsecs)= >> 2.64

CALCULATE

ABSOLUTE MAGNITUDE= >> 1.432
LUMINOSITY= >> 22.867
***** >> *****

Use units of parsecs for
distance

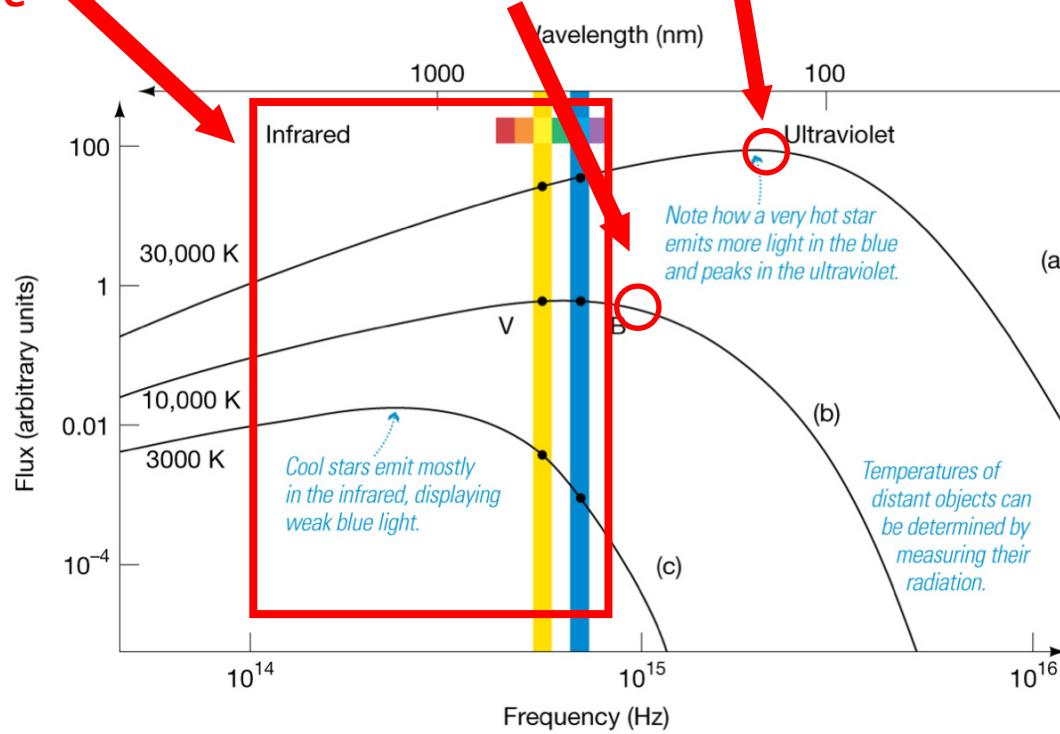
Input your apparent magnitude
(m) and distance (d)

Output absolute magnitude (M)
and luminosity (L_{\odot})

Stellar Temperature

Typical range to measure

What to do about peaks outside of this range?



Need a method that doesn't depend on entire spectrum!

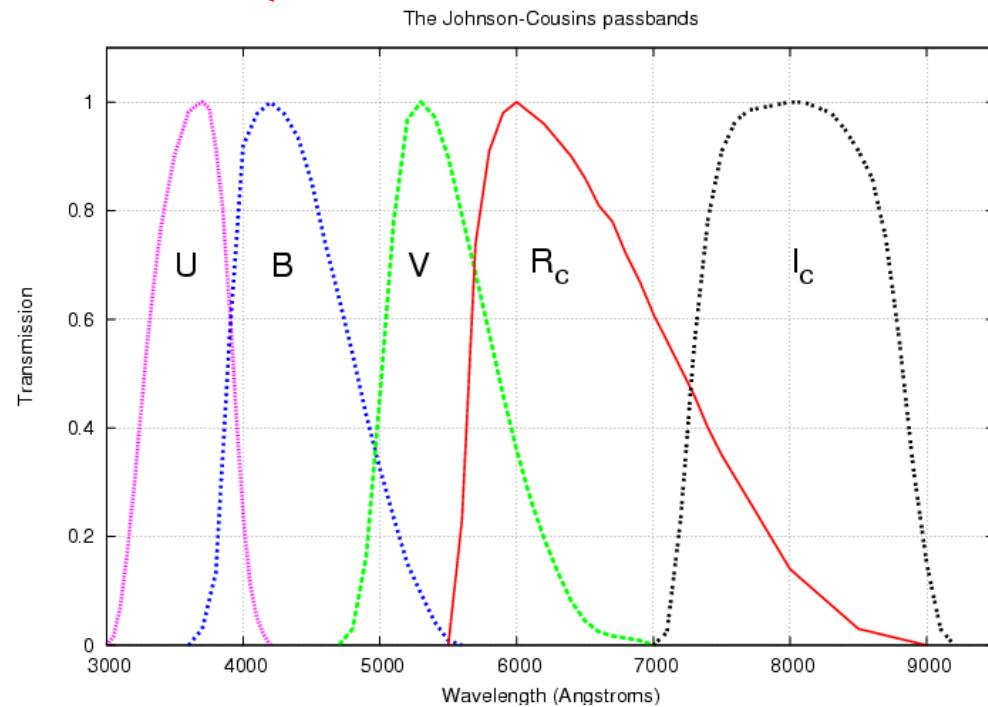
$$\text{Wein's Law: } T = \frac{b}{\lambda_{\max}}$$



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Temperature-Color Relationship

Johnson telescope filters,
UBVRI



Apparent magnitude in B

Color Index of star

$$B - V = m_B - m_V$$

Apparent magnitude in V

Temperature-Color
relationship of stars

$$T \approx \frac{9000\text{K}}{(B - V) + 0.93}$$

Works for stars with $4000\text{K} \leq T \leq 11000\text{K}$,
 $-0.1 \leq B - V \leq 1.4$

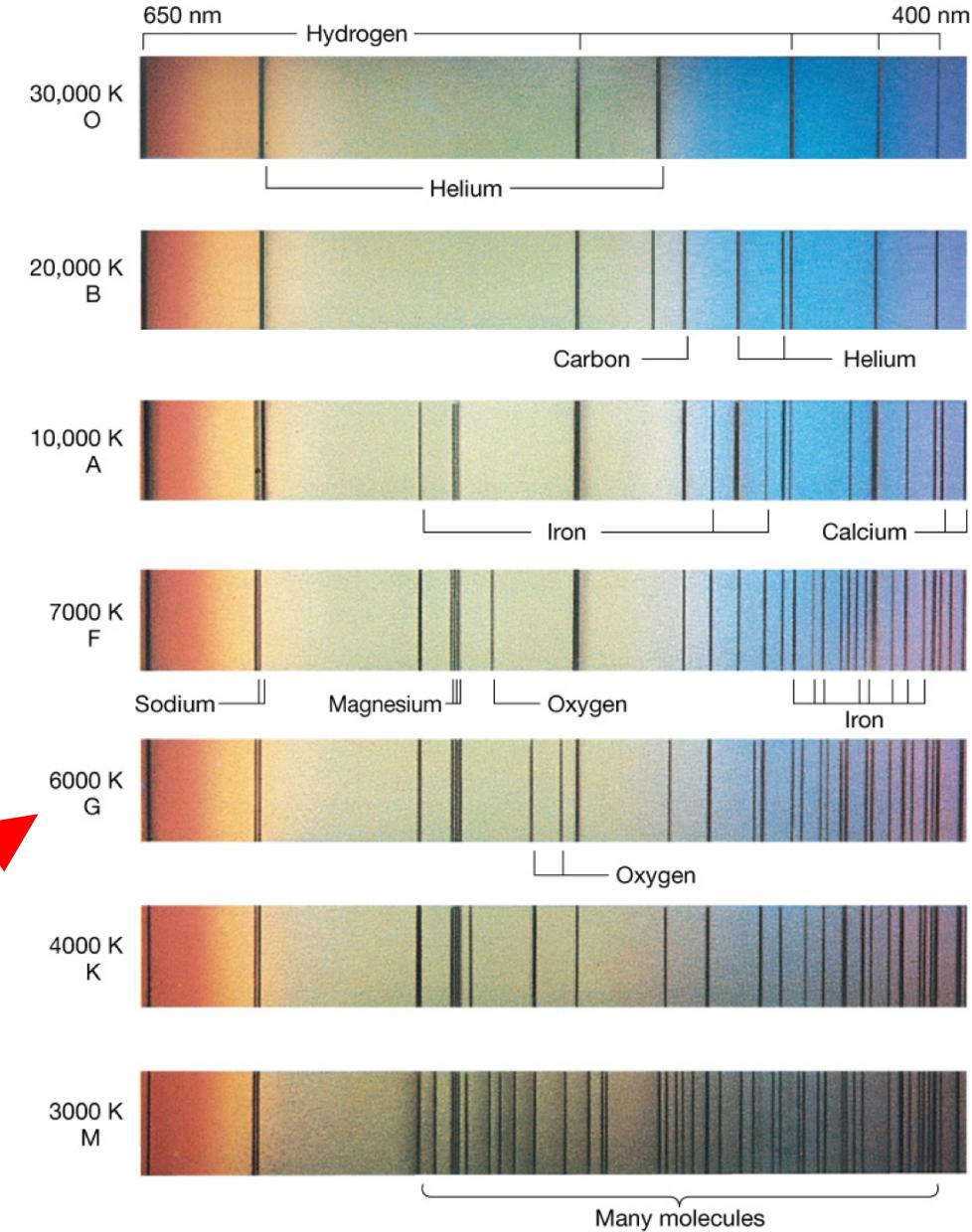
Stellar Classification

Stars are classified by their **emission spectra**, which varies with temperature. The common classification system is the **Harvard system**.

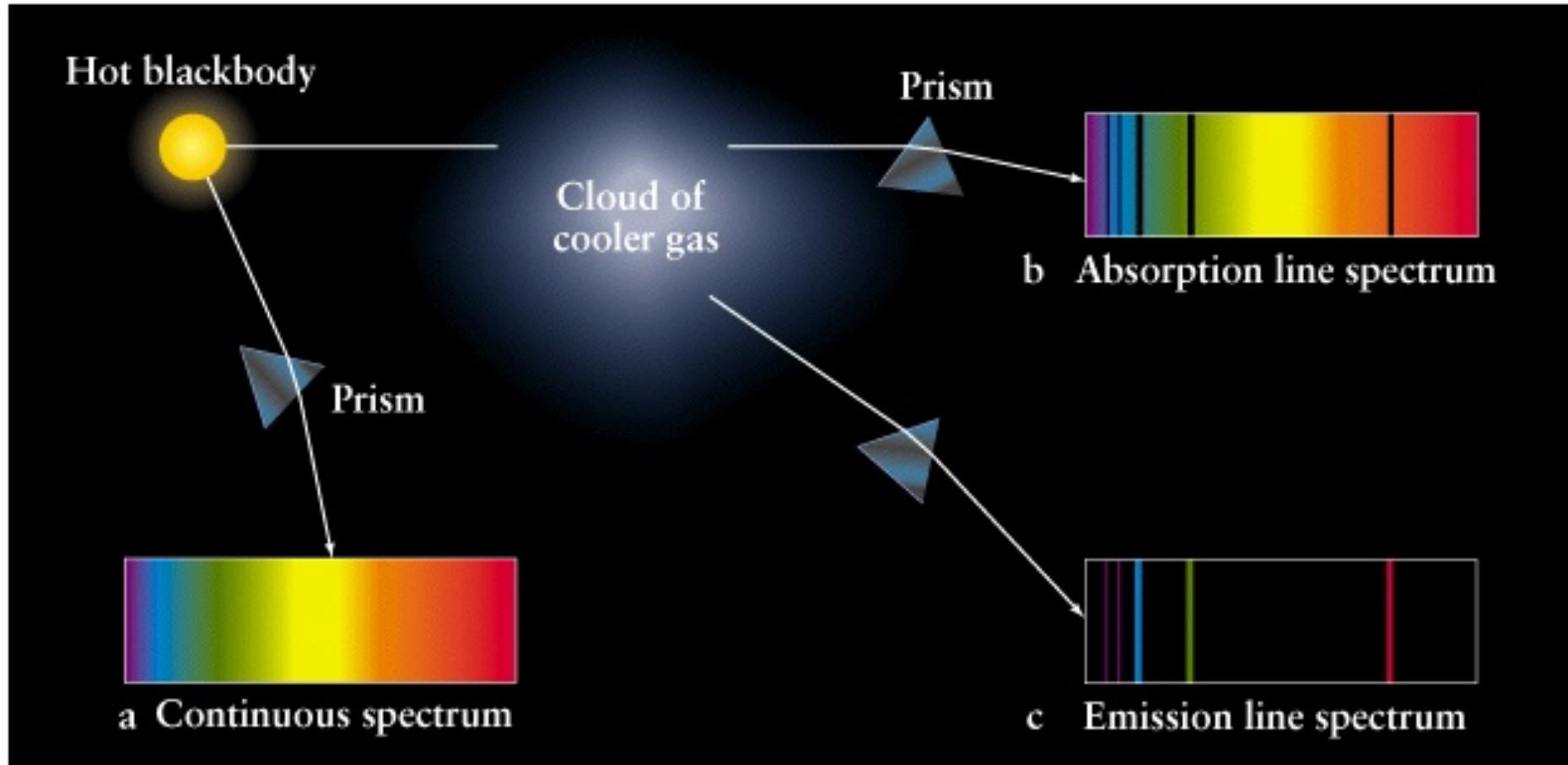
From **hottest-to-coldest**, the classes are:

- O (Oh)
- B (Be)
- A (A)
- F (Fine)
- G (Guy/Girl) ←
- K (and Kiss)
- M (Me)

Sun in a G-type star,
with $T = 5800$ K

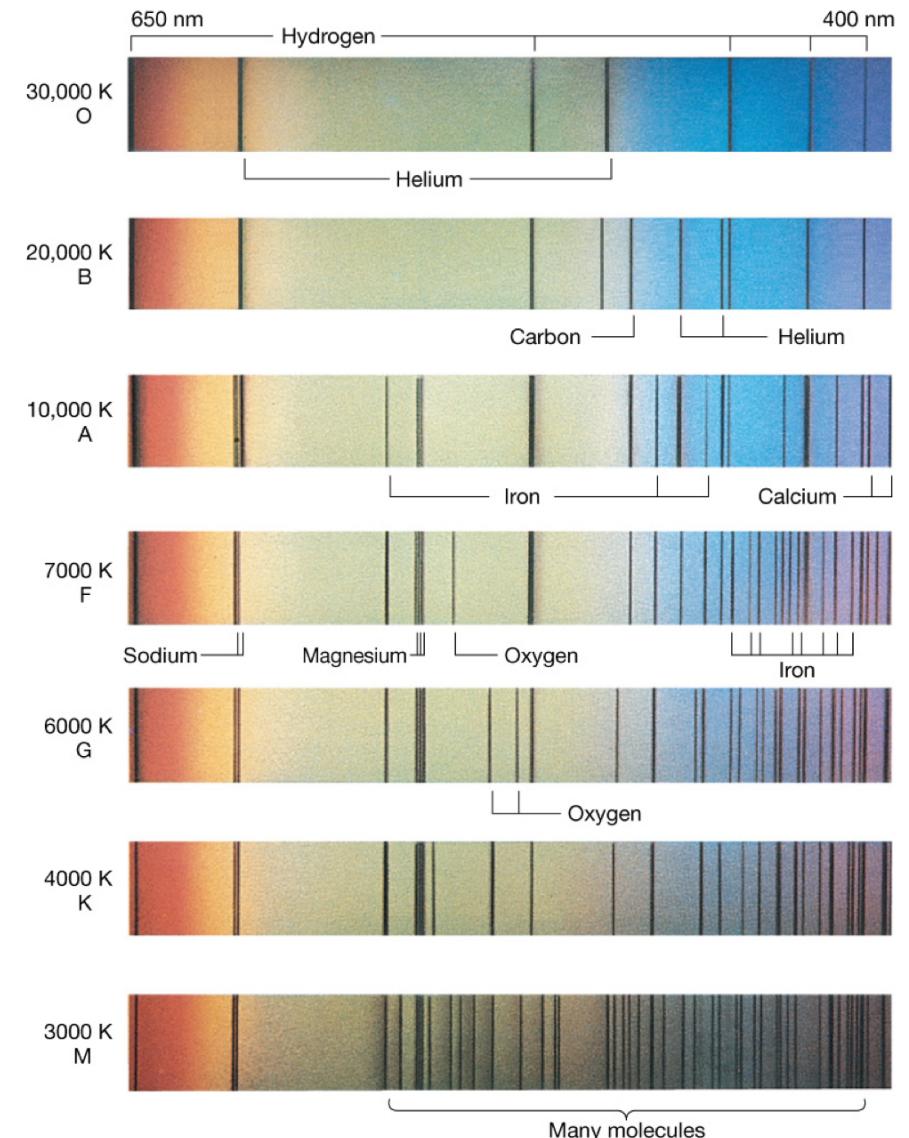


Reminder: Emission vs. Absorption Spectra



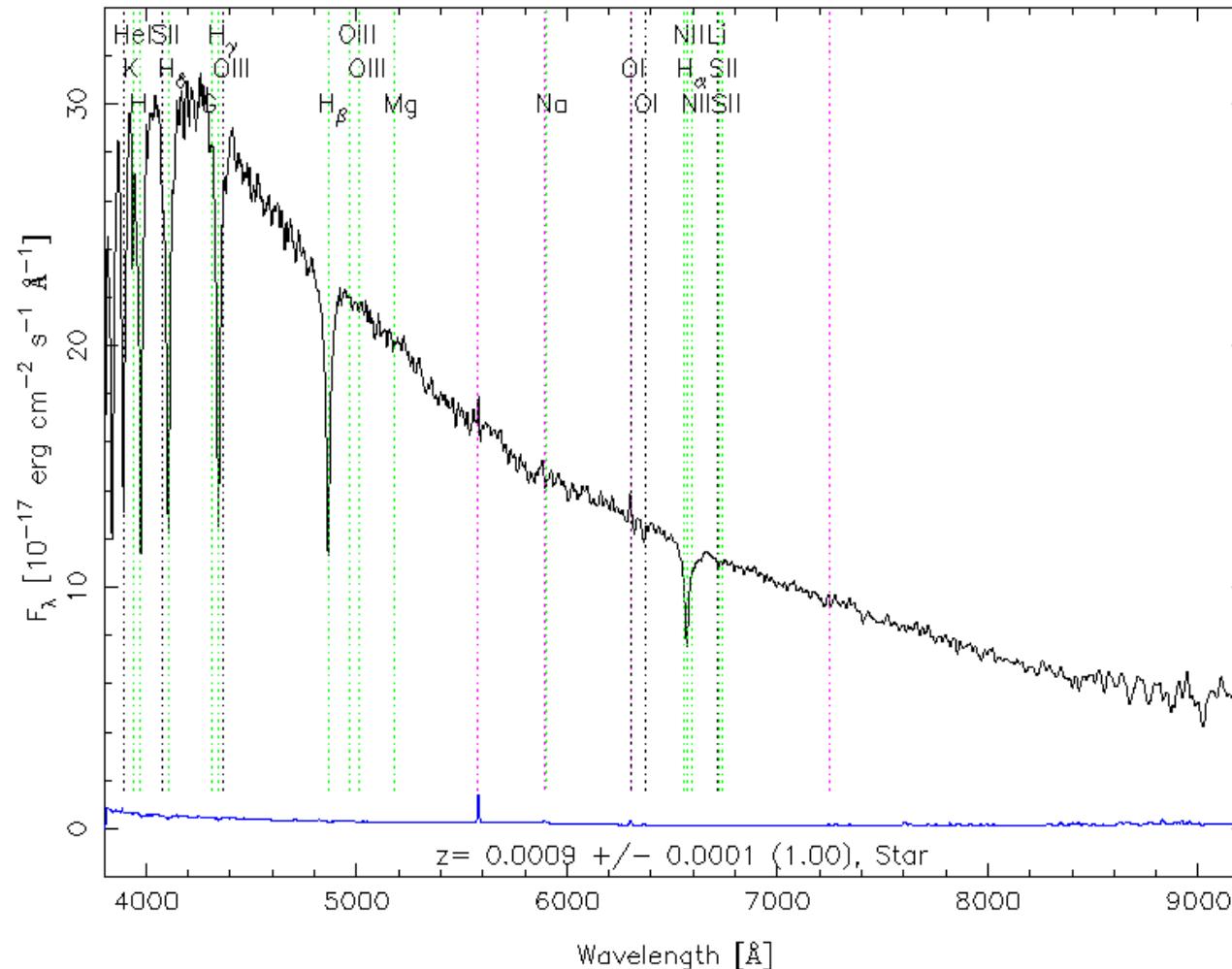
Spectral Class Characteristics

Spectral Type	Temperature (Kelvin)	Spectral Lines
O	28,000 - 50,000	Ionized helium
B	10,000 - 28,000	Helium, some hydrogen
A	7500 - 10,000	Strong hydrogen, some ionized metals
F	6000 - 7500	Hydrogen, ionized calcium (labeled H and K on spectra) and iron
G	5000 - 6000	Neutral and ionized metals, especially calcium; strong G band
K	3500 - 5000	Neutral metals, sodium
M	2500 - 3500	Strong titanium oxide, very strong sodium



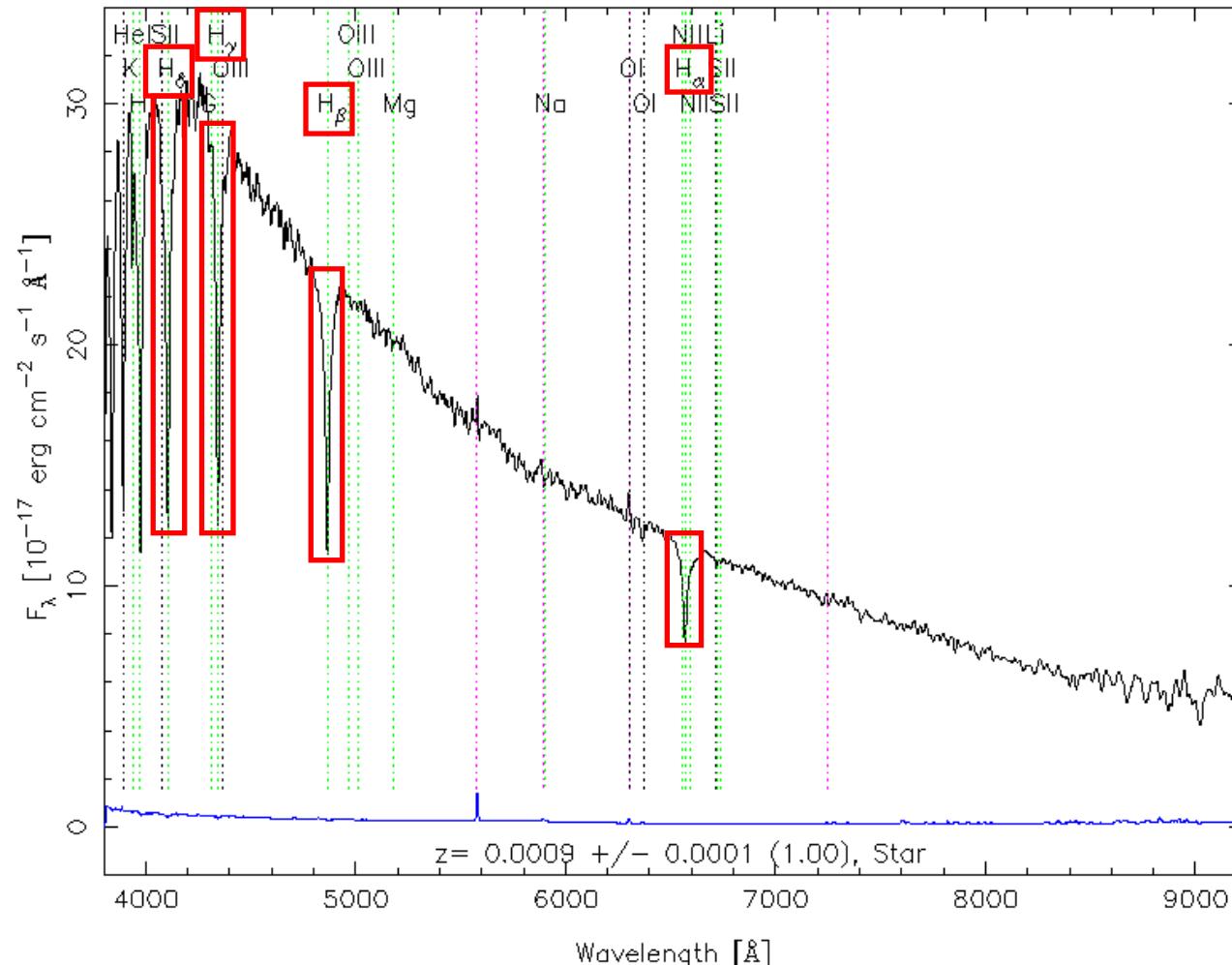
Example 1: Spectrum of Unknown Star

RA=146.91375, DEC=-0.64448, MJD=51630, Plate= 266, Fiber= 15



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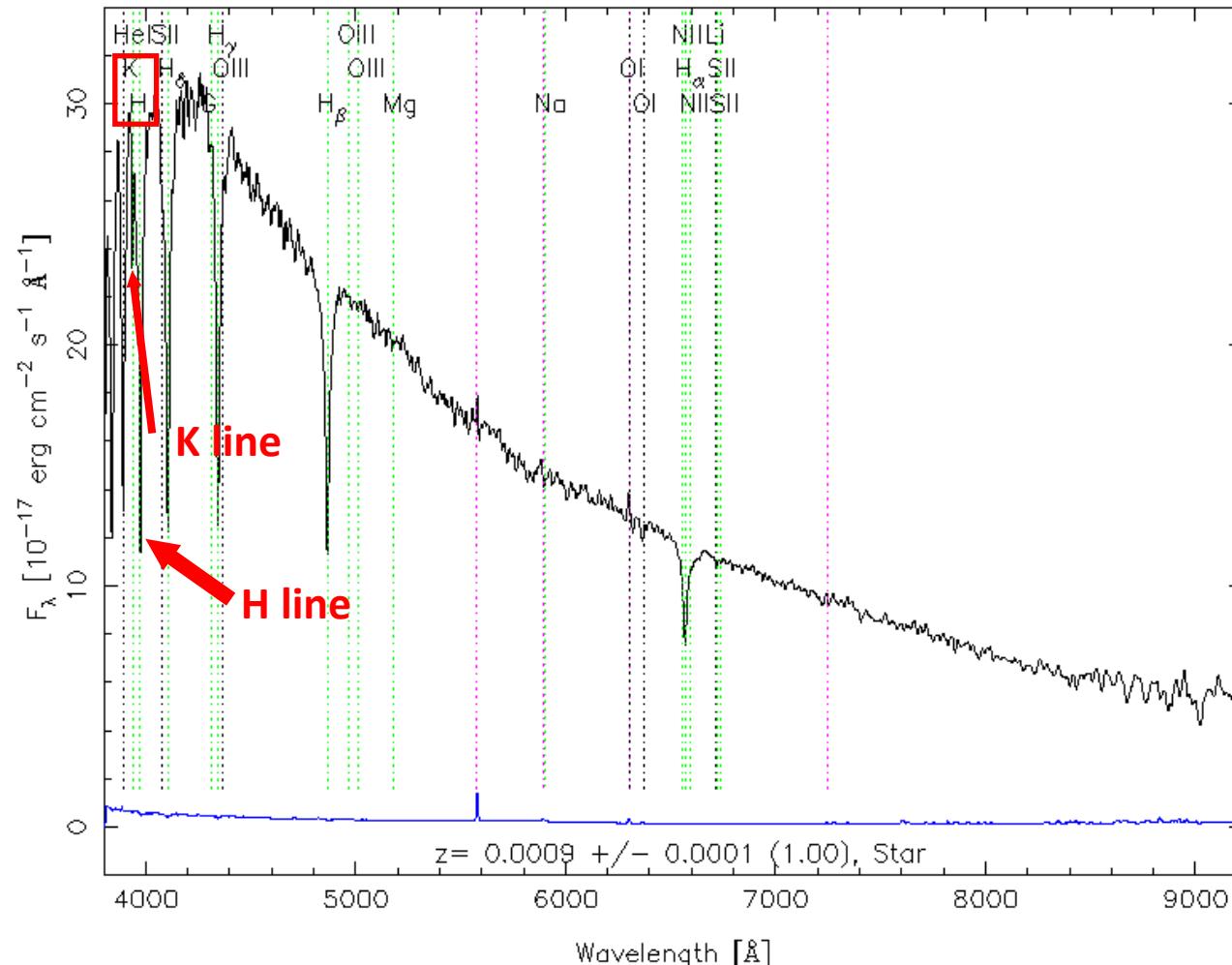


Hydrogen lines
→ B, A, or F type star

Spectral Type	Temperature (Kelvin)	Spectral Lines
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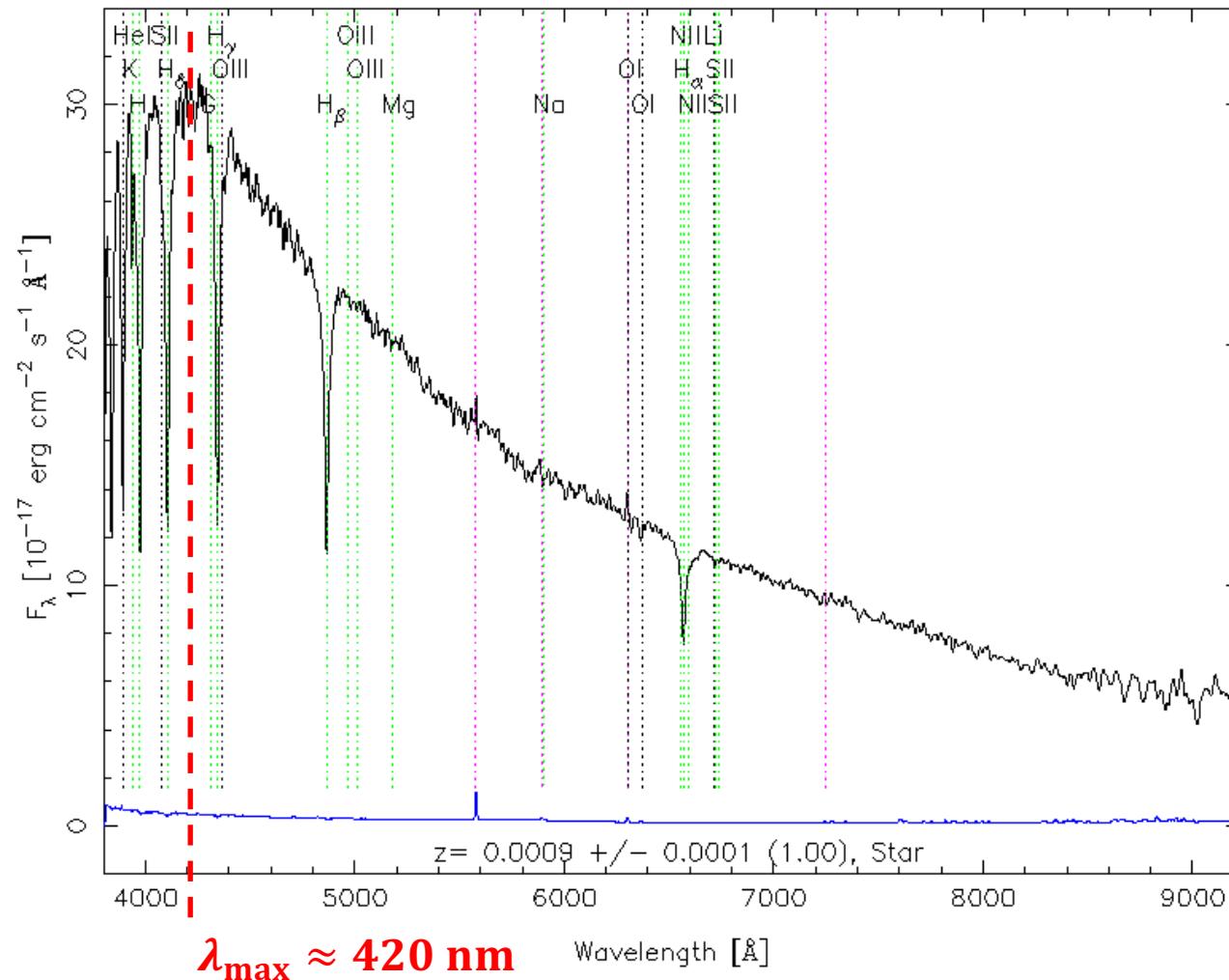


H and K lines present
→ F type star!

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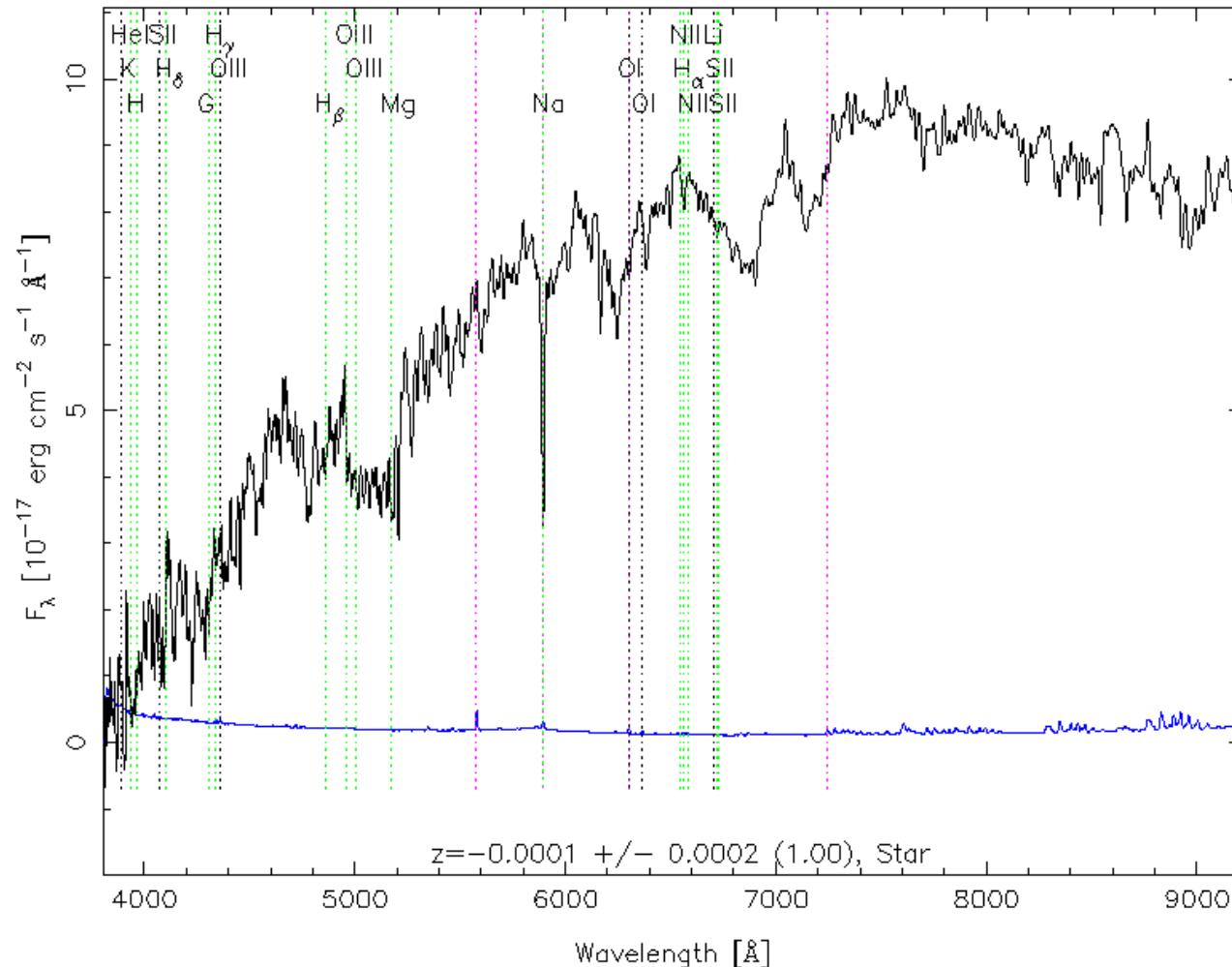
Confirmation with Wein's Law:

$$T = \frac{b}{\lambda_{\text{max}}} = \frac{2.9 \times 10^6 \text{ nm} \cdot \text{K}}{420 \text{ nm}} = 6905 \text{ K}$$

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Example 2: Spectrum of Unknown Star

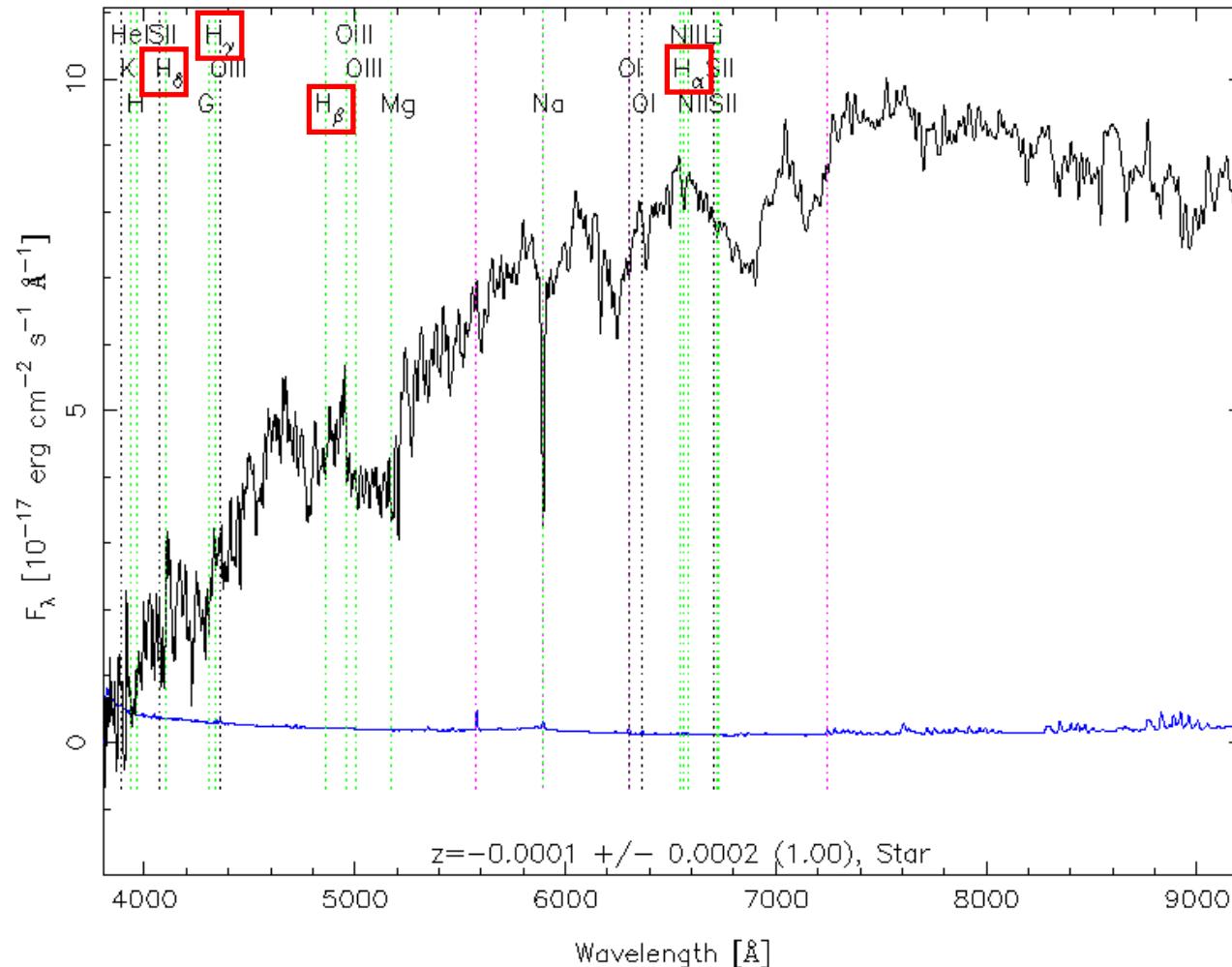
RA=163.02668, DEC= 0.90938, MJD=51909, Plate= 276, Fiber=402



Look for hydrogen lines first!

Example 2: Spectrum of Unknown Star

RA=163.02668, DEC= 0.90938, MJD=51909, Plate= 276, Fiber=402

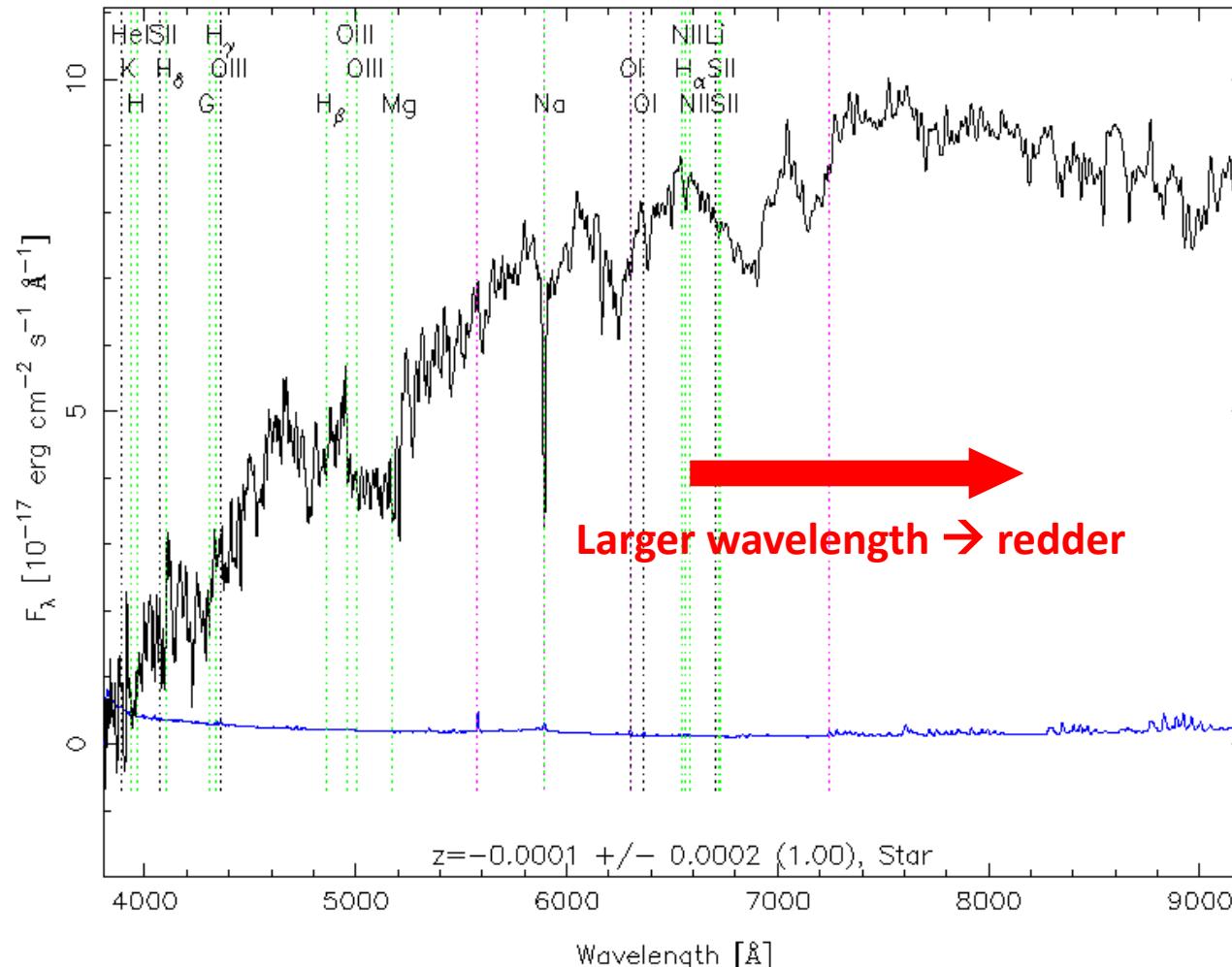


No hydrogen lines

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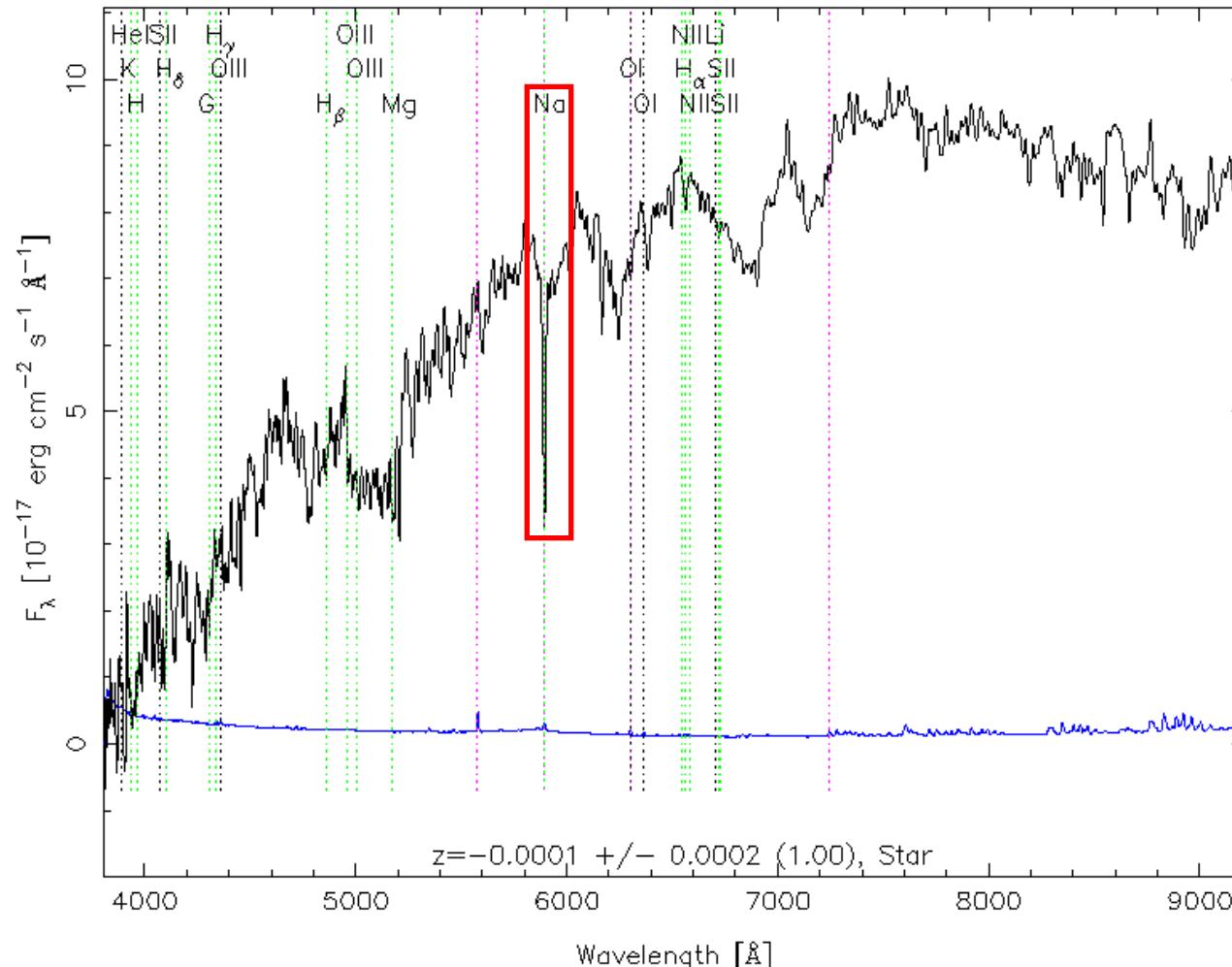


Redder than previous F-type star \rightarrow colder than F-type!

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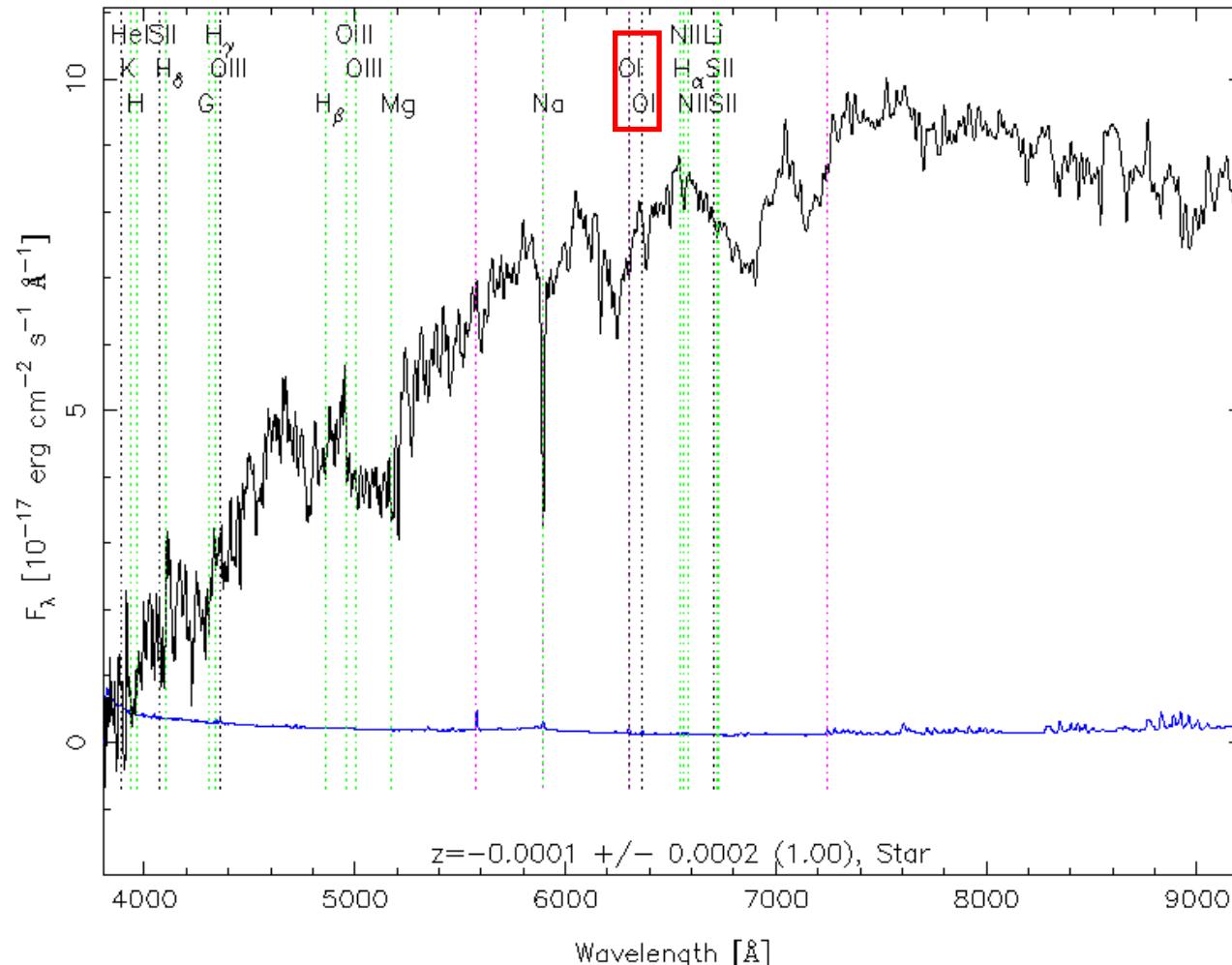


Prominent sodium (Na)
line → K or M type star

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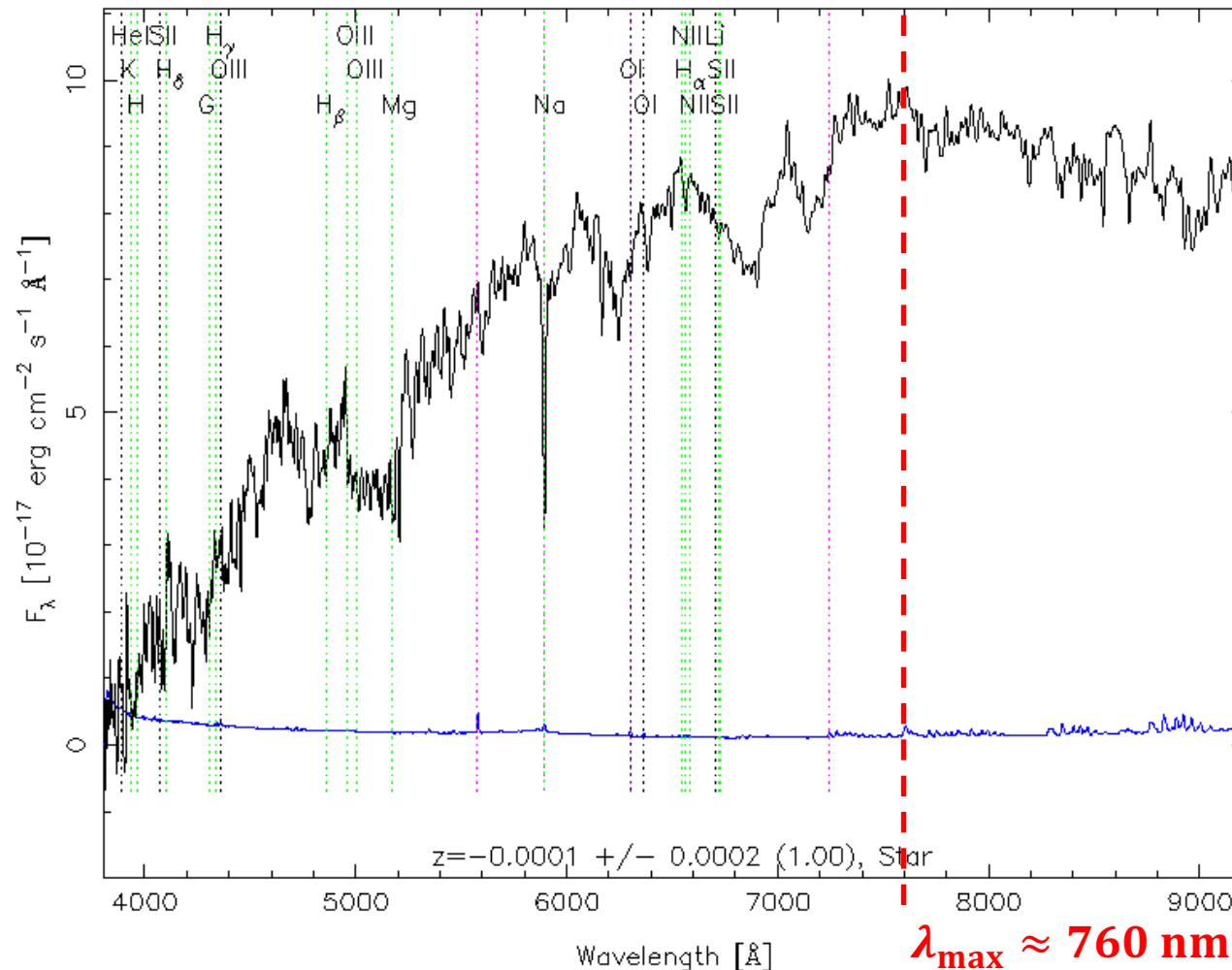


No titanium-oxide (TiO)
lines → K-type star!

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Example 2: Spectrum of Unknown Star

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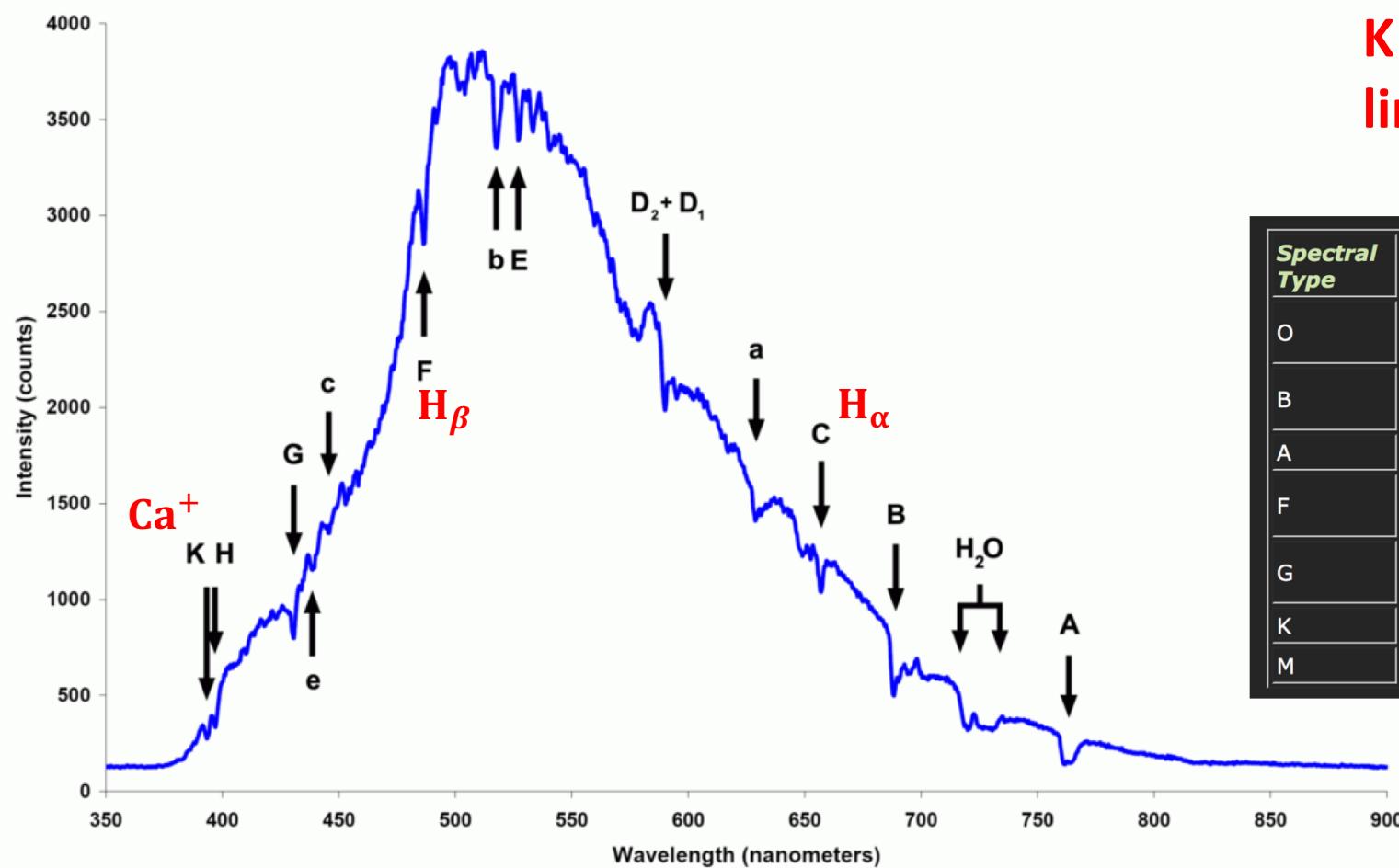
Confirmation with Wein's Law:

$$T = \frac{b}{\lambda_{\max}} = \frac{2.9 \times 10^6 \text{ nm} \cdot \text{K}}{760 \text{ nm}} = 3816 \text{ K}$$

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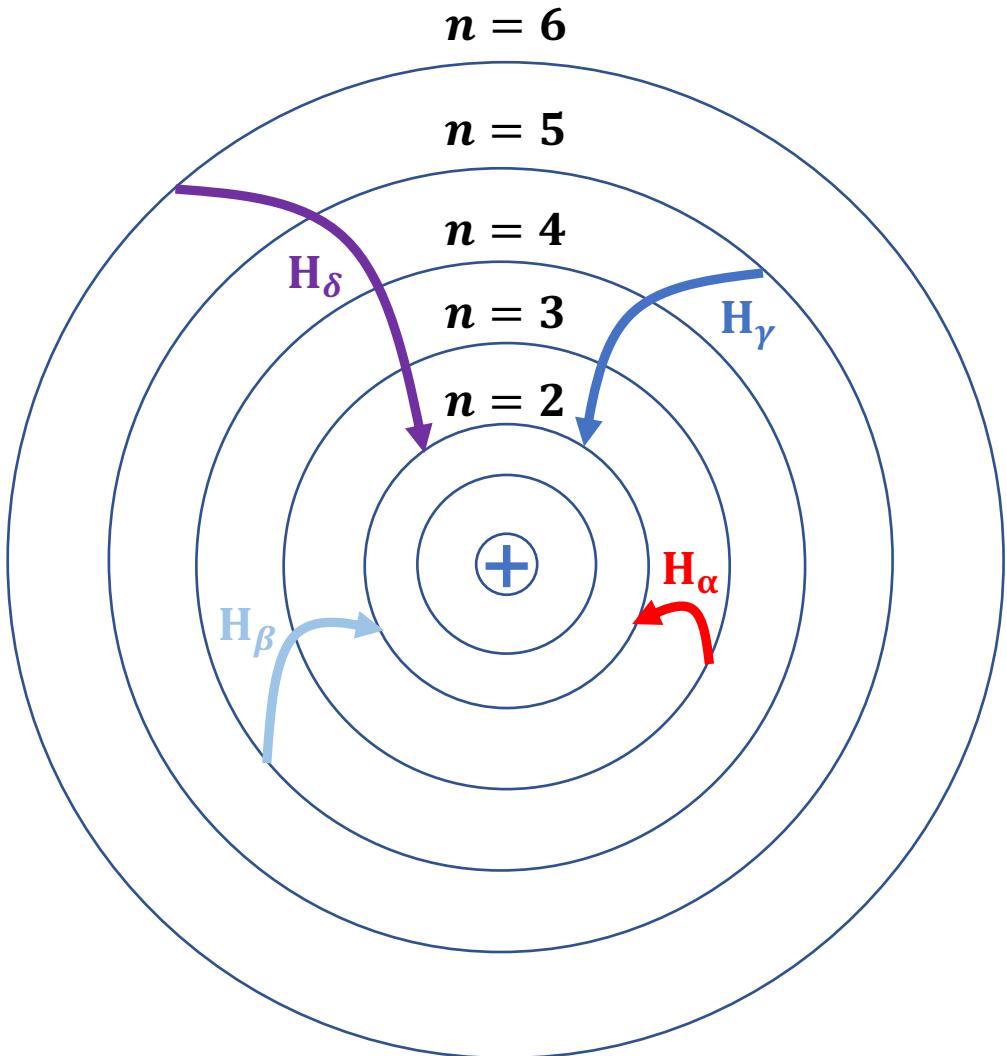
Example 3: The Sun

Weak/missing hydrogen lines, ionized calcium(H & K lines) present, strong G line → G-type star!



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Why do Spectra Depend on Temperature?



The visible lines produced by hydrogen are known as the **Balmer lines**, and are the 4 electron transitions shown. For an electron to be “happy” in the $n = 2$ state, $T \approx 10,000$ K.

- At temperatures near this value, hydrogen emission is strong
- At temperatures much below this, electrons hang out in the $n = 1$ state, so you don’t get Balmer lines
- At temperatures much above this, electrons typically escape from hydrogen, and so can’t produce any emission lines

Reminder: Stefan-Boltzmann Law

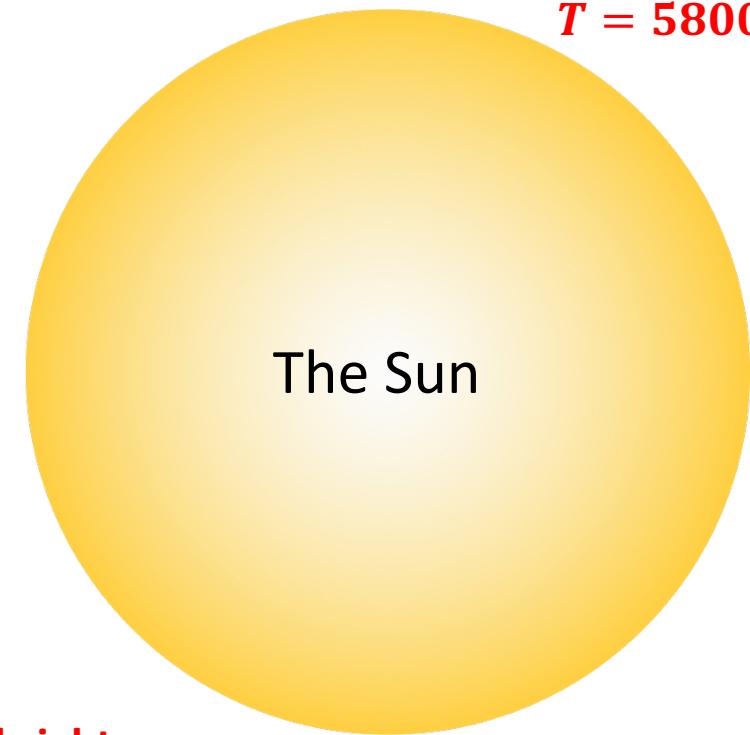
A blackbody with a surface temperature T and has a **surface brightness B** given by:

Surface brightness (W/m^2)

Temperature (K)

$$B = \sigma T^4$$

$$\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}^4$$



Surface brightness:

$$B = (5.67 \times 10^{-8})(5800)^4 = 6.42 \times 10^7 \text{ W/m}^2$$

Stellar Radii

If we can find the **luminosity** and the **surface brightness (B)**, a type of flux, of a star, then we can figure out its **radius**:

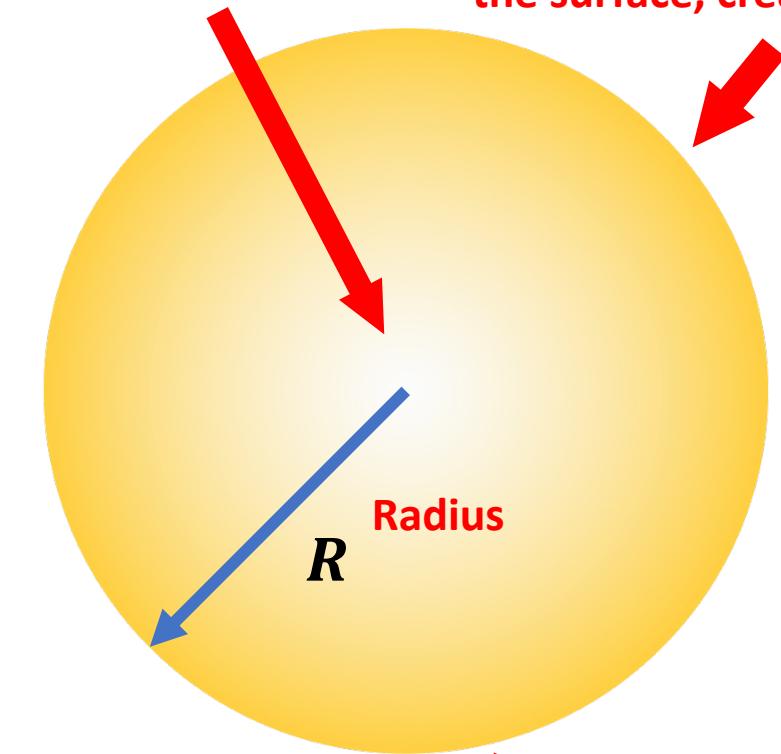
Stefan-Boltzmann law

$$B = \boxed{\sigma T^4} = \boxed{\frac{L}{4\pi R^2}}$$

Definition of flux

$$\rightarrow R = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\sigma T^4}}$$

This is sometimes called the “radius-luminosity-temperature” (RLT) relationship, for lack of a better name.



We treat the luminosity as coming from the center

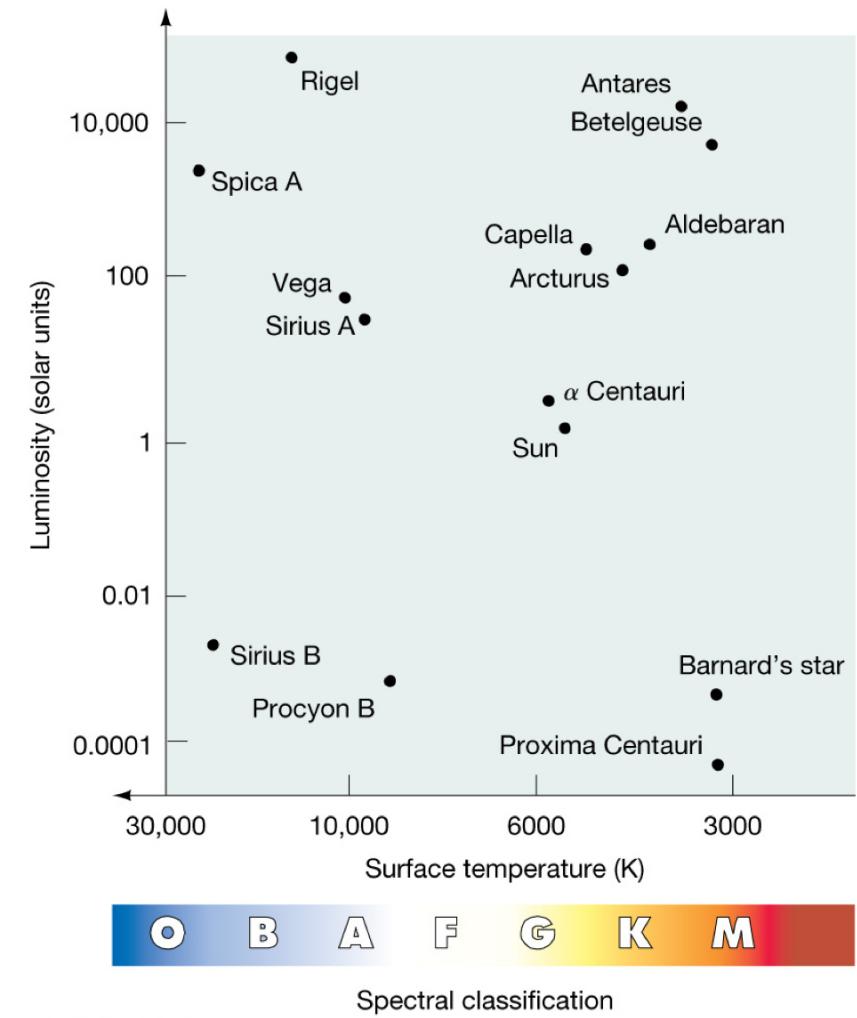
Which spreads out over the surface, creating a flux

We call this flux the surface brightness B

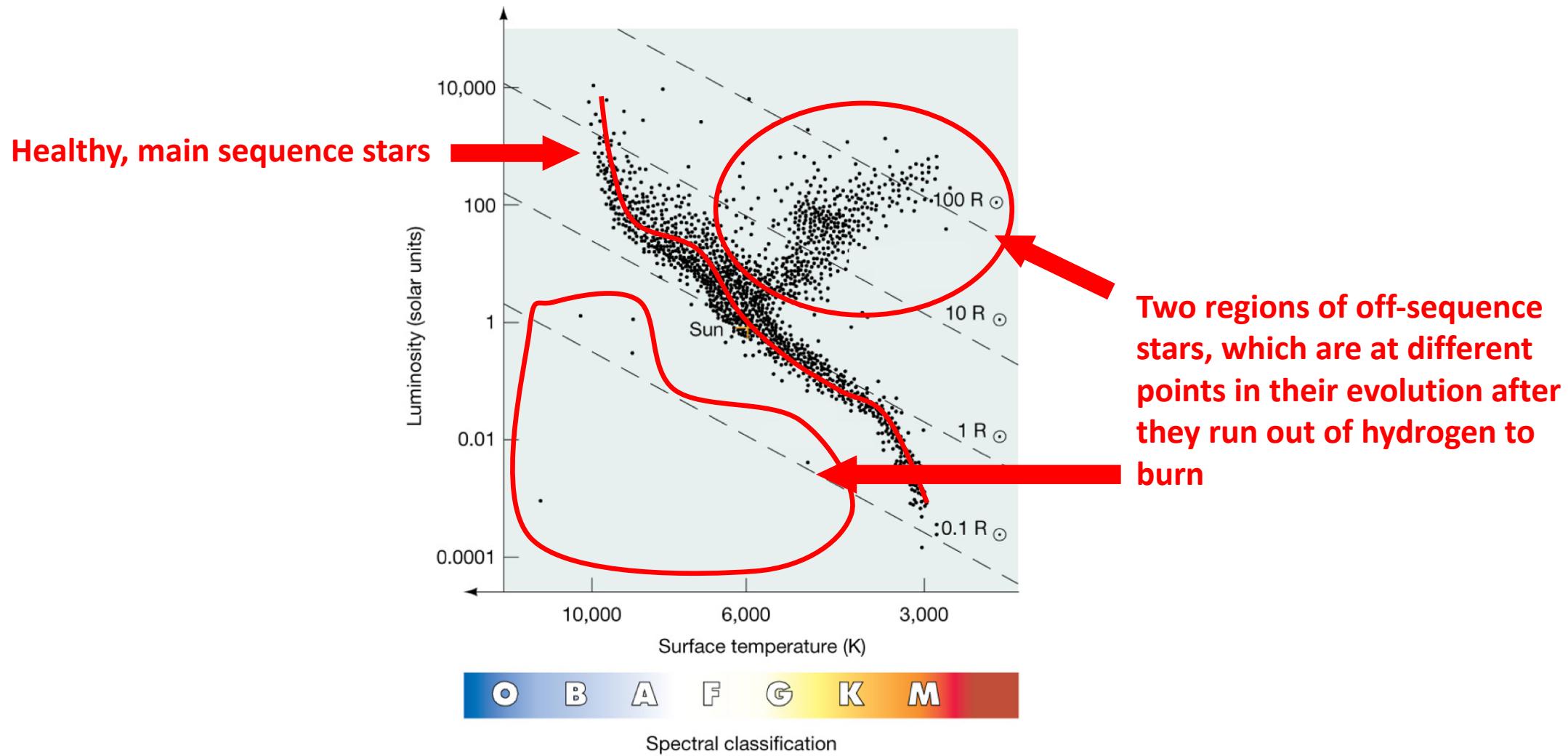
Trends in Stellar Characteristics

Plotting **luminosity vs. temperature** for our nearest neighbors doesn't look like much, as you can see in the figure. But if we expand this to farther stars, and stars at different points in their evolution, we find very clear trends in these characteristics.

- Note that while we're plotting luminosity vs. temperature, we're actually plotting against spectral class, so temperature increases to the **left** of the diagram, not to the right.
- Stars are going to be, essentially, of two types: **main sequence stars**, which are healthy stars burning hydrogen, and **off sequence stars**, which are at other points in their evolution.

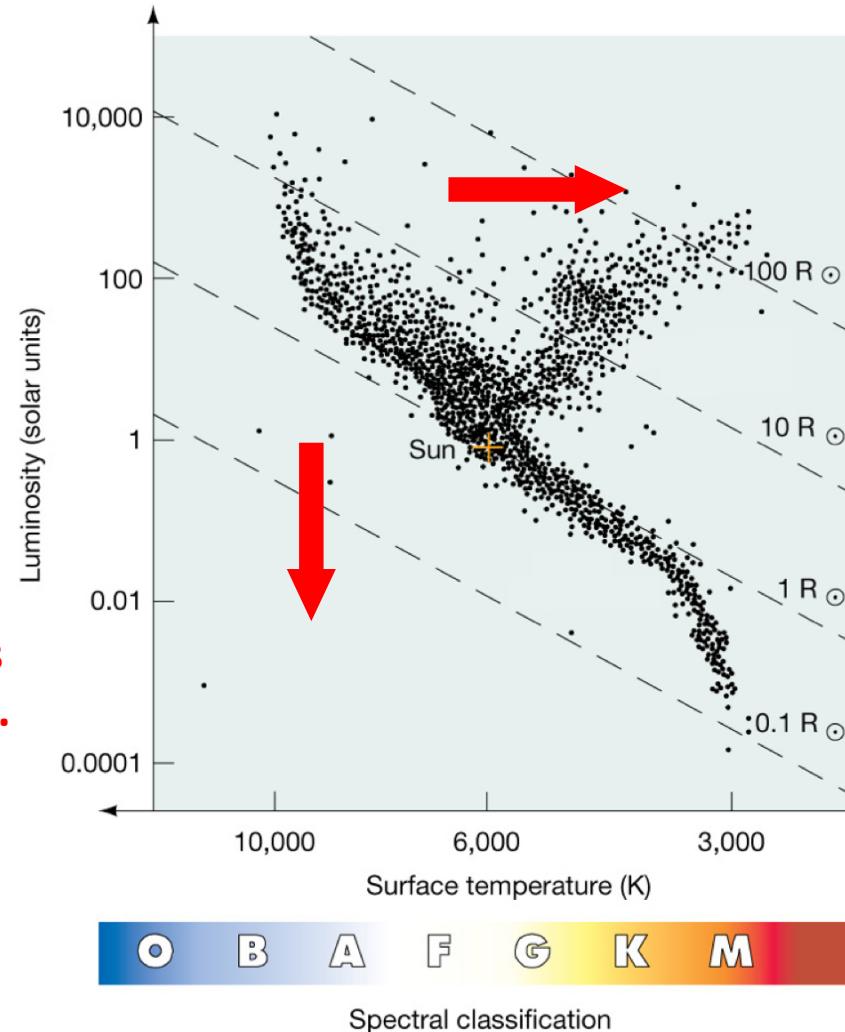


The Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram



Off-Sequence Regions

Moving down means keeping T constants while decreasing L . This means that R is going to decrease. Thus, this region is known as the dwarf region.



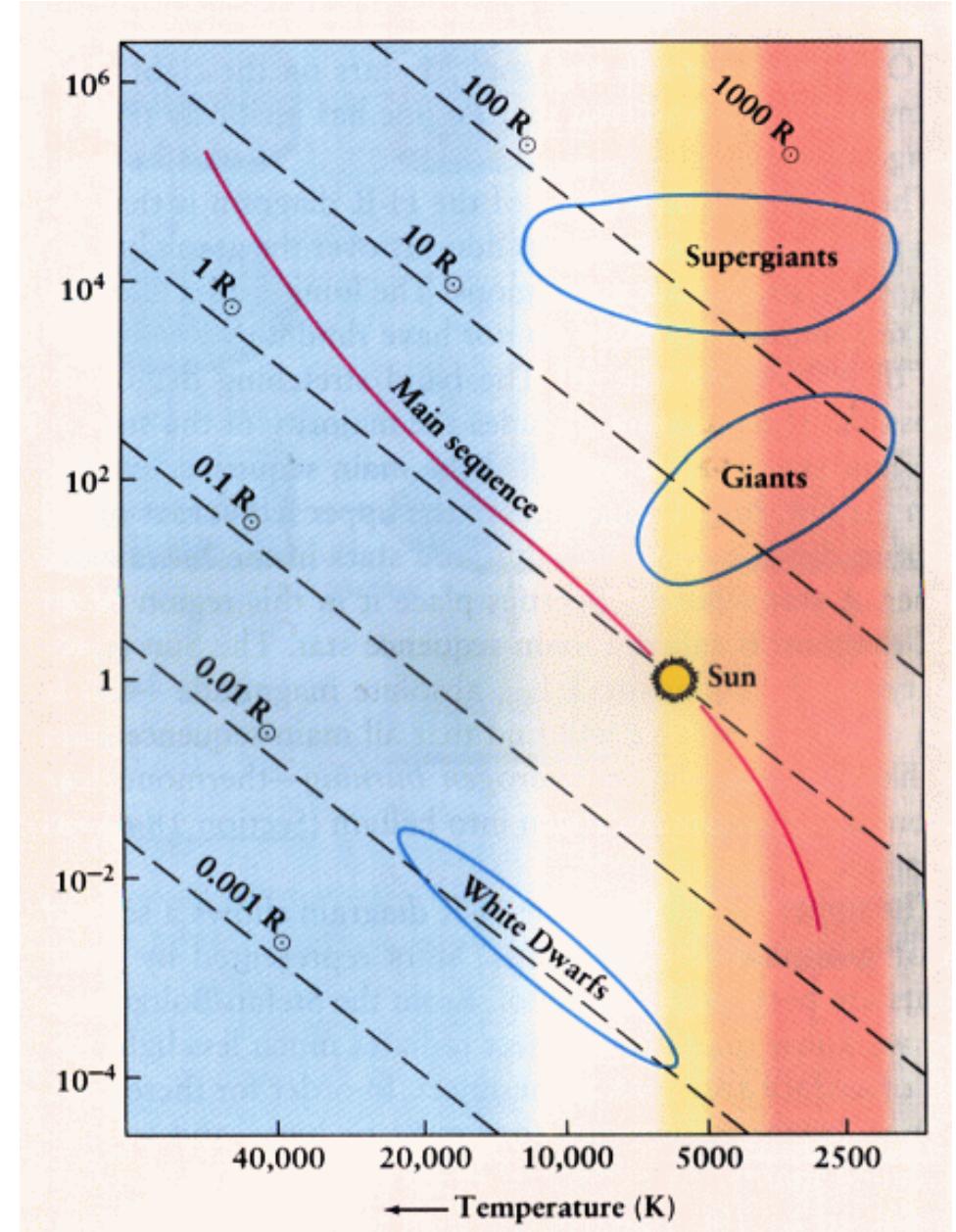
RLT Relationship:

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\sigma T^4}}$$

Moving to the right means decreasing T while keeping L constant. This means that R is going to increase. So, this region is known as the giant region, and stars within it are either giants or supergiants.

H-R Diagram in Detail

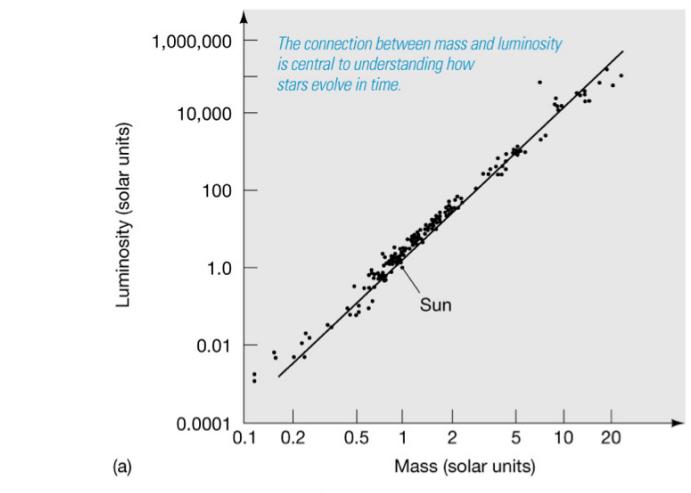
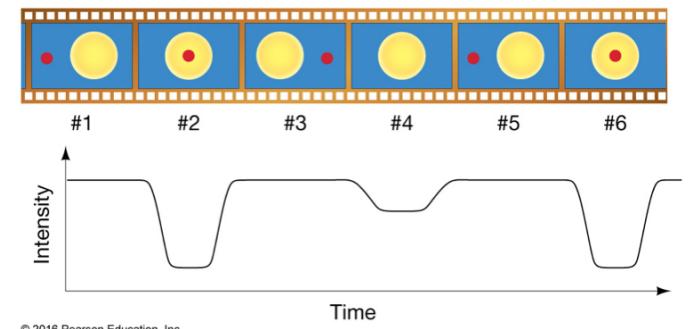
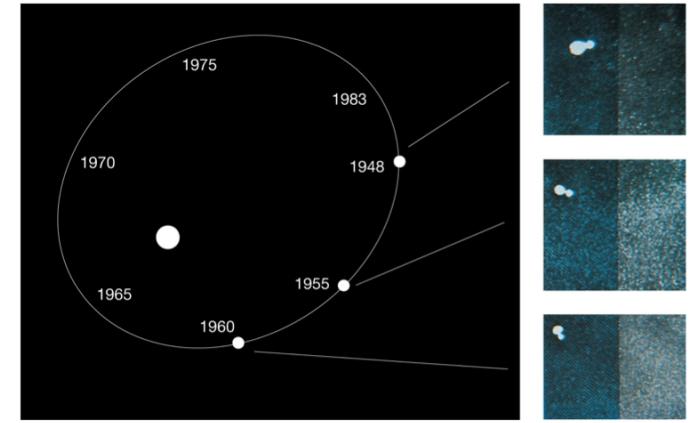
- 91% of stars are main sequence stars
- Along the main sequence, the highest percentage of stars are red, and the percentage drops as you move to the blue stars, which have the lowest percentage
- Giants and supergiants tend to be red and compose less than 1% of all stars
- The remaining 8% of stars are dwarfs, which can be blue, white, or red
- Because of the RLT relationship, knowing luminosity and temperature allows us to find the radius. The diagonal lines represent lines of constant radius on the diagram.



Stellar Mass

There are 3 main ways we'll try to find a star's mass:

1. **Stellar binaries.** Two stars that are orbiting a common center (a **barycenter**). These are typically called **visual binaries**.
2. **Stars with satellite.** Many stars have satellites like our Sun does; they could be planets like our Sun, or other stars. These are usually called **eclipsing binaries**.
3. **The Mass-Luminosity Relationship.** This is an empirical relationship that is different for different masses of stars, so before you can apply it, you have to have a good guess as to what the mass probably is.



Mass-Luminosity Relationship

$$L = M^4$$

Luminosity in units of L_\odot

Mass in units of M_\odot

