

The Classification of Stellar Spectra

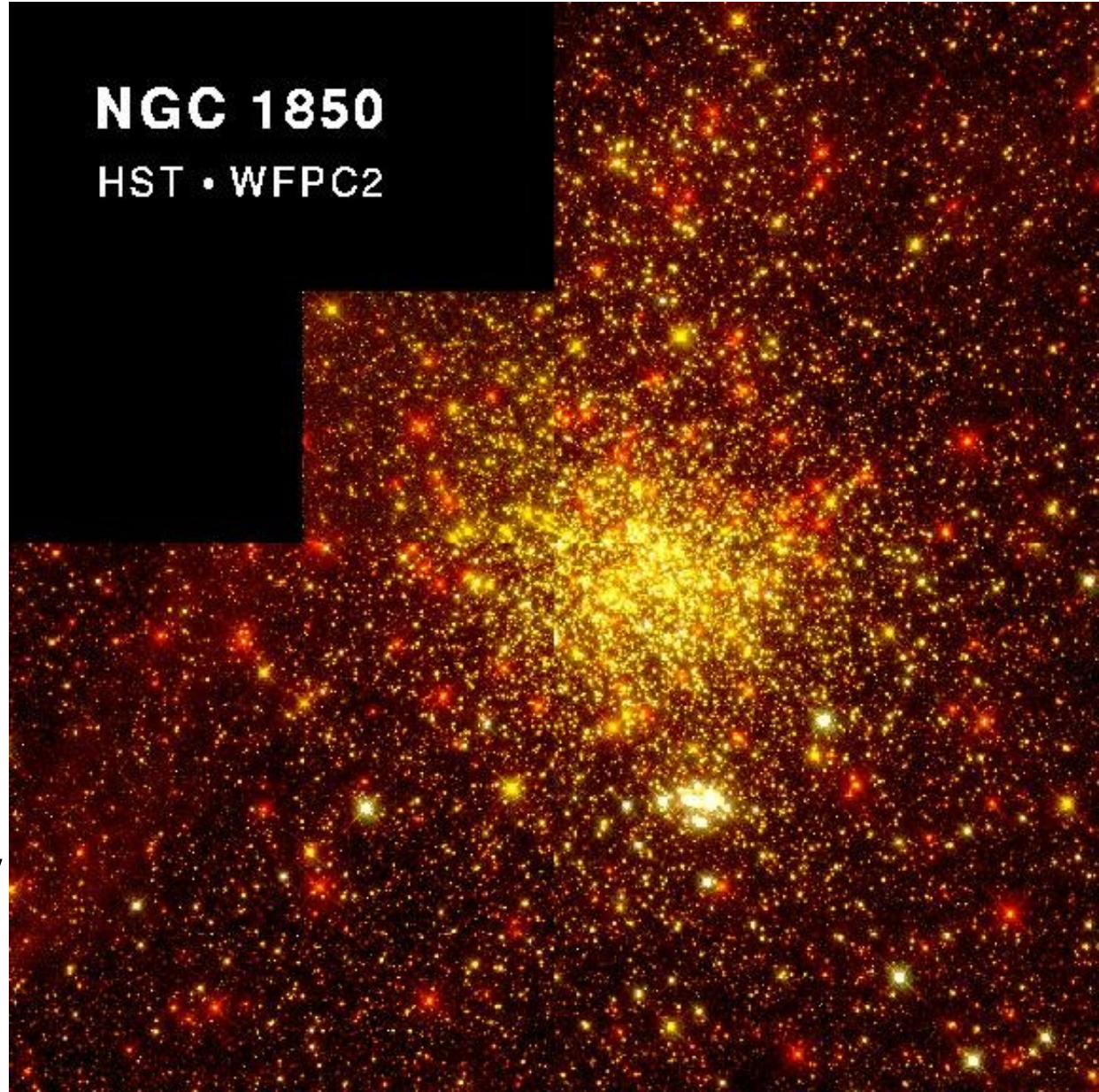
Chapter 8

Star Clusters in the
Large Magellanic
Cloud

NGC 1850

HST • WFPC2

[http://www.seds.org/hst/
NGC1850.html](http://www.seds.org/hst/NGC1850.html)



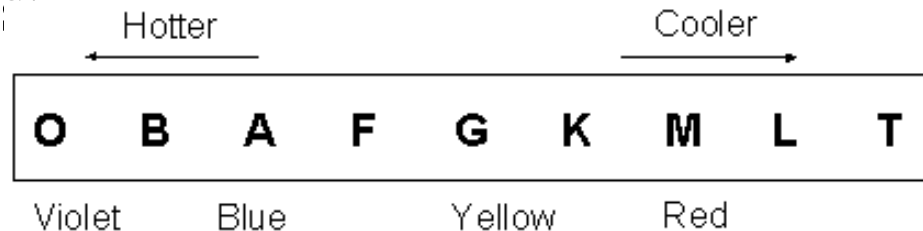
The Classification of Stellar Spectra

- Classification scheme developed before the physics
- Parameters that could be used to classify stars
 - Apparant brightness (bad idea)
 - Luminosity (Intrinsic brightness)
 - Temperature (Color)
 - Spectra (absorption lines)
 - Mass (only for binaries)
- The Harvard Computers of the Harvard College Observatory
 - Contained >100,000 spectral classifications from A.J. Cannon and others from Harvard
 - Used OBAFGKM



The Classification of Stellar Spectra

- Originally organized by strength of H Balmer lines (A,B,...).
- Atomic physics allowed connection to temperature to be made.
- Spectral Type

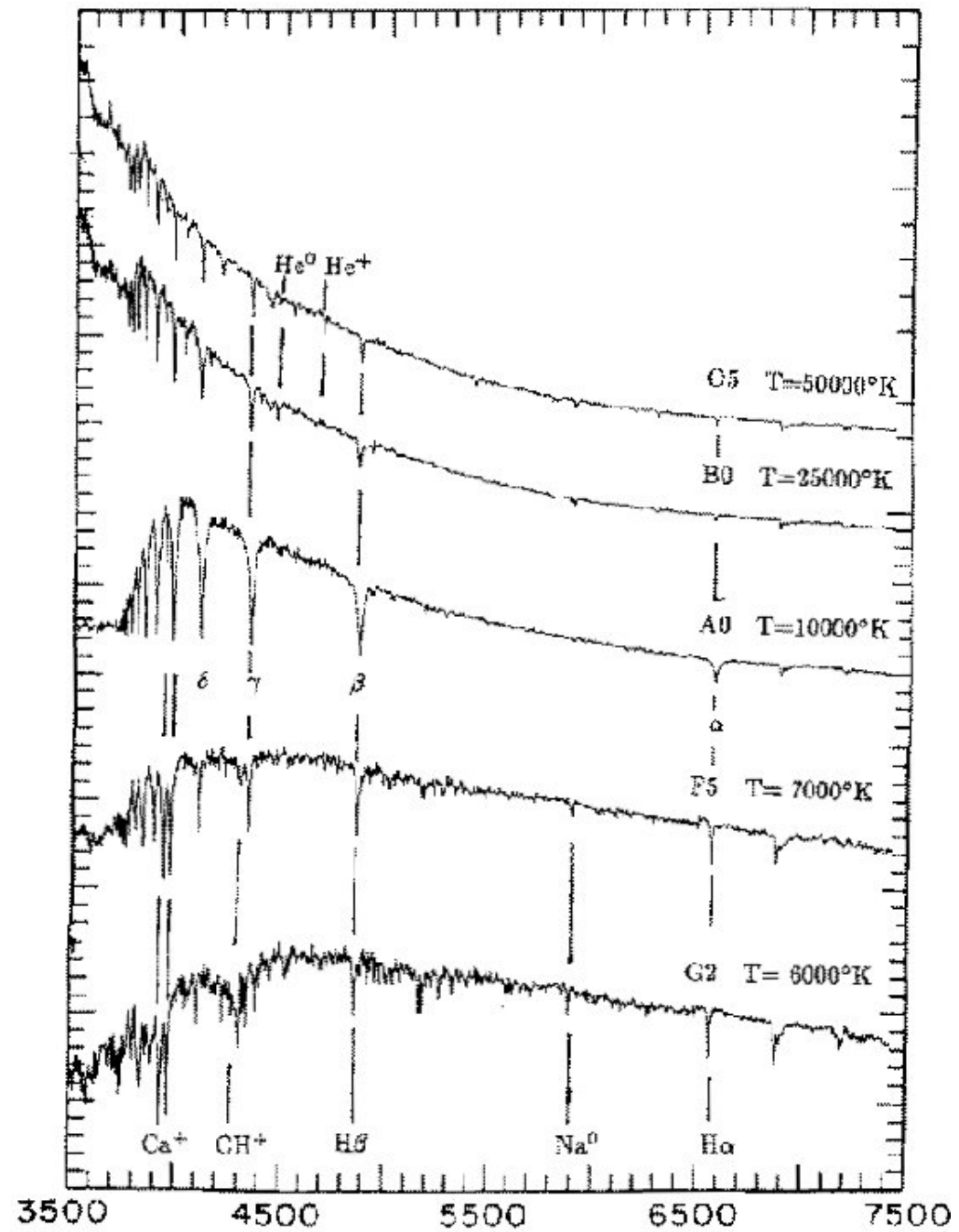


Early type → late type

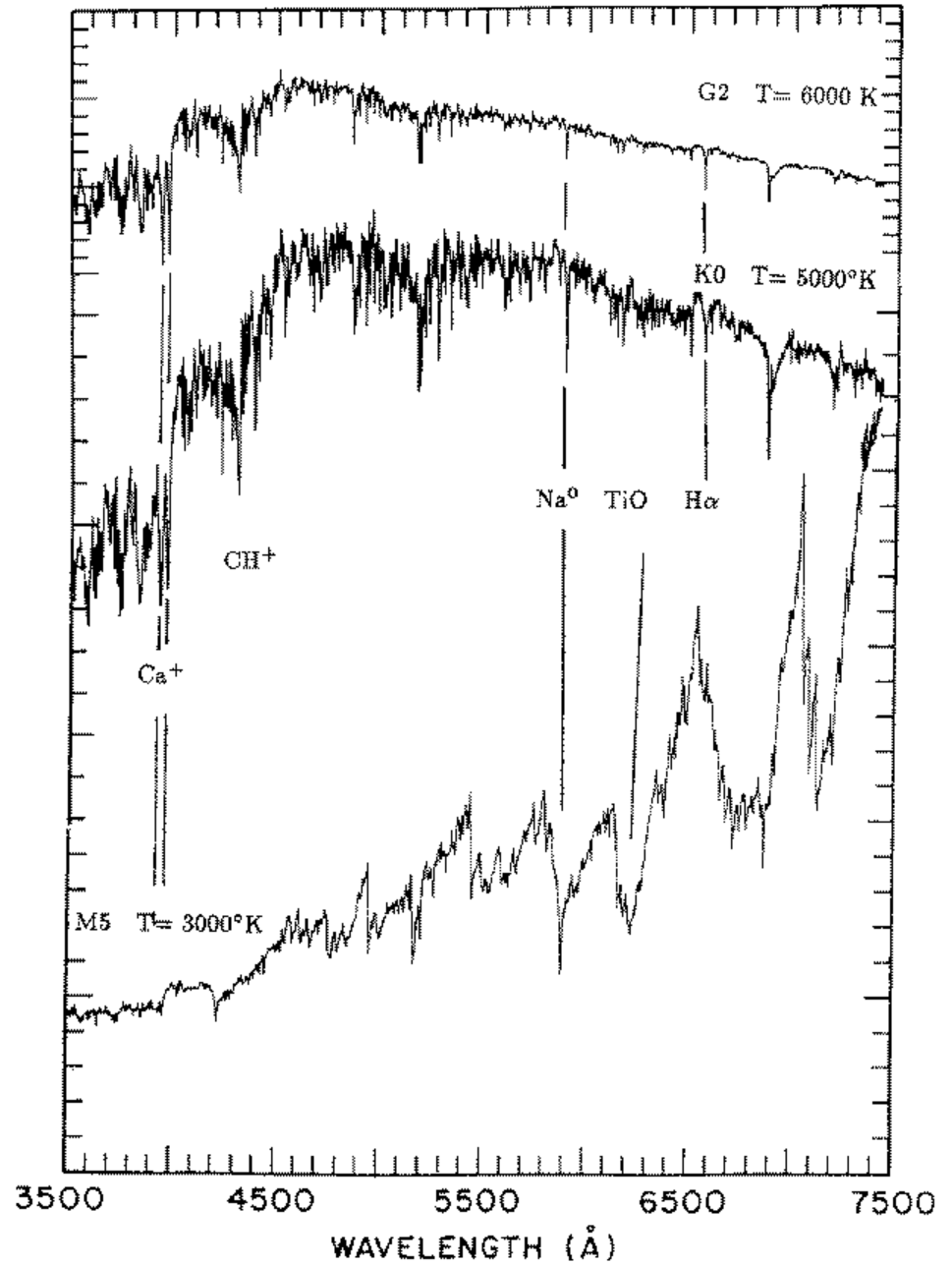
L and T are more modern additions – Brown Dwarfs.
R N S also used after M.

- Subdivisions in tenths: 0 → 9 (early → late, hot → cool) within a Spectral Type). E.g., A0 is hotter than A5.
- The Sun is a G2 – an early G-type star
 - G – yellow star (continuum peak in green/yellow)
 - H lines weak
 - Ca II (singly ionized) lines continue becoming stronger
 - Fe I, other *neutrals* metal lines become stronger

O to G example

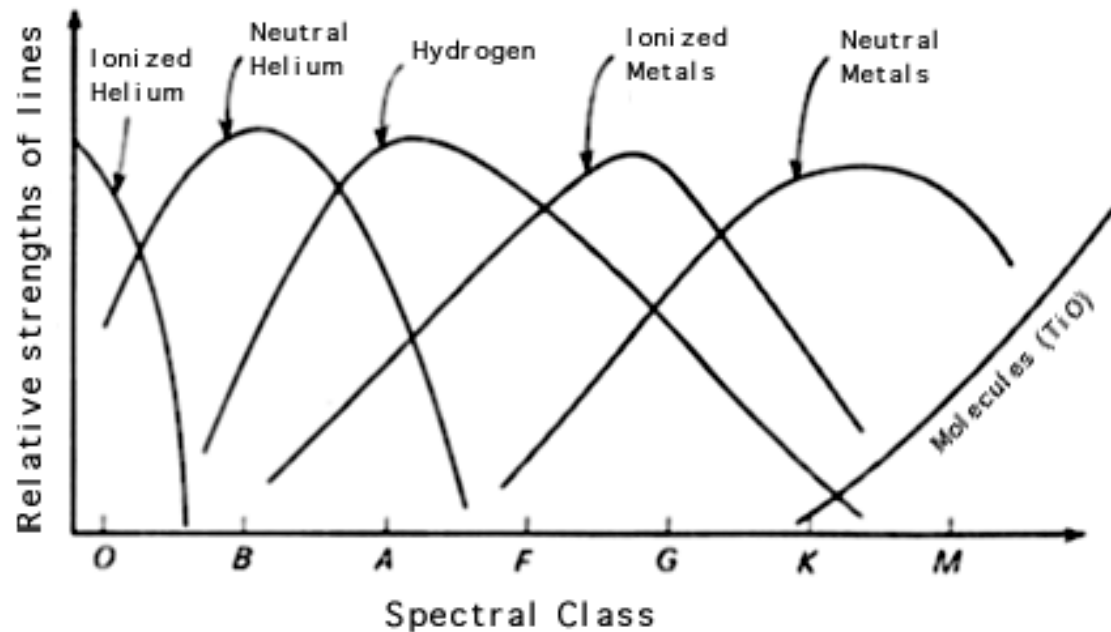


G to M example



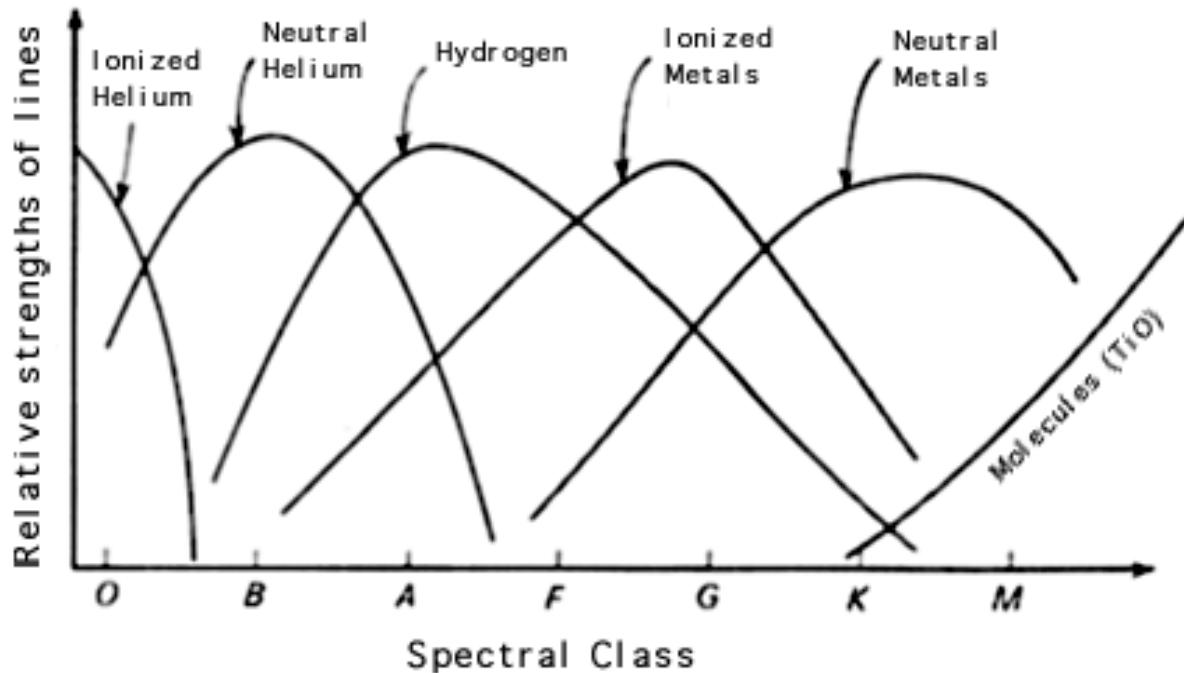
The Formation of Spectral Lines

- Question: What causes the differences in the observed spectra??
 - [Absorption by intervening material. Earth's atmos., ISM.]
 - Composition
 - Temperature
 - Surface gravity / pressure
- Answer:
 - Temperature is the main factor



The Formation of Spectral Lines

- Big Question of Ch.8: Why are the H balmer lines strongest for A stars, which seem to have $T_{\text{surf}} = 10,000\text{K}$?
- To find answer:
 - Need Ch.5's info about the Bohr atom ... energy levels.
 - Need Kirchoff's laws \rightarrow our gas is the upper “atmosphere” of the star.
 - Need statistical mechanics – study of large numbers of particles that can occupy different states



The Formation of Spectral Lines

- Distribution of electrons in different atomic orbitals depends on temperature
- Electrons can jump up in energy by absorption of a photon OR collision with a particle! So KE of surrounding particles important.
- What is the probability of finding an electron in a particular orbital?
 - Answer with Statistical Mechanics...
 - Maxwell-Boltzmann (velocity) Distribution
 - Assumes thermal equilibrium
 - Number of gas particles per unit volume have a speed between v and $v+dv$

$$n_v dv = n \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2/kT} 4\pi v^2 dv$$

Maxwell-Boltzmann Distribution

$$n_v dv = n \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2/kT} 4\pi v^2 dv$$

- Most probable speed

$$v_{mp} = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{m}} = 1.4 \sqrt{kT/m}$$

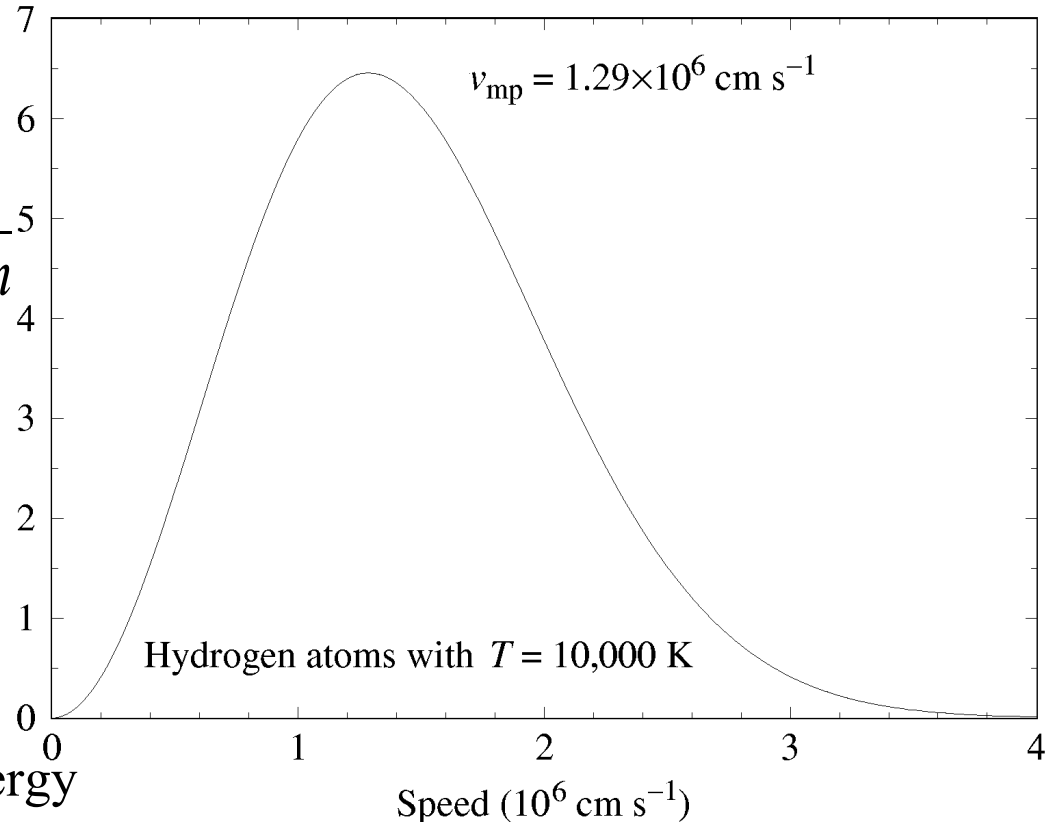
- Root-mean-square

$$v_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}} = 1.73 \sqrt{kT/m}$$

- Average

$$v_{avg} = \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{\pi m}} = 1.6 \sqrt{kT/m}$$

- Collisional energy causes a distribution of electrons among the atomic orbitals
(Kinetic Energy \rightarrow Potential Energy)



Boltzmann Factor

- The higher the energy of a state, the less likely it will be occupied

$$P_a \propto e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}$$

- For the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution, the energy is Kinetic Energy

$$P_v \propto e^{\frac{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2}{kT}}$$

- The “ kT ” term is associated with the thermal energy of the “gas” as a whole
- Ratio of Probabilities for two different states (and energies)

$$\frac{P_b}{P_a} = \frac{e^{\frac{-E_b}{kT}}}{e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}} = e^{\frac{-(E_b - E_a)}{kT}}$$

Degeneracy Factor

- An energy (eigenvalue) is associated with each set of quantum numbers (eigenstate or eigenfunction)
- *Degenerate States* have different quantum numbers but the same energy

- Modify the Boltzmann factor $P_a \propto g_a e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}}$
 - The probability of being in any of the g_a degenerate states with energy E_a
 - g_a is the degeneracy or statistical weight of state a

- Ratio of probabilities between states with two different energies

$$\frac{P_b}{P_a} = \frac{g_b}{g_a} e^{\frac{-(E_b - E_a)}{kT}}$$

Degeneracy Factor

- Details of quantum mechanics determines the energies and quantum numbers...
- Visit the following site on the next page and browse...
- Quantum numbers for Hydrogen $\{n, l, m_l, m_s\}$
 - Table 8.2

	n	l	m_l	m_s	
State	Principal quantum number n	Orbital quantum number	Magnetic quantum number	Spin quantum number	Maximum number of electrons
1s	1	0	0	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	2
2s	2	0	0	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	2
2p	2	1	-1, 0, +1	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	6
3s	3	0	0	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	2
3p	3	1	-1, 0, +1	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	6
3d	3	2	-2, -1, 0, 1, 2	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	10
					$=2n^2$

Boltzmann Equation

- Number of atoms in a particular state a

$$N_a = NP_a$$

N = total number of atoms

N_a = number of atoms in state a

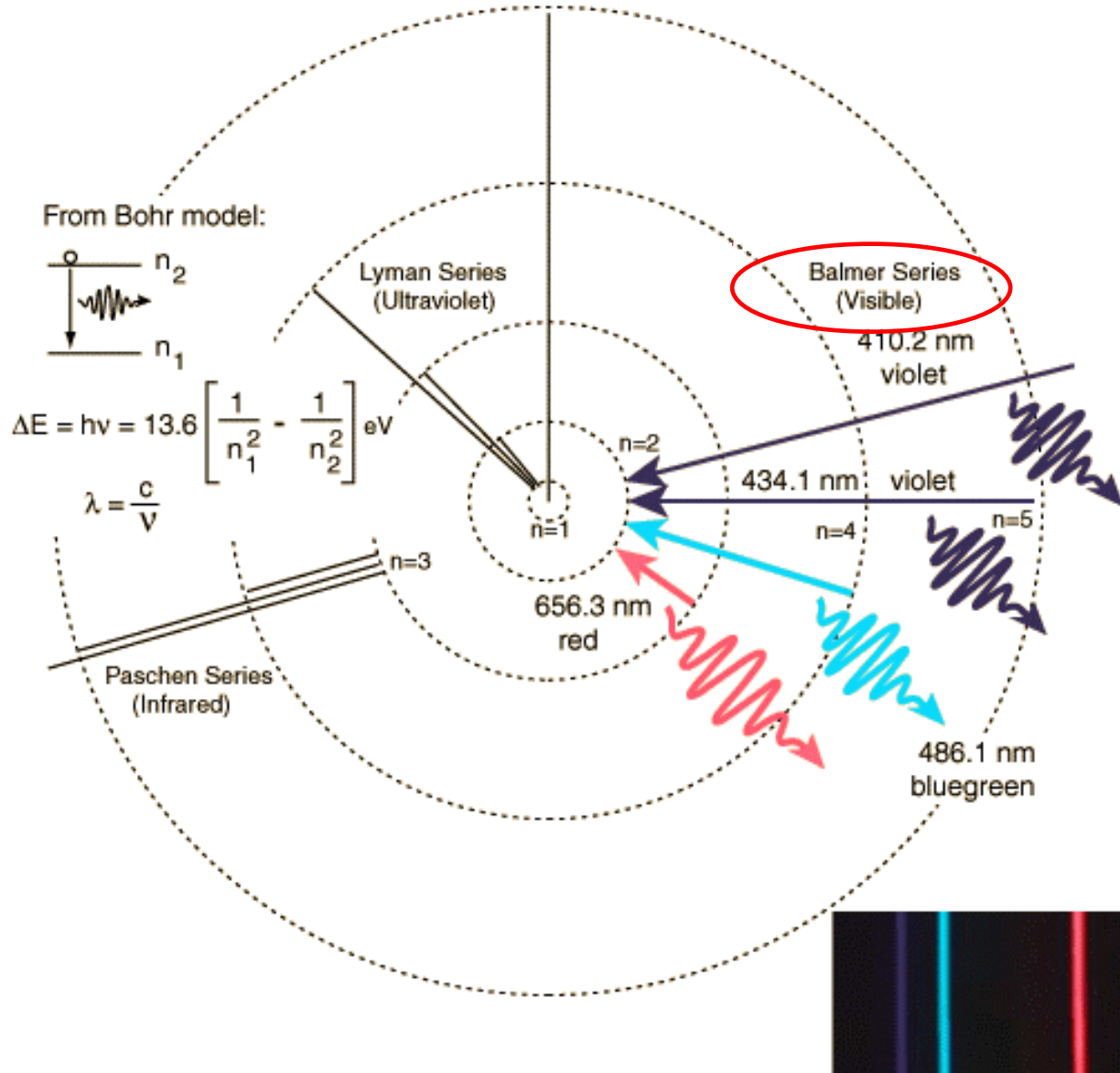
P_a = probability of being in state a

$$\Rightarrow \frac{N_b}{N_a} = \frac{g_b}{g_a} e^{\frac{-(E_b - E_a)}{kT}}$$

Hydrogen Atom Examples

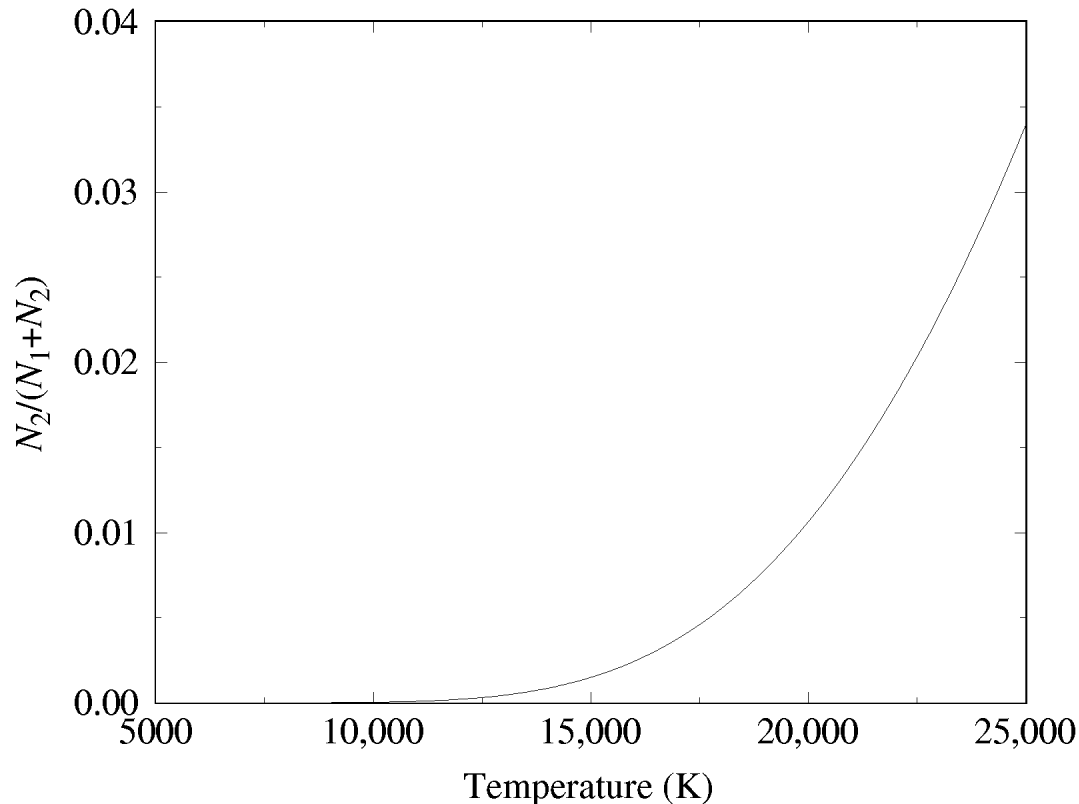
Hydrogen Atom

- Balmer series absorption spectra is an upward transition from $n = 2$
- Observation: this series has a peak absorption spectrum at ~ 9520 K.



Hydrogen Atom Populations

- We just saw that not many Hydrogen atoms are in the $n=1$ state at 9520 K!
 - Shouldn't the intensity keep growing as the temperature increases since there is a higher probability for an H atom to be in the $n=2$ state?!?!



Partition Function

- We also have to figure in all states that have a significant population

- For one state we have: $P_1 \propto g_1 e^{\frac{-E_1}{kT}}$

- Ratio between two states: $\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{g_2 e^{\frac{-E_2}{kT}}}{g_1 e^{\frac{-E_1}{kT}}} = \frac{g_2}{g_1} e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}}$

- Ratio of state 2 to *all* other states with reference to the ground state:

$$\frac{P_2}{P_{all}} = \frac{g_2 e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}}}{g_1 e^{\frac{-(E_1 - E_1)}{kT}} + g_2 e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}} + g_3 e^{\frac{-(E_3 - E_1)}{kT}} + \dots} = \frac{g_2 e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}}}{Z}$$

Partition Function

- This tell us how many states are accessible or available at a given temperature (thermal energy)

$$Z = g_1 e^{\frac{-(E_1 - E_1)}{kT}} + g_2 e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}} + g_3 e^{\frac{-(E_3 - E_1)}{kT}} + \dots$$
$$= g_1 + \sum_i g_i e^{\frac{-(E_i - E_1)}{kT}}$$

- The higher the temperature, the more states that are available
- At zero K, everything will be in the ground state
 - Bose-Einstein Condensates

Partition Function and Atoms

- We also have to handle ionization!
- Nomenclature: H I – neutral hydrogen
H II – singly ionized hydrogen
He I – neutral Helium
He II – singly ionized Helium
He III – doubly ionized Helium

- Ionization Energy for H I to H II

$$\chi_I = 13.6 \text{ eV}$$

- Rather than $N_2/N_1 \rightarrow \infty$, the atom will ionize before this happens

Saha Equation

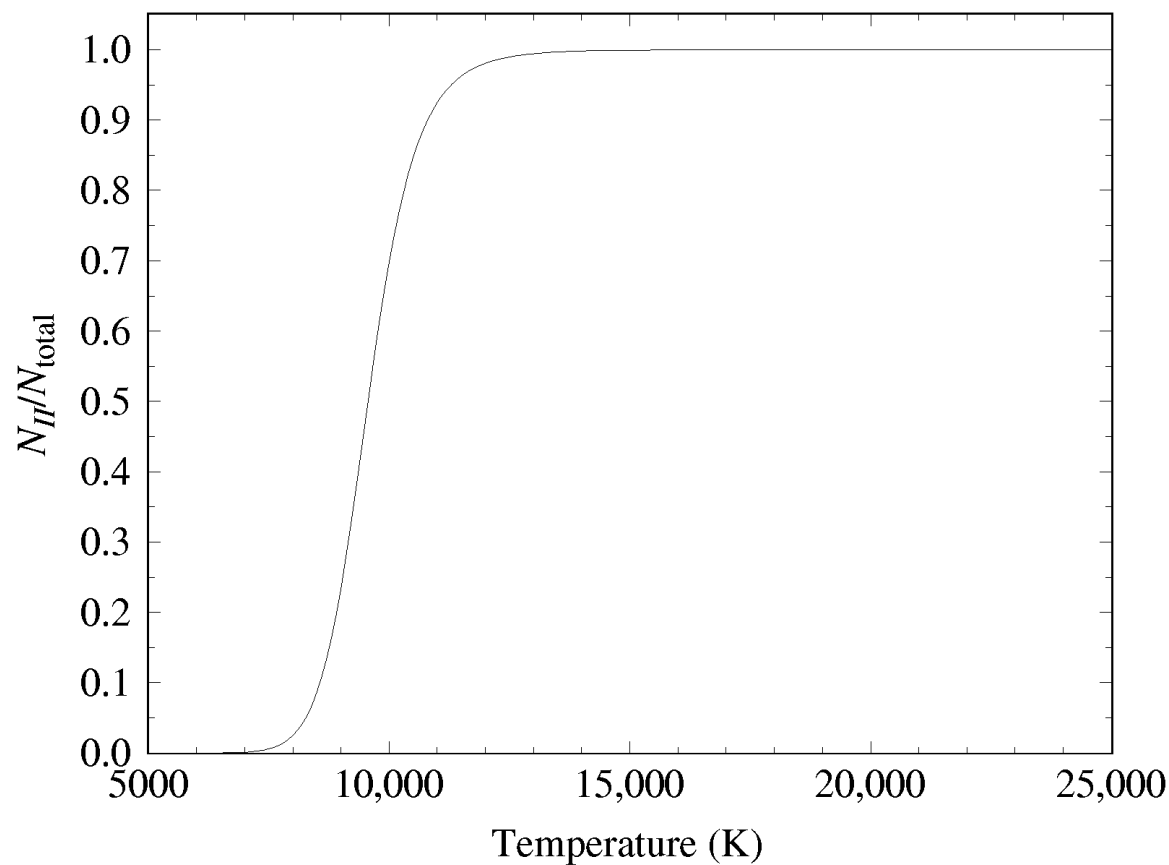
- Determines the ratio of numbers of ionized atoms
- Need distinct partition functions since energy levels of atoms are different for different ionization stages
 - Z_i is the initial stage of ionization
 - Z_{i+1} is the final stage of ionization
- Ratio of the number of atoms in each of these stages

$$\frac{N_{i+1}}{N_i} = \frac{2Z_{i+1}}{n_e Z_i} \left(\frac{2\pi m_e kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\chi_i / kT}$$

- n_e is the electron density (an ideal gas of electrons)
 - Electron pressure $P_e = n_e kT$
 - Electrons recombine with H II to give H I

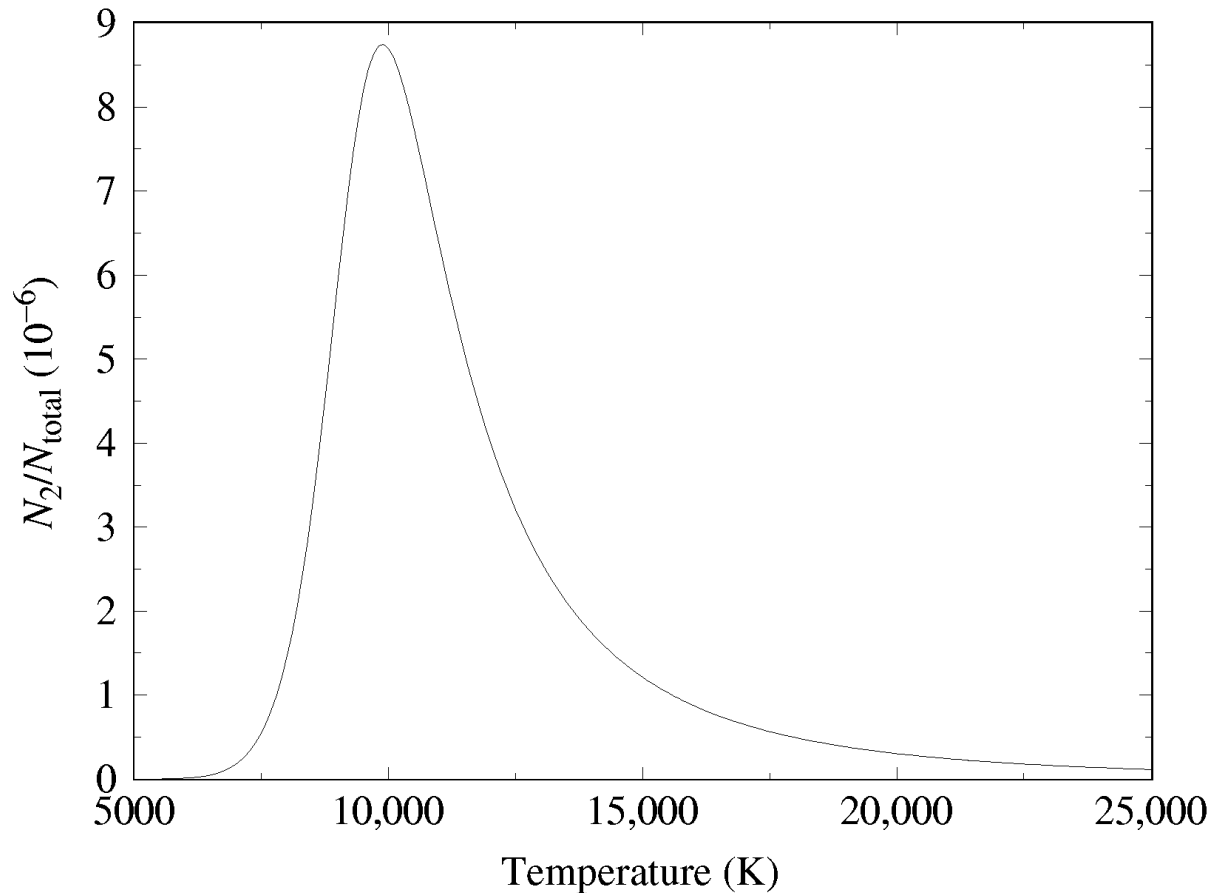
Ionized Hydrogen Atoms

- Fraction of hydrogen atoms that are ionized
- If we have H II, we can't have the Balmer series!



H I $n = 2$ population

- Includes the Boltzmann factor, partition function and ionization
- Population peak at 9520 K, in agreement with observation of the Balmer series

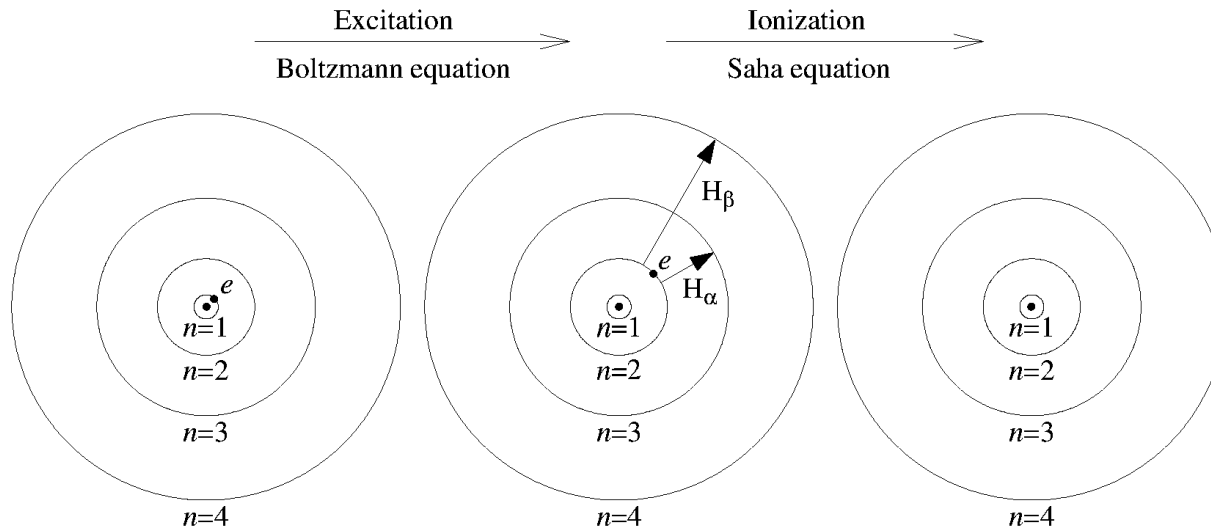


H I $n = 2$ population

$$\frac{N_2}{N_{total}} = \left(\frac{N_2}{N_I + N_2} \right) \left(\frac{N_I}{N_I + N_{II}} \right)$$

Fraction of non-ionized hydrogen
Atoms in the $n = 2$ state

Fraction of non-ionized
hydrogen atoms



Example 8.3

- Degree of ionization in a stellar atmosphere of pure hydrogen for the temperature range of 5000-25000 K $\frac{N_{II}}{N_{Total}}$

- Given electron pressure $P_e = 200 \frac{\text{dyne}}{\text{cm}^2} = 20 \text{ N/m}^2$

- Saha equation
$$\frac{N_{II}}{N_I} = \frac{2kTZ_{II}}{P_e Z_I} \left(\frac{2\pi m_e kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\chi_i/kT}$$

- Must determine the partition functions

- Hydrogen ion is a proton, so $Z_{II} = 1$
- Neutral hydrogen over this temp range

$$\Delta E = E_2 - E_1 = 10.2 \text{ eV}$$

$$\Delta E \gg kT, \text{ then } e^{-\Delta E/kT} \ll 1$$

$$\Rightarrow Z_I = g_1 + \sum_i g_i e^{\frac{-(E_i - E_1)}{kT}} \quad g_1 = 2$$

$$T := 5000\text{K}$$

$$k \cdot T = 0.43 \text{ eV}$$

$$T := 25000\text{K}$$

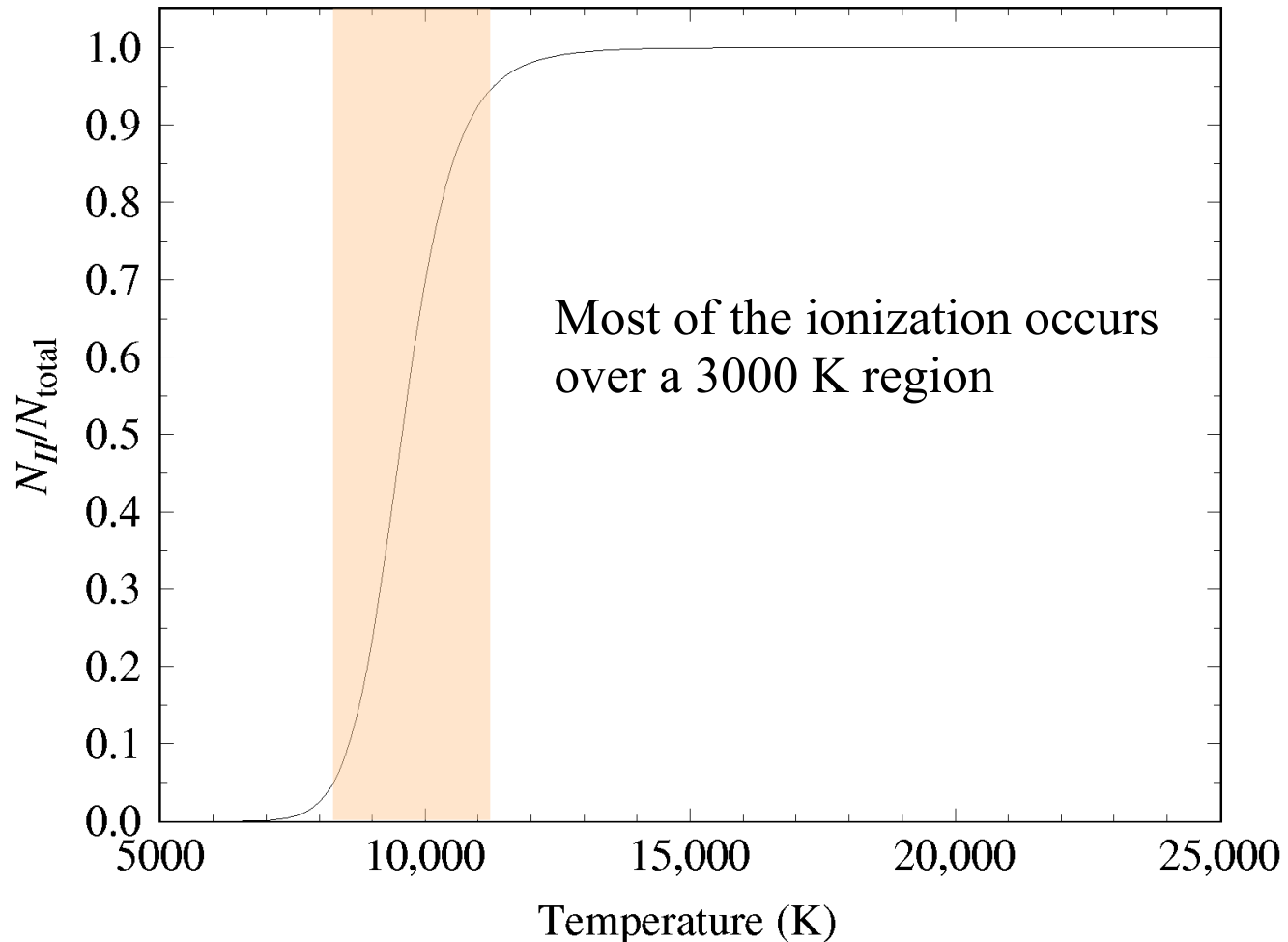
$$k \cdot T = 2.15 \text{ eV}$$

Example 8.3

- Degree of Ionization

$$\frac{N_{II}}{N_I} = \frac{2kT(1)}{P_e(2)} \left(\frac{2\pi m_e kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\chi_i kT}$$

$$\frac{N_{II}}{N_I + N_{II}} = \frac{N_{II}/N_I}{1 + N_{II}/N_I}$$



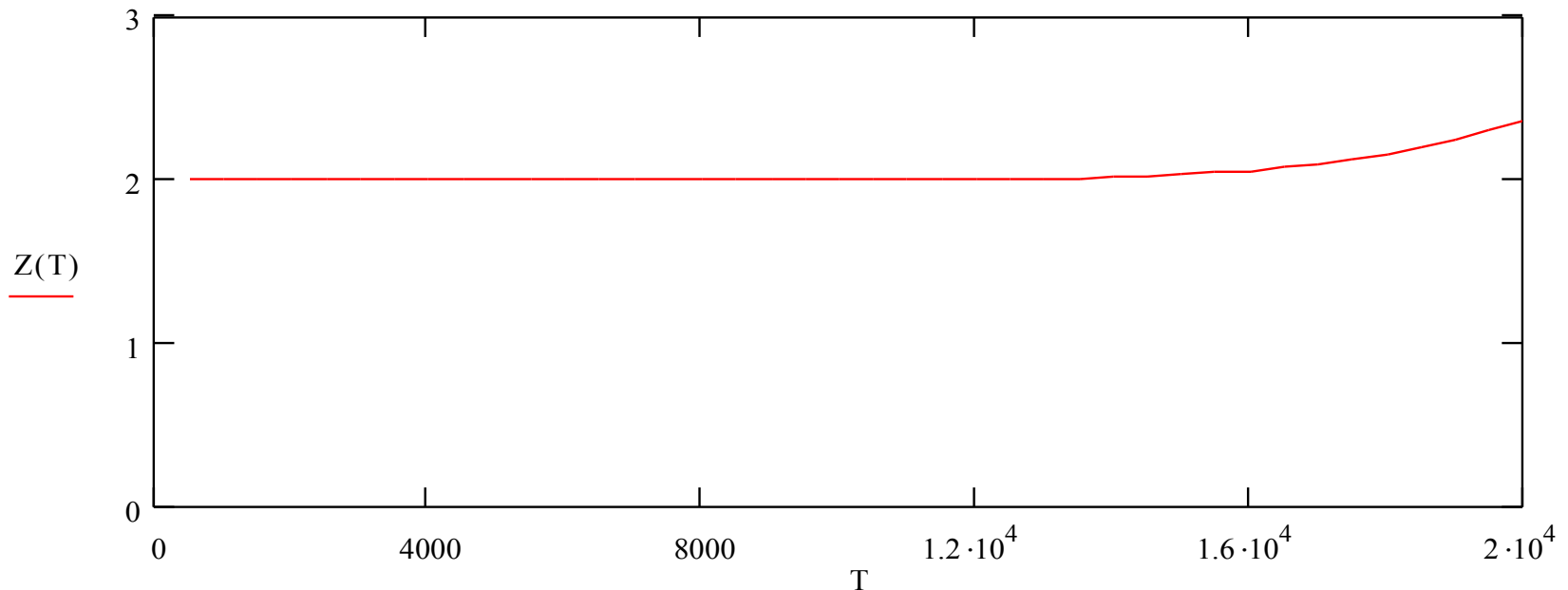
Problem 8.7

- Evaluate the first three terms of the partition function for 10000K

Partition Function: Counting the first ten states... Energy: $E(n) := \frac{-13.6\text{eV}}{n^2}$ Degeneracy: $g(n) := 2 \cdot n^2$

$$f_B(n, T) := \exp\left[\frac{-(E(n) - E(1))}{k \cdot T}\right] \quad Z(T) := \sum_{n=1}^{10} (g(n) \cdot f_B(n, T)) \quad T := 0, 500.. 20000$$

$$Z(6000\text{K}) = 2.0000 \quad Z(10000\text{K}) = 2.0002 \quad Z(15000\text{K}) = 2.0292$$



Problem 8.8

- The partition function diverges at $n \rightarrow \infty$
 - Why do we ignore large n ?

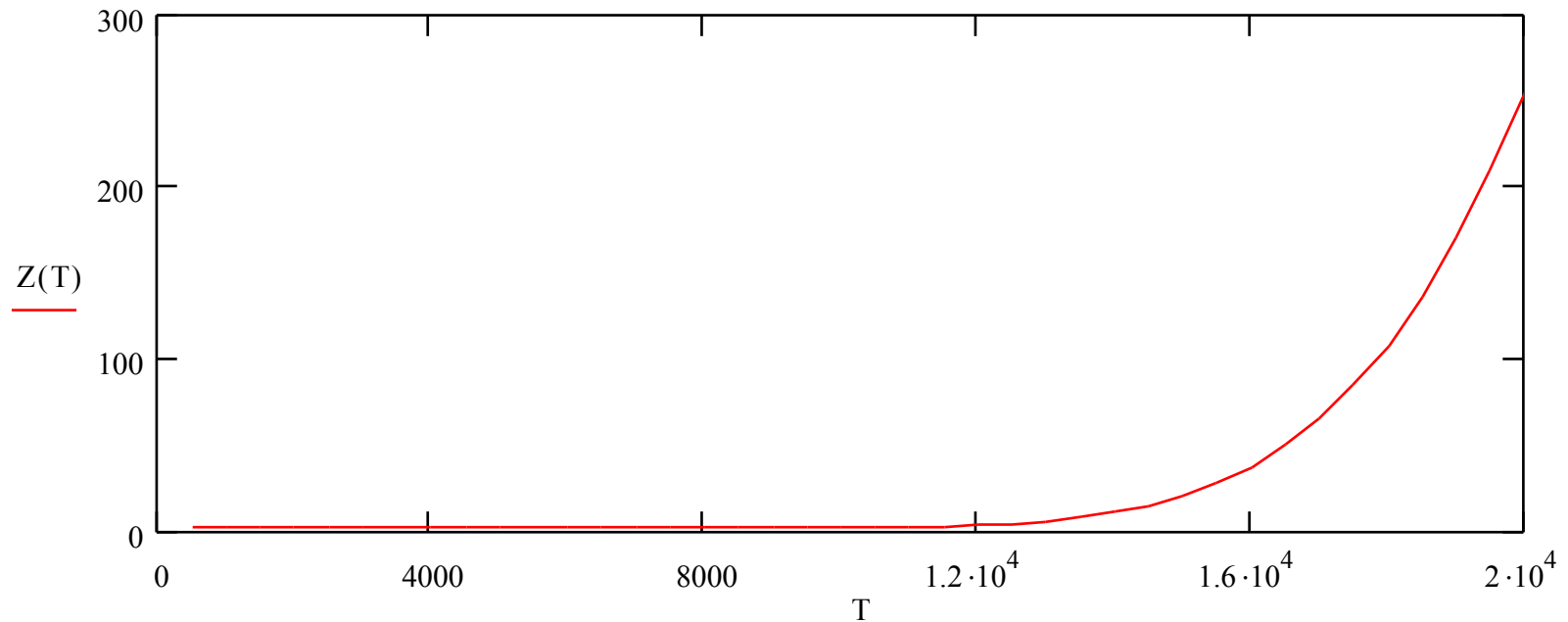
Partition Function: Counting the first 100 states... Energy: $E(n) := \frac{-13.6\text{eV}}{n^2}$ Degeneracy: $g(n) := 2 \cdot n^2$

$$f_{\text{B}}(n, T) := \exp\left[\frac{-(E(n) - E(1))}{k \cdot T}\right] \quad Z(T) := \sum_{n=1}^{100} (g(n) \cdot f_{\text{B}}(n, T)) \quad T := 0, 500.. 20000$$

$$Z(6000\text{K}) = 2.0000$$

$$Z(10000\text{K}) = 2.0952$$

$$Z(15000\text{K}) = 20.2988$$

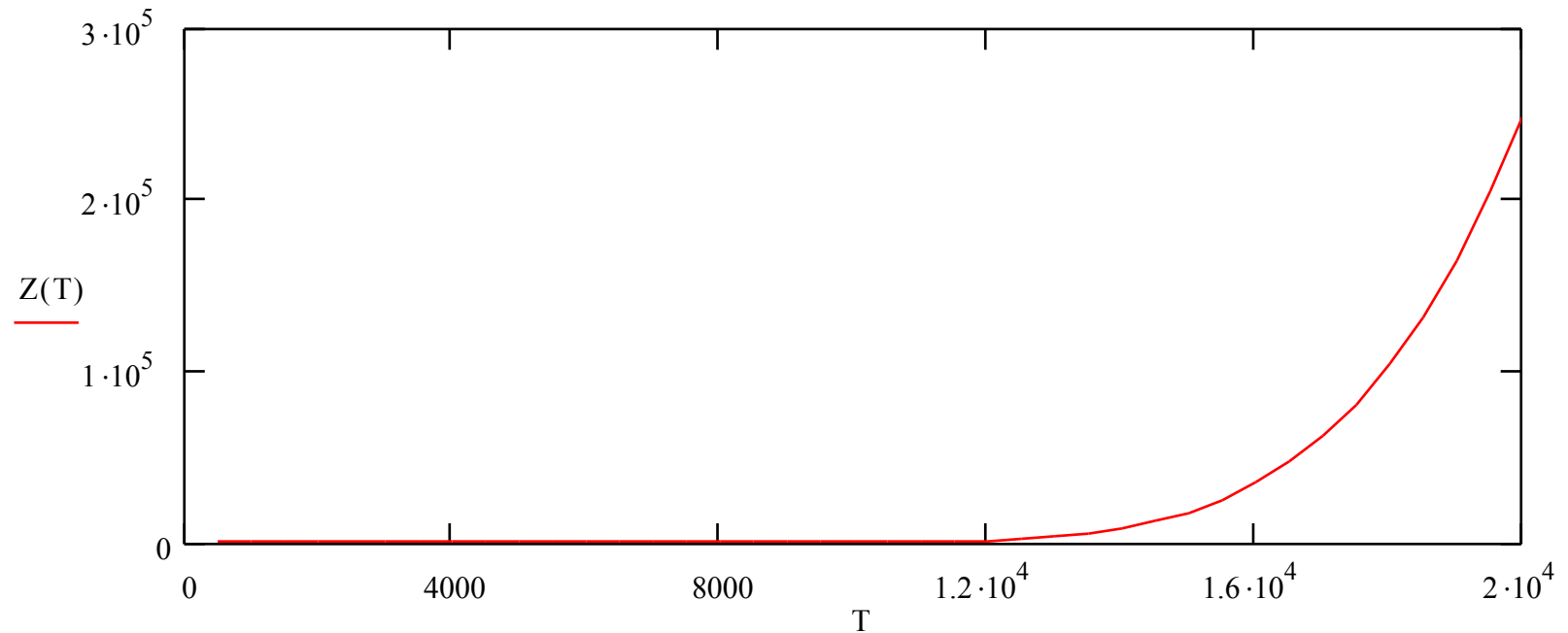


Problem 8.8

Partition Function: Counting the first 1000 states... Energy: $E(n) := \frac{-13.6\text{eV}}{n^2}$ Degeneracy: $g(n) := 2 \cdot n^2$

$$f_B(n, T) := \exp\left[\frac{-(E(n) - E(1))}{k \cdot T}\right] \quad Z(T) := \sum_{n=1}^{1000} (g(n) \cdot f_B(n, T)) \quad T := 0, 500.. 20000$$

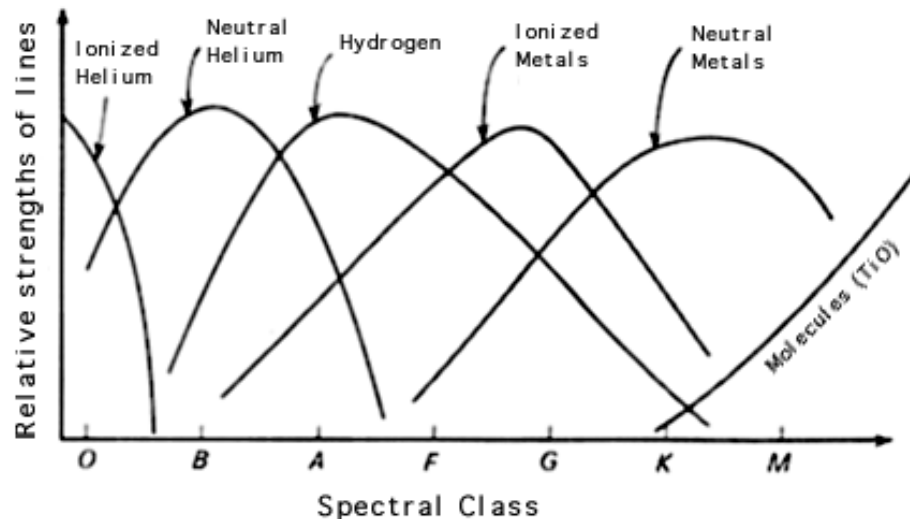
$$Z(6000\text{K}) = 2.0025 \quad Z(10000\text{K}) = 95.4311 \quad Z(15000\text{K}) = 1.7998 \times 10^4$$



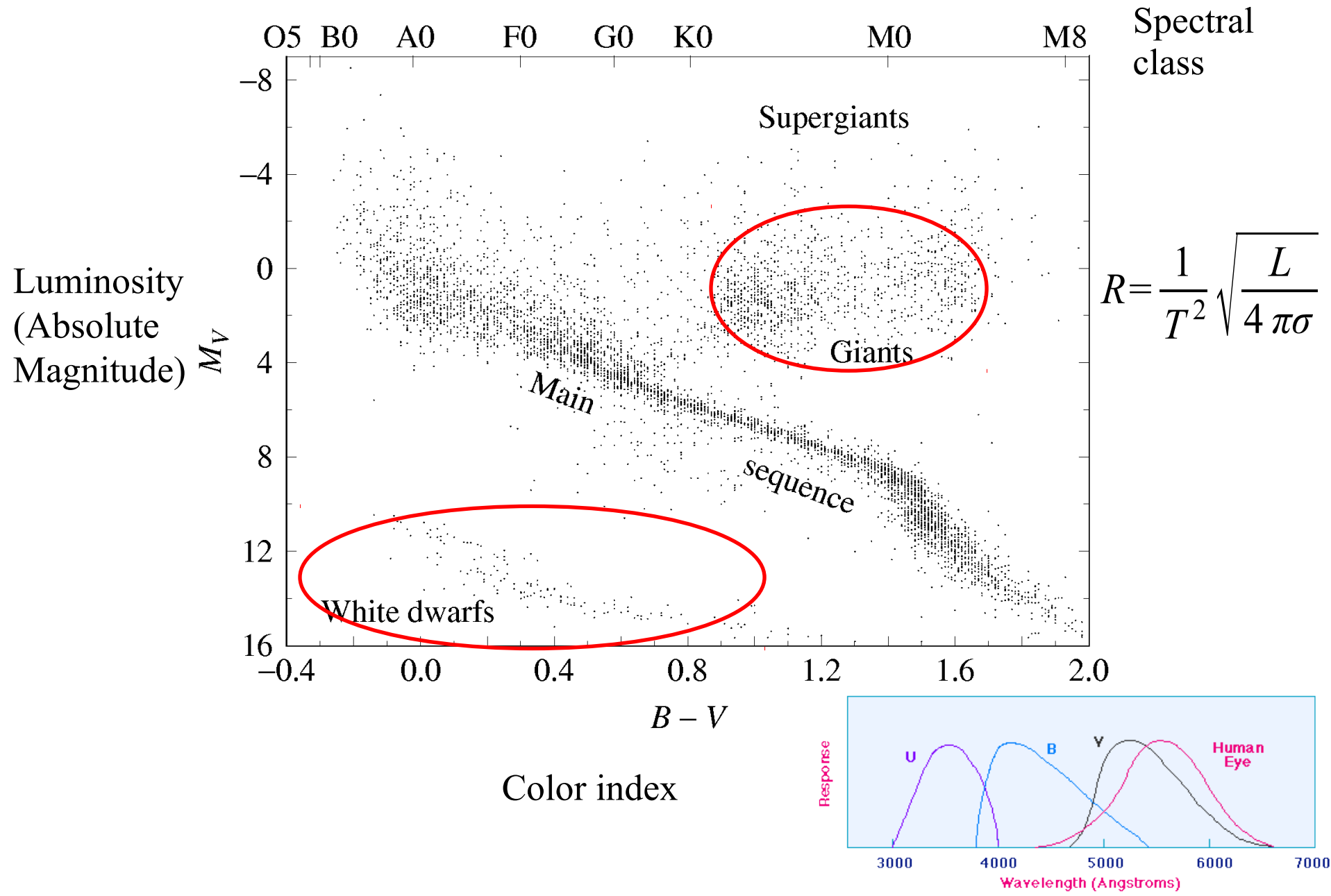
- Ionization
- Unphysical orbital size $r_n = a_o n^2$

Example 8.4

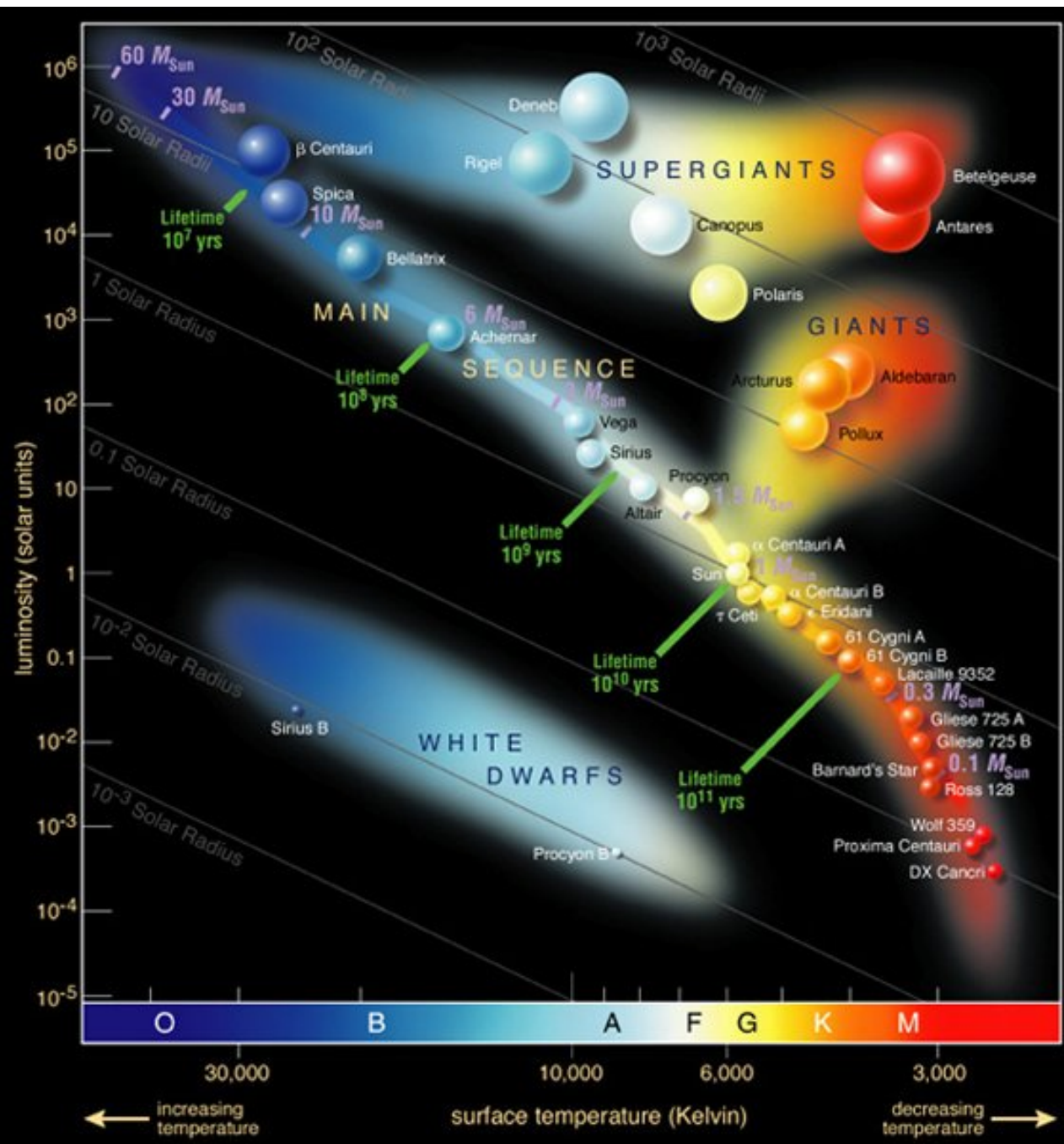
- Surface of the Sun has 500,000 hydrogen atoms per calcium atom, but calcium absorption lines are much stronger than the Balmer series lines.
- The Boltzmann and Saha equations reveal that there are $400\times$ more Ca atoms in the ground electronic state than in the $n=2$ hydrogen state.
- Calcium is not more abundant
- Differences are due to sensitive temperature dependence



Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram



A colorful H-R Diagram



Betelgeuse

Antares

Sun (1 pixel)
Jupiter is invisible at this scale
Sirius Pollux Arcturus



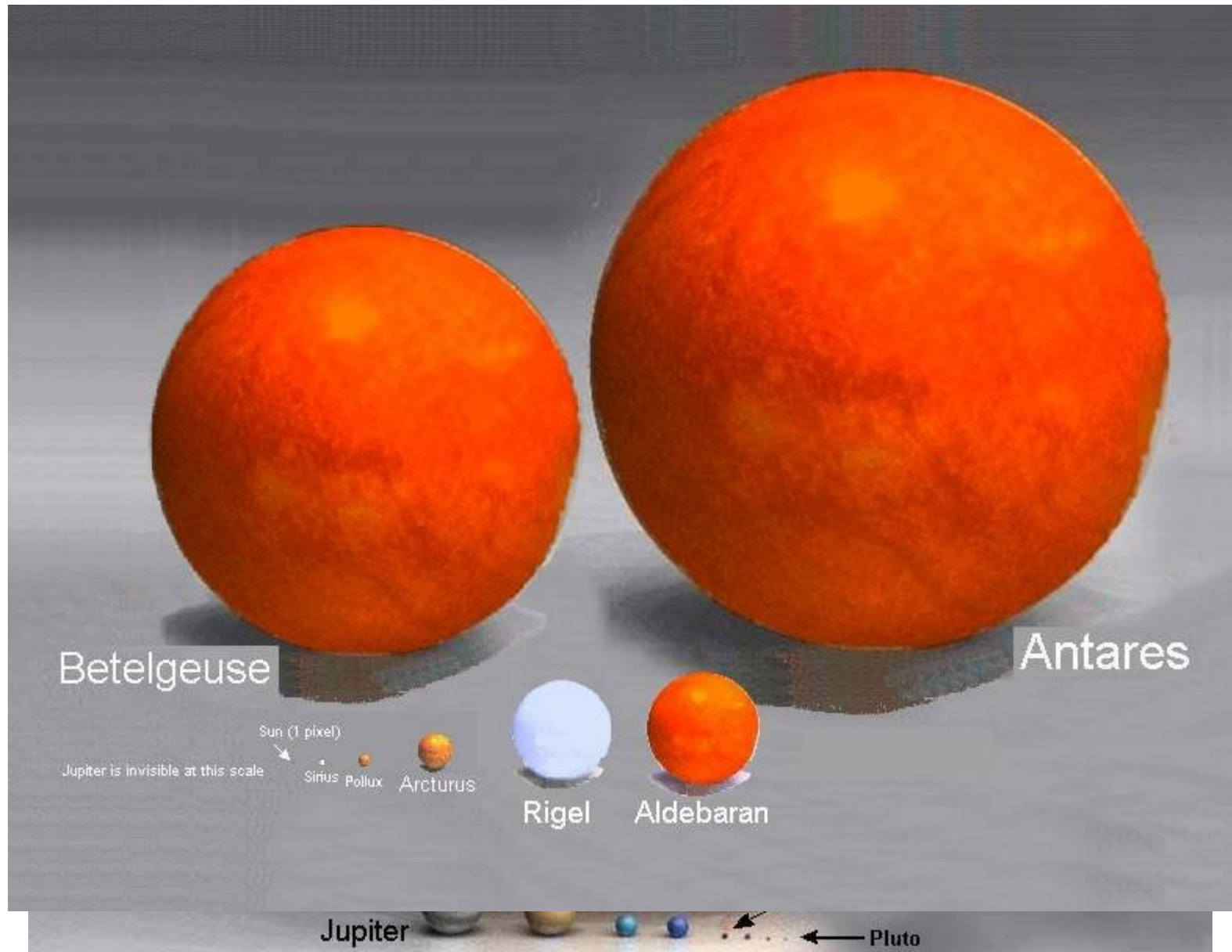
Rigel



Aldebaran

Jupiter

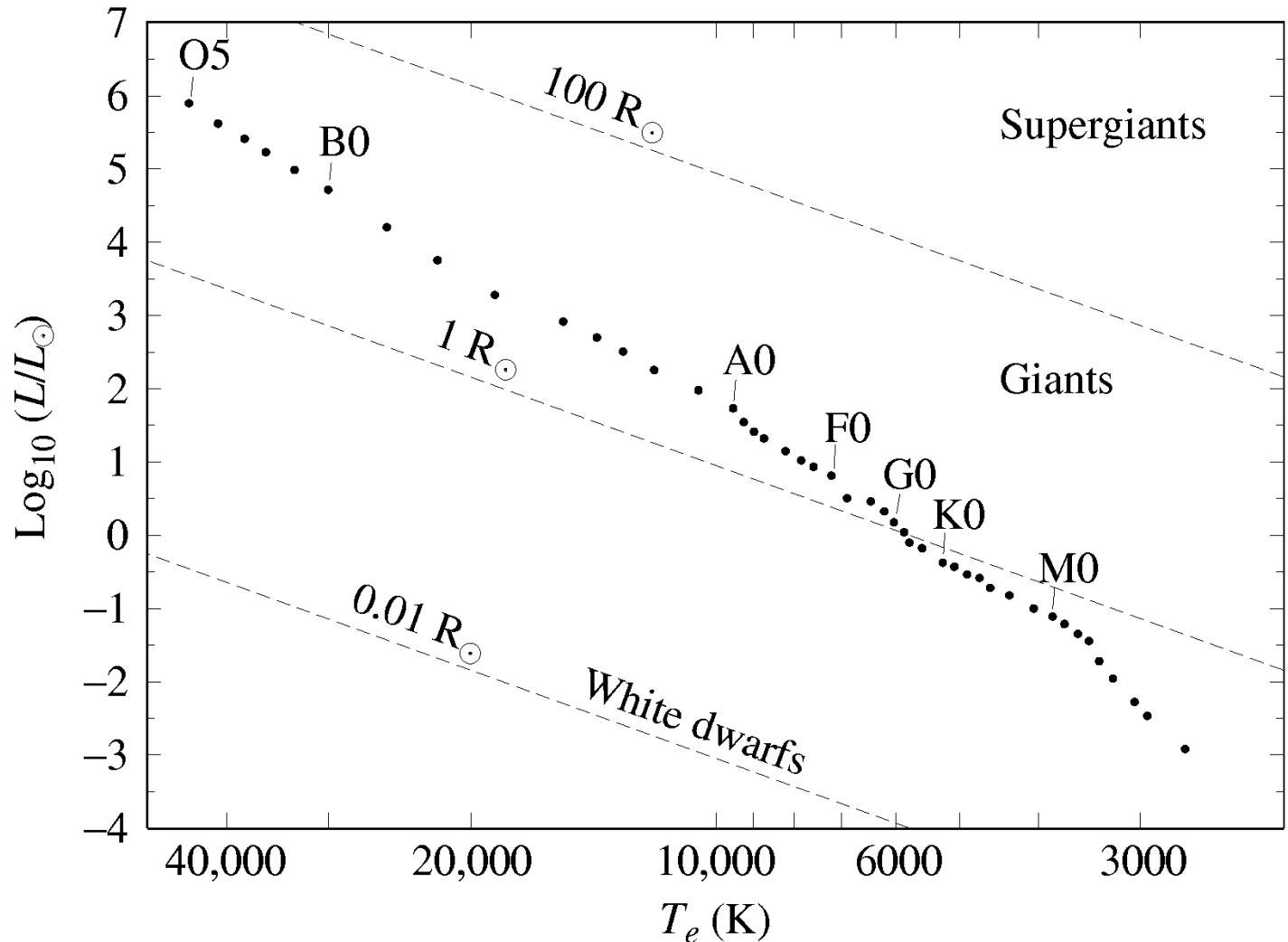
Pluto



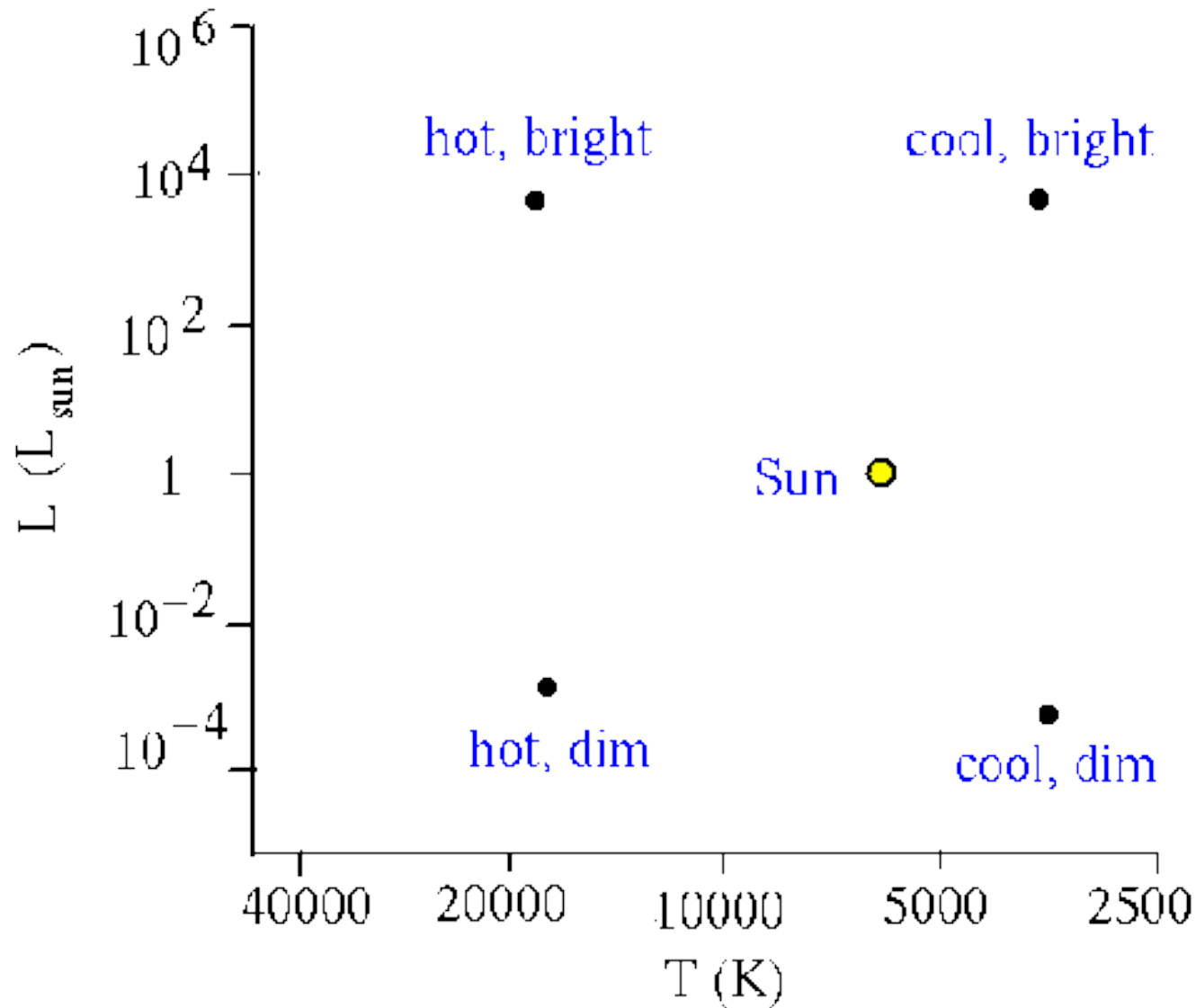
Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram

- Star Radius

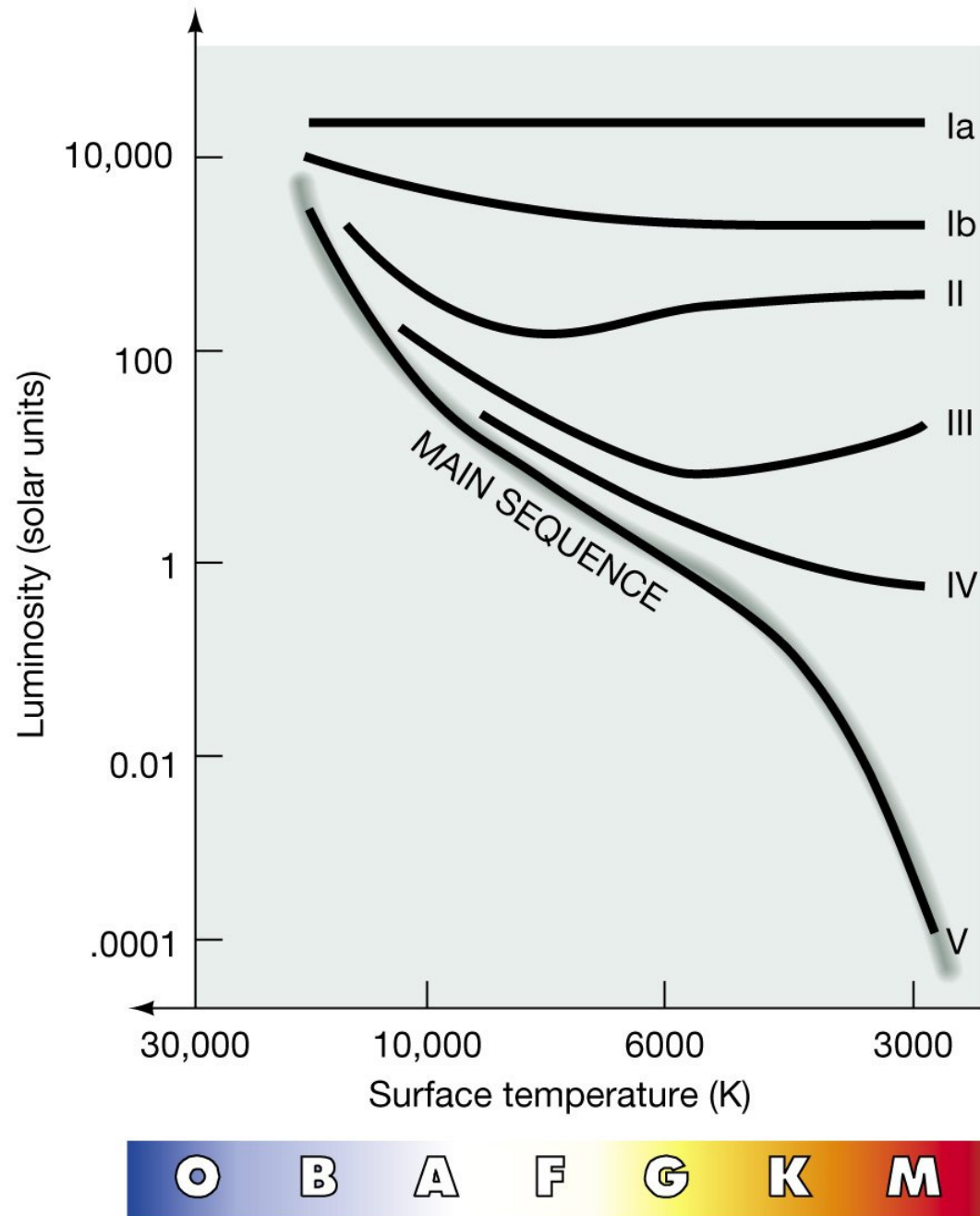
$$R = \frac{1}{T^2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\sigma}}$$



Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram



Luminosity Classes



Spectral classification

Stellar Luminosity Classes

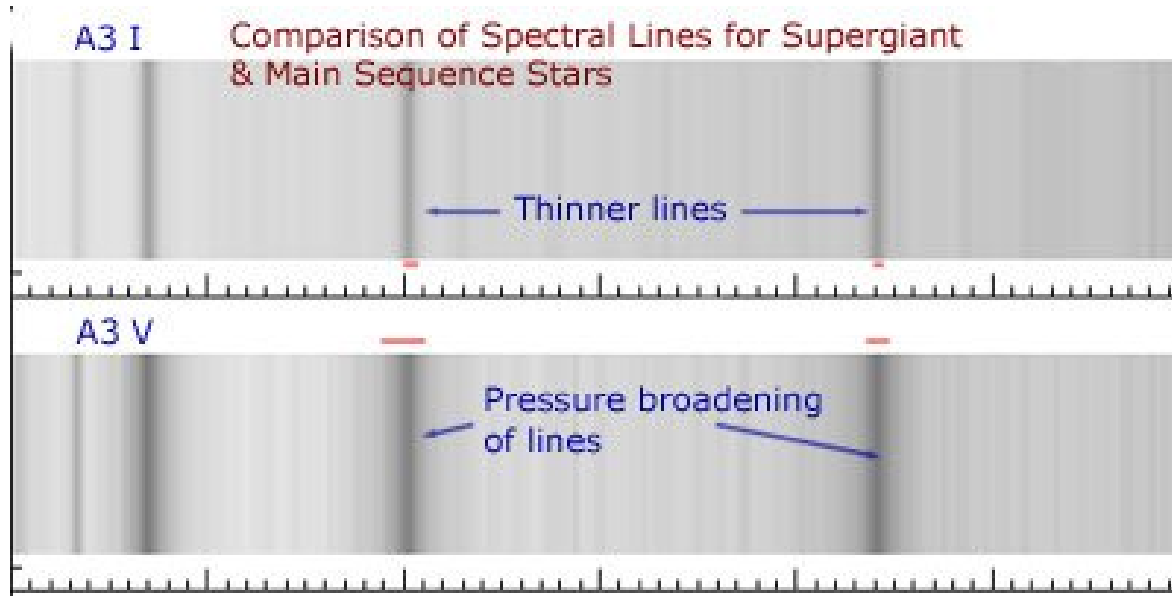
TABLE 17.3 **Stellar Luminosity Classes**

Class	Description
Ia	Bright supergiants
Ib	Supergiants
II	Bright giants
III	Giants
IV	Subgiants
V	Main-sequence stars and dwarfs

Copyright © 2005 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.

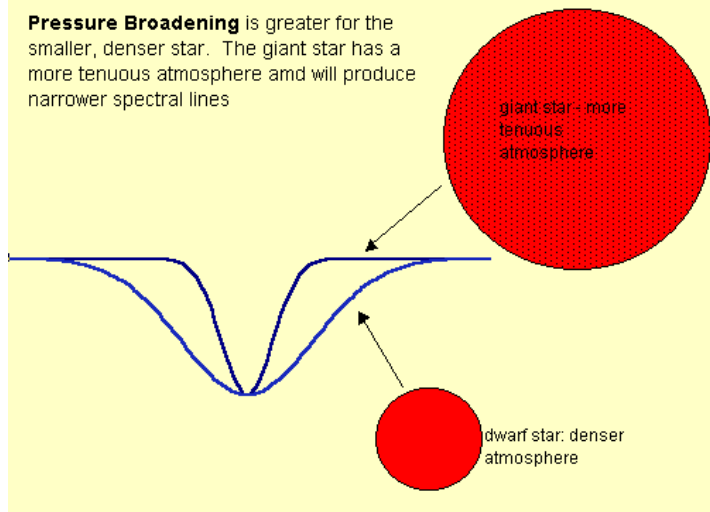
Some define VI and wd (or D)

Luminosity classes can be discerned by line widths.



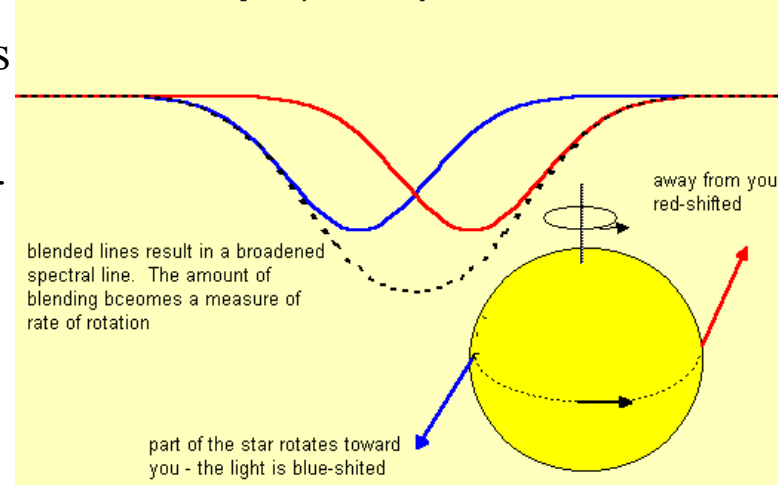
Courtesy ANU.

Pressure Broadening is greater for the smaller, denser star. The giant star has a more tenuous atmosphere and will produce narrower spectral lines



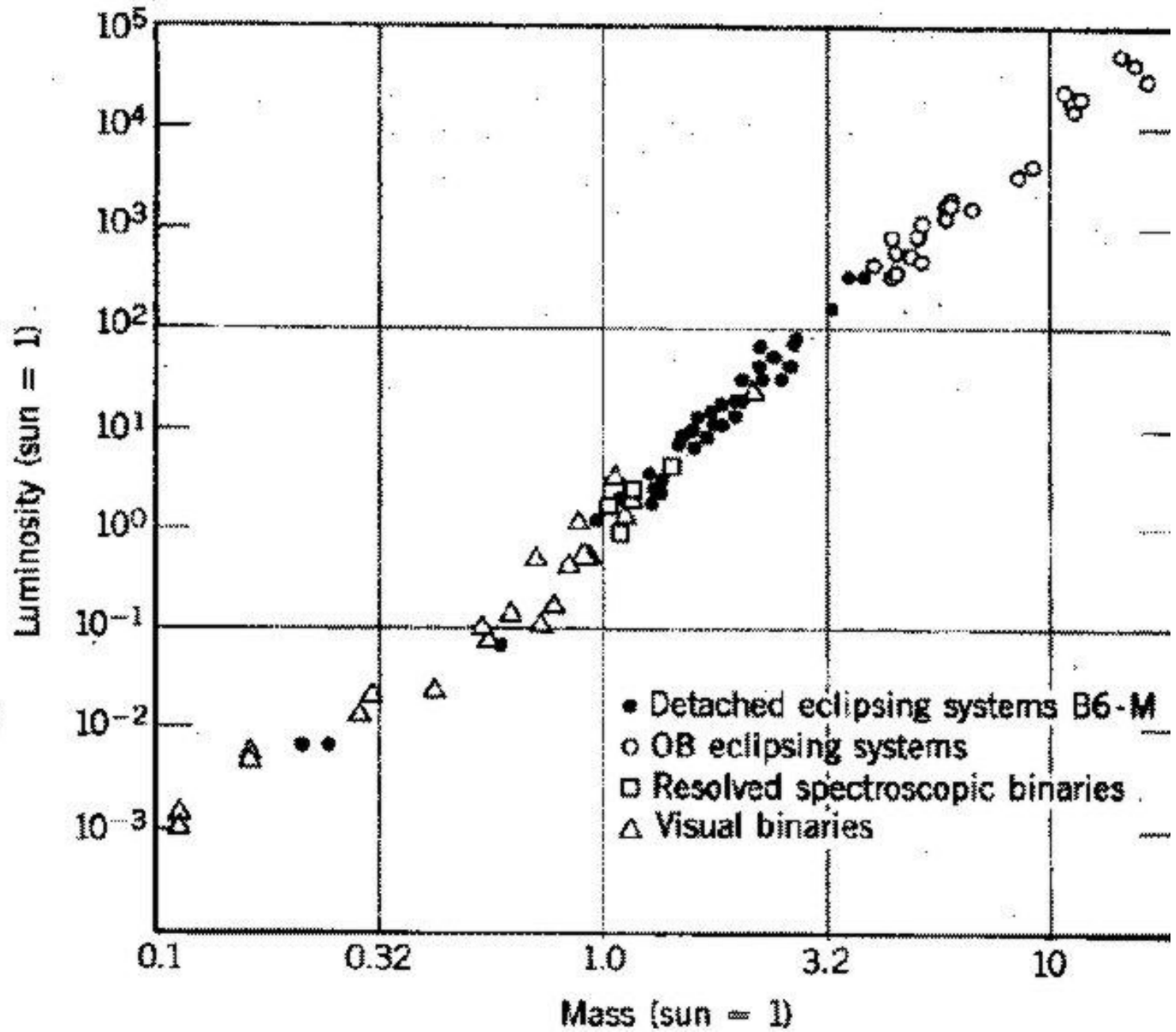
However,
Other processes
Can
Broaden lines...

Rotational Broadening: a way of measuring stellar rotation



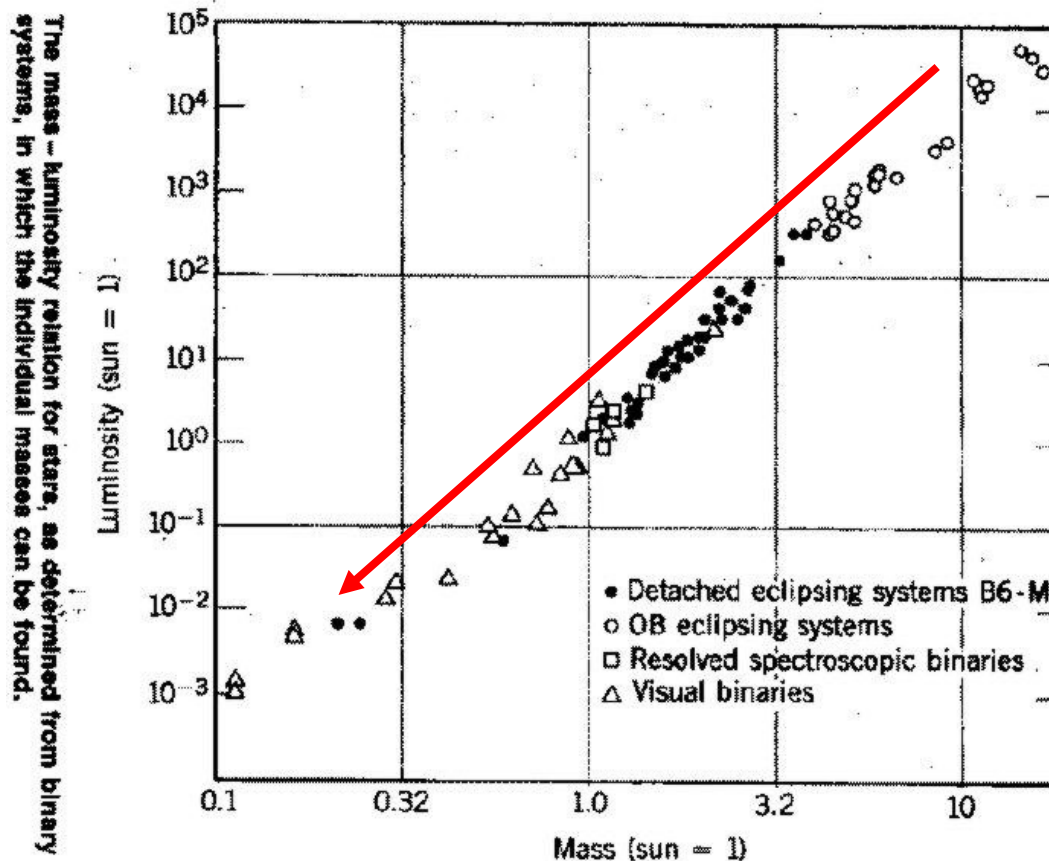
Mass-Luminosity Relation from Binary Systems

The mass – luminosity relation for stars, as determined from binary systems, in which the individual masses can be found.



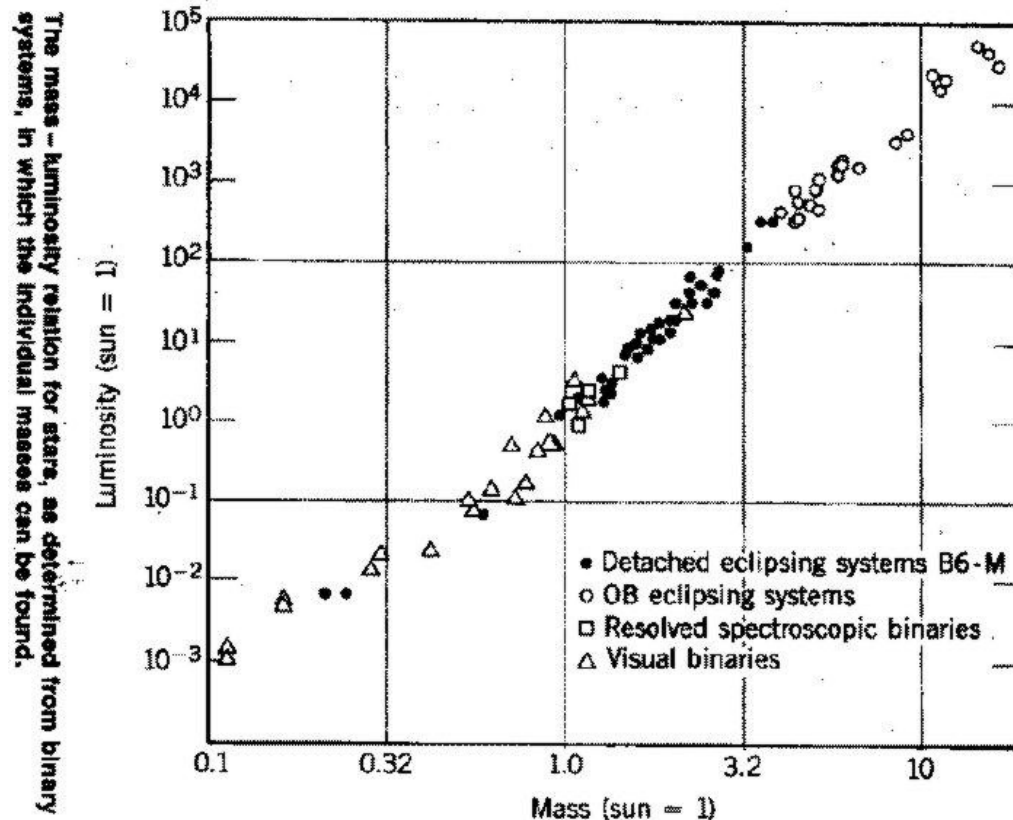
Mass-Luminosity Relation

- Early theories had “early” O-type (bright, hot, massive) stars evolving to “old” M-type stars (dim, cool, less massive)

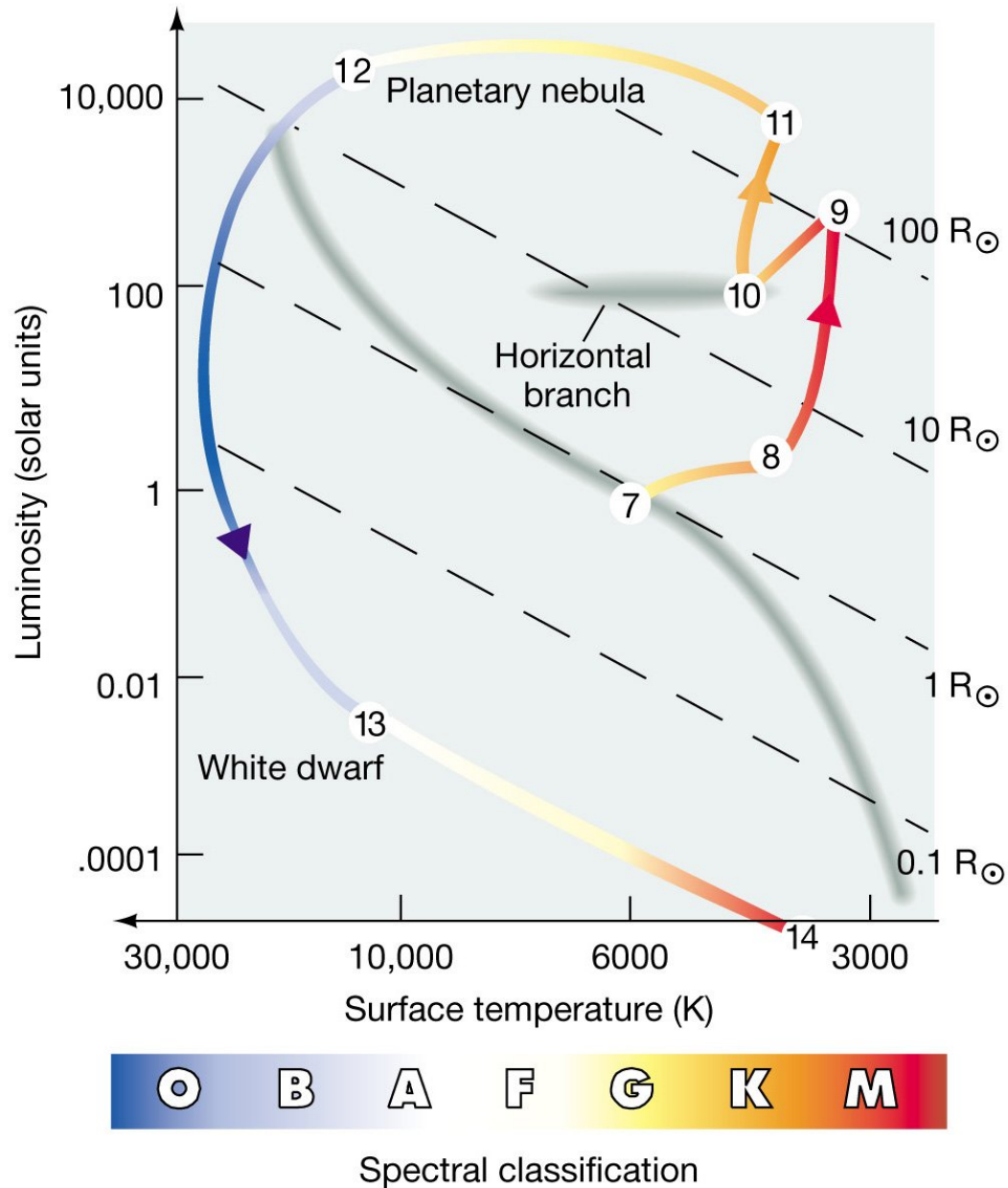


Mass-Luminosity Relation

- Luminosity (power output) comes from nuclear fusion at the core of the stars.
- L increases dramatically with M: $L \sim M^{3.5}$ (from M-L relation)
- From this, we can derive a lifetime for stars on the Main Seq.:
 - Lifetime = Fuel/(Rate of burning fuel)
 - Lifetime = M/L
 - Lifetime = $M/M^{3.5} = M^{-2.5}$
- Actually, $L \sim M^4$ for $M > 1$, so
- Lifetime $\sim M^{-3}$



Evolution of 1 M_{\odot} star.



Evolutionary tracks.

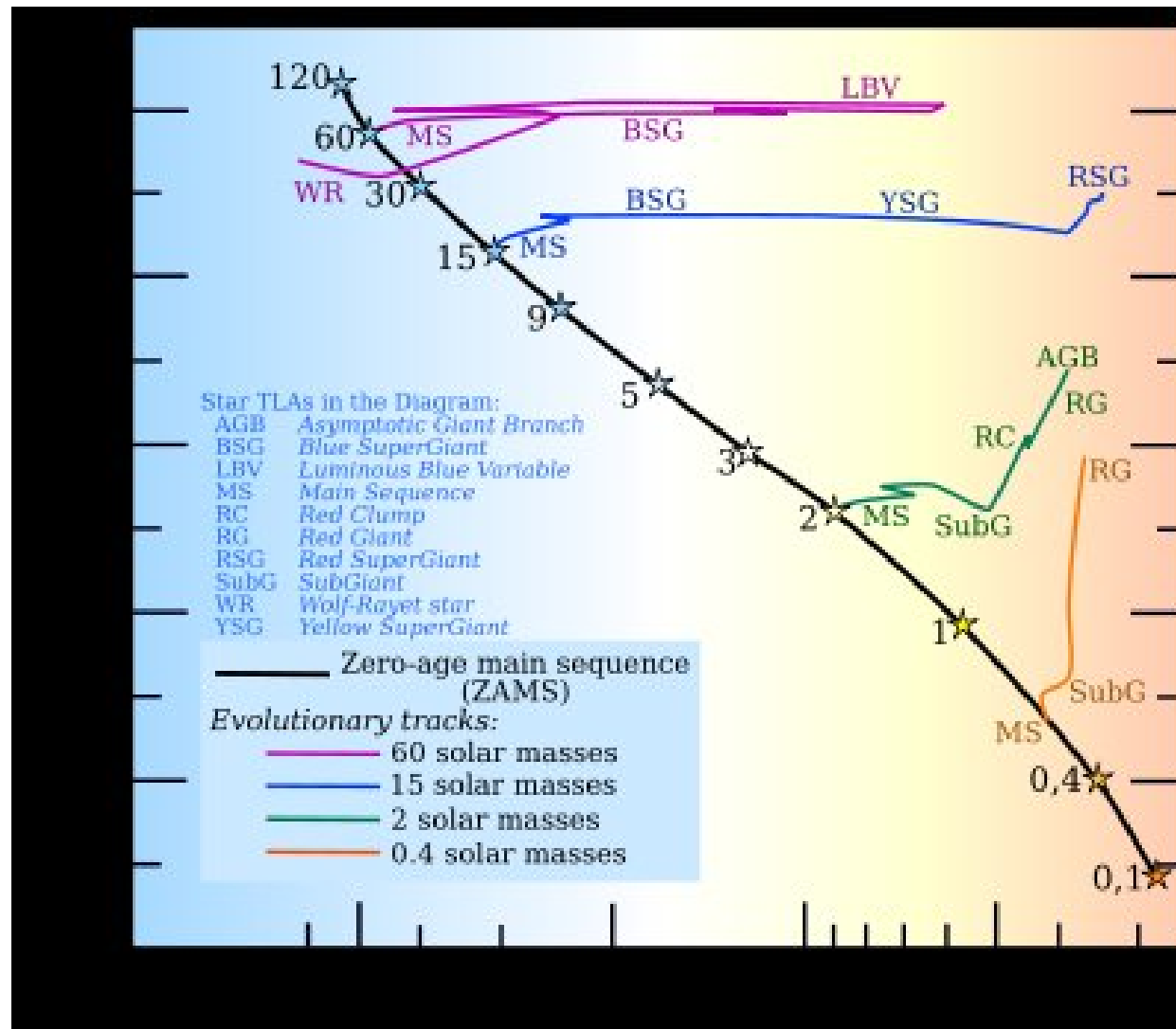
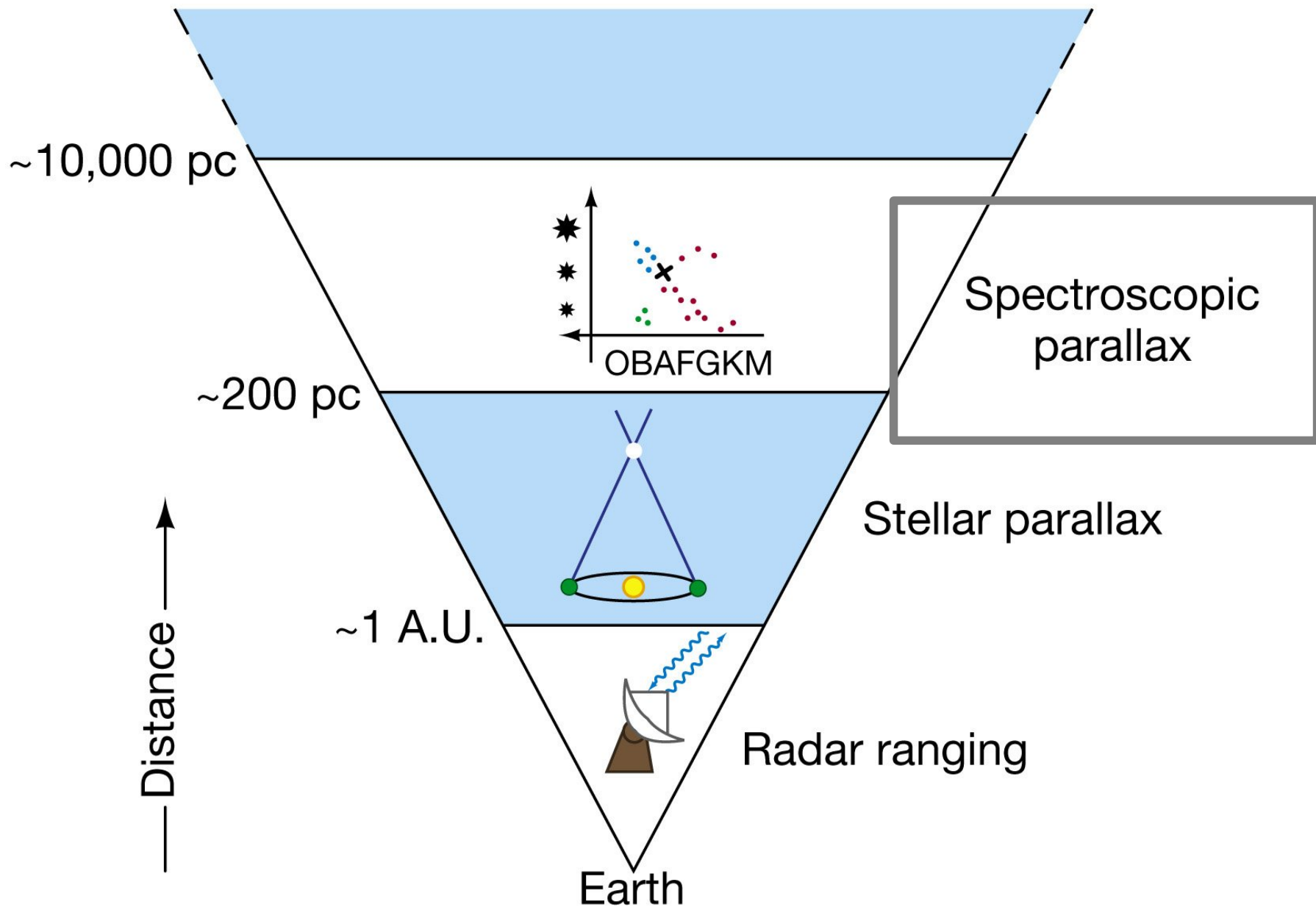


Figure 17-17
Stellar Distances



Spectroscopic “Parallax”

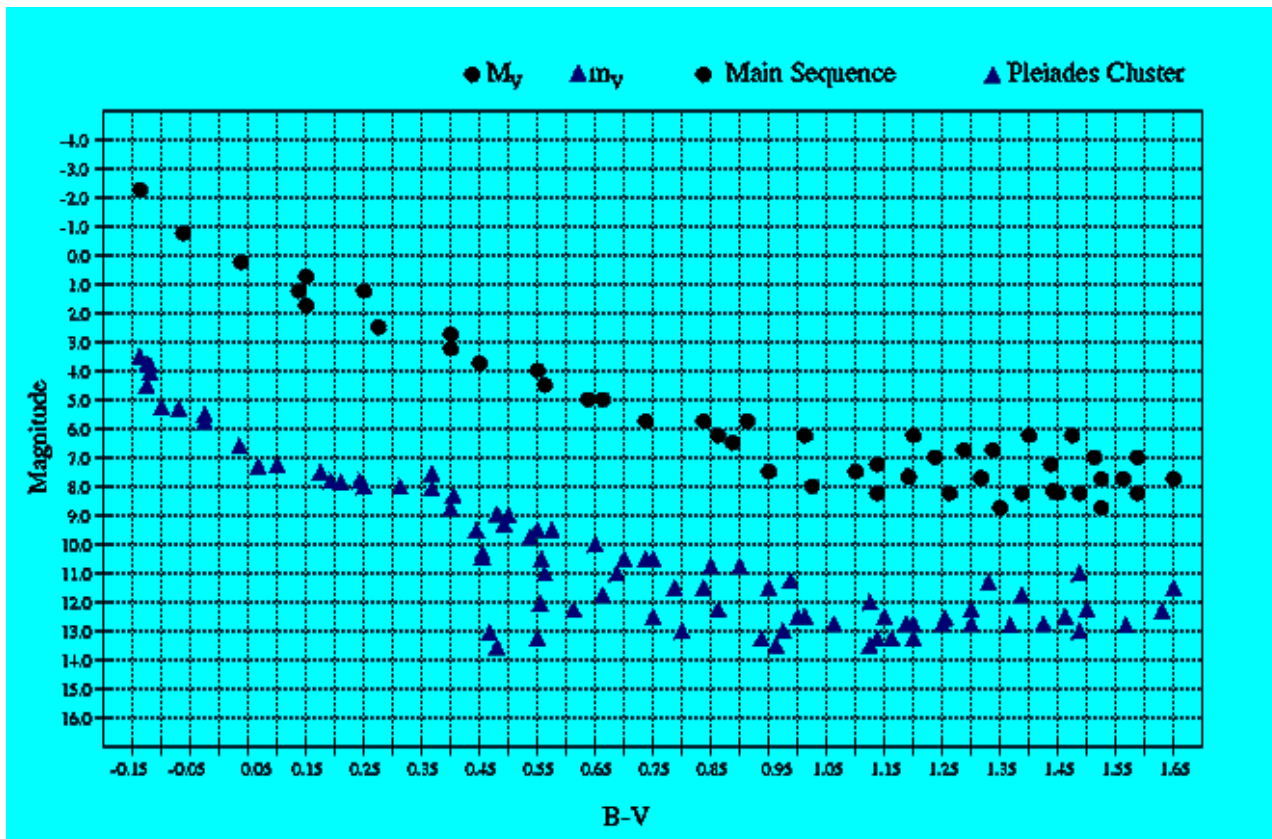
- Method to determine a stars distance
 - Determine the spectral class and luminosity class.
 - Read the absolute magnitude from the H-R diagram
 - Compare to apparent magnitude to determine distance
 - Accurate to a factor of ± 1 magnitude
 - $10^{1/5} = 1.6$

Stellar and Spectroscopic Parallax

Stellar Parallax works out to 200pc (ground), 1000 pc (Hipparcos)

Spectroscopic Parallax works for stars for which a good spectrum can be observed (about 8 kpc), but ...

- Not precise for individual stars, especially giants
- Entire clusters of stars works better! (“main-sequence fitting”)



$$m-M=5\log(d/10)$$

Spec Parallax assumes, for example, that all A0V stars have the same M . That makes A0V stars “standard candles”.