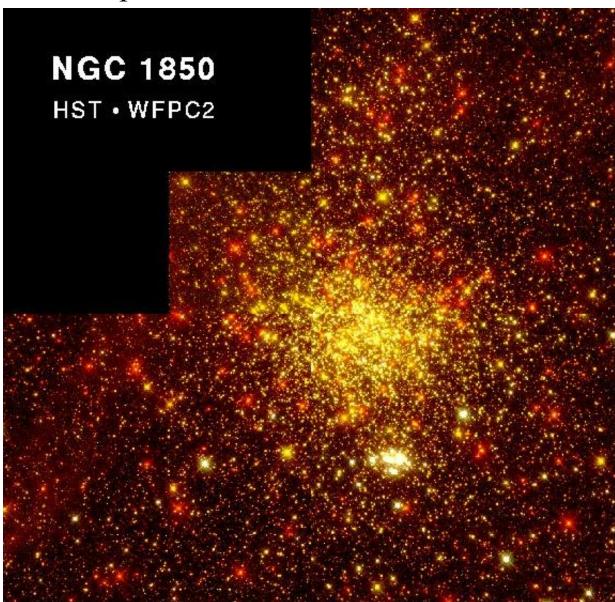
# The Classification of Stellar Spectra

Chapter 8

Star Clusters in the Large Magellanic Cloud



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) The Harvard "Computers" of the Harvard
  - -Temperature (Color)
  - -Spectra (absorption lines)
  - -Mass (only for binaries)
- The Henry Draper Catalogue
  - -Contained >100,000 spectral classifications from A.J. Canno and others from Harvard
  - -Used OBAFGKM



College Observatory

http://cannon.sfsu.edu/%7Egmarcy/cswa/history/pick.html

## 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 Hotter Cooler

  O B A F G K M L

Blue

Early type → late type

Yellow

Red

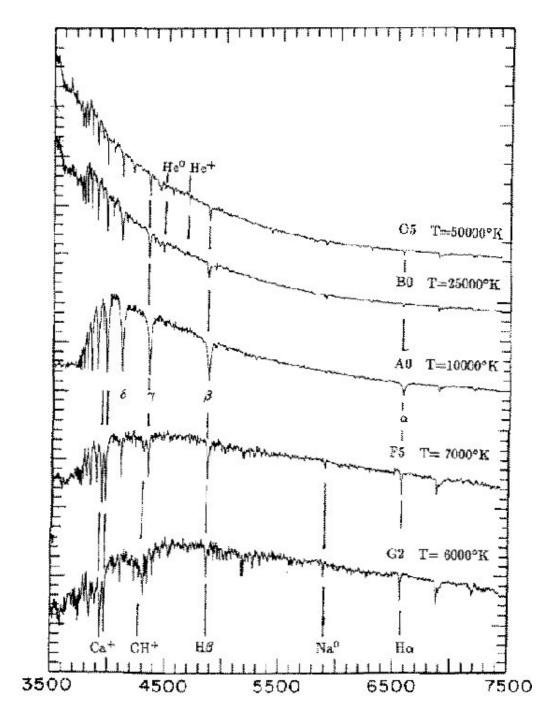
L and T are more modern additions – Brown Dwarfs. R N S also used after M.

- Subdivisions in tenths:  $0 \rightarrow 9$  (early  $\rightarrow$  late, hot  $\rightarrow$  cool) within a Spectral Type). E.g., A0 is hotter than A5.
- The Sun is a G2 an early G-type star

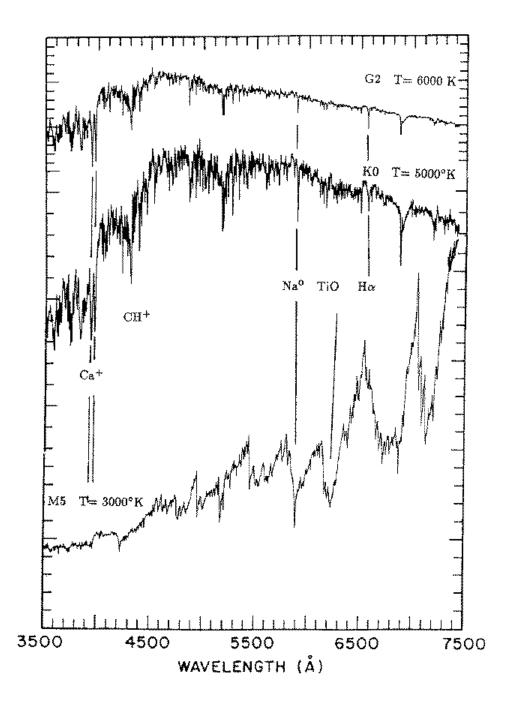
Violet

- 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

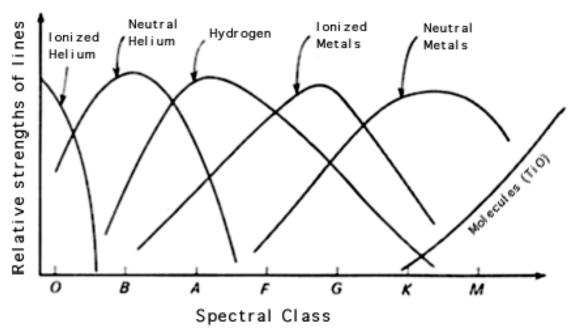


# G to M example



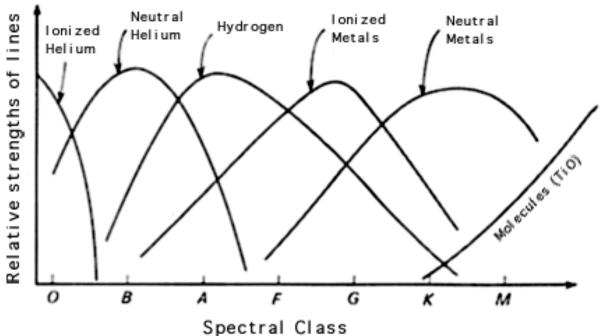
# The Formation of Spectral Lines

- 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\_surf = 10,000K?
- 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

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

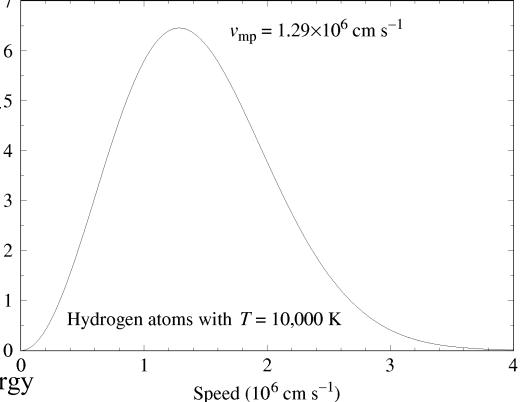
• Root-mean-square

$$v_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{3 kT}{m}} = 1.73 \sqrt{kT} \frac{1}{2} m_4^5$$

• Average  $v_{avg} = \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{\pi m}} = 1.6\sqrt{kT} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2}$ 

Collisional energy causes

 a distribution of electrons
 among the atomic orbitals
 (Kinetic Energy → 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

$$P_{v} \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^{2}/kT}$$

- 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 <u>degeneracy</u> or <u>statistical weight</u> of state a

• Ratio of probabilities between states with two different energies

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

#### 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  $\{n, l, m, m_s\}$ 
  - 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 ]
2р	2	1	-1,0,+1	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	6 } 8
3s	3	0	0	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	2
3р	3	1	-1,0,+1	$+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$	6 \ 18
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

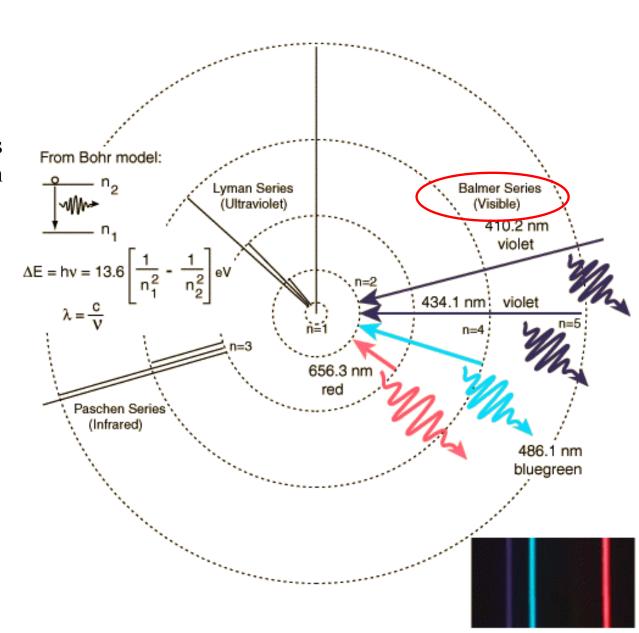
 $P_a$  = probability of being in state a

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

Hydrogen Atom Examples

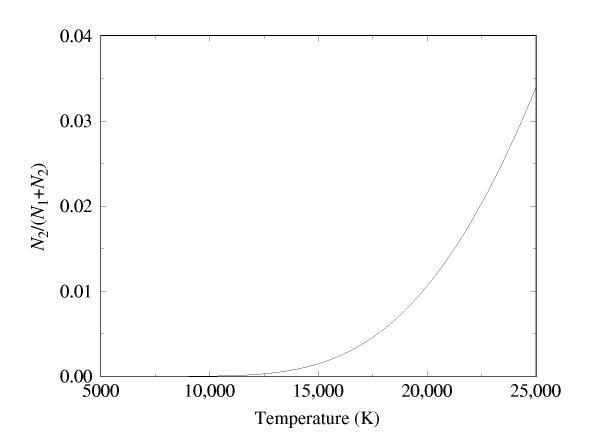
## Hydrogen Atom

- 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  $\frac{1}{-E}$
- 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:

$$\frac{P_{2}}{P_{all}} = \frac{g_{b}e^{\frac{-(E_{2}-E_{1})}{kT}}}{\frac{-(E_{1}-E_{1})}{kT} + g_{2}e^{\frac{-(E_{2}-E_{1})}{kT}} + g_{3}e^{\frac{-(E_{3}-E_{1})}{kT}} + \cdots} = \frac{g_{2}e^{\frac{-(E_{2}-E_{1})}{kT}}}{Z}$$

#### Partition Function

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

as ten us now many states are accessione of availar appearature (thermal energy)
$$Z = g_1 e^{\frac{-(E_1 - E_1)}{kT}} + g_2 e^{\frac{-(E_2 - E_1)}{kT}} + g_3 e^{\frac{-(E_3 - E_1)}{kT}} + \cdots$$

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

- 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

$$\chi_I = 13.6 \, eV$$

- Rather than  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the atom will ionize before this happens

# Saha Equation

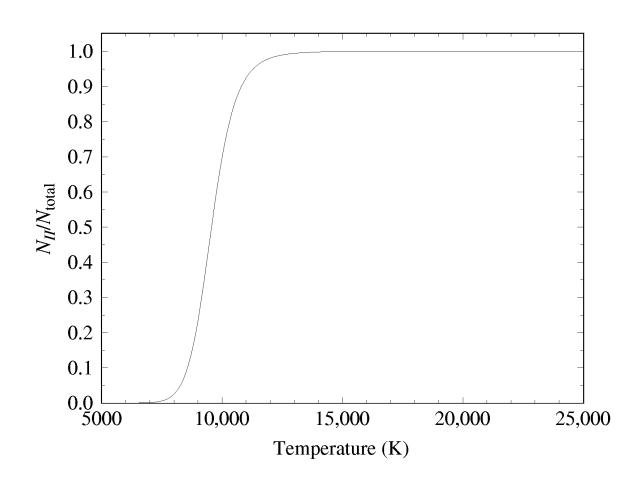
- Determines the ratio of ionized atoms
- Need partition functions since all the atoms are not in the same state
  - Z<sub>i</sub> is the initial stage of ionization
  - $Z_{i+1}$  is the final stage of ionization
- Ratio of the number of atoms in each of these stages

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

- $-n_e$  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

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

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

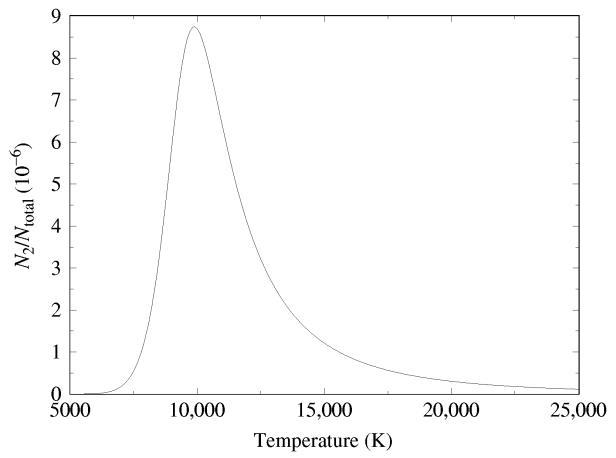
Fraction of non-ionized hydrogen atoms

$$\frac{N_2}{N_{total}} = \left(\frac{N_2}{N_I}\right) \left(\frac{1}{1+N_{II}N_I}\right) \overline{N_I \approx N_1 + N_2} \left(\frac{N_2}{N_1 + N_2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{1+N_{II}N_I}\right)$$

$$\frac{N_2}{N_{total}} = \left(\frac{N_2N_1}{1+N_2N_1}\right) \left(\frac{1}{1+N_{II}N_I}\right)$$

## 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

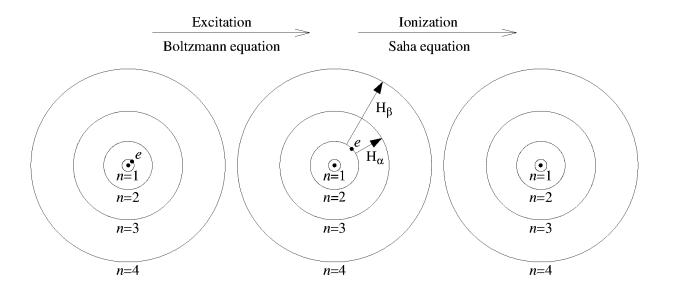


# H I n = 2 population

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

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  $\frac{N_{II}}{N_{II}}$
- Given electron pressure  $P_e = 200 \frac{dyne}{cm^2}$
- 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  $Z_{\parallel} = 1$
  - Neutral hydrogen over this temp range

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

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

$$\Rightarrow Z_{I} = g_{I} + \sum_{i} g_{i} e^{\frac{-(E_{i} - E_{1})}{kT}} g_{1} = 2$$

$$T := 5000K$$

$$k \cdot T = 0.43 \, eV$$

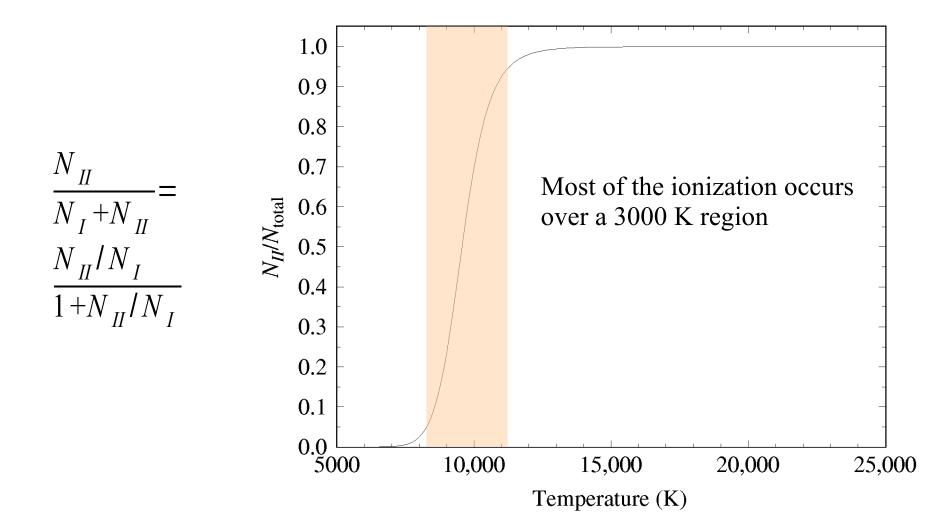
$$T := 25000K$$

$$k \cdot T = 2.15 \,\mathrm{eV}$$

## Example 8.3

Degree of Ionization

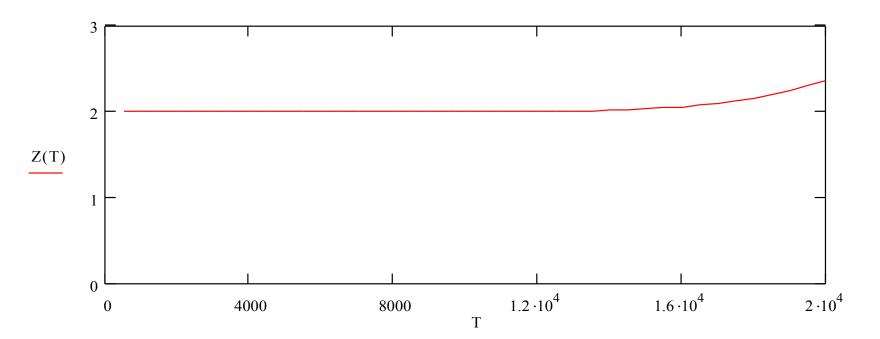
$$\frac{N_{II}}{N_{I}} = \frac{2kT(1)}{P_{e}(2)} \left( \frac{2\pi \ m_{e} kT}{h^{2}} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\chi_{i} kT}$$



#### Problem 8.7

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

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Partition Function:} & \text{Counting the first ten states...} & \underline{\text{Energy:}} & E(n) := \frac{-13.6\text{eV}}{n^2} & \underline{\text{Degeneracy:}} & g(n) := 2 \cdot n^2 \\ & f_B(n,T) := \exp \bigg[ \frac{-(E(n) - E(1))}{k \cdot T} \bigg] & Z(T) := \sum_{n=1}^{10} \ \Big( g(n) \cdot f_B(n,T) \Big) & T := 0,500... \ 20000 \\ & Z(6000K) = 2.0000 & Z(10000K) = 2.0002 & Z(15000K) = 2.0292 \end{aligned}$$

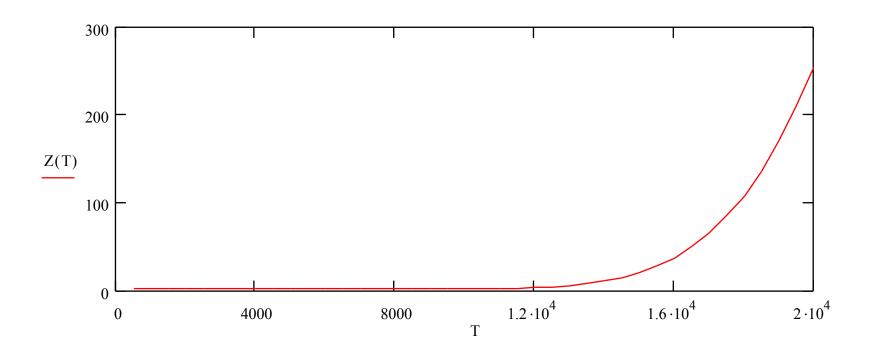


#### Problem 8.8

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

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Partition Function:} &\quad &\text{Counting the first 100 states...} &\quad &\underline{\text{Energy:}} &\quad &\underline{\text{E}(n)} := \frac{-13.6 eV}{n^2} \\ &\quad &f_B(n,T) := exp \Bigg[ \frac{-(E(n)-E(1))}{k \cdot T} \Bigg] &\quad &Z(T) := \sum_{n=1}^{100} \ \left( g(n) \cdot f_B(n,T) \right) \\ &\quad &T := 0,500...20000 \end{aligned}$$

$$Z(6000K) = 2.0000$$
  $Z(10000K) = 2.0952$   $Z(15000K) = 20.2988$ 



#### Problem 8.8

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

<u>Degeneracy:</u>  $g(n) := 2 \cdot n^2$ 

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

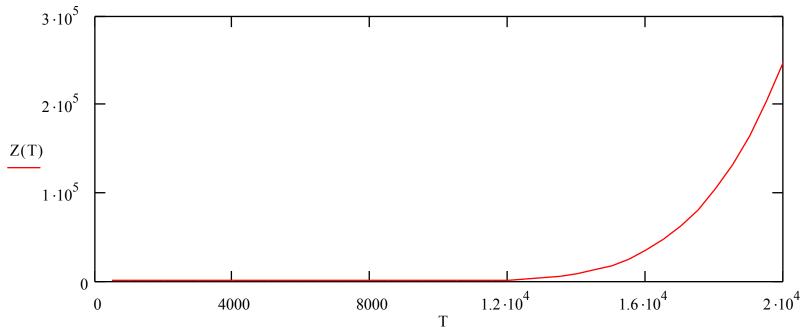
$$Z(T) := \sum_{n=1}^{1000} \left( g(n) \cdot f_{\mathbf{B}}(n, T) \right)$$

T := 0,500..20000

$$Z(6000K) = 2.0025$$

$$Z(10000K) = 95.4311$$

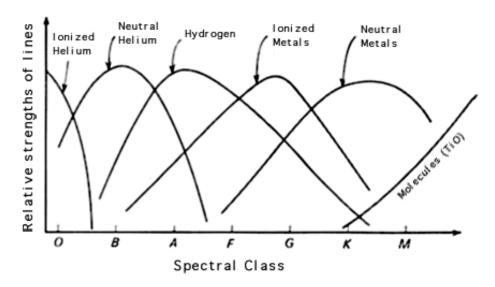
$$Z(10000K) = 95.4311$$
  $Z(15000K) = 1.7998 \times 10^4$ 



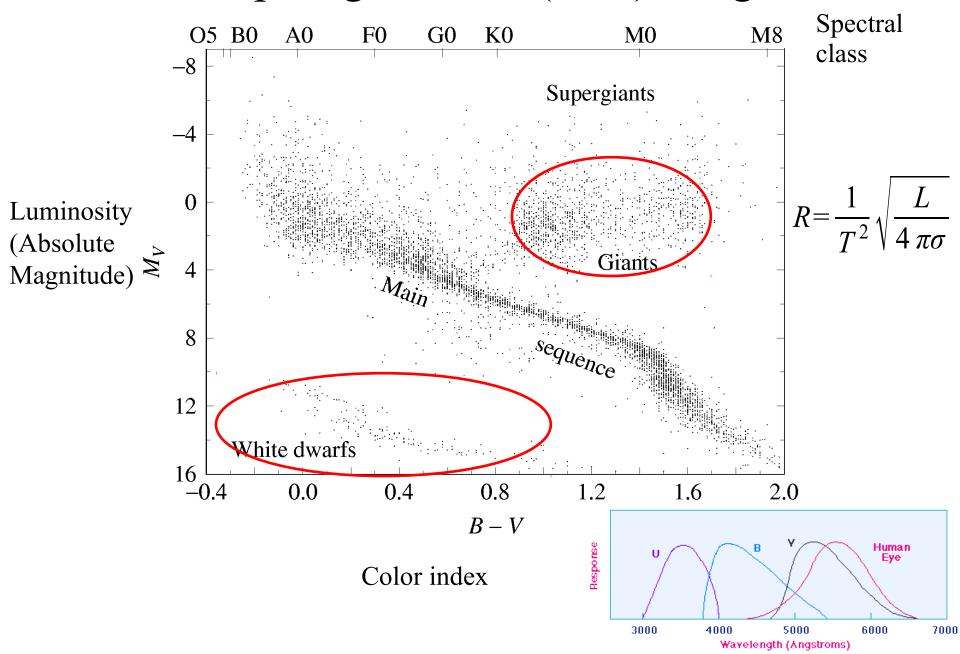
- Ionization
- Unphysical orbital size  $r_n = a_0 n^2$

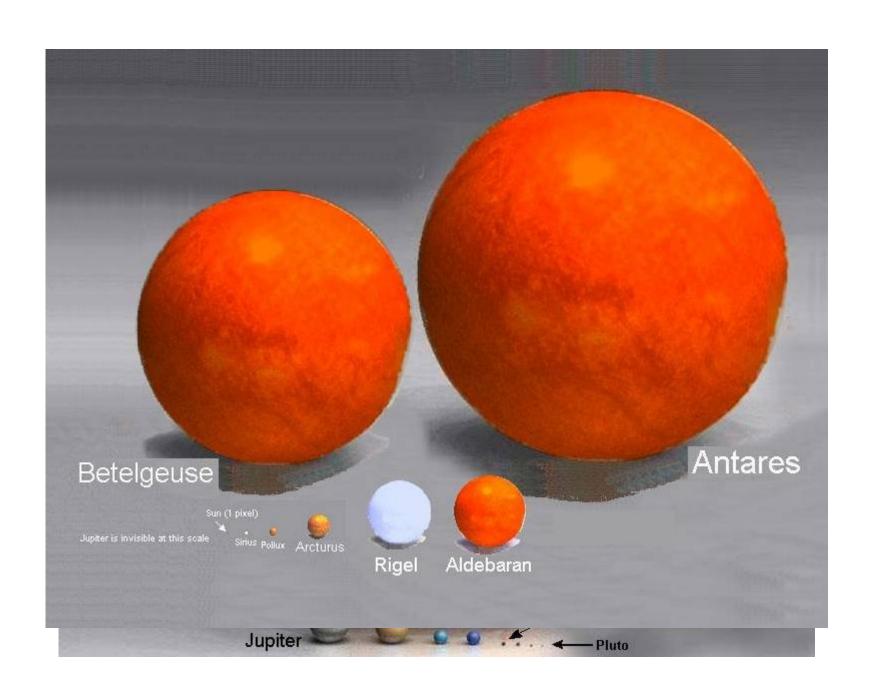
## Example 8.4

- 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

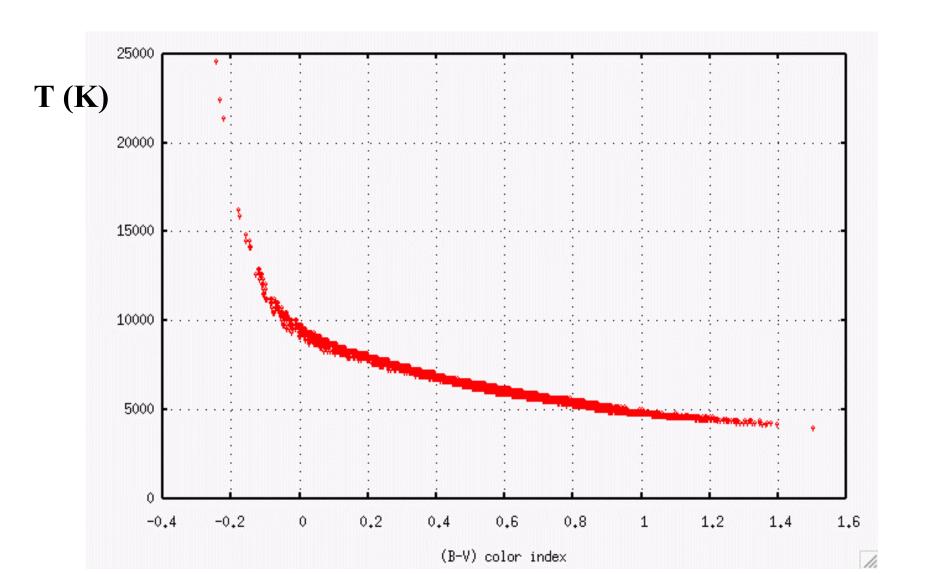


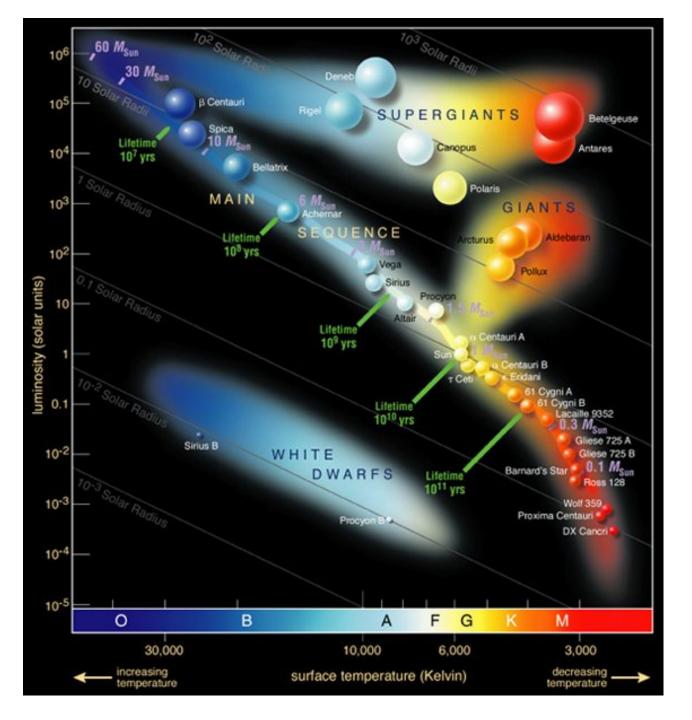
# Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram





#### How temperature relates to color index

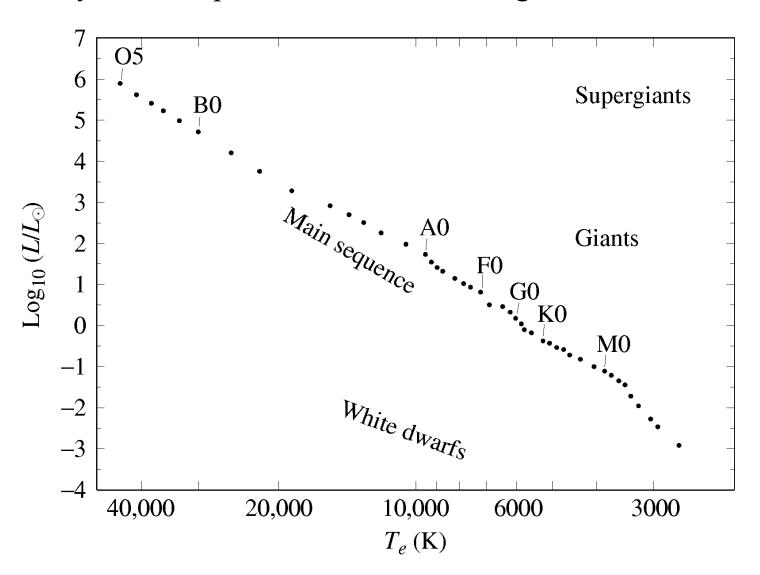




#### A colorful H-R Diagram

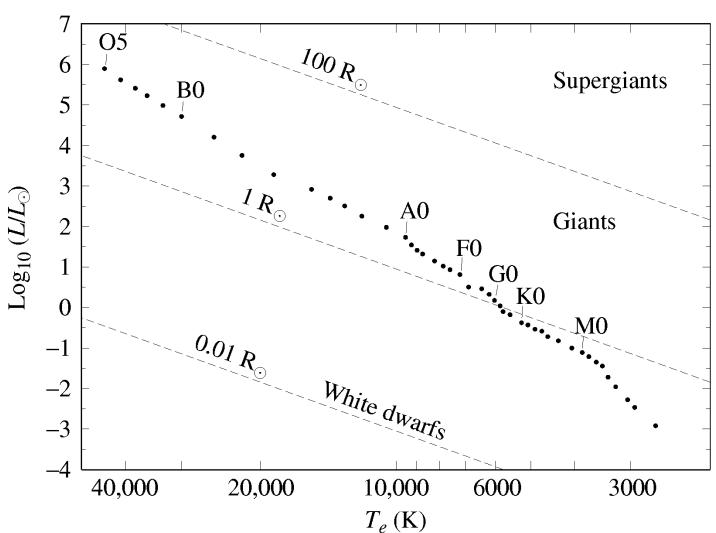
## Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram

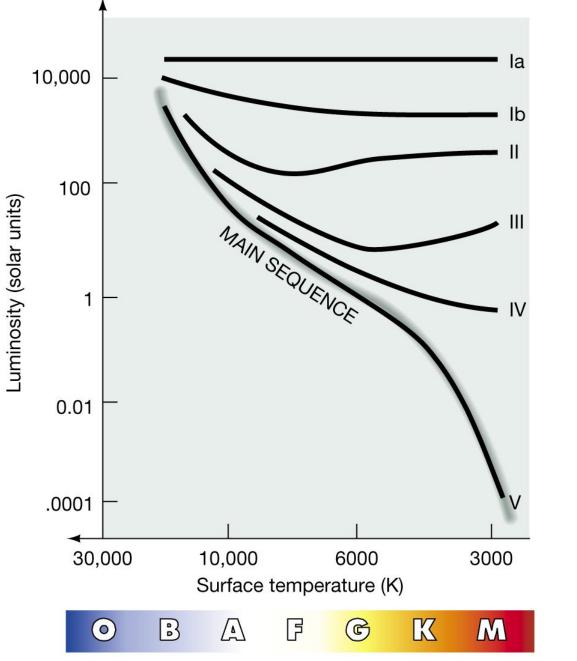
• Luminosity and Temperature rather than Magnitude and Color Index



# Hertzsprung-Russell (H-R) Diagram

Star Radius





Spectral classification
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**Luminosity Classes** 

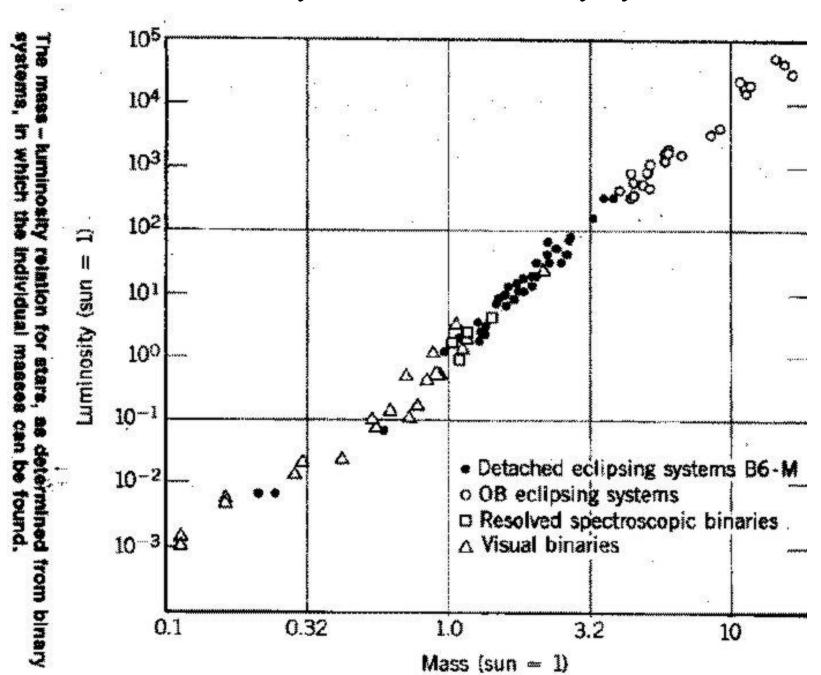
#### **Stellar Luminosity Classes**

<b>TABLE 17.3</b>	Stellar Luminosity Classes		
Class	Description		
Ia	Bright supergiants		
Ib	Supergiants		
II	Bright giants		
III	Giants		
IV	Subgiants		
V	Main-sequence stars and dwarfs		

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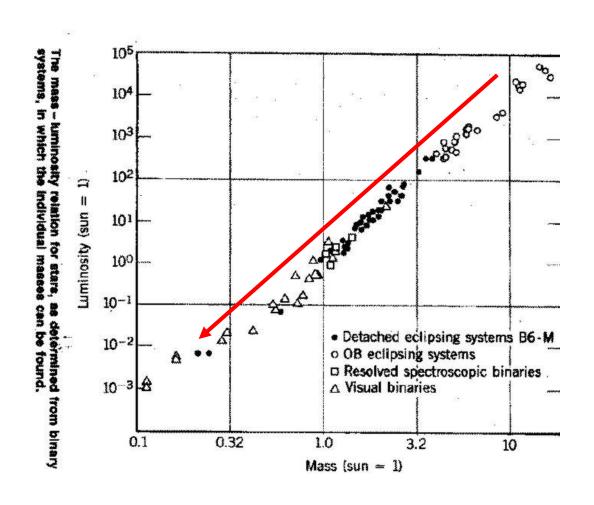
Some define VI and wd (or D)

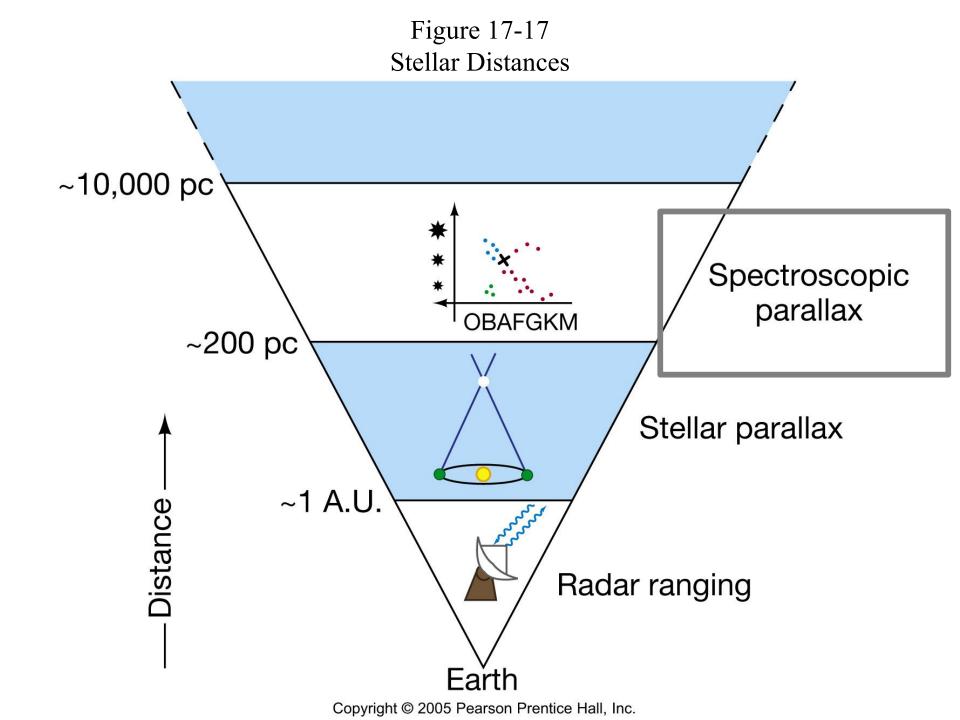
#### Mass-Luminosity Relation from Binary Systems



#### Mass-Luminosity Relation

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





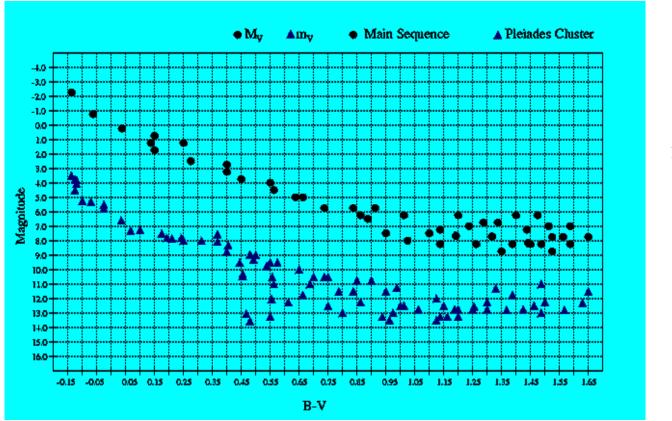
# Spectroscopic "Parallax"

- Method to determine a stars distance
  - Determine the star's spectral class
  - Read the absolute magnitude from the H-R diagram
  - Compare to apparent magnitude to determine distance
  - Accurate to a factor of  $\pm 1$  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".