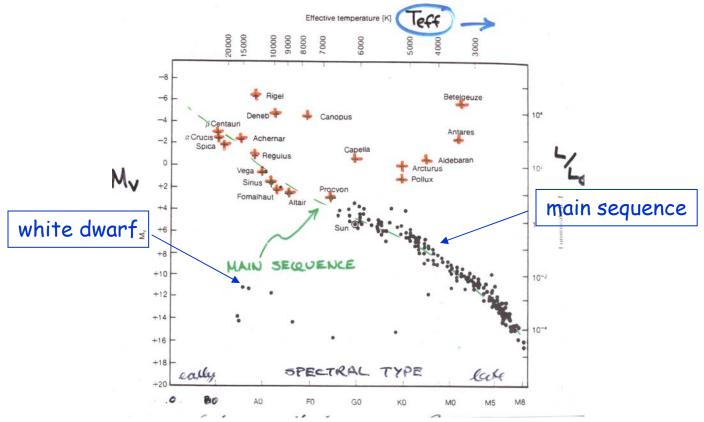
AY 20

Fall 2010

Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram & Stellar Radiation

Reading: Carroll & Ostlie, Chapter 8.2, Chapter 7

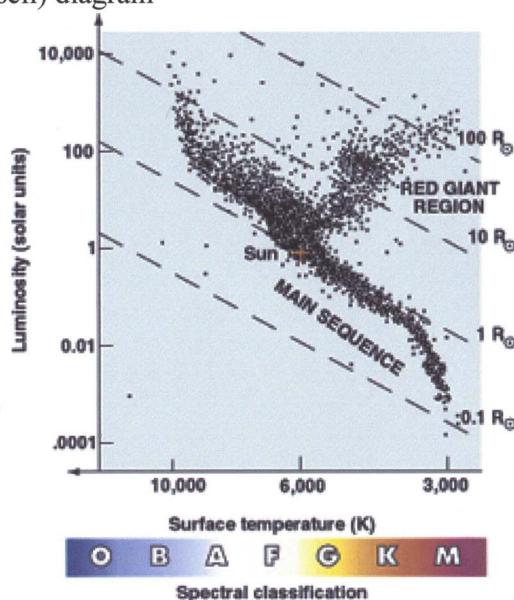
Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram



original form of diagram: M_{ν} as function of spectral type

- stars within 1 kpc of Sun (solar "neighborhood) + brightest stars (apparent) distribution of stars seems to have a pattern; 90% on main sequence
- > HNR \rightarrow main sequence stars dwarfs; luminous, late spectral type giants M_v and spectral type (i.e. L and T_{eff}) are *intrinsic* stellar properties₂





stars are not spread over the entire range of L,T

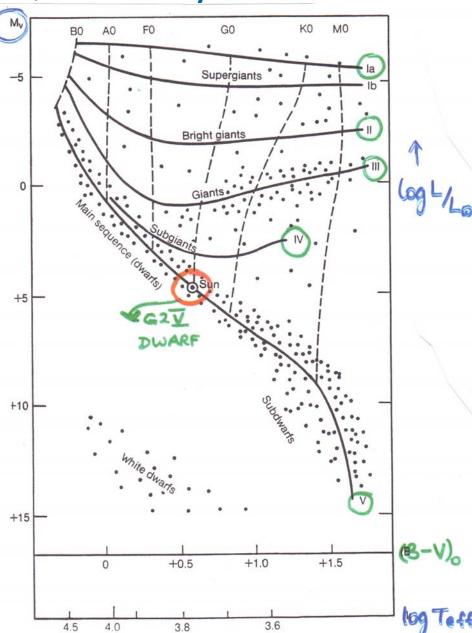
⇒clue to the way stars work

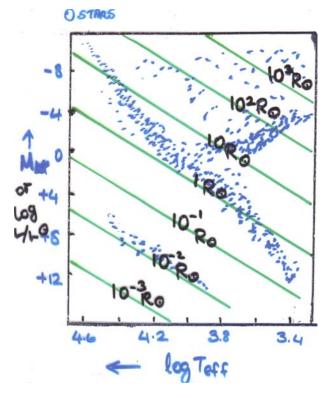
Recall Yerkes (MKK) classification system Ia - V

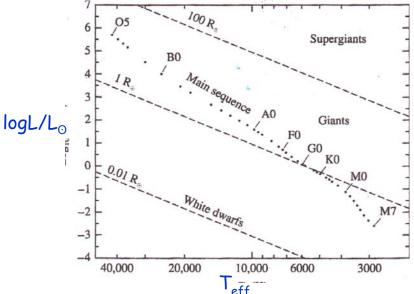
L* = $4\pi R_*^2 F = 4\pi R_*^2 \sigma T_e^4$ \rightarrow absolute magnitude of stars of same spectral type varies with R_*

$$R_* = \frac{1}{T_{eff}^2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\sigma}}$$

for fixed R $_{\star}$, log L $_{\star}$ \propto log T $_{\rm eff}$ \rightarrow lines of constant R $_{\star}$ in H-R diagram Express R $_{\star}$, T $_{\star}$, L $_{\star}$, in terms of R $_{\odot}$, T $_{\odot}$, L $_{\odot}$,

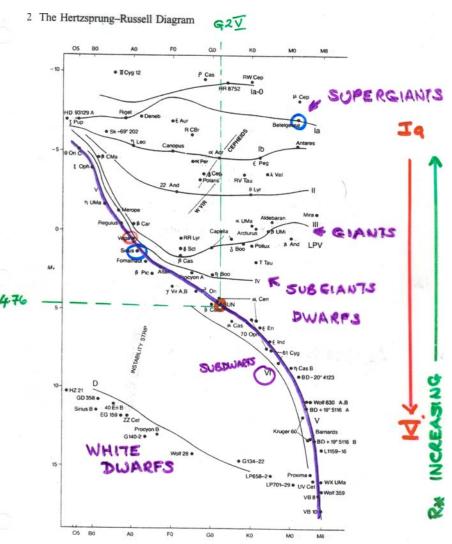






- Supergiants R > 100 R_{\odot}
- Giants 10 R_{\odot} < R < 100 R_{\odot}
- main sequence stars (dwarfs)
- $0.1 R_{\odot} < R < 20 R_{\odot}$
- stellar density, $\rho_* = \frac{M_*}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R_*^3}$ varies with position in H-R diagram
- C&O 8.2.1: average densities of Sun (G2V), Sirius (A1V), Betelgeuse (~MIa) 1.4 gms/cm³ 0.8 gms/cm³ 10⁻⁸ρ_⊙
- Later: position of star on mainsequence depends on its mass

Stellar Properties from H-R diagram



ture 8.15 Luminosity classes on the H-R diagram. (Figure from Kaler, rs and Stellar Spectra, © Cambridge University Press 1989. Reprinted by the permission of Cambridge University Press 1989.

spectral type + luminosity class (class indicates line width) \rightarrow M_{v} distance from m-M =5logd -5 spectroscopic parallax*

radii from $L + T_{eff}$ (see page 5 here), hence density if mass known

 $\frac{\text{white dwarfs}}{\text{R} \sim 0.001 \, \text{R}_{\odot}} \quad \frac{\text{supergiants}}{\text{R} \sim \text{few x } 10^3 \, \text{R}_{\odot}} \\ \rho \sim 10^9 \, \text{kg/m}^3 \, \rho \sim 10^{-4} \, \text{kg/m}^3 \\ \text{(some radii from interferometric measures of angular diameters of stars with known parallax)}$

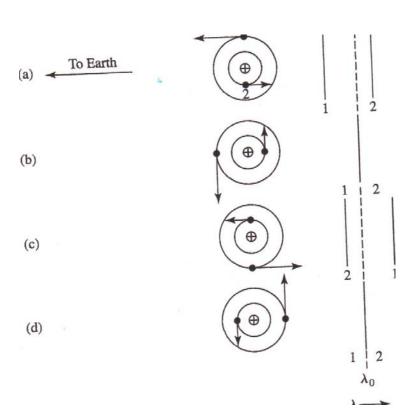
masses from binary star observations

Stellar parameters from binary system measures

- Binary or multiple star systems common
- Classifications
 - > Optical doubles neighbors by coincidence
 - Visual binaries both members of system can be resolved
 - Can monitor motion if P not too long \rightarrow angular sepⁿ from ctr of mass
 - Astrometric binaries only one member visible; its motion reflects presence of a companion
 - \blacktriangleright Eclipsing binaries orbital plane oriented so that one star periodically eclipses other \rightarrow associated variations in light intensity
 - Light curves show two stars \rightarrow relative T_{eff} for each star from depth of minima; radii based on eclipse duration
 - Spectrum binaries two distinguishable spectra. Orbital period may be so long that no variation of wavelength with time seen

Spectroscopic binaries -periodic shift in positions of spectral lines is observed

- Lines shift around rest frequency as stars orbit each other
- Easiest to see when velocities in observer's line of sight
- Some component of velocity along line of sight required
- Orbital period should be not too long
- If one component much more luminous than other only one set of shifting lines



Kepler's Laws generalized for binary systems

Both objects in a binary orbit the center of mass in ellipses with the center of mass at one focus

Kepler's 2^{nd} law becomes $dA/dt = \frac{1}{2} L/\mu = constant$, L =total angular momentum of system; $\mu = m_1 m_2/m_1 + m_2 = reduced$ mass $\equiv a$ fixed mass μ orbiting center of mass Integrating for one orbital period: t = P, $A = \frac{1}{2} LP/\mu$ $A = \pi ab$ and $b^2 = a^2(1-e^2)$, $\therefore (LP/2\mu)^2 = \pi^2 a^4(1-e^2)$ $\therefore P^2 = 4\pi^2 \, \mu^2 a^4(1-e^2)/L^2$

From conservation of angular momentum:

L=
$$\mu(GMa(1-e^2))^{1/2}$$

 $\therefore P^2 = 4\pi^2a^3/G(m_1 + m_2)$

P2 inversely proportional to total mass of the system

With P in years, a in AU, solar masses, constant = 1

Stellar masses from visual binaries

For orbital plane perpendicular to line of sight & in center of mass reference frame,*

 $m_1/m_2 = a_2/a_1$

 a_2 and a_1 are semi major axes of 2 ellipses

Angles subtended by these axes a distance d, α_1 and α_2

 $\alpha_1 \approx a_1/d$ and $a_2 \approx a_2/d$

 \therefore $\text{m}_{\text{1}}/\text{m}_{\text{2}}$ = $\alpha_{\text{2}}/\alpha_{\text{1}} \rightarrow \text{mass ratio}$

From $P^2 = 4\pi^2 a^3 / G(m_1 + m_2)$,

get (m₁ +m₂) if semi-major axis of or of reduced mass (a=a₁+a₂) knowr need d;

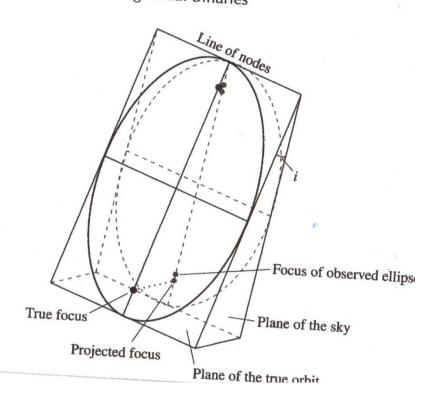
 $(m_1 + m_2)$ and $m_1/m_2 \rightarrow masses$

May have to take into account prope motion of C of M

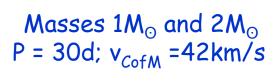
Inclination of orbital plane also needed

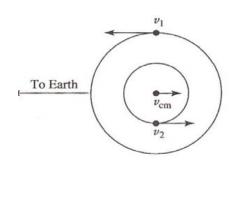
$$m_1 + m_2 = 4\pi^2 \alpha^3/G P^2 (d/\cos i)^3$$

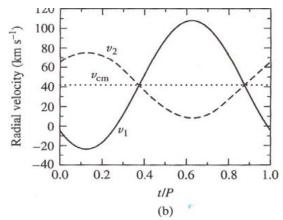
Mass Determination Using Visual Binaries



Masses from double-line spectroscopic binaries







Max observed radial velocities $v_r = v_1 \sin v_2 \sin v_3 \sin v_4 \sin v_5 \cos v_6$ changing i merely changes amplitude of sinusoids

For e <<1, velocities constant $v_1 = 2\pi a_1/P$, $v_2 = 2\pi a_2/P$

 $\therefore m_1/m_2 = v_2/v_1$; substituting $\rightarrow m_1/m_2 = v_{2r}/v_{1r}$

ratio of masses independent of sini

From $a = a_1 + a_2 = P/2\pi \times (v_1 + v_2)$ and Kepler's 3rd:

$$m_1 + m_2 = P/2\pi G \times (v_1 + v_2)^3$$

$$m_1 + m_2 = P/2\pi G \times (v_{1r} + v_{2r})^3 / \sin^3 i$$

But have to be able to measure both radial velocities

Single line spectroscopic binary

- One star much more luminous than other
- e.g. planets orbiting other stars
- Replace v_{2r} in terms of stellar masses and v_{1r} $m_1 + m_2 = Pv_{1r}^3/2\pi G \sin^3 i \times (1 + m_1/m_2)^3$ \rightarrow Mass Function Equation

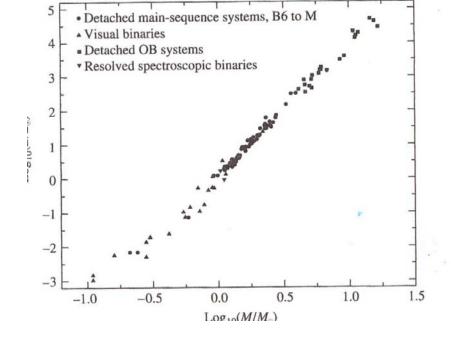
$$\frac{m_2^3 \sin^3 i}{(m_1 + m_2)^2} = \frac{v_1^3 P}{2\pi G}$$

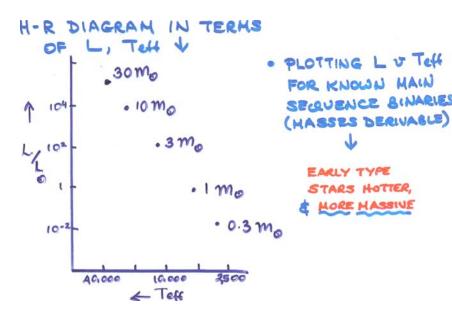
Mass function \rightarrow only lower limit to mass of m_2 if sini unknown

Mass Luminosity Relation

Masses of binary stars define empirical mass-luminosity relation For M > 3 M_{\odot} , L \propto M_{\star}^{3} For M < 0.5 M_{\odot} , L \propto $M_{\star}^{2.5}$ VERY approximate

Plotting stars of known mass on H-R diagram (L v. T_{eff}) also instructive





Stellar properties from observables

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Direct measurements
Distances (parallax)
Luminosities (U,B,V etc)
Masses (binaries)
Radii (eclipsing binaries,
interferometeric
measures)
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Spectra also provide info on: Rotational velocities

> Chemical abundances Magnetic fields

Mass inflow-outflow

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Using stellar spectra:
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Spectral type $\equiv T_{eff}$ Luminosity classes \equiv gravity, pressure, density Radial velocities, z

Position on HR Diagram:

Stellar radii
Distances (spectroscopic parallax)
main-sequence masses
(approx)
Ages of stars (later)