## 10.1: The Solar Neighborhood

## Stellar Parallax

$\downarrow$ Apparent motion of an object against a background of more distance objects

- Farther objects, smaller parallax
$\downarrow$ Relate distance to observed parallax: distance $=1 /$ parallax
- Measure distance in parsec ( $1 \mathrm{pc}=206265 \mathrm{AU}=3.3$ light years), measure parallax in arcsec


## Our Nearest Neighbors

- Proxima Centauri $=1.3 \mathrm{pc}=4.3 \mathrm{ly}\left(\right.$ parallax $\left.=0.77{ }^{\prime \prime}\right)$
- Barnard's Star $=1.8 \mathrm{pc}=6.0$ ly (parallax $=0.55^{\prime \prime}$ )
- Closest stars have parallax less than 1 arc sec
- Need adaptive optics or space telescopes to really resolve parallax for more distant objects


## Stellar Motion

$\downarrow$ Apparent motion: Parallax results because Earth is moving, not because star is moving

- Radial velocity: Real motion of star towards or away from Earth (measure using Doppler shift)
- Transverse velocity: Real motion of star perpendicular to line of sight


## Proper Motion

$\downarrow$ Record apparent position of star, then return after a significant amount of time (years, not days) and observe again

- Change in apparent position can be broken into pieces: parallax and transverse velocity
- Once you take the parallax out, what remains is real: Proper motion


## 10.2: Luminosity and Apparent Brightness

- If it looks bright, maybe it really is bright
- Or maybe it's not really all that bright, it's just close
$\downarrow$ Have to distinguish actual luminosity (how much energy the star generates) from apparent brightness


## Another Inverse Square Law

$\star$ Farther = dimmer, closer = brighter
$\star$ The relationship is not linear

- Inverse square: double the distance, only one fourth the brightness
$\downarrow$ Apparent brightness $\propto$ (luminosity/distance ${ }^{2}$ )
$\downarrow$ To know how much energy a star really generates, you have to know both how bright it looks and how far away it is


## The Magnitude Scale

- Origin in ancient Greece: brightest stars called first magnitude or first order, dimmer stars have second (or third, or fourth) order magnitude
- Smaller number indicates a brighter appearance, larger number indicates dimmer appearance
- Have to distinguish between the appearance and the actual energy!!


## Apparent Magnitude

$\downarrow$ How bright does a star appear as viewed from Earth?

- Scale is not linear!
- Smaller number is brighter, but magnitude 1 is not twice as bright as magnitude 2
- Scale is logarithmic, but not even log base 10
$\downarrow$ Could we make this any harder? Yes! There are negative magnitudes as well!
- Every five magnitudes is a factor of 100 in brightness: Magnitude 1 is 100 times brighter than magnitude 6
- Brightest object observable: Sun $=-26.8$
$\downarrow$ Dimmest object observable: magnitude $\approx+30$ (HST limit)


## Absolute Magnitude

- Take the stars and line them all up at a distance of 10 pc from the Earth (this is an imaginary experiment)
- What appears brighter will actually be a more luminous star: this is an intrinsic property
- Now use pretty much the same brightness scale: smaller number $=$ brighter, scale is logarithmic
- Typical to see side-by-side comparison of luminosity and absolute magnitude


## 10.3: Stellar Temperatures

## Golor and The Blackbody Curve

- We already know that color and temperature correlate (Stefan's Law, Wien's Law)
- Blackbody curves are very well behaved: easy to extrapolate
- This means you do not need a whole mess of measurements to figure out the shape of the curve
- B: Measure intensity using a blue filter (only allows narrow range of wavelengths)
- V: Measure intensity using a visible filter (narrow range of wavelengths in the green-yellow)
- These two measurements are enough to reconstruct an entire blackbody curve


## Stellar Spectra

$\star$ The same composition can yield different spectra at different temperatures

- Hot stars mean more ionization, which shows up in the spectra
- Cooler stars allow formation of molecules, which shows up differently in the spectra
- Spectra give very accurate temperature profiles


## Spectral Classification

- What do you do with thousands and thousands of stellar spectra, but no workable atomic theory?
$\downarrow$ Pattern recognition: sort stars by line strengths, and hope someday it means something
$\downarrow$ Historically, astronomers used letters A through P


## Oh, Be A Fine Girl, Kiss Me

- If you think of a better mnemonic, please share it with the world
- This is what is left of the previous classifications: O B A F G K M
- Temperature decreases in order from O to M : type O are the hottest, type M are the coolest stars
$\downarrow$ Subtypes: Give the letter a numeric appendage, and B0 is hotter than B1 is hotter than B2 $\cdots$ is hotter than B9


## 10.4: Stellar Sizes

## Direct and Indirect Measurement

- Direct measurement of stellar radii is difficult: too far, too small
- A few very large stars are close enough to be measured directly
- Indirect measurement: Infer size based on luminosity and temperature
$\downarrow$ Luminosity depends directly on both temperature (Stefan's law) and surface area (area $\propto$ radius ${ }^{2}$ )
$\rightarrow \mathrm{R}=\left(\mathrm{L}_{\odot}\right) / \mathrm{T}^{2}$, where R , L , and T are in solar units $\left(\mathrm{R}_{\odot}=1\right.$, $\mathrm{L}_{\odot}=1$ and $\left.\mathrm{T}_{\odot}=5800 \mathrm{~K}\right)$


## Giants and Dwarfs

$\uparrow$ Huge and cool: Aldebaran (4000K = cool, but R = 40R $\odot$ )

- Tiny and fiery: Sirius B $\left(24,000 \mathrm{~K}\right.$, and $\left.\mathrm{R}=0.01 \mathrm{R}_{\odot}\right)$
- Dwarf: $\mathrm{R} \leq \mathrm{R}_{\odot}$
$\downarrow$ Giant: $10 \mathrm{R}_{\odot}<\mathrm{R}<100 \mathrm{R}_{\odot}$
$\downarrow$ Supergiants: $\mathrm{R}>100 \mathrm{R}_{\odot}$


## 10.5: The Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram

## H-R Diagram Axes

- Plot temperature on the x-axis
- Notice that T gets hotter as you move to the right!
$\downarrow$ Plot luminosity on the y-axis
- Notice that units are stellar: $\mathrm{L}_{\odot}=1$


## The Main Sequence

$\downarrow$ When you start putting stars on the graph, a pattern emerges

- Most stars fall into a fairly narrow band on the graph: The main sequence
- This band is not perfectly linear
$\star$ There are plenty of exceptions to the rule, and they mean something


## Constant Radius Diagonals

$\downarrow$ Use relationship between luminosity, temperature and radius

- Diagonals $=$ lines of constant radius run from top left to bottom right


## The White Dwarf and Red Giant Regions

$\downarrow$ On the main sequence: Blue giants and supergiants at top left (hot, luminous, large)
$\star$ On the main sequence: Red dwarfs at bottom right (cool, dim, small)
$\star$ White Dwarfs: Off the main sequence at bottom left (hot but dim)

- Red Giants: Off the main sequence (like a tree branch) on the top right of curve (very bright, but not very hot)
How Many of Each Type?
$\downarrow$ You can see the brightest stars at much farther distances
- There are dimmer stars out there that cannot be mapped because they are too dim
- Recognize which types are over-represented because they are so bright, and which types are under-represented
- If our neighborhood is typical, $90 \%$ main sequence, $9 \%$ white dwarf, $1 \%$ red giant


## 10.6: Extending the Cosmic Distance Scale

## Spectroscopic Parallax

- Actually has nothing to do with stellar parallax
* Work the distance problem backwards: Apparent brightness $\propto$ (luminosity/distance ${ }^{2}$ )
* Observe the apparent brightness, determine the luminosity by spectral type
- Solve for the distance, which means now you have another way to find distance without measuring apparent motion


## Luminosity Class

- Start with O B A F G K M: Coarse temperature scale
* Add the number 0-9: Refine the temperature classification
- Add a luminosity class: Distinguish between main sequence stars (V) and non-main sequence stars (I through IV)
- How do you determine luminosity class? Line width gives you atmospheric density, density gives you distinction between giant, main sequence, and dwarf stars


## 10.7: Stellar Masses

- We already know how to use orbits (Kepler and Newton) to figure out the mass of the sun (like we did for Jupiter)
- Same technique can be applied to other stars: if you have a planet orbiting a star, or two stars orbiting each other


## Binary Stars

$\downarrow$ It appears that most stars come in pairs
$\downarrow$ Binary $=$ two, but there may be multiple stars in a system

## Types of Binaries

$\uparrow$ Visual: Stars orbit each other, but they are far enough apart to be resolved individually
$\downarrow$ Spectroscopic: Stars are too far/too close to be resolved independently; you know there is more than one because of the Doppler shift in the spectra

- Double-Line: Spectra from each star can be resolved separately
- Single Line: Cannot resolve separate spectra because one star is too faint; brighter spectrum reveals Doppler wobble
- Eclipsing: One star passes in front of the other; rare because the plane of the orbit has to edge-on as seen from Earth


## Mass Determination

- Getting the period of orbit is not that hard
- It's the actual separation that's more difficult to determine
$\downarrow$ Mass function: Sometimes the best you can do is determine a limit, or relationship; individual masses cannot be determined


## Mass and Other Stellar Properties

- Once you start to mass some stars accurately, it gets easier to extrapolate
- Correlate temperatures, luminosities, radii to masses: Put everything together
- Stellar lifetime related to mass and luminosity: More mass to burn, longer life (but high luminosity means the star is burning fuel faster, so shortens lifespan)
- lifetime $\propto$ mass/luminosity

