

More on Radiation

Energy density

$$u_\nu = \text{energy per unit volume per unit frequency } (J \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ Hz}^{-1})$$

$$u_\lambda = \text{energy per unit volume per unit wavelength } (J \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ m}^{-1})$$

Intensity

$$I_\nu = \text{energy per unit time per unit area per unit frequency per unit solid angle } (W \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1} \text{ ster}^{-1})$$

$$\text{isotropic field: } I_\nu = \frac{c}{4\pi} u_\nu$$

Blackbody spectrum

$$I_\nu = B_\nu = \frac{2h}{c^2} \frac{\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$$

More on Radiation

Flux

f_ν = energy per unit time per unit area per unit frequency
crossing some surface (e.g. a detector) ($\text{W m}^{-2} \text{Hz}^{-1}$)

isotropic field: $f_\nu = \frac{c}{4} u_\nu$

blackbody: $f_\nu = \pi B_\nu$

Integrated quantities: $u = \int_0^\infty u_\nu d\nu = aT^4$ (J m^{-3})
 $f = \int_0^\infty f_\nu d\nu = \sigma T^4$ (W m^{-2})

$$a = \frac{8\pi^5 k^4}{15c^3 h^3} = 7.6 \times 10^{-8} \text{ J m}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-4}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{c}{4} a = \frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15c^2 h^3} = 5.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4}$$

Radius-Temperature-Luminosity Relation

At the surface of a star of temperature T , the outward-directed total radiative flux (energy/time/area) is

$$f = \sigma T^4$$

total surface area of the star is

$$A = 4\pi R^2$$

total luminosity of the star (blackbody spectrum) is

$$L = fA = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T^4$$

\Rightarrow important means of estimating a star's radius if the luminosity and temperature are known:

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

Radius-Temperature-Luminosity Relation

Some examples (calibrated to the Sun, assuming blackbodies)

$$L(L_{\odot}) = R(R_{\odot})^2 T(T_{\odot})^4$$

Sirius A: $L = 25 L_{\odot}, \quad T = 9900 \text{ K} = 1.7 T_{\odot}$

$$\Rightarrow R = \sqrt{25/1.7^4} R_{\odot} = 3.0 R_{\odot}$$

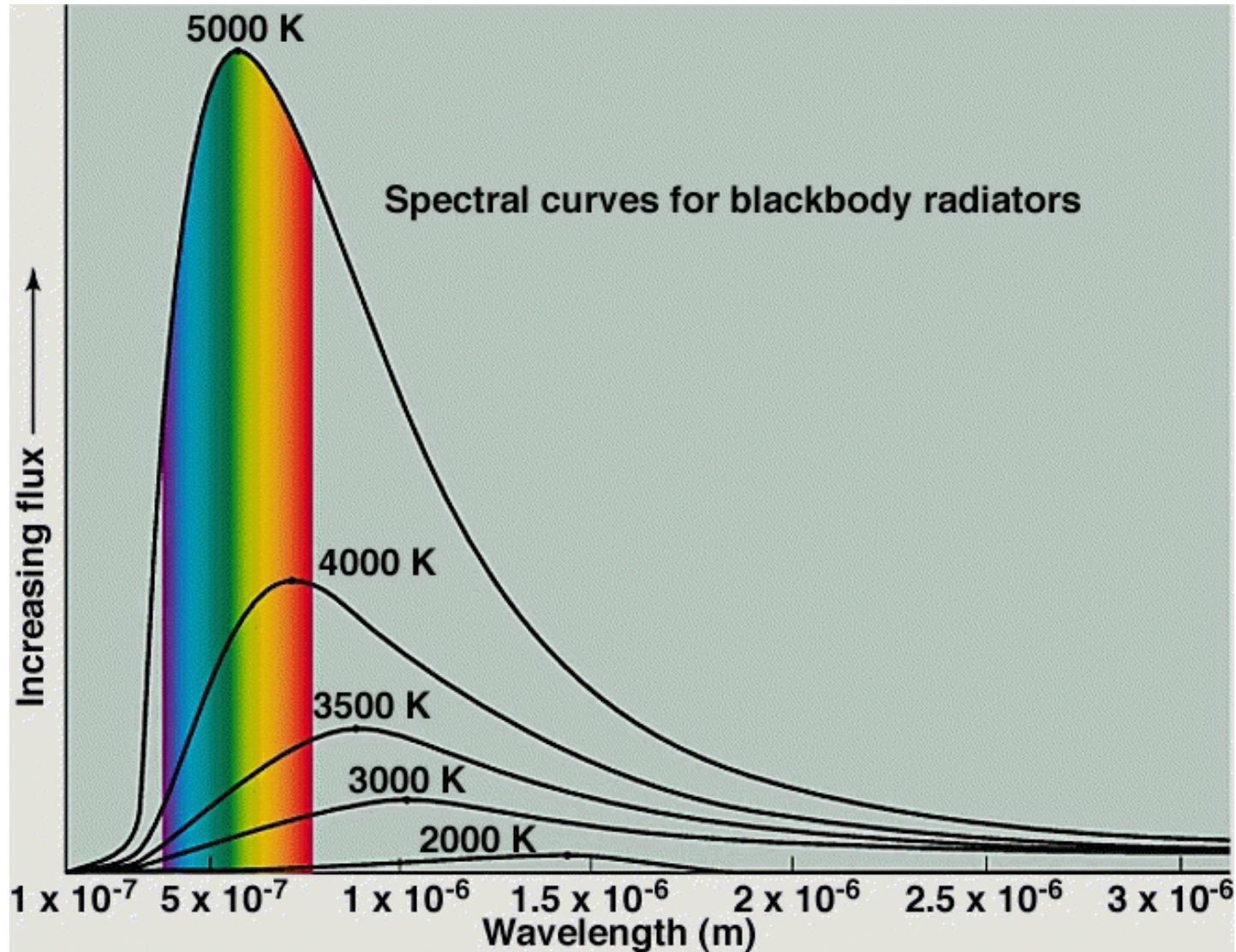
Betelgeuse: $L = 1.4 \times 10^5 L_{\odot}, \quad T = 3500 \text{ K} = 0.64 T_{\odot}$

red giant $\Rightarrow R = \sqrt{1.4 \times 10^5 / 0.64^4} R_{\odot} = 910 R_{\odot} = 4.2 \text{ AU}$

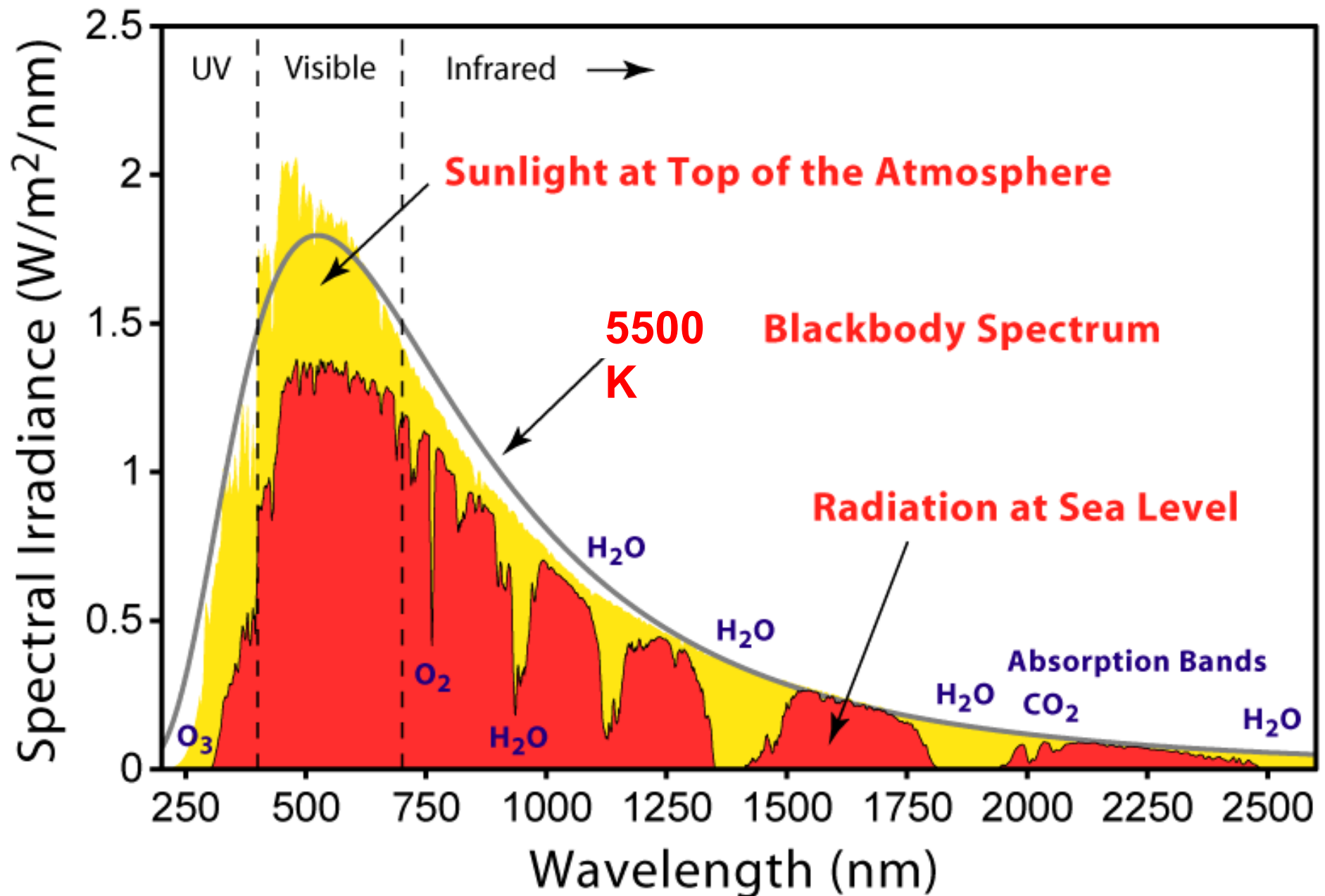
Sirius B: $L = 0.03 L_{\odot}, \quad T = 25,000 \text{ K} = 4.3 T_{\odot}$

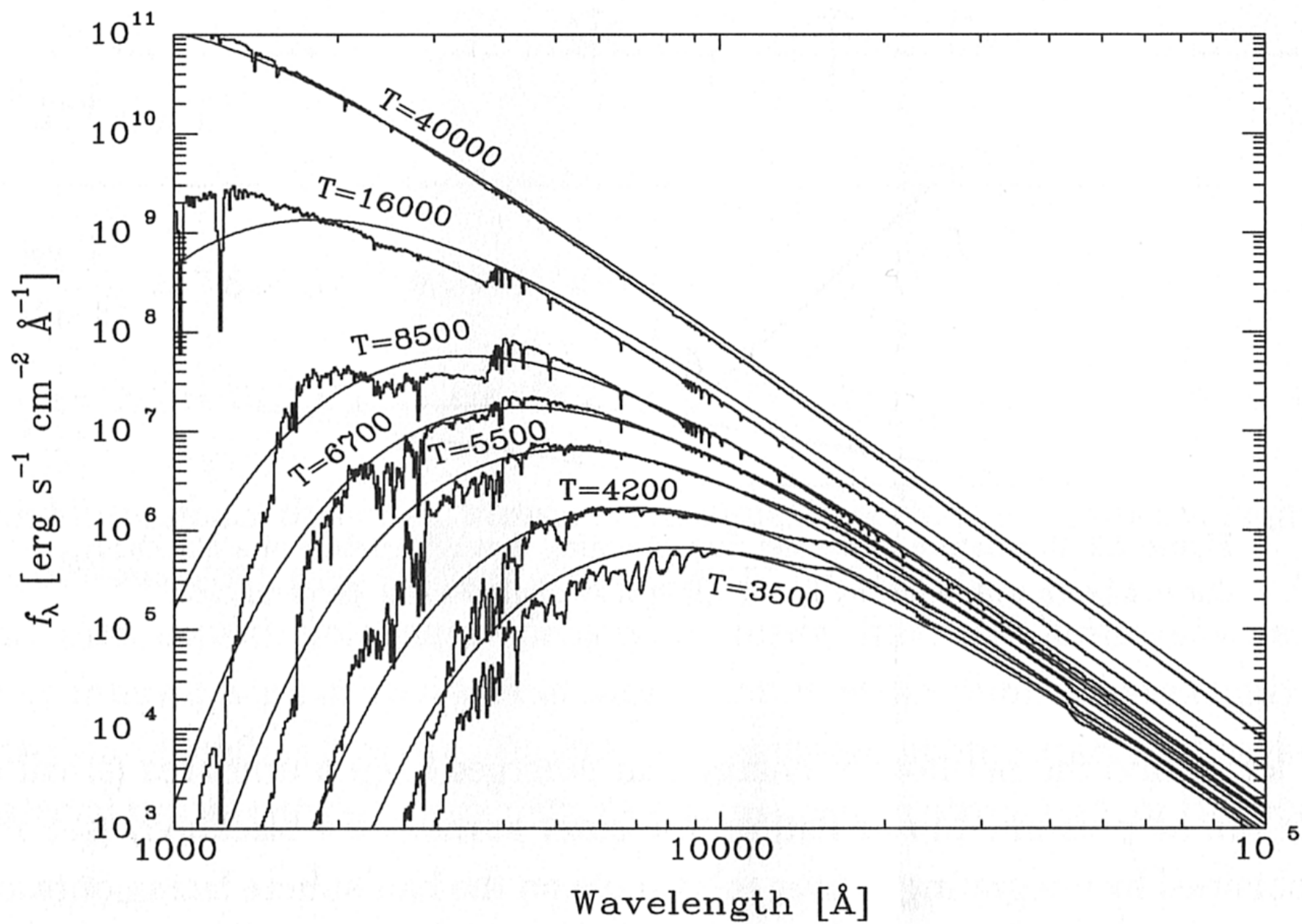
white dwarf $\Rightarrow R = \sqrt{0.03 / 4.3^4} R_{\odot} = 0.0094 R_{\odot} \approx R_{\oplus}$

Blackbody Radiation



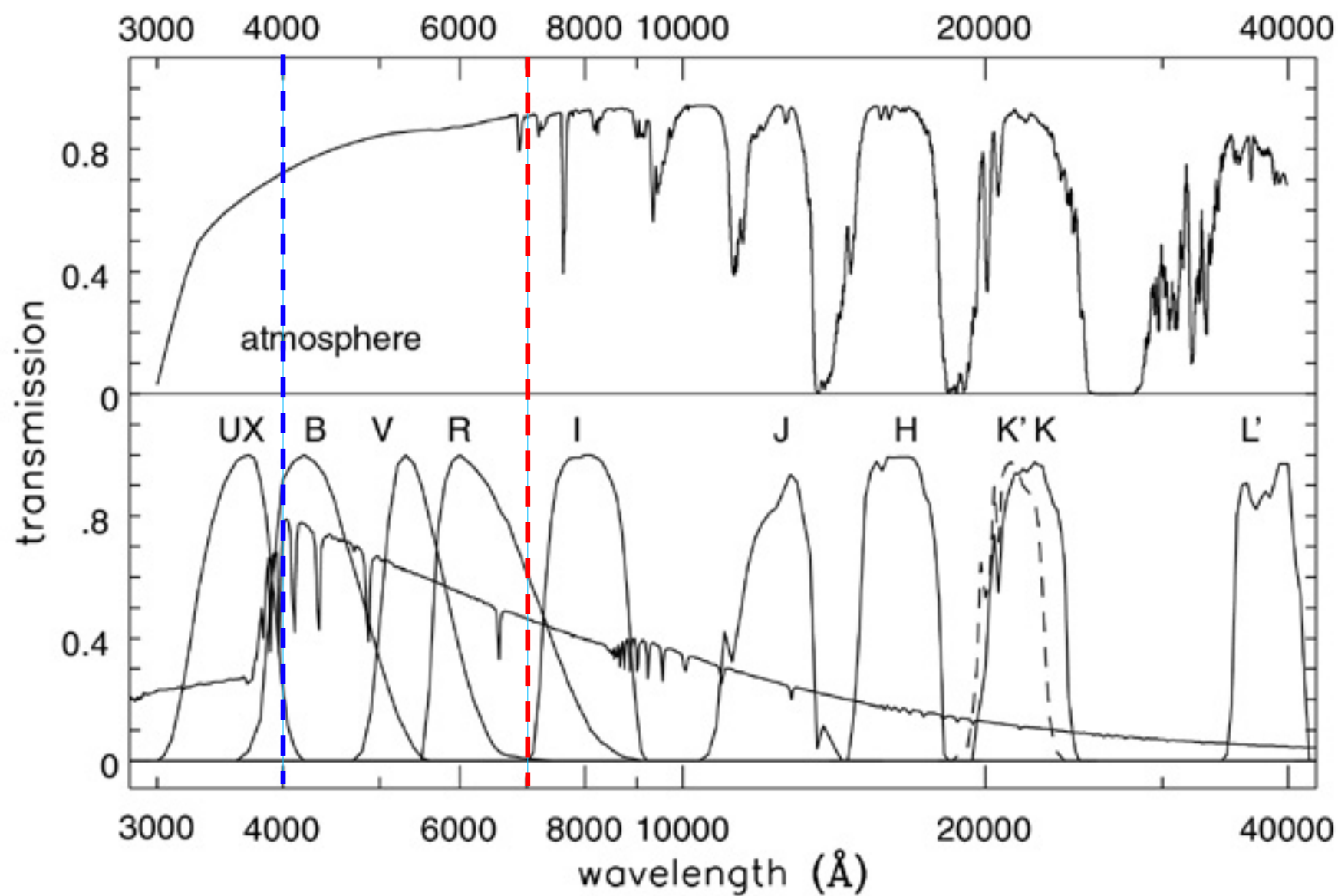
Solar Radiation Spectrum

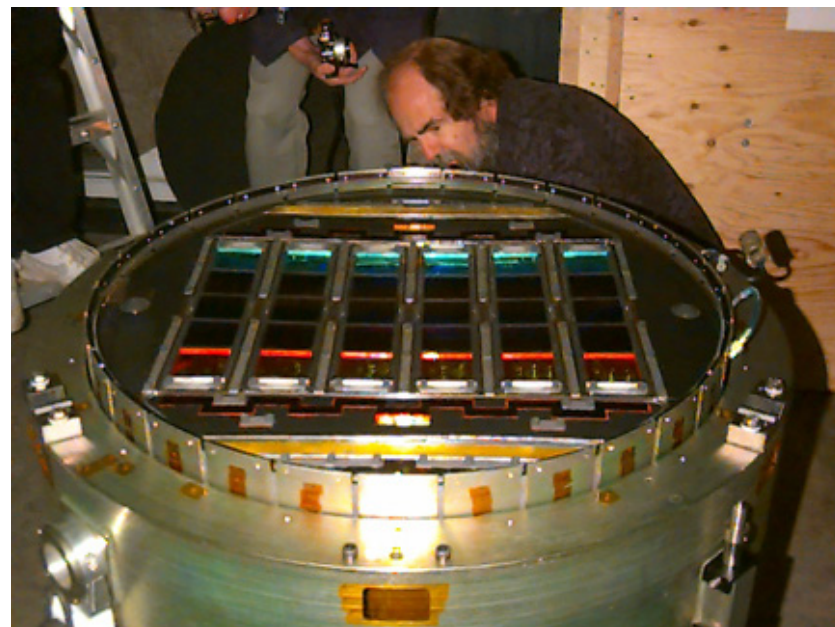
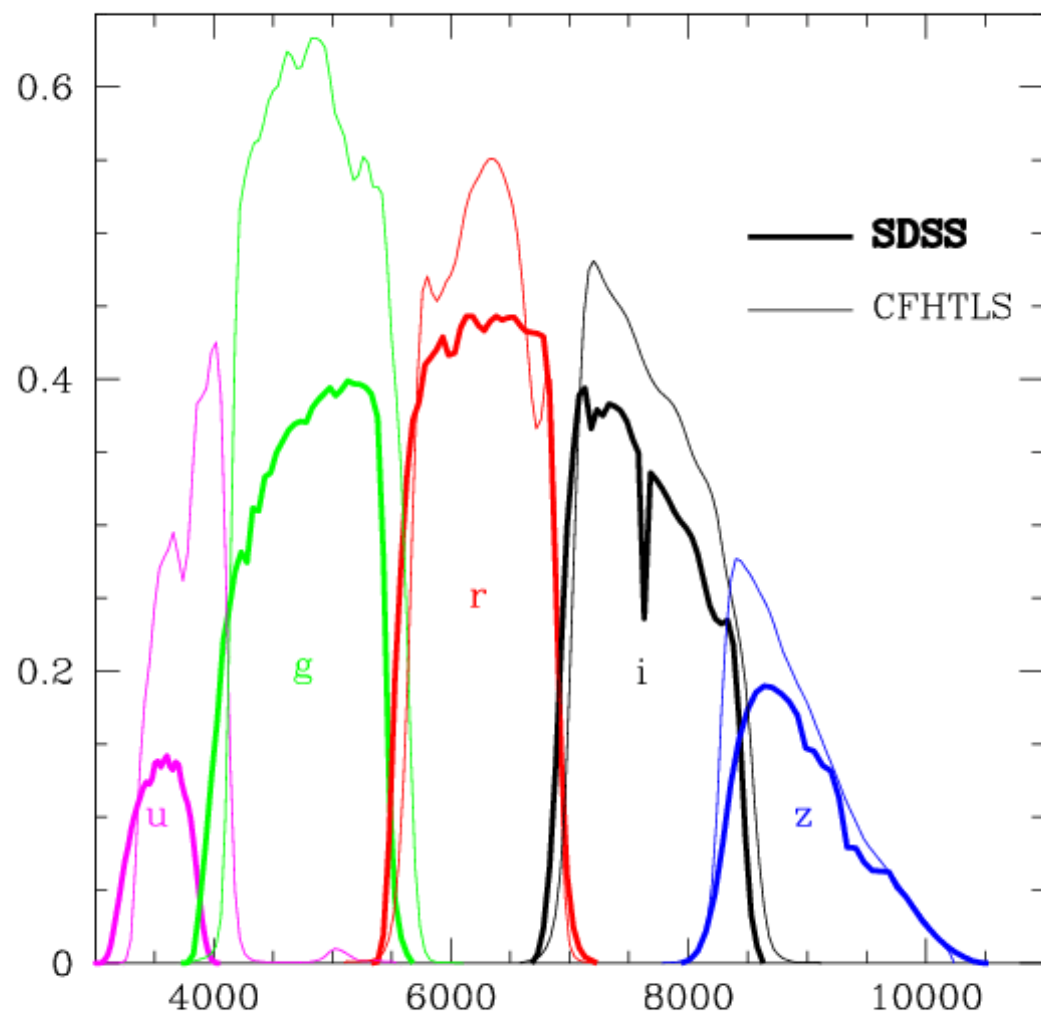




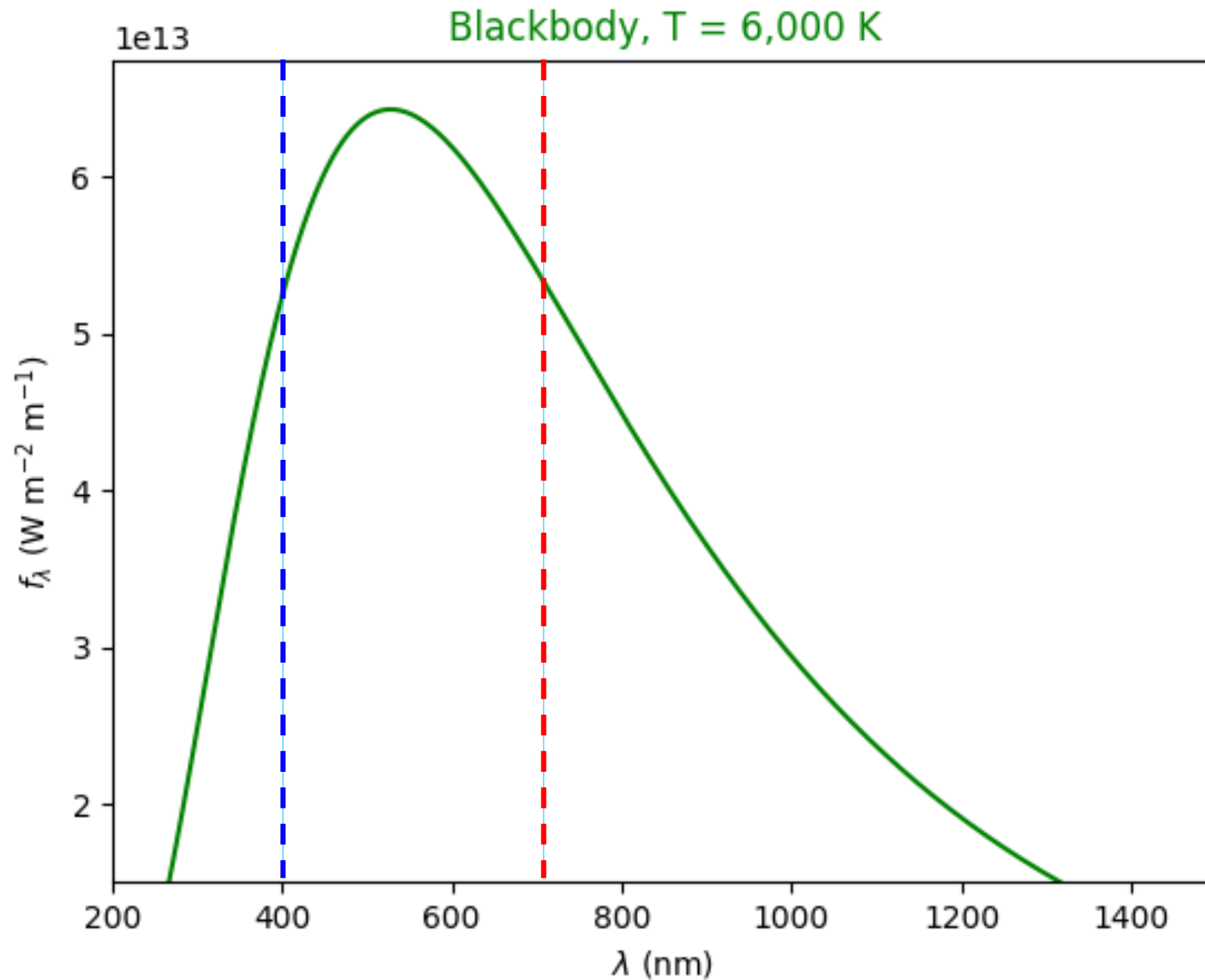
Filters and Colors

- Detailed spectra are expensive
- “bolometric” flux is flux integrated over all wavelengths
 - no detector actually measures this
 - only sensitive to a relatively narrow part of the spectrum
- astronomical instruments generally record light received through a set of standard filters

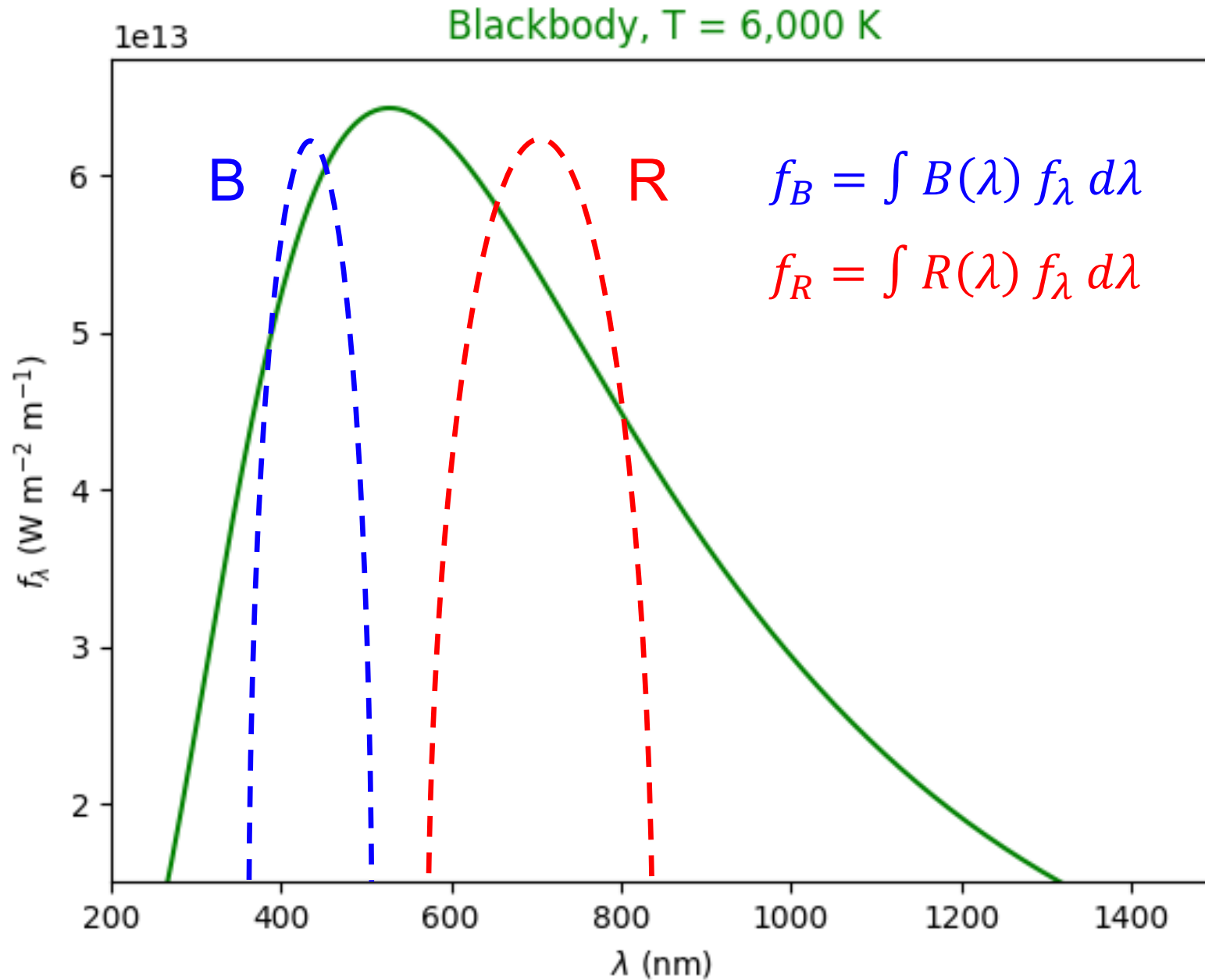




Blackbody Spectrum



Blackbody Spectrum



Filters and Colors

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$$f_C = \int C(\lambda) f_\lambda d\lambda$$

- astronomical “color” is a ratio of fluxes in two different filters,

$$\text{e.g. } \frac{f_V}{f_B}, \frac{f_R}{f_I}, \dots$$

NOTE: independent of distance

- color \sim temperature for blackbody; also approximately true for real spectra

The Magnitude Scale

- Astronomers generally don't work directly with fluxes...
- Greek astronomers ranked visible stars by apparent brightness (\sim flux), where brightest = 1, faintest = 6, in roughly equal perceived increments
- modern photometry revealed
 1. the eye's response is logarithmic: an increase of 1 magnitude corresponds to a decrease in flux by a constant factor
 2. first-magnitude stars are about 100 times brighter than sixth-magnitude stars
- modern magnitude scale defines apparent magnitude m by

$$m = -2.5 \log_{10} f + \text{constant}$$

e.g. $m_V = -2.5 \log_{10} f_V + C_V$

The Magnitude Scale

- a few stars are brighter than magnitude 1
 - Vega has $m_V \approx 0$ (really 0.03, now)
 - brightest star in the sky is Sirius, with $m_V = -1.47$
 - Sun has $m_V = -26.74$
- vast majority of stars (and galaxies) are fainter than magnitude 6
- ratios of fluxes are differences in magnitudes:

$$\begin{aligned} m_2 - m_1 &= -2.5 \log_{10} f_2 + 2.5 \log_{10} f_1 \\ &= -2.5 \log_{10} \frac{f_2}{f_1} \end{aligned}$$

colors: $m_V - m_B = -2.5 \log_{10} \frac{f_V}{f_B}$

$V - B$

Apparent and Absolute Magnitudes

- magnitudes m as just defined (\sim fluxes) are apparent magnitudes
- flux f depends on both the luminosity L and the distance D to a star:

$$f = \frac{L}{4\pi D^2}$$

- define absolute magnitude M as the apparent magnitude at a standard distance of $D = 10$ pc
 - equivalent to luminosity since D is fixed (and solar $M_V = 4.8$)

- Then

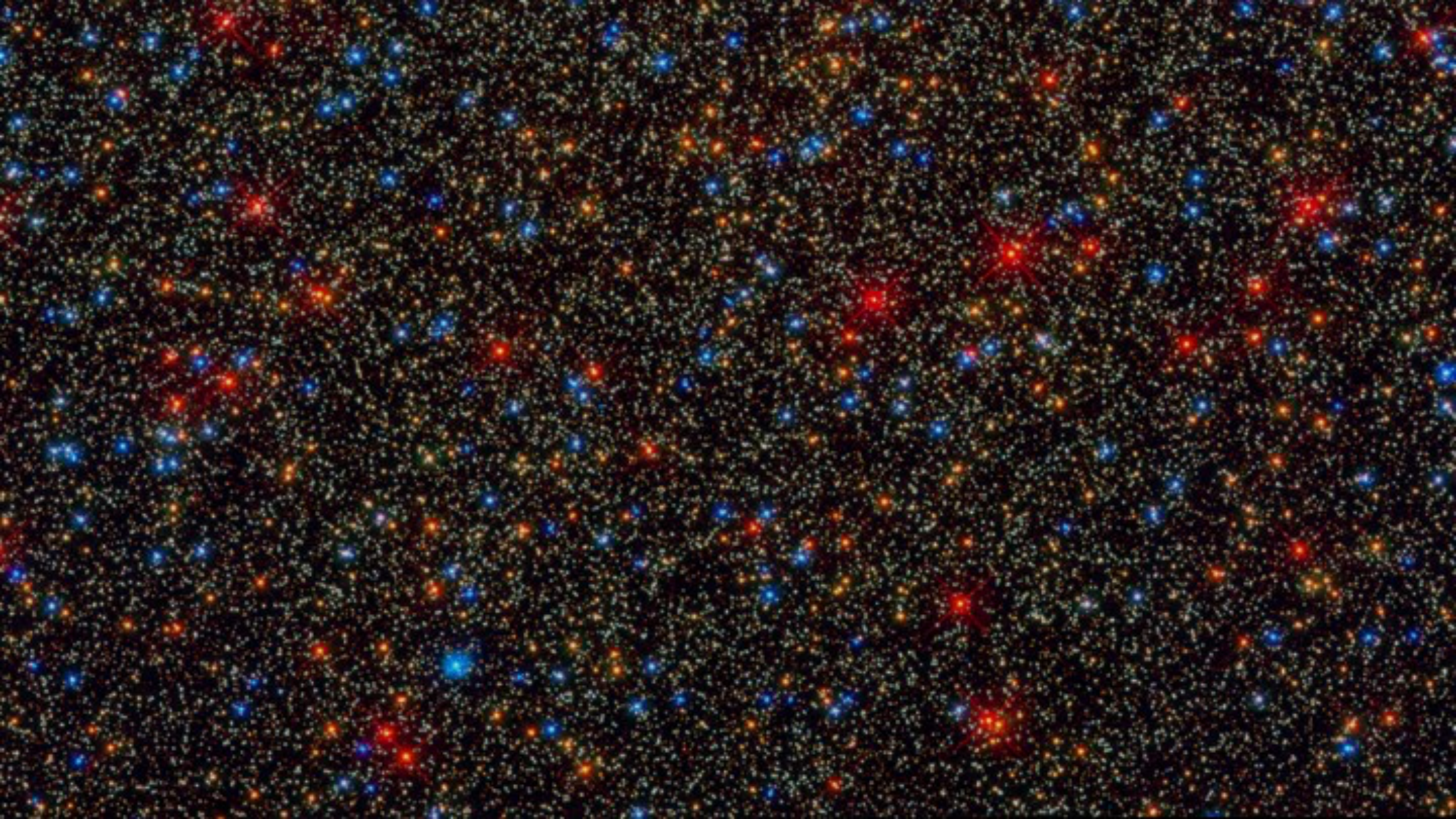
$$m = -2.5 \log_{10} \frac{L}{4\pi D^2} \quad M = -2.5 \log_{10} \frac{L}{4\pi (10 \text{ pc})^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow m - M = 5 \log_{10} D(\text{pc}) - 5$$

inverse-square law
in magnitudes!

distance modulus





<http://hubblesite.org/gallery/wallpaper/pr2009025q/>

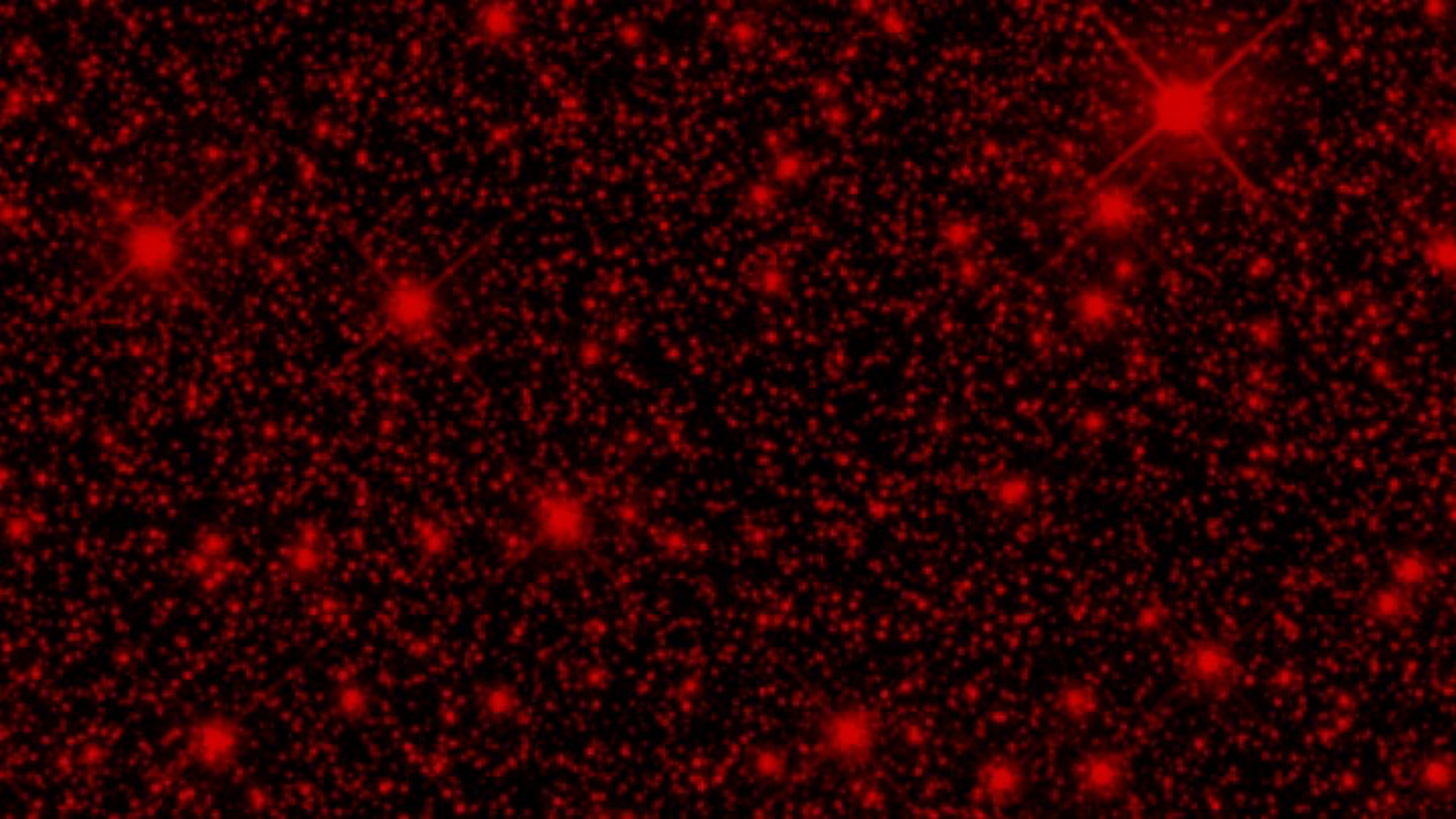
Image of the inner core of Omega Centauri, taken by
WFC3/UVIS on board the Hubble Space Telescope
(HST)





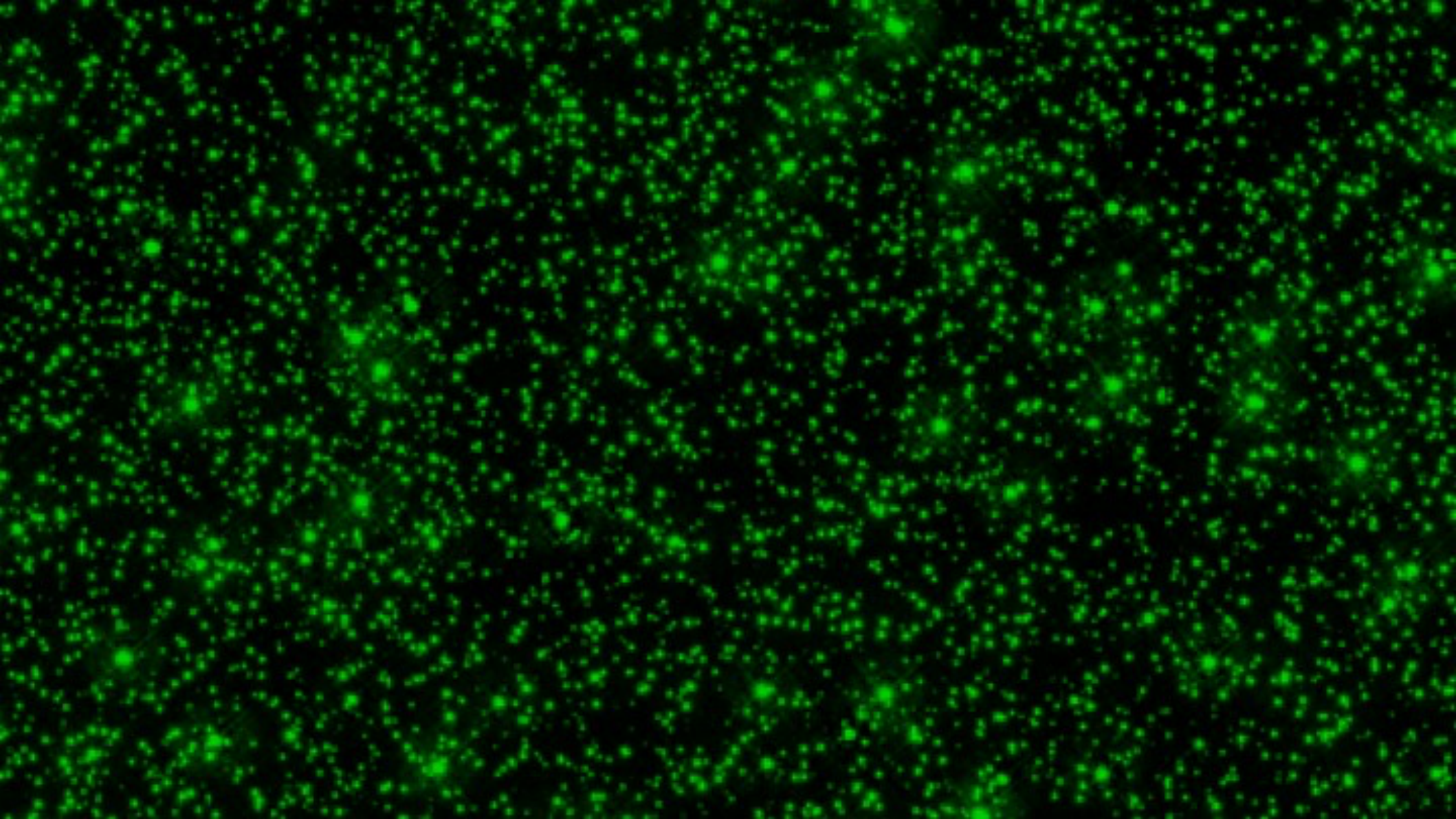
A close-up of the central region. This false-color image was made by combining separate red, green, and blue images





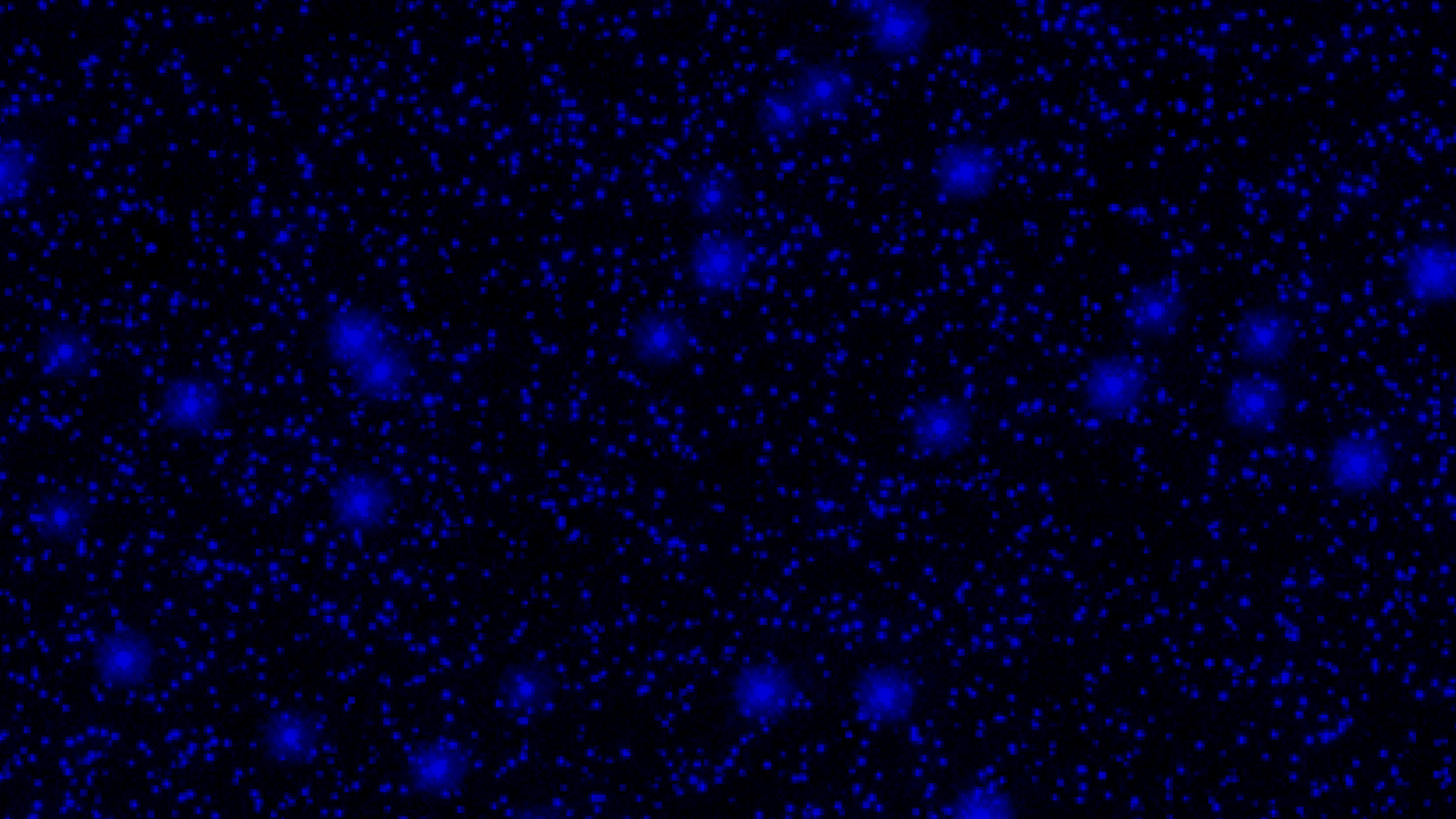
The **red** image is from filter F814W,
which sees only very red light.





The **green** image is from filter F336W,
which sees only blue light.





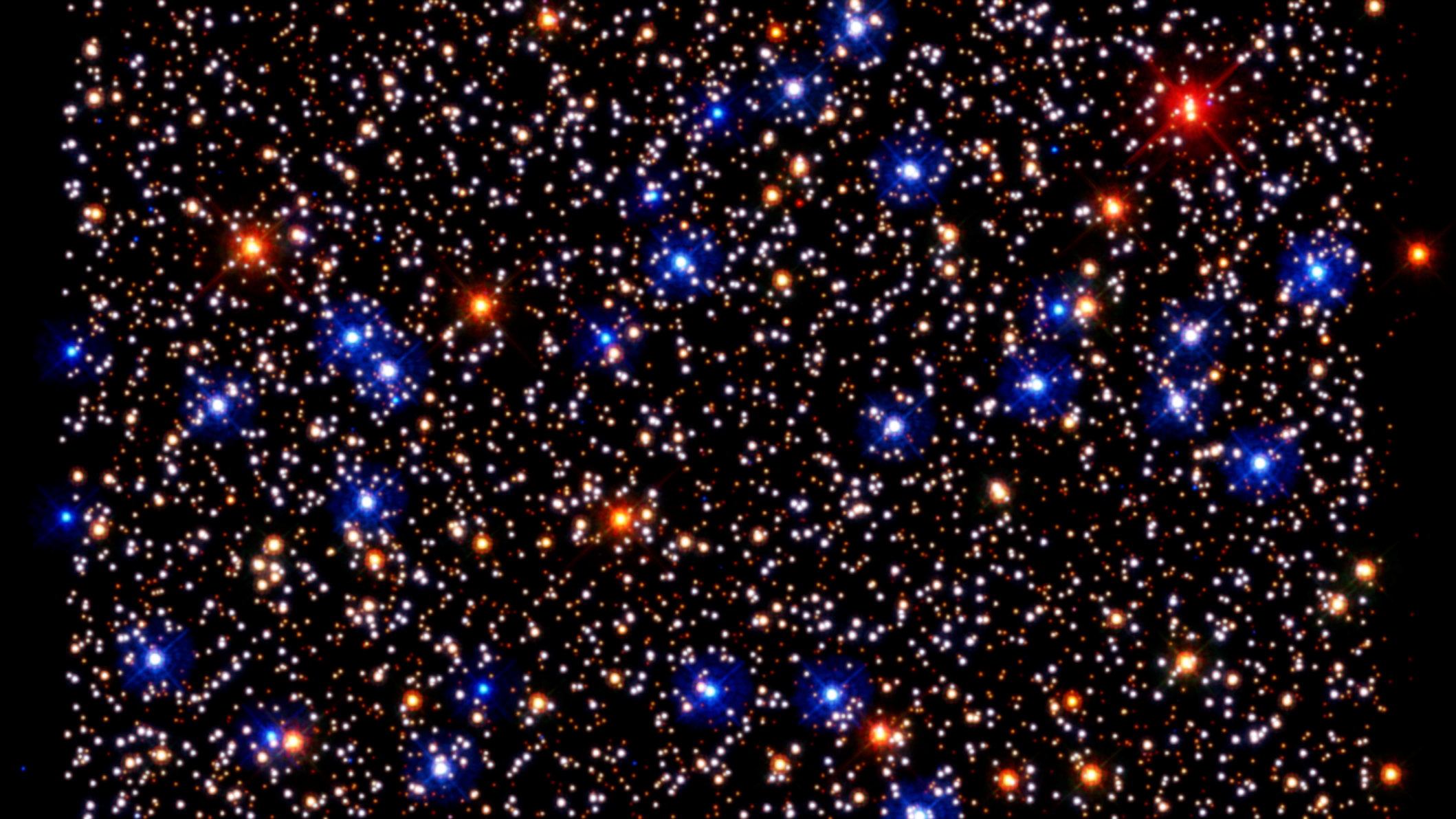
The **blue** image is from filter F225W,
which sees only ultraviolet light.





Let's sort the stars by color, putting the **blue** stars on the left and the **red** stars on the right.





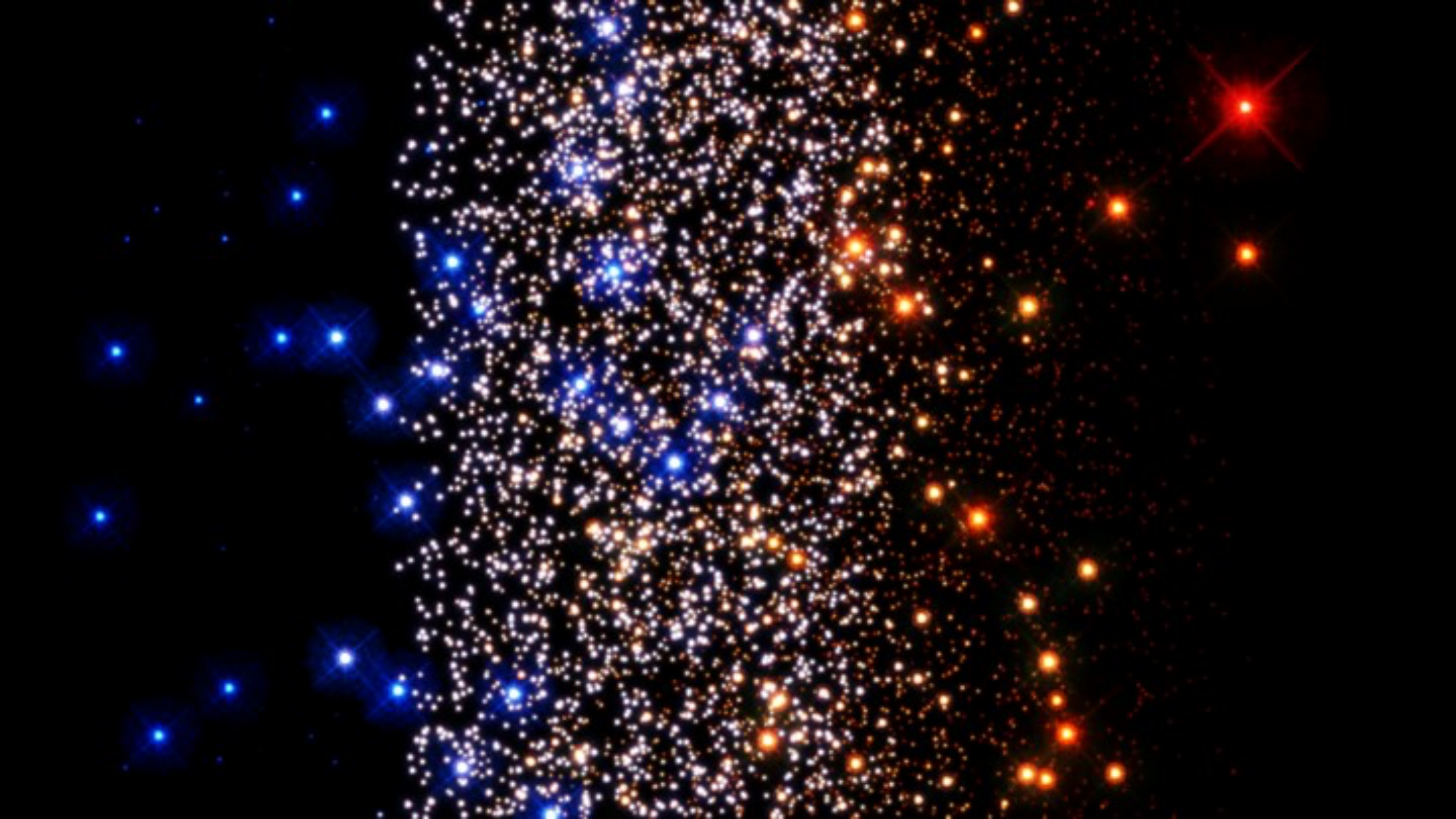




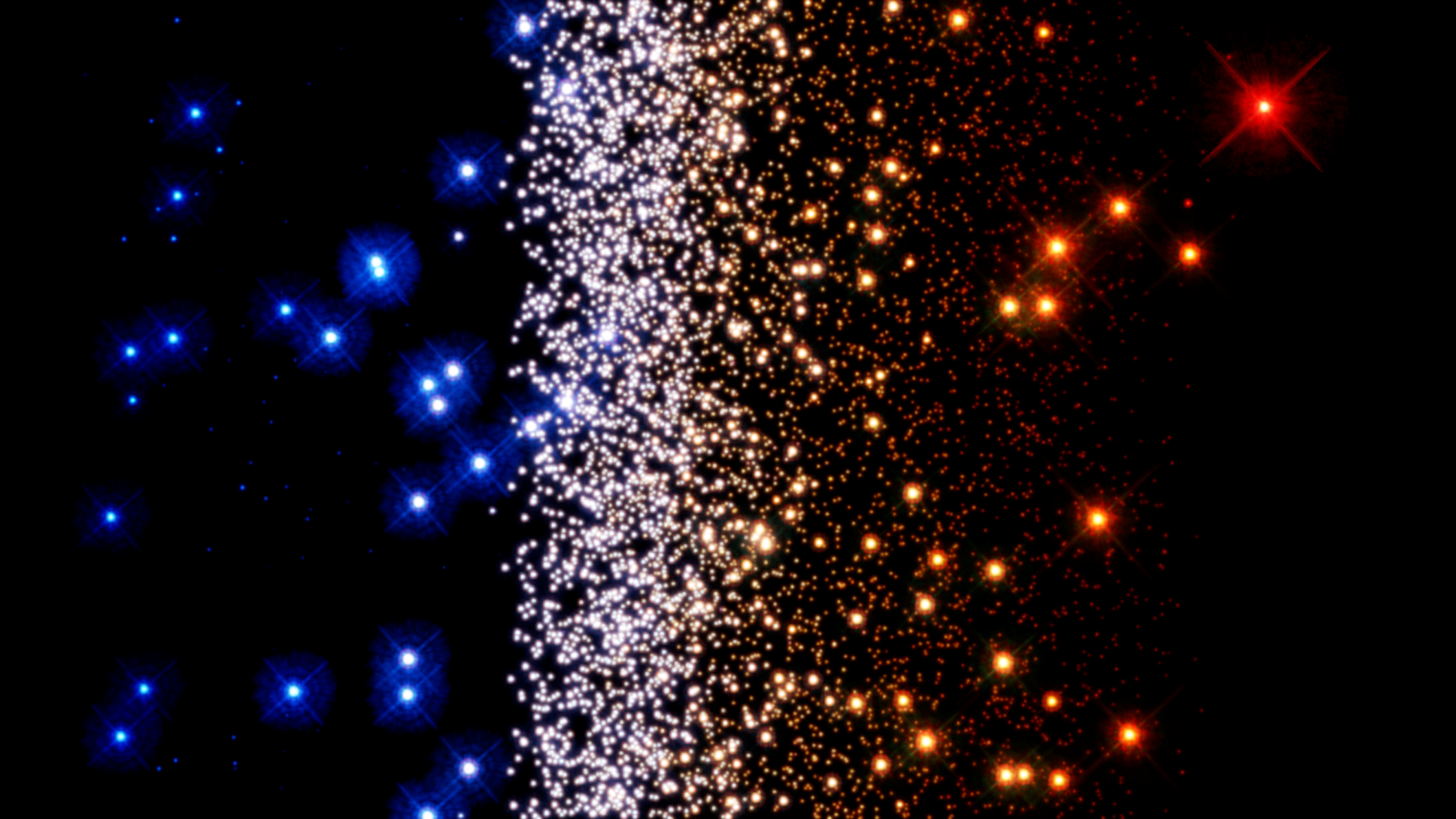


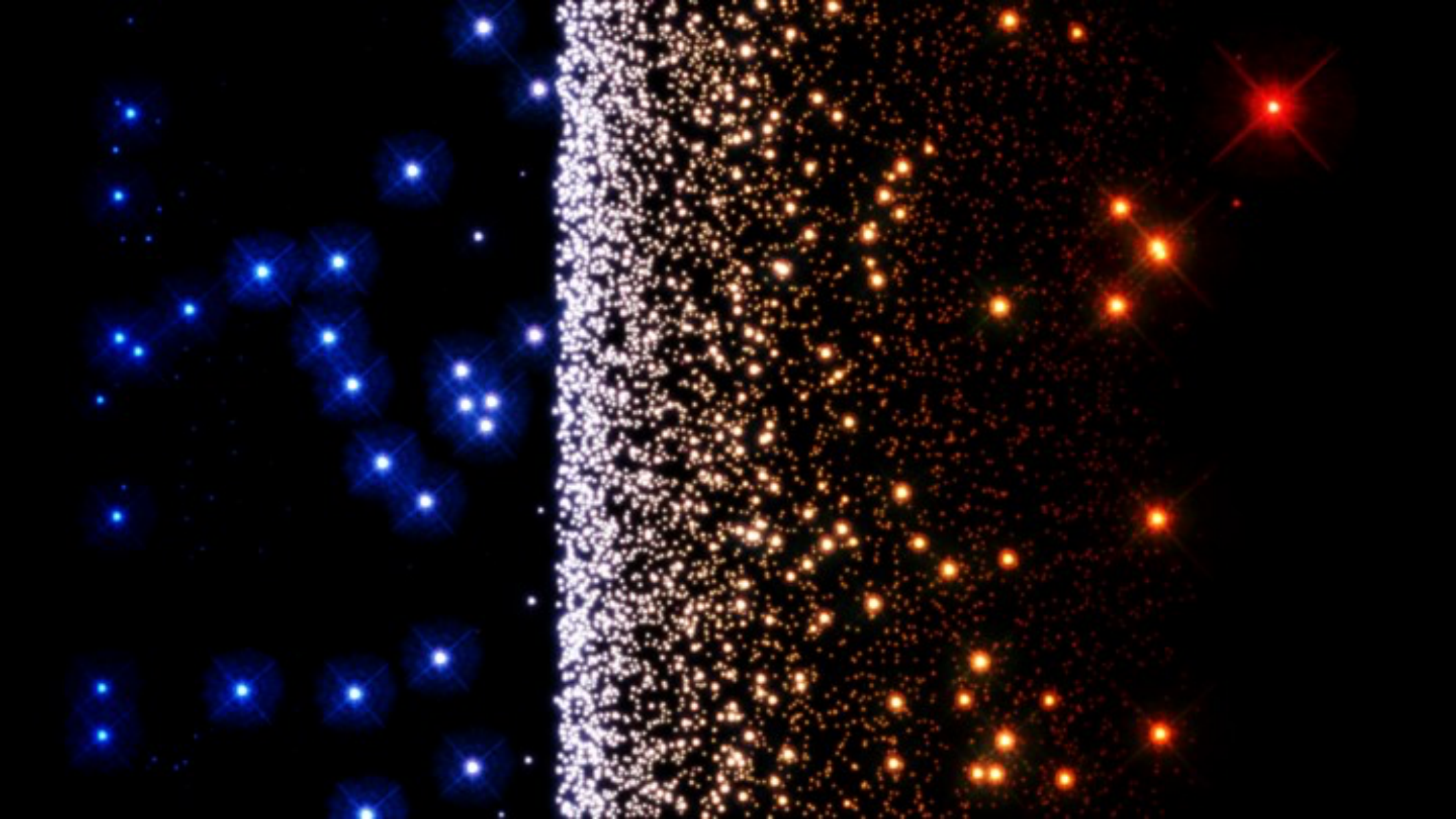


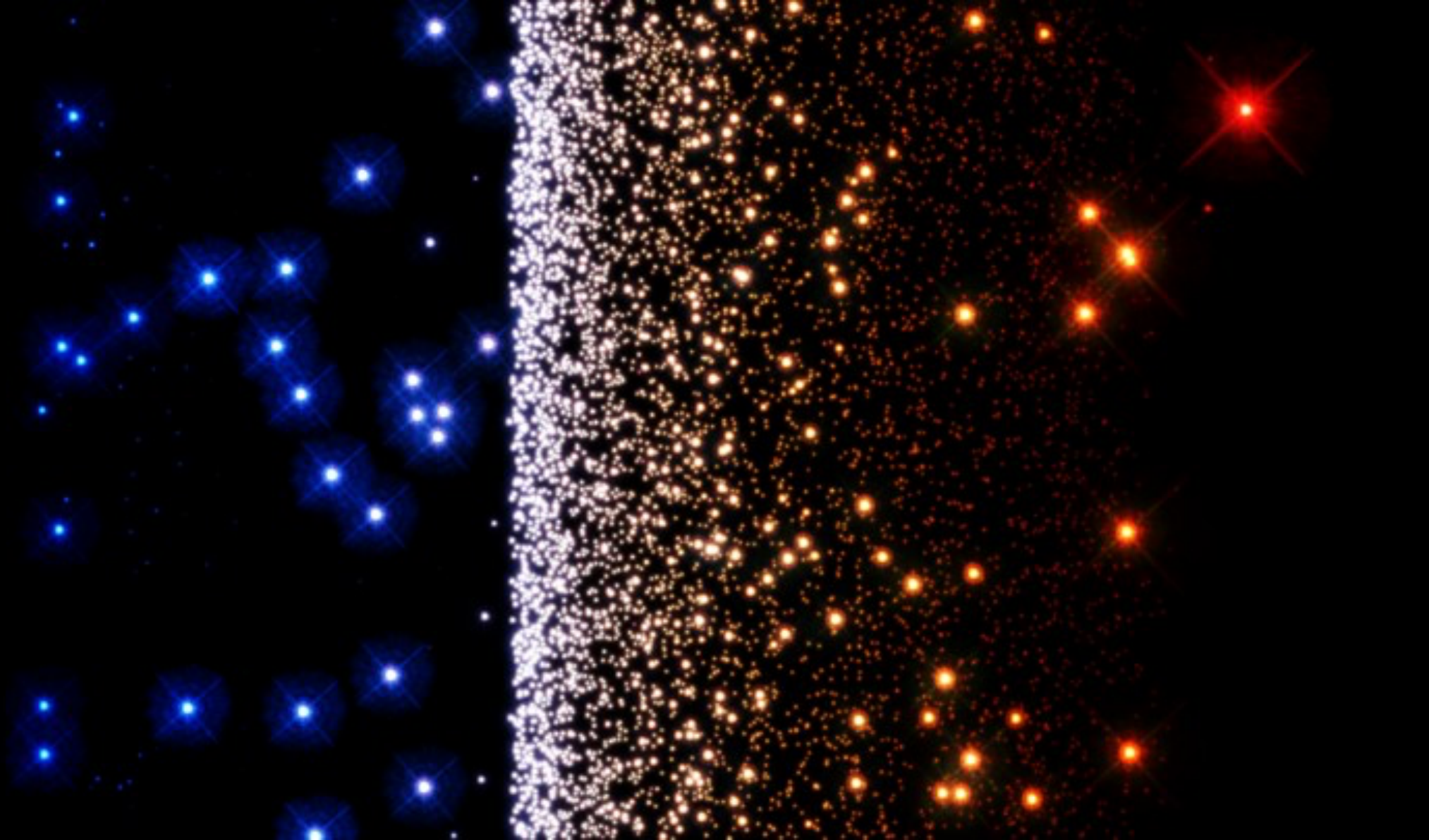






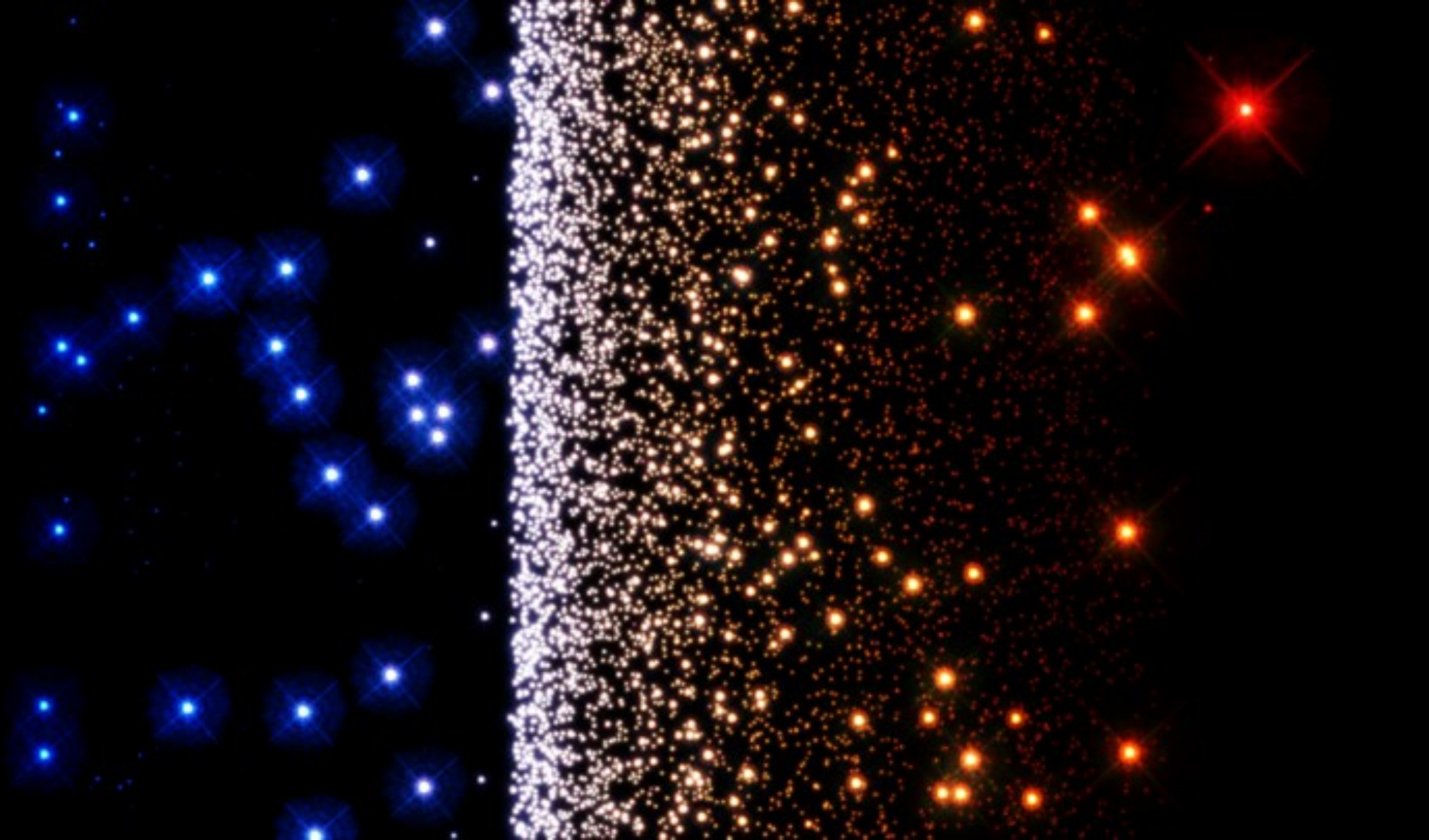






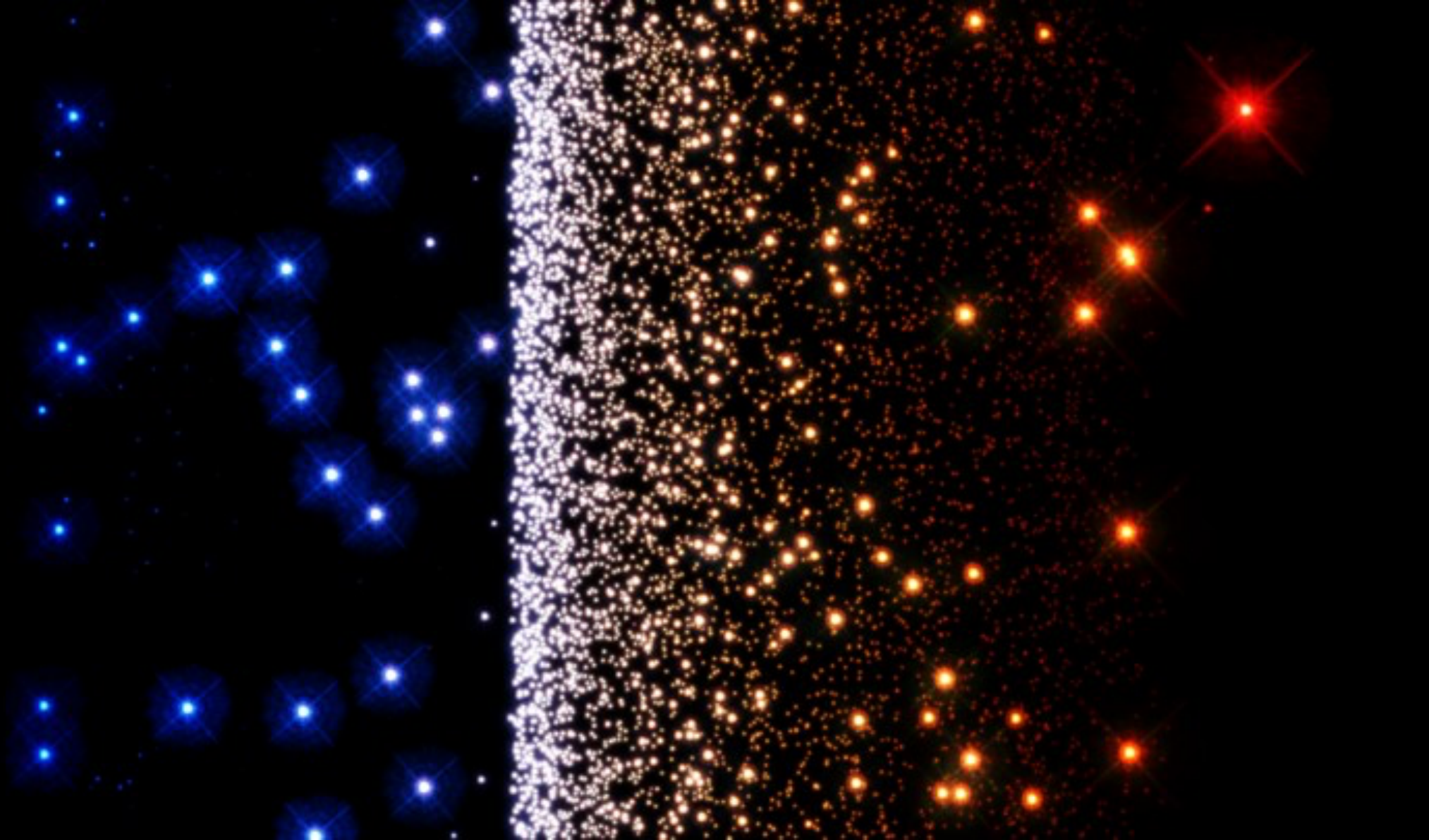
Note that most stars are nearly **white**.





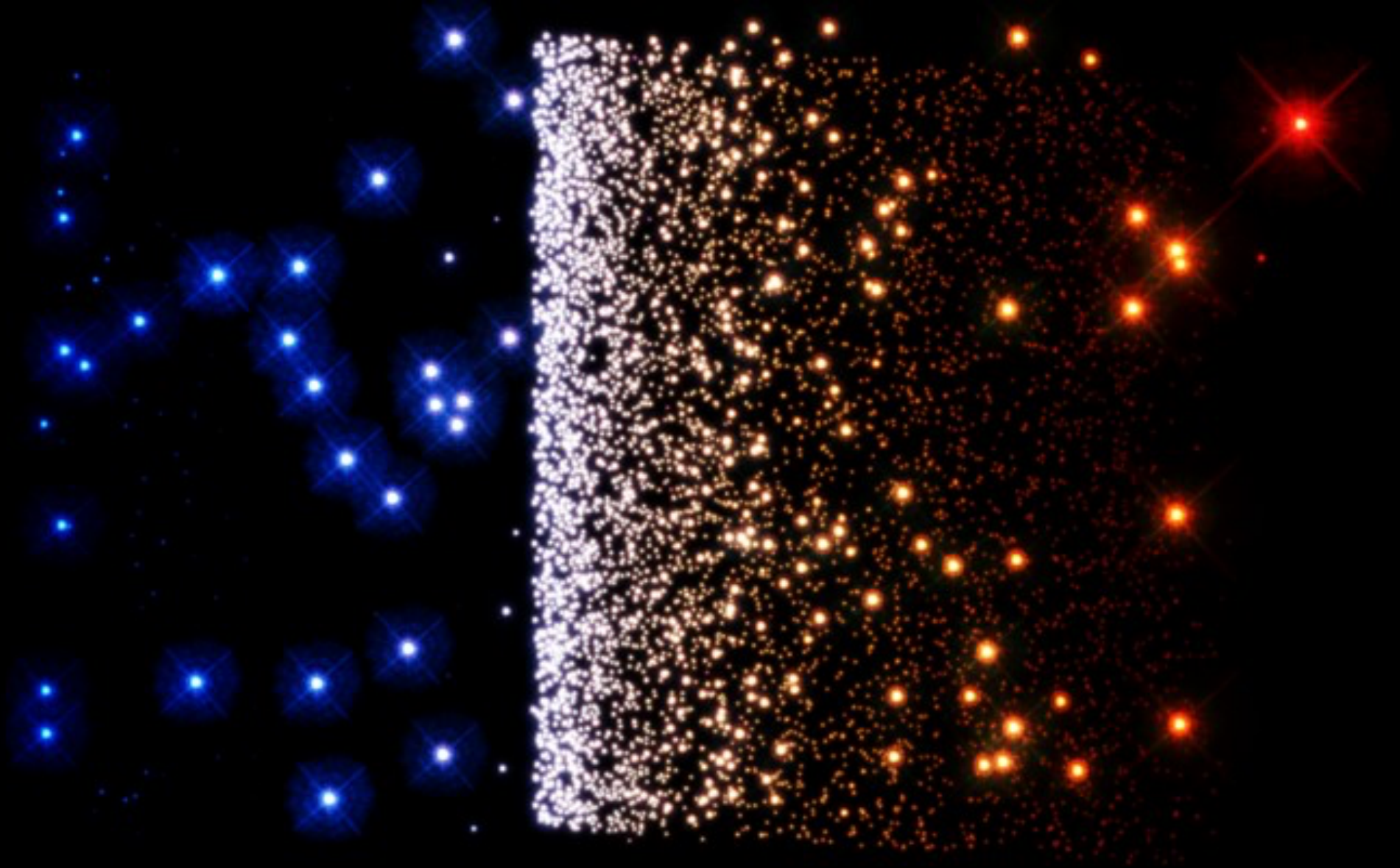
Astronomers also characterize stars in terms of brightness.

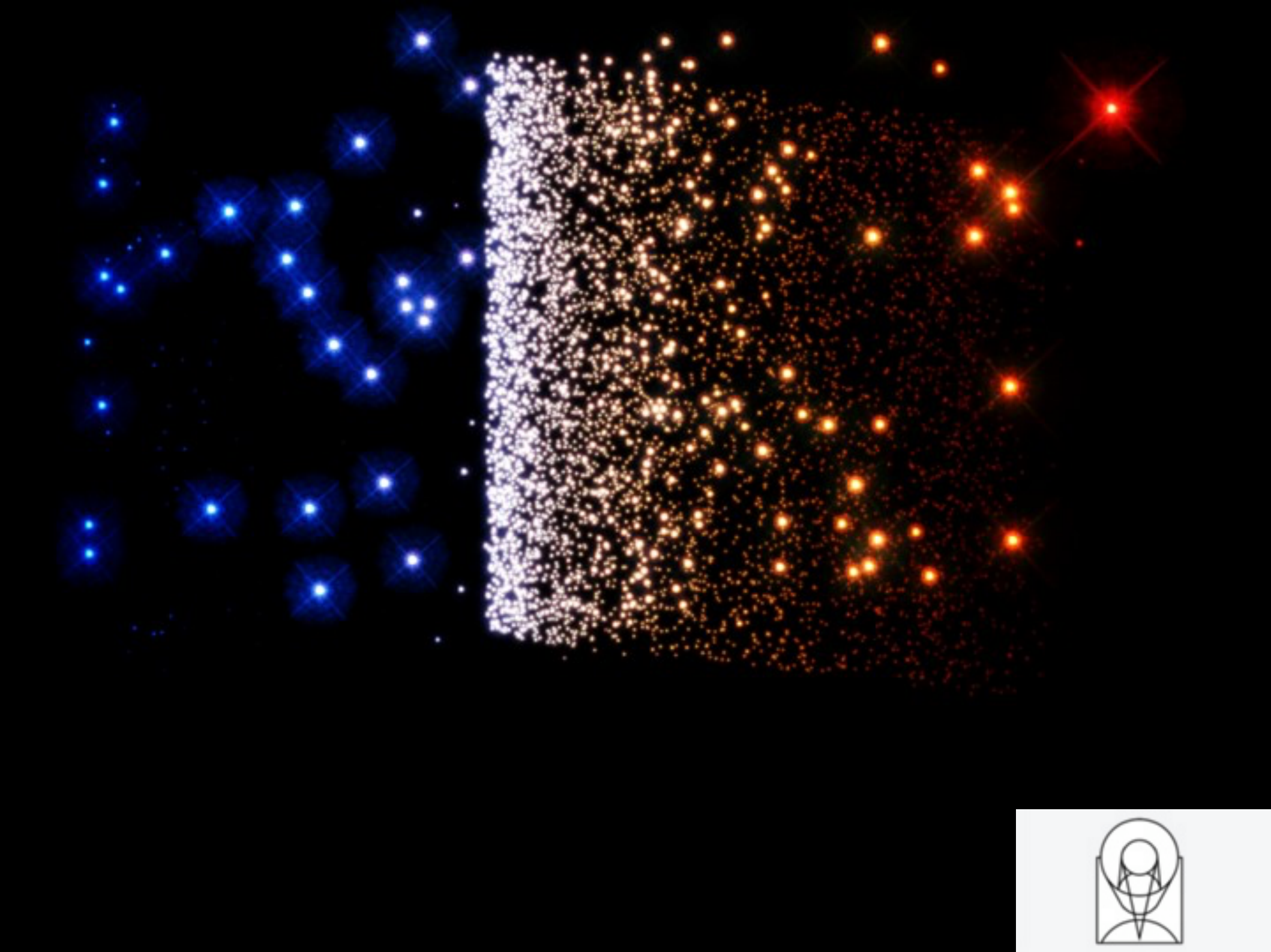


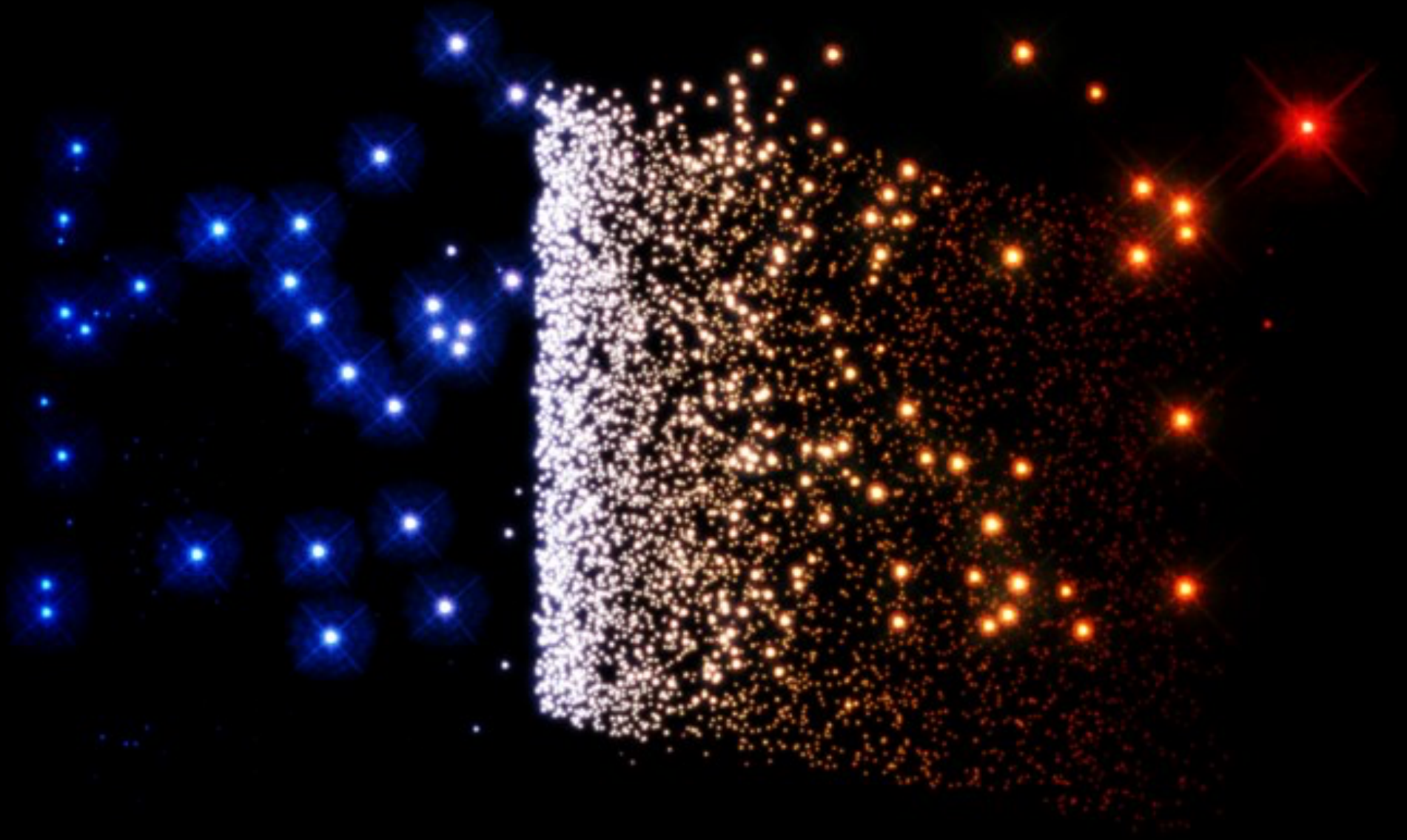


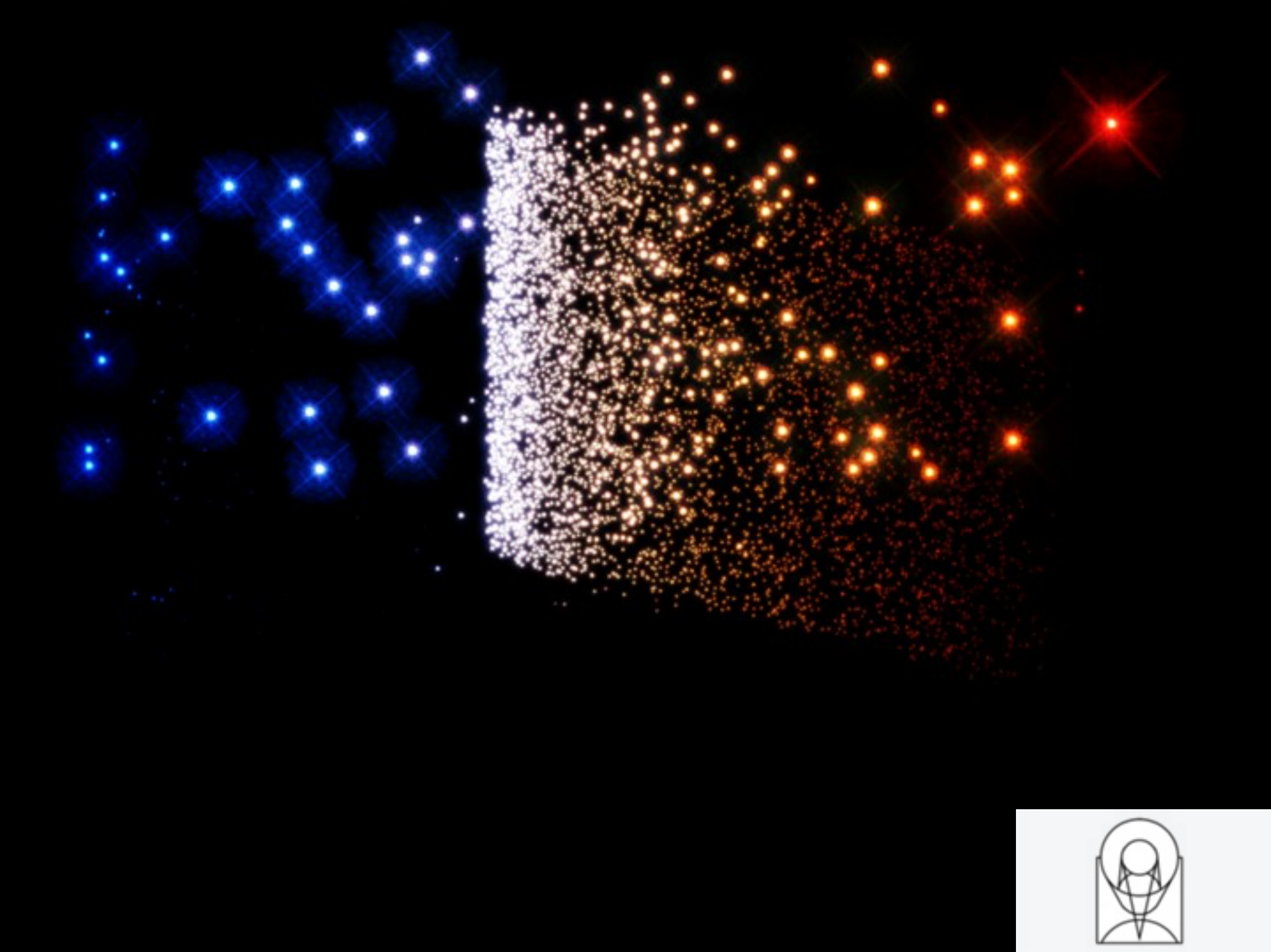
Let's sort the stars, putting the **bright** stars on top and the **faint** stars on the bottom.

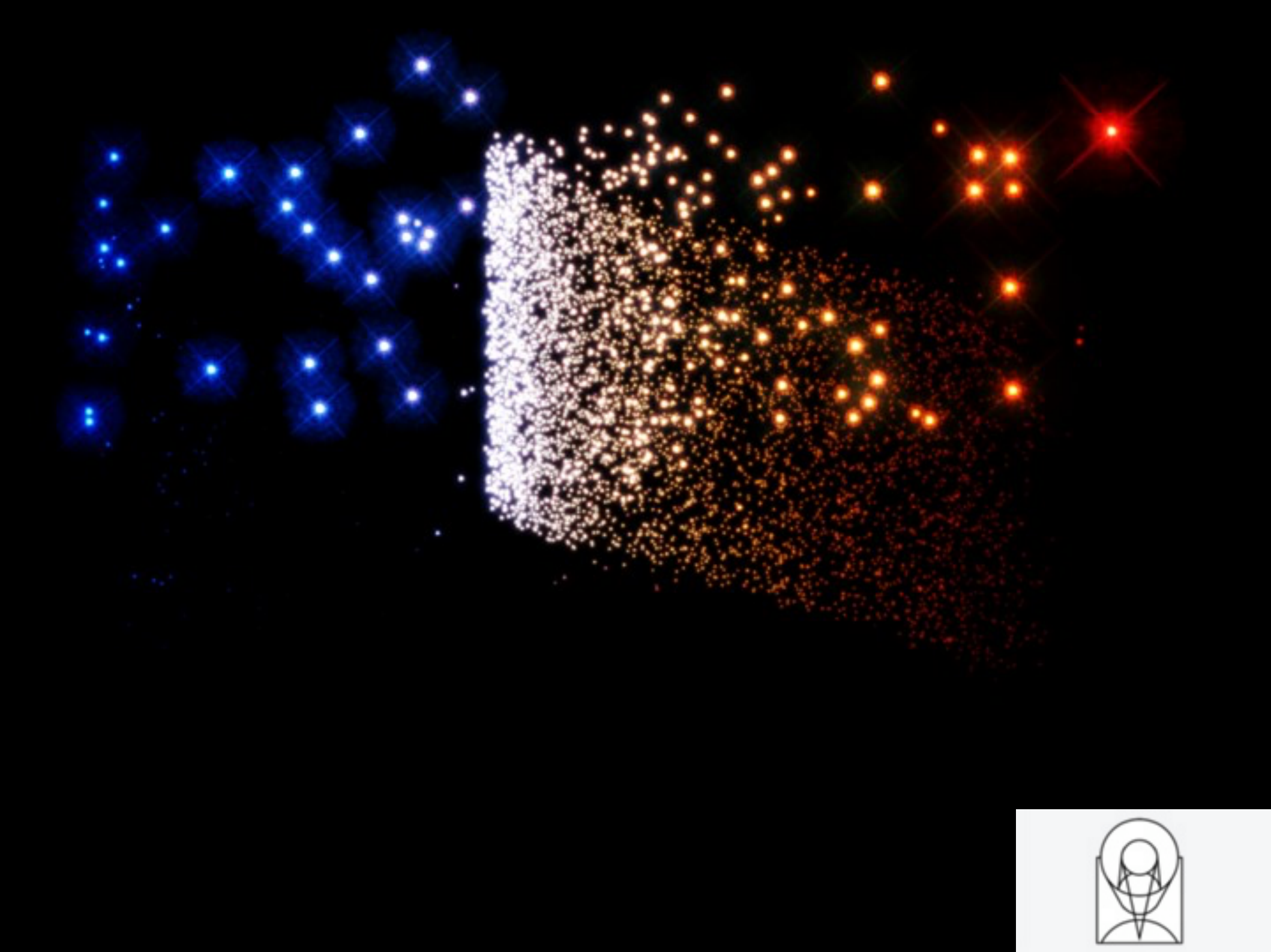


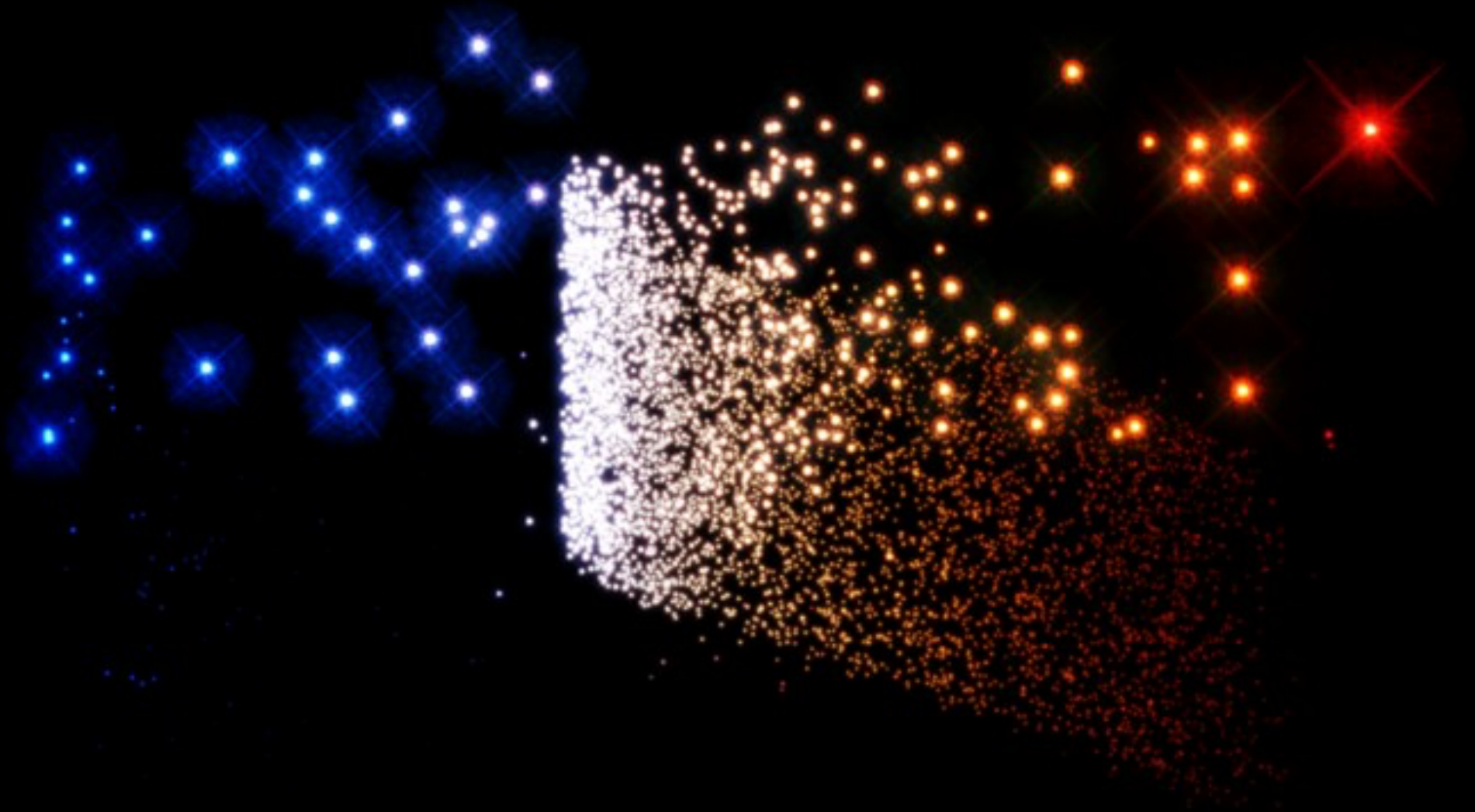


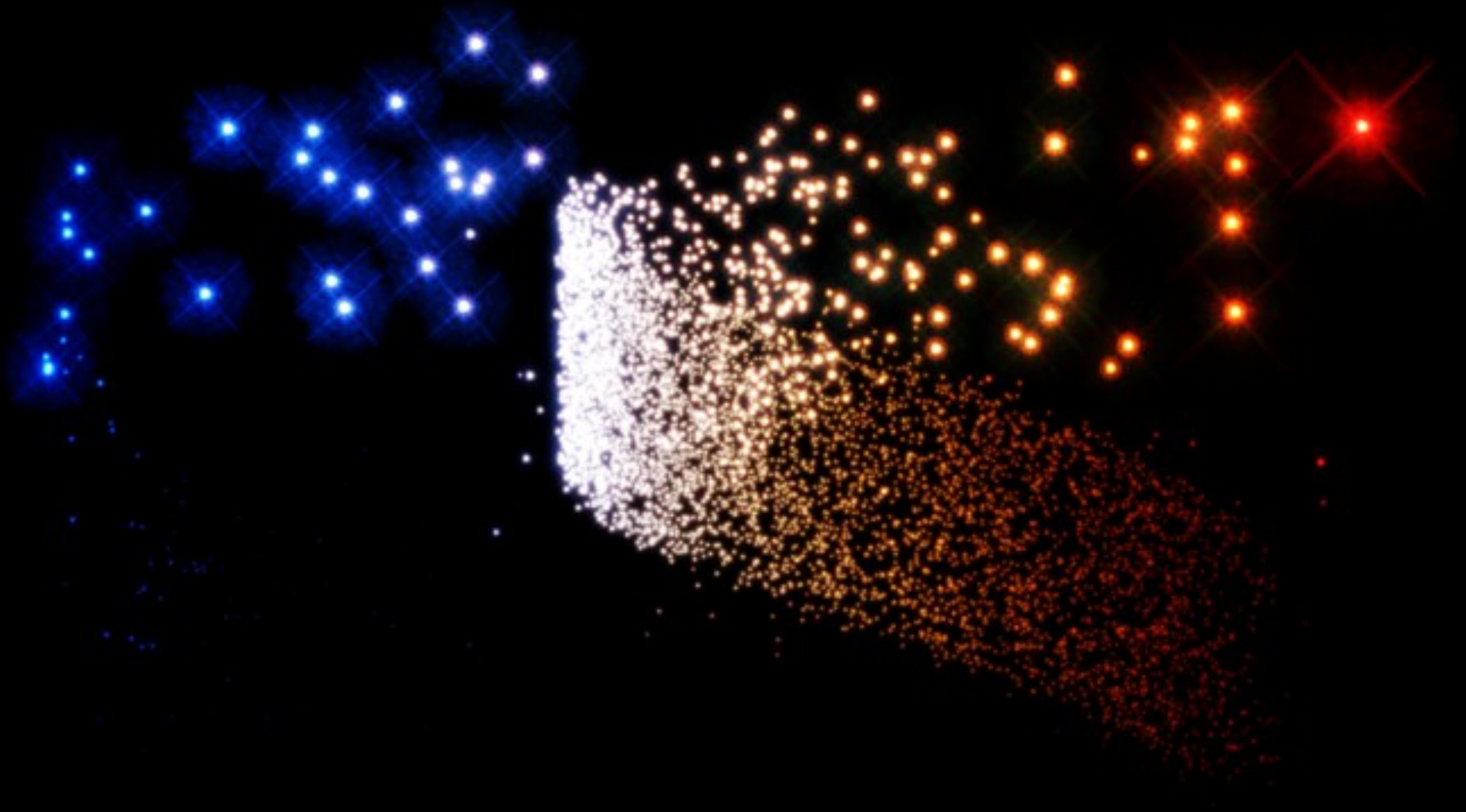


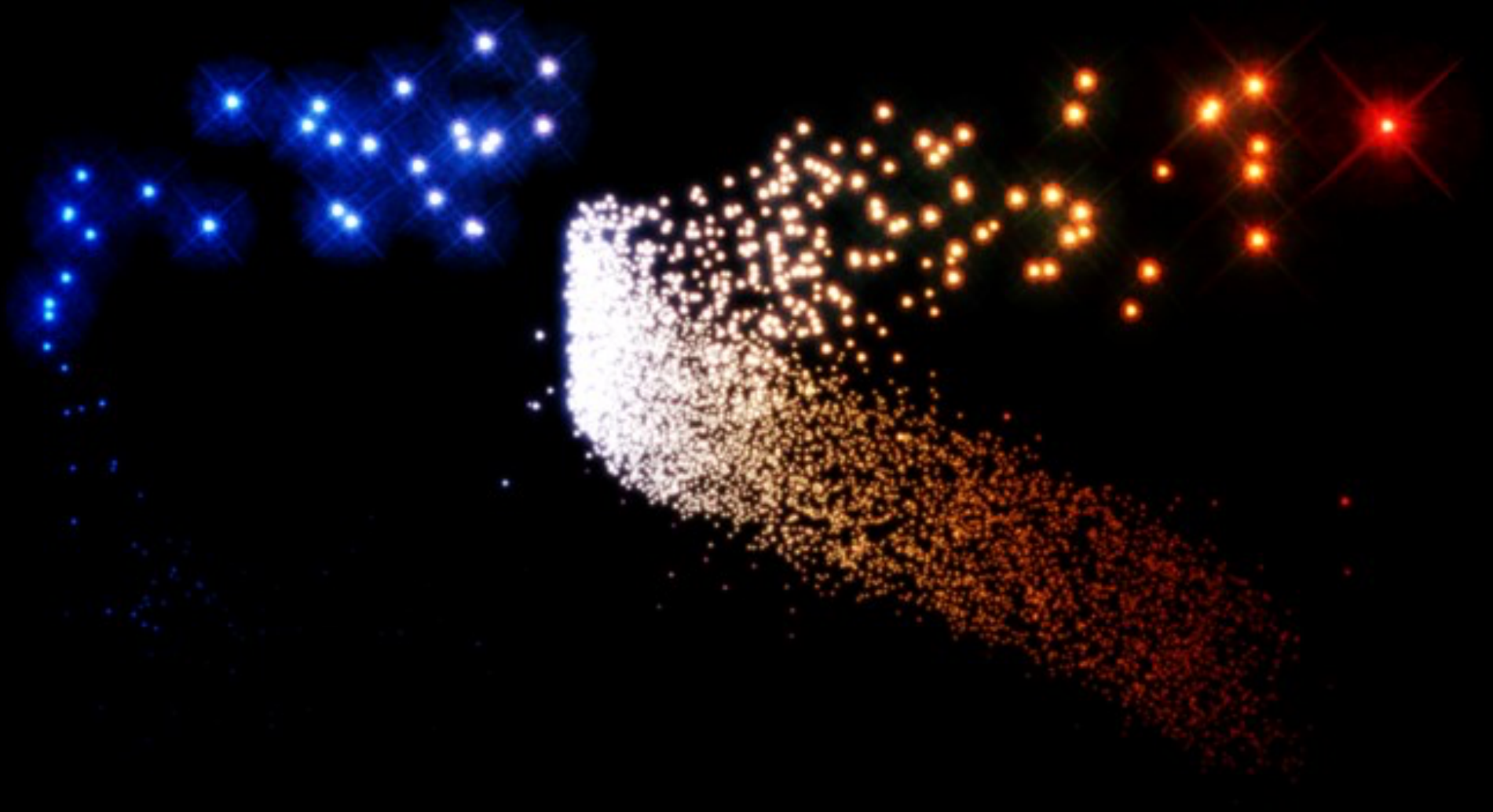


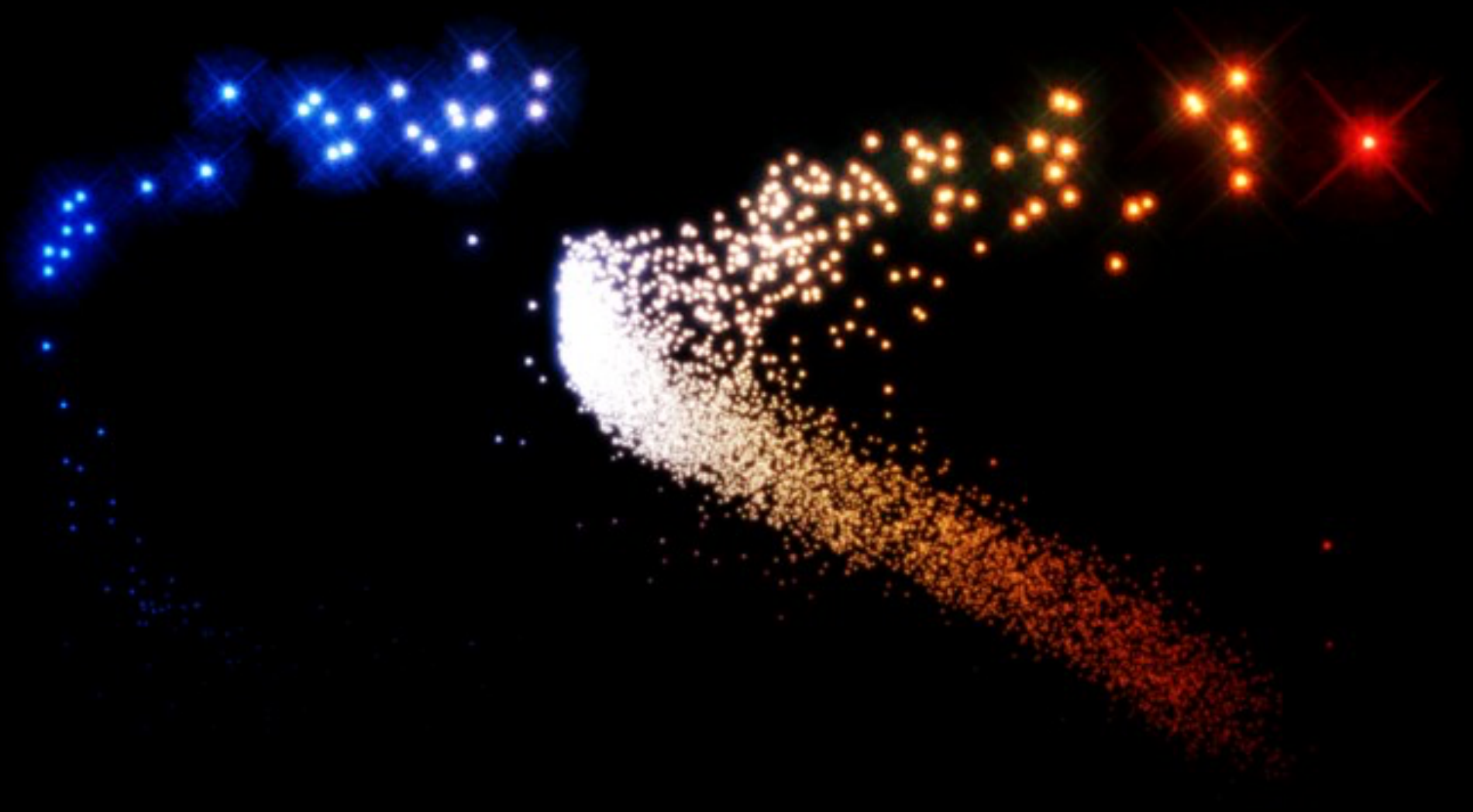




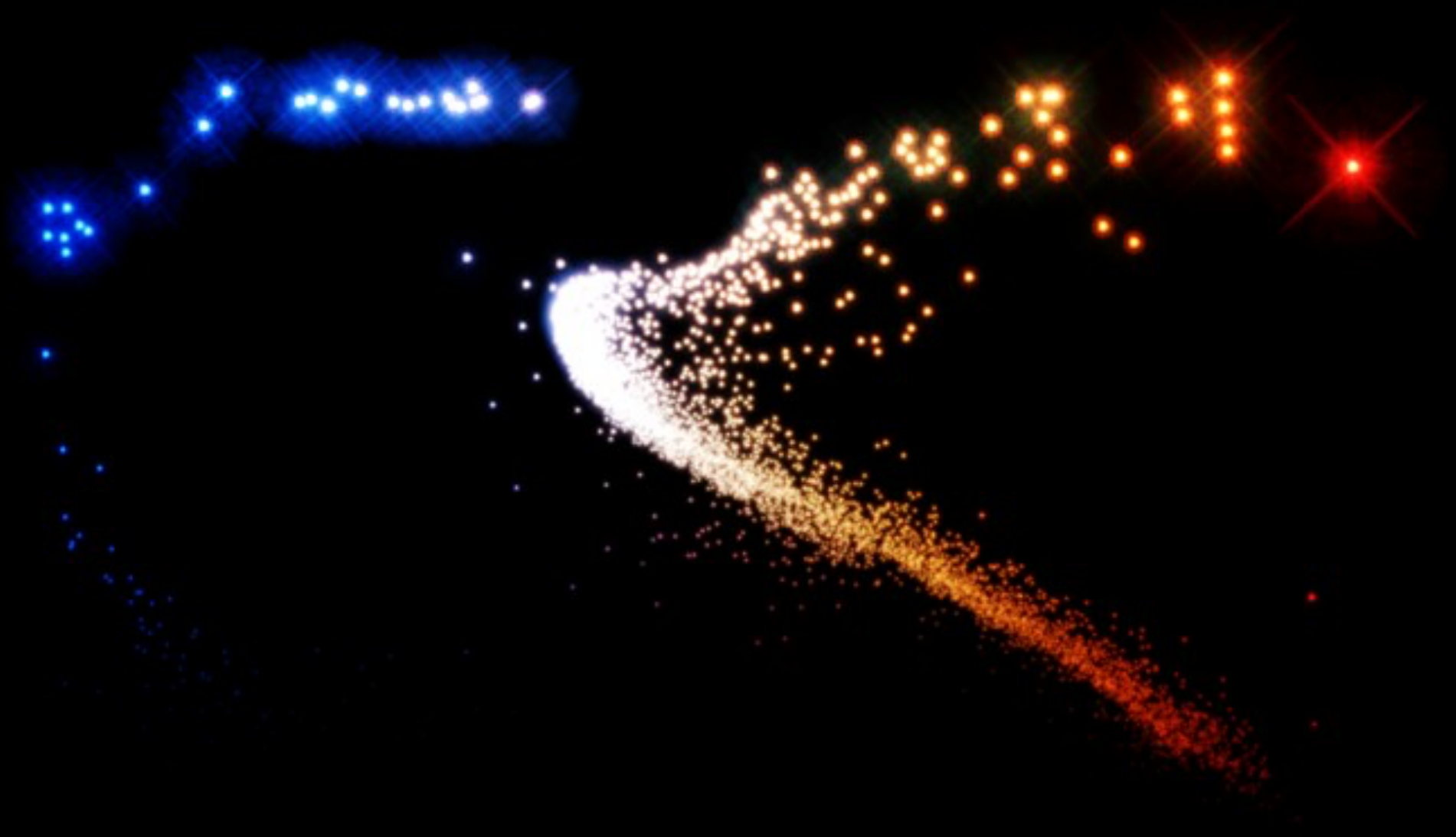












This is called a Hertzsprung-Russel
(H-R) Diagram.



luminosity

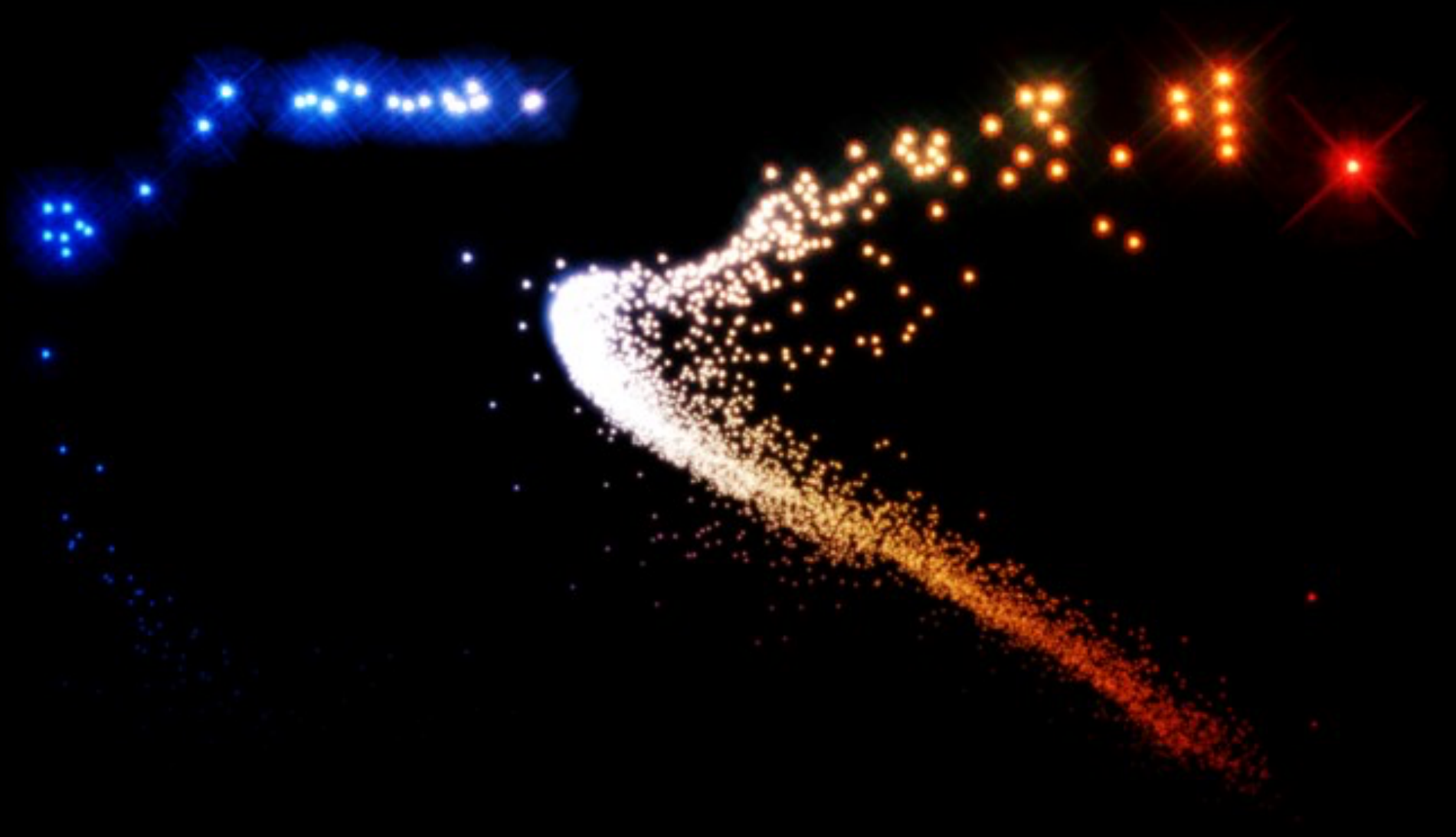


temperature



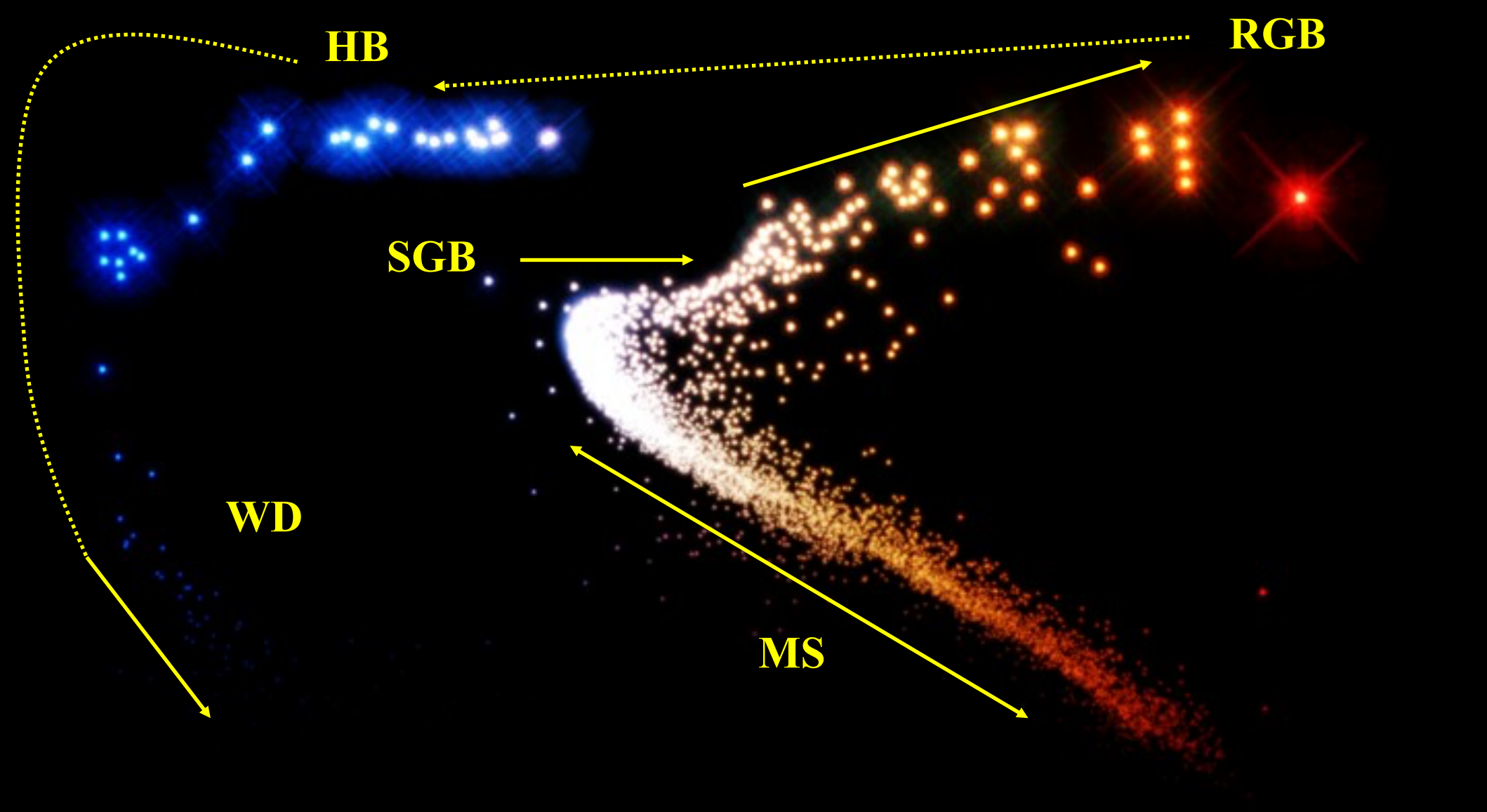
The unmistakable order in diagrams like this led astronomers to develop theories to explain stellar evolution.





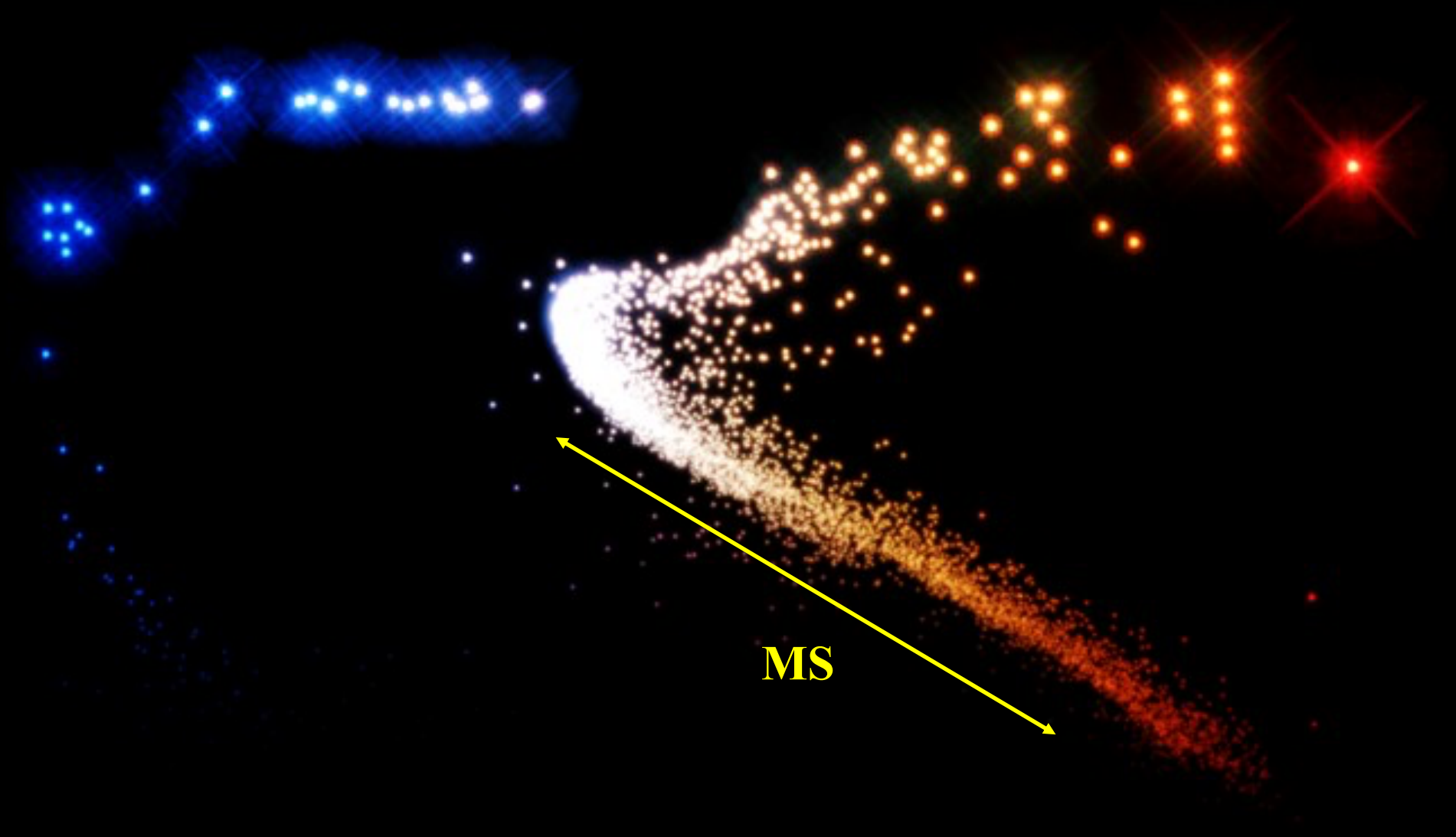
Stars don't fall just anywhere in the H-R diagram.





They lie along a few well-defined sequences.

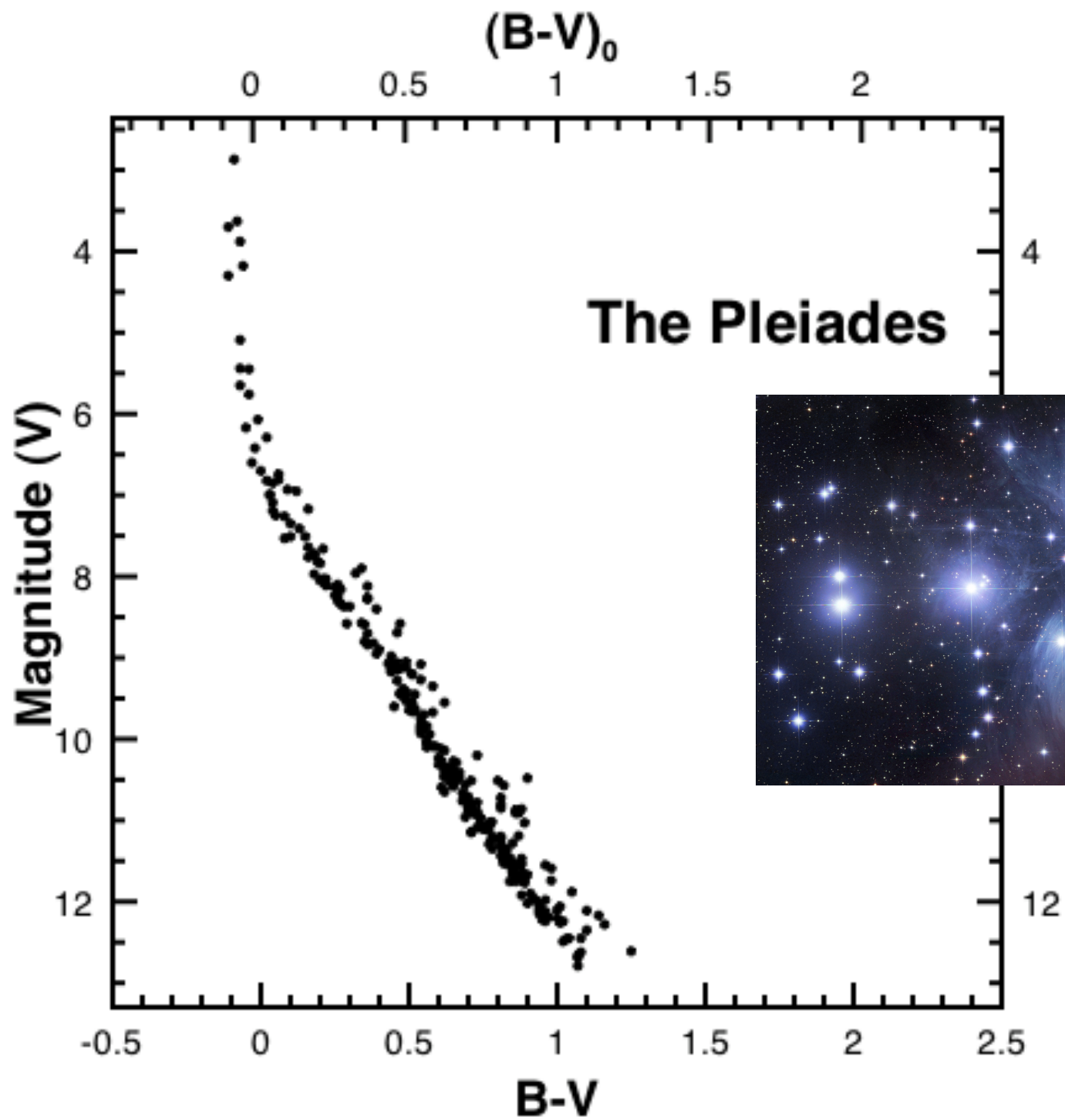


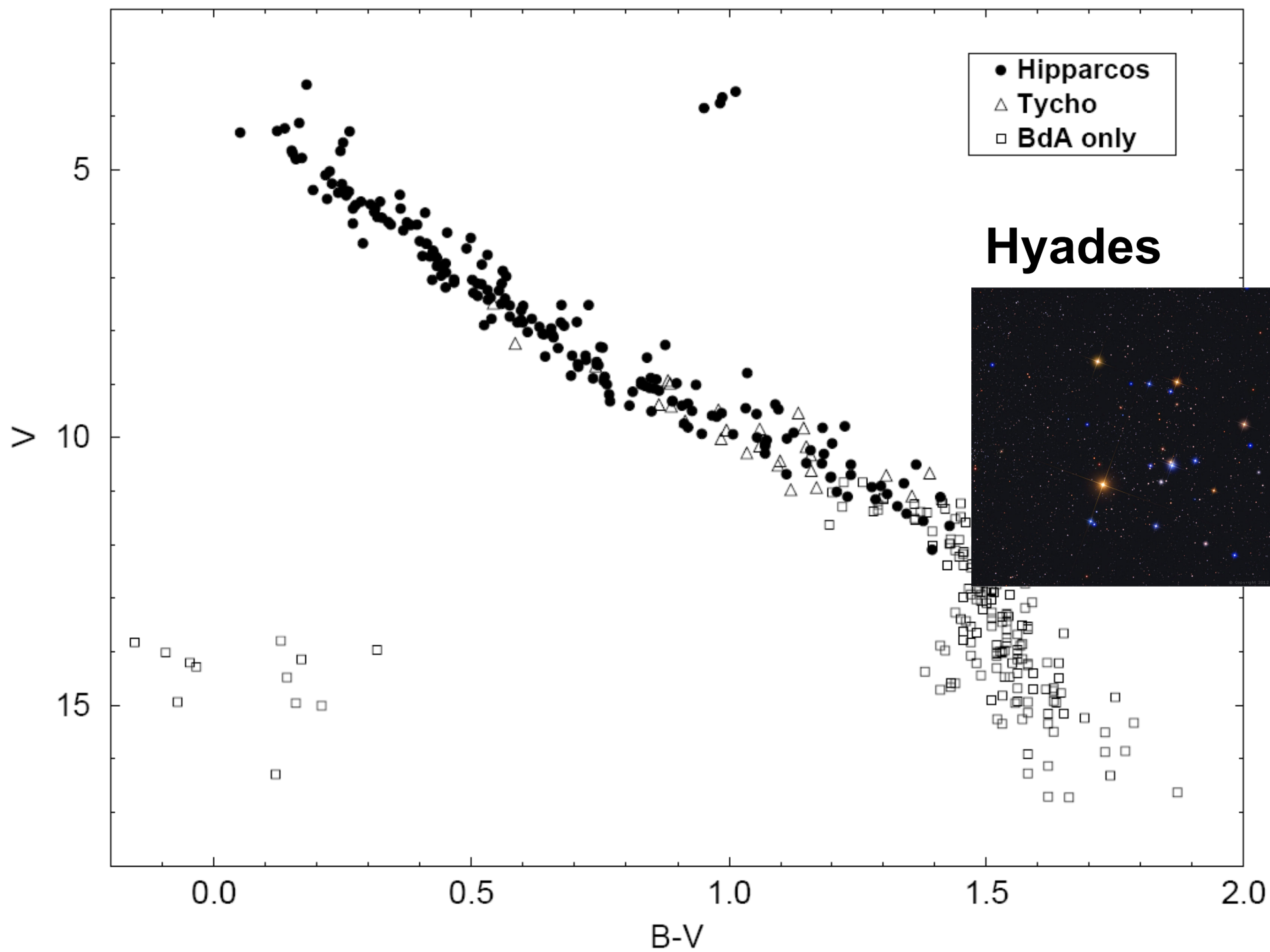


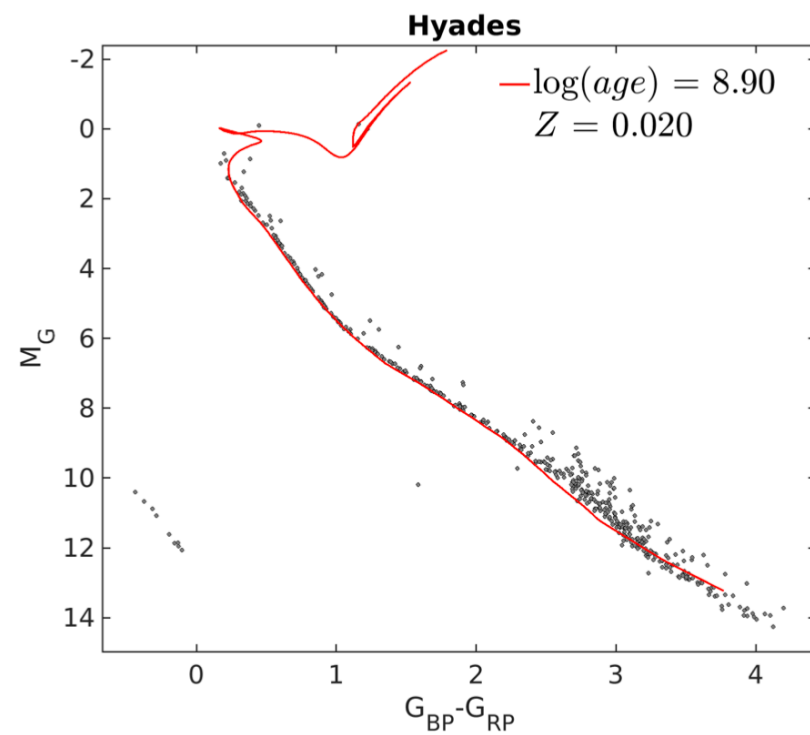
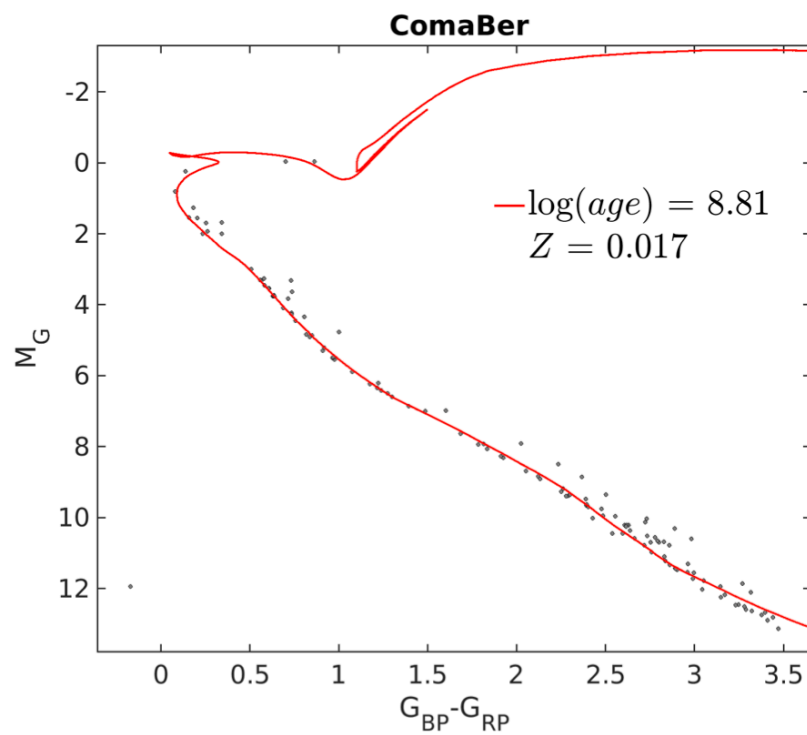
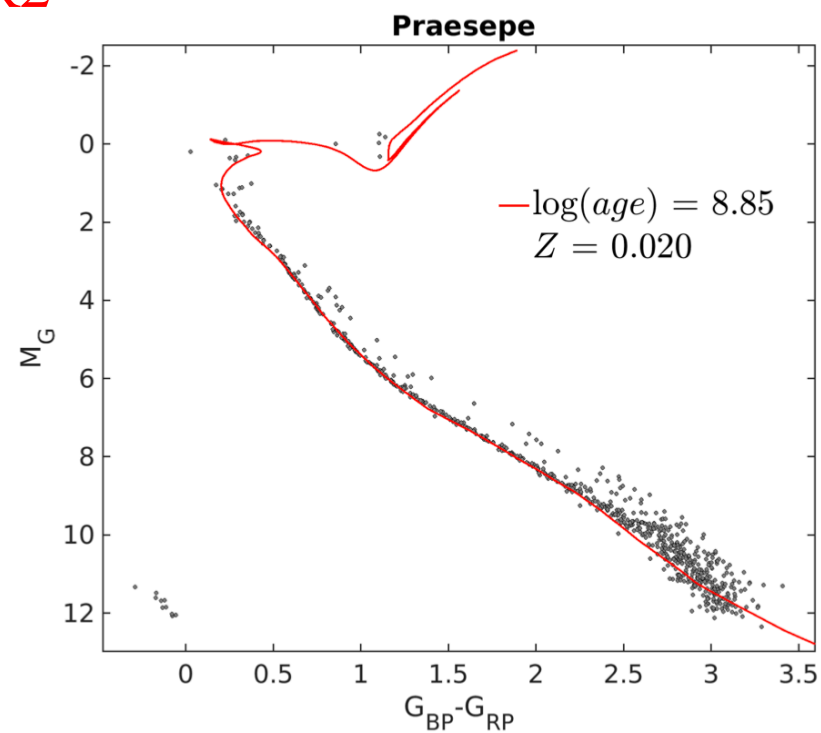
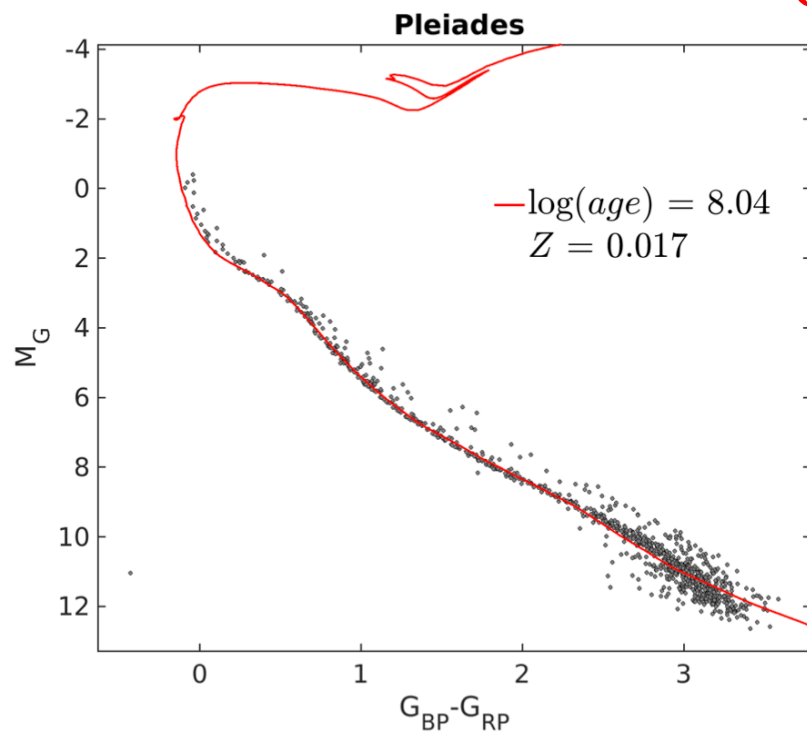
The vast majority of stars lie along the
Main Sequence (MS)

J. Anderson, STScI

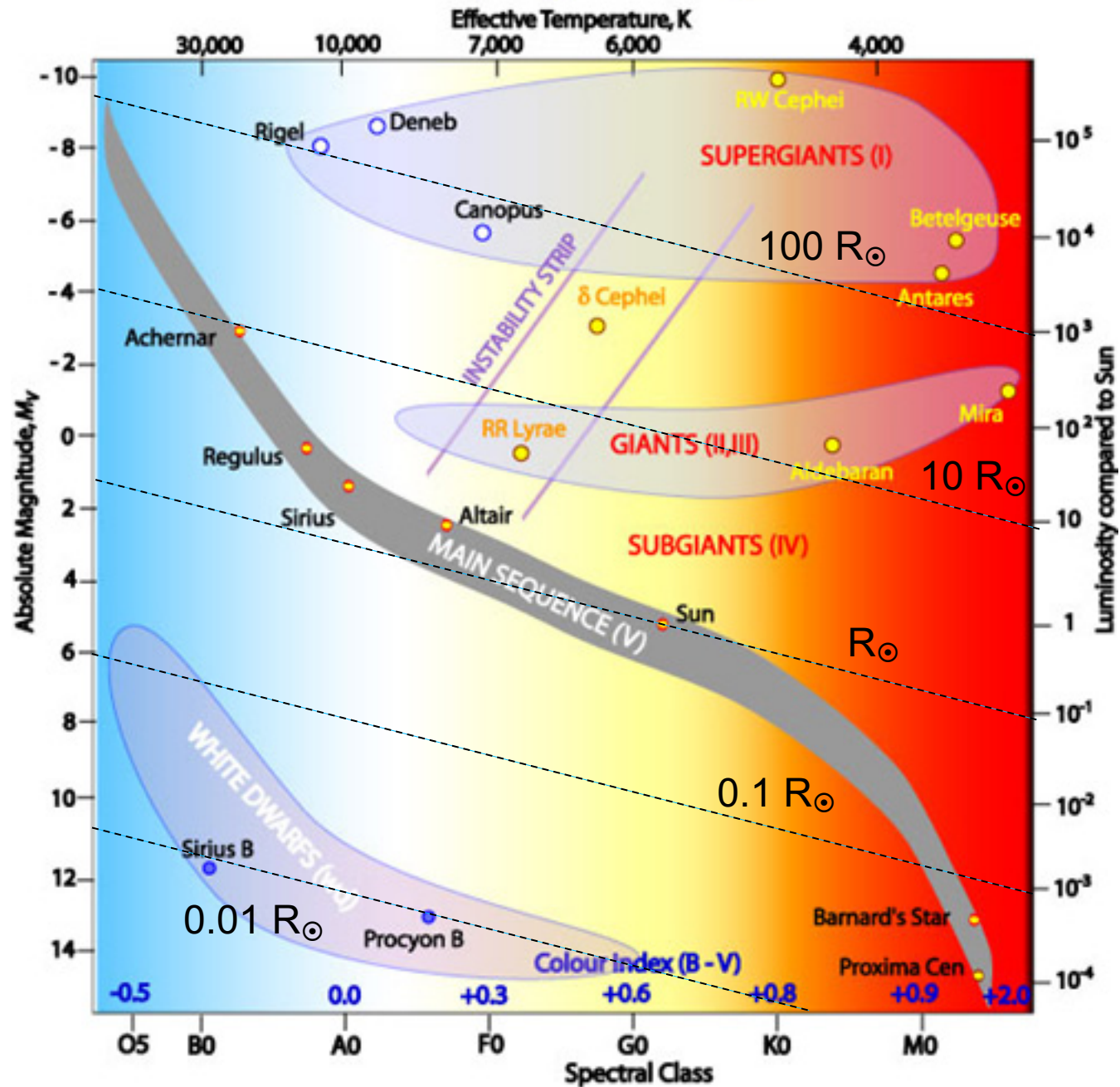


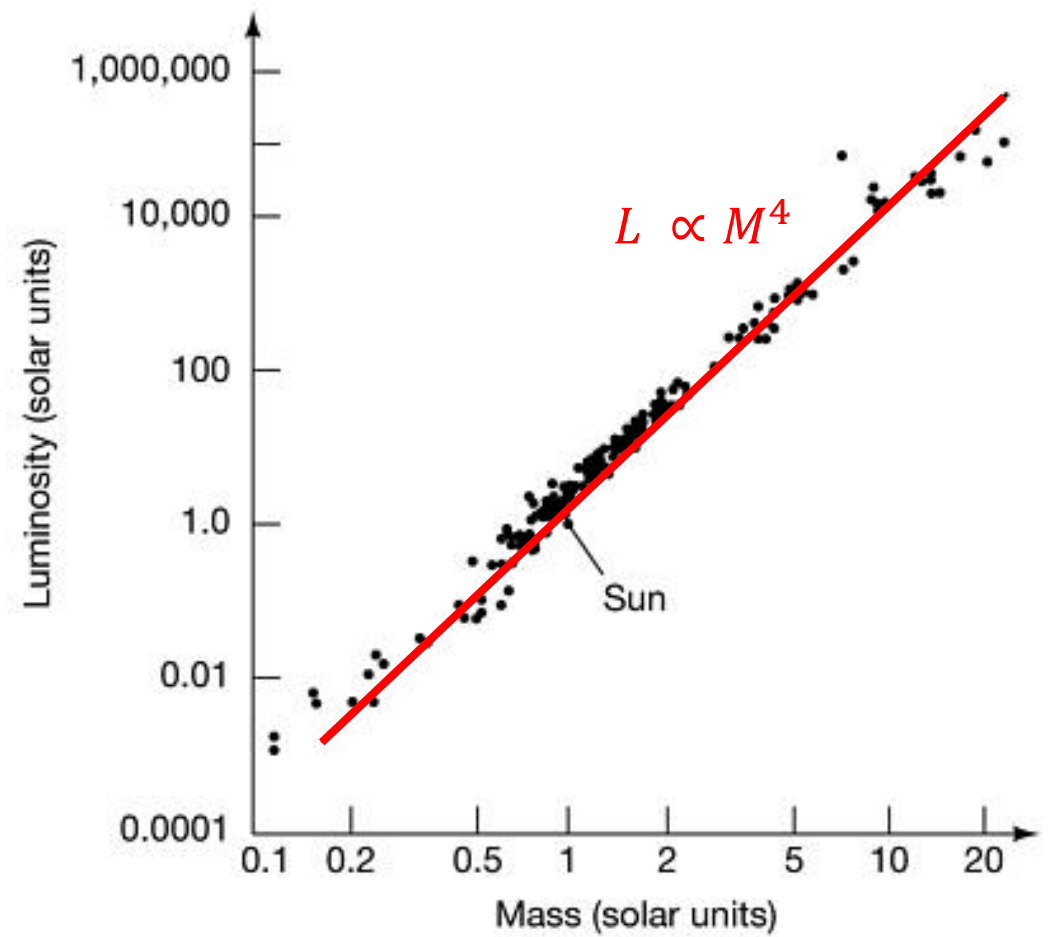
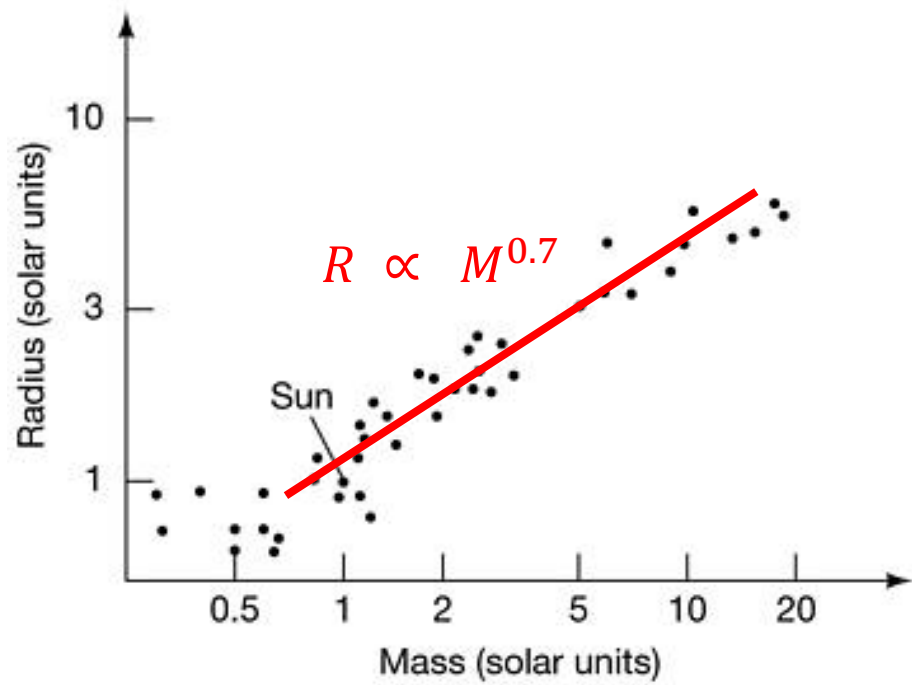


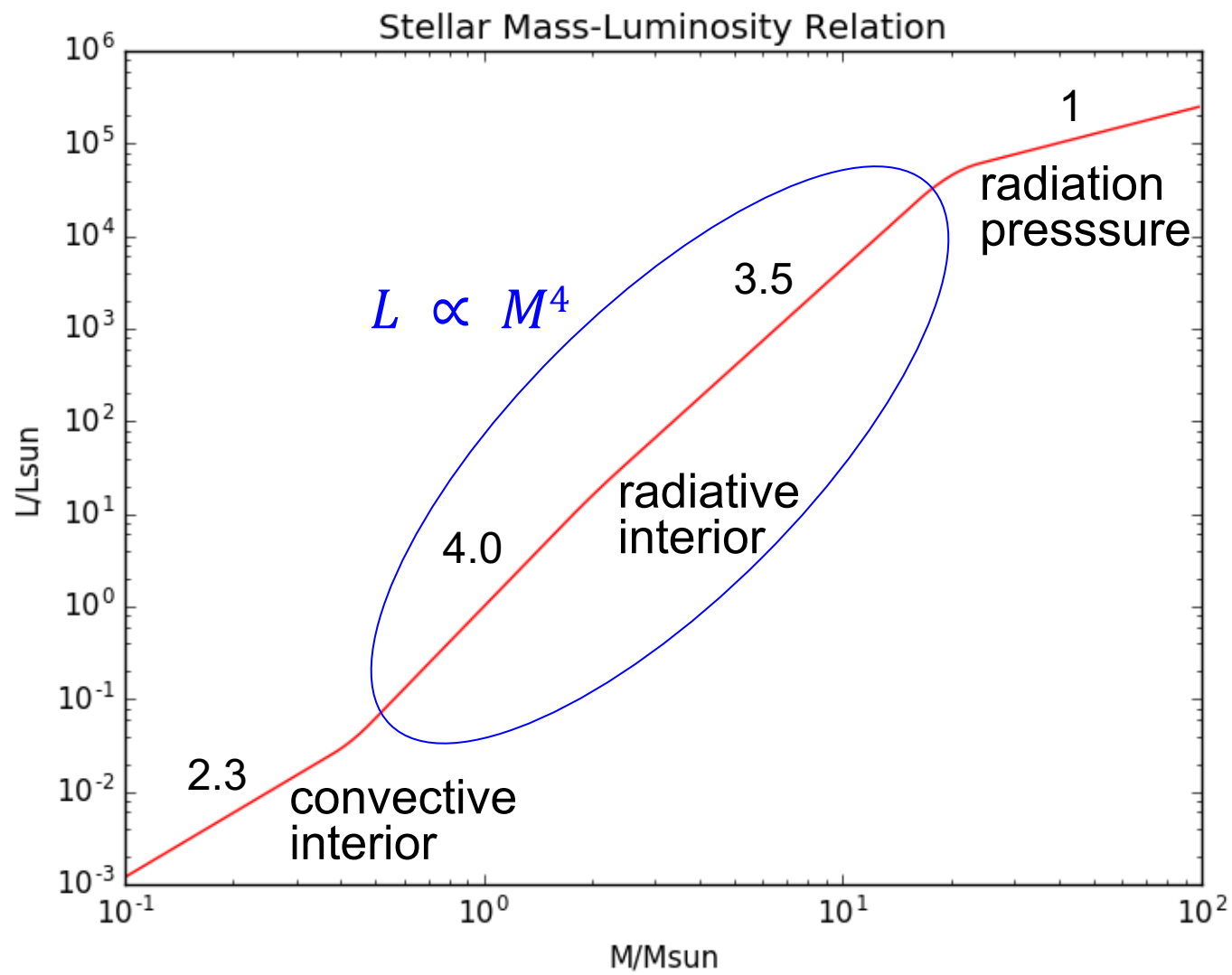




Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram







$$t_{MS} \sim \frac{M}{dM/dt} \propto \frac{M}{L} \propto M^{-3}$$

➔ stars must evolve

➔ the most massive stars evolve fastest!

$$t_{MS} \approx 10^{10} \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \right)^{-3} \text{ years}$$

➔ stars must evolve

➔ the most massive stars evolve fastest!