





Hot luminous stars:

Strong, fast stellar

Massive.

winds

Stellar Atmospheres in practice

Some different types of stars...



Cool, luminous stars (RSG, AGB): Massive or low/intermediate mass, evolved, several 100 (!) Rsun. Strong, slow stellar winds

Solar-type stars: Low-mass, on or near MS, hot surrounding coronae, weak stellar wind (e.g. solar wind)



Different regimes require different key input physics and assumptions



LTE or NLTE
Spectral line blocking/blanketing
(sub-) Surface

- convection
- Geometry and dimensionality
- Velocity fields and outflows



Spectroscopy and Photometry

ALSO: Analysis of different WAVELENGTH BANDS is different

(X-ray, UV, optical, infrared...)



Depends on where in atmosphere light escapes from

Question: Why is this "formation depth" different for different wavebands and diagnostics?



Spectroscopy and Photometry (see Chap. 2)

... gives insight into and understanding of our cosmos

- provides
 - stellar properties, mass, radius, luminosity, energy production, chemical composition, properties of outflows
 - properties of (inter) stellar plasmas, temperature, density, excitation, chemical comp., magnetic fields
- INPUT for stellar, galactic and cosmologic evolution and for stellar and galactic structure
- requires
 - plasma physics, plasma is "normal" state of atmospheres and interstellar matter (plasma diagnostics, line broadening, influence of magnetic fields,...)
 - atomic physics/quantum mechanics, interaction light/matter (micro quantities)
 - radiative transfer, interaction light/matter (macroscopic description)
 - thermodynamics, thermodynamic equilibria: TE, LTE (local), NLTE (non-local)
 - hydrodynamics, atmospheric structure, velocity fields, shockwaves,...



Spectroscopy (see Chap. 2)





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UV "P-Cygni"





Lines and continuum in the optical around 5200 Å, in cool solartype stars, formed in the photosphere









Stellar Winds (see Chap. 8/9)

KEY QUESTION: What provides the force able to overcome gravity?

 $\dot{M} \approx 10^{-4} \dots 10^{-8} M_{\odot} / yr$



- •LTE or NLTE
- Spectral line blocking/blanketing
- •(sub-) Surface convection
- Geometry and dimensionality
- Velocity fields and outflows



KEY QUESTION: What provides the force able to overcome gravity?

Pressure gradient

in hot coronae of solar-type stars

Radiation force:

Dust scattering (in pulsation-levitated material, see Chap. 8) in cool AGB stars (S. Höffner and colleagues)

Same mechanism in cool RSGs?





- •LTE or NLTE
- Spectral line blocking/blanketing
- •(sub-) Surface convection
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KEY QUESTION: What provides the force able to overcome gravity?

Radiation force:

line scattering in hot, luminous stars \rightarrow done at USM, more to follow in Chap. 8/9



- •LTE or NLTE
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- •(sub-) Surface convection
- •Geometry and dimensionality
- Velocity fields and outflows

Question: How do you think the high mass loss of stars with high luminosities affects the evolution of the star and its surroundings?



from introductory slides ...





Stellar Winds from hot/evolved cool stars control evolution/late evolution, and feed the ISM with nuclear processed material



In the following, we focus on stellar photospheres







OBSEPLATIONS !!

Solution of differential equations A and B by discretization differential operators => finite differences all quantities have to be evaluated on suitable grid Eq. of radiative transfer (B) usually solved by the so-called Feautrier and/or Rybicki scheme





•LTE or NLTE

- Spectral line blocking/blanketing
- •(sub-) Surface convection
- Geometry and dimensionality
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LTE or NLTE? (see part 1)



HOT STARS:

Complete model atmosphere and synthetic spectrum must be calculated in NLTE

NLTE calculations for various applications (including Supernovae remnants) within the expertise of USM

COOL STARS:

Standard to neglect NLTE-effects on atmospheric structure, might be included when calculating line spectra for individual "trace" elements (typically used for chemical abundance determinations)

BUT: See work by Phoenix-team (Hauschildt et al.) ALSO: RSGs still somewhat open question





LTE or NLTE
Spectral line blocking/blanketing
(sub-) Surface convection

- Geometry and dimensionality
- Velocity fields and outflows



Effects of numerous -- literally millions -- of (primarily metal) spectral lines upon the atmospheric structure and flux distribution
Q: Why is this tricky business?



- Effects of numerous -- literally millions -- of (primarily metal) spectral lines upon the atmospheric structure and flux distribution
 O: Why is this tricky business?
- •Q: Why is this tricky business?
- Lots of atomic data required (thus atomic physics and/or experiments)
- LTE or NLTE?
- What lines are relevant?
 (i.e., what ionization stages? Are there molecules present?)

Techniques:

Opacity Distribution Functions Opacity-Sampling Direct line by line calculations





Back-warming (and surface-cooling)





Back-warming and flux redistribution



...occur in stars of all spectral types

Fig. 4. The effects of switching off line absorption on the temperature structure of a sequence of models with $\log g = 3.0$ and solar metallicity. Note that $\Delta T \equiv T(\text{nolines}) - T(\text{lines})$. It is seen that the blanketing effects are fairly independent of effective temperature for models with $T_{\text{eff}} \ge 4000$.

Back warming in cool stars (from Gustafsson et al. 2008)



Fig. 10. Emergent Eddington flux H_v as function of wavelength. Solid line: Current model of HD 15629 (O5V((f)) with parameters from Table 1 ($T_{\text{eff}} = 40500$ K, $\log g = 3.7$, "model 1"). Dotted: Pure H/He model without line-blocking/blanketing and negligible wind, at same T_{eff} and $\log g$ ("model 2"). Dashed: Pure H/He model, but with $T_{\text{eff}} = 45000$ K and $\log g = 3.9$ ("model 3").

UV to optical flux redistribution in hot stars (from Repolust, Puls & Hererro 2004)



Back-warming and flux redistribution

...occur in stars of all spectral types



Fig. 9 Effects of line blanketing (solid) vs. unblanketed models (dashed) on the flux distribution $(\log F_v \text{ (Jansky) vs. } \log \lambda \text{ (Å)}, \text{ left panel)}$ and temperature structure $(T(10^4 \text{ K}) \text{ vs. } \log n_e, \text{ right panel})$ in the atmosphere of a late B-hypergiant. Blanketing blocks flux in the UV, redistributes it towards longer wavelengths and causes back-warming.



Spectral line blocking/blanketing

in line/continuum forming regions, blanketed models at a certain T_{eff} have a plasma temperature corresponding to an unblanketed model with higher T'_{eff}

Back-warming – effect on effective temperature

RECALL: T_{eff} -- or total flux (planeparallel) -- fundamental input parameter in model atmosphere! From Gustafsson et al. 2008: Estimate effect by assuming a blanketed model with T_{eff} such that the deeper layers correspond to an unblanketed model with effective temperature $T'_{eff} > T_{eff}$



Fig. 3. The blocking fraction X in percent for models in the grid with two different metallicities. The dwarf models all have log g = 4.5 while the giant models have log g values increasing with temperature, from log g = 0.0 at $T_{\rm eff} = 3000$ K to log g = 3.0 at $T_{\rm eff} = 5000$ K.

Question: Why does the line blocking fraction increase for very cool stars?

 $F = \sigma_{\rm B} T_{\rm eff}^4$

T_{eff} in cool stars derived, e.g., by optical photometry

$$T'_{\rm eff} = (1 - X)^{-\frac{1}{4}} \cdot T_{\rm eff}, \tag{35}$$

where X is the fraction of the integrated continuous flux blocked out by spectral lines,

$$X = \frac{\int_0^\infty (F_{\rm cont} - F_\lambda) d\lambda}{\int_0^\infty F_{\rm cont} d\lambda}.$$
 (36)



Back-warming – effect on effective temperature

RECALL: T_{eff} -- or total flux (planeparallel) -- fundamental input parameter in model atmosphere! Previous slide were LTE models. In hot stars, everything has to be done in NLTE...

$$F = \sigma_{\rm B} T_{\rm eff}^4$$

Question: Why is optical photometry generally NOT well suited to derive Teff in hot stars?



Instead, He ionization-balance is typically used (or N for the very hottest stars, or, e.g., Si for B-stars)

HeI4387 HeI4922

HeI6678 HeI4471 HeI4713 HeII4200 HeII4541 HeII6404 HeII6683



- -- from Repolust, Puls, Hererro (2004)
- Back-warming shifts ionization balance toward more completely ionized Helium in blanketed models
- \rightarrow thus fitting the same observed spectrum requires lower T_{eff} than in unblanketed models



- red unblanketed Teff=45 kK
- blue unblanketed Teff= 50 kK

black and blue have similar (low) HeI/II ionization fractions in weak-line forming region, thus similar line profiles



```
Instead, He ionization-balance is typically used
(or N for the very hottest stars, or, e.g., Si for B-stars)
```

Result: In hot O-stars with Teff~40,000 K, backwarming can lower the derived T_{eff} as compared to unblanketed models by several thousand degrees! (~ 10 %)



New T_{eff} scale for O-dwarf stars. Solid line – unblanketed models. Dashed – blanketed calibration, dots – observed blanketed values (from Puls et al. 2008)





LTE or NLTE
Spectral line blocking/blanketing
(sub-) Surface convection

- •Geometry and dimensionality
- Velocity fields and outflows



Surface Convection





Surface Convection

- H/He recombines in atmospheres of cool stars
- → Provides MUCH opacity
- Convective Energy transport



OBSERVATIONS: "Sub-surface" convection in layers T~160,000 K (due to iron-opacity peak) currently discussed also in hot stars



Surface Convection

Traditionally accounted for by rudimentary "mixing-length theory" (see Chap. 6) in 1-D atmosphere codes

BUT:

- Solar observations show very dynamic structure
- Granulation and lateral inhomogeneity
- → Need for full 3-D radiation-hydrodynamics simulations in which convective motions occur spontaneously if required conditions fulfilled (all physics of convection 'naturally' included)





Surface Convection

as long as $\Delta r / R \ll 1 \implies$ plane-parallel symmetry





Solar-type stars: Photospheric extent << stellar radius Small granulation patterns



example: the sun

 $R_{sun} \approx 700,000 \text{ km}$ $\Delta r \text{ (photo)} \approx 300 \text{ km}$

 $\Rightarrow \Delta r / R \approx 4 \ 10^{-4}$

BUT corona $\Delta r / R$ (corona) ≈ 3

white dwarfs

giants (partly)

expanding envelopes (stellar winds)

of OBA stars, M-giants and supergiants



Surface Convection

Solar-type stars: Atmospheric extent << stellar radius Small granulation patterns

→ Box-in-a-star Simulations

(cmp. plane-parallel approximation)



From Wolfgang Hayek



Surface Convection

Approach (teams by Nordlund, Steffen):

Solve radiation-hydrodynamical conservation equations of mass, momentum, and energy (closed by equation of state).

3-D radiative transfer included to calculate net radiative heating/cooling q_{rad} in energy equation, typically assuming LTE and a very simplified treatment of line-blanketing

$$q_{\rm rad} = 4\pi\rho \int_{\lambda} \kappa_{\lambda} (J_{\lambda} - S_{\lambda}) d\lambda,$$



From Wolfgang Hayek



Surface Convection



From Berndt Freytag's homepage:

http://www.astro.uu.se/~bf/



Surface Convection



Fig. 4.—Pressure fluctuations about the mean hydrostatic equilibrium and the velocity field in an xz slice through a granule. The pressure is high above the centers of granules, which decelerates the warm upflowing fluid and diverts it horizontally. High pressure also occurs in the intergranular lanes where the horizontal motions are halted and gravity pulls the now cool, dense fluid down into the intergranular lanes. Horizontal rolls of high vorticity occur at the edges of the intergranular lanes. The emergent intensity profile across the slice is shown at the top.

From Stein & Nordlund (1998)



Surface Convection

Some key features:

Slow, broad upward motions, and faster, thinner downward motions
Non-thermal velocity fields
Overshooting from zone where convection is efficient according to stability criteria (see Chap. 6)
Energy balance in upper layers not only controlled by radiative heating/cooling, but also by cooling from adiabatic expansion

See Stein & Nordlund (1998); Collet et al. (2006), etc.



Fig. 19.—Comparison of granulation as seen in the emergent intensity from the simulations and as observed by the Swedish Vacuum Solar Telescope on La Palma. The top row shows three simulation images at 1 minute intervals, which together make a composite image 18 × 6 Mm in extent. The middle row show this image smoothed by an Airy plus exponential point-spread function. The bottom row shows an 18 × 6 Mm white-light image from La Palma. Note the similar appearance of the smoothed simulation image and the observed granulation. The common edge brightening in the simulation is reduced when smoothed. Images by (Title 1996, private communication) taken in the CH G-band have much more contrast than white light and clearly reveal the edge brightening of granules.

Question: This does not look much like the traditional 1-D models we've discussed during the previous lecture! – Do you think we should throw them in the garbage?


Surface Convection

blue: mean temperature from 3D hydro-model (scatter = dashed) red: from 1D semi-empirical model (Holweger & Müller, see Chap. 5) green: from 1D theoretical model atmospheres (MARCS)



Figure 1: The mean temperature structure of the 3D hydrodynamical model of Trampedach et al. (2009) is shown as a function of optical depth at 500 nm (blue solid line). The blue dashed lines correspond to the spatial and temporal rms variations of the 3D model, while the red and green curves denote the 1D semi-empirical Holweger & Müller (1974) and the 1D theoretical MARCS (Gustafsson et al. 2008) model atmospheres, respectively.

In many (though not all) cases, AVERAGE properties still quite OK:

Convection in energy balance approximated by "mixing-length theory" Non-thermal velocity fields due to convective motions included by means of so-called "micro-" and "macro-turbulence"

BUT quantitatively we always need to ask: To what extent can average properties be modeled by traditional 1-D codes?

Unfortunately, a general answer very difficult to give, need to be considered case by case



Surface Convection



Metal-poor red giant, simulation by Remo Collet, figure from talk by M. Bergemann

For example:

In metal-poor cool stars spectral lines are scarce (Question: Why?),

and energy balance in upper photosphere controlled to a higher degree by adiabatic expansion of convectively overshot material.

In classical 1-D models though, these layers are convectively stable, and energy balance controlled only by radiation (radiative equilibrium, see part1).



Surface Convection



3-D radiation-hydro models successful in reproducing many solar features (see overview in Asplund et al. 2009), e.g:

Center-to-limb intensity variation

Line profiles and their shifts and variations (without micro/macroturbulence) Observed granulation patterns

From talk by Hayek



Surface Convection



Figure 3: The predicted spectral line profile of a typical Fe1 line from the 3D hydrodynamical solar model (red solid line) compared with the observations (blue rhombs). The agreement is clearly very satisfactory, which is the result of the Doppler shifts arising from the self-consistently computed convective motions that broaden, shift and skew the theoretical profile. For comparison purposes also the predicted profile from a 1D model atmosphere (here Holweger & Müller 1974) is shown; the 1D profile has been computed with a microturbulence of 1 km s⁻¹ and a tuned macroturbulence to obtain the right overall linewidth. Note that even with these two free parameters the 1D profile can neither predict the shift nor the asymmetry of the line.

affects chemical abundance (determined by means of line profile fitting to observations)

One MAJOR result: Effects on line formation has led to a downward revision of the CNO solar abundances and the solar metallicity, and thus to a revision of the standard cosmic chemical abundance scale

Fig. from Asplund et al. (2009) - "The Chemical Composition of the Sun"



Surface Convection

Also potentially critical for Galactic archeology...





...which traces the chemical evolution of the Universe by analyzing VERY old, metal-poor Globular Cluster stars — relics from the early epochs (e.g. Anna Frebel and collaborators)



Surface Convection



 Giant Convection Cells in the low-gravity, extended atmospheres of Red Supergiants

• Question: Why extended?

 $H = a^2 / g$ (with $a = v_s$ the isothermal speed of sound)

$$a_{\rm RSG}^2 / a_{\rm sun}^2 \approx T_{\rm RSG} / T_{\rm sun} = 0.5...0.6$$

 $g_{\rm RSG} / g_{\rm sun} \approx 10^{-4} !$

(see Chap. 6)

Out to Jupiter...





Surface Convection

Supergiants (or models including a stellar wind): Atmospheric extent > stellar radius:

 $\mathsf{Box-in-a-star} \rightarrow \mathsf{Star-in-a-box}$

(1D: Plane-parallel \rightarrow Spherical symmetry, see Chap. 3)



Star to model: Betelgeuse Mass: 5 solar masses Radius: 600 Rsun Luminosity: 41400 Lsun Grid: Cartesian cubical grid with 171³ points Edge length of box 1674 solar radii



Surface Convection

Star to model: Betelgeuse Mass: 5 solar masses Radius: 600 Rsun Luminosity: 41400 Lsun Grid: Cartesian cubical grid with 171³ points Edge length of box 1674 solar radii Movie time span: 7.5 years

http://www.astro.uu.se/~bf/movie/dst35gm04n26/ movie.html





Surface Convection

Extremely challenging, models still in their infancies. LOTS of exciting physics to explore, like

Pulsations Convection Numerical radiation-hydrodynamics Role of magnetic fields Stellar wind mechanisms

Also, to what extent can main effects be captured by 1-D models? For quantitative applications like....









Question: Why are RSGs ideal for observational extragalactic stellar astrophysics, particularly in the near future?



important codes and their features

Codes	FASTWIND CMFGEN PoWR	WM-basic	TLUSTY Detail/Surface	Phoenix	MARCS Atlas	CO ⁵ BOLD [*] STAGGER
geometry	1-D spherical	1-D spherical	1-D plane-parallel	1-D/3-D spherical/ plane-parallel	1-D plane-parallel (MARCS also spherical)	3-D Cartesian
LTE/NLTE	NLTE	NLTE	NLTE	NLTE/LTE	LTE	LTE simplified
dynamics	quasi-static photosphere + prescribed supersonic outflow	time-independent hydrodynamics	hydrostatic	hydrostatic or allowing for supersonic outflows	hydrostatic	hydrodynamic
stellar wind	yes	yes	no	yes	no	no
major application	hot stars with winds	hot stars with dense winds, ion. fluxes, SNRs	hot stars with negligible winds	cool stars, brown dwarfs, SNRs	cool stars	cool stars
comments	CMFGEN also for SNRs; FASTWIND using approx. line- blocking	line-transfer in Sobolev approx. (see part 2)	Detail/Surface with LTE- blanketing	convection via mixing-length theory	convection via mixing-length theory	very long execution times, but model grids start to emerge



And then there are, e.g.,



- Luminous Blue Variables (LBVs) like Eta Carina,
- Wolf-Rayet Stars (WRs)
- Planetary Nebulae (and their Central Stars)
- Be-stars with disks
- Brown Dwarfs
- Pre main-sequence T-Tauri and Herbig stars

...and many other interesting objects

Stellar astronomy alive and kicking! Very rich in both

Physics Observational applications



Chap. 8 – Stellar winds: an overview



ubiquitous phenomenon

- solar type stars (incl. the sun)
- red supergiants/AGB-stars ("normal" + Mira Variables)
- hot stars (OBA supergiants, Luminous Blue Variables, OB-dwarfs, Central Stars of PN, sdO, sdB, Wolf-Rayet stars)
- T-Tauri stars
- and many more



The solar wind – a suspicion

comet Halley, with "kink" in tail





- comet tails directed away from the sun
- Kepler: influence of solar radiation pressure (-> radiation driven winds)
- Ionic tail: emits own radiation, sometimes different direction
- Hoffmeister (1943, subsequently Biermann): *solar particle radiation* different direction, since v (particle) comparable to v (comet)



- Eugene Parker (1958): theoretical(!) investigation of coronal equilibrium: high temperature leads to (solar) wind (more detailed later on)
- confirmed by
 - Soviet measurements (Lunik2/3) with "ion-traps" (1959)
 - Explorer 10 (1961)
 - Mariner II (1962): measurement of fast and slow flows
 (27 day cycle -> co-rotating, related "coronal holes" and sun spots)





The solar wind – Ulysses ...



... surveying the polar regions

LMU

USM





polar wind: fast and thin

equatorial wind: slow and dense



The solar wind – coronal holes



fast wind: over coronal holes (dark corona, "open" field lines, e.g., in polar regions)

coronal X-ray emission

 \Rightarrow

very high temperatures

(Yohkoh Mission)



Parker Solar Probe

Primary objectives for the mission

- trace the energy flow, understand heating of the solar corona, study the outer corona.
- determine the structure and dynamics of the plasma and magnetic fields
- explore solar wind driving, and mechanisms that accelerate and transport energetic particles.





planned: 24 orbits, first perihelion on Nov. 5, 2018; seven Venus-flybys over 7 years, to decrease perihelion distance from 36 to 8.9 R_{sun} (6 Millionen km, with T~1100 K)

First results (Nov. 2019)

- wind rotates, but up to 10 times faster than expected
- high speed plasma waves, up to c/6, can revert direction of B-field → "switchbacks": coherent (wind) structures
- coronal mass ejections much more irregular than expected
- dust cleared by solar wind

all material from: parkersolarprobe.jhuapl.edu



Credit: NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center/Conceptual Image Lab/Adriana Manrique Gutierrez



The sun and its wind: mean properties

The sun

radius = 695,990 km = 109 terrestrial radii mass = 1.989 10^{30} kg = 333,000 terrestrial masses luminosity = 3.85 10^{33} erg/s = 3.85 10^{20} MW $\approx 10^{18}$ nuclear power plants effective temperature = 5770 °K central temperature = 15,600,000 °K life time approx. 10 10⁹ years age = 4.57 10^9 years distance sun earth approx. 150 10^6 km ≈ 400 times earth-moon

The solar wind

temperature when leaving the corona: approx.1 10⁶ K average speed approx. 400-500 km/s (travel time sun-earth approx. 4 days) particle density close to earth: approx. 6 cm⁻³ temperature close to earth: $\lesssim 10^5$ K

mass-loss rate: approx 10^{12} g/s (1 Megaton/s) $\approx 10^{-14}$ solar masses/year

 \approx one Great-Salt-Lake-mass/day \approx one Baltic-sea-mass/year

 \Rightarrow no consequence for solar evolution, since only 0.01% of total mass lost over total life time

LMU Stellar winds – hydrodynamic description

Need mechanism which accelerates material beyond escape velocity:

- pressure driven winds
- radiation driven winds

Note: red giant winds still not understood, only scaling relations available ("Reimers-formula")

remember equation of motion (conservation of momentum + stationarity, cf. Chap. 6, page 90) $v \frac{dv}{dr} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dp}{dr} + g^{ext}$ (in spherical symmetry), and $p = \rho a^2$ (equation of state, with isothermal sound-speed *a*)

 \Rightarrow with mass-loss rate \dot{M} , radius r, density ρ and velocity v $\dot{M} = 4\pi r^2 \rho v$,

equation of continuity: conservation of mass

$$\left(-\frac{a^2}{v^2}\right)v\frac{dv}{dr} = -\frac{GM}{r^2} + g_{rad} + \frac{2a^2}{r} - \frac{da^2}{dr}$$

equation of motion: from conservation of momentum

vel. fieldgrav.radiative(part of) accel.accel.accel.accel.by pressure gradientpositive for v > ainwardsoutwardsoutwardsnegative for v < aaaccel.by pressure gradient



Pressure driven winds



The solar wind as a proto-type for pressure driven winds

- present in stars which have an (extremely) hot corona (T $\approx 10^6$ K)
- with $g_{rad} \approx 0$ and T \approx const, the rhs of the equation of motion changes sign at

$$r_c = \frac{GM}{2a^2}$$
; with a (T=1.5 · 10⁶ K) ≈ 160 km/s,

we find for the sun $r_c \approx 3.9 R_{sun}$

and obtain four possible solutions for v/v_c ("c" = critical point)

- only one (the "transonic") solution compatible with observations
- pressure driven winds as described here rely on the presence of a hot corona
 - (large value of a!)
- Mass-loss rate $\dot{M} \approx 10^{-14}$ M_{sun} / yr, terminal velocity v_∞ ≈ 500 km/s
- has to be heated (dissipation of acoustic and magneto-hydrodynamic waves)
- not completely understood so far





Radiation driven winds

accelerated by radiation pressure:

$$\left(1 - \frac{a^2}{v^2}\right)v\frac{dv}{dr} = -\frac{GM}{r^2} + g_{rad} + \frac{2a^2}{r} - \frac{da^2}{dr}$$

important only in
lowermost wind

- ★ cool stars (AGB): major contribution from dust absorption; coupling to "gas" by viscous drag force (gas - grain collisions) $\dot{M} \approx 10^{-6} M_{sun} / yr$, $v_{\infty} \approx 20 \text{ km/s}$
- hot stars: major contribution from metal line absorption; coupling to bulk matter (H/He) by Coulomb collisions

$$\dot{M} \approx 10^{-6} \dots 10^{-5} \text{ M}_{\text{sun}} / \text{yr}, \text{ v}_{\infty} \approx 2,000 \text{ km/s}$$







11 months

Walfisch (Cetus)



Material on this and following pages from Chr. Helling, Sterne und Weltraum, Feb/March 2002

dust: approx. 1% of ISM, 70% of this fraction formed in the winds of AGB-stars (cool, low-mass supergiants)

Red supergiants are located in dust-forming "window"

transition from gaseous phase to solid state possible only in **narrow range of temperature and density:**

gas density must be high enough and temperature low enough to allow for the chemical reactions:

- sufficient number of dust forming molecules required
- the dust particles formed have to be thermally stable



Growth of dust in matter outflow



first steps of a linear reaction chain, forming the seed of $(TiO_2)_N$



Dust-driven winds: the principle



- star emits photons
- photons absorbed by dust
- momentum transfer accelerates dust
- gas accelerated by viscous drag force due to gas-dust collisions

acceleration proportional to number of photons, i.e., proportional to *stellar luminosity L*

 \Rightarrow mass-loss rate \propto L

dust driven winds at tip of AGB responsible for ejection of envelope ⇒ Planetary Nebulae

winds from massive red supergiants still not explained, but probably similar mechanism





snapshot of a time-dependent hydro-simulation of a carbon-rich circumstellar envelope of an AGB-star. Model parameters similar to next slide.

- star ("surface") pulsates,
- sound waves are created,
- steepen into shocks;
- matter is compressed,
- dust is formed
- and accelerated by radiation pressure

dust shells are blown away, following the pulsational cycle

- ⇒ periodic darkening of stellar disc
- \Rightarrow brightness variations





dark colors: dust shells

velocity

simulation of a dust-driven wind (*previous working group E. Sedlmayr, TU Berlin*)

T = 2600 K, L = $10^4 L_{sun}$, M = $1 M_{sun}$, $\Delta v = 2 \text{ km/s}$

Earth Jupiter Mars Saturn Neptun

LMU Stars and their winds – typical parameters

		Red	Blue
	The sun	AGB-stars	supergiants
mass [M_{\odot}]	1	1 3	10100
luminosity [L $_{\odot}$]	1	10 ⁴	10 ⁵ 10 ⁶
stellar radius [R_{\odot}]	1	400	10200
effective temperature [K]	5570	2500	10 ⁴ 5·10 ⁴
wind temperature [K]	10 ⁶	1000	800040000
mass loss rate [M $_{\odot}$ /yr]	10 ⁻¹⁴	10 ⁻⁶ 10 ⁻⁴	10 ⁻⁶ few 10 ⁻⁵
terminal velocity [km/s]	500	30	2003000
life time [yr]	10 ¹⁰	10 ⁵	10 ⁷
total mass loss [M_{\odot}]	10-4	≳ 0.5	up to 90% of total mass



Massive stars determine energy (kinetic and radiation) and momentum budget of surrounding ISM



Bubble Nebula (NGC 7635) in Cassiopeia

wind-blown bubble around BD+602522 (O6.5IIIf)

Chap. 9 – Line-driven winds: the standard model

The principle of radiatively driven winds



- accelerated by radiation pressure in lines $M \approx 10^{-7}...10^{-5} M_{sun} / yr, v_{\infty} \approx 200 ... 3,000 \text{ km/s}$
- momentum transfer from accelerated species (ions) to bulk matter (H/He) via Coulomb collisions

Prerequesites for radiative driving

- large number of photons => high luminosity $L \propto R_*^2 T_{eff}^4$ => supergiants or hot dwarfs
- line driving:

large number of lines close to flux maximum (typically some 10⁴...10⁵ lines relevant) with high interaction probability (=> mass-loss dependent on metal abundances)

- line driven winds important for chemical evolution of (spiral) Galaxies, in particular for starbursts
- transfer of momentum (=> can induce star formation, hot stars mostly in associations), energy and nuclear processed material to surrounding environment
- dramatic impact on stellar evolution of massive stars (mass-loss rate vs. life time!)

pioneering investigations by Lucy & Solomon, 1970, ApJ 159 Castor, Abbott & Klein, 1975, ApJ 195 (CAK)

reviews by Kudritzki & Puls, 2000, ARAA 38 Puls et al. 2008 A&Arv 16, issue 3



9.1 Radiative line driving and line-statistics



Observational findings:

massive star have outflows, at least quasi-stationary

- only small, in NO WAY dominant variability of global quantities $(\dot{M},\,v_{_{\infty}})$
- \dot{M} , v_{∞} , v(r) have to be <u>explained</u>
- diagnostic tools have to be <u>developed</u>
- predictions have to be given



Equation of motion in the standard model

Hydro-equations

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\rho + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0 \qquad \text{continuity equation}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho \mathbf{v}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}) = -\nabla p + \rho \mathbf{a}^{\text{ext}} \quad \text{momentum equation}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\text{use continuity equation})$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{v} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\nabla p + \mathbf{a}^{\text{ext}} \quad \text{equation of motion}$$

⇒ (with
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0$$
, 1-D spherically symmetric)

 $4\pi r^2 \rho(r) \mathbf{v}(r) = \mathrm{const} = \dot{M}$

mass-loss rate

$$v\frac{dv}{dr} = -\frac{1}{\rho(r)}\frac{dp}{dr} + a^{\text{ext}}(r)$$

p = NkT (equation of state) $= \frac{kT}{\mu m_{\rm H}} \rho = v_{\rm s}^2 \rho$

 v_s isothermal sound speed, μ mean molecular weight

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \mathbf{v}\left(1-\frac{\mathbf{v}_{s}^{2}}{\mathbf{v}^{2}}\right)\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dr} = \frac{2\mathbf{v}_{s}^{2}}{\mathbf{r}} - \frac{d\mathbf{v}_{s}^{2}}{dr} + a^{\text{ext}}$$

(assumption here: $v_s^2 \sim T$ known)

$$a^{\text{ext}}(r) = -\frac{GM}{r^2}(1-\Gamma) + g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{true cont}}(r) + g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{line}}(r)$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{Thomson}}(r)}{g_{\text{grav}}(r)} = \text{ const is Eddington factor,}$$

corrects for radiative acceleration due to Thomson scattering 192



Principle idea of line acceleration



$$\Rightarrow g_{\rm rad} = \frac{\left< \Delta P \right>_{\rm tot}}{\Delta t \ \Delta m} = \frac{\sum_{\rm all \ lines} \left< \Delta P \right>_{\rm i}}{\Delta t \ \Delta m}$$

a) scattering of continuum light in resonance lines

$$\Delta P_{\text{radial}} = P_{\text{in}} - P_{\text{out}}$$
$$= \frac{h}{c} (v_{\text{in}} \cos \theta_{\text{in}} - v_{\text{out}} \cos \theta_{\text{out}})$$
absorption reemission

- b) momentum transfer from metal ions (fraction 10⁻³) to bulk plasma (H/He) via Coulomb collisions (see Springmann & Pauldrach 1992)
- velocity drift of ions w.r.t. H/He is compensated by frictional force as long as $v_D/v_{th} < 1$ (linear regime, "Stokes" law)


$$R_{ij}^{\text{fric}} \sim G(x_{ij})$$
 $x_{ij} = \sqrt{A_{ij}} \frac{|\mathbf{v}_i - \mathbf{v}_j|}{\mathbf{v}_{\text{th}}(\text{prot})}$ A_{ij} is reduced mass



Fig. 1. The Chandrasekhar function G(x) which gives the frictional force on test particles by field particles of unit density for an inverse square law of Coulomb interaction. The variable x is essentially the ratio of the velocity of the test particles in the rest frame of the field particles to the thermal velocity of the field particles (see text). The limiting cases are $G(x) \sim x$ for $x \ll 1$ and $G(x) \sim x^{-2}$ for $x \gg 1$ approximate description (supersonic regime) by linear diffusion equation

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{ion}} \frac{d}{dr} \mathbf{v}_{\text{ion}} = g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{ion}} - \frac{GM}{r^2} - \frac{w}{\tau_{ib}} \qquad w \text{ drift velocity}$$
$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{bulk}} \frac{d}{dr} \mathbf{v}_{\text{bulk}} = -\frac{GM}{r^2} + \frac{w}{\tau_{bi}} \qquad \text{bulk} \approx \text{ H/He},$$

au relaxation time between collisions

in order to obtain one-component fluid,

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{ion}} \frac{d\mathbf{v}_{\text{ion}}}{dr} = \mathbf{v}_{\text{bulk}} \frac{d\mathbf{v}_{\text{bulk}}}{dr}$$
$$\Rightarrow w = g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{ion}} \left(\frac{1}{\tau_{ib}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{bi}}\right)^{-1} \approx g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}} \frac{\rho_{\text{tot}}}{\rho_{\text{ion}}} \cdot \tau \sim g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}} \frac{1}{Z} \frac{1}{\rho}$$

tot = bulk + ion, Z is metallicity

for low
$$\rho \sim \frac{\dot{M}}{V}$$
 and/or low $Z \rightarrow$ drift large \rightarrow runaway

e.g., winds of A-dwarfs, Babel et al. 1995, A&A 301

from Springmann & Pauldrach (1992, A&A 262) see also Owocki & Puls (2002, ApJ 568)



The photon-tiring limit

What is the maximum mass-loss rate that can be accelerated???

• mechanical luminosity in wind at infinity is

$$L_{\text{wind}} = \dot{M} \left(\frac{\mathbf{v}_{\infty}^2}{2} + \frac{GM}{R} \right) = \dot{M} \left(\frac{\mathbf{v}_{\infty}^2}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{v}_{\text{esc}}^2}{2} \right) \text{ with } \mathbf{v}_{\text{esc}} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}$$

• maximum mass loss, if $L_{wind} = L_* \implies L(\infty) = 0$, star becomes invisible

$$\dot{M}_{\rm max} = \frac{2L_*}{\mathbf{v}_{\infty}^2 + \mathbf{v}_{\rm esc}^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta_{\max} = \frac{\dot{M}_{\max} v_{\infty}}{L/c} = \frac{2c}{v_{\infty} \left(1 + \left(\frac{v_{esc}}{v_{\infty}}\right)^{2}\right)}$$

typical values: $v_{\infty} \approx 2000...3000 \text{ km/s} \approx 0.01c$, $v_{esc} / v_{\infty} \approx 1/3 \rightarrow \eta_{max} \approx 200$

 $\dot{M}_{\rm tir}$ (Owocki & Gayley 1997) is maximum mass-loss rate when wind just escapes the gravitational potential, with $v_{\infty} \rightarrow 0$

$$\dot{M}_{\rm tir} = \frac{2L_*}{v_{\rm esc}^2} = 0.032 \frac{M_{\odot}}{\rm yr} \frac{L_*}{10^6 L_{\odot}} \frac{R}{R_{\odot}} \frac{M_{\odot}}{M} = 0.0012 \frac{M_{\odot}}{\rm yr} \Gamma_{\rm e} \frac{R}{R_{\odot}}$$





Calculation of the line force

crucial point of the problem

 $g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{line}} = \frac{4\pi}{c\rho} \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} dv \int_{1}^{1} \mu d\mu \Big[\chi_{v}^{\text{line}}(r,\mu) I_{v}(r,\mu) - \eta_{v}^{\text{line}}(r,\mu) \Big]$

absorbed emitted

→ (in single-line approximation: no interaction of different lines)

$$g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{line}} = \frac{2\pi}{c\rho} \sum_{\text{lines i}} \int_{\text{line}} dv \int_{-1}^{1} \mu d\mu \ \chi_{\nu}^{i}(r,\mu) I_{\nu}^{i}(r,\mu)$$

- two quantities to be known
 - > force/line in response to χ_v
 - > distribution of lines with χ_v and v

The force per line

- super-simplified
- simplified: "Sobolev approximation": assume that opacities and source functions are constant inside τ-integral,
 - i.e., over Doppler-shifted profile function
 - \rightarrow analytic solution possible, purely local
- "exact":
 - ➤ comoving frame, special cases
 - ➢ observer's frame, instability



Super-simplified theory

interaction with line at v_0 , when comoving frame frequency of photon starting at R_* with v_{obs} is equal to v_0 (finite profile width neglected, interaction probability = 1) $v_{CMF} = v_{obs} - \frac{v_0 v(r)}{c} =: v_0$ (Doppler shift, radial photons, μ =1, assumed) $v_0 = v_1^{obs} - \frac{v_0}{c} v_1(r)$ $v_0 = v_2^{obs} - \frac{v_0}{c} v_1(r)$ $v_0 = v_2^{obs} - \frac{v_0}{c} v_2(r)$ scattering at larger v requires 'bluer' photons $v_0 = v_2^{obs} = \frac{v_0}{c} \Delta v$

Number of photons in interval $\left[v_1^{\text{obs}}, v_2^{\text{obs}} = v_1^{\text{obs}} + \Delta v_{\text{obs}}\right]$ per unit time

$$\frac{N_{\nu}\Delta\nu}{\Delta t} = \frac{L_{\nu}\Delta\nu}{h\nu_{obs}} \implies (g_{Rad} = \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta t\Delta m})$$

$$g_{Rad} = \frac{h\nu_{obs}}{c} \cdot \frac{L_{\nu}\Delta\nu}{h\nu_{obs}} \cdot \frac{1}{\Delta m} = (\Delta\nu = \frac{\nu_0}{c}\Delta\nu)$$

$$= \frac{L_{\nu}\nu_0}{c^2} \frac{\Delta\nu}{\Delta r} \frac{1}{4\pi r^2 \rho} \propto \frac{d\nu}{dr} \frac{1}{r^2 \rho}$$





Why $g_{rad} \propto dv/dr$?

shell of matter with spatial extent Δr ,

and velocity $v_0 + \left(\frac{dv}{dr}\right)_1 \Delta r$

absorption of photons at $v_0 \pm \delta v$

in frame of matter

photons must start at higher (stellar) frequencies, are "seen" at $v_0 \pm \delta v$

in frame of matter because of Doppler-effect.

Let Δv be frequency band contributing to acceleration of matter in Δr

The larger $\frac{dv}{dr}$,

- the larger Δv
- the more photons can be absorbed
- the larger the acceleration

$$g_{_{rad}} \propto rac{dv}{dr}$$

(assuming that each photon is absorbed, i.e., acceleration from optically thick lines)





Accounting for finite interaction probability

$$g_{\rm rad}$$
 (one line at v_0) = $\frac{L_{\nu}v_0}{c^2} \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta r} \frac{1}{4\pi r^2}$

Assumption was: each photon is scattered

Then: g_{rad} independent of cross-sections, occuption numbers etc. only dependent on hydro-structure and flux distribution

What happens if interaction probability < 1?

interaction probability = $1 - e^{-\tau}$, with optical depth τ

 $\tau \gg 1$ prob = 1 $\tau \ll 1$ prob = τ

Now: division in two classes

optically thick lines, $\tau \ge 1$ $\xrightarrow{\approx}$ prob = 1 (saturation, independent of τ) optically thin lines $\tau < 1$ $\xrightarrow{\approx}$ prob = τ

 $\Rightarrow \quad g_{\rm rad}(\text{optically thin line}) = \tau \cdot g_{\rm rad}(\text{optically thick line})$

Line acceleration from a line ensemble

$$g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}}(r) = \sum_{\text{thick}} g_{\text{Rad}}^{i}(r) + \sum_{\text{thin}} g_{\text{Rad}}^{j}(r) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi r^{2}c^{2}} \left(\sum_{\text{thick}} L_{v}v_{i} \frac{dv}{dr} \frac{1}{\rho} + \sum_{\text{thin}} L_{v}v_{i} \frac{dv}{dr} \frac{\tau_{i}}{\rho} \right)$$

$$\tau_{i} = \frac{\overline{\chi}_{\text{Li}}\lambda_{i}}{dv/dr} =: \frac{k_{i}\rho(r)}{dv/dr} \qquad \left(\text{precisely: } k_{i} = \frac{\overline{\chi}_{\text{Li}}\lambda_{i}}{\rho s_{e}v_{\text{th}}} \right)$$

 \uparrow optical depth of line in "Sobolev theory"

 $k_{\rm i}$ is line strength $\sim \frac{\sigma_{\rm i} n_{\rm i}(r) \lambda_{\rm i}}{\rho(r)} \sigma_{\rm i}$ cross section,

 $n_{\rm i}$ lower occup. number of line transition

 k_i roughly constant in wind!!!

Which line strength corresponds to 'border' $\tau_i = 1$?

$$1 = \frac{k_1 \rho}{dv/dr} \implies k_1 = \frac{dv/dr}{\rho}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}}(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi r^2 c^2} \left(k_1 \sum_{k_i > k_1} L_\nu v_i + \sum_{k_i < k_1} L_\nu v_i k_i \right)$$
optically thick optically thin
depends on hydrostruct. depends on line-strength



Millions of lines



... are present ... and needed!

$$g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}} = \sum_{\text{all lines}} g_{\text{Rad}}^{i},$$

$$g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{thin}} = L_{\nu}^{i} \nu_{i} k_{i}, \quad k_{i} \propto \frac{\overline{\chi}_{i} \lambda_{i}}{\rho} \quad (\text{line-strength})$$

$$g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{thick}} = L_{\nu}^{i} \nu_{i} \frac{d\nu / dr}{\rho} \propto L_{\nu}^{i} \nu_{i} k_{1}$$



The line distribution function

- pioneering work by Castor, Abbott & Klein (CAK, 1975):
 - from glance at CIII atom in LTE, they suggested that ALL line-strengths follow a power-law distribution
- first realistic line-strength distribution function by Kudritzki et al. (1988)
- NOW: couple of MI (Mega lines), 150 ionization stages (H Zn), NLTE



$$\frac{dN(k)}{dk} = k^{\alpha - 2}, \quad \alpha \approx 0.6...0.7$$

+ 2nd empirical finding: valid in *each* frequential subinterval

 $dN(k,v) = -N_0 f(v) dv k^{\alpha-2} dk$

Logarithmic plot of line-strength distribution function for an Otype wind at 40,000 K and corresponding power-law fit (see Puls et al. 2000, A&AS 141)



Force/line + line-strength distribution

$$\Rightarrow g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}}(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi r^2 c^2} \left(k_1 \sum_{k_1 \ge k_1} L_v v_1 + \sum_{k_1 \le k_1} L_v v_1 k_1 \right) \rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{4\pi r^2 c^2} \left(\int_0^\infty k_1 \int_{k_{\text{max}}}^{k_1} L(v) v dN(k, v) + \int_0^\infty \int_{k_1}^0 L(v) v k dN(k, v) \right) =$$

$$= \frac{N_0 \int L(v) v f(v) dv}{4\pi r^2 c^2} \left(\underbrace{k_1 \int_{k_1}^{k_{\text{max}}} k^{\alpha-2} dk}_{k_1 \int_{k_1}^{k_1} \frac{1}{1-\alpha} k_1^{\alpha-1}} \frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{1}{\alpha} k_1^{\alpha}}{\frac{1}{\alpha(1-\alpha)} k_1^{\alpha}} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{ final result}$$

$$g_{\text{Rad}}^{\text{tot}}(r) = \frac{\text{const}}{4\pi r^2} k_1^{\alpha} \qquad \text{very 'strange' acceleration, non-tinear in dv/dr}}$$

$$k_1 = \frac{dv/dr}{\rho} = \frac{4\pi}{\dot{M}} r^2 v \frac{dv}{dr}; \quad \text{const} = \frac{N_0 \int L(v) v f(v) dv}{c^2 \alpha(1-\alpha)}$$



first hydro-solution developed by CAK 1975, ApJ 195, improved for non-radial photons and ionization effects by Pauldrach, Puls & Kudritzki 1986, A&A 164 and Friend & Abbott 1986, ApJ 311

had equation of motion

$$v\left(1 - \frac{v_s^2}{v^2}\right)\frac{dv}{dr} = \frac{2v_s^2}{r} - \frac{dv_s^2}{dr} + a^{ext}(r)$$

$$a^{ext}(r) = -\frac{GM}{r^2}(1 - \Gamma) + g^{true \ cont}(r) + g^{line}_{Rad}(r)$$

$$g^{line}_{Rad}(r) = f \cdot \frac{L}{r^2}k_1^{\alpha}$$
for 'normal' winds
$$k_1 = \frac{r^2 v dv / dr}{\dot{M} / (4\pi)} \qquad f = f(r, v, \frac{dv}{dr}, \dot{M}) \text{ if all subtleties included}$$

All together

$$\mathbf{v}\left(1-\frac{\mathbf{v}_{s}^{2}}{\mathbf{v}^{2}}\right)\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dr}=-\frac{GM}{r^{2}}(1-\Gamma)+\frac{2\mathbf{v}_{s}^{2}}{\mathbf{r}}-\frac{d\mathbf{v}_{s}^{2}}{dr}+\frac{f\cdot L}{r^{2}}\left(\frac{\dot{M}}{4\pi}\right)^{-\alpha}\left(r^{2}\mathbf{v}\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dr}\right)^{\alpha}$$

- non-linear differential equation
- has 'singular point' in analogy to solar wind
- v_{crit}>>v_s (100... 200 km/s)
- solution: iteration of singular point location/velocity, integration inwards and outwards



Approximate solution

(see also Kudritzki et al., 1989, A&A 219)

- supersonic \rightarrow pressure terms vanish
- radially streaming photons $\rightarrow f(4\pi)^{\alpha} \rightarrow const$

$$v\frac{dv}{dr} = -\frac{GM}{r^2}(1-\Gamma) + \frac{\text{const} \cdot L}{r^2}\dot{M}^{-\alpha}(r^2v\frac{dv}{dr})^{\alpha}$$

$$\Rightarrow y + A = \text{const} \cdot L \cdot \dot{M}^{-\alpha}y^{\alpha} \Rightarrow y \text{ is constant}$$

with $A = GM(1-\Gamma), \quad y = r^2v\frac{dv}{dr}$

graphical solution (Cassinelli et al. 1979, ARAA 17, Kudritzki et al. 1989)



 $y + A = \text{const} \cdot L \cdot \dot{M}^{-\alpha} y^{\alpha}$ equation of motion and equality of derivatives

 $1 = \operatorname{const} \cdot L \cdot \dot{M}^{-\alpha} \alpha y^{\alpha-1} \quad \text{at critical point } y_c$

$$\dot{M}^{-\alpha} = \frac{1}{\operatorname{const} \cdot L \cdot \alpha} y_c^{1-\alpha}$$

in equation of motion at critical point

$$y_c + A = \frac{1}{\alpha} y_c, \qquad \text{i.e., } y_c (1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}) = -GM(1 - \Gamma)$$
$$y_c = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} GM(1 - \Gamma) \stackrel{!}{=} y$$

finally ...

for unique solution, derivatives have to be EQUAL!

Scaling relations for line-driven winds (without rotation)

•
$$\dot{M} \propto N_{\text{eff}}^{\frac{1}{\alpha'}} L^{\frac{1}{\alpha'}} (M(1-\Gamma))^{1-\frac{1}{\alpha'}}$$
 scaling law for \dot{M}

•
$$r^2 v \frac{dv}{dr} = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} GM (1-\Gamma)$$

 \rightarrow Integration between ∞ and R_{*}

• $\mathbf{v}(r) = \mathbf{v}_{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{R_*}{r} \right)^{\beta}$, $\beta = \begin{cases} 0.5 \text{ for approx. solution, "CAK-velocity law"} \\ 0.8 (O-stars) \dots 2 (BA-SG), see next slide \end{cases}$ • $\mathbf{v}_{\infty} = \left(\frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{2GM(1 - \Gamma)}{R_*} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ scaling law for v_{∞} • $\rightarrow \mathbf{v}_{\infty} \approx 2.25 \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \mathbf{v}_{esc}$, if all subtleties included

 Γ Eddington factor, accounting for acceleration by Thomson-scattering, diminishes effective gravity

 $N_{\rm eff}$ number of lines effectively driving the wind, dependent on metallicity and spectral type

 α exponent of line-strength distribution function, $0 < \alpha < 1$ large value: more optically thick lines

 $\alpha' = \alpha - \delta$, with δ ionization parameter, typical value for O-stars: $\alpha' \approx 0.6$

The wind-momentum luminosity relation (WLR)

 use scaling relations for Mdot and v_∞, calculate modified wind-momentum rate

USM

$$\dot{M} v_{\infty} \propto N_{\text{eff}}^{1/\alpha'} L^{1/\alpha'} (M(1-\Gamma))^{1-1/\alpha'} \frac{(M(1-\Gamma))^{1/2}}{R_*^{1/2}}$$

$$\dot{M} v_{\infty} R_{*}^{1/2} \propto N_{\text{eff}}^{1/\alpha'} L^{1/\alpha'} (M(1-\Gamma))^{3/2-1/\alpha}$$

The wind-momentum luminosity relation (WLR)

 use scaling relations for Mdot and v_∞, calculate modified wind-momentum rate

$$\dot{M} v_{\infty} R_{*}^{1/2} \propto N_{\text{eff}}^{1/\alpha'} L^{1/\alpha'} \quad \text{since } (\alpha' \approx \frac{2}{3})$$

independent of M and Γ !!!!!

$$\log(\dot{M} v_{\infty} R_{*}^{1/2}) \approx \frac{1}{\alpha'} \log L + const(z, \text{ sp.type})$$

stellar winds
 contain info
 about
 stellar radius!!!

(Kudritzki, Lennon & Puls 1995)

- (at least) two applications
 - (1) construct observed WLR, calibrate as a function of spectral type and metallicity (N_{eff} and α ' depend on both parameter)
 - independent tool to measure extragalactic distances from *wind-properties*, *Teff* and metallicity
 - (2) compare with theoretical WLR to test validity of radiation driven wind theory



Validity of WLR concept



Theoretical wind-momentum rates as a function of luminosity, as calculated by Vink et al. (2000). Though multi-line effects (line overlaps) are included, the WLR concept (derived from simplified arguments) holds!

Determination of wind-parameters: v_{∞}





0

–v m

v_m

 $v_{obs} = v_0 \left(1 + \frac{\mu v(r)}{c} \right); \quad v_0 \text{ line frequency in CMF}$ $\mu v(r) > 0: \quad v_{obs} > v_0 \text{ blue side}$ $\mu v(r) < 0: \quad v_{obs} < v_0 \text{ red side}$

$$\frac{v_{\rm m}}{\rm c} = \frac{v_{\rm max} - v_0}{v_0} = 1 - \frac{\lambda_{\rm min}}{\lambda_0}$$



Determination of mass-loss rate from H_{α}



Note: Wind parameters can be cast into one quantity

$$Q = \frac{M}{(R_* v_{\infty})^{1.5}}$$
 or $Q' = \frac{M}{R_*^{1.5}}$

For same values of $Q^{(\cdot)}$ (albeit different combinations of Mdot, v_{∞} and R_*), profiles look almost identical!



 H_{α} taken with the Keck HIRES spectrograph, compared with two model calculations adopting $\beta = 3$, $v_{\infty} = 200$ km/s and *Mdot* = 1.7 and 2.1 × 10⁻⁶ M_{sun}/yr.



Observed WLR



Modified wind momenta of Galactic O-, early B-, mid B- and A-supergiants as a function of luminosity, together with specific WLR obtained from linear regression. (From Kudritzki & Puls, 2000, ARAA 38).



η Car: Aspherical ejecta



image by HST



Influence of rotation

hot, massive stars = young stars

rapidly rotating (up to several 100 km/s)

twofold effect

- star becomes "oblate"
- wind has to react on additional centrifugal acceleration, large in equatorial, small in polar regions





Prolate or oblate wind structure?



purely radial radiative acceleration: wind-compressed disk



inclusion of nonradial component of line-acceleration (rotation breaks symmetry)



non-radial line-acceleration plus "gravity darkening": prolate geometry



The line-driven instability



perturbation <mark>δv</mark>↑

 \rightarrow profile shifted to higher freq.

 \rightarrow line 'sees' more stellar flux

 \rightarrow line force grows $\delta g \uparrow$

 \rightarrow additional acceleration $\delta v \uparrow$

exponential growth of perturbation

 $\delta g_{Rad} \propto \delta v$ [for details, see MacGregor et al.1979 and Carlberg 1980]



Time dependent hydro-simulations of line-driven winds: Snapshot of density, velocity and temperature structure



From Runacres & Owocki, 2002, A&A 381



Density evolution in an unstable wind

x X-ray "flash"





Chap. 10 Quantitative spectroscopy The exemplary case of hot stars

Determine atmospheric parameters from observed spectrum

Required T_{eff}, log g, R, Y_{He}, Mdot, v_∞, β (+ metal abundances) (R stellar radius at $\tau_R = 2/3$)

also necessary

v_{rad} (radial velocity) v sin i (projected rotational velocity)

Given

- *reduced* optical spectra (eventually +UV, +IR, +X-ray)
- $\lambda/\Delta\lambda$, resolution of observed spectrum
- Visual brightness V
- distance d (from cluster/association membership), partly rather insecure
- NLTE-code(s), "model grid"
 - 1. Rectify spectrum, i.e. divide by continuum (experience required)
 - 2. Shift observed spectrum to lab wavelengths (use narrow **stellar** lines as reference):

 $\lambda_{\text{lab}} \approx \lambda_{\text{obs}} \left(1 - \frac{v_{\text{rad}}}{c} \right), \quad v_{\text{rad}} \text{ assumed as positive if object moves away from observer}$

Alternative set of parameters

L, M, R or
L, M,
$$T_{eff}$$
 or
 T_{eff} log g, R ...

interrelations

$$L = 4\pi R_*^2 \sigma_B T_{\rm eff}^4$$
$$g = \frac{GM}{R_*^2}$$

• Useful scaling relations If L, M, R in *solar units*, then

$$R_{*} = \frac{L^{0.5}}{T_{\text{eff}}^{2}} \cdot 3.327 \cdot 10^{7}$$
$$\log g = \log \left(\frac{M}{R_{*}^{2}} \cdot 2.74 \cdot 10^{4}\right)$$
$$v_{\text{esc}} = \sqrt{R_{*}g(1 - \Gamma) \cdot 1.392 \cdot 10^{11}}$$
$$\Gamma = s_{\text{e}}T_{\text{eff}}^{4} / g \cdot 1.8913 \cdot 10^{-15}$$
$$s_{\text{e}} = 0.4 \frac{1 + I_{\text{He}}Y_{\text{He}}}{1 + 4Y_{\text{He}}}$$

with I_{He} number of free electrons per Helium atom (e.g.,=2, if completely ionized)







equivalent width
$$W_{\lambda} = \int_{\text{line}} \frac{H_{\text{cont}} - H_{\text{line}}(\lambda)}{H_{\text{cont}}} d\lambda = \int_{\text{line}} (1 - R(\lambda)) d\lambda,$$

area of profile under continuum, dim $[W_{\lambda}]$ = Angstrom or milliAngstrom, mÅ corresponds to width of saturated profile ($R(\lambda) = 0$) with same area





Determine projected rotational speed v sin i









Line fitting = detailed comparison of observed and synthetic line profiles based on atmospheric models





Determination of stellar radius – if it cannot be resolved

- IF you believe in stellar evolution models
- ***** use **evolutionary tracks** to derive M from (measured) T_{eff} and log g => R ***** transformation of conventional HRD into log T_{eff} log g diagram required ***** problematic for evolved massive objects, "mass discrepancy":
- spectroscopic masses (derived from spectroscopic analysis) and evolutionary masses often not consistent
- IF you know the distance and have theoretical fluxes (from model atmospheres), proceed as follows

$$V = -2.5 \log \int_{\text{filter}} \mathcal{F}_{\lambda} S_{\lambda} d\lambda + \text{const}$$

 S_{1} spectral response of photometric system

absolute flux calibration

IF you believe in radiation driven wind theory ***** use wind-momentum luminosity relation

V = 0 corresponds to $\mathcal{F}_{\lambda} = 3.66 \cdot 10^{-9}$ erg s⁻¹ cm⁻² Å⁻¹ at $\lambda_0 = 5,500$ Å outside earth's atmosphere λ_0 isophotal wavelength such that $\int \mathcal{F}_{\lambda} S_{\lambda} d\lambda \approx \mathcal{F}(\lambda_0) \int S_{\lambda} d\lambda$, $\int S_{\lambda} d\lambda \approx 2895$ for Johnson V-filter filter V R K L R U \Rightarrow

$$\operatorname{const} = -2.5 \log(3.66 \cdot 10^{-9} \cdot 2895) = -12.437$$
$$M_{V} = -2.5 \log\left[\left(\frac{R_{*}R_{\mathrm{sun}}}{10 \mathrm{ pc}}\right)^{2} \int_{\mathrm{filter}} \mathcal{F}_{\lambda}S_{\lambda}d\lambda\right] + \mathrm{const}$$

1.5 2.5 2.0 1.0 0.5 3.5 3.0 1/2 [µm-1] 7000 10000 20000 Å 4000 5000 3000

 $5\log R_* = 29.553 + (V_{theo} - M_V)$

if R_* in solar units, M_v the absolute visual brightness (dereddened!) and

$$V_{\text{theo}} - 2.5 \log \int_{\text{filter}} 4H_{\lambda}S_{\lambda}d\lambda$$
 with H_{λ} the *theoretical* Eddington flux in units of [erg s⁻¹ cm⁻² Å⁻¹]



Alternatively, use bolometric correction (BC)

Calibration for Galactic O-stars:

 $BC = M_{Bol} - M_V \approx 27.58 - 6.8 \log(T_{eff})$ (see Martins et al. 2005, A&A 436)

and definition of $M_{\rm Bol}$

$$\log \frac{L}{L_{\odot}} = 4 \log \frac{T_{\rm eff}}{T_{\rm eff, \, \odot}} + 2 \log \frac{R_{*}}{R_{\odot}} = 0.4(M_{\rm Bol, \odot} - M_{\rm Bol})$$

$$\frac{\log \frac{R_*}{R_{\odot}}}{R_{\odot}} = 0.2(4.74 - M_{Bol}) - 2\log \frac{T_{eff}}{5770} =$$

$$= 0.2(4.74 - M_{V} - 27.58 + 6.8\log(T_{eff})) - 2\log \frac{T_{eff}}{5770} =$$

$$= 2.954 - 0.2M_{V} - 0.64\log(T_{eff}) \quad \text{[valid only for O-stars with } Z \approx Z_{\odot}\text{]}$$



remember relation between M_V and V (distance modulus)

 $M_V = V + 5(1 - \log d) - A_V$, d distance in pc, A_V reddening

d from parallaxes (if close) or cluster/ association/ galaxy membership (hot stars) (note: clusters/ assoc. radially extended!)

For Galactic objects, use GAIA (if you believe DR2 parallaxes), or compilation by Roberta Humphreys, 1978, ApJS 38, 309 *and/or* Ian Howarth & Raman Prinja, 1989, ApJS 69, 527

Back to our example

HD 209975 (19 Cep): $M_v = -5.7$ check: belongs to Cep OB2 Assoc., $d \approx 0.83$ kpc (Gaia parallax: 1.165±0.15 mas = 0.85±0.11 kpc) $V = 5.11, A_v = 1.17 \implies M_v = -5.65, OK$

From our final model, we calculate $V_{theo} = -29.08 \Rightarrow R = 17.4 R_{sun}$ (Alternatively, by using BC, M_V and $T_{eff} = 31$ kK, we would obtain $R = 16.6 R_{sun}$)

Finally, from the result of our fine fit, $\log(M/R_*^{1.5}) = -7.9$, we find $M = 0.91 \cdot 10^{-6}$ M_{sun} / yr

Finished, determine metal abundances if required, next star but end of lecture ...