19 CELESTIAL DISTANCES

Figure 19.1 Globular Cluster M80. This beautiful image shows a giant cluster of stars called Messier 80, located about 28,000 light-years from Earth. Such crowded groups, which astronomers call globular clusters, contain hundreds of thousands of stars, including some of the RR Lyrae variables discussed in this chapter. Especially obvious in this picture are the bright red giants, which are stars similar to the Sun in mass that are nearing the ends of their lives. (credit: modification of work by The Hubble Heritage Team (AURA/ STScI/ NASA))

Chapter Outline

Thinking Ahead

How large is the universe? What is the most distant object we can see? These are among the most fundamental questions astronomers can ask. But just as babies must crawl before they can take their first halting steps, so too must we start with a more modest question: How far away are the stars? And even this question proves to be very hard to answer. After all, stars are mere points of light. Suppose you see a point of light in the darkness when you are driving on a country road late at night. How can you tell whether it is a nearby firefly, an oncoming motorcycle some distance away, or the porchlight of a house much farther down the road? It's not so easy, is it? Astronomers faced an even more difficult problem when they tried to estimate how far away the stars are.

In this chapter, we begin with the fundamental definitions of distances on Earth and then extend our reach outward to the stars. We will also examine the newest satellites that are surveying the night sky and discuss the special types of stars that can be used as trail markers to distant galaxies.

19.1 FUNDAMENTAL UNITS OF DISTANCE

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the importance of defining a standard distance unit
- Explain how the meter was originally defined and how it has changed over time
- Discuss how radar is used to measure distances to the other members of the solar system

The first measures of distances were based on human dimensions—the inch as the distance between knuckles on the finger, or the yard as the span from the extended index finger to the nose of the British king. Later, the requirements of commerce led to some standardization of such units, but each nation tended to set up its own definitions. It was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that any real efforts were made to establish a uniform, international set of standards.

The Metric System

One of the enduring legacies of the era of the French emperor Napoleon is the establishment of the *metric system* of units, officially adopted in France in 1799 and now used in most countries around the world. The fundamental metric unit of length is the *meter*, originally defined as one ten-millionth of the distance along Earth's surface from the equator to the pole. French astronomers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were pioneers in determining the dimensions of Earth, so it was logical to use their information as the foundation of the new system.

Practical problems exist with a definition expressed in terms of the size of Earth, since anyone wishing to determine the distance from one place to another can hardly be expected to go out and re-measure the planet. Therefore, an intermediate standard meter consisting of a bar of platinum-iridium metal was set up in Paris. In 1889, by international agreement, this bar was defined to be exactly one meter in length, and precise copies of the original meter bar were made to serve as standards for other nations.

Other units of length are derived from the meter. Thus, 1 kilometer (km) equals 1000 meters, 1 centimeter (cm) equals 1/100 meter, and so on. Even the old British and American units, such as the inch and the mile, are now defined in terms of the metric system.

Modern Redefinitions of the Meter

In 1960, the official definition of the meter was changed again. As a result of improved technology for generating spectral lines of precisely known wavelengths (see the chapter on **Radiation and Spectra**), the meter was redefined to equal 1,650,763.73 wavelengths of a particular atomic transition in the element krypton-86. The advantage of this redefinition is that anyone with a suitably equipped laboratory can reproduce a standard meter, without reference to any particular metal bar.

In 1983, the meter was defined once more, this time in terms of the velocity of light. Light in a vacuum can travel a distance of one meter in 1/299,792,458.6 second. Today, therefore, light travel time provides our basic unit of length. Put another way, a distance of *one light-second* (the amount of space light covers in one second) is defined to be 299,792,458.6 meters. That's almost 300 million meters that light covers in just one second; light really is *very* fast! We could just as well use the light-second as the fundamental unit of length, but for practical reasons (and to respect tradition), we have defined the meter as a small fraction of the light-second.

Distance within the Solar System

The work of Copernicus and Kepler established the *relative* distances of the planets—that is, how far from the Sun one planet is compared to another (see **Observing the Sky: The Birth of Astronomy** and **Orbits and Gravity**). But their work could not establish the *absolute* distances (in light-seconds or meters or other standard units of length). This is like knowing the height of all the students in your class only as compared to the height of your astronomy instructor, but not in inches or centimeters. Somebody's height has to be measured directly.

Similarly, to establish absolute distances, astronomers had to measure one distance in the solar system directly. Generally, the closer to us the object is, the easier such a measurement would be. Estimates of the distance to Venus were made as Venus crossed the face of the Sun in 1761 and 1769, and an international campaign was organized to estimate the distance to the asteroid Eros in the early 1930s, when its orbit brought it close to Earth. More recently, Venus crossed (or *transited*) the surface of the Sun in 2004 and 2012, and allowed us to make a modern distance estimate, although, as we will see below, by then it wasn't needed (**Figure 19.2**).

LINK TO LEARNING

If you would like more information on just how the motion of Venus across the Sun helped us pin down distances in the solar system, you can turn to a **nice explanation (https://openstaxcollege.org/l/30VenusandSun)** by a NASA astronomer.

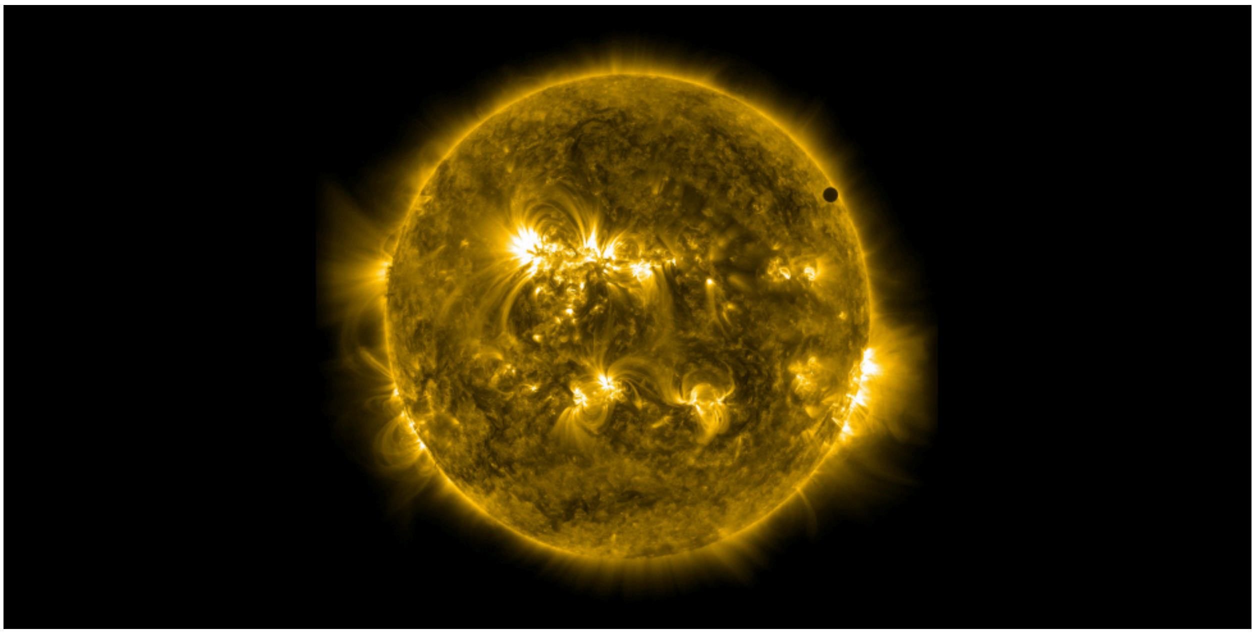


Figure 19.2 Venus Transits the Sun, 2012. This striking "picture" of Venus crossing the face of the Sun (it's the black dot at about 2 o'clock) is more than just an impressive image. Taken with the Solar Dynamics Observatory spacecraft and special filters, it shows a modern transit of Venus. Such events allowed astronomers in the 1800s to estimate the distance to Venus. They measured the time it took Venus to cross the face of the Sun from different latitudes on Earth. The differences in times can be used to estimate the distance to the planet. Today, radar is used for much more precise distance estimates. (credit: modification of work by NASA/SDO, AIA)

The key to our modern determination of solar system dimensions is radar, a type of radio wave that can bounce off solid objects (**Figure 19.3**). As discussed in several earlier chapters, by timing how long a radar beam (traveling at the speed of light) takes to reach another world and return, we can measure the distance involved very accurately. In 1961, radar signals were bounced off Venus for the first time, providing a direct measurement of the distance from Earth to Venus in terms of light-seconds (from the roundtrip travel time of the radar signal).

Subsequently, radar has been used to determine the distances to Mercury, Mars, the satellites of Jupiter, the rings of Saturn, and several asteroids. Note, by the way, that it is not possible to use radar to measure the distance to the Sun directly because the Sun does not reflect radar very efficiently. But we can measure the distance to many other solar system objects and use Kepler's laws to give us the distance to the Sun.

Figure 19.3 Radar Telescope. This dish-shaped antenna, part of the NASA Deep Space Network in California's Mojave Desert, is 70 meters wide. Nicknamed the "Mars antenna," this radar telescope can send and receive radar waves, and thus measure the distances to planets, satellites, and asteroids. (credit: NASA/JPL-Caltech)

From the various (related) solar system distances, astronomers selected the average distance from Earth to the Sun as our standard "measuring stick" within the solar system. When Earth and the Sun are closest, they are about 147.1 million kilometers apart; when Earth and the Sun are farthest, they are about 152.1 million kilometers apart. The average of these two distances is called the astronomical unit (AU). We then express all the other distances in the solar system in terms of the AU. Years of painstaking analyses of radar measurements have led to a determination of the length of the AU to a precision of about one part in a billion. The length of 1 AU can be expressed in light travel time as 499.004854 light-seconds, or about 8.3 light-minutes. If we use the definition of the meter given previously, this is equivalent to 1 AU = 149,597,870,700 meters.

These distances are, of course, given here to a much higher level of precision than is normally needed. In this text, we are usually content to express numbers to a couple of significant places and leave it at that. For our purposes, it will be sufficient to round off these numbers:

$$\text{speed of light: } c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} = 3 \times 10^5 \text{ km/s}$$
$$\text{length of light-second: ls} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m} = 3 \times 10^5 \text{ km}$$
$$\text{astronomical unit: AU} = 1.50 \times 10^{11} \text{ m} = 1.50 \times 10^8 \text{ km} = 500 \text{ light-seconds}$$

We now know the absolute distance scale within our own solar system with fantastic accuracy. This is the first link in the chain of cosmic distances.

LINK TO LEARNING

The distances between the celestial bodies in our solar system are sometimes difficult to grasp or put into perspective. This **interactive website (https://openstaxcollege.org/l/30DistanceScale)** provides a "map" that shows the distances by using a scale at the bottom of the screen and allows you to scroll (using your arrow keys) through screens of "empty space" to get to the next planet—all while your current distance from the Sun is visible on the scale.

19.2 SURVEYING THE STARS

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the concept of triangulating distances to distant objects, including stars
- Explain why space-based satellites deliver more precise distances than ground-based methods
- Discuss astronomers' efforts to study the stars closest to the Sun

It is an enormous step to go from the planets to the stars. For example, our Voyager 1 probe, which was launched in 1977, has now traveled farther from Earth than any other spacecraft. As this is written in 2016, Voyager 1 is 134 AU from the Sun.[1] The nearest star, however, is hundreds of thousands of AU from Earth. Even so, we can, in principle, survey distances to the stars using the same technique that a civil engineer employs to survey the distance to an inaccessible mountain or tree—the method of *triangulation*.

Triangulation in Space

A practical example of triangulation is your own depth perception. As you are pleased to discover every morning when you look in the mirror, your two eyes are located some distance apart. You therefore view the world from two different vantage points, and it is this dual perspective that allows you to get a general sense of how far away objects are.

To see what we mean, take a pen and hold it a few inches in front of your face. Look at it first with one eye (closing the other) and then switch eyes. Note how the pen seems to shift relative to objects across the room. Now hold the pen at arm's length: the shift is less. If you play with moving the pen for a while, you will notice that the farther away you hold it, the less it seems to shift. Your brain automatically performs such comparisons and gives you a pretty good sense of how far away things in your immediate neighborhood are.

If your arms were made of rubber, you could stretch the pen far enough away from your eyes that the shift would become imperceptible. This is because our depth perception fails for objects more than a few tens of meters away. In order to see the shift of an object a city block or more from you, your eyes would need to be spread apart a lot farther.

Let's see how surveyors take advantage of the same idea. Suppose you are trying to measure the distance to a tree across a deep river (**Figure 19.4**). You set up two observing stations some distance apart. That distance (line AB in **Figure 19.4**) is called the *baseline*. Now the direction to the tree (C in the figure) in relation to the baseline is observed from each station. Note that C appears in different directions from the two stations. This apparent change in direction of the remote object due to a change in vantage point of the observer is called **parallax**.

1 To have some basis for comparison, the dwarf planet Pluto orbits at an average distance of 40 AU from the Sun, and the dwarf planet Eris is currently roughly 96 AU from the Sun.

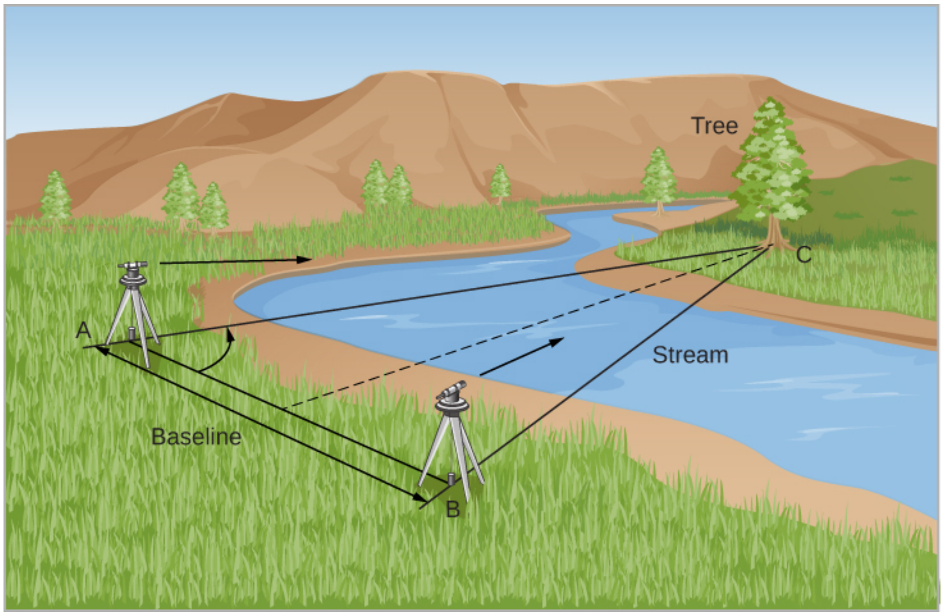


Figure 19.4 Triangulation. Triangulation allows us to measure distances to inaccessible objects. By getting the angle to a tree from two different vantage points, we can calculate the properties of the triangle they make and thus the distance to the tree.

The parallax is also the angle that lines AC and BC make—in mathematical terms, the angle subtended by the baseline. A knowledge of the angles at A and B and the length of the baseline, AB, allows the triangle ABC to be solved for any of its dimensions—say, the distance AC or BC. The solution could be reached by constructing a scale drawing or by using trigonometry to make a numerical calculation. If the tree were farther away, the whole triangle would be longer and skinnier, and the parallax angle would be smaller. Thus, we have the general rule that the smaller the parallax, the more distant the object we are measuring must be.

In practice, the kinds of baselines surveyors use for measuring distances on Earth are completely useless when we try to gauge distances in space. The farther away an astronomical object lies, the longer the baseline has to be to give us a reasonable chance of making a measurement. Unfortunately, nearly all astronomical objects are very far away. To measure their distances requires a very large baseline and highly precise angular measurements. The Moon is the only object near enough that its distance can be found fairly accurately with measurements made without a telescope. Ptolemy determined the distance to the Moon correctly to within a few percent. He used the turning Earth itself as a baseline, measuring the position of the Moon relative to the stars at two different times of night.

With the aid of telescopes, later astronomers were able to measure the distances to the nearer planets and asteroids using Earth's diameter as a baseline. This is how the AU was first established. To reach for the stars, however, requires a much longer baseline for triangulation and extremely sensitive measurements. Such a baseline is provided by Earth's annual trip around the Sun.

Distances to Stars

As Earth travels from one side of its orbit to the other, it graciously provides us with a baseline of 2 AU, or about 300 million kilometers. Although this is a much bigger baseline than the diameter of Earth, the stars are *so far away* that the resulting parallax shift is *still* not visible to the naked eye—not even for the closest stars.

In the chapter on **Observing the Sky: The Birth of Astronomy**, we discussed how this dilemma perplexed the ancient Greeks, some of whom had actually suggested that the Sun might be the center of the solar system, with Earth in motion around it. Aristotle and others argued, however, that Earth could not be revolving about the Sun. If it were, they said, we would surely observe the parallax of the nearer stars against the background of more distant objects as we viewed the sky from different parts of Earth's orbit (**Figure 19.6**). Tycho Brahe (1546–1601) advanced the same faulty argument nearly 2000 years later, when his careful measurements of stellar positions with the unaided eye revealed no such shift.

These early observers did not realize how truly distant the stars were and how small the change in their positions therefore was, even with the entire orbit of Earth as a baseline. The problem was that they did not have tools to measure parallax shifts too small to be seen with the human eye. By the eighteenth century, when there was no longer serious doubt about Earth's revolution, it became clear that the stars must be extremely distant. Astronomers equipped with telescopes began to devise instruments capable of measuring the tiny shifts of nearby stars relative to the background of more distant (and thus unshifting) celestial objects.

This was a significant technical challenge, since, even for the nearest stars, parallax angles are usually only a fraction of a second of arc. Recall that one second of arc (arcsec) is an angle of only 1/3600 of a degree. A coin the size of a US quarter would appear to have a diameter of 1 arcsecond if you were viewing it from a distance of about 5 kilometers (3 miles). Think about how small an angle that is. No wonder it took astronomers a long time before they could measure such tiny shifts.

The first successful detections of stellar parallax were in the year 1838, when Friedrich Bessel in Germany (**Figure 19.5**), Thomas Henderson, a Scottish astronomer working at the Cape of Good Hope, and Friedrich Struve in Russia independently measured the parallaxes of the stars 61 Cygni, Alpha Centauri, and Vega, respectively. Even the closest star, Alpha Centauri, showed a total displacement of only about 1.5 arcseconds during the course of a year.

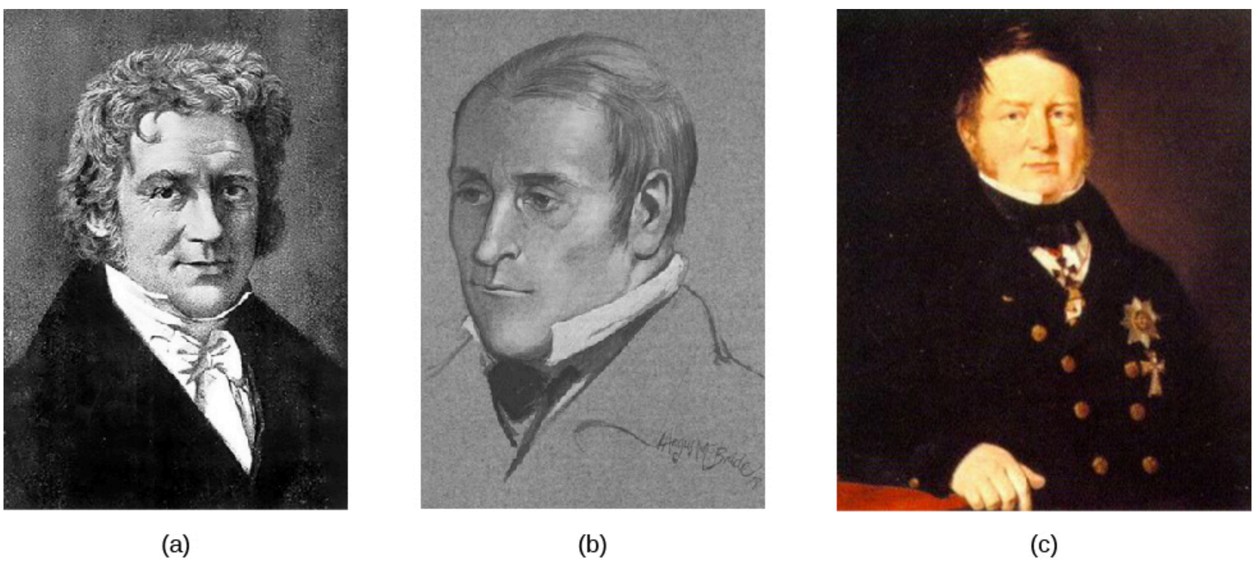


Figure 19.5 Friedrich Wilhelm Bessel (1784–1846), Thomas J. Henderson (1798–1844), and Friedrich Struve (1793–1864). (a) Bessel made the first authenticated measurement of the distance to a star (61 Cygni) in 1838, a feat that had eluded many dedicated astronomers for almost a century. But two others, (b) Scottish astronomer Thomas J. Henderson and (c) Friedrich Struve, in Russia, were close on his heels.

Figure 19.6 shows how such measurements work. Seen from opposite sides of Earth's orbit, a nearby star shifts position when compared to a pattern of more distant stars. Astronomers actually define parallax to be *one-half* the angle that a star shifts when seen from opposite sides of Earth's orbit (the angle labeled *P* in **Figure 19.6**). The reason for this definition is just that they prefer to deal with a baseline of 1 AU instead of 2 AU.

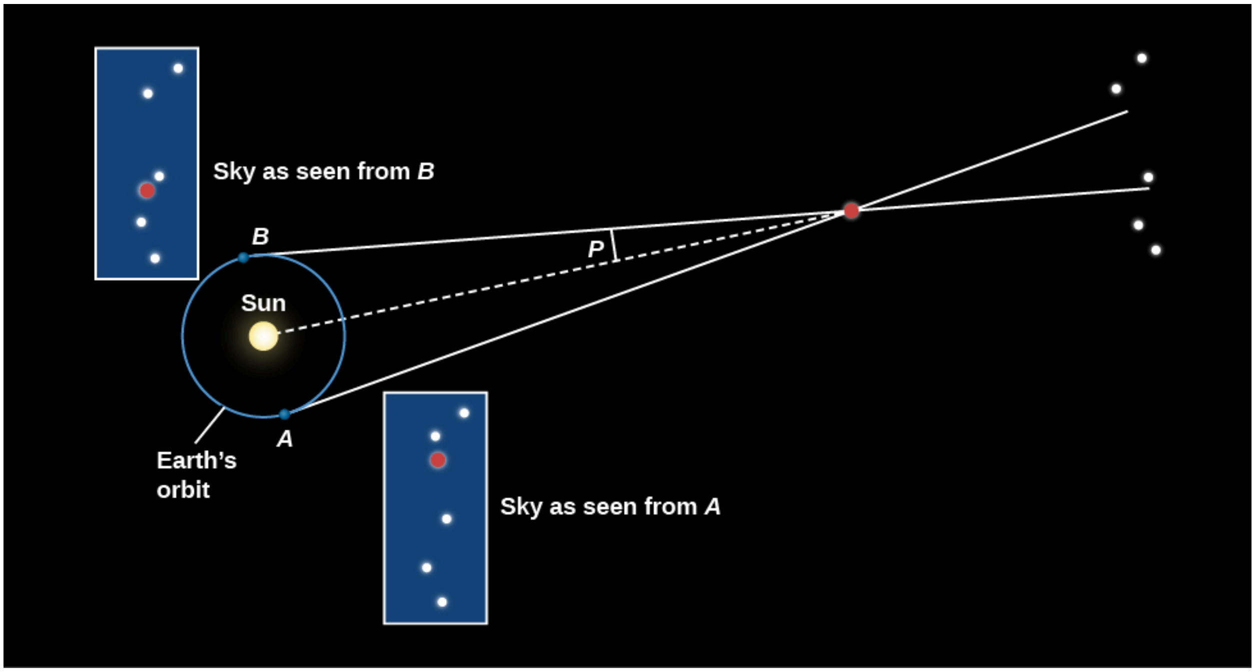


Figure 19.6 Parallax. As Earth revolves around the Sun, the direction in which we see a nearby star varies with respect to distant stars. We define the parallax of the nearby star to be one half of the total change in direction, and we usually measure it in arcseconds.

Units of Stellar Distance

With a baseline of one AU, how far away would a star have to be to have a parallax of 1 arcsecond? The answer turns out to be 206,265 AU, or 3.26 light-years. This is equal to 3.1 × 10^{13} kilometers (in other words, 31 trillion kilometers). We give this unit a special name, the **parsec** (pc)—derived from "the distance at which we have a *par*allax of one *sec*ond." The distance (D) of a star in parsecs is just the reciprocal of its parallax (p) in arcseconds; that is,

$$D = \frac{1}{p}$$

Thus, a star with a parallax of 0.1 arcsecond would be found at a distance of 10 parsecs, and one with a parallax of 0.05 arcsecond would be 20 parsecs away.

Back in the days when most of our distances came from parallax measurements, a parsec was a useful unit of distance, but it is not as intuitive as the light-year. One advantage of the light-year as a unit is that it emphasizes the fact that, as we look out into space, we are also looking back into time. The light that we see from a star 100 light-years away left that star 100 years ago. What we study is not the star as it is now, but rather as it was in the past. The light that reaches our telescopes today from distant galaxies left them before Earth even existed.

In this text, we will use light-years as our unit of distance, but many astronomers still use parsecs when they write technical papers or talk with each other at meetings. To convert between the two distance units, just bear in mind: 1 parsec = 3.26 light-year, and 1 light-year = 0.31 parsec.

EXAMPLE 19.1

How Far Is a Light-Year?

A light-year is the distance light travels in 1 year. Given that light travels at a speed of 300,000 km/s, how many kilometers are there in a light-year?

Solution

We learned earlier that speed = distance/time. We can rearrange this equation so that distance = velocity × time. Now, we need to determine the number of seconds in a year.

There are approximately 365 days in 1 year. To determine the number of seconds, we must estimate the number of seconds in 1 day.

We can change units as follows (notice how the units of time cancel out):

$$1\text{ day} \times 24\text{ hr/day} \times 60\text{ min/hr} \times 60\text{ s/min} = 86{,}400\text{ s/day}$$

Next, to get the number of seconds per year:

$$365\text{ days/year} \times 86{,}400\text{ s/day} = 31{,}536{,}000\text{ s/year}$$

Now we can multiply the speed of light by the number of seconds per year to get the distance traveled by light in 1 year:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{distance} &= \text{velocity} \times \text{time}\\ &= 300{,}000\text{ km/s} \times 31{,}536{,}000\text{ s}\\ &= 9.46 \times 10^{12}\text{ km}\end{aligned}$$

That's almost 10,000,000,000,000 km that light covers in a year. To help you imagine how long this distance is, we'll mention that a string 1 light-year long could fit around the circumference of Earth 236 million times.

Check Your Learning

The number above is really large. What happens if we put it in terms that might be a little more understandable, like the diameter of Earth? Earth's diameter is about 12,700 km.

Answer:

$$\begin{aligned}1\text{ light-year} &= 9.46 \times 10^{12}\text{ km}\\ &= 9.46 \times 10^{12}\text{ km} \times \frac{1\text{ Earth diameter}}{12{,}700\text{ km}}\\ &= 7.45 \times 10^{8}\text{ Earth diameters}\end{aligned}$$

That means that 1 light-year is about 745 million times the diameter of Earth.

ASTRONOMY BASICS

Naming Stars

You may be wondering why stars have such a confusing assortment of names. Just look at the first three stars to have their parallaxes measured: 61 Cygni, Alpha Centauri, and Vega. Each of these names comes from a different tradition of designating stars.

The brightest stars have names that derive from the ancients. Some are from the Greek, such as Sirius, which means “the scorched one”—a reference to its brilliance. A few are from Latin, but many of the best-known names are from Arabic because, as discussed in **Observing the Sky: The Birth of Astronomy**, much of Greek and Roman astronomy was “rediscovered” in Europe after the Dark Ages by means of Arabic translations. Vega, for example, means “swooping Eagle,” and Betelgeuse (pronounced “Beetle-juice”) means “right hand of the central one.”

In 1603, German astronomer Johann Bayer (1572–1625) introduced a more systematic approach to naming stars. For each constellation, he assigned a Greek letter to the brightest stars, roughly in order of brightness. In the constellation of Orion, for example, Betelgeuse is the brightest star, so it got the first letter in the Greek alphabet—alpha—and is known as Alpha Orionis. (“Orionis” is the possessive form of Orion, so Alpha Orionis means “the first of Orion.”) A star called Rigel, being the second brightest in that constellation, is called Beta Orionis (**Figure 19.7**). Since there are 24 letters in the Greek alphabet, this system allows the labeling of 24 stars in each constellation, but constellations have many more stars than that.

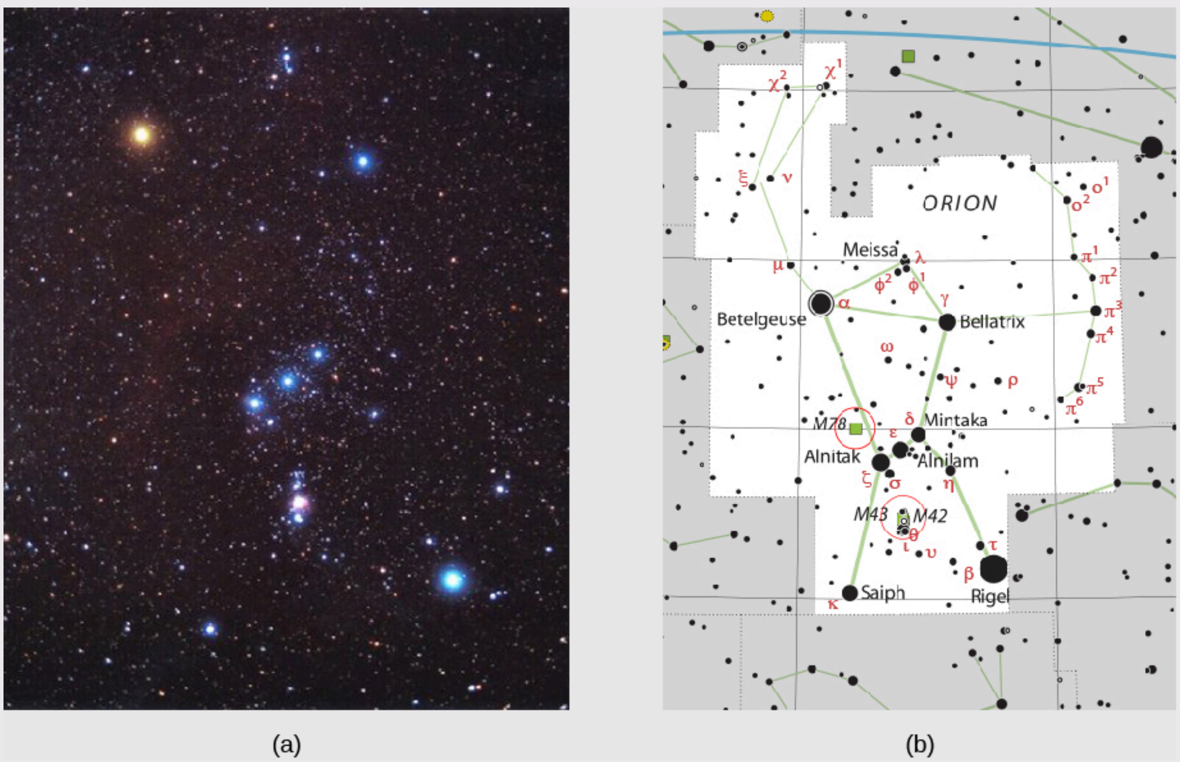


Figure 19.7 Objects in Orion. (a) This image shows the brightest objects in or near the star pattern of Orion, the hunter (of Greek mythology), in the constellation of Orion. (b) Note the Greek letters of Bayer’s system in this diagram of the Orion constellation. The objects denoted M42, M43, and M78 are not stars but nebulae—clouds of gas and dust; these numbers come from a list of “fuzzy objects” made by Charles Messier in 1781. (credit a: modification of work by Matthew Spinelli; credit b: modification of work by ESO, IAU and *Sky & Telescope*)

In 1725, the English Astronomer Royal John Flamsteed introduced yet another system, in which the brighter stars eventually got a number in each constellation in order of their location in the sky or, more precisely, their right ascension. (The system of sky coordinates that includes right ascension was discussed in **Earth, Moon, and Sky**.) In this system, Betelgeuse is called 58 Orionis and 61 Cygni is the 61st star in the constellation of Cygnus, the swan.

It gets worse. As astronomers began to understand more and more about stars, they drew up a series of specialized star catalogs, and fans of those catalogs began calling stars by their catalog numbers. If you look at **Appendix I**—our list of the nearest stars (many of which are much too faint to get an ancient name, Bayer letter, or Flamsteed number)—you will see references to some of these catalogs. An example is a set of stars labeled with a BD number, for “Bonner Durchmusterung.” This was a mammoth catalog of over 324,000 stars in a series of zones in the sky, organized at the Bonn Observatory in the 1850s and 1860s. Keep in mind that this catalog was made before photography or computers came into use, so the position of each star had to be measured (at least twice) by eye, a daunting undertaking.

There is also a completely different system for keeping track of stars whose luminosity varies, and another for stars that brighten explosively at unpredictable times. Astronomers have gotten used to the many different star-naming systems, but students often find them bewildering and wish astronomers would settle on one. Don’t hold your breath: in astronomy, as in many fields of human thought, tradition holds a powerful attraction. Still, with high-speed computer databases to aid human memory, names may become less and less necessary. Today’s astronomers often refer to stars by their precise locations in the sky rather than by their names or various catalog numbers.

The Nearest Stars

No known star (other than the Sun) is within 1 light-year or even 1 parsec of Earth. The stellar neighbors nearest the Sun are three stars in the constellation of Centaurus. To the unaided eye, the brightest of these three stars is Alpha Centauri, which is only 30° from the south celestial pole and hence not visible from the mainland United States. Alpha Centauri itself is a binary star—two stars in mutual revolution—too close together to be distinguished without a telescope. These two stars are 4.4 light-years from us. Nearby is a third faint star, known as Proxima Centauri. Proxima, with a distance of 4.3 light-years, is slightly closer to us than the other two stars. If Proxima Centauri is part of a triple star system with the binary Alpha Centauri, as seems likely, then its orbital period may be longer than 500,000 years.

Proxima Centauri is an example of the most common type of star, and our most common type of stellar neighbor (as we saw in Stars: A Celestial Census.) Low-mass red M dwarfs make up about 70% of all stars and dominate the census of stars within 10 parsecs (33 light-years) of the Sun. For example, a recent survey of the solar neighborhood counted 357 stars and brown dwarfs within 10 parsecs, and 248 of these are red dwarfs. Yet, if you wanted to see an M dwarf with your naked eye, you would be out of luck. These stars only produce a fraction of the Sun’s light, and nearly all of them require a telescope to be detected.

The nearest star visible without a telescope from most of the United States is the brightest appearing of all the stars, Sirius, which has a distance of a little more than 8 light-years. It too is a binary system, composed of a faint white dwarf orbiting a bluish-white, main-sequence star. It is an interesting coincidence of numbers that light reaches us from the Sun in about 8 minutes and from the next brightest star in the sky in about 8 years.

EXAMPLE 19.2

Calculating the Diameter of the Sun

For nearby stars, we can measure the apparent shift in their positions as Earth orbits the Sun. We wrote earlier that an object must be 206,265 AU distant to have a parallax of one second of arc. This must seem like a very strange number, but you can figure out why this is the right value. We will start by estimating the diameter of the Sun and then apply the same idea to a star with a parallax of 1 arcsecond. Make a sketch that has a round circle to represent the Sun, place Earth some distance away, and put an observer on it. Draw two lines from the point where the observer is standing, one to each side of the Sun. Sketch a circle centered at Earth with its circumference passing through the center of the Sun. Now think about proportions. The Sun spans about half a degree on the sky. A full circle has 360°. The circumference of the circle centered on Earth and passing through the Sun is given by:

$$\text{circumference} = 2\pi \times 93{,}000{,}000 \text{ miles}$$

Then, the following two ratios are equal:

$$\frac{0.5°}{360°} = \frac{\text{diameter of Sun}}{2\pi \times 93{,}000{,}000}$$

Calculate the diameter of the Sun. How does your answer compare to the actual diameter?

Solution

To solve for the diameter of the Sun, we can evaluate the expression above.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{diameter of the sun} &= \frac{0.5°}{360°} \times 2\pi \times 93{,}000{,}000 \text{ miles} \\ &= 811{,}577 \text{ miles} \end{aligned}$$

This is very close to the true value of about 848,000 miles.

Check Your Learning

Now apply this idea to calculating the distance to a star that has a parallax of 1 arcsec. Draw a picture similar to the one we suggested above and calculate the distance in AU. (Hint: Remember that the parallax angle is defined by 1 AU, not 2 AU, and that 3600 arcseconds = 1 degree.)

Answer:

206,265 AU

Measuring Parallaxes in Space

The measurements of stellar parallax were revolutionized by the launch of the spacecraft Hipparcos in 1989, which measured distances for thousands of stars out to about 300 light-years with an accuracy of 10 to 20% (see **Figure 19.8** and the feature on **Parallax and Space Astronomy**). However, even 300 light-years are less than 1% the size of our Galaxy's main disk.

In December 2013, the successor to Hipparcos, named *Gaia*, was launched by the European Space Agency. *Gaia* is expected to measure the position and distances to almost one billion stars with an accuracy of a few ten-millionths of an arcsecond. *Gaia's* distance limit will extend well beyond Hipparcos, studying stars out to 30,000 light-years (100 times farther than Hipparcos, covering nearly 1/3 of the galactic disk). *Gaia* will also be able to measure proper motions[2] for thousands of stars in the halo of the Milky Way—something that can only be done for the brightest stars right now. At the end of *Gaia's* mission, we will not only have a three-dimensional map of a large fraction of our own Milky Way Galaxy, but we will also have a strong link in the chain of cosmic distances that we are discussing in this chapter. Yet, to extend this chain beyond *Gaia's* reach and explore

2 Proper motion (as discussed in Analyzing Starlight, is the motion of a star across the sky (perpendicular to our line of sight.)

distances to nearby galaxies, we need some completely new techniques.

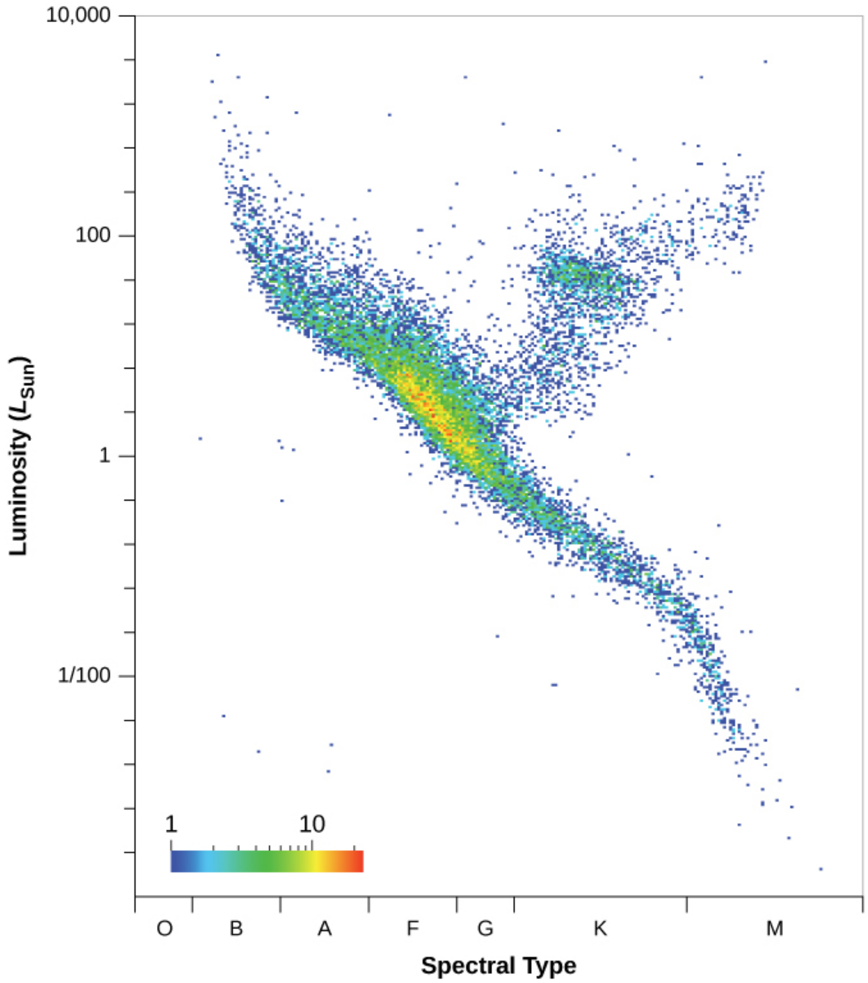


Figure 19.8 H–R Diagram of Stars Measured by Gaia and Hipparcos. This plot includes 16,631 stars for which the parallaxes have an accuracy of 10% or better. The colors indicate the numbers of stars at each point of the diagram, with red corresponding to the largest number and blue to the lowest. Luminosity is plotted along the vertical axis, with luminosity increasing upward. An infrared color is plotted as a proxy for temperature, with temperature decreasing to the right. Most of the data points are distributed along the diagonal running from the top left corner (high luminosity, high temperature) to the bottom right (low temperature, low luminosity). These are main sequence stars. The large clump of data points above the main sequence on the right side of the diagram is composed of red giant stars. (credit: modification of work by the European Space Agency)

MAKING CONNECTIONS

Parallax and Space Astronomy

One of the most difficult things about precisely measuring the tiny angles of parallax shifts from Earth is that you have to observe the stars through our planet’s atmosphere. As we saw in **Astronomical Instruments**, the effect of the atmosphere is to spread out the points of starlight into fuzzy disks, making exact measurements of their positions more difficult. Astronomers had long dreamed of being able to measure parallaxes from space, and two orbiting observatories have now turned this dream into reality.

The name of the Hipparcos satellite, launched in 1989 by the European Space Agency, is both an abbreviation for High Precision Parallax Collecting Satellite and a tribute to Hipparchus, the pioneering Greek astronomer whose work we discussed in the **Observing the Sky: The Birth of Astronomy**. The satellite was designed to make the most accurate parallax measurements in history, from 36,000 kilometers above Earth. However, its onboard rocket motor failed to fire, which meant it did not get the needed boost to reach the desired altitude. Hipparcos ended up spending its 4-year life in an elliptical orbit that varied from 500 to 36,000 kilometers high. In this orbit, the satellite plunged into Earth's radiation belts every 5 hours or so, which finally took its toll on the solar panels that provided energy to power the instruments.

Nevertheless, the mission was successful, resulting in two catalogs. One gives positions of 120,000 stars to an accuracy of one-thousandth of an arcsecond—about the diameter of a golf ball in New York as viewed from Europe. The second catalog contains information for more than a million stars, whose positions have been measured to thirty-thousandths of an arcsecond. We now have accurate parallax measurements of stars out to distances of about 300 light-years. (With ground-based telescopes, accurate measurements were feasible out to only about 60 light-years.)

In order to build on the success of Hipparcos, in 2013, the European Space Agency launched a new satellite called *Gaia*. The Gaia mission is scheduled to last for 5 years. Because *Gaia* carries larger telescopes than Hipparcos, it can observe fainter stars and measure their positions 200 times more accurately. The main goal of the Gaia mission is to make an accurate three-dimensional map of that portion of the Galaxy within about 30,000 light-years by observing 1 billion stars 70 times each, measuring their positions and hence their parallaxes as well as their brightnesses.

For a long time, the measurement of parallaxes and accurate stellar positions was a backwater of astronomical research—mainly because the accuracy of measurements did not improve much for about 100 years. However, the ability to make measurements from space has revolutionized this field of astronomy and will continue to provide a critical link in our chain of cosmic distances.

LINK TO LEARNING

The European Space Agency (ESA) maintains a **Gaia mission website (https://openstaxcollege.org/l/30GaiaMission)** where you can learn more about the Gaia mission and to get the latest news on *Gaia* observations.

To learn more about Hipparcos, explore this **European Space Agency webpage (https://openstaxcollege.org/l/30Hipparcos)** with an ESA vodcast *Charting the Galaxy—from Hipparcos to Gaia*.

19.3 VARIABLE STARS: ONE KEY TO COSMIC DISTANCES

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how some stars vary their light output and why such stars are important

- Explain the importance of pulsating variable stars, such as cepheids and RR Lyrae-type stars, to our study of the universe

Let’s briefly review the key reasons that measuring distances to the stars is such a struggle. As discussed in **The Brightness of Stars**, our problem is that stars come in a bewildering variety of intrinsic luminosities. (If stars were light bulbs, we’d say they come in a wide range of wattages.) Suppose, instead, that all stars had the same “wattage” or luminosity. In that case, the more distant ones would always look dimmer, and we could tell how far away a star is simply by how dim it appeared. In the real universe, however, when we look at a star in our sky (with eye or telescope) and measure its apparent brightness, we cannot know whether it looks dim because it’s a low-wattage bulb or because it is far away, or perhaps some of each.

Astronomers need to discover something else about the star that allows us to “read off” its intrinsic luminosity—in effect, to know what the star’s true wattage is. With this information, we can then attribute how dim it looks from Earth to its distance. Recall that the apparent brightness of an object decreases with the square of the distance to that object. If two objects have the same luminosity but one is three times farther than the other, the more distant one will look nine times fainter. Therefore, if we know the luminosity of a star and its apparent brightness, we can calculate how far away it is. Astronomers have long searched for techniques that would somehow allow us to determine the luminosity of a star—and it is to these techniques that we turn next.

Variable Stars

The breakthrough in measuring distances to remote parts of our Galaxy, and to other galaxies as well, came from the study of variable stars. Most stars are constant in their luminosity, at least to within a percent or two. Like the Sun, they generate a steady flow of energy from their interiors. However, some stars are seen to vary in brightness and, for this reason, are called *variable stars*. Many such stars vary on a regular cycle, like the flashing bulbs that decorate stores and homes during the winter holidays.

Let’s define some tools to help us keep track of how a star varies. A graph that shows how the brightness of a variable star changes with time is called a **light curve** (**Figure 19.9**). The *maximum* is the point of the light curve where the star has its greatest brightness; the *minimum* is the point where it is faintest. If the light variations repeat themselves periodically, the interval between the two maxima is called the *period* of the star. (If this kind of graph looks familiar, it is because we introduced it in **Diameters of Stars**.)

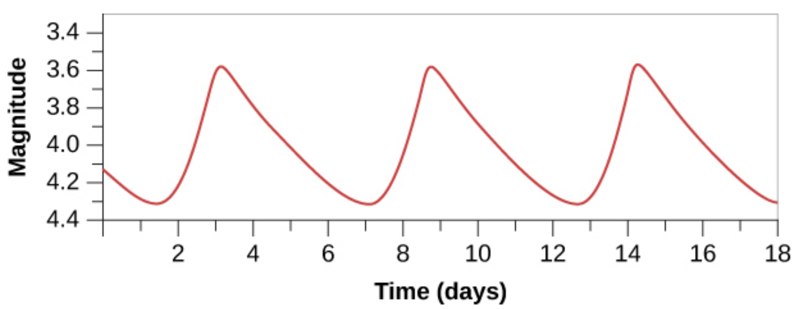


Figure 19.9 Cepheid Light Curve. This light curve shows how the brightness changes with time for a typical cepheid variable, with a period of about 6 days.

Pulsating Variables

There are two special types of variable stars for which—as we will see—measurements of the light curve give us accurate distances. These are called **cepheid** and **RR Lyrae** variables, both of which are **pulsating variable stars**. Such a star actually changes its diameter with time—periodically expanding and contracting, as your chest does when you breathe. We now understand that these stars are going through a brief unstable stage late in their lives.

The expansion and contraction of pulsating variables can be measured by using the Doppler effect. The lines in the spectrum shift toward the blue as the surface of the star moves toward us and then shift to the red as the surface shrinks back. As the star pulsates, it also changes its overall color, indicating that its temperature is also varying. And, most important for our purposes, the luminosity of the pulsating variable also changes in a regular way as it expands and contracts.

Cepheid Variables

Cepheids are large, yellow, pulsating stars named for the first-known star of the group, Delta Cephei. This, by the way, is another example of how confusing naming conventions get in astronomy; here, a whole class of stars is named after the constellation in which the first one happened to be found. (We textbook authors can only apologize to our students for the whole mess!)

The variability of Delta Cephei was discovered in 1784 by the young English astronomer John Goodricke (see **John Goodricke**). The star rises rather rapidly to maximum light and then falls more slowly to minimum light, taking a total of 5.4 days for one cycle. The curve in **Figure 19.9** represents a simplified version of the light curve of Delta Cephei.

Several hundred cepheid variables are known in our Galaxy. Most cepheids have periods in the range of 3 to 50 days and luminosities that are about 1000 to 10,000 times greater than that of the Sun. Their variations in luminosity range from a few percent to a factor of 10.

Polaris, the North Star, is a cepheid variable that, for a long time, varied by one tenth of a magnitude, or by about 10% in visual luminosity, in a period of just under 4 days. Recent measurements indicate that the amount by which the brightness of Polaris changes is decreasing and that, sometime in the future, this star will no longer be a pulsating variable. This is just one more piece of evidence that stars really do evolve and change in fundamental ways as they age, and that being a cepheid variable represents a stage in the life of the star.

The Period-Luminosity Relation

The importance of cepheid variables lies in the fact that their periods and average luminosities turn out to be directly related. The longer the period (the longer the star takes to vary), the greater the luminosity. This **period-luminosity relation** was a remarkable discovery, one for which astronomers still (pardon the expression) thank their lucky stars. The period of such a star is easy to measure: a good telescope and a good clock are all you need. Once you have the period, the relationship (which can be put into precise mathematical terms) will give you the luminosity of the star.

Let’s be clear on what that means. The relation allows you to essentially “read off” how bright the star really is (how much energy it puts out). Astronomers can then compare this intrinsic brightness with the apparent brightness of the star. As we saw, the difference between the two allows them to calculate the distance.

The relation between period and luminosity was discovered in 1908 by Henrietta Leavitt (**Figure 19.10**), a staff member at the Harvard College Observatory (and one of a number of women working for low wages assisting Edward Pickering, the observatory’s director; see **Annie Cannon: Classifier of the Stars**). Leavitt discovered hundreds of variable stars in the Large Magellanic Cloud and Small Magellanic Cloud, two great star systems that are actually neighboring galaxies (although they were not known to be galaxies then). A small fraction of these variables were cepheids (**Figure 19.11**).

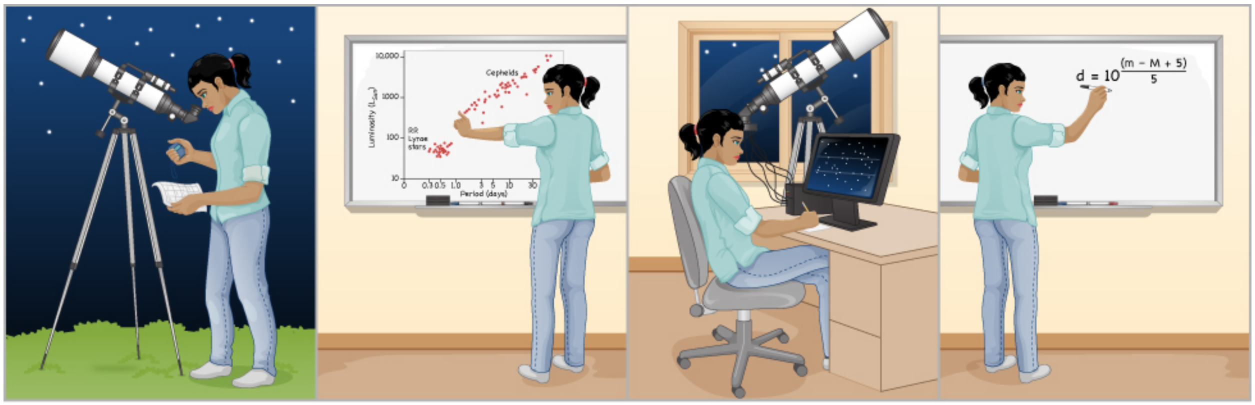
Figure 19.10 Henrietta Swan Leavitt (1868–1921). Leavitt worked as an astronomer at the Harvard College Observatory. While studying photographs of the Magellanic Clouds, she found over 1700 variable stars, including 20 cepheids. Since all the cepheids in these systems were at roughly the same distance, she was able to compare their luminosities and periods of variation. She thus discovered a fundamental relationship between these characteristics that led to a new and much better way of estimating cosmic distances. (credit: modification of work by AIP)

These systems presented a wonderful opportunity to study the behavior of variable stars independent of their distance. For all practical purposes, the Magellanic Clouds are so far away that astronomers can assume that all the stars in them are at roughly the same distance from us. (In the same way, all the suburbs of Los Angeles are roughly the same distance from New York City. Of course, if you are *in* Los Angeles, you will notice annoying distances between the suburbs, but compared to how far away New York City is, the differences seem small.) If all the variable stars in the Magellanic Clouds are at roughly the same distance, then any difference in their apparent brightnesses must be caused by differences in their intrinsic luminosities.

Figure 19.11 Large Magellanic Cloud. The Large Magellanic Cloud (so named because Magellan’s crew were the first Europeans to record it) is a small, irregularly shaped galaxy near our own Milky Way. It was in this galaxy that Henrietta Leavitt discovered the cepheid period-luminosity relation. (credit: ESO)

Leavitt found that the brighter-appearing cepheids always have the longer periods of light variation. Thus, she reasoned, the period must be related to the luminosity of the stars. When Leavitt did this work, the distance to the Magellanic Clouds was not known, so she was only able to show that luminosity was related to period. She could not determine exactly what the relationship is.

To define the period-luminosity relation with actual numbers (to *calibrate* it), astronomers first had to measure the actual distances to a few nearby cepheids in another way. (This was accomplished by finding cepheids associated in clusters with other stars whose distances could be estimated from their spectra, as discussed in the next section of this chapter.) But once the relation was thus defined, it could give us the distance to any cepheid, wherever it might be located (**Figure 19.12**).



(a) (b) (c) (d)

Figure 19.12 How to Use a Cepheid to Measure Distance. (a) Find a cepheid variable star and measure its period. (b) Use the period-luminosity relation to calculate the star's luminosity. (c) Measure the star's apparent brightness. (d) Compare the luminosity with the apparent brightness to calculate the distance.

Here at last was the technique astronomers had been searching for to break the confines of distance that parallax imposed on them. Cepheids can be observed and monitored, it turns out, in many parts of our own Galaxy and in other nearby galaxies as well. Astronomers, including Ejnar Hertzsprung and Harvard's Harlow Shapley, immediately saw the potential of the new technique; they and many others set to work exploring more distant reaches of space using cepheids as signposts. In the 1920s, Edwin Hubble made one of the most significant astronomical discoveries of all time using cepheids, when he observed them in nearby galaxies and discovered the expansion of the universe. As we will see, this work still continues, as the Hubble Space Telescope and other modern instruments try to identify and measure individual cepheids in galaxies farther and farther away. The most distant known variable stars are all cepheids, with some about 60 million light-years away.

VOYAGERS IN ASTRONOMY

John Goodricke

The brief life of John Goodricke (Figure 19.13) is a testament to the human spirit under adversity. Born deaf and unable to speak, Goodricke nevertheless made a number of pioneering discoveries in astronomy through patient and careful observations of the heavens.

Figure 19.13 John Goodricke (1764–1786). This portrait of Goodricke by artist J. Scouler hangs in the Royal Astronomical Society in London. There is some controversy about whether this is actually what Goodricke looked like or whether the painting was much retouched to please his family. (credit: James Scouler)

Born in Holland, where his father was on a diplomatic mission, Goodricke was sent back to England at age eight to study at a special school for the deaf. He did sufficiently well to enter Warrington Academy, a secondary school that offered no special assistance for students with handicaps. His mathematics teacher there inspired an interest in astronomy, and in 1781, at age 17, Goodricke began observing the sky at his family home in York, England. Within a year, he had discovered the brightness variations of the star Algol (discussed in **The Stars: A Celestial Census**) and suggested that an unseen companion star was causing the changes, a theory that waited over 100 years for proof. His paper on the subject was read before the Royal Society (the main British group of scientists) in 1783 and won him a medal from that distinguished group.

In the meantime, Goodricke had discovered two other stars that varied regularly, Beta Lyrae and Delta Cephei, both of which continued to interest astronomers for years to come. Goodricke shared his interest in observing with his older cousin, Edward Pigott, who went on to discover other variable stars during his much longer life. But Goodricke's time was quickly drawing to a close; at age 21, only 2 weeks after he was elected to the Royal Society, he caught a cold while making astronomical observations and never recovered.

Today, the University of York has a building named Goodricke Hall and a plaque that honors his contributions to science. Yet if you go to the churchyard cemetery where he is buried, an overgrown tombstone has only the initials "J. G." to show where he lies. Astronomer Zdenek Kopal, who looked carefully into Goodricke's life, speculated on why the marker is so modest: perhaps the rather staid Goodricke relatives were ashamed of having a "deaf-mute" in the family and could not sufficiently appreciate how much a man who could not hear could nevertheless see.

RR Lyrae Stars

A related group of stars, whose nature was understood somewhat later than that of the cepheids, are called RR Lyrae variables, named for the star RR Lyrae, the best-known member of the group. More common than the cepheids, but less luminous, thousands of these pulsating variables are known in our Galaxy. The periods of RR Lyrae stars are always less than 1 day, and their changes in brightness are typically less than about a factor of two.

Astronomers have observed that the RR Lyrae stars occurring in any particular cluster all have about the same apparent brightness. Since stars in a cluster are all at approximately the same distance, it follows that RR Lyrae variables must all have nearly the same intrinsic luminosity, which turns out to be about 50 L_{Sun}. In this sense, RR Lyrae stars are a little bit like standard light bulbs and can also be used to obtain distances, particularly within our Galaxy. **Figure 19.14** displays the ranges of periods and luminosities for both the cepheids and the RR Lyrae stars.

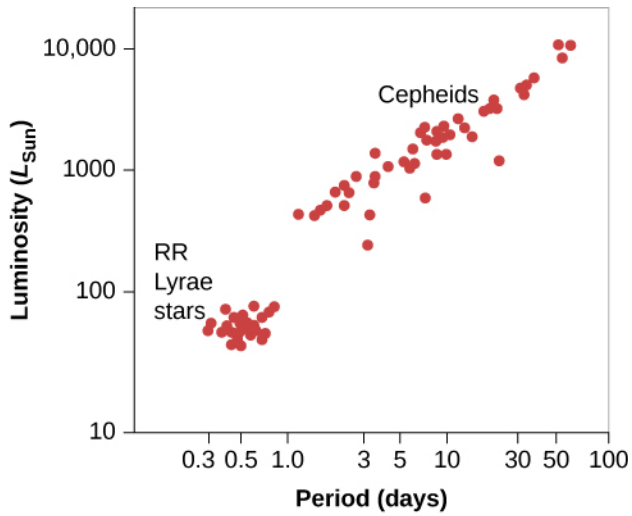


Figure 19.14 Period-Luminosity Relation for Cepheid Variables. In this class of variable stars, the time the star takes to go through a cycle of luminosity changes is related to the average luminosity of the star. Also shown are the period and luminosity for RR Lyrae stars.

19.4 THE H–R DIAGRAM AND COSMIC DISTANCES

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand how spectral types are used to estimate stellar luminosities
- Examine how these techniques are used by astronomers today

Variable stars are not the only way that we can estimate the luminosity of stars. Another way involves the H–R diagram, which shows that the intrinsic brightness of a star can be estimated if we know its spectral type.

Distances from Spectral Types

As satisfying and productive as variable stars have been for distance measurement, these stars are rare and are not found near all the objects to which we wish to measure distances. Suppose, for example, we need the distance to a star that is not varying, or to a group of stars, none of which is a variable. In this case, it turns out the H–R diagram can come to our rescue.

If we can observe the spectrum of a star, we can estimate its distance from our understanding of the H–R diagram. As discussed in **Analyzing Starlight**, a detailed examination of a stellar spectrum allows astronomers to classify the star into one of the *spectral types* indicating surface temperature. (The types are O, B, A, F, G, K, M, L, T, and Y; each of these can be divided into numbered subgroups.) In general, however, the spectral type alone is not enough to allow us to estimate luminosity. Look again at **Figure 18.15**. A G2 star could be a main-sequence star with a luminosity of 1 L_{Sun}, or it could be a giant with a luminosity of 100 L_{Sun}, or even a supergiant with a still higher luminosity.

We can learn more from a star's spectrum, however, than just its temperature. Remember, for example, that we can detect pressure differences in stars from the details of the spectrum. This knowledge is very useful because giant stars are larger (and have lower pressures) than main-sequence stars, and supergiants are still larger than giants. If we look in detail at the spectrum of a star, we can determine whether it is a main-sequence star, a giant, or a supergiant.

Suppose, to start with the simplest example, that the spectrum, color, and other properties of a distant G2 star match those of the Sun exactly. It is then reasonable to conclude that this distant star is likely to be a main-sequence star just like the Sun and to have the same luminosity as the Sun. But if there are subtle differences between the solar spectrum and the spectrum of the distant star, then the distant star may be a giant or even a supergiant.

The most widely used system of star classification divides stars of a given spectral class into six categories called **luminosity classes**. These luminosity classes are denoted by Roman numbers as follows:

- Ia: Brightest supergiants
- Ib: Less luminous supergiants
- II: Bright giants
- III: Giants
- IV: Subgiants (intermediate between giants and main-sequence stars)
- V: Main-sequence stars

The full spectral specification of a star includes its luminosity class. For example, a main-sequence star with spectral class F3 is written as F3 V. The specification for an M2 giant is M2 III. Figure 19.15 illustrates the approximate position of stars of various luminosity classes on the H–R diagram. The dashed portions of the lines represent regions with very few or no stars.

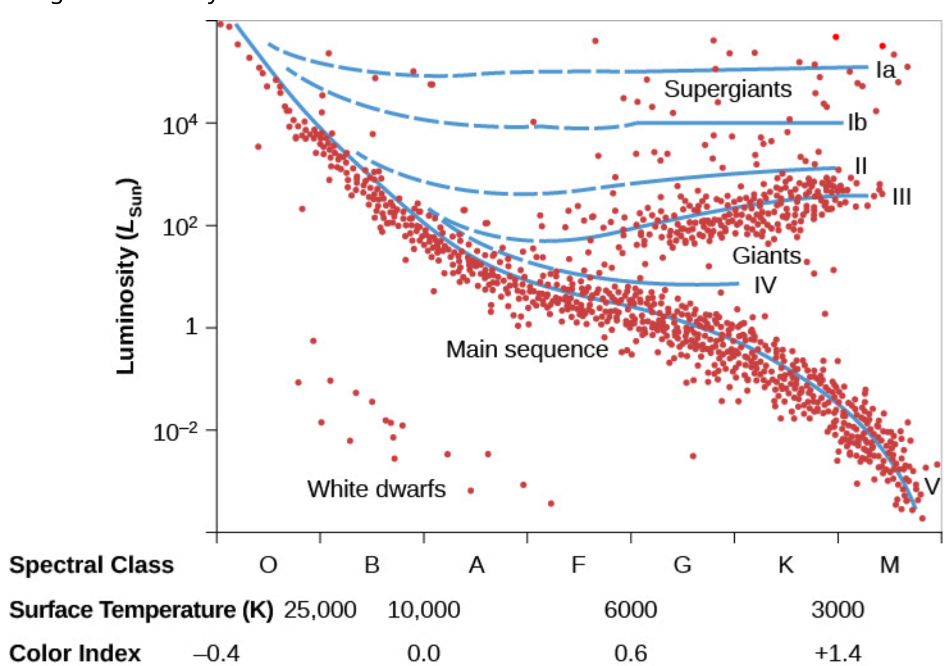


Figure 19.15 Luminosity Classes. Stars of the same temperature (or spectral class) can fall into different luminosity classes on the Hertzsprung-Russell diagram. By studying details of the spectrum for each star, astronomers can determine which luminosity class they fall in (whether they are main-sequence stars, giant stars, or supergiant stars).

With both its spectral and luminosity classes known, a star's position on the H–R diagram is uniquely determined. Since the diagram plots luminosity versus temperature, this means we can now read off the star's luminosity (once its spectrum has helped us place it on the diagram). As before, if we know how luminous the star really is and see how dim it looks, the difference allows us to calculate its distance. (For historical reasons, astronomers sometimes call this method of distance determination *spectroscopic parallax*, even though the method has nothing to do with parallax.)

The H–R diagram method allows astronomers to estimate distances to nearby stars, as well as some of the most distant stars in our Galaxy, but it is anchored by measurements of parallax. The distances measured using parallax are the gold standard for distances: they rely on no assumptions, only geometry. Once astronomers take a spectrum of a nearby star for which we also know the parallax, we know the luminosity that corresponds to that spectral type. Nearby stars thus serve as benchmarks for more distant stars because we can assume that two stars with identical spectra have the same intrinsic luminosity.

A Few Words about the Real World

Introductory textbooks such as ours work hard to present the material in a straightforward and simplified way. In doing so, we sometimes do our students a disservice by making scientific techniques seem too clean and painless. In the real world, the techniques we have just described turn out to be messy and difficult, and often give astronomers headaches that last long into the day.

For example, the relationships we have described such as the period-luminosity relation for certain variable stars aren't exactly straight lines on a graph. The points representing many stars scatter widely when plotted, and thus, the distances derived from them also have a certain built-in scatter or uncertainty.

The distances we measure with the methods we have discussed are therefore only accurate to within a certain percentage of error—sometimes 10%, sometimes 25%, sometimes as much as 50% or more. A 25% error for a star estimated to be 10,000 light-years away means it could be anywhere from 7500 to 12,500 light-years away. This would be an unacceptable uncertainty if you were loading fuel into a spaceship for a trip to the star, but it is not a bad first figure to work with if you are an astronomer stuck on planet Earth.

Nor is the construction of H–R diagrams as easy as you might think at first. To make a good diagram, one needs to measure the characteristics and distances of many stars, which can be a time-consuming task. Since our own solar neighborhood is already well mapped, the stars astronomers most want to study to advance our knowledge are likely to be far away and faint. It may take hours of observing to obtain a single spectrum. Observers may have to spend many nights at the telescope (and many days back home working with their data) before they get their distance measurement. Fortunately, this is changing because surveys like Gaia will study billions of stars, producing public datasets that all astronomers can use.

Despite these difficulties, the tools we have been discussing allow us to measure a remarkable range of distances—parallaxes for the nearest stars, RR Lyrae variable stars; the H–R diagram for clusters of stars in our own and nearby galaxies; and cepheids out to distances of 60 million light-years. **Table 19.1** describes the distance limits and overlap of each method.

Each technique described in this chapter builds on at least one other method, forming what many call the *cosmic distance ladder*. Parallaxes are the foundation of all stellar distance estimates, spectroscopic methods use nearby stars to calibrate their H–R diagrams, and RR Lyrae and cepheid distance estimates are grounded in H–R diagram distance estimates (and even in a parallax measurement to a nearby cepheid, Delta Cephei).

This chain of methods allows astronomers to push the limits when looking for even more distant stars. Recent work, for example, has used RR Lyrae stars to identify dim companion galaxies to our own Milky Way out at distances of 300,000 light-years. The H–R diagram method was recently used to identify the two most distant stars in the Galaxy: red giant stars way out in the halo of the Milky Way with distances of almost 1 million light-years.

We can combine the distances we find for stars with measurements of their composition, luminosity, and temperature—made with the techniques described in **Analyzing Starlight** and **The Stars: A Celestial Census**. Together, these make up the arsenal of information we need to trace the evolution of stars from birth to death, the subject to which we turn in the chapters that follow.

Distance Range of Celestial Measurement Methods

Method	Distance Range
Trigonometric parallax	4–30,000 light-years when the Gaia mission is complete
RR Lyrae stars	Out to 300,000 light-years
H–R diagram and spectroscopic distances	Out to 1,200,000 light-years
Cepheid stars	Out to 60,000,000 light-years

Table 19.1

CHAPTER 19 REVIEW

KEY TERMS

cepheid a star that belongs to a class of yellow supergiant pulsating stars; these stars vary periodically in brightness, and the relationship between their periods and luminosities is useful in deriving distances to them

light curve a graph that displays the time variation of the light from a variable or eclipsing binary star or, more generally, from any other object whose radiation output changes with time

luminosity class a classification of a star according to its luminosity within a given spectral class; our Sun, a G2V star, has luminosity class V, for example

parallax an apparent displacement of a nearby star that results from the motion of Earth around the Sun

parsec a unit of distance in astronomy, equal to 3.26 light-years; at a distance of 1 parsec, a star has a parallax of 1 arcsecond

period-luminosity relation an empirical relation between the periods and luminosities of certain variable stars

pulsating variable star a variable star that pulsates in size and luminosity

RR Lyrae one of a class of giant pulsating stars with periods shorter than 1 day, useful for finding distances

SUMMARY

19.1 Fundamental Units of Distance

Early measurements of length were based on human dimensions, but today, we use worldwide standards that specify lengths in units such as the meter. Distances within the solar system are now determined by timing how long it takes radar signals to travel from Earth to the surface of a planet or other body and then return.

19.2 Surveying the Stars

For stars that are relatively nearby, we can “triangulate” the distances from a baseline created by Earth’s annual motion around the Sun. Half the shift in a nearby star’s position relative to very distant background stars, as viewed from opposite sides of Earth’s orbit, is called the parallax of that star and is a measure of its distance. The units used to measure stellar distance are the light-year, the distance light travels in 1 year, and the parsec (pc), the distance of a star with a parallax of 1 arcsecond (1 parsec = 3.26 light-years). The closest star, a red dwarf, is over 1 parsec away. The first successful measurements of stellar parallaxes were reported in 1838. Parallax measurements are a fundamental link in the chain of cosmic distances. The Hipparcos satellite has allowed us to measure accurate parallaxes for stars out to about 300 light-years, and the Gaia mission will result in parallaxes out to 30,000 light-years.

19.3 Variable Stars: One Key to Cosmic Distances

Cepheids and RR Lyrae stars are two types of pulsating variable stars. Light curves of these stars show that their luminosities vary with a regularly repeating period. RR Lyrae stars can be used as standard bulbs, and cepheid variables obey a period-luminosity relation, so measuring their periods can tell us their luminosities. Then, we can calculate their distances by comparing their luminosities with their apparent brightnesses, and this can allow us to measure distances to these stars out to over 60 million light-years.

19.4 The H–R Diagram and Cosmic Distances

Stars with identical temperatures but different pressures (and diameters) have somewhat different spectra. Spectral classification can therefore be used to estimate the luminosity class of a star as well as its temperature. As a result, a spectrum can allow us to pinpoint where the star is located on an H–R diagram and establish its luminosity. This, with the star's apparent brightness, again yields its distance. The various distance methods can be used to check one against another and thus make a kind of distance ladder which allows us to find even larger distances.

FOR FURTHER EXPLORATION

Articles

Adams, A. "The Triumph of Hipparcos." *Astronomy* (December 1997): 60. Brief introduction.

Dambeck, T. "Gaia's Mission to the Milky Way." *Sky & Telescope* (March 2008): 36–39. An introduction to the mission to measure distances and positions of stars with unprecedented accuracy.

Hirshfeld, A. "The Absolute Magnitude of Stars." *Sky & Telescope* (September 1994): 35. Good review of how we measure luminosity, with charts.

Hirshfeld, A. "The Race to Measure the Cosmos." *Sky & Telescope* (November 2001): 38. On parallax.

Trefil, J. Puzzling Out Parallax." *Astronomy* (September 1998): 46. On the concept and history of parallax.

Turon, C. "Measuring the Universe." *Sky & Telescope* (July 1997): 28. On the Hipparcos mission and its results.

Zimmerman, R. "Polaris: The Code-Blue Star." *Astronomy* (March 1995): 45. On the famous cepheid variable and how it is changing.

Websites

ABCs of Distance: **http://www.astro.ucla.edu/~wright/distance.htm (http://www.astro.ucla.edu/~wright/distance.htm)** . Astronomer Ned Wright (UCLA) gives a concise primer on many different methods of obtaining distances. This site is at a higher level than our textbook, but is an excellent review for those with some background in astronomy.

American Association of Variable Star Observers (AAVSO): **https://www.aavso.org/ (https://www.aavso.org/)** . This organization of amateur astronomers helps to keep track of variable stars; its site has some background material, observing instructions, and links.

Friedrich Wilhelm Bessel: **http://messier.seds.org/xtra/Bios/bessel.html (http://messier.seds.org/xtra/Bios/bessel.html)** . A brief site about the first person to detect stellar parallax, with references and links.

Gaia: **http://sci.esa.int/gaia/ (http://sci.esa.int/gaia/)** . News from the Gaia mission, including images and a blog of the latest findings.

Hipparchos: **http://sci.esa.int/hipparcos/ (http://sci.esa.int/hipparcos/)** . Background, results, catalogs of data, and educational resources from the Hipparchos mission to observe parallaxes from space. Some sections are technical, but others are accessible to students.

John Goodricke: The Deaf Astronomer: **http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-20725639 (http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-20725639)** . A biographical article from the BBC.

Women in Astronomy: **http://www.astrosociety.org/education/astronomy-resource-guides/women-in-astronomy-an-introductory-resource-guide/ (http://www.astrosociety.org/education/astronomy-**

resource-guides/women-in-astronomy-an-introductory-resource-guide/) . More about Henrietta Leavitt's and other women's contributions to astronomy and the obstacles they faced.

Videos

Gaia's Mission: Solving the Celestial Puzzle: **https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oGri4YNggoc (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oGri4YNggoc)** . Describes the Gaia mission and what scientists hope to learn, from Cambridge University (19:58).

Hipparcos: Route Map to the Stars: **http://www.esa.int/spaceinvideos/Videos/1997/05/Hipparcos_Route_Maps_to_the_Stars_May_97 (http://www.esa.int/spaceinvideos/Videos/1997/05/Hipparcos_Route_Maps_to_the_Stars_May_97)** . This ESA video describes the mission to measure parallax and its results (14:32)

How Big Is the Universe: **https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K_xZuopg4Sk (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K_xZuopg4Sk)** . Astronomer Pete Edwards from the British Institute of Physics discusses the size of the universe and gives a step-by-step introduction to the concepts of distances (6:22)

Search for Miss Leavitt: **http://perimeterinstitute.ca/videos/search-miss-leavitt (http://perimeterinstitute.ca/videos/search-miss-leavitt)** . Video of talk by George Johnson on his search for Miss Leavitt (55:09).

Women in Astronomy: **http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5vMR7su4fi8 (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5vMR7su4fi8)** . Emily Rice (CUNY) gives a talk on the contributions of women to astronomy, with many historical and contemporary examples, and an analysis of modern trends (52:54).

COLLABORATIVE GROUP ACTIVITIES

A. In this chapter, we explain the various measurements that have been used to establish the size of a standard meter. Your group should discuss why we have changed the definitions of our standard unit of measurement in science from time to time. What factors in our modern society contribute to the growth of technology? Does technology "drive" science, or does science "drive" technology? Or do you think the two are so intertwined that it's impossible to say which is the driver?

B. Cepheids are scattered throughout our own Milky Way Galaxy, but the period-luminosity relation was discovered from observations of the Magellanic Clouds, a satellite galaxy now known to be about 160,000 light-years away. What reasons can you give to explain why the relation was not discovered from observations of cepheids in our own Galaxy? Would your answer change if there were a small cluster in our own Galaxy that contained 20 cepheids? Why or why not?

C. You want to write a proposal to use the Hubble Space Telescope to look for the brightest cepheids in galaxy M100 and estimate their luminosities. What observations would you need to make? Make a list of all the reasons such observations are harder than it first might appear.

D. Why does your group think so many different ways of naming stars developed through history? (Think back to the days before everyone connected online.) Are there other fields where things are named confusingly and arbitrarily? How do stars differ from other phenomena that science and other professions tend to catalog?

E. Although cepheids and RR Lyrae variable stars tend to change their brightness pretty regularly (while they are in that stage of their lives), some variable stars are unpredictable or change their their behavior even during the course of a single human lifetime. Amateur astronomers all over the world follow such variable stars patiently and persistently, sending their nightly observations to huge databases that are being kept on the behavior of many thousands of stars. None of the hobbyists who do this get paid for making such painstaking observations. Have your group discuss why they do it. Would you ever consider a hobby that involves so much work, long into the night, often on work nights? If observing variable stars doesn't pique your interest, is there something you think you could do as a volunteer after college that does excite you? Why?

F. In **Figure 19.8**, the highest concentration of stars occurs in the middle of the main sequence. Can your group give reasons why this might be so? Why are there fewer very hot stars and fewer very cool stars on this diagram?

G. In this chapter, we discuss two astronomers who were differently abled than their colleagues. John Goodricke could neither hear nor speak, and Henrietta Leavitt struggled with hearing impairment for all of her adult life. Yet they each made fundamental contributions to our understanding of the universe. Does your group know people who are handling a disability? What obstacles would people with different disabilities face in trying to do astronomy and what could be done to ease their way? For a set of resources in this area, see http://astronomerswithoutborders.org/gam2013/programs/1319-people-with-disabilities-astronomy-resources.html.

EXERCISES

Review Questions

1. Explain how parallax measurements can be used to determine distances to stars. Why can we not make accurate measurements of parallax beyond a certain distance?

2. Suppose you have discovered a new cepheid variable star. What steps would you take to determine its distance?

3. Explain how you would use the spectrum of a star to estimate its distance.

4. Which method would you use to obtain the distance to each of the following?

- **A.** An asteroid crossing Earth's orbit
- **B.** A star astronomers believe to be no more than 50 light-years from the Sun
- **C.** A tight group of stars in the Milky Way Galaxy that includes a significant number of variable stars
- **D.** A star that is not variable but for which you can obtain a clearly defined spectrum

5. What are the luminosity class and spectral type of a star with an effective temperature of 5000 K and a luminosity of 100 L_{Sun}?

Thought Questions

6. The meter was redefined as a reference to Earth, then to krypton, and finally to the speed of light. Why do you think the reference point for a meter continued to change?

7. While a meter is the fundamental unit of length, most distances traveled by humans are measured in miles or kilometers. Why do you think this is?

8. Most distances in the Galaxy are measured in light-years instead of meters. Why do you think this is the case?

9. The AU is defined as the *average* distance between Earth and the Sun, not the distance between Earth and the Sun. Why does this need to be the case?

10. What would be the advantage of making parallax measurements from Pluto rather than from Earth? Would there be a disadvantage?

11. Parallaxes are measured in fractions of an arcsecond. One arcsecond equals 1/60 arcmin; an arcminute is, in turn, 1/60th of a degree (°). To get some idea of how big 1° is, go outside at night and find the Big Dipper. The two pointer stars at the ends of the bowl are 5.5° apart. The two stars across the top of the bowl are 10° apart. (Ten degrees is also about the width of your fist when held at arm's length and projected against the sky.) Mizar, the second star from the end of the Big Dipper's handle, appears double. The fainter star, Alcor, is about 12 arcmin from Mizar. For comparison, the diameter of the full moon is about 30 arcmin. The belt of Orion is about 3° long. Keeping all this in mind, why did it take until 1838 to make parallax measurements for even the nearest stars?

12. For centuries, astronomers wondered whether comets were true celestial objects, like the planets and stars, or a phenomenon that occurred in the atmosphere of Earth. Describe an experiment to determine which of these two possibilities is correct.

13. The Sun is much closer to Earth than are the nearest stars, yet it is not possible to measure accurately the diurnal parallax of the Sun relative to the stars by measuring its position relative to background objects in the sky directly. Explain why.

14. Parallaxes of stars are sometimes measured relative to the positions of galaxies or distant objects called quasars. Why is this a good technique?

15. Estimating the luminosity class of an M star is much more important than measuring it for an O star if you are determining the distance to that star. Why is that the case?

16. Figure 19.9 is the light curve for the prototype cepheid variable Delta Cephei. How does the luminosity of this star compare with that of the Sun?

17. Which of the following can you determine about a star without knowing its distance, and which can you not determine: radial velocity, temperature, apparent brightness, or luminosity? Explain.

18. A G2 star has a luminosity 100 times that of the Sun. What kind of star is it? How does its radius compare with that of the Sun?

19. A star has a temperature of 10,000 K and a luminosity of $10^{-2}\ L_{\text{Sun}}$. What kind of star is it?

20. What is the advantage of measuring a parallax distance to a star as compared to our other distance measuring methods?

21. What is the disadvantage of the parallax method, especially for studying distant parts of the Galaxy?

22. Luhman 16 and WISE 0720 are brown dwarfs, also known as failed stars, and are some of the new closest neighbors to Earth, but were only discovered in the last decade. Why do you think they took so long to be discovered?

23. Most stars close to the Sun are red dwarfs. What does this tell us about the average star formation event in our Galaxy?

24. Why would it be easier to measure the characteristics of intrinsically less luminous cepheids than more luminous ones?

25. When Henrietta Leavitt discovered the period-luminosity relationship, she used cepheid stars that were all located in the Small Magellanic Cloud. Why did she need to use stars in another galaxy and not cepheids located in the Milky Way?

Figuring For Yourself

26. A radar astronomer who is new at the job claims she beamed radio waves to Jupiter and received an echo exactly 48 min later. Should you believe her? Why or why not?

27. The New Horizons probe flew past Pluto in July 2015. At the time, Pluto was about 32 AU from Earth. How long did it take for communication from the probe to reach Earth, given that the speed of light in km/hr is 1.08×10^9?

28. Estimate the maximum and minimum time it takes a radar signal to make the round trip between Earth and Venus, which has a semimajor axis of 0.72 AU.

29. The Apollo program (not the lunar missions with astronauts) being conducted at the Apache Point Observatory uses a 3.5-m telescope to direct lasers at retro-reflectors left on the Moon by the Apollo astronauts. If the Moon is 384,472 km away, approximately how long do the operators need to wait to see the laser light return to Earth?

30. In 1974, the Arecibo Radio telescope in Puerto Rico was used to transmit a signal to M13, a star cluster about 25,000 light-years away. How long will it take the message to reach M13, and how far has the message travelled so far (in light-years)?

31. Demonstrate that 1 pc equals 3.09×10^{13} km and that it also equals 3.26 light-years. Show your calculations.

32. The best parallaxes obtained with Hipparcos have an accuracy of 0.001 arcsec. If you want to measure the distance to a star with an accuracy of 10%, its parallax must be 10 times larger than the typical error. How far away can you obtain a distance that is accurate to 10% with Hipparcos data? The disk of our Galaxy is 100,000 light-years in diameter. What fraction of the diameter of the Galaxy's disk is the distance for which we can measure accurate parallaxes?

33. Astronomers are always making comparisons between measurements in astronomy and something that might be more familiar. For example, the Hipparcos web pages tell us that the measurement accuracy of 0.001 arcsec is equivalent to the angle made by a golf ball viewed from across the Atlantic Ocean, or to the angle made by the height of a person on the Moon as viewed from Earth, or to the length of growth of a human hair in 10 sec as seen from 10 meters away. Use the ideas in **Example 19.2** to verify one of the first two comparisons.

34. *Gaia* will have greatly improved precision over the measurements of Hipparcos. The average uncertainty for most *Gaia* parallaxes will be about 50 microarcsec, or 0.00005 arcsec. How many times better than Hipparcos (see **Exercise 19.32**) is this precision?

35. Using the same techniques as used in **Exercise 19.32**, how far away can *Gaia* be used to measure distances with an uncertainty of 10%? What fraction of the Galactic disk does this correspond to?

36. The human eye is capable of an angular resolution of about one arcminute, and the average distance between eyes is approximately 2 in. If you blinked and saw something move about one arcmin across, how far away from you is it? (Hint: You can use the setup in **Example 19.2** as a guide.)

37. How much better is the resolution of the *Gaia* spacecraft compared to the human eye (which can resolve about 1 arcmin)?

38. The most recently discovered system close to Earth is a pair of brown dwarfs known as Luhman 16. It has a distance of 6.5 light-years. How many parsecs is this?

39. What would the parallax of Luhman 16 (see **Exercise 19.38**) be as measured from Earth?

40. The New Horizons probe that passed by Pluto during July 2015 is one of the fastest spacecraft ever assembled. It was moving at about 14 km/s when it went by Pluto. If it maintained this speed, how long would it take New Horizons to reach the nearest star, Proxima Centauri, which is about 4.3 light-years away? (Note: It isn’t headed in that direction, but you can pretend that it is.)

41. What physical properties are different for an M giant with a luminosity of 1000 L_{Sun} and an M dwarf with a luminosity of 0.5 L_{Sun}? What physical properties are the same?