The Disk Physical Conditions of 48 Persei Constrained by Contemporaneous Hα Spectroscopy and Interferometry

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Abstract

We utilize a multi-step modeling process to produce synthetic interferometric and spectroscopic observables, which are then compared to their observed counterparts. Our extensive set of interferometric observations of the Be star 48 Per, totaling 291 data points, were obtained at the Navy Precision Optical Interferometer from 2006 November 07 to 23. Our models were further constrained by comparison with contemporaneous Hα line spectroscopy obtained at the John S. Hall Telescope at the Lowell Observatory on 2006 November 1. Theoretical spectral energy distributions, SEDs, for 48 Per were confirmed by comparison with observations over a wavelength regime of 0.4–60 μm from Touhami et al. and Vieira et al. Our best-fitting combined model from Hα spectroscopy, Hα interferometry, and SED fitting has a power-law density fall off, n, of 2.3 and an initial density at the stellar surface of ρ0 = 1.0 × 10−11 g cm−3 with an inclination constrained by Hα spectroscopy and interferometry of 45° ± 5°. The position angle for the system, measured east from north, is 114° ± 18°. Our best-fit model shows that the disk emission originates in a moderately large disk with a radius of 25 R⋆, which is consistent with a disk mass of approximately 5 × 10−3 g or 3 × 10−10 M⊙. Finally, we compare our results with previous studies of 48 Per by Quirrenbach et al. and find agreement, whereas our disk size does not agree with Delaa et al., based on a much smaller visibility set.

Key words: circumstellar matter – stars: emission-line, Be – stars: individual (48 Per) – stars: massive – stars: mass-loss – techniques: interferometric – techniques: spectroscopic

Supporting material: machine-readable table

1. Introduction

Classical Be stars are distinguished by the presence of Balmer emission lines in their spectra. As first proposed by Struve (1931), the Balmer lines are attributed to an equatorial disk of material surrounding the star (Porter & Rivinius 2003; Rivinius et al. 2013). Other defining characteristics of Be stars include linearly polarized light, infrared and radio continuum excess due to radiative processes within the disk, and rapid stellar rotation. Furthermore, these systems often exhibit variability over a range of timescales (for details, see the recent review by Rivinius et al. 2013).

The classical B-emission (Be) star 48 Per (HD 25940, HR 1273, spectral type B3V) is well studied and located at a distance of 146 pc. Slettebak (1949) originally classified this star as pole-on but the appearance of doubly peaked Hα profiles reported by Burbidge & Burbidge (1953) led Ruusalepp (1982) to suggest that it has an inclination of 34°–40°. Since then, the value of the inclination for this system has remained contentious. The reported changes in the spectral line shape and in brightness (see Tur et al. 1987 and references therein) point to periods of variability exhibited by 48 Per. However, we note that 48 Per was particularly stable over the time our observations were acquired (see the next section for more detail).

Studies by Quirrenbach et al. (1997) and Delaa et al. (2011) combined interferometry with other observables for 48 Per, such as polarimetry and spectroscopy, and their work is ideally suited to detailed comparison with the results presented here. The Quirrenbach et al. (1997) study, hereafter “Q97,” obtained interferometric observations with the Mark III Interferometer (Shao et al. 1988) as well as spectropolarimetric observations. Although Mark III has since been decommissioned, it was a predecessor to the instrument used for this study, the Navy Precision Optical Interferometer (NPOI), and the two instruments share some characteristics. 48 Per was observed with six distinct interferometric baselines resulting in a set of 46 observations in the study by Q97. Through modeling they were able to place bounds on the size and inclination of the Hα emitting region. They conclusively demonstrated, for the first time, that Be star disks could not be both geometrically and optically thick. More recently, Delaa et al. (2011) or “D11,” obtained data from the Center for High Angular Resolution Astronomy interferometer (ten Brummelaar et al. 2005) to constrain estimates for the size of the Hα emission region for 48 Per. Q97 confirm the nearly pole-on orientation found by Slettebak (1949) by determining a minimum inclination of 27°, which is also consistent with an inclination of 30° ± 10° more recently reported by D11.

The overall progression of this study is as follows; in Section 2, we detail our observational program, and Section 3 provides an overview of the code used to calculate the theoretical disk models, along with the data pipeline we developed to analyze the model and observational data. The results of this analysis are presented in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 discusses our findings along with a comparison to other work and implications.

4 Based on Hipparcos parallaxes (van Leeuwen 2007).
Table 1
Interferometric NPOI Observations

| UT Date      | Number of $V_{\theta}$ Measurements |
|--------------|------------------------------------|
| 2006 Nov 07  | 18                                 |
| 2006 Nov 08  | 18                                 |
| 2006 Nov 09  | 26                                 |
| 2006 Nov 10  | 10                                 |
| 2006 Nov 11  | 14                                 |
| 2006 Nov 14  | 1                                  |
| 2006 Nov 15  | 10                                 |
| 2006 Nov 16  | 22                                 |
| 2006 Nov 17  | 42                                 |
| 2006 Nov 18  | 24                                 |
| 2006 Nov 20  | 36                                 |
| 2006 Nov 21  | 42                                 |
| 2006 Nov 22  | 24                                 |
| 2006 Nov 23  | 4                                  |

Table 2
Interferometric Observations

| JD−2,450,000 | $u$ | $v$ | $V_{\theta}$ | Baseline
|--------------|-----|-----|--------------|----------|
|              | $10^6$ | $10^6$ | $\pm 1 \sigma$ |
| 4046.749     | 17.189 | -21.882 | 0.830 ± 0.026 | AC-AE   |
| 4046.749     | -29.224 | 0.422 | 0.846 ± 0.033 | AC-AW   |
| 4046.782     | 21.140 | -18.991 | 0.850 ± 0.062 | AC-AE   |
| 4046.782     | -30.994 | -4.121 | 0.889 ± 0.128 | AC-AW   |
| 4046.815     | 24.338 | -15.402 | 0.789 ± 0.040 | AC-AE   |

Note.

* The baselines AC-AE, AC-AW, AW-W7, AC-W7, and AE-W7 correspond to lengths of 18.9, 22.2, 29.5, 51.6, and 64.4 m, respectively.

2. Observation Program

Our observations of 48 Per were obtained at the NPOI, located near Flagstaff, AZ, USA. The NPOI has an unvignetted aperture of 35 cm with an effective aperture for the observations of 12.5 cm set by the diameter of the feed system optics. See Armstrong et al. (1998) and Hutter et al. (2016) for additional technical descriptions of this facility. Typically, observations from up to five unique baselines are obtained simultaneously; for this study, baseline lengths ranged from 18.9 to 64.4 m. A total of 291 squared visibility measurements from a 150 Å wide spectral channel containing the Hα emission line (i.e., centered at 6563 Å) of 48 Per were obtained at NPOI in the autumn of 2006. The specific dates of observation are listed in Table 1, and Table 2 provides details such as time, ($u$, $v$)-space coordinates, and baseline specifier for each individual observation. Figure 1 shows the ($u$, $v$) plane coverage based on five unique baselines, where individual observations are represented by open circles and the arcs illustrate the possible coverage from the meridian to 6° east (dotted lines) and from the meridian to 6° west (solid lines).

The squared visibilities from the Hα channel were calibrated with respect to the continuum channels following the methodology outlined in Tycner et al. (2003). This approach allows for a more effective removal of instrumental and atmospheric effects since the Hα and continuum channels are recorded simultaneously and correspond to the same direction on the sky (i.e., they come from the same source). Because the photosphere of the central star is not expected to be spatially resolved by our baselines at any significant level, the continuum channels are assumed to follow a uniform disk (UD) model with an angular diameter of 0.306 mas (based on the spectral type adopted stellar parameters, including Hipparcos distance, from Table 3). Figure 2 shows the calibrated squared visibilities from the Hα containing channel ($V_{\theta}$) for all five unique baselines as a function of radial spatial frequency, along with a UD model curve that represents the continuum channels. Although strictly speaking an external calibrator is not required to calibrate the interferometric squared visibilities from the Hα channel when the continuum channels are utilized as a calibration reference, we have utilized observations of an external reference star to correct for small higher order channel-to-channel instrumental
3. Modeling

3.1. Data Pipeline: BEDISK, BERAY, and 2DDFT

BEDISK was developed by Sigut & Jones (2007). It is a non-local thermodynamic equilibrium (non-LTE) modeling code that calculates self-consistent temperature distributions based on the corresponding density distribution and level populations within the disk (Sigut & Jones 2007). For the present study, the density structure within the circumstellar disk was described by a power law:

$$\rho(R, Z) = \rho_0 \left( \frac{R_e}{R} \right)^n \exp \left[ - \left( \frac{Z}{H} \right)^2 \right].$$

(1)

where $\rho_0$ is the density at the disk-star boundary, $Z$ is the distance from the plane of the disk measured normal to the disk and $H$ is the vertical scale height of the disk measured perpendicular to the disk. We assume that $H$ is in approximate vertical hydrostatic equilibrium with a temperature $0.6 \times T_{\text{eff}}$ of the star, see Sigut et al. (2009) for details.

The temperature and density distributions as well as level populations calculated with BEDISK are used as inputs to BERAY sequence (Sigut 2011). The BEDISK–BERAY sequence is used to obtain a model intensity image of the disk system on the plane of the sky. BERAY calculates a formal solution of the radiative transfer equation through the disk along approximately $10^4$ rays from the observer’s line of sight. The computational region extends from the photosphere to a distance (in terms of stellar radii) specified by the user. For this study, models were computed for disk sizes of 6.0, 12.5, 25.0, and 50.0 $R_e$.

Interferometric data is in the form of a series of squared visibilities ($V^2$) as a function of spatial frequency, which is itself a representation of the interferometric baseline (Thompson et al. 1986). The 2D Discrete Fourier Transform code (Sigut et al. 2015) takes the two-dimensional discrete Fourier transform of the BERAY image and produces $V^2$ as a function of spatial frequency. The code then compares the model to a set of observations supplied by the user and estimates goodness-of-fit based on a reduced $\chi^2$ test. This reduction pipeline was developed by Sigut et al. (2015) and first used to model the Be star o Aquarii. In addition to determining the density distribution within the disk, our Fourier analysis is used to calculate the system’s angular dimensions.
3.2. Model Parameters

The spectral type B3Ve was adopted for 48 Per, which is consistent across the two comparison studies of Q97 and D11, and with the Bright Star Catalog (Hoffleit & Jaschek 1982). Furthermore, this is in agreement with examples in the literature dating back over the past six decades (see, for example, Butler & Seddon 1960 or Borgman 1960). The stellar parameters for the B3Ve type were determined by linear interpolation from Cox (2000) and are provided in Table 3.

3.3. Computational Grid

The parameter space was chosen to be consistent with $n$ and $\rho_0$ values that would be expected for Be star disks based on historical predictions (Waters 1986) and on contemporary studies (see, for example, Section 5.1.3 of Rivinius et al. 2013 for a summary of recent results in the literature). As mentioned above, our models were computed for a range of disk sizes of 6.0, 12.0, 25.0, and 50.0 $R_\ast$. Other model parameters were varied as follows: $1.5 \leq n \leq 4.0$ in steps of 0.25, $1.0 \times 10^{-13} \leq \rho_0 \leq 2.5 \times 10^{-10}$ g cm$^{-3}$ in increments of 2.5 over each order of magnitude, with inclinations ranging from $20^\circ$ to $65^\circ$ in steps of $5^\circ$.

4. Results

4.1. Hα Spectroscopy

Our Hα line profile models were compared directly to the observed spectrum obtained on 2006 November 1. Our model spectra were convolved with a Gaussian of FWHM of 0.656 Å to match the resolving power of $10^4$ of the observed spectra. For each comparison, the percentage difference between the observed line and model prediction were averaged over the line from 6555 to 6570 Å to determine figure-of-merit value, $F_i$, computed by

$$F_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i w_i \left| \frac{F_{i,\text{obs}} - F_{i,\text{mod}}}{F_{i,\text{obs}}} \right|,$$

with

$$w_i = \left| \frac{F_{i,\text{obs}}}{F_{i,\text{mod}}} - 1 \right|,$$

where the sum is over all of the points in the line. $F_{i,\text{obs}}$ and $F_{i,\text{mod}}$ are the observed flux and the model flux, respectively. $F_{i,\text{obs}}$ is the observed continuum flux. Equation (3) emphasizes the fit in the core and peak of the line while minimizing differences in the wings. Finally, $F_i$ was normalized by the best fit, i.e., $F_i/F_{\text{min}}$, so that in our analysis the model best fit has a value of 1. This technique of matching the core of the line was found to be useful in a previous study for o Aquarii (Sigut et al. 2015). Overall, our model spectra were too weak in the wings similar to the results of D11 and Sigut et al. (2015). Figure 3 shows the four best-fitting spectra within 20% of the best-fitting model along with the observed line. The density parameters for each model are listed in the legend in the upper right of the figure along with the value of $F_i$. The parameters in brackets in the legend correspond to $\rho_0$ in g cm$^{-3}$, $n$, disk size on the sky, the position angle of the system, the disk mass, and corresponding angular momentum.

Figure 4. Model inclination distribution from Hα spectroscopy vs. $F/F_{\text{min}}$. The legend in the lower left shows the range of $n$ values corresponding to models for $F/F_{\text{min}} \leq 2$. The horizontal dotted lines correspond to the inclination $\pm 1\sigma$ obtained from Gaussian disk GD, fits to the interferometric data.
The lower limit of this range is consistent with the lower limit obtained by Q97 and the result of D11. Note that all of our spectroscopic best-fitting models with $F/F_{\text{min}} \leq 2.0$ shown in Figure 4 corresponded to models computed with a disk size of 50 $R_\star$.

4.2. H$\alpha$ Interferometry

The image file outputs from BERAY were fed into 2DDFT to obtain models of $V^2$ against spatial frequency, which were then compared directly to data obtained from interferometry by a reduced $\chi^2$ calculation. The results of the best fit to $V^2$ data, $(n, \rho_0, i) = 3.0, 1.0 \times 10^{-10}$ g cm$^{-3}$, 45°, are shown in Figure 5. The model $V^2$ symbols are plotted as green circles (177 points), red triangles (44 points), and blue plus signs (70 points). The colors represent the degree of agreement between the model and observations. The green points match the observed $V^2$ within the errors, and the red and blue symbols represent model predictions that are too low and too high, respectively. The best-fit model has a reduced $\chi^2$ of 1.45 and a position angle of 135°.

In order to assess our model predictions, we compared our predicted BERAY visibilities (shown in Figure 5) with our best-fitting model obtained by our interferometry analysis. In Figure 6, the visibilities are plotted as a function of the spatial frequency for the same best-fit model shown in Figure 5. The observed data are shown in black with the model in red. The dashed line corresponds to the star of a UD of 0.306 mas. The residuals between the model and the data are shown in the bottom panel and demonstrate that our model visibilities fit the observations within ±1σ.

Figure 7 shows the PA for our models that correspond to $\chi^2/\nu \leq 5$. Horizontal lines correspond to the mean PA (114°, solid blue line) and the mean ±1σ (18°, blue dotted lines) obtained from all model fits to the interferometry with $\chi^2/\nu \leq 3$.

4.3. $V^2$ Geometric Fits

It is also interesting to compare the size the H$\alpha$ emitting region and position angle of our models with geometric fits to the interferometry data. We note that geometric fits use simple functions but no physics to determine some basic physical
This study 5.70 ± 0.11 0.69 ± 0.02 119 ± 3 0.876 ± 0.002 1.480 291
D11 3.4 ± 0.2 0.77 ± 0.06 110 ± 19 ... 0.56 3

Table 5
Elliptical Gaussian Disk Geometric Fits Based on Hα V2 Data

| Study           | Major Axis (mas) | Axis Ratio | Position Angle (degrees) | \( c_\phi \) (Stellar Contribution) | \( \chi^2/\nu \) | \( N \) (Number of Data) |
|-----------------|------------------|------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| This study      | 3.24 ± 0.08      | 0.71 ± 0.03| 122 ± 3                  | 0.855 ± 0.003                      | 1.456           | 291               |
| Q97 Modified Fit| 2.77 ± 0.56      | 0.89 ± 0.13| 68                      | 0.27*                              | ...             | 46                |
| D11 result      | 2.1 ± 0.2        | 0.76 ± 0.05| 115 ± 33                | ...                                | 0.62            | 3                 |

Note.  
* Not a fitted parameter: Q97 indicates the value is 0.27. The value is based on expected photon counts in 1 nm wide channel based on a star with the same V magnitude. For a wider spectral channel this value is expected to be closer to unity.

characteristics of the disk. Here we follow the technique described in Sigut et al. (2015) as developed by Tycner et al. (2006b). Geometric fits were also computed by D11 and Q97 for 48 Per so we include a comparison with their work as well. Tables 4 and 5 compare the results of geometric fits to the visibilities using UD and GD fits, respectively. These tables also provide the axis ratios of the minor axis to major axis, the position angle of the major axis of the disk on the sky with respect to north, the fractional contribution from the photosphere of the central star to the Hα containing interferometric signal, \( c_\phi \), the reduced \( \chi^2 \) and the number of data points (\( N \)) used to obtain each result. The reader is referred to Sigut et al. (2015) and references therein for more details about our geometric models.

Table 4 shows good agreement with D11 for the axis ratio and position angle for the UD fits, however, we obtain a larger major axis than D11. There may be several reasons for this discrepancy. The fitting procedure is slightly different in each study with D11 determining the disk parameters by removing the stellar contribution. More significantly, we note that we have a substantially larger set of interferometry data consisting of 291 points providing a greater sky coverage in the \((u,v)\) plane (see Figure 1). Table 1 and Figure 1 in D11 shows the details of their observations and \((u,v)\) plane coverage which is much less extensive compared to our data set. Q97 also fit their data for 48 Per with a UD and a ring-like model but the specific details about these geometric fits are not provided in their paper because they resulted in larger \( \chi^2 \) than their GD fits. However, they mention that these models were not significantly different from the results for their GD models shown in Table 5.

A comparison of the results for the UD fits are presented in Table 5 and show good agreement with the major axis between Q97 and this study. D11 obtained a smaller major axis than we obtain, however D11’s result does agree with Q97 within the errors. The axis ratios point to a disk that is not viewed at large inclination angle that would result in large deviations from circular symmetry. There is agreement in the PA obtained except for the modified model (that takes the contribution of the star into account) by Q97 which gives a PA about half the other values presented in Table 5. We also note that our definition of \( c_\phi \) is the same as \( c_\phi \) used by Q97, however since the filters (or spectral channels) have different widths, the values are different. Having said that, Q97 used a 1 nm wide filter and did not fit for the parameter \( c_\phi \), but instead determined the value of this parameter based on photometric counts and the expected values based on the V and \((B − V)\) index.

Our UD and GD fits to interferometry listed in Tables 4 and 5 give predicted axis ratios of 0.69 ± 0.02 and 0.71 ± 0.03, respectively. If we assume an infinitely thin disk, these ratios translate into inclination angles of \( \sim 46^\circ \), nearly identical to our inclination of 45° ± 5° from spectroscopy. Recall the horizontal dotted lines on Figure 4 corresponding to the inclination \( ±1\sigma \) obtained from GD fits, plotted for convenience, with a range of predicted inclinations for \( F / F_{\text{min}} \leq 2 \) from our spectroscopic analysis. Clearly there is strong agreement for 48 Per’s inclination obtained from geometric fits and our emission-line modeling.

A comparison of Tables 4 and 5 reveals that the major axis for the UD fits are always larger than the GD fits for each respective study. As a minor point of clarification, this is expected because the UD fits represent the major axis as the largest extent of the disk projected on the plane of the sky but for the GD fit, the size is defined by the FWHM of a Gaussian distribution that only contains 76% of the light.

Finally, we note that the best-fit elliptical Gaussian fit from our interferometry, shown in Figure 2, gives a PA of 121° ± 3° in good agreement with our PA model results shown in Figure 7 for our models with \( \chi^2/\nu \leq 3.0 \) with a PA of 114° ± 18°.

4.4. Spectral Energy Distributions

Spectral energy distributions, SEDs, were also computed with BERAY for wavelengths between 0.4 and 60 \( \mu m \) for comparison to the reported observations of Touhami et al. (2010; optical and near-IR) and Vieira et al. (2017) (IR). The model SEDs were computed for the same range of density parameters and disk sizes as described in Section 3.3. The observed fluxes were dereddened for an \( E(B − V) = 0.19 \) (Dougherty et al. 1994) following the extinction curve of Fitzpatrick (1999) assuming a standard \( R_V \) of 3.1. This is a relatively large amount of reddening for a nearby star like 48 Per; however, it is close to the galactic plane with a galactic latitude of just \( b = −3^\circ 05 \). We note, however, that the reddening is negligible for wavelengths greater than about...
10 μm. Using the best-fit models from Hα and V^2, we found that the circumstellar contribution in the visual band to the reddening is negligible and therefore the E(B − V) must be completely of interstellar origin.

Figure 8 shows the best-fit model corresponding to a χ^2/ν = 0.46 with parameters (ρ_0, n, R_{disk}, i) = 2.5 × 10^{-11} g cm^{-3}, 3.0, 25 R_*, and i = 50°. We adopted an absolute error of ±0.02 in the log for the fluxes of Touhami et al. (2010) and used the reported errors of Vieira et al. (2017) for the longer wavelengths. A second model computed with parameters simulating an essentially disk-less system, is also shown, illustrating the underlying stellar continuum and the magnitude of the IR excess due to the disk. The best-fit SED shown in Figure 8 has a slightly steeper power-law index compared to the Hα fit, though it is consistent with power law of the best-fit model to the interferometric visibilities. However, there are a number of additional models with χ^2/ν of the order of unity, and this point is further discussed in the next section. Finally, while the inclination of i = 50° corresponding to best-fit model SED is consistent with the previous Hα and V^2 fits, we note that the SED is a poor constraint on disk inclination at infrared wavelengths (Waters et al. 1987).

### 4.5. Combined Results from Spectroscopy, Interferometry, and SED Fits

Table 6 summarizes our model best-fit results based on Hα spectroscopy, Hα interferometry, and SED fits. We note that the best models from spectroscopy, interferometry, and SED fitting are reasonably consistent. Hα spectroscopy and Hα interferometry are consistently best fit with models of a disk size of 50 R_*, while the best-fit SED corresponds to a disk size of 25 R_*. Although we note that the set of best-fitting SEDs corresponding to χ^2/ν ≤ 1 span a range of disk sizes from 6 to 50 R_*. Figure 9 summarizes the best-fitting models for Hα spectroscopy, Hα interferometric V^2, and SED fitting. The solid ellipses and filled symbols represent models within 20% of the best fit from the Hα line profile (red ellipses, triangles) and Hα interferometric V^2 (blue ellipses, squares) and for χ^2/ν ≤ 1 from the SED fitting (black ellipses, diamonds). The dotted ellipses and unfilled symbols, using the same colors and symbols for each diagnostic as before, represent models within 50% of the best fit from the Hα line profile and Hα interferometric V^2 and for χ^2/ν ≤ 1.4 from the SED fitting and demonstrate the robustness of our fitting procedure.

Some of the symbols presented on Figure 9 represent more than one model since the same value of ρ_0 and n may have been selected with different inclination and R_{disk}. For the Hα spectroscopy, there are four models within 20%. The parameters corresponding to these models are shown in Figure 3. For the Hα interferometry, there are 16 models within 20% corresponding to χ^2/ν from 1.45 to 1.74. These 16 models have an average n = 2.8 ± 0.3, ρ_0 = (6.7 ± 3.7) × 10^{-11} g cm^{-3}, and inclination of 38° ± 13°. There are five models corresponding to χ^2/ν ≤ 1 from the SED fitting. These models have a range of n from 2.0 to 3.0, while ρ_0 ranges from 7.5 × 10^{-12} g cm^{-3} to 2.5 × 10^{-11} g cm^{-3}. As mentioned above, these models span a range of R_{disk} sizes and interestingly all have an inclination of 50° with the exception of one model with an inclination of 30°. We emphasize as

Table 6

| Fit          | n      | ρ_0 (g cm^{-3}) | i (degrees) |
|--------------|--------|-----------------|-------------|
| Hα Profile   | 2.0    | 5.0 × 10^{-12}  | 45 ± 5      |
| V^2          | 3.0    | 1.0 × 10^{-10}  | 45 ± 10     |
| SED          | 3.0    | 2.5 × 10^{-11}  | (50°)       |

Note.

* The inclination is not well constrained by the SED.

Figure 8. Model SEDs for 48 Per compared with fluxes (red circles) reported by Touhami et al. (2010) (λ < 3 μm) and Vieira et al. (2017) (λ > 3 μm). The best-fit model SED with χ^2/ν = 0.46 is shown as the solid blue line, and an essentially disk-less model representing the stellar continuum is shown by the dashed red line. The parameters used for each model SED (ρ_0, n, R_{disk}, i) are given in the legend.

Figure 9. Summary of the best-fitting disk density parameters, n and ρ_0, for 48 Per. The solid red ellipse encloses the models that fit the Hα line profile within 20% of the best fit (filled triangles), whereas the dotted red ellipse encloses the models that fit within 50% (open triangles). The blue ellipse encloses models that fit the interferometric V^2 within 20% of the best fit (solid squares, all with χ^2/ν < 1.8), while the dotted ellipse encloses the models that fit within 50% (open squares with χ^2/ν < 2.2). The solid black ellipse encloses models that fit the optical/IR SED with χ^2/ν < 1, whereas the dotted ellipse encloses the models with χ^2/ν < 1.4. The overlap region suggests that a model with n = 2.3 and log(ρ_0) = −11.0 (indicated by the dotted black lines) is the one most consistent with all three diagnostics.
discussed in Section 4.4 that the SED is not a good constraint on inclination. The dashed lines in Figure 9 show the model \(n = 2.3\) and \(\log \rho_0 = -11.0\) corresponding to the intersection of the \(H\alpha\) spectroscopy, \(H\alpha\) visibilities and optical/IR SED fitting that is most consistent with these three observational data sets. As discussed above, the model fits the \(H\alpha\) spectroscopy and interferometry corresponded to disk sizes of \(50 R_\ast\). By using the disk density parameters of Figure 9 most consistent with all three diagnostics, an \(i = 0\) (face on) image of this disk was computed with BERRY to find the outer radius of the disk that encloses 90% of the (integrated) \(H\alpha\) disk light, following Sigut et al. (2015), which we denote as \(R_{90}\). We find for this model, \(R_{90}/R_\ast = 25\). At large distances from the central star, the \(H\alpha\) emission tends to originate from an increasingly diffuse disk. Therefore, we chose to integrate until 90% of the \(H\alpha\) flux is contained within the disk. Our best-fit model with \(n = 2.3\) and \(\log \rho_0 = -11.0\), corresponding to spectroscopy, the visibilities and SED fitting as shown by the dashed lines in Figure 9 gives us \(R_{90}/R_\ast\) of 25, where \(R_{90}\) represents the radial distance corresponding to 90% of the \(H\alpha\) emission. We note that this calculation includes more of the \(H\alpha\) flux compared to what is enclosed within the extent of the major axis of the geometric GD (defined as the FWHM of the Gaussian) listed in Table 5. This integrated disk size corresponds to a mass for the \(H\alpha\) emitting region of \(5 \times 10^{24} \text{g}\) or \(3 \times 10^{-10} M_\odot\). We note that this is likely a lower limit to the disk mass in the \(H\alpha\) emitting region since, as mentioned above, our models produce \(H\alpha\) spectra that are too weak in the wings.

Finally, following the prescription in Sigut et al. (2015), we use our disk mass to determine the angular momentum, \(J_{\text{disk}}\), in the disk compared to the central star’s momentum, \(J_\star\). We determined the critical velocity consistent with the stellar parameters listed in Table 3 and assuming 80% critical rotation this gives an equatorial velocity of \(360 \text{km s}^{-1}\) for this calculation. For the model corresponding to the best fit from all three diagnostics, with a disk mass of \(5 \times 10^{24} \text{g}\) or \(3 \times 10^{-10} M_\odot\), we obtain a value for \(J_{\text{disk}}/J_\star\) of \(4 \times 10^{-8}\).

5. Discussion and Summary

Our best-fit models corresponding to our \(H\alpha\) spectroscopy, interferometry, and SED fits are summarized in Table 6. Figure 9 is a graphical representation of the best-fitting regions corresponding to the constraints based on different observational data sets. Table 6 and Figure 9 show that 48 Per has a moderately dense disk with values of \(n \sim 2-3\) and \(\log \rho_0 \sim -11.7\) to \(-9.6\) or \(\rho_0 \sim 2.0 \times 10^{-12}\) to \(2.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{g cm}^{-3}\). The radial extent with all of the best-fitting models for the \(H\alpha\) and \(V^2\) fits correspond to the largest disks \((50 R_\ast)\) in our grid. The model fits for smaller disk sizes in our computational grid resulted in poorer fits for the \(H\alpha\) spectroscopy and \(V^2\). The combined results from all three diagnostics overlap for a model with \(n = 2.3\) and \(\rho_0 = 1.0 \times 10^{-11} \text{g cm}^{-3}\) corresponding to the dashed lines in Figure 9.

From spectroscopic analysis, there are four models within 20% of the \(F_\alpha/F_{\text{min}}\) value, and 16 models within 20% with \(\chi^2/\nu\) ranging from 1.45 to 1.74 corresponding to the visibilities. These models point to a disk inclination of \(45^\circ \pm 5^\circ\). From the SED fitting there are five models with \(\chi^2/\nu \leq 1\). These models span a range of \(i \sim 30^\circ\)–\(50^\circ\). This is consistent with early studies on Be star disks using infrared continuum measurements that demonstrated, especially for low to moderate inclinations, that viewing angle is not well constrained by these measurements (Waters et al. 1987).

As discussed in Section 4, our model spectral lines were too weak in the wings. Therefore, for line fitting purposes, we used a core-weighted formula for our figure of merit, \(F\), which places more emphasis on the central portion of the line (recall Figure 3). D11 also found that it was not possible to fit the broad wings in the \(H\alpha\) line for 48 Per. They adopted an ad hoc scheme to account for non-coherent electron scattering, a process that redistributes absorbed line photons resulting in broader lines. This process has been well studied in the literature (see, for example, Poeckert & Marlborough 1979 for a detailed treatment) but it is difficult to properly account for because the frequency-dependent mean intensity in the \(H\alpha\) line would need to be known accurately at each position. The fact that our models were weak in the wings may also be due to this process. Alternatively, the poorer fit in the wings could also be due to the fact that a single value of \(n\) for each model was adopted for this study. Finally, as briefly discussed in Section 4.5, we calculated the critical velocity of the star directly from the stellar parameters listed in Table 3. If the stellar parameters resulted in an under-estimate of the disk rotation, then potentially this could contribute to the fact that our model spectra were too narrow in the wings.

As reported above in Section 4 the best-fitting models for \(H\alpha\) spectroscopy and interferometry from our grid corresponded to \(50 R_\ast\). However, as previously discussed, by taking our best-fit model with parameters \(n = 2.3\) and \(\log \rho_0 = -11.0\), obtained from interferometry, spectroscopy, and SED fitting (see the dashed line on Figure 9), we calculated a better approximation for the radial extent of the \(H\alpha\) emitting region of \(R_{90}/R_\ast = 25\). As mentioned in Section 4.5, this model dependent calculation includes more \(H\alpha\) flux than a geometric fit would contain. Consequently, the calculated disk size is correspondingly bigger than some results in the literature. Other studies have determined the radial extent of the \(H\alpha\) emitting region for Be stars. For example, using \(H\alpha\) spectroscopy, Hanuschik (1986) find the emitting regions of 20 \(R_\ast\) for 24 bright Be stars, Slettebak et al. (1992) determine sizes of 7–19 for a sample of 41 Be stars, and more recently Arcos et al. (2017) find a concentration of disk sizes of 5–20 \(R_\ast\). Size estimates based on interferometric GD models encompassing 76% of a star’s brightness at FWHM for \(H\alpha\) emitting regions for 12 Be stars are shown in Rivinius et al. (2013). Estimated radii range from 3.24 \(R_\ast\) for \(\beta\) CMi (Tycner et al. 2005) to 16.36 \(R_\ast\) for \(\psi\) Per (D11). Our model result of 25 \(R_\ast\) is greater, as expected, than some of the sample averages presented above but is in general agreement with other results in the literature.

Finally, based on our estimated size of the emitting region of 48 Per, we determine the mass and angular momentum content of the disk. For the model corresponding to the best fit from all three diagnostics, we obtain a disk mass of \(5 \times 10^{24} \text{g}\) or \(3 \times 10^{-10} M_\odot\) and \(J_{\text{disk}}/J_\star\) of \(4 \times 10^{-8}\). This value for the disk mass represents a lower limit since our models were too weak in the wings but is in reasonable agreement with the result presented by Stee (2003) for 48 Per of \(11.2 \times 10^{-10} M_\odot\), or \(2.23 \times 10^{24} \text{g}\). Using a similar technique as the work presented here, Sigut et al. (2015), found the mass and angular momentum of the disk of the late spectral type Be star, \(\sigma\) Aqr, of \(1.8 \times 10^{-10} M_\odot\) and \(1.6 \times 10^{-8} J_\star\), respectively.
Jones et al. (2011) analyzed variability in the Hα equivalent widths for a sample of 49 Be stars. They determined that over the time frame of their study, which overlaps our observations, 48 Per was remarkably stable. Given the apparent stability of this system, it is interesting to compare our best-fit values of $n = 2.3$ and $\log \rho_0$ of $-11.0$ with other values presented in the literature. Waters et al. (1987) modeled 48 Per using a power-law fall-off for the density distribution constrained with data from the Infrared Astronomical Satellite (IRAS). Their model is described in terms of an opening angle and stellar parameters are slightly different from our work, but the results are similar. Waters et al. (1987) obtain an $n$ of 2.5 and a range of $\log \rho_0$ of $-11.8$ to $-11.5$. Vieira et al. (2015) studied the continuum emission of this system using the pseudo-photosphere model and obtained an $n$ of 2.5 and $\log \rho_0$ of $\sim -11.48$. Most recently, Vieira et al. (2017) used IRAS, Japanese Aerospace infrared satellite (AKARI), and Wide-field Infrared Survey Explorer (WISE) observations to constrain their viscous decretion disk model. Vieira et al. (2017) find $n$ of 2.9, 2.8, and 2.7 and $\log \rho_0$ of $-11.4$, $-11.4$, and $-11.5$, using IRAS, AKARI, and WISE data, respectively. Despite the differences in the models and adopted stellar parameters, the values obtained for 48 Per with Waters et al. (1987) and Vieira et al. (2015, 2017) are remarkably similar. Vieira et al. (2017) report that $n \leq 3.0$ indicates a dissipating disk. During the time of our observations, the 48 Per is quite stable. However, Vieira et al. (2017) mention that disk dissipation seems to occur over much longer timescales, so it would be interesting to follow this system over a more extended time frame. In the future, we plan to extend our modeling technique to include a two-component power law for the density parameter, $n$, to account for changes in disk density with radial distance from the star.

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