

SCI 238 — Introduction to Astronomy

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Winter 2015

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1 Chapter 1 – Our Place in the Universe

1.1 Overview

A naive look at the sky, which seems to rotate around us, implies we live in a **geocentric** Universe, ie. that everything orbits around the Earth. We know now that this is untrue, but the path to this knowledge was a long one.

We can refer to our place in the Universe as our **cosmic address**, this is our **solar system**; which consists of the Sun and all objects that orbit it including rocky **asteroids** and icy **comets**. Our solar system, and all the stars we can see, make up a small portion of the **Milky Way** galaxy.

A **galaxy** is an island of stars in space containing anywhere between a few hundred million to trillions of stars. The Milky Way is a relatively large one, with 100 billion stars. We are located about halfway from the center of the Milky Way (the **galactic center**) to the edge of the **galactic disk**.

In summary: the Earth is a planet in the solar system, which is a collection of objects orbiting a star, which is in the milky way galaxy, which is a part of the **local group** of galaxies, which is part of the **local supercluster** of groups, which is somewhere in the **Universe**.

The local group contains about 40 galaxies, and is one of what we call **galactic clusters** – groups of galaxies with more than a few members. Superclusters are essentially clusters of galactic clusters, as the Universe seems to be arranged in giant chains and sheets with large divides between them. The local group is on the edge of the local supercluster.

1.2 The Big Bang and the Expanding Universe

We have observed that the Universe seems to be *expanding*, that is, the distance between galaxies is increasing. By extrapolating backwards, we imagine that all matter must have existed at the same point in the past and exploded outward in a **Big Bang**. Based on the rate of expansion, we believe this happened approximately 14 billion years ago.

Note that though the distance between galaxies is increasing, the distances between objects within galaxies is *not*.

Most galaxies, including our own, formed within a few billion years of the Big Bang.

1.3 The Birth of Stars

A star is **born** when gravity compresses the material in a cloud of gas and dust until it is dense and hot enough to generate energy through **nuclear fusion**. The star lives so long as it has useable material to fuel its fusion and dies once it runs out.

A star **dies** by blowing much of its remaining content back into space in a **supernova**. This matter eventually becomes new stars and planets.

1.4 Modelling the Universe

1.4.1 Distance

We can imagine our solar system shrunk down to a manageable size. On the **Voyage** scale (a model solar system in Washington, D.C. where sizes are one billionth of the actual size), the Sun is roughly the size of a grapefruit, Jupiter the size of a marble, Earth the size of a pinhead. Obviously the Sun is far larger than any planet, in fact, it has more than 1000 times as much mass as all the planets in our system combined. Note that the planets also vary in size to a large extent: the “permanent” storm on Jupiter known as the **Giant Red Spot** is larger than the Earth.

We can also use this model to describe the distances between objects. On the same scale, the Earth is 15m from the Sun and the distance from the Sun to Pluto is 600m. To have enough space for the orbit of each object in the system, we would need a grid of 300 football fields centered around the Sun.

The closest star (Alpha Centauri) is incredibly far away, on this scale it would be the difference between Washington, D.C. and California.

If we reduce this scale by another factor of one billion, we can start thinking about the size of the galaxy. On this scale, each light year is roughly a millimeter and the Milky Way is about the size of a football field. The distance between our star system and Alpha Centauri is smaller than the width of our pinky.

1.4.2 Time

We can also model the time between events by creating a **cosmic calendar**. If we set the Big Bang as January 1st and the present day as December 31st, we can place each major event on specific days. By the age of the universe, each month represents just over a billion years.

On this scale, the Milky Way was formed sometime in February. Our solar system, though, was only formed in September – life on Earth flourished by the end of that month. Recognizable animals only appeared in mid-December. Dinosaurs first appeared the day after Christmas and died off yesterday. Around 9PM today, early hominids began to walk upright.

The entire history of human civilization, then, occurred in the last half-minute of January 31st. The Egyptians built the pyramids in 11 seconds, Galileo proved the Earth orbited the Sun one second ago, and the average college student was born 0.05 seconds ago.

1.5 Motion of the Universe

The Earth has a daily rotation (its **spin**) and a yearly **orbit** (or **revolution**) around the Sun.

The Earth rotates each day around its **axis**, the imaginary line from the North to the South pole. It rotates from West to East – counter-clockwise when viewed from above the North pole. The speed is substantial; anywhere other than near the axes, an object whirls around the Earth at a speed greater than 1000km/h.

The Earth's average orbital distance is one **Astronomical Unit** (AU), which is approximately 150 million kilometers. At times, we race around the Sun in excess of one hundred thousand kilometers per hour.

Earth's orbital path defines the **elliptic plane**, and its axis is tilted by 23.5 degrees from a line perpendicular to this plane. The **axis tilt** happens to align our north pole with Polaris, the North Star.

Note that the Earth orbits the Sun in the same direction as it spins around its axis since it was formed from a spinning disk and both of these rotations are a remnant of this.

We also move relative to nearby stars at a rate of 70,000 kilometers per hour. We rotate around the Milky Way's galactic center once every 230 million years, which implies speeds of (on average) 800,000 kilometers per hour.

1.6 Dark Matter and Dark Energy

Since stars at different distance from the galactic center orbit at different speeds, we can learn how mass is distributed in the galaxy by measuring the differing speeds. Studies show that the mass of the stars in the galactic disk form only a small percentage of the total mass of the galaxy. Most of the galactic mass, then, seems to be located outside of the visible disk in the galaxy's **halo**. We call this mass **dark matter**, since we have not observed light being emitted from it. Similarly, we find that the bulk of the energy in the universe is **dark energy**. This seems to be the case in all observable galaxies.

1.7 Relative Galactic Movements

Within the local group, some galaxies move toward us and some move away. Outside of the local group, though, this changes; virtually every galaxy outside of the local group seems to be racing away from us at a speed proportional to its distance from us. This is the basis of our theory that of an **expanding universe**: that the space between galaxies is increasing.

Note that we observe this motion by measuring **Doppler shifts**, as detecting any difference in celestial position within our lifetimes is impossible.

2 Chapter 2 – Discovering the Universe

2.1 The Motion of the Stars

Stars appear to move across the sky from east to west. This is not, as the ancients believed, because everything revolves around the Earth, but because the Earth is rotating. This rotation is not perfect though, because the Earth is tilted.

Some stars (those near the celestial north pole) do not rise or set; they remain above the horizon and make daily counter-clockwise circles around the pole. These stars are called **circumpolar**

stars. Other stars (those near the celestial south pole) never rise at all. All other stars appear to rise and set each day.

2.2 Constellations

Although we have a colloquial definition of constellations, astronomers more precisely declare **constellations** to be regions of the sky with well-defined borders. The patterns of stars which “form” constellations simply help us to locate them.

There are 88 official constellations which cover the night sky, as determined by a 1928 summit including members of the International Astronomical Union. Every part of the sky is located within one of these constellations.

Though the stars are very far away, the ancient Greeks believed they were all “painted” on a **celestial sphere** centered around the Earth. We use this today to help us map out space:

- the **north celestial pole** is directly above the north pole, and
- the **south celestial pole** is directly above the south pole, and
- the **celestial equator** mirrors the real equator, and
- the **ecliptic** is the path the Sun takes as it appears to circle around the celestial sphere yearly. It crosses the celestial equator at a 23.5 degree angle

The **Milky Way** traces a complete circle around the celestial sphere, moving through many constellations. It is almost, but not quite, representative of the Milky Way *Galaxy*: it traces our galaxy’s disk of stars as it appears from our location in the outskirts of the galaxy. The Milky Way appears somewhat wider as we look through Sagittarius since this is the direction of the galactic center.

Note that when looking above you at the **local sky**, you can (obviously) only see one hemisphere of the celestial sphere at a time. We define the Earth-sky boundary as the **horizon**, the point directly overhead as the **zenith**, and an imaginary semi-circle passing along the sphere from due north to due south through the zenith as the **meridian**.

We can locate any object by its direction along the horizon and its altitude above the horizon. We also sometimes use the **azimuth** – the angular distance clockwise from due north.

We can define the **angular size** of an object as the angle it appears to span within our field of view. Since this depends on distance, it does not give us a clear idea of an object’s true size; for example, the angular size of both the Sun and the Moon is half a degree despite the Sun being about 400 times larger (since the Sun is 400 times farther away).

The **angular distance** between two objects is the number of degrees which appears to separate them. The distance between the pointer stars in the big dipper is roughly 5 degrees. We further divide each degree into 60 **arcminutes** – and then each of those into 60 **arcseconds** – for precision.

2.2.1 Variance

Constellations vary with both our north-south location on Earth as well as the time of year.

Latitude affects the constellations by changing the locations of the horizon and zenith of our local sky. In effect, by moving to the north or south we can change which portion of the celestial sphere is visible. We can also use this effect to prove that *the altitude of the celestial pole in your sky is equal to your latitude*.

The constellations vary over the course of the year due to Earth's changing position around the Sun. As we orbit, the Sun appears to move across the ecliptic such that different stars are behind it at different times of the year. The constellations along this ecliptic make up the **zodiac**, the thirteen most widely known constellations (traditionally, there are twelve zodiacs; however, Ophiuchus is also present in the ecliptic).

2.3 Seasons

The seasons are caused by the tilt of the Earth's axis. In effect, the axis remains pointing at a specific direction in space at all times. This, of course, means it is pointing at different points relative to the Sun throughout the year. The Northern Hemisphere is tipped toward the sun in their summer (June), and vice-versa. This causes the Sun's rays to hit the "closer" hemisphere for a longer time each day during their summer, as well as concentrating its rays, thus making it warmer.

Note that the common assumption is the summer occurs when the Earth is closer to the Sun than it is during winter. This is incorrect; in fact, the orbital distance between the Earth and the Sun *does* vary, but only by approximately 3%. This difference does not cause noticeable temperature changes.

2.3.1 Solstices

We mark the special celestial events each year as the **solstices** and **equinoxes**:

- the **summer (June) solstice** occurs around June 21st. It is the moment in which the Northern Hemisphere is tipped most directly toward the Sun.
- the **winter solstice** occurs around December 21st and is precisely the opposite of the summer solstice.
- the **spring equinox** occurs around March 21st and is the moment at which the Northern Hemisphere switches from being slightly tipped away from the Sun to slightly toward the Sun.
- the **fall equinox** occurs around September 22nd and is precisely the opposite of the spring equinox.

The exact dates vary each year by no more than a few days in either direction. In fact, our leap year system is designed precisely to ensure this is true.

The equinoxes are the only days of the year in which the Sun rises and sets exactly due East and West, as well as being the only days in which an equal amount of sunlight falls on both Hemispheres. The Sun rises and sets farther to the North on the Summer solstice side of the equinoxes, and farther South on the Winter solstice side.

We usually consider the solstices and equinoxes as the first day of the new season, despite the summer solstice, for example, being the longest day of the year – ie. the midpoint of summer? This is generally due to weather patterns; the solstices and equinoxes match the beginning of the new season’s weather patterns. We also find that it takes some time to match the temperature of the Earth to the Sun’s location, thus making us feel a lag behind what the Sun implies our temperature should be.

Note that the solstices are named opposite to the seasons in the Southern Hemisphere. For the equator, we find that the rainy seasons occur at the equinoxes and the dry seasons occur at the solstices.

2.4 Precession

Precession is a slow wobble of the Earth’s tilt which affects our orientation in space. Each precession cycle takes approximately 26,000 years and slowly changes where our poles point to in space. Today, our axis points toward Polaris, which we call the North Star. In approximately 13,000 years, Vega will be in this location (ie. a bright star very near the pole’s zenith). Most of the time, there is no North Star.

Precession, though, does not change the amount of tilt we have relative to the ecliptic; we always have a 23.5 degree tilt, and so our seasons are not affected by precession.

Precession is caused by the effect of gravity on a rotating object which is not a perfect sphere. For the Earth, precession is caused by the competing effects of gravity from the Sun and the Moon attempting to “straighten out” our bulging equator.





2.5 The Moon

The Moon orbits the Earth once every $27.\bar{3}$ days. We can see that the Moon appears to move across the sky at half a degree (it’s angular size) per hour. As it moves across the sky, its appearance and rising / setting times change according to its **lunar phase**, which is based on its position relative to the Sun as it orbits the Earth.

The change of appearance is based on the direction the Sun casts its light from. When the Moon, Earth, and Sun form a right-angle, the Sun casts its light in such a way that only half of the Moon is illuminated from the Earth’s perspective. The lunar cycle takes 29.5 days to complete.

The Moon appears to fill in illumination starting from the right, then lose illumination from the same direction. We refer to completely dark Moons as **New Moons** and completely illuminated ones as **Full Moons**. **Crescent Moons** and **Gibbous Moons** (barely illuminated and almost fully illuminated, respectively) are referred to as **waxing** or **waning** depending on whether it is between a New Moon and a Full Moon or vice-versa. Half-illuminated Moons are referred to as the **First and Third Quarter Moons**.

Moon Phases & Time of Day

Moon Phase	Name	Direction (From Sun)	Rising (Eastern Sky)	Meridian (Highest point)	Setting (Western Sky)
	New	0° away (in front)	6 AM	12 PM	6 PM
	First Quarter	90° East (6 hrs behind)	12 PM	6 PM	12 AM
	Full	180° away (opposite)	6 PM	12 AM	6 AM
	Third Quarter	90° West (6 hrs ahead)	12 AM	6 AM	12 PM

2.5.1 Eclipses

Eclipses occur when the Sun, Moon, and Earth are aligned. A **lunar eclipse** occurs when the Earth lies between the other two, such that the Earth's shadow falls on and blacks out the Moon. A **solar eclipse** occurs when the Moon lies between the Sun and the Earth, so that the Moon block's our view of the Sun (ie. its shadow falls on us).

Since the Moon's orbit is slightly (5 degrees) inclined, eclipses do not happen each month. Eclipses, then, only occur when the Moon passes through the ecliptic; the two locations in which it does are referred to as the **nodes** of its orbit. These times are called **eclipse seasons**, and occur twice per year.

A lunar eclipse occurs when a full moon occurs near a node, a solar eclipse occurs when a new moon occurs near a node.

Since the Moon's shadow has both an **umbra** – the central area which completely blocks sunlight – and a **penumbra** – which only partially blocks sunlight – these eclipse can look extremely different. If the three objects line up perfectly, we can have a **total lunar eclipse**, in which the Moon is completely blocked during the period of **totality**. More likely is a **partial eclipse**, which only hides a portion of the Moon. Finally, we have **penumbral lunar eclipses**, which shade the Moon but do not completely blot it out.

During totality, the Moon is completely dark for typically less than an hour, save for the red ring around it formed because Earth's atmosphere bends some of the Sun's light toward the Moon (and, to a far lesser extent, due to **gravitational lensing**).

Similarly, we have total and partial solar eclipses based on whether you are within the Moon's umbra or penumbra. When the Moon is too far away for its umbra to even reach the Earth, we see an **annular eclipse**: a ring of sunlight surrounding the Moon when we are directly behind the umbra; otherwise, we see a partial eclipse.

Since the umbra moves across the Earth at a speed of 1,700 km/h, an eclipse can last no more than a few minutes for any given location on Earth.

The location of the nodes in the Moon's orbit slowly change over time. This gives us an eclipse cycle of 18 years 11.3 days; we call this the **Saros Cycle**. Of course, this only tells us when eclipses will occur, not where they will be visible from on Earth or whether they will be total or

partial.

2.6 Planets

We can see five planets with the naked eye: Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. Mercury is rarely visible, and only near sunrise or sunset. Venus can often be seen shining brightly in the evening (in the West) or before dawn (in the East). Jupiter, when visible, is the brightest star at night. Mars is often recognizable by its red hue. Saturn has no distinguishing features, but can be identified with star charts.

Planets have different paths of motion than do stars, which is why the word for planet in Greek means “wandering star”. The planets usually move Eastward through constellations, but sometimes go through periods of **apparent retrograde motion** for anywhere between a few weeks and a few months. This retrograde motion occurs when the Earth “passes” the other planet, ie. when their orbits are in line with the Sun.

Stellar parallax is the phenomenon of stars appearing to move at different rates given different angles; given the extremely great distances between us and the stars, this is not detectable by the human eye – though it can be detected by telescopes.

3 Chapter 3 – Ancient Astronomy

3.1 Ancient Roots of Science

Other lunar calendars remain roughly synchronized with solar calendars by taking advantage of an interesting coincidence: 19 years on a solar calendar is almost precisely 235 months on a lunar calendar. As a result, the lunar phases repeat on the same dates about every 19 years (a pattern known as the Metonic cycle).

The study of ancient structures in search of astronomical connections is called **archaeoastronomy**

3.2 Ancient Greek Science

Greek - To account for the fact that the Sun and Moon each move gradually eastward through the constellations, the Greeks added separate spheres for them, with these spheres turning at different rates from the sphere of the stars. The planets also move relative to the stars, so the Greeks added additional spheres for each planet. The **difficulty** with this model was that it made it hard to explain the apparent retrograde motion of the planets.

The **Ptolemaic model** - Each planet moves on a small circle whose center moves around the Earth. A planet following this circle-upon-circle motion traces a loop as seen from Earth, with the backward portion of the loop mimicking apparent retrograde motion. Despite its complexity, the Ptolemaic model proved remarkably successful: It could correctly forecast future planetary positions to within a few degrees of arc.

3.3 The Copernican Revolution

Copernicus - Discovered simple geometric relationships that allowed him to calculate each planets orbital period around the Sun and its relative distance from the Sun in terms of EarthSun distance. The models success in providing a geometric layout for the solar system further convinced him that the Sun-centered idea must be correct.

Keplers key discovery was that planetary orbits are not circles but instead are a special type of oval called an ellipse. The locations of the two tacks are called the foci (singular, focus) of the ellipse. The long axis of the ellipse is called its major axis, each half is called the semimajor axis. A circle is an ellipse with zero eccentricity, and greater eccentricity means a more elongated ellipse.

Kepler's first law - The orbit of each planet about the sun is an ellipse with the sun at one focus. It is closest at **perihelion** and farthest at the point called the **aphelion**.

Kepler's Second Law - As a planets moves around its orbit it sweeps out equal areas in equal times. This means the planet moves a greater distance when it is near perihelion than it does in the same amount of time near aphelion. That is, the planet travels faster when it is nearer to the Sun and slower when it is farther from the Sun.

Kepler's Third Law - More distant planets orbit the sun at slower average speeds. $p^2 = a^3$ p is the orbital period in years, and a is the distance from the sun. We can use the law to calculate a planets average orbital speed.

Galileo - observed four moons clearly orbiting Jupiter, not Earth. Soon thereafter, he observed that Venus goes through phases in a way that proved that it must orbit the Sun and not Earth.

Galileos experiments and telescopic observations overcame remaining objections to the Copernican idea of Earth Venus as a planet orbiting the Sun. Although not everyone accepted his results immediately, in hindsight we see that Galileo sealed the case for the Sun-centered solar system.

Science generally exhibits three hallmarks: (1) Modern science seeks explanations for observed phenomena that rely solely on natural causes. (2) Science progresses through the creation and testing of models of nature that explain the observations as simply as possible. (3) A scientific model must make testable predictions about natural phenomena that would force us to revise or abandon the model if the predictions do not agree with observations.

A **scientific theory** is a simple yet powerful model that explains a wide variety of observations using just a few general principles, and that has survived repeated and varied testing.

4 Chapter 4 – Motion, Energy, and Gravity

velocity speed with respect to a direction

acceleration rate of change in velocity

the acceleration of gravity $g = 9.8 \frac{m}{s^2}$

momentum $p = mv$

net force net force acting on an object dictates changes in its momentum

mass amount of matter in object

weight force that a mass exerts on the ground (due to gravity and other forces, like elevators)

freefall state of falling without any resistance to slow you down. Since there is no ground for your mass to exert force upon, you seem weightless. Object x in orbit of object y is in a constant state of freefall toward y

Newton's Laws 1. If net force is zero, objects maintain velocity

2. Force is mass times acceleration

3. Forces have equal and opposite reaction forces

- Conservation of Angular Momentum

- total angular momentum can never change

- an object's angular momentum must transfer to or from another object

- angular momentum of an object = radius of the orbit * velocity around the orbit * mass

- this explains

- 1. why Earth needs no fuel or push to continue orbiting the sun

- 2. why Earth's velocity around the sun must be faster when it is closer to the sun (Kepler's Law)

- The same is true for Earth rotating on its axis, though it is slowly transferring this rotational angular momentum to the Moon

- Conservation of Energy

- energy also cannot change, only transferred and converted

- * kinetic: movement

- * radiative: carried by light (visible or otherwise)

- * potential: stored in some form (eg gravitational potential)

- * thermal: subcategory of kinetic, sum movement of particles within (measured in Kelvin)

- * mass: a type of potential energy (energy = mass * speed of light²)

- Universal Law of Gravitation

- every mass attracts every other mass in the universe

- $G = 6.67 * 10^{-11} \frac{m^3}{kg*s^2}$

- d = distance between object 1 and 2

- $F = \frac{G*m_1*m_2}{d^2}$

bound orbits an object goes around another object over and over again (planets, satellites, moons)

unbound orbits paths that bring an object close to another object just once (some outer comets)

- Newton's Version of Kepler's Third Law

- originally $p^2 = a^3$
- a = average orbital radius
- p = orbital period
- Newton: $p^2 = a^3 * \frac{4\pi^2}{G(m_1+m_2)}$
- note: if $m_1 \ll m_2$, you may be able to ignore m_2 for an approximate answer (easier expression manipulation)

Orbital Energy the sum of an object's gravitational potential and kinetic energy. this value remains constant

Gravitational Encounter two objects pass near enough so that each can feel the effects of the others gravity. Note: gravitational encounters are the basis for slingshot maneuvers in spacecraft

- Atmospheric Drag

- low-orbiting objects (few hundred km) experience slight drag
- causing it to slow, converting to thermal energy
- as it slows its orbit becomes smaller, eventually crashing to the surface

- Escape Velocity

- if an object in bound orbit gains velocity (eg thrust) its orbit increases average altitude
- an object with velocity of 11000 m/s (on surface) will escape Earth's gravity
- this velocity does not depend on mass
- since gravity weakens with distance, starting higher requires less energy

- Tides

- the moon can pull the water on the surface towards it
- strongest on the side of Earth facing the moon, causing a bulge
- weakest on far side of Earth, causing another bulge
- Sun also has an effect on tides, but is too far away to be as noticeable (little under half of moon's)
- spring tides (sun and moon work together) and neap tides (sun and moon fight)
- moon's synchronous rotation caused by tidal friction
- used to rotate faster, tidal bulges in its mass
- tidal forces cause the axial rotation to slow (and orbit radii to increase)

5 Chapter 5 – Light

- light spectrum
 - the range of visible light we see as we pass it through a prism
 - can be detailed enough to show us individual black bands representing missing colors
- electromagnetic spectrum: the complete version of all light forms. visible light is only tiny fraction
- wave properties
 - a wave is something that can transmit energy without having to carry material with it
 - wavelength: the distance between adjacent peaks (measured in m)
 - frequency: the number of cycles per second (measured in Hz)
 - since light can affect both charged particles and magnets, we refer to it as an electromagnetic wave
- All light travels at the same speed: $3 * 10^8 m/s$
- particle properties
 - comes in pieces called photons
- gamma — x-ray — ultraviolet — visible — infrared — microwave — radio
- atomic structure
 - protons, neutrons, electrons
 - some really obvious shit
 - strong nuclear force holds protons and neutrons together at the nucleus
 - electrons in an atom a cloud that surrounds the nucleus and gives the atom its apparent size
 - it is impossible to pinpoint their positions
 - isotopes: atoms with varying numbers of neutrons
- light and matter interact in four ways
 1. emission: matter creates light (eg thermal, electrical potential)
 2. absorption: light's energy is absorbed into matter (typically as thermal)
 3. transmission: matter allowing light to pass through
 4. reflection: light bouncing (scattering is reflecting randomly)
- transparent: material allows light to pass through
- opaque: material absorbs all light

- some materials treat certain light differently (eg red glass allows red light through, glass reflects green light)
- types of spectrum
 - continuous: broad range of wavelengths without interruption
 - emission line: light composed of individual bands (dependant on composition and temperature)
 - absorption line: broad range with individual bands missing
- electrons can only have particular amount of energy and not levels inbetween (measured in eV)
- 1 electron Volt = $1.60 * 10^{-19}$ Joule

These values are unique to every atom, ion, and molecule. Example:

A hydrogen atom has states:

```

level 1: 0 eV    ground
        2: 10.2
        3: 12.1
        4: 12.8

```

ionization: 13.6 escape

- an electron rising or falling between levels are called energy level transitions
- can only occur when an electron gains or loses the specific amount of energy separating the two levels
- electrons will not accept energy in quantities that do not correspond with an energy level (except escape, can go over)
- each possible downward energy level transition (eg 3 to 1) corresponds to a release of energy in the form of photons
- the more energy released, the shorter the photon wavelength
- some of these transitions create photons with wavelengths that fall in the visible light spectrum (many won't be visible)
- the exact possible emissions are unique to each atom, so we can use emission lines to identify compositions of light sources
- electrons will not rest at high energy levels, they will fall back down quickly (fraction of a second)
- energy exchanges typically caused by atoms colliding
- most just bump away, a few transfer exactly the right amount of energy to an electron
- collisions only keep happening while the gas is relatively hot
- energy can also be received in these exact quantities by other photons

- this causes absorption lines, since the photons that get absorbed then released will be in random directions
- the photons that do not get absorbed travel straight through the material to us
- most objects (eg rocks, plants, people) are complex enough that they absorb light from a very broad range
- light cannot easily pass through, light emitted cannot easily escape

Consider an idealized case, an object absorbs all photons and does not allow photons inside it to escape easily. Photons bounce randomly around inside the object, constantly exchanging energy with its atoms or molecules. When photons finally escape the object, their radiative energies have become randomized so that they are spread over a wide range of wavelengths. This wide range explains why the spectrum of light from such an object is continuous, like a pure rainbow without any absorption or emission lines

- this all depends on the temperature of the object (the average kinetic energy of the atoms)
- that's why this type of light is called thermal radiation
- no real object emits a perfect thermal radiation spectrum, but all objects emit light that approximates it
- two laws of thermal radiation:
 1. each square meter of a hotter objects surface emits more light at all wavelengths
 - each square meter on a hotter star emits more light at every wavelength than a cooler star
 - hotter star emits light at some ultraviolet wavelengths that the cooler star does not emit at all
 - $T = \text{temperature (in Kelvin)}$
 - $\sigma = 5.7 * 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 K^4}$
 - emitted power per square meter of surface = σT^4
 2. hotter objects emit photons with a higher average energy
 - shorter average wavelength
 - explains why peak wavelength is shorter in hotter objects
 - $\text{Lambda Peak} = 2.9 * 10^6 \frac{1}{T}$
- Doppler effect
 - the velocity of the light source have an effect on the apparent wavelength of the photons
 - travelling away: wavelengths appear longer, become redshifted
 - travelling towards: wavelengths appear shorter, become blueshifted
 - $v = \text{velocity of source (in radial direction, so only net away from us. negative means towards)}$

- c = speed of light ($3 * 10^8 m/s$)
- Lambda Shift = observed wavelengths from source
- Lambda Rest = lab recorded wavelengths of source's composition
- $v/c = (\text{shift} - \text{rest}) / \text{rest}$
- telescopes have two properties
 1. light collecting area - total light telescope can collect at a time
 2. angular resolution - smallest angle we can determine two stars are distinct
- arcminute: 1/60th of a degree
- arcsecond: 1/60th of an arcminute
- human eye has angular resolution of 1 arc minute (objects seen)
- basic telescope designs
 1. refracting telescopes
 - operates like eye, uses transparent glass lenses to collect and focus light
 - earliest telescopes built by Galileo
 - world's largest has 1m lens, 19.5m tube, completed 1897
 2. reflecting telescopes
 - use large curved primary mirrors to gather light, small secondary mirror to reflect to a focus
 - majority of modern telescopes, size typically restricted by weight of primary mirrors
 - 5m Hale telescope on Mt. Palomar, San Diego (1948)
 - 8m Gemini telescope on Mauna Kea, Hawaii
 - 10m Keck telescopes in Hawaii
 - plans for 30m telescope in 2018
- Telescopes can be specially designed to receive non-visible light
 - radio waves have large wavelengths, telescopes need to be large to get decent resolution
 - 305m Arecibo radio dish in Puerto Rico has only 1 arc minute
 - collecting high energy rays straight on will punch straight through the lens, possibly damaging it
 - need to catch them at a slight angle and deflect them into the focus
- Putting telescopes in space dodges atmospheric interference but is extremely expensive
 - bright day skies, light pollution, weather, air turbulence (causes eye-visible twinkling)
 - lower energy wavelengths are barely affected by atmosphere and can be built lower

- most high energy wavelengths cant even reach the ground
- adaptive optics: computers control the telescopes, making minute adjustments to the shape of the mirrors many times a second to eliminate atmospheric distortion
- interferometry: using multiple telescopes simultaneously to combine their images to achieve higher resolution

6 Chapter 6 – Formation of Planetary Solar Systems

6.1 Overview

This chapter is about the nature of our solar system and current scientific ideas about its birth. We will also examine characteristics about our solar system that are key clues about how it formed. Finally it will talk about how astronomers have discovered other planets around other stars and how those planetary systems are helping us understand our own.

6.2 Clues to the formation of the Solar System

The Solar System's layout and composition offer 4 clues as to how it was born.

1. Large bodies in the solar system have orderly motions.

- All planets have nearly circular orbits going in the same direction in nearly the same plane.
- All planets **orbit** the Sun in the same direction: **counterclockwise** as viewed from high above Earth's North Pole.
- Most planets rotate in the same direction in which they orbit, with fairly small axis tilts. The Sun also rotates in this direction.
- Most of the solar systems large moons exhibit similar properties in their orbits around their planets, such as orbiting in their plane

2. Planets fall into two major categories

(a) Terrestrial planets

- Small in mass and size
- Close to the sun
- Made of metal and rock
- Few moons and no rings

(b) Jovian planets

- Large in mass and size
- Far from the Sun

- Made from H, He and hydrogen compounds
 - rings and many moons
3. **Swarms of asteroids and comets populate the solar system.** Vast numbers of rocky asteroids and icy comets are found throughout the solar system, but are concentrated in 3 distinct regions
- Most **asteroids** orbit in the **asteroid belt** between Mars and Jupiter
 - Many **comets** are found in the **Kuiper Belt** beyond Neptune's orbit
 - Even more **comets** orbit the sun in the distant spherical region called the **Oort Cloud** and only a rare few ever plunge into the inner solar system. May contain a trillion comets.
4. **Several notable exceptions to these trends stand out**
- **Uranus's odd tilt** Uranus rotates nearly on its side compared to its orbit and its rings and major moons share this sideways orientation.
 - **Earth's relatively large moon** Our moon is much larger in size than most other moons in comparison to their planets
 - Venus' backwards rotation

6.3 The Sun

The **sun contains more than 99.8% of the solar systems total mass.** (1000 times more massive than the rest of the solar system combined). The surface is a sea of rolling hot (5800K) Hydrogen and Helium gas. The sun is gaseous throughout and temperature and pressure both increase with depth. In addition, charged particles moving outward (**Solar wind**) help shape planetary magnetic fields and can influence planetary atmospheres.

6.4 Mercury

A desolate, cratered world with no active volcanoes, no wind, no rain, and no life. It is a world of both **hot and cold extremes**. The combination of rotation and orbit gives Mercury days and nights that last about 3 Earth months each. Mercurys **surface is heavily cratered** But it also shows evidence of past geological activity, such as plains created by ancient lava flows and tall, steep cliffs that run hundreds of kilometers in length. Mercurys **high density** indicates that it has a very large iron core.

6.5 Venus

Venus is nearly identical in size to Earth. It **rotates on its axis very slowly and in the opposite direction of Earth**, so days and nights are very long. An **extreme greenhouse effect** bakes Venuss surface to an incredible 470C. Day and night. Venus has **mountains, valleys, and**

craters, and shows many signs of past or present volcanic activity. But Venus also has geological features unlike any on Earth, and we see no evidence of Earth-like plate tectonics.

6.6 Earth

Only planet in our solar system with oxygen to breathe, ozone to shield the surface from deadly solar radiation, and abundant surface water to nurture life. Temperatures are pleasant because Earth's atmosphere contains just enough carbon dioxide and water vapor to maintain a moderate greenhouse effect.

6.7 Mars

Mars has ancient volcanoes. The presence of dried-up riverbeds, rock-strewn floodplains, and minerals that form in water offers clear evidence that Mars had at least some warm and wet periods in the past. Major flows of liquid water probably ceased at least 3 billion years ago. More than a dozen spacecraft have flown past, orbited, or landed on Mars.

6.8 Jupiter

Most famous feature: long-lived storm called the Great Red Spot. **Made primarily of hydrogen and helium and has no solid surface.** Increasing gas pressure would crush us long before we ever reached its core. Jupiter reigns over dozens of moons and a thin set of rings (too faint to be seen in most photographs).

6.9 Saturn

Saturn is made mostly of hydrogen and helium and has no solid surface. The rings may look solid from a distance, but in reality they are made of countless small particles, each of which orbits Saturn. Titan, the only moon in the solar system with a thick atmosphere. Saturn and its moons are so far from the Sun that Titan's surface temperature is a frigid -180°C .

6.10 Uranus

It is made largely of hydrogen, helium, and hydrogen compounds such as water (H_2O), ammonia (NH_3), and methane (CH_4). Uranus lacks a solid surface. The entire Uranus system—planet, rings, and moon—orbital axis is tipped on its side compared to the rest of the planets and it gives Uranus the most extreme seasonal variations of any planet in our solar system.

6.11 Neptune

Neptune looks nearly like a twin of Uranus, although it is more strikingly blue. Smaller than Uranus but more massive due to higher density (even though they have similar composition. Triton is the only large moon in the solar system that orbits its planet backward—that is, in a direction opposite to the direction in which Neptune rotates. This backward orbit makes it a near certainty that Triton once orbited the Sun independently before somehow being captured into Neptune's orbit.

6.12 Pluto (and other dwarf planets)

Pluto is much smaller and less massive than any of the other planets, and its orbit is much more eccentric and inclined to the ecliptic plane. Its composition of ice and rock is also quite different from that of any of those planets, although it is virtually identical to that of many known comets. Pluto is not even the largest of Kuiper belt objects, Eris, is slightly larger than Pluto.

6.13 Where did the solar system come from?

The **nebular theory** begins with the idea that our solar system was born from a cloud of gas, called the solar nebula, that collapsed under its own gravity. As the solar nebula shrank in size, three important processes altered its density, temperature, and shape, changing it from a large, diffuse (spread-out) cloud to a much smaller spinning disk: **heating, spinning, flattening**. As it collapsed, it heated up, spun faster and flattened into a disk.

6.13.1 The Formation of the planets

In the center of the collapsing solar nebula, gravity drew together enough material to form the Sun. Because hydrogen and helium gas made up 98% of the solar nebula's mass and did not condense, the vast majority of the nebula remained gaseous at all times. However, other materials could condense wherever the temperature allowed.

The solid metal and rock in the inner solar system ultimately grew into the terrestrial planets we see today, but these planets ended up relatively small in size because rock and metal made up such a small amount of the material in the solar nebula. **Accretion** The process in which small “seeds” grow into planets.

The leading model for jovian planet formation holds that these planets formed as gravity drew gas around ice-rich “boulders” much more massive than Earth. Their large masses had gravity strong enough to capture some of the hydrogen and helium gas that made up the vast majority of the surrounding solar nebula. Ultimately, the jovian planets accreted so much gas that they bore little resemblance to the icy seeds from which they started.

The young Sun had a strong solar wind strong enough to have swept huge quantities of gas out of the solar system, sealing the compositional fate of the planets.

Asteroids and comets are leftover and are less common than earlier in the solar systems life. Although impacts occasionally still occur, the vast majority of these collisions occurred in the first few hundred million years of our solar systems history, during the period we call the **heavy bombardment**. These impacts did more than just batter the planets. They also brought materials from other regions of the solar system. (Potentially bringing water to Earth)

6.13.2 How do we explain the exceptions to rules?

Our moon - The giant impact hypothesis holds that a Mars-size object hit Earth at a speed and angle that blasted Earth's outer layers into space. Strong support for this comes from two features of the moon's composition.

1. The composition of the moon is similar to Earth's outer layers
2. The Moon has a much smaller proportion of easily vaporized ingredients (such as water) than Earth. This fact supports the hypothesis because the heat of the impact would have vaporized these ingredients.

Other Exceptions

- Mercurys surprisingly high density may be the result of a giant impact that blasted away its outer, lower-density layers.
- Giant impacts could have also been responsible for tilting the axes of many planets (including Earth) and perhaps for tipping Uranus on its side
- Venus's slow and backward rotation could also be the result of a giant impact

Nebular Theory accounts for **all FOUR** of the major features of the solar system.

6.13.3 When did the Planet's form?

The planets begin to form just over **4.5 billion years ago**

6.13.4 Other Planetary Systems

We can detect planets in other stars directly (pictures) or indirectly (measurements of a stars properties).

Indirect Methods:

- **Astrometric Technique** - we make very precise measurements of stellar positions in the sky. If a star wobbles gradually around its average position (the center of mass), we must be observing the influence of unseen planets.
- **Doppler technique** searches for a stars orbital movement around the center of mass by looking for changing Doppler shifts in a stars spectrum. Used for the majority of planet discoveries to date

- **Transits and Eclipses** searching for slight changes in a stars brightness that occur when a planet passes in front of or behind it. The transit method can also be used to search simultaneously for planets around vast numbers of stars and to detect much smaller planets than is possible with the Doppler technique.

6.13.5 Comparing Extrasolar planets

Orbits

- Most of the planets orbit very close to their host star
- many of the orbits are elliptical instead of nearly circular like the orbits of planets in our own solar system

Masses

Most of the known extrasolar planets are more massive than Jupiter, smallest is twice the mass of Earth

7 Chapter 10 – Our Star

7.1 A Closer Look at the Sun

7.1.1 History

Our first views of the sun were that it was a ball of fire. In the 19th century we had found the Sun's radius and distance and found that its energy could not have come from burning fuels or other chemical processes.

The first real idea was that the Sun generates energy by slowly contracting in size through **gravitational contraction**. Gravitational potential energy is converted into thermal energy as mass moves inward. This would keep the inside of the Sun hot. The amount of contraction required would be small enough to go unnoticed until the 19th century. This theory shows that the Sun could continue contracting for 25 million years. The problem: geologists had already calculated the earth's age as much higher than that.

The next idea was based on Einstien's theory of relativity ($E = mc^2$). Calculations showed that the Sun had enough mass to shine for billions of years. This explained where sunlight came from, but not the thermal energy. Eventually in the 1930's the discovery of nuclear fusion was found and we use that to explain where thermal energy comes from.

7.1.2 Nuclear Fusion

Nuclear fusion requires very high temperature and density to start. This started in the sun through gravitational contraction. The sun was formed from a collapsing gas cloud. This released gravitational potential energy to raise the core temperature. This continued to happen until sustained nuclear fusion started.

The sun has a fairly steady size and energy today because it has reached equilibrium. **Gravitational Equilibrium** is the balance between the outward push of hot internal gases trying to escape and the inward push of gravity. This allows the sun to have a steady size. This also means that **pressure increases with depth** in the sun. **Energy Balance** is the balance between the rate of fusion and the rate of energy being released from the Sun's core into space.

7.1.3 Structure

The sun is essentially a ball of plasma (gas in which atoms are ionized) which moves like a gas, but also reacts to magnetic fields.

Basic Properties:

Radius (R Sun)	696,000 km (about 109 times the radius of Earth)
Mass (M Sun)	2×10^{30} kg (about 300,000 times the mass of Earth)
Luminosity/Power Output (L Sun)	3.8×10^{26} watts
Composition (by percentage of mass)	70% hydrogen, 28% helium, 2% heavier elements
Rotation rate	25 days (equator) to 30 days (poles)
Surface temperature	5800 K (average); 4000 K (sunspots)
Core temperature	15 million K

Layers (outside in):

- Solar wind
- Corona
- Chromosphere
- Photosphere
- Convection zone
- Radiation zone
- Core

Solar Winds is a stream of charged particles blown outward from the Sun. These help shape the magnetospheres of planets and the tails of comets.

Corona is surprisingly hot (1 million K) and emits the most X-ray radiation, the density is very low

Chromosphere is much cooler here (10,000 K), radiates UV radiation

Photosphere temperature is 6,000K, surface churns like boiling water, home of sunspots and intense magnetic fields

Convection Zone region of hot gas rising and cool gas sinking caused by energy from the core rising to the surface (called convection, duh)

Radiation Zone less turbulent than the convection zone, energy moves outwards as photons instead of hot gas, temperature rises to 10 million K, shit ton of X-ray radiation

Core where nuclear fusion is making energy, temperature 15 million K, density 100 that of water, pressure 200 billion times earth's surface, energy takes hundreds of thousands of years to get to the surface

7.2 Nuclear Fusion in the Sun

Note nuclear fusion (the Sun) \neq nuclear fission (nuclear reactor).

Within the Sun's core there is a soup of hot fas funn of psitively charged atom nuclei flying about. When these collide (most of the time electormagnetic forces deflect them) they stick together to form a heavier nucleus. This is caused by **strong force** (binds protons and neutrons together) overriding the electromagnetic deflection force. It's only strong enough to do this at very small distances which happens due to the high speed of the particles (which is in turn caused by the high temperature which is caused by the high pressure which is caused by high gravitational force which is caused by large mass).

This is explained by the **Ideal Gas Law**

$$P = nkT$$

where P is the pressure, n is number density (particles per volume), T is temperature, and k is **Boltzmann constant** = 1.38×10^{-23} joule/K

7.2.1 Proton-Proton Chain

Most hydrogen comes in the form of a single proton, but we need to fuse it into a helium atom which is two protons and two neutrons. So what we have to do is fuse four hydrogen atoms into one helium atom. This is through a sequence of events called the **proton-proton chain**.

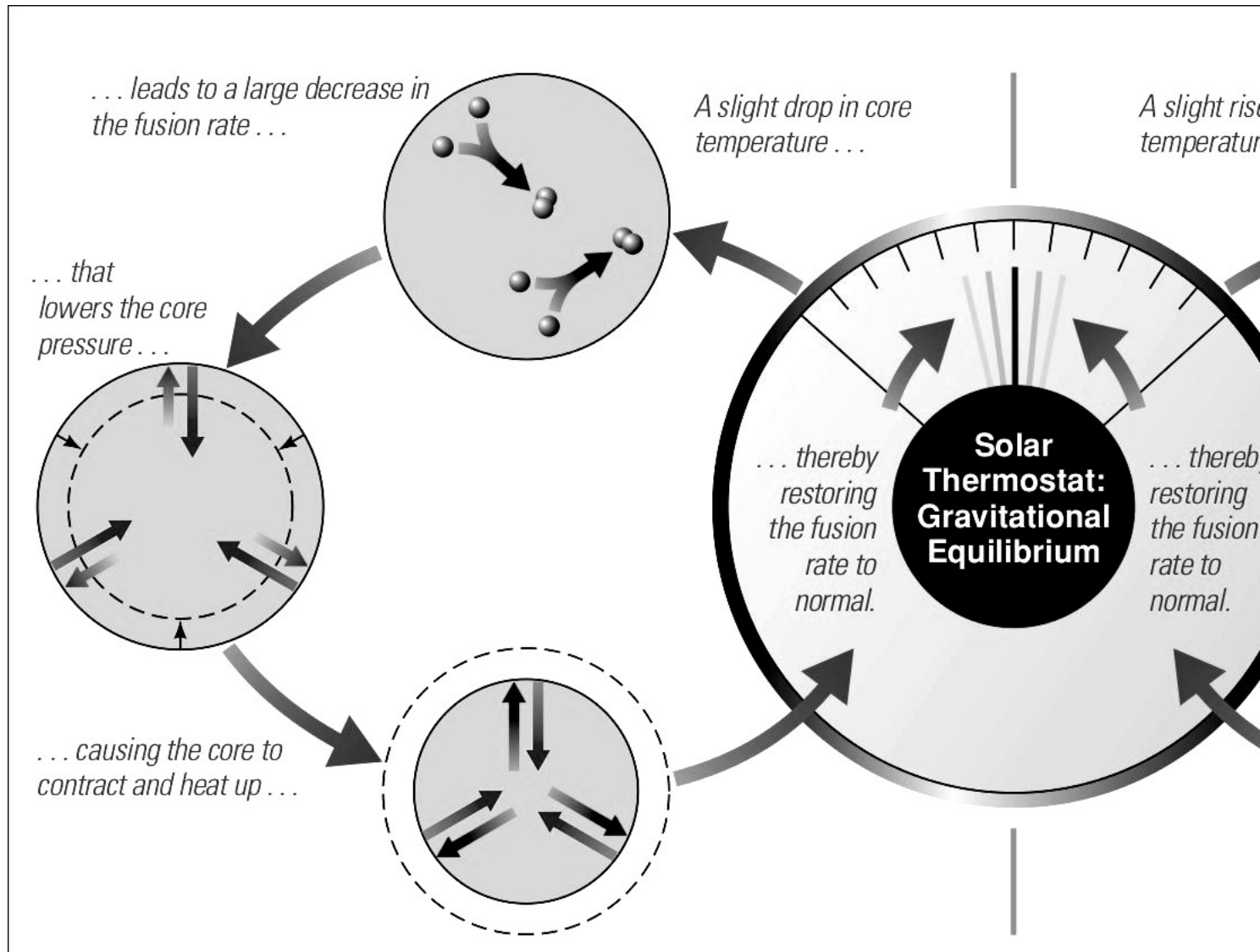
1. Two protons fuse to make a deuterium nucleus (1 proton and 1 neutron). This step occurs twice
2. The deuterium nucleus and a proton fuse to make a nucleus of helium-3 (2 protons, 1 neutron). This step occurs twice
3. Two helium-3 nuclei fuse to form helium-4 (2 protons, 2 neutrons), releasing two excess protons in the process.

In total four protons collide to make a helium atom, two positrons, and two neutrinos.

7.2.2 Solar Thermostat

Life on earth relies on the Sun's steady fusion rate. If we were to increase the core's temperature slightly, this would cause an increase in fusion rate. The increased fusion rate would make more

energy, but energy moves very slowly through the sun so it would get bottled up in the core. This would increase the core pressure to exceed the balancing force of gravity so the core would expand and cool. Cooling lowers the fusion rate and equilibrium is reached again.



7.2.3 Path of Energy Through the Sun

Energy starts as photons in the Sun's core. They zigzag at the speed of light so it takes them a while to get out. In the dense interior a photon can only travel a fraction of a millimeter before it collides with an electron and gets deflected in a new direction causing its zigzag path. Eventually it makes its way through the core and radiation zone into the convection zone where the temperature drops to 2 million K and the photon is absorbed into cooler solar plasma. This creates the convection that happens in the convection zone. Eventually it rises to the top and enters the photosphere. Here the density is low enough that photons can escape into space as sunlight.

How do we know about the interior of a star:

- Mathematical models: based on laws of physics and observed properties

- Solar Vibrations: the Sun's surface vibrates like with earthquakes which we can see in Doppler Shifts.
- Solar Neutrinos: these are formed during nuclear fusion, these can pass through almost anything without reacting (including the Sun's layers), so we can see what's going on right now (well, 8 minutes ago)
 - these fuckers are hard to catch, need detectors deep in mines
 - initially we only caught a third of what we expected (solar neutrino problem) due to neutrinos changing properties during their journey (electron neutrino, muon neutrino, or tau neutrino)

7.3 The Sun-Earth Connection

7.3.1 Sunspots and Magnetic Fields

Sunspots are dark spots on the sun where things are cooler. They are formed when magnetic fields keep hot gas from entering a section of the photosphere. Magnetic fields can alter the energy levels of atoms (Zeeman effect), mucking with their spectral lines. The particles in solar plasma move along magnetic lines (usually spiraling along them).

Sunspots form where magnetic fields extend from the Sun's interior. The magnetic lines there are strong enough to suppress convection making the spot cool. They usually last a few weeks until their magnetic fields weaken. Sunspots tend to appear in pairs connected by a magnetic loop. Gas getting trapped in these loops makes **solar prominences**.

7.3.2 Solar Storms

These are sudden changes in the Sun's magnetic fields. The most dramatic example is **solar flares** which send bursts of X rays and fast moving particles into space. Flares tend to happen near sunspots. The current theory is that solar flares are caused when magnetic fields become so twisted they cannot bear the tension and snap into a better shape.

7.3.3 Heating the Chromosphere and Corona

Some weird shit goes down on the sun where its atmosphere gets hotter the farther you go out. The current theory is that magnetic fields carry energy upward to heat the chromosphere and corona.

The churning that happens in the convection zone probably shakes with tightly wound magnetic lines which carry this energy into the atmosphere and deposit it as heat.

It's very hard to investigate this because the solar atmosphere is not dense enough to see at that point (except during an eclipse). We can watch them through X-rays and UV rays.

In X-ray images of the chromosphere:

- bright spots is where hot gas is trapped below a sunspot where magnetic lines loop back to the Sun
- dull spots (**coronal holes**) are under magnetic lines that escape into space
- the stuff blown out by flares are huge bubbles called **coronal mass ejections**
 - have strong magnetic fields
 - causes auroras
 - fuck with satellites

7.3.4 Solar Cycles

Sunspots have a 11 year cycle. The solar maximum has most sunspots and solar minimum has fewest. At each solar maximum the Sun's magnetic fields start to flip. This is because all magnetic lines connecting pairs of sunspots point the same direction. This means that magnetic fields have a 22 year cycle.

8 Chapter 11 – Surveying the Stars

8.1 Properties of Stars

8.1.1 Luminosity

The **apparent brightness** of a star is how bright it appears to us, or the amount of power reaching us per unit area (units are watts per square meter). The **luminosity** of a star is the total power that the star emits (units are watts). Apparent brightness follows an inverse square law to distance.

$$\text{apparent brightness} = \frac{\text{luminosity}}{4\pi \times (\text{distance})^2}$$

The most direct way to measure a star's distance is through measuring its stellar parallax. This is found by comparing a star's shift against its background over 6 months. We calculate its **parallax angle**

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

Where d is the distance to that star in light years and p is the parallax angle (Note: 1 arcsecond \rightarrow 3.26 lightyears = 1 parsec)

We tend to measure luminosities as orders of magnitude of our sun's luminosity, called **apparent magnitude** instead of apparent brightness and **absolute magnitude** instead of luminosity. For every 5 magnitudes we have a brightness factor of 100. So a magnitude 1 star is 100 times brighter than a magnitude 6 star. We define the absolute magnitude as the apparent magnitude if it would have it if it were at a distance of 10 parsecs.

8.1.2 Temperature

The temperature of a star usually means its surface temperature since it's the easiest to measure. A star's temperature is easier to measure than luminosity since it does not vary with distance. We can measure a star's temperature with reasonable accuracy by measuring its color. This is done by comparing its apparent brightness in two different colors of light (usually blue and red).

We run into problems when interstellar dust interferes with the color of a star so astronomers use a star's spectral lines instead. Stars showing spectral lines of ionized elements are fairly hot because it takes high temperature to ionize atoms. In contrast, stars displaying spectral lines of molecules are relatively cool. Stars are classified by their **spectral type** OBAFGK in decreasing order of temperature. These are often divided further using numbers. For example our sun is a G2 star meaning it's hotter than a G3 but cooler than a G1.

Spectral Type	Example(s)	Temperature Range	Key Absorption Line Features
O	Stars of Orion's Belt	>30,000 K	Lines of ionized helium, weak hydrogen
B	Rigel	30,000 K-10,000 K	Lines of neutral helium, moderate hydrogen
A	Sirius	10,000 K-7500 K	Very strong hydrogen lines
F	Polaris	7500 K-6000 K	Moderate hydrogen lines, moderate metal
G	Sun, Alpha Centauri A	6000 K-5000 K	Weak hydrogen lines, strong lines of metal
K	Arcturus	5000 K-3500 K	Lines of neutral and singly ionized metal
M	Betelgeuse, Proxima Centauri	<3500 K	Strong molecular lines

History of Spectral Types Spectral types were made at Harvard College by Edward Pickering's computers (women who'd studied physics or astronomy). The first was Williamina Fleming who classified A-O by the descending strength of hydrogen lines. Annie Jump Cannon modified this existing classification by reordering and removing classes until the OBAFGKM that is used today was left. Finally Cecilia Payne-Gaposchkin discovered that stars were all made of the same material and the lines reflected ionization levels which indicated surface temperature.

8.2 Mass

Measuring mass is very difficult and we can only really do it on binary star systems. We do this by applying Newton's version of Kepler's third law

Binary star types:

- **visual binary:** we can see each star distinctly, sometimes one star is too dim to see but we can observe the shift of the visible star
- **eclipsing:** a pair of stars that orbit in a plane of our line of sight, we rotate between seeing the combined light of both stars (no eclipse) and only the light of one star (full eclipse)
- **spectroscopic:** we need to use Doppler shifts to detect its nature

8.3 Patterns Among Stars

These are ways of charting stars, the x-axis is the surface temperature (OBAFGKM) and the vertical axis is luminosity (L_{sun}) on a logarithmic scale. We can also infer the star's radius from the chart because a star's luminosity is based on its surface temperature and radius.

$$L = 4\pi r^2 \times \sigma T^4 \sigma = 5.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ watt}/(m^2 \times \text{Kelvin}^4)$$

Where L is luminosity, r is radius, σ is amount of thermal radiation emitted per unit area constant, and T is the star's temperature. This means that the radius of a star increases along a diagonal from lower left to upper right.

Stars cluster on the H-R diagram:

- **main sequence:** streak running from upper left to lower right
- **supergiants:** upper right
- **giants:** between supergiants and main sequence
- **white dwarfs:** lower left

Like with spectral classes, astronomers assign luminosity classes describing the region of the H-R diagram that a star falls in. I is for super giants, III is for giants and V is for main sequence. II and IV are for those that fall inbetween. White dwarfs fall outside the classification and are called wd. Stars with higher luminosity have larger radii as well.

We combine spectral type and luminosity class together to identify stars.

8.4 Main Sequence

Main sequence stars are the majority of stars that we observe and because of that we have found more patterns within them. Mass increases as we go up the strip of main sequence stars on the H-R Diagram. We also see that low mass stars are much more common than high mass stars. Mass is the most important attribute of hydrogen fusing stars because it determines the balance point at which energy released by fusion equals the energy lost from the star's surface. This is what allows for the wide range of luminosities. Luminosity is very sensitive to mass (example a star 10 times as massive as the sun is 10000 times as luminous).

A luminous star must be very hot or very large. But a very small mass change is required to greatly increase the luminosity of a star, so their surface temperature must be much higher to account for this large increase in luminosity. This fits the H-R Diagram pattern of temperature increasing with luminosity. We can use the mass-luminosity-temperature relationship to estimate a star's mass just by knowing its spectral type.

A star is born with a set amount of hydrogen fuel, the amount of time that it can burn this fuel for is the star's **main sequence lifetime**. Lifetime is inversely proportional to the mass of the star. This is because as mass increases luminosity increases exponentially, so stars with higher masses may have more fuel but they burn it waaaaay faster.

8.5 Giants, Supergiants, and White Dwarfs

8.5.1 Giants and Supergiants

These are much cooler but more luminous than the sun which tells us that they are huge. These stars have almost exhausted their hydrogen fuel supply and are trying not to collapse under their own weight. They do this by releasing fusion energy at a high rate which explains their high luminosity, and the need to radiate all this energy expands them to enormous size.

8.5.2 White Dwarfs

This is what happens when a giant runs out of fuel completely. The star ejects all of its outer layers and is left only with a dormant core. They are hot because they are still the core of a star, but dim because they have no way to radiate their energy.

8.6 Star Clusters

Stars are born from giant clouds and many stars can be born from the same cloud, so they tend to cluster.

- all stars in a cluster are about the same distance from earth
- all stars in a cluster are about the same age

8.6.1 Types of clusters

- **open cluster:** found in disk of galaxy, young stars, up to several thousand stars, about 30 light years across
- **globular cluster:** found in halo of galaxy: oldest stars, more than a million stars, 60-150 light years across

8.6.2 Age of a Cluster

We plot a cluster's stars on the H-R Diagram, and this tells us its age. For instance the Pleides open cluster has no stars of the O spectral class. This means that Pleidas is old enough that its O stars have finished their hydrogen fission and 'died'. We call the point at which a cluster's main sequence diverges from the standard main sequence the **main sequence turnoff**. The age of the cluster is equal to the lifetime of stars at its main-sequence turnoff point (at its most massive star).

9 Chapter 14

9.1 Milky Way

9.1.1 Appearance

The Milky Way Galaxy has over 100 billion stars. It is a vast **spiral galaxy** consisting of spiral arms in a flat disc converging at a bulge in the center. The disc is surrounded by a dimmer halo (it is dimmer because most of the very bright stars are in the disc). The galaxy is 100 000 light years in diameter and 1000 light years thick. Our solar system is about 27 000 light years from the center.

It is difficult to view the galaxy because of clouds of interstellar gas and dust (called the **interstellar medium**) get in the way.

The Milky Way is one of the larger galaxies in our Local Group and its gravity influences smaller galaxies in the area. The Small and Large Magellanic Cloud galaxies actually orbit the Milky Way. Two even smaller and closer galaxies (Canis Major and Sagittarius Dwarf) are in the process of colliding with the Milky Way which will rip them apart.

9.1.2 Stars in Orbit

Stars in the disc of the galaxy orbit in roughly circular paths in the same direction and roughly the same plane. They orbit a bit like merry-go-rounds where the stars orbit the center but also bob up and down as they do. This bobbing happens because of localized gravity within the disc. When a star is too high the disc pulls it downwards, but it overshoots and becomes too low, repeat. The stars at the edge of the galaxy orbit at roughly the same speed as the stars at the center of the galaxy which is what gives it that swirl look.

Stars in the bulge and halo have randomly oriented orbits. Bulge stars move around the galactic center in elliptical paths with random orientations. Halo stars have much more exaggerated orbits, swooping high and low the disc at such high velocities that the disc's gravity barely affects them.

The Orbital Velocity Law:

$$M_r = \frac{r \times v^2}{G}$$

Where M_r is the amount of mass contained within this orbit (kg), r is the radius of the orbit (m), v is the object's orbital velocity (m/s) and G is the gravitational constant ($6.67 \times 10^{-11} \frac{m^3}{kg \times s^2}$).

9.2 Galactic Recycling

Interstellar mass is recycled within the galaxy's interstellar medium. This also changes the composition of the medium (stars make much heavier elements in their deaths).

9.2.1 Gas Recycling

- **atomic hydrogen clouds** - interstellar gas clouds fill the galactic disk
- **molecular clouds** - gas in the disk gradually cools and forms molecules
- **star formation** - gravity makes stars form molecular hydrogen mass
- **nuclear fusion in stars** - fusion in the cores of stars makes new elements from hydrogen
- **hot bubbles** - supernovae and stellar winds return gas and new elements to interstellar space
 - the strong solar winds from supernovae sweep surrounding material into a hot bubble, these continue to expand until they breach the galactic disk where they erupt, the erupted gas cools and rains back down onto the disk
 - supernovae also create shock waves that create walls of fast moving gas that heats and ionizes interstellar gas
- **returning gas** - returning gas cools and then blends into atomic hydrogen clouds
 - longest stage so it's where most of the hydrogen lives
 - the matter rained down onto the disk cools and condenses into clouds (these may contain dust grains of carbon or silicon which are what blocks our view)
 - as the cloud cools hydrogen combine into molecules making it a molecular cloud
- repeat
 - in molecular clouds stars are formed
 - these stars' solar wind erode the clouds and keep more stars from forming
 - molecules fall apart and become ionized and join the near by atomic hydrogen clouds

Different parts of the Milky Way are at different stages of the cycle so we can view the whole cycle via different wavelengths.

- radio emissions show atomic hydrogen (has a 21cm spectral line)
- radio emissions of carbon monoxide show the distribution of molecular clouds
- long-wavelength infrared emissions from interstellar dust show molecular clouds where stars are forming
- short-wavelength infrared emissions show the light from stars
- visible light shows how the galaxy looks and where dust blocks our view
- X-rays show where hot gas bubbles are
- gamma-rays show where gas densities are highest (most number of collisions) in molecular clouds

9.3 Location of Star Formation

Stars form in molecular clouds, duh. Locations where there are hot massive stars are indication of star birth places (those stars don't live very long). These areas also tend to be very colorful due to wisps of hot gas called **ionized nebulae**. These tend to be redder because electrons falling a level in hydrogen give off red photons. Nebulae that are bluer tend to be that color from dust grains reflecting light.

The spiral arms of our galaxy are full of new stars since they house many molecular clouds and lots of young bright stars. Spiral arms form because molecular clouds collide quite often, these continue to compact until they become a birthing zone for stars.

9.4 History of the Milky Way

Unlike the disk that has stars of all ages, the halo has only old stars that contain fewer heavy elements. This is because the halo does not contain molecular clouds used for star formation so there can be no new stars in the halo and the halo is the oldest part of the galaxy before heavier elements existed as much.

Our galaxy started as a **protogalactic cloud** containing tones of hydrogen and helium. Gravity causes the cloud to contract and fragment. The bulge and halo stars formed first. At this point the galaxy was not disk shaped so these new stars orbited however they wanted. The gas continued to contract until it flattened into a disk due to the conservation of angular momentum. The concentrations of heavy elements in the halo stars implies that the Milky Way formed in multiple clouds that collided. Some halo stars move in organized streams that implies that they came from other galaxies that collided with ours.

9.5 Galactic Center

The galactic center lies in the direction of Sagittarius. When we look at within 1000 light year of the center of our galaxy we see very dense cloud of gas and several million stars. At the center of this is the source a bright radio emissions, Sagittarius A*. Several hundred stars cluster Sagittarius A* within a light year and their orbital paths indicate a massive object at the center, about 4 million solar masses with a volume smaller than our solar system. This must be a black hole.

10 Chapter 15 – Galaxies and the Foundation of Modern Cosmology

By taking a picture of a small section of the sky and determining how many such pictures would be necessary to cover the entire sky, we can extrapolate that there are well over 100 billion galaxies within the observable universe. Each of these galaxies has a different shape, size, color, etc.

10.1 Types of Galaxies

We have three major categories of galaxies:

Spiral galaxies are flat white disks with yellowish bulges near the center. The disks are filled with cool gas and dust, as well as some sparse ionized gasses, and usually have a few spiral arms. The Milky Way is a spiral galaxy.

Elliptic galaxies are redder, rounder, and tend toward being longer than they are wide. They contain less cool gas and dust than spiral galaxies and more of the hot ionized gasses.

Irregular galaxies appear like neither of these categories.

The reason the galaxies are different colors is based on the relative ratios of stars of different colors within them: spiral and irregular galaxies are white-ish since they contain stars of all colors and ages, while elliptic galaxies are reddish since they are populated mostly by old and red stars.

We also categorize galaxies by size: **dwarf galaxies** contain as few as 100 million stars and **giant galaxies** contain more than 1 trillion.

10.1.1 Spiral Galaxies

Spiral galaxies have a thin **disk** which forms outwards from a central **bulge**. The disk smoothly merges into a dim **halo** with a radius which can be upwards of 100 thousand lightyears. The **disk population** [**Population 1**] (population of stars within the disk) includes stars of all masses and ages. The **spheroidal population** [**Population 2**] consists of halo and bulge stars, the halo stars being generally old and low in mass.

We thus define:

- The **disk component** is the flat disk in which stars follow orderly, nearly circular orbits around the galactic center. The disk component always contains an interstellar medium of gas and dust, but the amounts and proportions of molecular, atomic, and ionized gases in this medium differ from one spiral galaxy to the next.
- The bulge and halo together make up the **spheroidal component**, named for its rounded shape. Stars in the spheroidal component have orbits with many different inclinations, and the spheroidal component generally contains little cool gas and dust.

All spiral galaxies have both of these components, though some **barred spiral galaxies** have a straight bar of stars cutting through the center, with arms spiralling off of the ends of the bar. **Lenticular galaxies** are somewhat of a halfway between spiral galaxies and elliptical galaxies, as they have no spiral arms.

Approximately 75-85% of galaxies are spiral or lenticular.

10.1.2 Elliptical Galaxies

Elliptical galaxies have only a spherical component and no significant disk component. For this reason, they are sometimes called **spheroidal galaxies**. These galaxies tend to be small (and

small elliptical galaxies are the most common of galaxies), though some are the most massive of galaxies: **giant elliptical galaxies**.

The composition of elliptical galaxies (ie. the ionized gasses) are much like the hot X-ray-producing gasses generated by supernovae and powerful stellar winds elsewhere in the universe.

Since these galaxies do not have many of the cool gasses found in other galaxies, they have very little ongoing star formation. This is why these galaxies appear reddish: they tend to have very few young blue stars to counteract the color of the old red and yellow ones.

10.1.3 Irregular Galaxies

The irregular galaxies are all other galaxies, which we can not easily classify. They are usually white and dusty and contain young massive stars. These also tend to be the oldest of galaxies: more irregular galaxies can be found the farther away we look. Though we aren't sure why, it seems that irregular galaxies were more common when the universe was younger.

10.1.4 Hubble's Galaxy Classes

Hubble designed a system for classifying galaxies: elliptical galaxies have a designation of E followed by a number from zero to seven, with a larger number signifying a larger eccentricity in shape: ie. an E0 galaxy is a sphere. Spiral and barred spiral galaxies have respective designations S and SB, followed by a lowercase letter from "a" to "c", where "c" corresponds to the smallest bulge and largest amount of dusty gas. Lenticular galaxies are designated S0 and irregulars are Irr.

10.2 Measuring Distance

We can measure the distance between the Earth and a galaxy using **parallax**. To do this, we must know the distance between the Earth and the Sun. This is done using **radar ranging**: by bouncing radio waves off of Venus and determining how long they take to return, we can find the distance to Venus. Kepler's laws, then, give us the distance to the Sun.

Since we can only measure within about a few hundred lightyears with parallax, we must also learn to measure distance by the inverse-square law of luminosity. Since similar stars should have similar luminosities (ie. a main-sequence G2 star like the Sun would have a similar luminosity), we can use the inverse-square law to determine how much farther it is from us than the Sun. For this approach, we must find **standard candles**: objects whose luminosity is known by which we can compare against.

Sun-like stars do not make very good candles since they are somewhat dim. To measure distances beyond a thousand lightyears, we need brighter candles. We thus have an approach by which we can get progressively better estimates: find a star within parallax distance, plot its HR, and establish luminosity from distance and brightness; then measure brightness of stars too far for parallax and use the inverse-square law to determine approximate distance.

Since we tend to use main-sequence stars for this, we refer to this technique as **main-sequence fitting**.

Unfortunately, this approach does not work well outside of our galaxy. We use brighter stars **cepheid variable stars**, or **cepheids**, for this task. These stars vary in brightness at some constant rate, from our perspective. The periods, though, are closely related to their luminosities: longer periods are found on more luminous stars. Cepheids, then, obey a **period-luminosity relation** which allows us to estimate their luminosity within 10% simply by measuring their period. A Cepheid with a period of 30 days is approximately ten thousand times brighter than the Sun.

Cepheids vary like this due to varying amounts of energy radiating from their surface: they have a peculiar problem in matching the amount of energy their surfaces radiate with the amount welling up from the core. The upper layers of a Cepheid variable star alternately expand and contract to attempt to find equilibrium, causing the stars luminosity to rise and fall. The periodluminosity relation holds because larger (more luminous) Cepheids take longer to pulsate in size.

We can use Cepheids as a stepping stone to find even brighter distant standard candles.

Some of the best distant standard candles are white dwarf supernovae, which are believed to be white dwarfs which have expanded beyond 1.4 times the mass of the Sun. Since these have a similar mass, these should all have comparable luminosities. Their luminosity is approximately ten billion times that of our Sun, and so we can detect them even in galaxies billions of lightyears away. The major disadvantage to this approach, of course, is that we can only measure the distance to galaxies with a supernovae-ing white dwarf; and this only happens once every few hundred years in the average galaxy. This technique, though, does allow us to calibrate an even better technique based on the expansion of the universe.

The spectra of most spiral galaxies tends to be redshifted; which occurs when a radiating object is moving away from us. When we measure the distance (using the above methods) as well as the redshifts of various galaxies, we notice that galaxies farther away from us are moving away at a faster rate. Thus, we determine that the universe is expanding. We express this with **Hubble's Law**

$$v = H_0 \times d$$

where v is an object's velocity away from us and H_0 is Hubble's constant. Note that astronomer's tend to use this law in reverse: using a galaxy's speed to measure its distance away from us.

Unfortunately, this is only an approximation, as the speed of a galaxy is impacted by the effects of gravity from nearby galaxies as well as from the expansion of the universe. In addition, we base our approximations upon how closely we can approximate Hubble's constant ($H_0 = 22 \frac{km}{Mly \times s}$).

Note that the first of these issues impacts us most when measuring distances within the local group, as these are attracted to us by the Milky Way and thus move away from us at a much smaller rate than expansion would imply.

The major problem with measuring distances to galaxies is this chain of measurements; even today, based on the uncertainty at each step we can only be confident as to a galaxy's distance within about ten percent.

Remember, this chain is:

1. Radar Ranging
2. Parallax
3. Main-sequence Fitting
4. Cepheid Variables
5. White Dwarf Supernovae
6. Hubble's Law

10.3 Age of the Universe

All our observations are consistent with the **Cosmological Principle**: that the universe appears identical at all locations. In other words, it has no “edge” or “center”. More specifically, the universe is expanding – but it is not expanding *into* anything, nor is it expanding into nothing. It itself is an infinite, three-dimensional surface which has no edges, sides, or center.

The Hubble Constant, then, changes as the universe ages: at any given time $\frac{1}{H_0}$ is exactly equal to the age of the universe. Technically, the Hubble Constant is non-constant, then, but it varies slowly enough as to be virtually constant.

Based on our current estimate of Hubble's Constant, the universe is between 12 and 15 billion years old. To be more precise, we would need to know whether the rate of expansion is accelerating, which could change these values immensely: if the expansion rate has been increasing, the age of the universe would be somewhat more than $\frac{1}{H_0}$, and vice-versa. Our current best-estimate is that the universe is 14 billion years old.

10.3.1 Lookback Times

Since the universe is expanding, it can be difficult to refer to the distances to objects. If we see light from an object which left that object 400 million lightyears ago, then it is currently more than 400 million lightyears away. An object's **lookback time** is the difference between the current age of the universe and the age the universe was when light left that object. The lookback time of an object, then, is unambiguous.

The lookback time of an object is directly related to its redshift. This is because the expansion of our universe also stretches out the photons within it, thus giving us a **cosmological redshift** as well as a Doppler redshift. This is a difference in perspective, mostly, as we can either think of galaxies as hurtling through space or being carried along by the expanding universe.

The **cosmological horizon** represents the limits of the observable universe as a boundary in time, instead of space: in a universe 14 billion years old, we can not see any objects with lookback times greater than 14 billion years.

10.4 Evolution of Galaxies

We know far less about the life-cycles of galaxies than we do of stars. That said, we can use galaxies of various lookback times to view galaxies of different ages. We can not see far enough back to watch galaxies being formed, but we can determine their likely early life based on some assumptions:

- Hydrogen and Helium gas filled space uniformly soon after the birth of the universe
- The distribution of matter in the early universe was not perfectly uniform

We assume the denser areas grew into galaxies based on our understanding of the laws of physics. These regions of enhanced density would have expanded along with the rest of the universe, gradually slowing their expansion due to ever-increasing effects of gravity. Within a billion years, their expansion would have reversed, the material within them forming **protogalactic clouds**, which eventually formed galaxies.

The clouds which would eventually form spiral galaxies cooled as they contracted, and the first stars grew from the coldest, densest clumps of gas. These stars were likely massive, with lifespans of only a few million years. Their supernovae seeded these clouds with heavier elements and heated the surrounding gasses. This heating would have slowed the collapse of the clouds and their rate of star formation, allowing time for the gasses to form rotating disks.

This explains the shape of spiral galaxies: the spheroidal center consists of stars formed in the early stages, before a definite rotational plane was established, and thus have varying planes of rotation. Those formed on the arms were formed after a rotation had been established, and thus all follow the same plane.

This model, though, does not explain irregular and elliptical galaxies.

10.4.1 Variances in Galaxies

We attempt to determine why these galaxies differ by examining their differences: why do spiral galaxies have gas-rich disks, while other galaxies do not?

Two plausible explanations for the differences between spiral galaxies and elliptical galaxies trace a galaxy's type back to the protogalactic cloud from which it formed:

Protogalactic Spin A galaxy's type might be determined by the spin of the protogalactic cloud from which it formed. If the original cloud had a significant amount of angular momentum, it would have rotated quickly as it collapsed. The galaxy it produced would therefore have tended to form a disk, and the resulting galaxy would be a spiral. If the protogalactic cloud had little or no angular momentum, its gas might not have formed a disk at all, and the resulting galaxy would be elliptical.

Protogalactic Density A galaxy's type might be determined by the density of the protogalactic cloud from which it formed. A protogalactic cloud with relatively high gas density would have radiated energy more effectively and cooled more quickly, thereby allowing more rapid star formation. If the star formation proceeded fast enough, all the gas could have been turned into stars before any of it had time to settle into a disk, making it an elliptical

galaxy. In contrast, a lower-density cloud would have formed stars more slowly, leaving plenty of gas to form the disk of a spiral galaxy.

The second theory is consistent with observations: young elliptical galaxies tend to have very few young stars, implying their stars were all formed very quickly and that new star formation is not ongoing for long.

Another possible avenue for determining why galaxies differ is by looking at what changes after they are formed. Galaxies are not formed in isolation, and their interactions with other galaxies may be the cause of the differences.

Sometimes, galaxies may collide. These are immense interstellar events which cause enormous changes to the objects involved. These collisions were much more common in the early universe – back when galaxies were much closer together.

Based on computer simulations, we see that the collision of two spiral galaxies can form an elliptical galaxy since tremendous tidal forces rip the disks apart and a large fraction of the gasses sink to the center of the collision and rapidly form new stars. Little of the disks remain in the end, and the stars have randomized orbits.

Elliptical galaxies are most common in areas of the universe with a large number of galaxies – which would be the case if they were often formed by the collision of other galaxies. Our observations tend to lend credence to elliptical galaxies being formed this way. Elliptical galaxies tend to have structures corresponding to likely violent pasts and by observing **central dominant galaxies** we see that elliptical galaxies can grow to a large size by consuming other galaxies through **galactic cannibalism**.

Galactic collisions could also ignite huge bouts of star formation – **starbursts** – which can form entire **starburst galaxies**. Since these would consume all their gasses extremely quickly, they would rapidly burst and emit **galactic winds** which carry away all gasses capable of supporting the constant star formation of a spiral galaxy.

10.5 Quasars and Other Active Galactic Nuclei

Some stars have extreme amounts of radiation and jets of material from their cores. These very crazy cores are called **active galactic nuclei**, the most luminous of these are called **quasars**. Quasars are only found at great distances which tell us that they were much more common billions of years ago, from this we infer that quasar production decreases as galaxies age.

10.5.1 Quasars

The current theory is that the energy in a quasar comes from the accretion disk around supermassive black holes. Quasars were discovered when a scientist was mapping radio sources with visible objects and found a blue star that had emission lines that didn't appear to belong to any known chemical element. It was eventually found that these emission lines were just those of hydrogen that had been hugely redshifted. From there the object's distance and luminosity were calculated and it was bright.

While quasars only appear very far away, we can find active galactic nuclei closer to home. Unfortunately these suckers are small (only about 100 light years across) so it is very hard to resolve them. Using interferometry with radio images we have found that they are even smaller (less than 3 light years across) and the way they flicker implies they are even smaller.

Certain galaxies also emit unusually strong radio waves, called **radio galaxies**. These waves come from huge radio lobes on either side of the galaxy. At the center of the galaxy is a active galactic nuclei with two gigantic jets of plasma shooting into the radio lobes. Recent discoveries imply that radio galaxies and quasars are actually the same thing veiwed in different ways.

10.5.2 Power Source of Quasars and Active Galactic Nuclei

Currently we think that the energy of quasars and AGN comes from matter falling into black holes. The matter falling converts gravitational potential into kinetic energy and matter colliding on the way down converts that to thermal energy, and that resulting heat emits the crazy radiation we see.

This explains their crazy luminosities, how they emit radiation over a broad range of wavelengths, and their jets. Accretion disks convert 10-40% of mass into energy (much greater than a stars 1% conversion) which explains the high luminosities. Hot gas near the accretion disk emits ultraviolet and X-ray photons. This radiation ionizes near by interstellar gas which emits visible light (and the emission lines that led to their discovery). Dust grains in surrounding molecular clouds absorbe this light and emit infrared ratiation. The fast electrons in the jet emit radio radiation. The prescense of jets is harder to explain. We think its related to twisted magnetic fields caused by the spinning of the accretion disks.

10.5.3 Supermassive Black Holes

Some astronomers doubt the existence of supermassive black holes, and finding them is very difficult. By observing matter orbiting the centers of nearby galaxies we find that supermassive black holes are very common and possibly at the center of every galaxy. We do this by looking at the doppler shifts on either side of where we think the black hole is. If it is red on one side and blue on the other it means that gas is orbiting some unseen object. We can use mass and distance calculations to get the mass of the object at the center of this orbit. Many objects (molecular clouds in particular) orbit very close to black holes (less than 1 light year), we can use this to guess the volume of it.

Black hole like objects appear in the center of a wide variety of galaxies with grossly different properties which implies that they are important to the formation of a galaxy, we just dont know how yet.

11 Chapter 18 – Life in the Universe

- Reasons why life likely might exist elsewhere
 - Life arose quite quickly on Earth, so why not on other planets too

- Chemicals on young Earth combined readily into complex organic compounds. This may also be true on other exoplanets.
- We have discovered microorganisms that could survive on other planets in our solar system

- Timeline of development of life on Earth:

Years ago	Event
4.5 billion	Earth and moon form
3.85 billion	Carbon isotope evidence of life
3.5 billion	Oldest microfossil evidence of life
2.5 billion	earliest evidence of oxygen in the atmosphere
410 million	animals colonize land
230 million	mammals and dinosaurs appear

- Requirements for life (on Earth)
 - A source of nutrients
 - Energy to fuel the activities of life
 - Liquid water (* this is the only one that is difficult to achieve)
- Microbes living in extreme conditions (volcanic vents, deserts) imply that if not for a need for water life could exist almost anywhere
- Only likely candidates to have liquid water in our solar system are Mars and some jovian moons (e.g. Europa)
- What properties must a star system have to contain life
 - It must be older than several million years (that's how long life took to form after Earth's formation)
 - The star must not be much bigger than our Sun, because it would die off before life formed (still leaves about 99% of stars)
 - Planets must have stable orbits (far less likely in binary star systems, but not impossible)
 - Bigger star means larger habitable zone (the zone where liquid water could exist)
- A planet's spectra can give us the atmospheric makeup, allows us to look for water vapour, ozone, methane, etc.
- Rare-Earth hypothesis
 - The galaxy has a habitable zone, just like our solar system
 - Star systems further out contain far less non-hydrogen/helium elements, which almost completely compose terrestrial planets
 - Inner systems are subject to far more high supernovae, which would likely irradiate life
 - Leaves only about 10% of solar systems habitable

- Impact rate in our solar system dropped off quickly, is the same true everywhere? In our solar system this was due to jovian planets ejecting small objects from the inner solar system
- Our atmosphere has been relatively stable due to plate tectonics (which might be rare on other planets) regulating the carbon dioxide, and our large moon regulates our axial tilt
- Counter-arguments include
 - Earth is very small and wouldn't need a high abundance of heavy elements to form (relative to the mass of the star)
 - We don't know if a supernova would be harmful to life
 - If the Earth rotated faster it would also regulate our axial tilt without the Moon
 - Large moons could exist other places, ours isn't that rare
 - Life could adapt to a changing axial tilt
- Drake equation: Number of civilizations = $N_{\text{HP}} * f_{\text{life}} * f_{\text{civ}} * f_{\text{now}}$
 - N_{HP} number of habitable planets in the galaxy that *could* have life
 - f_{life} fraction of habitable planets that actually have life
 - f_{civ} fraction of life-bearing planets upon which a civilization capable of interstellar communication *has at some time* arisen
 - f_{now} fraction of civilization-bearing planets that currently have such a civilization
- Fermi paradox: If it's so likely that other civilizations exist than there are some millions of years ahead of us technologically. So where are they? Options: "we're alone", "every other civilization destroyed itself before it could settle the galaxy" or "they haven't revealed themselves to us yet"

12 Assignments

12.1 Assignment 1

Distance from Earth (furthest to closest): Andromeda, far side of the milky way, near side of the milky way, orion nebula, Alpha Centauri, Pluto, The Sun

If an object is 10 light-years away, then we see it as it was 10 years ago, but if it is 20 light-years away, we see it as it was 20 years ago. In other words, more distant objects have aged more since their light left on its way to Earth.

Timeline: Universe begins to expand, Elements such as carbon and Oxygen first form, nuclear fusion begins in the Sun, Earliest life on Earth

Our cosmic address: Earth, solar system, Milky Way Galaxy, Local Group, Local Supercluster, universe

We cannot See a Universe that is 20 billion years away because it is not in our observable universe

12.2 Assignment 2

The **Tilt of a planet is responsible for seasons**. Jupiter (3*) has almost no seasons compared to Uranus (97*). Earth and Mars have a similar tilt.

Time of Year	Earth-Sun Distance
March (Northern Spring Equinox)	149.0 million km
June (Northern Summer Solstice)	152.0 million km
September (Northern Fall Equinox)	150.2 million km
December (Northern Winter Solstice)	147.2 million km

Earth is actually farthest from the Sun when it is summer in the Northern Hemisphere. We conclude that variations in the Earth-Sun distance from are not the major cause of our seasons.

The **Moons orbit about Earth is tilted** (by about 5) with respect to Earths orbit about the Sun. As a result, the actual number of solar eclipses that occur each year is approximately 2 (instead of one each month)

Apparent **retrograde motion can be observed by noticing changes in Mars's position among the constellations**. Note that a complete period of apparent retrograde motion unfolds while Earth moves a significant fraction of its orbit, which means it takes several months. Apparent retrograde motion occurs as Earth “laps” Mars in their respective orbits around the Sun. The middle of a period of apparent retrograde motion occurs when Mars is closest to Earth in its orbit and in a full phase as viewed from Earth, which is why it is brightest in our sky at that time. It is also directly opposite the Sun in the sky at that time, which is why it crosses the meridian at midnight.

The **Greeks explained retrograde motion by imagining that planets moved around small circles that in turn moved around larger circles around Earth**. Because this model made reasonably accurate predictions of planetary positions and fit with other philosophical ideas that they held, the Greeks had no compelling reason to reject it,

Random: How frequently does the Galactic Center (in the constellation Sagittarius) and the Sun align, that is, appear in the same constellation? Once A year

Neutrinos rarely interact with anything on Earth (faulty premise of movie 2012)

12.3 Assignment 3

Kepler's second law tells us that as an object moves around its orbit, it sweeps out equal areas in equal times

Venus is full whenever it is on the opposite side of the Sun from Earth, although we cannot see the full Venus because it is close to the Sun in the sky. For Venus to be high in the sky at midnight, it would have to be on the opposite side of our sky from the Sun. But that never occurs, because Venus is closer than Earth to the Sun.

Falsifiable: (could be proven false)

True Statements belong in Sun centered and “Both” models

Earth Centered Model Only

- A planet beyond Saturn rises in east and sets in West

Sun Centered Only

- Positions of nearby stars shift back and forth slightly each year
- Mercury goes thorough a full cycle of phases

Both Models

- Moon rises in east and sets in west
- A distant galaxy rises in the east and sets in the west
- stars circle daily around north and south celestial pole

Neither Model

- We sometimes see a crescent Jupiter

An object must come between Earth and the Sun for us to see it in a crescent phase, which is why we see crescents only for Mercury, Venus, and the Moon.

Greek geocentric model, the retrograde motion of a planet occurs when the planet actually goes **backward in its orbit around Earth**

Random: Copernicus’s Sun-centered model did not make significantly better predictions of planetary positions in our sky. (not an advantage of it)

Tides:

- Any particular location on Earth has two high tides and two low tides each day.
- Tides also affect land, although not as much
- One tide bulge faces the moon, the other is away from
- The second tidal bulge arises because gravity weakens with distance, essentially stretching Earth along the Earth-Moon line.
- High tides are highest at both full moon and new moon
- Low tides are lowest at both full moon and new moon.
- Moon is larger factor than the sun because gravitational attraction between Earth and the Moon varies more across Earth than does the gravitational attraction between Earth and the Sun

12.4 Assignment 4

- The Sun emits all colors of visible light, but cooler gasses on the Sun's surface absorb some of these colors.
- The most intense color in an absorption spectrum can tell us the temperature of an object.
- **Wien's Law:** thermal radiation from a higher object peaks at a shorter wavelength.
- Electrons lose energy exactly equal to the proportion of distance between "rings" they jump, regardless of which rings they traverse.
- Visible light and radio waves reach the Earth's surface, infrared light reaches mountain tops, UV light reaches the upper atmosphere, and X-rays don't enter the atmosphere.
- The light-carrying area of a telescope varies at a rate double its diameter.
- The Hubble Telescope has a resolution of less than 0.1 arcseconds.

12.5 Assignment 5

Jovian planets _____ than terrestrial planets:

- Are more massive
- Are lower in average density
- Are bigger
- Orbit the Sun farther
- Have more moons
- Have rings

How are Pluto and Eris different from other planets:

- Smaller
- More elliptical orbits
- Less massive
- Similar composition to comets (ice and rock)

Characteristics of planets in our solar system:

- Large bodies have orderly motions
- There are exceptions to most trends
 - Venus spins backwards
 - Uranus rotates on its side (axial tilt $\approx 90^\circ$)
 - The moon is about $\frac{1}{4}$ the size of Earth
- Planets orbit the Sun in the same plane

- Planets closer to the Sun move around their orbits at higher speed than planets farther from the Sun
- All the planet (not counting Pluto) have nearly circular orbits

Small bodies:

- Rocky = asteroids
 - Found in the asteroid belt
- Icy = comets
 - Found in the Kuiper belt (starts around Neptune, extends past Pluto) and Oort cloud (sphere around the solar system, far beyond Pluto)

Detecting extrasolar planets

- Planets are very dim compared to their star, it makes it very hard to image them visually. The angular separation from Earth is also very small.
- We can detect planets by watching how their star “wobbles” due to their gravity (Doppler technique). This technique can only give us the **minimum** mass of the planet (unless it’s on the same plane as the Earth)
- Smaller orbital radius of planet results in higher max speed of the star and shorter period of rotation
- Mass of the planets only affects the max speed of the star in its “wobble”
- If the planets orbital plane lie between the Earth and the star we can see eclipses — a slight dip in the stars luminosity
- As of 2008, the most extrasolar planets have been discovered by the Doppler technique
- The Kepler mission mostly looked for eclipses
- Transit technique has the best chance of finding Earth-like planets
- The astrometric technique uses careful measurements of positions of celestial bodies to find planets

Properties of extrasolar planets (discovered so far):

- Some jovian planets have been found closer to their star than Mercury is to the Sun (hot Jupiters)
- Many are on very eccentric orbits
- Jovian planets migrate closer to their star from their original orbits
- Most are larger than Jupiter

Four process that shape planetary surfaces:

- Impact cratering
 - number of impacts per square area about the same for all planets

- Mostly occurs in the first few hundred million years after formation
- Primary factor for craters still being visible is if they’ve been erased, because they were definitely there at some point
- Volcanism
 - Outgassing explains how terrestrial planets got their atmospheres
- Tectonics
 - Happens beneath the *lithosphere*, the rigid layer of rock at the surface of a planet
 - Compression causes mountain ranges
 - Extension (stretching) causes cracks and valleys
 - Earth is the only planet where the lithosphere has been broken into plates
 - Lots of tectonic activity means lots of volcanic activity
 - Can only occur if the interior of the planet is liquid (hot!)
 - Big planets take longer to cool than small ones, so they have tectonic activity for longer
- Erosion
 - Occurs due to surface liquids, ices and gases
 - Liquid water is the best, causes much more pronounced features
 - Canyons (formed by glaciers), dunes, rock formations
 - Planet must be warm enough to have liquids, and big enough to capture an atmosphere

13 Definitions

13.1 Basic Astronomical Objects

star is a large, glowing ball of gas that generates heat and light through nuclear fusion in its core. Our Sun is a star.

planet is a moderately large object that orbits a star and shines primarily by reflecting light from its star. According to a definition approved in 2006, an object can be considered a planet only if it (1) orbits a star; (2) is large enough for its own gravity to make it round; and (3) has cleared most other objects from its orbital path. An object that meets the first two criteria but has not cleared its orbital path, like Pluto, is designated a dwarf planet.

moon (or satellite) is an object that orbits a planet. The term satellite can refer to any object orbiting another object. **asteroid** A relatively small and rocky object that orbits a star.

comet is a relatively small and ice-rich object that orbits a star.

extrasolar planet is a planet that orbits a star that is not our Sun.

13.2 Collections of Astronomical Objects

solar system is the Sun and all the material that orbits it, including the planets, dwarf planets, and small solar system bodies. Although the term solar system technically refers only to our own star system (solar means of the Sun), it is often applied to other star systems as well.

star system is a star (sometimes more than one star) and any planets and other materials that orbit it.

galaxy is a great island of stars in space, containing from a few hundred million to a trillion or more stars, all held together by gravity and orbiting a common center.

cluster (or group) of galaxies is a collection of galaxies bound together by gravity. Small collections (up to a few dozen galaxies) are generally called groups, while larger collections are called clusters.

supercluster is a gigantic region of space where many individual galaxies and many groups and clusters of galaxies are packed more closely together than elsewhere in the universe.

universe (or cosmos) are the sum total of all matter and energy – that is, all galaxies and everything between them. **observable universe** The portion of the entire universe that can be seen from Earth, at least in principle. The observable universe is probably only a tiny portion of the entire universe.

13.3 Astronomical Distance Units

astronomical unit (AU) is the average distance between Earth and the Sun, which is about 150 million kilometers. More technically, 1 AU is the length of the semimajor axis of Earth's orbit.

light-year is the distance that light can travel in 1 year, which is about 9.46 trillion kilometers.

13.4 Terms Relating to Motion

rotation is the spinning of an object around its axis. For example, Earth rotates once each day around its axis, which is an imaginary line connecting the North Pole to the South Pole.

orbit (revolution) is the orbital motion of one object around another. For example, Earth orbits around the Sun once each year.

expansion (of the universe) is the increase in the average distance between galaxies as time progresses. Note that while the universe as a whole is expanding, individual galaxies and galaxy clusters do not expand.

Doppler shift light is **bluer** if the object is moving **towards** the Earth, it is **redder** if the object is moving **away** from the Earth. The intensity of the light is related to the speed at which the object is moving toward / away from the Earth.

13.5 Telescopes

Diffraction limit The angular resolution before interference of light itself causes problems

14 Formulae and Values

Our solar system was formed 4.5 billion years ago, when about 2% of the galaxy's original Hydrogen and Helium had been converted to heavier elements. Thus the cloud which formed our galaxy was roughly 98% Hydrogen and Helium. The 2% of other materials form the core of the rocky planets in our systems, ie. the Earth.

The **Andromeda galaxy** is roughly 2.5 million light-years away and about 100,000 light-years in diameter. **Sirius**, the brightest star visible in the night sky, is 8 light-years away. **Alpha Centauri**, the closest star system to our own (a three star system), is 4.4 light-years away.

- $E_k = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$
- $v = \lambda f$
- Energy = $hf = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$
- $v_{\text{radial}} = \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} c$
- $F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2}$
- $p^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{(M_1 + M_2) * G} a^3$ (in our solar system years² = A.U.³)
- $L = 4\pi^2 R^2 \sigma_{SB} T^4$
- Angular separation (rad) = $\frac{\text{semi-major axis (AU)}}{\text{distance parsecs}}$
- $r_{\text{planet}} \approx r_{\text{star}} * \sqrt{\text{fraction of light blocked}}$
- Eccentricity of an ellipse: $e = \frac{f}{a}$ where f is the distance from the center to a focus
- momentum = mass * velocity
- $SA_{\text{sphere}} = 4\pi r^2$
- $\lambda_{\text{peak}} T = 2.898 * 10^{-3} m \cdot K$
- Time dilation: $t' = t * \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}$
- Length contraction: $l' = l * \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}$
- Mass increase: $m' = \frac{m}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2}}$
- Angular size, physical size, and distance are related as $\frac{l_{\text{angular}}}{360} = \frac{l_{\text{physical}}}{2\pi d}$

15 Data

Speed of light $2.998 * 10^8 m/s$

Light year $9.461 * 10^{15} \text{ m} = 63\,241 \text{ AU}$

Observable Universe Boundary $14 * 10^9 \text{ ly}$

Average Earth-Moon distance $385\,000 \text{ km}$

Average Earth-Sun distance (1 AU) $1.4959 * 10^{11} \text{ m}$

Diameter of the Sun $1.391 * 10^6 \text{ km}$

Planck's constant (h) $6.626 * 10^{-34} J \cdot s = 4.136 * 10^{-15} eV \cdot s$

StefanBoltzmann constant $5.67 * 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 K^4}$

Gravitational constant $6.673 * 10^{-11} N \cdot (m/kg)^2$

	Mercury	Venus	Earth	Moon	Mars	Jupiter	Saturn	Uranus	Neptune	Pluto
Mass (10^{24} kg)	0.330	4.87	5.97	0.073	0.642	1898	568	86.8	102	0.0131
Diameter (km)	4879	12,104	12,756	3475	6792	142,984	120,536	51,118	49,528	2390
Density (kg/m^3)	5427	5243	5514	3340	3933	1326	687	1271	1638	1830
Gravity (m/s^2)	3.7	8.9	9.8	1.6	3.7	23.1	9.0	8.7	11.0	0.6
Escape Velocity (km/s)	4.3	10.4	11.2	2.4	5.0	59.5	35.5	21.3	23.5	1.1
Rotation Period (hours)	1407.6	-5832.5	23.9	655.7	24.6	9.9	10.7	-17.2	16.1	-153.3
Length of Day (hours)	4222.6	2802.0	24.0	708.7	24.7	9.9	10.7	17.2	16.1	153.3
Distance from Sun (10^6 km)	57.9	108.2	149.6	0.384*	227.9	778.6	1433.5	2872.5	4495.1	5870.0
Perihelion (10^6 km)	46.0	107.5	147.1	0.363*	206.6	740.5	1352.6	2741.3	4444.5	4435.0
Aphelion (10^6 km)	69.8	108.9	152.1	0.406*	249.2	816.6	1514.5	3003.6	4545.7	7304.3
Orbital Period (days)	88.0	224.7	365.2	27.3	687.0	4331	10,747	30,589	59,800	90,588
Orbital Velocity (km/s)	47.4	35.0	29.8	1.0	24.1	13.1	9.7	6.8	5.4	4.7
Orbital Inclination (degrees)	7.0	3.4	0.0	5.1	1.9	1.3	2.5	0.8	1.8	17.2
Orbital Eccentricity	0.205	0.007	0.017	0.055	0.094	0.049	0.057	0.046	0.011	0.244
Axial Tilt (degrees)	0.01	177.4	23.4	6.7	25.2	3.1	26.7	97.8	28.3	122.5
Mean Temperature (C)	167	464**	15	-20	-65	-110	-140	-195	-200	-225
Surface Pressure (bars)	0	92	1	0	0.01	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	0
Number of Moons	0	0	1	0	2	67	62	27	14	5
Ring System?	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Global Magnetic Field?	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown

* From the Earth

** Due to intense greenhouse effect of thick atmosphere

16 Lecture Slides

16.1 Scale of the Universe

16.1.1 Objects in the Universe

- Star: A large, glowing ball of gas that generates heat and light through nuclear fusion
- Planet: A moderately large object that orbits a star; it shines by reflected light. Planets may be rocky, icy, or gaseous in composition.
- Moon: An object that orbits a planet
- Asteroid: A relatively small and rocky object that orbits a star
- Comet: A relatively small and icy object that orbits a star
- Solar System: A star and all the material that orbits it, including its planets and moons
- Nebular: An interstellar cloud of gas and/or dust
- Galaxy: A great island of stars in space, all held together by gravity and orbiting a common center
- Universe: The sum total of all matter and energy; that is, everything within and between all galaxies

16.1.2 Light Travels

Light travels at a finite speed (300,000 km/s) so the farther away we look the farther back in time we look. Light years are distance light travels in a year (9,460,000,000,000 km).

Destination	Light travel time
Moon	1s
Sun	8s
Sirius	8 years
Andromeda	2.5 million light years

16.1.3 The Universe is Big

We can't see a galaxy 15 billion light years away (universe is 14 billion years old) because looking 15 billion light-years away means looking to a time before the universe existed.

If we reduce the size of the solar system by a factor of 10 billion the sun is the size of a grapefruit and earth is the size of a ball point (15m from the sun) and alpha centauri is 2500 miles away

The milky way galaxy has about 100 billion stars. There are around 100 billion galaxies in universe. There are more stars in the universe than grains of sand on earth. It would take more than 3000 years to count the stars in the Milky Way Galaxy at a rate of one per second, and they are spread across 100,000 light-years.

The matter in our bodies came from the Big Bang, which produced hydrogen and helium. All other elements were constructed from H and He in stars and then recycled into new star systems, including our solar system. On a cosmic calendar that compresses the history of the universe into 1 year, human civilization is just a few seconds old, and a human lifetime is a fraction of a second.

16.1.4 Earth Moves Through Space

Earth orbits the sun at an average distance of $1\text{AU} = 150$ million kilometers (at $107,000$ km/h) and tilted by 23.5° rotating clockwise.

The sun moves $70,000$ km/h and orbits the galaxy every 230 million years.

Galaxies in our Local Group are moving away from us and the farther a galaxy is the faster it is moving, which implies that we live in an expanding universe.

16.2 Discovering the Universe for Yourself

16.2.1 View from Earth

With the naked eye we can see > 2000 stars as well as the milky way. Some of these stars are sorted into 88 constellations. These lie on the celestial sphere (all stars lie on celestial sphere).

- the **ecliptic** is the sun's apparent path through celestial sphere
- **north celestial pole** is directly above earth's north pole
- **celestial equator** is projection of earth's equator on celestial sphere

The milky way is a band of light making a circle around the celestial sphere (just our view into the plane of our galaxy).

16.2.2 Local Sky

An object's altitude (above horizon) and direction (along horizon) specify its location in your local sky.

- **meridian**: line through zenith and connecting N and S points on horizon
- **zenith**: point directly overhead
- **horizon**: all points 90 degrees from zenith

16.2.3 Measurements

Angular size of sun	0.5 degrees
Angular size of moon	0.5 degrees
Width of finger	1 degree
Width of hand	20 degrees
Width of fist	10 degrees

Arcminutes (denoted ') are 1/60 of a degree and arcseconds are 1/60 of arcminutes (denoted ").

$$\text{angular size} = \text{physical size} \times \frac{360^\circ}{2\pi \times \text{distance}}$$

16.2.4 Star Rise

Earth rotates west to east so stars appear to move east to west. Stars near the north pole are circumpolar and never set. Stars near south pole are not seen. What constellations we see depends on latitude (but not longitude) because position on Earth determines which constellations remain below the horizon, and time of year because Earth's orbit changes the apparent location of the Sun among the stars.

The altitude of the celestial pole equals your latitude (ex if Polaris is 50° above the horizon due north you are at latitude 50°N). All constellations move counter clockwise around Polaris.

16.2.5 Seasons

Direct sunlight heats more so in the summer we are angled toward the sun so we get more direct sunlight. Sun's position varies by season (summer has is higher). Earth's distance from Sun varies by at most 3% so it cannot effect the temperature as much as the axis tilt can.

- Summer solstice: highest path (rise and set at most extreme north)
- Winter solstice: lowest path (rise and set at most extreme south) for this half of the year the sun's angle at north pole is less than 0
- Spring/Fall equinox: middle path (rise and set at exactly east and west) here the angle of sun at noon on north pole is earth's axis tilt.

Earth's axis rotates once every 26,000 years

16.2.6 The Moon

Moon's phases:

- new (6am to 6pm)
- waxing crescent (glowey bit on the right) (9am to 9pm)
- first quarter (noon to midnight)
- waxing gibbous (3pm to 3am)

- full (6pm to 6am)
- waning gibbous (9pm to 9am)
- last quarter (midnight to noon)
- waning crescent (glowey bit on the left) (3am to 3pm)

A lunar eclipse occurs when earth casts a shadow across the moon. **Penumbra** is a glowing ring around (due to light refraction) **umbra** which is strict shadow.

- full lunar eclipse - moon passes through umbra
- partial lunar eclipse - moon partially passes through umbra
- penumbral lunar eclipse - moon passes through penumbra

Eclipses only occur with a full moon at night.

A solar eclipse only occurs at new moon during the day.

The Moon's orbit is tilted 5° to ecliptic plane. So we have about two eclipse seasons each year, with a lunar eclipse at new moon and solar eclipse at full moon. Eclipses recur with the 18-year, 11 1/3-day saros cycle, but type (e.g., partial, total) and location may vary.

16.2.7 Ancient Planets

- Mercury
 - difficult to see; always close to Sun in sky
- Venus
 - very bright when visible, morning or evening “star”
- Mars
 - noticeably red
- Jupiter
 - very bright
- Saturn
 - moderately bright

Ancients saw planets that moved eastward relative to the stars but occasionally went backwards (called **retrograde**). Impossible to explain with geocentric universe. The Greeks rejected the heliocentric universe because they couldn't observe the stellar parallax (difference in position of a star as seen from earth) because the change in distance was too small to be measured.

16.3 Science of Astronomy

The seven days of the week were named after the sun, moon, and five visible planets (tues-mars, wed-mercury, thurs-jupiter, fri-venus, sat-saturn).

Some ancient time peices:

- Stonehenge
- Templo Mayor (mexico)
- Sun dagger marks solstice(US)
- Macchu Picu
- Polynesia were good celestial navigators
- China first to record supernovas

16.3.1 Ancient Greeks

Greeks were the first people known to make models of nature. They tried to explain patterns in nature without resorting to myth or the supernatural.

Eratosthenes measured the size of earth in 240BC: Distance between two cities (Syene and Alexandria) was 5000 stadia, using a stick in a hole he could see that when the sun was directly overhead of alexandria it was off by 7 degrees in Syene. $7/360 * (\text{circumference of earth}) = 5000 \text{ stadia}$. Was only off by 2000km.

Greeks used geocentric model(heaves must be perfect with everything being perfect spheres and circles). This couldnt explain retrograde motion. Ptolemy came up with the most sphisticated geocentric model and it was accurate enough to be in use for 1500 years. He explained retrograde motion by having planets make little circles occasionally in their larger orbit of earth.

Which of the following is NOT a fundamental difference between the geocentric and Sun-centered models of the solar system?

1. Earth is stationary in the geocentric model but moves around Sun in Sun-centered model.
2. Retrograde motion is real (planets really go backward) in geocentric model but only apparent (planets don't really turn around) in Sun-centered model.
3. Stellar parallax is expected in the Sun-centered model but not in the Earth-centered model.
4. **F** The geocentric model is useless for predicting planetary positions in the sky, while even the earliest Sun-centered models worked almost perfectly.

Greek knowledge was preserved through:

- The Muslim world preserved and enhanced the knowledge they received from the Greeks.
- Al-Mamun's House of Wisdom in Baghdad was a great center of learning around A.D. 800.
- With the fall of Constantinople (Istanbul) in 1453, Eastern scholars headed west to Europe, carrying knowledge that helped ignite the European Renaissance.

16.3.2 Copernican Revolution

Copernicus:

- Proposed a Sun-centered model (published 1543)
- Used model to determine layout of solar system (planetary distances in AU) But . . .
- The model was no more accurate than the Ptolemaic model in predicting planetary positions, because it still used perfect circles.

Tycho Brahe:

- Compiled the most accurate (one arcminute) naked eye measurements ever made of planetary positions.
- Still could not detect stellar parallax, and thus still thought Earth must be at center of solar system (but recognized that other planets go around Sun).
- Hired Kepler, who used Tycho's observations to discover the truth about planetary motion.

Johannes Kepler:

- Kepler first tried to match Tycho's observations with circular orbits
- But an 8-arcminute discrepancy led him eventually to ellipses.

Kepler's laws:

1. The orbit of each planet around the Sun is an ellipse with the Sun at one focus
2. As a planet moves around its orbit, it sweeps out equal areas in equal times (means that a planet travels faster when it is nearer to the sun)
3. More distant planets orbit the Sun at slower average speeds, obeying the relationship: $p^2 = a^3$ where p = orbital period in years and a = avg. distance from Sun in AU

Galileo fixed some flaws in Copernican revolution:

- Earth could not be moving because objects in air would be left behind.
 - Galileo's experiments showed that objects in air would stay with Earth as it moves, showed that objects will stay in motion unless a force acts to slow them down
- Non-circular orbits are not "perfect" as heavens should be.
 - Tycho's observations of comet and supernova already challenged this idea.
 - Galileo used telescope to spot imperfections (sunspots, and craters on the moon)
- If Earth were really orbiting Sun, we'd detect stellar parallax.
 - Galileo showed stars must be much farther than Tycho thought in part by using his telescope to see the Milky Way is countless individual stars. If stars were much farther away, then lack of detectable parallax was no longer so troubling.

He also saw Jupiter's moons so not everything was orbiting earth. Proved Venus' orbit of the sun and used it to explain retrograde motion.

16.3.3 Scientific Theory

Science Hallmarks:

- Modern science seeks explanations for observed phenomena that rely solely on natural causes. (A scientific model cannot include divine intervention)
- Science progresses through the creation and testing of models of nature that explain the observations as simply as possible. (Simplicity = “Occam’s razor”)
- A scientific model must make testable predictions about natural phenomena that would force us to revise or abandon the model if the predictions do not agree with observations

A scientific theory must:

- Explain a wide variety of observations with a few simple principles
- Must be supported by a large, compelling body of evidence
- Must NOT have failed any crucial test of its validity

16.3.4 Astrology

Astronomy is a science focused on learning about how stars, planets, and other celestial objects work. Astrology is a search for hidden influences on human lives based on the positions of planets and stars in the sky.

16.4 Making Sense of the Universe: Understanding Motion, Energy, and Gravity

Momentum = mass X velocity.

Angular momentum = mass x velocity x radius

Remember that force is based on acceleration not speed.

Remember that weight force and mass is matter

Newtons Laws:

- An object moves at constant velocity unless a net force acts to change its speed or direction.
- Force = mass x acceleration
- For every force, there is always an equal and opposite reaction force

Conservation Laws:

- conservation of momentum
 - The total momentum of interacting objects cannot change unless an external force is acting on them.
 - Interacting objects exchange momentum through equal and opposite forces.

- conservation of angular momentum
 - The angular momentum of an object cannot change unless an external twisting force (torque) is acting on it.
 - Earth experiences no twisting force as it orbits the Sun, so its rotation and orbit will continue indefinitely.

Types of energy:

- Kinetic (motion)
- Radiative (light)
- Potential (stored)
- Thermal: The collective kinetic energy of many particles
 - Temperature is the average kinetic energy of the many particles in a substance
- Gravitational Potential
 - In space, an object or gas cloud has more gravitational energy when it is spread out than when it contracts. A contracting cloud converts gravitational potential energy to thermal energy
 - $F_g = G \frac{M_1 M_2}{d^2}$
 - items orbit around their center of mass (usually close to the big thing they are orbiting)
- Mass: $E = mc^2$
 - A small amount of mass can release a great deal of energy (for example, an H-bomb).
 - Concentrated energy can spontaneously turn into particles (for example, in particle accelerators).

We combine Newton's law of gravity and Keplers orbital law:

$$p^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(M_1+M_2)} a^3$$

p = orbital period
 a = average orbital distance
 M = object masses

The total orbital energy is the sum of gravitational and kinetic and remains the same (which is why we go faster closer). This means its very hard to change an orbit.

Earth's escape velocity is 11km/s (40000km/h)

Tides:

- caused by moon being closer to one side
- depends on phase because of sun's position
- tidal friction slows earths rotation, making moon get farther from Earth

16.5 Light and Matter: Reading Messages from the Cosmos

How do light and matter interact?

- emission/absorption (determines brightness)
- transmission
- reflection (determines color)

16.5.1 Waves

Speed of light = wavelength x frequency

Photon energy = (6.626×10^{-34}) plancks constant * frequency

Polarization is the direction a light wave is vibrating

16.5.2 Matter

Vocabulary:

- Atomic number = # of protons in nucleus
- Atomic mass number = # of protons + neutrons
- Isotope: same # of protons but different # of neutrons
- Ionization: stripping of electrons, changing atoms into plasma
- Dissociation: breaking of molecules into atoms
- Evaporation: breaking of flexible chemical bonds, changing liquid into solid
- Melting: breaking of rigid chemical bonds, changing solid into liquid

16.5.3 Light

Three types of spectra: emission line (specific elements emit light at certain wavelengths due to electrons jumping), continuous, absorption line (a cloud in between absorbs some light).

16.5.4 Thermal Radiation

Hotter objects emit more light at all frequencies per unit area. Hotter objects emit photons with a higher average energy.

Wein's law approximates starts to blackbody radiators (absorbs all kinds of radiation and emits energy regardless). Peak wavelength times the temperature is a constant (Planck radiation constant): $\lambda_{peak}T = 2.898 \times 10^3$. This also means that stars of shorter wavelength (blue) are hotter.

Interpreting Spectrum:

- look for parts of the visible spectrum that have lower intensity (low intensity blue light means it looks red and vice versa)
- look for a spike in the infrared to indicate temperature
- look for absorption lines for the content of the atmosphere
- look for emission lines to describe the upper atmosphere

16.5.5 Doppler effect

As something moves towards us its spectrum gets shifted

1. measure spectrum of stars composition in lab (heat gases)
2. measure spectrum of star
3. compare placement of lines
4. if wavelength of star is longer than lab (it shifted right/red) its moving away
5. $f_{star} = \sqrt{\frac{c-v}{c+v}} \times f_{lab}$

When an object is rotating the width of its spectral lines can tell us how fast its spinning.

16.6 Telescopes: Portals of Discovery

Two most important properties of telescopes:

- Light-collecting area: Telescopes with a larger collecting area can gather a greater amount of light in a shorter time.
 - $A = \pi r^2$
- Angular resolution: Telescopes that are larger are capable of taking images with greater detail.
 - minimum angular separation the telescope can distinguish, diffraction limit is caused by interference of light waves in telescope (larger = less interference)

Two basic designs:

- refracting: focus light with lenses
 - need to be long and large with heavy lenses
- reflecting: focus light with mirrors
 - larger diameters
 - most common

Uses of telescopes:

- imaging: pictures

- record only one color at a time
- use color to represent invisible light
- spectroscopy: breaking up light spectra
- time monitoring: watching how light output of object varies with time

Problems:

- twinkling: turbulence in earth's atmosphere distorts view and causes stars to twinkle (can be fixed by rapidly changing the shape of the mirror)
- light pollution
- certain wavelengths cannot pierce atmosphere
 - gamma rays - 10km, balloons
 - x rays - 100km, rockets
 - ultraviolet - some reach earth but some require rockets
 - visible - reaches ground
 - infrared - 5km, some mountains, planes
 - radio - reaches ground

Telescopes:

- radio: giant mirror that reflects radio waves to focus point
- infrared and ultraviolet: like visible telescopes but need to be above the atmosphere
- x-ray: also need to be above atmosphere, mirrors arranged to focus x-ray photons through grazing bounces off of mirrors
- gamma-ray: also need to be above atmosphere, fucking hard to focus gamma rays

Multiple telescopes (Interferometry) increase the angular resolution of a single large image.

16.7 Our Planetary System

What does the solar system look like?

- There are eight major planets with nearly circular orbits.
- Dwarf planets are smaller than the major planets and some have quite elliptical orbits.
- Planets all orbit in same direction and nearly in same plane.

Comparative Planetology (find patterns among planets)

- Planets are very tiny compared to distances between them.
- All large bodies in the solar system orbit in the same direction and in nearly the same plane and most rotate in the same direction

- two planet types
 - terrestrial
 - jovian
- Many rocky asteroids and icy comets populate the solar system.











Exceptions:

- Uranus spins sideways
- earth has a large moon
- venus rotates backwards

Objects:

- sun
 - Over 99.9% of solar system's mass
 - Made mostly of H/He gas (plasma)
 - Converts 4 million tons of mass into energy each second
- mercury
 - Made of metal and rock; large iron core
 - Desolate, cratered; long, tall, steep cliffs
 - Very hot, very cold: 425C (day), 170C (night)
- venus
 - Nearly identical in size to Earth; surface hidden by clouds
 - Hellish conditions due to an extreme greenhouse effect
 - Even hotter than Mercury: 470C, day and night
- earth
 - An oasis of life
 - The only surface liquid water in the solar system
 - A surprisingly large moon
- mars
 - Looks almost Earth-like, but don't go without a spacesuit!
 - Giant volcanoes, a huge canyon, polar caps, more
 - Water flowed in distant past; could there have been life?
- jupiter
 - Much farther from Sun than inner planets

- Mostly H/He; no solid surface
- 300 times more massive than Earth
- Many moons, rings
 - * Io (shown here): active volcanoes all over
 - * Europa: possible subsurface ocean
 - * Ganymede: largest moon in solar system
 - * Callisto: a large, cratered "ice ball"
- saturn
 - Giant and gaseous like Jupiter
 - Spectacular rings: Rings are NOT solid; they are made of countless small chunks of ice and rock, each orbiting like a tiny moon.
 - Many moons, including cloudy Titan
- uranus
 - Smaller than Jupiter/Saturn; much larger than Earth
 - Made of H/He gas and hydrogen compounds(H₂O, NH₃, CH₄)
 - Extreme axis tilt
 - Moons and rings
- neptune
 - Similar to Uranus (except for axis tilt)
 - Many moons (including Triton)
- dwarf planets
 - Much smaller than major planets
 - Icy, comet-like composition
 - Pluto's main moon (Charon) is of similar size

Planet	Relative Size	Average Distance from Sun (AU)	Average Equatorial Radius (km)	Mass (Earth = 1)	Average Density (g/cm ³)	Orbital Period	Rotation Period	Axis Tilt	Average Surface (or Cloud-Top) Temperature ^b	Composition	Known Moons (2012)	Rings?
Mercury		0.387	2440	0.055	5.43	87.9 days	58.6 days	0.0°	700 K (day) 100 K (night)	Rocks, metals	0	No
Venus		0.723	6051	0.82	5.24	225 days	243 days	177.3°	740 K	Rocks, metals	0	No
Earth		1.00	6378	1.00	5.52	1.00 year	23.93 hours	23.5°	290 K	Rocks, metals	1	No
Mars		1.52	3397	0.11	3.93	1.88 years	24.6 hours	25.2°	220 K	Rocks, metals	2	No
Jupiter		5.20	71,492	318	1.33	11.9 years	9.93 hours	3.1°	125 K	H, He, hydrogen compounds ^c	67	Yes
Saturn		9.54	60,268	95.2	0.70	29.5 years	10.6 hours	26.7°	95 K	H, He, hydrogen compounds ^c	62	Yes
Uranus		19.2	25,559	14.5	1.32	83.8 years	17.2 hours	97.9°	60 K	H, He, hydrogen compounds ^c	27	Yes
Neptune		30.1	24,764	17.1	1.64	165 years	16.1 hours	29.6°	60 K	H, He, hydrogen compounds ^c	13	Yes
Pluto		39.5	1160	0.0022	2.0	248 years	6.39 days	112.5°	44 K	Ices, rock	5	No
Eris		67.7	1200	0.0028	2.3	557 years	1.08 days	78°	43 K	Ices, rock	1	No

16.7.1 Spacecraft Exploration

Flyby: flys past a planet (usually a slingshot type path), cheapest but gathers less data

Orbiters: go into orbit around object, more time to gather data

Probes and Landers: land on surface, most expensive

Combination: an orbiter drops a lander and continues its orbit

16.8 Other Planetary Systems: The New Science of Distant Worlds

Its hard to learn about extrasolar planets because planets are too close to their star and too dark to easily see.

Planet Detection:

- Direct: pictures or spectra of the planets themselves
- Indirect: measurements of stellar properties revealing the effects of orbiting planets

Stars wobble back and forth a bit because they are also pulled by their planets' gravity which we can use to reveal the mass (this is a lower limit since we would need to know its tilt to be accurate) and orbit of planets. These changes are very hard to see and we need to use doppler technique to measure them (accurate to 1m/s of movement).

The first extrasolar planet was discovered around 51 Pegasi when a 4 day orbital cycle was found. This means that the planet is very close to the star (it also has a mass similar to jupiter)

If you see a star with a wobble of greater than 1 year it has a planet closer than 1AU.

We can also watch for changes in brightness when a planet passes infront of the star called a transit. We use this to tell the planet's radius. The Kepler mission was launched to look for these tiny changes in brightness.

We can also use gravitational lensing to see how a planet's mass bends the light of a star and dust disks to see gaps in disks of dust and gas around stars where planets are.

We can also monitor the change in spectrum during a planet's transit across its star to know about its atmosphere composition. Similarly we can measure the surface tempertaure of the planet by seeing how the temperature of the star changes as the planet passes it.

Most detected planets have orbits smaller than Jupiter's but this is because planets at a farther distance are harder to detect. Some extrasolar planets have more eliptical orbits and tend to have greater mass than Jupiter (this is also because smaller mass planets are harder to detect).

Extrasolar planet supprises:

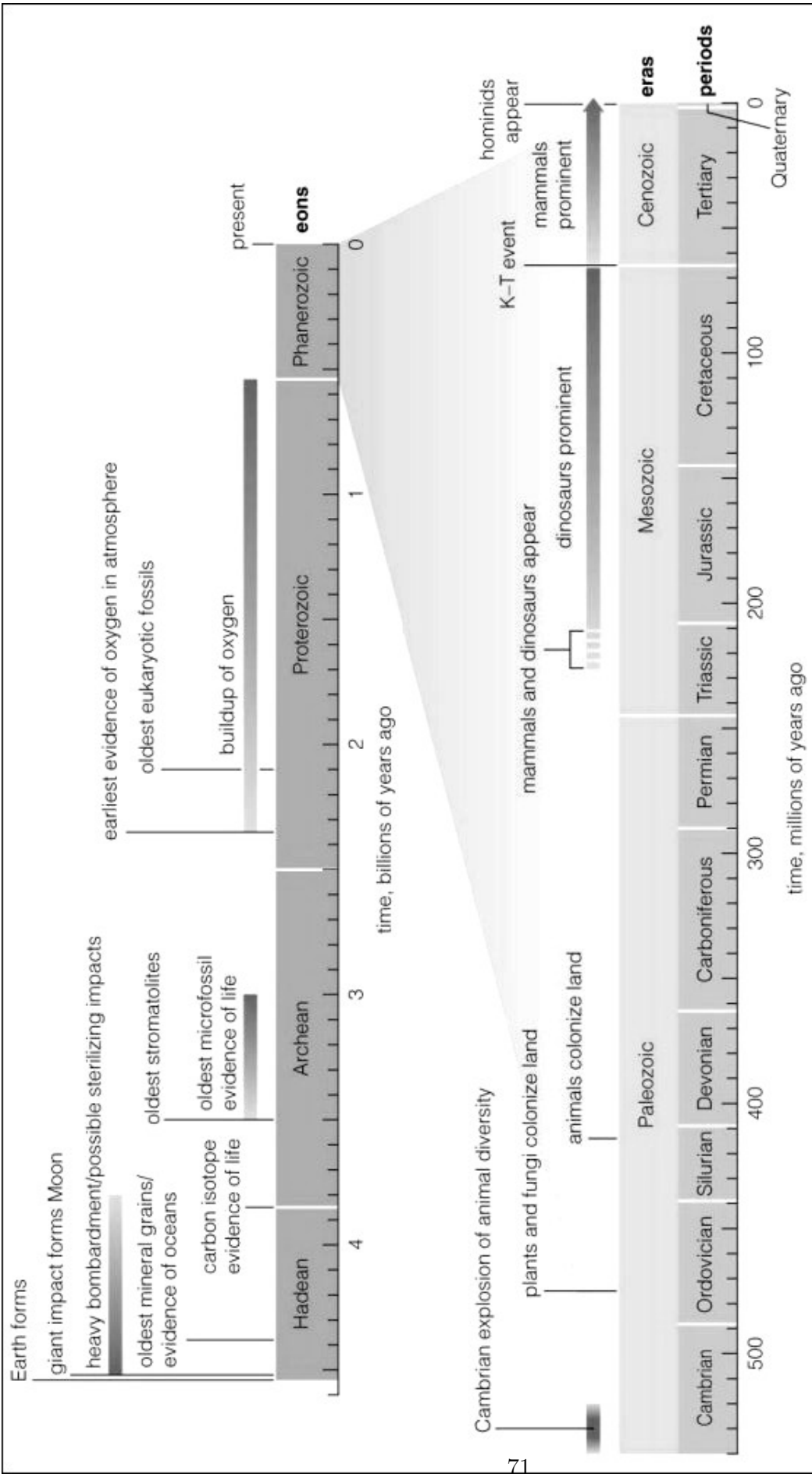
- highly elliptical orbits
- huge diversity of size and density
- massive planets very close to their start (hot Jupiters)
 - Nebular theory predicts that massive planets cannot form inside of frost line ($\ll 5\text{AU}$)

- may be explained by planetary migration or gravitational encounters
 - * **planetary migration:** young planets spin very quickly and can form disks which can tug the planet's orbit inward
 - * **gravitational encounters:** two massive planets getting too close to each other can result in one getting ejected into a highly elliptical orbit, multiple ones can cause an inward migration, this is due to one planet transferring energy and angular momentum to the other

The above weirdness caused a re-evaluation of Nebular Theory.

16.9 Life in the Universe

Life on earth started 3.85 billion years ago shortly after a heavy bombardment as fossils and carbon dating imply. Fossils tend to be found in sedimentary rock.



We all know that life came about through evolution. Genetics builds a tree of life through relationships that implies a common ancestor for all life probably similar to bacteria found deep in the ocean near volcanic vents. We still don't know how that common ancestor came to be. The Miller-Urey experiment (among others) shows that the building blocks of life can arise spontaneously under the conditions of early earth.

Chemicals to Life:

1. Naturally forming organic molecules are building blocks of life
2. Clay minerals catalyze production of RNA and membranes that form pre-cells
3. Molecular natural selection favors efficient self-replicating RNA molecules
4. True living cells with RNA genome give rise to RNA world
5. DNA evolves from RNA and biological evolution continues

One idea is that life could have come from another planet (Venus, Earth, and Mars exchanged tones of rock and some microbes can survive for years in space).

Brief History of life:

- 4.4 billion years - early oceans form
- 3.5 billion years - cyanobacteria start releasing oxygen
- 2.0 billion years - oxygen begins building up in atmosphere
- 540-500 million years - Cambrian Explosion
- 225-65 million years - dinosaurs and small mammals (dinosaurs ruled)
- Few million years - earliest hominids

Oxygen didn't always exist so readily on earth. The evolution of **cyanobacteria** kicked it off by releasing oxygen to the atmosphere using photosynthesis.

(Bear)Necessity of Life:

- nutrient source
- energy
- liquid water

16.9.1 Life on Other Planets

Erosion lines on Mars imply that it had liquid water in its distant past, there is still subsurface ice which could result in near surface water near its volcanoes. The Curiosity rover landed on Mars to investigate the habitability of the planet.

Another potential is the moon **Europa** which we think has a layer of liquid water or warm convecting ice. Two other Jupiter moons, **Ganymede** and **Callisto** also show evidence of subsurface oceans. Very little energy reaches these moons, but life may be possible.

The moon **Titan** is much too cold for liquid water (there may be some deep under the surface) but it does have lakes of liquid methane.

Enceladus has ice foundations that suggest it may have a subsurface ocean.

16.9.2 Life Outside our Solar System

Habitable Solar System:

- old enough to allow time for evolution (no high mass stars, too young, 1% of systems)
- need to have stable orbits (might rule out multistar systems, 50% of systems)
- must have habitable zone (place where planets of the right size could have liquid water), larger stars have larger zones

There are billions of stars in the milky way alone that fulfill the above constraints.

It is very hard to spot a earth like planet due to their size and distance from their star (see previous section on finding extrasolar planets for a better explanation). We launched Kepler specifically to look at 100,000 stars for habitable planets and future inferometers may be precise enough to see earth-sized planets.

We can also use spectrometry to see the composition of planets to determine if they have the elements necessary for life.

16.9.3 Earth-like Planets

Some scientists argue that the proportions of heavy elements need to be just right for the formation of habitable planets. If so, then Earth-like planets are restricted to a galactic habitable zone.

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Some scientists argue that plate tectonics and/or a large moon are necessary to keep the climate of an Earth-like planet stable enough for life.

We dont know how important the above concerns are so its very hard to make a guess as to how common earth-like planets are and how many would be habitable.

16.9.4 The Search for Extraterrestrial Intelligence

The drake equation tries to calculate how many civilization we could communicate with exist

$$N_{HP} \times f_{life} \times f_{civ} \times f_{now}$$

N_{HP} = total number of habitable planets in galaxy = probably billions

f_{life} = fraction of habitable planets with life = hard to say (near 0 or 1)

f_{civ} = fraction of life-bearing planets with civilization at some time = took 4 billion years on earth

f_{now} = fraction of civilizations around now = depends on if civilizations survive long-term

Humans are not very exceptional (not too far from a line of best fit) in our brain mass to body mass ratio.

SETI is designed to look for deliberate signals from extraterrestrial civilizations and even to send some messages of our own.

16.9.5 Interstellar Travel and Communications

Current spacecrafts travel at one ten thousandth of the speed of light which means it would take a ridiculous amount of time to get to the nearest stars. We sent a message out with Voyager in hopes of reaching one someday.

Problems with space travel:

- Far more efficient engines are needed.
- Energy requirements are enormous.
- Ordinary interstellar particles become like cosmic rays.
- Social complications of time dilation.

Fermi's paradox suggests that civilizations should be very common in our galaxy so why haven't we found any.

Explanations:

- life/civilization is much rarer than we might have guessed
- Civilizations are common, but interstellar travel is not
 - interstellar travel is more difficult than we think.
 - the desire to explore is rare.
 - civilizations destroy themselves before achieving interstellar travel.
- we just haven't met them yet

16.10 Space and Time

Einstein's Theories of Relativity:

- Special Relativity: usual ideas of space and time change as we approach the speed of light ($E = mc^2$)
 - no object can travel faster than light
 - observing a object near the speed of light:
 - * time slows down
 - * length contracts in direction of motion
 - * mass increases

– simultaneousness changes based on your frame of reference

- General Relativity: new views of gravity

Motion is relative. Usually how fast you perceive something is based on your velocity compared to it. The exception is light which always is seen at the same speed (called **absolute relativity**)

Postulates of special relativity:

- laws of nature are the same for everyone
- speed of light is the same for everyone

Time Dilation:

$$t_1 = t_0 \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)}$$

Length Contraction:

$$l_1 = l_0 \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)}$$

Mass Increase:

$$m_1 = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)}}$$

Since no information can be transferred faster than the speed of light objects traveling near the speed of light will perceive information at different rates since the information is moving much more slowly relative to their speed.

16.10.1 Tests for Relativity

Michelson-Morley experiment found evidence for the absoluteness of the speed of light in 1887.

Time dilation occurs often to subatomic particles in accelerators.

Time dilation discovered with airplanes and very precise clocks.

$E = mc^2$ verified by measurements taken of the sun.

If the speed of light were not absolute light coming from a car moving towards you would travel at $100\text{km/hr} + c$ and a car moving parallel to you would be seen at 100 km/hr so witnessing their collision would look very odd.

16.11 Searching the Stars

16.11.1 Brightness

The brightness of a star depends on both distance and luminosity (amount of power a star radiates in energy per second, ie. Watts). The apparent brightness is the amount of starlight that reaches Earth in energy per second per square meter.

In concentric spheres, the amount of luminosity through each sphere is identical, ie. we can divide luminosity by area to find brightness ($b = \frac{l}{2\pi d^2}$).

The brightness at a distance three times farther, then, is, one-ninth as much.

Given the parallax angle p in arcseconds, the distance in parsecs is the inverse of p and the distance in light-years is $d = 3.26 * \frac{1}{p}$.

We define magnitude m and apparent magnitude M as and ratio in luminosity is equal to $(100^{\frac{1}{5}})^{M_1-M_2}$ and the ratio in apparent brightness is $(100^{\frac{1}{5}})^{m_1-m_2}$. Thus, the brighter a star is, the lower its magnitude. We can think of magnitude as a “ranking” of stars by brightness.

16.11.2 Star Spectrums

Absorption lines in a star’s spectrum tell us its ionization level. These lines also correspond to a spectral type which reveals its temperature (from hottest to coolest: O B A F G K M).

16.11.3 Thermal Radiation

Hotter objects emit more thermal radiation at all frequencies.

The hottest stars are approximately $50,000K$, the coolest are $3,000K$. Ours is roughly $5,800K$. Note that these are surface temperatures: our Sun’s core has a temperature of roughly ten million Kelvin.

Note that the mass of these stars range from 0.08 to 100 times the mass of our Sun.

The life expectancy of our star is 10 billion years. A star ten times more massive uses 10^4 times as much fuel, so lasts only 10 million years.

16.11.4 Binary Systems

About half of all stars are in binary systems.

16.12 Patterns Among Stars

An H-R diagram plots the luminosity and temperature of stars. Most stars fall on its main sequence.

Detailed modeling of the oldest globular clusters reveal they are about 13 billion years old.

16.13 Stellar Nurseries

Stars form in dark clouds of dusty gas in interstellar space. The gas between stars is called the **interstellar medium**.

The molecular clouds – which contain the bulk of matter in interstellar space – have a temperature of ten to thirty Kelvin and densities of approx 300 molecules per cubic cm.

Long wavelength light such as infrared light passes through these clouds more easily than visible light; this is why we can see the center of the Milky Way only with infrared light.

Gravity can create stars only if it can overcome the force of thermal pressure within the cloud. A typical cloud must contain at least a few hundred solar masses to overcome this pressure.

Gravity within a contracting gas cloud becomes smaller as the gas becomes denser; thus it can cause the cloud to break apart into fragments which may each form a star.

As contraction packs molecules closer, it becomes difficult for infrared and radio photons to escape. Thermal energy and pressure then build up. This slows down contractions, and the center of the cloud fragment becomes a **protostar**.

Protostars *must* be rotating in order to form planets.

More low-mass stars tend to form than high-mass ones.