

Stars, Galaxies & the Universe Announcements

- **HW#6 – due Friday by 5 pm!**
- **Nearly half way through HWs and Read Quizzes**
 - Make sure you are getting your points
- **In-class Quizzes #4, #5, #6 – grades in ICON tonight**
- **Labs meet regularly this week**
 - spectroscopy or the solar lab

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Stars, Galaxies & the Universe Lecture Outline

1. Space Weather
 - Solar Wind
 - Van Allen Belts/Aurorae
2. Formation of Stars & Planets

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Solar Wind:

a not very dense flow of particles from Solar Corona into space
moves past Earth ~4 days after it leaves Sun



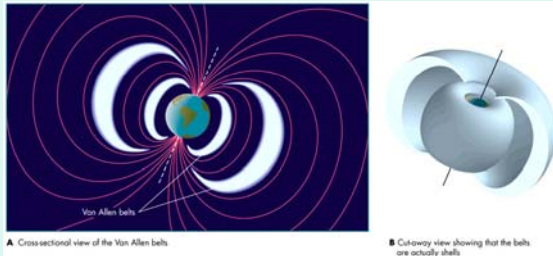
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Van Allen Belts protect Earth from highly-charged (energetic) Solar particles!

- discovered by Dr. James Van Allen in 1958
- first flight of a U.S. Earth-orbiting satellite
- Van Allen insisted that Geiger counter be on board to count particle detections (found VA Belts!!)



A Cross-sectional view of the Van Allen belts

B Cutaway view showing that the belts are actually shells

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October 4th 1957 - 50th anniversary - first artificial satellite orbits the Earth!

IGY - International Geophysical Year (July 1957-December 1958)

The US program included investigations of aurora and airglow, cosmic rays, geomagnetism, glaciology, gravity, the ionosphere, determinations of longitude and latitude, meteorology, oceanography, seismology, solar activity, and the upper atmosphere.



Sputnik

The world's first artificial satellite

- size of a beach ball (22.8 inches diameter)
- weighed 83.6 kg (183.9 lbs) (US effort ~4 lbs)
- took 98 minutes to orbit the Earth, h=900 km

Changed way people thought about the world

- fear of on-board nuclear weapons
- increased US space effort
- November 3rd, 1957 Sputnik 2 launched with first on-board passenger (Laika, a dog!)
- Sputnik 2 was ~1000 lbs, orbited for 200 days!

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January 31st 1958: Launch of Explorer 1

After Sputnik, US effort was increased

- charge was to get an artificial satellite up! 84 days later, Explorer 1 launched
 - scientific instruments built by Dr. Van Allen, rest designed by Pickering
- Explorer-I was placed in an orbit with a perigee of 224 miles and an apogee of 1,575 miles having a period of 114.9 minutes. Weight was 30.66 lbs (18.35 lbs instrumentation)



Instrumentation built to detect cosmic rays

- highly-energetic charged particles (90% protons, 9% alpha particles & 1% electrons)
- where do they come from?

Once in orbit, Explorer 1 detected fewer cosmic rays than predicted

- Van Allen's theory that there were "belts" trapping the Cosmic rays

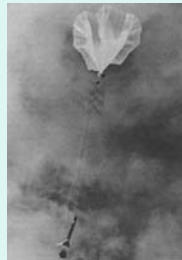


Van Allen's Early Experiments: Rockoons

Rockoon - hybrid instrument: Rocket and balloon

The rockoon was a solid fuel rocket that, rather than being immediately lit while on the ground, was first carried into the upper atmosphere a gas-filled balloon, and then separated from the balloon when it had reached its maximum height and automatically ignited.

As [TIME](#) reported in 1959, Van Allen's Rockoons could not be fired in Iowa for fear that the spent rockets would strike an Iowa or his house. So Van Allen convinced the [U.S. Coast Guard](#) to let him fire his rockoons from the icebreaker [Eastwind](#) that was bound for [Greenland](#). The first balloon rose properly to 70,000 ft., but the rocket hanging under it did not fire. The second Rockoon behaved in the same maddening way. On the theory that extreme cold at high altitude might have stopped the clockwork supposed to ignite the rockets, Van Allen heated cans of orange juice, smuggled them into the third Rockoon's gondola, and wrapped the whole business in insulation. The rocket fired."

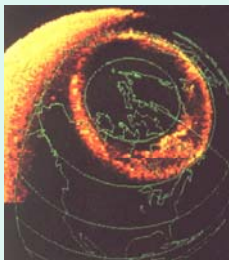


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Auroral Phenomena



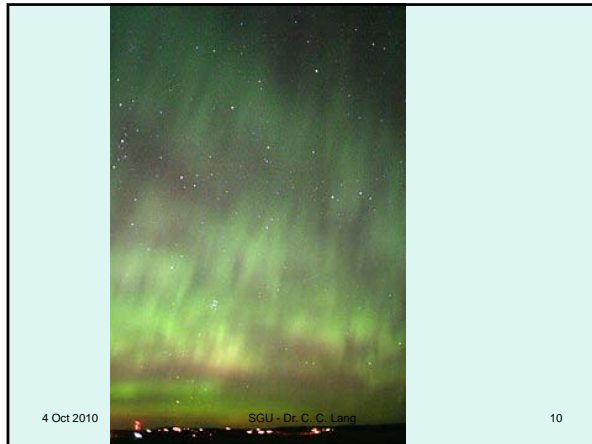
→ Sometimes magnetosphere gets overloaded with charged particles

→ Solar wind electrons precipitate into polar regions, ionizing nitrogen and oxygen atoms




Saturn Aurora HST • STIS
PRC08-05 • ST ScI OPO • January 7, 1998 • J. Trauger (JPL) and NASA

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University of Iowa Space Physics Research



- group led by Dr. Craig Kletzing in U Iowa's Physics & Astronomy Dept.
- study of particles in auroral regions, magnetic fields, energetics of this region
- build/design detectors and instruments here in Van Allen Hall
- launch the spacecraft into the auroral regions from northern Alaska at night

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How do stars form?

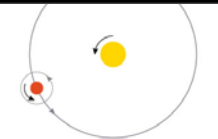
How did our Solar System (including the planets) form?

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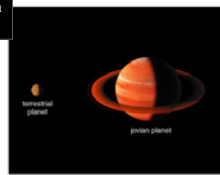
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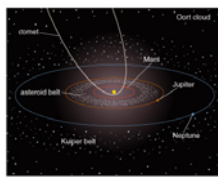
A theory for formation of the Solar System needs to describe:



1. Large bodies in the solar system have orderly motions. All planets and most satellites have nearly circular orbits going in the same direction in nearly the same plane. The Sun and most of the planets orbit in the same direction as well.



2. The first eight planets fall into two major categories: small, rocky terrestrial planets near the Sun and large, hydrogen-rich jovian planets farther out. The jovian planets have many moons and rings made of rocks and ice.

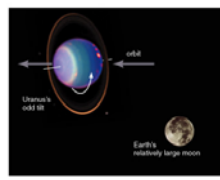


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3. Swarms of asteroids and comets populate the solar system. Asteroids are concentrated in the asteroid belt, and comets populate the regions known as the Kuiper belt and the Oort cloud.



4. A few notable exceptions to these general trends stand out, such as planets with unusual axis tilt or surprisingly large moons, and moons with unusual orbits.

Interstellar Medium: stuff between stars

- stars are just one component of the universe
- "interstellar medium" (ISM) is material between them



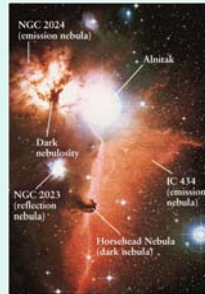
visible picture of Milky Way

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Where is the birthplace (“Stellar Nursery”) of stars?



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LARGE regions of dark nebulae (dust, molecular hydrogen) are known as **GIANT MOLECULAR clouds!**

- very cold molecular hydrogen ~10 K
- as much as a million solar masses of material
- 10-100's of light years across and deep



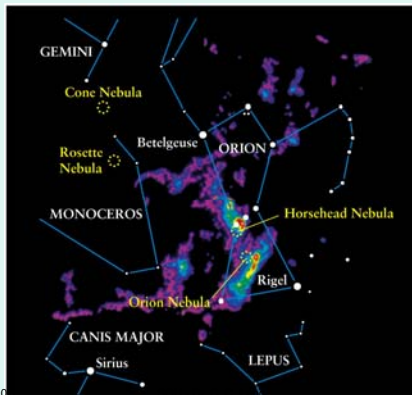
Hydrogen Molecules
rotate and vibrate

These rotations/vibrations
correspond to MICROWAVES
(short radio waves)

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Interstellar DUST – keeps our Galaxy dark!



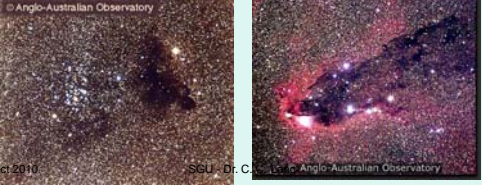
- only 40% of light from a star 3000 ly away is seen by us
- the other 60% is absorbed by dust
- only 16% of light from a star 15,000 ly away is seen by us!

→ “Interstellar Extinction”

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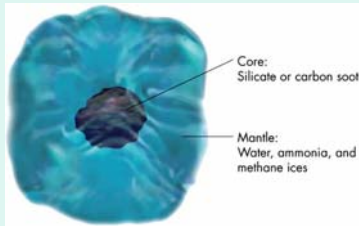
Properties of Dark Nebulae

- concentrations of cold hydrogen and microscopic *dust* particles
- how cold? ~10-100 K (hydrogen is a molecule)
- the main observed property of a dark nebula **is that it is dark – it absorbs surrounding radiation**



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What does an interstellar “dust grain” look like?
- an artists’ conception:



→ SIZES of DUST GRAINS: variety
- typically in the range of visible light ~500 nm across

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Interstellar extinction prevents
us from seeing starlight from inner
parts of our Galaxy!

...need to use radio telescopes to
study our Galactic Center: radio
waves are not affected by dust, gas

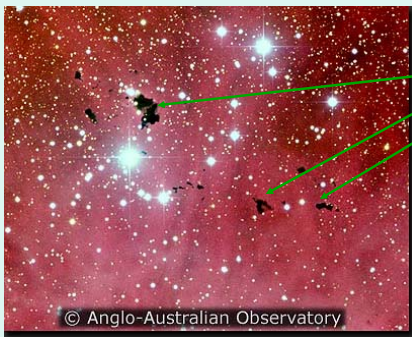


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Stars form in very dense regions



“Bok
globules”

masses:
1-1000
solar masses

sizes:
few light years

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How does a star form?

1. Coldest, darkest part of a cloud/nebula collapses

Gravity inwards (due to mass of gas/dust)
balanced by
Pressure outwards

Pressure: combination of **DENSITY** and
TEMPERATURE of dust/gas

density: quite high in dark nebulae (10^4 - 10^9 cm^{-3})

temperature: VERY LOW – only $\sim 10 \text{ K}$

→ **GRAVITY** wins and the dark nebula collapses

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embedded
collapsing
objects



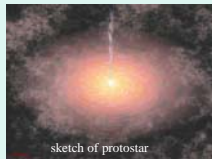
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2. Protostars

- protostars result from collapse of cloud core
- gravitational energy from collapse → thermal energy
 - At first, radiate strongly in the **infrared** band
 - But then they become “opaque” to infrared light
- object heats up as it can't lose energy
- interior gets hotter – up to 15 million K
- eventually, the collapse halts and the object begins to resemble a star
- collapse takes ~ 10 million years

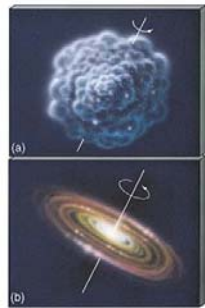


for a Sun-like star, that is only $1/10^{\text{th}}$
of its lifetime

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Cloud cores are rotating!

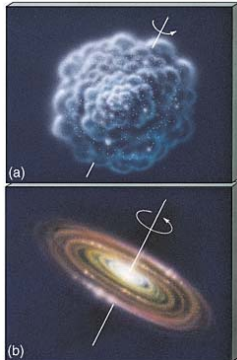
- collapsing cloud does not form spherical object

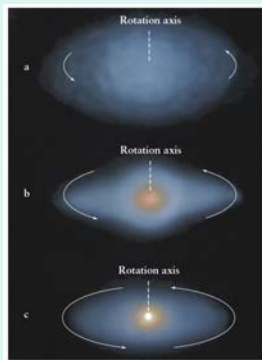
1. central SPHERE “protostar”
2. surrounding DISK

- protostar & disk system
- smaller than original cloud core
- bigger than the final star

100-1000 AU's across

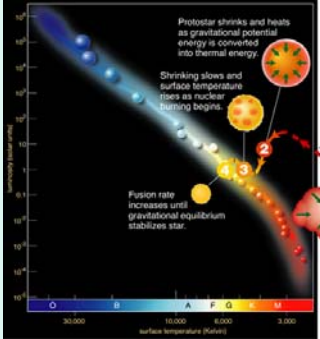
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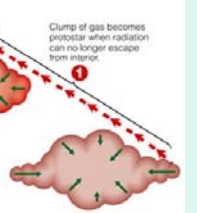




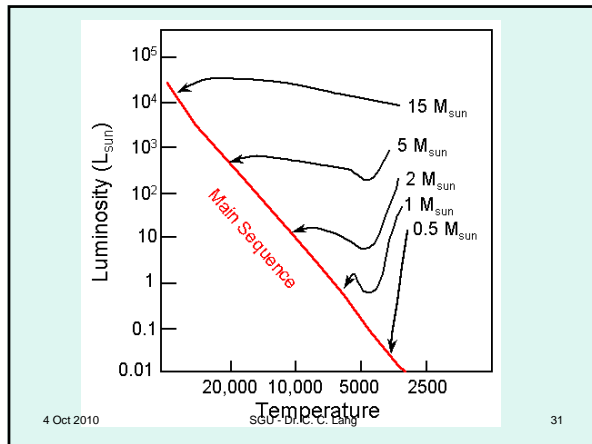
Resulting shape: sphere at center, with flattened disk surrounding it

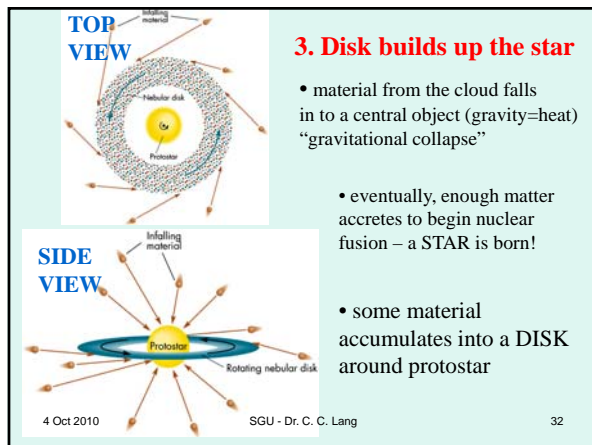
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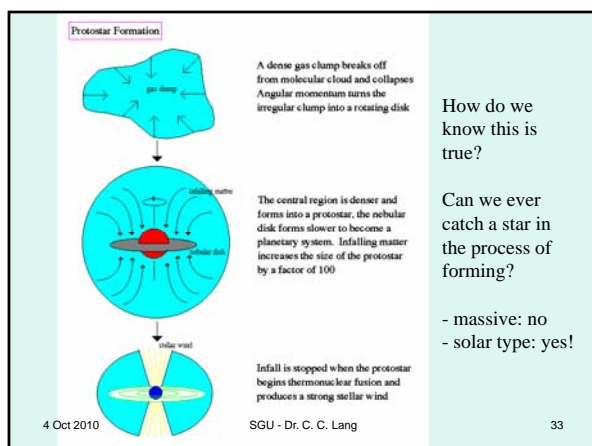




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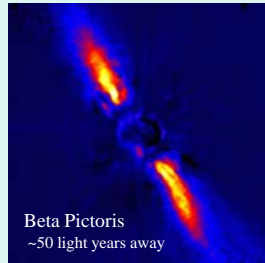




Observations of disks around protostars:



AB Aurigae
~470 ly away
disk ~ 3000 AU
star is 2-4 million yrs. old



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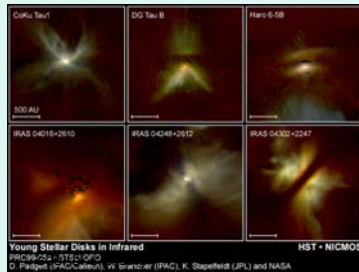
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Observational evidence: "Protostars" and their DISKS

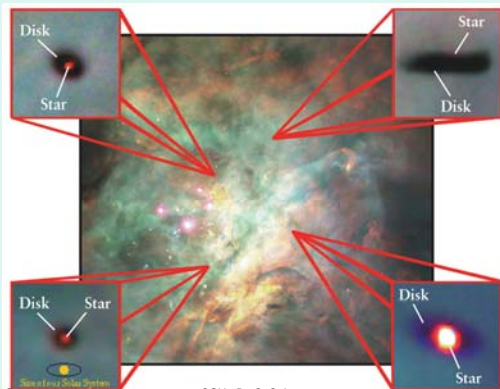
- protostar emits energy in the **infrared** but also has a disk of colder material
- disk can block the infrared light

Hubble images – the line shows 500 AU in size!

These are 1000 AU across



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Protostars also have observable JETS

- protostars also LOSE mass as they are forming
- high powered JETS of material shoot out from protostar
-extend for hundreds of AU

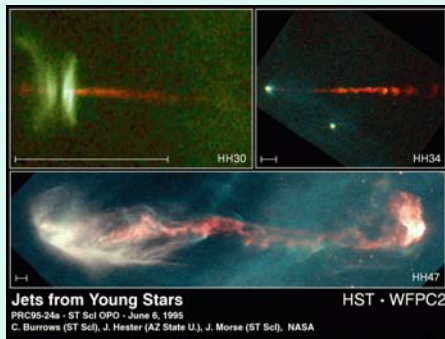


size of bar =
200 AU

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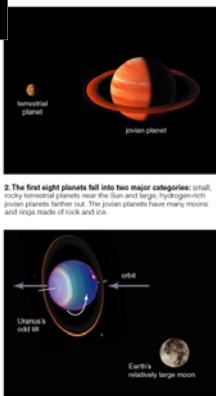
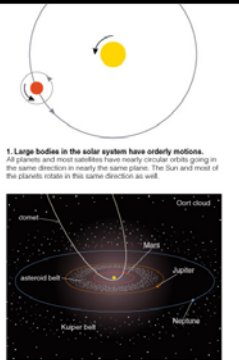
Observational evidence: “Jets” from protostars



size of bar:
1000 AU in
each picture

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**A theory for formation of the Solar System
needs to describe:**



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C. Lang notable exceptions to these general trends stand out, such as planets with unusual axis tilts or surprisingly large moons, and moons with unusual orbits.

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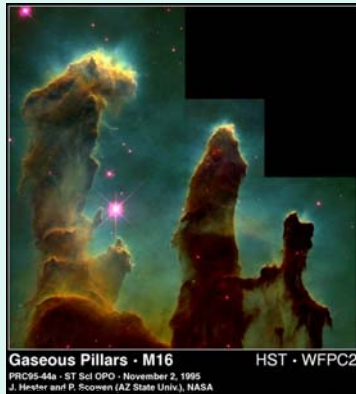
The Birth of the Solar System

- the Solar System Started as a cloud of Hydrogen, Helium → Sun

- universe by nature is 98% H, He

- 2% of the universe is composed of “heavier” than H, He

- common elements in that 2%:
carbon oxygen
nitrogen neon silicon
~~magnesium~~ sulfur iron



(a)

(b)

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The collapse of an interstellar gas cloud:

- Heating**
(temperature increases during collapse; gravitational potential)
- Spinning**
(cloud spins faster as it collapses – angular momentum)
- Flattening**
(random motions become more orderly; i.e. material orbits in a flat disk)

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Leftover rocky planets – Asteroids – convene in the “Asteroid Belt”

Leftover Jovian planets – Comets– convene in the “Kuiper Belt” and “Oort Cloud”

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Evolution of the Solar Nebula

The solar nebula's composition was similar to the present-day Sun's composition:

- 98% hydrogen and helium
- 1.4% hydrogen "compounds" (water, methane, ammonia)
- < 0.6% other ("heavies")

Near Sun (closer than Mercury's orbit): too hot for anything to condense ($T > 1600$ K)









Mercury's orbit: cool enough for metals to condense (not hydrogen compounds)

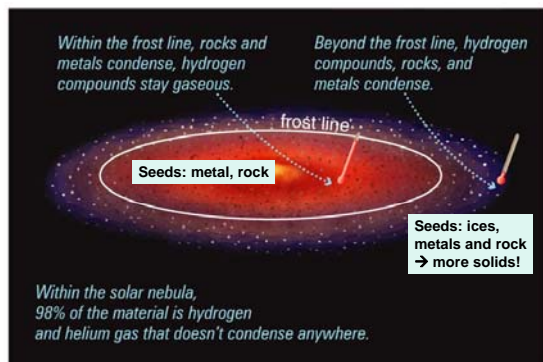
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Table 8.1 Materials in the Solar Nebula

A summary of the four types of materials present in the solar nebula. The squares represent the relative proportions of each type (by mass).

Examples	Typical Condensation Temperature	Relative Abundance (by mass)
Hydrogen and Helium Gas 	do not condense	 98%
Hydrogen Compounds water (H_2O) methane (CH_4) ammonia (NH_3) 	< 130 K	 1.4%
Rock various minerals 	500–1,300 K	 0.6%
Metals iron, nickel, aluminum 	1,000–1,600 K	 0.2%
		43

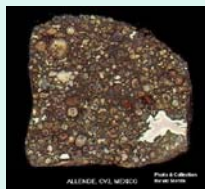


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Evidence for Condensation of the Solar Nebula

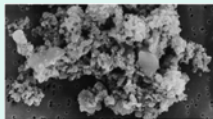


Meteorites!

- The C (or carbonaceous) chondrites contain water-bearing minerals and carbon compounds including a variety of organic molecules such as amino acids.

- Carbonaceous chondrites are the most primitive meteorites--primitive in a chemical way.

- For example, the CI group of carbonaceous chondrites are closest in composition to the photosphere (visible surface) of the Sun.



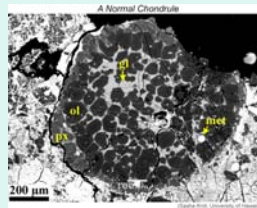
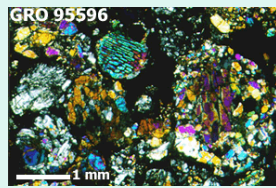
Rock/dust/ice particles
sizes: few mm – km's

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Evidence for Condensation of the Solar Nebula



Materials present which would have condensed
During the collapse of the solar nebula:

Most of the grains are olivine crystals (black, labeled ol).

*They are surrounded by a glass (grey, labeled gl). Pyroxene (px) and
droplets of metallic iron (white, labeled met) are also visible.*

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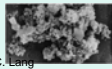
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How does that “debris” form into terrestrial planets?

- “collisions” between microscopic solid particles
 - because a collision depends on speed, the collisions were gentle because speeds of particles very similar
- mass not great enough to have strong gravitational encounters
- instead, particles “stuck” together through electrostatic forces
- gravity then takes over by gravitational encounters
 - planetesimals form (proto-planets of size ~100s km in size (largest))
 - form (accrete) in a few million years!
 - further growth into planets was difficult; orbits were altered, then collisions were more powerful and destructive



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Simulation of Solar Nebula Collapsing, Planets forming
Note: inner part of disk gets “cleared out” - in part due
to the solar wind from recently-formed Sun

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Dr. Michael Ressler

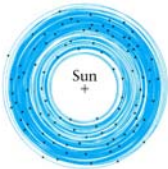


A planetary system forming (NASA)

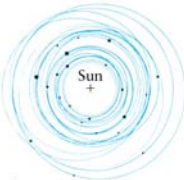
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How does that “debris” form into terrestrial planets?

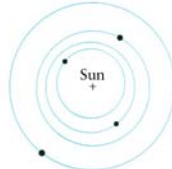
- planets begin to form when disk is ~200 AU across
- smaller bodies attracted (and stuck to) larger ones
- eventually forming the planets!
- simulation: 100 “planetesimals” → 30 million years
→ 22 proto-planets 79 Myr → 11 proto-planets




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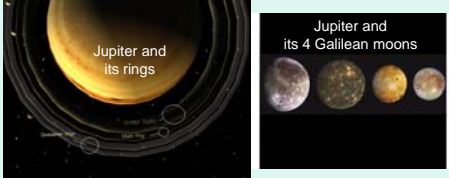


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c 50





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The Solar Nebula – formation of the Giant planets

- Giant planets (Jupiter, Saturn) – a different story
 - more solid material because hydrogen compounds are ice
 - they do have rocky cores, but they attract more material
 - they attract large reservoirs of H, He gas from solar nebula
 - they form a spinning, flattened “disk” of gas around them
 - out of which their many moons form (ice-rich)



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