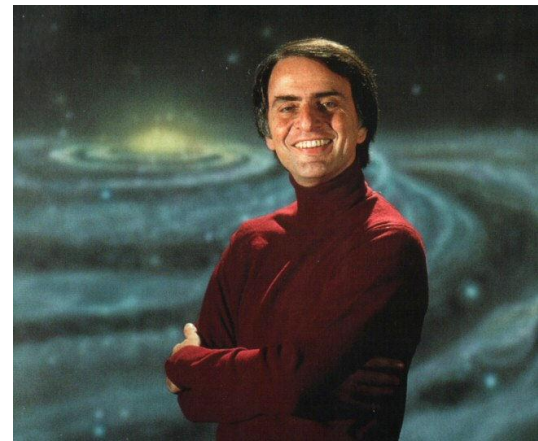


The Cosmos is all that is or ever was or ever will be.

In the last few millennia we have made the most astonishing and unexpected discoveries about the Cosmos and our place within it, explorations that are exhilarating to consider. They remind us that humans have evolved to wonder, that understanding is a joy, that knowledge is prerequisite to survival.

I believe our future depends on how well we know this Cosmos in which we float like a mote of dust in the morning sky.

Carl Sagan (1934-1996)
Cosmos pp20



How big is the Universe?
How far away are the stars?
How can we measure these
things?

Physical stats of the Universe

Diameter:	93 billion light years
Volume:	4×10^{83} litres
Mass:	10^{53} kg*
Density:	9.9×10^{-30} gcm ⁻³ **
Age:	13.8 billion years ***
Temperature:	2.73K

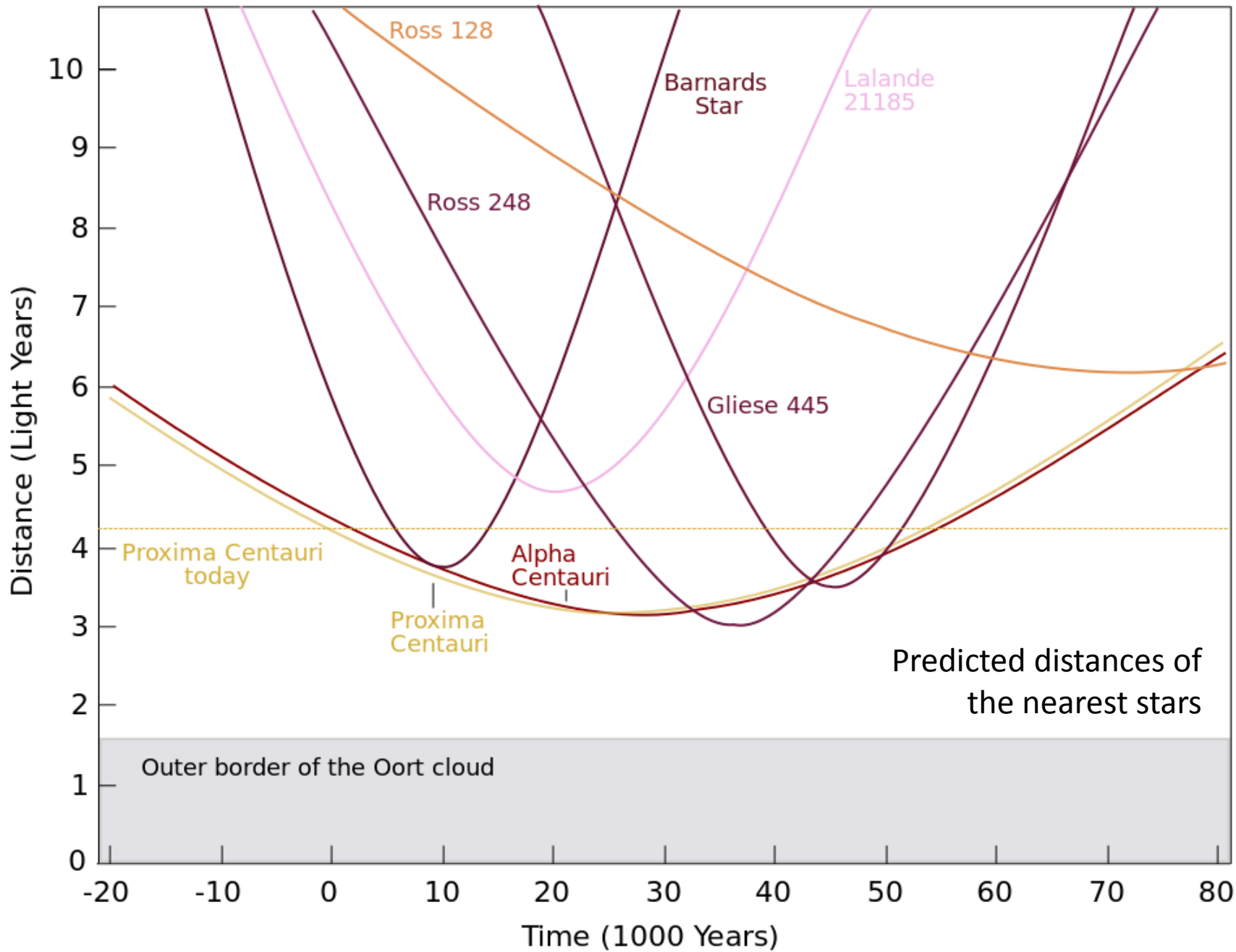
*Ordinary matter:	4.9%
Dark matter:	26.8%
Dark energy:	68.3%

*** The Earth is 4.54 ± 0.05 billion years old

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Observable_universe

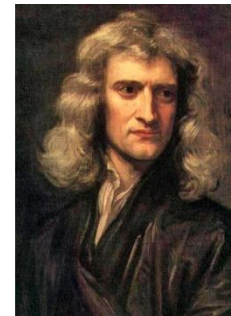
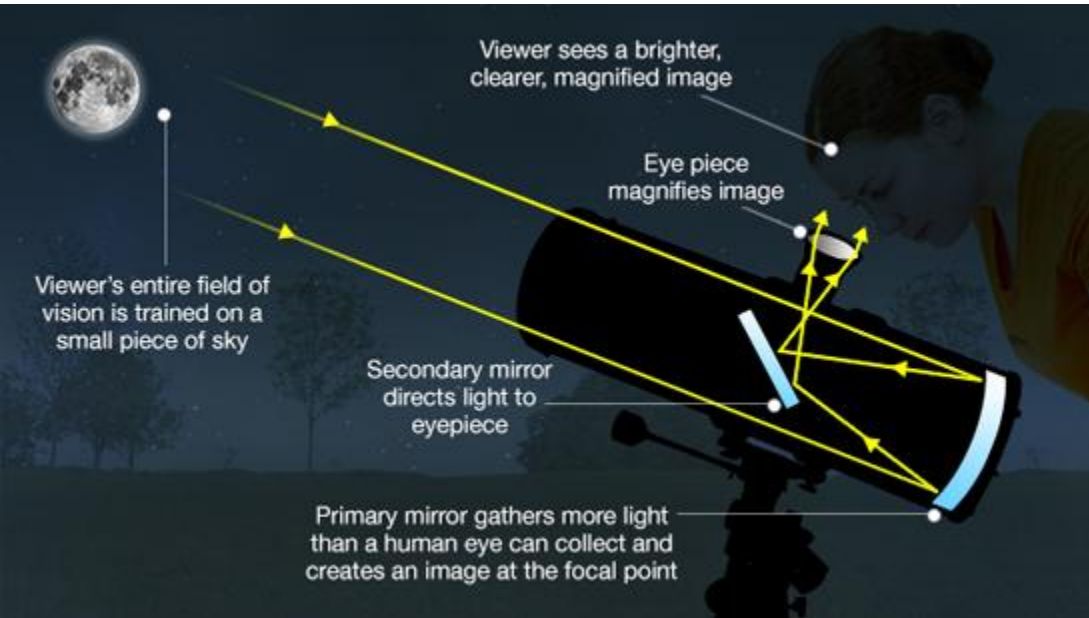


*6 protons per cubic metre

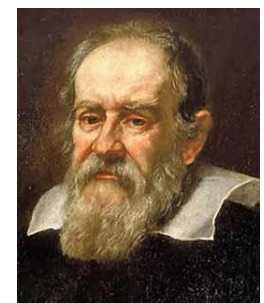
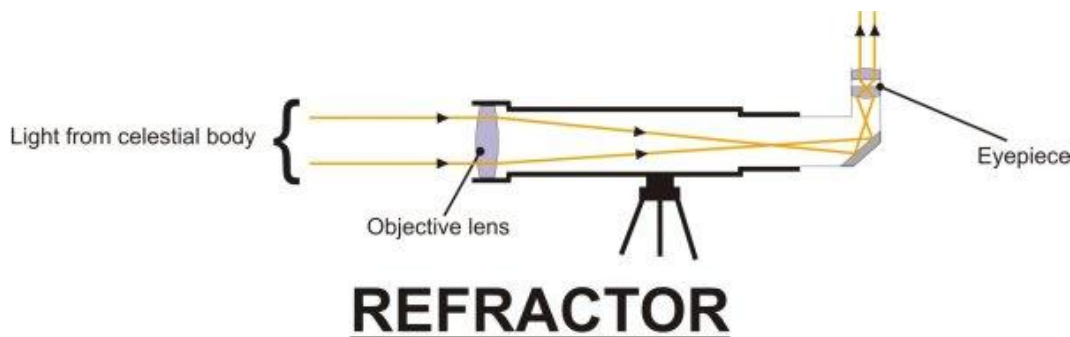


Observational tools for viewing the Cosmos

Telescopes: **reflecting** and **refracting**



Isaac Newton
(1642-1727)



Galileo
1564-1642



Angular resolution of a telescope

Angular resolution
in radians

Wavelength of light

$$\Delta\theta \approx \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

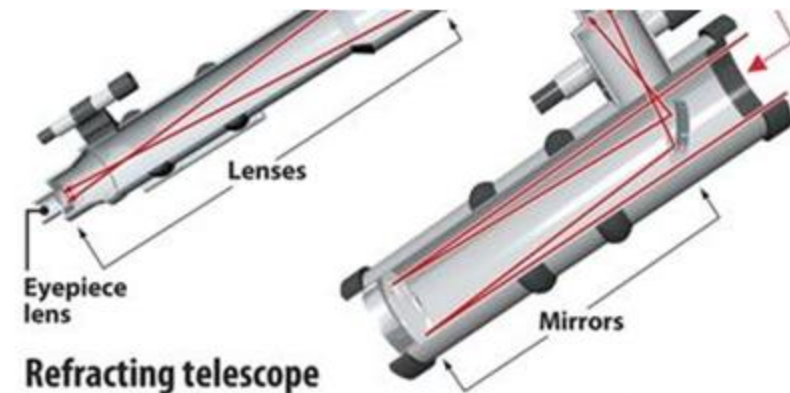
Diameter of telescope aperture

The **Gran Telescopio Canarias** (meaning "Canaries Great Telescope"), also known as GranTeCan or GTC, is a 10.4 m (410 in) reflecting telescope undertaking commissioning observations at the Roque de los Muchachos Observatory on the island of La Palma, in the Canary Islands in Spain, as of July 2009.

$$\lambda \approx 10^{-7} \text{ m} \quad \text{visible light}$$

$$\Delta\theta \approx \frac{10^{-7}}{10.4} = 9.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ radians}$$

$$\Delta\theta = 0.00198 \text{ arc seconds}$$



Refracting telescope

Lenses collect light

- Chicago's Yerkes Observatory has the largest refractor telescope in the world. It also is the type Galileo used

Reflecting telescope

Mirrors collect light

- Originally designed by Sir Isaac Newton in the late 1600s

Great Paris Exhibition Telescope
(lens at the same scale)
Paris, France (1900)

Yerkes Observatory
(40" refractor lens at the same scale)
Williams Bay, Wisconsin (1893)

Hooker (100")
Mt Wilson, California (1917)

Hale (200")
Mt Palomar, California (1948)

Multi Mirror Telescope
Mount Hopkins, Arizona (1979-1998)

(1999-)

BTA-6 (Large Altazimuth Telescope)
Zelenchuksky, Russia (1975)

Large Zenith Telescope
British Columbia, Canada (2003)

Gaia
Earth-Sun L2 point (2014)

Kepler
Earth-trailing solar orbit (2009)

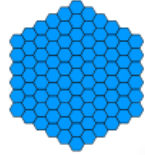
James Webb Space Telescope
Earth-Sun L2 point (planned 2018)

Hubble Space Telescope
Low Earth Orbit (1990)



Tennis court at the same scale

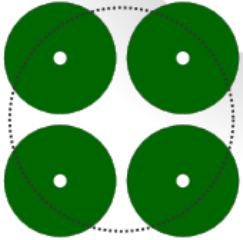
Large Sky Area Multi-Object Fiber Spectroscopic Telescope
Hebei, China (2009)



Hobby-Eberly Telescope
Davis Mountains, Texas (1996)



Large Binocular Telescope
Mount Graham, Arizona (2005)



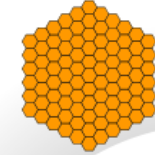
Very Large Telescope
Cerro Paranal, Chile (1998-2000)



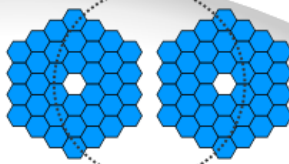
Magellan Telescopes
Las Campanas, Chile (2000/2002)



Gran Telescopio Canarias
La Palma, Canary Islands, Spain (2007)



Southern African Large Telescope
Sutherland, South Africa (2005)



Keck Telescope
Mauna Kea, Hawaii (1993/1996)



Gemini North
Mauna Kea, Hawaii (1999)



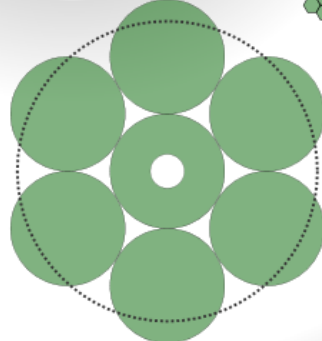
Subaru Telescope
Mauna Kea, Hawaii (1999)



Gemini South
Cerro Pachón, Chile (2000)



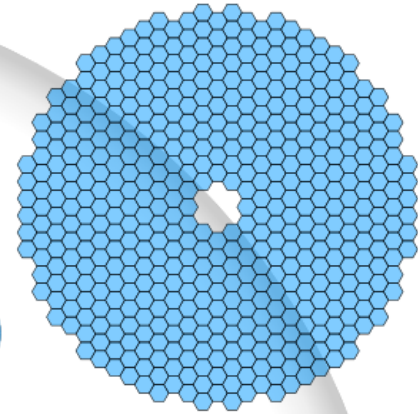
Large Synoptic Survey Telescope
El Peñón, Chile (planned 2020)



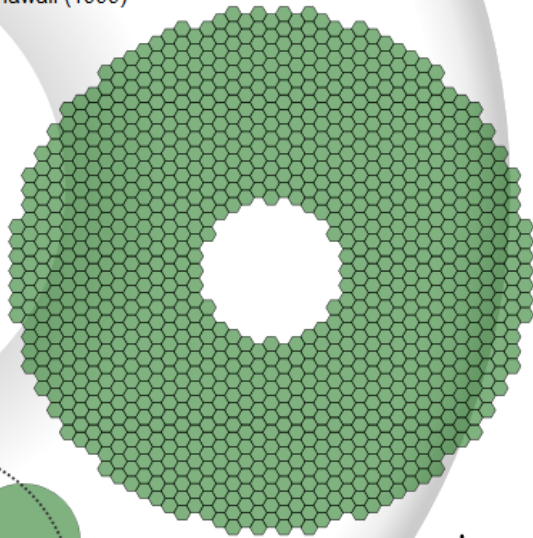
Giant Magellan Telescope
Las Campanas Observatory, Chile (planned 2020)

Overwhelmingly Large Telescope
(cancelled)

Arecibo radio telescope at the same scale

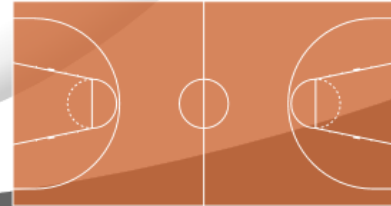
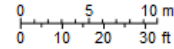


Thirty Meter Telescope
Mauna Kea, Hawaii (planned 2022)

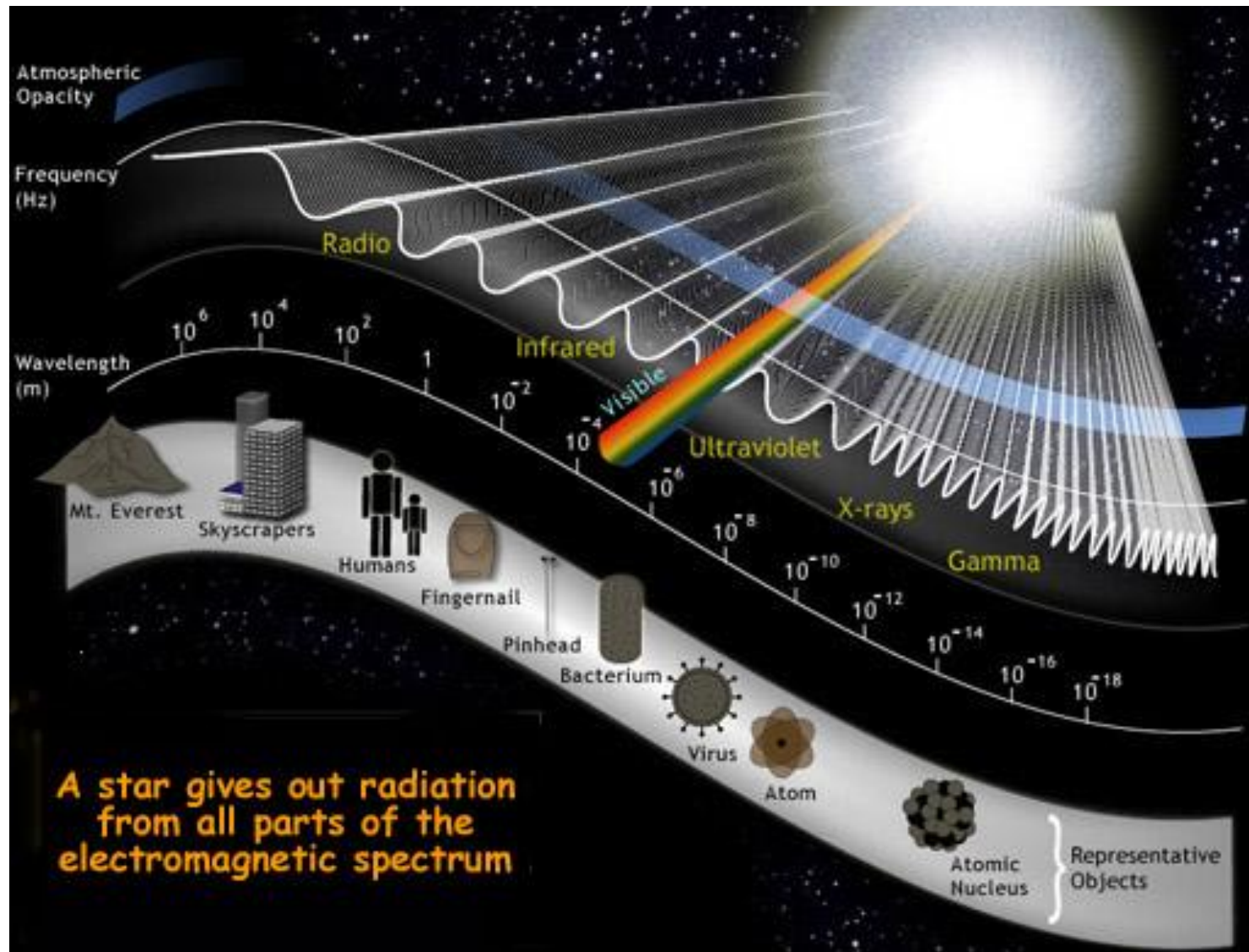


European Extremely Large Telescope
Cerro Armazones, Chile (planned 2022)

Human at the same scale



Basketball court at the same scale

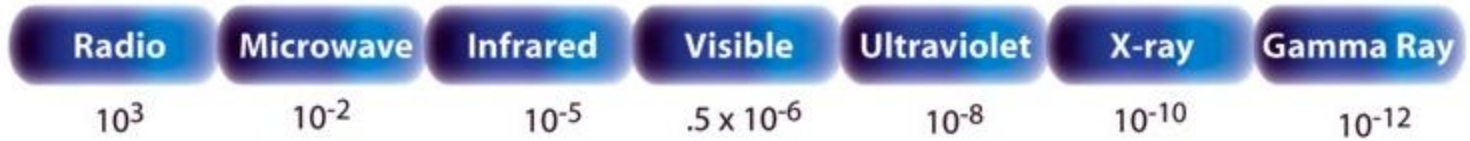


THE ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM

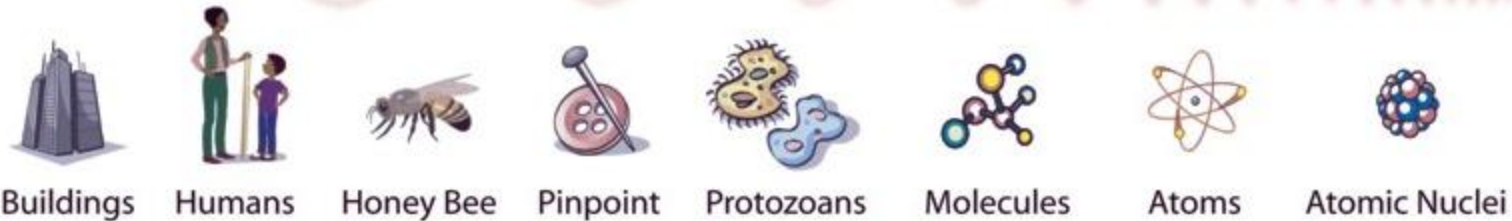
Penetrates Earth Atmosphere?



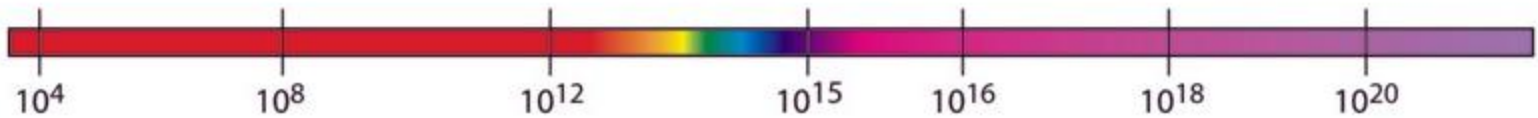
Wavelength (meters)



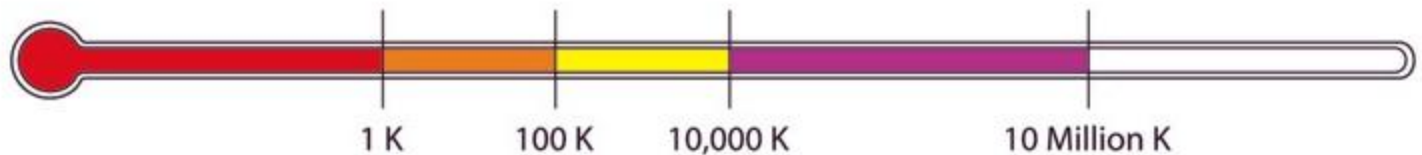
About the size of...



Frequency (Hz)



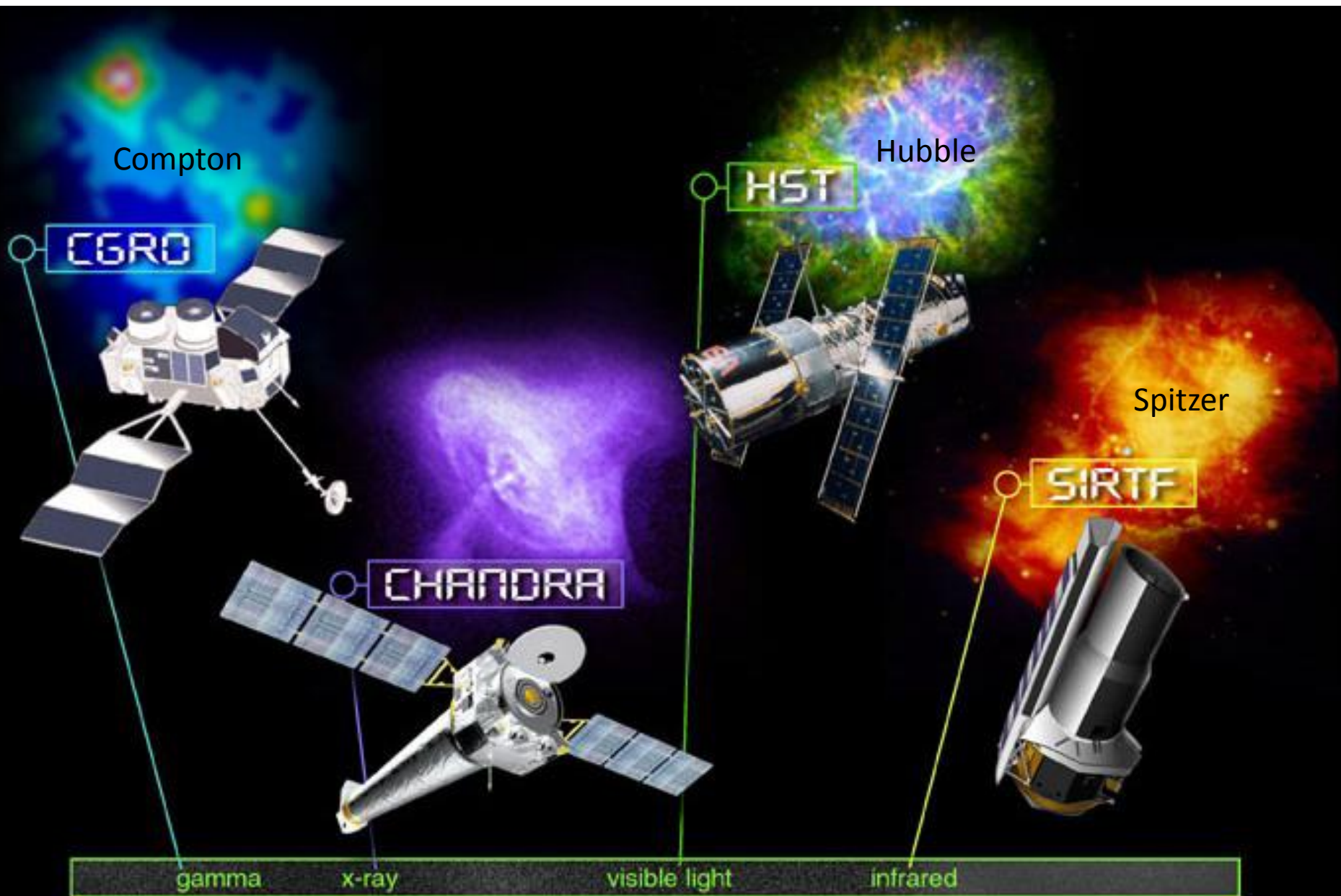
Temperature of bodies emitting the wavelength (K)



Convert wavelength into frequency using $c = f \lambda$

$$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$$

NASA space telescopes



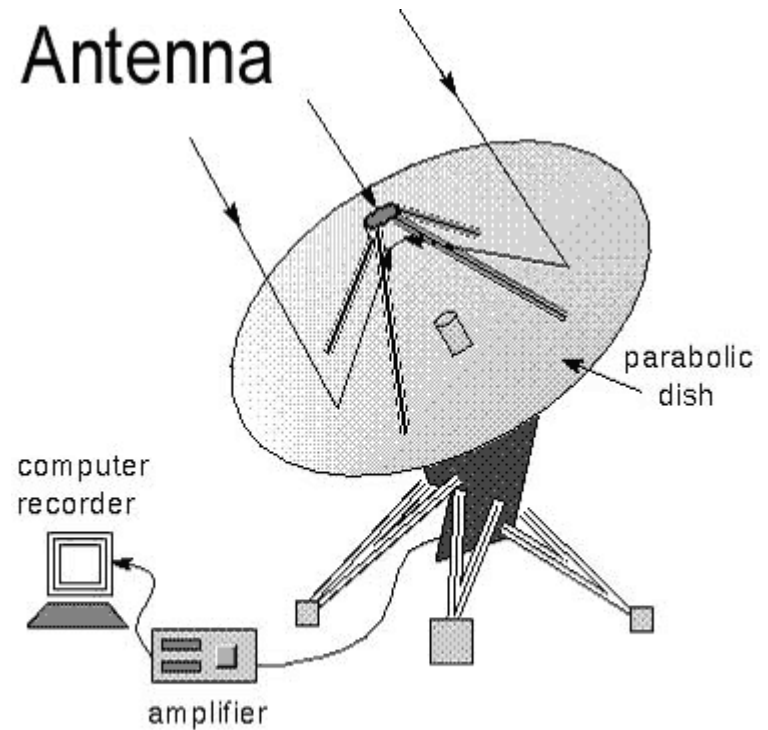
The Hubble space telescope





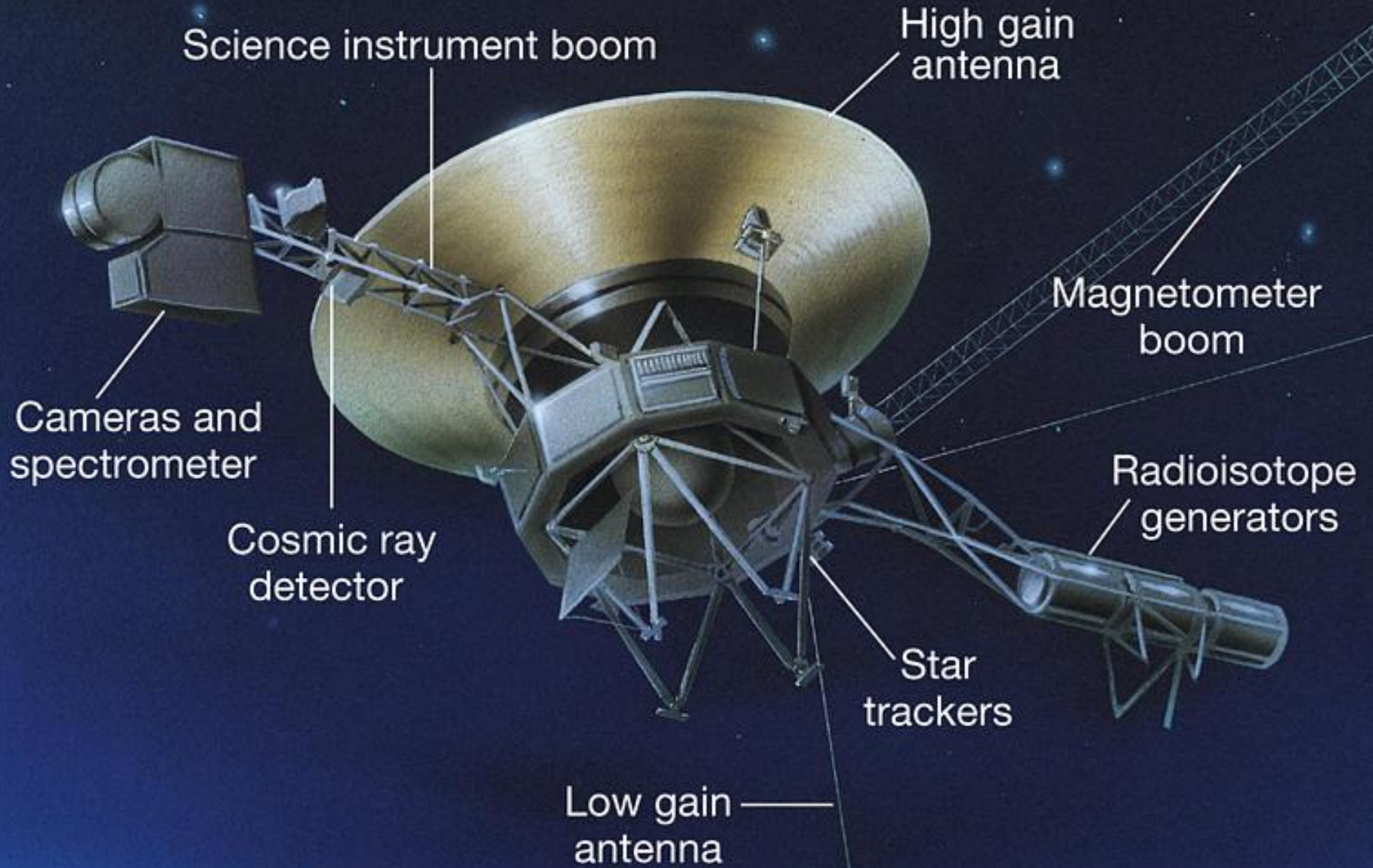
Radio astronomy

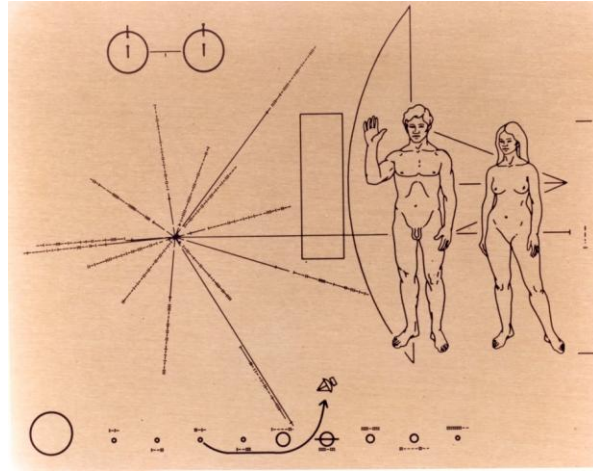
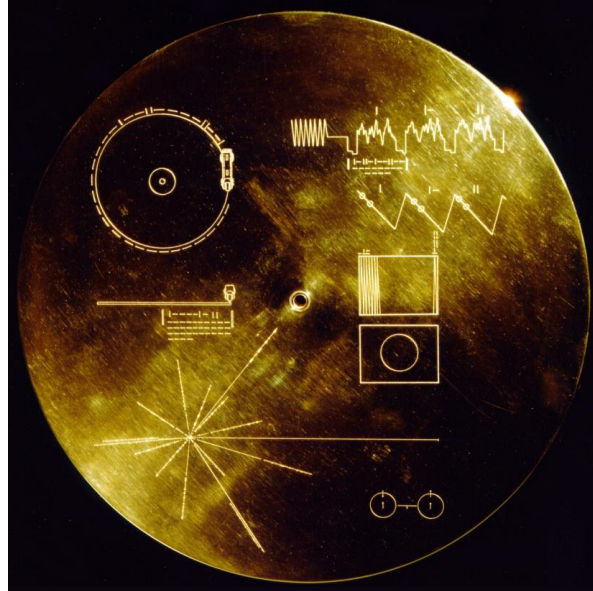
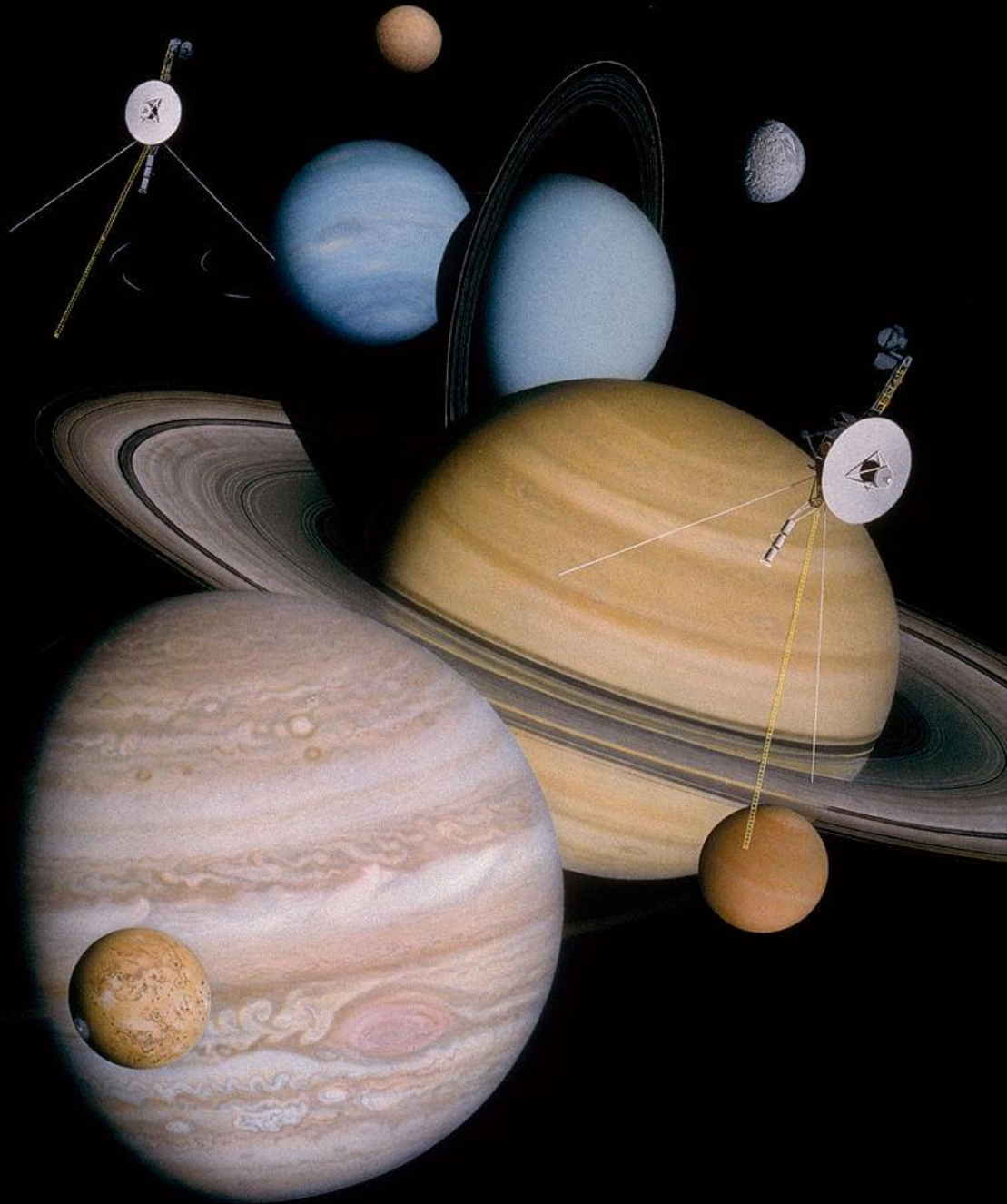
Antenna



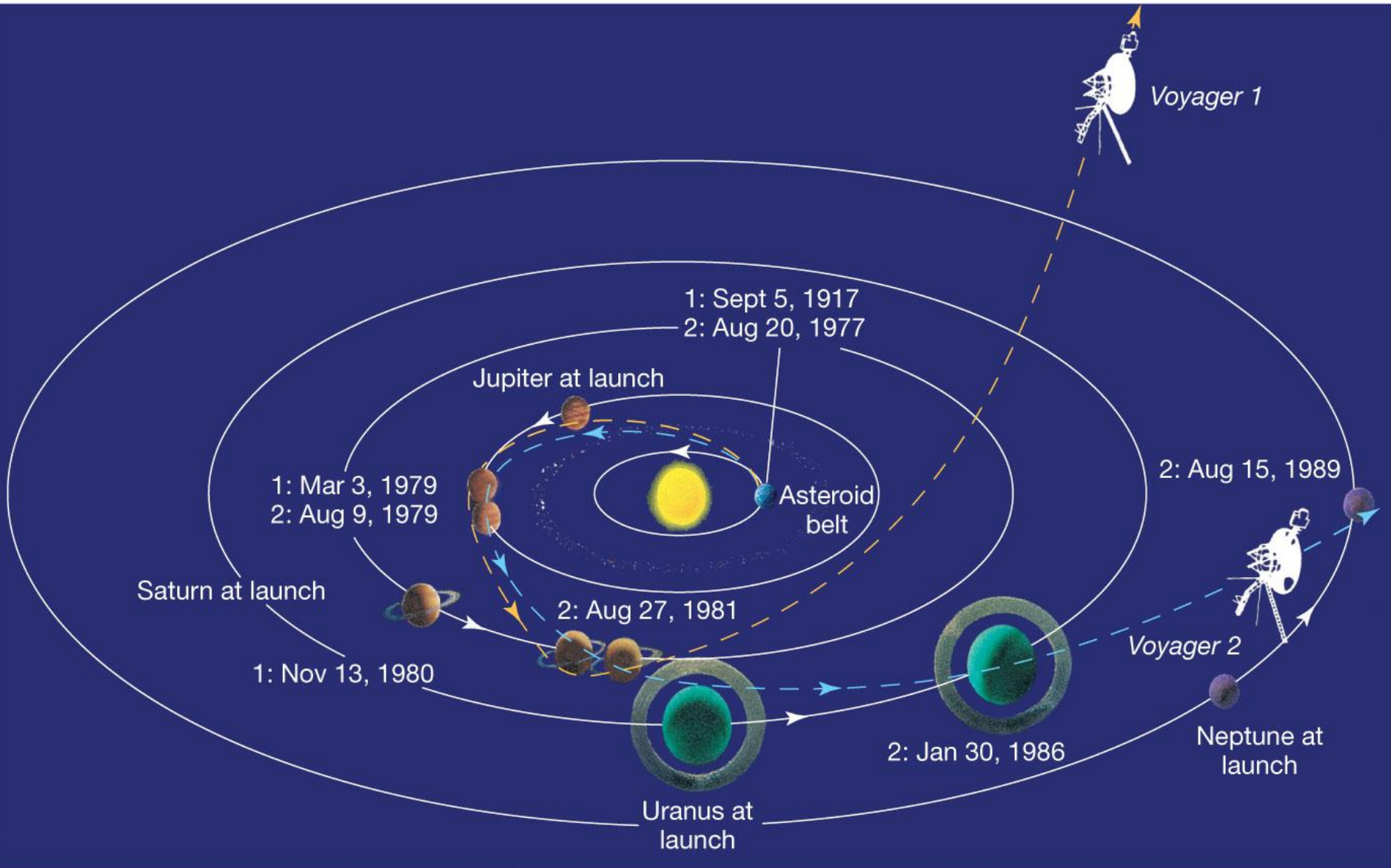
A radio telescope reflects radio waves to a focus at the antenna.

Observations from beyond the Earth **Voyager 1 & 2 (1977 -)**





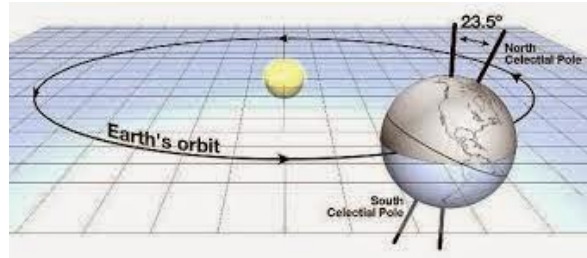
Greetings from Earth!



Astronomical length scales

Astronomical Unit (approximately the Earth-Sun distance)

$$1\text{AU} = 1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$$



Light-year

$$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$$

$$t_{\text{year}} \approx 365 \times 24 \times 3600 = 3.15 \times 10^7 \text{ s}$$

$$t_{\text{year}} \approx \pi \times 10^7 \text{ s}$$

$$1\text{ly} = ct_{\text{year}} = 9.461 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}$$

← calculated from more precise light speeds and year durations

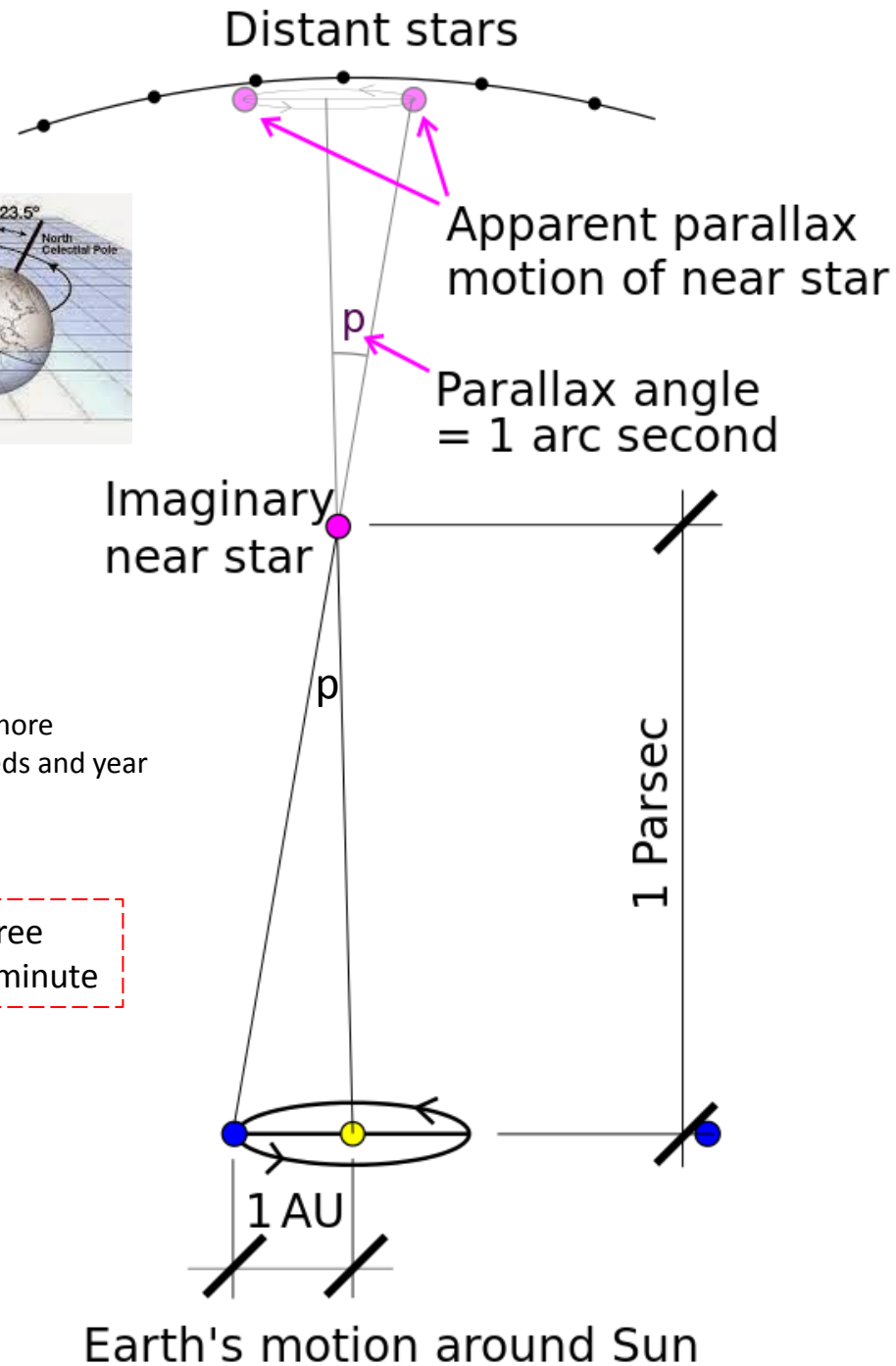
60 arc minutes = 1 degree
60 arc seconds = 1 arc minute

Parsec

$$1\text{AU} = 1\text{pc} \times \tan\left(\frac{1^\circ}{60 \times 60}\right)$$

$$1\text{pc} = 2.063 \times 10^5 \text{ AU}$$

$$1\text{pc} = 3.086 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}$$

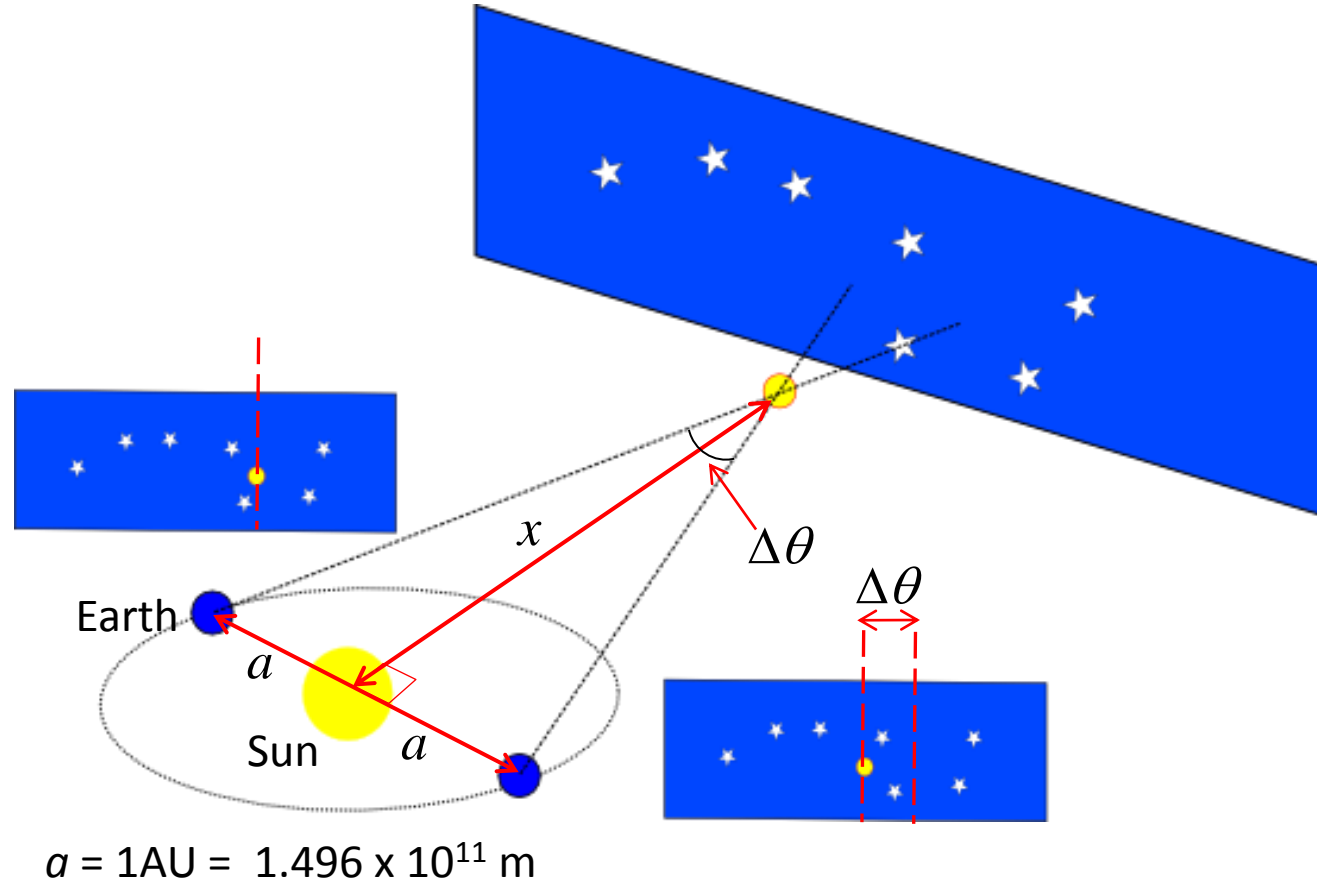


Caution! Parallax is often stated as $\Delta\theta/2$

Measuring distance x of stars via **Parallax**

Record the angular change $\Delta\theta$ in the position of a star over the course of a year, i.e. as the Earth orbits the Sun

This assumes the stars are fixed relative to the Earth over this timescale!



$$\tan \frac{1}{2} \Delta\theta = \frac{a}{x}$$

$$x = \frac{a}{\tan \frac{1}{2} \Delta\theta}$$

The parallax of our nearest star outside of the solar system (Proxima Centauri) is $\Delta\theta = 1.53626$ arc-seconds

$$\Delta\theta = \frac{1.53626^\circ}{3600} \quad \therefore x = \frac{1}{\tan \frac{1}{2} \Delta\theta} = \boxed{268,529 \text{ AU}}$$

$$x = \boxed{4.02 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}}$$
$$x = \frac{4.02 \times 10^{16}}{9.461 \times 10^{15}} = \boxed{4.25 \text{ light-years}}$$

Summary of astronomical distances

Earth – moon = 1.28 light s

Earth – Sun = 8.3 light min

1pc = 3.26 light yr

Nearest star \sim 4 light yr

Sun – centre of galaxy \sim 25,000 light yr (8 kpc)

To nearest galaxy \sim 2 million light yr (0.75 Mpc)

to distant quasars \sim 10 billion light yr (3 thousand Mpc)

$$1 \text{ AU} = 1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ light year} = 9.461 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ parsec} = 3.086 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ Mpc} = 10^6 \text{ parsecs} = 3.086 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}$$

Doppler shift method for measuring radial velocity

$$c = f \lambda$$

If an object emitting radiation at frequency f moves radially towards an observer at velocity v , the observer will measure a *slightly higher frequency* of radiation as the emitted waves 'bunch up'.

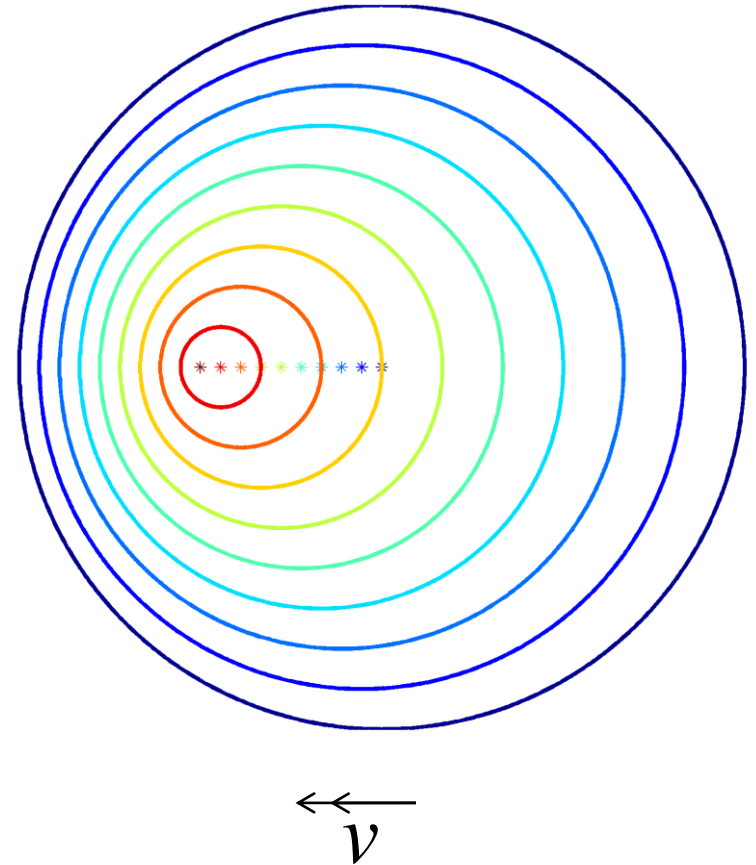
Velocity of emitter towards observer

Frequency of emitted radiation

frequency change

$$\Delta f = \frac{v}{c} f$$

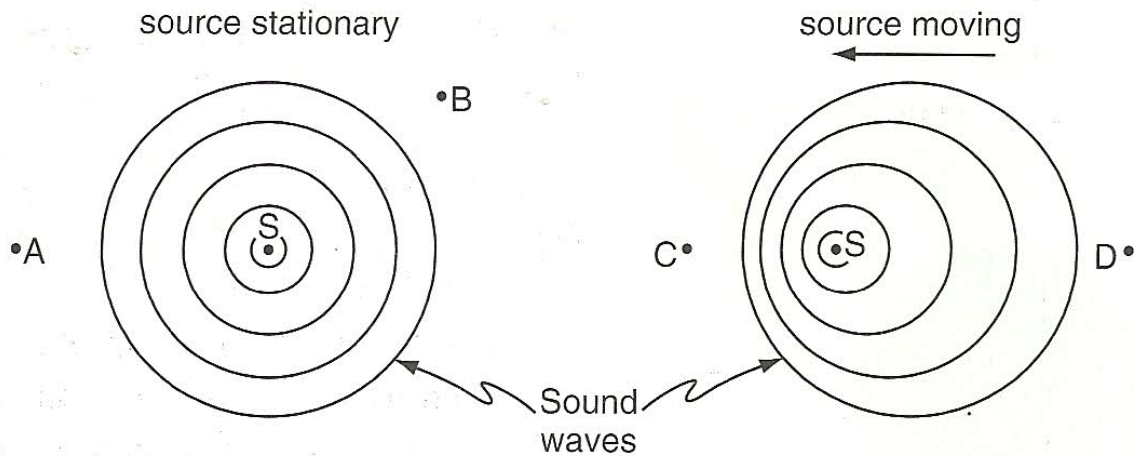
Speed of radiation



Note this formula is 'Classical'. It is valid when $v \ll c$, otherwise a relativistic version must be used

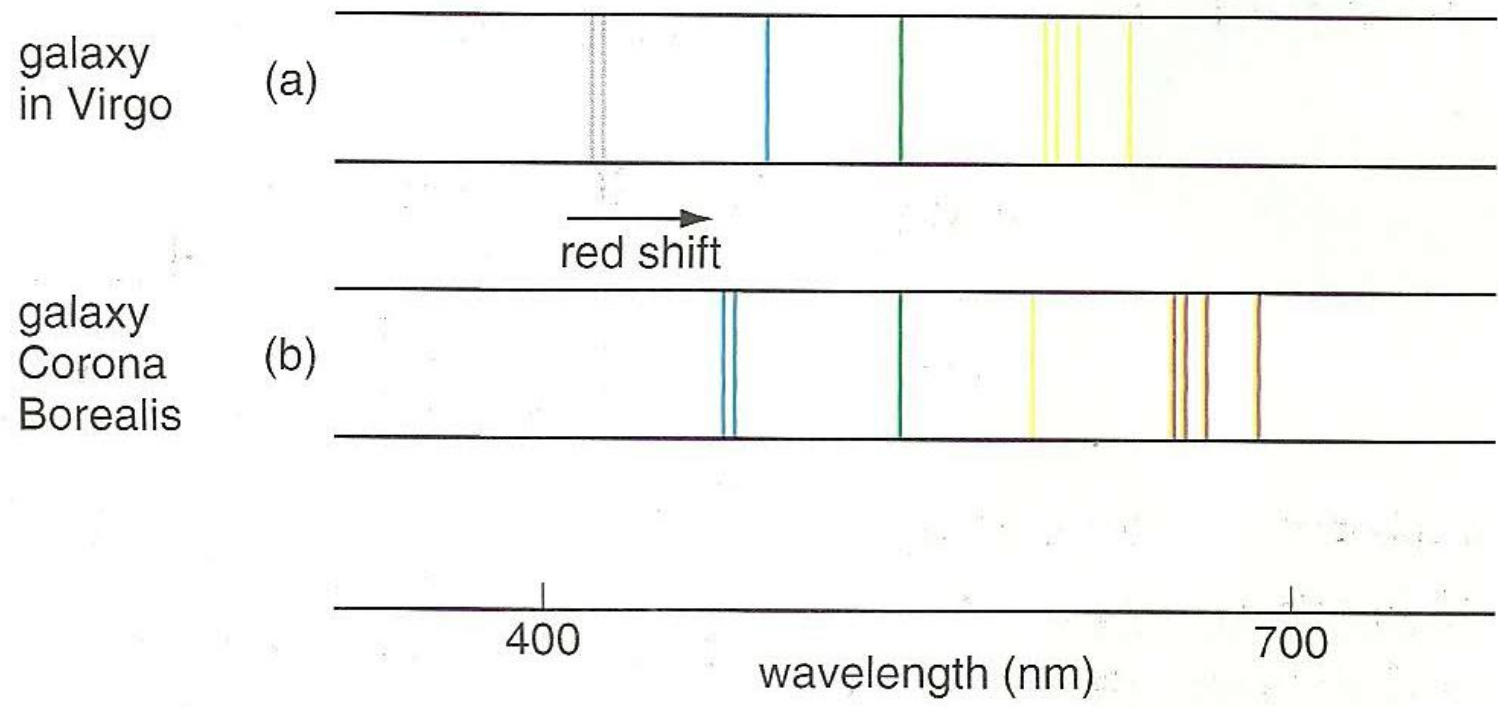
Christian Doppler
1803-1953



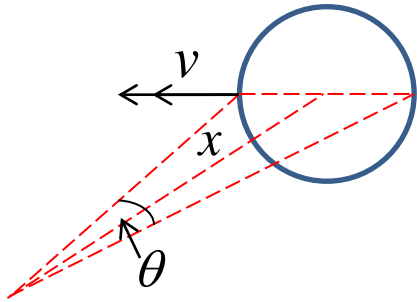


Redshift z is the fractional change in wavelength of light due to the doppler effect

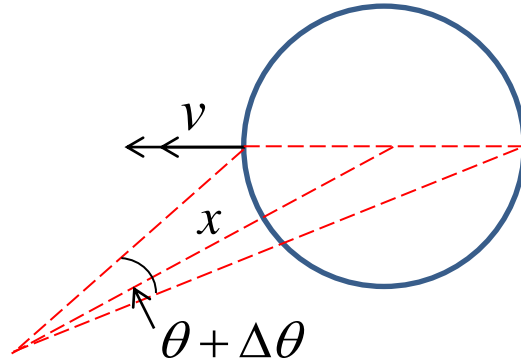
$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}} - \lambda_{\text{emitted}}}{\lambda_{\text{emitted}}}$$



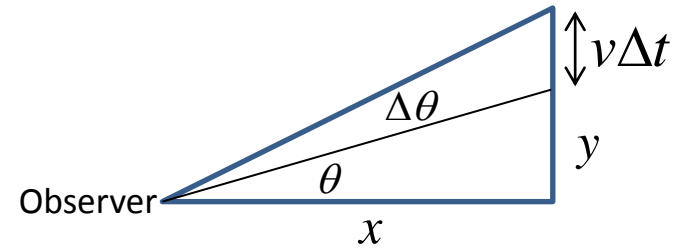
Using **radial velocity** calculation (via Doppler shift) to calculate distances of stars



Radially expanding gas cloud at time t



Radially expanding gas cloud at time $t + \Delta t$



$$y = x \tan \theta$$

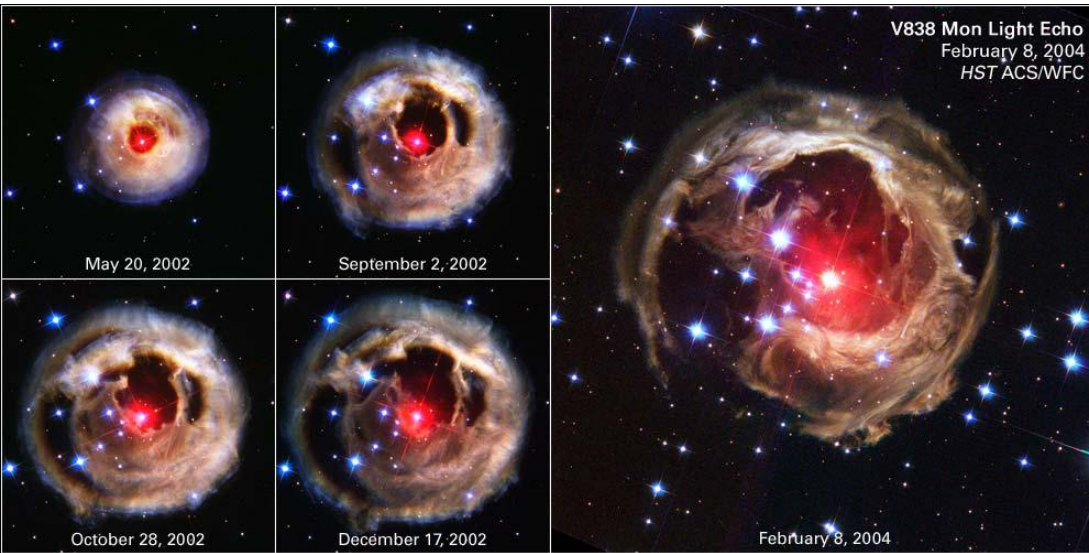
$$\tan(\theta + \Delta\theta) = \frac{v\Delta t + y}{x}$$

$$x = \frac{v\Delta t + x \tan \theta}{\tan(\theta + \Delta\theta)}$$

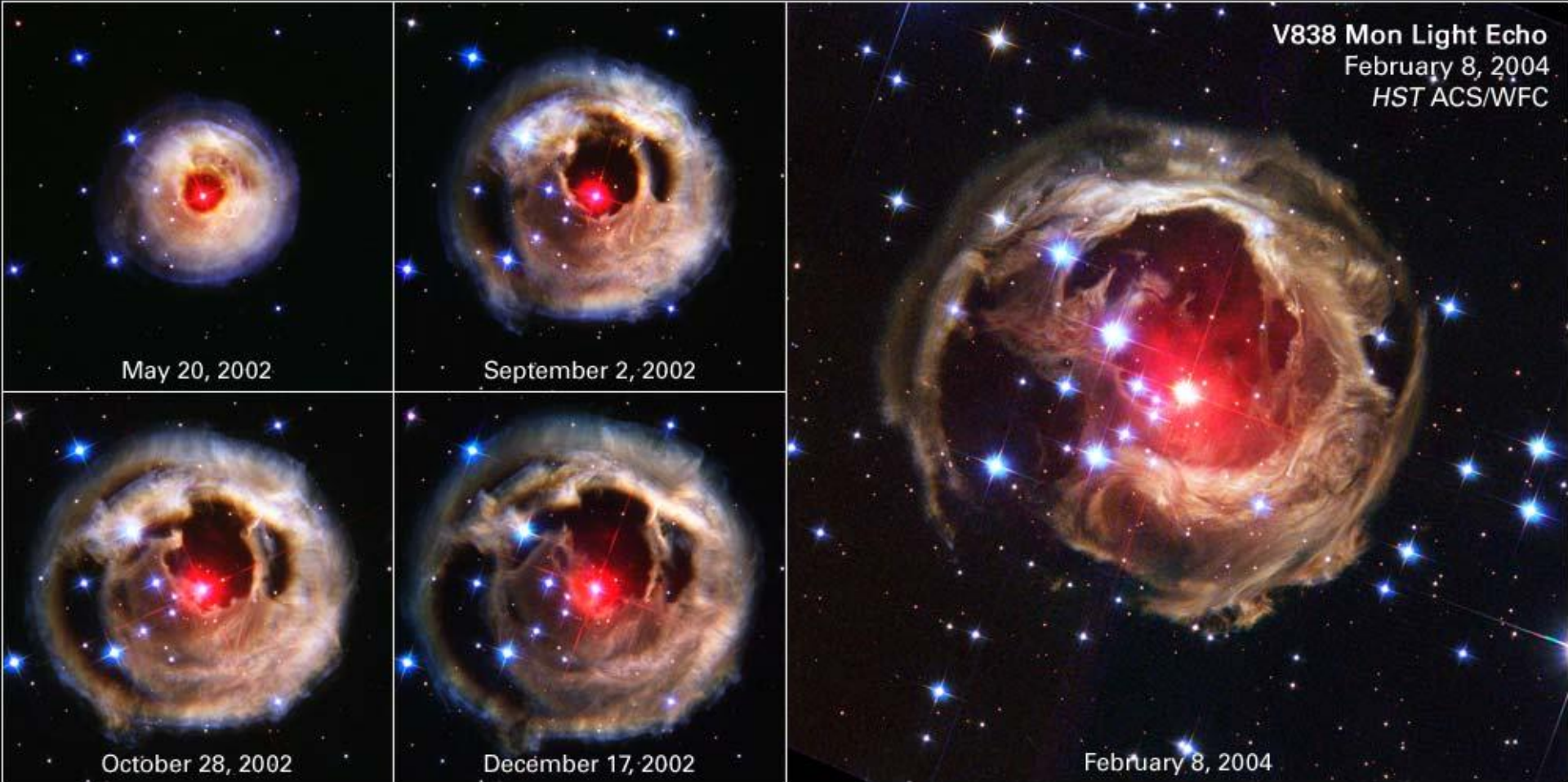
$$x(\tan(\theta + \Delta\theta) - \tan \theta) = v\Delta t$$

$$x = \frac{v\Delta t}{\tan(\theta + \Delta\theta) - \tan \theta}$$

$$x \approx \frac{v\Delta t}{\Delta\theta}$$



- * Measure v from Doppler shift of spectrum
- * Measure angular change $\Delta\theta$ between observations
- * Hence obtain distance of star at centre of expanding gas cloud



V838 Mon Light Echo
February 8, 2004
HST ACS/WFC

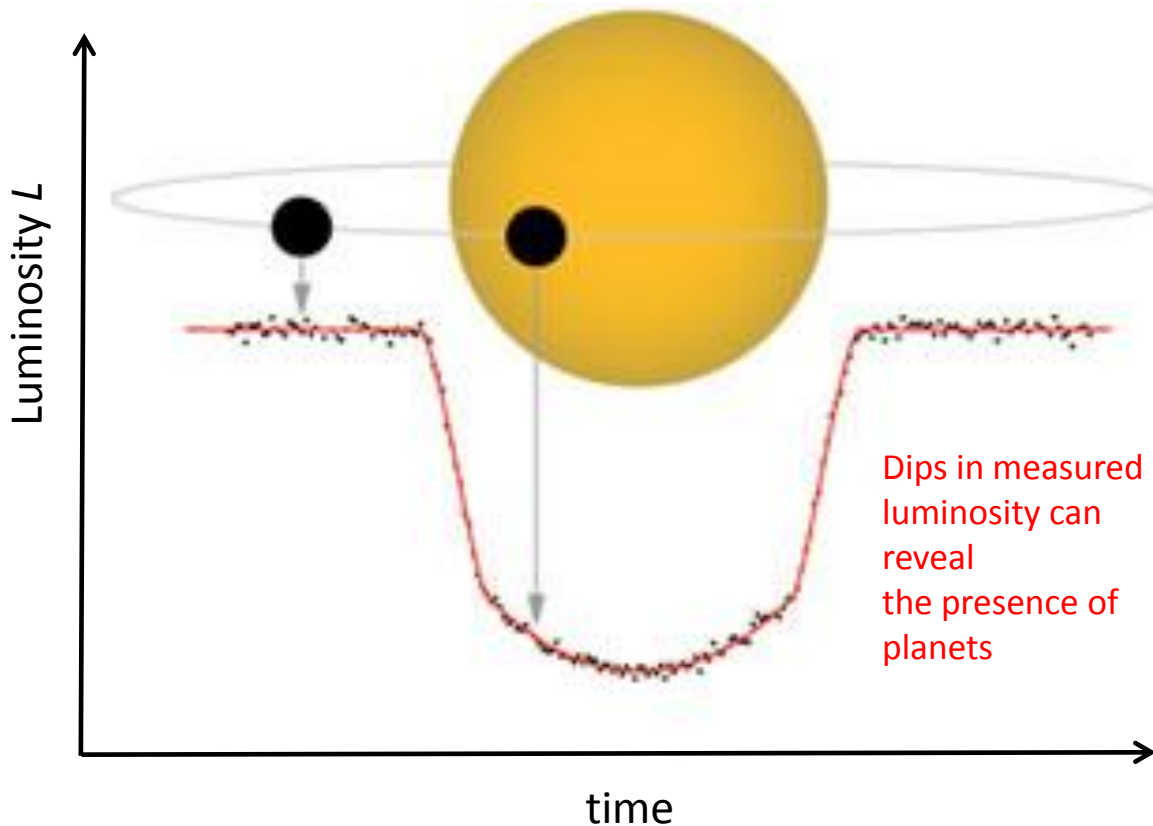
- *Measure v from Doppler shift of spectrum
- *Measure angular change $\Delta\theta$ between observations
- *Hence obtain distance of star at centre of expanding gas cloud

$$\Delta f = \frac{v}{c} f$$

$$x \approx \frac{v\Delta t}{\Delta\theta}$$

The key challenge here is to work out what the **emission frequency f** should be, in order to work out the doppler shift

Luminosity method for measuring distances, and detecting planets!



Luminosity L is the light power generated by a star

$$B = \frac{L}{4\pi x^2}$$

If the star is a distance x away then the 'brightness' B (defined as the power per unit area) is L divided by the area of a sphere of radius x

If we know the luminosity of a certain type of star (indicated by its *spectrum*) then we can use the measured brightness to work out how far away it is.

$$L_{\odot} = 3.846 \times 10^{26} \text{ W}$$

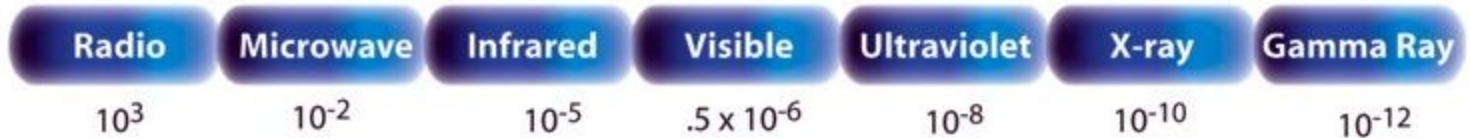
Current luminosity of our Sun

THE ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM

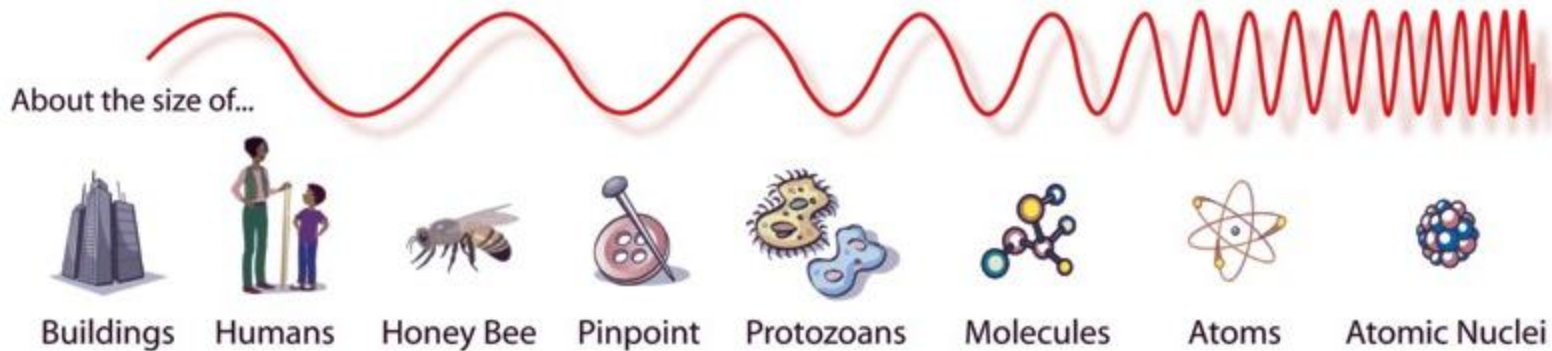
Penetrates Earth Atmosphere?



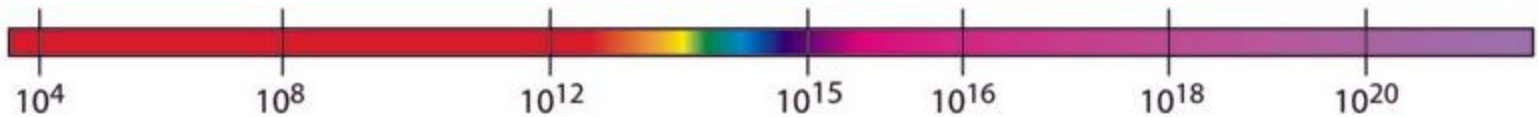
Wavelength (meters)



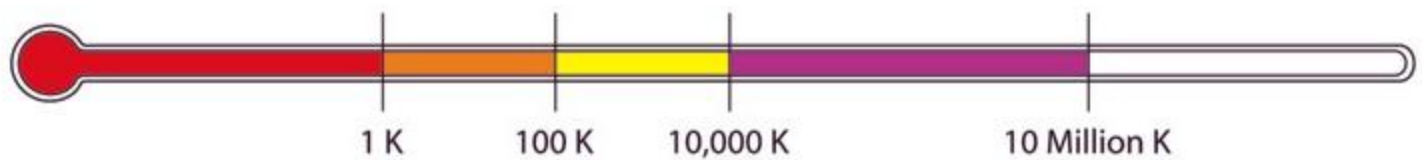
About the size of...



Frequency (Hz)



Temperature of bodies emitting the wavelength (K)

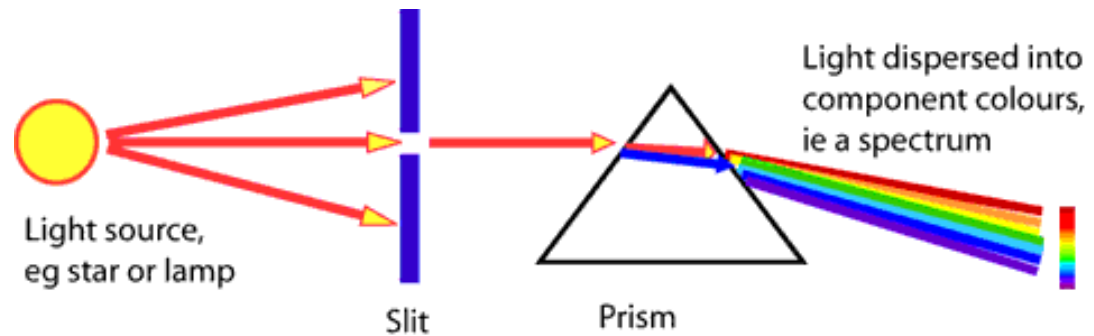
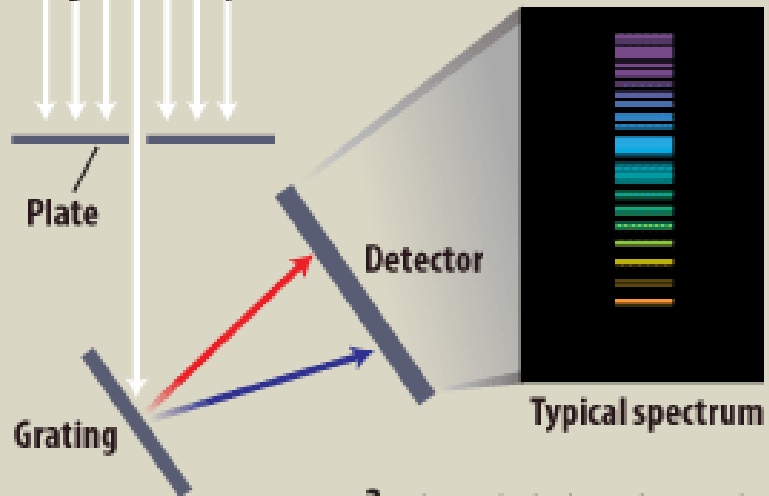
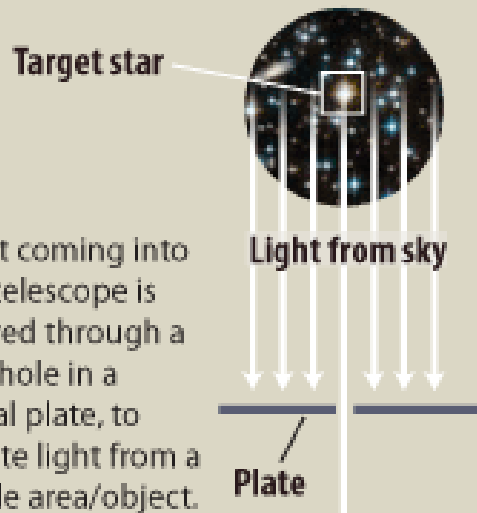


Convert wavelength into frequency using $c = f \lambda$

$$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$$

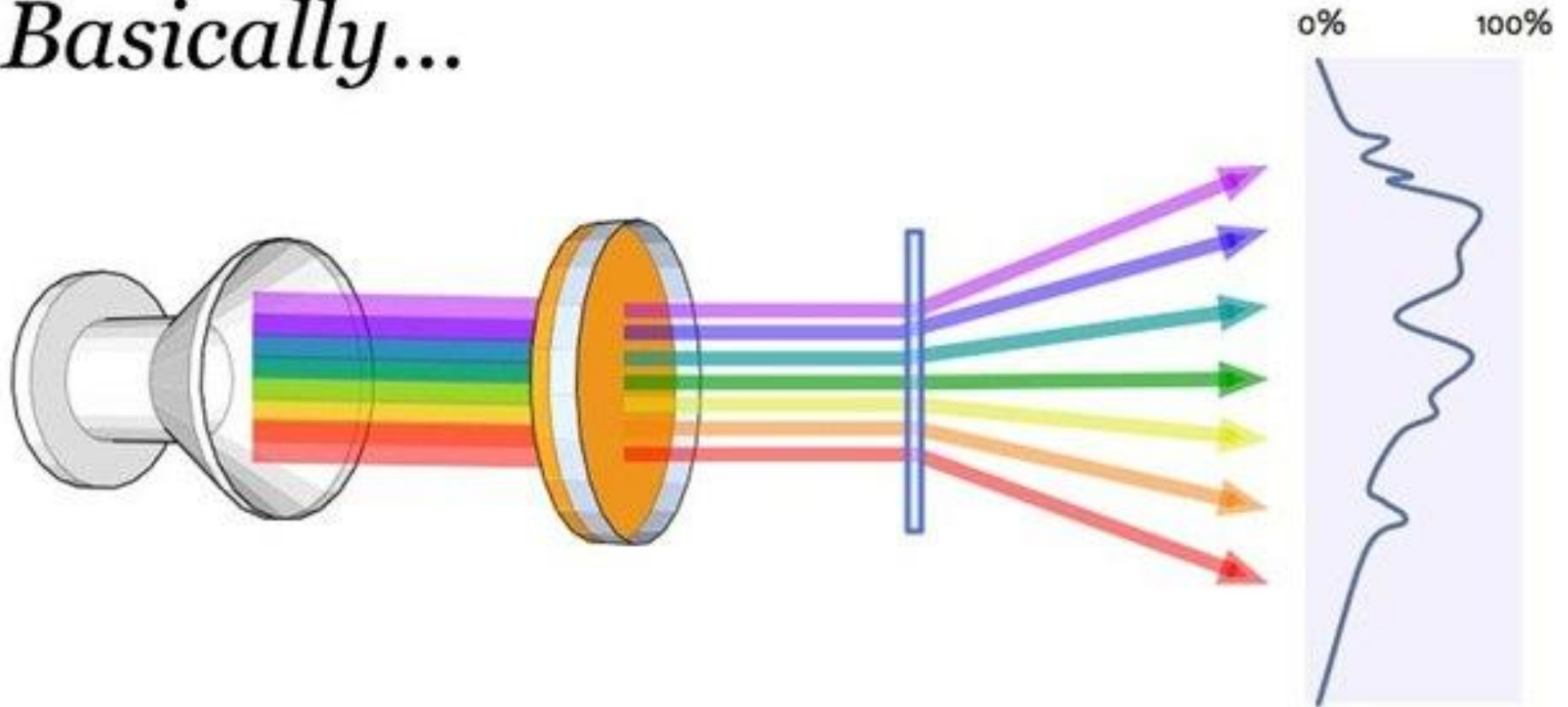
How a Spectroscope Works

Spectroscopes are used in telescopes to help scientists analyze the materials that make up stars and nebulae.



Dispersion of light through a prism

Basically...



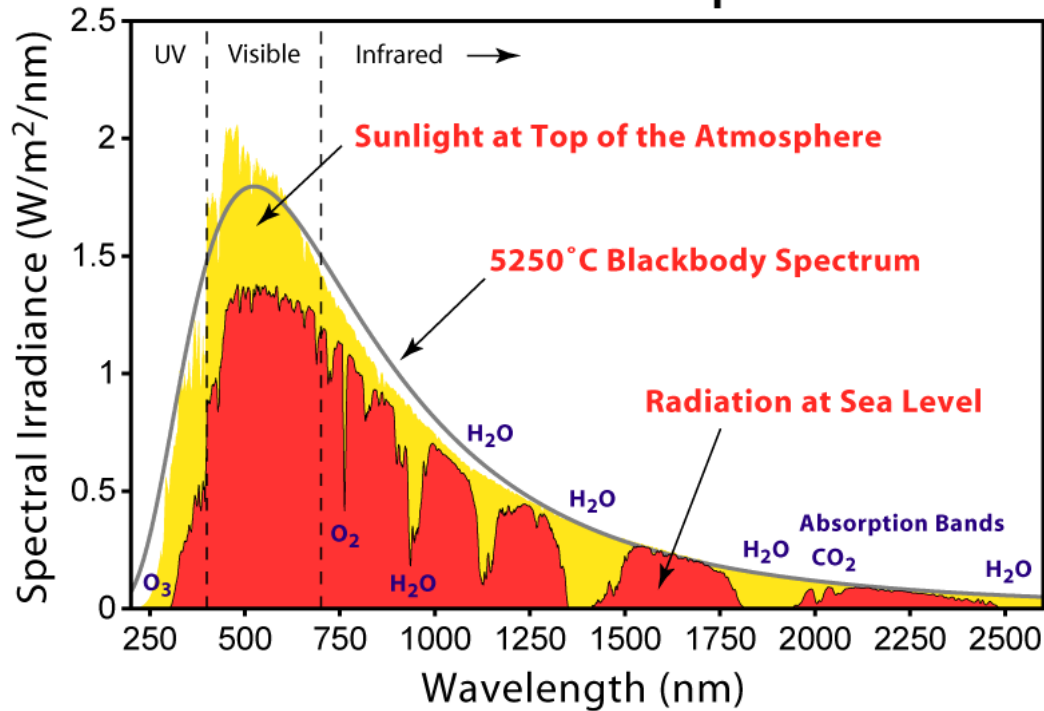
1. A broad-spectrum light (halogen, incandescent) is shone through a sample

2. Some colors are absorbed more than others depending on its composition

3. Diffraction grating splits light into colors so they can be measured separately

4. A webcam measures each color and graphs their intensities. This is compared to known samples.

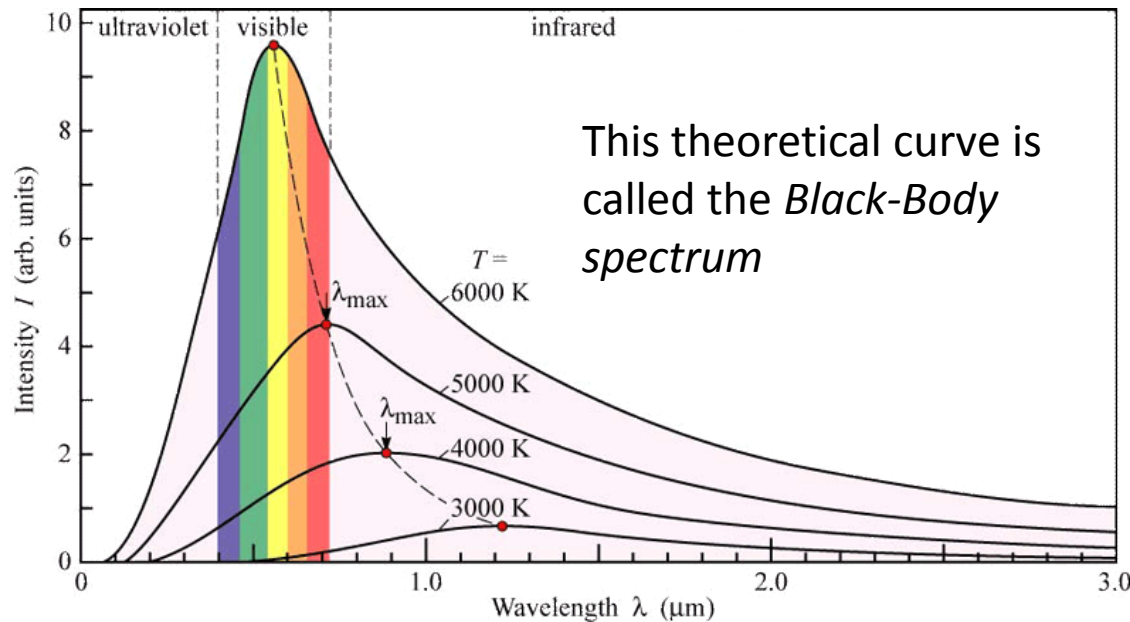
Solar Radiation Spectrum



Note solar energy is absorbed in atmosphere by oxygen, water vapour, carbon dioxide etc. Hence *dips* in the solar spectra at sea level.

Measure **surface temperature** of a star from the spectral shape

(i.e. brightness at different wavelengths)



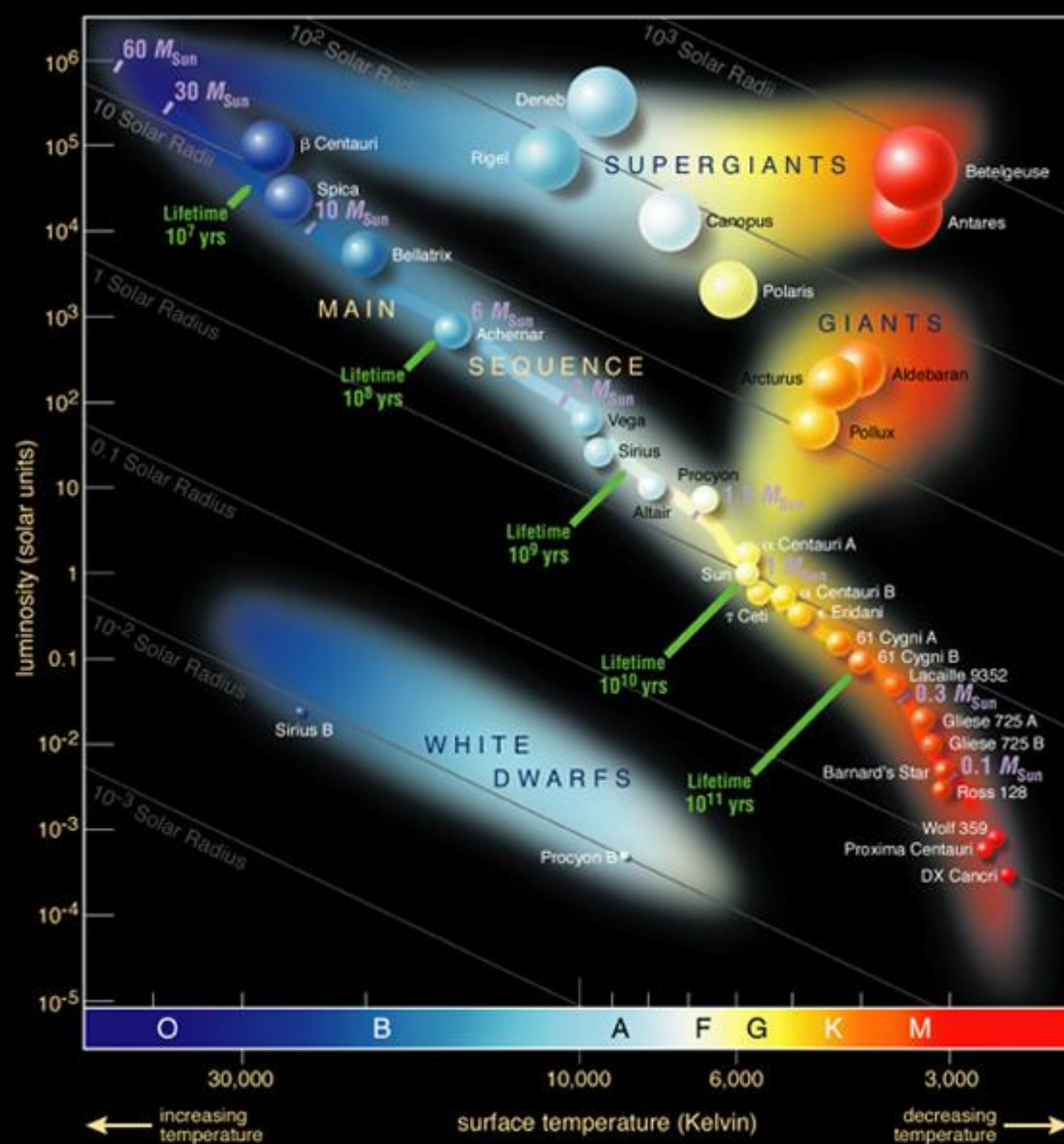
This theoretical curve is called the *Black-Body spectrum*

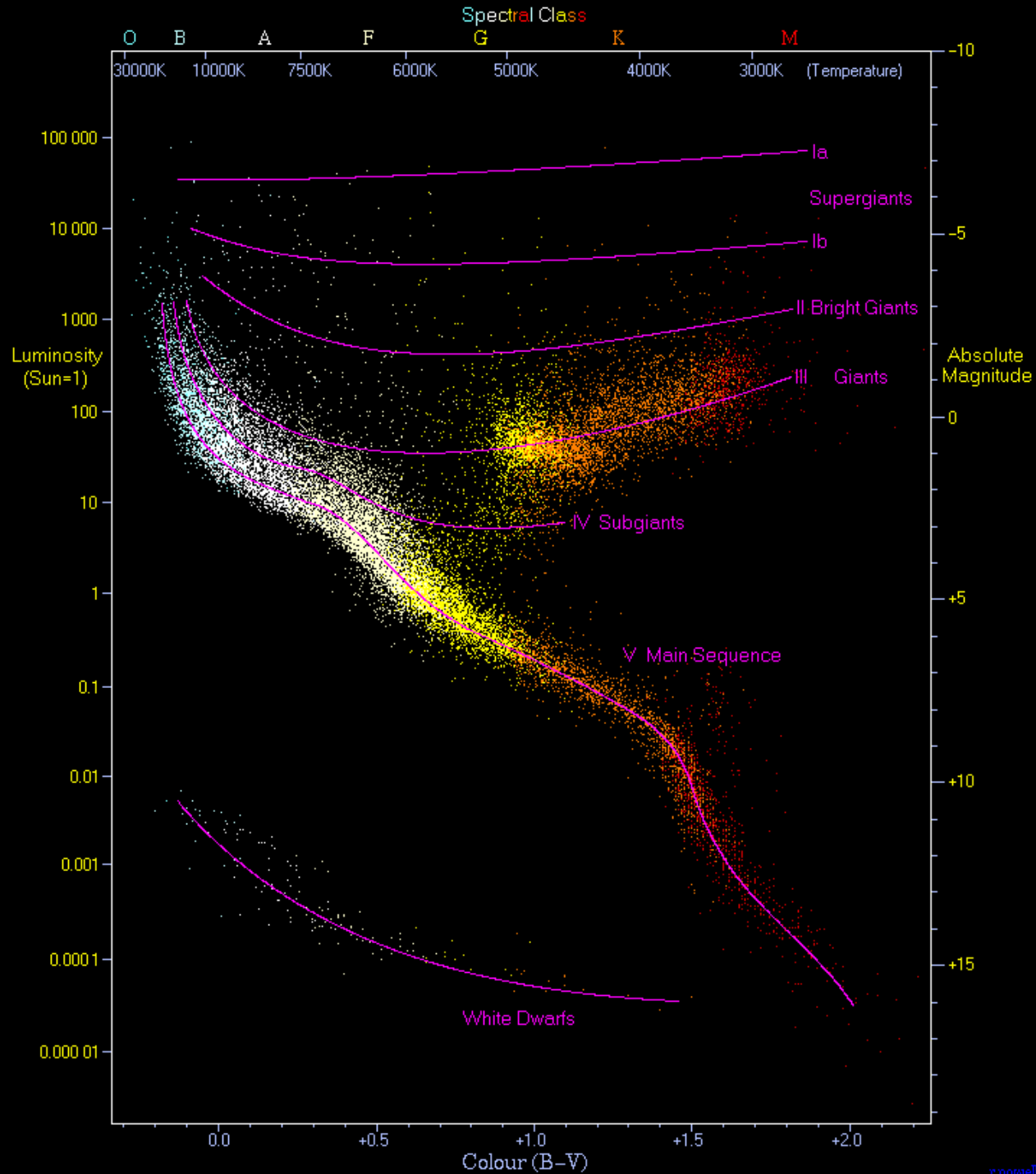
Convert wavelength into frequency using

$$c = f \lambda$$

Hertzsprung-Russell diagram

1910 by Ejnar Hertzprung and Henry Norris Russell



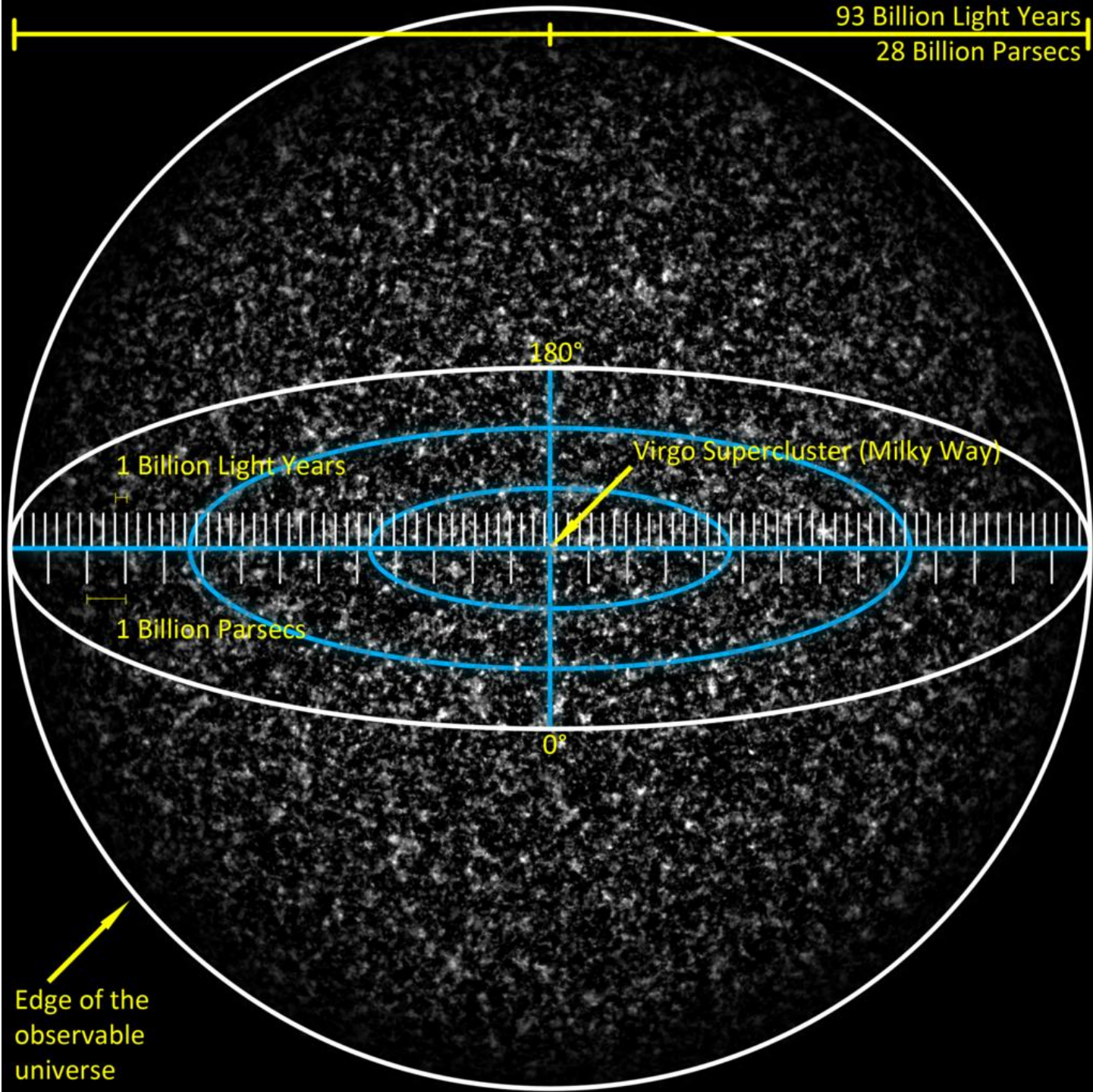


Hertzsprung–Russell diagram with 22,000 stars plotted from the Hipparcos Catalogue and 1,000 from the Gliese Catalogue of nearby stars.

Stars tend to fall only into certain regions of the diagram. The most prominent is the diagonal, going from the upper-left (hot and bright) to the lower-right (cooler and less bright), called the **main sequence**.

In the lower-left is where **white dwarfs** are found, and above the main sequence are the **subgiants**, **giants** and **supergiants**.

The Sun is found on the main sequence at luminosity 1 (absolute magnitude 4.8) and B–V colour index 0.66 (temperature 5780 K, spectral type G2V).

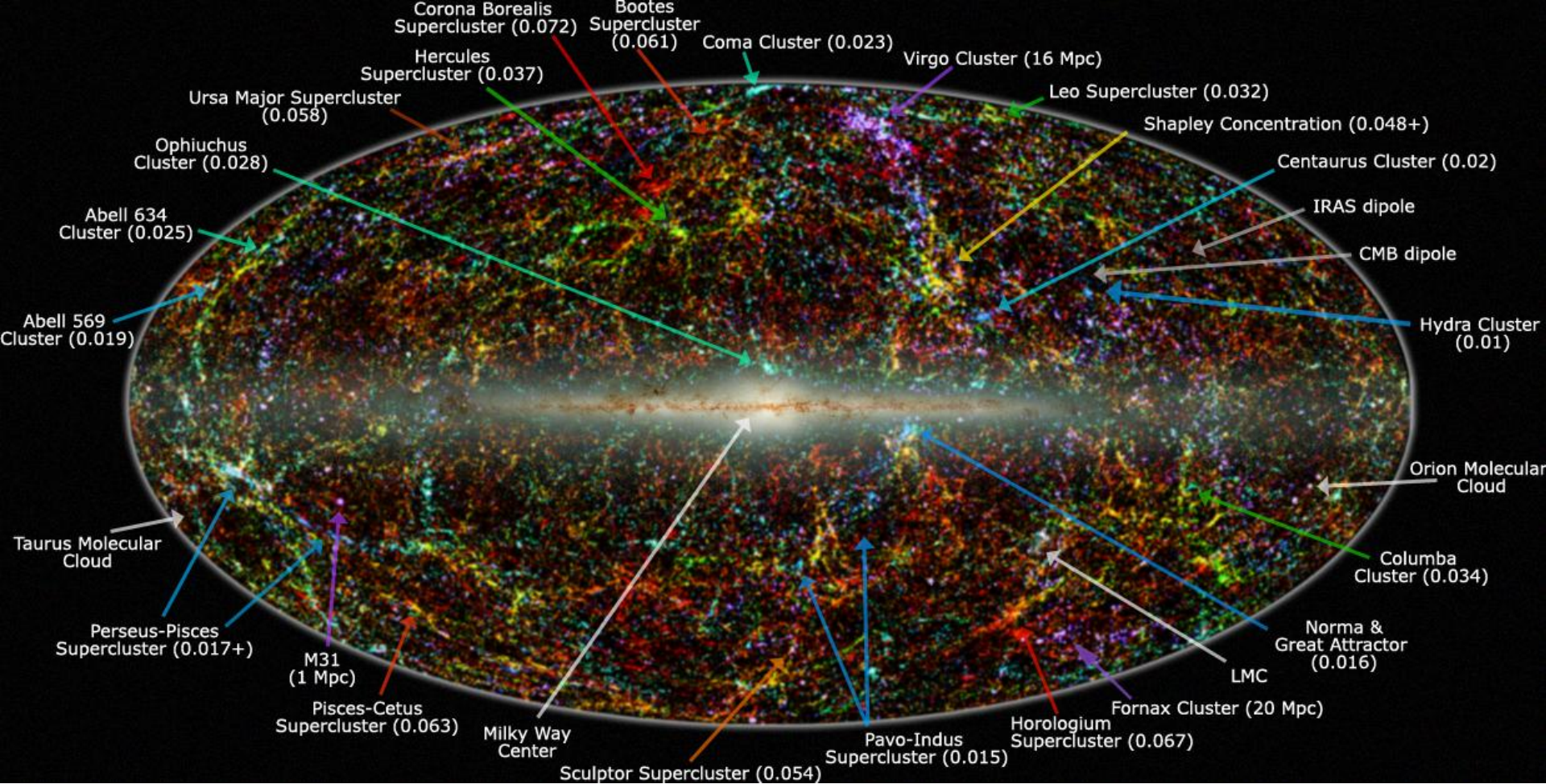




NASA; ESA; G. Illingworth, D. Magee, and P. Oesch, University of California, Santa Cruz; R. Bouwens, Leiden University; and the HUDF09 Team

The Hubble eXtreme Deep Field (XDF) was completed in September 2012 and shows the farthest galaxies ever photographed. Except for the few stars in the foreground (which are bright and easily recognizable because only they have diffraction spikes), every speck of light in the photo is an individual galaxy, some of them as old as 13.2 billion years; the observable universe is estimated to contain more than 200 billion galaxies.



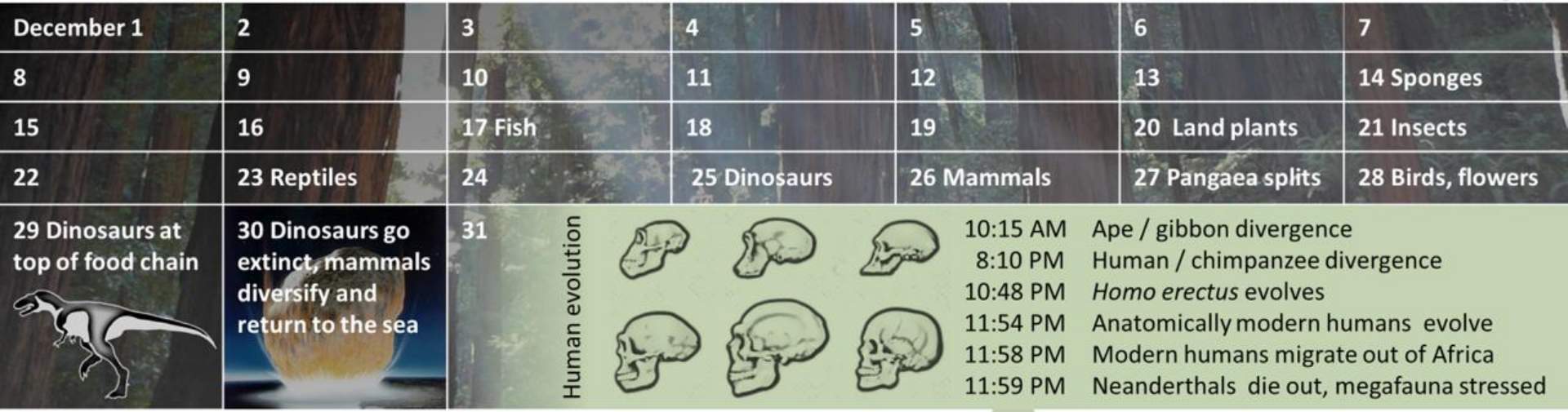
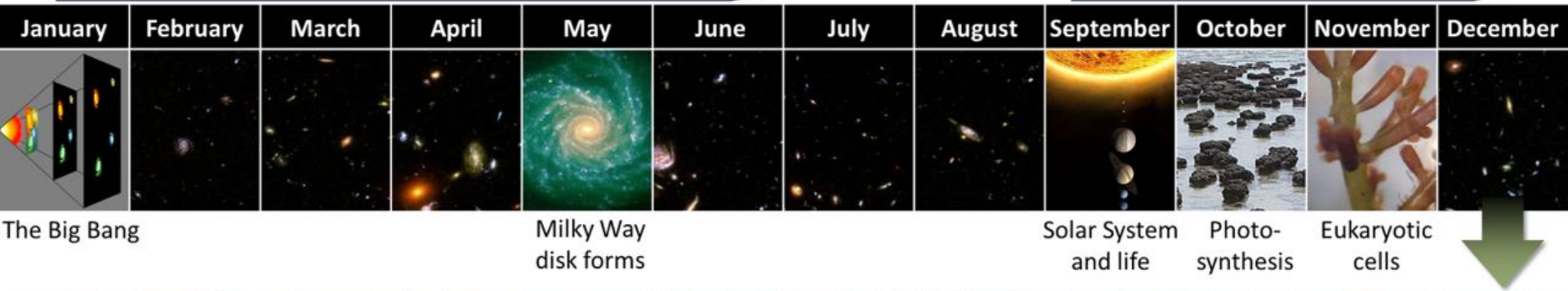


Panoramic view of the entire near-infrared sky reveals the distribution of galaxies beyond the Milky Way. The image is derived from the **2MASS Extended Source Catalogue (XSC)**—more than 1.5 million galaxies, and the Point Source Catalogue (PSC)—nearly 0.5 billion Milky Way stars. The galaxies are colour coded by redshift (numbers in parentheses). Blue/purple are the nearest sources ($z < 0.01$); green are at moderate distances ($0.01 < z < 0.04$) and red are the most distant sources that 2MASS resolves ($0.04 < z < 0.1$). The map is projected with an equal area Aitoff in the Galactic system (Milky Way at centre).

How old is the Universe?
Does it have a beginning,
and an end?

Known from telescopes looking back in time, physical models

Geologic record, fossils, genetic drift

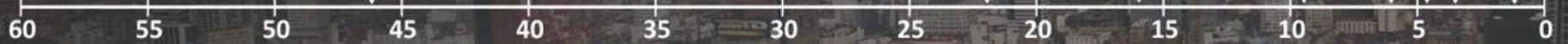


Known from radiocarbon dating, DNA extraction from remains

Written record

The last 60 seconds of the year...

Columbus arrives in America (one second to midnight)



Peak of last glacial period, humans migrate to the Americas

Agriculture, permanent settlements

First cities in Mesopotamia

Roman republic, Old Testament, Buddha

Dynastic China

Christ born

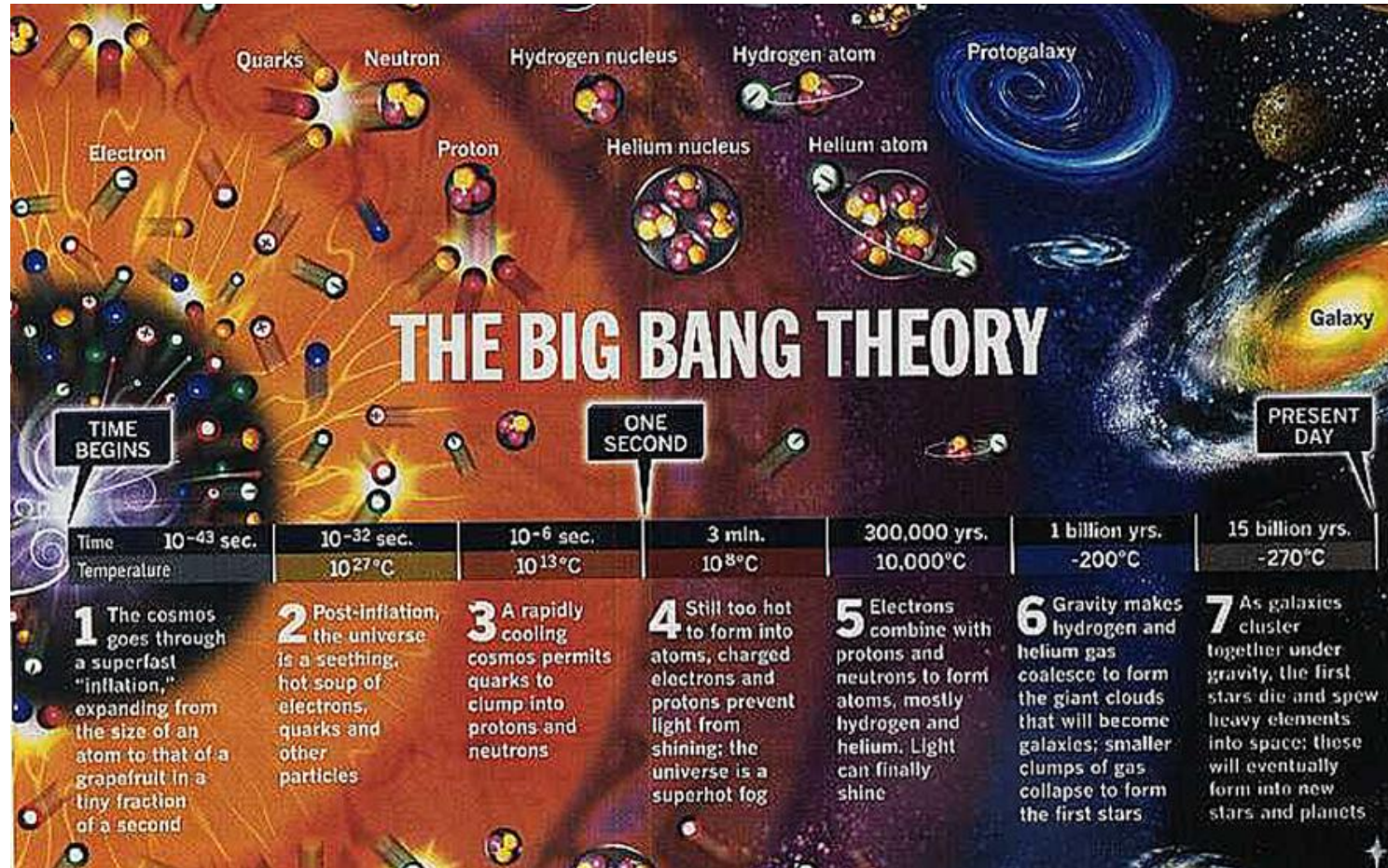
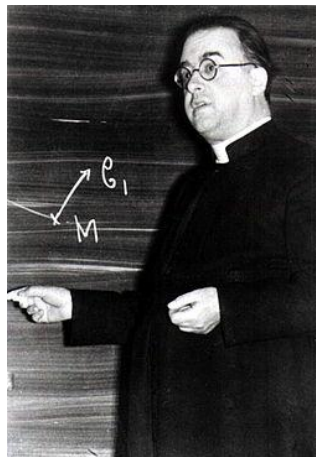
Mohammed born

Columbus arrives in America (one second to midnight)

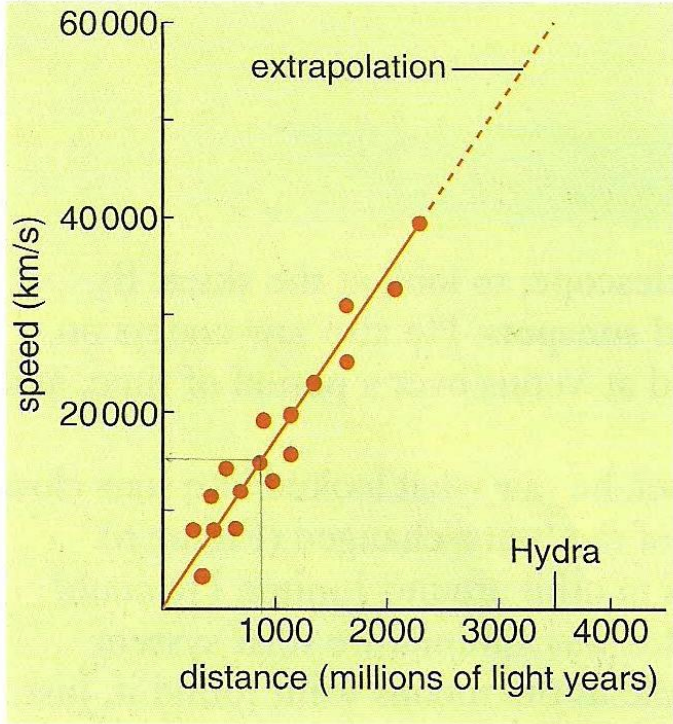
How old is the Universe?

13.8 billion years

George Lemaitre
(1894-1966)
proposed what is
now termed the
Big Bang theory of
the Universe i.e. an
expansion from a
singularity



The galaxy is found in this constellation	Distance of galaxy (millions of light years*)	Speed of galaxy (km/s)
Virgo	72	1200
Perseus	400	
Ursa Major		15 000
Corona	1200	20 000
Borealis		
Bootes	2400	40 000
Hydra		60 000



Edwin Hubble (1889-1953)



Hubble found that the majority of galaxies were *moving away from each other*. The resulting doppler shift would be towards the *red* end of the spectrum. The line of best fit to the speed vs distance graph gives an idea of the age of the universe

$$t \approx \frac{2300 \times 10^6 \times 9.46 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}}{40,000 \times 10^3 \text{ ms}^{-1}}$$

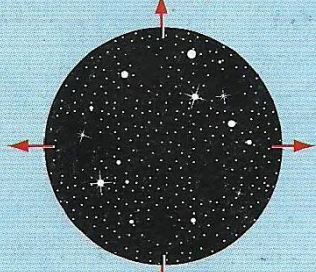
$$t \approx 5.4 \times 10^{17} \text{ s}$$

$$t \approx 17.2 \text{ billion years}$$

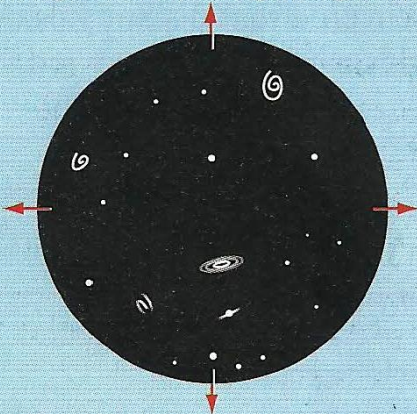
If one accounts for relativistic effects, inflation etc

$$t = 13.8 \text{ billion years}$$

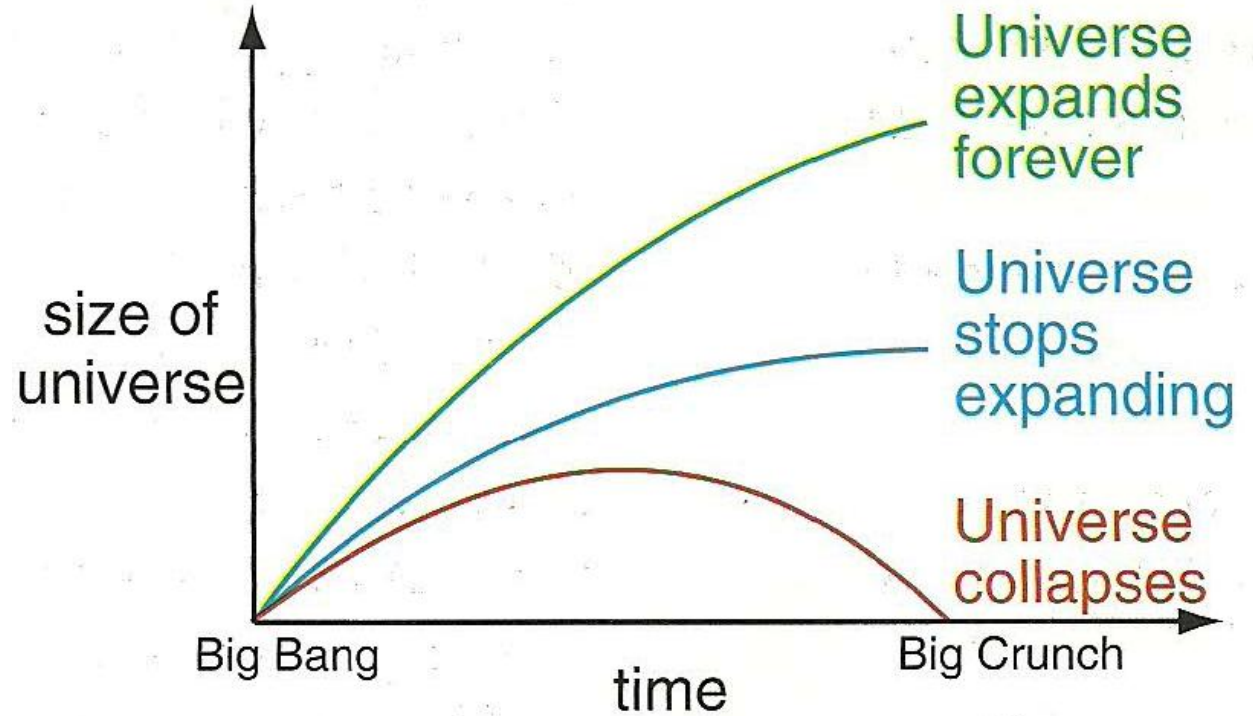
(a) 15 billion years ago: the moment of creation. The universe explodes outwards from a tiny point



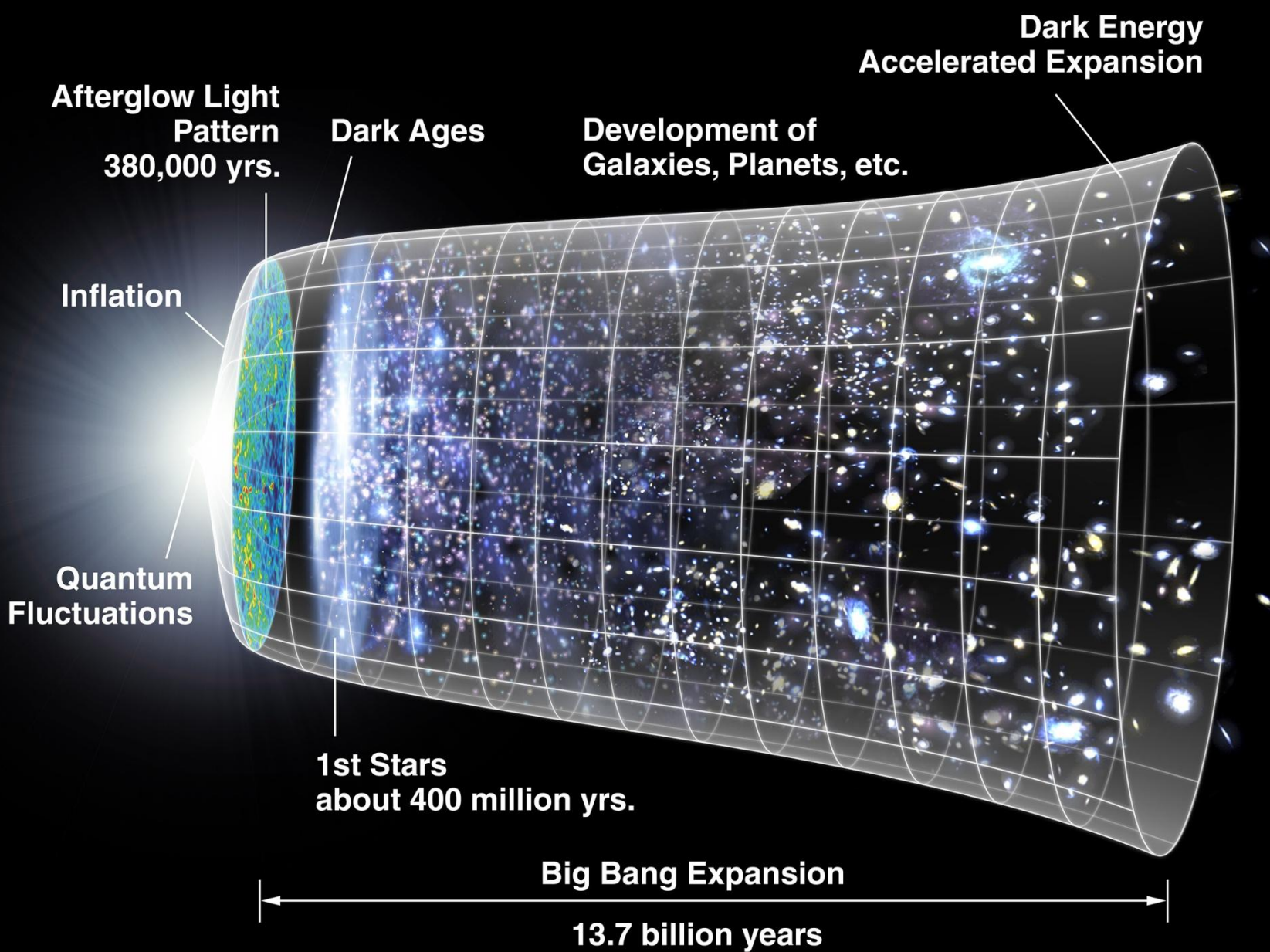
(b) 1 billion years after the 'big bang', the universe is expanding rapidly but galaxies are beginning to form



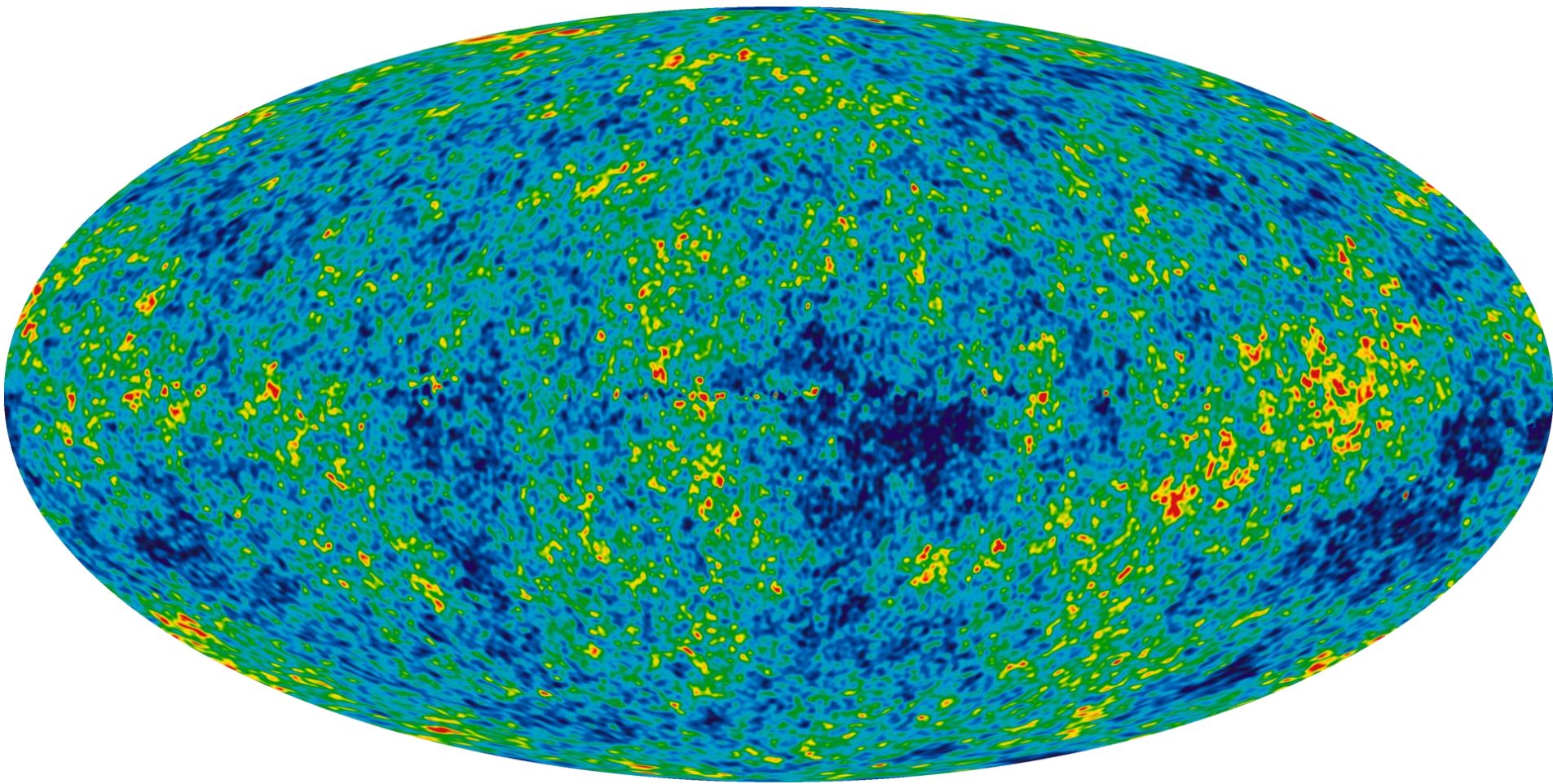
(c) 10 billion years after the 'big bang' galaxies have formed. Our solar system forms in one of them. The universe is expanding less rapidly now. There is gravitational attraction between all galaxies, which tries to pull them all back together. So the galaxies are slowing down. Perhaps eventually all the galaxies will start to fall back towards each other . . .



Does the universe expand forever? Or does it gradually slow down, or does it contract?

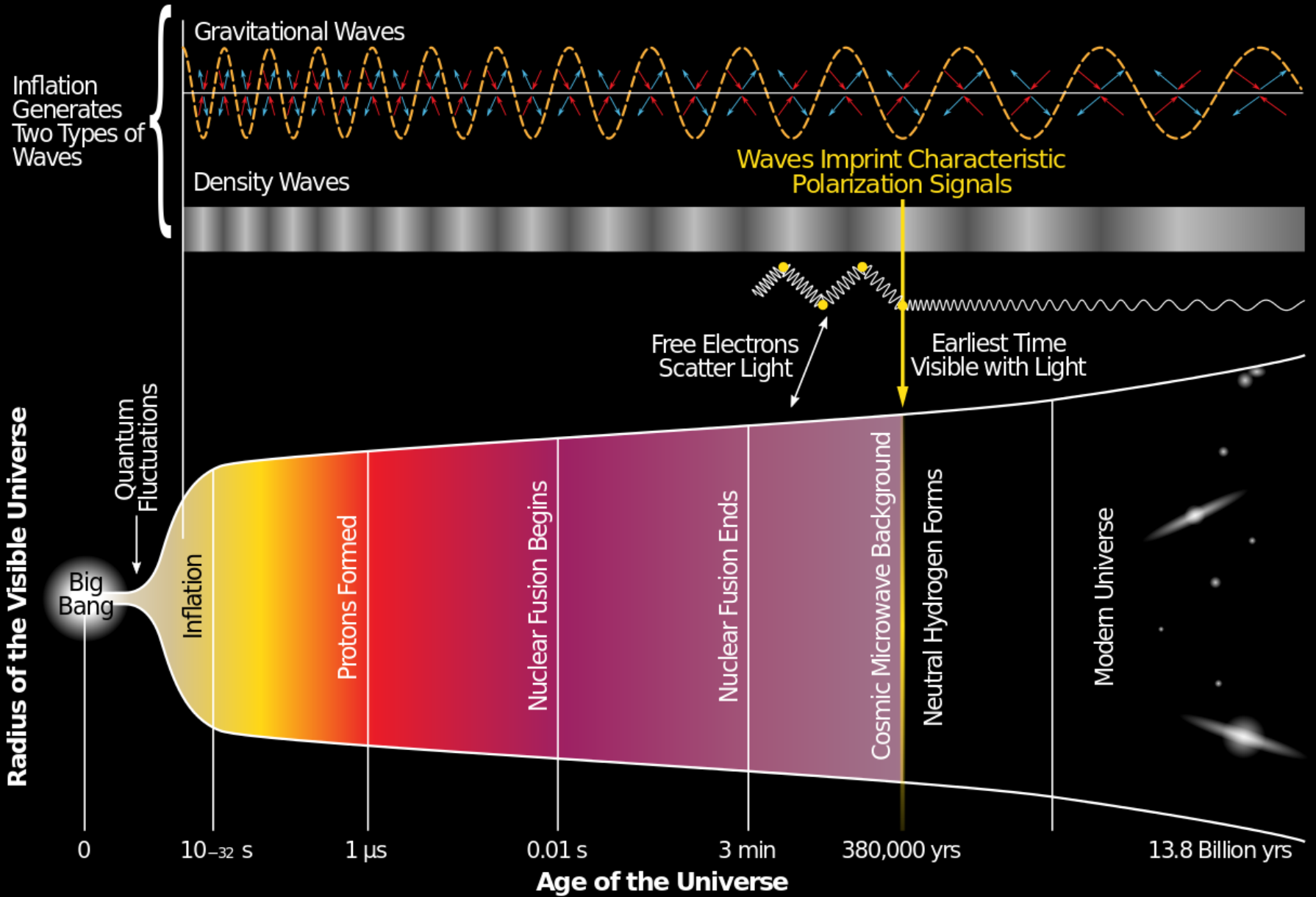


NASA/WMAP Science Team - Original version: NASA; modified by Ryan Kaldari



Nine Year Microwave Sky .The detailed, all-sky picture of the infant universe created from nine years of WMAP data. The image reveals 13.77 billion year old temperature fluctuations (shown as colour differences) that correspond to the seeds that grew to become the galaxies. The signal from our galaxy was subtracted using the multi-frequency data. This image shows a temperature range of $\pm 200 \mu\text{K}$.

History of the Universe

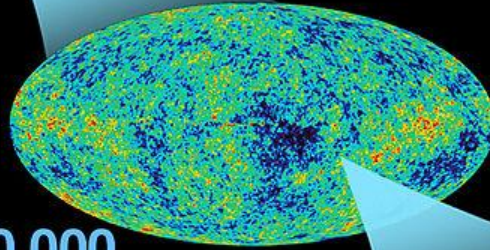


**DAWN
OF
TIME**



**tiny fraction
of a second**

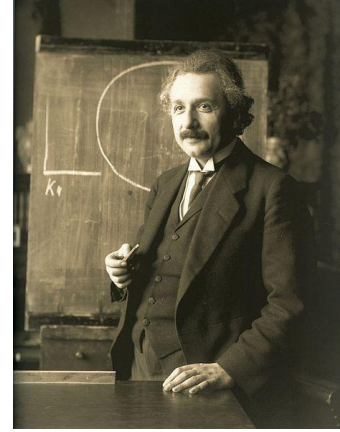
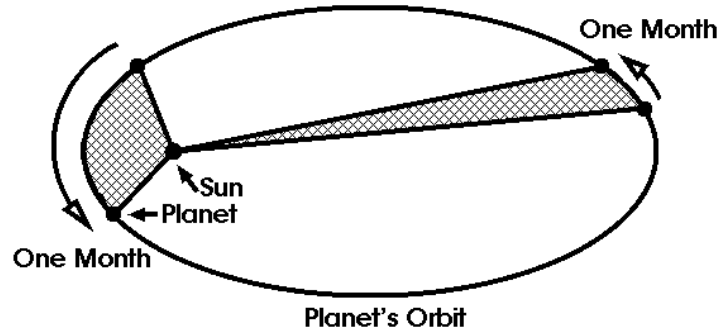
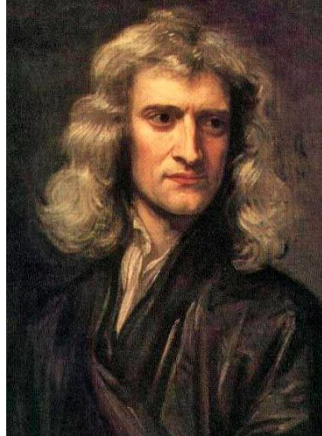
inflation



**380,000
years**



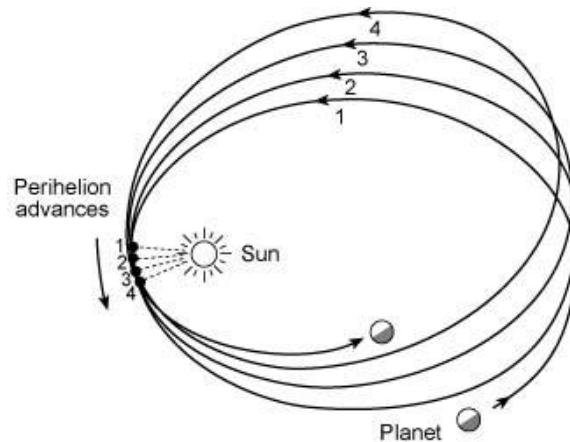
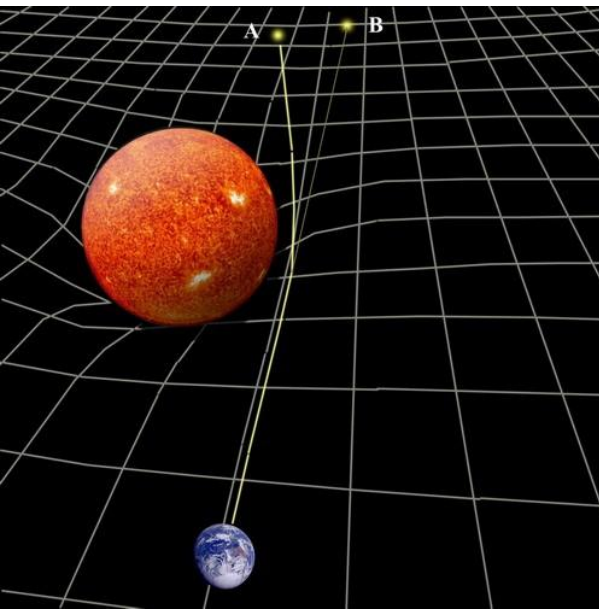
**13.7
billion
years**

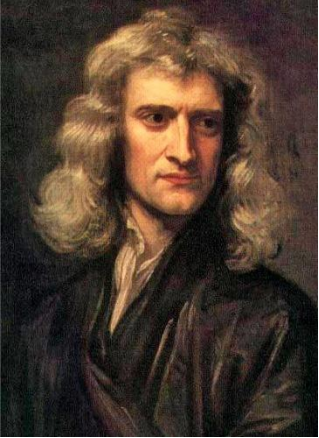


$$F = \frac{GMM_{\odot}}{r^2}$$

Gravity

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(M + M_{\odot})} a^3$$





Isaac Newton

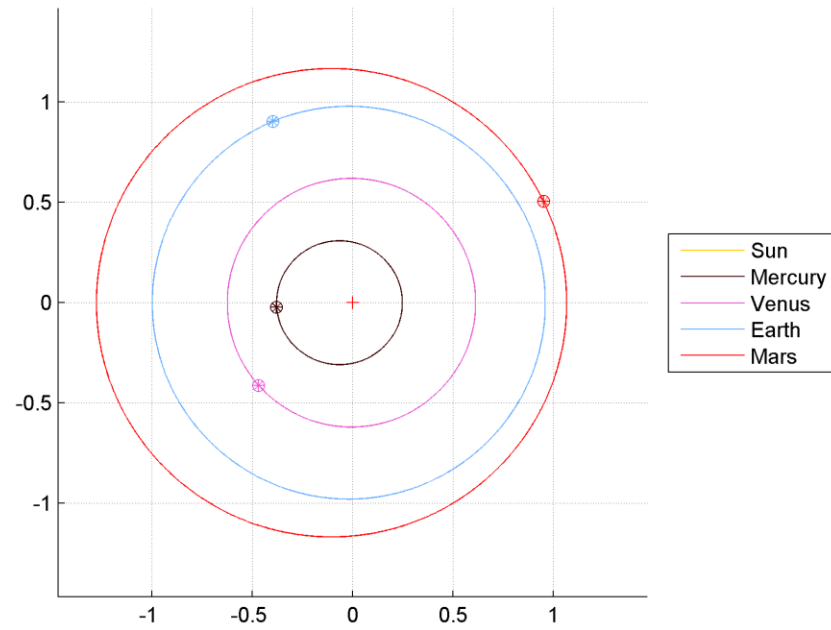
(1642-1727) developed a mathematical model of Gravity which predicted the elliptical orbits proposed by Kepler

Planet and Solar masses

Force of gravity

$$F = \frac{GMM_{\odot}}{r^2}$$

$$G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2}$$



Semi-major axis

$2a$

$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^2)}{1 + \varepsilon \cos \theta}$$

Polar equation of ellipse

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$$

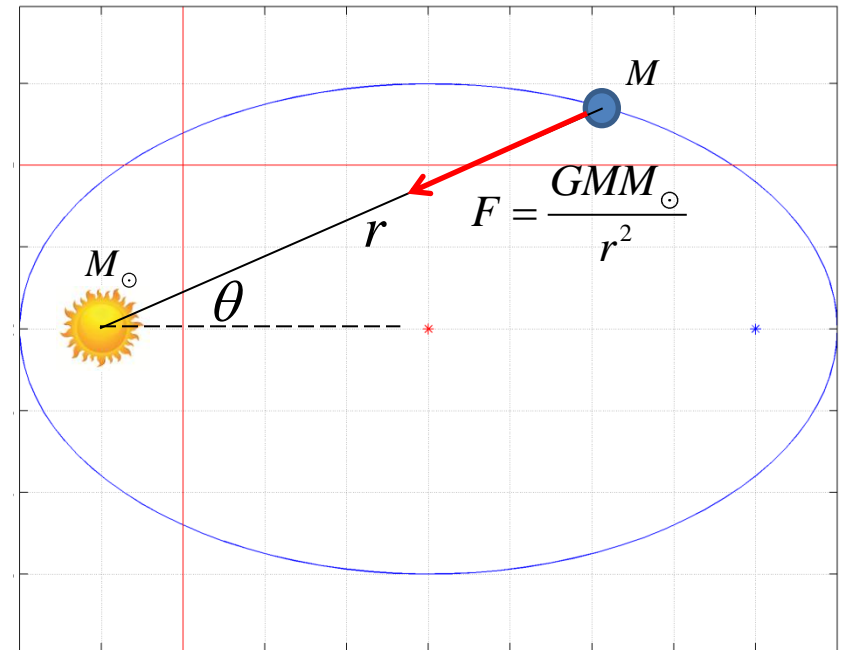
Eccentricity of ellipse

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(M + M_{\odot})} a^3$$

Orbital period P

Semi-minor axis

$2b$



Kepler's three laws are:

1. *The orbit of every planet in the solar system is an ellipse with the Sun at one of the two foci.*
2. *A line joining a planet and the Sun sweeps out equal areas during equal intervals of time.*
3. *The square of the orbital period of a planet is directly proportional to the cube of the semi-major axis of its orbit.*

The wording of Kepler's laws implies a specific application to the solar system. However, the laws are more generally applicable to any system of two masses whose mutual attraction is an inverse-square law.

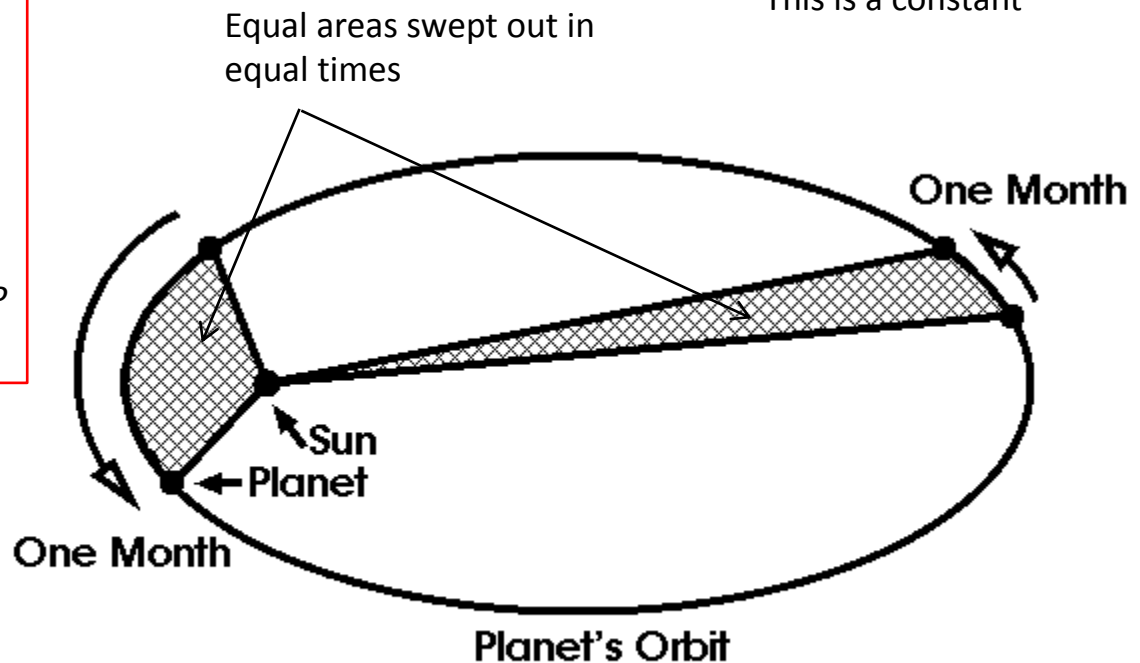
$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^2)}{1 + \varepsilon \cos \theta} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Polar} \\ \text{equation} \\ \text{of ellipse} \end{array}$$

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Eccentricity of} \\ \text{ellipse} \end{array}$$

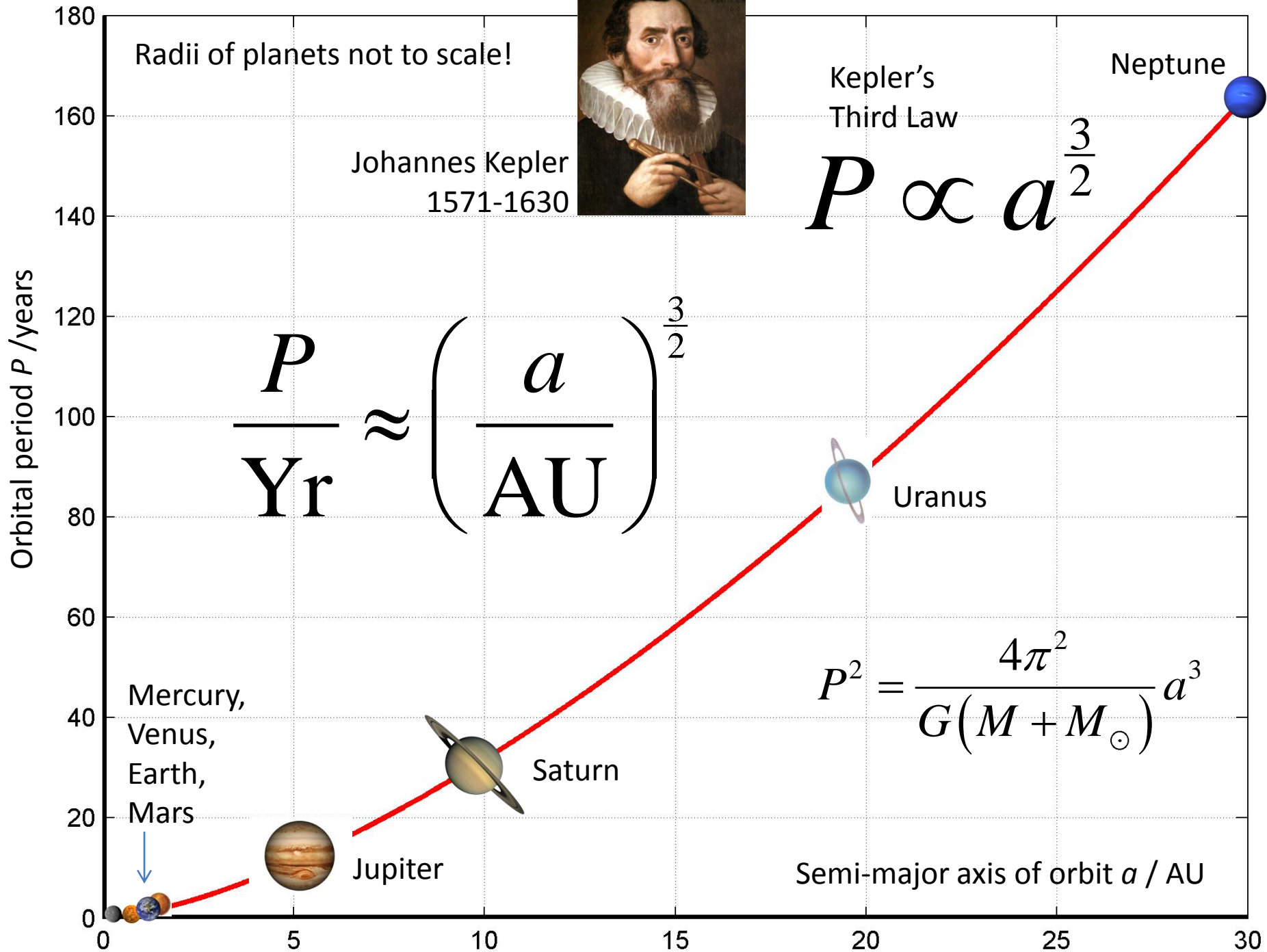
$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(M + M_{\odot})} a^3 \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Orbital} \\ \text{period } P \end{array}$$

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{G(M + M_{\odot})(1 - \varepsilon^2)a}$$

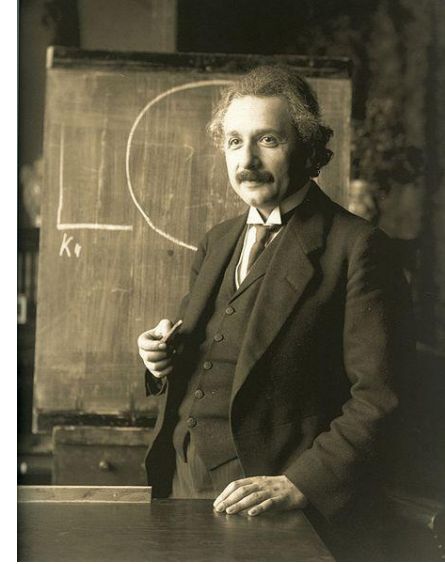
This is a constant



Johannes Kepler
1571-1630

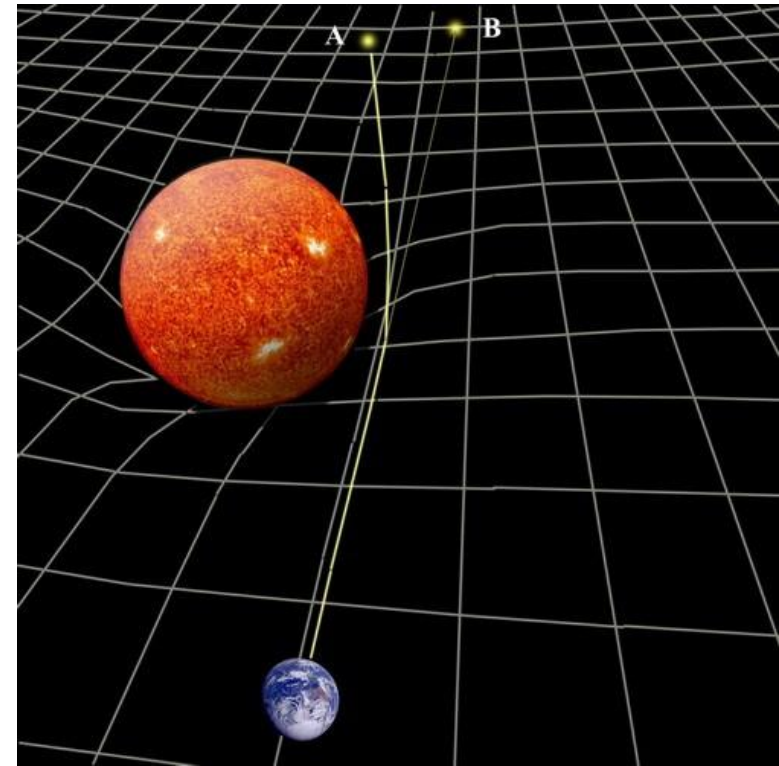
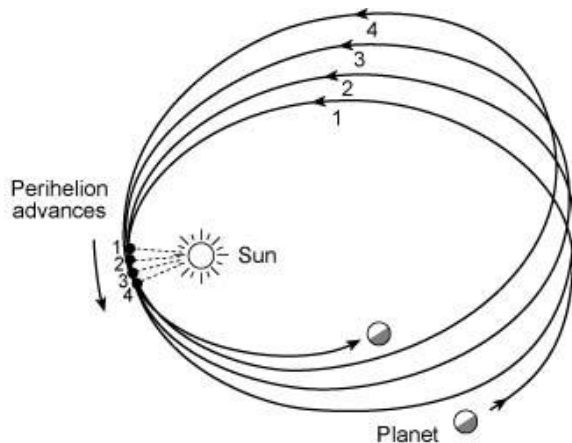


Albert Einstein (1879-1955) proposed a radical new theory of gravity, General Relativity, in which both space & time ('*spacetime*') are *curved* by the presence of mass. This helped to explain *anomalies* in the Newtonian model such as the *precession of the orbit Mercury* and the amount that light is bent by massive objects (*Gravitational lensing*). Note General Relativity predicts the *same* planetary dynamics as Newton's model when gravity is fairly weak. i.e. Newton's model can be thought of as an *approximation*.



Sources of the precession of perihelion for Mercury

Amount (arcsec/Julian century)	Cause
531.63 ±0.69 ^[4]	Gravitational tugs of the other planets
0.0254	Oblateness of the Sun (quadrupole moment)
42.98 ±0.04 ^[5]	General relativity
574.64±0.69	Total
574.10±0.65 ^[4]	Observed



Escape velocity

To escape the gravity of a spherical astronomical body of mass M and radius R the total energy of the system must be positive at an infinite distance from the body.

In other words, it will have some kinetic energy and will never be gravitationally attracted back towards the body.

For a mass m blasting off with velocity v , it will escape the gravitational influence of M if:

For Earth, the escape velocity is:

$$v_{\text{escape}} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}$$

$$v_{\text{escape}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \times 5.97 \times 10^{24}}{6.38 \times 10^6}} \approx 11.2 \text{ km s}^{-1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{GMm}{R} > 0$$

$$\therefore v > \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}}$$

It is interesting to work out the radius of a star of mass M such that the escape velocity exceeds that of the speed of light. Since this is not possible, the star becomes a **Black Hole**.

This inequality defines the maximum radius of a Black Hole, which is called the **Schwarzschild radius**. This is the *event horizon*, or 'point of no return' from the centre of a Black Hole.

For the Sun to become a Black Hole ($M = 2 \times 10^{30}$ kg, $R = 6.96 \times 10^8$ m) its radius would have to **shrink to less than 2.97 km**.

$$\sqrt{\frac{2GM}{R}} > c$$

$$\frac{2GM}{R} > c^2$$

$$R < \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

$$\rho_{\text{Black hole}} > \frac{M}{\frac{4}{3}\pi \left(\frac{2GM}{c^2}\right)^3}$$

$$\rho_{\text{Black hole}} > \frac{3c^6}{32\pi G^3 M^2}$$

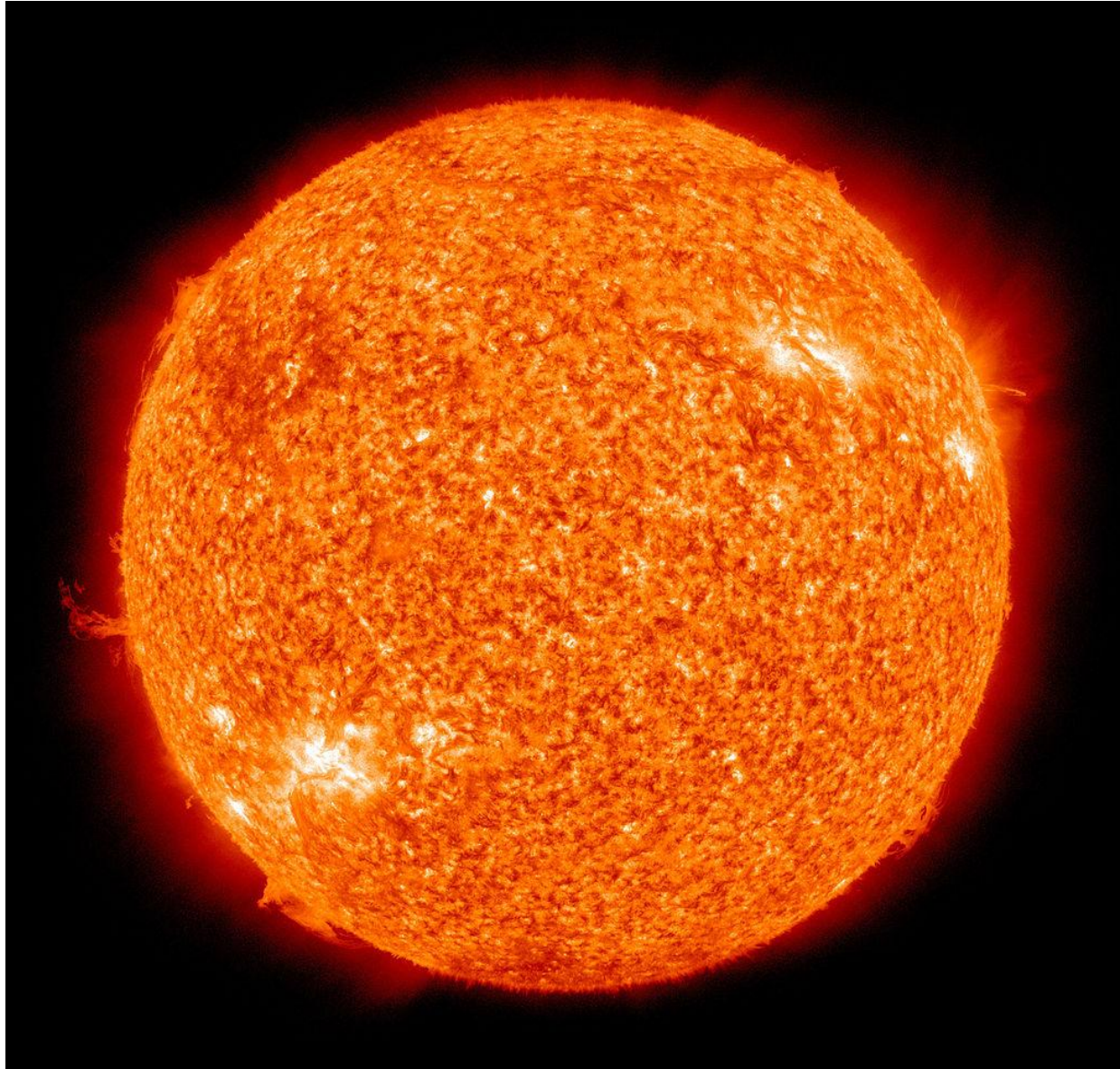
This is a mindblowing density of 1.8×10^{19} kgm⁻³ !

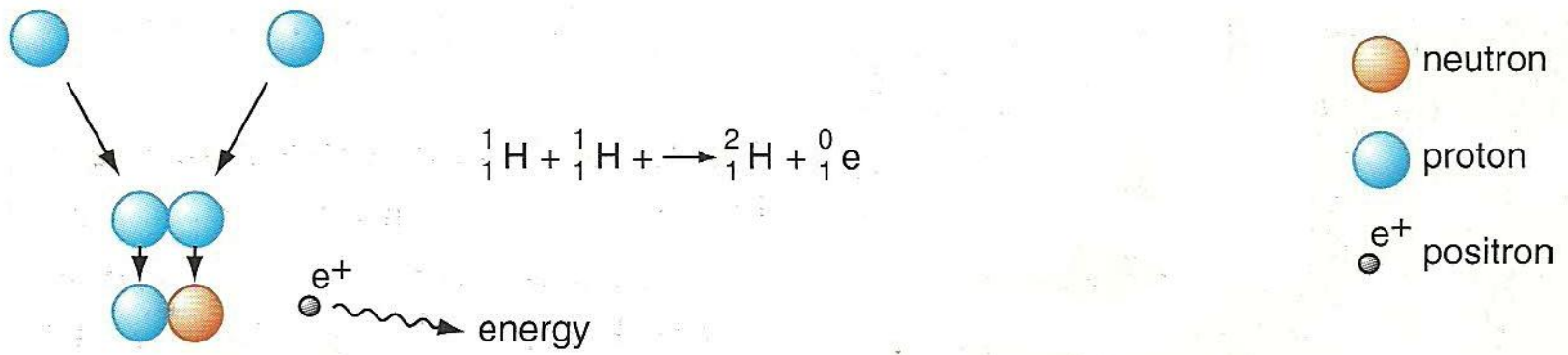
Stars & Galaxies

A star is a luminous sphere of plasma held together by its own gravity.

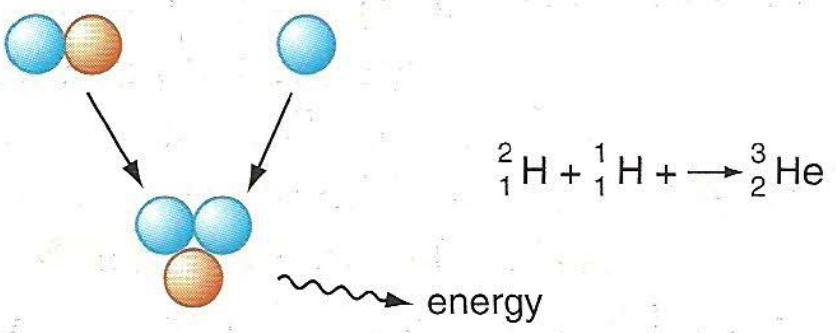
The nearest star to Earth is the Sun.

For at least a portion of its life, a star shines due to **thermonuclear fusion** of hydrogen into helium in its core, releasing energy that traverses the star's interior and then radiates into outer space.

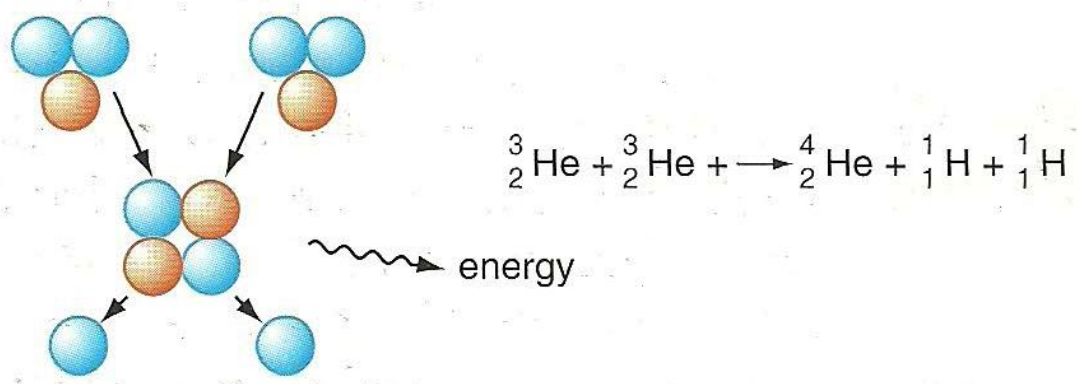




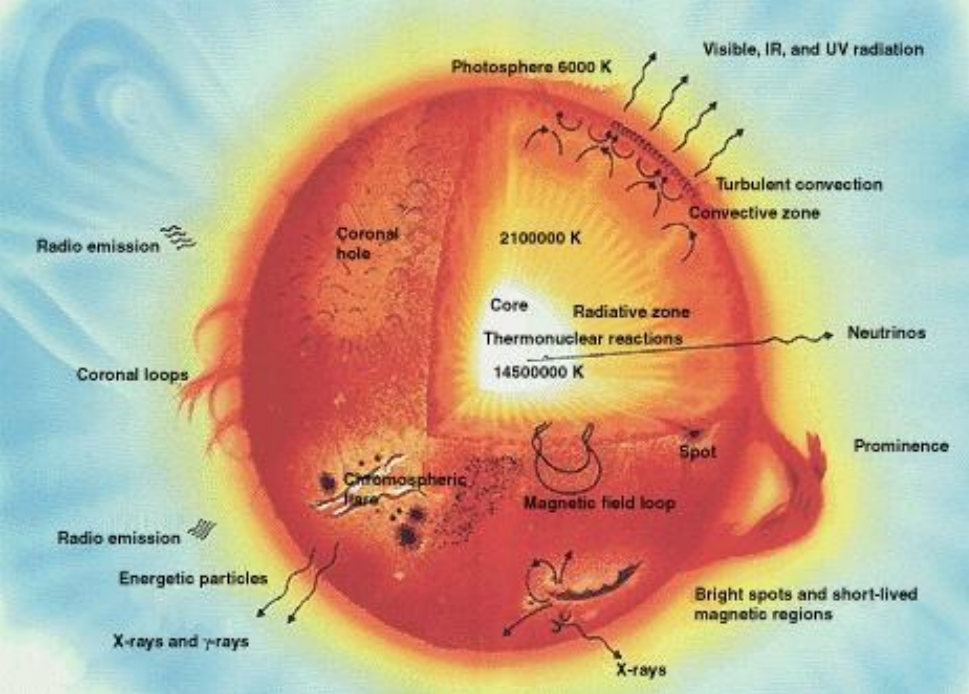
Stage 1 2 protons fuse to make deuterium, with the release of a positron and energy
 A positron is a positively charged electron. The energy is carried away by a γ -ray



Stage 2 Deuterium fuses with a proton to form Helium-3, with a further release of energy



Stage 3 The process is completed when two Helium-3 nuclei fuse to make Helium-4



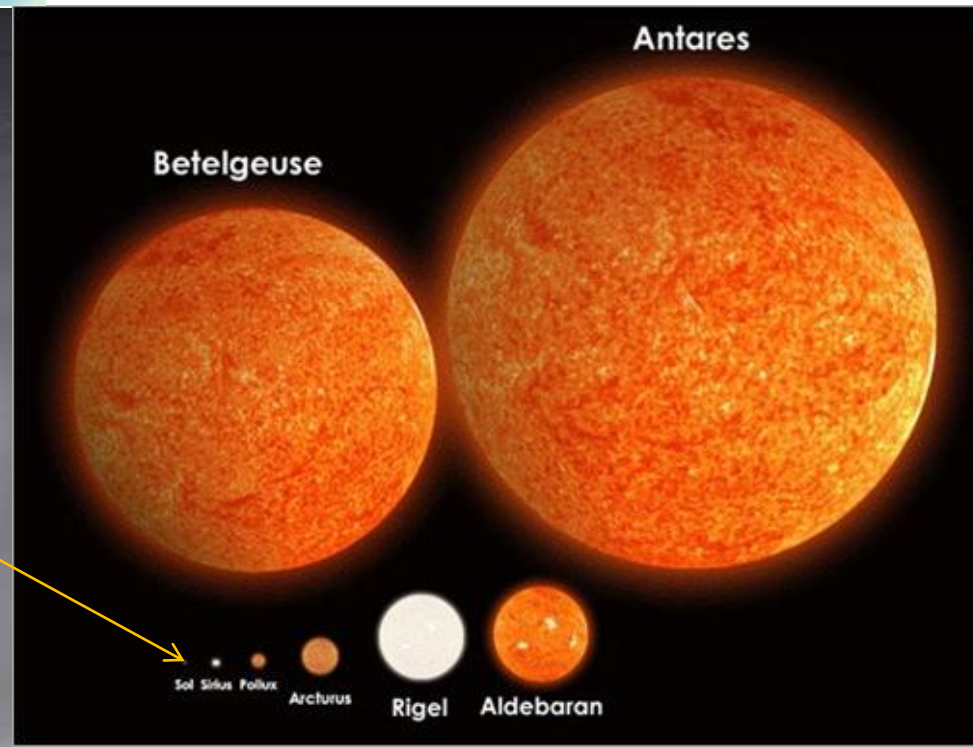
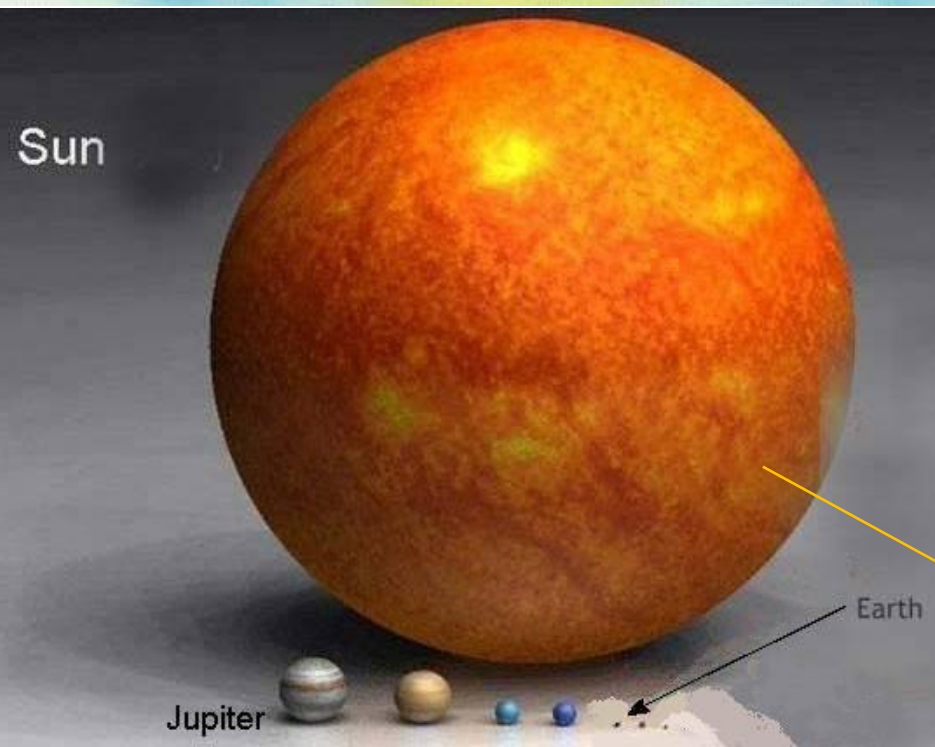
Stars vary in radius, mass and surface temperature (which is related to their luminosity)

Stefan-Boltzmann law:

$$L \propto T^4$$

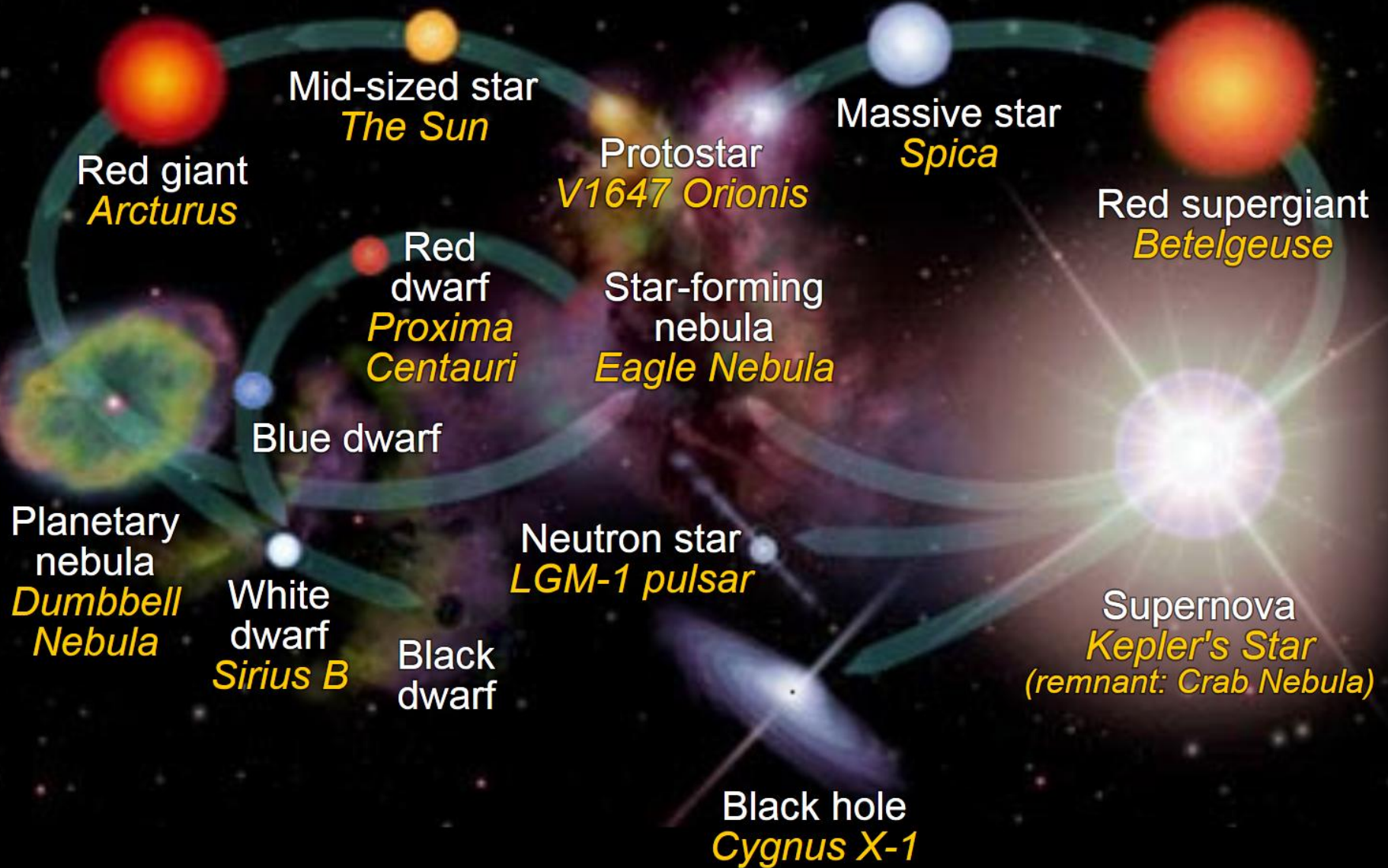
Total power radiated (all frequencies)

Surface temperature /Kelvin

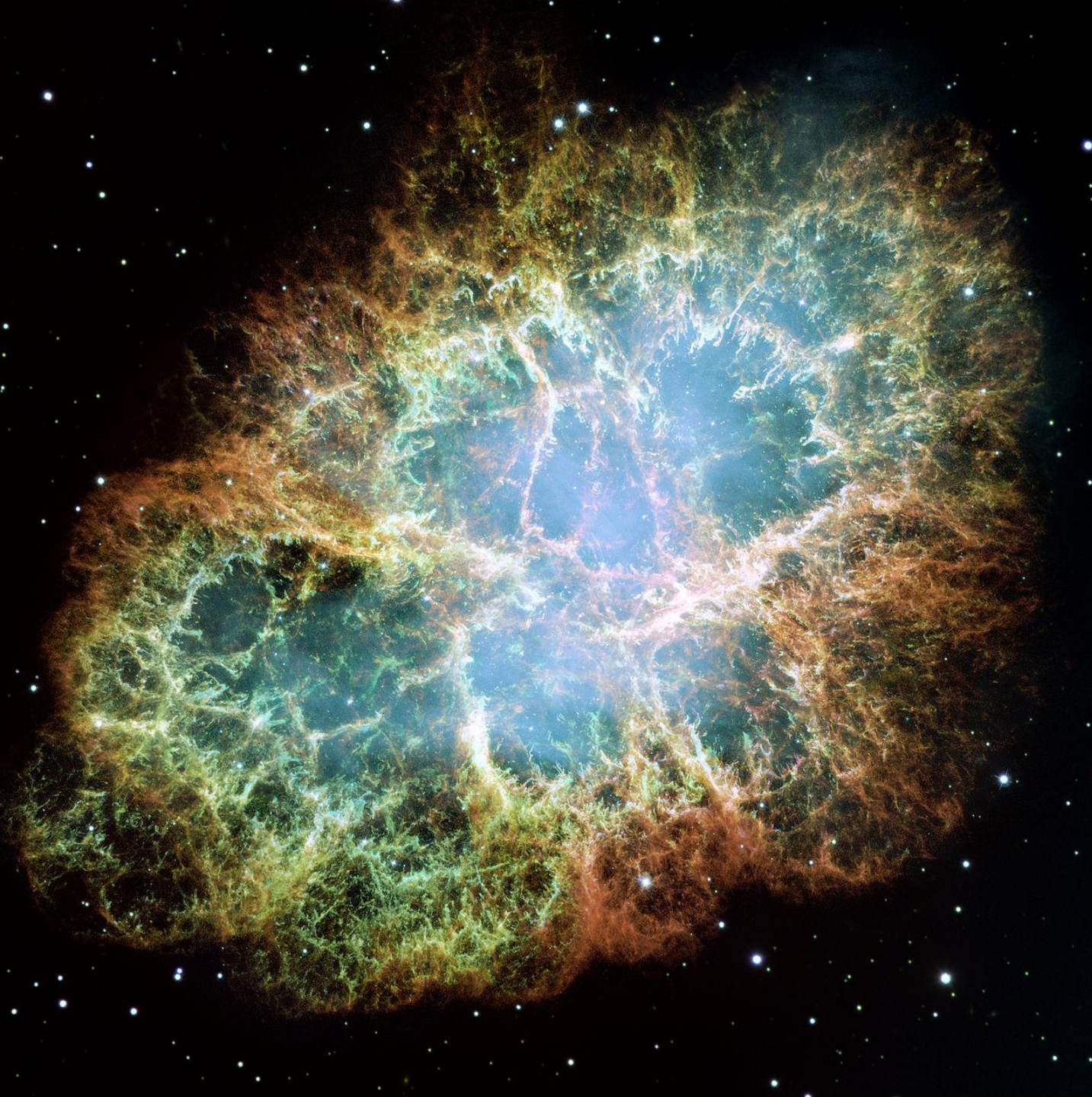


Low-mass stars

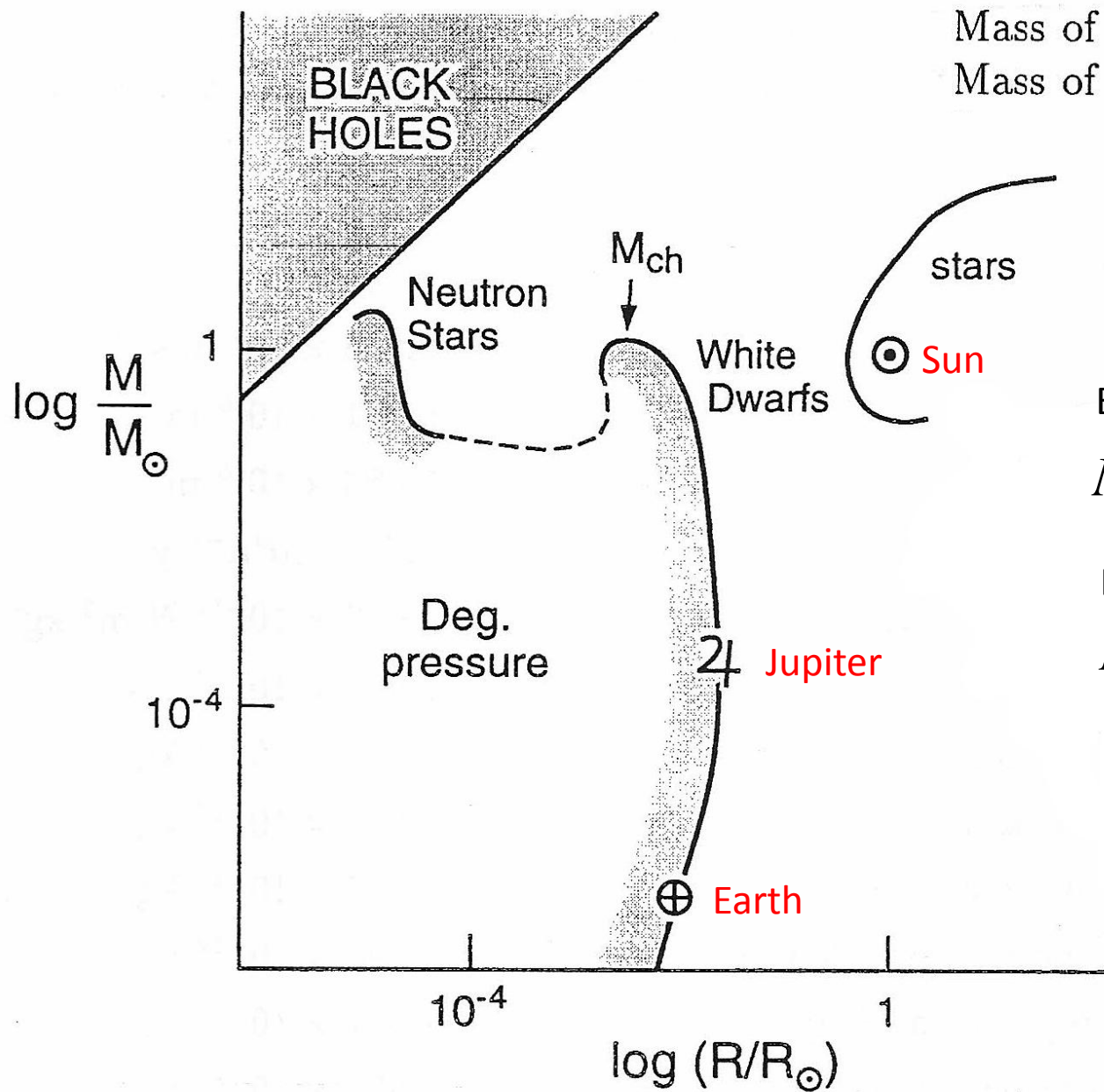
High-mass stars



The lifecycle of a star – much of what happens depends upon its *mass*



The Crab Nebula,
remnants of a
supernova that was
first observed
around 1050 AD



Mass of Sun = 2×10^{30} kg = M_{\odot}
 Mass of Galaxy $\sim 10^{11} - 10^{12} M_{\odot}$

Earth mass

$$M_{\oplus} = 5.972 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$$

Earth radius

$$R_{\oplus} = 6.371 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$$

Solar radius

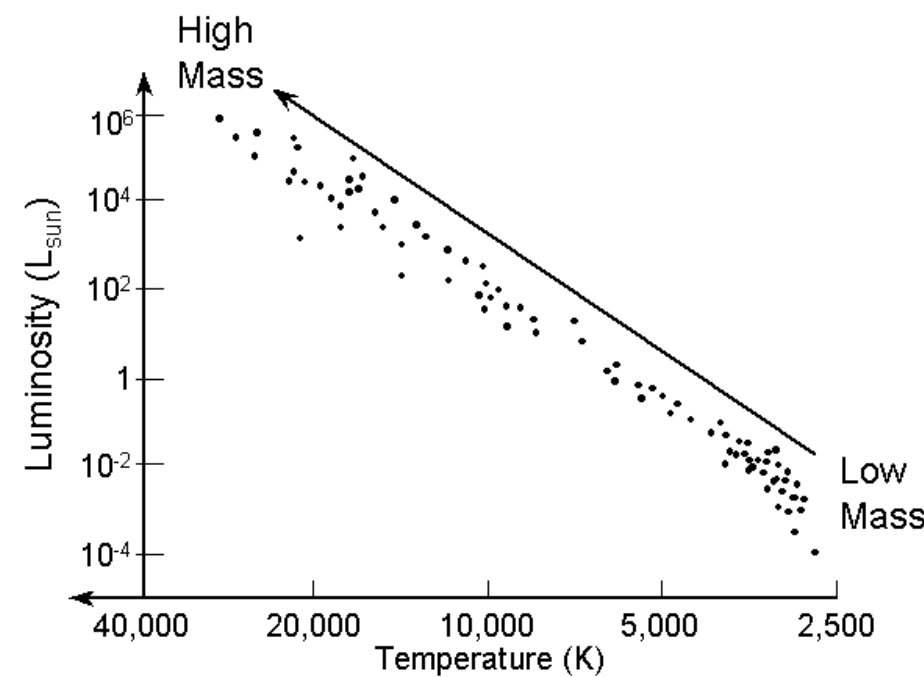
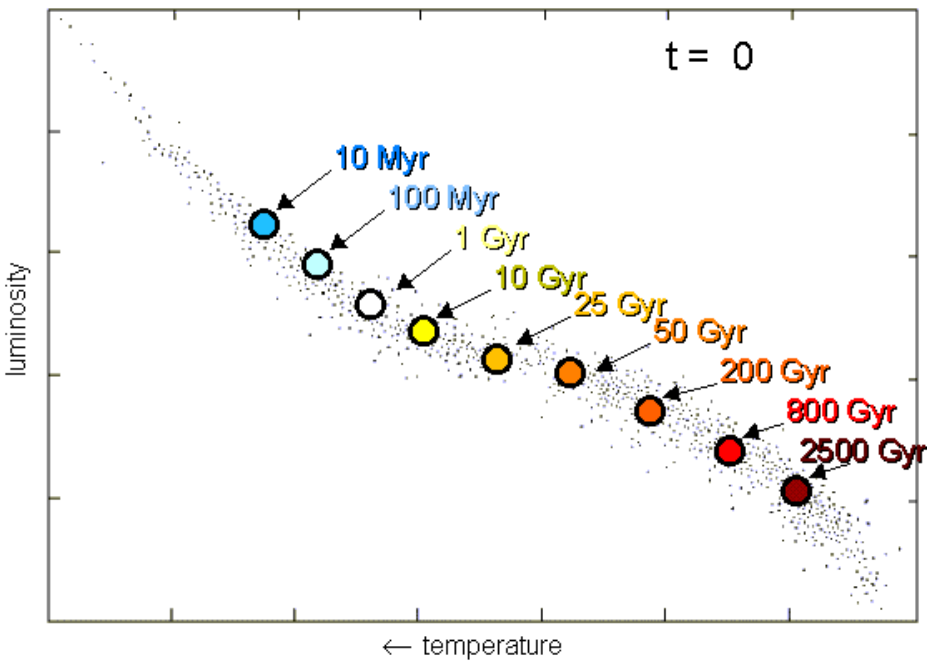
$$R_{\odot} \approx 110 R_{\oplus}$$

Mass-radius diagram for objects of planetary and stellar mass.

Mass of star (Sun = 1)	15	10	5	3	2	1	0.5	0.2
Lifetime of star (thousand millions of years)	0.01	0.02		0.23	0.7	10		2000
Luminosity of star (Sun = 1)	15 000	5000	700	130		1	0.1	0.001

For main sequence stars:

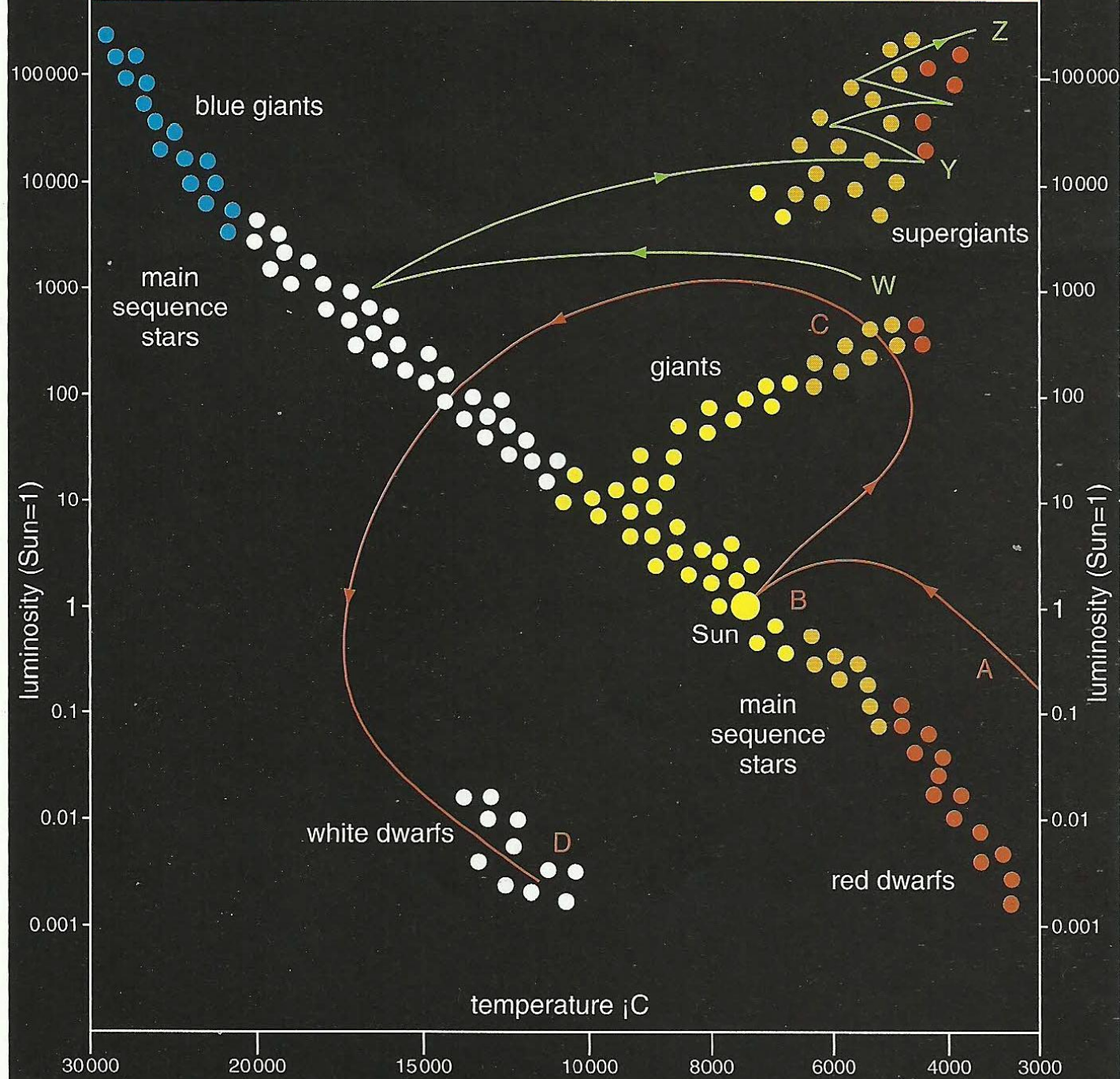
$$t_{lifetime} \approx 10^{10} \text{ years} \times \left(\frac{M_{\odot}}{M} \right)^{\frac{5}{2}}$$



BLUE WHITE YELLOW ORANGE RED

Hertzsprung-Russell diagram

1910 by Ejnar Hertzsprung and Henry Norris Russell





Colliding spiral galaxies

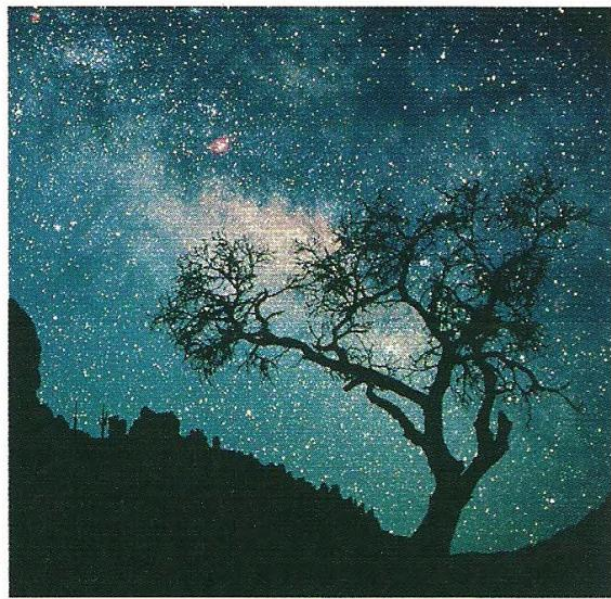


NGC 4414, a typical spiral galaxy in the constellation Coma Berenices, is about 55,000 light-years in diameter and approximately 60 million light-years away from Earth.

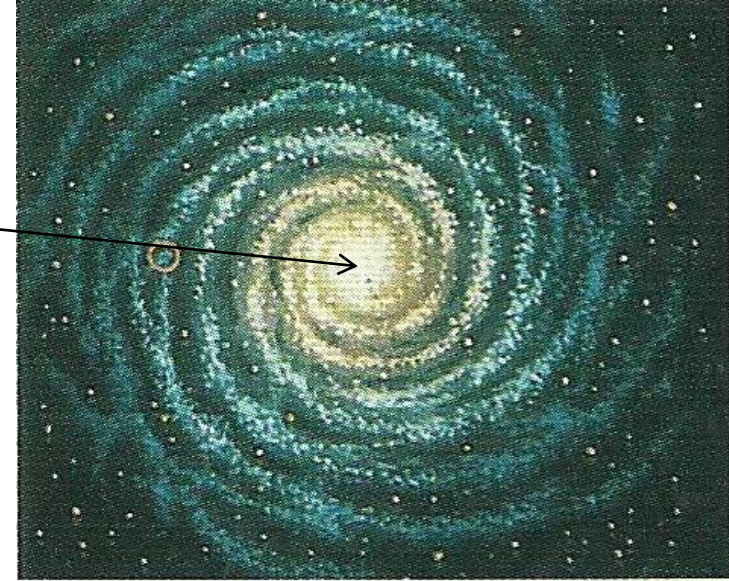
Galaxies are gravitationally bound systems of stars, gas, dust, planets and dark matter

Galaxies range from a few thousand stars to over 10^{14} stars

There are approximately 170 billion galaxies in the observable universe!



Centre is a bright radio source (Sagittarius A*, which is likely to be a supermassive black hole)



The Milky Way

200-400 billion stars. Its mass is between 0.8 and 1.5×10^{12} solar masses.

100,000-120,000 light years diameter

Rotation period about 300 million light years



Gemini

Ursa Major

Pegasus 2

Coma
Borealis

Perseus Berenices
local group

Hercules

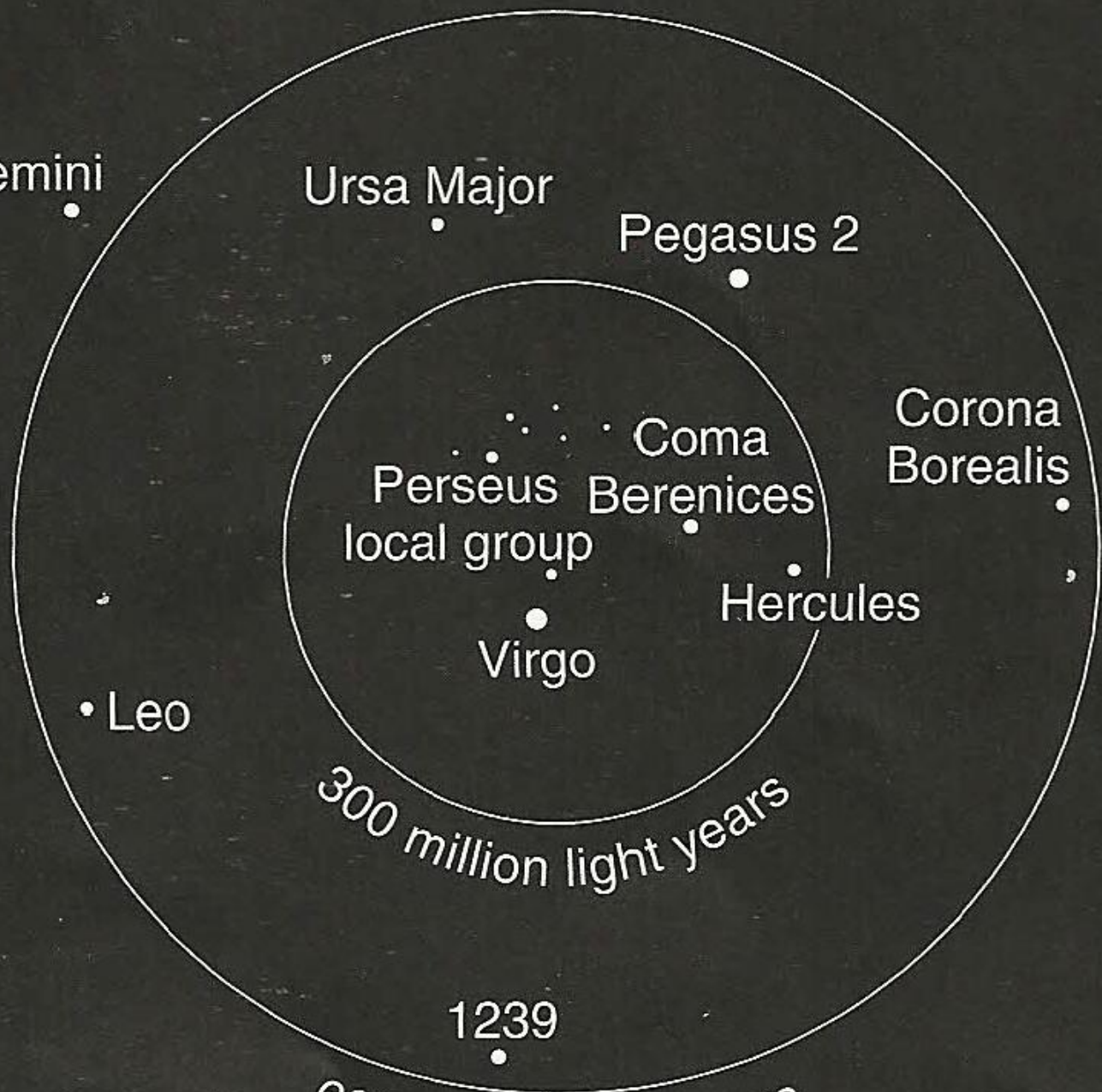
Virgo

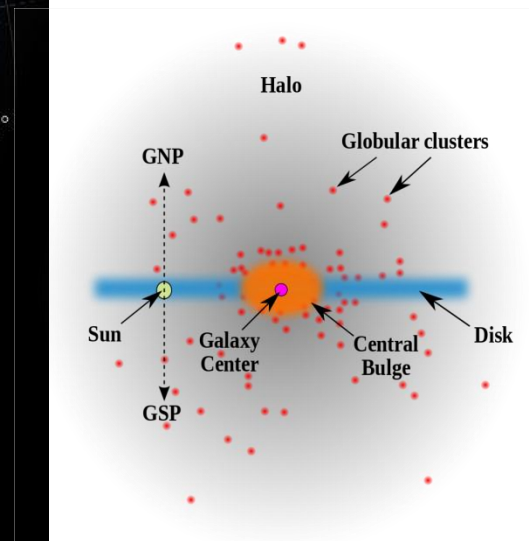
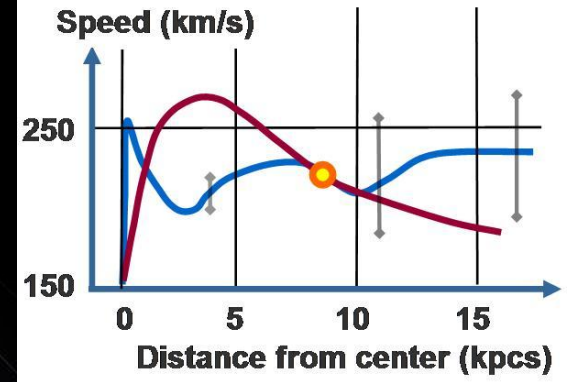
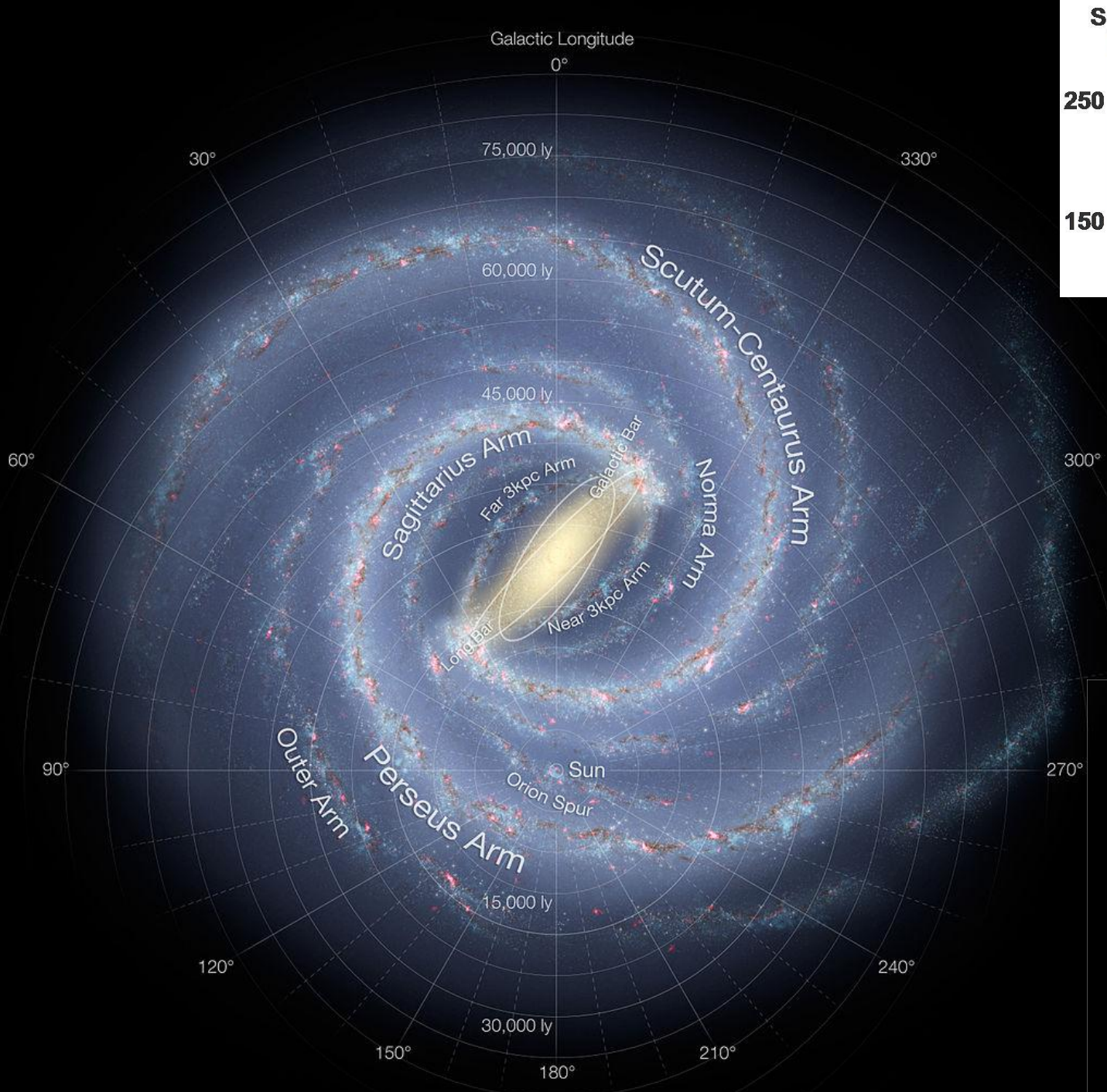
• Leo

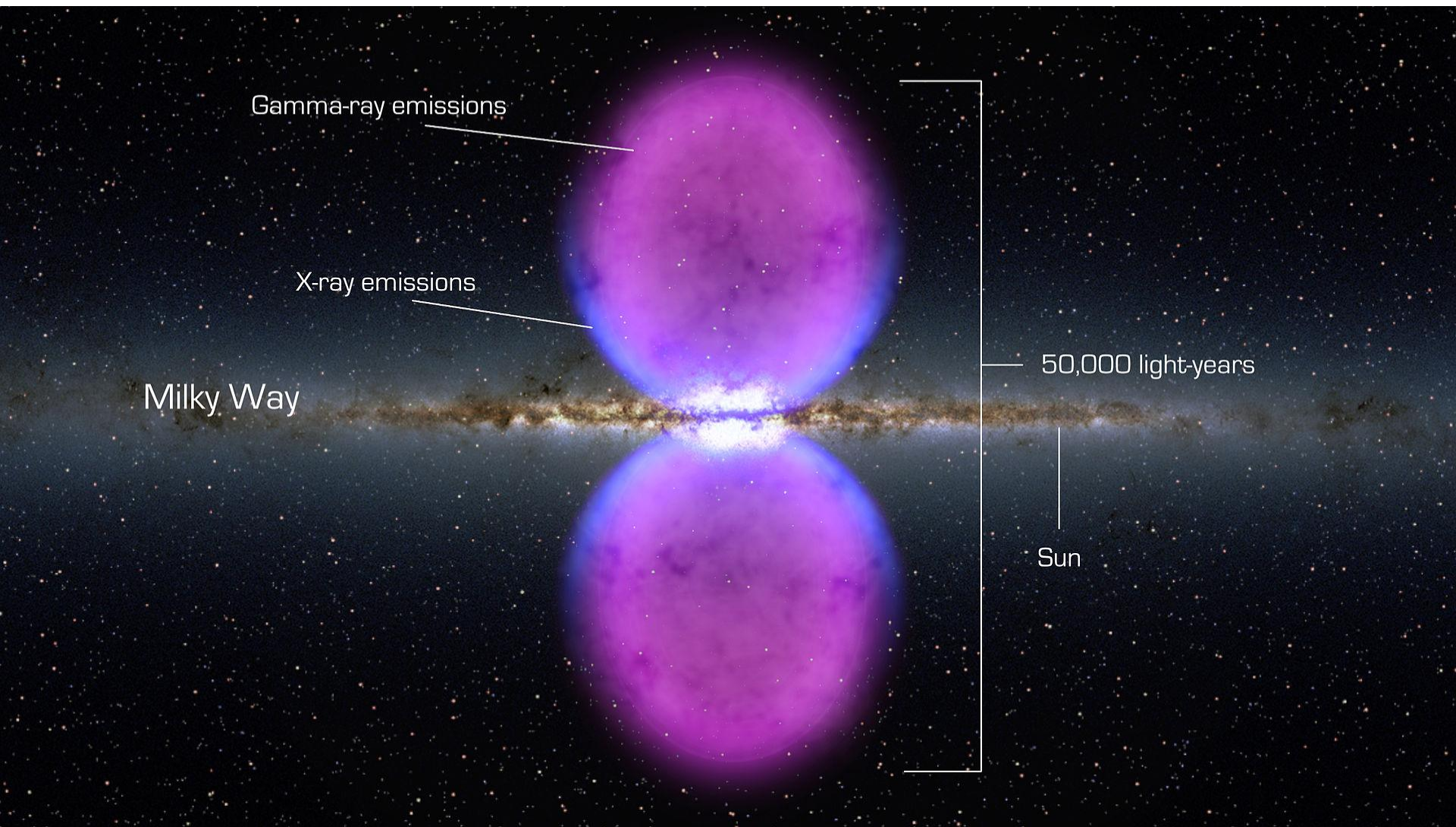
300 million light years

1239

600 million light years







Gamma-ray emissions

X-ray emissions

Milky Way

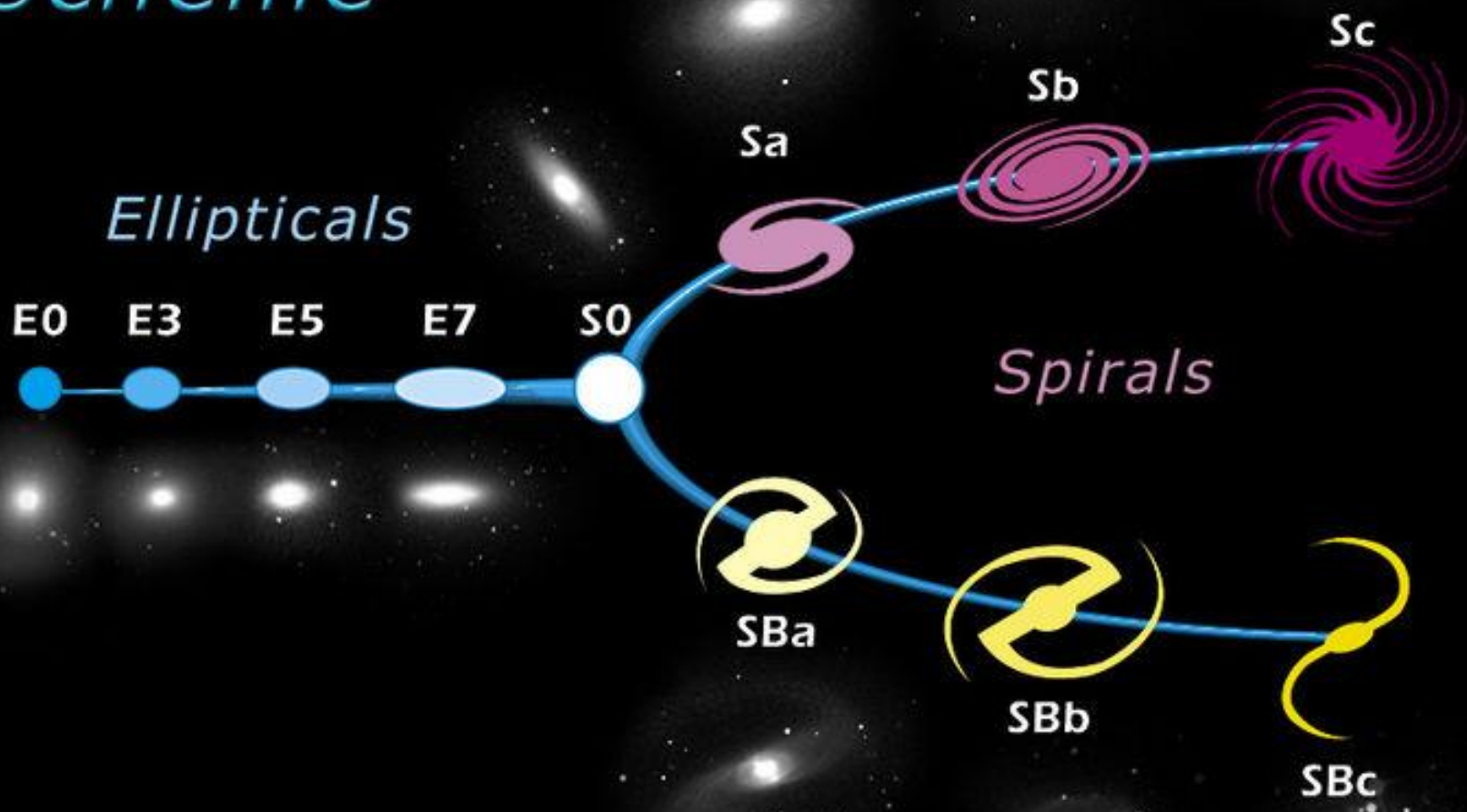
50,000 light-years

Sun



Andromeda Galaxy — NASA, Hubble Telescope

Edwin Hubble's Classification Scheme

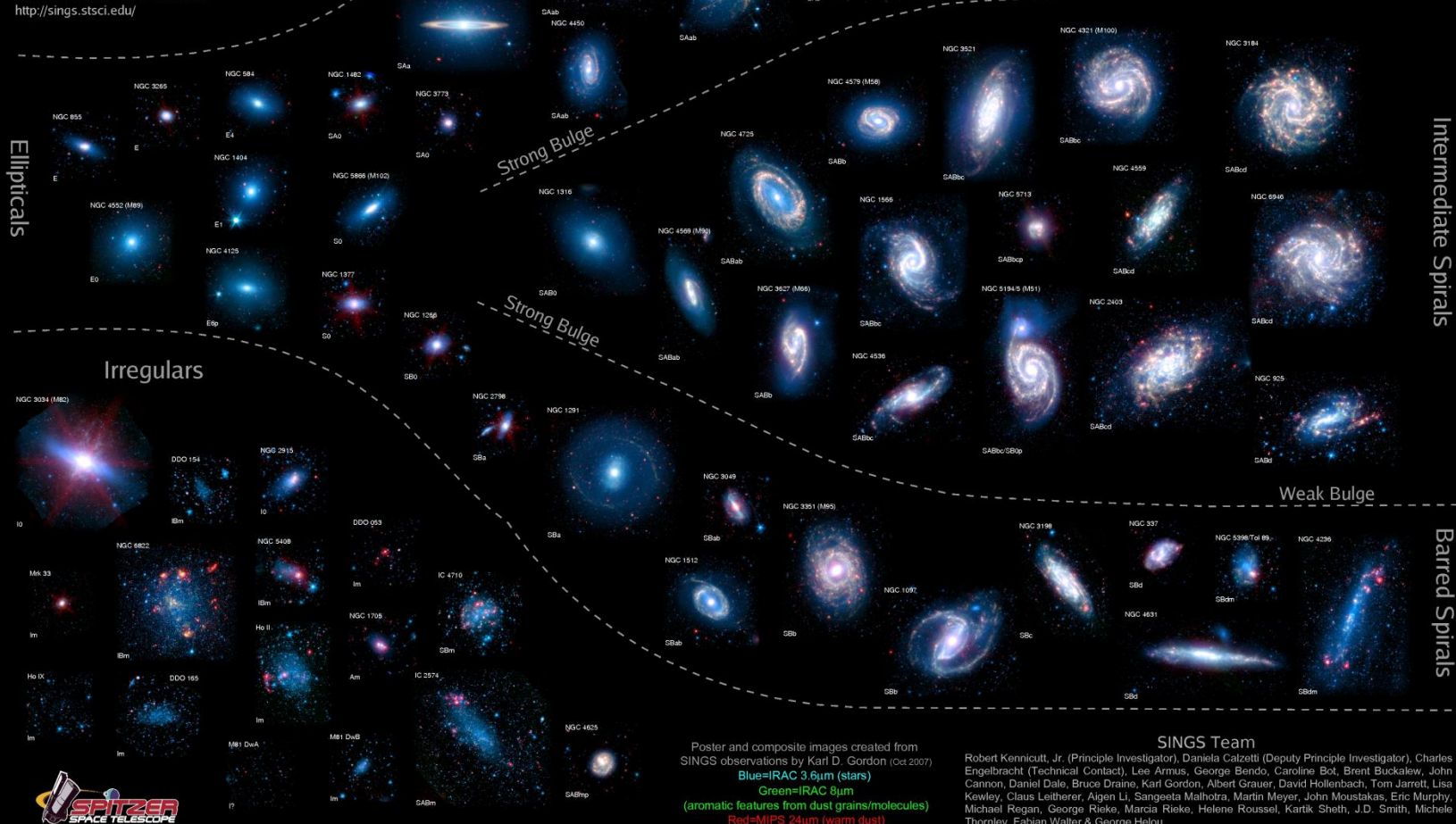


The Spitzer Infrared Nearby Galaxies Survey (SINGS) Hubble Tuning-Fork

The Spitzer Space Telescope observed 75 galaxies as part of its SINGS (Spitzer Infrared Nearby Galaxies Survey) Legacy Program. The galaxies are presented here in a Hubble Tuning-Fork diagram, which groups galaxies according to the morphology of their nuclei and spiral arms. The designation of these galaxies and their placement in the diagram is based on their visible-light appearance. The main goal of the SINGS program is to characterize the infrared properties of a wide range of galaxy types. The images of the galaxies are composites created from data taken by IRAC (the Infrared Array Camera) at 3.6 and 8.0 μ m, and MIPS (the Multiband Imaging Photometer for Spitzer) at 24 μ m.

The infrared range probed by these and other observations taken for the SINGS project allows for the detailed study of star formation, dust emission, and the distribution of stars in each galaxy. Light from old stars appears as blue in the images, while the lumpy knots of green and red light are produced by dust clouds surrounding newly born stars. The elliptical galaxies on the left are almost entirely made of old stars, while spiral galaxies like our own Milky Way are rich in young stars and the raw materials for future star formation.

More information can be found at:
<http://sings.stsci.edu/>



Ellipticals

Irregulars

Strong Bulge

Strong Bulge

Unbarred Spirals

Intermediate Spirals

Barred Spirals

Weak Bulge

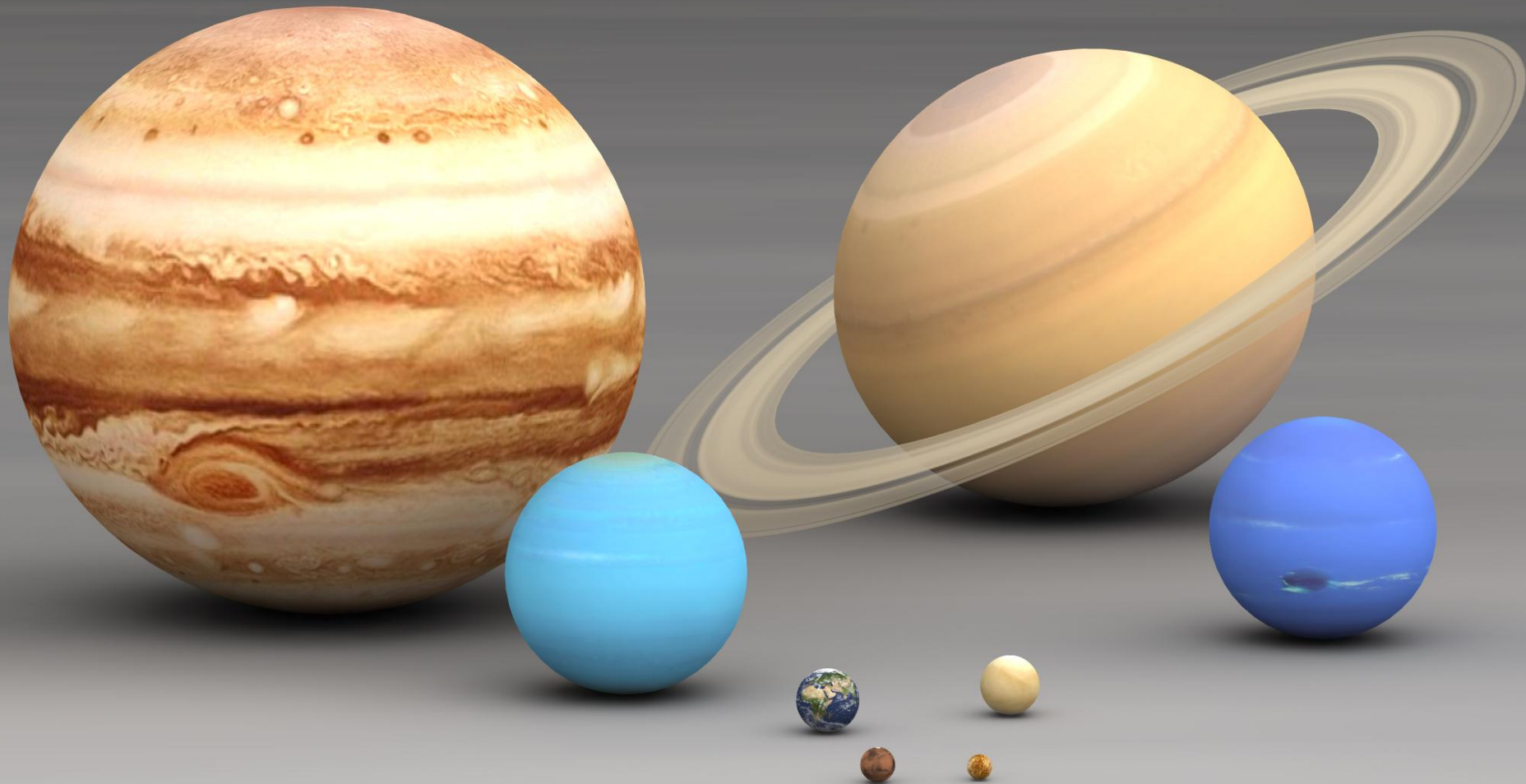
Weak Bulge

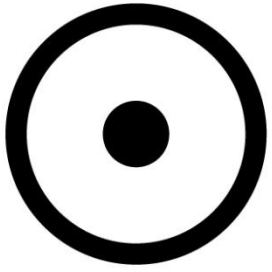


Poster and composite images created from SINGS observations by Karl D. Gordon (Oct 2007)
Blue=IRAC 3.6 μ m (stars)
Green=IRAC 8.0 μ m
 (aromatic features from dust grains/molecules)
Red=MIPS 24 μ m (warm dust)

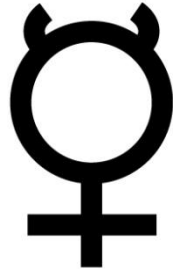
SINGS Team
 Robert Kennicutt, Jr. (Principle Investigator), Daniela Calzetti (Deputy Principle Investigator), Charles Engelbracht (Technical Contact), Lee Armus, George Bendo, Caroline Bot, Brent Buckalew, John Cannon, Daniel Dale, Bruce Draine, Karl Gordon, Albert Grauer, David Hollenbach, Tom Jarrett, Lisa Kewley, Claus Leitherer, Aigen Li, Sangeeta Malhotra, Martin Meyer, John Moustakas, Eric Murphy, Michael Regan, George Rieke, Marcia Rieke, Helene Roussel, Kartik Sheth, J.D. Smith, Michele Thornley, Fabian Walter & George Helou

The Solar System





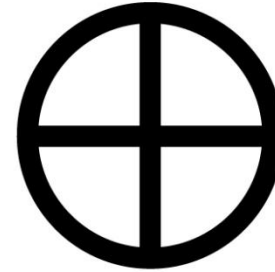
Sun



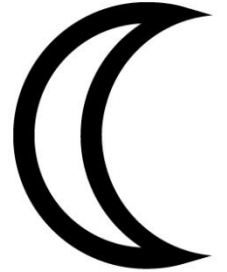
Mercury



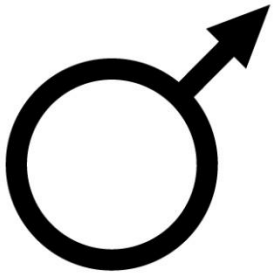
Venus



Earth



Moon



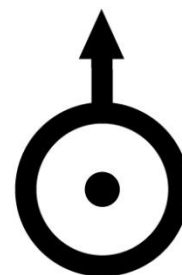
Mars



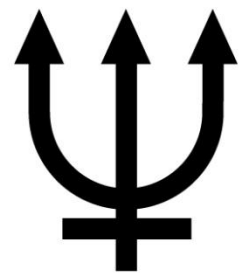
Jupiter



Saturn



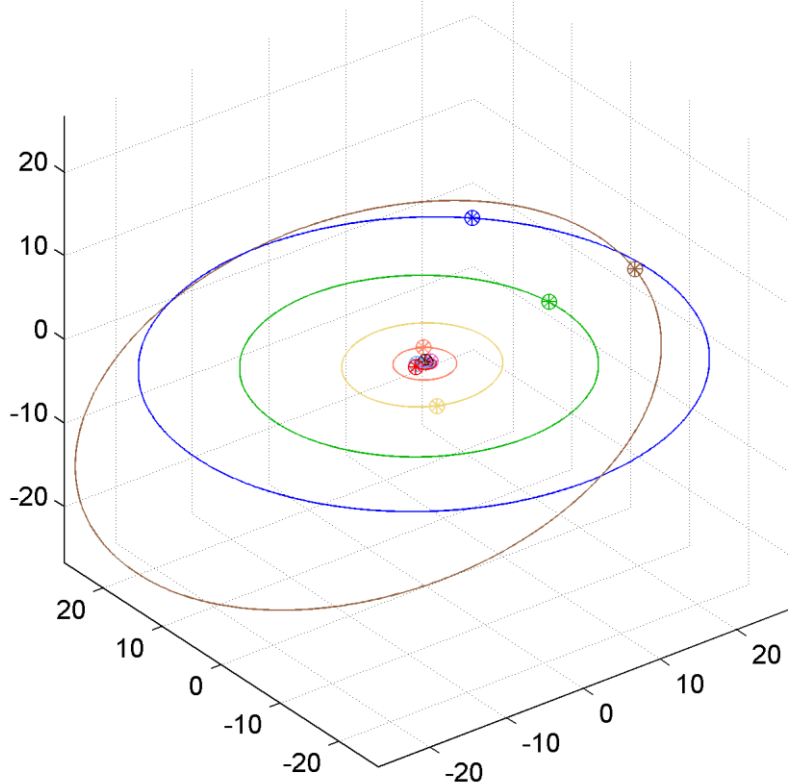
Uranus



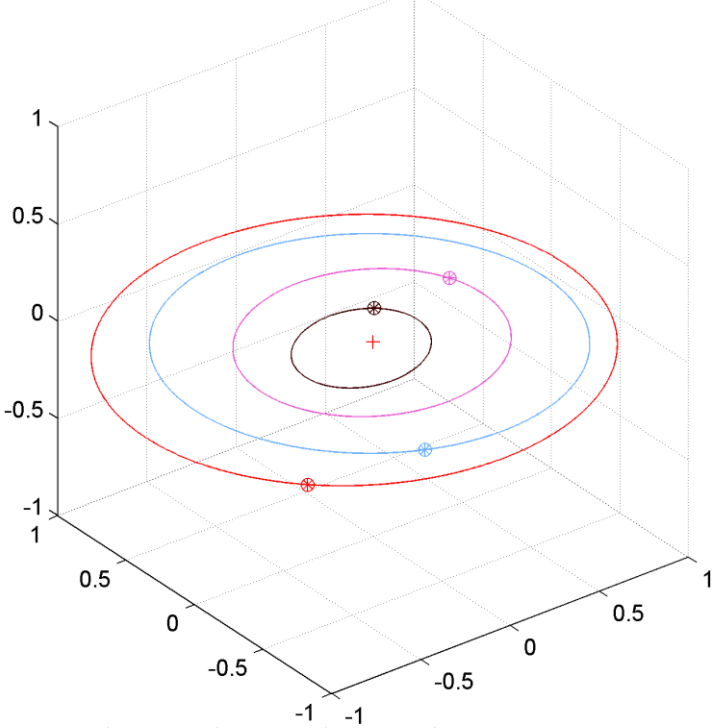
Neptune



Pluto

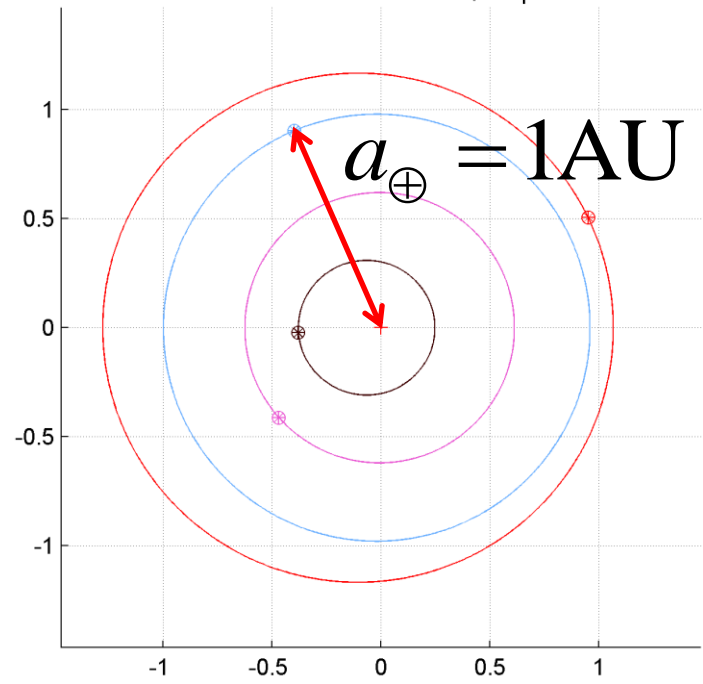


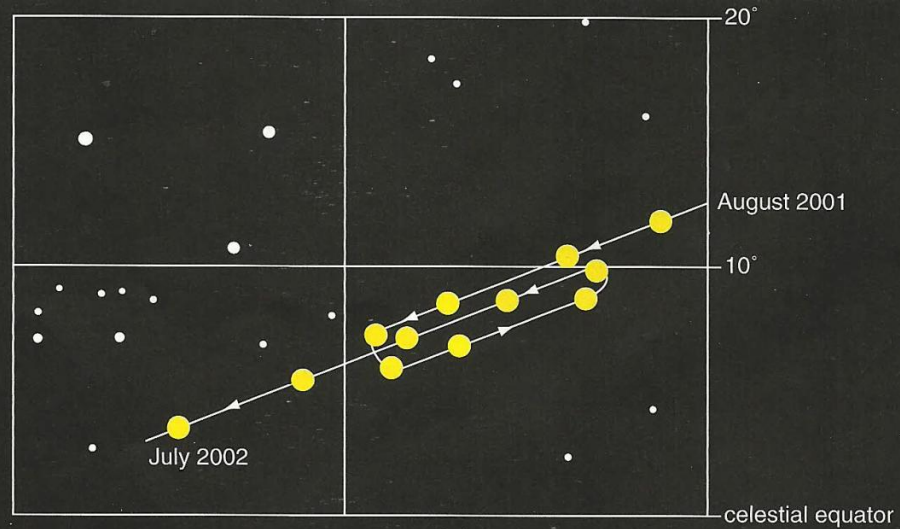
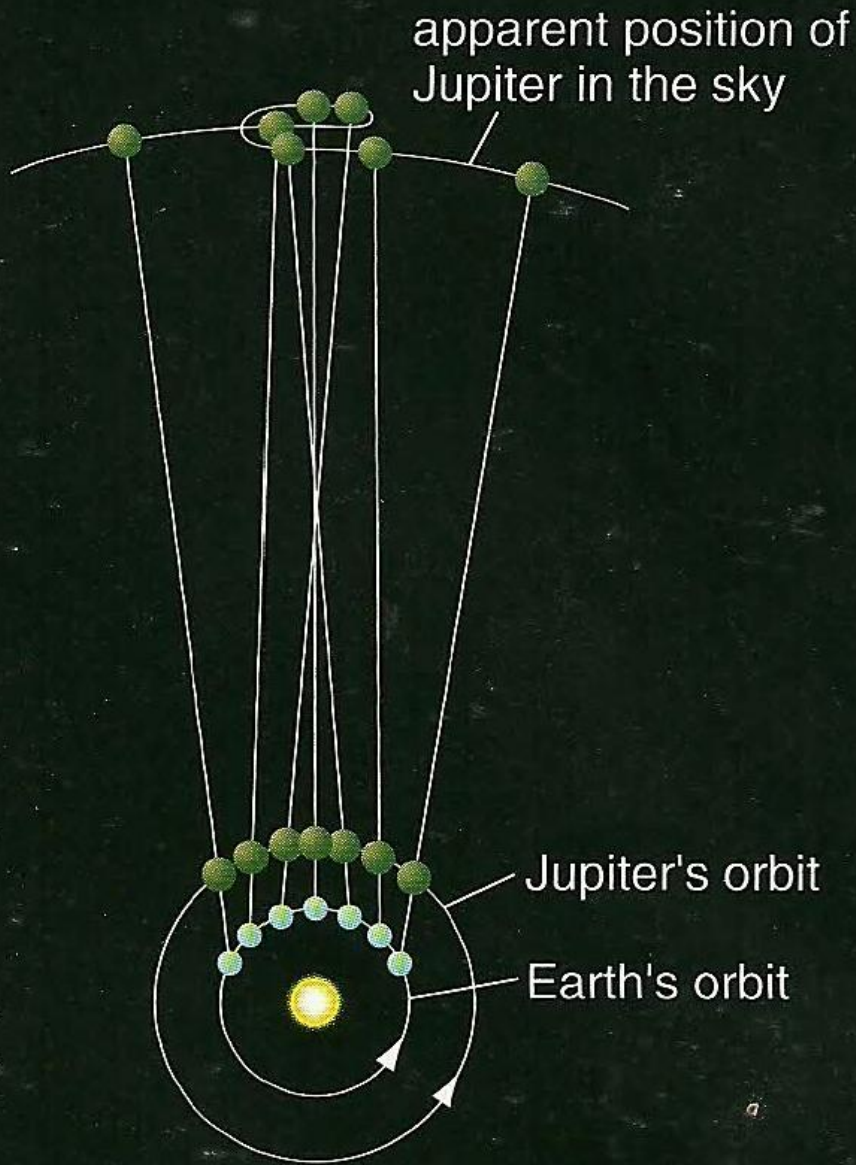
- Sun
- Mercury
- Venus
- Earth
- Mars
- Jupiter
- Saturn
- Uranus
- Neptune
- Pluto



Scale in astronomical units AU

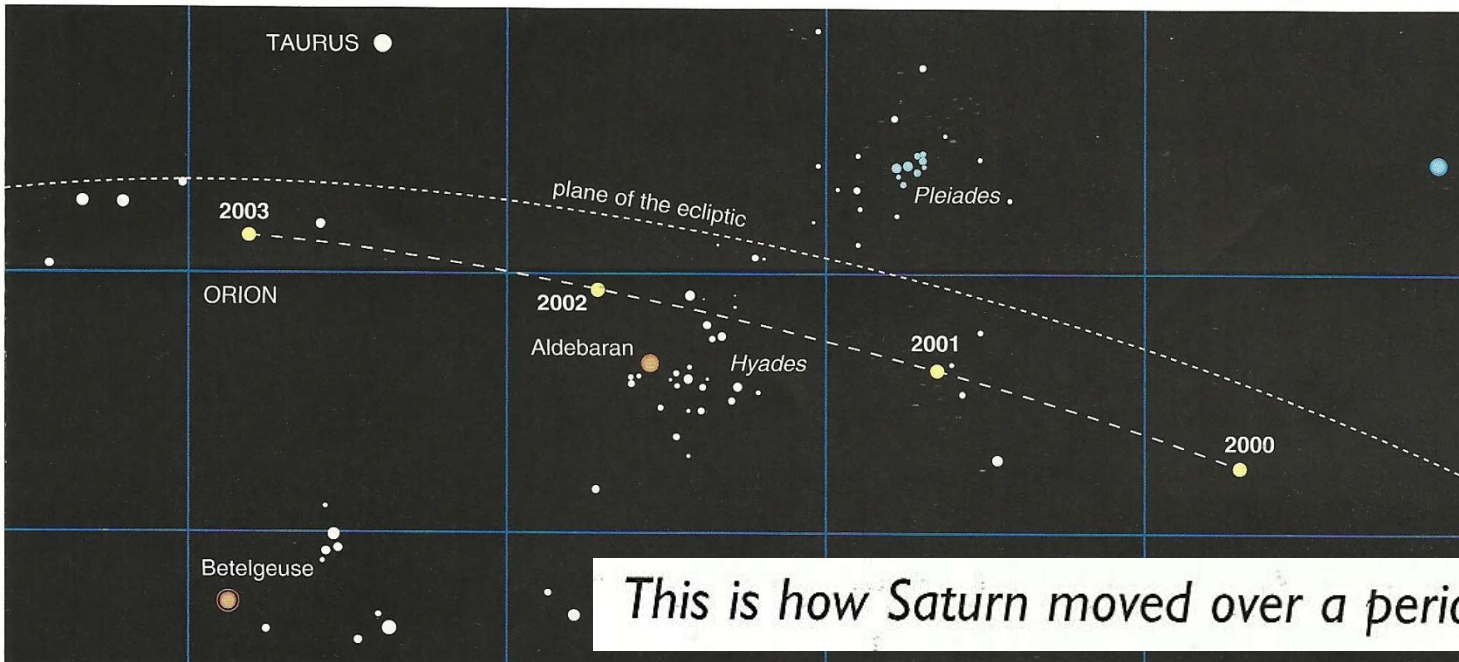
$$1\text{AU} = 1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$$



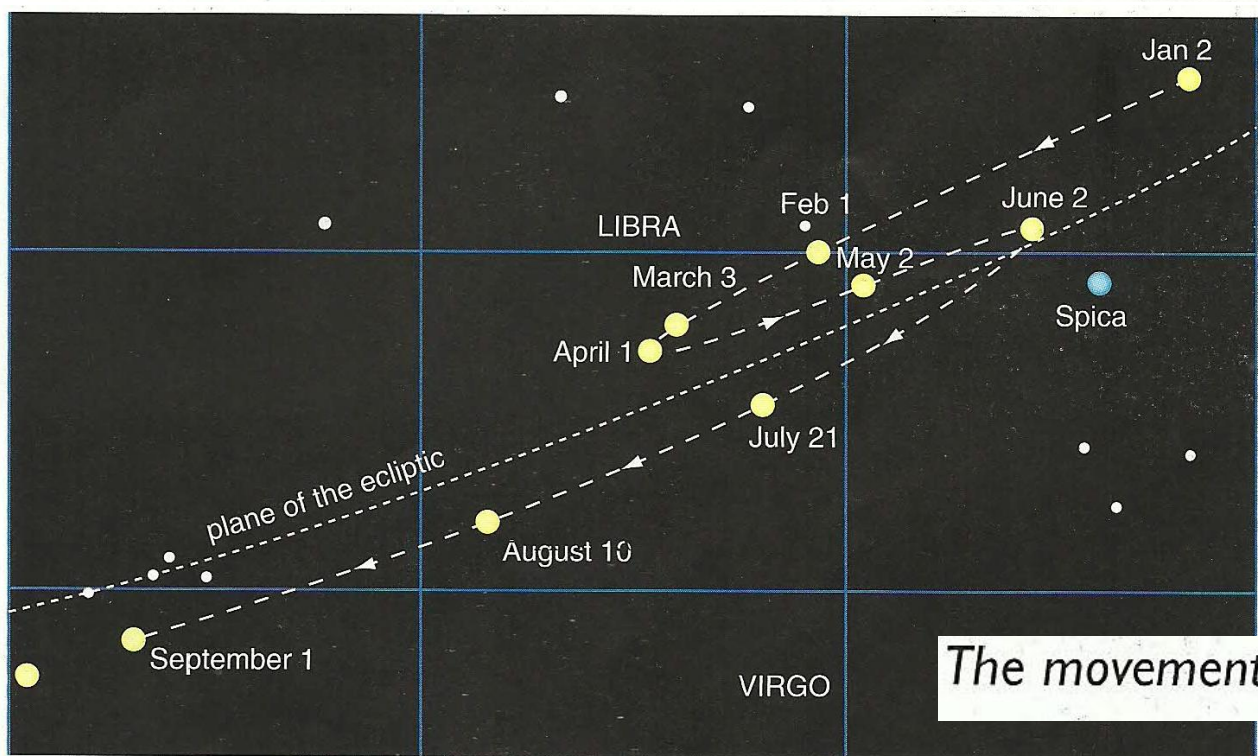


Since the Earth is also orbiting the Sun the positions of the planets as observed from Earth appear to make complex motions across the sky as viewed over any nights.

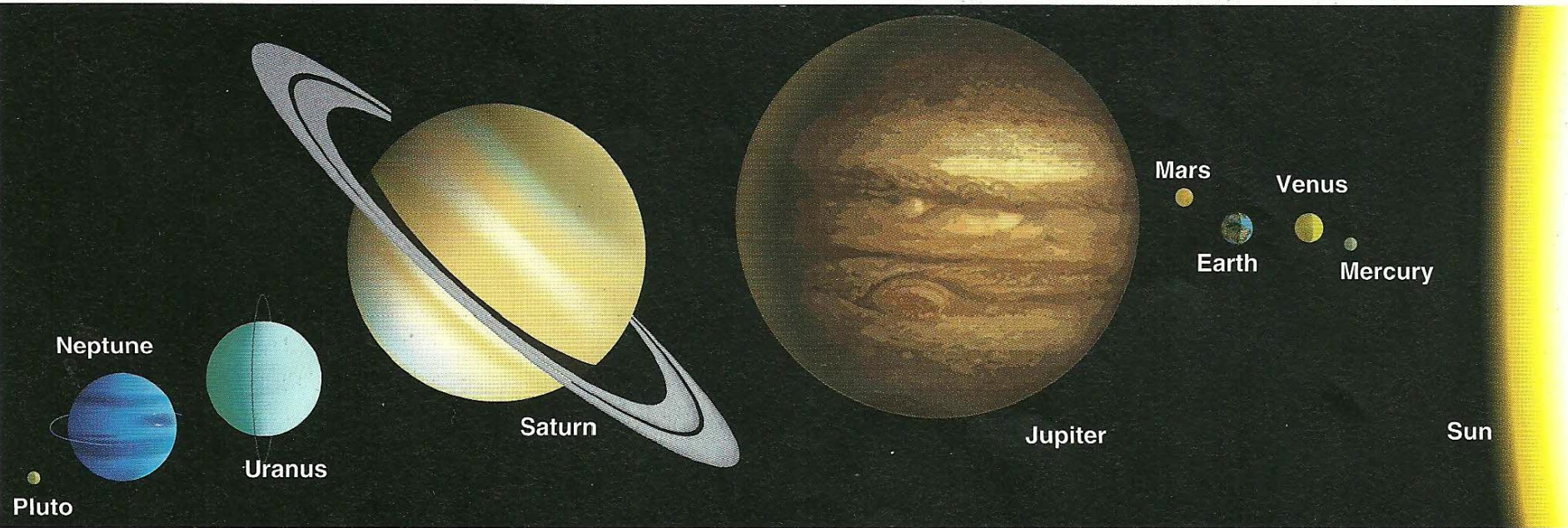
This is why a heliocentric model is *much easier to understand* than one based upon a fixed Earth (geocentric)



This is how Saturn moved over a period of 4 years



The movement of Mars during 1999

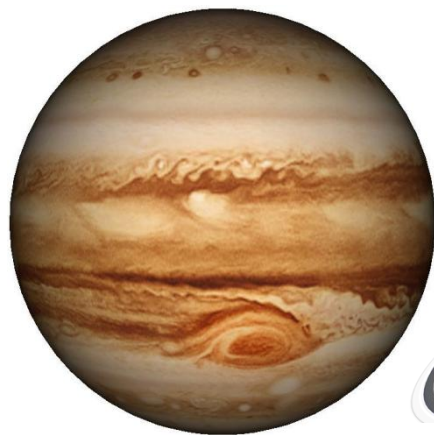


Planet	Diameter of planet	Average distance of planet from the Sun	Time taken to go round the Sun	Number of moons	Average temperature on sunny side
Mercury	4900 km	58 million km	88 days	0	350°C
Venus	12 000 km	108 million km	225 days	0	480°C
Earth	12 800 km	150 million km	365¼ days	1	20°C
Mars	6800 km	228 million km	687 days	2	0°C
Jupiter	143 000 km	780 million km	12 years	14	-150°C
Saturn	120 000 km	1430 million km	29 years	24	-190°C
Uranus	52 000 km	2800 million km	84 years	15	-220°C
Neptune	49 000 km	4500 million km	165 years	3	-240°C
Pluto	3000 km	5900 million km	248 years	1	-240°C

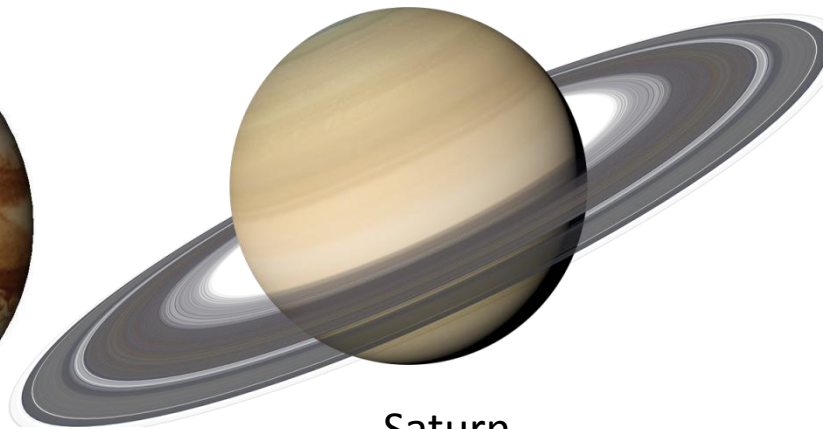
Object	M/M_{\oplus}	a / AU	R/R_{\oplus}	T_{rot} / days	P / Yr
Sun	332,837	-	109.123	-	-
Mercury	0.055	0.387	0.383	58.646	0.241
Venus [†]	0.815	0.723	0.949	243.018	0.615
Earth	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.997	1.000
Mars	0.107	1.523	0.533	1.026	1.881
Jupiter	317.85	5.202	11.209	0.413	11.861
Saturn	95.159	9.576	9.449	0.444	29.628
Uranus [†]	14.500	19.293	4.007	0.718	84.747
Neptune	17.204	30.246	3.883	0.671	166.344
Pluto [†]	0.003	39.509	0.187	6.387	248.348



Venus, Uranus and Pluto rotate clockwise about their internal axis
 All other planets rotate anti-clockwise



Jupiter

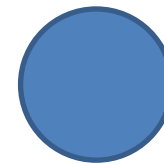


Saturn

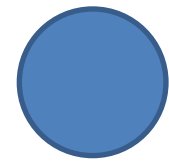
Earth parameters

$$M_{\oplus} = 5.972 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$$

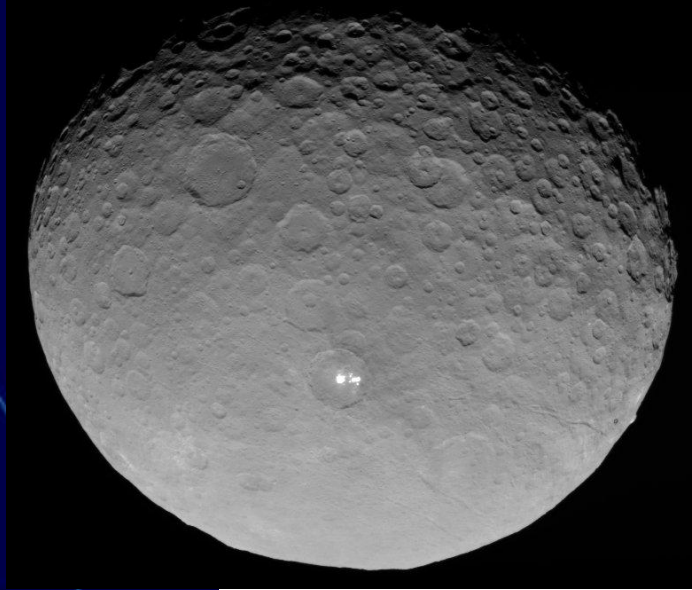
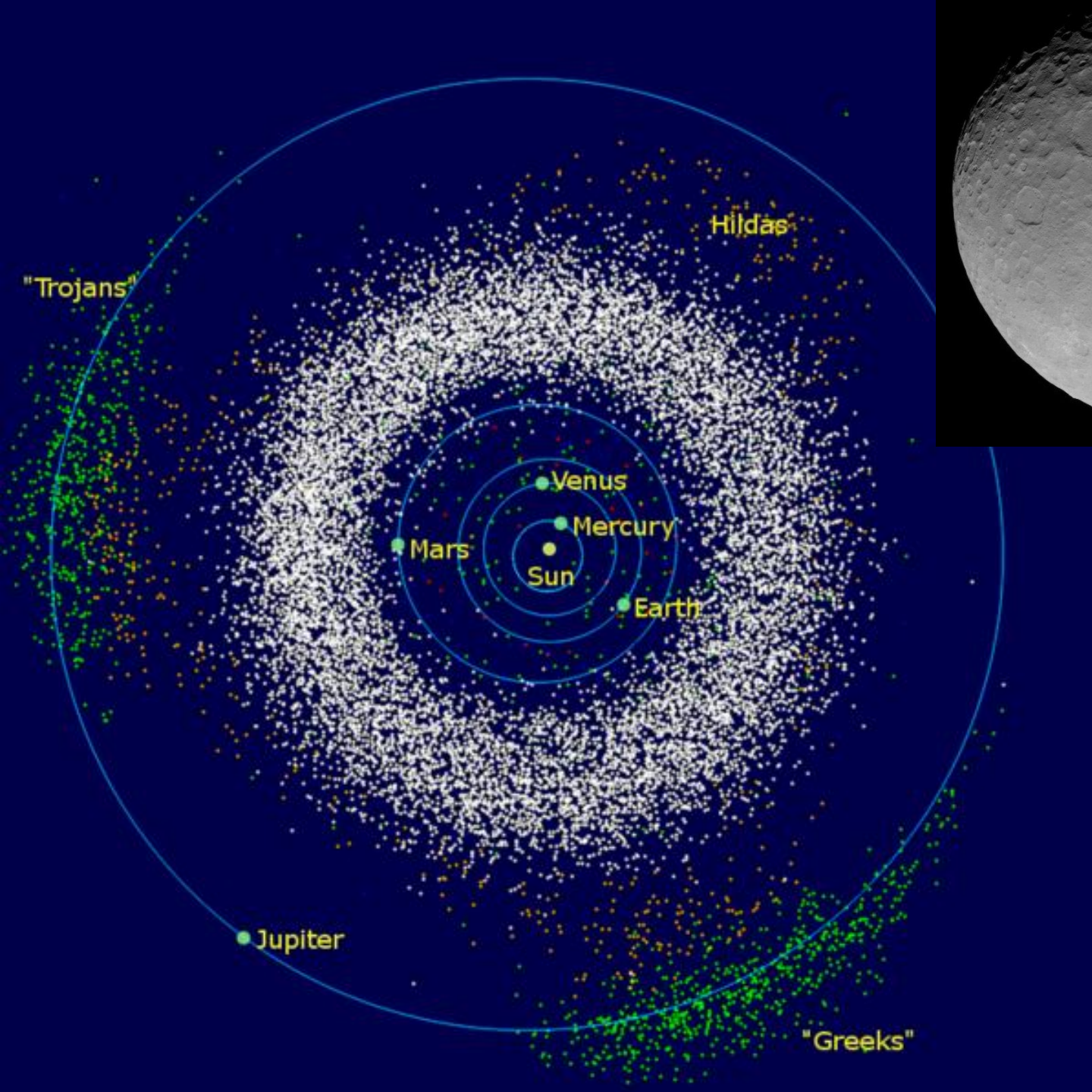
$$R_{\oplus} = 6.371 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$$



Uranus



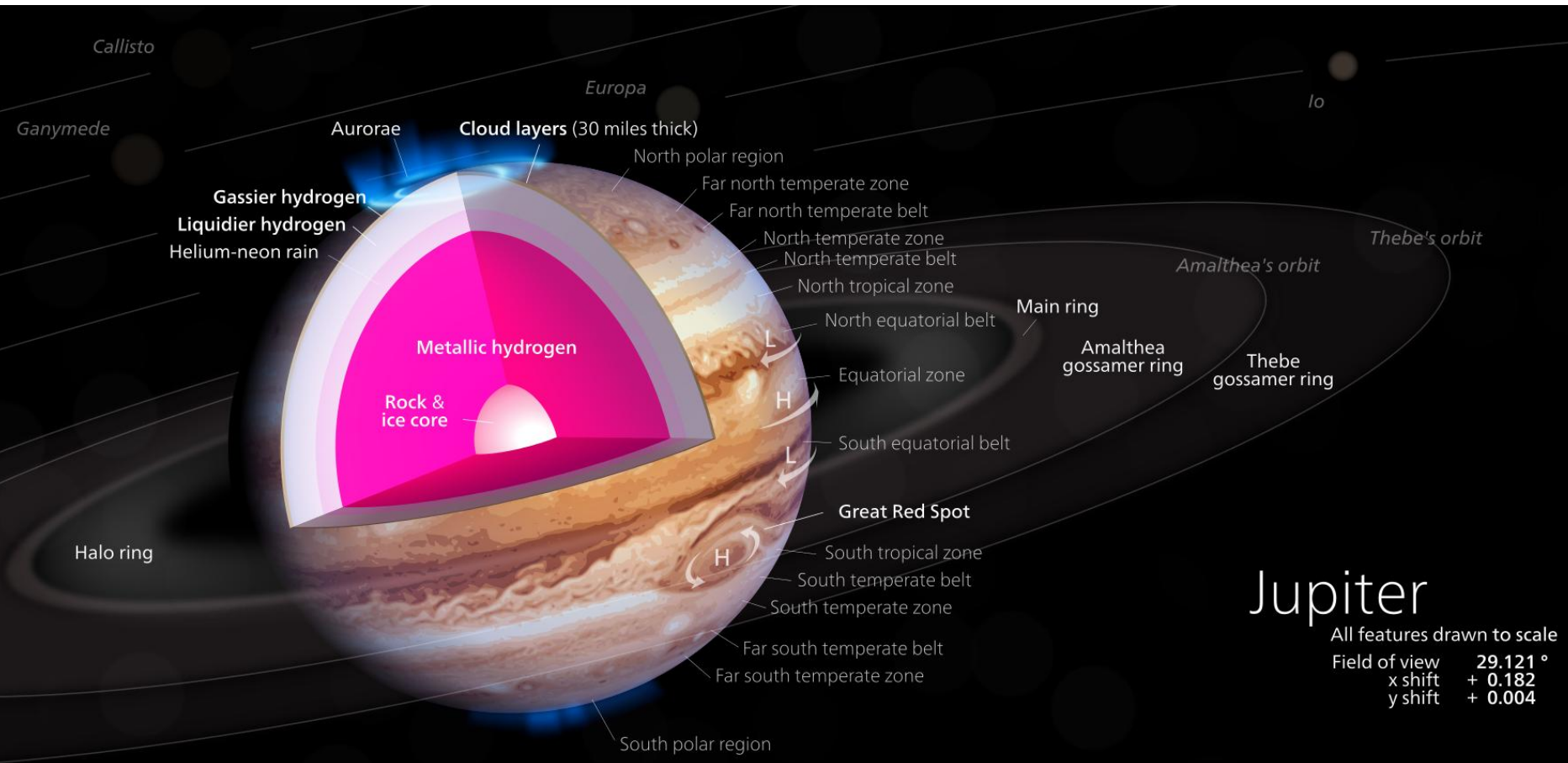
Neptune



Dwarf planet
Ceres within the
Asteroid belt

Radius
476 km

Mass
0.00015 Earths
(9.43×10^{20} kg)

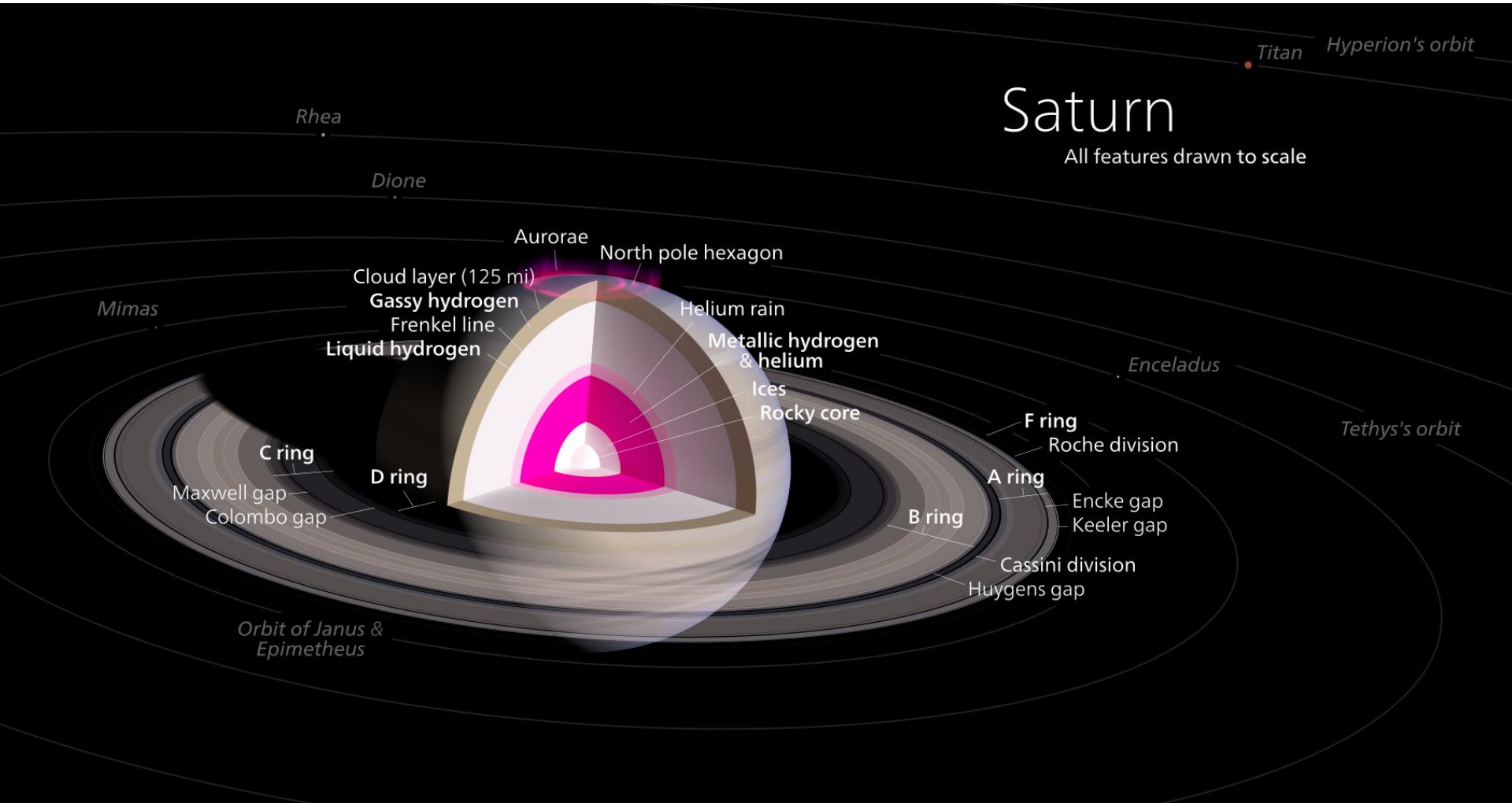


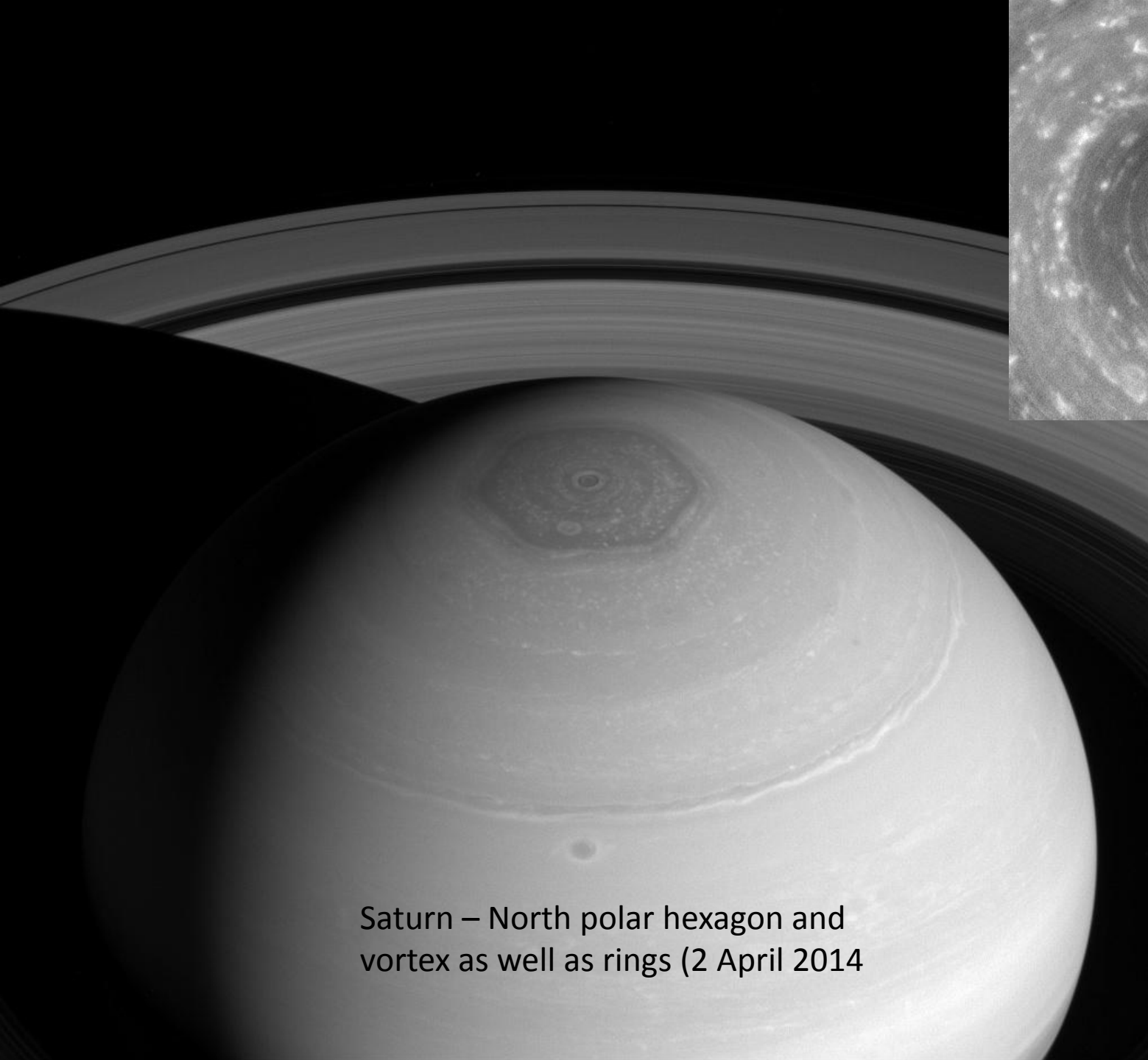
Jupiter

All features drawn to scale
 Field of view 29.121 °
 x shift + 0.182
 y shift + 0.004

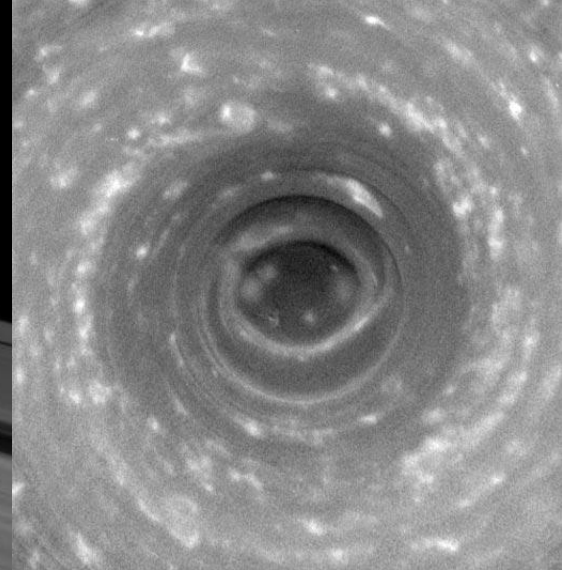
Saturn

All features drawn to scale





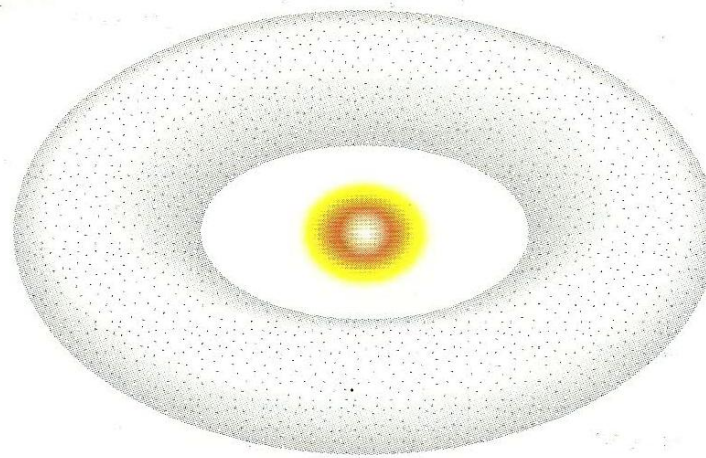
Saturn – North polar hexagon and
vortex as well as rings (2 April 2014)



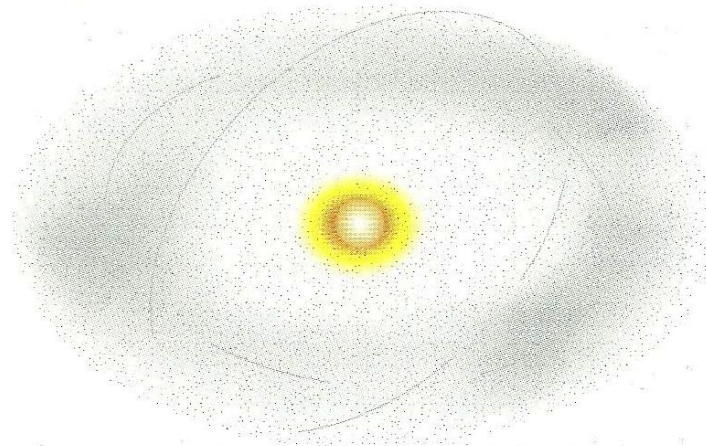
South Pole
Saturnian
'hurricane'

Formation of the solar system

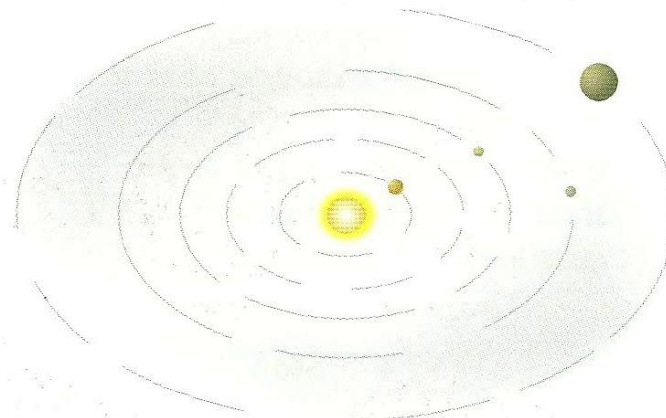
1 4500 million years ago a shock wave, in a spiral arm of our galaxy, triggered the collapse of a gas cloud. This developed into a doughnut shape, which flattened out



2 Enough hydrogen gathered in the centre for fusion to start in the Sun. Solid particles began to strike each other and stick together



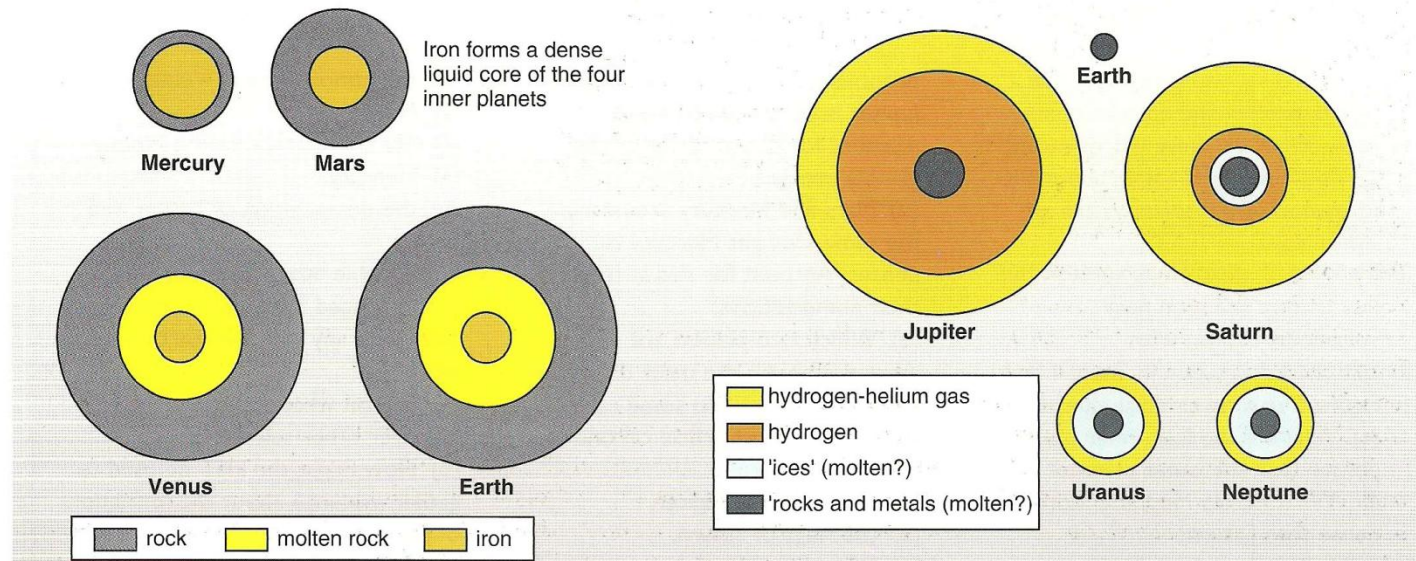
3 Eventually, as the small particles continued to coalesce, just a few large planets and moons were left. Most of the gas and dust in the solar system became attached to a planet, or was removed by a strong solar wind. After millions of years, the gravitational attraction between the planets tended to pull their orbits into the same plane.



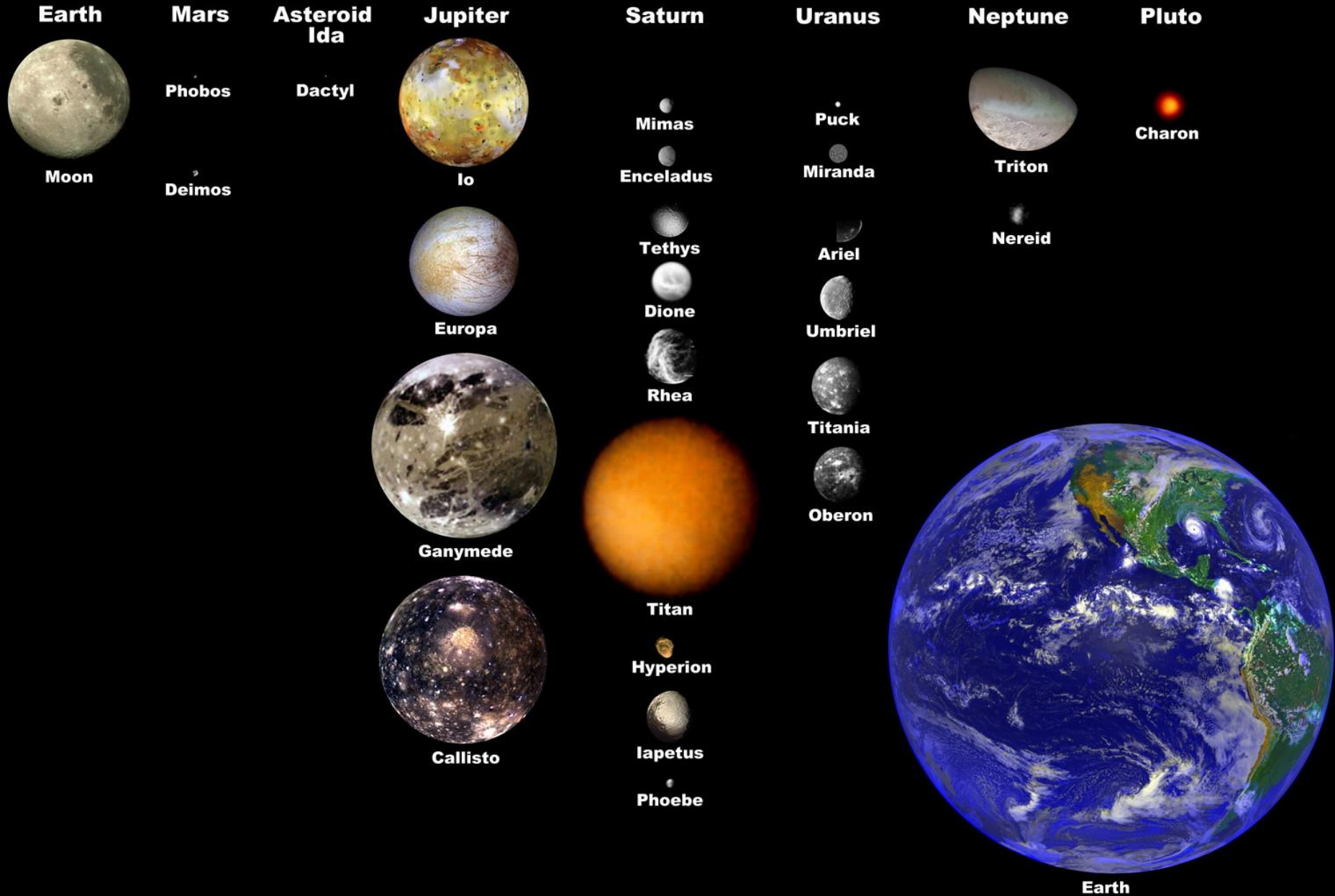
Planet	Mass relative to Earth	Radius (Earth = 1)	Relative density (water = 1)	Distance from Sun in AU†	% Rocks	% Ice	% Gas	Main gases in atmosphere
Mercury	0.06	0.38	5.4	0.39	nearly all	—	—	none
Venus	0.82	0.95	5.2	0.72	nearly all	—	—	CO ₂
Earth	1	1	5.5	1	nearly all	water in oceans, ice at poles	some in atmosphere	N ₂ , O ₂
Mars	0.11	0.53	3.9	1.5	nearly all	ice at poles	some in atmosphere	CO ₂
Jupiter	318	11.2	1.3	5.2		10% rock/ice	90%	H ₂ , He
Saturn	95	9.4	0.7	9.5		30% rock/ice	70%	H ₂ , He
Uranus	14.6	4.1	1.2	19.1		70% rock/ice	30%	H ₂ , He, CH ₄
Neptune	17.2	3.9	1.7	30.1		70% rock/ice	30%	H ₂ , He, CH ₄
Pluto	0.1?	0.4?	?	39.4		mostly rock/ice	?	none?

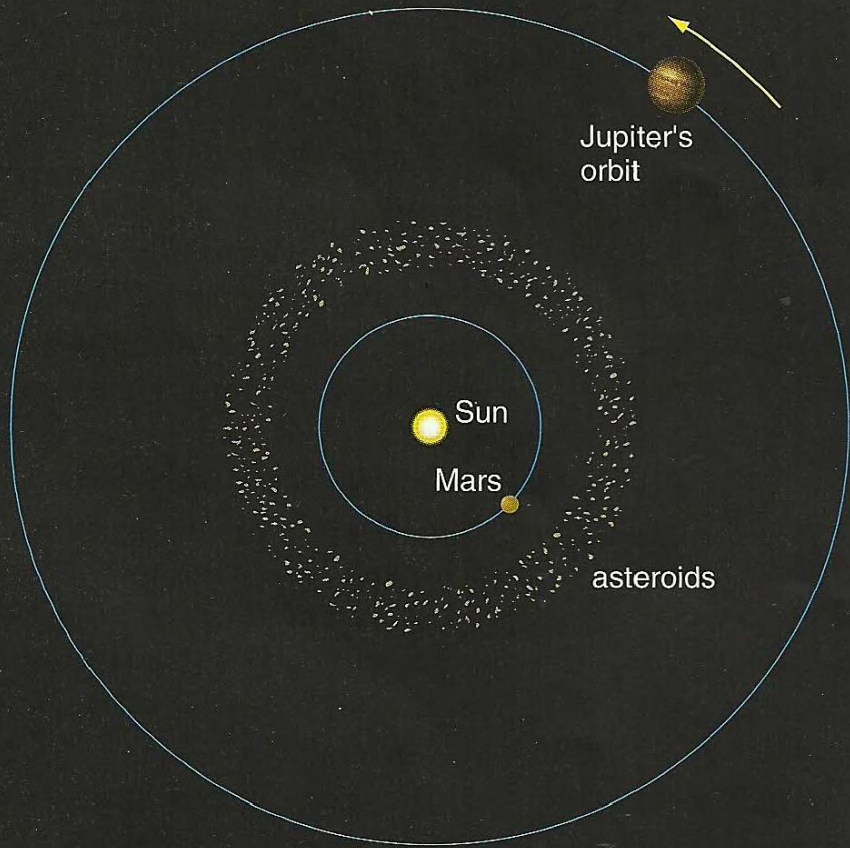
Table 1

† 1 Astronomical Unit of AU is the average Earth–Sun distance.
 O₂ oxygen, N₂ nitrogen, CH₄ methane, CO₂ carbon dioxide.

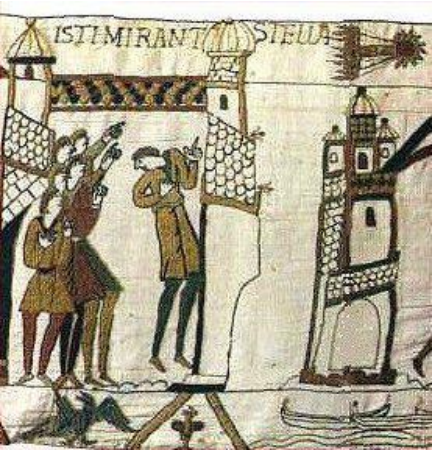
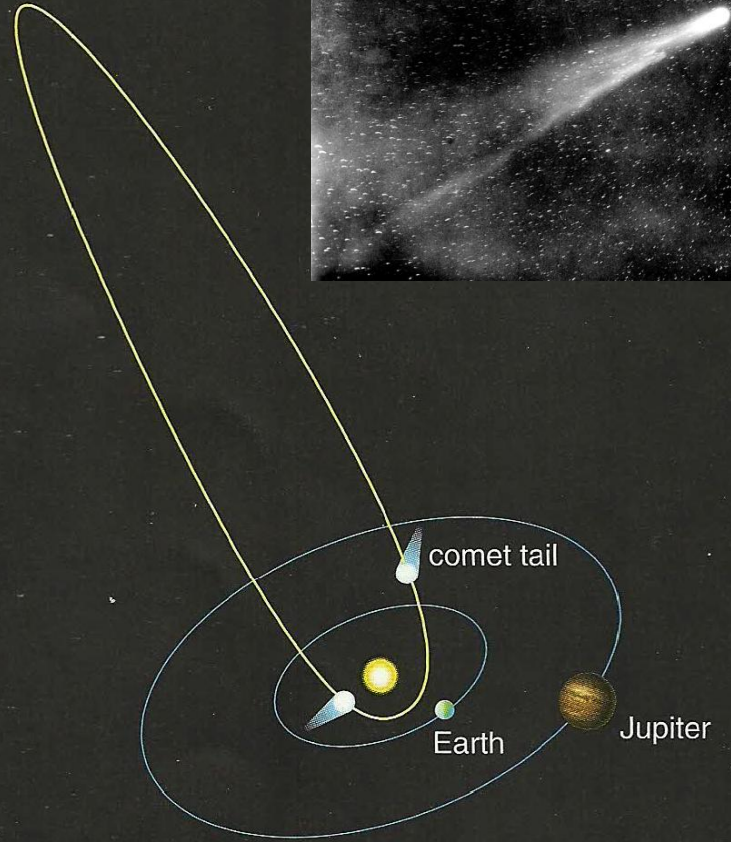


Moons





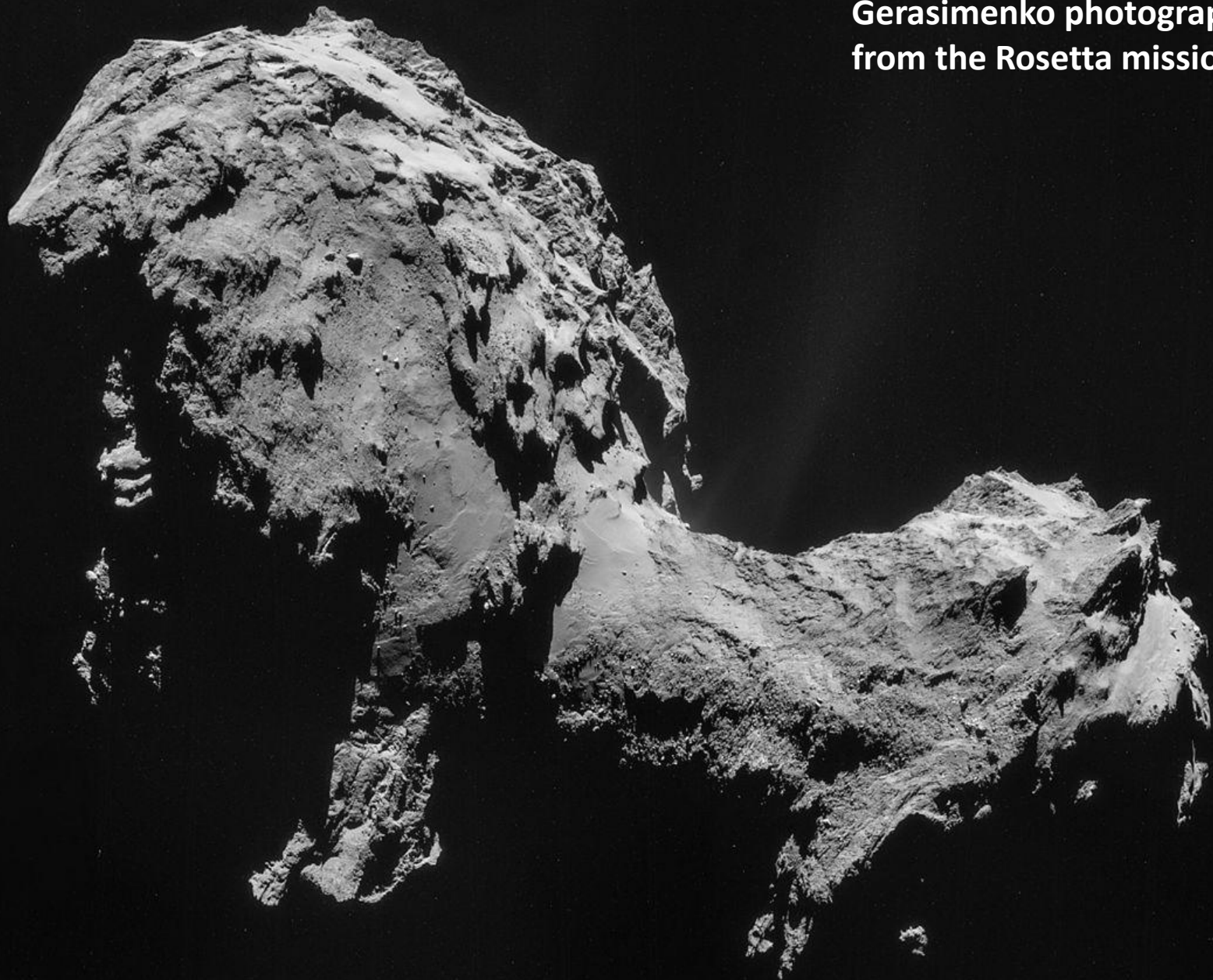
Halley's Comet

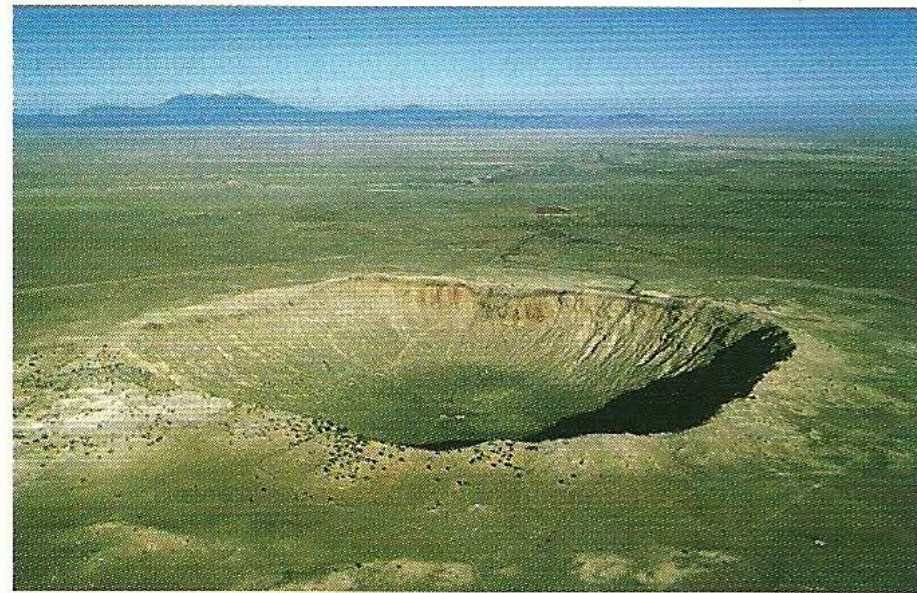
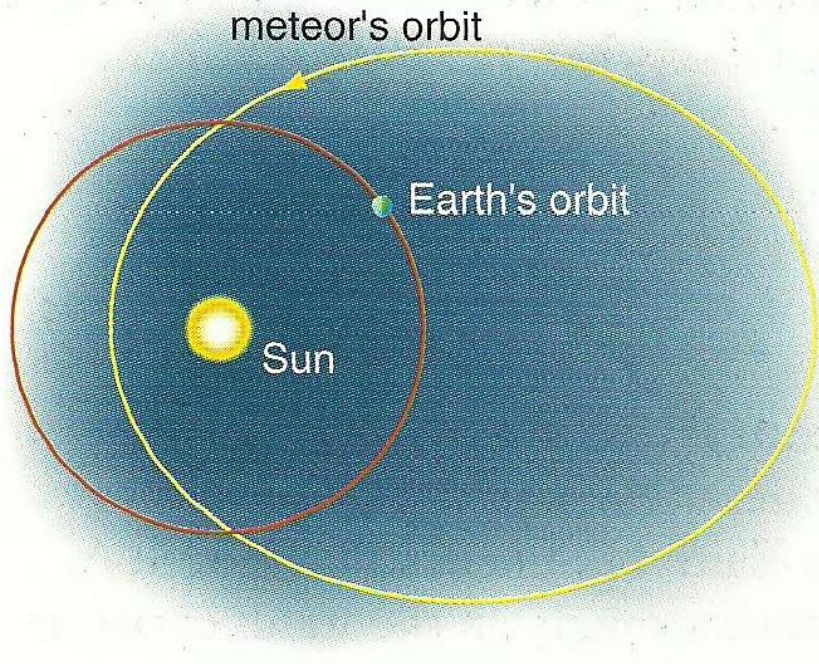


Hale Bop 1997



**Comet 67P/Churyumov–
Gerasimenko photographed
from the Rosetta mission 2014**

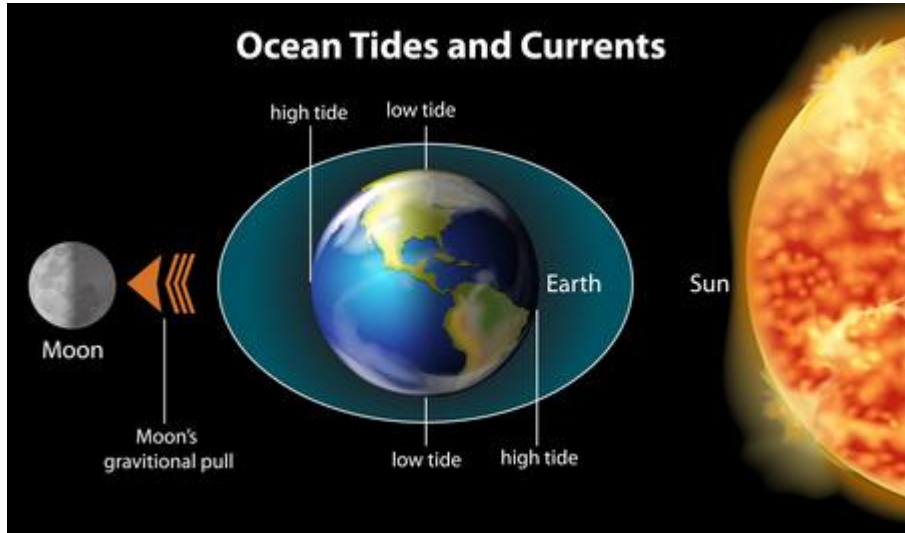




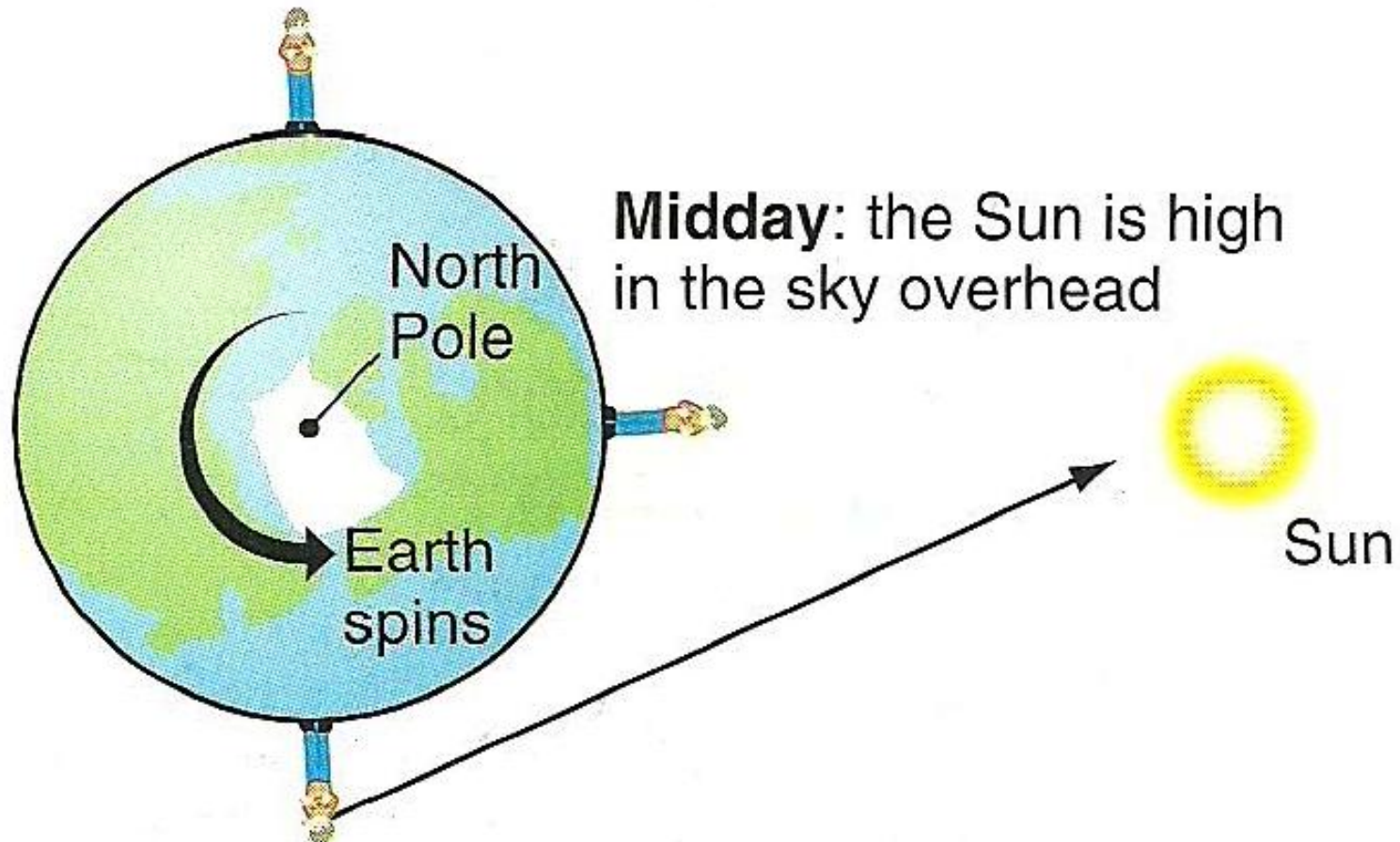
This crater in the Arizona desert is thought to have been formed by a meteor impact about 20 000 years ago. It is 200 m deep and 800 m wide.



Earth seasons & tides

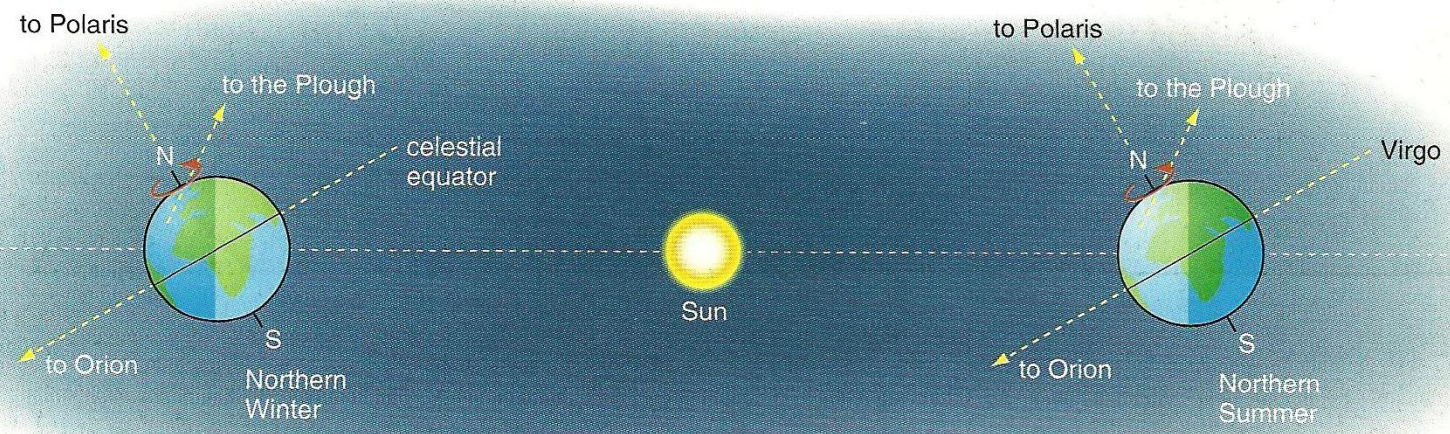
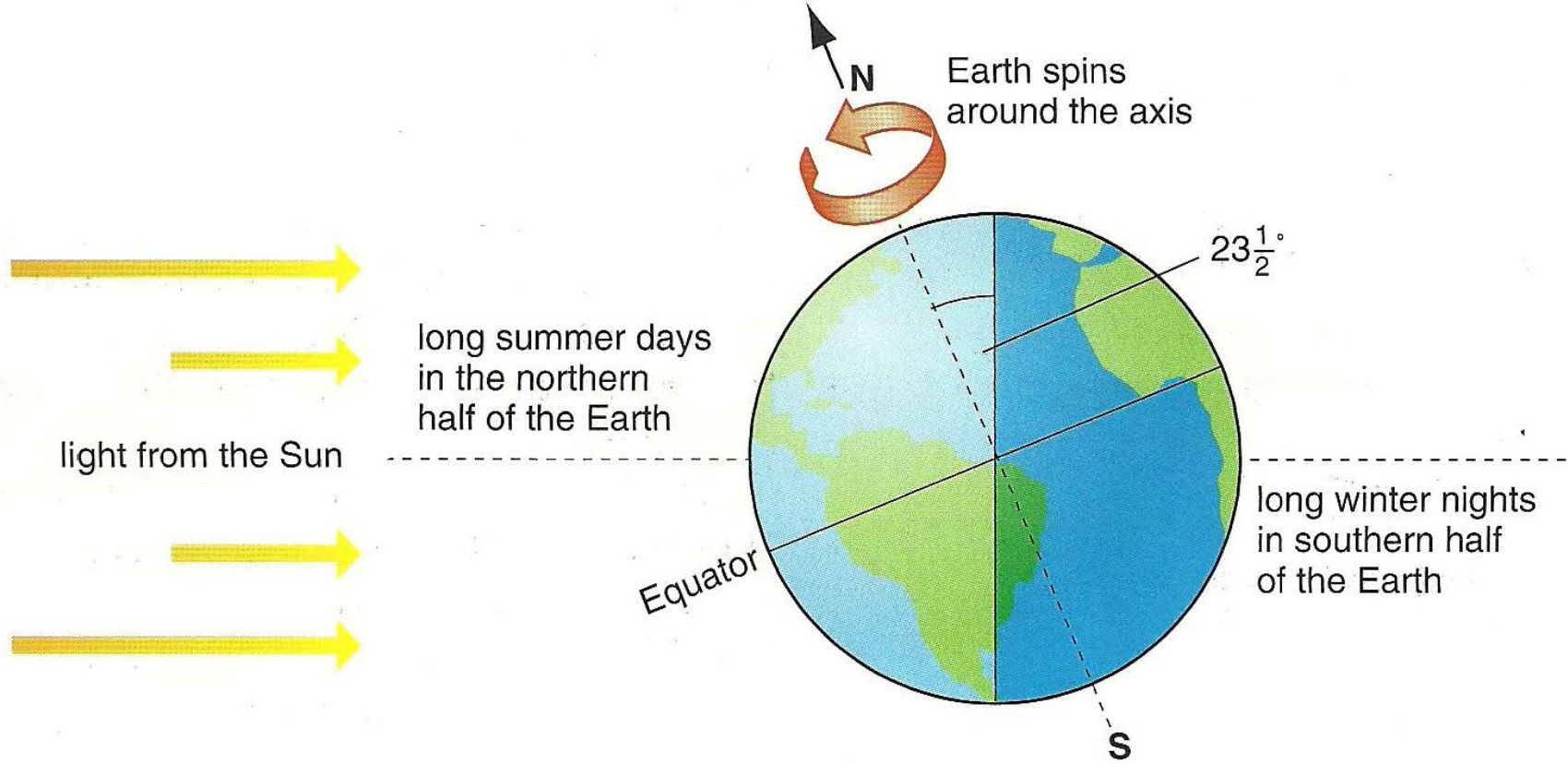


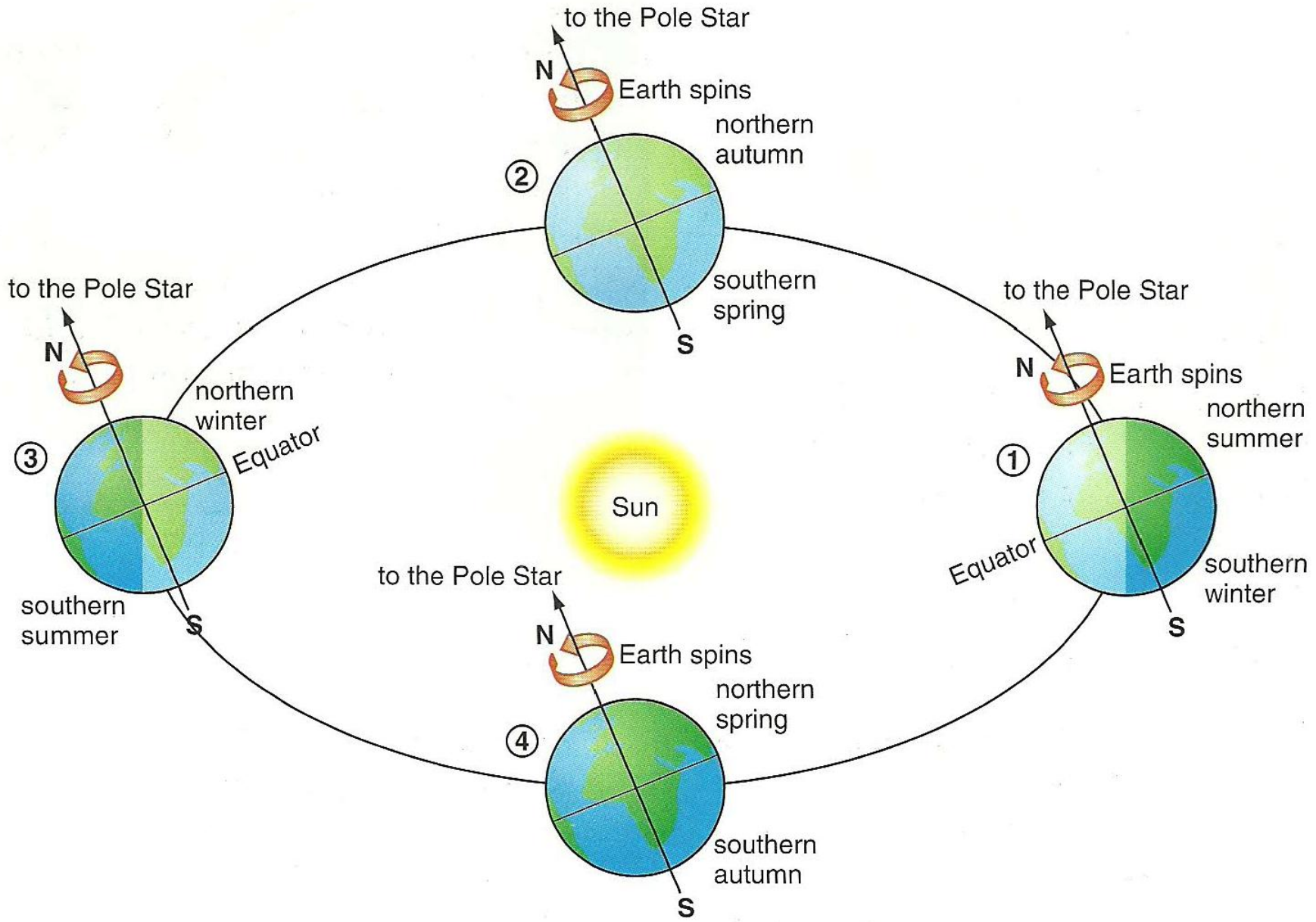
Evening: the Sun is setting over the horizon

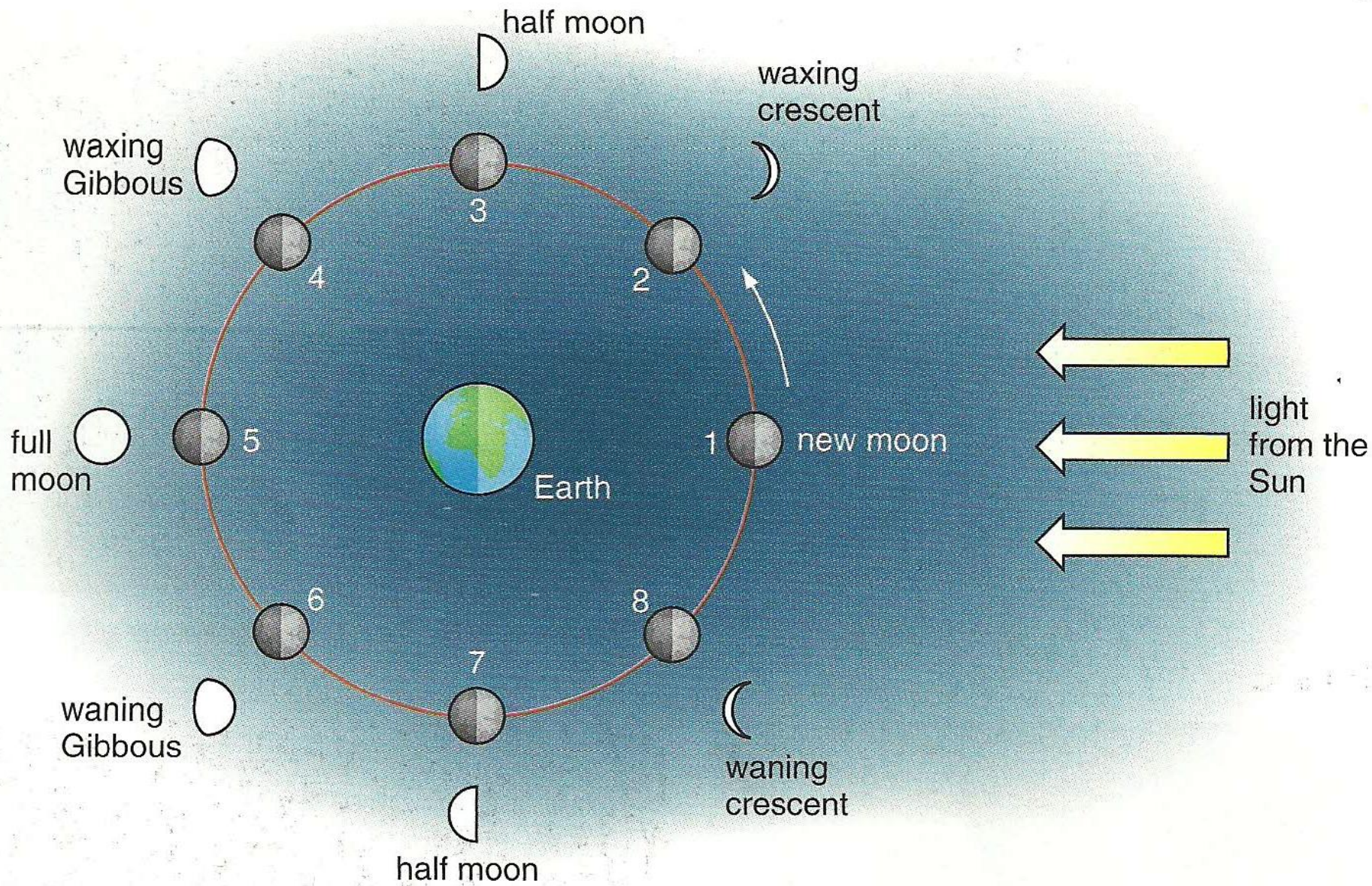


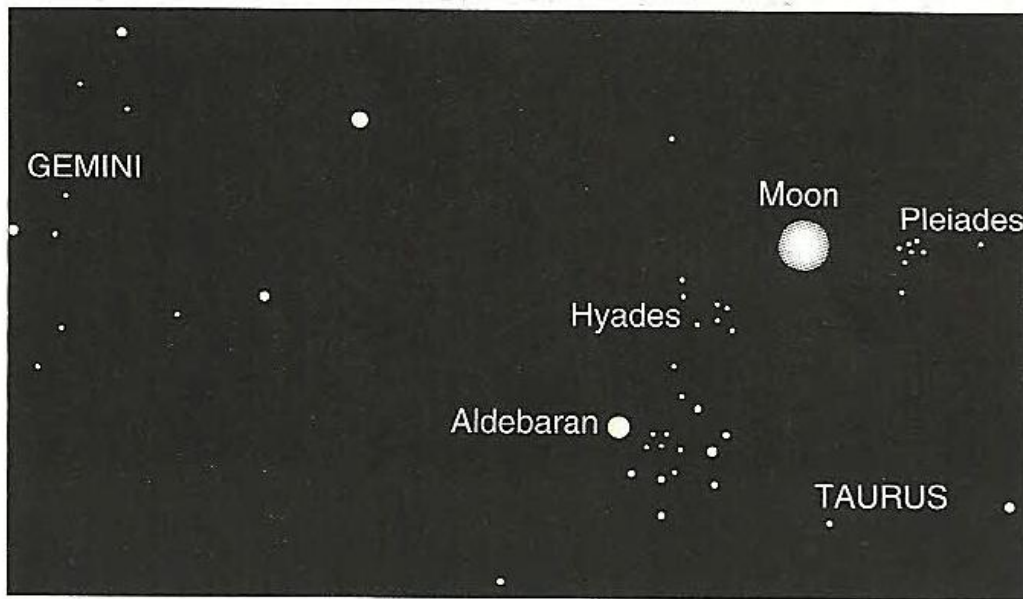
Midday: the Sun is high in the sky overhead

Morning: the Sun rises and is seen low down close to the ground

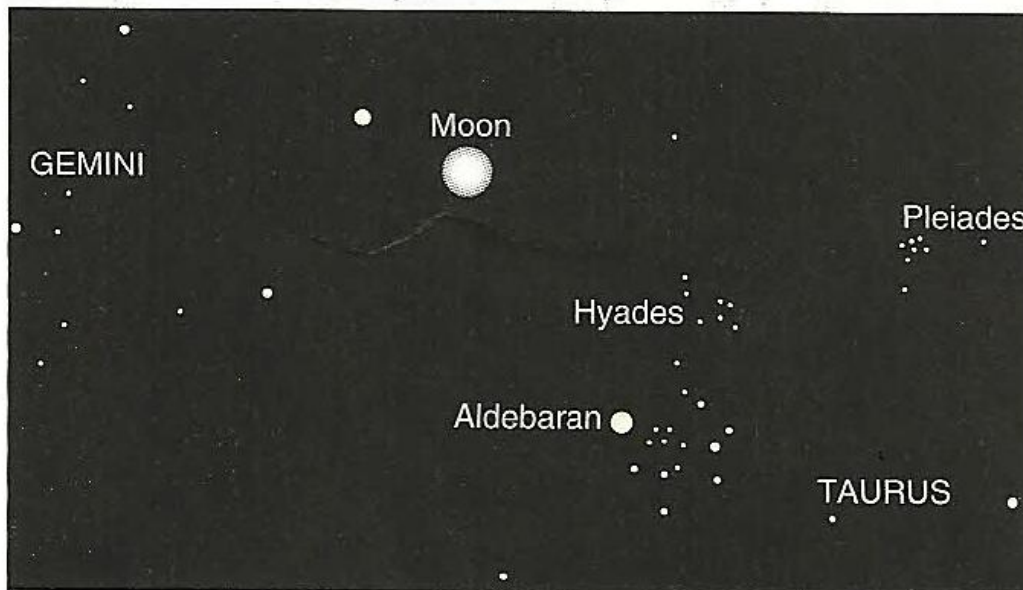


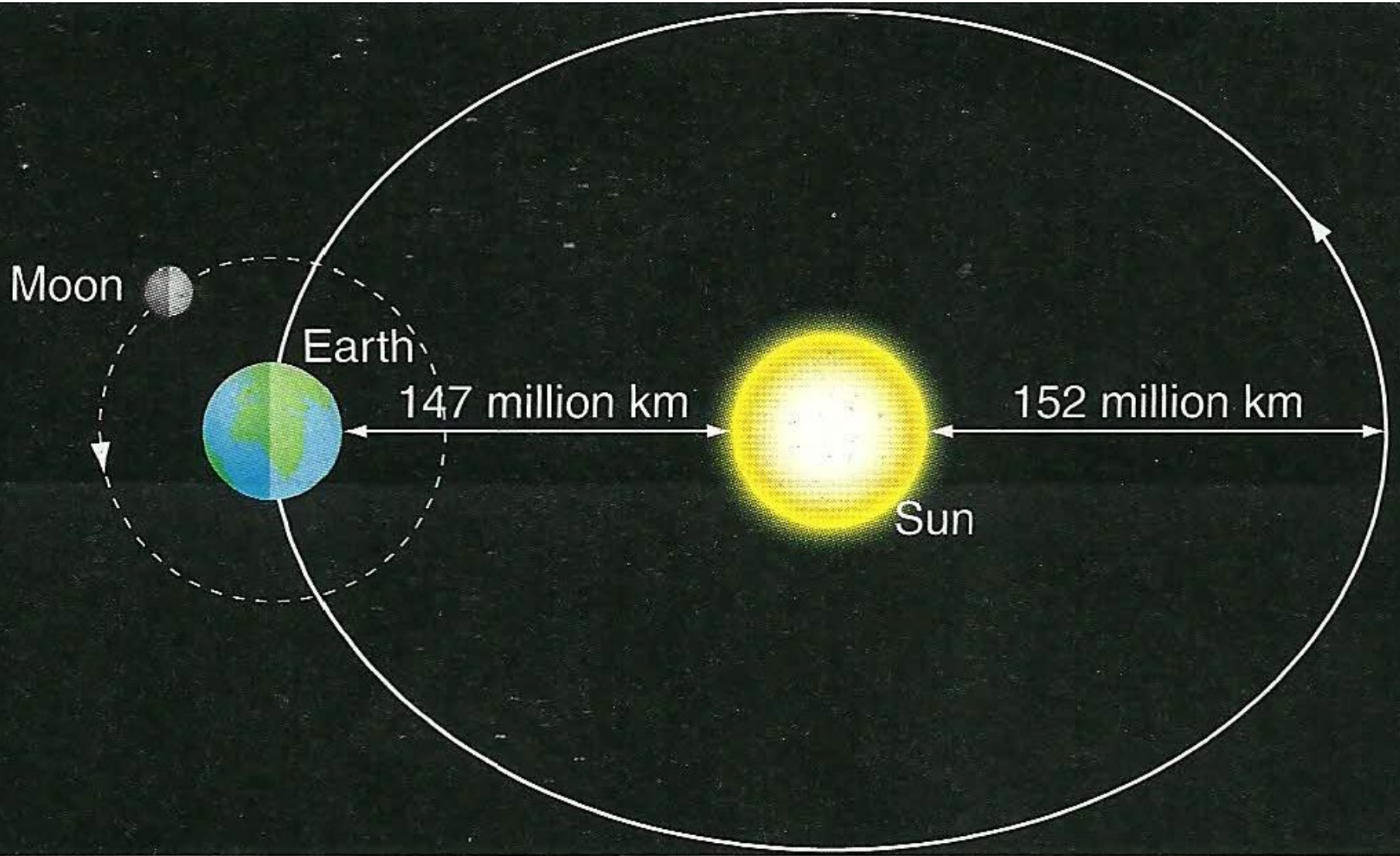




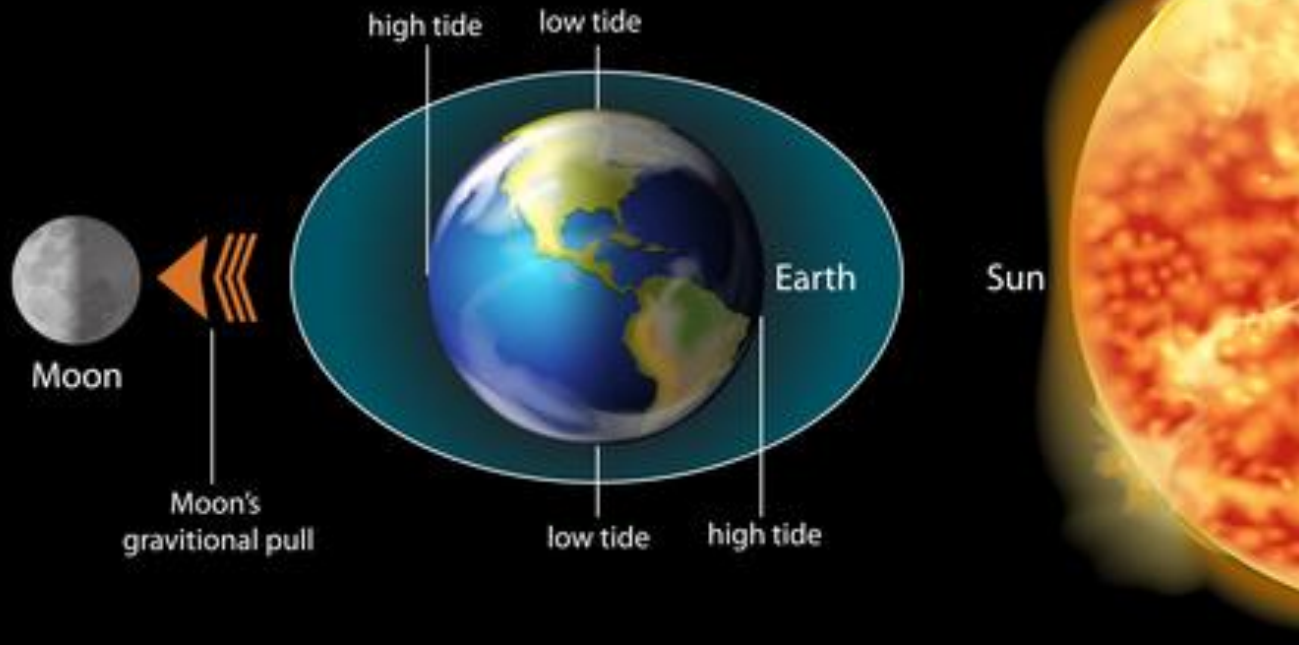


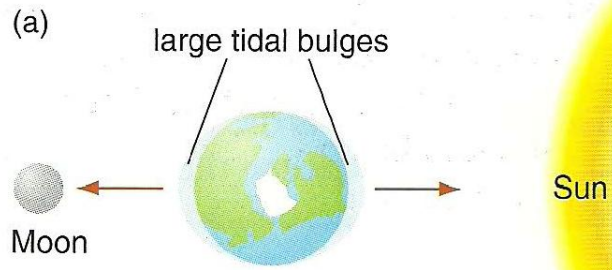
Change of position of the Moon
against background constellations
over the course of one day



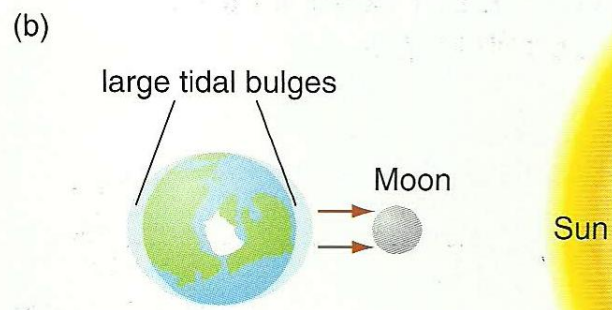


Ocean Tides and Currents

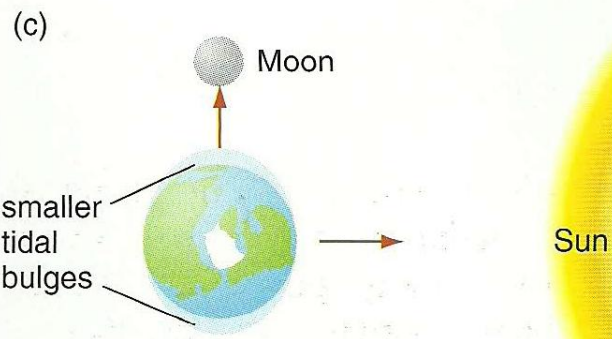




Spring Tide: Full Moon



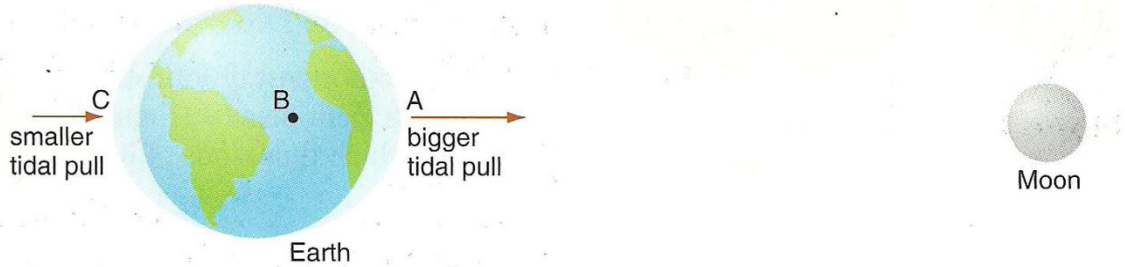
Spring Tide: New Moon



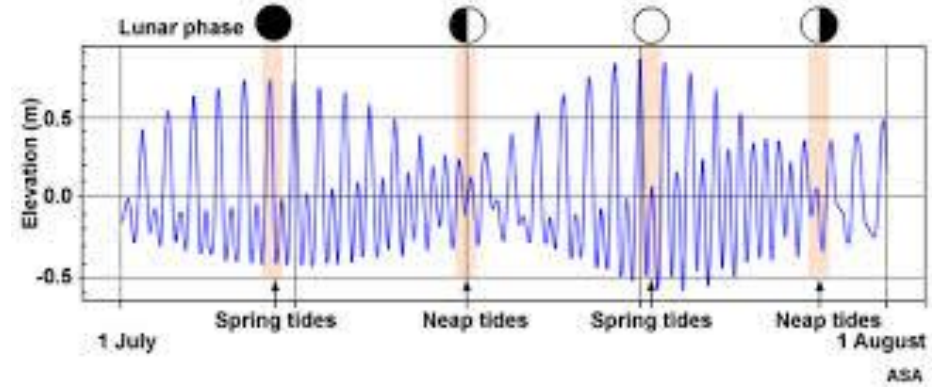
Neap Tide

The gravitational pull of the Moon on the ocean causes our **tides**. We get two high tides a day. The Earth-Moon system rotates about a centre of gravity (or **barycentre**) at B (Figure 4). This is inside the Earth but not at its centre. At A, there is a high tide because the Moon pulls more strongly on the water closer to it. At C there is also a high tide. At C the Moon pulls the water less strongly. As the water rotates around B it piles up; this is because the Moon's pull is not strong enough to keep it in a smaller circular path.

The Sun also exerts a tidal pull on our seas, but about half as much as the Moon. Twice a month, the Sun and Moon line up to produce a large tidal pull. We then get **spring tides**. When the Sun and Moon pull at right-angles to each other, the high tides are smaller, These are called **neap tides** (Figure 5). Other factors, such as strong winds, also affect the height of tides.



Tide Time Series in the Philippines Showing Spring and Neap Tide Cycles

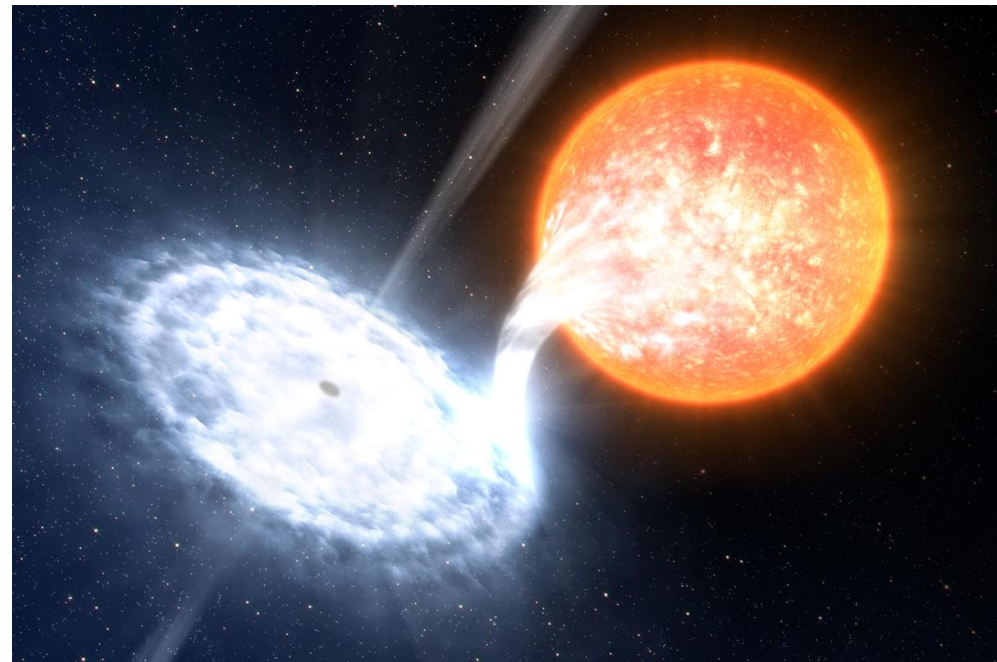
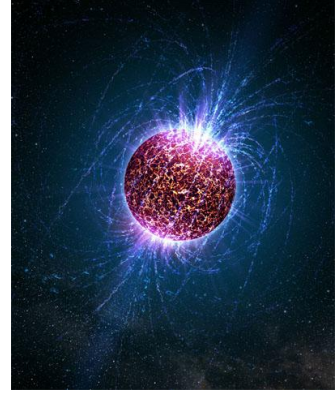


Exotic objects:

Strange planets, Neutron

Stars, Quasars, Supernovae,

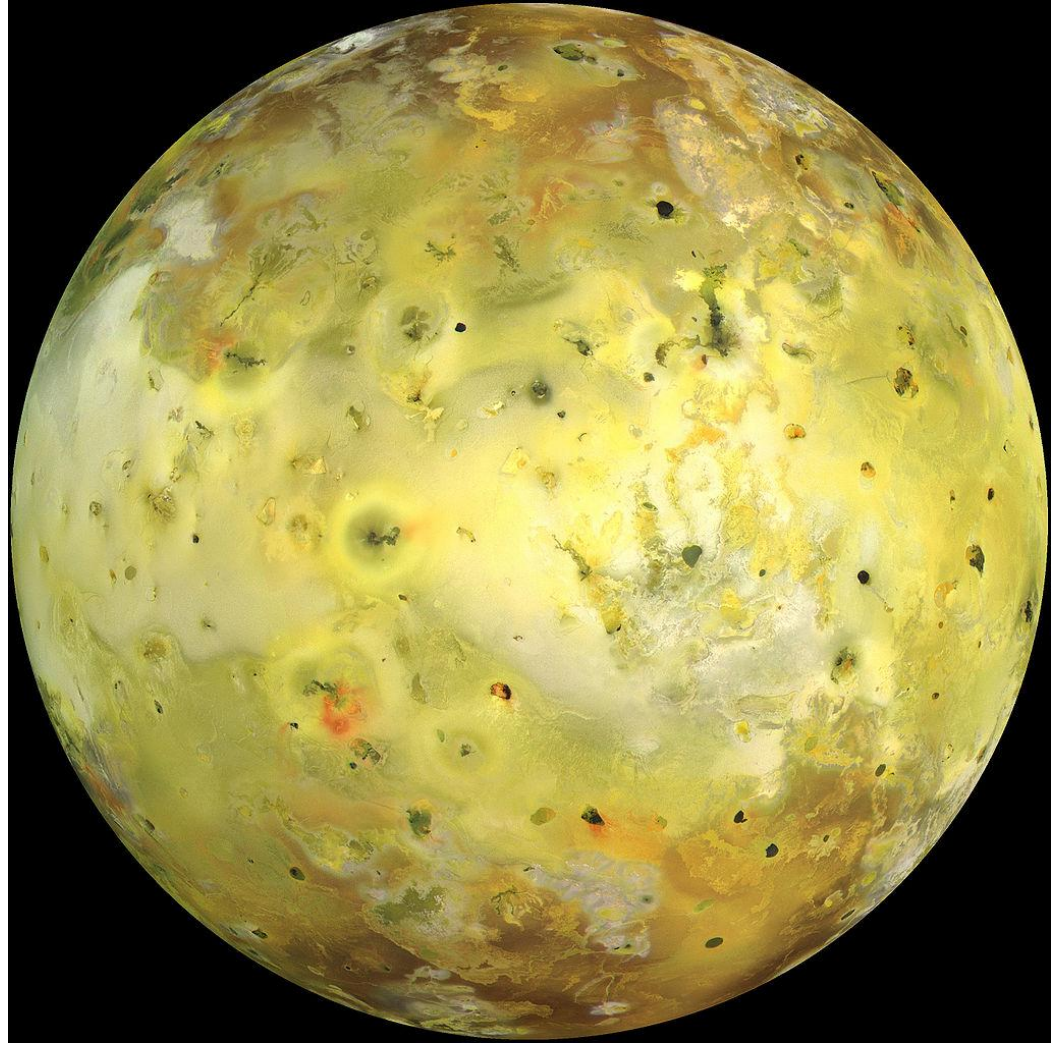
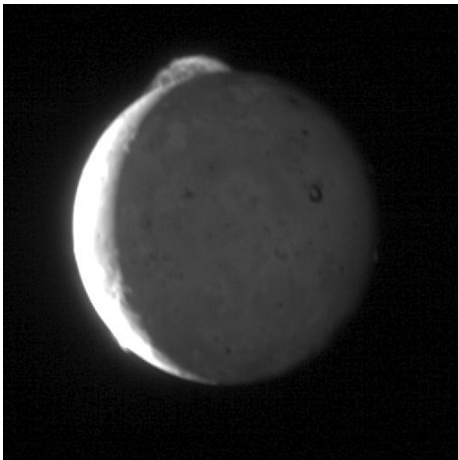
Black Holes



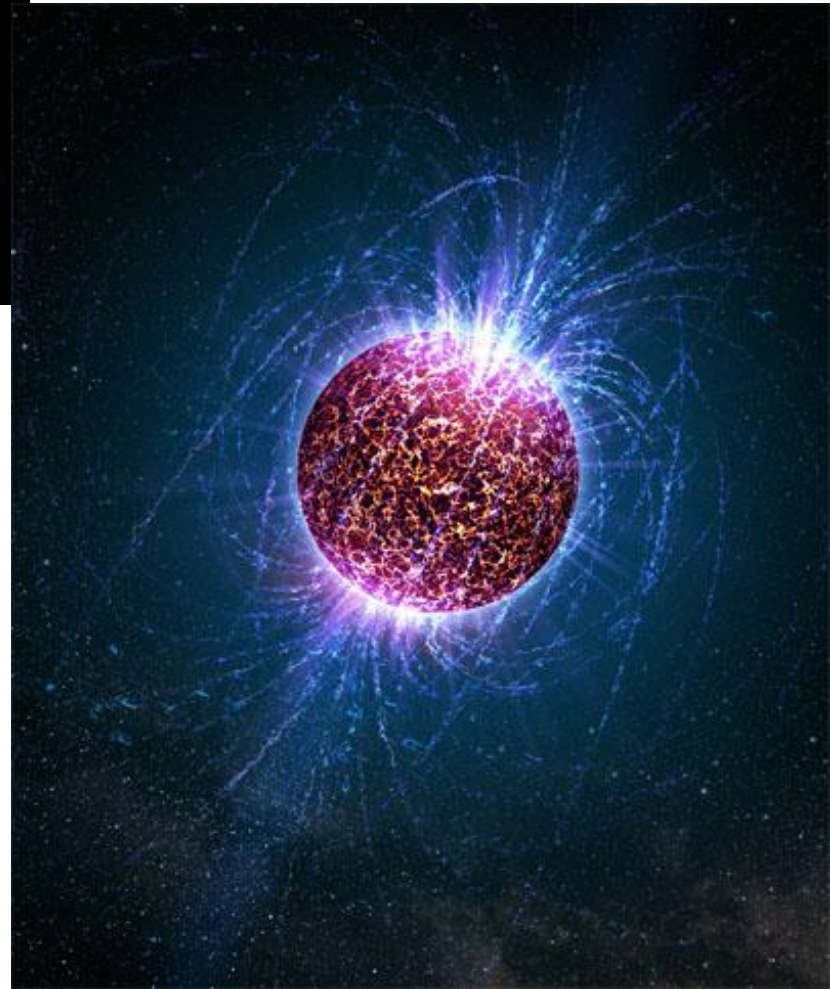
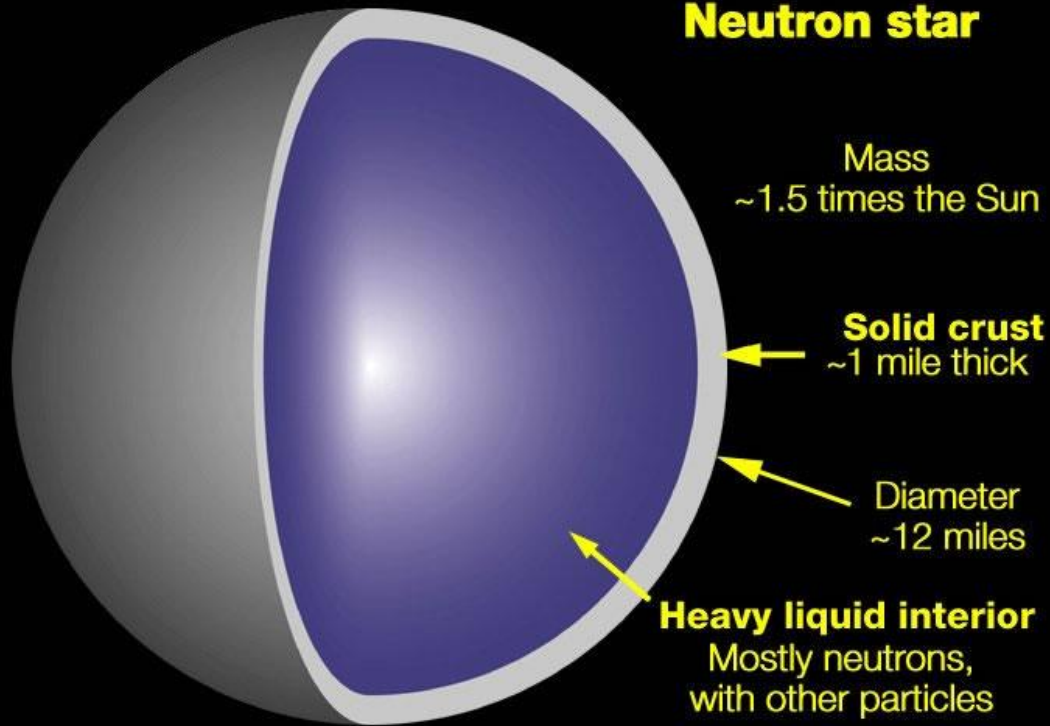
Io – a moon of Jupiter


With over 400 active volcanoes, Io is the most geologically active object in the Solar System. This extreme geologic activity is the result of tidal heating from friction generated within Io's interior as it is pulled between Jupiter and the other Galilean satellites—Europa, Ganymede and Callisto.

Several volcanoes produce plumes of sulfur and sulfur dioxide that climb as high as 500 km above the surface.



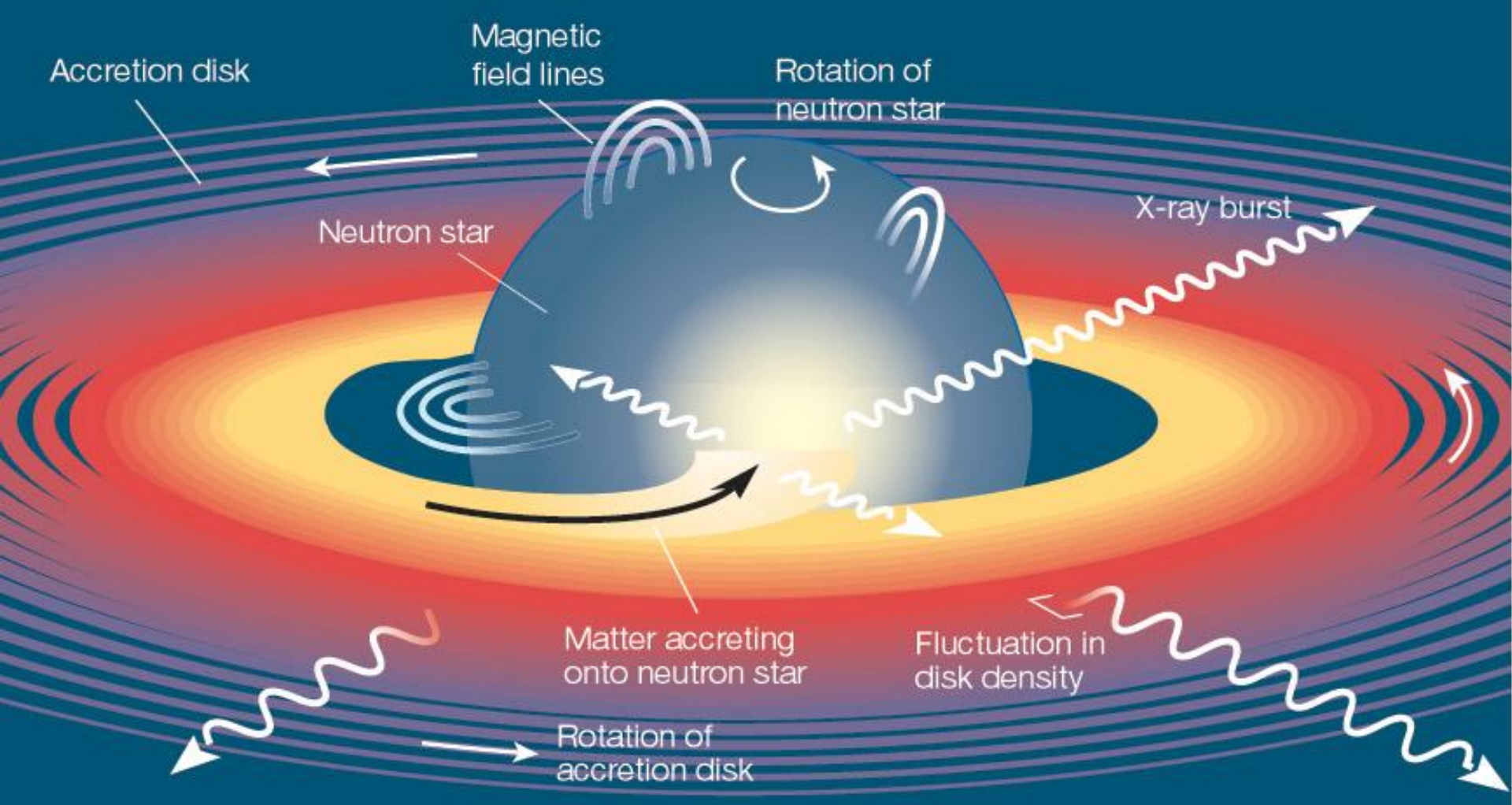
Neutron star

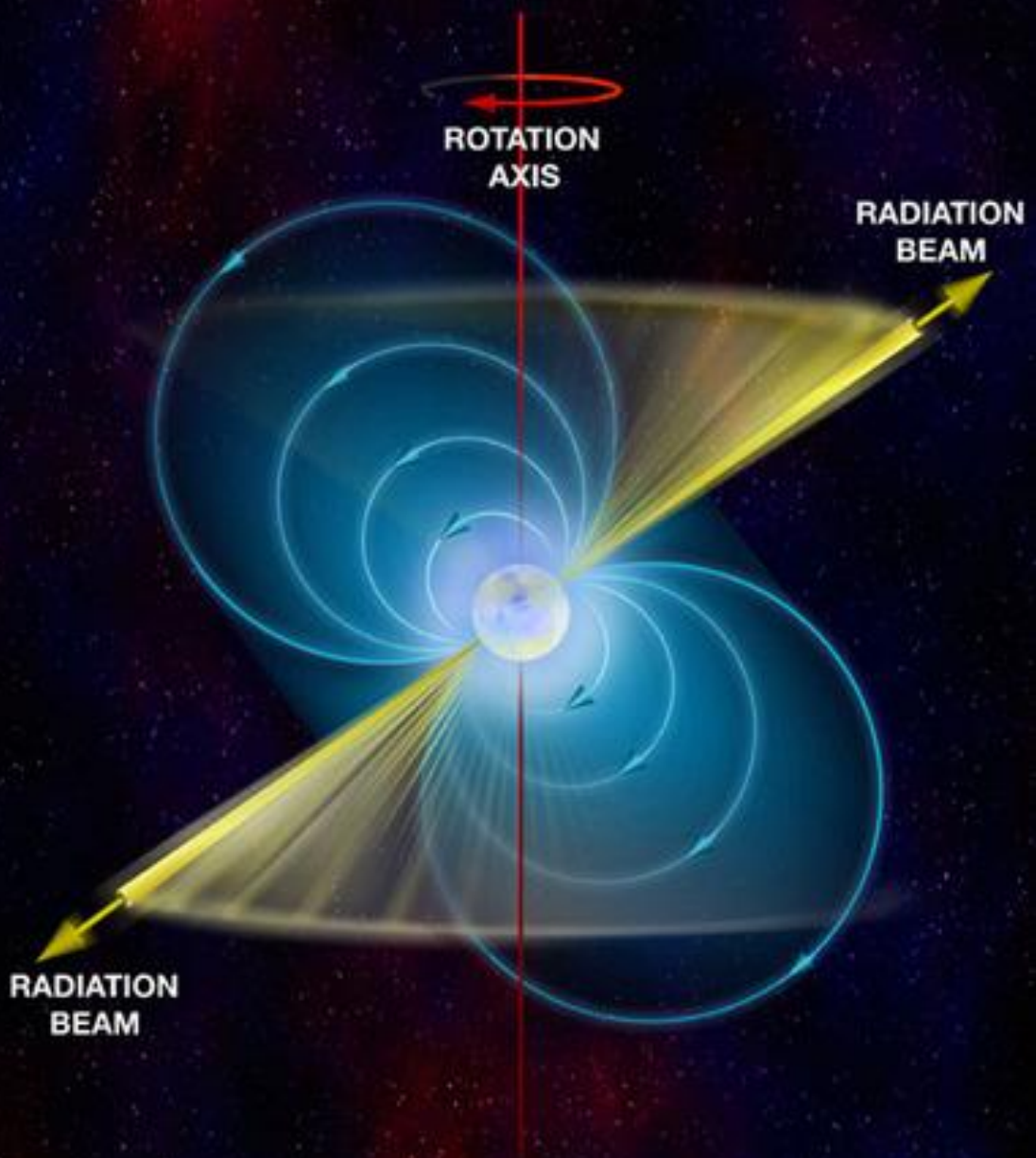


The image is a composite. The bottom two-thirds show an aerial view of Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, featuring the city's skyline, the harbor with numerous boats, and the surrounding mountains. The top third shows a large, dark, textured sphere, representing a neutron star, positioned in the sky. The text 'Neutron Star' is centered on the sphere, and 'Vancouver' is written in the sky area above the city.

Neutron Star

Vancouver





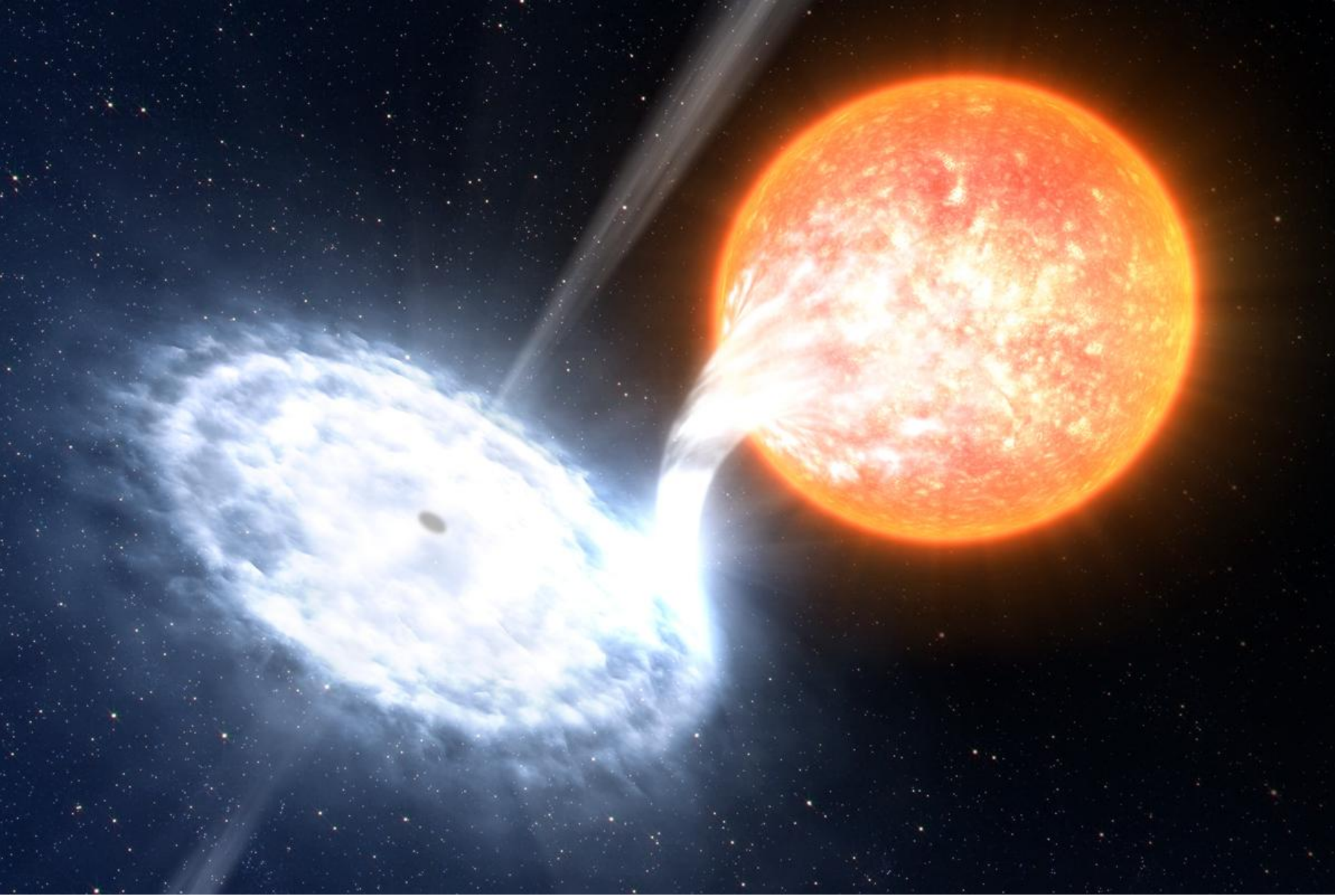
Birth of a Neutron Star

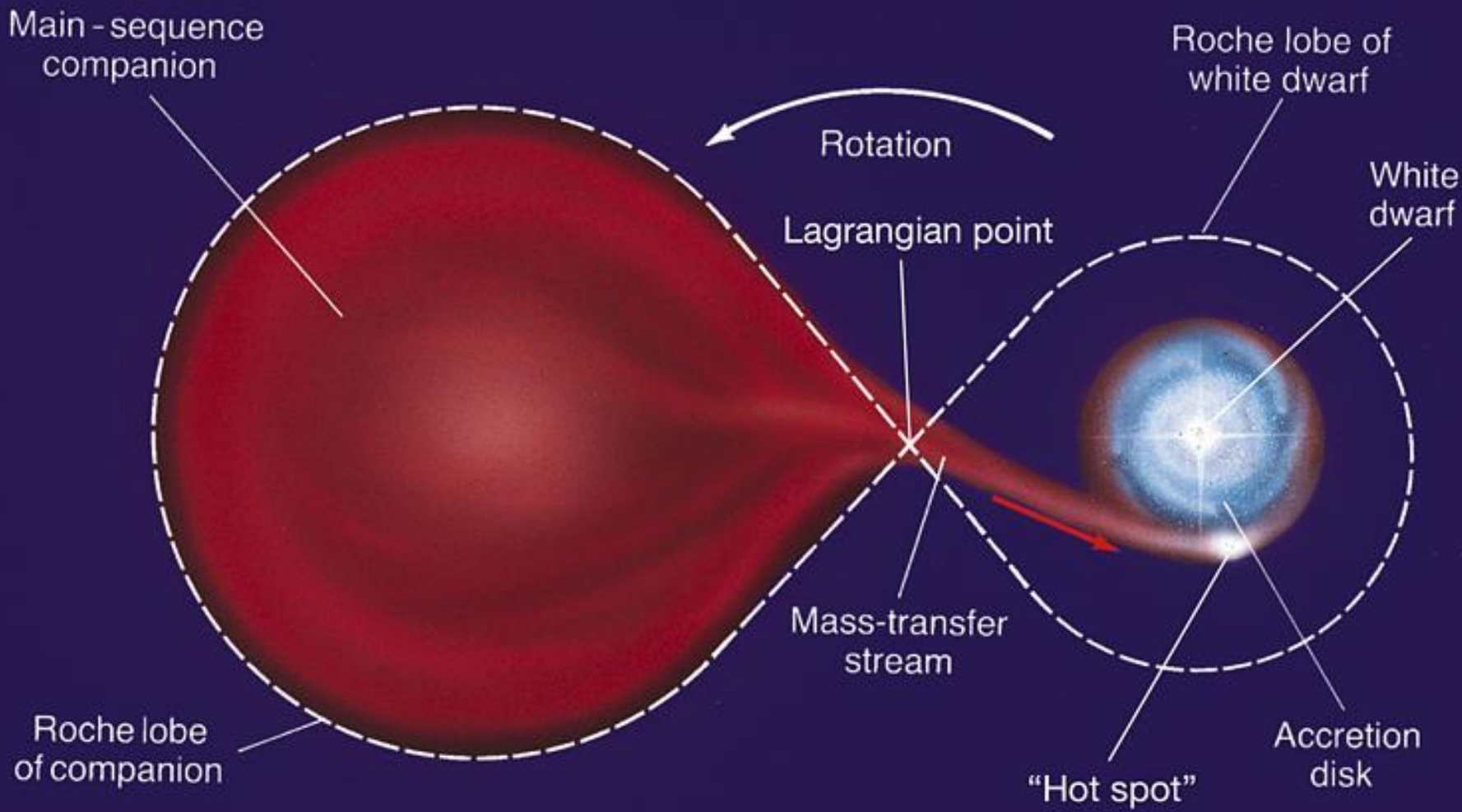


Red Giant

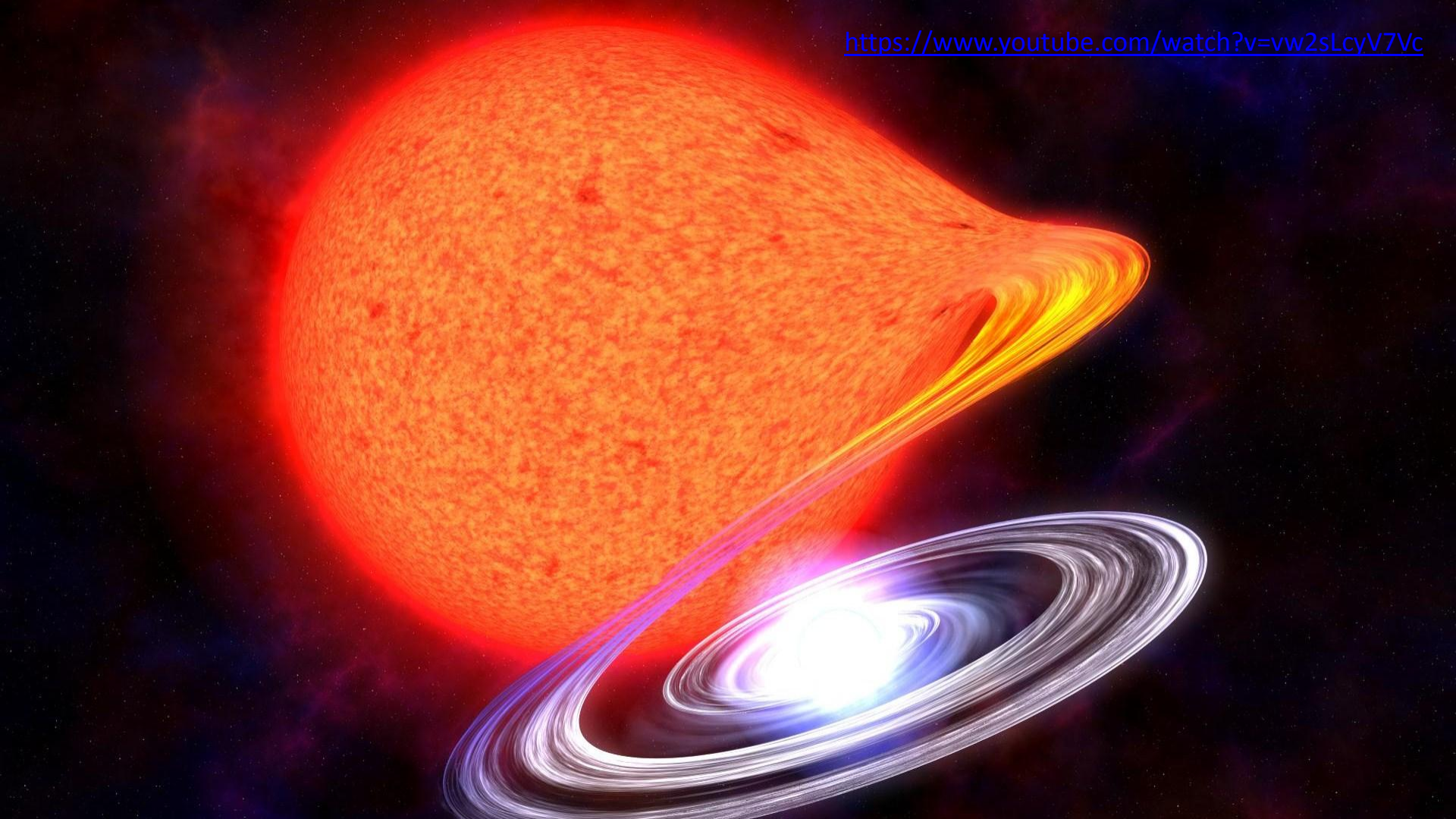


Core Implosion → Supernova Explosion → Supernova Remnant

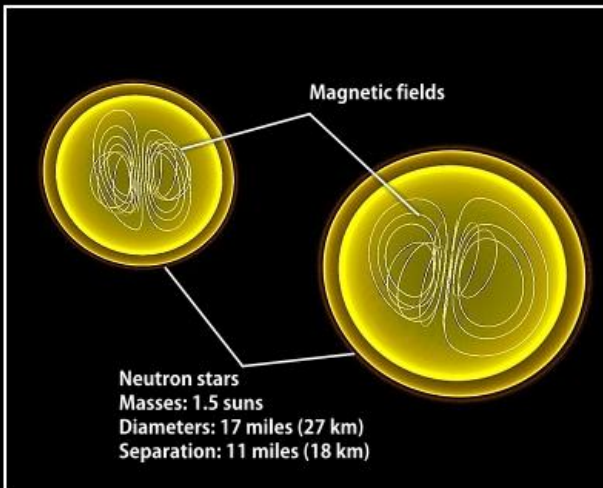




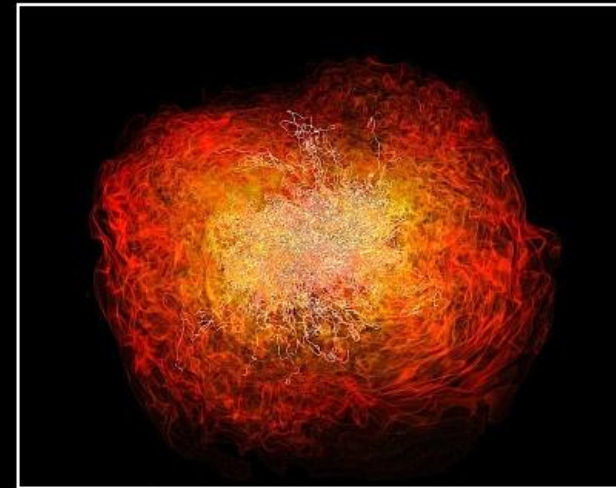
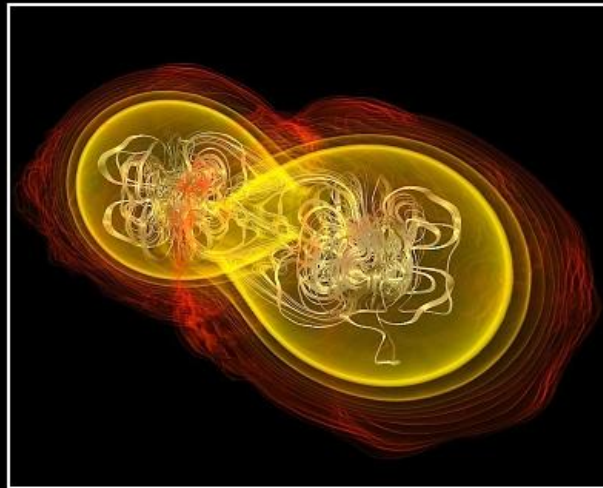
Copyright © 2005 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.



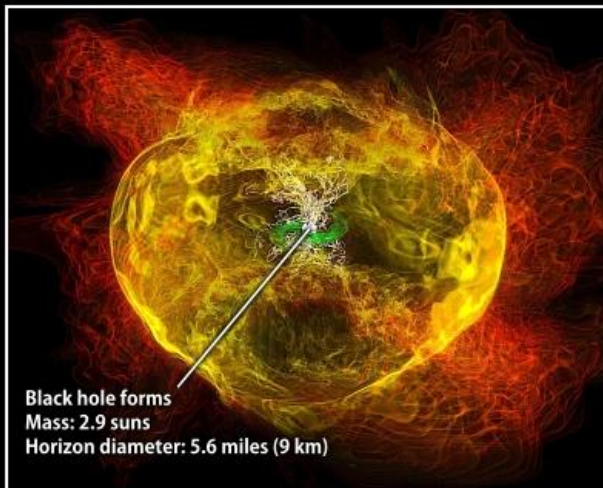
Crashing neutron stars can make gamma-ray burst jets



Simulation begins



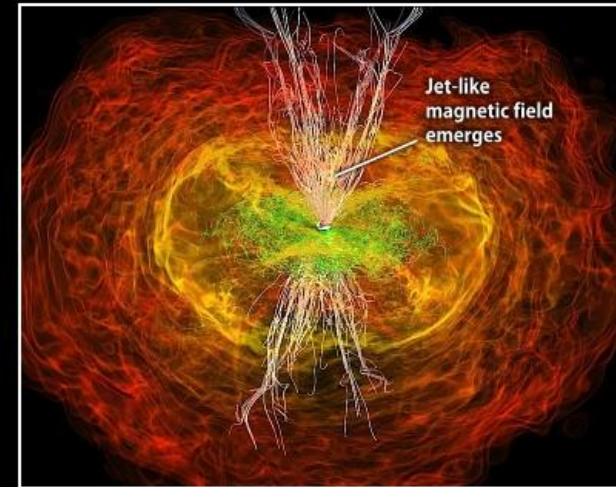
13.8 milliseconds



15.3 milliseconds



21.2 milliseconds

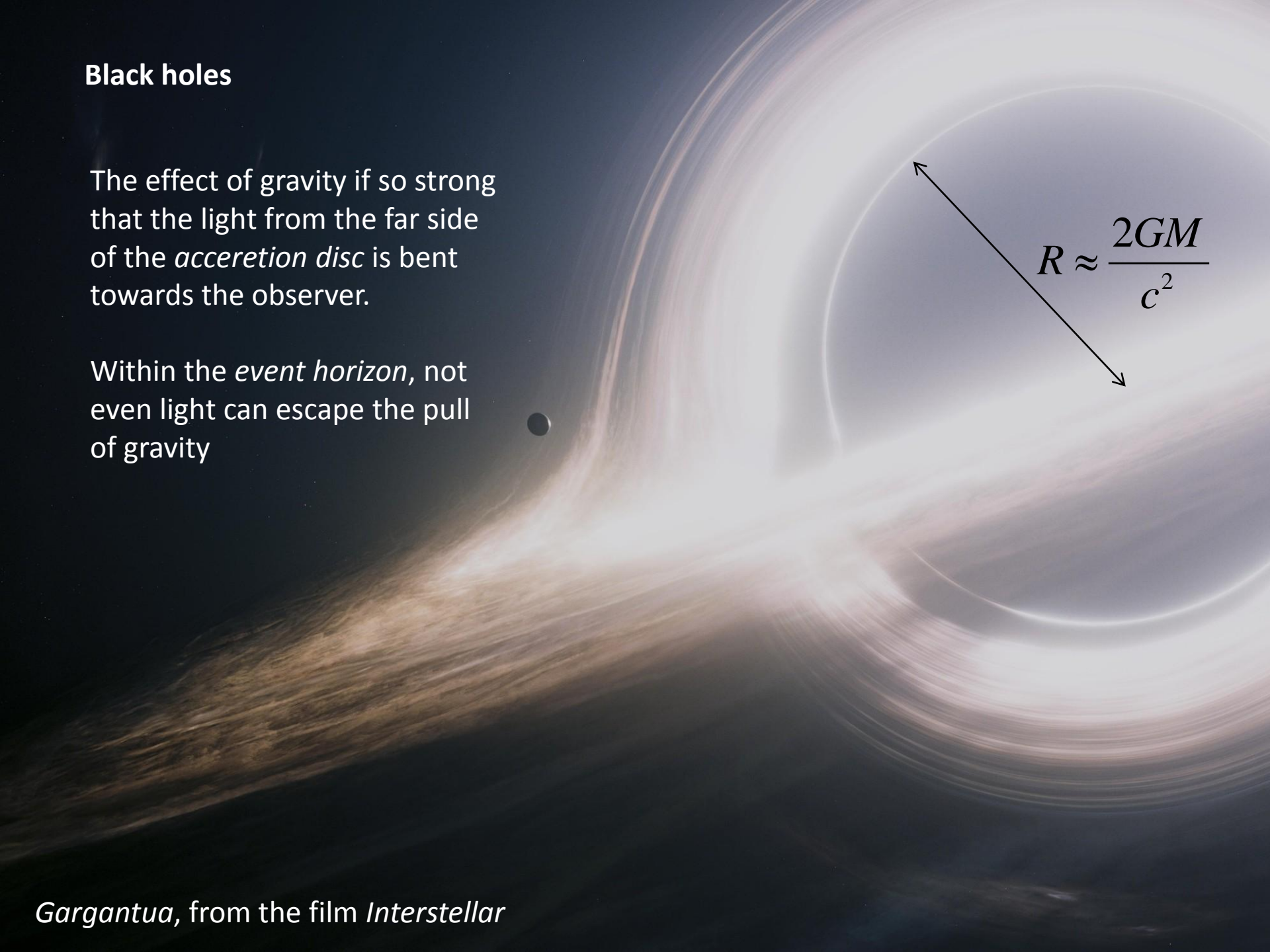


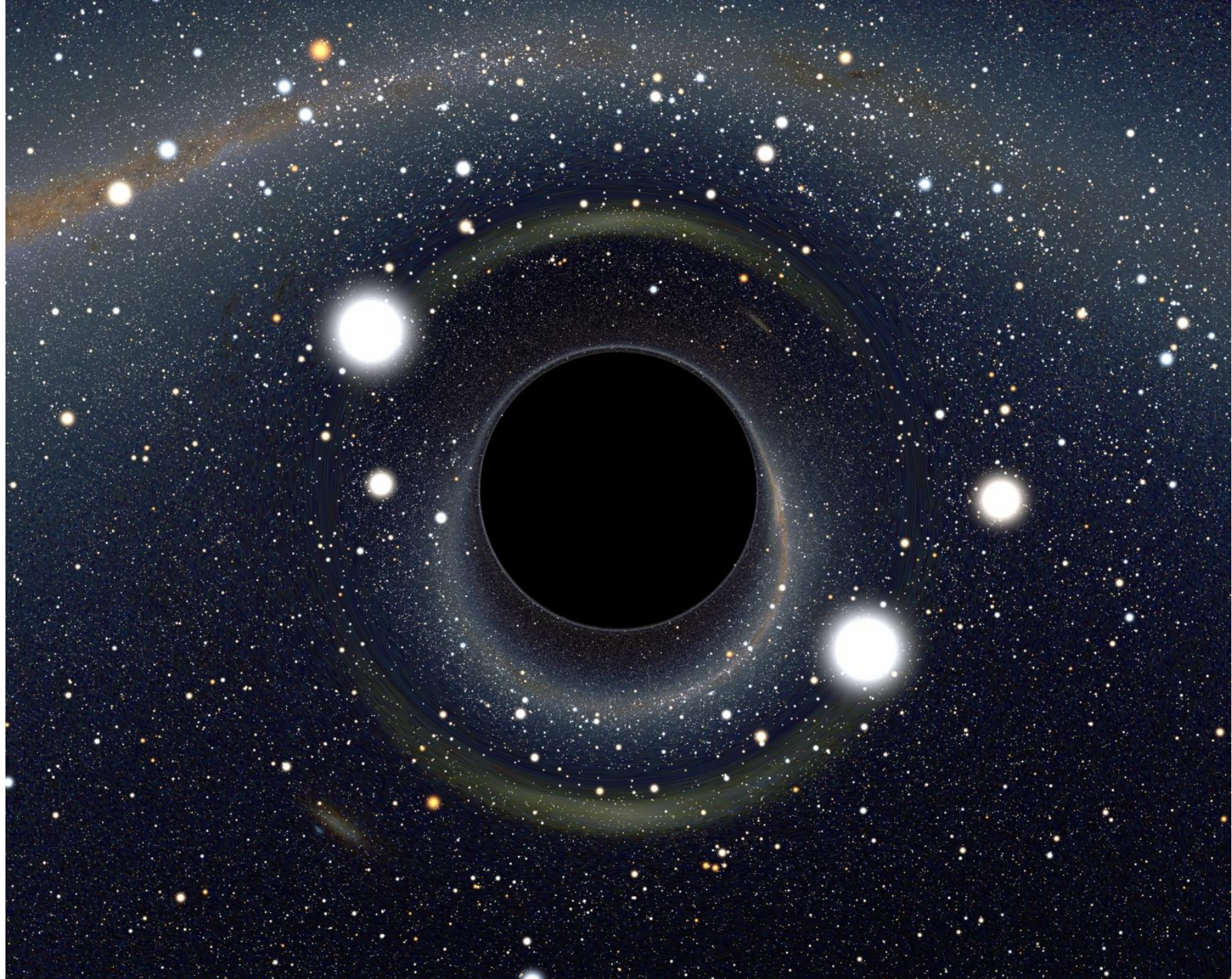
26.5 milliseconds

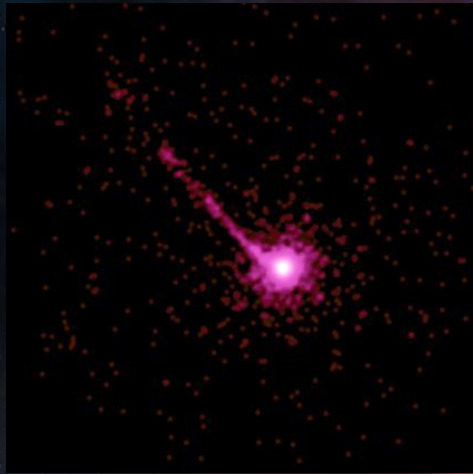
Black holes

The effect of gravity is so strong that the light from the far side of the *accretion disc* is bent towards the observer.

Within the *event horizon*, not even light can escape the pull of gravity


$$R \approx \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$





The Chandra X-ray image is of the quasar PKS 1127-145, a highly luminous source of X-rays and visible light about 10 billion light years from Earth. An enormous X-ray jet extends at least a million light years from the quasar. Image is 60 arcsec on a side.



A **quasar** ('quasi-stellar radio source') is a compact region in the centre of a massive galaxy surrounding a central supermassive black hole. Its size is 10–10,000 times the Schwarzschild radius of the black hole. The energy emitted by a quasar derives from mass falling onto the accretion disc around the black hole.

Quasars are extremely luminous and were first identified as being high redshift sources of electromagnetic energy, including radio waves and visible light, that appeared to be similar to stars, rather than extended sources similar to galaxies. Their spectra contain very broad emission lines, unlike any known from stars, hence the name "quasi-stellar". Their luminosity can be 100 times greater than that of the Milky Way.

Nebulae

A nebula (Latin for "cloud") is an interstellar cloud of dust, hydrogen, helium and other ionized gases.



Photo Credit: *T. Rector (University of Alaska Anchorage)*



Pillars of Creation
Eagle Nebula
(7000 light years
away)



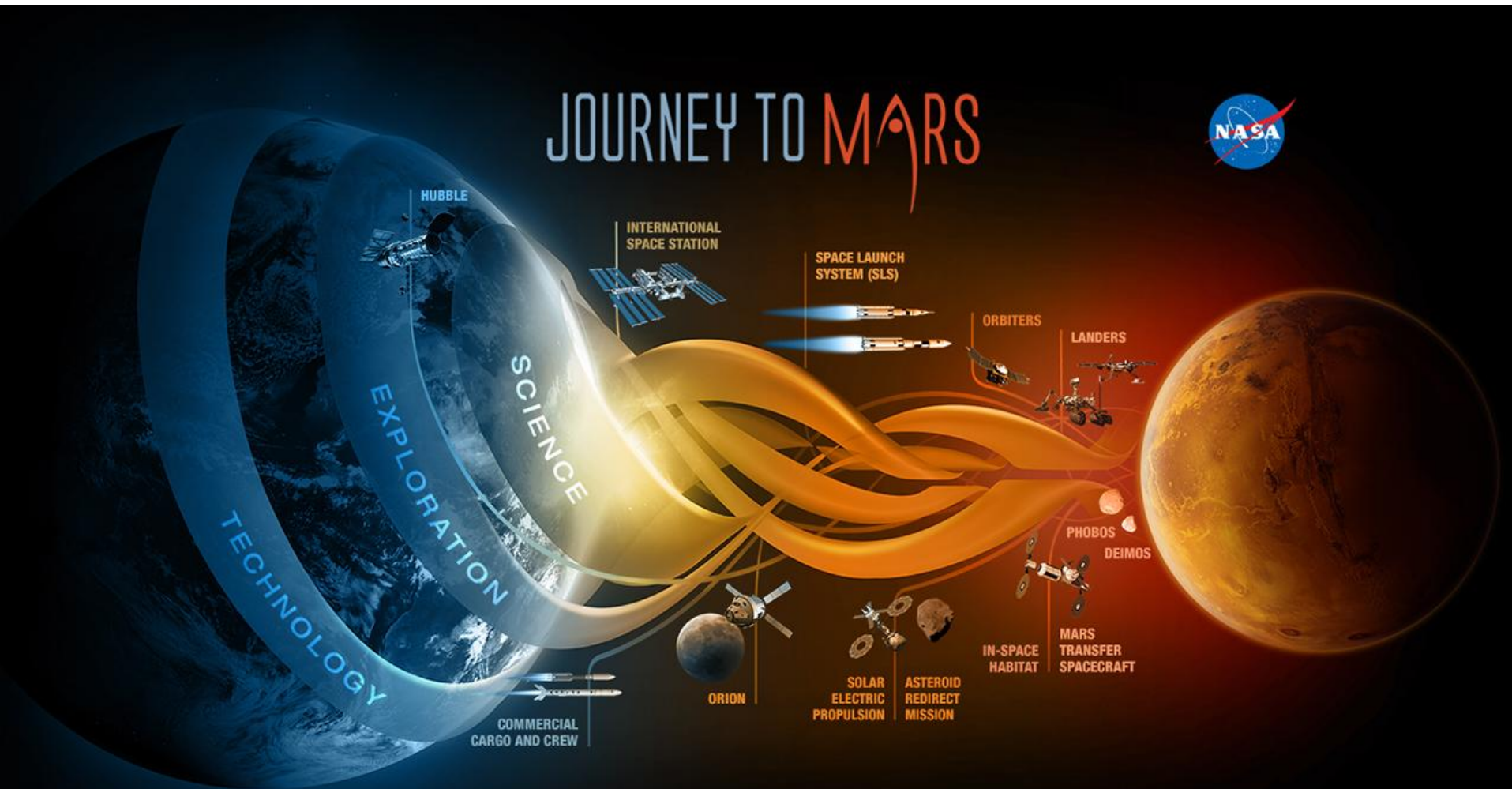
Horsehead Nebula





Various nebulae, photographed by the Hubble space telescope

The future of cosmology astronomy & space exploration



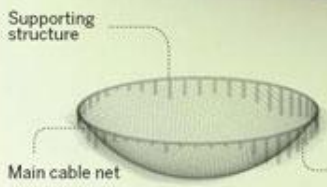
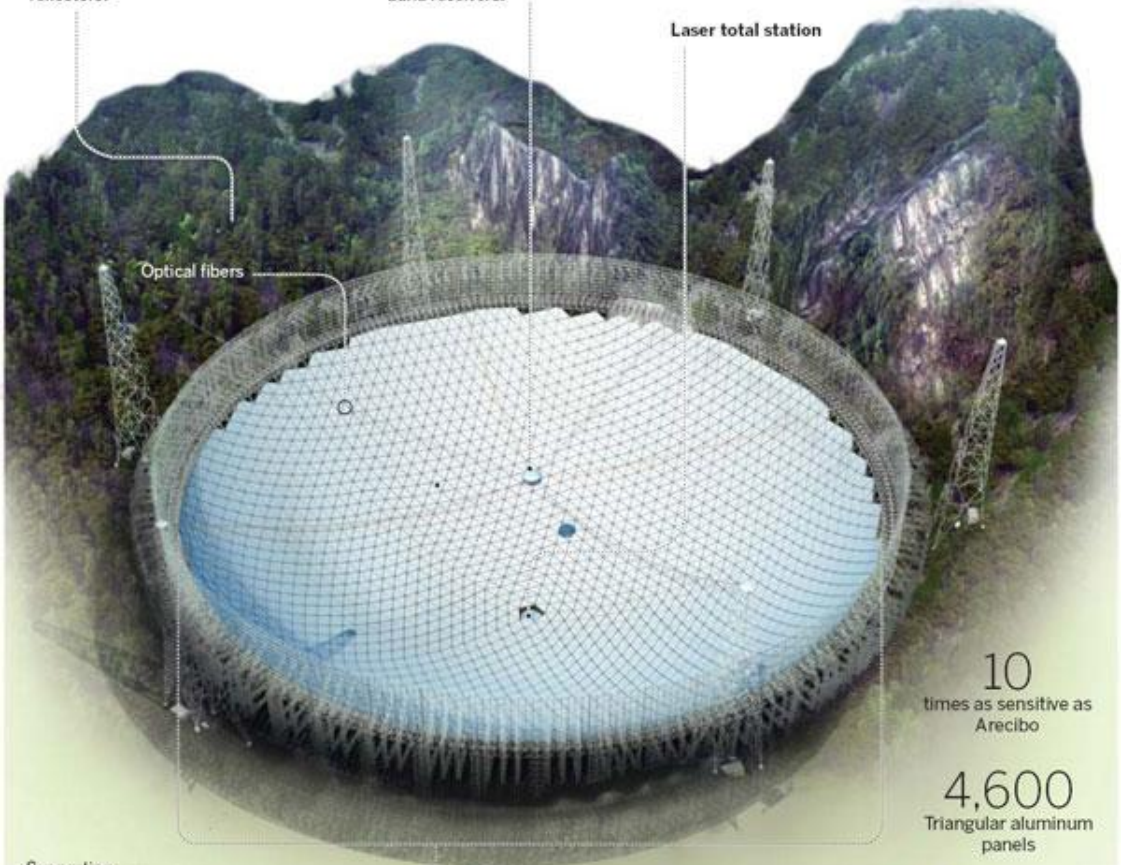
A BIG EYE ON THE SKY

500-meter aperture spherical radio telescope (FAST)

- Surveys neutral hydrogen in the Milky way and other galaxies
- Detects new galactic and extragalactic pulsars
- Finds and researches the first shining stars
- Finds out where extraterrestrial life might exist in space
- Detects dark energy and helps us understand the evolution of galaxies

Karst valley depression
A natural limestone depression in southern Guizhou province creates a cradle for the telescope's main reflectors.

Receiver Cabin
A lightweight focus cabin is powered by cables and operated by a robot. The cabin contains multiple-beam and multiple-band receivers.



Main reflector
The 500-meter-wide active main reflector directly corrects for spherical aberration.

7,000
The number of pulsars in the Milky Way Galaxy it will detect in less than a year

10
times as sensitive as Arecibo

4,600
Triangular aluminum panels

1,000
The number of light years into space FAST will enable scientists to detect the signal

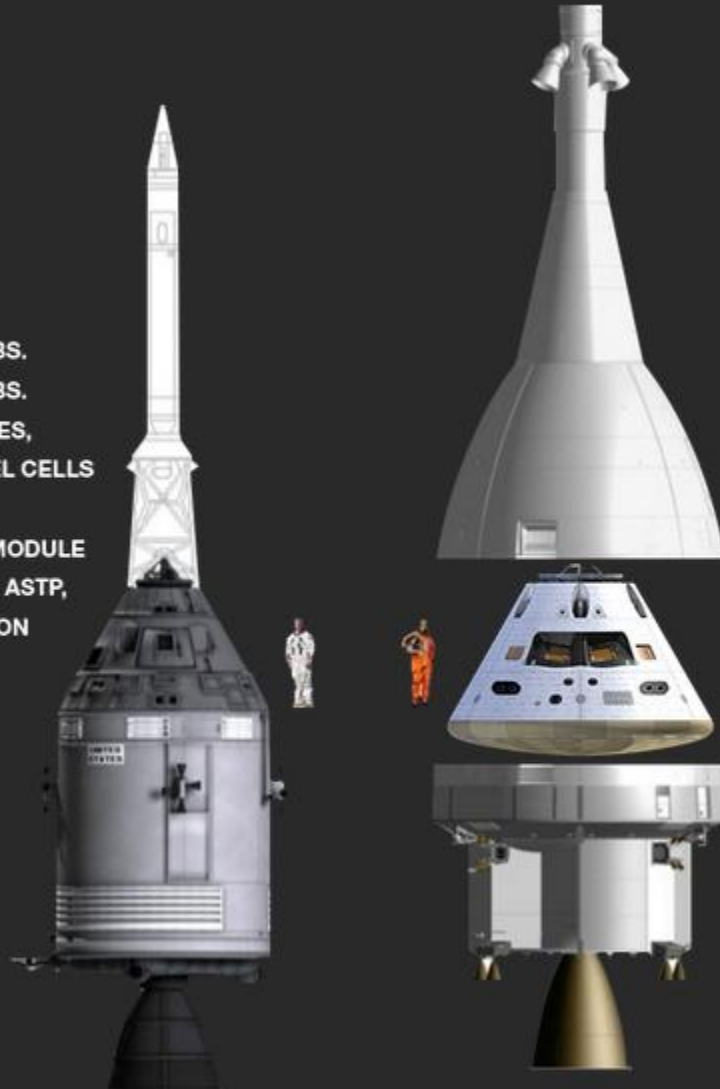


Orion: Multi-Purpose Crew Vehicle

The Moon, Asteroids, Mars

APOLLO

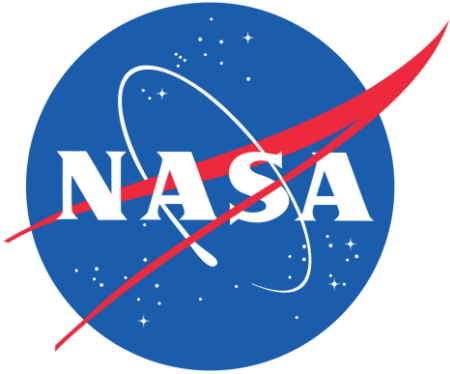
CREW MODULE DIAMETER:	12.8 FT.
CREW SIZE:	3
SERVICE MODULE DIAMETER:	13 FT.
SERVICE MODULE LENGTH:	24.5 FT.
SERVICE MODULE MASS:	54,000 LBS.
SERVICE MODULE THRUST:	20,500 LBS.
POWER:	BATTERIES, FUEL CELLS
LANDING:	WATER
DOCKING:	LUNAR MODULE
DESTINATION:	SKYLAB, ASTP, MOON



ORION

CREW MODULE DIAMETER:	16.5 FT.
CREW SIZE:	4 (6 TO ISS)
SERVICE MODULE DIAMETER:	16.5 FT.
SERVICE MODULE LENGTH:	15.7 FT.
SERVICE MODULE MASS:	27,500 LBS.
SERVICE MODULE THRUST:	7,500 LBS.
POWER:	SOLAR ARRAYS, BATTERIES
LANDING:	WATER
DOCKING:	MULTI PURPOSE
DESTINATION:	MARS, ASTEROIDS

References



European Space Agency



Professor James
Schombert
University of Oregon

