

The Copernican Revolution: Observational Tests

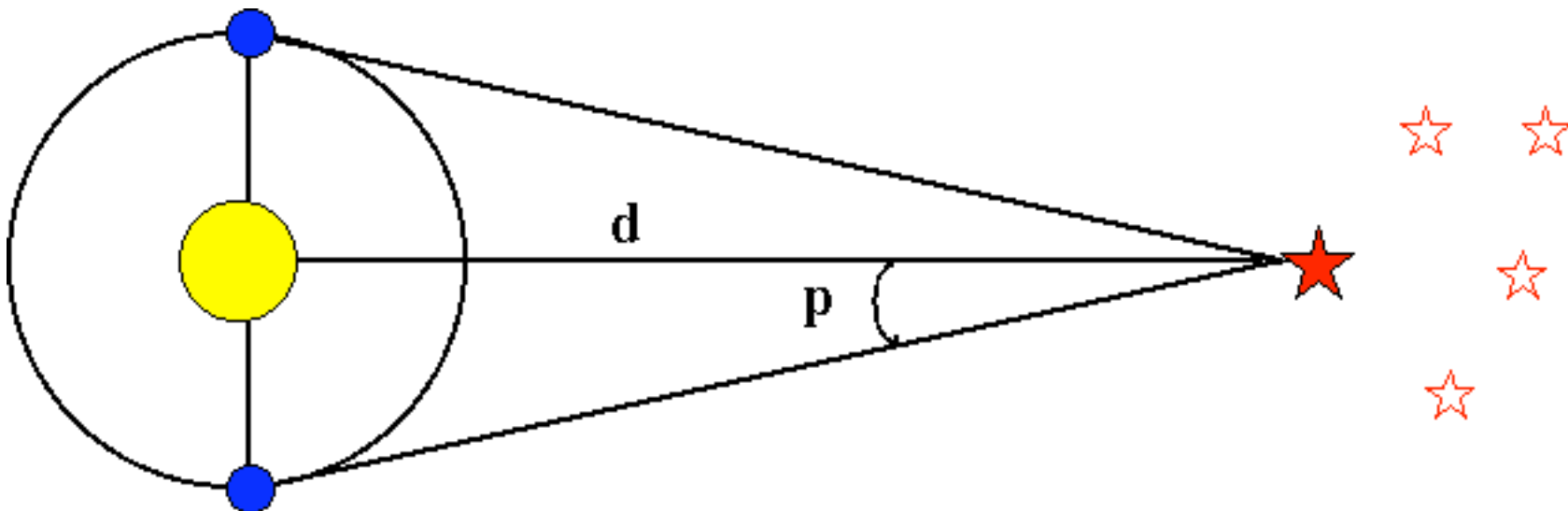
The Trigonometric (Geometric) Parallax

Aristotle's missing Stellar Parallax: The Earth has moved!

Parallactic ellipse has (angular) semi major axis $p = a/d$ (radians)
... where a is the Earth's orbital "radius" and d is the distance to the star.

For d in parsecs (pc), and p in arc-seconds ("):
 $(pc) = 1/p(")$

$a_{\text{Earth}} = 1 \text{ au} = 1.50 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$ and $1 \text{ pc} = 206,265 \text{ au}$



First Measurement of a Stellar Parallax by Bessel (1838)

... 61 Cygni, also known as "Piazzi's Flying Star", with $p = 0.287''$, $d = 3.48 \text{ pc}$

(The largest stellar parallax is that of α Centauri with $p = 0.75''$)

There are 206,265 arc-seconds (") in a radian: $180^\circ = \pi \text{ radians}$; $1^\circ = 60' = 3,600''$

One astronomical unit is 23,455 Earth radii.

The Aberration of Starlight

The Earth is moving!

The Earth's orbital speed is $v = 30 \text{ km s}^{-1}$

The speed of light is $c = 3 \times 10^5 \text{ km s}^{-1}$

Therefore, the maximum aberration angle is $v/c = 10^{-4} \text{ radian} = 21''$
(Note that the semi major axes of all annual aberration ellipses are $21''$)

History

Roemer (1675) measures the velocity of light

Observations of eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter. (Io, $P = 1.76\text{d}$)
(His value for the speed of light was about 75% of the true value.)

Note: Light travels 1 astronomical unit in about 500 seconds.

Picard (1680) observes “puzzling parallax” of Polaris ($\sim 20''$)

$d \text{ (parsecs)} = 1/p('')$

.... but the motion was in the wrong direction for parallactic motion!
... and was seen with the same amplitude in all directions on the sky!

Bradley (1728) explains the phenomenon

(and provides observations of γ Draconis)

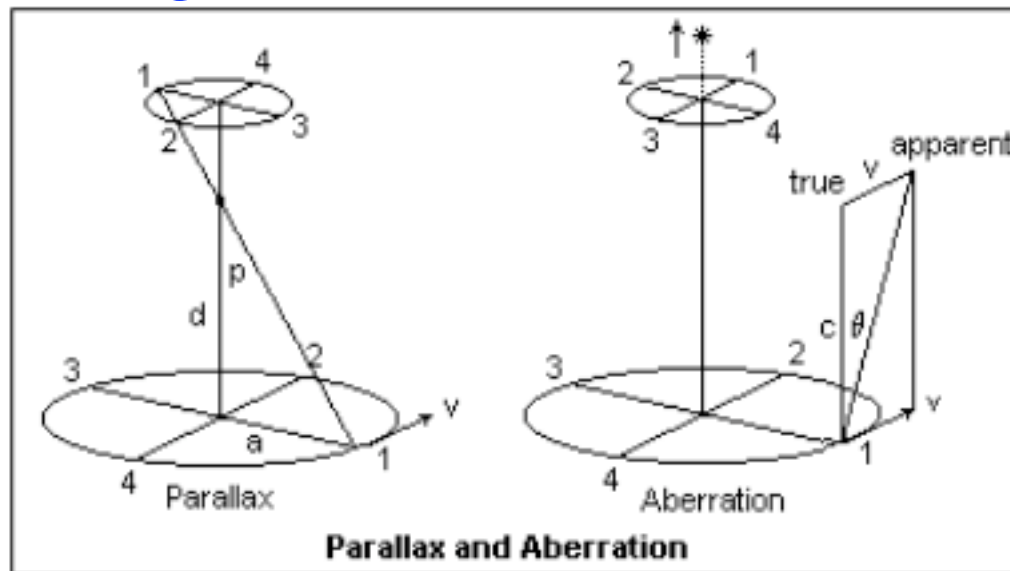
Note that this was over a century before Bessel successfully measured the trigonometric parallax of 61 Cygni in 1838.

The diurnal aberration due to the Earth's rotation about its axis is about $0.32''$

- if observed from the equator where the rotational speed is 0.465 km s^{-1} .

(It's about $0.399 \text{ km s}^{-1} = 892 \text{ mph}$ at the latitude of Las Cruces, NM)

Distinguishing Parallactic Motion and Aberration



Note that the apparent displacement of the star due to the Earth's orbital **position** is, in this example, perpendicular to the apparent displacement due to the Earth's orbital **motion**. It will always be so.

In both cases the apparent annual motion will be an ellipse. The **shape** of the ellipse will depend upon the ecliptic latitude, λ , of the object. (The axial ratio will be $b/a = \cos \lambda$, approaching zero near the ecliptic.)

The **size** (semimajor axis) of the parallactic ellipse will depend only on the star's distance:

$$p = a/d \quad (p \text{ in radians}) = 1/d \text{ (pc)} \quad (p \text{ in arc-seconds})$$

The **size** (semimajor axis) of the aberration ellipse will be essentially constant since the Earth's orbital speed is nearly constant:

$$\theta = v/c = 10^{-4} \text{ (radian)} = 21 \text{ (arc-seconds)}$$

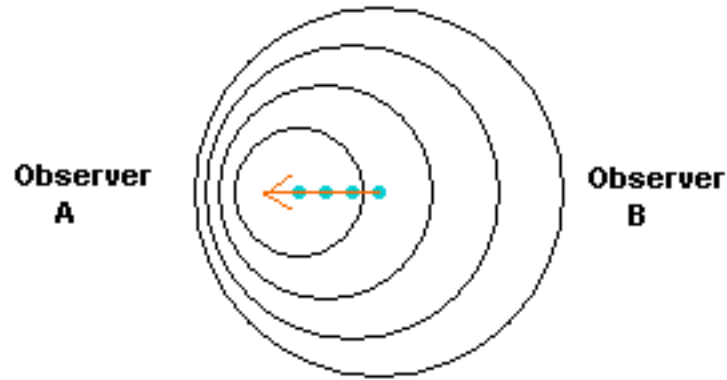
The Doppler Effect The Earth is moving!

Christian Doppler (1803 -1852) and The Doppler Effect (1842)

$$(\lambda - \lambda_0)/\lambda_0 = +v_{\text{radial}}/c \quad \text{or} \quad (\nu - \nu_0)/\nu_0 = -v_{\text{radial}}/c$$

The variation of v_{radial} over the course of a year is measured.

The maximum possible amplitude* is $\Delta\lambda/\lambda_0$ or $\Delta\nu/\nu_0 = \pm 10^{-4}$



Note: v_{radial} is negative (approaching) for Observer A and positive (receding) for Observer B

Optical Doppler Effect:

Stark (1905): Doppler Effect observed for “Canal Rays” in the Laboratory

Somebody (19??): Doppler Effect due to Earth motion observed for stars

*The Earth’s orbital speed is $30 \text{ km s}^{-1} = 10^{-4} c$.

The observed shift be greatest for stars on the ecliptic.

The rotational speed at the Earth’s equator is about 0.47 km s^{-1} or $1.6 \times 10^{-6} c$.

Resumé: The Copernican Revolution Completed

The Copernican Hypothesis explains:

- The apparent motions of the Sun, Moon, and Planets
 - Observed diurnal and annual motions of the celestial sphere
- ... at least as well as do the Ptolemaic and Tychonic hypotheses*

and correctly predicts:

- The correlations among position, motion, and brightness variations
 - Planetary phase and angular size variations (Galileo)
 - The existence of stellar aberration (Bradley)
 - The presence of a stellar parallax (Bessel)
 - Stellar Doppler shifts (?)

... which the Ptolemaic and Tychonic hypotheses do not!

The Copernican Theory also:

- Has continued to accommodate newly discovered objects
- Has a fundamental theoretical foundation in Newtonian Mechanics and Gravity

* Also, it is relatively simple compared to alternative hypotheses with fewer planetary types, a more straightforward explanation of retrograde motions, etc.
(Ockham's Razor, again)

..but the “Copernican Revolution”, which displaced first the Earth (Copernicus) and then the Sun (Digges) from the center of the universe wasn't over yet

The Copernican Principle

History

Ptolemy (c. 140): A Geocentric and Geostatic Universe

Copernicus (1543): A Heliocentric and Geodynamic Universe

Digges (1576): A Non-Heliocentric Universe
The Sun as a star in an infinite space?

New Questions:

How are the stars distributed in space?
(Is the Universe of stars finite or infinite?)

What is the Sun's location in this “system” of stars?
(... assuming the system of stars is finite in extent.)

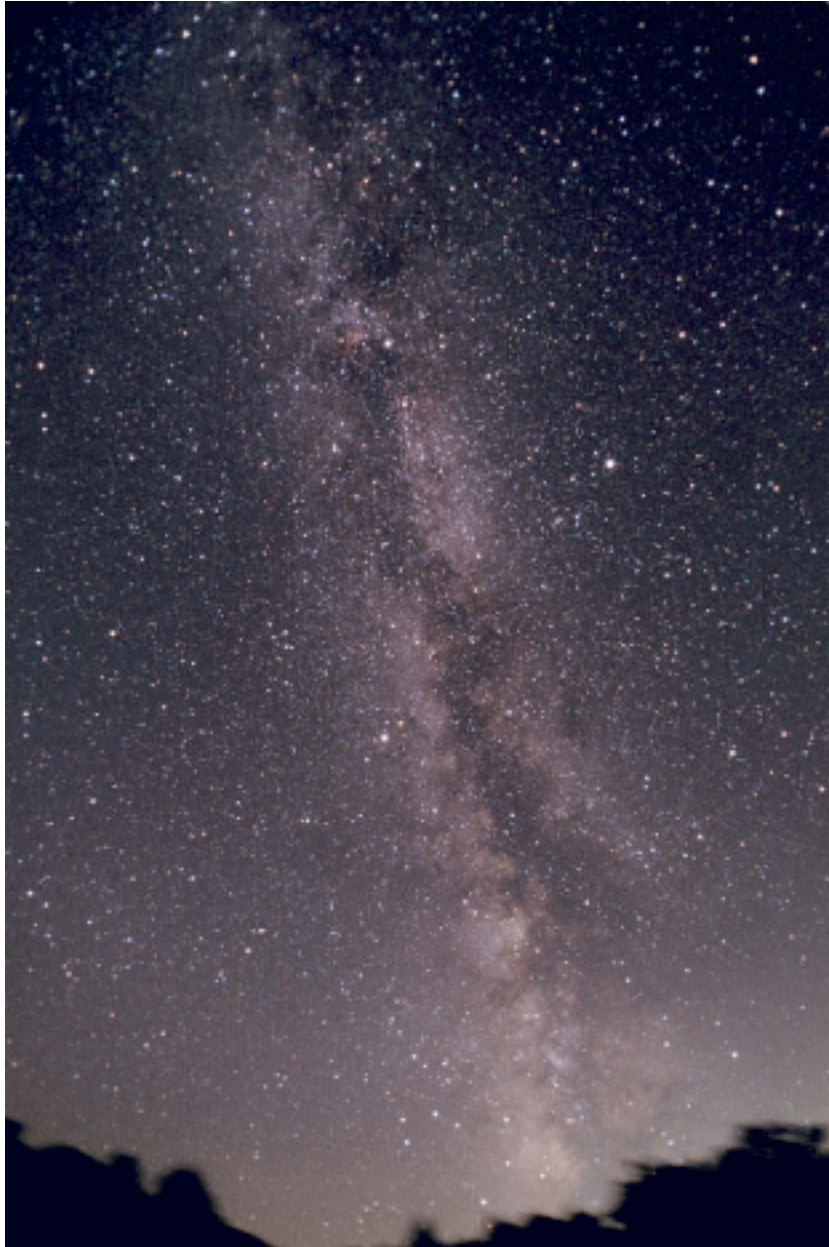
The theological concern: Is there anything “special” about our location or motion with respect to the rest of the Universe?

Answering the Questions: Mapping the Universe

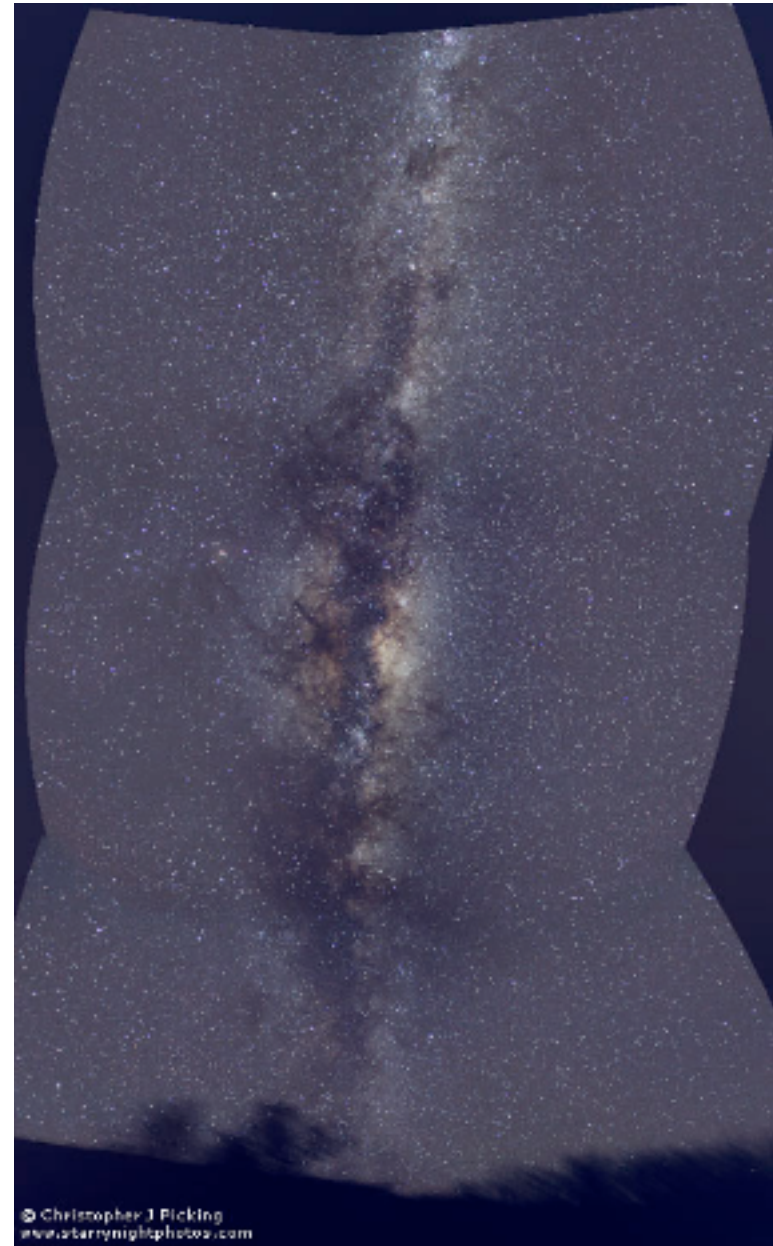
- Surveying Stars: Distance and Direction
- Surveying Galaxies: Distance and Direction
- Answering the theological concern: The Copernican Principle

Mapping The Distribution of Stars in Space

The Northern Milky Way



The Southern Milky Way



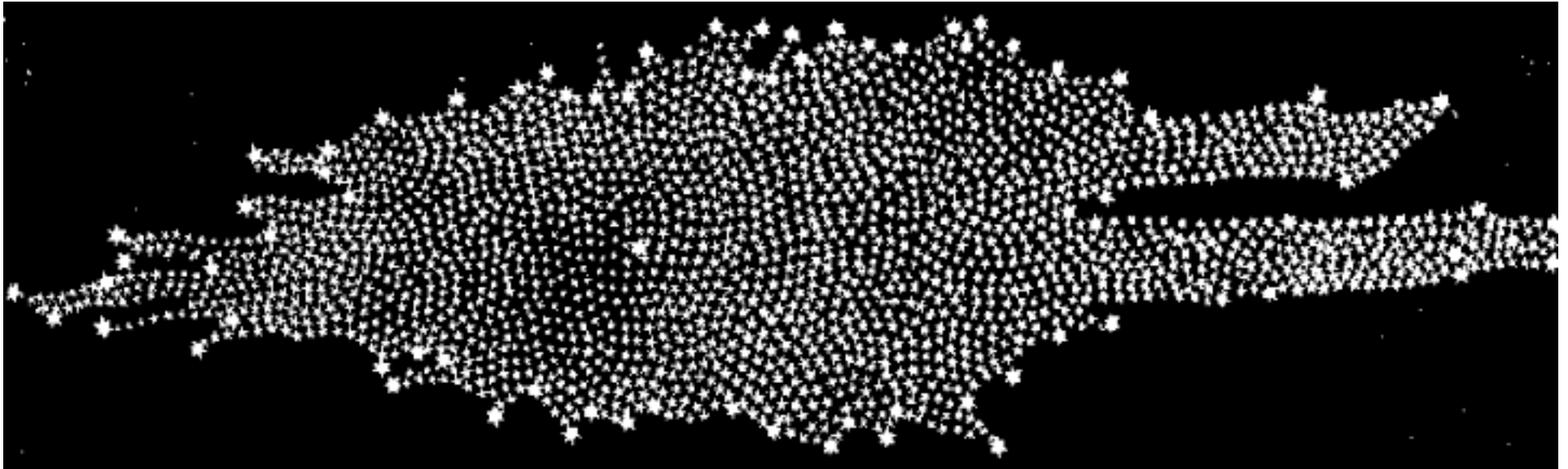
Digression: The Difficulty of Measuring Stellar Distances

Mapping the Galaxy (the “Milky Way”) via Star Counts

Sir Fredrick William Herschel (1738 - 1822)

Caroline Lucretia Herschel (1750 - 1848)

A Copernican Puzzlement: “Herschel’s “Grindstone”



Possible Implications:

An (almost) Sun - Centered System of Stars?

“Holes in the Heavens”?

“The Finger of God Effect”?

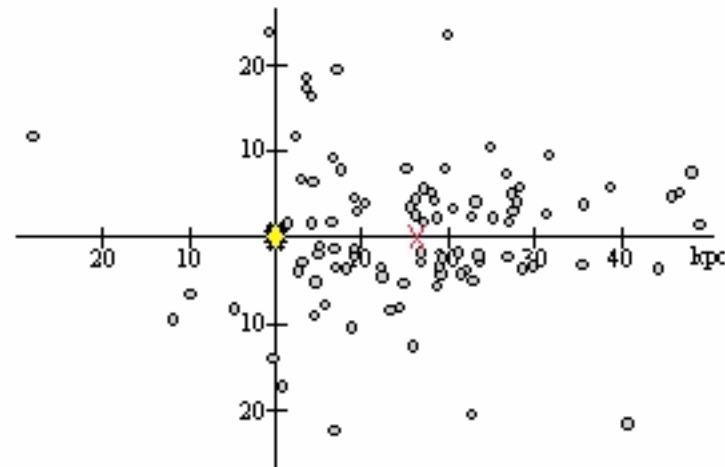
**Complication: Extinction by Interstellar Dust
(also Interstellar Reddening)**

An Island Universe?

Harlow Shapley (1885 - 1972)

Getting around the interstellar dust problem:
Globular clusters and the Galactic center (1918)

Shapley's Globular Cluster Distribution



Conclusions

The Sun resides ~17 kiloparsecs from the Galactic center.
The stellar system we call the Galaxy extends ~40 kpc from its center

and, tentatively

Our galaxy is an island of stars in an otherwise empty universe.

But:

What was the nature of the “spiral nebulae”?

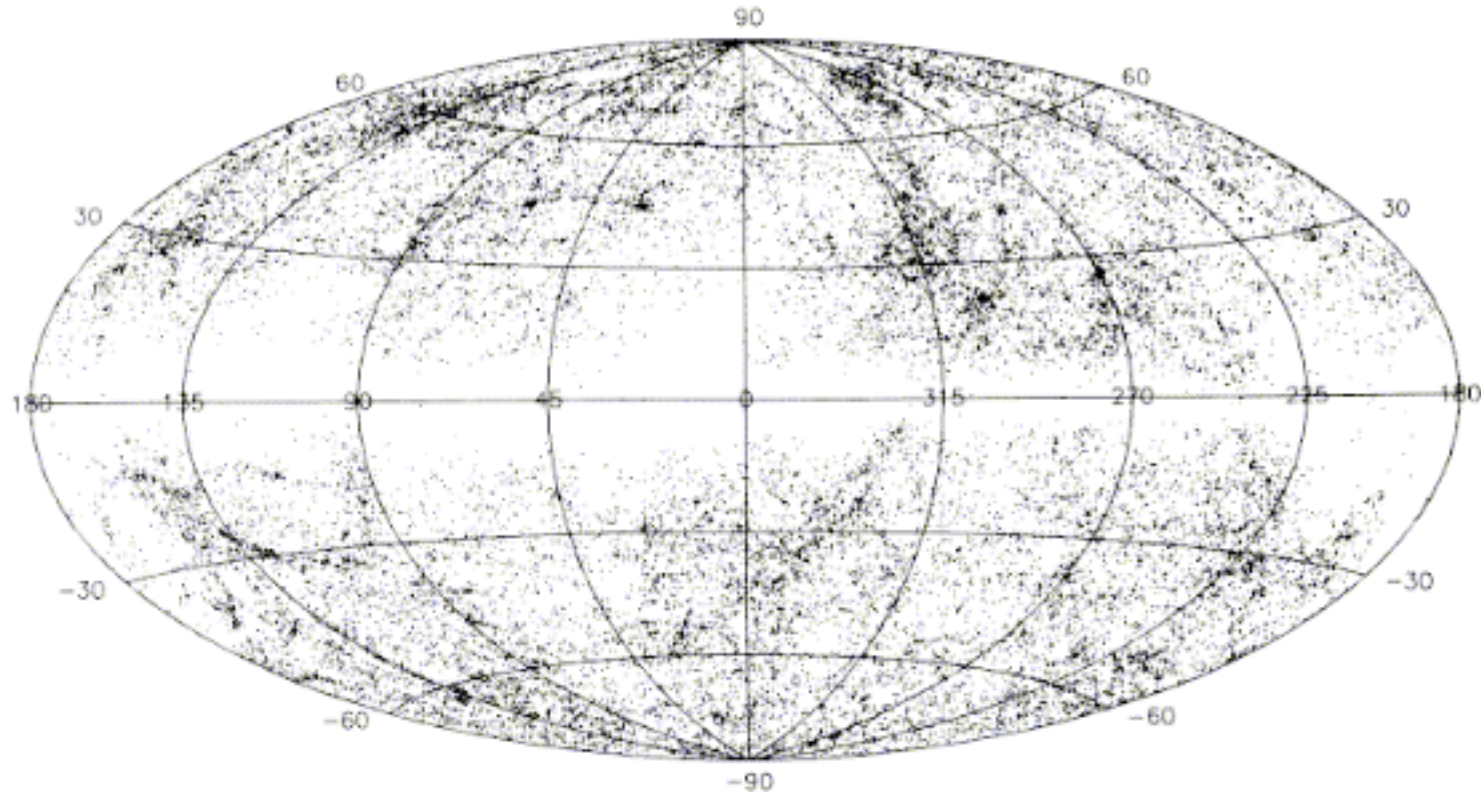
... and why should it matter?

Spiral & Elliptical Galaxies: M31 and its Companions



An Island Universe or Island Universes?

The Nature of the Spiral Nebulae Are They Milky Way Objects or External Galaxies? The Shapley-Curtis Debate (1921)



Galaxies on the Sky: The Zone of Avoidance

Spiral nebulae seem to avoid the galactic plane and do not appear centered on or concentrated toward the galactic center like the globular clusters.

The Shapley-Curtis Debate (1921)

What are the Spiral Nebulae?

They are

Other Galaxies (Curtis)
Zone of Avoidance

Milky Way Objects (Shapley)
“Observed” rotation (van Maanen)
Emission line (gaseous) spectra

The Matter is Finally Resolved

Edwin P. Hubble (1889 - 1953)

1923: Hubble resolves individual stars (including Cepheid Variables) in the spiral nebulae M31 and M33 - and in the Irregular Galaxy NGC 6822.

Distance to M31 determined to be about 300 kiloparsecs* (about 900,000 light years) via the (wrong) Cepheid Period-Luminosity Relation.

(The actual distance to M31 is 773 kiloparsecs (kpc) based upon the correct P - L relations, binary star observations, and observations of other luminous classes of stars.)

* A kiloparsec is 1,000 parsecs = 3,262 light-years = 3.0856×10^{19} meters

So the “Copernican” question now concerns the relationship of our Galaxy to the other galaxies in the universe - and the distribution of galaxies in space.

But now things get more interesting

More from Edwin Hubble:

The external universe of galaxies looks the same in all directions.
(Numbers of galaxies, types of galaxies, brightness of galaxies,...)
i.e., The universe appears isotropic from our location.

External galaxies all seem to be receding from us with speeds which increase in direct proportion to their distances

$$v_{\text{radial}} = H_0 d$$

This linear relation (and the value of the “Hubble Constant” H_0) is the same in all directions; this relation is also isotropic.

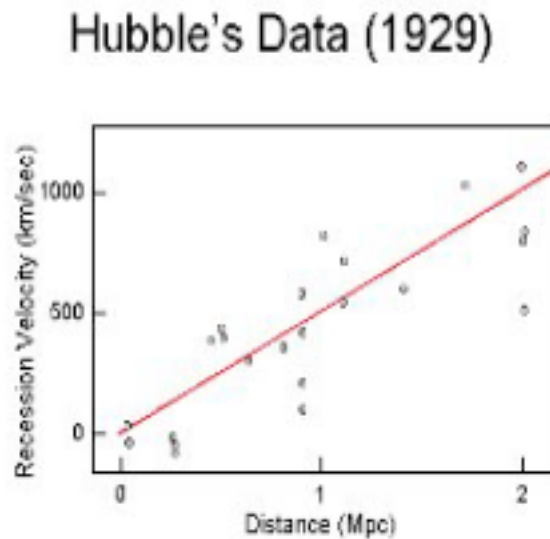
Hubble has discovered that the Universe is expanding!

Important: The fact that the observed “expansion” is both linear and isotropic implies that this universe of galaxies is homogeneous.

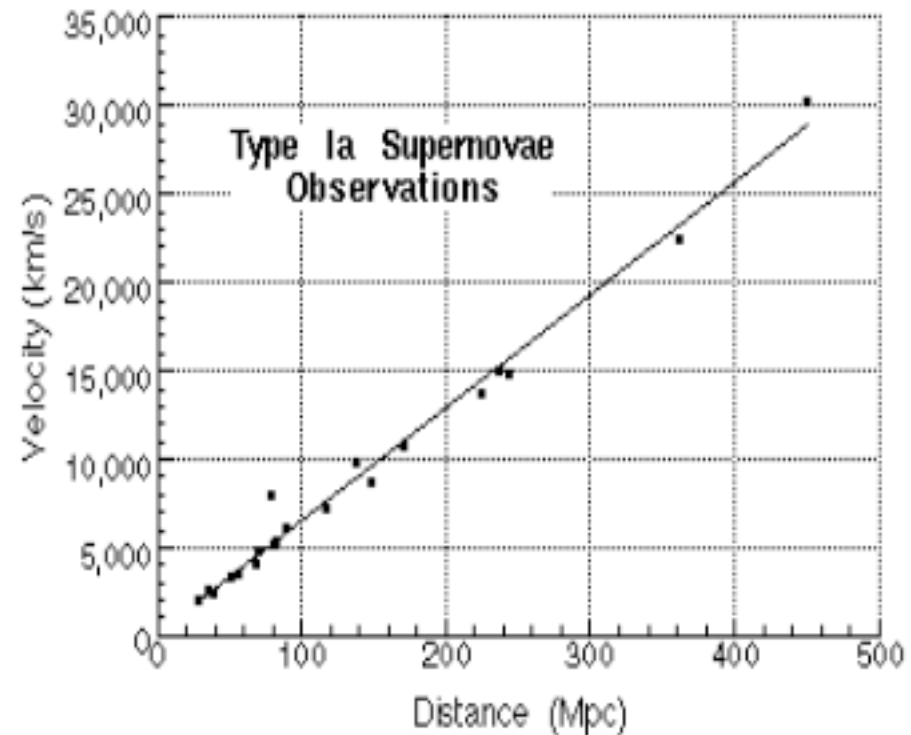
Translation: The external universe would look the same from any location within it.

An present-day observer on some distant galaxy would see the same isotropic distribution of galaxies, the same isotropic expansion about its location, and obtain the same value for the Hubble Constant.

Digression: The Hubble Constant and the Age of the Universe



$$H_0 = 500 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$$



$$H_0 = 65 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$$

The Age of the Universe

If the universe expands at a constant rate (it doesn't) so H_0 always has had the same value then the age of the universe is simply the "Hubble Time" $T_0 = 1/H_0$

Example: $T = 15 \text{ Gyr}$ if $H_0 = 65 \text{ km/s/Mpc}$

The Copernican Principle in Cosmology

The Cosmological Principle

The Universe on large scales is spatially homogeneous and isotropic.
“At any given time, the universe looks the same from all locations.”

There is no “special place” in the Universe
... not the Earth, not the Sun, not our galaxy - nor any other location.
The Universe does not have a “center”

This Cosmological Principle constitutes a testable hypothesis: It has been tested again and again as the universe is observed to greater distances - and at earlier times*.

*The “**Perfect Cosmological Principle**” (Hoyle, Gold, & Bondi, 1948) considered an expanding universe that was, nonetheless, unchanging in time - as well as being spatially homogeneous and isotropic. This was a well-motivated hypothesis which was testable (“falsifiable”). It was, in fact, falsified through observations of the early universe. See “Steady State Cosmology”

...but more on all of this later.