1 Tools for Success in ASTR 105G

1.1 Introduction
Astronomy is a physical science. Just like biology, chemistry, geology, and physics, astronomers collect data, analyze that data, attempt to understand the object/subject they are looking at, and submit their results for publication. Along the way, astronomers use all of the mathematical techniques and physics necessary to understand the objects they examine. Thus, just like any other science, a large number of mathematical tools and concepts are needed to perform astronomical research. In today’s introductory lab, you will review and learn some of the most basic concepts necessary to enable you to successfully complete the various laboratory exercises you will encounter during this semester. When needed, the weekly laboratory exercise you are performing will refer back to the examples in this introduction—so keep the completed examples you will do today with you at all times during the semester to use as a reference when you run into these exercises later this semester (in fact, on some occasions your TA might have you redo one of the sections of this lab for review purposes).

1.2 The Metric System
Like all other scientists, astronomers use the metric system. The metric system is based on powers of 10, and has a set of measurement units analogous to the English system we use in everyday life here in the US. In the metric system the main unit of length (or distance) is the meter, the unit of mass is the kilogram, and the unit of liquid volume is the liter. A meter is approximately 40 inches, or about 4’ longer than the yard. Thus, 100 meters is about 111 yards. A liter is slightly larger than a quart (1.0 liter = 1.101 qt). On the Earth’s surface, a kilogram = 2.2 pounds.

As you have almost certainly learned, the metric system uses prefixes to change scale. For example, one thousand meters is one “kilometer.” One thousandth of a meter is a “millimeter.” The prefixes that you will encounter in this class are listed in Table 1.2.

In the metric system, 3,600 meters is equal to 3.6 kilometers; 0.8 meter is equal to 80 centimeters, which in turn equals 800 millimeters, etc. In the lab exercises this semester we will encounter a large range in sizes and distances. For example, you will measure the sizes of some objects/things in class in millimeters, talk about the wavelength of light in nanometers, and measure the sizes of features on planets that are larger than 1,000 kilometers.
1.3 Beyond the Metric System

When we talk about the sizes or distances to objects beyond the surface of the Earth, we begin to encounter very large numbers. For example, the average distance from the Earth to the Moon is 384,000,000 meters or 384,000 kilometers (km). The distances found in astronomy are usually so large that we have to switch to a unit of measurement that is much larger than the meter, or even the kilometer. In and around the solar system, astronomers use “Astronomical Units.” An Astronomical Unit is the mean (average) distance between the Earth and the Sun. One Astronomical Unit (AU) = 149,600,000 km. For example, Jupiter is about 5 AU from the Sun, while Pluto’s average distance from the Sun is 39 AU. With this change in units, it is easy to talk about the distance to other planets. It is more convenient to say that Saturn is 9.54 AU away than it is to say that Saturn is 1,427,184,000 km from Earth.

1.4 Changing Units and Scale Conversion

Changing units (like those in the previous paragraph) and/or scale conversion is something you must master during this semester. You already do this in your everyday life whether you know it or not (for example, if you travel to Mexico and you want to pay for a Coke in pesos), so do not panic! Let’s look at some examples (2 points each):

1. Convert 34 meters into centimeters:

Answer: Since one meter = 100 centimeters, 34 meters = 3,400 centimeters.

2. Convert 34 kilometers into meters:
3. If one meter equals 40 inches, how many meters are there in 400 inches?

4. How many centimeters are there in 400 inches?

5. In August 2003, Mars made its closest approach to Earth for the next 50,000 years. At that time, it was only about .373 AU away from Earth. How many km is this?

1.4.1 Map Exercises

One technique that you will use this semester involves measuring a photograph or image with a ruler, and converting the measured number into a real unit of size (or distance). One example of this technique is reading a road map. Figure 1.1 shows a map of the state of New Mexico. Down at the bottom left hand corner of the map is a scale in both miles and kilometers.

Use a ruler to determine (2 points each):

6. How many kilometers is it from Las Cruces to Albuquerque?

7. What is the distance in miles from the border with Arizona to the border with Texas if you were to drive along I-40?

8. If you were to drive 100 km/hr (kph), how long would it take you to go from Las Cruces to Albuquerque?

9. If one mile = 1.6 km, how many miles per hour (mph) is 100 kph?
Figure 1.1: Map of New Mexico.
1.5 Squares, Square Roots, and Exponents

In several of the labs this semester you will encounter squares, cubes, and square roots. Let us briefly review what is meant by such terms as squares, cubes, square roots and exponents. The square of a number is simply that number times itself: \( 3 \times 3 = 3^2 = 9 \). The exponent is the little number “2” above the three. \( 5^2 = 5 \times 5 = 25 \). The exponent tells you how many times to multiply that number by itself: \( 8^4 = 8 \times 8 \times 8 \times 8 = 4096 \). The square of a number simply means the exponent is 2 (three squared = \( 3^2 \)), and the cube of a number means the exponent is three (four cubed = \( 4^3 \)). Here are some examples:

- \( 7^2 = 7 \times 7 = 49 \)
- \( 7^5 = 7 \times 7 \times 7 \times 7 \times 7 = 16,807 \)
- The cube of 9 (or “9 cubed”) \( = 9^3 = 9 \times 9 \times 9 = 729 \)
- The exponent of \( 12^{16} \) is 16
- \( 2.56^3 = 2.56 \times 2.56 \times 2.56 = 16.777 \)

Your turn (2 points each):

10. \( 6^3 = \) 
11. \( 4^4 = \) 
12. \( 3.1^2 = \) 

The concept of a square root is fairly easy to understand, but is much harder to calculate (we usually have to use a calculator). The square root of a number is that number whose square is the number: the square root of 4 = 2 because \( 2 \times 2 = 4 \). The square root of 9 is 3 (\( 9 = 3 \times 3 \)). The mathematical operation of a square root is usually represented by the symbol “\( \sqrt{\phantom{x}} \)”, as in \( \sqrt{9} = 3 \). But mathematicians also represent square roots using a fractional exponent of one half: \( 9^{1/2} = 3 \). Likewise, the cube root of a number is represented as \( 27^{1/3} = 3 \) (\( 3 \times 3 \times 3 = 27 \)). The fourth root is written as \( 16^{1/4} (= 2) \), and so on. Here are some example problems:
\[ \sqrt{100} = 10 \]

\[ 10.5^3 = 10.5 \times 10.5 \times 10.5 = 1157.625 \]

- Verify that the square root of 17 \( (\sqrt{17} = 17^{1/2}) = 4.123 \)

### 1.6 Scientific Notation

The range in numbers encountered in Astronomy is enormous: from the size of subatomic particles, to the size of the entire universe. You are certainly comfortable with numbers like ten, one hundred, three thousand, ten million, a billion, or even a trillion. But what about a number like one million trillion? Or, four thousand one hundred and fifty six million billion? Such numbers are too cumbersome to handle with words. Scientists use something called “Scientific Notation” as a short hand method to represent very large and very small numbers. The system of scientific notation is based on the number 10. For example, the number 100 = 10 \times 10 = 10^2. In scientific notation the number 100 is written as \( 1.0 \times 10^2 \). Here are some additional examples:

- Ten = 10 = 1 \times 10 = 1.0 \times 10^1
- One hundred = 100 = 10 \times 10 = 10^2 = 1.0 \times 10^2
- One thousand = 1,000 = 10 \times 10 \times 10 = 10^3 = 1.0 \times 10^3
- One million = 1,000,000 = 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 = 10^6 = 1.0 \times 10^6

Ok, so writing powers of ten is easy, but how do we write 6,563 in scientific notation? 6,563 = 6563.0 = 6.563 \times 10^3. To figure out the exponent on the power of ten, we simply count the numbers to the left of the decimal point, but do not include the left-most number. Here are some more examples:

- 1,216 = 1216.0 = 1.216 \times 10^3
- 8,735,000 = 8735000.0 = 8.735000 \times 10^6
- 1,345,999,123,456 = 1345999123456.0 = 1.345999123456 \times 10^{12} \approx 1.346 \times 10^{12}
Note that in the last example above, we were able to eliminate a lot of the “unnecessary”
digits in that very large number. While 1.345999123456 × 10^{12} is technically correct as the
scientific notation representation of the number 1,345,999,123,456, we do not need to keep
**all** of the digits to the right of the decimal place. We can keep just a few, and approximate
that number as 1.346 × 10^{12}.

**Your turn! Work the following examples (2 points each):**

13. \(121 = 121.0 =\)

14. \(735,000 =\)

15. \(999,563.982 =\)

Now comes the sometimes confusing issue: writing very small numbers. First, let’s look at
powers of 10, but this time in fractional form. The number \(0.1 = \frac{1}{10}\). In scientific notation
we would write this as \(1 \times 10^{-1}\). The negative number in the exponent is the way we write
the fraction \(\frac{1}{10}\). How about 0.001? We can rewrite 0.001 as \(\frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{10} = 0.001 = 1 \times 10^{-3}\). Do you see where the exponent comes from? Starting at the decimal point, we simply
count over to the **right** of the first digit that isn’t zero to determine the exponent. Here are
some examples:

- \(0.121 = 1.21 \times 10^{-1}\)
- \(0.000735 = 7.35 \times 10^{-4}\)
- \(0.0000099902 = 9.9902 \times 10^{-6}\)

**Your turn (2 points each):**

16. \(0.0121 =\)

17. \(0.000735 =\)

18. \(0.000000999 =\)
There is one issue we haven’t dealt with, and that is *when* to write numbers in scientific notation. It is kind of silly to write the number 23.7 as $2.37 \times 10^1$, or 0.5 as $5.0 \times 10^{-1}$. You use scientific notation when it is a more compact way to write a number to insure that its value is quickly and easily communicated to someone else. For example, if you tell someone the answer for some measurement is 0.0033 meter, the person receiving that information has to count over the zeros to figure out what that means. It is better to say that the measurement was $3.3 \times 10^{-3}$ meter. But telling someone the answer is 215 kg, is much easier than saying $2.15 \times 10^2$ kg. It is common practice that numbers bigger than 10,000 or smaller than 0.01 are best written in scientific notation.

### 1.7 Calculator Issues

Since you will be using calculators in nearly all of the labs this semester, you should become familiar with how to use them for functions beyond simple arithmetic.

#### 1.7.1 Scientific Notation on a Calculator

Scientific notation on a calculator is usually designated with an “E.” For example, if you see the number 8.778046E11 on your calculator, this is the same as the number $8.778046 \times 10^{11}$. Similarly, 1.4672E-05 is equivalent to $1.4672 \times 10^{-5}$.

Entering numbers in scientific notation into your calculator depends on layout of your calculator; we cannot tell you which buttons to push without seeing your specific calculator. However, the “E” button described above is often used, so to enter $6.589 \times 10^7$, you may need to type 6.589 “E” 7.

Verify that you can enter the following numbers into your calculator:

- $7.99921 \times 10^{21}$
- $2.2951324 \times 10^{-6}$

#### 1.7.2 Order of Operations

When performing a complex calculation, the order of operations is extremely important. There are several rules that need to be followed:

i. Calculations must be done from left to right.

ii. Calculations in brackets (parenthesis) are done first. When you have more than one set of brackets, do the inner brackets first.
iii. Exponents (or radicals) must be done next.

iv. Multiply and divide in the order the operations occur.

v. Add and subtract in the order the operations occur.

If you are using a calculator to enter a long equation, when in doubt as to whether the calculator will perform operations in the correct order, apply parentheses.

Use your calculator to perform the following calculations (2 points each):

\[
20. \frac{(7+34)}{(2+23)} = \\
21. (4^2 + 5) - 3 = \\
22. 20 \div (12 - 2) \times 3^2 - 2 = 
\]

1.8 Graphing and/or Plotting

Now we want to discuss graphing data. You probably learned about making graphs in high school. Astronomers frequently use graphs to plot data. You have probably seen all sorts of graphs, such as the plot of the performance of the stock market shown in Fig. 1.2. A plot like this shows the history of the stock market versus time. The “x” (horizontal) axis represents time, and the “y” (vertical) axis represents the value of the stock market. Each place on the curve that shows the performance of the stock market is represented by two numbers, the date (x axis), and the value of the index (y axis). For example, on May 10 of 2004, the Dow Jones index stood at 10,000.

Plots like this require two data points to represent each point on the curve or in the plot. For comparing the stock market you need to plot the value of the stocks versus the date. We call data of this type an “ordered pair.” Each data point requires a value for \( x \) (the date) and \( y \) (the value of the Dow Jones index).

Table 1.2 contains data showing how the temperature changes with altitude near the Earth’s surface. As you climb in altitude, the temperature goes down (this is why high mountains can have snow on them year round, even though they are located in warm areas). The data points in this table are plotted in Figure 1.3.

1.8.1 The Mechanics of Plotting

When you are asked to plot some data, there are several things to keep in mind.
First of all, the plot axes **must be labeled**. This will be emphasized throughout the semester. In order to quickly look at a graph and determine what information is being conveyed, it is imperative that both the x-axis and y-axis have labels.

Secondly, if you are creating a plot, choose the numerical range for your axes such that the data fit nicely on the plot. For example, if you were to plot the data shown in Table 1.2, with altitude on the y-axis, you would want to choose your range of y-values to be something like 0 to 18,000. If, for example, you drew your y-axis going from 0 to 100,000, then all of the data would be compressed towards the lower portion of the page. It is important to choose your *ranges* for the x and y axes so they bracket the data points.
Figure 1.3: The change in temperature as you climb in altitude with the data from Table 1.2. At sea level (0 ft altitude) the surface temperature is 59°F. As you go higher in altitude, the temperature goes down.

1.8.2 Plotting and Interpreting a Graph

Table 1.3 contains hourly temperature data on January 19, 2006, for two locations: Tucson and Honolulu.

23. On the blank sheet of graph paper in Figure 1.4, plot the hourly temperatures measured for Tucson and Honolulu on 19 January 2006. (4 points)

24. Which city had the highest temperature on 19 January 2006? (2 points)

25. Which city had the highest average temperature? (2 points)
Table 1.3: Hourly Temperature Data from 19 January 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time hh:mm</th>
<th>Tucson Temp. °F</th>
<th>Honolulu Temp. °F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00:00</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01:00</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02:00</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03:00</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04:00</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05:00</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06:00</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07:00</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08:00</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:00</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:00</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:00</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>80.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:00</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td>82.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:00</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15:00</td>
<td>61.7</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:00</td>
<td>61.7</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17:00</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:00</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19:00</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:00</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21:00</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:00</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23:00</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24:00</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26. Which city heated up the fastest in the morning hours? (2 points)

While straight lines and perfect data show up in science from time to time, it is actually quite rare for real data to fit perfectly on top of a line. One reason for this is that all measurements have error. So even though there might be a perfect relationship between $x$ and $y$, the uncertainty of the measurements introduces small deviations from the line. In other cases, the data are approximated by a line. This is sometimes called a best-fit relationship for the data.

### 1.9 Does it Make Sense?

This is a question that you should be asking yourself after every calculation that you do in this class!
One of our primary goals this semester is to help you develop intuition about our solar system. This includes recognizing if an answer that you get “makes sense.” For example, you may be told (or you may eventually know) that Mars is 1.5 AU from Earth. You also know that the Moon is a lot closer to the Earth than Mars is. So if you are asked to calculate the Earth-Moon distance and you get an answer of 4.5 AU, this should alarm you! That would imply that the Moon is three times farther away from Earth than Mars is! And you know that’s not right.

Use your intuition to answer the following questions. In addition to just giving your answer, state why you gave the answer you did. (4 points each)
27. Earth’s diameter is 12,756 km. Jupiter’s diameter is about 11 times this amount. Which makes more sense: Jupiter’s diameter being 19,084 km or 139,822 km?

28. Sound travels through air at roughly 0.331 kilometers per second. If BX 102 suddenly exploded, which would make more sense for when people in Mesilla (almost 5 km away) would hear the blast? About 14.5 seconds later, or about 6.2 minutes later?

29. Water boils at 100 °C. Without knowing anything about the planet Pluto other than the fact that is roughly 40 times farther from the Sun than the Earth is, would you expect the surface temperature of Pluto to be closer to -100° or 50°?

1.10 Putting it All Together

We have covered a lot of tools that you will need to become familiar with in order to complete the labs this semester. Now let’s see how these concepts can be used to answer real questions about our solar system. Remember, ask yourself does this make sense? for each answer that you get!

30. To travel from Las Cruces to New York City by car, you would drive 3585 km. What is this distance in AU? (4 points)
31. The Earth is 4.5 billion years old. The dinosaurs were killed 65 million years ago due to a giant impact by a comet or asteroid that hit the Earth. If we were to compress the history of the Earth from 4.5 billion years into one 24-hour day, at what time would the dinosaurs have been killed? (4 points)

32. The New Horizons spacecraft is traveling at approximately 20 kilometers per second. How long will it take to reach Jupiter, which is roughly 4 AU from Earth? [Hint: see the definition of an AU in Section 1.3 of this lab.] (4 points)