

Radiative Processes in Astrophysics

Prof Wladimir Lyra

Live Oak, 1119-G

Office Hours: Mon 4:00pm-5:00pm

Class hours: Mon/Wed 5:00pm-6:15pm



Quick Bio

Wladimir Lyra

B.Sc. in Astronomy, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro (UFRJ, **Brazil**), 1999-2003.

Research Assistant 2003-2004

Space Telescope Science Institute (*STScI*, Baltimore **MD**)

Cerro Tololo Interamerican Observatory (*CTIO*, La Serena – **Chile**)

European Southern Observatory (*ESO*, Munich – **Germany**)

Lisbon Observatory, **Portugal**.

Ph.D. in Astronomy, Uppsala University (Uppsala, **Sweden**), 2004-2009.

Nordic Institute for Theoretical Physics (*NORDITA*, Stockholm, **Sweden**)

Max-Planck Institute for Astronomy (*MPIA*, Heidelberg, **Germany**)

Postdoctoral Researcher

American Museum of Natural History (*AMNH*, New York **NY**), 2009-2011.

Jet Propulsion Laboratory (NASA-JPL/Caltech, Pasadena **CA**), 2011-2015.

Stellar Astrophysics, Planetary Sciences

Solar-type stars, extrasolar planets, star formation, *circumstellar disks and planet formation*.

Hydrodynamics, plasma physics, turbulence, life in the universe, *icy moons and Europa*.

Grading

Homework *(1/2)*

Exams *(1/2)*

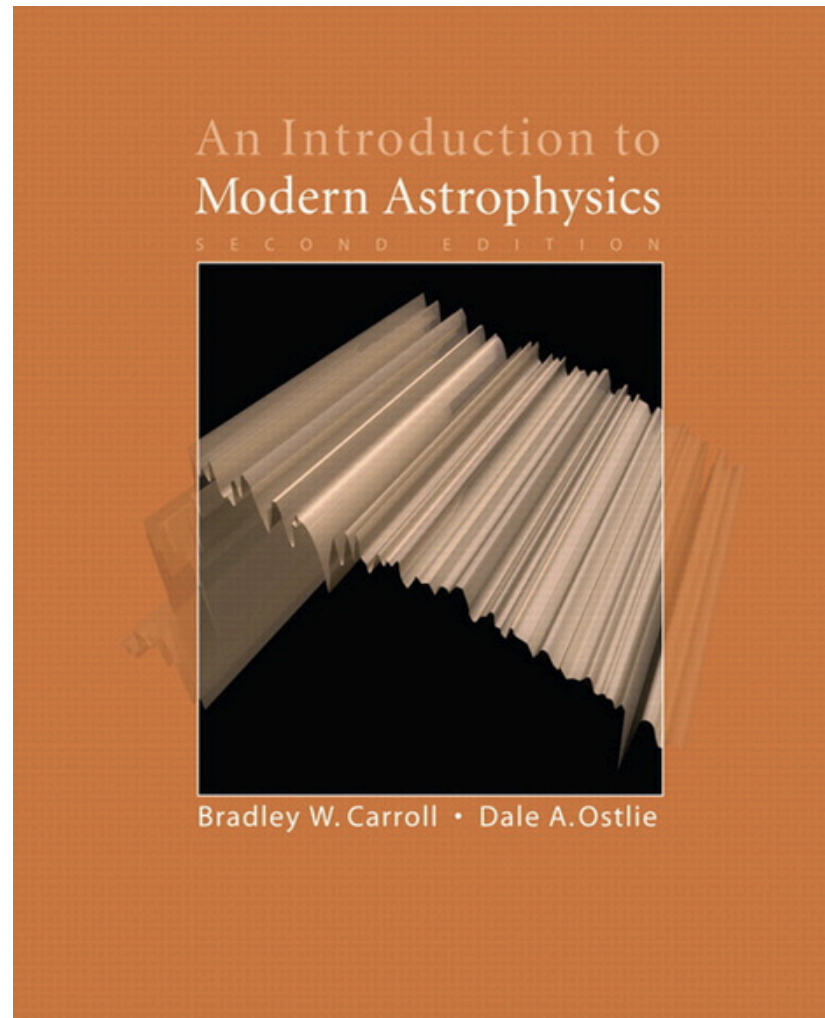
Midterm

Exam

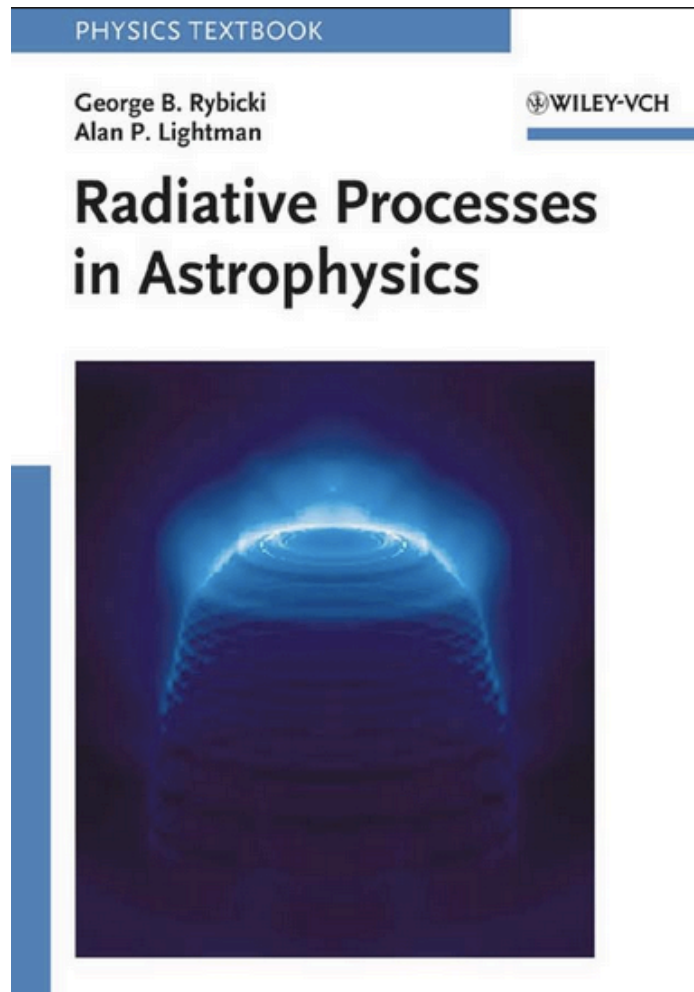
Topics

- Radiative Transfer
- Stellar Structure
- Stellar Evolution
- Magnetohydrodynamics
- Cosmology

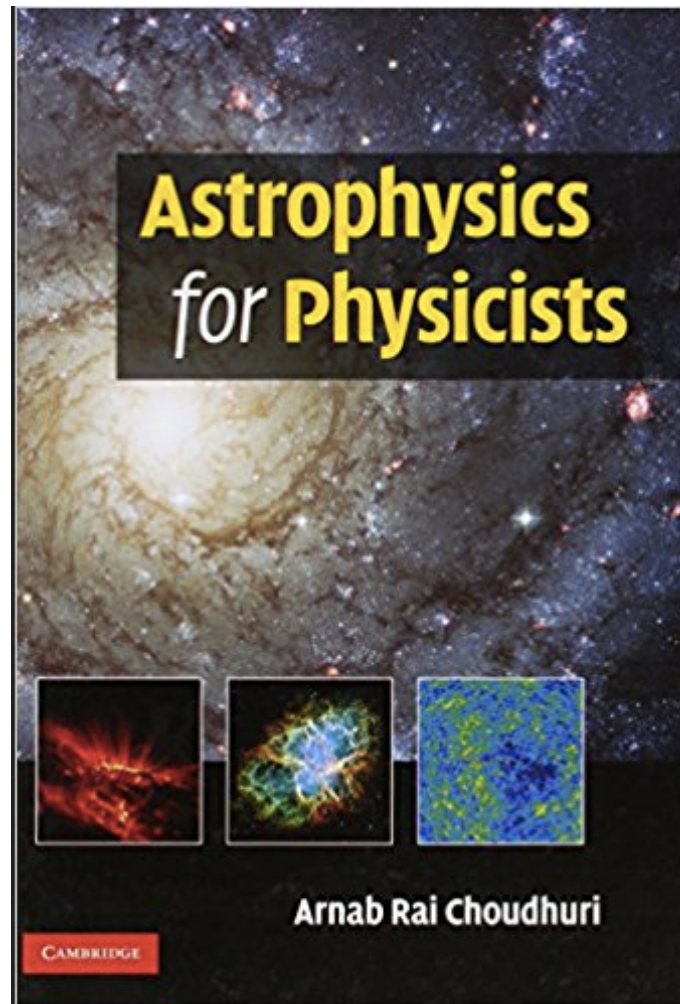
Books (or lack thereof)



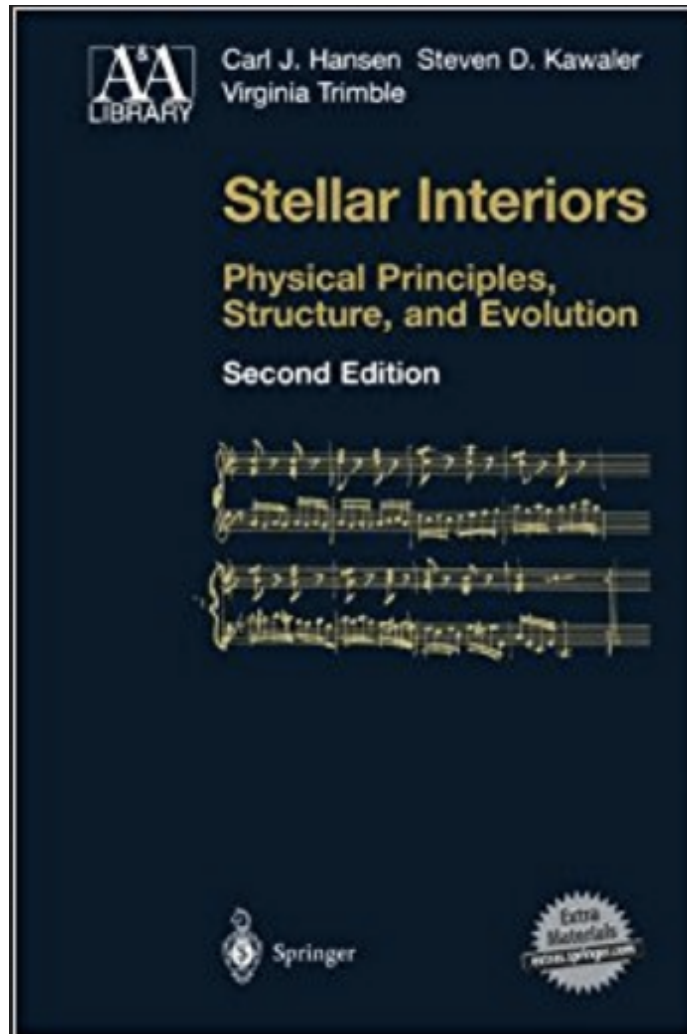
Books (or lack thereof)



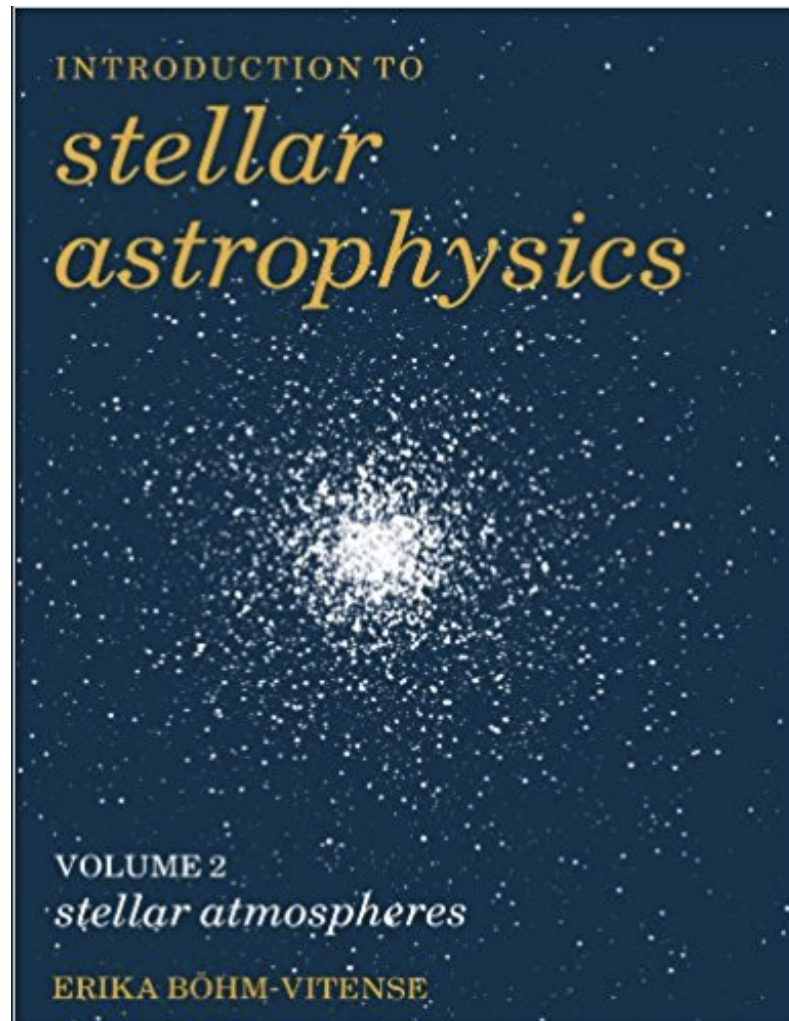
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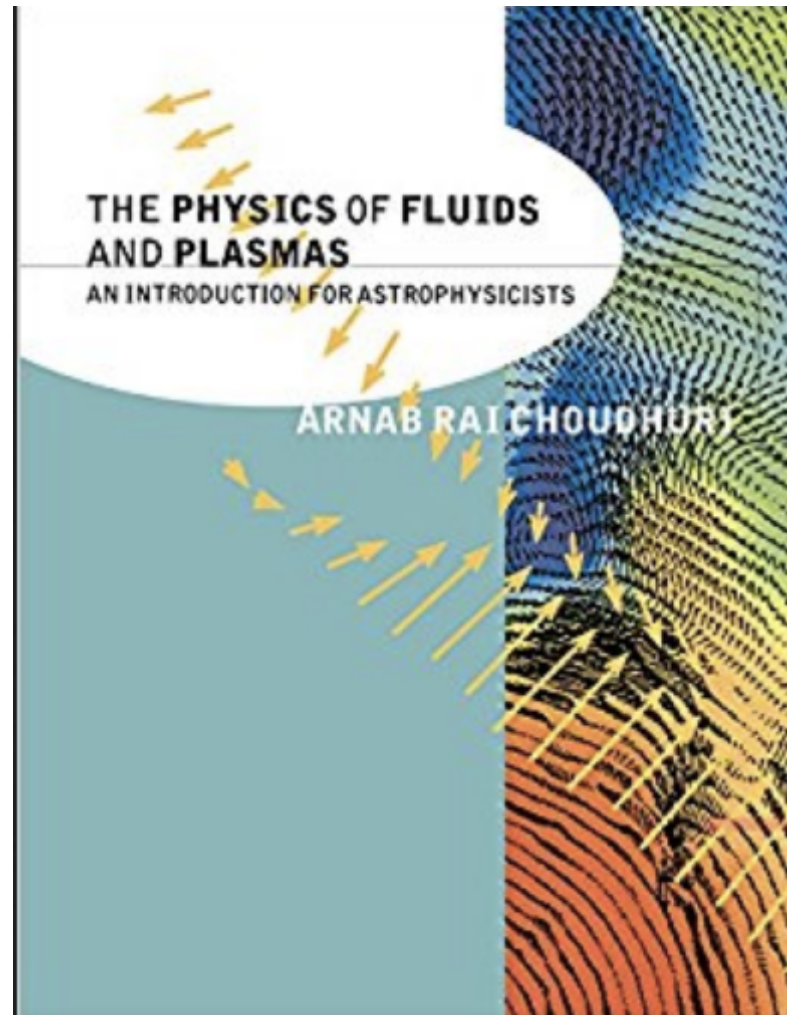
Books (or lack thereof)



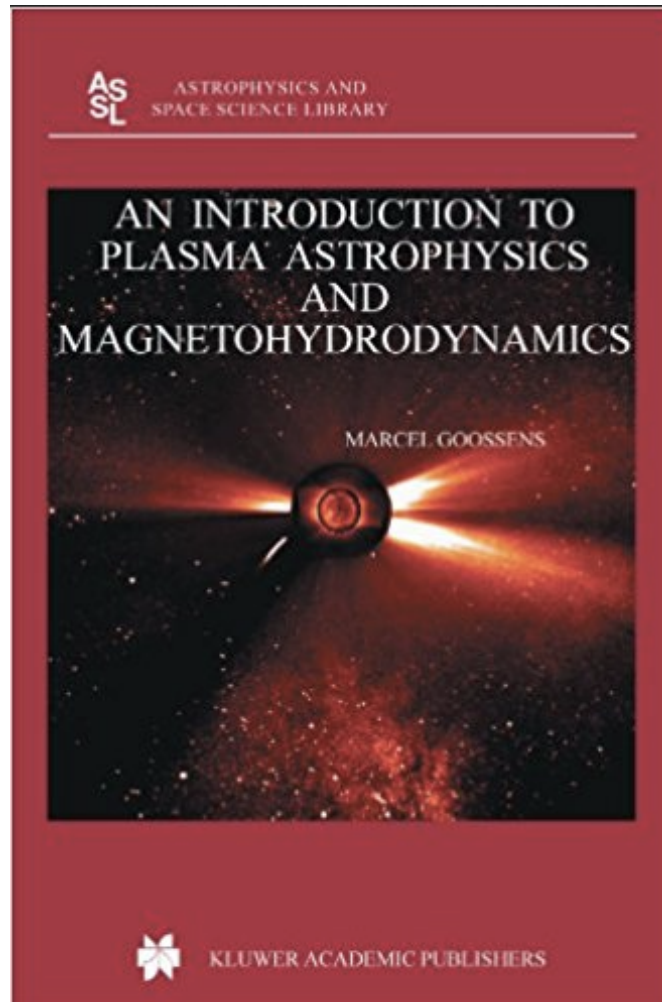
Books (or lack thereof)



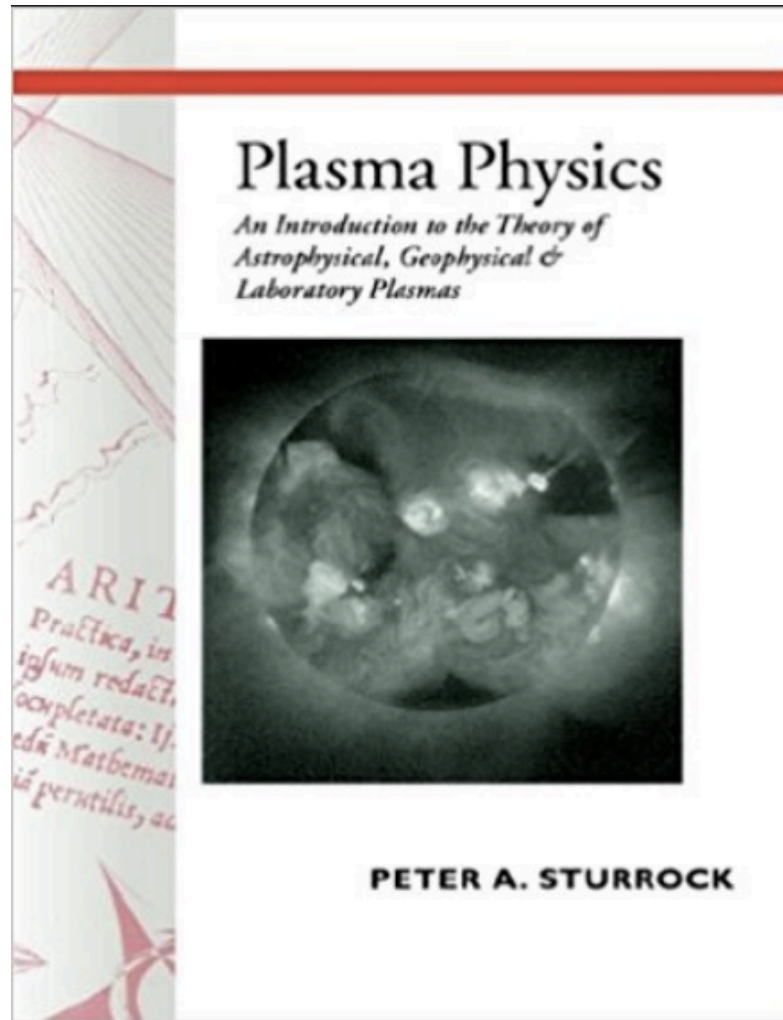
Books (or lack thereof)



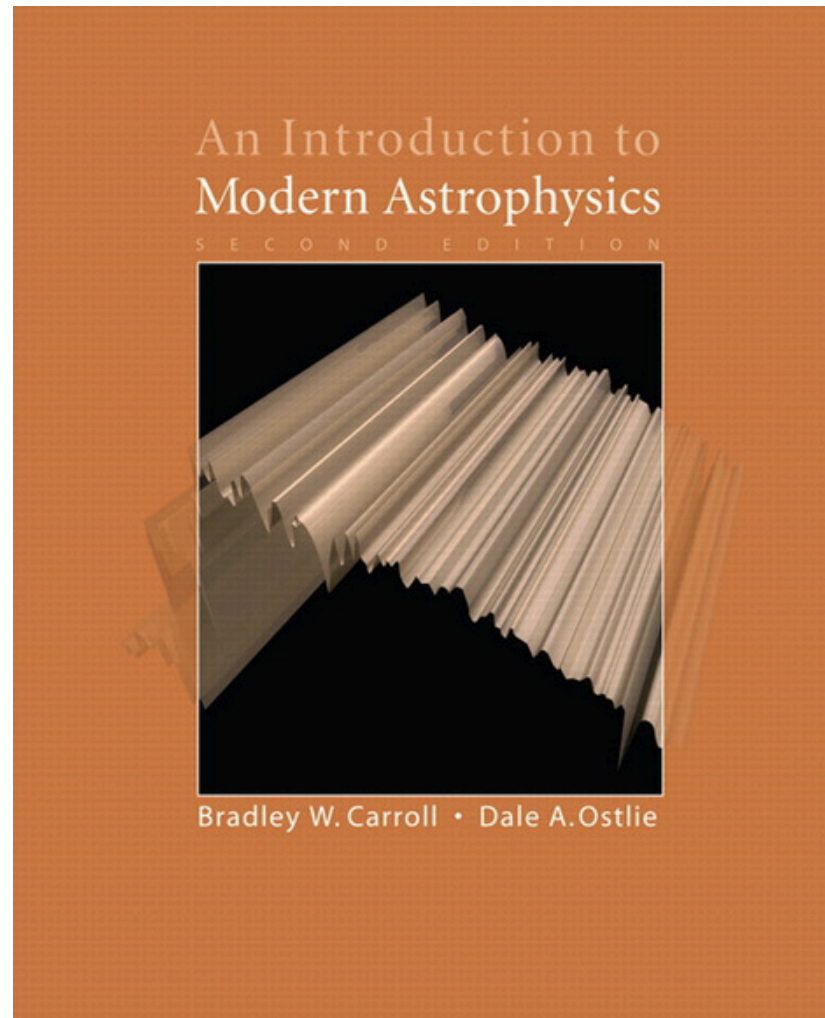
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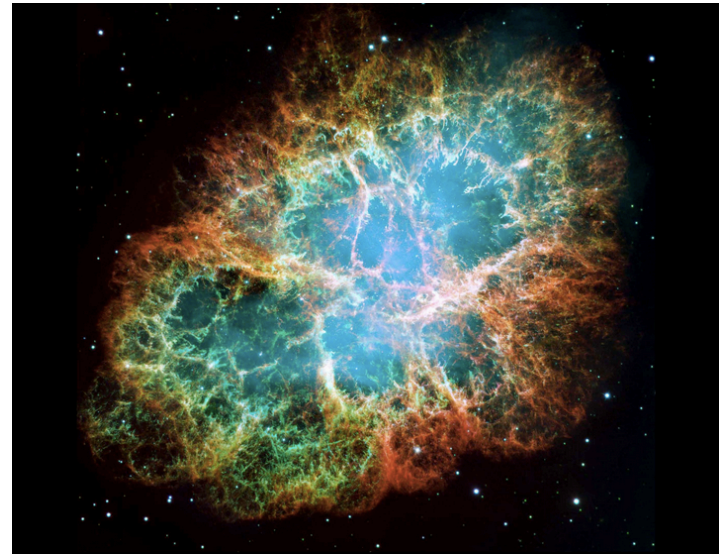


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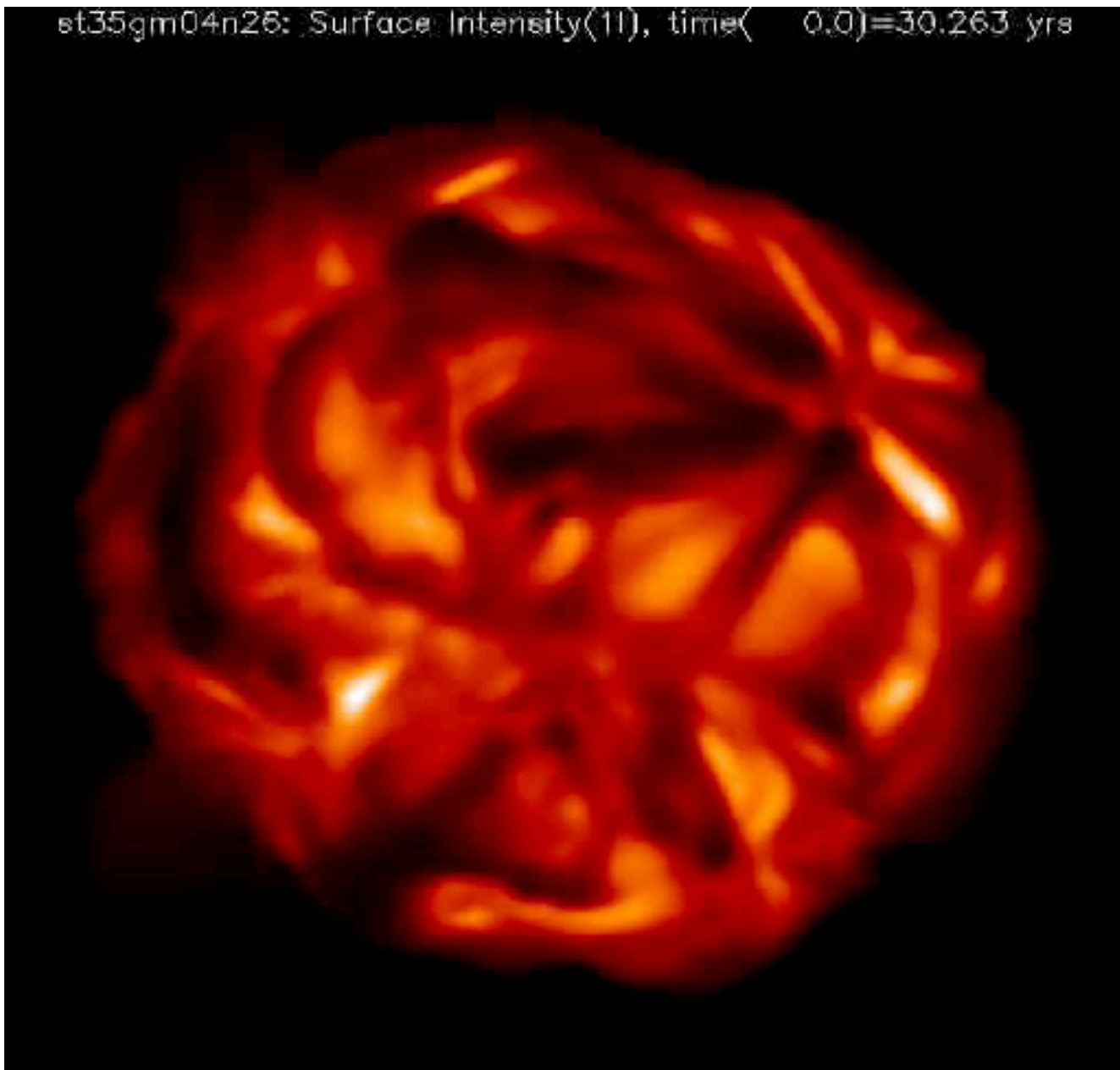


Books (or lack thereof)

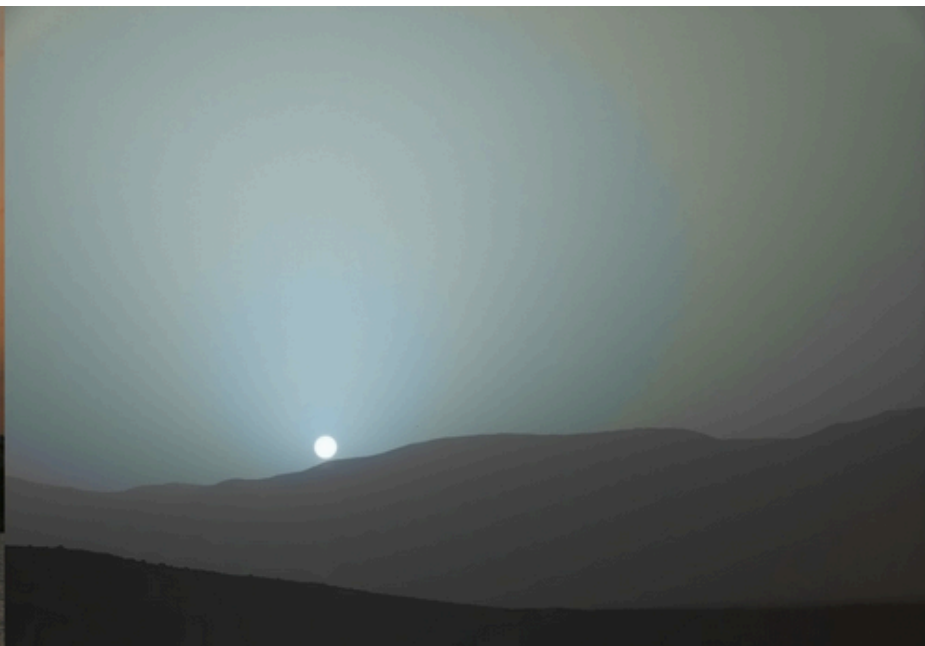




st35gm04n26: Surface Intensity(11), time(0.0)=30.263 yrs

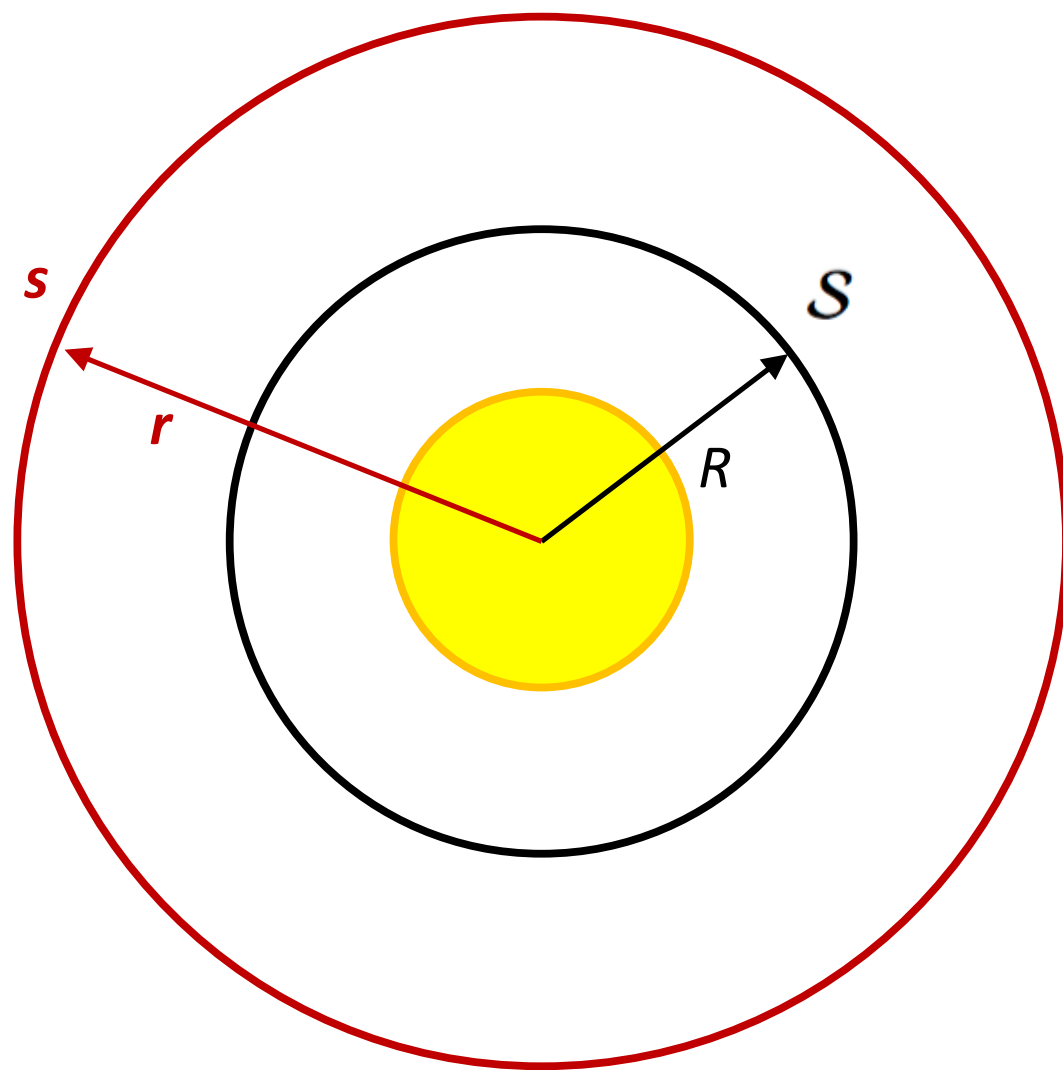


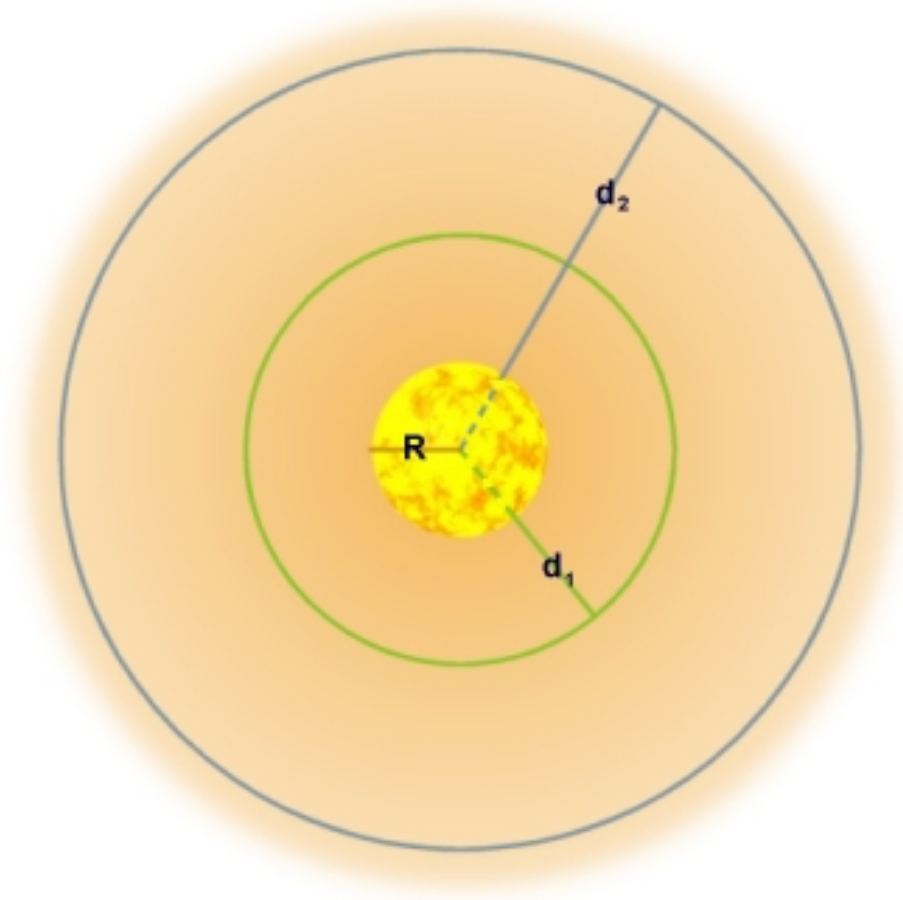




Outline

- ✓ Principles of Radiative Transfer



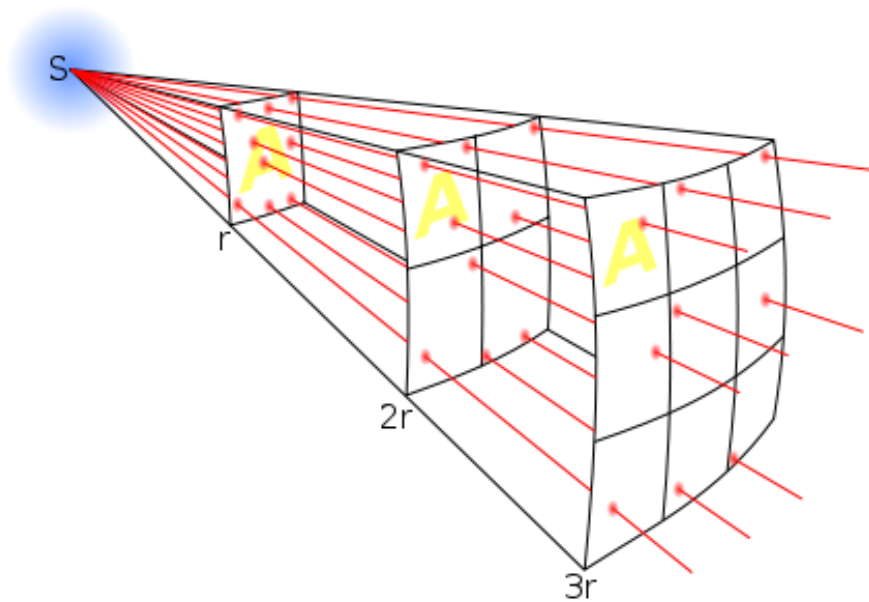


Inverse Square Law

$$f_1 = \frac{L}{4\pi d_1^2}$$

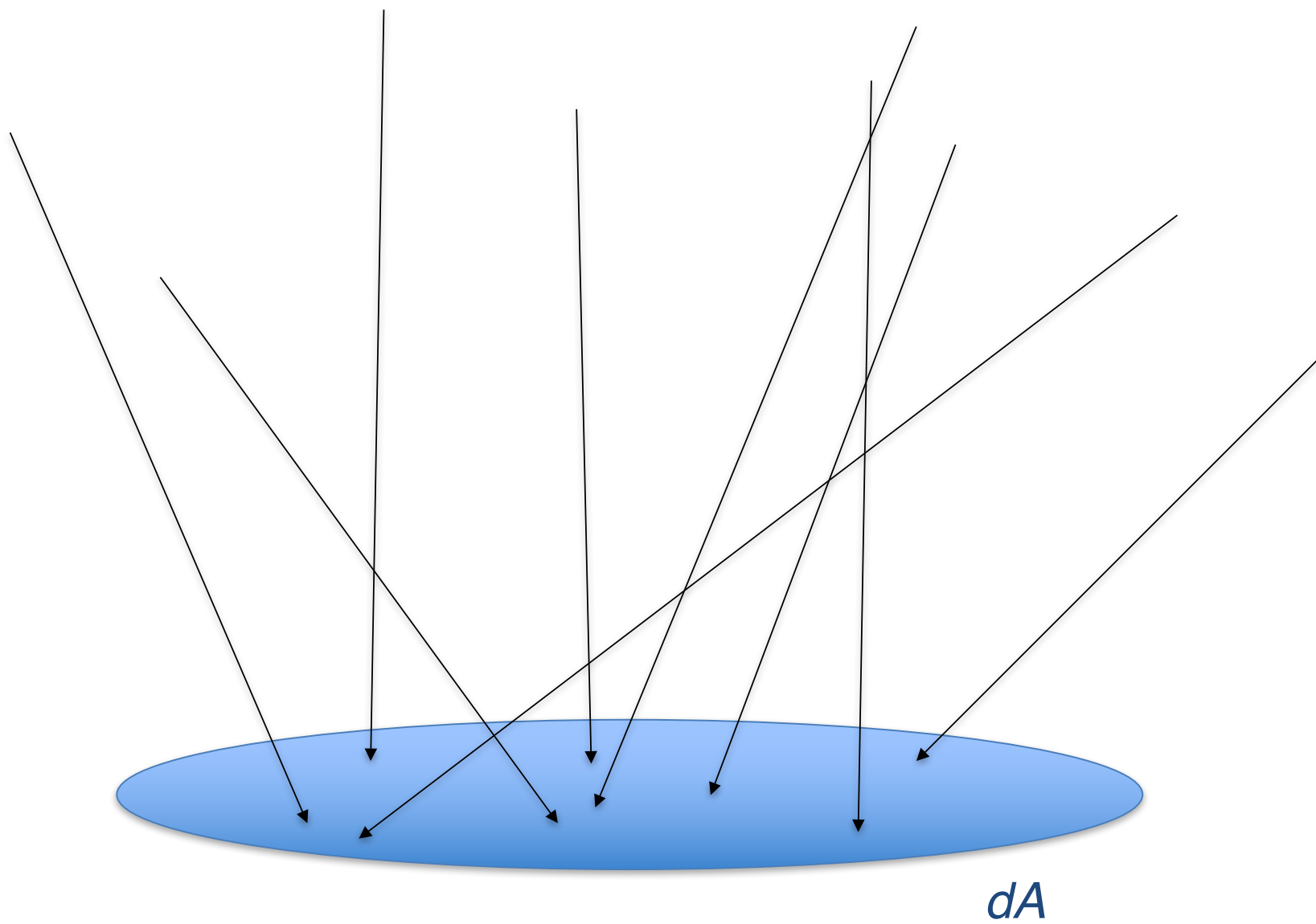
$$f_2 = \frac{L}{4\pi d_2^2}$$

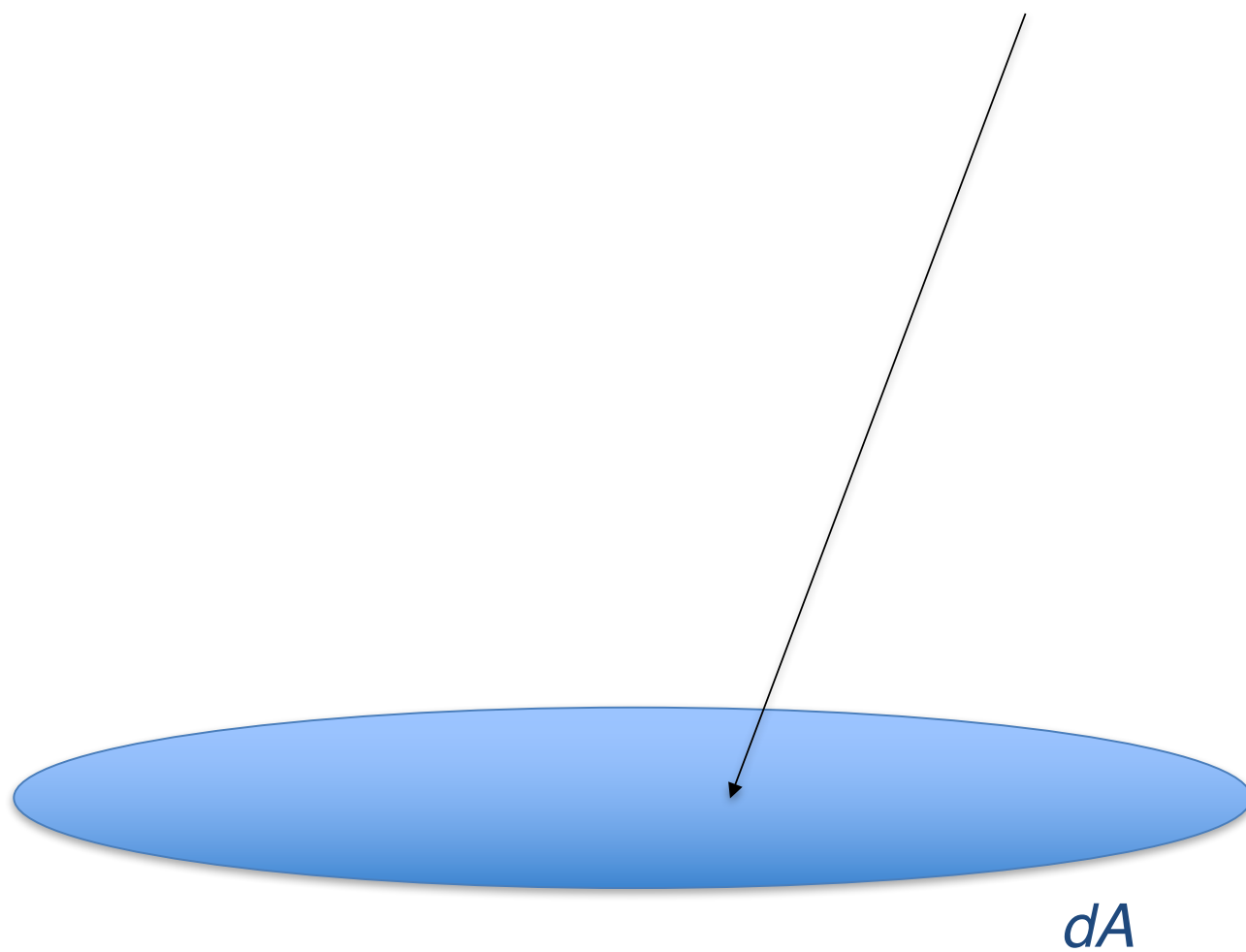
$L = \text{constant}$
 $f_2 < f_1$



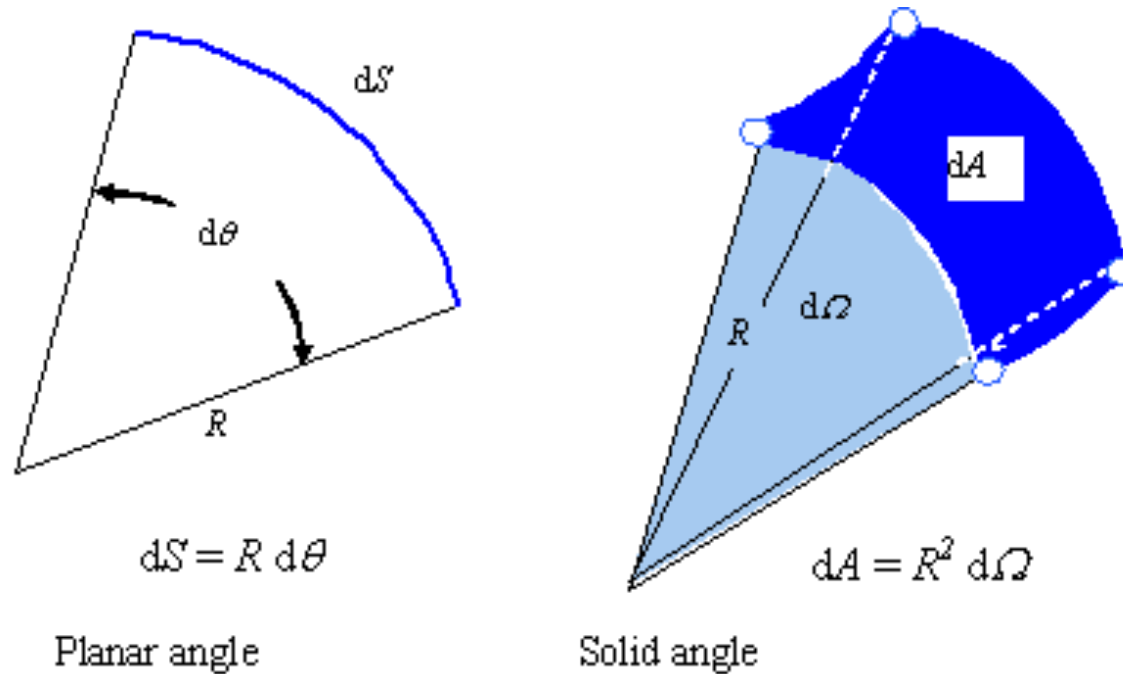
$$F \propto 1 / r^2$$

As distance increases, the same energy
spreads through a larger area

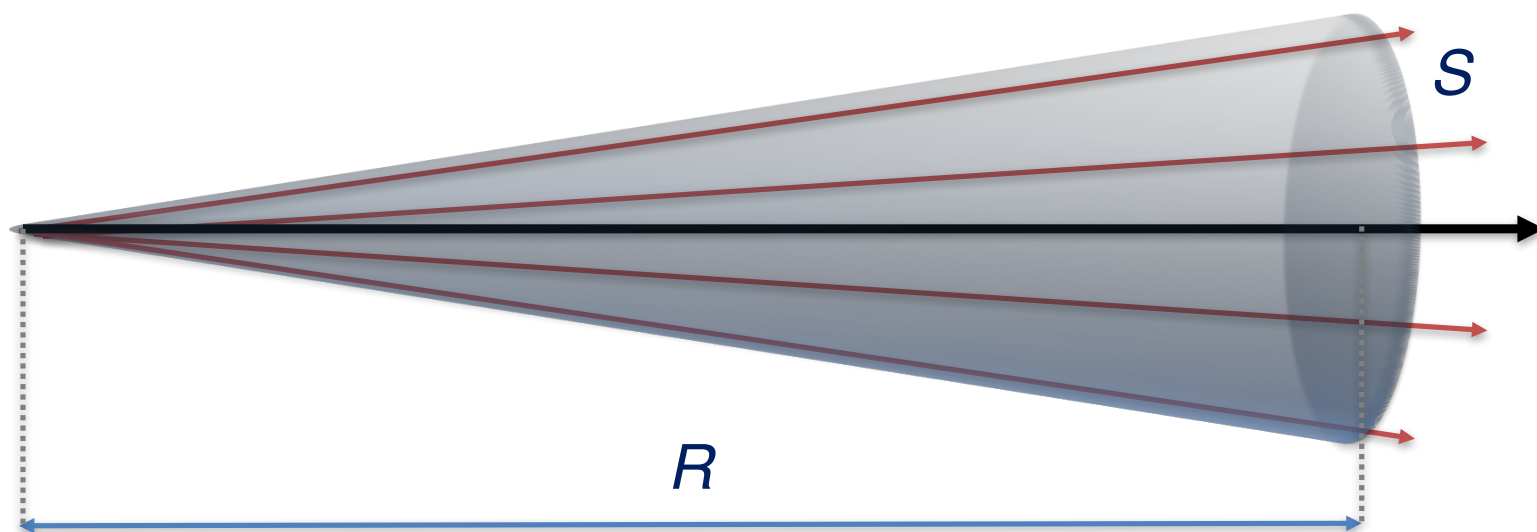




Planar vs solid angle

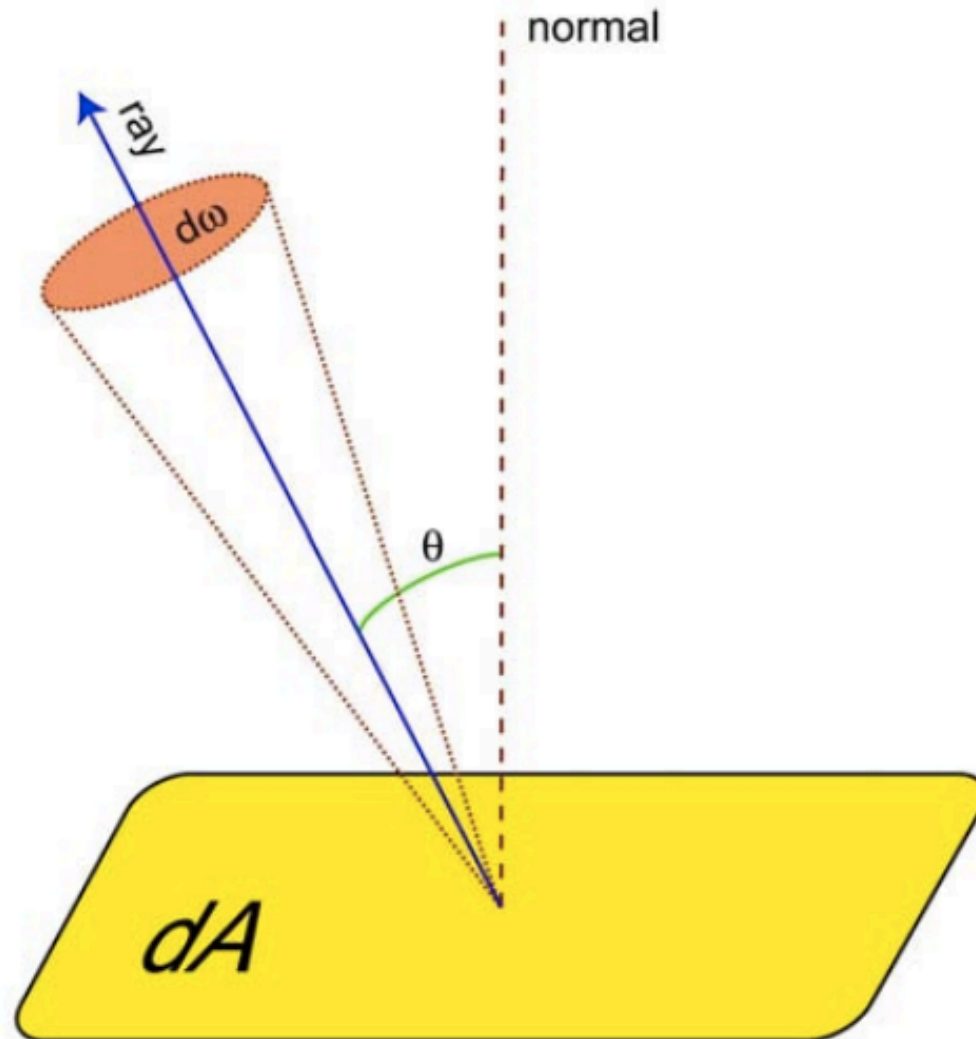


A planar angle encloses a length in the circumference of a circle;
Likewise, a solid angle encloses an area on the surface of a sphere.

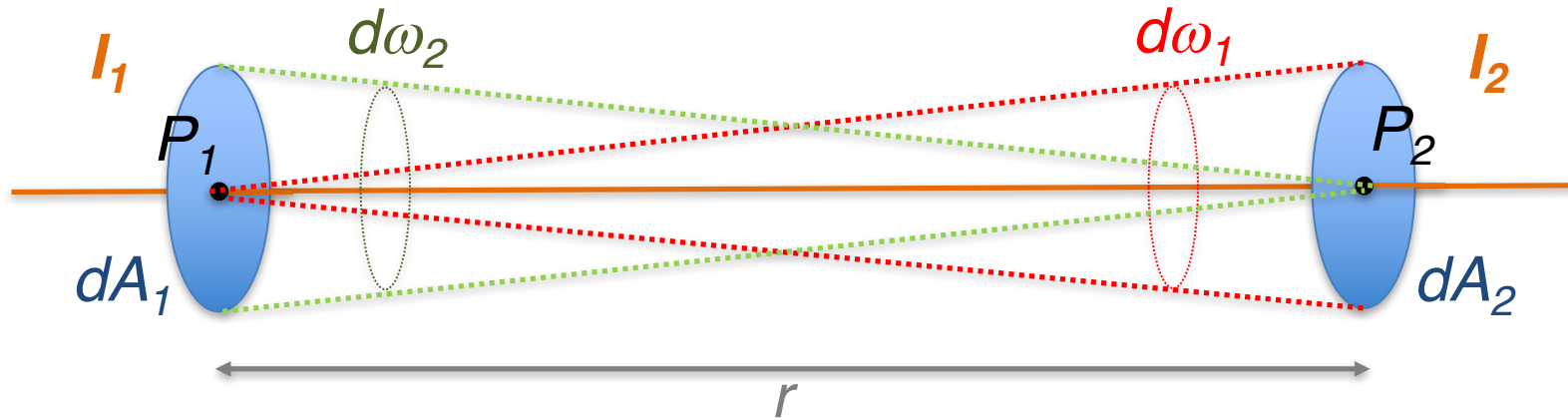


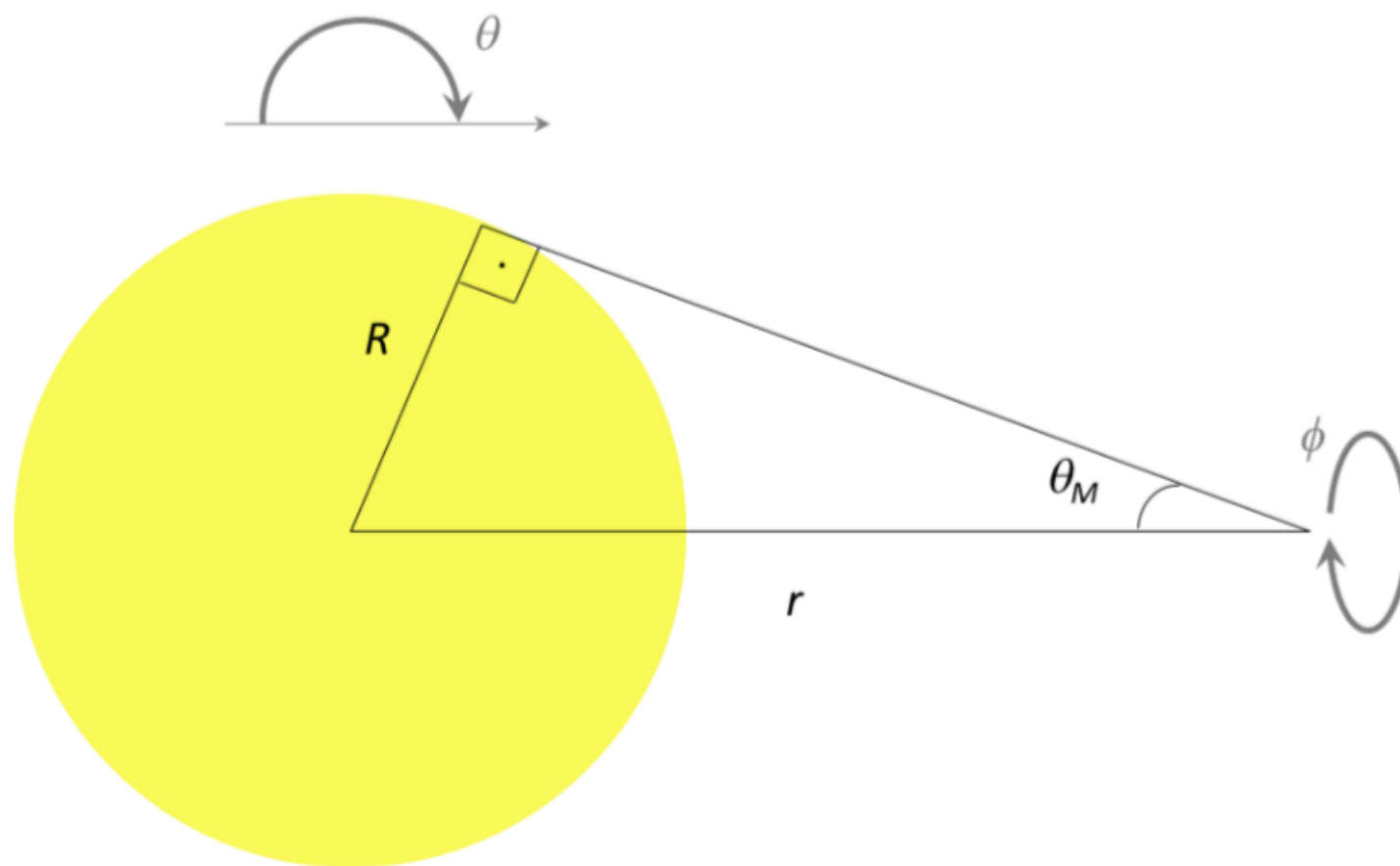
$$\omega = S/R^2$$

Intensity: geometry

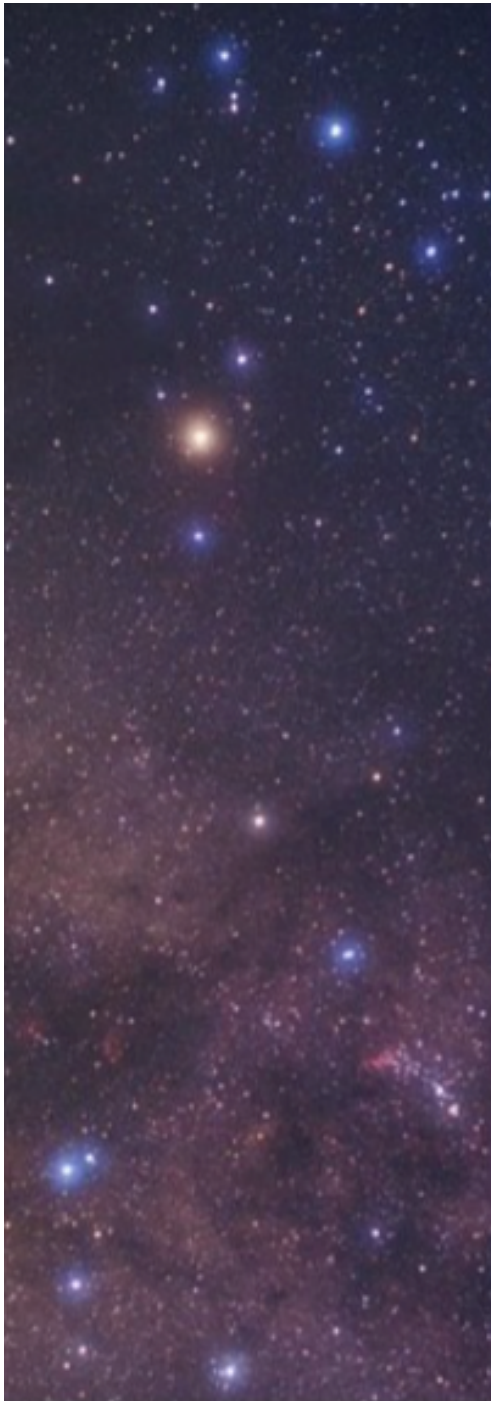


Intensity does not depend on distance

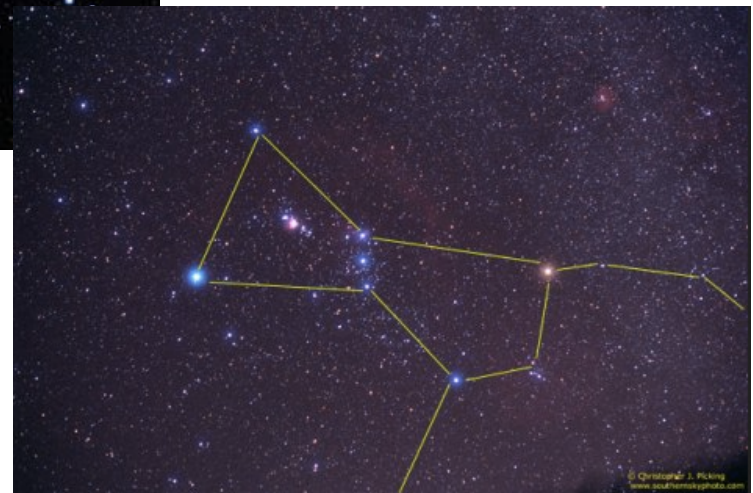




Understanding stars



With a quick look at the night sky, we realize two main differences between stars: brightness and color.



Magnitudes

Now here goes something really ancient....

A guy called Hipparchus (190BC – 120BC) thought it a good idea to come up with the following scheme :

- The brightest stars we see are of **first magnitude**
- Stars not so bright are of **second magnitude**
- The faintest stars we can see are of **fifth magnitude**



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Bright – Magnitude 1

Dim – Magnitude 5

*The scale is **reverse**!*



Magnitudes

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- The brightest stars we see are of **first magnitude**
- Stars not so bright are of **second magnitude**
- The faintest stars we can see are of **sixth magnitude**

Bright – Magnitude 1

Dim – Magnitude 5

*The scale is **reverse**!*



Stellar Binocular
Magnitude 9



Amateur 6 inch
Magnitude 13

Hubble Space Telescope
Magnitude 30





Stellar Binocular
Magnitude 9

15 times dimmer than
faintest for the naked eye



Amateur 6 inch
Magnitude 13

630 times dimmer than
faintest for the naked eye

Hubble Space Telescope
Magnitude 30

4×10^9 times dimmer than
faintest for the naked eye



Magnitudes

Big magnitude – Dim

Small (or negative) magnitude - Bright

The magnitude scale is *logarithmic!*

Why?



The magnitude scale is ***logarithmic!***

Why?



Because the ***eye's response*** is (nearly) logarithmic

The magnitude scale is **logarithmic!**

Why?



Because the **eye's response** is (nearly) logarithmic



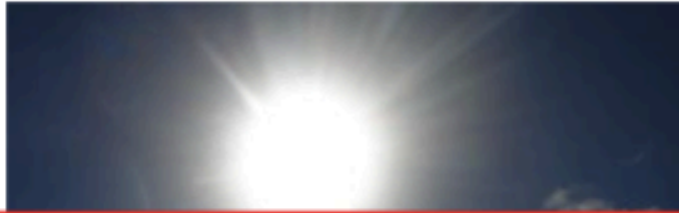
Really?

The Moon is 500,000 times dimmer than the Sun as seen from Earth



Yet one can read with nothing but moonlight....

The Moon is 500,000 times dimmer than the Sun as seen from Earth



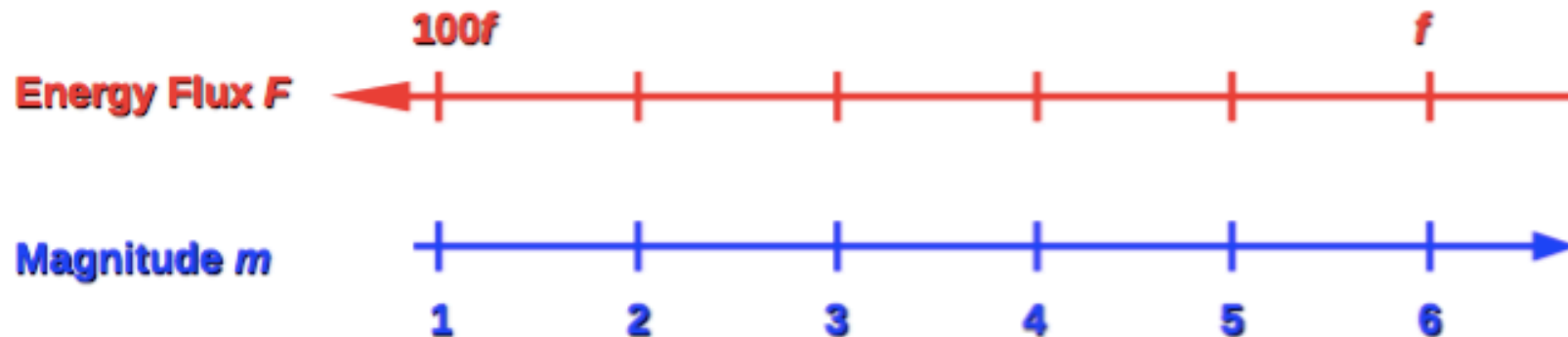
Because of the huge day-night contrast,
we are adapted to a ***WIDE RANGE*** in brightness



Yet one can read with nothing but moonlight....

How about magnitudes?

A difference of five magnitudes amounts to a factor 100 in brightness



$$m = -2.5 \log F + C$$

m - stuff that Hipparchus came up with

F - stuff that has physical meaning

C - constant that make the two systems match

The system is tied so that Vega's magnitude is ZERO

-26

-22

-18

-12

-10

-4

-2

0

2

6

9

11

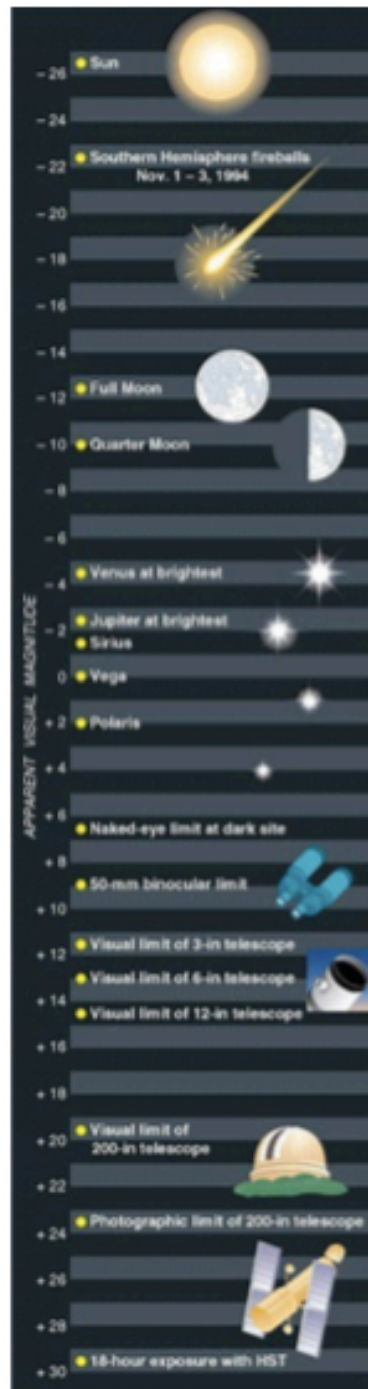
13

15

20

24

30



Sun

Comet

Full Moon

Quarter Moon

Venus at brightest

Jupiter at brightest

Vega

Polaris

Naked-eye limit at dark site

50mm binocular limit

Visual limit of 3-in telescope

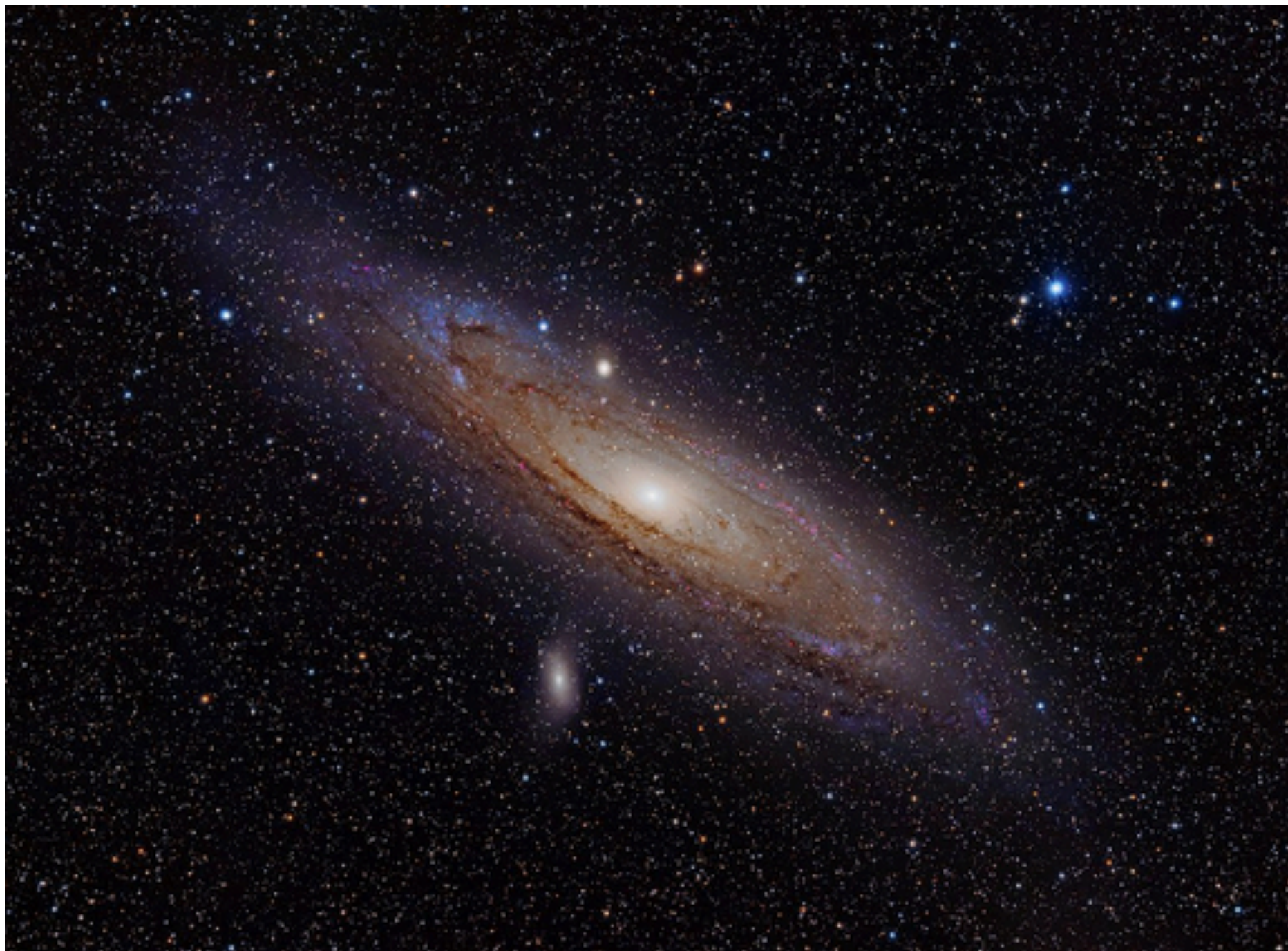
Visual limit of 6-in telescope

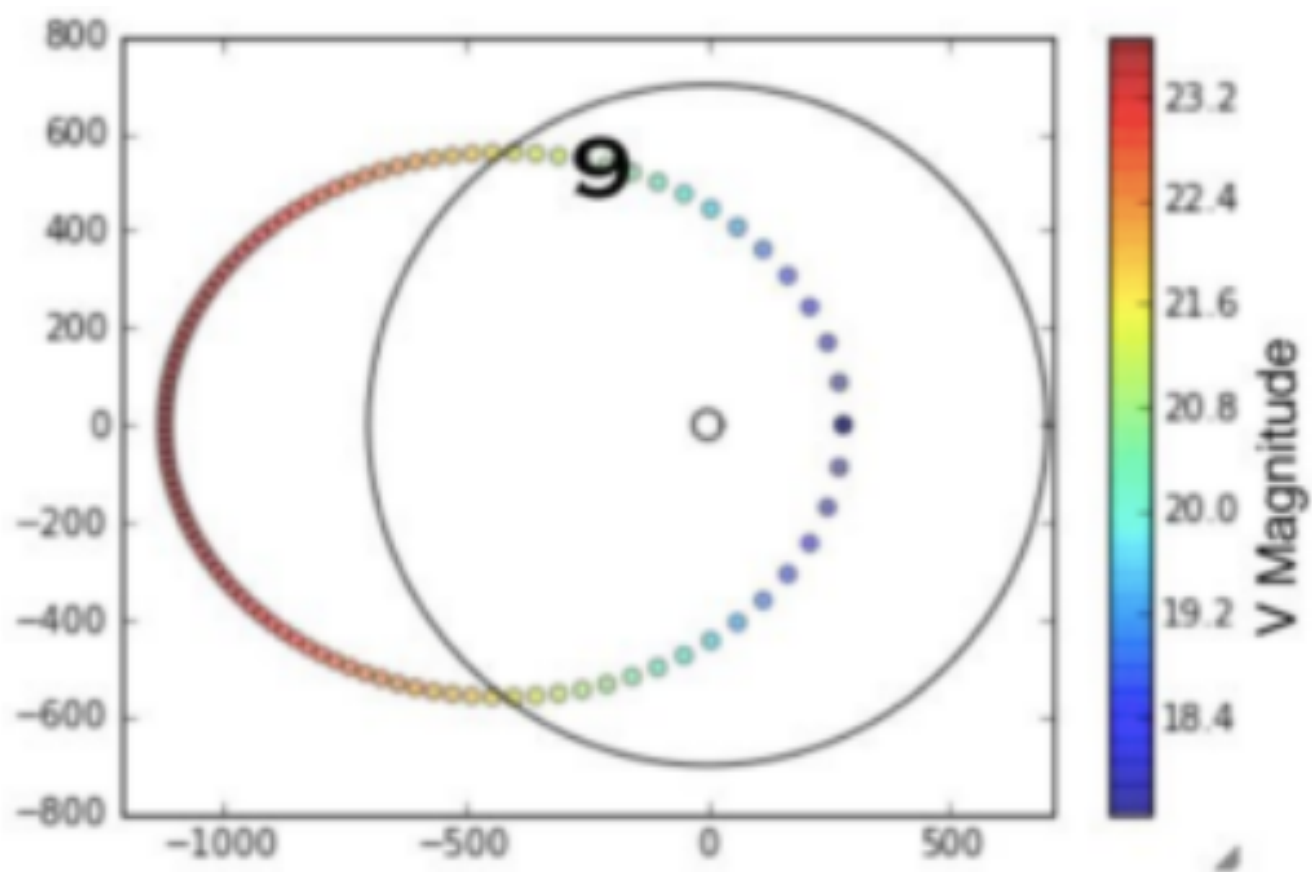
Visual limit of 12-in telescope

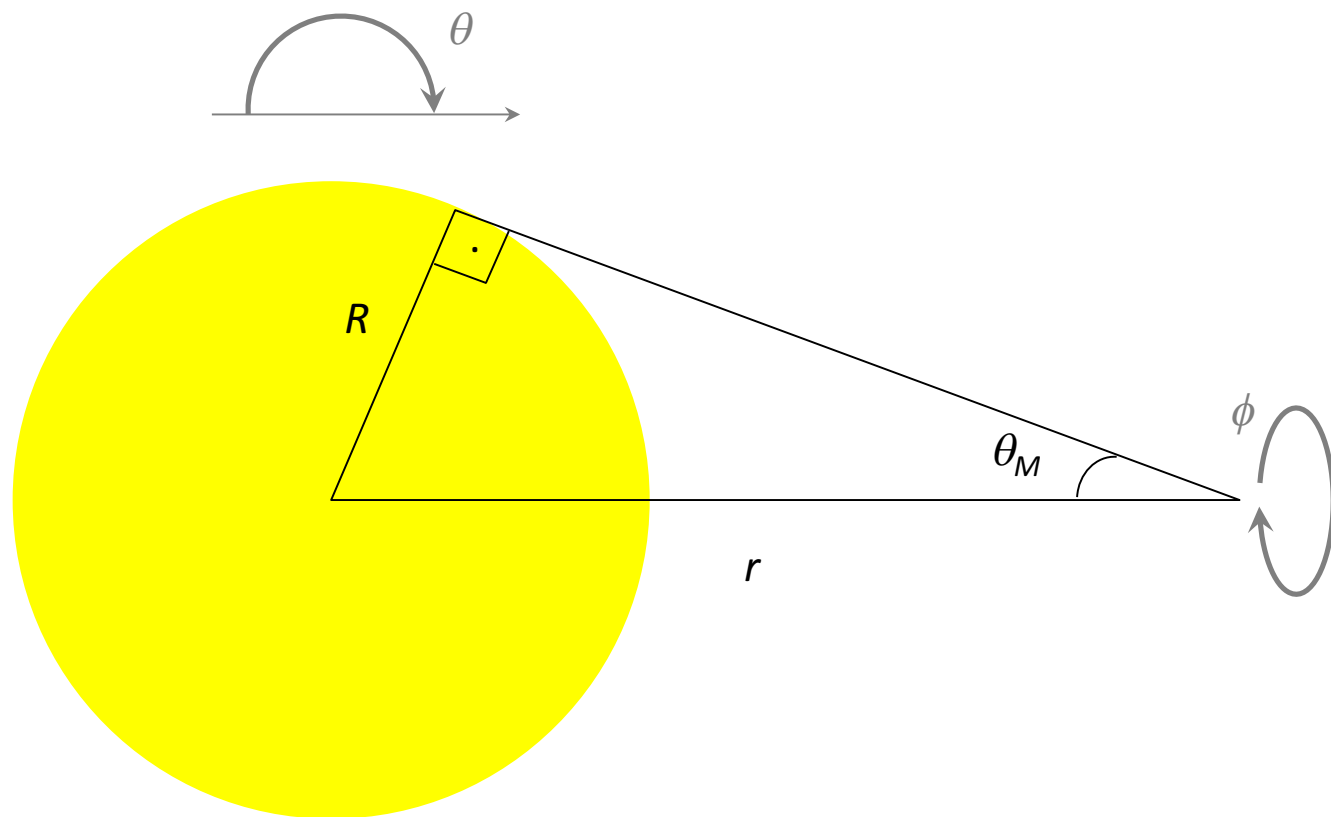
Visual limit of 200-in telescope

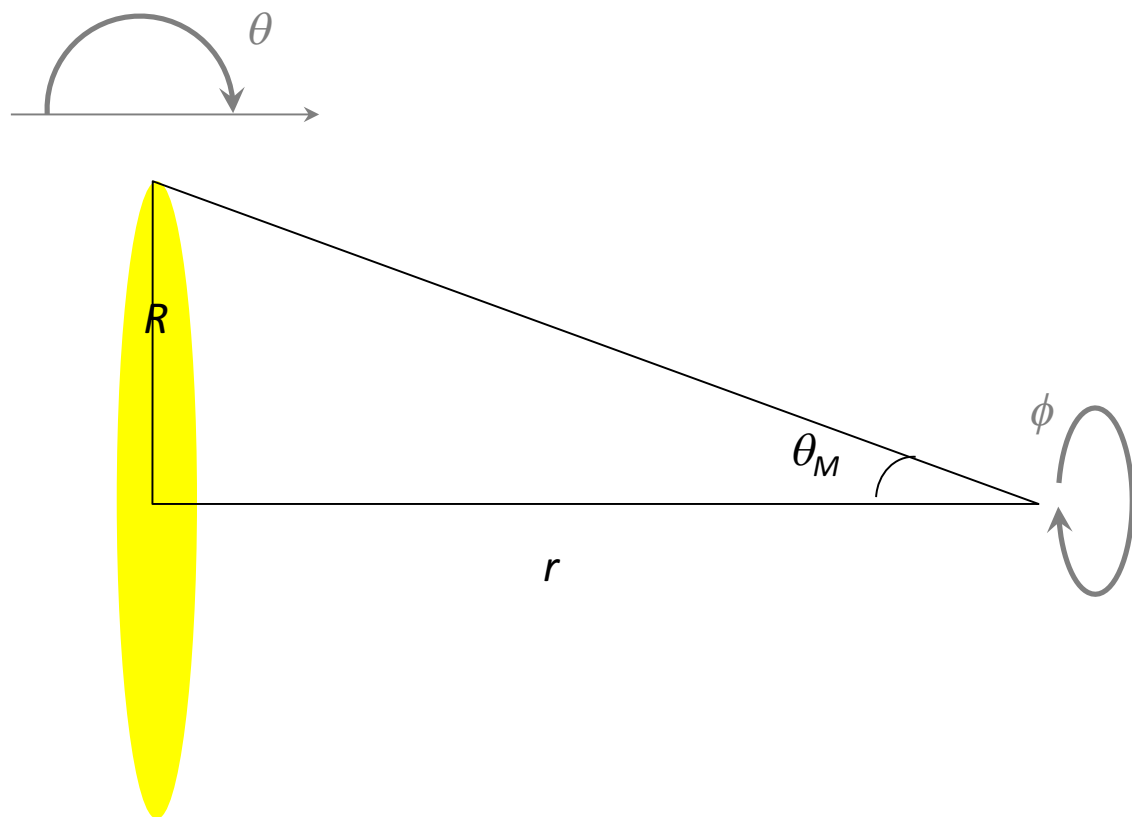
Photographic limit of 200-in telescope

18-hour exposure with HST

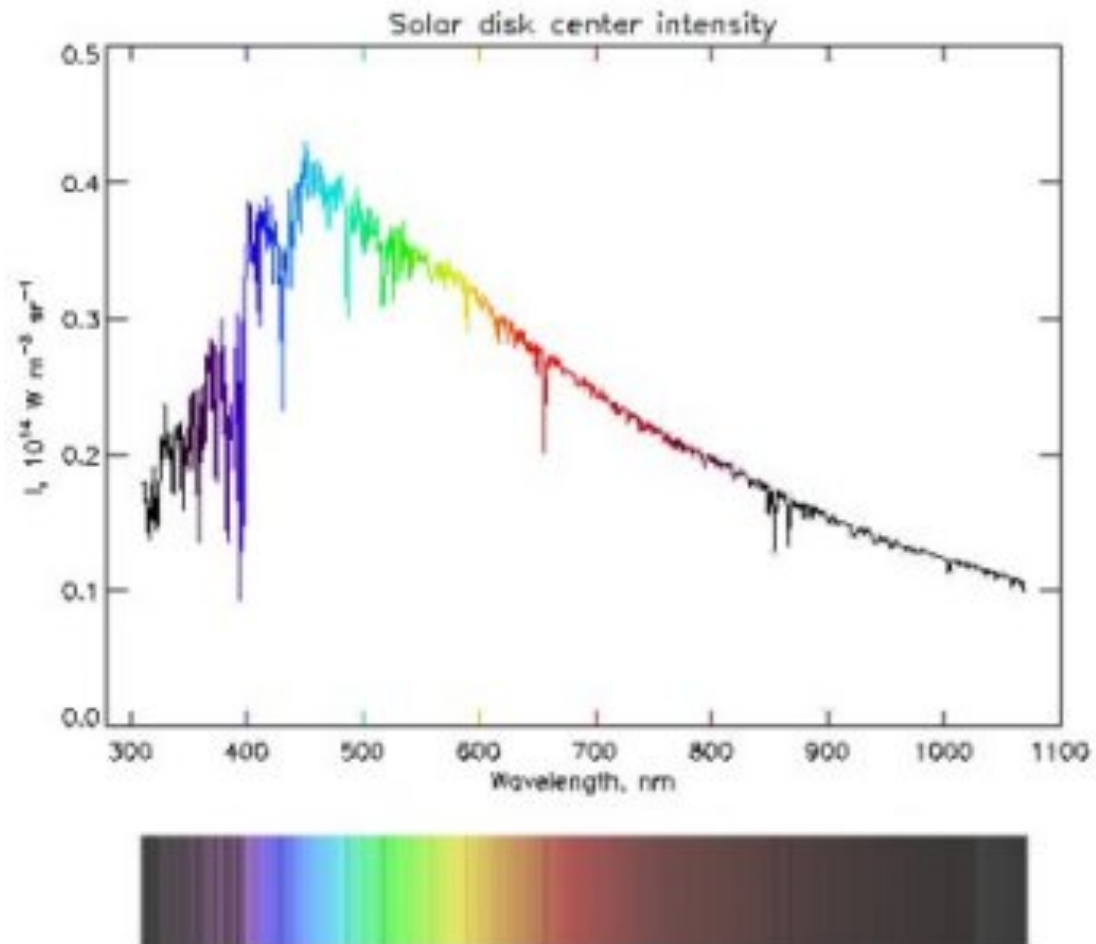






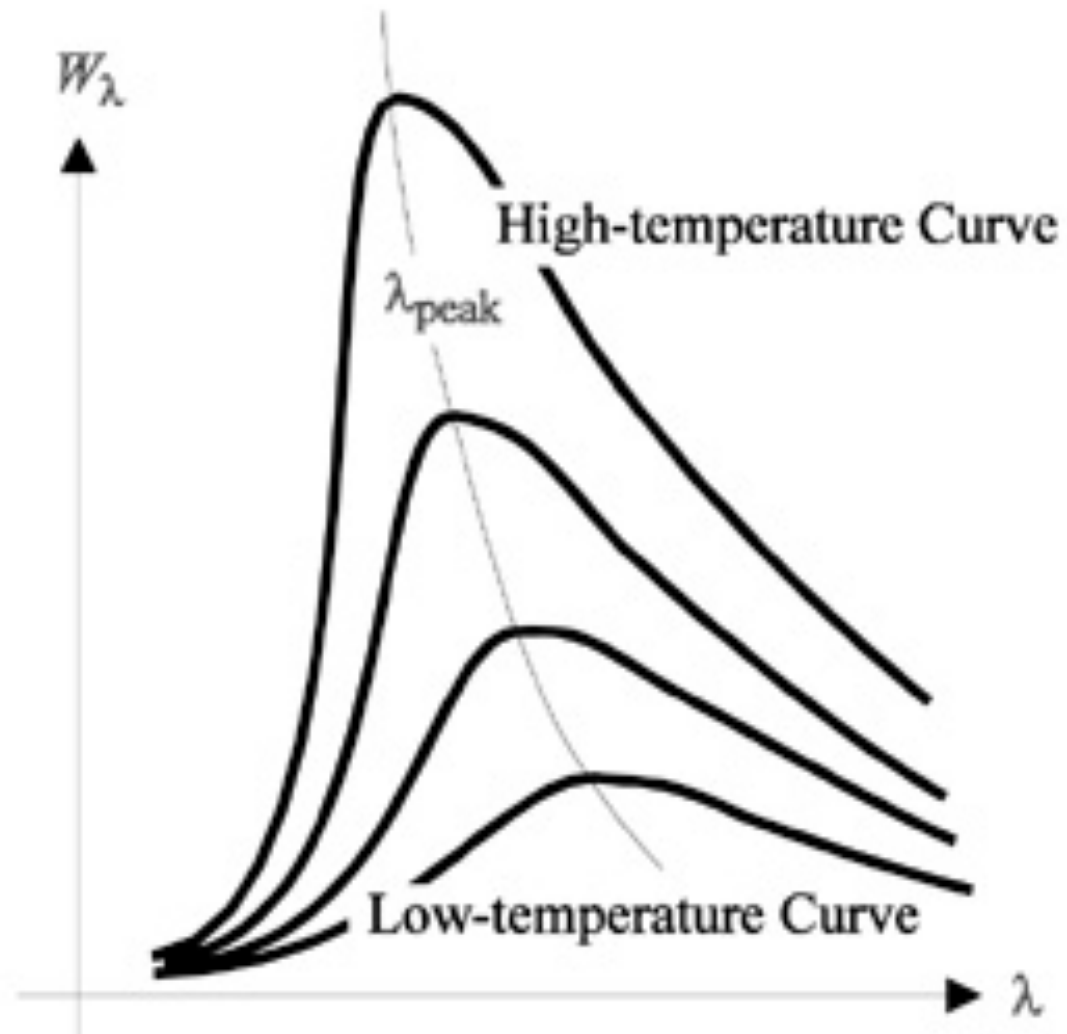


The Solar Spectrum



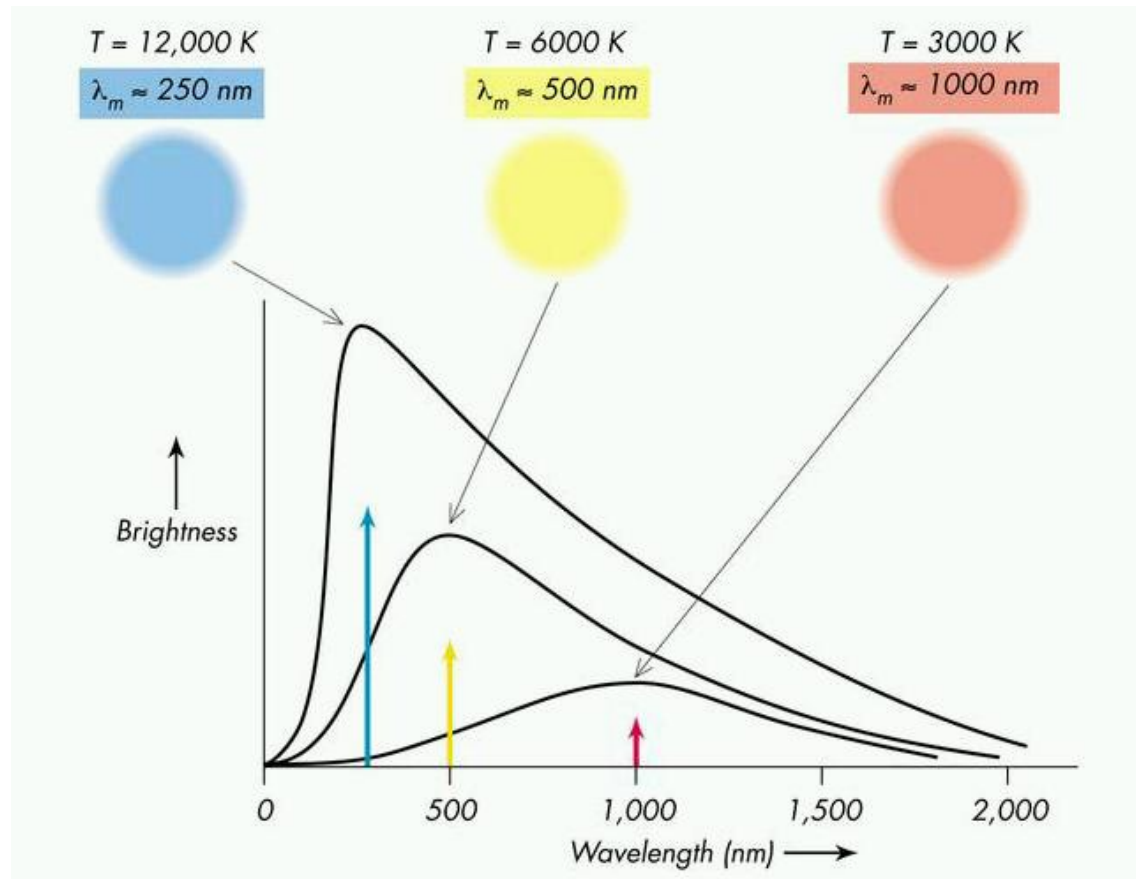
Wien's displacement law

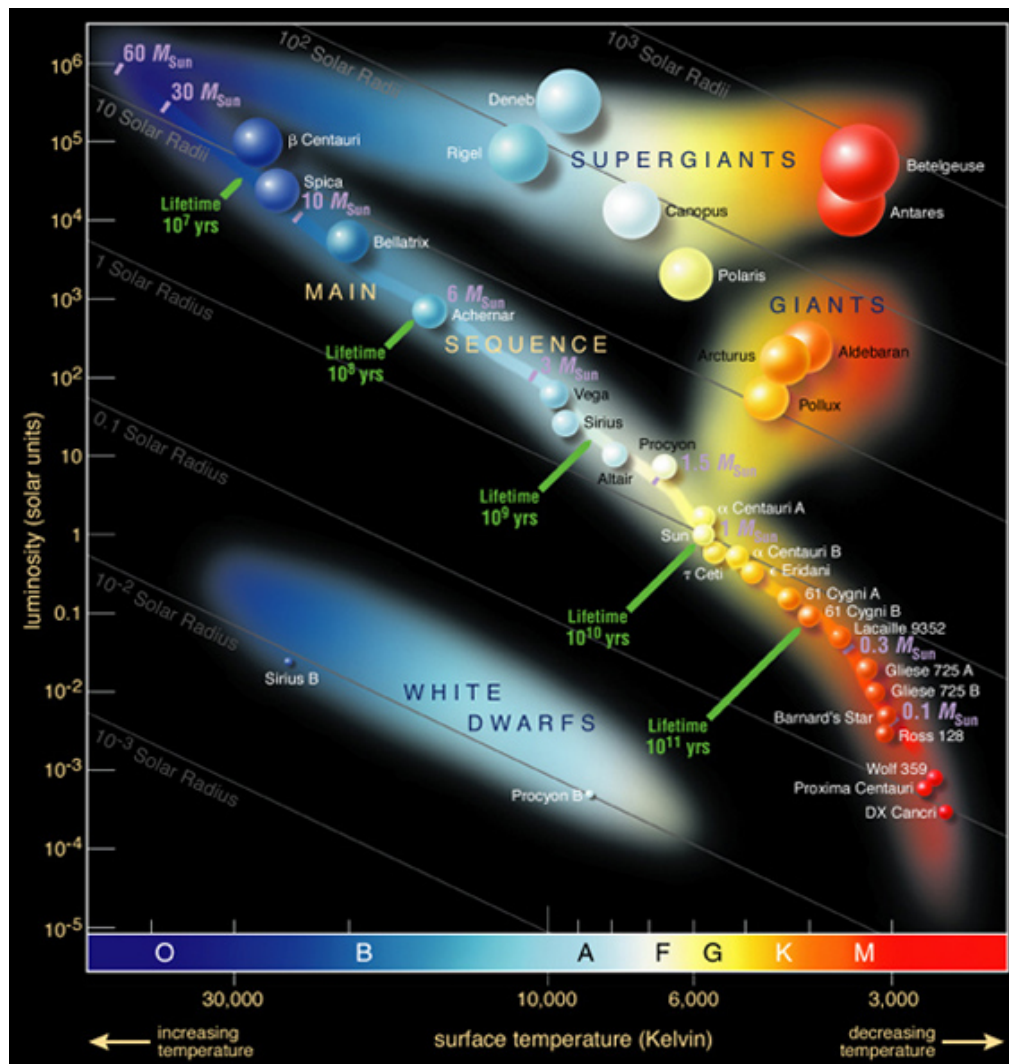
$$\lambda_{\text{max}} T = \text{const} = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mK}$$



Wien's displacement law

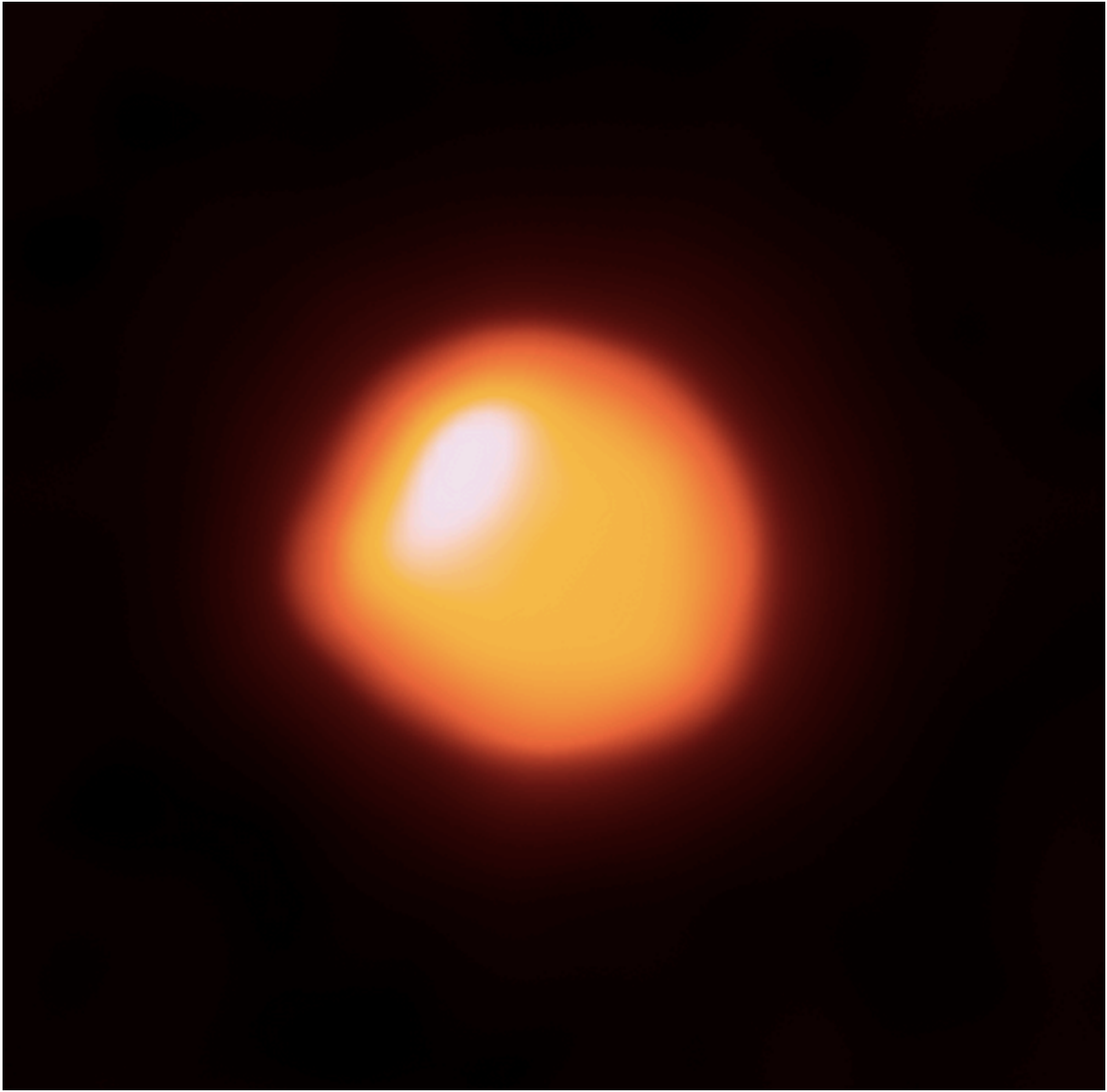
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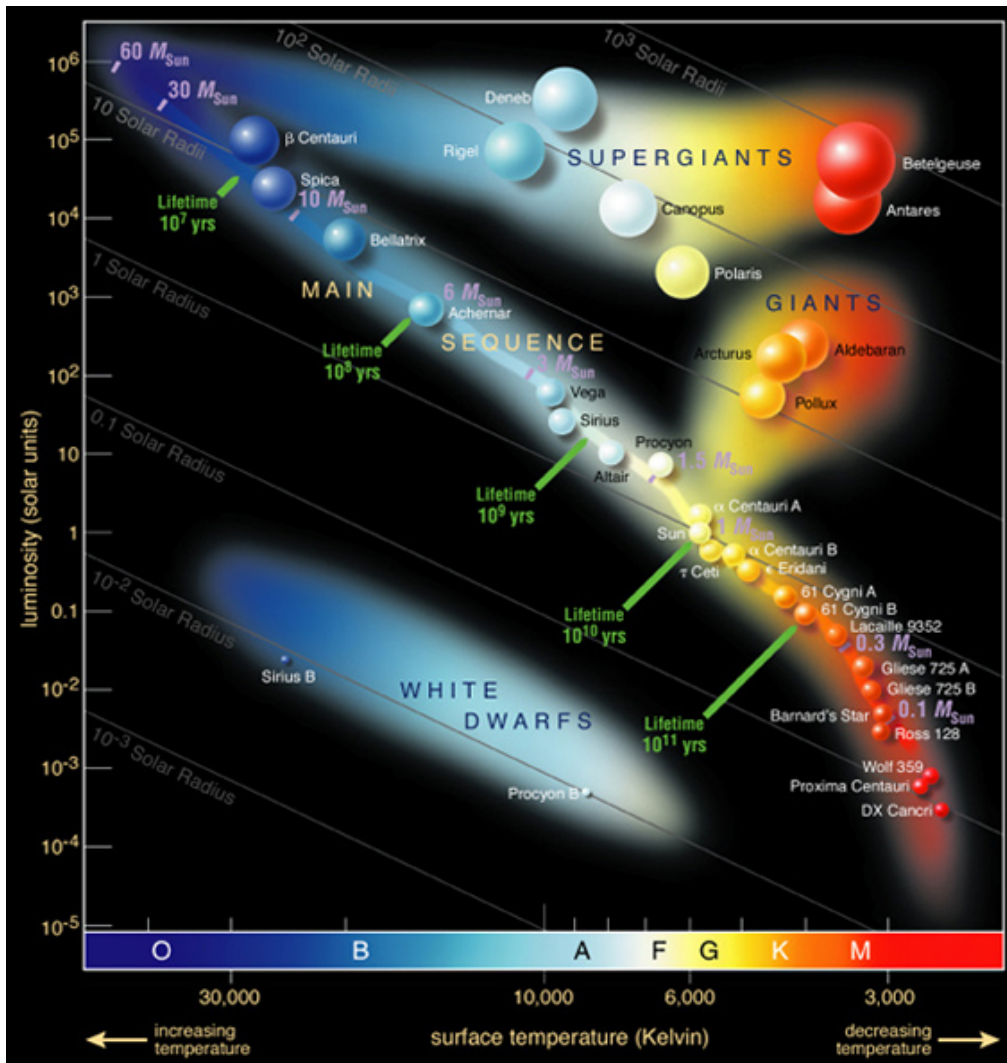




$$L = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T^4$$

•Luminosity is a function of radius and a strong function of temperature





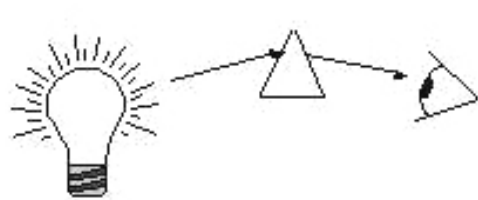
$$L = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T^4$$

$$\nu_{\text{max}} \propto T$$

- Luminosity is a function of radius and a strong function of temperature
- The wavelength of peak brightness goes bluer as the temperature rises

Spectroscopy

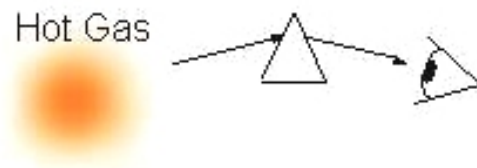
Spectral lines – Kirchhoff's three empirical laws of spectroscopy



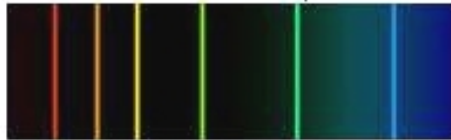
Continuum Spectrum



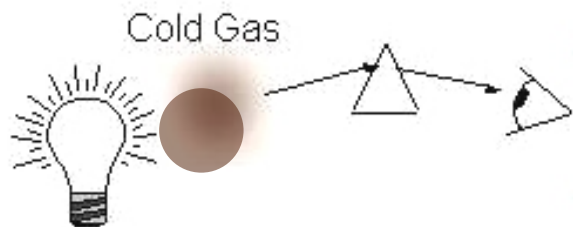
A hot solid or a hot dense gas produces a continuum spectrum.



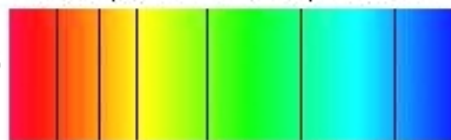
Emission Line Spectrum



A hot low-density gas produces an emission-line spectrum.



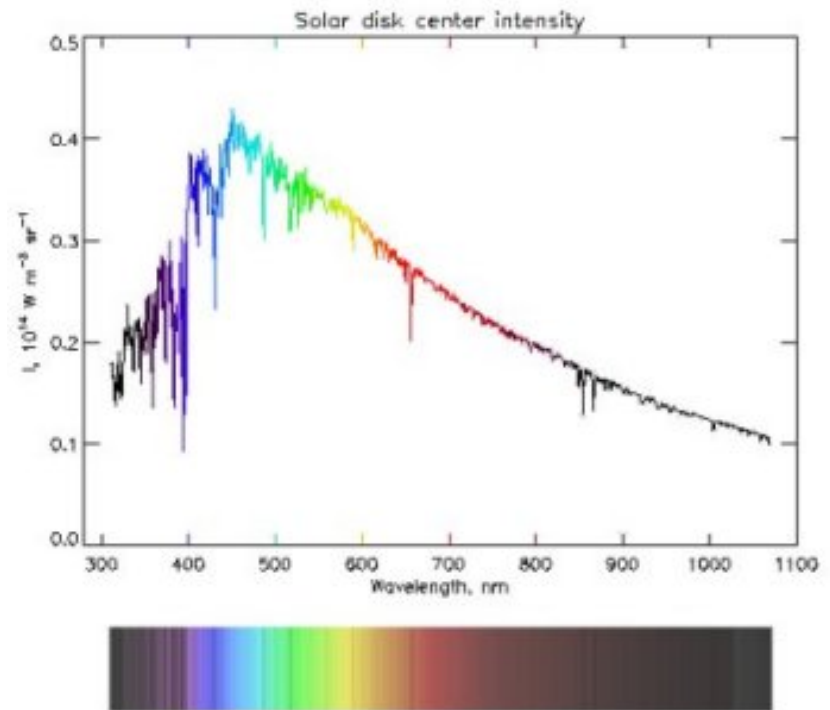
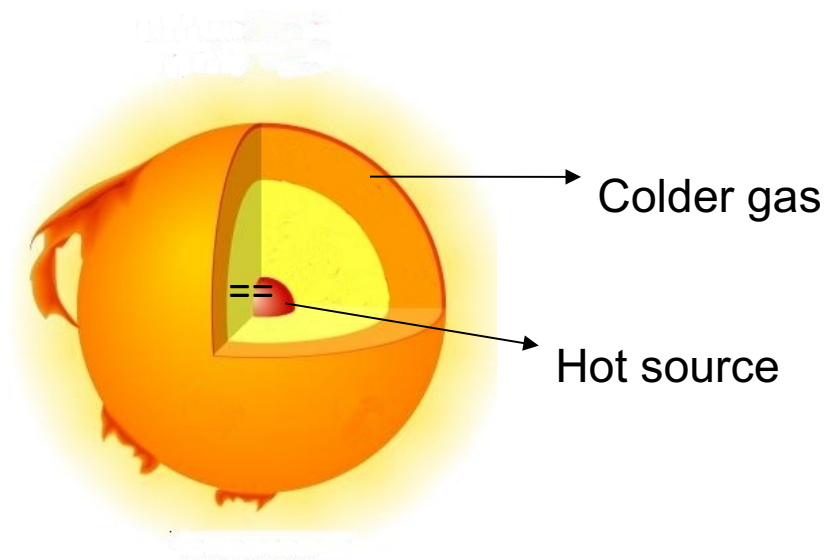
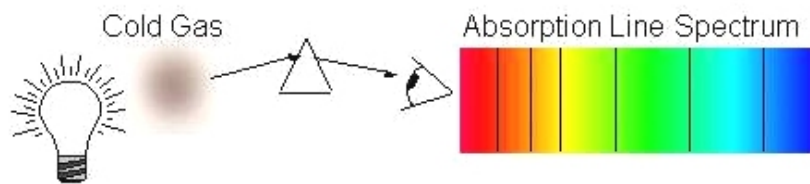
Absorption Line Spectrum



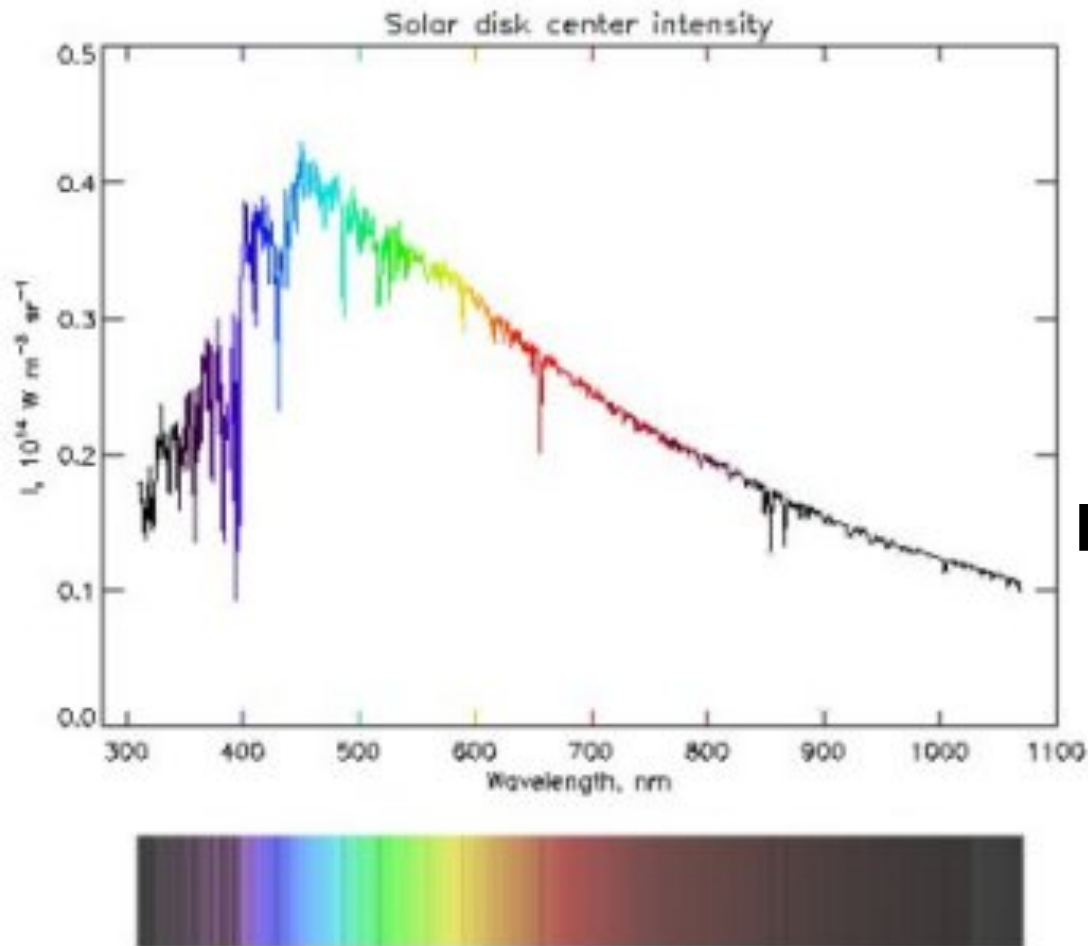
A continuous source viewed through a cold gas produces an absorption-line spectrum.

Spectroscopy

The third law is what applies to stars. The light we see comes from the hot interior, passing through a colder atmosphere. Thus, we see spectral lines.



The Solar Spectrum

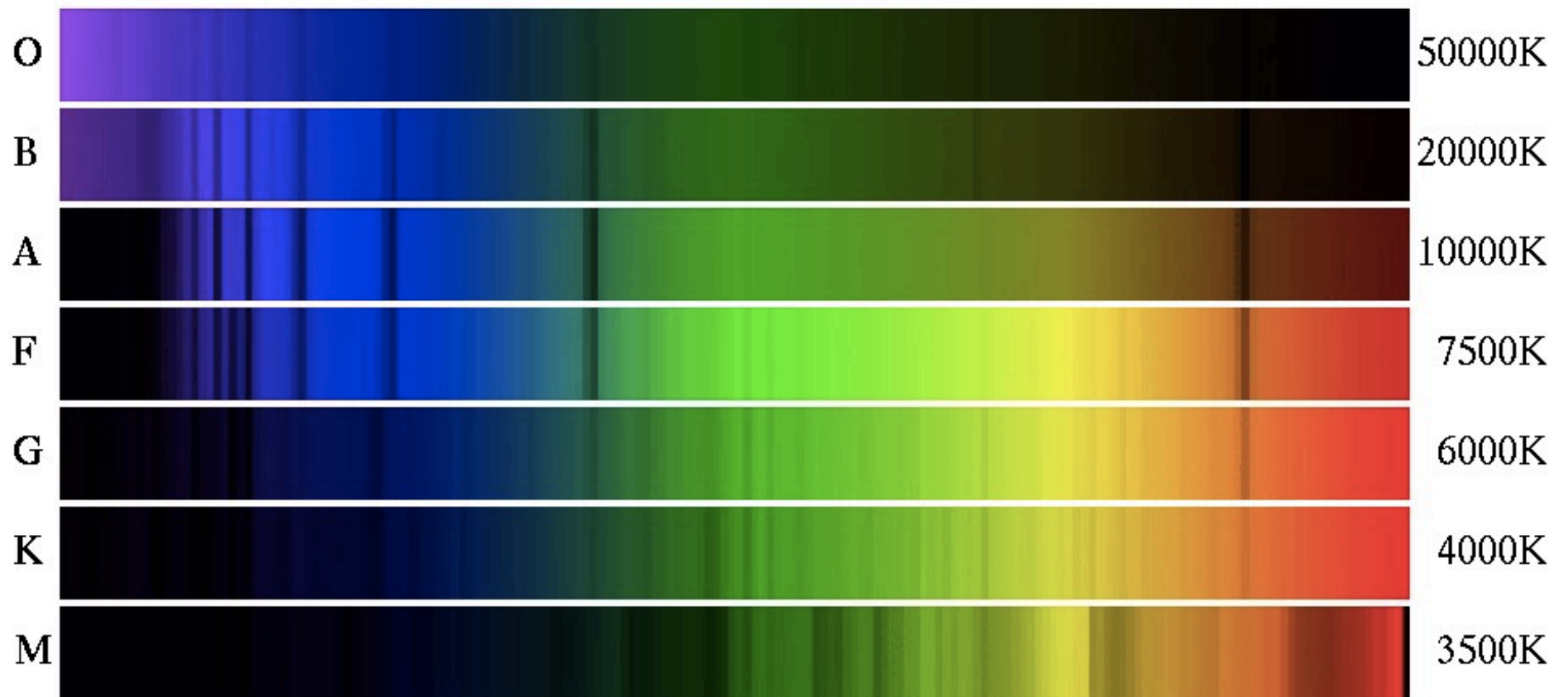


Main features:

Continuum
Absorption lines

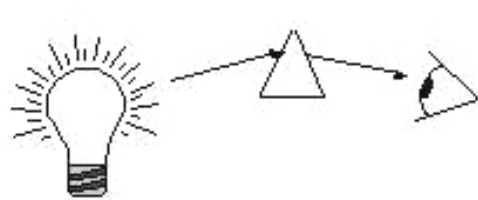
Most prominent lines:
Ca II lines in the blue

Spectra of other stars have different features



Spectroscopy

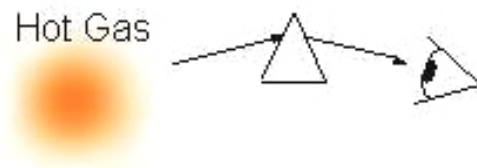
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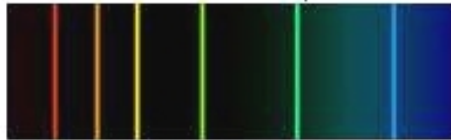
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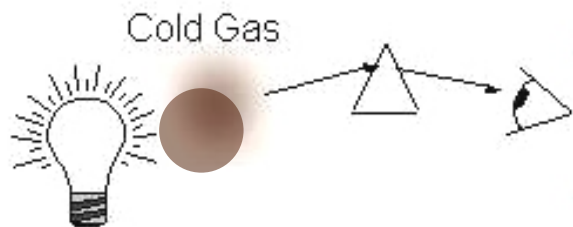
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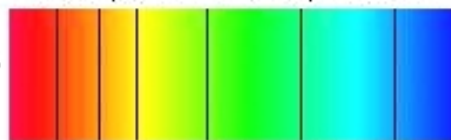
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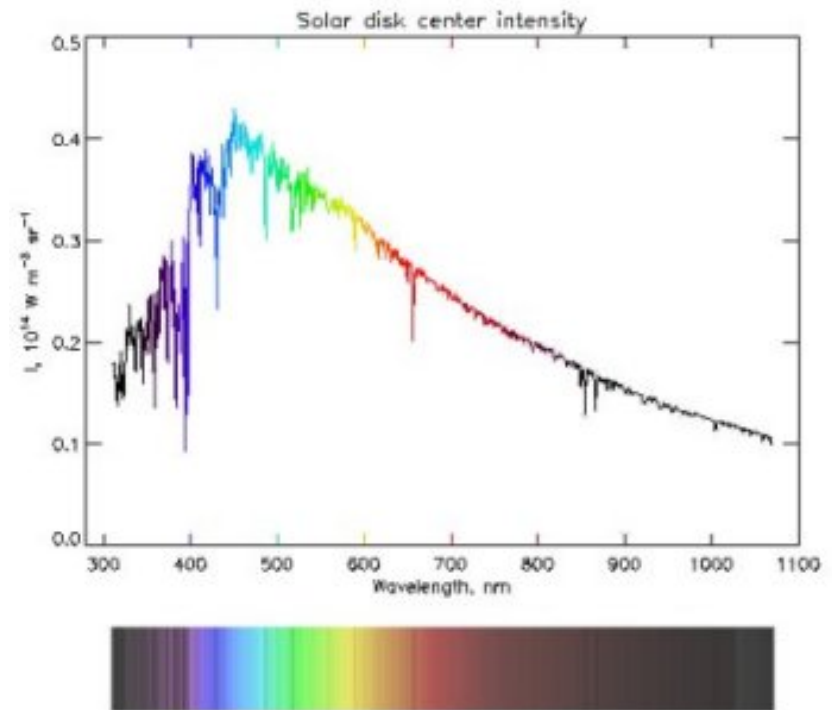
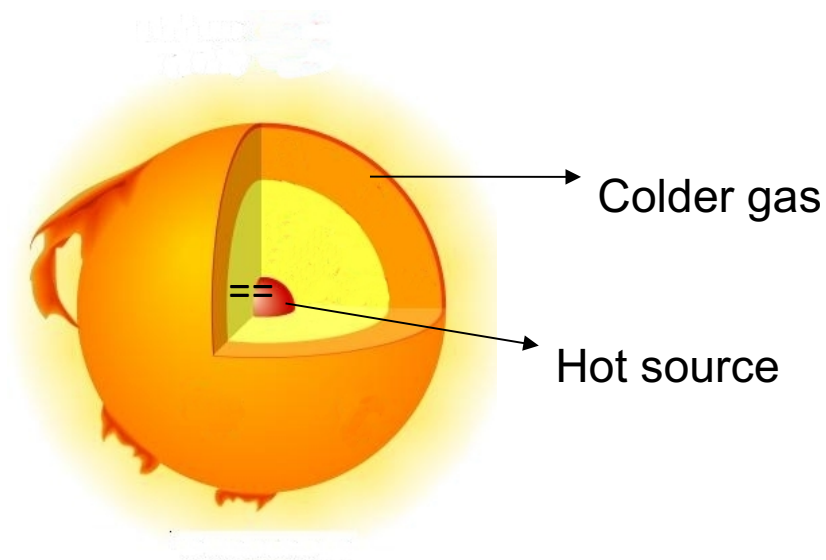
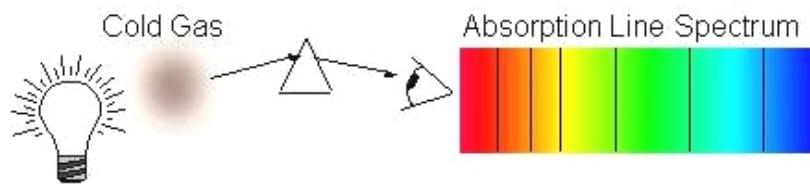
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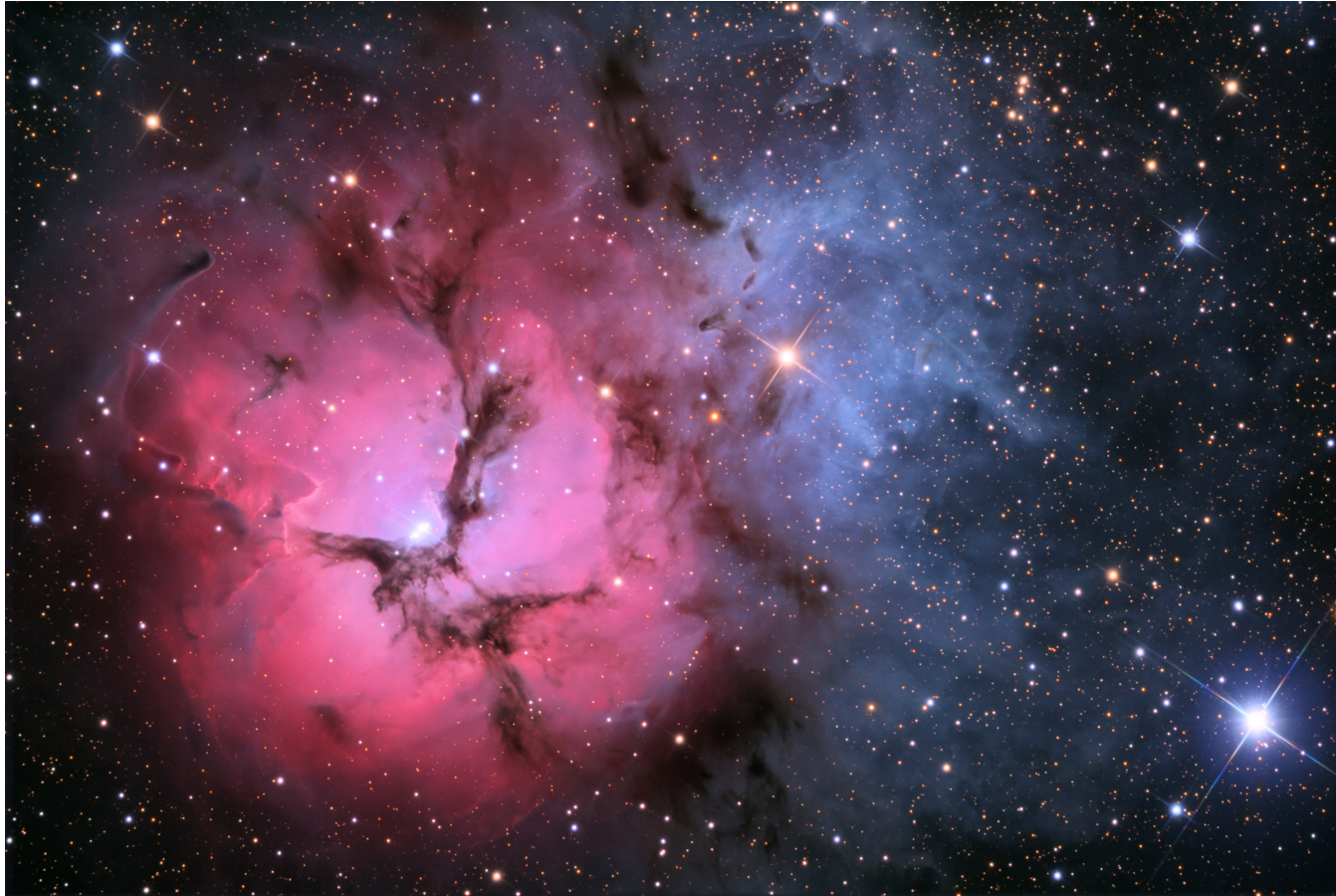
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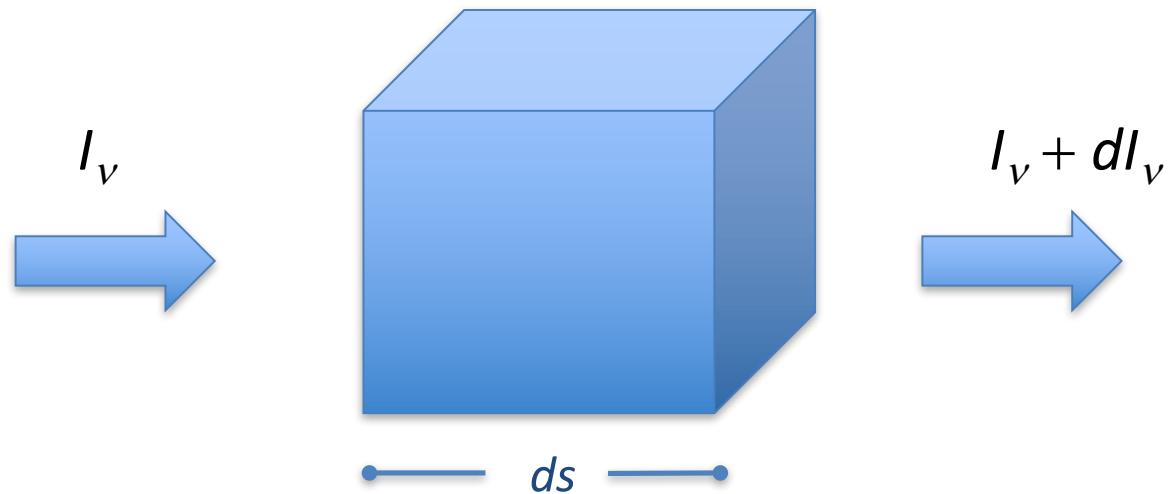
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Emission and Absorption



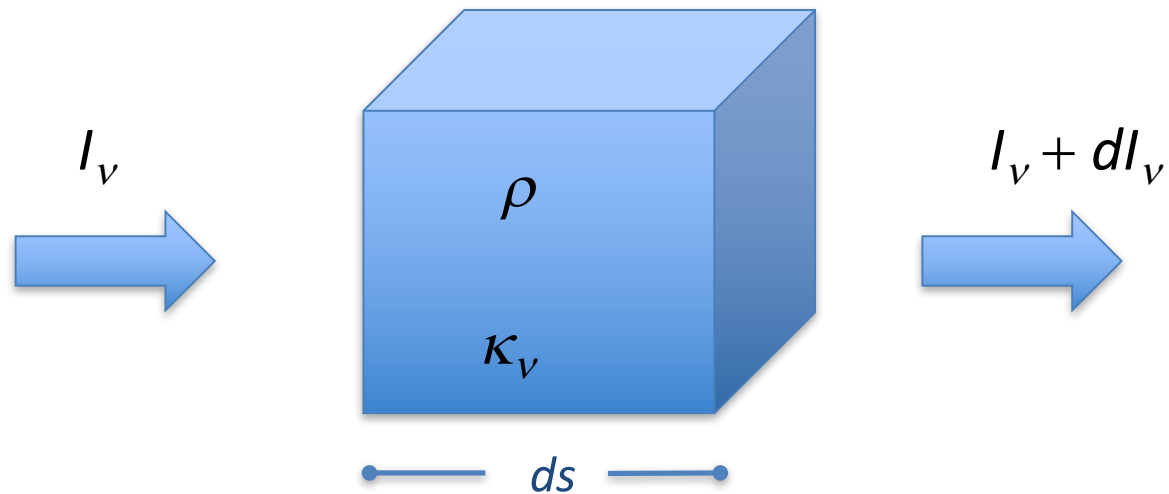
Emission and Absorption



Radiation of intensity I_v shines through a cube of side ds .
What is the intensity that emerges from it?

What is the amount of intensity dl_v that is added or subtracted from the beam?

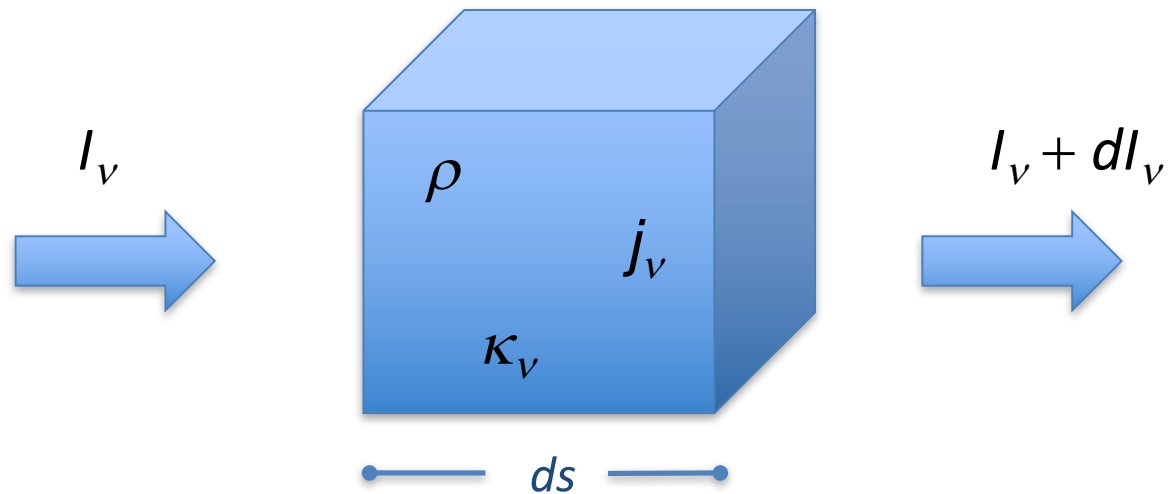
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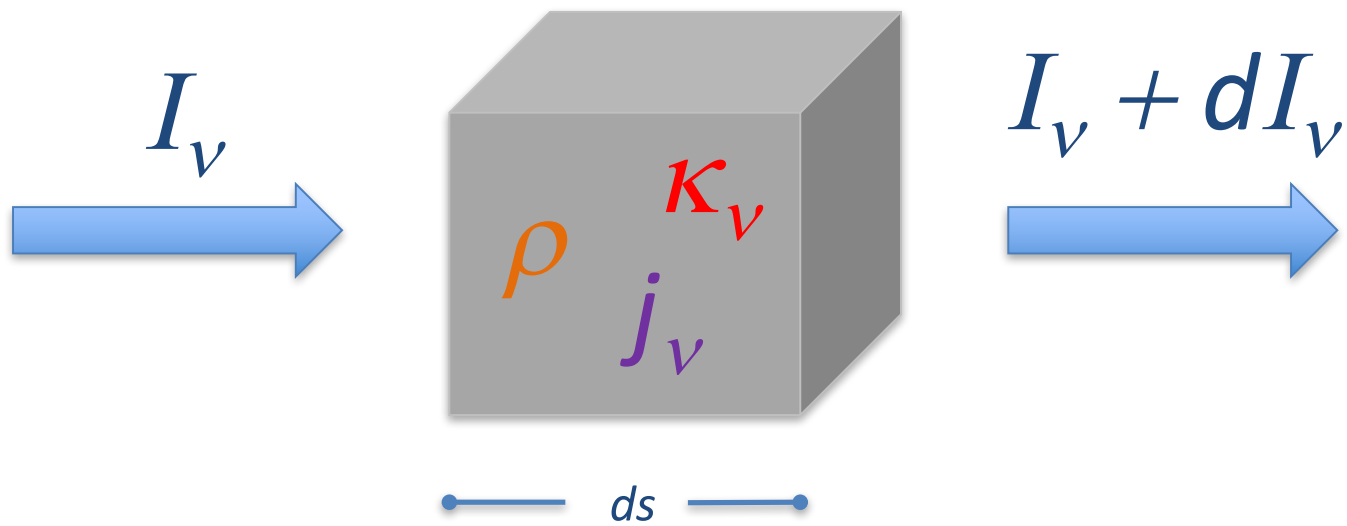
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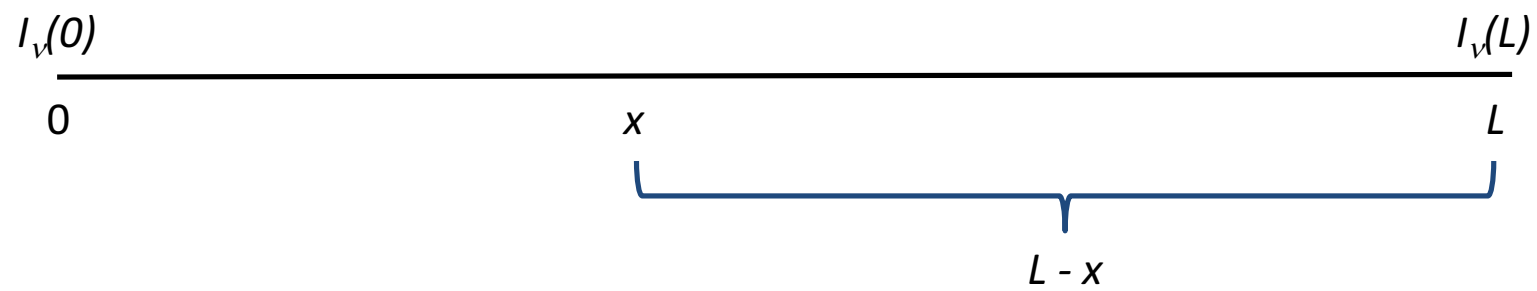


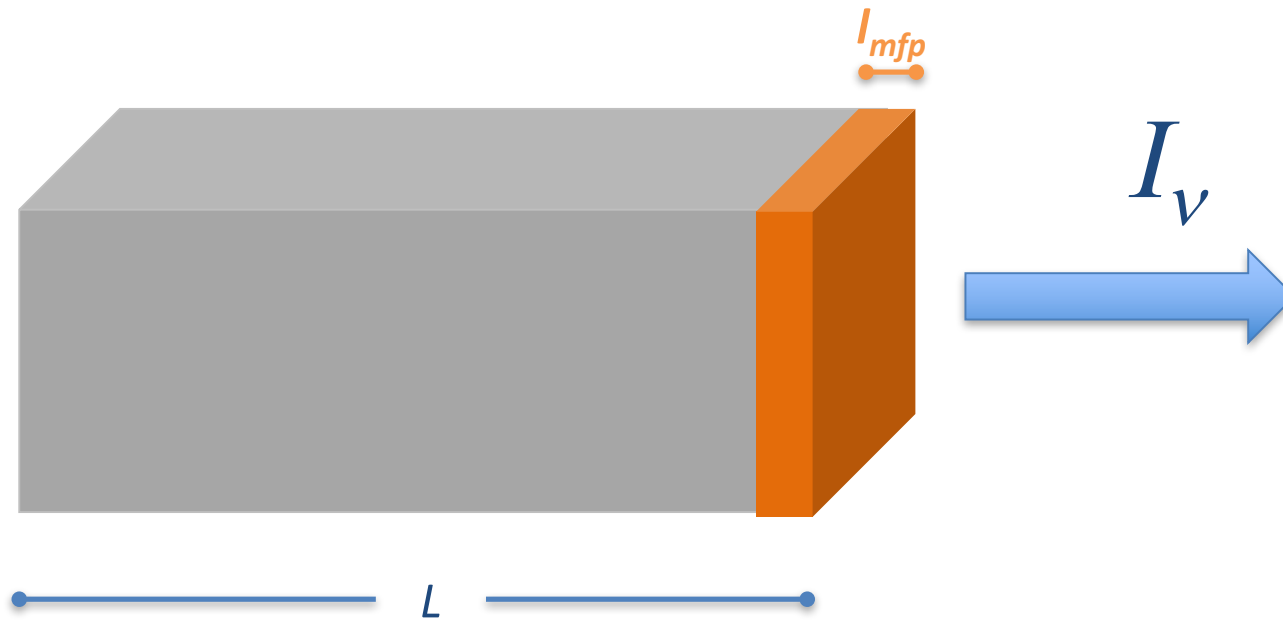
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$$dI_v = -\kappa_v \rho I_v ds + j_v \rho ds$$

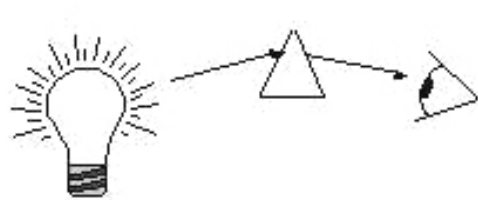




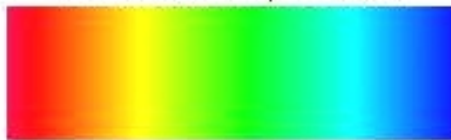
$$I_v = S_v = j_v \rho l_{mfp}$$

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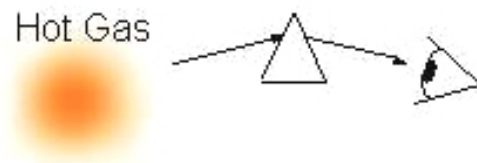
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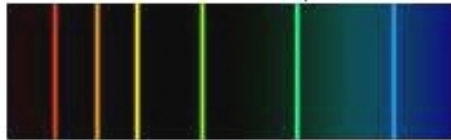
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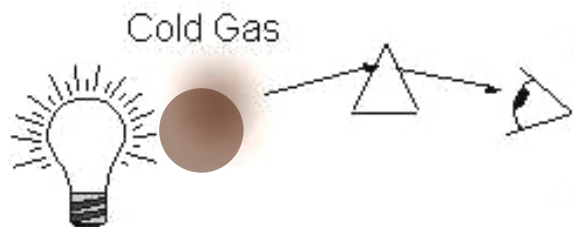
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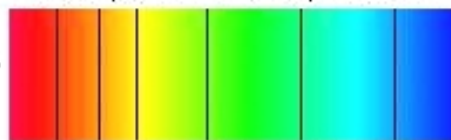
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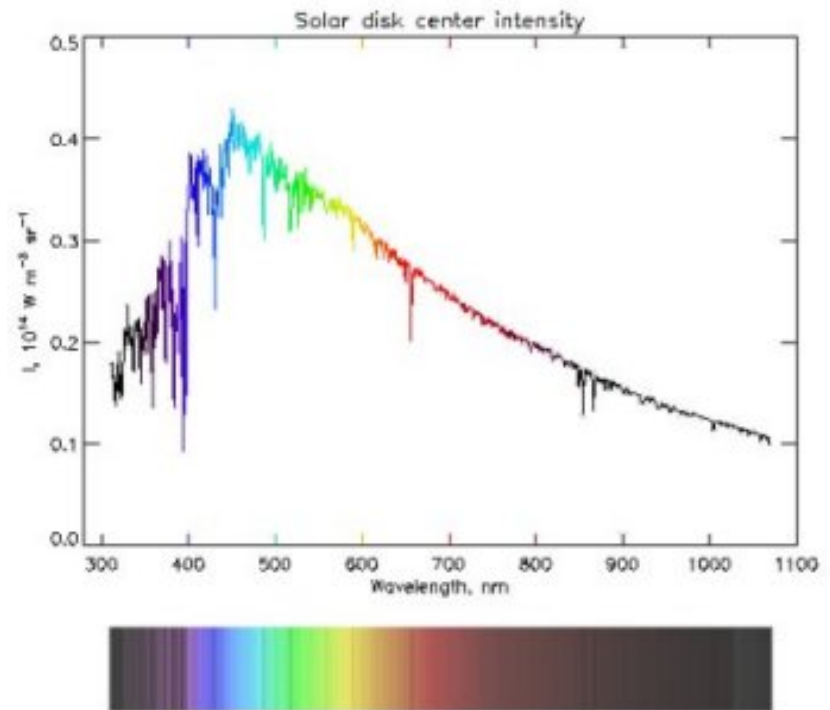
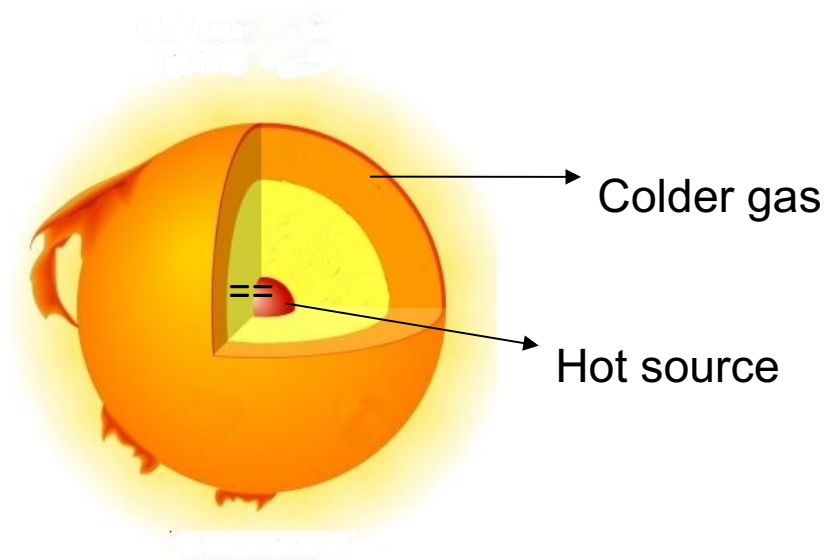
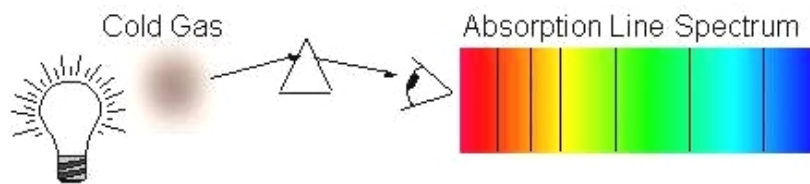
Absorption Line Spectrum



A continuous source viewed through a cold gas produces an absorption-line spectrum.

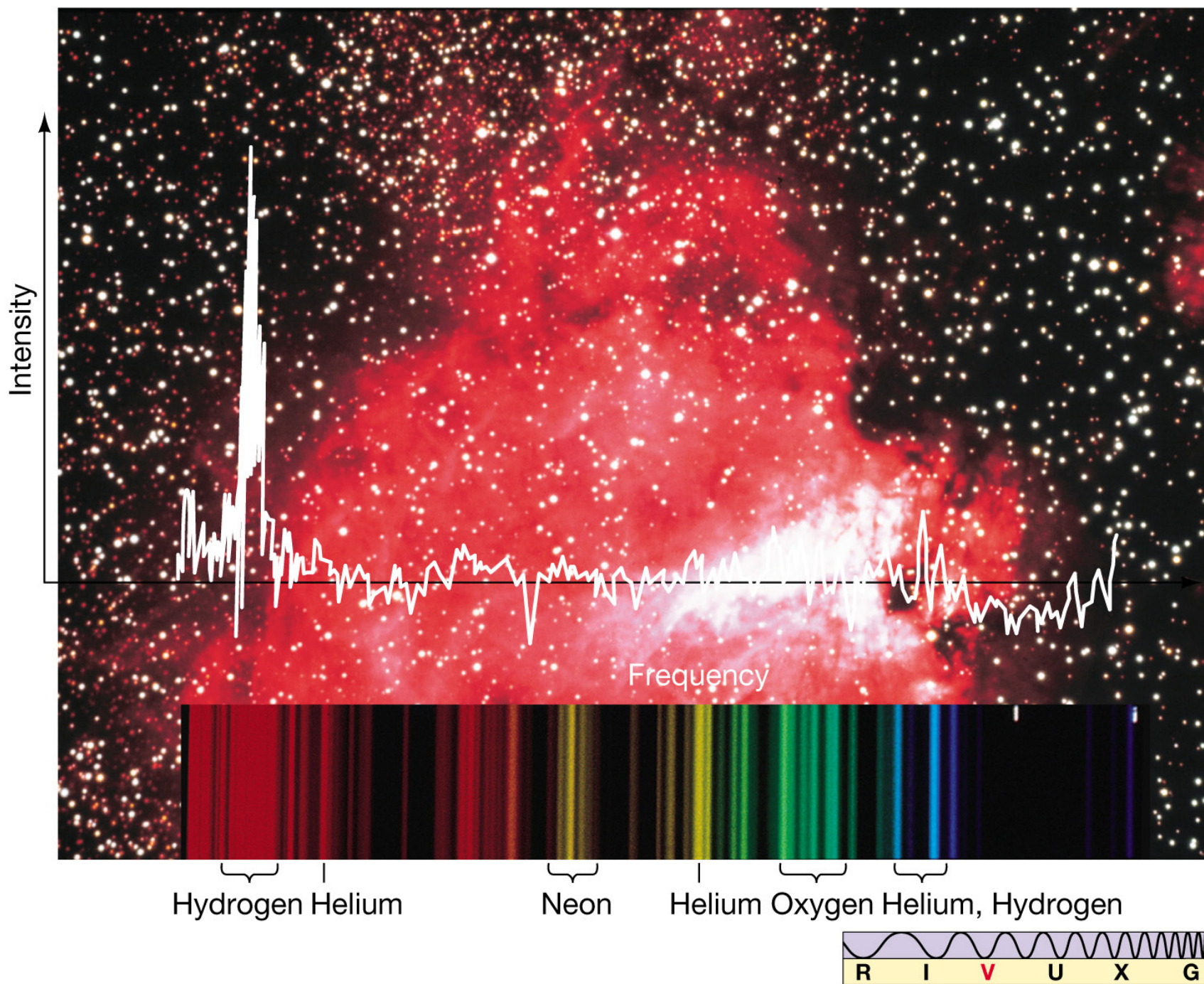
Spectroscopy

The third law is what applies to stars. The light we see comes from the hot interior, passing through a colder atmosphere. Thus, we see spectral lines.



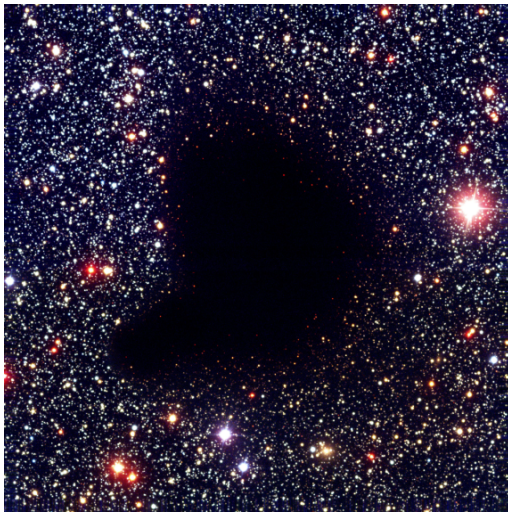
Emission and Absorption





Interstellar Nebulae

Interstellar clouds can be referred to as absorption (dark), reflection or emission nebulae



Absorption Nebula



Reflection Nebula



Emission Nebula

Interstellar Nebulae

Interstellar clouds can be referred to as absorption (dark), reflection or emission nebulae



Absorption Nebula

Absorption Nebulae

A lot of gas and dust
simply blocking light

Interstellar Nebulae

Reflection Nebulae



Physically the same as dark nebulae,
but ***illuminated*** by nearby stars.
The dust shines by reflected light

Usually blue (why?)



Interstellar Nebulae

Reflection Nebulae



Physically the same as dark nebulae,
but **illuminated** by nearby stars.
The dust shines by reflected light

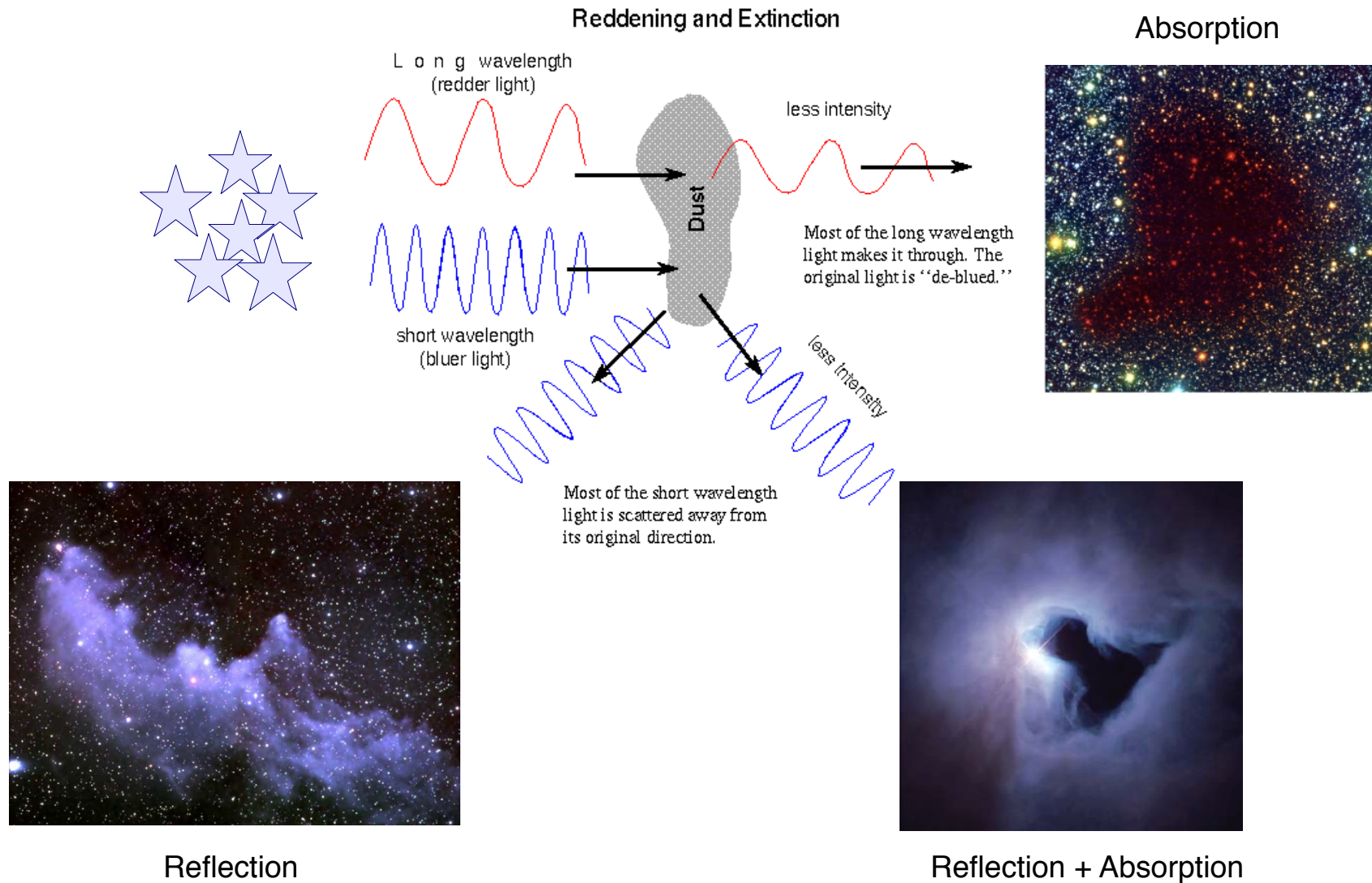
Usually blue (why?)



1. **Illuminated by blue/white stars**
2. Same reason why the sky is blue
Blue is better scattered than red

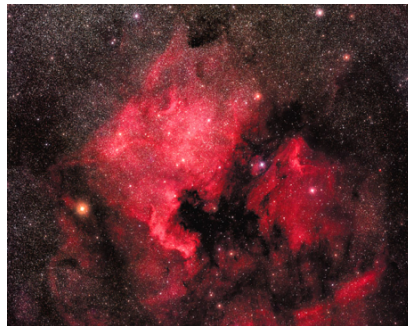
Interstellar Nebulae

Absorption and reflection nebulae are the same object



Interstellar Nebulae

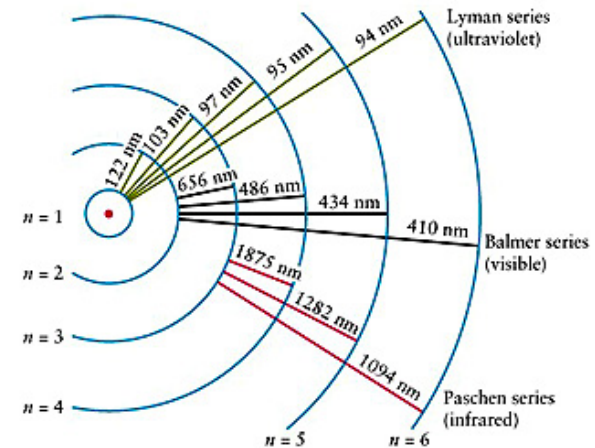
Emission Nebulae



Glow by their own light

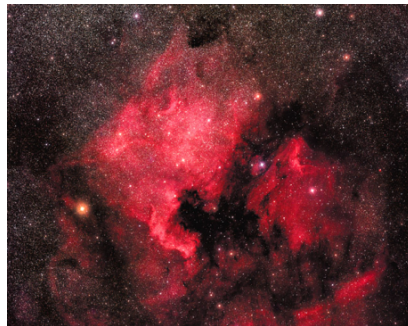
Illuminated by nearby OB stars,
very hot stars that emit ionizing radiation

When the electrons recombine, they cascade
emitting light in all the atom's discrete set of
wavelengths



Interstellar Nebulae

Emission Nebulae

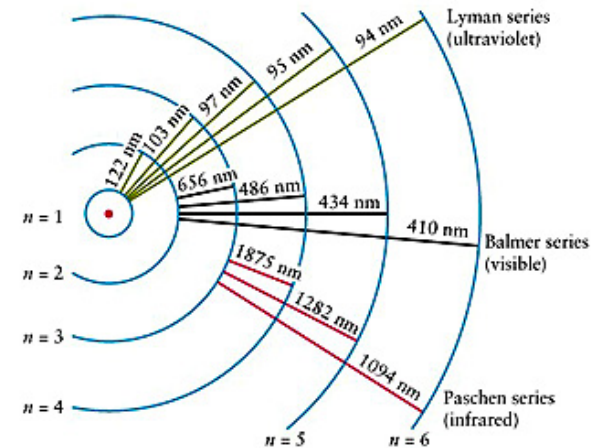


Glow by their own light

Usually red (why?)

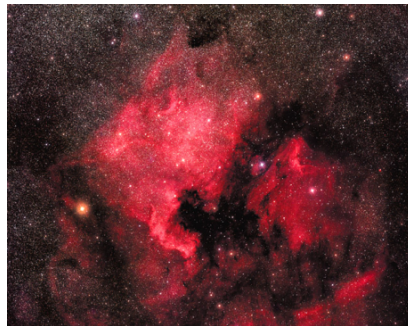
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Interstellar Nebulae

Emission Nebulae



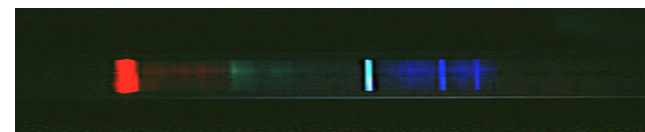
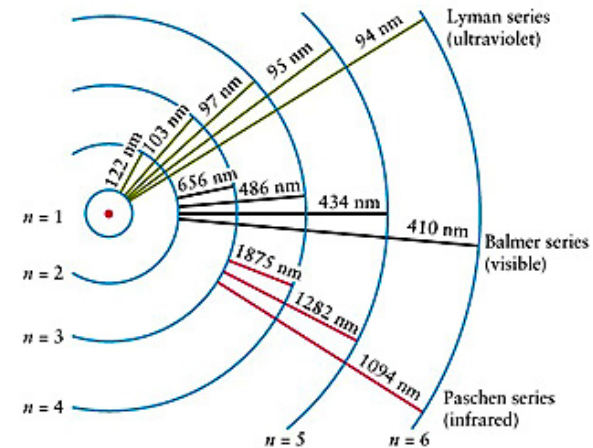
Hydrogen emission in the **6563 Å** line (H α)

Glow by their own light

Usually red (why?)

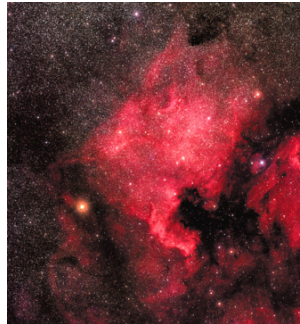
Illuminated by nearby OB stars,
very hot stars that emit ionizing radiation

When the electrons recombine, they cascade
emitting light in all the atom's discrete set of
wavelengths

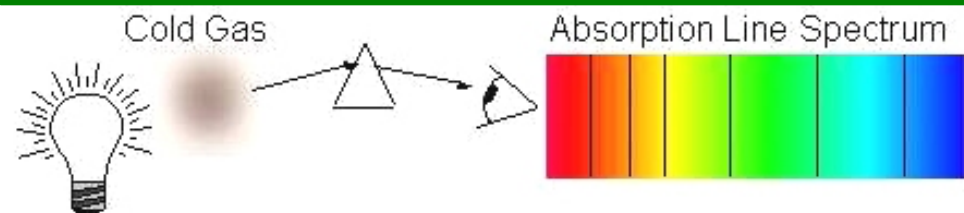
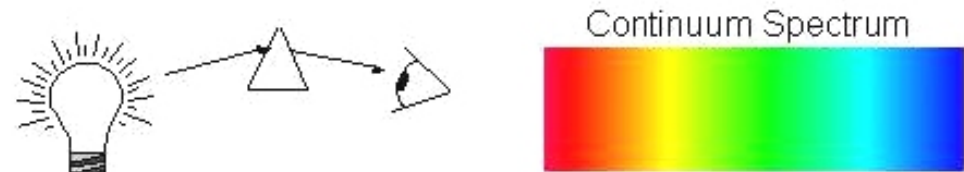


Interstellar Nebulae

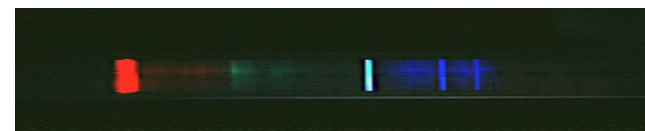
Emission Nebulae



Kirchhoff's laws

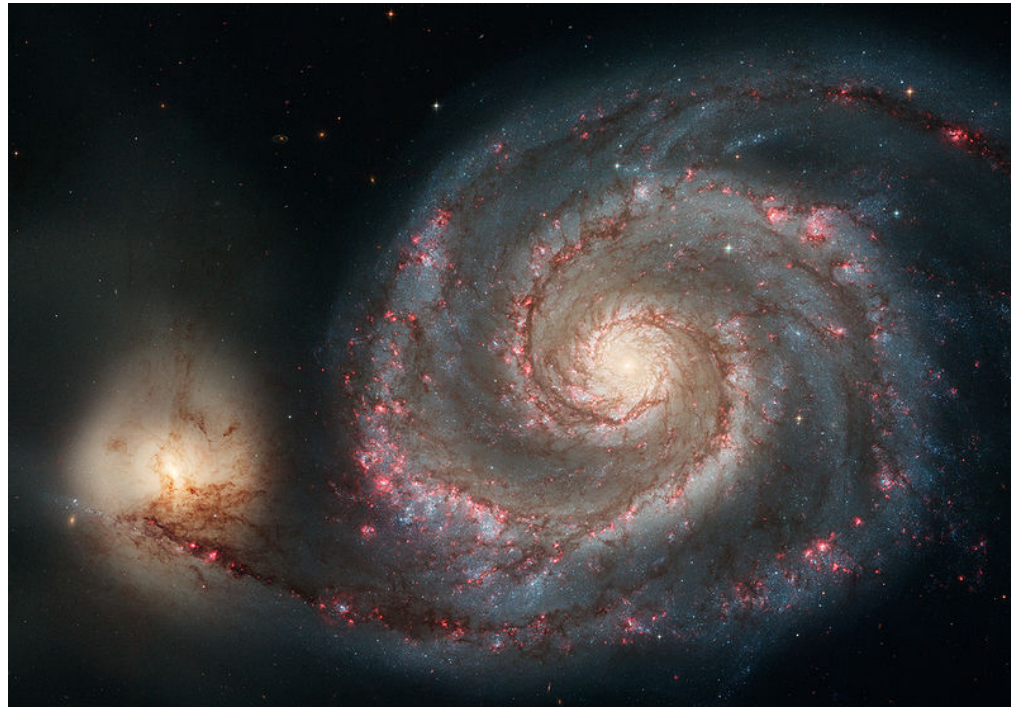


Hydrogen emission in the **6563 Å** line (H α)



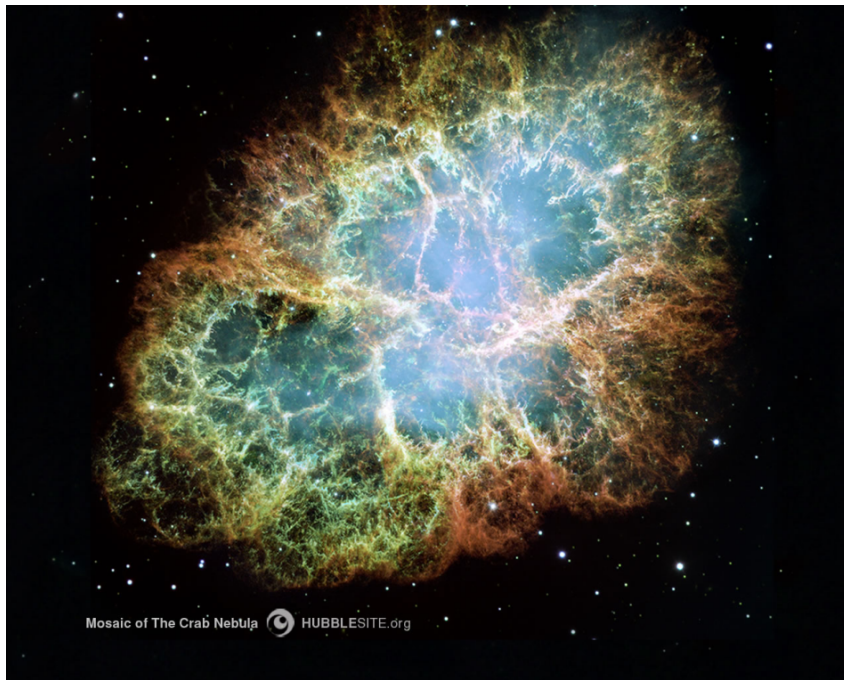
HII Regions

Emission Nebulae are also called HII Regions
HII for Ionized Hydrogen
(Neutral Hydrogen is HI)

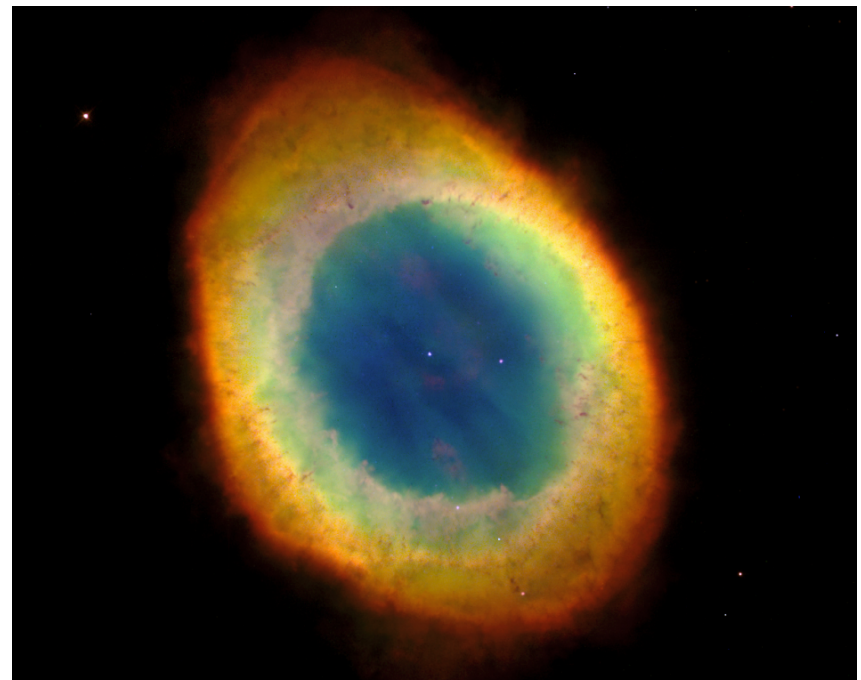


Emission nebulae

Emission Nebulae are red because of hydrogen emission in H-alpha
Can you tell then why are Supernovae Remnants and Planetary Nebulae so colorful?



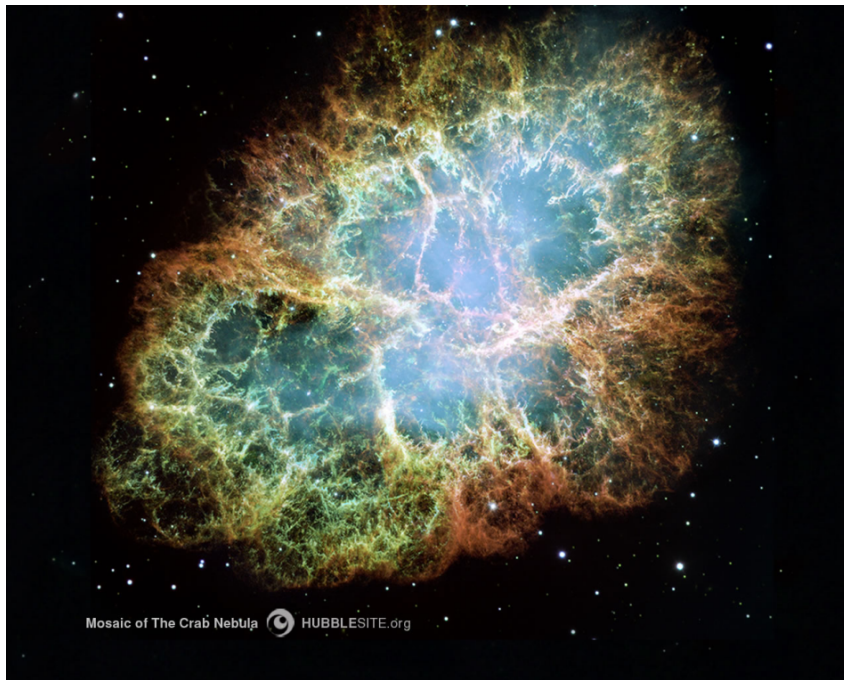
Crab Nebula
Supernova Remnant



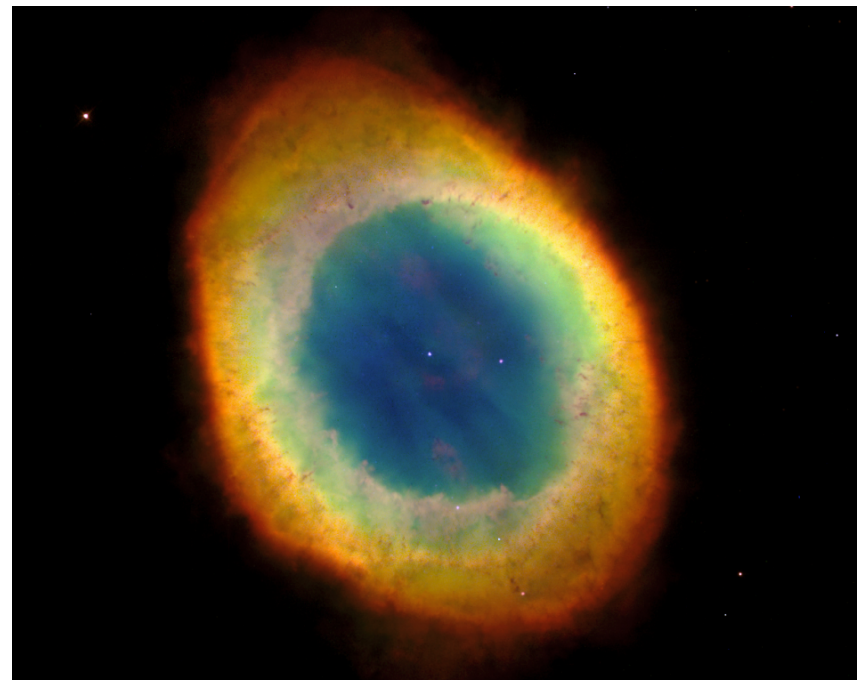
Ring Nebula
Planetary Nebula

Emission nebulae

Emission Nebulae are red because of hydrogen emission in H-alpha
Can you tell then why are Supernovae Remnants and Planetary Nebulae so colorful?

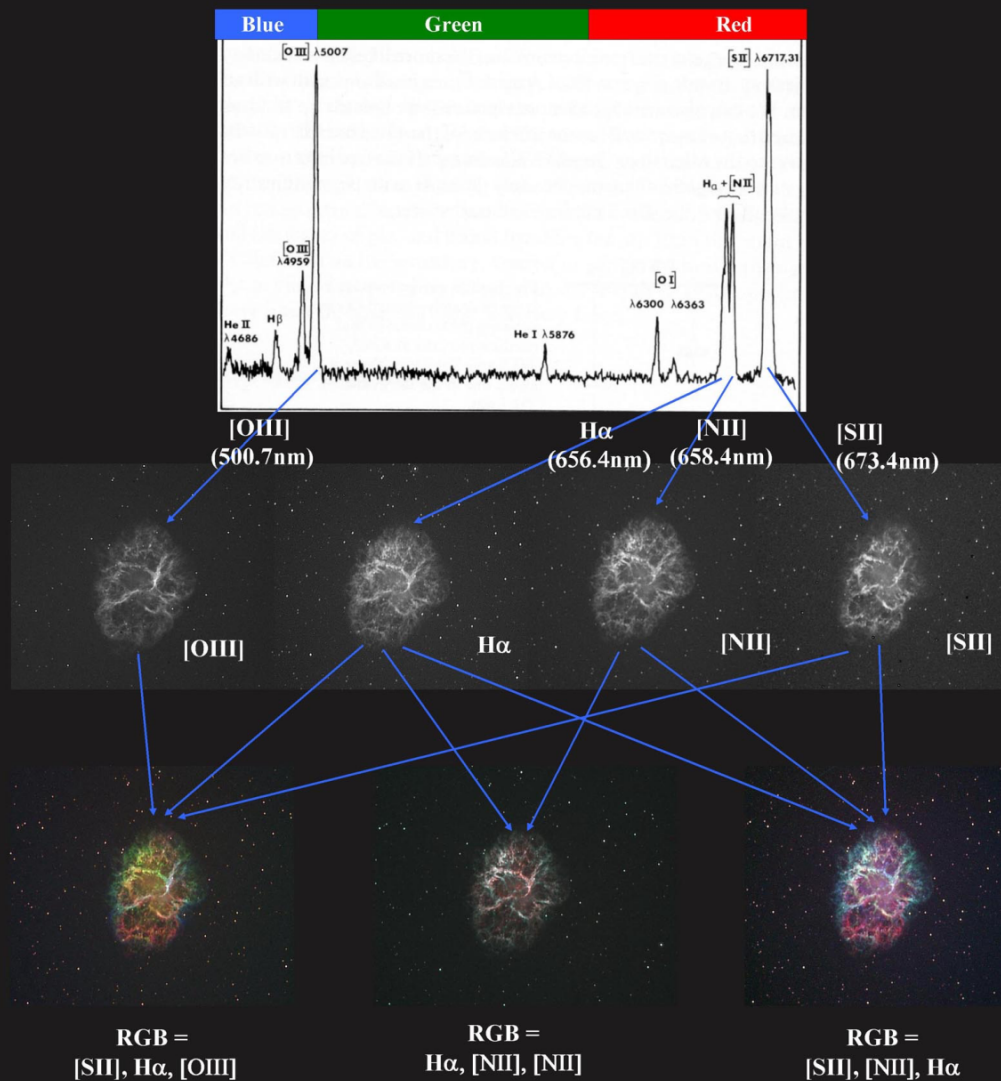


Crab Nebula
Supernova Remnant



Ring Nebula
Planetary Nebula

Chemically enriched !!
Not just hydrogen...



Spectrum of the
Crab Nebula

Prominent
Silicon line
(redder than **H-alpha**)
and **Oxygen line**
(green)

Emission, **Reflection**, and **Absorption**
in the same nebula



Trifid Nebula

An entanglement of nebulae...

The Antares-Rho Ophiuchi Region



Can you sort what you see?

An entanglement of nebulae...

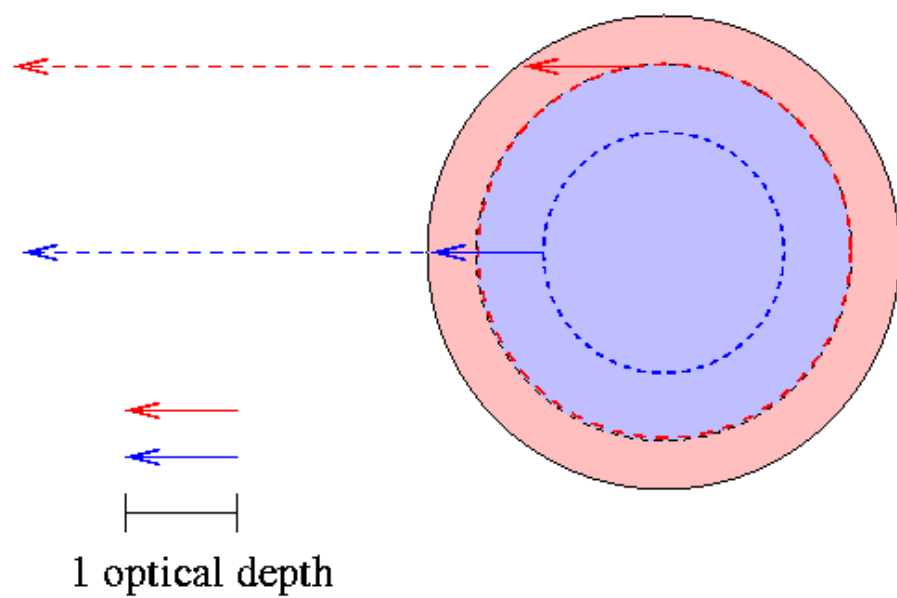
The Antares-Rho Ophiuchi Region



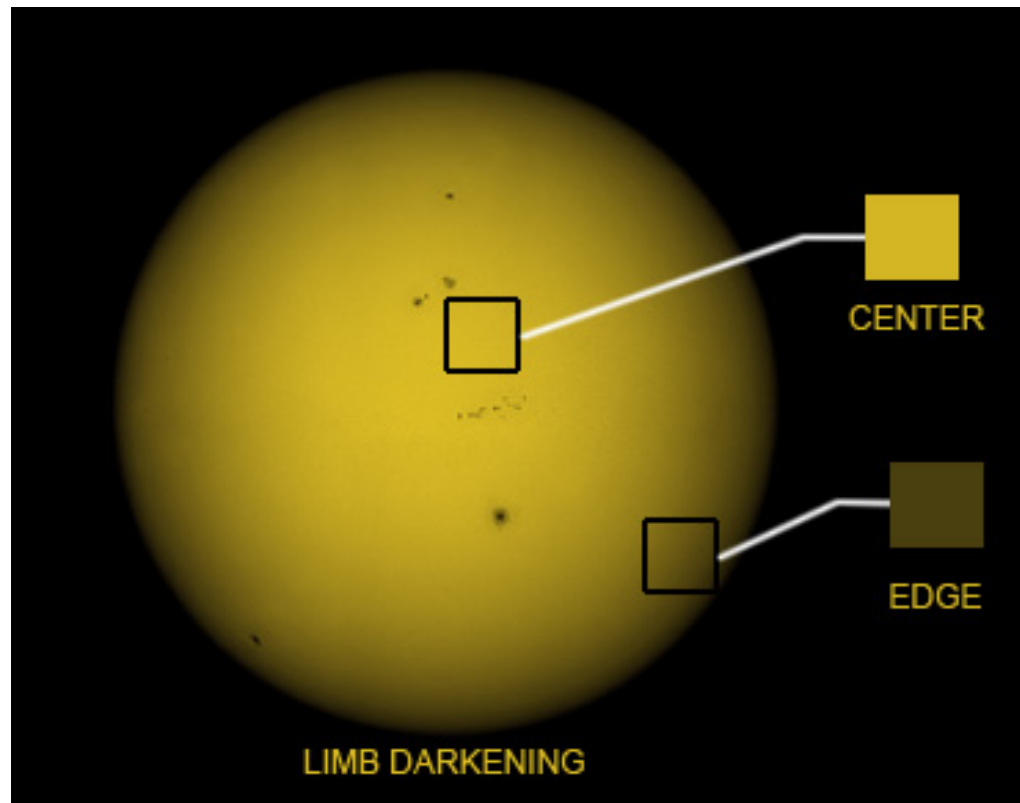
Can you sort what you see?

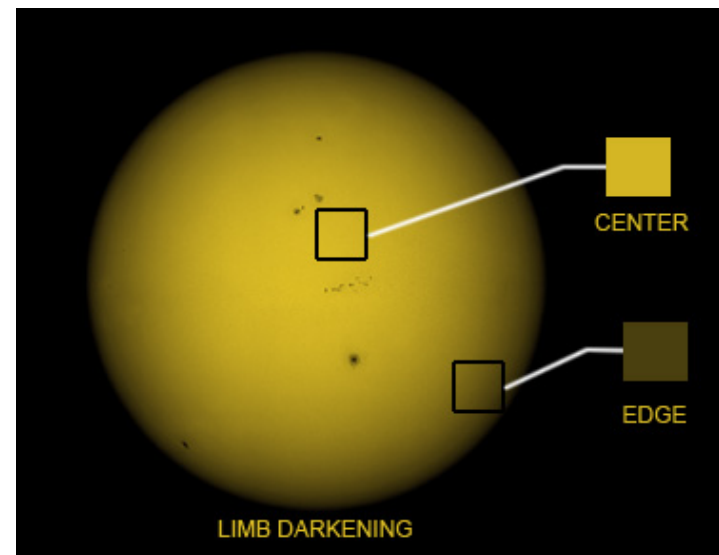
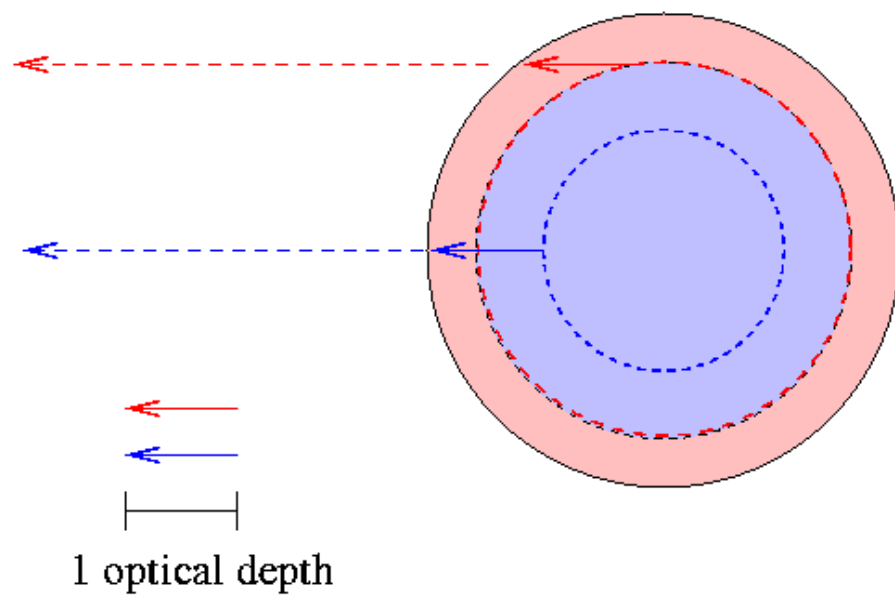
Limb brightening





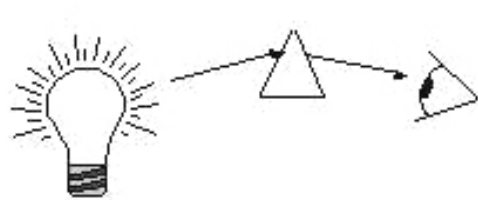
Limb darkening



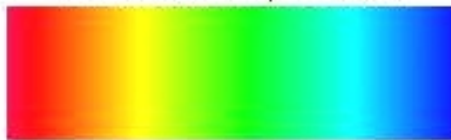


Spectroscopy

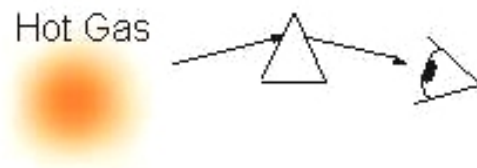
Spectral lines – Kirchhoff's three empirical laws of spectroscopy



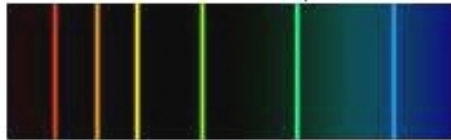
Continuum Spectrum



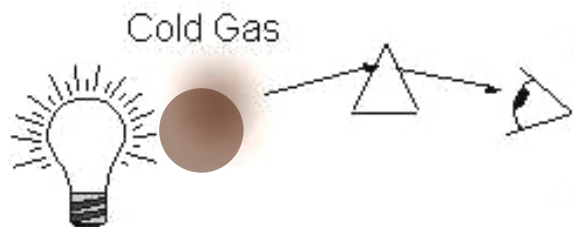
A hot solid or a hot dense gas produces a continuum spectrum.



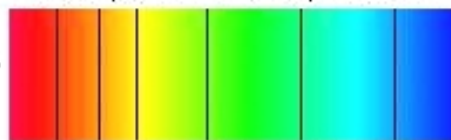
Emission Line Spectrum



A hot low-density gas produces an emission-line spectrum.

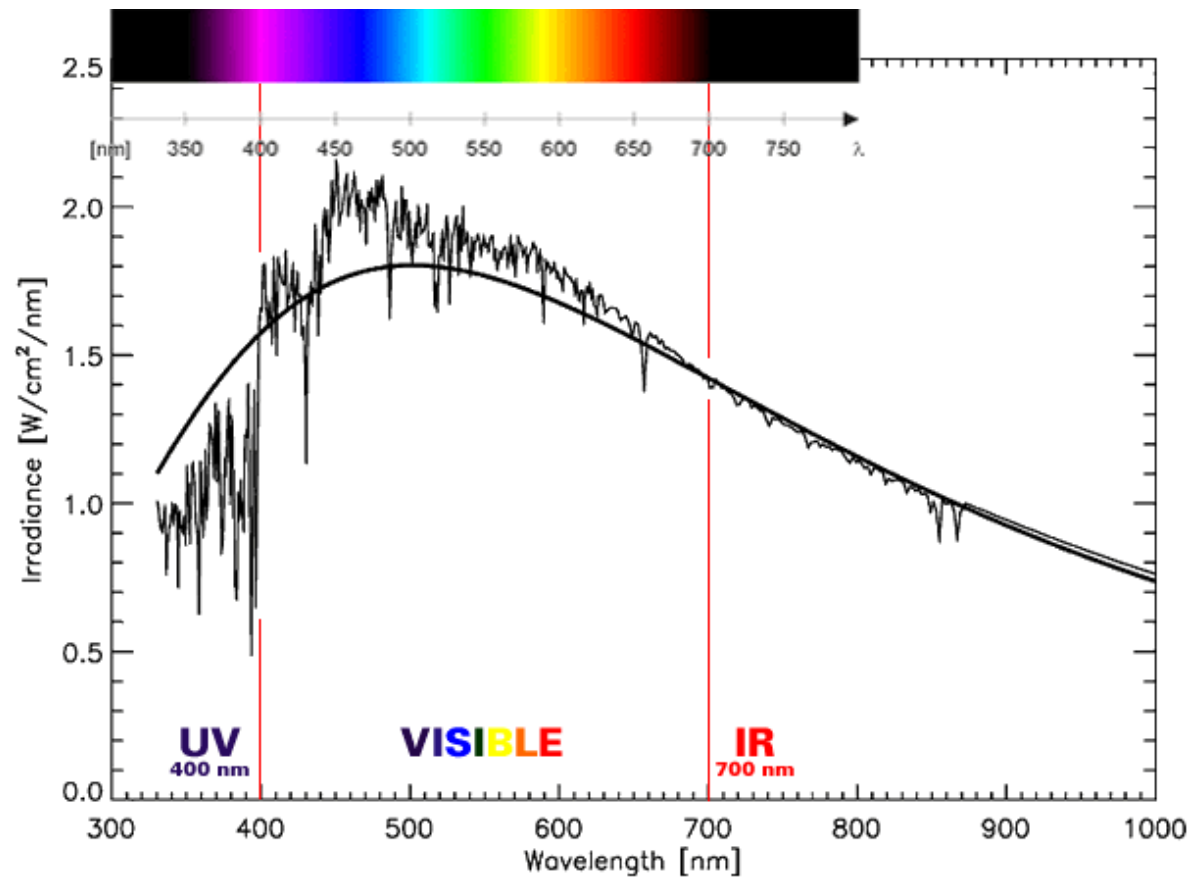


Absorption Line Spectrum



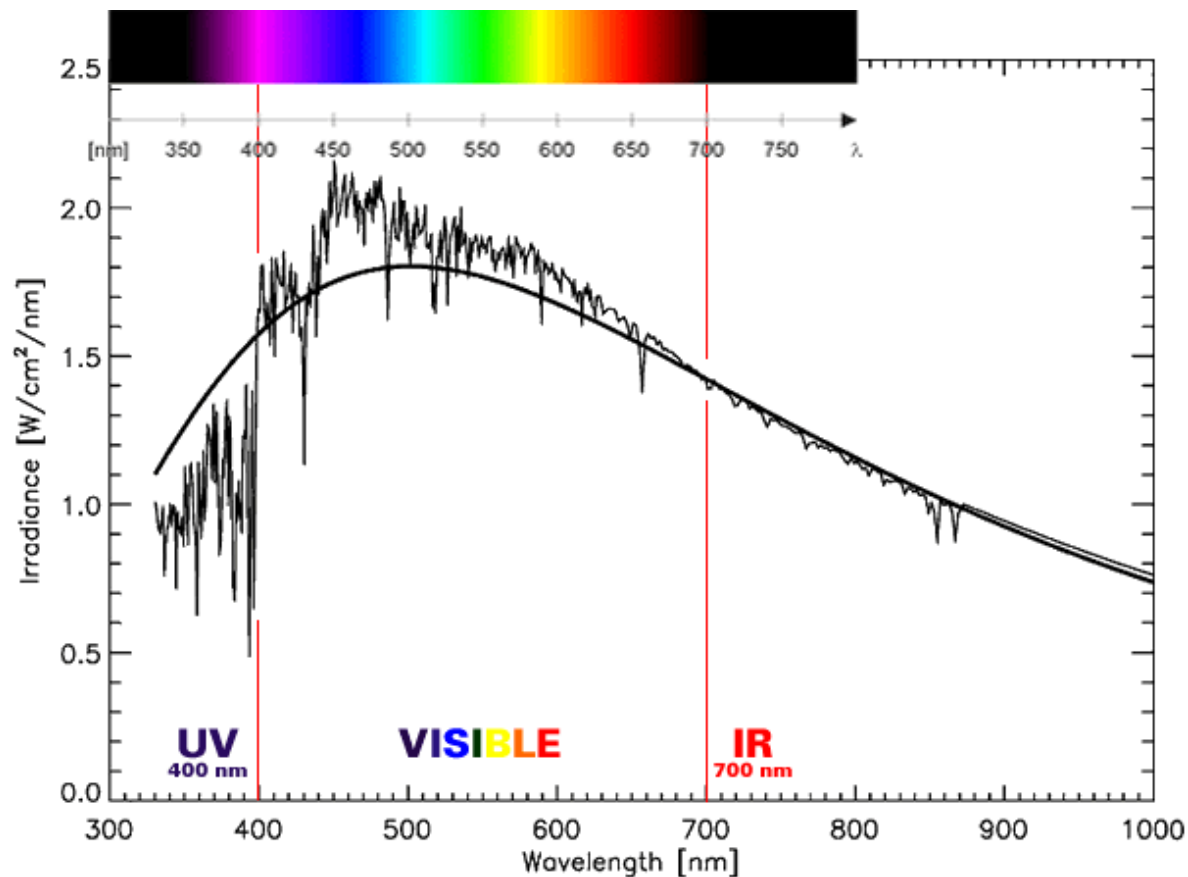
A continuous source viewed through a cold gas produces an absorption-line spectrum.

Solar Spectrum



The solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 1000nm as measured by Labs and Neckel (1962) and corrected by Neckel and Labs (1984).
It roughly follows a black body radiation curve of 5777 K (thick line), particularly in the IR.

Solar Spectrum

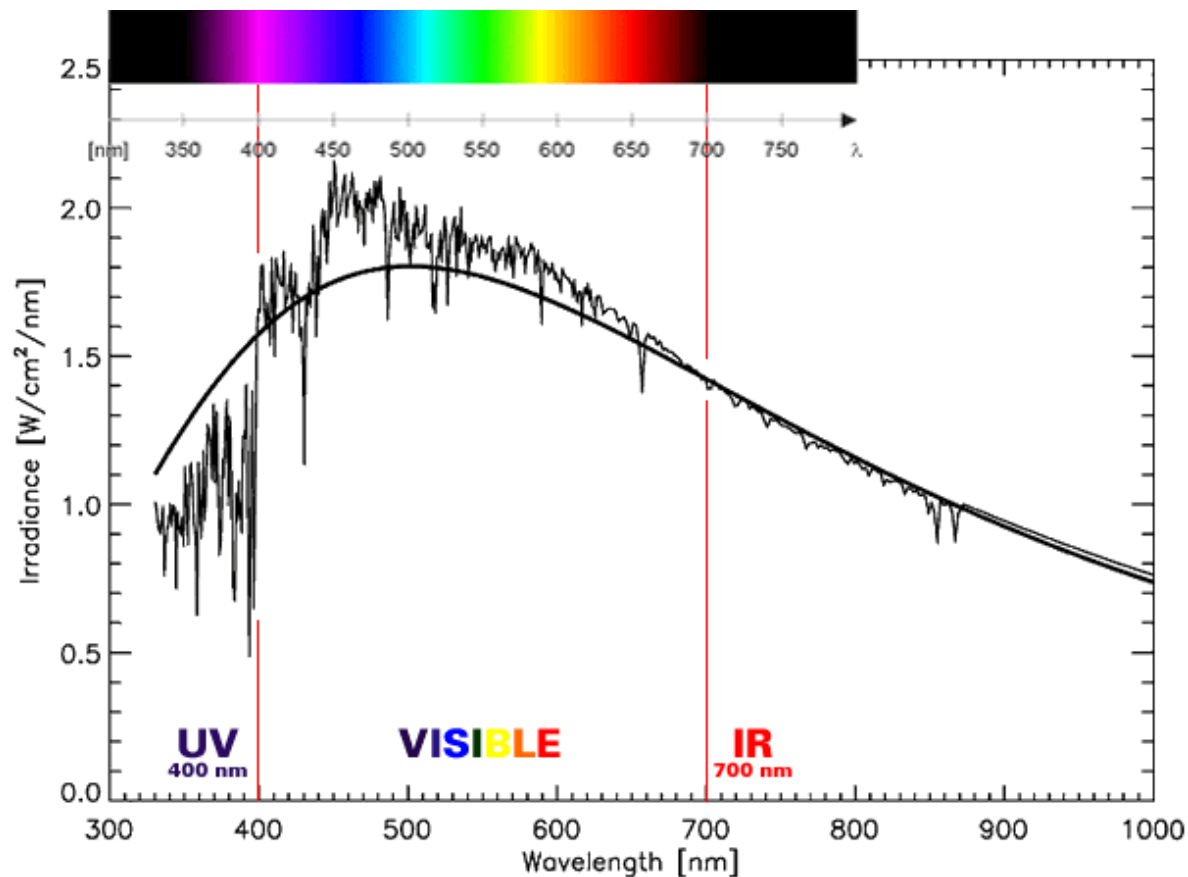


The solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 1000nm as measured by Labs and Neckel (1962) and corrected by Neckel and Labs (1984). It roughly follows a black body radiation curve of 5777 K (thick line), particularly in the IR.

Main features:

Spectral lines: bound-bound transition (excitation/de-excitation)

Solar Spectrum



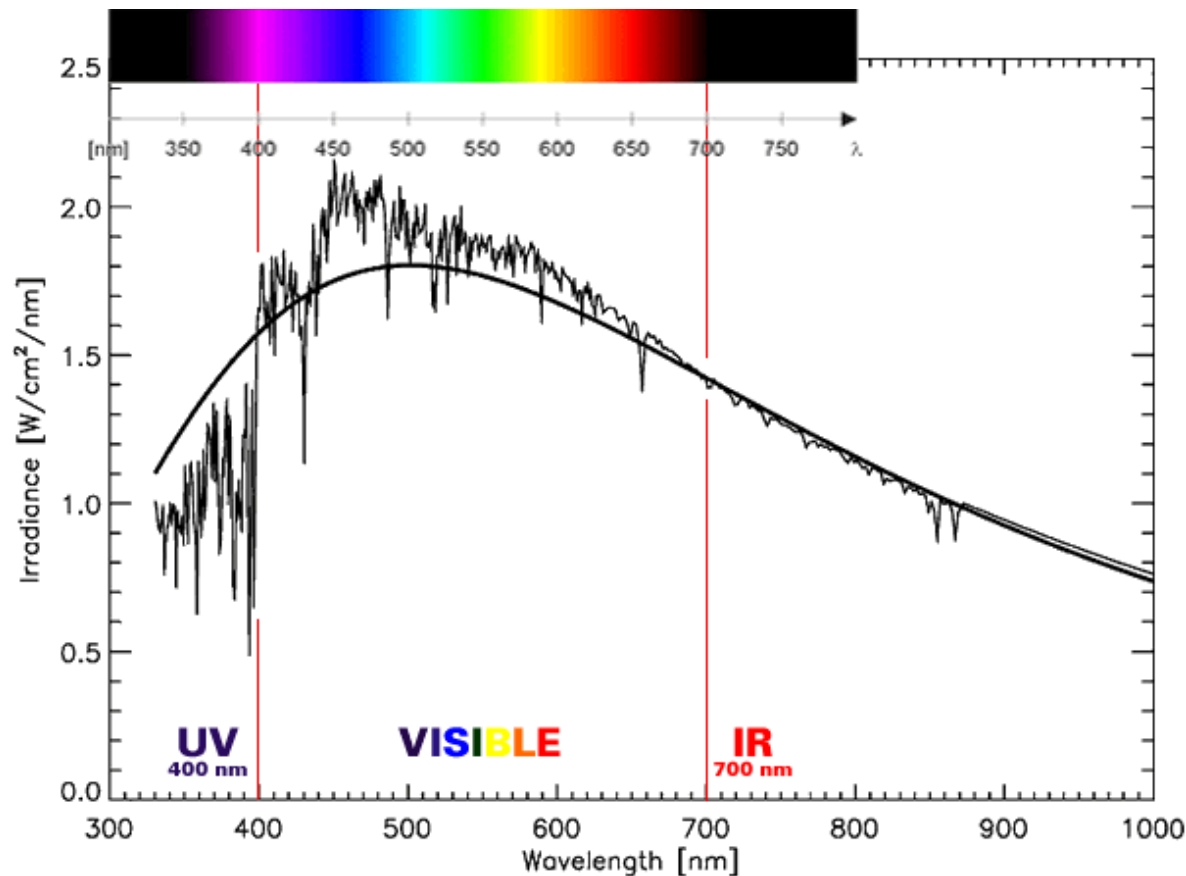
The solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 1000nm as measured by Labs and Neckel (1962) and corrected by Neckel and Labs (1984). It roughly follows a black body radiation curve of 5777 K (thick line), particularly in the IR.

Main features:

Spectral lines: bound-bound transition (excitation/de-excitation)

Balmer jump: bound-free transition (ionization/recombination)

Solar Spectrum



The solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 1000nm as measured by Labs and Neckel (1962) and corrected by Neckel and Labs (1984). It roughly follows a black body radiation curve of 5777 K (thick line), particularly in the IR.

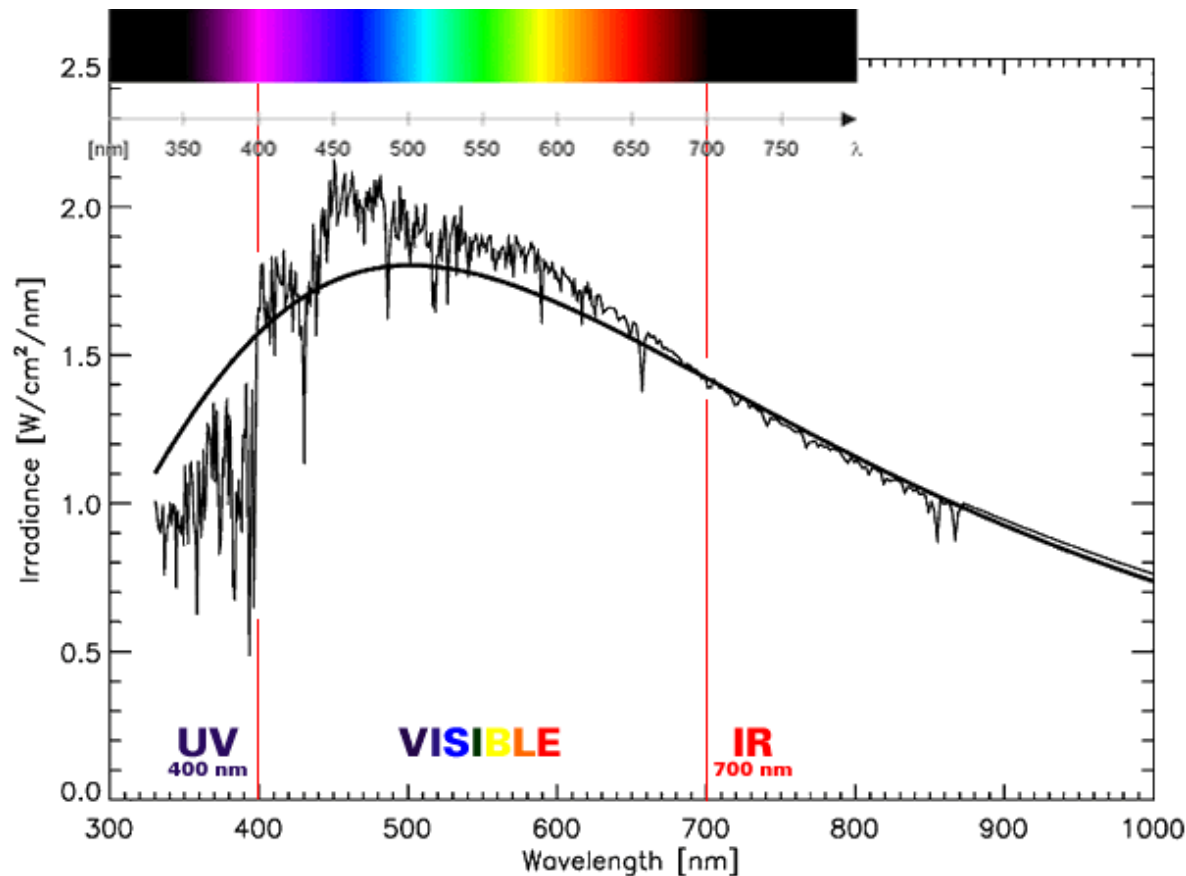
Main features:

Spectral lines: bound-bound transition
(excitation/de-excitation)

Balmer jump: bound-free transition
(ionization/recombination)

Continuum.
How it is formed?

Solar Spectrum



The solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 1000nm as measured by Labs and Neckel (1962) and corrected by Neckel and Labs (1984). It roughly follows a black body radiation curve of 5777 K (thick line), particularly in the IR.

Main features:

Spectral lines: bound-bound transition (excitation/de-excitation)

Balmer jump: bound-free transition (ionization/recombination)

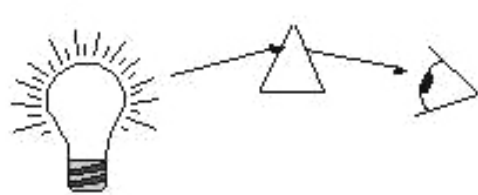
Continuum.

How it is formed?

Must be **free-free** emission.

Spectroscopy

Continuum - Kirchhoff's first law



Continuum Spectrum



A hot solid or a hot dense gas produces a continuum spectrum.

Hot Gas



Emission Line Spectrum

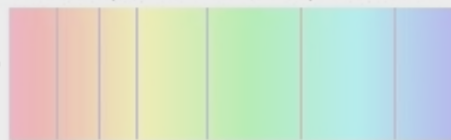


A hot low-density gas produces an emission-line spectrum.

Cold Gas

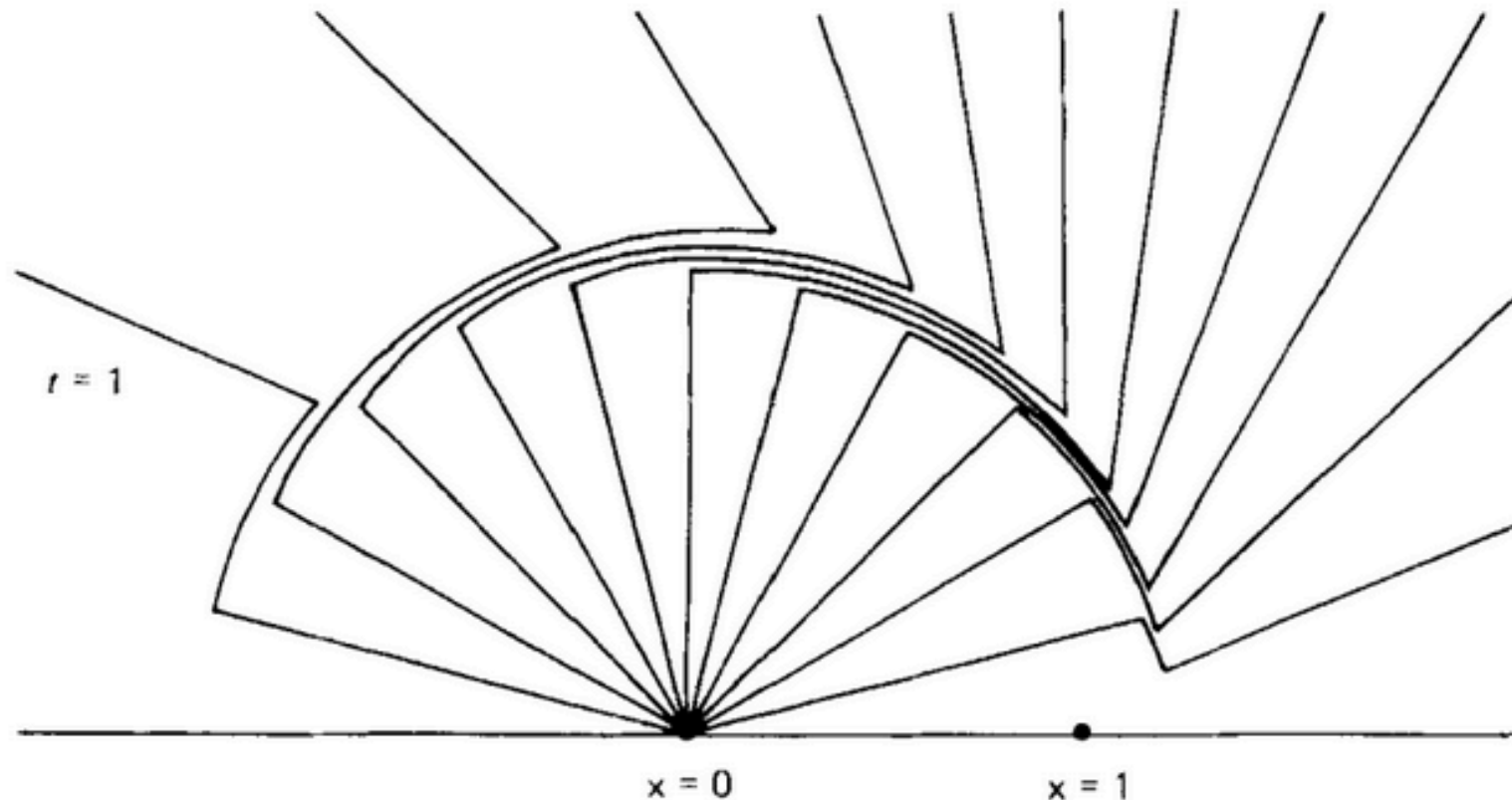


Absorption Line Spectrum

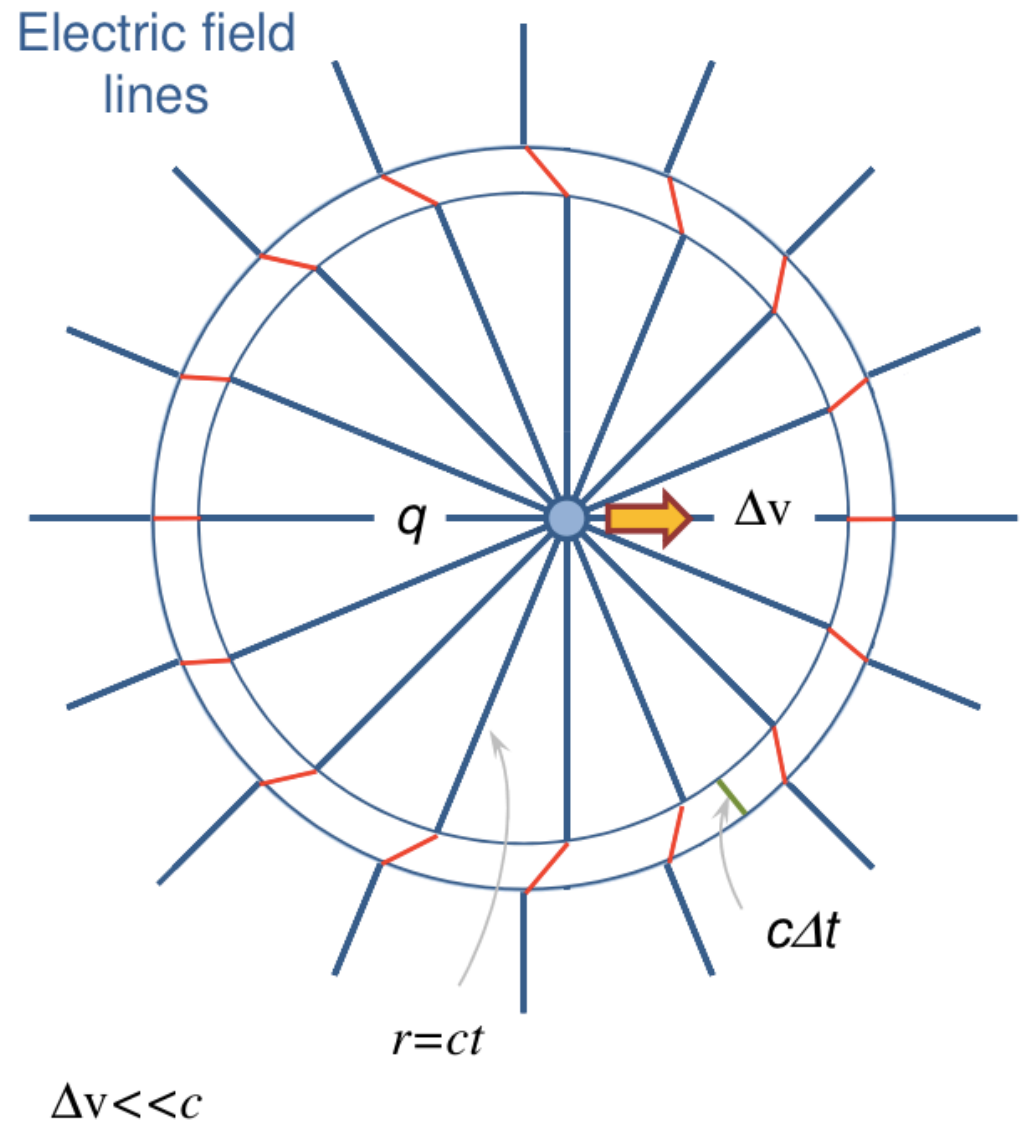


A continuous source viewed through a cold gas produces an absorption-line spectrum.

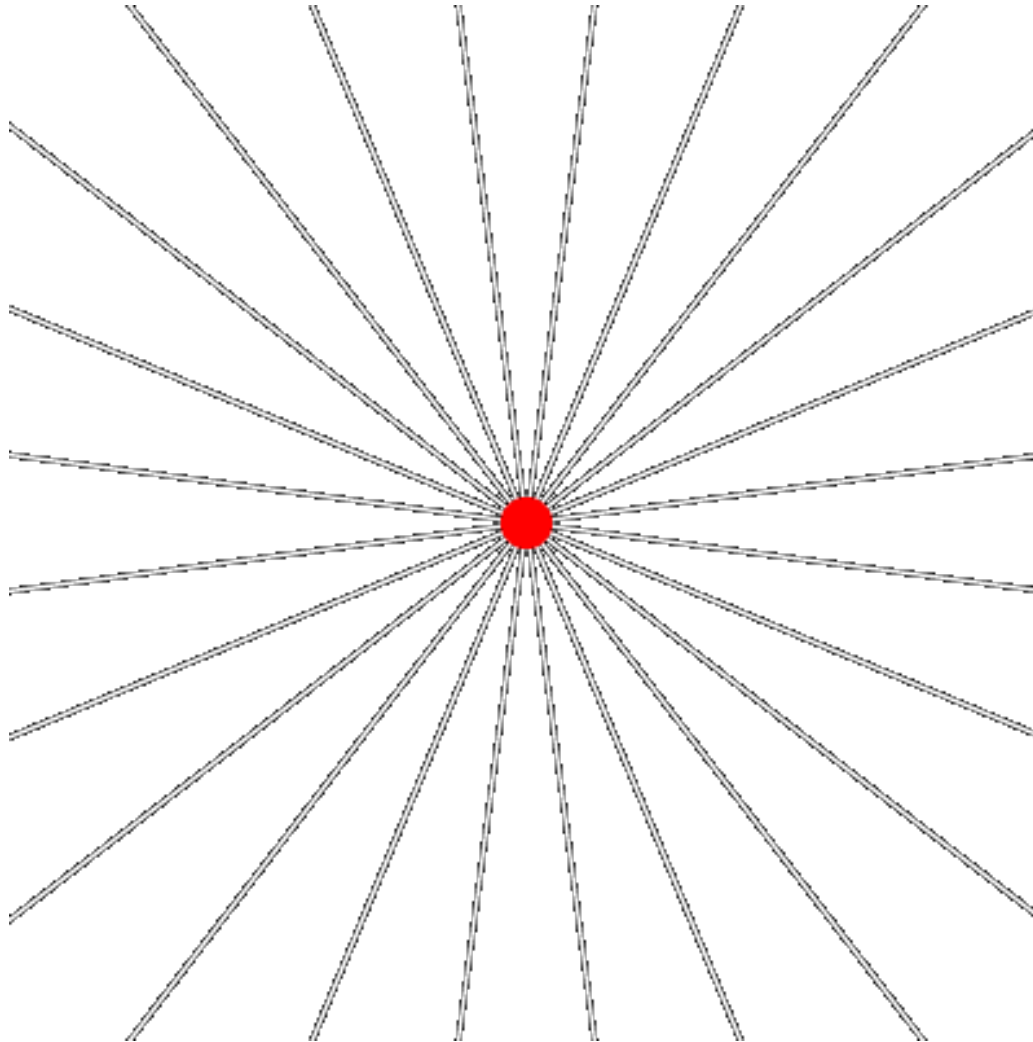
The figure shows how the radiation field arises. This is the situation after a charge that was moving suddenly stops. The charge stopped at $x=0$ and $t=0$, and the situation is shown at time $t=1$. The speed of light is $c=1$. Inside the radius $x=ct=1$ the field “knows” the charge has stopped, and the field lines point toward the charge in the electrostatic Coulomb configuration. Outside $x=1$ the news that the charge has stopped have not yet arrived, and the field points to where the charge would be, as if it is still moving. The discontinuity is the acceleration field. This field is a pulse propagating at the speed of light, and constitutes the radiation field.



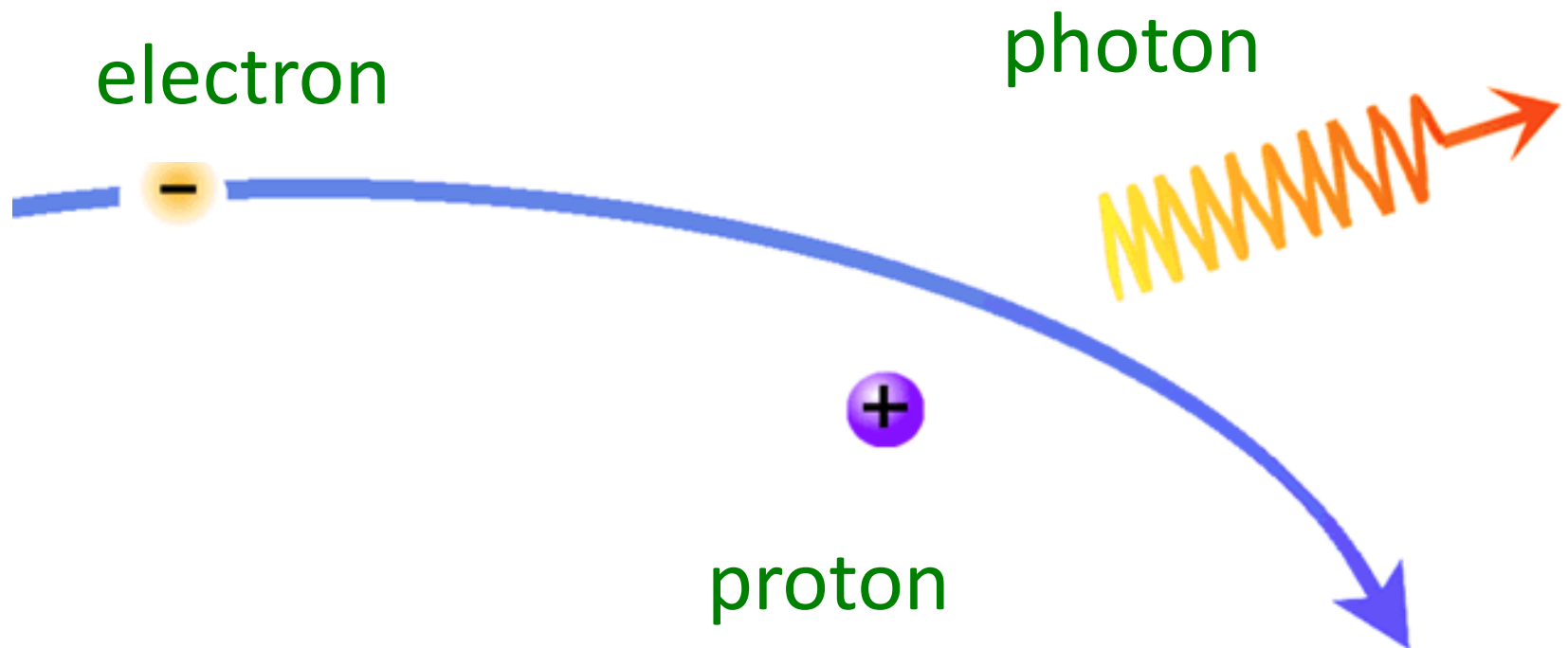
This is similar to the previous situation, but for the opposite case, of a charge that was at rest and suddenly starts to move. The field within a light crossing time knows that the charge is moving, but outside the light crossing time the field still points toward the origin, unaware that the charge is no longer at rest. The acceleration field, in red, is the only way to bridge the discontinuity while obeying Maxwell's equations.



Switch to slideshow to see this animated gif of the propagation of the acceleration field as a pulse. This pulse is radiation. Our eyes perceive it as light.



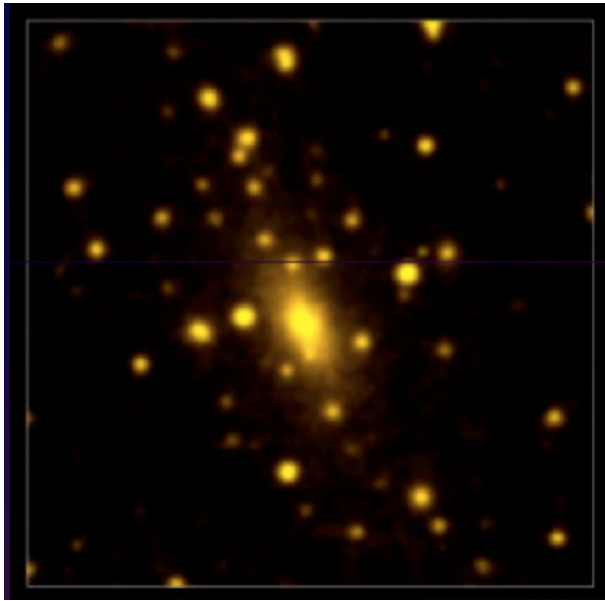
Bremsstrahlung (braking radiation)



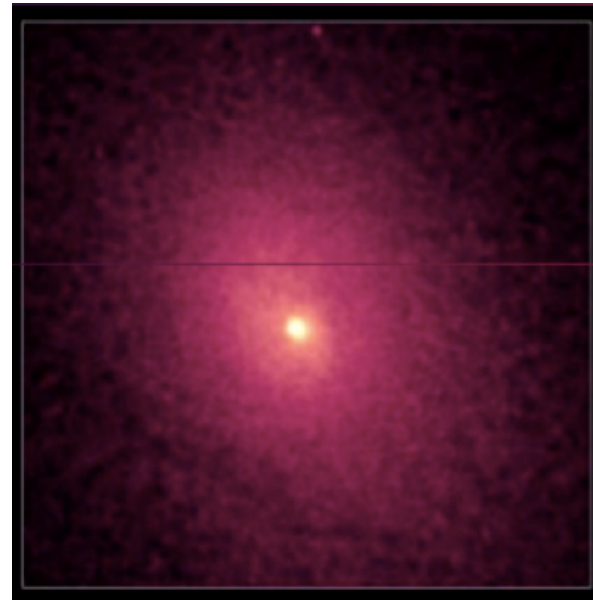
Bremsstrahlung in Astrophysics

Occurs whenever there is diffuse hot (ionized) gas

X-ray emission from clusters of galaxies



Optical
(Galaxy cluster Abell 2029)



X-ray
(Diffuse emission)

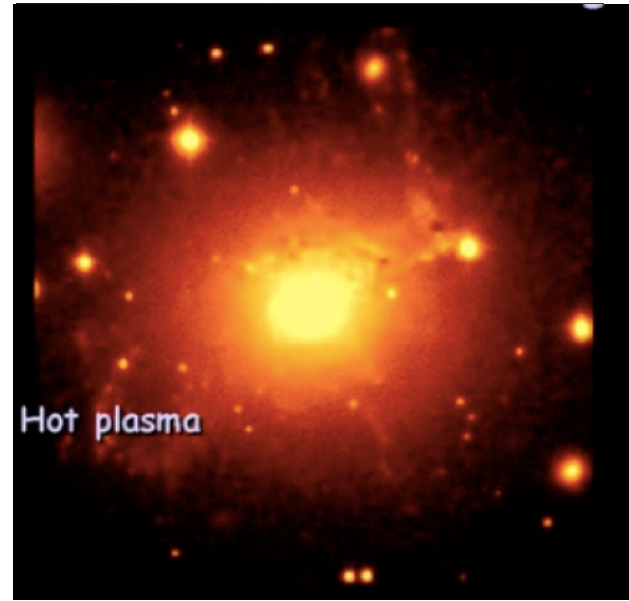
Bremsstrahlung in Astrophysics

Occurs whenever there is diffuse hot (ionized) gas

X-ray emission from clusters of galaxies

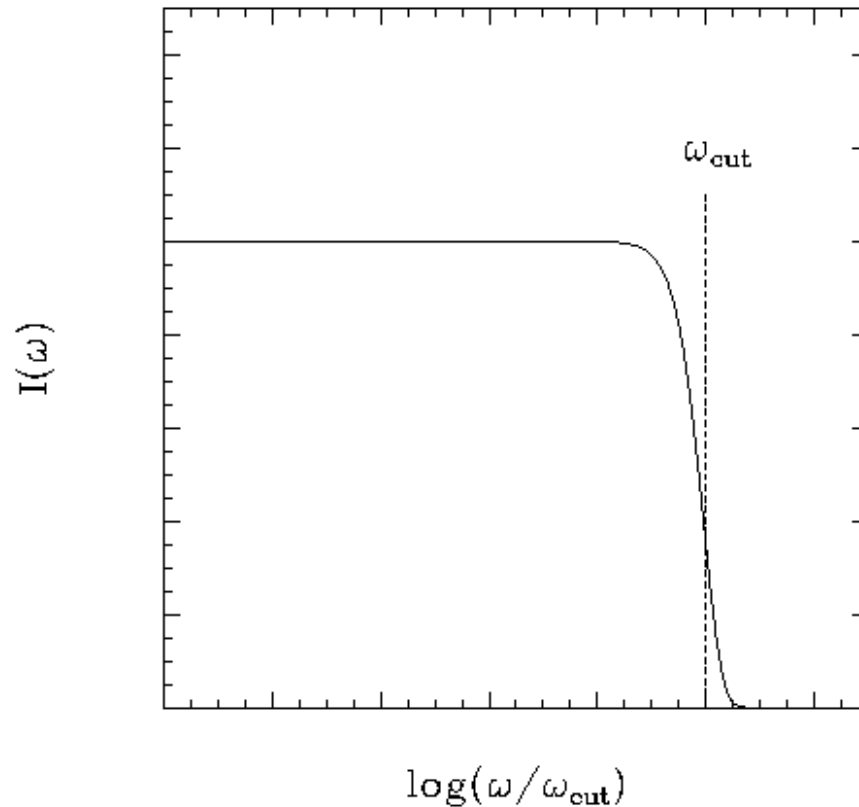


Optical
(Perseus cluster)



X-ray
(Diffuse emission)

Spectrum of Bremsstrahlung

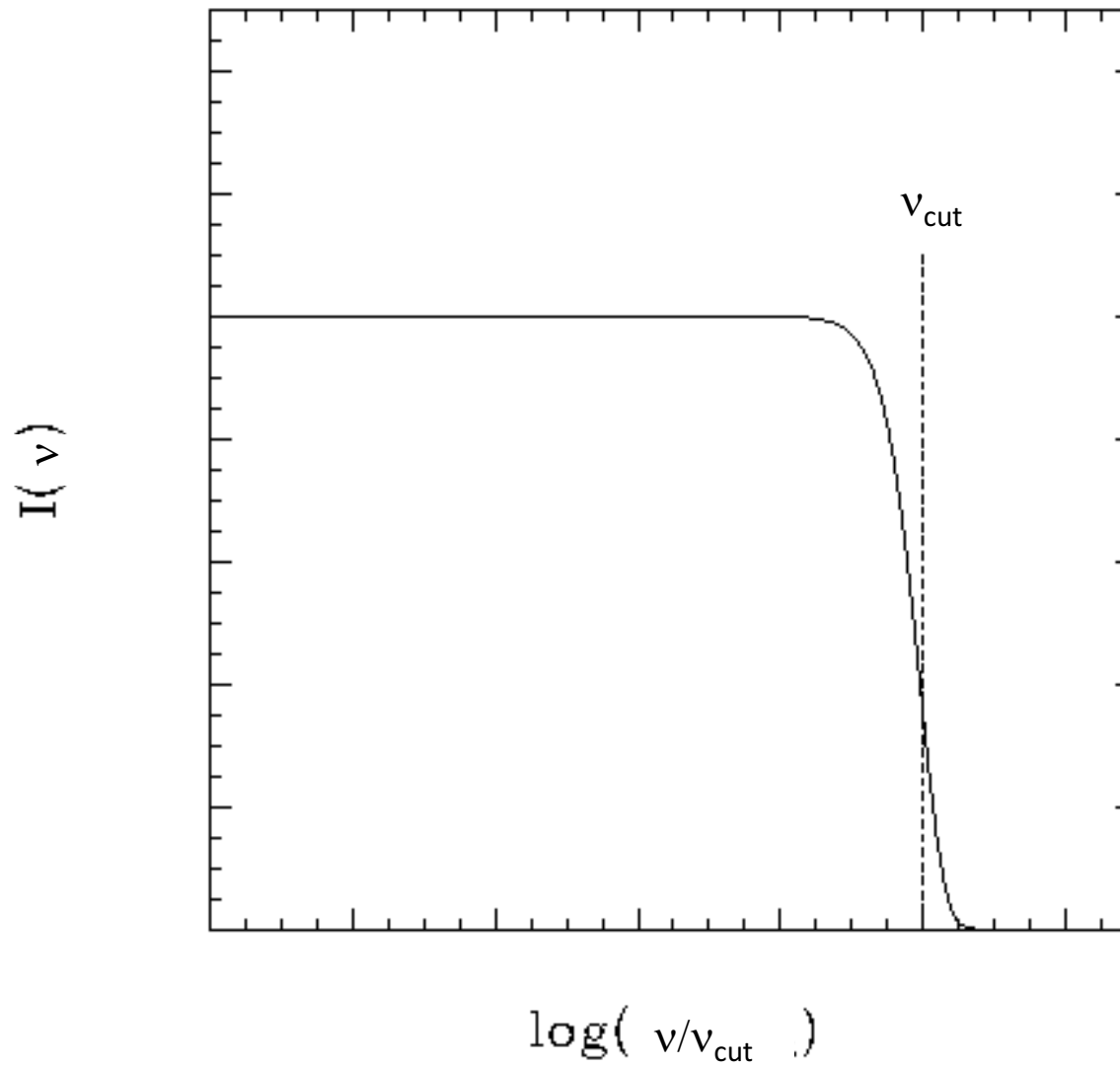


Main features:

The spectrum of Bremsstrahlung has **flat emissivity**.

At some point it must have a thermal cutoff, because high frequencies imply high energy and the electron cannot emit a photon with energy higher than its kinetic energy.

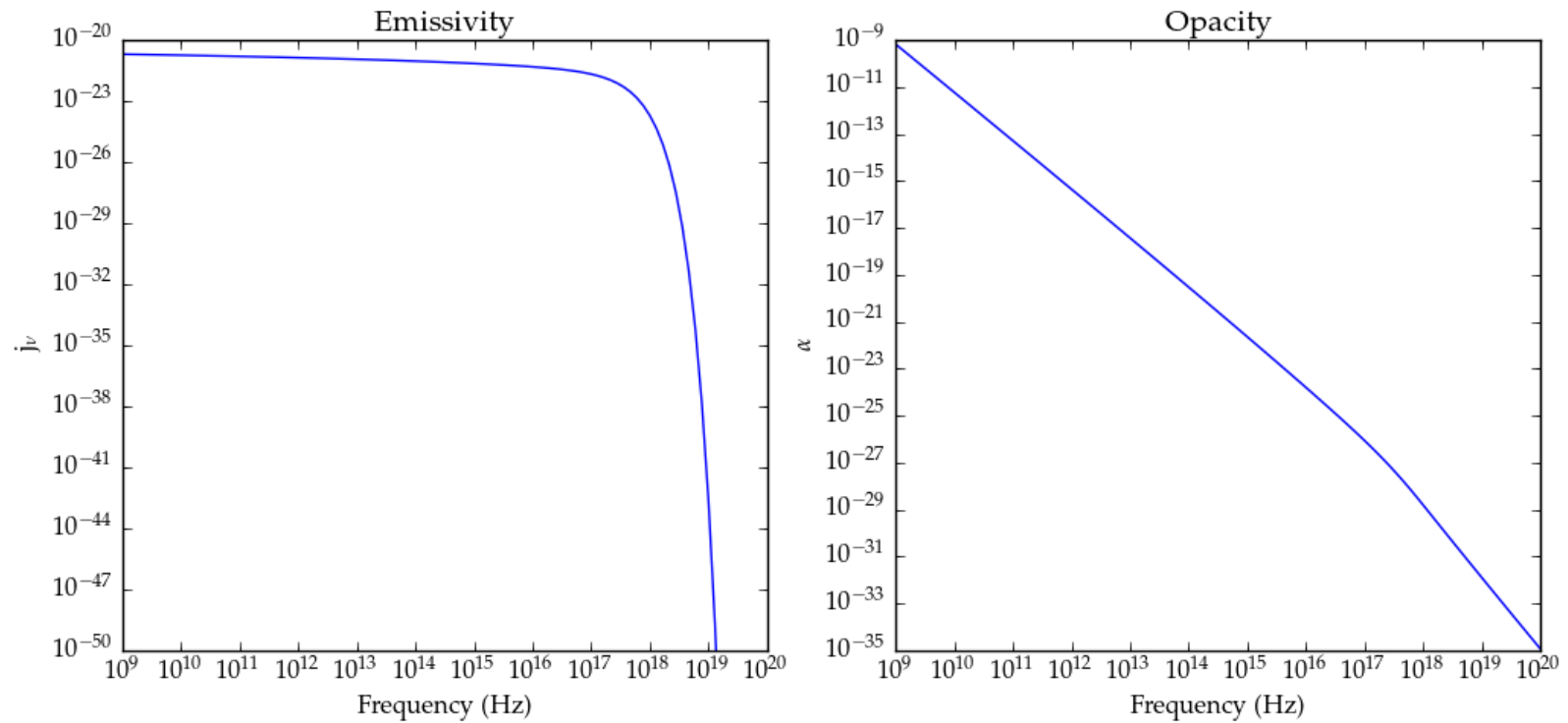
Spectrum of Bremsstrahlung



Opacity

Given the emissivity, Kirchhoff first law gives the opacity

$$\kappa_\nu = j_\nu B_\nu$$

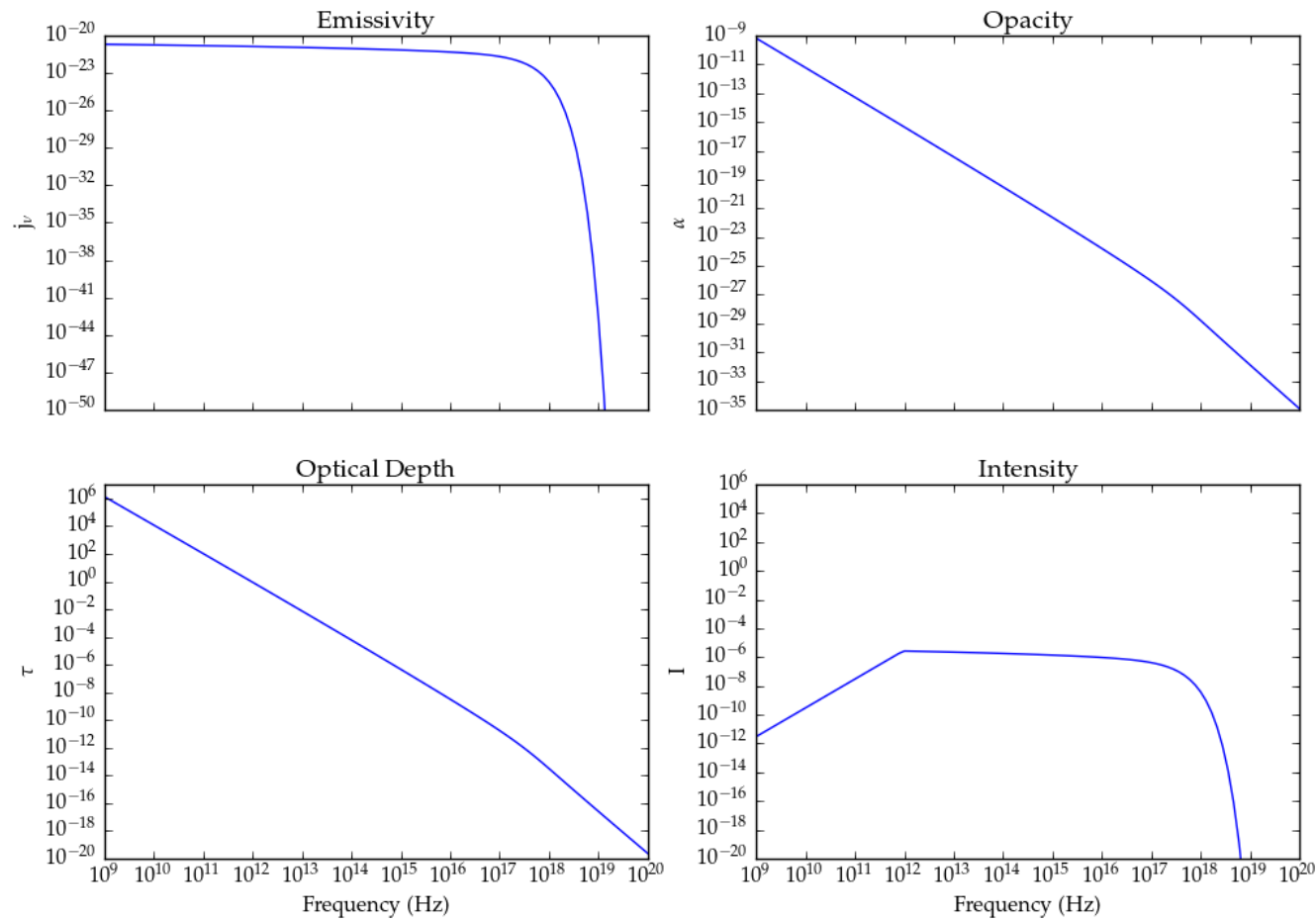


Opacity

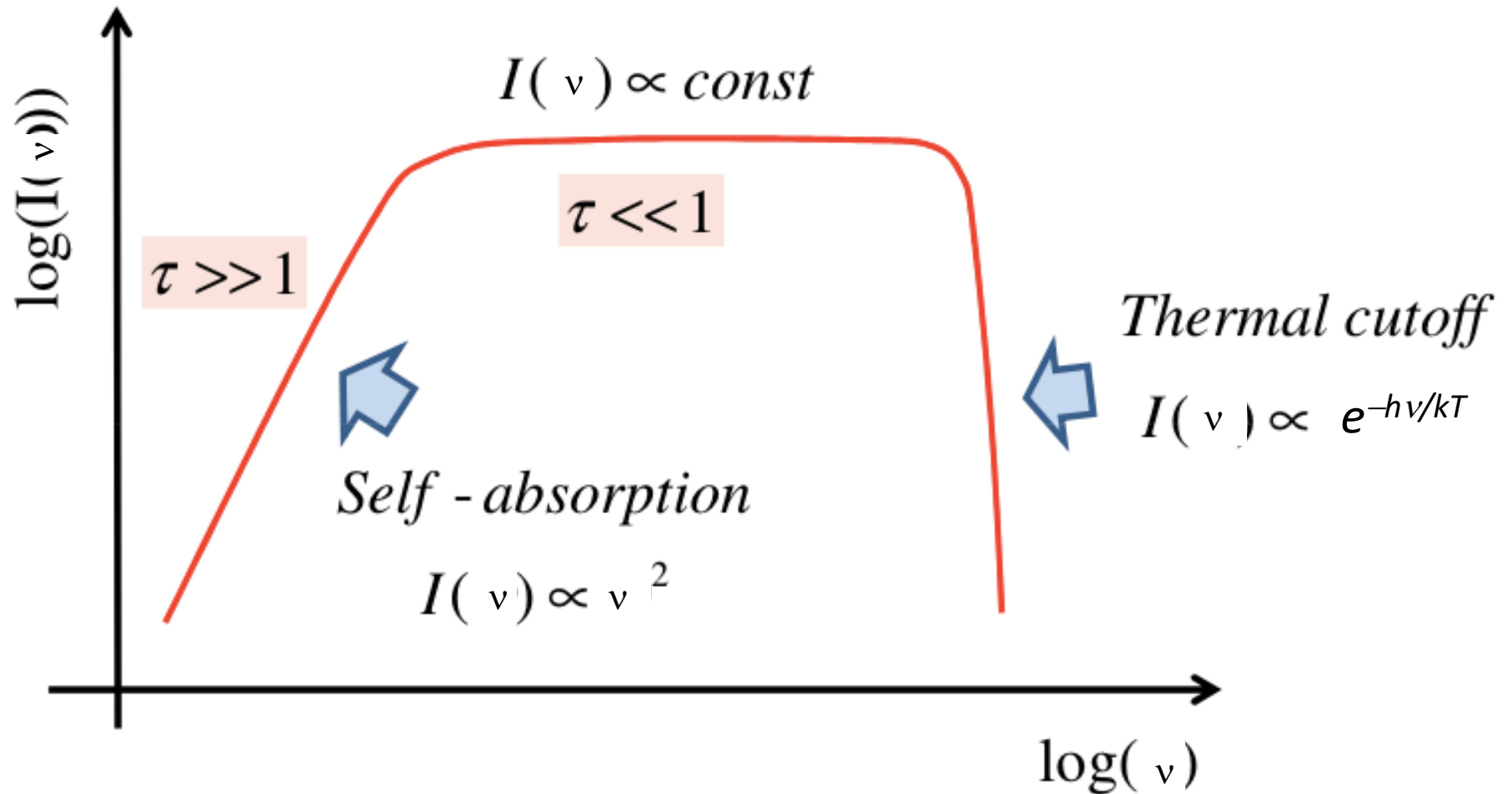
Electrons emit, electrons absorb.

At low frequency, the spectrum becomes optically-thick.

The ensemble of electrons is absorbing the radiation it emits.

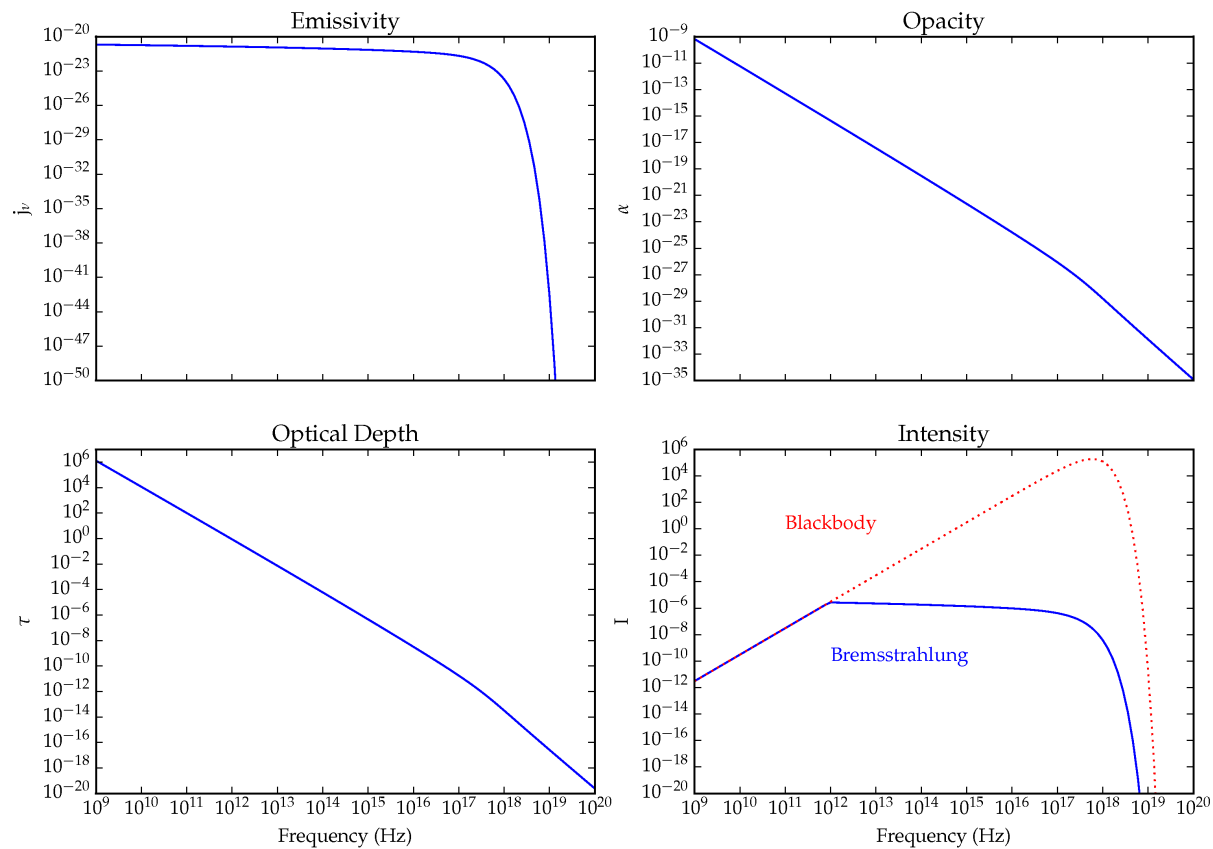


- Spectrum of Thermal Bremsstrahlung



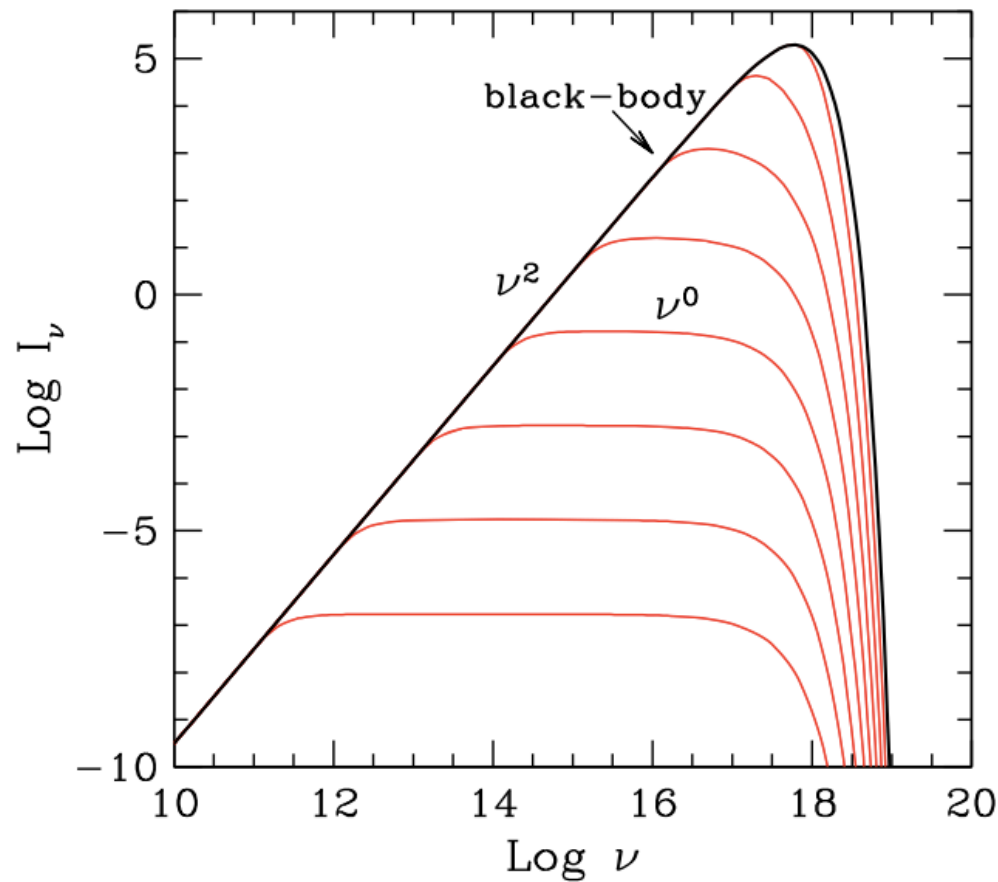
From Bremsstrahlung to Blackbody

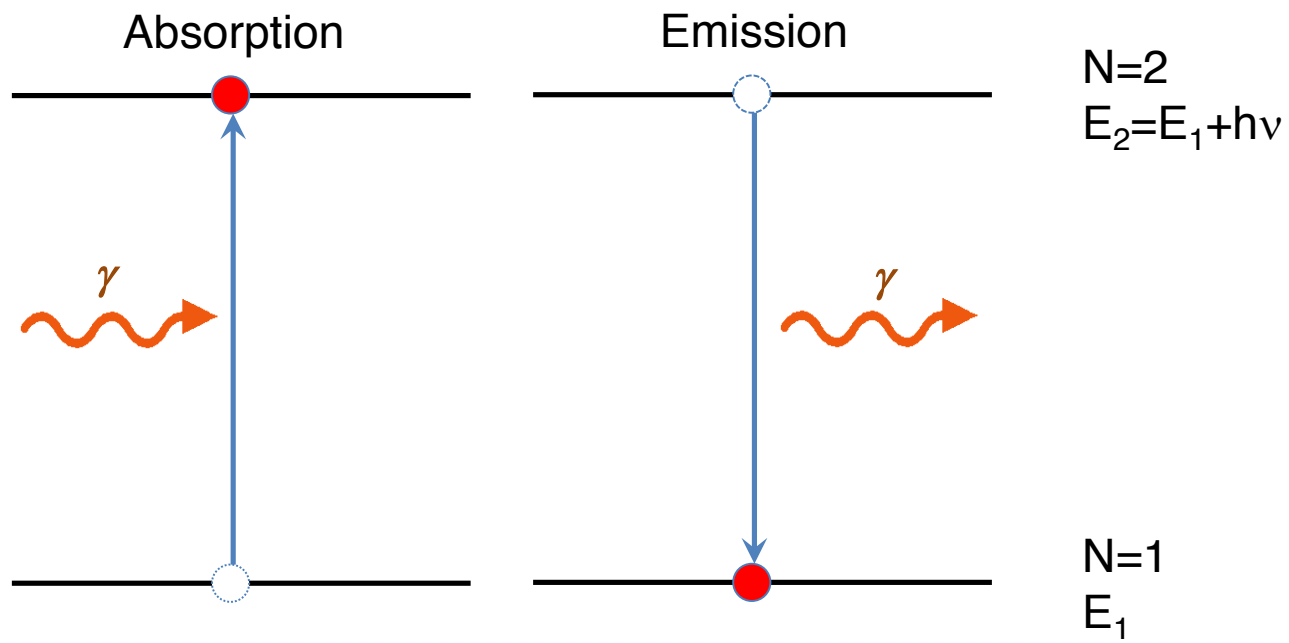
Compare the spectra of Bremsstrahlung to that of blackbody.
In the optically thick regime, they match.



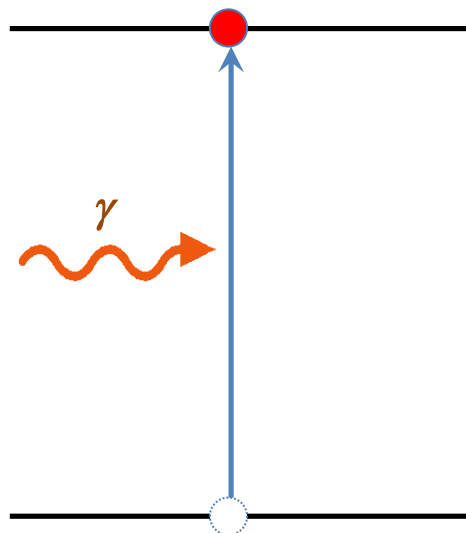
From Bremsstrahlung to Blackbody

As one increases the density, one increases the optical depth. When the whole spectrum is optically thick, the whole spectrum becomes self-absorbed, and Bremsstrahlung becomes blackbody.

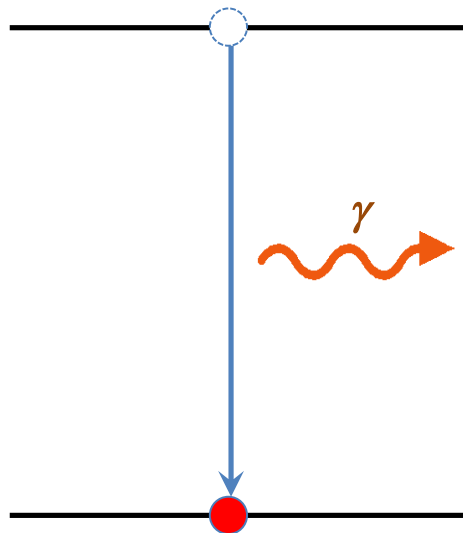




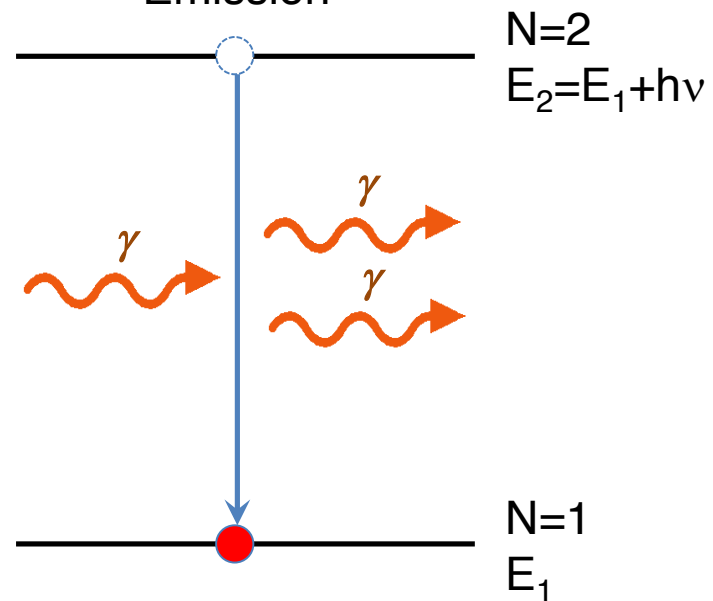
Absorption

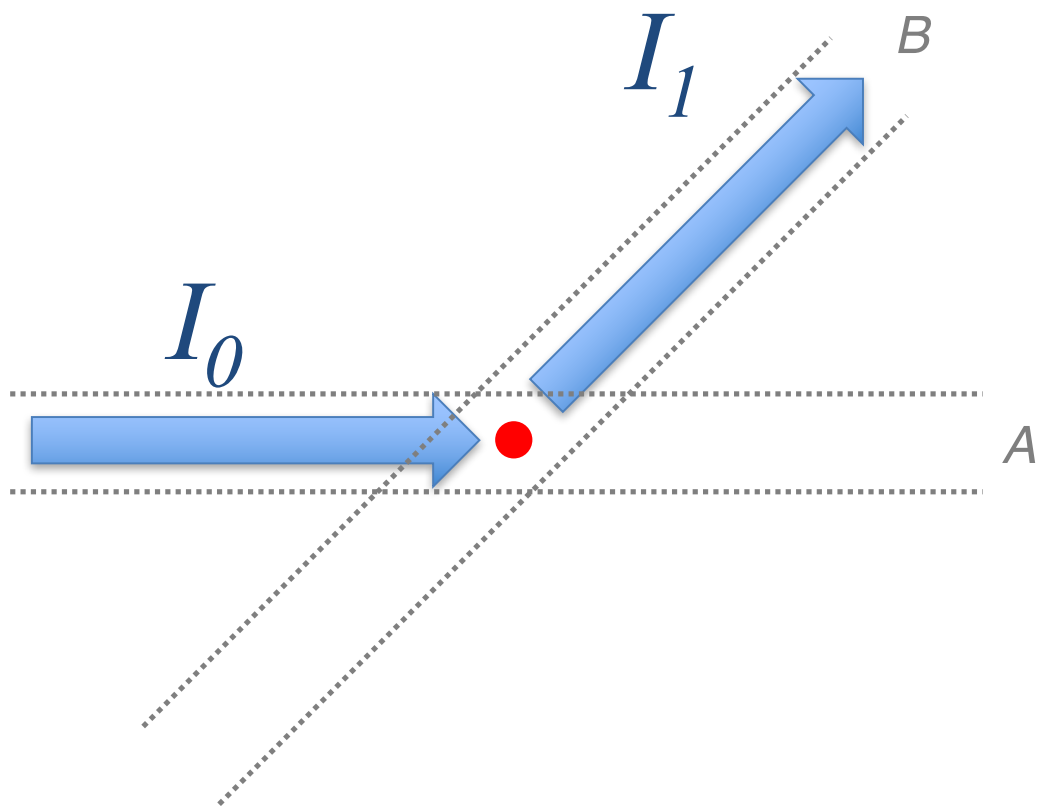


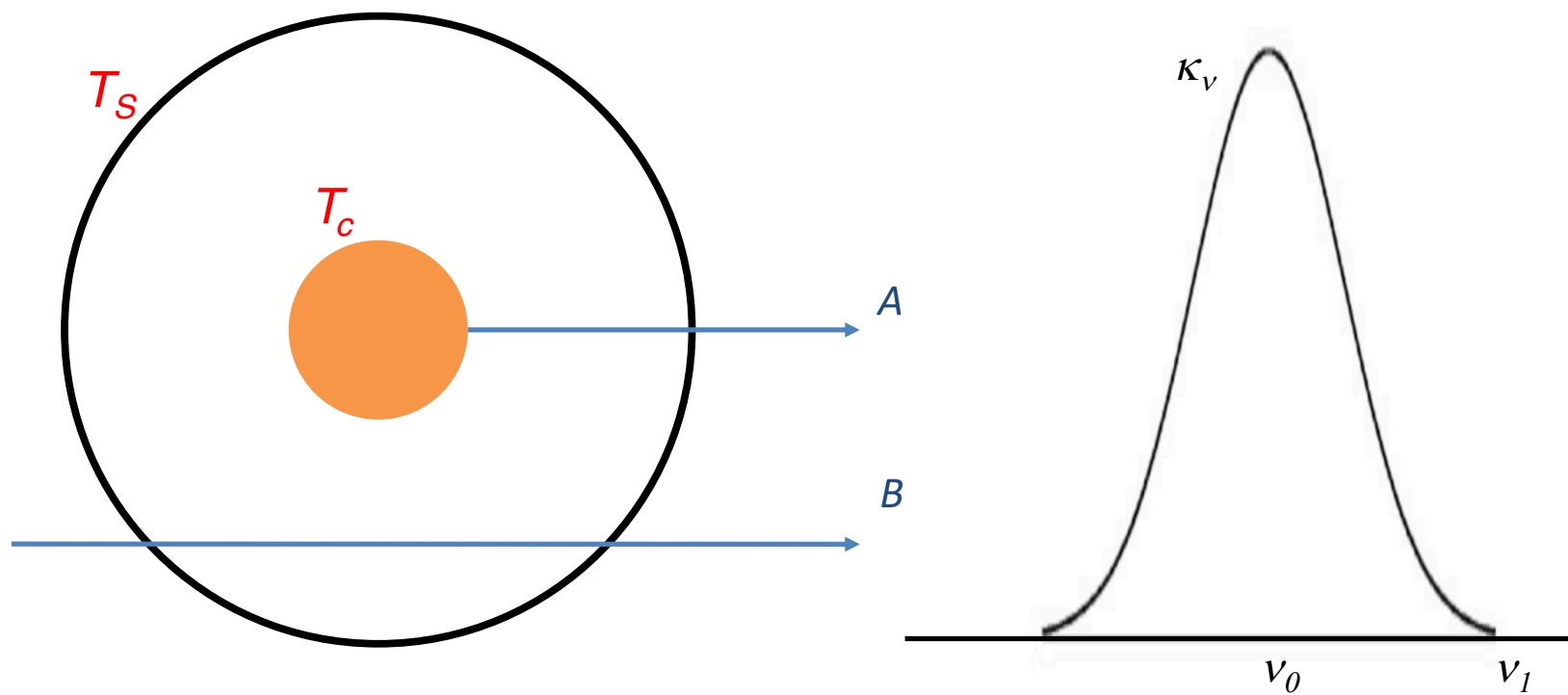
Spontaneous Emission



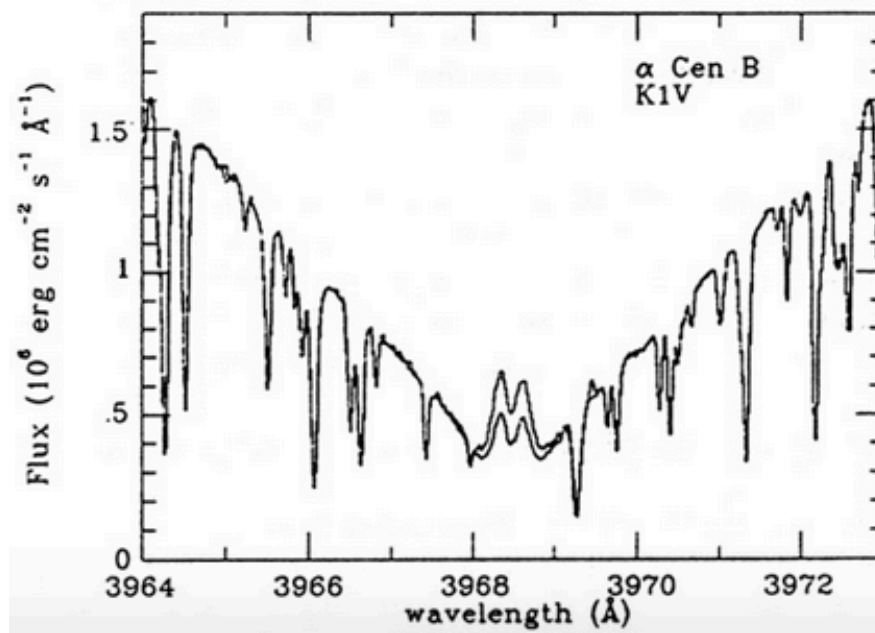
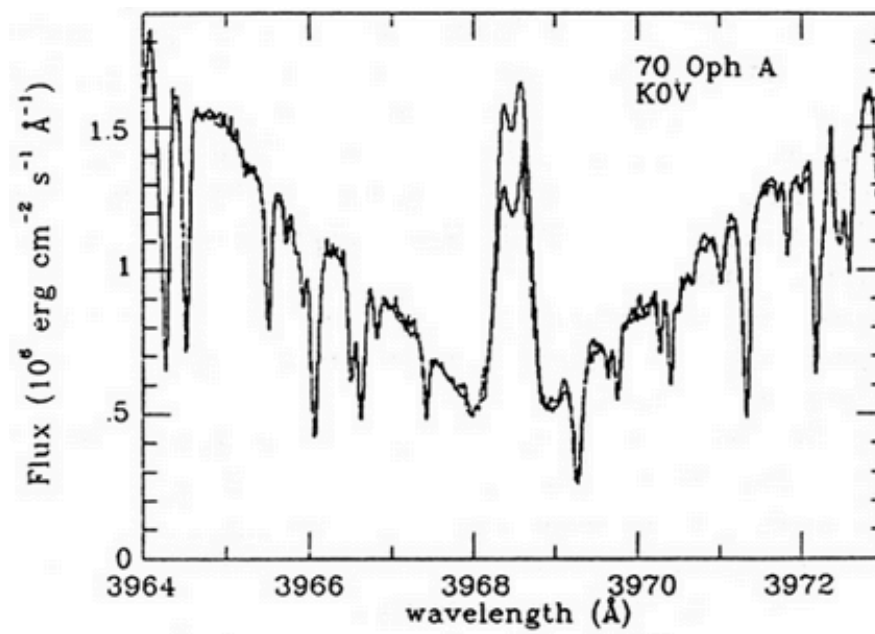
Stimulated Emission

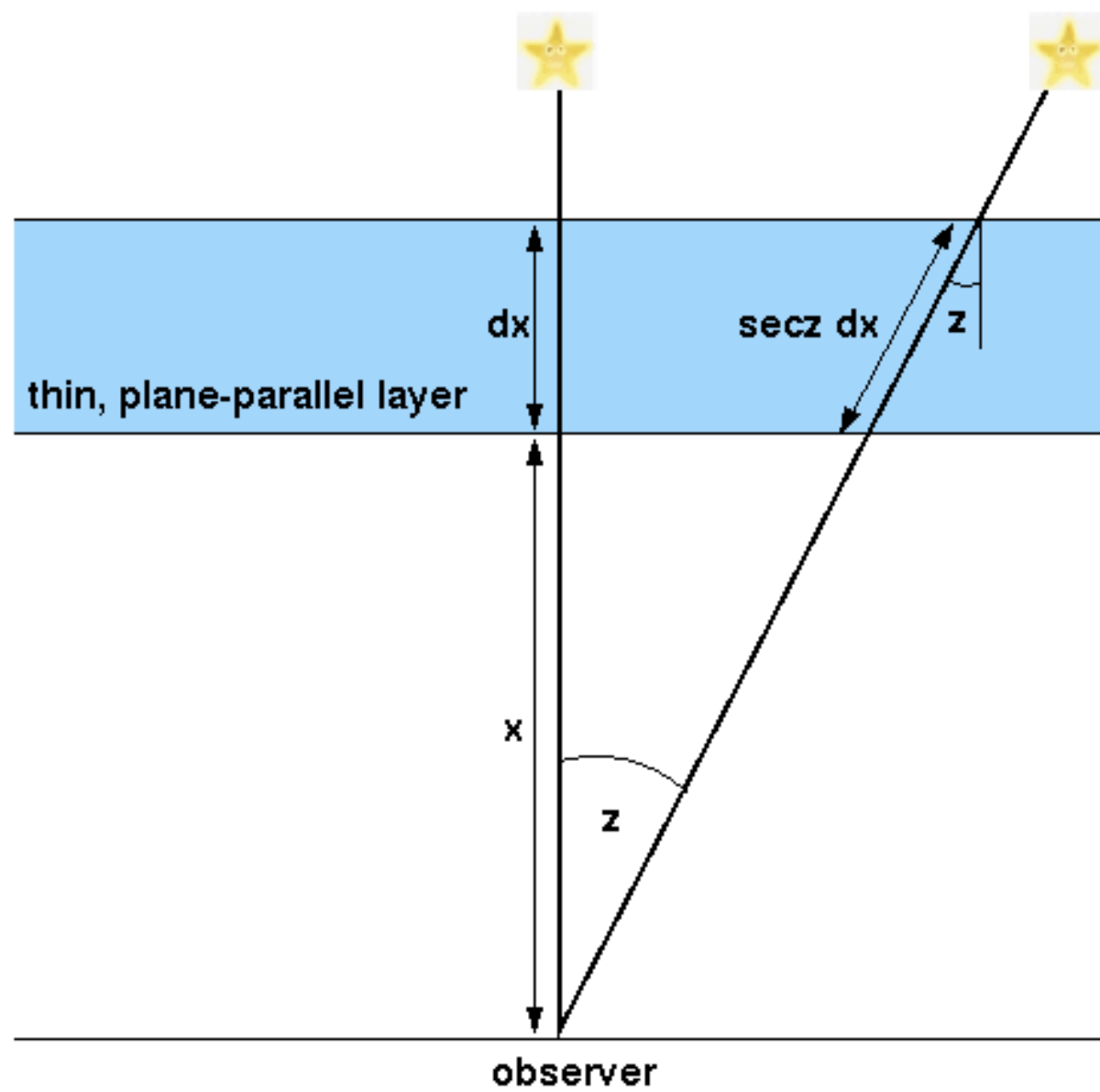




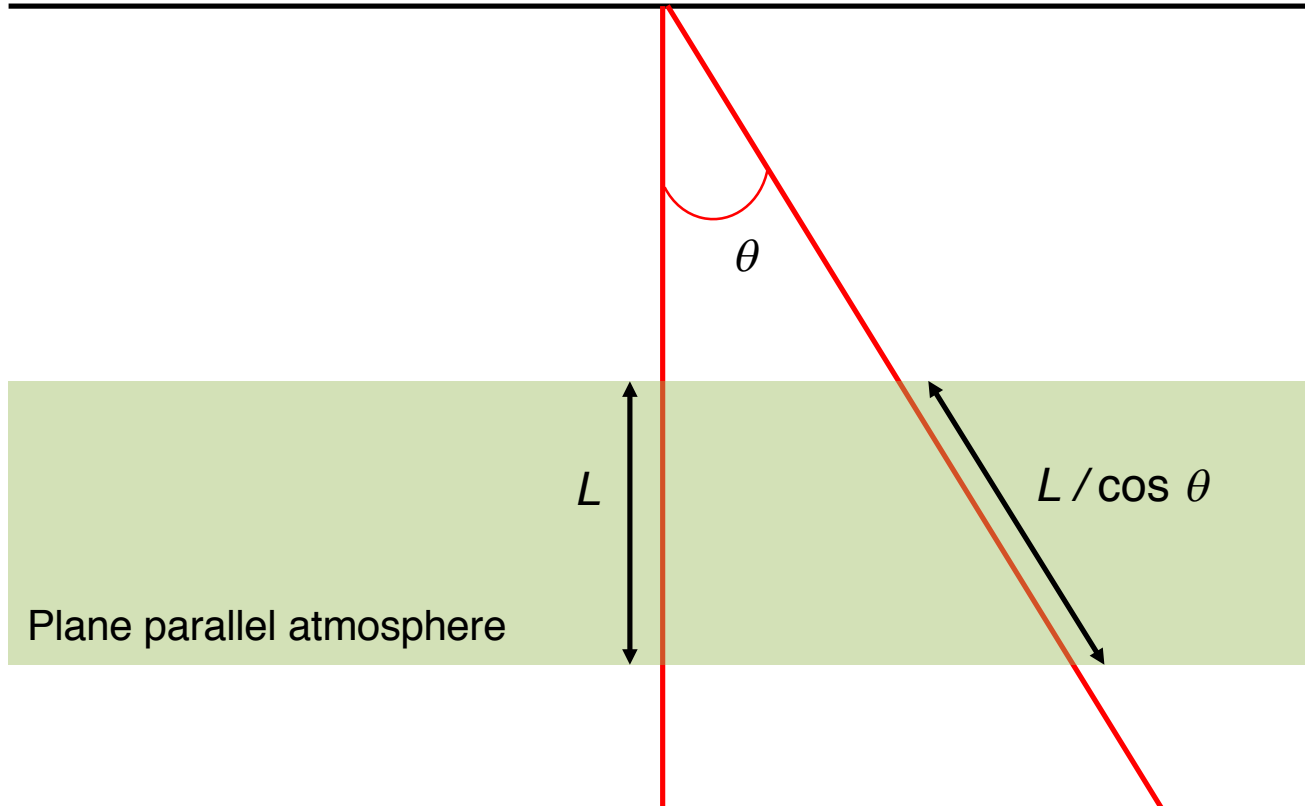








Observer

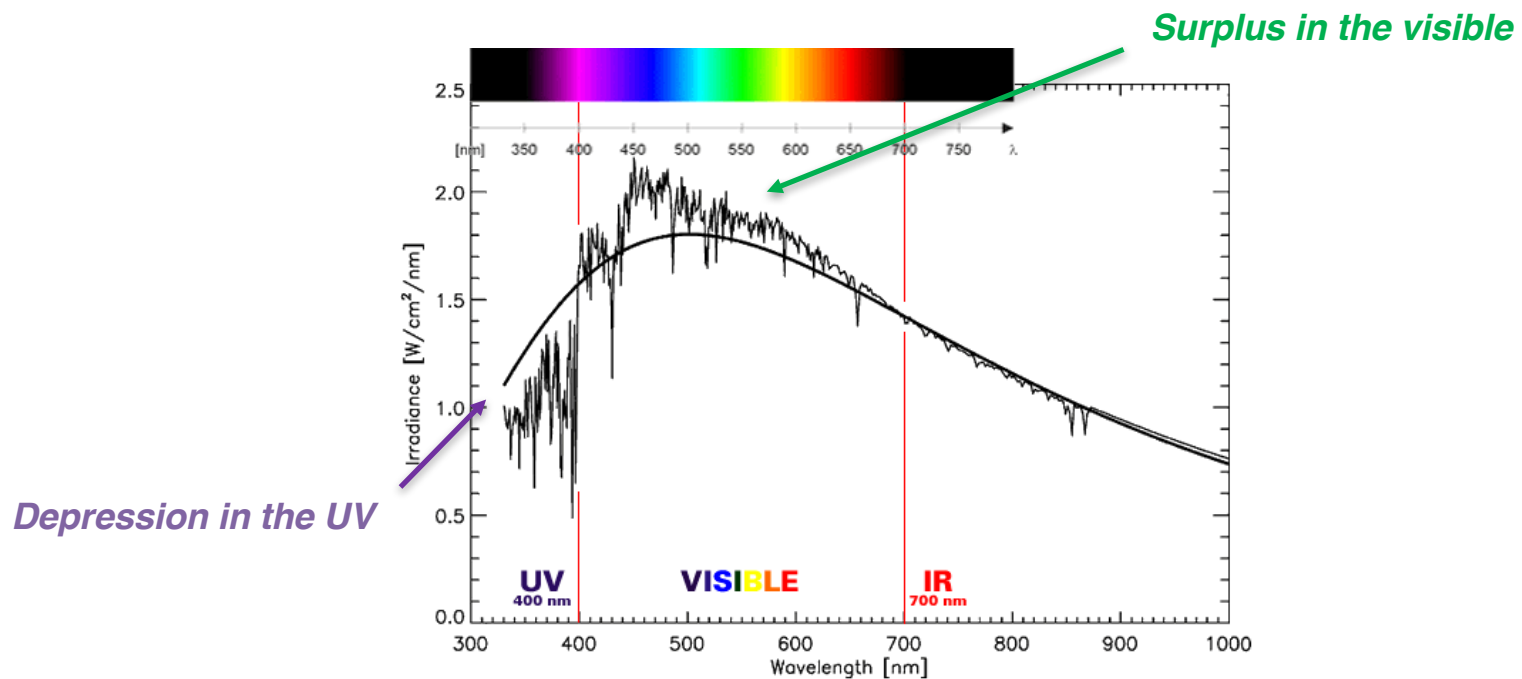


Plane parallel atmosphere

Radiative Equilibrium

$$\int \kappa_{\nu} S_{\nu} d\nu = \int \kappa_{\nu} J_{\nu} d\nu$$

Bolometric emission = Bolometric absorption



The solar irradiance spectrum from 300 to 1000nm as measured by Labs and Neckel (1962) and corrected by Neckel and Labs (1984). It roughly follows a black body radiation curve of 5777 K (thick line), particularly in the IR.

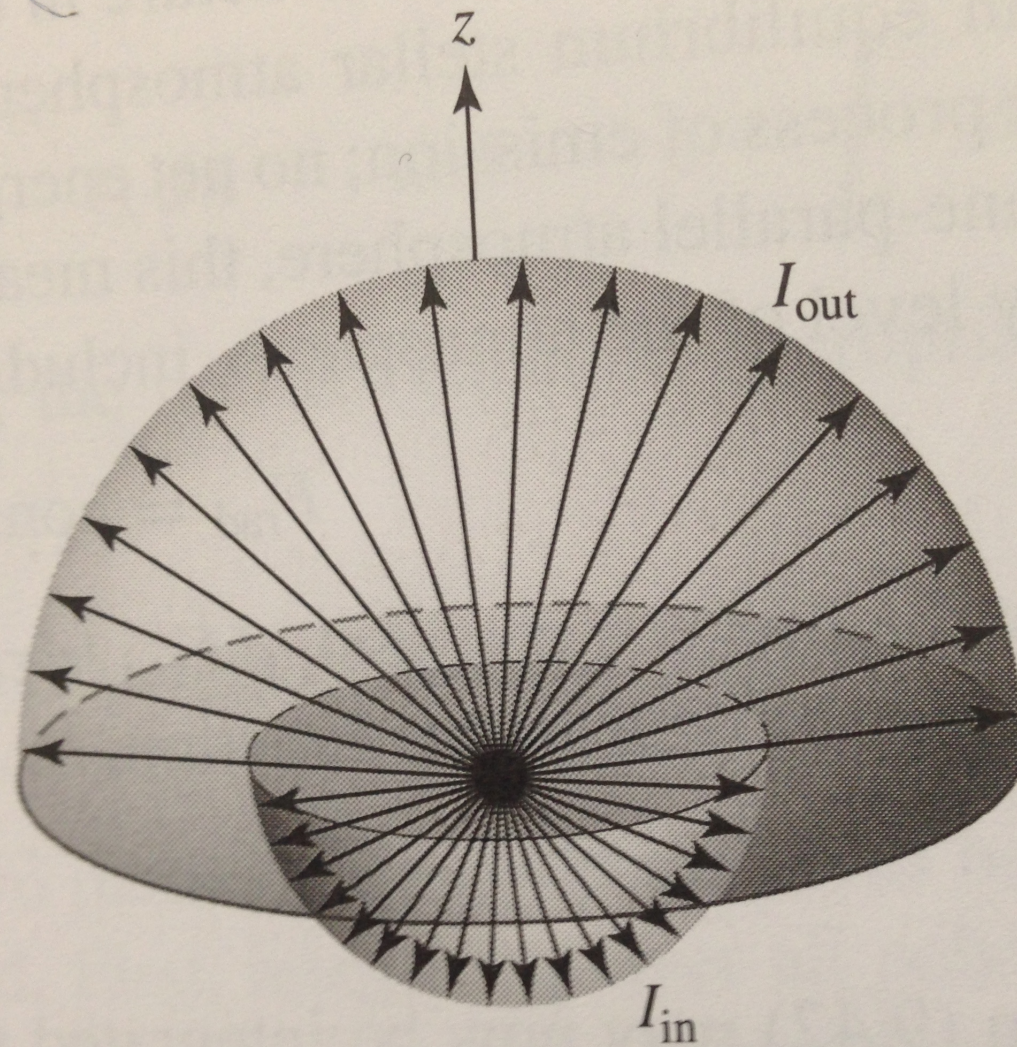
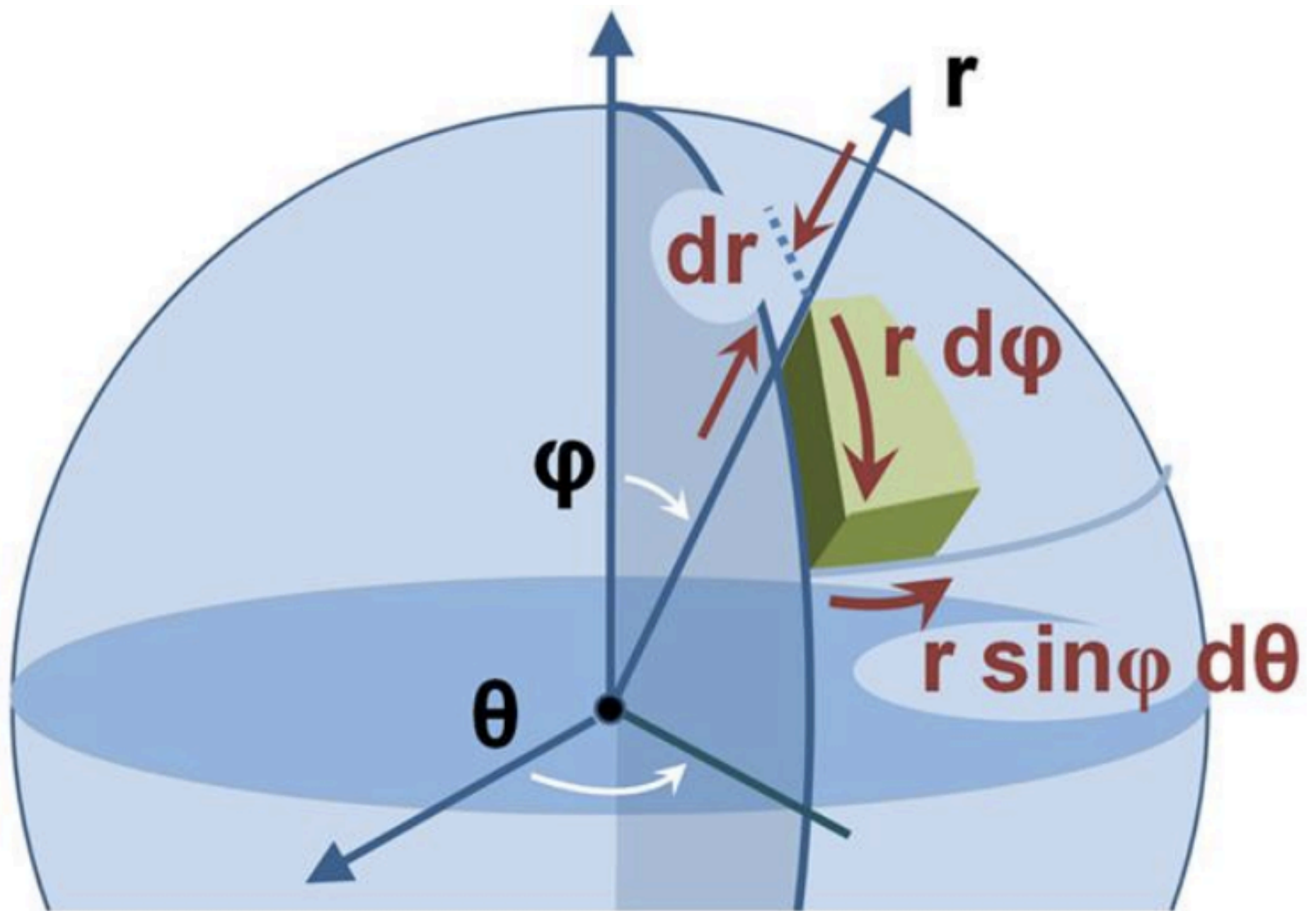
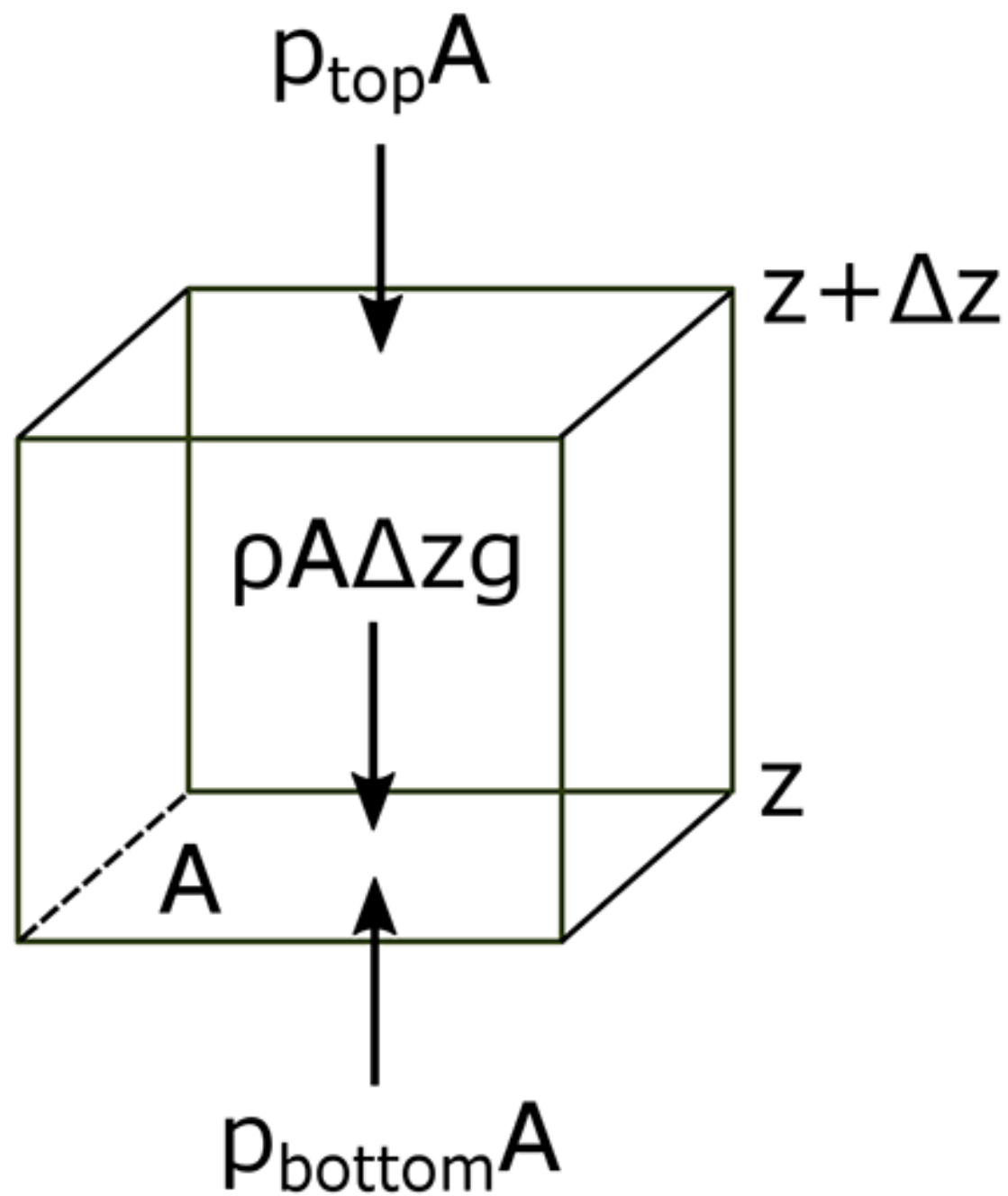


FIGURE 9.15 The Eddington approximation.



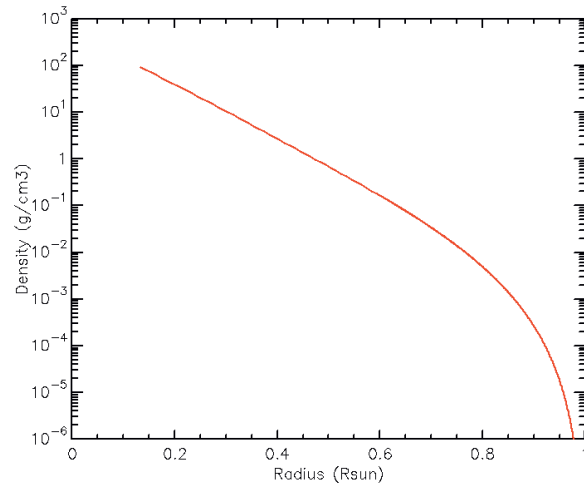




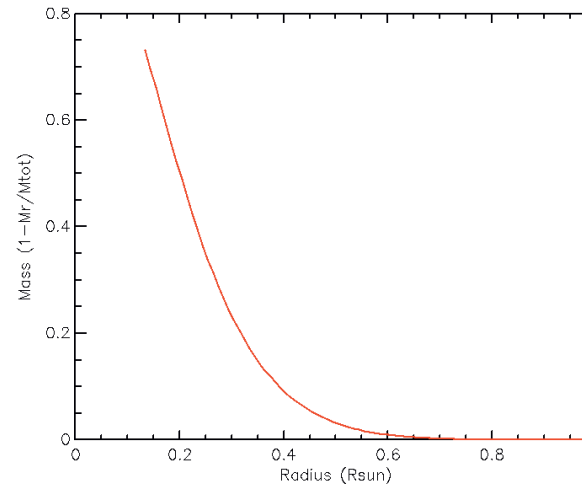


Solar Model

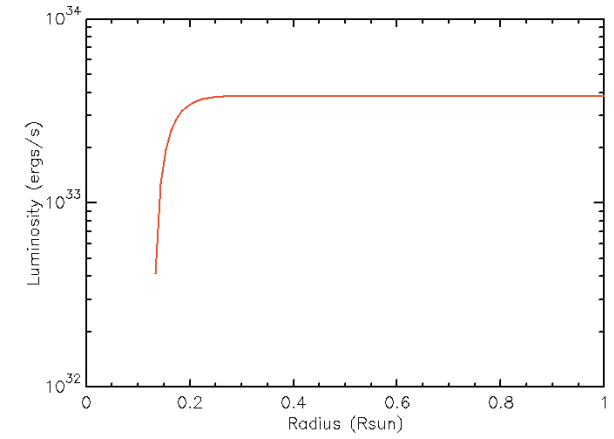
Density



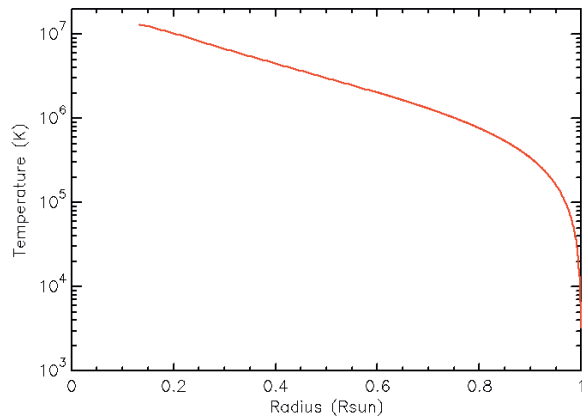
Mass



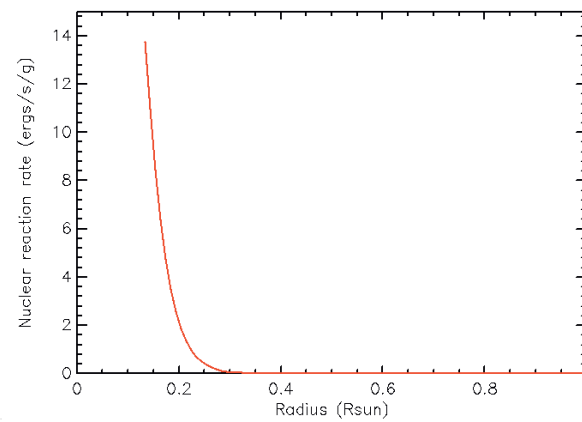
Luminosity



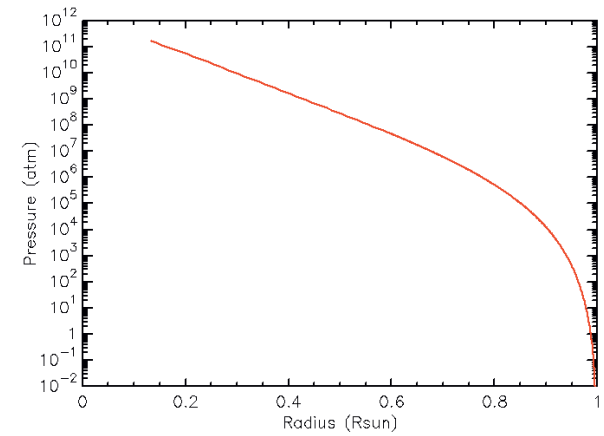
Temperature



Nuclear Reaction Rate



Pressure



Stable and Unstable Equilibria

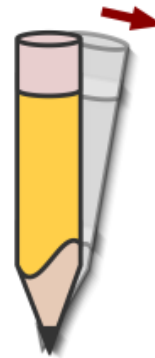
Stable Equilibrium

Returns to equilibrium position when disturbed

stable



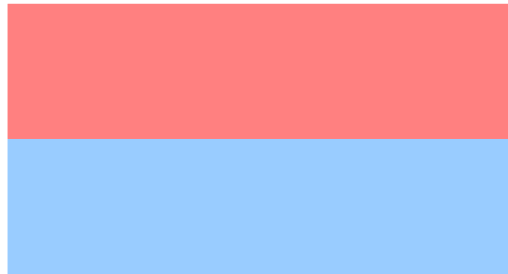
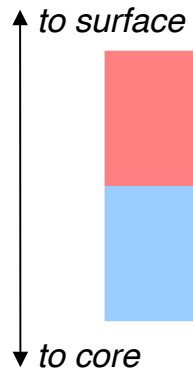
unstable



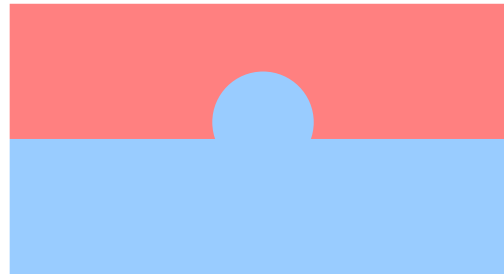
Unstable Equilibrium

Does not return to equilibrium position when disturbed

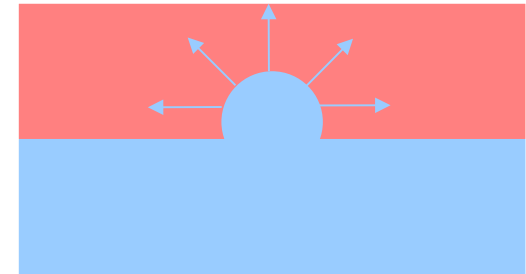
Thermal stability



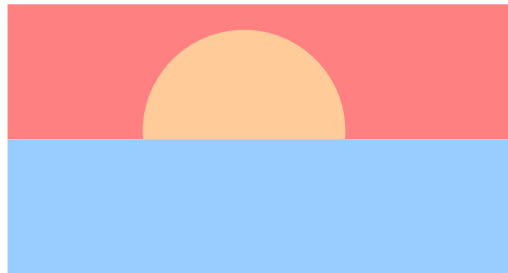
Equilibrium



a perturbation



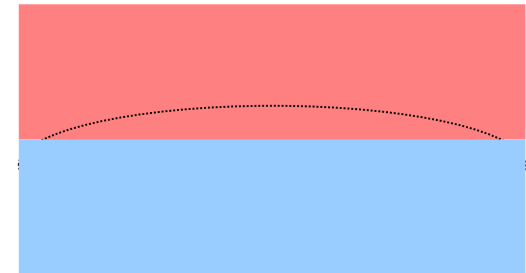
Hotter than the surroundings, it expands and rises



Expansion cools the blob

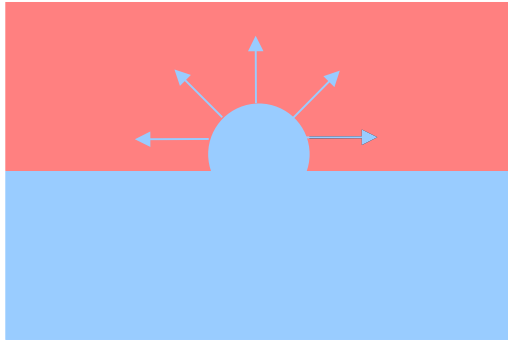


It cools further and sinks

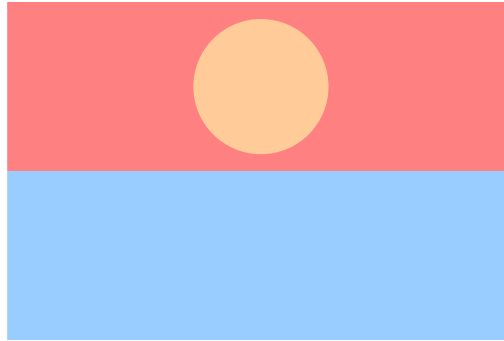


Equilibrium

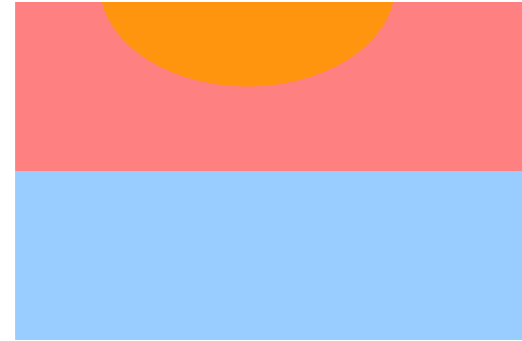
Thermal instability



Hotter than the surroundings
The blob expands and rises



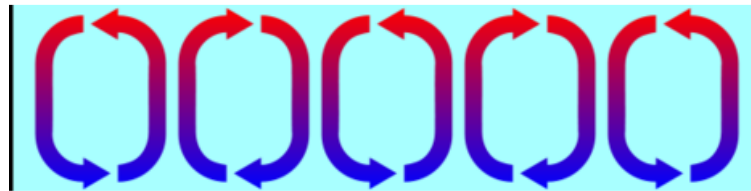
It rises faster than it cools



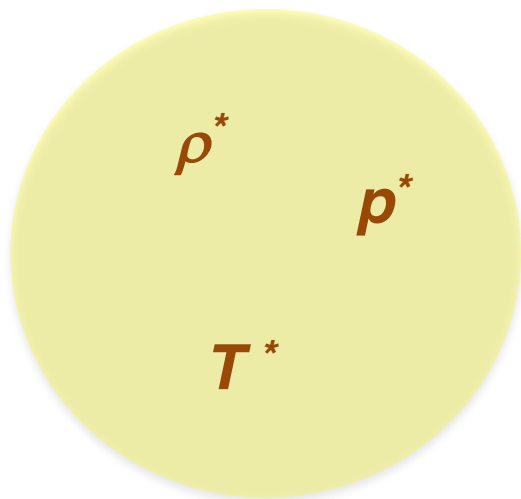
It keeps rising



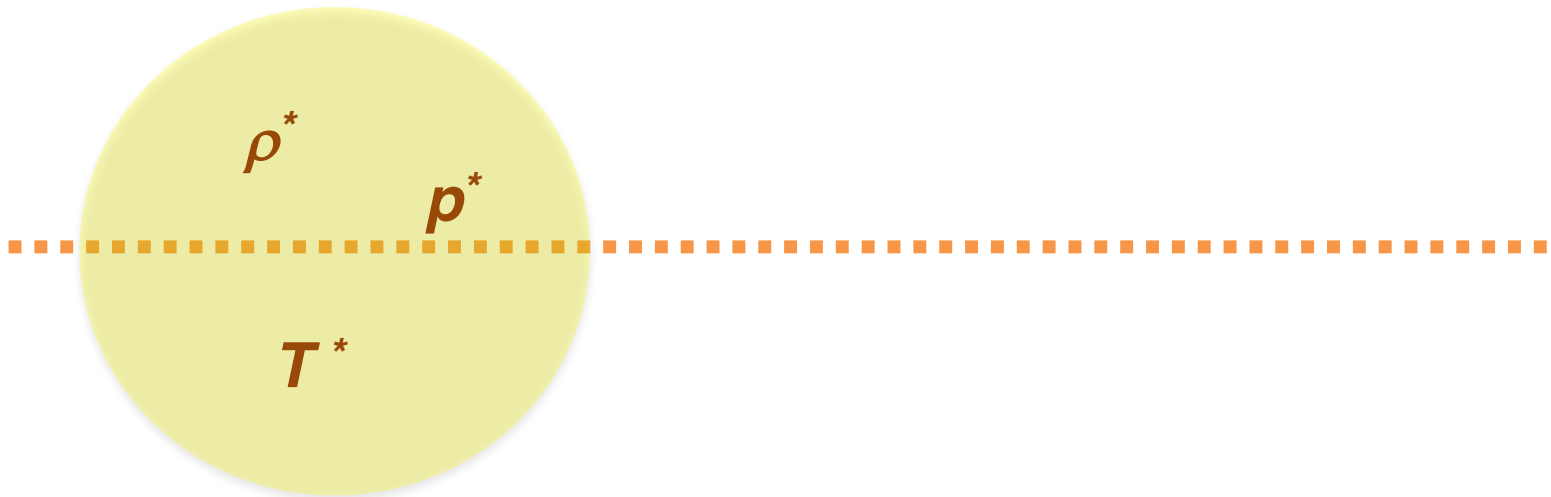
It travels a great distance
before cooling and sinking



CONVECTION



Cold

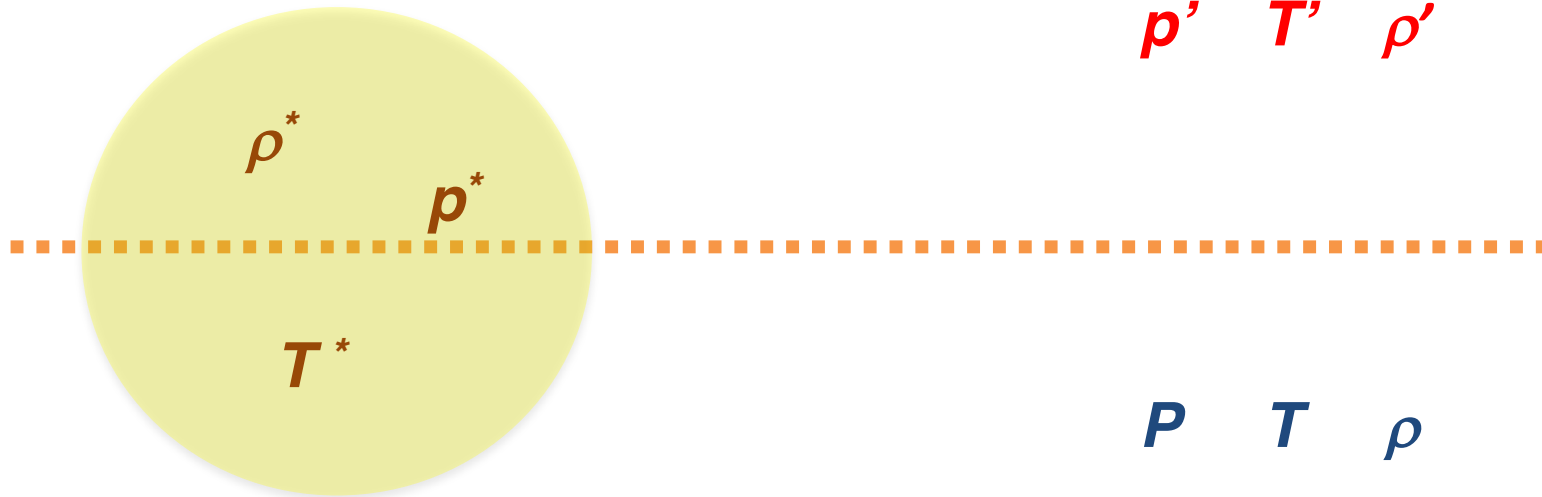


Hot

Cold



p' T' ρ'



P T ρ

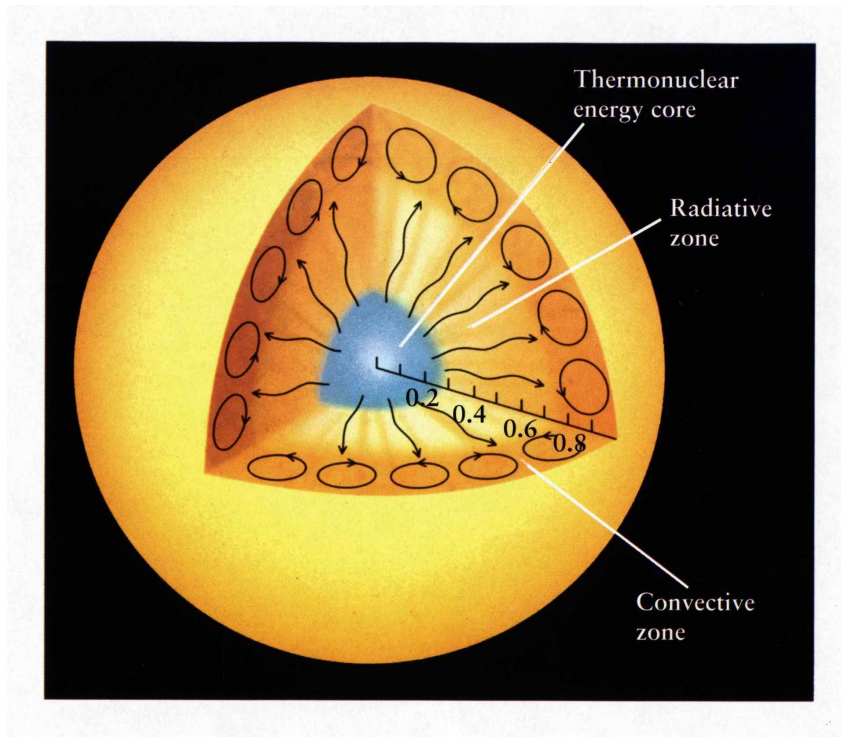
Hot



Solar Structure

In **stable equilibrium**,
heat is transported by **radiation**
(without transport of mass).

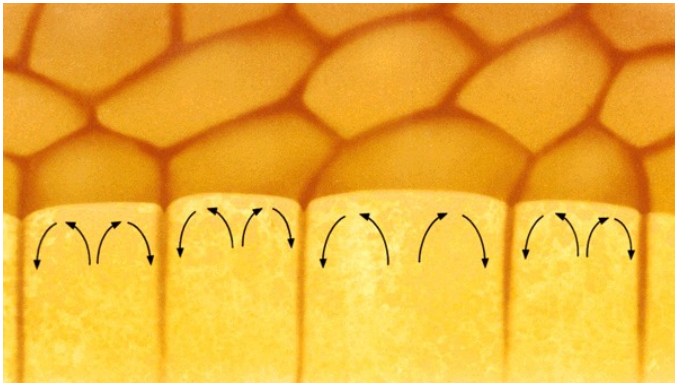
In **unstable equilibrium**,
heat is transported by **convection**
(with transport of mass).



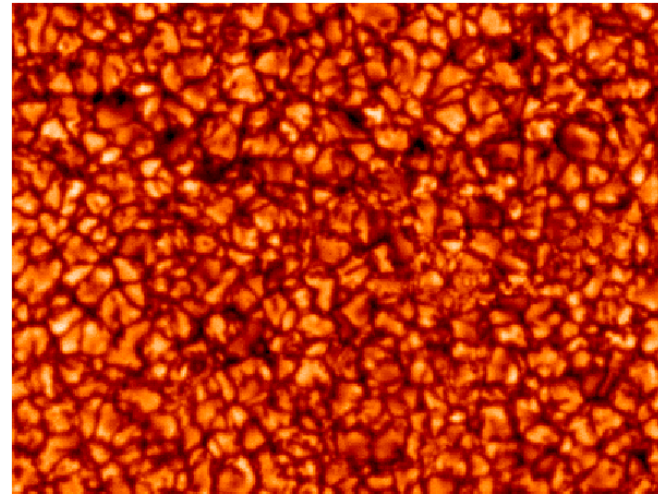
The Sun has a
radiative zone
in the interior

And a
convective zone
near the surface

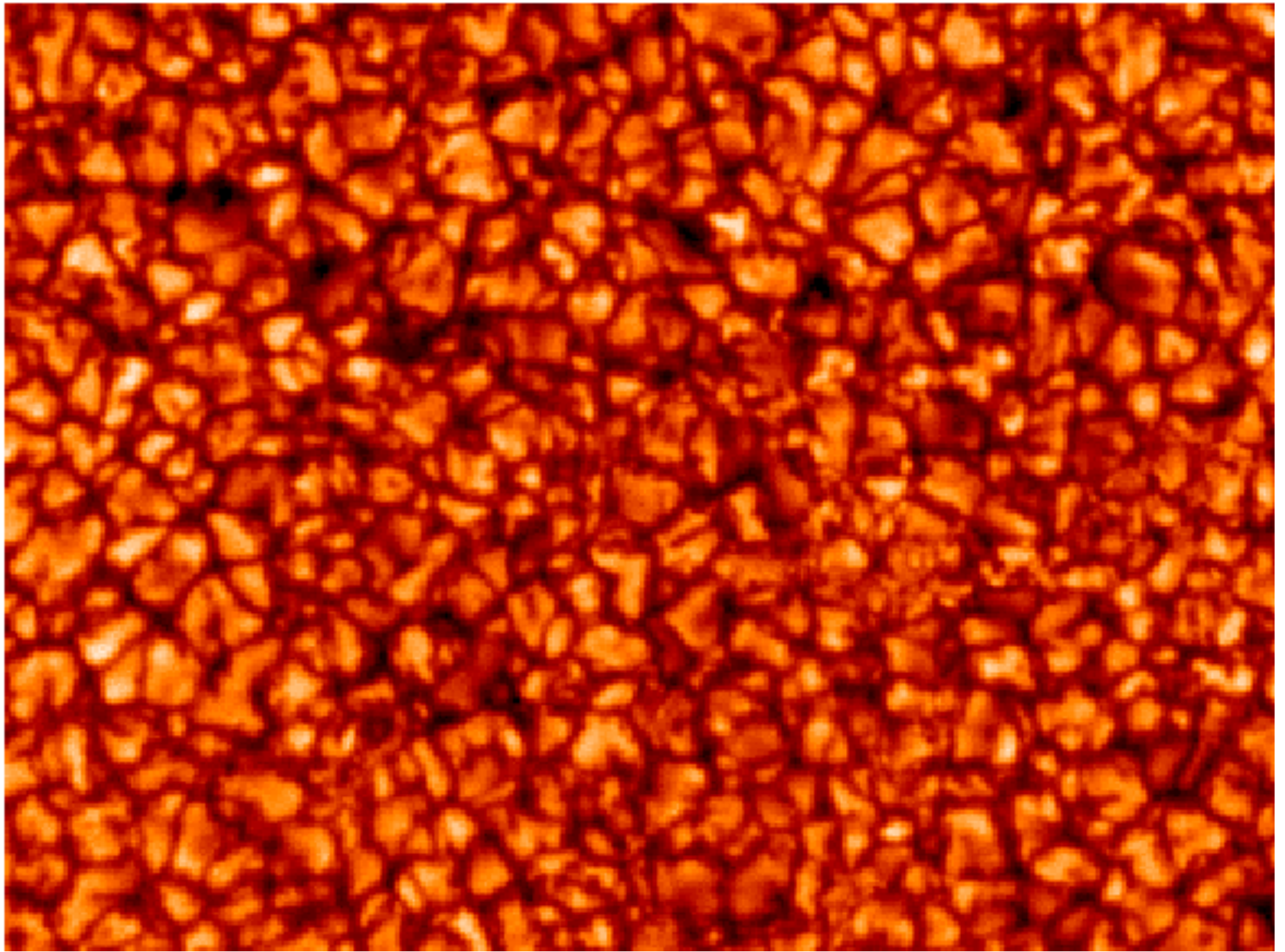
Granulation

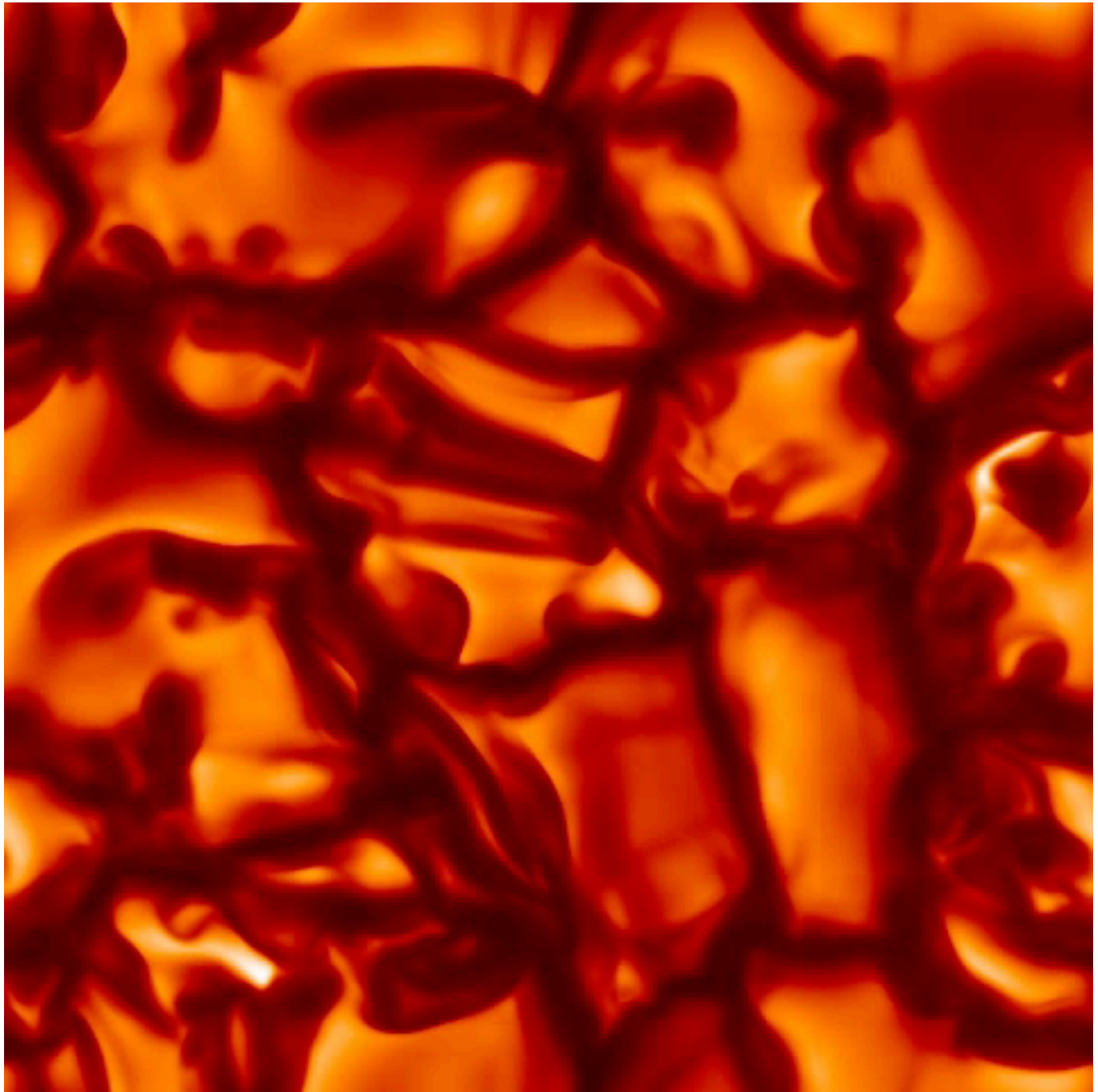


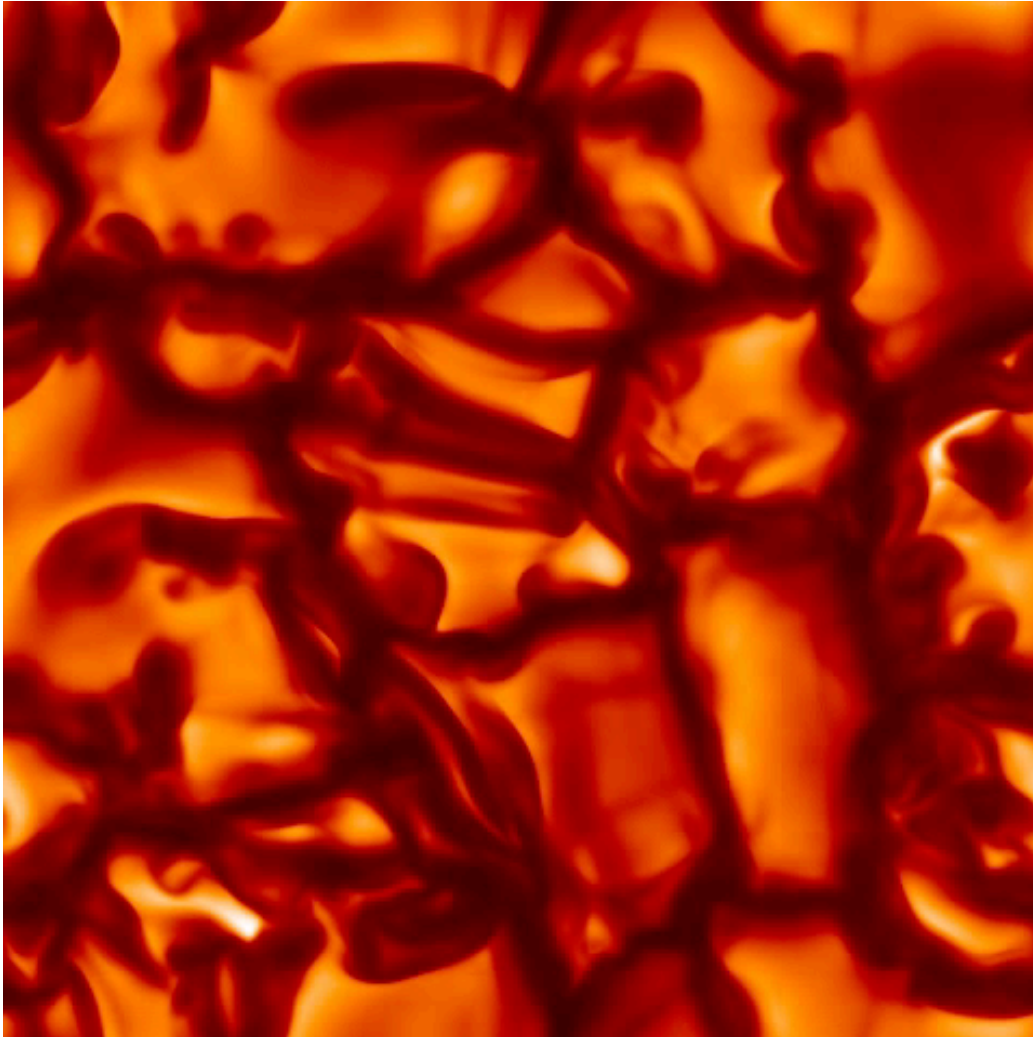
Convective cells



Close-up of the surface of the Sun





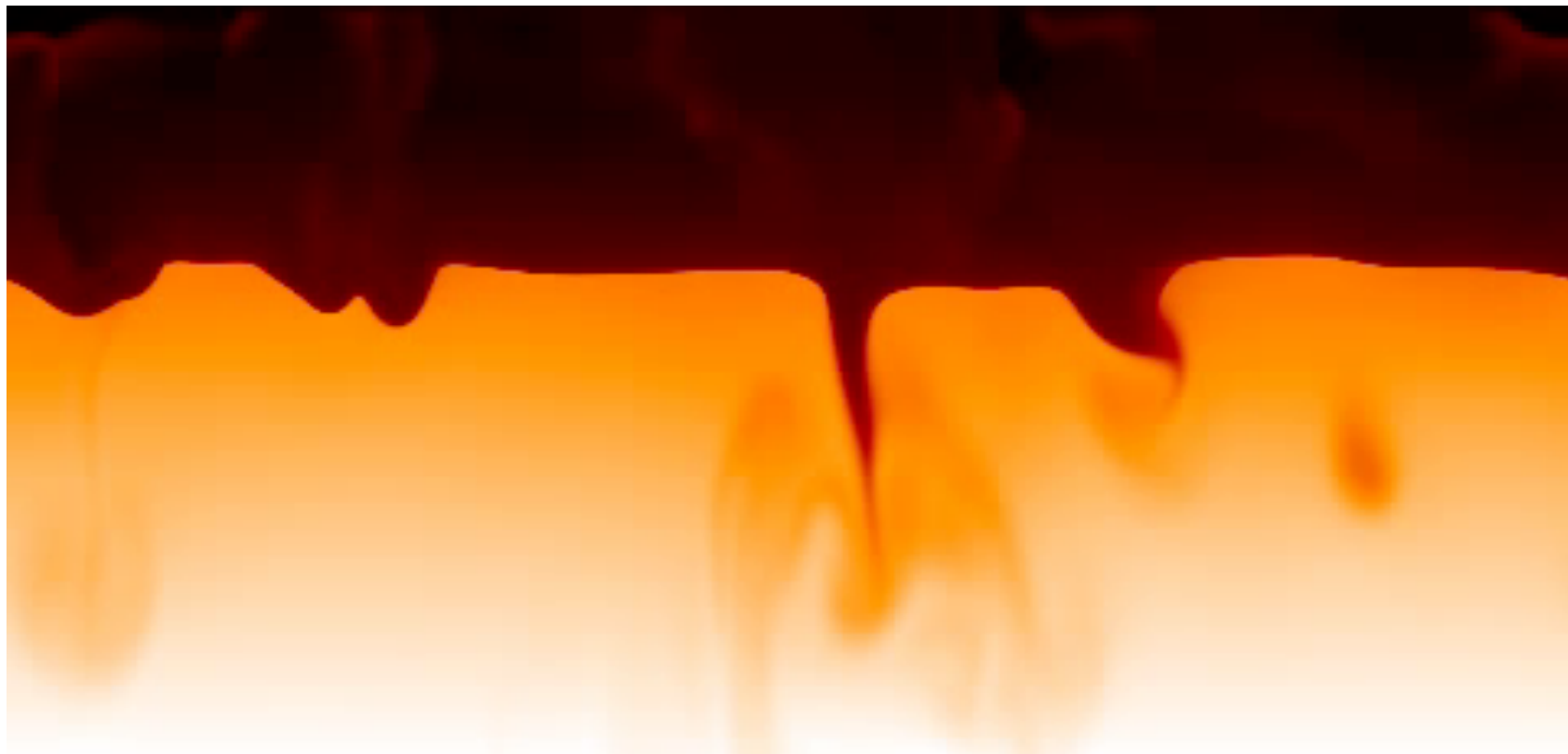


Simulation by Remo Collet.

Surface intensity

$$T_{\text{eff}} = 4400 \text{ K}$$

$$L = 4.4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}$$



Atmosphere

Photosphere

Interior

$$L_z = 2 \times 10^6 \text{ km}$$

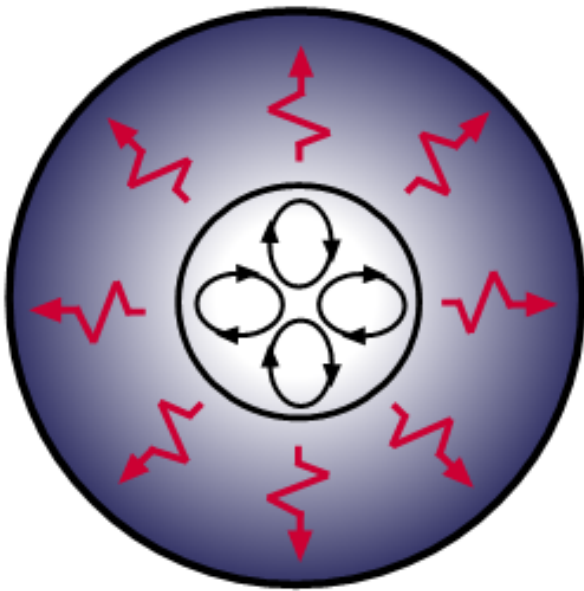
Radiative Zone



Convective Zone

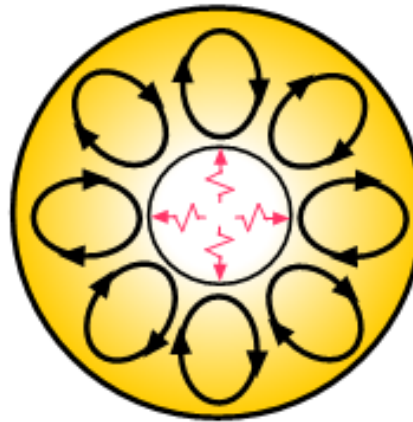


Stellar Structure



$$M > 1.5$$

Convective Core
Radiative Envelope



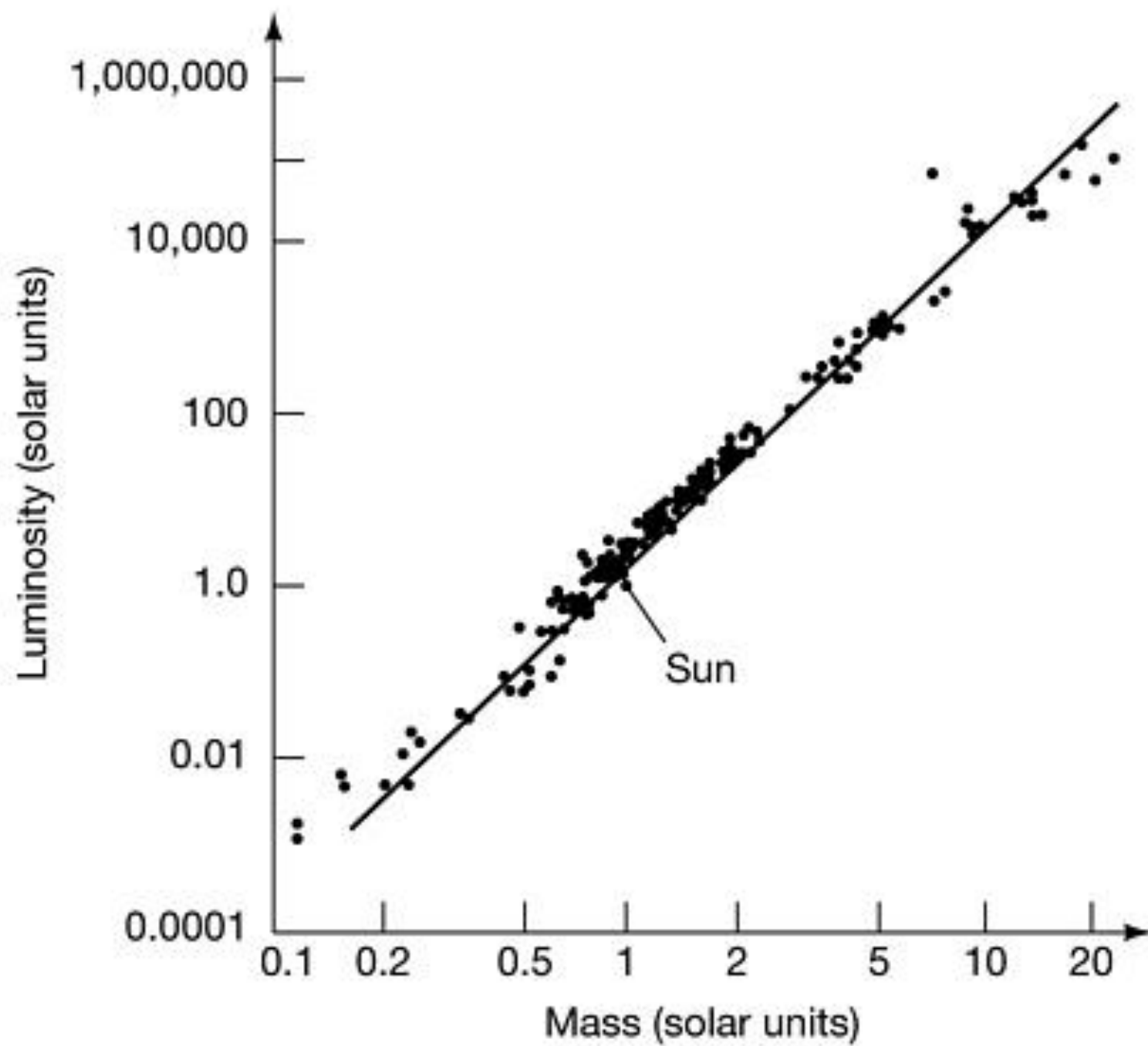
$$0.5 < M < 1.5$$

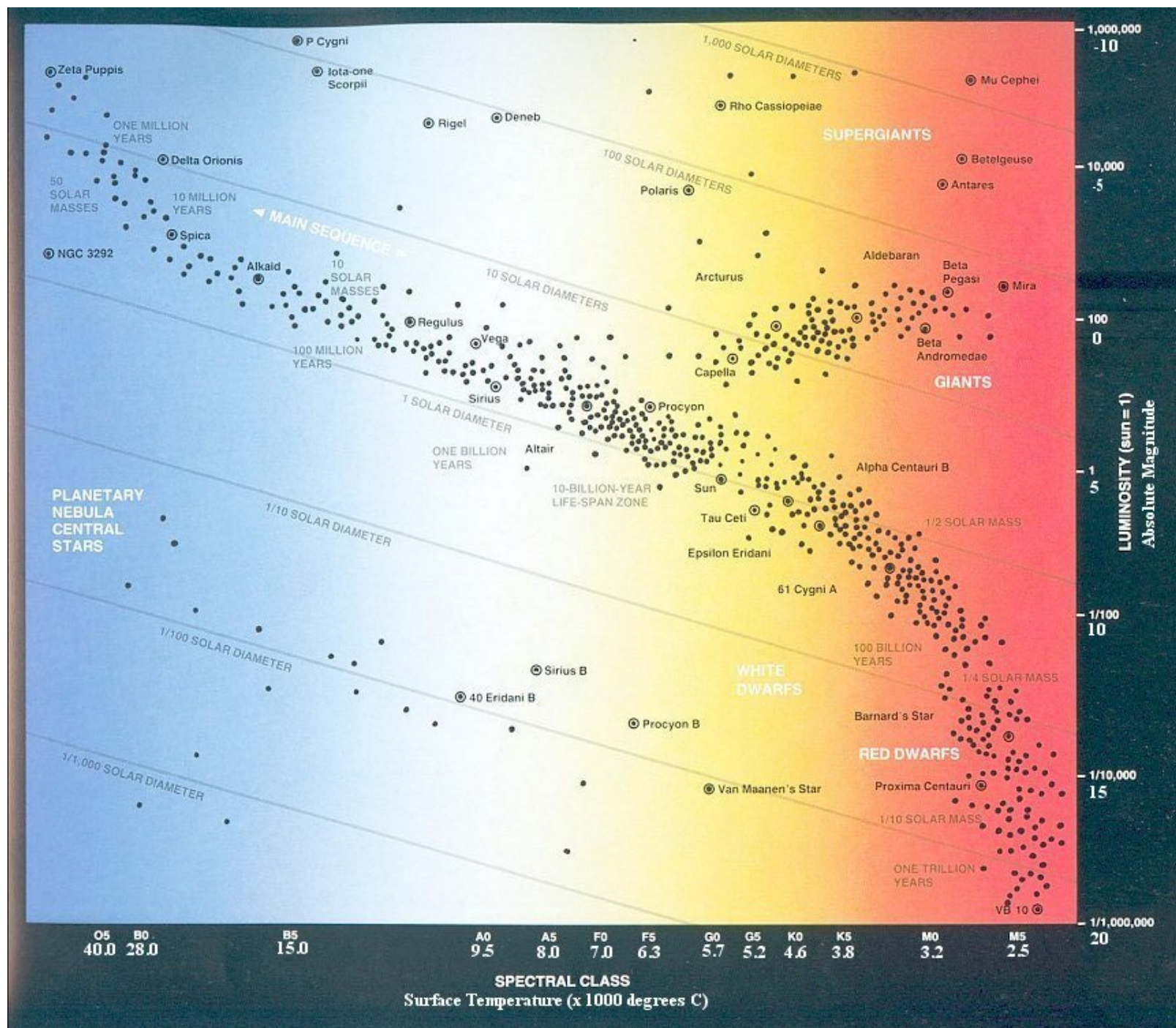
Radiative Core
Convective Envelope



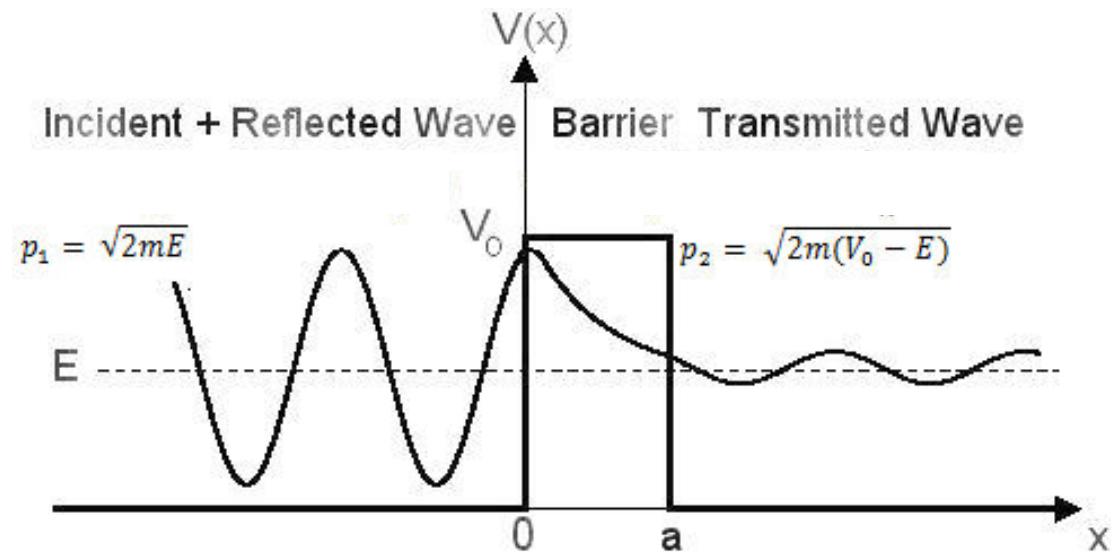
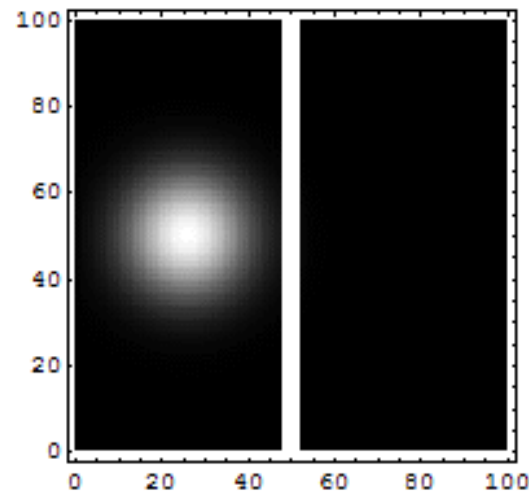
$$M < 0.5$$

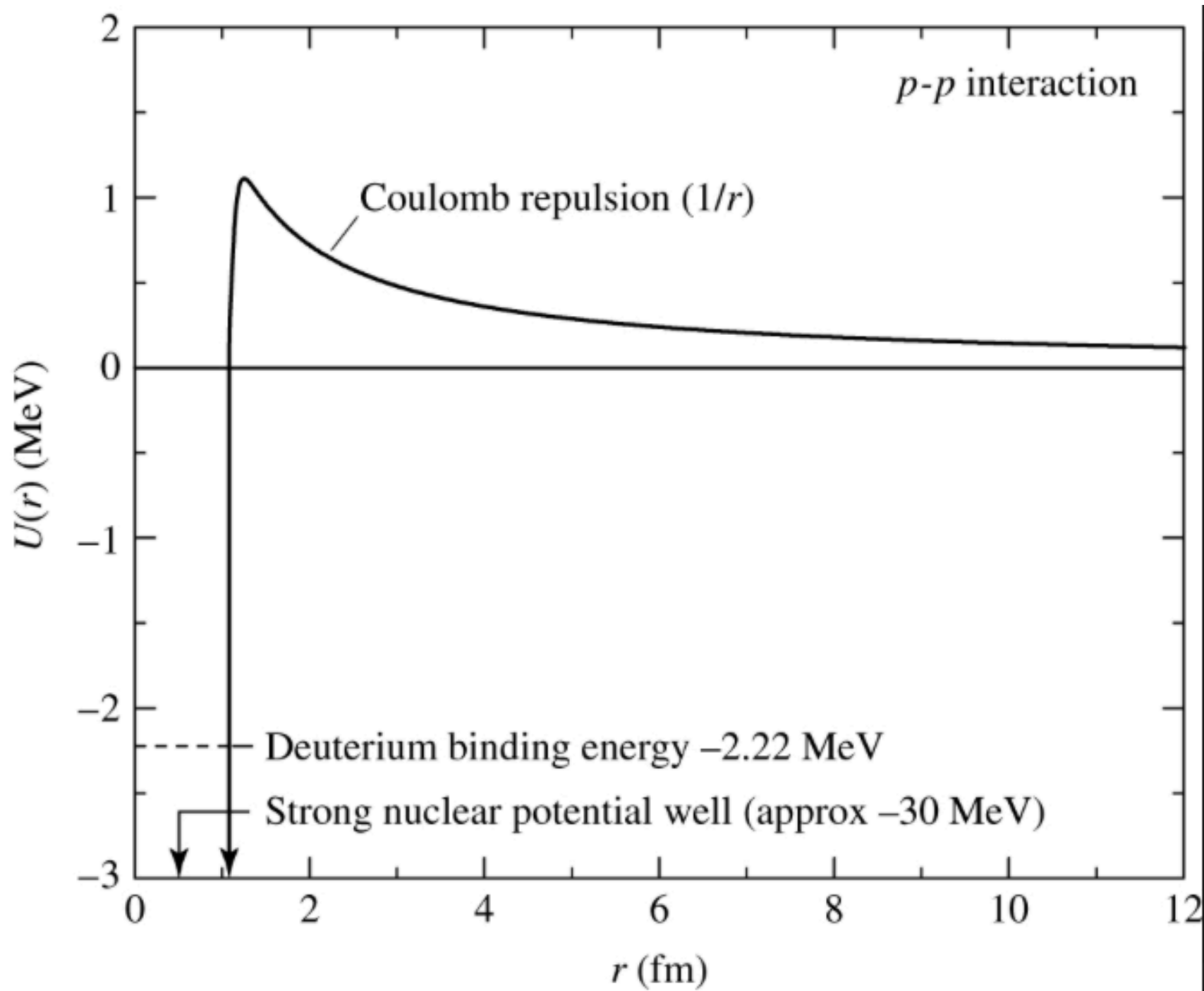
Fully Convective



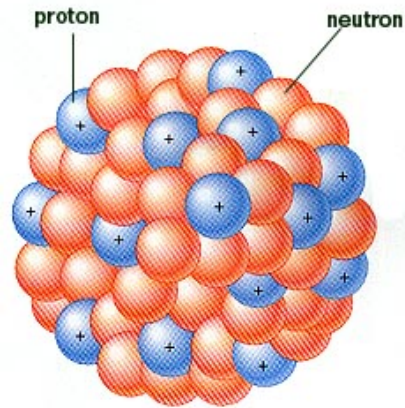


Quantum Tunneling

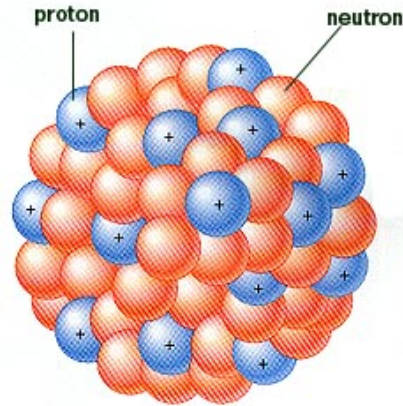




**How is an atomic nucleus bound together
if the protons are like-charged?**



**How is an atomic nucleus bound together
if the protons are like-charged?**



**Another force of nature exists at nuclear distances
Not Gravity. Not Electromagnetism.**

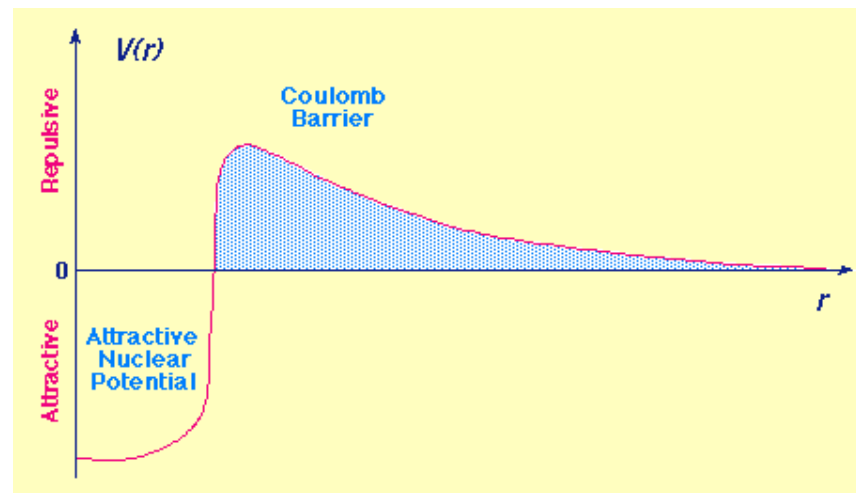
Strong Force

**The Coulomb force (EM) between protons is repulsive,
but the strong force between protons is attractive!**

The Coulomb Barrier

Protons are like-charged and thus repel each other

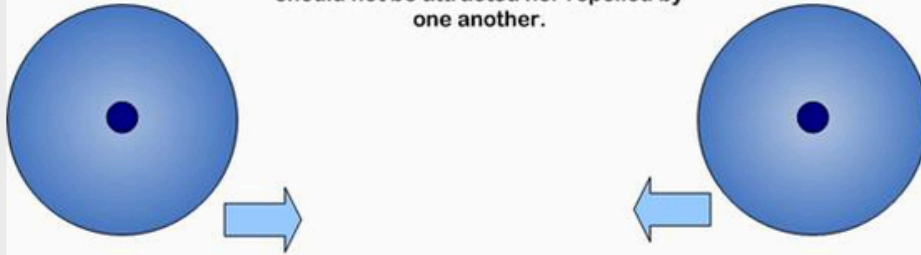
You need to get them really close so that nuclear forces start to operate



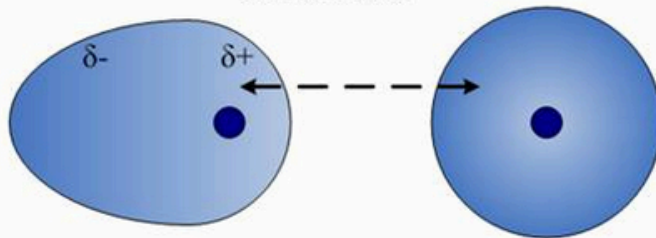
Really close means: packed together
fast speeds

- HIGH DENSITY
- HIGH TEMPERATURE

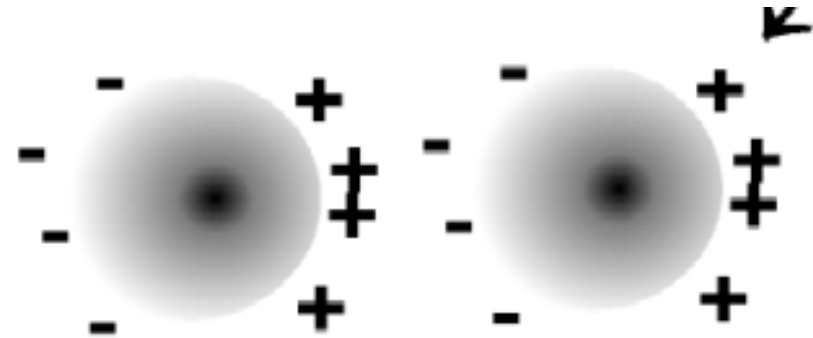
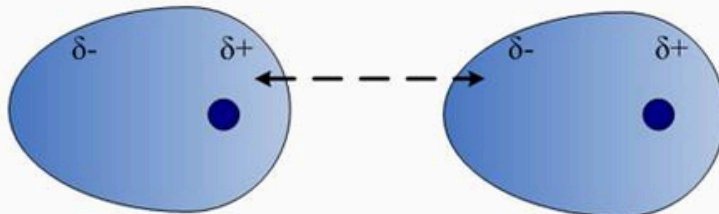
Roughly spherical atoms of an ideal gas should not be attracted nor repelled by one another.



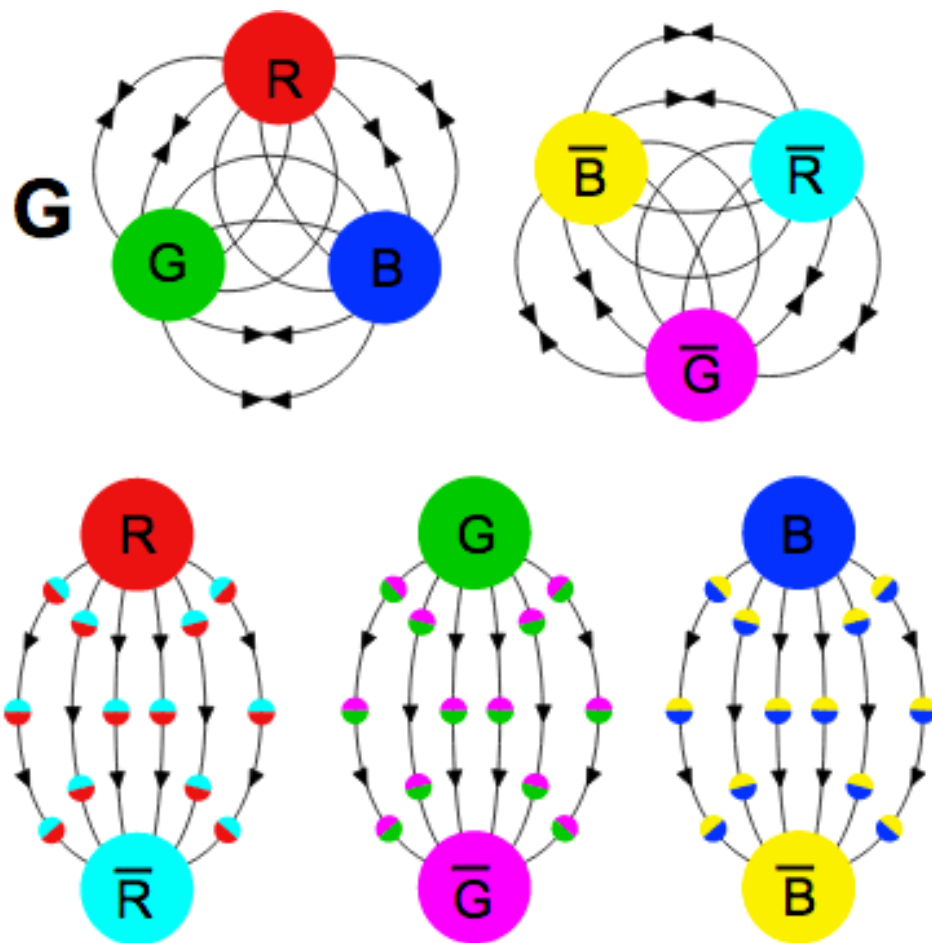
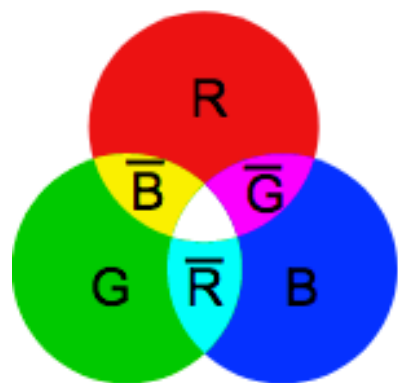
A real gas atom can have an instantaneous dipole. Partial charges on one atom cause a neighboring atom to distort due to the electrostatic attractions/repulsions of their electron clouds.



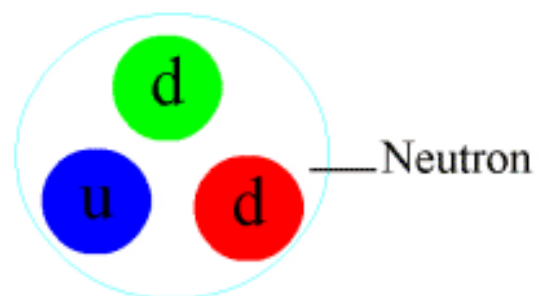
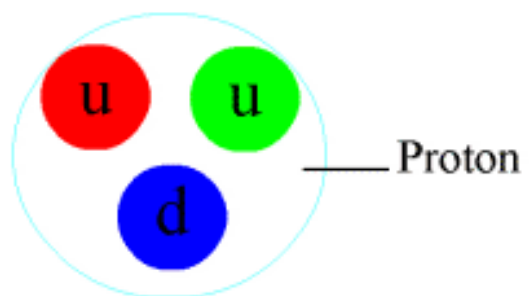
Attractions between opposite partial charges of neighboring induced dipoles cause atoms to "stick together" for a very short time.



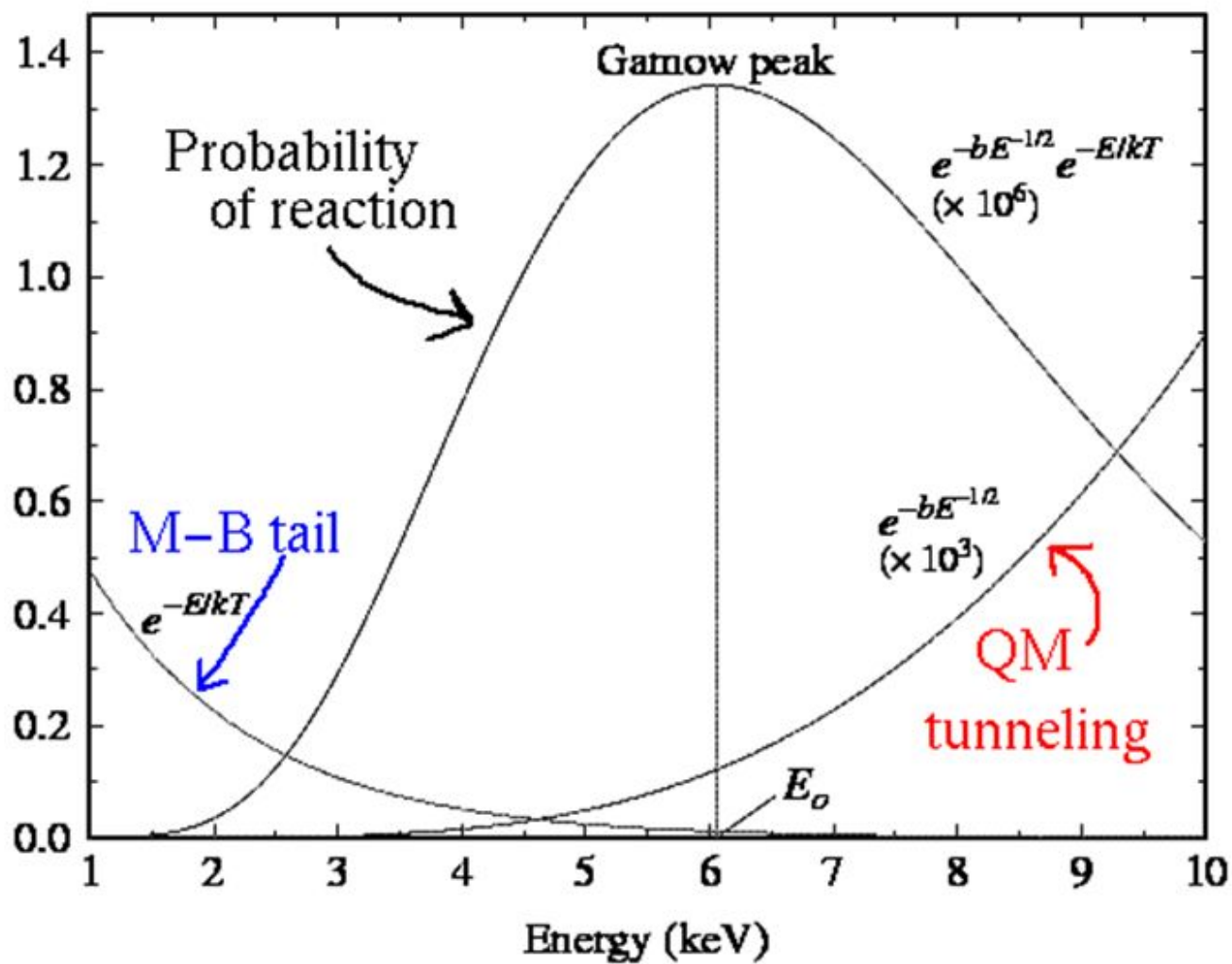
**Van der Waals
interaction**



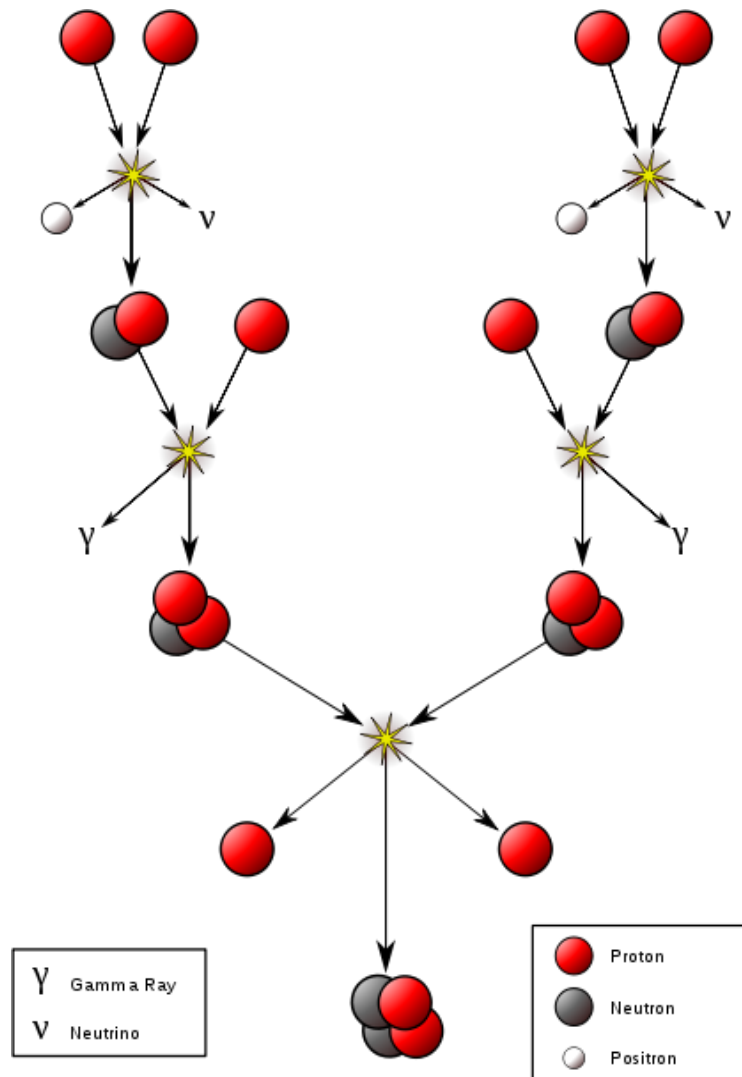


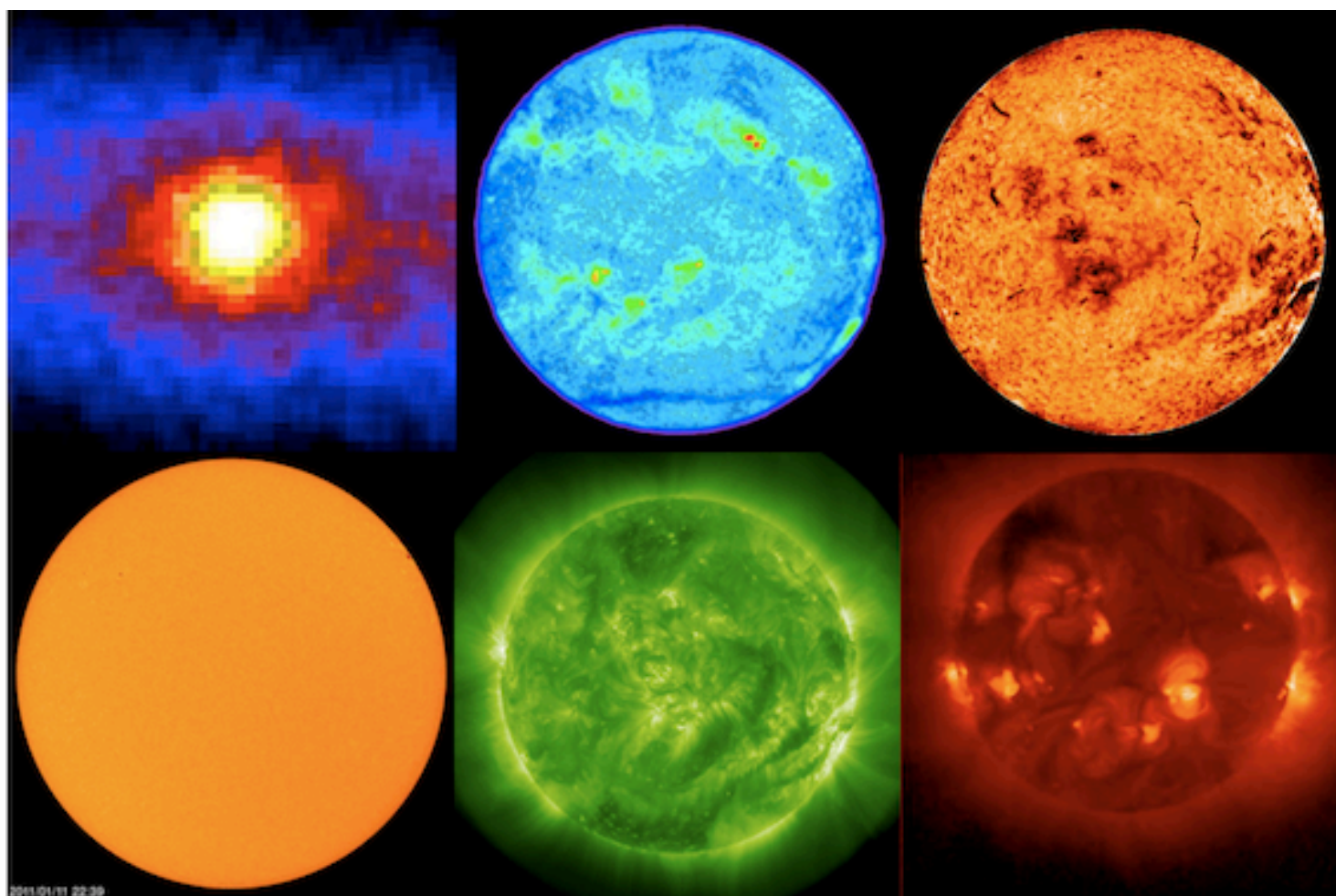


$$V_{\text{Yukawa}}(r) = -g^2 \frac{e^{-\mu r}}{r},$$

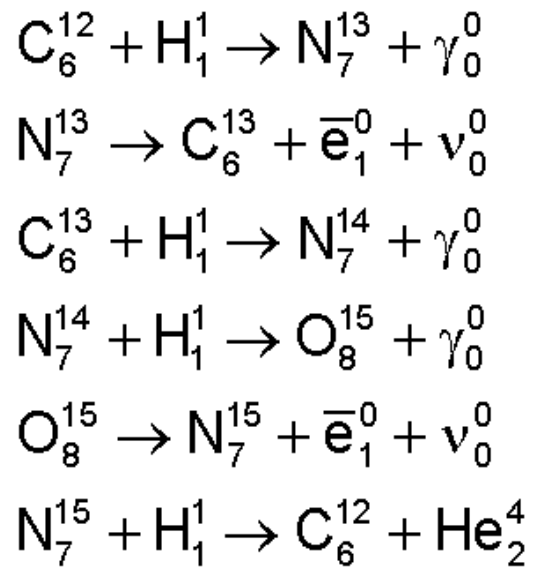


Proton-proton chain



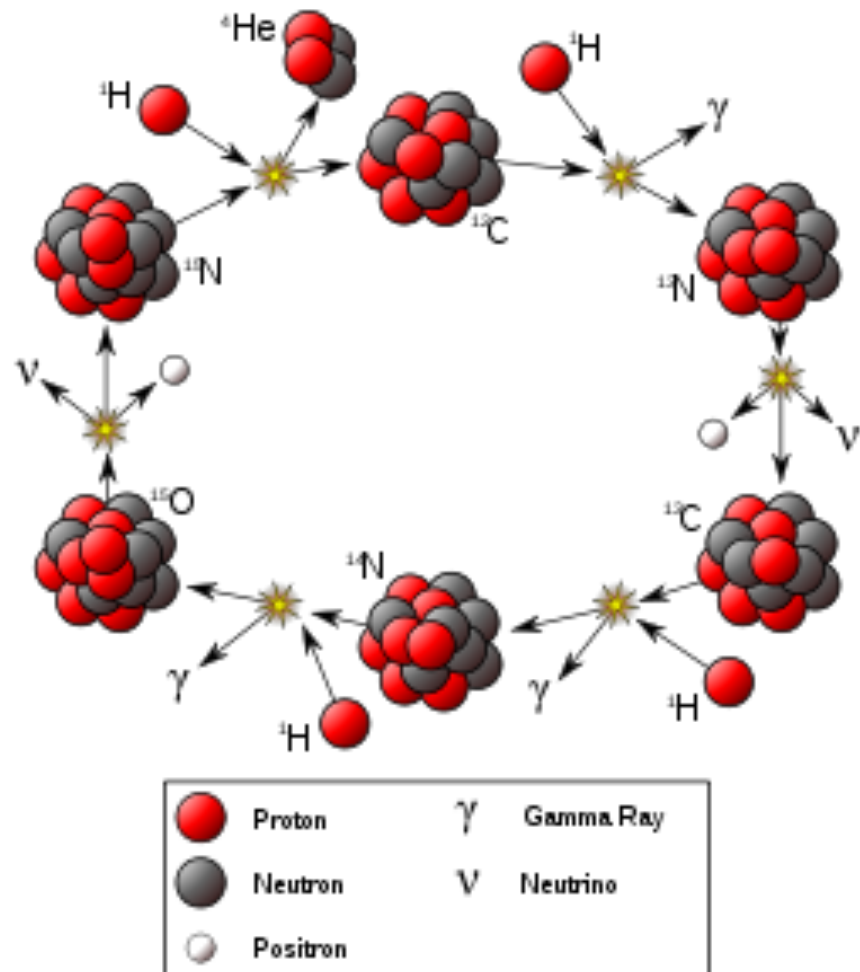


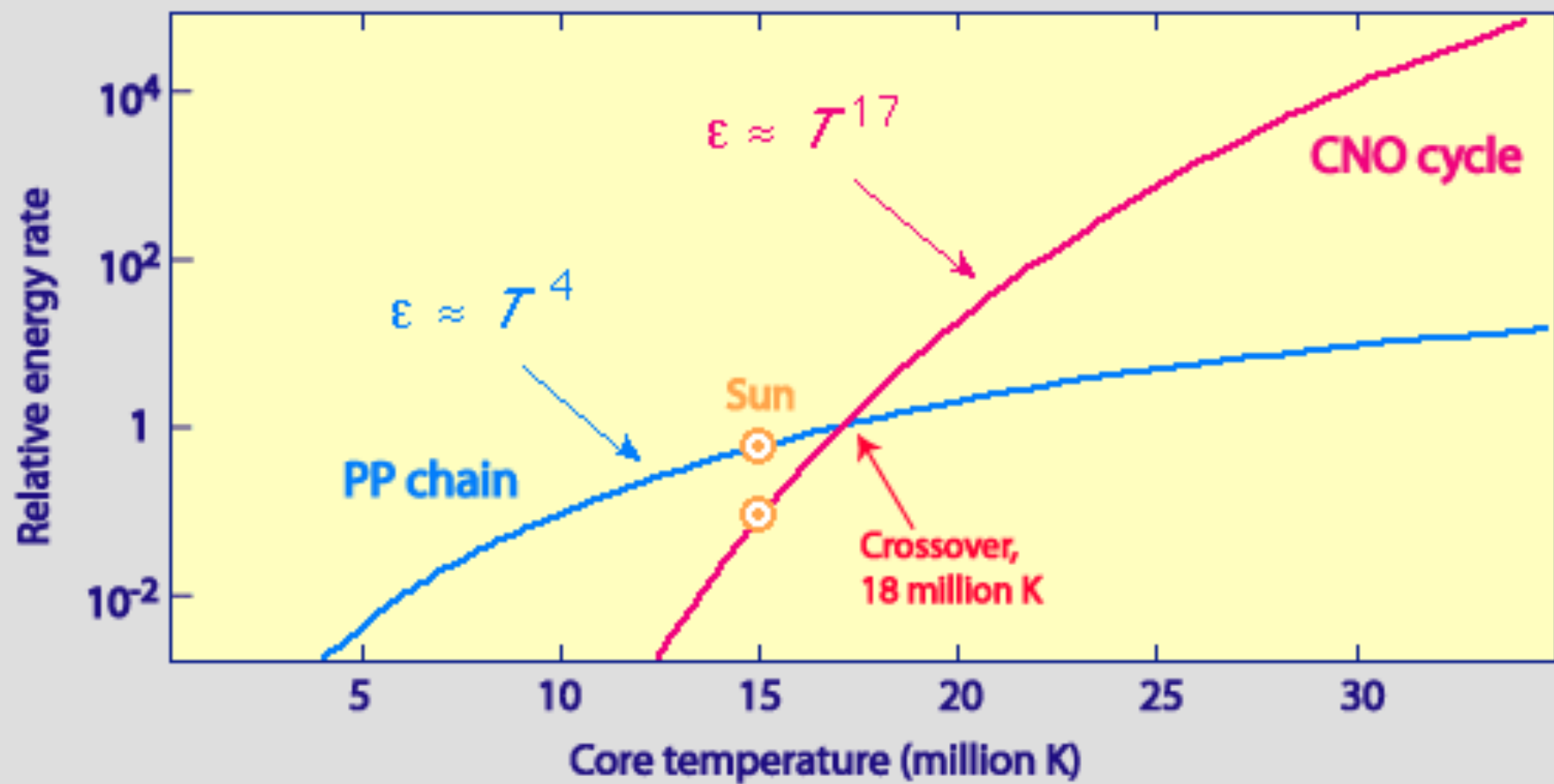
CNO cycle



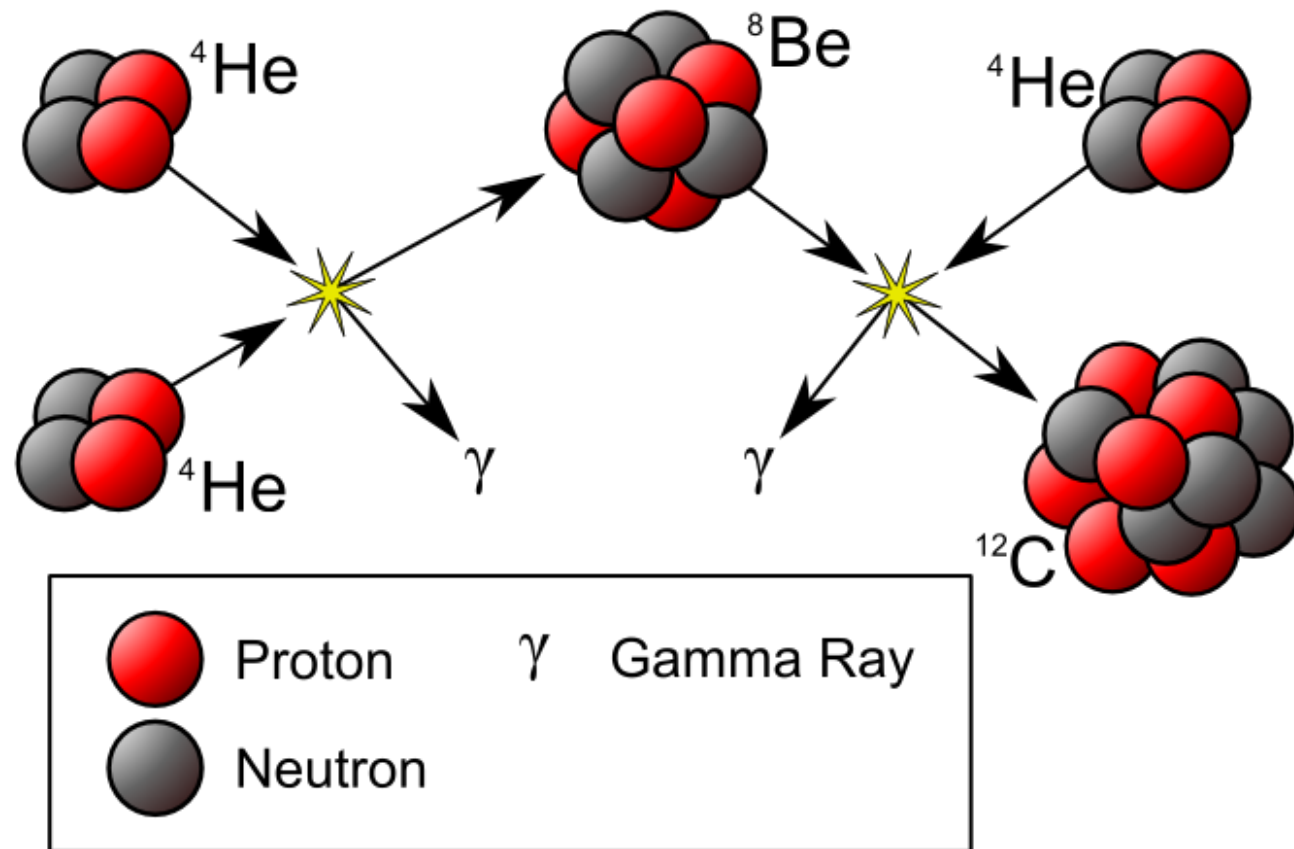
End of cycle:

4 H burned into He
C used as catalyst





Triple alpha



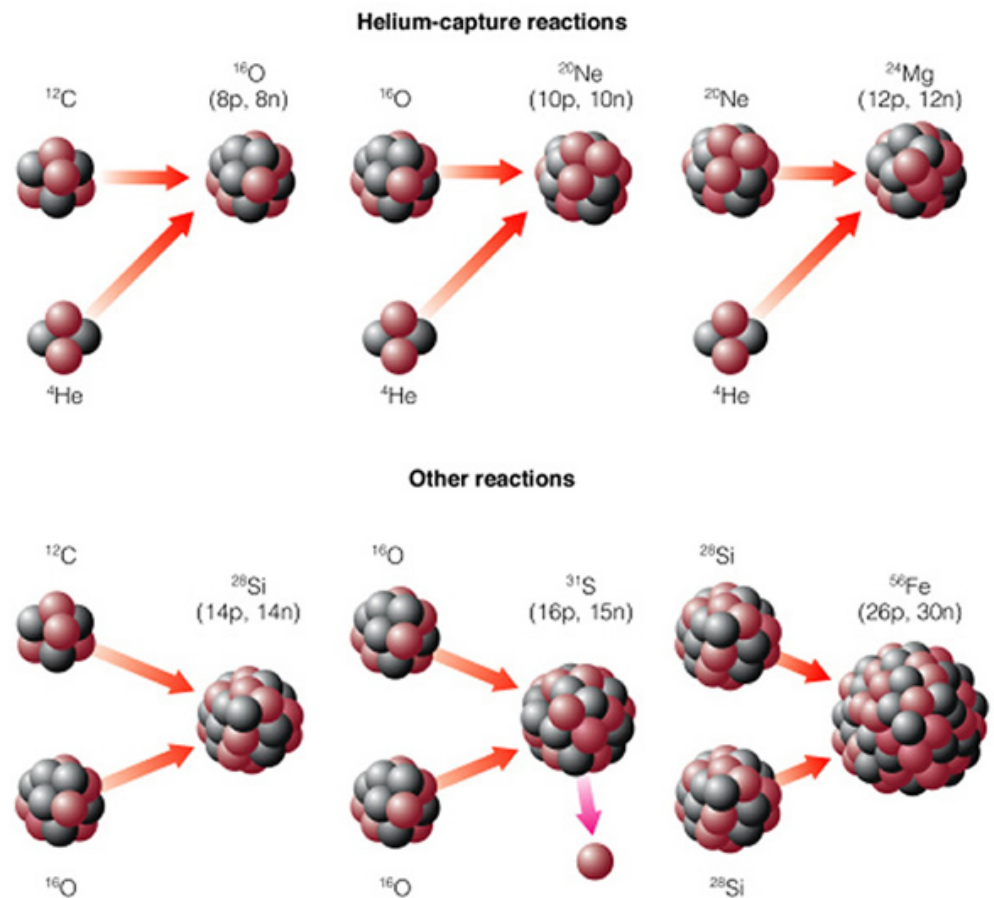
Alpha Ladder

Carbon \rightarrow O, Ne, Mg (600 million K)

Neon \rightarrow O, Mg (1.5 Billion K)

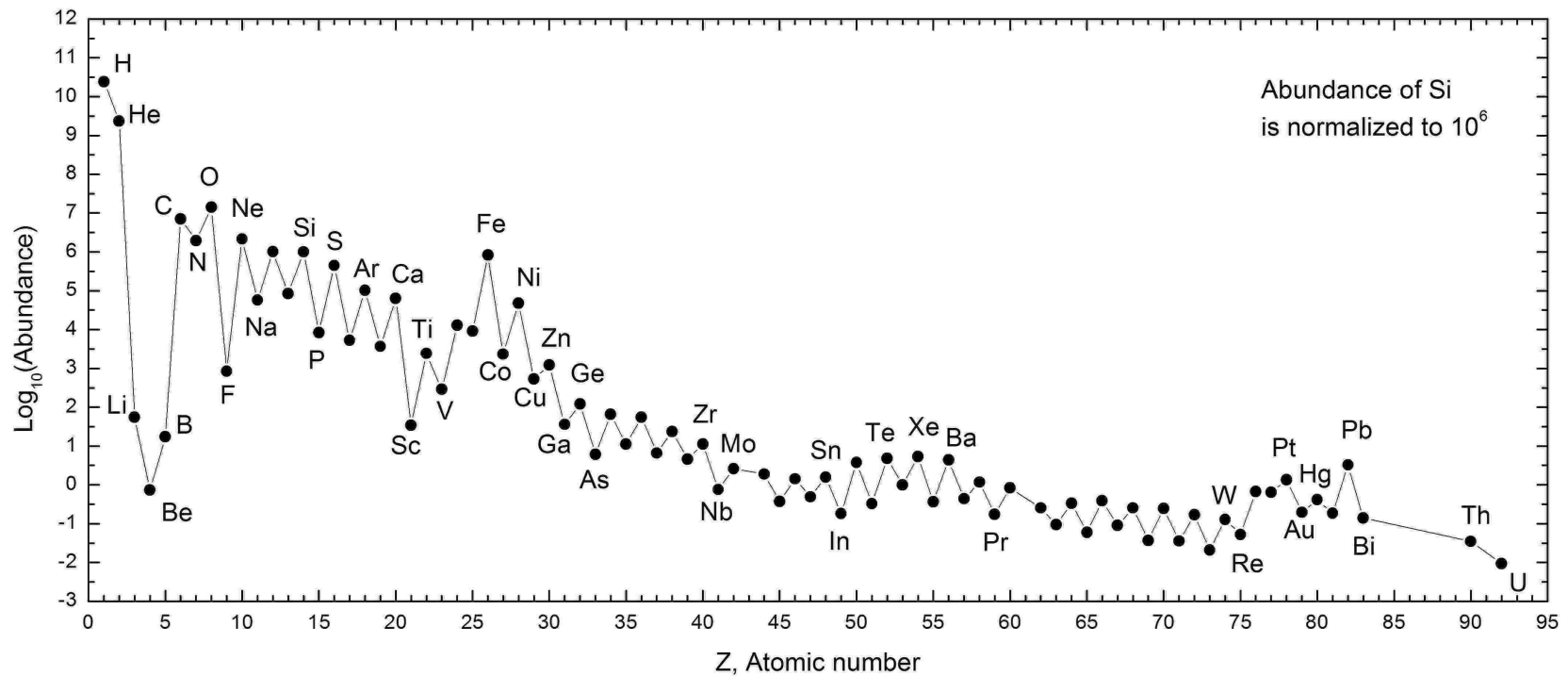
Oxygen \rightarrow Si, S, P (2.1 Billion K)

Silicon \rightarrow Fe, Ni (3.5 Billion K)

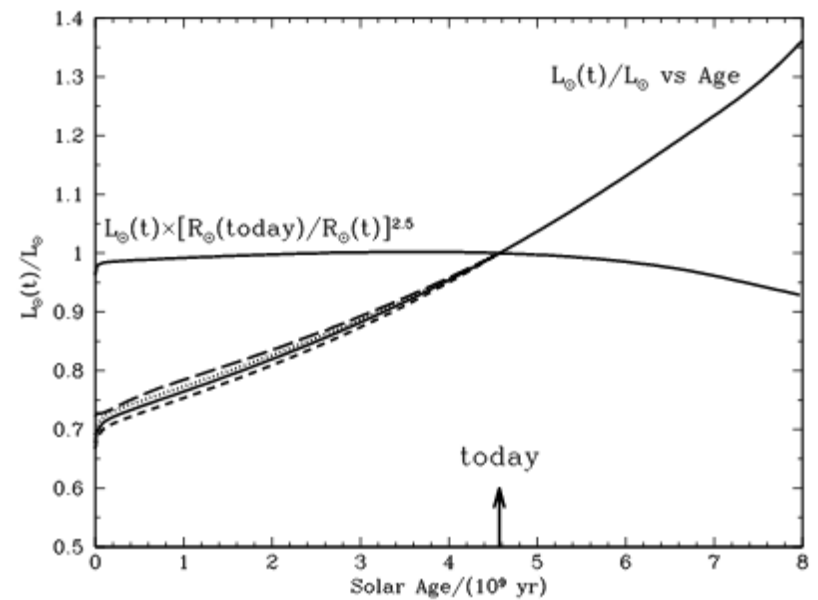
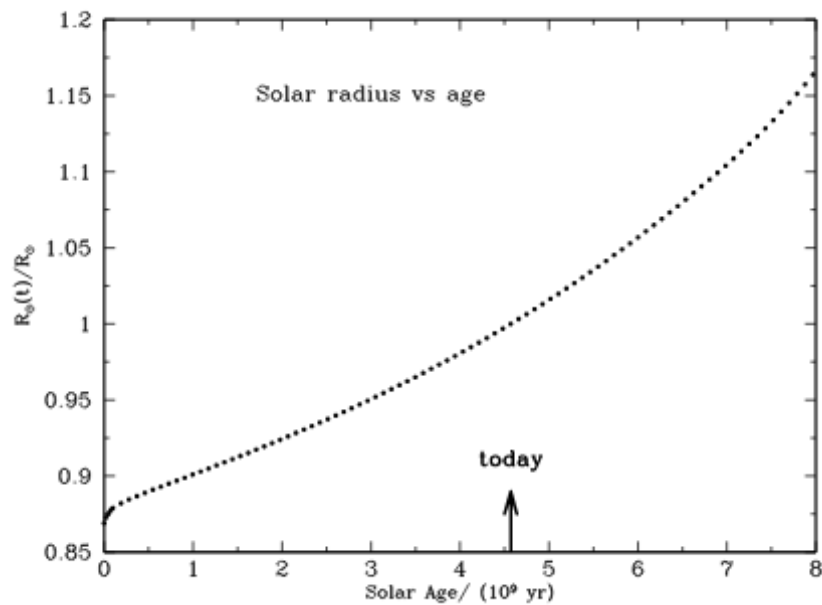


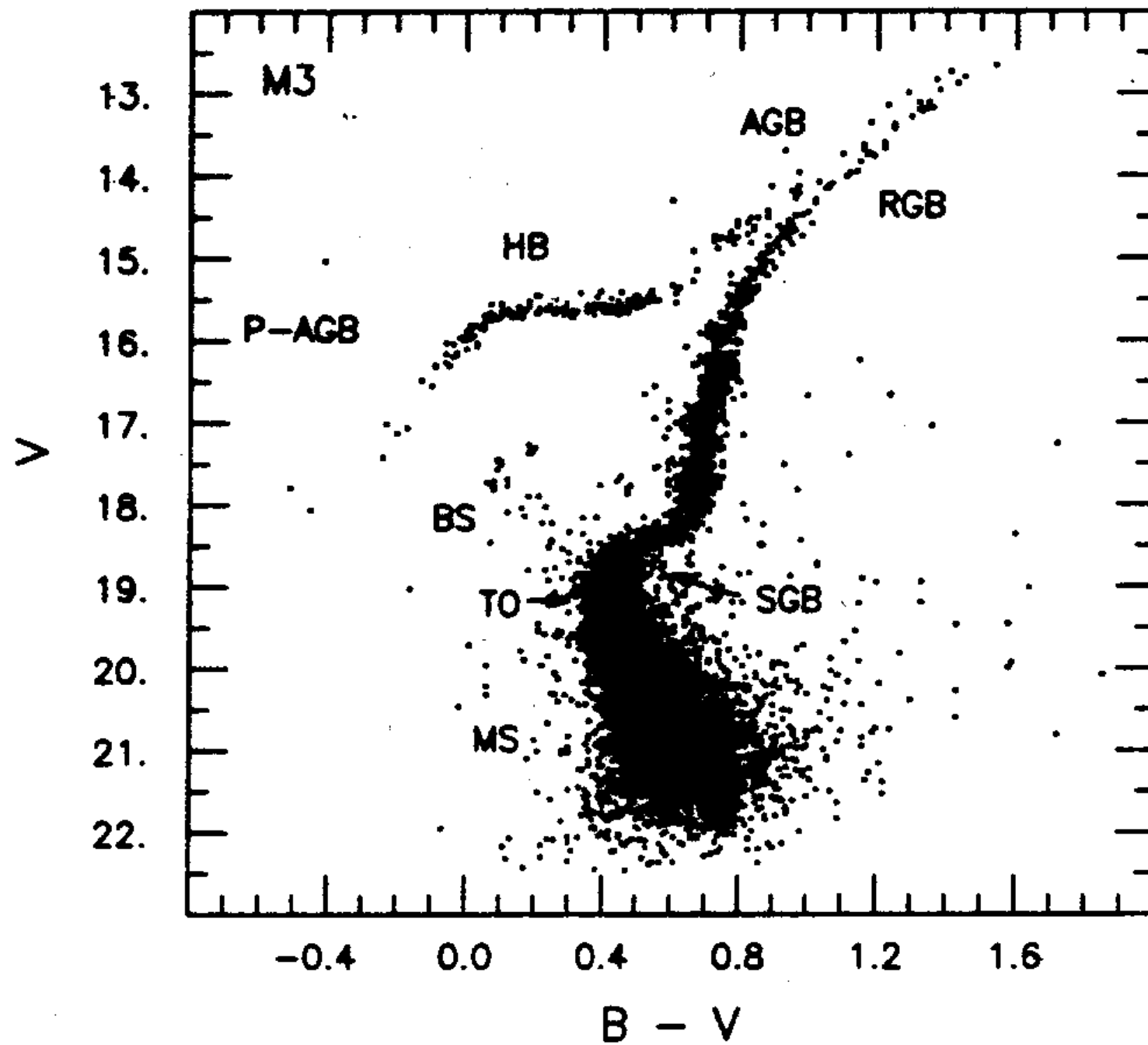
The Sun's abundance pattern

Elements with even atomic number are more abundant than those with odd

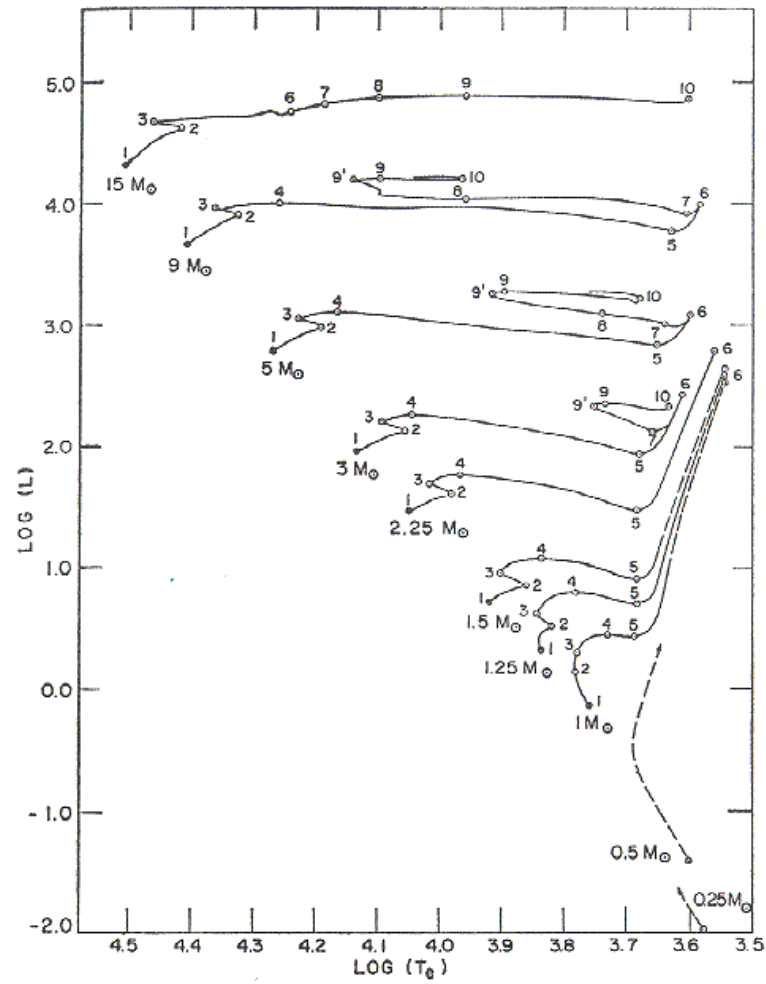


Solar evolution in the main sequence

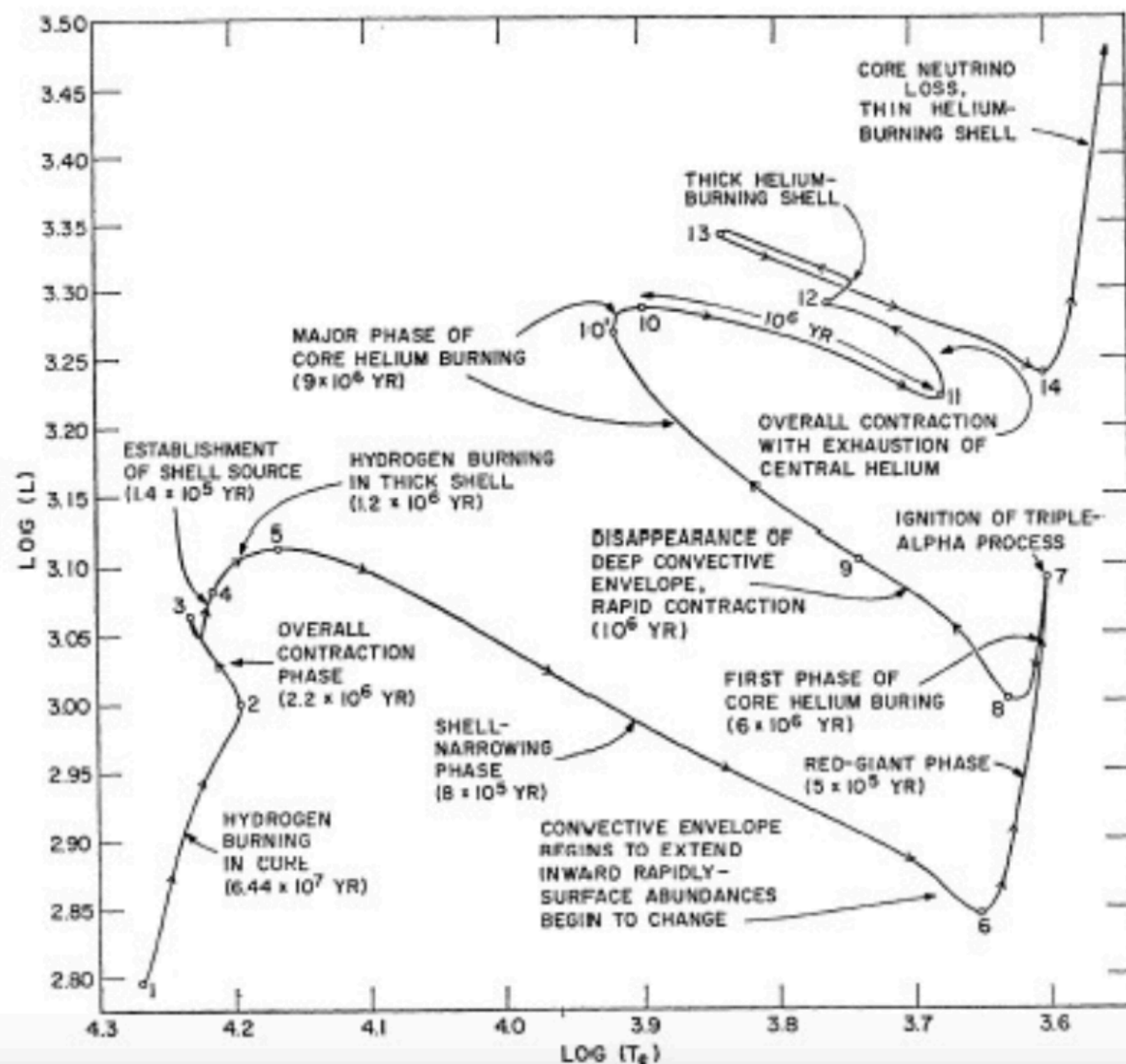




Evolutionary tracks



Schaller et al. (1992)



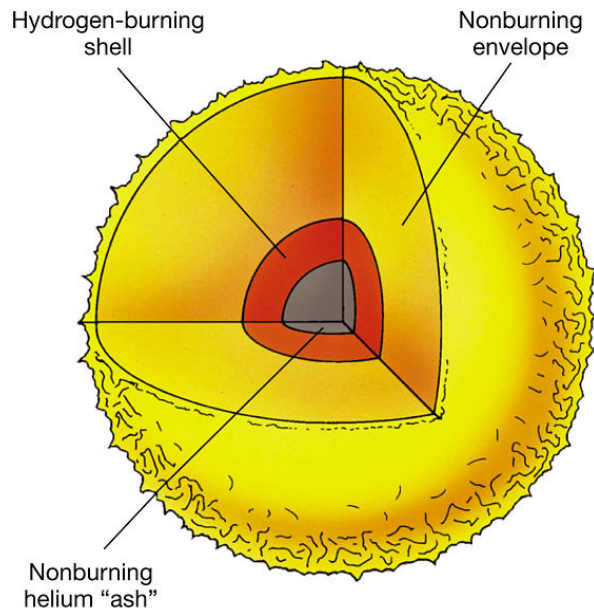
Hydrogen gone in the core

Star stops producing energy.

The star **contracts** and **heats** up.

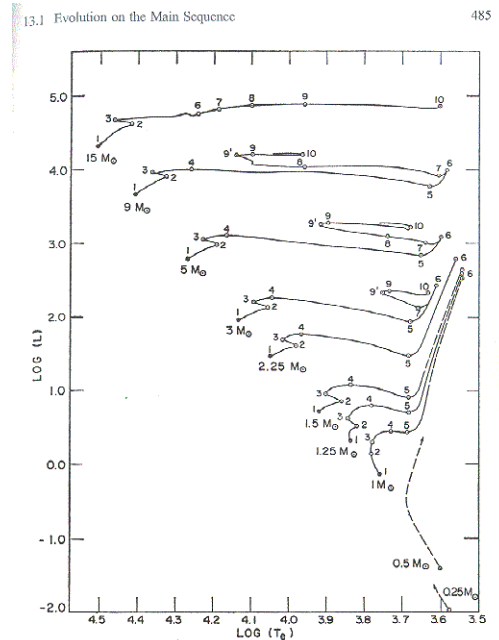
Eventually, the temperature becomes high enough to **burn hydrogen around the Helium core**

Hydrogen shell burning



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The star reaches
the subgiant branch



Red giant branch

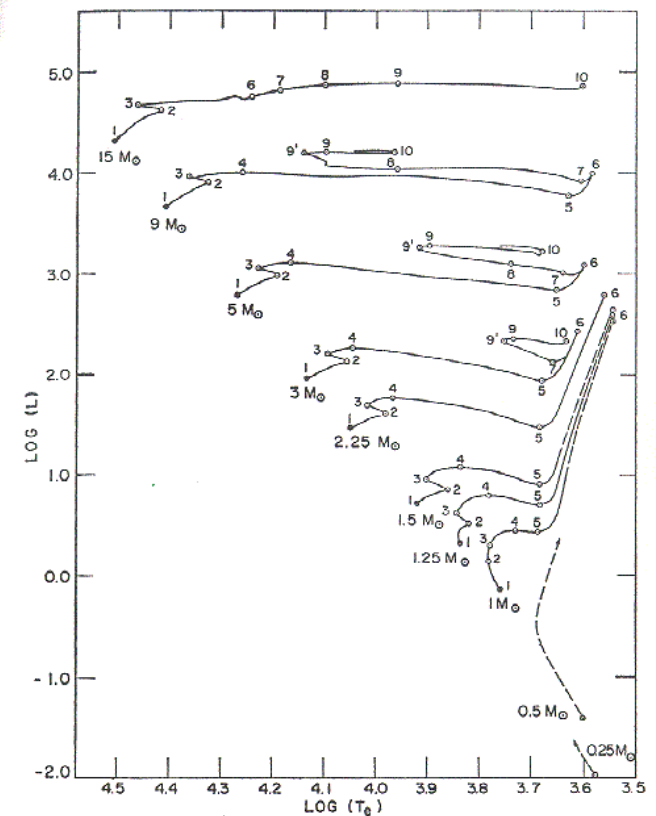
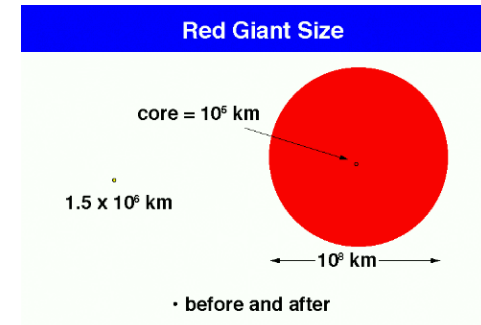
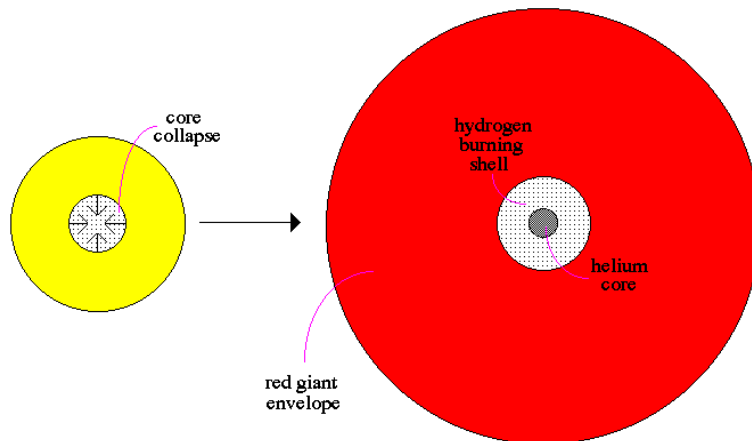
Hydrogen shell burning involves:

*More fuel than in MS-hydrogen burning
Higher temperatures
(thus more efficient)*

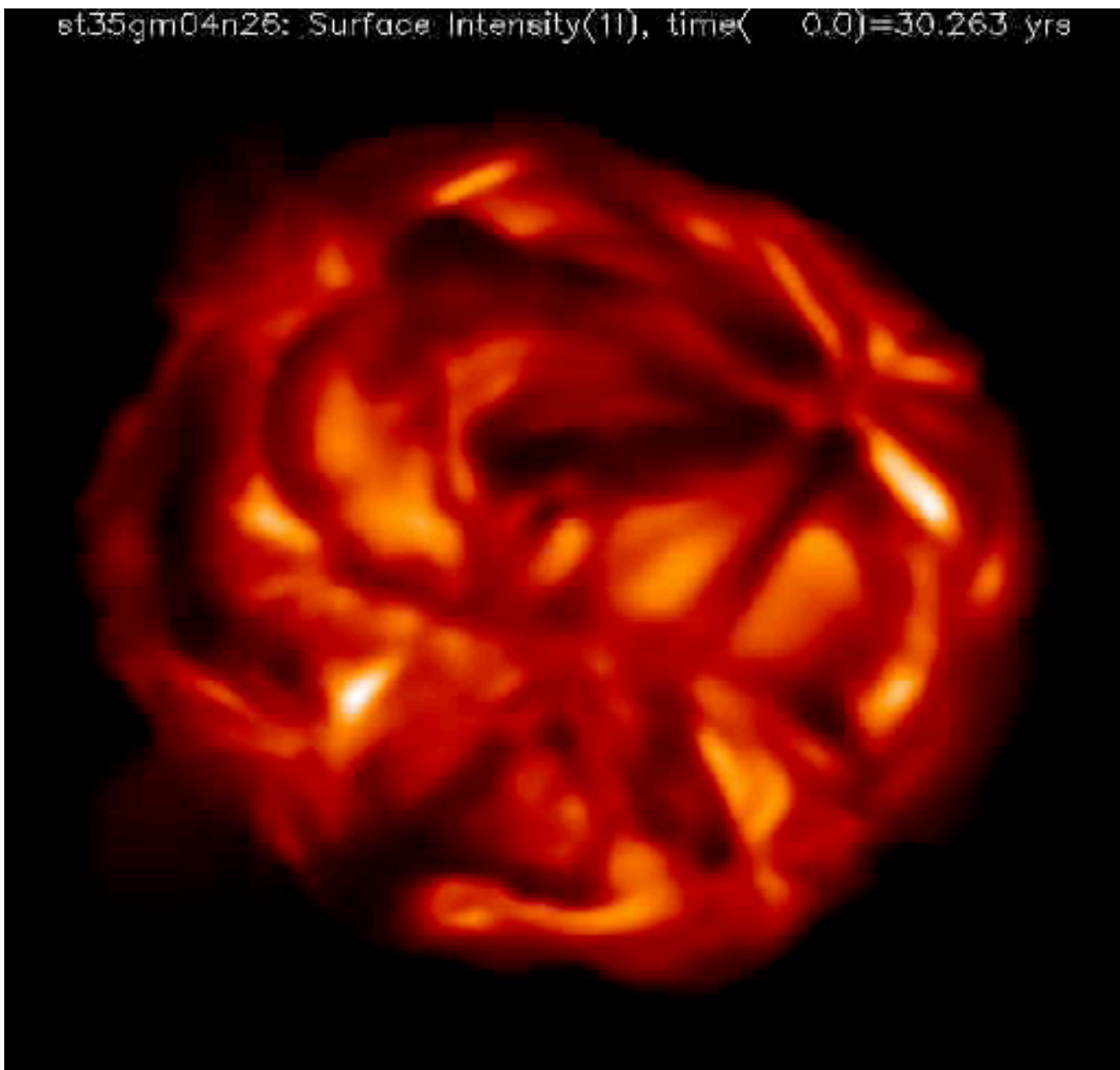
A lot more of energy is being produced than in the MS-phase.

The star gets very luminous and **swells**.

Hydrogen Shell Burning

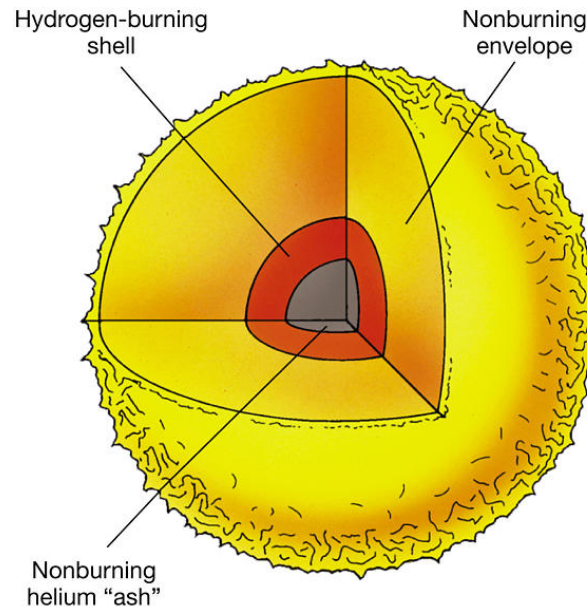


st35gm04n26: Surface Intensity(11), time(0.0)=30.263 yrs



What happens to the inert Helium core?

Hydrogen shell burning



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What happens to the inert Helium core?

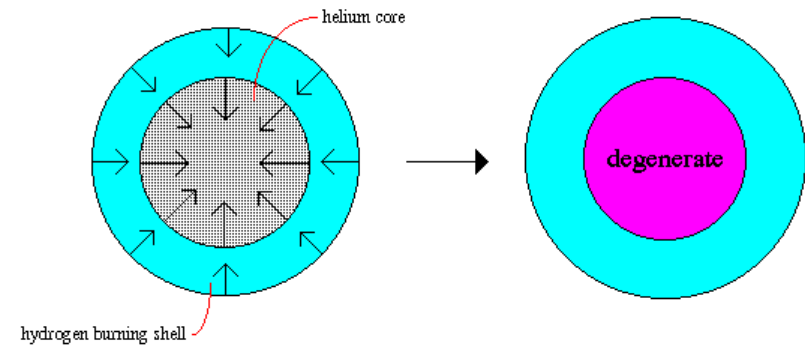
It keeps contracting and heating

At some point the density is so high it goes **degenerate**

A **phase transition** has occurred

The core stops behaving like a gas and starts behaving more **like a solid**

Core Degeneracy



What happens to the inert Helium core?

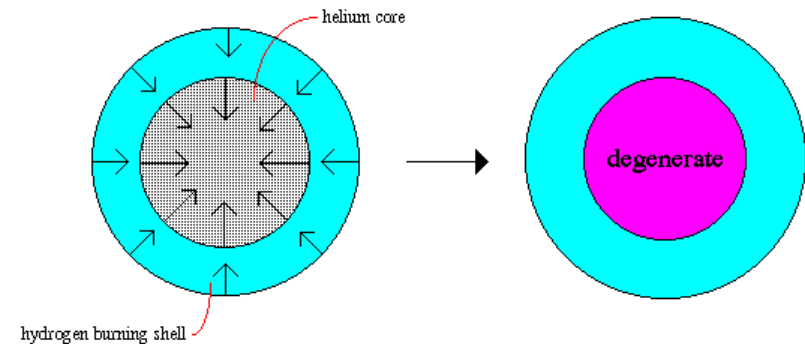
It keeps contracting and heating

At some point the density is so high it goes **degenerate**

A **phase transition** has occurred

The core stops behaving like a gas and starts behaving more **like a solid**

Core Degeneracy



Ideal Gas

$$P \propto \rho T$$

Temperature rises, pressure rises

Temperature falls, pressure falls

Radiative loss → cooling →
less support against gravity → **contraction**

Degenerate Matter

$$P \propto \rho^{4/3}$$

If temperature rises or falls, pressure
couldn't care less

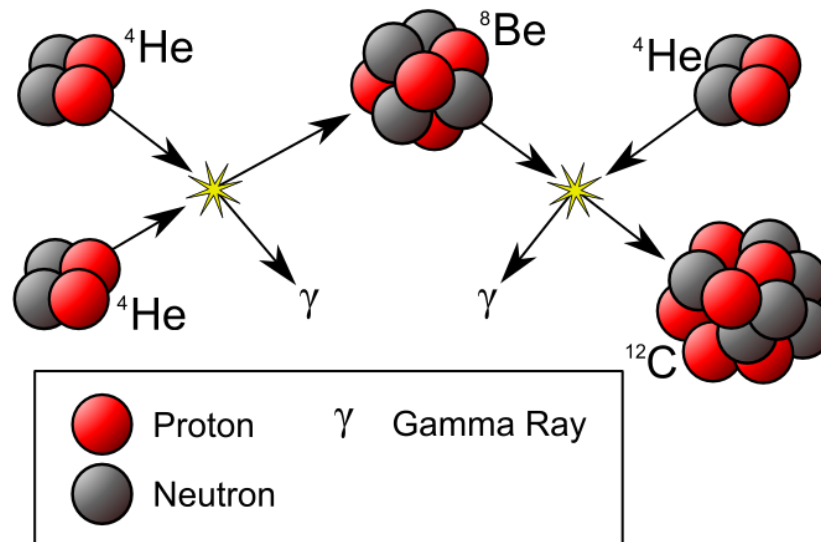
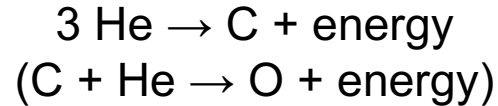
Radiative losses can continue indefinitely
The degenerate core is stable

Helium Fusion

The inner degenerate Helium core is stable
But the outer Helium core keeps contracting and heating

At the tip of the Red Giant Branch,
when the temperature reaches 100 million K,
HELIUM FUSION begins

Triple Alpha



The Helium Flash

Under normal (non-degenerate) conditions ...

Ideal Gas

$$P \propto \rho T$$

Nuclear reactions start

Heating → Expansion → Cooling

Cooling = Less nuclear reactions

Cooling → Contraction → Heating

Thermostat keeps nuclear reactions “tuned”

Controlled fusion

The Helium Flash

Non-degenerate vs degenerate

Ideal Gas

$$P \propto \rho T$$

Nuclear reactions start

Heating → Expansion → Cooling

Cooling = Less nuclear reactions

Cooling → Contraction → Heating

Thermostat keeps nuclear reactions “tuned”

Controlled fusion

Degenerate Matter

$$P \propto \rho^{4/3}$$

Nuclear reactions start

Heating

Star does not expand

Nuclear burning increases
More heating

The Helium Flash

Fusion ignition in degenerate matter is a bomb ready to explode

Ideal Gas

$$P \propto \rho T$$

Nuclear reactions start

Heating → Expansion → Cooling

Cooling = Less nuclear reactions

Cooling → Contraction → Heating

Thermostat keeps nuclear reactions “tuned”

Controlled fusion

Degenerate Matter

$$P \propto \rho^{4/3}$$

Nuclear reactions start

Heating

Star does not expand



**Nuclear burning increases
More heating**



No thermostat

Runaway temperature rise

Runaway fusion

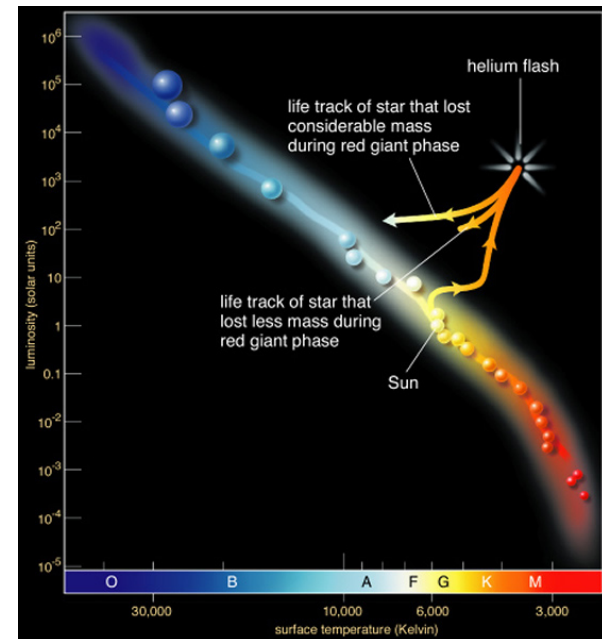
The Helium Flash

Fusion ignition in degenerate matter is a bomb ready to explode

No thermostat! Core just gets hotter and hotter

Runaway Helium burning: **100 billion times the Solar output** in just a few seconds

Helium Flash



The Helium Flash

Fusion ignition in degenerate matter is a bomb ready to explode

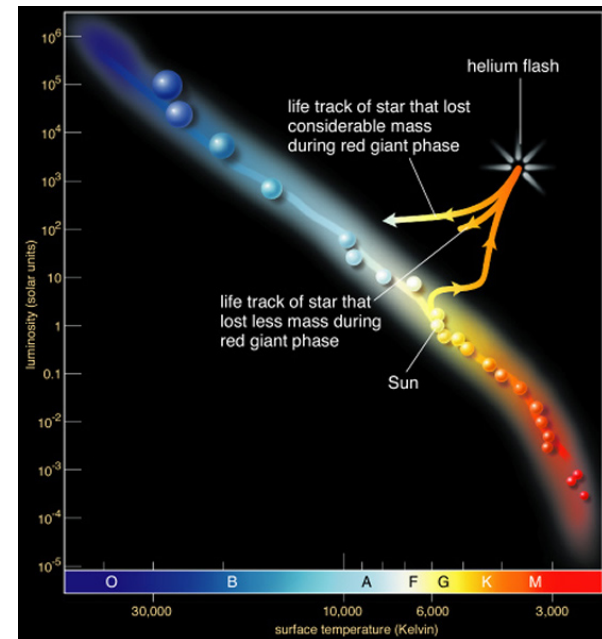
No thermostat! Core just gets hotter and hotter

Runaway Helium burning: **100 billion times the Solar output** in just a few seconds

Helium Flash

Yet, nothing is seen

Why?



The Helium Flash

Fusion ignition in degenerate matter is a bomb ready to explode

No thermostat! Core just gets hotter and hotter

Runaway Helium burning: **100 billion times the Solar output** in just a few seconds

Helium Flash

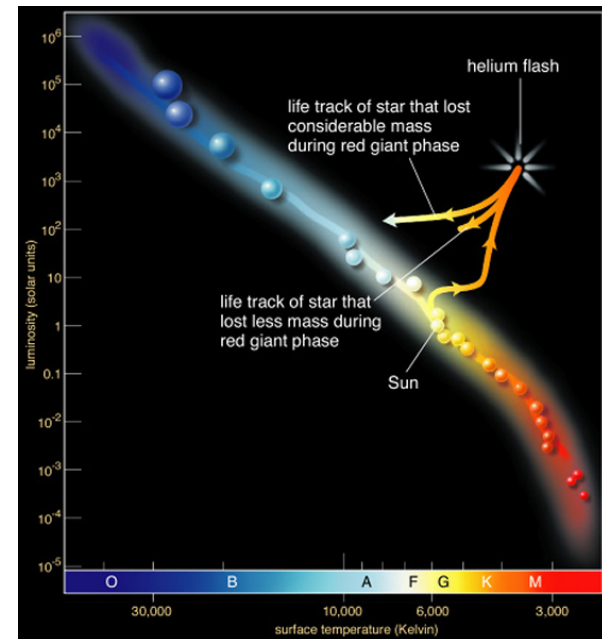
Yet, nothing is seen

Why?

The energy is ALL used to lift the degeneracy

(i.e., to “melt” the degenerate core back into a normal gas)

Helium then burns **steadily** in a core of normal gas



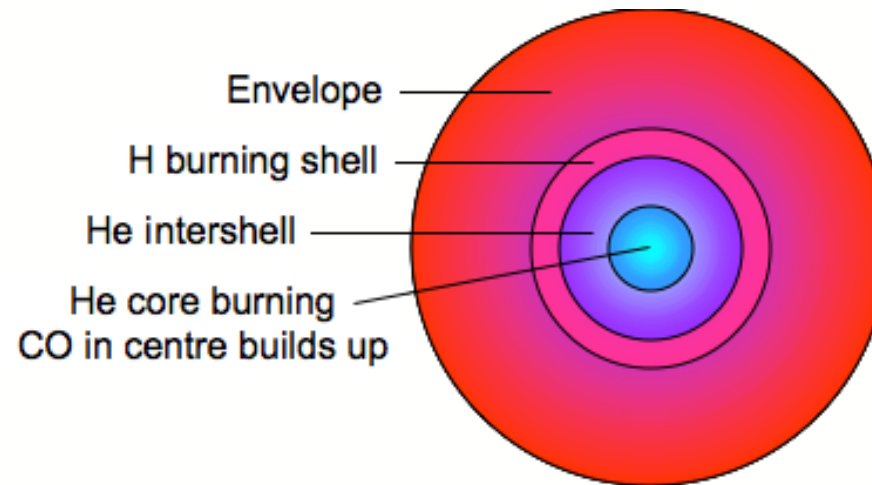
The Horizontal Branch

Helium burning in the core

Hydrogen shell burning

In the HR diagram, the star sets in the **Horizontal Branch**

The Horizontal Branch is the Helium Main Sequence



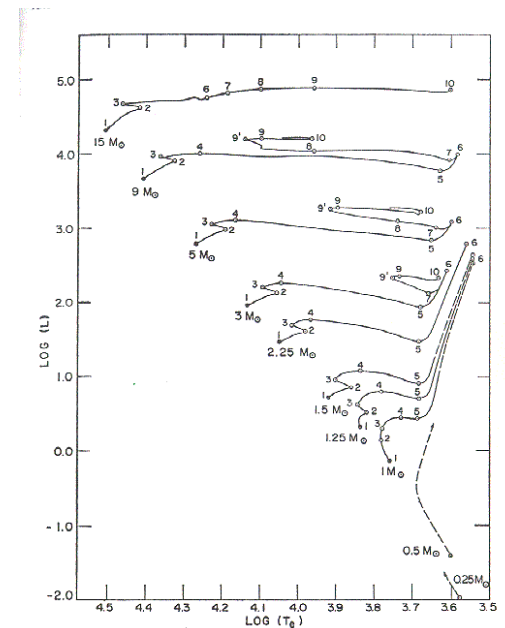
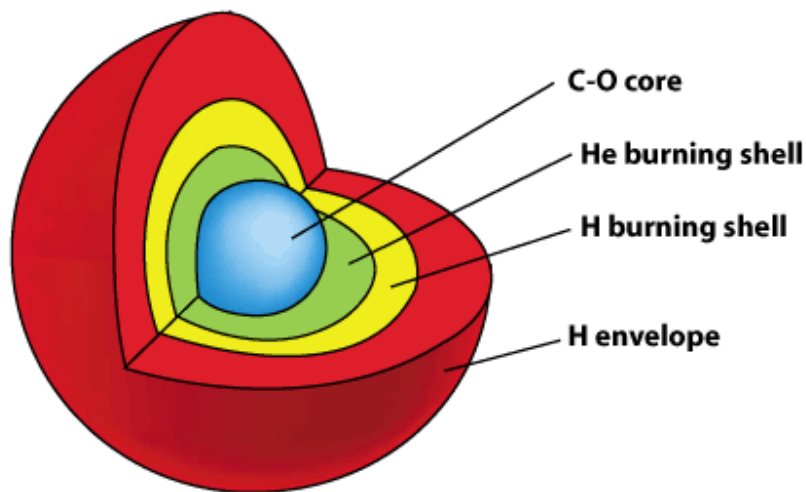
Helium exhausted in the core

The Carbon-Oxygen core **contracts** and **heats** up.

Helium shell burning

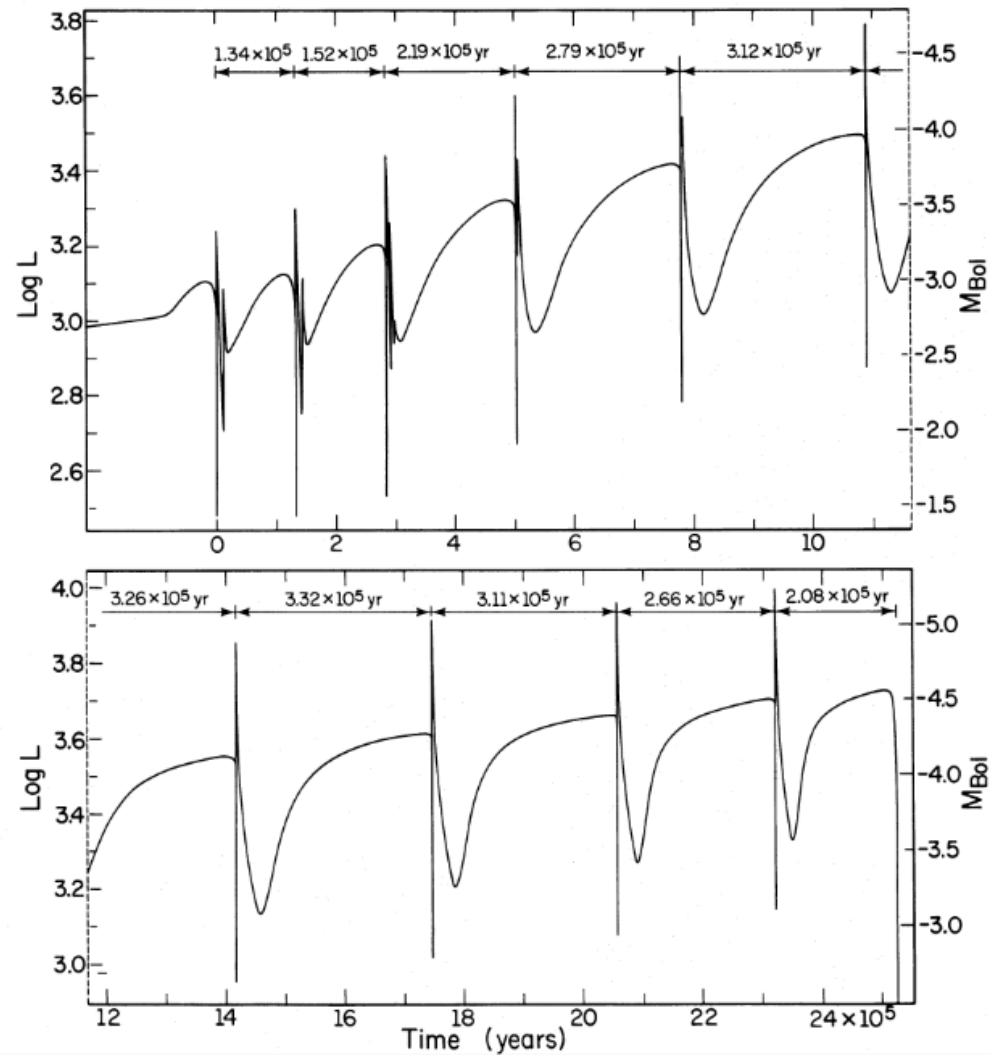
More energy is available, the star swells and becomes a red giant again

The star reaches the ***Asymptotic Giant Branch***

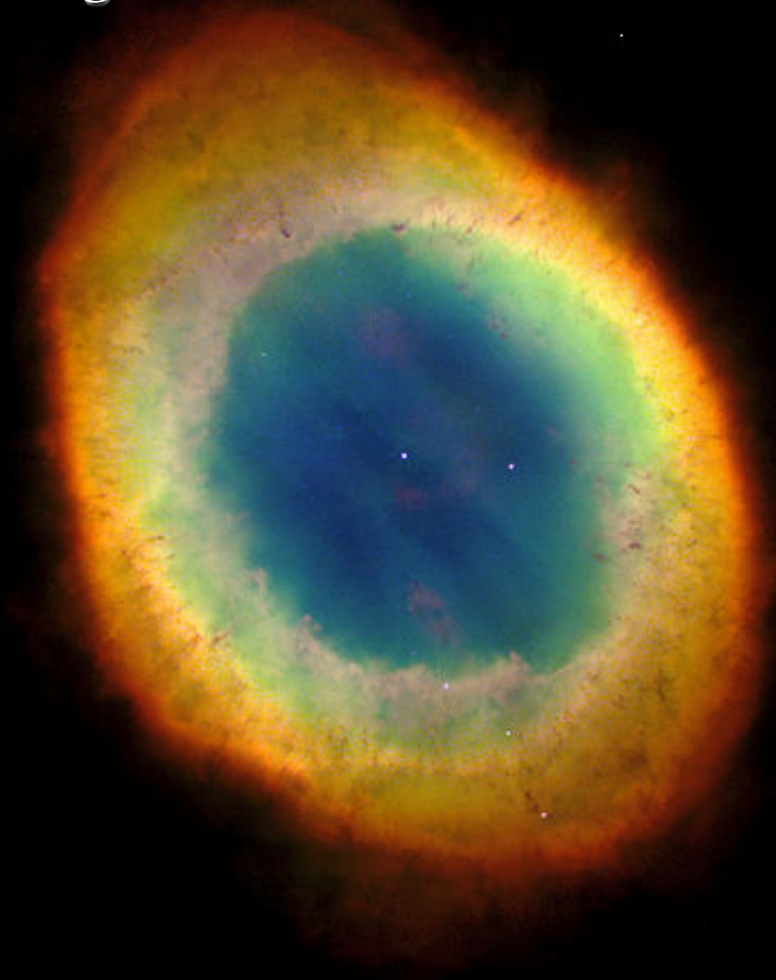


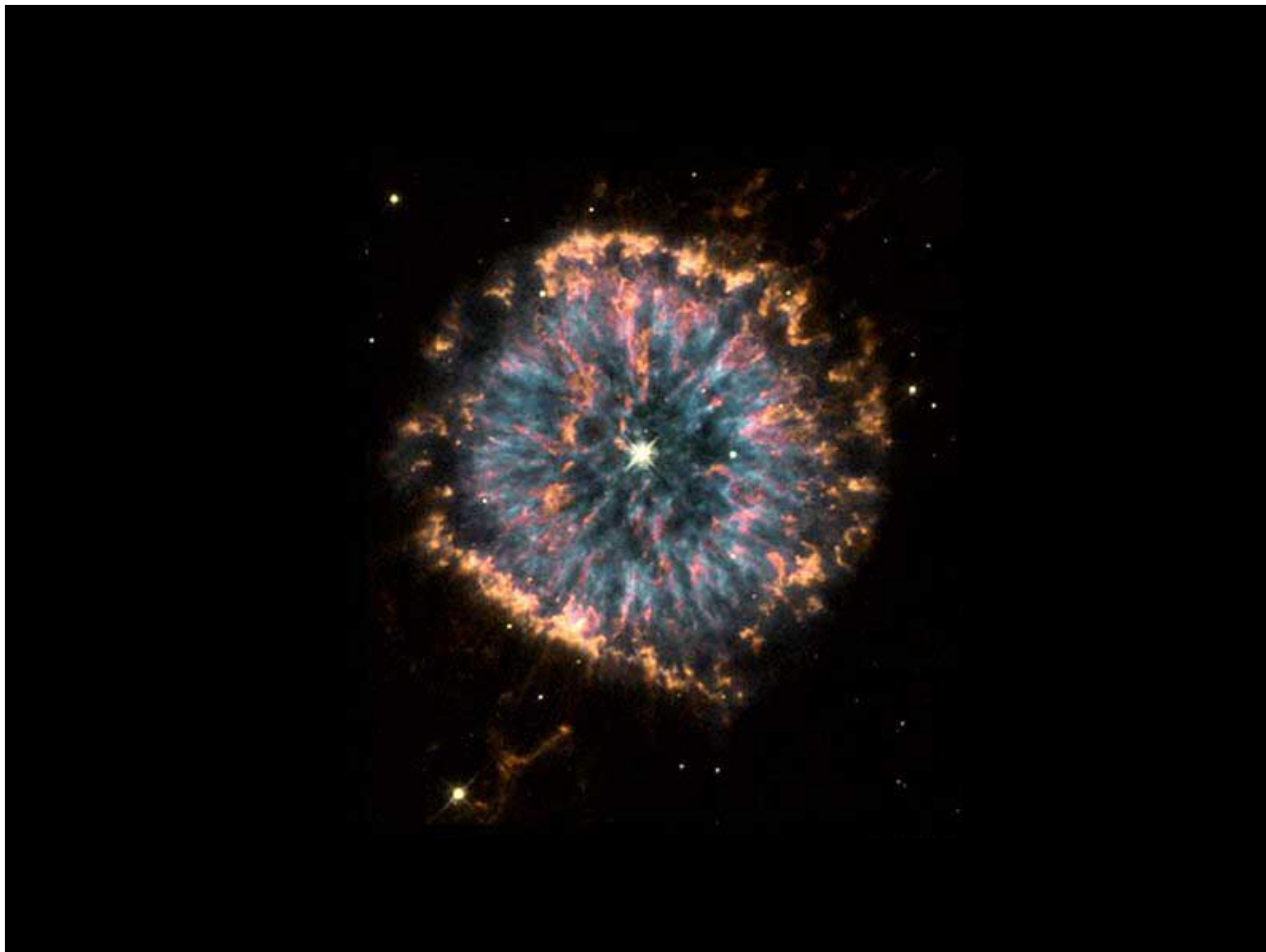
Thermal pulses in AGB stars

A series of Helium flashes

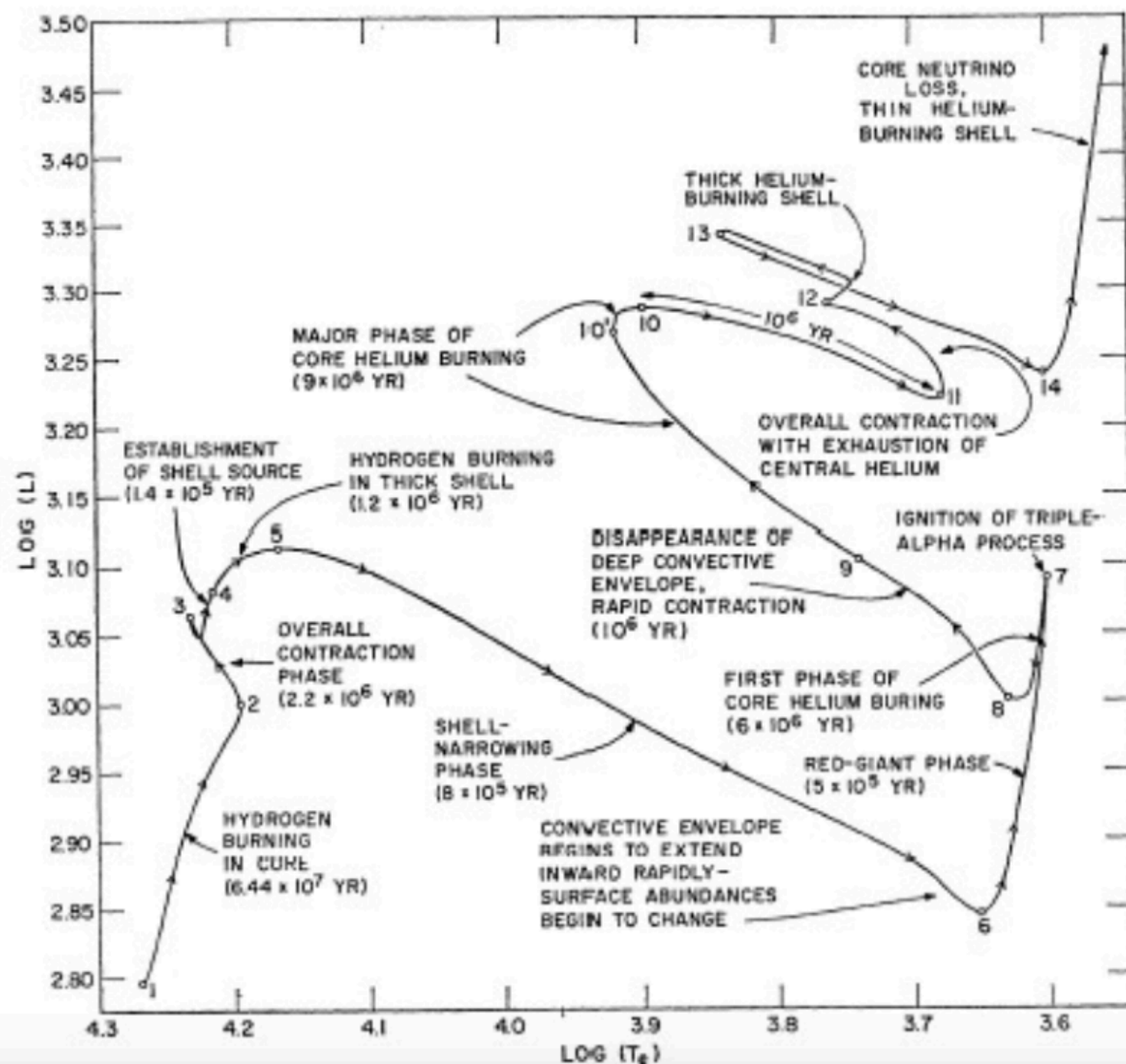


PLANETARY NEBULA
The gracious death of low mass stars



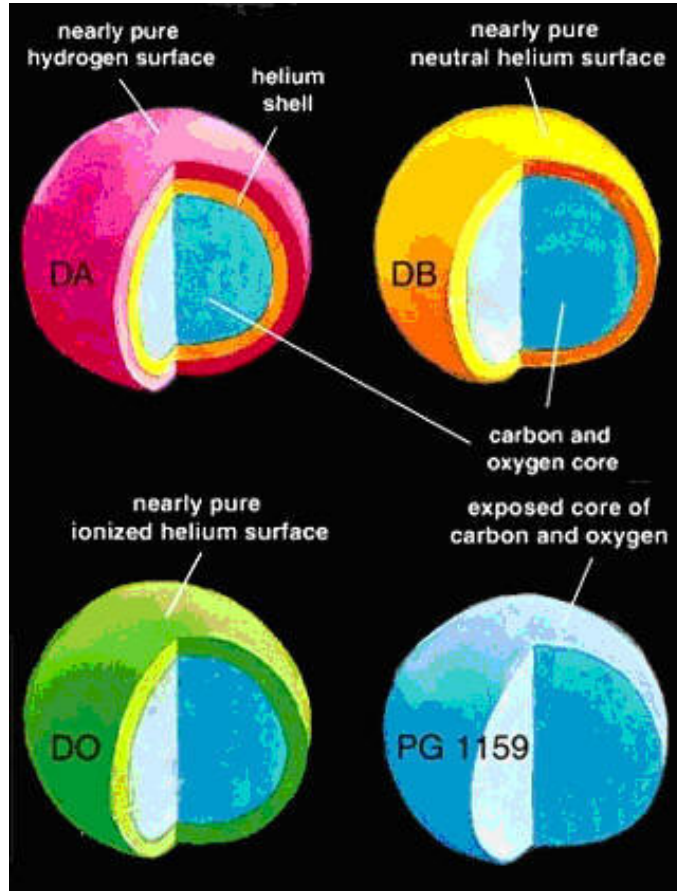




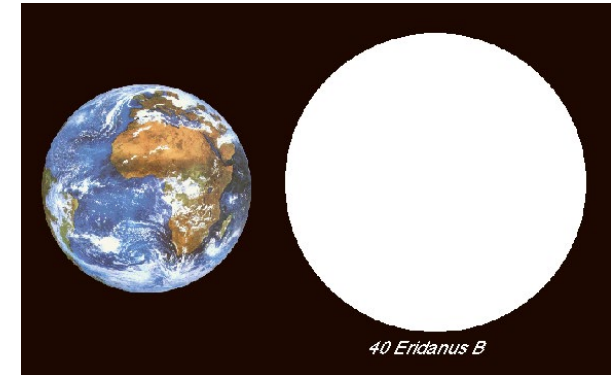


White dwarfs

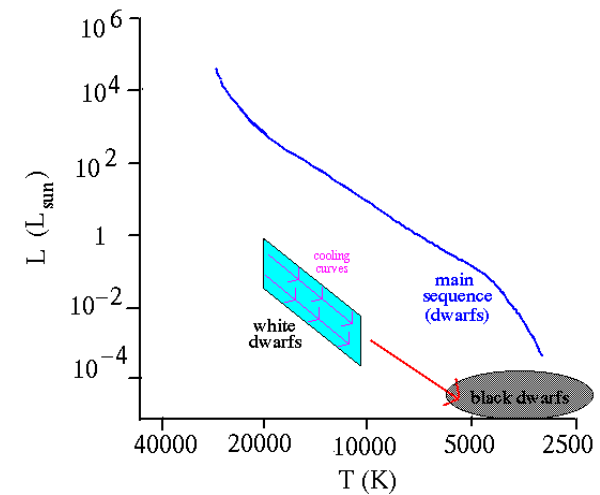
White dwarfs are the exposed degenerate core of the star



Types of white dwarfs



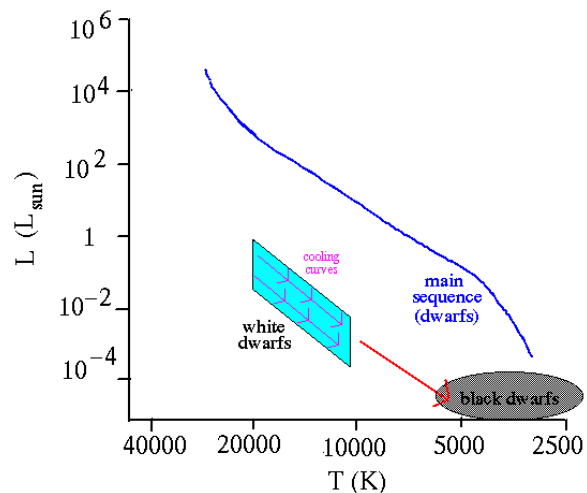
White dwarfs have planetary dimensions...



... and they do little but cooling.

White dwarfs

White dwarfs are the exposed degenerate core of the star

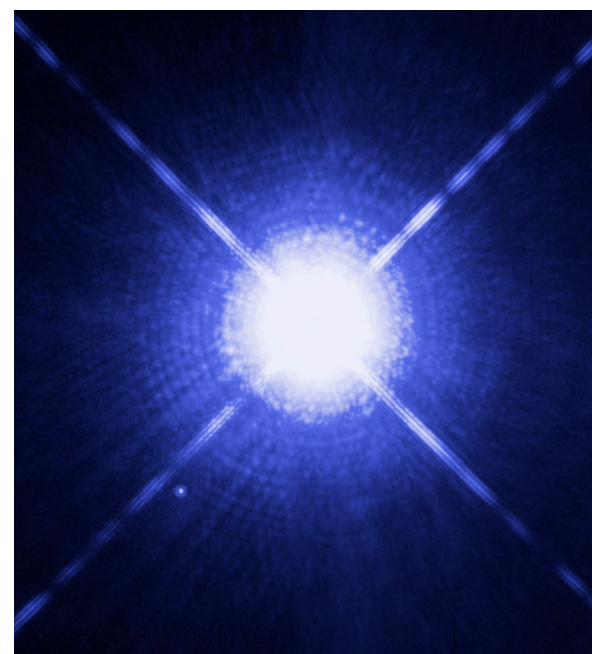


No energy production
Supported by degenerate pressure

Cooling takes a long time
 10^{15} yr to cool down to background temperature

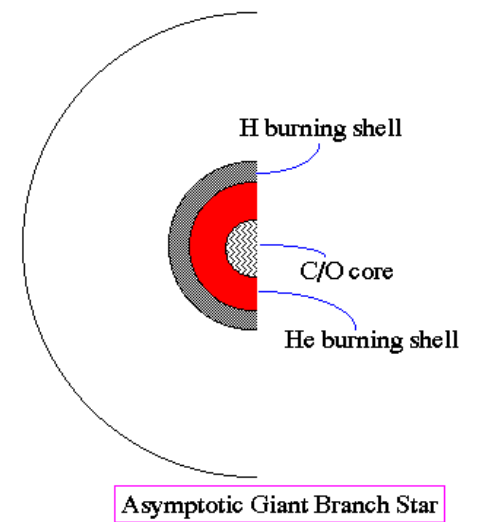
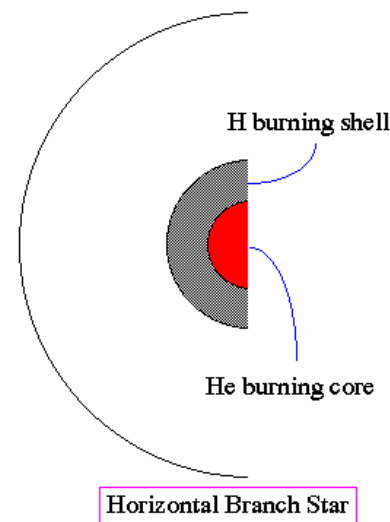
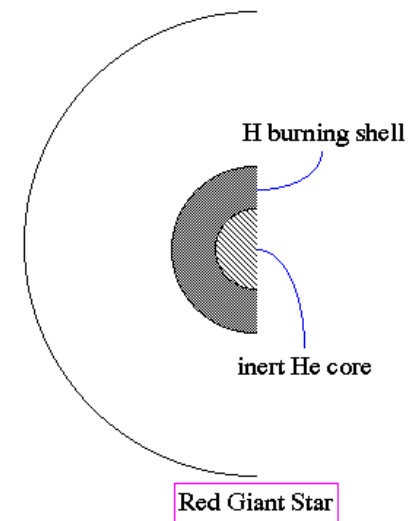
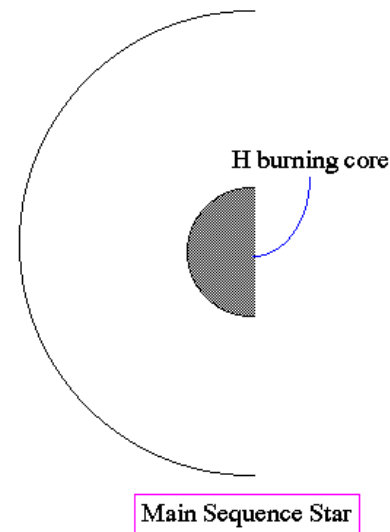
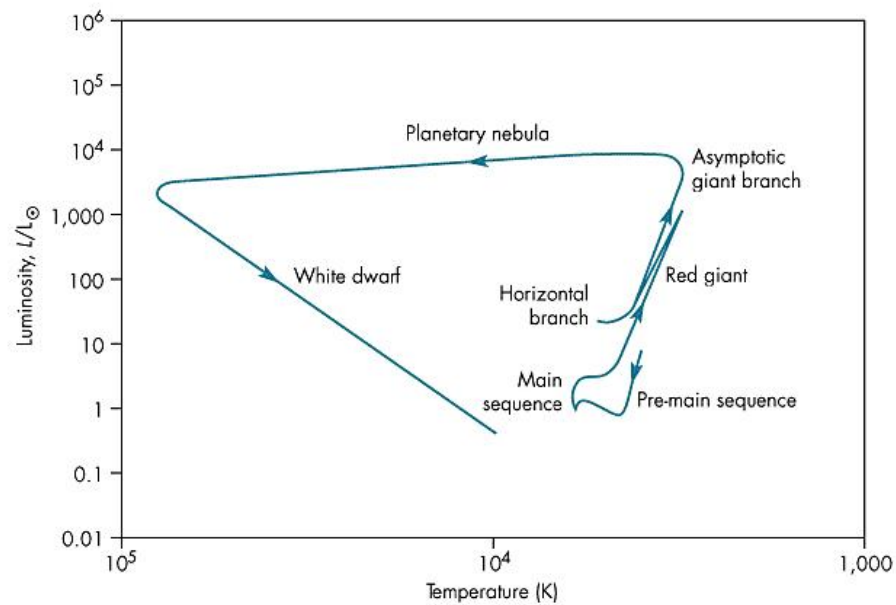
The universe is not old enough to have black dwarfs

Coldest white dwarfs ~5000 K.

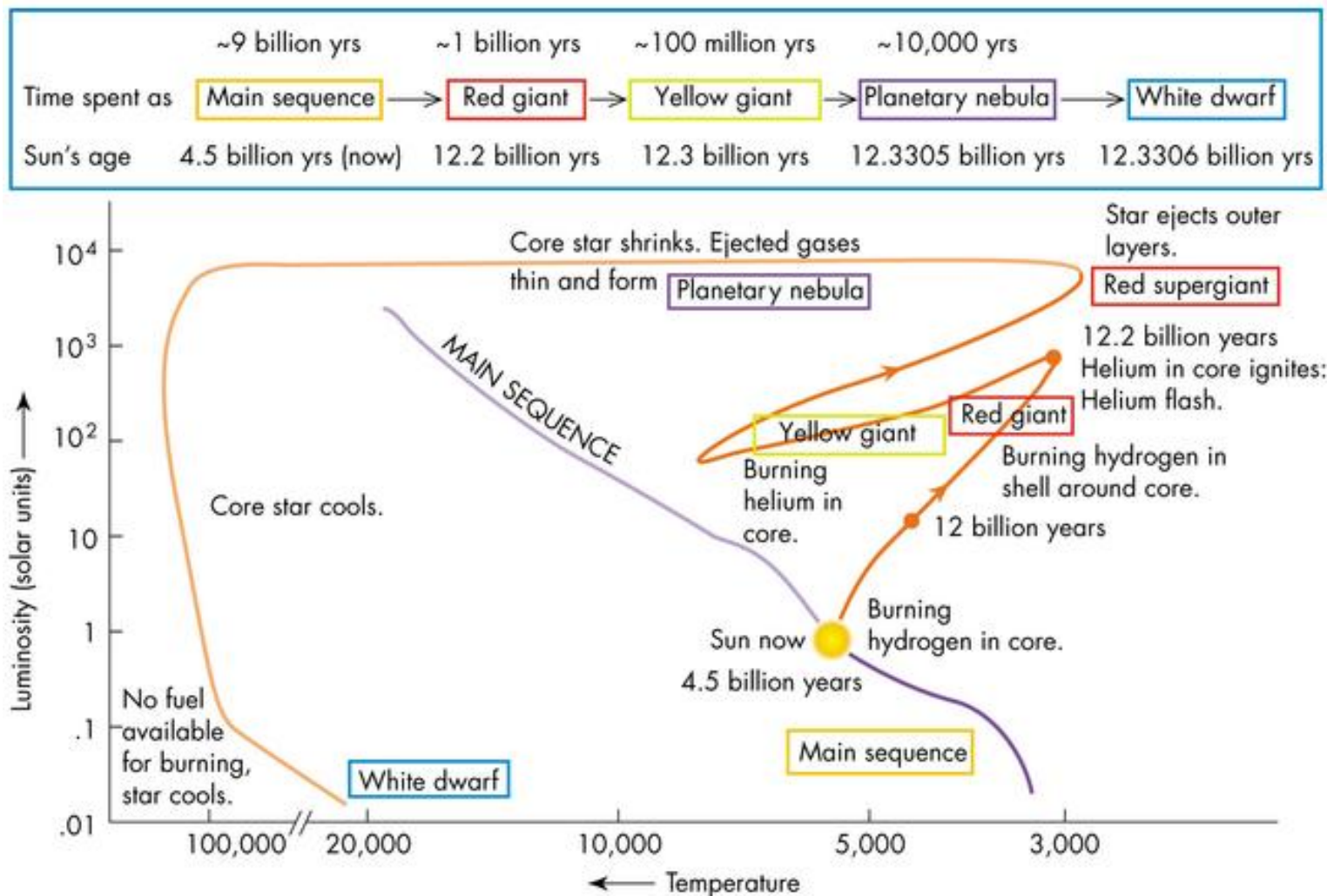


Sirius A (Main Sequence star)
and **Sirius B** (White Dwarf)

Evolution of a low mass star

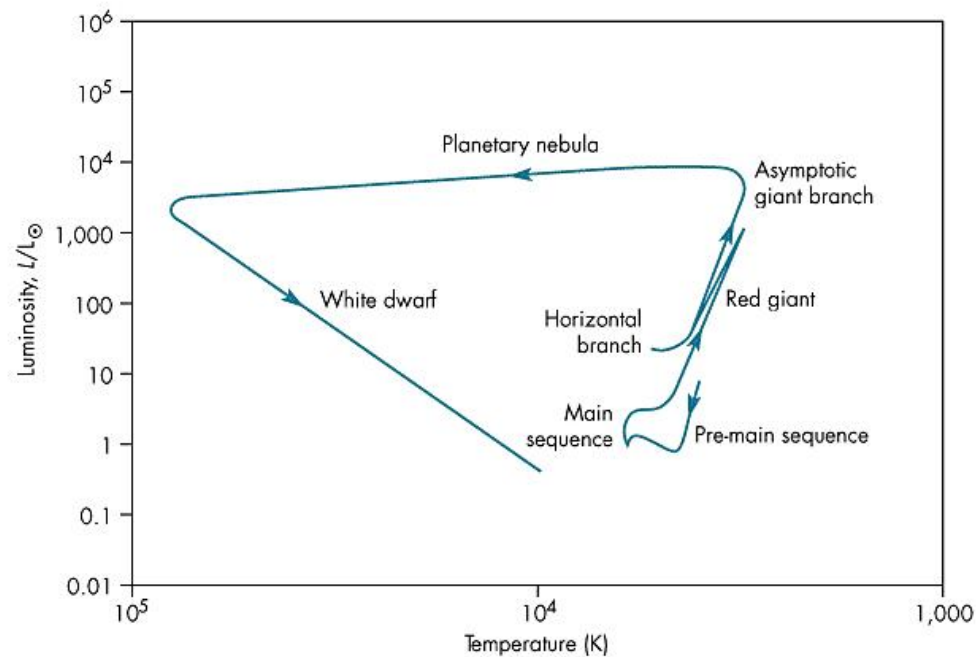


Post-Main Sequence Evolution - Timescales



Evolution of high mass stars

The evolution we covered in last class is for low mass stars ($M < 4 M_{\odot}$)



High mass stars differ basically due to the ***temperature of the core***.

Evolution of high mass stars ($4 < M/M_{\odot} < 8$)

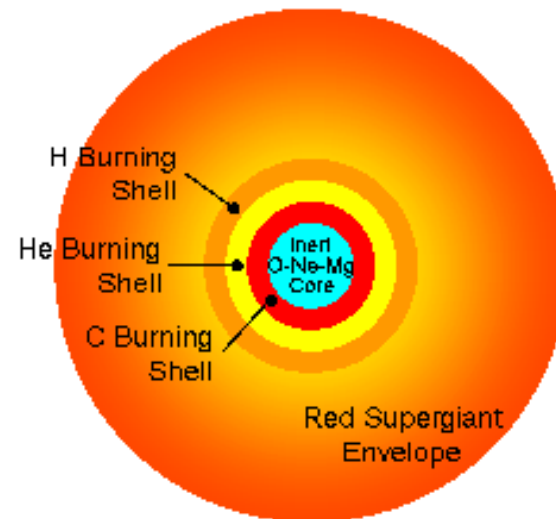
The Helium Flash never happens

The star reaches Helium burning temperatures *before* the core becomes degenerate

They also reach temperatures hot enough to burn **Carbon**

600 million K

Leaves a O-Ne-(Mg) white dwarf.



Evolution of high mass stars

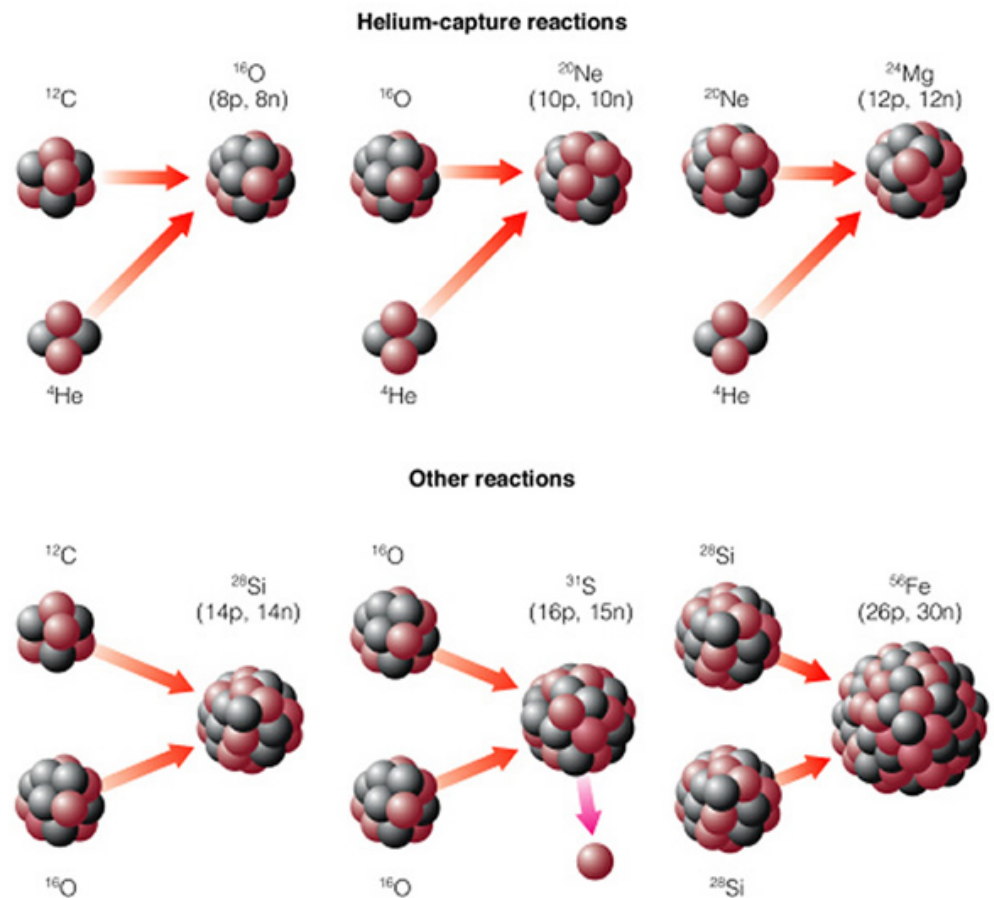
$$M > 8 M_{\odot}$$

Carbon \rightarrow O, Ne, Mg (600 million K)

Neon \rightarrow O, Mg (1.5 Billion K)

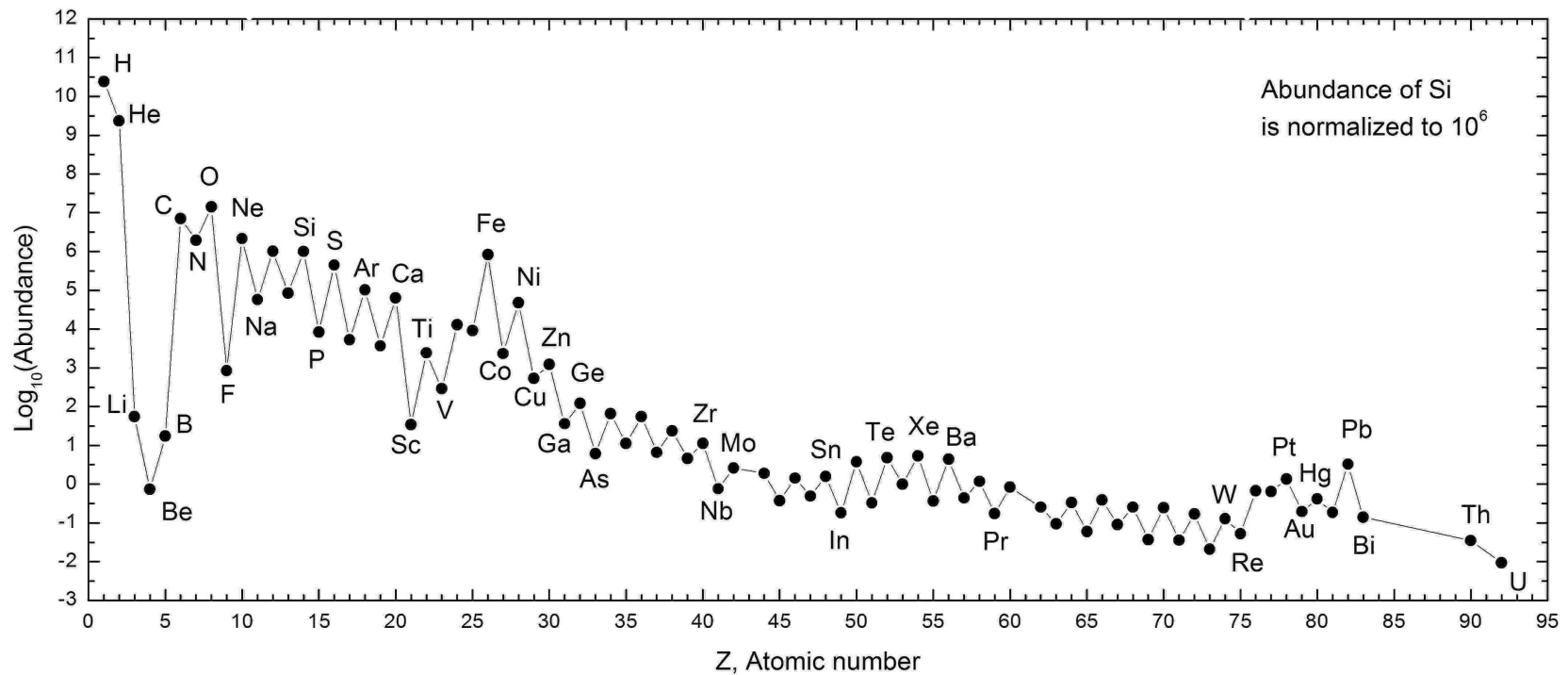
Oxygen \rightarrow Si, S, P (2.1 Billion K)

Silicon \rightarrow Fe, Ni (3.5 Billion K)



The Sun's abundance pattern

Because of the alpha ladder, elements with even atomic number are more abundant than those with odd



Evolution of high mass stars

$$M > 8 M_{\odot}$$

TIMESCALES FOR NUCLEAR BURNING

Hydrogen – 10 Myr

Helium – 1 Myr

Carbon – 1000 yr

Neon ~ 10 yr

Oxygen ~ 1 yr

Silicon ~ 1 day

Evolution of high mass stars $M > 8 M_{\odot}$

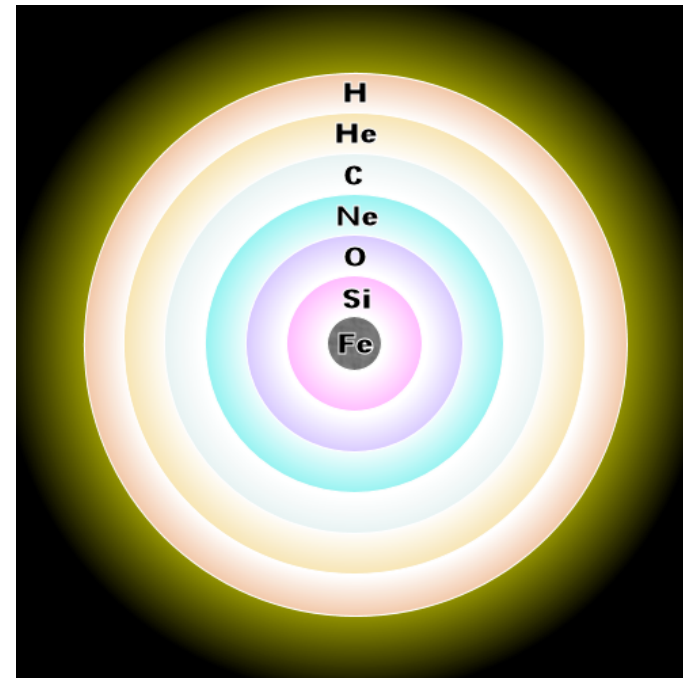
The star develops an “**onion layers structure**” of burning shells

Carbon \rightarrow O, Ne, Mg (600 million K)

Neon \rightarrow O, Mg (1.5 Billion K)

Oxygen \rightarrow Si, S, P (2.1 Billion K)

Silicon \rightarrow Fe, Ni (3.5 Billion K)

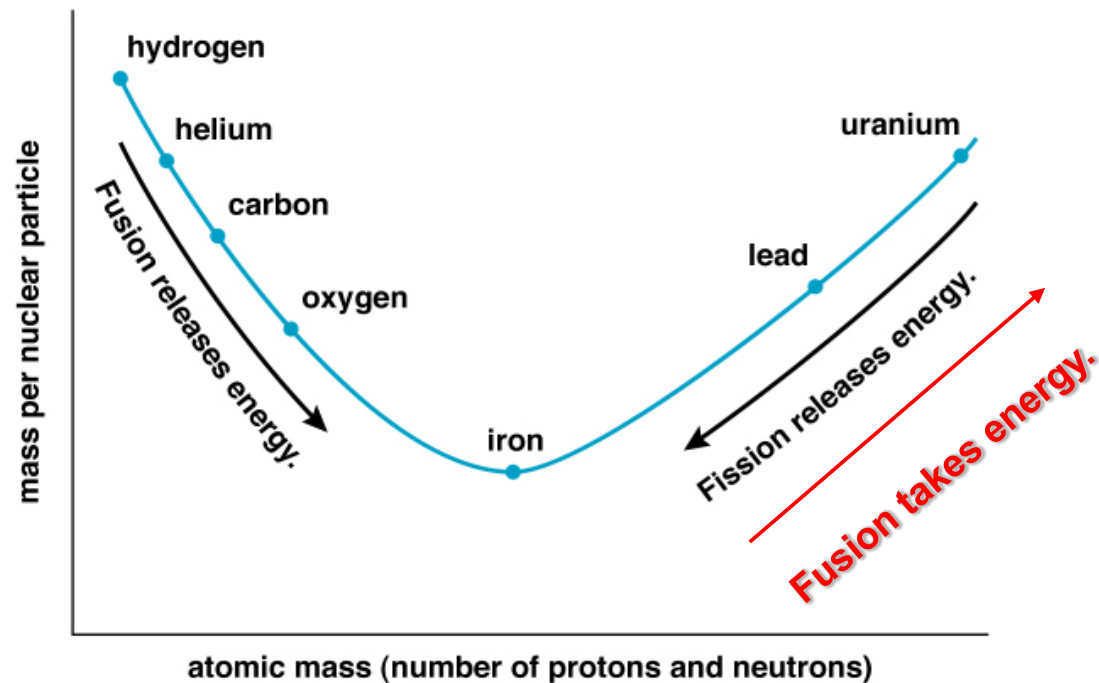


But **Iron** is a **DEAD END** !!

Iron is a dead end

Iron is the most tightly bound element

Fusion beyond Iron TAKES energy



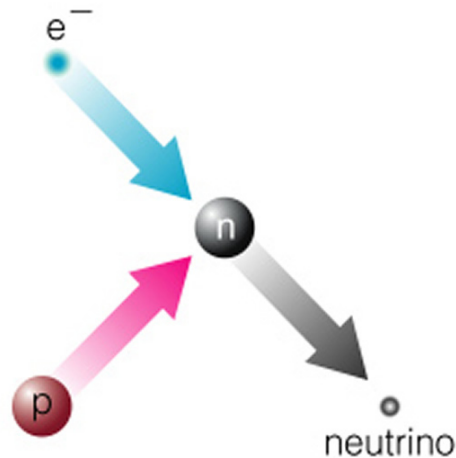
Copyright © Addison Wesley

No fusion reactions left to yield energy!!

Core collapse

At densities of 10^{10} g/cm^3
(remember: nuclear densities are $\sim 10^{14} \text{ g/cm}^3$)

Neutronization

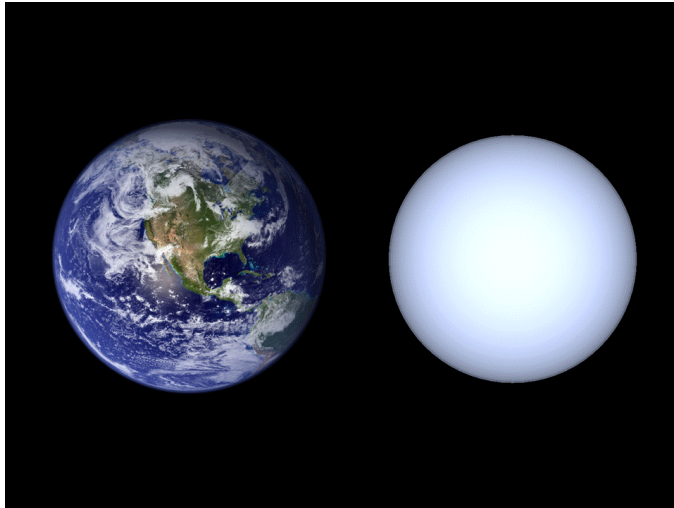


Proton + electron \longrightarrow neutron + neutrino



Electrons lost: electron degeneracy pressure is gone

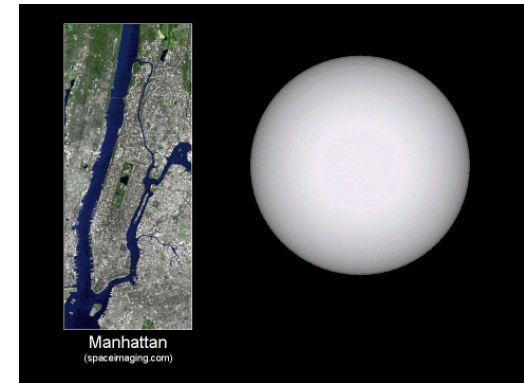
Catastrophic collapse



A second later



Collapse speed: 0.25c



6000 km
 10^{10} g/cm^3

10 km
 10^{14} g/cm^3



Nuclear densities!

*Neutron degeneracy
provides support against gravity*

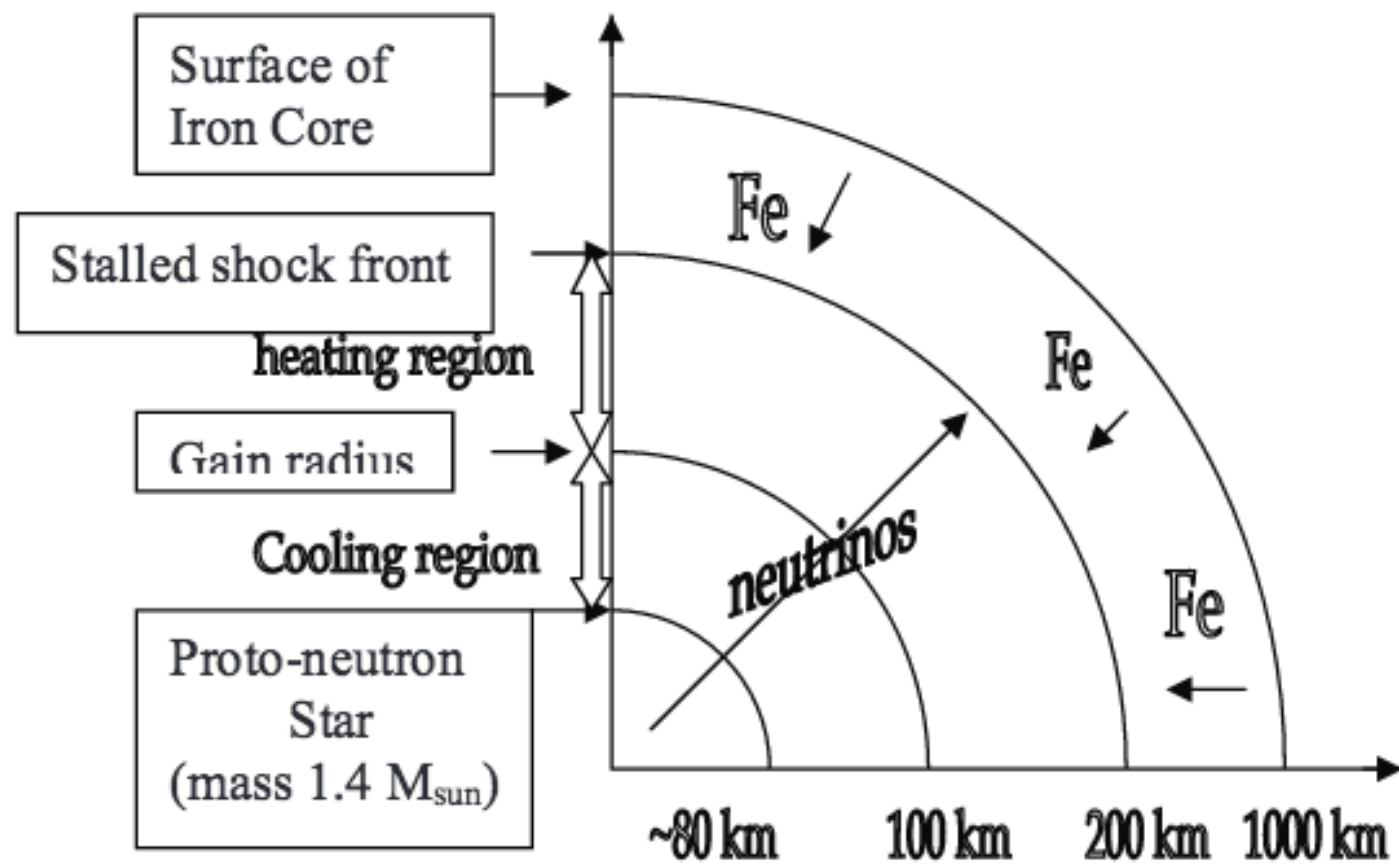
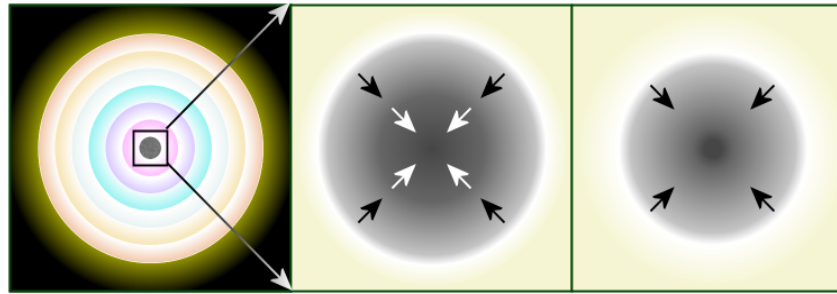


Figure 1. Core collapse Supernova

Core Bounce

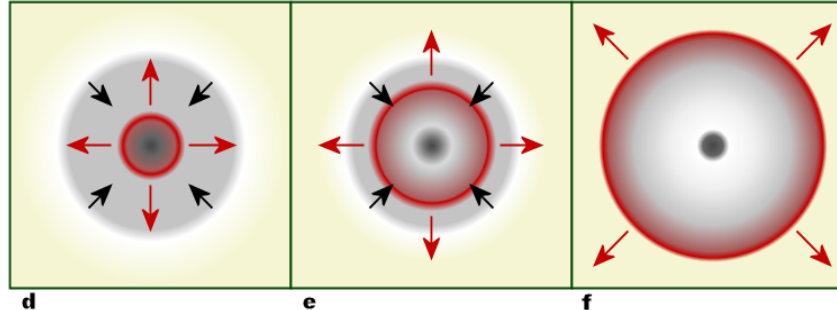
Neutronization

Iron core collapses



The inner core stabilizes and stops collapsing.

The core overshoots the equilibrium radius and bounces.



The kinetic energy that was directed inwards is redirected outwards

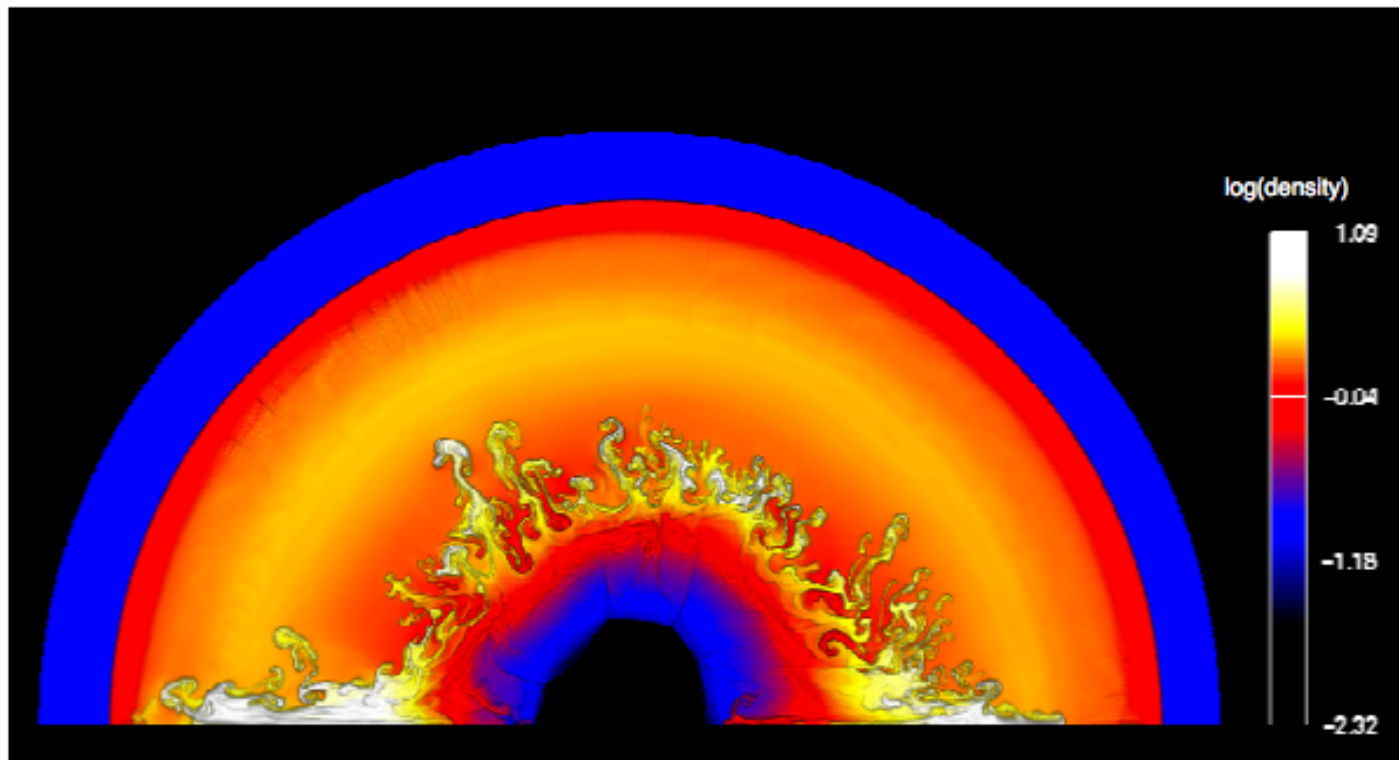
Pressure wave hits infalling gas

The Thermonuclear Shock Wave

Infalling gas meeting the rebounding core generates a **shock wave**

The blastwave generates **explosive nuclear reactions** along its path

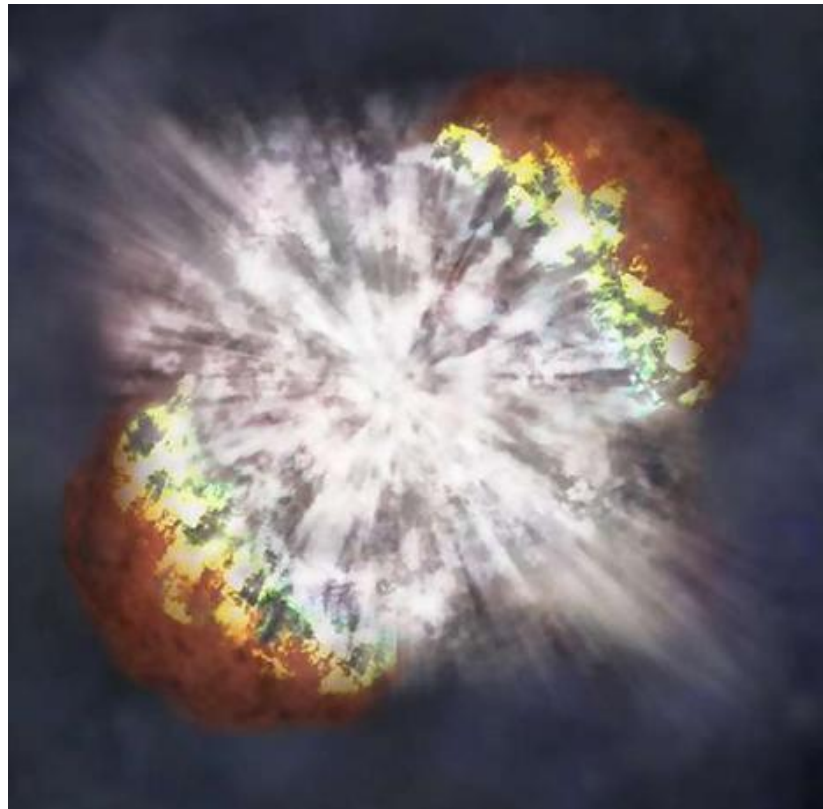
Violently heats and accelerates the stellar envelope



Supernova!

In a few hours, the shockwave reaches the surface

From the outside, the star is seen to explode.



Supernova 1987A

Confirmation of the theory

A **burst of neutrinos** 4 hours before the event

The progenitor had a mass of **20 M_{\odot}**

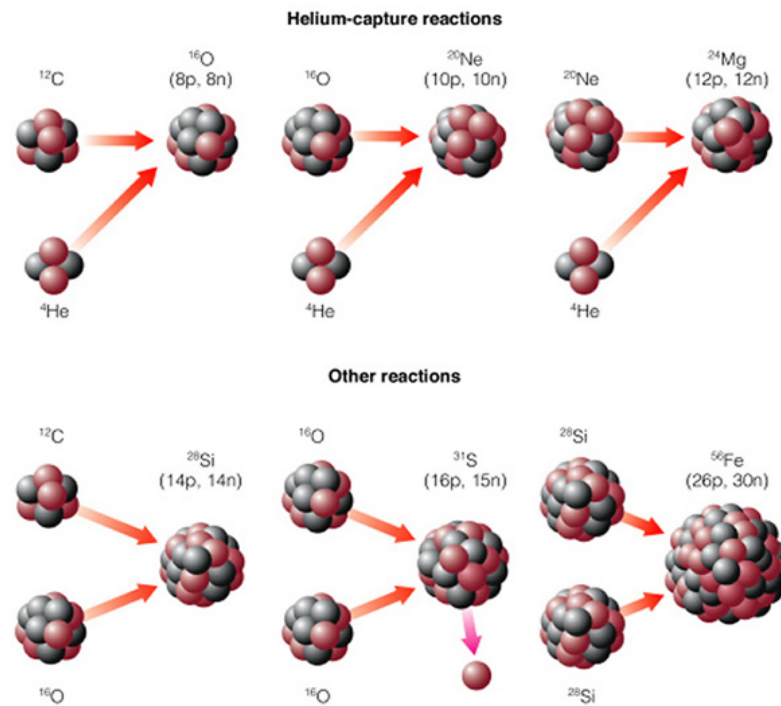


Alpha ladder

Low mass stars produce elements up to Carbon and Oxygen

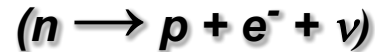
High mass stars produce all the rest of the periodic table

Up to Iron we have basically alpha reactions



Neutron capture

Beyond the Iron peak, nucleosynthesis occurs by neutron capture and beta decay



The process is classified according to the neutron flux

S-process

(slow neutron capture)

Neutron capture occurs
slower
than beta decay

Works up to bismuth (Z=83)

Where?

AGB stars + Supernovae

R-process

(rapid neutron capture)

Neutron capture occurs
faster
than beta decay

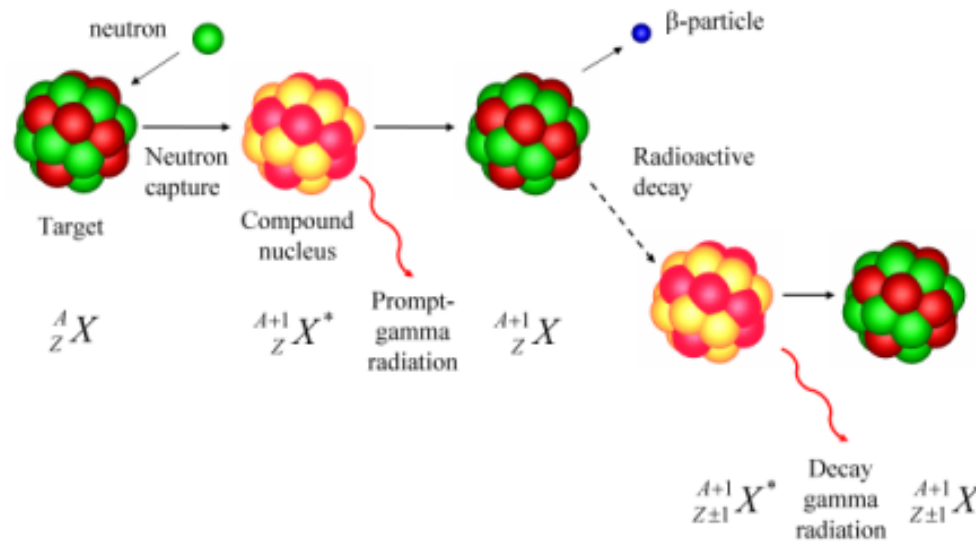
Really heavy stuff
All the way to Uranium

Where?

Supernovae

Neutron capture

Beyond the Iron peak, nucleosynthesis occurs by **neutron capture** and **beta decay**



Neutron capture produces isotopes

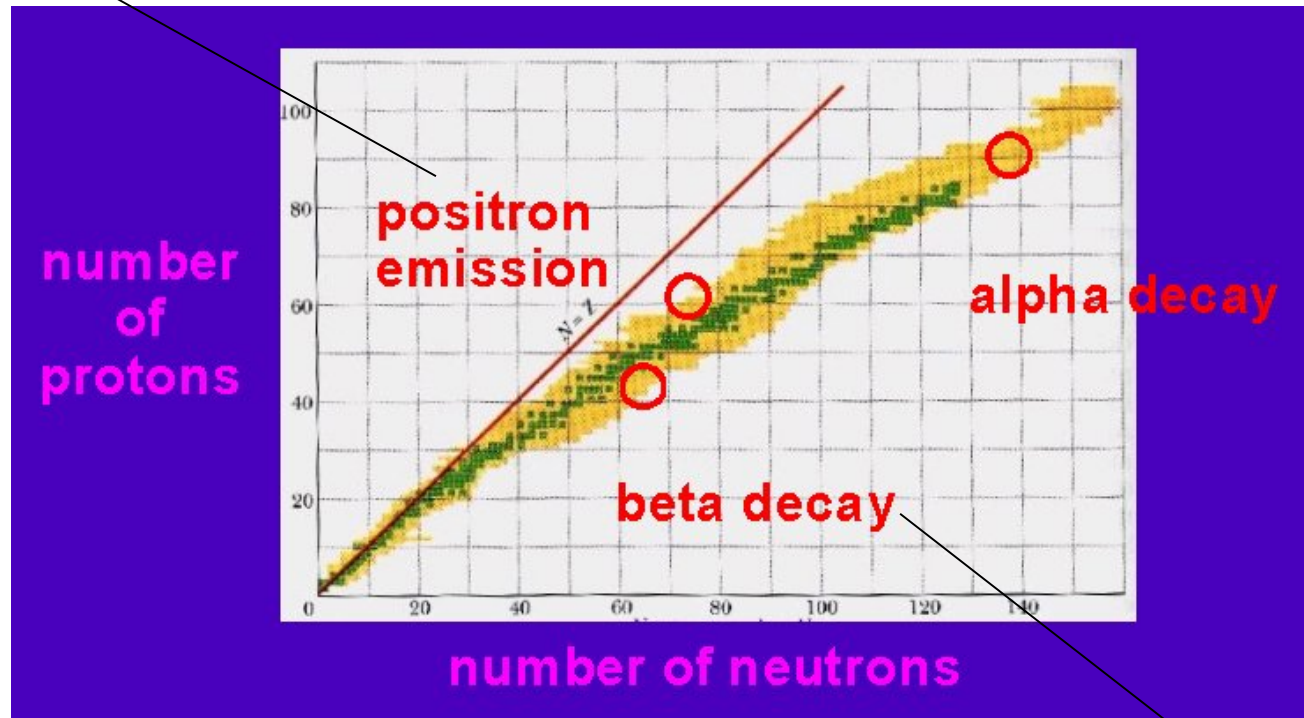
Neutron capture proceeds until the nuclide goes unstable (radioactive)

If a proton decays, the atomic number decreases

But if a neutron decays, the atomic number increases!

Climbing the periodic table

Proton decays

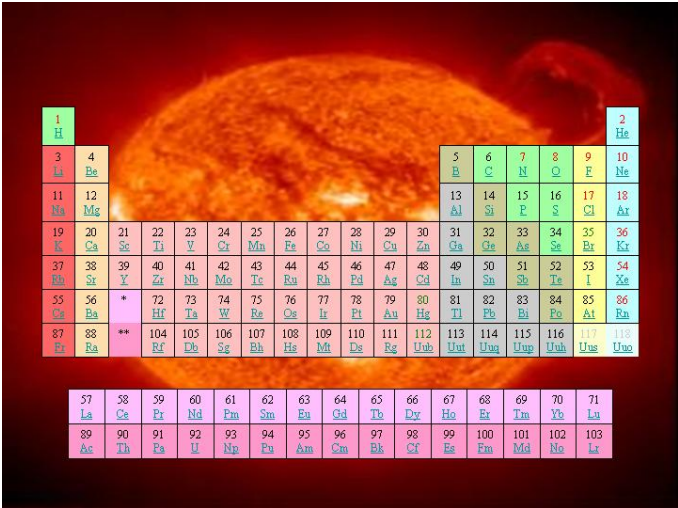


Neutron decays

[illegible]

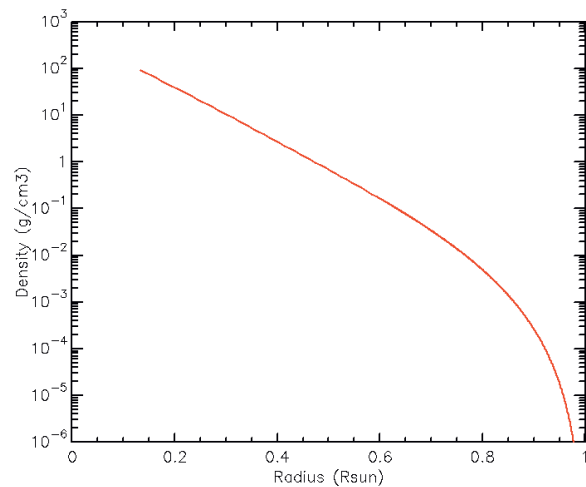
Nucleosynthesis summary

Element	# of Protons	Site
H	1	Big Bang
He, C, O	2,6,8	Big Bang + Low and High Mass stars
Ne - Fe	10-26	High mass stars
Co - Bi	27-83	S and R process, AGB and SN
Po - U	84-92	R process in SN

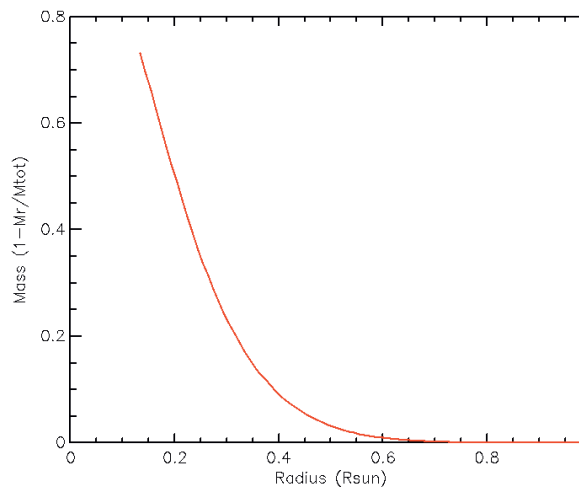


Solar Model (statstar)

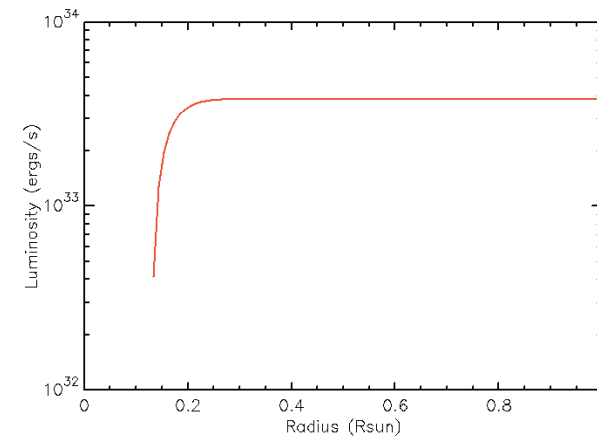
Density



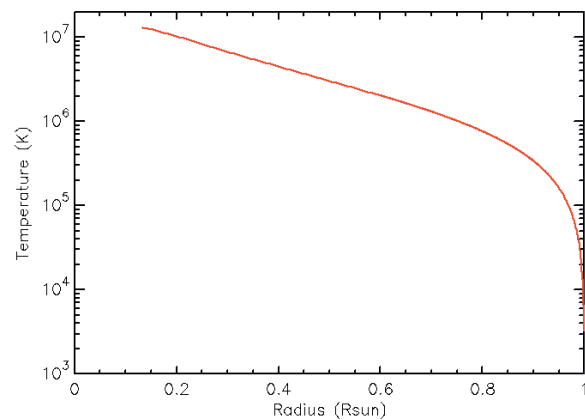
Mass



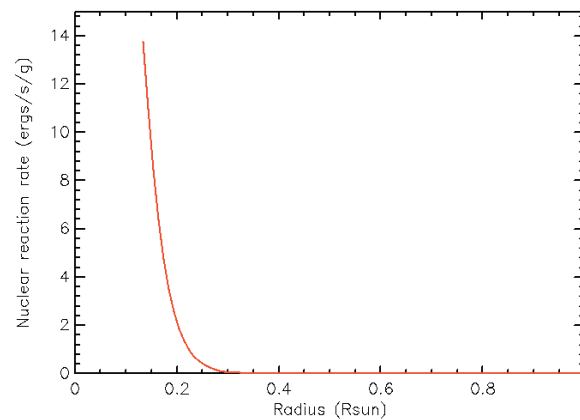
Luminosity



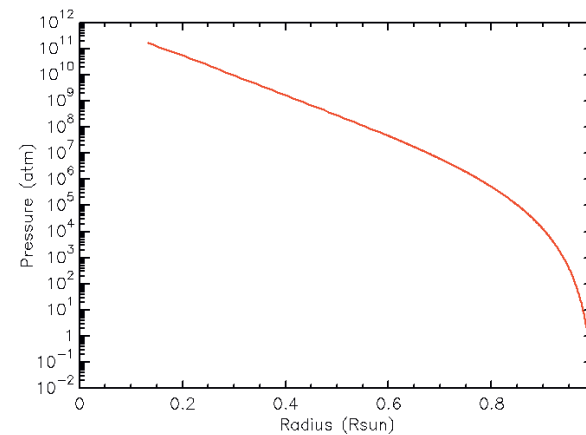
Temperature



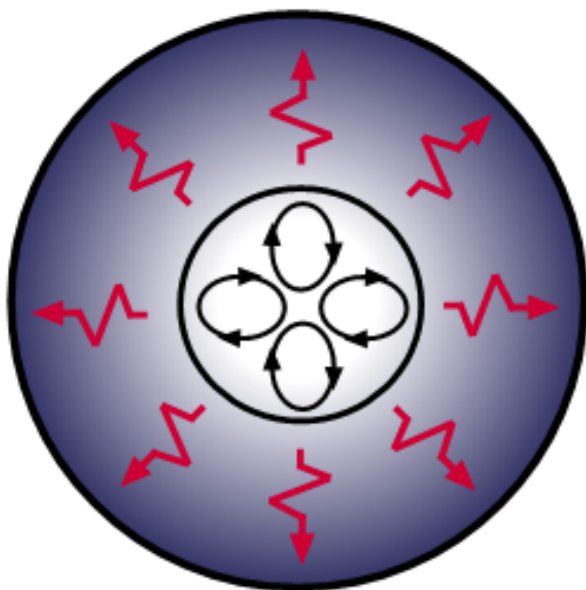
Nuclear Reaction Rate



Pressure

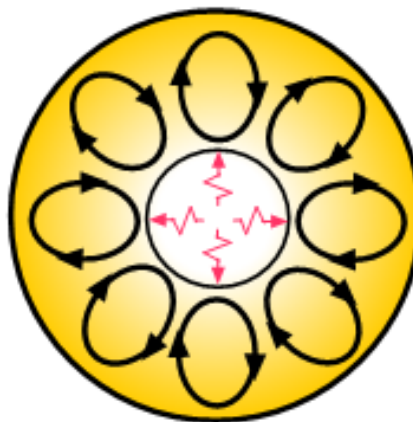


Stellar Structure



$$M > 1.5$$

Convective Core
Radiative Envelope



$$0.5 < M < 1.5$$

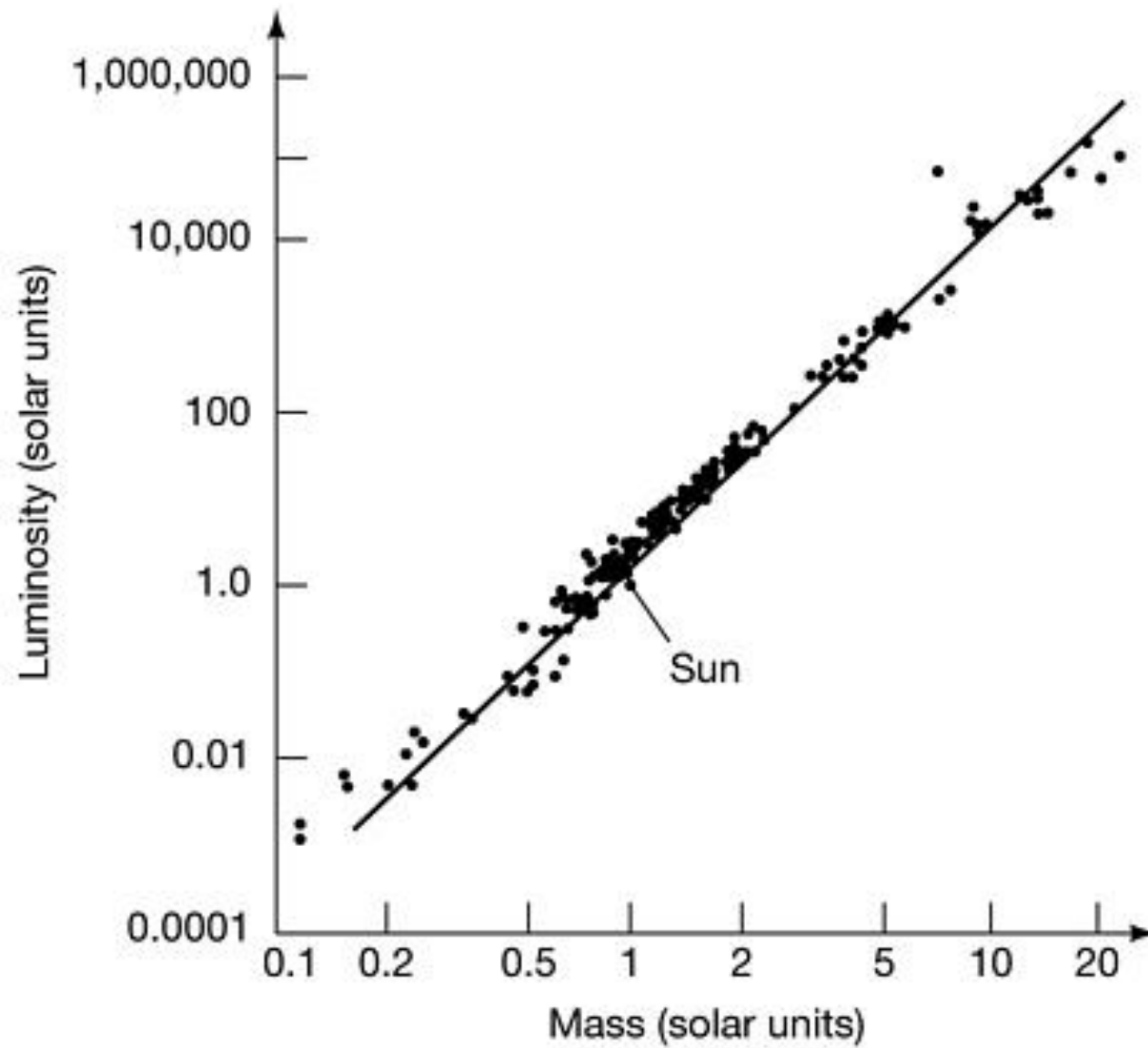
Radiative Core
Convective Envelope



$$M < 0.5$$

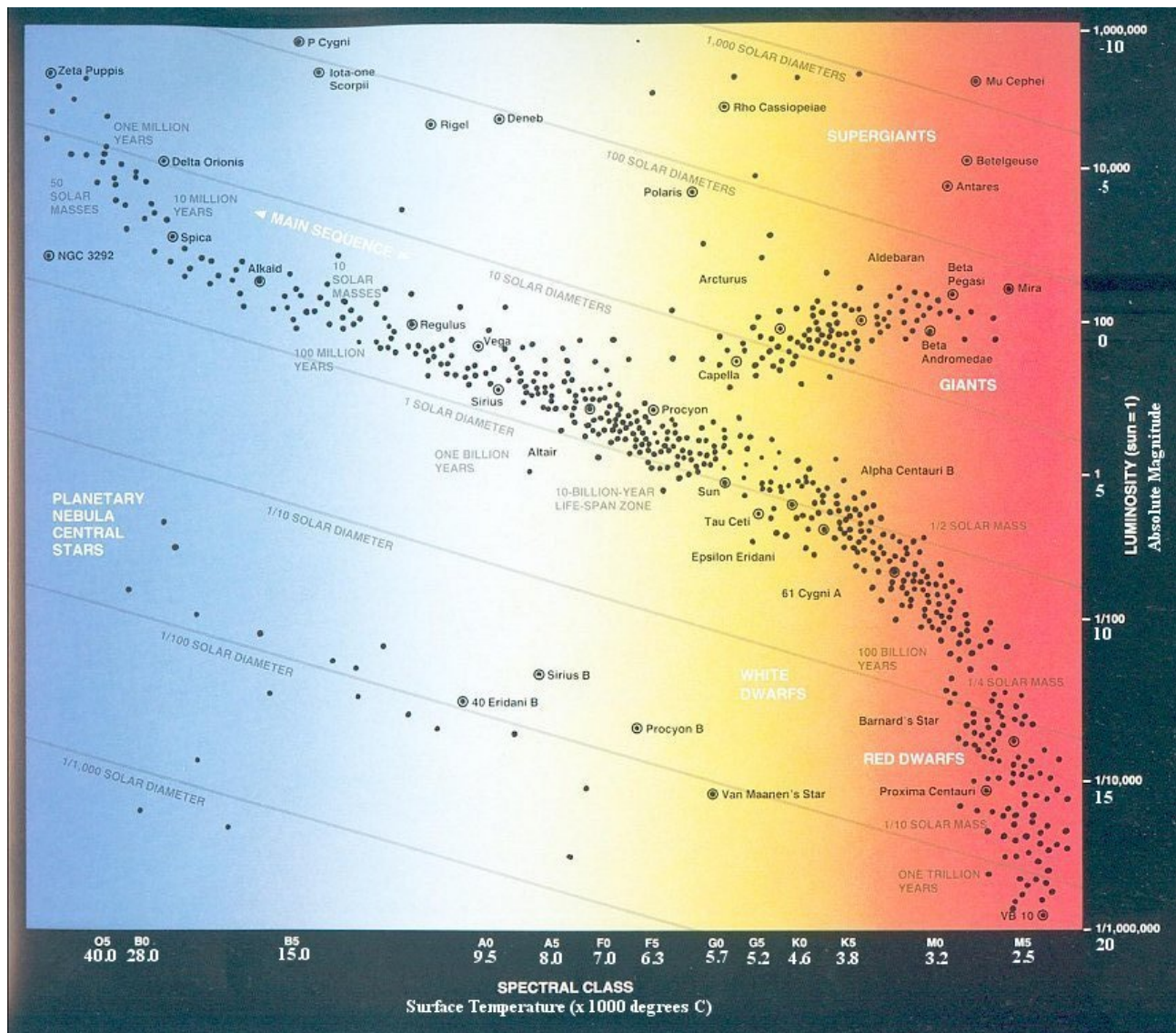
Fully Convective

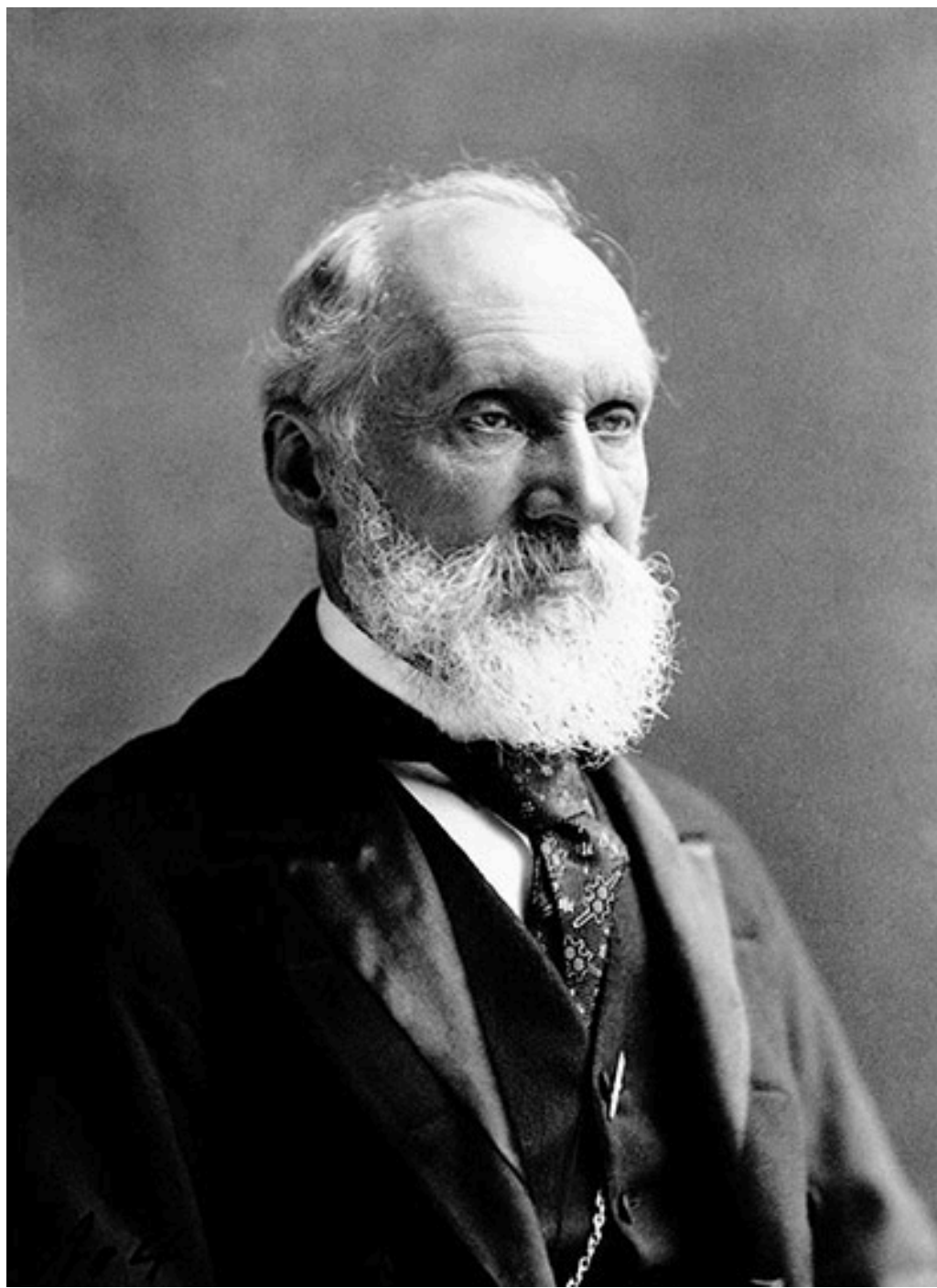
Mass-Luminosity relation



Main Sequence: Temperature-Luminosity relation

$L \propto T^6$

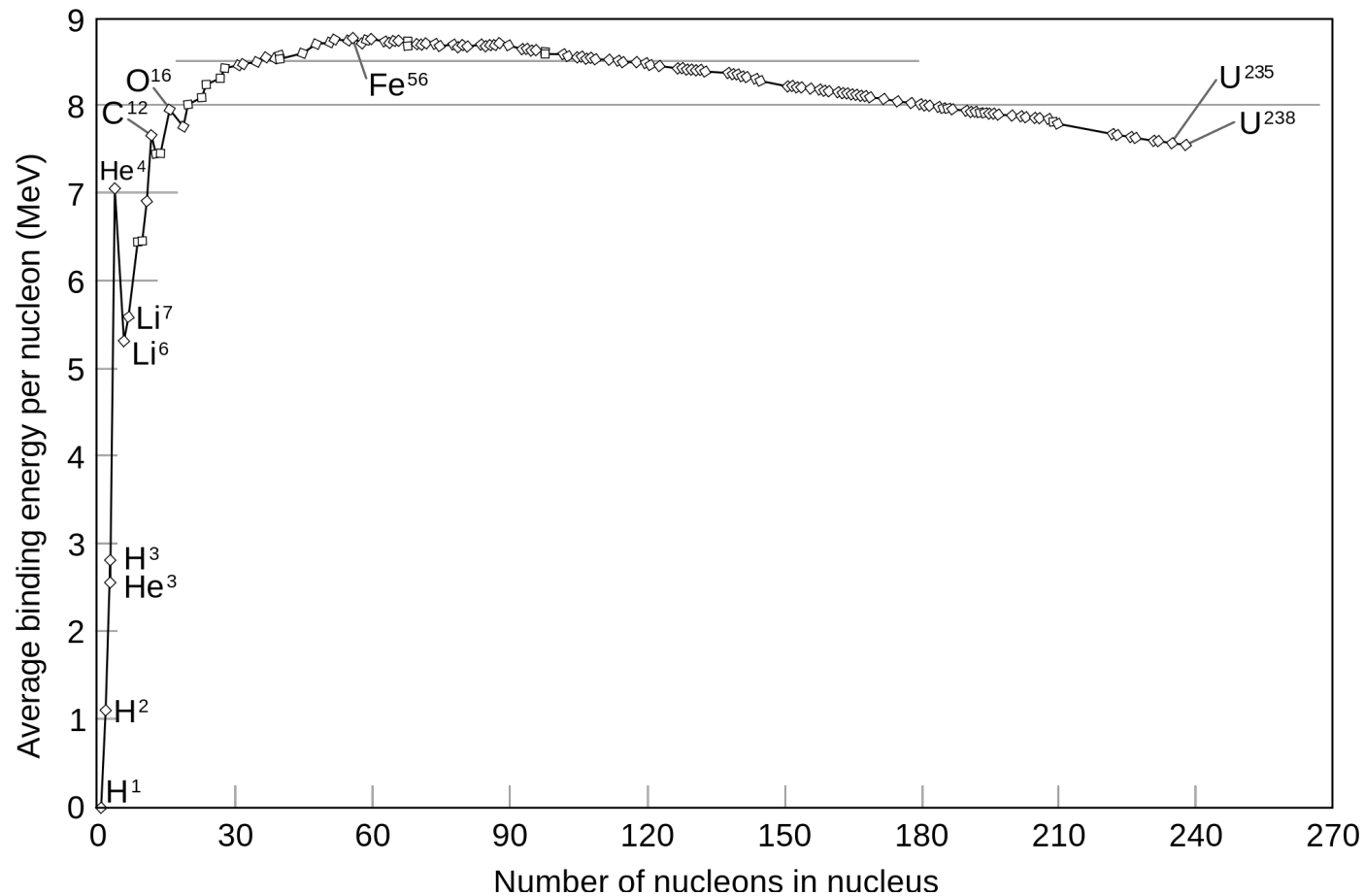




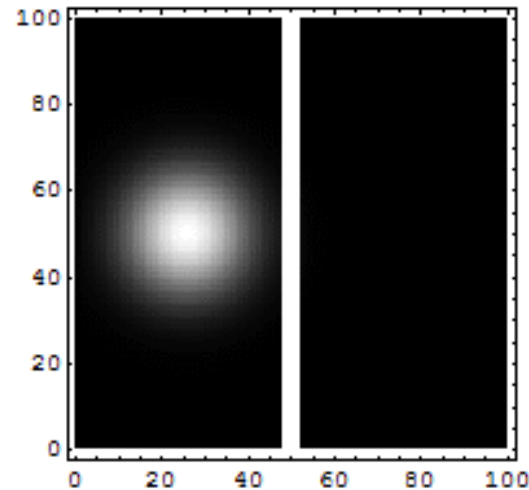


Nucleosynthesis

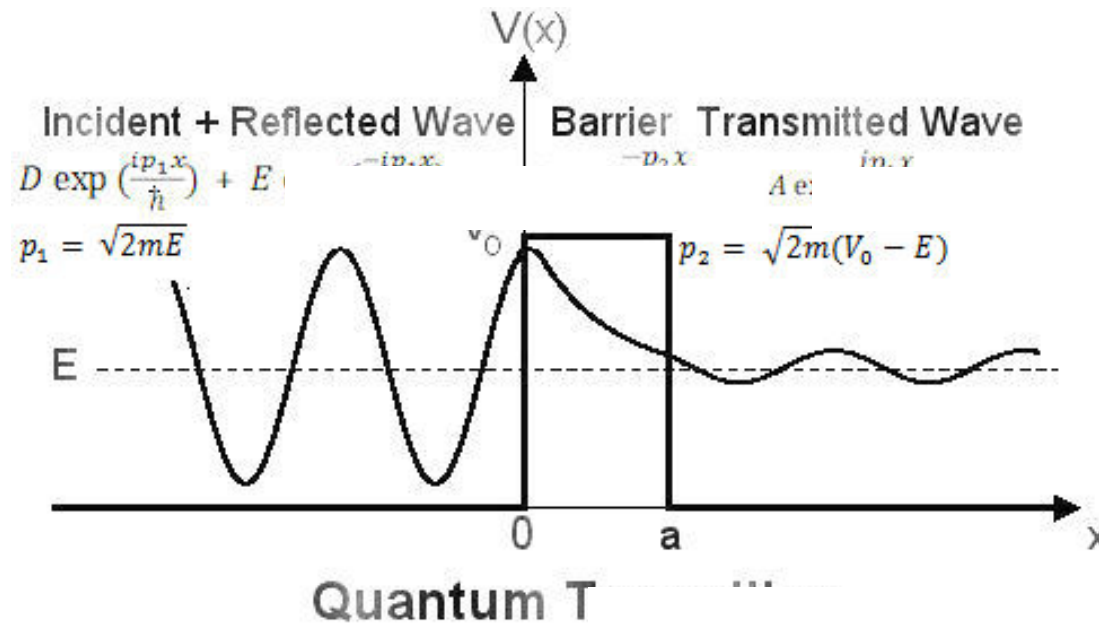
A nucleus is always found to be less massive than the combined mass of nucleons. The difference is the binding energy. The elements of the iron peak (Fe, Ni, Co) are the most tightly bound nuclei.



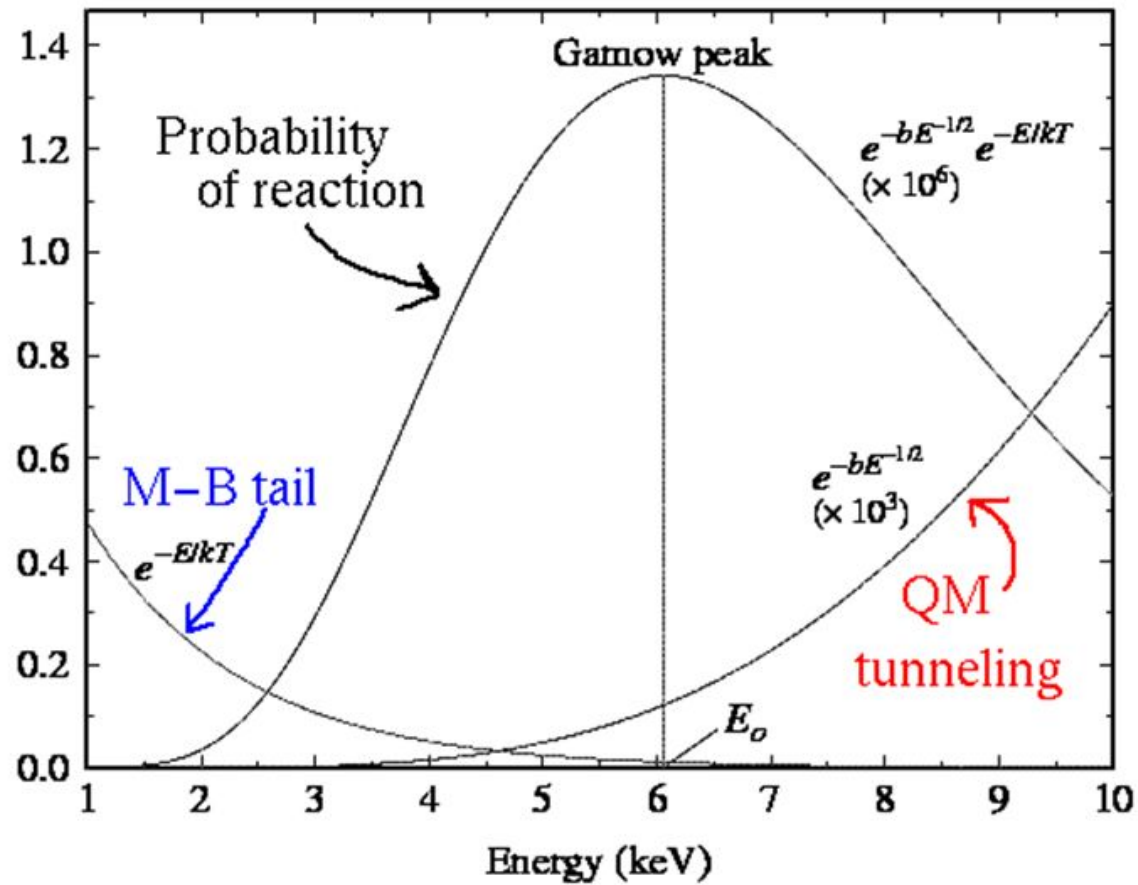
Quantum Tunneling



The temperature in the solar core is still too low to allow fusion considering only the thermal motion of the particles. Tunneling has to be taken into account.

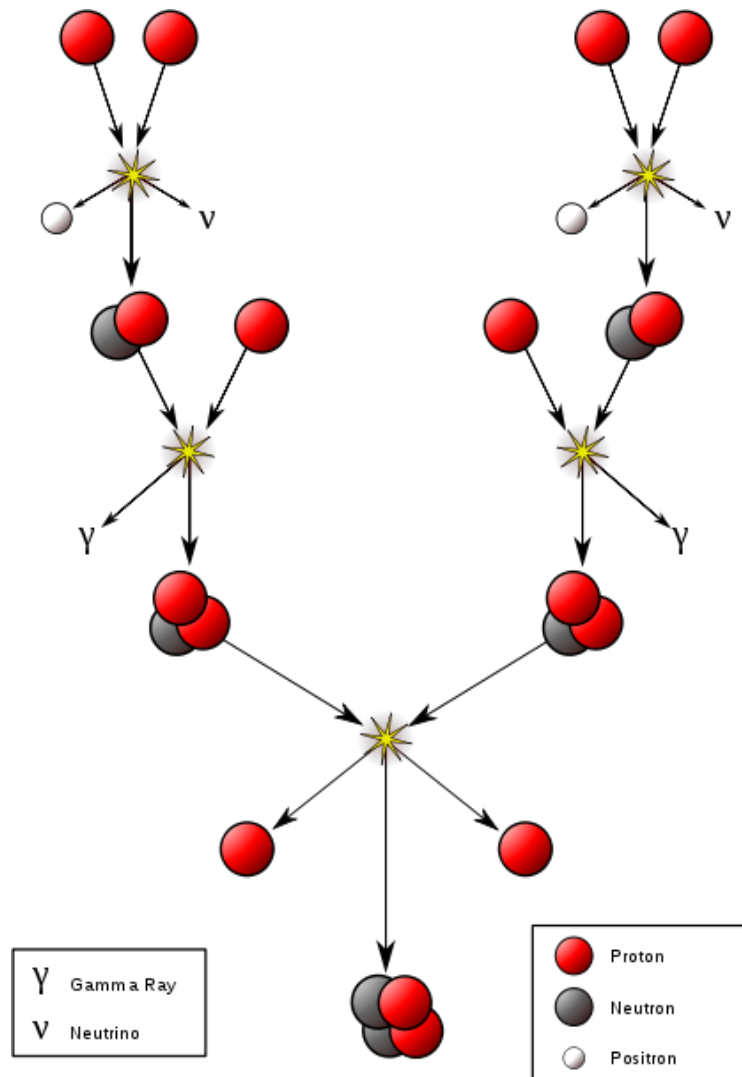


Gamow-Peak

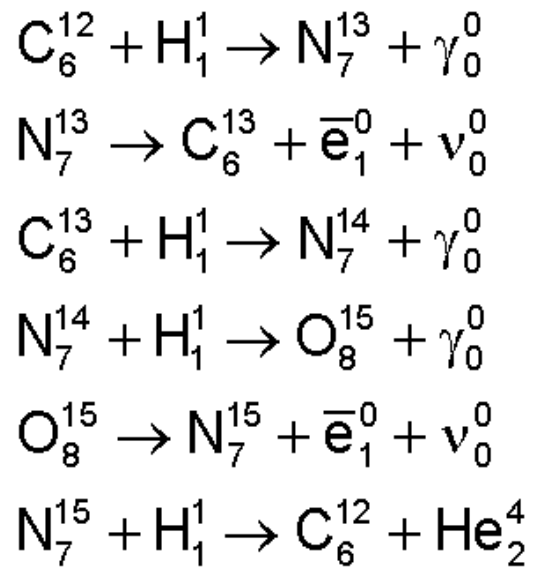


Combining thermal (Maxwell-Boltzmann) with quantum tunnelling.

Proton-proton chain

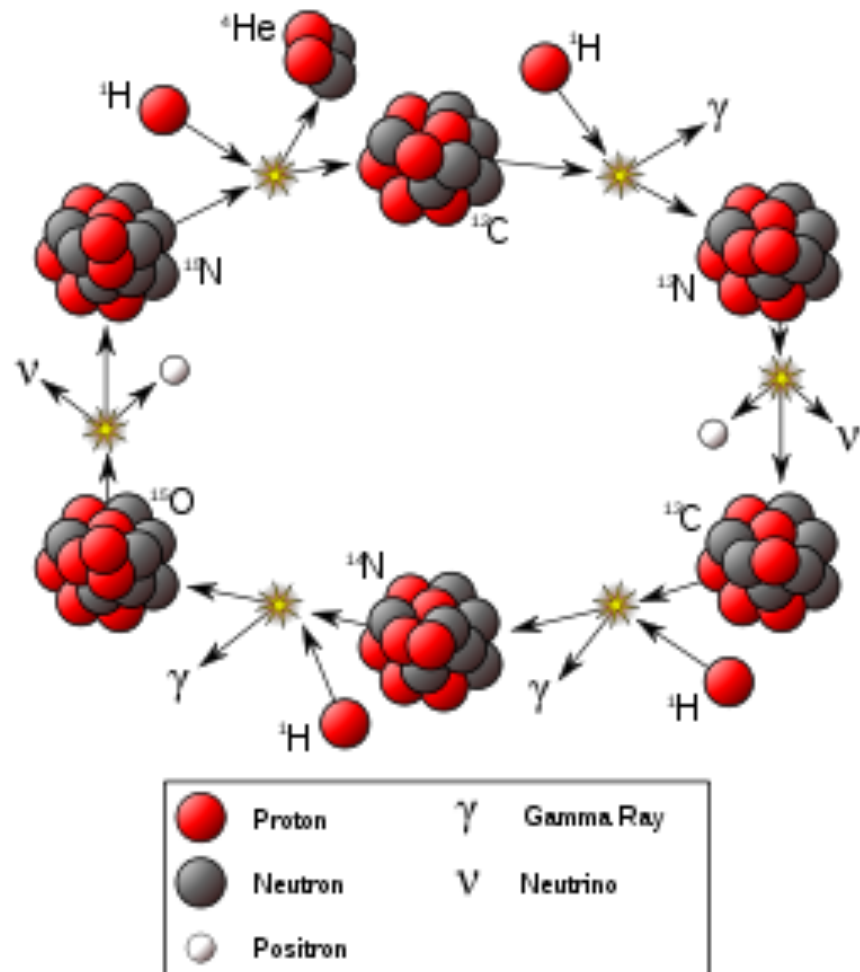


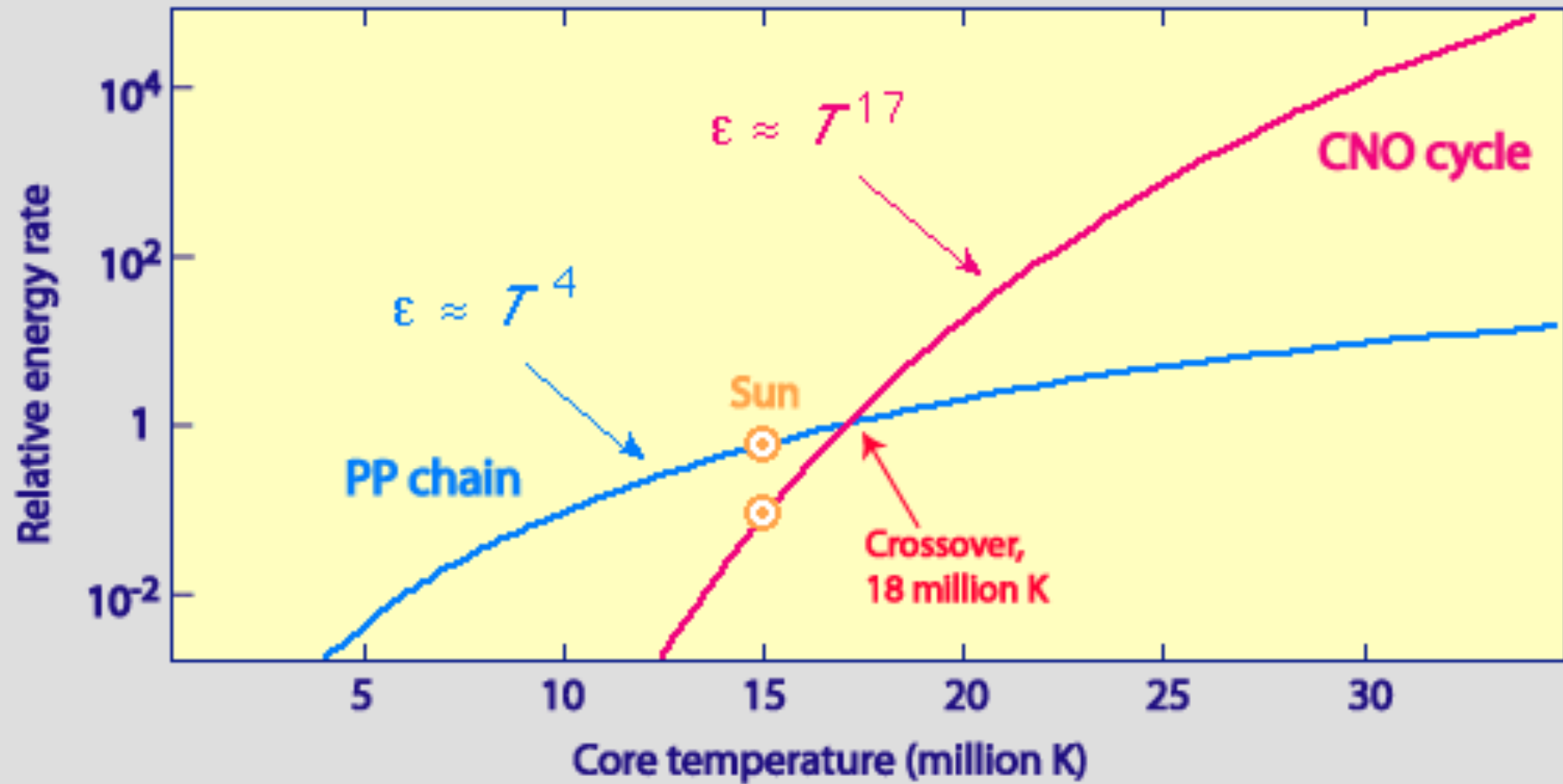
CNO cycle



End of cycle:

4 H burned into He
C used as catalyst

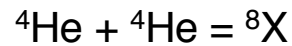
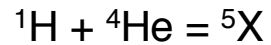




Proton-proton dominates up to 15×10^7 K
CNO takes over after that.

[illegible]

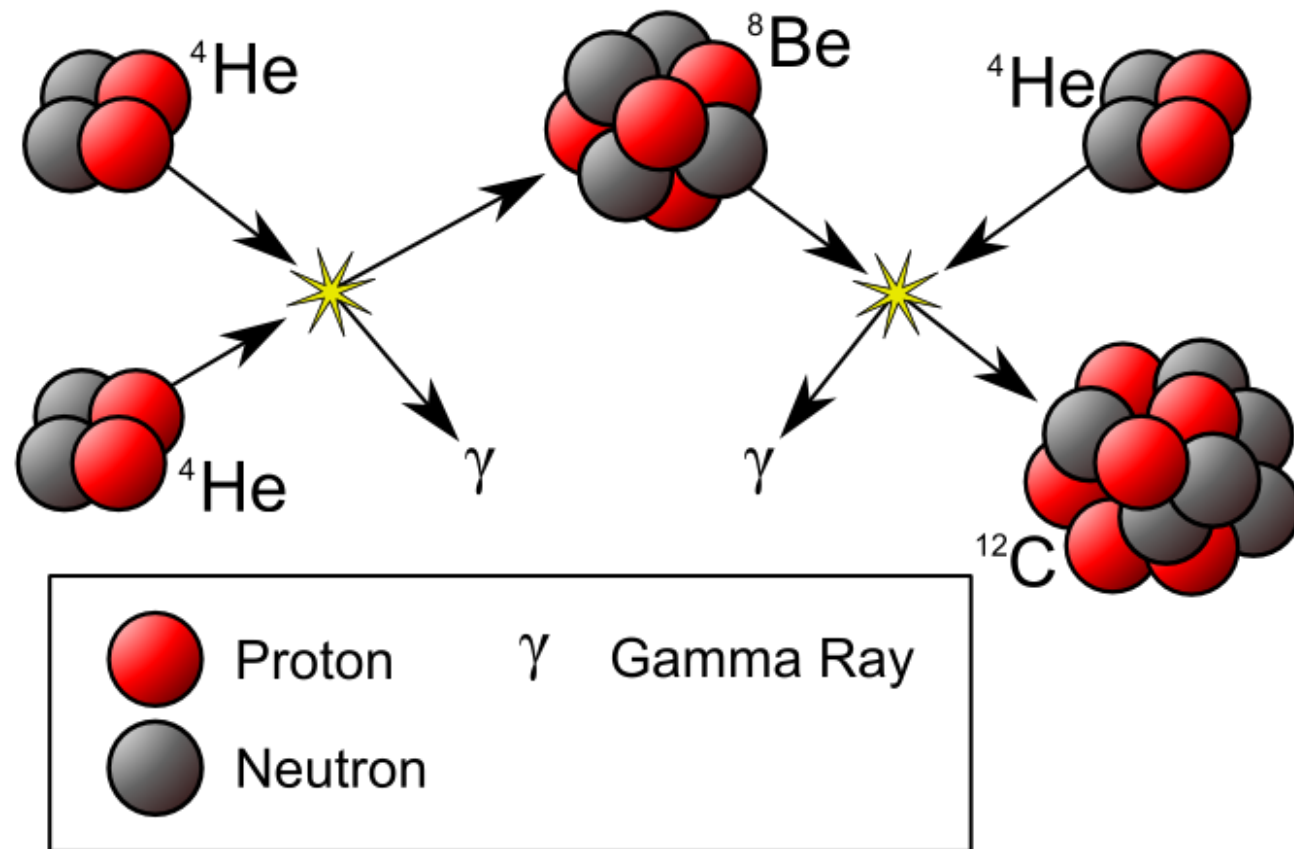
Beyond Helium



But there is no stable nuclide of mass 5 or 8....

[illegible]

Triple alpha



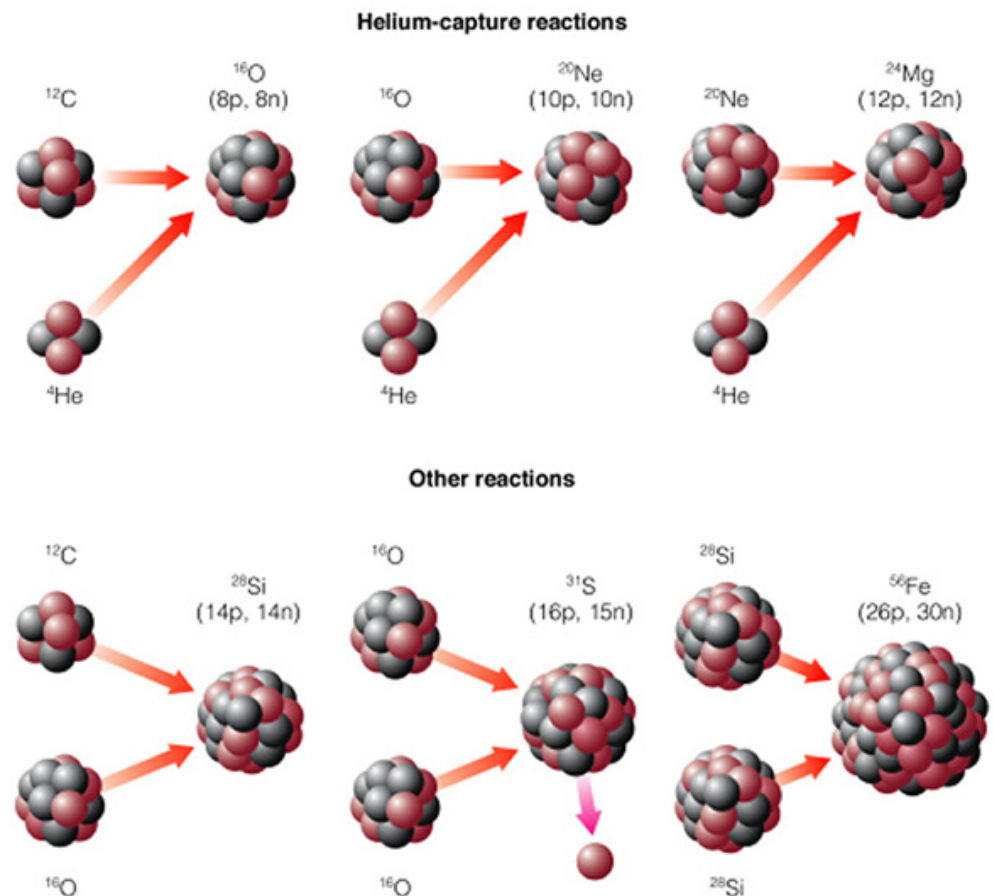
Alpha Ladder

Carbon \rightarrow O, Ne, Mg (600 million K)

Neon \rightarrow O, Mg (1.5 Billion K)

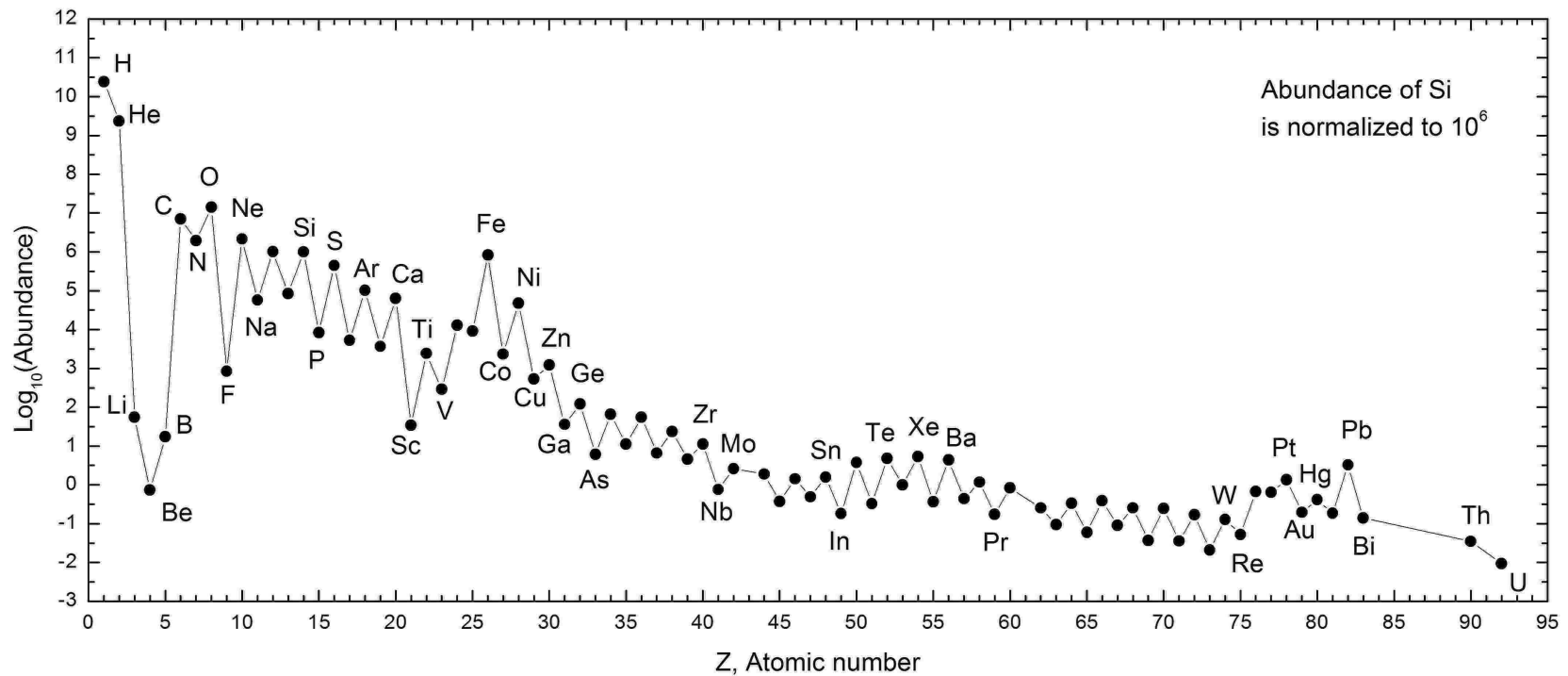
Oxygen \rightarrow Si, S, P (2.1 Billion K)

Silicon \rightarrow Fe, Ni (3.5 Billion K)

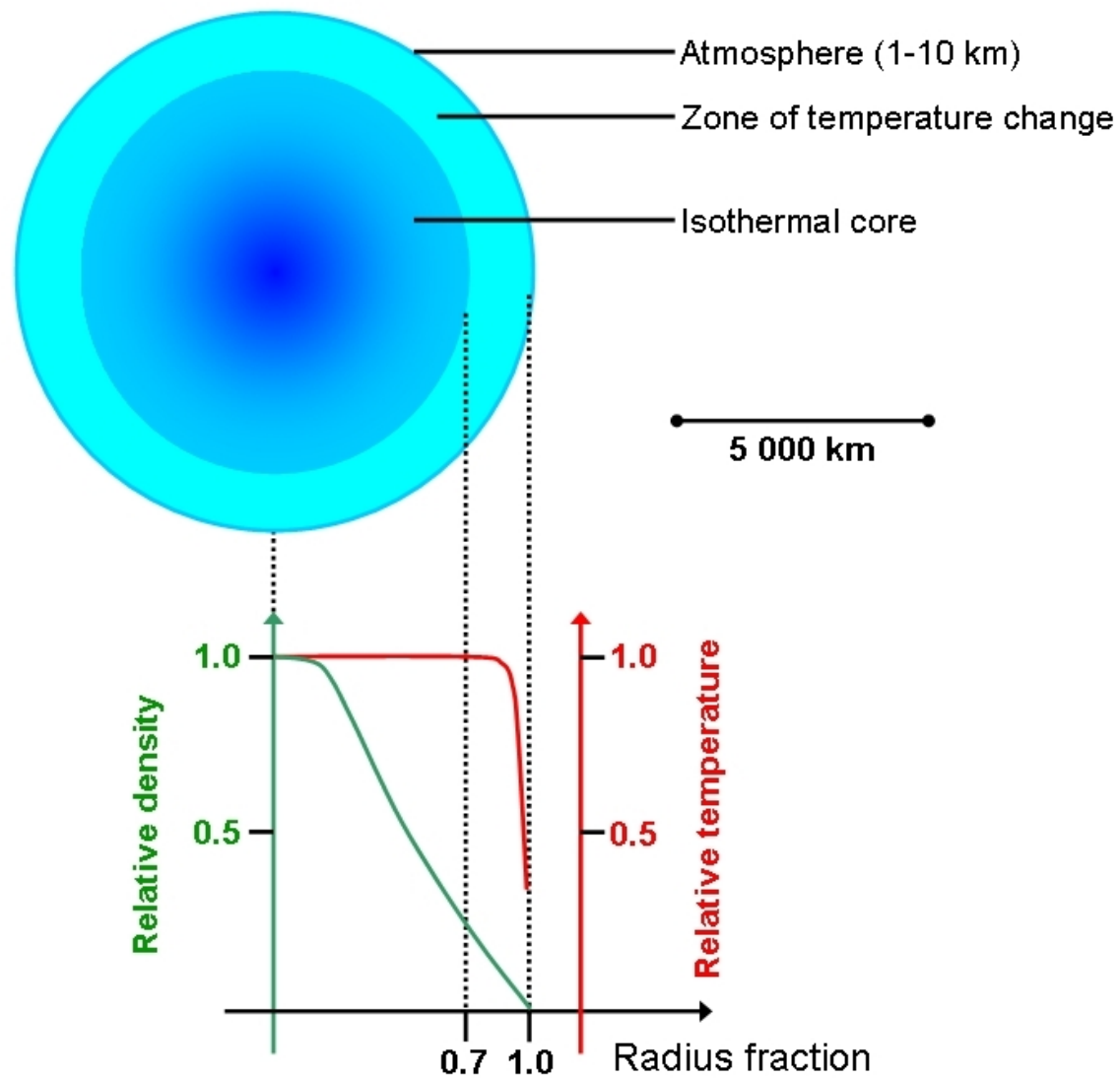


The Sun's abundance pattern

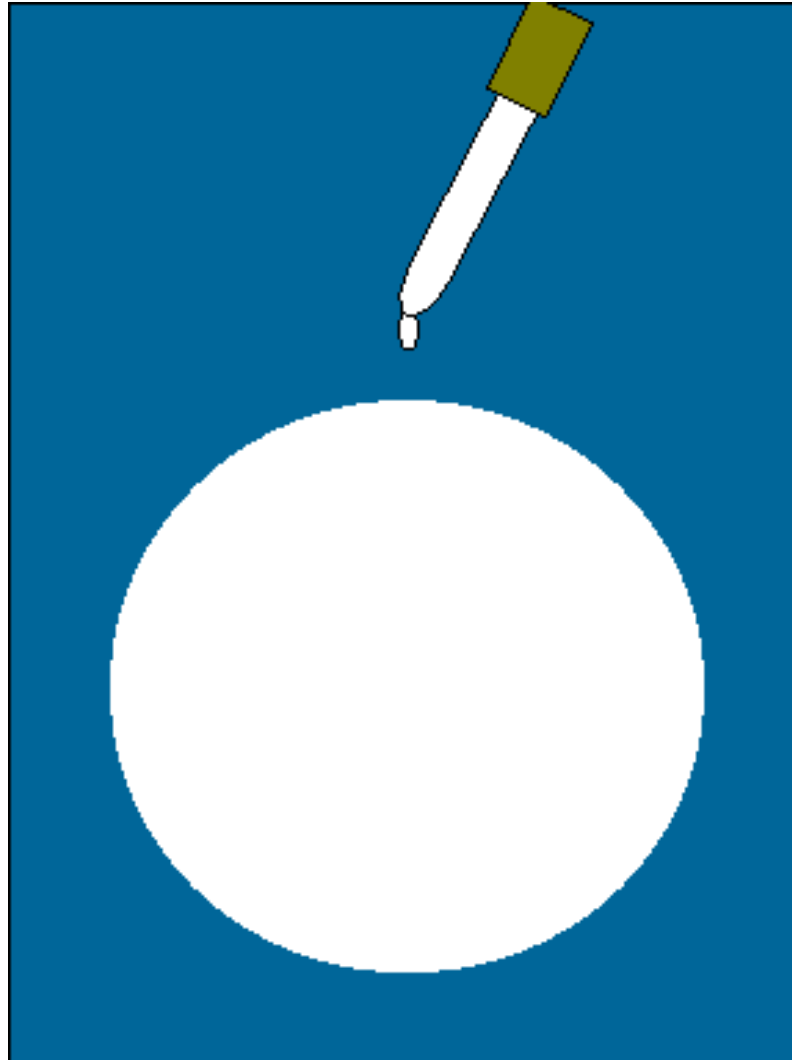
Elements with even atomic number are more abundant than those with odd



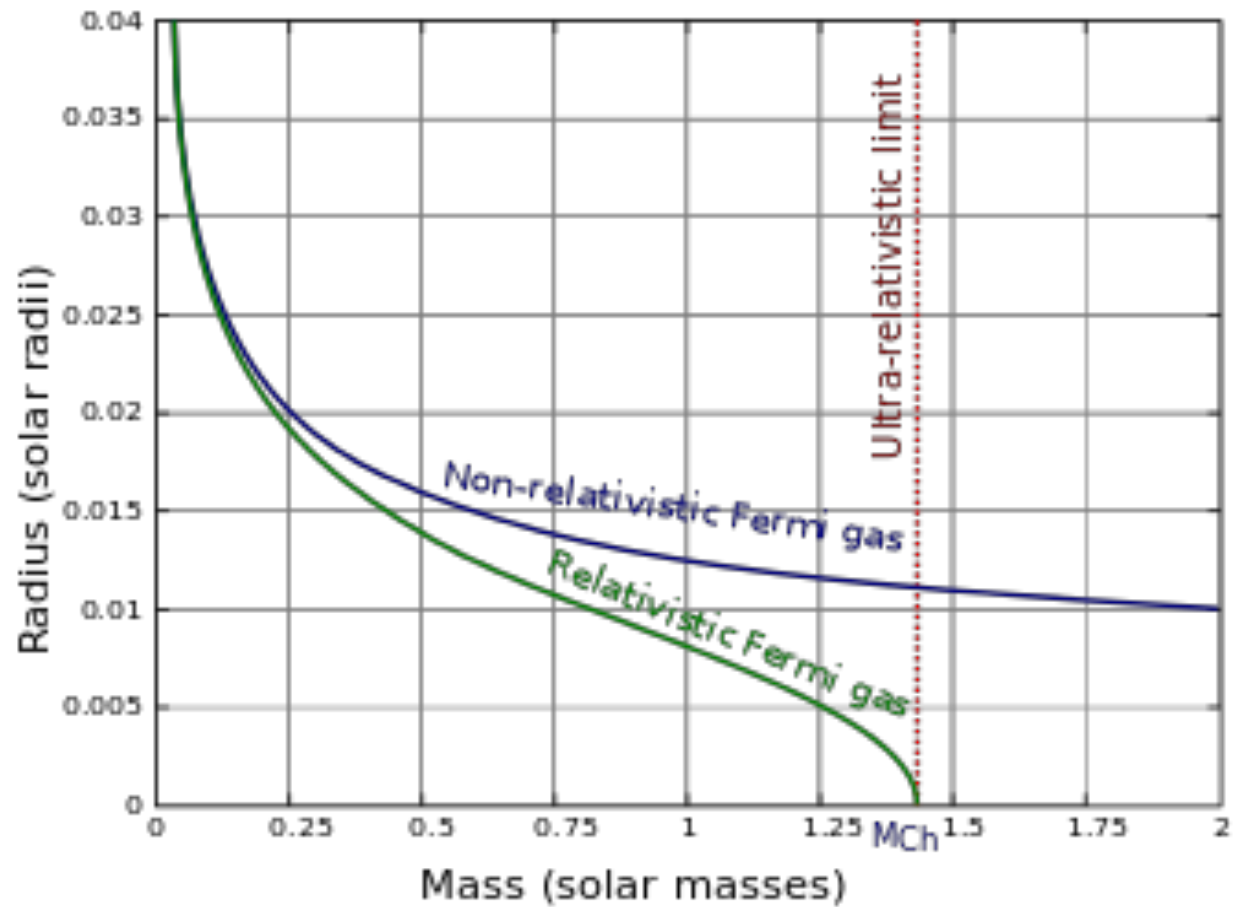
White Dwarf Structure



White dwarf Mass-Radius relationship



White dwarf Mass-Radius relationship

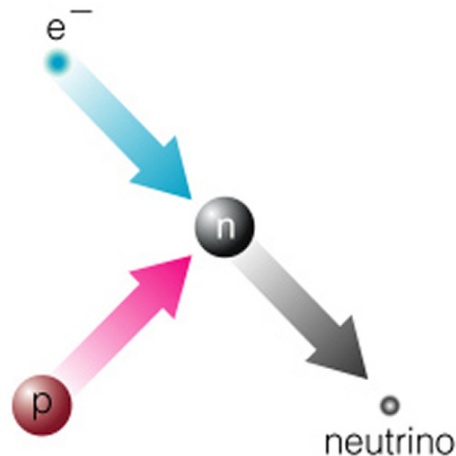


Collapse

Iron core contracts

At densities of 10^{10} g/cm^3
(remember: nuclear densities are $\sim 10^{14} \text{ g/cm}^3$)

Neutronization



Proton + electron \longrightarrow neutron + neutrino



Urca process

Free neutrons are unstable!

Neutron \longrightarrow Proton + electron + neutrino

$$(n \longrightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e)$$

Proton + electron \longrightarrow neutron + neutrino

$$(p + e^- \longrightarrow n + \nu_e)$$

Urca process

Free neutrons are unstable!

Beta decay

Neutron \longrightarrow Proton + electron + neutrino

$$(n \longrightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu})$$

Inverse Beta Decay

Proton + electron \longrightarrow neutron + neutrino

$$(p + e^- \longrightarrow n + \nu)$$

Urca process

Free neutrons are unstable!

Beta decay

Neutron \longrightarrow Proton + electron + neutrino

$$(n \longrightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu})$$

Inverse Beta Decay

Proton + electron \longrightarrow neutron + neutrino

$$(p + e^- \longrightarrow n + \nu)$$

Urca process

Free neutrons are unstable!

Beta decay

Neutron \longrightarrow Proton + electron + ***neutrino***

$$(n \longrightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu})$$

Inverse Beta Decay

Proton + electron \longrightarrow neutron + ***neutrino***

$$(p + e^- \longrightarrow n + \nu)$$

A flood of neutrinos!!

Urca process



Mario Schenberg



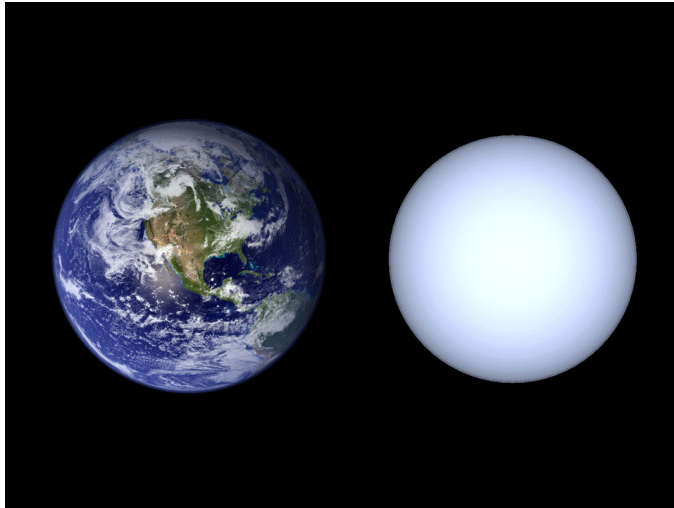
George Gamow



Urca Casino

“The energy disappears from the core of the star as quickly as the money disappeared at that roulette table”

Catastrophic collapse



A second later



Collapse speed: 0.25c



6000 km
 10^{10} g/cm^3

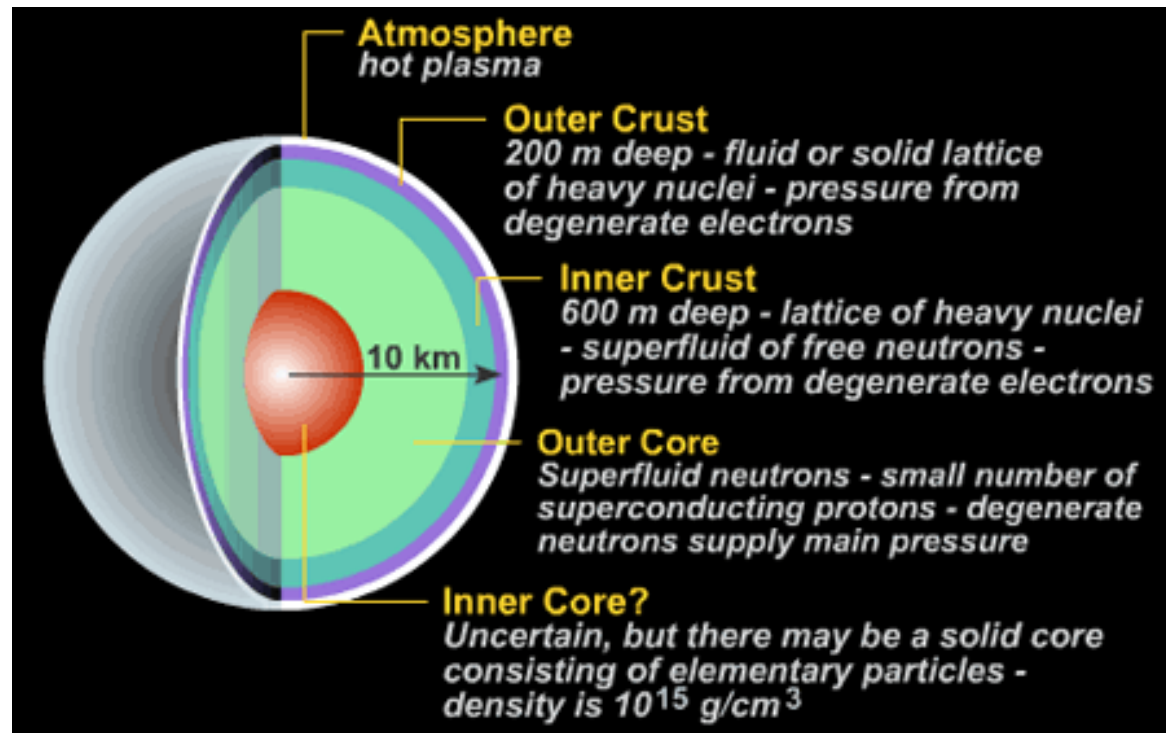
10 km
 10^{14} g/cm^3



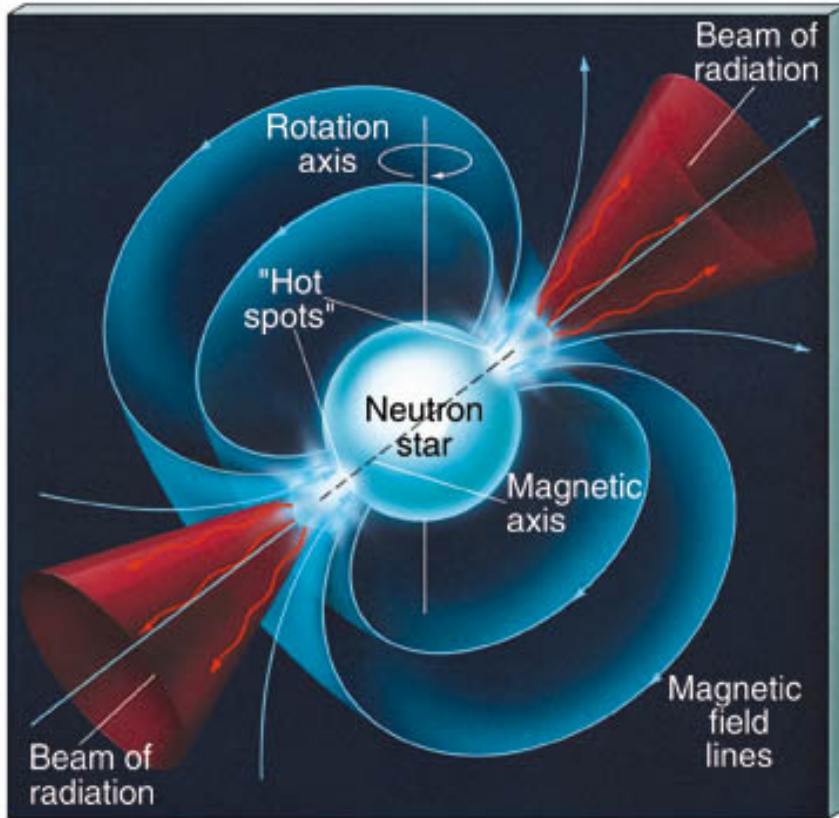
Nuclear densities!

*Neutron degeneracy
provides support against gravity*

Structure of Neutron Stars



Pulsars

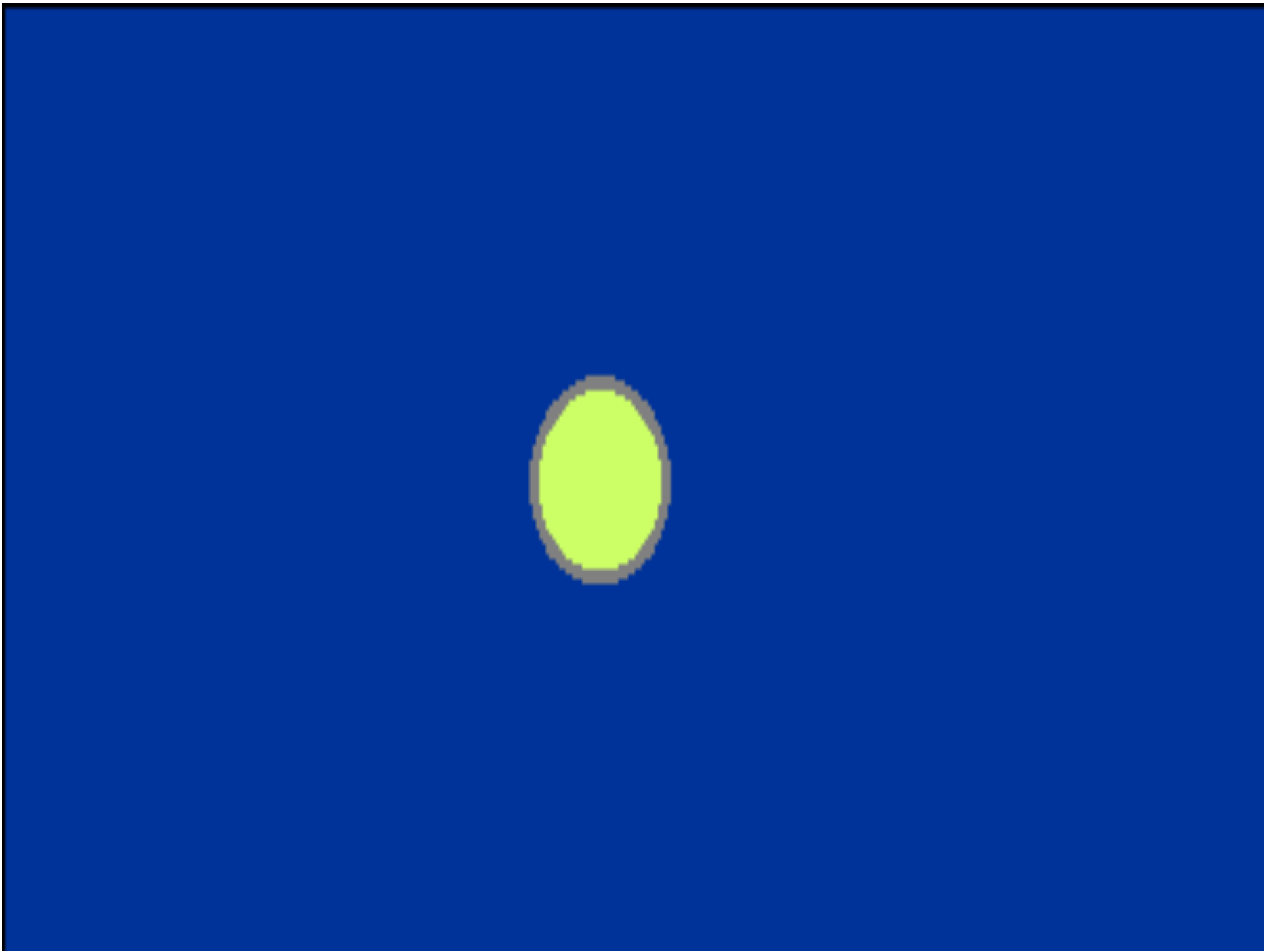


Spinning neutron star

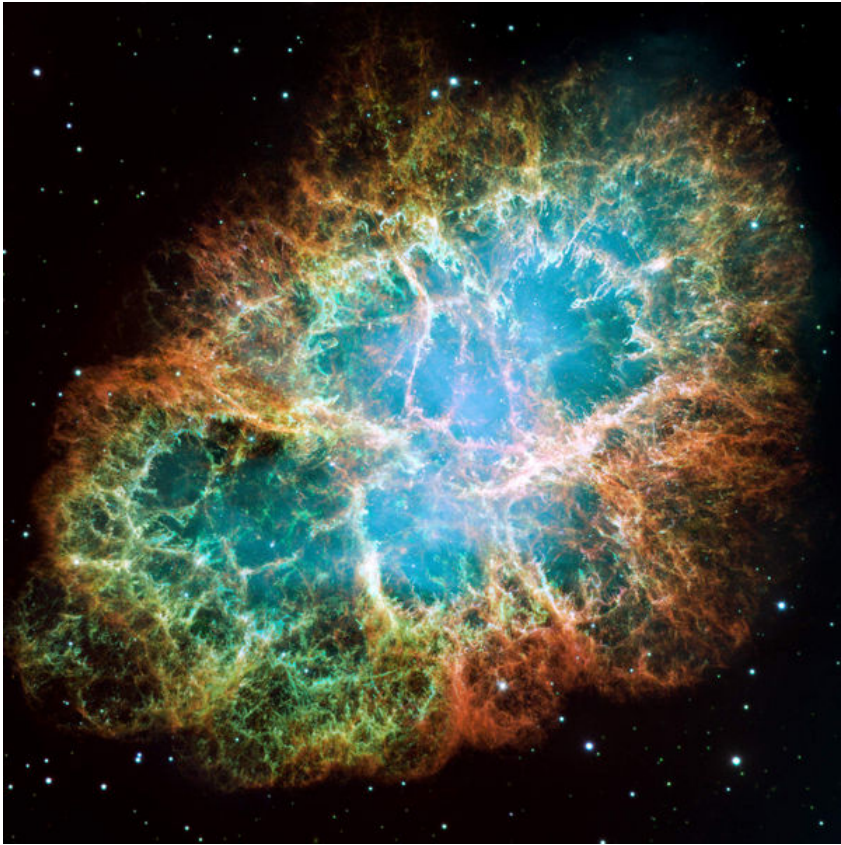
The collapse increases the rotation rate

Intense magnetic fields give out non-thermal radiation

(like Earth's aurorae, but A LOT more luminous)



Supernova Remnants



Crab Nebula

Expanding shell of the
supernova seen in 1054AD

Crab Pulsar

Pulsar detected at the
center of the shell



Black Hole – Gravity's ultimate victory

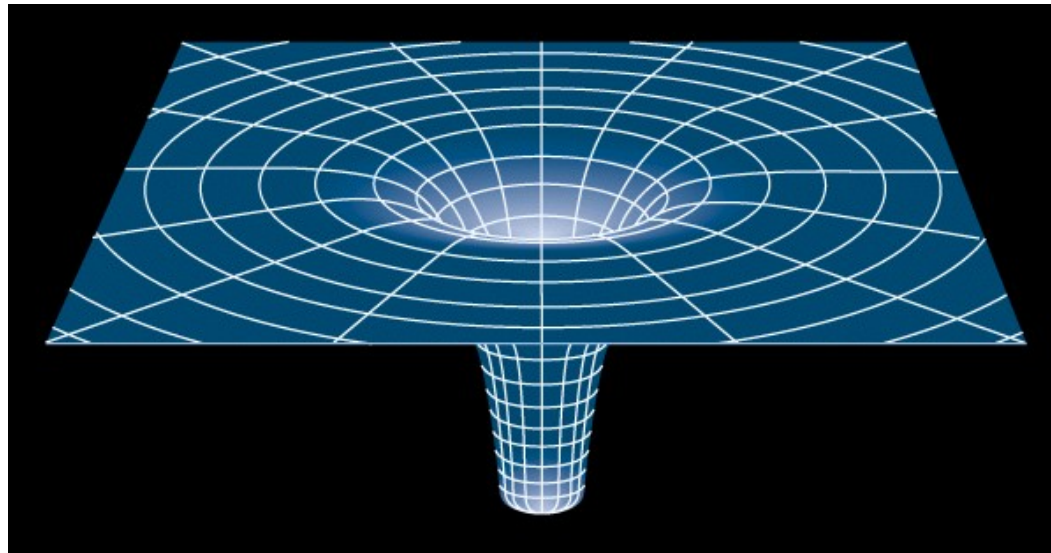
If the remnant has more than 3 solar masses,
neutron degeneracy cannot hold gravity

Actually, no known force can hold gravity at that point

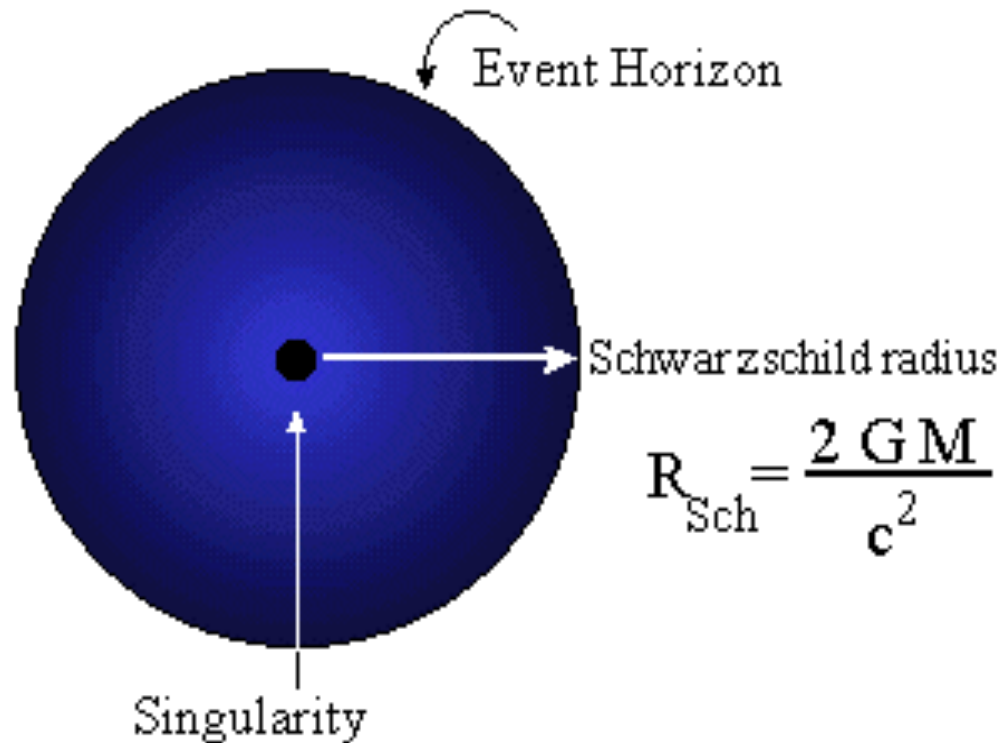


**The star implodes to a point of infinite density
and finally rests in peace.**

A hole in spacetime



Black Hole Anatomy



Schwarzschild radius

Radius beyond which not even light can escape

Event Horizon

The sphere of radius R_s

The event horizon is **not** a physical boundary

Where does the mass go?
Good question...

We cannot see the **singularity**

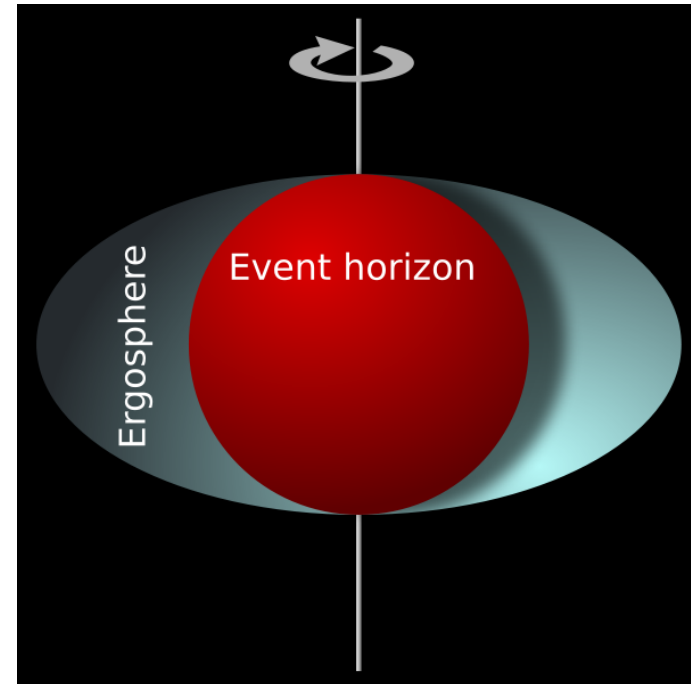
The “No-Hair” Theorem

“Black holes have no hair”

Black holes are very simple stuff. All information is lost apart from

MASS, CHARGE, and SPIN

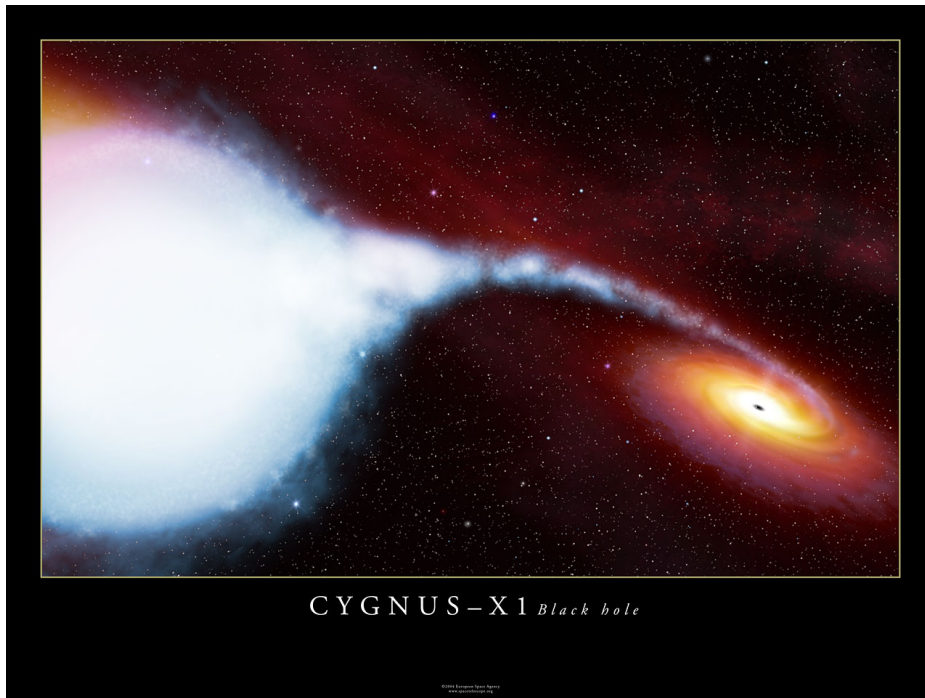
These 3 quantities completely specify a black hole



A spinning black hole

Hidden Companions

Hidden = Low Luminosity



Cygnus X1

Blue star orbiting an unseen object

From the orbit, the compact object must have a mass of **8 Msun**

Too massive to be a white dwarf or neutron star.

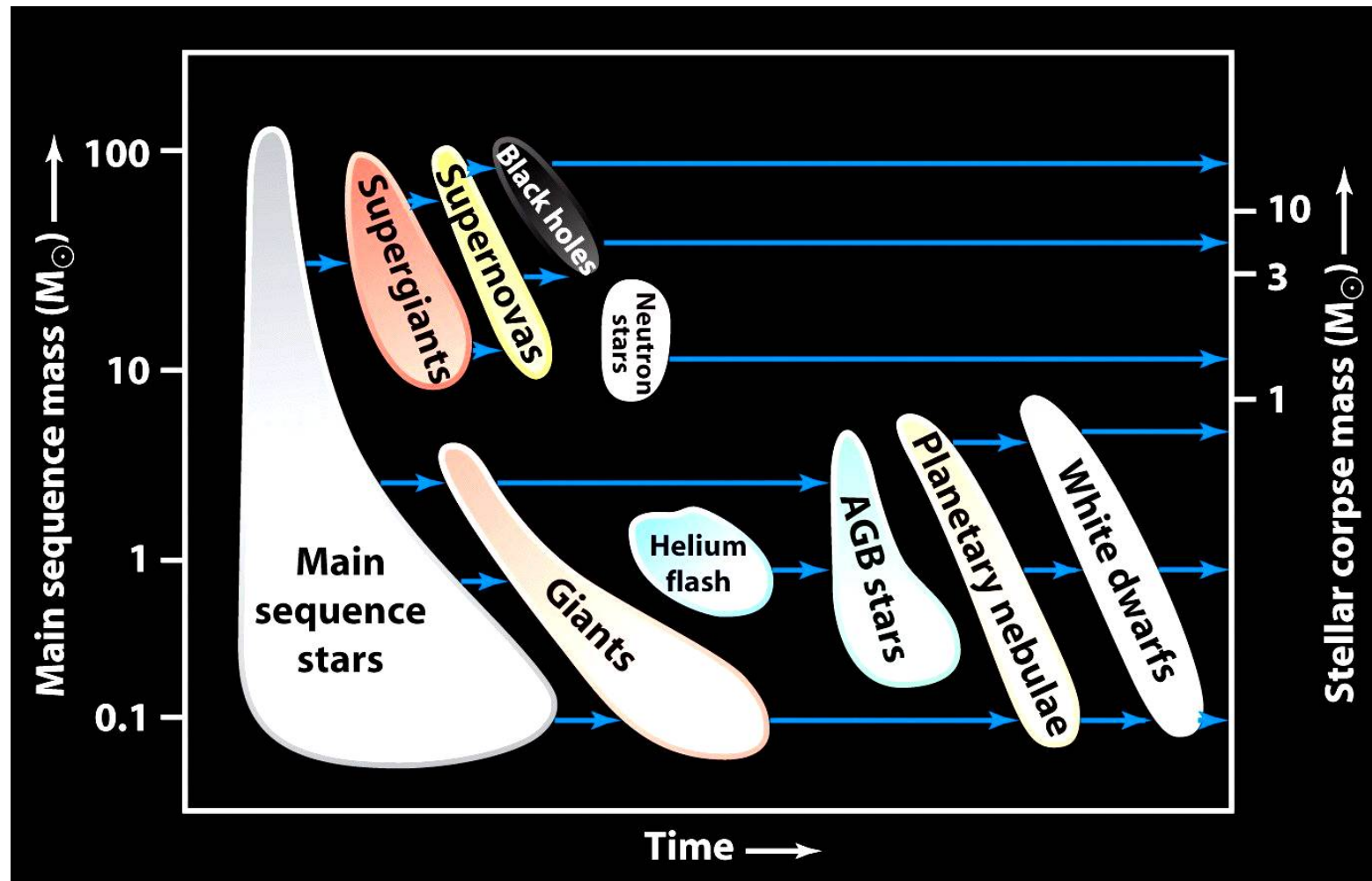
It's a Black Hole!!

The compact object emits **X-rays** from a region smaller than 0.1AU

Accretion disk around the black hole!!

Friction heats up the gas to **1 million K**
Very hot stuff emits X-rays

Summary of Stellar Evolution

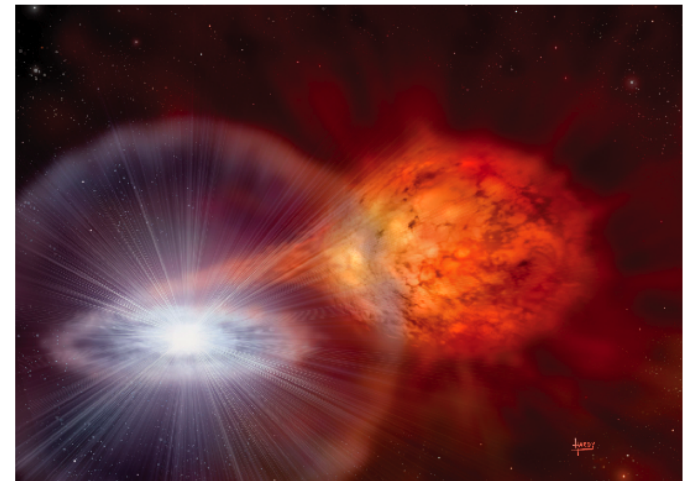
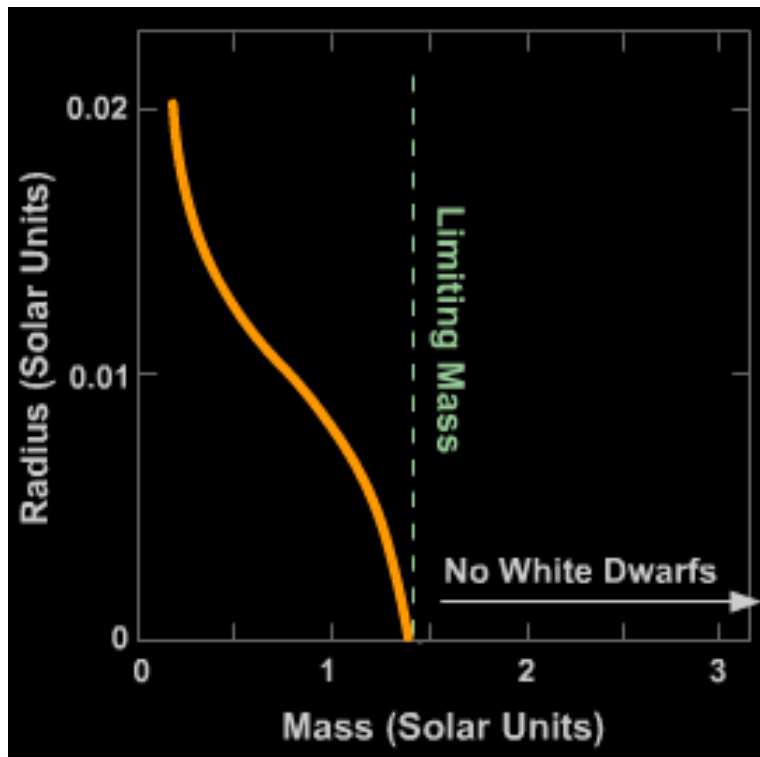


The other Supernovae

Supernovae Type Ia (White dwarf binary Supernovae)

White dwarf + Ordinary star

Steady and slow accretion onto a
degenerate C-O white dwarf below the
Chandrasekhar limit



Mass-Radius relationship for degenerate matter.

**Beyond $1.4 M_{\odot}$, electron degeneracy
cannot hold against gravity**

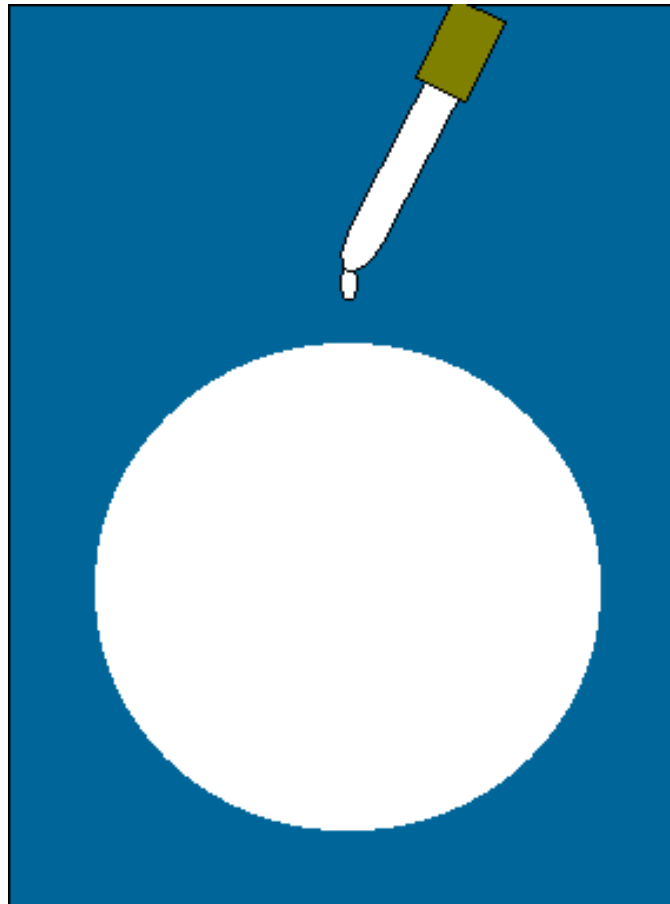
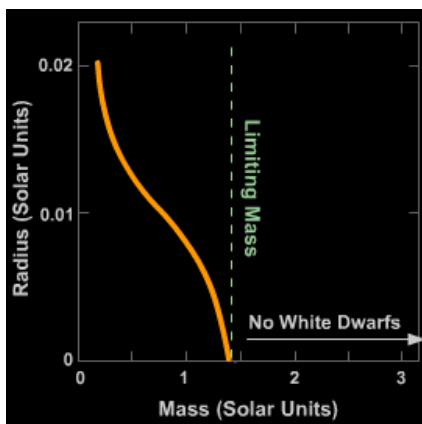
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White dwarf + Ordinary star



Chandrasekhar limit



The other Supernovae

Supernovae type Ia (White dwarf binary Supernovae)

White dwarf + Ordinary star

When the limit is achieved, the degenerate core implodes and achieves **carbon fusion** temperatures

This deflagrates a thermonuclear flame.

Carbon Detonation



The other Supernovae

Supernovae type Ia (White dwarf binary Supernovae)

White dwarf + Ordinary star

When the limit is achieved, the degenerate core implodes and achieves **carbon fusion** temperatures

This deflagrates a thermonuclear flame.

Carbon Detonation

So powerful that **no remnant** is left.

If the **Black Hole** is
gravity's ultimate victory,

the **Carbon detonation** is
pressure's ultimate victory!



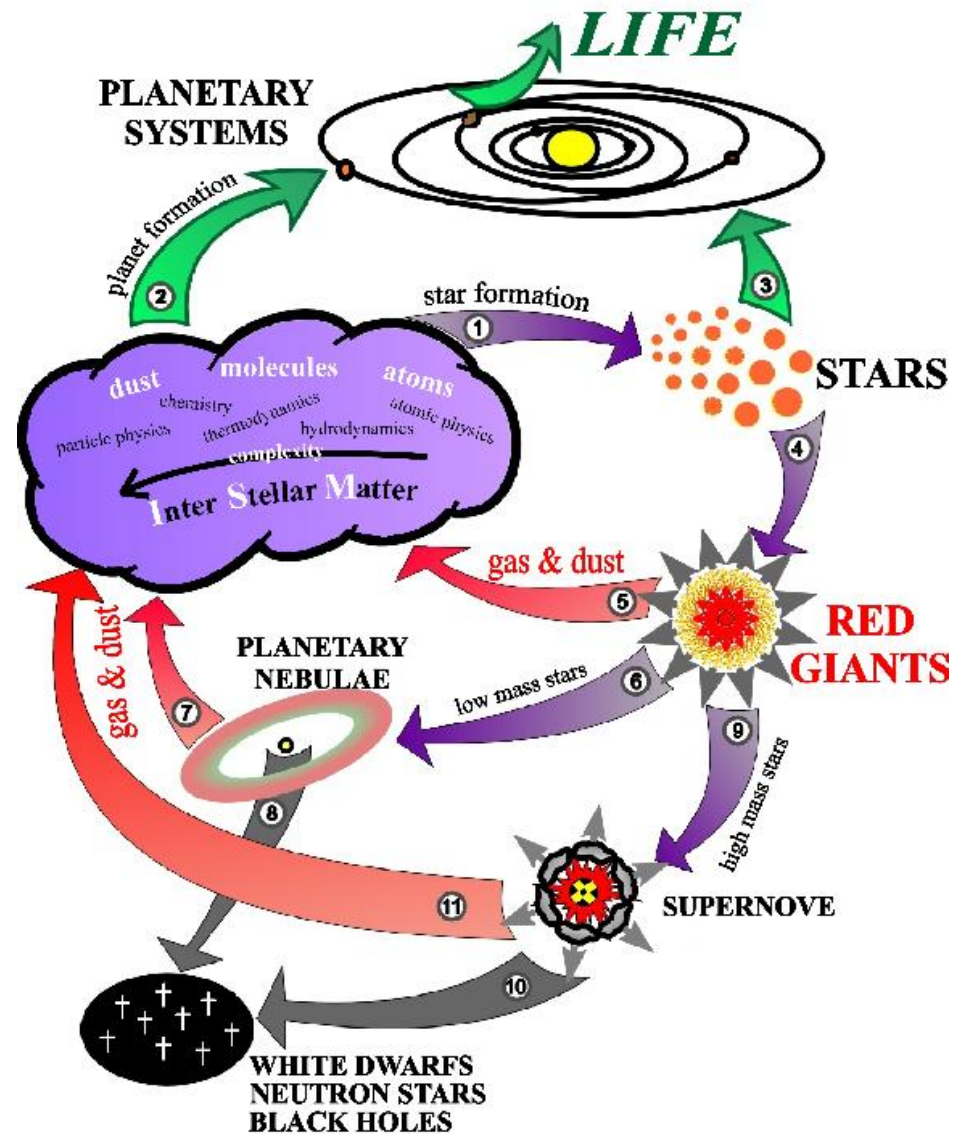
Chemical Enrichment of the Galaxy

Planetary Nebulae and **Supernovae**
eject gas **enriched in metals** into the
ISM

Recycling of matter

Remember, supernovae are massive
stars, they live shortly (10 Myr or less).
The SN recycling is practically
instantaneous!

**New generations of stars are enriched
in metals.**



Chemical Enrichment of the Galaxy

In the beginning there was
Hydrogen and Helium

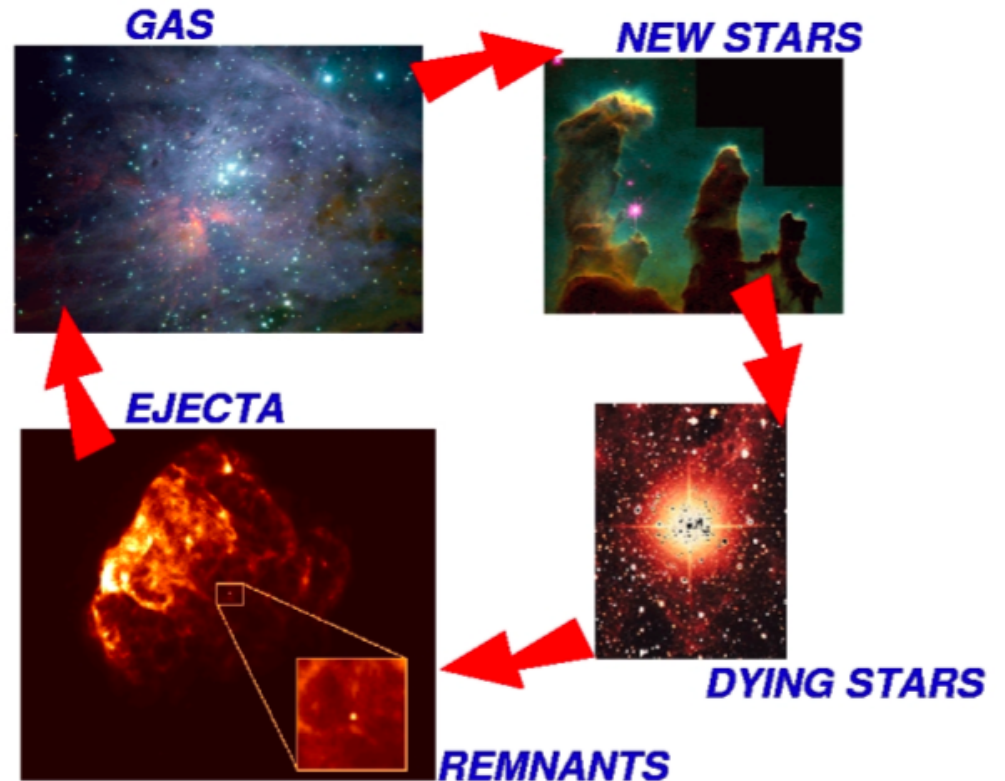
Stars form

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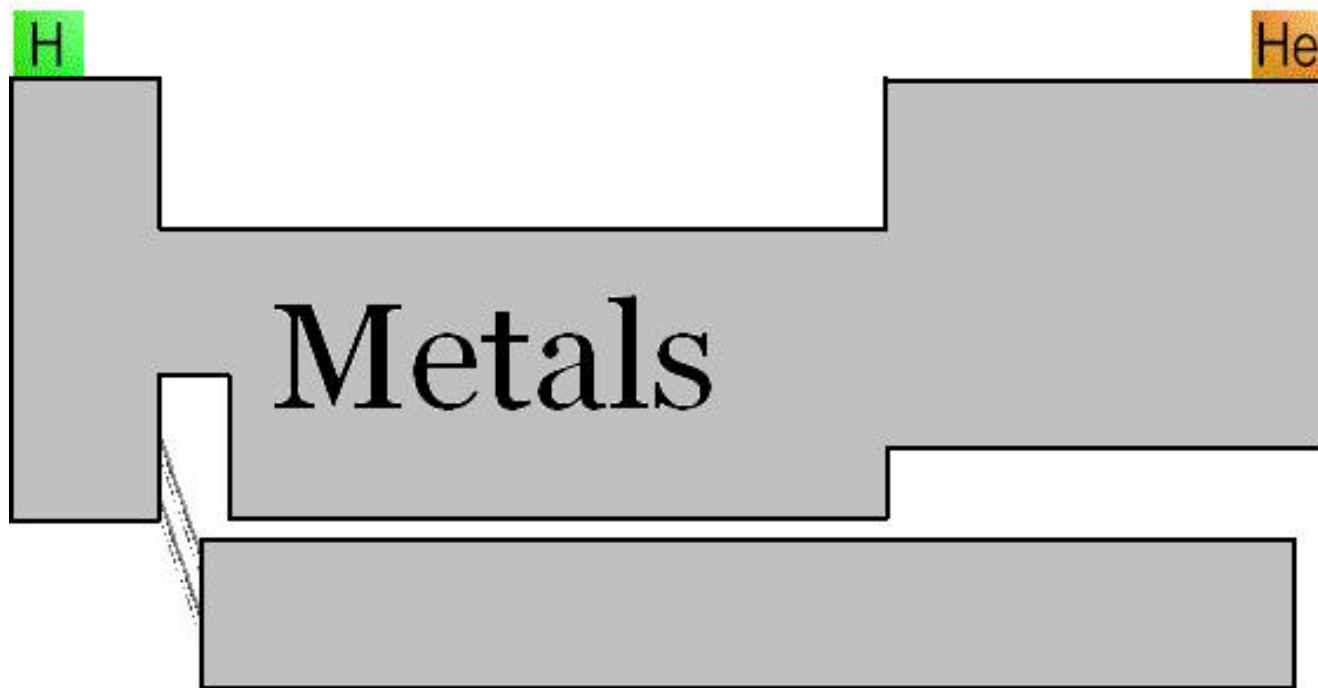
Some astrochemistry jargon

Metal: anything that is not Hydrogen or Helium

Some astrochemistry jargon

Metal: anything that is not Hydrogen or Helium

The Astronomer's Periodic Table



Some astrochemistry jargon

Metal: anything that is not Hydrogen or Helium

X: Hydrogen abundance

Y: Helium abundance

Z: All the rest (i.e., abundance of metals)

$$X+Y+Z=1$$

Sun: $X=0.749$, $Y=0.238$, $Z=0.013$

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The Astronomer's *Simplified* Periodic Table

H	He	Z
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Some astrochemistry jargon

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Metallicity

Iron abundance (normalized to solar)

$$[Fe/H] = \log \frac{N_{Fe}}{N_H} \underset{\star}{-} \log \frac{N_{Fe}}{N_H} \underset{\odot}{} \quad \odot$$

Sun: $[Fe/H] = 0.0$

Metallicity

Metallicity

Iron abundance (normalized to solar)

$$[Fe/H] = \log \frac{N_{Fe}}{N_H} \star - \log \frac{N_{Fe}}{N_H} \odot$$

Sun: [Fe/H] = 0.0

Negative → Less metals than the Sun

Positive → More metals than the Sun

Chemical Enrichment of the Galaxy

In the beginning there was
Hydrogen and Helium

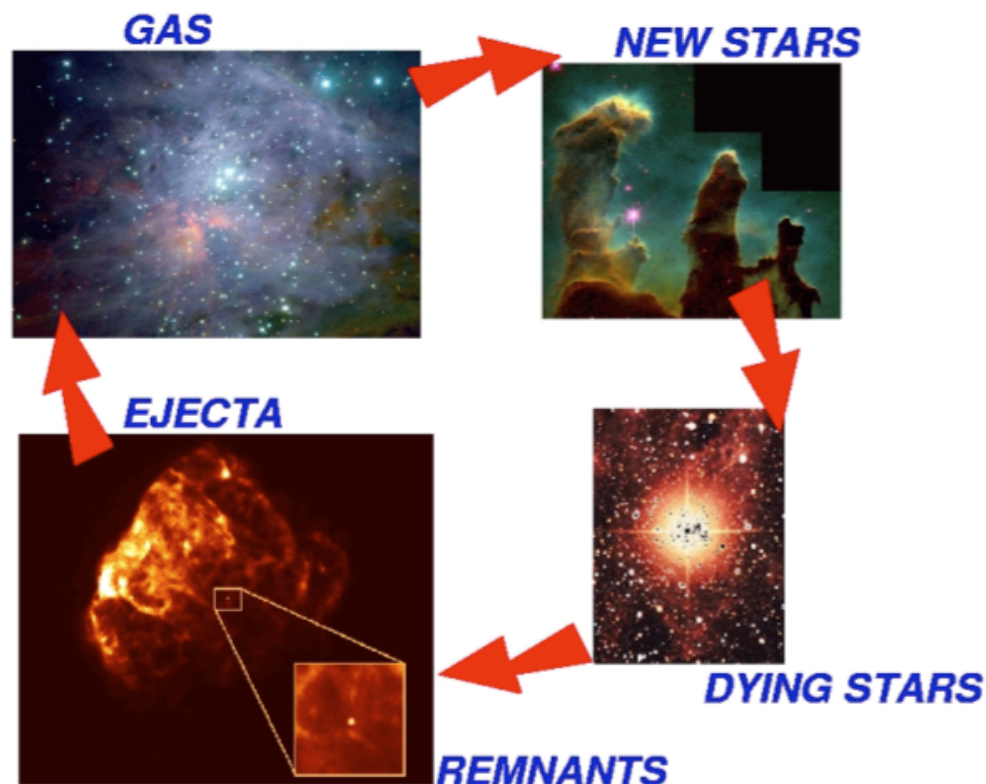
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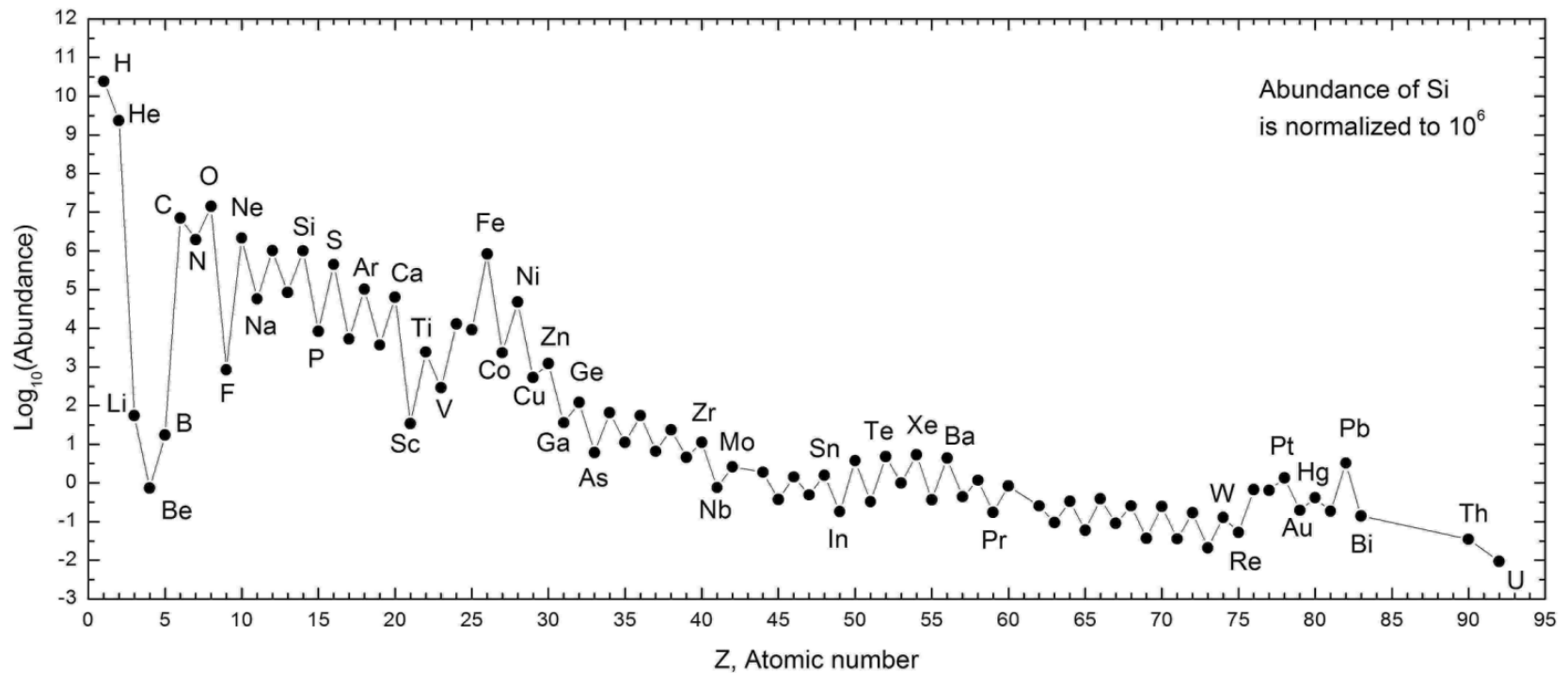
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**New generations of stars are enriched in
metals.**



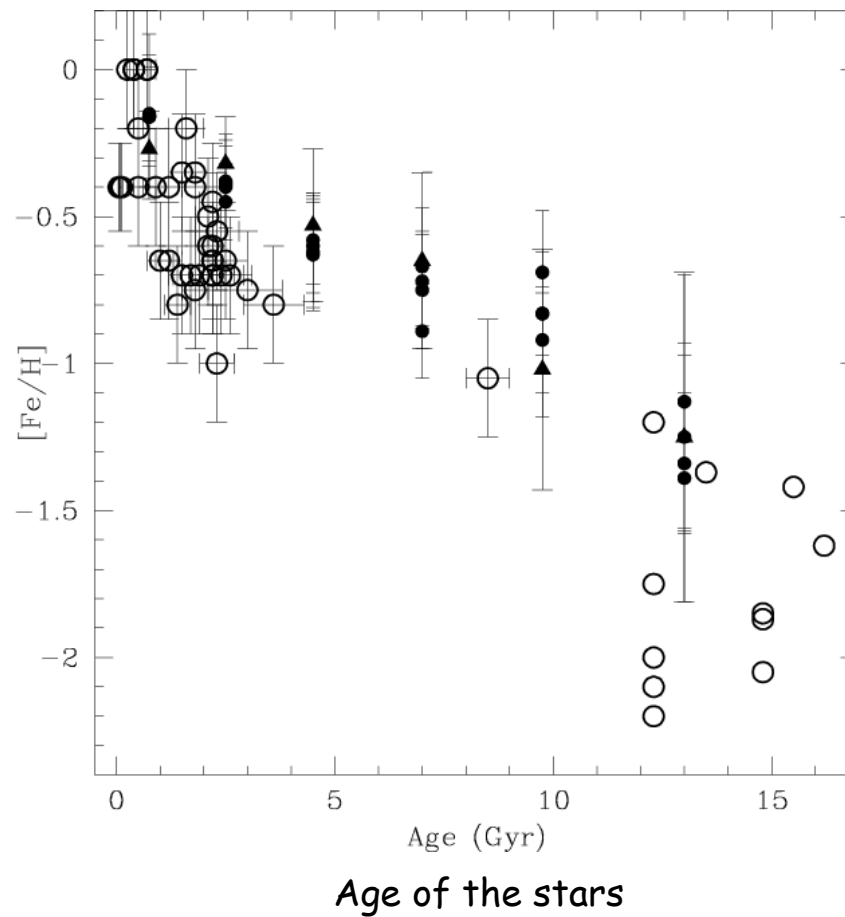
Insight

The Sun (or stars in general) do NOT self-enrich its atmosphere. They were formed out of gas that already contained those elements.



Age-Metallicity Relationship

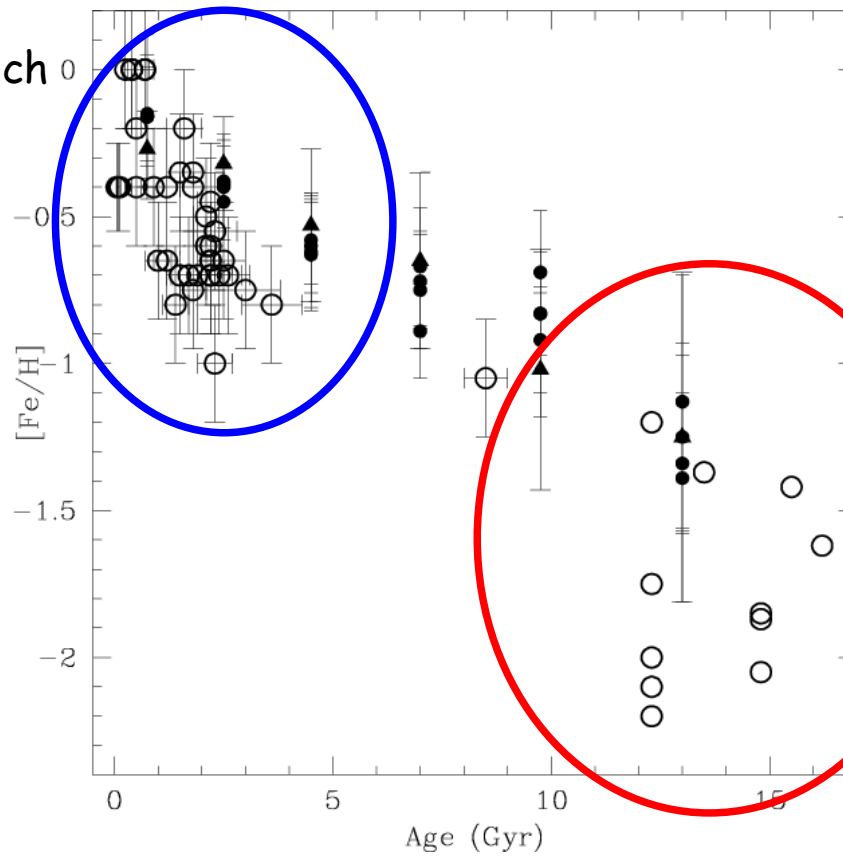
The **overall metallicity** of the Galaxy **increases in time** as successive generations of stars enrich the ISM



Stellar Populations

More old terminology we are stuck with

Population I
young and metal-rich

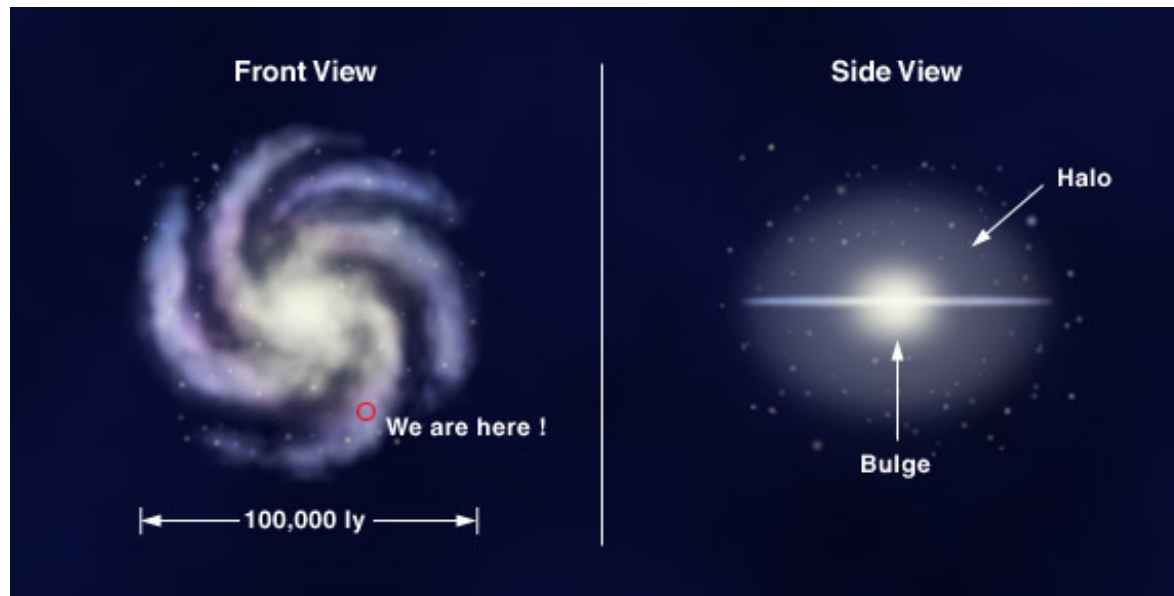


Age of the stars

Population II
old and metal-poor

Stellar Populations

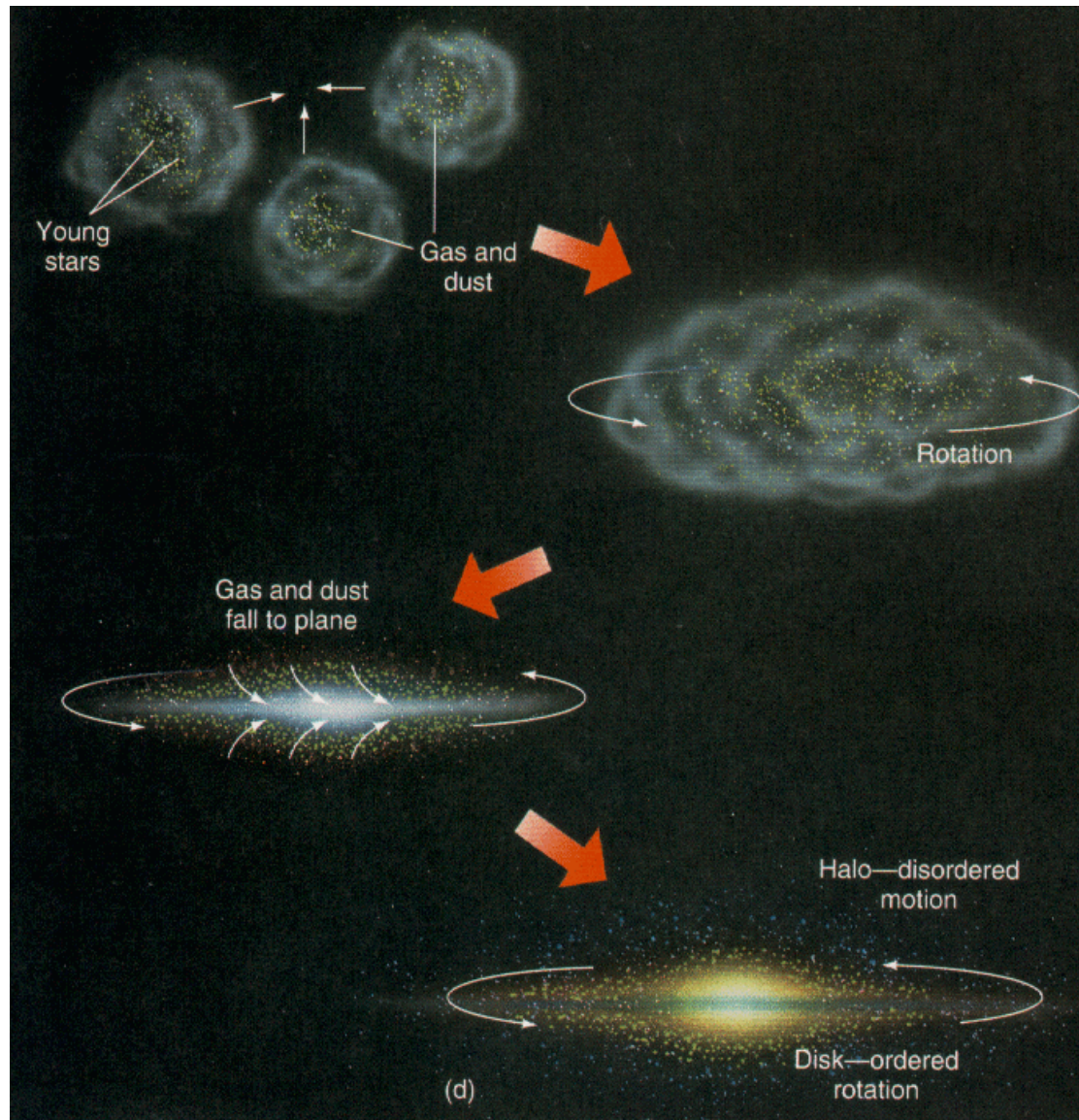
Where do we find the different populations?



Galactic Structure

Bulge
Halo
Disk

Galaxy formation



The **Halo** is the **first structure** that forms, during the collapse of the original cloud

The **Disk** forms later, as the gas settles

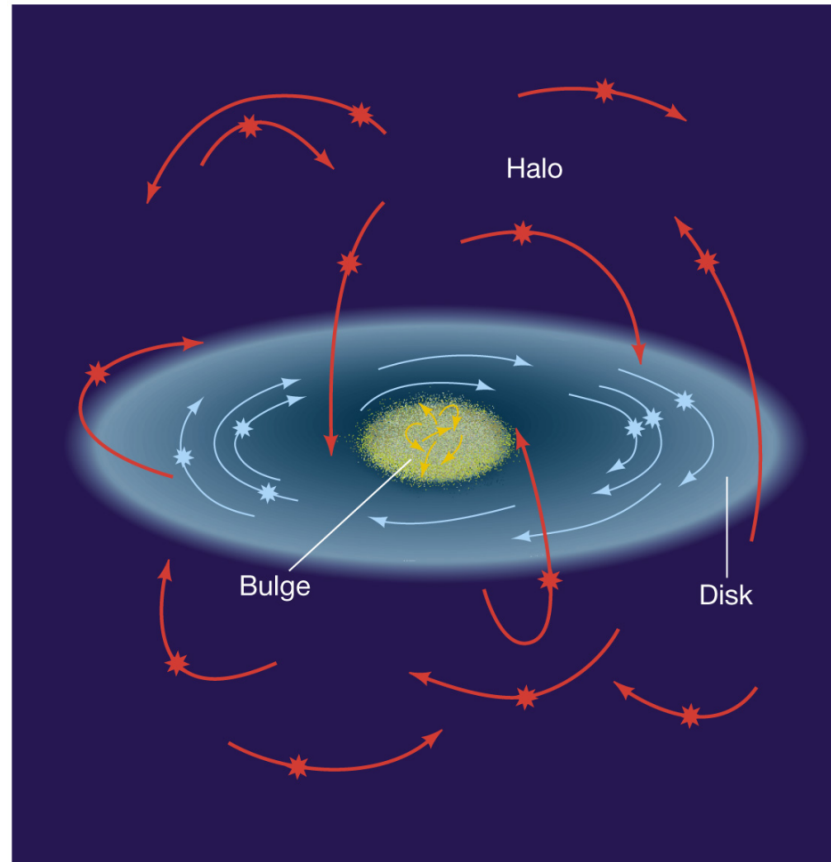
Halo: disordered motion

Disk: ordered motion

Stellar Populations

Population II
old and metal-poor
Halo Stars

*Star formation
ceased long ago*

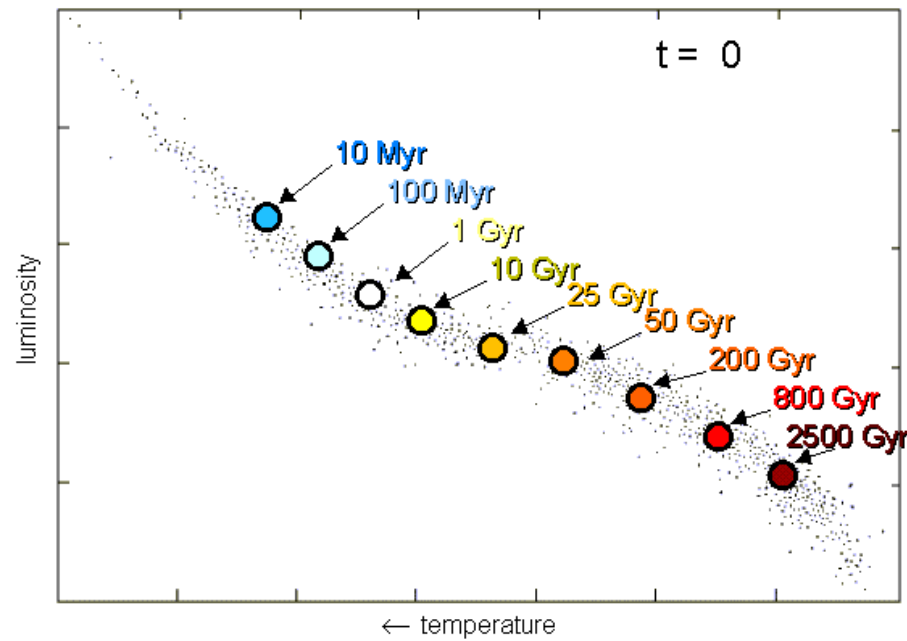


Population I
young and metal-rich

Disk Stars

*Star formation is
ongoing*

Insight



Blue stars are invariably young

Red stars are usually (but not always) old

Example of Population I - Young Open Clusters

Open Clusters are usually young

Why? Because they are formed in the **disk**, and are subject to Galactic tides!
(there is a lot of gas around)

They are disrupted in a few orbits

They retain their physical integrity only for a few millions of years, before the stars disperse
Still hanging around their birthplaces - the **Spiral Arms**

All disk stars (the Sun included) were born in Open Clusters



The Pleiades



Are there old open clusters?

Yes, **M67**, for instance, which is **4 Gyr old**

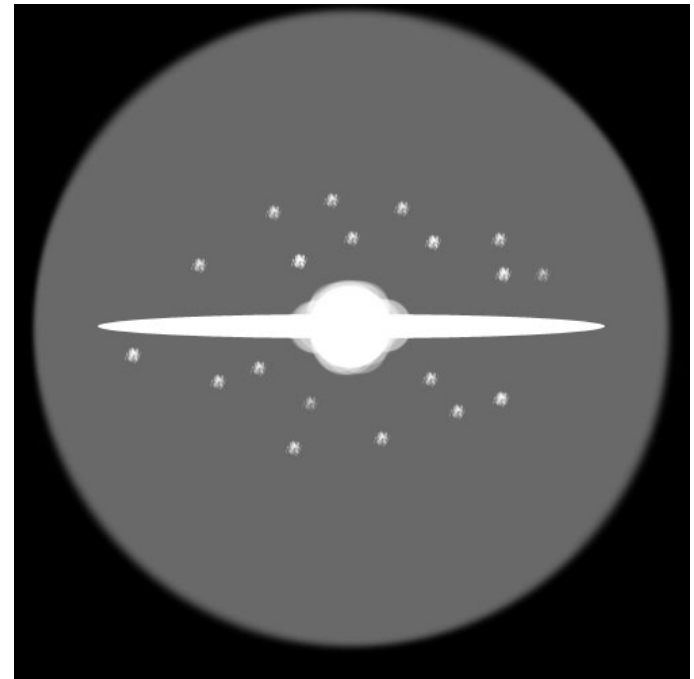
It is an open cluster that is **massive** enough to remain gravitationally bound



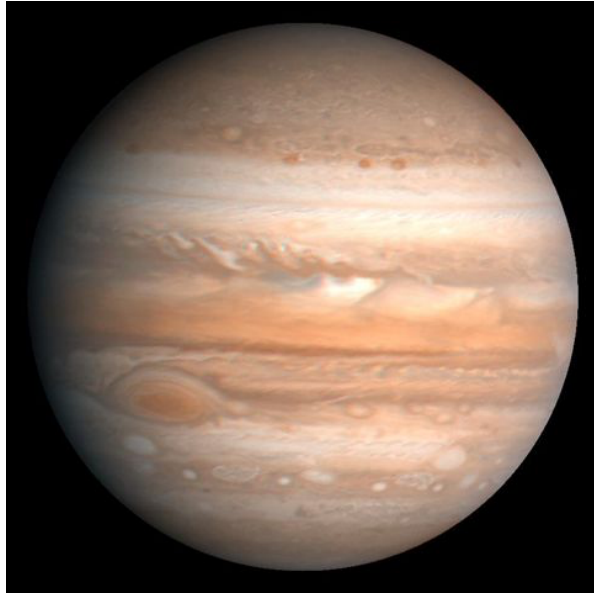
Example of Population II - Globular Clusters

Globular clusters are old systems of stars in the Halo

They are **spherical** (globular) because they are **massive**
Gravity could shape the system into a spherical configuration



A “mass-sphericity” analogy...



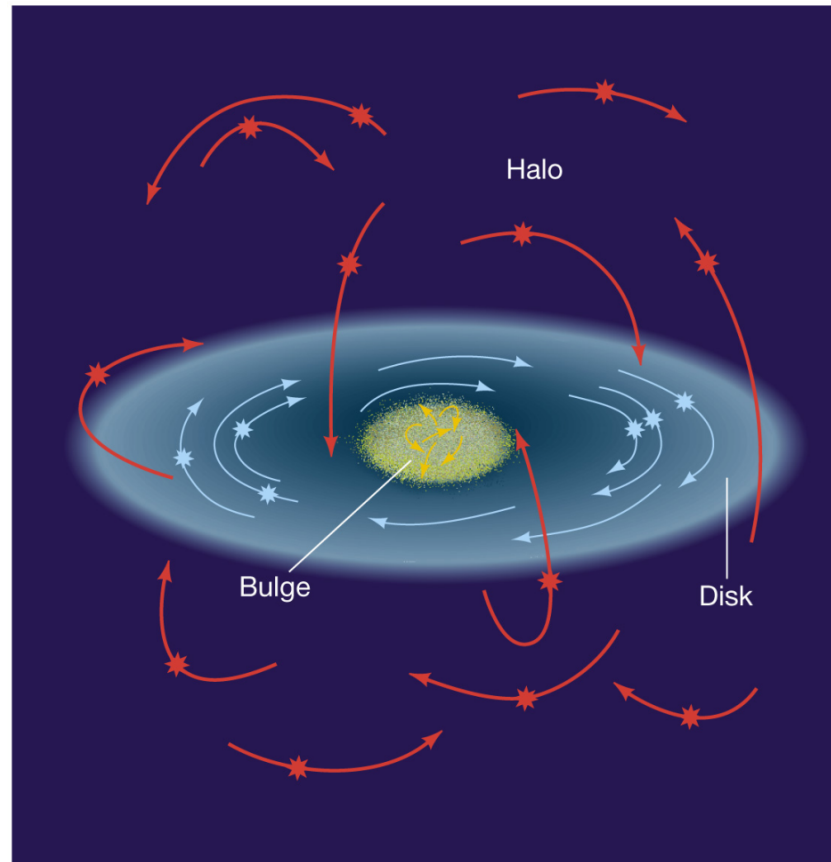
Stellar Populations

Population II

old and metal-poor

Halo Stars

*Star formation
ceased long ago*



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Population I

young and metal-rich

Disk Stars

*Star formation is
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Stellar Populations

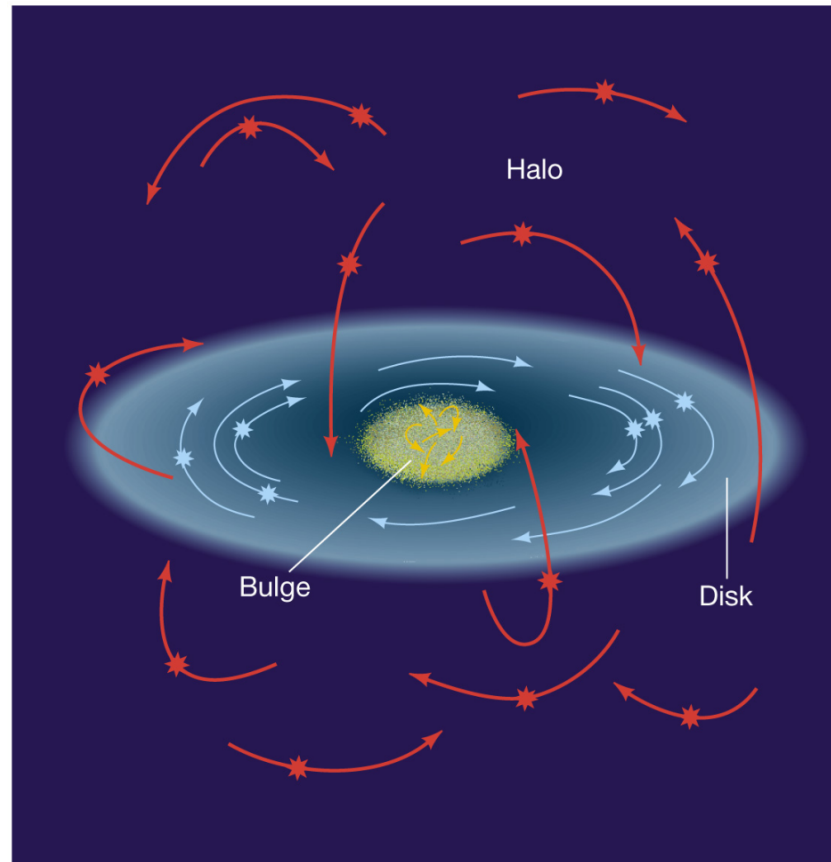
How about the Bulge??

Population II

old and metal-poor

Halo Stars

*Star formation
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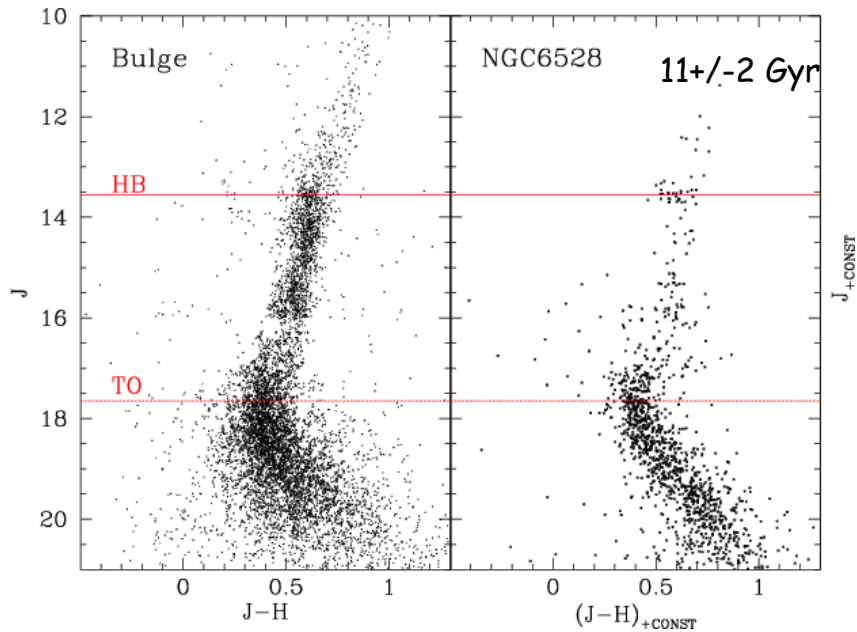
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young and metal-rich

Disk Stars

*Star formation is
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Stellar Populations



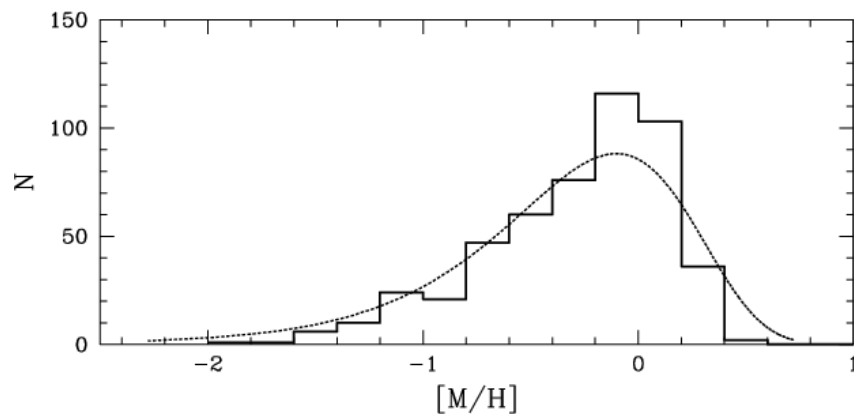
Bulge stars are old and metal rich

The Bulge is an old structure,
but quite dense

**Star formation rate (SFR) is
proportional to the density**

More gas, more stars....

Metallicity Distribution of the Bulge



So, the chemical enrichment was fast!!

The Galactic Radial Metallicity Gradient

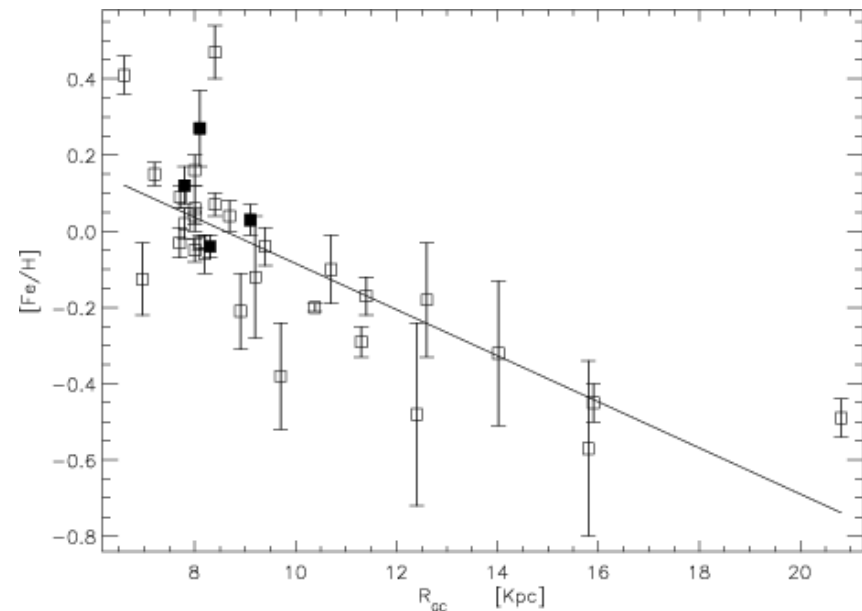
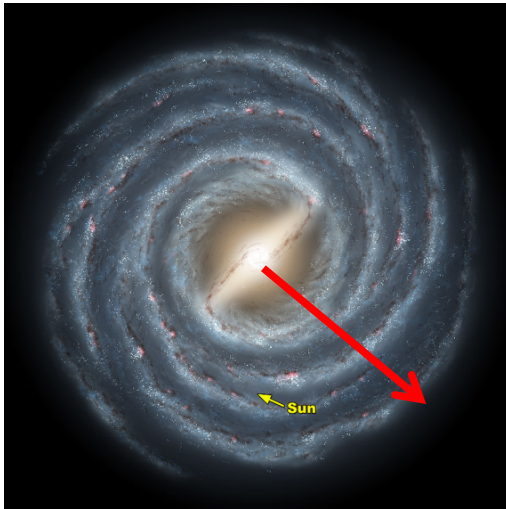
Star formation rate (SFR) is proportional to the density

A galaxy's density decreases with radius

So, the SFR decreases with radius

Central part (Bulge) → High gas density → Fast chemical enrichment

Outer disk → Low gas density → Slow chemical enrichment

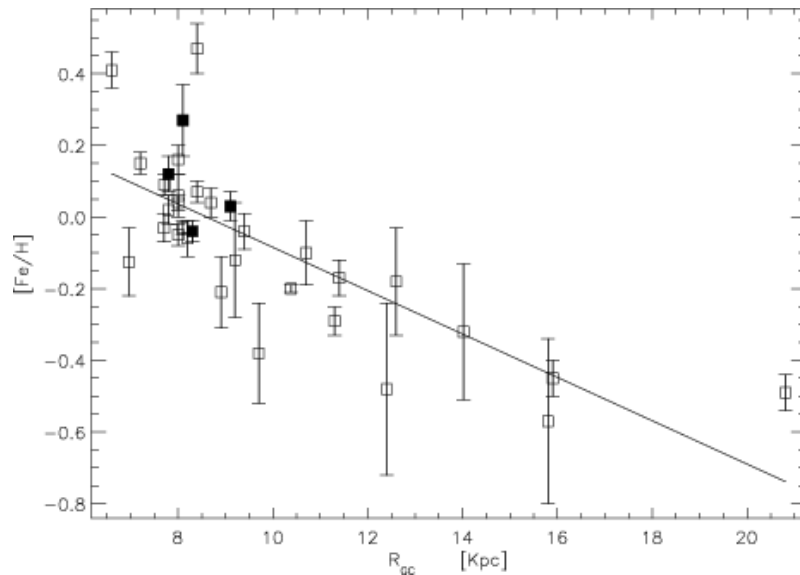


Stellar Populations

Why we shouldn't use the terminology

Population I - young and metal-rich

Population II - old and metal-poor



There exists **old metal rich stars** (bulge)

As well as **young metal poor stars** (outer disk)

Use of “stellar populations” is **discouraged**.

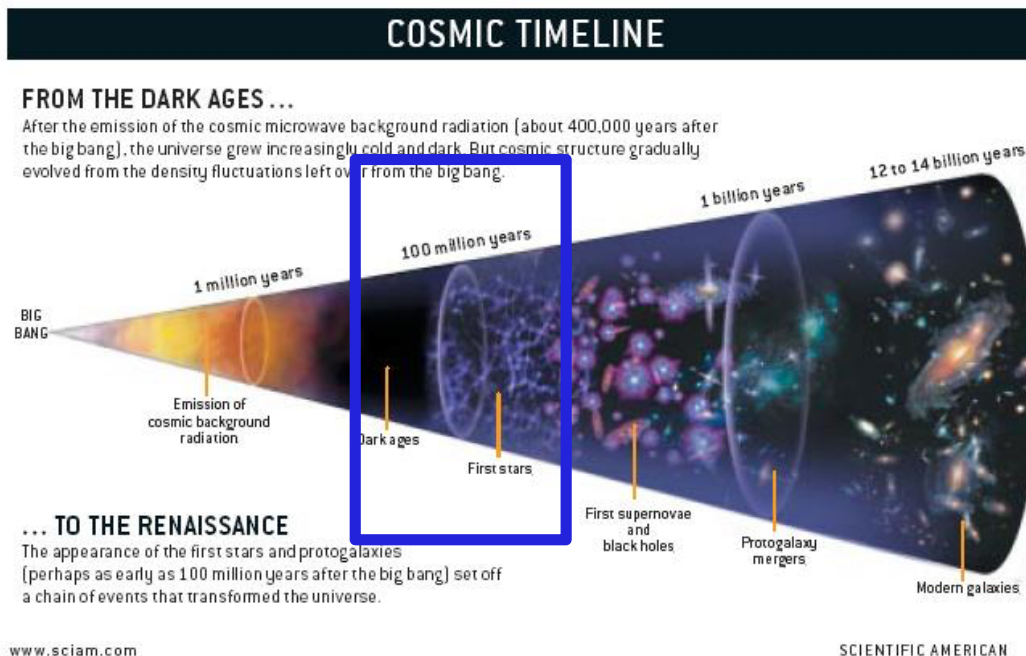
Use ***age*** and ***metallicity*** when you can.

Exception to the rule - Pop III stars

Pop I – metal rich, young

Pop II – metal poor, old

Pop III – metal free, extinct



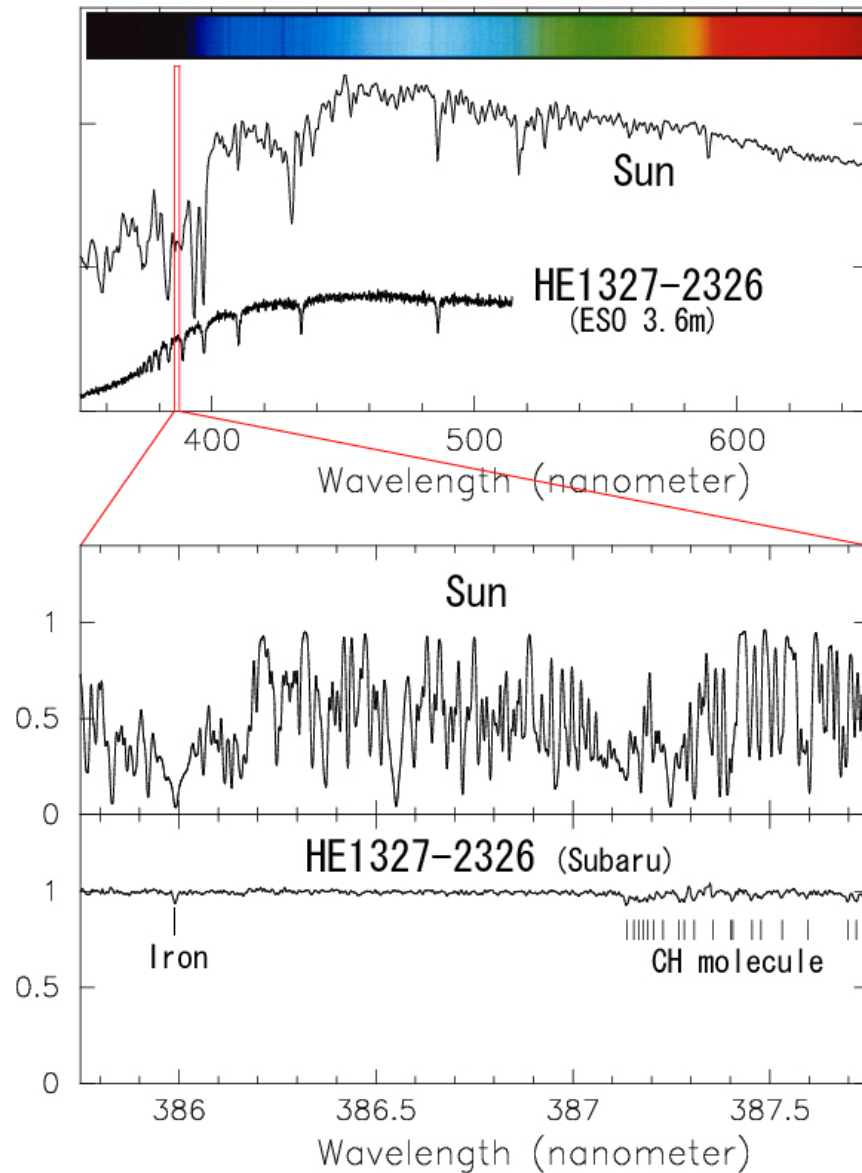
The First Stars

Purely Hydrogen and Helium, nothing else.

We cannot see them since they are gone.

But... the second generation of stars may still be around

Very metal poor stars - HE 1327-2326

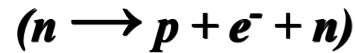


$$[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -5.2$$

How much less iron than the Sun?
300,000 times less

Let's summarize

Beyond the Iron peak, nucleosynthesis occurs by *neutron capture* and *beta decay*



The process is classified according to the neutron flux

S-process

(slow neutron capture)

Neutron capture occurs
slower
than beta decay

Works up to bismuth (Z=83)

Where?

AGB stars + Supernovae

R-process

(rapid neutron capture)

Neutron capture occurs
faster
than beta decay

Really heavy stuff
All the way to Uranium

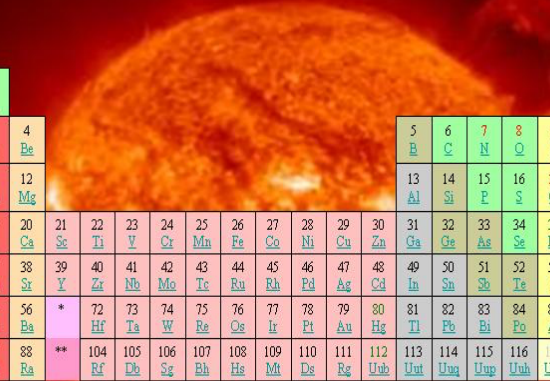
Where?

Supernovae

Let's Summarize

Element	# of Protons	Site
H	1	Big Bang
He, C, O	2,6,8	Big Bang + Low and High Mass stars
Ne - Fe	10-26	High mass stars
Co - Bi	27-83	S and R process, ABG and SN
Po - U	84-92	R process in SN

Nucleosynthesis: Stars are where the periodic table is cooked



1 H																	2 He				
3 Li	4 Be															5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
11 Na	12 Mg															13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr				
37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe				
55 Cs	56 Ba	*	72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn				
87 Fr	88 Ra	**	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Uub	113 Uut	114 Uuq	115 Uup	116 Uuh	117 Uus	118 Uuo				
57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	71 Lu							
89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No	103 Lr							

Let's summarize

Some astrochemistry jargon

Metal: anything that is not Hydrogen or Helium

X: Hydrogen abundance

Y: Helium abundance

Z: All the rest (i.e., abundance of metals)

$$X+Y+Z=1$$

Sun: X=0.749, Y=0.238, Z=0.013

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Iron abundance (normalized to solar)

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Let's summarize

Some astrochemistry jargon

Successive generations of stars enrich the Galaxy in metals

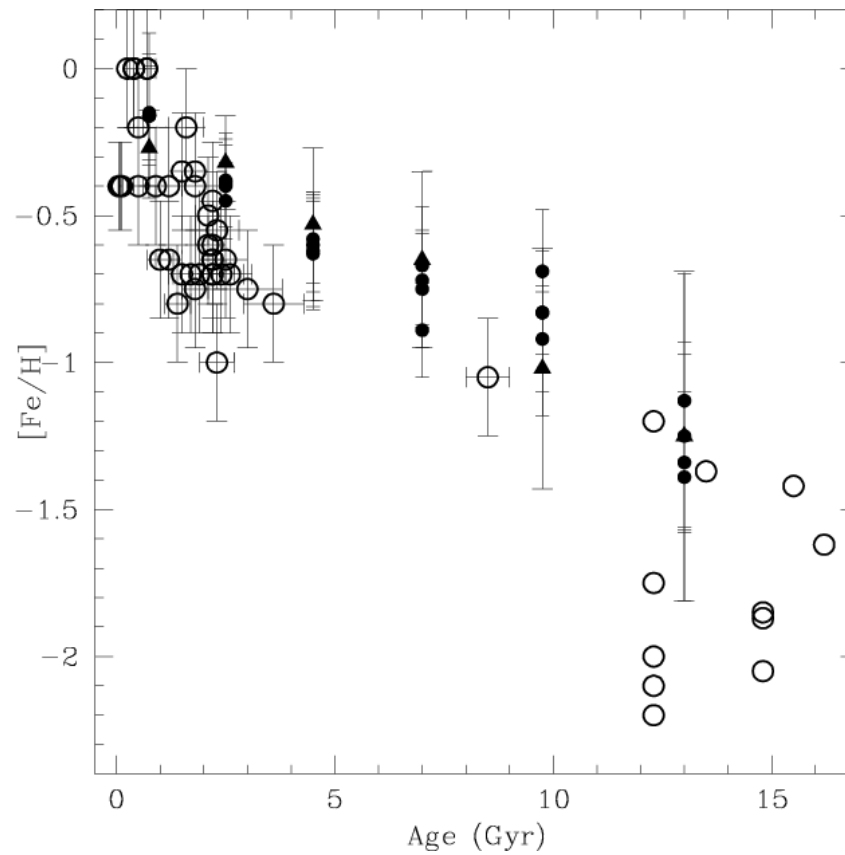


Let's summarize

Some astrochemistry jargon

Successive generations of stars enrich the Galaxy in metals

An age-metallicity relation can be traced



Age of the stars

Let's summarize

Some astrochemistry jargon

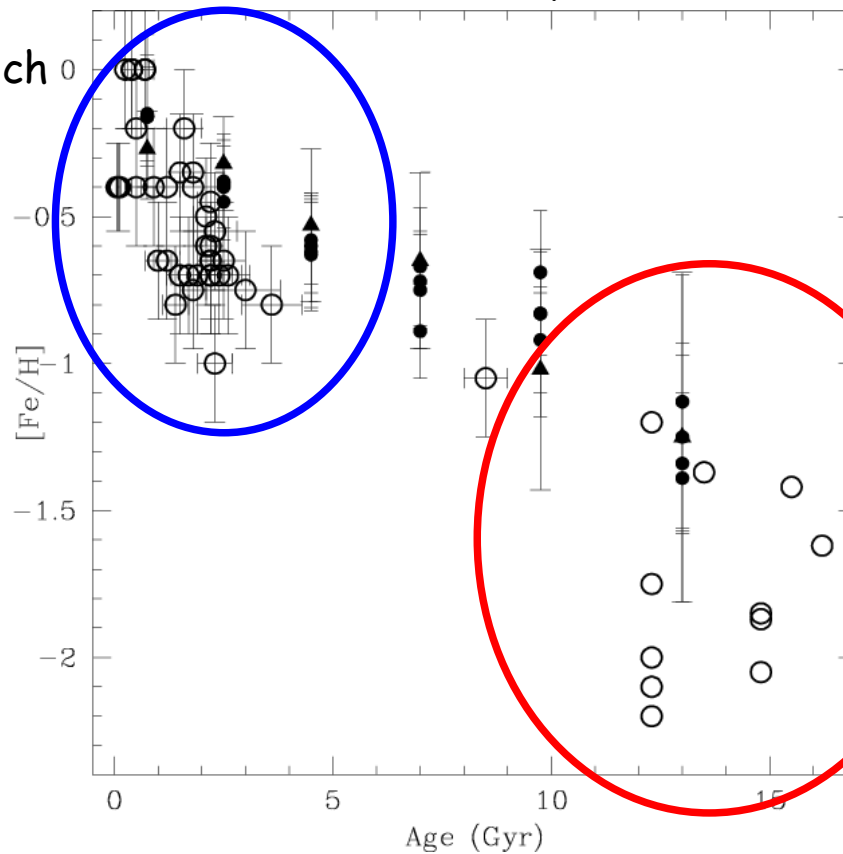
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Stellar Populations

Population I

young and metal-rich



Population II

old and metal-poor

Age of the stars

Let's summarize

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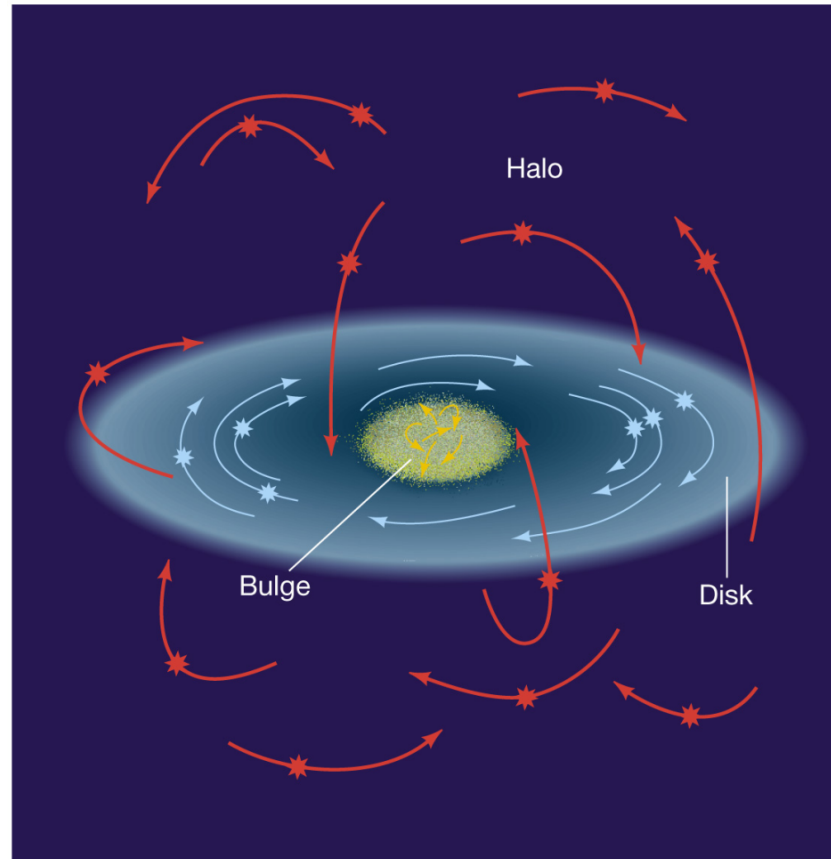
Pop I - Disk stars ; Pop II - Halo stars

Population II

old and metal-poor

Halo Stars

*Star formation
ceased long ago*



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Let's summarize

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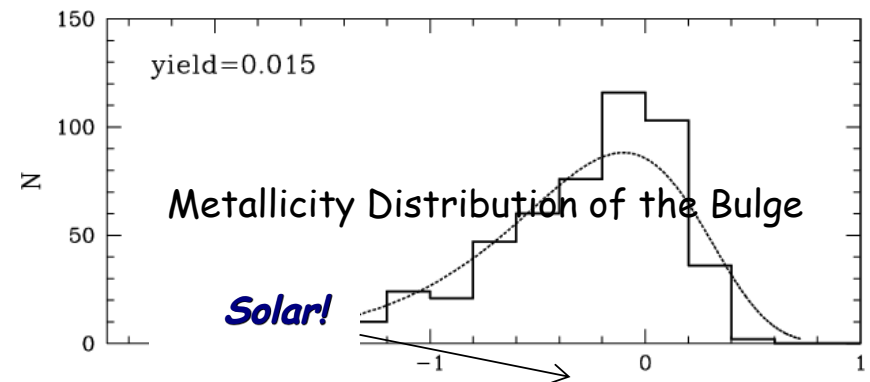
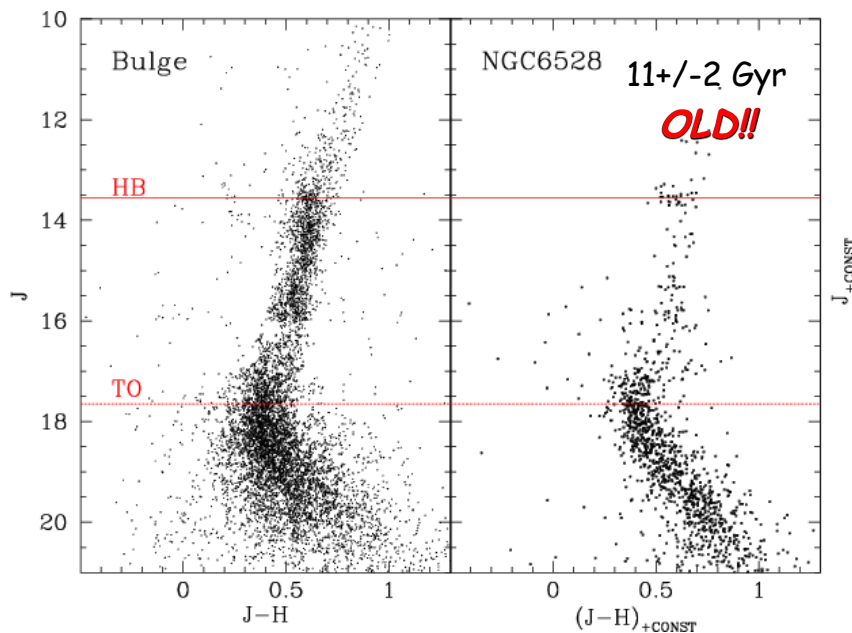
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Pop I - Disk stars ; Pop II - Halo stars

Bulge stars break the classification. They are old and metal rich.

Age of the Bulge



Let's summarize

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Successive generations of stars enrich the Galaxy in metals

Star formation rate (SFR) is proportional to the density

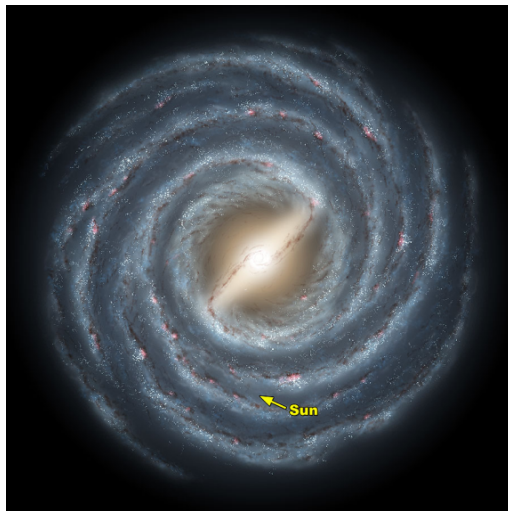
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Bulge stars break the classification. They are old and metal rich.

That's because the bulge is dense. More gas, more stars. Fast chemical enrichment.



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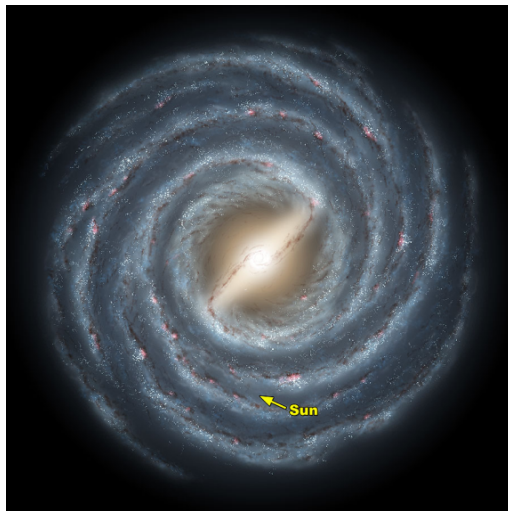
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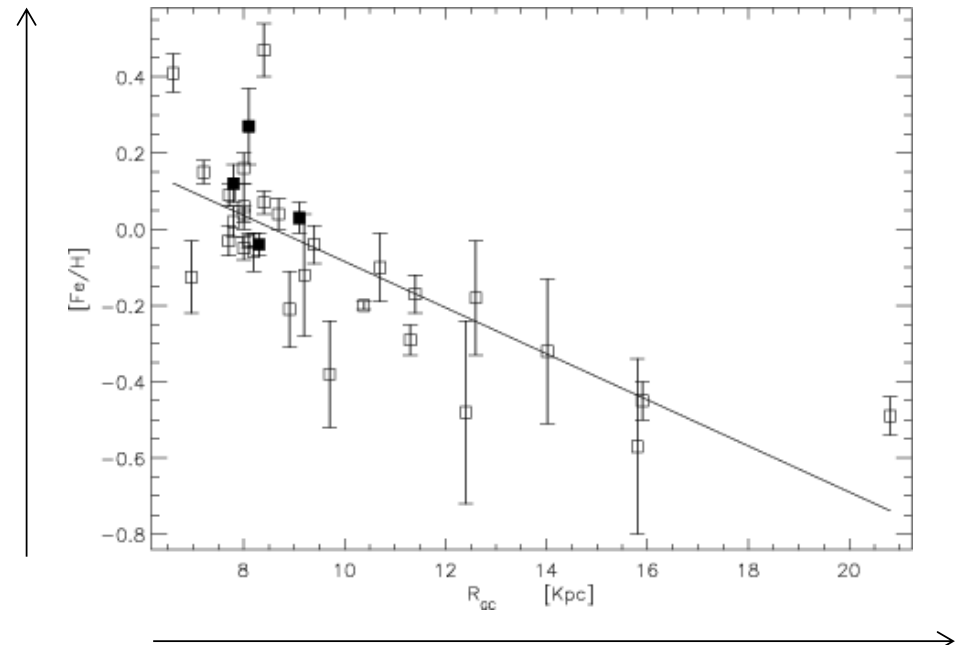
Bulge stars break the classification. They are old and metal rich.

That's because the bulge is dense. More gas, more stars. Fast chemical enrichment.

The Galaxy has a radial metallicity gradient



↑
Metallicity



Galactocentric

Let's summarize

Pop I – metal rich, young

Pop II – metal poor, old

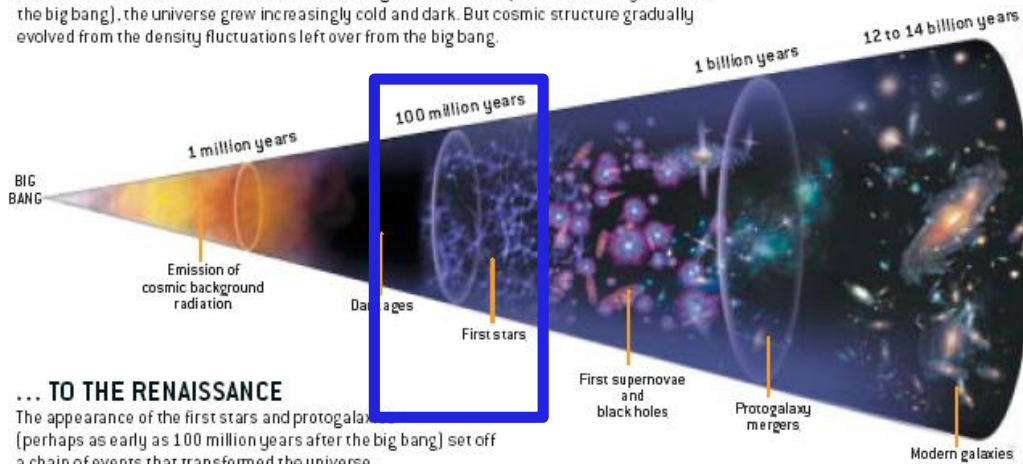
Pop III – metal free, extinct

Population III stars - Metal free, the first stars

COSMIC TIMELINE

FROM THE DARK AGES ...

After the emission of the cosmic microwave background radiation (about 400,000 years after the big bang), the universe grew increasingly cold and dark. But cosmic structure gradually evolved from the density fluctuations left over from the big bang.



... TO THE RENAISSANCE

The appearance of the first stars and protogalaxies (perhaps as early as 100 million years after the big bang) set off a chain of events that transformed the universe.

The First Stars

Purely Hydrogen and Helium,
nothing else.

We cannot see them
since they are gone.

But... the *second* generation of stars
may still be around

Let's summarize

Some astrochemistry jargon

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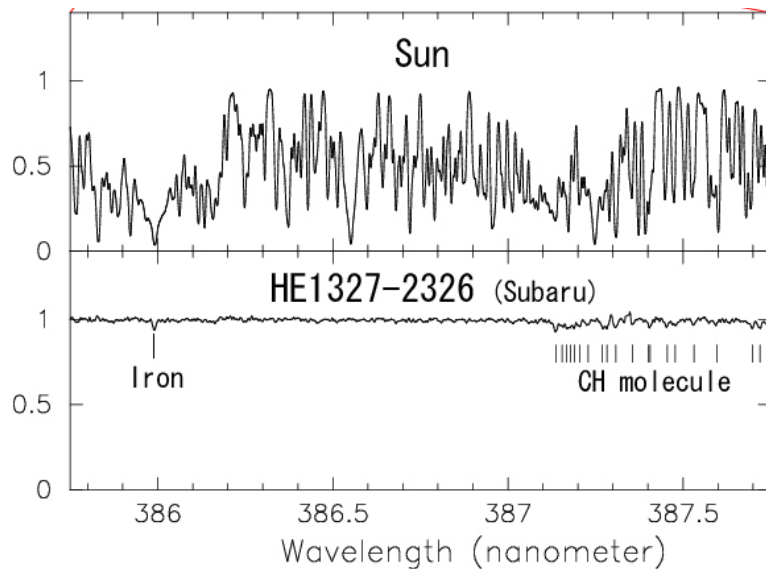
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That's because the bulge is dense. More gas, more stars. Fast

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Population III stars - Metal free, the first stars

HE 1327-2326: The most metal poor star ever found



$[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -5.2$

**300,000 times less Iron
than the Sun**

Star Formation

The space between stars is ***NOT EMPTY***, it is just very low density

Some of it is gas (99%), some of it is dust (1%).

This matter is called ***INTERSTELLAR MEDIUM (ISM)***



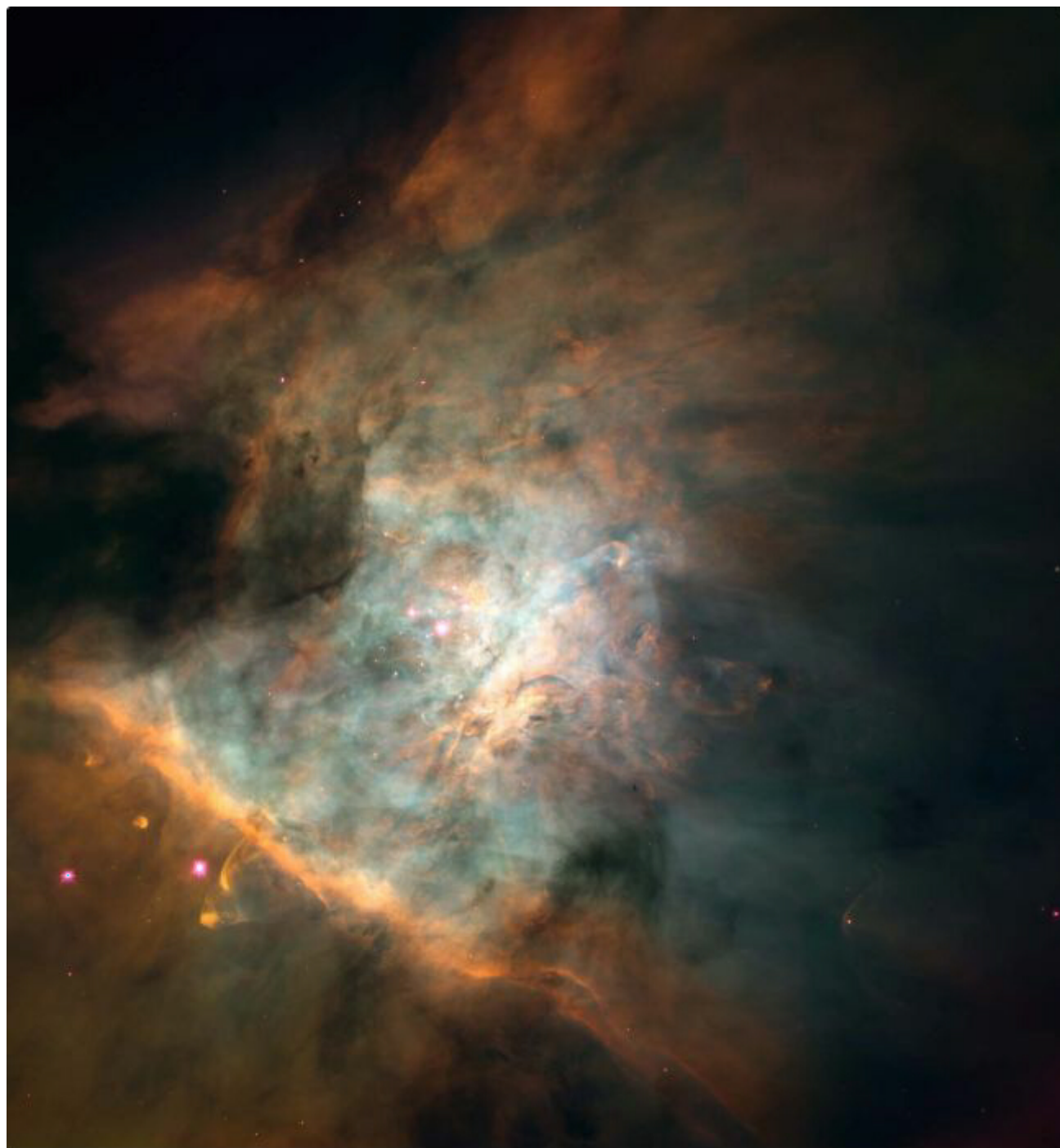
Star Formation

Gas collapses gravitationally, to form stars.

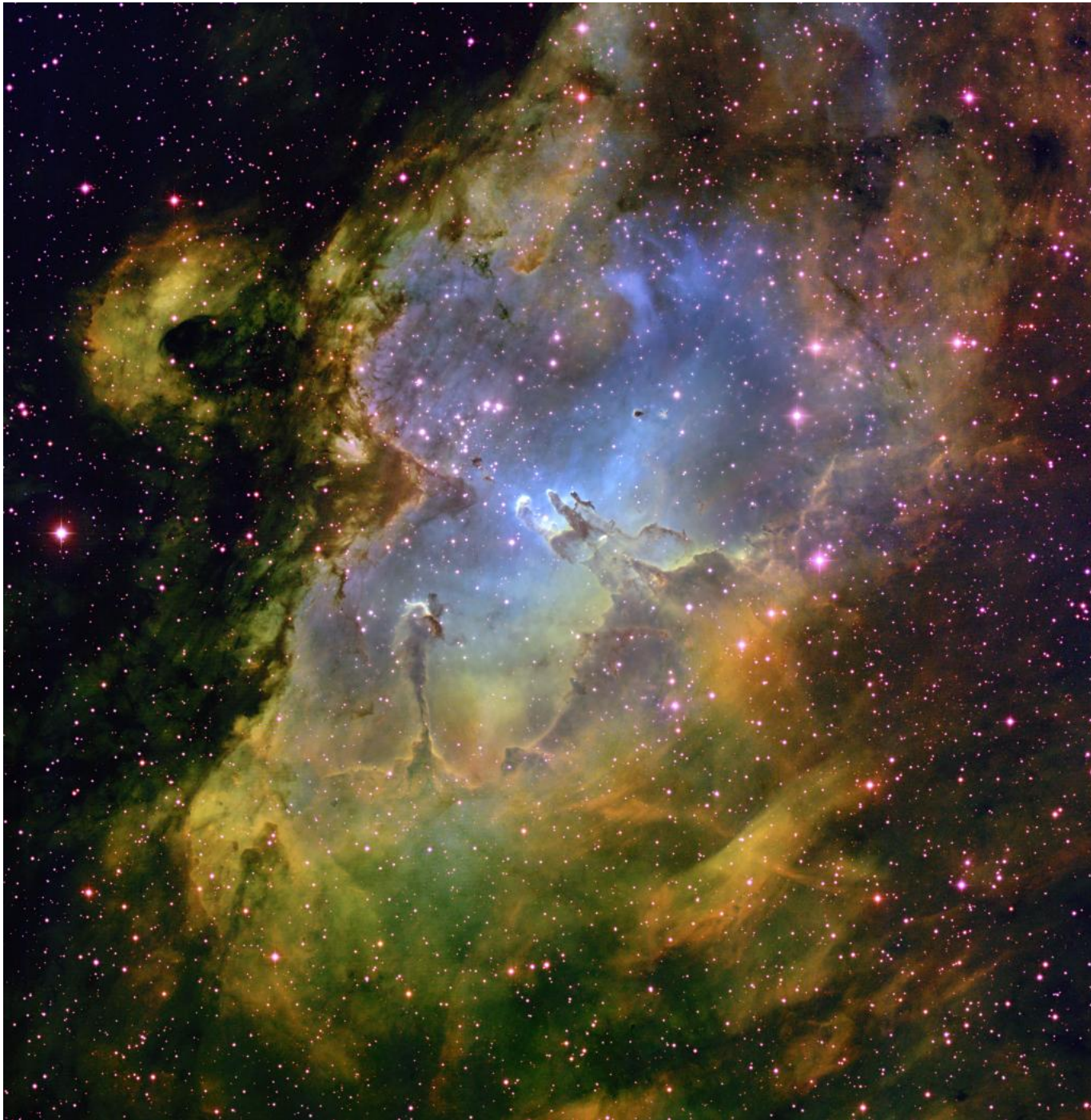
Star formation occurs in the *densest regions of the ISM*, called *Molecular Clouds*



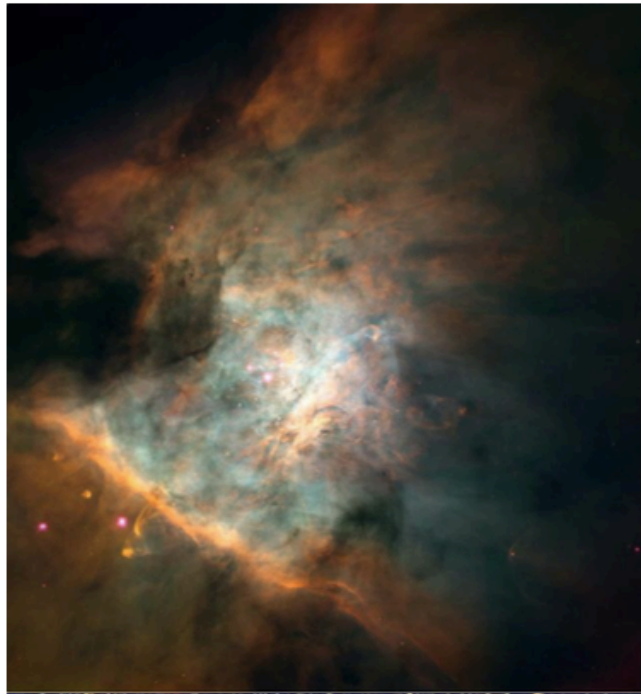












Molecular Cloud Fact Sheet

Temperature	10-50	K
Density	$10^2 - 10^6$	atoms/cm ³
(ISM Density		1 atom/cm ³)
(Air density		10^{19} atoms/cm³)

Irregular and turbulent

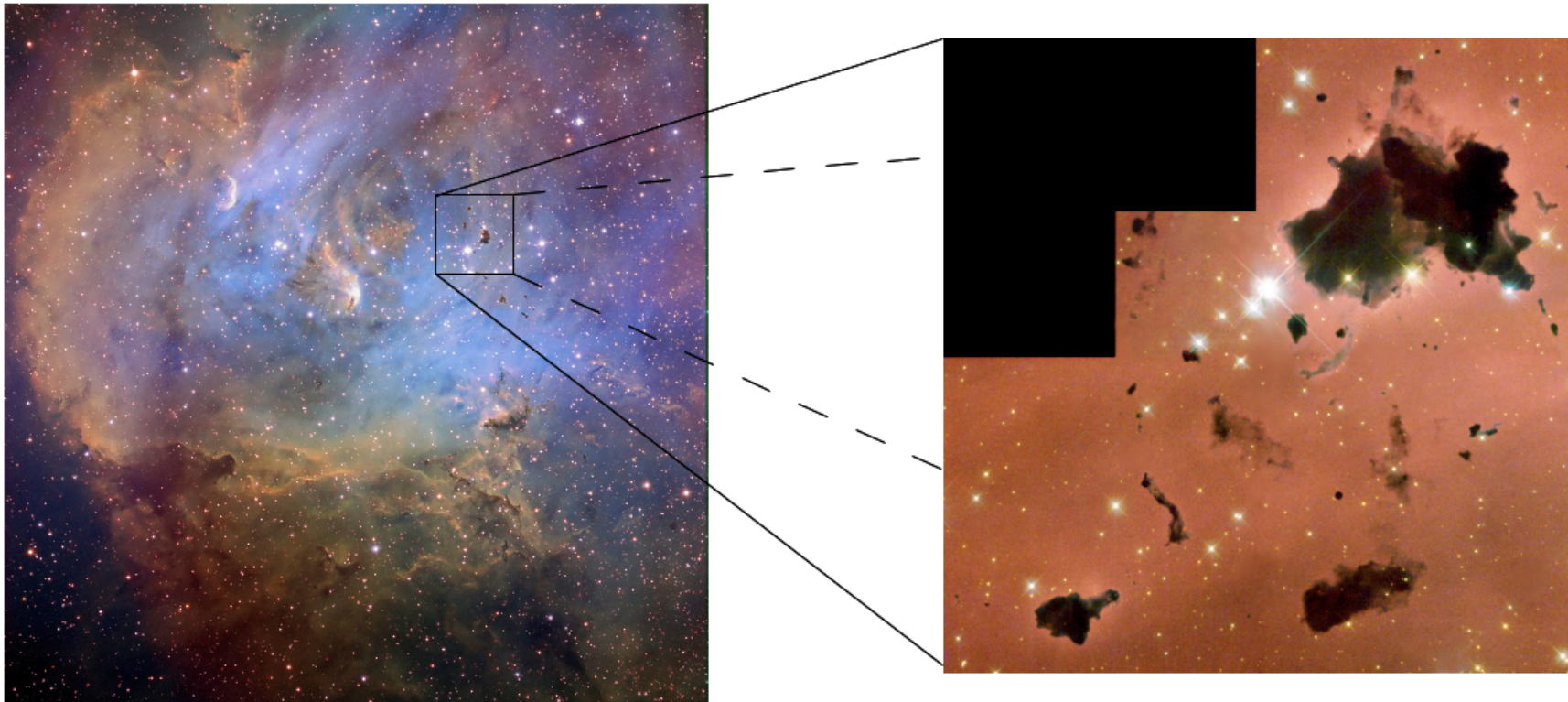
Sizes	10-100	parsecs
Mass	$10^2 - 10^6$	solar masses

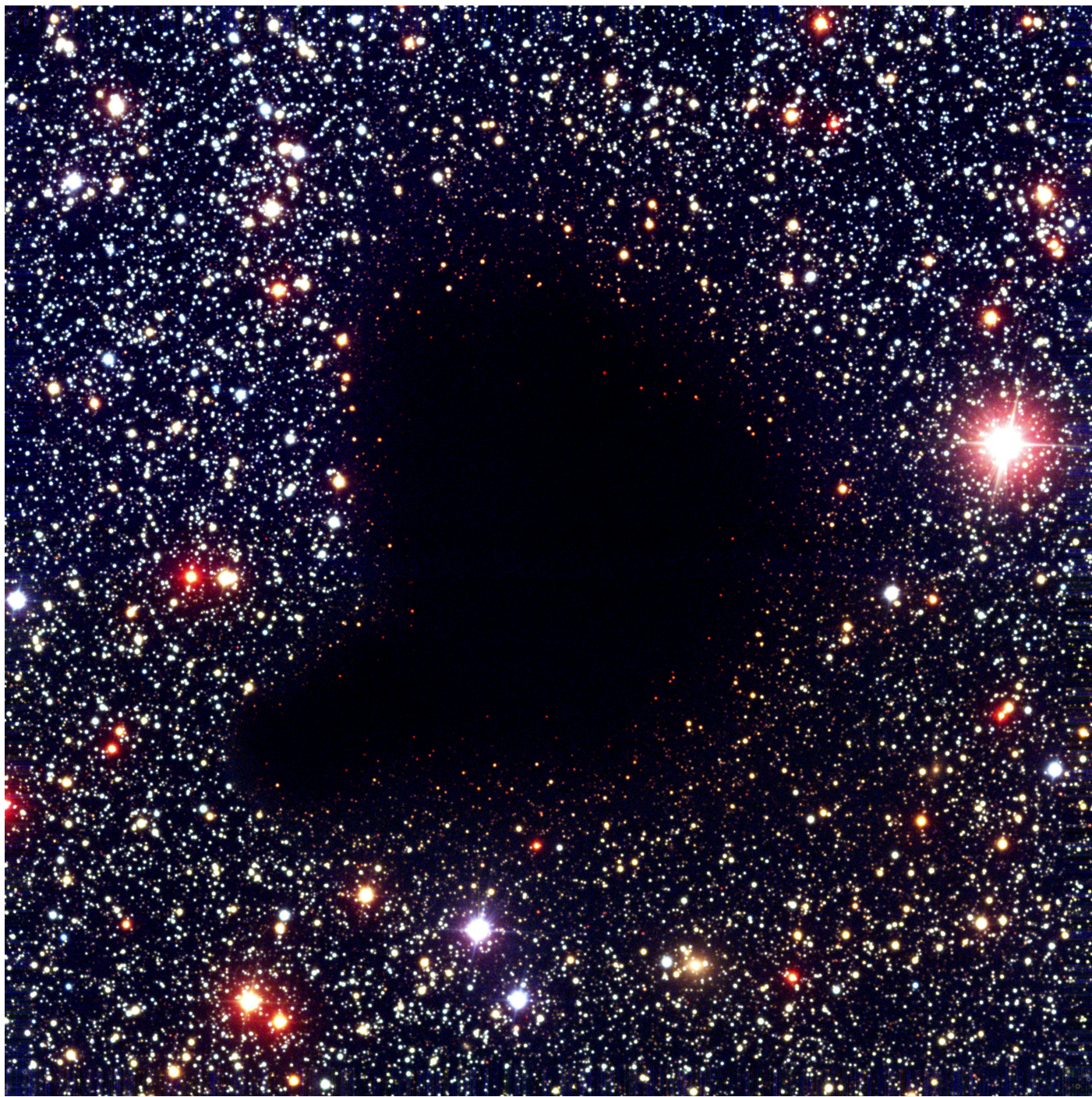
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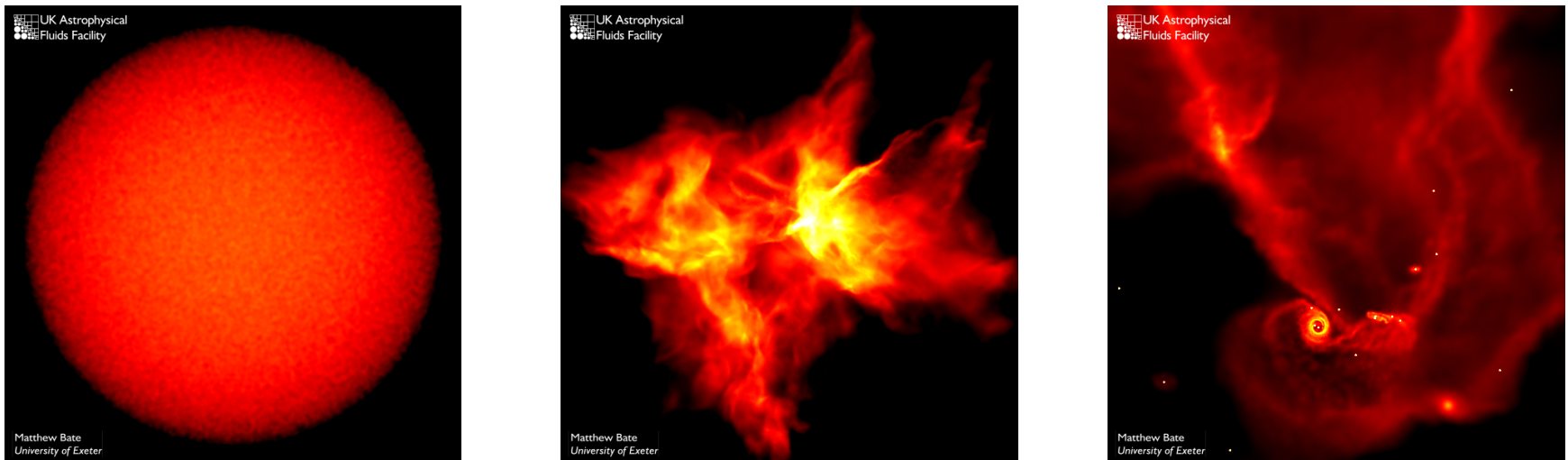
Even the average density of Molecular Clouds is too low.

Star formation occurs in the ***densest parts of the cloud only.***





Star Formation

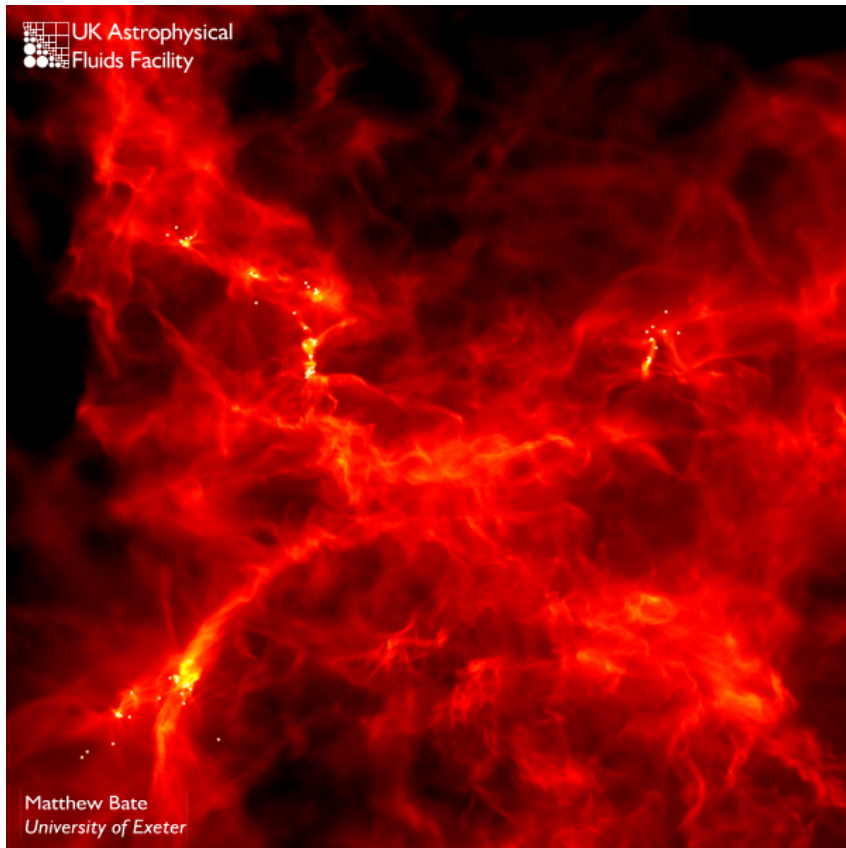


time →

A Molecular cloud fragments into a clumpy structure of high and low density regions

The densest clumps are massive enough to undergo [gravitational collapse](#) and form stars

Star Formation



Computer simulation



Observation



The Orion Nebula  HUBBLESITE.org

Visible • WFPC2

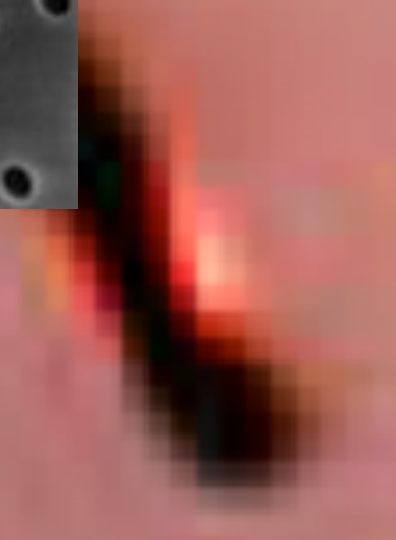
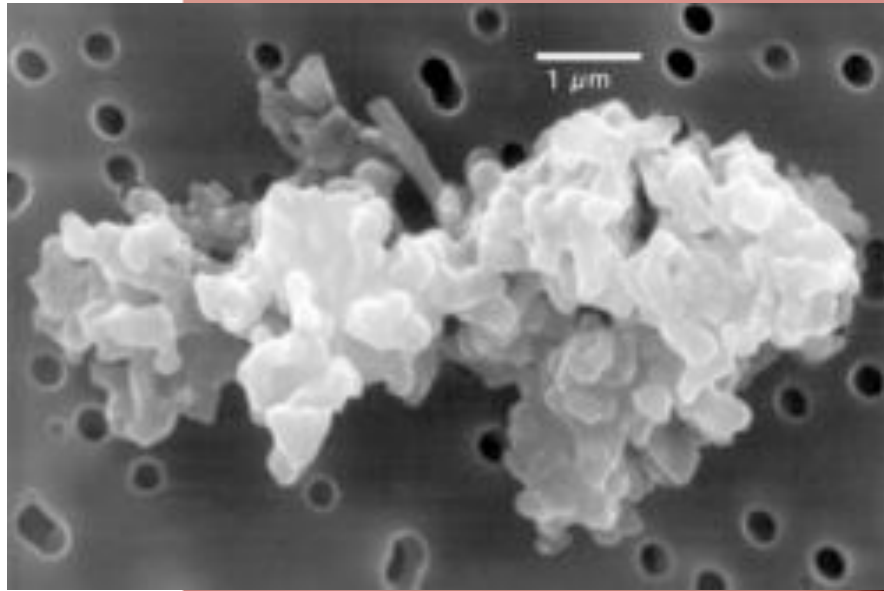


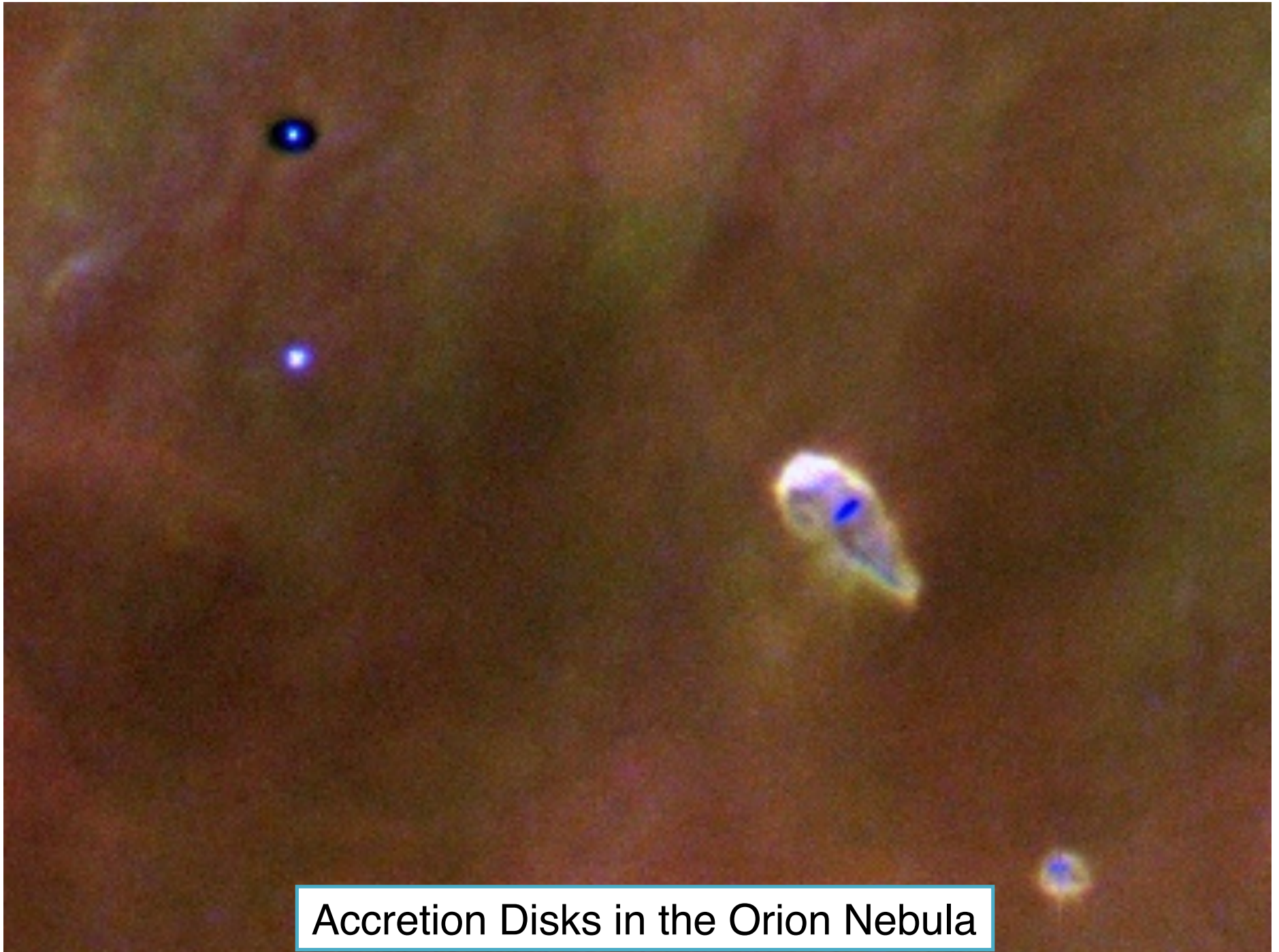
Infrared • NICMOS



Trapezium Cluster • Orion Nebula
WFPC2 • Hubble Space Telescope • NICMOS

NASA and K. Luhman (Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics) • STScI-PRC00-19





Accretion Disks in the Orion Nebula

Protoplanetary Disks



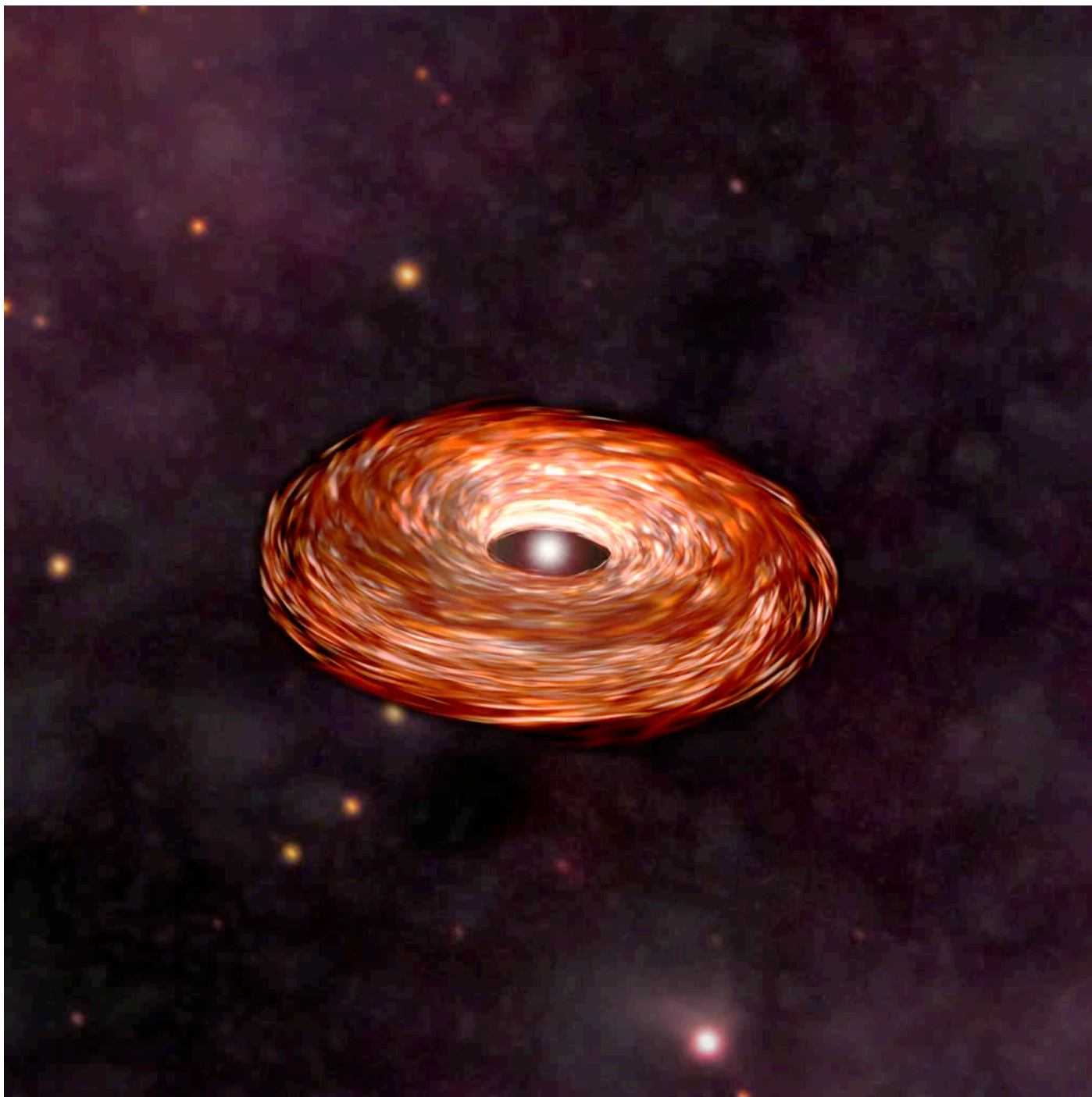
PP disk fact sheet

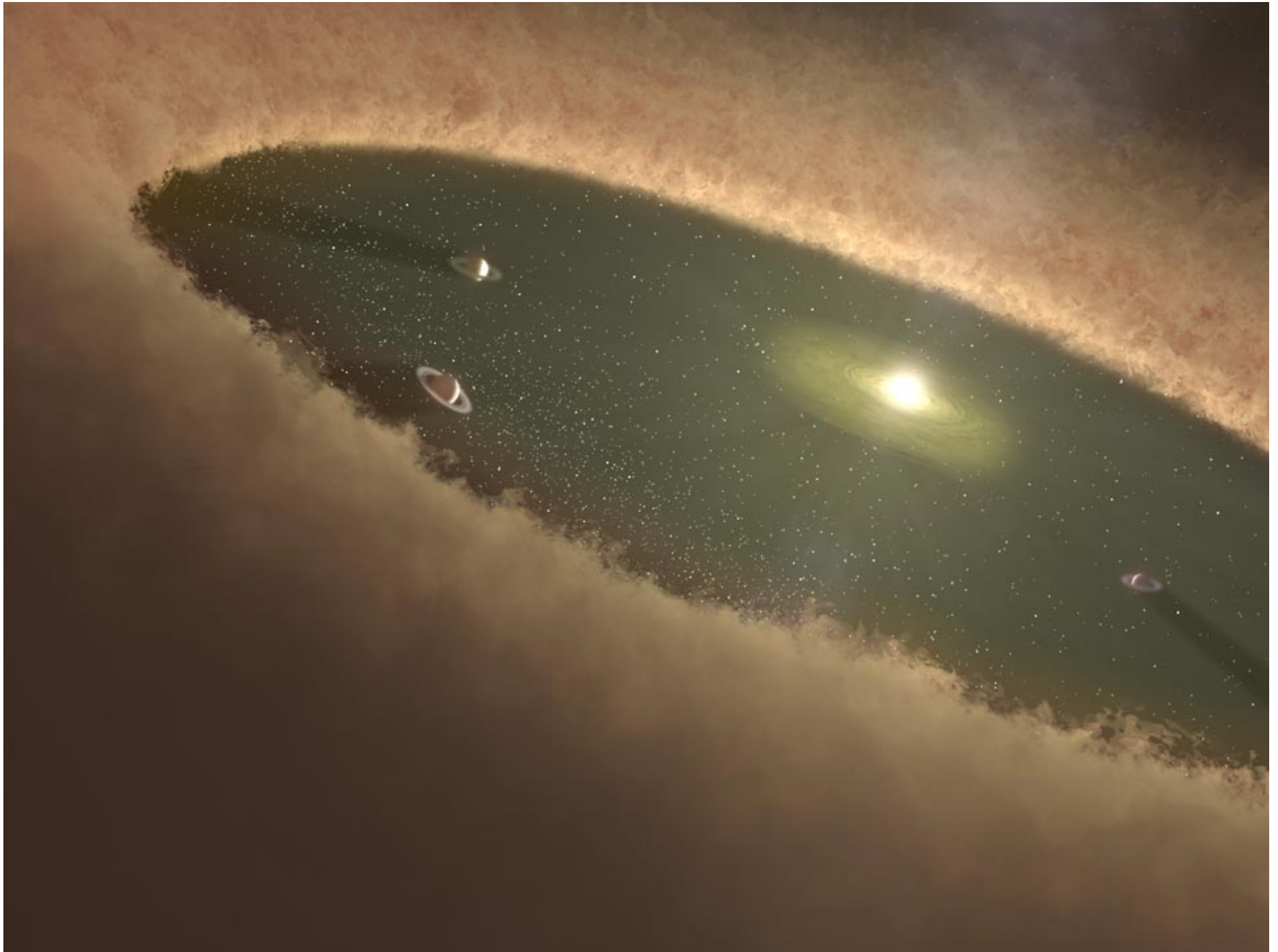
Density: $10^{13} - 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
(Air: 10^{21} cm^{-3})

Temperature: 10-1000 K

Scale: 0.1-100AU
(1 AU = $1.49 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}$)

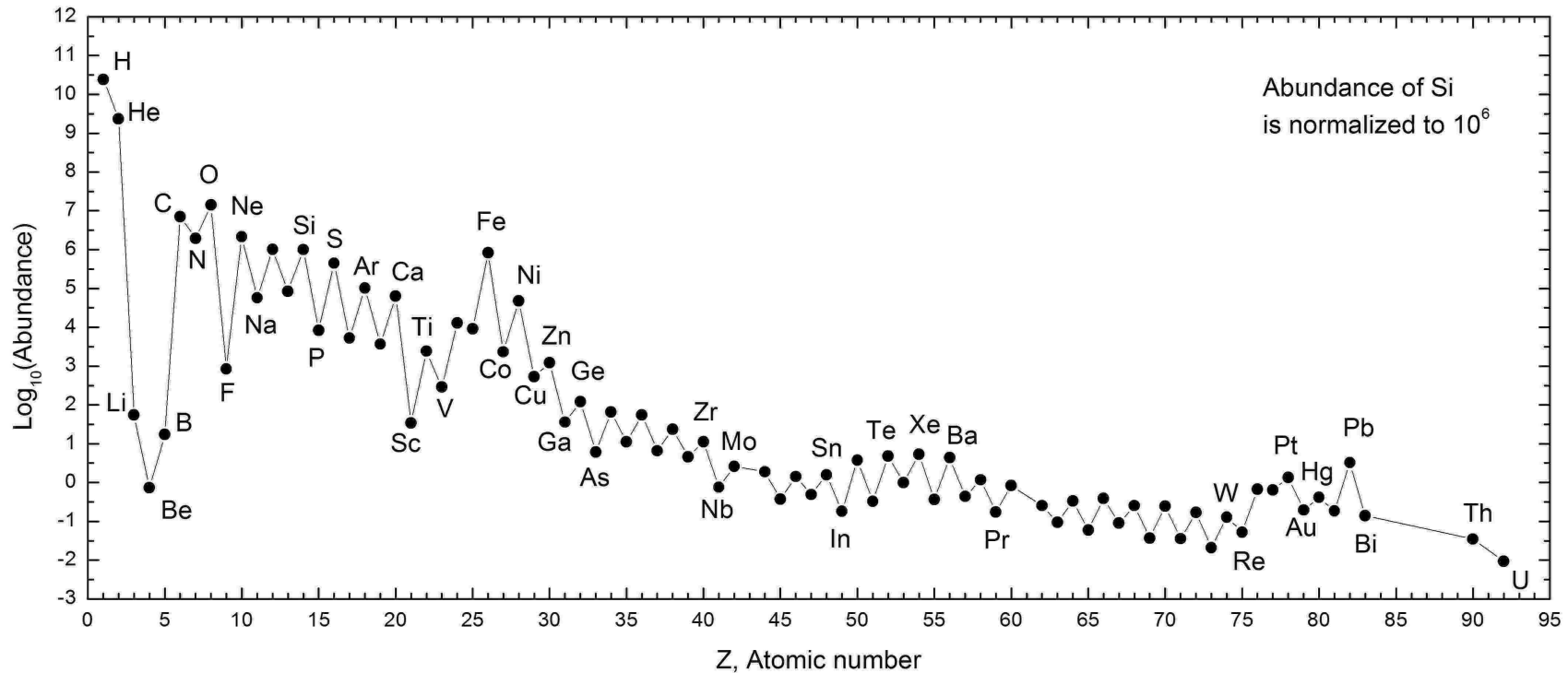
Mass: $10^{-3} - 10^{-1} M_{\text{sun}}$
(1 M_{sun} = $2 \times 10^{33} \text{ g}$)





Chemical Composition

The chemical composition of the Sun



Most abundant elements, in order:

H (71%) He (27%)

O (1.04%) C (0.46%)

Ne (0.13%) Fe (0.11%) N (0.1%)

Si (0.06%), Mg (0.05%), S (0.04%)

What will the chemistry of the mixture be?

H (71%)

He (27%)

O (1.04%)

C (0.46%)

Ne (0.13%)

Fe (0.11%)

N (0.1%)

Si (0.06%)

Volatiles

Refractory

What will the chemistry of the mixture be?

[illegible]
$$\text{H}_2$$

He

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}$$
$$\text{CH}_4$$

Ne

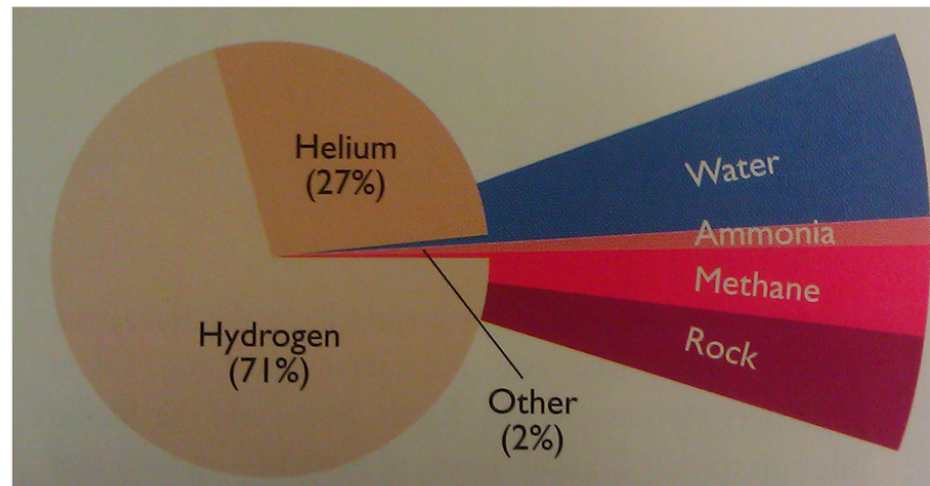
$$\text{NH}_3$$

Fe, Si

What will the chemistry of the mixture be?

H (71%)
He (27%)
O (1.04%)
C (0.46%)
Ne (0.13%)
Fe (0.11%)
N (0.1%)
Si (0.06%)

H₂ He
H₂O - Water
CH₄ - Methane
Ne
NH₃ - Ammonia
Fe, Si – Rocks (metals and silicates)



Classes of planets

Rocky Planets

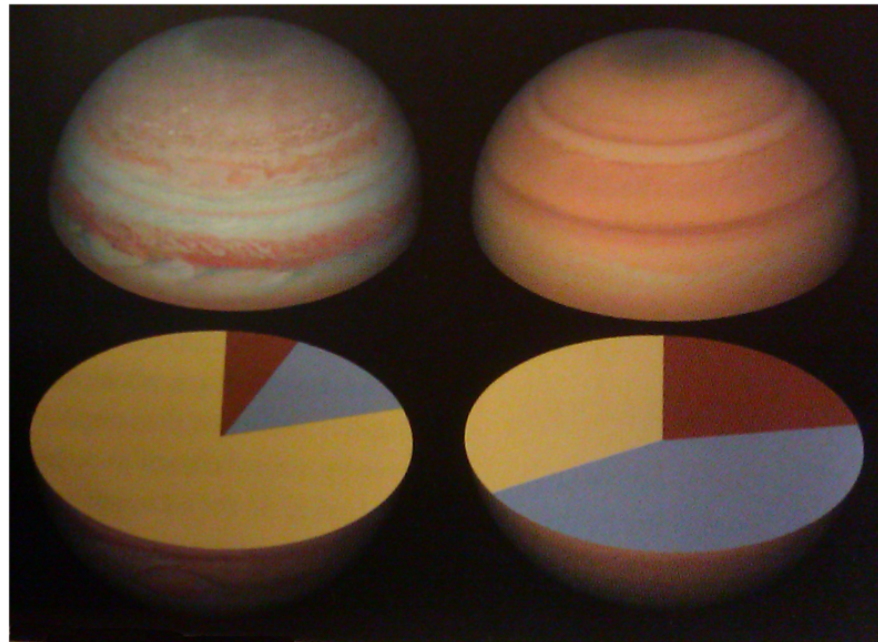
Earth



Gas Giants

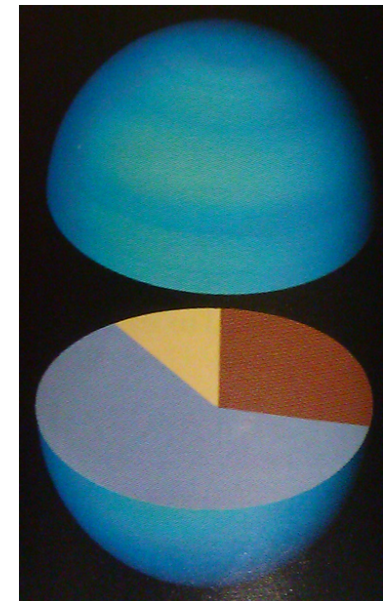
Jupiter

Saturn

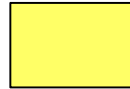


Ice Giants

Uranus/Neptune



Rock

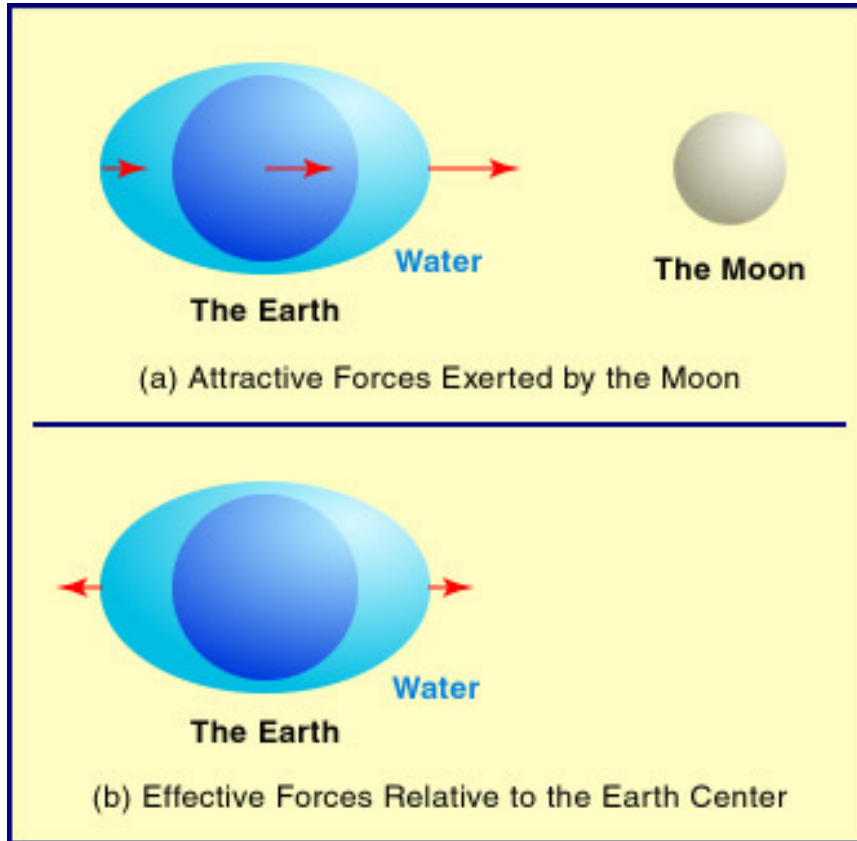


Gas



Ice

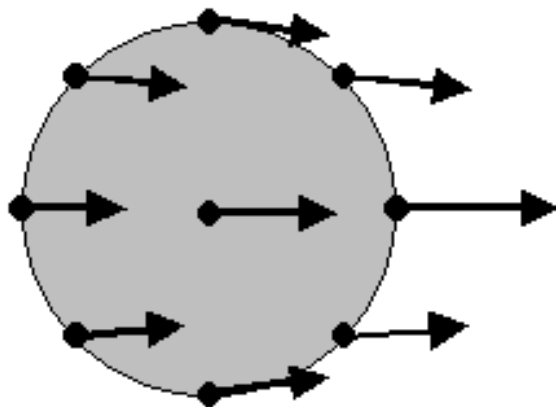
Tides



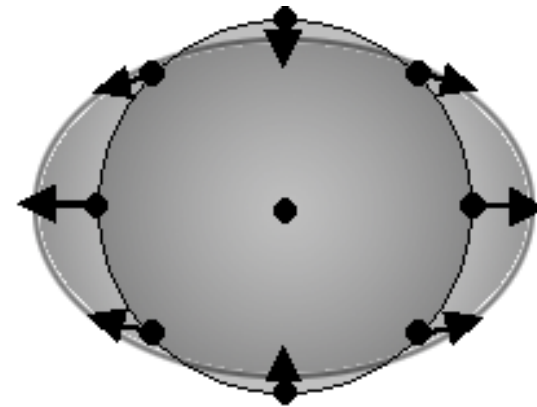
The side closer to the Moon experiences a greater pull than the side further out.

The effective result is a *differential* force we call **Tidal Force**.

Tides



Forces relative to the
Sun (or primary body)



Forces relative to the
center of the Earth

Tidal locking

Earth's bulk rotates **once a day**.

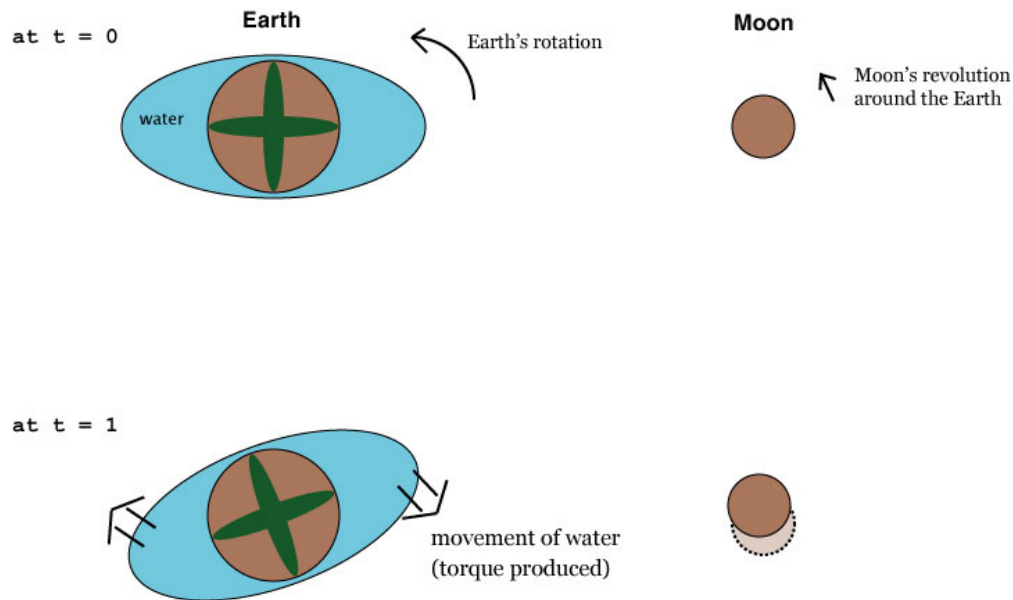
Tidal bulge rotates with the
Moon's orbital period: **once a month**.

GENERATES FRICTION

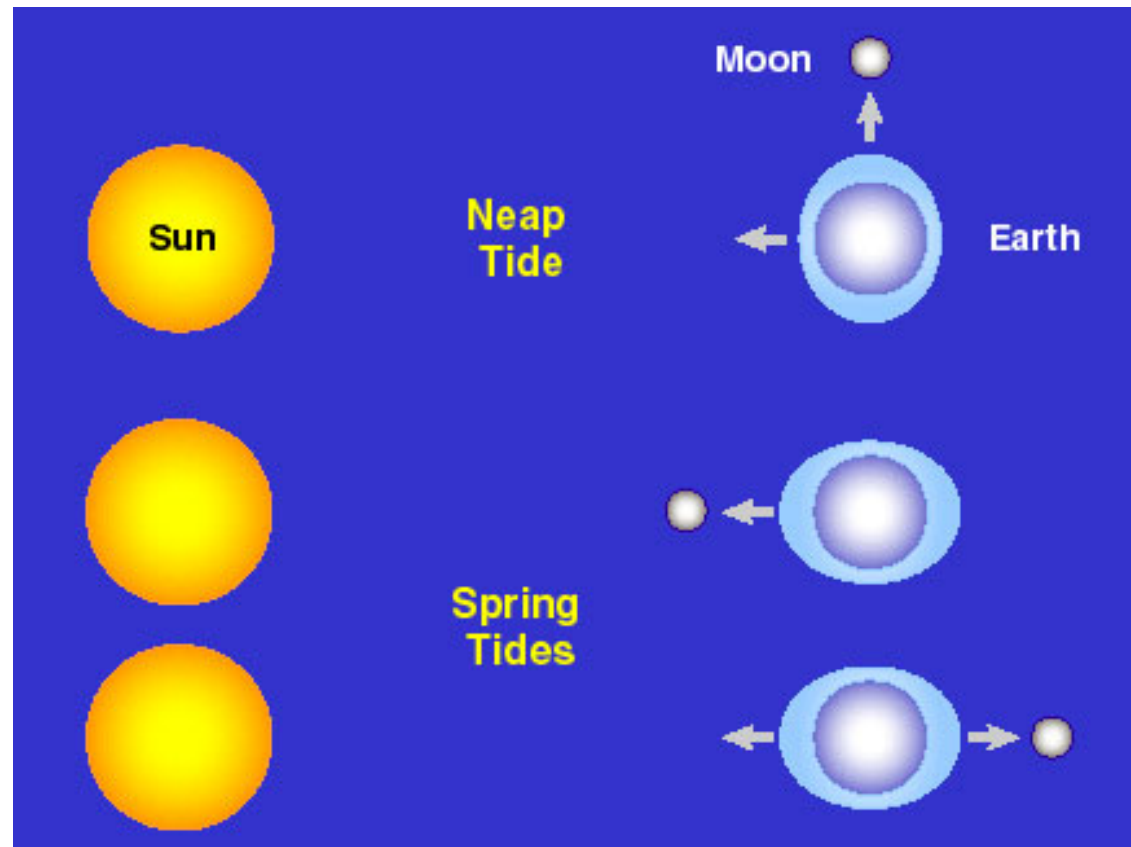
Works as a **brake** that
slows down Earth's rotation

The process will continue until
Earth's rotational period
equals the
orbital period of the Moon.

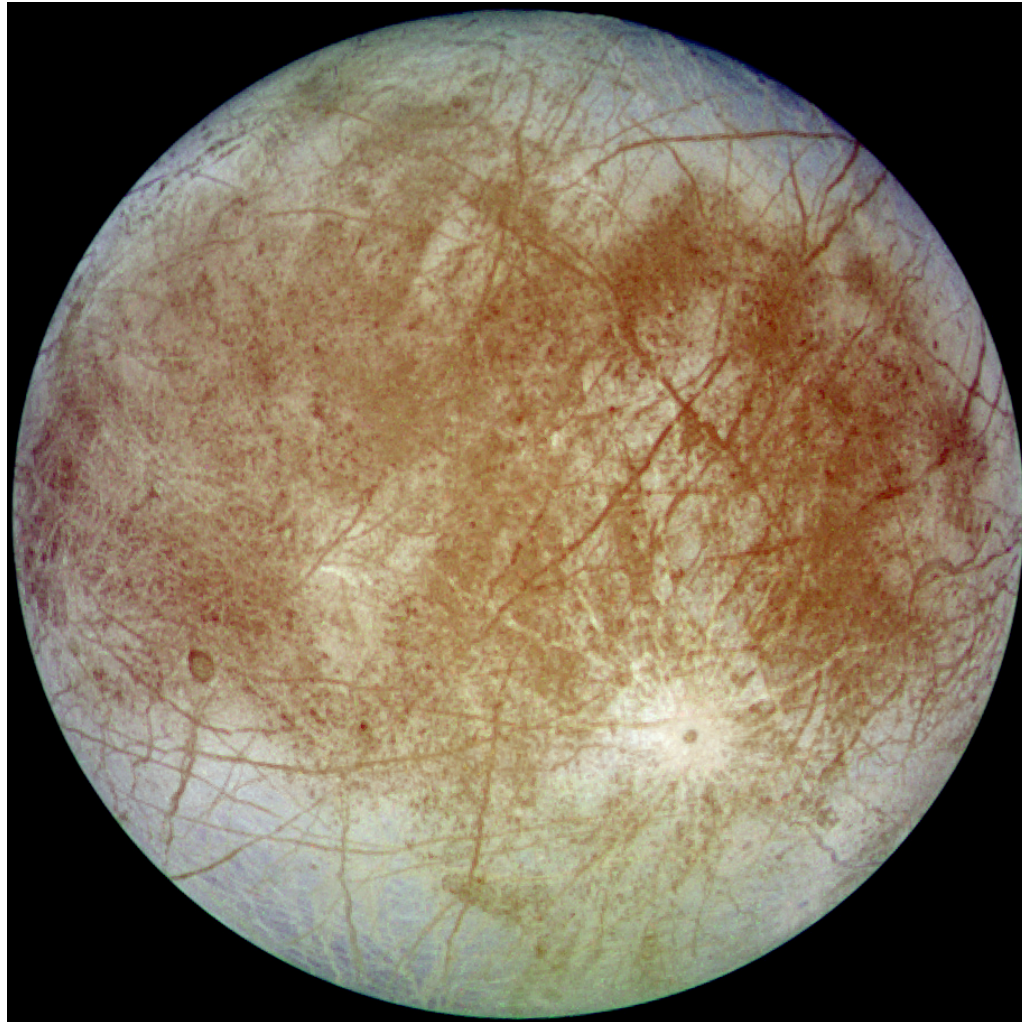
(The Earth has already tidally locked
the Moon long ago.)



Tides

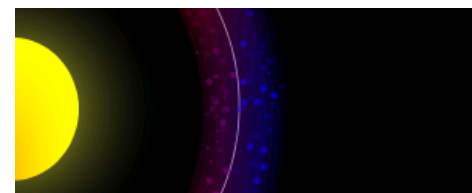
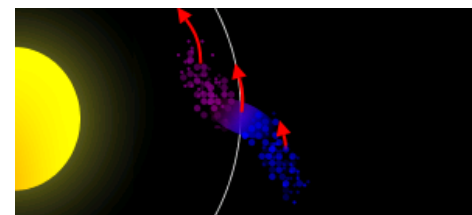
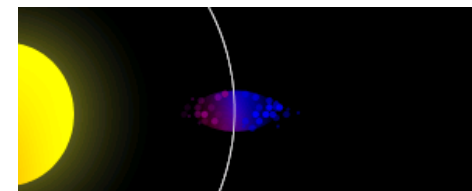
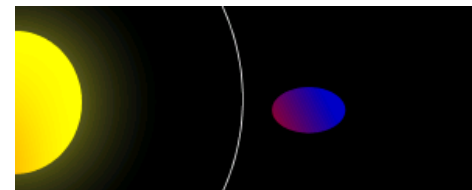


Europa

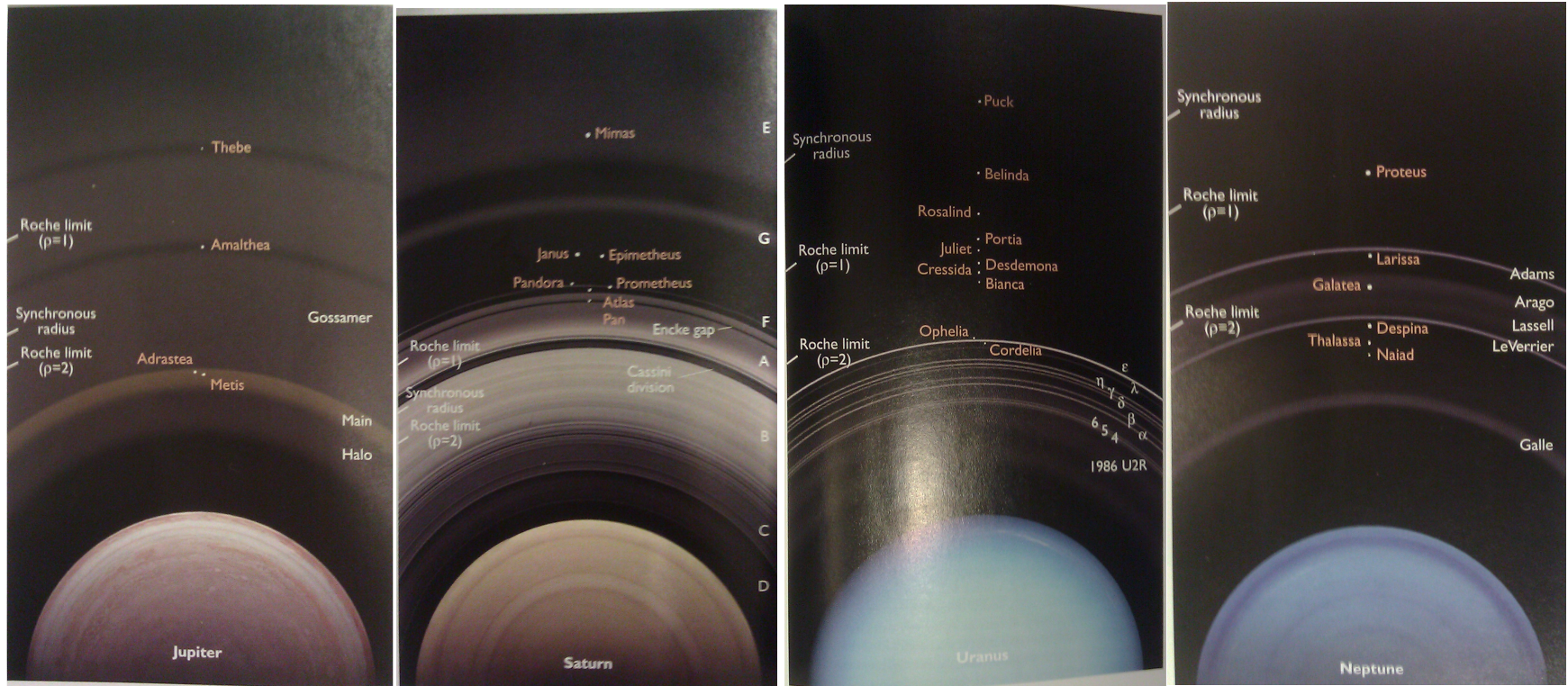


Roche Limit

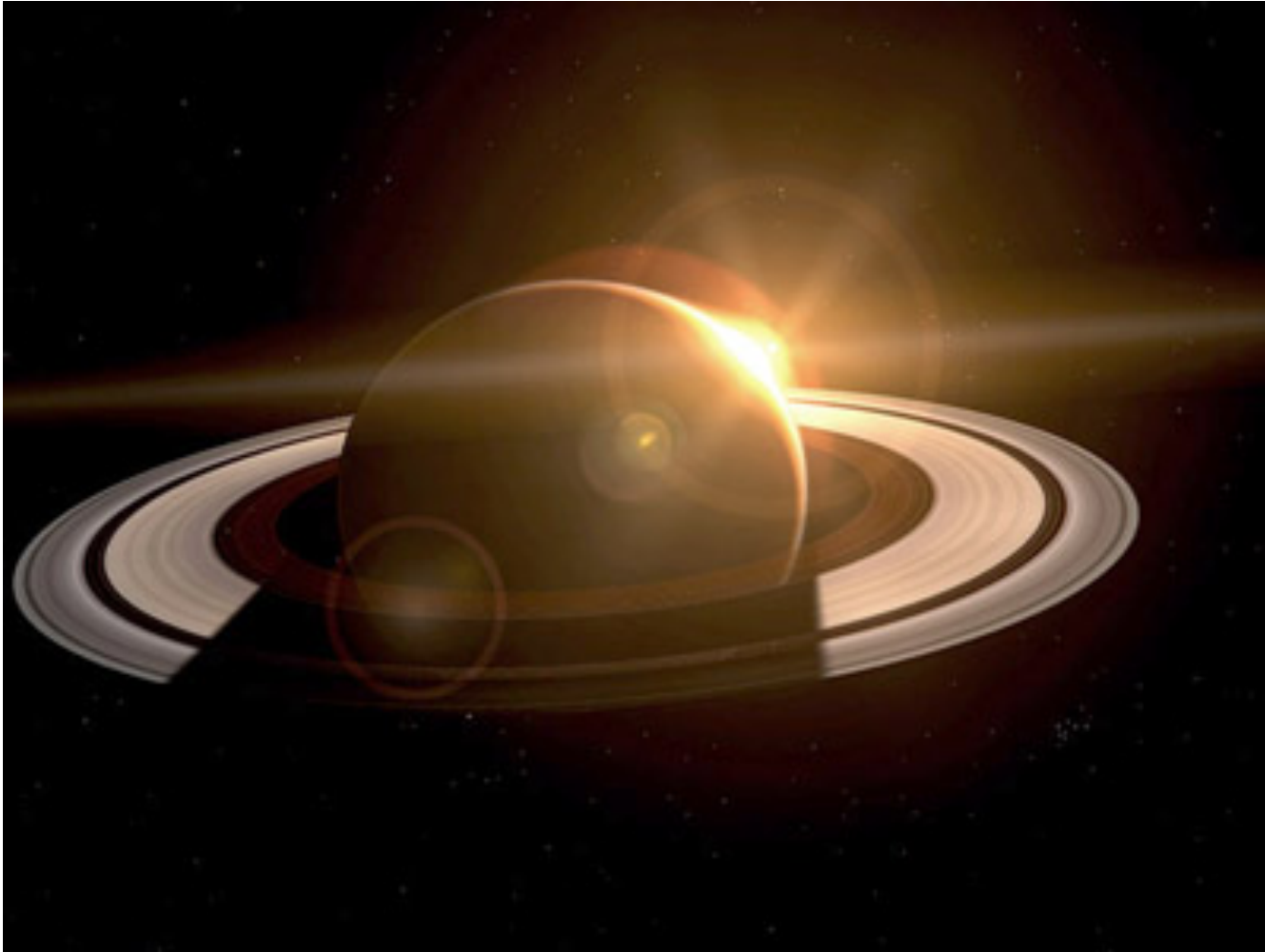
Limit where the
tidal force is **stronger** than the **internal forces**
holding the body together



All ring systems are inside their planet's Roche limit

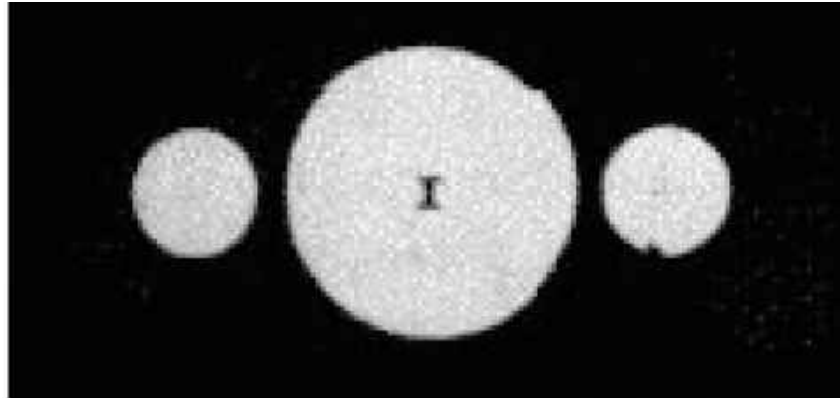


Planetary Rings



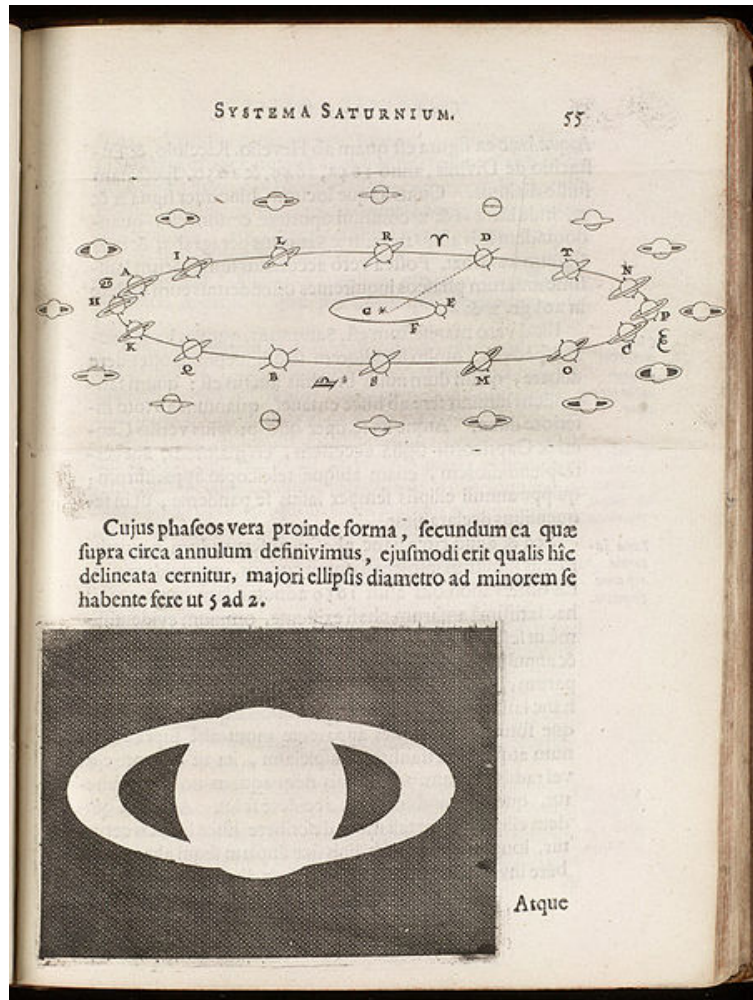
Planetary Rings

Galileo's drawing, 1610.

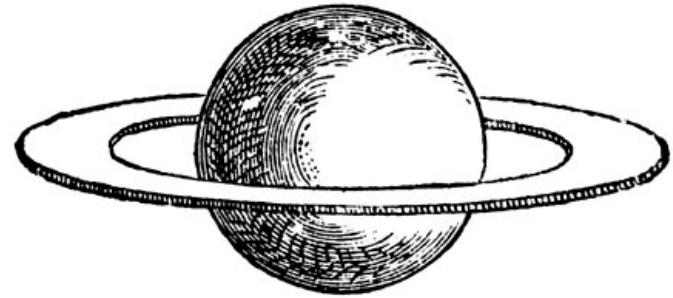


“I do not know what to say in a case
so surprising, so unlooked for, so novel.”

Planetary Rings



Huygens's drawings, 1659.

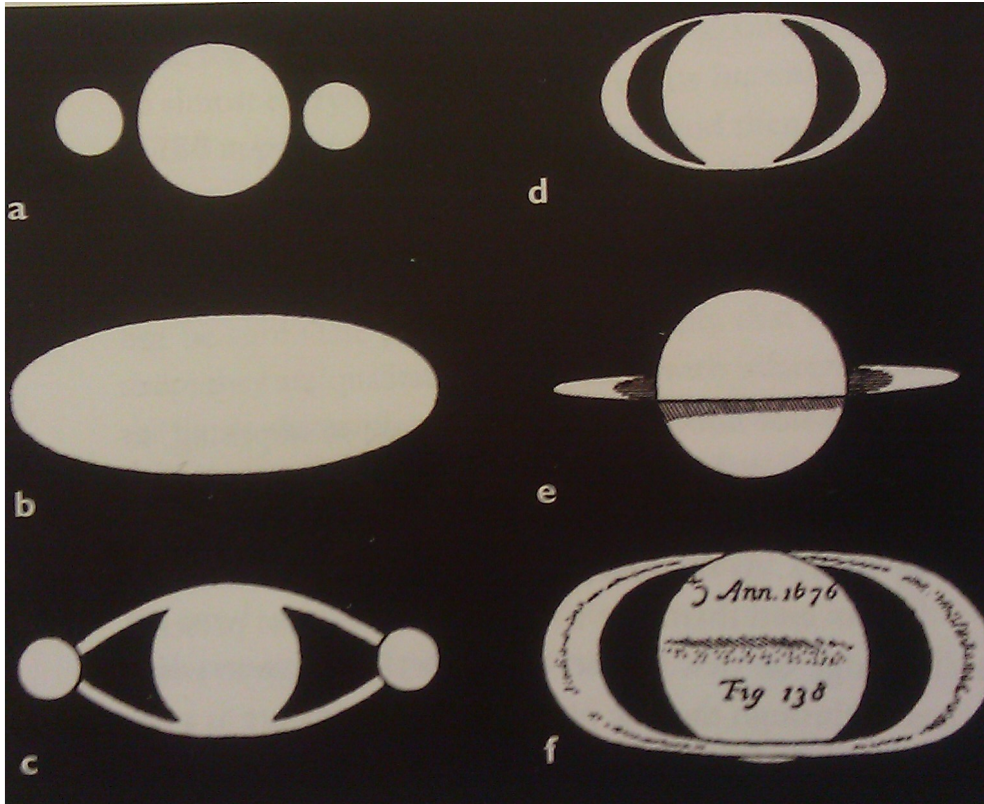


“Saturn is surrounded by a thin flat disk,
nowhere touching the planet”

Planetary Rings

Other drawings from the 17th century

Galileo, 1610



Riccioli, 1648

Gassendi, 1634

Huygens, 1655

Fontana, 1646

Cassini, 1676

Planetary Rings

What are these rings???

Solid? Liquid? Particulate?

Planetary Rings

Maxwell's proof



James Clerk Maxwell
(1831-1879)

Planetary Rings

Maxwell's proof

There are some questions in Astronomy, to which we are attracted rather on account of their peculiarity, [...] than from any direct advantage which their solution would afford to mankind.

[...] I am not aware that any practical use has been made of Saturn's Rings [...]

But when we contemplate the Rings from a purely scientific point of view, they become the most remarkable bodies in the heavens. [...] When we have actually seen that great arch swung over the equator of the planet without any visible connection, we cannot bring our minds to rest. [...] We must explain its motion on the principles of mechanics.

[...]

60 pages of calculations

[...]

[...] We conclude, therefore, that the rings must consist of disconnected particles; these may be either solid or liquid, but they must be independent. [...] The final result, therefore, of the mechanical theory is, that the only system of rings which can exist is one composed of an indefinite number of unconnected particles, revolving around the planet with different velocities according to their respective distances.

Prof. Maxwell, on the Stability of Saturn's Rings. 297

By A. Hall.

T 1859, May 29^h 00^m77 Washington M.S.T.

Log g 9.503310

u 281 58 10.7 or $\alpha = 75^{\circ} 9' 46''$

Ω 357 7 56.8

i 95 50 56.8 i = 84 9 3.2

Motion Retrograde.

The comet will probably be visible after its perihelion passage.

On the Stability of the Motion of Saturn's Rings; an Essay which obtained the Adams' Prize for the Year 1856, in the University of Cambridge. By J. Clerk Maxwell, M.A. late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge: Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Marischal College and University of Aberdeen. Cambridge: Macmillan and Co., 1859.

The following abstract of an important paper has been kindly drawn up by the Astronomer Royal for the use of the readers of the *Monthly Notices*:—

The remarkable essay of which we have given the title was published in the beginning of the present year. The subject of it is so interesting, the difficulty of treating it in its utmost generality so considerable, and the results at which the author arrives so curious, that we think a brief abstract of it will be acceptable to the readers of the *Monthly Notices*. We shall commence with a very imperfect reference to preceding investigations on the same subject.

The first to which we shall allude is Laplace's, in the *Mécanique Céleste*, livre III. chapitre vi. Laplace considers a ring of *Saturn* as a solid, the form of which is investigated as if it were fluid (a mode of treatment whose result, in respect of the form of equilibrium, is evidently good for a solid), and finds, that if the breadth and thickness of the ring are very small in comparison with its distance from *Saturn*, its section may be an ellipse; and it appears that the formula for the proportion of the axes of the ellipse admits of its being considerably flattened. But Laplace rather inclines to the supposition that there are several rings, each existing by its own proper theory. Then remarking on the appearances noticed by some observers which seem to indicate irregularities in the rings, he adds, "J'ajoute que ces inégalités sont nécessaires pour maintenir l'anneau en équilibre autour de *Saturne*," and gives an in-

Planetary Rings

Why only Saturn has rings?

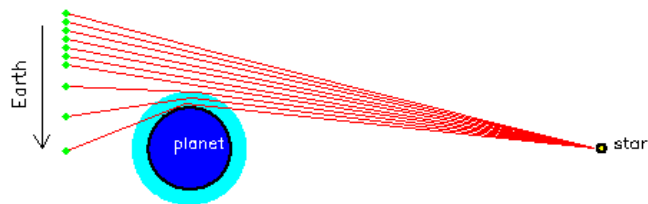
Carl Sagan

Rings of Uranus

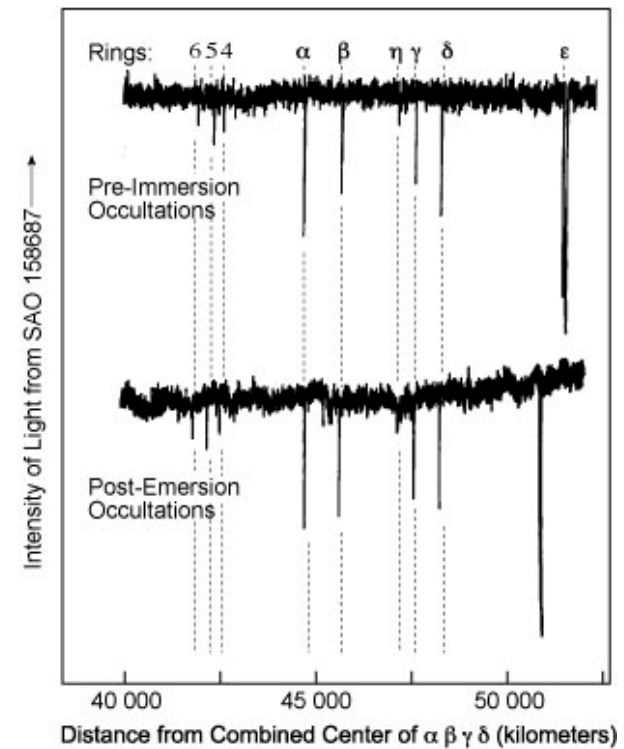
Occultations



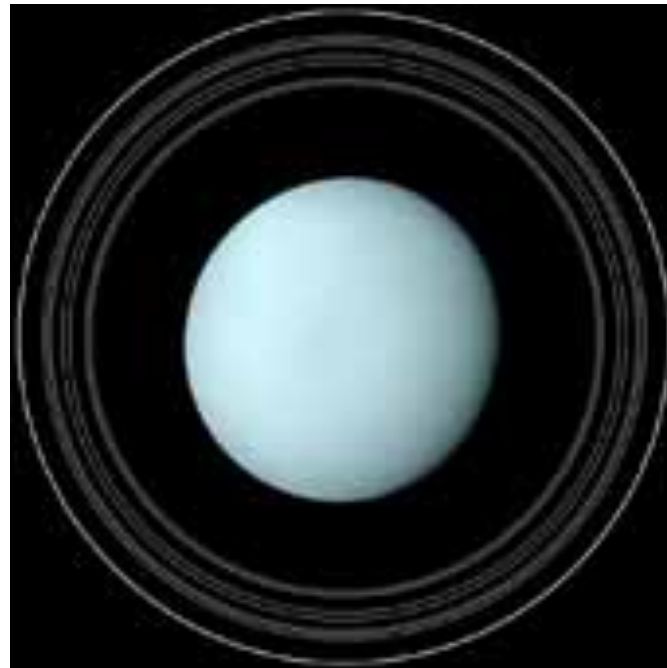
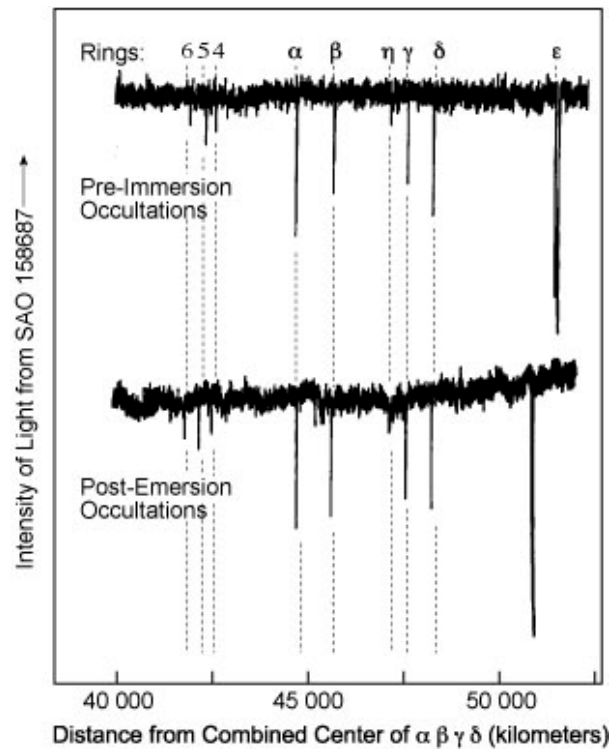
stellar occultation



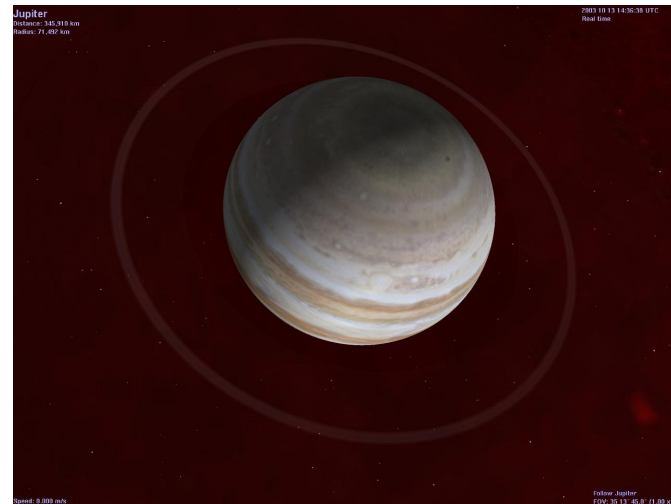
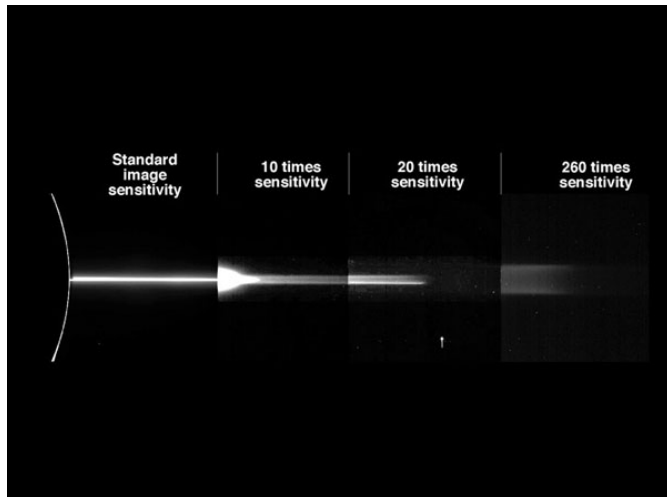
Uranus occults a star



Rings of Uranus

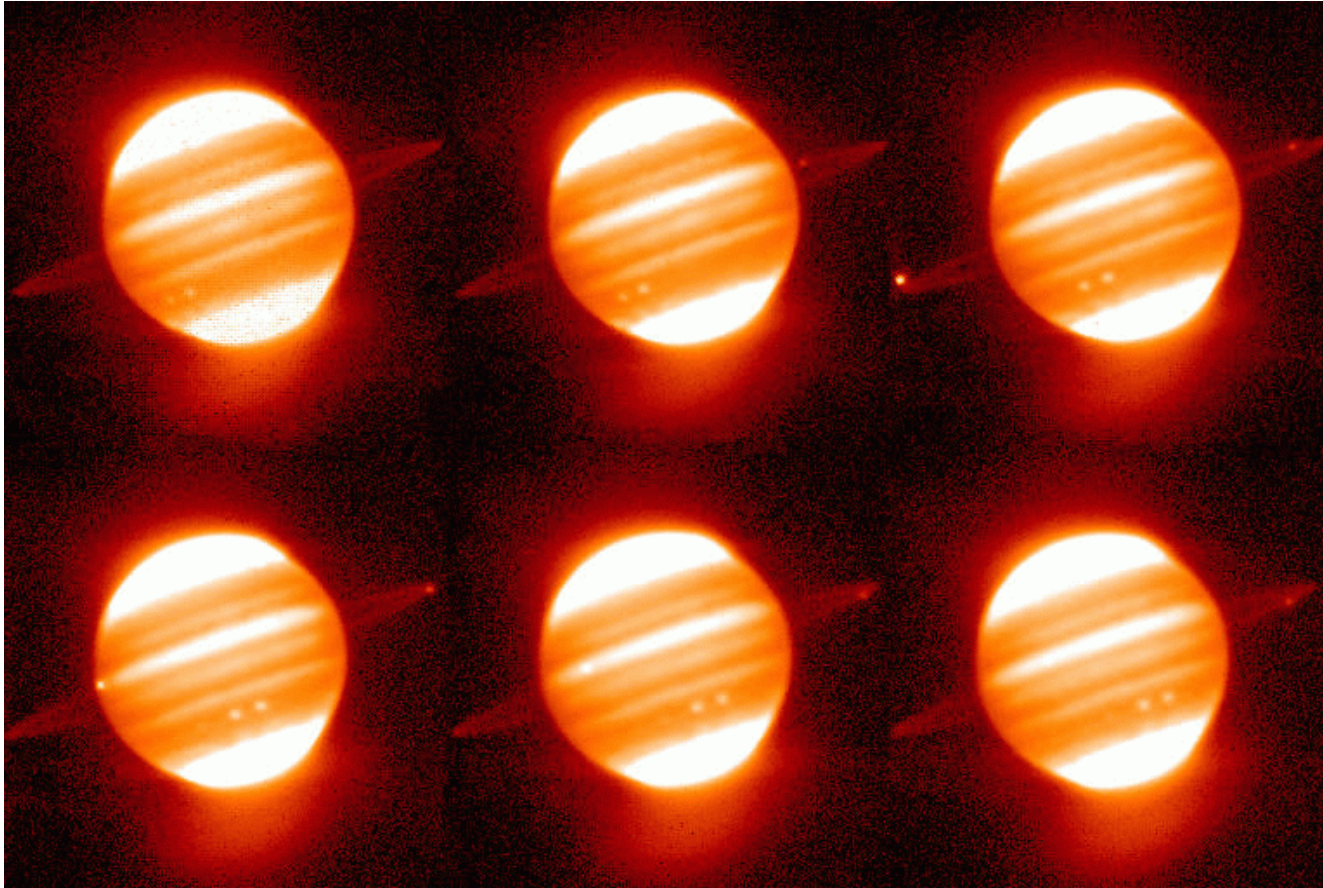


Rings of Jupiter



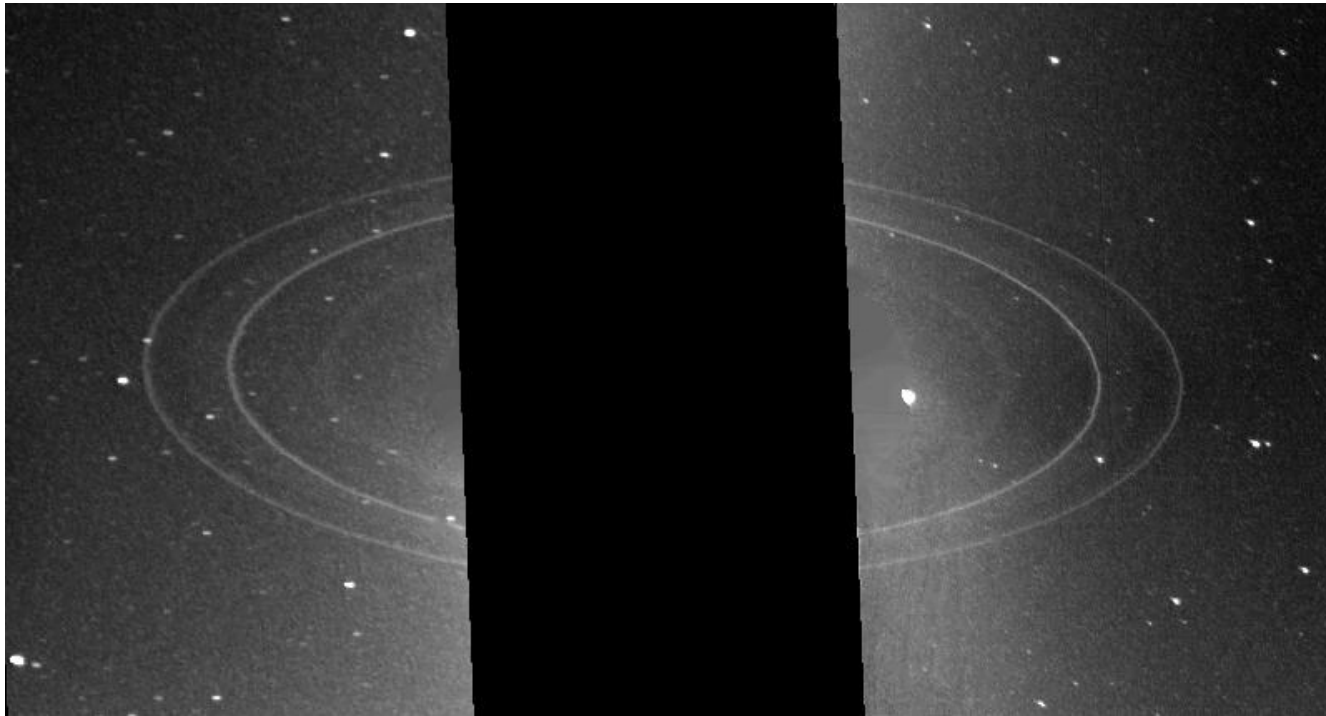
A **very faint** ring system
discovered by Voyager 1.

Rings of Jupiter



**Viewed with Keck,
with a methane filter.**

Rings of Neptune



A **very faint** ring system,
similar to Jupiter's rings
discovered by Voyager 2.

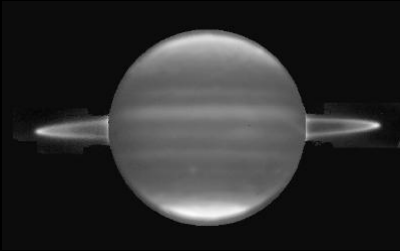
Rings of Neptune



Arcs!!!

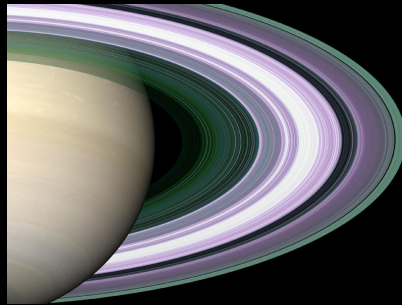
Ring Systems

Jupiter



Fine, diffuse dust,
very dark.

Saturn



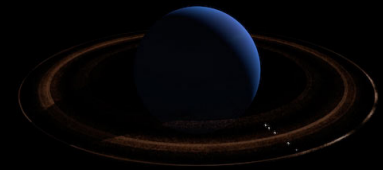
Icy boulders,
very bright.

Uranus



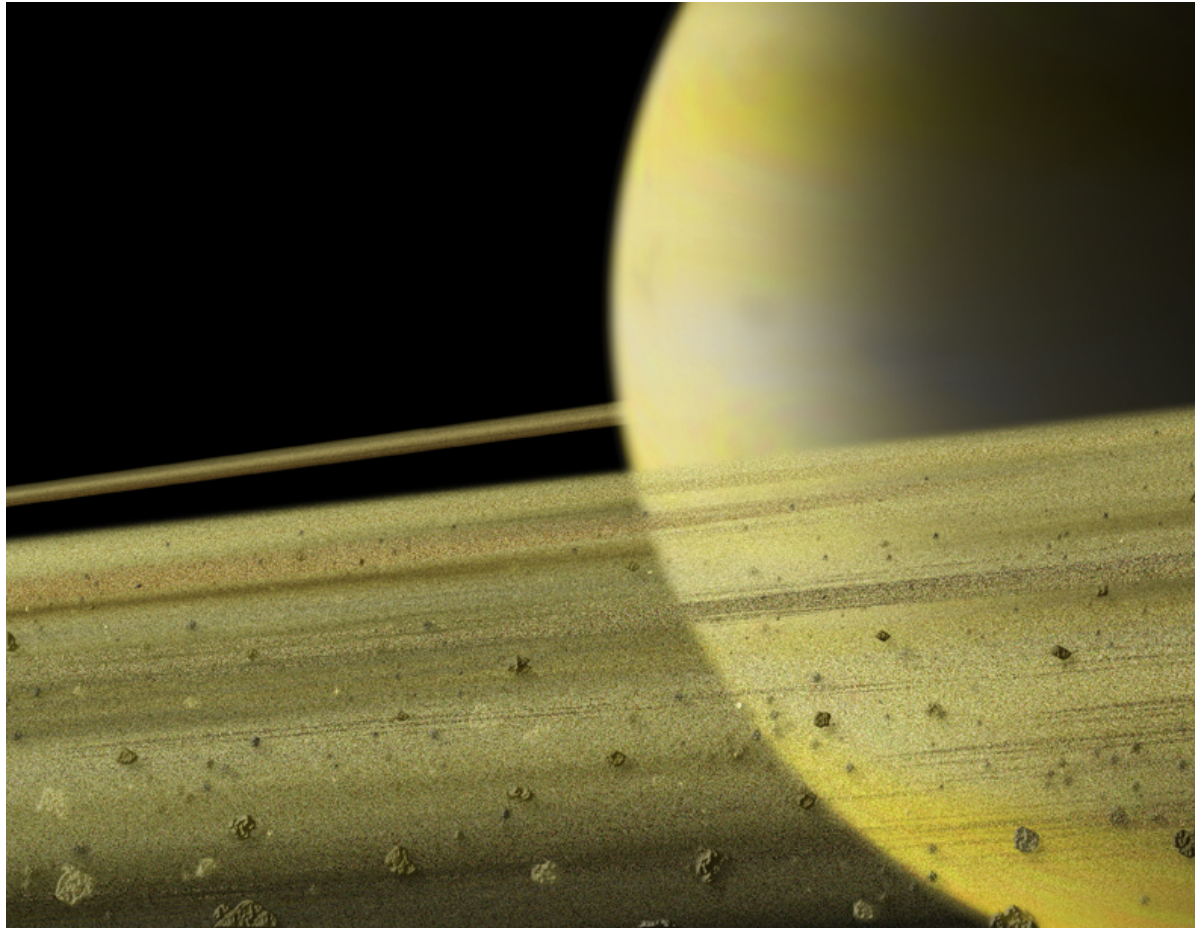
Rocky boulders,
dark.

Neptune



Pebbles (?)
Dark and reddish (?)

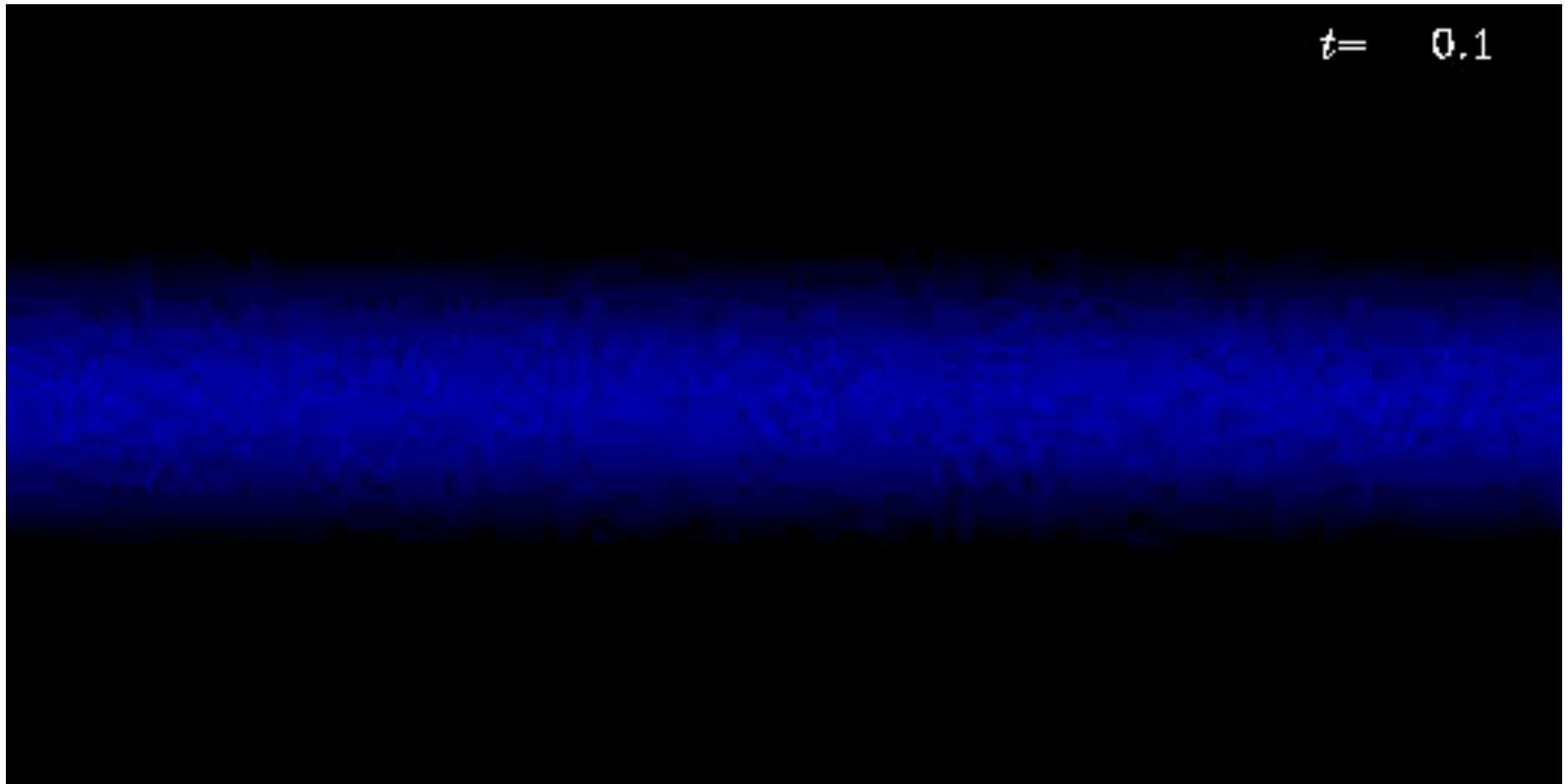
Ring formation: Competing theories



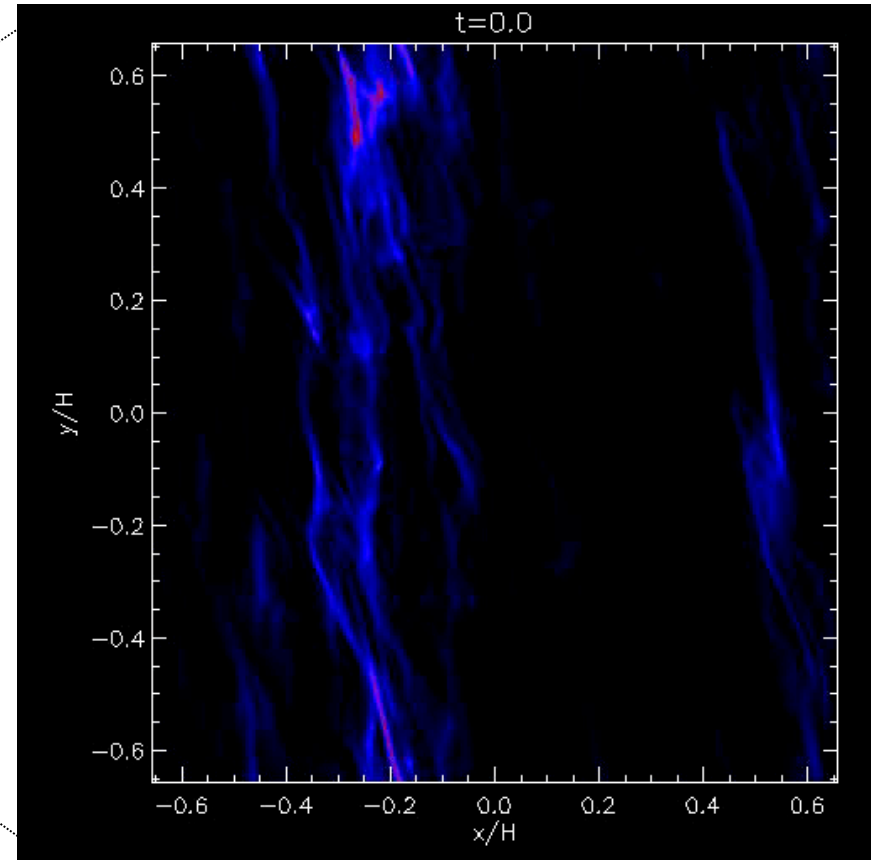
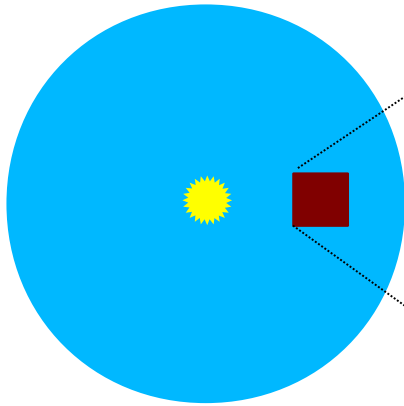
1). Moon that got too close

2). Leftover material that could not
coalesce into moons

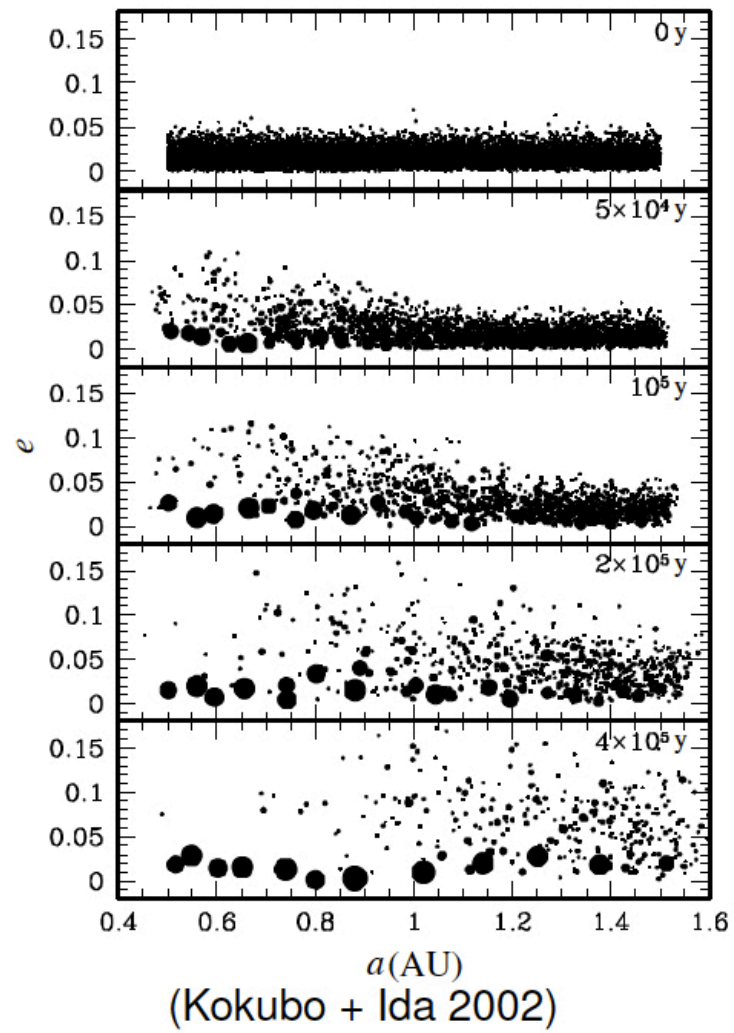
Sedimentation



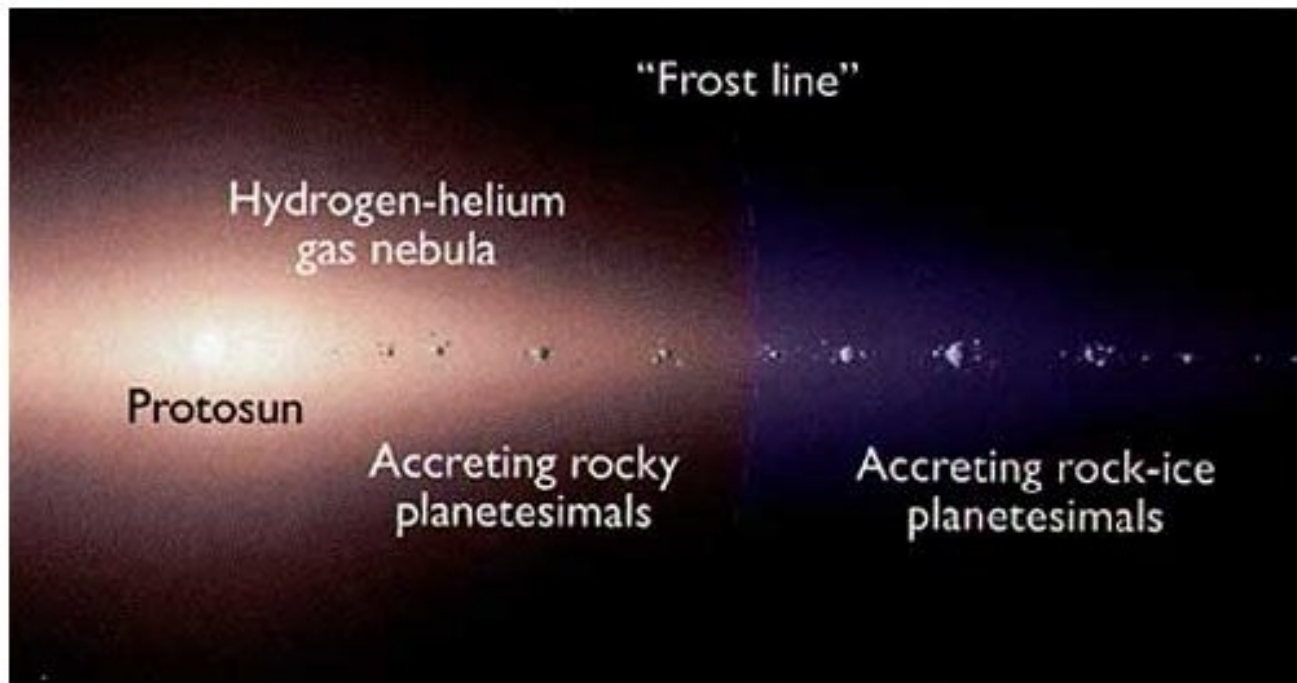
Gravitational collapse into planetesimals



Oligarchs



The Snowline

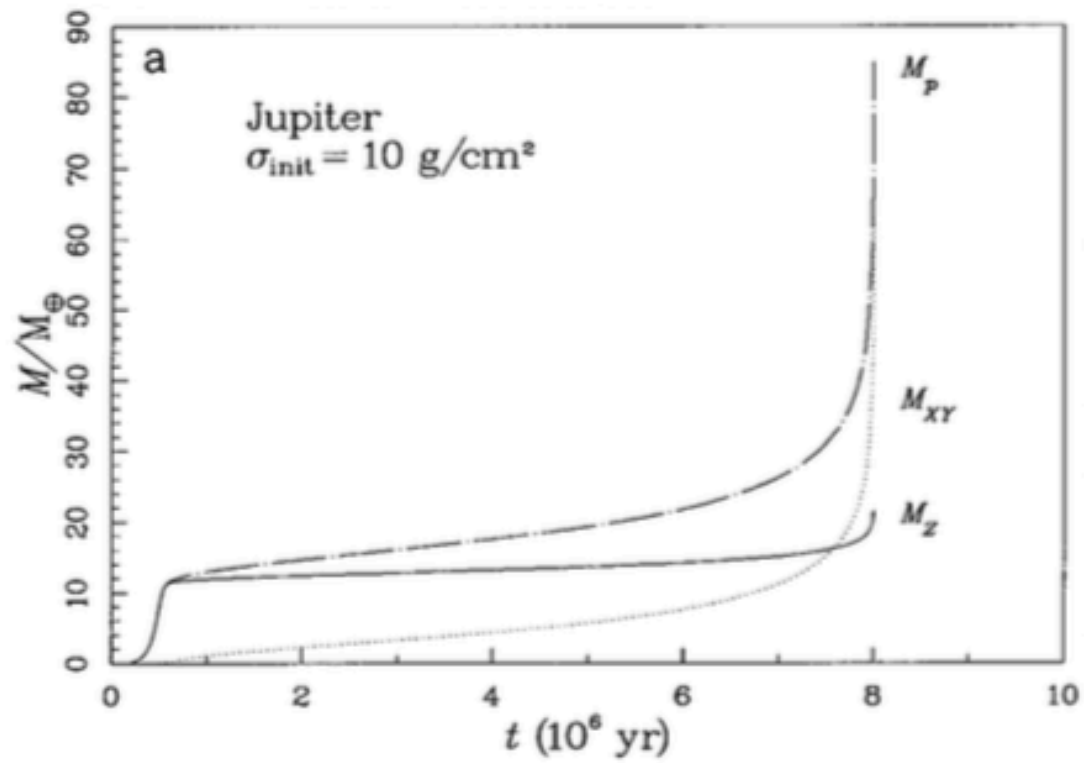


Volatiles in gas phase

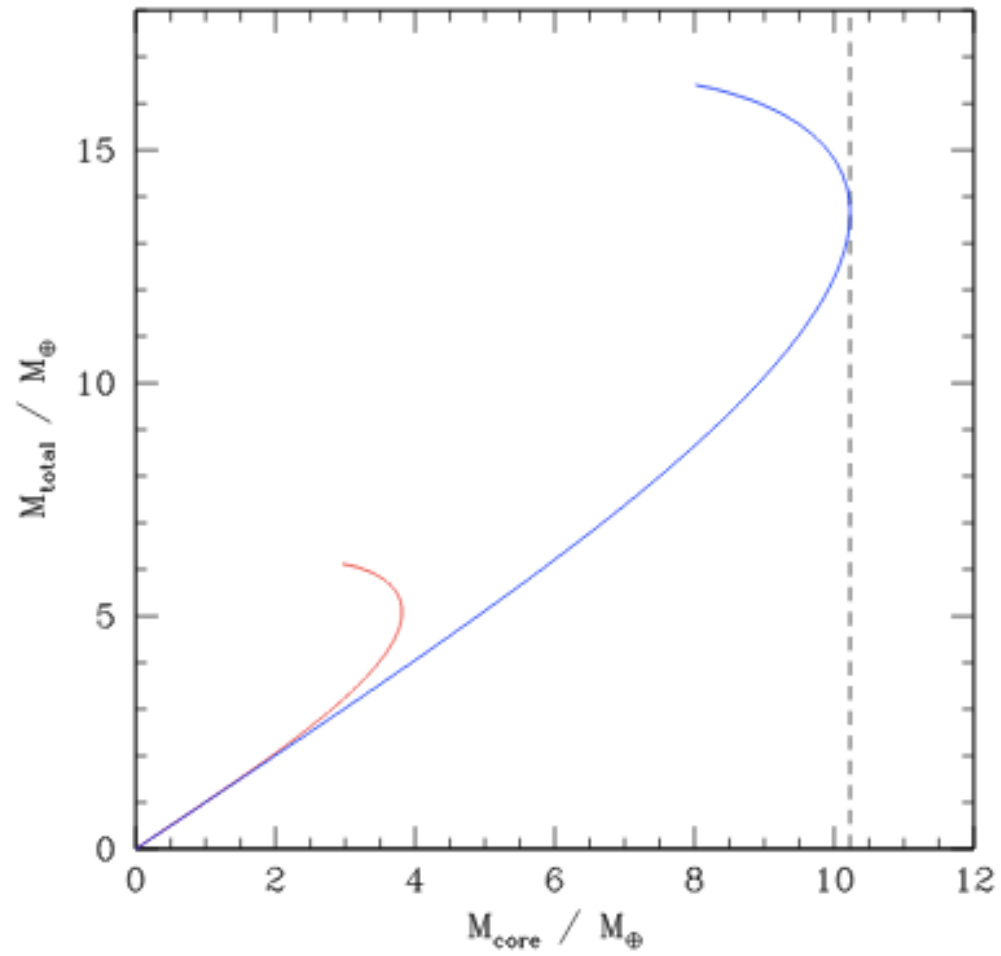
Volatiles in solid phase

Colder than $\sim 150\text{K}$, the volatiles (H_2O , CH_4 , NH_3)
condense into **ices**.

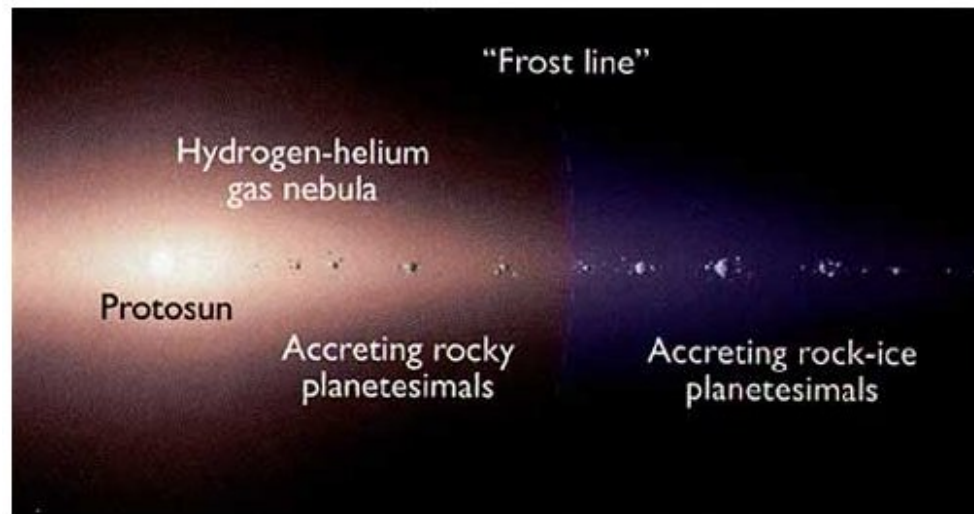
Core Accretion



Critical core mass



Formation



Volatiles in gas phase

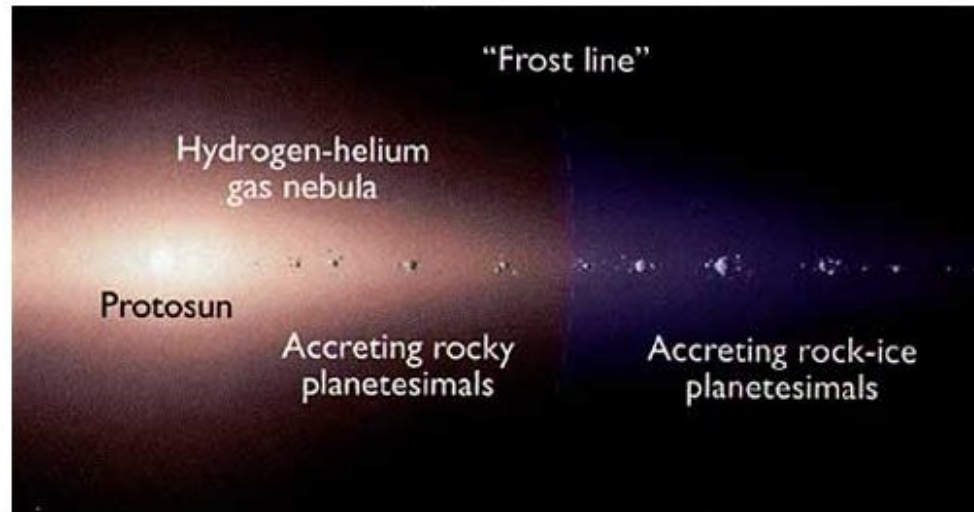
Volatiles in solid phase

Colder than $\sim 150\text{K}$, the volatiles (H_2O , CH_4 , NH_3)
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Formation

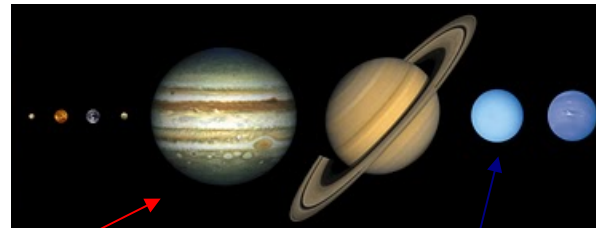
Inward of snowline

Accreting
rocky cores
(small)



Outward of snowline

Ice comes to aid!
Growing big
icy/rocky cores.



These guys got so big
they started accreting
gas from the nebula!

These ones never did.
They are just the icy/rocky cores.

Potential of oblate bodies

Newton's second theorem

“A spherically symmetric body affects external objects as if all its mass was concentrated in its center”

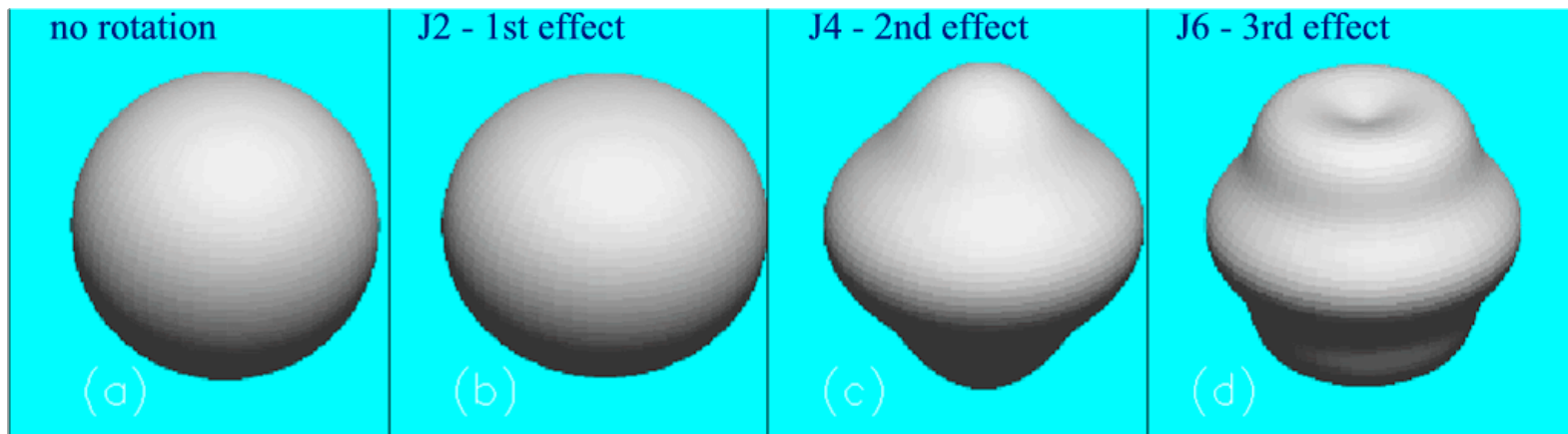
But planets are not spherically symmetric



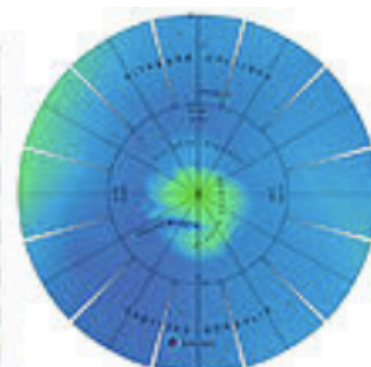
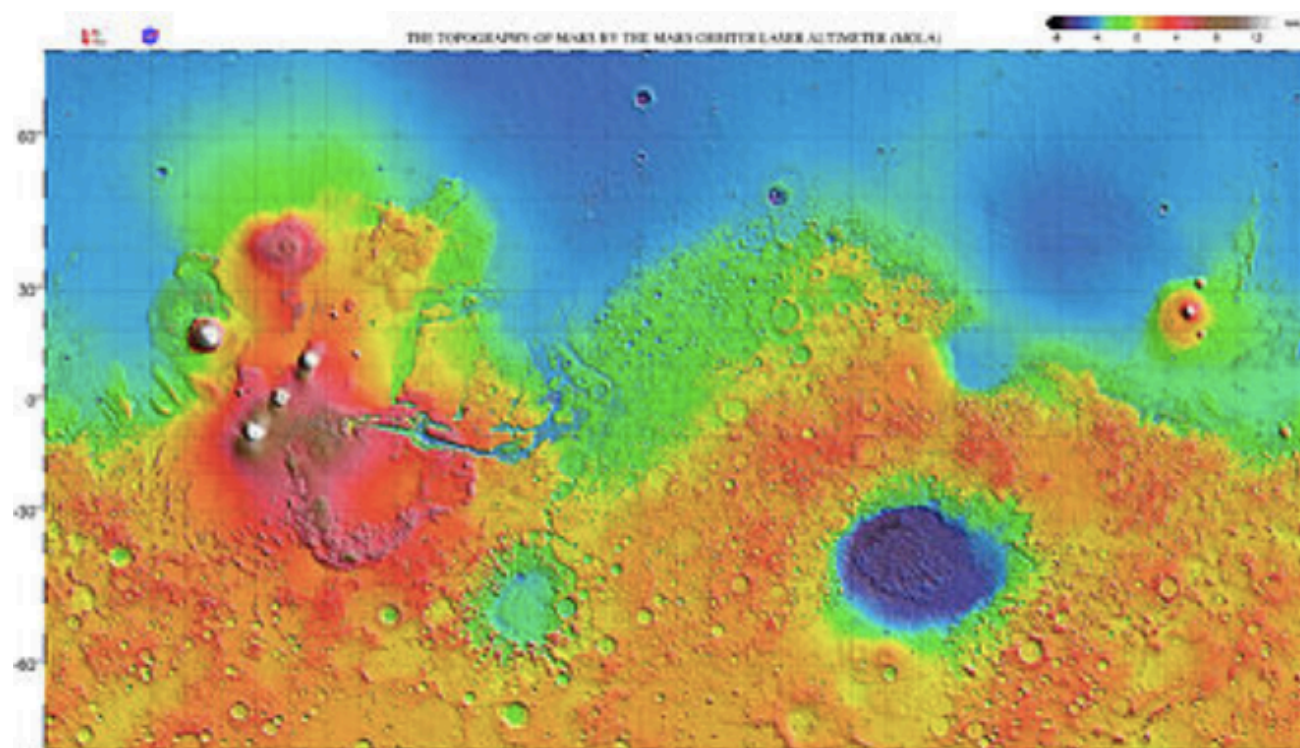
Oblateness caused by rotation

Gravitational Potential

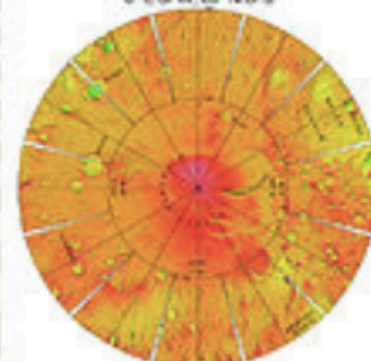
$$\Phi_g(r, \phi, \theta) = -\frac{GM}{r} \left[1 - \sum J_n P_n(\cos \theta) \left(\frac{R}{r} \right)^n \right]$$

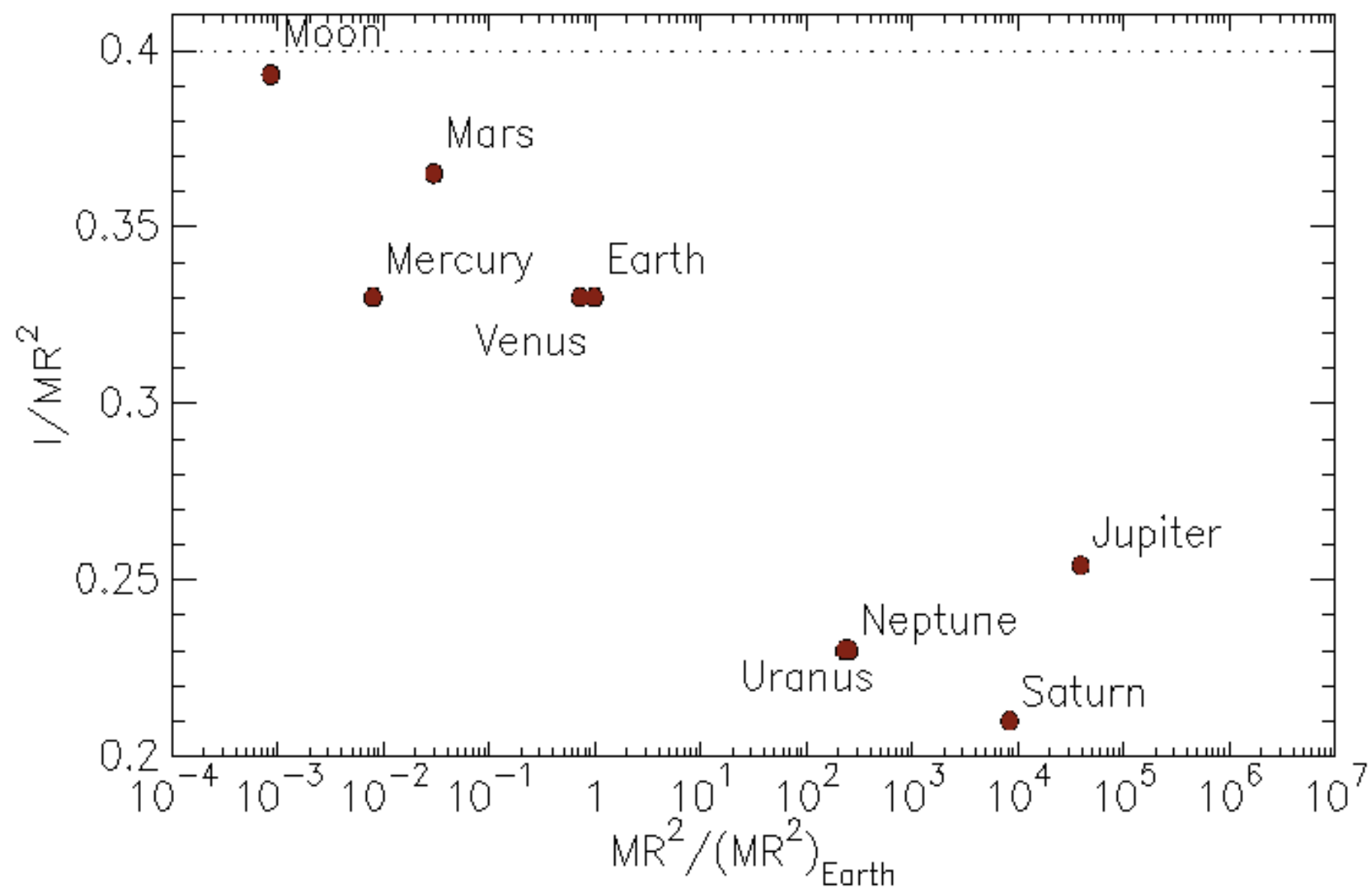


	J_2 ($\times 10^{-6}$)	J_4 ($\times 10^{-6}$)	J_6 ($\times 10^{-6}$)
Jupiter	14696.4+/-0.2	587+/-2	34+/-5
Saturn	16290.7+/-0.3	936+/-3	86+/-9

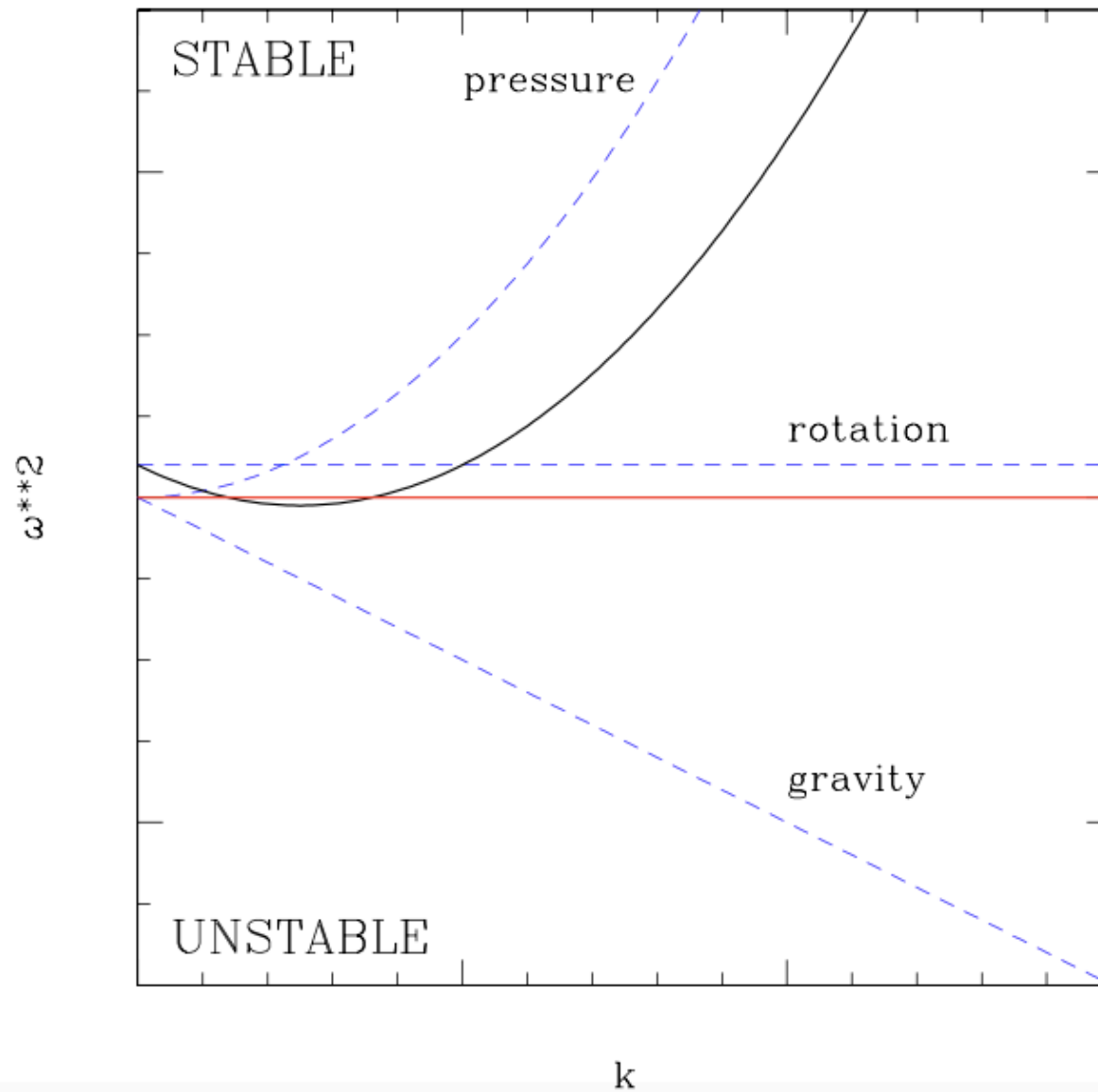


0° E or W 60° N or S

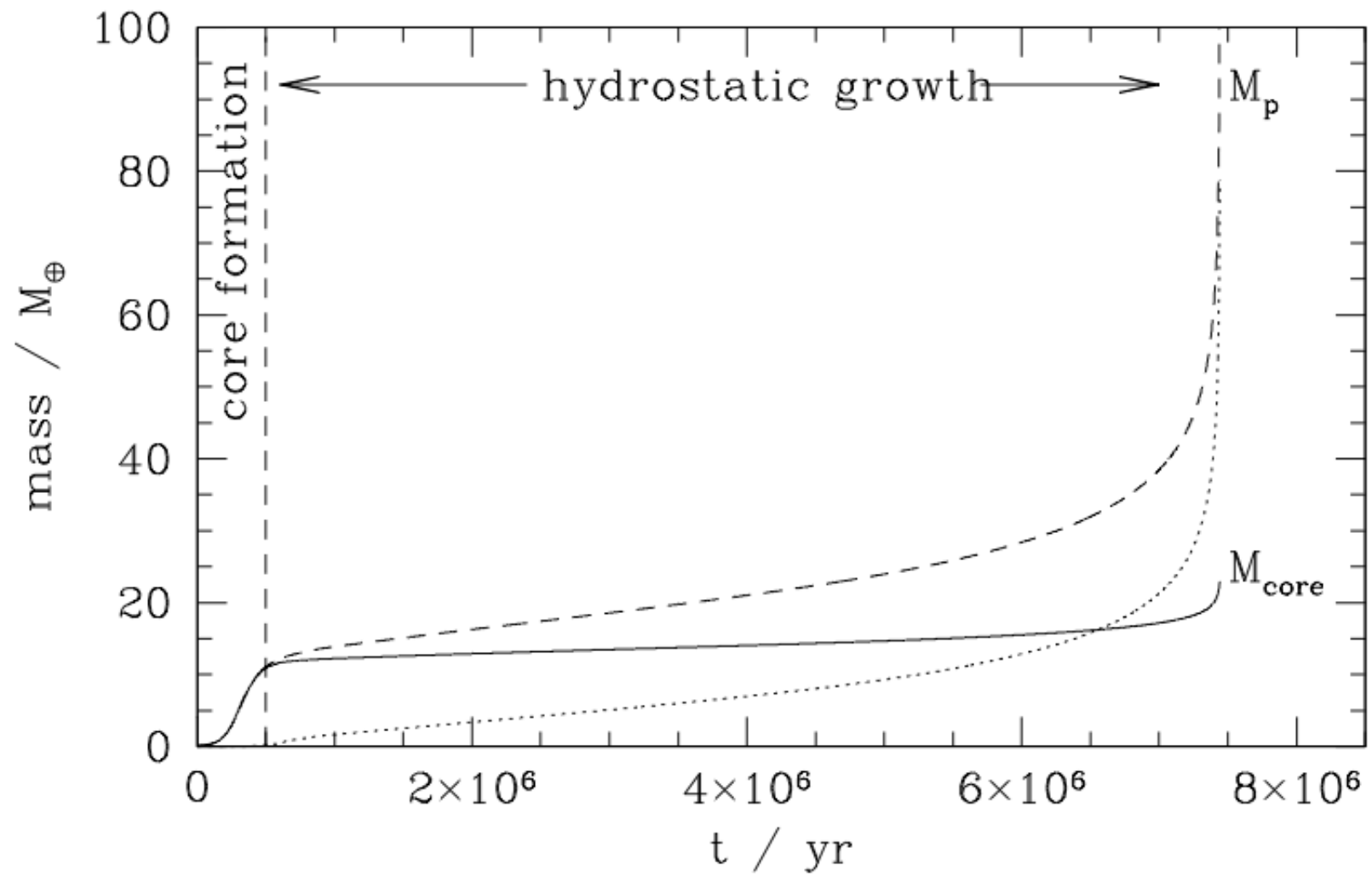




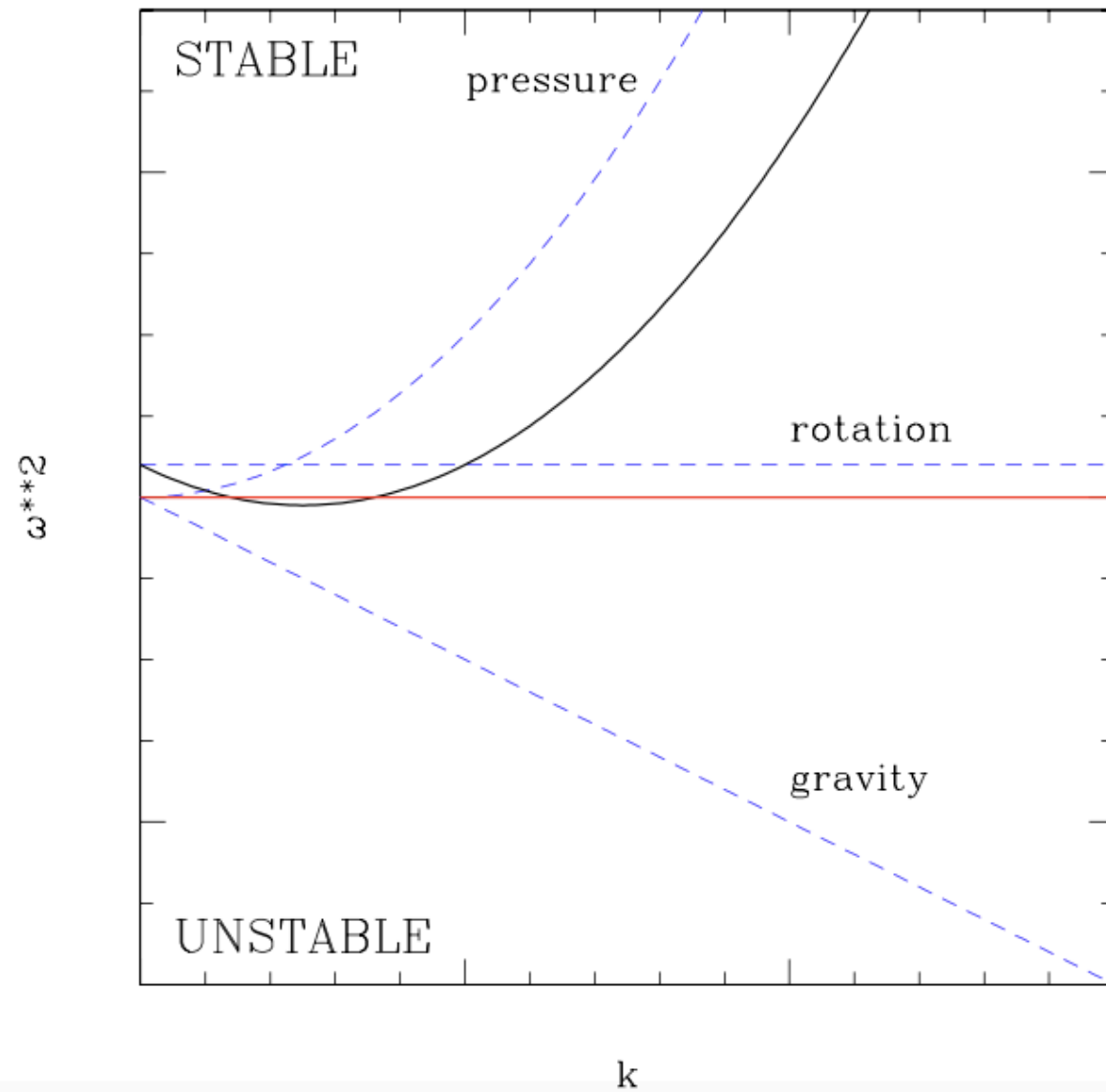
Gravitational Instability



Core accretion

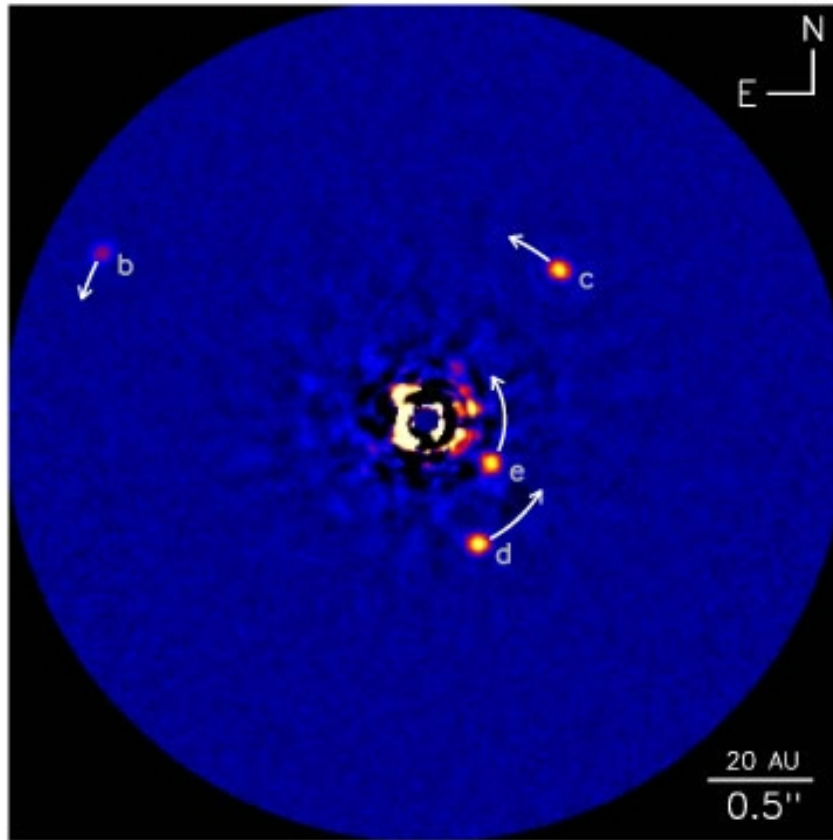


Gravitational Instability





HR 8799: Four high-mass planets at wide orbits

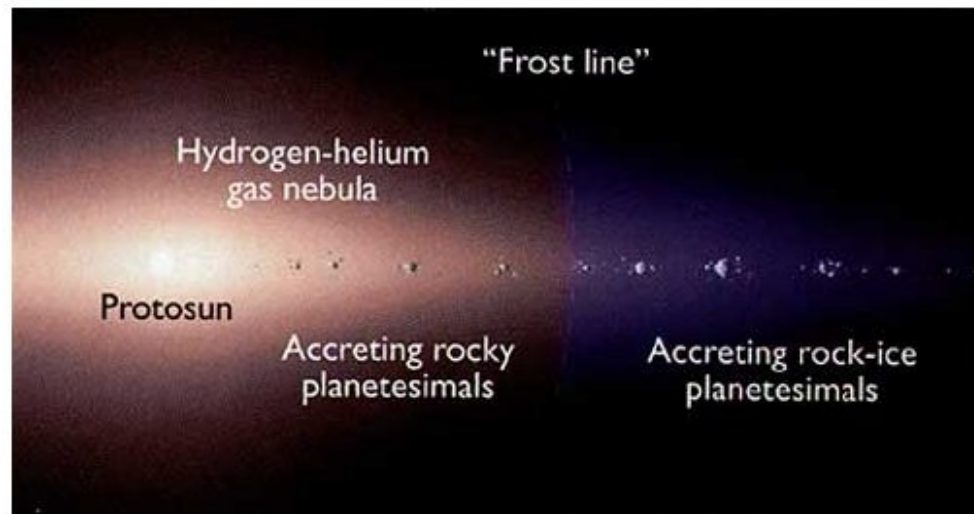


Companion (In order from star)	Mass	Semimajor axis (AU)
e	$7^{+3}_{-2} M_J$	14.5 ± 0.5
d	$7^{+3}_{-2} M_J$	24 ± 0
c	$7^{+3}_{-2} M_J$	38 ± 0
b	$5^{+2}_{-1} M_J$	68 ± 0

Formation by Core Accretion

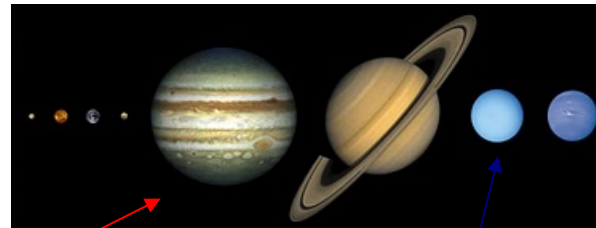
Inward of snowline

Accreting
rocky cores
(small)



Outward of snowline

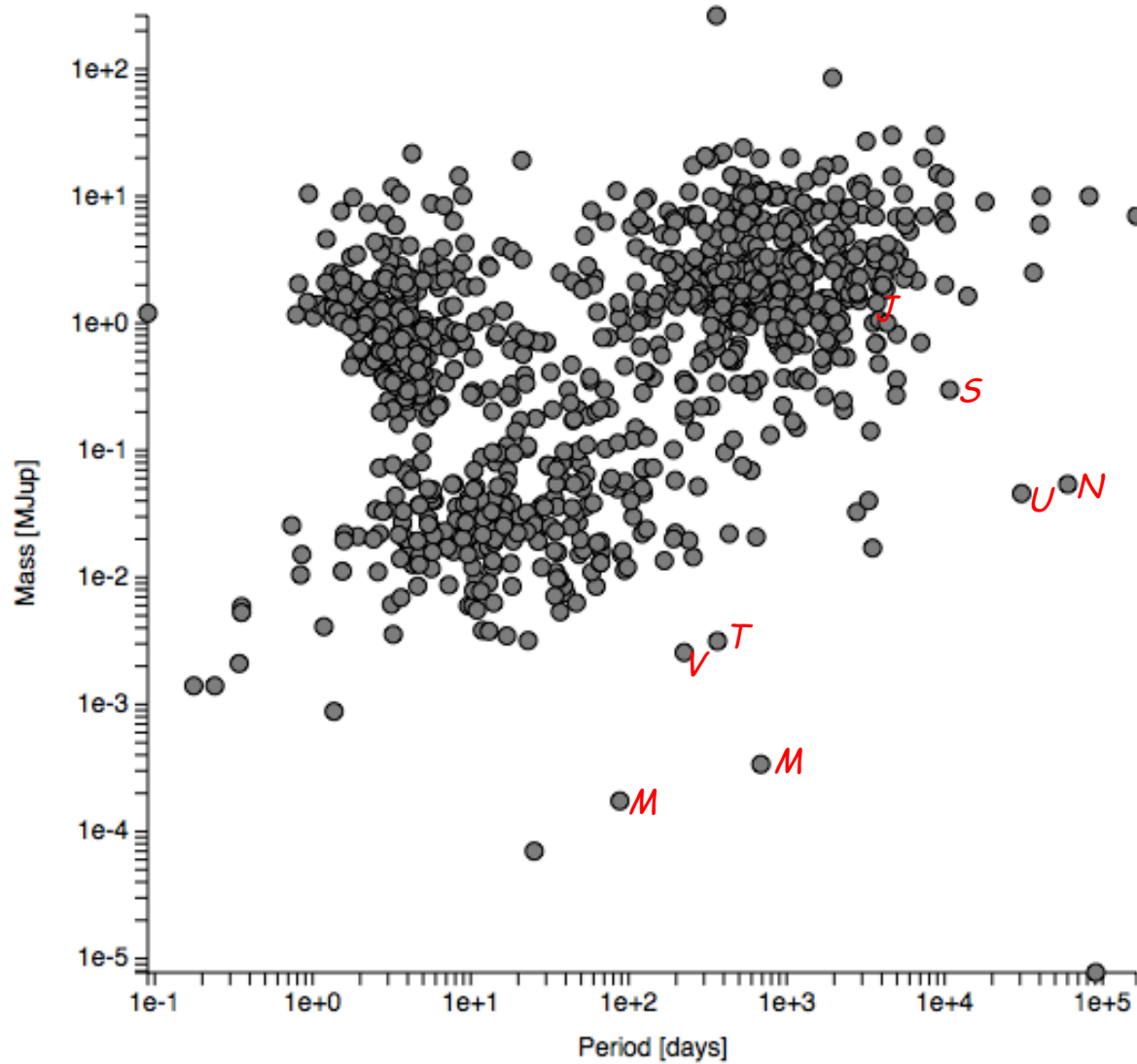
Ice comes to aid!
Growing big
icy/rocky cores.



These guys got so big
they started accreting
gas from the nebula!

These ones never did.
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Mass-period distribution of planets

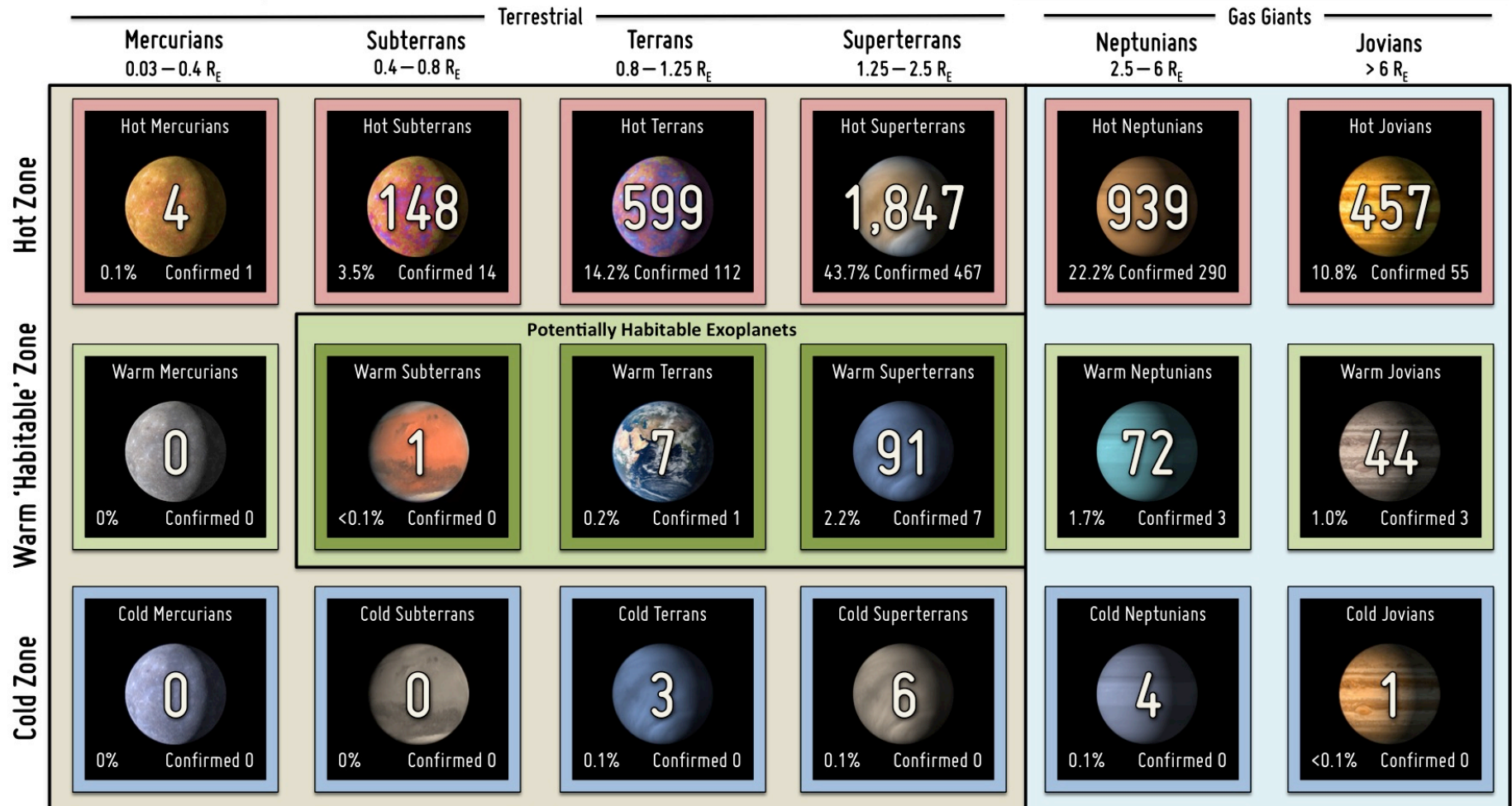
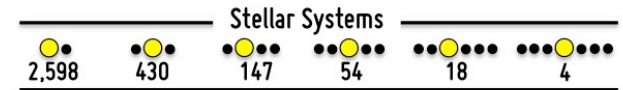


Kepler: “Period table” of exoplanets



4,229 NASA Kepler Exoplanet Candidates

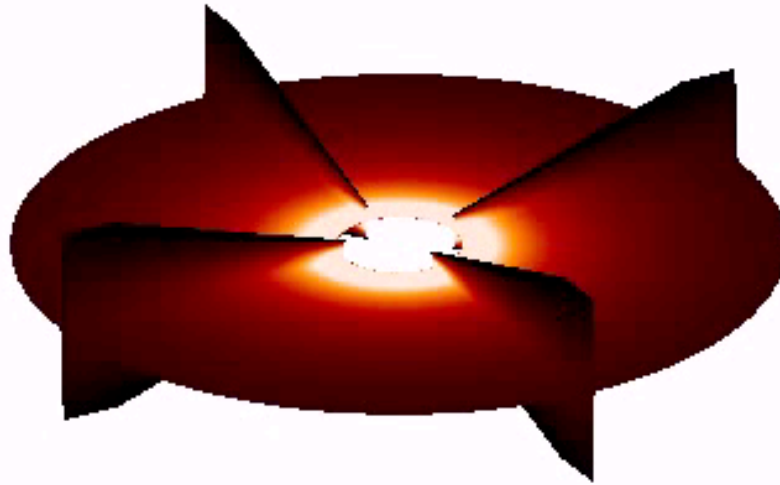
The Periodic Table of Exoplanets



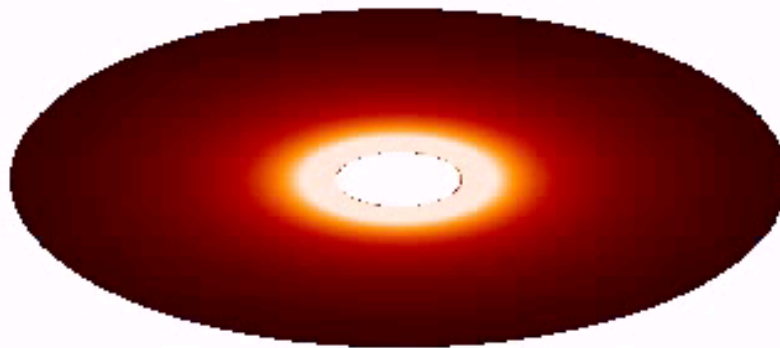
CREDIT: PHL @ UPR Arcibo (phl.upr.edu) Sep 2014

Migration

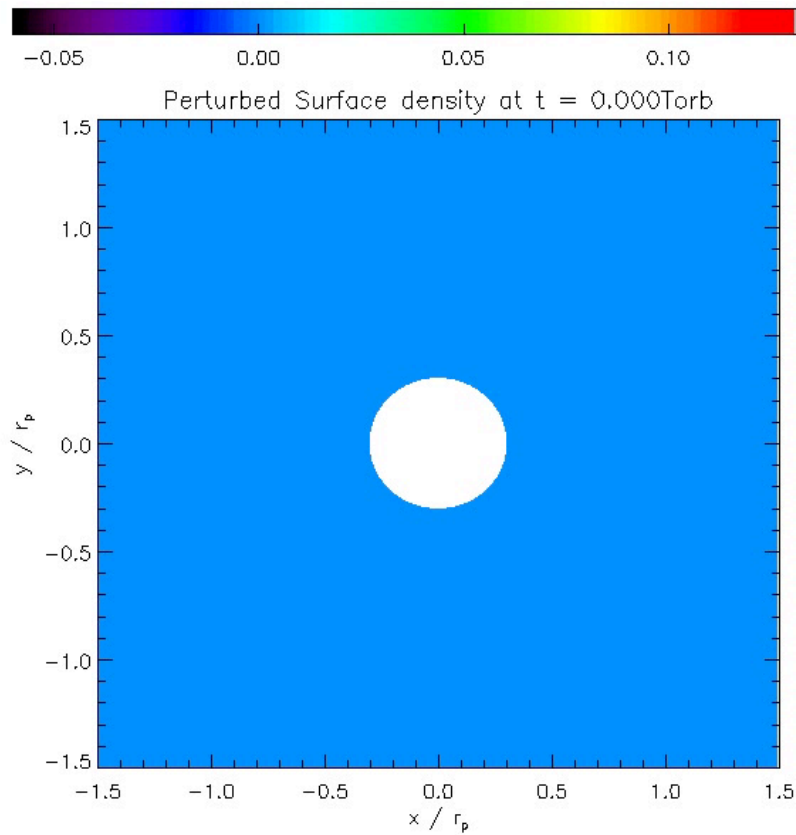
$t = 0.1$



Asymmetries in the wake generated by the planet lead to non-zero angular momentum exchange between planet and disk, and the planet starts to migrate.



Migration



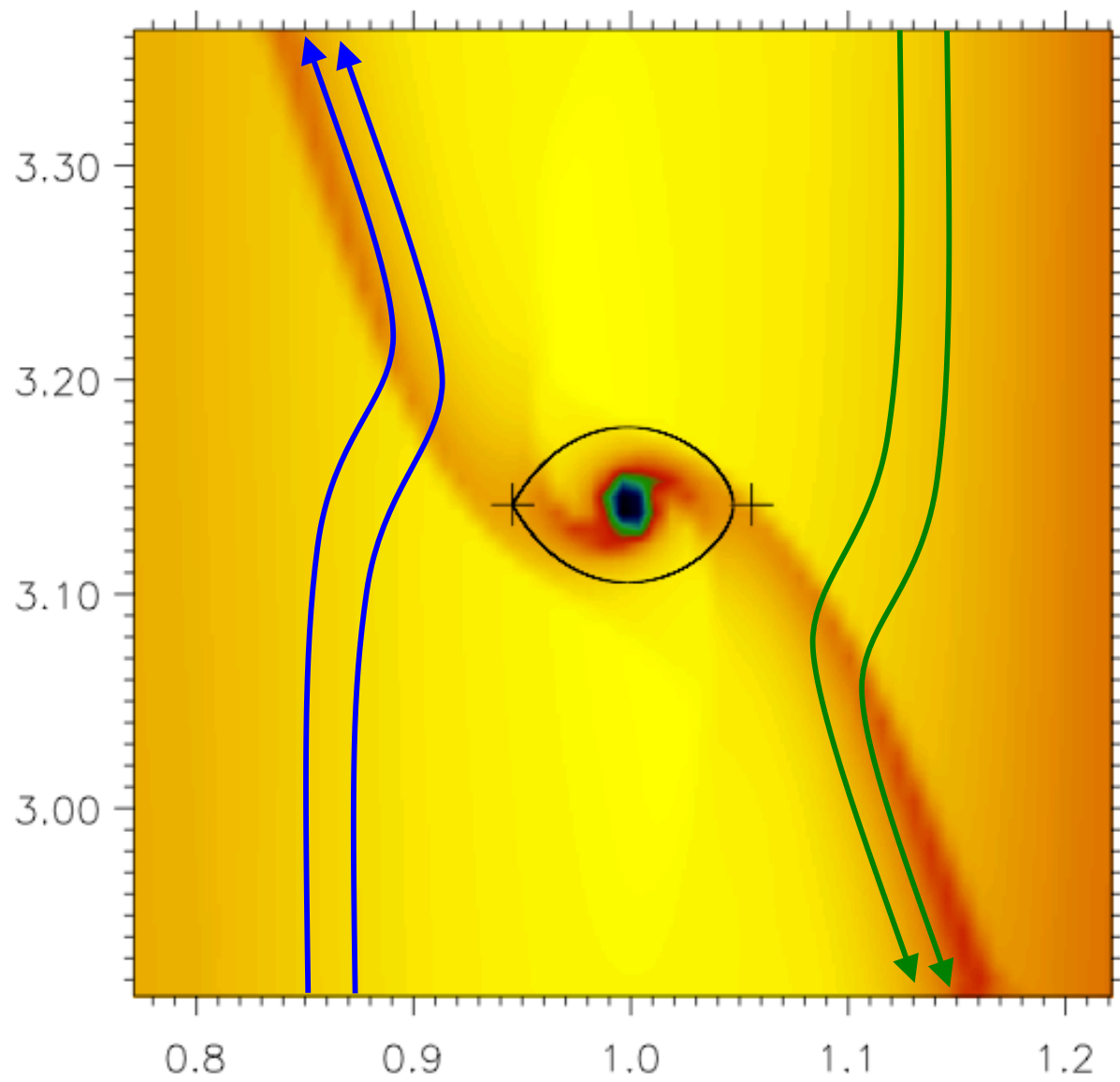
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Two main ways to calculate torque:

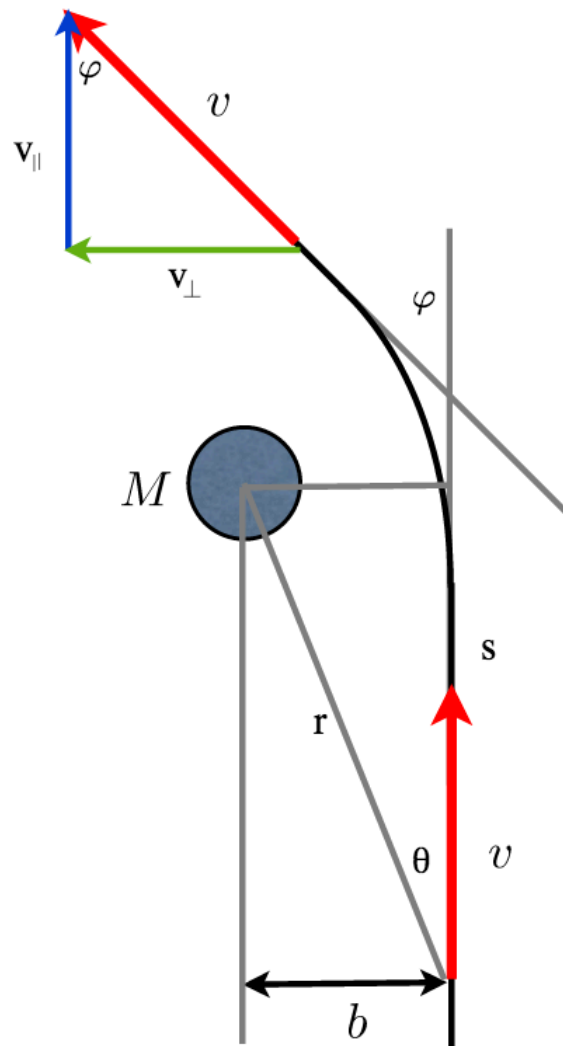
1. Follow gas packets *in time*, and see how they exchange angular momentum with the planet.
 - Impulse approximation
2. Analyse how *azimuthal asymmetries* in the steady-state gas distribution in the disk $\Sigma(r,\phi)$ gravitationally pull on the planet.

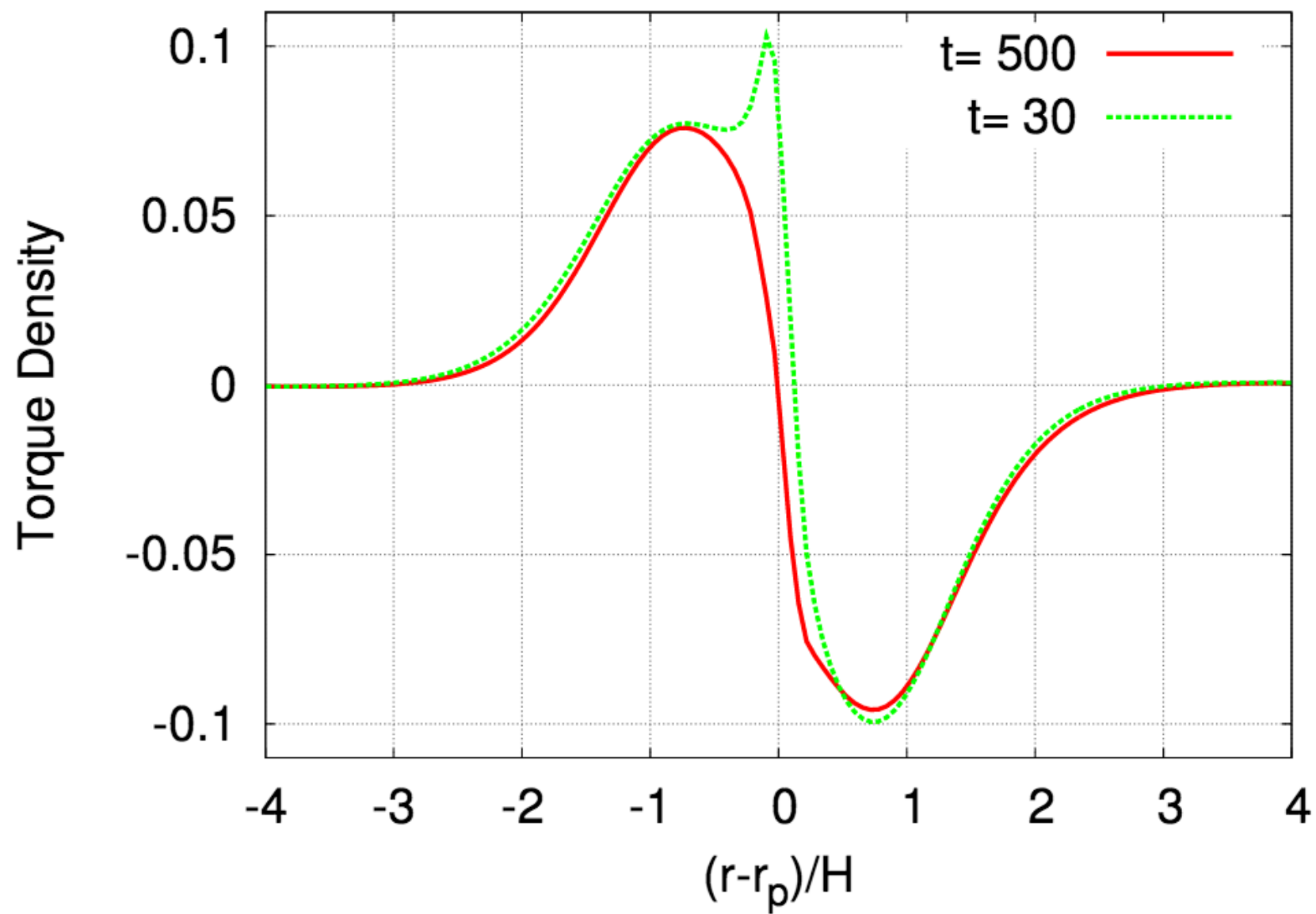
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 - Impulse approximation
2. Analyse how *azimuthal asymmetries* in the steady-state gas distribution in the disk $\Sigma(r,\phi)$ gravitationally pull on the planet.



Migration: Impulse approximation



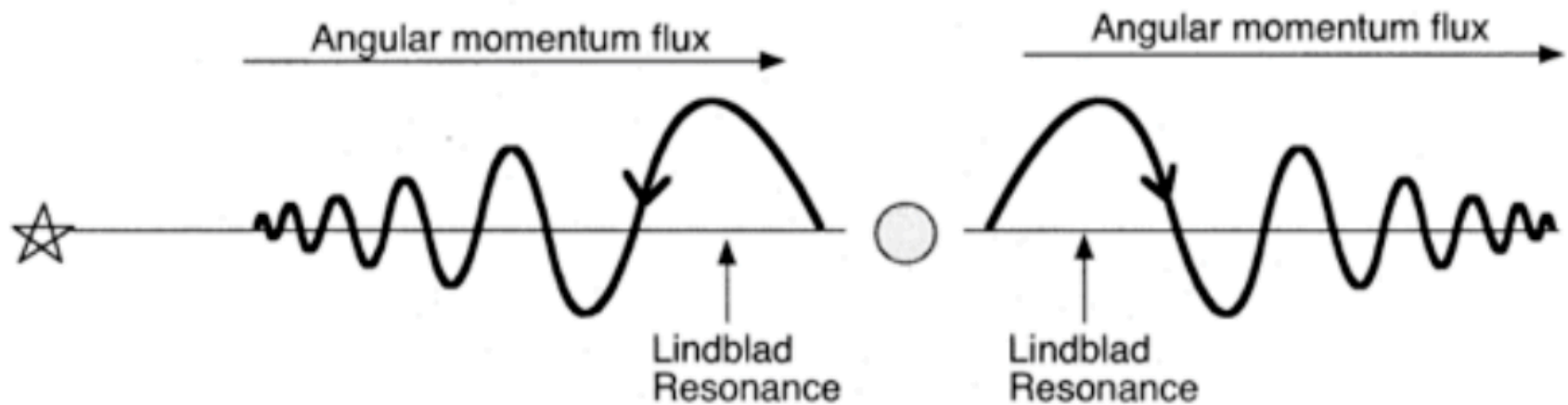
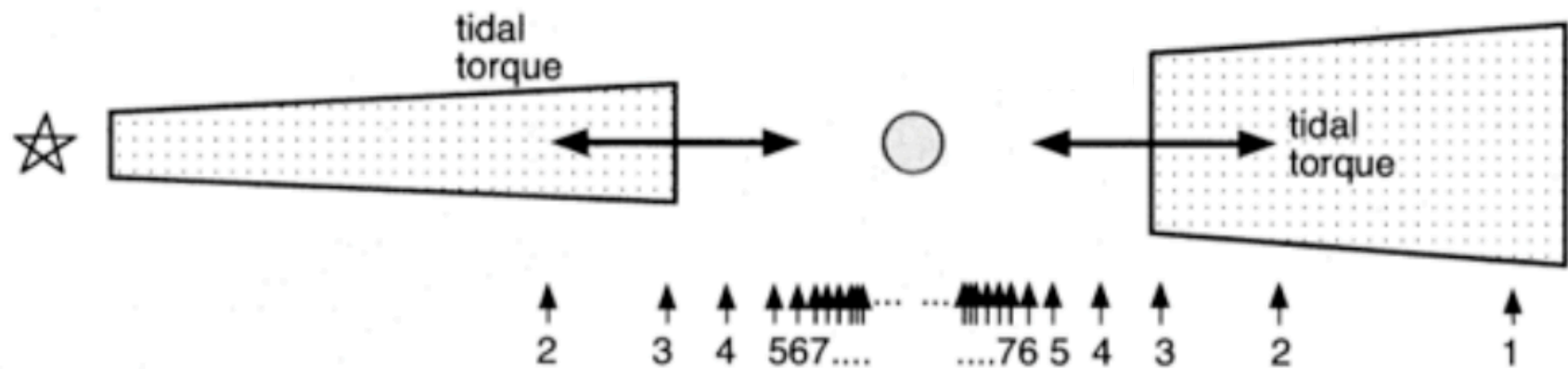


Two main ways to calculate torque:

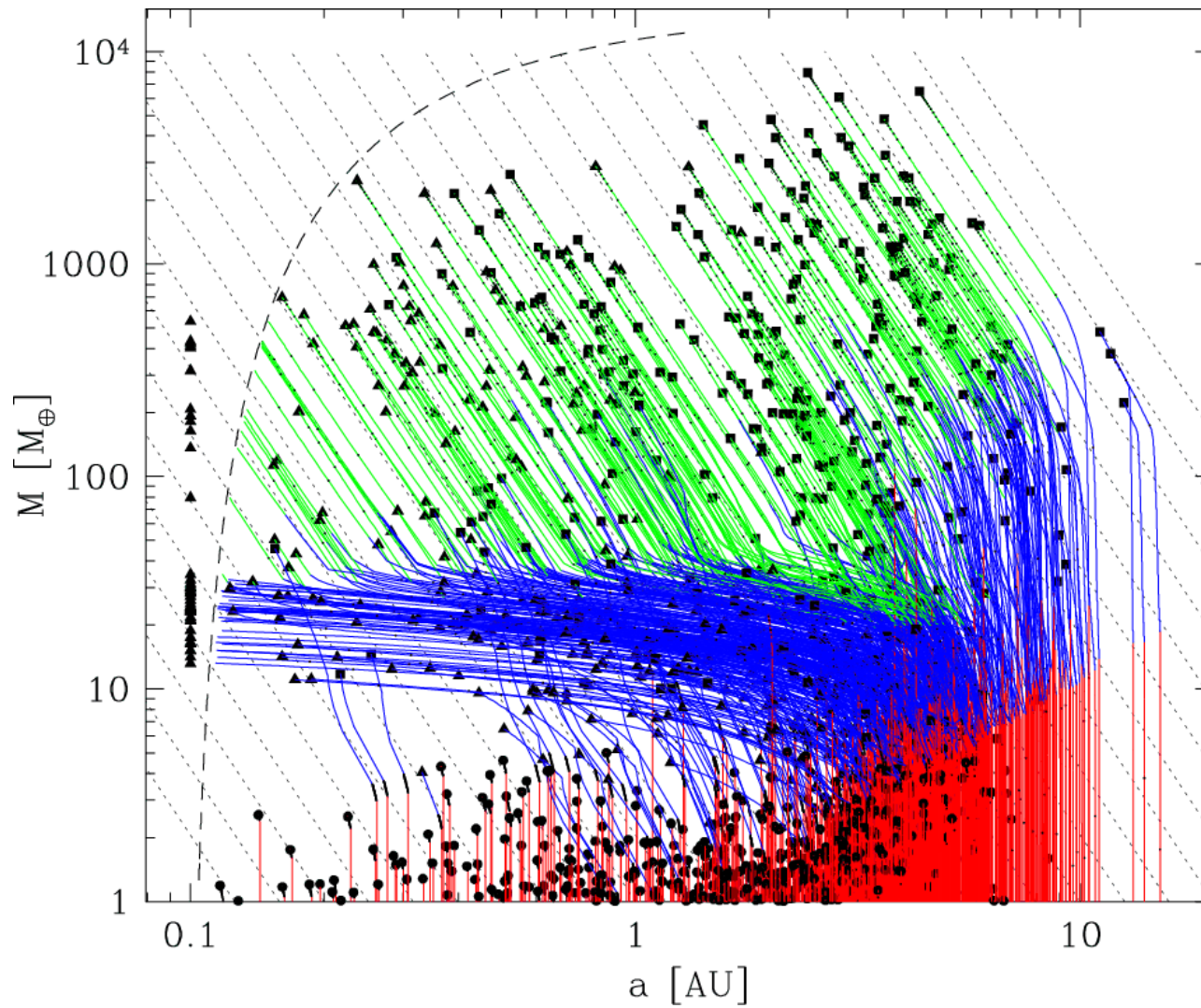
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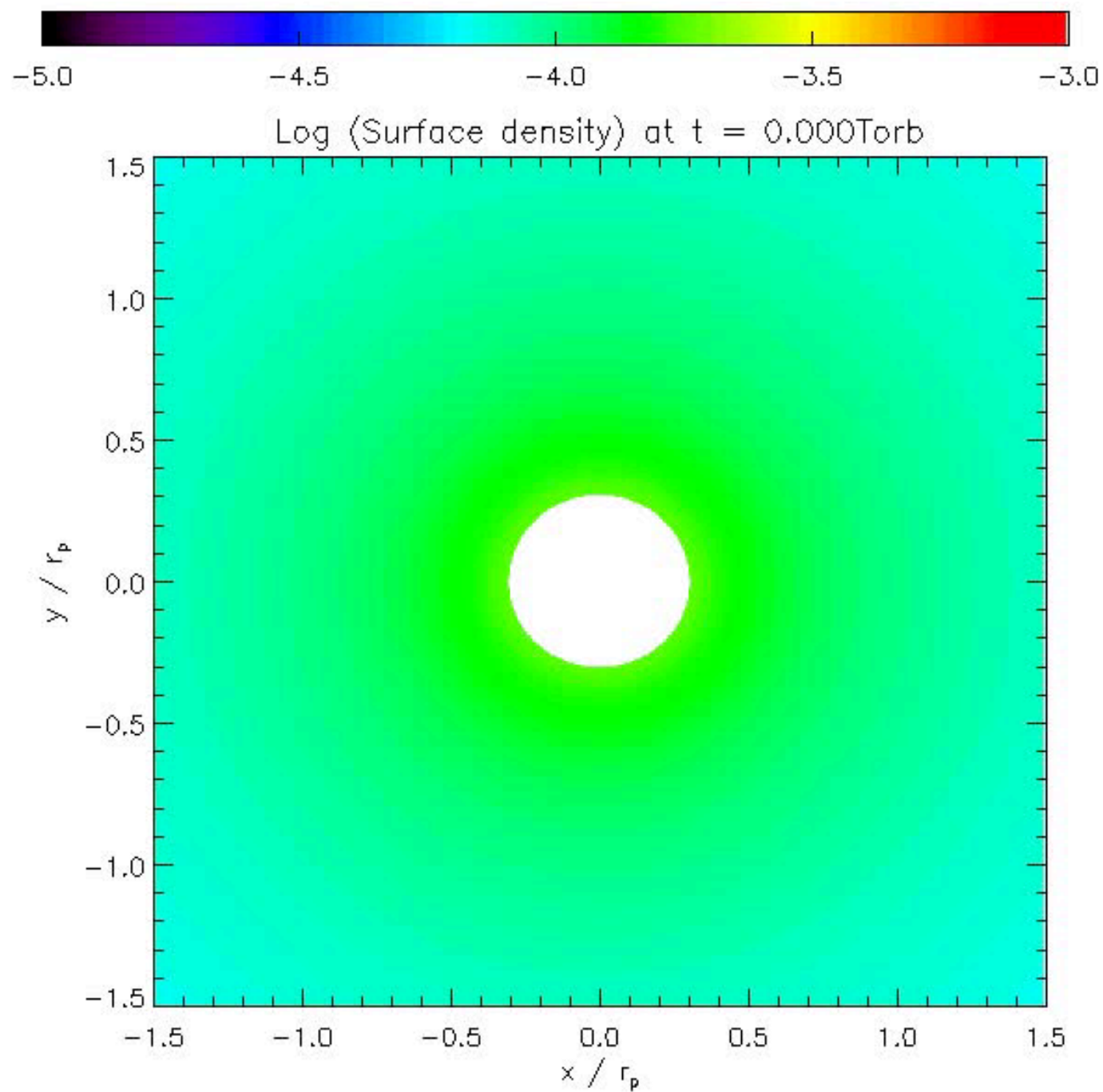
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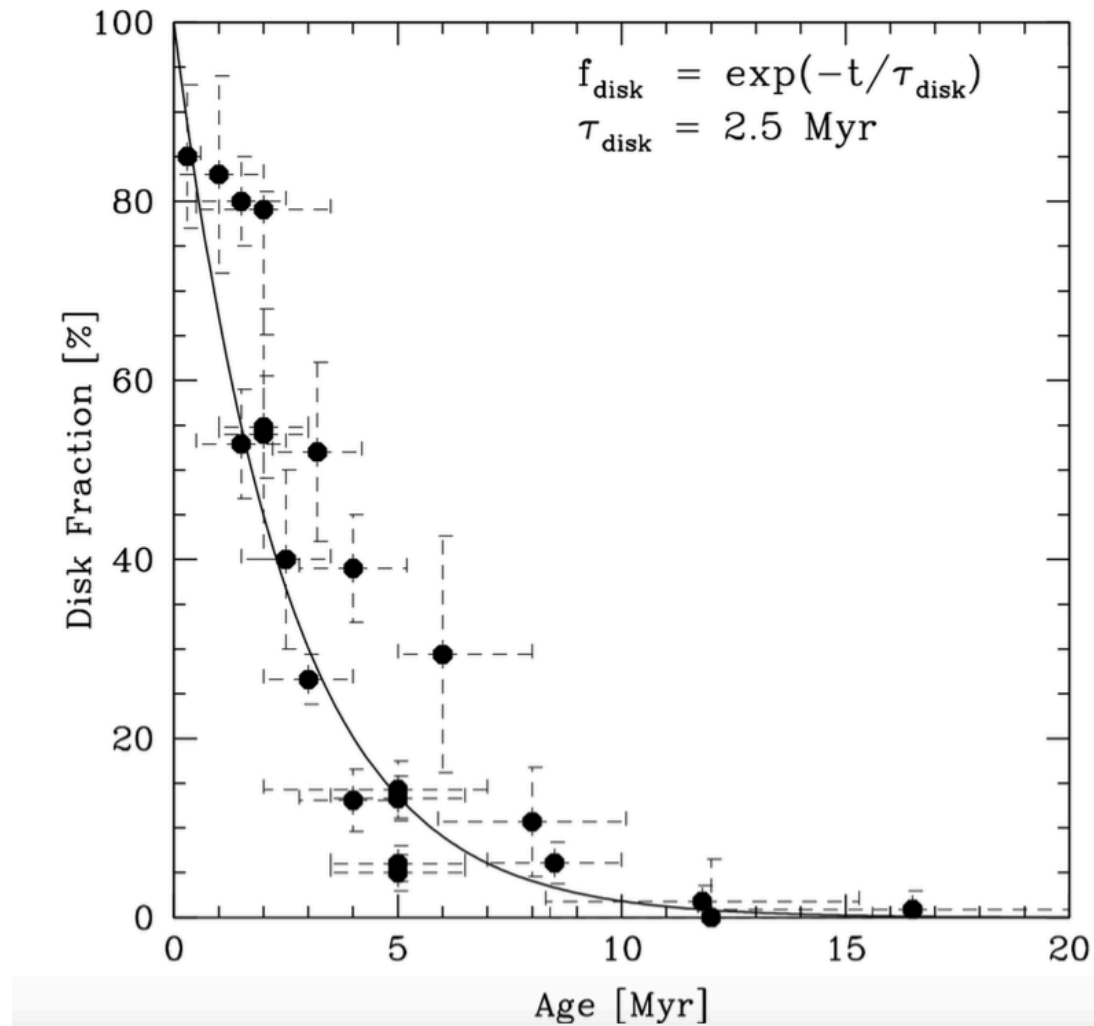


Planet Population Synthesis

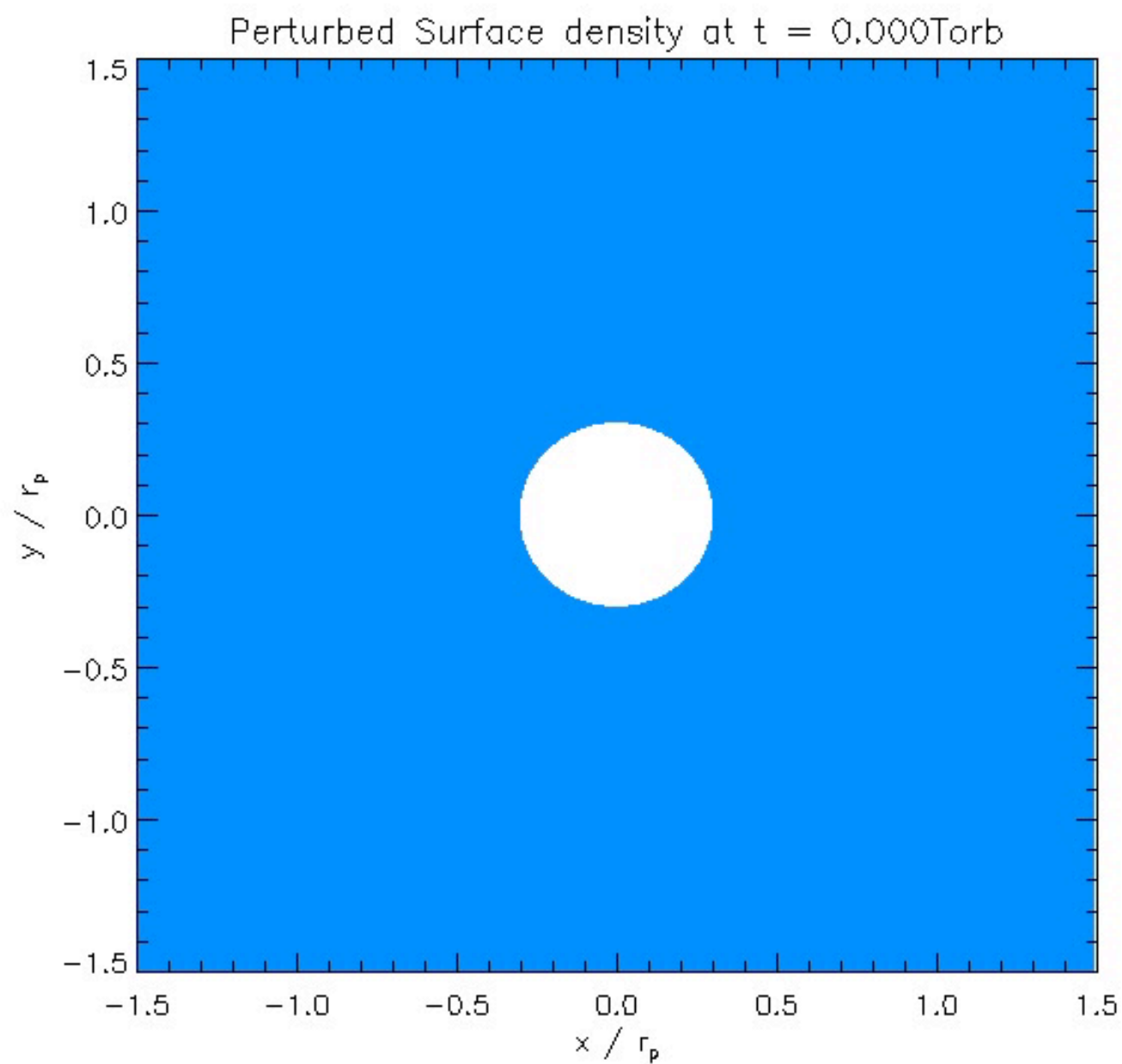




Disk lifetime

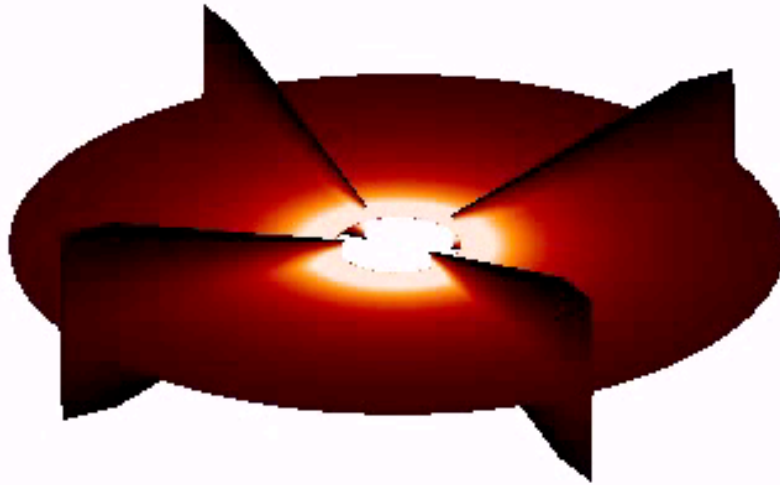


Disks dissipate with an e-folding time of 2.5 Myr

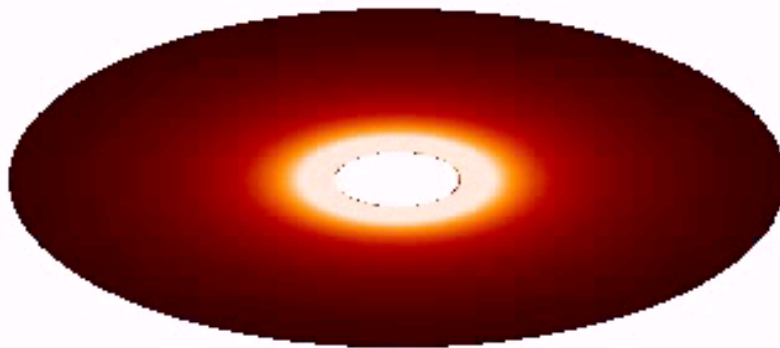


Migration

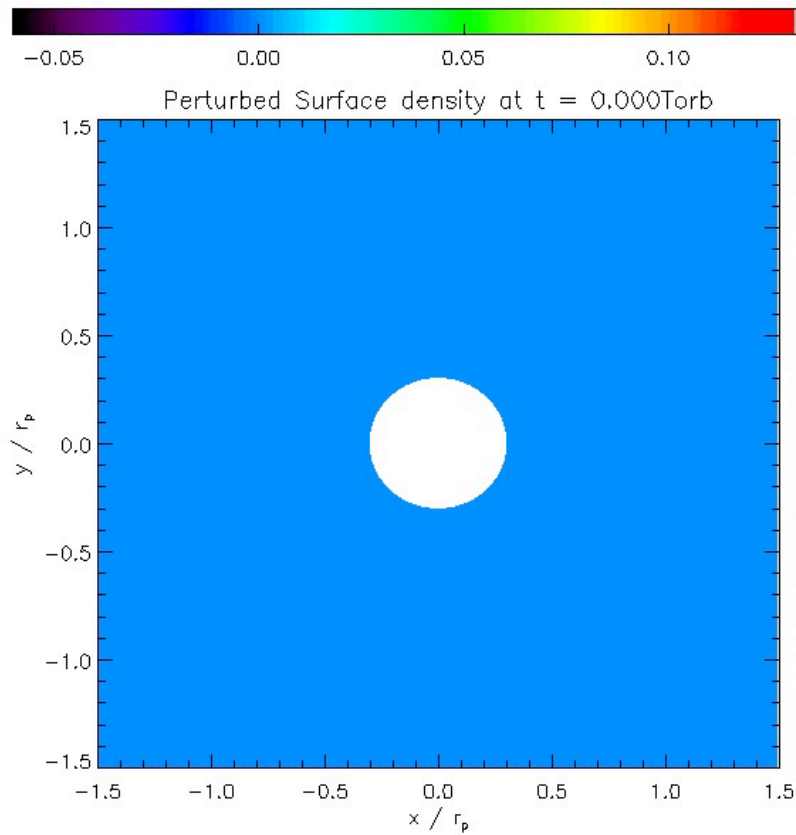
$t = 0.1$



Asymmetries in the wake generated by the planet lead to non-zero angular momentum exchange between planet and disk, and the planet starts to migrate.



Migration



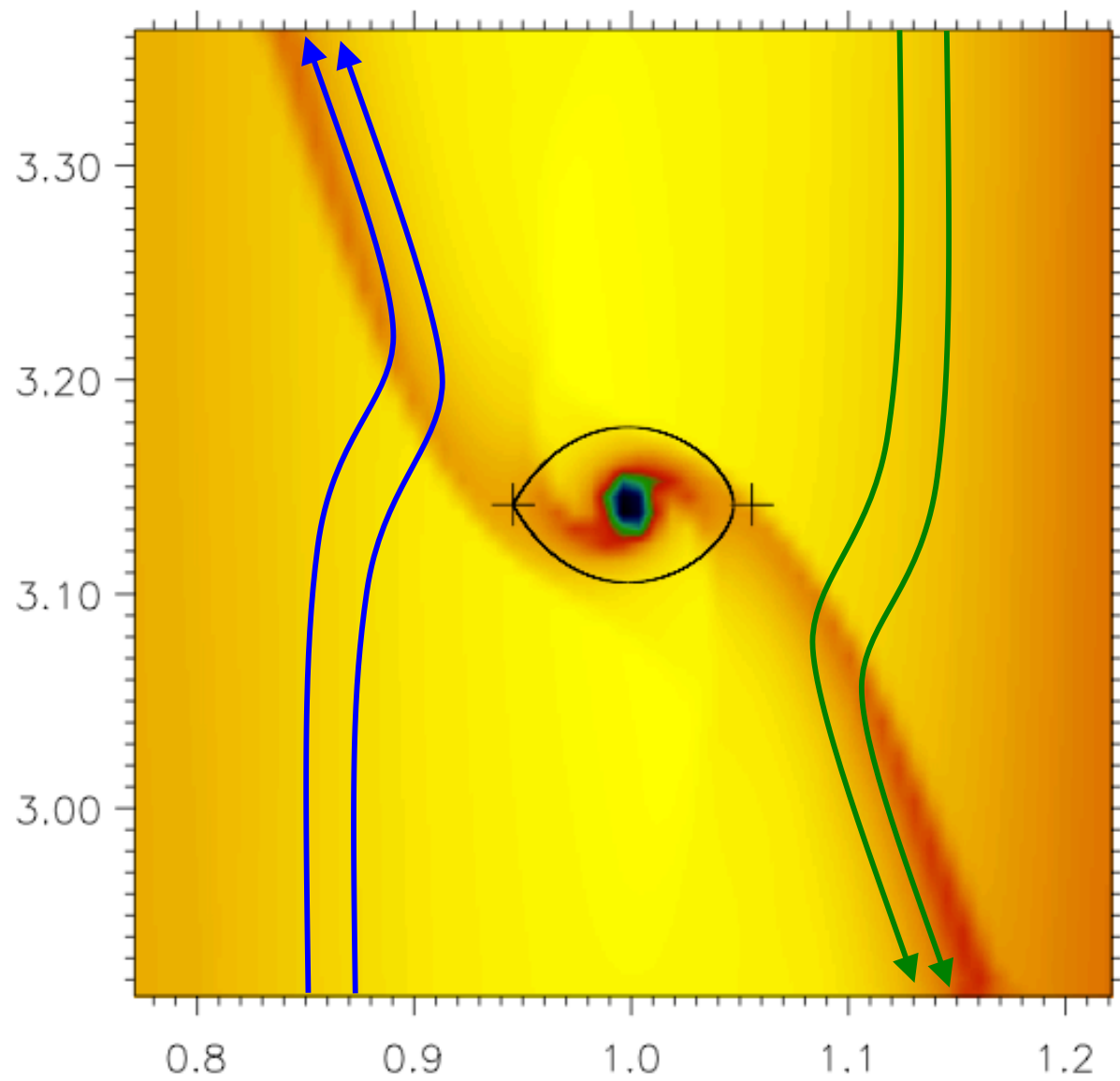
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Two main ways to calculate torque:

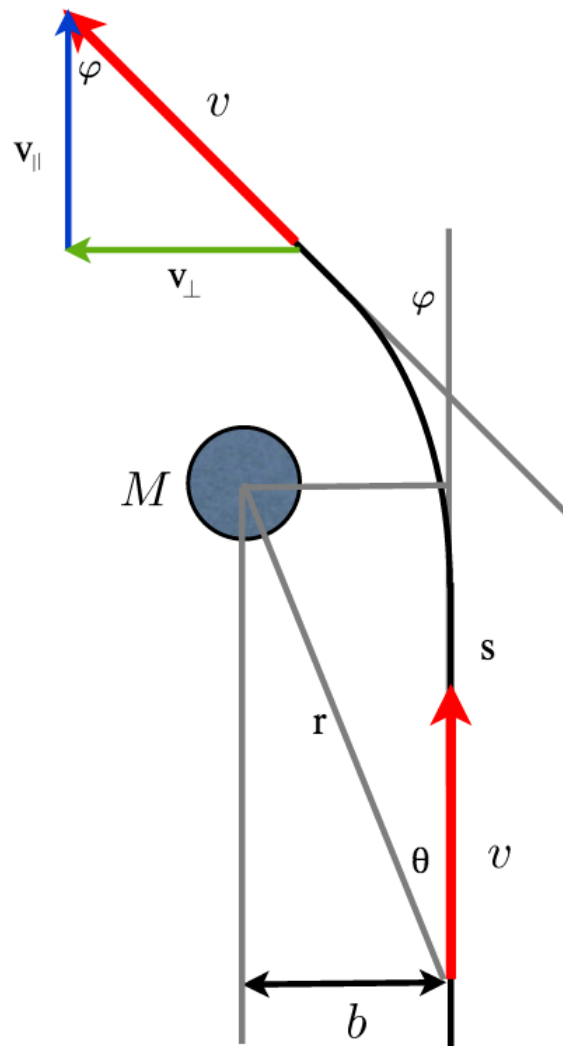
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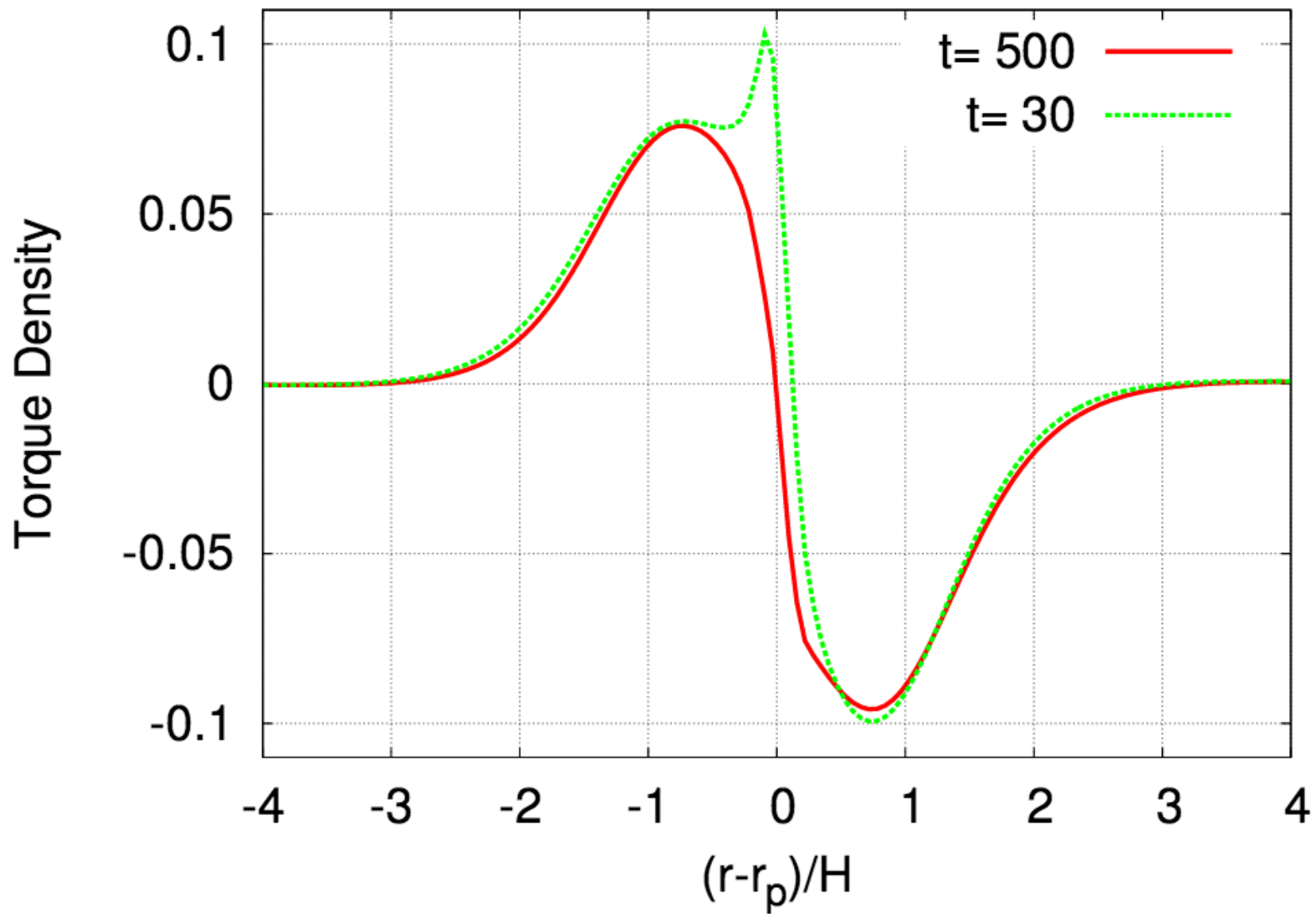
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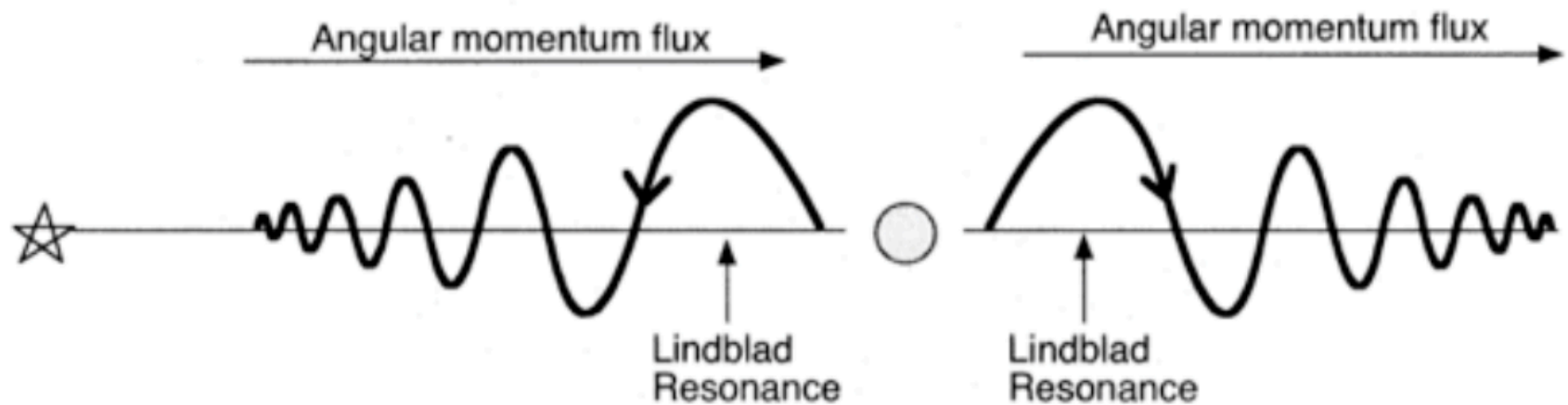
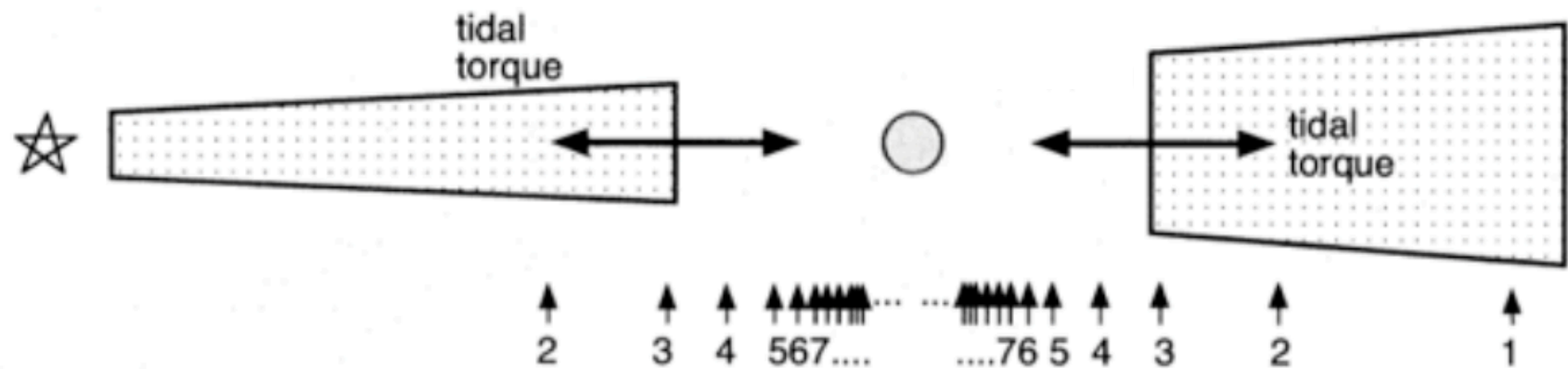
Migration: Impulse approximation



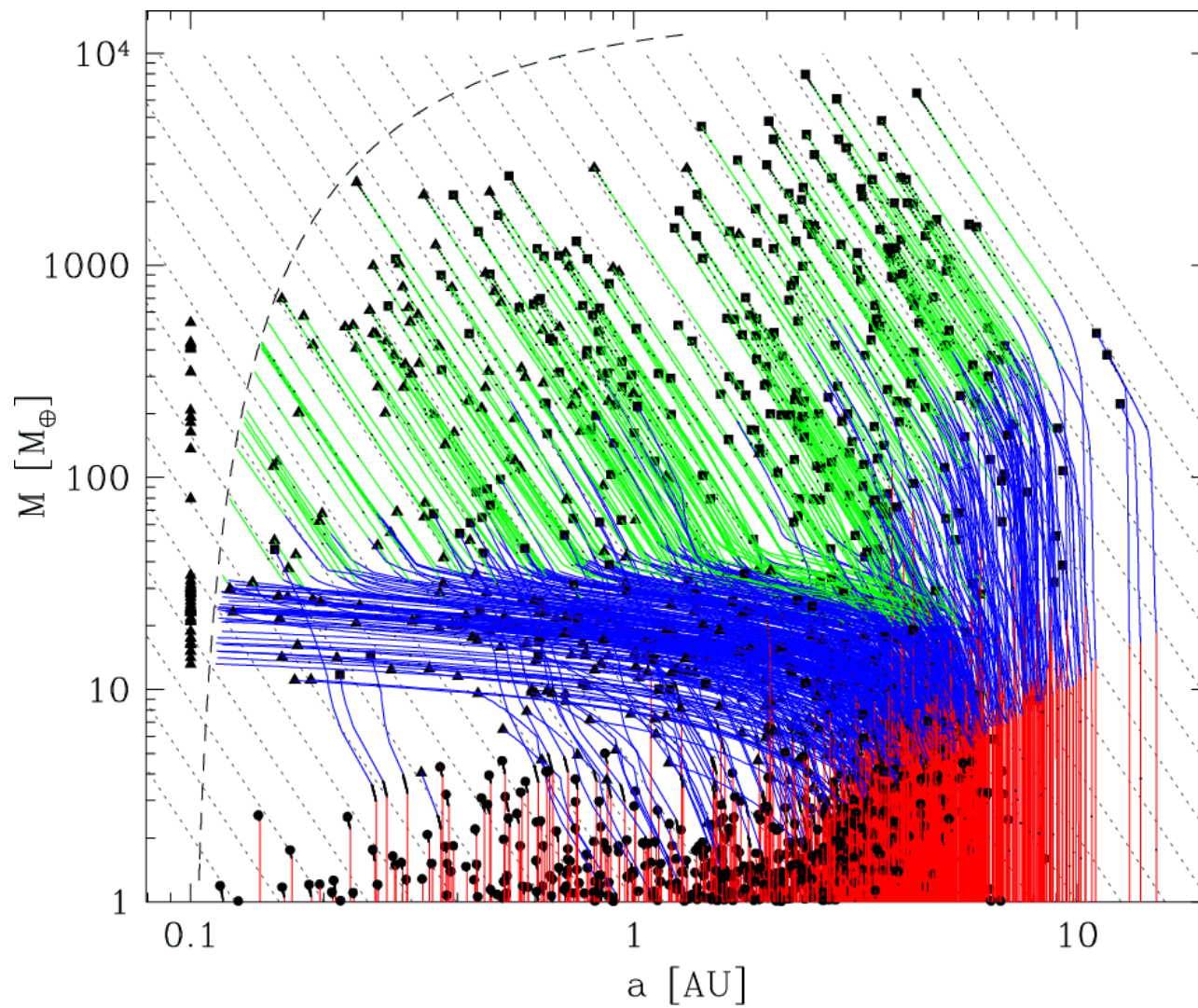


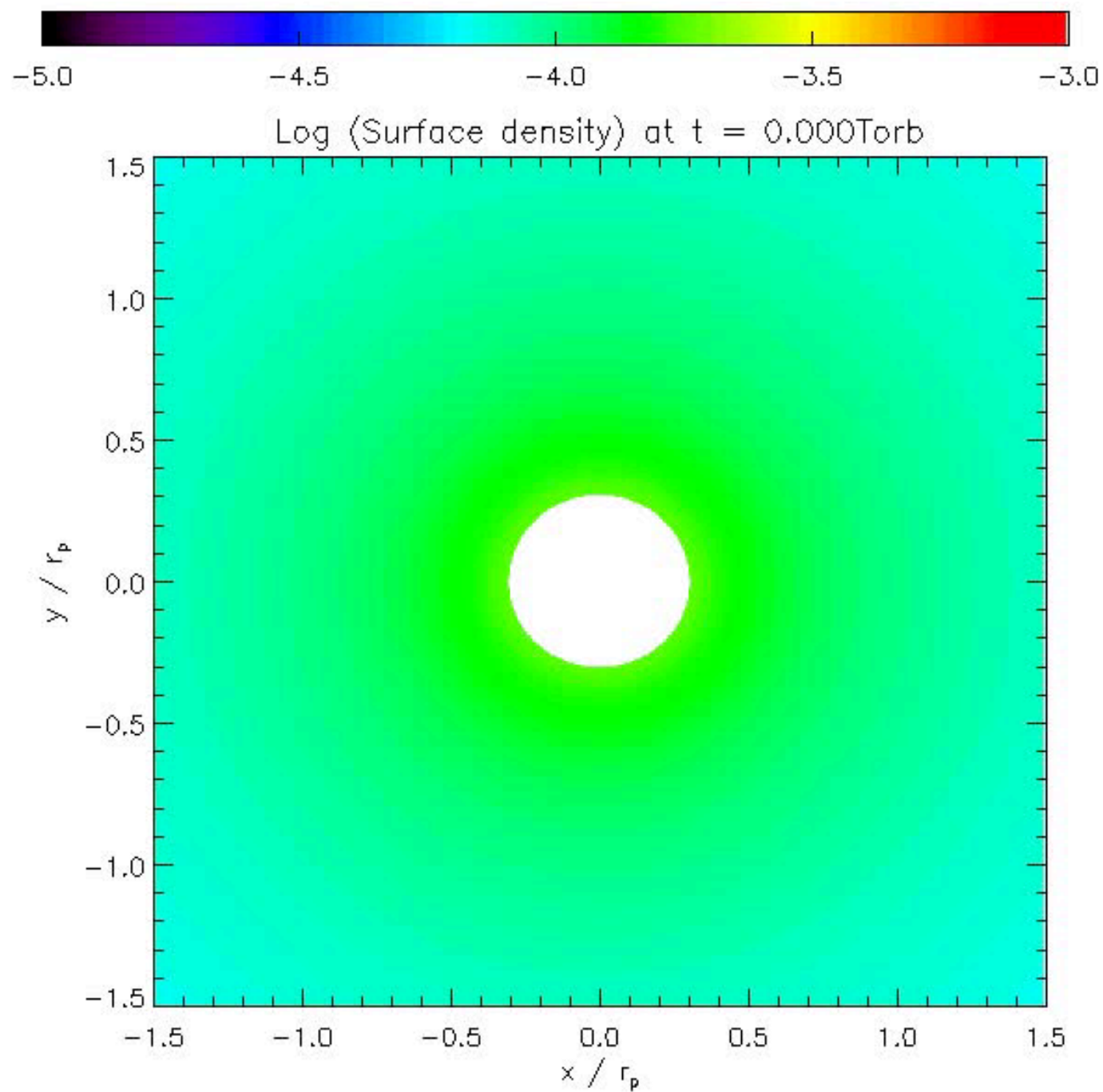
Two main ways to calculate torque:

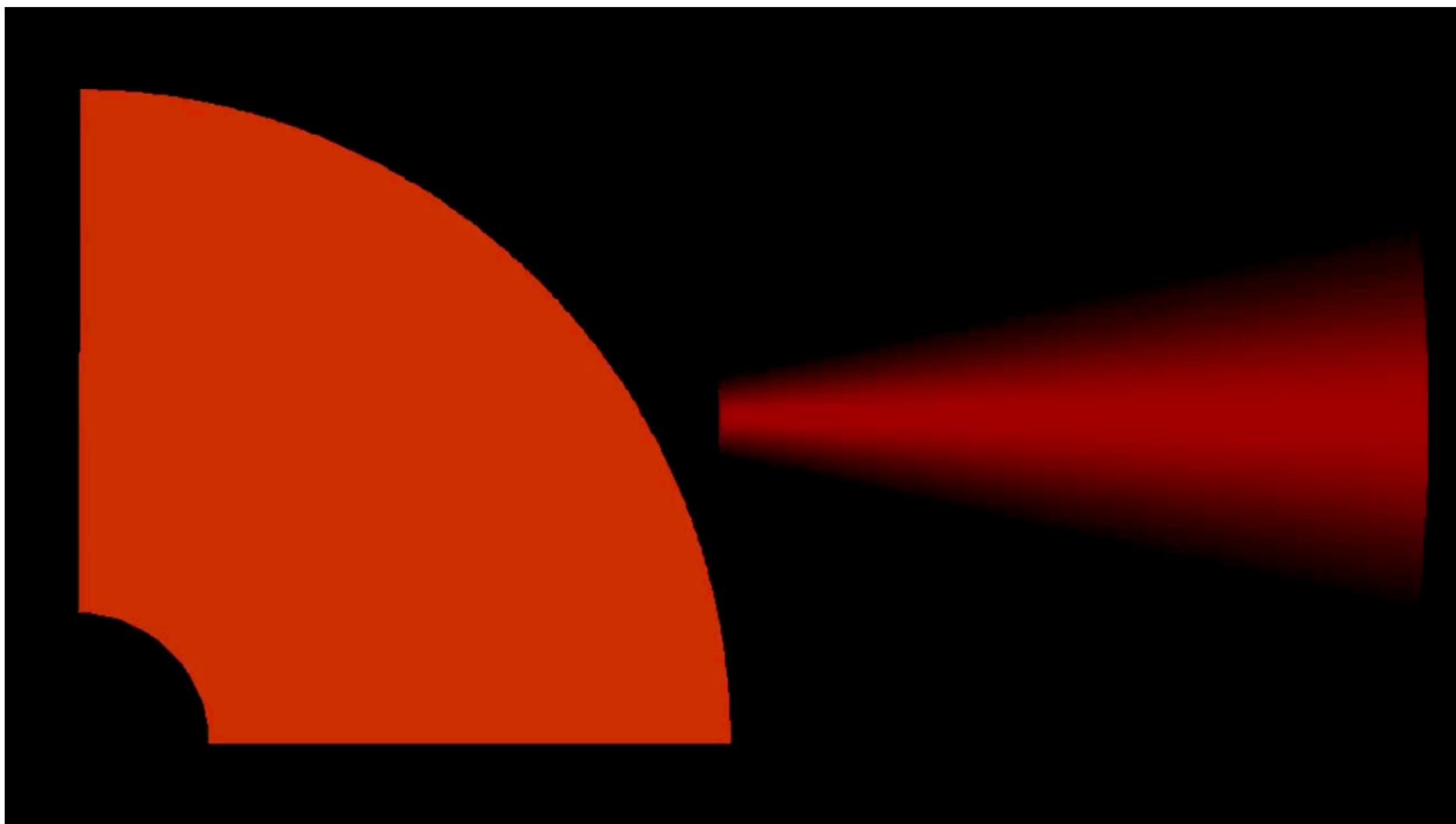
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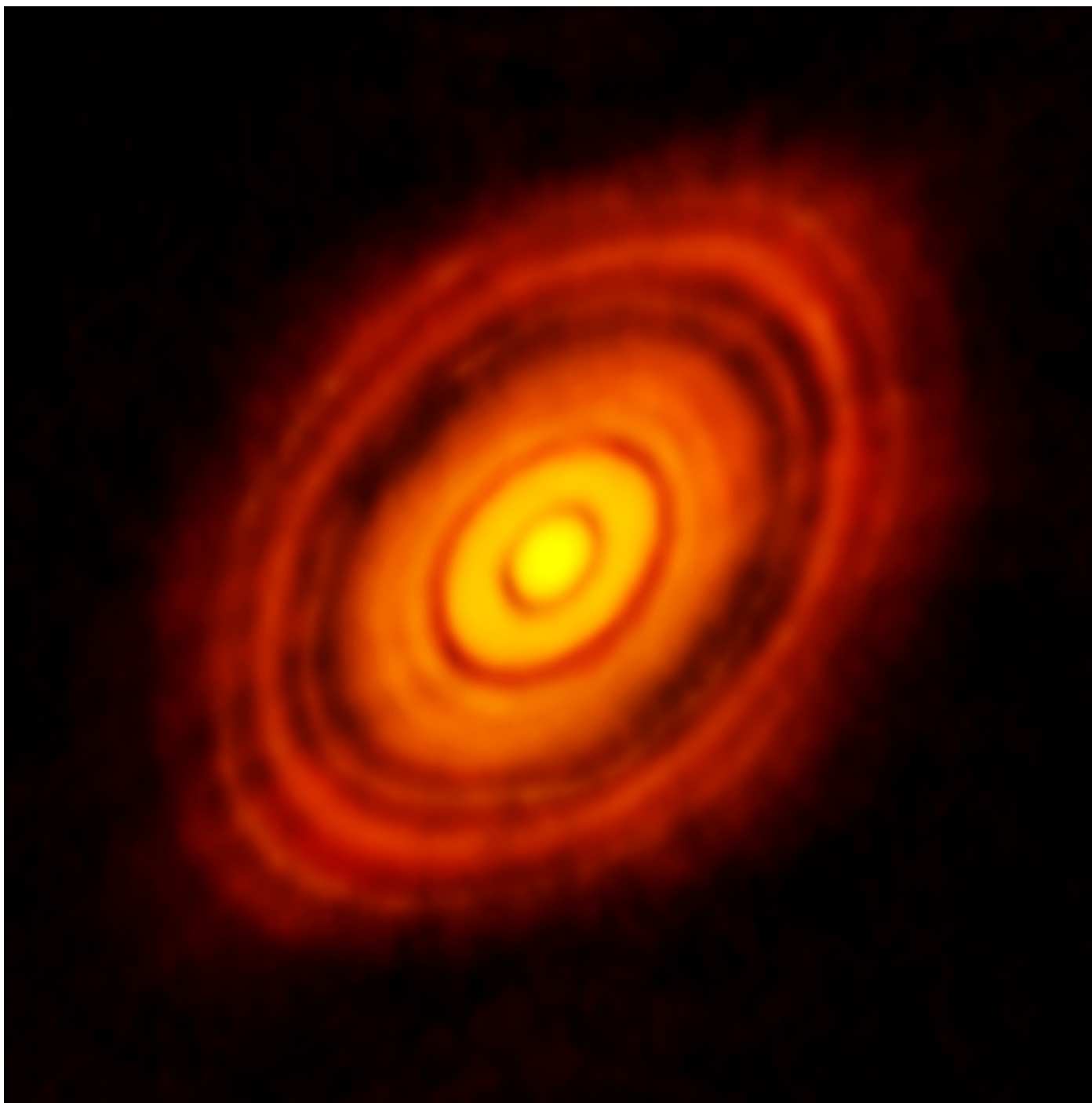


Planet Population Synthesis

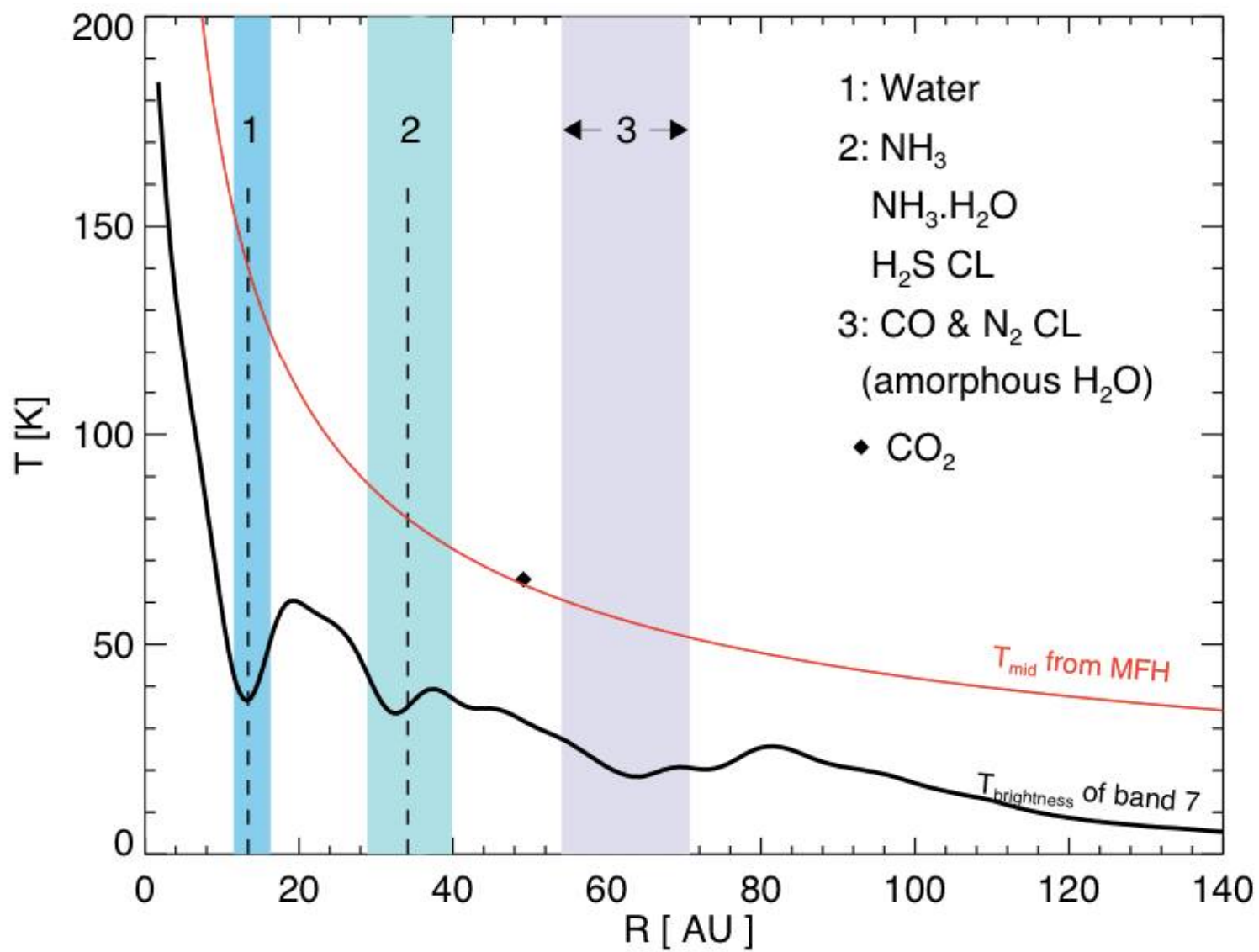








HL Tau

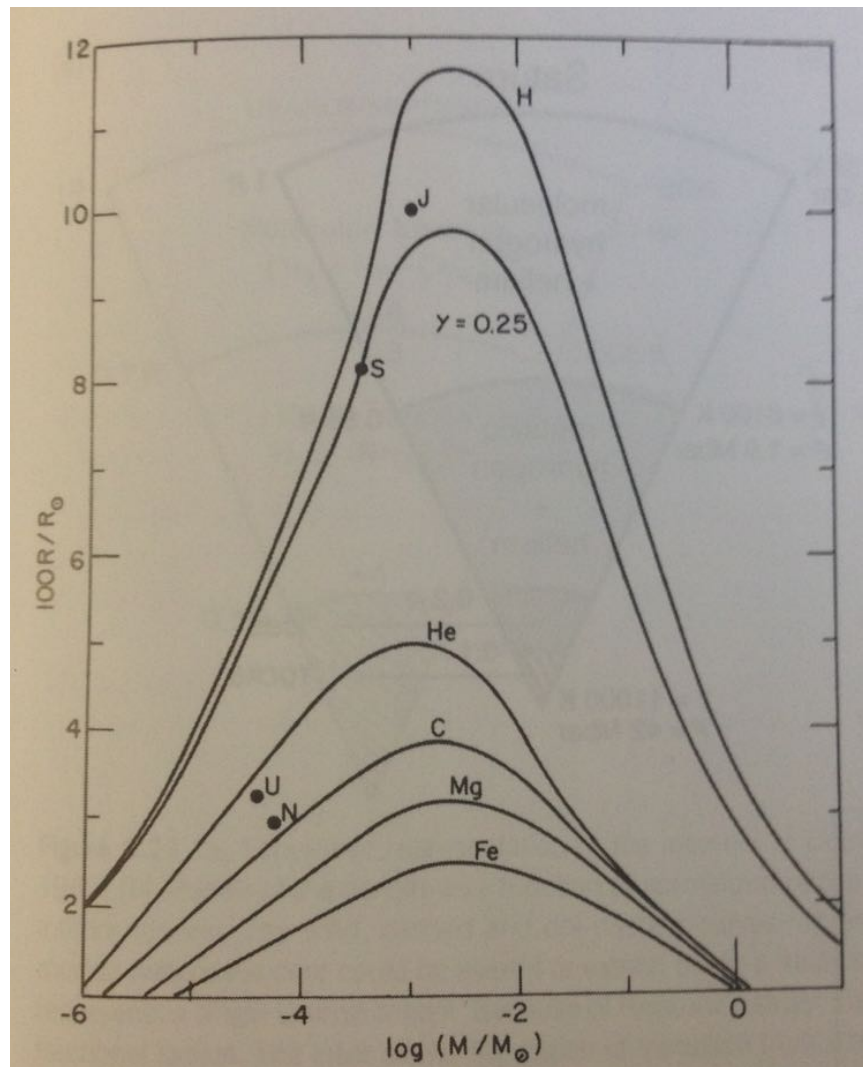


Jupiter and saturn differ by almost a factor 3 in mass,
but have almost the same radius.



Why?

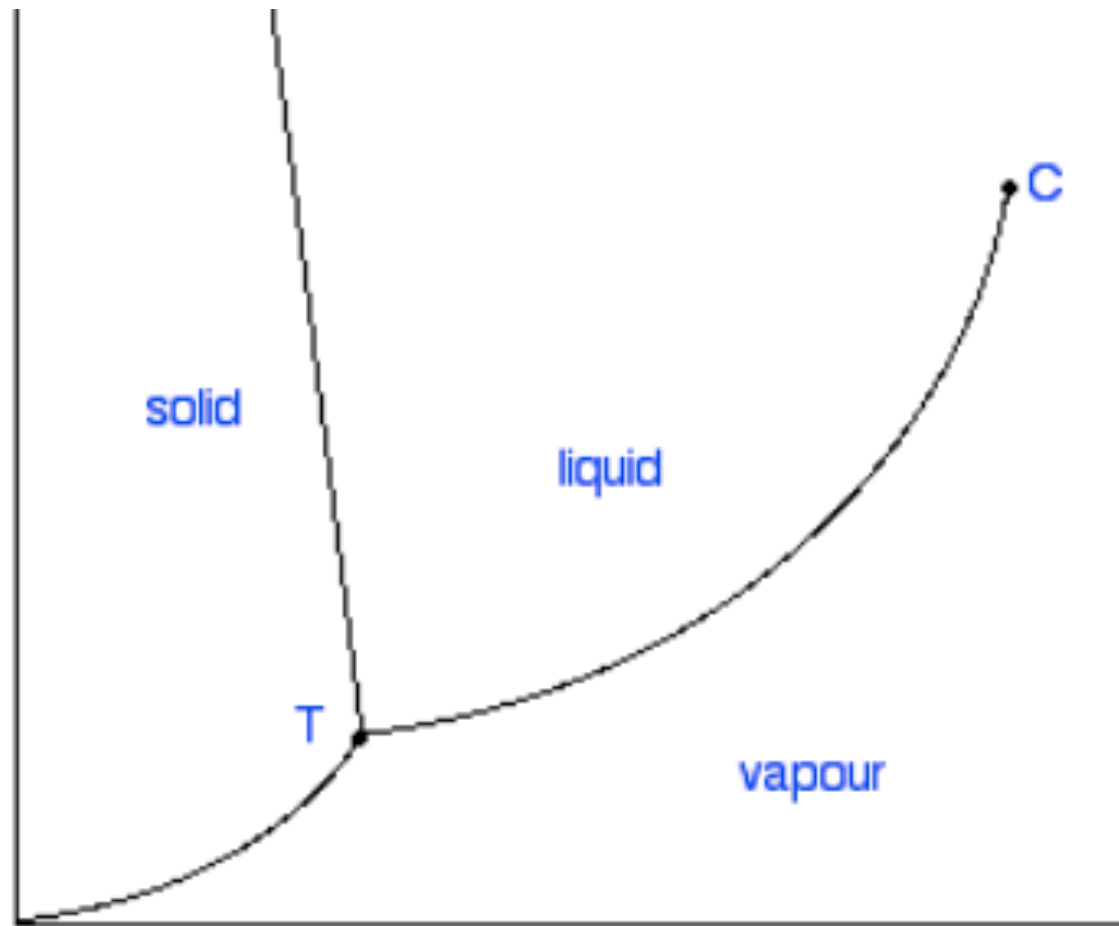
Radius vs mass curves for different compositions.



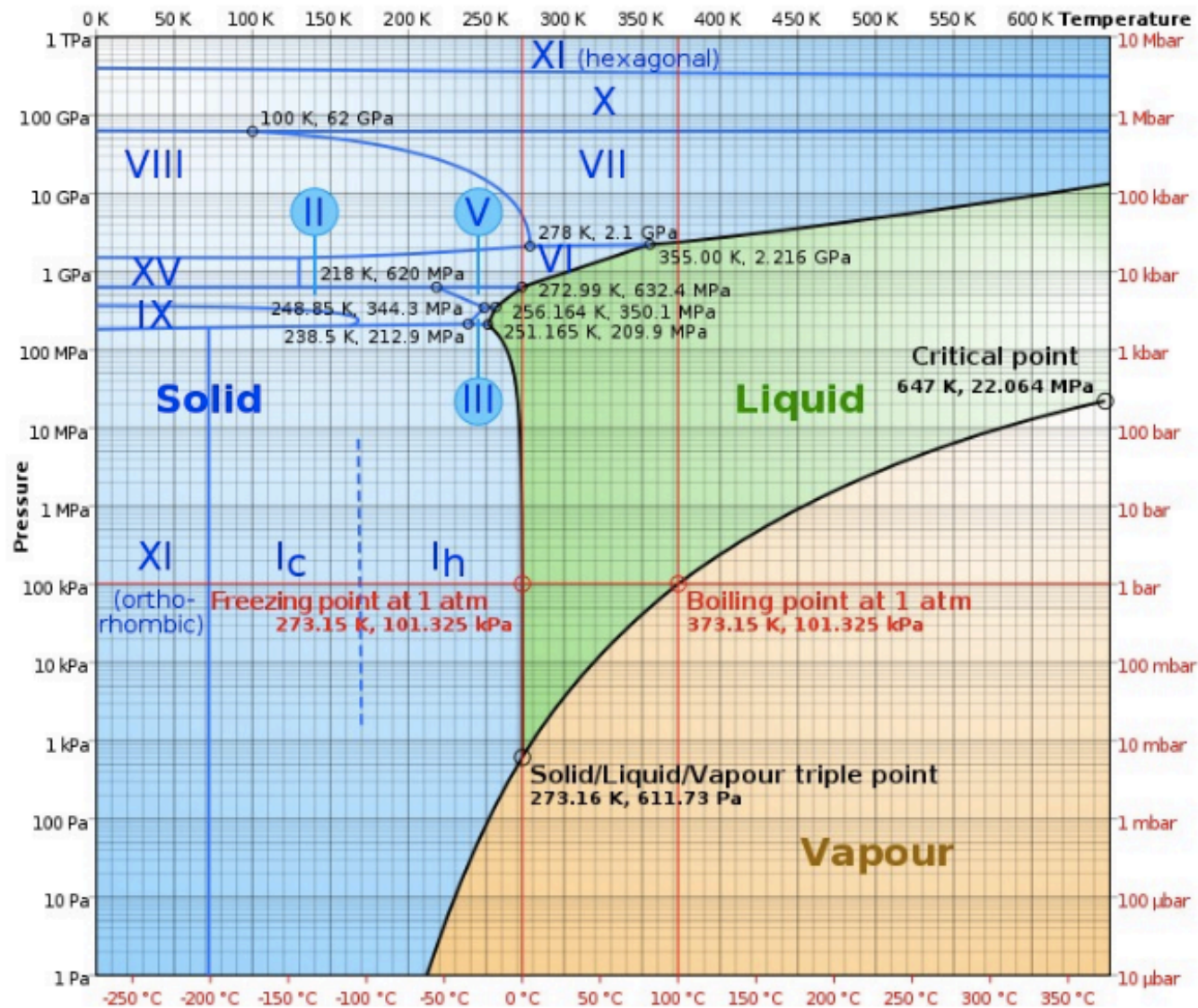
N=1 polytrope

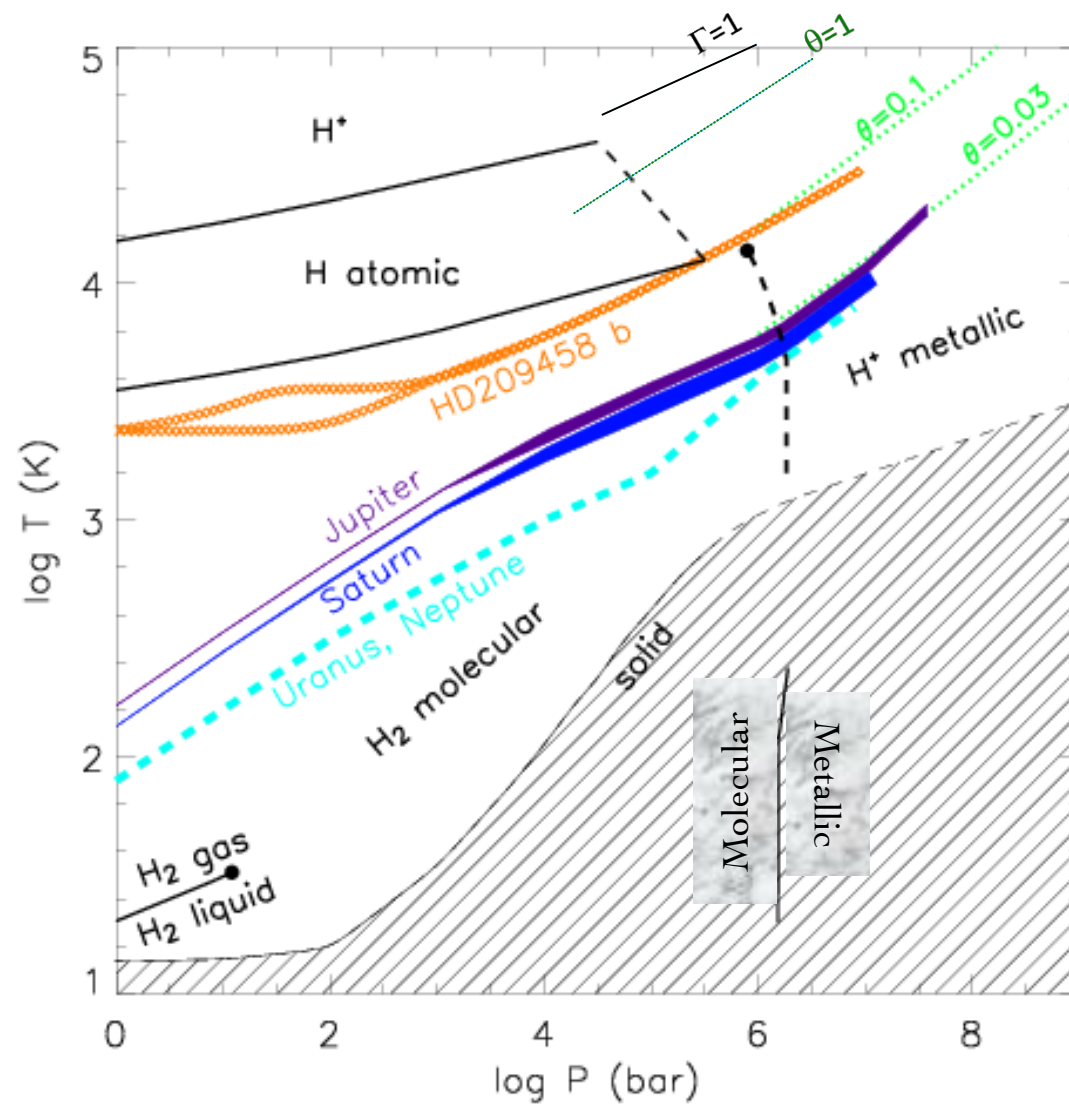
Flat on top, over almost two orders of magnitude in mass

Phase diagrams

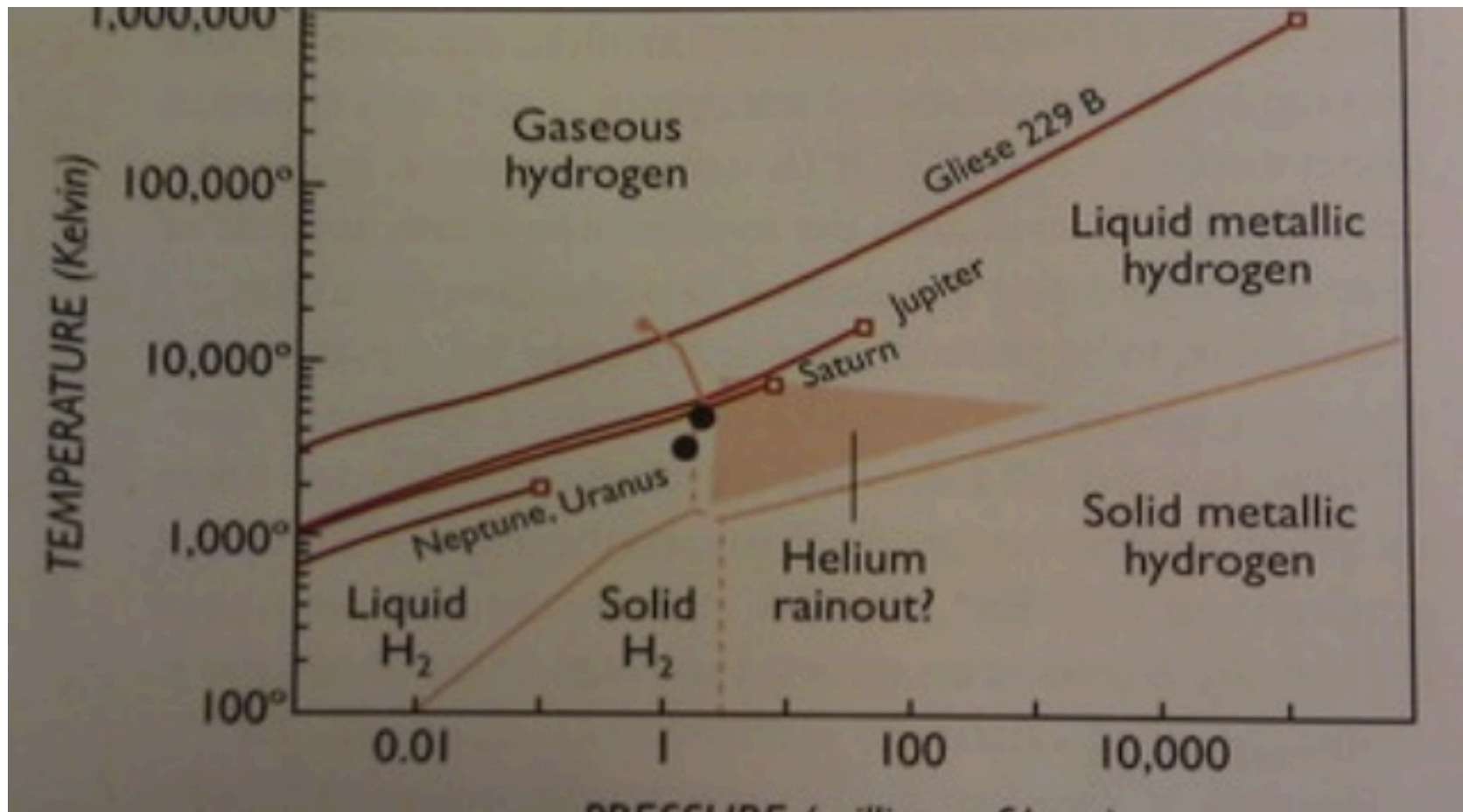


A lot more happens at high pressure

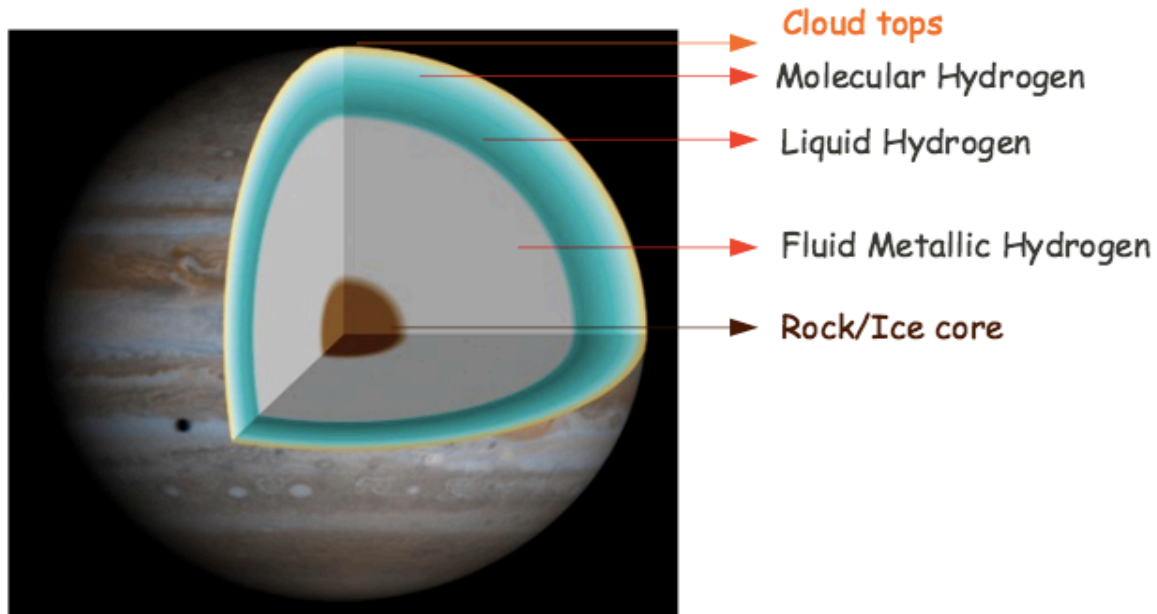




Phases of hydrogen

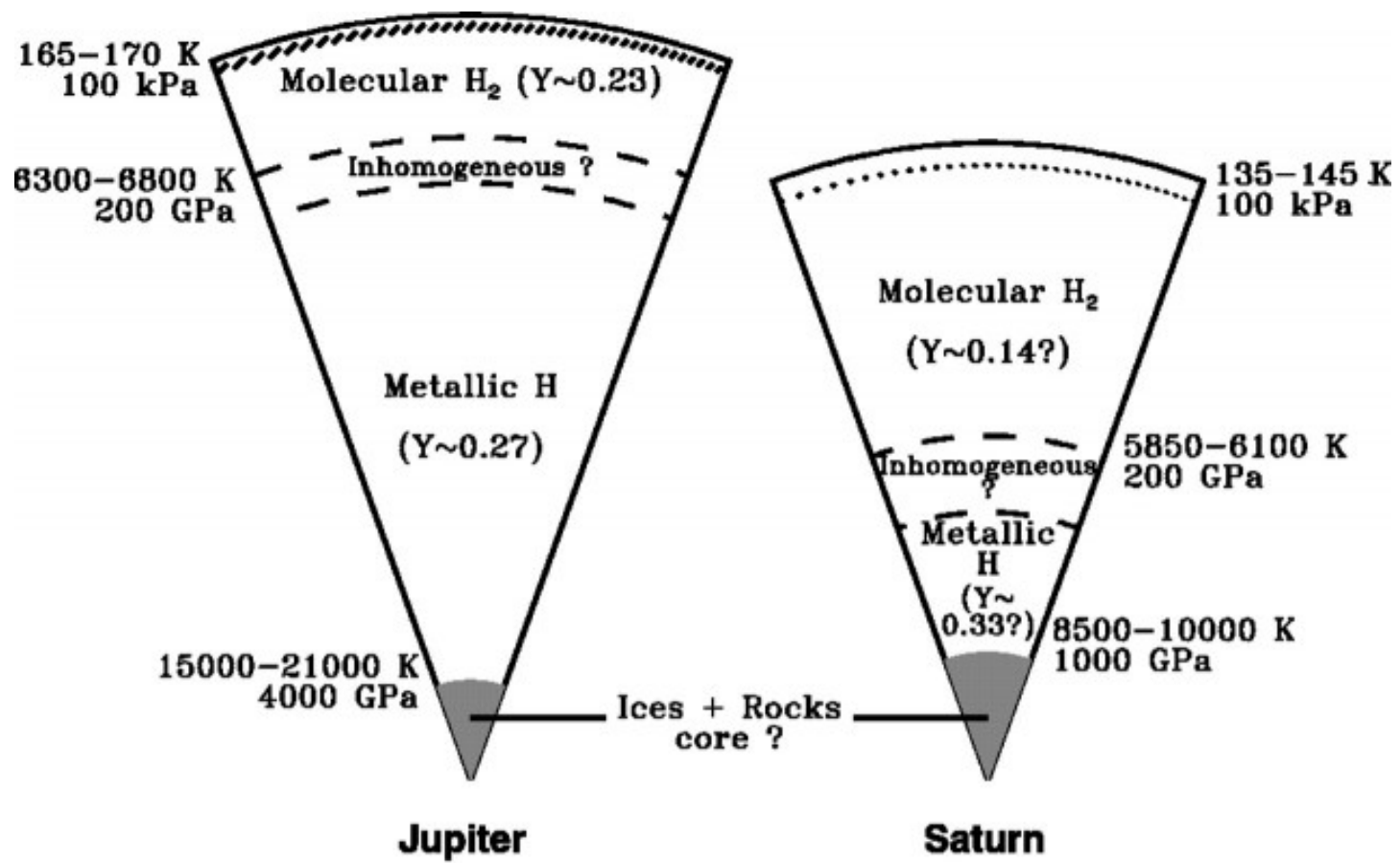


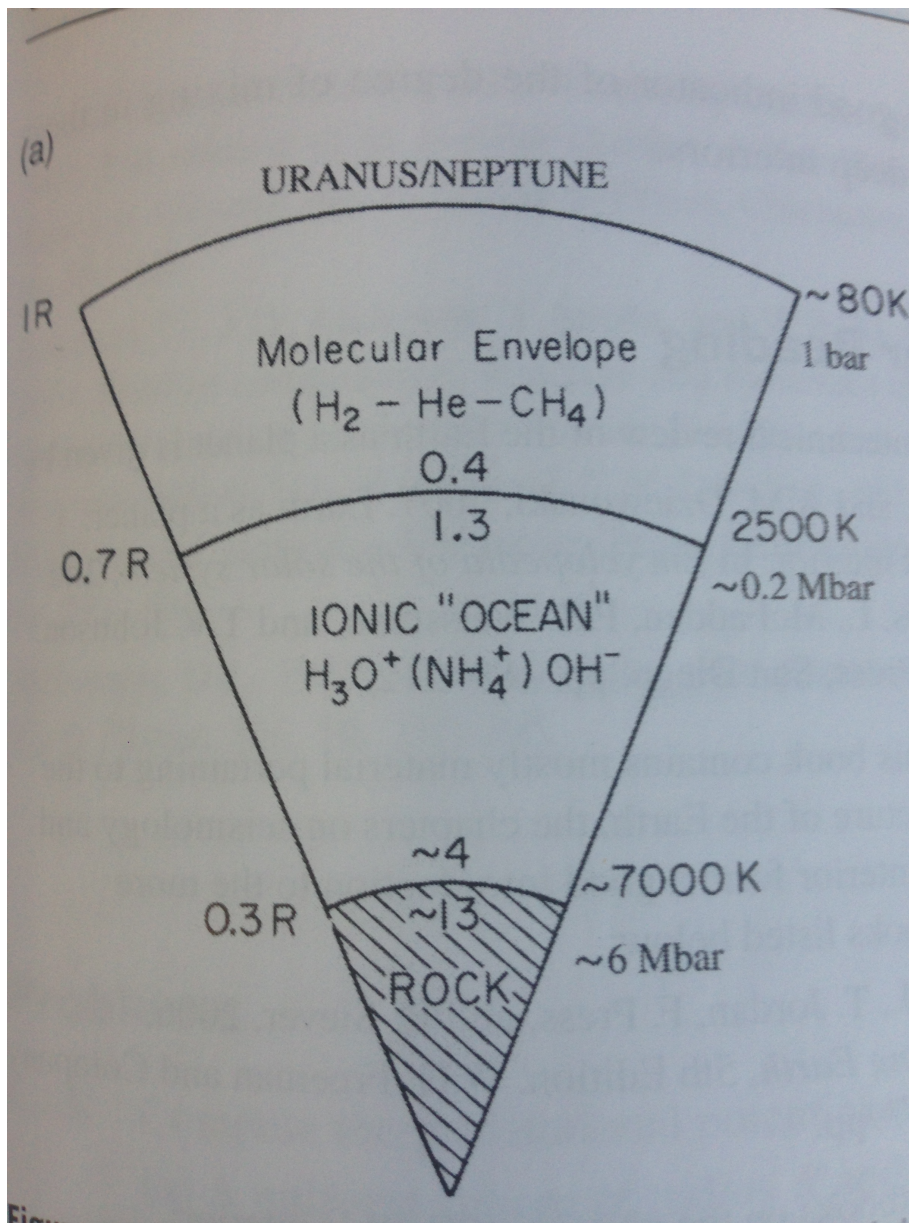
Interior of Jupiter



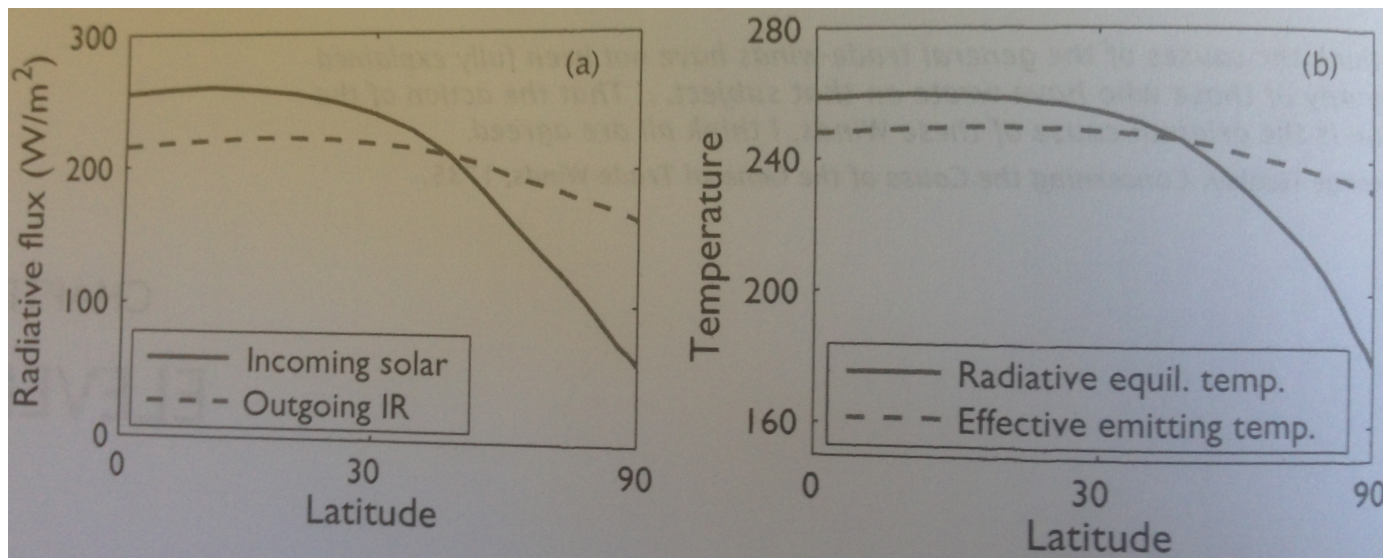
Pressure = weight/area

Pressure at center
70 million atmospheres



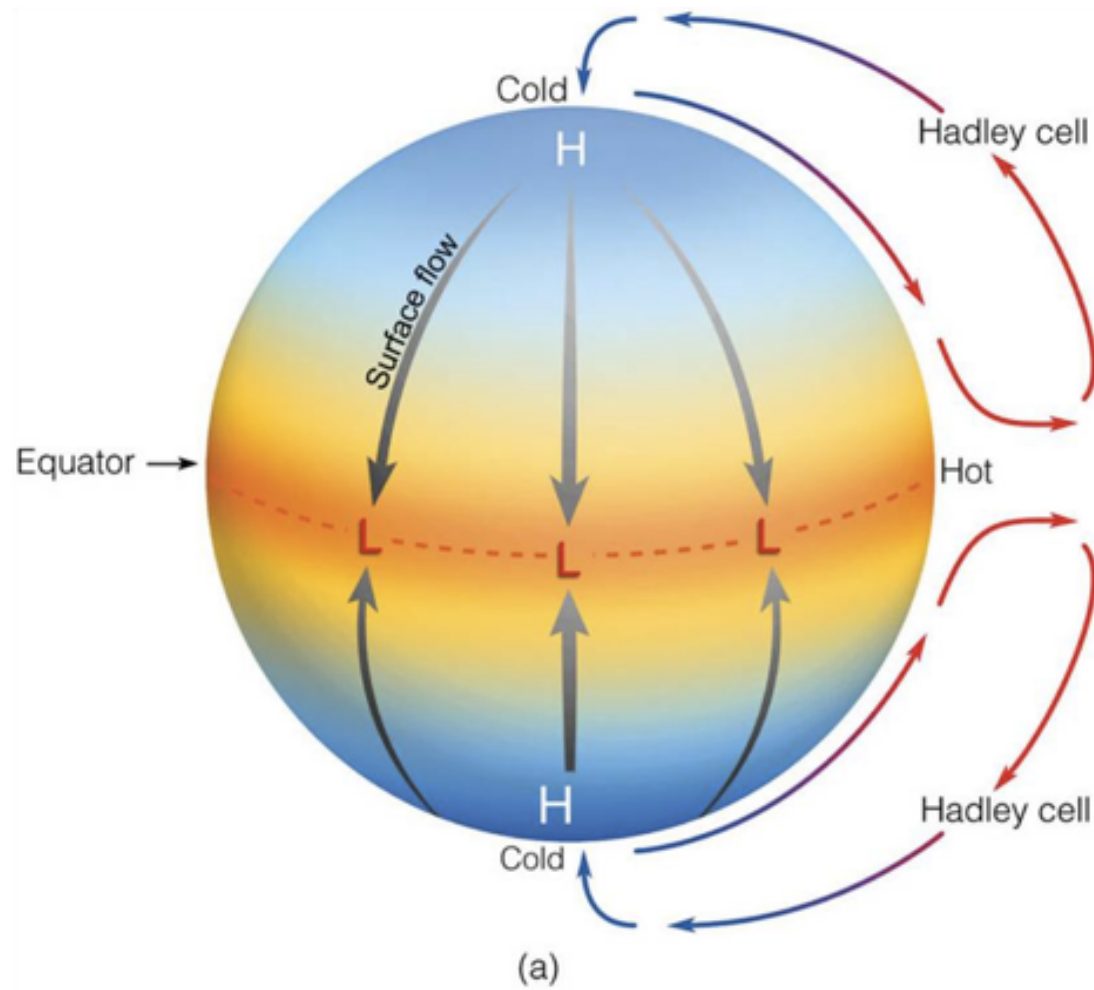


Radiative equilibrium.

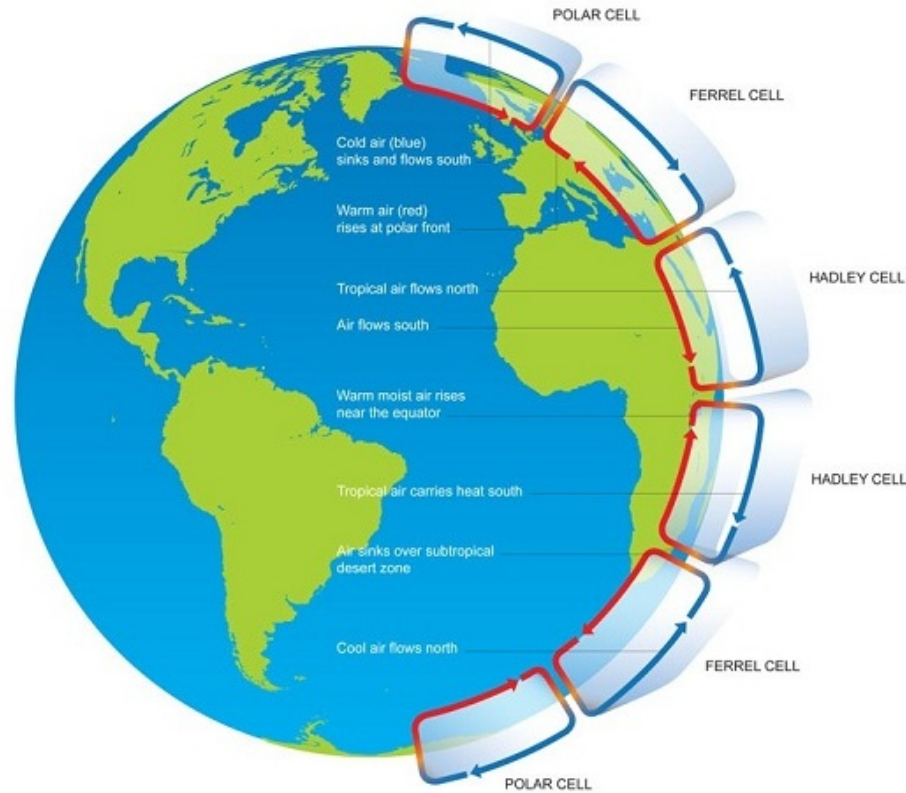


A function of latitude.
Evidence of transport!

Hadley circulation



Hadley circulation with planetary rotation



The deserts are found in a line



Boundary between descending Hadley cells.

Ascent: aircools and cannot hold moist, raining down. Makes the rain forests.

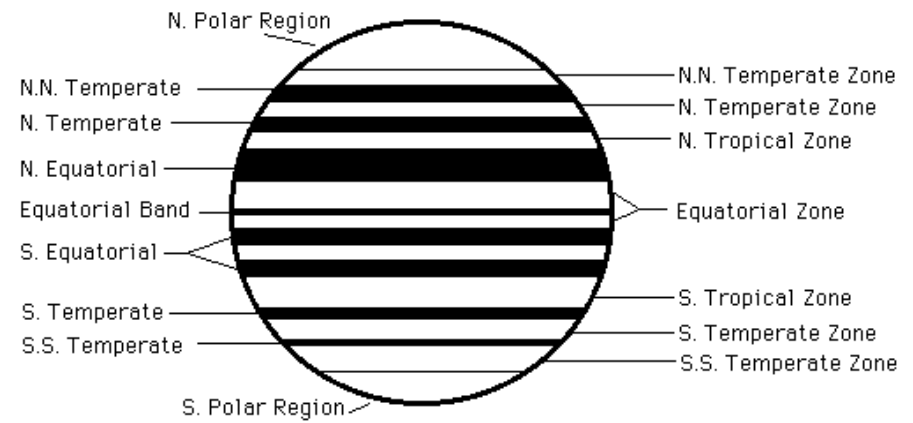
Descent: Dry air creates deserts.

Atmospheres of the Giant Planets



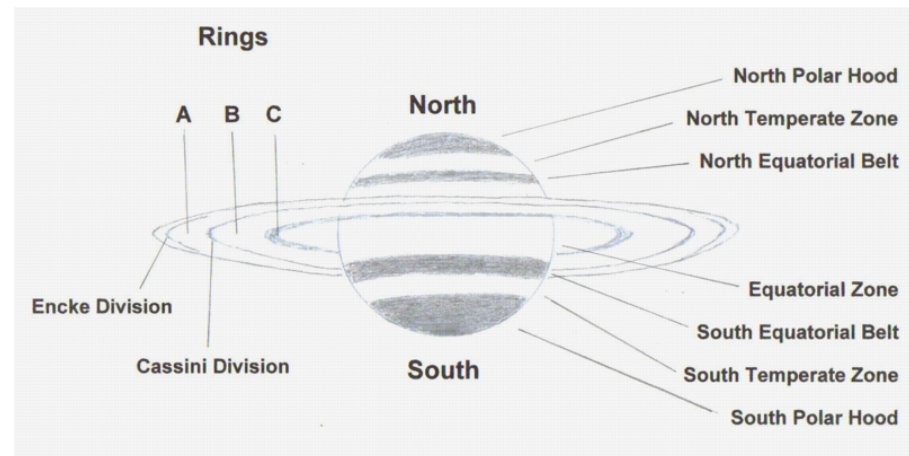
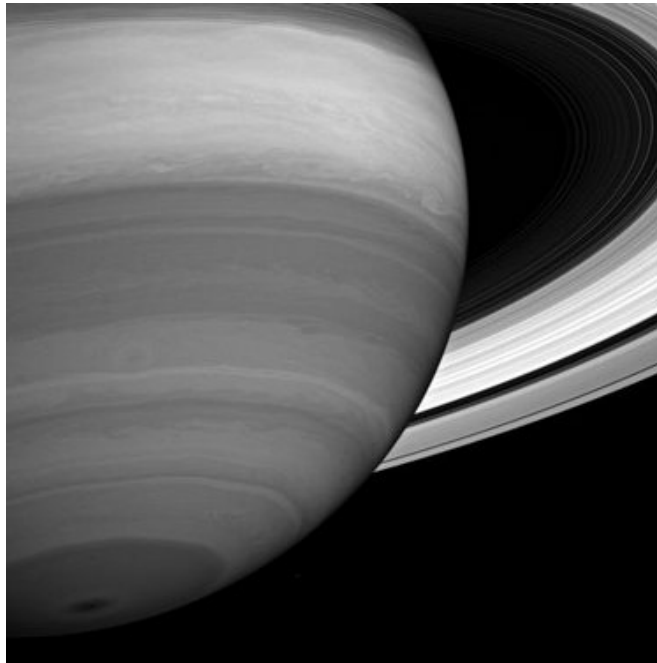
DARK BELTS

BRIGHT ZONES



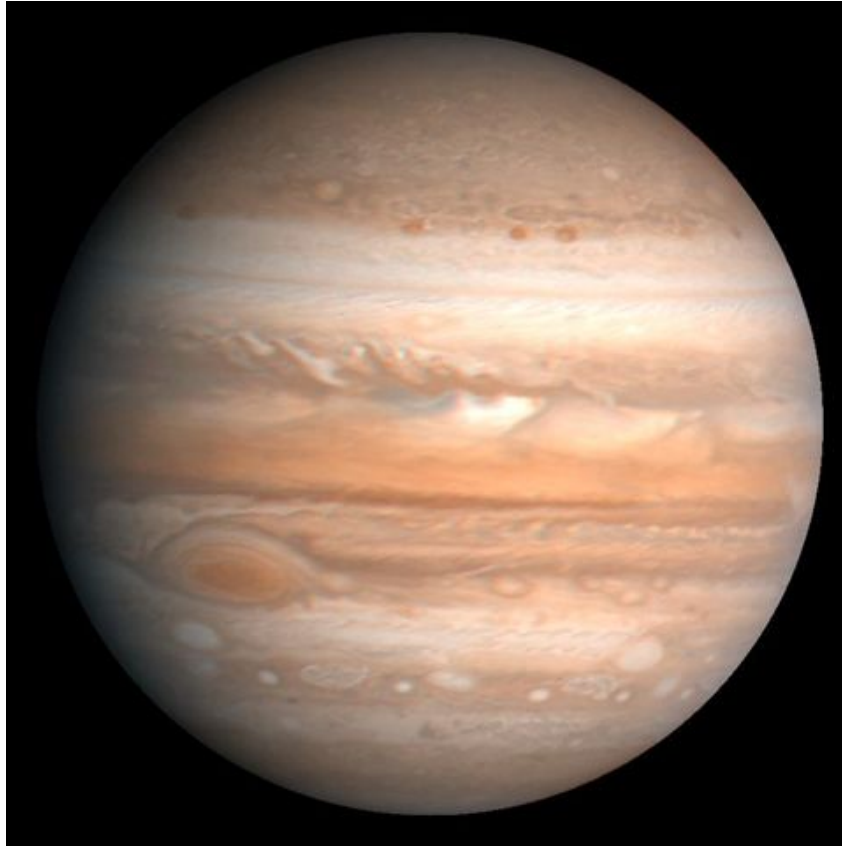
Bands and Storms

Atmospheres of the Giant Planets



Bands and Storms

Clouds of Jupiter



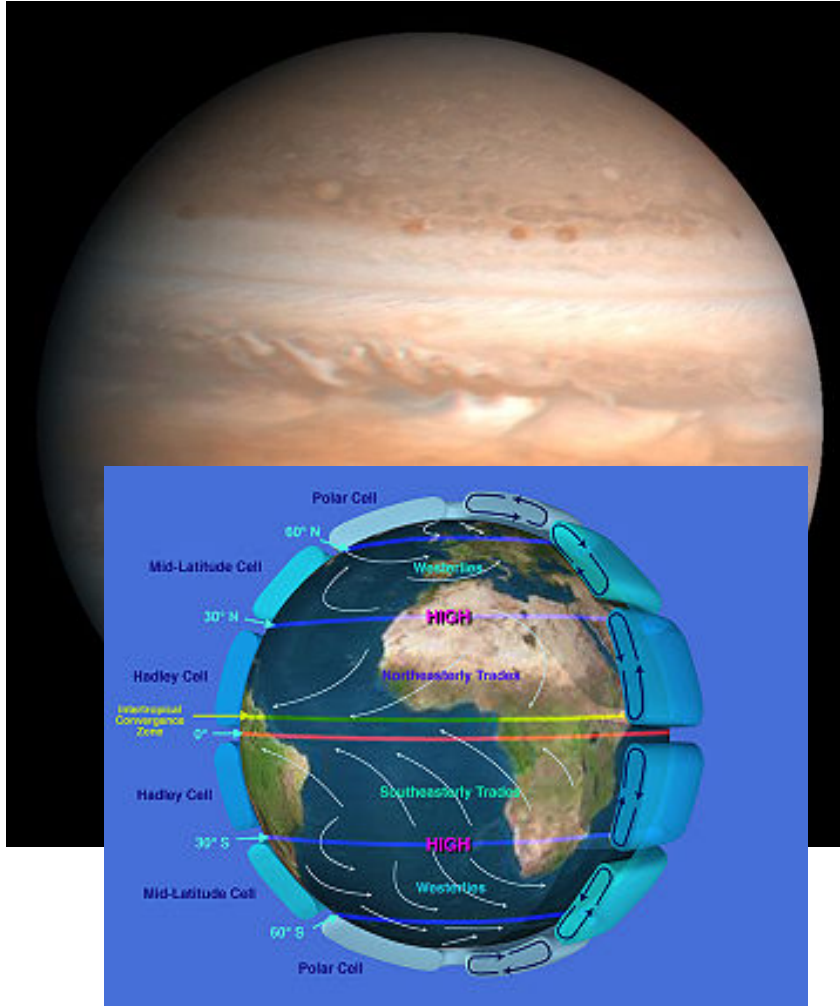
Bright *Zones*

Dark *Belts*

Dark brown color:
compounds of sulfur (S) and phosphorus (P)

Bright zones:
High ammonia clouds
shielding brown stuff below

Clouds of Jupiter



Bright **Zones**

Dark **Belts**

Dark brown color:
compounds of sulfur (S) and phosphorus (P)

Bright zones:
High ammonia clouds
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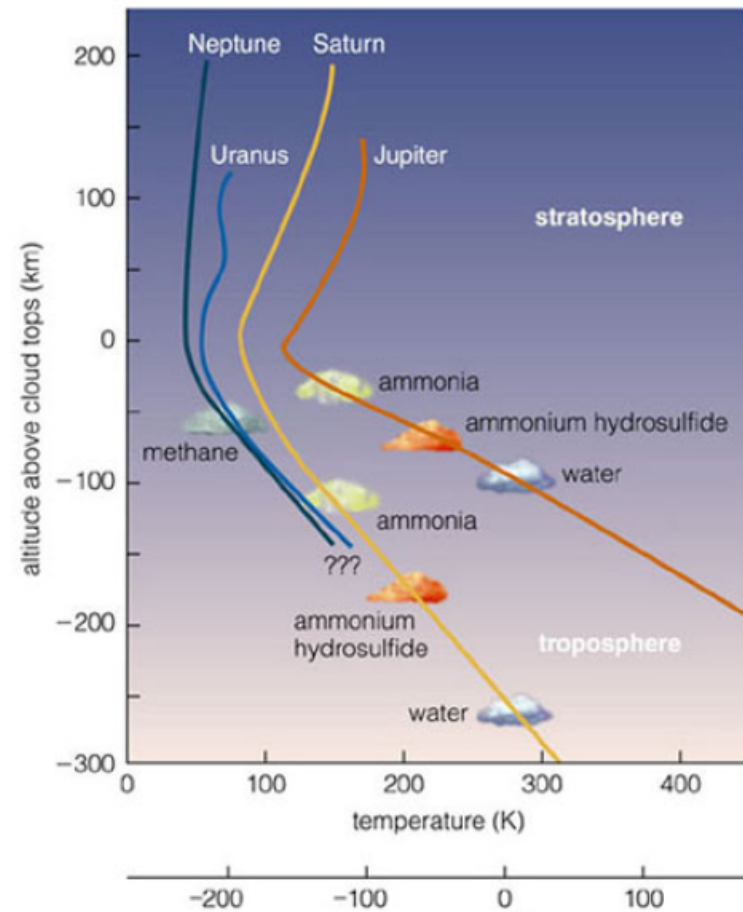
In Jupiter

Hot gas rises, **cools**,
ammonia condenses -> **Zones**.

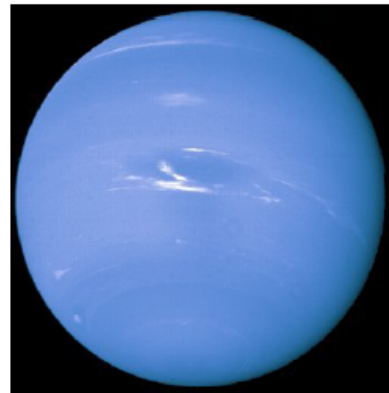
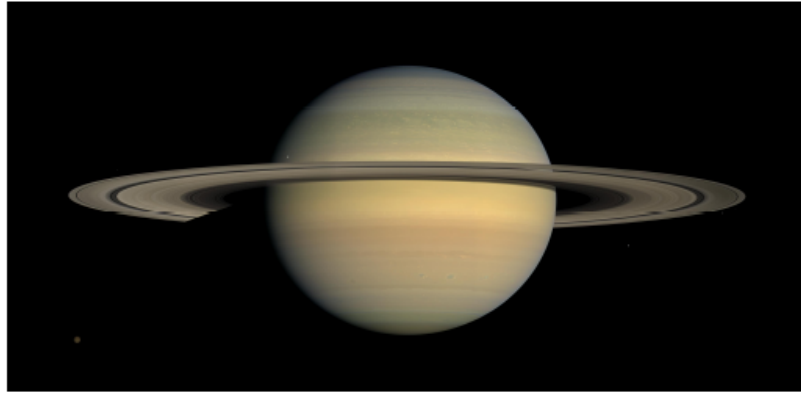
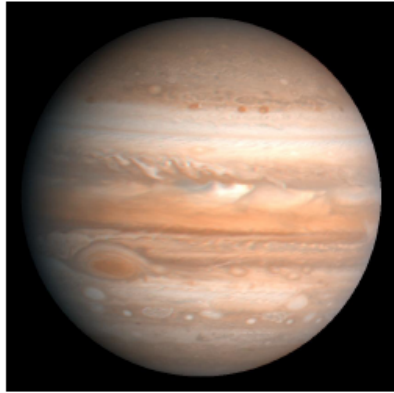
Cold air sinking,
dry in ammonia - > **Belts**.

Clouds

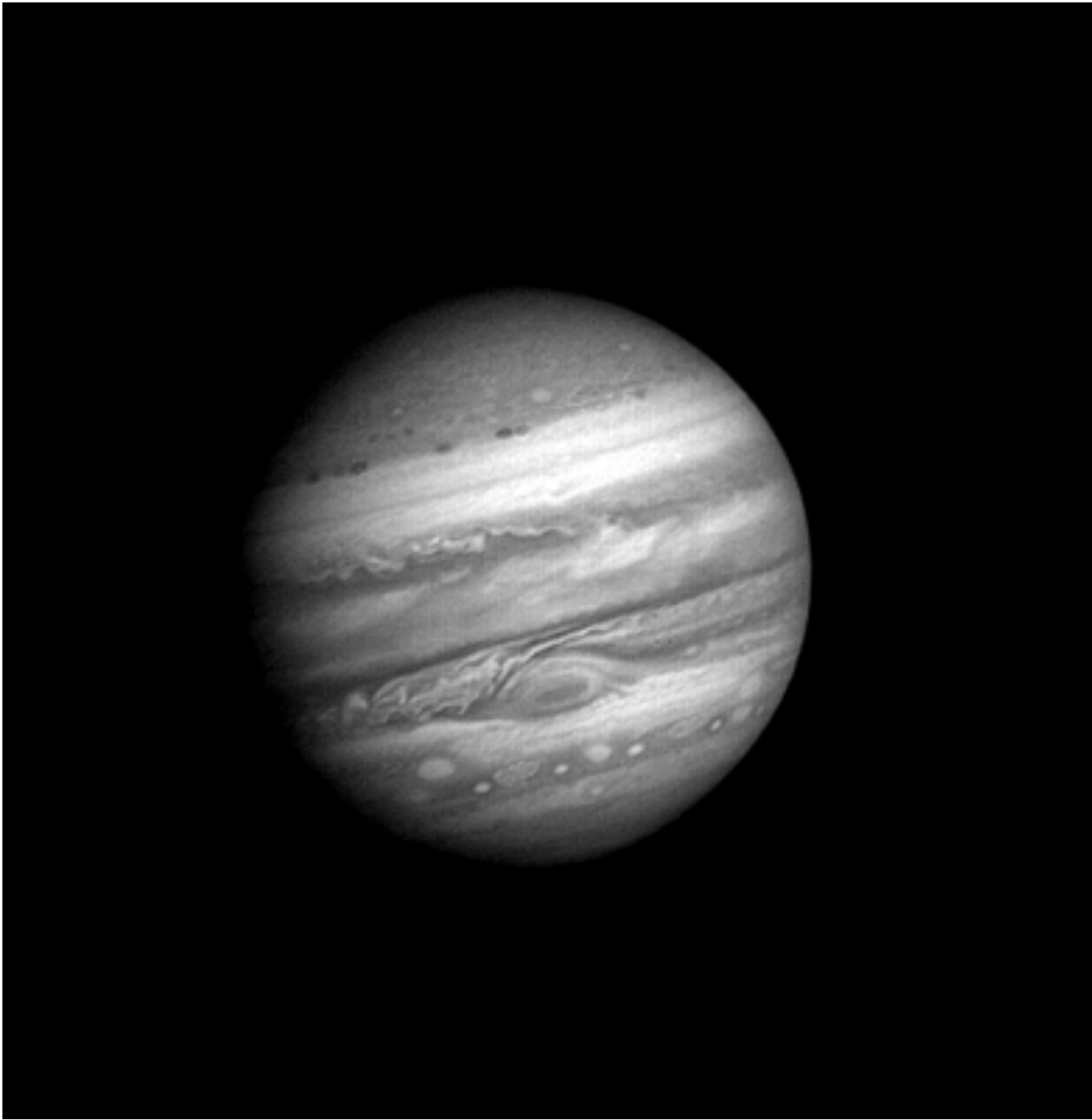
H_2O	$\sim 300\text{K}$
NH_3	$\sim 140\text{K}$
CH_4	$\sim 80\text{K}$



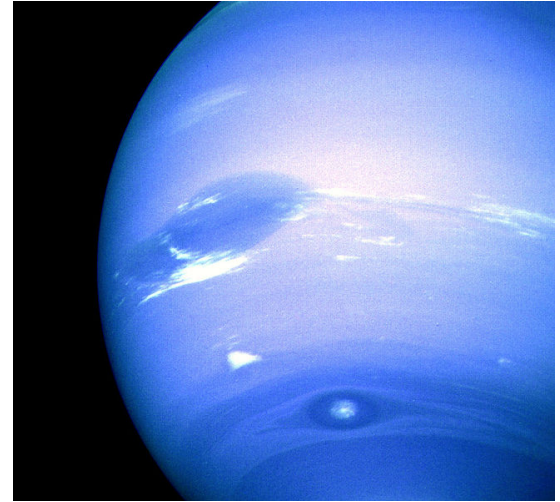
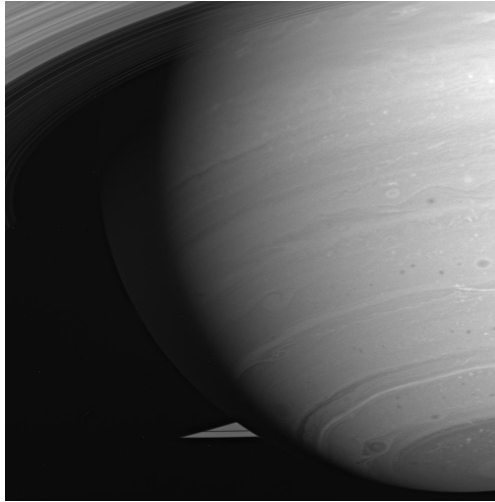
Ammonia and Methane Clouds



Jupiter and Saturn have **ammonia clouds**
Colder Uranus and Neptune have **methane clouds**



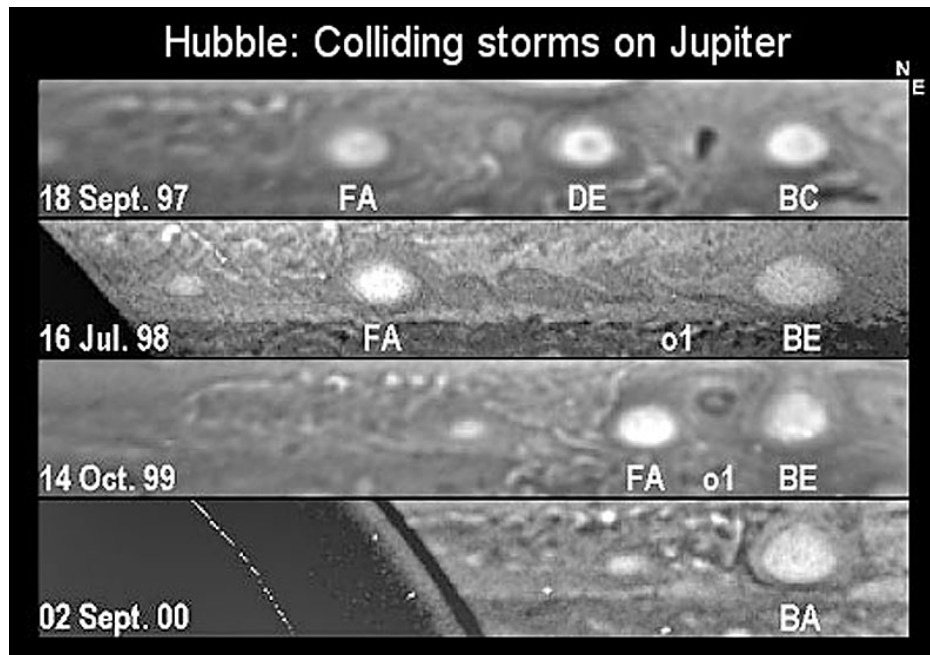
Storms



Conservation of vorticity

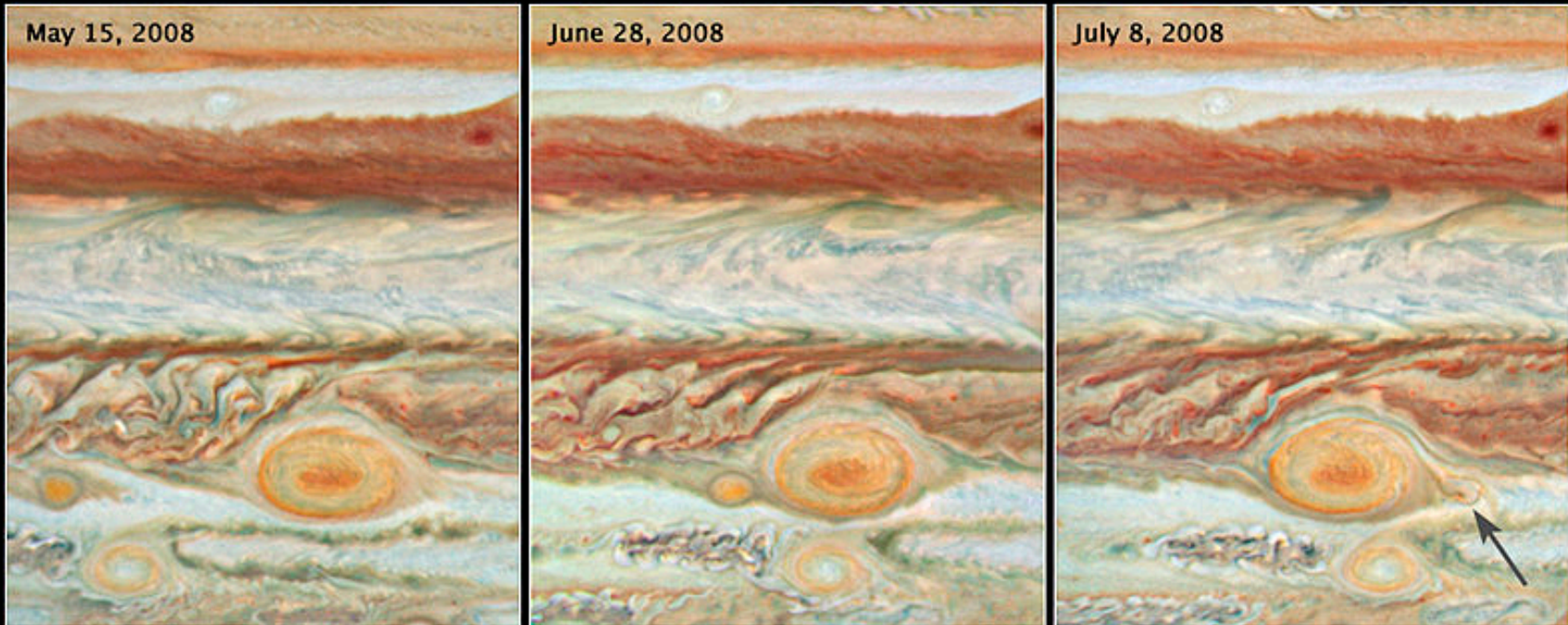


Merging Vortices

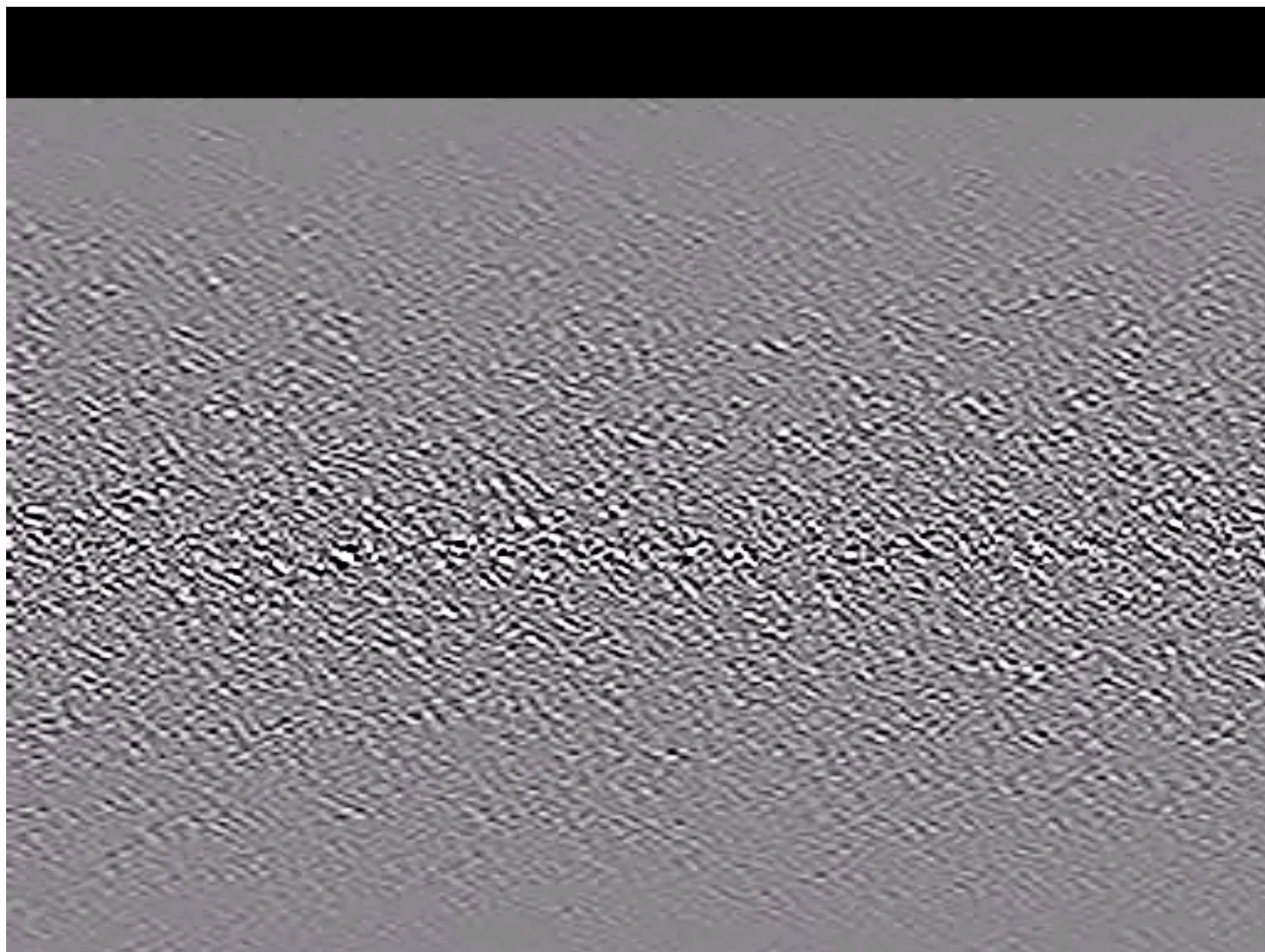


Jupiter's Red Spots

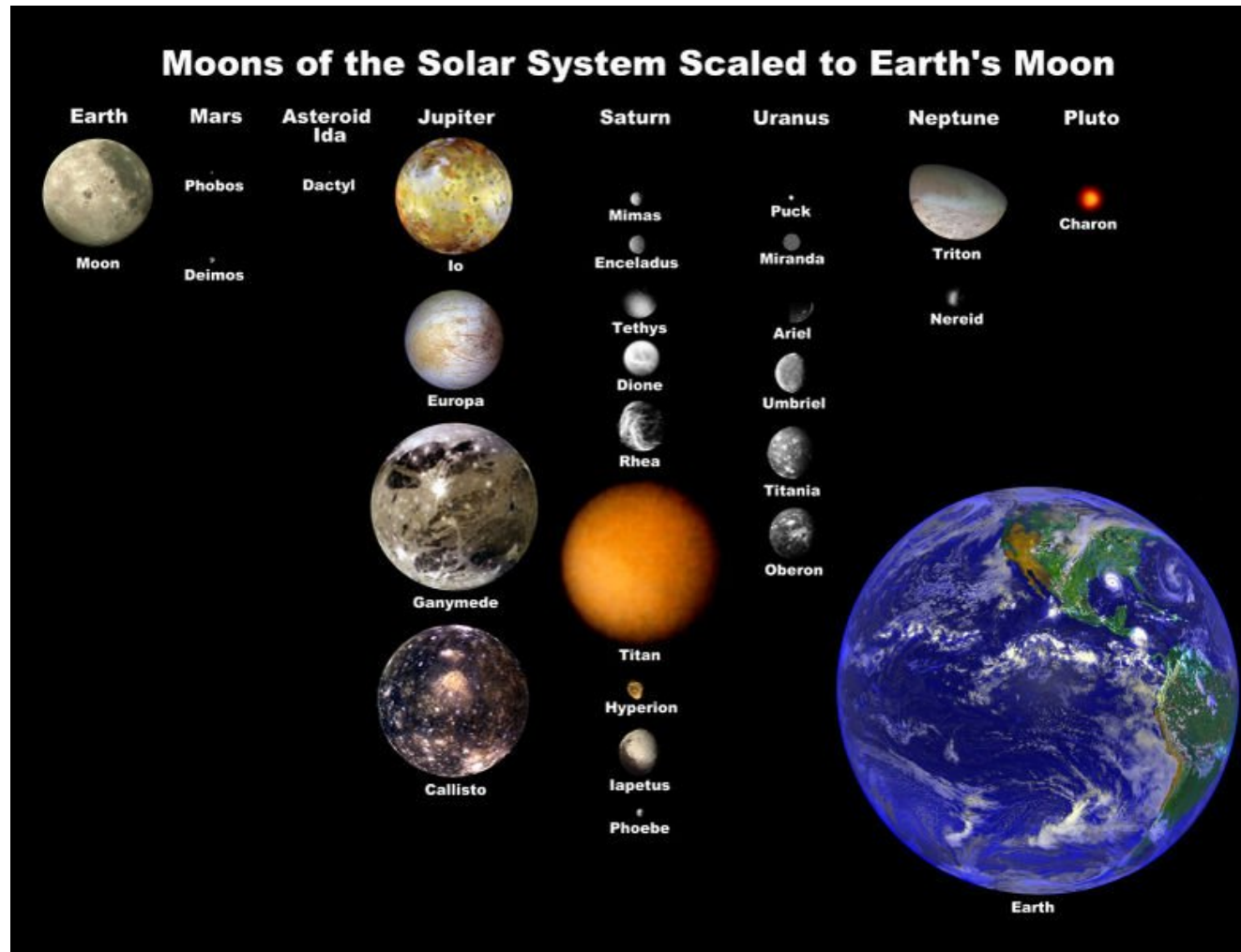
Jupiter's Red Spots ■ *Hubble Space Telescope* WFPC2



NASA, ESA, and A. Simon-Miller (NASA Goddard Space Flight Center) ■ STScI-PRC08-27



Satellites of the Outer Planets



Size Comparison

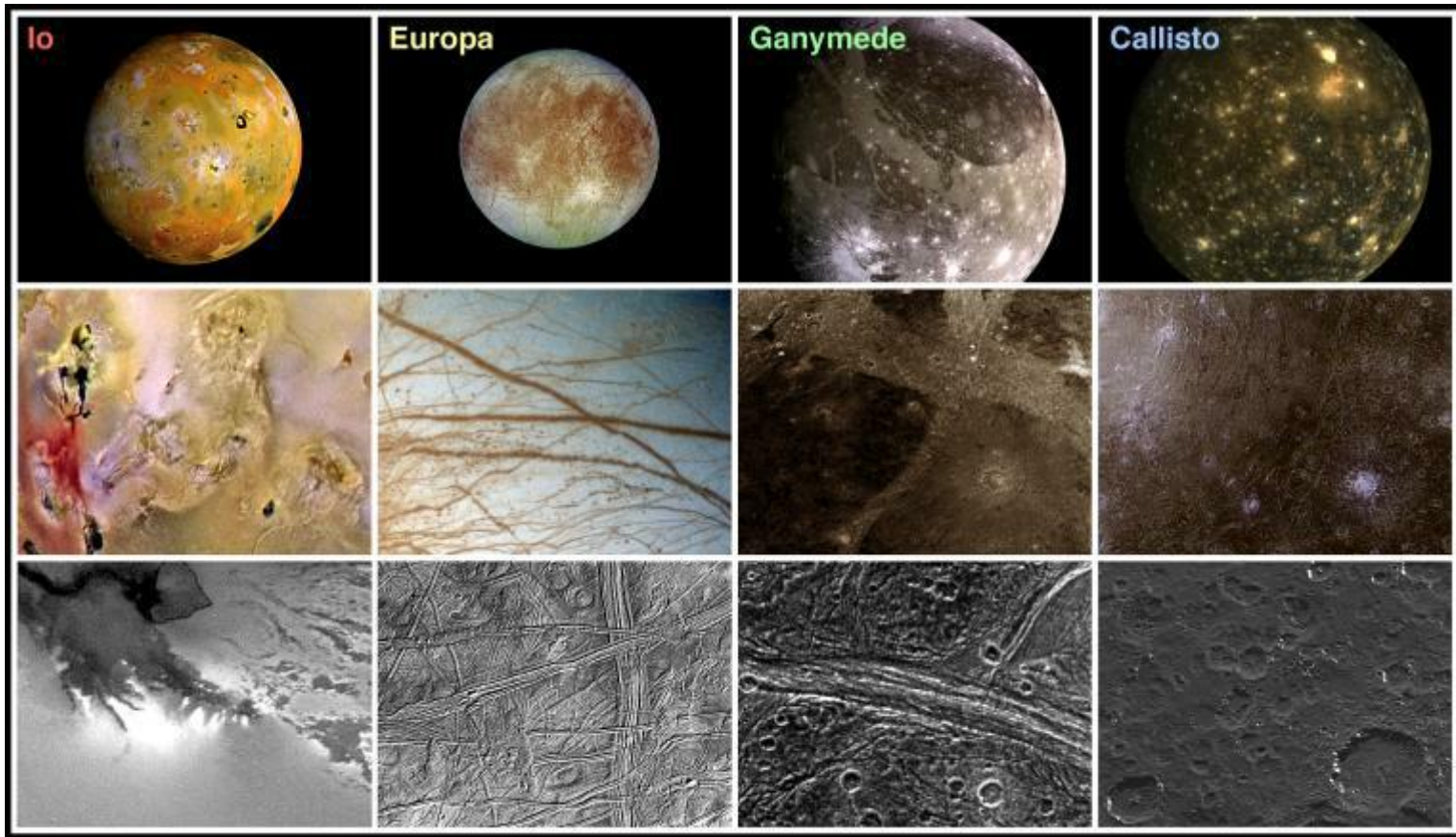


Jupiter's family portrait



The Galilean Moons

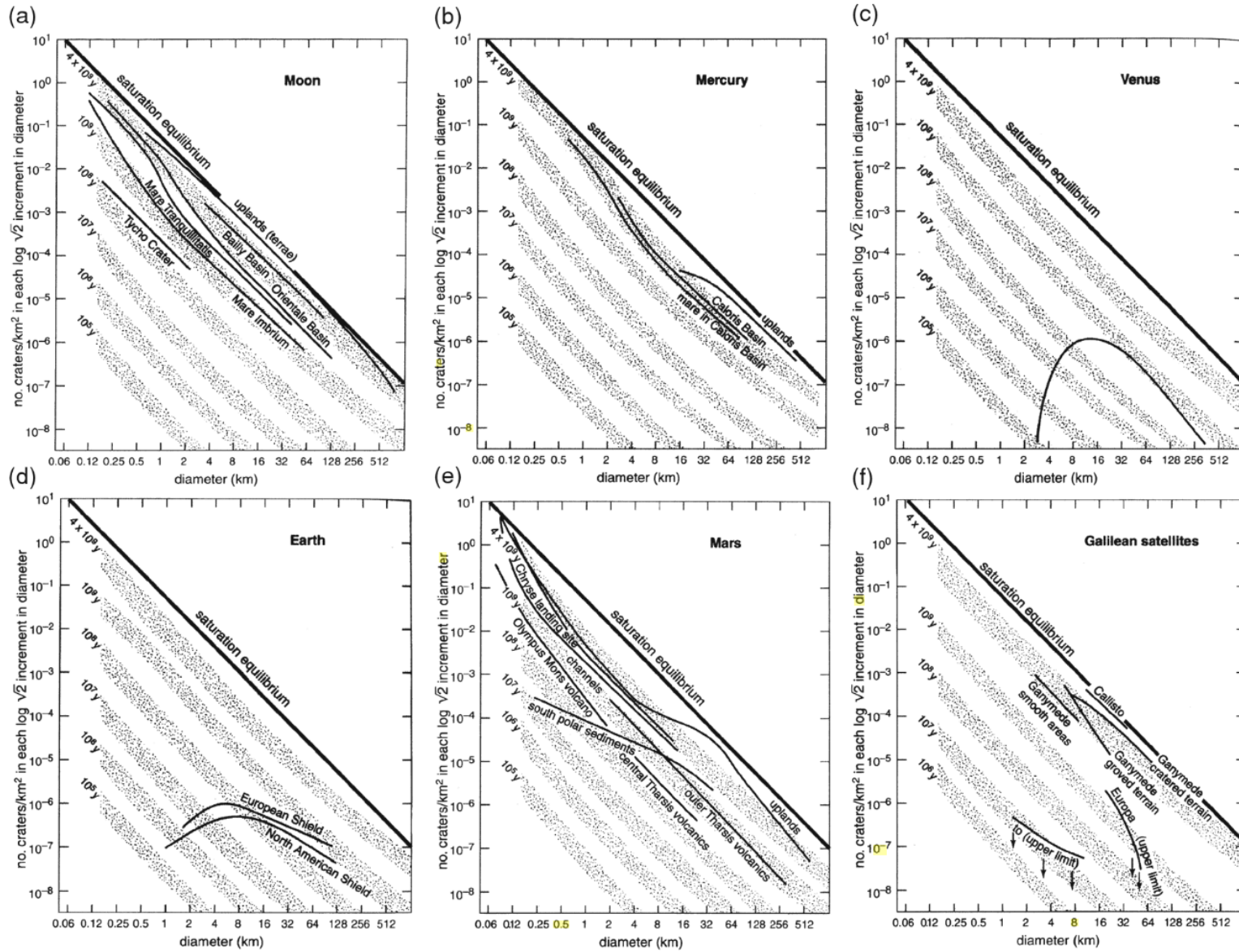
Surfaces of the Galilean Satellites



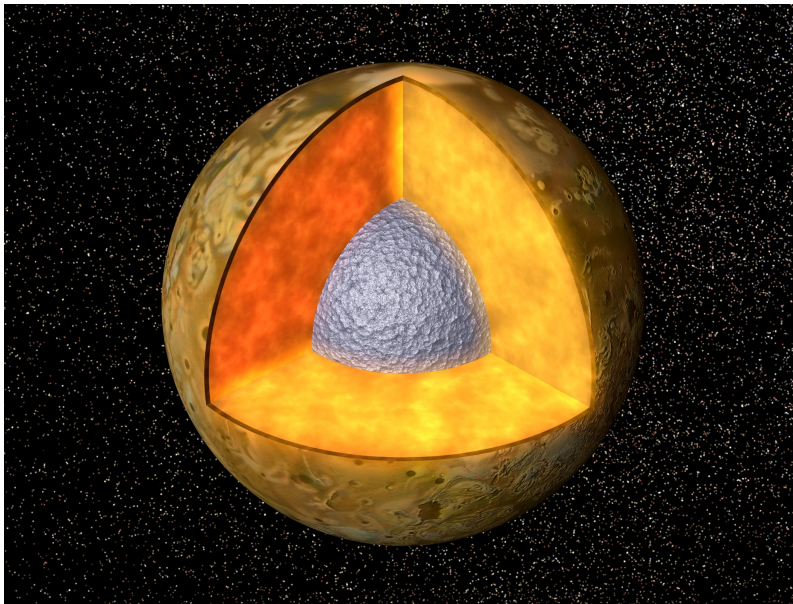
← Young surfaces → Old surface

(Geologically Active)

Crater Counting



Io's interior



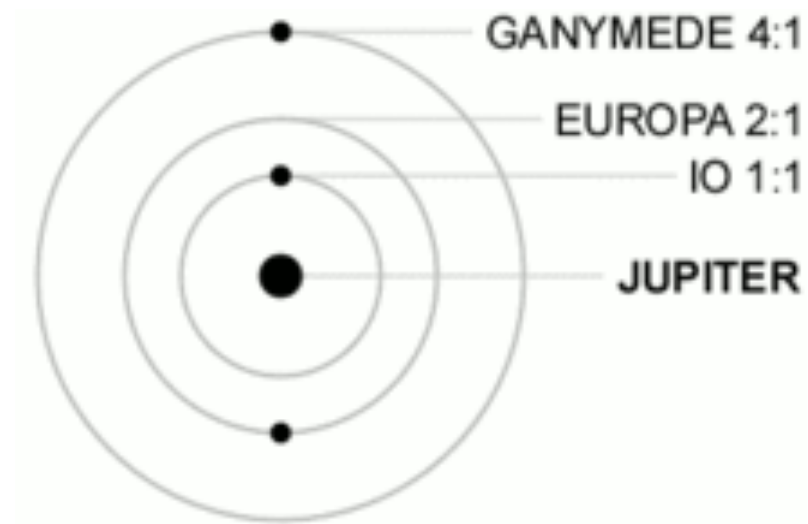
Thin silicate crust

Molten silicate interior

Iron rich core

Io is roughly the size of the Moon.
How does such a small body retain such a hot interior?

Laplace Resonance



Tidal Heating



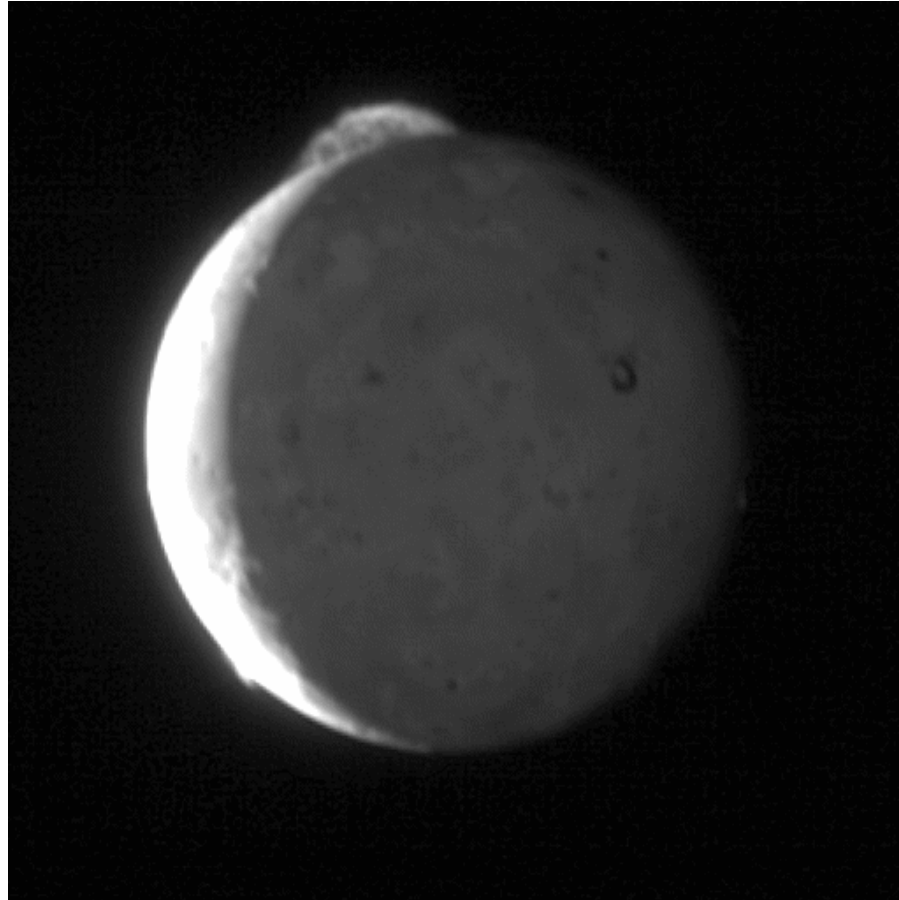
©2005 Pearson Education, Inc.

Periodic tug of Europa makes Io's orbit slightly elliptic ($e \sim 0.004$)

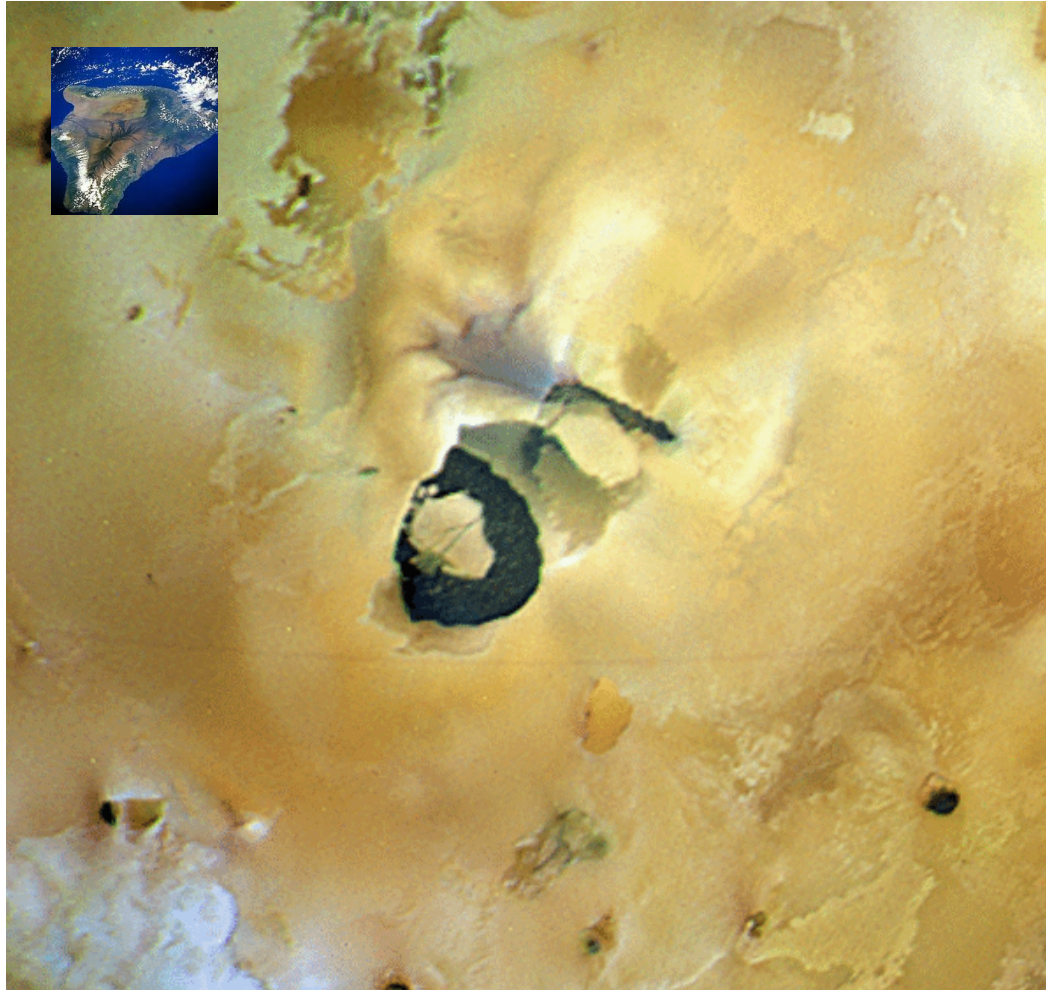
Difference in tidal bulge
from closest to farthest from Jupiter:
100m

MASSIVE FRICTION!!!

Io's Volcanoes

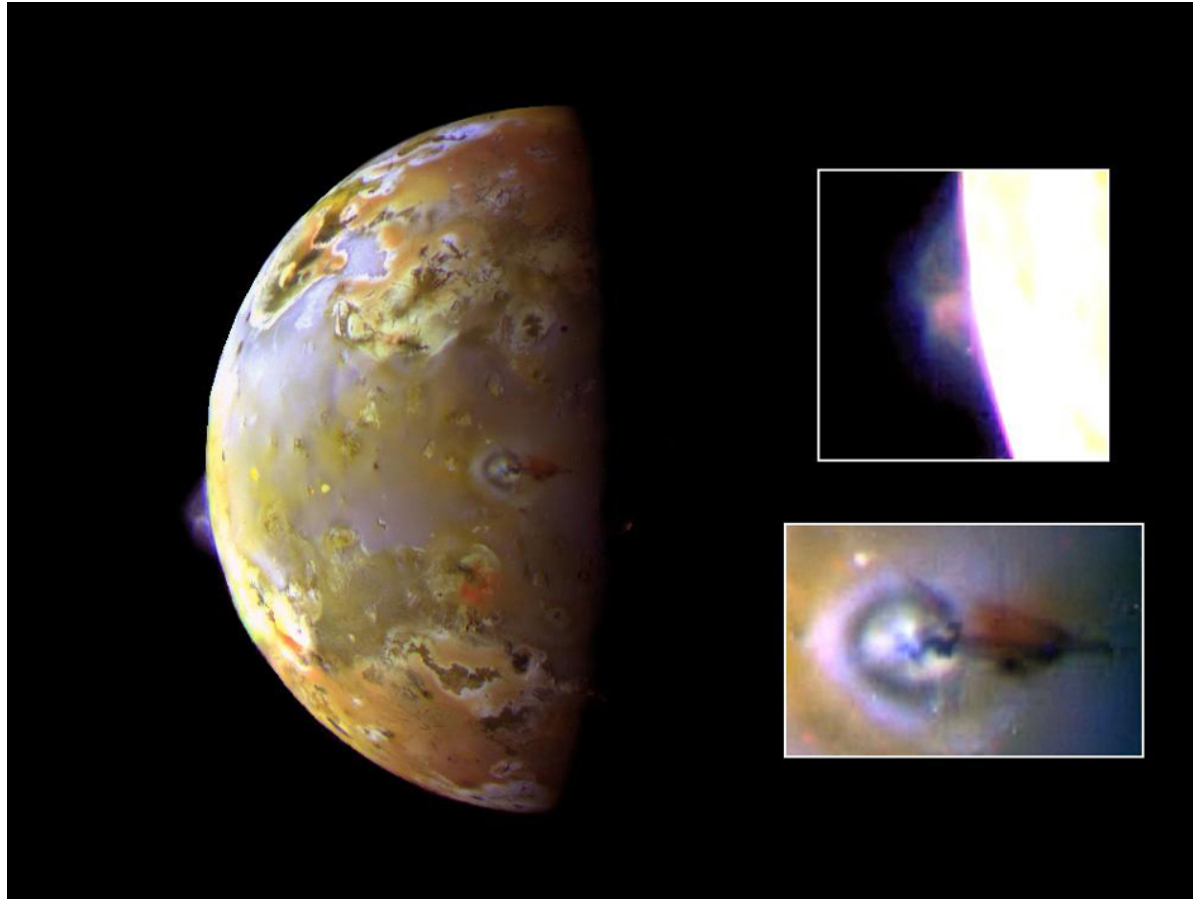


Io's Volcanoes

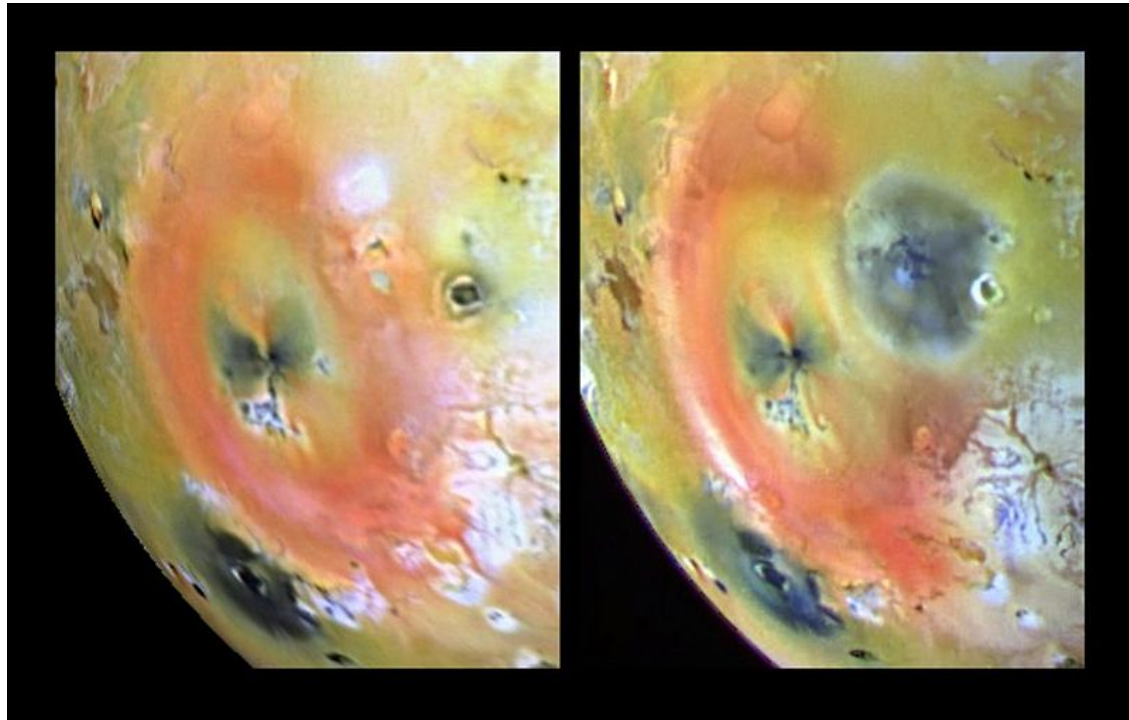


Loki

Active plumes



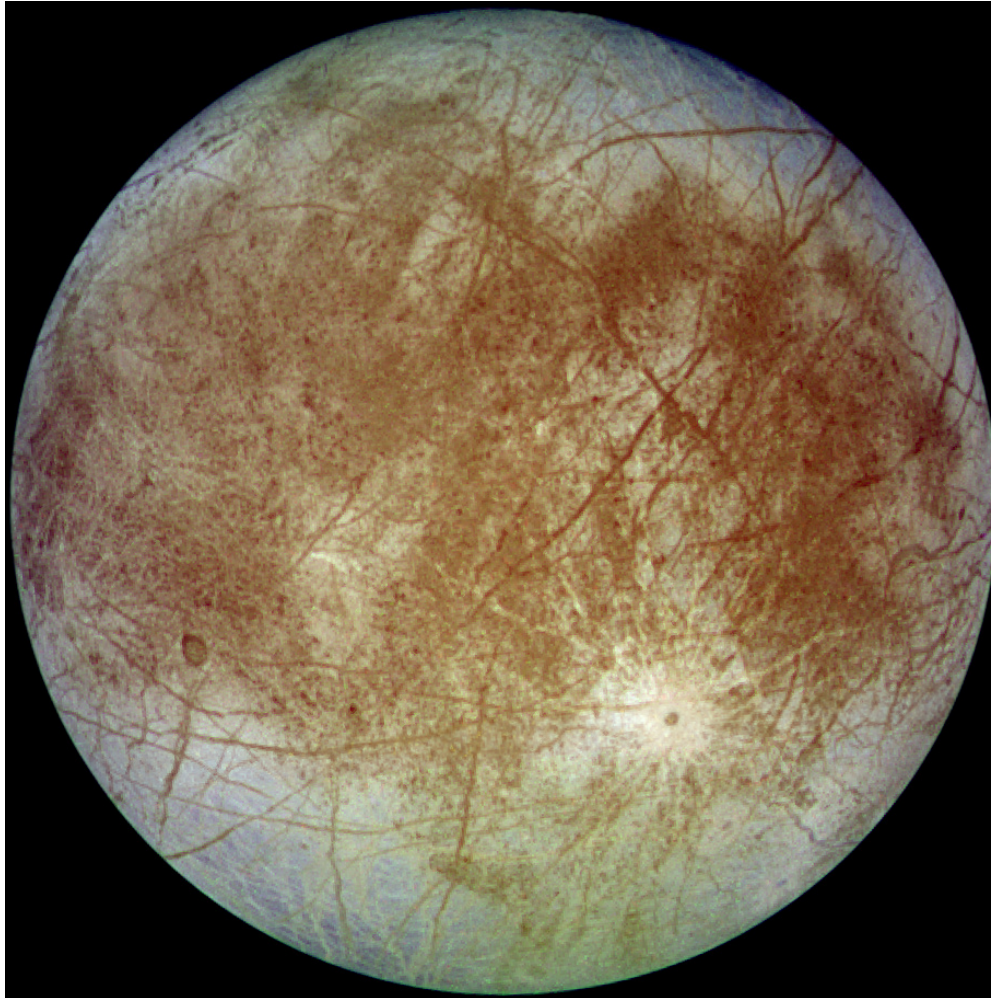
Io in action



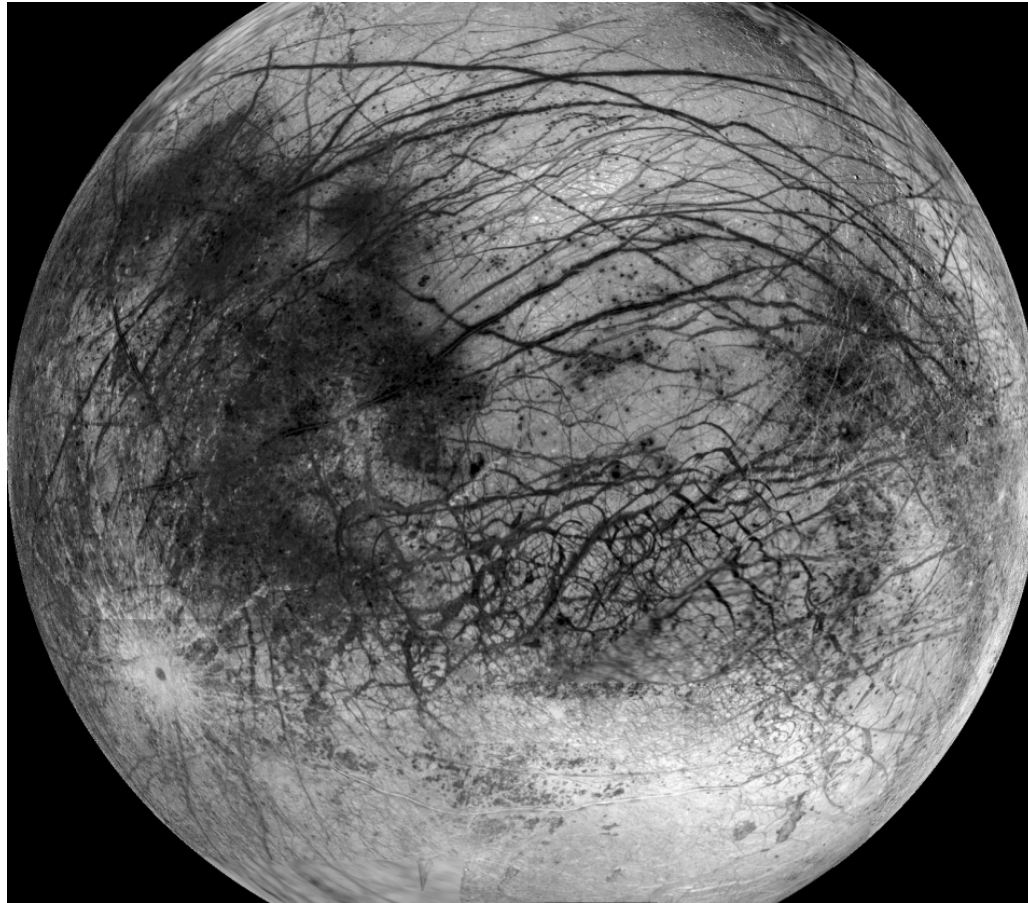
April 2007

September 2007

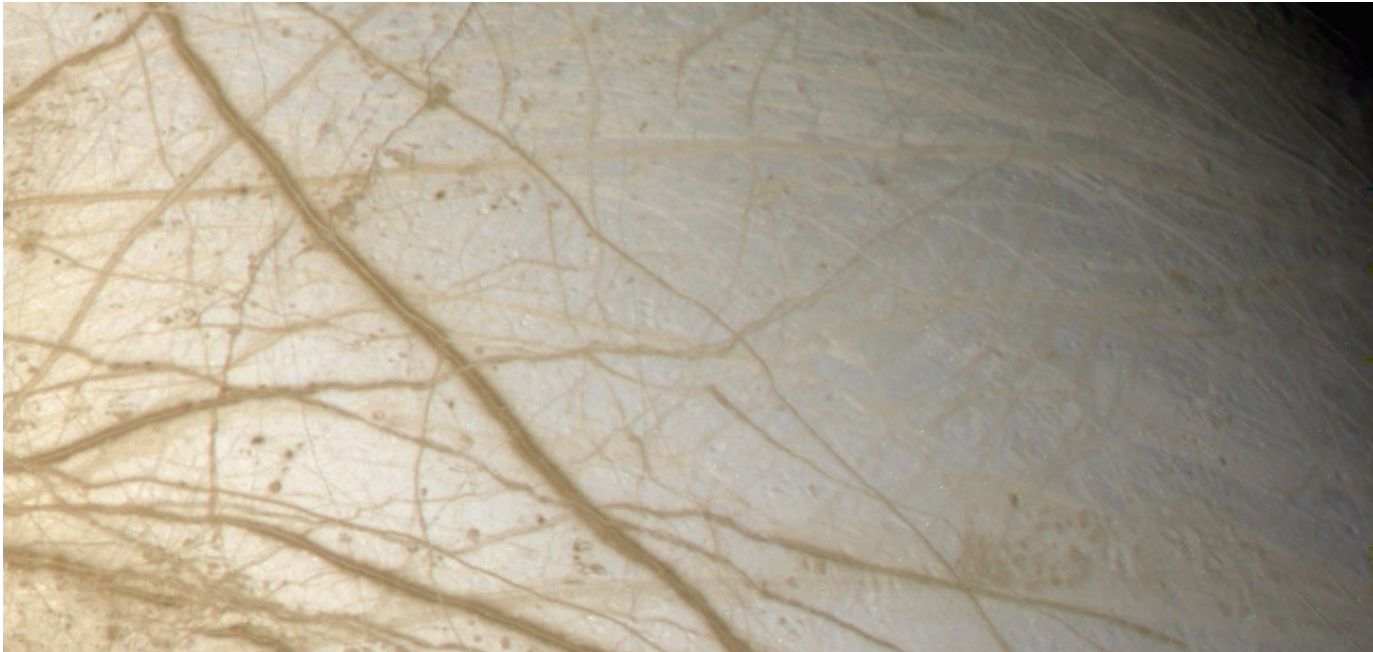
Europa



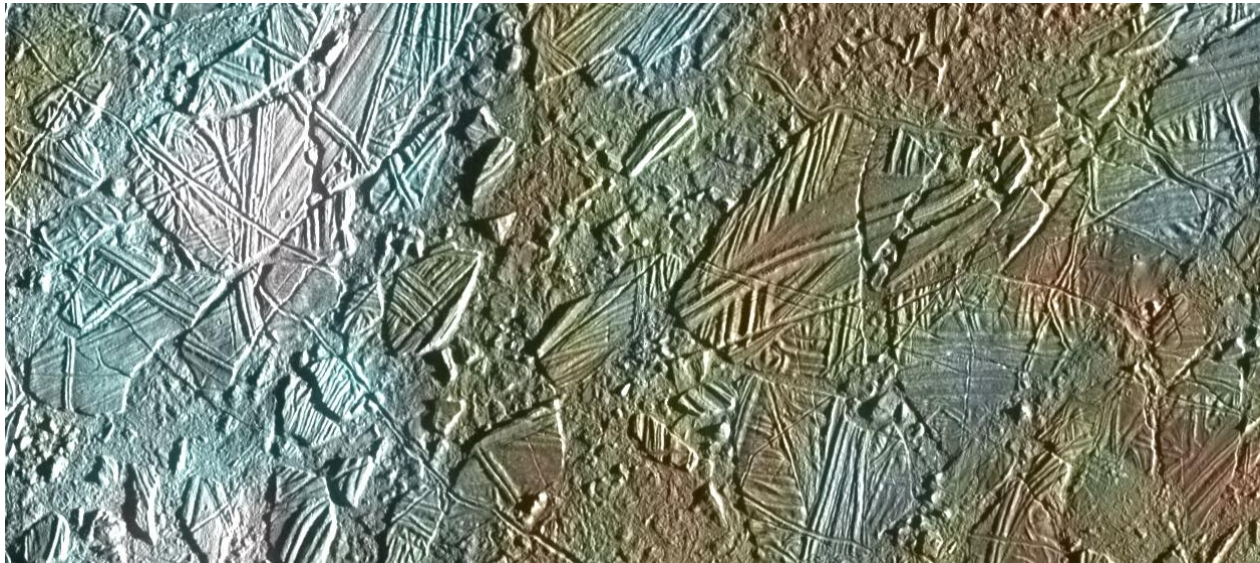
Europa



Ice Tectonics

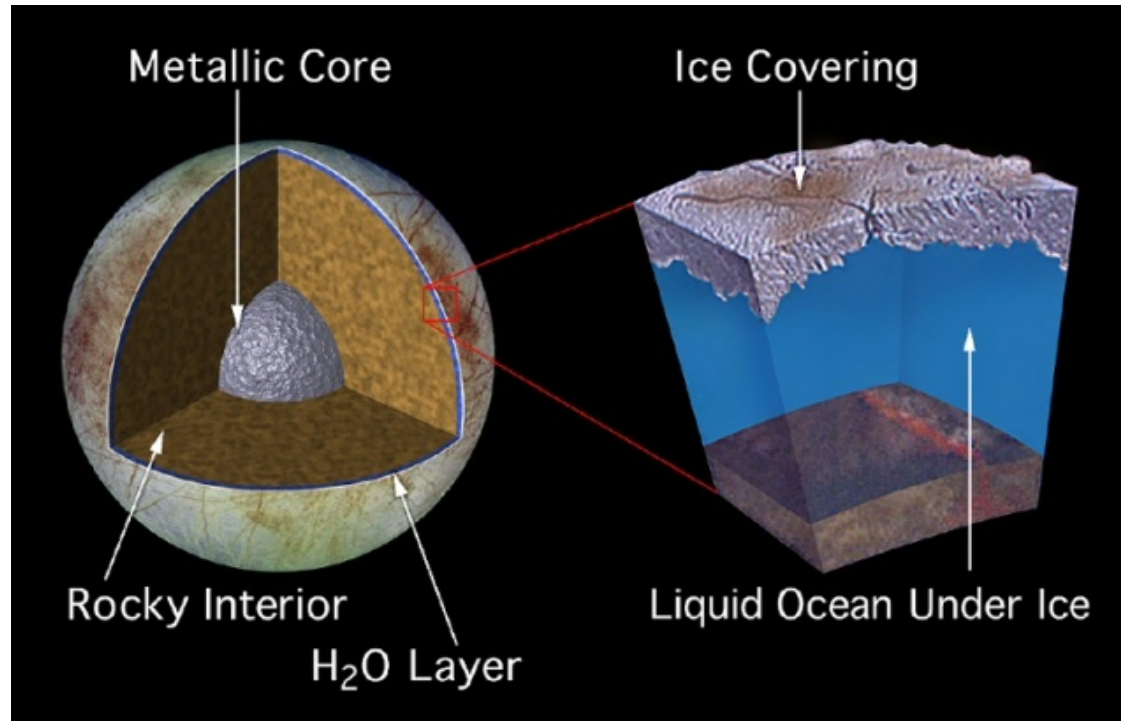


Surface features



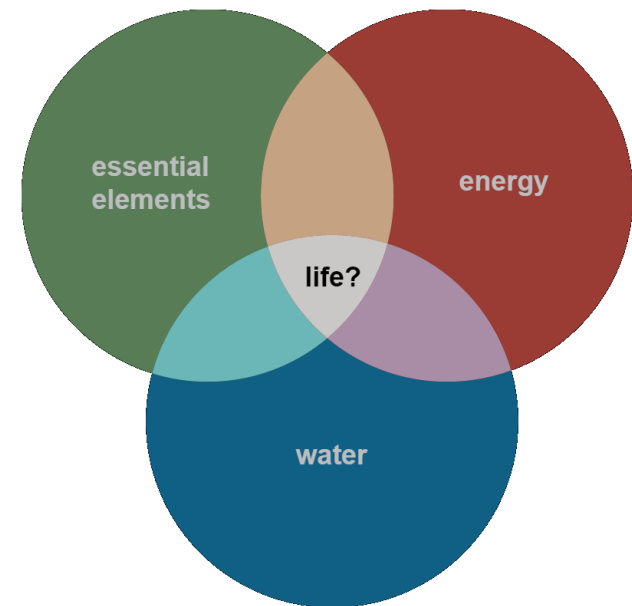
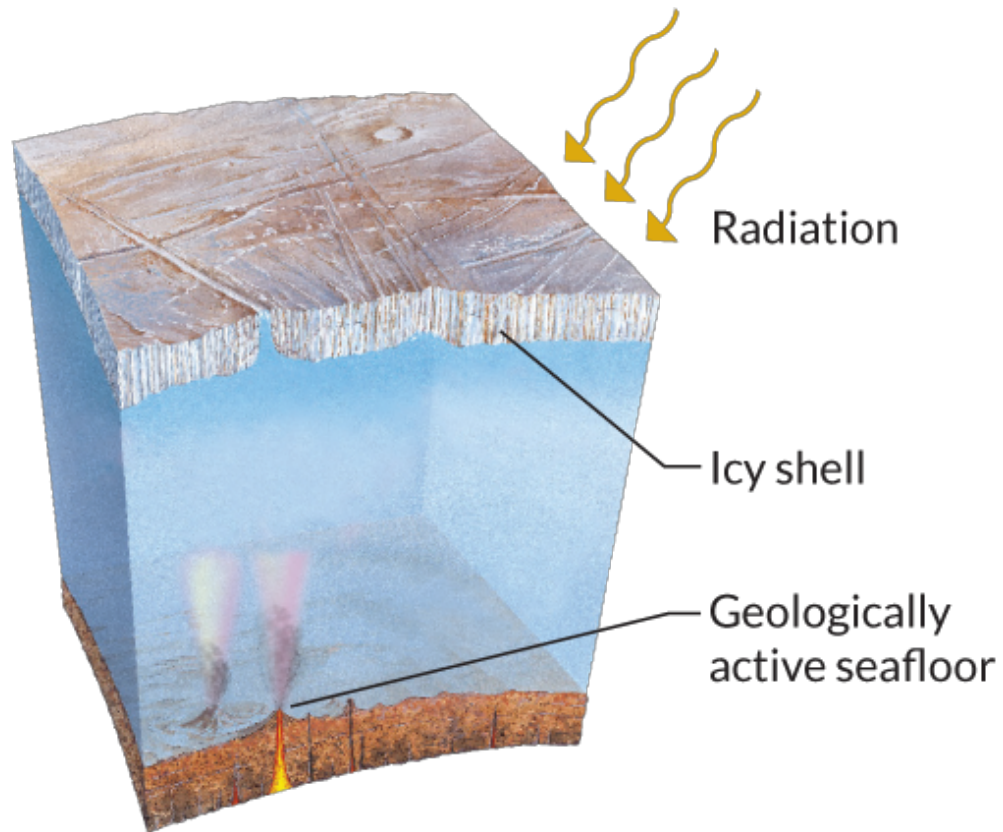
“Chaotic” terrain, as if subject to melting and refreezing

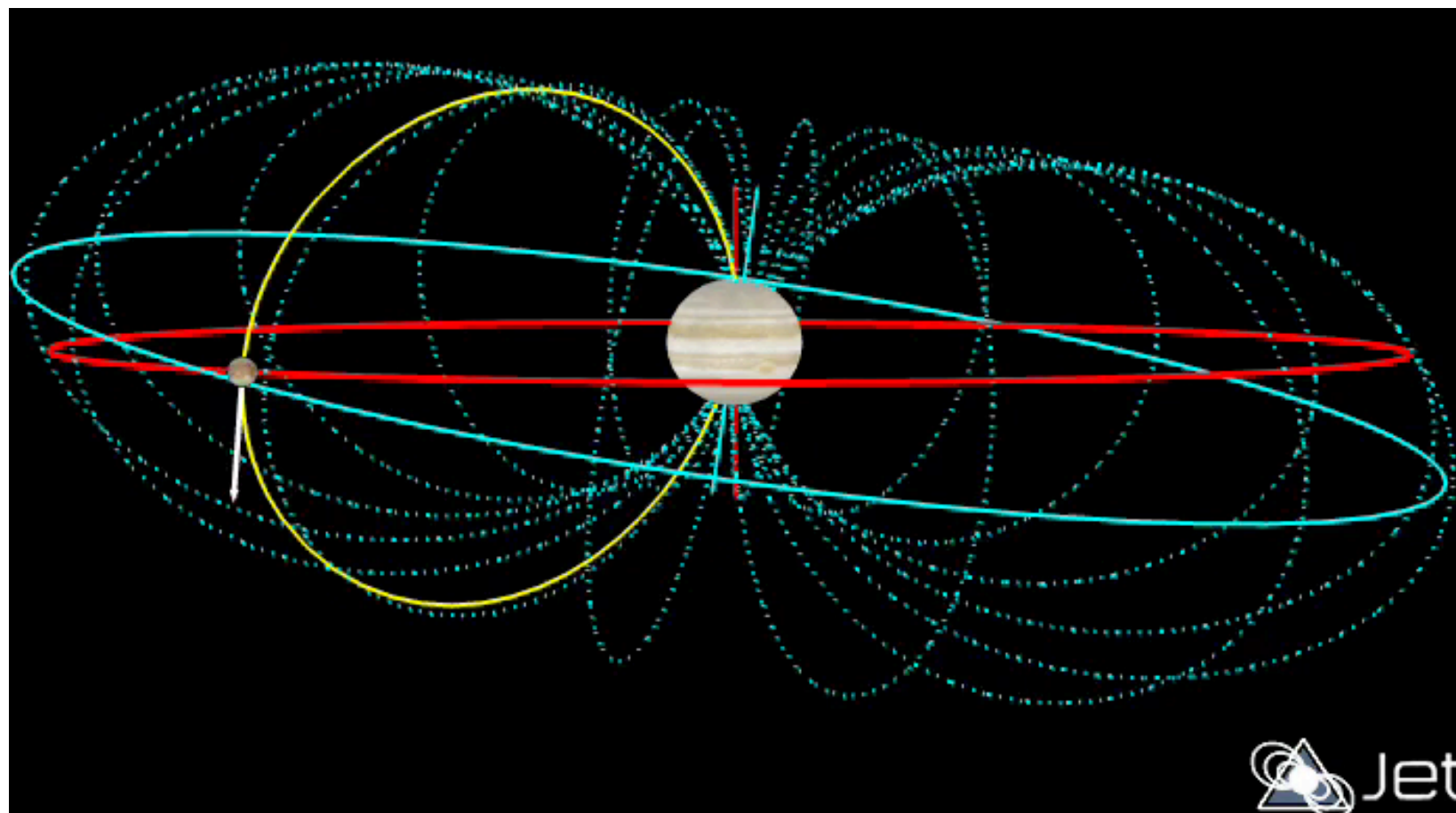
Europa Interior model



Icy crust floating on top of liquid ocean.
Very interesting for Life!

Life?





Induced magnetic field

Induced magnetic fields as evidence for subsurface oceans in Europa and Callisto

K. K. Khurana*, M. G. Kivelson†, D. J. Stevenson‡, G. Schubert††, C. T. Russell††, R. J. Walker* & C. Polanskey§

* Institute of Geophysics and Planetary Physics, † Department of Earth and Space Sciences, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90095, USA

‡ Division of Geological and Planetary Sciences, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125, USA

§ The Jet Propulsion Laboratory, 4800 Oak Grove Road, Pasadena, California 91109, USA

The Galileo spacecraft has been orbiting Jupiter since 7 December 1995, and encounters one of the four galilean satellites—Io, Europa, Ganymede and Callisto—on each orbit. Initial results from the spacecraft's magnetometer^{1,2} have indicated that neither Europa nor Callisto have an appreciable internal magnetic field, in contrast to Ganymede³ and possibly Io⁴. Here we report perturbations of the external magnetic fields (associated with Jupiter's inner magnetosphere) in the vicinity of both Europa and Callisto. We interpret these perturbations as arising from induced magnetic fields, generated by the moons in response to the periodically varying plasma environment. Electromagnetic induction requires eddy currents to flow within the moons, and our calculations show that the most probable explanation is that there are layers of significant electrical conductivity just beneath the surfaces of both moons. We argue that these conducting layers may best be explained by the presence of salty liquid-water oceans, for which there is already indirect geological evidence^{5,6} in the case of Europa.

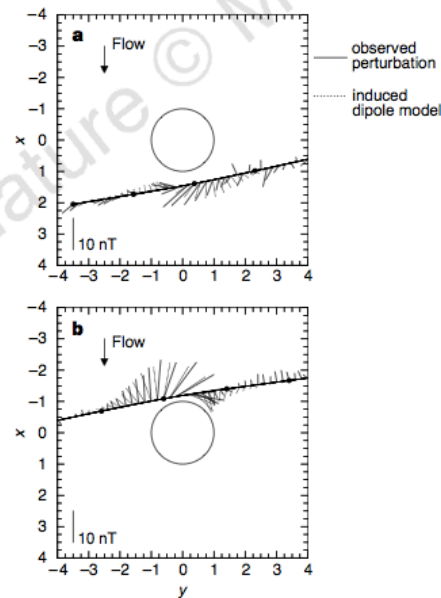
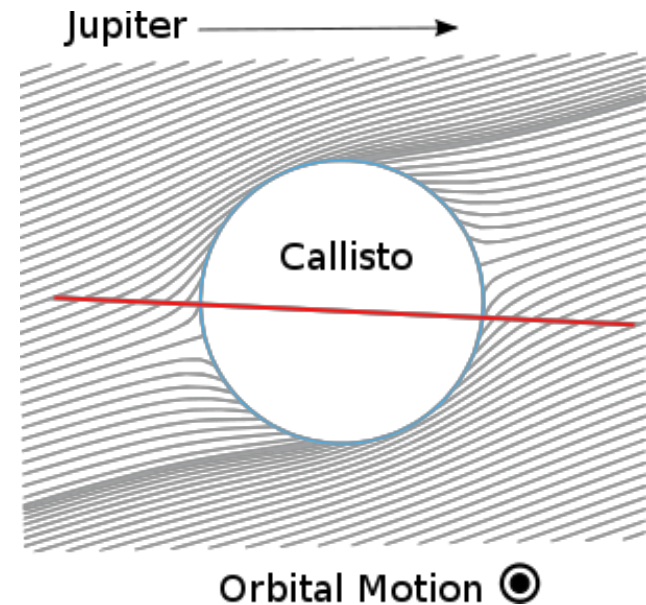
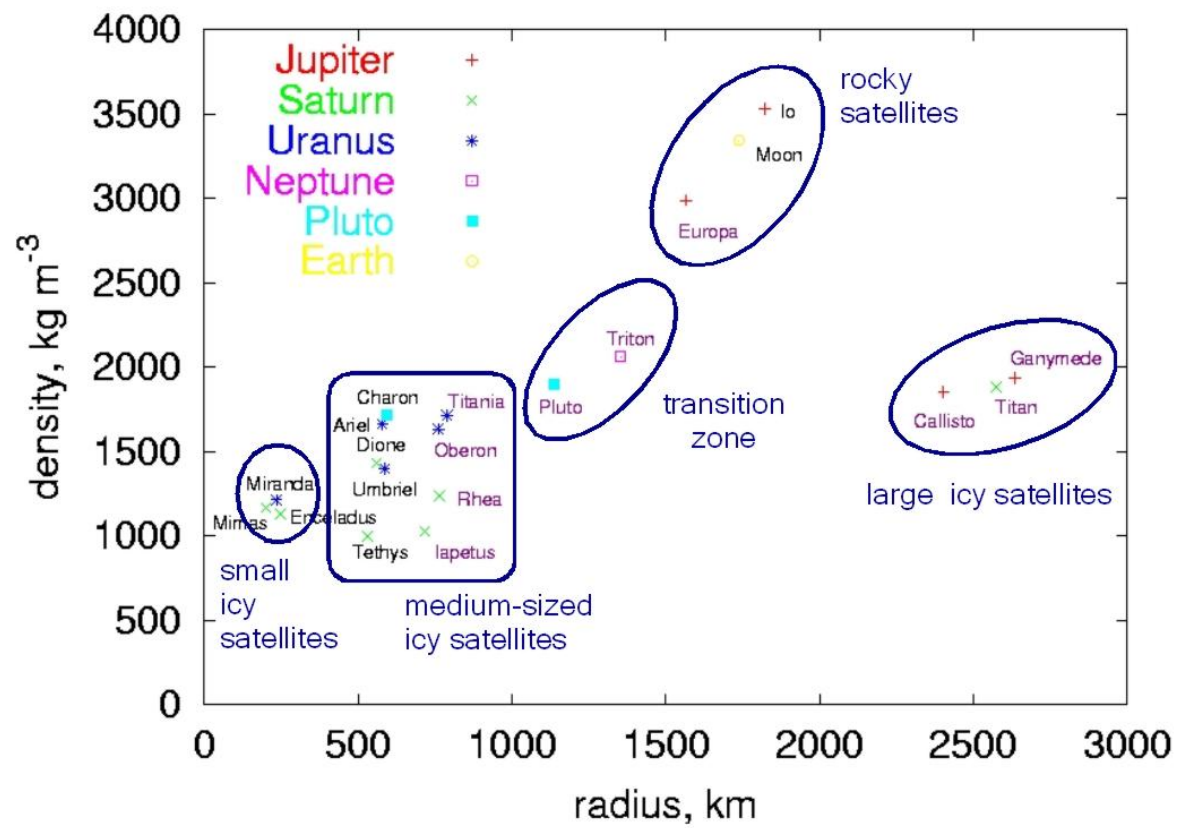


Figure 3 Magnetic field observations from the C3 and C9 passes. **a**, The magnetic field perturbations (vectors drawn with solid lines) and the modelled induction field (vectors shown dotted) along the trajectory of the C3 encounter in the x - y plane. **b**, The magnetic field perturbations and the modelled induction field for the C9 encounter. The distance scale is in units of R_C ($1R_C$ = radius of Callisto = 2,409 km).

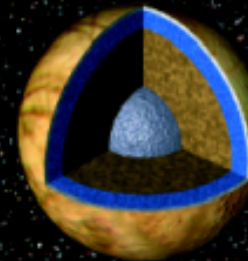




Io

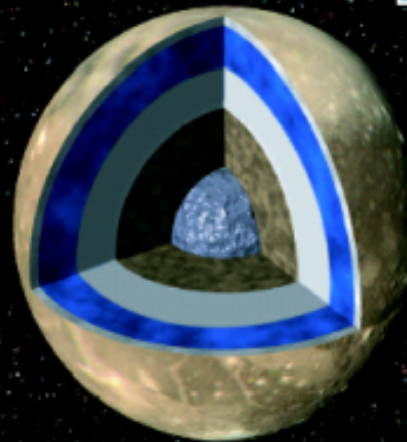


Europa



- iron-rich core
- silicate mantle
- ocean
- ice

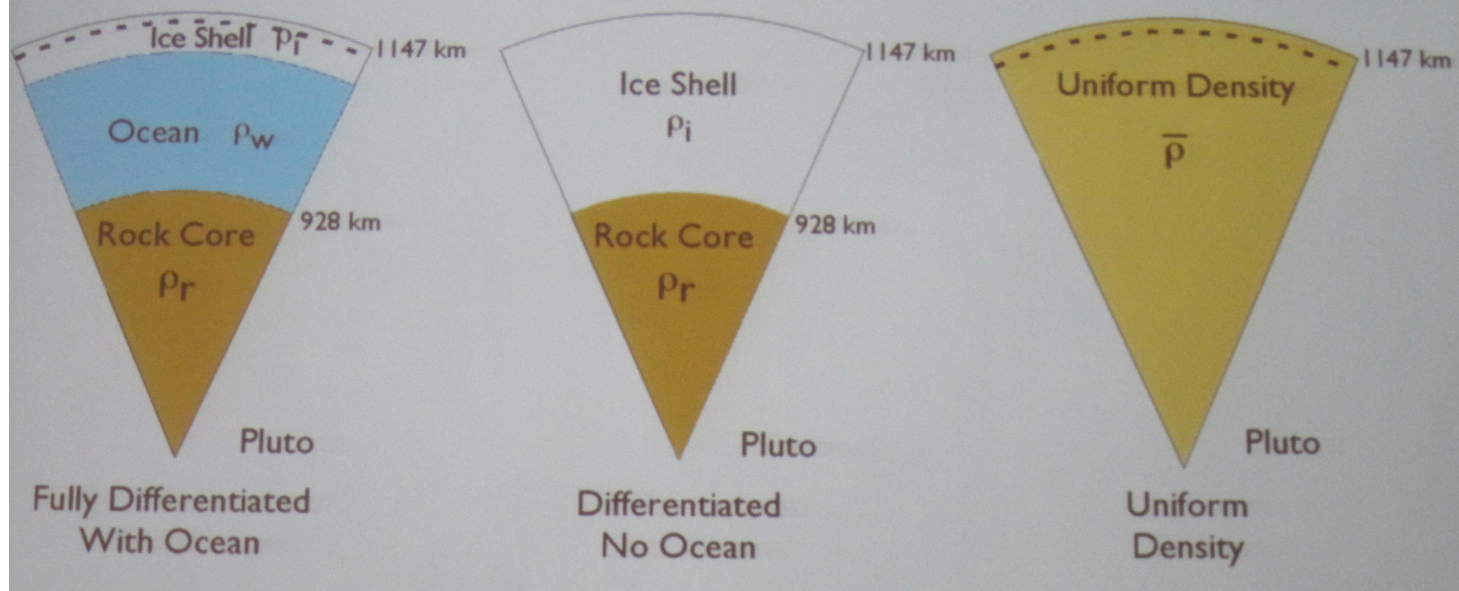
Ganymede



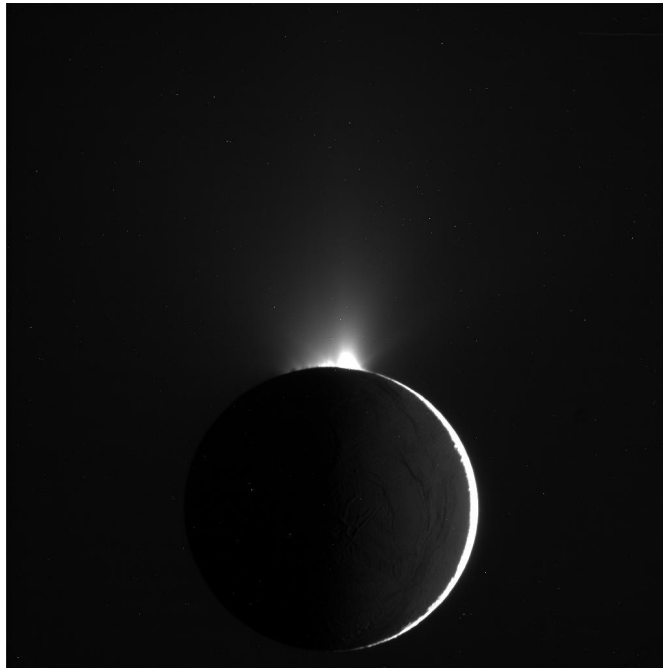
Callisto



Possible interior models for Pluto

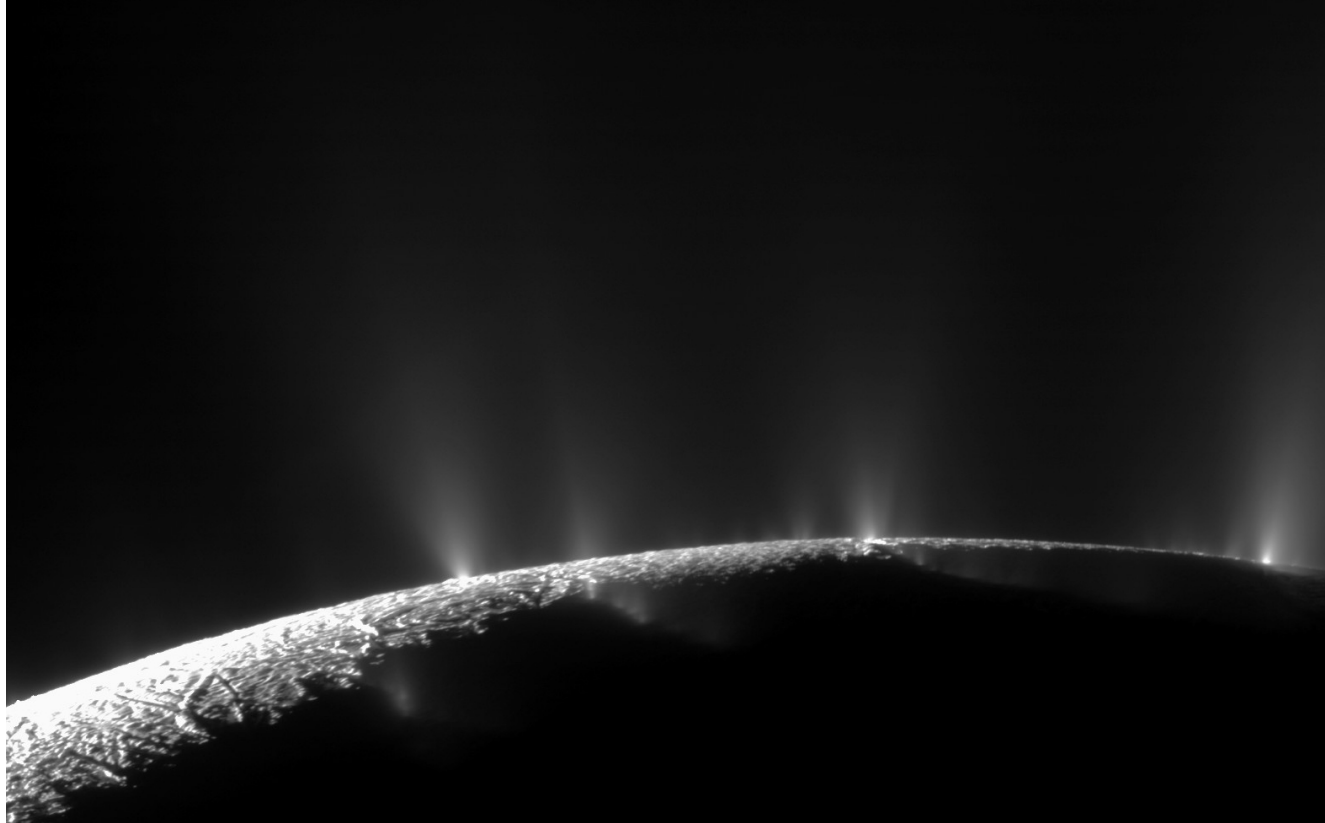


Enceladus



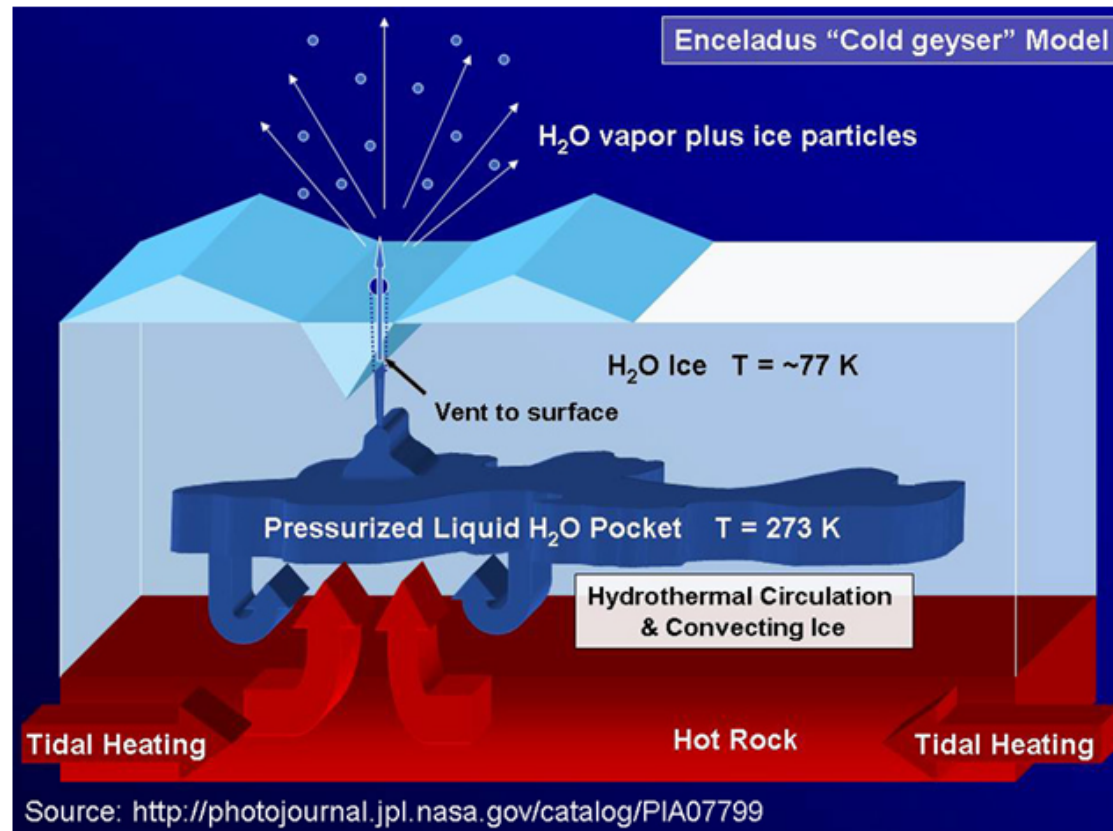
Plumes imaged by Cassini

Enceladus



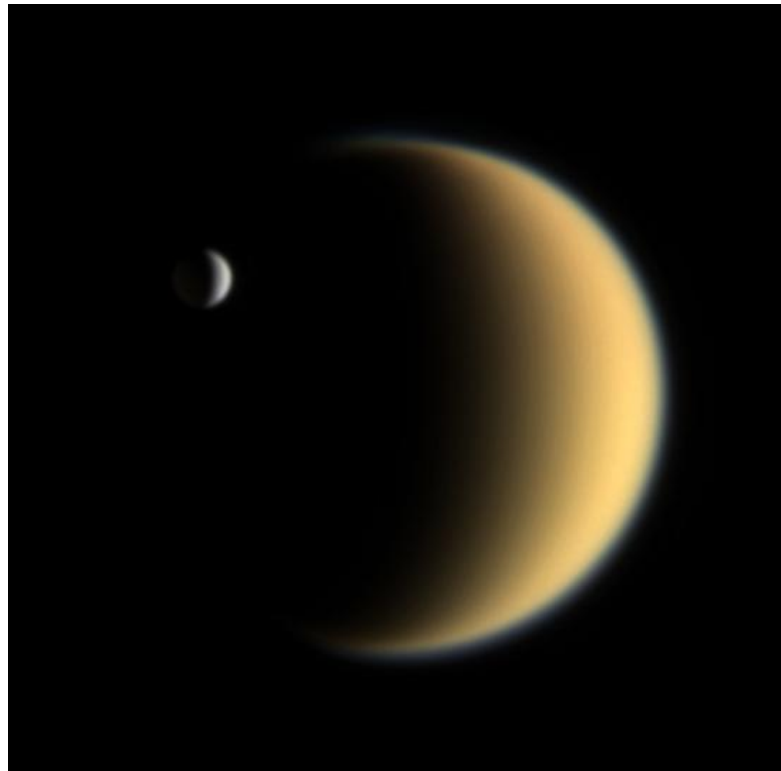
Close up of the plumes

Enceladus

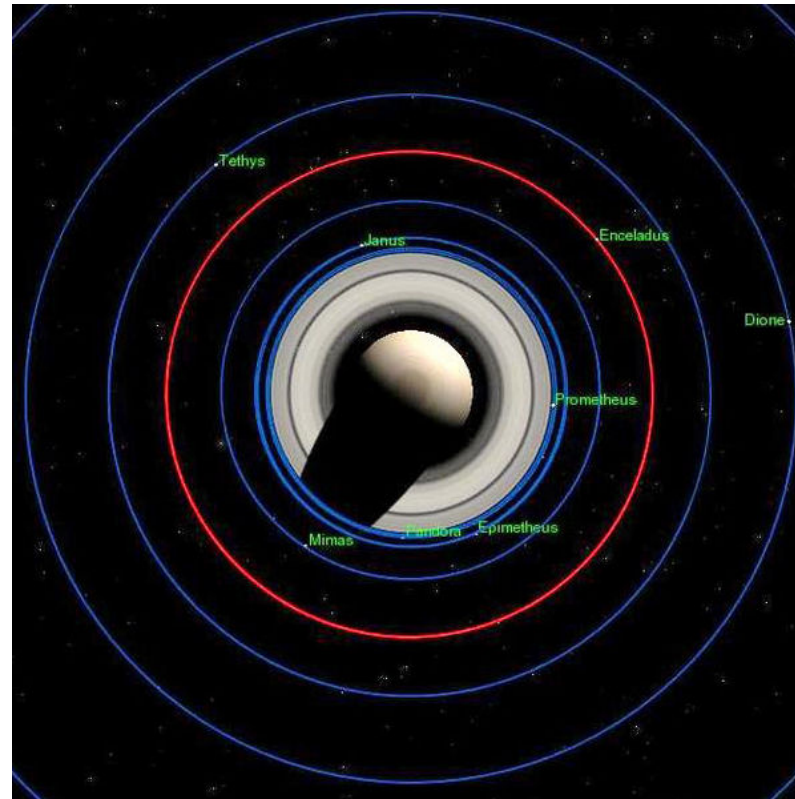


Enceladus

Enceladus and Titan

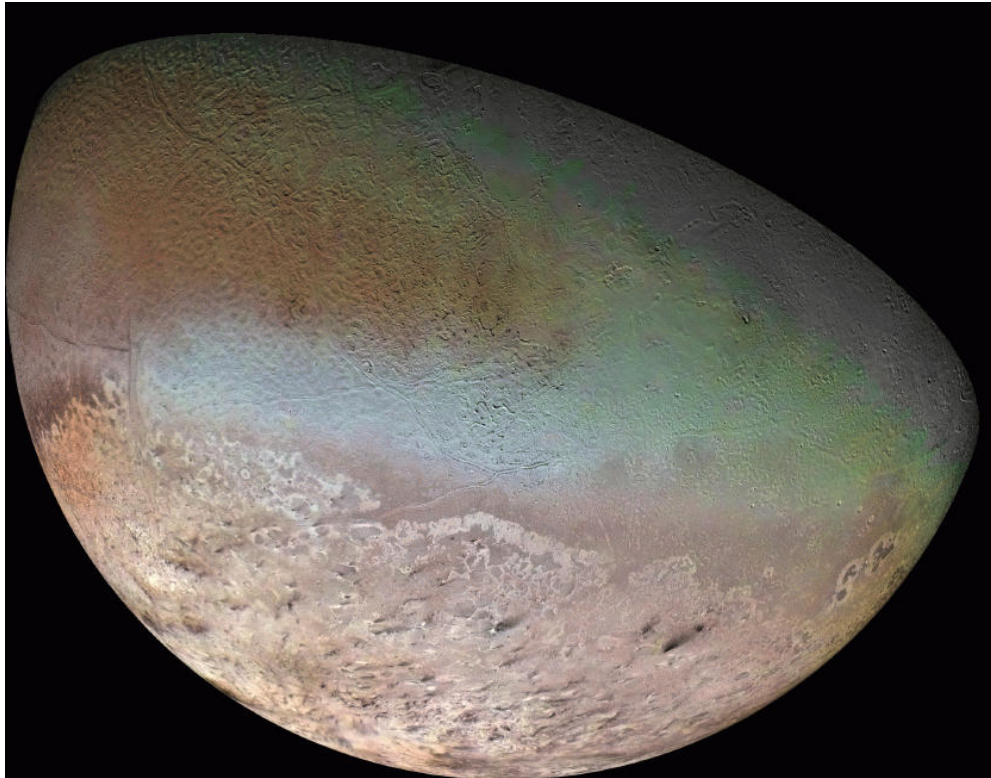


Tidal Heating!



2:1 resonance with Dione
keeps Enceladus' orbit eccentric
($e \sim 0.004$)

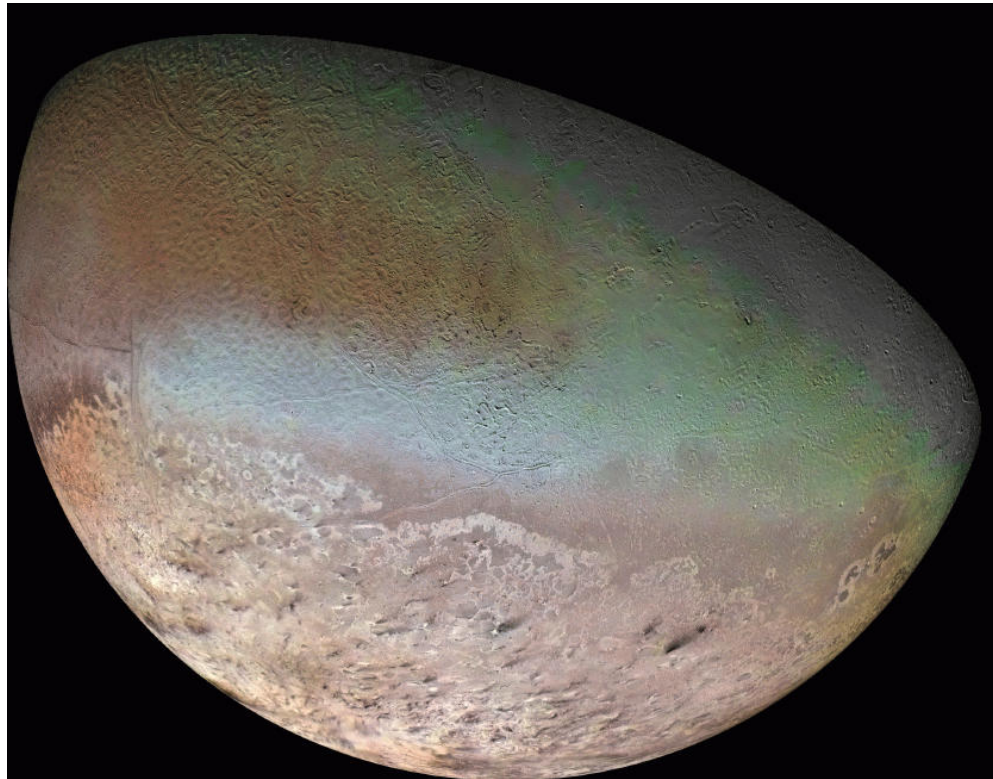
Triton – Neptune's large moon.



Frigid temperatures of 38K
All volatiles are either rock-solid or snow.

Yet, **no craters**. The surface is young.
Triton is geologically active !

Triton – Neptune's large moon.



Cantaloupe terrain

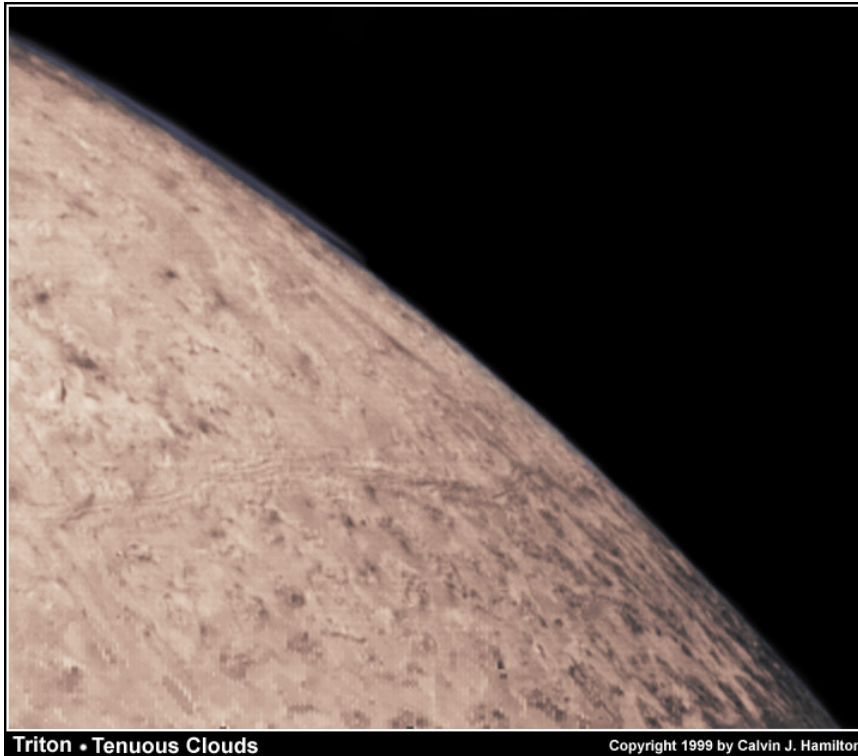
Dark streaks

Nitrogen snow

Frigid temperatures of 38K
All volatiles are either rock-solid or snow.

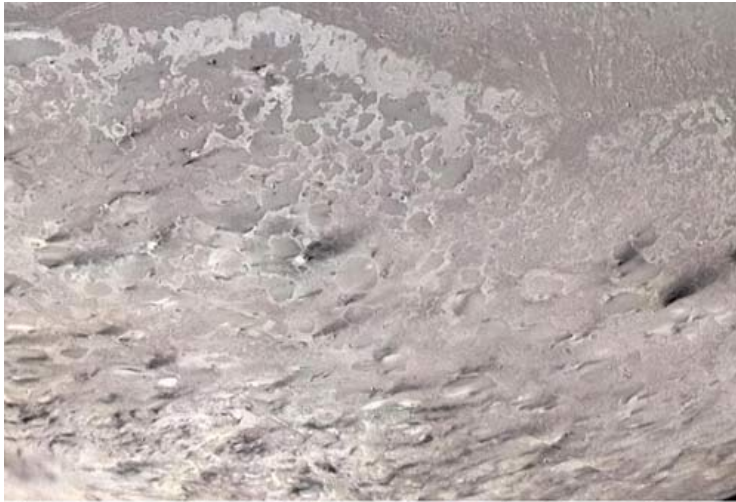
Yet, **no craters**. The surface is young.
Triton is geologically active !

Clouds on Triton



Nitrogen is near the sublimation point,
Forming a thin atmosphere

Dark streaks

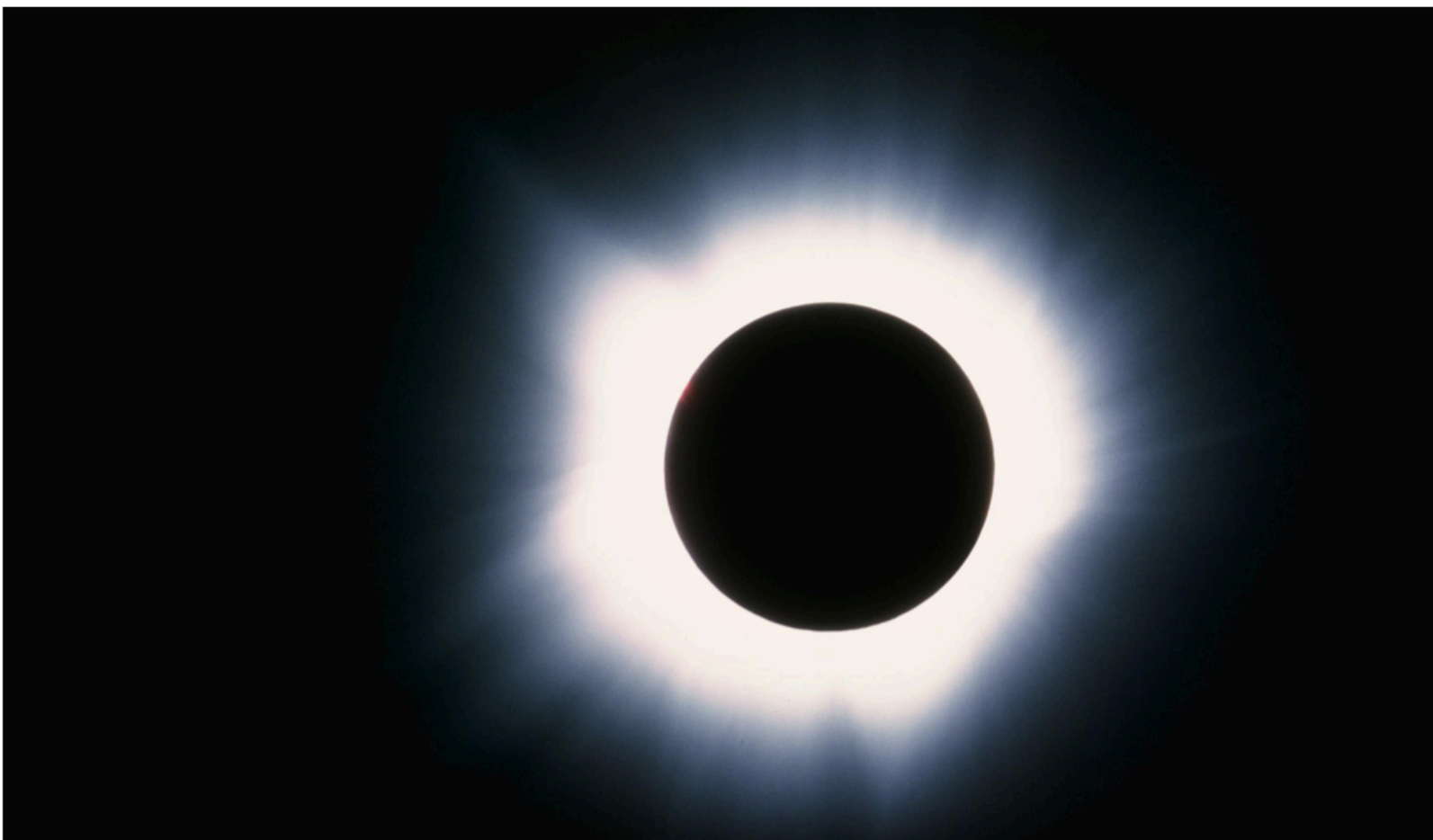


Geysers, caught by the wind

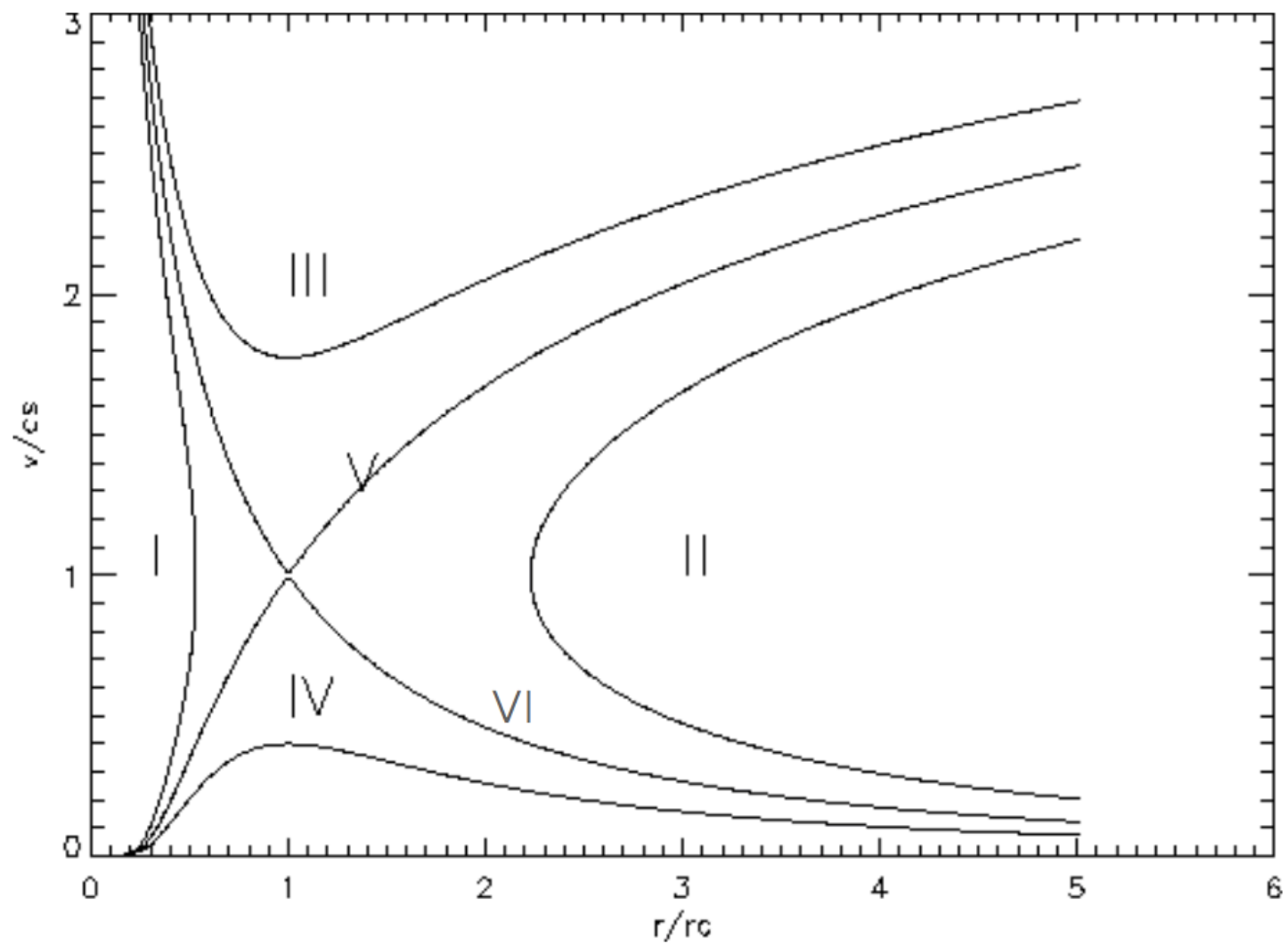


Powered not by tides,
But by *solid state greenhouse*
(solar heating
under the nitrogen snow).

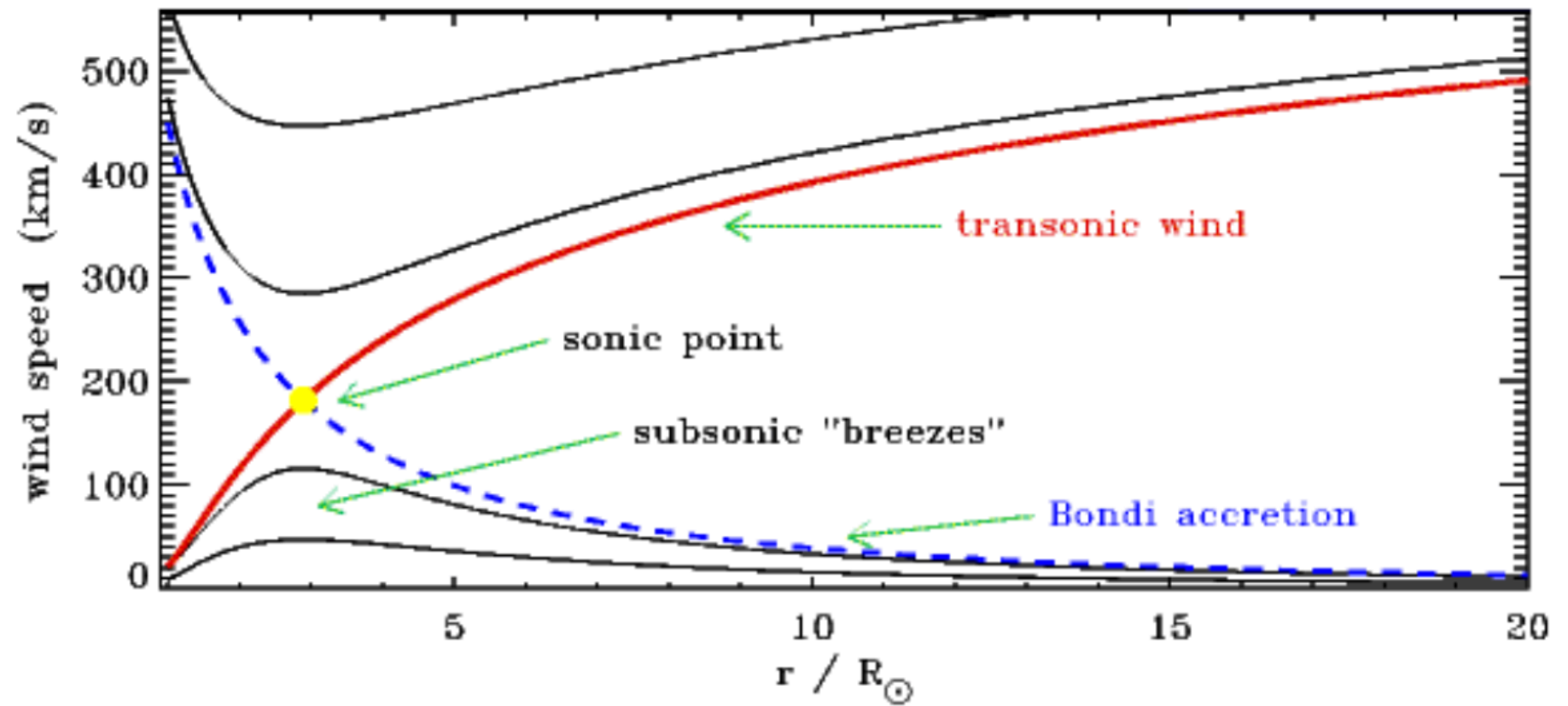
The Solar Corona



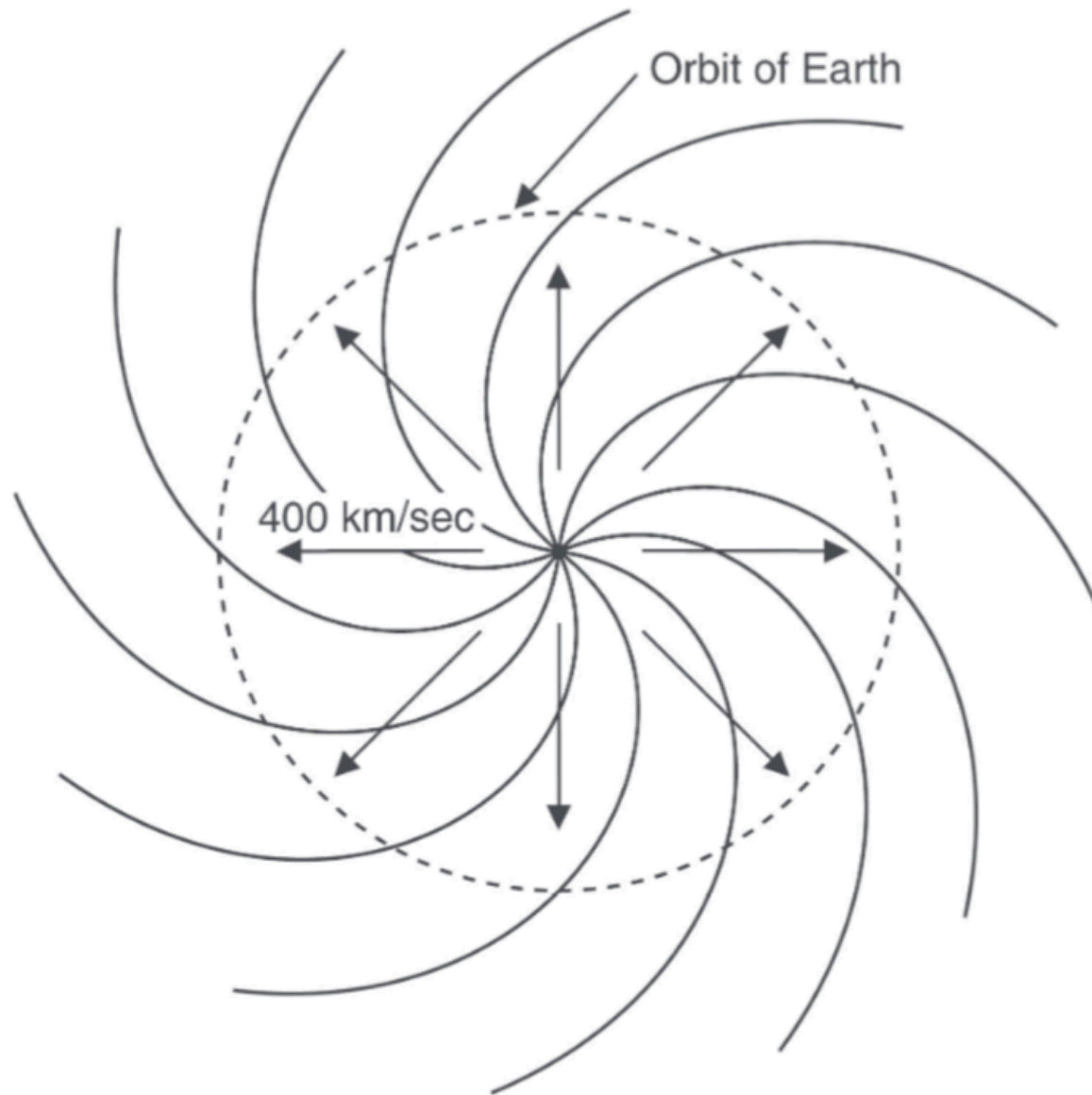
Parker wind



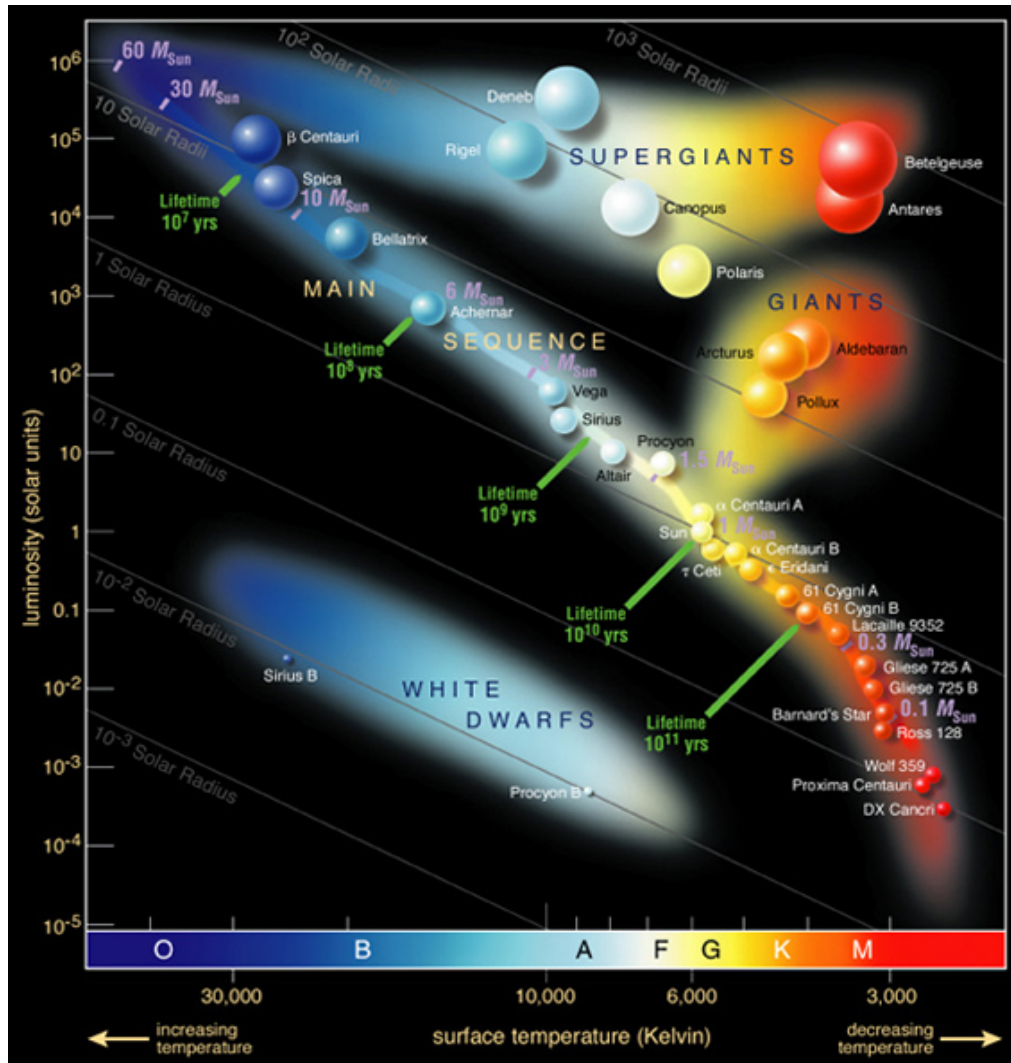
Parker wind



Parker spiral



Types of stars – The HR diagram



HR stands for “Hertzsprung-Russel”

Temperature x Luminosity

Spectral Types

OBAFGKM

Each type is subdivided into ten numbered subtypes (eg, K8, B6)

Spectral Types

O B A F G K M

Types of stars – The HR diagram

Spectral Types

OBAFGKM

Each type is subdivided into ten numbered subtypes (eg, K8, B6)

Luminosity classes

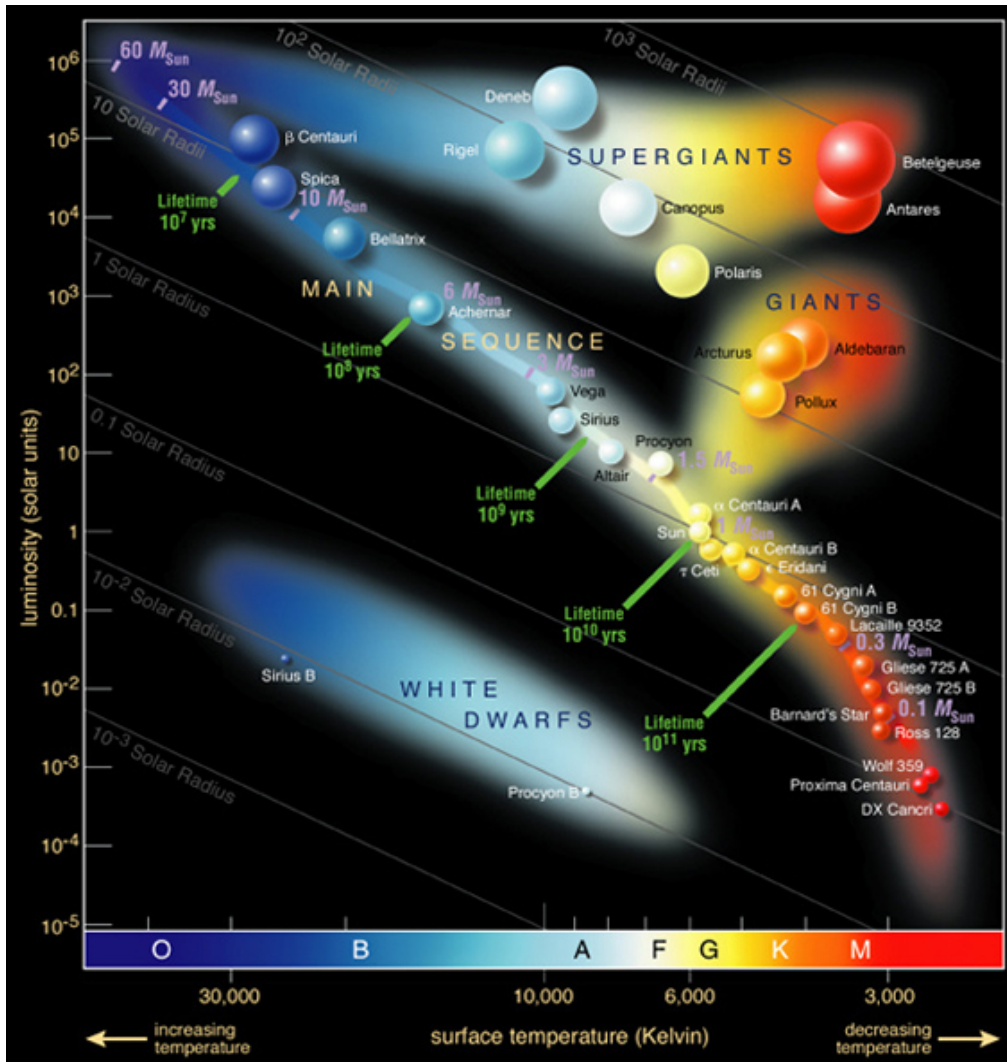
- I - Supergiants
- II - Bright giants
- III - Giants
- IV - Subgiants
- V - Dwarfs
- VI - Subdwarfs
- VII - White Dwarfs

The **Sun** is a **G2V** star

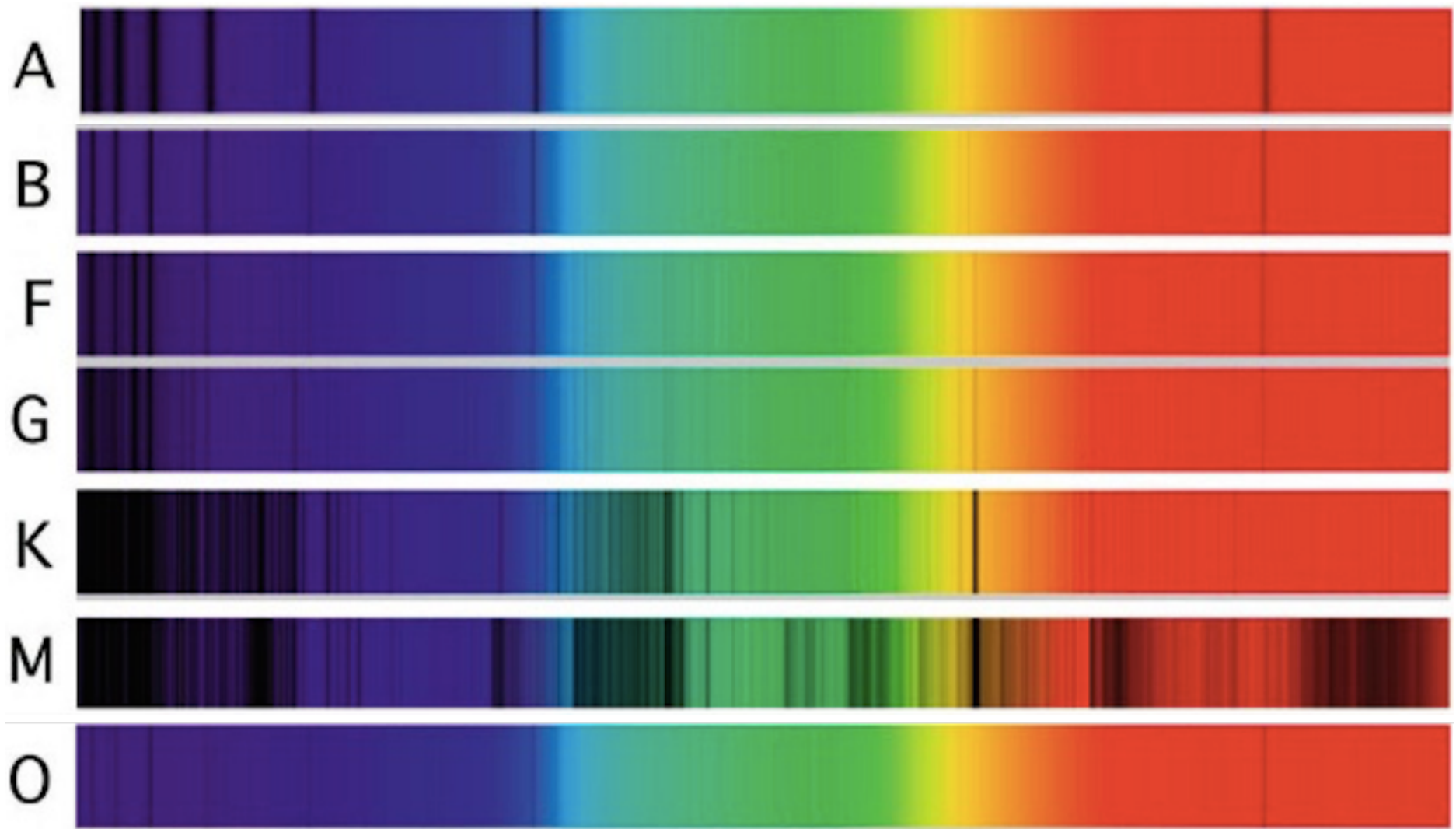
Sirius is a **A1V** star

Betelgeuse is a **M2I** star

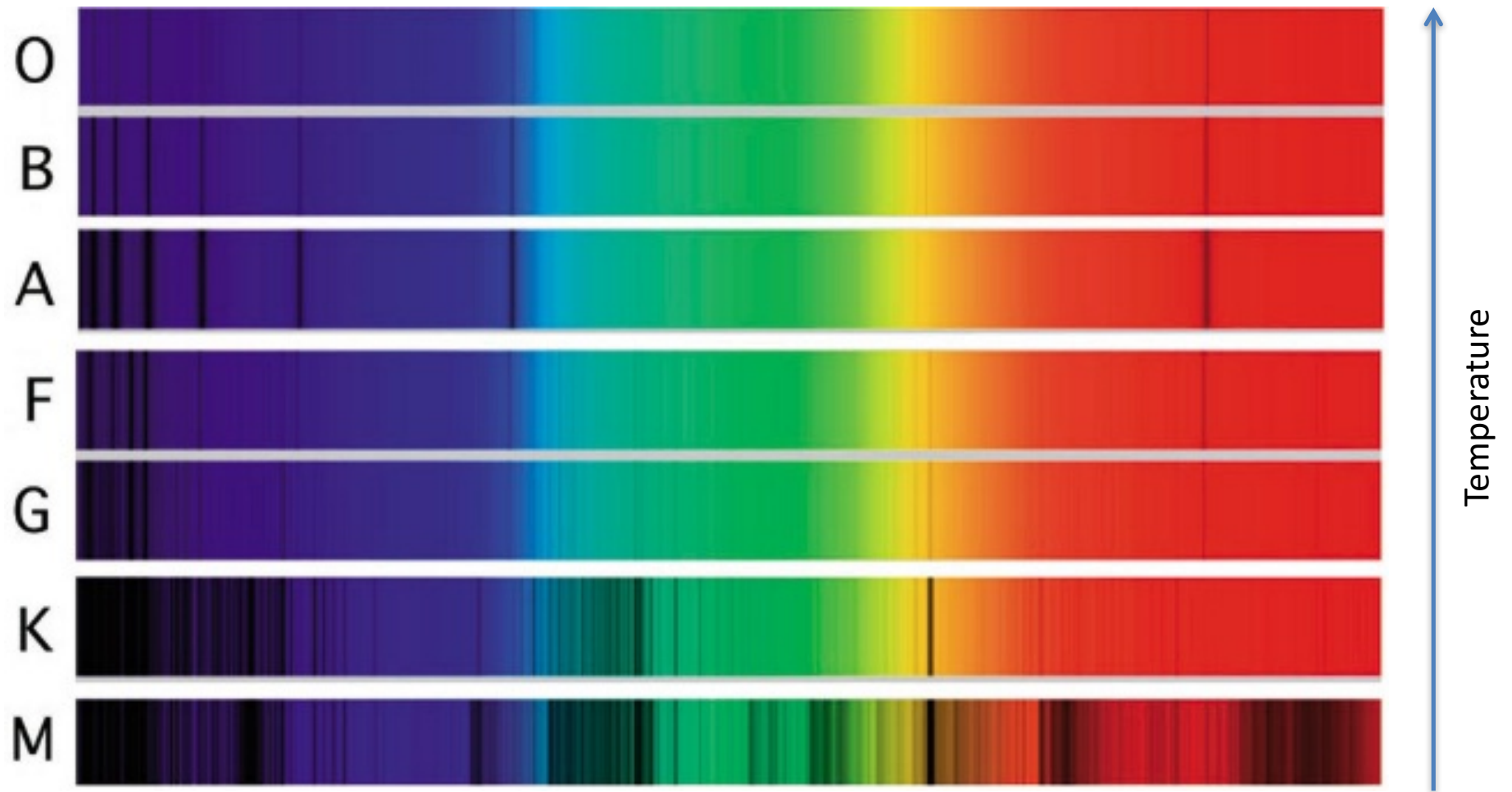
Pollux is a **K2III** star

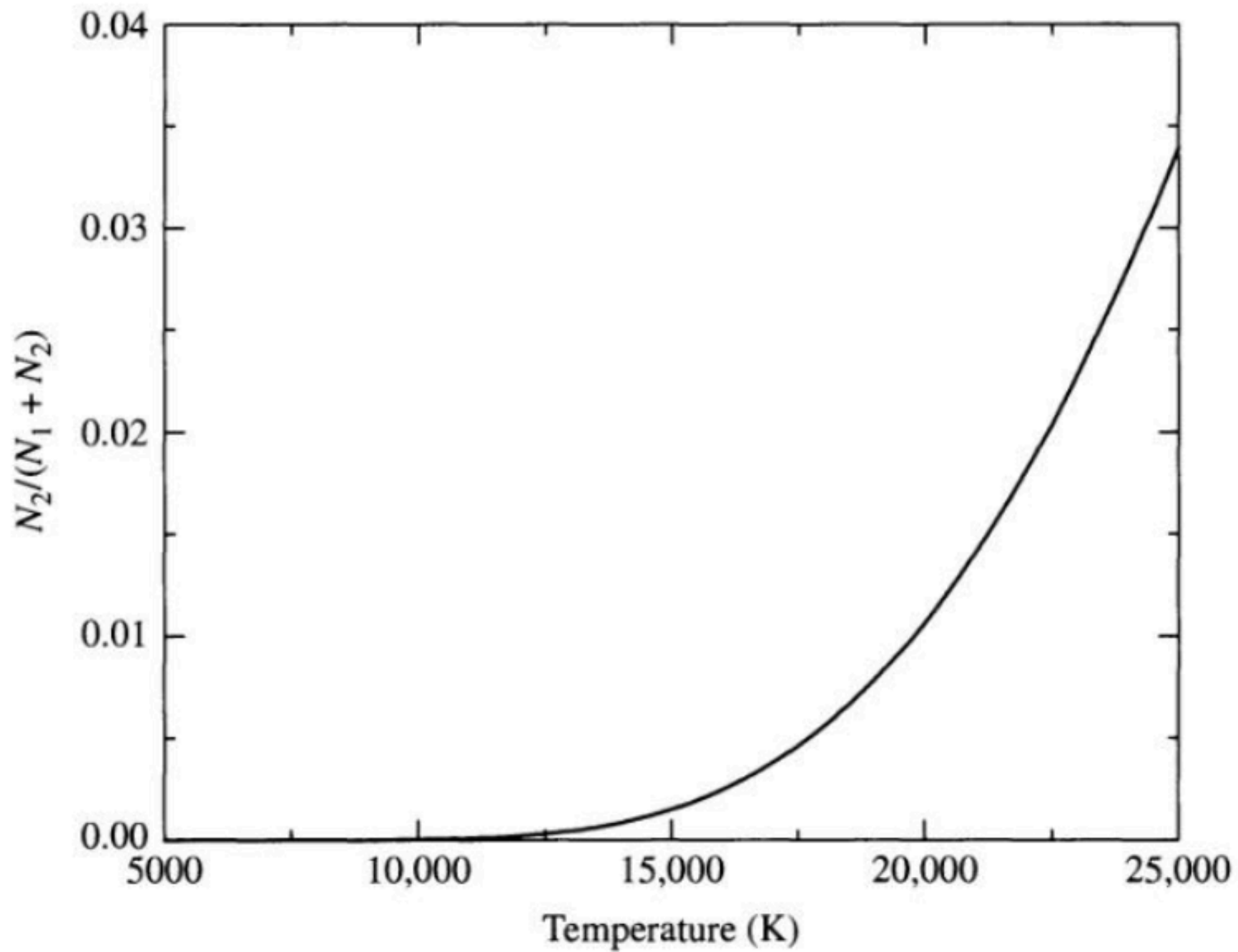


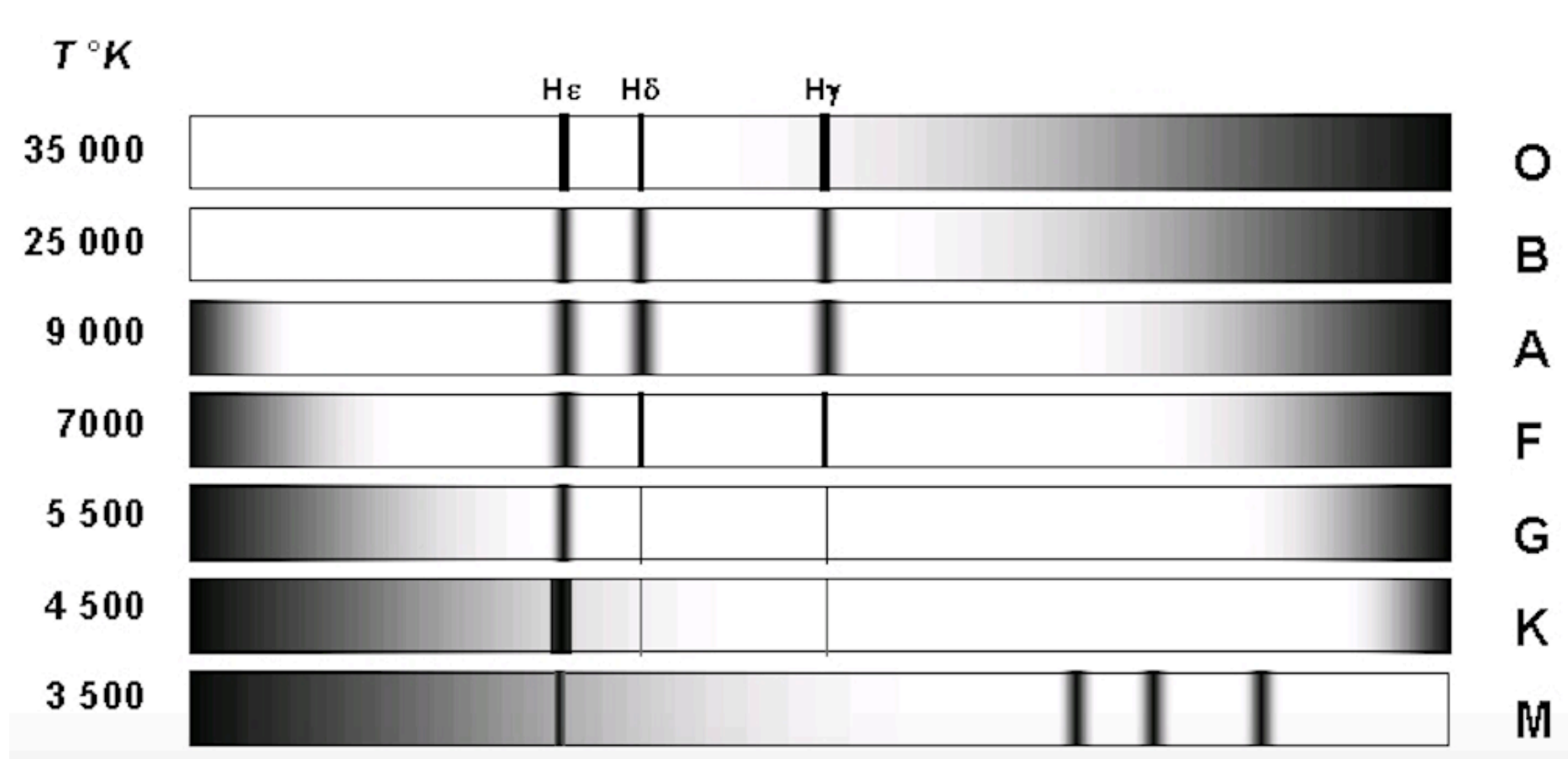
Origin of spectral class nomenclature – Strength of Hydrogen lines

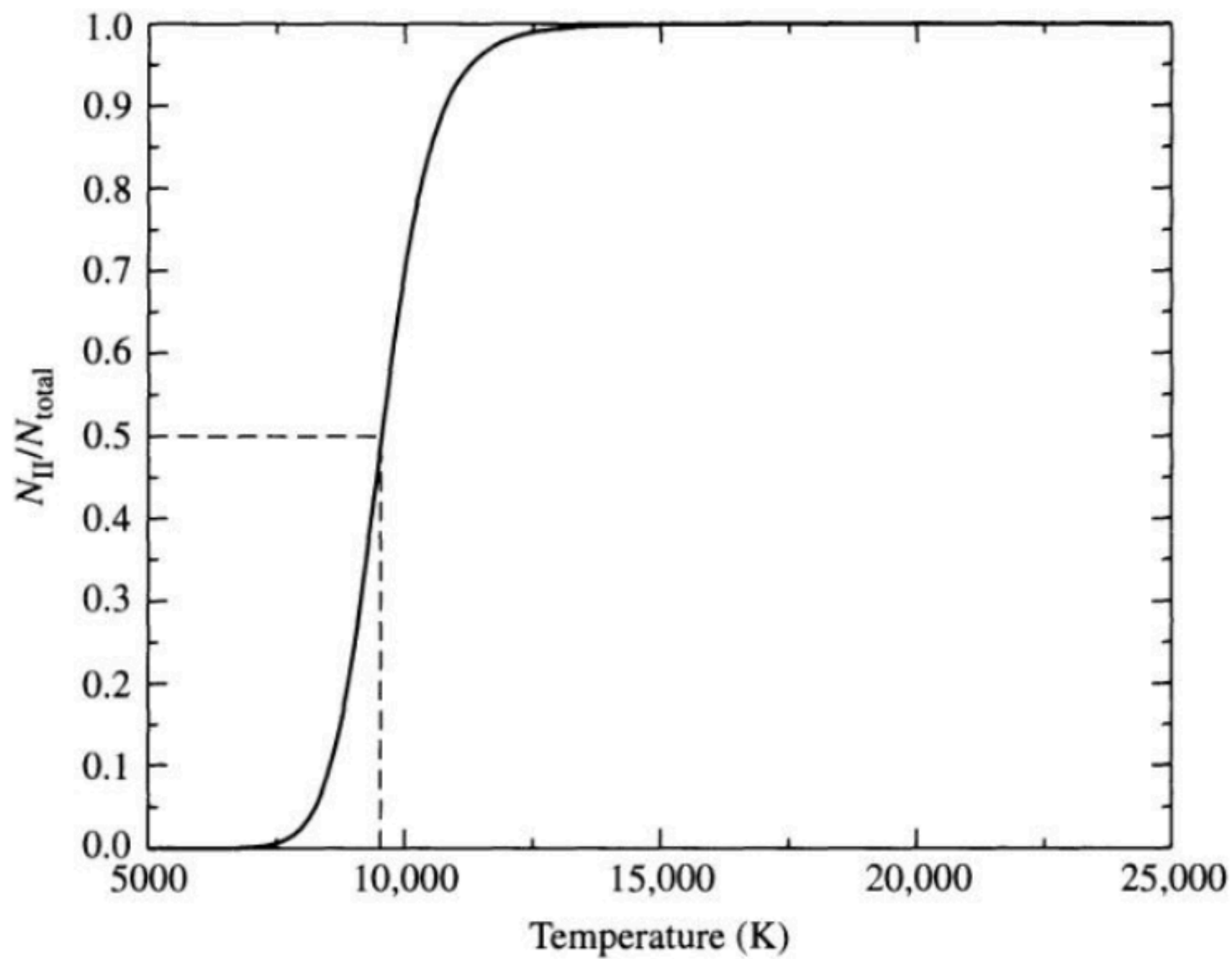


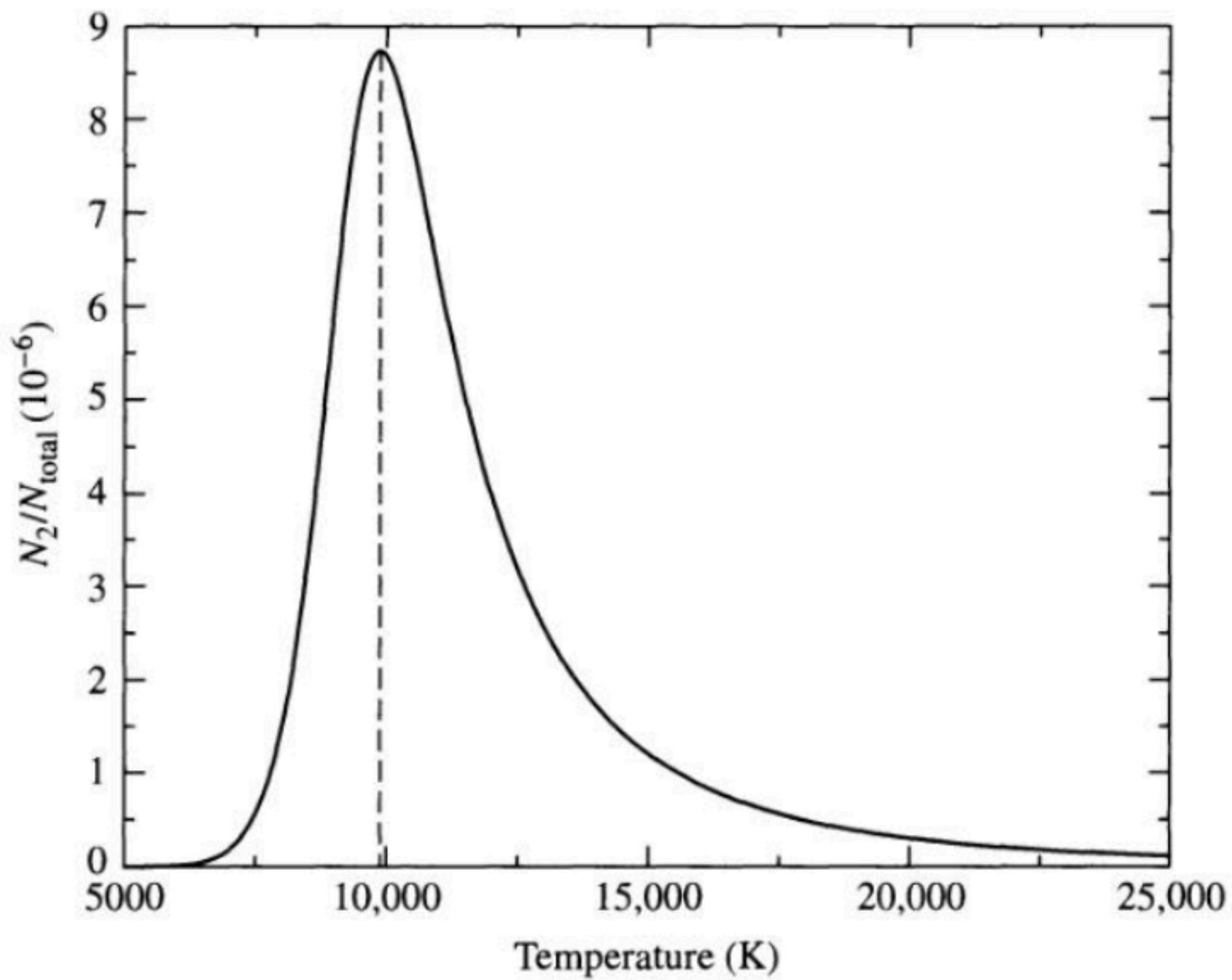
Ordering in Temperature





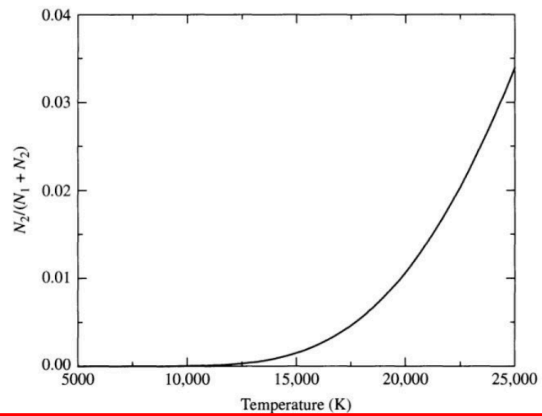






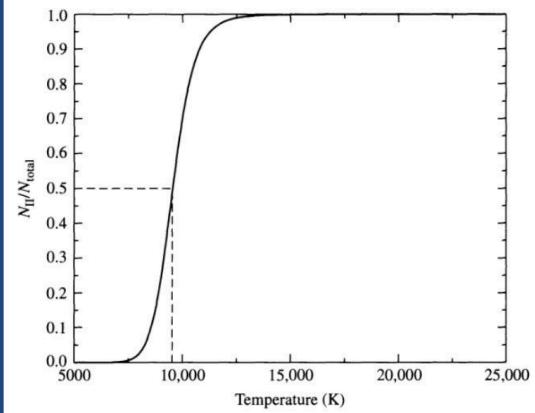
Saha Equation

Excitation

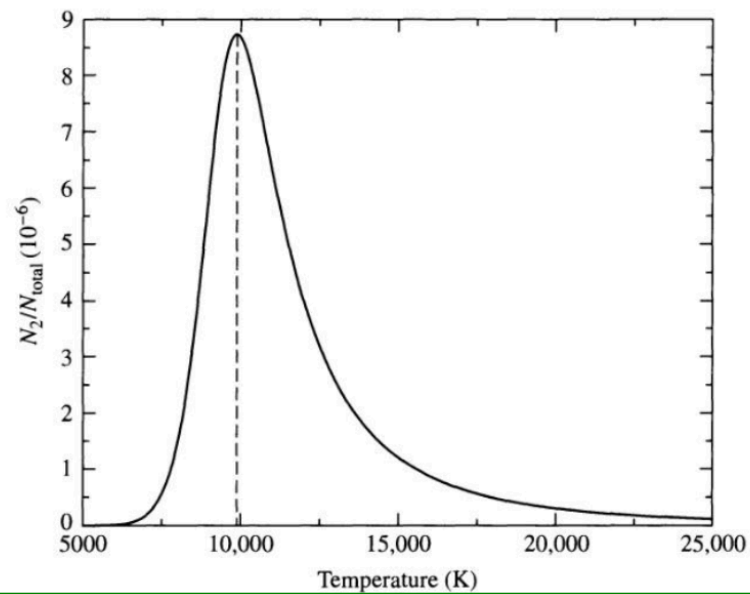


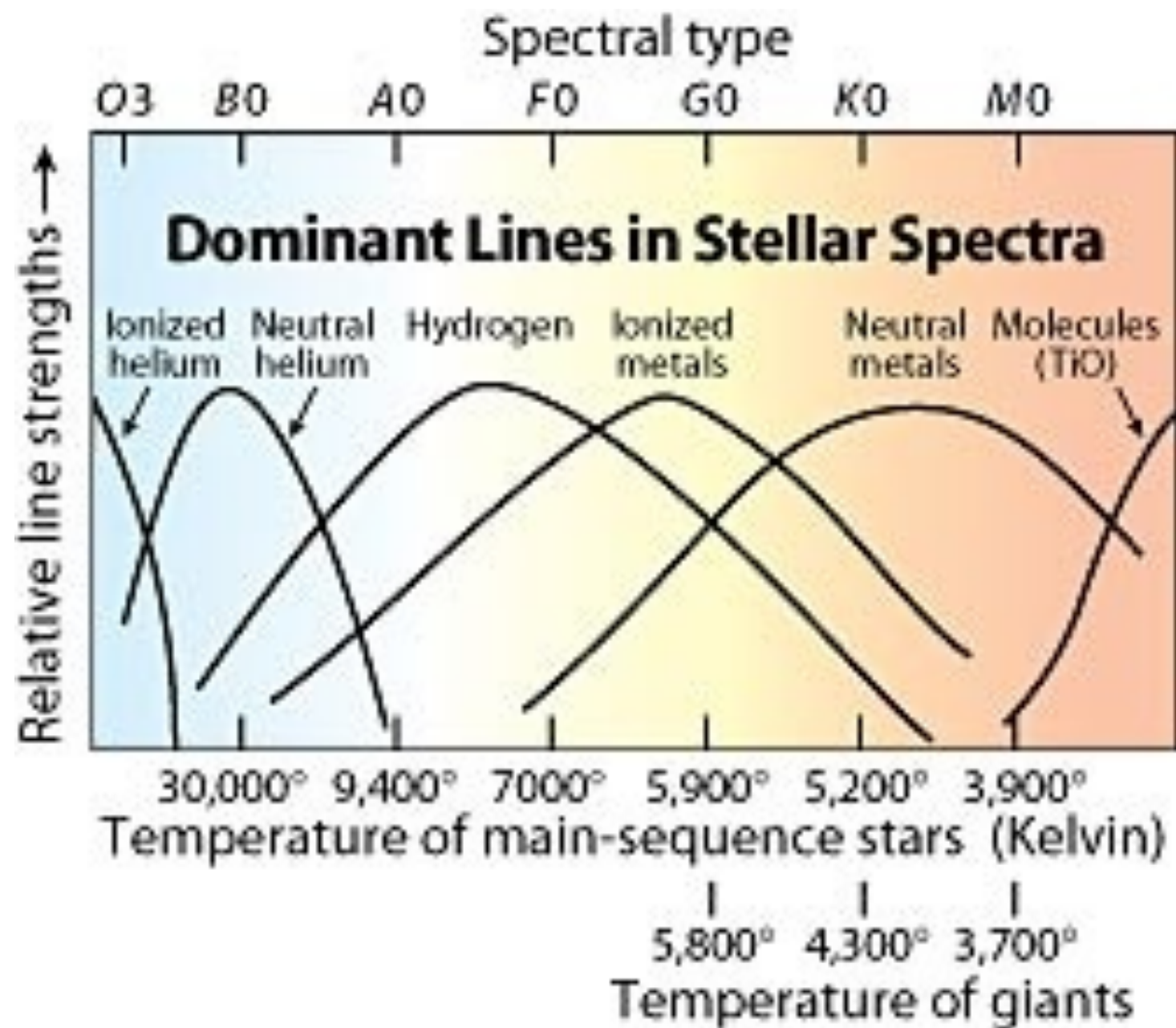
x

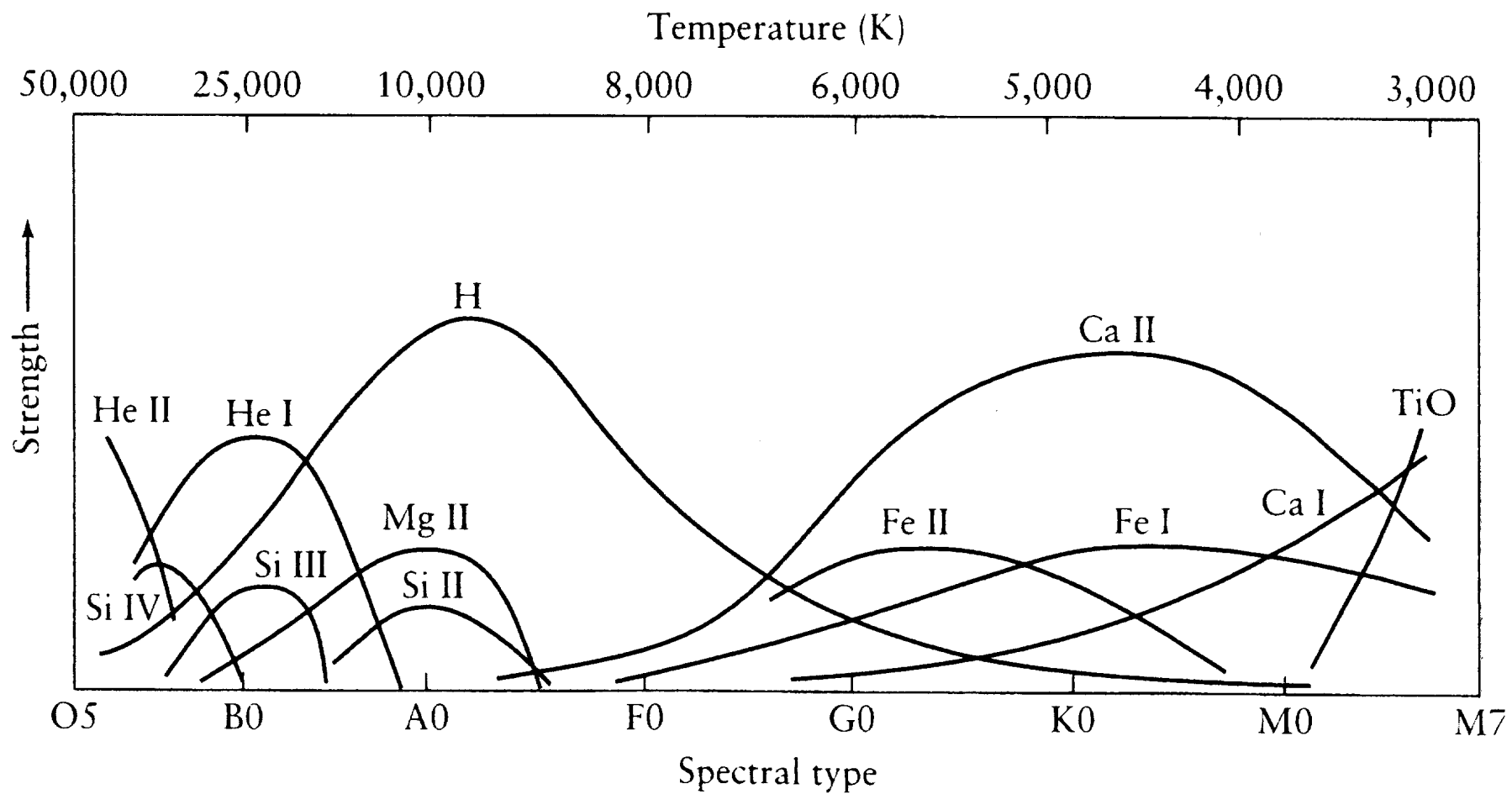
Ionization

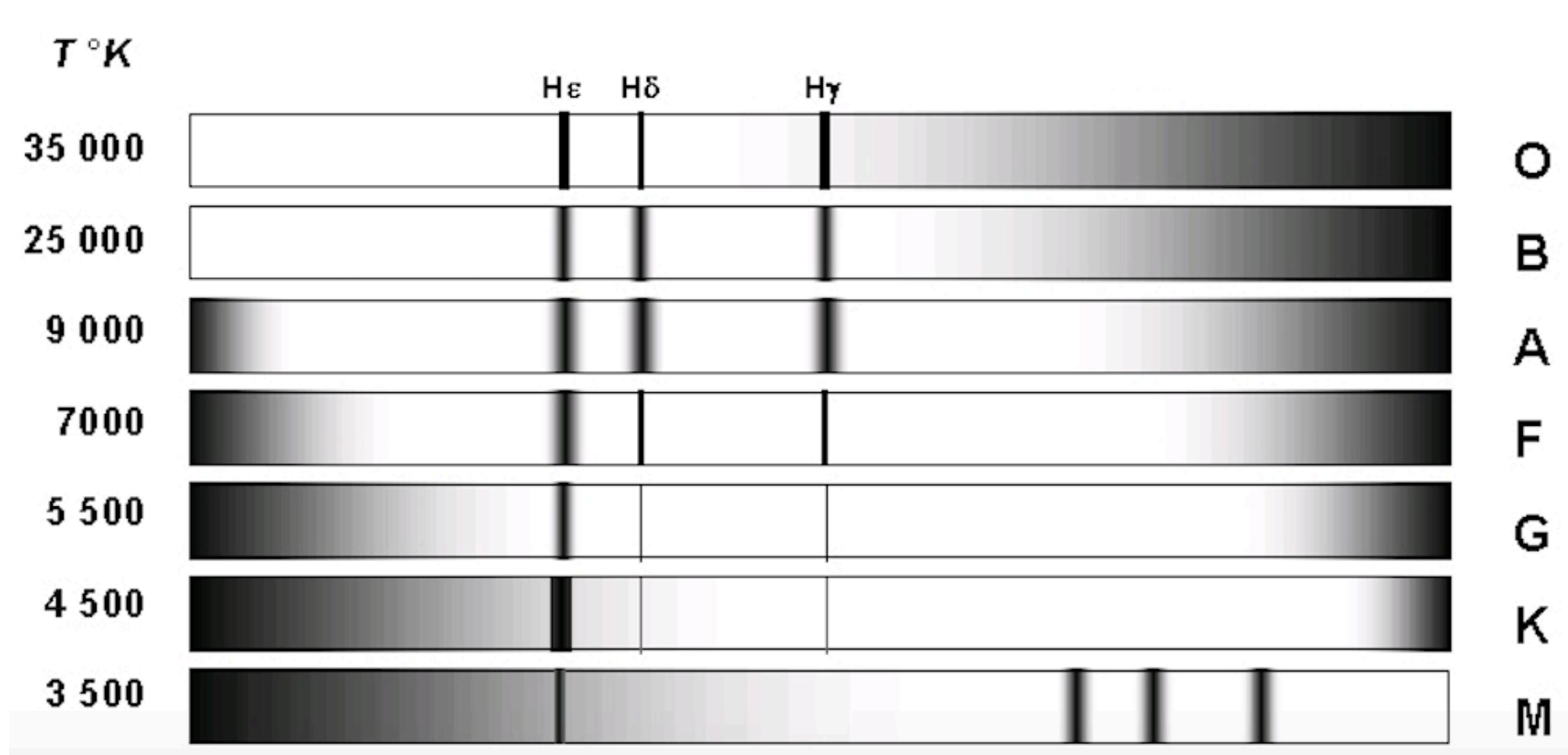


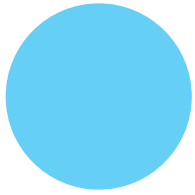
=



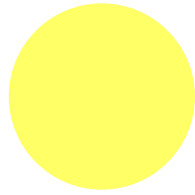




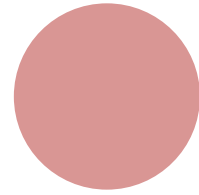




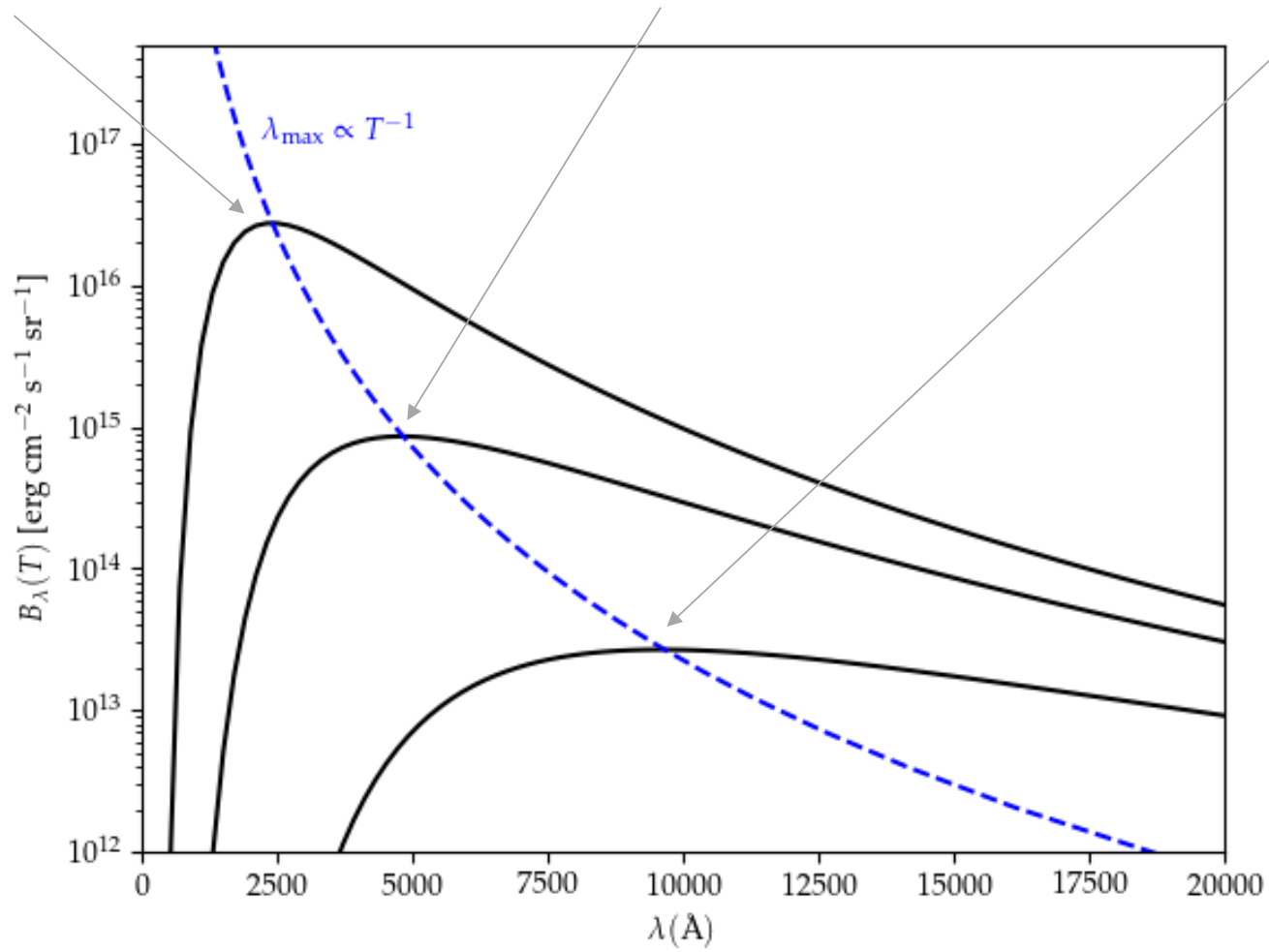
$T = 12000 \text{ K}$
 $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 2500 \text{ \AA}$



$T = 6000 \text{ K}$
 $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 5000 \text{ \AA}$

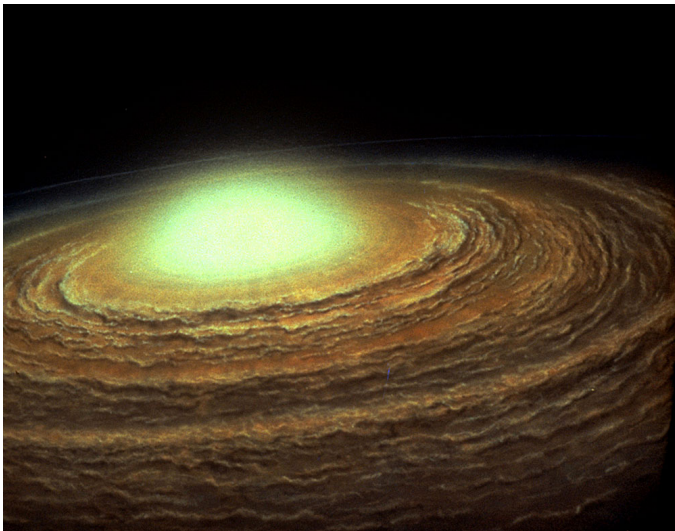


$T = 3000 \text{ K}$
 $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 10000 \text{ \AA}$

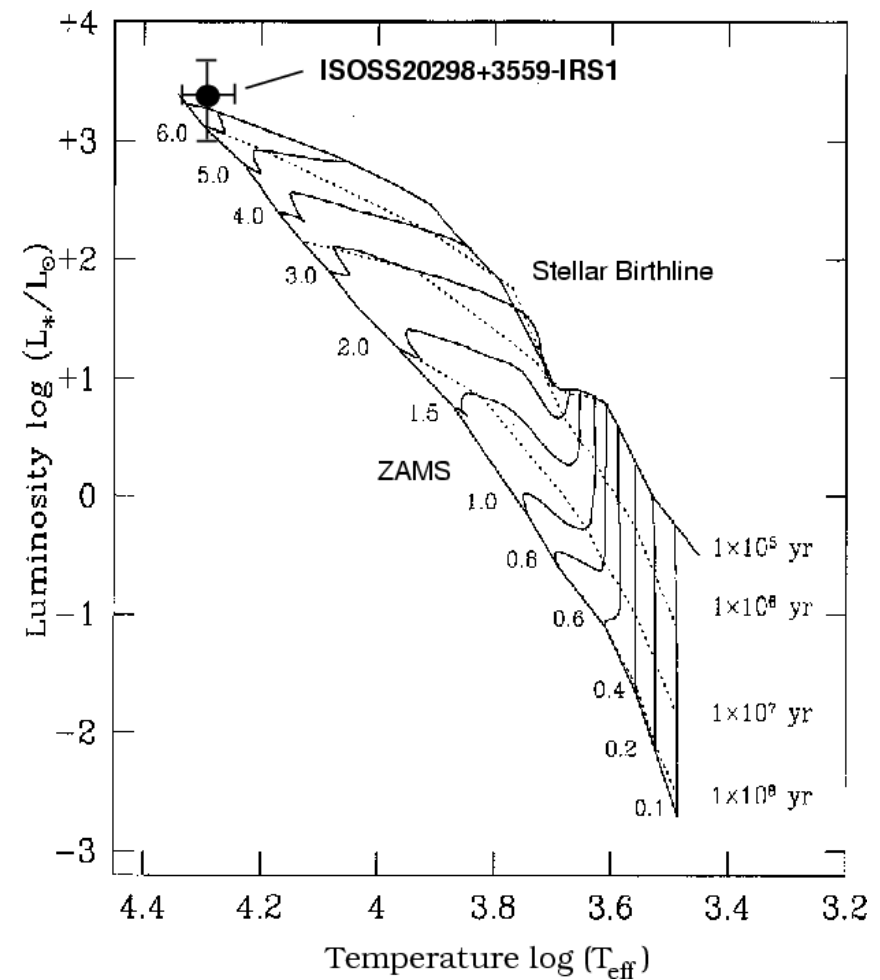


Star Formation – The Birthline

Protostars appear in the HR diagram at the **BIRTHLINE**



Pre main sequence evolution takes a protostar from the Birthline to the ZAMS (Zero Age Main Sequence).

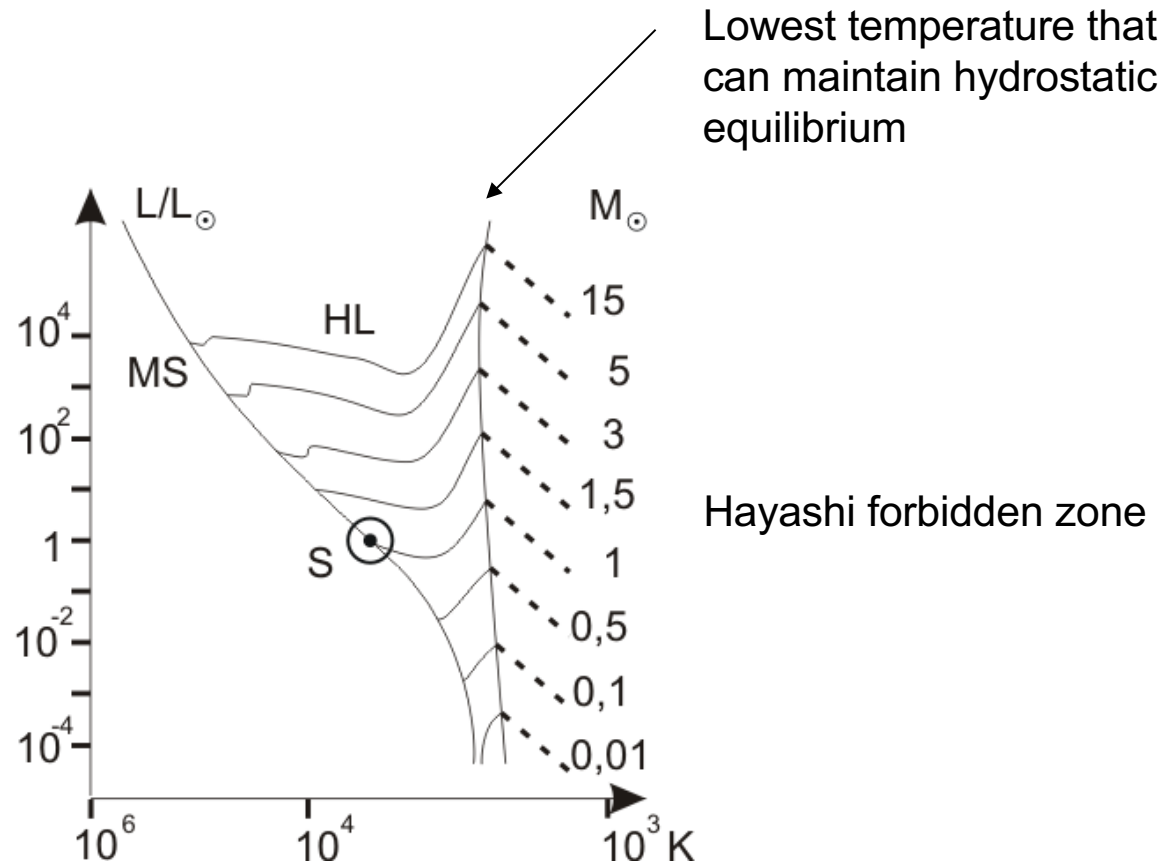


Pre Main Sequence Evolution

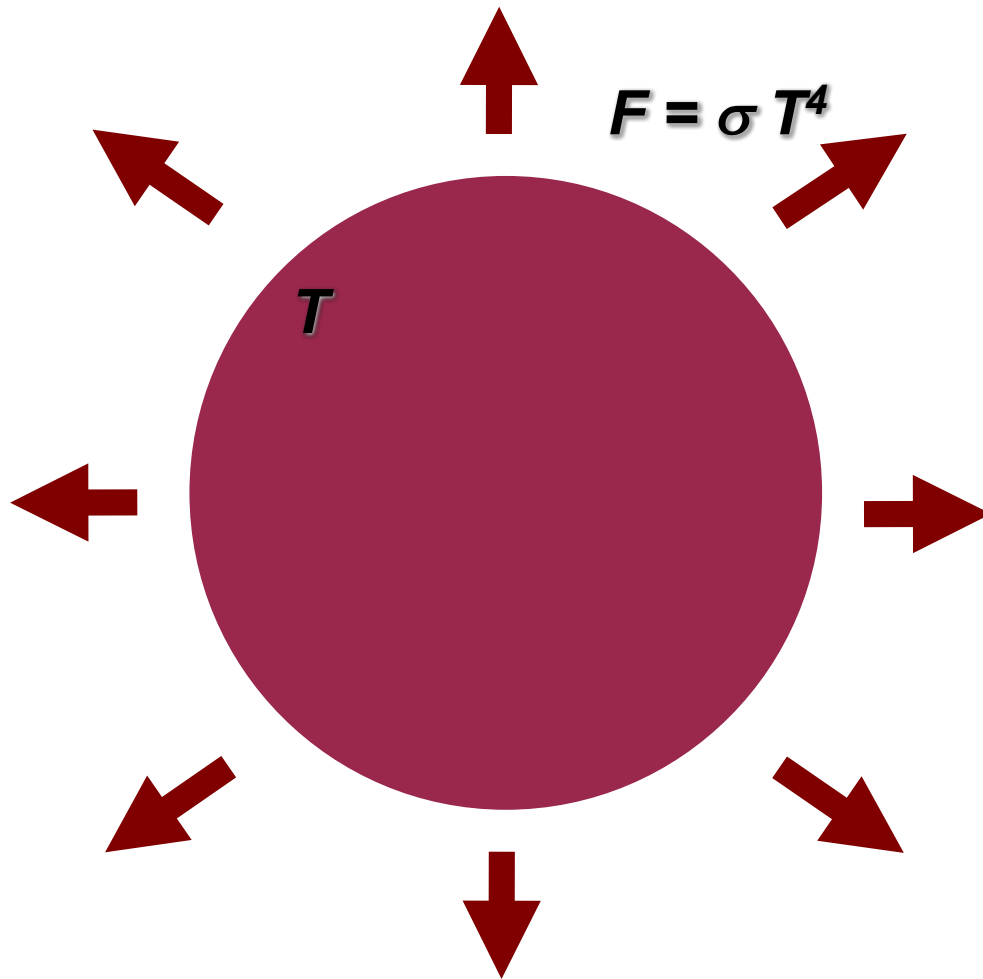
Birthline - The Hayashi limit

Hayashi calculated the maximum radius that a star in hydrostatic equilibrium can have.

The result is almost a straight line in the HR diagram (meaning nearly constant temperature).

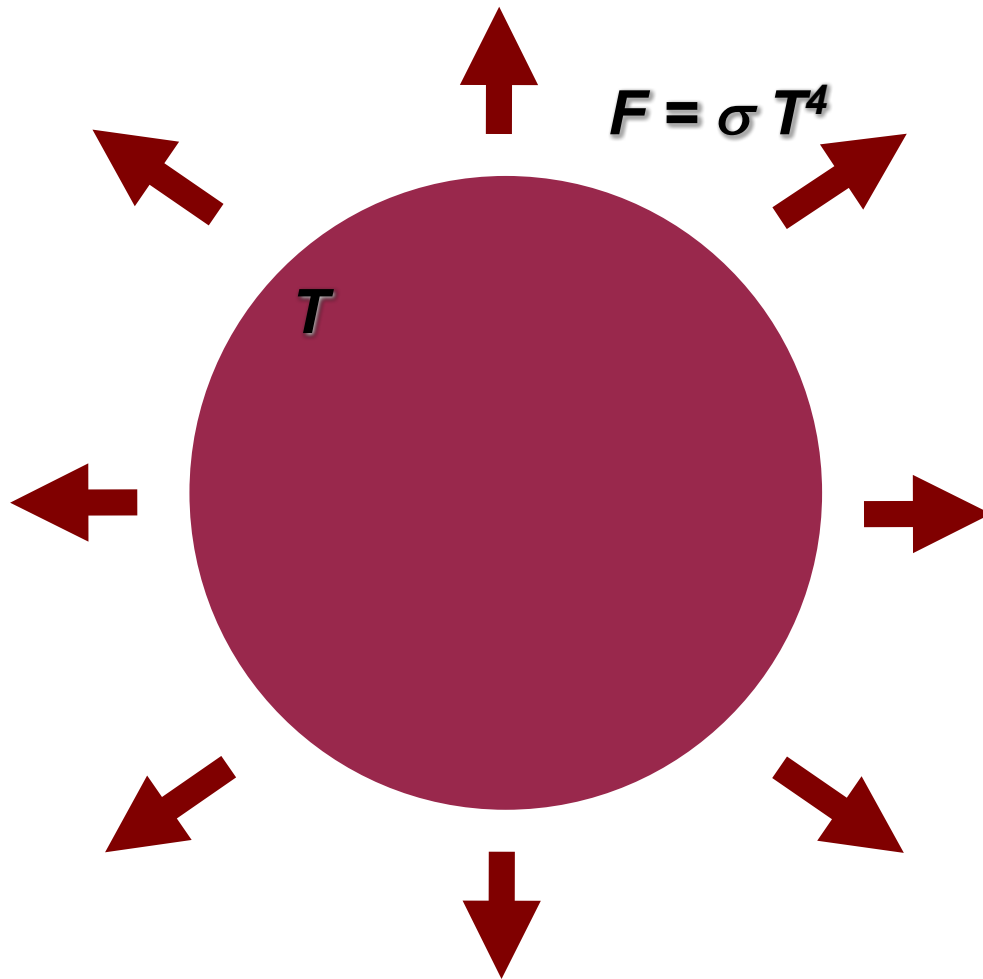


Pre Main Sequence Evolution



It has a temperature, thus a flux
Energy is radiated away
The star loses support and contracts

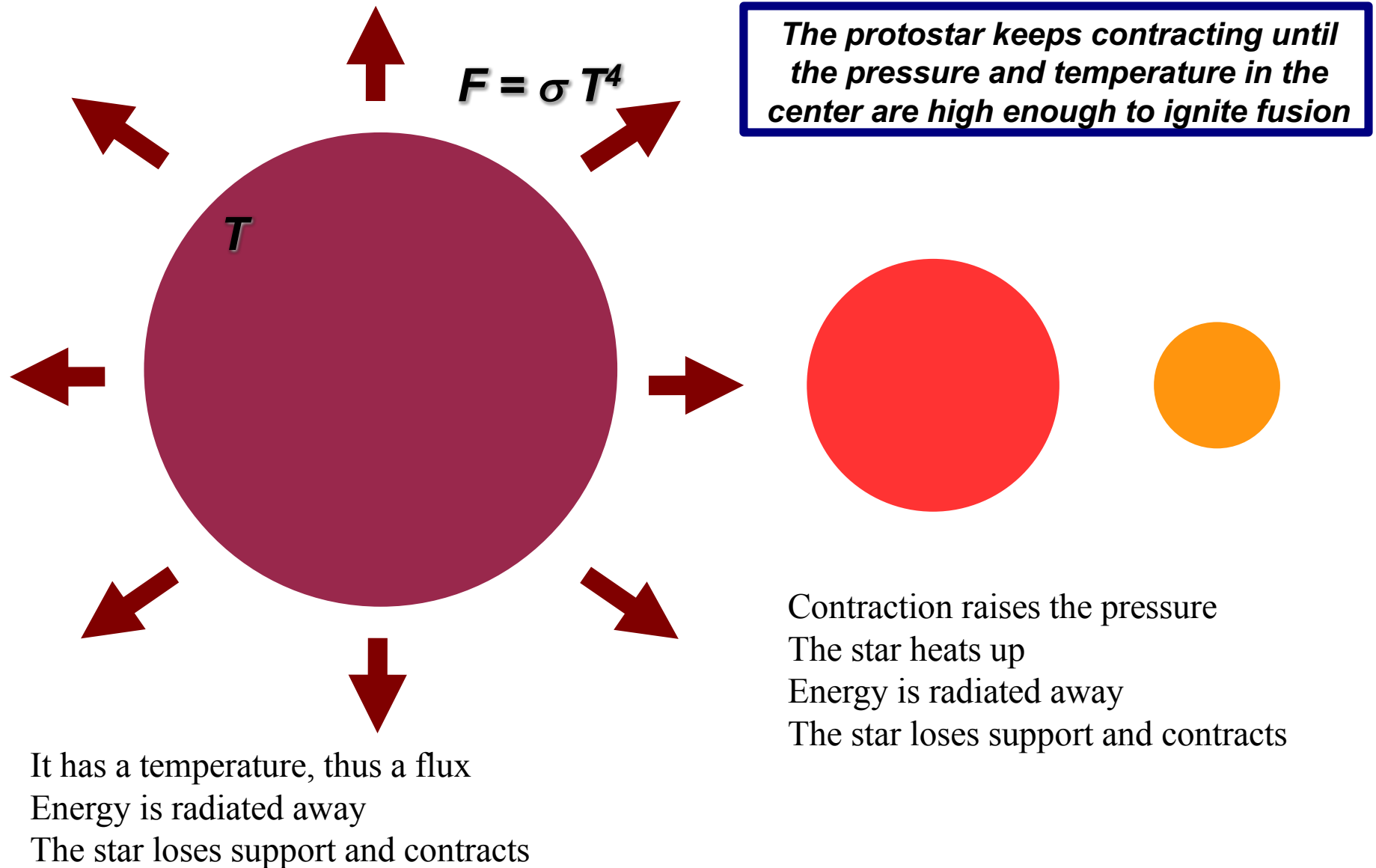
Pre Main Sequence Evolution



It has a temperature, thus a flux
Energy is radiated away
The star loses support and contracts

Contraction raises the pressure
The star heats up
Energy is radiated away
The star loses support and contracts

Pre Main Sequence Evolution



Pre Main Sequence Evolution

Hayashi Tracks

In the HR diagram, these contraction paths appear as **Hayashi tracks**

Slow contraction under quasi-hydrostatic equilibrium

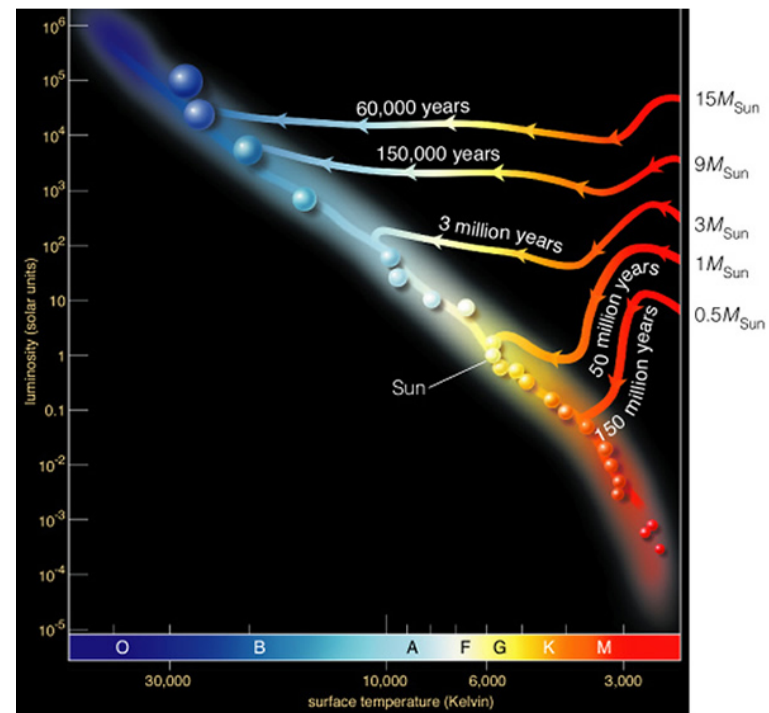
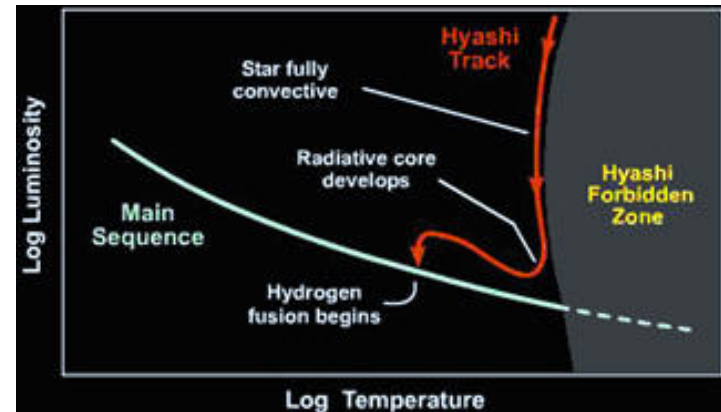
End or pre main sequence evolution?

Start of nuclear fusion!

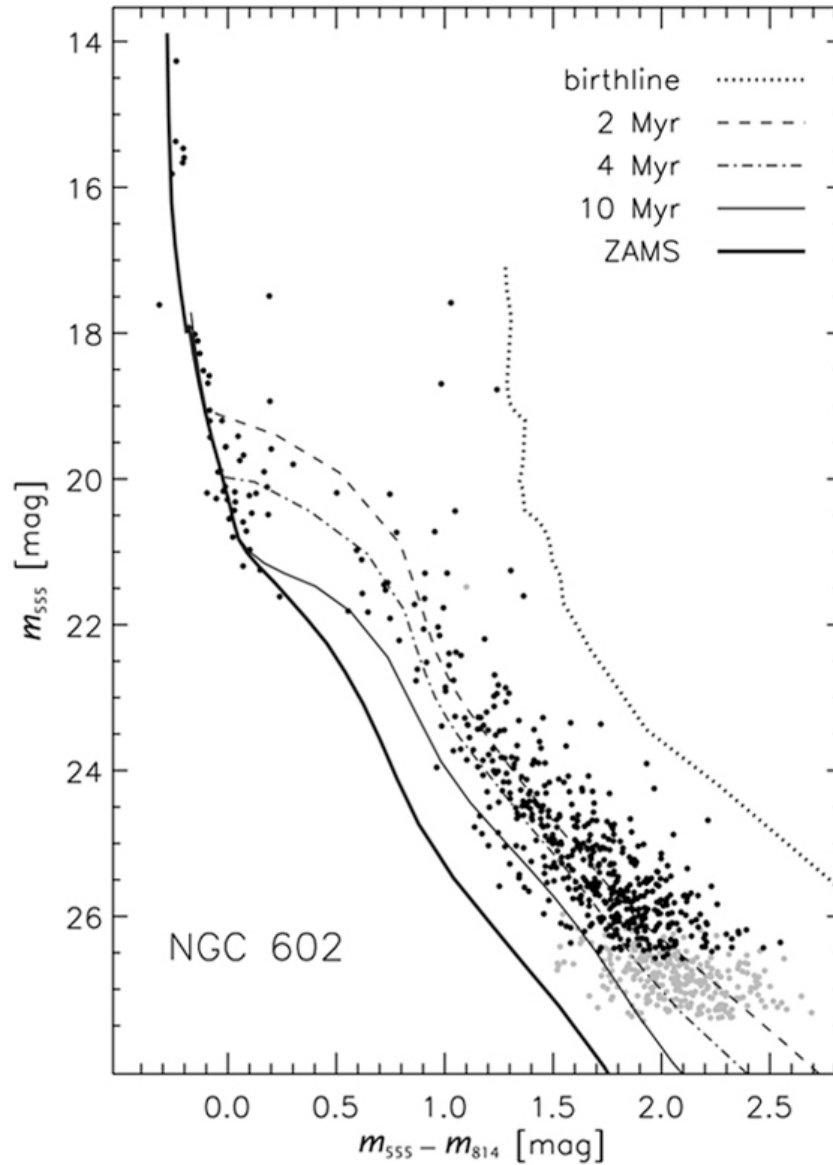
(Star lands on the main sequence)

PMS evolution is faster for high mass stars

Gravity and pressure are *finally* balanced!



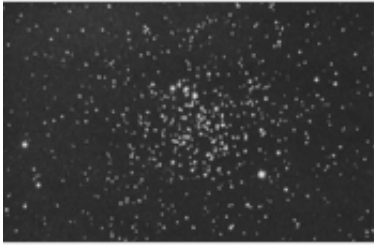
Pre Main Sequence Evolution



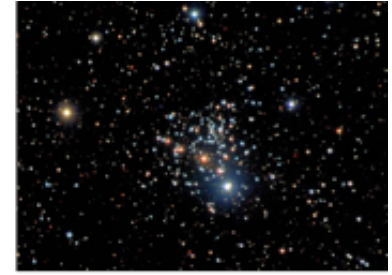
Line of constant age: ***ISOCHRONE***

ZAMS: Zero-Age Main Sequence

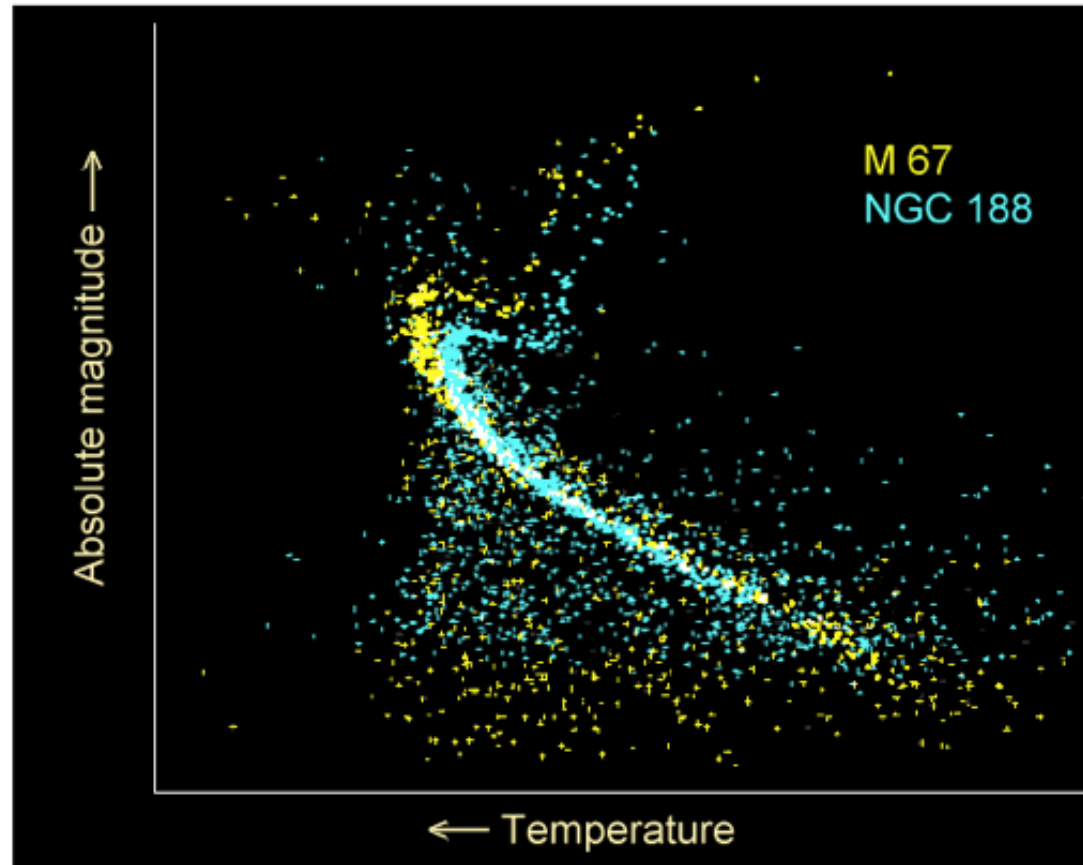




M67

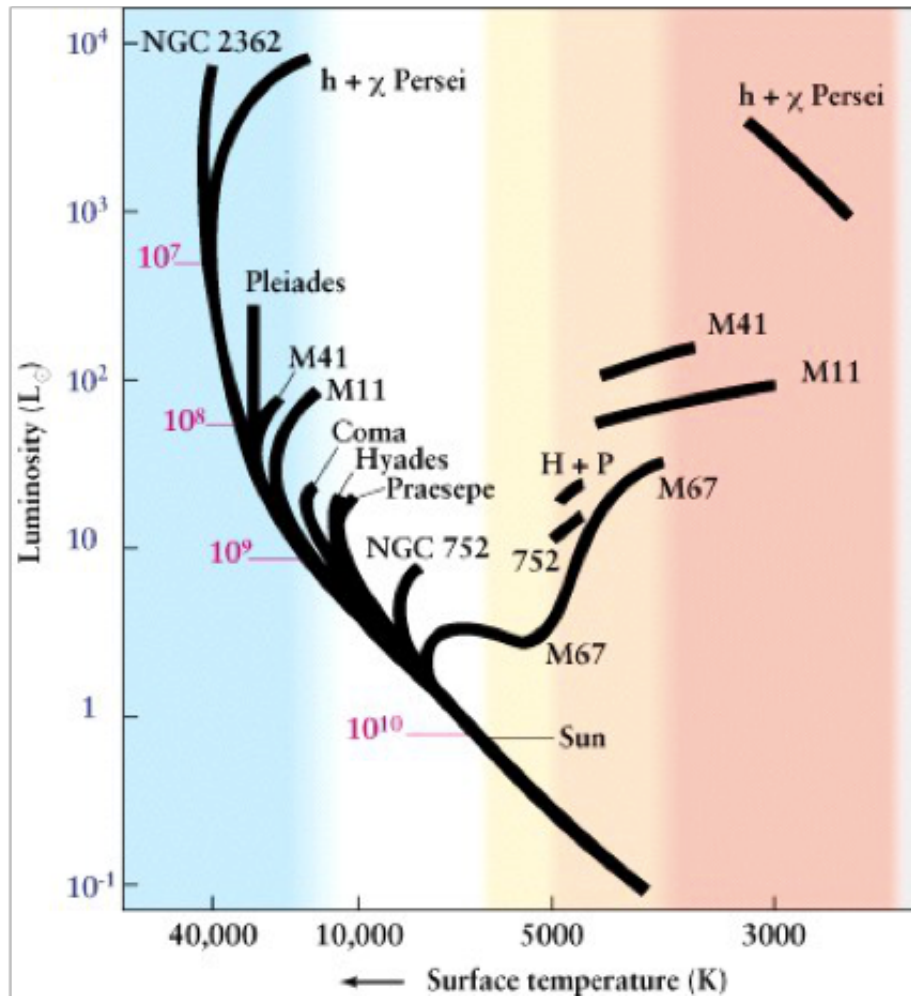


NGC188



Which one is the older?

The Main Sequence Turn-Off Point



As stars age, they leave the main sequence

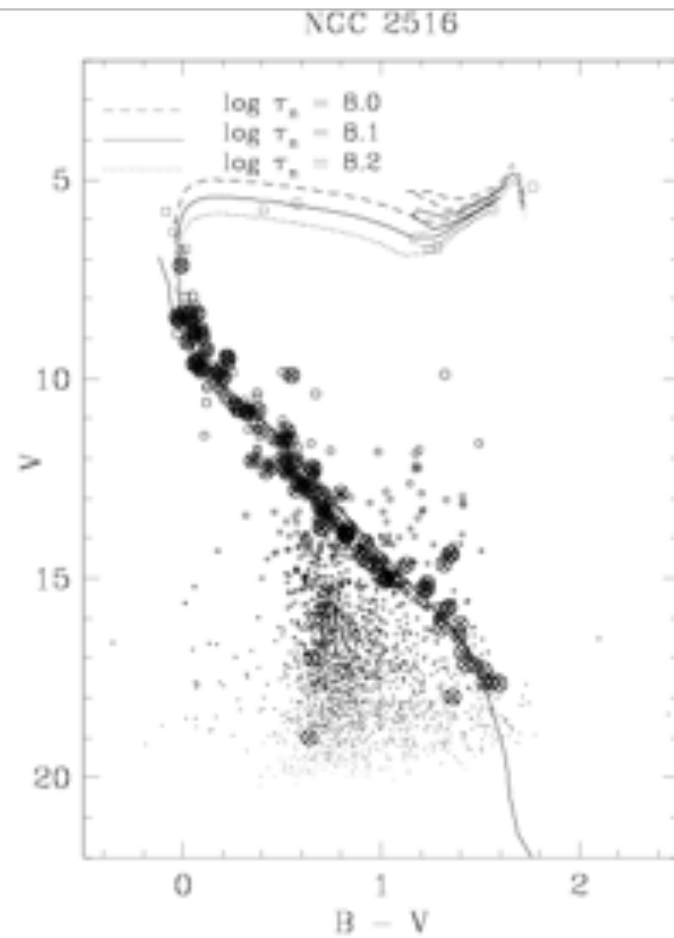
The point where stars are leaving the main sequence is called **turn-off point**

It is a function of age!

Application to clusters:

If you can tell the age of the star at the turn-off point, you can tell the age of the cluster.

The Main Sequence Turn-Off Point



Application to clusters:

If you can tell the age of the star at the turn-off point, you can tell the age of the cluster.

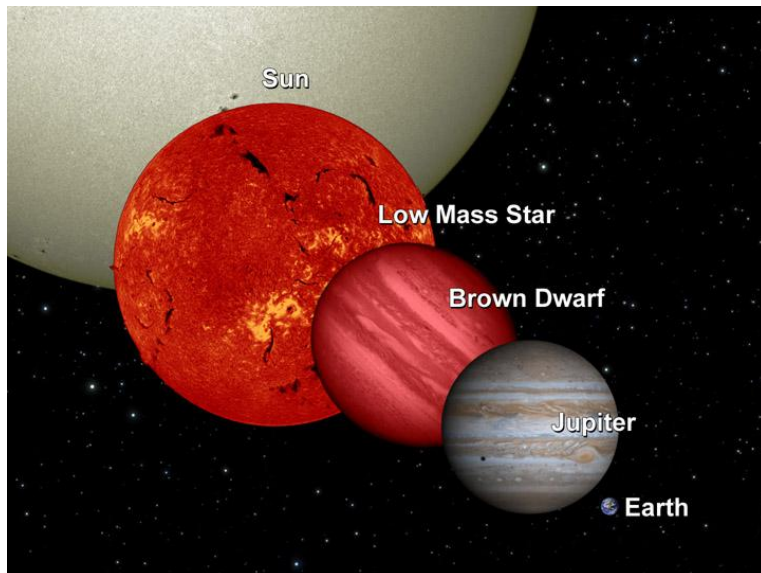
Isochrone Fitting

NGC 2516 – Age ~ 150 Myr



Brown Dwarfs - Runt Stars

Brown dwarfs are objects with mass below the **Hydrogen Burning Limit** of **$0.08 M_{\odot}$**



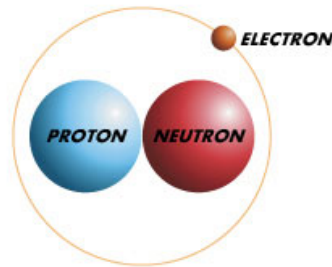
Star formation does not “know” about a hydrogen burning limit. Objects above and below it are formed.

Brown dwarfs are the runts of the litter.

Also called **Substellar Objects**

They do **not** burn Hydrogen, but they burn **Deuterium**

Deuterium Burning



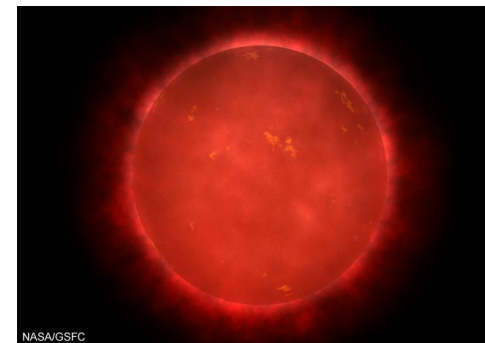
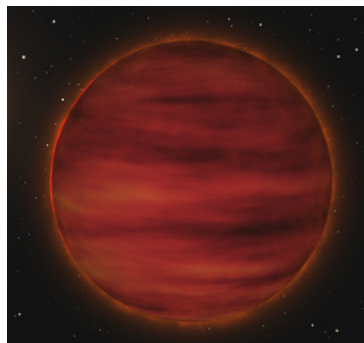
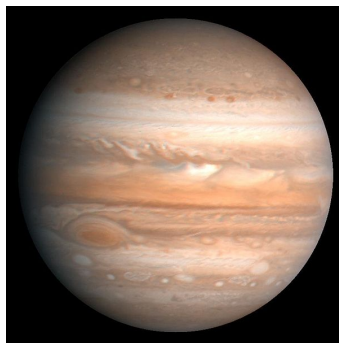
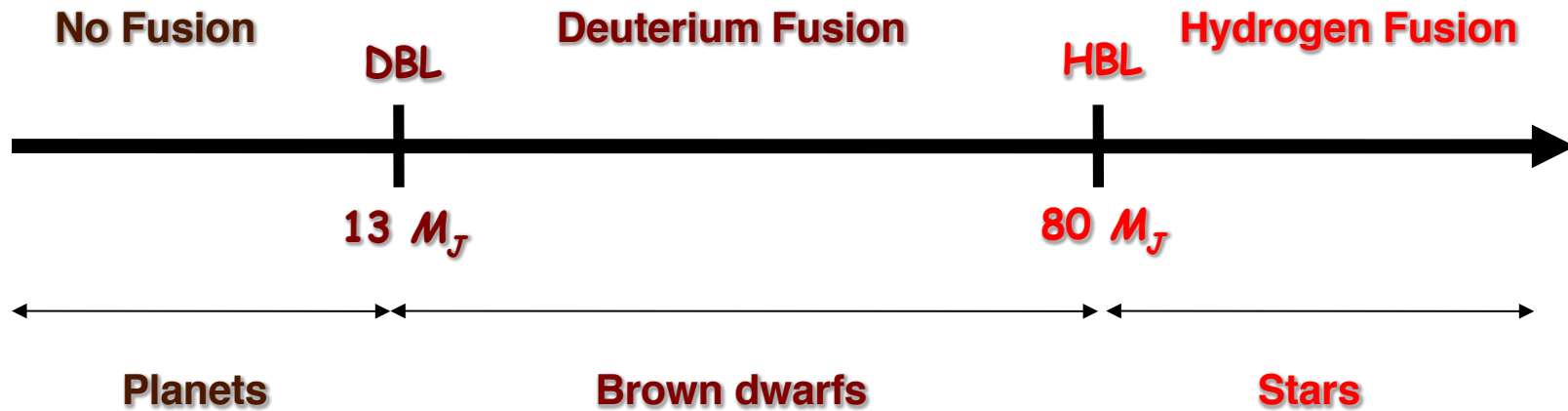
Deuterium has the **same charge** as hydrogen,
but is **heavier** – thus **easier to fuse**.

Hydrogen fusion requires temperatures of 10 million K,
but deuterium fuses at much lower temperatures.

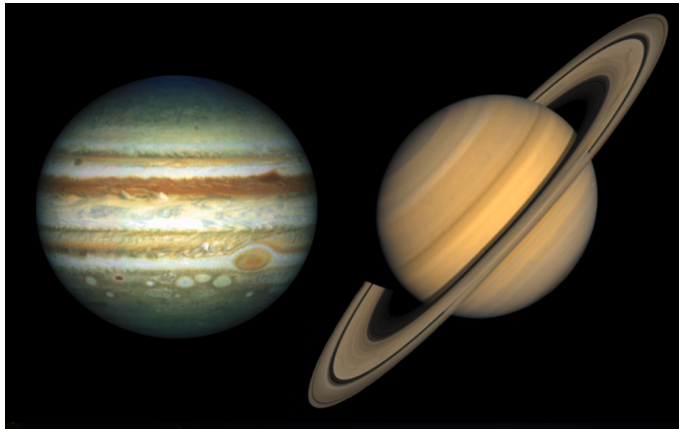
Mass Range

Hydrogen Burning Limit ($0.08 M_{\odot} - 80 M_J$)

Deuterium Burning Limit ($0.013 M_{\odot} - 13 M_J$)



Radii of Brown Dwarfs



Jupiter is 3x more massive than Saturn

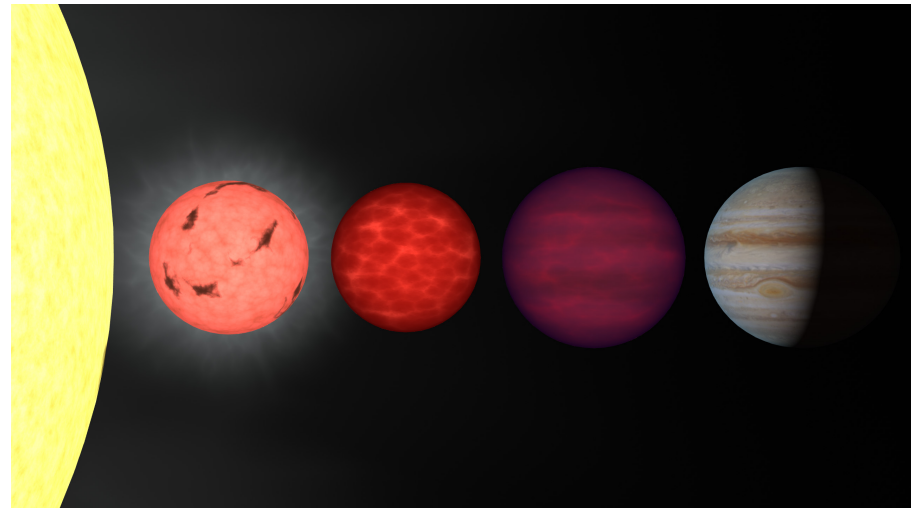
Yet their radii are similar.

Why?

They are partially degenerate!
In this regime, adding mass
just makes stuff denser.

The same applies to brown dwarfs

**Brown dwarfs of all masses
(13 – 80 M_J)
are Jupiter-sized**

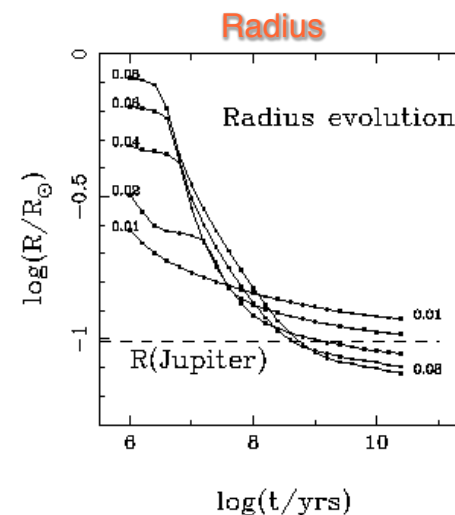
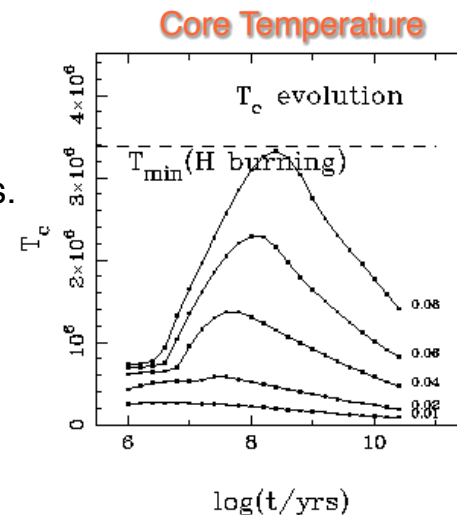
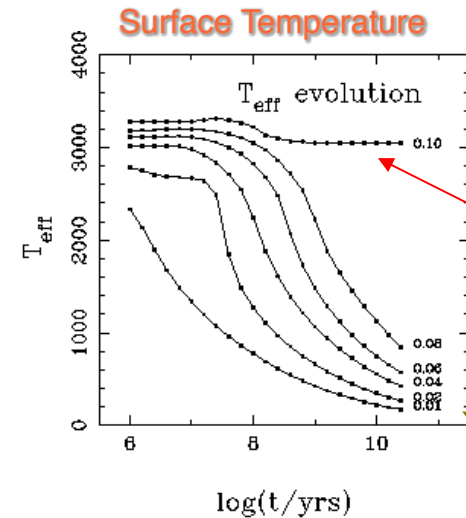
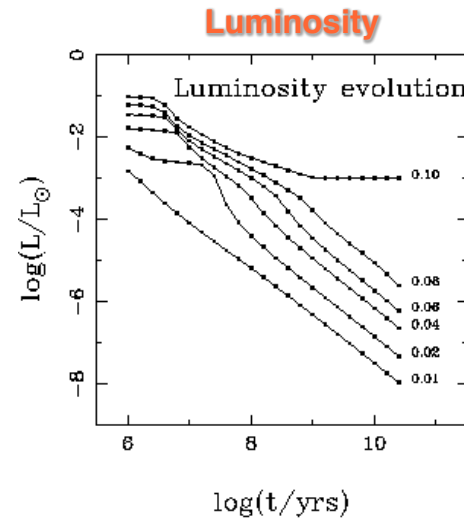


Brown dwarf evolution

Deuterium fusion only lasts for 10^7 years !!

Brown dwarfs evolution after that is basically cooling

- 1) Deuterium burning
(constant temperature, luminosity and radius)
- 2) Contraction. Radius falls.
Core temperature rises.
- 3) Never achieves hydrogen burning temperatures.
Core goes degenerate.
- 4) Cooling at constant radius.



Brown dwarf atmospheres

Three new spectral types

OBAFGKM LTY

L dwarfs

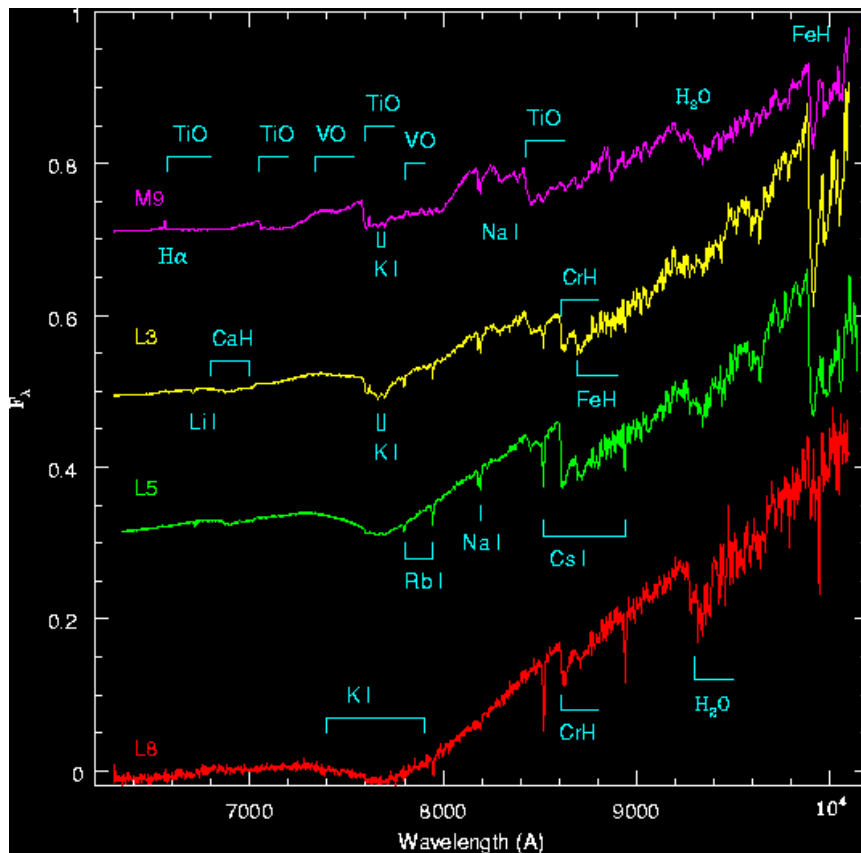
Temperature range – 1300 – 2000 K
Spectral features – H₂O, hydrites, no TiO

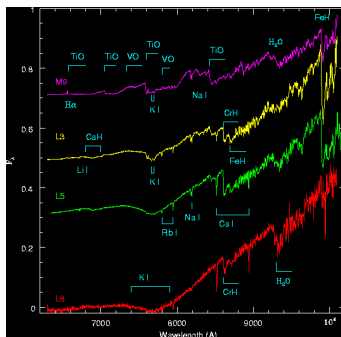
T dwarfs

Temperature range – 700 – 1300 K
Spectral features – CH₄, no visible radiation

Y dwarfs
(not yet observed)

Temperature range - >700 K
(Predicted) Spectral features - NH₃





Brown dwarf atmospheres

Three new spectral types

OBAFGKMLTY

L dwarfs

Temperature range – 1300 – 2000 K

Spectral features – H₂O, hydrites, no TiO

T dwarfs

Temperature range – 700 – 1300 K

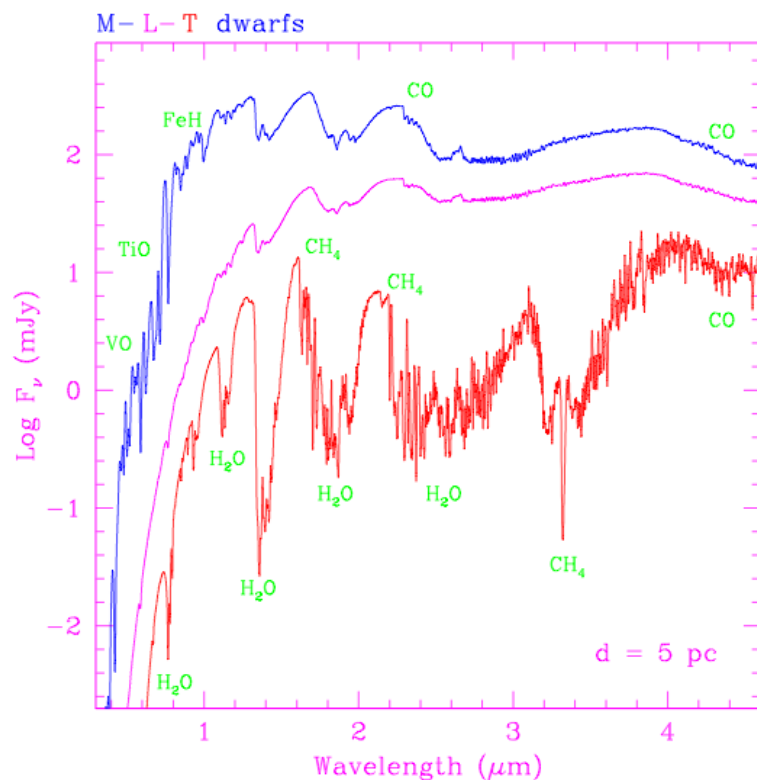
Spectral features – CH₄, no visible radiation

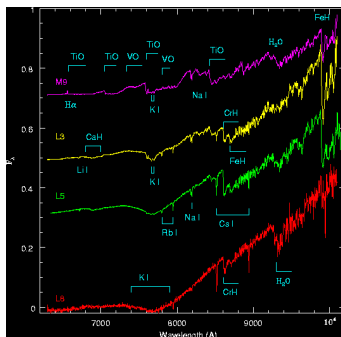
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Brown dwarf atmospheres

Three new spectral types

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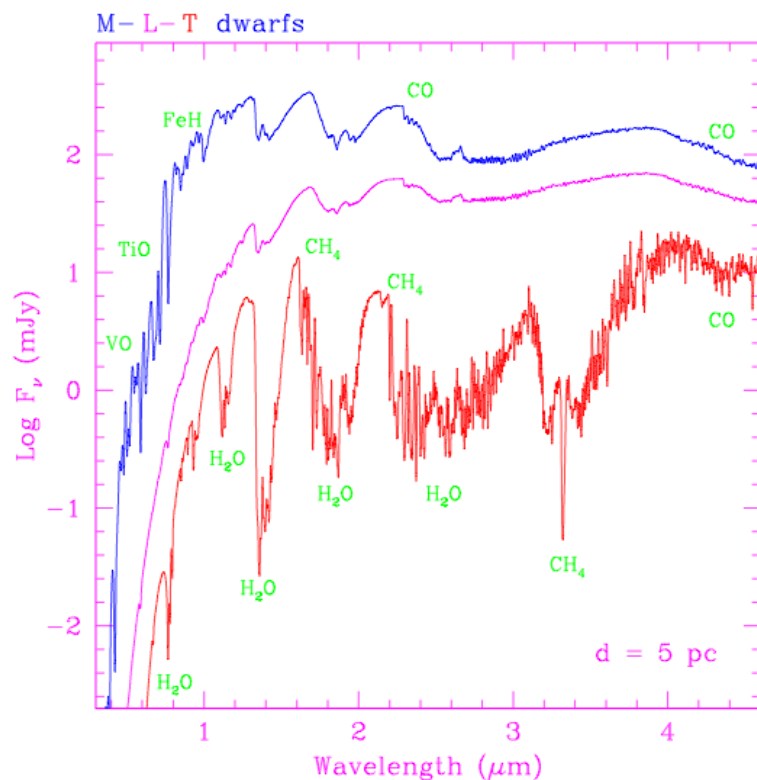
Spectral features – CH₄, no visible radiation

Y dwarfs

(not yet observed)

Temperature range - $T < 700$ K

(Predicted) Spectral features - NH₃



Free floating planets

As deuterium fusion is fast,
the transition between brown dwarfs and planets is blurred

Plus, the IMF does not stop at the Deuterium Burning Limit

There should be **planetary mass objects** orbiting in the Galaxy, **unbound to stars**, in much the same way that moon-sized stuff – Pluto for instance – freely orbit the Sun



Free floating planets

As deuterium fusion is fast,
the transition between brown dwarfs and planets is blurred

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There should be **planetary mass objects** orbiting in the galaxy, **unbound to stars**, in much the same way as moon-sized stuff – Pluto for instance – freely orbit the Sun

S Ori 70: best candidate.

Mass estimated in $3 M_J$

Suggested names

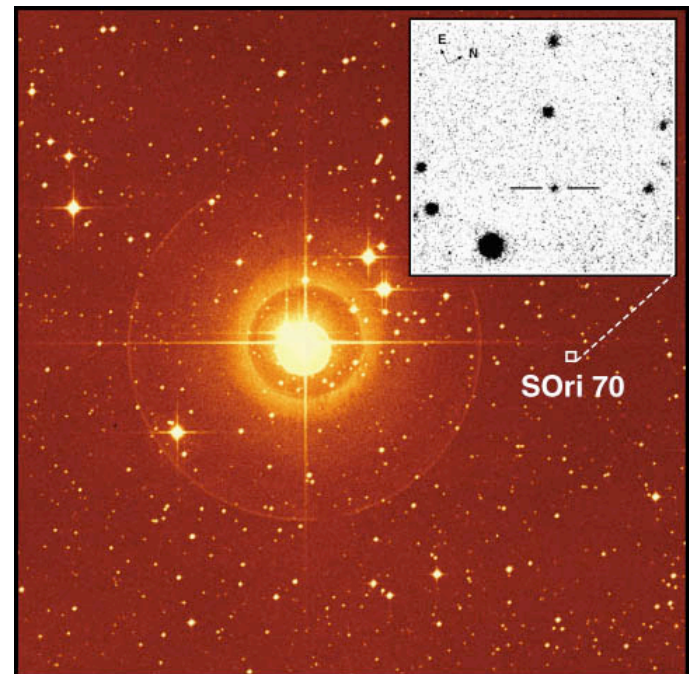
Free floating planet

Rogue planet

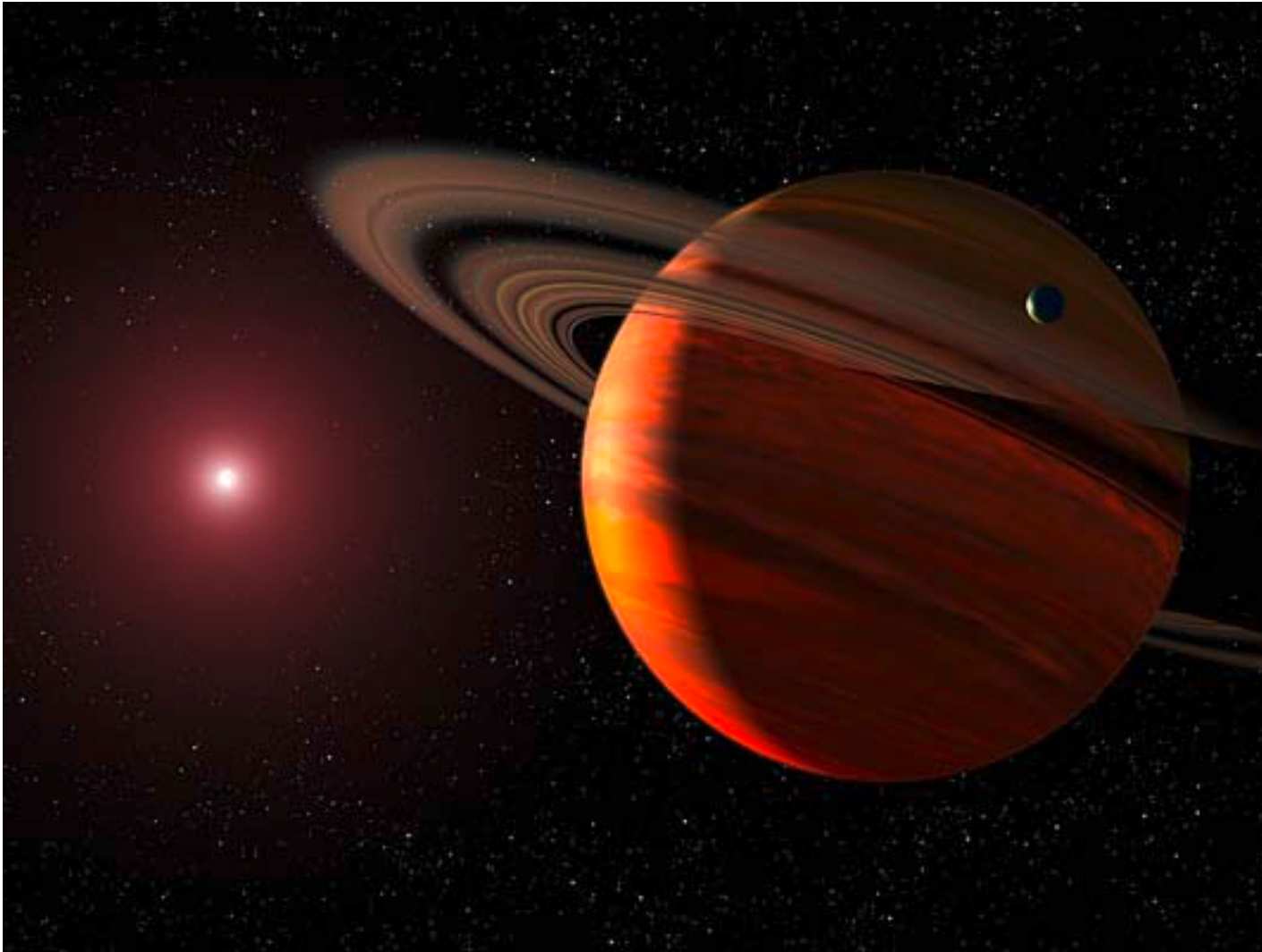
Interstellar planet

Sub-brown dwarf

Planetar

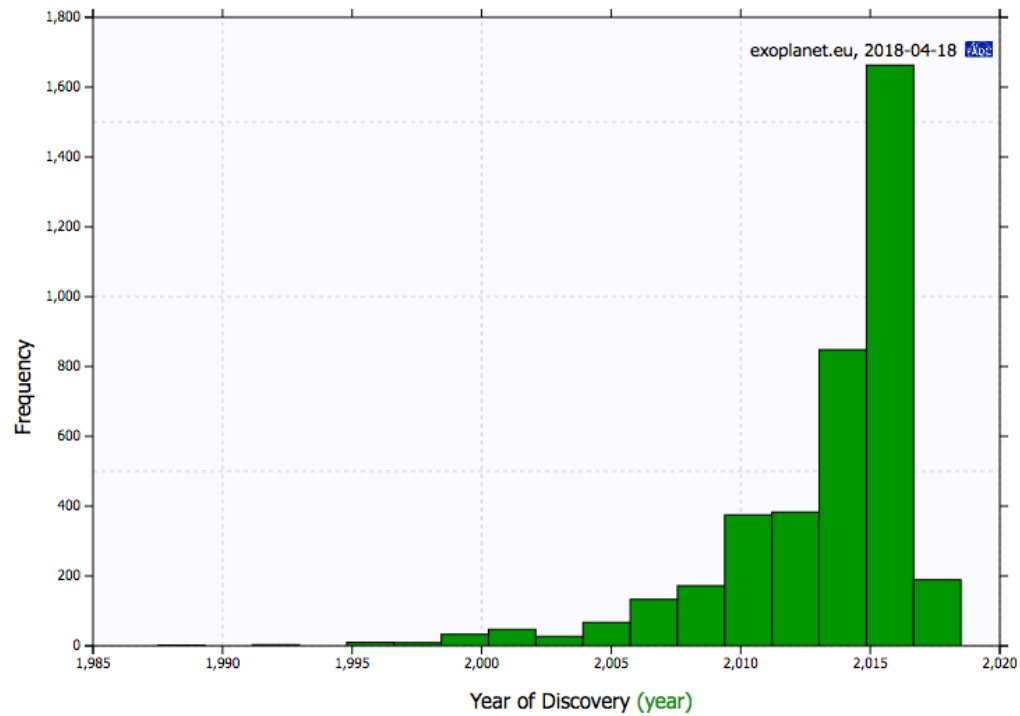


Extrasolar planets



Extrasolar planets

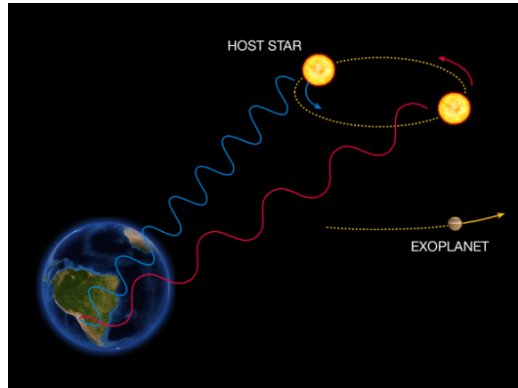
Rate of discoveries



3504, and counting!

Extrasolar planets

Detection methods



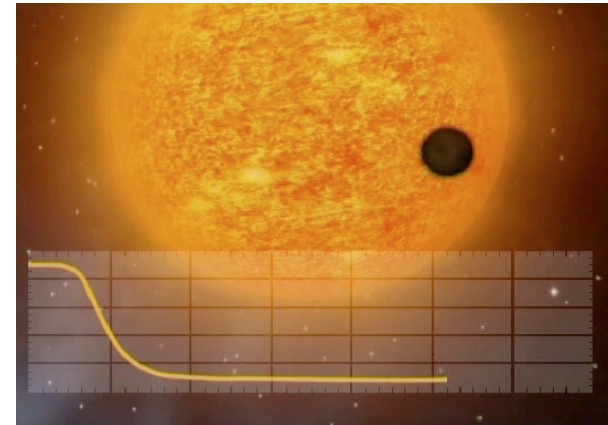
The Radial Velocity Method

ESO Press Photo 22e/07 (25 April 2007)

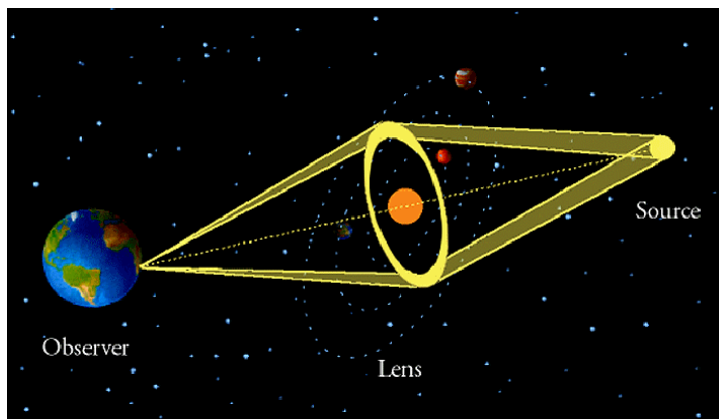
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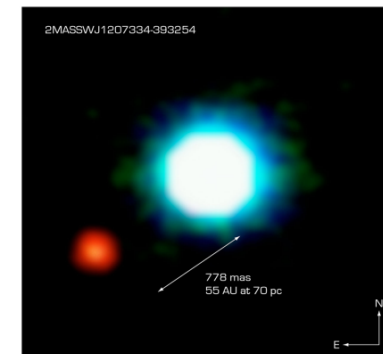
Radial Velocity



Transit



Microlensing



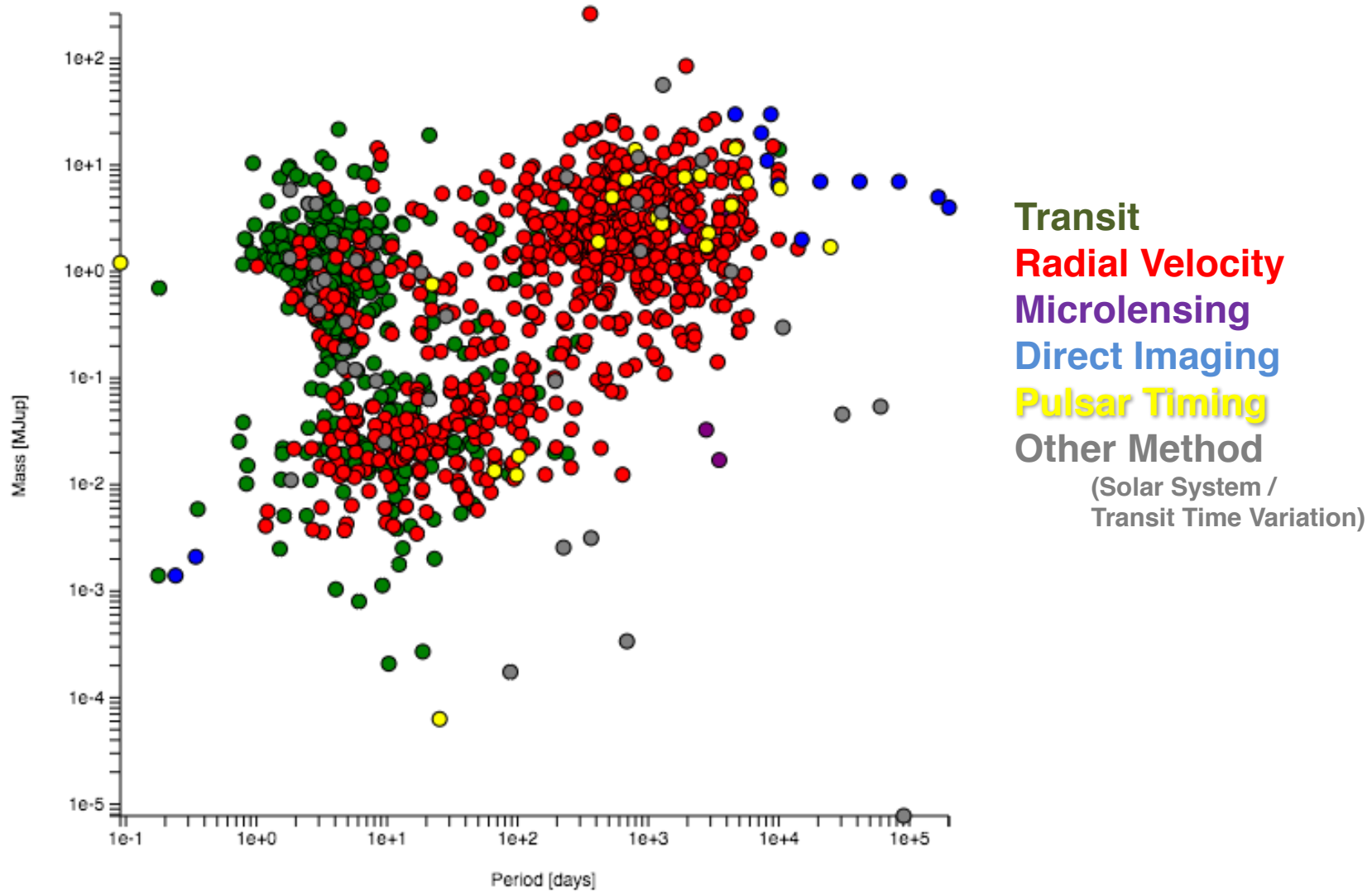
NACO Image of the Brown Dwarf Object 2M1207 and GPC

ESO PR Photo 25a/04 (10 September 2004)

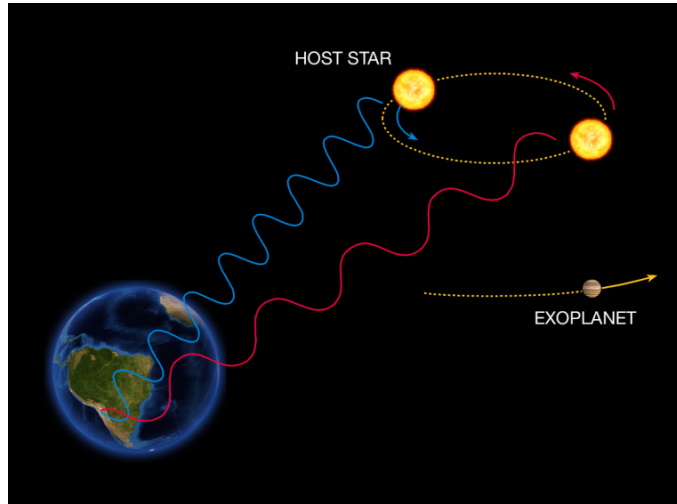
© European Southern Observatory



Direct Imaging



Extrasolar planets – Radial Velocity



The Radial Velocity Method

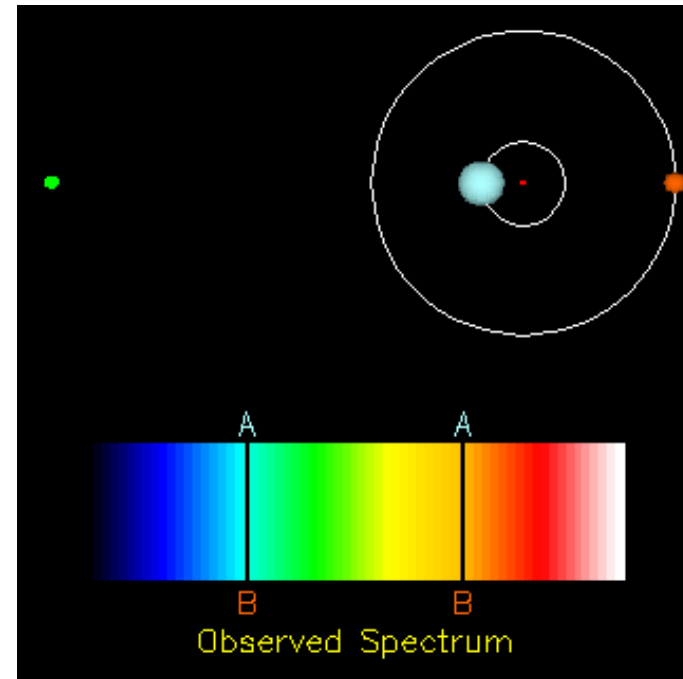
ESO Press Photo 22e/07 (25 April 2007)

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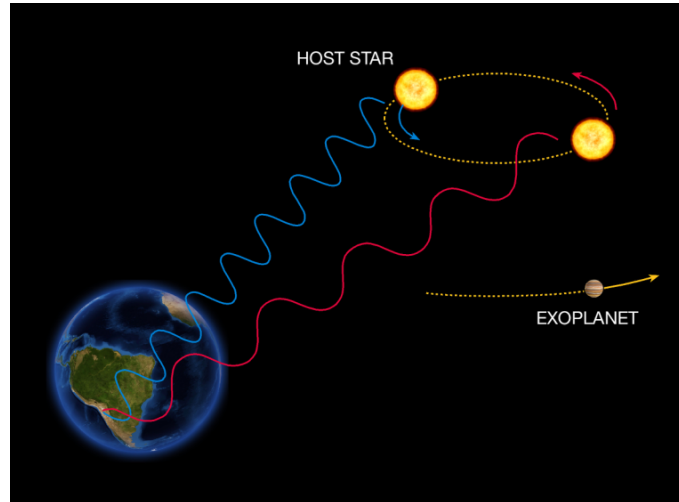


Star and planet orbit a common center of mass

The star + planet system is essentially an astrometric binary



Extrasolar planets – Radial Velocity



The Radial Velocity Method

ESO Press Photo 22e/07 (25 April 2007)

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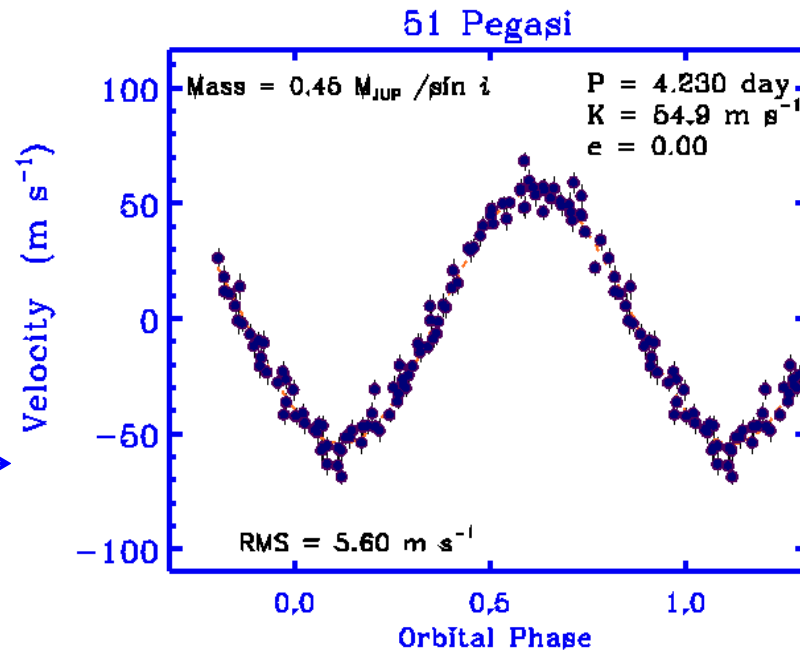


The first planet discovered
around a main sequence star
51 Peg b

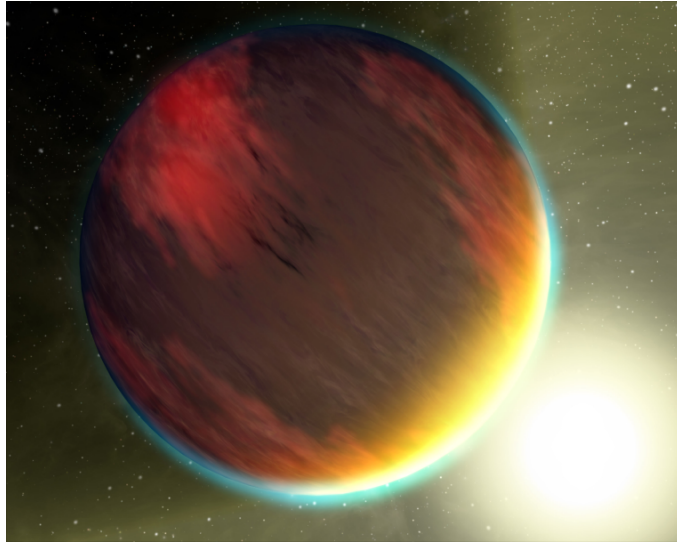


Star and planet orbit a
common center of mass

**Measure radial velocity curves
for thousands of stars
and hope for the best**



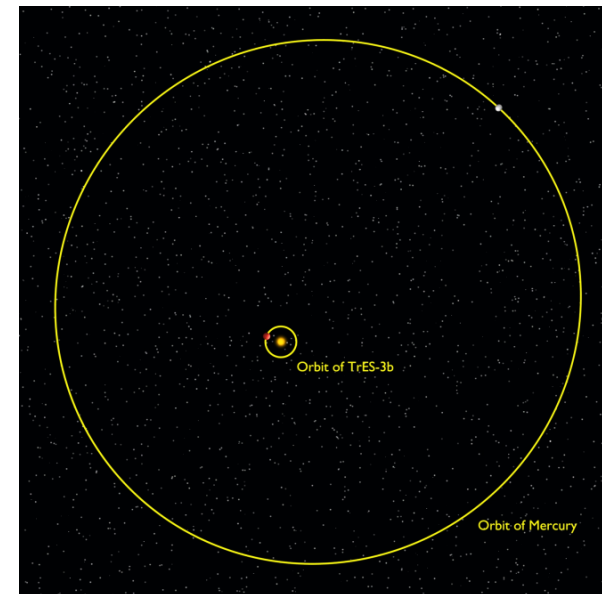
Extrasolar planets – Radial Velocity



The technique preferentially finds
big planets close to their stars
(aka *Hot Jupiters*)

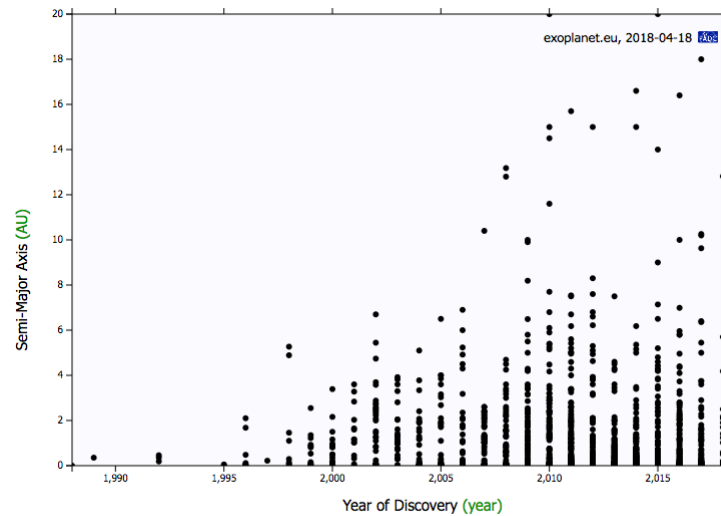
Biased towards large wobbles

High velocities (big signal)
Short periods (No need for long monitoring)

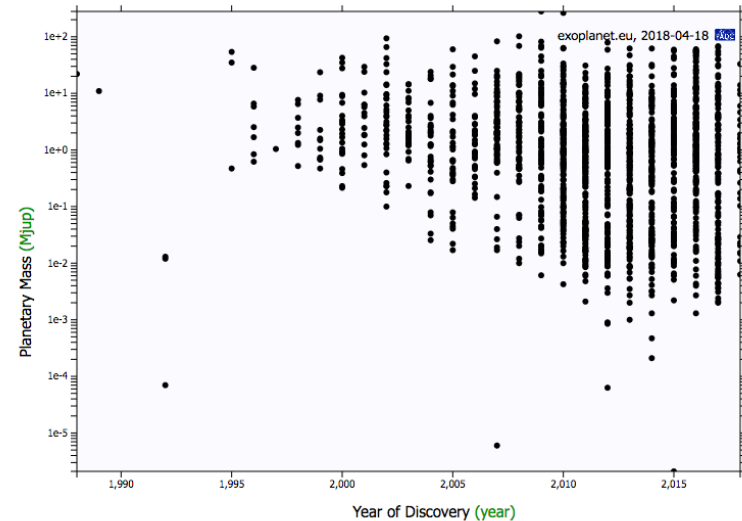


Extrasolar planets – Radial Velocity

In time...

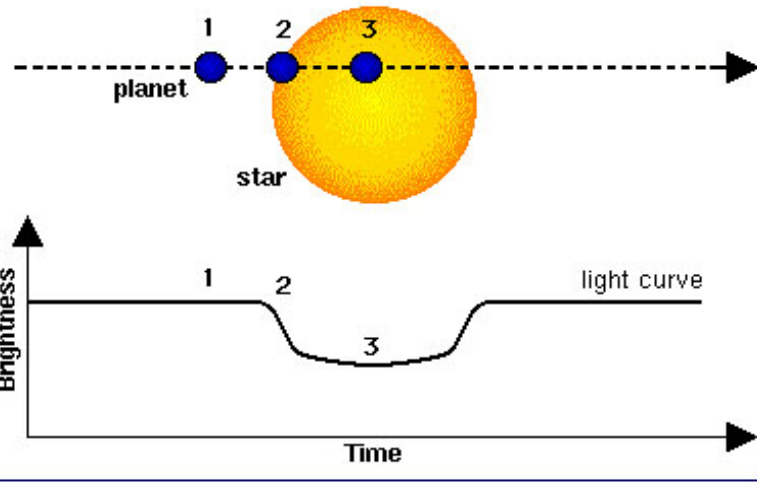


.... we have access to wider orbits...



.... and the sensitivity of the techniques increased, allowing for the detection of lower mass planets.

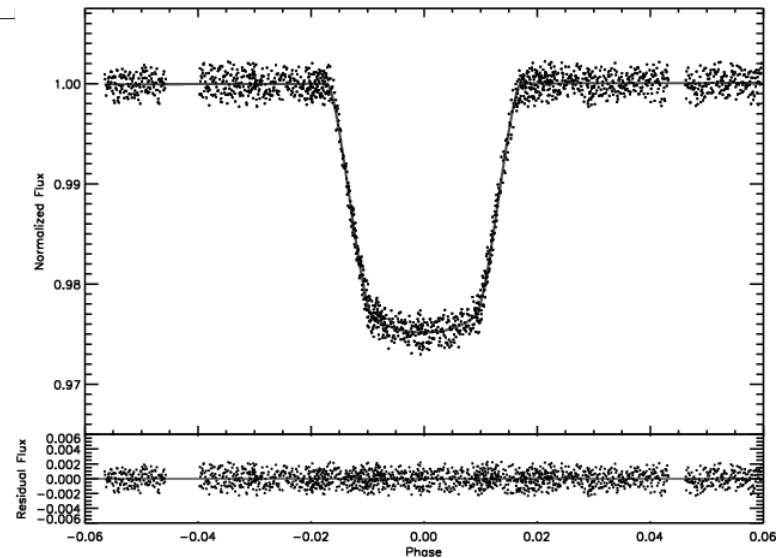
Extrasolar planets - Transit



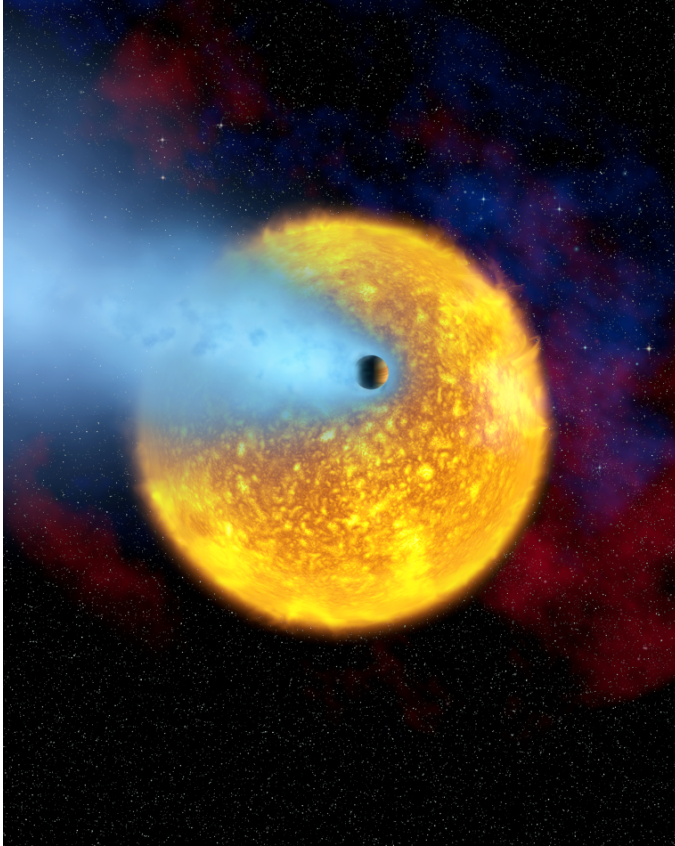
The planet transits the star if the orientation of the orbit is favorable

A Jupiter-size planet produces a 0.02 magnitude dip. Detectable!!

Measure light curves for thousands of stars and hope for the best



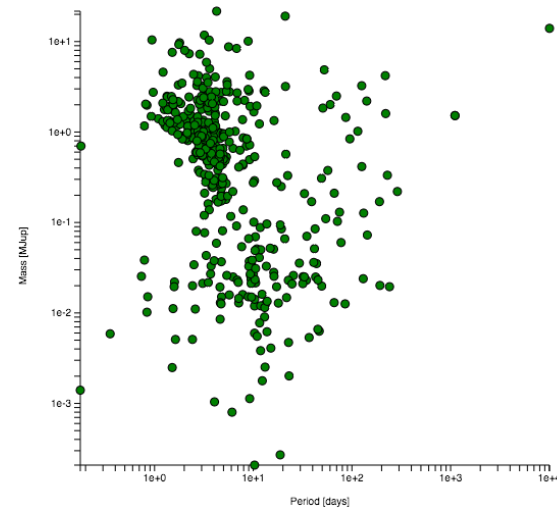
Extrasolar planets - Transit



Probability of favorable orientation
depends on the

Size of the star

Size of the orbit

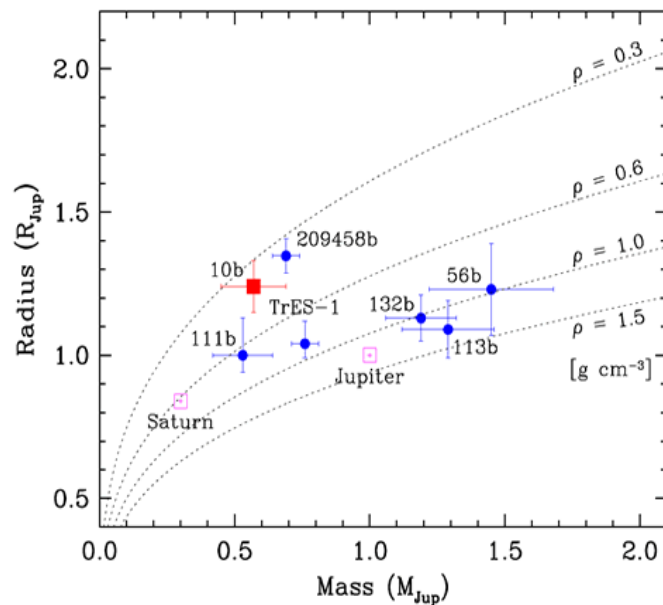


Also biased towards short period planets
(small orbits)

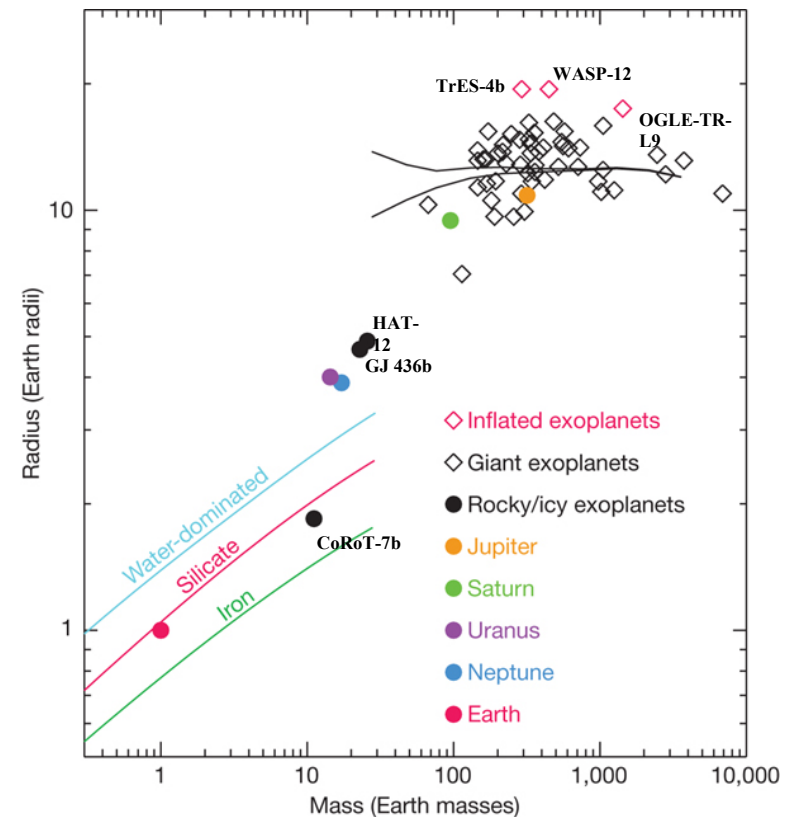
Extrasolar planets - Transit

Transits allow for determination of both mass and radius!

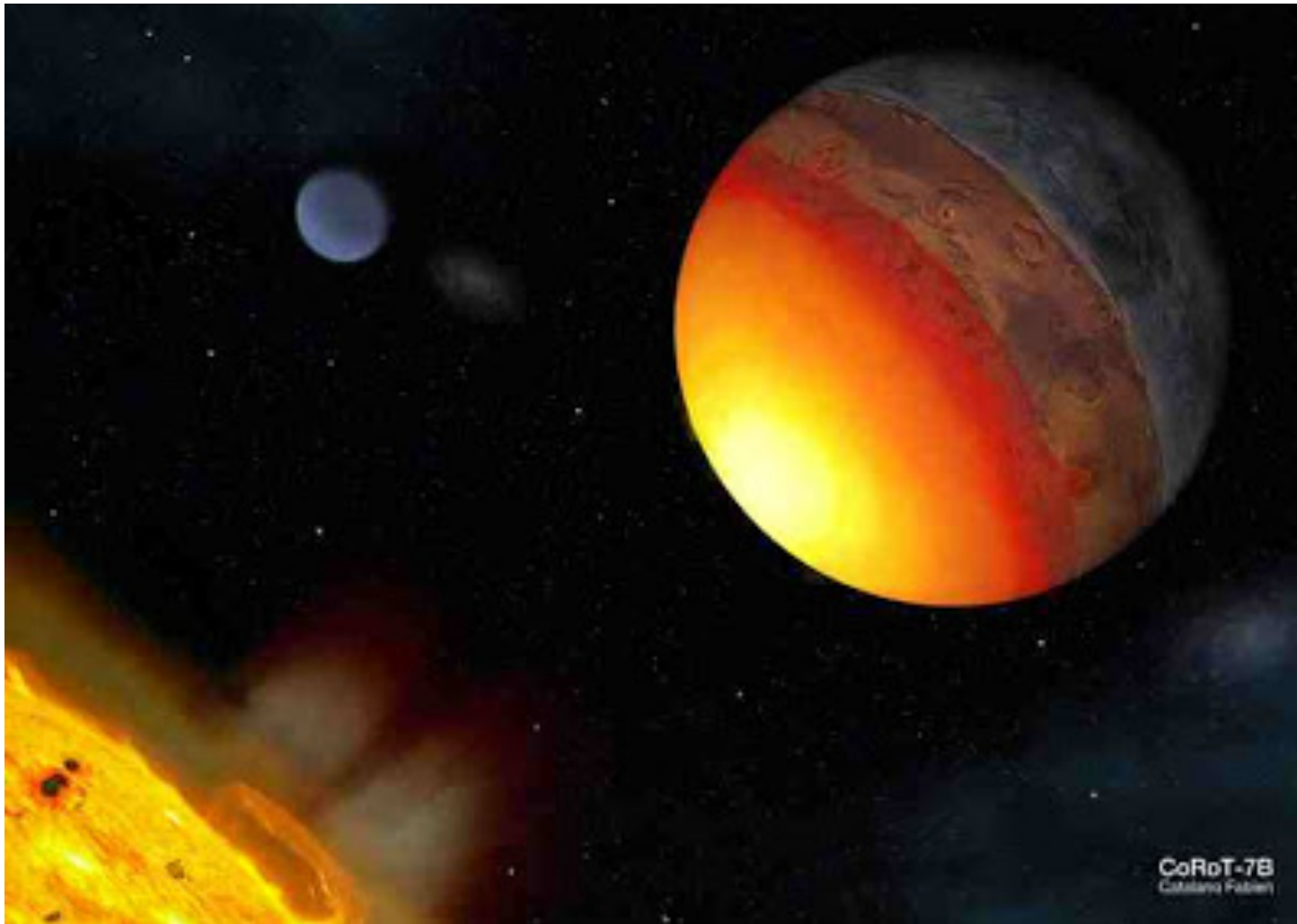
We can measure **densities**...



... and make educated guesses about **composition and structure** of the planets.



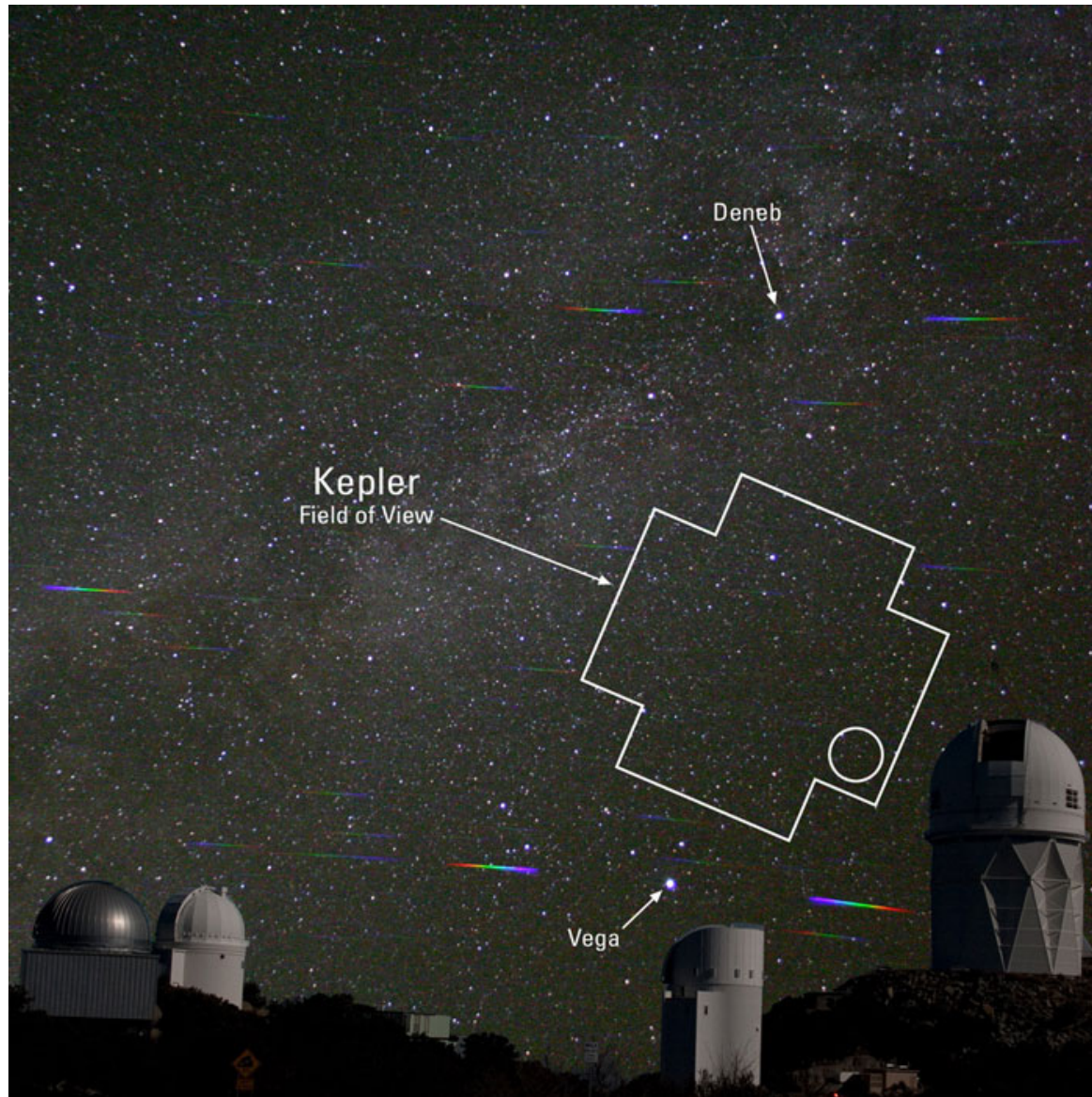
The first confirmed rocky exoplanet CoRoT-7b

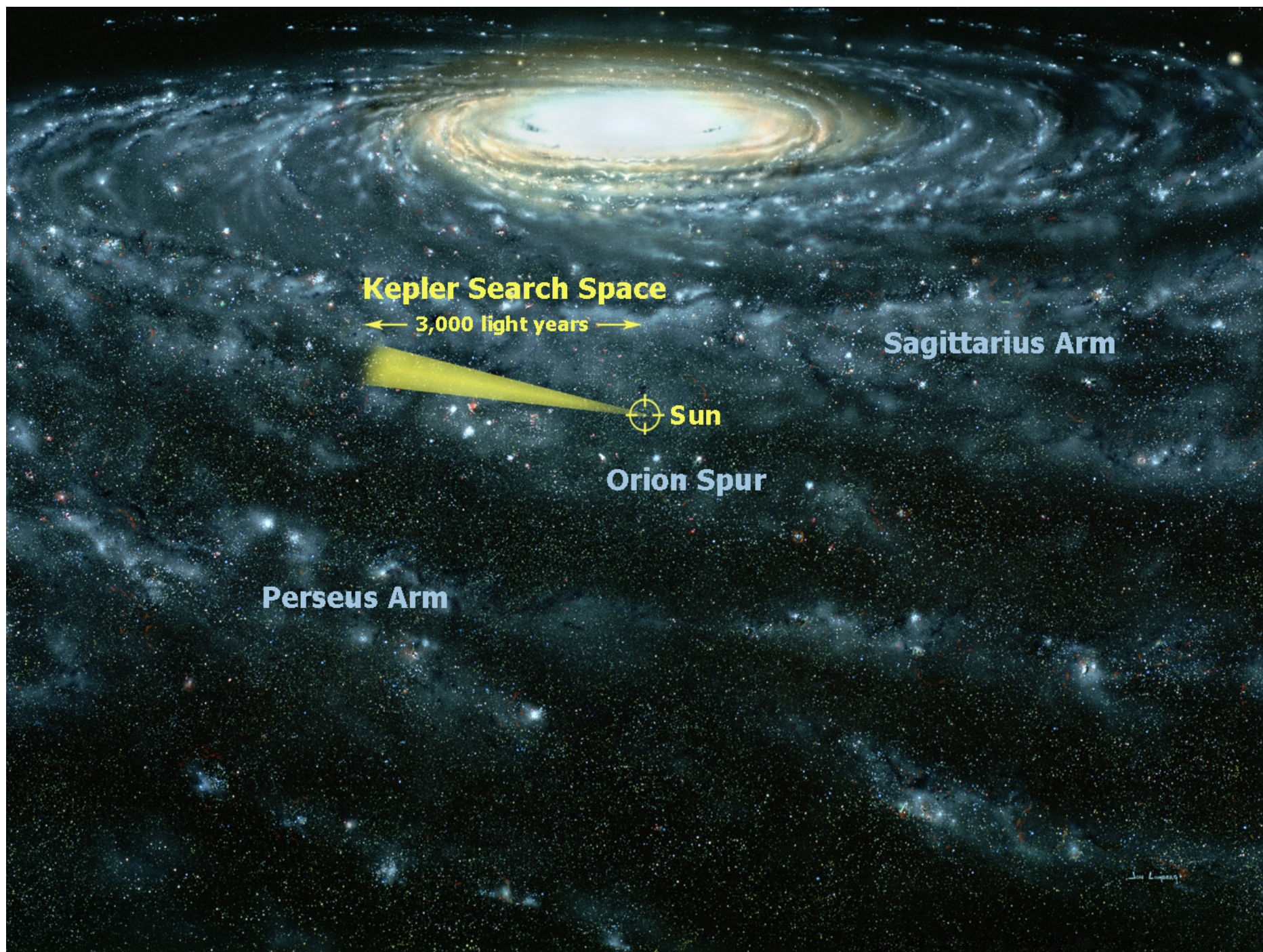


CoRoT-7b



Game Changer – The *Kepler* mission

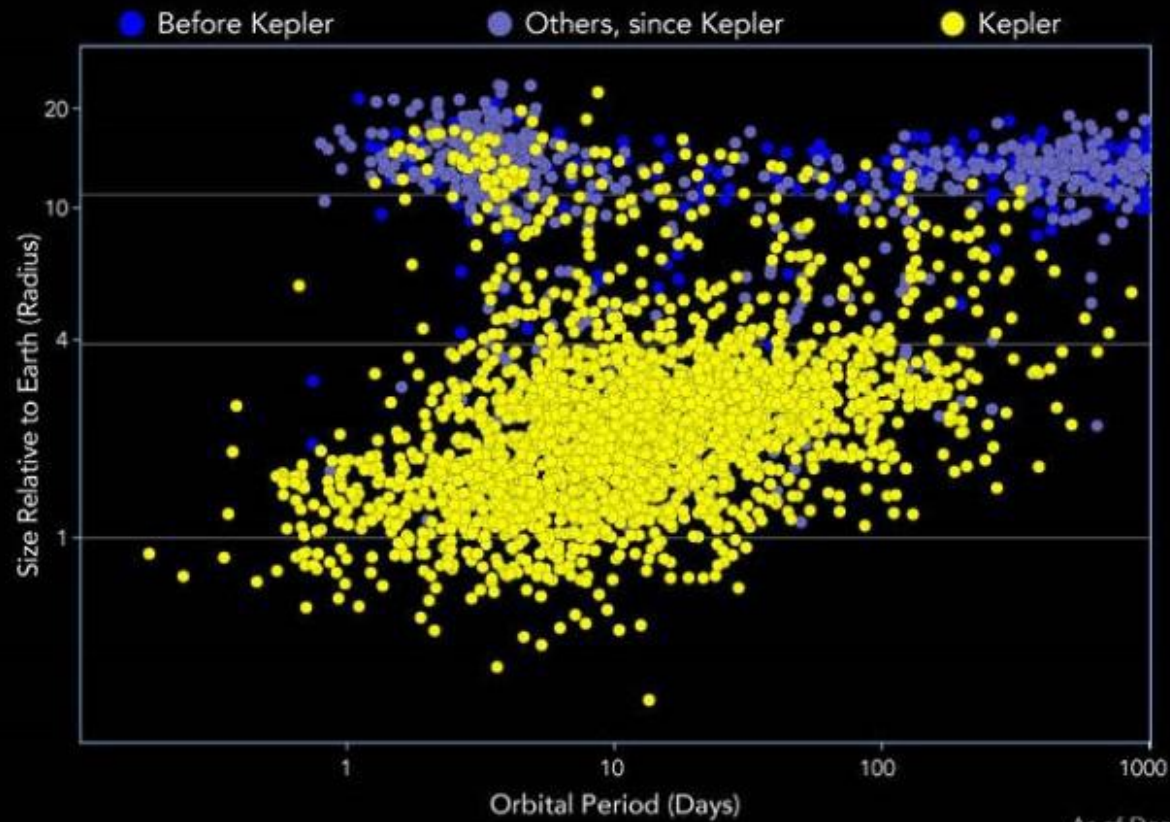




Exoplanet Discoveries

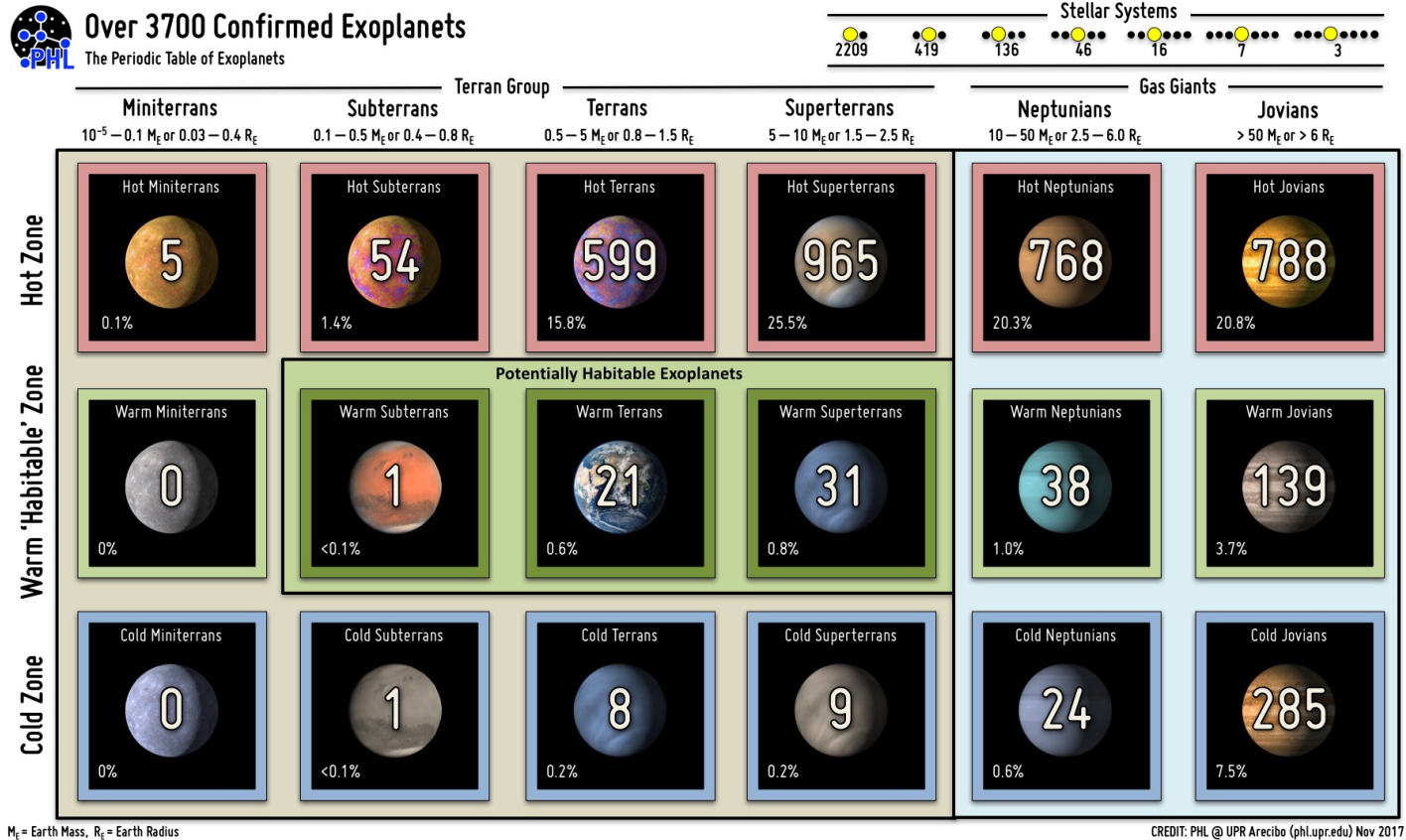
Total
confirmed
exoplanets
= 3,567

Total
Kepler
= 2,525



As of December 14, 2017

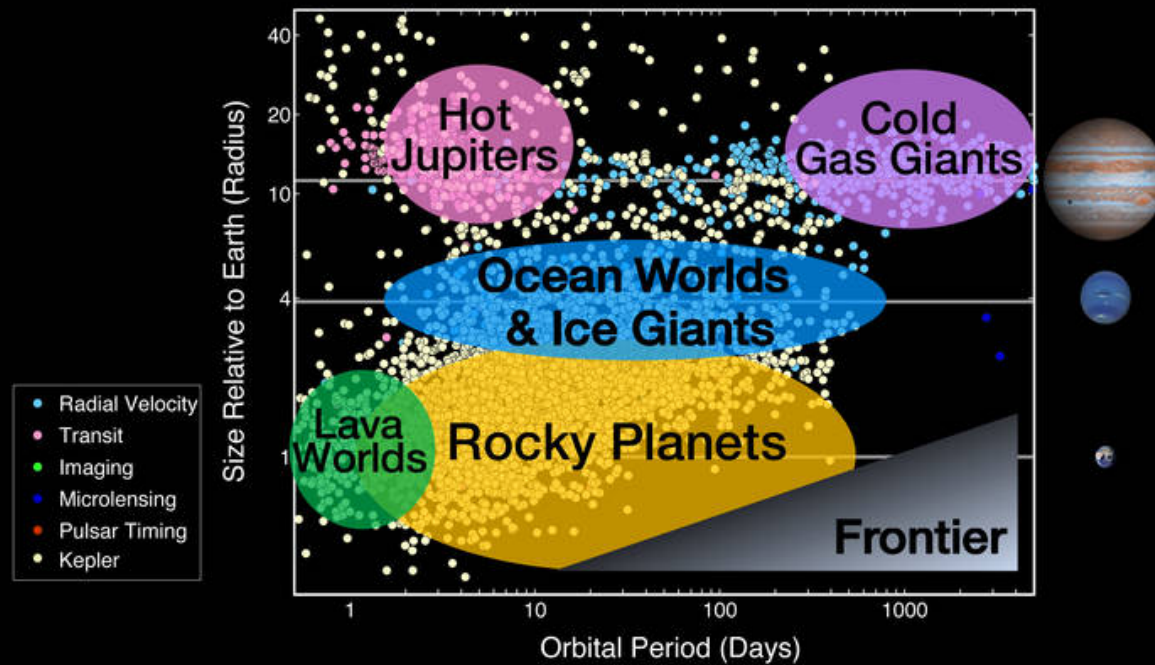
The “periodic table” of planets



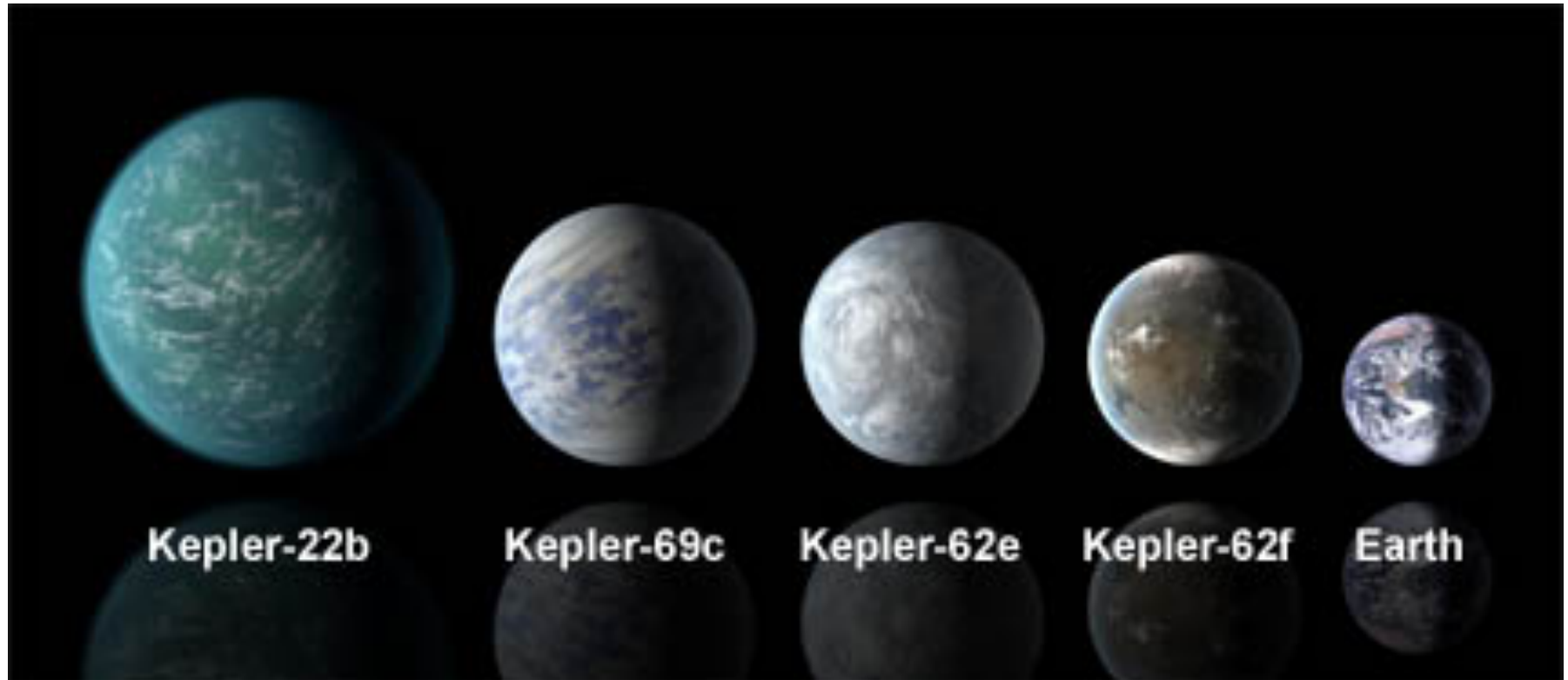
Hot Super-Earths are the most common type of planet

New types of planets

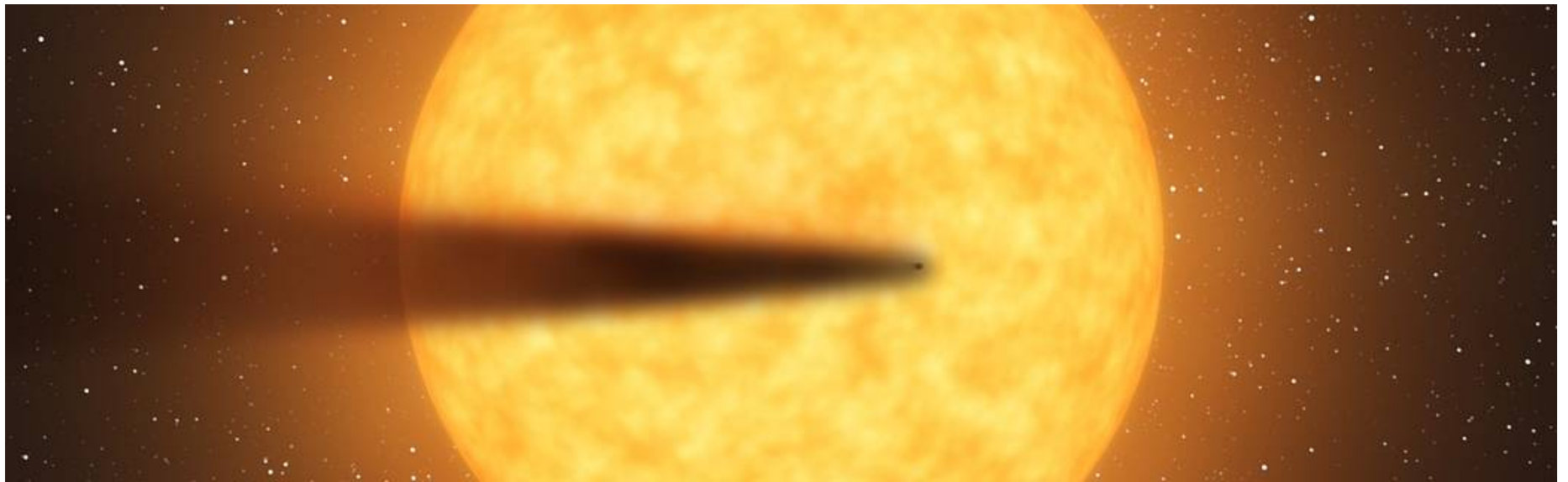
Exoplanet Populations



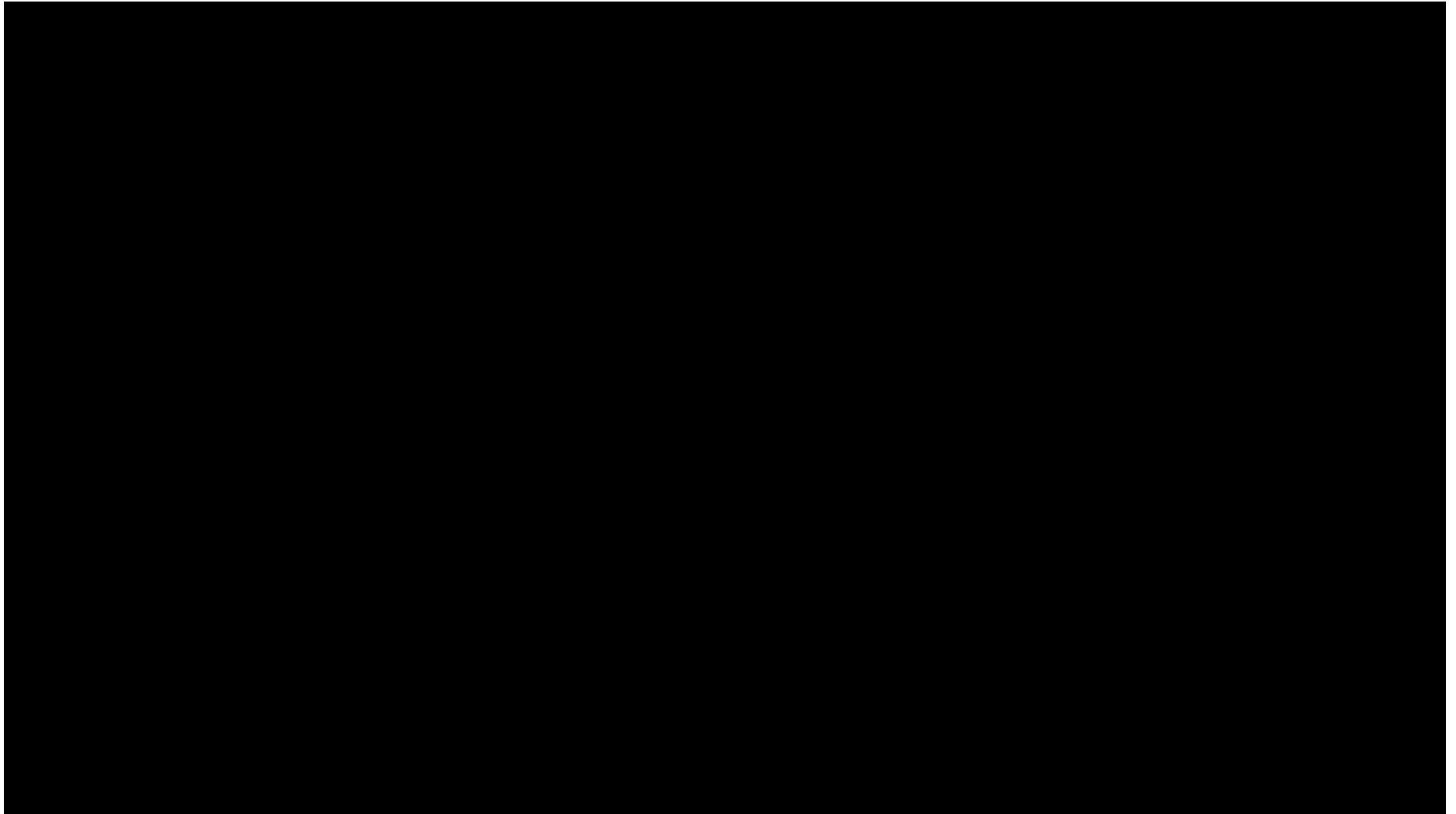
Super-Earths and Ocean Planets



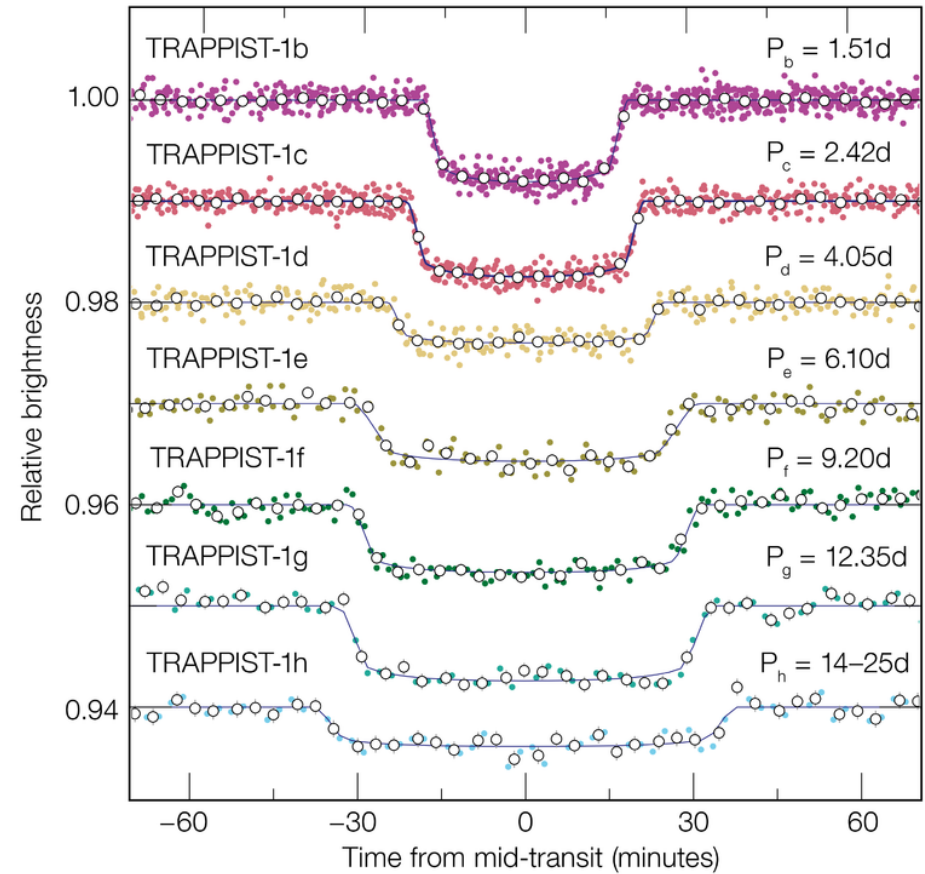
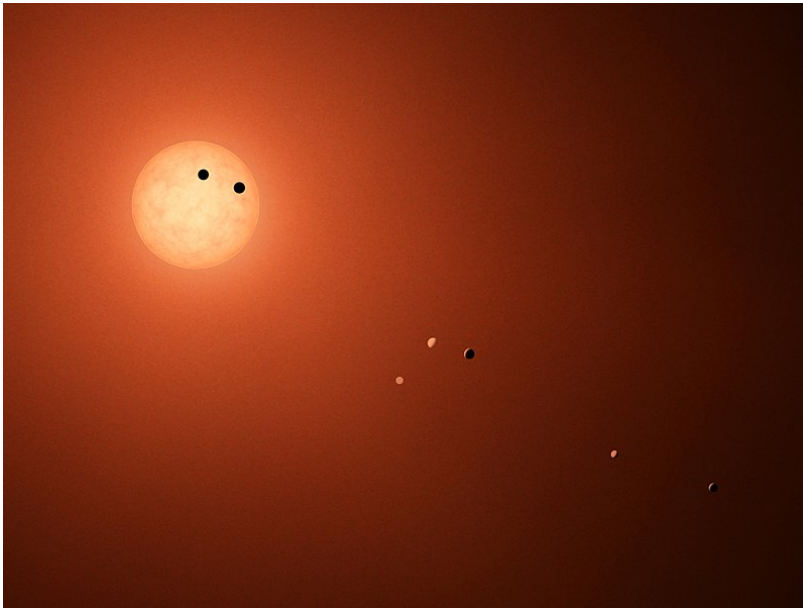
Evaporating Planet



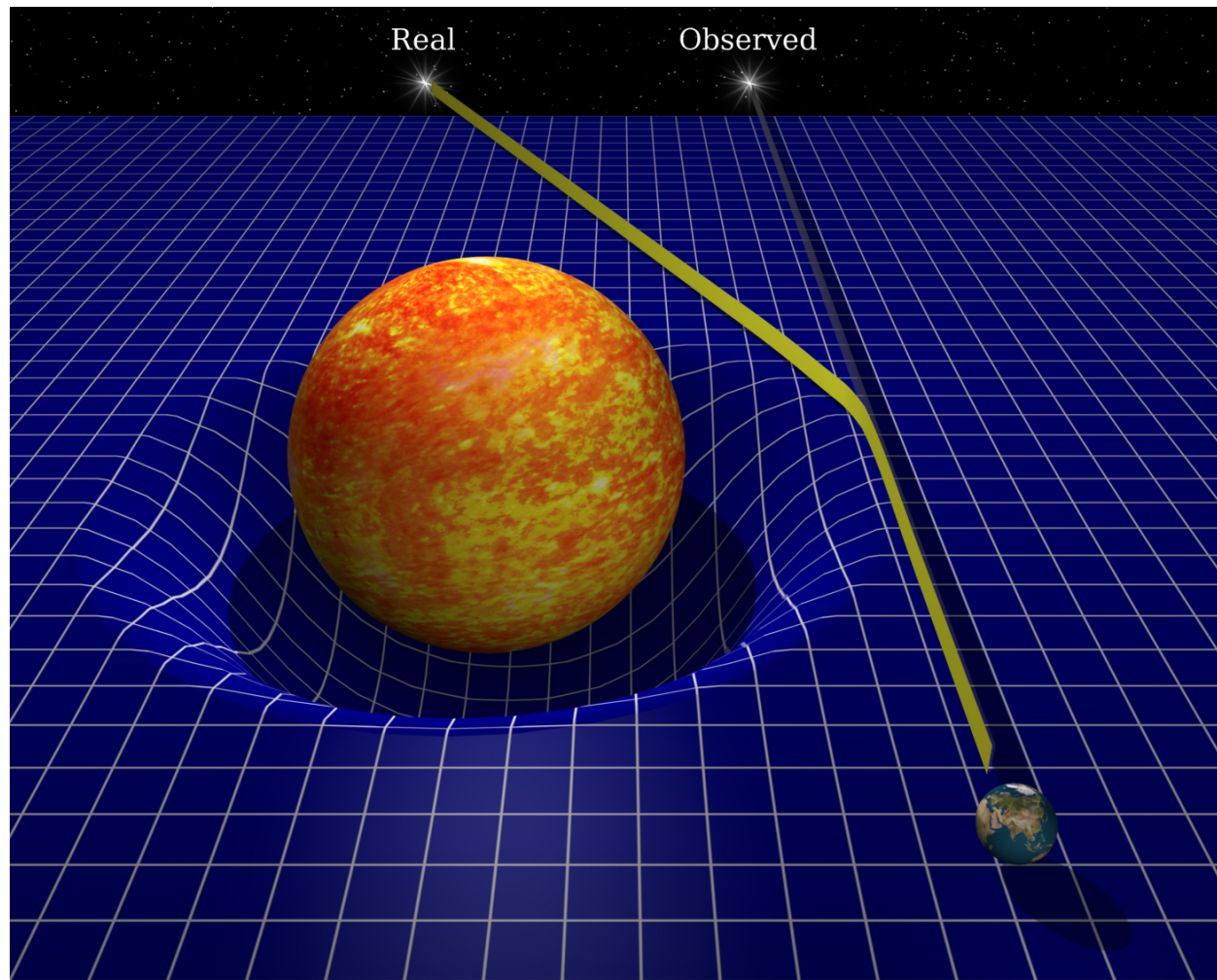
Transit Time Variation



Recent results – Trappist system



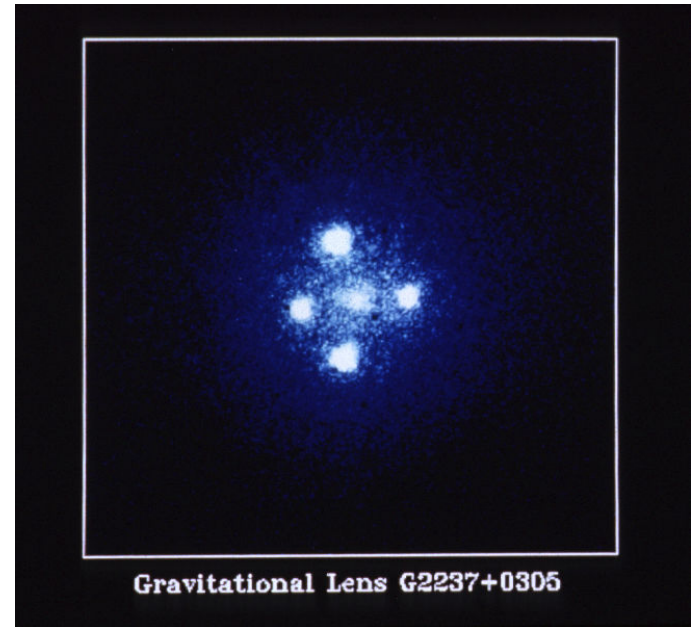
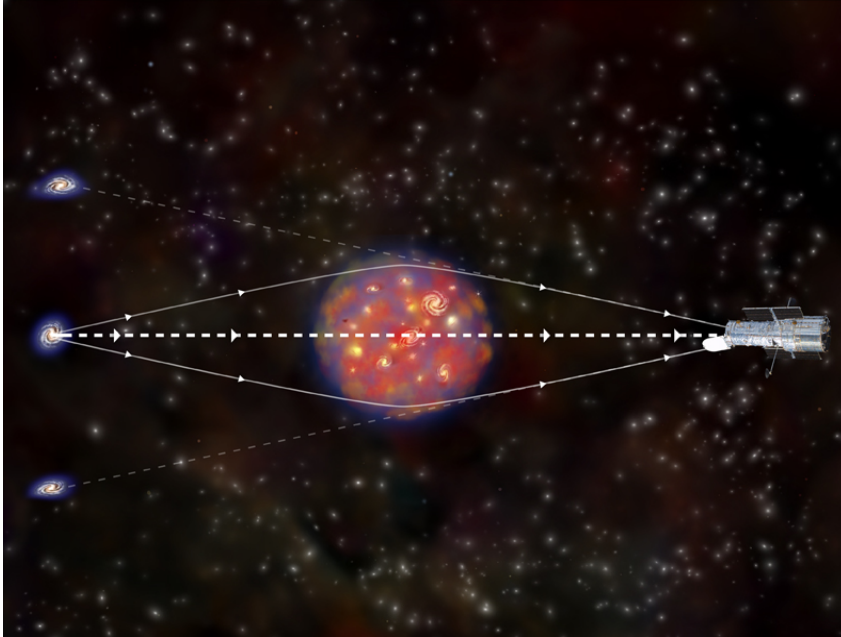
A little General Relativity



Gravity curves space, bending lightrays

“Mass tells Space how to bend, Space tells Mass how to move”

Gravitational Lensing



Gravity curves space, bending lightrays
We see multiple images of a lensed object.

Gravitational Lensing

Lensing Galaxy



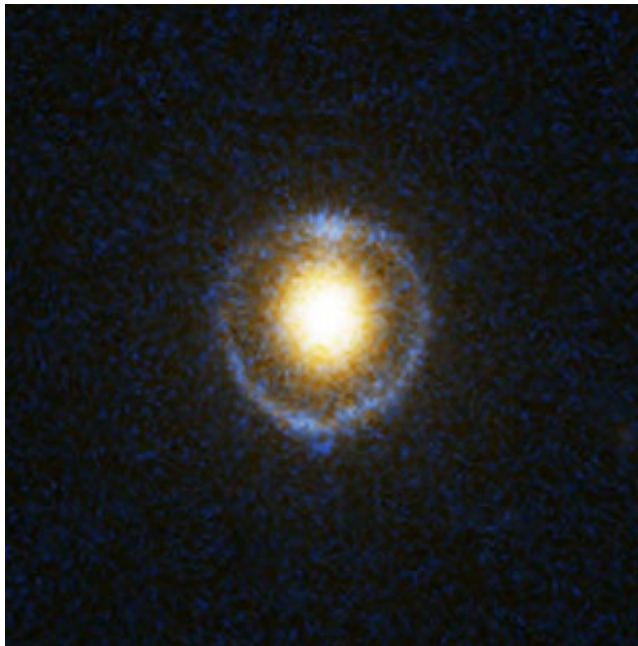
Gravitational Lensing



Lensing by a galaxy cluster
Multiple Arcs

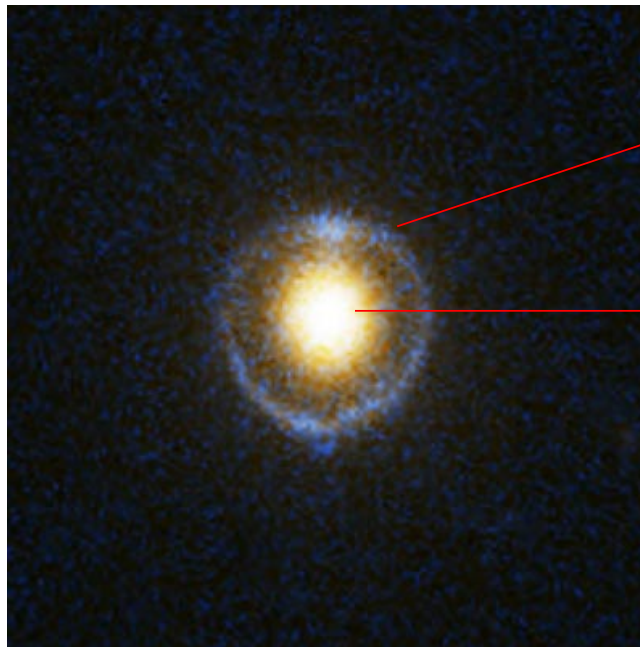
Gravitational Lensing

Under perfect alignment, we see an
Einstein Ring



Gravitational Lensing

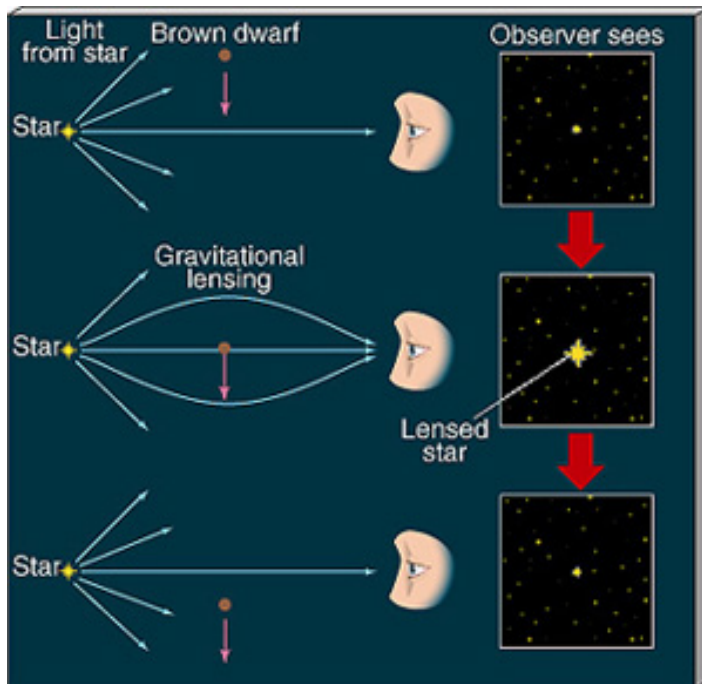
Under perfect alignment, we see an
Einstein Ring



Background lensed
object

Foreground object
(the lens)

Microlensing

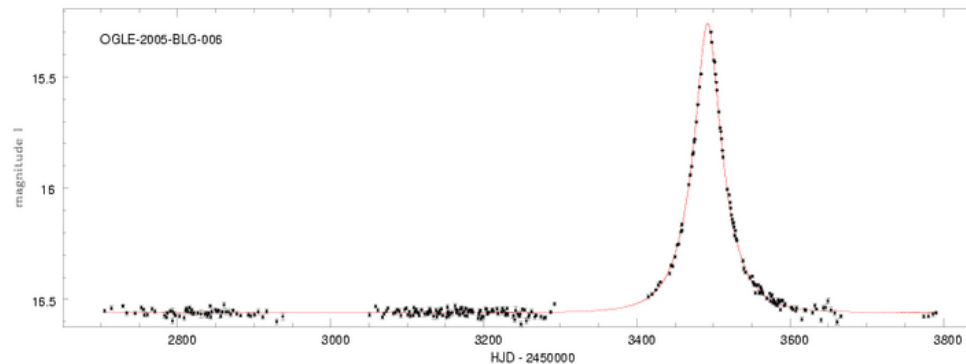


Microlensing

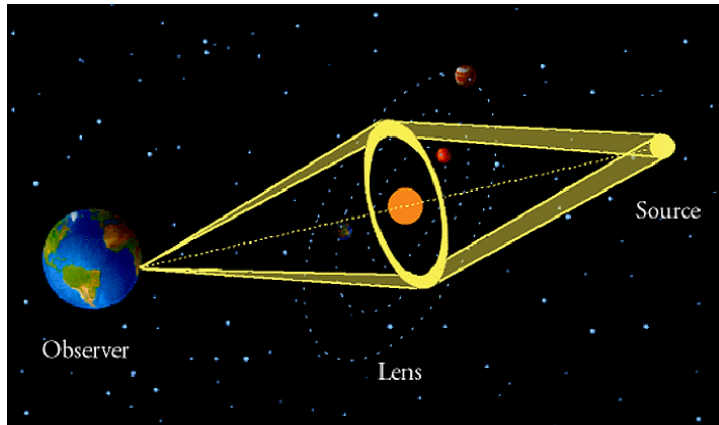
is a gravitational lensing event produced not by a galaxy but by a **star or substellar object**

We do not resolve the multiple images:
They all appear blurred

The lensing event is seen as a magnification of the lensed star.

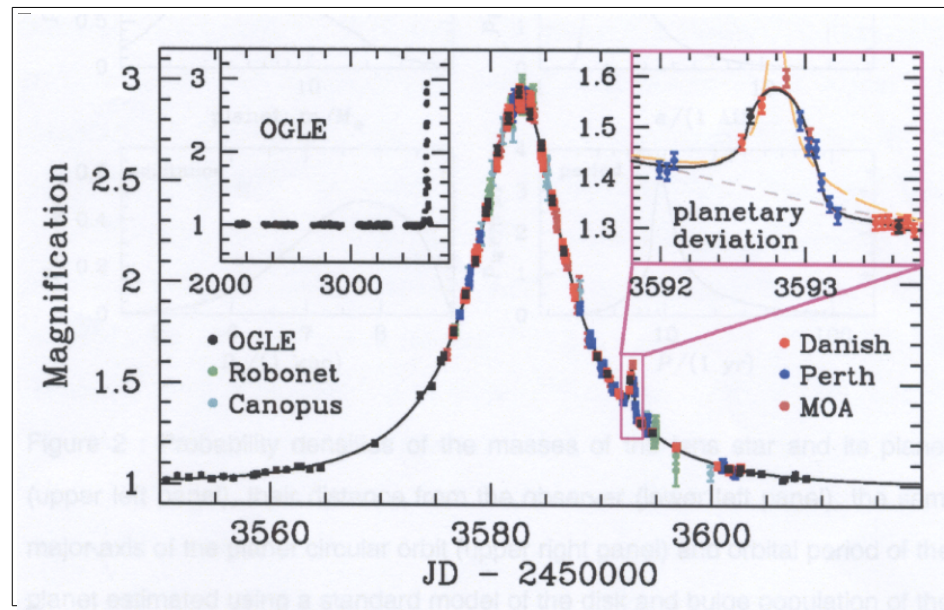


Extrasolar planets - Microlensing

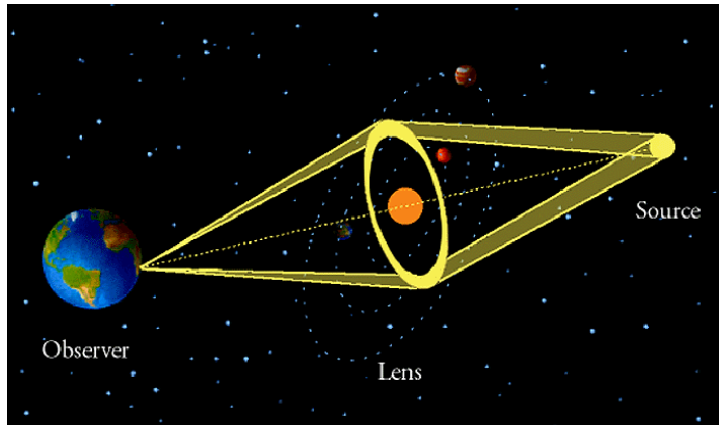


A planet around a lens star will produce a secondary lensing event

**Monitor thousands of stars
and hope for the best**



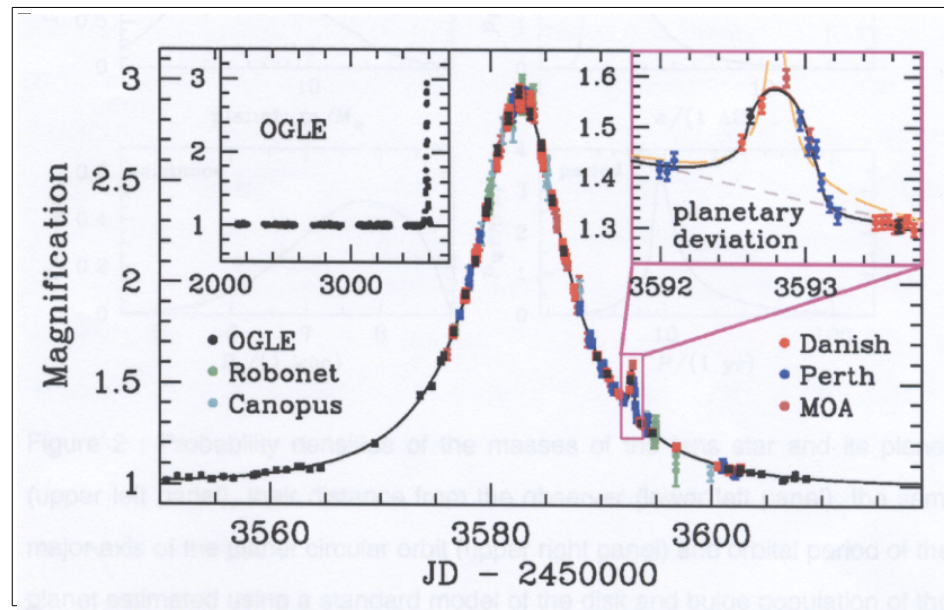
Extrasolar planets - Microlensing



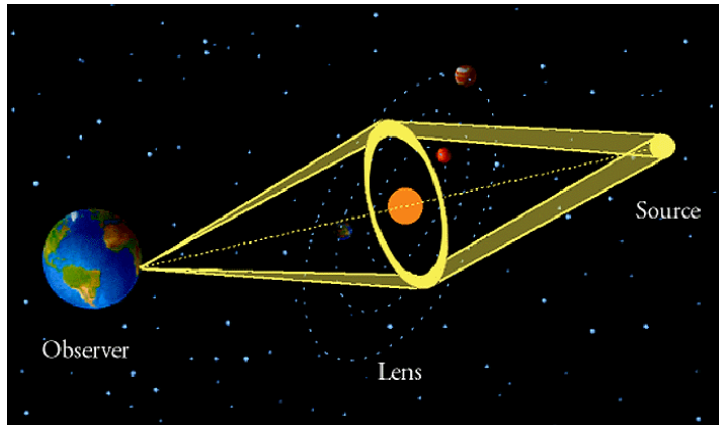
A planet around a lens star will produce a secondary lensing event

**Monitor thousands of stars
and hope for the best**

Biased towards low mass stars
(why?)



Extrasolar planets - Microlensing



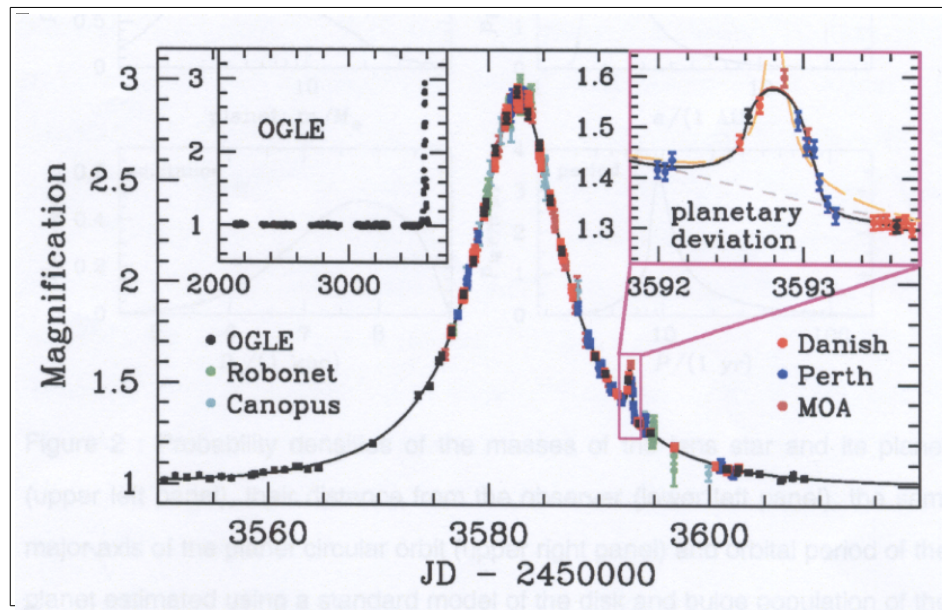
A planet around a lens star will produce a secondary lensing event

**Monitor thousands of stars
and hope for the best**

Biased towards low mass stars
(why?)

Because they are more numerous!

The lens star will more likely be
a M star than a G star or whatever



Extrasolar planets – Direct Imaging

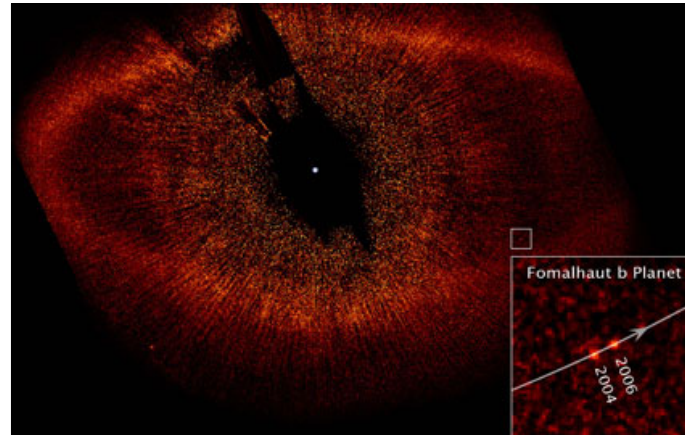


Fomalhaut
A3V star, $V=1.2$
8 parsecs away

A firefly next to a lighthouse

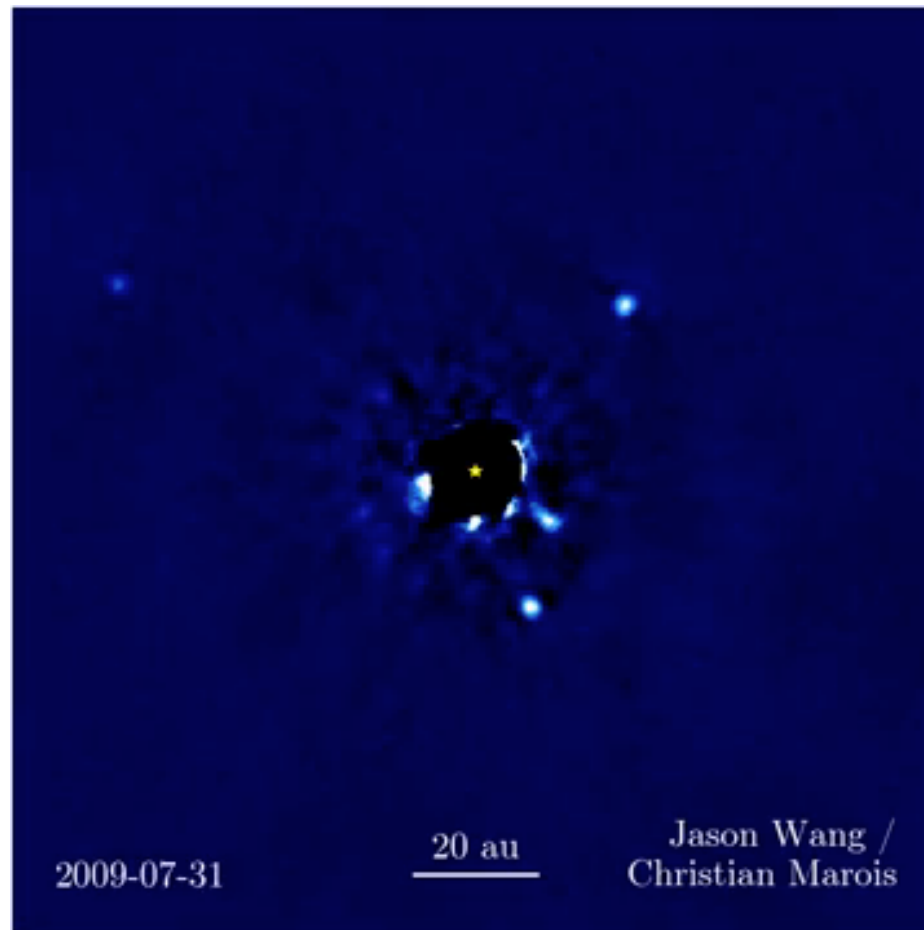
Block the starlight
and check the surroundings

**“Block-image” thousands of stars
and hope for the best**



Extrasolar planets – Direct Imaging

Four planets around HR 8799



Extrasolar planets – Direct Imaging

Beta Pictoris b

