



# Last lecture (8)

- Aurora
- Magnetospheric dynamics

# Today's lecture (9)

- Magnetospheric dynamics
- Cosmic radiation
- Interstellar plasma

# Guest lecturer



## Swedish astronaut Christer Fuglesang Lecture 10



# Today

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Room</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Litterature</u>
L1	2/9	10-12	Q33	Course description, Introduction, The Sun 1, Plasma physics 1	<b>CGF</b> Ch 1, 5, (p 110-113)
L2	4/9	10-12	Q21	The Sun 2, Plasma physics 2	<b>CGF</b> Ch 5 (p 114-121), 6.3
L3	8/9	13-15	Q36	Solar wind, The ionosphere and atmosphere 1, Plasma physics 3	<b>CGF</b> Ch 6.1, 2.1-2.6, 3.1-3.2, 3.5, <b>LL</b> Ch III, Extra material
T1	10/9	10-12	Q33	Mini-group work 1	
L4	15/9	13-15	Q31	The ionosphere 2, Plasma physics 4	<b>CGF</b> Ch 3.4, 3.7, 3.8
T2	17/9	10-12	Q33	Mini-group work 2	
L5	19/9	15-17	Q31	The Earth's magnetosphere 1, Plasma physics 5	<b>CGF</b> 4.1-4.3, <b>LL</b> Ch I, II, IV.A
L6	23/9	8-10	Q31	The Earth's magnetosphere 2, Other magnetospheres	<b>CGF</b> Ch 4.6-4.9, <b>LL</b> Ch V.
T3	24/9	14-16	Q21	Mini-group work 3	
L7	29/9	11-13	Q36	Aurora, Measurement methods in space plasmas and data analysis 1	<b>CGF</b> Ch 4.5, 10, <b>LL</b> Ch VI, Extra material
T4	1/10	15-17	Q31	Mini-group work 4	
L8	2/10	15-17	Q34	Space weather and geomagnetic storms	<b>CGF</b> Ch 4.4, <b>LL</b> Ch IV.B-C, VII.A-C
L9	8/10	13-15	Q36	Interstellar and intergalactic plasma, Cosmic radiation, Swedish and international space physics research.	<b>CGF</b> Ch 7-9
T5	9/10	15-17	Q31	Mini-group work 5	
L10	13/10	15-17	Q33	Guest lecture (preliminary): Swedish astronaut Christer Fuglesang	
T6	16/10	10-12	Q36	Round-up	
Written examination	30/10	8-13	M33, M37, M38		

# **EF22445 Space Physics II**

## **7.5 ECTS credits, P2**

- shocks and boundaries in space
- solar wind interaction with magnetized and unmagnetized bodies
- sources of magnetospheric plasma
- magnetospheric and ionospheric convection
- auroral physics
- storms and substorms
- global oscillations of the magnetosphere

**First lecture Tuesday November 4, 13.15 at  
Teknikringen 31, seminar room, second floor.  
(Signs will be posted)**

# Teknikringen 31





# Thesis work at Space and Plasma Physics

Talk to Tomas



# Examination

1. Written examination  
(open book\*), 30/10

100 p

2. Continuous examination  
(mini-group works)

25 p

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Grades:

A: 111-125 p

B: 96-110 p

C: 81-95 p

D: 66-80 p

E: 50-65 p

(Fx)



# Written examination, 30/10, 2014, 8-13, M33, M37, M38

## (No academic 15 minutes!)

You may bring:

- all the course material
- any notes you have made
- pocket calculator
- mathematics and physics formula books or your favourite physics book
- formula sheet

(No computers are allowed, due to the possibility to communicate with the outside world.)

Approx. 5 different problems (which may contain sub-problems).





# About the exam

Motivate your answers!

Be careful with units and  
numerical calculations!

# Mini-groupwork 4

a)

$$\rho_{SW} v_{SW}^2 = \left[ \frac{\mu_0 a}{4\pi r^3} \right]^2 / 2\mu_0 \Rightarrow$$

$$r = \left( \frac{\mu_0 a}{4\pi} \right)^{1/3} \left( 2\mu_0 \rho_{SW} v_{SW}^2 \right)^{-1/6}$$

Assuming the solar wind consists of protons

$$\rho_{SW} = n_{e,SW} m_p = 1.7 \cdot 10^{-22} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$$

Thus

$$r = 2.7 \cdot 10^9 \text{ m} \approx 38 R_J$$

# Mini-groupwork 4

b)

$$\rho_{SW} v_{SW}^2 = \left[ \frac{\mu_0 a}{4\pi} \frac{1}{r^3} \right]^2 / 2\mu_0 + n_e k_B T \Rightarrow$$

$$\rho_{SW} v_{SW}^2 = \left[ \frac{\mu_0 a}{4\pi} \frac{1}{r^3} \right]^2 / 2\mu_0 + n_{e0} \left( \frac{R_J}{r} \right)^3 k_B T$$

Substitute  $x = 1/r^3$ . This gives you an equation on the form

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

with

$$a = \left[ \frac{\mu_0 a}{4\pi} \right]^2 / 2\mu_0 = 1.02 \cdot 10^{46}$$

$$b = n_{e0} R_J^3 k_B T = 1.78 \cdot 10^{18}$$

$$c = -\rho_{SW} v_{SW}^2 = -2.7 \cdot 10^{-11}$$

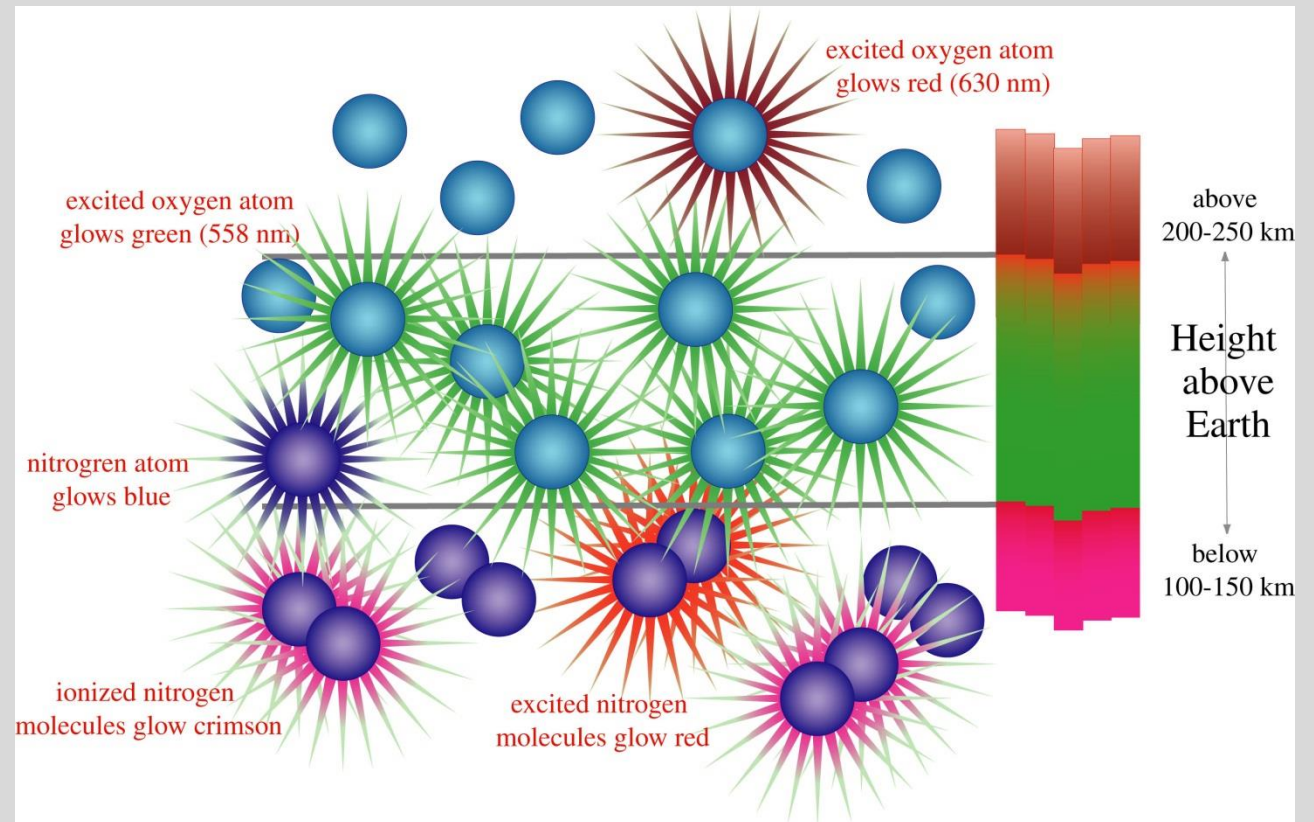
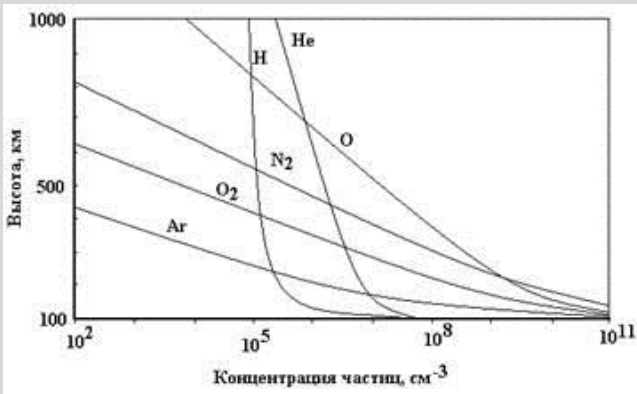
$$x = -\frac{b}{2a} \pm \sqrt{\frac{b^2}{4a^2} - \frac{c}{a}} =$$

$$-8.768 \cdot 10^{-29} + \sqrt{7.689 \cdot 10^{-57} + 2.635 \cdot 10^{-57}} =$$

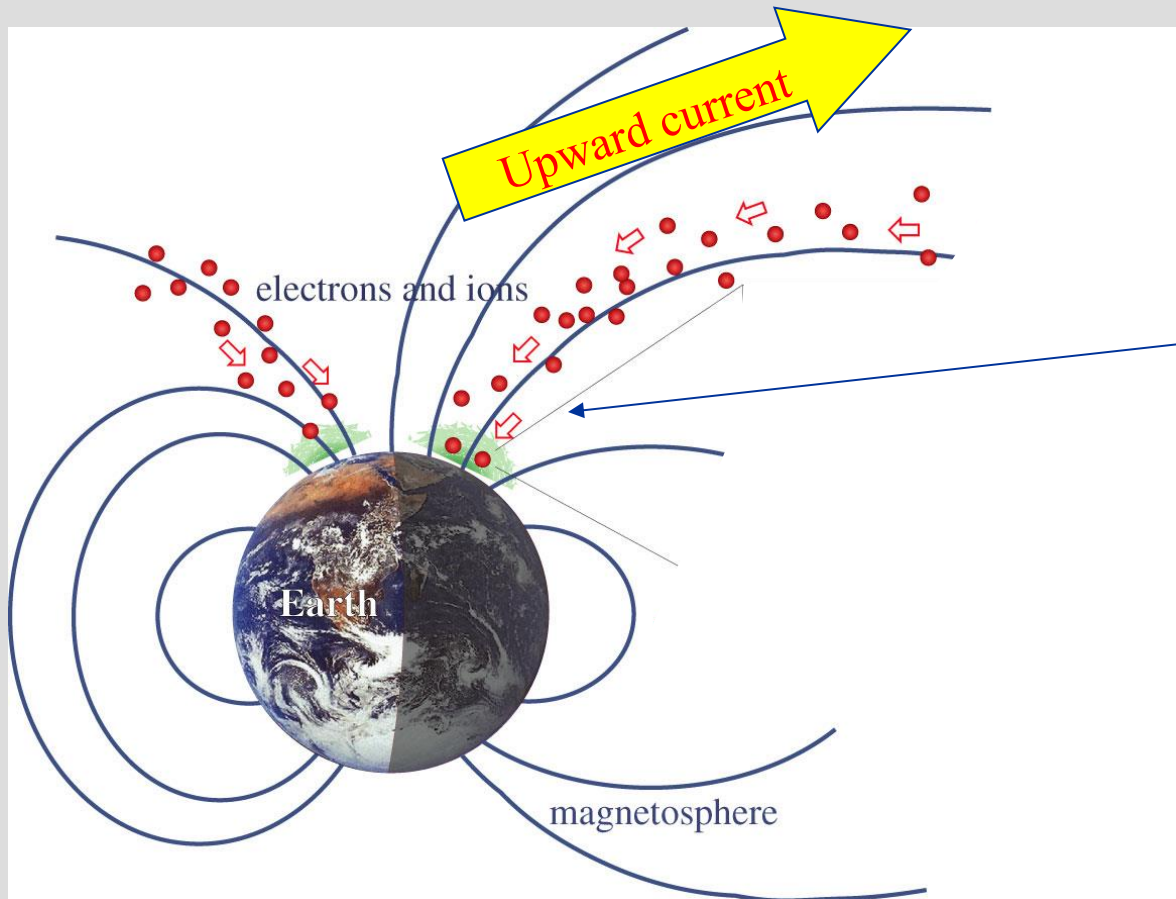
$$= -8.768 \cdot 10^{-29} + 1.01610^{-28} = 1.39 \cdot 10^{-29} \text{ m}$$

From this you get  $r \approx 59 R_J$

# Emissions

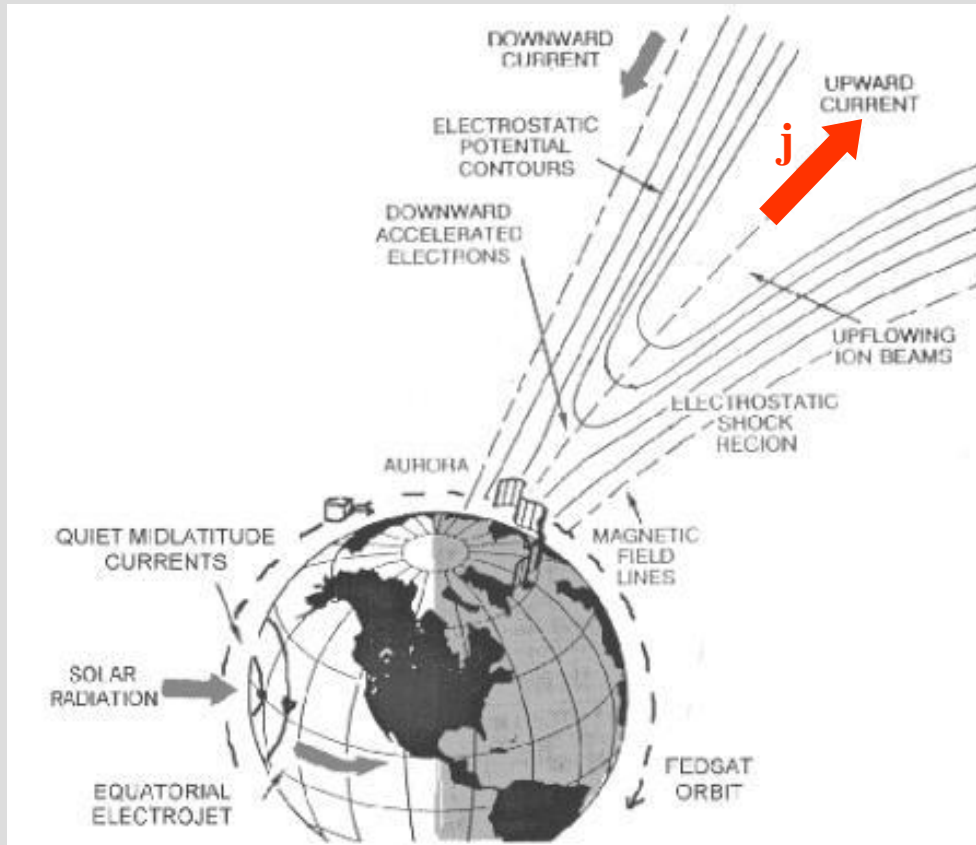


# Why particle acceleration?



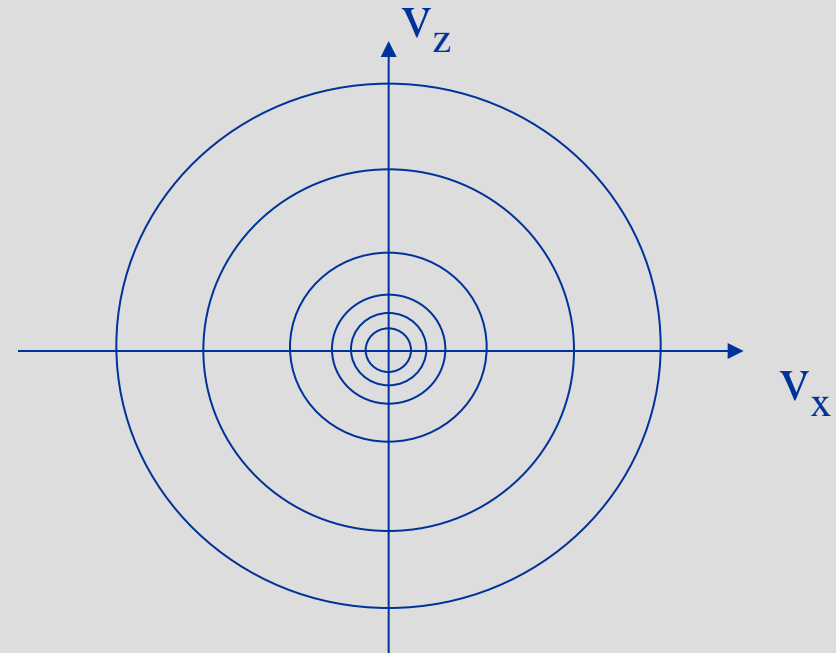
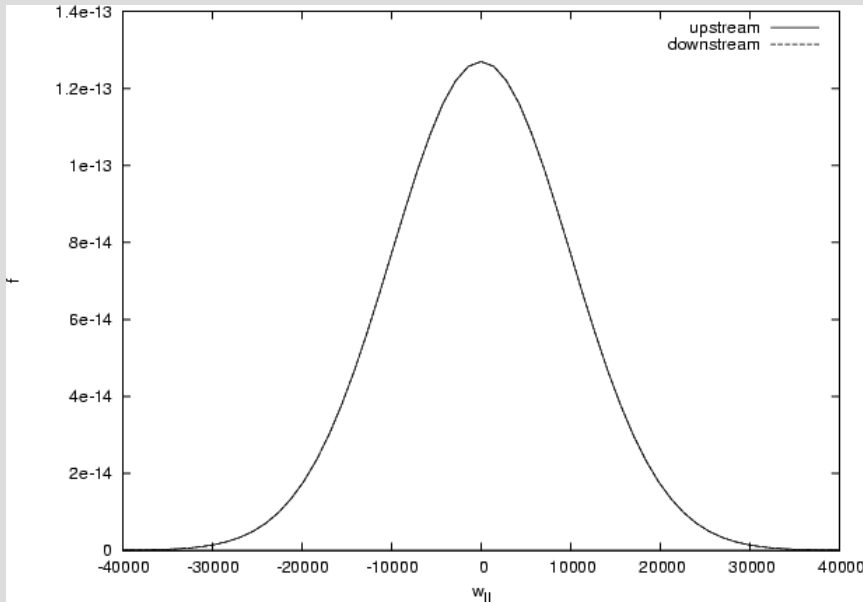
- The magnetosphere often seems to act as a current generator.
- The lower down you are on the field line, the more particles have been reflected by the magnetic mirror.
- At low altitudes there are not enough electrons to carry the current.

# Why particle acceleration?



- Electrons are accelerated downwards by upward E-field.
- This increases the pitch-angle of the electrons, and more electrons can reach the ionosphere, where the current can be closed.

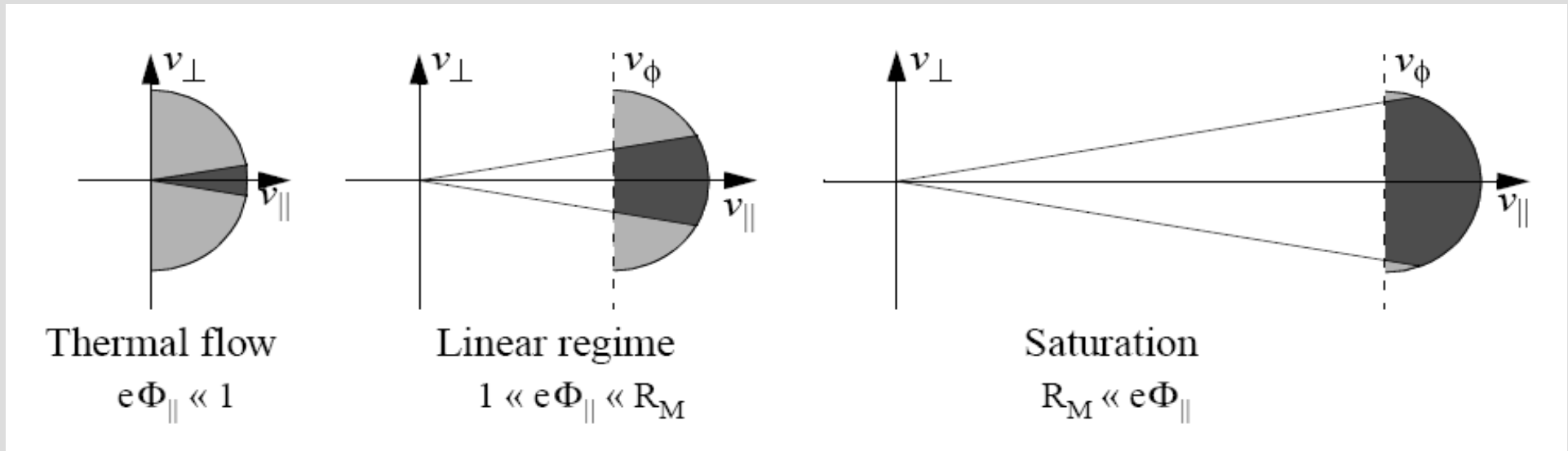
# Distribution function



Example:  
Maxwellian  
distribution

$$f = \frac{n}{\sqrt{(2\pi RT)^3}} \exp\left(-\frac{m(v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2)}{2kT}\right)$$

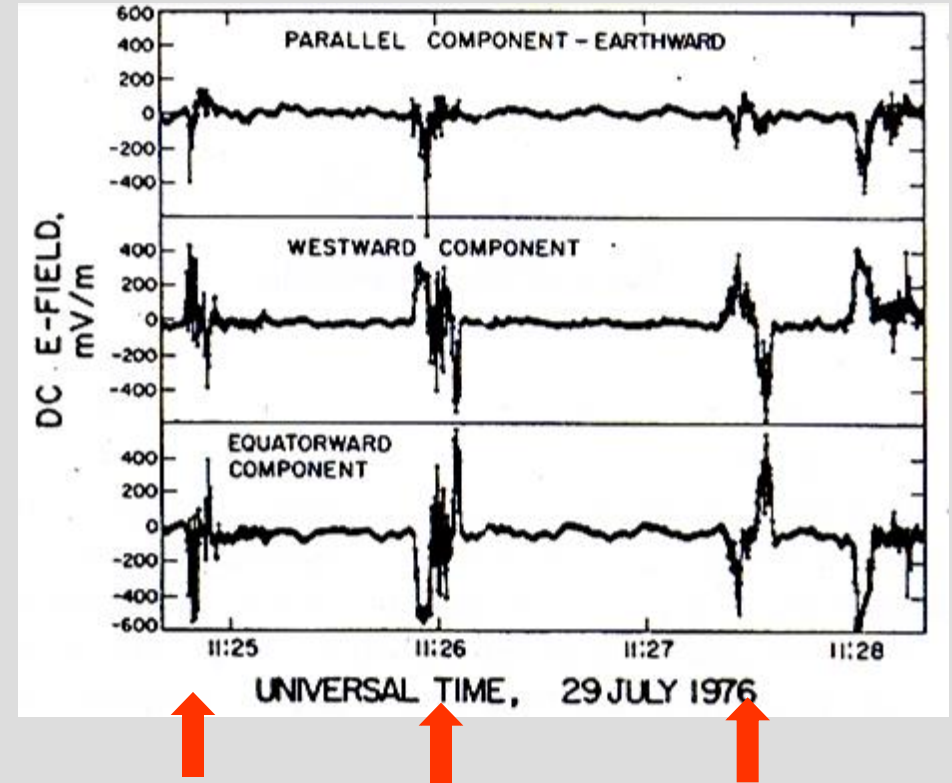
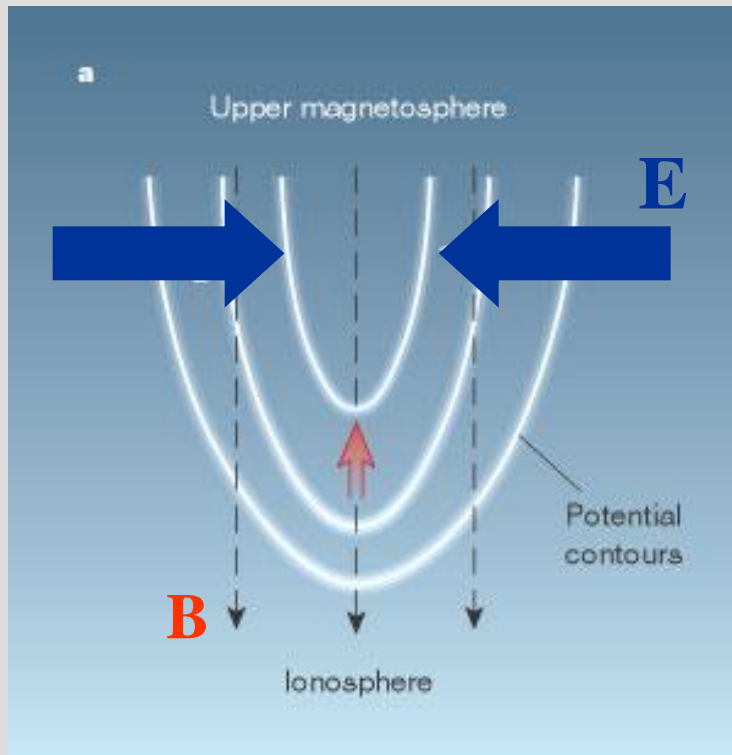
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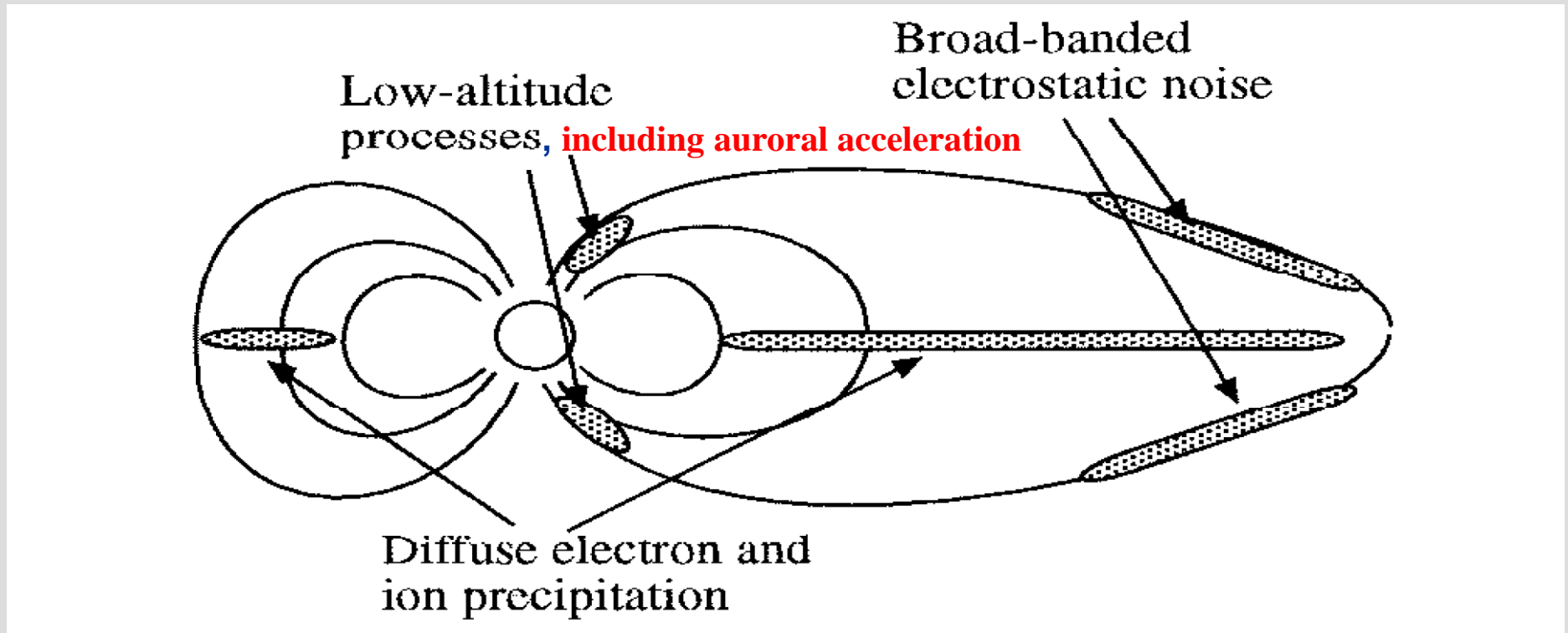


# Satellite signatures of U potential



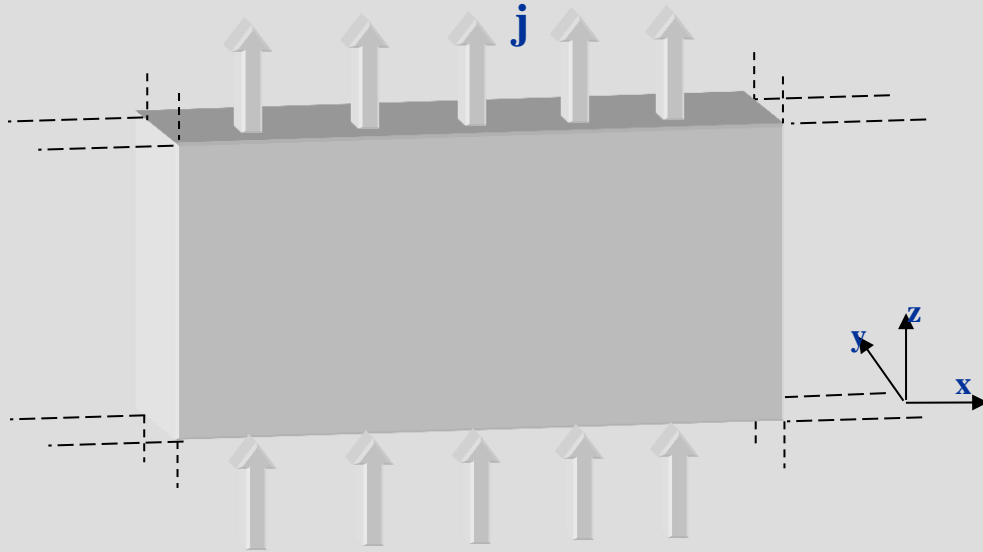
Measurements made by the ISEE satellite (Mozer et al., 1977)

# Acceleration regions



Auroral acceleration region typically situated at altitude of 1-3  $R_E$

# Current sheet approximation and Ampère's law



$$\left( \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} \right) = \mu_0 (j_x, j_y, j_z)$$

But  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = 0$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = 0$

$$\left( \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial y}, 0, -\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} \right) = \mu_0 (0, 0, j_z)$$

eller

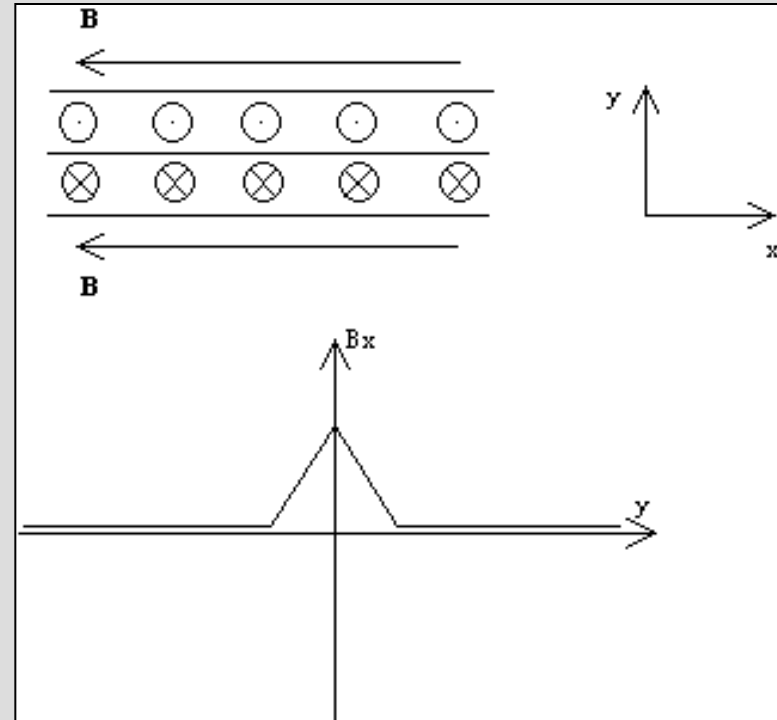
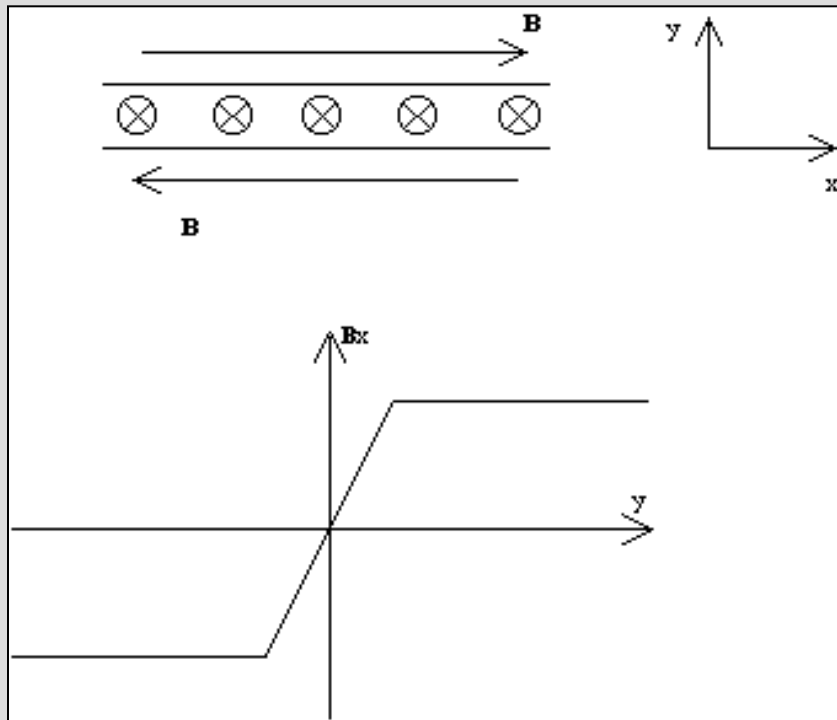
Ampère's law (no time dependence):

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \mathbf{j}$$

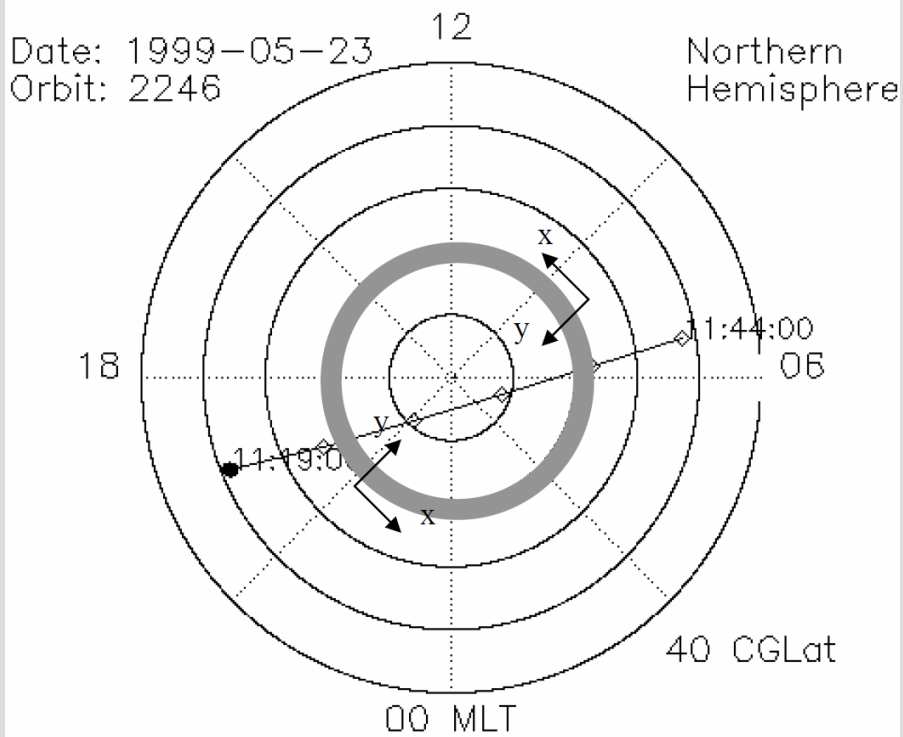


$$j_z = -\frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y}$$

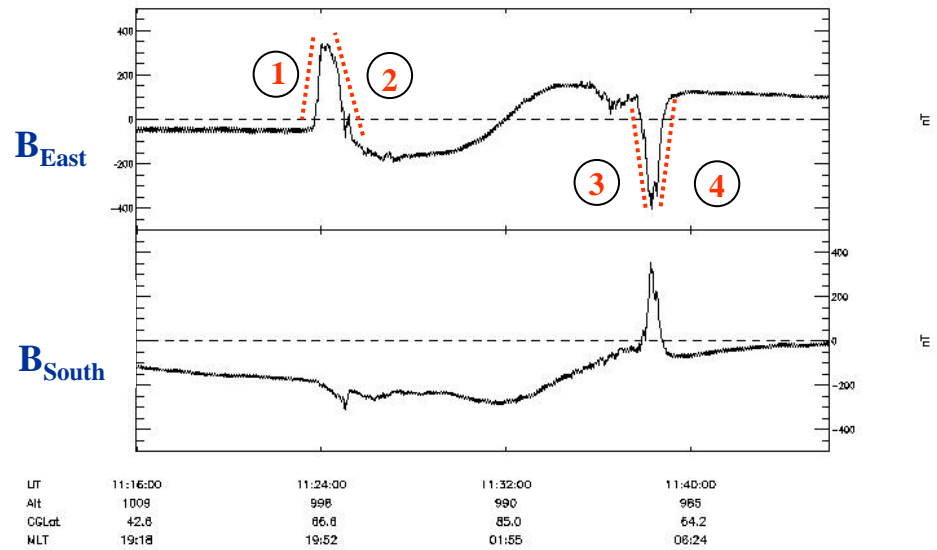
# Current sheet - example



$$j_z = -\frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y}$$



Astrid-2 data 1999-05-23 (DOY 143)  
Orbit 2246

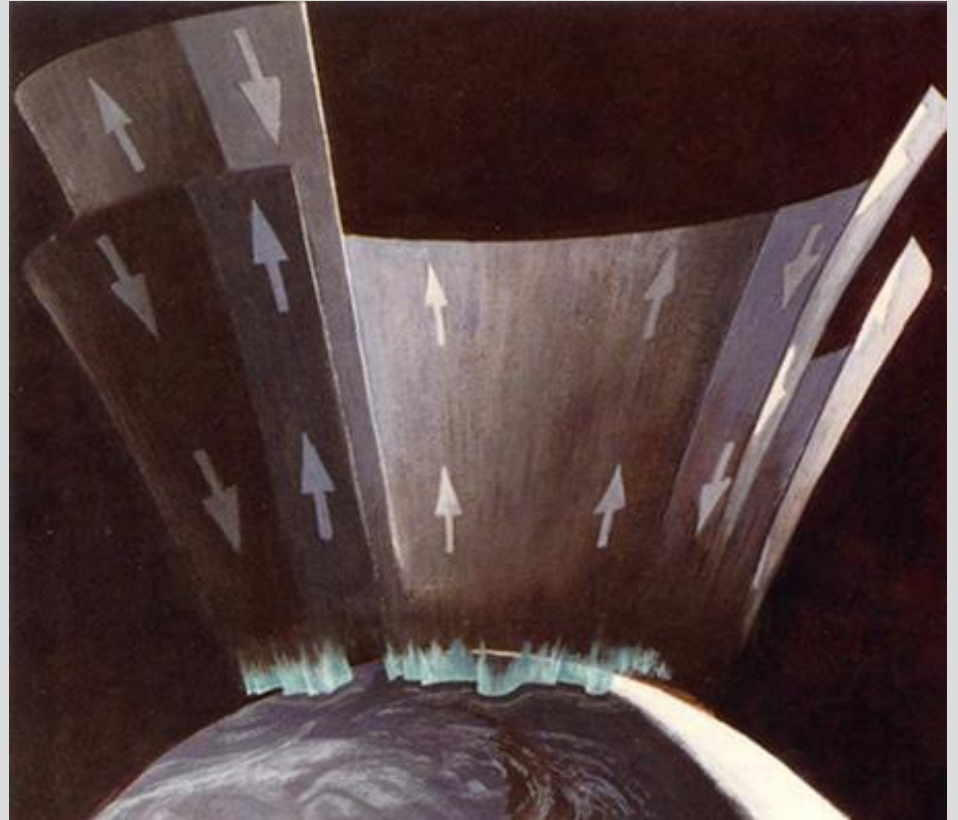
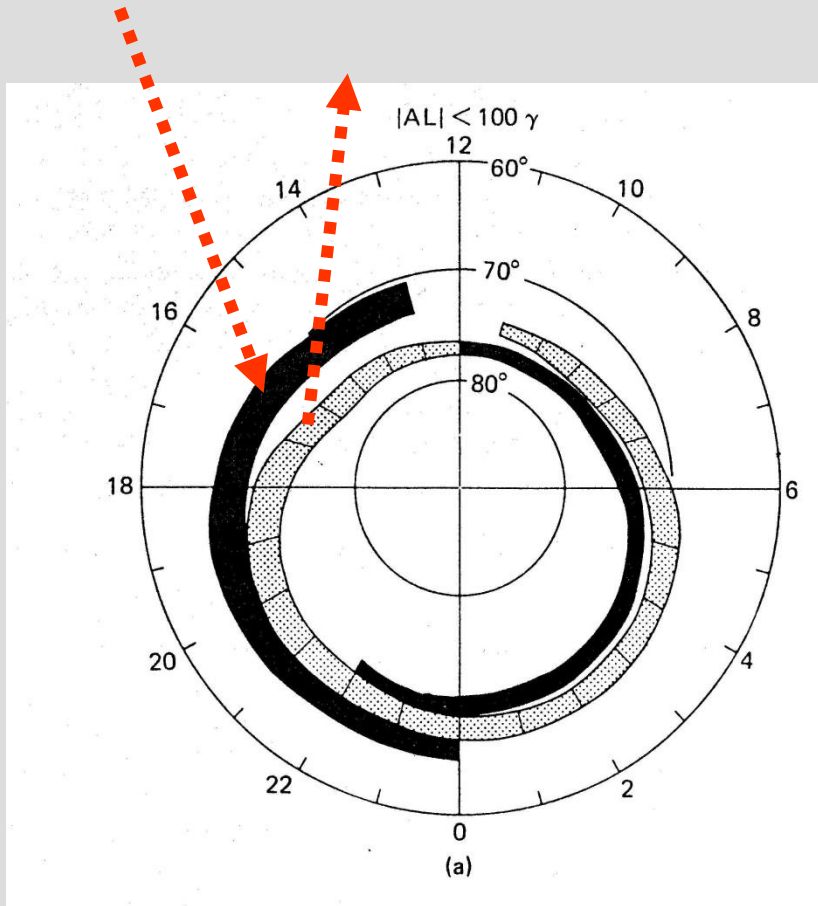


This plot produced on Mon 2002-2-25 11:12 by Tomas

$$j_z = -\frac{1}{\mu_0} \frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y}$$

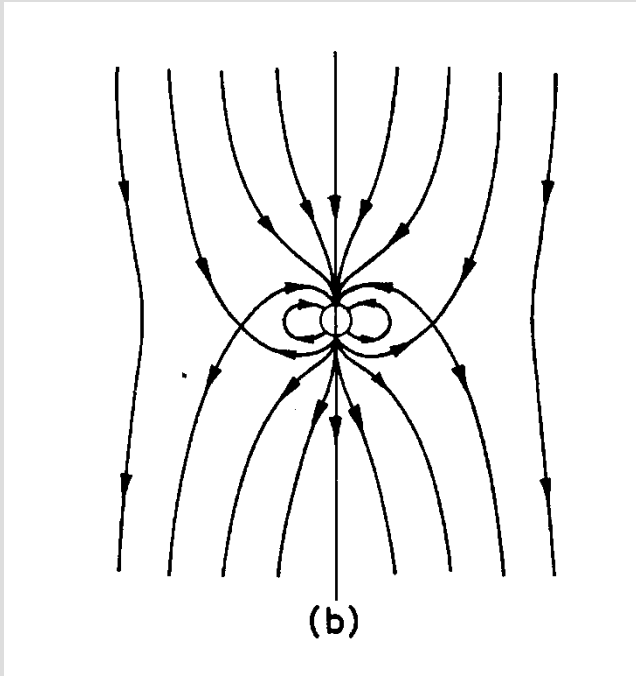
- 1)  $\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} > 0 \Rightarrow j_z < 0$  Into the ionosphere
- 2)  $\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} < 0 \Rightarrow j_z > 0$  Out of the ionosphere
- 3)  $\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} > 0 \Rightarrow j_z < 0$  Into the ionosphere
- 4)  $\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} < 0 \Rightarrow j_z > 0$  Out of the ionosphere

# Birkeland currents in the auroral oval

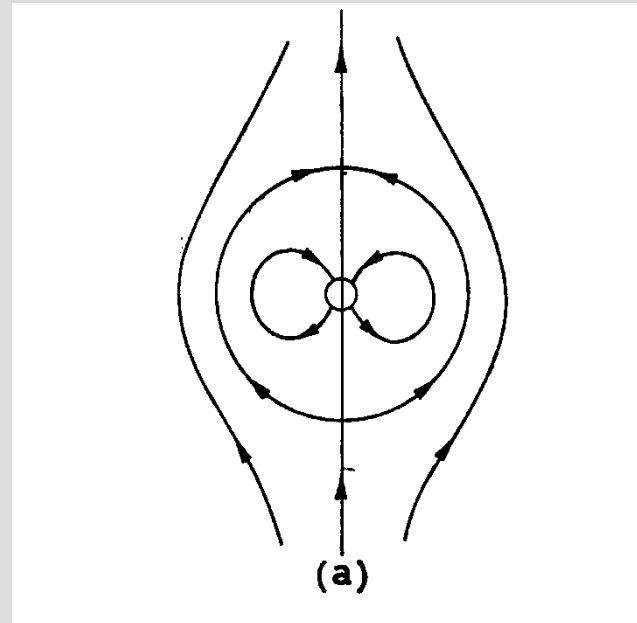


# Magnetospheric dynamics

*open magnetosphere*



*closed magnetosphere*

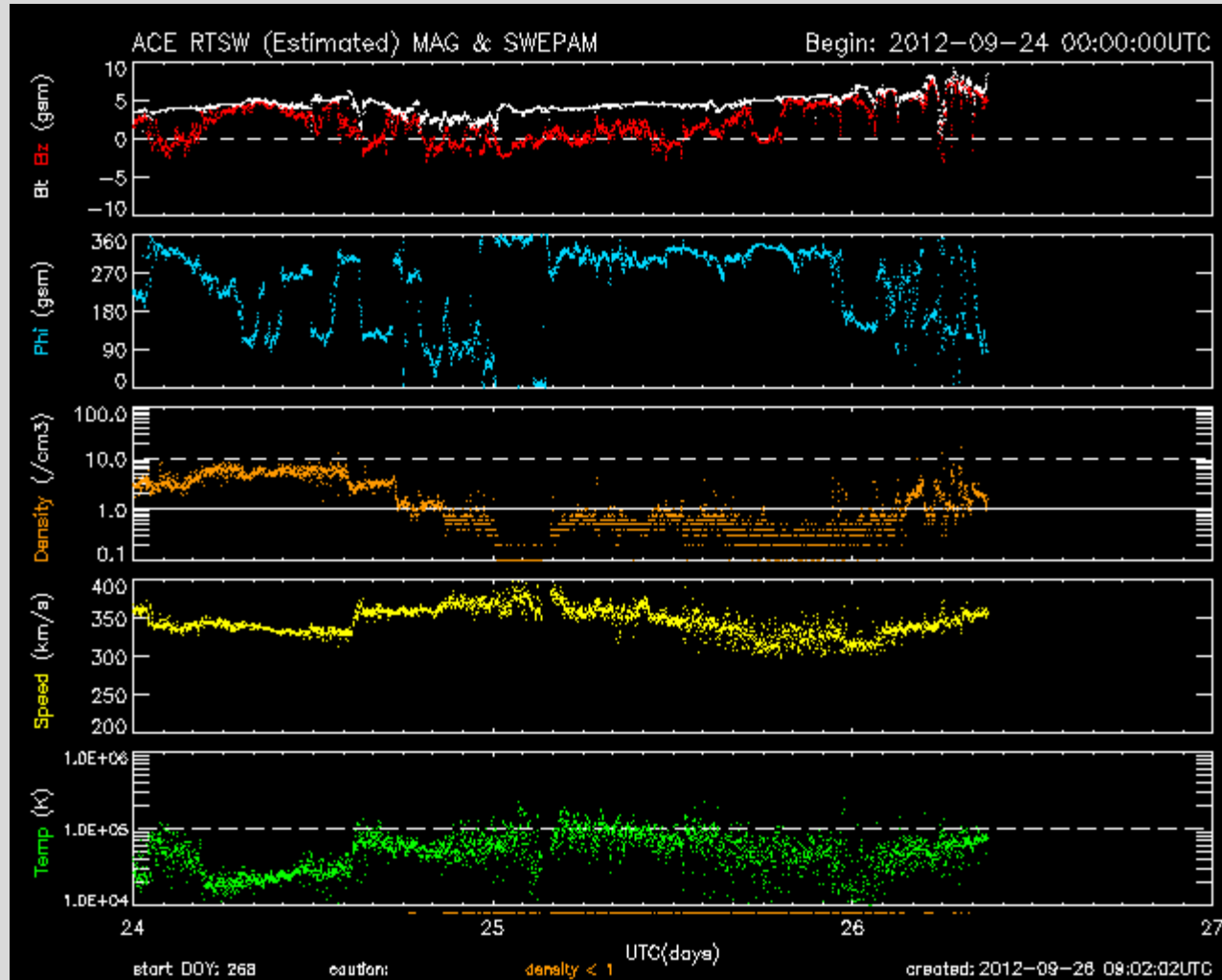


southward 

Interplanetary  
magnetic field (IMF)

 northward

# Solar wind magnetic field

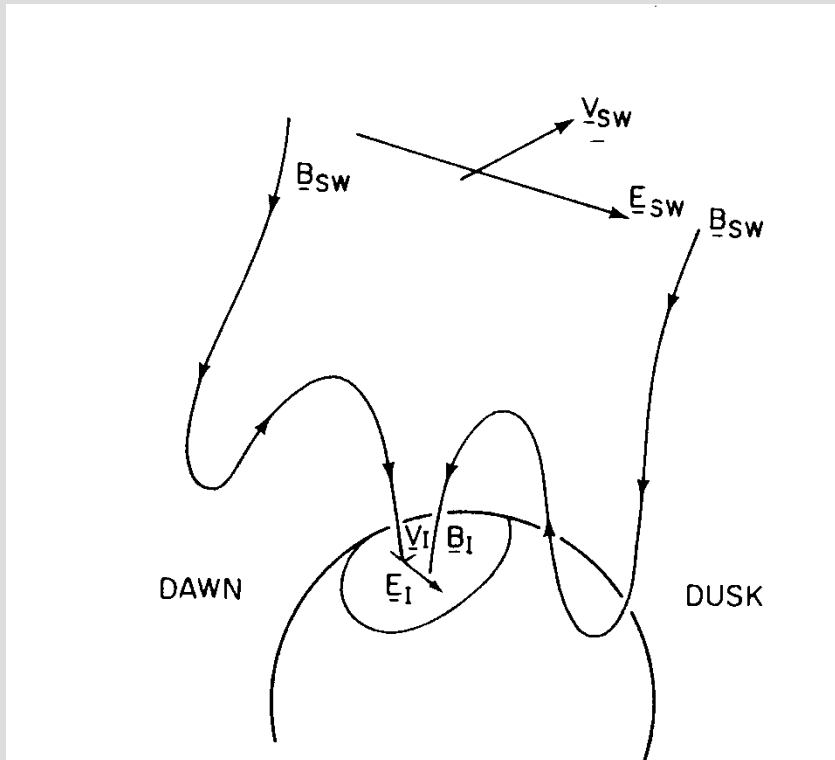




# Magnetospheric dynamics

## *open magnetosphere*

### *Viewpoint 1*



The solar wind generates an electric field

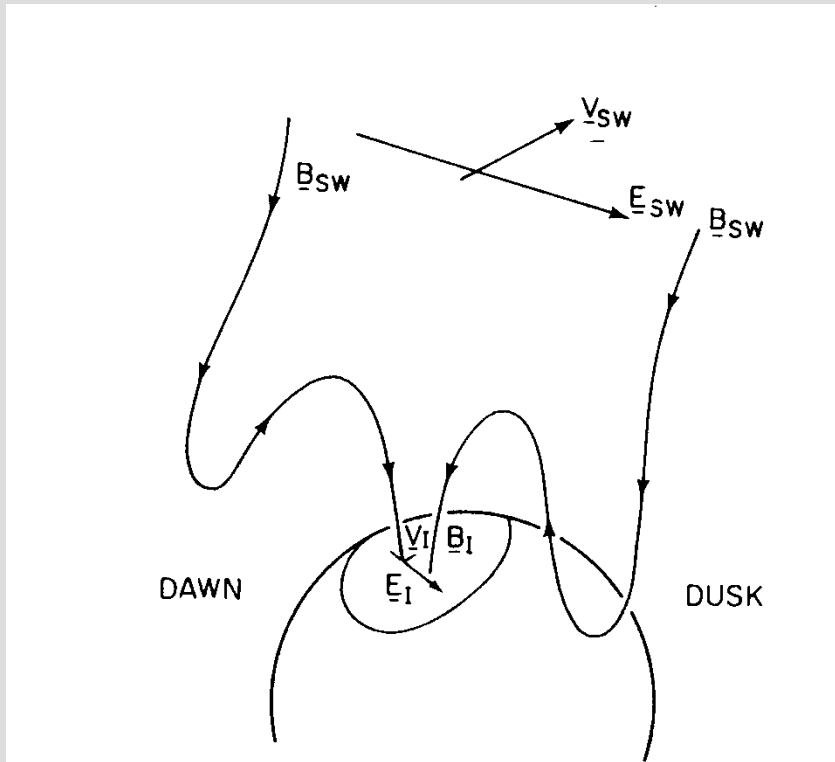
$$\mathbf{E}_{SW} = - \mathbf{v}_{SW} \times \mathbf{B}_{SW}$$

which maps down to the ionosphere, since the field lines are very good conductors

# Magnetospheric dynamics

## *open magnetosphere*

### *Viewpoint 2*



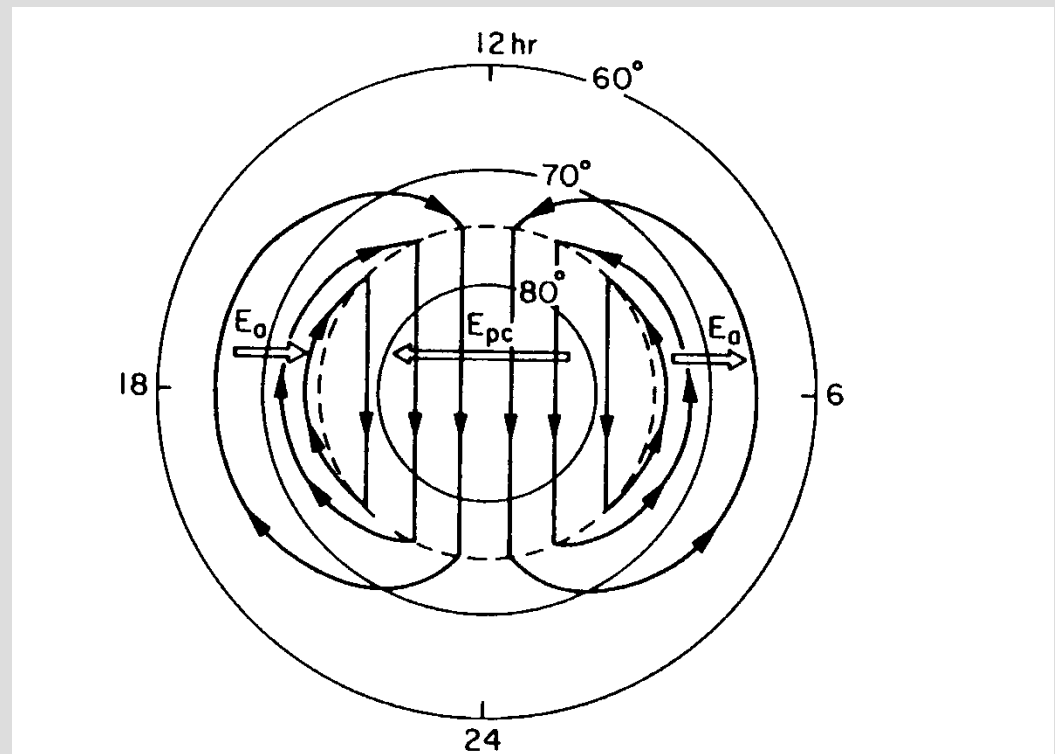
The solar wind magnetic field draws the ionospheric plasma with it, since the field is frozen into the plasma. This motion induces an ionospheric electric field

$$\mathbf{E}_I = - \mathbf{v}_I \times \mathbf{B}_I$$

# Magnetospheric dynamics

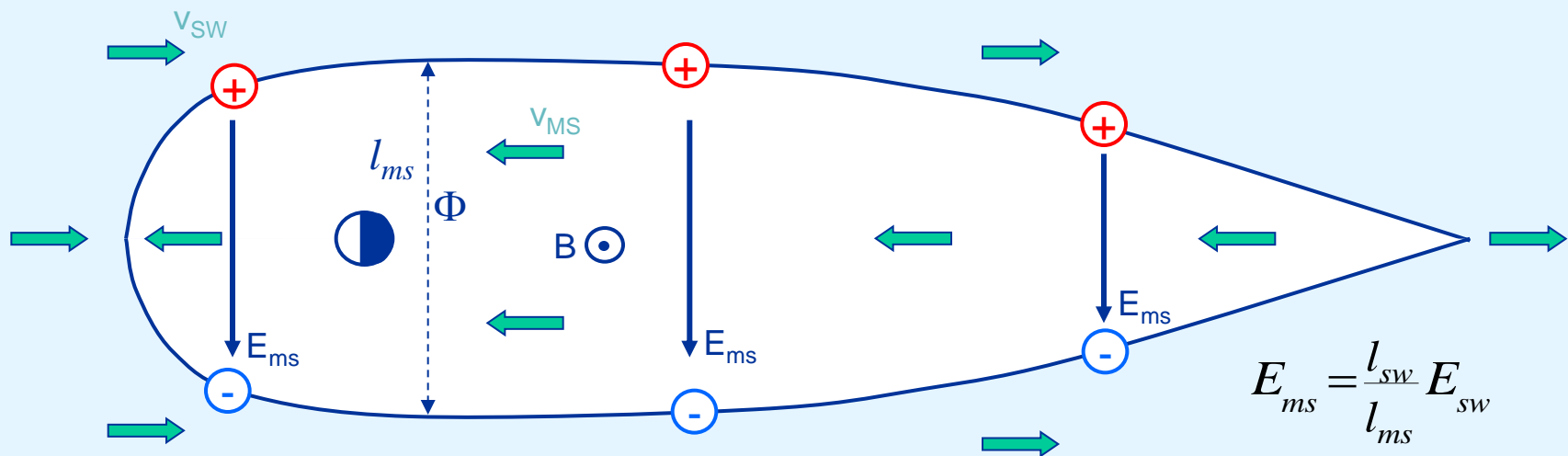
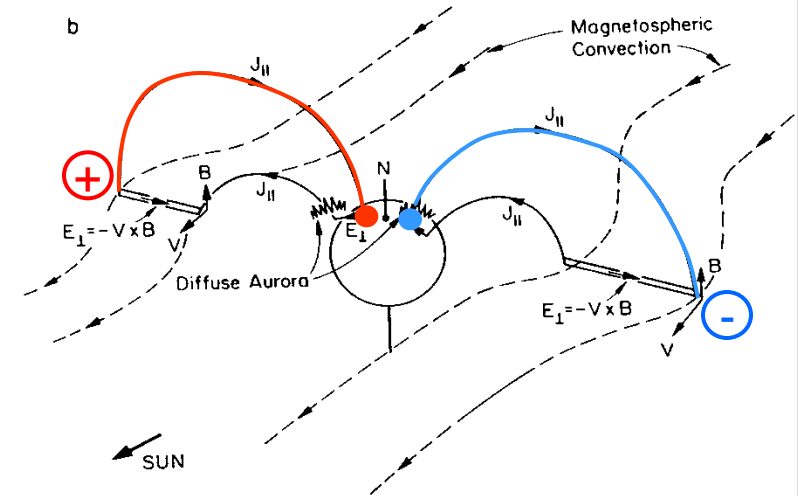
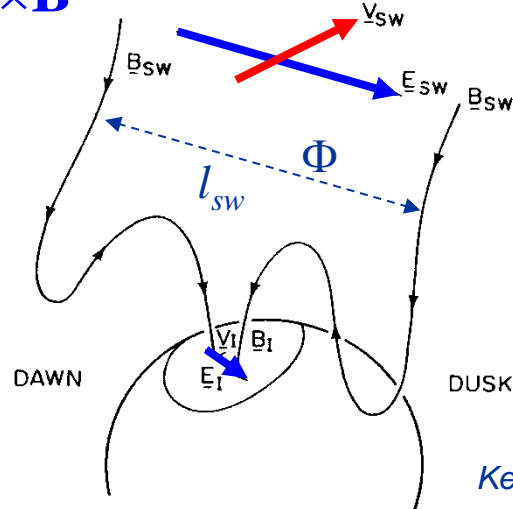
## *Plasma convection in the ionosphere*

The electric field "propagates" to the ionosphere, since the field lines are good conductors, and thus equipotentials



# Magnetospheric plasma convection

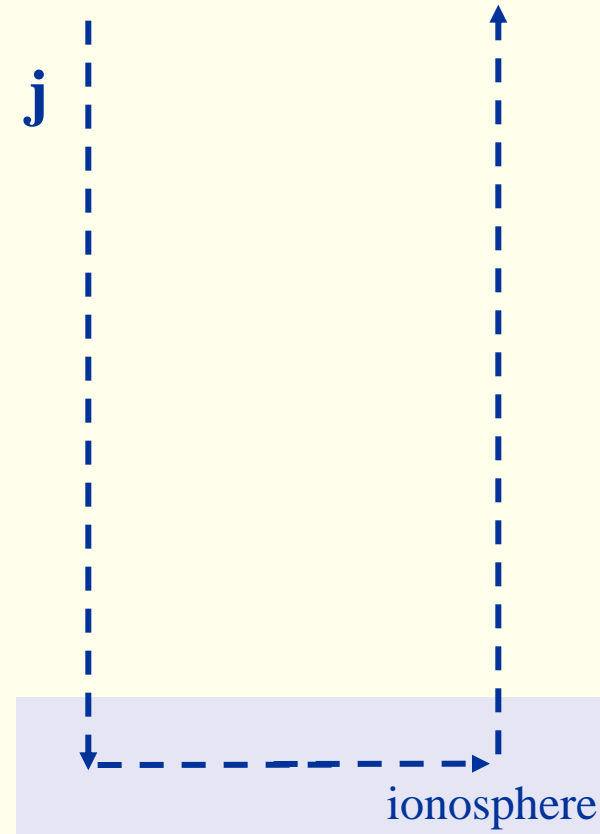
$$\mathbf{E}_{sw} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}$$





# Geomagnetic activity, definition

- Geomagnetic activity = temporal variations in the geomagnetic field.
- These variations are caused by temporal variations in the currents in the magnetosphere and ionosphere.

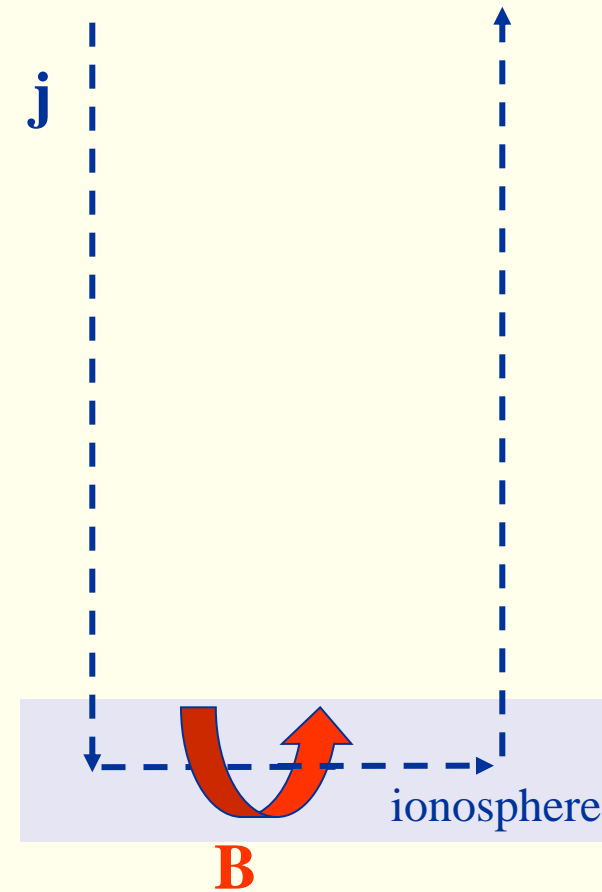




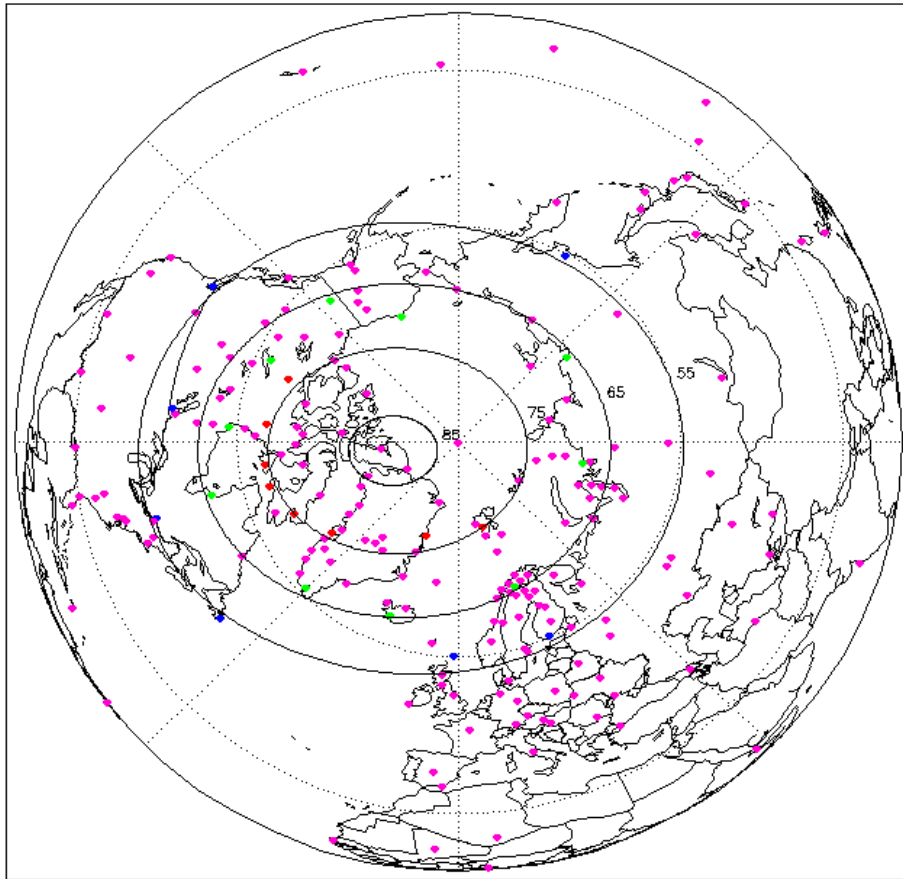
# ***How can you observe these changing currents on Earth?***

# Geomagnetic activity, definition

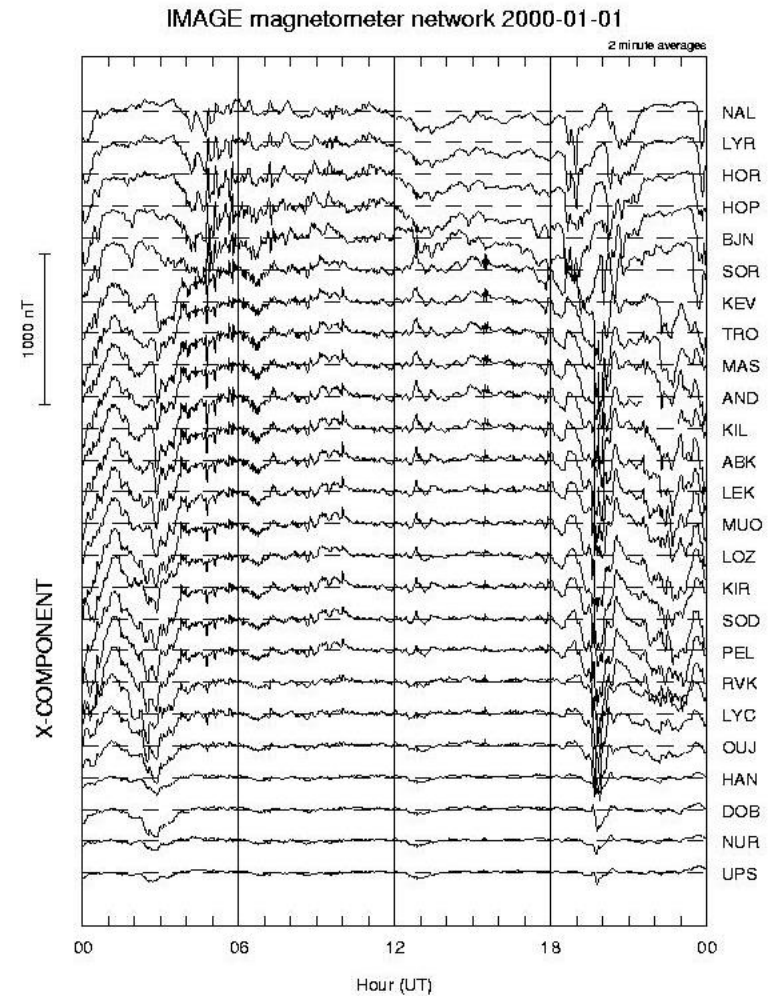
- Geomagnetic activity = temporal variations in the geomagnetic field.
- These variations are caused by temporal variations in the currents in the magnetosphere and ionosphere.
- The variations are observed by geomagnetic observatories



# Magnetic observatories

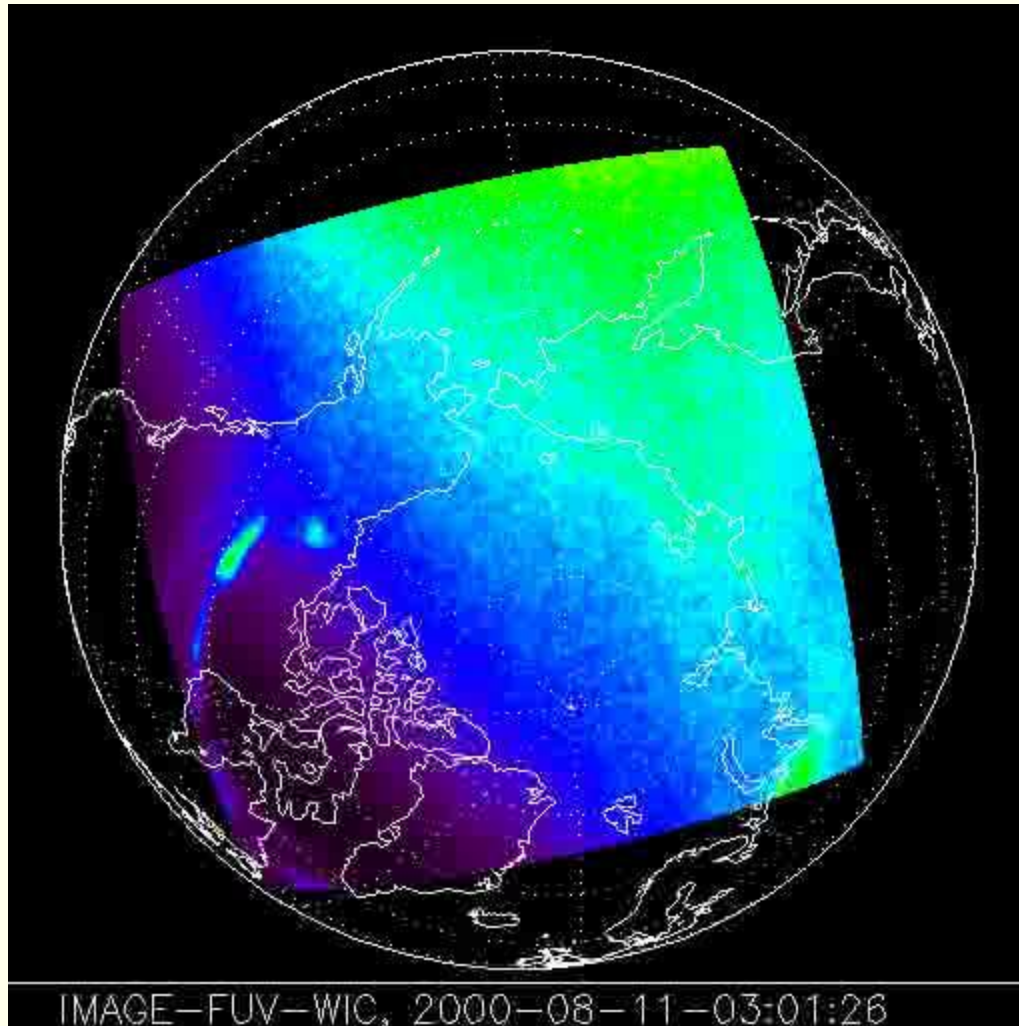


# Magnetogram

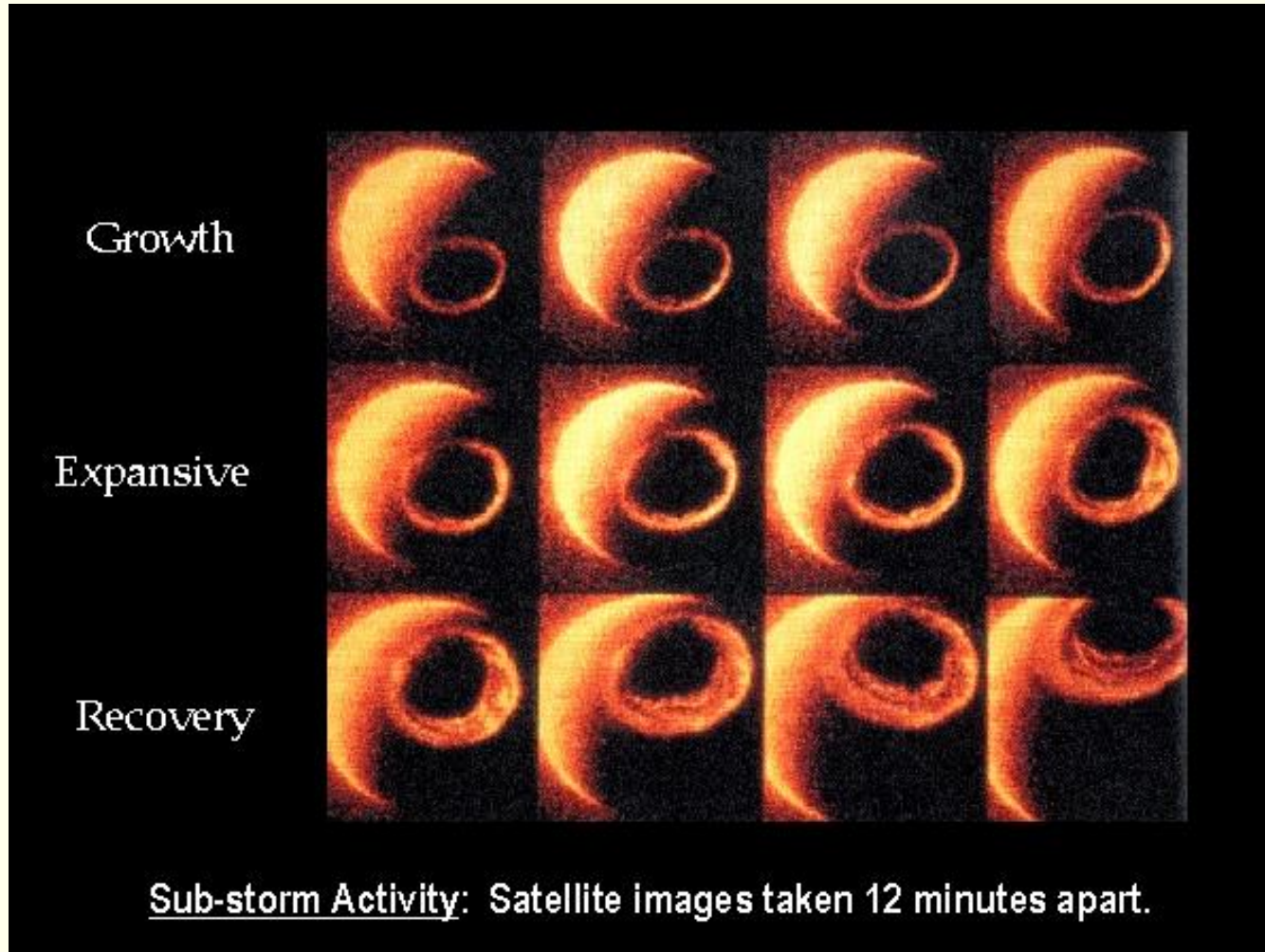




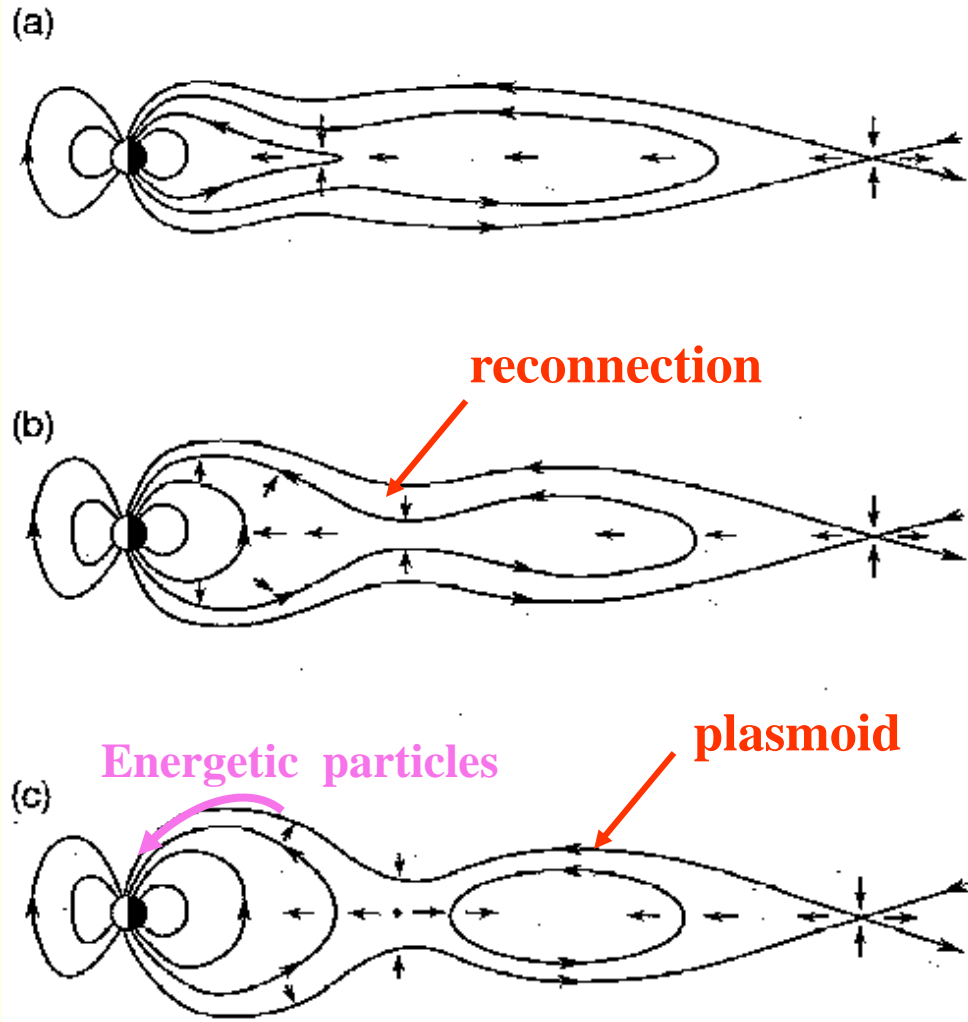
# Aurora during substorm



# Aurora during substorm

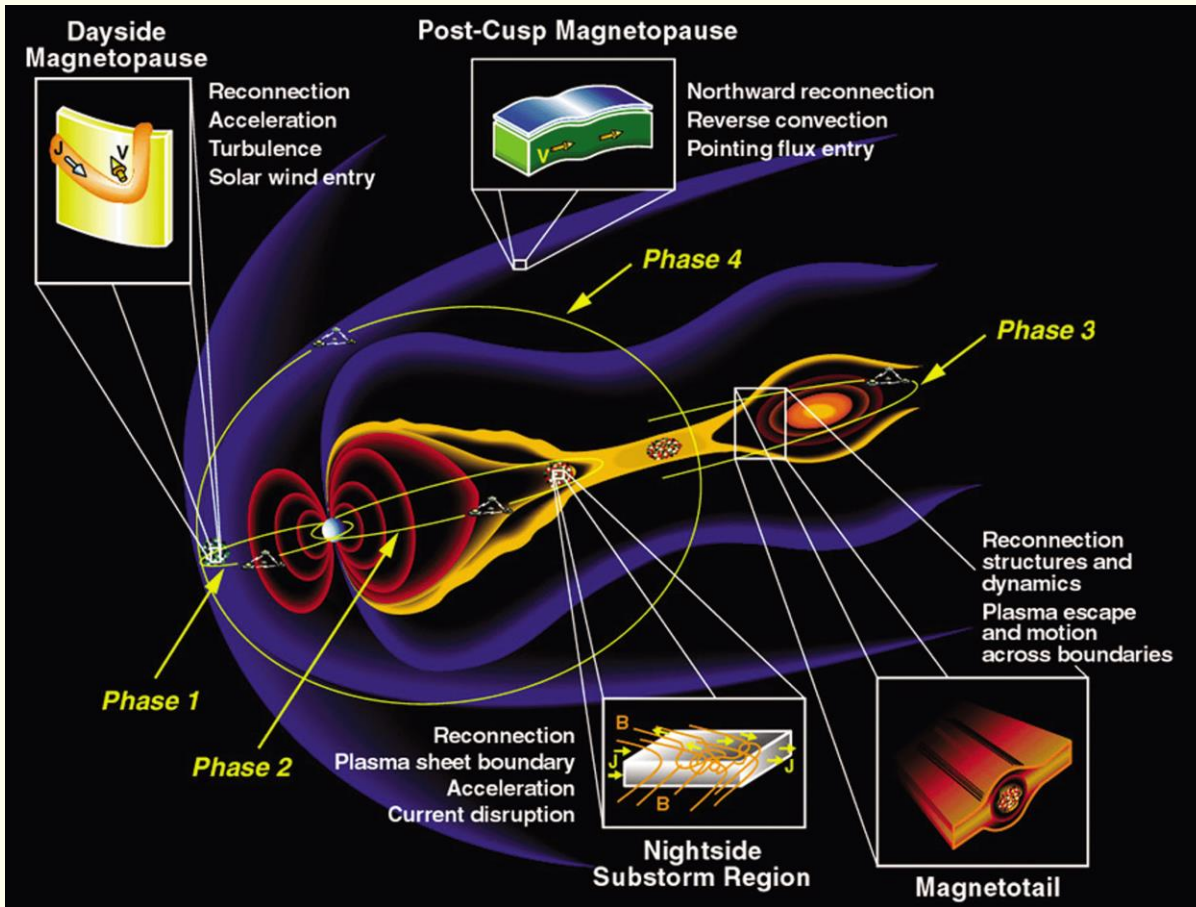


# Substorms - magnetosphere



- **GROWTH PHASE:** When IMF southward, energy is pumped into magnetotail and is stored as magnetic energy
- **ONSET:** After a certain time ( $\sim 1$  h) the magnetotail goes unstable and “snaps” due to fast reconnection.
- **EXPANSION/MAIN PHASE:** Close to Earth the magnetosphere returns to dipole-like configuration. Plasma is energized and injected into the inner parts of the magnetosphere.
- **RECOVERY PHASE:** In the outer parts of the magnetotail a *plasmoid* is ejected. The magnetosphere returns to its ground state.

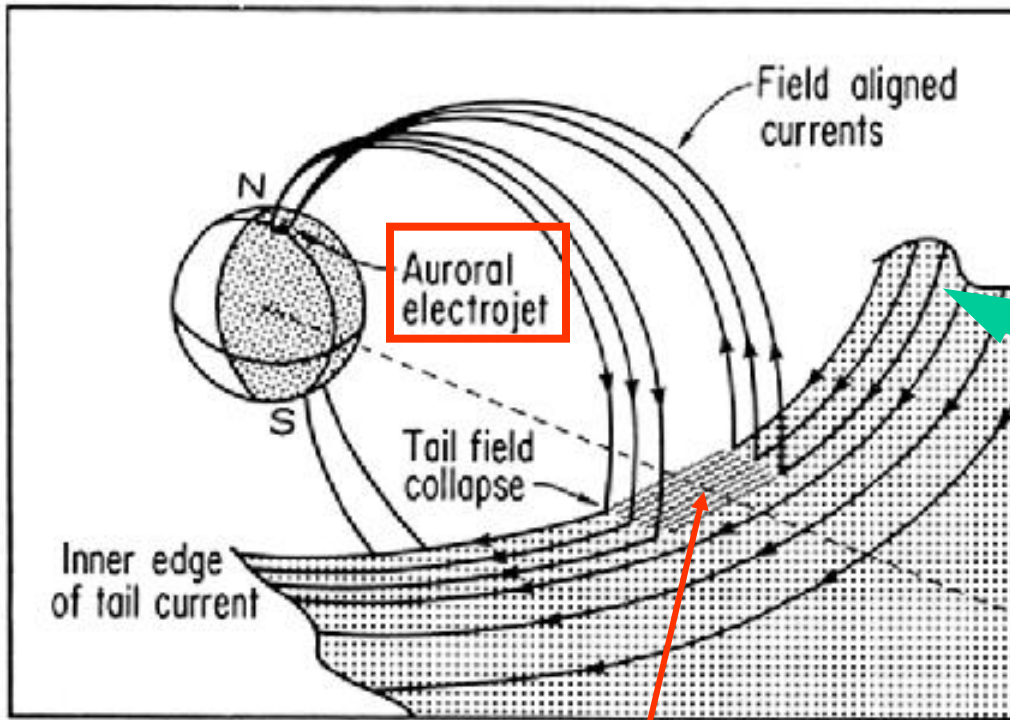
# Substorms - magnetosphere



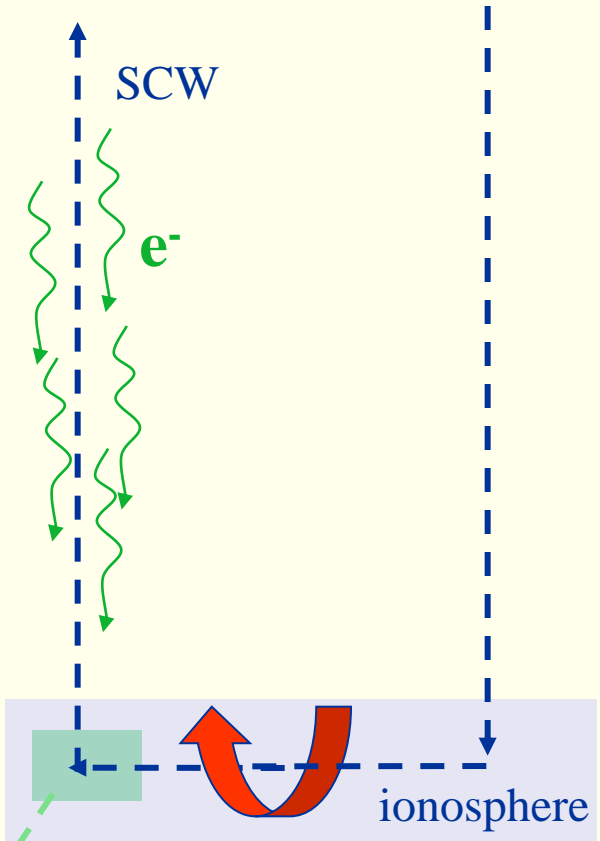
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# Substorm Current Wedge (SCW)



**B**



Due to reconnection processes the resistivity increases here

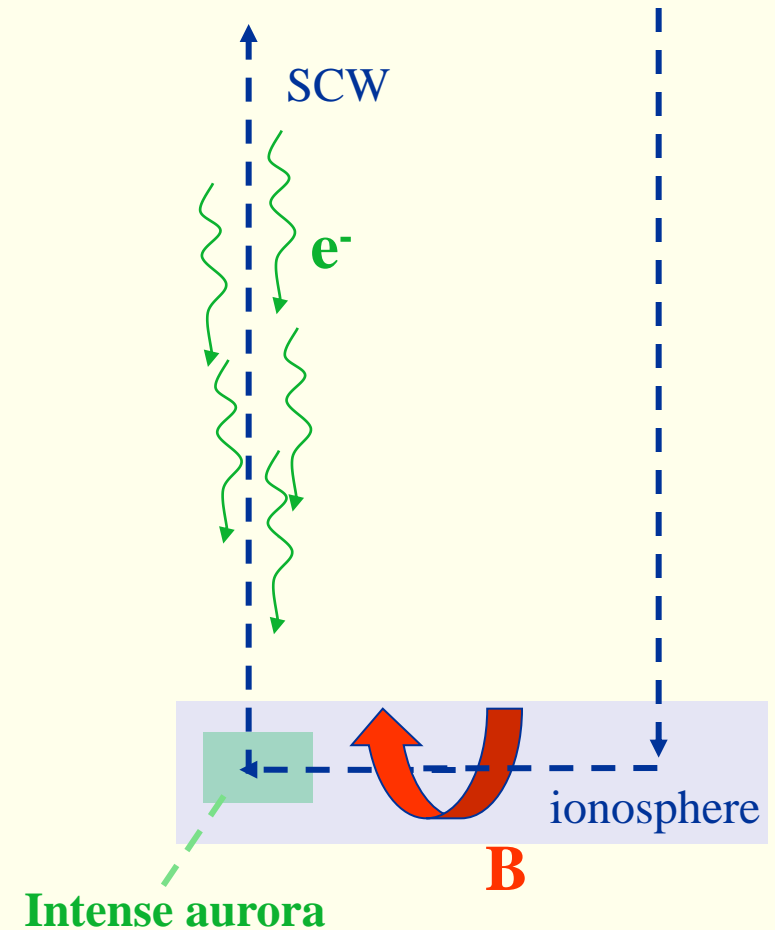
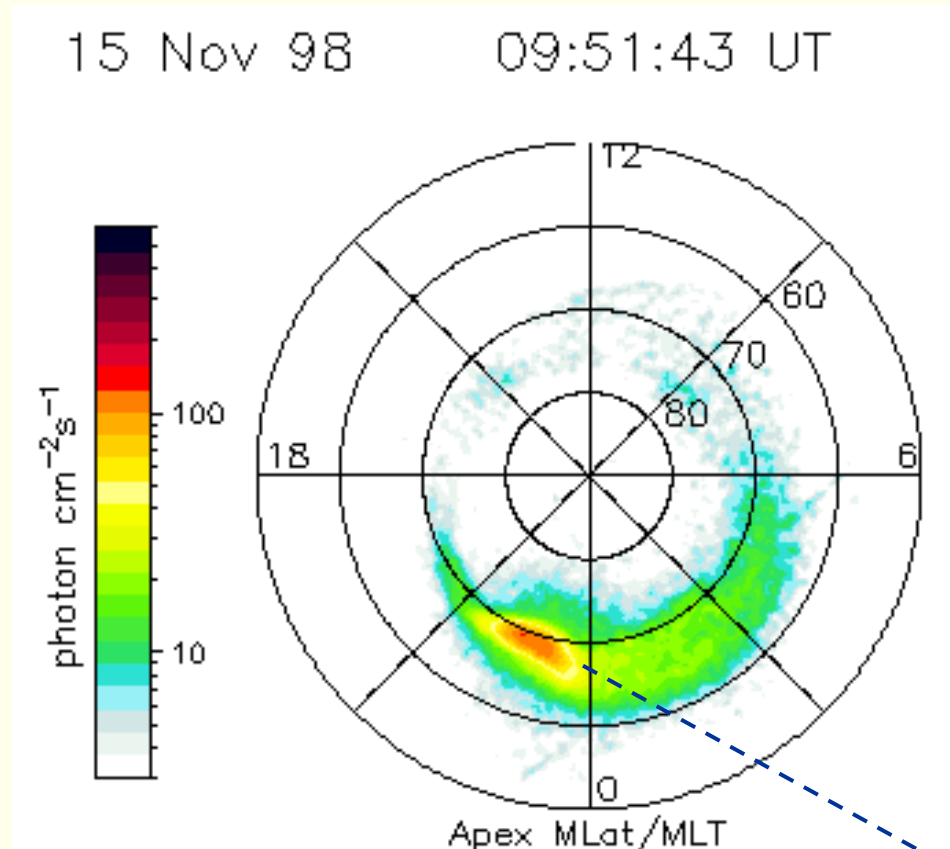
⇒

Current takes another direction – through the ionosphere!

intense aurora

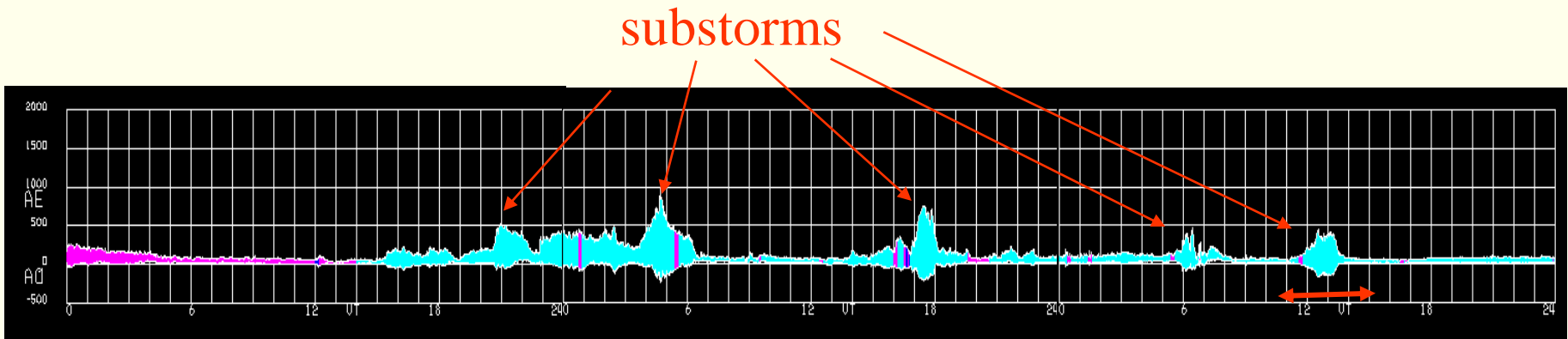
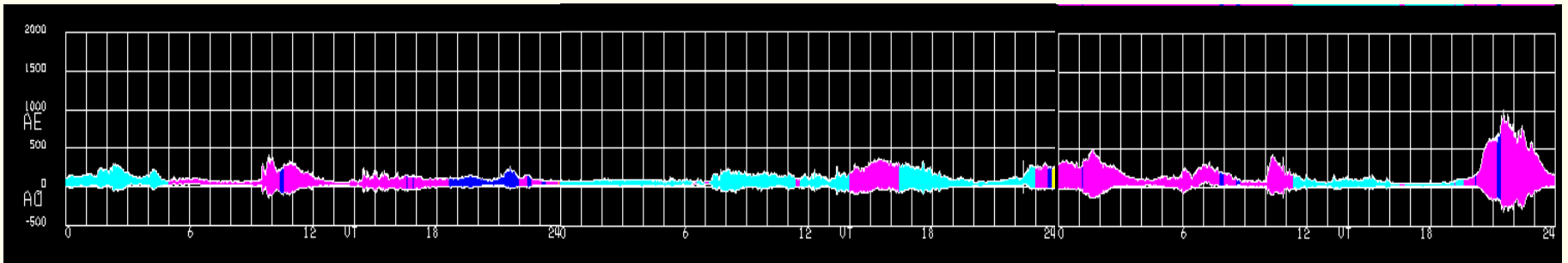
**B**

# Substorm Current Wedge (SCW)



# Auroral Electrojet (AE) index

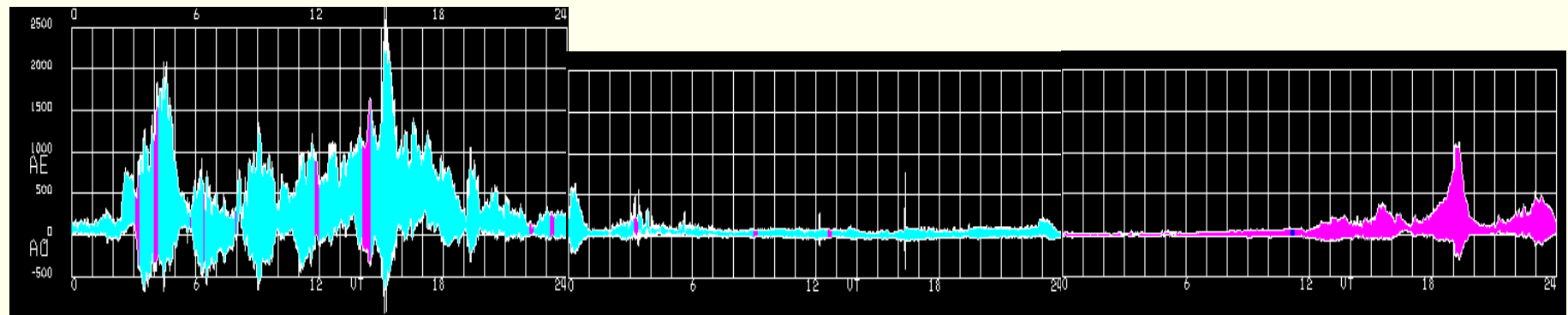
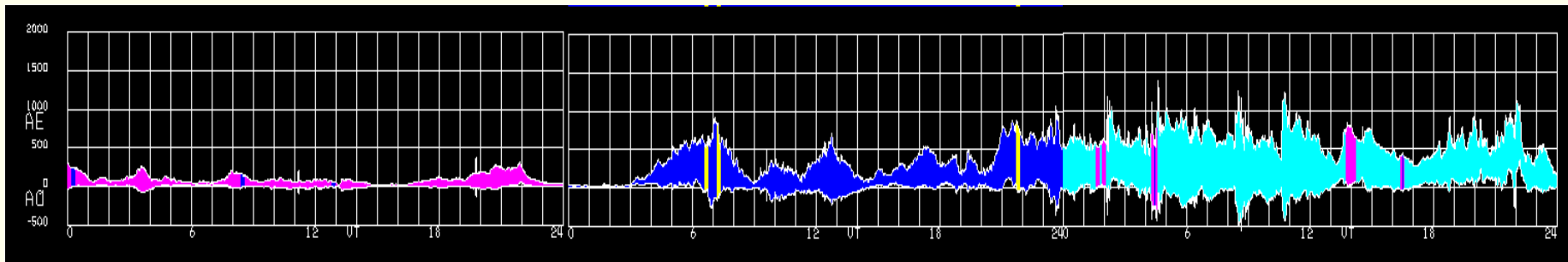
The AE index Measures the strength of the substorm current wedge (SCW), by using the information from several magnetic observatories.



**~1 – 3 h**

# Geomagnetic storms

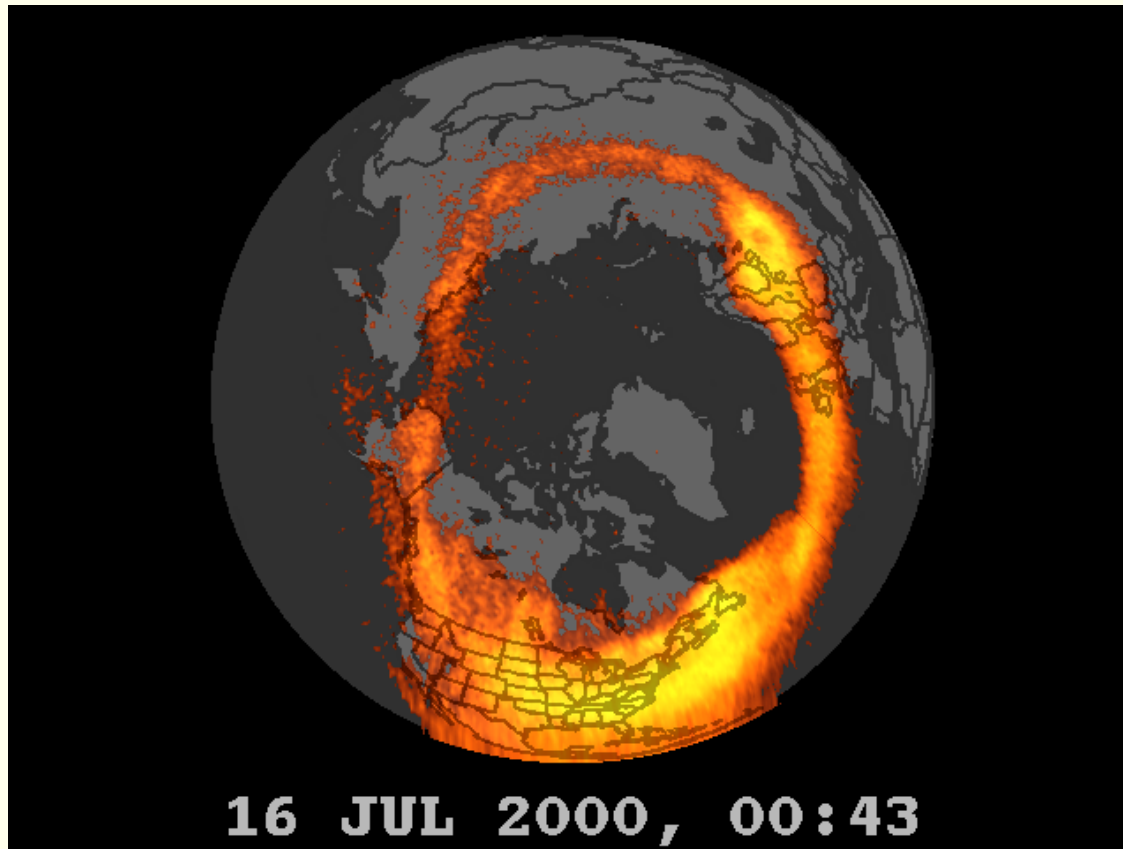
Geomagnetic storms are extended periods with southward interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) and a large energy input into the magnetosphere.



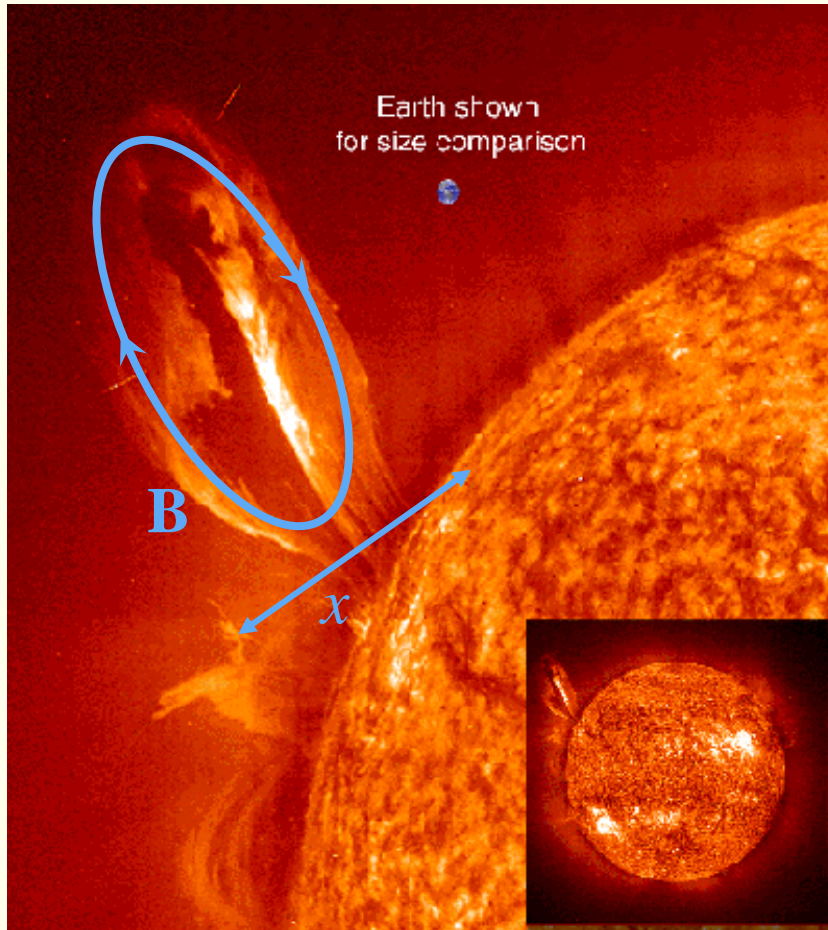


# Geomagnetic storms

Auroral oval very extended

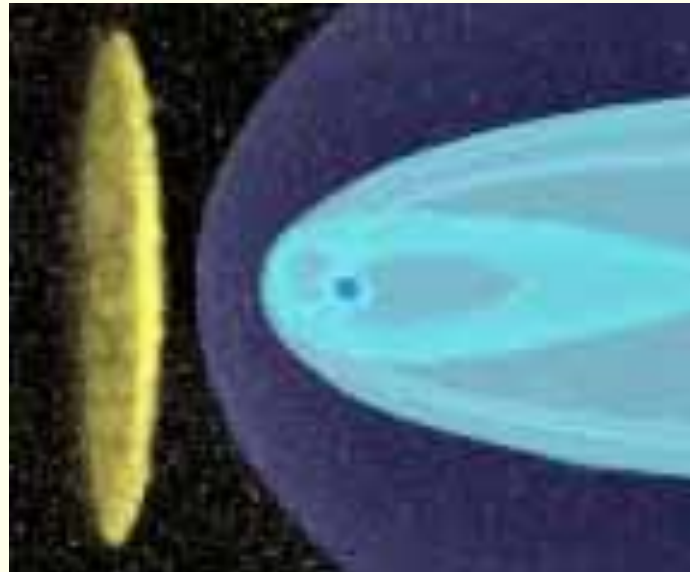


# Geomagnetic storms and coronal mass ejections



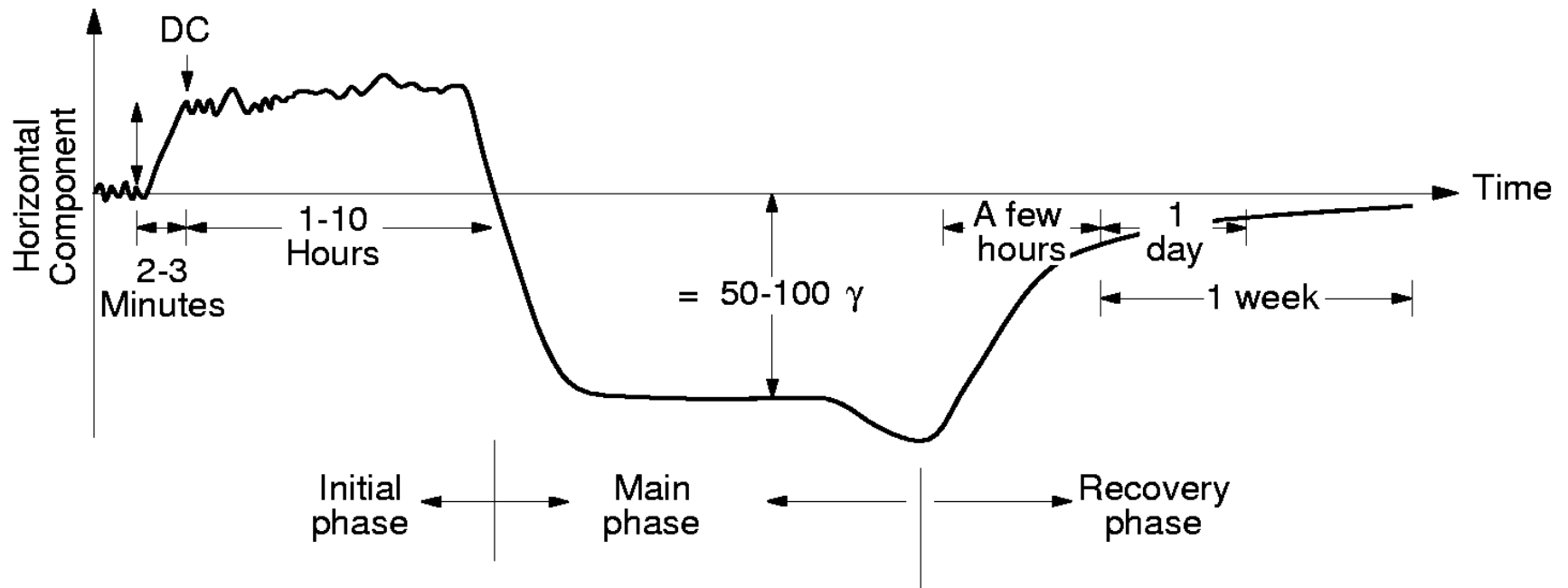
- Large geomagnetic storms are often associated with coronal mass ejections (CMEs)
- Because of their magnetic structure, they will give long periods with a constant IMF
- A typical time for a CME to pass Earth becomes  $T = x/v \sim 10 R_E/1000 \text{ kms}^{-1} \sim 60 \text{ h}$

# What happens with the geomagnetic field when the CME hits the magnetosphere?

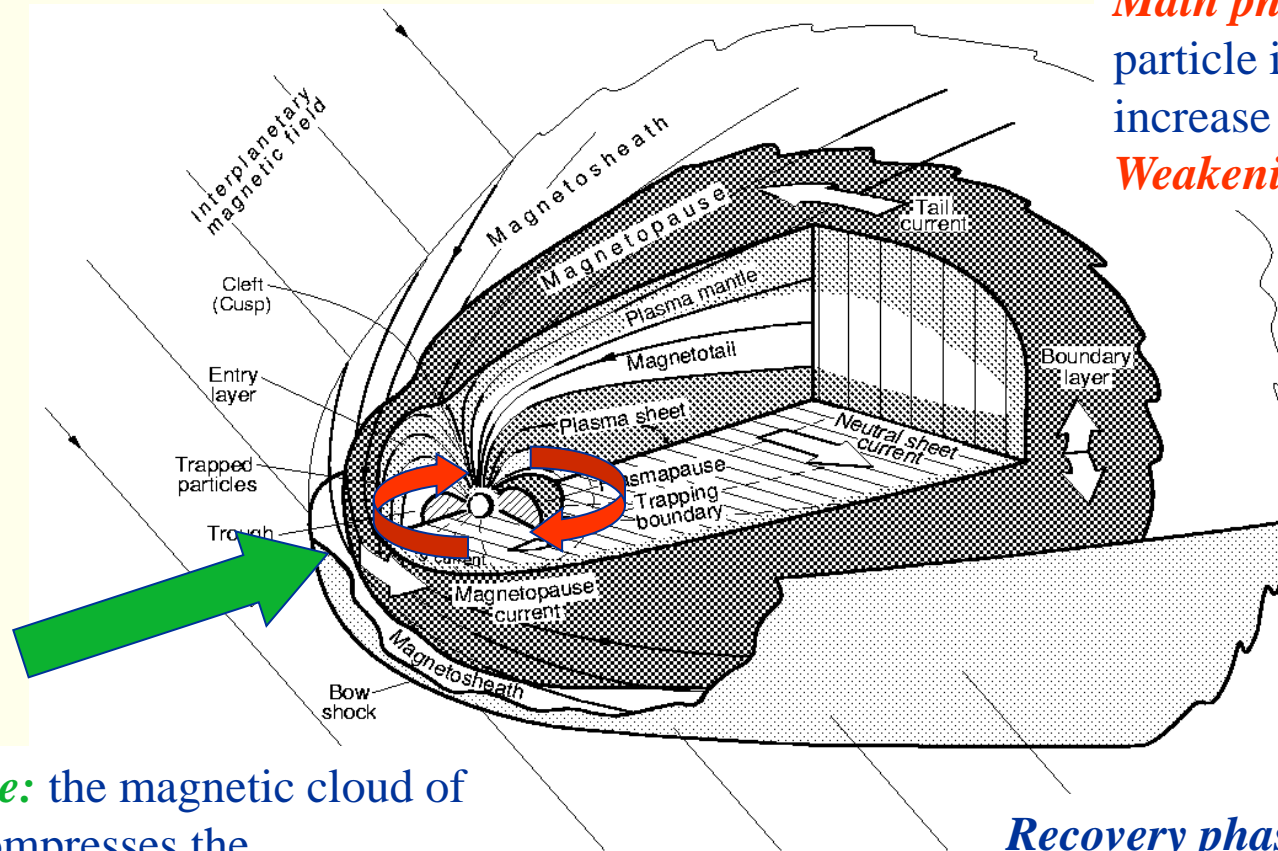


# Geomagnetic storms - phases

## *Magnetogram*



# Geomagnetic storms - phases

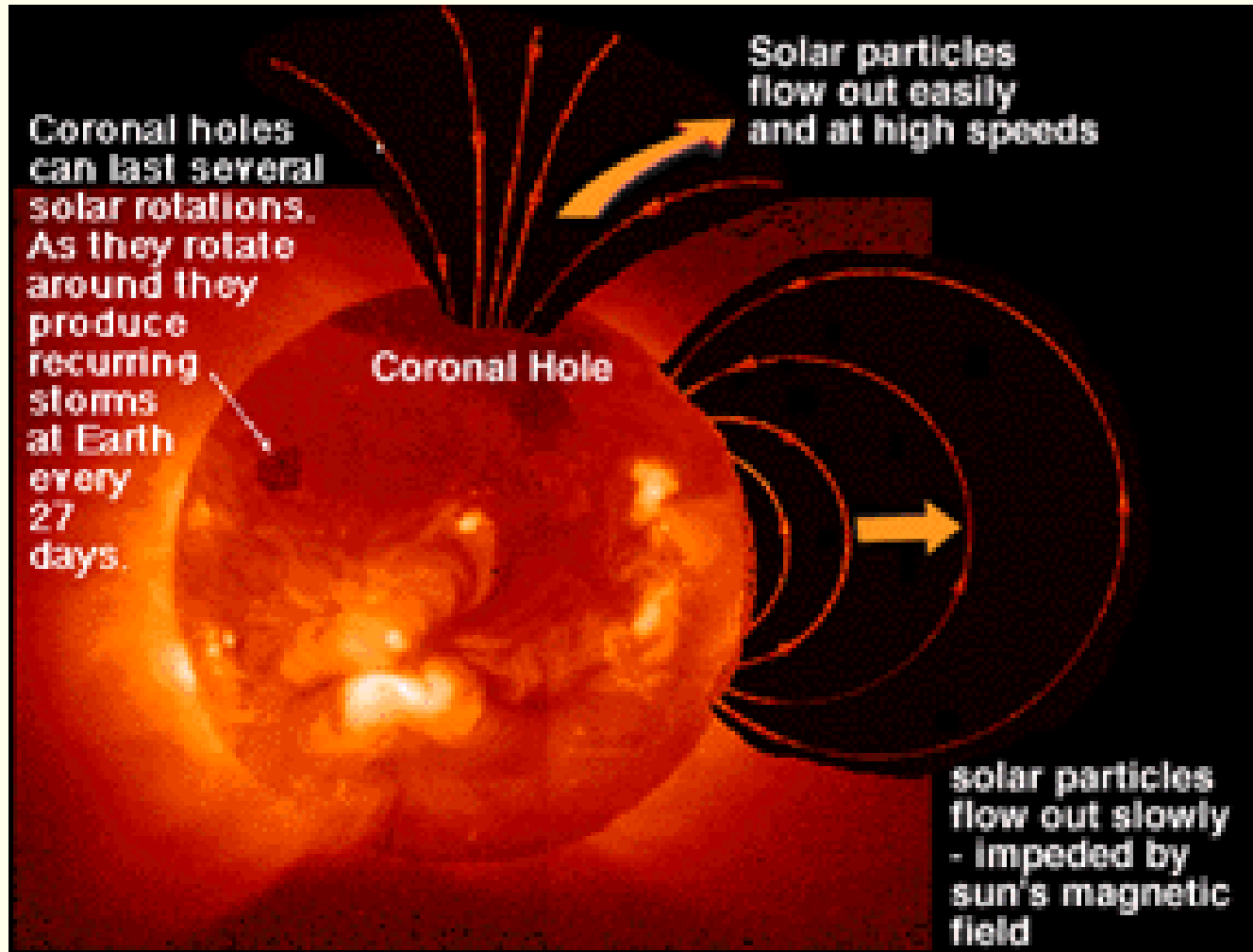


**Main phase:** Several particle injections increase the ring current.  
**Weakening of  $B$**

**Initial phase:** the magnetic cloud of the CME compresses the geomagnetic field.  
**Increase of  $B$**

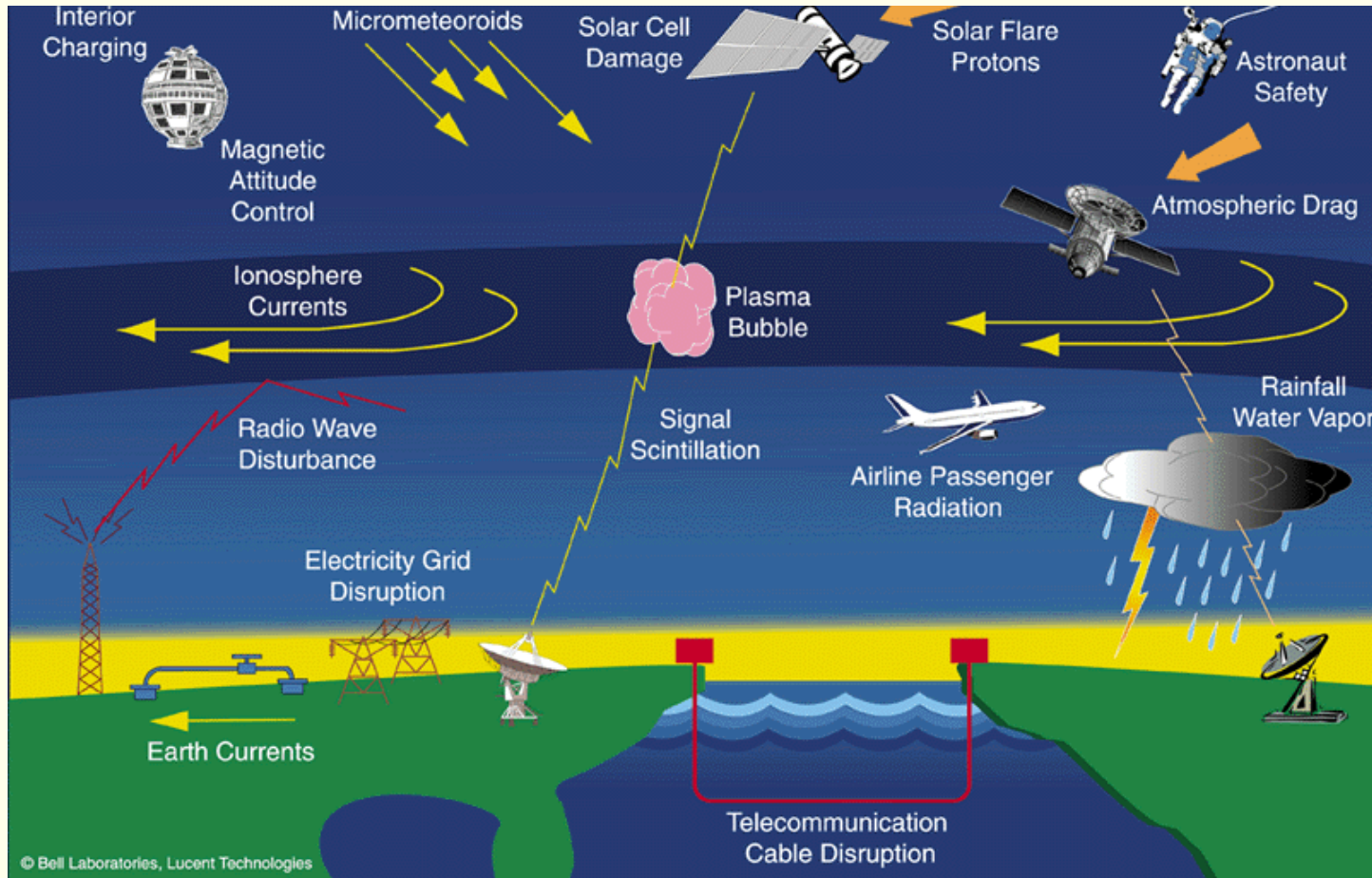
**Recovery phase:** ring current returns to normal strength.  
**Recovery of  $B$**

# Periodic geomagnetic activity





# Space weather : consequences of solar and geomagnetic activity

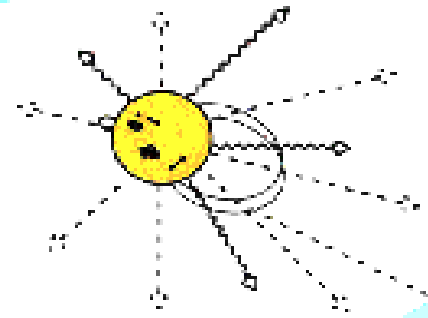


"conditions on the Sun and in the solar wind, magnetosphere, ionosphere and thermosphere that can influence the performance and reliability of space-borne and ground-based technological systems and can endanger human life or health."

*US National Space Weather Programme*

# Effects on Satellites

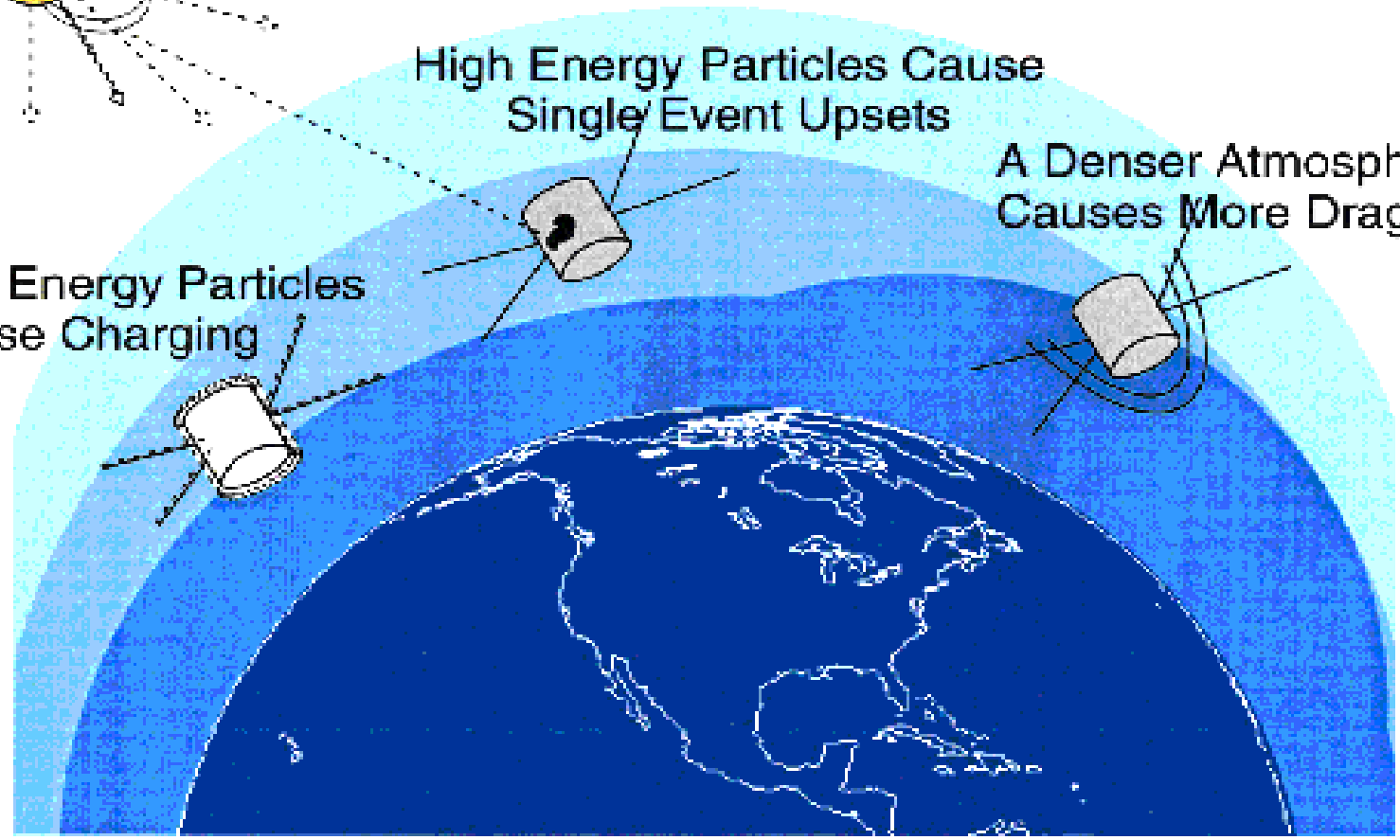
## Outages and Orbital Decay



High Energy Particles Cause Single Event Upsets

A Denser Atmosphere Causes More Drag

Low Energy Particles Cause Charging





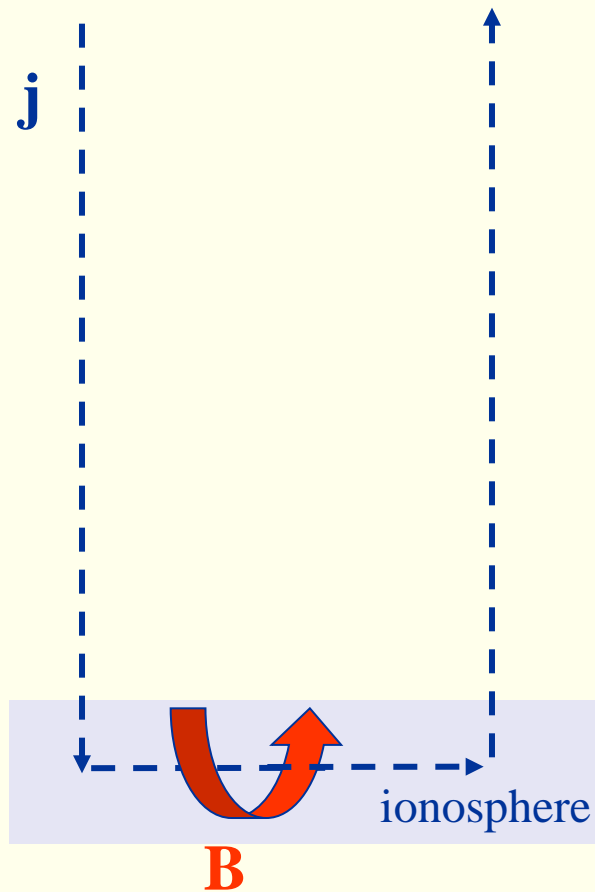
# Damage To Solar Panels



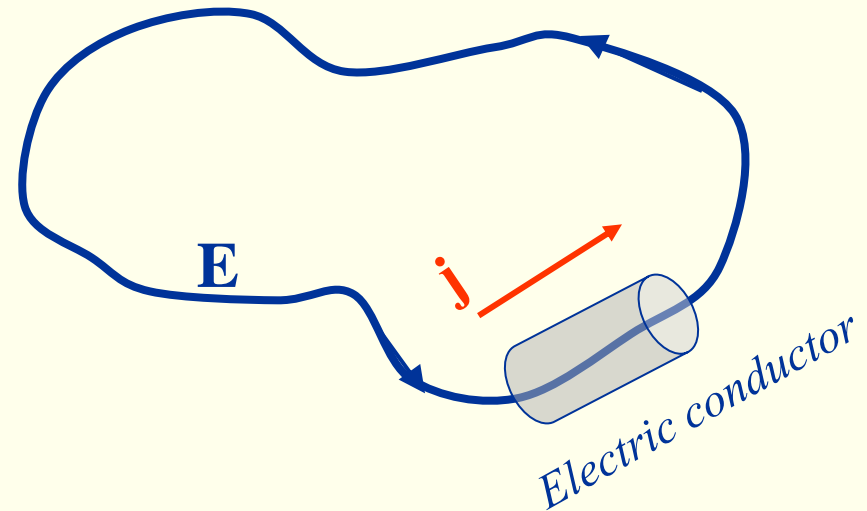
Satellite power budgets can be very tight so degradation in solar panel performance is a serious issue.

The damage is done by energetic particles which penetrate the surface of the panel and deposit a significant amount of energy inside the solar cells. This displaces the atoms within the cells and causes a loss in efficiency.

# GIC – Geomagnetically Induced Currents

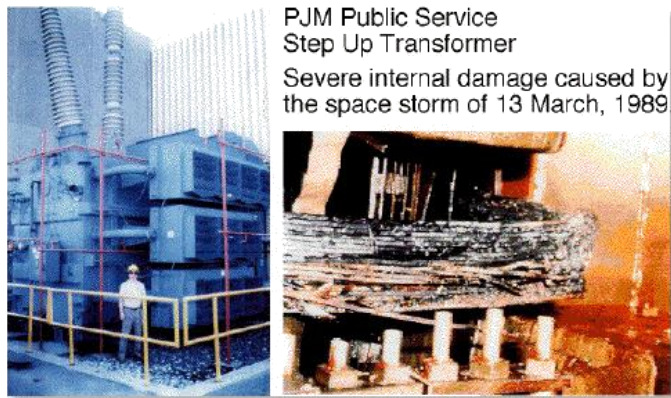
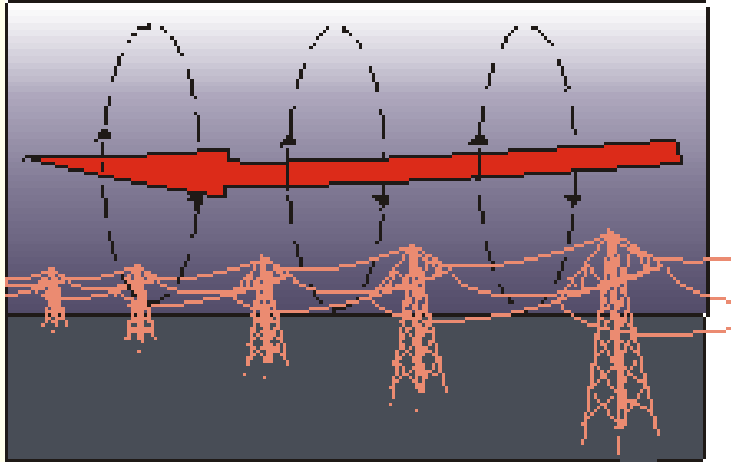


$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \times \mathbf{E} \quad \text{Faraday's law}$$

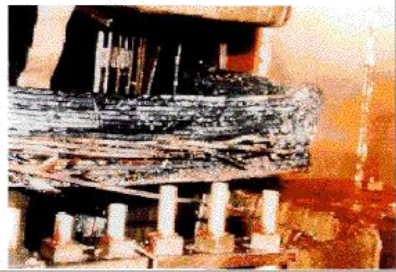


# GIC – Geomagnetically Induced Currents

Can damage electric power grids



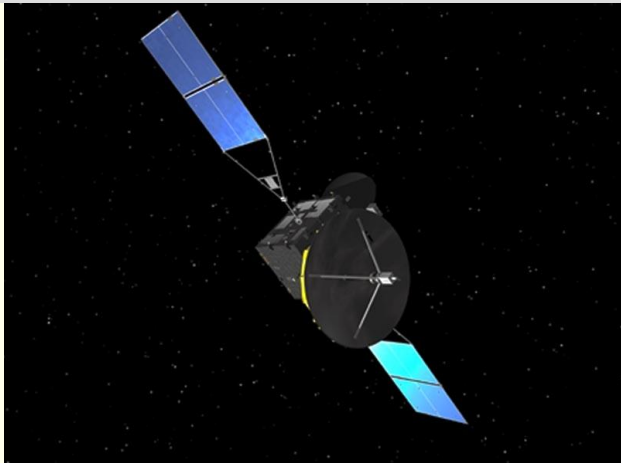
PJM Public Service  
Step Up Transformer  
Severe internal damage caused by  
the space storm of 13 March, 1989.



Induced currents in pipelines increase corrosion.

# Highly energetic particles

- Particles in the radiation belts.
- Particles from solar activity (solar flares, CME)
- Cosmic radiation



Disturb or damage electronics on satellites and aeroplanes.

Danger to astronauts



Increase the rate of ionization in lower D region and thus increases absorption of radio waves.





# Space weather on the internet

[www.spaceweather.com](http://www.spaceweather.com)

[www.swpc.noaa.gov/SWN](http://www.swpc.noaa.gov/SWN) (Space Weather Prediction Centre)



# What is cosmic radiation?

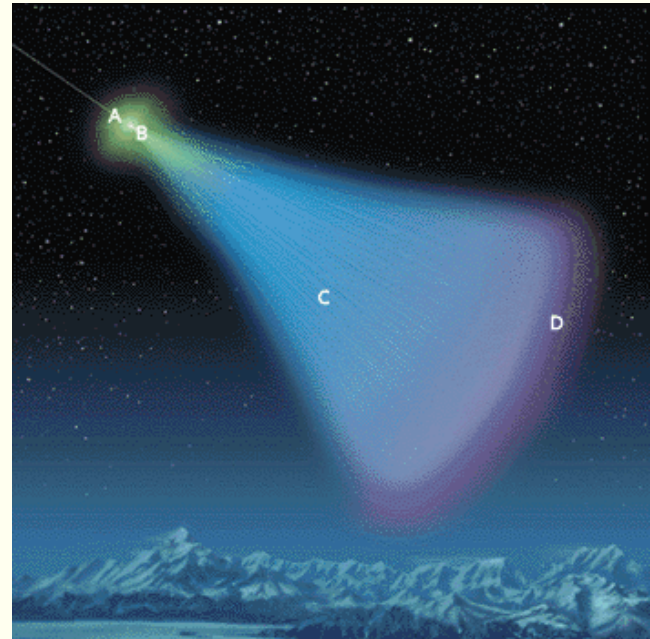
# Cosmic rays (= cosmic radiation)

## *Primary cosmic radiation*

Extremely energetic particles  
( $>10^8$  eV)

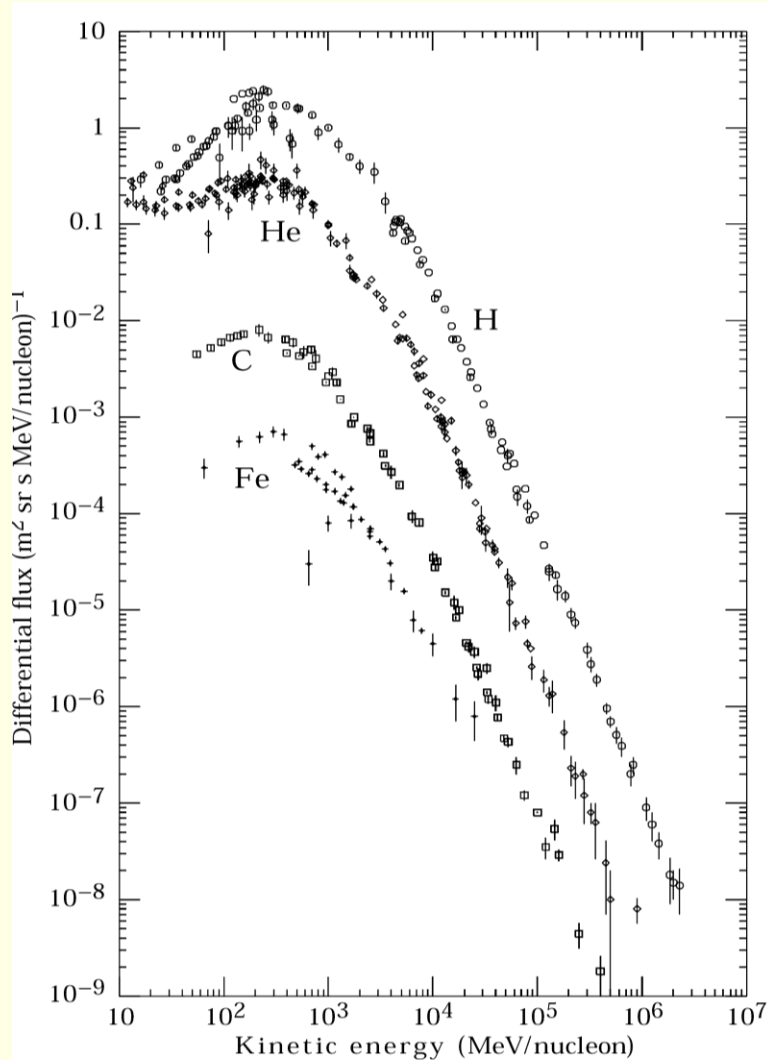
- Galactic cosmic rays
- Solar 'cosmic rays' (Solar Energetic Particles)

## *Secondary cosmic radiation*





# Composition and spectrum of galactic cosmic radiation



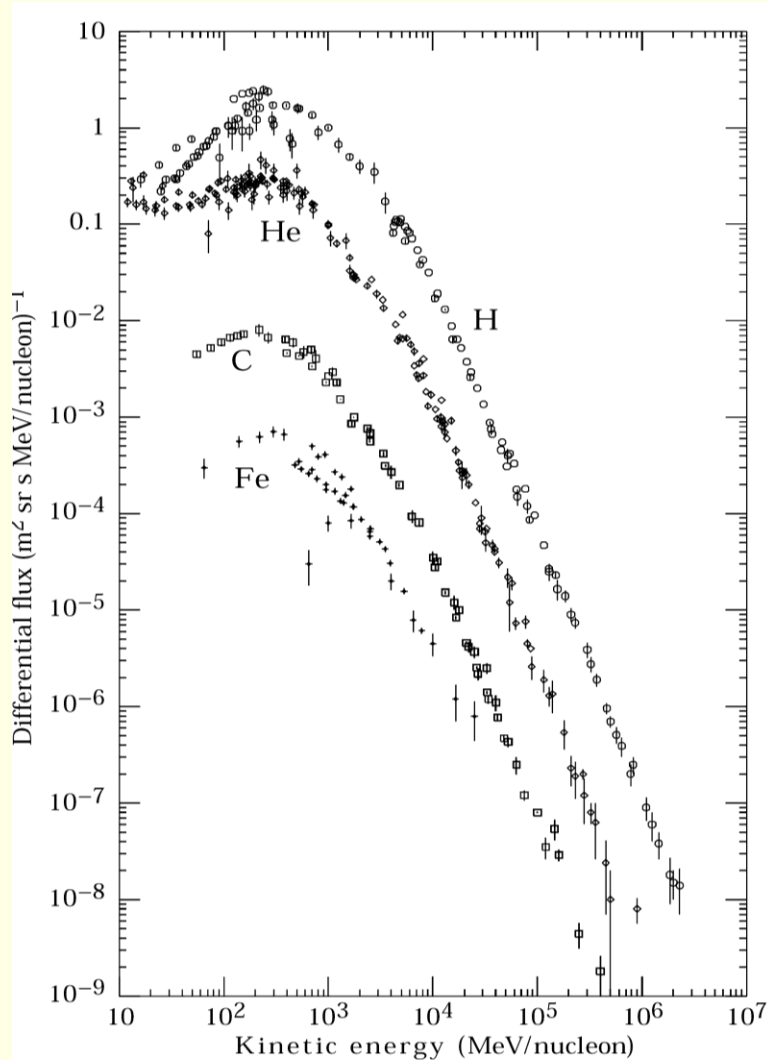
*Simpson, 1983.*

- 83 % protons
- 13 % alpha particles
- 3 % electrons
- 1 % other nuclei

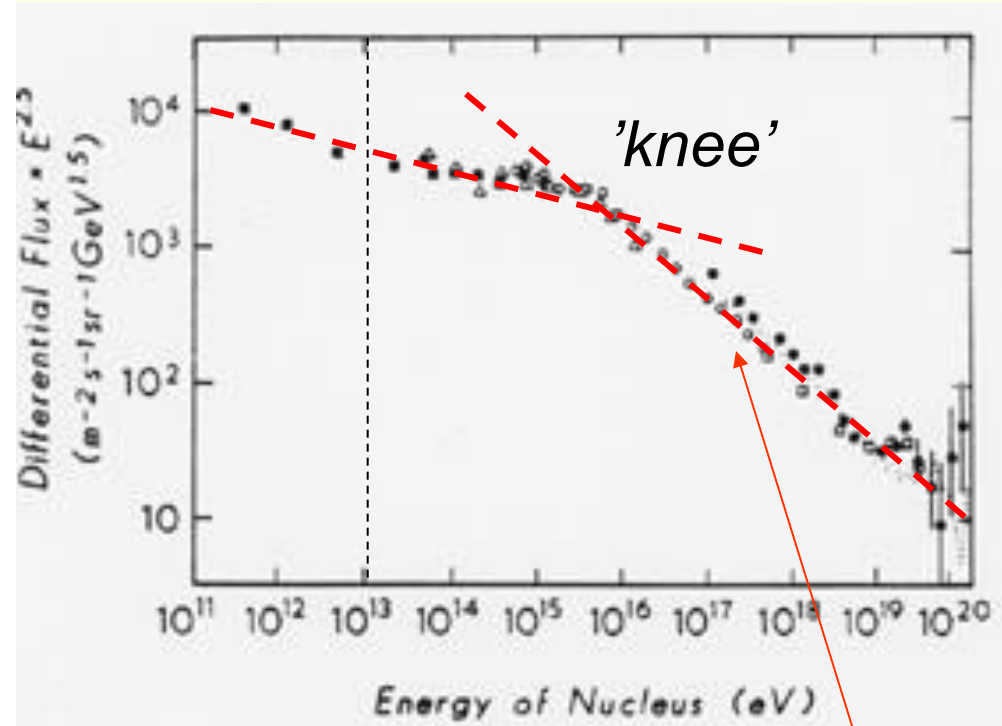
All cosmic ray particles are fully ionized



# Spectrum of galactic cosmic radiation

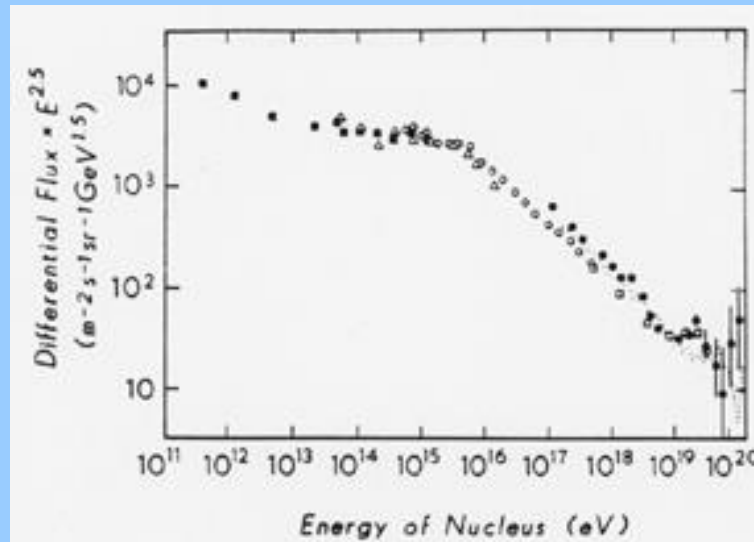


*Simpson, 1983.*



Ultra-energetic cosmic radiation.  
Origin unknown. Extragalactic???

# How much kinetic energy is there in a $10^{20}$ eV cosmic ray particle?



Blue

Energy of a mosquito moving at 10 km/h

Yellow

Energy of a tennis ball moving at 100 km/h

Red

Energy of a car moving at 10 km/h



# How much kinetic energy is there in a $10^{20}$ eV cosmic ray particle?

$$10^{20} \text{ eV} = 10^{20} \cdot 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 16 \text{ J}$$

A mosquito weighs about 5 mg. 10 km/h  $\approx$  2.8 m/s  
 $\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{mv^2}{2} = \frac{5 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot (10/3.6)^2}{2}$$
$$= 2 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ J}$$

A tennis ball weighs about 50 g. 100 km/h  $\approx$  28 m/s  
 $\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{mv^2}{2} = \frac{0.05 \cdot (100/3.6)^2}{2}$$
$$= 19 \text{ J}$$

A car weighs about 1 ton. 10 km/h  $\approx$  3 m/s  $\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{mv^2}{2} = \frac{1000 \cdot (10/3.6)^2}{2}$$
$$= 39 \text{ kJ}$$

Yellow

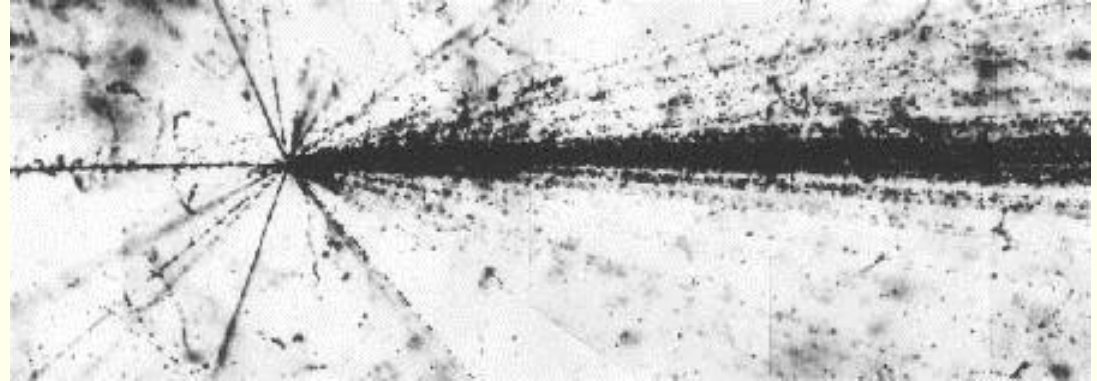
Tennis ball moving at 100 km/h

# Cosmic radiation

## *Primary cosmic radiation*

*Extremely energetic particles ( $>10^8$  eV) which originate outside of the solar system.*

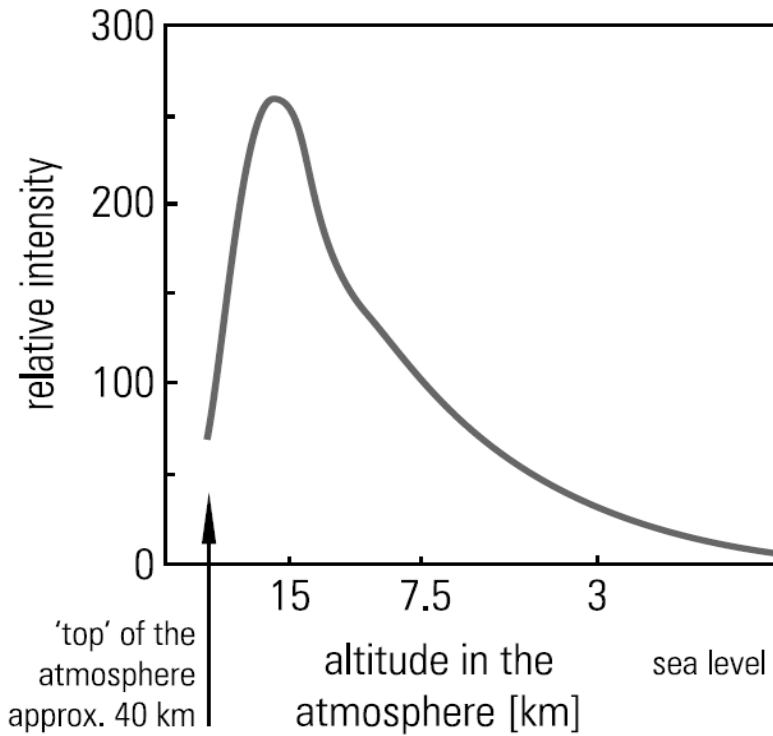
83 % protons  
13 % alpha particles  
3 % electrons  
1 % other nuclei



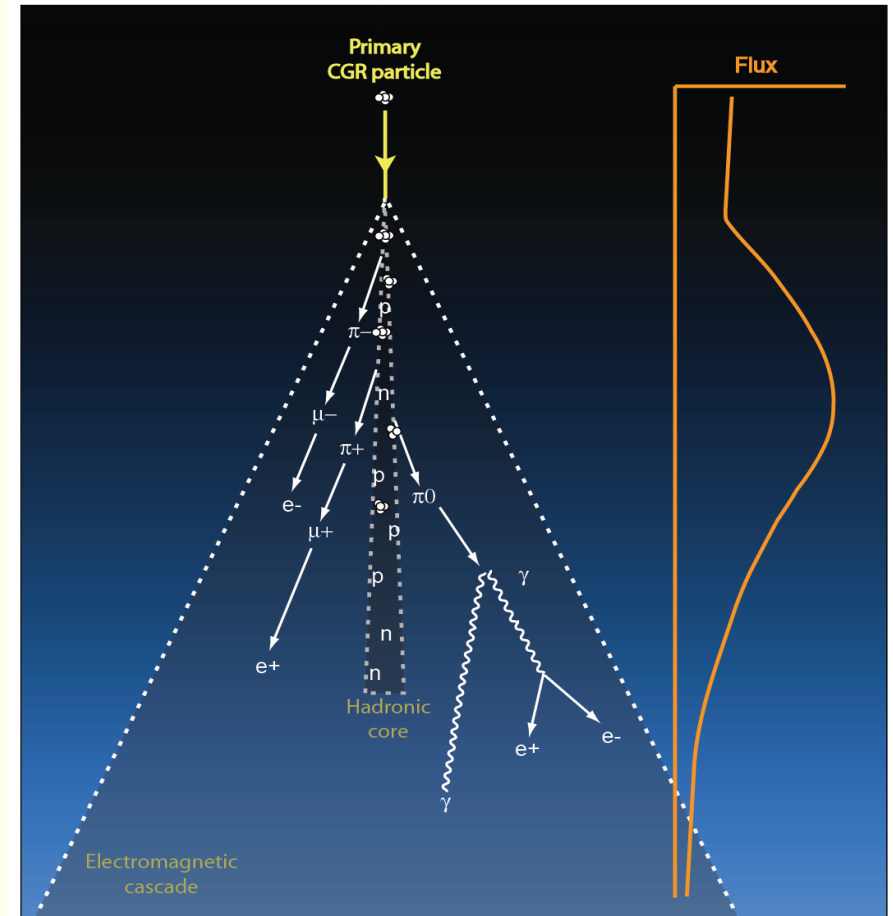
## *Secondary cosmic radiation*

- Starts at about 55 km altitude.
- Created by collisions between primary cosmic radiation and the atmosphere.
- Maximum (“*Pfotzer maximum*”) at approx. 20 km altitude.
- Contains mostly protons, neutrons and mesons

# Pfotzer maximum

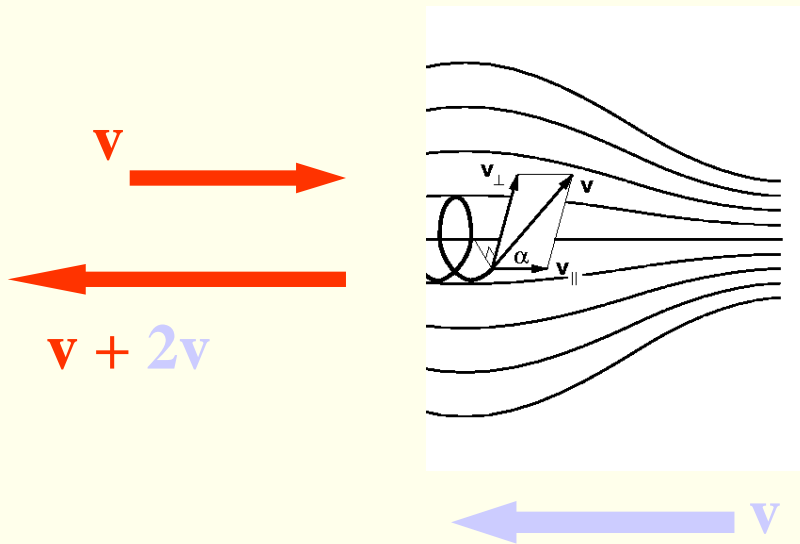


**Fig. 1.12**  
Intensity profile of cosmic particles in the atmosphere

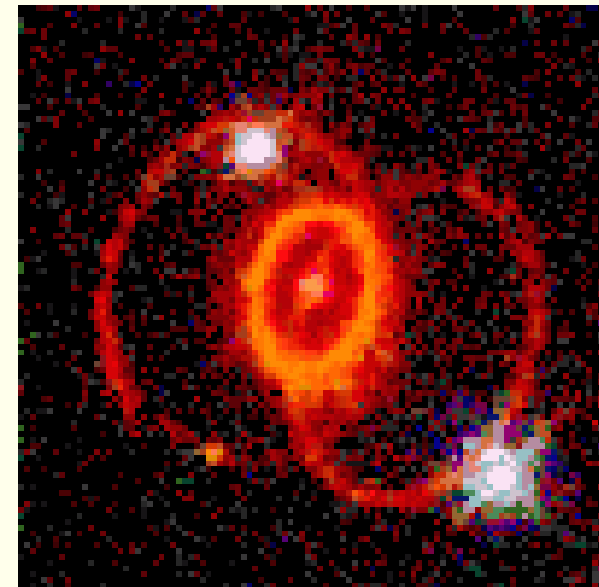


# Origin of galactic cosmic radiation

Two main theories

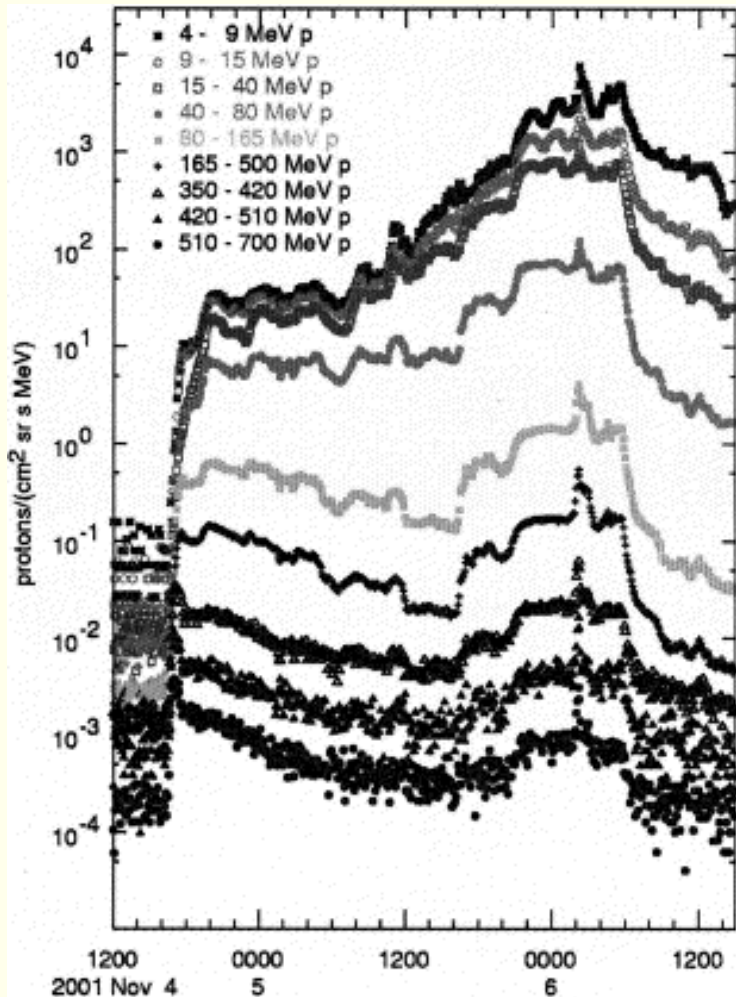


Fermi acceleration  
by two magnetic  
mirrors in motion



Shock waves from  
supernova explosion

# Solar Energetic Particles (SEP)



- Associated with solar flares or coronal mass ejections
- Energies of tens of keV to GeV

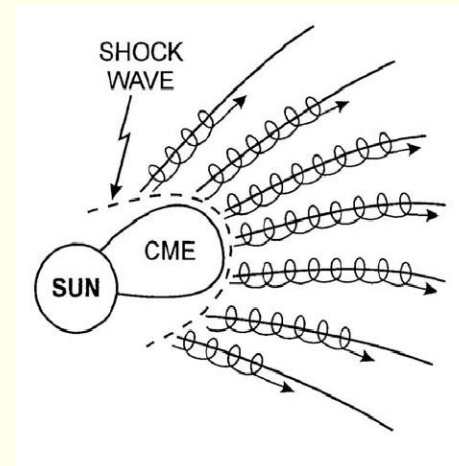
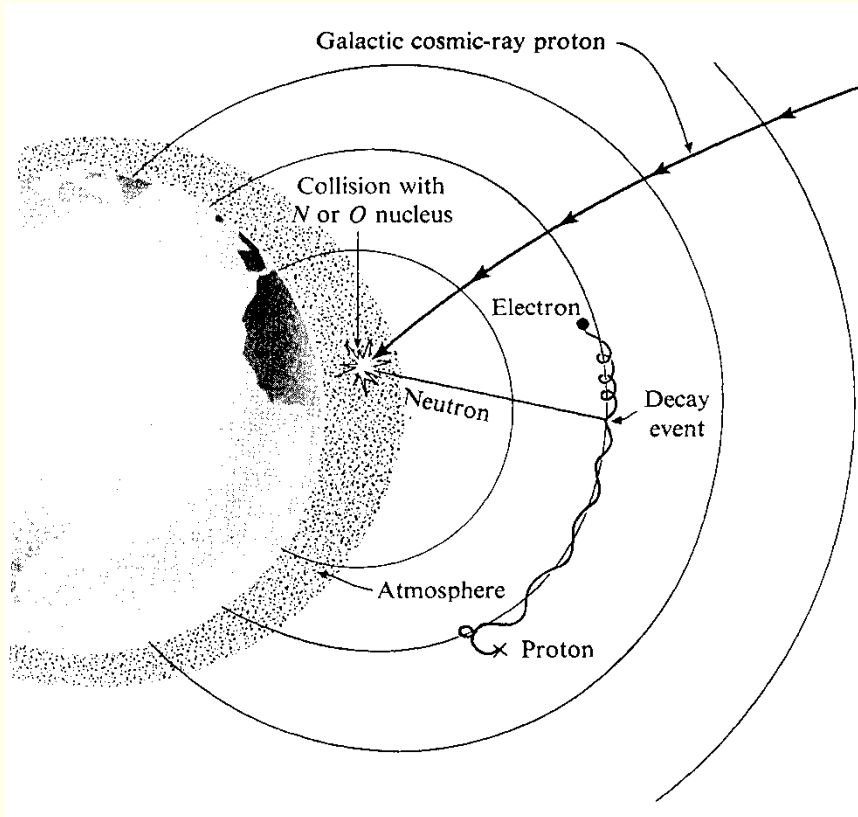


Figure 22: Time profiles of the strong SEP proton flux event of November 4, The peak at the time of shock passage is clearly defined early on November 6, even at proton energies as high as 510 – 700 MeV. From Reames (2004).

# Neutron albedo



Among these are neutrons, that are not affected by the magnetic field. They decay, soon after they happen to be in the radiation belts. The resulting protons and electrons are trapped in the radiation belts.

This contribution to the radiation belts are called the ***neutron albedo***.

Figure 8. An illustration of the CRAND process for populating the inner radiation belts [Hess, 1968].



# Relativistic dynamics

## Relativistic momentum

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{m\mathbf{v}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \gamma m\mathbf{v}$$

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

## Relativistic energy

$$E = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \gamma mc^2$$

## Relation between energy and momentum

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4$$

# Relativistic dynamics

Rest energy

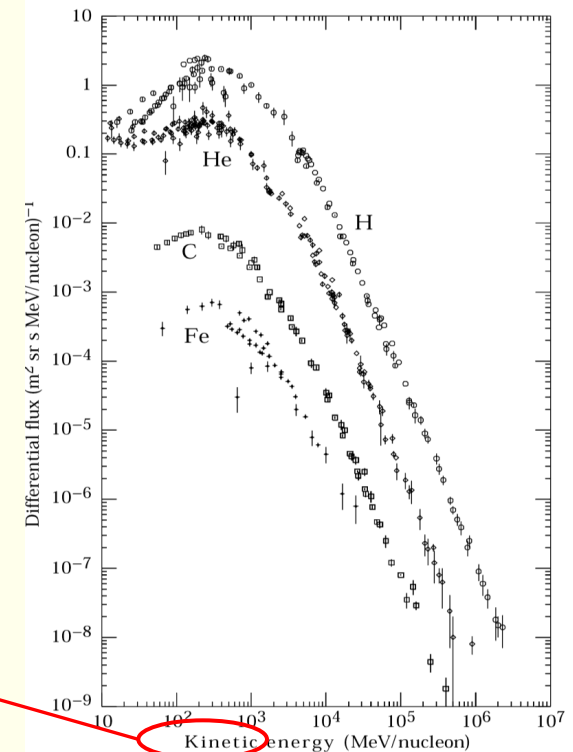
$$E = mc^2$$

Kinetic energy

$$E_{kin} = E - mc^2 = mc^2 (\gamma - 1)$$

Rest energy of electron: 512 keV ~ 0.5 MeV

Rest energy of proton: 939 MeV ~ 1 GeV



24.1: Major components of the primary cosmic radiation (from Ref. 1).



# Relativistic gyro radius

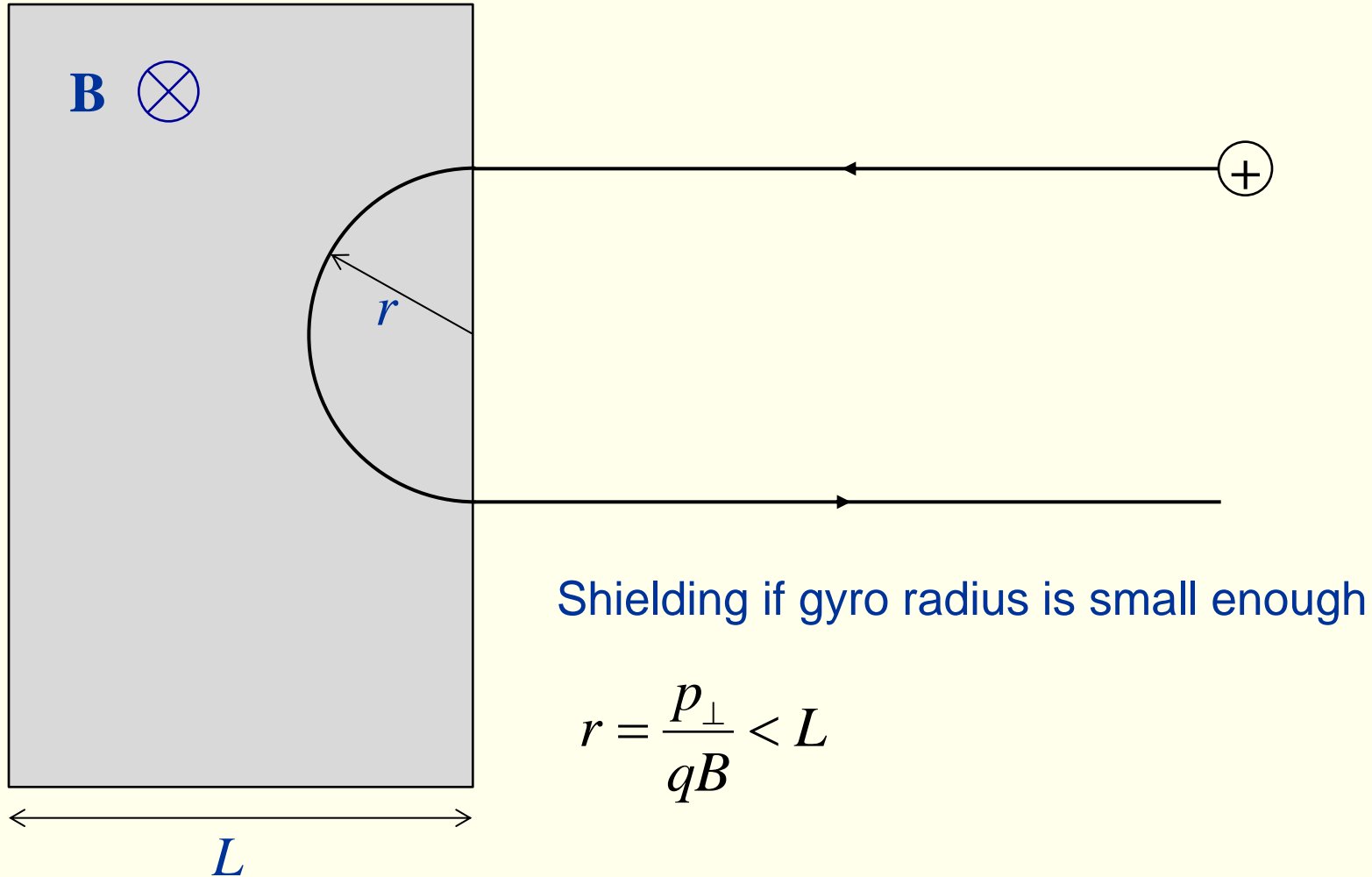
Non-relativistic  
gyro radius

$$r_L = \frac{mv_{\perp}}{qB} = \frac{p_{\perp}}{qB}$$

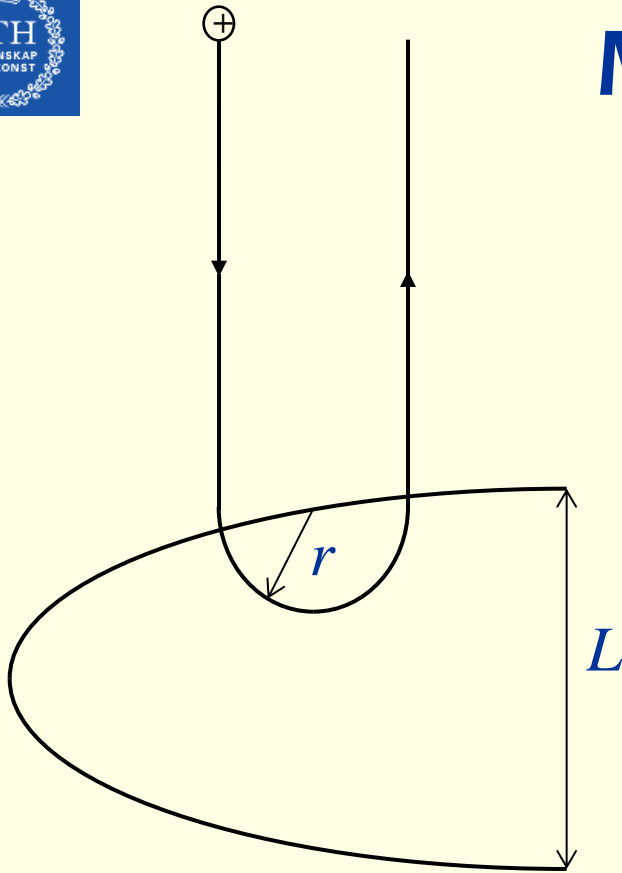
Relativistic  
gyro radius

$$r_L = \frac{p_{rel,\perp}}{qB} = \gamma \frac{mv_{\perp}}{qB}$$

# Magnetic shielding



# Magnetic shielding of magnetosphere



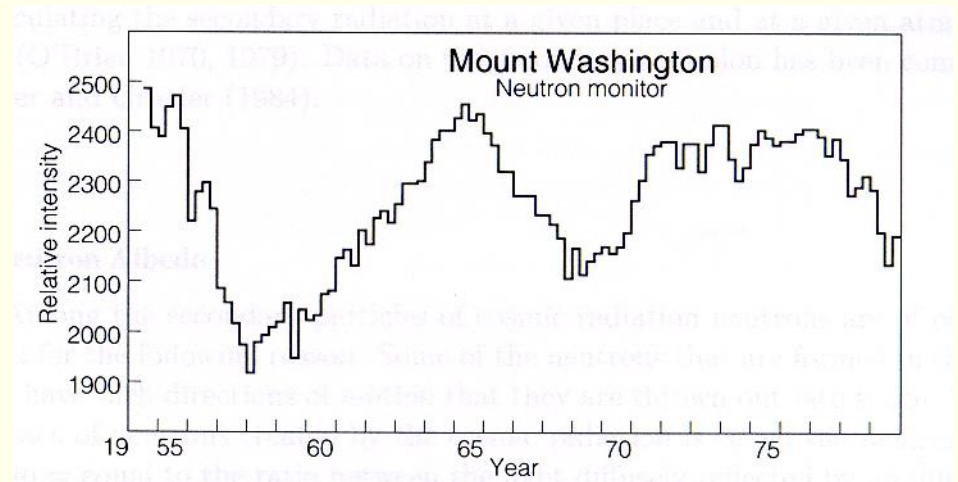
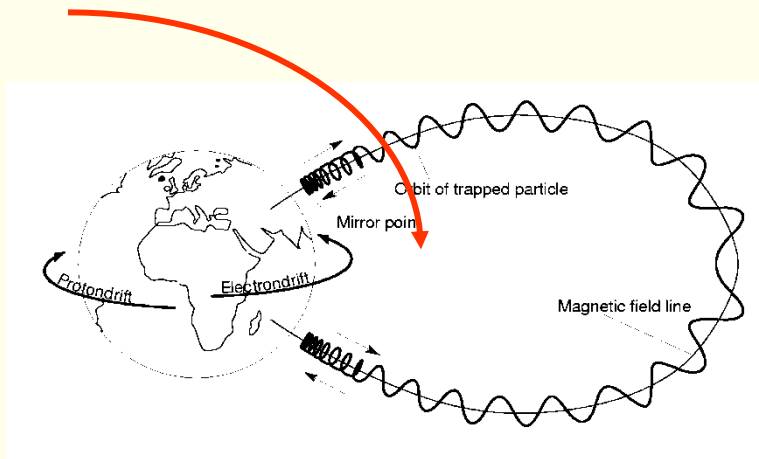
Shielding if

$$r = \frac{p_{\perp}}{qB} < L$$

What will be the maximum energy of cosmic ray particles that will be shielded?

# Effect of magnetic field

- Cosmic radiation is affected by magnetic field, as all the smaller the gyro radius, the more difficult it is for the particle to reach Earth.

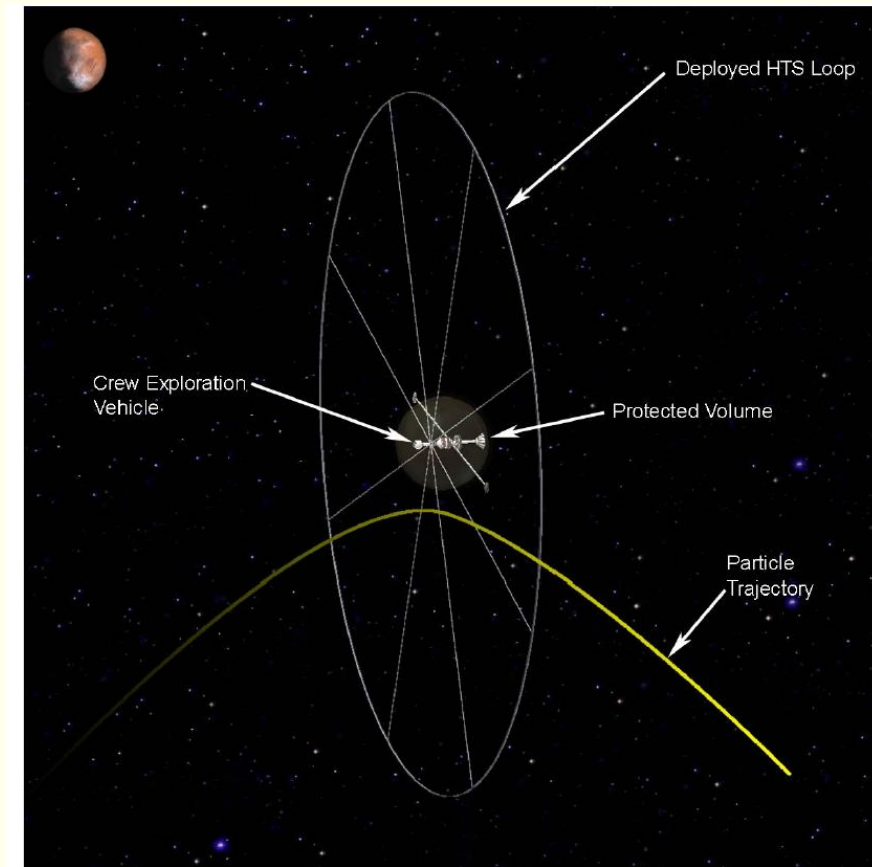


- Gyro radius is  $r = p/(eZB)$ .  
Define rigidity:

$$P = pc/(eZ)$$

- Temporal variations:
  - 27 days (IMF, solar rotation)
  - 11 years (IMF, solar cycle)

# Artificial magnetic shielding of spacecraft

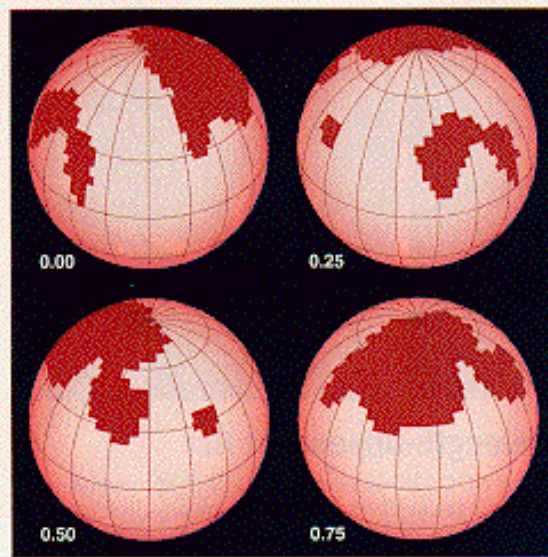




# *Plasma outside of the solar system*



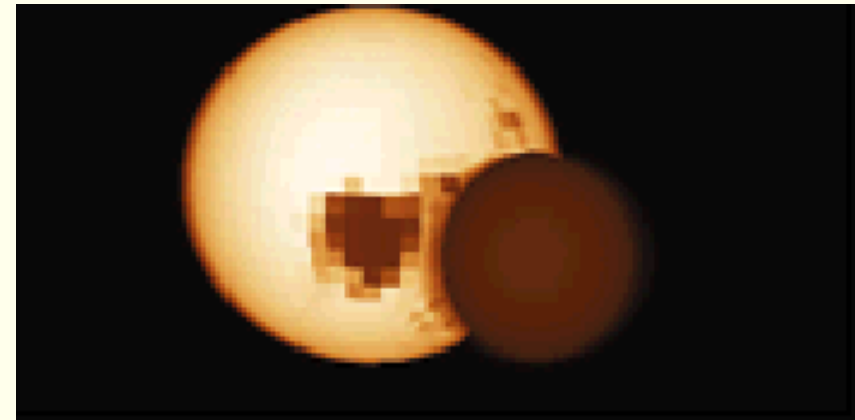
# Starspots



The pre-main-sequence star V410 Tauri possesses a large, long-lived starspot near its polar cap. This map of the star's surface, depicted at four phases in its 1.87-day rotational period, was constructed by tracking changes in the star's spectral lines that were caused by the spots' rotation in and out of view. Courtesy Artie P. Hatzes.

## STARSPOTS by Doppler Imaging

Sky & Telescope  
April 1996



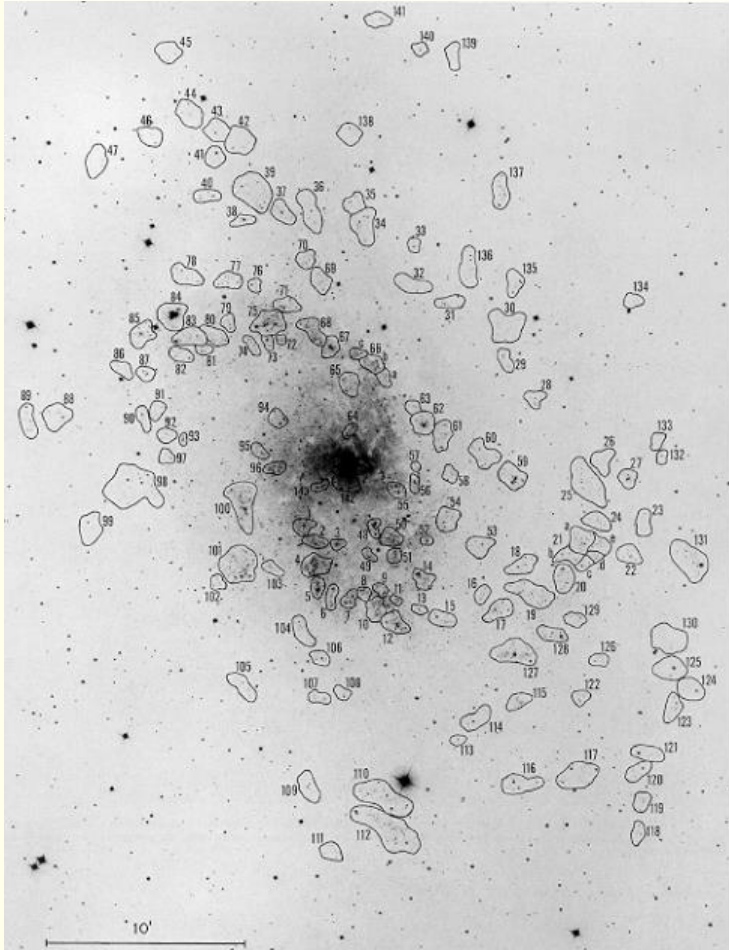
Eclipse mapping, XY Ursae Majoris

# Stellar winds

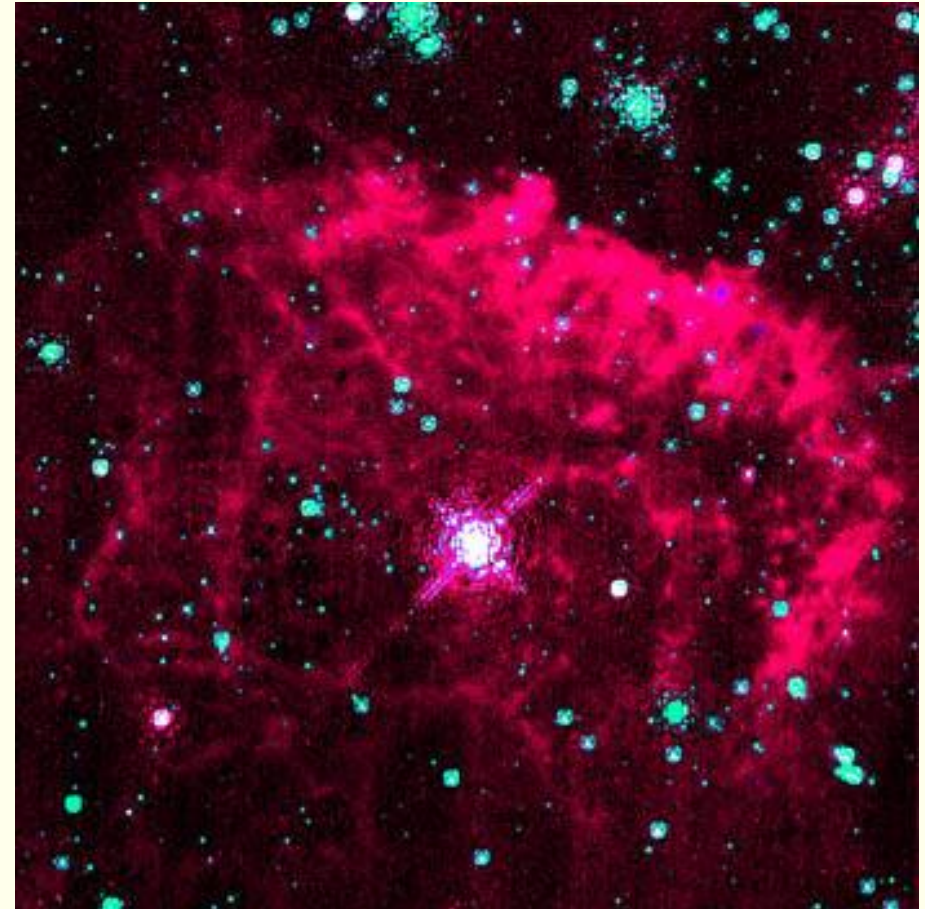
Star	Type	Mass ( $M_{\odot}$ )	M-dot ( $M_{\odot}/\text{yr}$ )	$v_{\infty}$ (km/s)
$\alpha$ Sco (Antares)	M1.5 Iab-Ib	15	$1 \times 10^{-6}$	17
<a href="#">Sun</a>	G2V	1	$1 \times 10^{-14}$	200 – 700
<a href="#"><math>\zeta</math> Pup</a> (Naos)	O4I(n)f	59	$2.7 \times 10^{-6}$ $2.4 \times 10^{-6}$	– 2,200
<a href="#">P Cyg</a>	"B0Ia" ( <a href="#">LBV</a> )	30- 60	$1.5 \times 10^{-5}$	210
WR1	WN5 ( <a href="#">W-R</a> )		$6 \times 10^{-5}$	2,000

~20 % of the mass during the star's life time

# Stellar winds



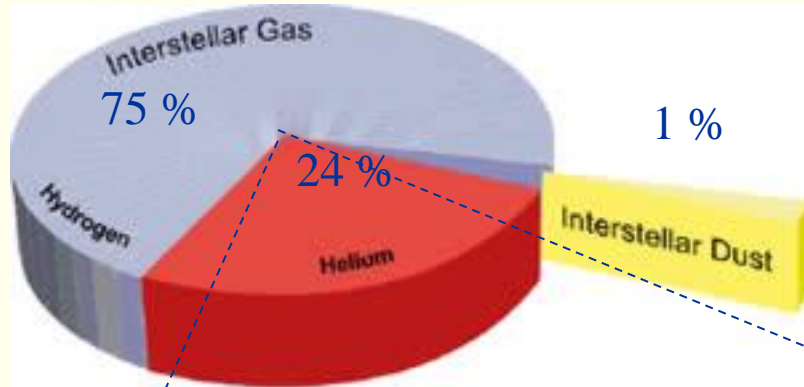
Doppler measurements of stellar winds



Pistol nebula – probably created by massive outflow of stellar plasma

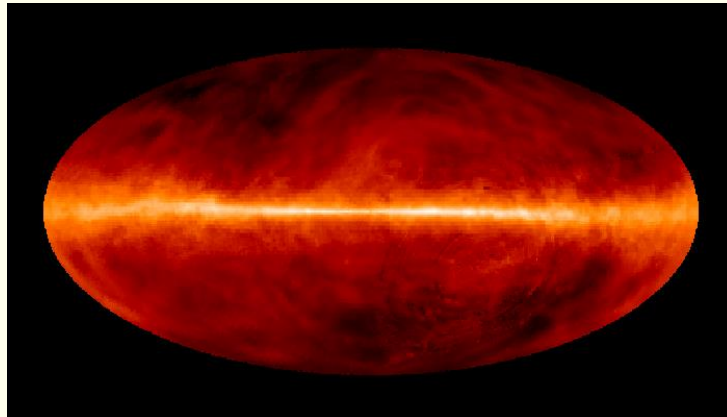
# Interstellar plasma

Interstellar matter (10 % of Milky Way mass)



*Horsehead nebula*

**HI regions (neutral hydrogen)**



**HII regions (emission nebulae)**

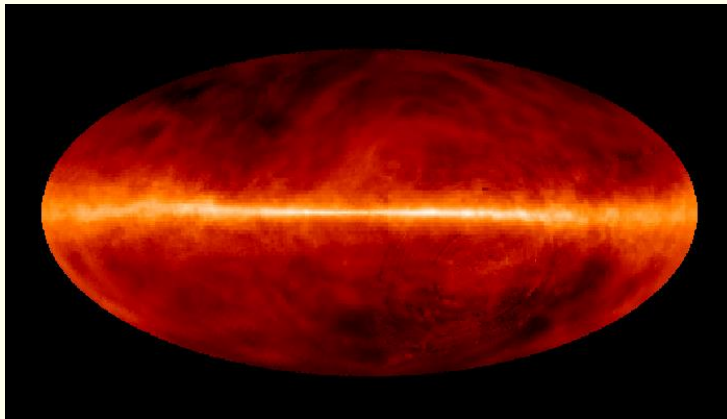


*Triffid nebula*

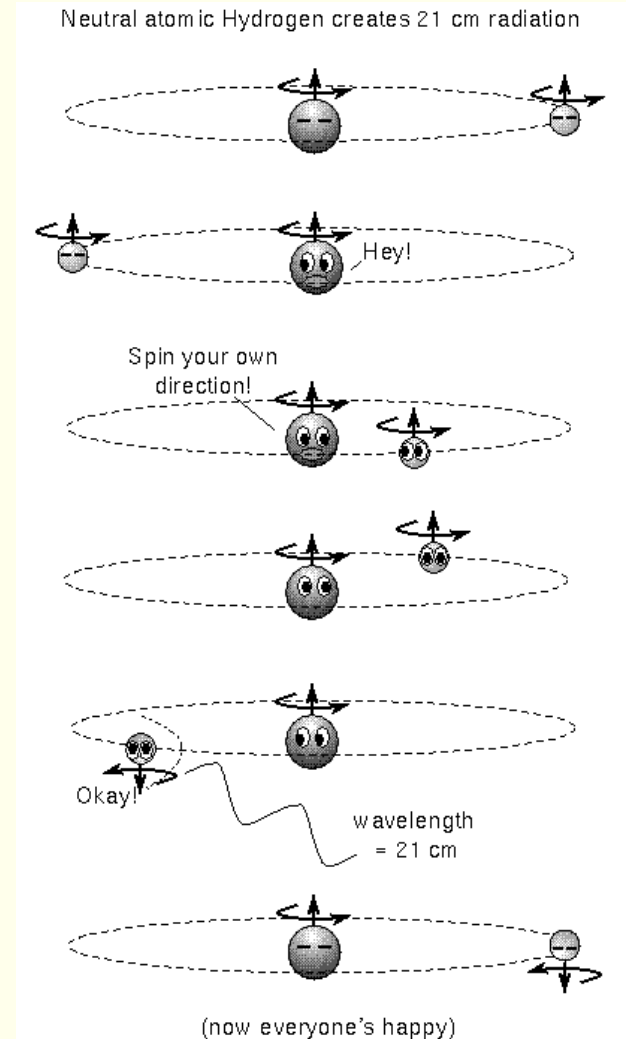


# H1 regions

- *Not reached by UV radiation from stars*
- *Either diffuse or concentrated as **interstellar clouds***
- *Mostly contains unionized hydrogen, but also some ionized Ca*
- *Density of diffuse part is  $0.1 - 50 \text{ cm}^{-3}$*
- *Ionization degree  $\sim 0.01 \%$*
- *$T \sim 50 - 100 \text{ K}$*
- *$B \sim 0.1 \text{ nT}$*

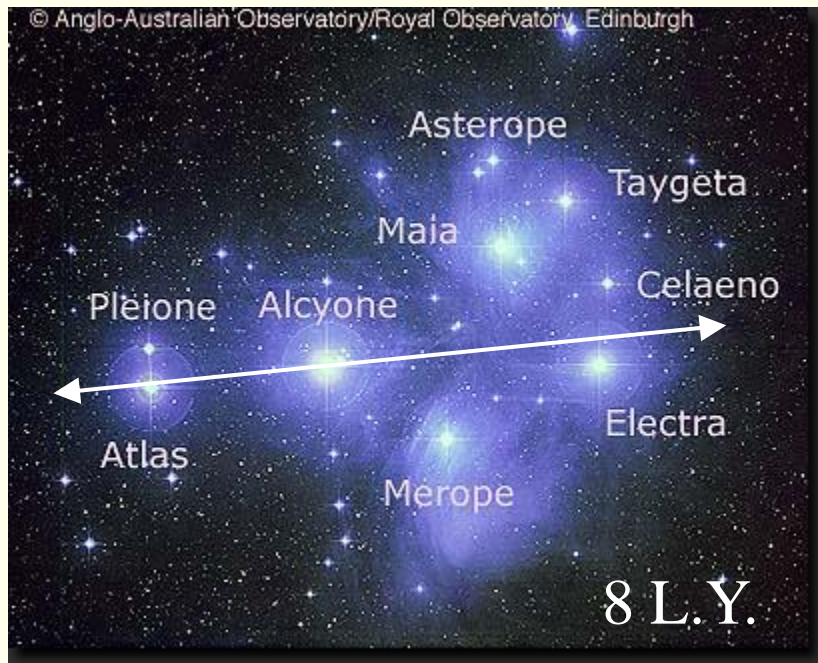


*Distribution of interstellar H I gas in the Northern sky, observed at the 21 cm radio spectral line.*



# H1 regions are reservoirs of material for star formation

Stars are formed by gravitational collaps of interstellar clouds



*Pleiades cluster*

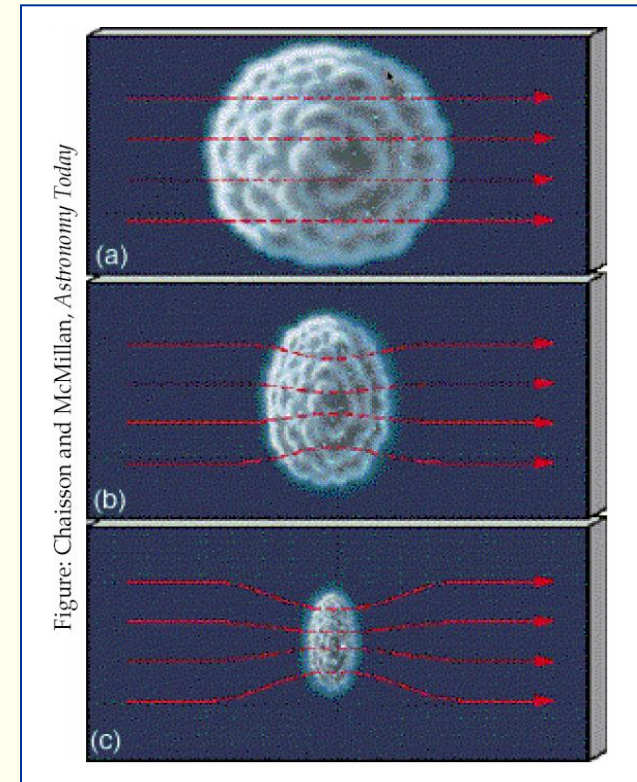
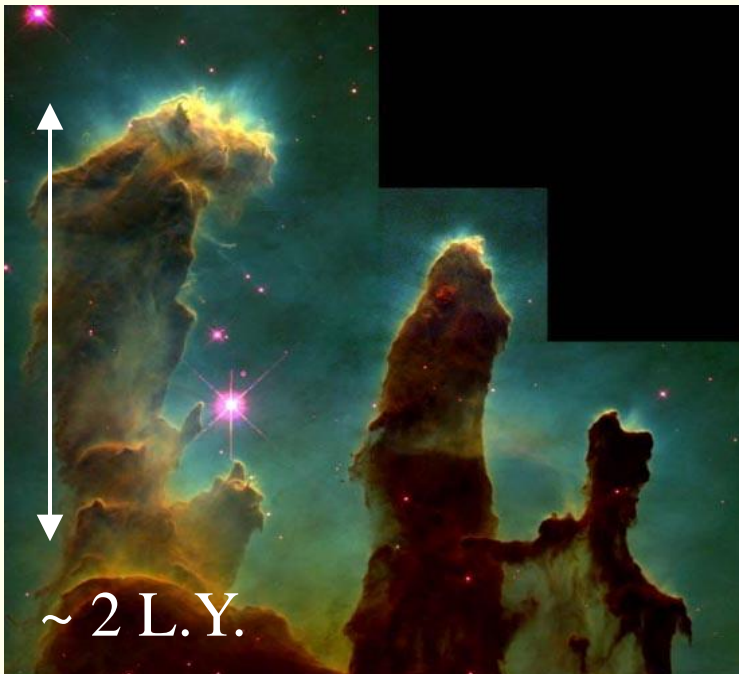
*Closeup of region close to Merope*



The emissions are caused by reflection by the dust particle component of the clouds.

# H I regions are reservoirs of material for star formation

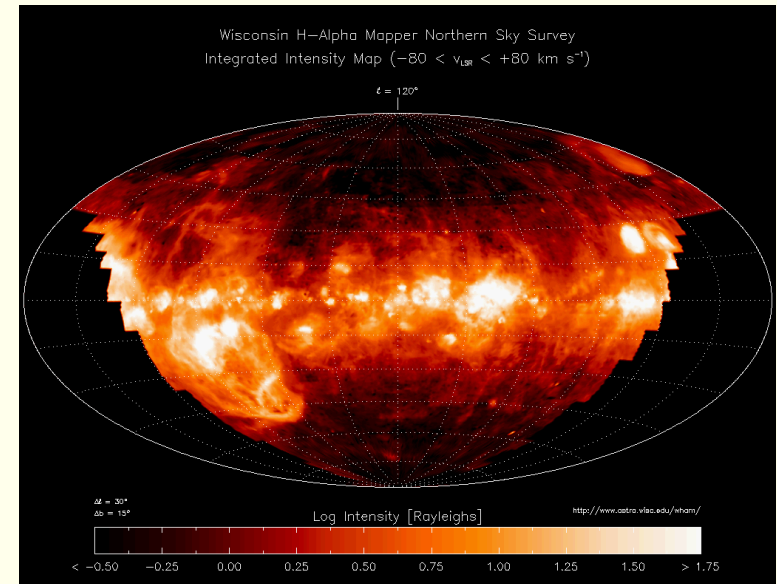
The interstellar medium is turbulent, and localized density enhancements (clouds) are often created. These may contain molecular Hydrogen and dust.



The small ionized part of the cloud can collapse more easily along B than across it, because of the gyro motion, creating a pancake form. Centrifugal forces may also be important.

# Interstellar plasma — HII regions

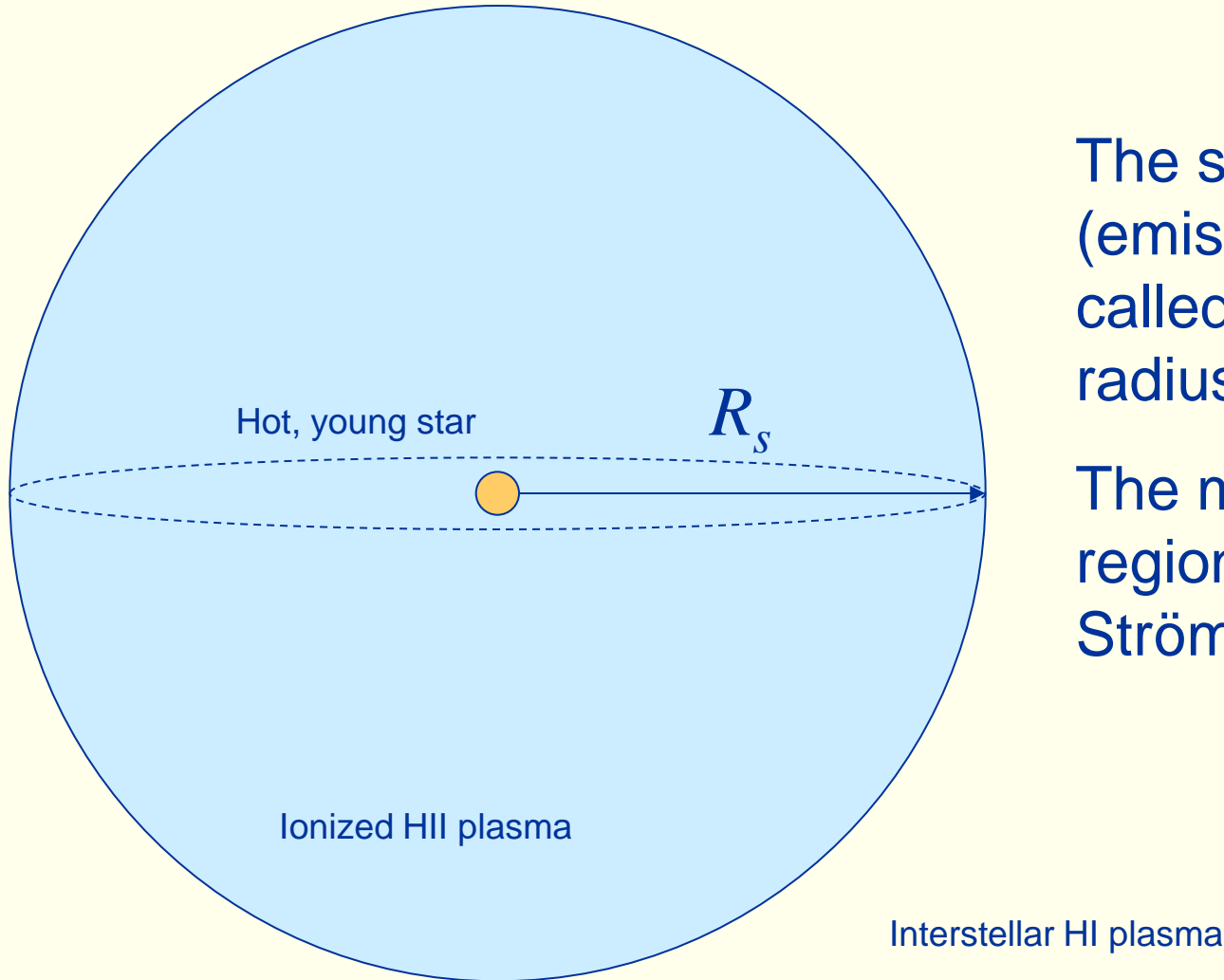
- Reached by UV radiation by young hot stars.
- Mostly contains ionized hydrogen
- Approx. same density as HI regions.
- Ionization degree  $\sim 100\%$
- $T \sim 10\,000\text{ K}$
- $B \sim 1\text{ nT}$



*Distribution of interstellar HII gas in the Northern sky*



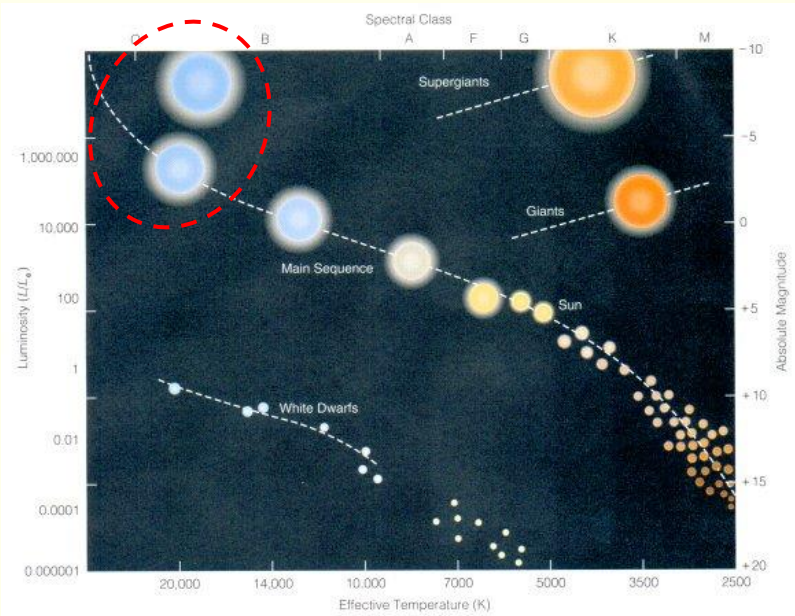
# Strömgren sphere



The size of the HII region (emission nebula) is called the Strömgren radius,  $R_s$ .

The modelled, spherical region is called a Strömgren sphere.

# Strömgren sphere



*Herzsprung-Russel diagram*

- A hot star ( $> 30\,000\text{ K}$ ) emits significant numbers of photons with energy  $> 13.6\text{ eV}$  (ionization energy for H I)  $\leftrightarrow \lambda < 912\text{ \AA} = \text{EUV radiation}$
- The star emits  $N_{UV}$  photons/s
- Interstellar plasma originally contains  $n_0$  H I atoms
- The absorption cross section of H I is very high, so EUV radiation is quickly absorbed and we can assume 100 % ionization ratio.

# Strömgren radius

- The recombination rate inside the Strömgren radius is

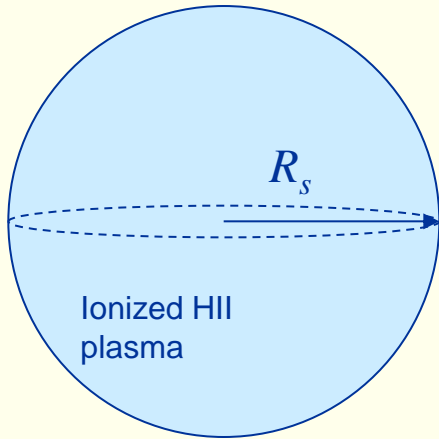
$$r = \alpha_H n_e n_p = \alpha_H n_e^2 = \alpha_H n_H^2$$

- In equilibrium, we have

$$N_{UV} = rV = \alpha_H n_H^2 \frac{4\pi R_s^3}{3} \Rightarrow$$

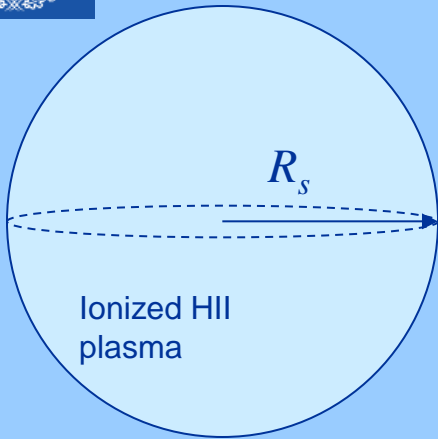
$$R_s = \left( \frac{3N_{UV}}{4\pi\alpha_H n_H^2} \right)^{1/3}$$

→ Hotter star  
→ Denser gas



Interstellar HI plasma

# Strömgren radius



Interstellar HI plasma

$$\alpha_H \approx 3 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$N_{UV}$  can be determined by considering black-body radiation properties of the star (Temperature and surface area). For a hot, young star it can be  $\sim 10^{49} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . For a typical HII density of  $n_H = 35 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , what is the Strömgren radius in light years?

$$R_s = \left( \frac{3N_{UV}}{4\pi\alpha_H n_H^2} \right)^{1/3}$$

Blue

0.2 L.Y.

Yellow

2000 L.Y.

Red

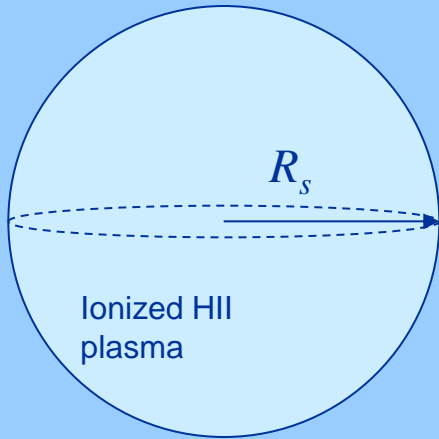
20 L.Y.

Green

$2 \times 10^5$  L.Y.

# Strömgren radius

$N_{UV}$  can be determined by considering black-body radiation properties of the star (Temperature and surface area). For a hot, young star it can be  $\sim 10^{49} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . For a typical HI density of  $n_H = 35 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , we get



Interstellar HI plasma

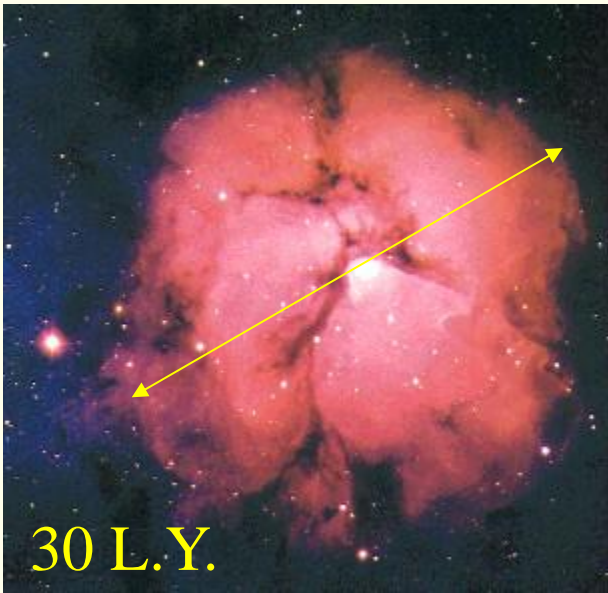
$$\alpha_H \approx 3 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

Red

$$R_s = \left( \frac{3N_{UV}}{4\pi\alpha_H n_H^2} \right)^{1/3} = \left( \frac{3 \cdot 10^{49}}{4\pi \cdot 3 \cdot 10^{-19} \cdot (3.5 \cdot 10^7)^2} \right)^{1/3} =$$

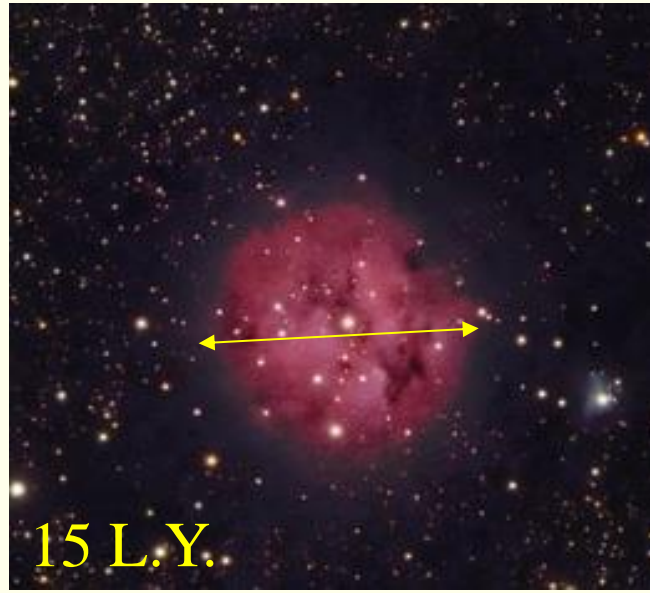
$$1.9 \cdot 10^{17} \text{ m} = 20 \text{ L.Y.}$$

# Emission nebulae



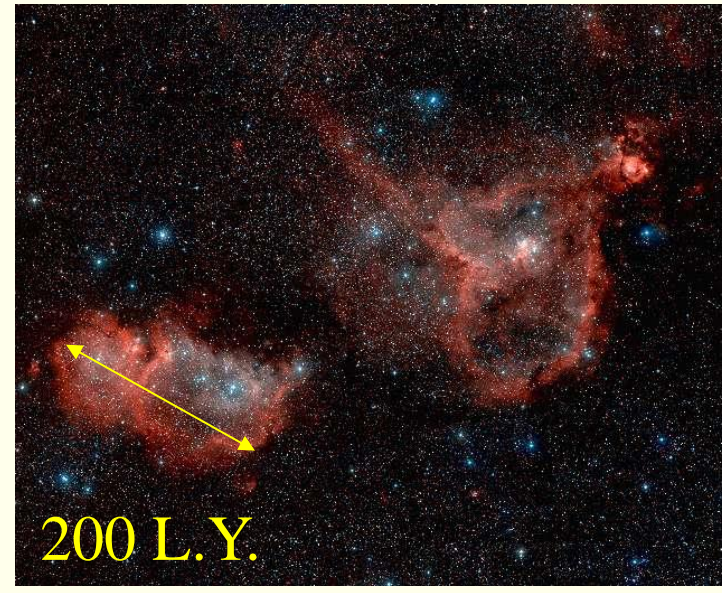
30 L.Y.

*Trifid nebula (Messier 20)*



15 L.Y.

*IC5146*



200 L.Y.

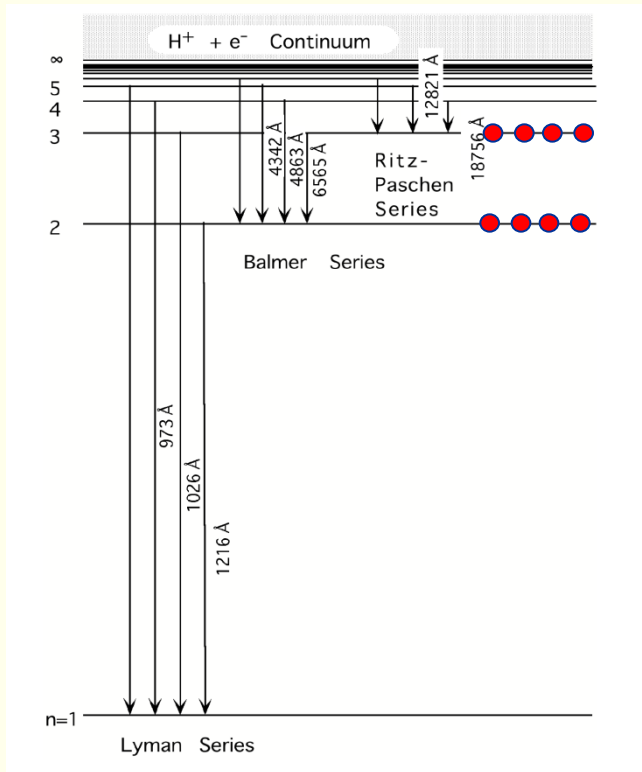
*Heart and Soul nebulae  
(IC1805, IC1848)*

- Emission nebulae often appear red, due to a prominent emission in the Balmer series
- May be non-spherical due to
  - *Gradients in the background medium*
  - *Multiple stars at the core*

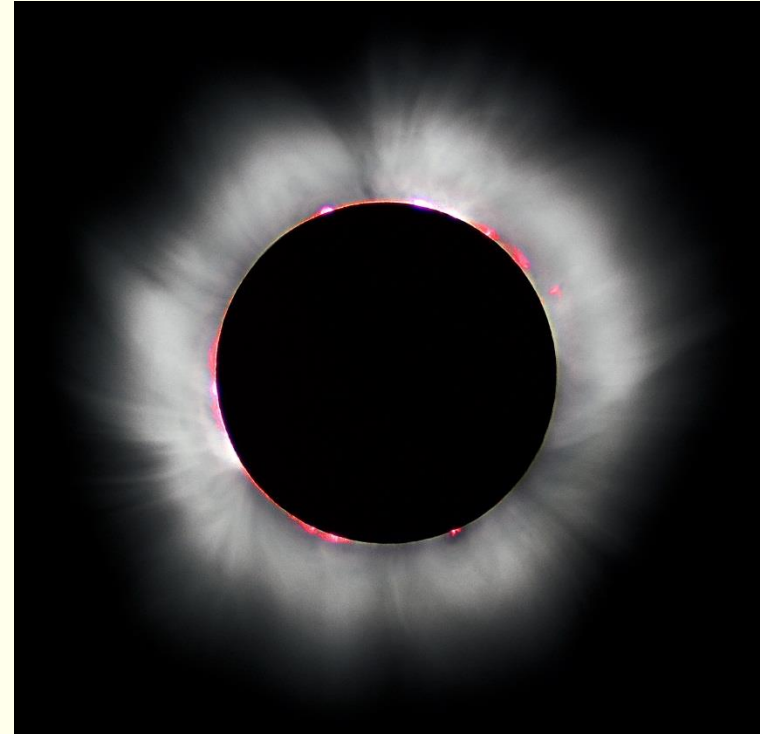


# Why is the chromosphere red?

## Hydrogen spectrum

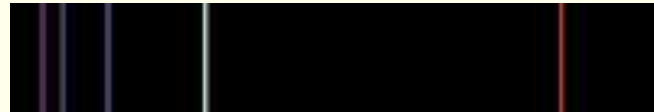


$T_2$   
 $T_1$

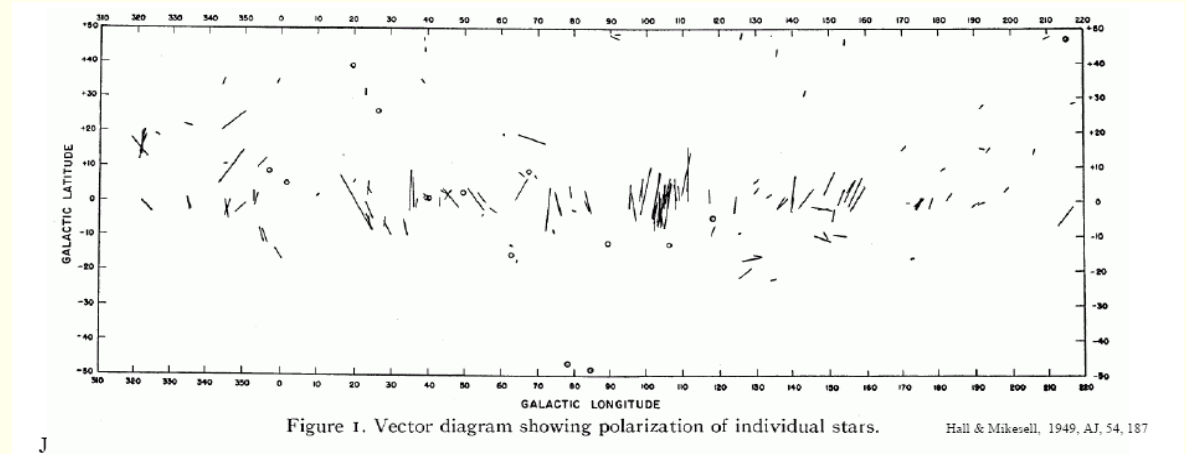


$H\gamma$   $H\beta$   
434 nm 486 nm

$H\alpha$   
656 nm



# Interstellar magnetic field



HI regions:  $\sim 0.1$  nT

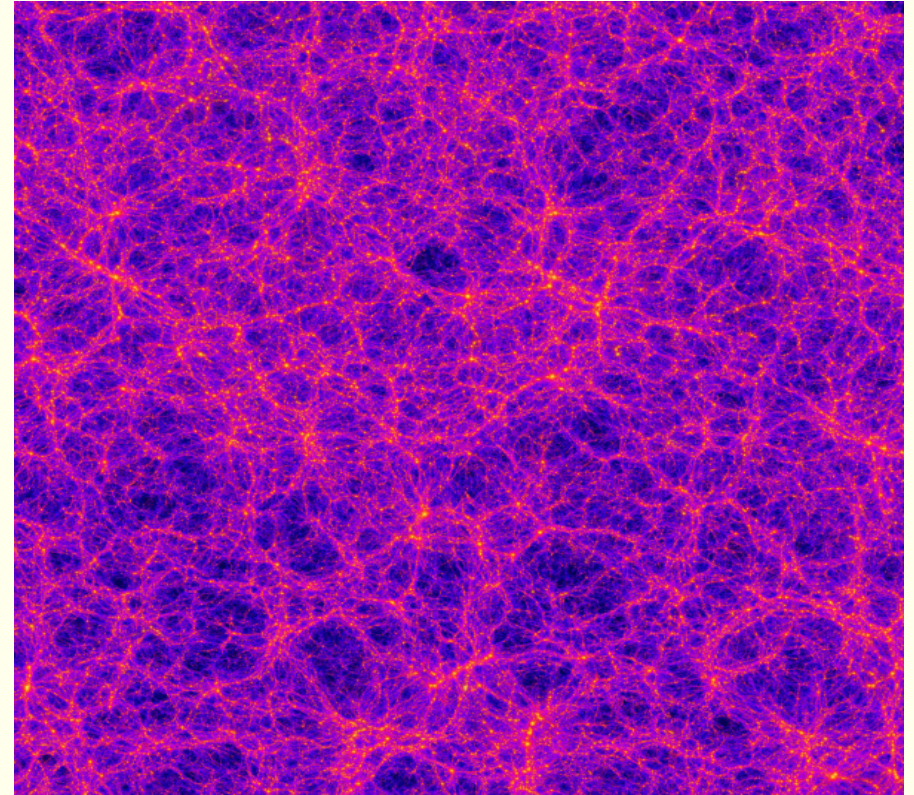
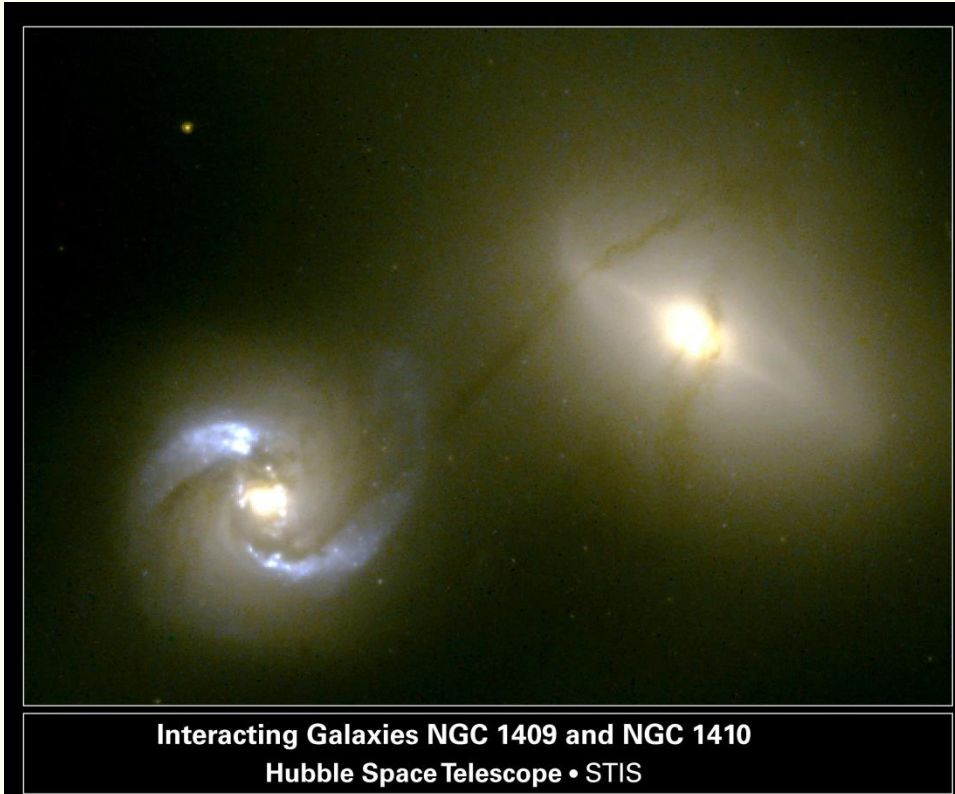
HII regions:  $\sim 1$  nT

*Magnetic field important also in the interstellar medium!*



# Intergalactic matter

$2.7 \cdot 10^9$  light years



Computer simulation of intergalactic mass distribution



# Intergalactic plasma

- Mostly made up of “bridges” between galaxies ( $\sim 10^6$  l.y.) (Radius of Milky Way is  $\sim 10^4$  l.y.)
- Detected by radio telescope measurements of synchrotron radiation from energetic electrons.
- Typical densities are  $10^{-4}$  cm $^{-3}$
- Typical magnetic field:  $B \sim 10^{-2}$  nT



# ***Last Minute!***



# Last Minute!

- What was the most important thing of today's lecture? Why?
- What was the most unclear or difficult thing of today's lecture, and why?
- Other comments