

## CHAPTER 11: THE INTERSTELLAR MEDIUM

## NOTES AND SKETCHES

## 11.1: THE INTERSTELLAR MEDIUM

**Gas and Dust**

- ◆ The empty vacuum of space is not actually entirely empty
- ◆ Interstellar medium permeates
- ◆ Gas: Individual atoms or free molecules
- ◆ Dust: Clumps of atoms or molecules
- ◆ Clumps: Still pretty tiny ( $10^{-7}\text{m}$ )

**Scattering**

- ◆ Dust grains are about the same size as the wavelength of blue visible light
- ◆ Shorter wavelength blue light is scattered
- ◆ Longer wavelengths are unaffected
- ◆ Regions with lots of dust are transparent to long wavelengths, but opaque to short wavelengths

**Interstellar Reddening**

- ◆ Light passing through dusty region (or cloud) will be "reddened"
- ◆ Blue light scatters, red light passes through: Object appears redder (therefore cooler) than it actually is
- ◆ Effect is cumulative: Longer path or thicker cloud
- ◆ More distant object along same line of sight: Longer path, more reddening
- ◆ Objects at same distance in different directions: Thicker medium, more reddening

**Spectrum Correction**

- ◆ Blue light scattered more than red, but some blue light still transmitted
- ◆ Same spectral lines appear for star: Additional absorption lines possible as gas/dust absorbs certain frequencies
- ◆ Same lines for star means correct identification and classification are not a problem

**Density and Composition of the Interstellar Medium**

- ◆ Not really empty is still pretty darn empty
- ◆ About 1 atom or molecule per cubic centimeter
- ◆ By comparison, the Earth's atmosphere has about  $10^{19}$  molecules per cubic cm

**Surprise! More Hydrogen!**

- ◆ Easy to determine the composition of the gas: Spectroscopy
- ◆ It's hydrogen (90%)
- ◆ What not hydrogen is helium (9%)
- ◆ That last 1%: Everything else
- ◆ Dust is more complicated, because you have atoms and molecules stuck together

## 11.2: STAR-FORMING REGIONS

**Nebulae**

- ◆ Anything fuzzy that isn't a star (or planet) is a nebula
- ◆ Technically, a cloud of interstellar gas and/or dust
- ◆ Dark nebulae: Dark. Nebulous. Hence the name.

**Emission Nebulae**

- ◆ Glow because they are hot
- ◆ You will typically find a very hot, very new, O or B star (or maybe a few of them) in the center
- ◆ Cloud usually looks red because H-alpha absorption/emission dominates
- ◆ Dark dust lanes are part of nebula
- ◆ Typical density about  $10^2$  atoms per  $\text{cm}^3$

**Reflection Nebula**

- ◆ Cooler: Not glowing
- ◆ Light is reflected/scattered instead of absorbed/emitted
- ◆ Bluish color

**Ultraviolet Astronomy and the "Local Bubble"**

- ◆ Interstellar medium is not uniform, does not have uniform temperature
- ◆ Denser regions are cooler: Opaque to UV
- ◆ Very low density regions are hotter: Transparent to UV
- ◆ Sun is near the center of a low-density bubble
- ◆ Density about 5000 atoms per  $\text{m}^3$ , or 1 atom per every  $200\text{cm}^3$
- ◆ Bubble is probably the result of a supernova explosion about 300,000 years ago

**11.3: DARK DUST CLOUDS**

- ◆ Very dark: Do not emit or reflect visible light
- ◆ Very cold: Less than 100K
- ◆ Very dense: 1000 atoms per  $\text{cm}^3$  (very dense is obviously relative to interstellar media in general)

**Obscuration of Visible Light**

- ◆ How do you know it's there, if it's dark?
- ◆ Opaque to visible does not mean opaque to all frequencies: Low temperature, look for long wavelength, low frequency emissions
- ◆ No visible glow, but infrared glow
- ◆ Dark dust can have a radio signature
- ◆ Dark dust is cool enough to contain molecules

**Another Hydrogen Emission Line**

- ◆ Not the orbit-jumping type we looked at before
- ◆ Particles spin: Analogous to sun and planets spinning
- ◆ If electron and proton have matching spin, the electron can spontaneously "spin-flip"
- ◆ By flipping itself upside down, the electron's opposite spin results in a lower-energy state for the atom
- ◆ Energy has to be emitted in the process: Just a little bit, corresponding to a low-energy photon

**21-Centimeter Radiation**

- ◆ A hydrogen spin-flip transition emits a photon with wavelength = 21 cm (low frequency radio wave)
- ◆ So what? Well, the process is going to happen everywhere there's atomic hydrogen...which would be...everywhere
- ◆ Stronger line means more hydrogen
- ◆ Line is not attenuated: Long wavelength is not absorbed or affected by any other interstellar debris
- ◆ Does not tell you anything about actual stars, but tells you a lot about the "emptiness" between them

**Molecular Gas**

- ◆ The darkest, densest clouds are the most complex
- ◆ High density: About  $10^6$  molecules per  $\text{cm}^3$  (again, dense is a very relative comparison)
- ◆ Low temperature: 20K-ish
- ◆ Molecular Clouds
- ◆ Molecules can form: Complex, multi-atom structures: HCN,  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{CO}$
- ◆ 21-cm line disappears: Atomic hydrogen actually forms molecular hydrogen ( $\text{H}_2$ )
- ◆ Lines from everything else start to show up across the radio frequencies

**Molecular Cloud Complexes**

- ◆ Bright emission nebulae emerge from these dark, dense clouds
- ◆ To quote the textbook: An emission nebula "bursts out" when star formation heats up a region and ionizes the cold cloud
- ◆ The cold clouds are not actually separate, discrete clouds: They trail across huge swaths of space

## 11.4 THE FORMATION OF STARS LIKE THE SUN

### Gravity and Heat

- ◆ Molecular cloud in equilibrium: Gravity pulls inward, balanced by outward heat pressure
- ◆ Disturb the equilibrium, gently (slowly): Cloud cools, molecules move more slowly, gravity is greater than pressure, clumps start to form
- ◆ Disturb the equilibrium, violently (rapidly): Shockwave from nearby supernova or an emission nebula "bursts out" with O and B star formation
- ◆ To generate star formation, the rapid method is the way to go (neither you nor I have the billions of years it would take to let a molecular cloud just cool and collapse "naturally")
- ◆ Lower limit: Less than about  $10^{37}$  atoms, and you don't have enough mass to ultimately ignite the fusion reaction

### Stage 1: An Interstellar Cloud

- ◆ Huge cloud: Tens of pc across
- ◆ Cold cloud: About 10K
- ◆ Dense cloud: At least 1000 particles per  $\text{cm}^3$  (hopefully more)

### Fragmentation

- ◆ Whatever starts the cloud collapse, as it collapses it fragments
- ◆ Local regions collapse together independently of other regions
- ◆ Cloud becomes many, multiple, smaller clouds (which helps explain multi-star systems)
- ◆ Fragmentation stops when the density of the pieces increases enough to increase the temperature and pressure
- ◆ This process takes several million years

### Stage 2 : A Contracting Cloud Fragment

- ◆ Fragment mass: 1-2 solar masses
- ◆ Fragment size: 100 times the diameter of the solar system
- ◆ Fragment density:  $10^6$  particles per  $\text{cm}^3$
- ◆ Fragment temperature: Gradient from about 100K at the center to about 10K at the edges
- ◆ Tens of thousands of years pass as this cloud keeps gradually collapsing

### Stage 3: Almost a Protostar

- ◆ Size: Reduced to about the diameter of the solar system
- ◆ Density: Up to  $10^{12}$  particles per  $\text{cm}^3$
- ◆ Temperature: Gradient from about 10,000K at the center to about 10K at the edges
- ◆ What makes it "proto?" Starts to have a discernible shape, photospheric surface

### Stage 4: A Protostar

- ◆ Still collapsing, getting hotter, getting denser
- ◆ All those beautiful complex molecules? Mostly shredded. Literally ripped into constituent particles by the high heat at the core
- ◆ Star is getting hot enough to radiate in the infrared/red (at the photosphere/surface), but no fusion yet (much hotter at core, still not hot enough)
- ◆ Properties can be plotted on H-R diagram: Start to map out lifecycle of star

### Stage 5: Protostellar Evolution

- ◆ And so it goes: More collapsing, more heating up
- ◆ Rate starts to decrease: Collapsing more slowly

### The T-Tauri Phase

- ◆ Remember that all this evolution is happening to a cloud that is spinning
- ◆ Spin generates protostellar winds
- ◆ Bipolar flow: Jets of matter shoot out perpendicular to the plane of rotation

**Stages 6 and 7: A Newborn Star**

- ◆ After the dramatic display of mass ejection during the T-Tauri phase, we are left (in this example) with a bit more than 1 solar mass
- ◆ It takes about 10 million years from when we first started, but we are finally going to light the fuse
- ◆ For that amount of mass, if you shrink it to  $10^6$  km across, heat it up to 10 million K at the core, you have enough pressure to ignite fusion
- ◆ Star is still a bit bigger and a bit cooler than the sun

**And Still More Time Passes...**

- ◆ Another 30-odd million years or so, while the star still slowly shrinks
- ◆ By the time it reaches the size of our sun, its temperature has increased to about 6000K
- ◆ Core always much, much hotter and much, much denser
- ◆ Call it Stage 7 when the star hits the main sequence and achieves hydrostatic equilibrium

**11.5: STARS AND OTHER MASSES****The Pre-Main Sequence**

- ◆ Where a star lands on the main sequence depends on where it started: How much mass the original fragment contained
- ◆ How long it takes depends on the mass as well: More massive stars reach the main sequence more quickly

**The Zero-Age Main Sequence**

- ◆ What we call the main sequence on the H-R diagram is not an evolutionary path
- ◆ A star will not travel up or down the main sequence over the course of its lifetime
- ◆ The main sequence represents the properties a star possesses (temperature, color, luminosity) when it reaches a stable state
- ◆ A Stage 7 star will stay in the same place on the main sequence

**"Failed" Stars**

- ◆ Not every cloud fragment is massive enough to collapse into a fusion-powered star
- ◆ Low-mass fragments still collapse, but never ignite
- ◆ A fragment needs roughly 1/10 a solar mass for fusion

**Brown Dwarfs**

- ◆ Just spinning out there in space, tiny and getting colder (and therefore harder to detect)
- ◆ Same techniques for locating extrasolar planets can be used to find brown dwarfs
- ◆ How many are there? Nobody knows, but it's not unreasonable to guess that there may be as many of them as there are stars that lit up

**11.6: STAR CLUSTERS****Astrophysics Learning Lab**

- ◆ All the stars in a cluster formed from the same original cloud that fragmented
- ◆ Means they are made up from the same set of original molecules: Uniform composition
- ◆ Means they began their evolution at the same time: Uniform age
- ◆ Convenient for making comparisons between star types

**Open Clusters**

- ◆ Stars appear close together in the sky because they really are close together
- ◆ Can have up to several thousand stars
- ◆ Typically pretty small: A few pc across (small being a relative comparison)

**Our Pals the Pleiades**

- ◆ At least 1000 stars identified
- ◆ Most appear to be hot, but there is a huge search for brown dwarfs in the cluster
- ◆ Book states age as "less than 20 million years," based on presence of O-type stars
- ◆ Cluster has to be older than that, based on presence of dimmer, lower-mass stars
- ◆ Geoff Marcy (*Exo! Planet! Rock! Star! Astrophysicist!*) thinks it's closer to 115 million years

**Globular Clusters**

- ◆ Spherical distribution of low mass stars: About 50 pc diameter
- ◆ Located out of the galactic plane
- ◆ Huge number of stars (into the millions), all of them quite old
- ◆ Stars are all low-mass objects (less than solar mass)
- ◆ Makes them enormously old: Probably 10 billion years

**Clusters and Nebulae**

- ◆ Emission nebulae may contain star clusters
- ◆ Stars forming in close proximity to each other affect each other
- ◆ Giant stars can grow faster
- ◆ Collisions/mergers can occur
- ◆ Fewer large stars, more smaller stars