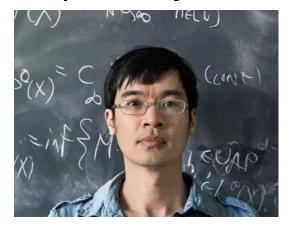
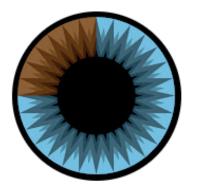
Dr Andrew French

FIFE THE COSMIC LADDER

Inspired by:



3Blue1 Brown Terence Tao's Cosmic Distance Ladder



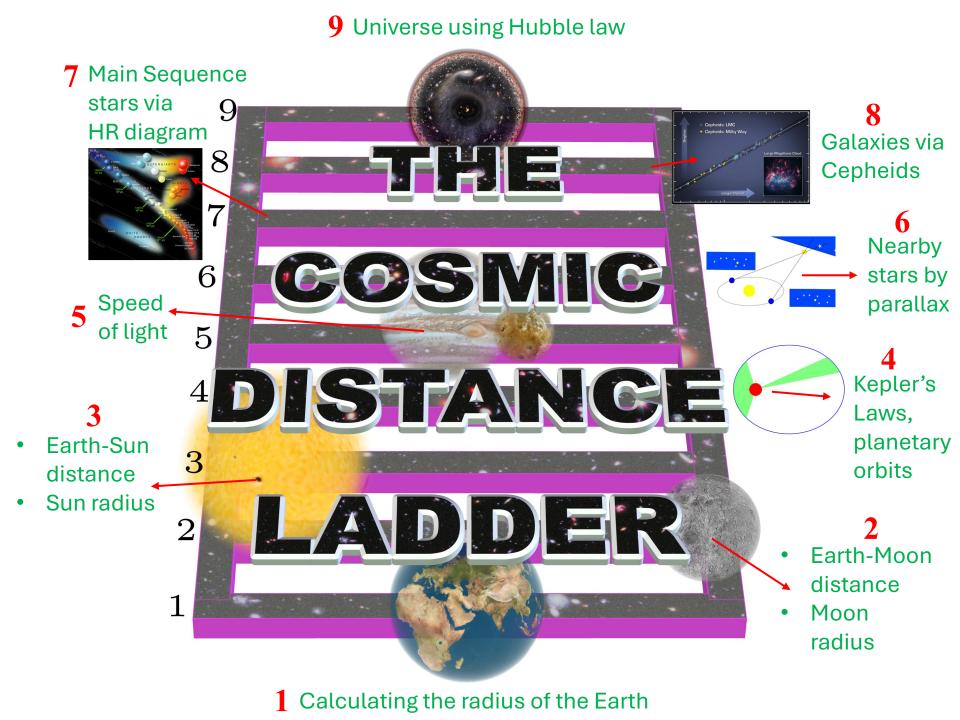
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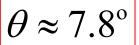


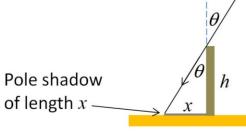
1. Calculating the radius of the Earth

$$R_{\oplus} = 6378 \text{ km}$$

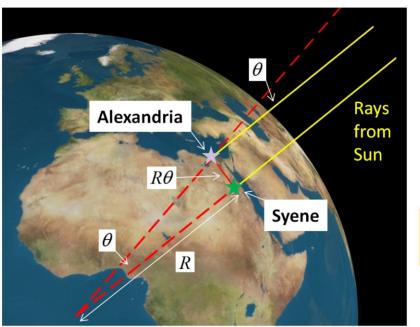


Eratosthenes (276BC-194BC)





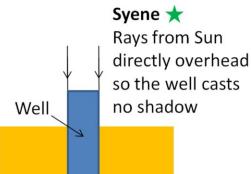
Alexandria 🖈 Rays from Sun at angle θ from a vertical pole



$$R\theta \approx 5000 \times 185 \,\mathrm{m}$$

$$\therefore R \approx \frac{5000 \times 185 \,\text{m}}{7.8 \times \frac{\pi}{180}} = 6.8 \times 10^6 \,\text{m}$$

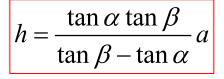
6.6% error

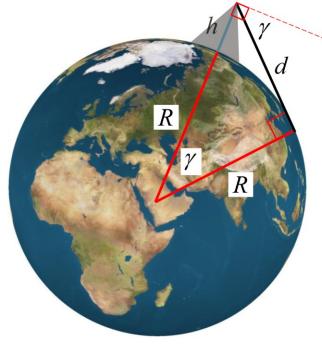




1. Calculating the radius of the Earth

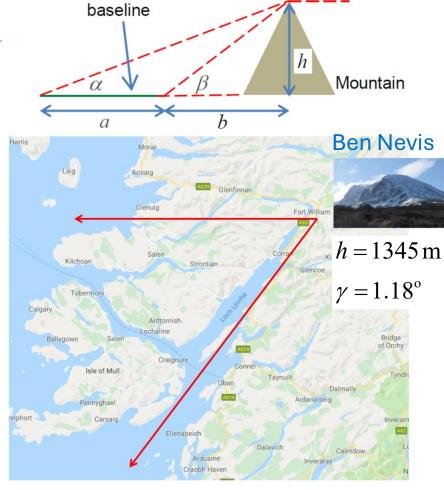
$$R_{\oplus} = 6378 \text{ km}$$





$$(R+h)\cos\gamma = R$$

$$\therefore R = \frac{h\cos\gamma}{1-\cos\gamma}$$



$$R_{\oplus} = \frac{1345\cos(1.18^{\circ})}{1 - \cos(1.18^{\circ})} = 6340 \,\mathrm{km}$$

Khwarazmian Iranian scholar and polymath during the Islamic Golden Age



Al-Biruni

(973-1050)



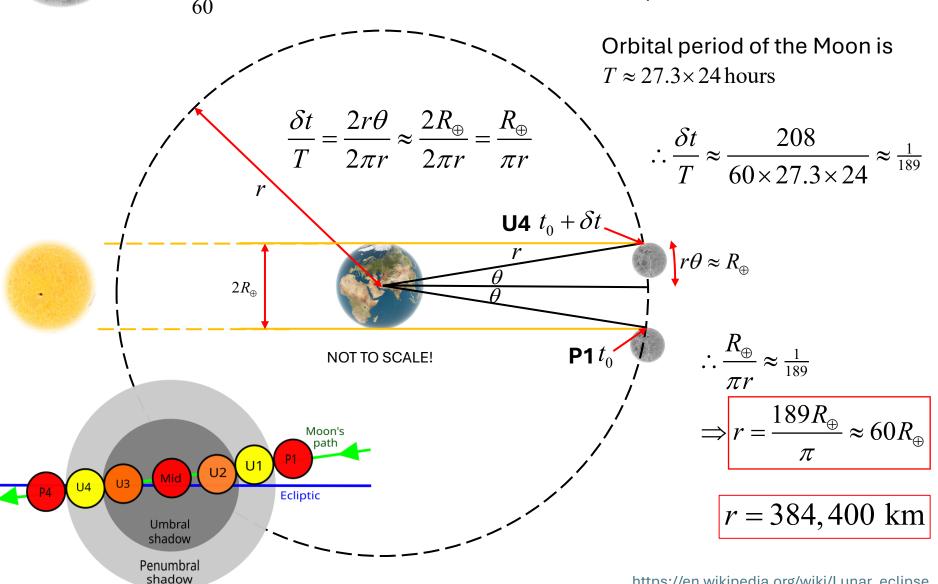
2. Calculating the distance of the moon from the earth, and the radius of the moon

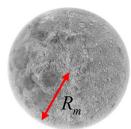
 $R_{\oplus} = 6378 \text{ km}$

From 1.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lunar_eclipse

 $\delta t \approx \frac{208}{60}$ hours is the *maximum* time of a lunar eclipse from **P1** to **U4**.



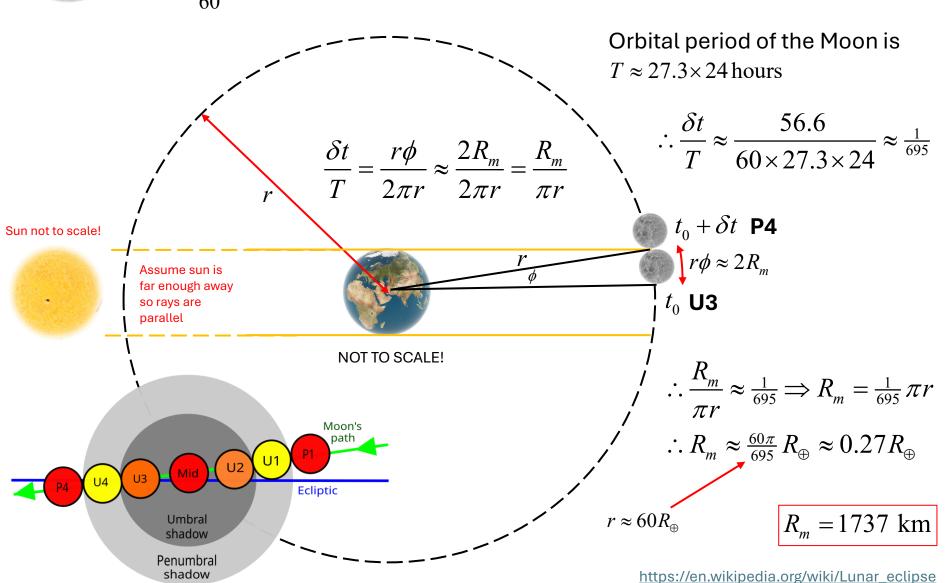


2. Calculating the distance of the moon from the earth, and the <u>radius of the moon</u>

 $R_{\oplus} = 6378 \text{ km}$

From 1.

$$\delta t \approx \frac{56.6}{60}$$
 hours is the maximum time of a lunar eclipse from **U3** to **P4**.





3. Calculating the Earth-Sun distance and the radius of the Sun

Orbital period of the Moon is $T \approx 27.3 \times 24 \text{ hours}$

$$\frac{1}{4}T = 163.8$$
 hours

Precision required!

New Moon

 $180^{\circ} - (90^{\circ} - \theta) = 90^{\circ} + \theta$

$$t = t_0$$

$$\delta t = 164.068 \, \text{hours}$$

i.e. **16 min 3.1s** more than a quarter of an orbital period

$$d \approx 60R_{\oplus}$$
 $r \sin \theta = d$ Half

Sun

Half Moon $t = t_0 + \delta t$

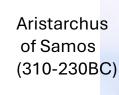
$$\frac{\delta t}{T} = \frac{90^{\circ} + \theta}{360^{\circ}} \Rightarrow \theta = 360^{\circ} \frac{\delta t}{T} - 90^{\circ}$$

$$\therefore \theta = 360^{\circ} \frac{164.068}{27.3 \times 24} - 90^{\circ} = 0.147^{\circ}$$
i.e. small

$$d \approx 60R_{\oplus}$$
, $r\sin\theta = d$

$$\therefore r \approx \frac{60R_{\oplus}}{\sin \theta} \approx \frac{60}{\sin(0.147^{\circ})} = 23,386R_{\oplus}$$

$$\therefore r \approx 1.49 \times 10^8 \text{km}$$



 $R_{\oplus}=6378~\mathrm{km}$ From 1.

 $d \approx 60R_{\oplus} = 384,400 \,\mathrm{km}$

From 2.

2012 definition of an Astronomical Unit

 $1AU = 149,597,870,700 \text{ m} \approx \overline{r_{\odot \oplus}}$



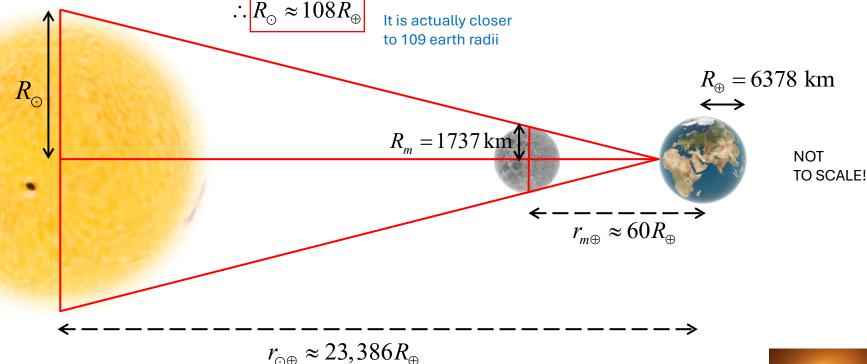
3. Calculating the Earth-Sun distance and the radius of the Sun

During a **total solar eclipse**, the moon obscures the Sun almost exactly*. Hence by similar triangles:

$$\frac{R_{\odot}}{23,385R_{\oplus}} = \frac{R_{m}}{59R_{\oplus}}$$

 $\therefore R_{\odot} \approx \frac{23,385}{59} \times 1737 \,\text{km} \approx 688,470 \,\text{km}$

$$\therefore R_{\odot} \approx 108 R_{\oplus}$$
 It is actually close to 109 earth radii



*The Moon's orbit is slightly elliptical, meaning the Earth-Moon distance varies from 57 to 64 Earth radii. This means you can get an annular eclipse, which means a 'fiery ring' around the moon.



4. Calculating the orbits of the planets in the Solar System





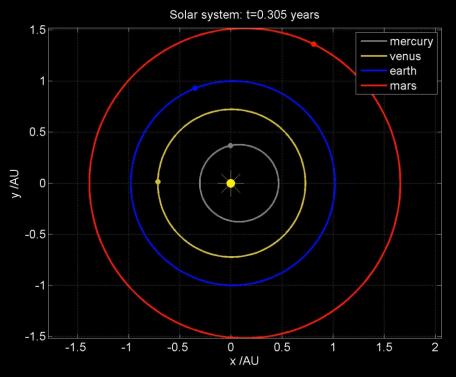


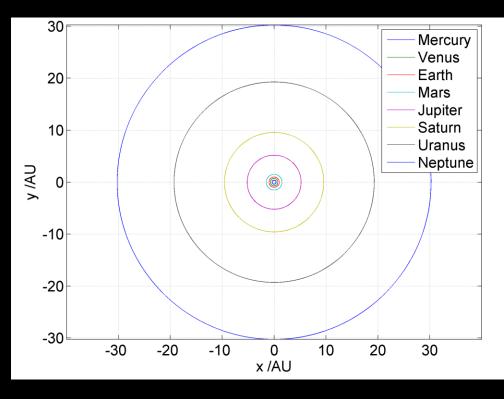














Isaac Newton

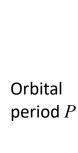
(1642-1727) developed a mathematical model of Gravity which predicted the *elliptical* orbits proposed by Johannes Kepler (1571-1630)

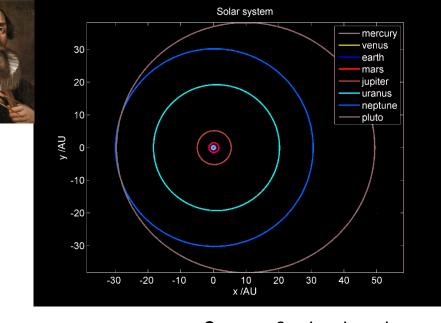
Planet and star masses

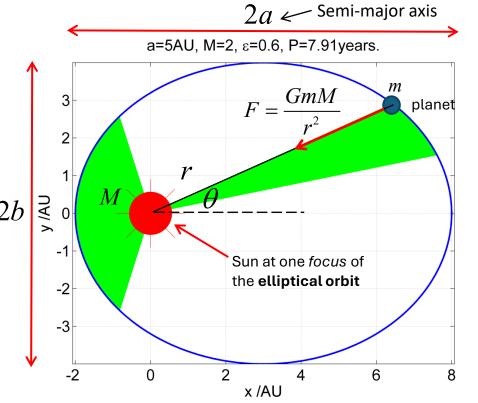
Semiminor axis

Force of gravity
$$F = \frac{GmM}{r^2}$$
Universal gravitational constant $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \, \mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \mathrm{s}^{-2}$

$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^2)}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta}$$
Polar equation of ellipse
$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$$
Eccentricity of ellipse
$$e^2 - \frac{4\pi^2}{a^3}$$



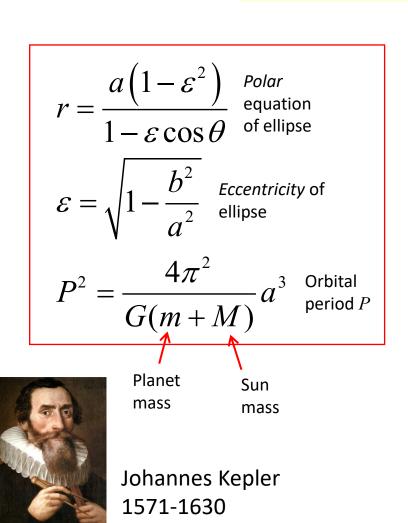




Kepler's three laws are:

$$G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \,\mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \mathrm{s}^{-2}$$
 $M_{\odot} = 1.9891 \times 10^{30} \,\mathrm{kg}$

- 1. The orbit of every planet in the solar system is an ellipse with the Sun at one of the two foci.
- 2. A line joining a planet and the Sun sweeps out equal areas during equal intervals of time.
- 3. The square of the orbital period of a planet is directly proportional to the cube of the semi-major axis of its orbit. The wording of Kepler's laws implies a specific application to the solar system. However, the laws are more generally applicable to any system of two masses whose mutual attraction is an inverse-square law.



 $\frac{1}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a}$ This is a constant of the orbit a=5AU. M=2. ε =0.6. P=7.91vears. 3 2 y /AU -1 Equal areas are swept out in equal times -2 2*a* -2 0 6 x/AU

Object	Mass in Earth	Distance from Sun in	Radius in Rotational Earth radii period /days		Orbital period /years	
	masses	AU	Zar err raan	periou / dayo	/ years	
Saturn	95.16	9.58	9.45	0.44	29.63	
Uranus	14.50	19.29	4.01	0.72	84.75	
Jupiter	317.85	5.20	11.21	0.41	11.86	
Sun	332,837	-	109.12	-	-	
Neptune	17.20	30.25	3.88	0.67	166.34	
Pluto	0.00	39.51	0.19	6.39	248.35	
Mars	0.107	1.523	0.53	1.03	1.88	
Venus	0.815	0.723	0.95	243.02	0.62	
Mercury	0.055	0.387	0.38	58.65	0.24	
Earth	1.000	1.000	1.00	1.00	1.00	

Gravitational field (in terms of g = 9.81 ms^-2) 1.07 0.90 2.53 27.95 1.14 0.09 0.38 0.90 0.37

For *our* Solar System:

$$m \ll M_{\odot}$$

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(m+M_{\odot})}a^3$$

$$D^2 \approx \frac{4\pi^2}{GM_{\odot}}a^3$$

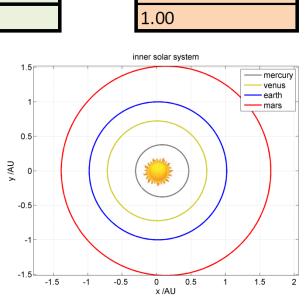
$$Yr^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM_{\odot}}AU^3$$

$$G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \,\mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{kg}^{-1} \mathrm{s}^{-2}$$

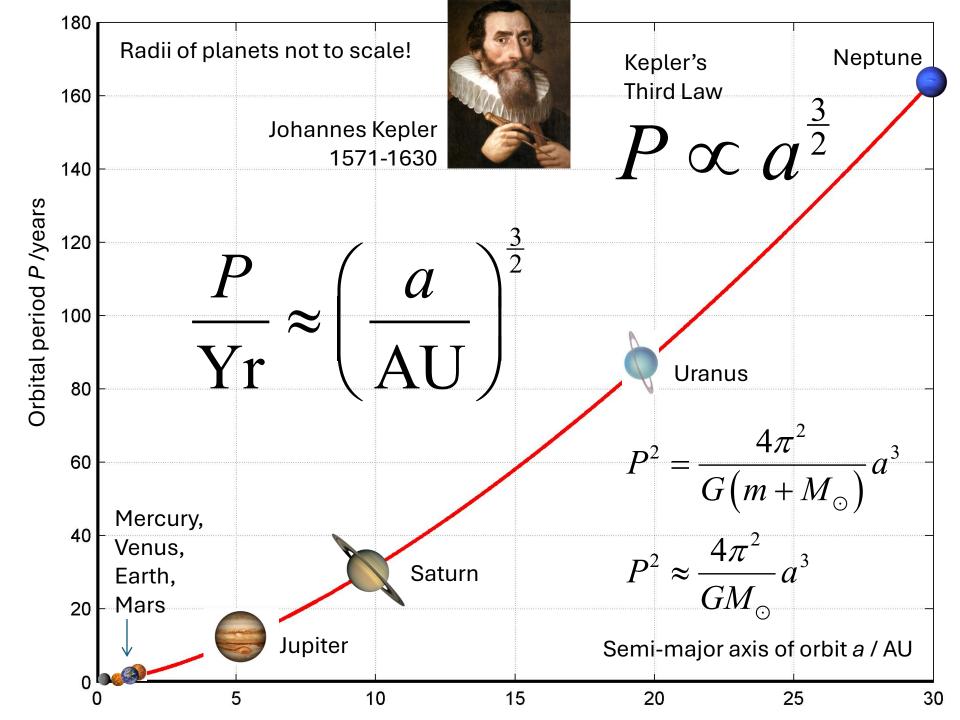
 $M_{\odot} = 1.9891 \times 10^{30} \,\mathrm{kg}$

$$P^{2} \approx \frac{4\pi^{2}}{GM_{\odot}} a^{3} \qquad G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \,\text{m}^{3} \text{kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-2} M_{\odot} = 1.9891 \times 10^{30} \,\text{kg}$$

$$Yr^{2} = \frac{4\pi^{2}}{GM_{\odot}} AU^{3} \qquad \therefore \frac{P}{Yr} \approx \left(\frac{a}{AU}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$



 $1AU = 1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$



An improved calculation of the Earth-Sun distance using the transit of Venus

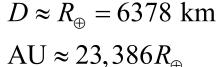
$$D \approx \left(r_{\odot \oplus} - r_{\odot V}\right)\theta,$$

$$D \approx (r_{\odot \oplus} - r_{\odot V})\theta$$
, $r_{\odot \oplus} \approx 1 \text{AU}$, $r_{\odot V} \approx 0.723 \text{AU}$

$$\therefore 1AU = \frac{D}{0.277\theta}$$

and orbital period of Venus of 225 days.

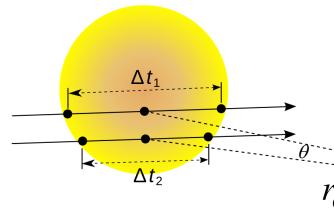




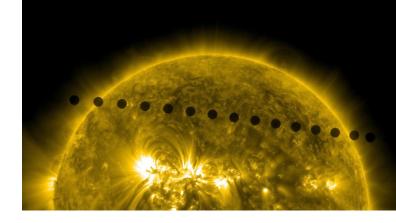
$$\therefore \theta = \frac{D}{0.277 \times \text{AU}} \approx 0.277 \times \frac{R_{\oplus}}{23,386R_{\oplus}}$$

$$\theta = 2.44$$
 arcseconds

1deg = 3600 arcseconds



Need precise times of transit observations and elevation angles from, say, the bottom of solar disc. Compare elevations of observations from A and B to get θ .

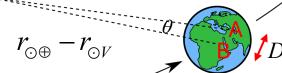


Earth orbit

Venus orbit

1769 transit

Mayer went to St Petersburg, Hell to Norway, Dymond went to Hudson Bay and Cook to Tahiti



The Exploratorium: Transit of Venus

Sun	332,837	-	_	_	-		109.123	_	_
Mercury	0.055	0.387	0.21	*	7.00		0.383	58.646	0.241
Venus [†]	0.815	0.723	0.01	*	3.39		0.949	243.018	0.615
Earth	1.000	1.000	0.02	*	0.00		1.000	0.997	1.000
Mars	0.107	1.523	0.09	*	1.85		0.533	1.026	1.881
Jupiter	317.85	5.202	0.05	*	1.31		11.209	0.413	11.861
Saturn	95.159	9.576	0.06	*	2.49		9.449	0.444	29.628
Uranus [†]	14.500	19.293	0.05	*	0.77		4.007	0.718	84.747
Neptune	17.204	30.246	0.01	*	1.77		3.883	0.671	166.344
Pluto [†]	0.003	39.509	0.25	*	17.5		0.187	6.387	248.348
$r = \frac{a(1-\varepsilon^2)}{1-\varepsilon\cos\theta}$		β is the orbital inclination /degrees. In all cases the semi-major axis pointing direction is							
$1 - \frac{1}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta}$		$\mathbf{d} = d_x \hat{\mathbf{x}} + d_y \hat{\mathbf{y}} + d_y \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \cos \beta \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \sin \beta \hat{\mathbf{z}}$							

 ε

 θ_0

a/AU

 M/M_{\oplus}

 T_{rot}

days

P/Yr

 R/R_{\oplus}

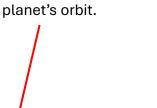
$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^2)}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta}$$

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$$

$$P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(m + M_{\odot})}$$

Object

You could begin with all zero, or perhaps a random angle for each



 $= 1.9891 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}$

 $M_{\oplus} = 5.9742 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$ $= 6.37814 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$ $= 1.495979 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$

 $R_{\odot} = 6.960 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$

anti-clockwise about their own internal axis. All the planets orbit the sun in an anticlockwise direction.

^{*} For the current orbital polar angle θ_0 (and indeed more accurate values for solar system parameters) see the website of the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) http://ssd.jpl.nasa.gov/ †These planets rotate clockwise about their own internal polar axis. ("Retrograde"). All the other planets rotate

Calculating orbit angle vs time

Orbit time can be determined from polar angle using Kepler II:

$$r^{2} \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^{2})a}$$

$$\therefore \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} r^2 d\theta = t \sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a}$$

$$\therefore t = \frac{a^2 \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^2}{\sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a}} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\theta}{\left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta\right)^2}$$

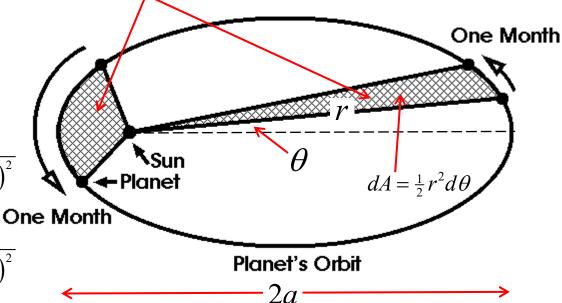
$$\therefore t = \frac{a^2 \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^2}{\sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a}} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\theta}{\left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta\right)^2}$$

$$\therefore t = \sqrt{\frac{a^3 (1 - \varepsilon^2)^3}{G(m + M)}} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\theta}{(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta)^2}$$

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a}$$

Equal areas swept out in equal times

This is a constant



$$\therefore t = \sqrt{\frac{a^3 \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^3}{G(m+M)}} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\theta}{\left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta\right)^2}$$
 From Kepler III: $P^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(m+M)} a^3$

$$t = P(1 - \varepsilon^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\theta}{(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta)^2}$$

Evaluate this numerically

Note when:

$$\varepsilon \ll 1$$
$$t \approx P(\theta - \theta_0)$$

Johannes Kepler 1571-1630



$$\tan \phi = \frac{y - \sin \theta}{x - \cos \theta}$$

$$\therefore y = x \tan \phi - \tan \phi \cos \theta + \sin \theta$$

 $T \approx 1.523^{1.5} \text{ yr} = 1.88 \text{ yr } (687 \text{ days})$

Mars orbital period

ATTEMPT #1: Assume Earth's orbit about the Sun is circular, with radius approximately 1AU.

Measure angles heta and ϕ at times separated by one Mars orbital period T. Hence (x,y) coordinates of Mars should remain the same.

$$y = x \tan \phi_1 - \tan \phi_1 \cos \theta_1 + \sin \theta_1$$

$$y = x \tan \phi_2 - \tan \phi_2 \cos \theta_2 + \sin \theta_2$$

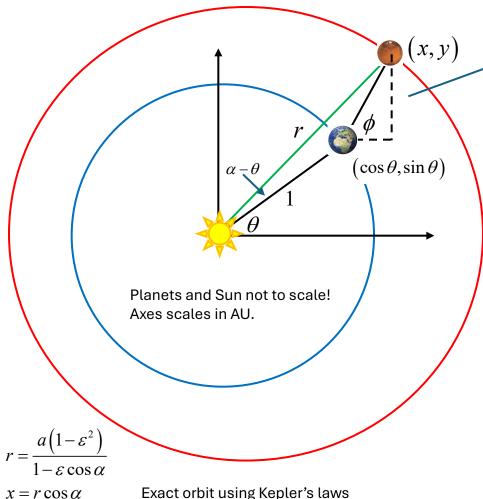
$$\theta_1 = \theta(t), \ \theta_2 = \theta(t+T)$$

$$\phi_1 = \phi(t), \ \phi_2 = \phi(t+T)$$

$$\therefore x = \frac{\sin \theta_1 - \sin \theta_2 - \tan \phi_1 \cos \theta_1 + \tan \phi_2 \cos \theta_2}{\tan \phi_2 - \tan \phi_1}$$

$$\therefore y = x \tan \phi_1 - \tan \phi_1 \cos \theta_1 + \sin \theta_1$$

Use this expression to work out orbit of Mars using the angles θ and ϕ . Note the latter could have been measured from Earth since ancient times!



Mars: a = 1.523, $\varepsilon = 0.09$.

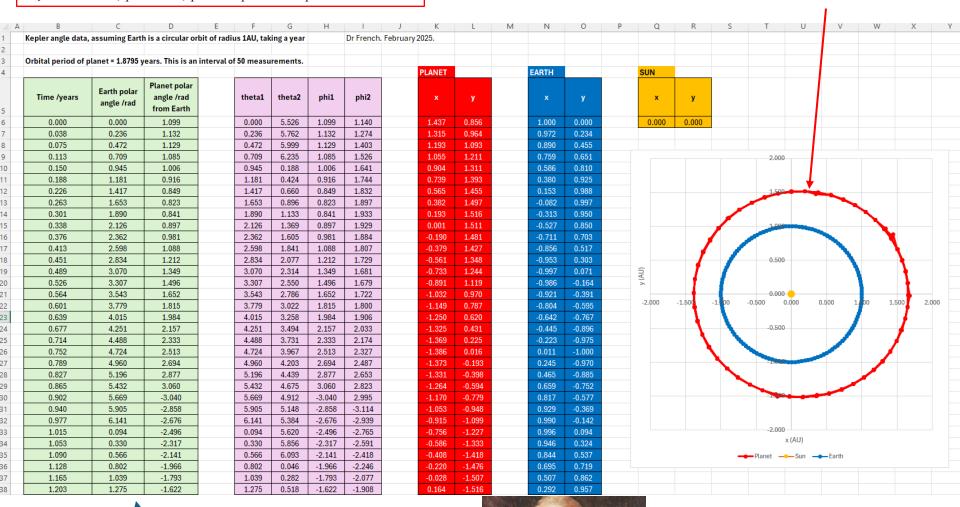
Terence Tao: The Cosmic Distance Ladder Part 1 (3Blue1Brown)

 $t = T \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha_0}^{\alpha} \frac{d\lambda}{\left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \lambda\right)^2}$ Use this to generate simulation data!

 $v = r \sin \alpha$

$$\therefore x = \frac{\sin \theta_1 - \sin \theta_2 - \tan \phi_1 \cos \theta_1 + \tan \phi_2 \cos \theta_2}{\tan \phi_2 - \tan \phi_1}$$
$$\therefore y = x \tan \phi_1 - \tan \phi_1 \cos \theta_1 + \sin \theta_1$$

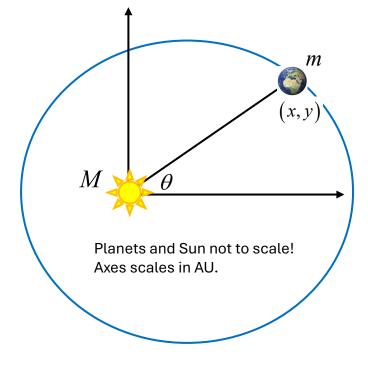
Best fit to Mars' orbit is an *ellipse*. This justifies **Kepler's First law**



This data is generated from the exact Kepler orbits, rather than the actual historical data Kepler obtained from Tycho Brahe!



Tycho Brahe 1546-1601



Let's assume we know Kepler's laws!

What if the Home planet orbit is not circular?

$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^2)}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta}, \quad x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

$$t = T(1 - \varepsilon^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{d\lambda}{(1 - \varepsilon \cos \lambda)^2} \quad \text{From Kepler II,III}$$

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{G(M + m)} a^3 \approx \frac{4\pi^2}{GM} a^3 \qquad \text{Kepler III}$$

Kepler II:
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a} = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \dot{\theta}$$

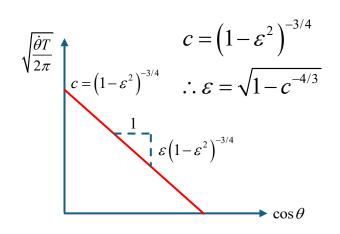
$$\therefore \dot{\theta} = \frac{\sqrt{G(m+M)(1-\varepsilon^2)a}}{a^2(1-\varepsilon^2)^2} (1-\varepsilon\cos\theta)^2$$

$$\therefore \dot{\theta} = \sqrt{\frac{G(m+M)}{a^3}} \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{-3/2} \left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta\right)^2$$

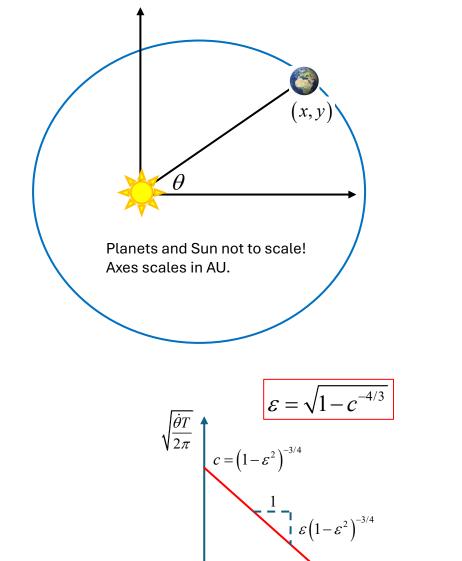
$$\therefore \dot{\theta} = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi^2}{T^2} \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{-3/2} \left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta\right)^2}$$

$$\therefore \sqrt{\dot{\theta}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{T}} \left(1 - \varepsilon^2 \right)^{-3/4} \left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta \right)$$

$$\therefore \sqrt{\frac{\dot{\theta}T}{2\pi}} = \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{-3/4} - \varepsilon \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{-3/4} \cos \theta$$



If know T, $\theta(t)$, $d\theta/dt$ then can work out eccentricity ε . Get a from T. Hence calculate x(t), y(t).



If know T, $\theta(t)$, $d\theta/dt$ then can work out eccentricity ε . Get a from T. Hence calculate x(t), y(t).

What if the Home planet orbit is not circular? (cont.)

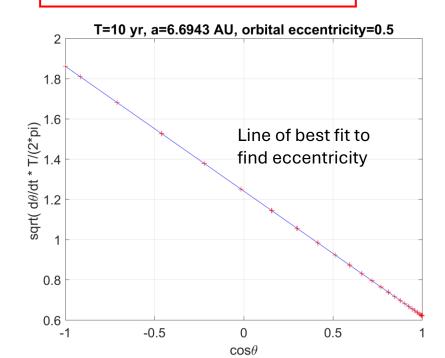
$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^{2})}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta}, \quad x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

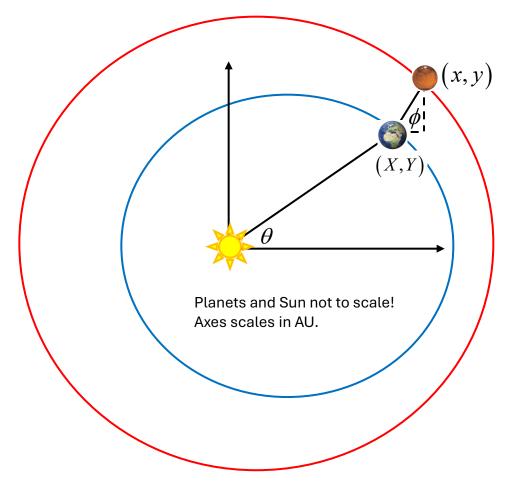
$$t = T(1 - \varepsilon^{2})^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta_{0}}^{\theta} \frac{d\lambda}{(1 - \varepsilon \cos \lambda)^{2}}$$

$$\left(\frac{a}{\text{AU}}\right) \approx \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \left(\frac{T}{\text{Yr}}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \quad \text{Kepler III}$$

$$\dot{\theta} = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi^2}{T^2}} \left(1 - \varepsilon^2 \right)^{-3/2} \left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta \right)^2$$

$$\therefore \sqrt{\frac{\dot{\theta}T}{2\pi}} = \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{-3/4} - \varepsilon \left(1 - \varepsilon^2\right)^{-3/4} \cos \theta$$





$$\therefore x = \frac{Y_1 - Y_2 + X_2 \tan \phi_2 - X_1 \tan \phi_1}{\tan \phi_2 - \tan \phi_1}$$

$$\therefore y = Y_1 + (x - X_1) \tan \phi_1$$

$$r_{1,2} = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^2)}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta_{1,2}}, \quad X_{1,2} = r_{1,2} \cos \theta_{1,2}, \quad Y_{1,2} = r_{1,2} \sin \theta_{1,2}$$

Calculating planet orbit from elliptical orbit of home planet

Exact orbit using Kepler's laws Mars: a = 1.523, $\varepsilon = 0.09$; Earth: a = 1.00, $\varepsilon = 0.01$.

Assume we now know what the home planet's orbit is.

$$r = \frac{a(1 - \varepsilon^{2})}{1 - \varepsilon \cos \theta}, \quad X = r \cos \theta, \quad Y = r \sin \theta$$

$$t = T_{H} \left(1 - \varepsilon^{2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\theta_{0}}^{\theta} \frac{d\lambda}{\left(1 - \varepsilon \cos \lambda\right)^{2}}$$

$$\left(\frac{a}{\text{AU}}\right) \approx \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \left(\frac{T_{H}}{\text{Yr}}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

Measure angles θ and ϕ at times separated by one Mars orbital period T. Hence (x,y) coordinates of planet should remain the same.

$$\tan \phi = \frac{y - Y}{x - X}$$

$$\therefore y = Y + (x - X) \tan \phi$$

$$T \approx 1.523^{1.5} \text{ yr} = 1.88 \text{ yr } (687 \text{ days})$$

e.g Mars orbital period

$$\therefore y = Y_1 + (x - X_1) \tan \phi_1$$

$$\therefore y = Y_2 + (x - X_2) \tan \phi_2$$

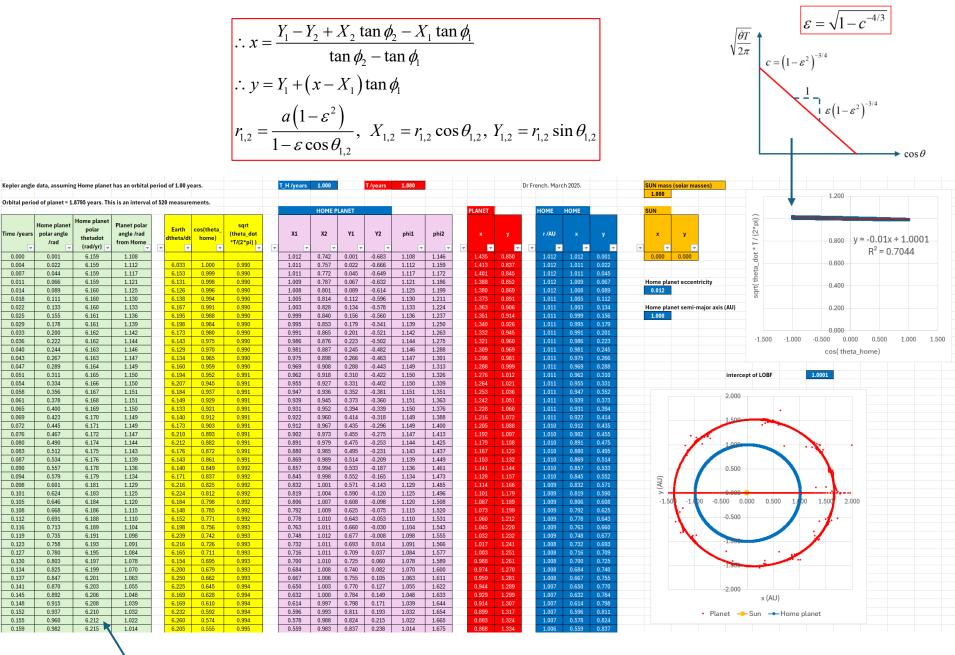
$$\therefore Y_1 + (x - X_1) \tan \phi_1 = Y_2 + (x - X_2) \tan \phi_2$$

$$\therefore x (\tan \phi_2 - \tan \phi_1) = Y_1 - Y_2 + X_2 \tan \phi_2 - X_1 \tan \phi_1$$

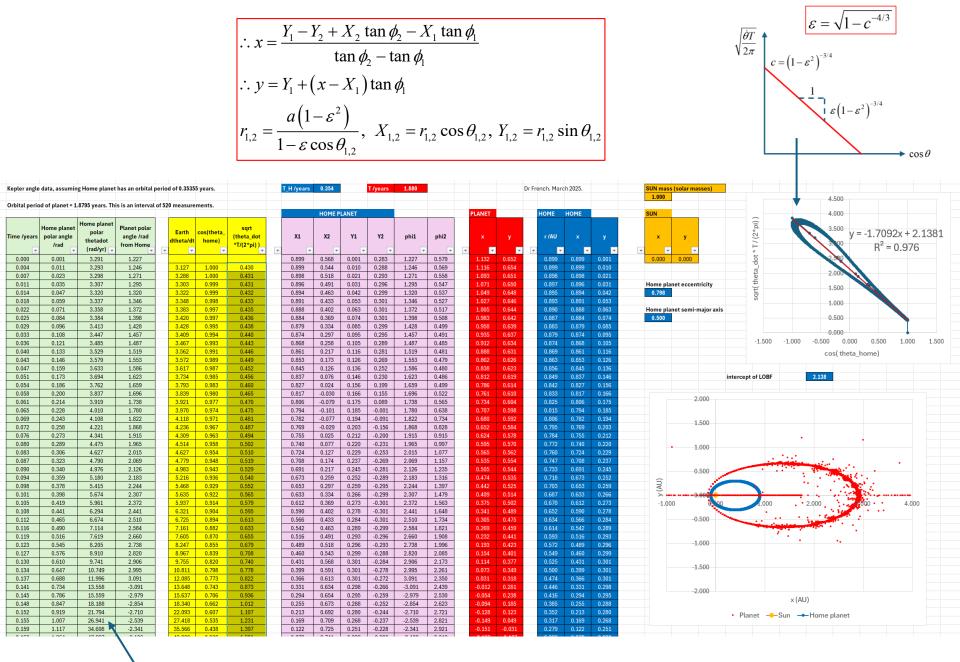
$$\therefore x = \frac{Y_1 - Y_2 + X_2 \tan \phi_2 - X_1 \tan \phi_1}{\tan \phi_2 - \tan \phi_1}$$

Use this expression to work out orbit of planet using the angles θ and ϕ . Note the latter could have been measured from Earth since ancient times!

Astronomical Unit (AU) defined in 2012



This data is generated from the exact Kepler orbits, rather than the actual historical data Kepler obtained from Tycho Brahe!



Data generated for a home planet of eccentricity 0.8 and planet of eccentricity 0.9

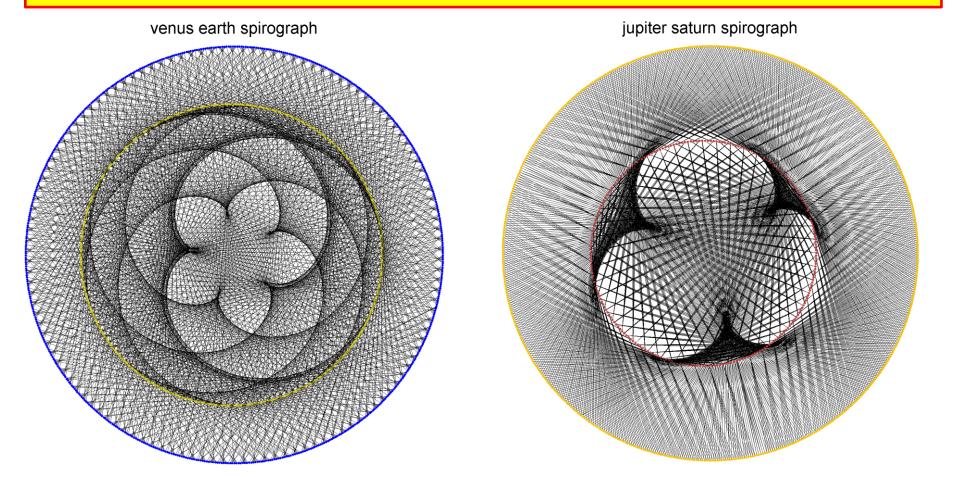
Now we have a model of x(t) and y(t) of solar system orbits

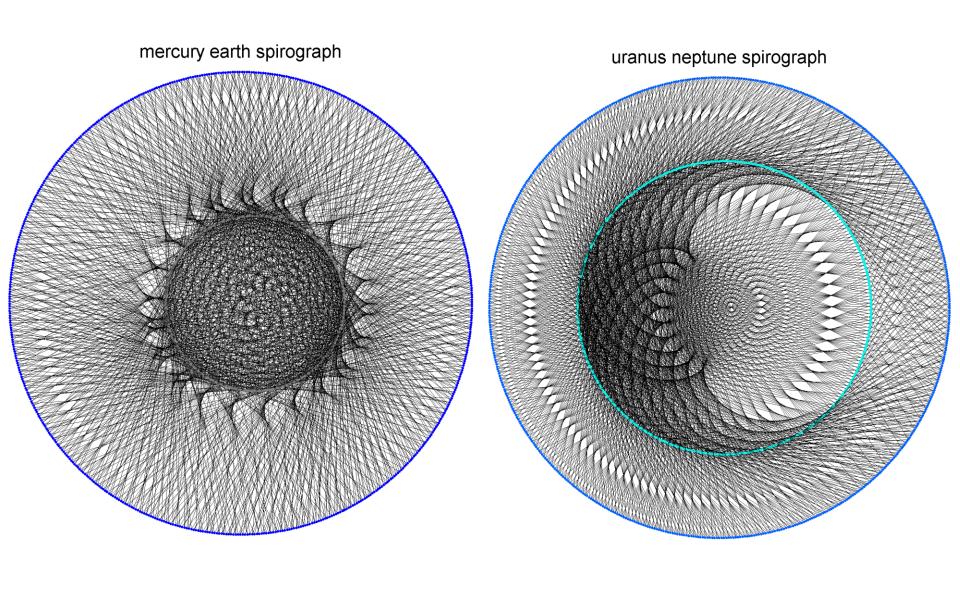
... Construct a solar system spirograph!

inspired by: https://engaging-data.com/planetary-spirograph

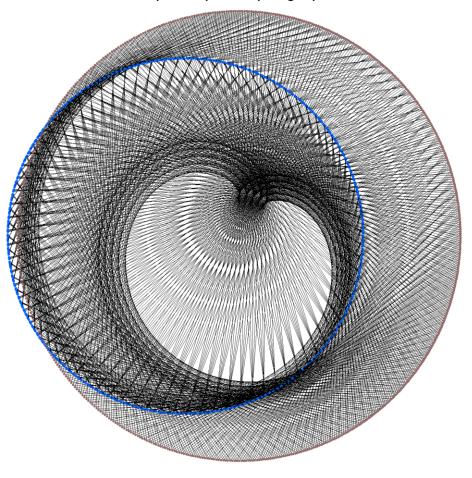
Choose a pair of planets and determine their orbits vs time. At time intervals of Δt , draw a line between the planets and plot this line. Keep going for N orbits of the outermost planet.

N = 10, $\Delta t = N \times maximum$ orbital period /1234, might be sensible parameters.

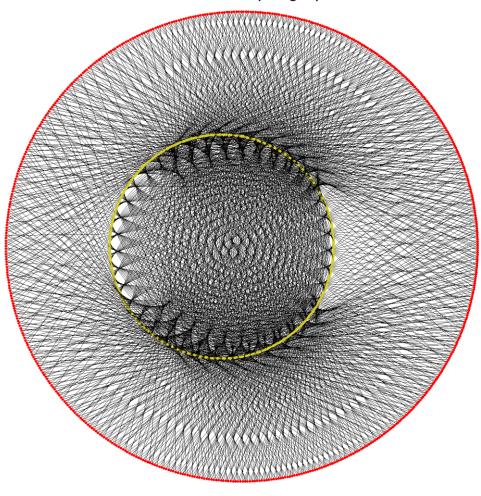




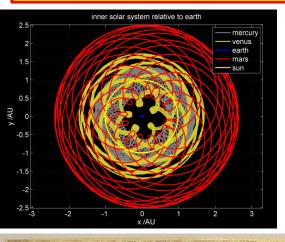
neptune pluto spirograph

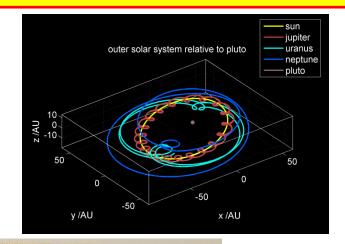


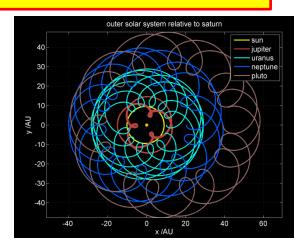
venus mars spirograph

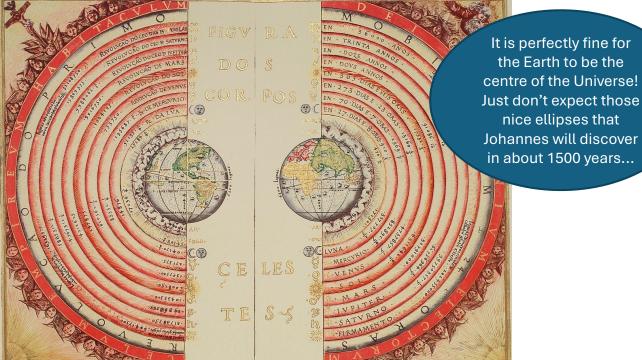


Plot the orbits of the other bodies in the solar system, with a chosen object (e.g. Earth) at a *fixed position at the origin of a Cartesian coordinate system*. i.e. choose a coordinate system where your chosen object is at (0,0,0).



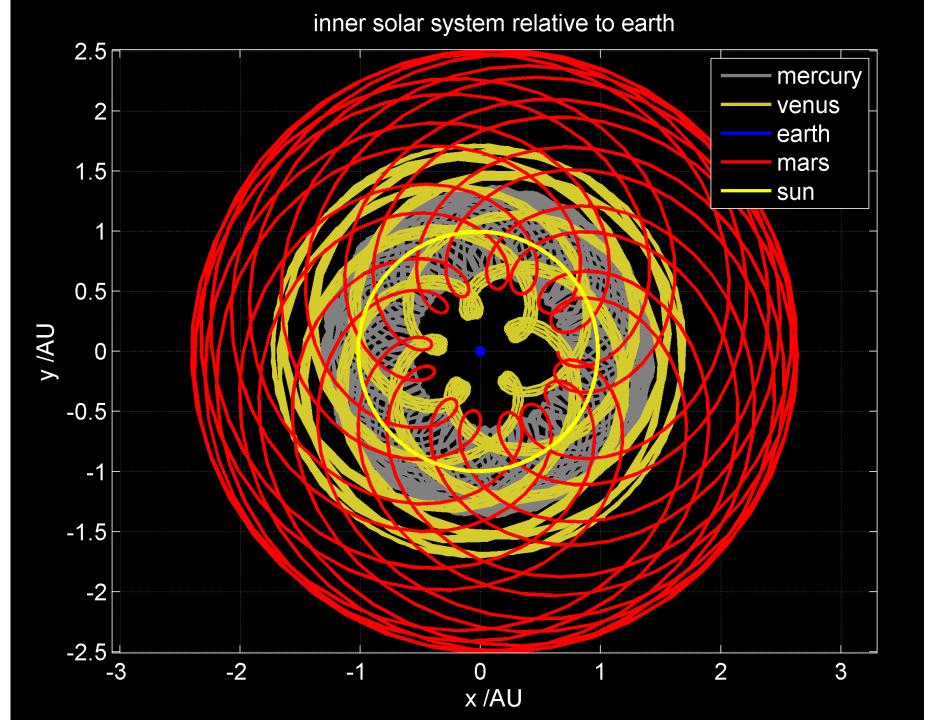




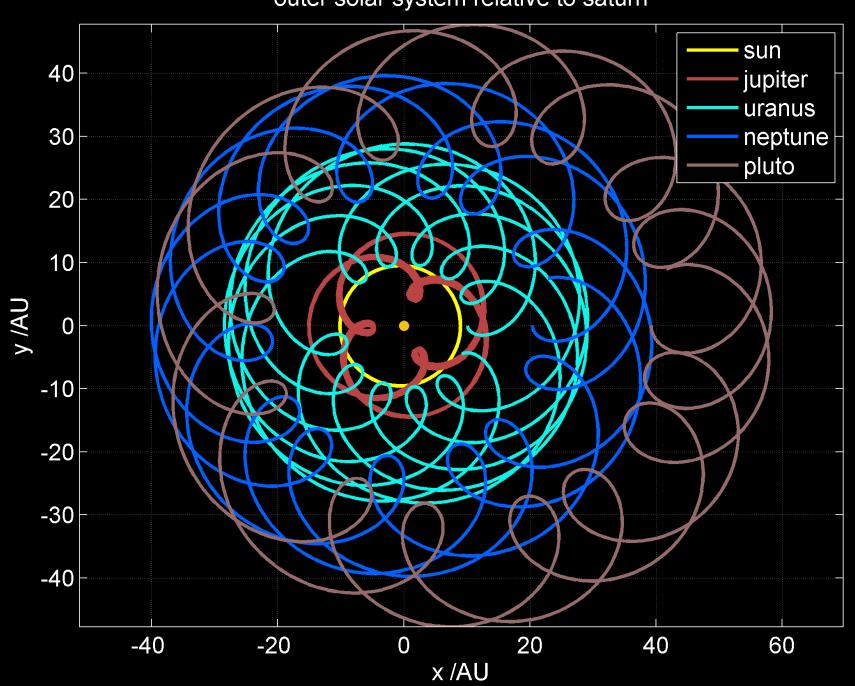




Claudius Ptolemy (100-170 AD)



outer solar system relative to saturn





5. Calculating the speed of light using the occultation of lo by Jupiter

r_{lo}

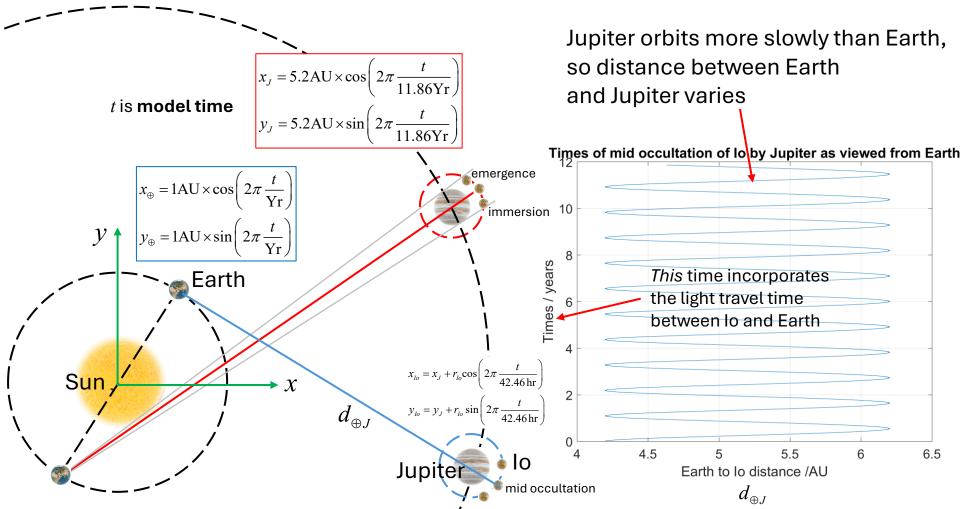
- Io orbital radius 421,000km about Jupiter, period 42.46 hours (1.769 days)
- Jupiter orbital radius about Sun is 5.20AU, period 11.86 years
- Earth orbital radius about Sun is 1AU, period 1 year

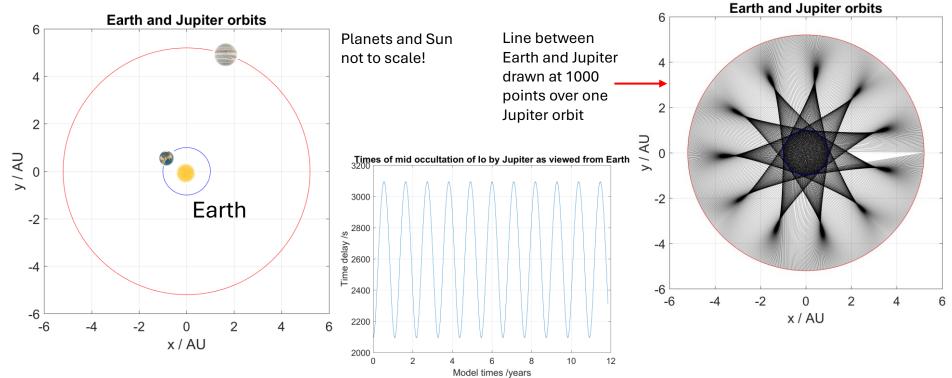


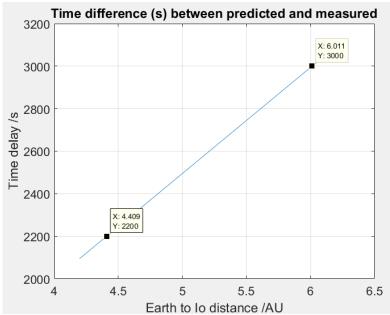




Christiaan Huygens 1629-1695







Using Kepler's laws to determine orbital positions vs time of Earth, Jupiter and Io, plot the **time delay** between the **measured** time of a midoccultation, and *that predicted by the model*, vs Earth to Io distance in AU.

i.e. not accounting for light-travel time delays

Gradient of the Earth to Io distance vs time delay graph is the **speed of light**

$$c = \frac{(6.011 - 4.409) \times 1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{m}}{(3000 - 2200) \text{s}} = 3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ms}^{-1}$$



6. Calculating the distance to nearby stars via parallax

Record the angular change $\Delta\theta$ in the position of a star over the course of a year, i.e. as the Earth orbits the Sun.

This assumes the stars are fixed relative to the Earth over this timescale!

$$x\sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta\theta = a$$

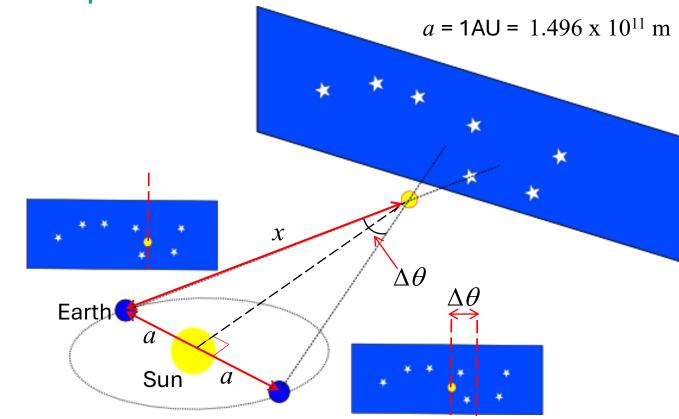
$$x = \frac{a}{\sin\frac{1}{2}\Delta\theta}$$

The parallax of our nearest star outside of the solar system (Proxima Centauri) is $\Delta\theta$ = 1.53626 arc-seconds.

$$\Delta \theta = \frac{1.53626^{\circ}}{3600}$$
 $\therefore x = \frac{1}{\sin \frac{1}{2} \Delta \theta} = \boxed{268,532 \text{AU}}$

$$x = 4.02 \times 10^{16} \,\text{m}$$

$$x = \frac{4.02 \times 10^{16} \,\text{m}}{9.461 \times 10^{15}} = 4.25 \,\text{light-years}$$

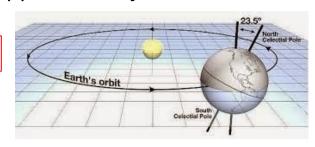


Astronomical length scales

Astronomical Unit (approximately the

Earth-Sun distance)

$$1AU = 1.496 \times 10^{11} \text{m}$$



Light-year

$$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \,\mathrm{ms}^{-1}$$

$$t_{year} \approx 365 \times 24 \times 3600 = 3.15 \times 10^7 \,\mathrm{s}$$

$$t_{year} \approx \pi \times 10^7 \,\mathrm{s}$$

$$11y = ct_{year} = 9.461 \times 10^{15} \,\mathrm{m}$$

calculated from more precise light speeds and year durations

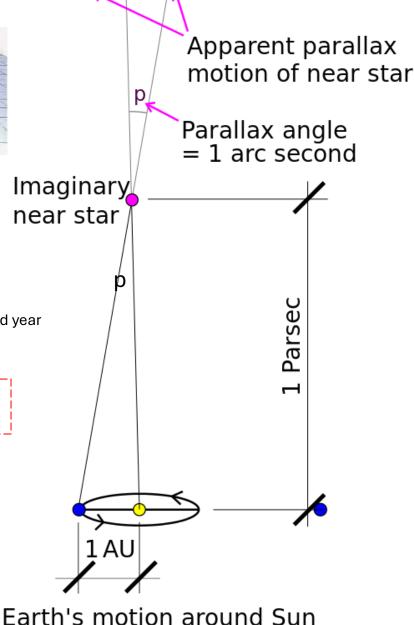
60 arc minutes = 1 degree 60 arc seconds = 1 arc minute

Parsec

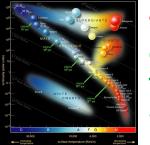
$$1AU = 1pc \times tan \left(\frac{1^{\circ}}{60 \times 60} \right)$$

$$1pc = 2.063 \times 10^5 \text{ AU}$$

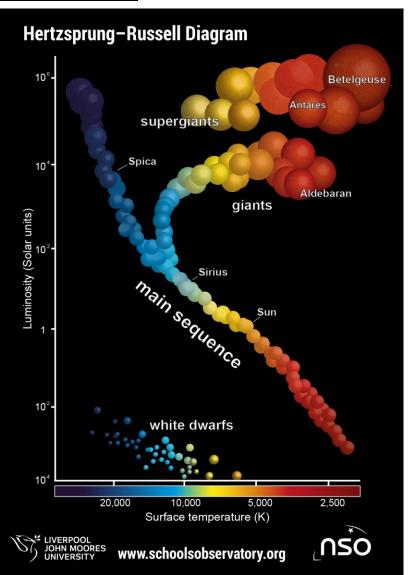
$$1pc = 3.086 \times 10^{16} \,\mathrm{m}$$



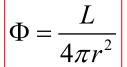
Distant stars

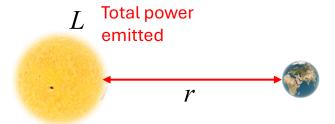


7. Calculating the distance to stars from Luminosity L and Colour λ_{\max}

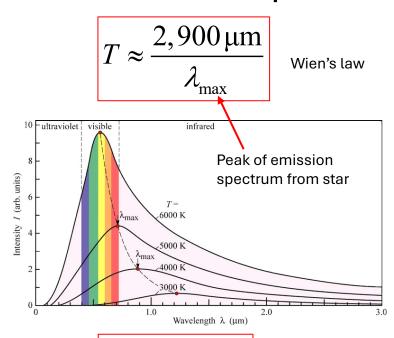


Power per m² received from star is:





The HR diagram predicts Luminosity L of a star vs the colour of the star, which is related to its surface temperature.



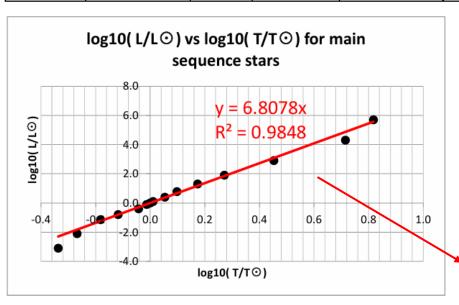


Wilhelm Wien 1864-1928

$$\therefore r = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi\Phi}}$$

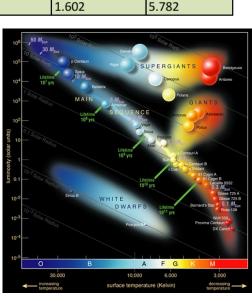
Distance to star

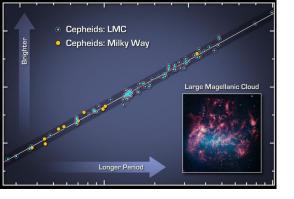
Stellar classification	Radius R/R⊙	Mass M/M⊙	Luminosity L/L⊙	Surface temperature /K	Star	log10(L/L⊙)	log10 (T/T⊙)	log10(M/M⊙)	log10 ((R/R⊙)^2 * (T/5780K)^4)
M8	0.13	0.1	8.00E-04	2,660	Van Biesbroeck's star	-3.097	-0.337	-1.000	-3.120
M5	0.32	0.21	7.90E-03	3,120	EZ Aquarii A	-2.102	-0.268	-0.678	-2.061
M0	0.51	0.6	7.20E-02	3,800	Lacaille 8760	-1.143	-0.182	-0.222	-1.313
K5	0.74	0.69	1.60E-01	4,410	61 Cygni A	-0.796	-0.117	-0.161	-0.731
K0	0.85	0.78	4.00E-01	5,240	70 Ophiuchi A	-0.398	-0.043	-0.108	-0.312
G5	0.93	0.93	7.90E-01	5,610	Alpha Mensae	-0.102	-0.013	-0.032	-0.115
G2	1	1	1.00E+00	5,780	<u>Sun</u>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
					Beta Comae				
G0	1.05	1.1	1.26E+00	5,920	<u>Berenices</u>	0.100	0.010	0.041	0.084
F5	1.2	1.3	2.50E+00	6,540	Eta Arietis	0.398	0.054	0.114	0.373
F0	1.3	1.7	6.00E+00	7,240	Gamma Virginis	0.778	0.098	0.230	0.619
A5	1.7	2.1	2.00E+01	8,620	Beta Pictoris	1.301	0.174	0.322	1.155
					Alpha Coronae				
A0	2.5	3.2	8.00E+01	10,800	Borealis A	1.903	0.271	0.505	1.882
B5	3.8	6.5	8.00E+02	16,400	Pi Andromedae A	2.903	0.453	0.813	2.971
В0	7.4	18	2.00E+04	30,000	Phi1 Orionis	4.301	0.715	1.255	4.599
O6	18	40	5.00E+05	38,000	Theta1 Orionis C	5.699	0.818	1.602	5.782



 $L_{\odot} = 4\pi R_{\odot}^{2} \sigma T^{4}$ T = 5780 K $R_{\odot} = 6.96 \times 10^{8} \text{ m}$ $\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Wm}^{-2} \text{K}^{-4}$ $\therefore L_{\odot} \approx 3.83 \times 10^{26} \text{ W}$

$$L = L_{\odot} \times \left(\frac{T}{5790 \,\mathrm{K}}\right)^{6.8}$$



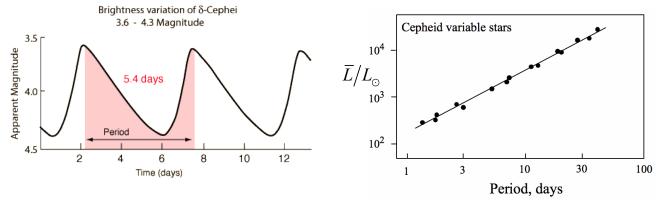


8. Calculating the distance to galaxies via Cepheid variable stars

H. Leavitt discovered (in 1908) that bright *variable stars* exhibit a correlation between average luminosity and period of variation. So measure star flux and period, and you can calculate the distance to the star. This enables distance measurements (e.g. to nearby galaxies) up to 65 million light years.



RS Puppis, one of the brightest Cepheid variable stars in the Milky Way



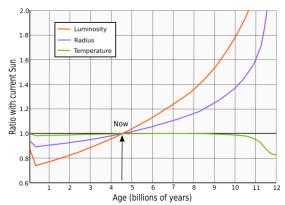
The **pulsation mechanism** for Cepheids is thought to result from **double ionization of Helium**, which changes the opacity of a star, heating it up ... which causes it to expand, then cool which then reduces the Helium ionization, resulting in a **thermodynamic cycle**.



Star luminosity A. Eddington's model $\Phi = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2} \Rightarrow d = \sqrt{\frac{L}{4\pi \Phi}}$ Leavitt Distance to star

$$\log_{10} \left(\frac{\bar{L}}{L_{\odot}}\right) = 1.15 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P}{\text{days}}\right) + 2.47$$
 $L_{\odot} = 3.828 \times 10^{26} \text{ W}$

One Luminosity- period Cepheid correlation There are several types!



Current solar Luminosity L_{\odot} compared to earlier and predicted Epochs.

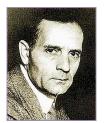
Luminosity to **Bolometric magnitude** M $L = 3.0128 \times 10^{28} \, \text{W} \times 10^{-0.4M}$

https://astronomy.swin.edu.au/sao/downloads/HET611-M17A01.pdf https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cepheid_variable

Durham Astrolab

Cepheid variables - simply curious





Edwin Hubble 1889-1953

9. Calculating the scale of the observable Universe using Hubble's law

 H_0 is the 'Hubble constant', which has a modern value of about **71.9** km/s /Mpc. It is *not really a constant*, as it relates to the *scale* of Universe expansion, which is thought not to be linear. The zero suffix therefore means 'at the current epoch.'

Hubble's law implies that the Universe is expanding. If we consider just the radial motion due to expansion (imagine a sponge being continuously enlarged, and tracking the relative distances between pairs of holes) and assume this is at a constant rate throughout time t, we can therefore make an **estimate of the age of the Universe.**

$$v = \frac{d}{t}$$
, $v = H_0 d$ $\therefore H_0 d = \frac{d}{t} \implies t = \frac{1}{H_0}$

$$\therefore t = \left(\frac{71.9 \times 10^3 \,\text{ms}^{-1}}{3.086 \times 10^{22} \,\text{m}}\right)^{-1} = 13.6 \,\text{billion years}$$

Afterglow Light
Pattern
380,000 yrs.

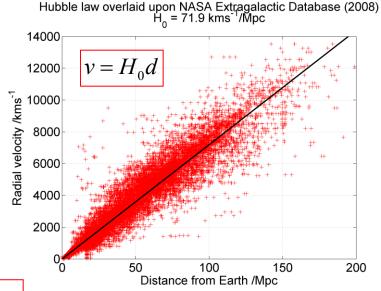
Dark Ages
Development of
Galaxies, Planets, etc.

Inflation

1st Stars
about 400 million yrs.

Big Bang Expansion
13.7 billion years

1Mega-parsec (Mpc) = 3.086 x10²² m



Edwin Hubble was perhaps the first astronomer to show that most galaxies (i.e. objects with distances of 10Mpc or more) have a recessional velocity v which is proportional to the distance d away from Earth*.

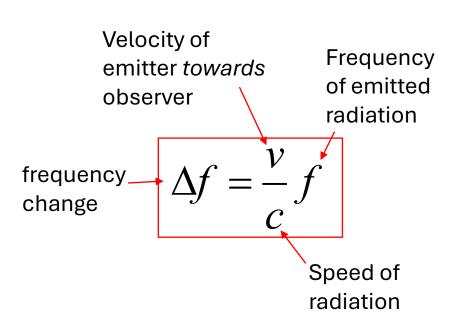
As of 2017, the best estimate for the age of the Universe is 13.799 +/- 0.021 billion years using the Lambda-CDM model and observations of the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) radiation via Planck and Wilkinson Microwave Anisotropy (WMAP) probe (and others).

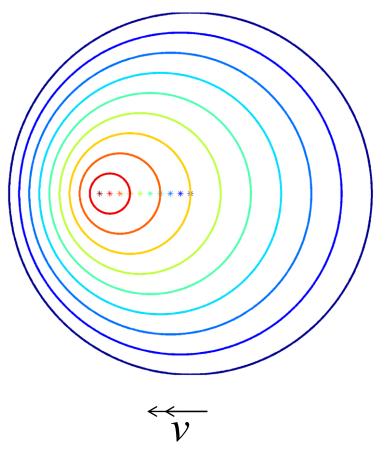
*The **Cosmological Principle** means all parts of the Universe are expanding uniformly relative to everywhere else, at a given time since the Big Bang. The Hubble law would therefore be the same from the perspective of a planet in another galaxy as it is on Earth.

Doppler shift method for measuring radial velocity

$$c = f\lambda$$

If an object emitting radiation at frequency f moves radially towards an observer at velocity v, the observer will measure a slightly higher frequency of radiation as the emitted waves 'bunch up'.

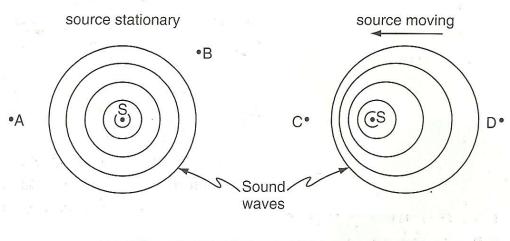




Note this formula is 'Classical'. It is valid when $v \ll c$ Otherwise a **relativistic version** must be used.

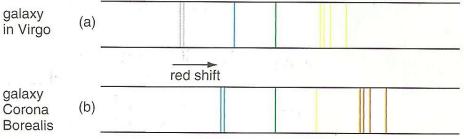
Christian Doppler 1803-1953



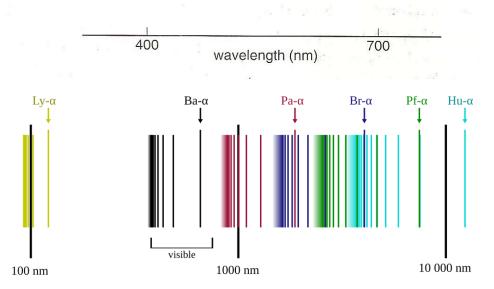


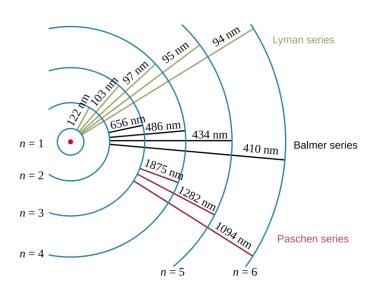
Redshift z is the fractional change in wavelength of light due to the doppler effect

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}} - \lambda_{\text{emmitted}}}{\lambda_{\text{emmitted}}}$$



Compare spectral lines emissions from elements like Hydrogen and Helium from stars to those measured in the lab.





Hydrogen emission spectra

Bohr model of Hydrogenic atom photon emissions: Z = 1

