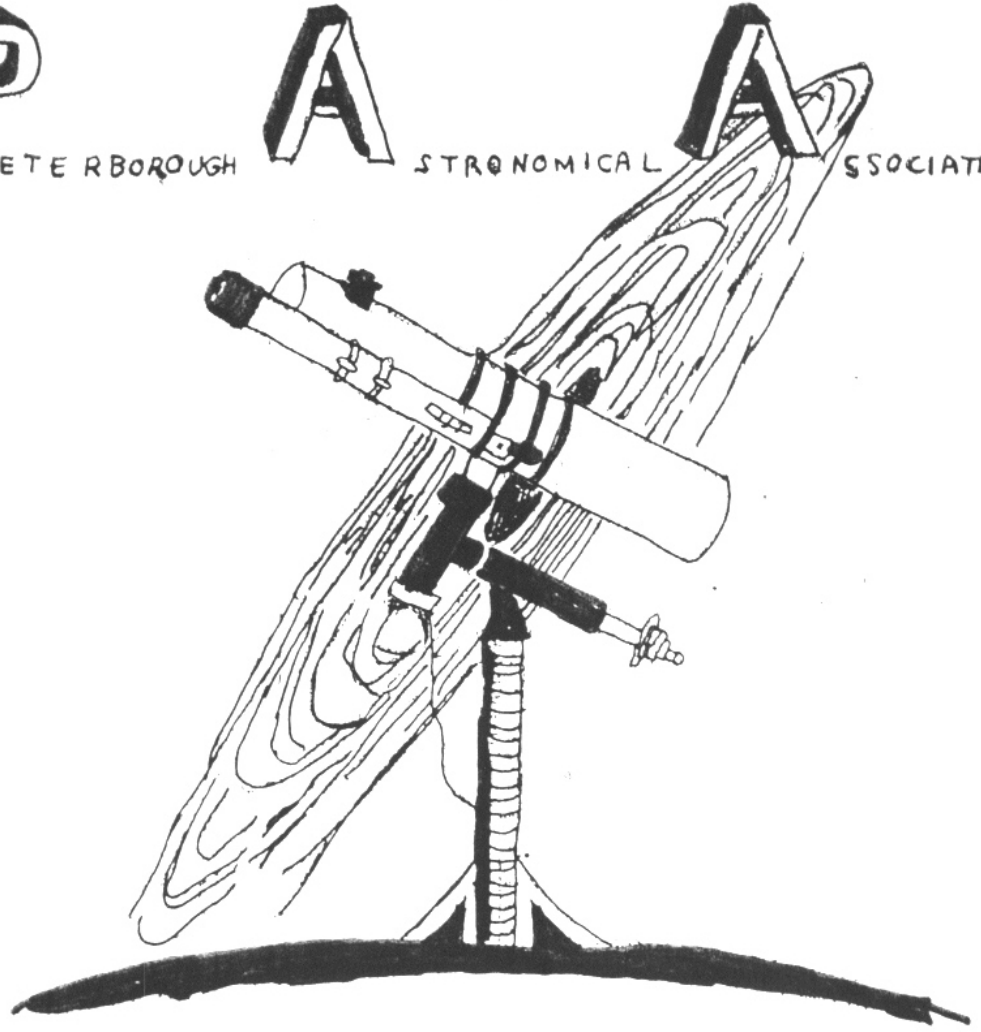
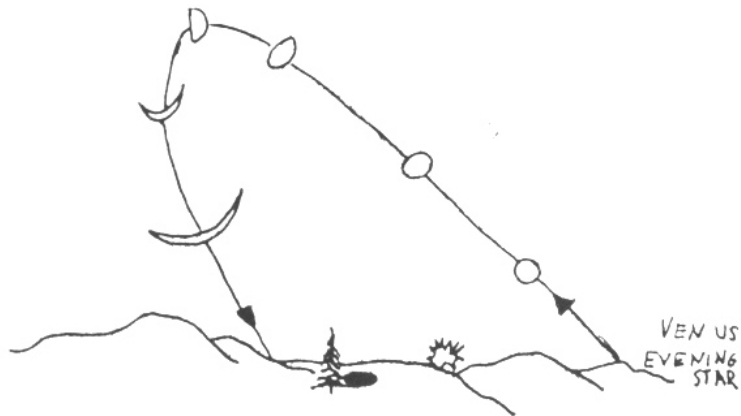


P A A  
PETEBOROUGH ASTRONOMICAL ASSOCIATION



News Letter Vol.1



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A70	Astronomy	Frank Scheibenpflug
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F8	Frontiers of Astronomy	"
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## THE ORION NEBULA

Geoffrey  
Toop

The Orion Nebula, although barely visible to the naked eye, is easily seen through binoculars as the middle star in Orion's belt. It is composed of interstellar gas and dust. The gas contains 75% Hydrogen, 22% Helium and 3% other gases by mass. Most of the gas is cold and non-luminous (H I -- neutral). However near hot stars, the gas is ionized by the ultraviolet radiation from these stars (H II -- ionized). The gas in the H II regions glows by the process of fluorescence. The light emitted consists largely of emission lines so the nebula is classified as an emission nebulae with a density of  $10^3$  or  $10^4$  atoms per cubic centimeter.

All ultraviolet radiation of wavelength 912 Å or less can be absorbed by the neutral hydrogen, which in doing so is ionized.

The hottest stars emit an appreciable fraction of energy in wavelengths less than 912 Å. If such a star is surrounded by interstellar gas, the gas atoms are ionized and become free electrons and ions. When an ion captures an electron, light is produced. Another ultraviolet photon collides with the atom freeing the electron and beginning the cycle again. At any given time almost all the gas is ionized. Clouds of dust in the nebula hide a large part of the H II region from our view.

Radio radiation is also emitted by H II regions, An electron passing near an ionized atom can change from its hyperbolic orbit to another hyperbola, emitting or absorbing in the process a photon on a definite wavelength. The many-many photons of different wavelengths comprise continuous radiation, a good part of which lies in the radio part of the spectrum.



THE ASTRONOMER

The Astronomer works every night,  
As he watches the dim star light;  
He photographs the stars in the sky  
And plots the meteors as they pass by.

His fame is seldom known;  
To his own kind his work is shown.  
The public seldom knows his name,  
But his kind knows his fame.

If he is lucky, his name will appear  
Somewhere, where Tycho's is near.  
He always stays with his kind  
Because the public will pay him no mind.

But our nocturnal Friend  
knows he has succeeded in the end.

by Richard Milligan.

POSITIONS of the PLANETS for the end of 1972  
and  
for the YEAR 1973  
\*( J,D, - J.D.+2440000 )

YEAR	DATE	JD	SUN	MER	VEN	MAR	JUP	SAT
1972	Nov 8	1630	226	249	190	205	276	80
"	Nov 18	1640	236	253	202	212	278	79
"	Nov 28	1650	246	241	214	213	280	78
"	Dec 8	1660	257	237	227	225	282	77
"	Dec 18	1670	267	246	339	232	284	76
"	Dec 28	1680	277	259	252	238	287	75
1973	Jan 7	1690	287	274	264	245	289	74
"	Jan 17	1700	297	290	277	252	291	73
"	Jan 28	1710	307	306	289	259	294	73
"	Feb 6	1720	317	336	302	266	296	73
"	Feb 16	1730	326	343	315	273	298	73
"	Feb 26	1740	337	356	327	280	300	73
"	Mar. 8	1750	348	358	340	287	303	74
"	Mar 18	1760	355	349	352	294	305	74
"	Mar 28	1770	8	347	6	301	306	75
"	Apr 7	1780	17	350	17	308	308	76
"	Apr 17	1790	27	0	29	315	309	77
"	Apr 27	1800	37	14	41	322	310	78
"	May 7	1810	47	32	54	329	311	79
"	May 17	1820	56	52	66	336	312	81
"	May 27	1830	66	75	79	343	312	82
"	Jun6	1840	75	94	91	350	312	83
"	Jun16	1850	85	109	103	357	312	85
"	Jun26	1860	94	119	116	4	312	86

\*J.D. is short for Julian Day, which is a day system proposed by Joseph Scaliger in 1582~. J.D. 1 was on January '1, 4713 B.C. at noon, since the date changes after 12:00 noon.

YEAR	DATE	JD	SUN	MER	VEN	MAR	JUP	SAT
1973	Jul 6	1870	104	123	128	10	311	87
"	Jul 16	1880	114	120	140	16	310	89
"	Jul 26	1890	123	113	152	22	308	89
"	Aug 5	1900	133	114	164	28	306	90
"	Aug 15	1910	142	125	176	33	305	92
"	Aug 25	1920	152	143	188	37	304	92
"	Sep 4	1930	162	163	200	39	303	93
"	Sep 14	1940	171	181	211	40	302	94
"	Sep 24	1950	181	198	223	40	302	94
"	Oct 4	1960	191	213	235	38	302	95
"	Oct 14	1970	201	226	246	36	302	95
"	Oct 24	1980	211	235	257	32	303	94
"	Nov 3	1990	221	236	268	27	304	94
"	Nov 13	2000	231	224	278	25	305	94
"	Nov 23	2010	241	222	288	25	306	93
"	Dec 3	2020	251	232	297	25	308	93
"	Dec 13	2030	261	245	304	26	310	92
"	Dec 23	2040	272	262	309	28	312	91

-for year 1974, expect it in the first issue next year of the PAA Newsletter.



THEORIES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE ELEMENTS  
BOB FYDELL

There are basically two theories for the formation of the elements. One proposes that the majority of the atoms would form from the breakdown of a few or one massive elements. The other suggests that the atoms are formed from the hydrogen atom by neutron-proton collision.

Georges Edward Lemaitre (Belgian, 1894- ) was one of the first astronomers to consider the former theory effectively. He believed that a few massive atoms would break down, producing less massive atoms and so on, progressively, until permanently stable atoms were formed. This, however, would mean a Universe composed chiefly of such stable atoms and massive elements as lead and bismuth. This is not true, there being a preponderance of hydrogen. Therefore Lemaitre's theory is highly unlikely.

The alternate view was best explained by George Gamow (Russian- American, 1904- ) in 1948. According to Gamow's (who believed in the Big Bang) suggestion, the neutronium cosmic egg (the primeval atom associated with the Big Bang, Hyperbolic, and Pulsating theories for the creation of the universe), at the instant of the big bang, disintegrated with ferocious violence into separate neutrons, which rapidly broke down into protons and electrons. Individual neutrons do this today for that matter, the half-life of the breakdown being about thirteen minutes. The protons formed can be considered the nuclei of hydrogen-1 atoms.

As the protons formed, they would sometimes collide with neutrons that still persisted and gradually build up additional stable atomic nuclei of greater complexity. The advantage of this theory is that it makes use of the phenomenon of neutron-addition, something that atoms are prone to do and which can be observed in the laboratory.

If a proton combined with a neutron, for instance, it would form a nucleus of hydrogen-2, or deuterium (one proton/one neutron). Hydrogen-2, combining with another neutron, would form hydrogen-3 or tritium (one proton/ two neutrons). Tritium is, however, unstable. One of the neutrons in its nucleus emits an electron and becomes a proton, and the nucleus becomes helium-3 (two protons/one neutron). The helium-3 nucleus adds a neutron to become the common helium-4 (two protons/two neutrons). The process continues and gradually, one neutron at a time, the whole list of elements is built up.

At the incredibly high temperatures following the explosion of the cosmic egg, Gamow envisages the necessary nuclear reactions to take place very rapidly, even perhaps within the first half-hour. Gradually, thereafter, as the temperatures dropped, the various nuclei would attract electrons to themselves and form atoms. The atoms would conglomerate in huge volumes of gas speeding outward and gradually condensing into galaxies and stars as they sped along.

Naturally, only a small portion of the hydrogen-1 nuclei first formed would undergo collision with neutrons to form hydrogen-2; only a small portion of the hydrogen-2 nuclei would undergo a further neutron collision to form helium-3, and so on. Each successively more complex atom would be less common than the one before, and this would account for the fact that in the Universe today there is a more or less steady drop in the abundance of atoms with a rise in complexity.

The drop is not an absolutely uniform one. Helium-4 is much more common than either hydrogen-2 or helium-3 and iron-56 is much more common than most of the atoms less complex than itself. On the other hand, simple atoms such as those of lithium-6 or boron-11 are less common on a cosmic scale than they ought to be, considering their simplicity. But there is an explanation for this. Helium-4 and iron-56, for instance are both examples of particularly stable nuclei. They would react to form more complex atoms only with difficulty and would therefore pile up. The atoms of lithium and boron, on the other hand, react particularly easily and would "burn up".

Gamow's theory would account for the relative occurrence of the different atoms in the interstellar material. Once stars form, other changes take place in their cores.

Gamow's theory has however, one serious flaw which he has not explained. The atoms must be formed one neutron at a time, and there is a gap that cannot be surpassed once the helium-4 is reached. The helium-4 nucleus is so stable that it has virtually no tendency to accept either a neutron or a proton. If a neutron does manage to attach itself to the helium-4 nucleus, it forms a helium-5 nucleus (two protons/three neutrons), which breaks down in about 0.000 000 000 000 000 000 001 seconds to form helium-4 and a single neutron again. On the other hand, if a proton manages to attach itself to helium-4, lithium-5 is formed and that breaks down to helium-4 again even more quickly.

Suppose, on the other hand, a helium-4 nucleus is struck by another helium-4 nucleus and the two fuse, although this is a much more unlikely occurrence than the neutron or proton fusion. Even so, it is useless as a way out, Beryllium-8 is formed and that breaks down to two alpha particles with super-rapidity too,

In other words, once you have formed helium-4 by neutron additions you are stuck. There is a gap at 5 and another at 8 that seem insurmountable.

It is possible of course, that two particles may strike the helium simultaneously. If a proton and neutron both strike and attach themselves then lithium-6 is formed and that will last about half a second before breaking up. That might be long enough to continue the process.

Unfortunately under the conditions postulated by Gamow in the first half-hour following the big bang, the individual nuclei are so widely dispersed that the chance of two particles striking the alpha particle simultaneously is virtually zero. The Gamow model, then, seems to account only for hydrogen and helium atoms but nothing beyond that.

It then was Fred Hoyle who suggested a theory that explained most of the previous problems. Hoyle considers that hydrogen-1 is the only original material and that everything else is formed within stars and is added to interstellar material by way of supernovae.

Hoyle makes use of the same mechanisms proposed by Gamow, but now there is the difference. In the stellar core, the density of matter is much higher than during the conditions Gamow postulates. The chance of a helium-4 nucleus being struck by two particles in an essentially simultaneous manner is therefore considerably better than in the Gamow theory. In fact, since the stellar core is richer in helium-4 than in anything else, there is a reasonably likely chance that a helium-4 nucleus will be struck by two other such nuclei in sufficiently rapid succession to form a carbon-12 atom. This would bypass the stable atoms between helium-4 and carbon-12 - the lithium, beryllium, and boron atoms previously mentioned. Those light atoms would be formed only by less common secondary processes, such as the break down of carbon-12, and that would account for their relative rareness in the Universe today.

There is also an interesting piece of evidence for this theory. The spectrum of certain unusual stars of spectral class S shows evidence for the presence of an element called "technetium". Technetium's a radioactive element that possesses no stable variety of atom. It follows that if technetium can be detected now, it cannot have existed at the time the star was formed (because of its instability) but must have made fresh will in the stars interior.

All in all Hoyle's theory seems to be the best.

THE SKY FOR DECEMBER 1972

1972				DECEMBER E.S.T.	Min. of Algol	Sun's Selen. Colong. 0h U.T.
d	h	m			h m	°
Fri.	1	11		Uranus 6°N. of Moon	9 10	211.77 <sup>b</sup>
Sat.	2					223.96
Sun.	3	01		Venus 7°N. of Moon		236.14
		01		Mars 5°N. of Moon		
		18		Venus 1.3° N. of Mars		
Mon.	4	07		Mercury 7° N. of Moon	6 00	248.33
		09		Moon at apogee (252,600 mi.)		
Tues.	5	10		Mercury Stationary		260.52
		15	24	New Moon		
Wed.	6					272.71
Thurs	7				2 50	284.90
Fri.	8			Mercury greatest hel. Lat. N.		297.09
		01		Jupiter 0.3°N. of Moon		
		21		Saturn at opposition		
Sat.	9				17 20	309.09
Sun.	10					321.46
Mon.	11				14 10	333.64
Tues.	12					345.81
Wed.	13	10	36	First Quarter		357.98 <sup>1</sup>
		16		Geminid meteors		
Thurs	14	01		Mercury greatest elong. W. (21°)		10.14
Fri.	15					22.29
Sat.	16					34.44 <sup>b</sup>
Sun.	17					46.57
Mon.	18	01		Mercury 0.2N. of Neptune		58.71
Tues.	19	08		Moon at perigee (222,500 mi.)		70.83
		10		Saturn 4°S. of Moon		
Wed.	20	01		Uranus 3°N. of Spica	10 50	82.96
		04	45	Full Moon		
		05		Mercury 6° N. of Aquarius		
Thurs	21	13	13	Solstice. Winter begins		95.08
Fri.	22	09		Ursid Meteors		107.21
Sat.	23	09		Venus 0.4°S. of Neptune		119.34
Sun.	24				7 40	131.47
Mon.	25	09		Venus 6°N. of Antares		143.61 <sup>1</sup>
Tues.	26					155.75
Wed.	27	05	27	Last Quarter	4 30	167.90
Thurs	28	19		Uranus 6°N. of Moon		180.06 <sup>b</sup>
Fri.	29					192.22
Sat.	30				1 20	204.39
Sun.	31			Mercury at descending node		216.56
		17		Moon at apogee (253, 200 mi)		

<sup>1</sup>Dec. 13, -7.42°; Dec. 25, +7.32°

<sup>b</sup>Dec. 1, +6.73°; Dec. 16, -6.73°; Dec. 28 +6.83°