20.5 THE LIFE CYCLE OF COSMIC MATERIAL

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain how interstellar matter flows into and out of our Galaxy and transforms from one phase to another, and understand how star formation and evolution affects the properties of the interstellar medium
- Explain how the heavy elements and dust grains found in interstellar space got there and describe how dust grains help produce molecules that eventually find their way into planetary systems

Flows of Interstellar Gas

The most important thing to understand about the interstellar medium is that it is not static. Interstellar gas orbits through the Galaxy, and as it does so, it can become more or less dense, hotter and colder, and change its state of ionization. A particular parcel of gas may be neutral hydrogen at some point, then find itself near a young, hot star and become part of an H II region. The star may then explode as a supernova, heating the nearby gas up to temperatures of millions of degrees. Over millions of years, the gas may cool back down and become neutral again, before it collects into a dense region that gravity gathers into a giant molecular cloud (**Figure 20.18**)

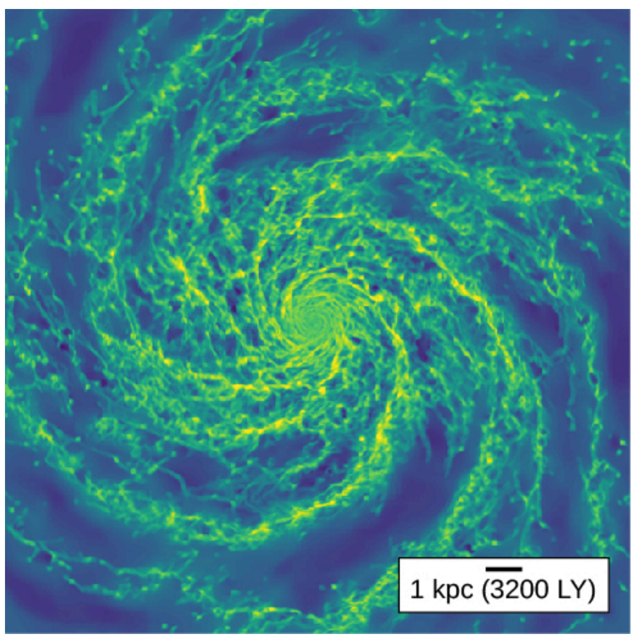

Figure 20.18 Large-Scale Distribution of Interstellar Matter. This image is from a computer simulation of the Milky Way Galaxy's interstellar medium as a whole. The majority of gas, visible in greenish colors, is neutral hydrogen. In the densest regions in the spiral arms, shown in yellow, the gas is collected into giant molecular clouds. Low-density holes in the spiral arms, shown in blue, are the result of supernova explosions. (credit: modification of work by Mark Krumholz)

At any given time in the Milky Way, the majority of the interstellar gas by mass and volume is in the form of atomic hydrogen. The much-denser molecular clouds occupy a tiny fraction of the volume of interstellar space but add roughly 30% to the total mass of gas between the stars. Conversely, the hot gas produced by supernova explosions contributes a negligible mass but occupies a significant fraction of the volume of interstellar space. H II regions, though they are visually spectacular, constitute only a very small fraction of either the mass or volume of interstellar material.

However, the interstellar medium is not a closed system. Gas from intergalactic space constantly falls onto the Milky Way due to its gravity, adding new gas to the interstellar medium. Conversely, in giant molecular clouds where gas collects together due to gravity, the gas can collapse to form new stars, as discussed in **The Birth of Stars and the Discovery of Planets outside the Solar System**. This process locks interstellar matter into stars. As the stars age, evolve, and eventually die, massive stars lose a large fraction of their mass, and low-mass stars lose very little. On average, roughly one-third of the matter incorporated into stars goes back into interstellar space. Supernova explosions have so much energy that they can drive interstellar mass out of the Galaxy and back into intergalactic space. Thus, the total amount of mass of the interstellar medium is set by a competition between the gain of mass from intergalactic space, the conversion of interstellar mass into stars, and the loss of interstellar mass back into intergalactic space due to supernovae. This entire process is known as the **baryon cycle**—baryon is from the Latin word for “heavy,” and the cycle has this name because it is the repeating process that the heavier components of the universe—the atoms—undergo.

The Cycle of Dust and Heavy Elements

While much of the mass of the interstellar medium is material accreted during the last few billion years from intergalactic space, this is not true of the elements heavier than hydrogen and helium, or of the dust. Instead, these components of the interstellar medium were made inside stars in the Milky Way, which returned them to the interstellar medium at the end of their lives. We will talk more about this process in later chapters, but for now just bear in mind what we learned in **The Sun: A Nuclear Powerhouse**. What stars “do for a living” is fuse heavier elements from lighter ones, producing energy in the process. As stars mature, they begin to lose some of the newly made elements to the reservoir of interstellar matter.

The same is true of dust grains. Dust forms when grains can condense in regions where gas is dense and cool. One place where the right conditions are found is the winds from luminous cool stars (the red giants and supergiants we discussed in **The Stars: A Celestial Census**). Grains can also condense in the matter thrown off by a supernova explosion as the ejected gases begin to cool.

The dust grains produced by stars may grow even further when they spend time in the dense parts of the interstellar medium, inside molecular clouds. In these environments, grains can stick together or gather additional atoms from the gas around them, growing larger. They also facilitate the production of other compounds, including some of the more complex molecules we discussed earlier.

The surfaces of the dust grains (see **Cosmic Dust**)—which would seem very large if you were an atom—provide “nooks and crannies” where these atoms can stick long enough to find partners and form molecules. (Think of the dust grains as “interstellar social clubs” where lonely atoms can meet and form meaningful relationships.) Eventually, the dust grains become coated with ices. The presence of the dust shields the molecules inside the clouds from ultraviolet radiation and cosmic rays that would break them up.

When stars finally begin to form within the cloud, they heat the grains and evaporate the ices. The gravitational attraction of the newly forming stars also increases the density of the surrounding cloud material. Many more chemical reactions take place on the surfaces of grains in the gas surrounding the newly forming stars, and these areas are where organic molecules are formed. These molecules can be incorporated into newly formed planetary systems, and the early Earth may have been seeded in just such a way.

Indeed, scientists speculate that some of the water on Earth may have come from interstellar grains. Recent observations from space have shown that water is abundant in dense interstellar clouds. Since stars are formed from this material, water must be present when solar systems, including our own, come into existence. The water in our oceans and lakes may have come initially from water locked into the rocky material that accreted to form Earth. Alternatively, the water may have been brought to Earth when asteroids and comets (formed from the same cloud that made the planets) later impacted it. Scientists estimate that one comet impact every thousand years during Earth's first billion years would have been enough to account for the water we see today. Of course, both sources may have contributed to the water we now enjoy drinking and swimming in.

Any interstellar grains that are incorporated into newly forming stars (instead of the colder planets and smaller bodies around them) will be destroyed by their high temperatures. But eventually, each new generation of stars will evolve to become red giants, with stellar winds of their own. Some of these stars will also become supernovae and explode. Thus, the process of recycling cosmic material can start all over again.

20.6 INTERSTELLAR MATTER AROUND THE SUN

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe how interstellar matter is arranged around our solar system
- Explain why scientists think that the Sun is located in a hot bubble

We want to conclude our discussion of interstellar matter by asking how this material is organized in our immediate neighborhood. As we discussed above, orbiting X-ray observatories have shown that the Galaxy is full of bubbles of hot, X-ray-emitting gas. They also revealed a diffuse background of X-rays that appears to fill the entire sky from our perspective (**Figure 20.19**). While some of this emission comes from the interaction of the solar wind with the interstellar medium, a majority of it comes from beyond the solar system. The natural explanation for why there is X-ray-emitting gas all around us is that the Sun is itself inside one of the bubbles. We therefore call our "neighborhood" the Local Hot Bubble, or **Local Bubble** for short. The Local Bubble is much less dense—an average of approximately 0.01 atoms per cm^3—than the average interstellar density of about 1 atom per cm^3. This local gas has a temperature of about a million degrees, just like the gas in the other superbubbles that spread throughout our Galaxy, but because there is so little hot material, this high temperature does not affect the stars or planets in the area in any way.

What caused the Local Bubble to form? Scientists are not entirely sure, but the leading candidate is winds from stars and supernova explosions. In a nearby region in the direction of the constellations Scorpius and Centaurus, a lot of star formation took place about 15 million years ago. The most massive of these stars evolved very quickly until they produced strong winds, and some ended their lives by exploding. These processes filled the region around the Sun with hot gas, driving away cooler, denser gas. The rim of this expanding superbubble reached the Sun about 7.6 million years ago and now lies more than 200 light-years past the Sun in the general direction of the constellations of Orion, Perseus, and Auriga.