

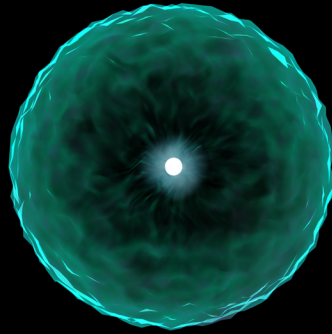
塵埃在宇宙中無處不在，且與恆星形成過程的循環緊密相繫。

塵埃誕生於緻密雲氣中心，那裡正是恆星形成的區域。對質量比太陽還大10倍以上的大質量恆星來說，僅僅短數百萬年，在燃料耗盡前就已灰飛煙滅，生命結束於一場稱作超新星的大爆炸。恆星的核心最終將成為中子星或是黑洞，不過大部分恆星的質量還是會回到當初誕生的星際雲氣，在那裡，塵埃在恆星生命過程及藉由超新星爆炸吸取重元素而逐漸形成。類似這樣的演化途徑也適用於與我們太陽類似的恆星，只是過程慢上許多，要花數十億年的時間。這個途徑裡的塵埃並非藉由一場大爆炸被噴發出去，而是在數萬年中被恆星風慢慢吹散。

海報中央為繪製的塵埃生命循環想像圖，兩旁則顯現實際天文觀測所得的影像。

塵埃的誕生

塵埃生命週期始於恆星的死亡：恆星瀕死之際，外殼向外噴發、層層褪去；噴發形式可能像超新星那樣一舉大爆炸，也可能更溫和些，像質量較小的恆星那樣緩緩噴發。噴發出的氣體最後會冷卻到比塵埃的凝結溫度（約1500K）更低的程度，塵埃粒於是形成。宇宙塵埃的天文物理之旅也就此展開。



塵埃自行星狀雲
逸散入星際介質

塵埃自紅巨星逸散
入星際介質

塵埃自超新星逸散
入星際介質

塵埃組成更新過程
經由恆星內部的核反應，
塵埃的成分會經歷更新的
過程。

塵埃駐留星際介質中
塵埃被瀕死恆星噴出的當下就進入
星際介質，在那裡可駐留約10億年
之久，此期間星際介質的一部分會
被衝擊波摧毀並在高密度區重組。

塵埃粒子變大過程
塵埃的旅程最後會終結
在緻密分子雲中，在此
融入正在成形的行星系
統。

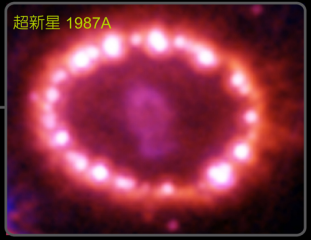
塵埃聚集成行星
因為系統中的密度非常高，
以致於塵埃粒會彼此碰撞、
相黏成塊，很快地聚集成小
卵石、岩石，最後甚至成長
為行星。我們認為太陽系也
是這樣誕生的。



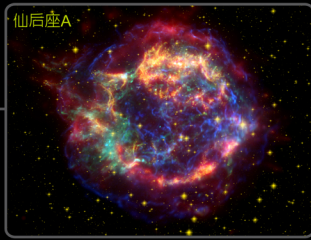
環狀星雲 (M57)
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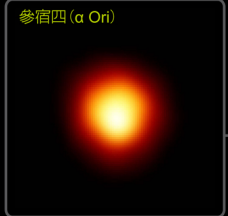
海山二 (η Car)
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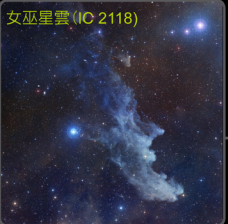
超新星 1987A
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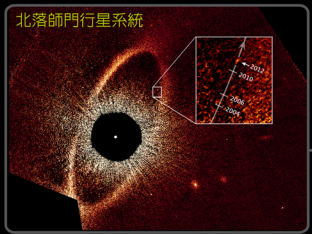
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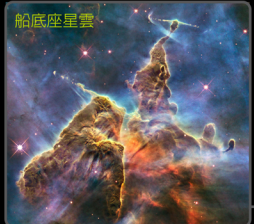
參宿四 (α Ori)
©Andrea Dupree (Harvard-Smithsonian CfA), Ronald Gilliland (STScI), NASA and ESA



女巫星雲 (IC 2118)
©NASA/STScI Digitized Sky Survey/Noel Carboni



北落師門行星系統
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船底座星雲
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Life Cycle of Cosmic Dust

Cosmic dust is omnipresent in the universe, which is closely related to the cycle of star formation.

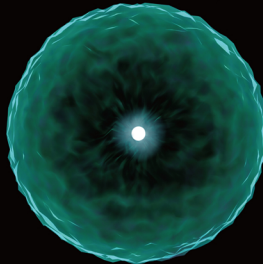
Dust is present in dense clouds, out of which stars form. High-mass stars, with masses 10 times higher than that of the Sun, burn only a few million years before their fuel is exhausted, and end their lives with an explosion, called supernova. The core of the star forms a neutron star or a black hole, but the majority of the stellar mass returns to the interstellar clouds from which it was once formed, enriched with heavy elements and dust grains created during the star's life and in the supernova explosion. Stars like our own Sun have a similar route, with the exception that the entire process takes place at a slower rate of a few billion years, with the dust grains gradually expelled in a stellar wind that can last for tens of thousands of years, rather than in a single explosion.

In this poster we illustrate the dust life cycle in the middle, with examples of the observation on the two sides.

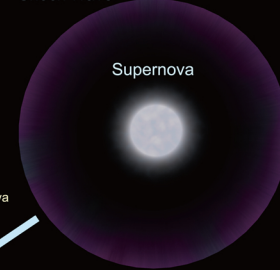
Birth of Dust

The life cycle of dust starts at the end of the life of stars: when stars are dying, the outer layers are blown off, either in an explosive fashion (as in the case of a supernova) if the star is high-mass, or in a more gentle way for smaller, less massive stars producing a planetary nebula. The ejected gas cools off to temperatures below the dust condensation temperature (about 1500 Kelvin), allowing for the formation of dust grains, thus beginning the journey of the astrophysical dust grain.

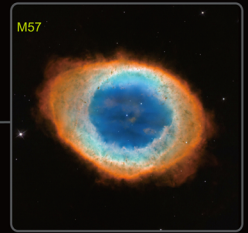
Planetary Nebula



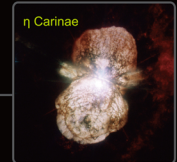
Shock Wave



Supernova



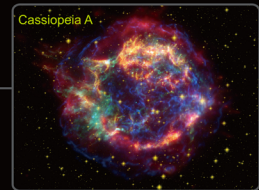
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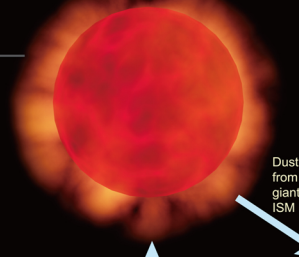


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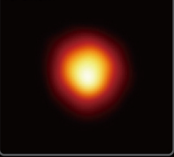


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Red Giant



α Orion

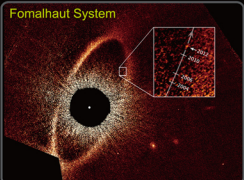


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Witch Head Nebula



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The Carina Nebula



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Interstellar Medium (ISM)

Dust resides in the ISM. Upon ejection by the dying star, the grain enters the Interstellar Medium (ISM), where it can reside for about 1 billion years, being (partially) destroyed by shocks and reformed in the dense medium.

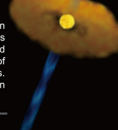
Dust grows during star formation

Eventually, it will end up in a dense molecular cloud, where it becomes part of a forming planetary system.

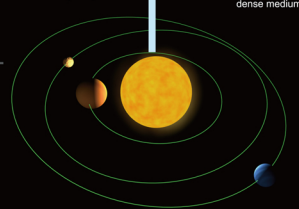
Dust accumulates to form planets

The densities are so high in these systems, that dust grains collide, sticking together, and quickly growing to the size of pebbles, rocks, or even planets. This is how we believe our own Solar System formed.

Star Formation



Planetary System



Formation of dust ingredients in stars

New dust material is created through nucleosynthesis in the cores of stars.

Dust disperses from a red giant to the ISM

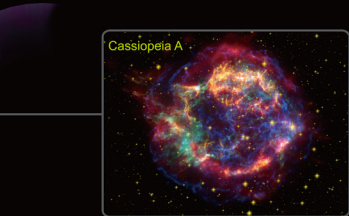
Dust disperses from a planetary nebula to the ISM

Dust disperses from a supernova to the ISM

Dust is re-formed in the dense medium

Dust is destroyed by shock wave

Shock Wave



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中央研究院
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ACADEMIA SINICA
Institute of Astronomy and Astrophysics

Credits: Francisca Kemper, Hirashita Hiroyuki, ASIAA

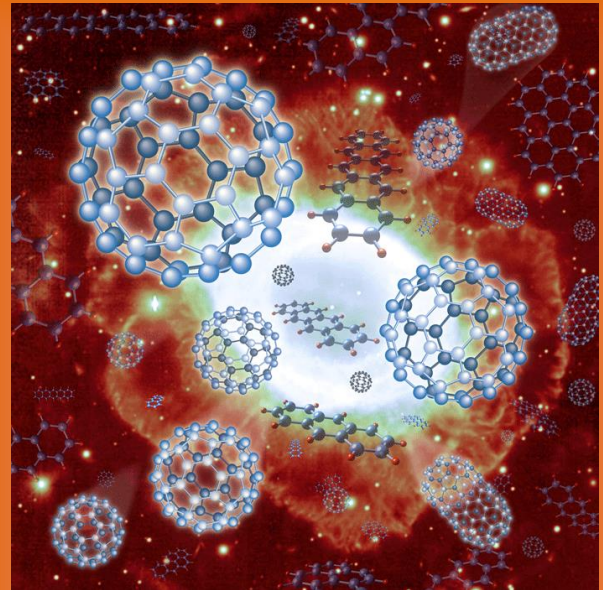
星塵傳奇簡介

恆星與恆星之間並非空無一物，這個空間其實含有相當稀薄的氣體，這些氣體的密度極低，低到一立方公分僅含有一顆原子的程度，這樣的密度比地球上任何實驗室做得出來的真空還要低。點綴在這些氣體之間的是細小、我們稱之為塵埃粒的固體物質，典型的塵埃大小為 0.1 微米（大約是人類髮絲厚度的千分之一）。這些散布在恆星間的氣體與塵埃，合稱為星際介質（the interstellar medium；簡稱 ISM）。星際介質中只有很小的比例（約佔重量的百分之一）是以塵埃的形式存在。

雖然塵埃的數量相對稀少，但是在許多天文物理過程中，塵埃扮演著重要的角色—這肇因於銀河系及其他星系皆極為寬廣：這樣大的範圍使得塵埃堆積程度大到足以截斷來自恆星的光線，星光被塵埃吸收，然後以熱輻射的型式在紅外線波段進行「再輻射」（reradiate）。對典型星系而言，約 30% 的星光會經過這樣的再處理程序；而對一個非常活躍、正在進行「恆星形成」的星系來說，這個數字可能會高達 90%！這意味著對一個位於星系外的觀測者而言，當他觀測這個星系時，看到的大部份輻射都來自塵埃；因此在解釋觀測結果前，先了解塵埃的物理性質是十分重要的。

研究塵埃的另一個動機基於一個事實：分子可以在塵埃顆粒表面形成。即使是宇宙中最簡單、最常見分子如：氫，在塵埃表面遠比在氣態環境裡更容易形成分子。氫分子就站在整個天文化學網路的起點，而該網路終將通往星際間所有已知複雜分子的形成之路（包括生物分子的前導物質）。因此，對我們今日周遭所見的所有化學組成來說（包括生命本身），星際間的塵埃顆粒可說是供其繁衍的沃土。

不可幸免地，塵埃本身也會被環境改變：像是輻射或衝擊波對塵埃的加熱、塵埃粒子間的相互碰撞、宇宙射線對塵埃的撞擊等等事件，都可



圖說：此一藝術家假想圖以行星狀星雲為背景，顯示分布在其前方的富勒烯分子。最近的觀測發現了這些星際中狀似足球的複雜分子（碳六十、碳七十及其他種類的分子）；但其實早在 1980 年代，天文學家就已經預測了這些複雜分子的存在，當前的研究則在越來越多環境中，證實它們的存在。本所研究人員（大塚雅昭與 Francisca Kemper）亦參與了最近這個富勒烯分子的研究發現。©日本國立天文台昴望遠鏡（Subaru Telescope）



圖說：此一藝術家假想圖以類星體為背景，顯示分布在其前方的星際塵埃。這些塵埃以尺寸小於 0.1 微米的礦物碎片形式存在，其礦物組成諸如：矽酸鹽、方鎂石與金剛砂等。©史匹哲太空望遠鏡/史匹哲太空中心/NASA

能改變塵埃顆粒的礦物組成。研究塵埃礦物學便能得知塵埃所在環境歷經過什麼樣的變化。最終，塵埃會在新近形成的恆星附近，成長碰撞並黏在一起，積聚成岩石，最後形成與我們居住的地球類似的行星。

除了上述三項理由，還有更多五花八門的觀點，來支持塵埃的天文物理研究，本所也有數位研究員投入這類的研究。本所目前正籌備一個以塵埃為主題的大型國際研討會，會議時間訂在 2013 年 11 月 18 到 22 日，地點在台北，屆時預計有來自全球大約兩百五十位科學家參加，在以塵埃為主題的會議中，此會議規模將會是五年內全球最大的一個。

本期天聞季報中，本所三位塵埃方面的研究人員—劉名章、平下博之與康逸雲，將為讀者們介紹天文物理研究中塵埃的各種不同面相。

(作者/Francisca Kemper；譯者/蔡殷智)



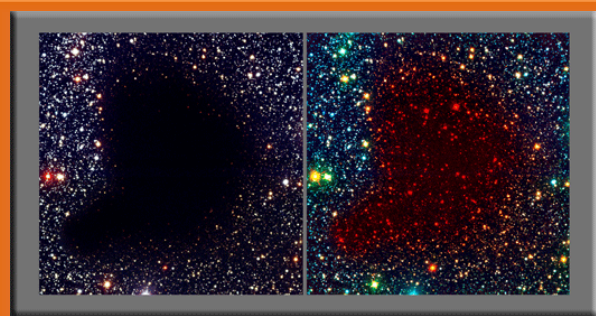
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星際塵埃的觀測

自古以來人們即已知星空中有許多看似空無一物的黑暗區塊，例如南十字星座的黑暗區域——煤袋星雲（Coalsack），在南半球為古代南美和澳洲文化所熟悉。直到 20 世紀初（1919 年），世人才發覺這類黑暗區塊並非星際間空無一物之處，而是前方雲氣遮擋背景星光所造成。很快地，人們便發現這些遮擋星光的物體是由極微小、吸收可見光很有效率的固體粒子所組成。這些微小粒子便是「星際塵埃」。

研究進一步指出這些塵埃分布在星際各處。縱使星際介質（星際間的塵埃和雲氣）中塵埃粒子的分布密度很低，恆星間與星系間的廣袤空間已足以容納放眼所及範圍內為數可觀的所有塵埃；塵埃粒子吸收光線、朦朧了背景星光，在天上形成晦暗區域。這可用霧氣瀰漫時所見的景象來比擬：大氣中水分子或懸浮粒子過多時，近處的山峰仍清晰，但遠方的山巒卻難以分辨，甚至在眼前消失。同樣的情形若發生在銀河系，代表一定的距離之外有太多塵埃阻擋了我們的視線，以致沒有任何星體在可見光下能被看見。因為遠處的星光都已經被遮蔽了，這個效應讓你在細數天上繁星時以為每個方向的星體數目「看來」都差不多，憑此你還可能會誤下結論，認為地球就位於銀河系的中心（在星系被發現以前，科學家甚至還以為我們位於已知宇宙的中心）！事實上我們是位在銀河系的邊陲，由於塵埃阻擋了來自遠方星體的光線，我們能數到的不過只是太陽周遭的星體而已。

這個遮蔽效應一開始雖然被天文學家視為觀測上的障礙，卻也提供了研究星際塵埃的機會。舉例來說，一群屬於同一星團與我們距離幾乎相同的恆星，藉由測量其中每顆星變暗的程度，便可建構出遮蔽星光的前景塵埃分布圖。視線上有些星體因為前方被更多塵埃擋著，所以看起來更暗；煤袋星雲就是一個很好的例子。



圖說：巴納德 68 位於蛇夫座是一個由低溫氣體與塵埃組成的巨大緻密分子雲。由於塵埃吸收了背景恆星發出的可見光，使得巴納德 68 所在之處看起來空無一物。（如左圖所示）然而，透過紅外線，天文學家可以穿透分子雲看見原先被遮蔽的星空（如右圖所示）。未來巴納德 68 可能會塌縮，進而誕生許多恆星。©Team/VLT Antu/ESO; ESO



圖說：哈柏太空望遠鏡拍攝的行星狀星雲 NGC 6302。行星狀星雲是已走入生命盡頭的類太陽恆星。不斷噴發的恆星風讓恆星外層擴散出美麗的輪廓，就像圖中的蝴蝶外型。此時中心的熱核逐漸暴露，高能輻射開始照亮周圍被噴出的氣體和塵埃，也點亮了這些雲氣。蝴蝶般外型的產生，是緻密塵埃組成的狹窄赤道盤面迫使恆星質量朝兩極方向逸散所致。©哈柏望遠鏡/太空望遠鏡科學研究所/NASA

當塵埃粒吸收星光，得到的能量轉換為熱能，提高了塵埃的溫度。任何有溫度的物體都會發出熱輻射，對塵埃粒而言，其溫度一般約可達數 10K 到 1500K 之間，其輻射範圍位於紅外線區域。在我們地球，熱輻射原理也應用在夜視鏡，鏡頭下人和動物的輻射就比冰冷無生命的建築或石頭要光亮許多。塵埃粒能達到的溫度，也與其和背景星光源的距離和星光源本身的亮度有關。塵埃粒的溫度不會比 1500K 更高（溫度上限依其組成而異），一旦超過這個溫度，塵埃粒便會蒸發，然後以個別原子的形式回歸氣態。

塵埃粒發出的熱輻射可用來估計一定範圍內的环境塵埃量。這項方法的優點是不需考慮背景光



圖說：SPICA 望遠鏡在軌道上運行的藝術家想像圖。這具紅外線太空望遠鏡將於 2020 年之後由日本航空研究開發機構總署（JAXA）發射，將是研究區域性或是遙遠宇宙寒冷環境中塵埃發射線的尖端利器。©ISAS、JAXA

源，我們可以只觀測塵埃本身的熱輻射，只是觀測波長範圍不是可見光而是紅外光。大氣層無法讓所有的紅外線都穿透，只有某些特定波長的紅外線才能夠到達地表。許多配備紅外光觀測儀器的望遠鏡就利用這些大氣窗口進行觀測，SUBARU 和 CFHT 就是其二。另一個紅外波段觀測更有效的方法是發射太空望遠鏡，直接從大氣層外觀測。最近的紅外線太空望遠鏡，像 AKARI、史匹哲（Spitzer）和赫歇耳（Herschel）在熱輻射的塵埃宇宙觀測上都成果斐然。本所現也參與了未來由日本領導的 SPICA 計畫，將以更高的靈敏度觀測紅外線宇宙。

塵埃的熱輻射依波長不同而有變化，這些變化與構成塵埃的礦物成分特性相互呼應，由此我們可以取得塵埃的「指紋」，進而確認其成份。利用這些資訊我們可以追蹤得知塵埃在其生命週期中如何變化。

塵埃生命週期始於恆星的死亡：恆星瀕死之際，外殼向外噴發、層層褪去；噴發形式可能像超新星那樣一舉大爆炸，也可能更溫和些，像質量較小的恆星那樣緩緩噴發。噴發出的氣體最後會冷卻到比塵埃的凝結溫度（約 1500K）更低的程度，塵埃粒於是形成，宇宙塵埃的天文物理之旅也就此展開。塵埃被瀕死恆星噴出的當下就進入星際介質，在那裡可駐留約 10 億年之久，此期間星際介質的一部分會被衝擊波摧毀再重組至少十次以上。

塵埃的旅程最後會終結在緻密分子雲中，在此融入正在成形的行星系統。因為系統中的密度非常高，以致於塵埃粒經常彼此碰撞、相黏成塊，很快地聚集成小卵石、岩石，最後甚至成長為行星。我們認為太陽系也是這樣誕生的。

本所的塵埃研究團隊對星系中塵埃週期的各個面向做了很多研究。類太陽恆星生命終結前噴發物中的塵埃生成，這個研究領域相當活躍。類太陽恆星不僅非常普遍，目前的數量也比終將成為超新星的大質量恆星要來的多；因此這類恆星也被認為是星系（如：銀河系和大小麥哲倫星系）中塵埃產出的主要來源。本研究團隊成員目前正努力估算這些星系中的類太陽恆星到底產出了多少塵埃。大小麥哲倫星系是距離我們最近且有清晰視野的星系，Mega-SAGE 國際合作團隊也曾利用史匹哲太空望遠鏡取得這兩個矮星系的影像。紅外線影像顯示這兩個矮星系各擁有的大約 850 萬和 250 萬顆恆星，其中於紅外波段擁有明顯塵埃發射線的恆星則可用來量測瀕死恆

星的塵埃產量。另一個針對銀河系進行觀測的類似計畫也正在進行，不過由於我們自身即位處銀河系中，無法置身其外取得清晰圖像，因此執行起來困難得多。

本所也有研究恆星生命週期中較後期、噴發出的塵埃即將進入星際介質中的行星狀星雲。此時期的恆星由於外層盡褪，中心熱核已然可見，正照耀著周圍的氣體和塵埃。此時此景非常壯觀，我們不僅能取得壯麗的影像，也有了更多研究星際塵埃的機會。最近我們對這類星體展開破六十（富勒烯）搜尋計畫。富勒烯是一種大分子，與塵埃種類之一、常見於瀕死恆星中的石墨息息相關。富勒烯也與生命誕生之初的分子關係密切。

更遙遠星系中星際塵埃的特性可能又明顯不同。一份類星體中塵埃組成的初步研究發現：這些塵埃的形成過程發生在類星體風從吸積盤發散出去之際，一堆不同的成分排列組合，這種結合方式在宇宙其他地方還沒見過。我們還觀察了「星遽增星系」（starburst galaxy）裡的塵埃，這些星系通常在兩個星系互撞後開始恆星形成，其恆星生成速率遠高於銀河系。對於這些星系中塵埃成分的高結晶發生率，我們也提出了解釋：在銀河系中，由於宇宙射線長久打在星際介質上，大多數塵埃都被非晶質化，但在這些活躍星系中卻不是這樣。

宇宙塵埃的天文物理觀測研究顯然是本所的專長領域之一，我們希望最終能夠對更多基本問題提出說明，例如：塵埃是如何生成？特別是在宇宙還很年輕時就已經存在的第一代塵埃。

（作者/Francisca Kemper；譯者/吳文正）



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宇宙塵埃的起源和演化

銀河裡塵埃瀰漫！可見光下的銀河系中央散布著烏雲，這些烏黑暗處之所以產生，是因為光線還沒來得及到達我們眼前就先被吸收散射的緣故。據此，天文學家推論銀河系的星際介質中含有許多小塵埃顆粒，並認為這些塵埃顆粒很可能是以矽酸鹽和碳為主要成分、直徑比一微米（1/1000 毫米）還小的固體微粒。

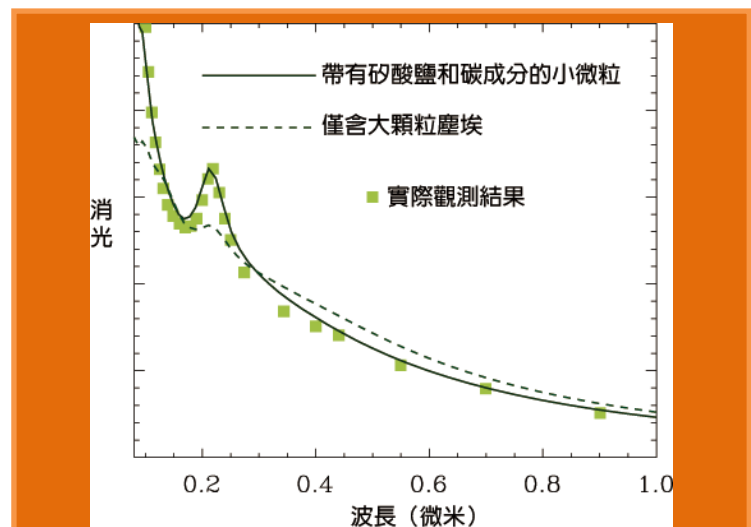
矽酸鹽和碳這兩種物質在地球上很常見，像矽酸鹽就是岩石或砂的主要成分。因此我們可以想像銀河裡也有許許多多類似這樣的小砂粒。由於地球本身就是這些「砂粒」聚集而成，因此地球上若出現和銀河塵埃成分類似的物質，也沒什麼好大驚小怪的。我們還可以再拿充斥地球的另一類粉塵—碳灰/煤煙來打比方，銀河裡的氣體同樣也被大量的煤煙狀物質所污染。

正因地球由塵埃顆粒所形成，如果我們想追溯地球的起源就必須先知道宇宙塵埃顆粒打哪兒來。這個問題非常棘手，天文學家至今對塵埃在宇宙中如何產生和演進仍沒有肯定的答案。儘管如此，線索還是有的。近來的天文發展，特別是紅外線太空望遠鏡和次毫米波地面觀測望遠鏡對宇宙塵埃各階段演化特性的研究貢獻良多。前者可以直接偵測具不同光譜特徵的塵埃，後者則可以探知來自遙遠宇宙的塵埃輻射。

我們該如何得知塵埃的特性呢？尤其是塵埃顆粒的組成和大小。宇宙塵埃又是從何而來？

一、塵埃顆粒的組成和大小

利用恆星觀測，我們可以推論出光線在星際旅行途中究竟被塵埃吸收和散射掉多少，也就是被「消光」(消光=吸收+散射)了多少。天文學家利用恆星觀測在不同波長下重複檢測，發現消光的程度會隨著波長而不同。米氏理論 (Mie Theory) 指出，當塵埃顆粒大小遠大於光波長 (約 0.5 微米) 時，消光就與波長無關。但是觀測結果卻清楚顯示：消光會隨著波長而變化 (圖一的曲線被稱為消光曲線)，這代表一般塵埃顆粒應該皆比 0.5 微米小。隨著波長變短，消光程度越變越大，表示有很多星際塵埃的顆粒甚至比 0.1 微米還小。根據這點，本所研究團隊假設地球上常見的微粒—矽酸鹽和碳也是宇宙塵埃家族的一份子，將這些微粒的特性代入電腦計算後，得到的消光曲線和實際觀測結果非常吻合。特別是曲線在波長 0.22 微米處出現的明顯隆起，證明就是比



圖一：以消光作為波長的一個函數，可以繪出所謂的「消光曲線」。根據塵埃是否含有矽酸鹽和碳微粒，由電腦計算兩種狀況下塵埃顆粒體積增大的數值後，繪製出兩條相應的消光曲線。圖中的虛線代表僅含大顆粒塵埃的情況，實線則代表帶有兩種成分小微粒（小於 0.1 微米）時的消光曲線。綠色方塊連成的曲線代表實際銀河觀測的消光情形，曲線左側在波長 0.22 微米處的隆起是碳微粒所造成的結果。©平下博之/中研院天文所。參考文獻：Hirashita & Yan, 2009, MNRAS, 394, 1061

0.1 微米還小的碳顆粒所造成的，這讓天文學家相信星際塵埃這種微小顆粒的主成分的確就是矽酸鹽和碳。

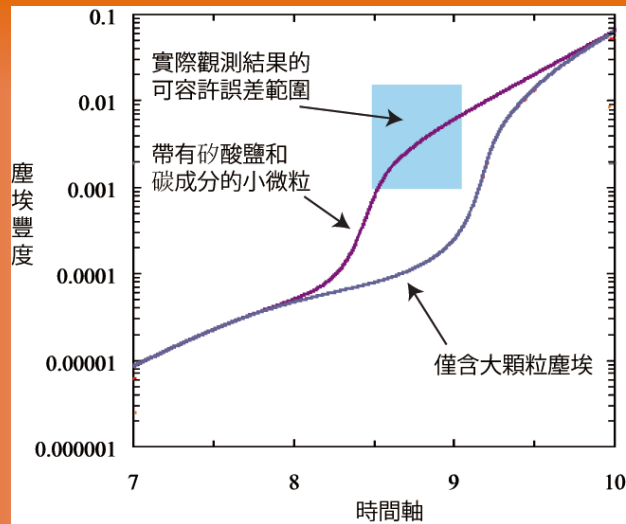
二、塵埃顆粒的起源

塵埃顆粒的形成有幾種機制。如上文所述，塵埃的成分主要是矽酸鹽和碳，因此諸如碳、氧、矽、鎂、鐵...等是主要構成元素。這些元素由恆星產生，在恆星演化的最後階段透過恆星風和超新星（哪種方式取決於恆星質量）被噴射到星際空間。來自恆星的塵埃顆粒一旦進入像分子雲那樣的緻密介質中，就會聚集長大。在星際介質裡，塵埃也會被超新星的衝擊波瞬間破壞濺散。因此如果想弄清楚宇宙星際中塵埃的演化，就得先知道這些塵埃顆粒是如何形成和毀滅的。（編註：宇宙的演化請詳見 2011 年夏季號天聞季報背面—宇宙圖）

近來由於觀測設備的進展，我們已經能看到遙遠宇宙中的塵埃，藉此可以一窺宇宙過去的樣貌。透過次毫米電波的輻射偵測，在宇宙年齡只有今日十分之一的時代所誕生、距離我們非常遙遠的類星體那裡發現了大量的塵埃。這個量（總質量）出乎意料之外地龐大，大到即使把當時恆星能釋放提供的所有塵埃質量全部加總起來都還無法解釋情況。也就是說，那個階段的宇宙應該要比我們想像的更「幼齒」，所以即使讓恆星所能提供的塵埃頃巢而出，也抵不上所觀測到、聚積在這些類星體中的龐大塵埃量。然而，真是這樣嗎？

為了解釋這個現象，本所研究團隊發現：假如從塵埃顆粒在緻密介質中體積會增大的這個方向來思考，便可解釋為何這些類星體帶有如此大的塵埃量（圖二）。此外，我們還發現塵埃若要快速長大，就必須有那些遠小於 0.1 微米的顆粒存在才行。這些結果顯示，只有藉由「塵埃長大來快速累積增加塵埃的量」才有辦法解釋遙遠類星體如此大量的塵埃豐度（dust abundance）；同時，小微粒的存在對刺激塵埃的提前「長大」來說是必要的。

由此可知，塵埃顆粒並不是靜態存在的固體顆粒；即便在早期的宇宙，塵埃顆粒也是不斷在動態成長的；於此同時，環境中小微粒的提供也不曾中斷。最近的研究還發現，這類小微粒是兩個塵埃顆粒互撞瓦解後的產物。有趣的是，宇宙中一眼望去看似平靜的暗雲之內，塵埃的成長或崩解卻是動態性地持續進行



圖二：本圖是由本所平下博之及郭子銘提出的理論模型計算得出的「氣體總成分中塵埃的相對豐度」演化圖。橫軸代表時間變化；縱軸是塵埃豐度。我們檢測了塵埃中是否帶有微粒（小於 0.1 微米）的兩種情況下的塵埃豐度變化。不含微粒（只有大顆粒塵埃）的情況下，因為塵埃體積增長得較慢，所以塵埃豐度的快速提升期也較晚出現，曲線無法解釋對遠方類星體的消光觀測結果（藍色方塊為該觀測結果可容許的誤差範圍）。塵埃中如果帶有微小顆粒，體積增大得快、塵埃豐度的快速提升期也出現得較早，其消光曲線與實際觀測結果吻合—曲線成功通過藍色方塊區域。©平下博之/中研院天文所。參考文獻：Kuo & Hirashita 2012, MNRAS, 432, 637

著。記住，地球同樣也是從這些塵埃顆粒形成的。期待天文界接下來的塵埃研究能讓我們對地球的形成有更全面的瞭解。

(作者/平下博之；譯者/陳筱琪)



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一粒沙中見世界 – 從隕石談太陽系起源

治平元年（公元 1064 年），常州日禺（日落）時，天有大聲如雷，乃一大星幾如月，見于東南，少時而又震一聲，移著西南，又一震而墜，在宜興縣民許氏園中，遠近皆見，火光赫然照天，許氏藩籬皆為所焚，是時火息，視地中只有一竅如杯大極深，下視之，星在其中熒熒然（發亮），良久漸暗，尚熱不可近，又久之，發（挖）其竅，深三尺餘，乃得一圓石，猶熱，其大如拳，一頭微銳，色如鐵，重亦如之。

—沈括夢溪筆談（卷廿）—

生命怎麼來？地球與另外七大行星如何出現？太陽系怎樣形成？宇宙間的元素又是如何產生與演化？這些「起源」相關問題無一不引人好奇。天文學家透過望遠鏡觀測其他恆星形成區，希望藉由觀測告訴大家：四十五億年前我們太陽系形成時可能發生的故事。

過去數十年的天文觀測與天文物理研究告訴我們，一個恆星的形成大致可以分成四個階段：從一開始緻密分子雲核心的塌縮、到原恆星吸積（周遭物質不斷往原恆星上累積）與吸積盤形成、到恆星質量逐漸增加與吸積盤逐漸消失、到最後星球中心溫度足以點燃核融合，吸積盤物質完全消散並變成我們現在看到的主序星與周邊的（可能）行星系統。由此我們可以合理推估：太陽系的形成過程應該也是如此。然而受限於解析度，天文觀測無法提供恆星周邊物理化學環境的相關細節，更遑論將這些資訊應用在我們這個太陽系上了。若真想知道太陽系的早期演化史，研究對象得要換成能見證太陽系形成的物體；也就是太陽吸積盤消失後所遺留下來的固體殘渣，這些殘渣若因某種巧合被地球吸引掉到地面，就成了本文要談的主角——隕石。

早在宋代，人們對隕石的掉落已有所記載。迄今，已有超過數萬顆隕石被人們發現，發現的方法有些是純屬巧合（Find），有些則是親眼目睹隕石掉落而循跡找著（Fall）。這些石頭大小和重量都不一，唯一的共通點是：它們都是建造固體行星的殘餘物，親身經歷並且保留了太陽系最早期的環境資訊。宇宙化學家（cosmochemists）的任務，便是試著用最精密的儀器測量隕石中的化學與同位素組成，抽絲剝繭，把太陽系形成的秘密一點一滴解讀出來。

隕石的各種研究中，能透露出最多太陽系最早期環境訊息的就屬鈣鋁包裹體（Ca-Al-rich Inclusion，簡稱 CAI）中同位素組成的研究了。CAI 是大小約在幾百微米到一公分左右的小固體（見下圖），其礦物組成和太陽系最高溫礦物種類相同（熱力學計出最高溫礦物群約在絕對溫度 1500K 左右形成），也因此被認為是太陽系最古老的固體。CAI 和其他地球岩石一樣，帶有各種不同的長半衰期放射性同位素，比如說鈾-238。CAI 的年齡可以透過測量這些同位素與衰變產物的豐度而得知：目前最精確的「鈾鉛定年技術」顯示它們是在四十五億六千八百萬年前形成的，比地球或月球上最老的岩石還要早至少五億年，對宇宙化學家來說，這也代表了太陽系的年紀。

除了長半衰期同位素，太陽系在剛形成的數百萬年內還存在另一些放射性同位素，如鈣-41（半衰期 0.1 百萬年）、鋁-26（半衰期 0.7 百萬年）、鉍-10（半衰期 1.5 百萬年）、鐵-60（半衰期 2.4 百萬年）等。這些同位素的半衰期相當短，若它們能在早期太陽系存留，並且被 CAI 記錄下

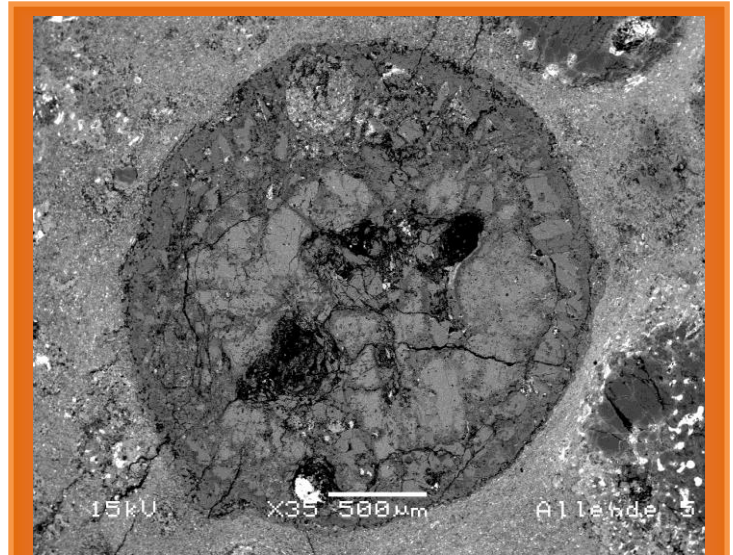
來，表示太陽系應該是在這些短半衰期元素的核反應發生後沒多久就形成了，否則這些元素就會因衰變殆盡而不見蹤影，無法被包裹進 CAI 中。

不一樣同位素有著不同的天文物理來源，換句話說，如果能瞭解這些短半衰期同位素在太陽系形成時的分佈與豐度，我們便可回溯這些同位素的來源，並推論出太陽系形成時的周遭環境。比如說鈹-10，這個無法由恆星製造的短半衰期同位素，必須仰賴高能帶電粒子打在適當的標靶核種（比如說氧-16）上才能產生；而高能粒子則來自宇宙射線、或是早期相當劇烈的太陽閃焰。鈹-10 在太陽系的初始豐度可由測量 CAI 得知（至於怎麼測量，那又是另外一段故事了），而太陽閃焰照射所

產生的鈹-10 豐度經由理論計算亦證實和測量結果相近，這表示：太陽在形成初期，其磁場活動相當劇烈，釋放出來的高能粒子造成大量的鈹-10 被記錄在隕石中。另一個特殊的短半衰期同位素為鐵-60，此同位素和鈹-10 恰好相反，無法靠高能帶電粒子產生，而必須在較高質量的恆星內部先形成，再被丟進太陽系中。因此，如果從存在早期太陽系的隕石中找到鐵-60，就表示太陽系形成時（或形成前不久），應該曾有大質量恆星以爆炸或是質量流失的方式將元素形成後的核種（包含鐵-60）丟進太陽系。由此推論，太陽系形成前，其周圍空間可能已有大質量恆星佔據著，太陽是誕生在一個星團之中。

同位素的重要性，除了可用來研究太陽系形成時的天文物理環境，還可應用在研究太陽系演化最初期的時間表。天文學裡有個讓人感興趣的主題：原恆星盤是幾時消散的？從觀測年輕恆星可以得知，有原恆星盤的天體年齡約莫都在兩、三百萬年以內，年紀越大（五、六百萬年以上）的天體有恆星盤的比例越少；一千萬年左右的恆星，其吸積盤早已消失殆盡。前面提到，CAI 為太陽系最古老的固體，形成在相當高溫的吸積盤中；CAI 中所保存的短半衰期同位素—鋁-26，就非常適合用來推算原恆星盤存在時間的同位素。透過對 CAI 的分析，我們推估出太陽吸積盤存在的時間只有大約從太陽形成後算起的四、五百萬年，與天文觀測所得到的時間尺度相符。此又是一個從隕石看天文的例子。

（作者/劉名章）



圖說：從電子顯微鏡看太陽系最古老的固體：鈣鋁包裹體（CAI）是大小約在幾百微米到一公分左右的小固體。©中研院天文所



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【最新消息】

「宇宙塵埃的生命週期」國際研討會

本所將於 11 月 18 至 22 日舉辦宇宙塵埃領域的天文物理大型國際研討會。本次會議旨在研討宇宙中塵埃的生命循環、塵埃在不同環境下的形成演化、和塵埃如何被破壞瓦解。本國際會議係 1972 年於紐約州立大學 Albany 分校舉辦的塵埃天文物理會議以來的系列之一；最近一次的宇宙塵埃國際研討會於 2008 年在德國海德堡大學舉辦。這 5 年間，塵埃天文物理學憑藉紅外線太空望遠鏡 Spitzer、Herschel、Stardust 的大量數據在研究上有了飛躍性的突破。研討會將從天文物理、化學和礦物學的角度、和不同環境的影響來切入討論。研討會註冊截止日期為 10 月 25 日，會議資訊請詳見網頁：<http://events.asiaa.sinica.edu.tw/meeting/20131118/>



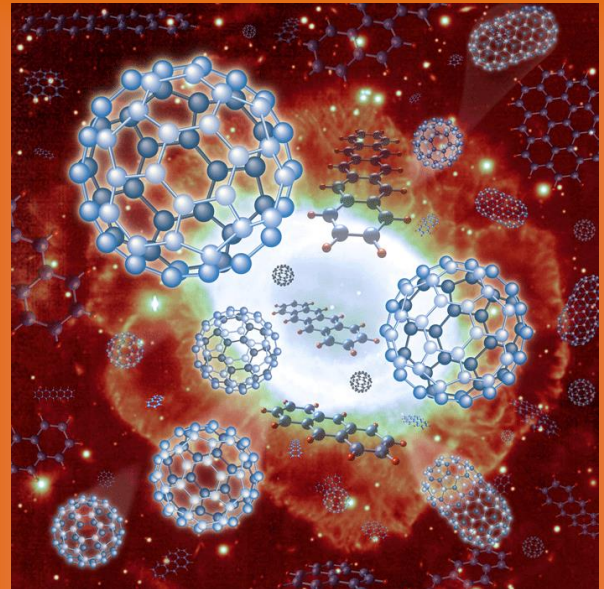
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Introduction

The space between the stars is not empty. It contains a tenuous gas with a density of 1 atom per cubic cm, which is much lower than the best vacuum achieved in laboratories on Earth. Interspersed with this gas are tiny specks of solid material, usually referred to as dust grains, with a typical size of 0.1 micron (about 1/1000 of the thickness of a human hair). Together, this gas and dust reservoir between the stars is called the Interstellar Medium. Only a small fraction (about 1 wt.%) of the Interstellar Medium is in the form of dust.

Despite its relative rarity, dust plays a major role in several astrophysical processes. This is possible because of the immense size of the Milky Way and other galaxies: over these distances enough dust may build up to intercept the light of stars, absorb it, and reradiate it as heat radiation at infrared wavelengths. For a typical galaxy, about 30% of the starlight is reprocessed this way, and in actively star forming galaxies this number may be as high as 90%! This means that an outside observer sees mostly the emission from dust grains, when observing these galaxies, and understanding the physical properties of dust is important to interpret these observations.

Another motivation to study dust is the fact that the surface of dust grains enables the formation of molecules. Even the simplest and most common molecule in the Universe (H_2 ; molecular hydrogen) is much more easily formed on the surface of dust grains than in the gas phase. The H_2 molecule stands at the beginning of the astrochemical network, which ultimately leads to the formation of all complex molecules known in space, including the precursors of biological molecules. Thus, dust particles in space are eventually the breeding ground for all chemical components that we see around us today,



Artist impression of fullerenes in front of a planetary nebulae. Recently, these complex molecules (C_{60} , C_{70} , and other species), with a similar shape as soccer balls, have been discovered in space, after their existence was predicted in the 1980s, and current research reveals their presence in more and more environments. Researchers at ASIAA (Masaaki Otsuka and Ciska Kemper) are involved in this work. Image source: Subaru Telescope, National Astronomical Observatory of Japan.



Dust in space takes the form of small (0.1 micron in size) chips of minerals, such as silicates, periclase and corundum, here envisioned in front of a quasar (artist impression). Image source: Spitzer Space Telescope, Spitzer Science Center, NASA

including life itself.

Dust itself is not immune to changes either: certain events, such as heating by radiation or shocks, or collisions with other grains, or cosmic ray hits can alter the mineralogical composition of dust grains. Studying the mineralogy of dust can reveal in what environments the dust has been processed. Eventually, in the vicinity of newly formed stars, dust grains grow collide and stick together, growing into rocks, and eventually planets like our own Earth.

Besides these three reasons, there are many more arguments to study astrophysical dust, and several researchers at IAA are deeply involved in such studies. The IAA is also organizing a large international conference on this topic, to take place from 18-22 November 2013 in Taipei. Around 250 scientists from around the world are expected to participate, making this meeting the largest on this topic in 5 years world-wide. In this newsletter dust research at IAA is highlighted by three researchers (Ming-Chang Liu, Hiroyuki Hirashita and Ciska Kemper), describing different aspects on the study of astrophysical dust.

(Author/ Franciska Kemper)



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Observations of Interstellar Dust

Dark patches in the sky have been known for a long time; one is even discernable in with the naked eye in the Southern Hemisphere, and was known to ancient South-American and Australian cultures. This is the Coalsack, a dark region in the Milky Way in the constellation of Crux. It was only in the early 20th century though, that it was only in 1919 though, that it was realized that such dark patches are not a void in the stellar distribution, but due to obscuration of background stars by foreground clouds. The obscuring matter, it was quickly realized, was formed by microscopically small solid particles that efficiently absorb visual light. These small particles are usually referred to as "dust".

Further studies showed that dust is present in all directions, and although the density of dust grains in the Interstellar Medium (the gas and dust between stars) is low, the large distances between stars and galaxies allow a significant amount of dust to be present in any sightline, causing dimming of the starlight due to absorption by the dust grains. This can be compared to what is happening on foggy or hazy days: when there are too many water droplets or aerosol particles present in the atmosphere, nearby mountains may still be clearly visible, while more distance mountains become hard to discern or virtually impossible to see. In the Milky Way, this means that beyond a certain distance, we cannot see any stars anymore, in the optical, because too much dust has built up, and is blocking our view. If you were to do starcounts, in each direction of the sky, you may find that due to this effect, you see more or less the same number of stars in each direction, because more distance stars are obscured, and you may conclude that the Earth is located in the center of the Milky Way (or indeed the known Universe, as scientist used to think prior to the discovery of galaxies)! In fact we are located towards the outskirts of the Milky Way, and star counts only probe the direct environment of the Sun, due to dust obscuration of more distant objects.

Although it was initially seen as a nuisance to observational astronomers, this obscuration also offers an opportunity to study dust. For instance, if we have a collection of stars at the same distance, because they belong to the same cluster, we could measure the amount of dimming that each of the stars experiences and use this information to create a map of the distribution of foreground dust that obscures the starlight. Some lines-of-sight may experience more dimming than others, due to a larger amount of dust in front of the stars. The Coalsack is an obvious example of this.

When a dust grain absorbs starlight, the energy added to the dust grain is converted to thermal energy, causing the grain to rise in temperature. Any object with a temperature emits heat radiation, and for the typical temperatures that dust grains achieve (between a few tens of Kelvin to around 1500 Kelvin), this radiation occurs in the infrared. On Earth, the principle of thermal radiation is used for night vision goggles, for instance, where warm human beings and animals radiate brighter than cold inanimate objects such as buildings, and rocks. The temperatures that the dust grains reach depend on the closeness and brightness of the source of starlight that they are exposed too. Grains cannot become

hotter than about 1500 Kelvin (depending on the composition), because at this temperature the grain evaporates, and the individual atoms return to the gas phase.

The thermal emission coming from a grain can be used to estimate the amount of dust present in a range of environments. The advantage of using this technique, is that a background source is not needed: we can observe the thermal emission by itself, but the emission is not visible in the optical, but in the infrared. The atmosphere is not transparent to all infrared radiation, only in certain atmospheric windows does the infrared radiation reach the ground. Several telescopes are equipped with instruments to observe the infrared radiation in these atmospheric windows, SUBARU and CFHT among them. A more fruitful approach is studying infrared radiation from outside the atmosphere, by launching a space telescope. A recent generation of infrared space telescopes, including AKARI, Spitzer and

Herschel, has been hugely successfully in observing the dusty Universe in thermal emission, and IAA is currently involved in the future Japanese-led SPICA mission that will observe the infrared Universe at even higher sensitivities.

The thermal dust emission shows variations with wavelengths, in a pattern characteristic for the minerals that make up the dust, thus allowing us to obtain the "fingerprints" of the dust, and identify its composition. We can use this information to trace how the dust changes during its life cycle.

The life cycle of dust starts at the end of the life of stars: when stars are dying, the outer layers are blown off, either in an explosive fashion in case of a supernova, or in a more gentle way for smaller, less massive stars. The ejected gas cools off to temperatures below the dust condensation temperature (about 1500 Kelvin), allowing for the formation of dust grains, thus beginning the journey of the astrophysical dust grain. Upon ejection by the dying star, the grain enters the Interstellar Medium, where it can reside for about 1 billion years, being (partially) destroyed by shocks and reformed at least ten times.

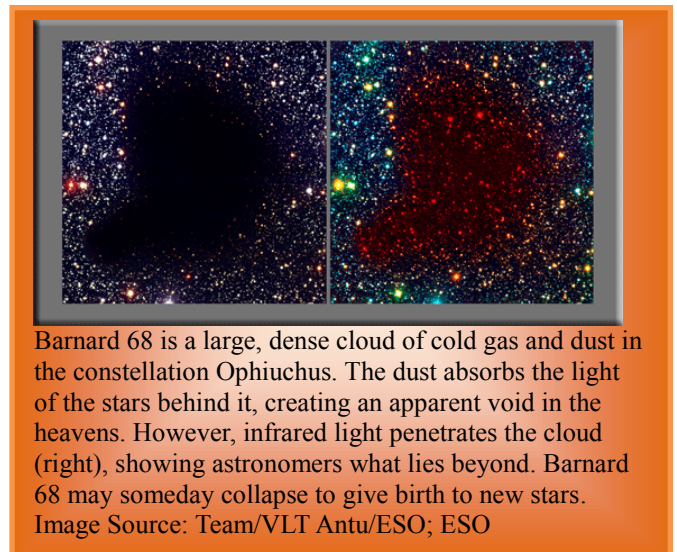
Eventually, it will end up in a dense molecular cloud, where it becomes part of a planetary system in



NGC 6302, a Planetary Nebula, imaged with the Hubble Space Telescope. Planetary Nebulae are Solar-type stars that have reached the end of their lives. The gradual stellar wind has caused the outer layers of the star to dissipate in beautiful shapes, like the butterfly shape in the figure, while the inner hot core of the star becomes exposed, and starts to illuminate the ejected gas and dust with high-energy radiation, causing the cloud to light up. The butterfly shape is formed because a narrow equatorial waist, caused by a dense dusty disk, has forced the stellar mass-loss in the two polar directions. Image Source: Hubble Space Telescope, Space Telescope Science Institute, NASA

formation. The densities are so high in these systems, that dust grains collide often, sticking together, and quickly grow to the size of pebbles, rocks, or even planets. This is also how we believe our own Solar System is formed.

At IAA, the dust research group studies various aspects of the life cycle of dust in galaxies. The formation of dust in the ejecta of Sun-like stars at the end of their lives is an active area of research. These stars are very common, and by far outnumber the more massive stars that eventually end their lives as supernovae. Sun-like stars are thus thought to be responsible for the majority of the dust production in a galactic system, like our own Milky Way and the Magellanic Clouds. Group members at IAA are currently working on estimating the dust production by Sun-like stars



in these galaxies. The Magellanic Clouds are the nearest galaxies to which we have an unobstructed view, and the international Mega-SAGE collaboration has mapped these two dwarf galaxies using the Spitzer Space telescope. The infrared images of these two dwarf galaxies show 8.5 and 2.5 million stars respectively, of which the ones with clear dust emission in the infrared are being used to measure the dust production by dying stars. A similar project is underway for the Milky Way, which is much harder because of the fact that we are located inside the Milky Way ourselves, and don't have the clarity of the outside vantage point.

We are also looking at even later stage objects, Planetary Nebulae, where the ejected dust is about to enter the Interstellar Medium. Because the star has now completely shed its outer layers, the hot core becomes visible, and is illuminating the surrounding gas and dust. This leads to spectacular images, and a different opportunity to study stardust. Recently, we have embarked on a project to search C_{60} in such objects. C_{60} (buckminsterfullerene) is a large molecule, that is actually closely related to dust species like graphite, which is commonly seen in dying stars. It is also related to pre-biological molecules.

In more distant galaxies the properties of interstellar dust may be markedly different. An initial study, looking at the composition of dust inside quasars, as it forms in the quasar winds lifting off the accretion disks, shows that it exhibits a mixture of components, not seen in this combination anywhere else in the Universe. We have also looked at dust in so-called starburst galaxies, where star formation occurs at a much higher rate than in the Milky Way, usually following a collision between two galaxies, and we explain the high incidence of crystallized dust components in these galaxies. In our own Milky Way, most of the dust has been amorphitized due to cosmic ray hits over the long residence

time in the Interstellar Medium, but this is not the case in such active galaxies.

The observational study of astrophysical dust is clearly an area of expertise at IAA, and we hope to ultimately be able to address the more fundamental questions on how dust forms, particularly the first generation of dust that was around when the Universe was still very young.

(Author/Franciska Kemper)



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Origin and Evolution of Dust in the Universe

The Milky Way is dusty. If we see the Milky Way in the optical light, we can see dark clouds in the middle of the Milky Way. The darkness is due to the absorption and scattering of the light from stars before it reaches us. Astronomers consider that the dust grains are tiny solid particles composed of silicate and carbon and that their sizes are less than $1 \mu\text{m}$ ($1/1000 \text{ mm}$). So the interstellar medium of the Milky Way contains such small particles – dust grains.

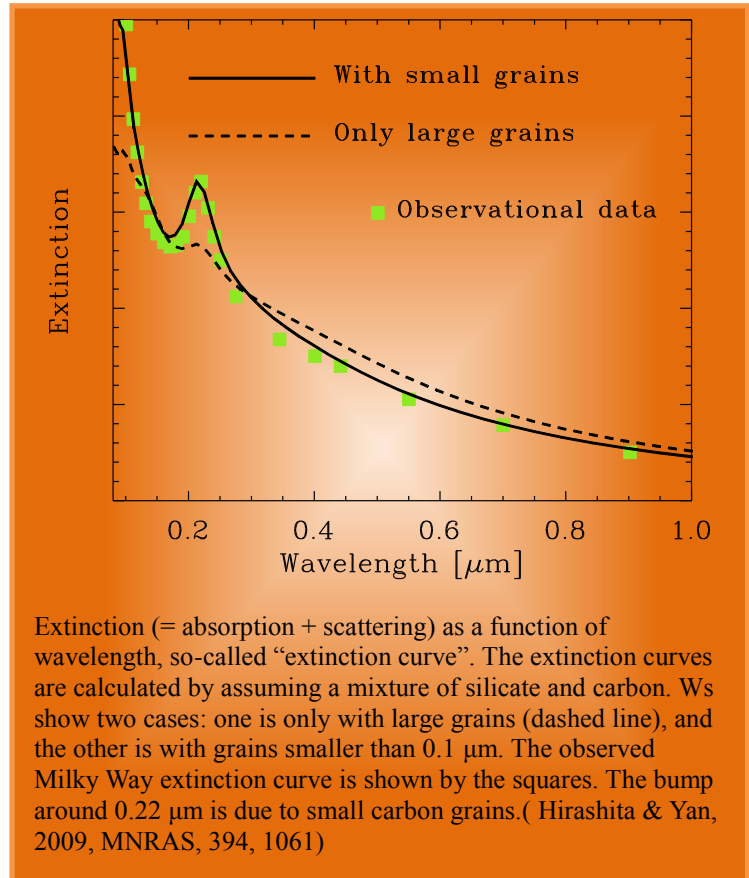
Silicate and carbon are common materials on the Earth. Silicate is the main material for rocks or sands. So you can imagine that there are a lot of very small sand particles in the Milky Way. The Earth itself was formed after the build-up of dust grains, so it is natural that the materials on the Earth have similar compositions to the dust in the Milky Way. An analogue of another dust component, carbon dust, is soot, so you can imagine that the gas in the Milky Way is contaminated by soot-like materials.

Because the Earth was formed from dust grains, if we would like to know the origin of the Earth, we need to reveal the origin of dust grains in the Universe. This is a very difficult problem: astronomers have not reached the final answer about how the dust has been produced and evolved in the Universe. Nevertheless, there are some clues. In particular, infrared space telescopes, which can directly detect various spectroscopic features of dust, and submillimeter ground-based telescopes, which can detect the emission from dust in the distant Universe (= the early Universe where the cosmic age is young) have recently been contributing to revealing the evolutionary properties of dust.

How can we know the dust properties, especially the composition and size of dust grains? What is the origin of the dust?

I. The composition and size of dust grains

From observations of stars, we can infer how much light is absorbed and scattered by dust in the line of sight. By doing this at various wavelengths, we can derive the wavelength dependence of extinction (extinction = absorption + scattering). The Mie theory tells us that, if the dust grain size is much larger than the optical wavelengths ($\sim 0.5 \mu\text{m}$), the extinction has no wavelength dependence. Observationally, we see a clear wavelength dependence in the extinction (Fig. 1; the curve is called extinction curve). Therefore, the dust grains should be



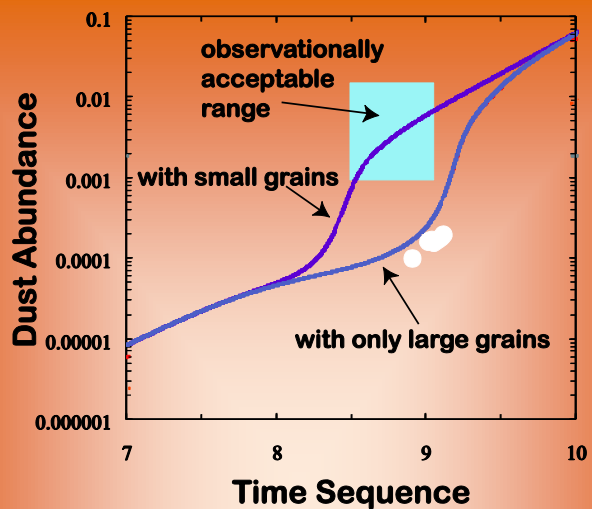
typically smaller than $0.5 \mu\text{m}$. The extinction rises toward shorter wavelengths, indicating that there should be a lot of dust grains whose sizes are even smaller than $0.1 \mu\text{m}$. Moreover, if we assume silicate and carbon, which are natural in the sense that they are also common on the Earth, as dust species, we can reproduce the extinction curve very well. In particular, the clear bump around a wavelength of $0.22 \mu\text{m}$ is due to small ($\ll 0.1 \mu\text{m}$) carbon grains. Therefore, astronomers believe that dust grains are small particules composed of silicate and carbon.

II. The origin of dust

There are some formation mechanisms of dust grains. As mentioned above, the dust is mainly composed of silicate and carbon, so the main elements are C, O, Si, Mg, Fe, These elements are produced in stars and ejected at the final stage of stellar evolution (stellar wind or supernovae, depending on the stellar mass). After the dust grains are injected from stars, they may grow if they are included in the dense medium such as molecular clouds. The dust is also destroyed in the interstellar medium by supernova shocks. Therefore, we should consider these formation and destruction mechanisms of dust grains to clarify the evolution of dust in the Universe.

Recent development of observational facilities has enabled us to see the dust in distant Universe, where we can observe the Universe in the past. In very distant quasars at the epoch when the age of the Universe is only 1/10 of the current age, a large amount of dust has been detected by observing radio (submillimeter) emission from dust. Such a large amount of dust has been a mystery since even the sum of all the dust supply from stars failed to explain the large dust amount. In other words, the Universe is too young for stars to supply and accumulate dust in these quasars.

Tzu-Ming Kuo and I tackled this mystery and found that, if we consider dust growth in the dense medium, we can naturally explain the large dust content in those quasars (Fig. 2). Moreover, they also show that for the rapid dust growth, dust grains much smaller than $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ should exist. These results indicate that the rapid dust increase by dust growth is essential in explaining the large dust abundance in distant



The evolution of dust abundance relative to the total gas content calculated by the theoretical models developed by Tzu-Ming Kuo and me (Kuo & Hirashita 2012, MNRAS, 432, 637). The horizontal axis shows the time sequence. The vertical axis show the dust abundance. We examine two cases: without and with small ($< 0.1 \mu\text{m}$) dust grains. Without small grains (i.e., only with large grains), the rapid increase of dust abundance due to dust growth comes later, failing to explain the observationally acceptable range (blue box) for the distant quasars. With small grains, the rapid increase of the dust abundance by dust growth occurs earlier, and the line successfully pass through the observational range (blue box), which means that we can successfully explain the dust abundance observed in the quasars. (Kuo & Hirashita 2012, MNRAS, 432, 637)

quasars and that the existence of small grains is crucial to activate dust growth earlier.

So dust grains are not static solid particles. Even at the early epoch of the Universe, dust grains are dynamically growing and at the same time, small grains are continuously being supplied. Recent studies also revealed that such small grains are supplied as a result of grain disruption after two dust grains collide with each other. It is interesting that in dark clouds, which appear to be a quiet environment at a glance, dust has evolved through such dynamical growth or disruption. Remember, too, that the Earth was formed from those dust grains. We expect that further studies of dust by astronomers will lead to a complete understanding of the formation of the Earth.

(Author/Hiroyuki Hirashita)



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