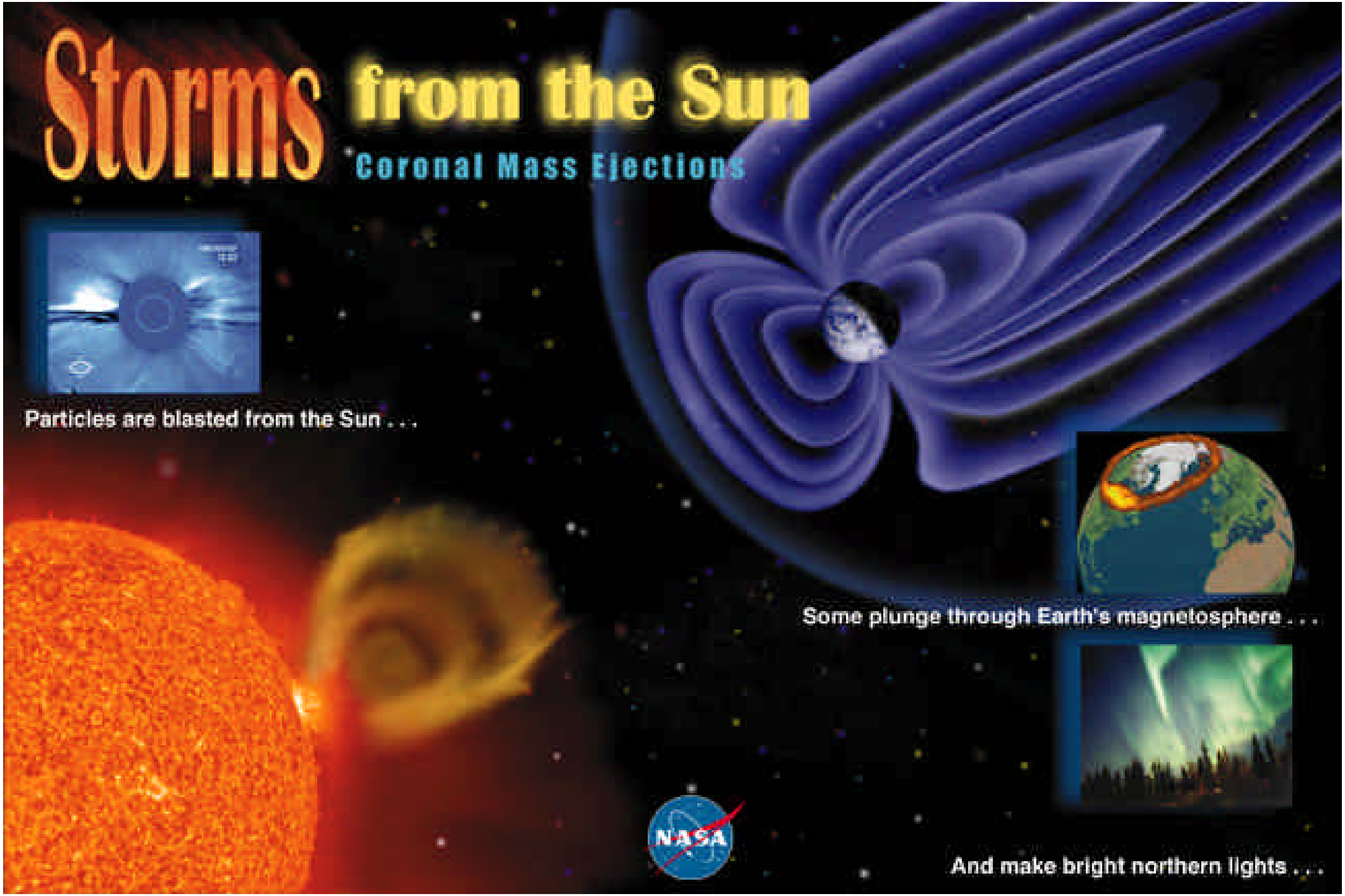
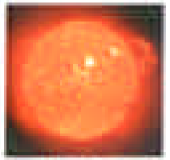
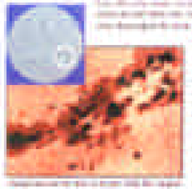

Storms from the Sun
Coronal Mass Ejections
Particles are blasted from the Sun . . .
Some plunge through Earth's magnetosphere . . .
And make bright northern lights . . .
NASA

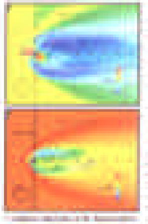
STORMS from the SUN

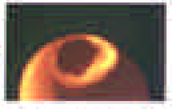
Bubble, Bubble, Toil and Trouble

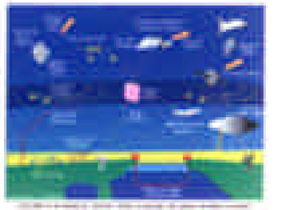


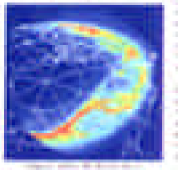


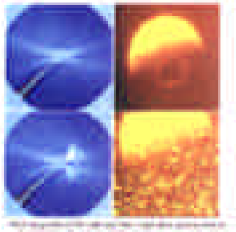
Storm Front





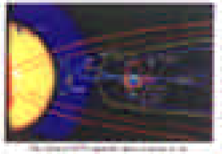


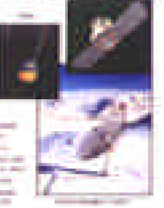




Hurricane Sol

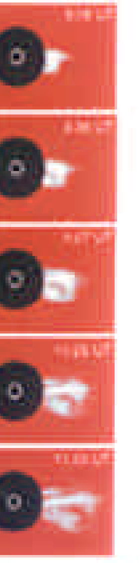
Seeing the Invisible





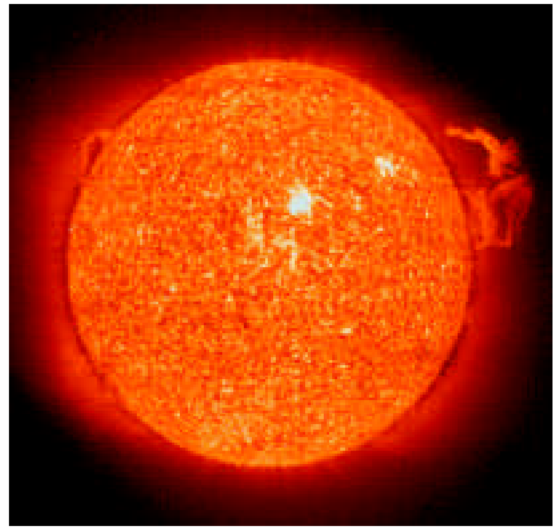
Make Your Own Sun-Earth Connection

Measure the Motion of a Coronal Mass Ejection



NASA Resources for Educators

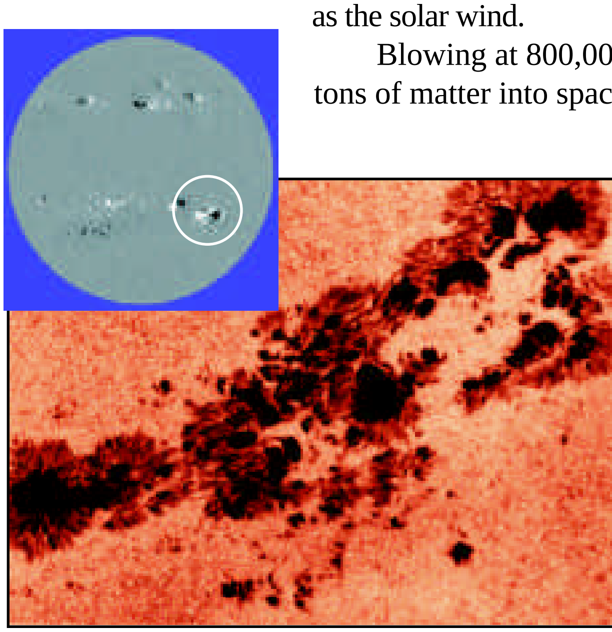
Bubble, Bubble, Toil and Trouble



A close-up of the Sun (shown in ultraviolet light) reveals a mottled surface, bright flares, and tongues of hot gas leaping into space.

Looking at the sky, you would think the Sun is static, placid, constant. From the ground, the only features that seem to change are where and when the Sun will appear: will clouds block its rays today? Will it rise at 6:30 or 7:30 a.m.? But while our Sun does give us a steady stream of warmth and light, it also has weather that is turbulent and dynamic, provoking the cosmic equivalent of winds, clouds, waves, precipitation, and storms.

The Sun is a huge thermonuclear reactor, fusing hydrogen atoms into helium and producing million degree temperatures and intense magnetic fields. Near its surface, the Sun is like a pot of boiling water, with bubbles of hot, electrified gas—actually electrons and protons in a fourth state of matter known as plasma—circulating up from the interior, rising to the surface, and bursting out into space. The steady stream of particles from the Sun is known as the solar wind.

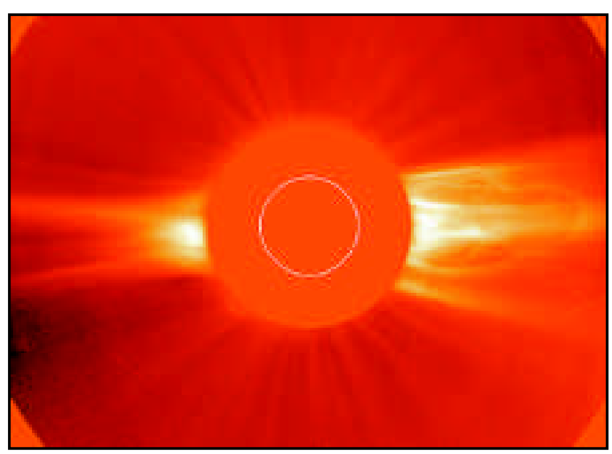


Though they look like burns in the face of the Sun, sunspots are actually much cooler than the rest of the surface.

Blowing at 800,000 to 5 million miles per hour, the solar wind carries a million tons of matter into space every second (that's the mass of Utah's Great Salt Lake). It's not the mass or speed, however, that makes the solar wind potent. In fact, the solar wind would not even ruffle the hair on your head because there are too few particles in the breeze (our air is millions of times denser than the solar wind). Instead, it is the energy stored in the plasma and the magnetic fields associated with that plasma that allow the wind to shape and impact Earth's protective magnetic shield in space (the magnetosphere). Though less than 1% of the solar wind penetrates the magnetosphere, that's enough to generate millions of amps of electric current in our atmosphere and to cause occasional magnetic storms in the space around Earth.

If the character of the solar wind is like that of the winds on Earth—mild, steady, and global—then sunspots and solar flares are like lightning and tornadoes—potent, but only over a small area. Sunspots are dark splotches on the Sun caused by the appearance of cooler (3000 degrees Celsius) areas amidst the roiling gases on the surface (6000 degrees C). These areas are cooler because much of their energy is tied up in intense magnetic fields that are 1000 times stronger than the magnetic field of Earth.

On the other hand, solar flares appear as explosive bright spots on the surface of the Sun. Flares occur when magnetic energy built up in the solar atmosphere near a sunspot is suddenly released in a burst equivalent to ten million volcanic eruptions. Radiation—including radio waves, X rays, and gamma rays—and charged particles may strike the Earth following a solar flare (though most of the particles are deflected by Earth's magnetic field). The strongest flares occur just several times per year, while weaker flares are relatively common, with as many as a dozen a day during the Sun's most active periods.

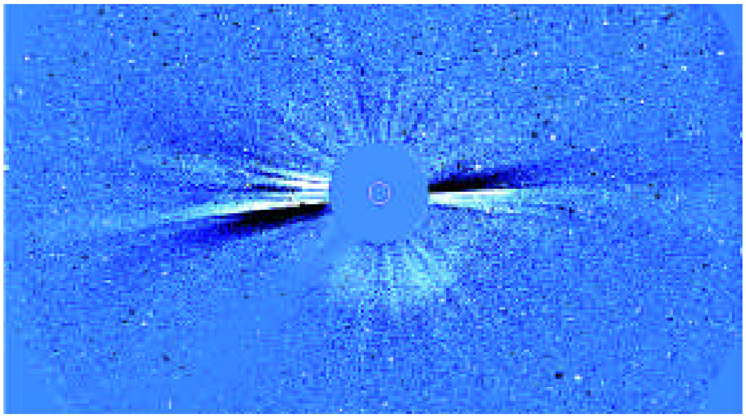


The use of an occulting disk—the orange and white circle in the center of the photo—allows scientists to see the solar wind streaming away from the Sun

Hurricane Sol

One of the most important solar events from Earth's perspective is the coronal mass ejection (CME), the solar equivalent of a hurricane. A CME is the eruption of a huge bubble of plasma from the Sun's outer atmosphere, or corona. The corona is the gaseous region above the surface that extends millions of miles into space. Thin and faint compared to the Sun' surface, the corona is only visible to the naked eye during a total solar eclipse. Temperatures in this region exceed one million degrees Celsius, 200 times hotter than the surface of the Sun.

How the corona can be so much hotter than the surface remains a mystery to scientists, but most suspect that it has to do with the complicated magnetic fields that burst from the interior and extend above the surface in great arches and loops. The buildup and interaction of these magnetic loops—which can stretch over, under, and around each other—seems to supply the energy to heat the corona and produce the violent explosion of a CME.



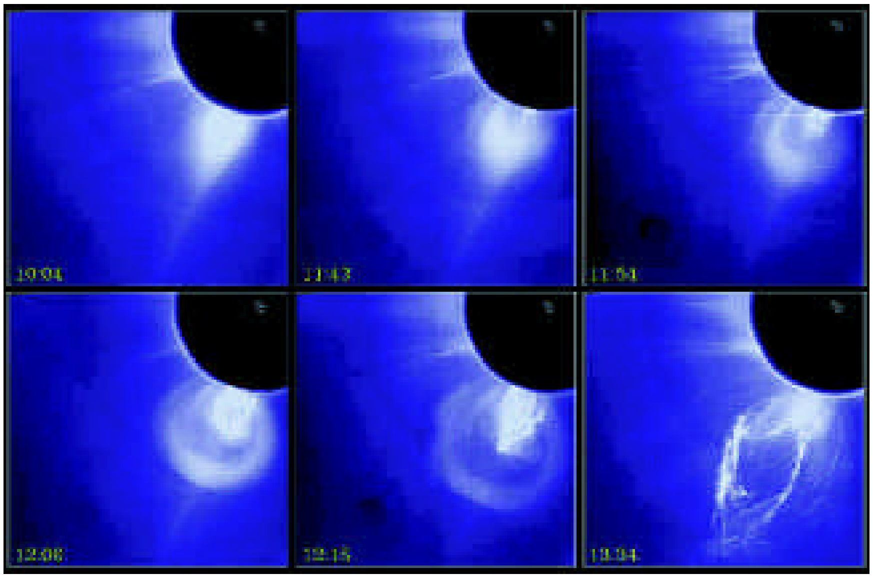
When scientists see a faint halo around the Sun (expanding around the disk), they know a coronal mass ejection is headed for Earth.

According to some of the newest observations and theories, the larger and higher magnetic loops of the Sun's field are believed to hold down the newer, smaller fields emerging from the surface. They also tie down the hot plasma carried by those fields. Much like a net holding down a helium balloon, this network of magnetic loops restrains the plasma and magnetic fields trying to rise into the corona. This causes tremendous energy to build. Eventually, some of the overlying magnetic loops merge and cancel each other, cutting a hole in the magnetic net and allowing the CME to escape at high speed.

Researchers compare this process to that of filling helium balloons. If you inflate a balloon without holding it down, it will slowly drift upward. But if you hold the balloon down with a net, you can generate a lot of force when you fill it, causing it to push upward. Once you remove the net, the balloon shoots skyward.

Once it escapes the Sun's gravity, a CME speeds across the gulf of space at velocities approaching one million miles per hour (400 km/sec), with the fastest CMEs accelerating to 5 million mph. A typical CME can carry more than 10 billion tons of plasma into the solar system, a mass equal to that of 100,000 battleships. The energy in the bubble of solar plasma packs a punch comparable to that of a hundred hurricanes combined.

Just hours after blowing into space, a CME cloud can grow to dimensions exceeding those of the Sun itself, often as wide as 30 million miles across. As it ploughs into the solar wind, a CME can create a shock wave that accelerates particles to dangerously high energies and speeds. Behind that shock wave, the CME cloud flies through the solar system bombarding planets, asteroids, and other objects with radiation and plasma. If a CME erupts on the side of the Sun facing Earth, and if our orbit intersects the path of that cloud, the results can be spectacular and sometimes hazardous.



The bubble of plasma in a CME expands and grows more potent until it escapes from the magnetic and gravitational energy of the Sun.

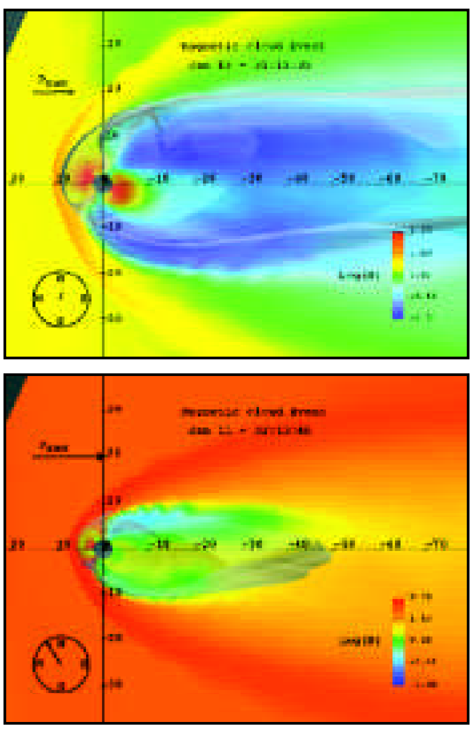
Storm Front

Coronal mass ejections occur at a rate of a few times a week to several times per day, depending on how active the Sun may be. And because of the size of the plasma clouds they produce, the odds say Earth is going to get hit by a CME from time to time. Fortunately, our planet is protected from the harmful effects of the radiation and hot plasma by our atmosphere and by an invisible magnetic shell known as the magnetosphere. Produced as a result of Earth's own magnetic field, the magnetosphere shields us from most of the Sun's plasma by deflecting it into space.

Seen here over Alaska, auroras are native to the far northern and southern lands. The most powerful magnetic storms can bring auroras all the way to Texas.

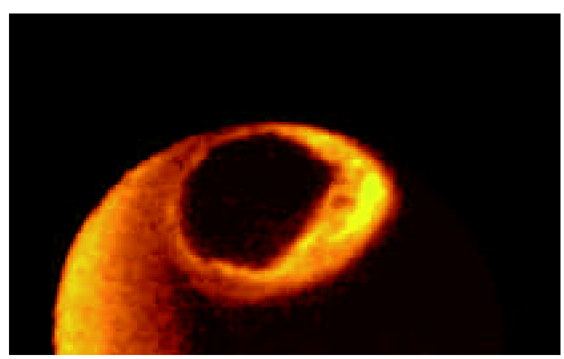
But some energetic particles do enter the magnetosphere from time to time, funneling in near the North and South Poles, where the magnetic field is weakest and the magnetosphere is partially open to space. The rain of plasma into our magnetosphere can induce magnetic storms, alter Earth's magnetic field as measured on the ground, and produce the phenomena known as auroras.

Many things can happen in the magnetosphere during a magnetic storm because a lot of energy is being dumped into the system. When impacted by plasma from space or even from the far reaches of the magnetosphere, the electrons, protons, and oxygen ions of Earth's Van Allen radiation belts become denser, hotter, and faster. Due to their motion, these particles produce as much as a million amperes of electrical current, a jolt of power that can decrease the strength of Earth's magnetic field. Some of the current flows along Earth's magnetic field lines and into the upper atmosphere. The passage of electric current through the upper atmosphere and the loss of electrons and protons from the magnetosphere can cause the atmosphere to warm and expand, increasing the density at high altitudes.



A computer simulation of the magnetosphere shows how a CME cloud can compress our magnetic field and increase its intensity.

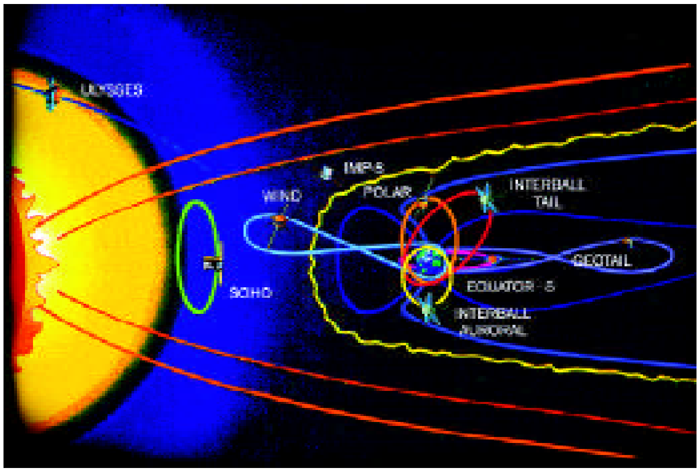
Finally, some of the excited particles in the radiation belts can plunge into the upper atmosphere, where they collide with oxygen and nitrogen. These collisions—which usually occur between 40 and 200 miles above ground—cause the oxygen and nitrogen to become electrically excited and to emit light (fluorescent lights and televisions work in much the same way). The result is a dazzling dance of green, blue, white, and red light in the night sky, also known as aurora borealis and aurora australis ("northern and southern lights"). Auroras can appear as colorful, wispy curtains of light ruffling in the night sky, or sometimes as diffuse, flickering bands. Either way, they tell us that something electric is happening in the space around Earth.



Though they grow more intense when a CME hits Earth, auroras are present every day.

Seeing the Invisible

Auroras are a visible sign of the magnetic mayhem in our atmosphere, but beyond that, the human eye can't detect much of what we call space weather. That's because most of the material flowing from Sun to Earth is too small, too diffuse, or too dim—when measured against the background of space or the brightness of the Sun—to register in the visible portion of the spectrum.



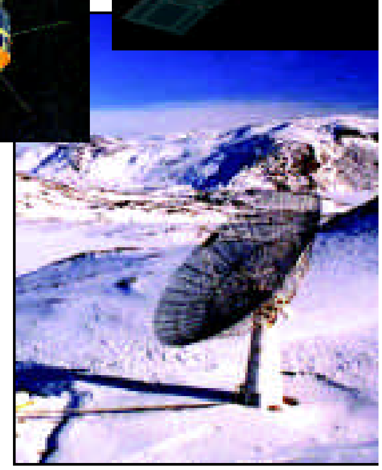
The orbits of ISTP's satellites allow scientists to see the Sun-Earth system from many angles.

For instance, since the corona is only visible to the naked eye during an eclipse, scientists must use an occulting disk—which blocks out the light from the solar surface to create an artificial eclipse—to detect what the Sun is spitting into space. Some of the most important recent advances in understanding and tracking coronal mass ejections have come from cameras that photograph the corona and detect the plasma of a CME as it heads toward Earth.

In order to see the invisible, space physicists rely on telescopes that detect visible light, ultraviolet light, gamma rays, and X rays. They use receivers and transmitters that detect the radio shock waves created when a CME crashes into the solar wind (the equivalent of a sonic boom in space). They employ particle detectors to count ions and electrons, magnetometers to record changes in magnetic fields, and cameras to observe the auroral patterns over the whole Earth.

SOHO

Polar



Sondrestromfjord radar

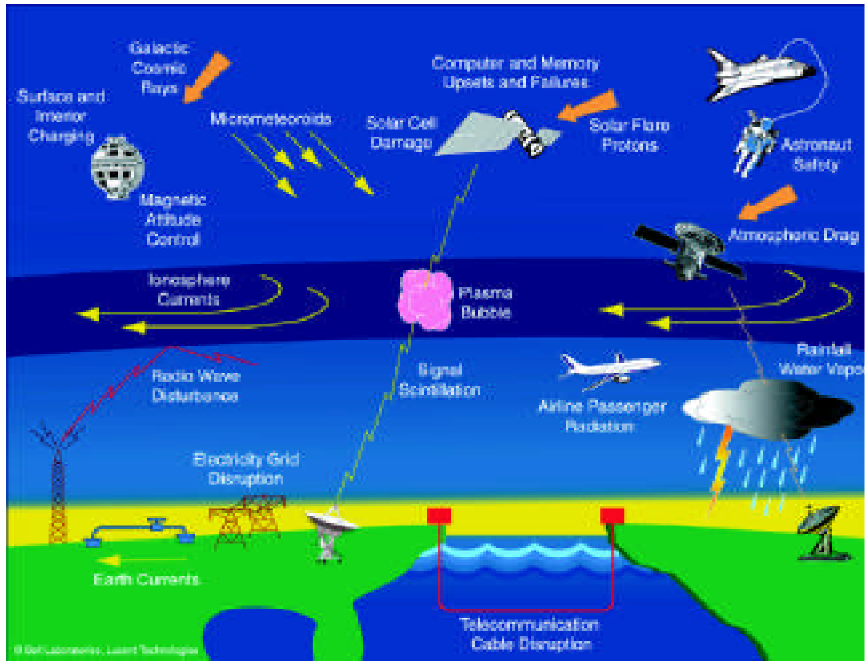
All of these instruments and many others are the tools of the hundreds of scientists participating in the International Solar-Terrestrial Physics (ISTP) program, a global effort to observe and understand our star and its effects on our environment. An armada of more than 25 satellites carry those instruments into space, and together with ground-based observatories, they allow scientists to study the Sun, the Earth, and the space between them. Individually, the spacecraft contributing to ISTP act as microscopes, studying the fine detail of the Sun, the solar wind, and the boundaries and internal workings of Earth's magnetic shell. When linked together with each other and the resources on the ground, they act as a wide-field telescope that sees the entire Sun-Earth environment.

ISTP includes spacecraft from NASA, the European Space Agency, Japan's Institute for Space and Astronomical Science, and Russia's Space Research Institute.

The spacecraft of ISTP—principally, Wind, Polar, Geotail, and the Solar and Heliospheric Observatory—allow physicists to observe all the key regions of Earth's space. They study the interior of the Sun, its surface and corona, the solar wind, and Earth's magnetosphere, including the auroral regions and Van Allen radiation belts. Orbiting as far as one million miles and as close as a few hundred miles from Earth, the spacecraft of ISTP make coordinated, simultaneous observations of the Sun and activity in the magnetosphere. Working together with ground observatories, these spacecraft can now—for the first time ever—track CMEs and other space weather events from cradle to grave. Someday, they might even be able to predict the arrival and effects of CMEs.

Blackouts, Burnouts, and Bummers

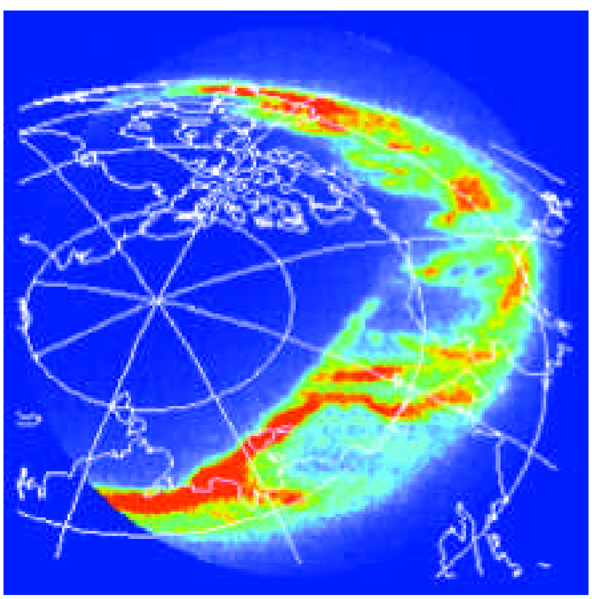
Aside from bright auroras, there are other less benevolent effects of the connection between Sun and Earth. In fact, bright auroras are merely a visible sign that the balance of electrical and magnetic energy in Earth's magnetosphere has been upset. With the average CME dumping about 1500 Gigawatts of electricity into the atmosphere (double the power generating capacity of the entire United States), big changes can occur in our space. Those changes can wreak havoc on a world that has come to depend on satellites, electrical power, and radio communication—all of which are affected by electric and magnetic forces.



The effects of magnetic storms—what scientists call space weather—extend from the ground to geostationary orbit and beyond.

For the satellites dancing in and out of the radiation belts and the solar wind, CMEs and magnetic storms can be perilous. For instance, a series of flares and coronal mass ejections in March 1989 produced a potent magnetic storm. After the particles and energy from the Sun bombarded the Earth, more than 1500 satellites slowed down or dropped several miles of altitude in their orbits due to increased drag.

But atmospheric drag isn't the only effect CMEs can have on satellites. When excited and accelerated by a storm, high-energy electrons can degrade the solar panels used to power satellites and can upset and even shut off computers on a spacecraft. The increased flow of electricity in Earth's space also can cause electrical charge build up on the surface of a spacecraft. That charge can eventually be released as a damaging spark (a spark not unlike the one you get when you touch metal or a friend after you drag your feet on a carpet). In 1994, two Canadian satellites were shut down when each was electrically shocked during magnetic storms; as a result, telephone service across Canada was disrupted for months. Similarly, in January 1997, an American satellite went dead just hours after a CME struck the magnetosphere. The loss of that satellite disrupted television signals, telephone calls, and part of a U.S. earthquake monitoring network.

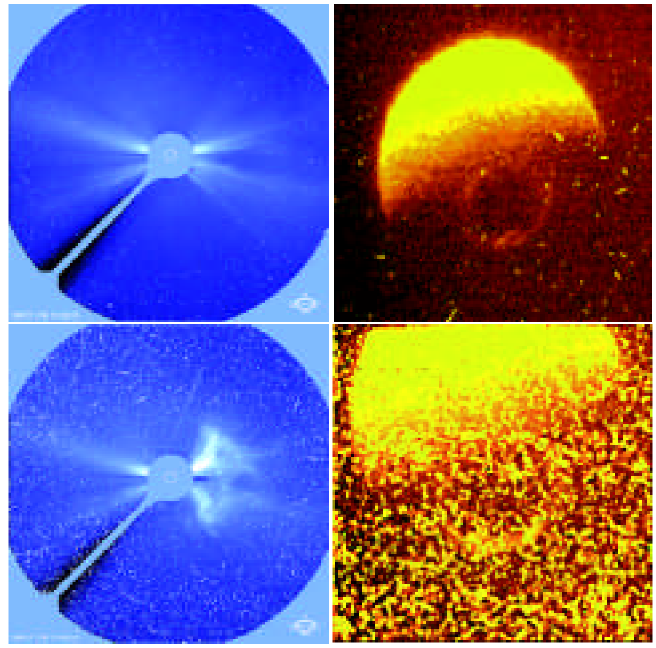


Magnetic storms, like this one seen in ultraviolet light, can wreak havoc on radio communications and electric power stations.

Magnetic storms also play havoc with radio signals, which are bounced off Earth's ionosphere (the outermost layer of our atmosphere, made up mostly of plasma) as a sort of natural relay station. In March 1989, listeners in Minnesota reported that they could not hear their local radio stations, but they could hear the broadcasts of the California Highway Patrol. In the extreme, magnetic storms can completely wipe out radio communication around Earth's North and South Poles for hours to days.

On the ground, magnetic storms can affect the strength of Earth's magnetic fields. Changes in magnetic fields can produce surges in power lines and strong electrical currents in gas and oil pipelines. The extra current can cause pipelines to corrode and deteriorate faster than they would naturally; in power lines, the extra electricity can burn out transformers and cause brownouts and blackouts. During the March 1989 storm, a transformer burned up at a power plant in New Jersey, and a whole system was blown out at a power station in Quebec, leaving 6 million people without electricity for hours, some for months.

Since so much modern information is relayed by satellites and other advanced technology—from automated teller machines and broadcast signals to the Global Positioning System and disaster warning systems—CMEs pose a natural and technological hazard to life on Earth.



These images from SOHO (left) and Polar (right) show particles from the Sun bombarding the satellites. SOHO sees the solar wind in the first image, then a snow of protons accelerated by a CME. Polar looks down on the aurora and Earth's dayglow before the protons smack the camera.

Make Your Own Sun-Earth Connections

Thanks to the Internet, it is easy for you to keep up with the latest observations and breakthroughs in the study of Sun and Earth. In fact, anyone who can access the World Wide Web can study the Sun, Earth's magnetosphere, and interplanetary space, because that is where ISTP scientists receive and share their data.

Many of the observations made by ISTP are available within hours to days after they are made, allowing you to witness science in action. In particular, every time a CME lifts off the Sun and heads toward Earth, you can watch the storm develop by viewing some of the same images and data sets that space physicists are using. So don't wait for science to show up in your textbooks or magazines—look over a scientist's shoulder and watch it happen.

Mission to Geospace

To learn more about how and why physicists study the space around Earth, go to http://www-istp.gsfc.nasa.gov/istp/outreach. The site includes easy to read articles and primers; a place to question and read about real scientists; activities, images and movies; and an extensive library of news items and articles about the latest and greatest discoveries from our neighborhood in space.

SOHO Explore

To learn more about the Sun as seen through the keen eyes of the Solar and Heliospheric Observatory, go to http://seal.nascom.nasa.gov/explore/. The site includes exercises, glossaries, activities, and lessons in solar science, as well as information about a poster called "New Views of the Sun" and a place to get all your Sun questions answered.

Live Storms from the Sun

Every time the Sun spits a CME in Earth's direction, scientists track it online at http://www-istp.gsfc.nasa.gov/istp/events/

International Solar Terrestrial Physics Program

To see the same raw, unedited data and images that ISTP scientists view, visit http://www-istp.gsfc.nasa.gov/istp/. These pages can be quite technical, but they are the real deal

Measure the Motion of a Coronal Mass Ejection

Activity: Calculate the velocity and acceleration of a coronal mass ejection (CME) based on its position in a series of images from the Large-Angle Spectrometric Coronograph (LASCO) instrument on SOHO.

Materials: ruler, calculator, and a set of CME images from the LASCO instrument on SOHO. You can use the ones here or gather another set from http://sohowww.nascom.nasa.gov/gallery/LASCO/las001.gif

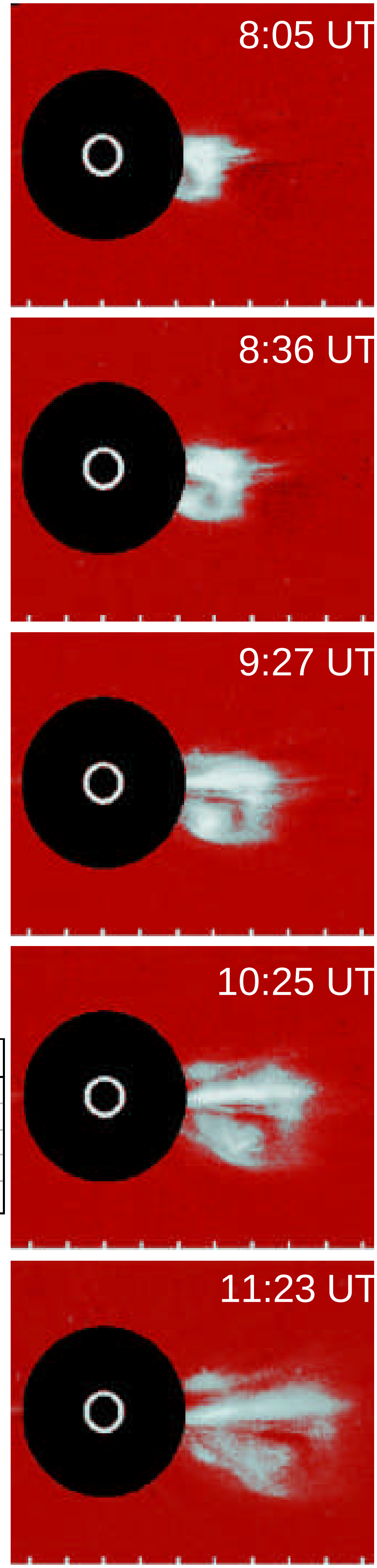
Background: An important part of space weather research is to measure the velocity of CMEs and their acceleration as they leave the Sun. This is done by tracing features in the CME and measuring their positions at different times. In the sequence of images shown on the right, you can see a CME erupting from the Sun on the right side of the coronagraph disk. The white circle shows the size and location of the Sun. The black disk is the occulting disk that blocks the surface of the Sun and the inner corona. The lines along the bottom of the image mark off units of the Sun's diameter.

Procedure: Select a feature of the CME that you can see in all five images—for instance, the outermost extent of the cloud, or the inner edge. Measure its position in each image. Your measurements can be converted to kilometers using a simple ratio:

$$\frac{\text{actual distance of feature from Sun}}{\text{diameter of the Sun (1.4 million km)}} = \frac{\text{position of feature as measured on image}}{\text{diameter of Sun as measured on image}}$$

Using the distance from the Sun and the time (listed on each image), you can calculate the average velocity. Velocity is defined as the rate of change of position. Using the changes in position and time, the velocity for the period can be calculated using the following equation: $v = (s_2 - s_1) / (t_2 - t_1)$, where s_2 is the position at time, t_2; s_1 is the position at time, t_1. The acceleration equals the change in velocity over time; that is, $a = (v_2 - v_1) / (t_2 - t_1)$, where v_2 is the velocity at time t_2; v_1 is the velocity at time t_1. You can record your results in a table.

Universal Time	Time Interval	Position	Avg. Velocity	Avg. Acceleration
8:05				
8:36				
9:27				
10:25				
11:23				



Further Questions and Activities

- Select another feature, trace it, and calculate the velocity and acceleration. Is it different from the velocity and acceleration of the other feature you measured? Scientists often look at a number of points in the CME to get an overall idea of what is happening.
- How does the size of the CME change with time? What kind of forces might be acting on the CME? How would these account for your data?

Credit: This activity is based on "Sun Centered Physics," a set of lesson plans developed by Linda Knisely.

NASA Resources for Educators

NASA's Central Operation of Resources for Educators (CORE) was established for the national and international distribution of NASA-produced educational materials in audiovisual format. Educators can obtain a catalogue and an order form by one of the following methods:

- NASA CORE
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- Fax (440) 774-2144
- E-mail *nasaco@leeca.esu.k12.oh.us*
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Educator Resource Center Network

To make additional information available to the education community, the NASA Education Division has created the NASA Educator Resource Center (ERC) network. ERCs contain a wealth of information for educators: publications, reference books, slide sets, audio cassettes, videotapes, telelecture programs, computer programs, lesson plans, and teacher guides with activities. Educators may preview, copy, or receive NASA materials at these sites. Because each NASA Field Center has its own areas of expertise, no two ERCs are exactly alike. Phone calls are welcome if you are unable to visit the ERC that serves your geographic area. A list of the centers and the regions they serve includes:

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Phone: (415) 604-3574

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Pasadena, CA 91109-8099
Phone: (818) 354-6916

CA cities near the center
NASA Educator Resource Center for
NASA Dryden Flight Research Center
45108 N. 3rd Street East
Lancaster, CA 93535
Phone: (805) 948-7347

VA and MD's Eastern Shores
NASA Educator Resource Lab
Education Complex - Visitor Center
Building J-1
NASA Wallops Flight Facility
Wallops Island, VA 23337-5099
Phone: (757) 824-2297 / 2298

Regional Educator Resource Centers (RERCs) offer more educators access to NASA educational materials. NASA has formed partnerships with universities, museums, and other educational institutions to serve as RERCs in many states. A complete list of RERCs is available through CORE, or electronically via NASA Spacelink at *http://spacelink.nasa.gov*

NASA On-line Resources for Educators provide current educational information and instructional resource materials to teachers, faculty, and students. A wide range of information is available, including science, mathematics, engineering, and technology education lesson plans, historical information related to the aeronautics and space program, current status reports on NASA projects, news releases, information on NASA educational programs, useful software and graphics files. Educators and students can also use NASA resources as learning tools to explore the Internet, accessing information about educational grants, interacting with other schools which are already on-line, and participating in on-line interactive projects, communicating with NASA scientists, engineers, and other team members to experience the excitement of real NASA projects.

Access these resources through the NASA Education Home Page: *http://www.hq.nasa.gov/education*

NASA Television (NTV) is the Agency's distribution system for live and taped programs. It offers the public a front-row seat for launches and missions, as well as informational and educational programming, historical documentaries, and updates on the latest developments in aeronautics and space science. NTV is transmitted on the GE-2 satellite, Transponder 9C at 85 degrees West longitude, vertical polarization, with a frequency of 3880 megahertz, and audio of 6.8 megahertz.

Apart from live mission coverage, regular NASA Television programming includes a Video File from noon to 1:00 pm, a NASA Gallery File from 1:00 to 2:00 pm, and an Education File from 2:00 to 3:00 pm (all times Eastern). This sequence is repeated at 3:00 pm, 6:00 pm, and 9:00 pm, Monday through Friday. The NTV Education File features programming for teachers and students on science, mathematics, and technology. NASA Television programming may be videotaped for later use.

For more information on NASA Television, contact:
NASA Headquarters, Code P-2, NASA TV, Washington, DC 20546-0001 Phone: (202) 358-3572
NTV Home Page: *http://www.hq.nasa.gov/ntv.html*

How to Access NASA's Education Materials and Services, EP-1996-11-345-HQ This brochure serves as a guide to accessing a variety of NASA materials and services for educators. Copies are available through the ERC network, or electronically via NASA Spacelink. NASA Spacelink can be accessed at the following address: *http://spacelink.nasa.gov*