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## History

The term ‘space weather’ came into being about 25–30 years ago to denote, by analogy with ‘meteorological weather’, a complex process of space phenomena and processes affected by varying sun activity. In its broad sense, the term refers to entire an heliosphere whose limits are determined by expanding fluxes of solar plasma. In its narrow, usual sense, the term applies to the Earth environment and, to be more exact, to the space subjected to geomagnetic field influence, i.e. to the Earth’s magnetosphere.

The concept of space weather covers a wide range of phenomena directly affecting human activity. They include satellite damage, radiation hazards for astronauts and airline passengers, telecommunication problems, outages of power and electronic systems, effects in the atmospheric processes, and even some evidence of impact on human health.

The study of space weather began with systematic observation of three natural phenomena: the aurorae (also called the northern or southern lights), Earth’s magnetic field, and sunspots (dark regions observed on the surface of the Sun). Because aurorae can be seen with the unaided eye, they have been observed for thousands of years, though the systematic study of the aurorae didn’t begin until the sixteenth century. Development of the sensitive compass and telescope in the early seventeenth century made possible the discovery of the nature of Earth’s magnetic field and sunspots.

The understanding of space weather traces its roots to connections between these three phenomena. The first tentative connections were made in the middle of the nineteenth century. For the last 150 years, we have slowly expanded our knowledge of the Sun and Earth’s space environments and, in so doing, have begun to develop a physical model of the Sun–Earth connection.

### 1. Structure of the Sun: Interior and atmosphere

We can make direct observations of the solar surface and atmosphere. The primary means of study of these regions is analysis of absorption lines in the solar spectrum. By studying these lines, we know the composition of the Sun to very high accuracy. (Table 1) lists the five most common elements in the Sun and their relative abundance. Hydrogen is by far the most common, followed by helium. The Standard Solar Model suggests that these abundances are representative throughout the Sun except in the core where thermonuclear reactions continuously change the composition. The Sun contains all of the natural elements found on Earth and in the periodic table.

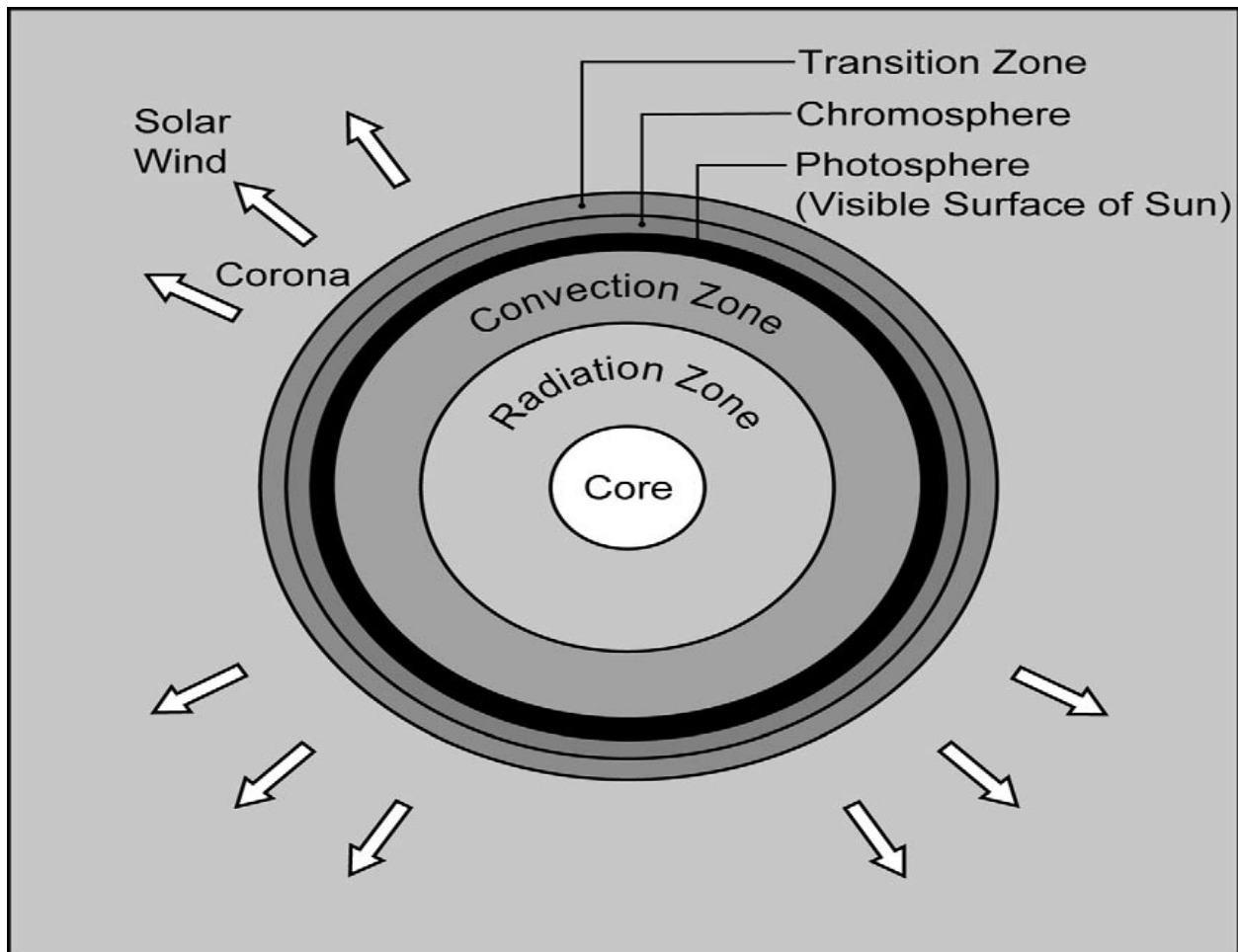
The Sun contains  $1.9 \times 10^{30}$  kg of material – over 99% of the total mass in the Solar System – or about 300 000 Earth masses. The regions of the Sun are illustrated in Figure 1. Table 2 shows some of the Sun’s physical characteristics.

Table 1: The five most common elements in the Sun

Element	Symbol	Relative abundance
hydrogen	H	92.1%
helium	He	7.8%
oxygen	O	0.061%
carbon	C	0.030%
nitrogen	N	0.0084%

Table 2: Solar properties

radius	696 000 km
mass	$1.9 \times 10^{30}$ kg
average density	$1410 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$
distance from Earth	150 000 000 km (or 1 astronomical unit)
surface temperature	5800 K
luminosity	$3.86 \times 10^{26}$ W



**Figure 1: The main regions of the Sun. The regions inside the Sun are defined by how energy is transferred from the core to the surface. The regions of the Sun's atmosphere are defined by their density and temperature.**

### 1.1 Interior

The Sun's interior is divided into three main regions: the convection zone, the radiation zone, and the core. The next sections describe these regions.

#### **Convection and radiation zones**

Below the photosphere, the visible surface of the Sun, extending down about 200000 km, is the convection zone. This region undergoes convective motion (hot gas rising and cooler gas sinking) similar to a pot of boiling water. Convection is the process that transports heat through bulk fluid motion. Energy from the outer layer of the Sun is transported by convection to the solar surface where it can radiate out into space. Below the convection region is the radiation zone, where energy is transported

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primarily by electromagnetic photons. The convection zone begins where the flux of radiation energy is so high that the energy Convection and radiation zones cannot easily make its way through the gas, hence convection begins in order to transport the energy through bulk motions of the solar material.

### **The core**

The Sun's core is an extremely hot, dense mass of atomic nuclei and electrons. Its temperature is about 15,000,000 K, and it is thought to be some 150 times as dense as water. The pressure is enormous. Normally, protons in atomic nuclei repel each other because they have the same electrical charge. Under the great density and pressure in the Sun's core, however, nuclei can collide and fuse into new and heavier nuclei. This is a type of thermonuclear reaction called a fusion reaction.

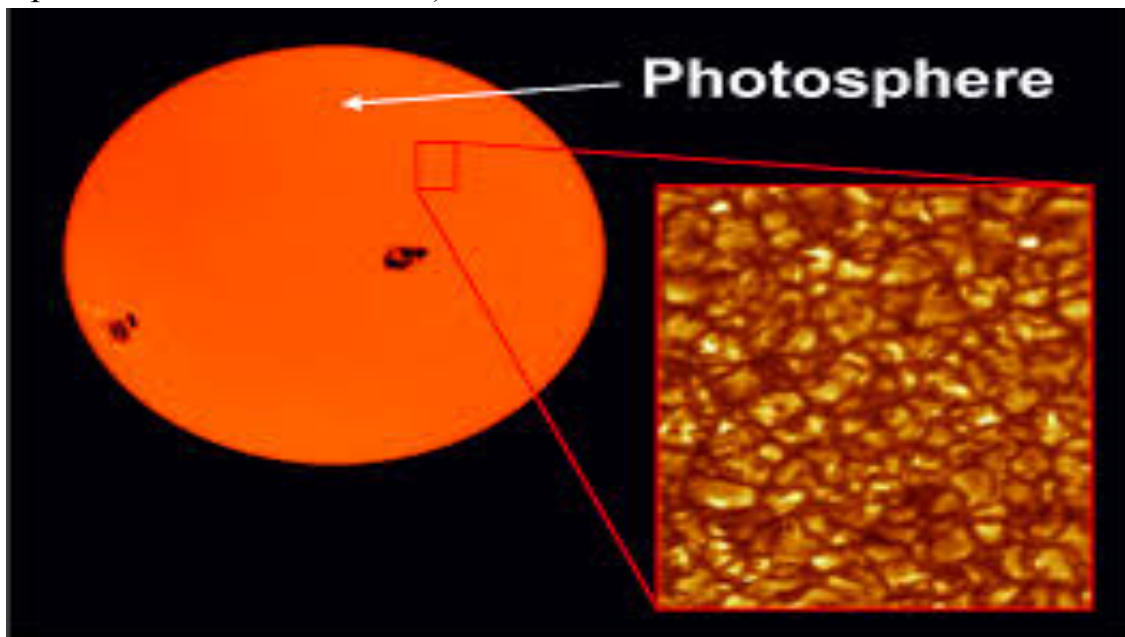
The basic fusion process in the Sun involves a series of reactions in which four hydrogen nuclei are ultimately converted into one helium nucleus. The mass of the helium nucleus is about 0.7 percent less than that of the four hydrogen nuclei. This 0.7 percent of the mass is changed into energy. Every second the Sun converts almost 700 million tons of hydrogen into about 695 million tons of helium. Nearly 5 million tons of mass—0.7 percent of 700 million tons—are converted to energy. Some of this energy heats the plasma in the core and some escapes into space as nearly massless, electrically neutral particles called neutrinos. Some of the energy is in the form of gamma-ray photons. These photons travel outward from the core through a zone in which the energy is carried mainly by radiation. Ultimately, the energy is emitted at the surface in many different wavelengths.

the Sun emits the same amount of energy in one second that Earth would produce at the current rate in over 900 000 years. Put another way, the Sun emits the equivalent of 100 billion one-megaton nuclear bombs every second.

## 1.2 Solar atmosphere

### *The photosphere*

The photosphere (meaning “sphere of light”) is the lowest layer of the Sun visible from Earth. This thin layer is the lowest level in the Sun’s atmosphere. Energy finally escapes the Sun from the photosphere, so it is significantly cooler than the solar interior. The temperature at the visible surface is about 5800 K. The solar atmosphere is also dramatically less dense than the interior. The photosphere has a definite texture. It is covered with granules, or luminous grainlike areas separated by dark areas. Granules are continually forming and disappearing. Their grainlike structure results from the convection currents that bring hot gases up to the photosphere. Each granule is a convection cell that measures several hundred miles across. The hot upwelling matter appears bright, while the cooler sinking matter appears dark. Periodically, larger darker blotches called sunspots appear on the photosphere. (Sunspots will be discussed later)



### *The chromosphere*

The layer of the atmosphere above the photosphere is called the chromosphere (meaning “sphere of color”). It is visible as a thin reddish ring around the edge of

the Sun during total solar eclipses, the chromosphere is hotter than the photosphere, and its temperature generally rises with altitude. It is marked by countless jets or small spikes of matter called spicules that continually form and disappear, rising up and falling back down within minutes.

Much of the Sun's "weather" takes place in the chromosphere. This includes the violent eruptions called solar flares, which will be discussed later.

### ***The Corona***

The chromosphere is surrounded by a faintly luminous, extremely thin outer atmosphere called the corona (meaning "crown"). As the corona is a million times dimmer than the Sun's disk, it is usually invisible. It can be seen only when the light of the photosphere is blocked, as in a total solar eclipse or with a special type of telescope called a coronagraph

The corona then appears as a silvery halo with long arcs and streamers.

Much or all of the corona's volume consists of loops and arcs of hot plasma. Counterintuitively, the corona is much hotter than the surface of the Sun. Solar scientists think that energy from the solar magnetic fields heats the corona.



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## 2.Solar Magnetism: Sunspot, Solar Active Regions, Cycle and Dynamo

The Sun's magnetic activity is quite complex. Rapid, large fluctuations occur in numerous strong local magnetic fields that are threaded through the Sun's atmosphere. Magnetic activity shapes the atmosphere and causes disturbances there called solar activity. This activity includes sunspots and violent eruptions. Overall, solar activity follows about an 11-year cycle, in which the numbers of sunspots and other disturbances increase to a maximum and then decrease again. The Sun seems to have a weak global magnetic field. Once each 11-year cycle, the north and south poles of the field switch polarity.

### *Sunspots*

Periodically, darker cooler blotches called sunspots temporarily appear on the Sun's surface. Sunspots are areas where very strong local magnetic fields interfere with the normal convection activity that brings heat to the surface. The spots usually appear in pairs or groups of pairs. Each spot typically has a dark, circular center, called the umbra, surrounded by a lighter area, the penumbra. The umbras are about 2,000 °K cooler than the photosphere around them (which means that they are still very hot). Sunspots vary greatly in size but are always small compared to the size of the Sun. When they appear in groups, they may extend over tens of thousands of miles. They last from tens of minutes to a few days or even months.

The spots appear and disappear in a cycle and that they are limited to the two zones of the Sun contained between about latitudes 40° and 5° of its northern and southern hemispheres. As mentioned above, the cycle lasts an average of about 11 years. At the beginning of a cycle a few spots appear at around 35° latitudes.

Then they rapidly increase in number, reaching a maximum in the course of around five years. At the same time, the spots get closer and closer to the equator. During the next six years their number decreases while they continue to approach the equator. The cycle then ends, and another cycle starts.

In the early 20th century George E. Hale observed that certain photographs of sunspots showed structures that seemed to follow magnetic lines of force. Often a pair of sunspots appeared to form the north and south poles of a magnetic field. Hale was finally able to establish that sunspots are indeed seats of magnetic fields. In addition, from one 11-year cycle to the next, a total reversal of the sunspots' polarity

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occurs in the two solar hemispheres. In other words, the north pole of a magnetic field associated with a sunspot pair becomes the south pole, and vice versa.

### *Solar Active Regions*

Many pairs of sunspots are associated with explosive releases of energy from the photosphere. These areas of activity are simply called active regions. Though the exact mechanisms that cause the explosive release of energy from the Sun's surface are not known, we do know that they are related to the rapid conversion of magnetic energy into particle kinetic energy.

This conversion takes place in regions of strong magnetic fields, and the twisting of the surface magnetic field often leads to rapid energy release.

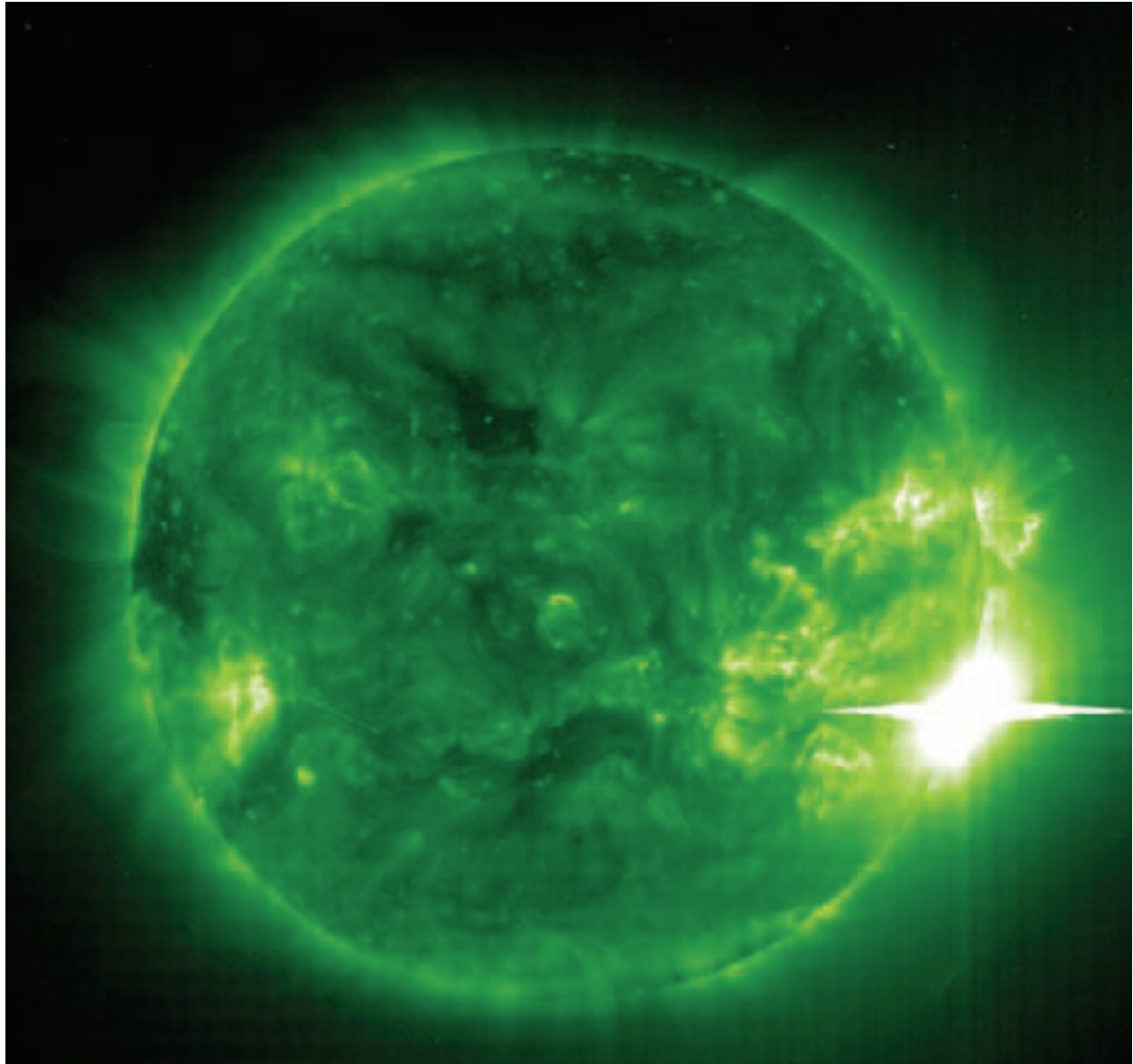
Prominences are an example of this energy release. Another example, solar flares, are much more energetic than prominences. Flares release tremendous amounts of energy in a few minutes and can reach temperatures of 100 million K (much hotter than even the core of the Sun). This energy is equivalent to hundreds of millions of megaton hydrogen bombs exploding at the same time. The energy of these flares is so intense that the charged particles that make up the solar atmosphere are blasted out into space – some at nearly the speed of light. In addition, the heated gas glows at essentially all wavelengths including X-rays. These energetic particles and electromagnetic radiation are ejected into interplanetary space and often can impact Earth's space environment – one of the causes of space weather.

## 3.Solar Storms: Flares, Prominences and CMEs

### *Flares*

A more violent phenomenon is the solar flare, a sudden eruption in the chromosphere above or near sunspot regions. Flares release magnetic energy that builds up along the boundaries between negative and positive magnetic fields that become twisted. The flares usually form very rapidly, reaching their maximum brilliance within minutes and then slowly dying out. They emit huge amounts of radiation at many different wavelengths, including X rays and gamma rays, as well as highly energetic charged particles.





*One of the strongest solar flares ever detected appears at right in an extreme ultraviolet (false-color) image of the Sun taken by the Solar and Heliospheric Observatory (SOHO) orbiting spacecraft. Such powerful flares, called X-class flares, release intense radiation that can temporarily cause blackouts in radio communications all over Earth. The flare occurred on Nov. 4, 2003.*

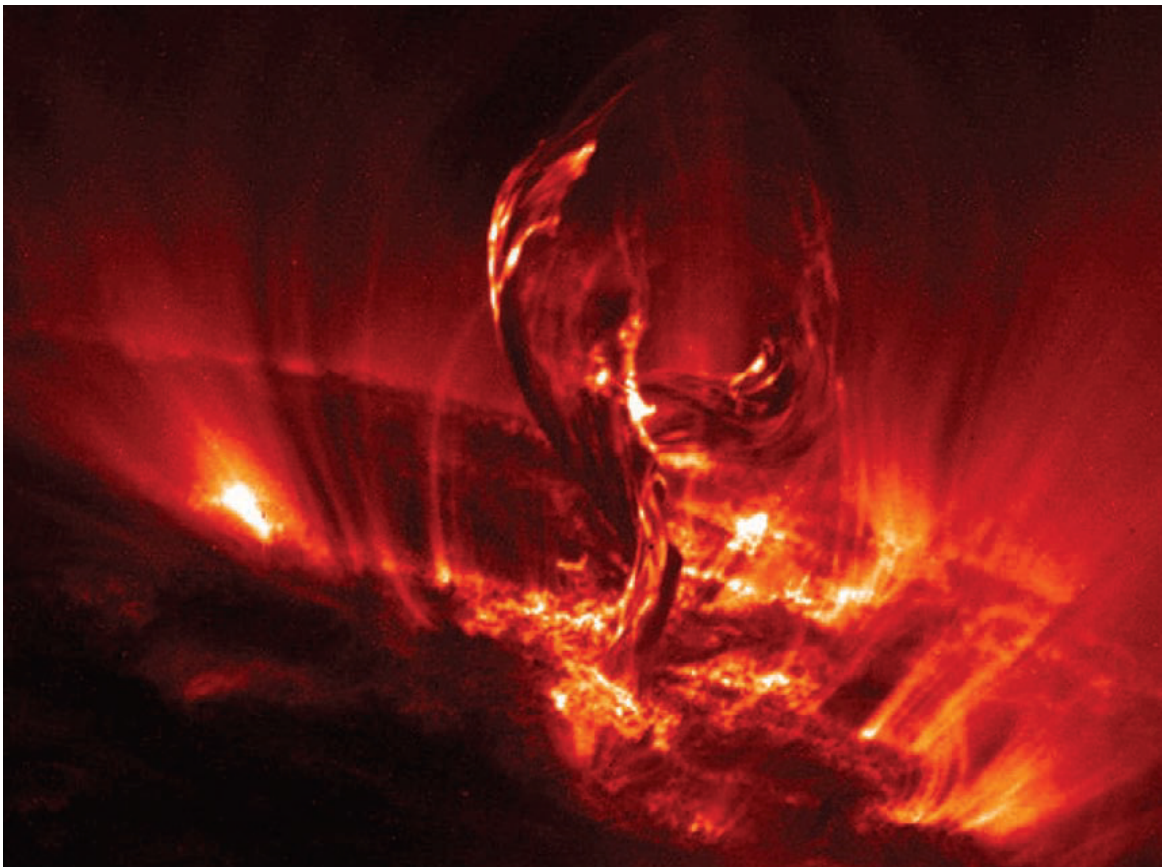
*SOHO/ESA/NASA*

### *Prominences*

Features called prominences also form along sharp transitions between positive and negative magnetic fields. Early astronomers noticed huge red loops and streamers around the black disk of solar eclipses.

These prominences are areas of relatively cooler, denser plasma suspended like clouds through the hot, low-density corona. Magnetic lines of force hold the plasma in place. Prominences appear as bright regions when seen.

Long-lived, or quiescent, prominences may keep their shape for months. They form at the boundaries between large-scale magnetic fields. Prominences in active regions associated with sunspots are short-lived, lasting only several minutes to a few hours. When prominences become unstable, they may erupt upward. These eruptions are significantly cooler and less violent than solar flares.

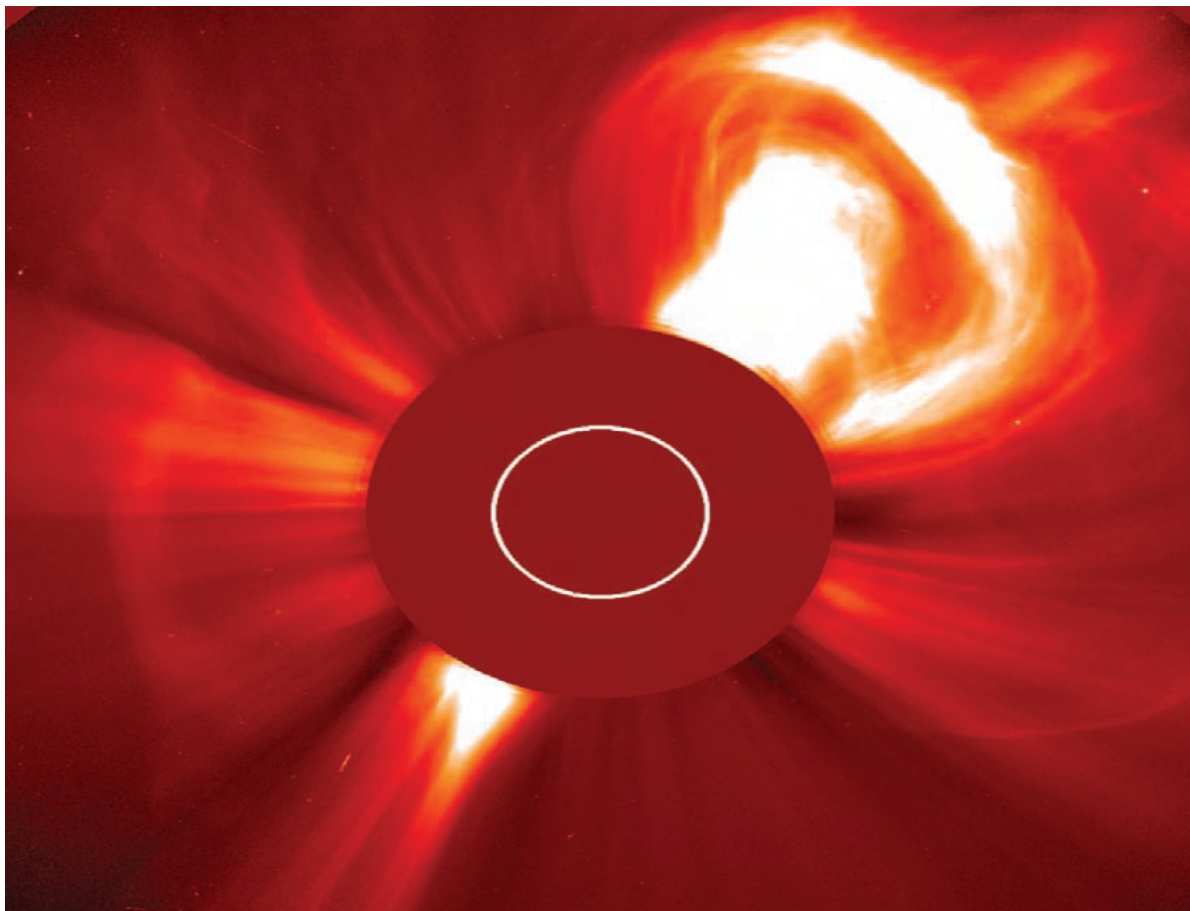


*An image taken in extreme ultraviolet light reveals a solar prominence lifting off the Sun. The false-color image was captured by the Transition Region and Coronal Explorer (TRACE) orbiting satellite. TRACE/NASA*

### ***Coronal Mass Ejections (CME)***

A type of violent eruption called coronal mass ejections also occurs in the corona. The corona sometimes releases enormous clouds of hot plasma into space. Like solar flares, these coronal mass ejections release energy built up in solar magnetic fields. They usually last hours, however, while the rapid eruptions from flares typically last only minutes.

Like other kinds of solar activity, coronal mass ejections are most common during the solar maximum. Scientists believe that flares, prominence eruptions, and coronal mass ejections are related phenomena. Their relationship is complex, however, and not yet fully understood.



***A very large coronal mass ejection, at upper right. The red disk in the center is part of the coronagraph used to take the image. The white circle indicates the size and position of the Sun's disk. The false-color image was taken by the Solar and Heliospheric Observatory (SOHO) orbiting space-craft. SOHO/ESA/NASA***