

Blueshift

Redshift

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In physics, a redshift is an increase in the wavelength, or equivalently, a decrease in the frequency and photon energy, of electromagnetic radiation (such as light). The opposite change, a decrease in wavelength and increase in frequency and energy, is known as a blueshift. The terms derive from the colours red and blue which form the extremes of the visible light spectrum.

Three forms of redshift occur in astronomy and cosmology: Doppler redshifts due to the relative motions of radiation sources, gravitational redshift as radiation escapes from gravitational potentials, and cosmological redshifts caused by the universe expanding. In astronomy, the value of a redshift is often denoted by the letter z , corresponding to the fractional change in wavelength (positive for redshifts, negative for blueshifts), and by the wavelength ratio $1 + z$ (which is greater than 1 for redshifts and less than 1 for blueshifts). Automated astronomical redshift surveys are an important tool for learning about the large scale structure of the universe.

Examples of strong redshifting are a gamma ray perceived as an X-ray, or initially visible light perceived as radio waves. The initial heat from the Big Bang has redshifted far down to become the cosmic microwave background. Subtler redshifts are seen in the spectroscopic observations of astronomical objects, and are used in terrestrial technologies such as Doppler radar and radar guns.

Gravitational waves, which also travel at the speed of light, are subject to the same redshift phenomena.

Other physical processes exist that can lead to a shift in the frequency of electromagnetic radiation, including scattering and optical effects; however, the resulting changes are distinguishable from (astronomical) redshift and are not generally referred to as such (see section on physical optics and radiative transfer).

Blueshift (disambiguation)

Look up blueshift in Wiktionary, the free dictionary. In astronomy, a blueshift is a decrease in electromagnetic wavelength caused by the motion of a

In astronomy, a blueshift is a decrease in electromagnetic wavelength caused by the motion of a celestial object toward an observer.

Blueshift or blue shift may also refer to:

Blue Shift (album), a 1990 album by Clarion Fracture Zone

"Blue Shift", a song by Hawkwind from their 1993 album Electric Tepee

"Blue Shift", a song by Lemaitre_

Blueshift, an unreleased album by Splashdown

"Blue Shift" (short story), a science fiction short story by Stephen Baxter

Blueshifting, an information technology term defined in Redshift (theory)

Blue shift (molecule) (a.k.a. "hypsochromic shift"), a change in spectral band position in a spectrum of a molecule to a shorter wavelength

Blue shift (politics), in American politics, an observed phenomenon under which mail-in votes trend towards the Democratic Party

Gravitational redshift

travelling into a gravitational well, is known as a gravitational blueshift (a type of blueshift). The effect was first described by Einstein in 1907, eight

In physics and general relativity, gravitational redshift (known as Einstein shift in older literature) is the phenomenon that electromagnetic waves or photons travelling out of a gravitational well lose energy. This loss of energy corresponds to a decrease in the wave frequency and increase in the wavelength, known more generally as a redshift. The opposite effect, in which photons gain energy when travelling into a gravitational well, is known as a gravitational blueshift (a type of blueshift). The effect was first described by Einstein in 1907, eight years before his publication of the full theory of relativity.

Gravitational redshift can be interpreted as a consequence of the equivalence principle (that gravitational effects are locally equivalent to inertial effects and the redshift is caused by the Doppler effect) or as a consequence of the mass–energy equivalence and conservation of energy ('falling' photons gain energy), though there are numerous subtleties that complicate a rigorous derivation. A gravitational redshift can also equivalently be interpreted as gravitational time dilation at the source of the radiation: if two oscillators (attached to transmitters producing electromagnetic radiation) are operating at different gravitational potentials, the oscillator at the higher gravitational potential (farther from the attracting body) will tick faster; that is, when observed from the same location, it will have a higher measured frequency than the oscillator at the lower gravitational potential (closer to the attracting body).

To first approximation, gravitational redshift is proportional to the difference in gravitational potential divided by the speed of light squared,

z

$=$

$?$

U

$/$

c

2

$$z = \Delta U / c^2$$

, thus resulting in a very small effect. Light escaping from the surface of the Sun was predicted by Einstein in 1911 to be redshifted by roughly 2 ppm or 2×10^{-6} . Navigational signals from GPS satellites orbiting at 20000 km altitude are perceived blueshifted by approximately 0.5 ppb or 5×10^{-10} , corresponding to a (negligible) increase of less than 1 Hz in the frequency of a 1.5 GHz GPS radio signal (however, the accompanying gravitational time dilation affecting the atomic clock in the satellite is crucially important for accurate navigation). On the surface of the Earth the gravitational potential is proportional to height,

$?$

U

=

g

?

h

$$\Delta U = g \Delta h$$

, and the corresponding redshift is roughly 10^{-16} (0.1 parts per quadrillion) per meter of change in elevation and/or altitude.

In astronomy, the magnitude of a gravitational redshift is often expressed as the velocity that would create an equivalent shift through the relativistic Doppler effect. In such units, the 2 ppm sunlight redshift corresponds to a 633 m/s receding velocity, roughly of the same magnitude as convective motions in the Sun, thus complicating the measurement. The GPS satellite gravitational blueshift velocity equivalent is less than 0.2 m/s, which is negligible compared to the actual Doppler shift resulting from its orbital velocity. In astronomical objects with strong gravitational fields the redshift can be much greater; for example, light from the surface of a white dwarf is gravitationally redshifted on average by around $(50 \text{ km/s})/c$ (around 170 ppm).

Observing the gravitational redshift in the Solar System is one of the classical tests of general relativity. Measuring the gravitational redshift to high precision with atomic clocks can serve as a test of Lorentz symmetry and guide searches for dark matter.

Pound–Rebka experiment

relativity to be verified. The measurement of gravitational redshift and blueshift by this experiment validated the prediction of the equivalence principle

The Pound–Rebka experiment monitored frequency shifts in gamma rays as they rose and fell in the gravitational field of the Earth. The experiment tested Albert Einstein's 1907 and 1911 predictions, based on the equivalence principle, that photons would gain energy when descending a gravitational potential, and would lose energy when rising through a gravitational potential. It was proposed by Robert Pound and his graduate student Glen A. Rebka Jr. in 1959, and was the last of the classical tests of general relativity to be verified. The measurement of gravitational redshift and blueshift by this experiment validated the prediction of the equivalence principle that clocks should be measured as running at different rates in different places of a gravitational field. It is considered to be the experiment that ushered in an era of precision tests of general relativity.

Relativistic Doppler effect

required Lorentz symmetry. Astronomers know of three sources of redshift/blueshift: Doppler shifts; gravitational redshifts (due to light exiting a gravitational

The relativistic Doppler effect is the change in frequency, wavelength and amplitude of light, caused by the relative motion of the source and the observer (as in the classical Doppler effect, first proposed by Christian Doppler in 1842), when taking into account effects described by the special theory of relativity.

The relativistic Doppler effect is different from the non-relativistic Doppler effect as the equations include the time dilation effect of special relativity and do not involve the medium of propagation as a reference point. They describe the total difference in observed frequencies and possess the required Lorentz symmetry.

Astronomers know of three sources of redshift/blueshift: Doppler shifts; gravitational redshifts (due to light exiting a gravitational field); and cosmological expansion (where space itself stretches). This article concerns itself only with Doppler shifts.

Messier 90

Cluster, it appeared that this inference based on the blueshift was incorrect. Instead, many blueshifts exhibit the large range in velocities of objects within

Messier 90 (also known as M90 and NGC 4569) is an intermediate spiral galaxy exhibiting a weak inner ring structure about 60 million light-years away[a] in the constellation Virgo. It was discovered by Charles Messier in 1781.

Wave vector

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In physics, a wave vector (or wavevector) is a vector used in describing a wave, with a typical unit being cycle per metre. It has a magnitude and direction. Its magnitude is the wavenumber of the wave (inversely proportional to the wavelength), and its direction is perpendicular to the wavefront. In isotropic media, this is also the direction of wave propagation.

A closely related vector is the angular wave vector (or angular wavevector), with a typical unit being radian per metre. The wave vector and angular wave vector are related by a fixed constant of proportionality, 2π radians per cycle.

It is common in several fields of physics to refer to the angular wave vector simply as the wave vector, in contrast to, for example, crystallography. It is also common to use the symbol \mathbf{k} for whichever is in use.

In the context of special relativity, a wave four-vector can be defined, combining the (angular) wave vector and (angular) frequency.

Milky Way

the original on March 2, 2012. "How Many Stars in the Milky Way?" NASA Blueshift. Archived from the original on January 25, 2016. Cassan, A.; et al. (January

The Milky Way or Milky Way Galaxy is the galaxy that includes the Solar System, with the name describing the galaxy's appearance from Earth: a hazy band of light seen in the night sky formed from stars in other arms of the galaxy, which are so far away that they cannot be individually distinguished by the naked eye.

The Milky Way is a barred spiral galaxy with a D25 isophotal diameter estimated at 26.8 ± 1.1 kiloparsecs ($87,400 \pm 3,600$ light-years), but only about 1,000 light-years thick at the spiral arms (more at the bulge). Recent simulations suggest that a dark matter area, also containing some visible stars, may extend up to a diameter of almost 2 million light-years (613 kpc). The Milky Way has several satellite galaxies and is part of the Local Group of galaxies, forming part of the Virgo Supercluster which is itself a component of the Laniakea Supercluster.

It is estimated to contain 100–400 billion stars and at least that number of planets. The Solar System is located at a radius of about 27,000 light-years (8.3 kpc) from the Galactic Center, on the inner edge of the Orion Arm, one of the spiral-shaped concentrations of gas and dust. The stars in the innermost 10,000 light-years form a bulge and one or more bars that radiate from the bulge. The Galactic Center is an intense radio source known as Sagittarius A*, a supermassive black hole of $4.100 (\pm 0.034)$ million solar masses. The

oldest stars in the Milky Way are nearly as old as the Universe itself and thus probably formed shortly after the Dark Ages of the Big Bang.

Galileo Galilei first resolved the band of light into individual stars with his telescope in 1610. Until the early 1920s, most astronomers thought that the Milky Way contained all the stars in the Universe. Following the 1920 Great Debate between the astronomers Harlow Shapley and Heber Doust Curtis, observations by Edwin Hubble in 1923 showed that the Milky Way was just one of many galaxies.

TON 618

Zhao; Wei-Hao, Bian; Green Richard, Frederick (21 March 2019). "The Blueshift of the C IV Broad Emission Line in QSOs". The Astronomical Journal. 157

TON 618 (abbreviation of Tonantzintla 618) is a hyperluminous, broad-absorption-line, radio-loud quasar, and Lyman-alpha blob located near the border of the constellations Canes Venatici and Coma Berenices, with the projected comoving distance of approximately 18.2 billion light-years from Earth. It contains one of the most massive black holes ever found, at roughly 66 billion M_{\odot} .

Orders of magnitude (power)

Bi-Xuan; Bian, Wei-Hao; Frederick, Green Richard (March 2019). "The Blueshift of the C iv Broad Emission Line in QSOs". The Astronomical Journal. 157

This page lists examples of the power in watts produced by various sources of energy. They are grouped by orders of magnitude from small to large.

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