



Figure 1.14 Fornax Cluster of Galaxies. In this image, you can see part of a cluster of galaxies located about 60 million light-years away in the constellation of Fornax. All the objects that are not pinpoints of light in the picture are galaxies of billions of stars. (credit: ESO, J. Emerson, VISTA. Acknowledgment: Cambridge Astronomical Survey Unit)

Some of the clusters themselves form into larger groups called *superclusters*. The Local Group is part of a supercluster of galaxies, called the Virgo Supercluster, which stretches over a diameter of 110 million light-years. We are just beginning to explore the structure of the universe at these enormous scales and are already encountering some unexpected findings.

At even greater distances, where many ordinary galaxies are too dim to see, we find *quasars*. These are brilliant centers of galaxies, glowing with the light of an extraordinarily energetic process. The enormous energy of the quasars is produced by gas that is heated to a temperature of millions of degrees as it falls toward a massive black hole and swirls around it. The brilliance of quasars makes them the most distant beacons we can see in the dark oceans of space. They allow us to probe the universe 10 billion light-years away or more, and thus 10 billion years or more in the past.

With quasars we can see way back close to the Big Bang explosion that marks the beginning of time. Beyond the quasars and the most distant visible galaxies, we have detected the feeble glow of the explosion itself, filling the universe and thus coming to us from all directions in space. The discovery of this “afterglow of creation” is considered to be one of the most significant events in twentieth-century science, and we are still exploring the many things it has to tell us about the earliest times of the universe.

Measurements of the properties of galaxies and quasars in remote locations require large telescopes, sophisticated light-amplifying devices, and painstaking labor. Every clear night, at observatories around the world, astronomers and students are at work on such mysteries as the birth of new stars and the large-scale structure of the universe, fitting their results into the tapestry of our understanding.

1.8 The Universe of the Very Small

The foregoing discussion has likely impressed on you that the universe is extraordinarily large and extraordinarily empty. On average, it is 10,000 times more empty than our Galaxy. Yet, as we have seen, even

the Galaxy is mostly empty space. The air we breathe has about 10^{19} atoms in each cubic centimeter—and we usually think of air as empty space. In the interstellar gas of the Galaxy, there is about one atom in every cubic centimeter. Intergalactic space is filled so sparsely that to find one atom, on average, we must search through a cubic meter of space. Most of the universe is fantastically empty; places that are dense, such as the human body, are tremendously rare.

Even our most familiar solids are mostly space. If we could take apart such a solid, piece by piece, we would eventually reach the tiny molecules from which it is formed. Molecules are the smallest particles into which any matter can be divided while still retaining its chemical properties. A molecule of water (H_2O), for example, consists of two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom bonded together.

Molecules, in turn, are built of atoms, which are the smallest particles of an element that can still be identified as that element. For example, an atom of gold is the smallest possible piece of gold. Nearly 100 different kinds of atoms (elements) exist in nature. Most of them are rare, and only a handful account for more than 99% of everything with which we come in contact. The most abundant elements in the cosmos today are listed in [Table 1.1](#); think of this table as the “greatest hits” of the universe when it comes to elements. Note that the list includes the four elements most common in life on Earth—hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen.

The Cosmically Abundant Elements

Element ¹	Symbol	Number of Atoms per Million Hydrogen Atoms
Hydrogen	H	1,000,000
Helium	He	80,000
Carbon	C	450
Nitrogen	N	92
Oxygen	O	740
Neon	Ne	130
Magnesium	Mg	40
Silicon	Si	37
Sulfur	S	19
Iron	Fe	32

Table 1.1

All atoms consist of a central, positively charged nucleus surrounded by negatively charged electrons. The bulk of the matter in each atom is found in the nucleus, which consists of positive protons and electrically neutral neutrons all bound tightly together in a very small space. Each element is defined by the number of protons in its atoms. Thus, any atom with 6 protons in its nucleus is called *carbon*, any with 50 protons is called *tin*, and

¹ This list of elements is arranged in order of the atomic number, which is the number of protons in each nucleus.

any with 70 protons is called *ytterbium*. (For a list of the elements, see [Appendix K](#).)

The distance from an atomic nucleus to its electrons is typically 100,000 times the size of the nucleus itself. This is why we say that even solid matter is mostly space. The typical atom is far emptier than the solar system out to Neptune. (The distance from Earth to the Sun, for example, is only 100 times the size of the Sun.) This is one reason atoms are not like miniature solar systems.

Remarkably, physicists have discovered that everything that happens in the universe, from the smallest atomic nucleus to the largest superclusters of galaxies, can be explained through the action of only four forces: gravity, electromagnetism (which combines the actions of electricity and magnetism), and two forces that act at the nuclear level. The fact that there are four forces (and not a million, or just one) has puzzled physicists and astronomers for many years and has led to a quest for a unified picture of nature.

LINK TO LEARNING



To construct an atom, particle by particle, check out this [guided animation \(https://openstax.org/l/30buildanatom\)](https://openstax.org/l/30buildanatom) for building an atom.

1.9 A Conclusion and a Beginning

If you are new to astronomy, you have probably reached the end of our brief tour in this chapter with mixed emotions. On the one hand, you may be fascinated by some of the new ideas you've read about and you may be eager to learn more. On the other hand, you may be feeling a bit overwhelmed by the number of topics we have covered, and the number of new words and ideas we have introduced. Learning astronomy is a little like learning a new language: at first it seems there are so many new expressions that you'll never master them all, but with practice, you soon develop facility with them.

At this point you may also feel a bit small and insignificant, dwarfed by the cosmic scales of distance and time. But, there is another way to look at what you have learned from our first glimpses of the cosmos. Let us consider the history of the universe from the Big Bang to today and compress it, for easy reference, into a single year. (We have borrowed this idea from Carl Sagan's 1977 Pulitzer Prize-winning book, *The Dragons of Eden*.)

On this scale, the Big Bang happened at the first moment of January 1, and this moment, when you are reading this chapter would be the end of the very last second of December 31. When did other events in the development of the universe happen in this "cosmic year?" Our solar system formed around September 10, and the oldest rocks we can date on Earth go back to the third week in September ([Figure 1.15](#)).