

Annual Report of the National Astronomical Observatory of Japan

Volume 12 Fiscal 2009



Cover Caption

The total solar eclipse on July 22, 2009, observed on the Pacific Ocean near Kita-Iwo Jima by H. Fukushima, A. Miyachi, and M. Katayama. It became topical because the path of totality covered a part of the land of Japan for the first time in 46 years.

Postscript

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Annual Report of the National Astronomical Observatory of Japan Fiscal **2009**

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P R E F A C E

Shoken MIYAMA
Director General of NAOJ

I am pleased to present the Annual Report of the National Astronomical Observatory of Japan (NAOJ) for fiscal 2009.

The year 2009 was a year full of exciting events that drummed up the national interest in science. This is because of the International Year of Astronomy 2009 (IYA2009) that was declared by the United Nations to celebrate the 400th anniversary of the first use of an astronomical telescope by Galileo Galilei in 1609. A variety of IYA2009 events were held on a local level in Japan and throughout the world, raising great interest in astronomy and astrophysics. In the year of IYA2009, Japan was blessed with an opportunity of the total eclipse, which came to national attention. Unfortunately, bad weather on the day of the eclipse prevented people with high expectation for the astronomical event from seeing it in the main land. On the other hand, a spectacular eclipse was fully observed on the ocean of the Ogasawara Islands' area, about 1,000 km south of Tokyo. For this event, NAOJ sent a group of researchers to one of the Ogasawara Islands, Iwo Island to successfully conduct a spectrum observation of the Sun's corona. The sun drew attention in 2009 for another reason: the number of sunspots on its surface. The sun has an active phase and a quiet phase in turn in its 11-year activity cycle. The phase is identified by the number of sunspots, which are observed more in the active phase and less in the quiet phase. The sun was expected to enter the active

phase from the quiet phase in 2009, but it had been quiet without increasing the number of sunspots. Experts suspected the sun might be in the maunder minimum where the number of sunspots was abnormally low for several decades in the 1600s. It is said that, back then in Europe, the temperature became so low the Thames River got frozen. The quiet sun this time seems not as abnormal as in the maunder minimum in the 1600s because the number of sunspots has been on the rise since around the end of 2009. Solar physicists are studying this unusual solar event as an intriguing phenomenon to figure out what is behind it.

In Mitaka Campus of NAOJ, Mitaka Picture Book House in the Astronomical Observatory Forest was opened to the public on July 7, 2009. The house was one of more than 40 wooden, one-story Japanese-style houses built in the Campus during the period from 1915 through 1951 for researchers and their families. Those houses were demolished a few years ago, except the first house constructed before the others, as considered too dangerous to live in due to their old age and poor earthquake resistance. The first house was a luxurious historical structure built in 1915 for professors and their families, having a study, living room, kitchen, an apprentice room, and even a maid room. The house came to be known to Mitaka City, which proposed an idea to NAOJ to collaboratively renovate and transform it into a facility where children can enjoy picture book story

sessions. Located next to the cutting-edge space research center and surrounded by lush forest, Mitaka Picture Book House in the Astronomical Observatory Forest has been attracting many children and their parents since its opening, thanks to proactive efforts by the municipal office staff of Mitaka City dedicated to the operation of this House.

In addition to those described above, we steadily make best efforts through public outreach and educational activities by Public Relations Center of NAOJ in order to be an institute open to and introduce up-to-date scientific information and astronomical findings to the public. Mizusawa Campus of NAOJ, Nobeyama Radio Observatory, Okayama Astrophysical Observatory, and the Subaru Telescope are also making the same efforts by regularly opening the facilities to the public and having a special open house day where visitors can have close contacts with researchers.

NAOJ continuously released research findings in 2009 that intrigued interest from scientific communities and the public. The year 2009 marked the 10th anniversary of the reception of the first light with the Subaru Telescope that keeps achieving amazing scientific results. In the exploration of extrasolar planets, it discovered a planet orbiting counter to the direction of a fixed star's rotation and succeeded in taking the world's first, direct picture of a star that is considered a planet of a sunlike central star. The direct picture taking itself is the second success in the world following the first by a North American team of astronomers in 2008, but taking a direct picture of a planet with a sunlike host star is the first success in the world. The discovery of these planets poses challenges to the current view of planet formation theory. The Subaru Telescope also produced world-acclaimed results for the study of cosmology and in the field of galaxy physics. In October, a symposium to introduce the results by the Subaru Telescope was held in Tokyo, followed by a party where persons involved were invited.

The ALMA Project, an international project among East Asian, North American and European countries and regions, marked its 6th year of construction. Japan has started the construction of 7-meter-diameter antennas following that of 12-meter-diameter antennas. At the ALMA's high site of 5,000 meters asl, interferometry experiments were conducted with three antennas constructed by Japan and the United States to confirm the appropriate operability of the antennas. As to the antenna

receivers, a Band-10 cartridge assembly with highest frequencies among the ALMA bands was successfully fabricated. This significant milestone proves that the NAOJ's capability of cartridge development is the world's highest level as the cartridge fabrication requires ultraprecision machining at a level never before achieved. The ALMA Project is steadily advancing the process to the completion of the ALMA Observatory, making further efforts necessary for the inception of the early and full-scale operation.

Each Observatory of NAOJ is also producing remarkable scientific results. Okayama Astrophysical Observatory made a world record by successfully spotting the gamma-ray burst that detonated 13.1 billion light years from Earth and is the most distant burst in the universe overall. Nobeyama Radio Observatory successfully observed "monster galaxy" that is actively forming stars and obtained data suggesting the presence and distribution of "dark matters" around the galaxy. The lunar explorer Kaguya, in which the RISE Project Team of Mizusawa Campus of NAOJ participated, completed its mission when it fell onto the moon in May 2009. NAOJ released the groundbreaking study results obtained with the explorer such as the gravity map and detailed topographic map of the moon. Of all the results, the precise data of the nearside and farside of the moon drew a great deal of attention.

NAOJ is an inter-university research institute operating an array of the researches described above. These researches are conducted in response to requests from researchers of universities throughout Japan, and most of the research results are shared by NAOJ and the researchers of these universities participated in the research. For further development, education of and provision of research guidance to young researchers are indispensable elements. NAOJ is continuously making significant efforts in postgraduate education at the Graduate University for Advanced Studies and through collaboration with other universities. Your continued support will be greatly appreciated.



Shoken MIYAMA
Director General of NAOJ

I Scientific Highlights

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Potassium Abundances in Red Giants of Globular Clusters

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Given the confusing situation regarding the $[K/Fe]$ ratio of metal-poor stars in the halo, where some work suggests a fairly tight tendency (such like disk stars) while others report a considerably large diversity amounting to ~ 1 dex, we carried out a spectroscopic study on 15 red giants of three mildly to very metal-poor globular clusters (M 4, M 13, and M 15) along with two reference stars (ρ Boo and α Boo) based on the high-dispersion spectra obtained with Subaru/HDS (cf. Figure 1), with a purpose of clarifying the behavior of $[K/Fe]$ at the relevant metallicity range of $-2.5 \lesssim [Fe/H] \lesssim -1$.

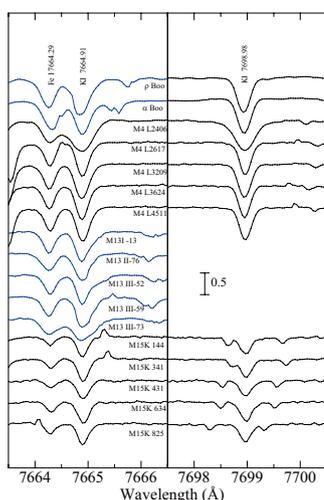


Figure 1: Spectra of 17 stars in the neighborhood of the K I 7665 line and the K I 7699 line.

The atmospheric parameters (T_{eff} , $\log g$, v_t , and $[Fe/H]$) were spectroscopically determined by using Fe I and Fe II lines, and the abundance of K was derived from the K I resonance lines at 7664.91 and 7698.97 Å while taking the non-LTE effect into account.

We confirmed that $[K/H]$ (as well as $[Fe/H]$) is almost homogeneous within each of the three clusters to a precision of $< \sim 0.1$ dex, though superficially large deviations are exceptionally seen for two peculiar stars which show signs of considerably increased turbulence in the upper atmosphere.

The $[K/Fe]$ ratios of these cluster stars turned out mildly supersolar by a few tenths of dex, tending to gradually increase from $\sim +0.1$ – 0.2 at $[Fe/H] \sim -1$ to $\sim +0.3$ at $[Fe/H] \sim -2.5$, which is a fairly tight and clean trend. We thus consider that the previously reported large diversity of $[K/Fe]$ in halo stars is not real, which we suspect to be due to some improper treatment in the

analysis.

This result is quite consistent (i.e., smoothly connecting) with the $[K/Fe]$ trend of disk stars ($-1 \lesssim [Fe/H]$) and that of extremely metal-poor stars ($-4 \lesssim [Fe/H] \lesssim -2.5$). That is, $[K/Fe]$ appears to continue a gradual increase from $[Fe/H] \sim 0$ toward a lower metallicity regime down to $[Fe/H] \sim -3$ (cf. Figure 2), where a broad maximum of $[K/Fe] \sim +0.3$ – 0.4 is attained, possibly followed by a slight downturn toward a further lower metallicity at $[Fe/H] \lesssim -3$.

This investigation is based on the data obtained by the observation with the Subaru Telescope, which was carried out during the practical training of observational astronomy for graduate students as a coursework of The Graduate University for Advanced Studies (SOKENDAI). More detailed results of this study are described in [1].

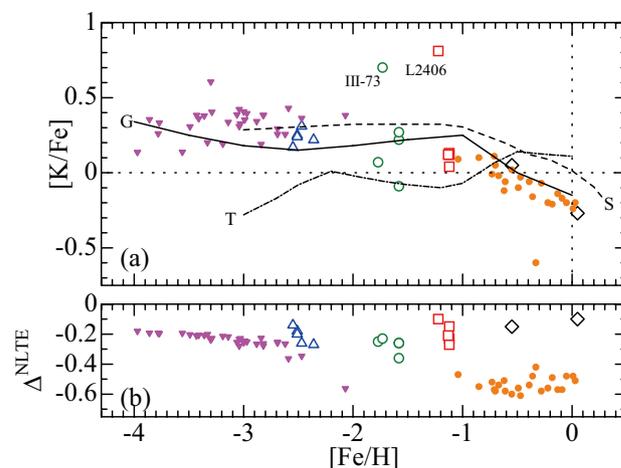


Figure 2: (a) The $[K/Fe]$ vs. $[Fe/H]$ plots constructed from the metallicity and the NLTE potassium abundances determined by us. The results for the 17 program stars are shown in large open symbols (diamonds for ρ Boo and α Boo, squares for M 4 stars, circles for M 13 stars, and triangles for M 15 stars). The two stars (M 13 III-73 and M 4 L2406) showing exceptionally large deviations from the main trend are also indicated. Meanwhile, the smaller filled symbols represent the results for disk stars and extremely metal-poor stars presented here for comparison. Lines show the three kinds of theoretical predictions (b) The NLTE corrections for K abundance determinations (Δ^{NLTE} is the average of $\Delta^{\text{NLTE}}_{7665}$ and $\Delta^{\text{NLTE}}_{7699}$ in case that both lines are available), plotted against $[Fe/H]$.

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The Circumbinary Outflow: A Protostellar Outflow Driven by a Circumbinary Disk

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The protostellar outflow is star's first cry at the moment of birth. Since Snell discovered an outflow from a protostar in 1980, over 300 outflows have been observed in many star-forming regions. The protostellar outflow is believed to be driven from the circumstellar disk by release of the gravitational energy mediated by the Lorentz and centrifugal forces [1]. In general, the star is formed in gravitationally collapsing cloud cores. The binary frequently appears through the fragmentation of the collapsing cloud core [2]. With the proto-binary formation, the collapsing gas forms a circumbinary disk that is frequently observed. Thus, outflow may be driven also by the circumbinary disk.

In this study, the evolution of a magnetized rotating cloud is investigated using three-dimensional resistive MHD nested-grid code that covers over five orders of magnitude of spatial scale [3]. After the adiabatic core formation in the collapsing cloud core, the magnetic flux is significantly removed from the center of the cloud by the Ohmic dissipation. Since this removal makes the magnetic braking ineffective, the adiabatic core continuously acquires the angular momentum to induce fragmentation and subsequent binary formation. The magnetic field accumulates in the circumbinary disk where the removal and accretion of magnetic field are balanced. The outflow is driven by the circumbinary disk, while no outflow appears in the proximity of the protobinary because of the deficit of strong field.

Figure 1 left panel shows the configuration of the outflow, which indicates that the outflow driven by the circumbinary disk, not by the protostar (or proto-binary). Figure 1 upper right panel shows the configuration of magnetic field lines that are strongly twisted by the rotation of the circumbinary disk. The outer region of circumbinary disk has a density of $n < 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and is well coupled with the magnetic field that can drive the outflow. On the other hand, the magnetic field is too weak to drive outflow in the region around protobinary. Figure 1 right lower panel shows B_z on the $z = 0$ plane with the same scale of left panel, and indicates that the magnetic field is weak around protobinary but strong in the circumbinary disk.

This result explains the morphology of some specific young stellar objects such as L1551 IRS5. We can infer that most of the bipolar molecular outflows observed by low density tracers (i.e., CO) would correspond to circumbinary or circum-multiple outflows found in this letter, since most of the young stellar objects are supposed to be multiples. We expect that the circumbinary outflows

is verified by future observations such as ALMA.

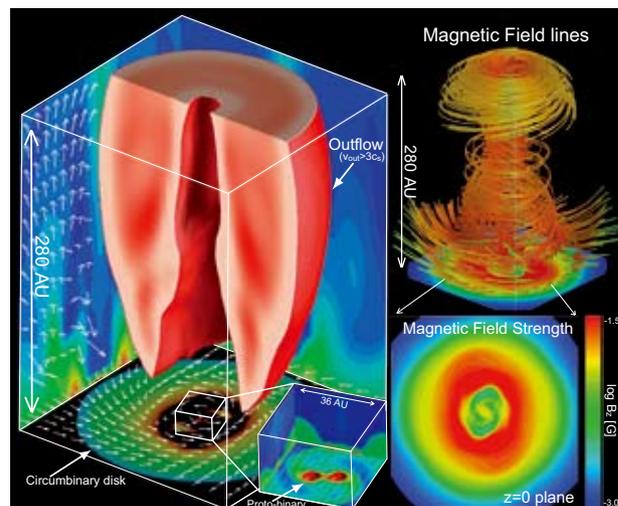


Figure 1: Large-scale structure of $l = 10$ grid in three dimension. *Left panel:* The configuration of circumbinary outflow is shown by red-volume, in which color means the outflow speed. The density contours (colors) and velocity vectors (arrows) are projected in each wall surface. The square at lower right corner shows the close-up view around the protobinary, in which color means the density distribution, and the high-density region (i.e., the protobinary) is represented by the red iso-density surface. *Right upper panel:* The magnetic field lines integrated from the circumbinary disk are plotted. The bottom panel indicates the strength of B_z by the color. *Right lower panel:* The strength of B_z on $z = 0$ plane is represented by the color.

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Buried active supermassive blackholes as a function of galaxy infrared luminosity revealed through Spitzer infrared spectroscopy

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Ultraluminous infrared galaxies (ULIRGs) radiate huge infrared luminosities ($L_{\text{IR}} > 10^{12}L_{\odot}$), originating from thermal emission from dust heated by energy sources hidden behind dust. The energy sources can be energy generation by nuclear fusion reaction inside stars (star-formation) and/or the conversion from gravitational energy produced by accreted material onto a compact supermassive blackhole, to radiative energy (AGN activity). Since the ULIRG population contributes importantly to the cosmic infrared radiation density at $z > 1$, distinguishing the energy sources of ULIRGs is closely coupled to clarifying the connections between star-formation and supermassive blackhole mass growth in the dust obscured galaxy formation of the early universe.

Since a large amount of dust and gas concentrates to the nuclear regions of ULIRGs, spatially-compact AGNs can easily be buried (= obscured by dust in virtually all directions) and become very difficult to find through optical spectroscopy, because of large dust extinction. Infrared 5–35 μm spectroscopy is a powerful tool to study such optically elusive buried AGNs in ULIRGs, because of much reduced effects of dust extinction. Furthermore, PAH (Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons) emission features, found in this wavelength range, are detected in starbursts, but not in pure AGNs, making the features a good tool to distinguish the energy sources. Finally, the optical depths of rest-frame 9.7 μm silicate dust absorption features can also be used to differentiate between normal star-formation (stellar energy sources and dust are spatially well mixed) and buried AGNs (the energy source, a compact mass-accreting supermassive blackhole, is more centrally concentrated than dust) [1].

We have extended Spitzer 5–35 μm infrared spectroscopy to ULIRGs at $z > 0.15$ (Figure 1), and found that (1) optically-elusive, but intrinsically luminous buried AGNs are common in ULIRGs, and (2) the importance of buried AGNs increases with increasing galaxy infrared luminosity (Figure 2), suggesting that the AGN-starburst connections are luminosity dependent [2,3]. We quantitatively estimated that the relative energetic importance of buried AGNs is higher in more infrared luminous galaxies, and these galaxies have currently higher star formation rates, and will evolve into more massive galaxies with larger stellar masses in the future. Our results may be observationally related to the widely-proposed AGN feedback scenario as the possible origin of the galaxy down-sizing phenomenon, where currently more massive galaxies have finished their major star-formation in an early cosmic age.

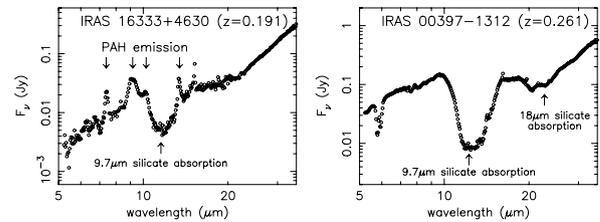


Figure 1: (Left): Spitzer infrared 5–35 μm spectrum of a starburst-dominated ULIRG, with strong PAH emission features. (Right): Buried AGN, with non-detectable PAH emission and strong silicate dust absorption features.

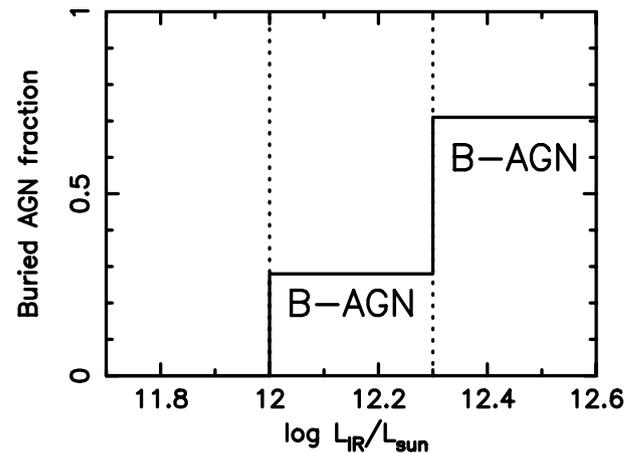


Figure 2: Detected buried AGN fraction as a function of galaxy infrared luminosity. The abscissa is the decimal logarithm of infrared luminosity in units of solar luminosity.

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Direct Imaging of Bridged Twin Protoplanetary Disks in a Young Multiple Star

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Studies of protoplanetary disks in multiple systems are essential for describing the general processes of star and planet formation because most stars form as multiples [1]. However, such circummultiple disks and spiral arms in multiple systems have rarely been directly resolved to date. Here, we present the direct image of an interacting binary protoplanetary system [2]. We investigate the geometry of a young (a stellar age of 4 million years) multiple circumstellar disk system, SR24, to understand its nature based on observations and numerical simulations. SR24 is a hierarchical multiple, located 160 pc away in the Ophiuchus star-forming region.

We obtained an infrared image of SR24 with CIAO [3] mounted on the Subaru 8.2-m Telescope. (Fig. 1, left). The emission arises from dust particles mixed with gas in the circumstellar structures scattering the stellar light. Both circumprimary and circumsecondary disks are clearly resolved. Both disks overflow the inner Roche lobes (dotted contours in Fig. 1), suggesting that the material outside the lobes can fall into either of the inner lobes. There is a bridge of infrared emission connecting the two disks and a long spiral arm extending from the circumprimary disk. A spiral arm would suggest that the SR24 system rotates counter clockwise. The orbital period of the binary is 15,000 yr. The arm would also imply replenishment of the twin disk gas from the circumbinary disk.

We performed 2D numerical simulations of accretion from a circumbinary disk to identify the features seen in the coronagraphic image (Fig. 1, right). Although the gas flow was not stationary, especially inside the Roche lobes, the stage of the 2D simulations shown in Fig. 1 shared common features with the observed image. These agreements between observation and simulation suggest that the bridge corresponds to gas flow and a shock wave caused by the collision of gas rotating around the primary and secondary stars. The arm corresponds to a spiral wave excited in the circumbinary disk.

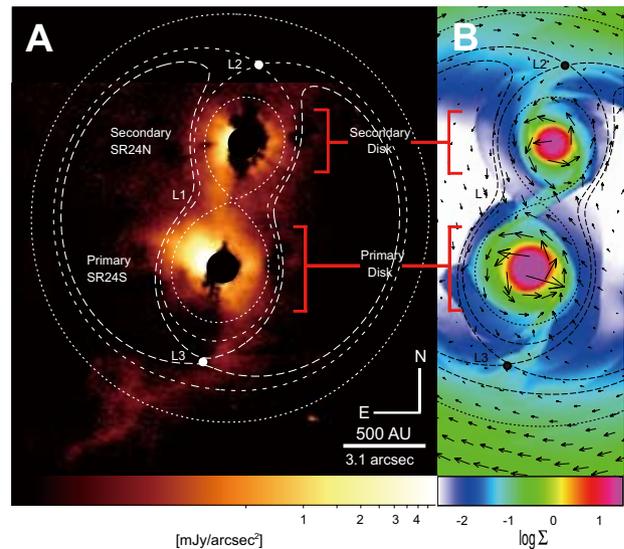


Figure 1: Observed and simulated images of the young multiple star, SR24. (a) H-band ($1.6\ \mu\text{m}$) coronagraphic image of SR24. The total integration time was 1008 s. The PSFs of the final images have sizes of 0.1 arcsecond (FWHM) for the H-band. The inner and outer Roche Lobes are overlaid on the Subaru image as dotted and dashed lines, respectively. L1, L2, and L3 represent the inner Lagrangian point, outer Lagrangian point on the secondary side, and outer Lagrangian point on the primary side, respectively. (b) Snapshot of accretion onto the binary system SR24 based on 2D numerical simulations. The color and arrows denote the surface density distribution and velocity distribution, respectively.

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HI-selected galaxies and quasar absorption systems

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The quasar/GRB absorption systems provide us with a unique probe of galaxy formation and evolution processes. In particular, the HI absorption systems have been investigated extensively to place stringent constraint on the physical condition of the galactic gas. However, the origin of the absorption systems (e.g., damped Ly α absorption system; DLA) are still unclear because the optical counterparts are handful. For a purpose to revealing the origin of DLAs, we focus on the HI emission galaxies detected in blind radio surveys (e.g., the HI Parkes All Sky Survey; HIPASS), and investigate a link between the HI-selected galaxies and DLAs.

We employ a semi-analytic model for galaxy formation [1, 2] which incorporates basic processes of galaxy formation (e.g., merging process and SN feedback). The models, where the star formation rates (SFR) are high (the HS model) and low (the LS model), reproduce the HI mass functions (HIMFs) of the galaxy population based on the radio observations (Figure 1(a)).

We find that the number fractions of DLAs relative to galaxies are almost unity at $M_{\text{HI}} > 10^8 M_{\odot}$ at redshift $z = 0$ [3], which suggests a trend that gaseous disks of galaxies have HI column densities as high as those in DLA systems. The HI-selected galaxies at $M_{\text{HI}} > 10^8 M_{\odot}$ correspond to DLA hosts. By contrast, in the low-mass range $M_{\text{HI}} < 10^8 M_{\odot}$, the number fractions begin to decrease toward the low-mass end. This indicates that a small amount of HI gas of the less massive systems does not produce high enough HI column densities to detect as DLAs. More specifically, at the low-mass end, another population, sub-DLAs, becomes dominant instead of DLAs. The predicted number fractions of sub-DLAs reaches 30%–80% for $M_{\text{HI}} \sim 10^7 M_{\odot}$ (Figure 1(b)).

The study of HI-selected galaxies (e.g., the SFRs (Figure 2)) can offer *statistically* valuable information about quasar absorption systems and opportunities for revealing the origins that place stringent constraints on galaxy formation and evolution.

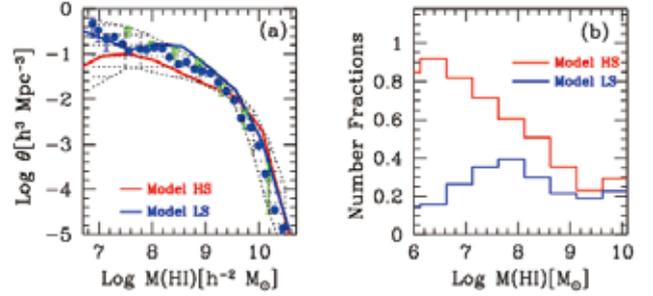


Figure 1: (a) The HI mass functions of galaxies for models. The shaded region represents the region of HIMFs given by various blind surveys. The points are the observational data provided by the HIPASS (*circles*) and the Arecibo Dual-Beam Survey (*squares*). The observations are consistent with the HIMFs for the models. (b) The histogram of number fractions of *sub-DLAs*. In the low-mass range $M_{\text{HI}} < 10^8 M_{\odot}$, the number fractions are obviously higher than those at $M_{\text{HI}} > 10^9 M_{\odot}$.

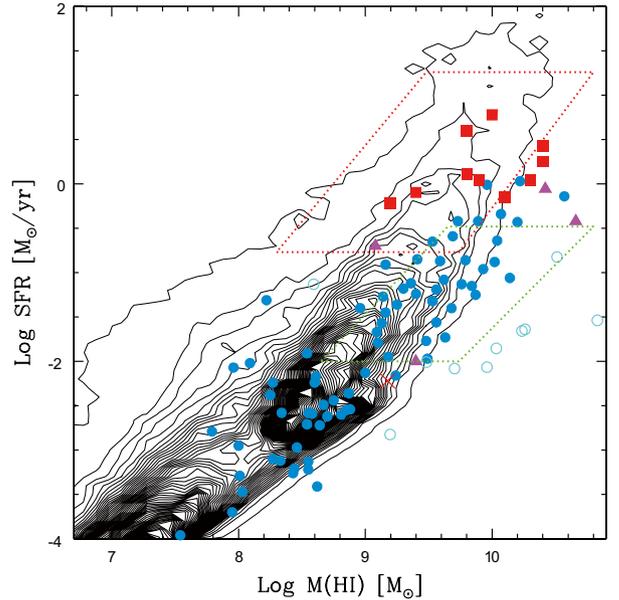


Figure 2: The contour map for the SFR vs the HI mass M_{HI} in galaxies for the LS model. The SFRs of optical/infrared counterparts of HI-selected galaxies are shown as *points* and *boxes*. A star formation rate in an optical counterpart of a DLA system is also plotted as *cross* (for details, [3]).

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Global Radiation-Magnetohydrodynamic Simulations of Black Hole Accretion Flow and Outflow: Unified Model of Three States

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Black-hole accretion, the most powerful energy-production mechanism in the Universe, is known to exhibit several distinct modes (or spectral states), such as low-hard state, high-soft state, and so on. Onedimensional models for each mode were proposed. However, the α -viscosity is assumed, although its physical basis is not clear (for a review, see [1]). Since the disk viscosity is likely to be of magnetic origin [2], dynamics of magnetized accretion disks has been extensively studied via multi-dimensional MHD simulations [3, 4]. Nevertheless, our understanding of the accretion disk today is far from being satisfactory, since the radiative processes were neglected or restrictively treated in the previous simulations.

Here, we report the results of our new simulations that would open a new era of the accretion disk research. We performed global, two-dimensional radiation-MHD (RMHD) simulations, in which radiation processes as well as MHD processes are fully considered, we demonstrate three distinct modes of accretion with the same code by varying mass density normalizations. When the density is large, a thick, very luminous (super-Eddington) disk forms (model A). When the density is

moderate, the accreting gas can effectively cool by emitting radiation, thus generating a thin disk, i.e., the highsoft state disk (model B). When the density is too low for radiative cooling to be important, a disk becomes hot, thick, and faint; i.e., the low-hard state disk (model C). The magnetic energy is amplified within the disk up to about twice, 30%, and 20% of the gas energy in cases described above, respectively. Notably, the disk outflows with helical magnetic fields, which are driven either by radiation pressure force or magnetic pressure force, are ubiquitous in any accretion modes. Finally, our RMHD simulations first showed that the disk viscosity is proportional to the pressure; this is hitherto the key assumption of the phenomenological standard disk theory.

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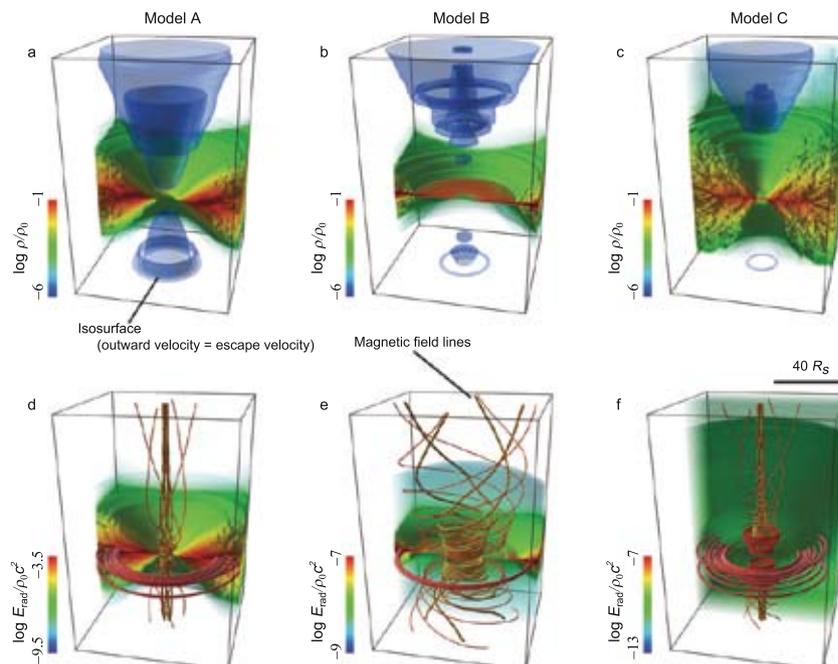


Figure 1: Perspective view of inflow and outflow patterns near the black hole for models A, B, and C, from left to right, respectively. Upper panels: Normalized density distributions (color) are overlaid with isosurfaces, at which the outward velocity equals to the escape velocity. Lower panels: The distributions of the normalized radiation energy density (color) is overlaid with the magnetic field lines.

GreeM: Massively Parallel TreePM Code for Large Cosmological N -body Simulations

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We developed GreeM, a massively parallel TreePM code for large-scale cosmological N -body simulations. GreeM uses a recursive multi-section algorithm for domain decomposition [1]. The size of the domains are adjusted so that the total calculation time of the force becomes the same for all processes. Figure 1 shows the domain decomposition for a simulation of a LCDM universe.

Figure 2 shows the CPU times per step as a function of the number of CPU cores. The loss of performance due to non-optimal load balancing is around 4%, even for more than 10^3 CPU cores whereas those of existing TreePM codes are more than 10% even for less than 256 CPU cores [2, 3] (Figure 3 shows the speed-up factors of GreeM and GADGET-2). GreeM runs efficiently on PC clusters and massively-parallel computers, such as a Cray XT4. The measured calculation speed on Cray XT4 is 7×10^4 particles per second per CPU core, for the case of an opening angle of $\theta = 0.5$, if the number of particles per CPU core is larger than 10^6 [4].

GreeM is extended for simulations on a planet-wide distributed supercomputer [5]. We achieved to run simulations over a variety of supercomputers in Tokyo (Japan), Amsterdam (Netherlands), Edinburgh (UK), and Espoo (Finland). We are able to achieve $\sim 87\%$ of the performance compared to an equal number of cores on a single supercomputer.

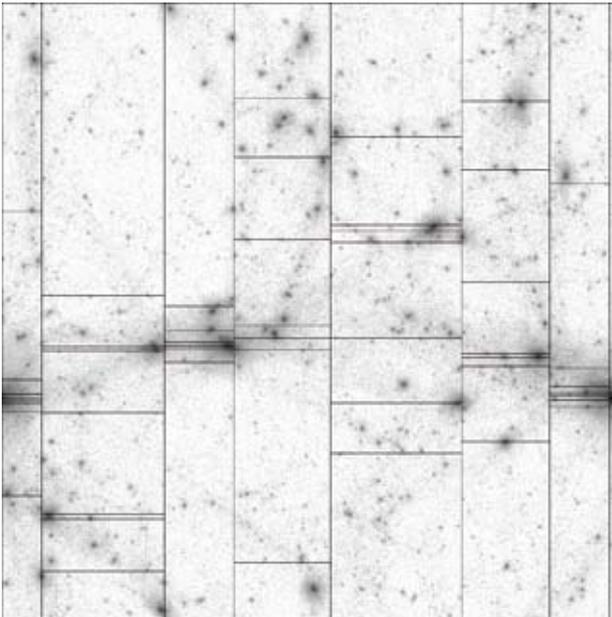


Figure 1: Decomposition in the LCDM universe at $z = 0$. It shows 8×8 division in two dimensions.

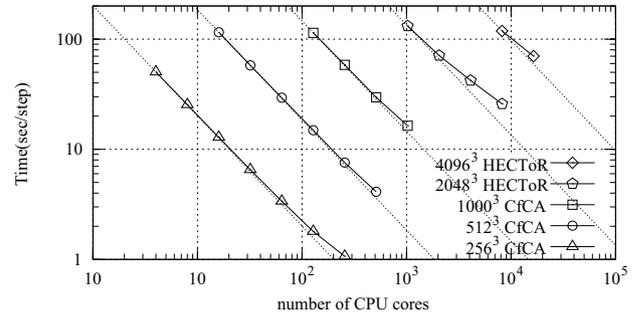


Figure 2: Calculation time per step of our code as a function of the number of CPU cores on Cray-XT4 and HECToR (Edinburgh).

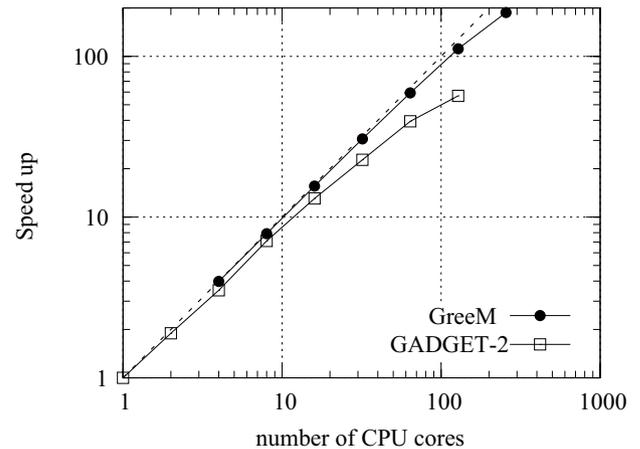


Figure 3: Speed up of our code and GADGET-2 plotted against the number of CPU cores. The filled circles and open squares show the result of GreeM and that of GADGET-2, respectively.

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Magnetic Field Structure of the HH 1–2 Region: Near-Infrared Polarimetry of Point-Like Sources

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The HH 1–2 region in the L1641 molecular cloud was observed in the near-infrared (IR) J , H , and K_s bands, and imaging polarimetry was performed. Seventy-six point-like sources were detected in all three bands. The near-IR polarizations of these sources seem to be caused mostly by the dichroic extinction [1]. Using a color-color diagram, reddened sources with little IR excess were selected to trace the magnetic field structure of the molecular cloud. The mean polarization position angle of these sources is about 111° , which is interpreted as the projected direction of the magnetic field in the observed region of the cloud. The distribution of the polarization angle has a dispersion of about 11° , which is smaller than what was measured in previous studies. This small dispersion gives a rough estimate of the strength of the magnetic field to be about $130 \mu\text{G}$ and suggests that the global magnetic field in this region is quite regular and straight. In contrast, the outflows driven by young stellar objects in this region seem to have no preferred

orientation. This discrepancy suggests that the magnetic field in the L1641 molecular cloud does not dictate the orientation of the protostars forming inside [2].

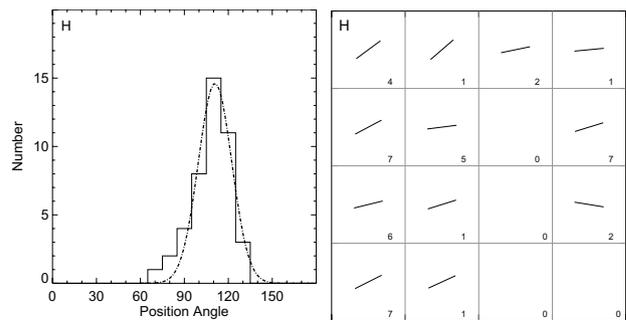


Figure 2: *Left:* Histogram of polarization position angles for the group Ar sources in the H band (either background stars or pre-main-sequence stars with little IR excess and with substantial reddening in the L1641 cloud). The peak angle is 111° , and the dispersion is 11° . Dot-dashed curve: Gaussian fit. *Right:* Average polarization position angle of group Ar sources in $2' \times 2'$ subregions of the HH 1–2 field. The number of sources in each subregion is labeled.

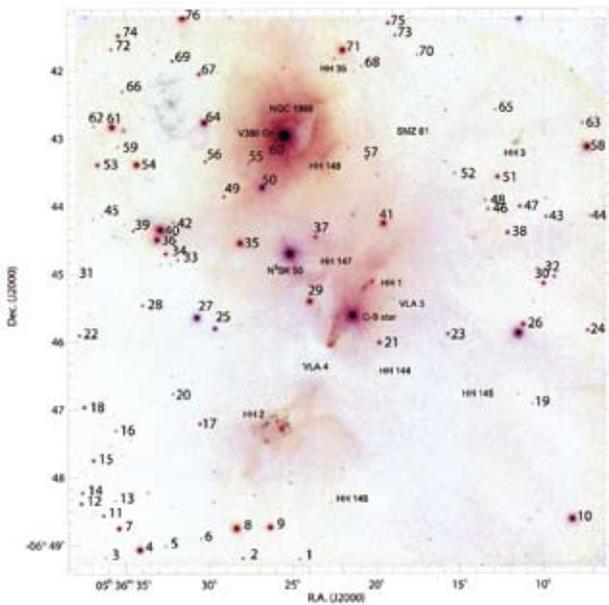


Figure 1: Finding chart of the HH 1–2 field (color-negative image of Color composite Stokes I image in the J (blue), H (green), and K_s (red) bands from the IRSF/SIRPOL observations). Detected point-like sources are labeled. Bright stars and some extended sources are also labeled.

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Stochastic Nature of Gravitational Waves from Supernova Explosions with Standing Accretion Shock Instability

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Traditionally, most of the model calculations of gravitational waves (GWs) have focused on the bounce signals in the context of rotational and magnetorotational core-collapse (see collective references in [1]). However, most of them have been based on the two-dimensional (2D) simulations that assume axisymmetry. Then, the growth of standing accretion shock instability (SASI) [2] and the large-scale convection, both of which are now considered to generically develop in the postbounce phase and to help the neutrino-driven explosions, develop along the symmetry axis preferentially, thus suppressing the anisotropies in explosions.

These situations motivated us to study the properties of GW based on the 3D simulations, which demonstrate the neutrino-driven explosions aided by SASI [3]. Figure 1 shows the 3D hydrodynamical features of SASI from the early phase of the non-linear regime of SASI (top left) until the shock break-out (bottom right) with the gravitational waveform from neutrinos inserted in each panel. After about 100 ms, the deformation of the standing shock becomes remarkable marking the epoch when the SASI enters the non-linear regime (top left of Figure 1). At the same time, the gravitational amplitudes begin to deviate from zero. As seen from the top right through bottom left to right panels of Figure 1, the major axis of the growth of SASI is shown to be not aligned with the symmetric axis (z axis in the figure) and the flow inside the standing shock wave is not symmetric with respect to this major axis (see the first and third quadrant in Figure 1). This is a generic feature in the computed 3D models, which is in contrast to the axisymmetric case. The GW amplitudes from SASI in 2D showed an increasing trend with time due to the symmetry axis, along which SASI can develop preferentially [2, 4]. Free from such a restriction, a variety of the waveforms is shown to appear (see waveforms inserted in Fig.). Such signals from a Galactic supernova are probably within the detection limits of the LIGO-class detectors, and seem surely visible to the next-generation detectors such as the advanced LIGO and LCGT. This means that the successful detection of the GW signals will supply us a powerful tool to probe the explosion mechanism. Recently the next-generation detectors, by which the GWs studied here could be surely visible for a Galactic source, are planned to be on line soon (2014!). It is an urgent task for theorists to make precise predictions of the GW signals based on more sophisticated 3D supernova modeling.

We have also studied the equilibrium configurations

of magnetized neutron stars in the framework of general relativity.

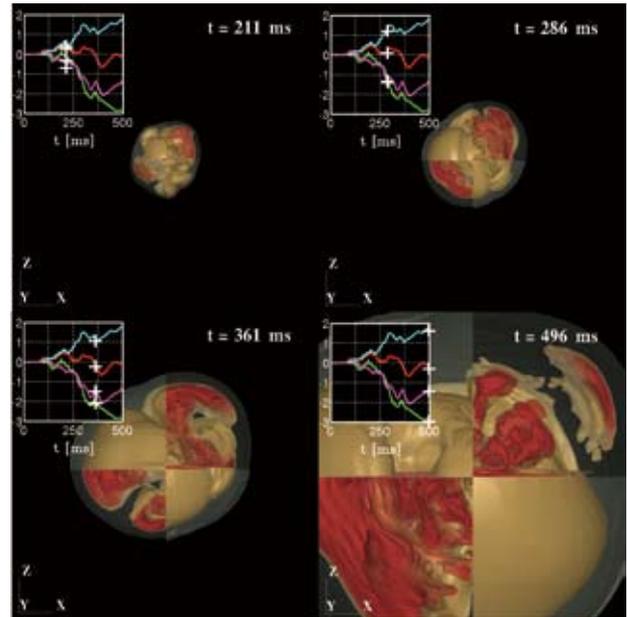


Figure 1: Four snapshots of the entropy distributions of a representative 3D supernova explosion model. The second and fourth quadrant of each panel shows the surface of the standing shock wave. In the first and third quadrant, the profiles of the high entropy bubbles (colored by red) inside the section cut by the ZX plane are shown. The side length of each plot is 1000 km. The insets show the gravitational waveforms from anisotropic neutrino emissions, with '+' on each curves representing the time of the snapshot.

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Centroid Experiment for 10^{-4} Pixel Order Determination of the Positions of Stars

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We have experimented with the determination of the positions of star images on a detector with high precision such as 10 microarcseconds, required by a space astrometry satellite, JASMINE. In order to accomplish such a precision, we take the following two procedures. (1) We determine the positions of star images on the detector with the precision of about 0.01 pixel for one measurement, using an algorithm for estimating them from photon weighted means of the star images. (2) We determine the positions of star images with the precision of about 0.0001–0.00001 pixel, which corresponds to that of 10 microarcseconds, using a large amount of data over 10000 measurements, that is, the error of the positions decreases according to the amount of data. Here, we note that the procedure 2 is not accomplished when the systematic error in our data is not excluded adequately even if we use a large amount of data. We show the results in the laboratory experiment for precision of determining the positions of star images. We obtain that the precision of estimation of positions of star images on the detector is under a variance of 0.01 pixel for one measurement (procedure 1). We also obtain that the precision of the positions of star images becomes a variance of about 0.0001 pixel using about 10000 measurements (procedure 2).

1 Results of Experiment 1

We obtain that the variance of the estimated distances of two stars is less than 0.01 pixel from several image frames using the algorithm shown in [1].

2 Results of Experiment 2

We finally need to determine the positions of star images with the precision of about 0.0001–0.00001 pixel, which corresponds to that of 10 microarcseconds, using a large amount of data over 10000 measurements, that is, the error of the positions decreases according to the amount of data. The above procedure is not necessarily accomplished when the systematic error in our data is not excluded adequately even if we use a large amount of data. In our experiment, we ascertain that the error of the positions of stars decreases according to the amount of data. The result is shown in the figure 1. The abscissa indicates the number of images in deriving the variance. The ordinate indicates the variance of the

estimated distance of stars. As shown in the figure 1, the variance decrease according to the slope of random error. Therefore, we obtain that the precision of the positions of star images becomes a variance of about 0.0001 pixel using about 10000 measurements [2].

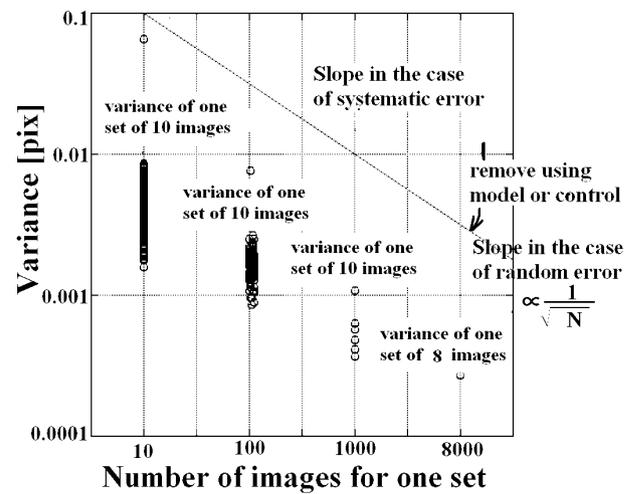


Figure 1: Variance against the number of images.

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Achromatic deep nulling with a three-dimensional Sagnac interferometer

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Not only for the detection but also the spectroscopic characterization of faint extra-solar planets, bright stellar light should be suppressed over a broad wavelength band to carry out investigations.

A 3-D Sagnac interferometer, which we have already proposed, introduces an achromatic nulling interference with geometrical π phase shift and a stable optical path length because of its common path architecture [1]. So far, to our knowledge the achromaticity of the practical 3-D Sagnac interferometer has never been evaluated theoretically. Here we show the achromaticity of the 3-D Sagnac interferometer based on the Jones matrix and laboratory experiments by using two laser lights ($\lambda=532$ nm and 633 nm)[2].

Figure 1 shows the schematic of the 3-D Sagnac interferometer. The anticlockwise and clockwise optical paths (1, PBS-BS-M1-M2-M3-M4-M5-M6-BS-PBS and 2, PBS-BS-M6-M5-M4-M3-M2-M1-BS-PBS) in the nulled output rotate the electric field vectors ± 90 deg, respectively.

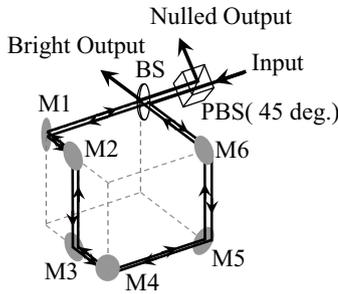


Figure 1: Schematic of the 3-D Sagnac interferometer consisting of a polarized beam splitter (PBS), a beam splitter (BS), and six plane mirrors (M1-M6).

The transformed Jones matrices of the two optical paths can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J}_1 &= C^3 D^3 X \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \sin \theta & \sin^2 \theta \\ \cos^2 \theta & \cos \theta \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathcal{J}_2 &= -C^3 D^3 Y \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \sin \theta & \sin^2 \theta \\ \cos^2 \theta & \cos \theta \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

here

$$\begin{cases} X = AB' \cos^2 \theta - BA' \sin^2 \theta \\ Y = AB' \sin^2 \theta - BA' \cos^2 \theta. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

A nulling condition $\mathcal{J}_1 = -\mathcal{J}_2$ can be obtained only when $X=Y$, which corresponds to the azimuth angle $\theta = \pi/4$. On this condition, the two output electric vectors through the 3-D Sagnac interferometer have the same amplitude and achromatic π -phase difference for arbitrary input electric vector. This optical system can make effective nulling observations for linearly polarized light, so that two Sagnac systems can take all of the unpolarized star light divided into two linear polarizations.

Four pictures shown in Fig. 3 are CCD images in constructive and destructive conditions exposed by the two-wavelengths laser light. The pictures are normalized by the peak value of the bright output, and the lower graph is their mean radial intensity profiles. The nulling contrasts of 4.16×10^6 (for 532 nm) and 1.17×10^5 (for 633 nm) at the central position were obtained simultaneously.

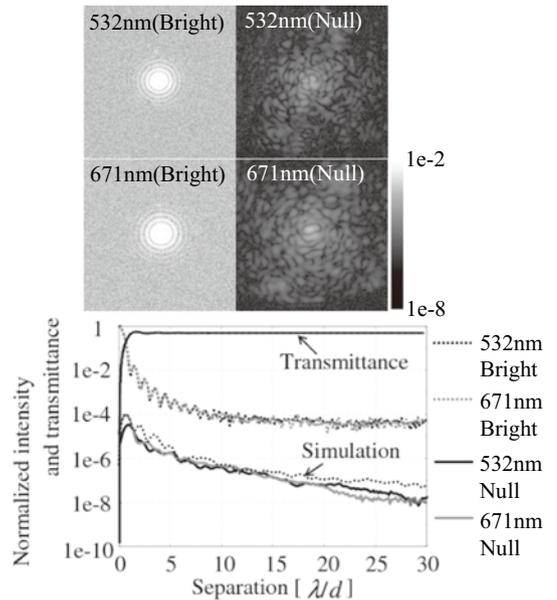


Figure 2: (Upper) Interferometric images and (lower) intensity profiles with the simulated one, assuming wavefront errors of about $\lambda/200$ rms. Theoretical transmittance of offaxis light is also plotted.

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Interstellar Extinction Law toward the Galactic Center: J , H , K_S bands, and 3.6 , 4.5 , 5.8 , $8.0 \mu\text{m}$

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The wavelength dependence of interstellar extinction is not only important information to understand the nature of interstellar dust grains, but an essential ingredient in recovering the intrinsic properties of reddened objects. The absolute value of interstellar extinction to an individual star is difficult to determine, and so is its wavelength dependence. Toward the Galactic center (GC), however, we can directly derive the wavelength dependence of interstellar extinction, assuming only that the center of stellar distribution in the lines of sight is at the same distance from us and that the foreground extinction is patchy. By plotting the apparent magnitude versus the color excess of a group of stars, one obtains a straight line with the slope equal to the total to selective extinction ratio, e.g., A_{K_S}/E_{H-K_S} .

We have determined the interstellar extinction law toward the GC at the wavelength from 1.2 to $8.0 \mu\text{m}$, using point sources detected in the IRSF/SIRIUS near-infrared survey and those in the *Spitzer*/IRAC/GLIMPSE II catalog [1]. We made K_S versus $K_S - \lambda$ color-magnitude diagrams where $\lambda = 3.6, 4.5, 5.8,$ and $8.0 \mu\text{m}$. The K_S magnitudes of bulge red clump stars and the $K_S - \lambda$ colors of red giant branches are used as a tracer of the reddening vector in the color-magnitude diagrams. From these magnitudes and colors, we have obtained the ratios of total to selective extinction $A_{K_S}/E_{K_S-\lambda}$ for the four IRAC bands. Combined with A_J/A_{K_S} for the J and H bands derived by Nishiyama et al. (2006 [2]), we obtain $A_J : A_H : A_{K_S} : A_{[3.6]} : A_{[4.5]} : A_{[5.8]} : A_{[8.0]} = 3.02 : 1.73 : 1 : 0.50 : 0.39 : 0.36 : 0.43$ for the line of sight toward the GC (Fig. 1). This confirms the flattening of the extinction curve at $\lambda > 3 \mu\text{m}$ from a simple extrapolation of the power-law extinction at shorter wavelengths.

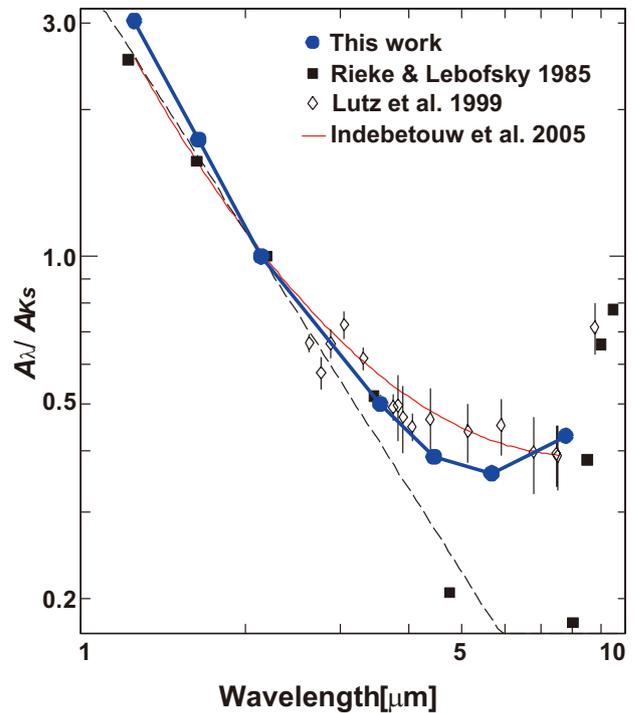


Figure 1: Wavelength dependence of interstellar extinction A_λ/A_{K_S} toward the Galactic center. The ratios derived by this study [1] (filled blue circles), Lutz (1999 [3], open diamonds), and Rieke & Lebofsky (1985 [4], filled squares) are represented. A simple power law, $A_\lambda \propto \lambda^{-1.75}$ is shown by the dashed line. Although it is not toward the Galactic center, the extinction curve for diffuse interstellar medium [5] is shown by thin red smooth line for reference.

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Near-infrared Polarized Flares from Sgr A*

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Although the theory of general relativity has passed experimental tests in a weak gravitational field, it has not been well tested in a strong gravitational field. Testing the theory in the strong field generated by collapsed objects such as a neutron star and a black hole has been proposed as a possible mean for such investigation.

Periodicity of ~ 20 min claimed in NIR monitoring observations of Sgr A*, a supermassive black hole (SMBH) at the center of our Galaxy, would place the corresponding emission region at roughly three Schwarzschild radii for a BH mass of $4 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$ [1]. If this picture is correct, the NIR flares from Sgr A* should be significantly influenced by general relativistic effects, and thus are powerful tools that allows us to probe within a few gravitational radii of the event horizon.

Sgr A* was observed continuously for ~ 4 hours on 28 May 2008, using the near-infrared camera CIAO and AO36 on the Subaru telescope [2]. We detected three flares (Fig. 1). The rise and decay timescales of ~ 6.5 min in the third flare are consistent with the light crossing timescale for the inner part of the accretion disk, less than 10 Schwarzschild radii, around $4 \times 10^6 M_{\odot}$ BH.

Clear variations in the degree and position angle of polarization were also detected. The first and second flares consist of a weakly or non-polarized main flare and a highly polarized sub-flare. The degree of polarization rises slowly up to $\sim 20\%$, and decays sharply. The rises occur after the bright flare phase, when flux of Sgr A* is decaying. We found swings of the position angle of $\sim 60^{\circ}$ – 70° in the declining phase of the flares.

The correlation between the flux and the degree of polarization suggests that the flare emission comes from hotspot(s) orbiting Sgr A*. In the hotspot model, observed flares correspond to synchrotron emission from a hot blob orbiting Sgr A* near its innermost stable circular orbit. Recent calculation [3] show that the primary feature of the light curves from the orbiting hotspot with a large orbital inclination angle i (close to the edge-on view) is a narrow and higher peak followed by a broad lower peak/bump. The first peak is formed by a gravitational lensing effect which is strongest when the hotspot is right behind the black hole. Doppler effect and beaming due to the relativistic motion of the hotspot in the approaching regime make the second peak/bump. The time evolutions of the degree of polarization show

a doublepeak profile with a higher second peak than the first one, or a slow-rise and sharp-decay profile (with a lower time resolution).

The similarities between the second flare we detected and the calculations [3] suggest that the second flare could be explained with a single orbital motion of a hotspot. In the light curve of the second flare, we can see the “first peak and second peak/bump” profile. It is clearly seen that the degree of polarization increases in the decay phase of the flare, and its profiles is asymmetric, showing slow rise and sharp decay. These comparison with the calculations gives a constraint to the inclination angle i of the orbit of the hotspot around Sgr A*, as $45^{\circ} \leq i < 90^{\circ}$ (close to edge-on).

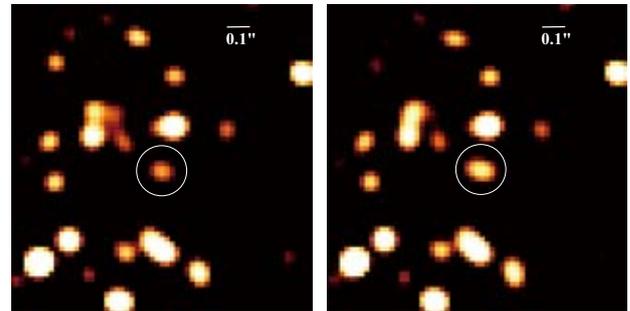


Figure 1: K_s -band images of the central $1.3'' \times 1.3''$ region of our Galaxy. The time from the beginning of the observation is 145.1 (left) and 158.4 min (right). In each image, the location of Sgr A* is marked by a circle.

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A Necessary Condition for Individual Time-steps in SPH Simulations

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Individual time-step method is widely used in simulation of galaxy formation. This method allows particles to have different time-steps, and integrates these particles with their own time-steps. Almost all implementation of individual time-steps used for particle systems violates Newton's third law. However, as long as physical quantities are integrated with sufficient accuracy, the violation is not so serious in simulations.

It is, however, not always possible to maintain the accuracy. Since time-steps are usually evaluated at the end of previous time-steps, particles can not follow an event during the time-step. Simulations involving supernova explosions are one of such examples. When supernova explosion occurs, a little amount of very hot gas generates in a compact region. The time-steps in the region rapidly shrink about 1/1000 of the previous steps. Therefore, hot gas particles step forward about 1000 steps or more time-steps before neighboring cold gas particle respond to the SN event, resulting in a large integration error. In principle, we can avoid the integration error, for instance, by adopting an implicit method [1], but there are no implementations of such methods for SPH simulations.

Here, we propose a simple limiter for hydrodynamical time-steps in individual time-step method which solves this problem [2]. We denote the time-step of an i -th particle as dt_i and that of a neighbor particle, with index j , as dt_j . The basic idea of our limiter is to enforce the following conditions:

$$dt_i \leq f dt_j \text{ and } dt_j \leq f dt_i, \quad (1)$$

where f is an adjustable parameter. We found $f=4$ to give good results. By introducing this limiter, particles can follow events which occur during the time-steps.

In order to verify the effect of the limiter, we performed a Sedov problem [3]. We set that there is six orders of magnitude in temperature between the hot gas and cold, ambient gas. We performed three runs: (a) integrated with global time-steps, (b) traditional individual timesteps, and (c) individual time-steps with the limiter.

Figure 1 shows the results of the test. Run (a) shows a clear spherical structure and its density profile traces the analytic solution very well. Run (b), however, displays penetrations of the hot gas particles into the ambient medium and fails to reproduce the analytic solution. This is because the time-steps of the ambient gas particles are quite long compared with those of the initially heated particles. Thus the ambient gas particles can not follow

the explosion. Run (c) does not show this problem, and the result of Run (c) is very close to that of Run (a). This is because the short time-steps propagate to surrounding particles quickly enough. As a result, cold gas particles can respond to the pressure of the hot gas particles. Hence we conclude that this limiter (or a similar criterion for time-steps) is necessary for the simulations of SPH with individual time-steps involving strong shocks.

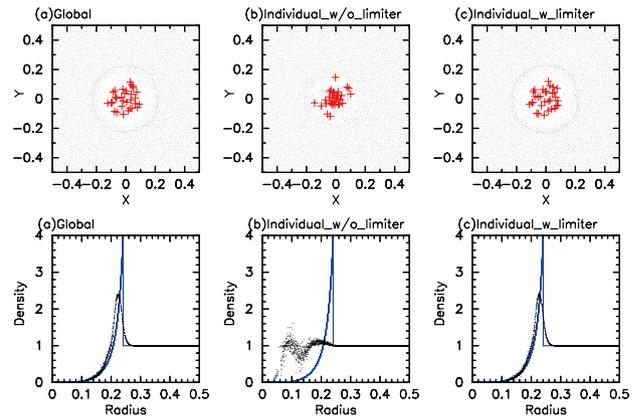


Figure 1: The projected particle distributions in $|z| < 0.01$ (upper row) and the density profiles (bottom row) at $T = 0.02$. Left, middle and right columns show the evolution of particles integrated with (a) global time-steps, (b) traditional individual time-steps, (c) individual time-steps with the limiter. Crosses indicate positions of the initially heated particles. Solid lines are the analytic solution of Sedov problem.

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Chemical composition of extremely metal-poor stars in a dwarf galaxy

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Dwarf galaxies in the local group have been investigated from a variety of view points including their roles in the Milky Way formation. Some of them, like the Sagittarius dwarf galaxy, are currently interacting with the Milky Way, indicating that the merging of such galaxies should have played important roles in the Galaxy formation. However, significant differences in the chemical nature are known between Milky Way halo and dwarf galaxies observed at present.

A remarkable difference is found in chemical abundances of individual stars measured for nearby dwarf galaxies based on high resolution spectroscopy. Chemical abundance studies for several dwarf galaxies in the past decade revealed that the abundance ratios between α elements (e.g., Mg, Ca) and Fe are lower, in general, in dwarf galaxy stars than in field stars. This trend is clear particularly in relatively luminous, metal-rich dwarf galaxies. Moreover, the metallicity distribution function of dwarf galaxies, which was estimated from medium resolution spectroscopy, suggests a deficiency of extremely metal-poor stars in dwarf galaxies [1].

We have started chemical abundance measurements of extremely metal-poor stars in dwarf galaxies, which have not been well covered by previous work. Medium resolution spectroscopy suggested that the Sextans dwarf galaxy includes relatively large number of candidates of extremely metal-poor stars. We applied high resolution spectroscopy with the Subaru Telescope High Dispersion Spectrograph (HDS) to six objects in Sextans [2].

We first confirmed the existence of extremely metal-poor stars in this galaxy. Since the calibration for the metallicity estimate from medium resolution spectroscopy (using Ca triplet at ~ 8500 Å) is still insufficient at very low metallicity ($[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] < -2.5$), high resolution spectroscopy for Fe absorption lines is required. Our measurements result in even lower metallicity than the estimates from medium-resolution spectroscopy.

The α elements in such extremely metal-poor stars are expected to be over-abundant as found in the bulk of field halo stars. However, surprisingly, most of the Sextans objects show low α/Fe ratios. Figure 1 depicts the Mg/Fe ratio as an example. The Mg/Fe ratios of most objects are as low as the solar ratio, while only a few shows overabundance of Mg as in the field stars. A similar result is also obtained for Ca abundance ratios. Over-abundances of α elements are expected from the nucleosynthesis of usual core-collapse (type II) supernovae. The Sextans dwarf galaxy includes objects that cannot be explained by the yields of usual type II supernovae alone.

One possible explanation is to include the contributions of type Ia supernovae, as the origins of iron in the Solar-System. However, because of the longer time-scale of type Ia supernovae, large contributions of them are not expected at such low metallicity. Another possibility is to assume that less massive stars, from which only small amount of α elements provided through supernovae, are dominant among the progenitors of type II supernovae in this galaxy.

Rapid progresses are recently found in chemical abundance studies for dwarf galaxies that have similar luminosity and metallicity to Sextans. These studies show significant differences in the chemical abundance ratios between galaxies, indicating that we need to investigate the formation and evolution of individual galaxies. Studies of ultra-faint dwarf galaxies recently discovered might be particularly important as more primitive objects.

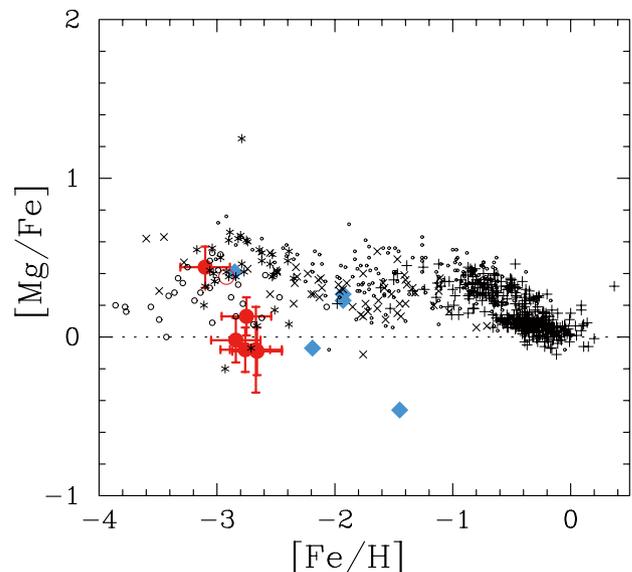


Figure 1: $[\text{Mg}/\text{Fe}]$ as a function of metallicity for Sextans stars (filled circles: our study; diamonds: previous studies) and field stars (smaller symbols from literature). This galaxy includes extremely metal-poor stars that have quite low α elements.

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Performance Evaluation of Nano-JASMINE

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Nano-JASMINE is mounted a 5 cm effective diameter telescope and aims to measure positions and motions of stars with the accuracy of a few milli-arcseconds in z -band ($\lambda \sim 0.8 \mu\text{m}$). The satellite weighs about 35 kg and it is developed by National Astronomical Observatory of Japan, Kyoto University and University of Tokyo. Nano-JASMINE will be launched at August 2011 from Alcantara Launch Center at Brazil by Cyclon-4 rocket. JASMINE Project Office contributes to develop a small reflecting telescope and a driver circuit for a CCD detector. In 2009, we developed and evaluated these instruments [1]. This paper reports the results of the performance evaluation.

First, the small reflecting telescope was made of aluminum alloy because of the suppression of effects of the strain induced by thermal changes. The reflecting surfaces were polished with a single-crystal diamond cutting tools and deposited with Cr and Au vapor. Developed telescope weighs 1.7 kg and occupies a volume of only 17x12x12 cm. The telescope will be operated below 220 K on orbit. The thermal vacuum test was conducted to evaluate the performance at orbital condition. The telescope was cooled down by LN2 and the wavefront errors of developed telescope were measured by an interferometer. As a result, the RSS wavefront error is $\lambda/14$ ($\lambda = 800 \text{ nm}$). Therefore, it is confirmed that developed telescope can achieve a diffraction-limited performance. Moreover, numerical analysis was conducted to calculate the relationship between the thermal change and the deformation of telescope. Fig. 1 shows the result of the numerical analysis.

Second, the radiation test of a CCD detector was conducted to evaluate the performance degradation. Gamma ray and proton were irradiated. As a result, it was confirmed that although noise will be increased and Charge Transfer Efficiency (CTE) will be degraded, these effects can be corrected in analysis.

Finally, the engineering model of Nano-JASMINE was assembled. Fig. 2 shows the outlook of the satellite. Using this engineering model, comprehensive tests were conducted to analyse the total noise of observations. Moreover, the Critical Design Review (CDR) was convened to judge the satellite design. As a result, we obtained the consensus for the flight model of Nano-JASMINE. In 2010, the flight model of Nano-JASMINE is to be developed

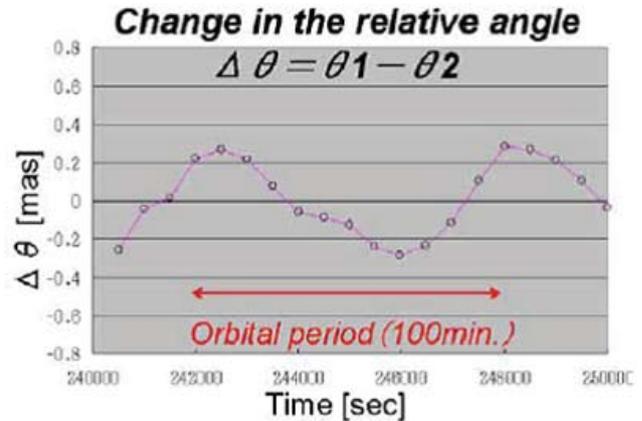


Figure 1: Numerical Result of thermal analysis. The change in the relative angle is required to be below 1mas(p-v). It is confirmed that the result satisfies the requirement.

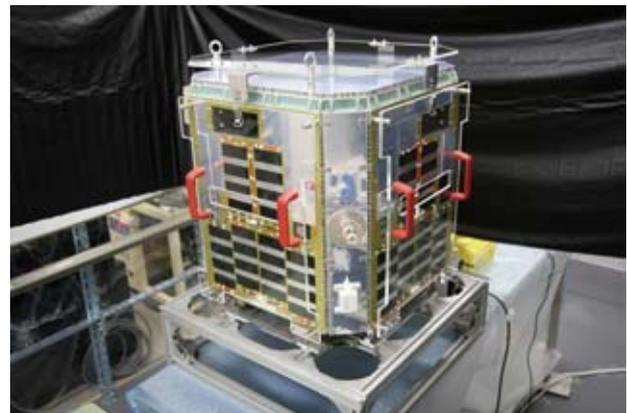


Figure 2: Engineering Model of Nano-JASMINE. Telescope and CCD are equipped inside the satellite. A series of performance evaluation are conducted.

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The Relation between the Magnetic Fields and the Coronal Activities in the Polar Coronal Hole

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We obtain the spatial relation between the polar magnetic fields and the polar coronal activities/structures with careful co-alignment among the Stokes maps of the lower atmosphere, the X-ray images and the EUV images. These images are taken with *Hinode* and SOHO. We found that the coronal structures and activities appear when the relatively large magnetic concentrations with minority polarity appear near the kG-patches, and we also verified that the increases of the minority signals that associated with the polar X-ray jets in the Na I Stokes-V indicate the emerging flux regions. Since the relation between the coronal structures and the magnetic concentrations with minority polarity can be easily found from other dataset of the polar region, the relation is very rigid. The result suggests that the coronal structures and activities in the polar coronal hole are produced by the interactions of the kG-patches with the emerging minority polarities near the kG-patches [1].

We show that the emerging flux appears even in the polar region. It may not be conceivable that the magnetic flux located in the middle latitude of the convection zone emerges at the polar region. The emerging flux in the polar region may be generated by the local dynamo process due to the granular/super-granular motion.

We discuss the relation between the kG-patches, the X-ray jets and the fast solar wind. The kG-patches provide all the open magnetic fields that serves as the channels of the fast solar wind [2]. If the X-ray jets provide the energy for the acceleration of the fast solar wind, the X-ray jets have to occur at around almost all the kG-patches. However, most of the kG-patches are not associated with the X-ray jets. Thus, it is unlikely that the polar X-ray jets provide sufficient energy for the acceleration of the fast solar wind. The energy may be provided

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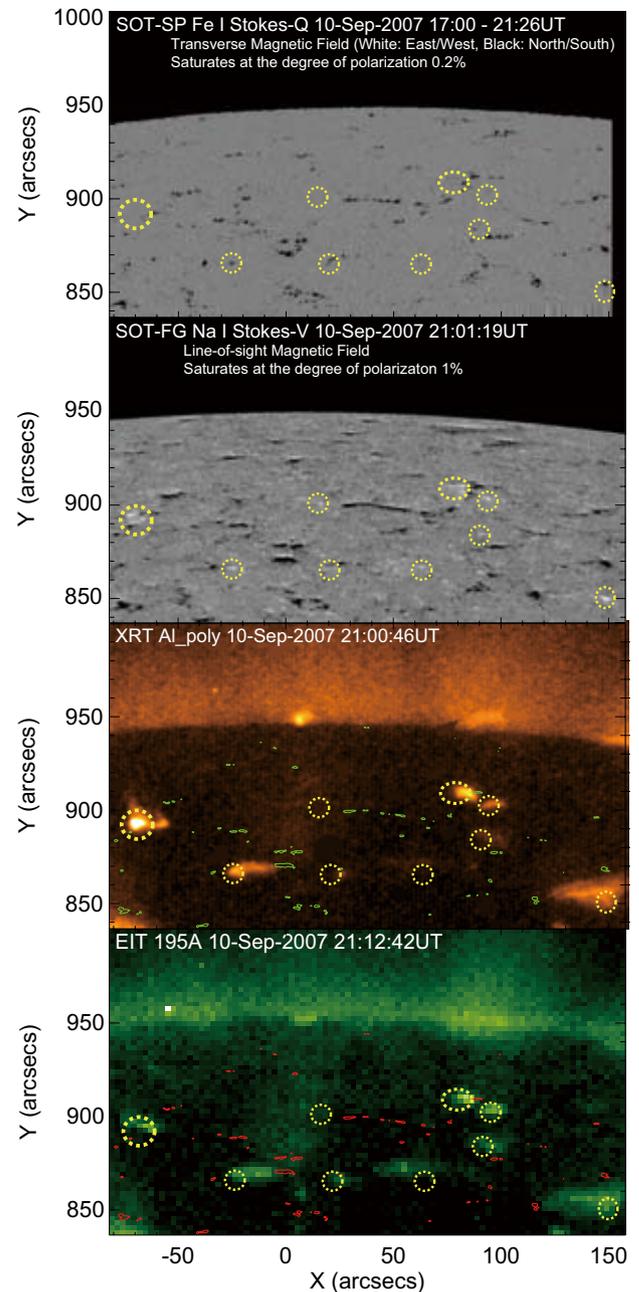


Figure 1: The north pole images around 21:00 UT on September 10, 2007. The yellow dash circles indicate the relatively large minority poles identified in the Na I Stokes-V map. The green and the red lines in the lower panels are the contours of the degree of the polarization (1 %) of the Fe I Stokes-Q map.

Sensitivity improvement of CLIO with cooling the mirrors

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CLIO (Cryogenic Laser Interferometer Observatory) is the first cryogenic interferometric gravitational wave detector in the world. It has 100 meters baseline length and is located in an underground mine at Kamioka. It is a prototype interferometer for the future LCGT project as well as TAMA300 detector in Mitaka campus. It has the purpose to demonstrate advantages of the cryogenic interferometer and the Kamioka mine as a quiet site.

The detector construction started in 2002. The vacuum and the cryogenic systems were prepared by 2005. After the installation of the interferometer optics and the suspension systems, the interferometer operation with cooling mirrors were demonstrated in 2006. Due to the noise investigations and reductions in room temperature [1], we concluded that the noise level is enough close to the fundamental limit at room temperature and the cooling of the mirrors is necessary for further noise investigations. It was one of the most important milestones in gravitational wave detector developments.

At the beginning of 2009, we made a decision that sensitivity improvement of CLIO by cooling the mirrors is the highest priority issue. In this cooling experiment only two mirrors were cooled among four mirrors of which consist of the main interferometer, because we should get rid of various problems associated with the cooling. In fact, hundreds of hours are spent to address technical issues such as variation of eddy current damping, variation of coil impedance and reduction of scattered lights at the radiation shield.

In March of 2010, we succeeded to exceed the fundamental limit at room temperature by cooling the mirrors in a frequency region between 120 and 200 Hz. Figure 1 shows a displacement noise spectrum of CLIO (red) together with the limited sensitivity at room temperature (black). Both purple and aqua dashed lines are mirror thermal noise spectrum without and with two mirrors cooling, respectively. The current noise spectrum is limited by (1) shot noise and RF intensity noise above 500 Hz, (2) seismic originated noises below 40 Hz and (3) thermal noise of the suspension and various under investigating noises such as coil actuator noise. To

improve the sensitivity further, we continue to upgrade the detector.

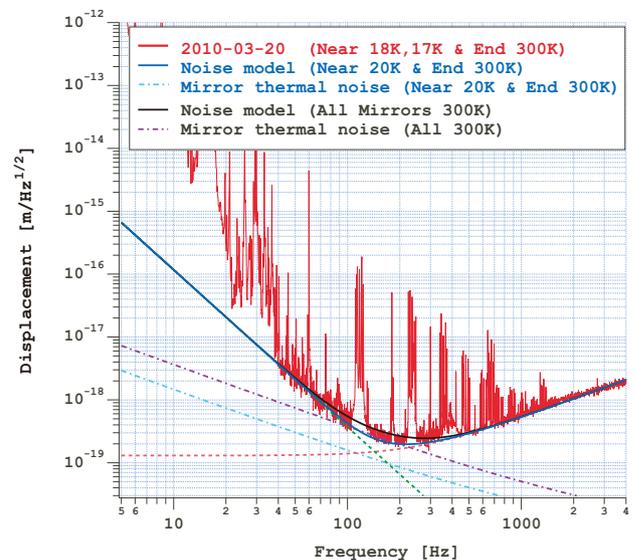


Figure 1: Displacement sensitivity of CLIO (red) and limiting sensitivity at room temperature (black). The current noise spectrum is limited by (1) shot noise and RF intensity noise above 500 Hz, (2) seismic originated noises below 40 Hz and (3) thermal noise of the suspension and various under investigating noises such as coil actuator noise.

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Prominence formation associated with an emerging helical flux rope

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Prominences are relatively cool objects embedded in the hotter corona. Although it is known that prominences are supported by coronal magnetic fields against gravity, the structure and formation process of magnetic fields in and around a prominence remains unclear.

A recent study of a series of vector magnetograms obtained by the Spectro-Polarimeter (SP) of the Hinode Solar Optical Telescope (SOT) was interpreted as the emergence of a helical flux rope under a prominence in an active region [1]. This is the first observational study to detail the evolution of the photospheric magnetic field suggesting the emergence of a helical flux rope that may be associated with the formation and maintenance process of an active region prominence. Here, we report the more detailed features of the emerging helical flux rope and the relationship between the flux rope and the prominence. The results are listed below [2].

(1) We can see a similar phenomenon in Ca H-line filtergrams, which is indicated as the emergence of the helical flux rope. However, using only the filtergraph observations, we cannot determine the existence of a flux emergence with confidence. Observations comprising only line-of-sight magnetograms suffer from the same limitation. Observations of vector magnetic fields are necessary to detect a possible flux rope emergence.

(2) We take a closer look at the interaction between the emerging flux rope and granular convection. The horizontal magnetic fields are roughly independent of the granular patterns, but we can find some local modulations caused by granules (see figure). This result is useful for solving 180-degree ambiguity of azimuth of magnetic fields.

(3) We examine the relationship of magnetic fields to photospheric motions. No shear motion or converging flows are detected, but we find diverging flows such as mesogranules along the polarity inversion line under the prominence. The presence of mesogranules may be related to the emergence of the helical flux rope.

(4) The emerging helical flux rope reconnects with magnetic fields of the pre-existing prominence to stabilize the prominence for the next several days. We thus conjecture that prominence coronal magnetic fields

emerge in the form of helical flux ropes that contribute to the formation and maintenance of the prominence.

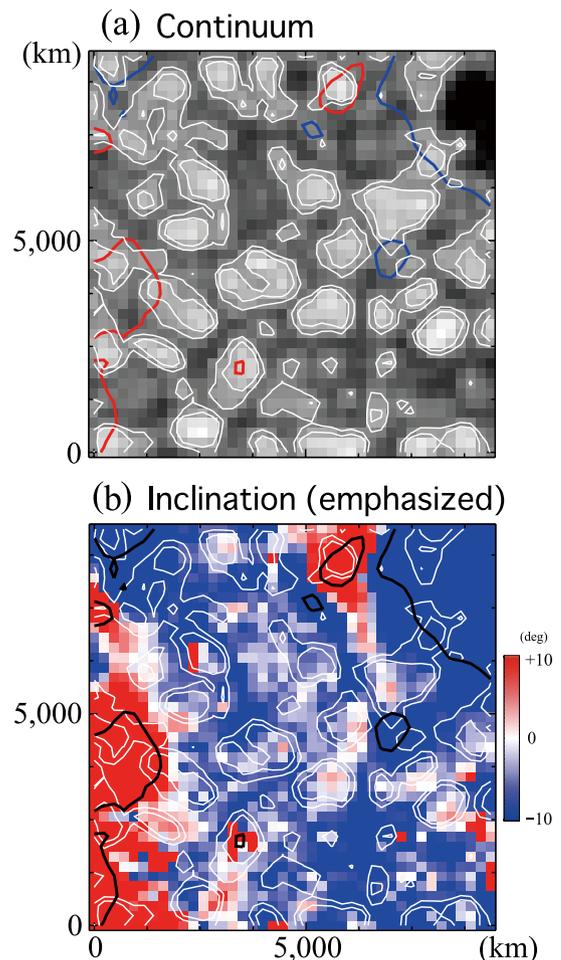


Figure 1: Close-up maps of the helical emerging flux region. (a) Continuum intensity map. White lines indicate bright contours of granules. (b) Inclination map of magnetic fields. Red indicates positive polarity (toward us) and blue indicates negative polarity (away from us) in the local frame. The color table saturates at $\pm 10^\circ$ with respect to the solar surface.

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Substellar Objects in Nearby Young Clusters (SONYC): The Bottom of the Initial Mass Function in NGC 1333

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The origin of the stellar initial mass function (IMF) is one of the major issues in astrophysics. The lowest-mass end of the IMF, in particular, has been the subject of numerous studies in star forming regions over the past decade [1, 2].

SONYC - Substellar Objects in Nearby Young Clusters - is a survey program to investigate the frequency and properties of substellar objects with masses down to a few times that of Jupiter in nearby star-forming regions.

We present the first results from SONYC observations of NGC 1333, a ~ 1 Myr old cluster in the Perseus star-forming complex [3]. We have carried out extremely deep optical and near-infrared imaging in four bands (i, z, J, K) using Subaru Prime Focus Camera and Multi-Object InfraRed Camera and Spectrograph (MOIRCS) instruments at the Subaru telescope. The survey covers 0.25 square degrees and reaches completeness limits of 24.7 mag in the i band and 20.8 mag in the J band. We select 196 candidates with colors as expected for young, very low-mass objects. Follow-up multi-object spectroscopy with MOIRCS is presented for 53 objects. We confirm 19 objects as likely brown dwarfs (BDs) in NGC 1333, seven of them previously known. Nine additional objects are classified as possible stellar cluster members, likely with early to mid-M spectral types.

The confirmed objects are strongly clustered around the peak in the gas distribution and the core of the cluster of known stellar members. For 11 of them, we confirm the presence of disks based on Spitzer/Infrared Array Camera photometry.

The effective temperatures for the BD sample range from 2500 K to 3000 K, which translates to masses of ~ 0.015 – $0.1 M_{\odot}$, based on model evolutionary tracks. For comparison, the completeness limit of our survey translates to mass limits of $0.004 M_{\odot}$ for $A_v \leq 5$ mag or $0.008 M_{\odot}$ or $A_v \leq 10$ mag.

Compared with other star-forming regions, NGC 1333 shows an overabundance of BDs relative to low-mass stars, by a factor of 2-5. On the other hand, NGC 1333 has a deficit of planetary-mass objects: based on the surveys in σ Orionis, the Orion Nebula Cluster and Chamaeleon I, the expected number of planetary-mass objects in NGC 1333 is 8-10, but we find none (see Fig. 1). It is plausible that our survey has detected the

minimum mass limit for star formation in this particular cluster, at around 0.012 – $0.02 M_{\odot}$. If confirmed, our findings point to significant regional/environmental differences in the number of BDs and the minimum mass of the initial mass function.

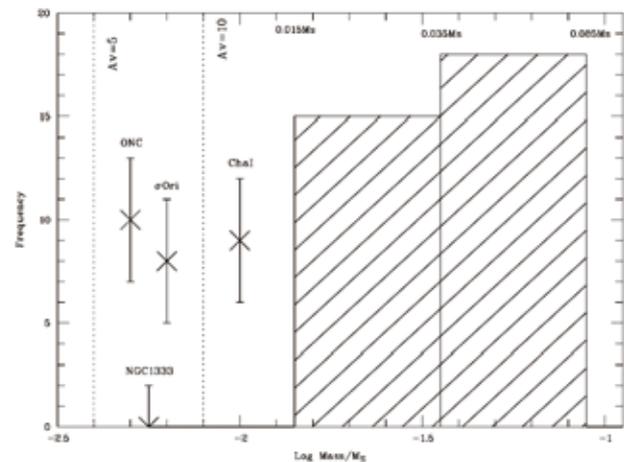


Figure 1: Mass distribution of BDs in NGC 1333 (hatched histogram) and the deficit of planetary-mass objects. The three labeled data points show the predicted number of planetesimals in NGC 1333 based on the surveys in σ Ori, the ONC, and in Chal. The non-detection of planetary-mass objects points to a deficit of objects in this mass regime compared with other clusters. The dotted lines refer to our detection limit for $A_v = 5$ and 10 mag.

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Constructing a Theoretical Model for High- z Lyman α Emitters

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We have constructed a new theoretical model for high- z Ly α emitters (LAEs) in the framework of hierarchical galaxy formation, which is based on one of the latest semi-analytic model for galaxy formation. It is unique one in the theoretical model for LAEs because the two following physical effects are incorporated in calculating the escape probability of Ly α photons from their host galaxy: extinction by interstellar dust, which is not necessarily the same for that of continuum, and galaxy-scale outflows induced as supernova feedback. Our previous study has confirmed the model reproduces the observational Ly α luminosity functions (LFs) of the LAEs at $z \sim 3$ –6 [1].

We performed a further comparison of the model with the other available observations for the LAEs, i.e., the rest-frame ultraviolet (UV) continuum LFs, the distribution of Ly α equivalent width (EW), and the distribution in UV continuum luminosity vs. EW plane. The model parameters were kept unchanged from our previous study; there is no more free parameters adjustable to fit the observations. We paid careful attention to the selection conditions of the model LAEs (i.e., the threshold Ly α line luminosity and EW: $L_{\text{Ly}\alpha}^{\text{th}}$ and $\text{EW}_{\text{Ly}\alpha}^{\text{th}}$) and applied the same conditions with those adopted in each observation.

As shown in Figs. 1 and 2, our model nicely reproduced all of the available observations of the LAEs at $z \sim 3$ –6.

It should be emphasized that the number fractions of the LAEs with $\text{EW} > 240 \text{ \AA}$ were naturally reproduced, without introducing PopIII stars nor top-heavy IMF. We showed that both the stellar population (young age and low metallicity) and the selective extinction to continuum by clumpy dust geometry are the keys to reproducing large EW LAEs. Our model predicts a positive correlation between EW and extinction. The observed trend that brighter LAEs in UV continuum tend to have smaller mean EW is also reproduced, and the clumpy dust plays an important role again for this trend [2].

Our model would be helpful in planning an LAE survey at even higher redshifts and interpreting such data sets in future studies. The numerical data on these quantities of LAEs are available on request to the authors

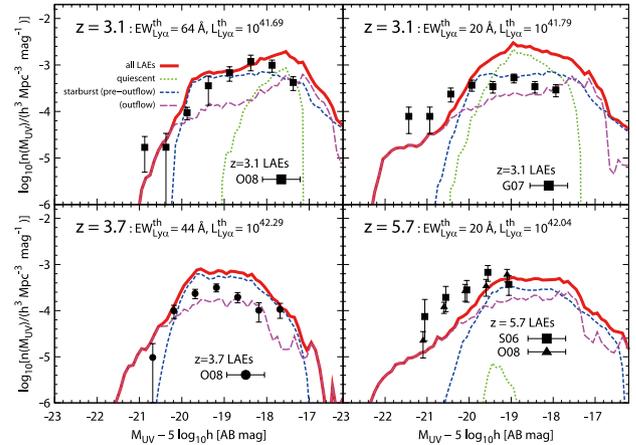


Figure 1: Rest-frame UV continuum LFs for LAEs at $z = 3$ –6. The curves are the model predictions, while the solid symbols with error bars are the observed data of the LAEs at various redshifts. The numerical quantities of $L_{\text{Ly}\alpha}^{\text{th}}$ (in the unit of ergs/s/h^{-2}) and $\text{EW}_{\text{Ly}\alpha}^{\text{th}}$ are shown in each panel.

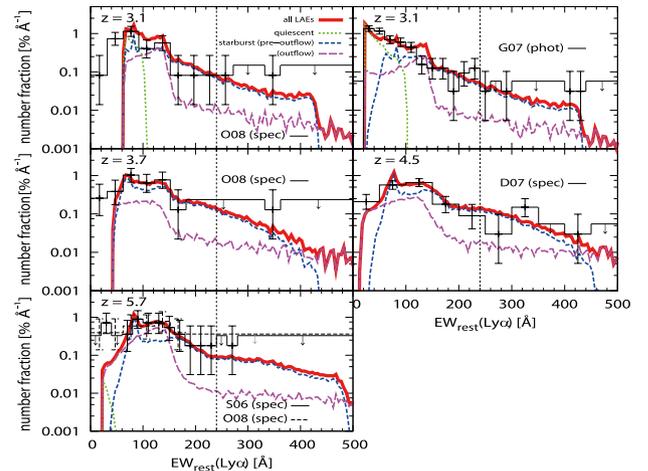


Figure 2: Rest-frame EW distribution for LAEs at $z = 3$ –6. The curves are the model predictions, while the histograms with error bars are the observations. Arrows represent the 1σ upper limits of the Poissonian statistics for small sample number.

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A Cluster of Starburst Galaxies 11.5 Billion Light-years Away

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In 2009, the Atacama Submillimeter Telescope Experiment (ASTE) reported a discovery of a dozen of submillimeter-selected galaxies (SMGs) that clusters towards a protocluster at redshift $z = 3.1$ (11.5 billion light-years away) [1]. In this report, we are highlighting one of the most significant results from our large campaign of SMG survey.

The concordance standard theory of galaxy formation is successfully accounted for introducing the idea in which large galaxies are constructed through merger and accretion of small building blocks of galaxies. The problem is that this idea requires a special condition or environments in which formation of massive galaxies preferentially occurs.

One of the key clue breaking the problem is to take a large submillimeter-wavelength image which covers the sky several 10 Mpc across. One of the reasons is that submm-selected galaxies are now believed to be huge starburst galaxies at high- z and progenitors of presentday massive ellipticals. The other is that large-scale distribution of galaxies (baryons) has a typical spacial scale of ~ 10 Mpc.

The advantage of AzTEC/ASTE is a survey speed which is 20 times higher than the SCUBA camera, allowing us to investigate the environment in which SMGs are formed. Figure 1 shows the 1.1-mm image taken with ASTE. The target is the SSA22 field, a part of the sky having a proto-cluster of galaxies — Subaru has discovered a hundred of $\text{Ly}\alpha$ -emitting galaxies at $z = 3.1$ in this field, which are thought to be young small galaxies.

Our ASTE observations reveal (1) a spacial correlation between the positions of SMGs and $\text{Ly}\alpha$ galaxies (Fig. 2), and (2) that averaged mass of $\text{Ly}\alpha$ emitters is much smaller ($< 1\%$) than that of a typical SMG, suggesting that the two populations of galaxies reside in the same volume of the protocluster although they exhibit different properties in their dust content.

These results provide evidence for the preferential formation of SMGs in a high-density environment [1]. The current standard model of galaxy-formation predicts previrialized dark matter halos with $10^{14}M_{\odot}$ — protoclusters — in the early Universe at $z \geq 2$. In such environments, a lot of small galaxies can merge to form massive galaxies with intense starburst activities. This picture predicts that clustering strength (a degree of nonuniformity of spacial distribution) of the SMG population is higher than coeval normal galaxies, and

that SMGs are selectively (preferentially) located in the cosmic largescale structure at high- z . This selective distribution (i.e., clustering) of SMGs are actually observed as the positive signals in the spacial cross-correlation between SMGs and $\text{Ly}\alpha$ emitters (Fig. 2)

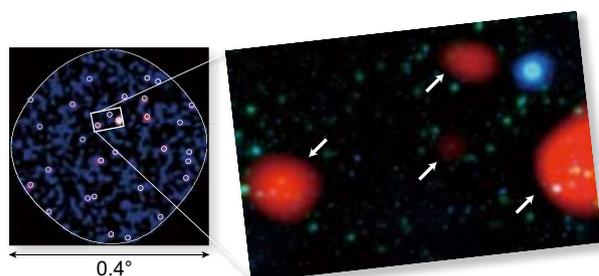


Figure 1: (left) The AzTEC/ASTE 1.1-mm image towards the SSA22 protocluster. The field of view is 0.4 degree across, roughly corresponding to the diameter of the full Moon. The open circles indicate the positions of 30 submillimeter galaxies detected with AzTEC/ASTE. (right) A false color closeup image near the core of the SSA22 protocluster (red: the AzTEC/ASTE 1.1 mm image, green: *Spitzer*/IRAC 3.6- μm image, blue: *Hubble*/ACS *i*-band image).

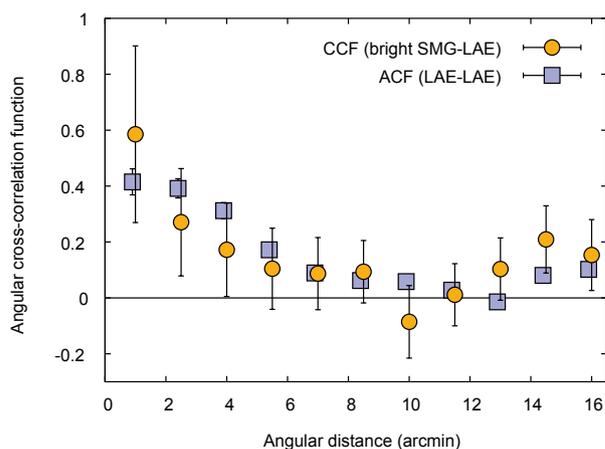


Figure 2: Two point angular cross-correlation function between the positions of AzTEC sources and $\text{Ly}\alpha$ emitters (circles) and auto-correlation function of $\text{Ly}\alpha$ emitters (squares).

Reference

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Fiber-link between Okayama 1.88-m reflector and HIDES

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In December 2009, we successfully had the scientific first-light of our new fiber-link system between OAO 1.88-m reflector and the High Dispersion Echelle Spectrograph (HIDES). Here we report purposes of the project, designs of the fiber-link, and some preliminary results of our commissioning-phase observations.

The HIDES has been the most frequently used openuse instrument at Okayama since its installation in 1999. But recently it became less attractive because of its rather low throughput (typically, 2% or less) and not-sohigh radial velocity (rv) measurement precision (several ms^{-1}). There is in fact growing need for developing new fiber-fed and more stable spectrographs in near future. Naturally, we started the fiber-link project in 2007 as the first step toward such goals.

The optical design of the fiber-link is as follows; stellar light within $2''.7$ FOV is collected into the optical fiber at the Cassegrain focus of the telescope (typical seeing size at OAO is $1''.4$); the light is guided to its coude focus through a 11-m length fiber; and then, the output image, sliced into three by an image slicer, is injected into the HIDES (Figure 1). With this design, we expect to improve its throughput by about one magnitude, while maintaining good wavelength resolution ($R=52,000$). We also pursuit for rv measurement precision with the iodine cell technique. Once completed, the fiber-link will improve the efficiency of various observations, including the on-going planet search projects in which we will be able to monitor several times as many targets as before.

In October 2009, we installed the complete system to the telescope, and checked its basic performance such as the echelle format of sliced image and the wavelength resolution (Figure 2). Then, in December 2009, we had its scientific first-light and confirmed that its throughput was better than that of previous observations.

In Figure 3 we compare the photon count statistics between two observations (blue dash line: slit mode, red solid line: fiber mode), in both of which we monitored the same star over a week. It is clearly seen that the typical throughput is already doubled. We also confirmed that the short-term rv measurement precision is much better than 2 ms^{-1} in this fiber-mode observation.

We currently make further adjustments/improvements of the system toward its open-use in early 2011.

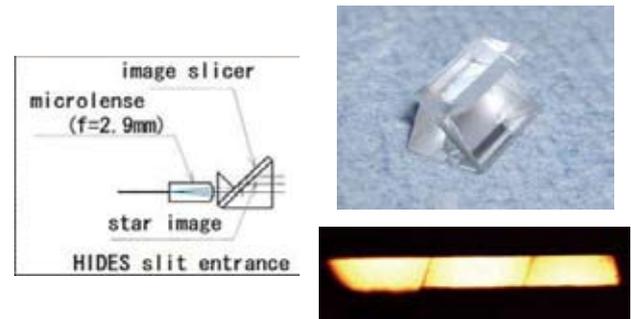


Figure 1: Optical drawings at the output of the fiber (left), image slicer (top-right), and the sliced stellar image (bottom-right).

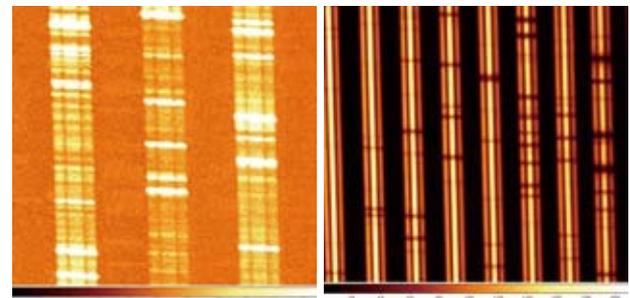


Figure 2: Spectra of Th-Ar (left) and of Procyon (right).

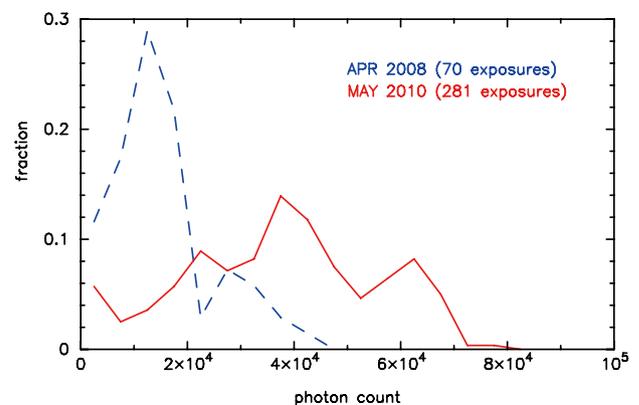


Figure 3: Comparison of the photon count statistics between slit mode and fiber mode observations. See text in detail. (courtesy to Prof. Hiroyasu Ando).

Observations of transient objects using OAO/ISLE

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Here we report on observations of transient objects using OAO/ISLE [1] in 2009.

First, we succeeded in obtaining multiband light curves of a type Ia supernova SN 2009dc. The supernova was discovered on 2009 April 9 near the outer edge of UGC 10064. On 2009 April 26, the maximum magnitude reached $B = 15.2$. Extensive observations were performed by Hiroshima Univ., Tokyo Univ., OAO/NAOJ, and many other institutes in Japan. As a result, the absolute V magnitude was estimated to be $M_V = -20.19 \pm 0.19$ based on the known distance to the host galaxy. Assuming that the host extinction of $A_V = 0.29$, we estimated the ejected ^{56}Ni mass of $1.6 \pm 0.4 M_\odot$ [2]. These results raise a new question about the maximum mass of white dwarf. Near-infrared observations using ISLE revealed that $M_J = -19.20 \pm 0.16$ mag, $M_H = -19.00 \pm 0.17$ mag, and $M_{K_s} = -19.19 \pm 0.17$ mag. This suggests that SN 2009dc was exceptionally luminous even in near infrared range.

ISLE also detected an afterglow of GRB 090423, which holds the highest record of redshift among GRBs ($z = 8.2$). Detailed discussion is given by YOSHIDA, M.

Dwarf novae are one of the main targets for ISLE. We performed quiescent photometry of SDSS J080434.20+510349.2 and derived $J = 17.29(0.05)$, $H = 16.97(0.05)$, and $K_s = 16.41(0.06)$. This suggests that J0804 has a brown dwarf-like secondary [3]. Quiescent photometry under high S/N was also performed for SU UMa-type dwarf novae, 1RXS J053234+624755 and NSV 4838 [4, 5]. In future, high precision photometry in near infrared range will shed light on understanding the period minimum problem in dwarf novae.

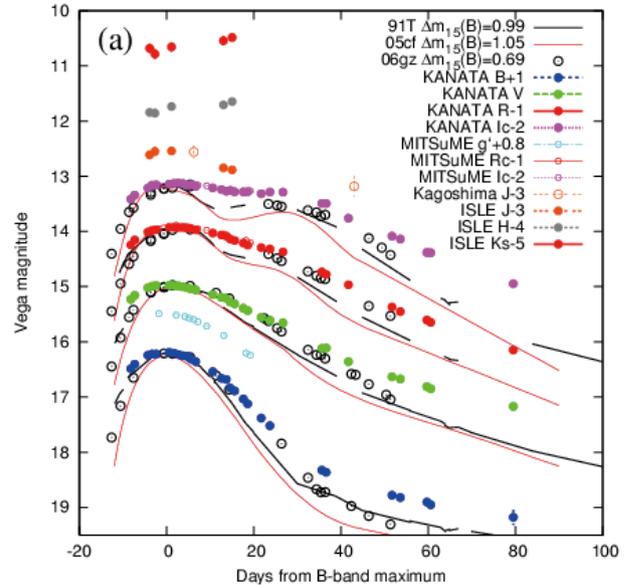


Figure 1: Light curves of SN 2009dc. compared with a super-Chandrasekhar SNe Ia 2006gz and 2003fg, an overluminous SN Ia 1991T, and a normal SN 2005ef. The magnitudes were arbitrarily shifted for display purpose.

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- [4] Imada, A., et al.: 2009, *PASJ*, **61**, 535.
- [5] Imada, A., et al.: 2009, *PASJ*, **61L**, 47.

*1 There are big differences between theory and observation with respect to the orbital period minimum (P_{\min}) of dwarf novae. Theory suggests $P_{\min} = 65$ min, while observation shows $P_{\min} = 75$ min. Further, theory suggests that more than 70% of dwarf novae should exist around P_{\min} . However, observation shows that about 80% of dwarf novae are *off* the period minimum.

Effect of Long-lived Strongly Interacting Particles on Big Bang Nucleosynthesis

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Some particle models beyond the standard one include long-lived heavy colored particles [1] which are scientific targets of the Large Hadron Collider experiment. If such particle exists in the early universe, it would be confined in exotic hadrons, i.e., X , at $T < 180$ MeV. If the strongly interacting X particle exists in the epoch of Big Bang nucleosynthesis (BBN), it binds to nuclei and makes exotic nuclei. We then study a new BBN scenario including long-lived strongly interacting particles X .

The mass of X is assumed to be much larger than that of nucleon, i.e., $O(1 \text{ GeV})$. The strength of interaction between an X and nuclei is supposed to be similar to that between a nucleon and the nuclei. We estimate binding energies between an X and nuclides and thermonuclear reaction rates and β -decay rates of X -bound nuclei (i.e., A_X or X -nuclei) using available cross sections for normal nuclei. We integrated rate equations including terms for radiative captures of X by normal nuclides and nuclear reactions of X -nuclei. Parameters are the life time τ_X and the abundance ratio of X to baryon $Y_X \equiv n_X/n_b$.

Figure 1 shows a result of BBN calculation in which the abundance and the life time of X are $Y_X = 10^{-8}$ and $\tau_X = \infty$. When the temperature decreases to $T_9 \equiv T/(10^9 \text{ K}) \sim 5$, X particles capture nucleons. At $T_9 \sim 1$, the d abundance increases, and consecutive nonradiative d -captures lead to the production of heavy X -nuclei.

Strongly interacting particles have a greater impact on BBN [2] than leptonic particles [3] for the following reasons. 1) Both of binding energies between an X and nuclides, and cross sections of nucleon captures by X are large, so that an early and rapid formation of bound states is possible. 2) ${}^5\text{He}$ and ${}^5\text{Li}$ which are unstable to particle emissions can be stabilized when bound to X s, so that heavy X -nuclides can form through the states.

Figure 2 shows the contours of calculated abundances in the (τ_X, Y_X) plane. In this scenario ${}^9\text{Be}$ and B can be produced in amounts more than in standard BBN. Future observations of Be [4] and B abundances in metalpoor stars may show primordial plateaus. In addition, the predicted isotopic ratio ${}^{10}\text{B}/{}^{11}\text{B}$ is very high. A solution to the ${}^{6,7}\text{Li}$ problems [5, 6] was not found. A constraint on the life time, i.e., $\tau_X < 200$ s is derived using an estimation of relic abundance of X : $Y_X \sim 10^{-8}$ [1].

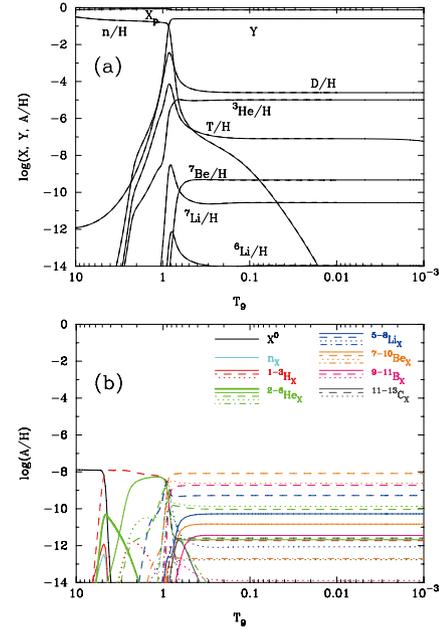


Figure 1: Abundances of normal (a) and X -nuclides (b) as a function of temperature T_9 . The parameters are set to be $Y_X = 10^{-8}$ and $\tau_X = \infty$. This figure is reprinted from [2].

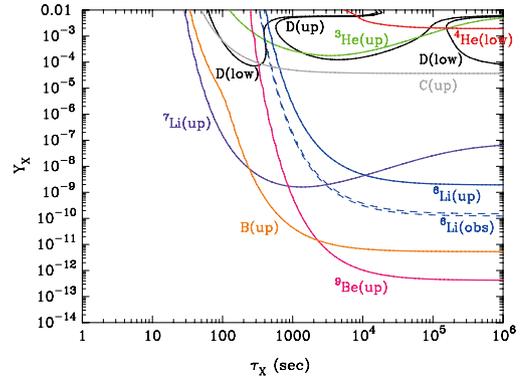


Figure 2: Contours of adopted observational constraints on primordial abundances. Upper right regions surrounded by the contours are excluded. This figure is reprinted from [2].

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Subaru/COMICS Mid-Infrared Observation of the Near-Nucleus Region of Comet 17P/Holmes at the Early Phase of an Outburst

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A Mid-infrared imaging and spectroscopic observations of comet 17P/Holmes in the early phase of its outburst in brightness were performed on 2007 October 25–28 UT using the Cooled Mid-Infrared Camera and Spectrometer (COMICS) on the 8.2-m Subaru Telescope. We detected an isolated dust cloud that moved toward the south-west direction from the nucleus at 8.7 ± 0.3 (″/day) (fig. 1). The $11.2\ \mu\text{m}$ peak of a crystalline silicate feature onto a broad amorphous silicate feature was detected both in the central condensation of the nucleus and the isolated dust cloud. The color temperature of the cloud is estimated to be ~ 200 K. Our analysis of the motion indicates the isolated cloud moved anti-sunward (fig. 2). We propose several possibilities for the motion of the cloud; fluffy dust particles in the isolated cloud started to depart from the nucleus by radiation pressure almost as soon as the main outburst occurred, or dust particles moved by some other forces such as rocket effect and photophoresis when the surrounding dust coma became optically thin.

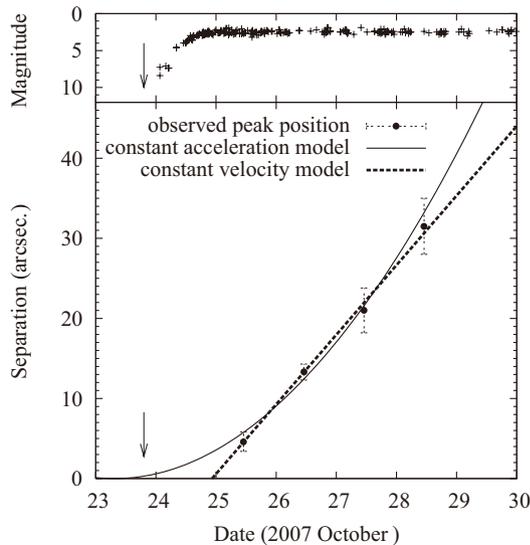


Figure 1: (Top) Light curve of comet 17P/Holmes. (Bottom) Motion of the isolated dust cloud to the central condensation. The dashed and the solid lines denote the first-order (a constant velocity model) and second-order fits (a constant acceleration model), respectively. The estimated onset time of the outburst is indicated by arrows.

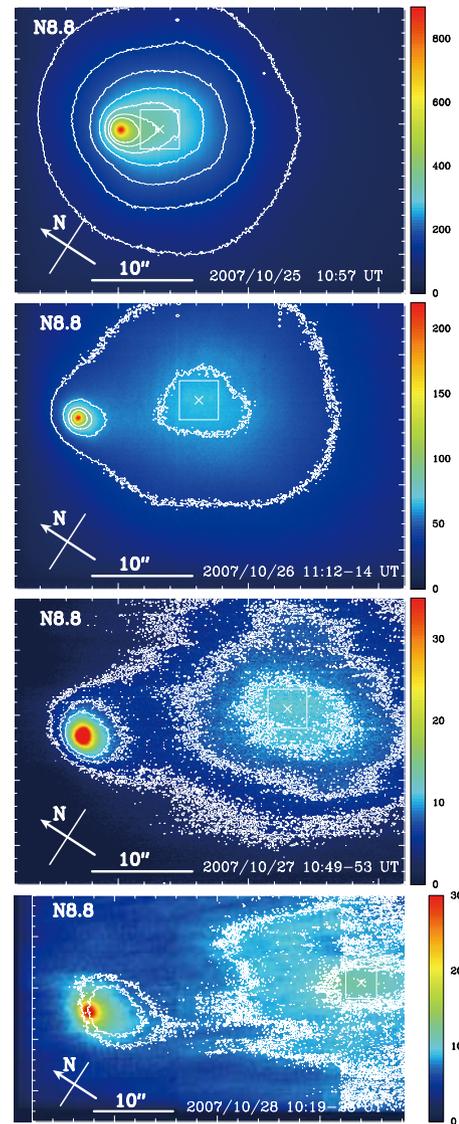


Figure 2: N8.8 images of 17P on Oct. 25, 26, 27, and 28, 2007 UT. The flux unit is in Jy/pixel. The pixel scale is $0.13''$. The cross indicates the center of cloud and the rectangular region is the aperture for photometry ($31\ \text{pix} \times 31\ \text{pix}$). The isolated cloud was moving toward the anti-sun direction.

Reference

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BD+44°493: A Ninth Magnitude Messenger from the Early Universe; Carbon Enhanced and Beryllium Poor

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The chemical composition of the early universe is essentially recorded in the atmospheres of metal-poor stars. Therefore, chemical abundance studies of metal-poor stars have been playing an important role in our understanding of the nucleosynthesis of the early generations of stars as well as the chemical enrichment in the Galaxy.

We present a one-dimensional LTE chemical abundance analysis of the very bright ($V=9.1$) carbon-enhanced metal-poor (CEMP) star BD+44°493, based on high-resolution, high signal-to-noise spectra obtained with Subaru/HDS [1]. The star is shown to be a subgiant with an extremely low iron abundance ($[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -3.7$). Although astronomers have been searching for extremely metal-poor stars for decades, this is the first star found with $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] < -3.5$ and an apparent magnitude $V < 12$ (Fig. 1).

The low metallicity of this object suggests that its chemical composition record the yields of first-generation stars. The most important feature of the star is the large excess of carbon ($[\text{C}/\text{Fe}] = +1.3$) and oxygen ($[\text{O}/\text{Fe}] = +1.6$), as also found in the most iron-poor ($[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] < -5$) stars yet discovered. Based on its low abundances of neutron-capture elements (e.g., $[\text{Ba}/\text{Fe}] = -0.6$), BD+44°493 is classified as a “CEMP-no” star. Its abundance pattern implies that a first-generation faint supernova is the most likely origin of its carbon excess, while scenarios related to mass loss from rapidly rotating massive stars or mass transfer from an asymptotic giant branch companion star are not favored.

From a high-quality spectrum in the near-UV region, we set a very low upper limit on this star’s beryllium abundance ($A(\text{Be}) = \log(\text{Be}/\text{H}) + 12 < -2.0$), which indicates that the decreasing trend of Be abundances with lower $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$ still holds at $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] < -3.5$ (Fig. 2). This is the first attempt to measure a Be abundance for a CEMP star, and demonstrates that high C and O abundances do not necessarily imply high Be abundances. Taking the evolutionary status of the star into account, however, the Be at its surface might have been depleted during the stellar evolution and not means the initial abundance.

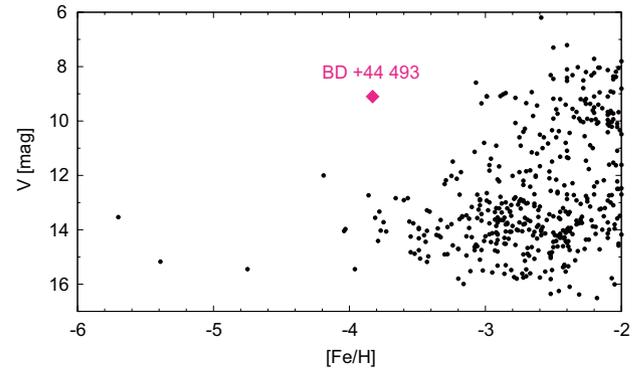


Figure 1: Apparent magnitudes of metal-poor stars in the Milky Way as a function of $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$. Data are taken from the SAGA database (<http://saga.sci.hokudai.ac.jp/>).

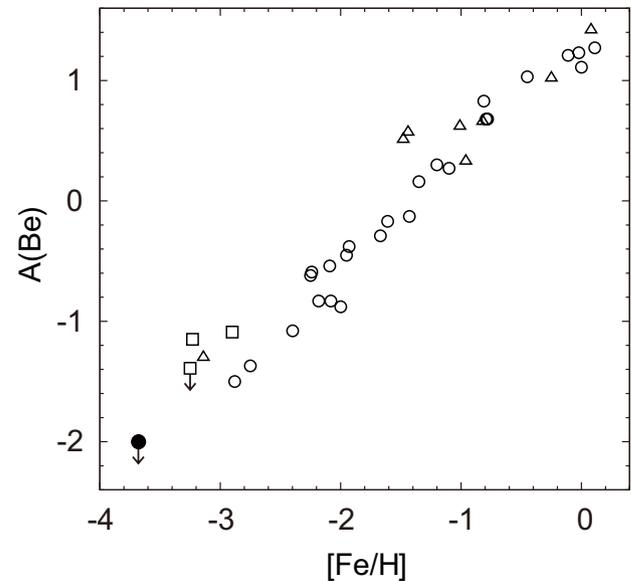


Figure 2: $A(\text{Be})$ vs. $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$. Our resultant upper limit is the filled circle. The open symbols represent results of previous studies (see [1] for details).

Reference

[1] Ito, H., Aoki, W., Honda, S., Beers, T. C.: 2009, *ApJ*, **698**, L37.

Entire Topography of Lunar Surface: A Movie Created from KAGUYA(SELENE) Data

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We make various movies by visualization of scientific observed or simulated data at Four Dimensional Digital Universe Project(4D2U Project). The most recent movie “Entire Topography of Lunar Surface” was made by the lunar topographic data which was observed by Japanese lunar orbiter spacecraft “KAGUYA(SELENE)”, and it was accepted to the SIGGRAPH Asia 2009 Computer Animation Festival[1].

There are many visualization software which are shareware or freeware. Naturally, the purpose of these software are scientific visualization, so there is a limit in image quality and camerawork. On the other hand, we created lunar movie by using Autodesk Maya[2] which is high-end 3-D CG software instead of visualization software in this work. Autodesk Maya has no function for scientific visualization. But we can append various functions to Maya by using scripting language or programming language, and we developed special tool for import the data to Maya. Figure 1 shows surface(left) and cube(right) models of lunar topographic data in Maya.

We made this movie at full high-vision size and we prepared stereoscopic vision, too. The low resolution version(640×360) is able to download from the 4D2U website[3]. In the near future, we convert this movie into dome master.

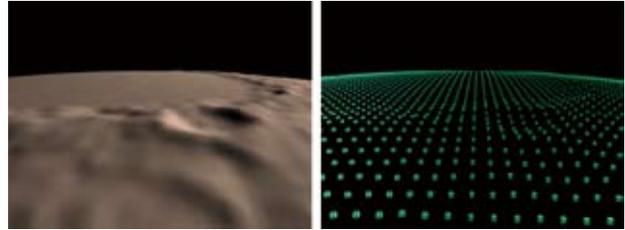
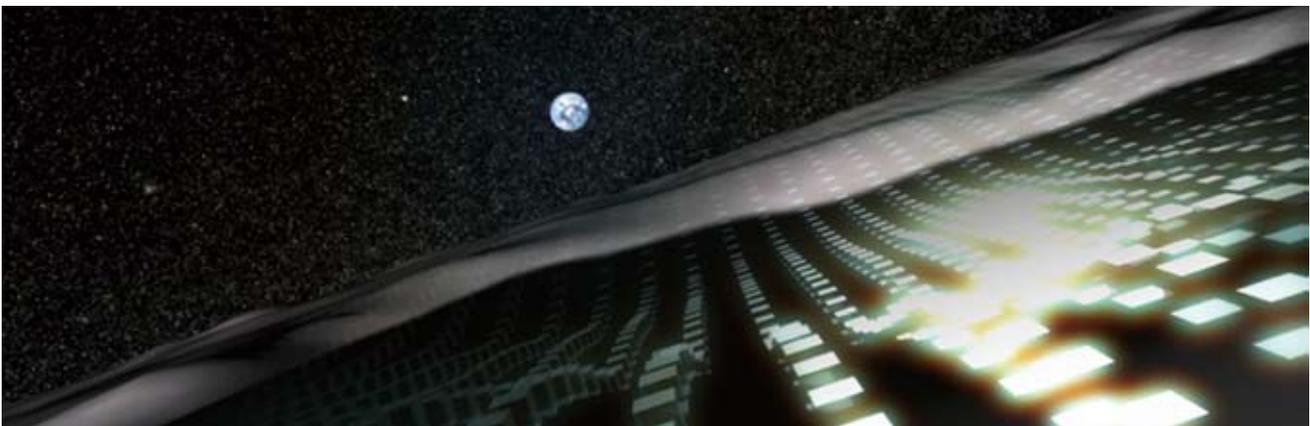


Figure 1: Surface(left) and cube(right) models of lunar topographic data.

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- [2] <http://www.autodesk.co.jp>
- [3] <http://4d2u.nao.ac.jp/t/var/download>



Orientation of X-Ray Bright Points in the Quiet Sun

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In the Solar corona, there are many small structures which are bright in soft X-rays and have size of less than 60" in diameter. They are called "X-ray Bright Points (XBP)". Two processes are considered for formation of XBPs; chance encounters of opposite polarities and emergence of magnetic bipoles

XBPs have been, as the name suggests, observed as point-like features with the previous-generation grazing incidence X-ray telescopes. The soft X-ray telescope (XRT) aboard the Hinode satellite has resolved their complex loop-like structures with its high spatial resolution. This enables us to perform a detailed research about shapes of XBPs. As a first step for understanding the magnetic structures to form XBPs, we measured the orientation angle of many XBPs found in snapshot Xray images[1] and compared its distribution with that of emerging magnetic bipolar regions investigated by Harvey (1993) [2].

We used 26 snapshot XRT images of the quiet Sun near the disk center taken between 2006 December and 2008 November. The field of view is 526" × 526". We had 488 valid XBPs in total, and their size ranges between 8" and 75". Orientation angles are defined as the angle between the line connecting the two footpoints and the latitudinal east-west line of the Sun.

Figure 1 is the orientation distribution of XBPs identified in this research. The magnitude of orientation angles is defined as 0° for east-west direction, and ±90° for north-south direction. The shape of this histogram shows that the distribution is not uniform and there is preference toward east-west direction. (The random distribution is rejected with a significance level of 1% by the χ^2 -test). This bias of orientation angle is, however, much smaller than that of emerging bipolar regions investigated by Harvey (1993) [2]. The fact that the orientation distribution of XBPs is much more uniform than that of emerging bipolar regions suggests that XBPs come from not only emerging bipoles. However, it is unlikely that the slight preference toward east-west direction appears through random chance encounters of opposite polarities. This leads us to the concept that both chance encounters and emerging bipoles contribute to the formation of XBPs.

We discuss the origin of XBPs in terms of solar dynamo mechanism. There are two types of dynamo processes; one is the global dynamo system driven by the differential rotation of the Sun, and the other is the local dynamo system with the granular convection flows around the photosphere. Although large-scale magnetic fields made by the global dynamo tend to have east-west

direction, transient horizontal magnetic fields, which are thought to come from the local dynamo process, shows uniform orientation distribution [3]. This suggests that the preference toward east-west direction seen in the orientation distribution of XBPs is a hint for the influence of the global dynamo on the formation of emerging bipoles with size of XBPs.

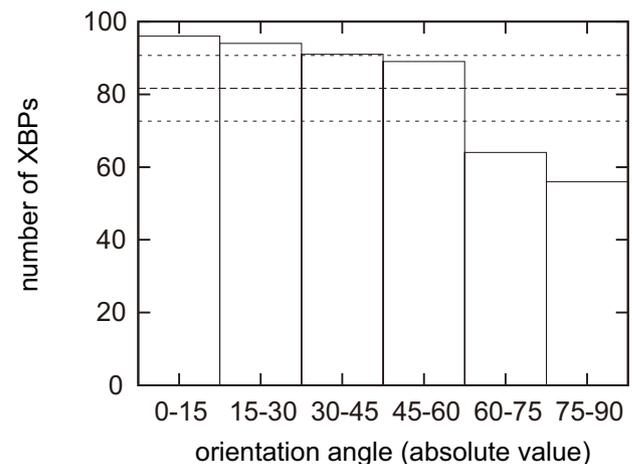


Figure 1: The distribution of the orientation of XBPs. 0° corresponds to the east-west direction, and 90° corresponds to the north-south direction. The dashed line shows the expected distribution in the case of a perfectly uniform distribution, and the dotted lines represent ±1 σ statistical error.

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Discovery of the Coldest Imaged Companion of a Sun-like Star

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We present the discovery of a brown dwarf or possible planet to the nearby sun-like star GJ 758 based on direct imaging in the H band using the high contrast imaging instrument HiCIAO on the Subaru telescope[1,2]. The imaged substellar companion, GJ 758 B, was found to have a mass of $10\text{--}40M_{\text{Jup}}$, a temperature of 550–640 K, and a projected separations of $1.9''=29\text{ AU}$. This makes GJ 758 B one of the few known T-type companions, and the coldest ever to be imaged around a sun-like star.

GJ 758 is a G9-type star with a mass of $0.97M_{\odot}$, located at a distance of 15.5 pc. We first detected GJ 758 B with HiCIAO in angular differential imaging (ADI) mode on Subaru telescope on May 3, 2009, with a field of view of $20''$. In addition to the known nine field objects around the host star, we have detected unknown tenth object in close separation with 5σ confidence. In a follow-up observations on August 6, 2009, the object was rediscovered with 8.5σ confidence. We used a locally optimized combination of images algorithm (LOCI, [3]) in ADI data reduction. The discovery image of GJ 758 B is shown in Fig. 1.

Located only 15.5 pc away from the Sun, GJ 758 B exhibits strong proper motion. On the basis of two epoch data, GJ 758 B is found to share common proper motion with its host star, confirming that they form a gravitationally bound system. Their motion deviates from the proper motion for the background stars by 10σ . thus a chance alignment can be excluded. GJ 758 B is measured to move by $(-7.6 \pm 9.5, 23.4 \pm 9.5)$ mas along the (RA, Dec) axes relative to GJ 758. This represents the orbital motion of the companion around its host. Future long-term observations are desirable in order to cover the long orbital period of GJ 758 B.

The mass and effective temperature of GJ 758 B are derived based on the COND models[4] and the photometries in the H band. We found $10\text{--}40M_{\text{Jup}}$ for the mass and 549–637 K for the temperature. The large uncertainty in the mass measurements comes from the ambiguity of the estimated system age (0.7 to 8.7 Gyr),

because GJ 758 is a nearby field star with no known connection to any co-moving stellar association. If we employ the photometric age (0.7 Gyr), a typically used method for age estimation, we expect the companion to be high-mass ($10M_{\text{Jup}}$) planet with T9 spectral type. This makes GJ 758 B the coolest substellar companion to a sun-like star ever imaged in thermal light.

Though there is large uncertainty in measured orbital motion of GJ 758 B, its orbit can be estimated based on the observations and Monte Carlo simulation. The orbit of GJ 758 B is likely eccentric ($e = 0.50\text{--}0.87$) and of a size comparable to Pluto's orbit (33.9–118.0 AU). The separation occupies intermediate position at which companions are expected to form by core accretion ($\leq 5\text{ AU}$) or gravitational collapse (typically $\geq 100\text{ AU}$). The search of planets around G-type stars with direct imaging is essentially important to reveal whether the giant planets with large orbit are common or not.

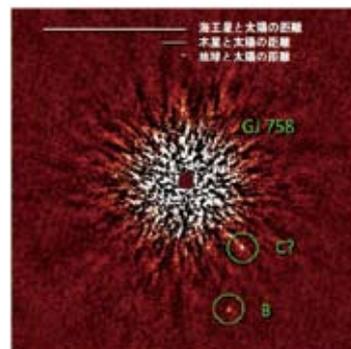


Figure 1: The discovery image of GJ 758 B taken in the observations in August 2009. For the two point sources enclosed by circles, lower source represents GJ 758 B, and upper source is a possible second object detected only in the August image. The host star is located in image center.

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Development of Cryogenic Integration Circuits with GaAs JFETs for Sub-millimeter Camera

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NAGATA, Hirohisa, IKEDA, Hirokazu
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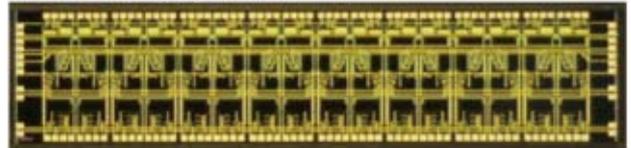
FUJIWARA, Mikio
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In NAOJ ATC, we have been developing to realize the sub-millimeter/terahertz camera with more than 10k pixel. As its detectors, we suppose the SIS (Superconductor-Insulator-Superconductor) photon detectors [4]. Since these detectors must be cooled below 1 K for their best performance, a cryogenic readout system is need for precise and effective readout. To realize such many channel cryogenic readout system, it is very important to suppress the system power dissipation. From cooling power of the cryogenic cooler, current power dissipation target is below $1 \mu\text{W}/\text{ch}$.

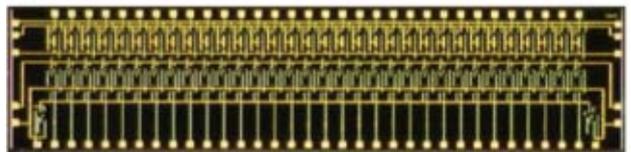
We have developed several kinds of integration circuits with n-type GaAs JFETs until 2009 spring. The reason to select the n-type GaAs JFETs is that the cryogenic static characteristics in low power dissipation ($\leq 0.1 \mu\text{W}$) are very similar to those in room temperature. From 2007 to 2009, we have done three times trial manufactures and cryogenic demonstrations. These demonstration results are reported in those papers [1-7]. We show some concrete results of cryogenic ICs (integration circuits). We have realized the amplifier which integrate photo current signal and exchange this to voltage at power dissipation $2 \sim 3 \mu\text{W}/\text{ch}$ (Fig. 1a) [2, 6]. We also have realized multiplexers with sample-and-holds (Fig. 1b) [1], the shift registers to control the above-mentioned multiplexers which are able to work faster than 100 kHz at cryogenic temperature (Fig. 1c) [5], and the 32 channels voltage distributor to cancel input offset voltages of the 16 channels AC coupled CTIA (Fig. 1d). We have been planning a cryogenic readout system with these cryogenic circuits. In 2010 spring, we designed and manufactured 32 channel multi-chip modules by using these GaAs ICs to realize the cryogenic readout system. To increase possible number of readout channel by this cryogenic system, power dissipations of each circuit have to be suppressed by redesigning or newly investigations.

These demonstration results are useful not only for our sub-millimeter/terahertz camera but also for every kinds of cryogenic multi-pixel camera which detectors have high impedance.

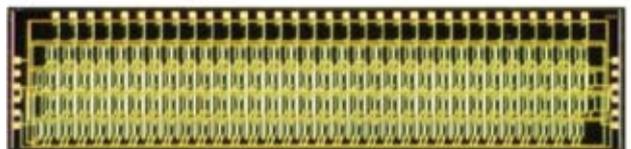
a) 16ch AC coupled CTIA



b) 32ch Multiplexer with Sample-and-Holds



c) 32ch Shift Register



d) 32ch Voltage Distributer

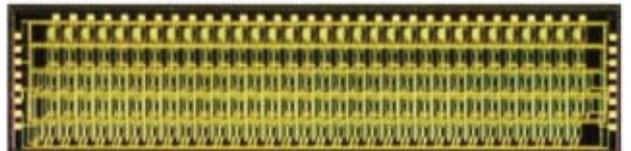


Figure 1: Trial manufactures of ICs with GaAs JFETs in 2008's. The sizes of these ICs are $1.8 \text{ mm} \times 7.6 \text{ mm}$. a): 16 channels AC coupled CTIA (Capacitive Trans-Impedance Amplifier). b): 32 channels multiplexer with sample-and-holds. c): 32 channels shift register. d): 32 channels voltage distributor.

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Detection of the most distant explosion ever known (Near-infrared observation of GRB 090423@ $z = 8.2$)

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Gamma ray burst (GRB) is one of the most promising probes currently available for investigating early universe. It has been revealed that significant fraction (~50%) of GRBs emits optical - infrared afterglow. By observing optical - infrared afterglows, we can obtain various pieces of information about GRB progenitors, circumstance around GRBs, and redshifts, as well as explosion and emission mechanisms of GRBs.

GRB 090423 is a long duration GRB detected by the *Swift* satellite at 07:55:19 UT on April 23 in 2009 [1]. Deep near-infrared (NIR) spectroscopic observations revealed that the redshift of GRB 090423 is ~ 8.2 [2], indicating that this is the most distant astronomical object ever known.

We performed NIR observations of this burst with a NIR camera, ISLE [3] attached to the 188 cm telescope of Okayama Astrophysical Observatory. We started the observation at 10:32:27 UT, i.e the time delay from the trigger t_d was 9,428 s. We made J, H, and Ks band imaging observations in a $4' \times 4'$ field around the afterglow position reported by other infrared observations. Total exposure times for J, H, and Ks bands were 720 s, 960 s, and 480 s, respectively. Sky was clear and typical seeing is around $1.5''$.

We clearly detected the afterglow emission of GRB 090423 in combined J band image (Figure 1) [4]. The J-band AB magnitude of the afterglow was 20.16 ± 0.14 at $t_d = 10,694$ s. The afterglow was marginally detected (2σ detection) in our H band image, but it was too faint to make reliable photometry. There was no corresponding source in our Ks band image.

Together with other NIR photometric data [2] of GRB 090423, our data revealed that the light curve (LC) of the afterglow is quite shallow ($f \propto t_d^{-0.01}$) in the early epoch and this shallow phase continues to $t_d \sim 3,000$ s in the rest frame. Such long, shallow decay of optical afterglow is very rare. The fraction of optical afterglow showing such shallow decay is only 9%. Similar shallow decay was observed for GRB 050801, but its duration is much shorter than GRB 090423.

The afterglow LC of GRB 090423 shows much rapid decay in later epoch ($t_d > 10,000$ s) [2]. In order to estimate the break time of the NIR LC, $t_{b,NIR}$, we tried to fit the late epoch NIR LC by two models of power law

decay, a rapid decay model and a shallow decay model. The power-law decay index α ($f \propto t_d^{-\alpha}$) and break time for the both models are $(\alpha, t_{b,NIR}) \approx (-1.5, 24,000 \text{ s})$ and $\approx (-0.9, 9,800 \text{ s})$, respectively. Unfortunately, there is no data around $t_d \sim 20,000\text{--}30,000 \text{ s}$, definite break time cannot be determined. Nevertheless, adding our data to the NIR LC made it clear that $t_{d,NIR}$ is much later than the X-ray break time ($t_{b,X} \approx 4,800 \text{ s}$). The time delay $\Delta t = t_{b,NIR} - t_{b,X}$ is $\sim 5,000\text{--}17,000 \text{ s}$. The Δt of GRB 090423 is one of the longest ones ever observed in GRB LCs.

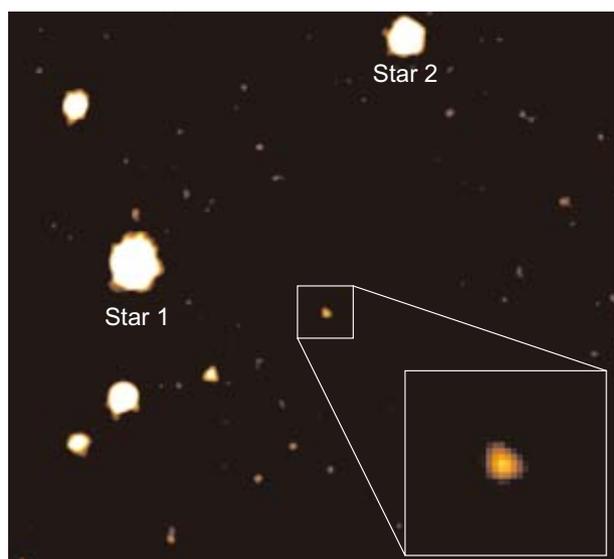


Figure 1: The J band image of the afterglow of GRB 090423. “Star1” and “Star2” are photometric reference stars.

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Neutrino-Induced Reactions on ^{56}Ni and Production of ^{55}Mn in Population III Stars

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We study neutrino nucleus reactions on ^{56}Ni as well as its astrophysical implications [1]. GT transitions in ^{56}Ni are studied by shell model calculations with the use of a new shell model Hamiltonian for the pf -shell, GXPF1J [2], which describes well the spin transitions in fp -shell nuclei,

The neutral current proton knock out reaction $^{56}\text{Ni}(\nu, \nu'p)^{55}\text{Co}$ is quite interesting as it leads to production of Mn through electron capture twice; $^{55}\text{Co}(e^-, \nu_e)^{55}\text{Fe}(e^-, \nu_e)^{55}\text{Mn}$. The GT transition strengths in ^{56}Ni ($B(GT_0)$) are shown in Fig. 1(a). We find that the strength is fragmented into two peaks for GXPF1J, while it has only one peak for KB3G [3]. This difference in the distribution of the strength leads to different $(\nu, \nu'p)$ cross sections. Calculated cross sections for $^{56}\text{Ni}(\nu, \nu')^{56}\text{Ni}$ induced by supernova neutrinos are shown in Fig. 1(b), where contributions from multipoles besides 1^+ are evaluated by the RPA method and the universal quenching, $g_A^{\text{eff}}/g_A = 0.74$, is adopted for all multipoles. The present results are close to those of ref. [4] but small compared to those of ref. [5].

Cross sections for particle knock out channels as well as γ emission channels are obtained by using branching ratios calculated by the Hauser-Feshbach theory. We find that the $(\nu, \nu'p)$ cross section becomes large for GXPF1J compared to the previous calculation using the cross sections of HW92 [6] as shown in Fig. 2. This is due to large branching ratios for the proton knock-out channels for GXPF1J caused by the spreading of the GT distribution.

We now discuss the production yields of elements during supernova explosion for a Population III star with mass $15 M_\odot$. The production yields of Mn are found to be enhanced for the GXPF1J Hamiltonian. The logarithmic values of the yield ratio over Fe relative to the solar abundances, $[\text{Mn}/\text{Fe}]$, are -0.19 , -0.29 and -0.53 for GXPF1J, HW92 and no ν -processes, respectively. The calculated values are consistent with the abundances observed in extremely metal-poor stars with $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] \leq -3$ -0.43 $+0.31$ -0.17 [7]. The proton knocked out from ^{56}Ni by the neutrino-induced reaction enhances also the production yield of ^{59}Co (see ref. [1] for details). These enhancement shows the important roles of the neutrino processes in nucleosynthesis in stars.

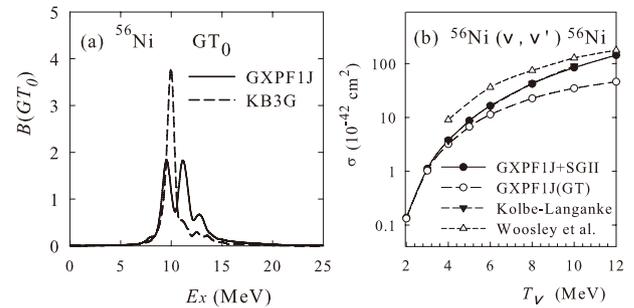


Figure 1: (a) GT strength in ^{56}Ni . (b) Neutral current reaction cross sections for ^{56}Ni at supernova temperatures T_ν .

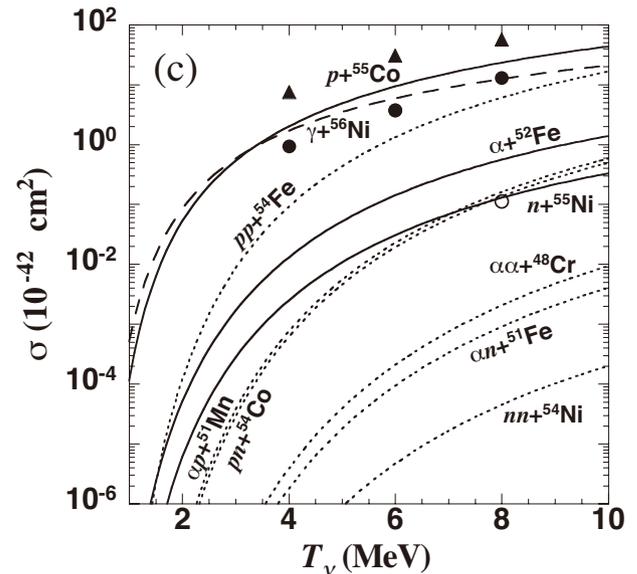


Figure 2: Reaction cross sections on ^{56}Ni for γ and particle emission channels at supernova temperatures T_ν . Results obtained by using cross sections of HW92 [6] are denoted by triangles, filled circles and hollow circles.

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Search for Remnant Clouds Associated with the TW Hya Association

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We surveyed for natal molecular clouds that formed the most nearby young cluster TW Hya association in ^{12}CO emission line and estimated their distance from the NaI absorption lines. The TW Hya association (TWA; $d \sim 50$ pc) consist of 20 member stars [1] including a typical classical T Tauri star, TW Hya, and the cluster age is estimated to be ~ 2 Myr. While almost all similarly young associations such as those in Taurus are known to be embedded in or located close to molecular clouds, TWA is isolated from any molecular gas and its natal cloud has not been discovered. Taking advantage of its proximity, proto-planetary disks [2] and young exoplanets have been actively surveyed for the member stars, while due to its large extent, sensitive and extensive survey for molecular cloud has not been well attempted.

We have carried out ^{12}CO ($J=1-0$) survey for remnant clouds with the NANTEN telescope at Las Campanas Observatory, Chile. The survey areas are chosen from cold dust clouds with strong 100 μm emission by IRAS where entire TWA member are distributed. As a result, faint CO emission is detected from some of the observed positions (Fig. 1).

In order to investigate the association of those CO clouds with TWA, the distances to the clouds are estimated as follows. Expected background stars with known distances are picked up from the Hipparcos catalog, and their optical spectra are obtained with the FEROS spectrograph on the ESO 2.2 m telescope. The interstellar absorption lines of NaI doublet at 5890 \AA are extracted from the spectra (Fig. 2). Because of non-detection from nearby Hipparcos stars, the largest molecular cloud is revealed to be background with a distance of > 200 pc. Distances to the other two small clouds are estimated to be < 100 pc, and thus they are very low-mass possible remnant clouds associated with TWA.

We conclude that despite the extensive survey, the estimated mass of the remnant molecular cloud is $\sim 3 M_{\odot}$ at the most. Assuming the star formation efficiency to be 3%, the TWA natal cloud of $\sim 540 M_{\odot}$ molecular gas has been dissipated away within only 1 Myr. This implies past disturbance such as nearby supernova explosion.

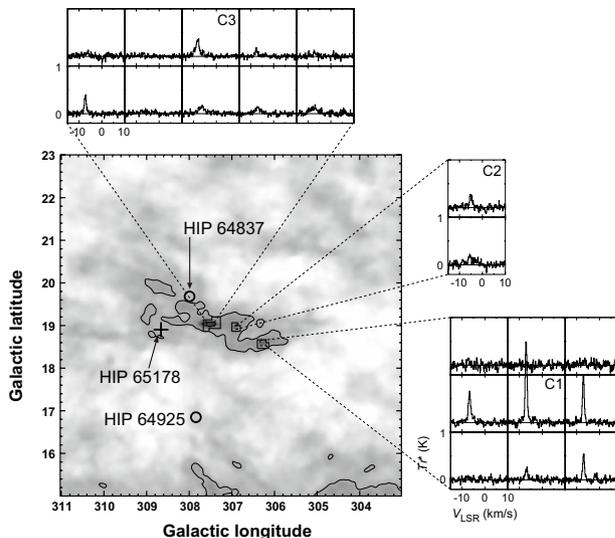


Figure 1: One of the dust cirrus cloud where CO emission is detected. The gray scale represents dust extinction with contours of 0.15 mag. The detected CO emission lines (4 arcmin grid spacing) are illustrated aside. The circles and cross show Hipparcos stars with and without detections of NaI absorption lines, respectively. From the distance to HIP 64837, distance to this cloud is estimated to be < 81 pc.

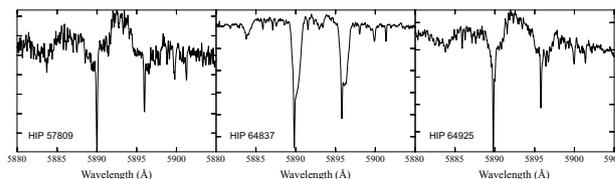


Figure 2: Spectra around the detected NaI doublet lines. The narrower lines than those of the stellar photospheres are by interstellar absorption.

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Polarimetric mode of stellar interferometer using birefringent retarders

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A stellar interferometer uses two or more telescopes to measure interferometric fringe visibilities, and provides astronomical observations with very high-angular resolution. It is expected that a polarimetric stellar interferometer, which measures fringe visibilities of two orthogonal polarized lights, will be a powerful tool for investigating many astronomical targets, such as magnetism of chemical peculiar stars, mass loss and circumstellar disks of hot stars, extrasolar planets, and so on.

For building a polarimetric stellar interferometer, polarizers or polarizing beam splitters (PBS) are needed to separate the two polarized fringes. When the polarizers are used, one component of polarizations is discarded, which would result in a large time lag between acquisitions of the two polarized fringes. In addition, it is required to rotate the polarizers to measure the two fringes. When the PBSs are used, on the other hand, two detectors or a two-dimensional detector will be needed for acquiring the polarized fringes.

We proposed a novel technique for a polarimetric observational mode, which can be readily installed into existing stellar interferometers [1]. Figure 1 shows a principle of the proposed technique, in which two birefringent retarders R1 and R2 (thickness of l) are inserted into each arm of an interferometer. A birefringent retarder has two different refractive indices (n_e and n_o) along two orthogonal (p - and s -) polarizations. By setting axes of the retarders 0° and 90° , centers of the two polarized fringes shift in opposite directions $\pm\beta l$ ($\beta = n_e - n_o$) along an optical-path deference (OPD). Thus the polarized fringes can be isolated and detected by a single detector for measuring their visibilities separately.

We manufactured quartz retarders of $l = 1.124$ mm (a picture in Fig. 1). The thickness l corresponds to a fringe isolation of $\pm 10.3 \mu\text{m}$ in visible. We carried out laboratory demonstration of the proposed technique using a white-light source. Figure 2 shows interferometric fringes acquired (a) without and (b) with the fringe isolation. We can see in the result that the two polarized fringes are clearly isolated.

We also proposed to install this technique into the Mitaka optical Infra-Red Array (MIRA-I.2). Assuming the retarders with $l = 0.4$ mm, the MIRA-I.2 can detect the two polarized fringes with a time lag of about 18 msec, which is greater than atmospheric coherent time (typically of the order of a few msec). Thus an effect of atmospheric turbulence will not be identical for acquisitions of the two

fringes. Nevertheless, precise polarimetric observations will be feasible by averaging a large number of fringe visibilities measured within short time (e.g., 187 fringes/minute for the MIRA-I.2).

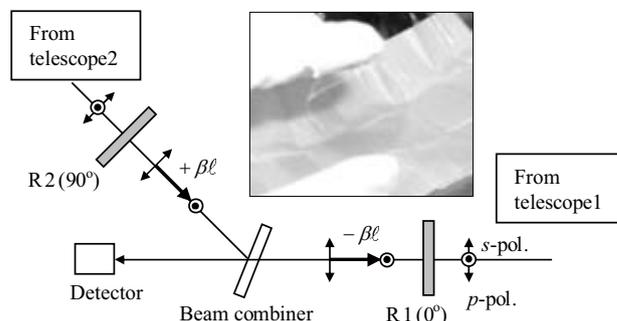


Figure 1: Principle of a novel polarimetric stellar interferometer using birefringent retarders.

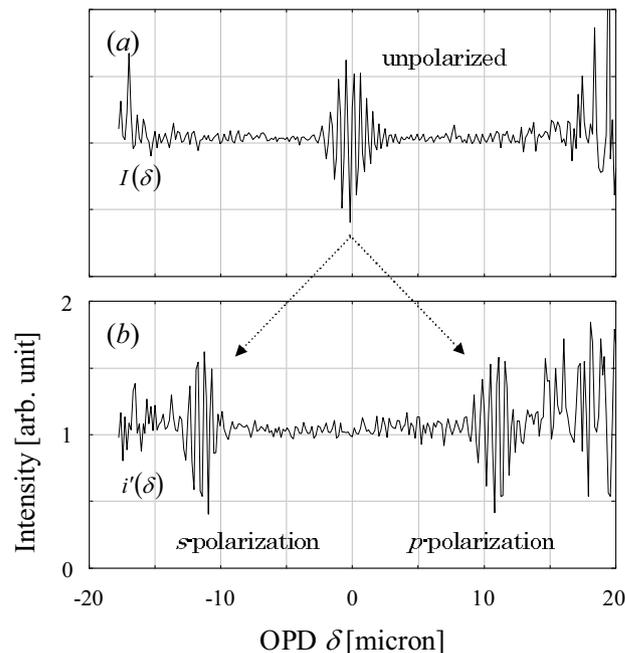


Figure 2: Result of laboratory demonstration; interferometric fringes (a) without and (b) with the fringe isolation.

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Emission Signature of a Young Protostellar Object: Line Transfer Study of an Embedded Young Molecular Outflow

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Pre-main sequence stars exhibit ubiquitously bipolar outflows of molecular gas of the speed about 10 km s^{-1} . Recent magneto-hydrodynamic (MHD) simulations have achieved a significant progress in the studies of low-mass star formation and launching mechanisms of the outflows. Formation of stars begins with gravitational collapse of a cold ($\approx 10 \text{ K}$) molecular core. We performed non-LTE (non-thermodynamic equilibrium) line transfer simulation with MHD simulation of a young outflow embedded in its parent collapsing core (“envelope”), seeking for characteristic features of the model in the synthesized emission, which will be observed with the ALMA telescope.

In the snapshot data used in the line transfer simulation, the density is as high as $n \gtrsim 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The high density thermalizes the population up to $J \approx 10$ for lines of low critical densities such as ^{12}CO and its isotopologues, and their huge optical thicknesses make them inadequate for probing the central region. Contrarily, the population of higher critical density lines such as SiO ($n_{\text{crit}}(J) \approx 10^5 \times J^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) deflects from LTE for high- J transitions in the sub-mm band. The optical thicknesses of these lines fall below 1% of CO lines, proving their effectiveness in examination of the dynamics of the central launching region of the young outflow.

Figure 1 shows the density structure of the snapshot data of MHD simulation, and the integrated intensity map of SiO(7–6) line for the inclination angle of the outflow axis 30° . In this model, the interplay of the core rotation and magnetic field drives the outflow. The magneto-centrifugal force (MCF) moves away the matter close to the first core (Figure 1(a), $R \sim 50 \text{ AU}$). The distribution of red- and blue-shifted intensity components in Figure 1(b) reflects the rotation.

One of the most characteristic features of the MCF-driven flow is the rotation of the formed outflow in the same direction of the launching region. It appears most clearly in the line-of-sight velocity (v_r) related diagrams such as velocity channel maps (see [1] for details). In Figure 2, we plot the distribution of line profiles of the SiO(7–6) line for 30° inclination (Figure 1(b)). Figure 2 exhibits a double-horn profile skewed to the blue-ward in most of the region. This is known as a signature of the collapse of the cloud [2]. Our line transfer simulation captures the global feature of the object embedded in the contracting envelope. Local profiles reflect the rotation and birth of the outflow. In

the early stage examined in this article, different kinds of velocities take the similar speed ($v_{\text{infall}} \approx v_{\text{outflow}} \approx v_{\text{rot}}$). It complicates the emission distributions compared to the more evolved objects ($v_{\text{outflow}} \gg v_{\text{infall}}$) observed with current instruments.

Our simulation demonstrated how the characteristics of a specific MHD model appear in the line emission. The relation between the emission feature and the physical processes generating them is quite complicated, and should be pursued more with further line transfer experiments in the future.

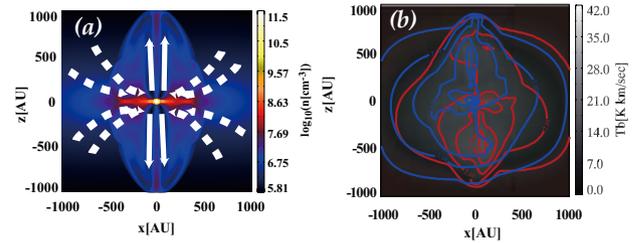


Figure 1: Panel(a) shows the density structure (in color), and white arrows describe the flows directions. Panel(b) exhibits the integrated intensity map of SiO(7–6) line for an inclination angle 30° . Red and blue contours indicate red and blue-shifted components integrated separately.

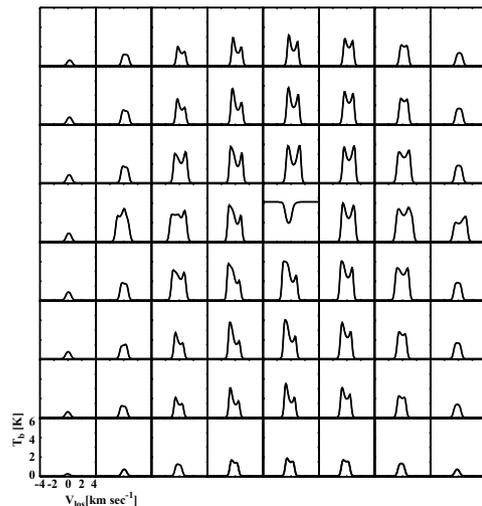


Figure 2: SiO(7–6) line profile distribution of Figure 1(b).

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An improved lunar gravity field model from SELENE and historical tracking data

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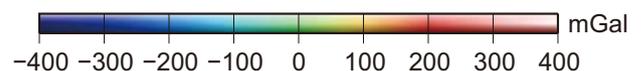
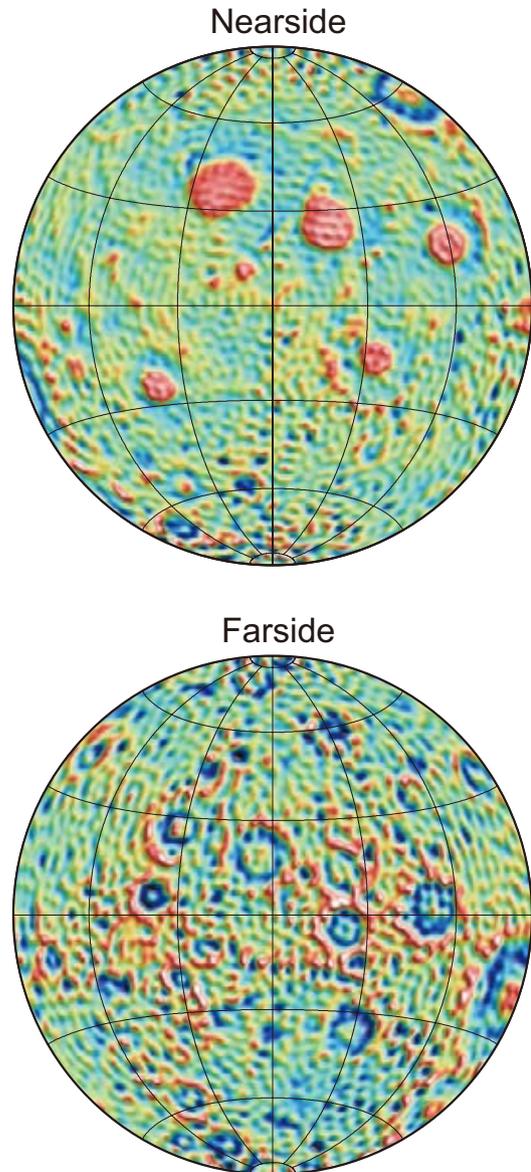
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The direct satellite tracking data over the lunar farside were for the first time collected by SELENE (Kaguya) mission using a relay sub-satellite. The first 5 months of 4-way Doppler data so obtained by the relay subsatellite greatly improved our knowledge of the farside gravity field [1, 2]. A new spherical harmonic solution of the lunar gravity field to degree and order 100, called SGM100h, has been developed using historical tracking data and longer span (14.2 months) of SELENE tracking data including all usable 4-way Doppler data [3]. Figure 1 shows free-air gravity anomaly maps which are calculated from SGM100h model.

The new model successfully reveals farside features in free-air gravity anomalies which are characterized by ring-shaped structures for large impact basins and negative spots for large craters. SGM100h produces a correlation with SELENE-derived topography as high as about 0.9, through degree 70. Comparison between SGM100h and LP100K (one of the pre-SELENE models) shows that the large gravity errors which existed in LP100K are drastically reduced and the asymmetric error distribution between the nearside and the farside almost disappears. The gravity anomaly errors predicted from the error covariance, through degree and order 100, are 26 mGal and 35 mGal for the nearside and the farside, respectively. Owing to the 4-way Doppler measurements the gravity coefficients below degree and order 70 are now determined by real observations with contribution factors larger than 80 percent. With the SELENE farside data coverage, it is possible to estimate the gravity field to degree and order 70 without applying any a priori constraint or regularization. SGM100h can be used for global geophysical interpretation through degree and order 70.



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Figure 1: Free-air gravity anomalies from SGM100h model for lunar nearside (top) and farside (bottom).

Development of the Lunar Crustal Thickness Model by SELENE (Kaguya) Selenodetic Data

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The SELENE (Kaguya) were launched on September 14, 2007. The main orbiter of the SELENE was directly tracked, even when that was over the lunar farside using relay subsatellite (4-WAY Doppler measurements). SELENE gravity models [1], those constructed using SELENE and previous tracking data, drastically improve the farside gravity anomaly. Accurate and high resolution lunar shape models were also developed using laser altimeter data of the SELENE [2]. These SELENE selenodetic data enable us to conduct various kinds of selenodetic analysis not only for the nearside but also for the farside.

Free-air gravity anomaly indicate effect of both topography and subsurface density anomalies. Bouguer gravity anomaly, that express internal density anomalies, can compute by subtracting topography contribution from free-air gravity anomaly using lunar shape model. For the lunar case, a main cause of Bouguer gravity anomaly is undulation of the Moho (crust / mantle interface). The Moho relief can compute by assuming the value of density difference of interface, and at least one reference depth of interface. In this model, we have used crustal density of 2800 kg/m^3 , mantle density of 3360 kg/m^3 , and we assume that the mantle materials are not exposed anywhere. Mare basalts are higher density than that of crustal materials. Therefore moho relief modeling are affected by thick basalt fills. So we extract effects of some thick mare basalt fills by assuming mare basalt density of 3200 kg/m^3 .

Figure 1 shows total crustal thickness (thickness of crustal materials plus mare basalt) variations over the whole Moon [3]. Crustal thickness ranges from the minimum of nearly zero beneath the Moscoviense basin to a maximum of 110 km on the southern rim of the Dirichlet- Jackson basin, and mean thickness is about 53 km. Nearside crust is thinner than that of farside. At inside area of impact basins have thinner crust than that of surrounding area. Our result agrees well with previous analyses of general features of crustal thickness. On the other hand, locations of the minimum and maximum crustal thickness are quite different from those of previous analyses. The shift of the thinnest crust is due to the low resolution and inaccuracy of previous gravity models over the farside. Shifting of the thickest crust position is mainly due to the inaccuracy of previous

topographic models.

For farside basins, we classified the lunar impact basins into two types (type I, and type II) by spatial pattern and ratio of free-air and Bouguer gravity anomalies. The crustal thickness map indicates that the differences between type I and type II basins are probably controlled by the ratio between pre-impact crustal thickness and impact scale.

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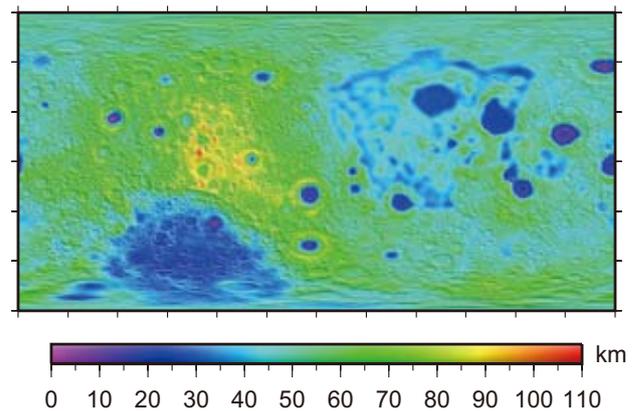


Figure 1: Total lunar crustal thickness (crustal materials and mare basalt fills) map for a simple one-layer crust model. This map is centered on 180°E longitude.

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The new detections of ${}^7\text{Li}/{}^6\text{Li}$ isotopic ratio in the interstellar media

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The elemental abundance of lithium preserves rich information from the early Big-Bang Universe to the present Milky Way Galaxy. Lithium has two stable isotopes, ${}^6\text{Li}$ and ${}^7\text{Li}$. Within the framework of a well established theory of standard BBN, significant amounts of the light elements, ${}^2\text{H}$ (D), ${}^3\text{He}$, ${}^4\text{He}$ and ${}^7\text{Li}$, were synthesized during the first three minutes of the hot Big-Bang Universe. At later times, ${}^7\text{Li}$ is continuously produced by stellar nucleosynthesis, as well as by spallation and $\alpha + \alpha$ fusion reactions of Galactic Cosmic Rays interacting with the interstellar medium, while ${}^6\text{Li}$ is almost purely synthesized by the GCR-ISM interactions.

We have determined the isotopic abundance ratio of ${}^7\text{Li}/{}^6\text{Li}$ in the interstellar media (ISMs) along lines of sight to HD169454 and HD250290 using the High Dispersion Spectrograph on the Subaru Telescope. We also observed ζ Oph for comparison with previous data.

The observed abundance ratios were ${}^7\text{Li}/{}^6\text{Li} = 8.1^{+3.6}_{-1.7}$ and $6.3^{+3.0}_{-1.8}$ for HD169454 and HD250290, respectively. These values are in reasonable agreement with those observed previously in the solar neighborhood ISMs within $\pm 2\sigma$ error bars and are also consistent with our measurement of ${}^7\text{Li}/{}^6\text{Li} = 7.1^{+2.9}_{-1.6}$ for a cloud along the line of sight to ζ Oph. This is good evidence for homogeneous mixing and instantaneous recycling of the gas component in the Galactic disk. We also discuss several source compositions of ${}^7\text{Li}$, Galactic cosmic-ray interactions, stellar nucleosynthesis, and Big-Bang nucleosynthesis [1].

Although we cannot find a clear R_G -dependence of ${}^7\text{Li}/{}^6\text{Li}$, we expect that more precise determination of the lithium isotopic ratio $({}^7\text{Li}/{}^6\text{Li})_{\text{obs}}$ over the wider range of R_G than the present study may exhibit the gradient as suggested theoretically. This would serve to infer a more reliable value of the primordial ${}^7\text{Li}$ abundance independently of stellar depletion effects that confront the identification of the primordial value from the Spite plateau in population II stars. A primordial ${}^7\text{Li}$ abundance that is totally free from the stellar depletion process should directly test the cosmological models for the Big-Bang nucleosynthesis and the particle theory of weak interactions and dark matter.

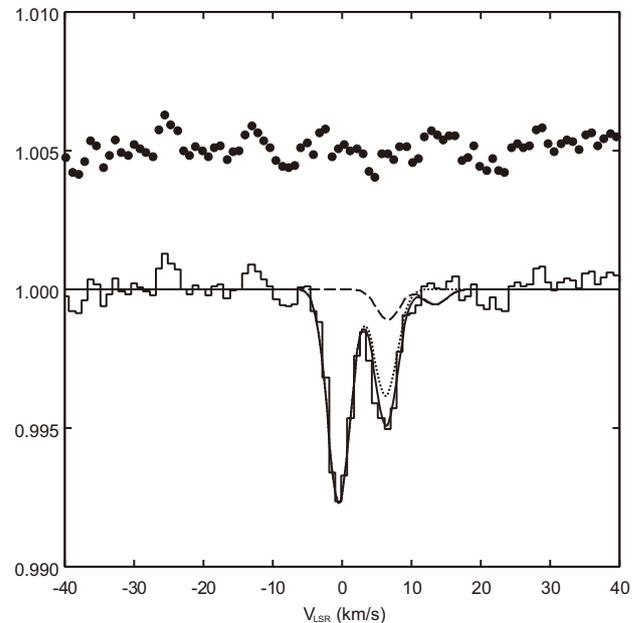


Figure 1: An example of observation of neutral lithium absorption. Histogram : Observational data toward ζ Oph. Solid line : The model fitting of absorption line of ${}^7\text{Li}$. Dashed line: The model fitting of absorption line of ${}^6\text{Li}$. Dots: Residuals.

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The interstellar rubidium isotope ratio toward HD169454

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We report here on a new determination of the interstellar $^{85}\text{Rb}/^{87}\text{Rb}$ isotopic ratio for diffuse gas along the line of sight toward HD169454 [1]. We have detected no contribution of ^{87}Rb in the RbI absorption line at 7800 \AA in this cloud. We deduce a lower limit of $^{85}\text{Rb}/^{87}\text{Rb} > 2.4(95\% \text{C.L.})$.

This new value differs significantly from the only other reported local interstellar value of $1.21 \pm 0.30(1\sigma)$ along a different line of sight [2], and is marginally consistent with the Solar value of 2.43. We discuss the implications of this new isotopic ratio in the context of the various relevant models for the nucleosynthesis of heavy elements. We suggest that material in this cloud may be depleted in the main s-process component.

A pure r-process, a pure main s-process, and a pure weak s-process produce Rb isotopes in the ratio of 5.9, 2.0, and 1.1, respectively. The difference between our results and that of Federman et al.[2] suggests that variations in neutron-capture nucleosynthesis may have indeed occurred in the local Solar neighborhood.

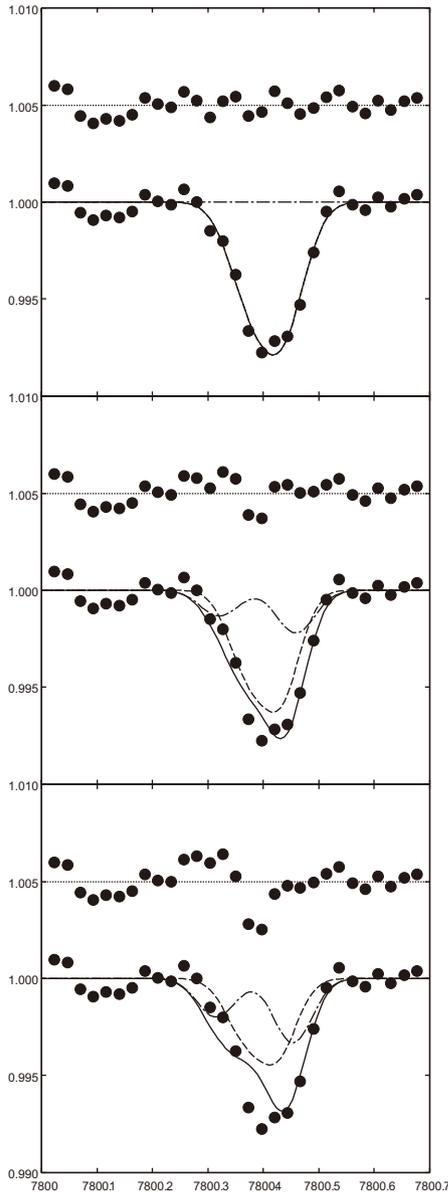


Figure 1: The absorption line of neutral rubidium toward HD169454. Three panels show the best fit to the absorption feature in which $^{85}\text{Rb}/^{87}\text{Rb} = \infty, 2.59, 1.21$, respectively.

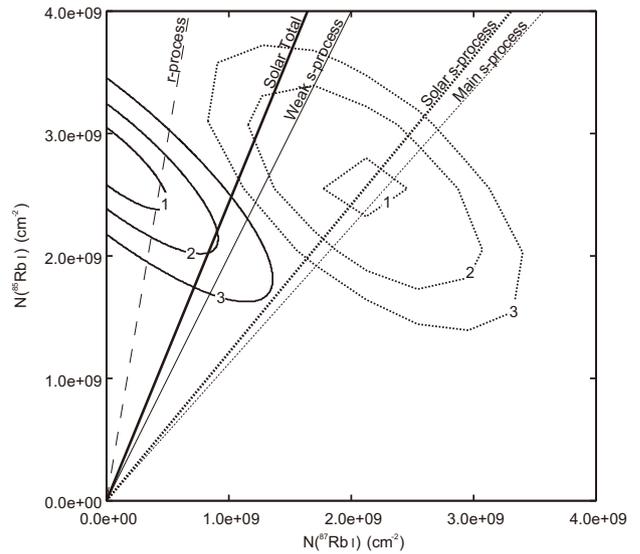


Figure 1: Contours of constant χ^2 confidence levels in the $^{85}\text{Rb I}$ vs. $^{87}\text{Rb I}$ plane. Contours are drawn for the 1, 2, and 3σ confidence levels as labeled. Our data for HD169454 are shown in solid lines. For illustration, the dotted lines are extracted from Federman et al.[2].

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Neutrino-nucleus reactions via neutral and charged currents by the Quasi-particle Random Phase Approximation(QRPA)

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We applied the QRPA to $\nu(\bar{\nu})-A$ reactions by including multipole transitions up to $J^\pi = 4^\pm$ state with finite momentum transfers and evaluated cross sections of ν - reactions on ^{12}C , ^{56}Ni and ^{56}Fe target nucleus. Our results for $\nu(\bar{\nu})-A$ reactions show quite consistent results with available experimental data and other theoretical calculations [1].

Remarkable points from our results are summarized as follows. Firstly, not only GT, IAS and spin dipole transitions but also other multipole transitions could play roles for $\nu(\bar{\nu})-A$ reactions via CC. However, NC reactions are dominated by the GT transition.

Secondly, np pairing as well as nn and pp pairing correlations, which act as important ingredients for describing the BCS ground state and the QRPA excited states, may contribute to large extent to cross sections of $\nu(\bar{\nu})-A$ reactions. In particular, we showed that it affects results for medium heavy nuclei such as ^{56}Ni and ^{56}Fe , which was already expected from our previous results for $2\nu 2\beta$ and $0\nu 2\beta$ decays.

Finally, for more exact evaluations within a few % for the flux averaged cross section expected from the would-be experiment, more deliberate calculations of the Coulomb correction are of importance [2]. In particular, experimental data via NC reactions are highly desirable to pin down the ambiguities on the Coulomb correction, because they are not subject to the Coulomb distortion.

For the application to the SN explosions, in Fig. 1, we summarize the cross sections averaged by the SN neutrino spectrum.

$$f(E_\nu) = \frac{1}{F(\alpha)T^3} \frac{E_\nu^2}{\exp[(E_\nu/T) - \alpha] - 1}, \quad (1)$$

where $F(\alpha)$ is a normalization factor. T and α can be chosen for neutrino types. Cross sections via CC are much larger, about 3 times, than those by NC, irrespective of nuclear species. Applications to the ν -process for relevant nuclear abundances are in progress.

The QRPA is a very efficient method to consider multiparticle and multi-hole interactions and their configuration mixing. It successfully described nuclear reactions sensitive on the nuclear structure, such as the nuclear β^\pm , $2\nu 2\beta$ and $0\nu 2\beta$ decays. Therefore the uncertainties due to the nuclear structure in $\nu(\bar{\nu})-A$ reactions can be pinned down to some extent by reproducing the data related to the β and $\beta\beta$ decays.

Since the present discussions are based on the

nondeformed spherical QRPA, one needs to exploit the deformed QRPA [3, 4] for the nucleosynthesis of deformed nuclei, which are expected to be synthesized frequently in core collapsing SN explosions. Such extension of the QRPA calculation for $\nu-A$ reactions is in progress. It also enables us to perform various nuclear weak reactions for unstable exotic nuclei.

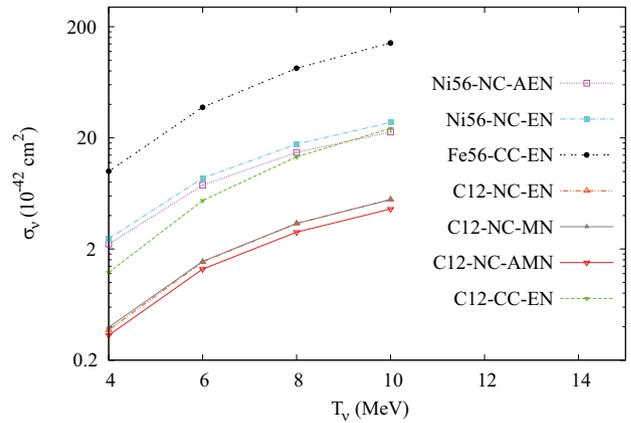


Figure 1: Temperature dependence of the energy weighted cross section for $\nu-^{12}\text{C}$, ^{56}Ni and ^{56}Fe reactions, where neutrino spectrum for the SN, Eq.(1), is exploited.

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Imaging Spectroscopy on Preflare Coronal Nonthermal Sources Associated with the 2002 July 23 Flare

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Nonthermal emissions from accelerated particles are often observed in hard X-rays (HXR), γ -rays, and microwaves at the beginning of a solar flare. Although these nonthermal emissions are undoubtedly associated with intense energy release processes, the mechanisms to accelerate particles are still unclear. The HXR nonthermal emission is explained with the bremsstrahlung emission, which is emitted by the nonthermal electrons with energies $E > 20$ keV. In the microwave range, on the other hand, the gyrosynchrotron emission is the most promising for nonthermal emission. The microwave-emitting electrons have relatively higher energies (~ 1 MeV). Although HXR and microwave emissions have shown a lot of similarities, it has been also reported that an electron spectral index derived from HXR emissions is often larger (softer) than that derived from microwave emissions, and the temporal behaviors of the spectral indices are totally different between HXR and microwave.

In order to study such similarities/dissimilarities on the nonthermal emissions, we examined in detail the coronal nonthermal emissions during the preflare phase of the X4.8 flare that occurred on 2002 July 23, spatially, temporally and spectroscopically [1]. In the previous paper [2], we reported that nonthermal emission sources are clearly seen in microwaves and in HXR during the preflare phase (Fig. 1). By using the microwave data obtained by Nobeyama Radioheliograph (NoRH), we derived a spectral index for the microwave emission source. By following the gyrosynchrotron emission model, we further derived the spectral index of the accelerated electron. Although the gyrosynchrotron emission strongly depends on the magnetic field strength in the corona, which is very difficult to measure, we can roughly assume that $B_0 = 150$ gauss from other

observational results. Finally, we got the spectral index of about 4.7, and the number density of nonthermal electrons as $N_{20\text{keV}} \sim 4.8 \times 10^8$ electrons cm^{-3} with the low energy cut-off of 20 keV.

Then, we investigate the spectral index of the HXR emission source by using the *Reuven Ramaty High Energy Solar Spectroscopic Imager (RHESSI)* data. The intensity of the core region clearly shows the power-law distribution. We could adopt the thin-target bremsstrahlung model to derive an electron power-law index, since the HXR source is located on the loop-top, where is almost the same location as the nonthermal emission source seen in microwaves. Assuming the thin-target model for the HXR emission, the spectral index of the accelerated electrons is derived as 4.7, which is almost the same as that from the NoRH microwave data. This implies that the distribution of the accelerated electrons follows a single power-law. We can further estimate the number density of the HXR-emitting electron in the core region to be $N_{20\text{keV}} = 5.1 \times 10^6$ electrons cm^{-3} with the lower energy cut-off of 20 keV. These results on the accelerated electrons are, however, about two orders of magnitude less than those from the microwave emission.

The gap of the number density is reduced if we assume low ambient plasma density for the HXR-emitting region. If we adopt the thick-target model for the HXR emission source, however, the electron spectral index (~ 6.7) is much different, while the gap of the number density of the accelerated electrons is somewhat reduced.

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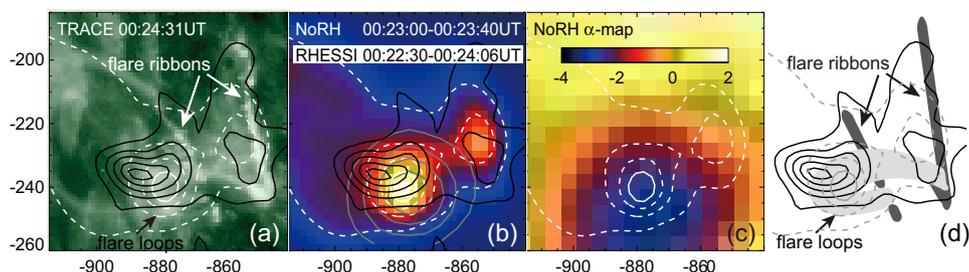


Figure 1: Images for the preflare phase of the flare. (a) the EUV image taken with *TRACE* 195 Å at 00:24:31 UT. (b) (c) show the microwave image of NoRH 34 GHz and the map of NoRH α index. (d) shows the positions of the flare ribbons (dark gray regions) and the flare loops (light gray). We overlaid the contour images of NoRH 34 GHz and of the *RHESSI* 30–40 keV with the white dashed and with black solid lines, respectively.

Multiple Plasmoid Ejections and Associated Hard X-ray Bursts in the 2000 November 24 Flare

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We present an examination of the GOES X2.3 class flare that occurred at 14:51 UT on 2000 November 24 [1].

The Soft X-ray Telescope (SXT) on board *Yohkoh* revealed that the a soft X-ray emitting plasma ejection, or plasmoid ejection, is sometimes observed in solar flares. It was also found that the plasmoids show blob-like or loop-like shapes and that the strong acceleration of the plasmoid ejection occurs during the peak time of the hard X-ray emission. Their ejection velocities are typically several hundred km s^{-1} and the ejected plasma is heated to more than 10 MK before the onset of the ejection.

The standard CSHKP flare model, which includes a filament/ plasmoid ejection, was extended, to unify reconnection and plasmoid ejection. The model stresses the importance of the plasmoid ejection in a reconnection process, and is called the “plasmoid-induced reconnection” model. The plasmoid, in that model, inhibits reconnection and stores magnetic energy in a current sheet. However, once it is ejected, inflow is induced because of the mass conservation, resulting in the enhancement of reconnection rate and the acceleration of the plasmoid due to the faster reconnection outflow. Reconnection theories, furthermore, predict several plasmoids of various scales are generated. The dynamics of plasmoid formation in the solar flare and their subsequent plasmoid ejection affect the reconnection rate in the nonlinear evolution. Therefore, plasmoid ejections are observational evidence of magnetic reconnection of solar flares.

In the SXT images we found “multiple” plasmoid ejections with velocities in the range of 250–1500 km/s (Fig. 1). Furthermore, we also found that each plasmoid ejection is associated with an impulsive burst of hard X-ray emission (Fig. 2). Although some correlation between plasmoid ejection and hard X-ray emission has been discussed previously, our observation shows similar behavior for multiple plasmoid ejection such that each plasmoid ejection occurs during the strong energy release of the solar flare. As a result of temperature- emission measure analysis of such plasmoids, it was revealed that the apparent velocities and kinetic energies of the plasmoid ejections show a correlation with the peak intensities in the hard X-ray emissions.

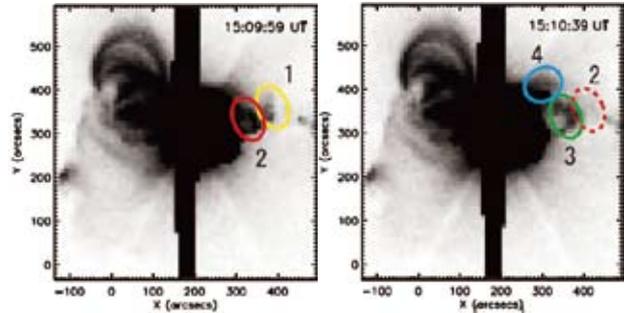


Figure 1: The snapshot images of multiple plasmoid ejections associated with a flare on 2000 November 24 taken with *Yohkoh*/SXT. Each plasmoid ejection is marked with a colored circle.

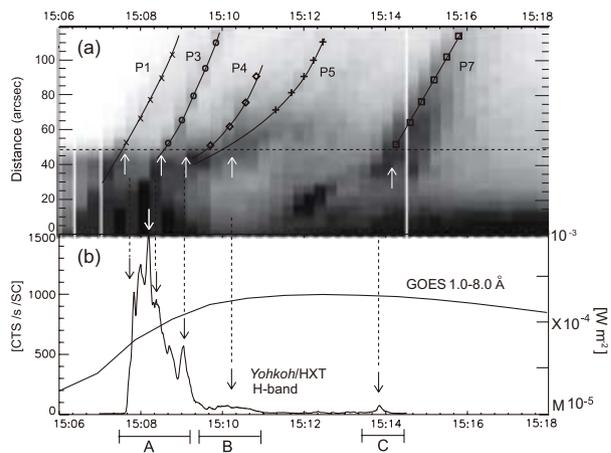


Figure 2: (a) Apparent height of the ejected plasmoids. Time slice image is obtained with *Yohkoh*/SXT. The signs are plotted over the time slice image in figure. (b) Counting rates of hard X-ray emission observed with the H-band (52.7–92.8 keV channel) of *Yohkoh*/HXT and the corresponding GOES soft X-ray light curve.

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