Basic Nuclear Physics – 2

Nuclear Reactions

Glatzmaier and Krumholz 7,8
Prialnik 4
Pols 6
Clayton 4

A nuclear reaction turns one nucleus to another. We have already discussed several kinds:

Beta decay, electron capture, positron emission

Alpha decay and fission (technically everything heavier iron is unstable)

Neutron or proton drip

http://www.nndc.bnl.gov/wallet/wc8.html

Here we expand the discussion to include fusion reactions where two (or rarely more) nuclei come together to produce a third, often with the emission of some lighter particles and energy.

The generic binary fusion reaction is:

$$I+j \rightarrow L+k$$
 or $I(j,k)L$

I(j,k)L

I = Target nucleus j = incident particle

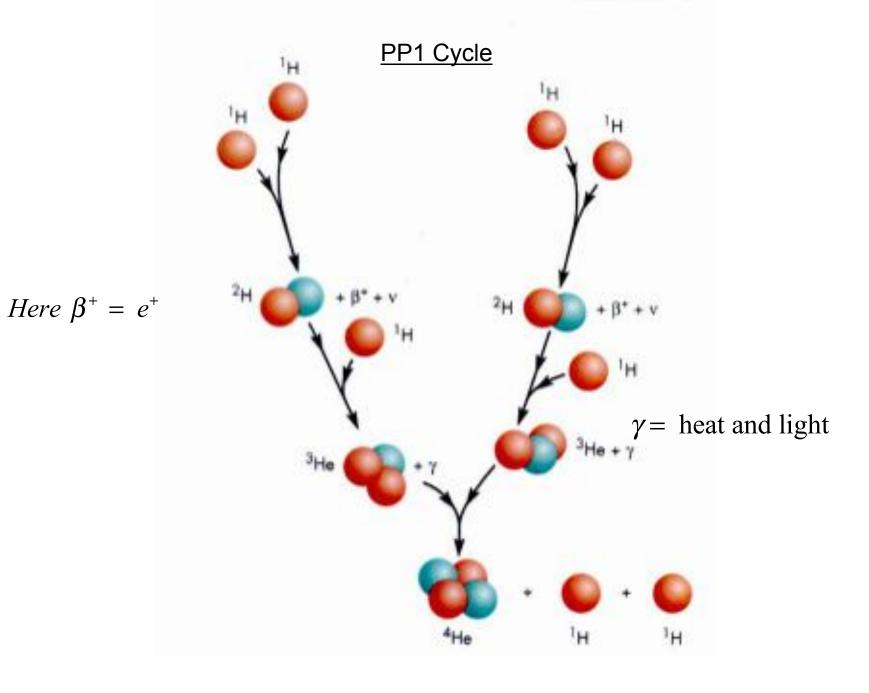
L = Product nucleus k = outgoing particle or particles

If there is no incident particle put the outgoing particles together without a comma

E.g., pp1; the main reaction sequence powering the sun

$$p(p,e^+v)^2H(p,\gamma)^3He(^3He, 2p)^4He$$

The symbol γ in the second reaction is is sort of a catch-all for energy that comes out in forms other than neutrinos, electrons, and positrons. Energy comes out as photons as well as kinetic energy (heat).



The cross section for the reaction I(j,k)L is

$$\sigma_{jk}(I) = \frac{\text{number of reactions/nucleus I/sec}}{\text{number of incident particles j/cm}^2/\text{sec}}$$

 σ thus has units of cm² though other units of area are sometimes used (typically "barns" are the unit in nuclear physics; 1 barn = 10^{-24} cm² as in "big as a barn")

The reaction rate for the reaction I (j,k) L is given by the product of the number densities of the reactants times their relevant speed and cross section. $n_j v$ can loosely be thought of as the flux of particles j on a nucleus of species I

$$n_I n_j \sigma_{Ij} V$$

This has units of reactions cm⁻³ s⁻¹

It is more convenient to write things in terms of the Y's previously defined **Y**

$$Y_{I} = \frac{X_{I}}{A_{I}} \qquad n_{I} = \rho N_{A} Y_{I} \qquad \left(\frac{gm}{cm^{3}}\right) \left(\frac{atoms}{Mole}\right) \left(\frac{Mole}{gm}\right)$$

so that the rate becomes

$$(\rho N_A)^2 Y_I Y_i \sigma_{Ii} v$$

and a term in a rate equation decribing the destruction of I might be

$$\frac{dY_{I}}{dt} = -\rho Y_{I} Y_{j} N_{A} \left\langle \sigma_{jk}(I) \mathbf{v} \right\rangle + \dots$$

$$= -\rho Y_{I} Y_{j} \lambda_{jk}(I) + \dots$$
Equivalent to
$$\frac{dn_{I}}{dt} = -n_{I} n_{j} \left\langle \sigma_{Ij} \mathbf{v} \right\rangle + \dots$$

Here $\langle \ \rangle$ denotes a suitable average over energies and angles and the reactants are usually assumed to be in thermal equilibrium.

For a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of reactant energies the average of the cross section times velocity is

$$\left\langle \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{jk}(I)\mathbf{v} \right\rangle = 4\pi \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} \int_{0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{jk}(\mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v}^{3} e^{-\mu \mathbf{v}^{2}/2kT} d\mathbf{v}$$

$$\left\langle \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{jk}(I)\mathbf{v} \right\rangle = \left(\frac{8}{\pi\mu}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{kT}\right)^{3/2} \int_{0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{jk}(E) E e^{-E/kT} dE$$

where μ is the "reduced mass"

$$\mu = \frac{M_I m_j}{M_I + m_i}$$

for the reaction I (j, k) L and E = $\frac{1}{2}\mu v^2$ is the kinetic energy in the center of mass frame.

For T in 10^9 K = 1 GK, σ in barns (1 barn = 10^{-24} cm²), E₆ in MeV, and k = 1/11.6045 MeV/GK, the thermally averaged rate factor in cm³ s⁻¹ is

$$\langle \sigma_{jk} v \rangle = \frac{6.197 \times 10^{-14}}{\hat{A}^{1/2} T_9^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty \sigma_{jk}(E_6) E_6 e^{-11.6045 E_6/T_9} dE_6$$

$$\hat{A} = \frac{A_I A_j}{A_I + A_j} \quad \text{for the reaction I(j,k)L}$$

If you know σ_{jk} from the lab, or a calculation, just put it in and integrate. But often we don't know the cross section at all, or know it in a limited energy range or only at a few points. How to estimate, interpolate, extrapolate?

The Cross Section

$$\lambda = \frac{\hbar}{p} = \frac{1}{k}$$

Area subtended by a de Broglie wavelength in the c/m system

$$\sigma(E) = \pi \lambda^2 \quad P(E) \quad \mathbf{X}(E, A)$$

geometry penetration factor term (Cla 4-180)

probability a flux of particles with energy E at infinity will reach the nuclear surface. Must account

for charges and QM reflection.

How much the nucleus I+j looks like the target nucleus I with j sitting at its surface. Liklihood of staying inside R once you get there.

nuclear structure

see Clayton Chapter 4

 $\hat{\lambda}$ is the de Broglie wavelenth in the c / m system

$$\pi \lambda^2 = \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{\mu^2 v^2} = \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{2\mu E} = \frac{0.656 \text{ barns}}{\hat{A} \text{ E(MeV)}}$$

where $1 \text{barn} = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$ is large for a nuclear cross section.

$$\mu = \frac{M_1 M_2}{M_1 + M_2}$$

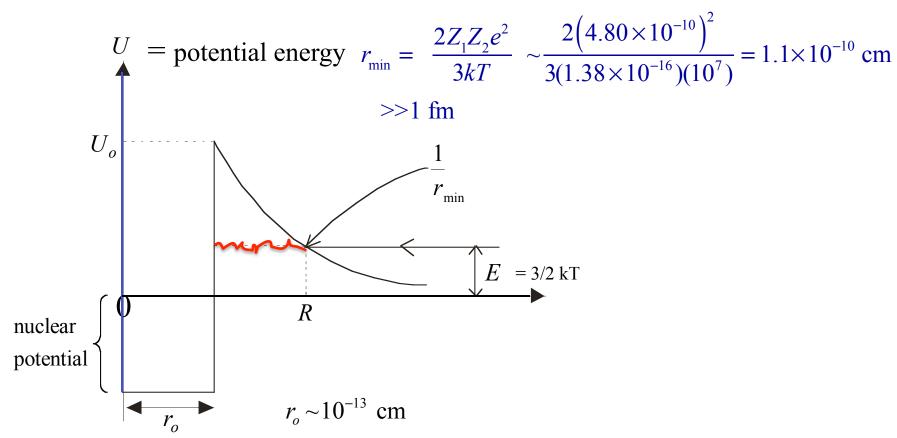
$$\hat{A} = \frac{A_1 A_2}{A_1 + A_2} \sim 1$$
 for neutrons and protons on heavy nuclei

~ 4 for α -particles if A_I is large, >> 1

Classical turning radius

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^{2} = KE = \frac{Z_{1}Z_{2}e^{2}}{r}$$

$$\frac{3}{2}kT = \frac{Z_{1}Z_{2}e^{2}}{r}$$



QM Barrier Penetration

The classical turning radius is given by

energy conservation

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = KE = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r} \implies r_{classical} = \frac{2Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{mv^2}$$

The De Broglie wavelenth of the particle with mass m is,

$$\lambda = \frac{\hbar}{p} = \frac{\hbar}{mv}$$

So the ratio

$$\frac{r_{classical}}{\lambda} = \frac{2Z_1Z_2e^2}{mv^2} \frac{mv}{\hbar} = \frac{Z_1Z_2e^2}{\hbar v} \equiv \eta$$
 The Sommerfeld parameter

Which is close to the factor in exponential in the penetration function

$$P \sim \exp(-r_{classical}/\lambda) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar v}\right)$$
 note: $r_{classical} >> \lambda$

Note that as the charges become big or E gets small, P gets very small.

For particles with charge, providing X(A,E) does not vary rapidly. with energy (exception to come), i.e., the nucleus is "structureless"

$$\sigma(E) = \pi \lambda^2 P_l X(A, E) \propto \frac{e^{-2\pi\eta}}{E}$$

This motivates the definition of an "S-factor" which should be ~ constant

$$S(E) = \sigma(E) E \exp(2\pi\eta)$$

$$\eta = \frac{Z_I Z_j e^2}{\hbar v} = 0.1575 Z_I Z_j \sqrt{\hat{A}/E}$$

$$\hat{A} = \frac{A_I A_j}{A_I + A_j} \qquad \text{E in MeV}$$

This S-factor should vary slowly with energy. The first order effects of the Coulomb barrier and Compton wavelength have been factored out.

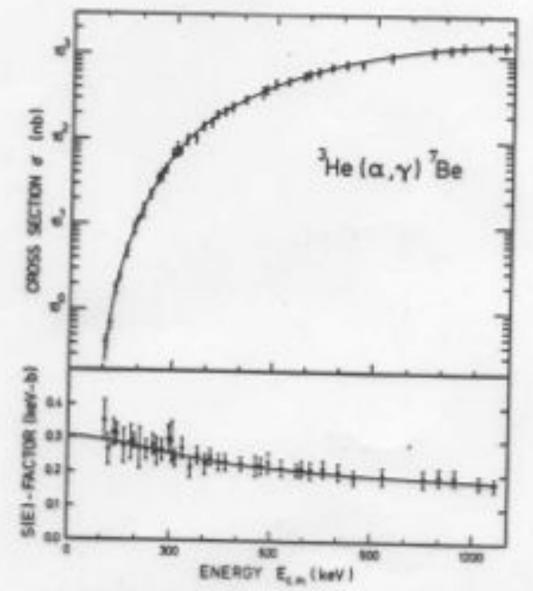


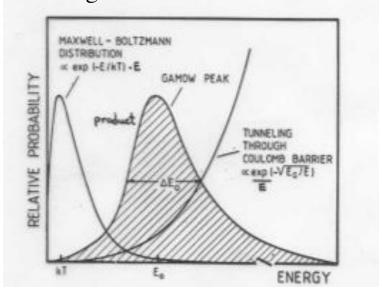
Figure 4:4. Energy dependence of the cross section $\sigma(E)$ and the factor S(E) for the ³He(a, γ)⁴Be reaction (Kräß2). The line through the data points represents a theoretical description of the cross section in terms of the direct-capture model. This theory is used to extrapolate the data to zero energy.

For those reactions in which S(E) is a slowly varying function of energy in the range of interest and can be approximated by its value at the energy where the integrand in the reaction rate formula is a maximum, E_0 ,

$$\sigma(E) \simeq \frac{S(E_0)}{E} \exp(-2\pi\eta)$$

$$N_A \langle \sigma v \rangle \approx N_A \left(\frac{8}{\pi\mu}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{kT}\right)^{3/2} S(E_0) \int_0^\infty \exp(-E/kT - 2\pi\eta(E)) dE$$
where $\eta(E) = \frac{Z_I Z_j e^2}{\hbar v} = 0.1575 \sqrt{\hat{A}/E(MeV)} Z_I Z_j$

The quantity in the integral looks like



For accurate calculations we would just enter the energy variation of S(E) and do the integral numerically. However, Pols 6.2.2 shows that

$$\exp\left(\frac{-E}{kT} - 2\pi\eta\right)$$
 can be replaced to good accuracy by

$$C \exp\left(\frac{-(E-E_0)^2}{(\Delta/2)^2}\right)$$
, i.e. a Gaussian

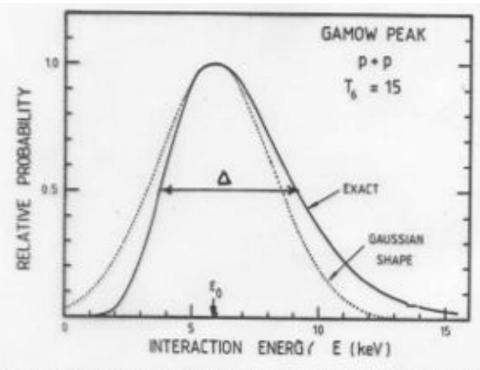


FIGURE 4.7. Curves for the Gamow peak for the $p \sim p$ reaction at $T_b = 15$, as obtained from the exact expression and from the approximation using the Gaussian function.

Detail:
$$\exp\left(\frac{-E}{kT} - 2\pi\eta\right) \approx C \exp\left(\frac{-(E - E_0)^2}{(\Delta/2)^2}\right)$$

1) Get E₀ from
$$\frac{d}{dE} \exp\left(\frac{-E}{kT} - 2\pi\eta\right) = 0$$

with
$$\eta = 0.1575 \sqrt{\hat{A}/E(MeV)} Z_I Z_j = \eta_0 / \sqrt{E(MeV)}$$

gives
$$E_0 = (\pi \eta_0 kT)^{2/3}$$

$$= \left(\pi(0.1575\hat{A}^{1/2}Z_IZ_j)kT\right)^{2/3}$$

$$=0.122 \left(Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A} T_9^2\right)^{1/3} \text{ MeV}$$

2) Evaluate C at E₀
$$= \exp\left(\frac{-(E-E_0)^2}{(\Delta/2)^2}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{-E}{kT} - 2\pi\eta\right)_{E_0}$$

gives
$$C = \exp\left(\frac{-E_0}{kT} - 2\pi\eta(E_0)\right) = \exp\left(\frac{-3E_0}{kT}\right)$$
 [Pols 6.2.2]

3) Δ is determined by matching the 2nd derivatives at E₀

[Pols 6.2.2]
$$\Delta = 4 \left(\frac{E_0 kT}{3} \right)^{1/2}$$

Detail:

Then if
$$\tau = \frac{3E_0}{kT}$$

$$\lambda \approx N_A \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{kT}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\tau} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(E) \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E - E_0}{\Delta/2}\right)^2\right] dE$$

Then if S(E) is constant in the vicinity of E_0

$$\lambda = N_A \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{kT}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\tau} S(E_0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E - E_0}{\Delta/2}\right)^2\right] dE$$

$$= N_A \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1}{kT}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\tau} S(E_0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\Delta_{FW}}{2} \quad \text{(Pols 6.2.7 with } \Delta_{1/2} \to \frac{\Delta_{FW}}{2}\text{)}$$
but $\Delta/(2(kT)^{3/2}) = \left(\frac{4}{9\sqrt{3}}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2\pi\eta_0}\right) \tau^2$
So $\lambda = N_A \langle \sigma v \rangle = N_A \left(\frac{2}{3\mu}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{8}{9}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2\pi\eta_0}\right) S(E_0) \tau^2 e^{-\tau}$

$$= \frac{4.34 \times 10^8}{\hat{A} Z_1 Z_i} S(E_0) \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \quad \text{[Pols 6.28]}$$

Summary

We replaced the exponential term with a Gaussian that was analytically integrable. Matching the first and second derivatives of the two functions, the maximum and full width of the Gaussian were determined

The peak is E_o , the *Gamow Energy*. This is the center-o-mass energy where most reactions happen. It is >>kT

$$E_o = 0.122 \left(Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A} T_9^2 \right)^{1/3} \text{ MeV}$$

$$\hat{A} = \frac{A_i A_j}{A_i + A_j}$$

$$T_0 = T / 10^9 \text{ K}$$

The Gaussian has a full width at 1/*e* times the maximum. This gives the range of interesting energies, e.g., in which the cross section needs to be measured.

$$\Delta = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} (E_o kT)^{1/2} = 0.237 \left(Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A} T_9^5 \right)^{1/6} \text{ MeV}$$

Example

3
He + 3 He at 1.5 × 10 7 K

$$E_o = 0.122 \left(Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A} T_9^2 \right)^{1/3} \text{ MeV}$$

$$= 0.122 \left(2^2 2^2 \frac{9}{6} (0.015)^2 \right)^{1/3} = 0.0214 \text{ MeV} = 21.4 \text{ keV}$$

$$\Delta = 0.237 \left(Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A} T_9^5 \right)^{1/6} \text{ MeV}$$

$$= 0.237 \left(2^2 2^2 \frac{9}{6} (0.015)^5 \right)^{1/6} = 0.0122 \text{ MeV} = 12.2 \text{ keV}$$

The relevant energy range in which we need to know S(E) is 21 ± 6 keV

The value of kT for comparison is 1.3 keV

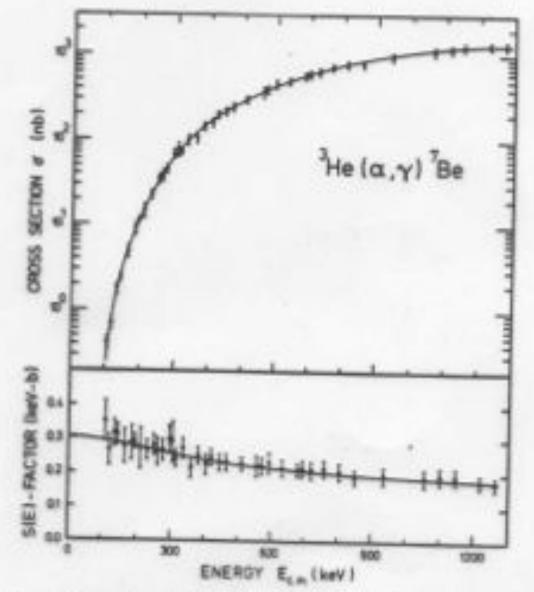


Figure 4rd. Energy dependence of the cross section $\sigma(E)$ and the factor S(E) for the ³He(a, γ)⁷Be reaction (Kräß2). The line through the data points represents a theoretical description of the cross section in terms of the direct-capture model. This theory is used to extrapolate the data to zero energy.

A Gaussian integral is analytic $\int_{0}^{\pi} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$ and so

$$N_A \langle \sigma v \rangle = \frac{4.34 \times 10^8}{\hat{A} Z_I Z_j} S(E_0) \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \text{ cm}^3 / \text{(Mole s)}$$

where $S(E_0)$ is measured in MeV barns. If we define

$$\lambda_{jk} = N_A \langle \sigma_{jk} v \rangle$$

then a term in the rate equation for species I such as $Y_j \rho \lambda_{jk}$ has units

$$\left(\frac{Mole}{gm}\right)\left(\frac{gm}{cm^3}\right)\left(\frac{cm^3}{Mole\ s}\right) = s^{-1}$$

Note that τ here is

Different people use different conventions for λ which sometimes do or do not include ρ or N_A . This defines mine.

$$\tau = \frac{3E_0}{kT} = 4.248 \left(\frac{Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A}}{T_9}\right)^{1/3}$$

The lifetime of the species I against the reaction I(j,k)L is given by

$$\tau_{jk}(I) = \left[\frac{1}{Y_i} \frac{dY_i}{dt}\right]_{jk}^{-1} = \left(\rho Y_j \lambda_{jk}(I)\right)^{-1}$$

E.g., the lifetime of ¹⁴N against the reaction ¹⁴N $(p,\gamma)^{15}O$ is

$$\tau_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N) = \left(\rho Y_{\rho} \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N)\right)^{-1}$$

Adelberger et al, RMP, (1998)

TABLE I. Best-estimate low-energy nuclear reaction crosssection factors and their estimated 1σ errors.

Reaction	S(0) (keV b)	S'(0) (b)
$^{1}{\rm H}(p,e^{+}\nu_{e})^{2}{\rm H}$	$4.00(1\pm0.007^{+0.020}_{-0.011})\times10^{-22}$	4.48×10^{-24}
$^{1}{\rm H}(pe^{-},\nu_{e})^{2}{\rm H}$	Eq. (19)	
$^{3}\text{He}(^{3}\text{He},2p)^{4}\text{He}$	$(5.4\pm0.4)^{a}\times10^{-3}$	
3 He $(\alpha, \gamma)^{7}$ Be	0.53 ± 0.05	-3.0×10^{-4}
$^{3}\text{He}(p,e^{+}\nu_{e})^{4}\text{He}$	2.3×10^{-20}	
$^{7}\text{Be}(e^{-}, \nu_{e})^{7}\text{Li}$	Eq. (26)	
$^{7}\mathrm{Be}(p,\gamma)^{8}\mathrm{B}$	$0.019^{+0.004}_{-0.002}$	See Sec. VIII.A
$^{14}{ m N}(p,\gamma)^{15}{ m O}$	$3.5^{+0.4}_{-1.6}$	See Sec. IX.A.5

$$\lambda \propto f(T) = \tau^2 e^{-\tau}$$
 $\tau = \frac{A}{T^{1/3}}$ $\frac{d\tau}{dT} = -\frac{A}{3T^{4/3}} = -\frac{\tau}{3T}$

$$\frac{df}{dT} = 2\tau e^{-\tau} \frac{d\tau}{dT} - \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \frac{d\tau}{dT}$$

$$\frac{T}{f} \left(\frac{df}{dT} \right) = \frac{T}{\tau^2 e^{-\tau}} (2\tau e^{-\tau}) (-\frac{\tau}{3T}) - \frac{T}{\tau^2 e^{-\tau}} (\tau^2 e^{-\tau}) (-\frac{\tau}{3T})$$

$$= \left(\frac{d \ln f}{d \ln T}\right) = \frac{\tau - 2}{3}$$

$$\therefore f \propto T^n \qquad n = \frac{\tau - 2}{3}$$

For example, ${}^{12}C + {}^{12}C$ at 8 x 10⁸ K

$$\tau = 4.248 \left(\frac{6^2 6^2 \frac{12 \cdot 12}{12 + 12}}{0.8} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$= 90.66$$

$$n = \frac{90.66 - 2}{3} = 29.5$$

$$p + p$$
 at 1.5 x 10^7 K

$$\tau = 4.248 \left(\frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1 \cdot 1}{1 + 1}}{0.015} \right)^{1/3}$$
$$= 13.67$$

$$n = \frac{13.67 - 2}{3} = 3.89$$

Resonant reactions

The previous discussion was predicated upon the assumption that the nuclear structure factor \mathbf{X} was slowly varying with energy. This led to an S-factor that was also nearly constant.

This turns out to be the case when the excited state structure of the nucleus can be ignored. But suppose I and j come together at the Gamow energy to produce L in an excited state that has just the right spin, angular momentum, and parity to closely resemble I + j.

Such reactions are called "resonant" and the cross section in a narrow energy range can be many of orders of magnitude larger than if the resonant state were not there. See appendix to these notes.

Specific Reactions in Hydrogen and Helium Burning

- pp1 chain
- pp2 and pp3 chains
- CNO cycle
- 3-alpha and $^{12}\text{C}(\alpha,\gamma)^{16}\text{O}$

Proton-proton reaction (the basic first step for pp1, 2, 3):

$$p(p,e^+v_e^-)^2$$
H (+0.42 MeV)

This cross section is far too small (~10⁻⁴⁷ cm² at 1 MeV) to measure in the laboratory but it does have a nearly constant, calculable S-factor.

Two stages:

- Temporarily form diproton. The initial wave function is the same as for proton scattering. Initially the diproton must have its protons spins counter alligned because can't have protons in identical states. Unbound.
- Diproton experiences a weak interaction (with a spin flip) to make deuteron with the neutron and proton alligned. Higher this is more tightly bound than the counter alligned state

So now we have protons, 4He, and 2H. Next

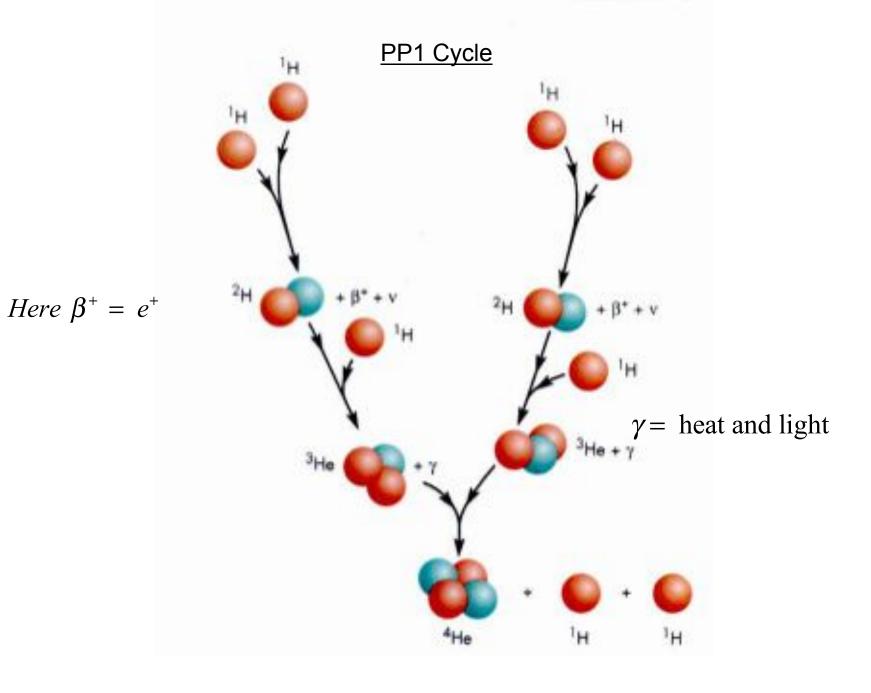
$$^{2}H + p \rightarrow {}^{3}He + \gamma + 5.49 \,\text{MeV}$$

no weak interaction needed, very fast or H(p, y) He. This may be followed by either

$$a)^{3}He + {}^{3}He \rightarrow {}^{4}He + 2p + 12.86 \,\text{MeV}$$
 pp1

⁴Li is unbound

$$b)^{3}He + {}^{4}He \rightarrow {}^{7}Be + \gamma + 1.59MeV$$
 pp2,3





H. A. Bethe (b 1906) Nobel 1967

Lifetimes against various reactions

Reaction	Lifetime (years)	
¹ H(p,e ⁺ ν) ² H	7.9 x 10 ⁹	
${}^{2}\text{H}(p,\gamma){}^{3}\text{He}$	4.4 x 10 ⁻⁸	
³ He(³ He,2p) ⁴ He	2.4 x 10 ⁵	
3 He(4 He, γ) 7 B	9.7×10^{5}	

For 50% H, 50% He at a density of 100 g cm⁻³ and a temperature of 15 million K

The time between proton collisions, for a given proton, is about a hundred millionth of a second.

Nuclear energy yield

How much energy is produced and how fast is it liberated. We could just add up the energies of each reaction and divide that number by the time scale for the slowest reaction. Instead let's solve the general problem (make things easier in the future).

We have a set of nuclei $\{Y_i\}$ that is transformed into a new set $\{Y_i+\delta Y_i\}$. Each nucleus has binding energy BE_i in MeV.

$$q_{nuc} = 1.602 \times 10^{-6} N_A [\sum (\delta Y_i) (BE_i - q_{weak})] \text{ erg/gm}$$

Here 1.602×10^{-6} is the conversion factor from MeV (which are the units of BE) to erg. q_{weak} is a correction term that is only non zero for weak interactions. It accounts for neutrinos lost and mass changes when protons and electrons turn to neutrons or vice versa.

q_{weak}

Basically important *only in hydrogen burning* q_{weak} accounts for the neutron proton mass
difference, the creation and annihilation of positrons, and energy lost to neutrinos

$$\mathbf{q}_{weak} = \Delta Z * [(n-p \text{ mass difference}) + m_e c^2] - q_{v}$$

$$= \Delta Z * [1.294 \text{ MeV-} 0.511 \text{ MeV }] - q_{v}$$

$$= \Delta Z * [0.783 \text{ MeV }] - q$$

Example: Hydogen burning

a)
$$100\% \, ^{1}\text{H} \rightarrow {}^{4}\text{He}$$
 $\delta Y(^{1}\text{H}) = -1$ $BE(^{1}\text{H}) = 0$ $\delta Y(^{4}\text{He}) = \frac{1}{4}$ $BE(^{4}\text{He}) = 28.296 \,\text{MeV}$

From previous page $q_{weak} = -2.09$

$$q=9.65\times10^{17} \left(\frac{28.296-2.09}{4}\right) = 6.32\times10^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1}$$

b)
$$70\%^{1}$$
H; $30\%^{4}$ He \rightarrow^{4} He $\delta Y(^{1}$ H) = -0.7
 $\delta Y(^{4}$ He) = $\frac{1}{4} - \frac{0.3}{4}$
 $q = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{0.3}{4}\right) (28.296 - 2.09) = 4.42 \times 10^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1}$

$$BE(^{12}C) = 92.162 \text{ MeV}$$
 $BE(^{16}O) = 127.619$ values for helium burning
 $BE(\alpha) = 28.296 \text{ MeV}$
 $q_{\text{weak}} = 0$

A related quantity, the energy generation rate is given by

$$\varepsilon_{nuc} = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \sum_{i} \frac{dY_i}{dt} \left(BE_i - q_{weak}\right) \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

Additional nuclear physics needed for post-helium burning stages will be covered when we treat the advanced burning stages of massive stars later in the course.

For hydrogen burning by the pp1 process

We could include all the reactions and evaluate $\frac{dY_i}{dt}$ for each species but it is much easier to just realize that the net result is that every time 4 protons are burned by the reaction $p(p,e^+v)$, one ⁴He appears. So

$$\frac{dY(^{4}He)}{dt} = -\frac{1}{4} \frac{dY(^{1}H)}{dt} = \frac{1}{4} 2\rho Y^{2}(^{1}H) \lambda_{pp} = \frac{1}{2} \rho Y^{2}(^{1}H) \lambda_{pp}$$

$$\varepsilon_{nuc} = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \sum_{i} \frac{dY_{i}}{dt} (BE_{i} - q_{weak}) \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{9.65 \times 10^{17}}{2} \rho Y^{2}(^{1}H) (26.2) \lambda_{pp}$$

$$= 1.26 \times 10^{19} \rho Y^{2}(^{1}H) \lambda_{pp} \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

Previously we showed

$$\lambda = \frac{4.34 \times 10^8}{\hat{A} Z_I Z_i} S(E_0) \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \text{ cm}^3 / (\text{Mole s})$$

for the pp reaction $\hat{A} = 1*1/(1+1) = 1/2$

$$\tau = 4.248 \left(\frac{Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A}}{T_9} \right)^{1/3} = 4.248 \left(\frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1/2}{T_9} \right)^{1/3}$$

$$= 3.37 \ T_9^{-1/3} = 33.7 \ T_6^{-1/3}$$

$$S_0 = 4.0 \times 10^{-22} \text{ keV b} = 4.0 \times 10^{-25} \text{ MeV b}$$

$$\lambda_{pp} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{4.34 \times 10^8}{1/2} \ 4.0 \times 10^{-25} \left(\frac{33.7}{T_6^{1/3}} \right)^2 e^{-33.7/T_6^{1/3}}$$

$$= 1.97 \times 10^{-13} T_6^{-2/3} e^{-33.7/T_6^{1/3}}$$

Compare with Clayton 5.11

Putting it together

$$\varepsilon$$
 =1.26×10¹⁹·1.97×10⁻¹³ $\rho Y_H^2 T_6^{-2/3} e^{-33.7/T_6^{1/3}}$ erg g⁻¹ s⁻¹ e.g. ρ =150 g cm⁻³ T₆ =15 Y_H =0.35
$$\varepsilon$$
 =(2.48×10⁶)(150)(0.35)² (15)^{-2/3} $e^{-13.66}$ erg g⁻¹ s⁻¹ =8.7 erg g⁻¹ s⁻¹

Given our previous discussion this can also be written

as a power law of the temperature with $n = \frac{\tau - 2}{3}$

$$\tau = 33.7 / (15)^{1/3} = 13.66 \Rightarrow n = 3.89$$

So
$$\varepsilon_{pp} \approx 8.7 \left(\frac{\rho}{150 \,\mathrm{g \, cm^{-3}}}\right) \left(\frac{Y_H}{0.35}\right)^2 \left(\frac{T}{15 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{K}}\right)^{3.89} \,\mathrm{erg} \,\mathrm{g}^{-1} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$$

Reality checks:

1) Energy budget for the sun

$$Q_{\odot} = L_{\odot} \tau_{MS}(\odot) \approx (4 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1})(10^{10} \text{ yr})(3.16 \times 10^{7} \text{ s/yr})$$

 $\sim 1 \times 10^{51} \text{ erg}$
 $Q_{nuc} \approx (4.4 \times 10^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-})(0.1)(M_{\odot})$
 $= (4.4 \times 10^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1})(2 \times 10^{32} \text{ g}) = 9 \times 10^{50} \text{ erg}$

2) Luminosity of the sun

$$L_{\odot} = 3.84 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg s}^{-1}$$

 $\varepsilon_{pp} \cdot (0.1 M_{\odot}) \sim 9 \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} (2 \times 10^{32} \text{ g}) \sim 2 \times 10^{33} \text{erg s}^{-1}$

Could adjust Y_{μ}, T, ρ , or fraction burning to get better agreement

3) Lifetime

$$\tau_{MS} \sim \tau_{pp} = \left(Y_{H} / \frac{dY_{H}}{dt}\right)^{-1}$$

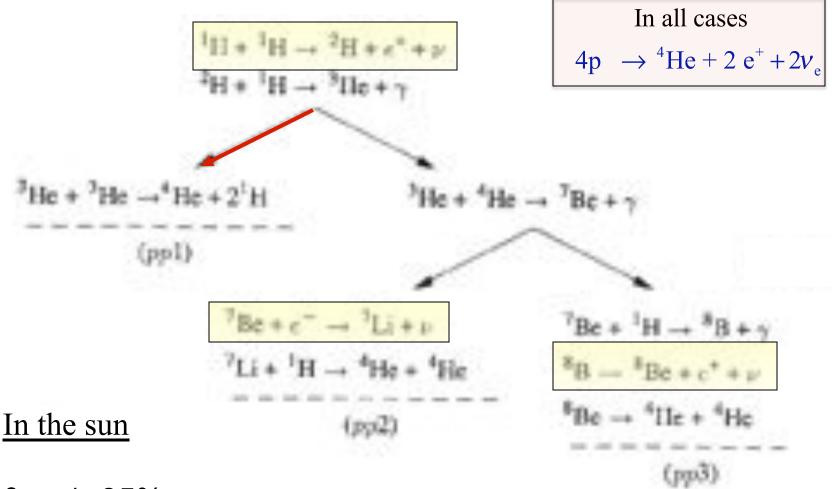
$$= \left(\frac{Y_{H}}{\rho Y_{H}^{2} \lambda_{pp}}\right)^{-1}$$

$$= (1.97 \times 10^{-13} \, \rho Y_{H} T_{6}^{-2/3} \, e^{-33.7 / T_{6}^{1/3}})^{-1}$$
At $\rho = 150 \, \text{g cm}^{-3}$; $T_{6} = 15$; $Y_{H} = 0.7$

$$\tau_{MS} \sim \left((2x10^{-13})(150)(0.7)(0.164)(1.1x10^{-6})\right)^{-1}$$

$$= \left(3.8 \times 10^{-18}\right)^{-1} \, \text{s} = 8 \, \text{billion years}$$

pp2 and pp3 chains (more important at higher T)



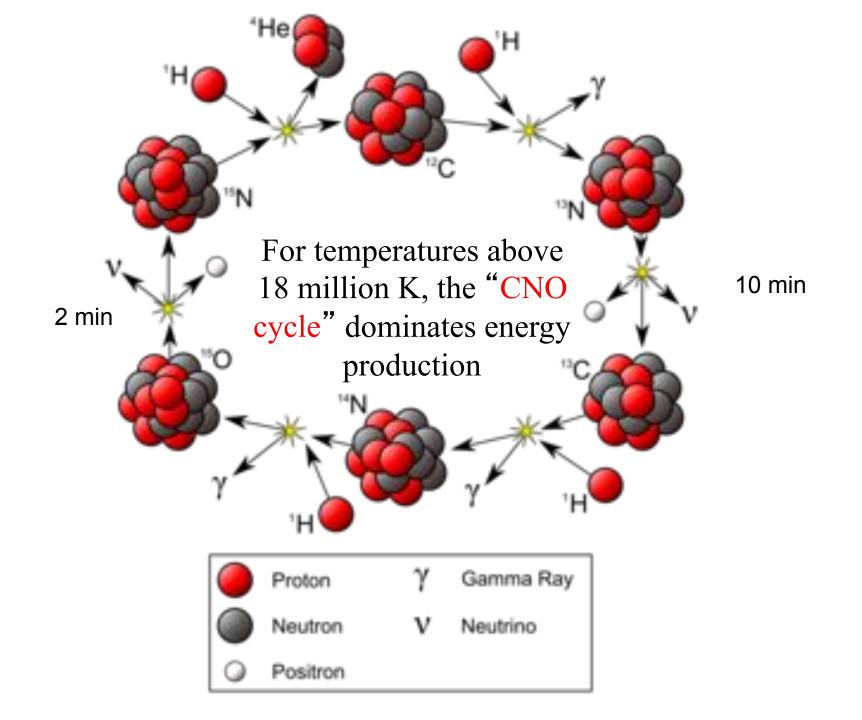
- pp1 85%
- pp2 15%
- pp3 0.02%

 $T_{central} = 15.7 \text{ Million K}$

Neutrino Energies

Species	Average energy	Maximum energy
р+р	0.267 MeV	0.420 MeV
⁷ Be	0.383 MeV 0.861	0.383 MeV 10% 0.861 90%
⁸ B	6.735 MeV	15 MeV

In the case of ⁸B and p+p, the energy is shared with a positron hence there is a spread. For ⁷Be the electron capture goes to two particular states in ⁷Li and the neutrino has only two energies



Detail

Rate equations:

$$\frac{dY(^{12}C)}{dt} = -Y(^{12}C)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{12}C) + Y(^{15}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\alpha}(^{15}N)
\frac{dY(^{13}N)}{dt} = Y(^{12}C)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{12}C) - Y(^{13}N)\lambda_{e^{+}}(^{13}N)
\frac{dY(^{13}C)}{dt} = Y(^{13}N)\lambda_{e^{+}}(^{13}N) - Y(^{13}C)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{13}C)
\frac{dY(^{14}N)}{dt} = Y(^{13}C)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{13}C) - Y(^{14}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N)
\frac{dY(^{15}O)}{dt} = Y(^{14}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}C) - Y(^{15}O)\lambda_{e^{+}}(^{13}N)
\frac{dY(^{15}N)}{dt} = Y(^{15}O)\lambda_{e^{+}}(^{13}N) - Y(^{15}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\alpha}(^{15}N)
\frac{dY_{\rho}}{dt} = -Y(^{12}C)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{12}C) - Y(^{13}C)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{13}C)
-Y(^{14}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N) - Y(^{15}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\alpha}(^{15}N)
\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} = Y(^{15}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\alpha}(^{15}N)$$

The slowest reaction is ${}^{14}N(p,\gamma){}^{15}O$ so for purposes of energy generation the rate equations can be approximately be written:

$$\frac{dY_{p}}{dt} = -4Y(^{14}N)Y_{p}\rho \lambda_{p\gamma}(^{14}N)$$

$$\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} = Y(^{14}N)Y_{p}\rho \lambda_{p\gamma}(^{14}N)$$
where $Y(^{14}N) \approx \frac{1}{14}(X_{c} + X_{N} + X_{o}) \approx \frac{Z}{14}$

One still needs to subtract off the energy carried away by neutrinos and adjust for n - p mass differences

$$q_{weak} = \Delta Z * [0.783 \text{ MeV}] + q_{_{_{V}}} = (2)(0.783) + 1.70$$

= 3.26 MeV

What is $\lambda_{p\gamma}(^{14}N)$?

The S factor for $^{14}N(p,\gamma)^{15}O$ is 1.64×10^{-3} MeV barns (including a recent downward revision)

$$\lambda = \frac{4.34 \times 10^8}{\hat{A} Z_I Z_i} S(E_0) \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \text{ cm}^3 / (\text{Mole s})$$

for the $^{14}N(p,\gamma)$ reaction $\hat{A} = 1*14/(14+1) = 14/15$

$$\tau = 4.248 \left(\frac{Z_I^2 Z_j^2 \hat{A}}{T_9} \right)^{1/3} = 4.248 \left(\frac{1 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 14 / 15}{T_9} \right)^{1/3}$$
$$= 15.19 \ T_0^{-1/3}$$

$$\lambda_{p\gamma}(^{14}N) = \frac{4.34 \times 10^8}{7(14/15)} \left(1.64 \times 10^{-3}\right) (15.19)^2 T_9^{-2/3} e^{-15.19/T_9^{1/3}}$$

$$= 2.51 \times 10^7 T_9^{-2/3} e^{-15.19/T_9^{1/3}}$$

=
$$1.69 \times 10^{-16}$$
 for example at $T_9 = 0.02$ (20 *M K*)

$$\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} = Y(^{14}N)Y_{\rho}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N)$$

$$\approx \frac{Y_{\rho}Z}{14}\rho \lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N)$$
At $T_{9} = 20$, $\tau = 56.0$, $n = \frac{\tau - 2}{3} = 18$

$$\lambda_{\rho\gamma}(^{14}N) \approx 1.7 \times 10^{-16} \left(\frac{T}{20MK}\right)^{18}$$

$$\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-17} \rho Y_{\rho}Z \left(\frac{T}{20MK}\right)^{18}$$

$$\varepsilon_{nuc} = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \sum_{i} \frac{dY_{i}}{dt} (BE_{i} - q_{weak}) \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

$$= 11.7 \rho Y_{\rho}Z \left(\frac{T}{20MK}\right)^{18} (28.296 - 3.26)$$

$$\varepsilon_{CNO} = 293 \ \rho Y_{p} Z \left(\frac{T}{20 MK}\right)^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{sec}^{-1}$$

Ratio of CNO energy generation to pp

$$\varepsilon_{CNO} = 293 \ \rho Y_{\rho} Z \left(\frac{T}{20 MK}\right)^{18} \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{sec}^{-1}$$

$$\varepsilon_{pp} = 1.26 \times 10^{19} \cdot 1.97 \times 10^{-13} \ \rho Y_p^2 T_6^{-2/3} e^{-33.7/T_6^{1/3}}$$

= 1.36
$$\rho Y_p^2 \left(\frac{T_9}{0.02}\right)^{3.89} \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

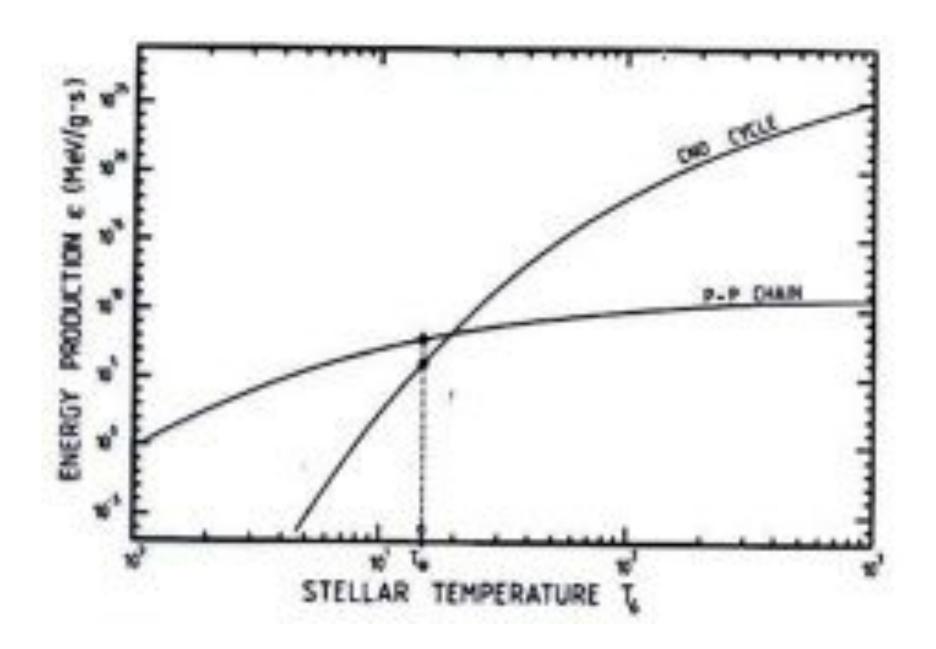
The ratio = 1 when

$$\frac{293}{1.36} \left(\frac{Z}{Y_{p}} \right) \left(\frac{T_{9}}{0.02} \right)^{14} = 1$$

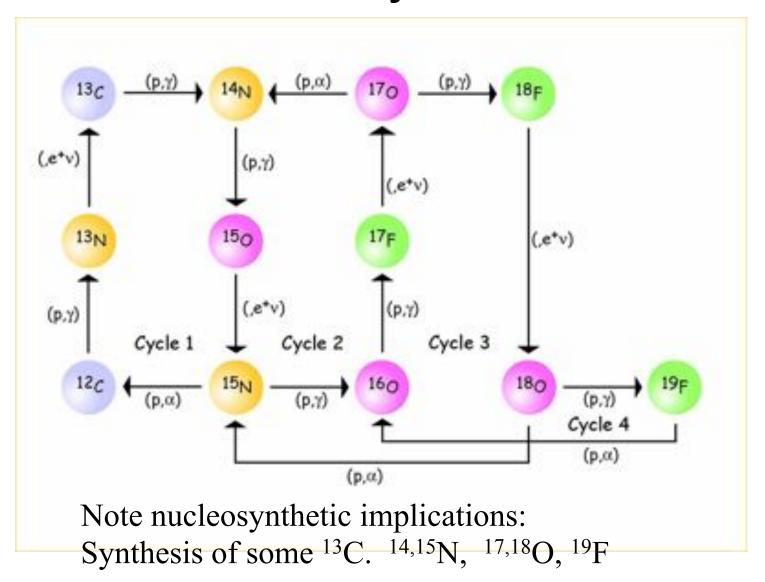
and if Z=0.015, $Y_p = 0.7$

$$4.62 \left(\frac{T_9}{0.02}\right)^{14} = 1 \qquad T_9 = 0.0179$$

CNO will dominate above about 18 MK

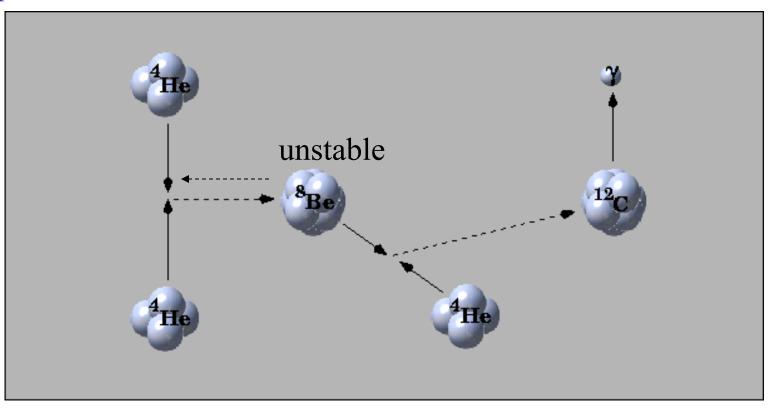


CNO Tri-cycle

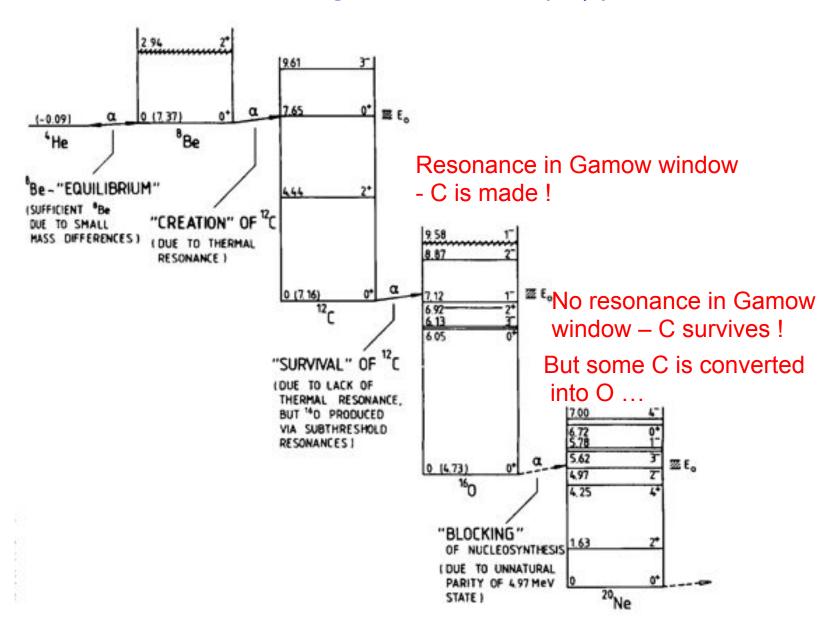


Helium Burning

Helium burning is a two-stage nuclear process in which two alpha-particles temporarily form the ground state of unstable ⁸Be*. Occasionally the ⁸Be* captures a third alpha-particle before it flies apart. No weak interactions are involved.



Helium burning 2 – the $^{12}C(\alpha,\gamma)$ rate



The current value is due to Caughlan and Fowler (1988) using mesurements from Sam Austin

$$\lambda_{3\alpha} = 2.79 \times 10^{-8} \text{ T}_{9}^{-3} \exp(-4.403/\text{T}_{9})$$
Slight revisions to Γ_{γ} here

 $T_{9} = \frac{d \ln \lambda}{d \ln T}$
0.1
0.2
19
$$= \frac{4.403}{T_{9}} - 3$$
0.3
12

Unlike most reactions in astrophysics, the temperature dependence here is not determined by barrier penetration but by the Saha equation. In fact, at high temperature ($T_9 > 1.5$) the rate saturates and actually begins to decline slowly as the resonance slips out of the Gamow window.

Helium Burning

$$\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} = -3 \rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} / 6 - Y_{\alpha} Y(^{12}C) \rho \lambda_{\alpha\gamma}(^{12}C)$$

$$\frac{dY(^{12}C)}{dt} = \rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} / 6 - Y_{\alpha} Y(^{12}C) \rho \lambda_{\alpha\gamma}(^{12}C)$$

$$\frac{dY(^{16}O)}{dt} = Y_{\alpha} Y(^{12}C) \rho \lambda_{\alpha\gamma}(^{12}C)$$

For binary reactions, $\lambda \equiv N_A \langle \sigma v \rangle$

For Y_{12} small or ρ large

$$\alpha \rightarrow {}^{12}C$$

For Y_{12} large or ρ small

$$\alpha \rightarrow {}^{16}O$$

Energy Generation from Helium Burning

BE(
4
He) = 28.296 MeV BE(12 C) = 92.162 MeV
BE(16 O) = 127.617 MeV
1) 3 4 He \rightarrow 12 C
 $q = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \sum (\delta Y_{i})(BE_{i}) \text{ erg/gm} \quad (q_{weak} = 0)$
 $= 9.65 \times 10^{17} \left[Y_{final}(^{12}C) BE(^{12}C) - Y_{initial}(^{4}He) BE(^{4}He) \right]$
 $= 9.65 \times 10^{17} \left[\frac{1}{12} 92.162 - \frac{1}{4} 28.296 \right]$
 $= 5.85 \times 10^{17} \text{ erg g}^{-1}$
2) 18 4 He \rightarrow 12 C + 4 16 O (i.e. $\frac{12}{76} = 15.8\%$ C 84.2%O)
 $= 9.65 \times 10^{17} \left[Y_{final}(^{12}C) BE(^{12}C) + Y_{final}(^{16}O) BE(^{16}O) - Y_{initial}(^{4}He) BE(^{4}He) \right]$
 $= 9.65 \times 10^{17} \left[\frac{1}{12} \frac{12}{76} 92.162 + \frac{1}{16} \frac{64}{76} 127.617 - \frac{1}{4} 28.296 \right]$

$$= 9.65 \times 10^{10} \left[\frac{1276}{1276} 92.162 + \frac{1676}{1676} 127.617 - \frac{1}{4} 28.296 \right]$$
$$= 8.25 \times 10^{17} \text{ erg g}^{-1}$$

Energy Generation from Helium Burning

$$\varepsilon_{nuc} = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \sum \frac{dY_i}{dt} (BE_i) \text{ erg g}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

$$\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} = -3 \rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} / 6 \quad \text{ignore}^{-12} C(\alpha, \gamma)^{16} O$$

$$\frac{dY(^{12}C)}{dt} = \rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} / 6$$

$$\varepsilon_{nuc} = 9.65 \times 10^{17} \sum \frac{dY_i}{dt} (BE_i)$$

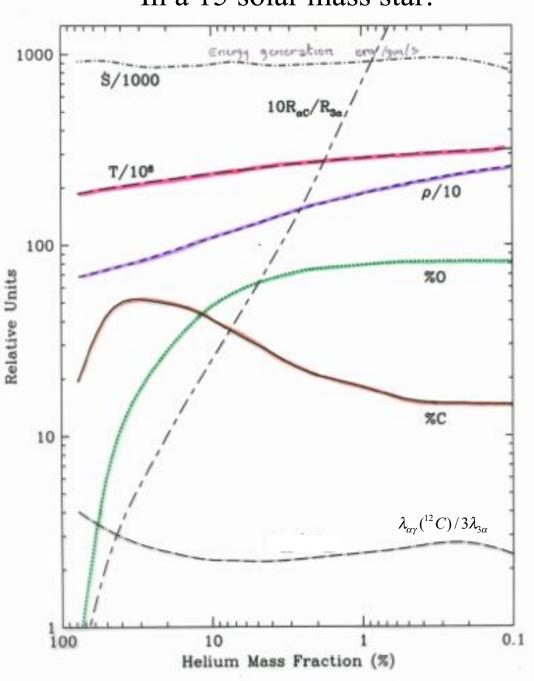
$$= 9.65 \times 10^{17} \rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} / 6 [92.162 - 3(28.296)]$$

$$= 1.83 \times 10^{16} \rho^2 X_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha}$$

$$= 1.83 \times 10^{16} \rho^2 X_{\alpha}^3 (2.79 \times 10^{-8} \text{ T}_9^{-3} \text{ exp } (-4.403 / \text{T}_9))$$

$$\varepsilon_{3\alpha} = 5.11 \times 10^8 \rho^2 X_{\alpha}^3 \text{ T}_9^{-3} \text{ exp } (-4.403 / \text{T}_9)$$
note typo in GK coeff off by 1000

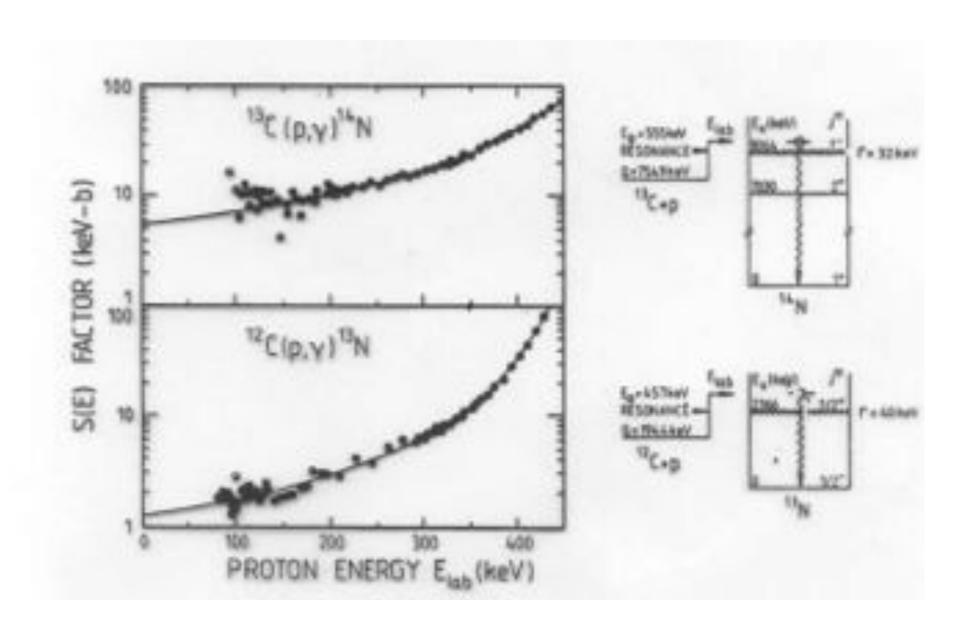
In a 15 solar mass star:



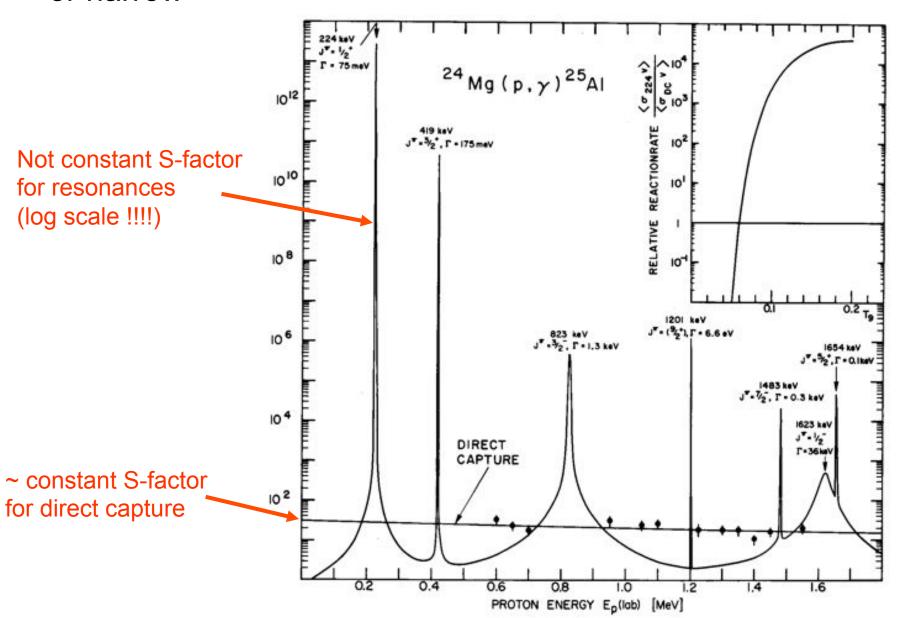
Extra Material

Resonant Reactions

The resonances can be broad



or narrow



If the resonance is much broader than the Gamow energy, then treat with the formalism we have already developed by with a slowly varying S-factor.

For narrow resonances though, width << the Gamow energy, another formalism is employed. This would take some time to develop, so here we just give the result.

Rate of reaction through a narrow resonance

Narrow means: $\Gamma << \Delta E$

In this case, the resonance energy must be "near" the relevant energy range ΔE to contribute to the stellar reaction rate.

Recall:
$$<\sigma v> = \sqrt{\frac{8}{\pi\mu}} \frac{1}{(kT)^{3/2}} \int\limits_0^\infty \sigma(E) E \, \mathrm{e}^{-\frac{E}{kT}} dE$$
 and
$$\sigma(E) = \pi \lambda^2 \; \omega \; \frac{\Gamma_1(E) \Gamma_2(E)}{(E-E_r)^2 + (\Gamma(E)/2)^2}$$

Here E_r is the energy of the resonance and the Γ 's are the partial widths of the state to break up into I+j, L+k, etc.

Then one can carry out the integration analytically (Clayton 4-193) and finds:

For the contribution of a single narrow resonance to the stellar reaction rate:

$$N_A < \sigma v >= 1.54 \cdot 10^{11} (AT_9)^{-3/2} \omega \gamma [\text{MeV}] e^{\frac{-11.605 \, \text{E}_r [\text{MeV}]}{\text{T}_9}} \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s mole}}$$

The rate is entirely determined by the "resonance strength" $\omega\gamma$

$$\omega \gamma = \frac{2J_r + 1}{(2J_j + 1)(2J_I + 1)} \frac{\Gamma_1 \Gamma_2}{\Gamma}$$

In general the reactions during the proton-proton cycles are non-resonant but the reactions for the CNO cycle and more advanced burning stages are resonant.

Light particle (n, p,
$$\alpha$$
): $\lambda_{jk} \equiv N_A \langle \sigma_{jk} v \rangle$

$$Y_{l}Y_{p} \rho \lambda_{p\gamma}(I); \quad Y_{l}Y_{n} \rho \lambda_{n\gamma}(I); \quad Y_{l}Y_{p} \rho \lambda_{p\alpha}(I)$$

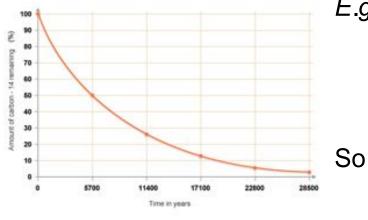
Heavy Ion

$$\frac{1}{6}Y_{\alpha}^{3}\lambda_{3\alpha}; \ \frac{1}{2}\rho Y^{2}(^{12}C)\lambda_{12,12}; \ \frac{1}{2}\rho Y^{2}(^{16}O)\lambda_{16,16}$$

Weak interaction (beta decay, electron capture, positron emission)

$$Y_{I} \lambda_{\beta}(I); \quad Y_{I} \lambda_{ec}(I); \quad Y_{I} \lambda_{\beta}(I) \qquad \lambda = \frac{\ln 2}{\tau_{1/2}}$$

Example of solving a rate equation



E.g. the decay of ¹⁴C

$$\frac{dY(^{14}C)}{dt} = -Y(^{14}C) \lambda_{\beta}(^{14}C)$$

 $Y(^{14}C) = Y_0(^{14}C) \exp(-\lambda_{\beta}(^{14}C) t)$

$$\tau_{1/2} = 5730 \ y = 1.81 \times 10^{11} \ \text{sec}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\ln 2}{1.81 \times 10^{11}} = 3.83 \times 10^{-12} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

E.g., pp1 hydrogen burning: $p(p,e^+v)^2H(p,\gamma)^3He(^3He,2p)^4He$

$$\begin{split} \frac{dY_{p}}{dt} &= -2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)Y_{p}^{2}\rho\,\lambda_{pp} + 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)Y^{2}(^{3}He)\rho\,\lambda_{3,3} \\ \frac{dY(^{2}H)}{dt} &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)Y_{p}^{2}\rho\,\lambda_{pp} - Y_{p}Y(^{2}H)\rho\,\lambda_{p\gamma}(^{2}H) \\ \frac{dY(^{3}He)}{dt} &= Y_{p}Y(^{2}H)\rho\,\lambda_{p\gamma}(^{2}H) - 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)Y^{2}(^{3}He)\rho\,\lambda_{3,3} \\ \frac{dY(^{4}He)}{dt} &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)Y^{2}(^{3}He)\rho\,\lambda_{3,3} \end{split}$$

The rate factors λ contain the temperature dependence of the rate equations. The density dependence has been separated out.