# A. Thermodynamic Conditions (Massive Stars)

For the most part covered previously  $\tau_{\rm He} \sim 10^6$  years (+- factor of three)

n=3  

$$M_{\alpha} = 18 \frac{\sqrt{1-\beta}}{\mu^2 \beta^4} \qquad \mu = \frac{4}{3} \text{ (for pure helium)} \qquad \text{solve for } \beta$$
  
 $T_c = 4.6 \times 10^6 \mu \beta \left(\frac{M_{\alpha}}{M_{\odot}}\right)^{2/3} \rho_c^{-1/3} \quad \text{K}$ 

E.g., 
$$M_{\alpha} = 6$$
 (a 20 M<sub>o</sub> main sequence star)

 $\beta = 0.83$  $T_c = 1.7 \times 10^8 \left(\frac{\rho_c}{1000 \,\mathrm{g \, cm^{-3}}}\right)^{1/3} \mathrm{K}$ 

need temperatures  $> 10^8$ to provide significant energy generation by  $3\alpha$ 

So, typical temperatures are  $2 \times 10^8$  K (higher in shell burning later) when densities are over 1000 gm cm<sup>-3</sup>. As the core evolves the temperature and density go up significantly. Note non-degenerate.

As discussed earlier during helium burning:

$$\frac{dY_{\alpha}}{dt} = -3\rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} - Y(^{12}C)Y_{\alpha}\rho\lambda_{\alpha\gamma}(^{12}C)$$
$$\frac{dY(^{12}C)}{dt} = \rho^2 Y_{\alpha}^3 \lambda_{3\alpha} - Y(^{12}C)Y_{\alpha}\rho\lambda_{\alpha\gamma}(^{12}C)$$
$$\frac{dY(^{16}O)}{dt} = Y(^{12}C)Y_{\alpha}\rho\lambda_{\alpha\gamma}(^{12}C)$$

Coulomb barrier and lack of favorable resonances inhibit alpha capture on <sup>16</sup>O.

From Schaller et al (1992) Z = 0.02 and central helium mass fra

Main sequence Mass	Current Mass	Approximate $M_{\alpha}$	T <sub>c</sub> /10 <sup>8</sup>	$p_{\rm c}/1000 {\rm ~g~cm^{-3}}$
12	11.66	3	1.76	1.42
15	14.24	4	1.83	1.12
20	18.10	) 6	1.92	0.831
25	20.40	) 8	1.99	0.674
40	20.7	12	2.11	0.470

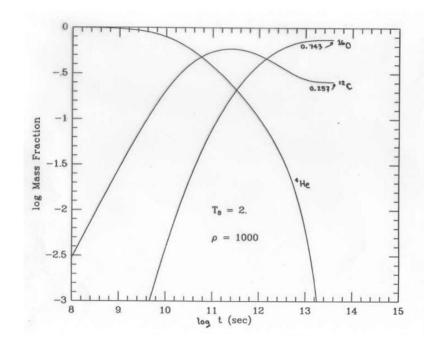
At 1.9 x 10<sup>8</sup> K, the temperature sensitivity of the  $3\alpha$ rate is approximately  $T^{20}$ .

rom Schaller et al (1992)	Z = 0.02 and central helium mass
raction of 50%.	

Nucleosynthesis During Helium Burning and the s-Process

# Several general features:

- <sup>12</sup>C production favored by large density; oxygen by lower density
- <sup>12</sup>C produced early on, <sup>16</sup>O later
- last few alpha particles burned most critical in setting ratio <sup>12</sup>C/<sup>16</sup>O
- Energy generation larger for smaller  ${}^{12}C/{}^{16}O$ .



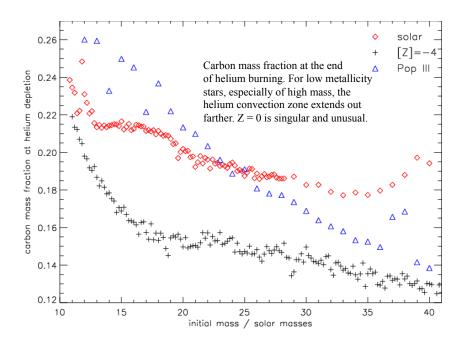
# B1. Principal Nucleosynthesis

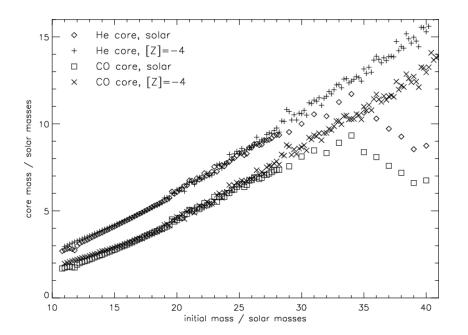
In massive stars after helium burning in the stars center (calculations included semiconvection).

	$\underline{M/M}_{\odot}$	$\underline{X(^{12}C)}$	$\underline{X(^{16}O)}$	$\underline{X(^{20}Ne)}$
In the sun, ${}^{12}C/{}^{16}O = 0.32$	12	0.247	0.727	1.91(-3)
	15	0.188	0.785	3.02(-3)
	19	0.153	0.815	6.44(-3)
	25	0.149	0.813	1.16(-2)
	35	0. 147	0.807	1.84(-2)

# Buchman ${}^{12}C(\alpha,\gamma){}^{16}O$ multiplied by 1.2.

If the star contains appreciable metals there is, as we shall see also  $^{22}\text{Ne}$  and  $^{18}\text{O.}$ 





B. <u>Trace</u> <u>Element</u> <u>Nucleosynthesis</u> - <u>Charged</u> <u>Particles</u> During hydrogen burning CNO → 14N so that at helium ignition

$$X({}^{(14}N) = 14(Y_i({}^{12}C) + Y_i({}^{14}N) + Y_i({}^{16}O))$$
  
= 0.013(Z/Z\_0)

Early during helium burning

NO. From this point onwards have a net neutron excess

$$\eta = 1 - 2Y_{e} -1 \le \eta \le 1$$
  
=  $\sum (N_{i} - Z_{i})Y_{i}$   $\eta = 0$  if  $Z = N$ 

Within uncertainties, helium burning in massive stars (over 8 solar masses) could be the origin in nature of  $^{12}C$ . It is definitely the origin of  $^{16}O$ 

#### Complications:

- If the helium core grows just a little bit towards the end of helium burning, the extra helium convected in greatly decreases the <sup>12</sup>C synthesis.
- Mass loss from very massive WR stars can greatly increase the synthesis of both <sup>12</sup>C and <sup>16</sup>O in stars over 35 solar masses
- The uncertain rate for  ${}^{12}C(\alpha,\gamma){}^{16}O$
- <sup>12</sup>C/<sup>16</sup>O ratio may be affected by post-helium burning evolution and by black hole formation above some critical main sequence mass. <sup>16</sup>O is made in the more massive (massive) stars.

Before the above reaction the composition was almost entirely <sup>4</sup>He and <sup>14</sup>N, hence  $\eta \approx 0$  (actually a small posive value exists because of <sup>56</sup>Fe and the like).

#### After this reaction

$$\eta = 0.0019 \frac{Z}{Z_{\odot}}$$

During helium core burning, <sup>18</sup>O is later mostly destroyed by <sup>18</sup>O( $\alpha, \gamma$ )<sup>22</sup>Ne.

Dur	ing heliu	m shell burn	ing which	does not
90	to comp	oletion in mass	ive stars, m	nuch of
180	remains	undestroyed a	nd this is	the source
of	180 in	nature. Com	vection helps	to preserve it.
		Lifetimes (yr)	$\chi_{a} = V_2$	q = 1000.
		T8 = 1.8	Ts = 2	
	160 (x, Y)	3.5 (10)	2.3(9)	survives
	180 (x, 1)	2700	98	destroyed unless preserved by convection
	14 N (x, x)	15	1.1	destroyed
	22 Ne (a,n + (a,r		2.2(5)	partly destroyed

So one expects that, depending on mass, some but not all of the  $^{22}$ Ne will burn towards the end of helium burning when the temperature goes up.

The following table gives the temperature at the center of the given model and the mass fractions of  $^{22}$ Ne,  $^{25}$ Mg, and  $^{26}$ Mg each multiplied by 1000, when the helium mass fraction is 1% and zero

	М	T <sub>C</sub>	<sup>22</sup> Ne	<sup>25</sup> Mg	<sup>26</sup> Mg
	12	2.42	13.4	0.51	0.61
Woosley, and Heger			12.3	1.17	1.05
(2007)	15	2.54	12.7	0.98	0.91
			11.1	1.99	1.80
	19	2.64	11.5	1.73	1.54
			9.4	2.90	2.87
	25	2.75	9.8	2.67	2.59
			6.96	4.05	4.54
	35	2.86	7.37	3.87	4.22
			4.41	5.18	6.39

The remainder of the <sup>22</sup>Ne will burn early during carbon burning, but then there will be more abundant "neutron poisons".

These numbers are quite sensitive to the uncertain reaction rate for  ${}^{22}Ne(\alpha,n){}^{25}Mg$  and may be lower limits to the  ${}^{22}Ne$ consumption.

### C. The s-Process in Massive Stars

Late during helium burning, when the temperature rises to about 3.0 x 10<sup>8</sup> K, <sup>22</sup>Ne is burned chiefly by the reaction  $^{22}Ne(\alpha,n)^{25}Mg$  (with some competition from  $^{22}Ne(\alpha,\gamma)^{26}Mg$ ).

Where do the neutrons go?

Some go on <sup>56</sup>Fe but that fraction is only:

$$f = \frac{\sigma_{56} Y_{56}}{\sum \sigma_i Y_i}$$
16O
$$Y_{16} \approx \frac{0.5}{16} = 3.1 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$Y_{16} \sigma_{16} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-3}$$
But, <sup>17</sup>O( $\alpha$ ,n)<sup>20</sup>Ne destroys the <sup>17</sup>O and restores the neutron
22Ne
$$Y_{22} \approx \frac{0.005}{22} = 2.3 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$Y_{22} \sigma_{22} \approx 1.3 \times 10^{-5}$$
For  $\sigma$  in mb
56Fe
$$Y_{56} \approx \frac{0.0013}{56} = 2.3 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$Y_{56} \sigma_{56} \approx 2.7 \times 10^{-4}$$

#### 30 keV neutron capture cross sections

(mostly from Bao et al, ADNDT, 2000)

1	Nucleus	<u></u> (mb)	<u>Nucleus</u>	<u>o</u> (mb)	
1	<sup>2</sup> C	0.0154	<sup>54</sup> Fe	27.6	
<b>*</b> 1	<sup>6</sup> O	0.038	<sup>56</sup> Fe	11.7	
2	<sup>20</sup> Ne	0.119	<sup>57</sup> Fe	40.0	
2	<sup>2</sup> Ne	0.059	<sup>58</sup> Fe	12.1	
2	<sup>24</sup> Mg	3.3	<sup>58</sup> Ni	41.0	
2	<sup>25</sup> Mg	6.4	<sup>64</sup> Zn	59	
2	<sup>26</sup> Mg	0.126	<sup>65</sup> Zn	162	
2	<sup>28</sup> Si	2.9	<sup>66</sup> Zn	35	
			<sup>88</sup> Sr	6.2	(closed shell)

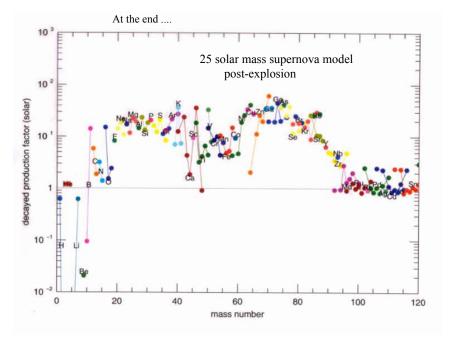
*The large cross section of* <sup>25</sup>*Mg is particularly significant since it is made by* <sup>22</sup>*Ne(α,n)* <sup>25</sup>*Mg.* \* Igashira et al, *ApJL*, **441**, L89, (1995); factor of 200 upwards revision So a fraction  $\frac{Y_{56}\sigma_{56}}{Y_{25}\sigma_{25}} \sim 10 - 20\%$  capture on iron. How many

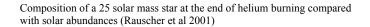
neutrons is this?

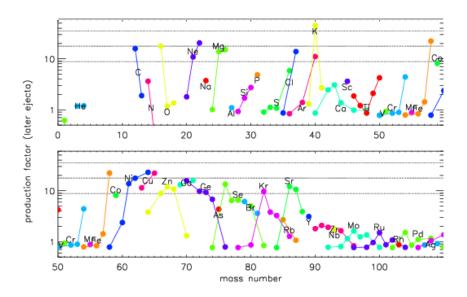
$$Y_n / Y_{Fe} \sim Y_{22} / Y_{56} = 42$$

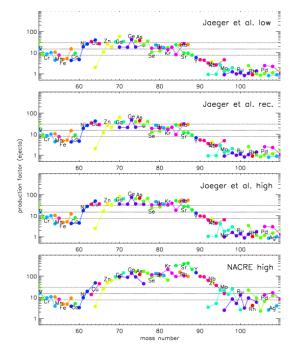
where we have assumed a mass fraction of 0.02 for <sup>22</sup>Ne and 0.0013 for <sup>56</sup>Fe and that all <sup>22</sup>Ne burns by ( $\alpha$ ,n).

This is about 4 - 8 *neutrons per iron* and obviously not nearly enough to change e.g., Fe into Pb, but the neutron capture cross sections of the isotopes generally increase above the iron group and the solar abundances decrease. A significant s-process occurs that produces significant quantities of the isotopes with A < 90.



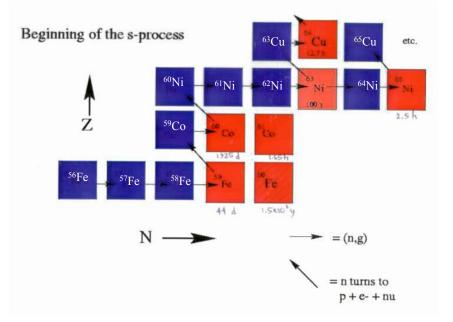






Results depend most sensitively upon the reaction rate for  $^{22}$  Ne( $\alpha$ ,n) $^{25}$ Mg.

If <sup>22</sup>Ne does not burn until later (i.e., carbon burning there are much more abundant neutron poisons



Here "s" stands for "slow" neutron capture

$$\tau_{\beta} \ll \tau_{n\gamma} \qquad \tau_{\beta} = \frac{1}{\lambda_{\beta}} = \frac{\tau_{1/2}}{\ln 2} \qquad \frac{dY_{i}}{dt} = -Y_{i}Y_{n}\rho\lambda_{n\gamma}(i) + \dots$$
$$\tau_{n\gamma} = \left(\rho Y_{n}\lambda_{n\gamma}\right)^{-1} \qquad \tau_{n\gamma} = \left(\frac{1}{Y_{i}}\frac{dY_{i}}{dt}\right)^{-1}$$

This means that the neutron densities are relatively small

E.g. for a <sup>22</sup>Ne neutron source  

$$\frac{dY_n}{dt} \approx 0 \approx \rho Y_{\alpha} Y(^{22} Ne) \lambda_{\alpha n}(^{22} Ne) - \rho Y_n Y(^{25} Mg) \lambda_{n\gamma}(^{25} Mg)$$

$$\rho \approx 1000, X_{\alpha} \approx 0.5, X(^{22}Ne) \approx 0.005, X(^{25}Mg) \approx 0.005$$

$$Y_{n} \approx \frac{Y_{\alpha} Y(^{22} Ne) \lambda_{\alpha n}(^{22} Ne)}{Y(^{25} Mg) \lambda_{n \gamma}(^{25} Mg)} \sim \frac{Y_{\alpha} \lambda_{\alpha n}(^{22} Ne)}{\lambda_{n \gamma}(^{25} Mg)}$$

$$Y_{\alpha} \sim 0.02 / 4; \ Y(^{22} Ne) \sim 2 \ Y(^{25} Mg); \ \rho = 1000$$

$$T_{8} \qquad \lambda_{\alpha n}(^{22} Ne) \qquad \lambda_{n \gamma}(^{25} Mg) \qquad n_{n} = \rho N_{A} Y_{n} \qquad \lambda_{n \gamma}(^{56} Fe)$$

$$2.0 \qquad 9.1(-17) \qquad 1.2(6) \qquad negligible$$

$$2.5 \qquad 1.5(-13) \qquad 1.1(6) \qquad \sim 10^{6} \qquad 1.9(6)$$

$$3.0 \qquad 2.6(-11) \qquad 1.0(6) \qquad \sim 10^{8} \qquad 1.9(6)$$

Most of the s-process takes place around  $T_8 = 2.5 - 3$ , so the neutron density is about  $10^6 - 10^8$  cm<sup>-3</sup> (depends on uncertain rate for ( $\alpha$ ,n) on <sup>22</sup>Ne and on how much <sup>22</sup>Ne has burned).

At these neutron densities the time between capture, even for heavy elements with bigger cross sections than iron, is days. For <sup>56</sup>Fe itself it is a few years

Eg. at  $T_8 = 2.5 (n_n \sim 10^6)$ , the lifetime of <sup>56</sup>Fe is about

$$\tau({}^{56}Fe) = \left(\frac{1}{Y({}^{56}Fe)}\frac{dY({}^{56}Fe)}{dt}\right)^{-1} = \left(\rho Y_n \lambda_{n\gamma}({}^{56}Fe)\right)^{-1}$$

 $\approx 10^4$  year (less at higher temperatures)

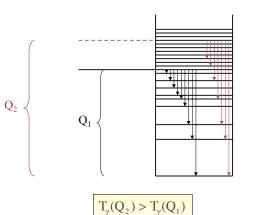
The s-process in massive stars only goes on during a brief period at the end of helium burning. The time scale is lengthened by convection.

#### Reaction Rates (n,y):

Either measured (Bao et al, ADNDT, 76, 70, 2000) or calculated using Hauser-Feshbach theory (Woosley et al., ADNDT, 22, 371, (1976) Holmes et al., ADNDT, 18, 305, (1976); Rauscher et al. ADNDT, 75, 1, (2000))

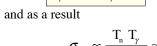
The calculations are usually good to a factor of two. For heavy nuclei within  $kT\sim 30~keV$  of  $Q_{ng}$  there are very many resonances.

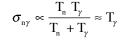
Occasionally, for light nuclei or near closed shells, direct capture is important: e.g., <sup>12</sup>C, <sup>20,22</sup>Ne, <sup>16</sup>O, <sup>48</sup>Ca



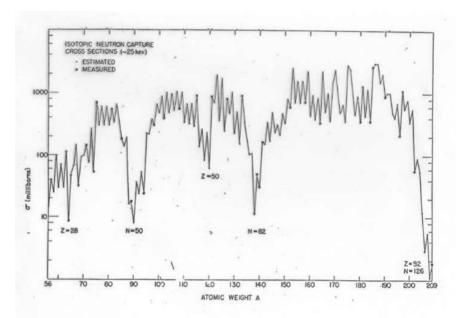
More levels to make transitions to at higher Q and also, more phase space for the outgoing photon.

 $E_{\gamma}^{3}$  for electric dipole





is larger if Q is larger



## Rate Equations: Their Solutions and Implications

Assume constant density, temperature, cross section, and neutron density and ignore branching (would never assume any of these in a modern calculation). Then

$$\frac{dY(^{A}Z)}{dt} \equiv \frac{dY_{A}}{dt} = -Y_{A}Y_{n}\rho\lambda_{n\gamma}(A) + Y_{A-1}Y_{n}\rho\lambda_{n\gamma}(A-1)$$

and since  $n_n = \rho N_A Y_n$  and  $\lambda_{n\gamma} = N_A \langle \sigma_{n\gamma} v \rangle \approx N_A \sigma_A v_{thermal}$ defining  $\tau \equiv \int \rho N_A Y_n v_{thermal} dt = \int n_n v_{thermal} dt$ , one has  $\frac{dn_A}{d\tau} = -n_A \sigma_A + n_{A-1} \sigma_{A-1}$ 

Note that  $\tau$  has units of inverse cross section (inverse area).

If there were locations where steady state is achieved then

$$\frac{dn_A}{d\tau} \approx 0 = n_A \sigma_A - n_{A-1} \sigma_{A-1}$$

*i.e.*,  $\sigma n$  is locally a constant, and  $n \propto \frac{1}{\sigma}$ 

Attaining steady state requires a time scale longer than a few times the destruction lifetime of the species in the steady state group. One has "local" steady state because any flux that would produce, e.g., lead in steady state would totally destroy all the lighter s-process species.

The flow stagnates at various "waiting points" along the *s*-process path, particularly at the closed shell nuclei.

Eg.,  $n_n \sim 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \Rightarrow \rho Y_n \sim n_n / N_A \sim 5 \times 10^{-17}$  $\lambda_{n\gamma}$  experimentally at helium burning temperatures is  $10^5 - 10^8$ 

$$\tau_{n\gamma} = \left(\rho Y_n \lambda_{n\gamma}\right)^{-1} = \left(\frac{d \ln Y_A}{dt}\right)^{-1} \sim 10 - 10^4 \text{ years}$$

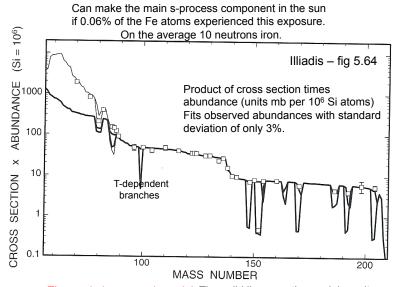
This can be greatly lengthened in a massive star by convection.

As a result nuclei with large cross sections will be in steady state while those with small ones are not. This is especially so in He shell flashes in AGB stars where the time scale for a flash may be only a few decades.

are usually

decay rates too

insensitive



The symbols are s-only nuclei. The solid lines are the model results for a standard (exponential) set of exposure strengths. Below A = 90 there is evidence for a separate additional s-process component.

occasionally However, .305 Thermally populating 2's about excited state G lengo MET" KT = 30 0.51 greatly accelerate its decay 3/2-0.149 85 Rb Other sensitive branch points estimate the temperatur S- Process

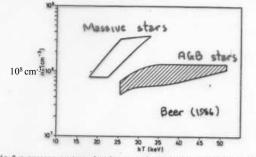


Fig.2 a-process neutron density as a function of s-process temperature. Consistant values for the main and weak component lie within the indicated areas [8]. The area of the weak component is hatched. The fact that there is no common range of values for the two components is interpreted as a strong evidence for their independence.

## **Implicit solution:**

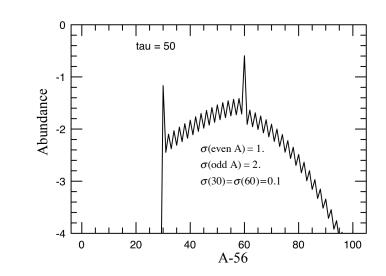
Assuming no flow downwards from A+1 and greater to A and below.

$$n_{new}(A) = \frac{n_{old}(A)/d\tau + n_{new}(A-1)\sigma_{n\gamma}(A-1)}{1/d\tau + \sigma_{n\gamma}(A)}$$

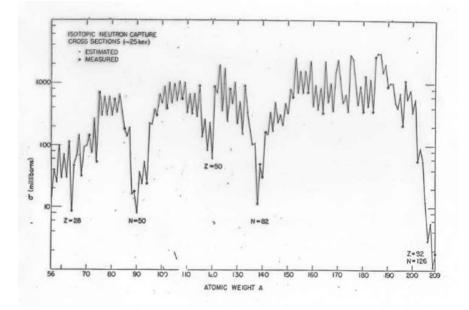
This works because in the do loop,  $n_{new}(A-1)$  is updated to its new value before evaluating  $n_{new}(A)$ . Matrix inversion reduces to a recursion relation.

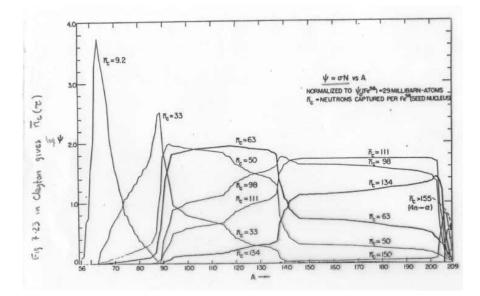


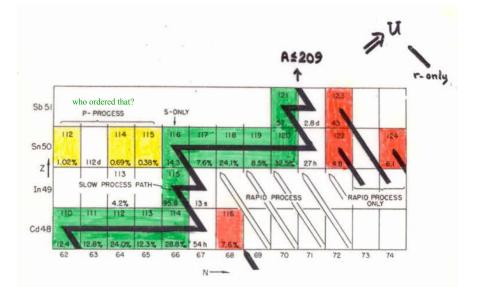
 $n_{new}(A-1)$  known from previous step in recursion relation



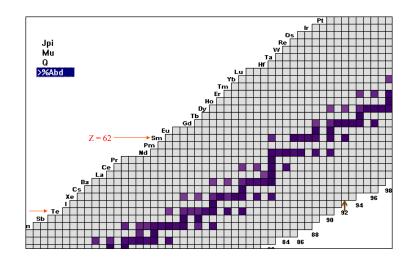
Sample output from toy model code micros2.f





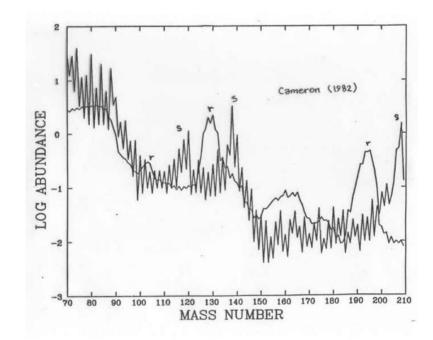


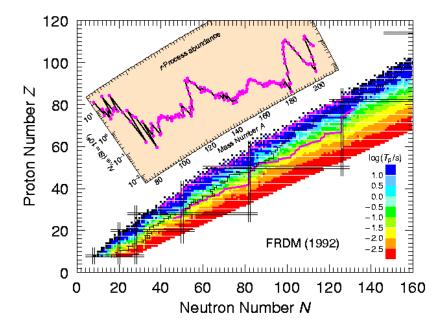
e.g.,  $^{117}$ Sn,  $^{118}$ Sn,  $^{119}$ Sn, and  $^{120}$ Sn are s,r isotopes. Sn is not a good place to look for s n = const though because it is a closed shell.

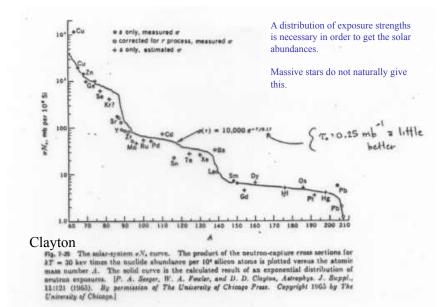


	See	<u>http://v</u>	<u>vww.nndc.b</u>	nl.gov/chart/	
	similarly	for Sm	or(mb)	n	ση
	144 Sm	9	9219	7.42(-3)	0.65
1	147 Sm	r, 5	1000 \$ 100	3.71 (-2)	37 ± 4
2=62	148 Sm	5	267 ±12	2.70(-2)	7.2 ± 0.3 ←
	149 Sm	r, s	14541 66	3.32(-2)	48.3 ± 2.2
	150 Sm	5	447 ± 26	1,79 (-2)	8.0 ± 0.5 +
	152 Sm	5, 5	375123	6.41(-2)	24.2 ± 1.5
	194 Sm	r	293±19	5.45(-2)	16.0 \$ 1.0
	37.00	n) = 90 years	; $\tau_{1/2}(^{153}\text{Sm})$ =	= 46 hours	

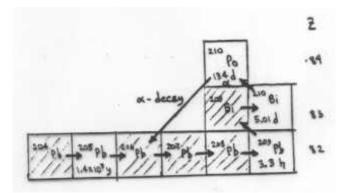
Based upon the abundances of s-only isotopes and the known neutron capture cross sections one can subtract the s-portion of s,r isotopes to obtain the r- and s-process yields separately.







## Termination of the s-Process



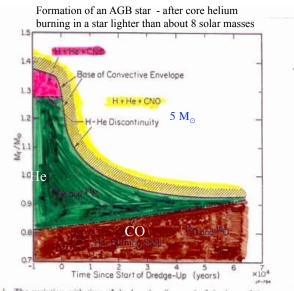
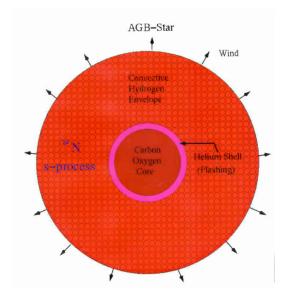


Figure 1 The variation with time of the location (in mass) of the base of the convective envelope and of the center of the helium-burning shell during the second dredge-up phase in a model of mass  $5 M_{\odot}$  and initial composition (Y, Z) = (0.28, 0.001).

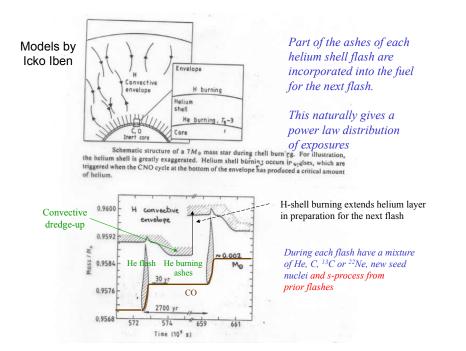


Thin	shell	instability:

If a shell is sufficiently thin, its pressure is set by the gravitational potential in which it rests. During a flash, this does not change. Burning raises the temperature but does not change the pressure so the density in the shell goes down. But the energy generation is very sensitive to the temperature and continues to go up. Finally sufficient burning occurs to cause enough overall expansion to reduce the pressure. This instability tends to happen at the edges of compact objects where the burning shells are quite thin compared with the radius of the core and the gravitational potential is thus constant.

 $\frac{dP}{dm} = \frac{GM(R)}{4\pi R^4}$ 

Schwarzshild & Harm (1965) and Weigert (1966), Yoon, Langer and van der Sluys, *A&A*, **425**, 207 (2004)



Important nuclear physics modification:

s-process giants derived from AGB stars in the solar neighborhood do not show the large  ${}^{26}Mg$  excesses one would expect if the neutron source were  ${}^{22}Ne(a,n){}^{25}Mg$  [as it surely is in massive stars]. Moreover these stars are too low in mass for  ${}^{22}Ne(a,n){}^{25}Mg$  to function efficiently. A different way of making neutrons is required. Probably

 ${}^{4}He(2\alpha,\gamma){}^{12}C(p,\gamma){}^{13}N(e^{+}\nu){}^{13}C$  ${}^{13}C(\alpha,n){}^{16}O$ 

with the protons coming from mixing between the helium burning shell and the hydrogen envelope. Each p mixed in becomes an n.

McWilliam and Lambert, *MNRAS*, **230**, 573 (1988) and Malaney and Boothroyd, *ApJ*, **320**, 866 (1987) Hollowell and Iben, *ApJL*, **333**, L25 (1988); *ApJ*, **340**, 966, (1989) many more since then

The metallicity history of the s-process can be quite complicated.

In the simplest case in massive stars with a <sup>22</sup>Ne neutron source it is independent of metallicity until quite low values of Z.

At very low Z things can become complicated because of the effect of neutron poisons, <sup>12</sup>C and <sup>16</sup>O. In AGB stars the mixing between H and He shells is Z dependent. Some metal poor stars are actually very s-process rich. Cristallo et al (ApJ, 696, 797 (2009)).