

Thermonuclear Reactions

- Eddington in 1920s hypothesized that fusion reactions between light elements were the energy source of the stars.
- Stellar evolution = (con) sequence of nuclear reactions
- $E_{\text{kinetic}} \approx kT_c \approx 8.62 \times 10^{-8} T \sim \text{keV},$
 but $E_{\text{Coulomb barrier}} = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r} = \frac{1.44 Z_1 Z_2}{r[\text{fm}]} \sim \text{MeV},$ 3 orders higher than the kinetic energy of the particles.
- Tunneling effect in QM proposed by Gamow (1928, Z. Physik, 52, 510);
 applied to energy source in stars by Atkinson
 & Houtermans (1929, Z. Physik, 54, 656)

George Gamow (1904-1968)

Russian-born physicist, stellar and big bang nucleosynthesis, CMB, DNA, Mr. Thompkins series



1929 U Copenhagen



1960s U Colorado

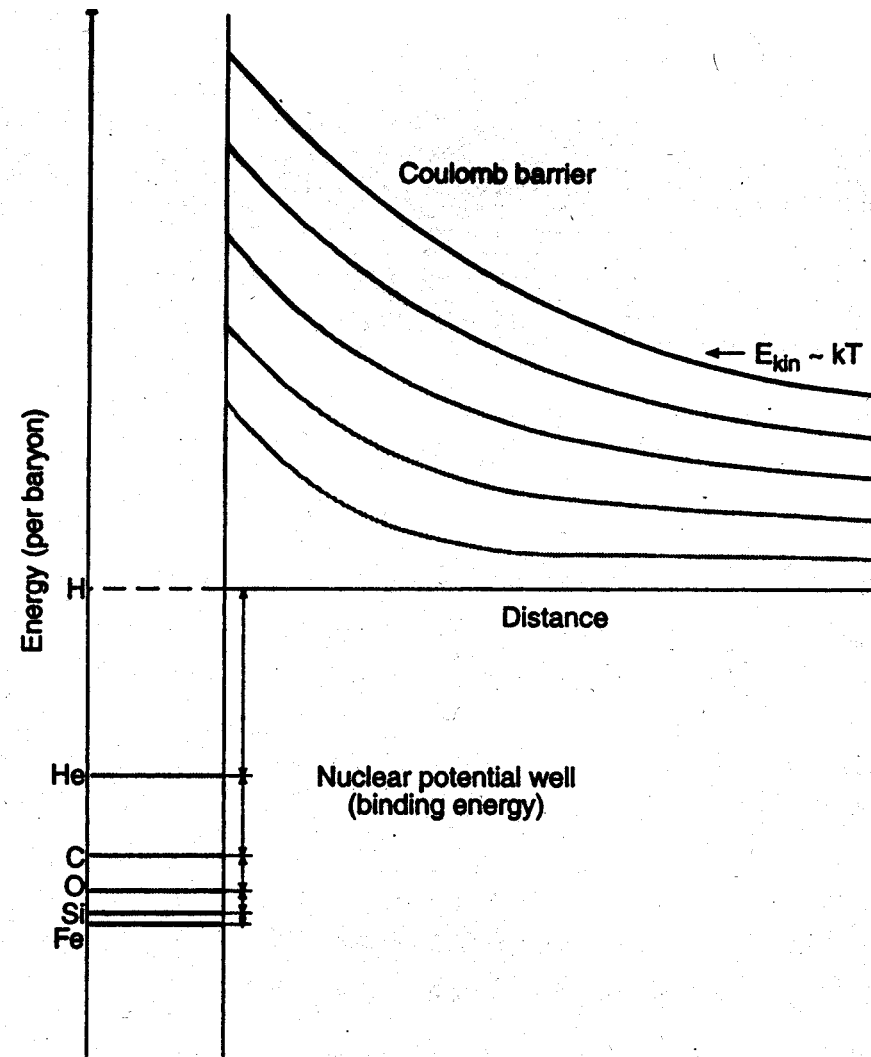


Figure 4.2 Schematic representation of the Coulomb barrier – the repulsive potential encountered by a nucleus in motion relative to another – and the short-range negative potential well that is due to the nuclear force. The height of the barrier and the depth of the well depend on the nuclear charge (atomic number).

Quantum mechanics tunneling effect

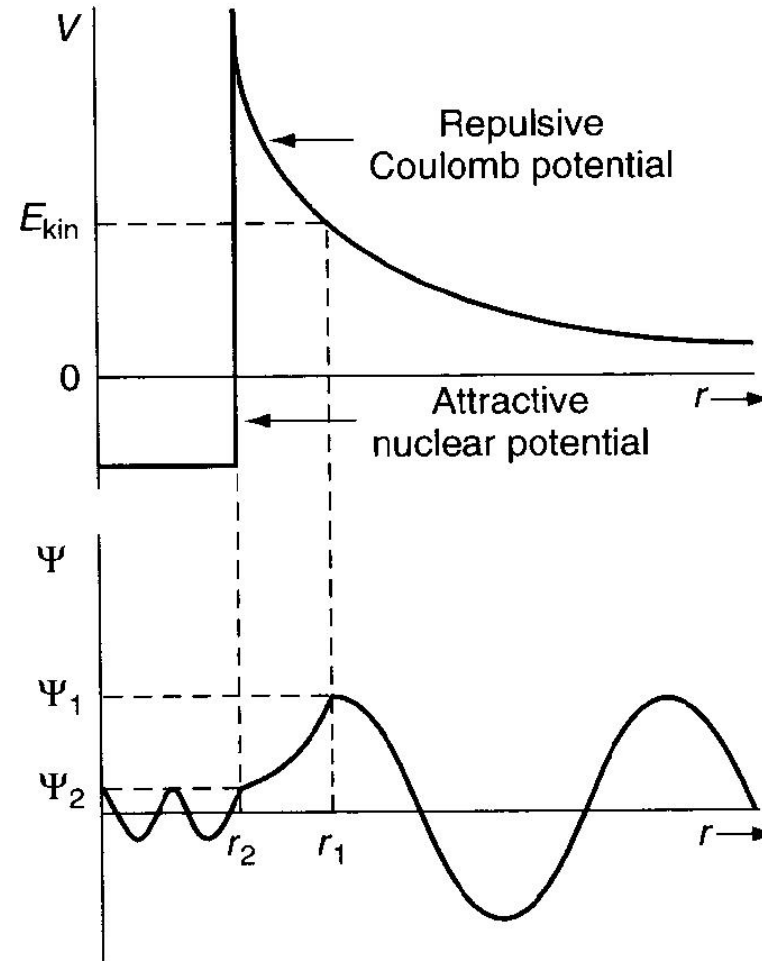


Figure 3.4 Illustration of the potential seen by particle b when approaching particle A with a kinetic energy E_{kin} , and the corresponding wavefunction Ψ ; classically, particle b would reach only a distance r_1 from particle A before being repelled by the Coulomb force

Cross section for nuclear reactions (penetrating probability)

$$\propto e^{-\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2 / \epsilon_0 h v}$$

This \nearrow as $v \nearrow$

Velocity probability distribution (Maxwellian)

$$\propto e^{-mv^2/2kT}$$

This \searrow as $v \nearrow$

\therefore Product of these 2 factors \rightarrow Gamow peak

D. Clayton "Principles of Stellar Evolution and Nucleosynthesis"

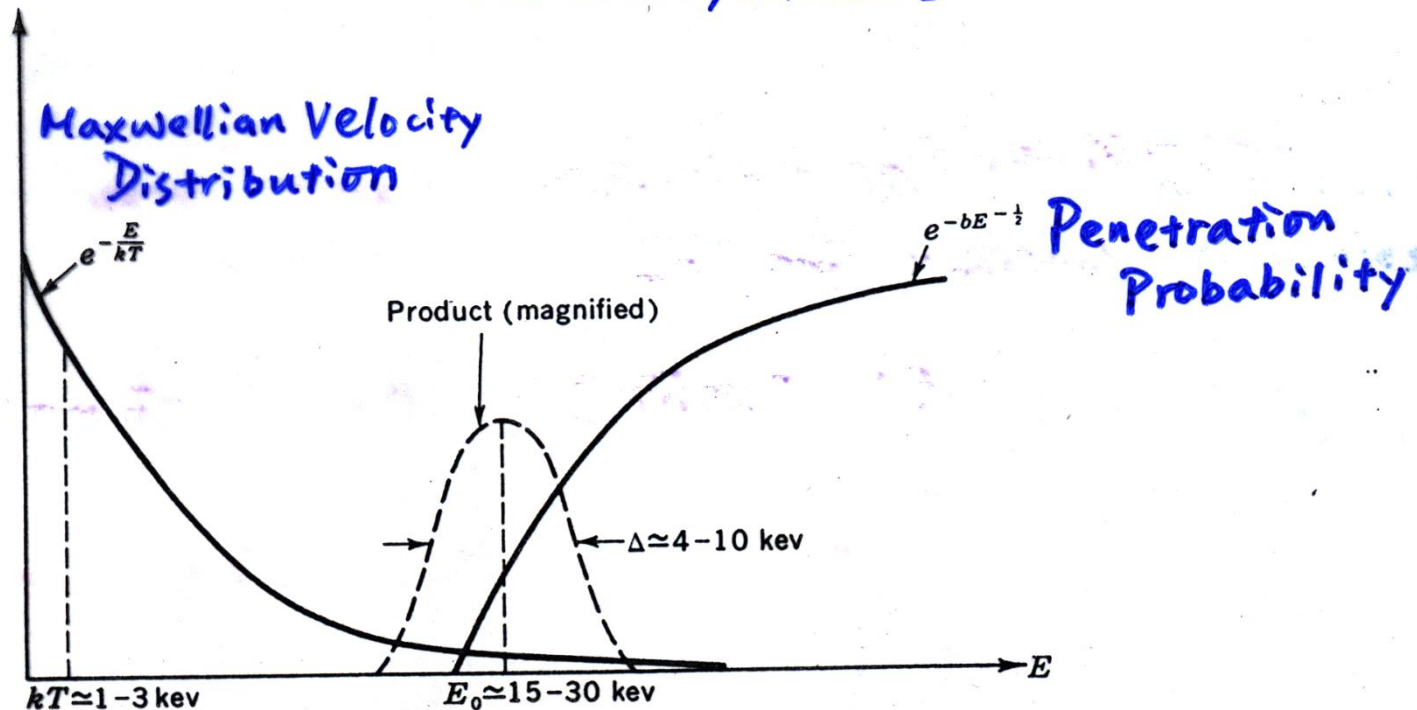


Fig. 4-6 The dominant energy-dependent factors in thermonuclear reactions. Most of the reactions occur in the high-energy tail of the Maxwellian energy distribution, which introduces the rapidly falling factor $\exp(-E/kT)$. Penetration through the Coulomb barrier introduces the factor $\exp(-bE^{-\frac{1}{2}})$, which vanishes strongly at low energy. Their product is a fairly sharp peak near an energy designated by E_0 , which is generally much larger than kT . The peak is pushed out to this energy by the penetration factor, and it is therefore commonly called the *Gamow peak* in honor of the physicist who first studied the penetration through the Coulomb barrier.

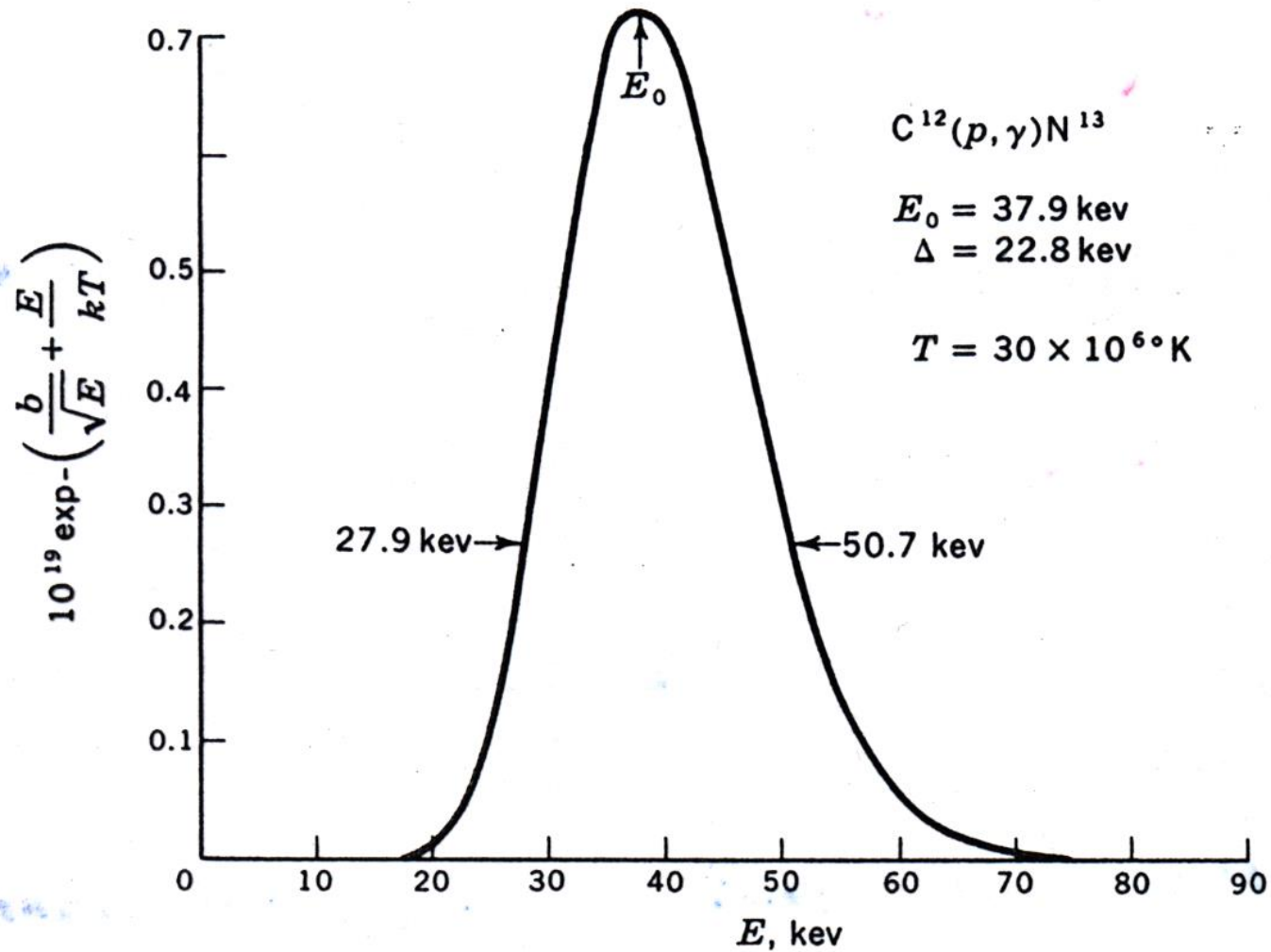


Fig. 4-7 The Gamow peak for the reaction $C^{12}(p, \gamma)N^{13}$ at $T = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ }^\circ\text{K}$. The curve is actually somewhat asymmetric about E_0 , but it is nonetheless adequately approximated by a gaussian.

Resonance → very sharp peak in the reaction rate
→ 'ignition' of a nuclear reaction

Resonance reactions

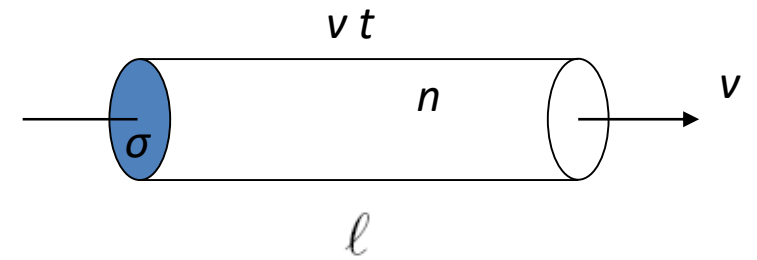
Energy of interacting particles \approx Energy level of compound nucleus

So there exists a narrow range of temperature in which the reaction rate $\uparrow\uparrow$
→ a power law
→ an ignition (threshold) temperature

For a thermonuclear reaction or a nucleosynthesis (fusion) process, the reaction rate is expressed as

$$q \text{ [energy released per mass]} \propto \rho^m T^n$$

Collision



A two-body encounter,

[# of collisions] = [total # of particles in the (moving) volume]

$$\text{so } N = n (\sigma v t)$$

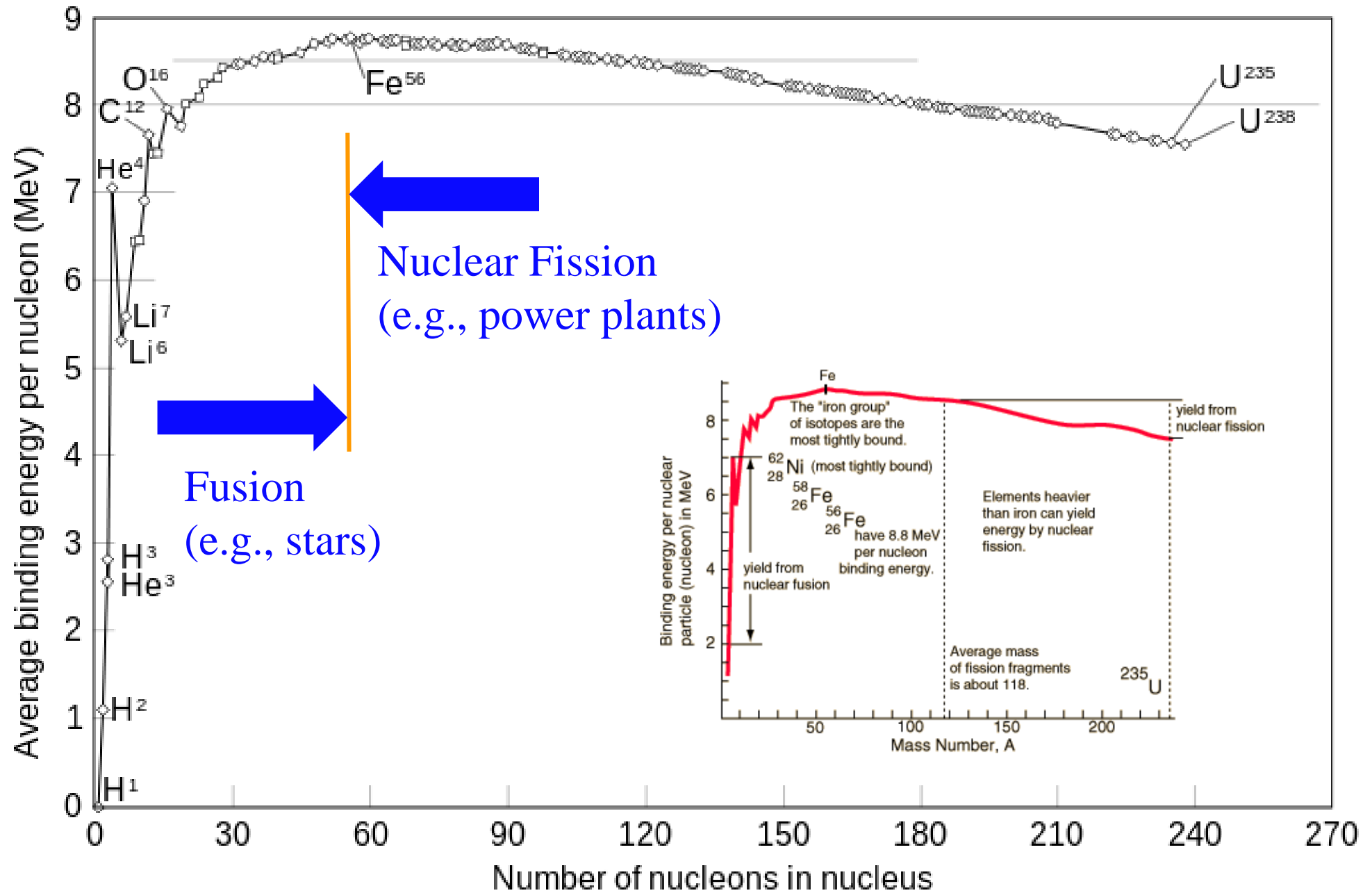
✓ # of collisions per unit time = $N/t = n \sigma v$

✓ Time between 2 consecutive collisions,
mean free time ($N=1$), $t_{\text{col}} = 1/n \sigma v$

✓ Mean free path $\ell = v t_{\text{col}} = 1/n \sigma$

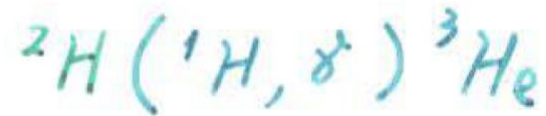
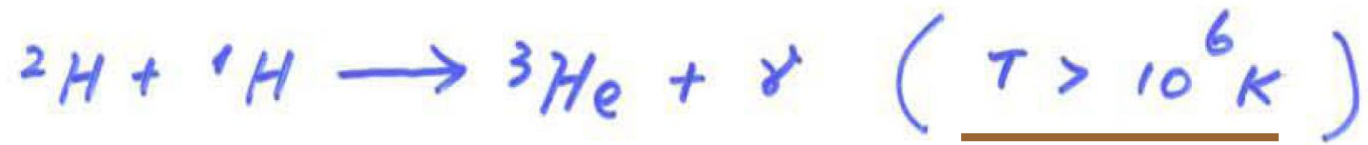
Nuclear reaction rate

- ✓ $r_{12} \propto n_1 n_2 \langle \sigma v \rangle \propto n_1 n_2 \exp \left[-C \left(\frac{z_1^2 z_2^2}{T_6} \right)^{1/3} \right] [\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}]$
- ✓ As $T \nearrow$, $r_{12} \nearrow \nearrow$
- ✓ Major reactions are those with smallest $Z_1 Z_2$
- ✓ n_i is the particle volume number density, $n_i m_i = \rho X_i$, where X_i is the mass fraction
- ✓ $q_{12} \propto Q \rho X_1 X_2 / m_1 m_2 [\text{erg g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}]$



Deuterium Burning

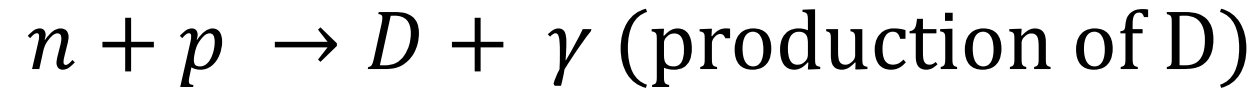
$$M_{\odot} c^2 = 2 \times 10^{54} \text{ ergs}$$
$$1 \text{ amu} = 931 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$



$$Q_{\text{DP}} = 5.5 \text{ MeV}$$

$$Q_{\text{DP}} = 4.19 \times 10^7 \left[\frac{\text{D}}{\text{H}} \right] \left(\frac{\rho}{1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}} \right) \left(\frac{T}{10^6 \text{ K}} \right)^{11.8} \text{ [erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}]$$

ISM value, $\langle \text{D}/\text{H} \rangle \sim 2 \times 10^{-5}$



The lower the mass density,
the more the D abundant
 $\rightarrow D$ as a sensitive tracer of
the density of the early
Universe

Before the Big Bang nucleosynthesis, there were plenty of neutrons, but much less abundant than protons, so all neutrons go into making ${}^4\text{He}$

$$\rightarrow {}^4\text{He} \approx \frac{n/2}{(n+p)/4} = \frac{2n}{n+p}$$

Current value $n/p \approx 0.12$, so ${}^4\text{He} \approx 2/9$, as observed today.

D/H

- 156 ppm ... Terrestrial seawater (1.56×10^{-4})
- 22~26 ppm ... Jupiter
- 17 ppm ... Saturn
- 55 ppm ... Uranus
- 200 ppm ... Halley's Comet

Recall a star's central temperature

$$T_c \sim \frac{\mu GM}{R} \cdot \alpha \quad \text{mass distr.}$$

Numerically

$$T_c = 7.5 \times 10^6 \text{ K} \left(\frac{M_*}{M_\odot} \right) \left(\frac{R_*}{R_\odot} \right)^{-1}$$

$$\therefore M_* = 0.4 M_\odot \longrightarrow T_c \sim 10^6 \text{ K}$$

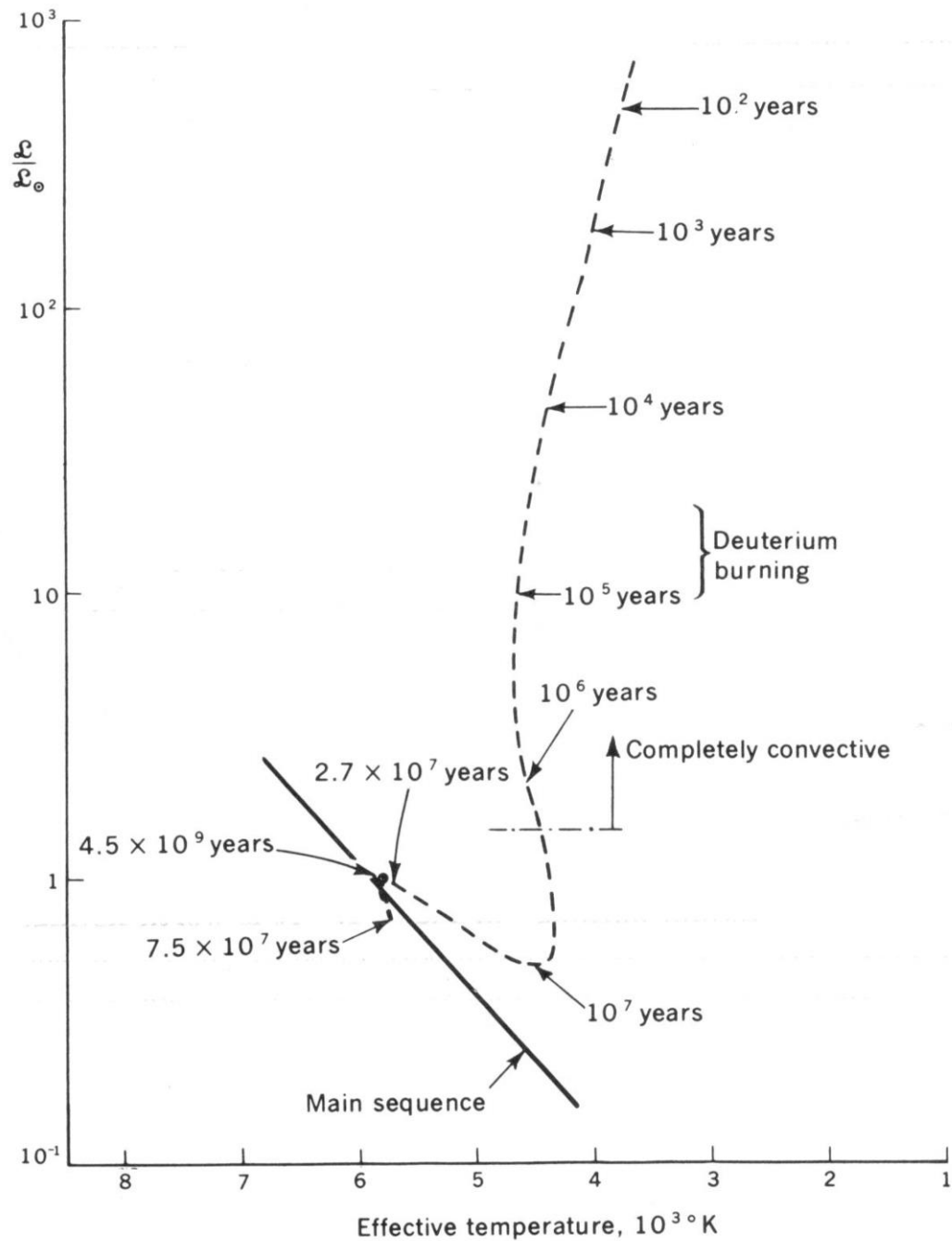


Fig. 5-1 The path on the H-R diagram of the contraction of the sun to the main sequence. The interior has become sufficiently hot to burn deuterium after about 10^5 years. The contraction ceases near the main sequence when the core has become hot enough to replenish the solar luminosity with the thermonuclear power generated by the fusion of hydrogen into helium. [After D. Ezer and A. G. W. Cameron, *The Contraction Phase of Stellar Evolution*, in R. F. Stein and A. G. W. Cameron (eds.), "Stellar Evolution," Plenum Press, New York, 1966.]

THE BIRTHLINE FOR LOW-MASS STARS

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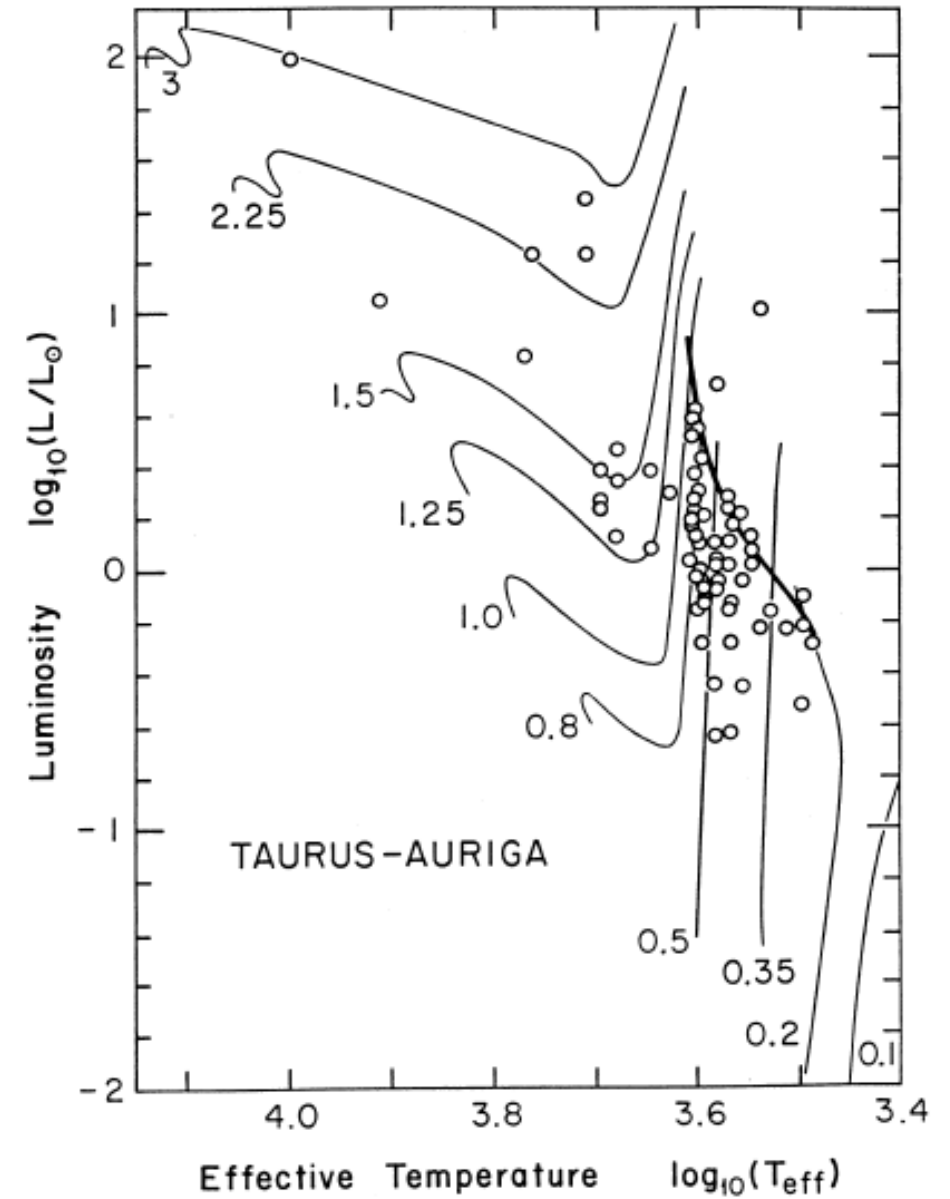
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ABSTRACT

Using the results of protostar theory, I find the locus in the Hertzsprung-Russell diagram where pre-main-sequence stars of subsolar mass should begin their quasi-static contraction phase and first appear as visible objects. This “birthline” is in striking agreement with observations of T Tauri stars, providing a strong confirmation of the fact that these stars are indeed contracting along Hayashi tracks. The assumption that most T Tauri stars first appear along this line forces a recalibration of their ages. This recalibration removes the puzzling dip in present-day star formation seen in age histograms of several cloud complexes. Since the underlying protostar calculation assumes that the parent cloud was only thermally supported prior to its collapse, the observed location of the birthline places severe restrictions on the degree of extrathermal support provided by rotation, magnetic fields, or turbulence. In addition, the hypothesis that the collapse from thermally supported clouds to low-mass stars proceeds through protostellar disks appears untenable, since the disk accretion process almost certainly produces pre-main-sequence stars with radii well below the observed birthline.

Protostars are heavily embedded in clouds, so obscured, with no definition of T_{eff}

Birthline=beginning of PMS; star becomes optically visible \approx deuterium main sequence



Stahler (1983, 1988),
Palla & Stahler (1990)

... compared with observations

1987ARA&A...25...23S

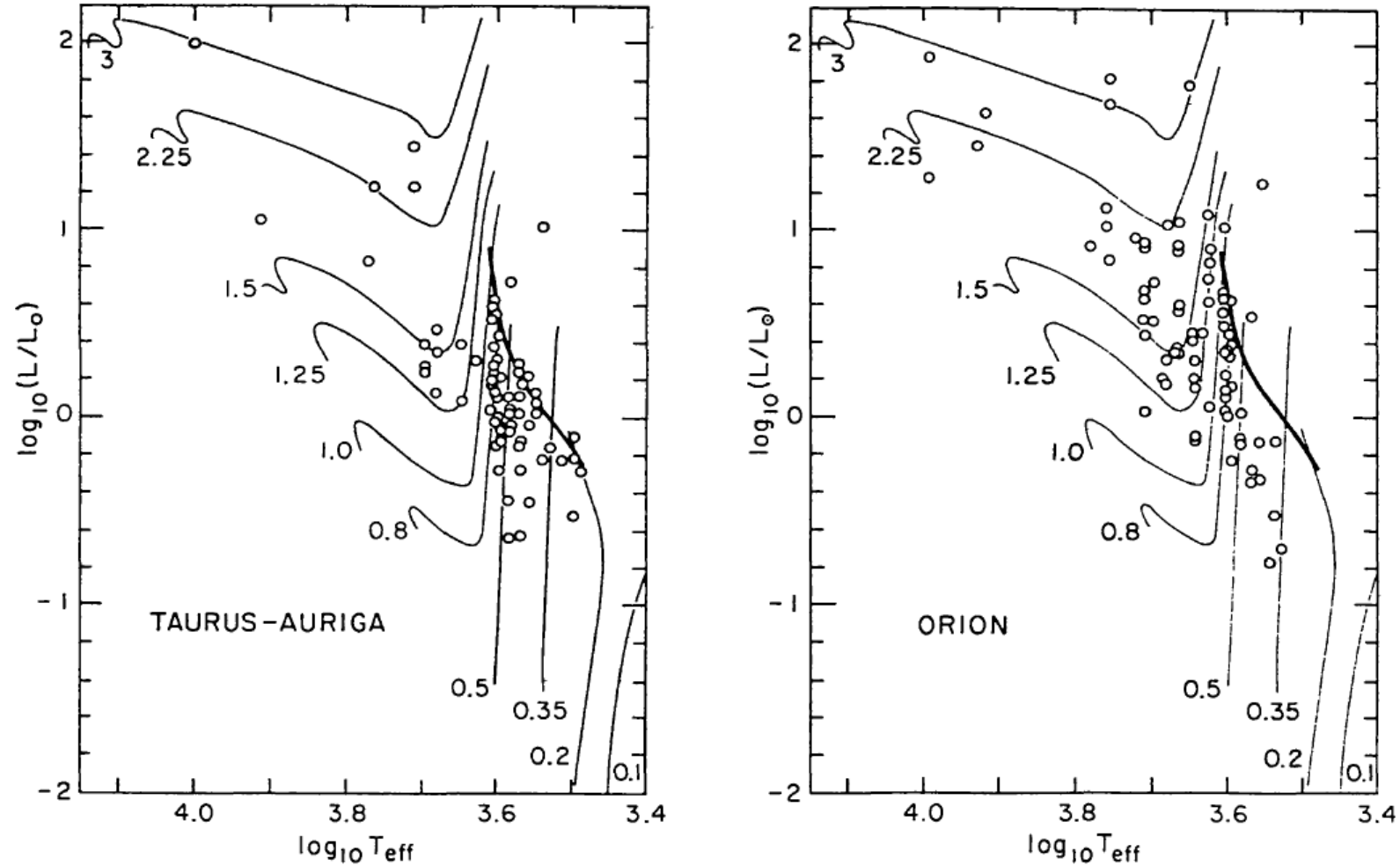


Figure 4 Hertzsprung-Russell diagrams from Cohen & Kuhi (1979) showing theoretical pre-main-sequence contraction tracks and T Tauri stars in the Taurus-Auriga and Orion cloud complexes. The heavy solid curve is the theoretical “birthline” of Stahler (1983).

Lithium Burning



$$\text{ISM } [\text{Li}/\text{H}] \sim 2 \times 10^{-9}$$

Primordial abundance 10 x lower,
produced by cosmic rays α hitting ${}^4\text{He}$
(inverse reaction)

Li measurable in stellar spectra

Li I 6708 Å absorption

↳ actually doublet 6707.78 and 6707.93
but difficult to resolve

Presence of Li I $\lambda 6707$ absorption \rightarrow stellar youth
Ca I $\lambda 6718$ prominent in late-type stars

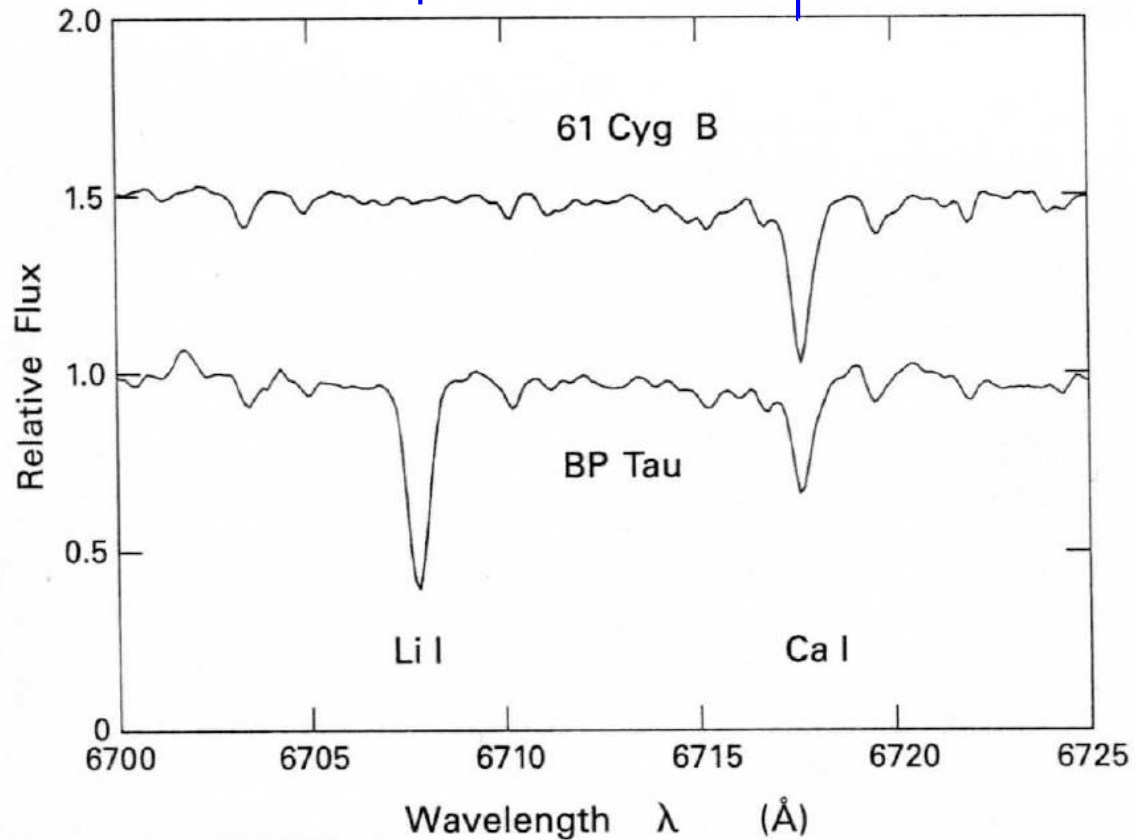


Figure 16.9 Lithium absorption in a pre-main-sequence star. Shown is a portion of the optical spectrum of BP Tau, a T Tauri star of spectral type K7, corresponding to an effective temperature of 4000 K. Also shown, for comparison, is a main-sequence star of the same spectral type, 61 Cyg B. Only in the first star do we see the Li I absorption line at 6708 Å. Both objects also have a strong line due to neutral calcium.

$M > 1.2 M_{\text{sun}} \rightarrow$ shallow convection \rightarrow surface Li does not deplete during contraction

For protostars with $T_c \geq 3 \times 10^6 \text{K}$, the central lithium is readily destroyed.

Stars $\geq 0.9 M_{\odot}$ become radiative at the core, so Li not fully depleted.

Li abundance \rightarrow age clock

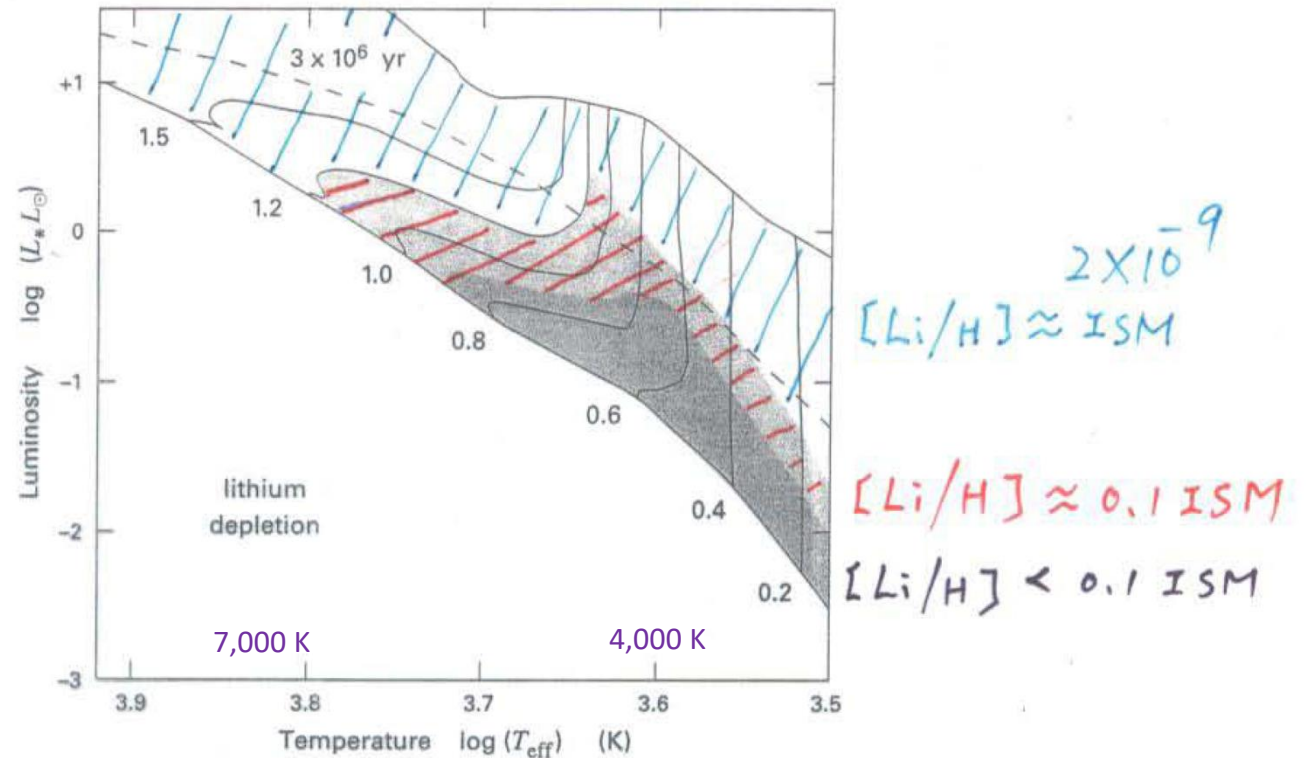


Figure 16.10 Theoretical prediction of pre-main-sequence lithium depletion. Within the white area between the birthline and the ZAMS, the surface [Li/H] is equal to its interstellar value of 2×10^{-9} . Stars in the lightly shaded region have depleted the element down to 0.1 times the interstellar value. The darker shading indicates depletion by at least this amount. Note also the masses on the ZAMS, in solar units, and the indicated isochrone.

Stars	$\mathcal{M}/M_{\odot} > 0.08$, core H fusion Spectral types O, B, A, F, G, K, M
Brown Dwarfs	$0.065 > \mathcal{M}/M_{\odot} > 0.013$, core D fusion $0.080 > \mathcal{M}/M_{\odot} > 0.065$, core Li fusion Spectral types M6.5–9, L, T, Y Electron degenerate core $\checkmark 10 \text{ g cm}^{-3} < \rho_c < 10^3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ $\checkmark T_c < 3 \times 10^6 \text{ K}$
Planets	$\mathcal{M}/M_{\odot} < 0.013$, no fusion ever

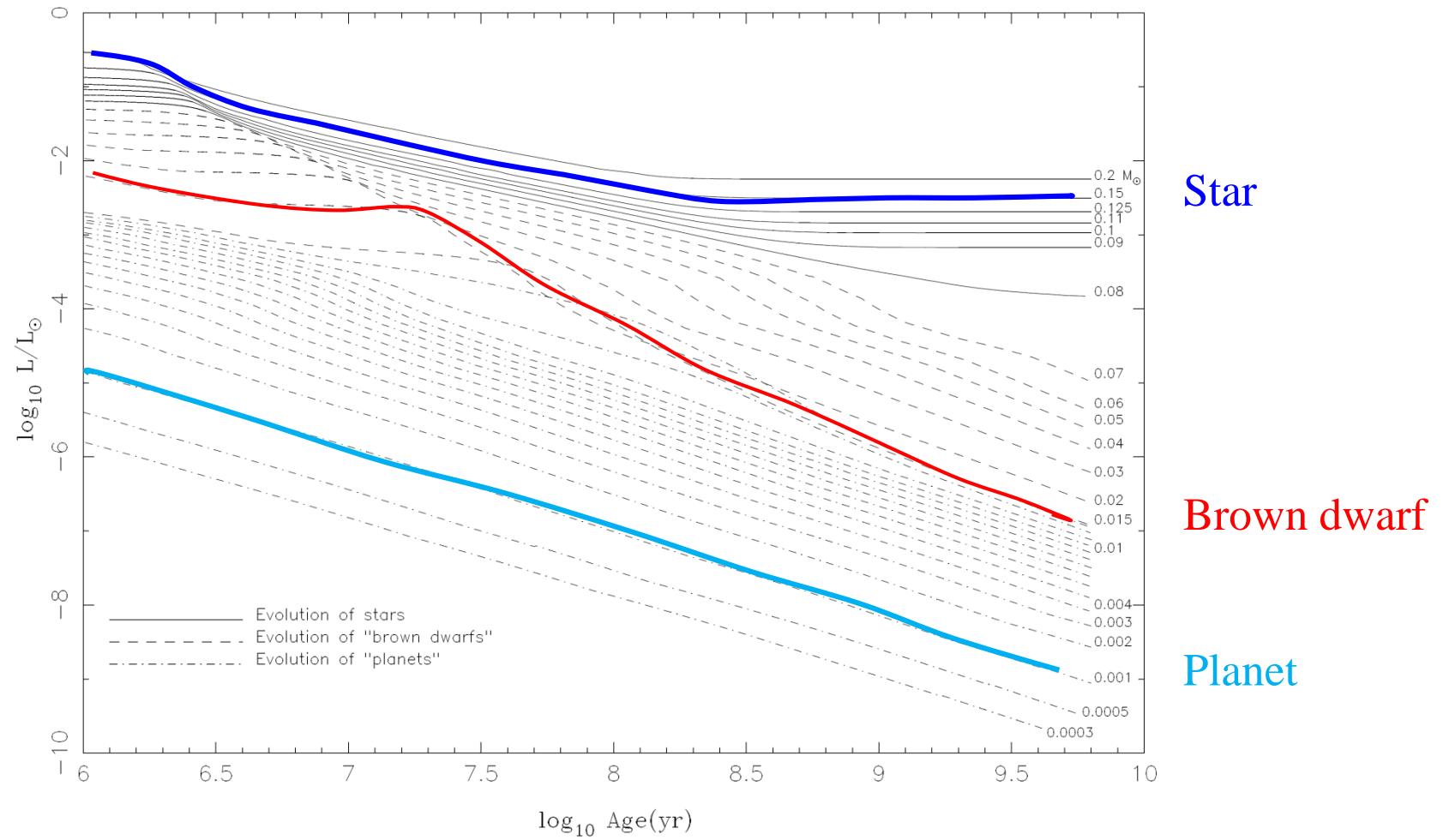


FIG. 7.—Evolution of the luminosity (in L_{\odot}) of solar-metallicity M dwarfs and substellar objects vs. time (in yr) after formation. The stars, “brown dwarfs” and “planets” are shown as solid, dashed, and dot-dashed curves, respectively. In this figure, we arbitrarily designate as “brown dwarfs” those objects that burn deuterium, while we designate those that do not as “planets.” The masses (in M_{\odot}) label most of the curves, with the lowest three corresponding to the mass of Saturn, half the mass of Jupiter, and the mass of Jupiter.

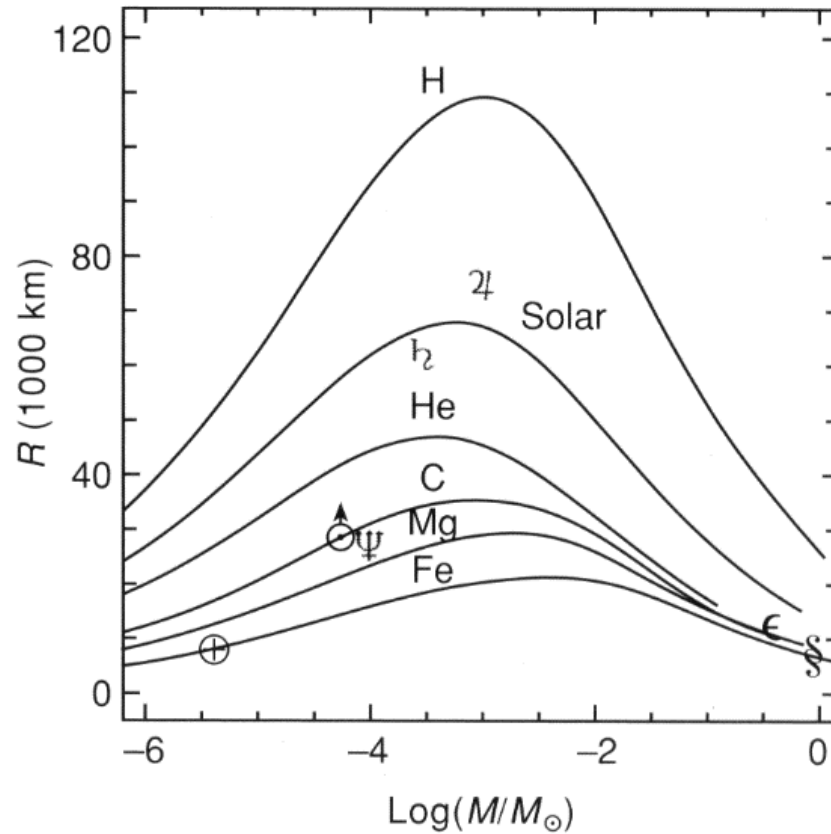


Figure 12.4 Mass-radius relation for low-mass objects (following H. S. Zepolsky & E. E. Salpeter, *Astrophys. J.* 158). Different curves correspond to different compositions, as indicated. The locations of several planets – Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune – are marked by the planets’ symbols. Also marked are the locations of two white dwarfs, Sirius B (§) and 40 Eridani B (ε) (data from D. Koester (1987), *Astrophys. J.*, 322).

Brown dwarfs and very low-mass stars ... partial P_{deg}^{e-}

White dwarfs

\approx completely degenerate,
 $R \searrow$ as $M \nearrow$

Terrestrial planets

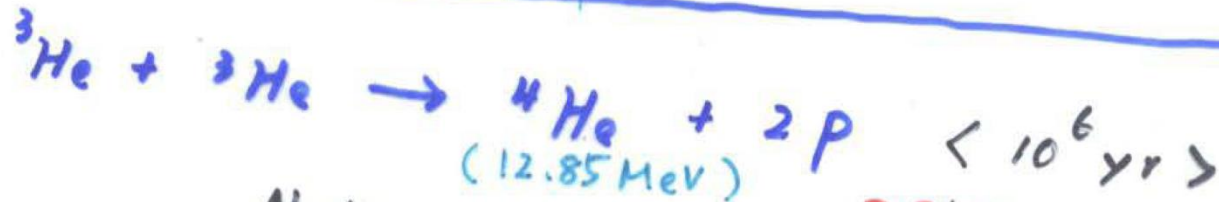
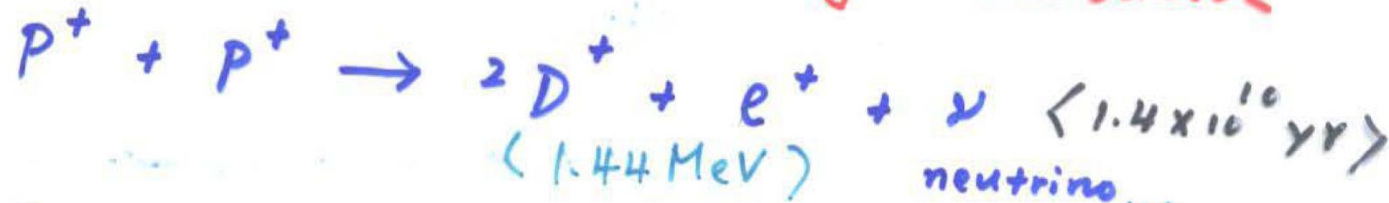
$R \nearrow$ as $M \nearrow \leftarrow$ complicated EoSs

Mass-radius relation
 max @ $M_{\text{Jupiter}} \approx (1/1000) M_{\odot}$

A hydrogen gas — proton-proton chains

$4\text{H} \rightarrow \text{}^4\text{He}$ unlikely \Rightarrow a chain of reactions

baryon #, lepton #, charges all conserved



Note: net $6p \rightarrow \text{}^4\text{He} + 2p$ **PP I chain**

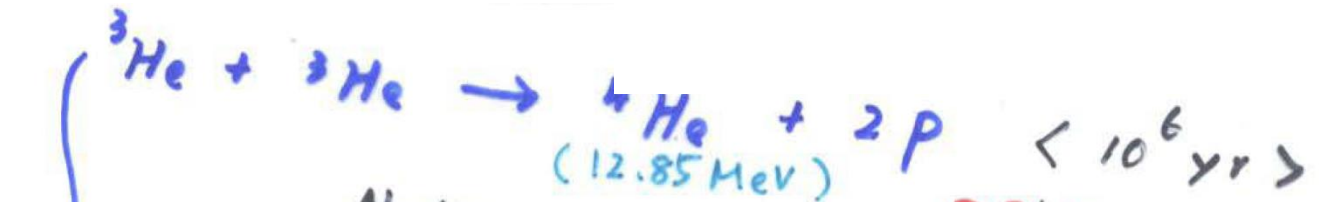


0.420 MeV to the positron and neutrino; positron and electron (each 0.511 MeV rest energy) annihilate \rightarrow 1.442 MeV

... but the nucleus of deuterium, a deuteron, consists of a proton and a neutron!

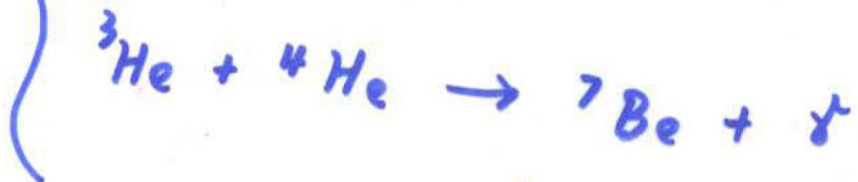
- ✓ $p + p \rightarrow {}^2\text{He}$ (unstable) $\rightarrow p + p$
- ✓ Hans Bethe (1939) realized that the weak interaction was capable of converting a proton to a neutron (!) first
- ✓ Weak interaction \rightarrow very small cross section
- ✓ The neutron is more massive, so this requires energy, i.e., it is an endothermic process, but neutron + proton \rightarrow deuteron (releasing binding energy, so exothermic)





Note: net $6p \rightarrow {}^4\text{He} + 2p$

PP I chain



PP II chain



PP III chain

All 3 branches
operate simultaneously.

The Periodic Table of the Elements

by Robert Campion version 1.3

group 1											13	14	15	16	17	18		
period 1	1.00794 1312.0 2.20 1 H Hydrogen 1s ¹															4.002602 2372.3 2 He Helium 1s ²		
2	6.941 520.2 0.98 3 Li Lithium 1s ² 2s ¹	9.012182 899.5 1.57 4 Be Beryllium 1s ² 2s ²											10.811 800.6 2.04 5 B Boron 1s ² 2s ² 2p ¹	12.0107 1086.5 2.55 6 C Carbon 1s ² 2s ² 2p ²	14.0067 1402.3 3.04 7 N Nitrogen 1s ² 2s ² 2p ³	15.9994 1313.9 3.44 8 O Oxygen 1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁴	18.998403 1681.0 3.98 9 F Fluorine 1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁵	20.1797 2080.7 2 Ne Neon 1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶
3	22.98976 495.8 0.93 11 Na Sodium [Ne] 3s ¹	24.3050 737.7 1.31 12 Mg Magnesium [Ne] 3s ²											26.98153 577.5 1.61 13 Al Aluminium [Ne] 3s ² 3p ¹	28.0855 786.5 1.90 14 Si Silicon [Ne] 3s ² 3p ²	30.97696 1011.6 2.19 15 P Phosphorus [Ne] 3s ² 3p ³	32.065 999.6 2.58 16 S Sulfur [Ne] 3s ² 3p ⁴	35.453 1251.2 3.16 17 Cl Chlorine [Ne] 3s ² 3p ⁵	39.948 1520.6 3 Ar Argon [Ne] 3s ² 3p ⁶
4	39.0983 418.8 0.82 19 K Potassium [Ar] 4s ¹	40.078 589.8 1.00 20 Ca Calcium [Ar] 4s ²	44.95591 833.1 1.36 21 Sc Scandium [Ar] 3d ¹ 4s ²	47.867 658.8 1.54 22 Ti Titanium [Ar] 3d ² 4s ²	50.9415 650.9 1.63 23 V Vanadium [Ar] 3d ³ 4s ²	51.9962 652.9 1.66 24 Cr Chromium [Ar] 3d ⁵ 4s ¹	54.93804 717.3 1.55 25 Mn Manganese [Ar] 3d ⁵ 4s ²	55.845 762.5 1.83 26 Fe Iron [Ar] 3d ⁶ 4s ²	58.93319 760.4 1.91 27 Co Cobalt [Ar] 3d ⁷ 4s ²	58.6934 737.1 1.88 28 Ni Nickel [Ar] 3d ⁸ 4s ²	63.546 745.5 1.90 29 Cu Copper [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹	65.38 906.4 1.65 30 Zn Zinc [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ²	69.723 578.8 1.81 31 Ga Gallium [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ¹	72.64 762.0 2.01 32 Ge Germanium [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ²	74.92160 947.0 2.18 33 As Arsenic [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ³	78.96 941.0 2.55 34 Se Selenium [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ⁴	79.904 1139.9 2.96 35 Br Bromine [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ⁵	83.798 1350.8 3.00 36 Kr Krypton [Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ⁶
5	85.4678 403.0 0.82 37 Rb Rubidium [Kr] 5s ¹	87.62 549.5 0.95 38 Sr Strontium [Kr] 5s ²	88.90585 900.0 1.22 39 Y Yttrium [Kr] 4d ¹ 5s ²	91.224 91.224 1.33 40 Zr Zirconium [Kr] 4d ² 5s ²	92.90638 92.90638 1.60 41 Nb Niobium [Kr] 4d ⁴ 5s ¹	95.96 95.96 2.16 42 Mo Molybdenum [Kr] 4d ⁵ 5s ¹	(98) 702.0 1.90 43 Tc Technetium	101.07 710.2 2.20 44 Ru Ruthenium [Kr] 4d ⁷ 5s ¹	102.9055 719.7 2.28 45 Rh Rhodium [Kr] 4d ⁸ 5s ¹	106.42 804.4 2.20 46 Pd Palladium [Kr] 4d ¹⁰	107.8682 731.0 1.93 47 Ag Silver [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ¹	112.441 867.8 1.69 48 Cd Cadmium [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ²	114.818 568.3 1.78 49 In Indium [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ² 5p ¹	118.710 708.6 1.96 50 Sn Tin [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ² 5p ²	121.760 834.0 2.05 51 Sb Antimony [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ² 5p ³	127.60 869.3 2.10 52 Te Tellurium [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ² 5p ⁴	126.9044 1008.4 2.66 53 I Iodine [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ² 5p ⁵	131.293 1170.4 2.60 54 Xe Xenon [Kr] 4d ¹⁰ 5s ² 5p ⁶
6	132.9054 375.7 0.79 55 Cs Caesium [Xe] 6s ¹	137.327 502.9 0.89 56 Ba Barium [Xe] 6s ²	174.9668 523.5 1.27 71 Lu Lutetium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹ 6s ²	178.49 658.5 1.30 72 Hf Hafnium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ² 6s ²	180.9478 761.0 1.50 73 Ta Tantalum [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ³ 6s ²	183.84 770.0 2.36 74 W Tungsten [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁴ 6s ²	186.207 760.0 1.90 75 Re Rhenium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁵ 6s ²	190.23 840.0 2.20 76 Os Osmium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁶ 6s ²	192.217 880.0 2.20 77 Ir Iridium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁷ 6s ²	195.084 870.0 2.28 78 Pt Platinum [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁹ 6s ¹	196.9665 890.1 2.54 79 Au Gold [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ¹	200.59 1007.1 2.00 80 Hg Mercury [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ²	204.3833 589.4 1.62 81 Tl Thallium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ² 6p ¹	207.2 715.6 2.33 82 Pb Lead [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ² 6p ²	208.9804 703.0 2.02 83 Bi Bismuth [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ² 6p ³	(210) 812.1 2.00 84 Po Polonium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ² 6p ⁴	(210) 890.0 2.20 85 At Astatine [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ² 6p ⁵	(220) 1037.0 2.20 86 Rn Radon [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6s ² 6p ⁶
7	(223) 380.0 0.70 87 Fr Francium [Rn] 7s ¹	(226) 509.3 0.90 88 Ra Radium [Rn] 7s ²	(262) 470.0 1.03 103 Lr Lawrencium [Rn] 5f ¹⁴ 7s ² 7p ¹	(261) 580.0 1.04 104 Rf Rutherfordium [Rn] 5f ¹⁴ 6d ² 7s ²	(262) 105 105 105 Db Dubnium	(266) 106 106 106 Sg Seaborgium	(264) 107 107 107 Bh Bohrium	(277) 108 108 108 Hs Hassium	(268) 109 109 109 Mt Meitnerium	(271) 110 110 110 Ds Darmstadtium	(272) 111 111 111 Rg Roentgenium	(285) 112 112 112 Cn Copernicium	(284) 113 113 113 Uut Ununtrium	(289) 114 114 114 Fl Flerovium	(288) 115 115 115 Uup Ununpentium	(292) 116 116 116 Lv Livermorium	(294) 117 117 117 Uus Ununseptium	(294) 118 118 118 Uuo Ununoctium

atomic mass
or most stable mass number
1st ionization energy
in kJ/mol

atomic number

electronegativity

chemical symbol

name

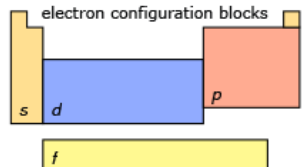
electron configuration

oxidation states
most common are bold

55.845
762.5
1.83
26
Fe
Iron
[Ar] 3d⁶ 4s²

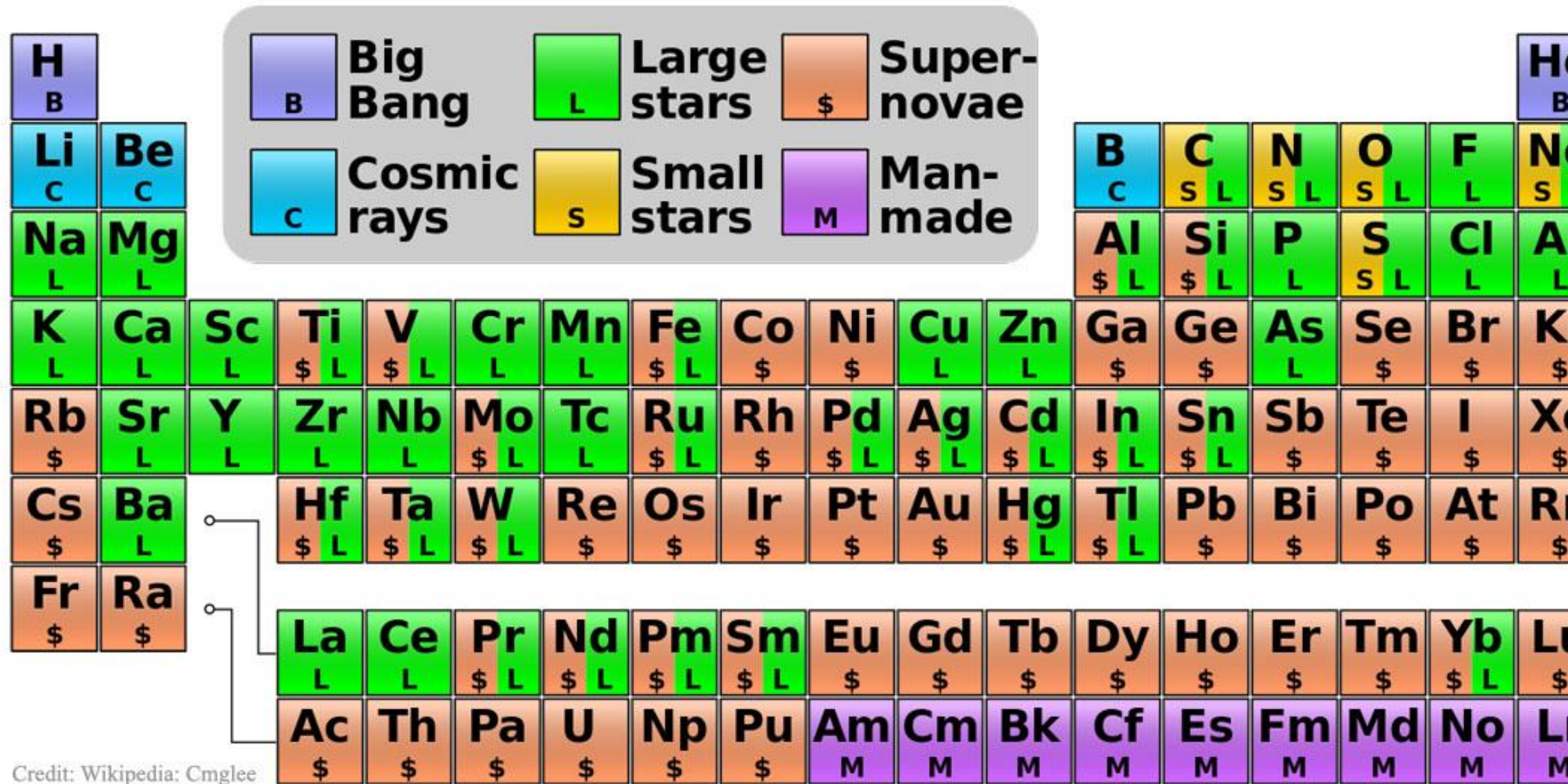
+6
+5
+4
+3
+2
+1
-1
-2

- alkali metals
- alkaline metals
- other metals
- transition metals
- lanthanoids
- actinoids
- metalloids
- nonmetals
- halogens
- noble gases
- unknown elements
- radioactive elements have masses in parentheses



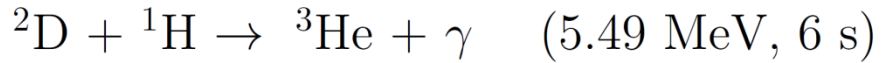
- notes
- as of yet, elements 113, 115, 117 and 118 have no official name designated by the IUPAC.
 - 1 kJ/mol ≈ 96.485 eV.
 - all elements are implied to have an oxidation state of zero.

138.9054 538.1 1.10 57 La Lanthanum [Xe] 5d ¹ 6s ²	140.116 534.4 1.12 58 Ce Cerium [Xe] 4f ¹ 5d ¹ 6s ²	140.9076 527.0 1.13 59 Pr Praseodymium [Xe] 4f ³ 6s ²	144.242 533.1 1.14 60 Nd Neodymium [Xe] 4f ⁴ 6s ²	(145) 540.0 1.13 61 Pm Promethium [Xe] 4f ⁵ 6s ²	150.36 544.5 1.17 62 Sm Samarium [Xe] 4f ⁶ 6s ²	151.964 547.1 1.13 63 Eu Europium [Xe] 4f ⁷ 6s ²	157.25 589.4 1.20 64 Gd Gadolinium [Xe] 4f ⁷ 5d ¹ 6s ²	158.9253 565.8 1.23 65 Tb Terbium [Xe] 4f ⁹ 6s ²	162.500 573.0 1.22 66 Dy Dysprosium [Xe] 4f ¹⁰ 6s ²	164.9303 581.0 1.23 67 Ho Holmium [Xe] 4f ¹¹ 6s ²	167.259 589.3 1.24 68 Er Erbium [Xe] 4f ¹² 6s ²	168.9342 596.7 1.25 69 Tm Thulium [Xe] 4f ¹³ 6s ²	173.054 803.4 1.25 70 Yb Ytterbium [Xe] 4f ¹⁴ 6s ²
(227) 499.0 1.10 89 Ac Actinium [Rn] 6d ¹ 7s ²	232.0380 587.0 1.30 90 Th Thorium [Rn] 6d ² 7s ²	231.0358 568.0 1.50 91 Pa Protactinium [Rn] 5f ² 6d ¹ 7s ²	238.0289 587.6 1.38 92 U Uranium [Rn] 5f ³ 6d ¹ 7s ²	(237) 604.5 1.36 93 Np Neptunium [Rn] 5f ⁴ 6d ¹ 7s ²	(244) 584.7 1.28 94 Pu Plutonium [Rn] 5f ⁶ 7s ²	(243) 578.0 1.30 95 Am Americium [Rn] 5f ⁷ 7s ²	(247) 581.0 1.30 96 Cm Curium [Rn] 5f ⁷ 6d ¹ 7s ²	(247) 601.0 1.30 97 Bk Berkelium [Rn] 5f ⁹ 7s ²	(251) 608.0 1.30 98 Cf Californium [Rn] 5f ¹⁰ 7s ²	(252) 619.0 1.30 99 Es Einsteinium [Rn] 5f ¹¹ 6s ²	(257) 627.0 1.30 100 Fm Fermium [Rn] 5f ¹² 7s ²	(258) 635.0 1.30 101 Md Mendelevium [Rn] 5f ¹³ 7s ²	(259) 642.0 1.30 102 No Nobelium [Rn] 5f ¹⁴ 7s ²

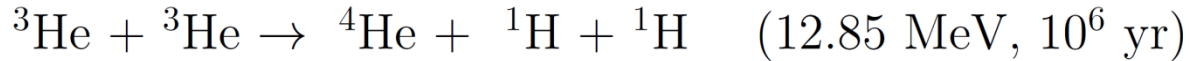


Credit: Wikipedia: Cmglee

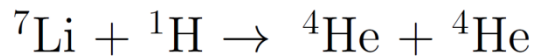
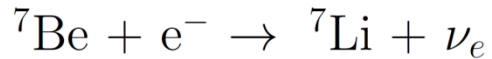
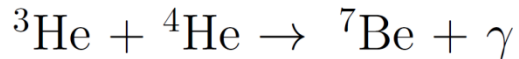
The proton-proton chain



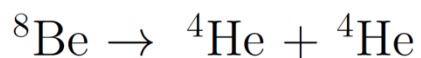
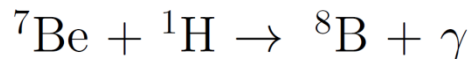
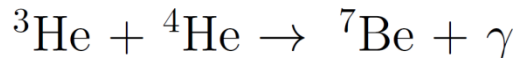
pp I chain



pp II chain



pp III chain



pp I important when
 $T_c > 5 \times 10^6 \text{K}$

$$Q_{total} = 1.44 \times 2 + 5.49 \times 2 + 12.85 = 27.7 \text{ MeV}$$

$$Q_{net} = 27.7 - 0.26 \times 2 = 26.2 \text{ MeV}$$

The baryon number, lepton number, and charges are all conserved.

All 3 branches operate simultaneously.

pp I is responsible for $> 90\%$ stellar luminosity

Exercise

Assuming that the solar luminosity is provided by $4\ ^1\text{H} \rightarrow\ ^4\text{He}$, liberating 26.73 MeV, and that the neutrinos carry off about 2% of the total energy. Estimate how many neutrinos are produced each second from the sun? What is the solar neutrino flux at the earth? (How many neutrinos pass through your body per second?)

Solution

2% is carried away by neutrinos, so the actual energy produced for radiation

$$E = (0.98 \times 26.731 \text{ MeV}) \times 1.6 \times 10^{-12} \text{ erg/eV}$$

Each alpha particle produced \rightarrow 2 neutrinos, so with $L_{\odot} = 3.846 \times 10^{33} \text{ ergs/s}$, the neutrino production rate is $2 \times 10^{38} \text{ } \nu/\text{s}$, and the flux at earth is $2 \times 10^{38} / 4\pi (1 \text{ AU})^2 \approx 6.6 \times 10^{10} \text{ } \nu \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$

The thermonuclear reaction rate,

$$r_{pp} = 3.09 \times 10^{-37} n_p^2 T_6^{-2/3} \exp\left(-33.81 T_6^{-1/3}\right) \\ (1 + 0.0123 T_6^{1/3} + 0.0109 T_6^{2/3} + 0.0009 T_6) \text{ [cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}\text{]},$$

where the factor $3.09 \times 10^{-37} n_p^2 = 11.05 \times 10^{10} \rho^2 X_H^2$

$$q_{pp} = 2.38 \times 10^6 \rho X_H^2 T_6^{-2/3} \exp\left(-33.81 T_6^{-1/3}\right) \\ (1 + 0.0123 T_6^{1/3} + 0.0109 T_6^{2/3} + 0.0009 T_6) \text{ [erg g}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}\text{]}$$

PP I vs PP II

i.e., ${}^3\text{He}$ to react with ${}^3\text{He}$ lower temp.

or with ${}^4\text{He}$ $T > 1.4 \times 10^7 \text{ K}$

Relative importance of each chain

i.e., branching ratio $\leftrightarrow T, \rho, \mu$

$T > 3 \times 10^7 \text{ K}$, PP III dominates

but in reality, at this temperature, CNO reactions take over.

Overall rate of energy generation is determined by the slowest reaction, i.e., the 1st one, $\tau \sim 10^{10} \text{ yr}$

$$Q_{pp} \sim \rho^n T^n, \quad n \sim 4-6$$

$$Q_{pp} \sim 26.73 \text{ MeV} \approx 6.54 \text{ MeV per proton}$$

$$n \sim 6 \text{ for } T \approx 5 \times 10^6 \text{ K}$$

$$n \sim 3.8 \text{ for } T \approx 15 \times 10^6 \text{ K (Sun)}$$

$$n \sim 3.5 \text{ for } T \approx 20 \times 10^6 \text{ K}$$

Among all fusion processes, the p-p chain has the lower temperature threshold, and the weakest temperature dependence.

$$Q_{pp} = (M_{4H} - M_{He}) c^2 = 26.73 \text{ MeV}$$

But some energy (up to a few MeV) is carried away by neutrinos.

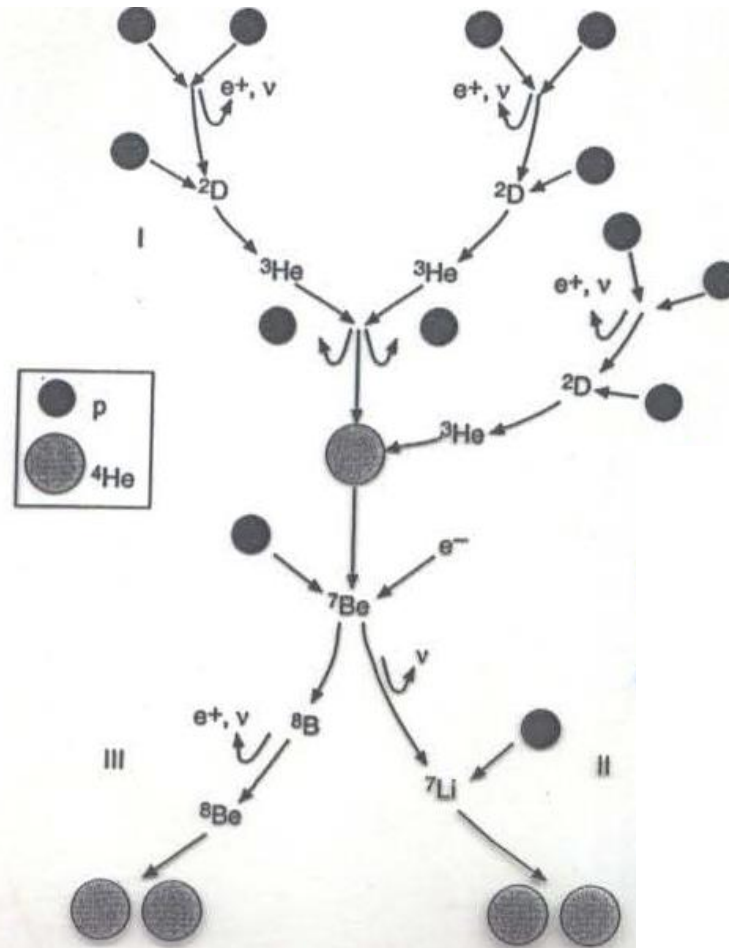
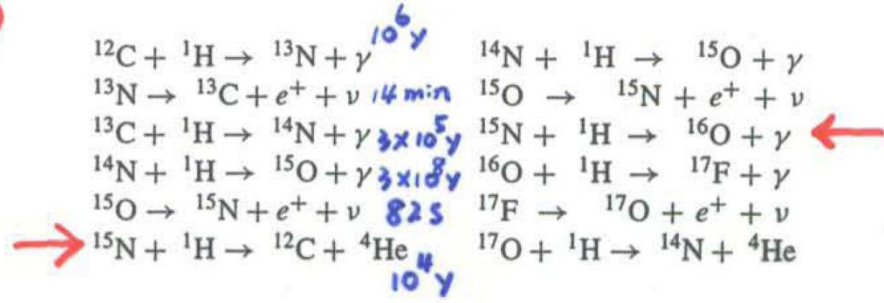


Figure 4.3 The nuclear reactions of the p-p I, II, and III chains.

CNO cycle (bi-cycle)

C, N, O as catalysts



CN cycle more significant
 NO cycle efficient only
 when $T > 20 \times 10^6 \text{ K}$

Recognized by Bethe and
 independently by von
 Weizsäcker

CN cycle + NO cycle

Cycle can start from any
 reaction as long as the
 involved isotope is present.

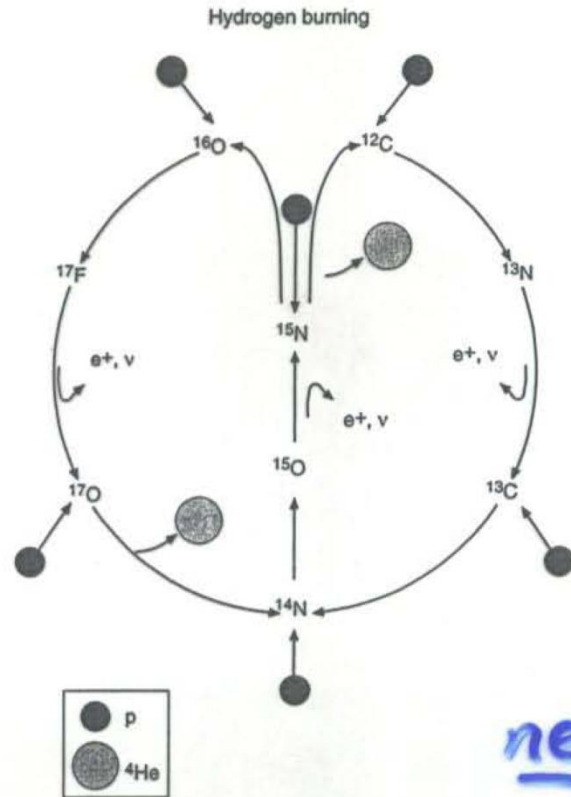


Figure 4.4 The nuclear reactions of the CNO bi-cycle.

net



$$Q_{\text{CNO}} \sim 25 \text{ MeV}$$

$$Q_{\text{CNO}} \sim \rho T^{16}$$

after that
 carried away by
 the neutrinos

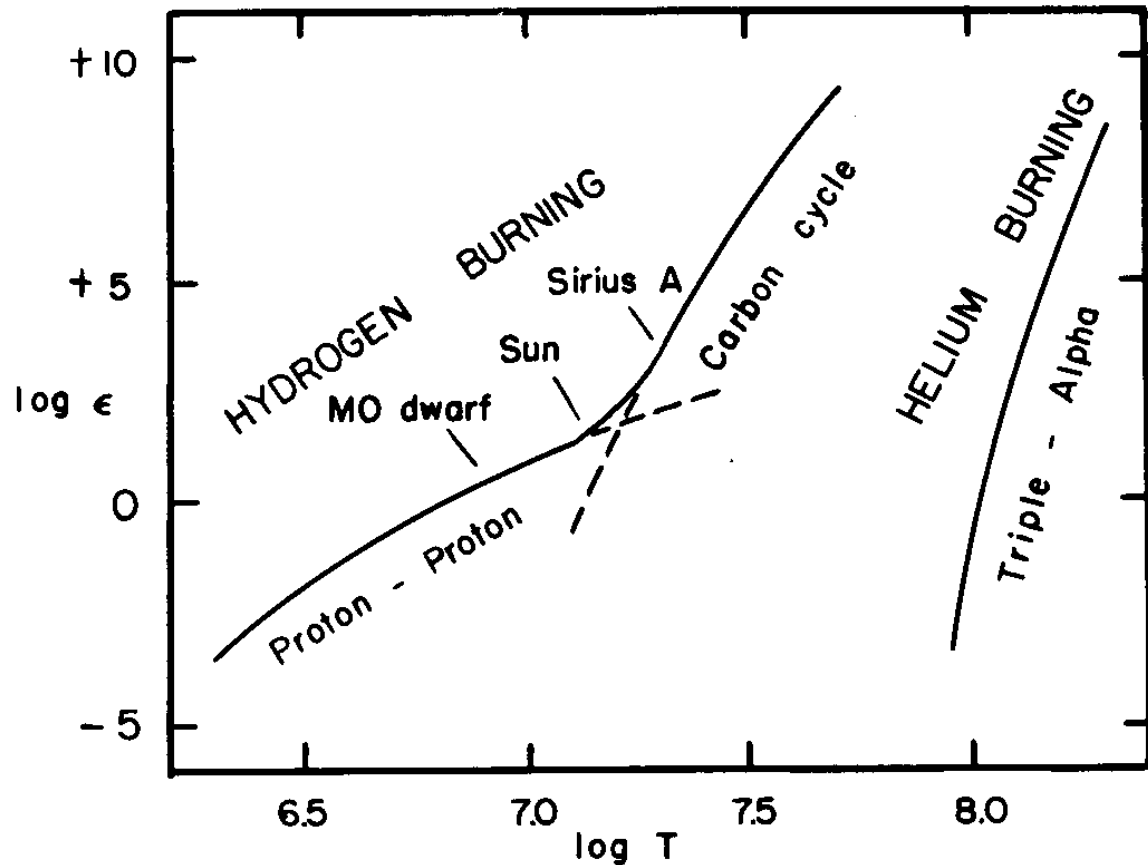


Fig. 10.1. Nuclear energy generation as a function of temperature (with $\rho X^2 = 100$ and $X_{\text{CN}} = 0.005X$ for the proton-proton reaction and the carbon cycle, but $\rho^2 Y^3 = 10^8$ for the triple-alpha process).

Schwarzschild

CN cycle takes over the PP chains near $T_6 = 18$.
Helium burning starts $\sim 10^8$ K.

At the center of the Sun,

$$q_{\text{CNO}}/q_{\text{pp}} \approx 0.1$$

CNO dominates in stars $> 1.2 M_{\odot}$, i.e., of a spectral type F7 or earlier

→ large energy outflux

→ a convective core

This separates the lower and upper MS.

The Solar Standard Model (SSM)

Best structural and evolutionary model to reproduce the observational properties of the Sun

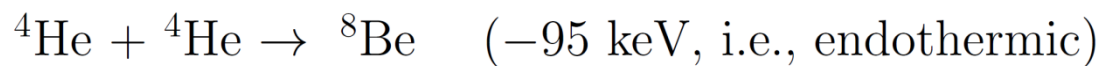
- $L_{\odot} = 3.842 \times 10^{33}$ [ergs/s]
- $R_{\odot} = 6.9599 \times 10^{10}$ [cm]
- $M_{\odot} = 1.9891 \times 10^{33}$ [gm]
- Spectroscopic observations $\rightarrow Z/X = 0.0245$
(latest value seems to indicate $Z_{\odot} = 0.013$)

Neglecting rotation, magnetic fields, and mass loss
($dM/dt \sim 10^{-14} M_{\odot}/\text{yr}$)

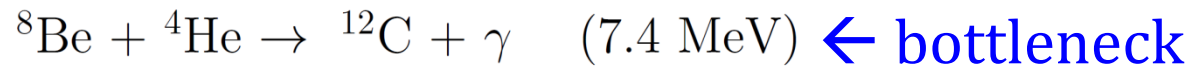
Sun Fact Sheet

<http://nssdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/planetary/factsheet/sunfact.html>

A He Gas — the triple-alpha process He-burning ignites at $T_c \sim 10^8$ K

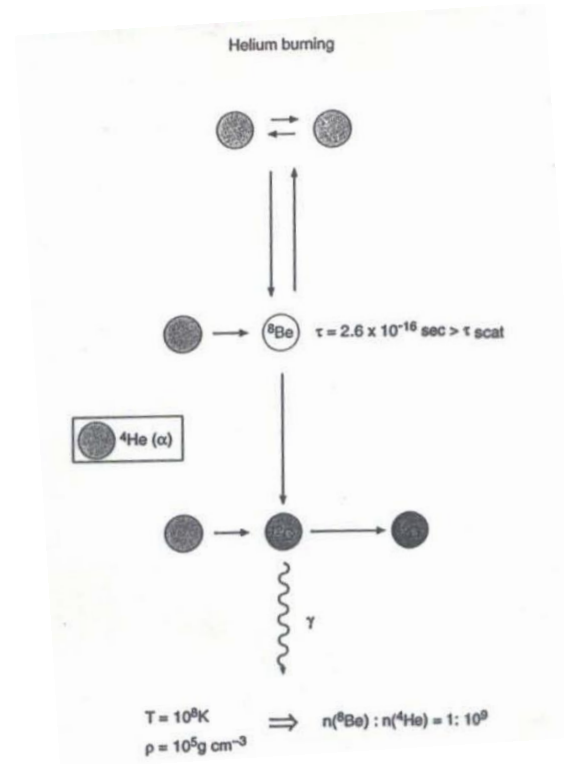


The lifetime of ${}^8\text{Be}$ is 2.6×10^{-16} s but is still longer than the mean-free time between α particles at T_8 (Edwin Salpeter, 1952)

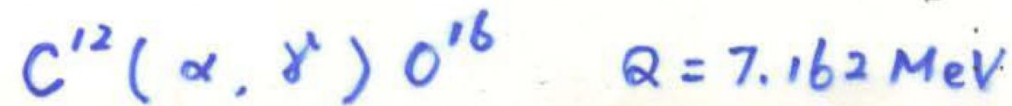


Note: net $3 {}^4\text{He} \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C}$

$Q_{3\alpha} = 7.275 \text{ MeV}$ net $3 {}^4\text{He} \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C}$
 $\rightarrow 5.8 \times 10^{17} \text{ erg g}^{-1} \sim 0.1 \text{ } \tau_{\text{H}} \rightarrow \text{He}$
 $g_{3\alpha} \sim \rho^2 T^{40}$ ∴ bottleneck = 2nd reaction $\leftrightarrow {}^8\text{Be}$

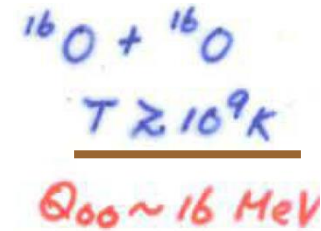
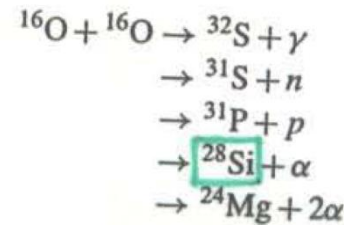
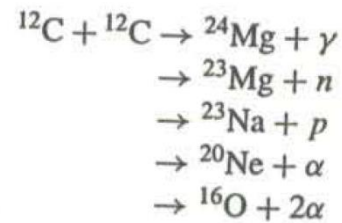
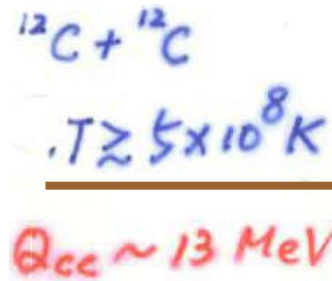


Nucleosynthesis during helium burning



A succession of (α, γ) processes
 $\rightarrow {}^{16}\text{O}, {}^{20}\text{Ne}, {}^{24}\text{Mg} \dots$ (the α -process)

A carbon/oxygen Gas



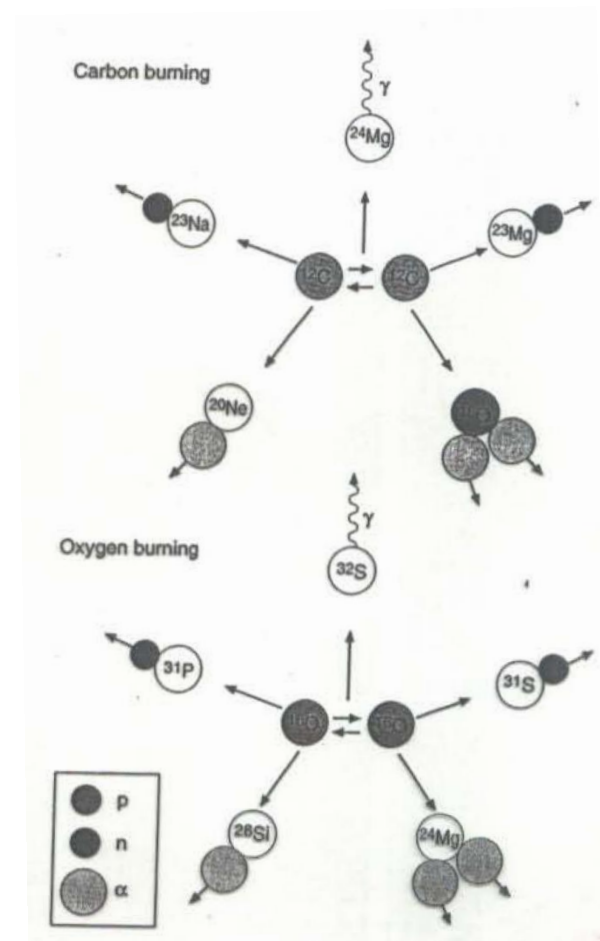
C-burning ignites when $T_c \sim (0.3-1.2) \times 10^9 \text{ K}$,
i.e., for stars $15-30 M_{\odot}$

O-burning ignites when $T_c \sim (1.5-2.6) \times 10^9 \text{ K}$,
i.e., for stars $> 15-30 M_{\odot}$

The p and α particles produced are captured immediately (because of the low Coulomb barriers) by heavy elements

→ isotopes

O burning → Si



$$q_{PP} = 2.4 \times 10^6 \rho X^2 T_6^{-2/3} \exp[-33.8 T_6^{-1/3}] \quad [\text{erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}]$$

$$q \propto \rho X_H^2 T^4$$

$$q_{CN} = 8 \times 10^{27} \rho X X_{CN} T_6^{-2/3} \exp[-152.3 T_6^{-1/3}] \quad [\text{erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}]$$

$$q \propto \rho X_H X_{CN} T^{16} \quad \frac{X_{CN}}{X_H} = 0.02 \text{ ok for Pop I}$$

$$q_{3\alpha} = 3.9 \times 10^{11} \rho^2 X_\alpha^3 T_8^{-3} \exp[-42.9 T_8] \quad [\text{erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}]$$

$$\approx 4.4 \times 10^{-8} \rho^2 X_\alpha^3 T_8^{40} \quad [\text{erg g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}] \quad (\text{if } T_8 \approx 1)$$

Does ^{28}Si follow the same scenario?



$\text{C} + \text{C}$ $6 \times 10^8 \text{K}$
 $\text{O} + \text{O}$ 10^9K

No! Coulomb barrier becomes extremely high; another nuclear reaction takes place



Photoionization

Likewise



Photodisintegration

For example, $^{16}\text{O} + \alpha \leftrightarrow ^{20}\text{Ne} + \gamma$

If $T < 10^9 \text{ K} \rightarrow$

but if $T \geq 1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ K}$ (in radiation field) \leftarrow

So ^{28}Si disintegrates at $\approx 3 \times 10^9 \text{ K}$ to lighter elements
(then recaptured ...)

Until a nuclear statistical equilibrium is reached

But the equilibrium is not exact

\rightarrow a pileup of the iron group nuclei (Fe, Co, Ni)

which can resist photodisintegration until $7 \times 10^9 \text{ K}$

Nuclear Fuel	Process	$T_{\text{threshold}}$ (10^6 K)	Products	Energy per nucleon (MeV)
H	p-p	~4	He	6.55
H	CNO	15	He	6.25
He	3α	100	C, O	0.61
C	C + C	600	O, Ne, Na, Mg	0.54
O	O + O	1,000	Mg, S, P, Si	~0.3
Si	Nuc. Equil.	3,000	Co, Fe, Ni	<0.18

From Prialnik Table 4.1



If $T \uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$, even ${}^4\text{He} \rightarrow p^+ + n^0$

So stellar interior has to be between a few T_6
and a few T_9 .

Lesson: Nuclear reactions that absorb (rather than emit) energy from ambient radiation field (in stellar interior) can lead to catastrophic consequences.

Time Scales

Different physical processes inside a star, e.g., nuclear reactions (changing chemical composition) are slow (longer time scales); structural adjustments (dP/dt) take places on relatively shorter time scales.

- ✓ Dynamical timescale
- ✓ Thermal timescale
- ✓ Nuclear timescale
- ✓ Diffusion timescale

Dynamical Timescale

hydrostatic equilibrium $\xrightarrow{\text{perturbation}}$ motion $\xrightarrow{\text{adjustment}}$ hydrostatic equilibrium

Free-fall collapse

$$\text{Equation of motion } \ddot{r} = -\frac{GM_r}{r^2} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP}{dr}$$

$$\text{Near the star's surface } r = R, M_r = M, \text{ so } \ddot{R} = -\frac{GM}{R^2} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP}{dR}$$

$$\text{Free-fall means pressure } \ll \text{ gravity, so } \ddot{R} \approx -\frac{GM}{R^2}$$

Assuming a constant acceleration $R = -(\ddot{R}/2) \tau_{\text{ff}}^2$, so

$$\tau_{\text{ff}} = (2R^3/GM)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{2}{3}\pi G \bar{\rho}\right)^{1/2}} \approx 0.04 \left(\frac{\rho_{\odot}}{\bar{\rho}}\right)^{1/2} \text{ [d]}$$

Stellar Pulsation

The star pulsates about the equilibrium configuration

→ same as dynamical timescale

$$\tau_{\text{pul}} \propto 1/\sqrt{\bar{\rho}}$$

Propagation of Sound Speed (pressure wave)

Pressure induced perturbation,

$$R/\tau_{\text{ff}}^2 = -\frac{\ddot{R}}{2} = \frac{GM}{R^2} + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP}{dR} \approx \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP}{dR} \approx \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{P}{R}$$

so $\frac{R}{\tau_{\text{ff}}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{P}{\rho}} \approx c_s$ (sound speed) $\propto \sqrt{T}$ (for ideal gas)

$$\tau_s \approx \frac{R}{c_s}$$

$$\text{In general, } \tau_{\text{dyn}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{G\bar{\rho}}} \approx \frac{1.6 \times 10^{15}}{\sqrt{n}} \text{ [s]} = 1000 \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{R_{\odot}}\right)^3 \left(\frac{M_{\odot}}{M}\right)} \text{ [S]}$$

Thermal Timescale

Kelvin-Helmholtz timescale (radiation by gravitational contraction)

$$E_{\text{total}} = E_{\text{grav}} + E_{\text{thermal}} = \frac{1}{2} E_{\text{grav}} = -\frac{1}{2} \alpha GM^2/R$$

This amount of energy is radiated away at a rate L , so timescale

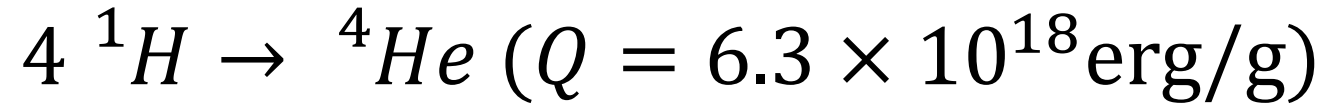
$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{\text{KH}} &= \frac{E_{\text{total}}}{L} = \frac{1}{2} \alpha GM^2/RL \\ &= 2 \times 10^7 M^2/RL \quad [\text{yr}] \text{ in solar units} \end{aligned}$$

$$\tau_{\text{KH}} \approx 2 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{R_{\odot}}{R} \right) \left(\frac{L_{\odot}}{L} \right) [\text{yr}]$$

$M = 1 \mathcal{M}_{\odot}, R = 1 \text{ pc}$	$M = 1 \mathcal{M}_{\odot}, R = 1 \mathcal{R}_{\odot}$
$\tau_{\text{dyn}} \approx 1.6 \times 10^7 \text{ yr}$	$\tau_{\text{dyn}} \approx 1.6 \times 10^3 \text{ s} \approx 30 \text{ min}$
$\tau_{\text{ther}} \approx 1 \text{ yr}$	$\tau_{\text{ther}} \approx 3 \times 10^7 \text{ yr}$

Nuclear Timescale

Time taken to radiate at a rate L on nuclear energy



$$\tau_{\text{nuc}} = \frac{E_{\text{nuc}}}{L} = 6.3 \times 10^{18} \frac{M}{L}$$

$$\tau_{\text{nuc}} \approx 10^{11} \left(\frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \right) \left(\frac{L_{\odot}}{L} \right) \text{ [yr]}$$

From the discussion above, $\tau_{\text{nuc}} \gg \tau_{\text{KH}} \gg \tau_{\text{dyn}}$

Main-Sequence Lifetime of the Sun

Energy Gained in a PP Chain

- $4\text{H} \rightarrow 1\text{He} + \text{neutrinos} + \text{energy}$
 - Mass of 4 H = 6.693×10^{-27} kg
 - Mass of 1 He = 6.645×10^{-27} kg
- Mass deficit $\rightarrow 0.048 \times 10^{-27}$ kg = 0.7%**

$$M_{\odot} \approx 2 \times 10^{33} \text{ [g]}$$

$$L_{\odot} \approx 4 \times 10^{33} \text{ [ergs/s]}$$

Fusion efficiency

**Nuclear
physics**

**Stellar
physics**

$$\tau_{\odot}^{\text{MS}} \approx M_{\odot} \frac{(0.007)(0.1) c^2}{L_{\odot}} = 3.15 \times 10^{17} \text{ [s]} = 10^{10} \text{ [yr]}$$

$$\text{Given } L_{\text{MS}}/L_{\odot} \approx (M/M_{\odot})^4 \rightarrow \tau^{\text{MS}} \approx 10^{10} (M_{\odot}/M)^3 \text{ [yr]}$$

Diffusion Timescale

Time taken for photons to randomly walk out from the stellar interior to eventual radiation from the surface

$$r_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2} \text{ (“classical” radius of the electron)}$$

$$\sigma_{\text{Thomson}} = \frac{8\pi}{3} r_e^2 = 6.6525 \times 10^{-29} \text{ [m}^2\text{]} \text{ for interactions with photon energy } h\nu \ll m_e c^2 \text{ (electron rest energy)}$$

Thus, mean free path $\ell = 1/(\sigma_T n_e)$, where for complete ionization of a hydrogen gas, $n_e = M/(m_p R^3)$.

So, $\ell \approx m_p R^3 / \sigma_T M = 4 \text{ [mm]}$ for the mean density.

At the core, it is 100 times shorter.

$\tau_{\text{dif}} \approx 10^4 \text{ [yr]}$ (Exercise: Show this.)

For an isotropic gas

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^{\infty} p v_p n(p) dp$$

- p and v_p : relativistic case
- $n(p)$: particle type & quantum statistics

For a photon gas, $p = hv/c$, so

$$P_{rad} = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^{\infty} hv n(\nu) d\nu = \frac{1}{3} u = \frac{1}{3} aT^4 ,$$
$$a = 7.565 \times 10^{15} \text{ ergs cm}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-4}$$

Radiation Pressure

$$P_{\text{total}} = P_{\text{radiation}} + P_{\text{gas}}$$

$$\text{Since } P_{\text{rad}} \sim T^4 \sim M^4 / R^4$$

$$\text{But } P_{\text{tot}} \sim M^2 / R^4$$

$$\rightarrow P_{\text{rad}} / P_{\text{tot}} \sim M^2$$

So the more massive of a star, the higher relative contribution by radiation pressure (and γ decreases to 4/3.)

When P_{rad} dominates

$$\mathcal{F} = \frac{-d P_{\text{rad}}/dr}{\kappa\rho} = \frac{4ac}{3} T^3 \frac{dT}{dr} = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$$

$$\frac{dP_{\text{rad}}}{dr} \sim \frac{\kappa\rho}{c} \frac{L}{4\pi r^2}$$

On the other hand, by definition

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP_{\text{tot}}}{dr} &= -\rho \frac{Gm}{r^2} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{dP_{\text{rad}}}{dP_{\text{tot}}} &= \frac{\kappa L}{4\pi c Gm} \end{aligned}$$

Toward the outer layers, both $P_{\text{gas}} \searrow$ and $P_{\text{rad}} \searrow$, so $P_{\text{tot}} \searrow\searrow$, and $dP_{\text{tot}} > dP_{\text{rad}}$. This leads to

$$\kappa L \leq 4\pi c G m$$

At the surface, $m = M, P = 0$, it is always radiative, so

$$L < \frac{4\pi c G M}{\kappa}$$

This is the **Eddington luminosity limit** = Maximum luminosity of a celestial object in balance between the radiation and gravitational force.

Numerically,

$$L_{\text{Edd}}/L_{\odot} = 3.27 \times 10^4 \mu_e M/M_{\odot}$$

For X-ray luminosity, scattered by electrons in an optically thin gas, $L_X < 10^{38} \text{ erg sec}^{-1}$

Eddington limit is the upper limit on the luminosity of an

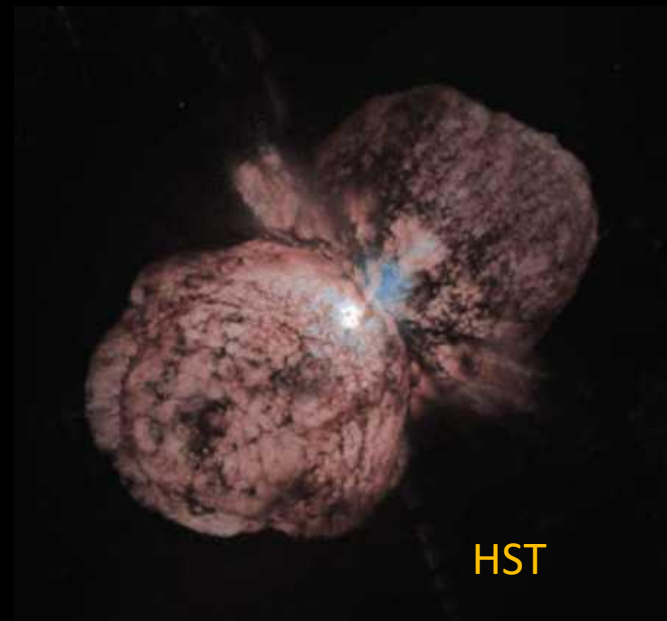
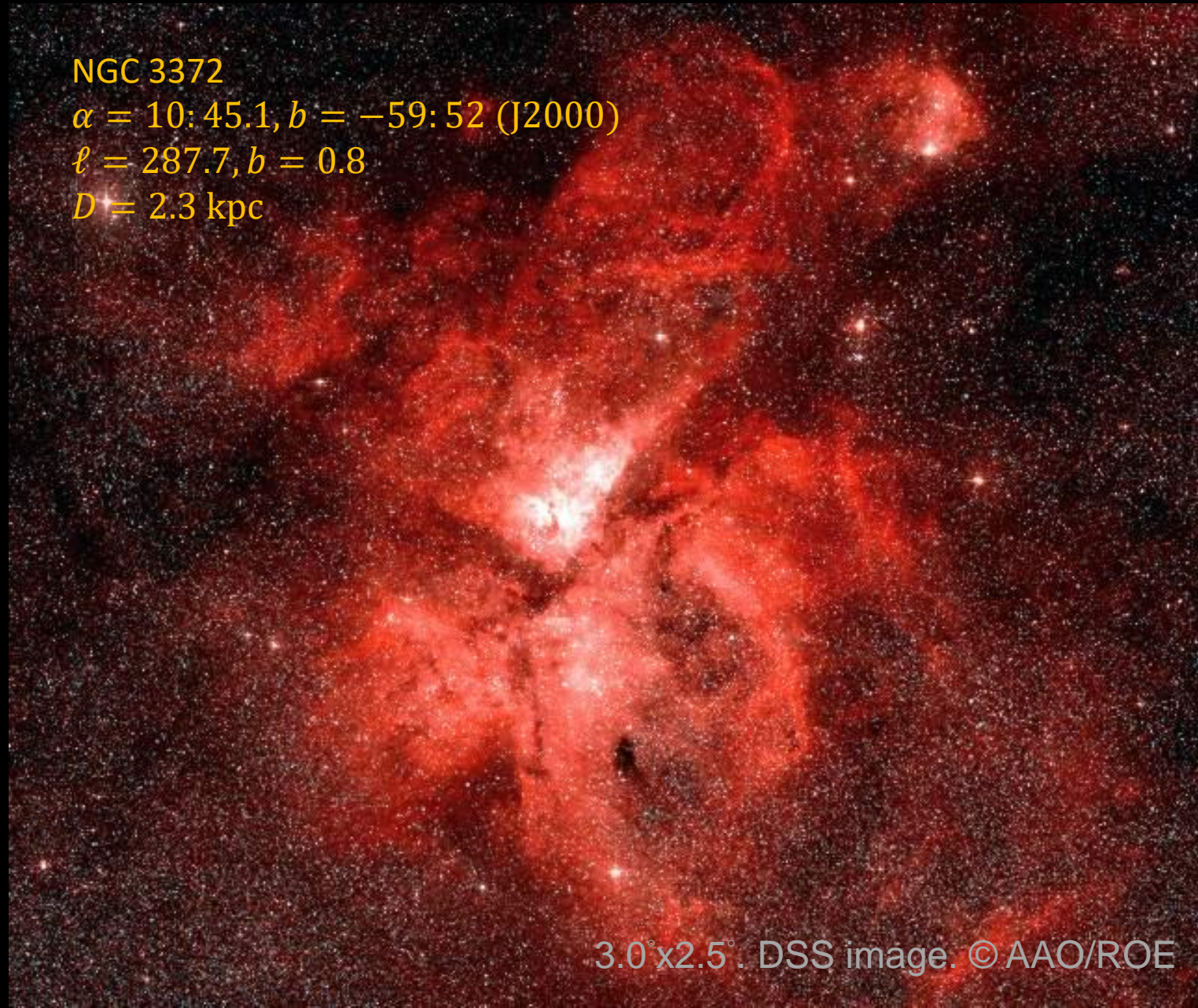
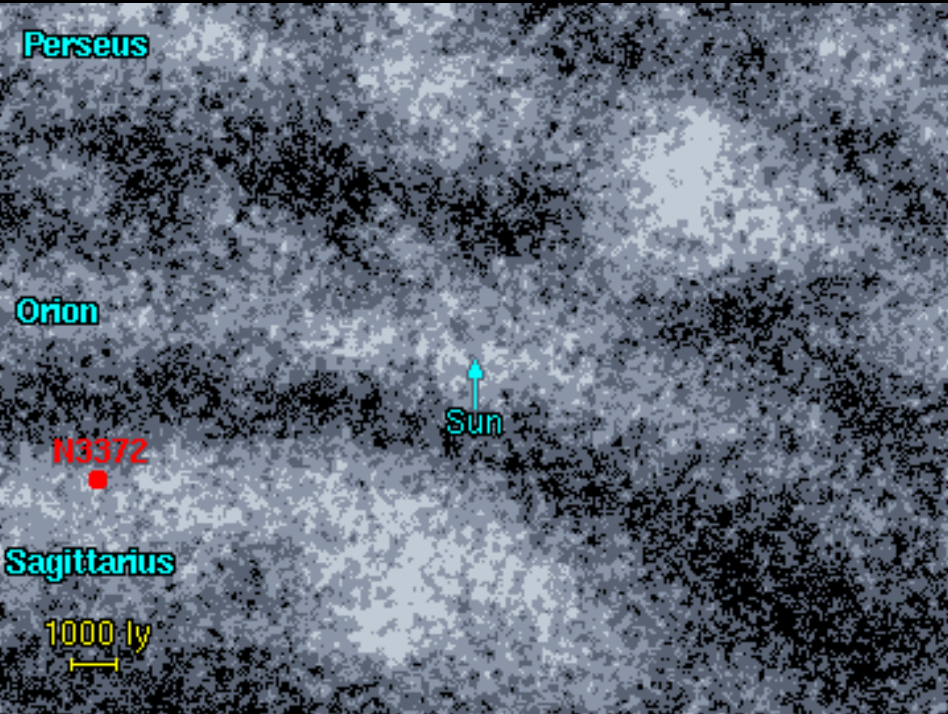
object of mass M , $L \leq \left(\frac{4\pi G m_p}{\sigma_T} \right) M$

$$\equiv L_{\text{Edd}} \approx 10^{38} M / M_{\odot} \text{ [erg s}^{-1}\text{]}$$

For 1 M_{\odot} , $L_{\text{Edd}} \approx 5 \times 10^4 L_{\odot}$, $M_{\text{bol}} = -7.0$

For 40 M_{\odot} , $M_{\text{bol}} = -11.0$

Eta Carina, $L \approx 5 \times 10^6 L_{\odot}$, $M_{\text{bol}} = -11.6$, $M \approx 120 M_{\odot}$



In general,

$$L_{\text{Edd}} \approx 3.2 \times 10^4 \frac{M}{M_{\odot}} \frac{\kappa_{\text{e}}}{\kappa} [L_{\odot}]$$

inequality is violated

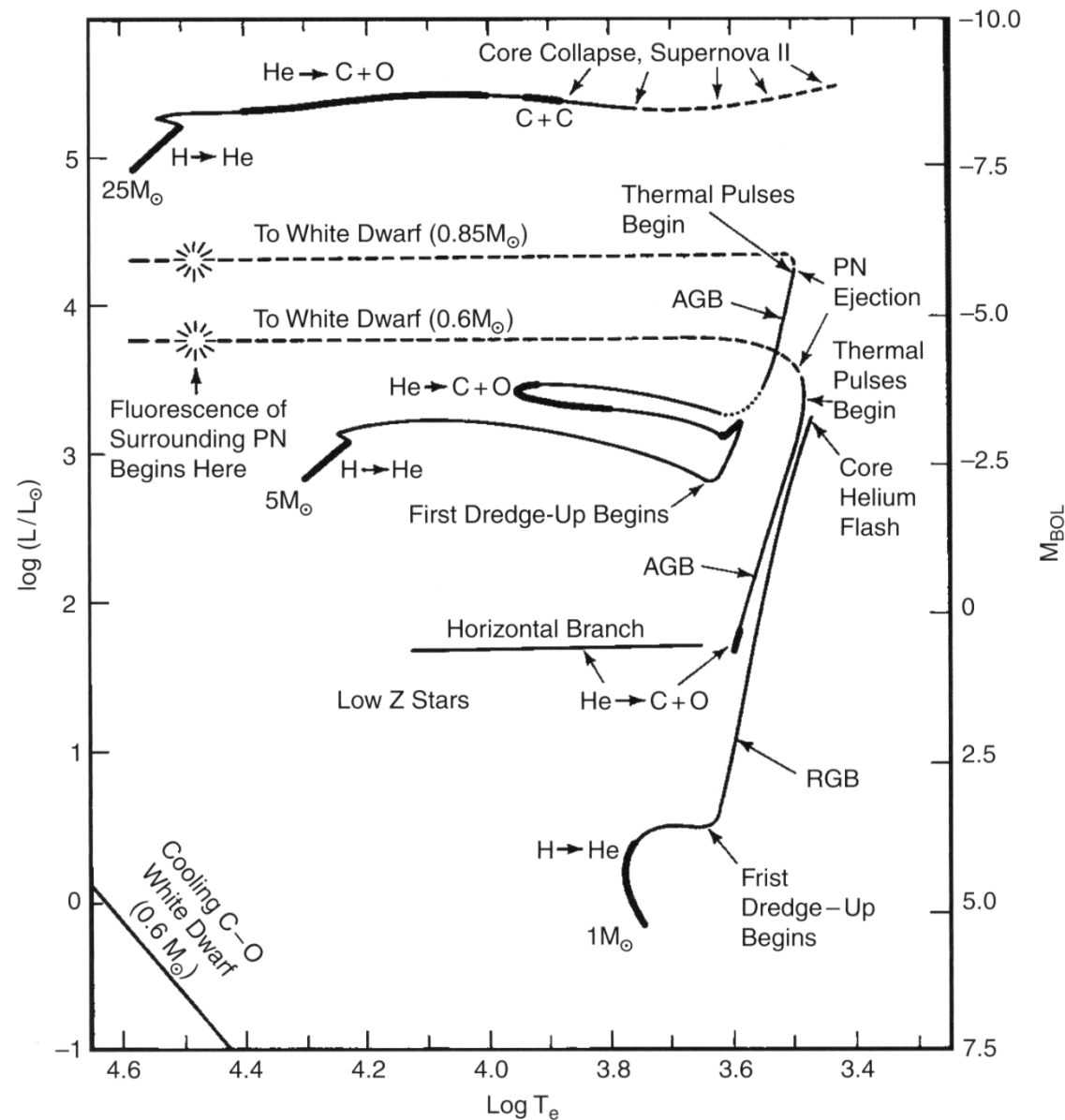
L_{Edd} can be exceeded if

- ① $L \uparrow \uparrow$, e.g., intense thermonuclear burning
- ② $\kappa \uparrow \uparrow$, e.g., H or He ionization

\Rightarrow Hydrostatic equilibrium can no longer be maintained

\therefore need a different heat transfer mechanism

Comparison of 1, 5, and 25 M_{\odot} stars



Evolutionary tracks of theoretical model stars in the HR diagram (Iben, 1985)