



Nuclear Astrophysics I. Preliminaries

Karlheinz Langanke

GSI & TU Darmstadt

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Karlheinz Langanke (GSI & TU Darmstadt)

Nuclear Astrophysics

Nuclear astrophysics aims at understanding the nuclear processes that take place in the universe. These nuclear processes generate energy in stars and contribute to the nucleosynthesis of the elements.



N. Grevesse and A. J. Sauval, Space Science Reviews 85, 161

Nuclear processes conserve number of nucleons:

 $n = \sum_{i} n_{i}A_{i}$ $n \text{ number of nucleons per cm}^{3}, n \approx \frac{\rho}{m_{u}} = \rho N_{A}$ $n_{i} \text{ number of nuclear species } i$

Abundance: $Y_i = \frac{n_i}{n} \Rightarrow n_i = \rho N_A Y_i$ (changes in density are factored out)

Mass fraction:
$$X_i = \frac{n_i m_i}{\rho} = \frac{n_i A_i m_u}{\rho} = Y_i A_i$$

From conservation of number of nucleons: $\sum_{i} Y_i A_i = \sum_{i} X_i = 1$

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From charge neutrality:

$$n_e = \sum_i n_i Z_i = n \sum_i Y_i Z_i$$

Introducing:
$$Y_e = \frac{n_e}{n}$$

 $Y_e = \sum Y_i Z_i$

In general one cannot define a lepton abundance. Lepton number is not locally conserved (neutrinos leave the system).

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Hoyle's cosmic cycle



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Nucleosynthesis processes

In 1957: Burbidge, Burbidge, Fowler, Hoyle, [Rev. Mod. Phys. **29**, 547 (1957)] suggested the synthesis of the elements in stars.



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Star formation



PRC95-44a · ST Scl OPO · November 2, 1995 J. Hester and P. Scowen (AZ State Univ.), NASA

- Stars are formed from the contraction of molecular clouds due to their own gravity.
- Contraction increases temperature and eventually nuclear fusion reactions begin. A star is born.
- Contraction time depends on mass: 10 millions years for a star with the mass of the Sun; 100,000 years for a star 11 times the mass of the Sun.

The evolution of a Star is governed by gravity

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What is a Star?



equilibrium: gravity \leftrightarrow pressure

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- A star is a self-luminous gaseous sphere.
- Stars produce energy by nuclear fusion reactions. A star is a self-regulated nuclear reactor.
- Gravitational collapse is balanced by pressure generated from nuclear reactions: $dF_{grav} = -G\frac{m(r)dm}{r^2} = dF_{press} = [(P(r + dr) - P(r))dA$
- Further, equation needed to describe the pressure as function of density, composition (nuclear reactions), temperature (heat transport) → Equation of State (EOS)
- Star evolution, lifetime and death depends on mass. Two groups:
 - Stars with masses less than 8 solar masses (white dwarfs)
 - Stars with masses greater than 8 solar masses (supernova explosions)

Transfer (strong interaction)

 ${\rm ^{15}N}(\pmb{\rho},\alpha){\rm ^{12}C}, \qquad \sigma\simeq \pmb{0.5} \ {\rm b} \ {\rm at} \ \pmb{E}=\pmb{2.0} \ {\rm MeV}$

Capture (electromagnetic interaction)

$${}^{3}\mathrm{He}(\alpha,\gamma){}^{7}\mathrm{Be},\qquad\sigma\simeq10^{-6}~\mathrm{b~at}~E=2.0~\mathrm{MeV}$$

Weak (weak interaction)

$$p(p, e^+
u)d, \qquad \sigma \simeq 10^{-20} \text{ b at } E = 2.0 \text{ MeV}$$

Basic ingredient to determine the change in composition are the reaction rates:

Suppose a nuclear reaction:

$$\frac{dN_1}{dt} = r_{34} - r_{12}$$

r number of reactions per cubic centimeter and per second. In these lectures we will discuss how to determine the different rates. Let us consider first the equilibrium situation: $\frac{dN_i}{dt} = 0$ This occurs at very high temperatures ($T \gtrsim 5$ GK = 430 keV) when the reactions proceed much faster than the dynamical evolution of the system (Big Bang, supernovae,...).

In equilibrium it suffices to know the chemical potentials

$$\mu_1 + \mu_2 = \mu_3 + \mu_4$$

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Processes mediated by the strong and electromagnetic interaction are in equilibrium. Normally neutrinos can escape and weak equilibrium cannot be achieved.

Processes of creation and destruction are in equilibrium

$$(Z, A) \rightleftharpoons Zp + Nn + \gamma's$$

Composition determined by (T, ρ, Y_e) . Entropy $(\sim T^3/\rho)$ is the main parameter determining the abundances. High entropies (low ρ , high T) favor free nucleons. Small entropies (high ρ , low T) favor bound nuclei.

During stellar burning, NSE is achieved at temperatures in access of about $(3-4)10^9$ K ($\sim 250-350$ keV). At such temperatures reactions via the strong and electromagnetic interaction proceed in both directions as temperature is high enough

- to overcome Coulomb barrier
- to dissociate nuclei by photons from the high-energy tail of the Planck distribution

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Consequences:

- All nuclei in the reaction network are connected to each other
- Complete chemical equilibrium
- There exist 2 'outside' constraints:
 - Mass conservation
 - 2 Charge neutrality (Y_e is fixed by environment)

The 2 conserved quantities imply 2 independent chemical potentials, which are chosen as μ_p (protons) and μ_n (neutrons).

NSE implies:

$$\mu(Z,A) = Z\mu_{p} + (A-Z)\mu_{N}$$

with the chemical potentials given by (Boltzmann)

$$\mu(Z,A) = m(Z,A)c^2 + kT \ln\left[\frac{n(Z,A)}{G(Z,A)}\left(\frac{2\pi\hbar^2}{m(Z,A)kT}\right)^{3/2}\right]$$

and the partition function:

$$G(Z,A) = \sum_{i} (2J_i + 1)e^{-E_i/kT}$$

Proton, neutron: G=2 (two spins!)

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Saha equation:

$$Y(Z,A) = \frac{G(Z,A)A^{3/2}}{2^{A}} (\rho N_{A})^{A-1} Y_{p}^{Z} Y_{n}^{N} \left(\frac{2\pi\hbar^{2}}{m_{u}kT}\right)^{3/2(A-1)} e^{E_{b}(Z,A)/kT}$$

with
$$E_b(Z, A) = (Nm_n + Zm_p - M(Z, A))c^2$$

and the constraints

- $\sum_{i} Y_i A_i = 1$ (conservation number nucleons)
- $\sum_{i} Y_i Z_i = Y_e$ (charge neutrality)
- High density: favors large $A (\sim \rho^{(A-1)})$
- High temperature: favors light nuclei ($\sim T^{-3/2(A-1)}$)

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NSE: Nuclear composition during core-collapse supernova.



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In astrophysical environments many reactions occur simultaneously. This is called a reaction network. Nuclei can be produced and destroyed by several reactions.

This leads to equations of the type:

$$\frac{dN_a}{dt} = -\sum_b \lambda_b N_a + \sum_b \lambda_b N_b - \sum_{b,c,d} N_a N_b \langle \sigma v \rangle_{c,d} + \sum_{b,c,d} N_c N_d \langle \sigma v \rangle_{a,b}$$
or

$$\frac{dY_{a}}{dt} = -\sum_{b} \lambda_{b} Y_{a} + \sum_{b} \lambda_{b} Y_{b} - N_{A} \rho \sum_{b,c,d} Y_{a} Y_{b} \langle \sigma v \rangle_{c,d} + N_{A} \rho \sum_{b,c,d} Y_{c} Y_{d} \langle \sigma v \rangle_{a,d}$$

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Consider a particle coming from $-\infty$ and the barrier: V(x) = 0 for x < 0 and $V(x) = -V_0$ for x > 0.

The solutions are plane waves with $k_1 = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$ for x < 0 and $k_2 = \frac{\sqrt{2m(E+V_0)}}{\hbar}$ for x > 0.

$$x < 0: \phi(x) = A_1 \exp\{ik_1x\} + B_1 \exp\{-ik_1x\}$$

 $x > 0: \phi(x) = A_2 \exp\{ik_2x\}$

At x = 0 the matching conditions for the wave functions and their derivatives yield:

$$A_1 + B_1 = A_2; \ A_1 - B_1 = \frac{k_2}{k_1}A_2.$$

This yields $A_2 = A_1 \frac{2k_1}{k_1 + k_2}$

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The transmission coefficient defines the ratio of the transmitted flux to the incoming flux.

$$T = \frac{j_{\text{out}}}{j_{\text{in}}} = \frac{k_{\text{out}} |\phi_{\text{out}}|^2}{k_{\text{in}} |\phi_{\text{in}}|^2}$$

with $j = \frac{\hbar k}{m} |\phi|^2$. For the example follows:

$$T = \frac{k_2 |A_2|^2}{k_1 |A_1|^2} = \frac{k_2 4 k_1^2}{(k_1 + k_2)^2 k_1} = \frac{4k_1 k_2}{(k_1 + k_2)^2}$$

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Consider a barrier which is $V(x) = +V_0$ for $x_1 < x < x_2 = x_1 + d$. The particle again comes from $-\infty$ with energy $E < V_0$. The transmission coefficient can be calculated as:

$$T = [1 + \frac{V_0^2}{V_0^2 - (2E - V_0)^2} \sinh^2(k_2 d)]^{-1}$$

with $k_2 = \frac{\sqrt{2m(E-V_0)}}{\hbar}$.

In the case $k_2 d >> 1$ the sinh function reduces to $\sinh^2(k_2 d) \approx \frac{1}{4} \exp\{2k_2 d\}.$

Thus,
$$T \sim \exp\{-\frac{2}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m(V_0-E)}d\}$$
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General potential V(x): numerical solution.

Often WKB approximation is sufficient. Example is the spherical Coulomb potential $V(r) = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r}$ where one finds

$$T \approx \exp\{-\frac{2}{\hbar}\int_{r_1}^{r_2}\sqrt{2m(V(r)-E)}dr\} = \exp\{-2\pi\eta\}$$

with the Sommerfeld parameter $\eta = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{2E}} \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar}$. r_1, r_2 are the classical turning points. The total reaction cross section is given by

$$\sigma = \frac{\pi}{k_{\rm in}^2} \sum_{l} (2l+1)T_l$$

In astrophysical applications one is often interested in cross sections at rather low energies. Then often only l = 0 partial waves (s-waves) contribute noticeably to the cross section as the centrifugal barrier reduces the transmission in other partial waves (Note, however, resonances!).

Total reaction cross section

• step barrier (neutrons) $k_1 = \frac{\sqrt{2\mu E}}{\hbar}; \ k_2 = \frac{\sqrt{2\mu(E+Q)}}{\hbar} \text{ with } E << Q$ Then k_2 roughly constant, $k_1 << k_2$ and $T_{l=0} = \frac{4k_1k_2}{(k_1+k_2)^2} \approx 4\frac{k_1}{k_2}$. For the cross section follows $\sigma = \frac{\pi}{k_1^2} 4\frac{k_1}{k_2} \sim \frac{1}{k_1}$. Indeed, $\sigma \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}} \sim \frac{1}{\nu}$ is a good approximation for low-energy neutrons.

constant barrier (charged particles)

$$\sigma = rac{\pi}{k_{
m in}^2} \exp\{-2\pi\eta\} = rac{\hbar^2 \pi}{2\mu E} \exp\{-2\pi\eta(E)\}$$

Penetration through Coulomb barrier at low energies is extremely energy-dependent. Some of this energy dependence is known and can be factorized from the cross section. This leads to the defnition of the

astrophysical S-factor $S(E) = \sigma(E) E \exp\{2\pi \eta(E)\}$.

For non-resonant reactions, S(E) is a slowly varying function in E_{s}

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Charged-particle cross section

Stars' interior is a plasma made of charged particles (nuclei, electron). Nuclear reactions proceed by tunnel effect. For p + p reaction Coulomb barrier 550 keV, but the typical energy in the sun is only 1.35 keV.



cross section: $\sigma(E) = \frac{1}{E}S(E)e^{-2\pi\eta}; \quad \eta = \frac{Z_1Z_2e^2}{\hbar}$

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Astrophysical S factor



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Stellar reaction rate

Consider N_a and N_b particles per cubic centimeter of particle types *a* and *b*. The rate of nuclear reactions is given by:

 $r = N_a N_b \sigma(v) v$

In stellar environment the velocity (energy) of particles follows a thermal distribution that depends on the type of particles.

• Nuclei (Maxwell-Boltzmann): $\phi(v) = N4\pi v^2 \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2kT}\right)$

The product σv has to be averaged over the velocity distribution $\phi(v)$

$$\langle \sigma \mathbf{v} \rangle = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \phi(\mathbf{v}_a) \phi(\mathbf{v}_b) \sigma(\mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v} d\mathbf{v}_a d\mathbf{v}_b$$

Changing to center-of-mass coordinates, integrating over the cm-velocity and using $\textit{E}=\mu\textit{v}^2/2$

$$\langle \sigma \mathbf{v} \rangle = \left(\frac{8}{\pi \mu}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{(kT)^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty \sigma(E) E \exp\left(-\frac{E}{kT}\right) dE$$

Gamow window

Using definition of S factor:

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle = \left(\frac{8}{\pi\mu}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{(kT)^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty S(E) \exp\left[-\frac{E}{kT} - \frac{b}{E^{1/2}}\right] dE$$



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Gamow window

Assuming that S factor is constant over the Gamow window and approximating the integrand by a Gaussian one gets:

$$\langle \sigma \mathbf{v} \rangle = \left(\frac{2}{\mu}\right)^{1/2} \frac{\Delta}{(kT)^{3/2}} \mathcal{S}(E_0) \exp\left(-\frac{3E_0}{kT}\right)$$

$$E_0 = 1.22 [\text{keV}] (Z_1^2 Z_2^2 \mu T_6^2)^{1/3}$$

$$\Delta = 0.749 [\text{keV}] (Z_1^2 Z_2^2 \mu T_6^5)^{1/6}$$

 $(T_x \text{ measures the temperature in } 10^x \text{ K.})$ Examples for solar conditions:

reaction	<i>E</i> ₀ [keV]	$\Delta/2$ [keV]	I _{max}	T dependence of $\langle \sigma \mathbf{v} \rangle$
p+p	5.9	3.2	1.1 × 10 ⁻⁶	T ^{3.9}
p+ ¹⁴ N	26.5	6.8	$1.8 imes 10^{-27}$	T ²⁰
$\alpha + {}^{12}C$	56.0	9.8	$3.0 imes 10^{-57}$	T ⁴²
¹⁶ O+ ¹⁶ O	237.0	20.2	$6.2 imes 10^{-239}$	T^{182}

It depends very sensitively on temperature!

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