Inside Stars

Nuclear fusion reactors in stars Nucleosynthesis & the cosmic abundances of elements Solar neutrinos Pulsations in stars & the instability strip Helioseismology The standard solar model

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Seeing inside stars

Light does not penetrate stars, but neutrinos and acoustic waves (sound) do.

- Nuclear fusion reactors in stars
- Temperature dependence of the fusion rate in stars
- Nucleosynthesis and the cosmic abundances of the elements
- Solar neutrinos and the former solar neutrino problem
- Radial and nonradial pulsations in stars
- Pulsating stars and the instability strip
- Helioseismology
- The standard solar model

Reading: Kutner Ch. 9.5–9.6, Ryden Sec. 15.4 and 17.3



Pulsation with $n, \ell, m = 14, 20, 16$ (Kosovichev et al. 1997).

Fundamental physics: The four forces of nature

To understand nuclear fusion, we need to review some fundamental physics. First, we have the concept that there are two kinds of particles:

- 1. The particles which make up matter
- 2. The particles which carry forces

This represents a different paradigm for forces than what you learned in introductory physics classes. Rather than Newtonian "action at a distance," forces are mediated by an exchange of force-carrying particles ($\vec{F} = d\vec{p}/dt$) between matter particles.

Force	Acts on	Carrier	Range	Strength
Strong nuclear	quarks, gluons	gluons	$10^{-15} { m m}$	1
Electromagnetism	charge	photon (γ)	∞ ; $1/r^2$	10^{-2}
Weak nuclear	fermions	W^{\pm} , Z	10^{-18} m	10^{-5}
Gravity	mass	graviton?	∞ ; $1/r^2$	10^{-39}

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Nuclear potential as a function of distance



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Fundamental physics: Matter

Matter is made of **quarks** and **leptons**. They come in three generations with two types of particle per generation:

Family	Ge	nerati	ions	Notes	
Quarka	и	С	t	Participate in all 4 interactions	
Quarks	d	S	b	(strong, weak, E&M, gravity)	
Lentone	<i>e</i> ⁻	$\mu^ \tau^-$ Abstain from str		Abstain from strong interaction	
Leptons	ν_e	$ u_{\mu}$	$ u_{ au}$		

All of these particles have spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ (i.e., $\frac{\hbar}{2}$). Thus:

- ► They are all **fermions**.
- They obey the Pauli exclusion principle.

Note: Each particle also has a corresponding **antiparticle** with some reversed quantum numbers. More on that in a moment.

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Fundamental physics: Quarks

- Quarks have fractional electric charge of $\pm \frac{1}{3}e$, where *e* is the electron charge.
- They come in three different kinds of the strong-interaction analog of charge (color): red, green, and blue.
- Individual quarks are never observed ("confinement").
- ▶ Nuclear particles are made of 2 or 3 quarks and are always *color-neutral*.
 - **Mesons**: quark-antiquark pairs (e.g., π^{\pm} , π^{0})
 - **Baryons**: three quarks (e.g., protons, neutrons)
- More exotic 4 and 5 quark states have also been created in accelerators (Swanson 2013, Aaij et al. 2014, Aaij et al. 2015).

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Quantities conserved in the four interactions

- Energy, linear momentum, angular momentum, etc.
- Electric charge
- Lepton number, separately for each generation of leptons

Particles	ℓ_e	ℓ_{μ}	ℓ_{τ}
e^-, ν_e	1	0	0
μ^- , $ u_\mu$	0	1	0
$ au^-$, $ u_ au$	0	0	1

Baryon number. For example:

Particle	Spin (ħ)	Charge (e)	Baryon #
U	1/2	+2/3	1/3
d	1/2	-1/3	1/3
proton (uud)	1/2	1	1
neutron (<i>udd</i>)	1/2	0	1

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Antiparticles

Each of the quarks and leptons has a corresponding **antiparticle**.

- Antiparticles have exactly the same mass and spin as the corresponding particle.
- They have the **opposite** electric charge, lepton number, and baryon number of the corresponding particle.

Notation used in this class (not standard):

baryon #
chargeParticlebaryon #
AntiparticleExamples:proton = ${}^{1}_{1}p$ or ${}^{1}_{1}H$ antiproton = ${}^{-1}_{-1}\overline{p}$ or ${}^{-1}_{-1}\overline{H}$ electron = ${}^{0}_{-1}e$ positron = ${}^{0}_{1}e^{+}$ photon = ${}^{0}_{0}\gamma$ electron antineutrino = ${}^{0}_{0}\overline{\nu}_{e}$

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From Chaisson & McMillan, Astronomy Today

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Fusion and $E = mc^2$

Mass is a form of energy. Even when a body is at rest and is far from other attracting or repelling bodies, it has a total **rest energy**

$$E_0 = m_0 c^2$$

where m_0 is the rest mass. In pp fusion:

- Two protons fuse to make a deuteron and two lightweight particles.
- The deuteron has a proton and neutron, both of which are about the same mass, but also a large negative potential energy from the strong interaction between them.
- Thus, the rest energy of the deuteron is *less* than the sum of the rest energies of the two protons. Equivalently, its rest mass is less than that of the protons.
- This suggests a convenient method for accounting for the energy released in fusion processes...

The proton-proton chains

Several different sequences of reactions starting with the fusion of two protons drive nuclear fusion in main sequence stars. Collectively, they are called the **proton-proton chains**.

► Here is pp chain I (70% of pp chain reactions):

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 2 \, {}^{1}_{1} \mathrm{H} \rightarrow \, {}^{2}_{1} \mathrm{H} + \, {}^{0}_{1} e^{+} + \, {}^{0}_{0} \nu_{e} & (\times 2) \\ \\ {}^{2}_{1} \mathrm{H} + \, {}^{1}_{1} \mathrm{H} \rightarrow \, {}^{3}_{2} \mathrm{He} + \, {}^{0}_{0} \gamma & (\times 2) \\ \\ 2 \, {}^{3}_{2} \mathrm{He} \rightarrow \, {}^{4}_{2} \mathrm{He} + 2 \, {}^{1}_{1} \mathrm{H} & \end{array}$$

Total:
$$4 {}^{1}_{1}\text{H} \rightarrow {}^{4}_{2}\text{He} + 2 {}^{0}_{1}e^{+} + 2 {}^{0}_{0}\nu_{e} + 2 {}^{0}_{0}\gamma$$

The rest mass of the products is less than the reactants, so the products have more kinetic energy than the reactants (heat!).

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Proton-proton chain I (PPI)



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The proton-proton chains

Note the application of all conservation laws:

 $2 {}^{1}_{1}H \rightarrow {}^{2}_{1}H + {}^{0}_{1}e^{+} + {}^{0}_{0}\nu_{e}$ Mass and baryon number are conserved in the ${}^{2}_{1}H$. The extra charge (+) is carried off by a non-baryon, the positron (an anti-lepton). An electron neutrino is needed to conserve lepton number.

 $^2_1\mathrm{H}+~^1_1\mathrm{H}
ightarrow~^3_2\mathrm{He}+~^0_0\gamma$

Energy and momentum cannot both be conserved unless there is more than one particle in the final state. A neutrino/antineutrino pair would also work here but would happen much less frequently.

The proton-proton chains

How much kinetic energy do the products have? The difference in rest mass between products and reactants gives the difference in binding (potential) energy:

$$\Delta W = m_0(\text{He})c^2 + 2m_0(e)c^2 - 4m_0(\text{H})c^2$$

$$\approx m_0(\text{He})c^2 - 4m_0(\text{H})c^2 \qquad (\text{Note: } \frac{m_p}{m_e} = 1836)$$

$$= 3.97m_pc^2 - 4m_pc^2 \qquad (\text{mass of He nucleus})$$

$$= -0.03m_pc^2$$

$$= -4.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ erg}$$

Compare to the average kinetic energy of particles in an ideal gas at 1.57×10^7 K:

$$\langle KE \rangle = \frac{3}{2}kT = 3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ erg}$$

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Nuclear catalysis: the CNO bi-cycle

One branch, the CN cycle:

$$\overrightarrow{}_{6}^{12}C + {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{7}^{13}N + {}_{0}^{0}\gamma {}_{7}^{13}N \rightarrow {}_{6}^{13}C + {}_{1}^{0}e^{+} + {}_{0}^{0}\nu_{e} {}_{6}^{13}C + {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{7}^{14}N + {}_{0}^{0}\gamma {}_{7}^{14}N + {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{8}^{15}O + {}_{0}^{0}\gamma {}_{8}^{15}O \rightarrow {}_{7}^{15}N + {}_{1}^{0}e^{+} + {}_{0}^{0}\nu_{e}$$

$${}_{7}^{15}N + {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{6}^{12}C + {}_{2}^{4}He Total: 4 {}_{1}^{1}H \rightarrow {}_{2}^{4}He + 2 {}_{0}^{0}e^{+} + 2 {}_{0}^{0}\nu_{e} + 3 {}_{0}^{0}\gamma$$

 ${}_{6}^{12}$ C is a **catalyst**; it is *not* used up in the reactions.

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This has the same rest mass difference, and therefore kinetic energy in the products, as the pp chains. It requires higher *T*, though.

Hot fusion

Why do pp chain reactions not take place in the ocean, where there is plenty of hydrogen?

- The Coulomb barrier prevents fusion. The average kinetic energy of oceanic H is *much* less than the height of the potential energy barrier due to electrostatic repulsion. Repulsion keeps the protons too far apart for strong interactions to take over.
- In fact, even at tens of millions of degrees, as in the centers of main sequence stars, the average kinetic energy is *still* too small for classical collisions to result in protons penetrating the Coulomb barrier.

Quantum mechanical **tunneling** through the Coulomb barrier is still required for fusion to occur, even at stellar core temperatures!

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Fusion by tunneling



A classical particle of energy E encountering a Coulomb barrier of potential U will scatter off the barrier if E < U. A quantum mechanical particle has a nonzero probability of penetrating the barrier because its wave function has a nonzero evanescent component in the region E < U.

Temperature dependence of proton fusion rate

Let us do a simplified version of a calculation first done by George Gamow (Gamow 1928) and also in Ryden pp. 362-366 and Shu p. 115.

Consider in 1D the fusion of two particles with masses m_1 and m_2 , charges q_1 and q_2 , speeds v_1 and v_2 , and separation r. Their reduced mass and relative speed is

$$m = rac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}, \qquad v = v_1 - v_2$$

Classically, they cannot get closer together than r_{\min} , where

$$W = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{q_1q_2}{r_{\min}} \implies r_{\min} = \frac{2q_1q_2}{mv^2}$$

Temperature dependence of proton fusion rate



Start with the Schrödinger Equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + U\psi = E\psi, \quad E < U$$
$$\psi(x > 0) = \frac{2k_1}{k_1 + k_2}e^{ik_2x}$$

where

$$k_1 = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}$$
 and $k_2 = i\kappa_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2m(E-U)}{\hbar^2}}$

The probability density that the particle is in the non-classical region x > 0 is nonzero:

$$p(x) = |\psi|^2 = \psi^* \psi = \frac{4k_1^2}{k_1^2 - \kappa_2^2} e^{-2\kappa_2 x}$$

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