MAJOR NUCLEAR BURNING STAGES

The Coulomb barrier is higher for heavier nuclei with high charge: The first reactions to occur are those involving light nuclei -- Starting from hydrogen burning, helium burning and then proceed to more advanced burning.

HYDROGEN BURNING

hydrogen is the most abundant element in the universe and has the lowest Coulomb barrier, so hydrogen burning is the first stage. The net- result is four H atom fused in He. The total energy released is $Q = 26.73$ MeV. This amounts to 0.7% of the rest mass of protons, some of this carried away by neutrinos. There are different chains of reactions by which a nuclear burning processs can occur for H there are 2 main chains: the PP chain (lower MS stars) and the CNO cycle (massive stars)
PP CHAIN

The PP chain divides into three main branches, which are called the PPI, PPII and PPIII chains.

The first reaction is the interaction of two protons (p or $^1$H) to form a nucleus of heavy hydrogen (deuteron, d, or $^2$H), consisting of one proton and one neutron, with the emission of a positron (e+) and a neutrino (e). The deuteron then captures another proton and forms the light isotope of helium with the emission of a gamma-ray. The $^3$He nucleus can then either interact with another $^3$He nucleus or with a nucleus of $^4$He (an alpha particle), which has either already been formed or has been present since the birth of the star. The former case is the last reaction of the PPI chain, whereas the latter reaction leads into either the PPII or the PPIII chain.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PPI chain</th>
<th>PPII chain</th>
<th>PPIII chain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>this starts with reactions</td>
<td>1 and 2</td>
<td>2 and 3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 p + p --&gt; d + e+ $\nu_e$</td>
<td>3' $^3$He + $^4$He --&gt; $^7$Be + $\gamma$</td>
<td>4'' $^7$Be + p --&gt; $^8$B + $\gamma$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 d + p --&gt; $^3$He + $\gamma$</td>
<td>4' $^7$Be + e-- --&gt; $^7$Li + $\nu_e$</td>
<td>5'' $^8$B --&gt; $^8$Be + e$^+$ + $\nu_e$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 $^3$He + $^3$He --&gt; $^4$He + p + p</td>
<td>5' $^7$Li + p --&gt; $^4$He + $^4$He</td>
<td>6'' $^8$Be --&gt; $^{24}$He</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Protons fuse

2. One proton is transmutated to a neutron, forming deuterium.

3. Deuterium fuses with another proton.

4. Two of the resulting helium nuclei fuse.

5. An alpha particle forms with the energetic release of two protons to complete the process.
Step 1: Proton-Proton fusion and deuterium formation

This reaction is slow and involves weak interaction. It involves transmutation of 1 proton to a neutron. On order to form d the protons have to undergo a Beta+ decay at the time of closest approach.

The rate evaluated to:

\[ r_{pp} = 1.15 \times 10^9 \ T_9^{-2/3} \ X^2 \ \rho^2 \ \exp(-3.380/ \ T_9^{-1/3}) \ \text{cm}^{-3} / \text{s} \]

where \( T_9 \) is the temperature in units of \( 10^9 \) K.

The lifetime of a proton against destruction is:

\[ t = n_p / dn_p / dt = n_p / 2 \ r_{pp} = 6 \times 10^9 \ \text{yr} \]

for Solar central val.
this reaction is very fast
the completion in PPI
is a He nucleus is by
fusion of 2 \(^3\)He

the other alternatives
require pre-existing
\(^4\)He
HELIUM 3 FUSION:
ALPHA-PARTICLE FORMATION
the PPI is the obvious route but it requires somewhat unlikely collision of 2 rel short lived nuclei. PPII requires splitting of nucleus that is twice as massive as helium. Relative importance of these chains depends on the abundance of He 3. Termination via PPI chain requires 2 of these nuclei to fuse so the rate of the chain varies as the square of their number density.
• As T increased equilibrium abundance of He 3 decreases

• with increasing T, importance of PPI compared to PPII and PPIII decreases

although the rate is determined by the slow initial reaction common to all three chains the exact energy yield depends of the relative importance of PPI, PPII and PPIII (because the fraction of energy lost via neutrinos is different). The leading term is

$$E_{pp} \sim 2.4 \times 10^4 T_9^{-2/3} X^2 \rho \exp(-3.380/ T_9^{-1/3}) \text{ erg/g/s}$$

dominant temperature dependence id the exponential arising from the cross-section!
THE CNO CYCLE:

the other main route for hydrogen burning is the CNO cycle. this involves Carbon, nitrogen and oxygen nuclei in a ‘catalytic’ role (elements are not consumed instead they are recycled and act as catalyst in the reactions). As with the pp reactions there are several alternative routes. All basically involve a series of proton captures interspersed with positron decays.
The cycle involves a total of four protons that react one after the other with the heavy nucleus (Carbon first). After the first reaction Carbon is turned into Nitrogen, then Oxygen is produced that finally decays back into Carbon emitting an alpha particle (Helium nucleus). During the cycle two neutrinos, three photons and two antielectrons are also emitted. The antielectrons will annihilate with electrons producing two more photons.

\[ E_{pp} \sim 4.45 \times 10^{25} \ T_9^{-2/3} \times \ Z \ \rho \ \exp(-15.228/ \ T_9^{1/3}) \text{ erg/g/s} \]
Relative energy production for the pp chain and CNO cycle. Note that at the temperature range typically found in main sequence stars, the contribution due to the pp chain is dependent on T^4 whereas that from the CNO cycle is T^17. Above 18 million K the CNO cycle contributes most of the energy and any further slight increase in core temperature leads to a greater increase in energy output.
hydrogen burning

heavier burning

helium burning

carbon burning

${\text{H}}\rightarrow{\text{He}}$ Energy

Neutrino

$^1_2\text{C} \rightarrow ^{16}_{12}\text{O}$ Magnesium 24

$^1_2\text{C} \rightarrow ^{24}_{12}\text{Mg}$
HELUM BURNING

Hydrogen burning takes most the stars active life. In the core hydrogen is converted into helium. when hydrogen is exhausted the core contracts and heats --- the star leaves the MS.
If the core temperature reaches $10^8$ K, He-burning begins. This happens for $M_{\text{star}} > 0.5 \, M_{\odot}$. (Lower mass stars have insufficient gravitational potential energy to burn He their contraction is halted by electron degeneracy pressure)

The key reactions are:

\begin{align*}
{^4}\text{He} + {^4}\text{He} & \leftrightharpoons {^8}\text{Be} \quad (\text{-0.095 MeV}) \\
{^8}\text{Be} + {^4}\text{He} & \longrightarrow {^{12}}\text{C} + \gamma + 7.367 \text{ MeV} \\
\text{TRIPLE ALPHA REACTION} \quad & \text{3} \, {^4}\text{He} \longrightarrow {^{12}}\text{C} + \gamma
\end{align*}
The $^8\text{Be}$ produced in the first step is unstable and decays back into two helium nuclei in $2.6 \times 10^{-16}$ seconds. This time is short but sufficient to build up a small equilibrium abundance of $^8\text{Be}$; capture of another alpha particle then leads to $^{12}\text{C}$. This conversion of three alpha particles to $^{12}\text{C}$ is called the triple-alpha process.

Ordinarily, the probability of this occurring would be extremely small. However, the beryllium-8 ground state has almost exactly the energy of two alpha particles. In the second step, $^8\text{Be} + ^4\text{He}$ has almost exactly the energy of an excited state of $^{12}\text{C}$. These resonances greatly increase the probability that an incoming alpha particle will combine with beryllium-8 to form carbon. The fact that the existence of carbon depends on an energy level being exactly the right place, has been controversially cited by Fred Hoyle as evidence for the anthropic principle (we are carbon-based human beings!!).
As a side effect of the process, some carbon nuclei can fuse with additional helium to produce a stable isotope of oxygen:

\[ ^{12}\text{C} + ^{4}\text{He} \rightarrow ^{16}\text{O} + \gamma \]
**Advanced Nuclear Burning Stages**

Following the Triple-alpha process there are a variety of reactions which may occur depending on the mass of the star. Three general principles influence the roles that these nuclear burning stages may play:

1. Successive nuclear burning stages, involving more massive nuclei with higher charges, will require increasingly high temperatures to overcome the increased electrical repulsion.

2. The amount of energy released by each successive reaction stage decreases so that later nuclear burning stages become shorter and shorter.

3. Once fusion reactions have produced an iron core, further fusion reactions no longer produce energy, but absorb energy from the stellar core. As we shall see this may have a catastrophic effect on the star as it nears the end of its life.
Carbon Burning: at $T > 5 \times 10^8$ K. In the order of probability the following reactions can take place:

$$^{12}C + ^{12}C \rightarrow ^{23}Na + p$$
$$^{20}Ne + ^4He$$
$$^{24}Mg + \gamma$$

Oxygen Burning: at $T > 10^9$ K. Oxygen can burn as well

$$^{16}O + ^{16}O \rightarrow ^{28}Si + ^4He$$
$$S + n$$

... then silicon burning and so on..
The nuclear burning can proceed all the way to iron - the most stable nucleus. Overall the predictions of stellar nucleosynthesis are in very good agreement with the abundance of elements in the universe. For a star of $M > 10M_{\odot}$ the star can go through virtually all the nuclear burning structure and develop and ‘onion’-like nuclear burning structure.

Elements heavier than iron are formed by adding neutrons (have no Coulomb barrier) and subsequent radiative decays ($\beta^-$-decay, $\beta^+$-decay, $\alpha$-decay) via the so-called s-process or r-process ($s=$ slow, $r=$rapid). s-process occurs in AGB stars r-process in supernovae.

In the core of the star, burning of different nuclei takes place in shells around the iron core, at successively lower temperatures.
At the end of the 60's the radiochemical Homestake experiment began the observation of solar neutrinos through the charged current reaction $\nu_e + ^{37}\text{Cl} \rightarrow ^{37}\text{Ar} + e^-$ with an energy threshold $E = 0.814 \text{ MeV}$, which allows to observe mainly $^7\text{Be}$ and $^8\text{B}$ neutrinos from the sun. The Homestake experiment detected solar neutrinos for about 30 years, measuring a flux which is about one third of the one predicted.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiment</th>
<th>reaction</th>
<th>threshold</th>
<th>location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kamiokande</td>
<td>$\nu_e e \rightarrow \nu_e e$</td>
<td>7.3 MeV</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homestake</td>
<td>$\nu_e + ^{37}Cl \rightarrow e^- + ^{37}Ar$</td>
<td>0.8 MeV</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAGE</td>
<td>$\nu_e ^{71}Ga \rightarrow e^+ + ^{71}Ge$</td>
<td>0.233 MeV</td>
<td>Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALLEX</td>
<td>$\nu_e ^{71}Ga \rightarrow e^+ + ^{71}Ge$</td>
<td>0.233 MeV</td>
<td>Italy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Presently operating solar neutrino experiments.
the Homestake mine of South Dakota
(Ray Davis won the Nobel Prize in Physics in 2002)

His detector consisted of a tank of 615 tonnes of perchloroethylene - a dry-cleaning fluid. On very rare occasions - about twice every three days - a neutrino would interact with a nucleus of chlorine in the liquid and produce a nucleus of radioactive argon.

argon has a 1/2 life of 35 days
super-kamiokande neutrino telescope (JAPAN)
the solar neutrino problem:

Total Rates: Standard Model vs. Experiment
Bahcall-Pinsonneault 2000
Sudbury Neutrino Observatory (SNO)

SNO
Sudbury Neutrino Observatory

Located in Ontario, Canada
2039 m underground
$10^{11}$ m to Sun

9500 photomultiplier tubes
Acrylic vessel containing 1000 tonnes of heavy water
7000 tonnes of ultra-pure light water for shielding and support