Unknowingly, we plow the dust of stars, blown about us by the wind, and drink the universe in a glass of rain.

Ihab Hassan

University of Notre Dame

JINA Lecture Series on Tools and Toys in Nuclear Astrophysics

# Nuclear Reaction Network Techniques

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Los Alamos National Laboratory Steward Observatory, University of Arizona Sites of the week

ø nucleo.ces.clemson.edu/pages/nse/0.1/

www.astro.ucla.edu/~wright/cosmology\_faq.html

www.astronomynotes.com/cosmolgy/chindex.htm

www.cococubed.com/papers/meyer94.pdf

www.cococubed.com/papers/wallerstein97.pdf

#### Syllabus

1 June 20 Purpose, Motivation, Forming a network, PP-chain code

2 June 21 Jacobian formation, Energy generation, Time integration, CNO-cycle code

3 June 22 Linear algebra, Thermodynamic trajectories, Alpha-chain code

4 June 23 Nuclear Statistical Equilibrium code, Big-Bang code

5 June 24 Networks in hydrodynamic simulations, General network code

The origin of this (LEQS) legacy routine is somewhat obscure, in use by at least 1962, and is probably the most common linear algebra package presently used for evolving reaction networks.

LEQS is used in the codes I'm providing for the JINA lectures.



Ford-Seattle 1962

MA28 is described by Duff, Erisman & Reid (1985) in their book "Direct Methods for Sparse Matrices". MA28 is the Coke classic of sparse matrix solves.

UMFPACK is a modern, direct sparse matrix solver. www.cise.ufl.edu/research/sparse/umfpack/

In such packages one continuous real parameter sets the amount of searching done to locate the pivot element. When set to zero, no searching is done and the diagonal element is the pivot. When set to unity, complete partial pivoting is done.

BiCG is described by Barret et al (1993) in their "Templates for the Solution of Linear Systems: Building Blocks for Iterative Methods".

SPARSKIT is a modern, iterative sparse matrix solver. www-users.cs.umn.edu/~saad/software/SPARSKIT/sparskit.html

Both method generates a sequence of vectors for the matrix A and another sequence for the transpose matrix A<sup>T</sup>. These vector sequences are the residuals of the iterations and are made mutually orthogonal, or bi-orthogonal.

Its usually improves mass and energy conservation to append the energy generation rate to our set of ODEs

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm nuc} = -\sum_{i} N_A M_i c^2 \dot{Y}_i - \dot{\epsilon}_{\nu}$$



One also encounters cases where the post-processing of a previously calculated thermodynamic trajectory is desired.

 In this case one interpolates T(t) and ρ(t) for time point demanded by the integration, and one uses the hydrostatic ODEs dT/dt=0 and dρ/dt=0.



To decrease the resources usage means making a choice between having fewer isotopes in the reaction network or having less spatial resolution.

The general response to this tradeoff has been to evolve a limited number of isotopes, and thus calculate an approximate thermonuclear energy generation rate.

The set of 13 nuclei most commonly used for this purpose are <sup>4</sup>He, <sup>12</sup>C, <sup>16</sup>O, <sup>20</sup>Ne, <sup>24</sup>Mg, <sup>28</sup>Si, <sup>32</sup>S, <sup>36</sup>Ar, <sup>40</sup>Ca, <sup>44</sup>Ti, <sup>48</sup>Cr, <sup>52</sup>Fe, <sup>56</sup>Ni.

This minimal set of nuclei, usually called an α-chain network, can reasonably track the abundance levels from helium burning through nuclear statistical equilibrium.

 At conditions of high temperature (T ≥ 3x10<sup>9</sup> K), the thermonuclear reaction rates may be sufficiently rapid to achieve equilibrium within the timescale set by the hydrodynamics of the astrophysical setting.

In most such cases, the strong and electromagnetic reactions reach equilibrium while those involving the weak nuclear force do not. Thus, the resulting Nuclear Statistical Equilibrium (NSE) requires monitoring of weak reaction activity.



Meghnad Saha 1893–1956

 NSE permits considerable simplification since calculation of the nuclear abundances are uniquely defined by the temperature T, density ρ, and the degree of neutronization Y<sub>e</sub>.

This reduction in the number of independent variables greatly reduces the cost (CPU and memory) of nuclear abundance evolution, an issue of importance in modern multi-dimensional hydrodynamic models.



SE calculations depend on binding energies and partition functions, quantities which are better known than many reaction rates.

This is particularly true for unstable nuclei and for conditions where the mass density approaches that of the nucleus itself, resulting in exotic nuclear structures.



All components of the system, electrons, nuclei, and free nucleons are assumed to be in thermal equilibrium at a given temperature. All strong and electromagnetic reactions occur at rates balanced by their inverses.



Assuming nuclei can be treated as an ideal, nonrelativistic, nondegenerate gas, the mass fraction of the nucleus <sup>A</sup>Z is given by the Maxwell-Boltzmann relation

$$X_{i} = \frac{A_{i}}{N_{A}\rho} \ \omega(T) \left(\frac{2\pi A_{i}m_{\text{amu}}}{h^{2}kT}\right)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{\mu_{i} + B_{i}}{kT}\right)$$

where  $\omega(T)$  is the partition function and  $\mu_i$  is the chemical potential of isotope i, which is related to the chemical potential of the neutrons and protons as

 $\mu_i = (A_i - Z_i)\mu_n + Z\mu_p$ 

#### The constraints of mass and charge conservation



give two equations for the two unknowns,  $\mu_n$  and  $\mu_p$ .





Hartmann et al. ApJ 297,837, 1985

Statistical equilibrium is the condition of maximum entropy maximum randomness. All allowed macroscopic states, all sets of abundance with a total energy E and satisfying our constraints are available to the system, and all are equally likely.

How then are definite abundances possible?



As with any equilibrium distribution, there are limitations on the applicability of NSE. For NSE to provide a good estimate of the nuclear abundances the temperature must be sufficient for the endoergic reaction of each reaction pair to occur.

T > 3 x 10<sup>9</sup> K. Sually the endothermic reactions are photodisintegrations, with typical Q-values among  $\beta$  stable nuclei of 8–12 MeV, or

While this requirement is necessary, it is not sufficient. Time is needed for a composition to adjust to an NSE state.



In the face of sufficiently rapid thermodynamic variations, NSE provides a poor estimate of the abundances.

If weak interactions are also balanced (e.g., neutrino capture occurring as frequently on the daughter nucleus as electron capture on the parent), then only two parameters, ρ and T, specify the abundances.



This last occurred for  $T > 10^9$  K in the Big Bang.

# Interlude



The sower 1888. Oil on canvas. 72.5 x 92 cm Vincent van Gogh

When we look at the starry night ...



The Starry Night over the Rhone, 1888. Oil on canvas. 72.5 x 92 cm Vincent van Gogh

 we find hydrogen and helium are the dominant elements.

Why is that?



The lovely story of how the universe became dominated by hydrogen and helium is called Big Bang nucleosynthesis.

> Sunflowers 1889. Oil on canvas. 73 x 95 cm Vincent van Gogh



While there are lots of interesting ideas to explore within the Big Bang paradigm, we'll focus on forging the elements.



 Before we explore
 in detail how to cook up the elements, let's take a broad overview look at the key events that occurred as the universe cooled down.



Illustration from L'atmosphere: meteorologie populaire, 1888, by Camille Flammarion

When the temperature was above 10<sup>12</sup> K, the universe contained a great variety of particles in thermal equilibrium, including photons, leptons, mesons, nucleons, and their antiparticles.

The strong interaction among nuclei and mesons (non-perturbative quantum chromodynamics) make this era difficult to study.



 At the time when T ≈ 10<sup>12</sup> K, the universe contained photons, muons, electrons, neutrinos and their antiparticles. There was a very small nucleonic contamination, with neutrons and protons in equal numbers.

All these particles were in NSE.



As the temperature dropped below 10<sup>12</sup> K, the muons and antimuons began to annihilate.



 After almost all the muons were gone, at T ≈ 1.3 x 10<sup>11</sup> K, the neutrinos and antineutrinos decoupled from the other particles, leaving electrons, positrons, photons, and a few nucleons in thermal equilibrium, with T ≈ 1/R.

A BRIFF HISTOR

FROM

BANG

-A Parody

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 Below 10<sup>11</sup> K (t ≈ 0.01 sec), the neutron-proton mass difference began to shift the small nucleonic contamination toward more protons and fewer neutrons.

 Below 5 x 109 K (t ≈ 4 sec), the electron-positron pairs began to annihilate.

 This leaves photons, neutrinos and antineutrinos in essentially free expansion, with the T<sub>photon</sub> 40% higher than the T<sub>neutrino</sub>.

At the same time, the cooling froze the neutron-protons ratio at about 1:5.



At bout 10<sup>9</sup> K (t ≈ 3 min), the neutrons rapidly began to fuse with protons into heavier nuclei.

This leaves an ionized gas of hydrogen and helium, with traces of deuterium <sup>2</sup>H, <sup>3</sup>He, and <sup>7</sup>Li.



The free expansion of the photons, neutrinos and antineutrinos continues, with T<sub>photon</sub> = 1.4 T<sub>neutrino</sub> ~ 1/R.

The ionized gas temperature remained locked to the photon temperature until the hydrogen atoms formed at T ~ 4000 K.



Wilson Synchrotron Lab

Between 1000 and 10,000 K, the energy density of photons, neutrinos, and antineutrinos dropped below the rest-mass density of hydrogen and helium, and we entered the matter dominated era. Max Rauner / Stefan Jorda

# Big Business und Big Bang

Berufs- und Studienführer Physik

Precisely how does the universe cool down?

 $\dot{R}^2 = \frac{8\pi GE}{3}R$ 

How fast our universe expands

# $\overline{E} = E_{\gamma} + E_{e-} + E_{e+} + \sum \left( E_{\nu} + E_{\overline{\nu}} \right)$

Energy density of things in our universe



 $s = \frac{R^3}{T} \left[ \rho(T) + P(T) \right] = \text{constant}$  2nd law of thermodynamics

 $s = \frac{4}{3}a(RT)^3 f\left(\frac{m_e c^2}{kT}\right)$ 

 $f(x) = 1 + \frac{45}{2\pi^4} \int_0^\infty \left[ \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + \frac{y^2}{3\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \right] \exp\left[ \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + 1 \right]^{-1} y^2 dy$ 



Big Bang, 2002. Photo, Jack Bishop

Entropy of things in our universe

 $\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{dR}{dt}\frac{dT}{dR}$ 

We want an ODE for the temperature

$$\frac{R}{R_0} = \frac{T_{\gamma,0}}{T} f^{-1/3} \left(\frac{m_e c^2}{kT}\right)$$

How the temperature changes with the size of our universe





 $x = \frac{m_e c^2}{kT}$ 

An ordinary differential equation for the photon temperature of the expanding universe.

 $g(x) = 1 + N_{\nu} \frac{7}{8} \left[ \frac{4}{11} f(x) \right]^{4/3} + \int_{0}^{\infty} \sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}} \left[ \exp\left(\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}}\right) + 1 \right]^{-1} y^{2} dy$ 



How our universe cools down as it expands.



#### Simpler scaling relations:

$$T \approx 1.4 \frac{10^{10}}{\sqrt{t}} \text{ K} \text{ for } T < 10^9$$

# $T \approx \frac{10^{10}}{\sqrt{t}}$ K for $5 \times 10^9 < T < 10^{12}$



We now know how hot the oven is at any given time. We can do this because the dominant constituents are either massless or moving very fast (relativistic).

What we don't know a priori is the density ρ<sub>b</sub> of ordinary matter in the expanding universe. How shall we parameterize our ignorance?



A common way to express the unknown baryon density is in terms of the baryon-to-photon ratio; how many photons there are for every particle.

$$\rho_b = \frac{n_b}{N_A}$$

Mass density and number density

$$n_{\gamma} = \frac{30\zeta(3)}{\pi^4} \frac{aT_{\gamma}^3}{k}$$

Number of photons per cm<sup>3</sup>

$$\rho_b = \frac{n_b}{n_\gamma} = \frac{30\zeta(3)}{\pi^4 k N_A} T_\gamma^3$$

Mass density in terms of the photon temperature and the free parameter  $n_b/n_\gamma$ 

How our universe gets less dense, for a chosen nb/ny ratio, as it expands.





Temperature (K)

# Colorful characters



Fred Hoyle 1915 – 2001



Bob Wagoner 1967



David Schramm 1945 – 1997

A typical Big Bang reaction network.



Above 10 billion K, the ratio of neutrons to protons is kept in equilibrium by weak processes:

$$\nu_e + n \leftrightarrow e^- + p$$
$$\overline{\nu_e} + p \leftrightarrow e^+ + n$$
$$\overline{\nu_e} + e^- + p \leftrightarrow + n$$

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = \exp\left(\frac{(m_p - m_n)c^2}{kT}\right)$$

All other abundances are negligible for  $T > 10^{10}$  K.



Big Bang, 1989, Boris Valejo

For time < 15s, temperature > 3 billion K, our universe is still a soup of protons, neutrons, electrons and more exotic matter. Anything more complex is blasted apart by high energy photons as soon it forms.



Deuterium formation is crucial for triggering additional nuclear reactions. Without deuterium all the neutrons would decay and our universe would be pure hydrogen.



Treation and destruction  $p(n,\gamma)d$  compete.

One might expect that when the temperature drops below the 2.23 MeV binding energy of <sup>2</sup>H, that the destruction process would become ineffective. However, there are too many photons!



2003, variation of deuterium with latitude. USGS

By 3 min deuterium survives after it is fused and is quickly turned into helium. The whole process is slowed by a shortage of deuterium.



Once deuterium is produced, <sup>4</sup>He is rapidly formed, along with small fractions of <sup>3</sup>H, <sup>3</sup>He, <sup>6</sup>Li, <sup>7</sup>Li and <sup>7</sup>Be.

Carbon and oxygen are not produced since:
(1) there are no stable isotopes with 5 or 8 nucleons,
(2) the Coulomb barrier starts to be significant,
(3) the low density suppresses the fusion of helium to carbon.



Big Bang, 2002 styrofoam and acrylics, 48" x 72" x 54", Paul Kittelson.

By 35 min nucleosynthesis is essentially complete.



A key unknown in big bang nucleosynthesis calculations is the density of ordinary matter.



Measurement of the light elements abundances constrains the present density of ordinary matter in the universe.

**Mass Fraction** 

The observed abundances of the light elements imply the density of normal matter in the universe is about 3.5 x 10<sup>-31</sup> g/cm<sup>3</sup>.

 Four independent measurements of four different elements lead to a consistent constraint.

This gives us confidence that BBN provides a correct explanation of light element formation.



Baryon mass density

#### Tasks for the day

Answer the question posed on slide 19, "How then are definite (NSE) abundances possible?"

Download, compile, and run the NSE code from www.cococubed.com/code\_pages/nse.shtml Duplicate the two plots on the web page; slides 17 and 22.

Add a realistic set of partition functions to the NSE code. Redo the plots above. What do you conclude?

### Tasks for the day

Download, compile, and run the Big Bang thermodynamics code from www.cococubed.com/code\_pages/burn.shtml Duplicate the plots on silde 46 and slide 45.

Download, compile, and run the Big Bang nucleosynthesis code from www.cococubed.com/code\_pages/burn.shtml Can you replicate the pplots on slides 55 - 57?

Can you comment on inhomogeneous Big Bang nucleosynthesis by having (initially) some proton rich regions and some neutron rich regions?

# Tools and Toys in Nuclear Astrophysics



Uraniae, 1885, Camille Flammarion