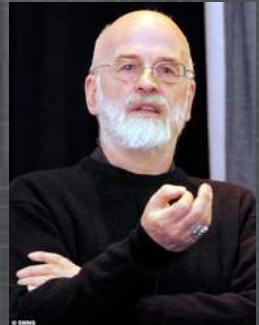


Granddad was superstitious about books.
He thought that if you had enough of them around,
education leaked out, like radioactivity.

Terry Pratchett

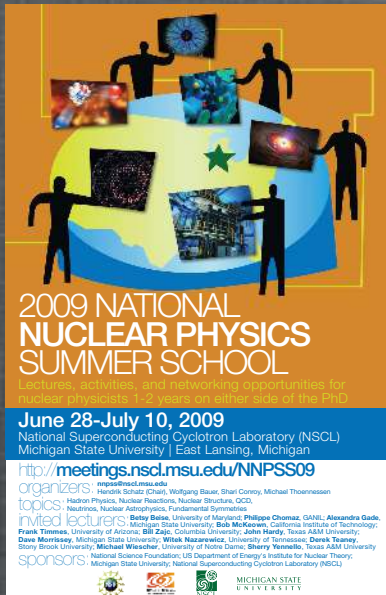


Nuclear Astrophysics: Reaction Networks

Frank Timmes

Outline for 29Jun2009

1. Overall theme: putting research tools in your hands
2. Some nomenclature
3. Forming a nuclear reaction network
4. Proton-proton chains



2009 NATIONAL NUCLEAR PHYSICS SUMMER SCHOOL
Lectures, activities, and networking opportunities for nuclear physicists 1-2 years on either side of the PhD

June 28-July 10, 2009
National Superconducting Cyclotron Laboratory (NSCL)
Michigan State University | East Lansing, Michigan


<http://meetings.nscd.msu.edu/NNPSS09>

organizers: [reynoldson@msu.edu](#), Henrik Smitz (chair), Wolfgang Bauer, Shari Conroy, Michael Thoennessen

topics: Hadron Physics, Nuclear Reactions, Nuclear Structure, QCD, Neutrons, Nuclear Astrophysics, Fundamental Symmetries

invited lecturers: **Betty Bales**, University of Maryland; **Philippe Chomaz**, GANIL; **Alexandra Gade**, Michigan State University; **Bob McKersien**, California Institute of Technology; **Frank Timmes**, University of Arizona; **Bill Zang**, Columbia University; **John Hardy**, Texas A&M University; **Dana Morley**, Michigan State University; **Witek Nazarewicz**, University of Tennessee; **Deek Tjebk**, Stony Brook University; **Michael Wiescher**, University of Notre Dame; **Sherry Yennello**, Texas A&M University

sponsors: National Science Foundation, US Department of Energy's Institute for Nuclear Theory, Michigan State University, National Superconducting Cyclotron Laboratory (NSCL)




My overall purpose is to put a research level,
nuclear reaction network toolkit in your hands.

By the end of my 4 lectures you will (hopefully) have these
networks under your control and in your knowledge base:

Hydrogen burners: PP chains, CNO cycles

Alpha chains: 13 isotopes, 19 isotopes

Big Bang nucleosynthesis

General reaction network

These reaction networks are written in Fortran 90, so you will need
a suitable compiler: gfortran, g95, ifort, xlf, absoft, portland, etc.

Reaction networks are an key tool in nuclear astrophysics and other areas of physics, astronomy, chemistry, biology, and geology.

Networks are relevant for modeling nucleosynthesis processes and their associated energy generation in stars.



These talks will provide an overview of the nuclear astrophysics, mathematics, and computational techniques of reaction networks. In only 4 talks, however, they will not be complete.

Stuff of the day

cococubed.asu.edu

click on “some astronomy codes” and/or “some astronomy talks”

How the Sun Shines

nobelprize.org/physics/articles/fusion/index.html

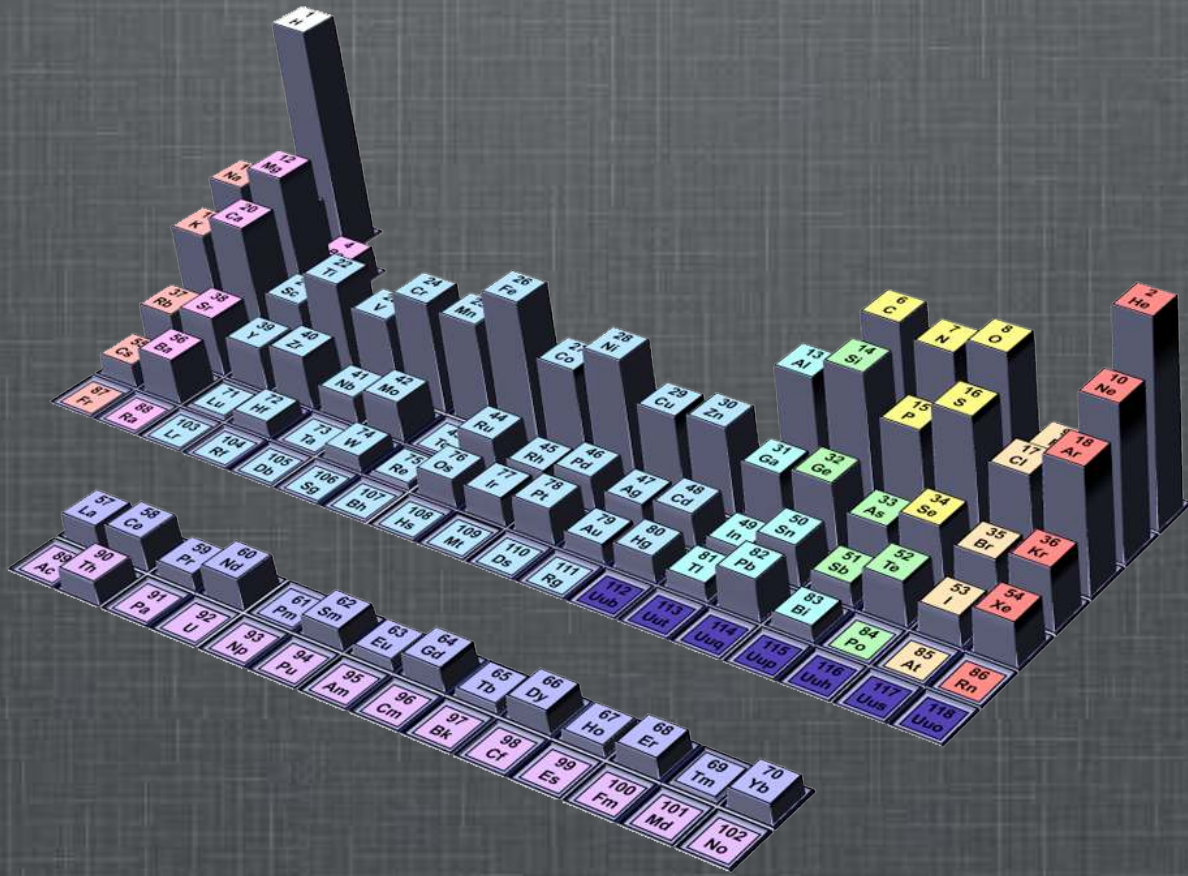
Thermonuclear Kinetics in Astrophysics

cococubed.asu.edu/papers/hix_meyer.pdf

Integration of Nuclear Reaction Networks...

www.iop.org/EJ/abstract/0067-0049/124/1/241/

Interlude



Some nomenclature

An isotope can be characterized by the dimensionless integers

Z = number of protons = atomic number

N = number of neutrons

$A = Z + N$ = number of nucleons

The Avogadro number, from the 2006 CODATA values,

$$N_A = 6.02214179 \pm 0.00000030 \times 10^{23} \quad 1/\text{mole}$$

is the number of "entities" in one mole. When an individual entity has a mass m in grams, the atomic weight or molar mass is

$$W = mN_A \quad \text{g/mol.}$$

The mass of all entities is the number of moles times the molar mass.

The atomic mass unit (amu) is defined as 1/12 mass of an isolated ^{12}C atom at rest and in its ground state. For ^{12}C , we define the molar mass to be $W=12.0$ g/mol. An amu then has $W=1$ g/mol. Hence,

$$1\text{amu} = 1/N_A = 1.660538782 \pm 0.000000083 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g.}$$

Thus, one can say N_A has units of grams but care must be taken to apply the implicit mol/g conversion to other quantities of interest.

In this system of units, the molar mass W is dimensionless. Mixing the [1/mol] and [1/g] systems of units will cause confusion.

The rest mass of a single isotope k is

$$\begin{aligned} m_k &= Nm_n + Zm_p + Z(1 - f)m_e - \Delta m \\ &= Nm_n + Zm_p + Z(1 - f)m_e - \frac{B}{c^2} \quad \text{g,} \end{aligned}$$

m_n is the neutron mass

m_p is the proton mass

m_e is the electron mass

f is the ionization fraction (0 for a neutral atom, 1 for full ionization),

Δm is the mass deficit

B is the nuclear binding energy in erg.

Sometimes terms like $[15.7 Z^{5/3} - 13.6 Z \text{ eV}]$ are added to estimate the electronic binding energy. Such terms are usually negligible.

The molar mass of the isotope is $W_k = m_k N_A$.

For a mixture of isotopes, define

$$\rho = \frac{\sum n_i A_i}{N_A} \text{ g cm}^{-3}, \text{ baryon mass density}$$

where n_i is the number density of species i .

$$X_i = \frac{A_i n_i}{\rho N_A} = \frac{\rho_i}{\rho} \quad \text{mass fraction, dimensionless}$$

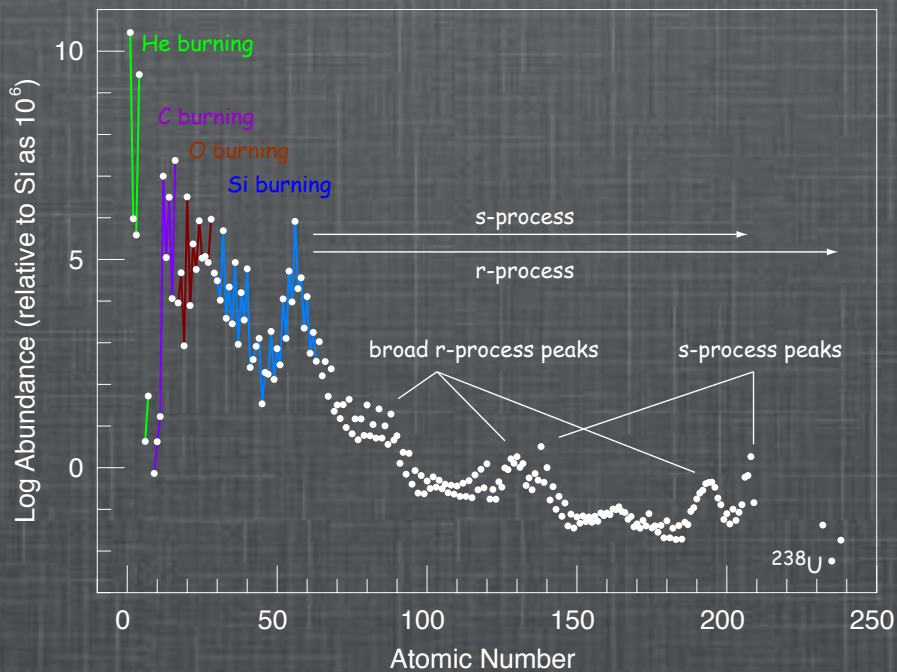
$$Y_i = \frac{X_i}{A_i} = \frac{n_i}{\rho N_A} \quad \text{molar fraction, dimensionless}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k X_i = 1 \quad \text{mass conservation}$$

And finally (for today)

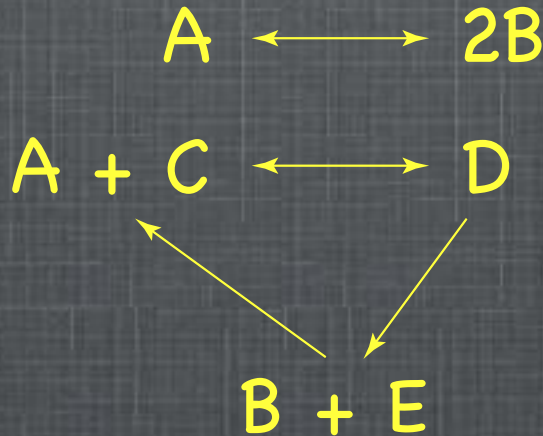
$$\bar{A} = \frac{\sum n_i A_i}{\sum n_i} = \frac{1}{\sum Y_i}$$

$$\bar{Z} = \frac{\sum n_i Z_i}{\sum n_i} = \bar{A} \sum Y_i Z_i$$



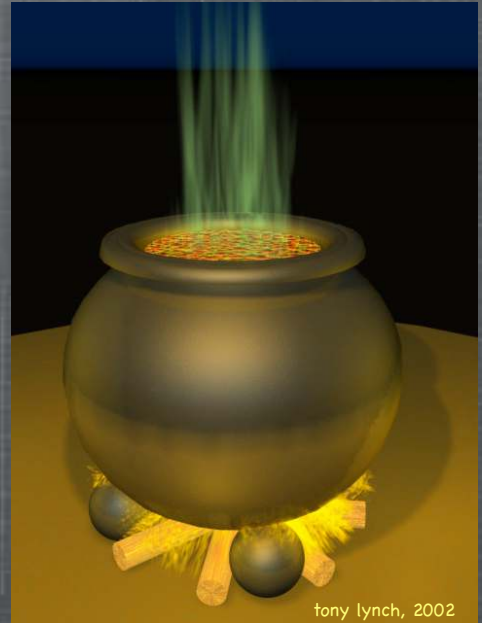
Let's start talking about a special, but rather large class of ordinary differential equations (ODEs) - those that derive from nuclear / chemical / biological reaction networks.

Let's walk through an example of a reaction network and indicate informally how it induces a system of ODEs.



Suppose we throw the various species in a pot that is constantly stirred so its contents remain spatially homogeneous for all time.

We'll also assume that the contents are kept at constant temperature and volume (constant density); hydrostatic burning.

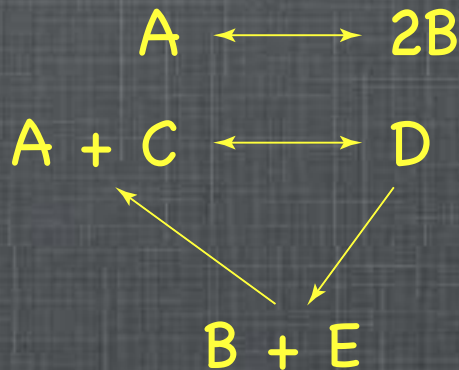
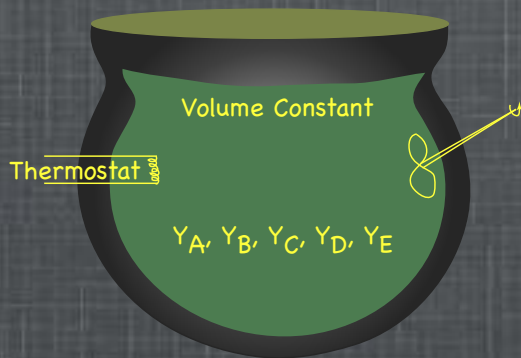


This is not to say the composition remains constant in time. Reactions will consume some species and generate others. In fact, it is the time evolution of the composition that we wish to investigate.

Denote the instantaneous values of the molar abundances by $Y_A, Y_B, Y_C, Y_D,$ and Y_E . We want to write down five ODEs that describe the evolution of the five mole fractions.

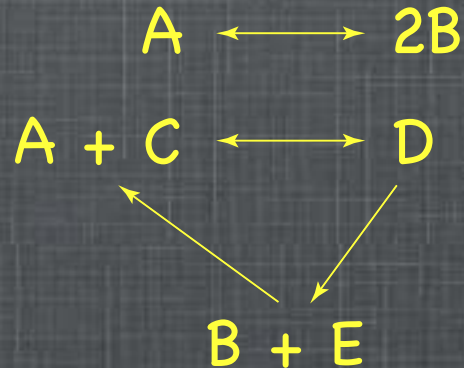
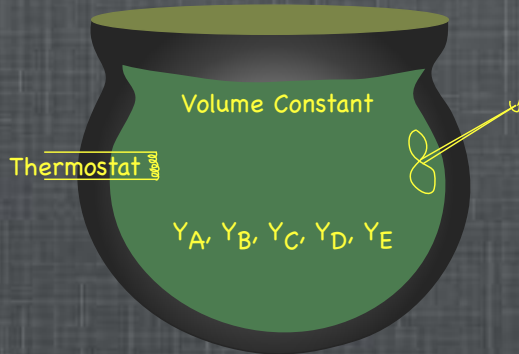
Let's begin by considering the instantaneous rate of change of Y_A .

Every time $A \rightarrow 2B$ we lose one unit of A and this reaction occurs with an instantaneous, non-negative, real valued rate of $K_{A \rightarrow 2B}$.



Similarly the reaction $A + C \rightarrow D$ loses a unit of species A, while $2B \rightarrow A$, $B + E \rightarrow A + C$, $D \rightarrow A + C$ produces a unit of species A. So we write

$$\dot{Y}_A = -K_{A \rightarrow 2B} + K_{2B \rightarrow A} - K_{A+C \rightarrow D} + K_{D \rightarrow A+C} + K_{B+E \rightarrow A+C}$$



Continuing in this way, we can write down a system of ODEs that govern our reactor:

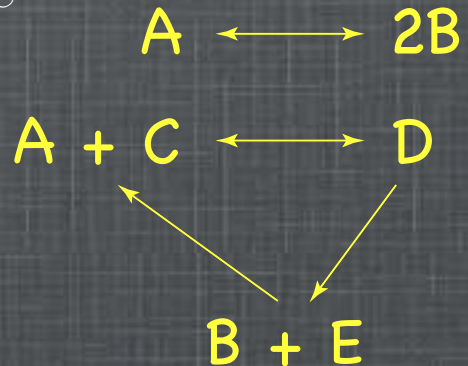
$$\dot{Y}_A = -K_{A \rightarrow 2B} + K_{2B \rightarrow A} - K_{A+C \rightarrow D} + K_{D \rightarrow A+C} + K_{B+E \rightarrow A+C}$$

$$\dot{Y}_B = 2K_{A \rightarrow 2B} - 2K_{2B \rightarrow A} + K_{D \rightarrow B+E} - K_{B+E \rightarrow A+C}$$

$$\dot{Y}_C = -K_{A+C \rightarrow D} + K_{D \rightarrow A+C} + K_{B+E \rightarrow A+C}$$

$$\dot{Y}_D = K_{A+C \rightarrow D} - K_{D \rightarrow A+C} - K_{D \rightarrow B+E}$$

$$\dot{Y}_E = K_{D \rightarrow B+E} - K_{B+E \rightarrow A+C}$$



We haven't said anything yet about the nature of the reaction rates.
For $A \rightarrow 2B$, the more A there is, the more reaction there will be.
We take the rate of $A \rightarrow 2B$ to be proportional to Y_A : $K_{A \rightarrow 2B} = \alpha Y_A$.

For $A + C \rightarrow D$, a unit of species A must meet a unit of species C.
We take the probability of such an encounter to be proportional to
the product $Y_A Y_C$: $K_{A+C \rightarrow D} = \gamma Y_A Y_C$.



Svante August Arrhenius
Nobel Prize 1903



With mass action kinetics, our rate functions take the form

$$\mathcal{K}_{A \rightarrow 2B} = \alpha Y_A$$

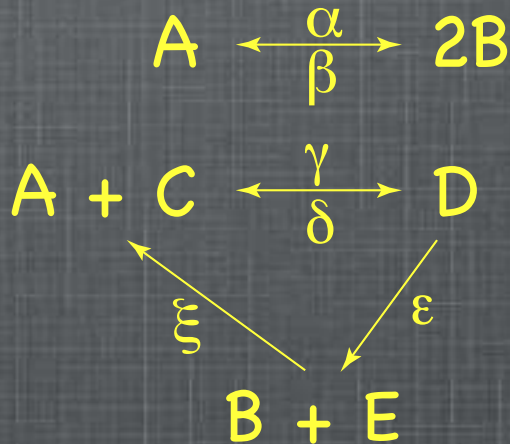
$$\mathcal{K}_{2B \rightarrow A} = \beta Y_B^2$$

$$\mathcal{K}_{A+C \rightarrow D} = \gamma Y_A Y_C$$

$$\mathcal{K}_{D \rightarrow B+E} = \varepsilon Y_D$$

$$\mathcal{K}_{D \rightarrow A+C} = \delta Y_D$$

$$\mathcal{K}_{B+E \rightarrow A+C} = \xi Y_B Y_E$$



The rate “constants” α , β , γ , δ , ε , and ξ may depend on temperature and density.

And our reaction network takes the form

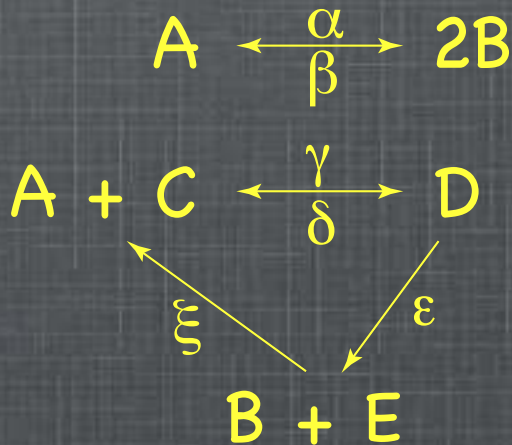
$$\dot{Y}_A = -\alpha Y_A + \beta Y_B^2 - \gamma Y_A Y_C + \delta Y_D + \xi Y_B Y_E$$

$$\dot{Y}_B = 2\alpha Y_A - 2\beta Y_B^2 + \epsilon Y_D - \xi Y_B Y_E$$

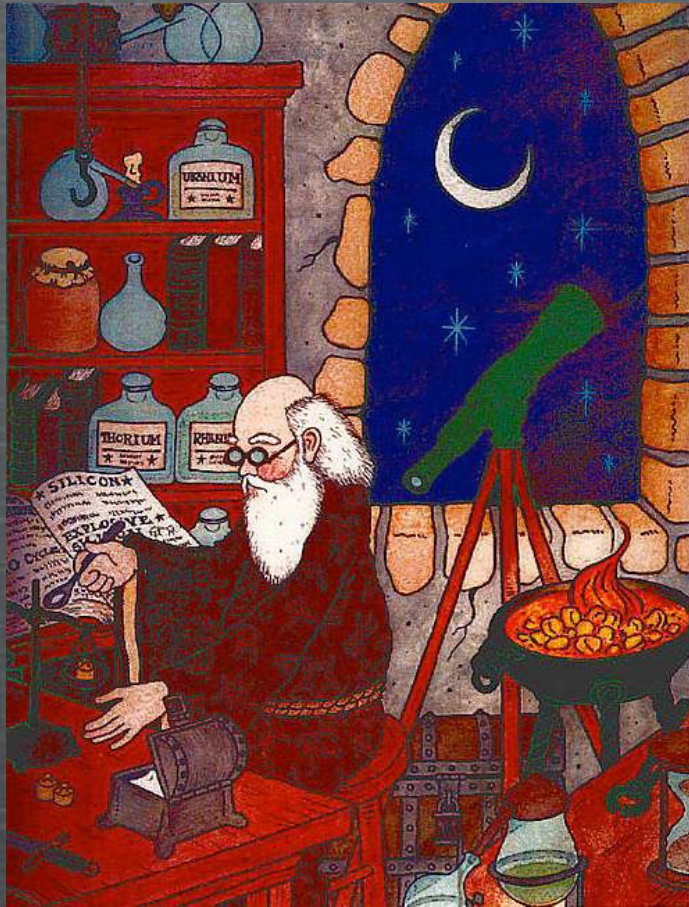
$$\dot{Y}_C = -\gamma Y_A Y_C + \delta Y_D + \xi Y_B Y_E$$

$$\dot{Y}_D = \gamma Y_A Y_C - \delta Y_D - \epsilon Y_D$$

$$\dot{Y}_E = \epsilon Y_D - \xi Y_B Y_E$$



Interlude

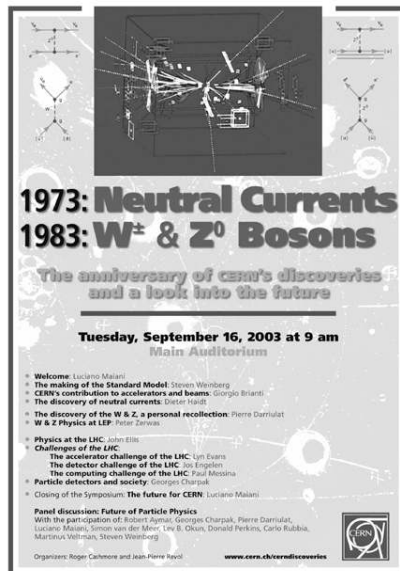


Gerry Wasserburg
1993

There are different of types of nuclear reactions: emission or absorption of nuclei and nucleons, photons (γ -rays) and leptons (electrons, neutrinos, and their anti-particles).

Nuclear reactions involve three of the four fundamental forces, the nuclear strong, electromagnetic and nuclear weak forces.

Weak interactions (those involving leptons) generally proceed more slowly than those involving nucleons and photons, but these are the only reactions that can change the global proton to neutron ratio.



The poster features a central image of a particle detector with tracks, surrounded by smaller diagrams of particle interactions. The text is arranged in a structured layout with a list of speakers and topics.

1973: Neutral Currents
1983: W^\pm & Z^0 Bosons

The anniversary of cern's discoveries
and a look into the future


Tuesday, September 16, 2003 at 9 am
Main Auditorium

- **Welcome:** Luciano Maiani
- **The making of the Standard Model:** Israel Weinberg
- **CERN's contribution to accelerators and beams:** Giorgio Brianti
- **The discovery of neutral currents:** Ulfen Hagn
- **The discovery of the W & Z : a personal recollection:** Pierre Darulat
- **W & Z Physics at LEP:** Peter Zerwas
- **Physics at the LHC:** John Ellis
- **Challenger of the LHC:**
 - The accelerator challenge of the LHC: Lyn Evans
 - The detector challenge of the LHC: Ian Engelen
 - The computing challenge of the LHC: Paul Medina
- **Particle detectors and society:** Georges Charpak
- **Closing of the Symposium: The future for CERN:** Luciano Maiani

Panel discussion: Future of Particle Physics
With the participation of: Robert Aymar, Georges Charpak, Pierre Darulat, Luciano Maiani, Simon van der Meer, Tay B. Okun, Donald Perkins, Carlo Rubbia, Martinus Velthuis, Steven Weinberg

Organizers: Roger Caillone and Jean-Pierre Poffo

www.cern.ch/cerndiscoveries



A key quantity is the cross section σ for a nuclear reaction.

The cross section σ_{ij} for the reaction $i(j,k)l$ is the number of reactions per target nucleus i per second divided by the flux of nuclei of type j (number/cm²/s).

$$\sigma(v) = \frac{\text{number of reactions per sec}}{\text{flux of incoming projectiles}} = \frac{r_{ij}/n_i}{n_j v_{ij}}$$

Cross sections are usually reported in “barns”, 10^{-24} cm².



The reaction rate per unit volume r_{ij} , in the simplest case, is then

$$r_{ij} = [\text{flux of } j]n_i\sigma_{ij}(v) = v_{ij}n_jn_i\sigma_{ij}(v) \quad \text{cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$$

More generally, the targets and projectiles have distributions of velocities, in which case r_{ij} is given by

$$r_{i,j} = \int \sigma(|\vec{v}_i - \vec{v}_j|)|\vec{v}_i - \vec{v}_j|d^3n_id^3n_j \quad \text{cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$$

Evaluation of the integrals depends on the particle statistics. For nuclei i and j that obey Maxwell–Boltzmann statistics

$$d^3n = n \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left(-\frac{mv^2}{2k_B T} \right) d^3v$$

allowing n_i and n_j to be moved outside of the integral.

Then

$$r_{ij} \langle \sigma v \rangle_{ij} n_i n_j = (N_A \rho)^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle_{ij} Y_i Y_j \quad \text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$$

where $\langle \sigma v \rangle_{ij}$ is the velocity integrated cross section.

The rate of change in the number density of species i with time is

$$\dot{n}_i = \sum_{j,k} r_{jk} \quad \text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$$

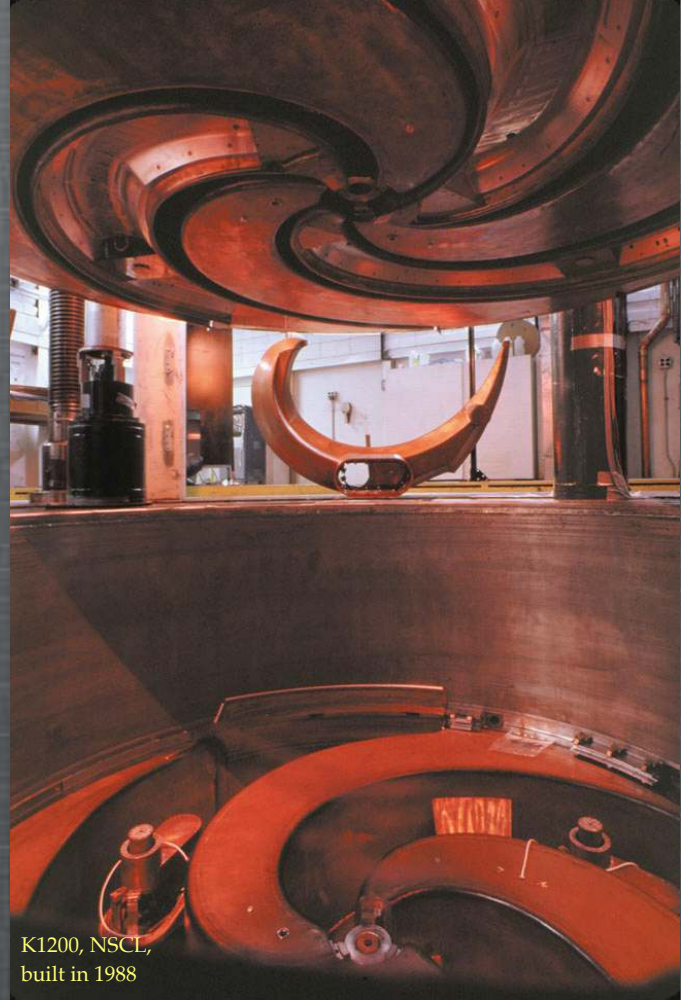
or

$$\dot{Y}_i = \sum_{j,k} N_A \rho \langle \sigma v \rangle_{ij} Y_j Y_k = \sum_{j,k} \lambda_{ij} \rho Y_j Y_k = \sum_{j,k} R_{ij} Y_j Y_k \quad \text{s}^{-1}$$

where λ_{ij} is what common reaction rate compilations list, and R_{ij} is “the reaction rate” used in our codes.

Michael Wiescher will say more about measuring cross sections and Q-values later in this school.

For now, we've established what we need to continue forming a nuclear reaction network.



K1200, NSCL,
built in 1988

Consider a unidirectional binary reaction with unity coefficients.



$$\dot{Y}_i = -Y_i Y_j R_{ij}$$

$$\dot{Y}_j = -Y_i Y_j R_{ij}$$

$$\dot{Y}_k = Y_i Y_j R_{ij}$$

$$\dot{Y}_l = Y_i Y_j R_{ij}$$

Where the reaction rate R_{ij} absorbs the density, Avogadro number, and $\langle \sigma v \rangle_{ij}$ terms.

Now consider the case when the coefficients are not unity.



$$\dot{Y}_i = -\frac{c_i}{c_i!c_j!} Y_i^{c_i} Y_j^{c_j} R_{ij}$$

$$\dot{Y}_j = -\frac{c_j}{c_i!c_j!} Y_i^{c_i} Y_j^{c_j} R_{ij}$$

$$\dot{Y}_k = \frac{c_k}{c_i!c_j!} Y_i^{c_i} Y_j^{c_j} R_{ij}$$

$$\dot{Y}_l = \frac{c_l}{c_i!c_j!} Y_i^{c_i} Y_j^{c_j} R_{ij}$$

If there are identical reactants, $i=j$, set $c_i = 2c_i$ and $c_j = 0$.

For a general bidirectional binary reaction



$$\dot{Y}_p = \sum_{r,s} \frac{c_p}{c_r! c_s!} Y_r^{c_r} Y_s^{c_s} R_{rs} - \sum_q \frac{c_p}{c_p! c_q!} Y_p^{c_p} Y_q^{c_q} R_{pq}$$

If there are identical reactants, $i=j$, set $c_i = 2c_i$ and $c_q = c_s = 0$.

Reactions can be divided into three categories based on the number of reactants which are nuclei.

Reactions involving a single nucleus - decays, electron and positron captures, photodisintegrations, and neutrino induced reactions - depend on the number density of only the target species.

$$\dot{Y}_i = \sum_j C_i R_j Y_j$$

For a binary reaction,

$$\dot{Y}_i = \sum_{jk} \frac{C_i}{C_j! C_k!} R_{jk} Y_j Y_k$$

The C_i 's can be positive or negative numbers that specify how many particles of species i are created or destroyed.

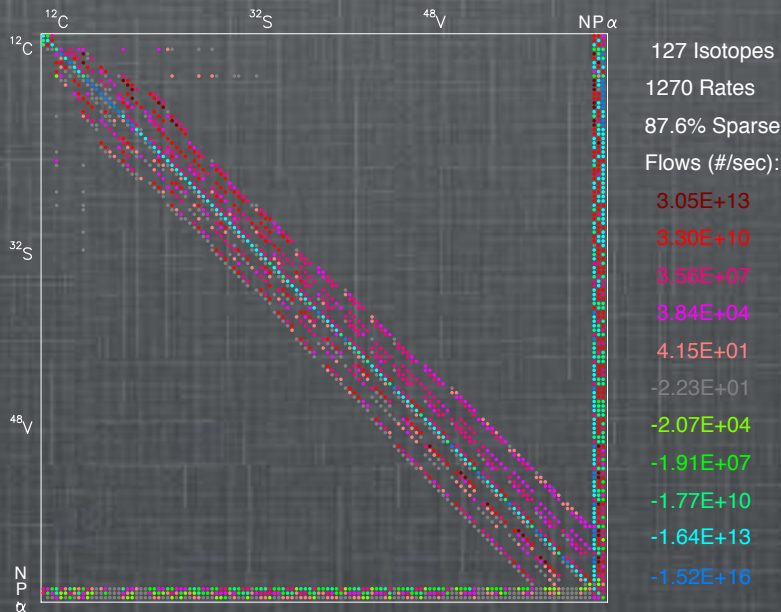
There are also a few important three-particle processes (like the triple- α process) which are commonly successive captures with an intermediate unstable target.

Using an equilibrium abundance for the unstable intermediate, the contributions of these reactions are commonly written in the form of a three-particle processes, depending on a trio of number densities.

$$\dot{Y}_i = \sum_{jk} \frac{C_i}{C_j!C_k!C_l!} R_{jk} Y_j Y_k Y_l$$

A reaction network may be described by the following set of ODEs

$$\dot{Y}_i = \sum_j C_i R_j Y_j + \sum_{jk} \frac{C_i}{C_j! C_k!} R_{jk} Y_j Y_k + \sum_{jkl} \frac{C_i}{C_j! C_k! C_l!} R_{jkl} Y_j Y_k Y_l$$



Nuclear Science

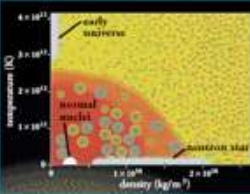
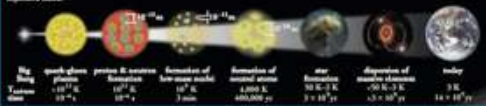
Nuclear Science is the study of the structure, properties, and interactions of the atomic nuclei. Nuclear scientists calculate and measure the masses, shapes, sizes, and decay of nuclei at rest and in collisions. They ask questions, such as *Why do neutrons stay in the nucleus? What combinations of protons and neutrons are possible? What happens when nuclei are compressed or rapidly moved? What is the origin of the nuclei found in Earth?*

Legend

- yellow circle: nucleus
- blue circle: proton
- red circle: neutron
- green circle: quark
- purple circle: gluon field
- orange circle: photon field
- light blue circle: electron
- dark blue circle: neutrino
- light green circle: positron
- light purple circle: antineutrino
- light orange circle: photon
- light blue circle: electron
- dark blue circle: neutrino
- light green circle: positron
- light purple circle: antineutrino

Expansion of the Universe

After the Big Bang, the universe expanded and cooled. At about 10^4 years, the universe consisted of a soup of quarks, gluons, electrons, and neutrinos. When the temperature of the Universe, T , was cooled to about 10^9 K, this soup condensed into protons, neutrons, and electrons. As time progressed, water of the protons and neutrons formed deuterium, helium, and lithium nuclei. Still later, the universe cooled with protons and these two other nuclei to form neutral atoms. There is greater density of neutral condensed low stars, white dwarfs and helium found just near massive chemical elements. Expanding more (expanding from the most massive element and collapse then into space. The earth was formed from expanding atoms.

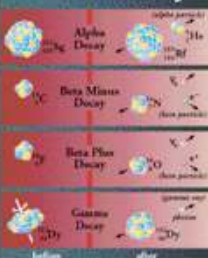


Unstable Nuclei

Stable nuclei form a narrow strip based on the Chart of the Nucleus. Unstable particles assemble nuclei for their life and study their decay, clearly showing about the existence of nuclear conditions. In the present time, this chart contains about 2500 different isotopes. Physics theory predicts that there are at least 4000 more to be discovered with $Z < 111$.

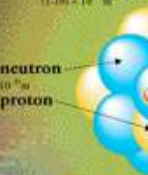


Radioactivity



Radioactive decay transforms a nucleus by emitting different particles. In alpha decay, the nucleus emits a ^4He nucleus, an alpha particle. In beta minus decay, the nucleus emits an electron and an antineutrino. In beta plus decay, the nucleus emits a positron and a neutrino. In gamma decay, the nucleus emits a high-energy photon.

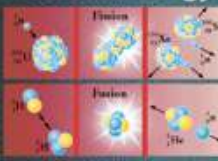
The Nucleus



The nucleus of the atom is a central region of positive charge made from two equally sized particles called protons and neutrons. These are collectively called nucleons. The nucleus is held together by the strong field between nucleons. The electromagnetic field between protons tends to push them apart.

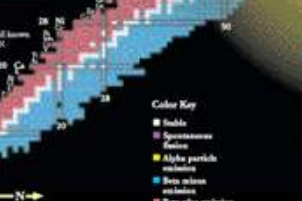
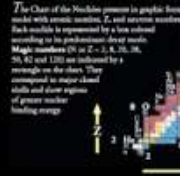
Nuclear reactions release energy when the total mass of the products is less than the mass of the initial nuclei. The first major step in nuclear energy is the fusion of light nuclei into heavier ones. In fusion, two small nuclei combine to form a more massive nucleus plus one or more released particles, or alpha particles.

Nuclear Energy



In the early stages of nuclear reactions, our sun and other stars, hydrogen atoms fuse to form helium, releasing energy. The fusion of deuterium and tritium, releasing the largest amount of nuclear energy, uses common isotopes of hydrogen. Nuclear energy can be harnessed by fusion. The burning of the nucleus of uranium that comes from the sun, whereas energy has demonstrated that reactions now have a more common drive.

Chart of the Nuclides



Applications

Radioactive Dating

Aluminum radioactive isotopes decay to ^{26}Al and used to date things that are very old. A half-life of 7×10^5 years is used to date things that are very old. The amount of ^{26}Al in a sample is used to determine the age of the sample. The half-life is 7×10^5 years.

Space Exploration

Radioactive isotopes and alpha particles are used to power spacecraft. Radioactive isotopes are used to power spacecraft. Radioactive isotopes are used to power spacecraft. Radioactive isotopes are used to power spacecraft.

Nuclear Reactors

Nuclear reactors on the basis of ^{235}U or ^{239}Pu nuclei produce electricity power. Nuclear reactors on the basis of ^{235}U or ^{239}Pu nuclei produce electricity power. Nuclear reactors on the basis of ^{235}U or ^{239}Pu nuclei produce electricity power.

Smoke Detectors

Alpha particle detectors are used to detect smoke. Alpha particle detectors are used to detect smoke. Alpha particle detectors are used to detect smoke.

Nuclear Medicine

Radioactive isotopes are used in medicine. Radioactive isotopes are used in medicine. Radioactive isotopes are used in medicine.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) uses a strong magnetic field and radio waves to produce images of the body. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) uses a strong magnetic field and radio waves to produce images of the body.

How does the Sun shine?

Wood - Ancient Greeks
lasts 2000 years

Coal - Middle Ages
lasts 4000 years

Gravitational - 1800's
lasts 4 million years

Nuclear reactions - 1940's
lasts 10 billion years



Four hydrogen nuclei get transformed into one helium nucleus.
The limiting step is a rare reaction; hence a long lived Sun.

But the mass of 4 hydrogen nuclei is larger than the mass of
1 helium nucleus. Where did the missing mass go?

$$E = mc^2$$

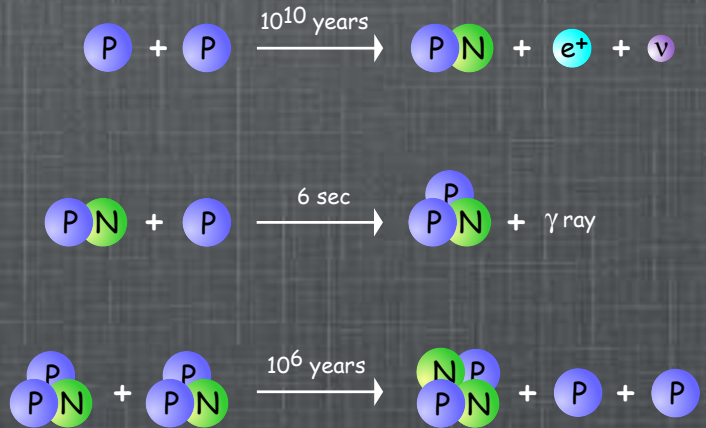
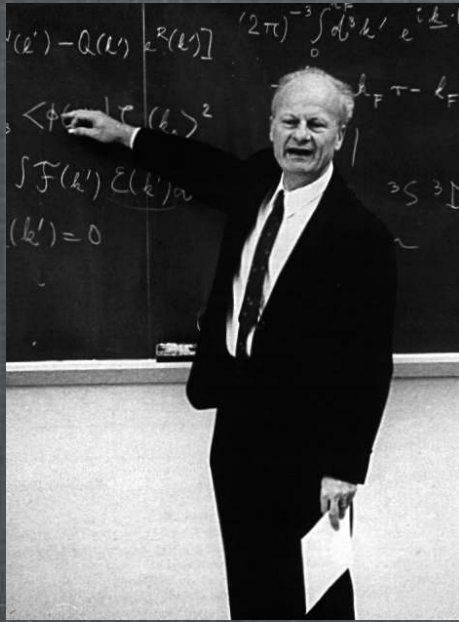
The sun presently shines by
burning hydrogen (fuel) into
helium (ash) in its core.



600 million tons of hydrogen are
converted into 596 million tons
of helium every second

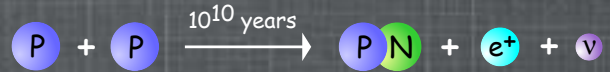
proton-proton chains

Hans Bethe realized in 1939 that a weak interaction could convert a proton into neutron during the brief encounter of a scattering event.

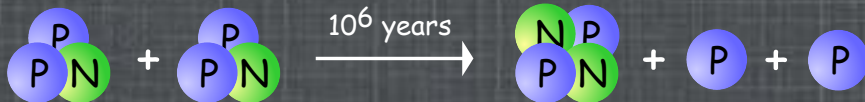


Since the neutron is more massive than a proton, such a decay would require energy (endothermic) except that the neutron can appear in a bound state with the proton in the form of deuterium.

The binding energy is sufficient (2.2245 MeV) to make the reaction exothermic.



We have four species to track (^1H , ^2H , ^3He , ^4He),
 and three binary reactions that couple these species;
 $p(p, e^+ \nu)^2\text{H}$, $^2\text{H}(p, \gamma)^3\text{He}$, and $^3\text{He}(^3\text{He}, 2p)^4\text{He}$.

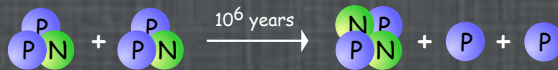
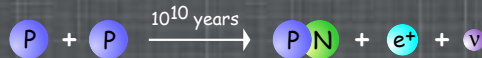


$$\dot{Y}_p = -Y_p Y_p R_{p,p} - Y_p Y_d R_{p,d} + Y_{3\text{he}} Y_{3\text{he}} R_{3\text{he},3\text{he}}$$

$$\dot{Y}_d = 0.5 Y_p Y_p R_{p,p} - Y_p Y_d R_{p,d}$$

$$\dot{Y}_{3\text{he}} = Y_p Y_d R_{p,d} - Y_{\text{he3}} Y_{\text{he3}} R_{\text{he3},\text{he3}}$$

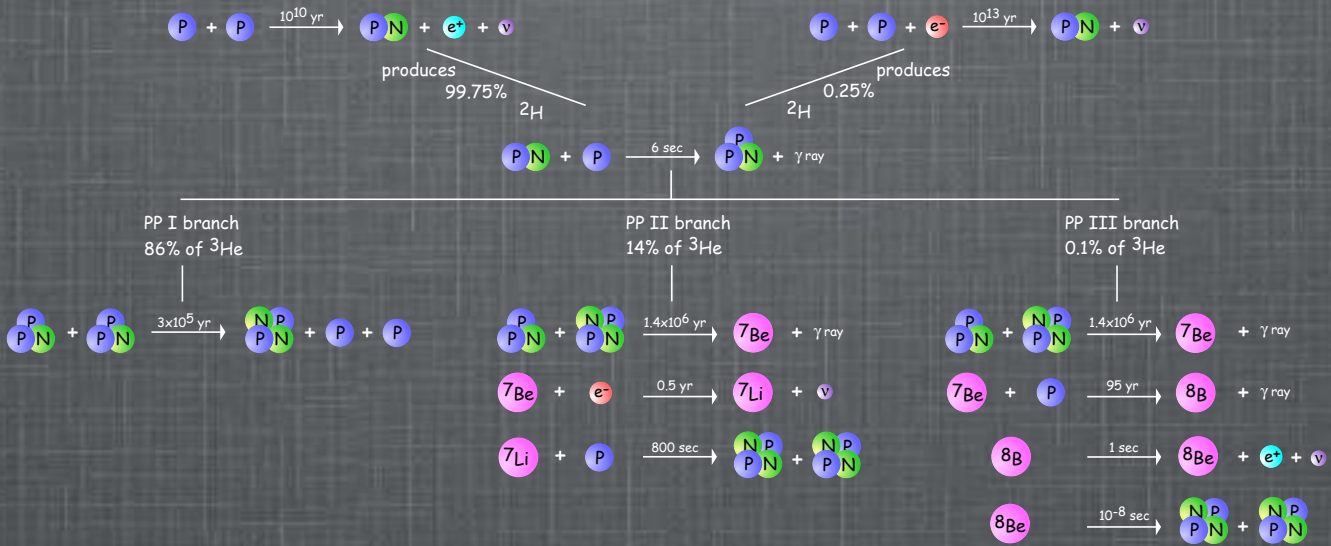
$$\dot{Y}_{4\text{he}} = 0.5 Y_{\text{he3}} Y_{\text{he3}} R_{\text{he3},\text{he3}}$$



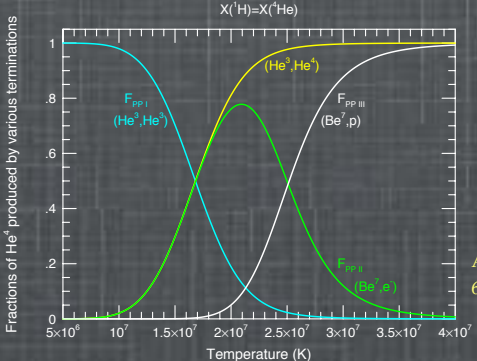
Prior to 1958 it was believed the PPI chain would proceed under most conditions, even if lots of ^4He were present.

Holmgren & Johnston measured the $^3\text{He}(\alpha,\gamma)^7\text{Be}$ cross section to be 2500 times larger than the previously accepted value, making this reaction compete with $^3\text{He}(^3\text{He},2p)^4\text{He}$ for ^3He nuclei, particularly at higher temperatures.

This leads to two new chains for converting H to He, PPII and PPIII, corresponding to the two possible fates of the ^7Be nucleus.



The weights of the reactions are given for conditions in the Sun.
 The PP chains are the most important energy source in stars with masses less than 1.5 M_{sun} .



After Parker, Bahcall & Fowler ApJ 139, 602, 1964. Also see Clayton figure 5-10.

Tasks for the day

Derive the ODE equations for the PPI chain.

Download, compile, and run the pp-chain code from
www.cococubed.com/code_pages/burn.shtml

Run the code in hydrostatic mode for $T = 1.5 \times 10^7$ K, $\rho = 150$ g/cm³,
and an initial composition of 75% H and 25% He by mass.

Plot the abundance evolution.

How much hydrogen is currently left in the center of the Sun?

How long will the Sun live?

Questions and Discussion



2009 NATIONAL NUCLEAR PHYSICS SUMMER SCHOOL

Lectures, activities, and networking opportunities for nuclear physicists, 1-2 years on either side of the PhD

June 28-July 10, 2009

National Superconducting Cyclotron Laboratory (NSCL)
Michigan State University | East Lansing, Michigan

<http://meetings.nsl.msu.edu/NNPSS09>

organizers: nnpss@nsl.msu.edu
Hendrik Schatz (Chair), Wolfgang Bauer, Shari Conroy, Michael Thoennessen

topics: Hadron Physics, Nuclear Reactions, Nuclear Structure, QCD,
Neutrinos, Nuclear Astrophysics, Fundamental Symmetries

invited lecturers: **Betsy Beise**, University of Maryland; **Philippe Chomaz**, GANIL; **Alexandra Gade**,
Michigan State University; **Bob McKeown**, California Institute of Technology;
Frank Timmes, University of Arizona; **Bill Zeto**, Columbia University; **John Hardy**, Texas A&M University;
Dave Morrissey, Michigan State University; **Witek Nazarewicz**, University of Tennessee; **Derek Teaney**,
Stony Brook University; **Michael Wiescher**, University of Notre Dame; **Sherry Yennello**, Texas A&M University

sponsors: National Science Foundation; US Department of Energy's Institute for Nuclear Theory;
Michigan State University; National Superconducting Cyclotron Laboratory (NSCL)



MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY