# Stars: sources of energy and the origin of the chemical elements

Origin of the elements

#### What powers the Sun?

First idea: Is it simply gravity? (Kelvin & Helmholtz, late 1800's)

A sphere of uniform density (underestimate?) has negative gravitational potential energy:

$$U_g = -\frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

Decrease in radius as Sun shrinks <u>liberates</u> potential energy, but 50% of this (from Virial Theorem) must go into thermal energy to maintain the gas pressure support (i.e. to heat gas to higher temperature):

Available energy =  $0.5 U_g \sim 10^{41} J$   $L_{Sun} \sim 4 \times 10^{26} W$ Timescale to maintain solar luminosity:  $t_{KH} \sim \frac{0.5 U_g}{L_{curr}} \sim 10^7 yr$ 

Note that every factor of 2 collapse would release as much energy again Until radioactive dating of age of Earth rocks (~1900) this was thought to be OK. What about "reactions" involving the material in the Sun?

Number of particles 
$$n \sim \frac{M_{sun}}{m_p} \sim 10^{57}$$

Energies of <u>chemical</u> reactions (changing electron orbits) are typically eV (10<sup>-19</sup> J) per particle, so of order  $10^{38}$  J energy is available. Gives lifetime of order only  $10^4$  years!  $\rightarrow$  led to Kelvin gravitational idea

Energies of <u>nuclear</u> reactions (changing structures of atomic nuclei) are typically MeV ( $10^{-13}$  J) per particle, so  $10^{44}$  J is available. This gives lifetime of order  $10^{10}$  years, i.e. what we need for the age of the Solar System.

Before leaving gravity, note one interesting effect:

The Virial Condition for the equilibrium state of any <u>self-gravitating</u> system is:

2K + W = 0, i.e. E = W + K = -K = 0.5W

 $K = \text{kinetic energy} = 3/2 \ NkT$ W = potential energyE = total energy

Note the curious behaviour of a self-gravitating body under its own pressure support: it has <u>negative heat capacity</u>:

$$E = -\frac{3}{2}NkT$$
$$\frac{dE}{dT} = -\frac{3}{2}Nk$$

So a self-gravitating system <u>increases it's temperature</u> when it loses thermal energy (this is same effect as when an orbiting satellite speeds up under frictional drag forces)

### **Nuclear binding energies**

$$\begin{split} m_{\rm p} &= 1.6726 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} = 1.0073 \text{ a.m.u} \\ m_{\rm n} &= 1.6749 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} = 1.0086 \text{ a.m.u.} \\ 2m_{\rm p} + 2m_{\rm n} &= 4.0318 \text{ a.m.u.} \\ m_{\rm He} &= 4.0026 \text{ a.m.u.} \\ a.m.u. &= 1.6605 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} \ (= 931 \text{ MeV}) \end{split}$$

Making <sup>4</sup>He out of 2n + 2p results in 0.7% of the mass (i.e. 26 MeV, or 6.5 MeV per particle) being lost, due to the increased (negative) binding energy of the particles in the <sup>4</sup>He nucleus.



### **Nuclear energy levels**



- The Pauli exclusion principle ensures  $n_p \sim n_n$
- Proton levels are slightly more widely spaced because of electrostatic repulsion



- Gross shape of the binding energy curve is a result of the finite range of the Strong Force (attraction saturates as number of nucleons increase too far).
- Creation beyond <sup>56</sup>Fe *requires* energy



Difficulty of fusion arises from coulomb repulsion between positively charged nuclei



Potential energy of two charges separated by *r* 

Point of closest approach if initial velocity is *v* 

$$U_e = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 r}$$

$$r_{close} = \frac{2q_1q_2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 mv^2}$$

Naively setting  $r \sim 10^{-15}$  m and  $mv^2 = 3kT$  would require  $T \sim 10^{10}$ K >> T<sub>sun</sub>

We've forgotten two effects:

- quantum tunneling through potential barrier
- velocity distribution at a given temperature

Velocity in center of mass frame of two particles of reduced  $m = m_1 m_2 / (m_1 + m_2)$ 

$$n(v)dv \propto \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2kT}\right)dv$$

Number of particles at a velocity v rapidly drops with v at a given T

Tunneling probability through distance *r* given by de Broglie  $\lambda$ :

$$P \propto \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi^2 r_{close}}{\lambda}\right) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{4\pi^2 q_1 q_2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 hv}\right)$$

*Probability of quantum tunneling rapidly increases with v* 

Probability of reaction happening to a given particle proportional to the product of these two terms

$$dN \propto n_1 n_2 \sigma v \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2kT} - \frac{\pi q_1 q_2}{\varepsilon_0 hv}\right) dv dt$$

$$\propto \exp\left(-\alpha E - \beta E^{-1/2}\right) dE dt$$



This is a <u>highly peaked function</u> with a maximum (dN/dE) = 0 when the two terms are equal (plus a factor of 2 from differentiating)

$$v_{\rm max} = \left(\frac{\pi q_1 q_2 kT}{\varepsilon_0 hm}\right)^{1/3}$$

→ Most of the reactions will occur with kinetic energies close to this so-called Gamow Peak. Furthermore, the overall rate of reactions *strongly increases* with temperature

$$dN/dT \propto \exp\left(-\frac{3}{2}\left(\frac{\pi q_1 q_2}{h\varepsilon_0}\right)^{2/3} \left(\frac{m}{kT}\right)^{1/3}\right) \propto \exp\left(-\left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right)^{1/3}\right)$$
$$T_0 = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^3 \left(\frac{\pi q_1 q_2}{h\varepsilon_0}\right)^2 \left(\frac{m}{k}\right) \sim 4 \times 10^{10} K$$

Note: the <u>steep</u> <u>temperature</u> <u>dependence</u> of the rate of fusion reactions coupled with the <u>negative</u> <u>heat capacity</u> of self-gravitating gas provides a natural thermostat to keep star stable

This is why stars do not explode like Hbombs



# **Fusion of more massive nuclei**

• requires higher temperatures because of larger +ve nuclear charges

H to He	1×10 <sup>7</sup> K
He to C, O	$1 \times 10^8 \text{ K}$
C to O, Ne, Na, Mg	5×10 <sup>8</sup> K
Ne to O, Mg	1×10 <sup>8</sup> K
O to $Mg - S$	$2 \times 10^{8} \text{ K}$
Si to around Fe	3×10 <sup>9</sup> K

• the flattening of the binding energy curve means that less energy is released per reaction at higher masses



Expect basic evolution of a star as follows:

- gravitational collapse heats up interior
- then, first fuse H→He at "low temperatures" until the H in core consumed;
- gravitational collapse of core to raise T,
- then, fuse He  $\rightarrow$  C at higher temperature, until most He in core is consumed (shorter time),
- gravitational collapse to raise T,
- fuse  $C \rightarrow O$ , and so on

but...

### What pressure can support a star against it's own self-gravity?

Available sources of pressure	Y mass fraction of He Z mass fraction of metals
<ul> <li>Non-degenerate thermal pressure:</li> </ul>	$P = nkT = (\rho kT/m_H)(2 X+0.75 Y+0.5 Z)$
<ul> <li>Radiation pressure:</li> </ul>	P=aT <sup>4</sup> /3
<ul> <li>Degenerate plasma (non-relativistic):</li> </ul>	P∝ [0.5 (1+X) ρ] <sup>5/3</sup>
<ul> <li>Degenerate plasma (relativistic):</li> </ul>	P∝ [0.5 (1+X) ρ] <sup>4/3</sup>

X mass fraction of H

- Atomic and molecular interactions in cold material (e.g. you and me, Earth)
- Quark and hadronic interactions
- Rotation and magnetic fields

# Check: are the interiors of stars hot enough for fusion? (c.f. <u>surface</u> temperature ~ 6000 K for the Sun)

Quite general arguments indicate yes, independent of energy source

 $U_{grav} = -f \frac{GM^2}{R}$  with f of order unity

Hydrostatic support at radius r

$$\frac{dP}{dr} = -\frac{Gm_r}{r^2}\rho \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left\langle P \right\rangle_V = -\frac{1}{3}\frac{U_{grav}}{V}$$

Thermal pressure  $\langle P \rangle \sim \frac{\langle \rho \rangle}{\overline{m}} kT_{\text{int}}$ 

$$T_{\rm int} \sim \frac{GM\bar{m}}{3kR} \sim 3 \times 10^6 K$$
 for Sun

If supported by thermal gas pressure, internal temperature of the Sun must be about 3 million K, i.e. sufficient to support fusion. N.B. *Fusion occurs <u>because</u> it is hot, not the other way around*.

### Are stars inevitable?

$$T_{\rm int} \sim \frac{GM\overline{m}}{3kR} \sim 3 \times 10^6 K$$
 for Sun

Proto-star collapses in quasi-hydrostatic equilibrium with  $T_{\text{interior}}$  rising as R shrinks.

Negative heat capacity causes star to increase in temperature as energy is lost through radiation to exterior. Virial condition implies  $\frac{1}{2}$  of  $U_{grav}$  goes into internal heat energy, rest is radiated by proto-star

When  $T_{\text{interior}}$  reaches point where internal fusion can balance the heat loss at the surface, a static stable structure (= "star") is formed, with constant radius

- This H-fusion ignition point will *inevitably* be reached by the protostar at some *R* <u>unless</u> another source of pressure (e.g. degenerate electron pressure, which is independent of *T*) can support the object before *T* gets high enough for fusion.
- For the Sun, temperature could rise to 10<sup>7</sup>K before degenerate pressure is important
- Fusion will not occur for *proto-stars* M < 0.08 M<sub>sun</sub> (= "brown dwarfs", failed stars). Fusion in more massive objects is <u>inevitable</u>.

## Mass-luminosity relation Details need not concern us

$$T_{\rm int} \sim \frac{GM\bar{m}}{3kR} \sim 3 \times 10^6 K$$
 for Sun

Again, very general arguments indicate that the surface luminosity of a star will be related to it's mass as:

- *a* Stefan(-Boltzmann) constant
- *k* Boltzmann constant
- $\kappa$  opacity of the gas

$$L = (4\pi)^2 \frac{4}{3^4} \frac{caG^4}{k^4} \frac{1}{\kappa} M^3$$

Since the H fuel supply is ~ proportional to mass, it implies that the lifetime of a star in the stable  $H \rightarrow$  He fusion phase (="Main Sequence") is a strong function of mass.

$$t_{lifetime} \propto M_{star}^{-2.5}$$

0.1  $M_{\odot}$  star The Sun 25  $M_{\odot}$  star lifetime ~  $2.10^{12}$  year lifetime ~ 10 billion years lifetime ~ 7 million years

# **Basic point: self-gravity vs. thermodynamics**

- Ordinary stars (like our Sun) are self-gravitating and therefore have to be hot inside to sustain the thermal pressure that resists the inward pull of gravity
- The interstellar medium, however, is typically much colder and energy therefore flows continuously from the star to the exterior.
- No thermodynamic equilibrium is possible under this circumstances: losing energy the star will be forced to contract and to get hotter and hotter
- Thermonuclear production replacement of lost energy keeps the star structure stable for some amount of time. When the star runs out of fuel a major structural re-assessment has to happen through further contraction.

# **Brown Dwarfs**

A brown dwarf is a self-gravitating gaseous object composed mainly of hydrogen and helium, whose mass is too small to ignite stable thermonuclear hydrogen fusion in its interior (but they do produce some helium isotopes by fusing protons with deuterium, lithium and berillium).

Theoretical expectations:  $M < 0.08 M_{\odot}$ .

Incapable of generating substantial amounts of nuclear energy, the gravitational contraction of a brown dwarf takes place until the pressure of the degenerate electrons in its interior stops the collapse at an interior temperature that is below the fusion temperature of H.

Young BDs can release substantial amounts of gravitational energy (comparable to protostars and low mass stars) through Kelvin-Helmhotz contraction, but older BDs supported by degenerate electrons simply radiate remnant internal heat only. Effective radiative lifetime is short, i.e. only of order 10 million years (c.f.  $10^{12}$  years for stars above  $0.08 \text{ M}_{\odot}$ ).

#### The Hertzsprung-Russell diagram



# **Main-sequence stars**

Objects with  $M > 0.08 M_{\odot}$  ignite stable thermonuclear reactions in their centres and become "stars". In the initial phase of their lives they are characterized by chemical homogeneity and hydrogen burning in their cores.

Stars with M < 2  $M_{\odot}$  fuse Hydrogen into Helium by the so-called "p-p chain", while more massive stars do it by the "CNO cycle" (see next slide)

In the Hertzsprung-Russell diagram MS stars populate an approximately onedimensional locus along which positions are mainly determined by the <u>stellar</u> <u>mass</u>. *Vogt-Russell Theorem: The mass (and chemical composition) of a star uniquely determine its radius, luminosity, and internal structure, as well as its subsequent evolution.* 

Observed scaling relations for Main Sequence stars well matched by theoretical models: Approximately

 $L \propto M^{3.5}$   $E \propto M$   $t \propto M^{-2.5}$   $R \propto M$   $T_e \propto M^{0.5}$ 

#### **Reaction pathways for H** $\rightarrow$ <sup>4</sup>He fusion

Extremely slow due to weak interaction  $(p \rightarrow n)$  $\tau \sim 10^{10}$  yr in Sun

Slow, but less so than above due to spontaneous decay of unstable nuclei

 $^{13}N~(\tau_{1/2} \sim 600s)$  and  $^{15}O~(\tau_{1/2} \sim 120s)$ 

But, requires higher T because of higher +ve charge on nuclei p-p chain <sup>1</sup>H + <sup>1</sup>H → <sup>2</sup>H + e<sup>-</sup> + ν <sup>2</sup>H + <sup>1</sup>H → <sup>3</sup>He + γ <sup>3</sup>He + <sup>3</sup>He → <sup>4</sup>He + <sup>1</sup>H + <sup>1</sup>H

CNO cycle  ${}^{12}C + {}^{1}H \rightarrow {}^{13}N + \gamma$   ${}^{13}N \rightarrow {}^{13}C + e + \nu$   ${}^{13}C + {}^{1}H \rightarrow {}^{14}N + \gamma$   ${}^{14}N + {}^{1}H \rightarrow {}^{15}O + \gamma$   ${}^{15}O \rightarrow {}^{15}N + e + \nu$  ${}^{15}N + {}^{1}H \rightarrow {}^{12}C + {}^{4}He$ 

# The Hertzsprung-Russell diagram



## Later stages of stellar evolution: What happens when Hydrogen fuel is exhausted in the core?

Inert He core, surrounded by a shell that is still burning H to He. Changes structure of star:  $\times 1000+$  increase in L, plus 100x increase in size (with therefore decrease in temperature)  $\rightarrow$  Red Giant Star (N.B. Sun will consume Earth when it is Red Giant)

Temperature rise in core may be enough to ignite He to C fusion → Horizontal Branch Star

Followed by He shell burning and so on → Asymptotic Giant Branch Star



If ever the stellar core gets dense enough to be supported by degenerate electron pressure (independent of temperature), then it will cease contracting and stop raising its temperature. Therefore no new fusion reactions will occur. As example, our Sun will never fuse  $C \rightarrow O$  because it will stabilize its core below the ignition temperature of C.



# White Dwarfs

When the <sup>4</sup>He $\rightarrow$  C "triple alpha" process in a M < 4 M<sub> $\odot g$ </sub>Red Giant star is complete, the star core starts contracting. There is not enough energy to ignite the carbon fusion process, thus the collapse keeps going until it is halted by the pressure arising from electron degeneracy.

The the star loses its extended envelope, revealing the the very hot and small (relative to the Sun) core, which is called a White Dwarf.

Stars with M< 0.4  $M_{\odot}$  will not become red giants because they do not become hot enough for He burning, but this has never happened so far because their MS lifetimes will be longer than the present age of the Universe.

<ul> <li>Typical white dwarf specs:</li> <li>mass of about 1 M<sub>☉</sub> (on average)</li> <li>size of about 1 Earth diameter</li> <li>~ 4% of solar luminosity</li> <li>surface temperature of ~ 25,000 K</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>What about Life?</li> <li>Good news: Because they are so small (and therefore have such a low L) they will shine for a very long time, even though they are no longer producing more energy from fusion.</li> <li>Dyson spheres??</li> <li>Bad news: All the products of fusion are still locked up in the interiors. Ejected material is largely unprocessed</li> </ul>
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#### Young White Dwarfs at centers of Planetary Nebulae (nothing to do with planets)





#### But more massive stars will go all the way to an Fe core.



Onion-like structure with successive shells burning different fusion reactions



### **But time is running out:**

The energy per reaction is dropping as masses of nuclei increase, but the required temperature, and therefore the luminosity (energy loss rate) is increasing.

For a 25  $M_{\odot}$  star:

- Hydrogen burns in the core for 7 million years
- Helium burns in the core in the core for 500,000 years
- Carbon burns in the core for 600 years
- Oxygen burns in the core for 6 months
- Silicon burns in the core for only 1 day

So, what happens next? (next week)

#### But first, back to that Gamow Peak and the problem of Carbon

Key point: Gamow peak means that most individual reactions produce products at the same "energy"... i.e. the  $\Delta mc^2$  of the reaction in question plus the K.E. of the reacting particles as given by the Gamow Peak in velocity.

One consequence: The existence of well-placed energy levels in the product nucleus leads to resonances. i.e. greatly increased cross section  $\sigma$  at particular product energies, leading to wide variation of reaction rates for different reactions.





- Production of <sup>8</sup>Be from two <sup>4</sup>He <u>requires</u> 0.1 MeV of energy.
- And the <sup>8</sup>Be is then unstable with half life of  $10^{-17}$  s (!)

While it survives, <sup>8</sup>Be can join with another <sup>4</sup>He to make an excited state of <sup>12</sup>C.

The <sup>8</sup>Be +<sup>4</sup>He has an energy 7.33 MeV above the ground state of <sup>12</sup>C. The excited <sup>12</sup>C nucleus will be just above this because of the kinetic energy in Gamow peak.

Hoyle (1952) correctly predicted that <sup>12</sup>C must have a resonant state just above 7.33 MeV for this reaction to occur often enough to produce significant amounts of <sup>12</sup>C in the Universe. A major resonant state was subsequently found at 7.65 MeV – a triumph of theoretical astrophysics!









Three states of <sup>4</sup>He, <sup>8</sup>Be and <sup>12</sup>C\* are so similar in energy that these three species will be in equilibrium, described by Saha equation.

Production of <sup>12</sup>C is effectively "leakage" out of equilibrium from <sup>12</sup>C\* excited state



*Consequence: O and C are the most abundant* elements in the Universe after H and He – good for organics, water etc.

elements ( $\rightarrow$  our own existence as C/H<sub>2</sub>O life?) energy levels of these and other nuclear species

