

1. Energy generation

We know that $\frac{dL}{dt} = \epsilon$ describes the generation of energy, and this L must be carried to the surface via:

• radiation: $\frac{dT}{dr} \sim -\frac{L}{K}$

• convection: $\frac{dT}{dr} \sim \left. \frac{dT}{dr} \right|_{ad}$

Now we explore the sources and sinks that make up ϵ :

- gravitational contraction (K-H)
- thermonuclear energy
- ν emission

We'll follow Clayton (1983) — it is the reference for reactions

2. Gravitational energy — consider motions on a scale smaller than the whole star

We have: $\frac{dL}{dM} = \epsilon$ w/ ϵ in units of erg/g/s

First law: $dq = de + Pd(1/\rho)$

following a fluid element:

$$\frac{Dq}{Dt} = \frac{De}{Dt} + P \frac{D}{Dt} \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) = \epsilon - \underbrace{\frac{dL}{dM}}$$

↑
Lagrangian

difference from
balance is an energy
source

We define $\epsilon_{\text{grav}} \equiv - \left[\frac{De}{Dt} + P \frac{D}{Dt} \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) \right]$

then $\frac{dL}{dM} = \epsilon + \epsilon_{\text{grav}}$

This can be shown to be

$$\epsilon_{\text{grav}} = - \frac{P}{\rho(\Gamma_3 - 1)} \left[\frac{D}{Dt} \left(\log \left(\frac{P}{\rho^{\Gamma_3}} \right) \right) \right]$$

↑ if we are isentropic, then
 $\epsilon_{\text{grav}} = 0$

→ aside

What is ϵ_{grv} ?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{De}{Dt} &= \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T \frac{Dp}{Dt} + \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \frac{DT}{Dt} \\ &= \frac{1}{\rho(\Gamma_s - 1)} \quad \text{from HKT eq. 3.97} \end{aligned}$$

What is $\left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T$?

$$\left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T = \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T + \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial p} \right|_T \quad (\text{writing } e(p, T(p, p)))$$

$$\text{since } dp = \left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T dp + \left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p dT = 0 \rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial p} \right|_T = - \frac{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T}{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T &= \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \frac{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T}{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p} \\ &= \frac{P}{\rho^2} - \frac{P}{\rho^2} + \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \left(\frac{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T}{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p} \right) \quad \frac{\frac{P}{\rho} x_T}{\frac{P}{\rho} x_T} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{P}{\rho^2} - \left(\frac{P}{\rho^2} - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T \right) - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \frac{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T}{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{P}{\rho^2} - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \left(\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p \right)^{-1} \left\{ \left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p \left(\frac{P}{\rho^2} - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T \right) \left(\left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \right)^{-1} \right\} \\ &\quad - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \frac{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T}{\left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p} \end{aligned}$$

recalling from hw #2

$$\frac{P}{\rho} \Gamma_1 = \left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial p} \right|_T + \left. \frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right|_p \left(\frac{P}{\rho^2} - \left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \right|_T \right) \left(\left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right|_p \right)^{-1}$$

aside 2
we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial e}{\partial p} \Big|_p &= \frac{P}{p^2} - \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \Big|_r \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \Big|_r \right)^{-1} \left\{ \frac{P}{p} \Gamma_1 - \frac{\partial P}{\partial p} \Big|_T \right\} - \frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \Big|_r \frac{\partial^2 e / \partial p \partial T}{\partial P / \partial T \Big|_r} \\ &= \frac{P}{p^2} - \frac{\partial e / \partial T \Big|_r}{\partial P / \partial T \Big|_r} \left\{ \frac{P}{p} \Gamma_1 - \cancel{\frac{\partial P}{\partial p} \Big|_T} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial p} \Big|_T \right\} \\ &= \frac{P}{p^2} - \underbrace{\frac{\partial e / \partial T \Big|_r}{\partial P / \partial T \Big|_r}}_{\text{this is just } \frac{\partial e}{\partial P} \Big|_r} \frac{P}{p} \Gamma_1 = \frac{P}{p^2} \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma_1}{\Gamma_2 - 1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

and finally...

$$\frac{De}{Dt} = \frac{P}{p^2} \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma_1}{\Gamma_2 - 1} \right) \frac{Dp}{Dt} + \frac{1}{p(\Gamma_2 - 1)} \frac{DP}{Dt}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{\text{grav}} &= - \left\{ \frac{De}{Dt} - \frac{P}{p^2} \frac{Dp}{Dt} \right\} \\ &= - \left\{ \frac{P}{p^2} \left(1 - \frac{\Gamma_1}{\Gamma_2 - 1} \right) \frac{Dp}{Dt} + \frac{1}{p(\Gamma_2 - 1)} \frac{DP}{Dt} - \cancel{\frac{P}{p^2} \frac{Dp}{Dt}} \right\} \\ &= - \left\{ \frac{P}{p^2} \frac{\Gamma_1}{\Gamma_2 - 1} \frac{Dp}{Dt} + \frac{1}{p(\Gamma_2 - 1)} \frac{DP}{Dt} \right\} \\ &= - \frac{P}{p(\Gamma_2 - 1)} \left\{ - \Gamma_1 \frac{D \ln p}{Dt} + \frac{D \ln P}{Dt} \right\} \\ &= - \frac{P}{p(\Gamma_2 - 1)} \left\{ \frac{D}{Dt} \left(\ln \left(\frac{P}{p \Gamma_1} \right) \right) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

if we are isentropic, this is 0

3.

$\therefore \epsilon_{\text{grav}}$ represents the energy from non-adiabatic contraction

This can arise, for instance, when the core contracts and the outer regions expand — this will give a local ϵ_{grav}

for expansion, $\epsilon_{\text{grav}} < 0$ — the shell dM takes in energy

for contraction, $\epsilon_{\text{grav}} > 0$ — the shell dM liberates energy

in equilibrium, $\epsilon_{\text{grav}} = 0$ — all time dependence is removed

4

Nuclear reactions (following Clayton)

consider $a + X \rightarrow Y + b$

shorthand notation: $X(a, b)Y$

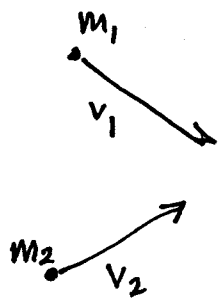
here X, Y are nuclei

a or b can be $p, n, \gamma, \alpha, e, \nu$, or sometimes other nuclei

conserved quantities:

- total E
- linear & angular momentum
- baryon #
- lepton #
- charge

center of mass frame:



$$m_1 \vec{v}_1 + m_2 \vec{v}_2 = (m_1 + m_2) \vec{V}$$

$$\therefore \vec{V} = \frac{m_1 \vec{v}_1 + m_2 \vec{v}_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

relative to CM:

$$m_1 (\vec{v}_1 - \vec{V}) = m_1 \frac{\cancel{m_1 \vec{v}_1} + m_2 \vec{v}_1 - (\cancel{m_1 \vec{v}_1} + m_2 \vec{v}_2)}{m_1 + m_2}$$

$$= \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} (\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2) \equiv \mu \vec{v}$$

↖ reduced mass

similarly: $m_2 (\vec{v}_2 - \vec{V}) = -\mu \vec{v}$

5.

CM frame: particles approach each other w/ equal and opposite momenta

KE before collision:

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} M V^2 + \frac{1}{2} \mu v^2$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$M \equiv m_1 + m_2$$

CM KE is the same before and after collision: $\frac{1}{2} M V^2$

remainder: $\frac{1}{2} \mu v^2$ can be used to overcome Coulomb force

Note: these are non-relativistic

There is also $\Delta K = -\Delta M c^2$ but $\frac{\Delta M}{M} \ll 1$

conservation of energy:

$$E_{ax} + (m_a + m_x) c^2 = E_{bx} + (m_b + m_y) c^2$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mu v^2 \qquad \qquad \qquad = \frac{1}{2} \mu' v'^2$$

energy liberated because $(m_a + m_x) c^2 \neq (m_b + m_y) c^2$

instead of using nuclear mass, you can use atomic mass. w/ little error, since atomic binding energy \ll nuclear binding energy

6.

Since the # of nucleons is conserved, we can discuss the mass excess (just subtract total atomic # from both sides)

$$\Delta M_{AZ} = (m_{AZ} - Am_0)c^2 = \left(\frac{m_{AZ}}{1 \text{ amu}} - A \right) c^2 m_0$$

T
T
T

these are
mass of
1 AMU = $\frac{1}{12} {}^{12}\text{C}$

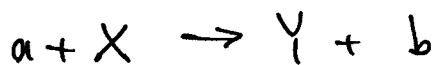
tabulated
A
note: has units of energy

Z X

mass excesses are typically tabulated (see Clayton table 4.1)

note: atomic masses, not nuclear masses are tabulated since that's what's measured in mass spectrometers

Energy release can be computed from mass excesses



$$E_{ax} + (\Delta M_a + \Delta M_x) = E_{by} + (\Delta M_b + \Delta M_y)$$

$$Q \equiv [(\Delta M_a + \Delta M_x) - (\Delta M_b + \Delta M_y)]$$

ex: energy from β - α : $3 {}^4\text{He} \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C} + \gamma$

$$Q = 3\Delta M_{{}^4\text{He}} - \Delta M_{{}^{12}\text{C}}$$

from Clayton's table: $\Delta M_{{}^4\text{He}} = 2.42475 \text{ MeV}$
 $\Delta M_{{}^{12}\text{C}} = 0$ (by definition)

$$\therefore Q = 7.274 \text{ MeV}$$

7. Note:

1 amu = 1.6605389 x 10⁻²⁴ g ↙ ignore atomic binding

$$\Delta M_{\text{H}} = (m_{\text{H}} - 1 m_0) c^2 = \left(\frac{m_p + m_e}{m_0} - 1 \right) m_0 c^2$$

need precision: $m_p = 1.67262178 \times 10^{-24}$ g
 $m_e = 9.10938 \times 10^{-28}$ g
 $c = 2.99792 \times 10^{10}$ cm/s

$$= 1.16782 \times 10^{-5} \text{ erg} = 7.289 \text{ MeV} \text{ (matches Clayton's table)}$$

$$\Delta M_n = (m_n - 1 m_0) c^2 = (1.674927 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g} - 1 m_0) c^2 = 8.071 \text{ MeV}$$

↑
neutron

Consider the mass of our species (ignore atom vs. nucleus)

$$m = A m_0 + \frac{\Delta M}{c^2} \leftarrow \text{mass excess}$$

alternately, we may wish to write it as

$$m = Z m_p + (A - Z) m_n + \frac{B}{c^2}$$

B is binding energy

Note: there are semi-empirical models of B, like the liquid-drop model

equating:

$$B = \Delta M - \underbrace{Z(m_p - m_0) c^2}_{\Delta M_p} - \underbrace{(A - Z)(m_n - m_0) c^2}_{\Delta M_n}$$

$$\therefore B = \Delta M - Z \Delta M_p - (A - Z) M_n$$

8

Consider ${}^4\text{He}$:

$$\text{from Clayton: } \Delta M_{{}^4\text{He}} = 2.42475 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\Delta M_p = 7.289 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\Delta M_n = 8.071 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\therefore B = 2.42475 \text{ MeV} - 7.289 \text{ MeV} \cdot 2 - 8.071 \text{ MeV} \cdot 2 = -28.295 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\sim -7.1 \text{ MeV/nucleon}$$

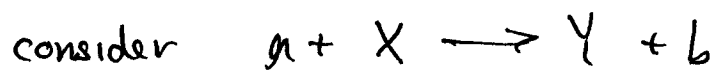
Energy balance gives energy released from each reaction

Energy balance eq. gives energy released from each reaction

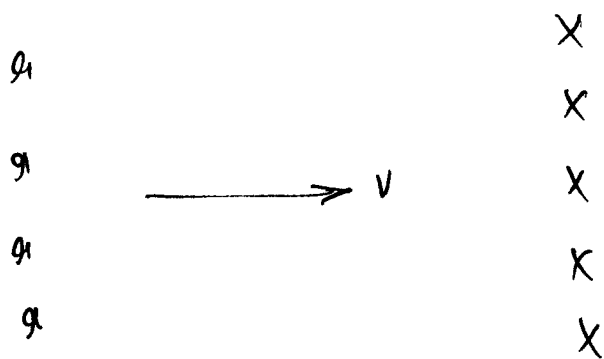
ref: Clayton § 4.2

We now need the energy generation rate

Cross section:



imagining targets X being bombarded by a flux of a



The cross section is

$$\sigma = \frac{\text{\# of reactions / nucleus X / time}}{\text{\# of incident particles / cm}^2 / \text{t}} \leftarrow \text{flux of } a$$

↑ units are cm^2

This is velocity dependent: $\sigma(v)$

↑ you can think of this as the size of the target X presents to the incoming a

take $n_x = \#$ density of X

then the reaction rate / unit volume is

$$n_x \sigma \cdot (\text{flux of } a)$$

$$\text{or } r = n_x n_a \sigma v$$

since $(n_a v)$ is the flux of incoming a

Note: v is the relative velocity between X and a

In general, there will be a range of v , described by a spectrum $\phi(v)$ with

$$\int \phi(v) dv = 1$$

then $\phi(v) dv$ is the probability that the relative velocity between X and a is in $[v, v+dv]$

so

$$r = n_a n_x \int_0^{\infty} v \sigma(v) \phi(v) dv \equiv n_a n_x \langle \sigma v \rangle$$

↳ this is what is needed to find reaction rate

Note: if a and X are identical (e.g. $^{12}\text{C} + ^{12}\text{C}$), then we need a factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ to avoid double counting

$$r_{ax} = n_a n_x \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle}{1 + \delta_{ax}}$$

sometimes we write $\lambda \equiv \langle \sigma v \rangle$

11 What is $\phi(v)$? Maxwell-Boltzmann

- actually a separate M-B for each particle
- in CM frame, a single M-B for relative v w/ μ

consider:

$$\phi(\vec{v}) dv_x dv_y dv_z = \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\mu v^2/2kT} dv_x dv_y dv_z$$

then our reaction rate has the form

$$r = \iint v [n_a \phi(v_a)] [n_x \phi(v_x)] \sigma(v) d^3v_a d^3v_x$$

it can be shown by a little algebra that

$$r = n_a n_x \int v \sigma(v) \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\mu v^2/2kT} d^3v$$

(there would be a second Maxwellian corresponding to V , but we can integrate that out since only v enters into cross-section)

\therefore our reaction rate is

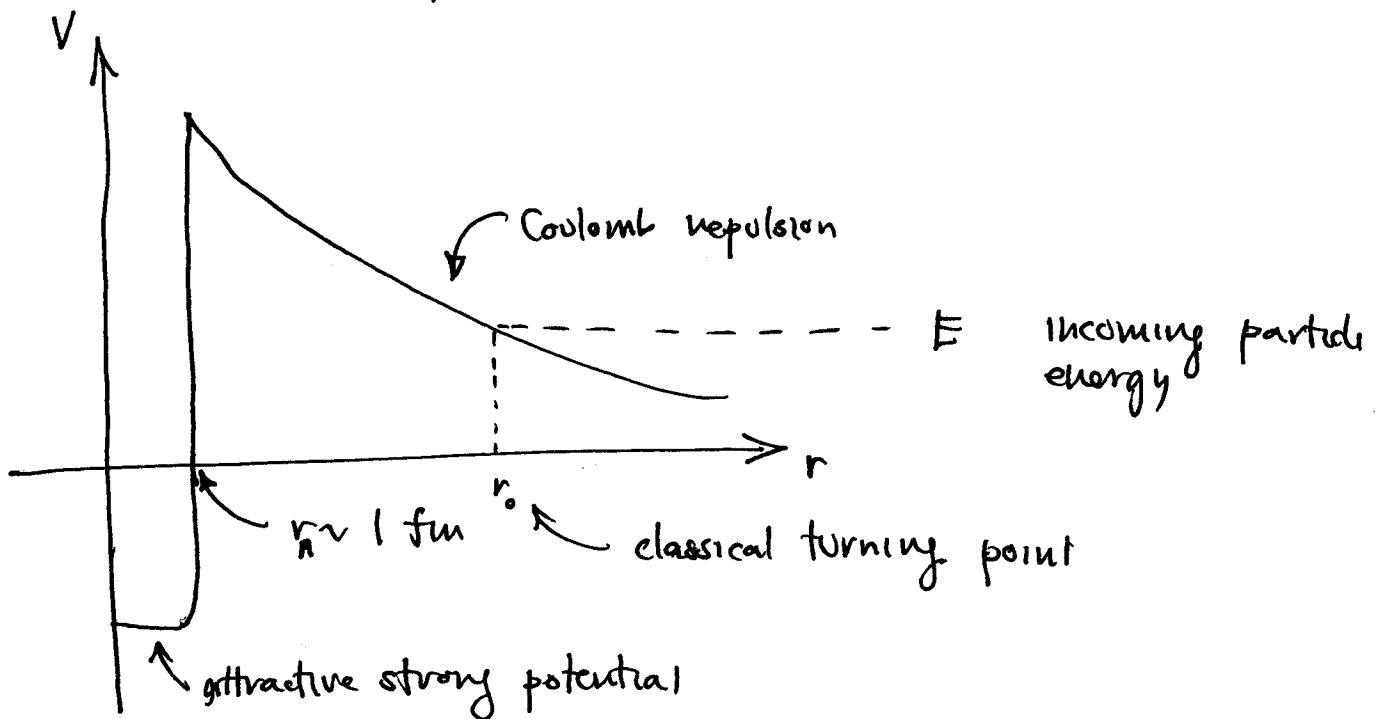
$$\begin{aligned} r_{ax} &= (1 + \delta_{ax})^{-1} n_a n_x \langle \sigma v \rangle \\ &= (1 + \delta_{ax})^{-1} n_a n_x 4\pi \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty v^3 \sigma(v) e^{-\mu v^2/2kT} dv \end{aligned}$$

└ switching to spherical

Now we'll focus on the calculation of

$$\lambda = \langle \sigma v \rangle = 4\pi \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty v^3 \sigma(v) e^{-\mu v^2/2kT} dv$$

Consider the reaction process



classically, the incoming particle needs $E \sim kT >$ Coulomb barrier to fuse — this demands really high T

QM: there is a probability of tunnelling through the coulomb barrier

$$P \sim e^{-r_0/\lambda} \quad \lambda = \text{de Broglie wavelength}$$

$$r_0: \quad \frac{1}{2}\mu v^2 = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r_0} \implies r_0 = \frac{2Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\mu v^2}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{\mu v} \quad \therefore$$

$$\therefore \frac{r_0}{\lambda} \sim \frac{2Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\mu v^2} \frac{\mu v}{h} = \frac{\text{const}}{v} = \frac{\text{const}}{E^{1/2}}$$

$$\text{so } P \sim e^{-\text{const } E^{-1/2}}$$

Gamow showed the true probability has a 2π in it

$$P \propto e^{-2\pi z_1 z_2 e^2 / \hbar v}$$

(Clayton §4.5 has a detailed derivation)

$$\text{---} \quad \equiv e^{-bE^{-1/2}}$$

If we take the idea of cross-section representing some target, then the physical size we can imagine is the de Broglie wavelength,

$$\sigma \sim \pi \left(\frac{\hbar}{p}\right)^2 \sim \frac{1}{E} \quad \left(E = \frac{p^2}{2m}\right)$$

If we put both of these effects together, we have

$$\sigma(E) = \frac{S(E)}{E} e^{-bE^{-1/2}}$$

$S(E)$ is everything that is left over — the hope is that we've removed the strongest E terms and $|S(E)|$ is smooth

$S(E)$ depends on the detailed nuclear properties

If we go away from a resonance in the nuclear structure, then $S(E) \sim \text{constant}$

for later:

$$b = \frac{2\pi z_1 z_2 e^2}{\hbar} \left(\frac{\mu}{2}\right)^{1/2} \quad \text{since } v = \left(\frac{2E}{\mu}\right)^{1/2}$$

14.

M-B distribution

$$\phi(v) dv = 4\pi v^2 \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT} \right)^{3/2} e^{-\mu v^2 / 2kT} dv$$

taking $E = \frac{1}{2} \mu v^2$ $v = \left(\frac{2E}{\mu} \right)^{1/2}$

$$dE = \mu v dv = \mu \left(\frac{2E}{\mu} \right)^{1/2} dE = (2E\mu)^{1/2} dE$$

then

$$\psi(E) dE = 4\pi \left(\frac{2E}{\mu} \right) \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi kT} \right)^{3/2} e^{-E/kT} \frac{dE}{(2E\mu)^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{E^{1/2}}{(kT)^{3/2}} e^{-E/kT} dE \left[\phi(v) dv \right]$$

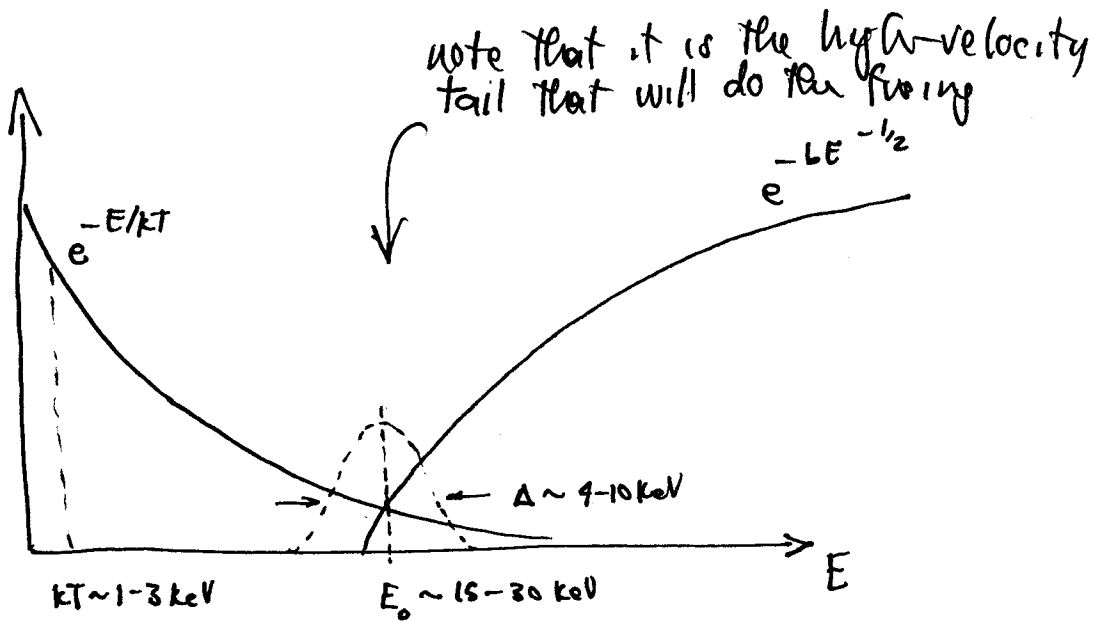
and writing $\lambda = \langle \sigma v \rangle$ in terms of E ,

$$\lambda = \langle \sigma v \rangle = \int_0^{\infty} \sigma(E) v(E) \psi(E) dE$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{S(E)}{E} e^{-bE^{-1/2}} \right\} \left(\frac{2E}{\mu} \right)^{1/2} \left\{ \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{E^{1/2}}{(kT)^{3/2}} e^{-E/kT} \right\} dE$$

$$= \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi} \right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{(kT)^{3/2}} \int_0^{\infty} S(E) e^{-\frac{E}{kT} - \frac{bE^{-1/2}}{\text{tunnelling}}} dE$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{\text{M-B term}}$
 $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{\text{tunnelling}}$



The term $e^{-E/KT - bE^{-1/2}}$ is only "big" in some small range $E_0 \pm \Delta E$

where E_0 is found via

$$\frac{d}{dE} \left(\frac{E}{KT} + bE^{-1/2} \right) = 0 \rightarrow E_0 = \left(\frac{bKT}{2} \right)^{2/3}$$

If we assume $S(E) = S_0 = \text{constant}$ then

$$\chi = \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi} \right)^{1/2} \frac{S_0}{(KT)^{3/2}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-E/KT - bE^{-1/2}} dE$$

This integral is usually done by approximating the integrand as a gaussian.

Finally, experiments are often done @ $E \gg$ stellar E , and we extrapolate down to stellar energies — ok if S is smooth.

16.

We can show (see Clayton 4.48 and following) that

$$e^{-E/kT} - 6E^{-1/2} \sim Ce^{-(E-E_0)^2/(\Delta/2)^2}$$

$$\text{w/ } C = e^{-3E_0/kT} \equiv e^{-\tau}$$

$$\Delta = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} (E_0 kT)^{1/2} \quad (\text{this width is chosen to have the same curvature @ maximum as the original function})$$

and the location of the maximum is E_0 (as we found before)

then

$$\lambda \sim \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi}\right)^{1/2} \frac{S_0}{(kT)^{3/2}} e^{-\tau} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(E-E_0)^2/(\Delta/2)^2} dE$$

we can take the lower limit to be $-\infty$ w/o much loss of accuracy.

$$\text{defining } \xi \equiv \frac{2(E-E_0)}{\Delta} \quad d\xi = \frac{2}{\Delta} dE$$

we have

$$\lambda \sim \left(\frac{8}{\mu\pi}\right)^{1/2} \frac{S_0}{(kT)^{3/2}} e^{-\tau} \underbrace{\frac{\Delta}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\xi^2} d\xi}_{=\sqrt{\pi}}$$

then

$$\lambda \sim \left(\frac{8}{\mu}\right)^{1/2} \frac{S_0}{(kT)^{3/2}} e^{-\tau} \frac{\Delta}{2}$$

16a
Approximating as a Gaussian

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-E/kT - bE^{-1/2}} dE$$

write this as $e^{-f(x)}$

where $f(x)$ is assumed to be sharply peaked at x_0

then we write

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) + f''(x_0) \frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2} + \dots$$

but $f'(x_0)$ vanishes at the extremum, so we have

$$f(x) \sim f(x_0) + f''(x_0) \frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2} + \dots$$

then we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^{\infty} e^{-E/kT - bE^{-1/2}} dE \\ &= e^{-E_0/kT - bE_0^{-1/2}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-A(E-E_0)^2/2} \end{aligned}$$

where A is $\left. \frac{d^2}{dE^2} \left(\frac{E}{kT} + bE^{-1/2} \right) \right|_{E_0}$

$$= \left. \frac{d}{dE} \left(\frac{1}{kT} - \frac{1}{2} b E^{-3/2} \right) \right|_{E_0}$$

$$= + \frac{3}{4} b E_0^{-5/2} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{kT} E_0^{-1}$$

$$b = \frac{2}{kT} E_0^{3/2}$$

then we have

~~$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-E/kT} dE$$~~

10 b.

Then we have

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-E/kT - bE^{-1/2}} dE$$

$$\sim \underbrace{e^{-E_0/kT - bE_0^{-1/2}}}_{e^{-3E_0/kT}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(E-E_0)^2 \cdot \frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{kTE_0}}$$

$$\text{defining } \frac{\Delta}{2} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} (kTE_0)^{1/2}$$

we have

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-E/kT - bE^{-1/2}} \sim e^{-3E_0/kT} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(E-E_0)^2 / (\Delta/2)^2}$$

17

What is the T dependence here?

$$\tau = \frac{3E_0}{kT} = \frac{3}{kT} \underbrace{\left(\frac{b kT}{2}\right)^{2/3}}_{E_0} = 3 \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{2/3} (kT)^{-1/3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{now } \Delta &= \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} (E_0 kT)^{1/2} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} \left[\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{2/3} (kT)^{5/2} \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{1/3} (kT)^{5/6} \end{aligned}$$

into our λ expression:

$$\lambda \sim \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{8}{\mu}\right)^{1/2} S_0 e^{-\tau} (kT)^{-3/2} \underbrace{\frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{1/3} (kT)^{5/6}}_{=\Delta}$$

$$\sim 2 \left(\frac{8}{3\mu}\right)^{1/2} S_0 e^{-\tau} \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{1/3} (kT)^{-2/3}$$

This is a rate that goes like

$$S_0 e^{-aT^{-1/3}} \frac{1}{T^{2/3}} \quad \text{w/} \quad a = 3 \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{2/3} k^{-1/3}$$



this temperature dependence is representative of non-resonant rates

Back to our expression for τ , we can solve for T :

$$(kT)^{-1/3} = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{2}{b}\right)^{2/3} \tau$$

and then write our rate in terms of τ :

$$\lambda \sim 2 \left(\frac{8}{3\mu}\right)^{1/2} S_0 e^{-\tau} \left(\frac{b}{2}\right)^{1/3} \left[\frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{2}{b}\right)^{2/3} \tau\right]^2$$

so

$$\lambda \sim 2 \left(\frac{8}{3\mu}\right)^{1/2} S_0 \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \frac{2}{9} \frac{1}{b}$$

putting in b , we have

$$\lambda \sim 2 \left(\frac{8}{3\mu}\right)^{1/2} S_0 \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \frac{2}{9} \frac{\hbar}{2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2} \left(\frac{2}{\mu}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\sim \frac{16}{9} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{\mu} \frac{\hbar}{2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2} S_0 \tau^2 e^{-\tau}$$

Clayton defines

$$\mu = A m_0$$

$$w/ A = \frac{A_1 A_2}{A_1 + A_2}$$

putting in #'s

$$\lambda \sim 4.5 \times 10^{14} \frac{S_0}{AZ_1 Z_2} \tau^2 e^{-\tau} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$$

[noting that S_0 has
units of $\text{erg} \cdot \text{cm}^2$]

↑ kT uses keV-barms

There would be more terms if we consider departure from Gaussian or variations in S

Evaluating some more constants

$$\sigma(E) = \frac{S(E)}{E} e^{-2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2 / \hbar v}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \mu v^2 \longrightarrow v = \left(\frac{2E}{\mu} \right)^{1/2}$$

and

$$\sigma(E) = \frac{S(E)}{E} e^{-bE^{-1/2}}$$

$$\text{w/ } b = \frac{2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar} \left(\frac{\mu}{2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\text{now } \mu = \frac{A_1 A_2}{A_1 + A_2} m_u \equiv A m_u$$

$$\text{so } b = \frac{2\pi Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar} \left(\frac{A m_u}{2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{(4.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ g}^{1/2} \text{ cm}^{3/2} \text{ s}^{-1})^2 (1.66 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g})^{1/2}}{6.63 \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s} / 2\pi} Z_1 Z_2 A^{1/2}$$

$$= 1.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ erg}^{1/2} = 31.2 \text{ keV}^{1/2} \quad (1 \text{ keV}^{1/2} = 4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ erg}^{1/2})$$

$$\therefore b = 31.2 \text{ keV}^{1/2} A^{1/2} Z_1 Z_2$$

Our reaction rate T dependence is all in $\langle \sigma v \rangle$,

$$r \sim e^{-a T^{-1/3}} T^{-2/3}$$

$$\text{w/ } a = 3 \left(\frac{b}{2} \right)^{2/3} k^{-1/3}$$

If we want to approximate our reaction as a power law,

$$r = r_0 T^{\nu}$$

then

$$\nu = \left. \frac{\partial \log r}{\partial \log T} \right|_p = \frac{\partial}{\partial \log T} \left\{ -\frac{2}{3} \log T - a T^{-1/3} \right\}$$

$$= -\frac{2}{3} + \frac{a}{3 T^{1/3}} \quad \left(\text{since } \frac{\partial}{\partial \log T} T^{-1/3} = T \frac{\partial}{\partial T} T^{-1/3} \right)$$

as shown before, $b = 31.2 \text{ keV}^{1/2} A^{1/2} Z_1 Z_2$

$$\text{so } a = 3 \frac{(31.2 \text{ keV}^{1/2} A^{1/2} Z_1 Z_2)^{2/3}}{2^{2/3}} \left(1.38 \times 10^{-16} \text{ erg/K} / 1.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ erg/keV} \right)^{-1/3}$$

$$= 4200 A^{1/2} (Z_1 Z_2)^{2/3} \frac{\text{K}^{1/3}}{T \text{ Kelvin}}$$

and

$$\nu = \frac{4200 A^{1/2} (Z_1 Z_2)^{2/3} \text{K}^{1/3}}{3 T^{1/2}} - \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= \frac{14 A^{1/2} (Z_1 Z_2)^{2/3}}{T_6^{1/3}} - \frac{2}{3}$$

T in units of 10^6 K

21.

E.g. for $^{12}\text{C}(\text{p}, \gamma)^{13}\text{N}$ @ $T_0 = 20$

$$A = \frac{12}{13}$$

$$Z_1 = 6$$

$$Z_2 = 1$$

$$D \sim 16$$