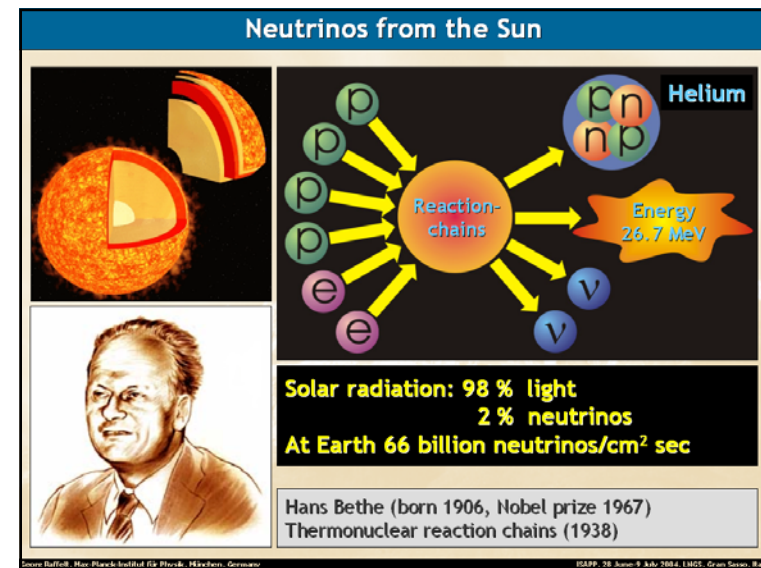
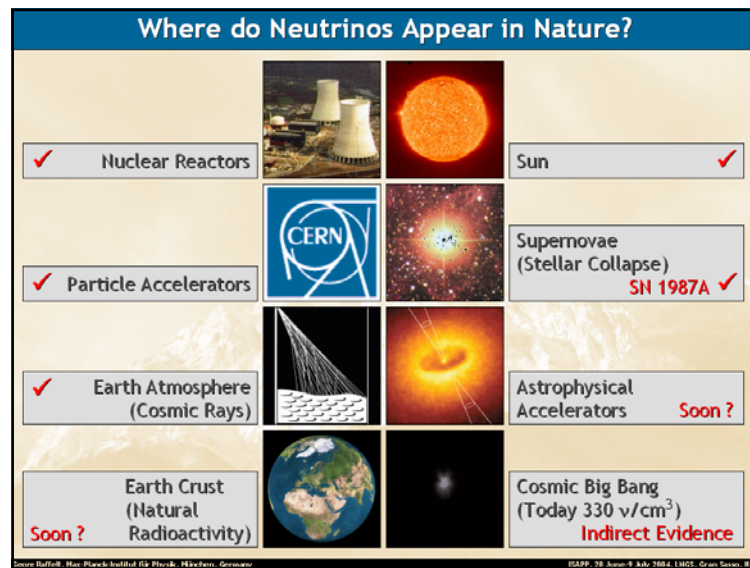
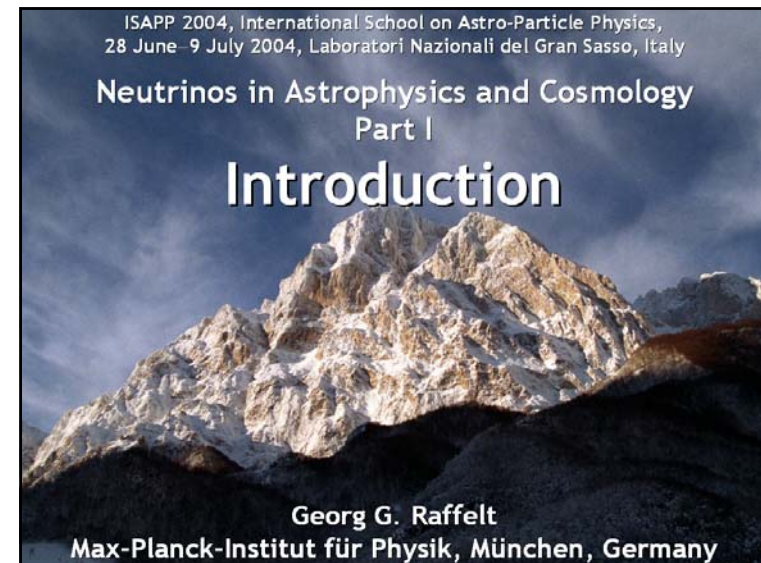
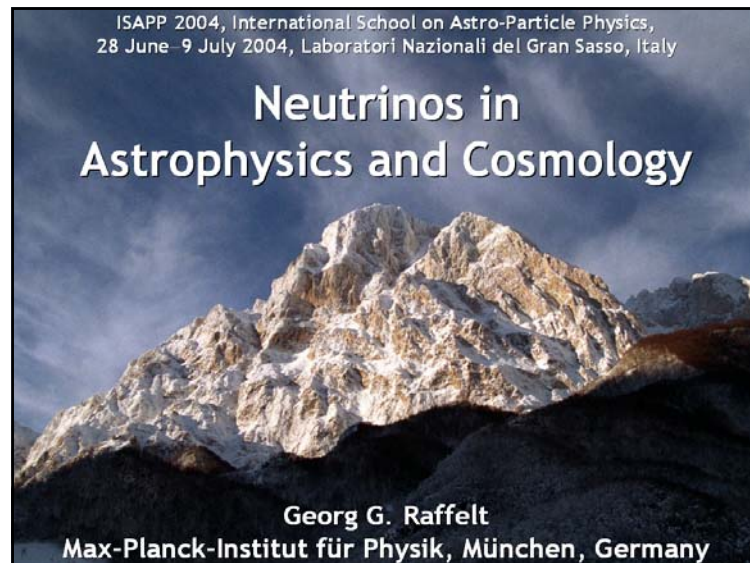




Bethe's Classic Paper on Nuclear Reactions in Stars

Energy Production in Stars*

H. A. Bethe
Carnegie University, Bloom, New York
(Received September 1, 1939)

It is shown that the most important source of energy in ordinary stars is the reaction of carbon and oxygen with positrons. These reactions have a cycle in which the original carbon is regenerated, and $C^{12} + H^+ \rightarrow C^{13} + \gamma$, $C^{13} + e^+ \rightarrow N^{13} + \gamma$, $N^{13} + H^+ \rightarrow O^{15} + \gamma$, $O^{15} + e^+ \rightarrow F^{18} + \gamma$, $F^{18} \rightarrow O^{16} + \alpha$, $N^{14} + H^+ \rightarrow O^{15} + \gamma$, $O^{15} + e^+ \rightarrow F^{18} + \gamma$, $F^{18} \rightarrow O^{16} + \alpha$. The net result of these reactions is the conversion of four protons and two electrons into one helium nucleus and four positrons, which are then annihilated with four electrons to produce four gamma rays. The energy production is estimated to be 10^{11} ergs per gram per second.

1. INTRODUCTION

THE progress of nuclear physics in the last few years makes it possible to decide rather definitely which processes can and which cannot occur in the interior of stars. Such decisions will be attempted in the present paper, the discussion being restricted primarily to main sequence stars. The results will be at variance with some current hypotheses.

The first main result is that, under present conditions, no elements heavier than helium can be built up to any appreciable extent. Therefore we must assume that the heavier elements were built up before the stars reached their present state of temperature and density. No attempt will be made at speculations about the previous state of matter.

The energy production of stars is then due solely to the combination of four protons and two electrons into one helium nucleus. This simplifies the discussion of stellar evolution immensely as compared with the case of the previous state of matter.

* Based on A. C. Clegg, *Nobel Prize in 1938*, by the New York Academy of Sciences.

No neutrinos from nuclear reactions in 1938 ...

The combination of four protons and two electrons can occur essentially in two ways. The first mechanism starts with the combination of two protons to form a deuteron with positron emission, viz.

$$H + H = D + e^+ \quad (1)$$

The deuteron is then transformed into He^4 by further capture of protons; these captures occur very rapidly compared with process (1). The second mechanism uses carbon and nitrogen as catalysts, according to the chain reaction

$$\begin{aligned} C^{12} + H &= N^{13} + \gamma, & N^{13} &= C^{13} + e^+ \\ C^{12} + H &= N^{14} + \gamma, & N^{14} &= O^{15} + e^+ \\ N^{14} + H &= O^{15} + \gamma, & O^{15} &= N^{15} + e^+ \\ N^{15} + H &= C^{12} + He^4. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Sun Glasses for Neutrinos?

8.3 light minutes

1000 light years of lead needed to shield solar neutrinos

Bethe & Peierls 1934:

"... this evidently means that one will never be able to observe a neutrino."

First Detection (1954 - 1956)

Clyde Cowan (1919 - 1974)

Fred Reines (1918 - 1998)

Nobel prize 1995

Detector prototype

Anti-Electron Neutrinos from Hanford Nuclear Reactor

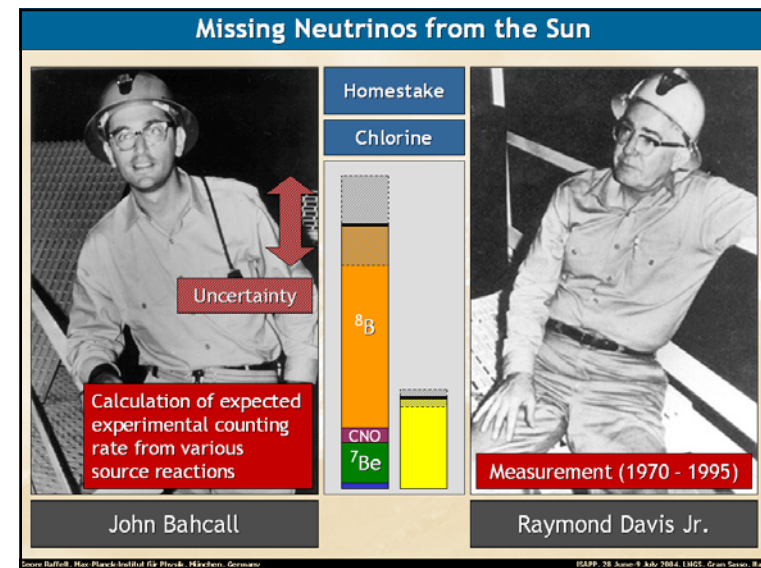
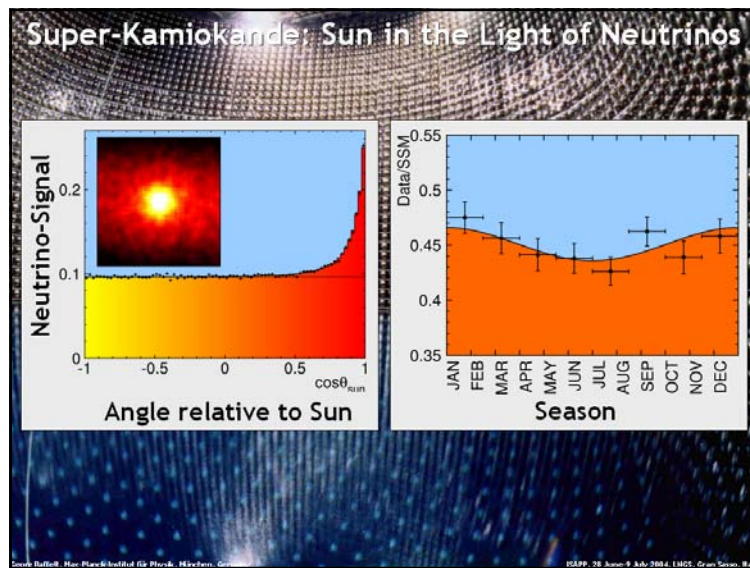
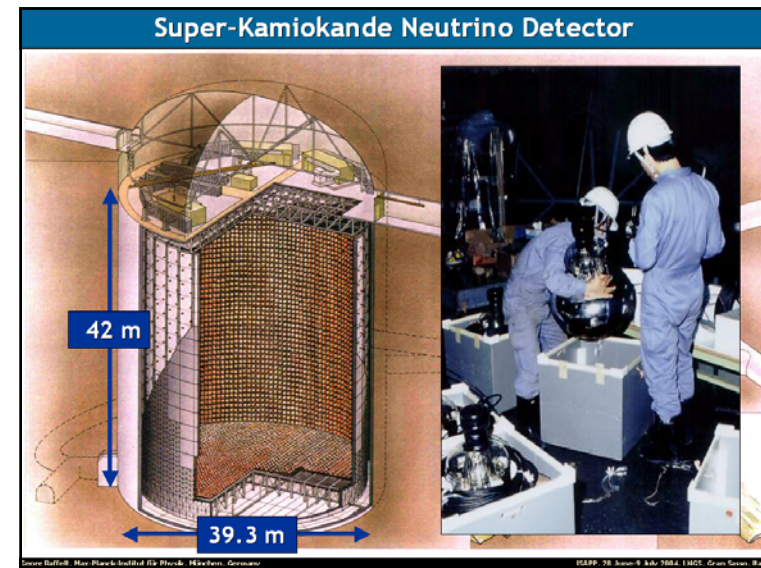
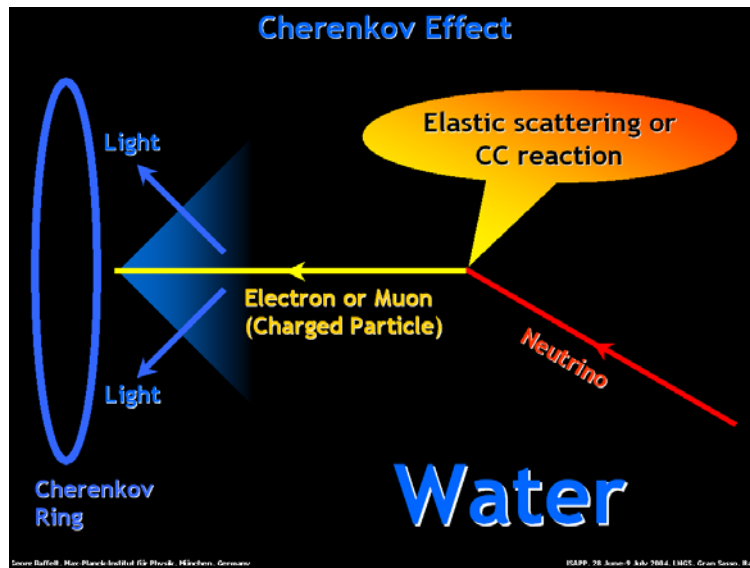
3 Gammas in coincidence

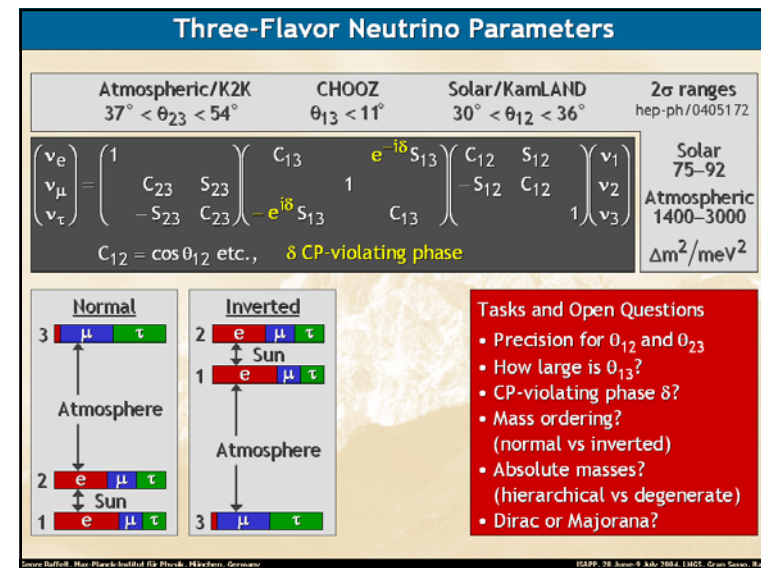
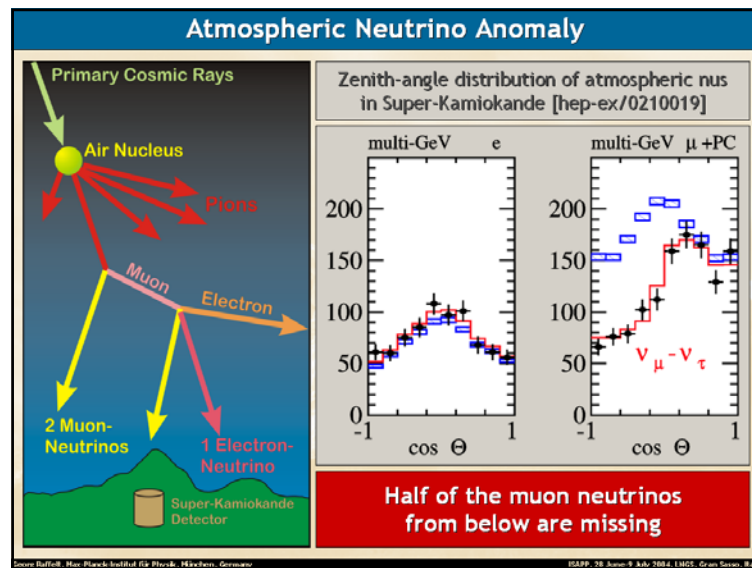
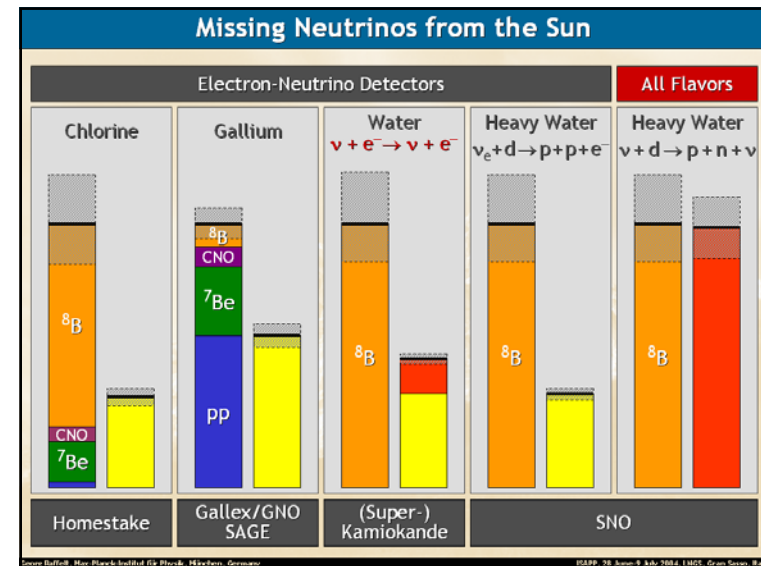
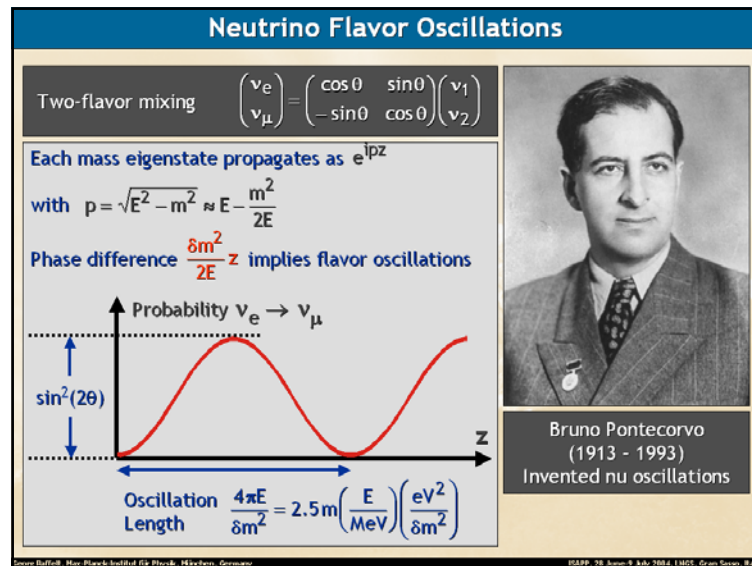
First Measurement of Solar Neutrinos

Inverse beta decay of chlorine

600 tons of Perchloroethylene

Homestake solar neutrino observatory (1967-2002)





Neutrinos from Thermal Plasma Processes

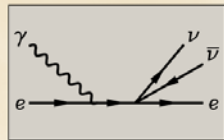
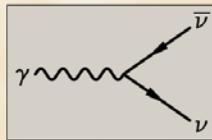
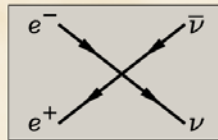


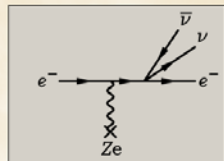
Photo (Compton)



Plasmon decay

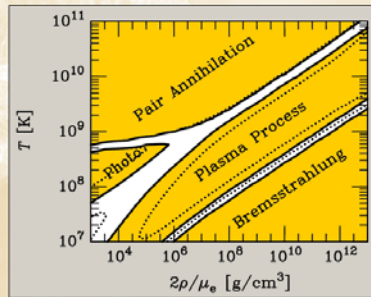


Pair annihilation



Bremsstrahlung

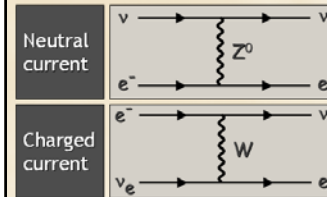
These processes first discussed in 1961-63 after V-A theory



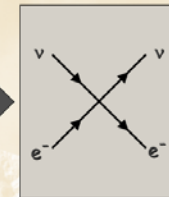
Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

Effective Neutrino Neutral-Current Couplings



$E \ll M_{W,Z}$



Effective four fermion coupling

$$H_{\text{int}} = \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} \bar{\Psi}_f \gamma_\mu (C_V - C_A \gamma_5) \Psi_f \bar{\Psi}_\nu \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma_5) \Psi_\nu$$

Neutrino	Fermion	C_V	C_A
ν_e	Electron	$+\frac{1}{2} + 2\sin^2 \Theta_W \approx 1$	$+\frac{1}{2}$
ν_μ, ν_τ		$-\frac{1}{2} + 2\sin^2 \Theta_W \approx 0$	$-\frac{1}{2}$
ν_e, ν_μ, ν_τ	Proton	$+\frac{1}{2} - 2\sin^2 \Theta_W \approx 0$	$+\frac{1.26}{2}$
	Neutron	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1.26}{2}$

$$G_F = 1.166 \times 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$$

$$\sin^2 \Theta_W = 0.231$$

Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

Solar Neutrinos from Compton Process

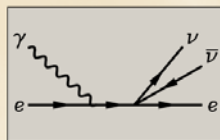


Photo (Compton)

Cross section (non-relativistic limit)

$$\sigma = \frac{32}{105} \frac{\alpha G_F^2 m_e^2}{(4\pi)^2} (C_V^2 + 5C_A^2) \left(\frac{E_\gamma}{m_e} \right)^4$$

$$\sum_{\text{flavors}} \sigma = 1.34 \times 10^{-55} \text{ cm}^2 \left(\frac{E_\gamma}{10 \text{ keV}} \right)^4$$

Volume energy loss rate

$$Q_{\nu\bar{\nu}} = n_e \int \frac{2d^3p_\gamma}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{E_\gamma \sum \sigma}{e^{E_\gamma/T} - 1}$$

Energy loss rate per unit mass

$$\epsilon_{\nu\bar{\nu}} = \frac{Q_{\nu\bar{\nu}}}{\rho} = 2.5 \times 10^{-8} \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{g s}} Y_e \left(\frac{T}{\text{keV}} \right)^8$$

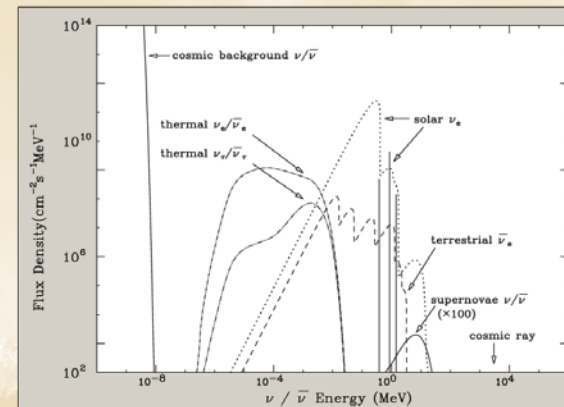
To be compared with nuclear energy generation rate in the Sun

$$\langle \epsilon_{\text{nuc}} \rangle = \frac{L_{\text{sun}}}{M_{\text{sun}}} = \frac{4 \times 10^{33} \text{ erg/s}}{2 \times 10^{33} \text{ g}} = 2 \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{g s}} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{g}} = 200 \frac{\text{Watts}}{\text{kilo-ton}}$$

Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

Thermal vs. Nuclear Neutrinos from Sun



Haxton & Lin, The very low energy solar flux of electron and heavy-flavor neutrinos and anti-neutrinos, nucl-th/0006055

Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

Axion or Graviton Emission Processes in Stars

Nucleons	$\frac{C_N}{2f_a} \Psi_N \gamma_\mu \gamma_5 \Psi_N \partial^\mu a$	Nucleon Bremsstrahlung	
Photons	$\frac{C_e}{2f_a} \Psi_e \gamma_\mu \gamma_5 \Psi_e \partial^\mu a$	Primakoff	
Electrons	$C_\gamma \frac{\alpha}{2\pi f_a} \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} a$ $= -C_\gamma \frac{\alpha}{2\pi f_a} \vec{E} \cdot \vec{B} a$	Compton	
		Pair Annihilation	
		Electromagnetic Bremsstrahlung	

Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany. ILLP, 10. Juni 9. Juli 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital.

Search for Solar Axions

Sun

Axion Helioscope (Sikivie 1983)
Axion-Photon-Oscillation

N
Magnet S

Axion energy [keV]

→ Tokyo Axion Helioscope (Results since 1998)
 → CERN Axion Solar Telescope (CAST) (Data since 2003)

Alternative Technique:
Bragg conversion in crystal
 Experimental limits on solar axion flux from dark-matter experiments (SOLAX, COSME, DAMA, ...)

Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany. ILLP, 10. Juni 9. Juli 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital.



Search for Neutralino Dark Matter

Direct Method (Laboratory Experiments)

Galactic dark matter particle (e.g. neutralino)

Crystal

Recoil energy (few keV) is measured by

- Ionisation
- Scintillation
- Cryogenic

Indirect Method (Neutrino Telescopes)

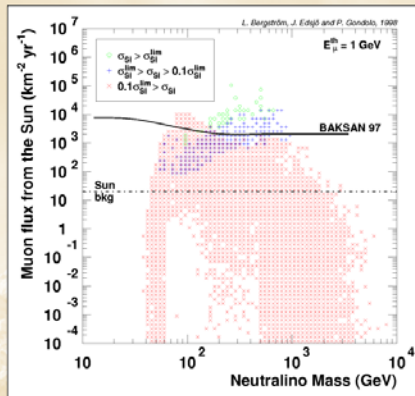
Galactic dark matter particles are accreted

Sun

High-energy neutrinos (GeV-TeV) can be measured

Source: Raffelt, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany. ILLP, 10. Juni 9. Juli 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital.

Muon Flux from WIMP Annihilation in the Sun

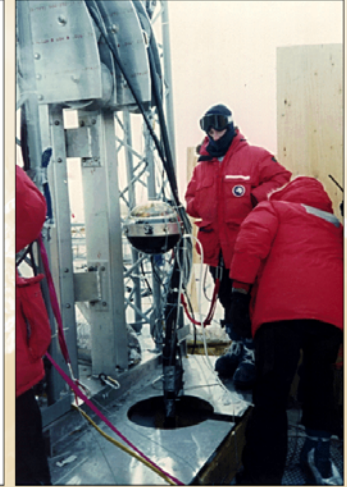
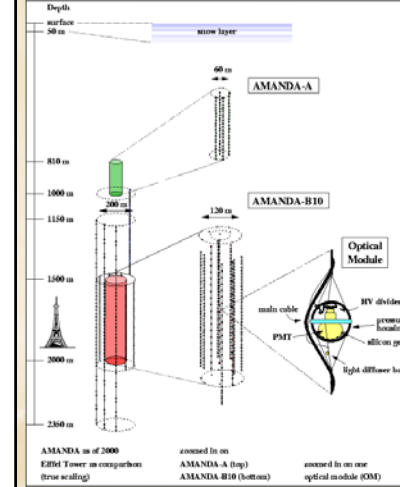


Need a km³ water Cherenkov detector to reach solar background

Source: Baffert, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

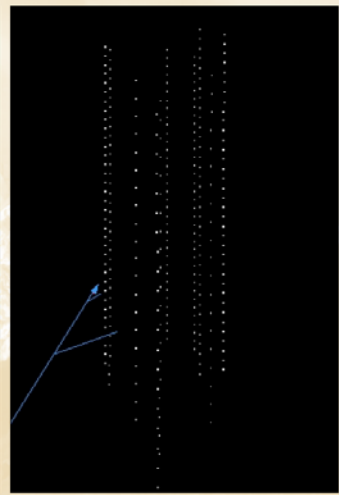
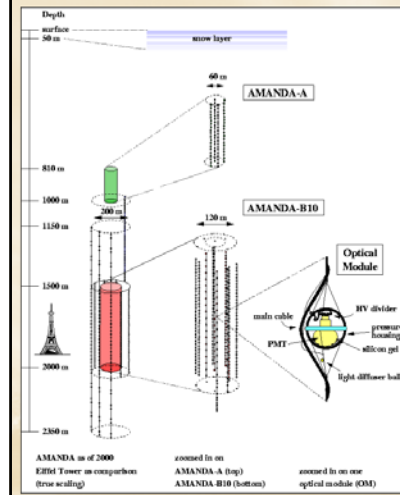
SLAPP, 70. June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

AMANDA - South Pole Neutrino Telescope



SLAPP, 70. June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

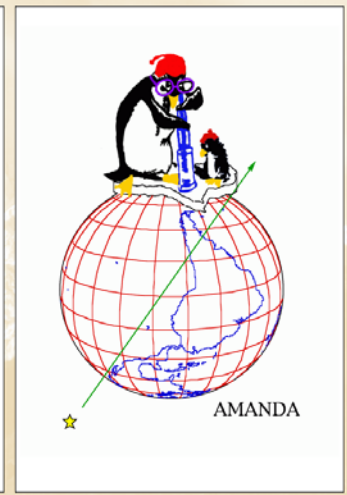
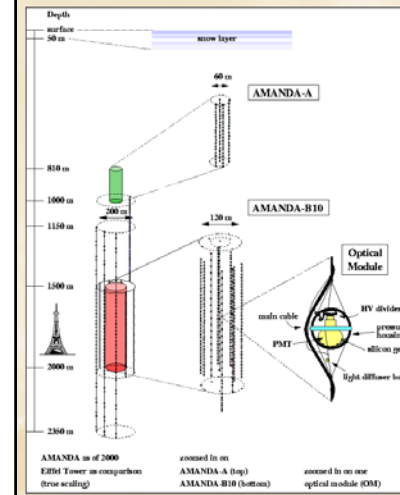
AMANDA - South Pole Neutrino Telescope



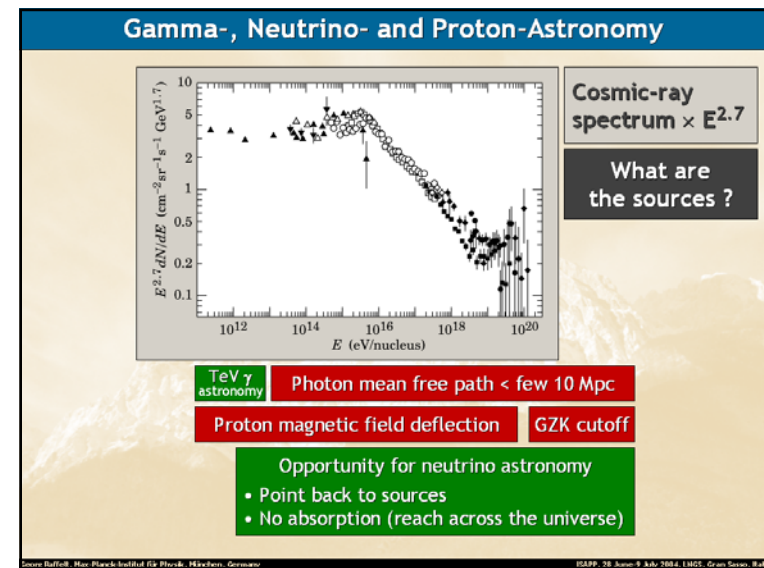
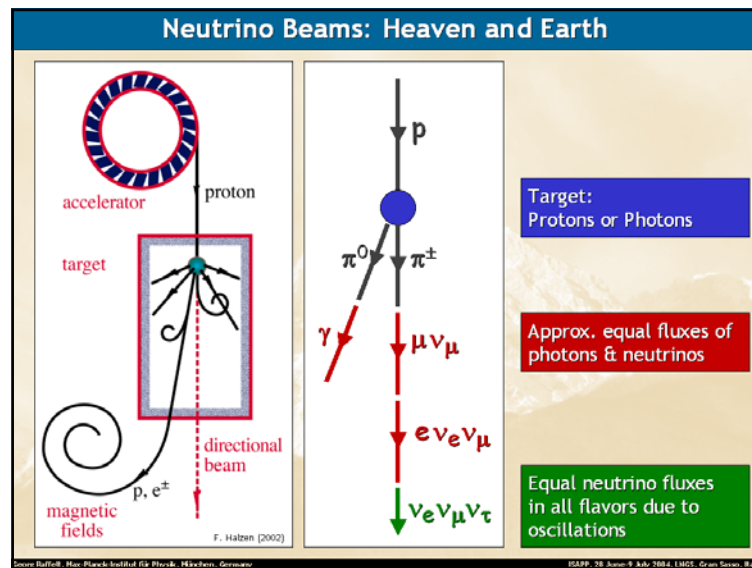
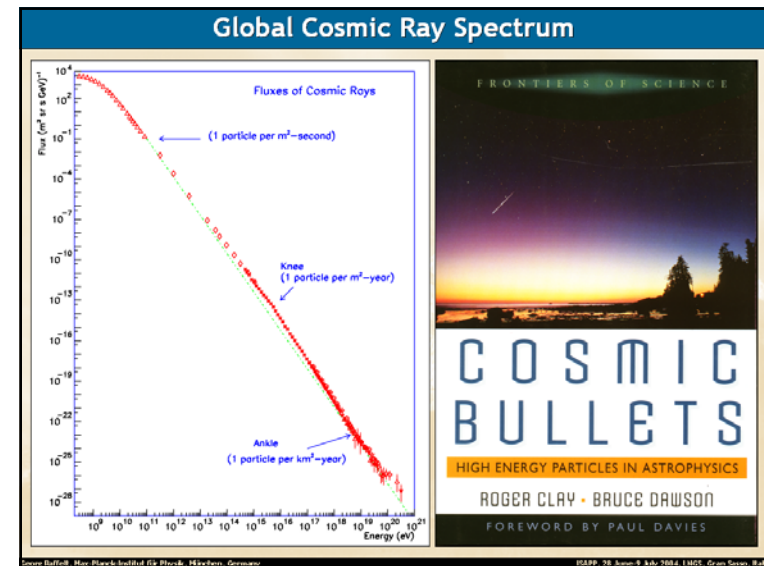
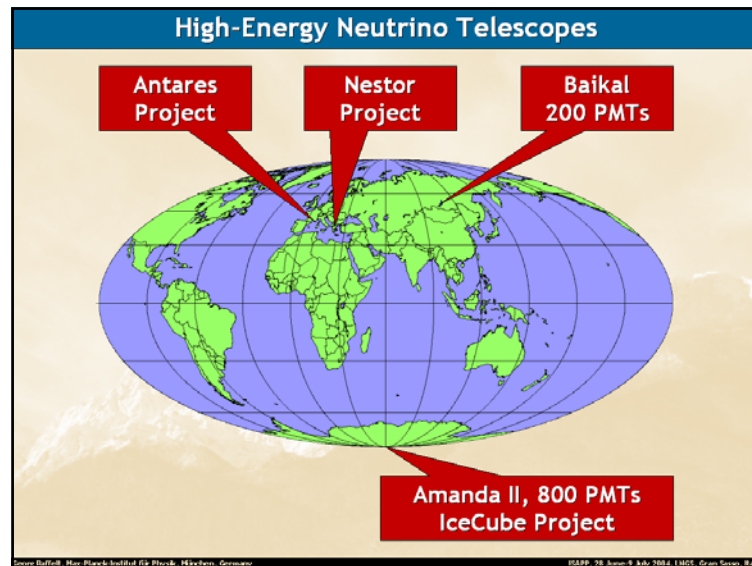
Source: Baffert, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

SLAPP, 70. June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

AMANDA - South Pole Neutrino Telescope



SLAPP, 70. June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad



High-Energy Neutrinos from the Sun

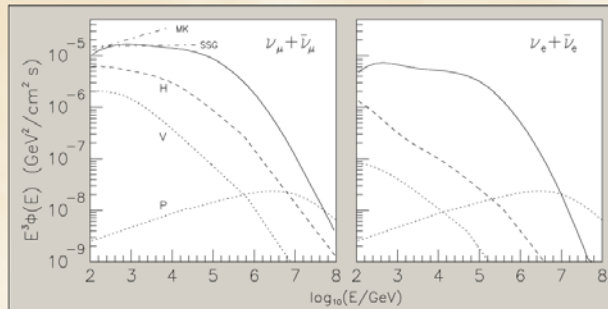


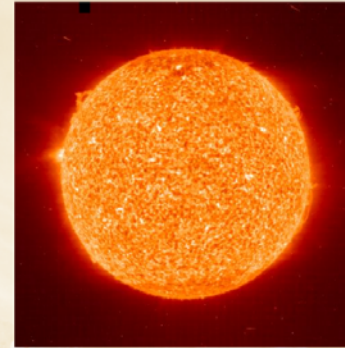
Figure 4: Cosmic ray induced E^3 -weighted neutrino fluxes at the Earth integrated over the solid angle of the Sun. The fluxes from the Sun obtained in this study (solid lines) are compared with the earlier calculation SSG [22] and the one MK derived from [2], as well as those from the Earth's atmosphere as calculated for the vertical flux (curve V) [1], the horizontal flux (curve H) [21], and the prompt charm-induced flux (curve P) [1].

Ingelman & Thunman, High Energy Neutrino Production by Cosmic Ray Interactions in the Sun [hep-ph/9604288]

Source: Baffert, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

SLAPP, 78. June - 9 July 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital

Solar Neutrinos



Thermal plasma reactions

$E \sim 1 \text{ eV} - 30 \text{ keV}$
No apparent way to measure

Nuclear burning reactions

$E \sim 0.1 - 15 \text{ MeV}$
Routine detailed measurements

Cosmic-ray interactions in the Sun

$E \sim 10 - 10^9 \text{ GeV}$
Future high-E neutrino telescopes (?)

Dark matter annihilation in the Sun

$E \sim \text{GeV} - \text{TeV} (?)$
Future high-E neutrino telescopes (?)

Source: Baffert, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

SLAPP, 78. June - 9 July 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital

Portion of the Hubble Ultra Deep Field



Source: Baffert, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

SLAPP, 78. June - 9 July 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital

Cosmological Limit on Neutrino Masses

Cosmic neutrino "sea" - 115 cm^{-3} neutrinos + anti-neutrinos per flavor

$$\Omega_\nu h^2 = \sum \frac{m_\nu}{92.5 \text{ eV}} < 0.4$$

$m_\nu \lesssim 40 \text{ eV}$ For all stable flavors

REST MASS OF MUONIC NEUTRINO AND COSMOLOGY

S. S. Gershtein and Ya. B. Zel'dovich
Submitted 4 June 1966
ZhETF Pis'ma 4, No. 5, 174-177, 1 September 1966

Low-accuracy experimental estimates of the rest mass of the neutrino [1] yield $m(\nu_e) < 200 \text{ eV}/c^2$ for the electronic neutrino and $m(\nu_\mu) < 2.5 \times 10^6 \text{ eV}/c^2$ for the muonic neutrino. Cosmological considerations connected with the hot model of the Universe [2] make it possible to strengthen greatly the second inequality. Just as in the paper by Ya. B. Zel'dovich and Ya. A. Smorodinskii [3], let us consider the gravitational effect of the neutrinos on the dynamics of the expanding Universe. The age of the known astronomical objects is not smaller than 5×10^9 years, and Hubble's constant H is not smaller than $75 \text{ km/sec-Mpc/sec} = (13 \times 10^9 \text{ years})^{-1}$. It follows therefore that the density of all types of matter in the Universe is at the present time ¹⁾

$$\rho < 2 \times 10^{-28} \text{ g/cm}^3.$$

A classic paper:
Gershtein & Zeldovich
JETP Lett. 4 (1966) 120

Source: Baffert, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

SLAPP, 78. June - 9 July 2004, 1405, Gran Sasso, Ital

Neutrino Mass Limits from Large-Scale Structure

Statistical 95% C.L. limits depend on used data and on priors for other parameters. For detailed analyses see

- Hannestad, astro-ph/0303076
- Elgaroy & Lahav, astro-ph/0303089

$$\Sigma m_\nu < 2.1 \text{ eV}$$

2dF (Galaxy-galaxy correlation)
+ WMAP (Cosmic microwaves)

$$\Sigma m_\nu < 1.2 \text{ eV}$$

+ Small-scale CMBR
(breaks degeneracy with bias)

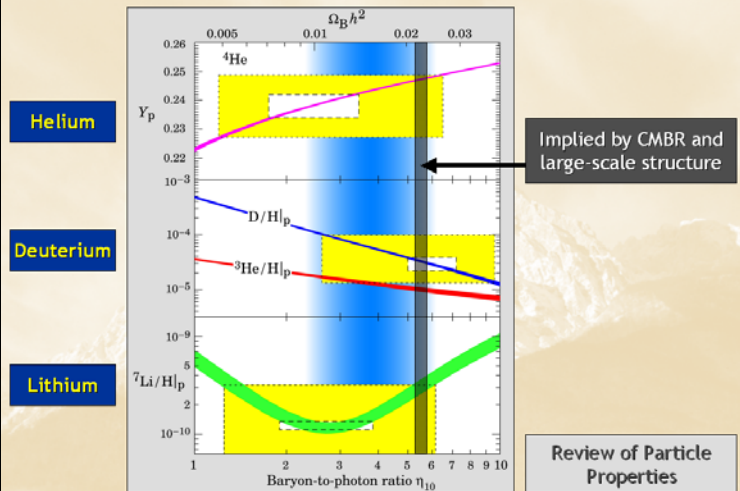
$$\Sigma m_\nu < 1.0 \text{ eV}$$

+ Priors (1σ)
 $h = 0.72 \pm 0.08$
 $\Omega_M = 0.28 \pm 0.14$

Source: Buffel, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

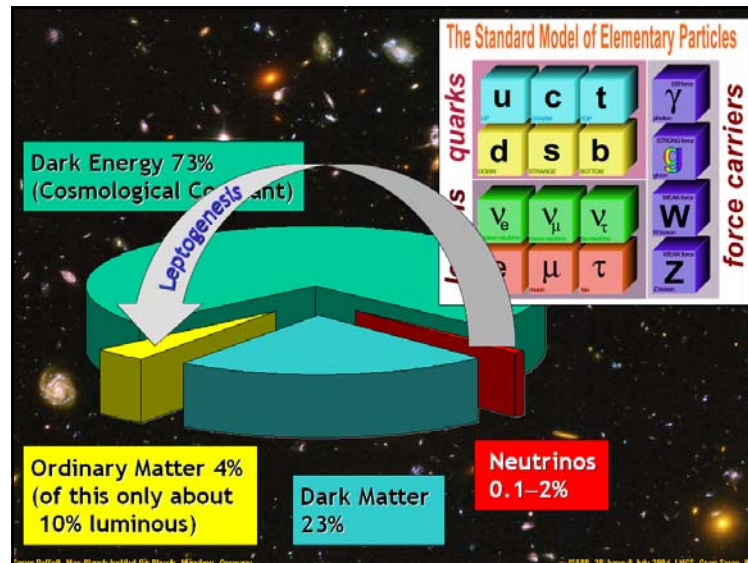
ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

BBN Concordance



Source: Buffel, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad



Source: Buffel, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

Neutrinos in Astrophysics and Cosmology

Neutrinos responsible for ordinary astrophysical and cosmological phenomena

- Dominant radiation component in the early universe
- Crucial role in big-bang nucleosynthesis
- Dark-matter component (but subdominant)
- May be responsible for baryonic matter in the universe (leptogenesis)
- Important (sometimes dominant) cooling agent of stars
- May trigger supernova explosions
- May be crucial for r-process nucleosynthesis

Heavenly laboratories for new particle physics phenomena

- Cosmological limit (future detection?) of nu mass scale
- Flavor oscillations of solar and atmospheric neutrinos
- Neutrino oscillations from a future galactic supernova
- Limits on "exotic" neutrino properties (dipole moments, right-handed interactions, decays, flavor-violating neutral currents, sterile nus, ...)

Neutrinos as astrophysical messengers

- Look into the solar interior ("measure" temperature)
- Watch stellar collapse directly
- Neutrinos from all cosmological supernovae
- Astrophysical accelerators for cosmic rays
- Annihilation signature for neutralino dark matter

Source: Buffel, Max-Planck-Institut für Physik, München, Germany

ICAPP, 28 June-9 July 2004, LMU, Garmisch, Bad

Neutrinos in Astrophysics and Cosmology



Part I:
Introduction



Part II:
Neutrinos in Ordinary Stars



Part III:
Supernova Neutrinos



Part IV:
Cosmological Neutrinos

Source: Guffell, Hans. Plasmachronik für Physiker. München, Germany

SLRP: 70. Juni 9. Juli 1984. 1985. Gran Sasso, Ital