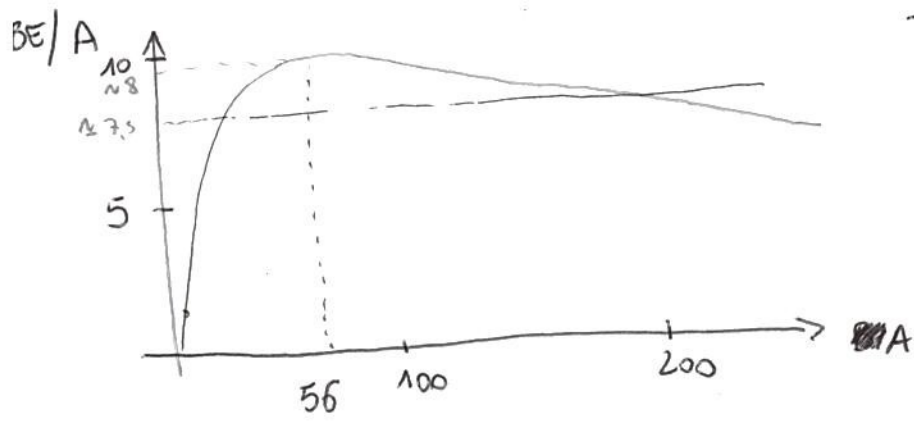


# NUCLEAR FUSION

The behaviour of  $BE/A$  vs  $A$  suggests another way to extract energy from nucleus. It is possible to climb the B.E. curve towards a more stable nucleus by beginning from light nuclei rather than by a ~~heavy~~ <sup>heavy</sup> nucleus.

If we combine 2 nuclei into a nucleus below  $A=56$  energy is released



This process is called NUCLEAR FUSION, because 2 <sup>light</sup> nuclei fuses into a heavier one

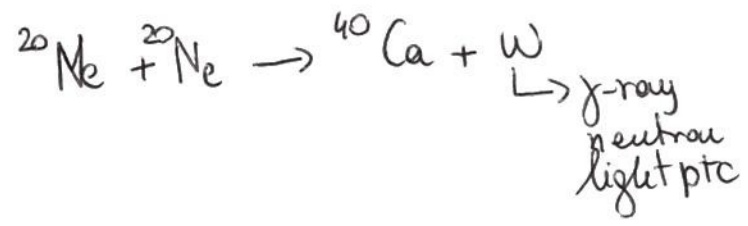
## ADVANTAGES OF FUSION VS FISSION

- Light nuclei are easy to obtain
- Product of reaction are light and stable

## DISVANTAGE OF FUSION:

- The Coulomb barrier must be overcome, while induced fission reaction has no Coulomb barrier and low energy can be used

Let's consider two  $^{20}\text{Ne}$  nuclei which fuse into a  $^{40}\text{Ca}$ . The Q-value of reaction is  $20.7\text{MeV}$  ( $\approx 0.5$  MeV/nucleon comparable with that for fission). However, before  $^{40}\text{Ne}$  can interact, the Coulomb repulsion must be overcome.



$$M(^{20}\text{Ne})c^2 = (10m_p + 10m_n)c^2 - B.E.$$

$\rightarrow \frac{BE}{A}(A=20)$

Rest mass before fusion:

$$(20 m_p + 20 m_p) c^2 - 40 \frac{BE}{A} (A=20)$$

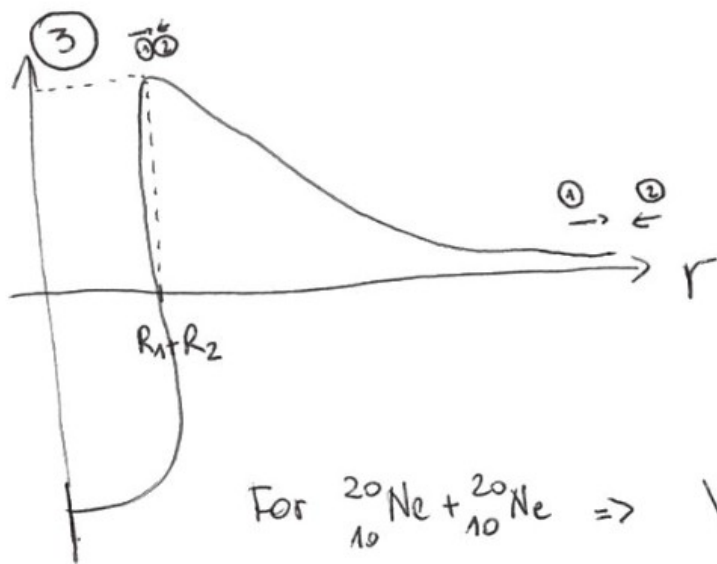
After fusion

$$(20 m_p + 20 m_p) c^2 - 40 \frac{BE}{A} (A=40)$$

$$Q_{\text{value}} = 2M(^{20}\text{Ne})c^2 - M(^{40}\text{Ca})c^2$$

$$= 40 \left[ \frac{BE}{A} (A=40) - \frac{BE}{A} (A=20) \right]$$

$$= 40 [8,6 - 8,0] \approx 24 \text{ MeV}$$



Coulomb height:

$$V_0 = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R}$$

$$R = R_1 + R_2$$

For  ${}_{10}^{20}\text{Ne} + {}_{10}^{20}\text{Ne} \Rightarrow V_0 = \frac{10 \cdot 10 \cdot 1,44 \text{ MeV} \cdot \text{fm}}{2 \cdot 1,25 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ fm}} \approx 20 \text{ MeV}$

$\approx 3,6$

Coulomb

The minimum energy to overcome is that produced by 2p:

$$V_0 = \frac{1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1,4 \cdot \text{MeV} \cdot \text{fm}}{2 \text{ fm}} = 97 \text{ MeV}$$

↑  
Range of nuclear force

→ It means that in all the cases we have to give some energy because of the reaction can start.

To do so we can accelerate the nuclei eg.  ${}^{20}\text{Ne}$  beam as a

$^{20}\text{Ne}$  target and this is not a big problem. But the energy needed  $(\sim 10^9 \text{ eV})$  to run the accelerator will be way larger than the produced energy. Alternatively, one can heat a container of Ne gas until the 2 nuclei approach and eventually collide.

Because of thermal energy is used to overcome Coulomb barrier, this process is called THERMONUCLEAR fusion.

How large is the T which is needed?

At room temperature (300 K)  $k_B T = 0,027 \text{ eV}$

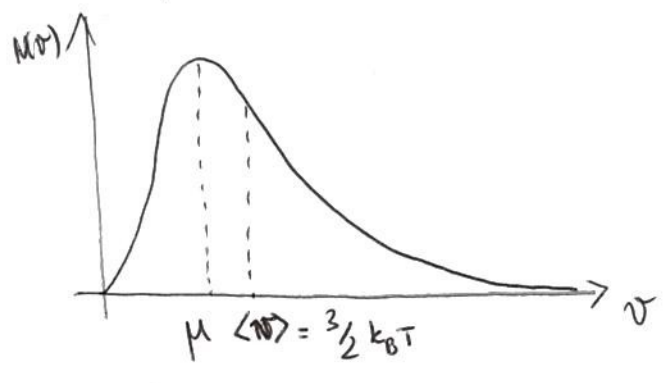
$$\frac{3}{2} k_B T = 150 \text{ keV} \Rightarrow T = \frac{150 \text{ keV}}{k_B} = \frac{150 \text{ keV}}{8,6 \cdot 10^{-5} \frac{\text{eV}}{\text{K}}} \approx 10^9 \text{ K}$$

$$T_{\text{core sun}} = 1,5 \cdot 10^7 \text{ K} \quad (\text{Note that the minimum } p E \approx 700 \text{ keV!})$$

It means that a very high energy <sup>to reach such T</sup> is needed.

[In the sun the "low T" is compensated by the high density.]

In general we should find a way to express the velocity of the ptc in the plasma. The velocity distribution follows a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution:



$$N(v) = N_0 \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{m}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} v^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{mv^2}{k_B T}}$$

There are some particles that have a velocity which is much higher than the averaged velocity.

$\Rightarrow$  These ptc increases the probability of fusion!

The fusion reaction rate can be estimated as

$$R = N_x N_y \langle \sigma v \rangle$$

Let's see how we can estimate such rate:

If we have the reaction:

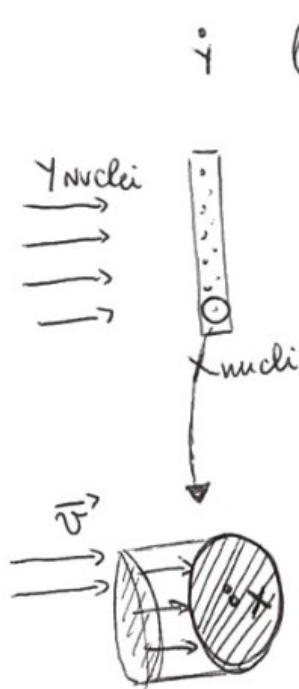


$n_x = n^\circ$  of nuclei  $\times$  per volume

$n_y = \text{" " " " " "}$

$\sigma =$  cross-section for fusion reaction

The probability to hit  $x$  from  $y$  is the cross-section!



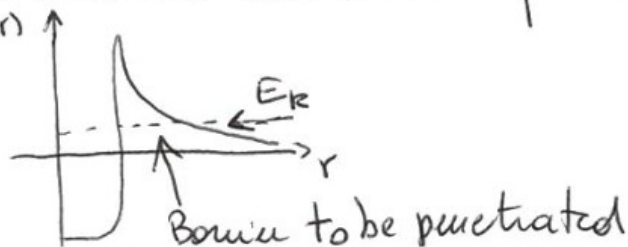
How many scattering there will be per unit time?

$\vec{v}$  = relative speed between  $y$  and  $x$   
 We can build a cylinder around the  $x$  nucleus:  
 the height is  $v \cdot dt$  the base is  $\sigma$

$n_{\text{scattering in } dt} = n \sigma v dt \equiv \text{Volume of the cylinder}$   
 $\rightarrow$  probability MUST depend on  $v$

This is valid for all the geometry of collisions, not only for "linear" geometry.

Now we can proceed. As already mentioned, we have to "beat" Coulomb or better we have to set a probability for barrier penetration



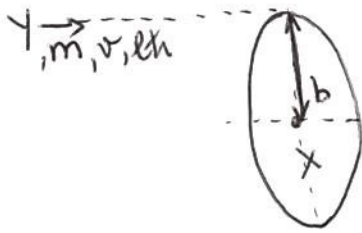
This probability is  $\propto e^{-2G}$

$$2G = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{2\pi}{\hbar v}$$

→ Valid in general for small energies

(11)

↓ We can use a semi-classical picture:



b is the "impact parameter"

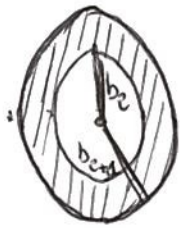
The angular momentum is

$$m v b = l \hbar$$

$$b_l = \frac{l \hbar}{m v}$$

Each nucleus with a angular momentum below  $(l+1)\hbar$  will enter into  $l\hbar$  and hence it is quantified ( $b_{l+1} = \frac{(l+1)\hbar}{m v}$ )

So we can estimate in which "area" we have to define the  $\sigma$



The area is:

$$\pi b_{l+1}^2 - \pi b_l^2 = \pi \left[ \left( \frac{(l+1)\hbar}{m v} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{l\hbar}{m v} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} [2l+1]$$

↑  
reduced mass

$\frac{\hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} ((l+1)^2 - l^2)$

$$m v R = l_{\max} \hbar$$

R = nuclear interaction range:

$\sum (2l+1) = \text{ARITHMETIC PROGRESSIONS}$

$$\sigma = \sum_{l=0}^{l_{\max}} \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} (2l+1) = \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} \left( \frac{l_{\max} + 1}{2} (1 + 2l_{\max} + 1) \right)$$

↑  
TOTAL AREA

↑  
TOT. NUM of term

first term

$$= \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} (l_{\max} + 1)^2 = \frac{\pi \hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} \left[ \frac{m v R}{\hbar} + 1 \right]^2$$

$$= \pi \left[ R + \frac{\hbar}{m v} \right]^2$$

How large is it? For a typical plasma:  $m_{\text{red}}$  for  $2d \approx 1 m_p$

$$\left( \frac{\hbar}{m v} \right)^2 = \frac{\hbar^2}{m^2 v^2} = \frac{\hbar^2 c^2}{m (m v^3) c^2} = \frac{200 \times 200 \times \text{MeV}^2 \times \text{fm}^2}{1000 \text{ MeV} \cdot 1 \text{ KeV}}$$

$$\frac{\hbar}{m v} = 200 \text{ fm}$$

The range of the nuclear force is  $\approx 2fm \Rightarrow \frac{\hbar}{mv} \gg R$

So 
$$\sigma = \pi \frac{\hbar^2}{(mv)^2} \propto \frac{1}{v^2}$$

The  $\sigma_{fus}$  at low energy is  $\propto \frac{1}{v^2}$

Let's go back to the reaction rate. The fraction of pte with speed between  $v$  and  $v+dv$  is

$$p(v)dv = \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{m}{k_B T}\right)^{3/2} v^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{mv^2}{k_B T}} dv$$

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{T^{3/2}} \frac{C}{v^2} e^{-\frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar v}} \frac{2\pi}{\hbar v} \cdot v \cdot v^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{mv^2}{k_B T}} dv$$

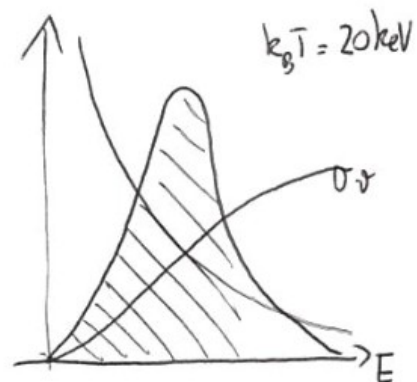
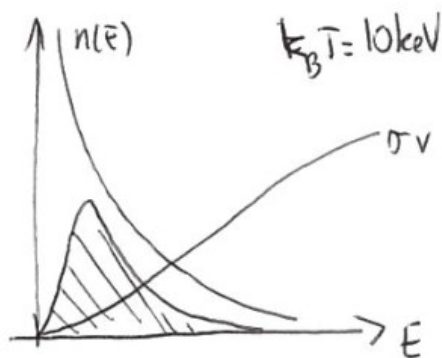
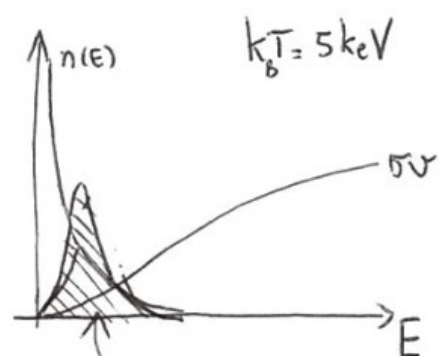
$$E = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \quad dE = m v dv \quad v dv = \frac{dE}{m}$$

$$\frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar v} = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar} \frac{2\pi\sqrt{m}}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{E}} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \quad a = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2 2\pi\sqrt{m}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar \sqrt{2}}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{m}}$$

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle = \frac{C}{T^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty e^{-\frac{a}{\sqrt{E}}} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} dE = \frac{C}{T^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty e^{-\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} + \frac{E}{k_B T}\right)} dE$$

How does it behave?



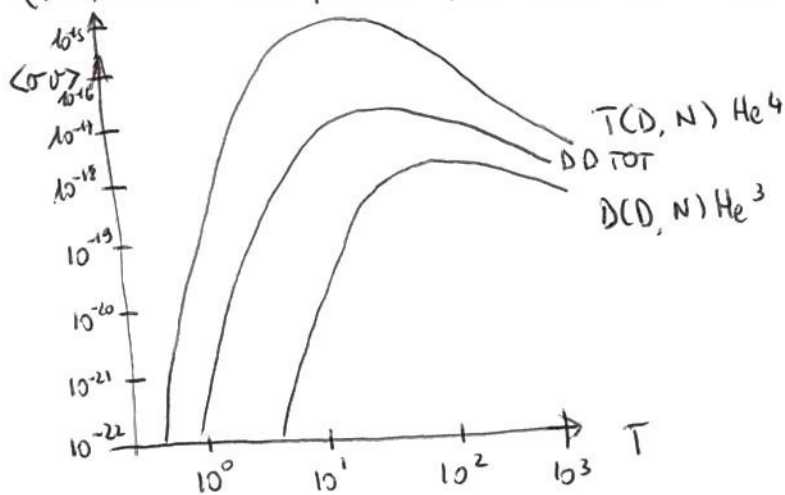
$\propto$  to  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$

At low temperature there is a little overlap between  $n(E)$  and  $\sigma v$  and the average is small. At <sup>very</sup> high  $T$ , the area of Boltzmann distribution becomes small and again the average value of  $\sigma v$  is small.

At intermediate temperature  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$  rises to a maximum.

At extremely high temperature ( $T \sim 10^{10} \text{ K} \Rightarrow \text{MeV energies}$ ) D-T reaction may become less favorable than others, but in temperature region that is likely to be achievable in a thermonuclear fusion reactor

( $10 \text{ keV} \Rightarrow T \sim 10^7 \div 10^8 \text{ K}$ ) D-T is ~~the~~ most favorable.



## CONTROLLED FUSION REACTORS

In order to have controlled fusion reactions and reasonable energy, the thermonuclear fuel have to be heated up to  $10^8 \text{ K}$  (mean particle  $E_k \sim 10 \text{ keV}$ ) while it is kept to a high density long enough to generate <sup>desired</sup> power.

At these Temperature, atoms must become ionized (for H only  $13.6 \text{ eV}$  is needed to strip the electron); the fuel is a hot mixture of positive ions and negative electrons, but overall is electrically neutral.

This is called PLASMA. The electrostatic properties of a plasma determine a length scale called DEBYE LENGTH

$$L_D = \left( \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 k_B T}{e^2 n} \right)^{1/2}$$

where  $n$  is the average density of ion or electrons.