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Neutron Repulsion

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Earth is connected gravitationally, magnetically and electrically to its heat source - a neutron star that is obscured from view by waste products in the photosphere. Neutron repulsion is like the hot filament in an incandescent light bulb. Excited neutrons are emitted from the solar core and decay into hydrogen that glows in the photosphere like a frosted light bulb. Neutron repulsion was recognized in nuclear rest mass data in 2000 as the overlooked source of energy, the keystone of an arch that locked together these puzzling space-age observations: **1.)** Excess ^{136}Xe accompanied primordial helium in the stellar debris that formed the solar system (Fig. 1); **2.)** The Sun formed on the supernova core (Fig. 2); **3.)** Waste products from the core pass through an iron-rich mantle, selectively carrying lighter elements and lighter isotopes of each element into the photosphere (Figs. 3-4); and **4.)** Neutron repulsion powers the Sun and sustains life (Figs. 5-7). Together these findings offer a framework for understanding how: **a.)** The Sun generates and releases neutrinos, energy and solar-wind hydrogen and helium; **b.)** An inhabitable planet formed and life evolved around an ordinary-looking star; **c.)** Continuous climate change - induced by cyclic changes in gravitational interactions of the Sun's energetic core with planets - has favored survival by adaptation.

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Introduction

As an expression of gratitude for 50 joyful years of “truthing” since starting research in 1960, I was pleased to accept the invitation to review evidence of neutron repulsion and its implications for the evolution of life. It will be shown that life [1] and atomic nuclei have evolved together on opposite sides of the Sun’s opaque photosphere.

My conclusions do not support Fowler's concerns that solar neutrinos and the chemical composition of living organisms violate basic concepts of nuclear astrophysics: *“Indeed there are details to be attended to, but they are overshadowed by serious difficulties in the most basic concepts of nuclear astrophysics. On square one, the solar neutrino puzzle is still with us . . . indicating that we do not even understand how our own star really works. On square two we still cannot show in the laboratory and in theoretical calculations why the ratio of oxygen to carbon in the sun and similar stars is close to two-to-one . . . We humans are mostly (90%) oxygen and carbon. We understand in a general way the chemistry and biology involved, but we certainly do not understand the nuclear astrophysics which produced the oxygen and carbon in our bodies.”* [2].

Fusion of three or four nuclei of helium (^4He) produced the most abundant isotopes of carbon (^{12}C) and oxygen (^{16}O), respectively, as Fowler assumed [2], but material in the photosphere will be shown to be like smoke pouring from the solar chimney: Waste products from the nuclear reactions that power the Sun and sustain life on Earth. Abundances of oxygen, carbon and other elements in the photosphere are severely mass fractionated. Major by-products of solar luminosity, hydrogen and helium, comprise respectively ~91% and ~9% of all atoms there, but abundances of oxygen and carbon exceed those of hydrogen inside the Sun. The ratio of these two He-fusion products in the interior of the Sun does not violate predictions of nuclear astrophysics.

Neutron repulsion is the triumphant arch through which the puzzling oxygen to carbon ratio in the photosphere and many other baffling observations about the solar system and its heat source - the Sun - could be viewed as pieces of a surprisingly simple mosaic on the origin, chemical composition, and source of nuclear energy that gave birth to the solar system and has continued to power the Sun and sustain life on planet Earth.

First it will be helpful to review the crucial - and totally unexpected - 1975 experimental observation that changed opinions about the origin of the solar system. Figure 1 shows isotope (vertical) and elemental (horizontal) abundance data [3,4] from analysis of noble gases in mineral separates of the Allende meteorite. The link of primordial helium with excess ^{136}Xe from the stellar r-process [5] suggests that elements were made locally [6], rather than in remote stars that injected them into the interstellar medium from which an interstellar cloud eventually collapsed to form the solar system. Local element synthesis also explains why decay products of short-lived isotopes [7-14] and isotopic anomalies from nucleosynthesis were seen [15,16] in the Earth and in diverse meteorites. The Allende meteorite sampled two primordial reservoirs of xenon (**Xe-1** and **Xe-2**) from the inner and outer layers, respectively, of a local star [6,17]. All primordial helium was initially in the reservoir with "strange" **Xe-2**; little or none was with "normal" **Xe-1**.

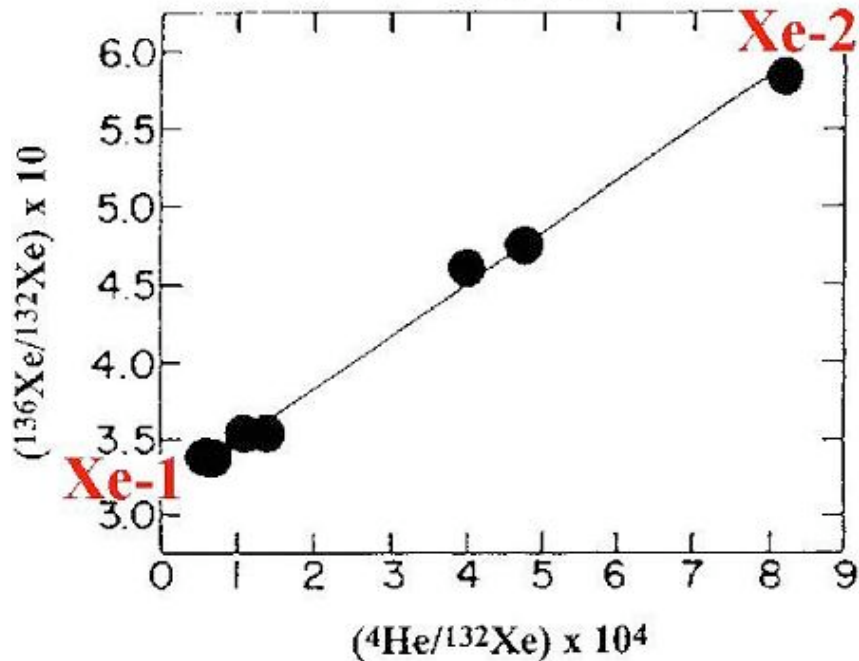


Fig. 1. The association of all primordial helium with excess ^{136}Xe in "strange" xenon (Xe-2), and its absence from the "normal" xenon (Xe-1) component, was the first clear indication that elements and isotopes never completely mixed in the stellar debris that formed the solar system [6,17]. Xe-1 and Xe-2 came respectively from the inner and outer layers of the local supernova that gave birth to the solar system.

Figure 2 shows the scheme proposed for birth of the solar system [6,17-19] to explain the noble gas data in Figure 1 [3,4] and other puzzling observations [7-16]. It assumes that the elements came from a star that had evolved in the manner described by B2FH [5].

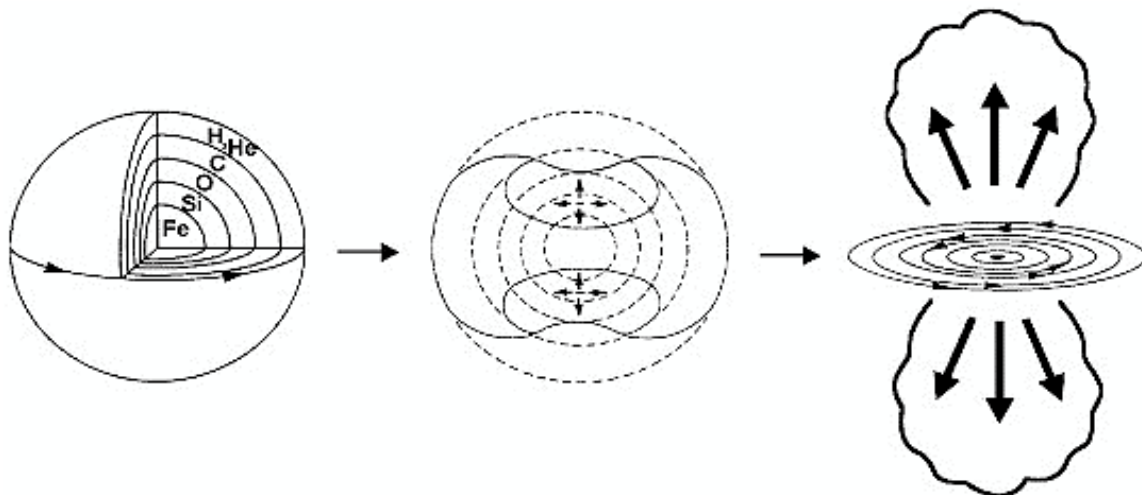


Fig. 2. The Sun and its planetary system formed directly from the debris of a spinning, evolved [5] star that imploded and then exploded axially to produce a planetary disk in the equatorial plane orbiting the remnant neutron-rich core on which the Sun formed.

The Figure 2 scenario for the birth of the solar system was presented at the 1976 AGU [17] and ACS [18] national meetings and at the 1977 Robert A Welch Conference on Cosmochemistry [19], and debated there [18-21] and in *Science* [22,23]. Advocates of *in situ* super-heavy element fission as the source of excess ^{136}Xe in meteorites published a supporting study in the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science* [24]. Another group proposed that excess ^{136}Xe might have been injected from a nearby supernova [25], without addressing the ubiquitous link of primordial helium with excess ^{136}Xe (Figure 1).

Many studies [26-56] over the next few years confirmed that meteorites and planets trapped fresh, poorly mixed nucleosynthesis products as they formed. Isotope analysis revealed levels of ^{16}O that distinguished six, chemically distinct types of meteorites and planets: "*Objects of one category cannot be derived by fractionation or differentiation from the source materials of any other category*" [26]. Nucleogenetic isotopic anomalies were observed in diverse elements [26-28,30-37,39-42,44-46,48-56]. The decay product of yet another short-lived isotope, ^{107}Pd , was discovered in meteorites [38].

New evidence was found of linked chemical and isotopic anomalies in the material that formed the solar system [26,42,44,56]. Another study confirmed [43] that iron meteorites formed as early as "primitive" meteorites [11]. The Earth's inventory of radiogenic and primitive noble gases was shown to be consistent with Earth's accretion in layers beginning with its iron core [52], as Turekian and Clarke [57] and Vinogradov [58] had suggested earlier. Isotopic anomalies were also identified from a local irradiation [29,41,54,55], as first suggested by Fowler, Greenstein and Hoyle [59].

Professor Begemann [45] summarized the situation in 1980 by stating that recent measurements do not agree with the "*classical picture of the pre-solar nebula*" as "*a hot, well-mixed cloud of chemically and isotopically uniform composition.*"

As measurement after measurement [26-56] accumulated on one side of the debate [17-23] over the formation of the solar system (Fig. 1), it seemed that the matter might be settled in 1983 if two seemingly intractable puzzles could be solved: a.) The Sun seemed to be a giant "ball of hydrogen" in the middle of iron-rich supernova debris. b.) Severely mass fractionated isotopes had been reported in meteorites and in lunar samples since 1960 [7,8,15,27,28,47,60-70], but the fractionation site had not been identified. A single solution for both puzzles was published in a peer-reviewed paper in September of 1983.

Earlier in March at the 14th Lunar & Planetary Science Conference, proponents of *in situ* fission for excess ^{136}Xe (also called CCFXe) started to recant [71,72]. E.g., ". . . *the present data seem to rule out the in situ fission model*" in one [71] of two papers coauthored with researchers from other universities, and ". . . *the apparent association with nitrogen of $\delta^{15}\text{N} = -273\%$ argues strongly for a nucleogenetic origin of CCFXe, . . .*" in the other [72]. At the same conference we reported that isotope abundances in the solar wind showed evidence of mass fractionation and formation of the solar system from ". . . *chemically and isotopically heterogeneous*" supernova (SN) debris that ". . . *contained short-lived radioactivities*", with the Sun's radiant energy ". . . *generated, not by fusion, but by radiation from a hot SN core in the Sun's interior*" [73].

A 26 June 1983 news report in *Nature* on the 14th Lunar & Planetary Science Conference (LPSC), "*The demise of established dogmas on the formation of the Solar System*" [74], overlooked our LPSC paper [73] but acknowledged that the results presented in two other LPSC papers [71,72] ". . . have led the principal defendants in the argument over the origin of CCF-Xe to concur in favor of the supernova hypothesis."

Our paper on solar mass fractionation and the Sun's iron-rich interior [75], based on the noble gas isotope data presented in Table 1 of the 14th LPSC paper [73], had been submitted for review. The manuscript was published as a peer-reviewed paper [75] in September of 1983. Figure 3 shows the empirical evidence for solar mass fractionation [73,75] that was identified by comparing the isotope ratios of noble gases in the solar wind [76] with those in planetary material [77-79].

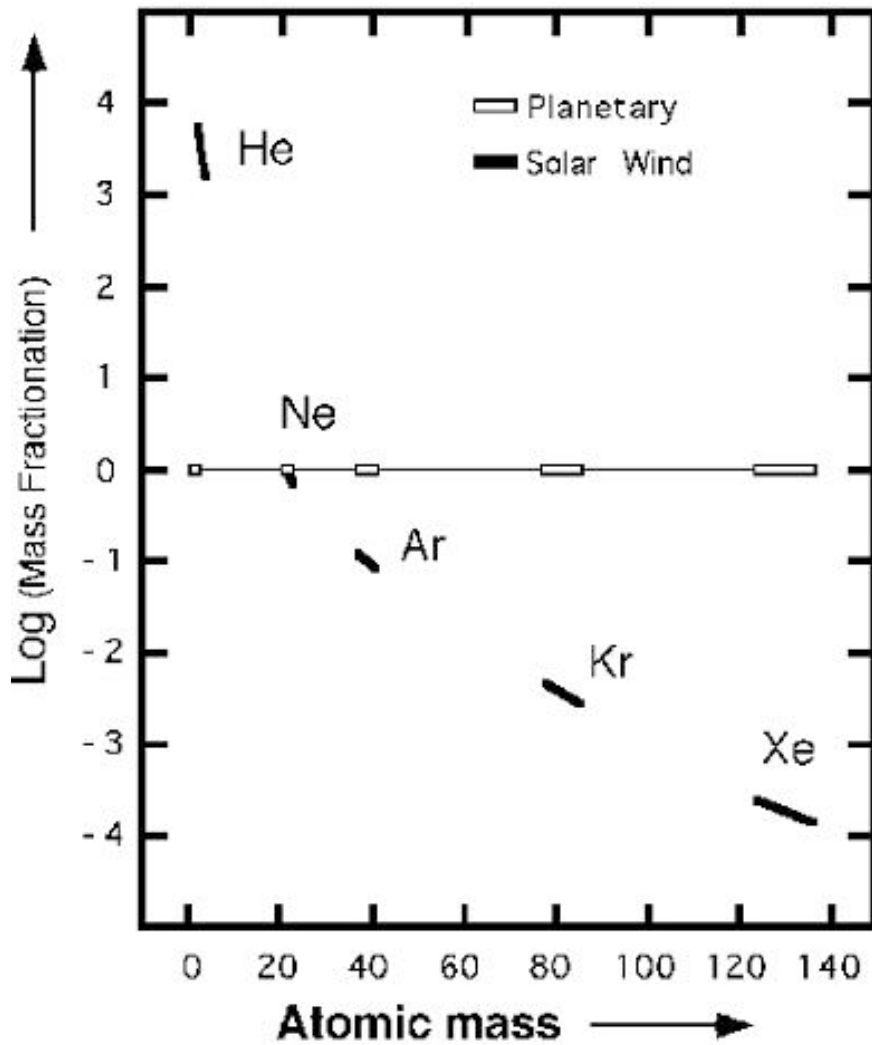


Fig. 3. Lighter isotopes of mass (m_L) are systematically enriched relative to heavier isotopes of mass (m_H) in noble gases coming from the top of the Sun by a factor, f , where empirically,

$$f = [(m_H)/(m_L)]^{4.56} \text{ [75].}$$

Figure 4 shows the composition that Manuel and Hwaung [75] calculated for material inside the Sun, after correcting abundances in the solar photosphere [80] for the ~9-stages of mass-dependent fractionation that had been observed across the isotopes of noble gases that were implanted in lunar soils from the Sun.

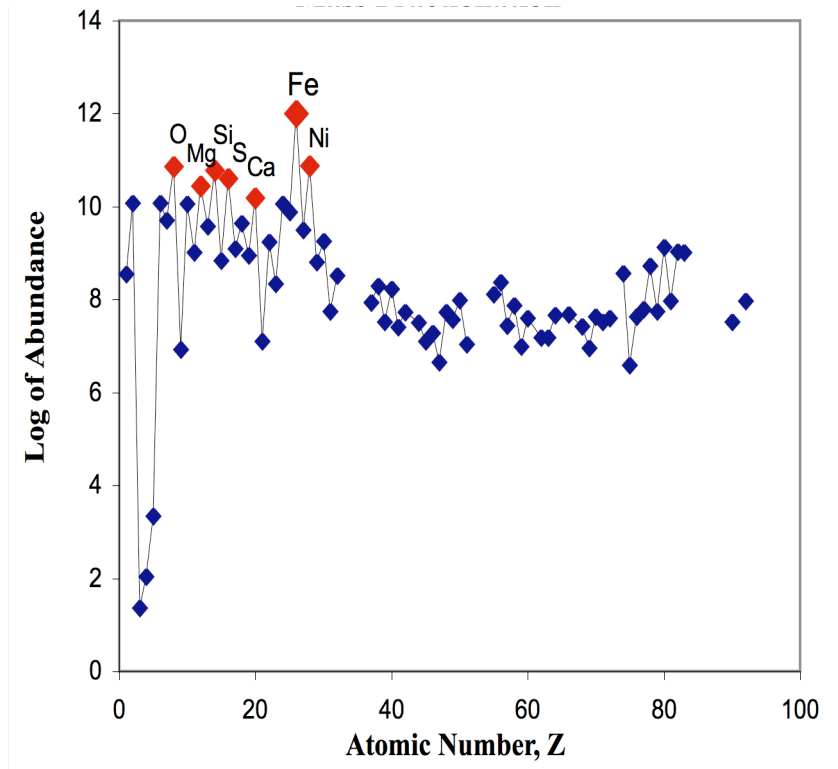


Fig. 4. Material in the Sun is mostly the same elements that constitute the matrix of rocky planets and ordinary meteorites [81]: Fe, O, Ni, Si, S, Mg and Ca represented with large diamonds. The probability of this agreement being a coincidence is essentially zero.

Finally in December of 1983, the leading proponent of the super-heavy element fission hypothesis [3,4] coauthored a report [82] with *evidence against* the suggestion that decay of a super-heavy element [4] produced the excess ^{136}Xe (Fig. 1) in meteorites.

Still the scientific community did not take the iron Sun hypothesis [75] seriously until its source of luminosity was identified - despite an earlier report that the Sun might be a pulsar [83], many additional reports of nucleogenetic anomalies in meteorites and planets [e.g., 84-94], and indications of an iron-rich solar interior from helioseismology [95], the Galileo probe of Jupiter [96], and Wind spacecraft measurements on a solar flare [97].

Neutron repulsion was first recognized in nuclear rest mass data in 2000 and reported [98,99] as a source of solar energy that explained the "solar neutrino puzzle" [100], the separation of d- and l- amino acids [101], the supernova birth of the solar system (Fig. 2), and values reported for solar neutrinos, solar luminosity, solar wind hydrogen, and solar mass fractionation. Neutron repulsion will be explained in the next section as the source of energy that powers the Sun and sustains the evolution of life on Earth.

Neutron Repulsion

Neutron repulsion is recorded as rest mass (potential energy) in every nucleus with two or more neutrons. Sixty-one years after the discovery of neutron-induced fission [102], neutron repulsion was recognized when five students who were enrolled in an Advanced Nuclear Chemistry class (Chem 471) - Cynthia Bolon, Shelonda Finch, Daniel Ragland, Matthew Seelke and Bing Zhang - helped the author develop three-dimensional (3-D) plots of reduced nuclear variables: Z/A (charge per nucleon) = [Atomic Number]/[Mass Number]; M/A (mass or potential per nucleon) = [Mass]/[Mass Number] from the latest available nuclear rest mass data [103]. The results are shown as the "Chart of the Nuclides" on the left side of Figure 5.

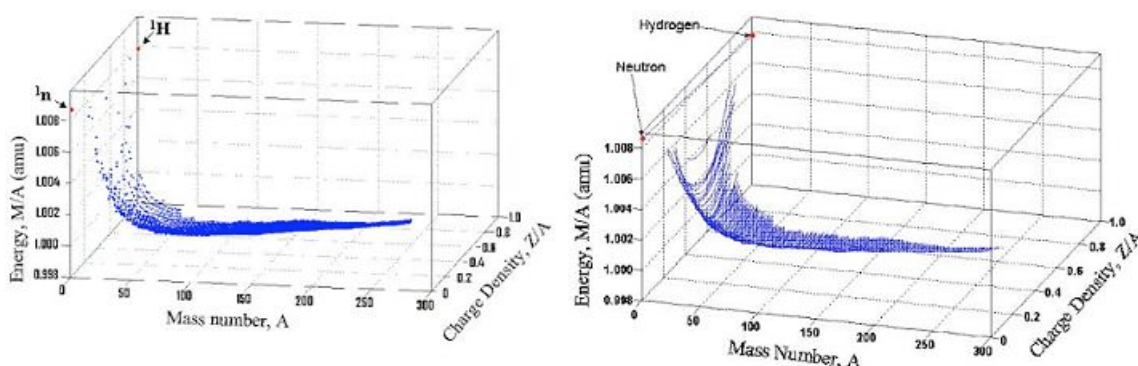


Fig 5. The author and five students developed the "Cradle of the Nuclides" on the left in the spring semester of 2000 [M = Mass in atomic mass units (amu); Z = Atomic number; A = Mass number]. The vertical axis is mass (potential energy) per nucleon (M/A), the horizontal axis is mass number (A), and the depth axis is charge density (Z/A) or charge per nucleon. Mass parabolas were fitted to the data points at each mass number (A) to produce the graph on the right. When these mass parabolas are extrapolated to the front panel, at $Z/A = 0$, neutron repulsion is revealed as rest mass. At $Z/A \sim 0.5$, attraction of neutrons for protons decreases the rest mass to produce ordinary nuclei [98].

Prior to the discovery of neutron repulsion [98,99], neutron stars were considered "dead" nuclear matter, bound by ~ 93 MeV/neutron [104]. Recently large research consortia report that neutron stars are powerful sources of energy [105,106] and news reports that, "the source of the pulsar's power may be hidden deep within its surface" [107].

The potential energy (mass) per nucleon from repulsive interactions between neutrons can be seen more clearly in Figure 6 as intercepts of empirically defined mass parabolas with the front panel at $Z/A = 0$. Intercepts with the front panel show what the values of M/A would be if the nucleus were composed entirely of neutrons. Likewise intercepts of the mass parabolas with the back panel at $Z/A = 1$ show even higher values of M/A if the nucleus were composed entirely of protons. Coulomb repulsion between positive charges on protons adds to the potential energy (mass) per nucleon at $Z/A = 1$. Differences between the values of intercepts with the front and back panels in Figure 6 arise entirely from Coulomb repulsion between positive charges on protons [108, 109].

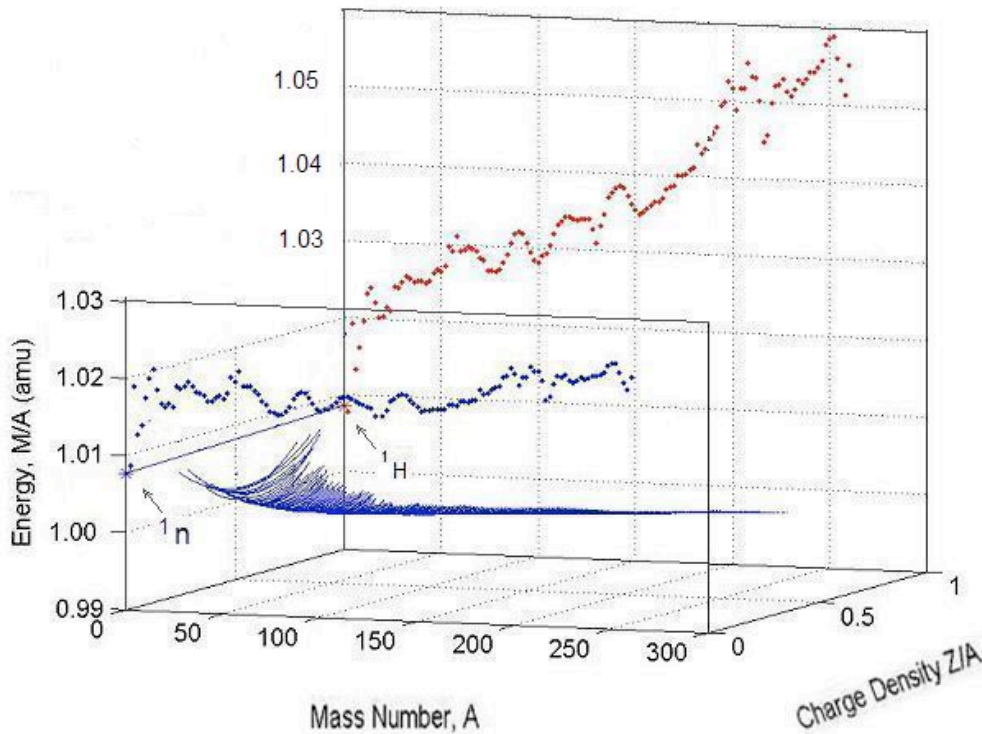


Fig 6. The potential energy per nucleon (M/A) from repulsive interactions between neutrons is shown as intercepts with the front panel at $Z/A = 0$ for mass parabolas fitted to nuclear rest mass data of ground state nuclides [103]. Coulomb repulsion between positive charges on protons explains quantitatively why values of intercepts with the back panel at $Z/A = 1$ become increasingly higher as the mass number, A , increases [108].

Other researchers [110] independently concluded that useful information on neutron stars could be obtained by extrapolating atomic mass data out to "homogeneous or infinite nuclear matter (INM)" (ref. 110, page 1042).

It may be helpful to display the information in Figures 5 and 6 on a conventional 2-D graph that compares the potential energy per nucleon of ordinary nuclei – values of M/A for $Z/A \sim 0.5$ - with values of M/A calculated for homogeneous, infinite nuclear matter (INM) at the intercepts where $Z/A = 0$ and $Z/A = 1$. These results are shown in Figure 7.

In lower right side of Figure 7 it can be seen that fission of heavy nuclei involves small changes in nuclear stability and typically release $\sim 0.1\%$ of the rest mass as energy. Fusion of hydrogen into helium releases $\sim 0.7\%$ of the rest mass as energy. Complete fusion of hydrogen into iron would release $\sim 0.8\%$ of the rest mass as energy. Neutron emission from a neutron star would release 1.1-2.4% of the rest mass as energy [108]. If neutron-emission were followed by neutron-decay and then by fusion of the neutron decay product (hydrogen), as happens in the Sun, a total of about $\sim 2\text{-}3\%$ of the initial rest mass might be converted into stellar energy [98,99].

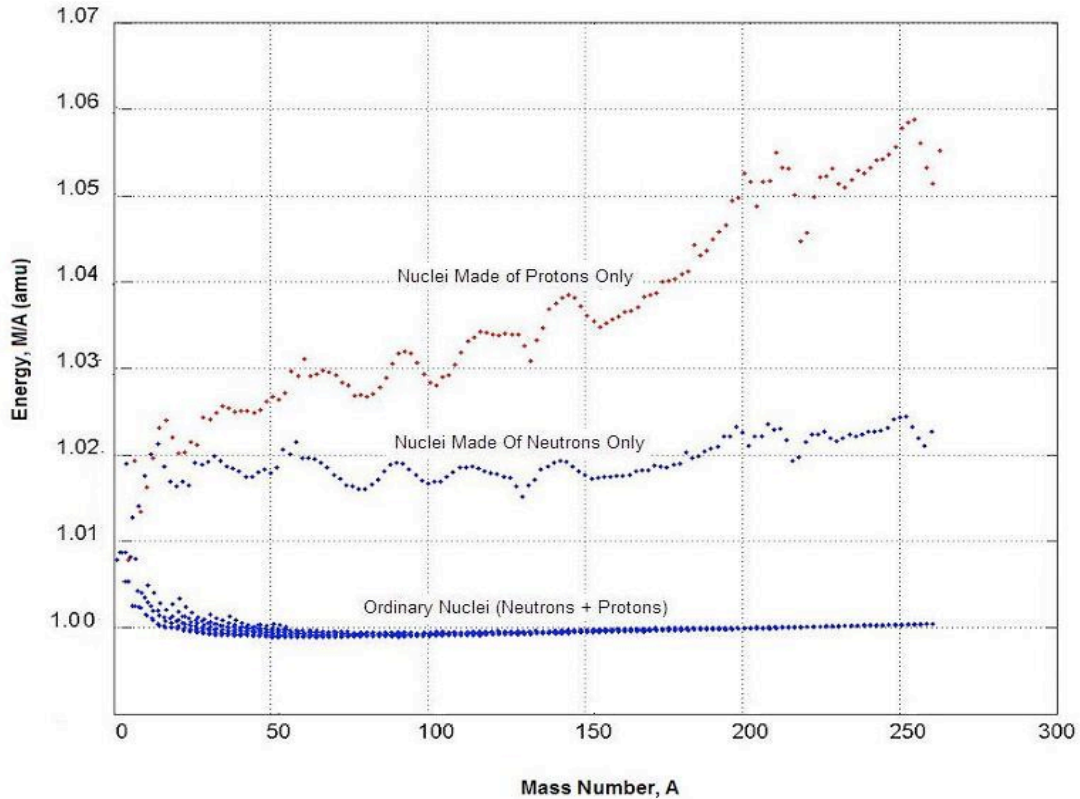


Fig 7. Most ordinary nuclei with $Z/A \sim 0.5$ lie along the lower part of this diagram and have values of $M/A \sim 1.00$ amu/nucleon. Light fusible nuclei have values of $M/A \sim 1.00$ - 1.01 amu per nucleon. Nuclei made of neutrons ($Z/A \sim 0$) only have $M/A \sim 1.02$. Nuclei made of protons only would have even greater potential energy per nucleon because of Coulomb repulsion [108].

As can be seen in Figure 7, the material proposed [111, 112] over seventy years ago for neutron cores of stars consists of excited neutrons with $M/A \sim 1.02$ - 1.03 amu/nucleon and $Z/A \sim 0$. Neutron emission would release ~ 10 - 22 MeV of energy [108,109]. After emission, the free neutron would be expected to decay spontaneously to hydrogen in ~ 10 minutes, unless first captured by another nucleus.

Since material in the interior of the Sun [73,75] shows no compelling evidence of neutron-capture there, we proposed at the 32nd Lunar & Planetary Science Conference (LPSC) in March 2001 that solar luminosity and solar wind hydrogen might be explained, and the solar neutrino puzzle solved, by a series of nuclear reactions triggered by neutron repulsion and neutron emission from the core of the Sun [99]:

1. Neutron emission: $\langle {}_0^1\text{n} \rangle \rightarrow {}_0^1\text{n} + \sim 10\text{-}22 \text{ MeV}$
2. Neutron decay: ${}_0^1\text{n} \rightarrow {}_1^1\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- + \bar{\nu}_e + 0.78 \text{ MeV}$
3. Migration up and fusion of H^+ : $4 {}_1^1\text{H}^+ + 2 \text{e}^- \rightarrow {}_2^4\text{He}^{++} + 2 \nu_e + 26.73 \text{ MeV}$
4. Excess H^+ released in solar wind: $3 \times 10^{43} \text{ H}^+/\text{yr} \rightarrow \text{Depart in solar wind}$

Our request to make an oral presentation at the 32nd LPSC was denied, but the poster was well attended and we published the details in other papers [e.g., 98, 108,109].

A few months after the 32nd LPSC, the Sudbury Neutrino Observatory research consortium reported new measurements that suggested oscillations as the solution to the solar neutrino puzzle [113]. The total flux of all flavors of solar neutrinos were reported to be ". . . *in close agreement the predictions of solar models*" [Abstract, reference #113]. The next year the group reported direct evidence for solar neutrino flavor transformations from neutral-current interactions [114]. Again our papers were not cited, but the paper concluded even more forcibly that the new results are ". . . *in agreement with the SSM prediction*" [Last sentence of summary, reference # 114, SSM = Standard Solar Model].

The importance of these new measurements is not evidence of solar neutrino oscillations and/or the Standard Solar Model [SSM], but confirmation that the flux of solar electron neutrinos is ~35% of that expected if H-fusion alone generates solar luminosity. Doubt was cast on the original interpretation of the measurements by a later study that detected even more oscillations than would be possible if there were three flavors of neutrinos [115]. In the accompanying news report [116], author Professor Bryon Roe said, "*These results imply that there are either new particles or forces we had not previously imagined,*" and "*The simplest explanation involves adding new neutrino-like particles, or sterile neutrinos, which do not have the normal weak interactions.*"

In view of improved limits on the flux of solar electron neutrinos reported by the Sudbury Neutrino Observatory [113,114], equations (1)-(4) can now be rewritten to show more clearly the percent (%) of solar energy (SE), solar neutrinos (SN) and solar wind hydrogen (SW) generated in transforming a neutron, from inside the central neutron star, to a helium atom in the solar wind:

1'. Neutron emission:	$\langle {}_0^1\text{n} \rangle \rightarrow {}_0^1\text{n} +$	$\sim 12 \text{ MeV}$	~60% SE
2'. Neutron decay:	${}_0^1\text{n} \rightarrow$	${}_1^1\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \sim 1 \text{ MeV}$	~05% SE
3'. Hydrogen fusion:	~100% SN	${}_1^1\text{H}^+ \rightarrow$	${}_2^4\text{He} + 0.5 \nu_e + \sim 7 \text{ MeV}$ ~35% SE
4'. Discharge excess Hydrogen:	$3 \times 10^{43} \text{ H}^+/\text{yr}$	\rightarrow	Departs in SW ~100% SW

Neutron-emission, neutron-decay & H-fusion \rightarrow **~100% SN + ~100% SE + ~100% SW**

Before concluding the discussion of neutron repulsion, it should be noted that the scheme in Figure 2 [17-19] - the axial explosion of the star that gave birth to the solar system – was an attempt to explain how a star that evolved according to B2FH [5] might explode and leave the heterogeneous stellar debris seen in the Allende meteorite [3] (Figure 1).

It now seems more likely that asymmetric stellar explosions, bipolar outflows [117] and flares [118] are powered by neutron repulsion [98] and guided by the magnetic field of the neutron core [112] or the iron-rich material that surrounds it [118]. Neutron decay into oppositely charged H⁺ and e⁻, in the presence of a strong magnetic field, may initiate the electrical currents that have long puzzled careful observers of the Sun and other stellar objects [106,119,120].

Conclusions

Dynamic competition between gravitational attraction and neutron repulsion sustains our dynamic universe, the Sun, and life on planet Earth. Nuclear matter in the solar system is mostly dissociating rather than coalescing (fusing together). As shown in the above table, the potential energy per nucleon in the solar core is almost twice that available from hydrogen fusion. If the bulk of the Sun's mass is in a central neutron star and luminosity comes from the reactions listed above, then solar luminosity might have been higher by ~1-2% during the critical evolutionary period when the Standard Solar Model predicts frozen oceans and a "faint early Sun" [121]. Circular polarized light from the neutron star may have separated d- and l-amino acids before the appearance of life [101].

Life and subatomic particles evolved together on opposite sides of the photosphere, the brightly glowing layer that is commonly referred to as the Sun or the surface of the Sun. Beneath the photosphere, neutrons from the Sun's compact energetic core became atoms of hydrogen and helium with a $\sim 10^{15}$ fold increase in volume. Above the photosphere, life evolved on an iron-rich planet that orbits in the heliosphere - the outer layer of the Sun. The evolution of life and its survival by adaptation were enhanced by the constantly changing positions of planets around the Sun. This induced changes in the Sun's motion around the centre-of-mass (barycentre) of the solar system, solar cycles and natural changes in Earth's climate [122,123].

Acknowledgements

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