Granddad was superstitious about books. He thought that if you had enough of them around, education leaked out, like radioactivity.

Terry Pratchett
Two key radioactive isotopes of gamma-ray astronomy: the past, present, and future of $^{26}$Al and $^{60}$Fe.

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Outline

1. Brief historical introduction

2. The case of $^{26}$Al

3. $^{60}$Fe as a discriminant

4. Recent measurements

5. Likely future endeavors
Radioactivity was discovered a little more than a century ago when Henri Becquerel included potassium and uranium sulfates as part of a photographic emulsion mixture. He soon found that all uranium compounds were “light sources,” with an intensity proportional to the amount of U present; the chemical combination had no effect.

Two years later, Pierre and Marie Curie coined the term “radioactive” for those elements that emitted such “Becquerel rays.”
A year later, Ernest Rutherford demonstrated that at least three different kinds of radiation are emitted in the decay of radioactive substances.

He called these “alpha,” “beta,” and “gamma” rays in increasing order of their ability to penetrate matter.

It took a few more years for Becquerel and Rutherford to show that alpha rays were helium nuclei and beta rays were electrons.
By 1912 it was shown that the $\gamma$-rays had all the properties of very energetic photons, but a full appreciation of the physics underlying the measurements took another two decades.

We now understand radioactive decay as transitions between different states of nuclei, driven by electroweak interactions.
Measurement of radioactive decay products on Earth forms the basis of high-precision isotopic analysis in tree rings, rocks, and meteoritic samples - to name just a few applications.

Radioactive material throughout the distant universe may be studied by measuring the $\gamma$-ray lines of a specific isotope; the abundance being proportional to the measured line intensity.
The following \( \gamma \)-ray lines are interesting in astrophysics because they have a decay time larger than the source dilution time and/or have enough produced to overcome instrumental sensitivities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Isotope</th>
<th>Mean Lifetime</th>
<th>Decay Chain</th>
<th>( \gamma )-ray Energy (keV)</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( ^7 )Be</td>
<td>77 d</td>
<td>( ^7 )Be ( \rightarrow ) ( ^7 )Li*</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>Nova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ^{56} )Ni</td>
<td>111 d</td>
<td>( ^{56} )Ni ( \rightarrow ) ( ^{56} )Co* ( \rightarrow ) ( ^{56} )Fe* + e( ^+ )</td>
<td>158, 812; 847, 1238</td>
<td>Supernova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ^{57} )Ni</td>
<td>390 d</td>
<td>( ^{57} )Co ( \rightarrow ) ( ^{57} )Fe*</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>Supernova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ^{22} )Na</td>
<td>3.8 y</td>
<td>( ^{22} )Na ( \rightarrow ) ( ^{22} )Ne* + e( ^+ )</td>
<td>1275</td>
<td>Nova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ^{44} )Ti</td>
<td>89 y</td>
<td>( ^{44} )Ti ( \rightarrow ^{44} )Sc* ( \rightarrow ^{44} )Ca + e( ^+ )</td>
<td>76, 68; 1157</td>
<td>Supernova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ^{26} )Al</td>
<td>( 1.04 \times 10^6 ) y</td>
<td>( ^{26} )Al ( \rightarrow ^{26} )Mg* + e( ^+ )</td>
<td>1809</td>
<td>Stars, SN, Nova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ^{60} )Fe</td>
<td>( 2.0 \times 10^6 ) y</td>
<td>( ^{60} )Fe ( \rightarrow ^{60} )Co* ( \rightarrow ^{60} )Ni*</td>
<td>59, 1173, 1332</td>
<td>Stars, SN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e( ^+ )</td>
<td>( \sim 10^5 ) y</td>
<td>e( ^+ ) + e( ^- ) ( \rightarrow ) Ps ( \rightarrow ) ( \gamma ) ( \gamma )</td>
<td>511</td>
<td>SN, Nova, ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
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</thead>
</table>
By the mid 1970s various international collaborations had launched experiments on stratospheric balloons and space satellites to explore $\gamma$-rays from radioactive nuclei.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Telescope type</th>
<th>Photon counter</th>
<th>Spatial resolution defined by</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple Bucket</td>
<td>Detector array</td>
<td>Shield (= aperture)</td>
<td>HEAO-C, SMM, CGRO-OSSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coded Mask</td>
<td>Shadowing mask &amp; Detector array</td>
<td>Mask &amp; Detector element sizes</td>
<td>SIGMA, INTEGRAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focussing</td>
<td>Laue lens &amp; Detector array</td>
<td>Lens diffraction and distance</td>
<td>CLAIRE, MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compton</td>
<td>Coincidence setup of position sensitive detectors</td>
<td>Detector’s spatial resolution</td>
<td>CGRO-COMPTEL, LXeGRiT, MEGA, ACS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sensitivity $\sim 10^{-5}$ ph/cm/s  Angular resolution $> 1$ degree
In 1982 $^{26}\text{Al}$ became the first radioactivity detected in the Galaxy through its 1.809 MeV line flux. The measurement by HEAO-C implied $\sim 2 \, M_{\text{sun}}$ of live $^{26}\text{Al}$ in the central region of the Galaxy.

Modelers subsequently produced numerous calculations of core-collapse supernovae, Wolf-Rayet winds, Classical Novae, AGB stars, and supermassive stars that, in most cases, all produced the observed $^{26}\text{Al}$ abundance. They all can’t be right!
By 1994 images of the central region of the Galaxy in the light of $^{26}$Al were being produced by the Compton Gamma Ray Observatory.
A popular technique for determining the source of $^{26}$Al in the mid-1990’s was analyzing maps of the Galaxy at other wavelengths.

“Massive stars are the plausible sources as the $^{26}$Al map is correlated with star-forming gas, warm dust, diffuse ionized gas, and map the scale height of bright spiral arms.”
In 1995 the Santa Cruz group produced a then unprecedented grid of massive star models, 1D without mass loss or rotation, and noticed that $^{60}$Fe and $^{26}$Al were largely produced at the same location:

![Graph showing post-explosion yields with $\nu$ contributions.](Timmes et al 1995)
This led to the idea that $^{60}$Fe could be an excellent discriminant of the contested origin site of $^{26}$Al since none of the other sources produce significant amounts of $^{60}$Fe. Timmes et al 1995 predicted:

1. The $^{60}$Fe flux map will be concentrated toward the Galactic center.

2. The $^{60}$Fe mass and flux maps will follow the $^{26}$Al distributions.

3. The $^{60}$Fe and $^{26}$Al hot spots will overlap.

4. The $^{60}$Fe/$^{26}$Al flux ratio will be $0.16 \pm 0.12$.

5. The inferred mass of live $^{60}$Fe in the Galaxy will be $0.75 \pm 0.4 \, M_{\odot}$. 
Unfortunately, the predicted $^{60}$Fe/$^{26}$Al flux ratio was just below the sensitivity of the Compton observatory allowing only an upper limit measurement.
Ramaty High Energy Solar Spectroscopic Imager (RHESSI) Galactic measurements are made using the Earth as an occultator; there is no spatial resolution within the inner Galaxy.

HESSI launch by NASA in February 2002 from the Lockheed L-1011 seconds after Orbital’s Pegasus rocket ignited.
With RHESSI in 2004, Smith measured $^{26}$Al and $^{60}$Fe line fluxes to derive a $^{60}$Fe/$^{26}$Al flux ratio of 0.17 ± 0.05 (2006 values).

$^{60}$Fe flux = $3.6 \pm 1.4 \times 10^{-5}$ ph/cm$^2$/s
International Gamma-Ray Astrophysics Laboratory (INTEGRAL) is the first space observatory that can simultaneously observe objects in gamma rays, X-rays and visible light.

INTEGRAL launched by ESA in October 2002 by a Proton rocket from Baikonur in Kazakhstan.

INTEGRAL’s coded-mask spectrometer with a 19-element Germanium solid-state detector.
With INTEGRAL in 2007, Wang et al measured the $^{60}$Fe line flux and derived a $^{60}$Fe/$^{26}$Al flux ratio of 0.14 ± 0.06, both in excellent agreement with the RHESSI measurements.

$^{60}$Fe flux = $4.4 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-5}$ ph/cm$^2$/s
Since the 1995 predictions, “improved” stellar models and nuclear physics gave a smaller amounts of $^{26}$Al and larger amounts of $^{60}$Fe. What happened?!

Woosley & Weaver 1995
Rausher et al 2002
Limongi & Chieffi 2003
Prantzos 2004
One occurrence was a “perfect nuclear storm” of unsound choices ...

In transitioning to modern data bases, most groups used new Hauser-Feshbach rates for $^{26}\text{Al}(n,p)^{26}\text{Mg}$ and $^{26}\text{Al}(n,\alpha)^{23}\text{Na}$ that were 3-5 times larger the experimental determinations by Koehler (1997).
The net effect is to preferentially destroy $^{26}$Al in the carbon and oxygen shells of massive stars.
Cross sections governing the production of $^{60}\text{Fe}$ also changed, with a rate for $^{59}\text{Fe}(n,\gamma)^{60}\text{Fe}$ half as large and a rate for $^{60}\text{Fe}(n,\gamma)^{61}\text{Fe}$ twice as large as those use in the 1995 survey. Neither rate is measured. The net effect of the changes is to increase $^{60}\text{Fe}$ yields.
The final nuclear physics uncertainty is $^{22}\text{Ne}(\alpha,n)^{25}\text{Mg}$, which controls the production of the neutrons used to synthesize $^{60}\text{Fe}$.

In modern compilations $^{22}\text{Ne}(\alpha,n)^{25}\text{Mg}$ is larger than what was used in 1995. Reducing this rate further decreases the synthesis of $^{60}\text{Fe}$.

Returning uncertain cross sections to the values they had in 1995, can account for most of the difference between present model calculations and the γ-ray observations.
There are also uncertainties in the stellar models. Mass loss, metallicity, rotation, convection and the IMF all play major roles.
Even with relatively “standard” reaction rates there are wide differences in various investigators results for $^{26}$Al and $^{60}$Fe.

Limongi & Cheiffi 2006
Conclusions

The abundances of $^{26}\text{Al}$ and $^{60}\text{Fe}$ inferred from $\gamma$-ray astronomy is now an important constraint on stellar models, and one that is largely independent of the core collapse mechanism.

Progress depends upon more accurate measurements of critical nuclear physics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reaction</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$^{26}\text{Al}(n,p)^{26}\text{Mg}$</td>
<td>$^{26}\text{Al}(n,\alpha)^{23}\text{Na}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$^{59}\text{Fe}(n,\gamma)^{60}\text{Fe}$</td>
<td>$^{60}\text{Fe}(n,\gamma)^{61}\text{Fe}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$^{22}\text{Ne}(\alpha,n)^{25}\text{Mg}$</td>
<td>$^{59}\text{Fe}(e^-\nu_e)^{50}\text{Co}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

New missions such GRASP and GRI that may be able to image the inner Galaxy in the light of $^{60}\text{Fe}$ hold promise for an exciting future in $\gamma$-ray astronomy.
Questions and Discussion

\[ ^{60}\text{Fe} \rightarrow ^{60}\text{Co} \rightarrow ^{60}\text{Ni} \]

\[ ^{60}\text{Fe} \rightarrow ^{60}\text{Co} \rightarrow ^{60}\text{Ni} \]

- \( ^{60}\text{Fe} \): 
  - \( 60^+ \) 
  - \( \tau = 1.5 \text{ My} \)

- \( ^{60}\text{Co} \): 
  - \( 2^+ \) 
  - \( \gamma = 59 \text{ keV} \)
  - \( \tau = 5.3 \text{ y} \)

- \( ^{60}\text{Ni} \): 
  - \( 0^+ \) 
  - \( \gamma = 1.173 \text{ MeV} \)
  - \( \gamma = 1.332 \text{ MeV} \)

Diehl & Timmes 1998
Live $^{60}\text{Fe}$ has been detected in the Pacific Ocean deep ocean crust by AMS at a depth corresponding to an age of $2.8 \pm 0.4 \text{ Myr}$.

Can other radioactive isotopes be measured? Corresponding evidence in the extinction or weather records?
Figure 11-2. OSSE Detector Assembly

NASA 1990
Reduced Event Circle

Tracker

Calorimeter

NASA 1990