Solar neutrinos: An overview

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I summarize the current state of solar-neutrino research.

1. Introduction

THE most important result from solar-neutrino research is, in my view, that solar neutrinos have been detected experimentally with fluxes and energies that are qualitatively consistent with solar models that are constructed assuming that the Sun shines by nuclear fusion reactions. The first experimental result^{1,2} has now been confirmed by four other beautiful experiments³⁻⁶.

The observation of solar neutrinos with approximately the predicted energies and fluxes establishes empirically the theory that main-sequence stars derive their energy from nuclear fusion reactions in their interiors, and has inaugurated what we all hope will be a flourishing field of observational-neutrino astronomy. The detection of solar neutrinos settle experimentally the debate over the age and energy source of the Sun that raged for many decades, beginning in the middle of the 19th century. The leading theoretical physicists of the 19th century argued convincingly that the Sun could not be more than 10' years old because that was the maximum lifetime that could be fueled by gravitational energy ('no other natural explanation, except chemical action, can be conceived'8). On the other hand, geologists and evolutionary biologists argued that the Sun must be $> 10^9$ years old in order to account for the observed geological features and for the evolutionary processes⁹. (The arguments of Lord Kelvin and his theoretical physics associates were so persuasive that in later editions Darwin removed all mention of time scales from The Origin of the Species.) Today we know that the biologists and geologists were right and the theoretical physicists were wrong, which may be a historical lesson to which we physicists should pay attention.

I will discuss predictions of the combined standard model in the main part of this review. By 'combined' standard model I mean the predictions of the standard solar model and the predictions of the minimal electroweak theory. We need a solar model to tell us how many neutrinos of what energy are produced in the Sun and we need electroweak theory to tell us how the number and the flavour content of the neutrinos are changed as they make their way from the centre of the Sun to detectors on earth. For all practical purposes, standard electroweak theory

states that nothing happens to solar neutrinos after they are created in the deep interior of the Sun.

Using standard electroweak theory and fluxes from the standard solar model, one can calculate the rates of neutrino interactions in different terrestrial detectors with a variety of energy sensitivities. The combined standard model also predicts that the energy spectrum from a given neutrino source should be the same for neutrinos produced in terrestrial laboratories and in the Sun and that there should not be measurable time-dependences (other than the seasonal dependence caused by the earth's orbit around the Sun). The spectral and temporal departures from standard model expectations are expected to be small in all currently operating experiments¹⁰ and have not yet yielded definitive results. Therefore, I will concentrate here on inferences that can be drawn by comparing the total rates observed in solar-neutrino experiments with the combined standard model predictions.

I will begin by reviewing in Section 2 the quantitative predictions of the combined standard solar model and then describe in Section 3 the three solar-neutrino problems that are established by the chlorine, Kamiokande, SAGE, GALLEX and Superkamiokande experiments. In Section 4 I detail the uncertainties in the standard model predictions and then show in Section 5 that helioseismological measurements indicate that the standard solar model predictions are accurate for our purposes. In Section 5 I discuss the implications for solar-neutrino research of the precise agreement between helioseismological measurements and the predictions of standard solar models. Next, ignoring all knowledge of the Sun, I cite analyses in Section 6 that show that one cannot fit the existing experimental data with neutrino fluxes that are arbitrary parameters, unless one invokes new physics to change the shape or flavour content of neutrino energy spectrum. I summarize in Section 7 the characteristics of the bestfitting neutrino oscillation descriptions of the experimental data. Finally, I will discuss and summarize results in Section 8.

If you want to obtain numerical data or subroutines that are discussed in this review, or to see relevant background information, you can copy them from my Web site: http://www.sns.ias.edu/~jnb.

2. Standard model predictions

Table I gives the neutrino fluxes and their uncertainties for our best standard solar model¹¹, hereafter BP98.

Figure 1 shows the predicted neutrino fluxes from the dominant p-p fusion chain.

The BP98-solar model includes diffusion of heavy elements and helium, makes use of the nuclear reaction rates recommended by the expert workshop held at the

Table 1. Standard model predictions (BP98): solar-neutrino fluxes and neutrino capture rates, with 1 \u03c3 uncertainties from all sources (combined quadratically)

Source	Flux (10 ¹⁰ cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	CI (SNU)	Ga (SNU)	
г	5.94 (1.00 ⁺⁰⁰¹)	0.0	69.6	
рер	$1.39 \times 10^{-2} (1.00^{+0.01}_{-0.01})$	0.2	2.8	
hep	2.10×10^{-7}	0.0	0.0	
⁷ Be	$4.80 \times 10^{-1} (1.00^{+0.09}_{-0.09})$	1.15	34.4	
⁸ B	$5.15 \times 10^{-4} (1.00^{+0.19}_{-0.14})$	5.9	12.4	
¹³ N	$6.05 \times 10^{-2} (1.00^{+0.19}_{-0.13})$	1.0	3.7	
¹⁵ O	$5.32 \times 10^{-2} (1.00^{+0.22}_{-0.15})$	0.4	6.0	
17 F	$6.33 \times 10^{-4} (1.00^{+0.12}_{-0.11})$	0.0	0.1	
Total		7.7+1.2	129+8	

SNU is a unit used to describe the measured rates of solar-neutrino radiochemical experiments (10⁻³⁶ interactions per target atom per second).

Institute of Nuclear Theory¹², recent (1996) Livermore OPAL radiative opacities¹³, the OPAL equation of state¹⁴, and electron and ion screening as determined by the recent density matrix calculation 15.16. The neutrino absorption cross-sections that are used in constructing Table 1 are the most accurate values available 17.18 and include, where appropriate, the thermal energy of fusing-solar ions and improved nuclear and atomic data. The validity of the absorption cross-sections has recently been confirmed experimentally using intense radioactive sources of 51 Cr. The ratio, R, of the capture rate measured (in GALLEX and SAGE) to the calculated 51 Cr-capture rate is $R = 0.95 \pm 0.07$ $(exp)+_{-0.03}^{+0.04}$ (theory) and was discussed extensively at Neutrino 98 by Gavrin and by Kirsten. The neutrinoelectron scattering cross-sections, used in interpreting the Kamiokande and SuperKamiokande experiments, now include electroweak radiative corrections 19.

Figure 2 shows for the chlorine experiment all the predicted rates and the estimated uncertainties (1σ) published by my colleagues and myself since the first measurement by Ray Davis and his colleagues in 1968. This figure should give you some feeling for the robustness of the solar model calculations. Many hundreds and probably thousands of researchers have, over three decades, made great improvements in the input data for the solar

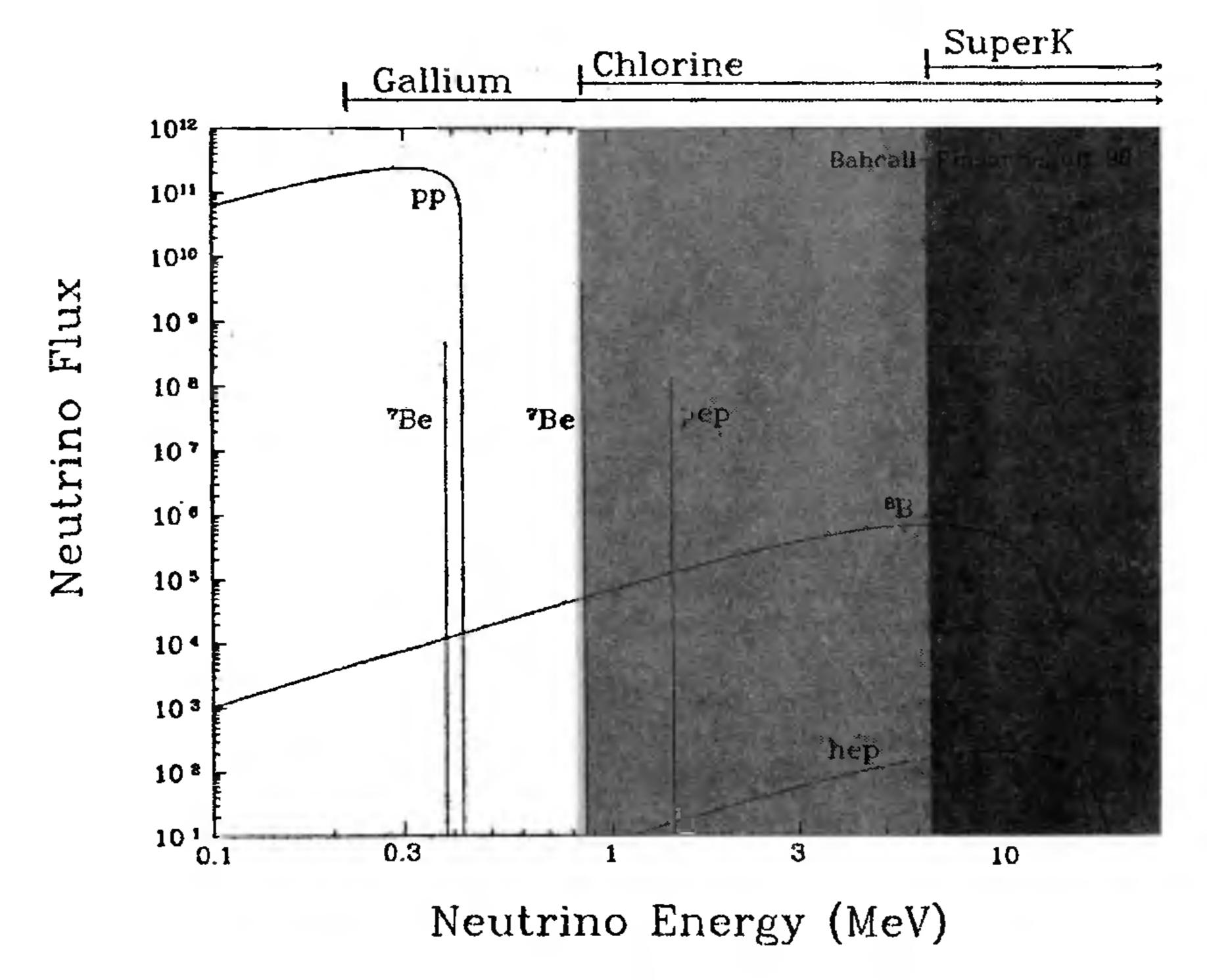


Figure 1. The energy spectrum of neutrinos from the p-p chain of interactions in the Sun, as predicted by the standard solar model. Neutrino fluxes from continuum sources (such as p-p and ⁸B) are given in the units of counts per cm² per second. The p-p chain is responsible for more than 98% of the energy generation in the standard solar model. Neutrinos produced in the carbon-nitrogen-oxygen (CNO) chain are not important energetically and are difficult to detect experimentally. The arrows at the top of the figure indicate the energy thresholds for the ongoing neutrino experiments.

models, including nuclear cross-sections, neutrino cross-sections, measured element abundances on the surface of the Sun, the solar luminosity, the stellar radiative opacity, and the stellar equation of state. Nevertheless, the most accurate predictions of today are essentially the same as they were in 1968 (although now they can be made with much greater confidence). For the gallium experiments, the neutrino fluxes predicted by standard solar models, corrected for diffusion, have been in the range 120 SNU to 141 SNU since 1968 (ref. 17): A SNU is a convenient unit with which to describe the measured rates of solar-neutrino experiments; 10^{-36} interactions per target atom per second.

There are three reasons that the theoretical calculations of neutrino fluxes are robust: (i) the availability of precision measurements and precision calculations of input data; (ii) the connection between neutrino fluxes and the measured solar luminosity; and (iii) the measurement of the helioseismological frequencies of the solar pressuremode (p-mode) eigenfrequencies. I have discussed these reasons in detail elsewhere²⁰.

Figure 3 shows the calculated ⁷Be- and ⁸B-neutrino fluxes for all 19 standard solar models which have been published in the last 10 years in refereed science journals. The fluxes are normalized by dividing each published value by the flux from the BP98-solar model¹¹: the abscissa is the normalized-⁸B flux and the ordinate is the normalized-⁷Be neutrino flux. The rectangular box shows the estimated 3 σ uncertainties in the predictions of the BP98 solar model.

All of the solar model results from different groups fall within the estimated 3σ uncertainties in the BP98 analysis

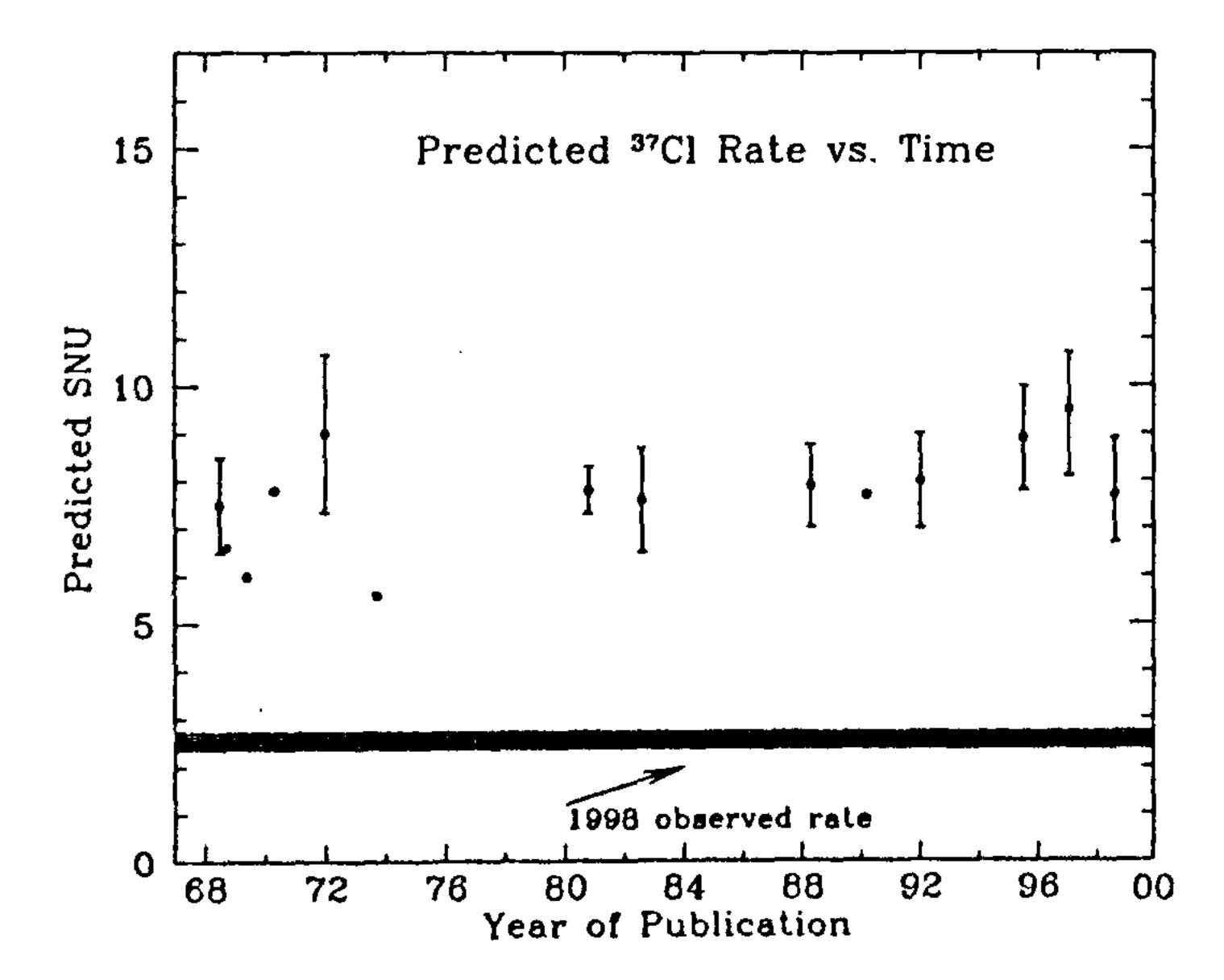


Figure 2. The predictions of John Bahcall and his collaborators of neutrino-capture rates in the ³⁷Cl experiment are shown as a function of the date of publication (since the first experimental report¹ in 1968). The event rate, SNU, is a convenient product of neutrino-flux times the interaction cross-section, 10⁻³⁶ interactions per target atom per sec. The format is from Figure 1.2 (ref. 40). The predictions have been updated through 1998.

(with one not understood exception that falls slightly outside). This agreement demonstrates the robustness of the predictions, since the calculations use different computer codes (which achieve varying degrees of precision) and involve a variety of choices for the nuclear parameters, the equation of state, the stellar radiative opacity, the initial heavy element abundances, and the physical processes that are included.

The largest contributions to the dispersion in values in Figure 3 are due to the choice of the normalization for S_{17} (the production cross-section factor for 8B neutrinos) and the inclusion or non-inclusion of element diffusion in the stellar-evolution codes. The effect in the plane of Figure 3 of the normalization of S_{17} is shown by the difference between the point for BP98 (1.0, 1.0), which was computed using the most recent recommended normalization¹², and the point at (1.18, 1.0) which corresponds to the BP98 result with the earlier (CalTech) normalization²¹.

Helioseismological observations have shown^{11,22} that element diffusion is occurring and must be included in solar models, so that the most recent models shown in Figure 3 now all include helium and heavy-element diffusion. By comparing a large number of earlier models, it was shown that all published standard solar models give the same results for solar-neutrino fluxes to an accuracy of better than 10% if the same input parameters and physical processes are included^{23,24}.

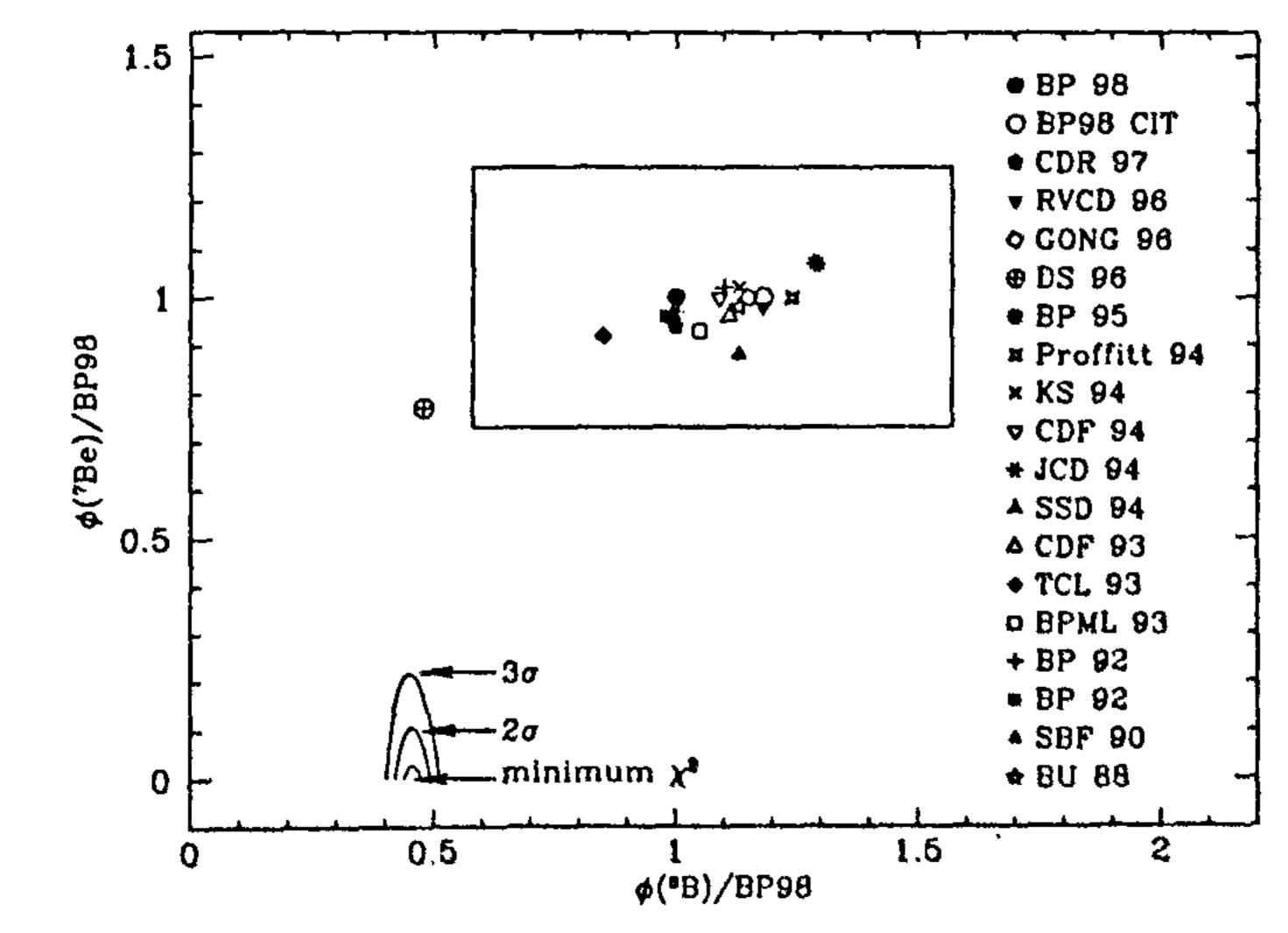


Figure 3. Predictions of standard solar models since 1988. This figure, which is Figure 1 of ref. 10, shows the predictions of 19 standard solar models in the plane defined by the Be in and B neutrino fluxes. The abbreviations that are used in the figure to identify different solar models are defined in the bibliographical item, ref. 45. The figure includes all standard solar models, with which I am familiar that were published in refereed journals in the decade 1988–1998. All of the fluxes are normalized to the predictions of the Bahcall-Pinsonneault 1998 solar model, BP98¹¹. The rectangular error box defines the 3σ-error range of the BP98 fluxes. The best-fit Be-neutrino flux is negative. At the 99% C.L., there is no solution with all positive neutrino fluxes (see discussion in section 6). All of the standard model solutions he far from the best-fit solution, even far from the 3σ contour.

Bahcall et al. 10 have compared the observed rates with the calculated standard-model values, combining quadratically the theoretical solar model and experimental uncertainties, as well as the uncertainties in the neutrino cross-sections. Since the GALLEX and SAGE experiments measure the same quantity, we treat the weighted average rate in gallium as one experimental number. We adopt the SuperKamiokande measurement as the most precise direct determination of the higher-energy 8B-neutrino flux.

Using the predicted fluxes from the BP98 model, the χ^2 for the fit to the three experimental rates (chlorine, gallium, and SuperKamiokande, see Figure 4) is:

$$\chi^2_{\rm SSM}$$
 (3 experimental rates) = 61. (1)

The result given in eq. (1), which is approximately equivalent to a 20σ discrepancy, is a quantitative expression of the fact that the standard model predictions do not fit the observed solar-neutrino measurements.

3. Three solar-neutrino problems

I will now compare the predictions of the combined standard model with the results of the operating solarneutrino experiments.

We will see that this comparison leads to three different discrepancies between the calculations and the observations, which I will refer to as the three solar-neutrino problems.

Figure 4 shows the measured and the calculated event rates in the five ongoing solar-neutrino experiments. This figure reveals three discrepancies between the experimental results and the expectations based upon the combined standard model: As we shall see, only the first of these discrepancies depends in significant measure upon the predictions of the standard solar model.

Calculated vs observed absolute rate

The first solar-neutrino experiment to be performed was the chlorine radiochemical experiment², which detects electron-type neutrinos that are more energetic than 0.81 MeV. After more than a quarter of a century of operation of this experiment, the measured event rate is 2.56 ± 0.23 SNU, which is a factor of three less than predicted by most detailed theoretical calculations, $7.7^{+1.2}_{-1.0}$ SNU (ref. 11). Most of the predicted rate in the chlorine experiment is from the rare, high-energy ⁸B neutrinos, although the ⁷Be neutrinos are also expected to contribute significantly. According to standard-model calculations, the *pep* neutrinos and the CNO neutrinos (for simplicity not discussed here) are expected to contribute less than 1 SNU to the total event rate.

This discrepancy between the calculations and the observations for the chlorine experiment was for more

than two decades, the only solar-neutrino problem. I shall refer to the chlorine disagreement as the first solar-neutrino problem.

Incompatibility of chlorine and water experiments

The second solar-neutrino problem results from a comparison of the measured event rates in the chlorine experiment and in the Japanese pure-water experiments, Kamio-kande³ and SuperKamiokande⁶. The water experiments detect higher-energy neutrinos, most easily above 7 MeV, by observing the Cerenkov radiation from neutrino-electron scattering: $v + e \rightarrow v' + e'$. According to the standard solar model, ⁸B-beta decay, and possibly the hep reaction²⁵, are the only important source of these higher-energy neutrinos.

The Kamiokande and SuperKamiokande experiments show that the observed neutrinos come from the Sun. The electrons that are scattered by the incoming neutrinos recoil predominantly in the direction of the Sun-Earth vector; the relativistic electrons are observed by the Cerenkov radiation they produce in the water detector. In addition, the water Cerenkov experiments measure the energies of individual scattered electrons and therefore provide information about the energy spectrum of the incident solar neutrinos.

The total event rate in the water experiments, about 0.5 the standard-model value (see Figure 4), is determined by

Total Rates: Standard Model vs. Experiment Bahcall-Pinsonneault 98

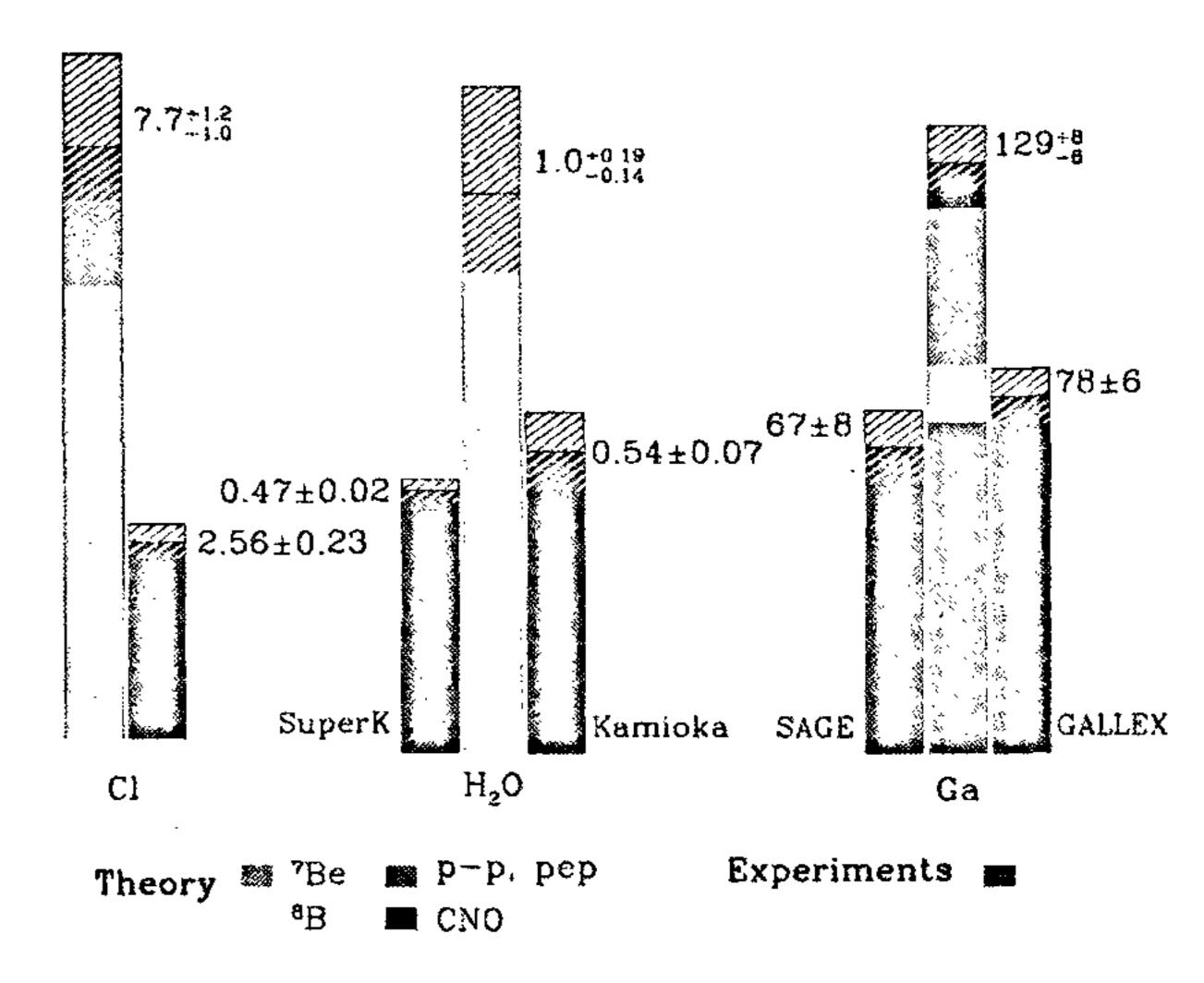


Figure 4. Comparison of measured rates and standard-model predictions for five solar-neutrino experiments²⁻⁶. The unit for the radiochemical experiments (chlorine and gallium) is SNU (see Figure 2 for a definition); the unit for the water-Cerenkov experiments (Kamiokande and SuperKamiokande) is the rate predicted by the standard solar model plus the standard electroweak theory¹¹.

the same high-energy ⁸B neutrinos that are expected, on the basis of a combined standard model, to dominate the event rate in the chlorine experiment. I have shown elsewhere ²⁶ that solar physics changes the shape of the ⁸B-neutrino spectrum by less than 1 part in 10⁵. Therefore, we can calculate the rate in the chlorine experiment (threshold 0.8 MeV) that is produced by the ⁸B neutrinos observed in the Kamiokande and SuperKamiokande experiments at an order of magnitude higher energy threshold.

If no new physics changes the shape of the 8B -neutrino energy spectrum, the chlorine rate from 8B alone is 2.8 ± 0.1 SNU for the SuperKamiokande normalization (3.2 ± 0.4 SNU for the Kamiokande normalization), which exceeds the total observed chlorine rate of 2.56 ± 0.23 SNU.

Comparing the rates of the SuperKamiokande and the chlorine experiments, one finds – assuming that the shape of the energy spectrum of 8Bv_e 's is not changed by new physics – that the net contribution to the chlorine experiment from the pep, 7Be and CNO neutrino sources is negative: -0.2 ± 0.3 SNU. The contributions from the pep, 7Be , and CNO neutrinos would appear to be completely missing; the standard model prediction for the combined contribution of pep, 7Be , and CNO neutrinos is a relatively large 1.8 SNU (see Table 1). On the other hand, we know that the 7Be neutrinos must be created in the Sun since they are produced by electron capture on the same isotope (7Be) which gives rise to the 8B neutrinos by proton capture.

Hans Bethe and I pointed out²⁷ that this apparent incompatibility of the chlorine and water-Cerenkov experiments constitutes a second solar-neutrino problem that is almost independent of the absolute rates predicted by solar models. The inference that is usually made from this comparison is that the energy spectrum of ⁸B neutrinos is changed from the standard shape by physics not included in the simplest version of the standard electroweak model.

Gallium experiments: No room for ⁷Be neutrinos

The results of the gallium experiments, GALLEX and SAGE, constitute the third solar-neutrino problem. The average observed rate in these two experiments is 73 ± 5 SNU, which is accounted for in the standard model by the theoretical rate of 72.4 SNU that is calculated to come from the basic p-p and pep neutrinos (with only a 1% uncertainty in the standard solar model p-p flux). The 8B neutrinos, which are observed above 6.5 MeV in the Kamiokande experiment, must also contribute to the gallium event rate. Using the standard shape for the spectrum of 8B neutrinos and normalizing to the rate observed in Kamiokande, 8B contributes another 6 SNU. (The contribution predicted by the standard model is 12 SNU, see Table 1.) Given the measured rates in the gallium experiments, there is no room for the additional

34 ± 3 SNU that is expected from ⁷Be neutrinos on the basis of standard solar models (see Table 1).

The seeming exclusion of everything but p-p neutrinos in the gallium experiments is the third solar-neutrino problem. This problem is essentially independent of the previously-discussed solar-neutrino problems, since it depends strongly upon the p-p neutrinos that are not observed in the other experiments and whose theoretical flux can be calculated accurately.

The missing ⁷Be neutrinos cannot be explained away by a change in solar physics. The ⁸B neutrinos that are observed in the Kamiokande experiment are produced in competition with the missing ⁷Be neutrinos; the competition is between electron capture on ⁷Be vs proton capture on ⁷Be. Solar model explanations that reduce the predicted ⁷Be flux generically reduce much more (too much) the predictions for the observed ⁸B flux.

The flux of ${}^{7}\text{Be}$ neutrinos, $\phi({}^{7}\text{Be})$, is independent of measurement uncertainties in the cross-section for the nuclear reaction ${}^{7}\text{Be}(p,\gamma){}^{8}\text{B}$; the cross-section for this proton-capture reaction is the most uncertain quantity that enters in an important way in the solar model calculations. The flux of ${}^{7}\text{Be}$ neutrinos depends upon the proton-capture reaction only through the ratio

$$\phi$$
 (⁷Be) $\propto \frac{R(e)}{R(e) + R(p)}$, (2)

where R(e) is the rate of electron capture by ⁷Be nuclei and R(p) is the rate of proton capture by ⁷Be. With standard parameters, solar models yield $R(p) = 10^{-3}R(e)$. Therefore, one would have to increase the value of the ⁷Be (p, γ) ⁸B cross-section by more than two orders of magnitude over the current-best estimate (which has an estimated uncertainty of ~ 10%) in order to affect significantly the calculated ⁷Be-solar-neutrino flux. The required change in the nuclear-physics cross-section would also increase the predicted neutrino event rate by more than 100 in the Kamiokande experiment, making that prediction completely inconsistent with what is observed.

I conclude that either: (i) at least three of the five operating solar-neutrino experiments (the two gallium experiments plus either chlorine or the two water-Cerenkov experiments, Kamiokande and SuperKamiokande) have yielded misleading results, or (ii) physics beyond the standard electroweak model is required to change the energy spectrum of v_e after the neutrinos are produced in the centre of the Sun.

4. Uncertainties in the flux calculations

I will now discuss uncertainties in the solar-model-flux calculations. Table 2 summarizes the uncertainties in the most important solar-neutrino fluxes and in the Cl and Ga event rates due to different nuclear fusion reactions (the

first four entries), the heavy element to hydrogen mass ratio (Z/X), the radiative opacity, the solar luminosity, the assumed solar age, and the helium and heavy element diffusion coefficients. The ¹⁴N + p reaction causes a 0.2% uncertainty in the predicted p-p flux and a 0.1 SNU uncertainty in the Cl (Ga) event rates.

The predicted event rates for the chlorine and gallium experiments use recent improved calculations of neutrinoabsorption cross-sections 17,18. The uncertainty in the prediction for the gallium rate is dominated by uncertainties in the neutrino-absorption cross sections, + 6.7 SNU (7% of the predicted rate) and -3.8 SNU (3% of the predicted rate). The uncertainties in the chlorine-absorption crosssections cause an error, ± 0.2 SNU (3% of the predicted rate), that is relatively small compared to other uncertainties in predicting the rate for this experiment. For nonstandard neutrino-energy spectra that result from new neutrino physics, the uncertainties in the predictions for currently favoured solutions (which reduce the contributions from the least well-determined ⁸B neutrinos) will in general be less than the values quoted here for standard spectra and must be calculated using the appropriate cross-section uncertainty for each neutrino energy 17,18.

The nuclear fusion uncertainties in Table 2 were taken from Adelberger et al. 12, the neutrino cross-section uncertainties from refs 17, 18, the heavy element uncertainty was taken from helioseismological measurements²⁸, the luminosity and age uncertainties were adopted from BP95 (ref. 24), the 1σ -fractional uncertainty in the diffusion rate was taken to be 15% (ref. 29), which is supported by helioseismological evidence²², and the opacity uncertainty was determined by comparing the results of fluxes computed using the older Los Alamos opacities with fluxes computed using the modern Livermore opacities²³. To include the effects of asymmetric errors, the now publiclyavailable code for calculating rates and uncertainties (see discussion in previous section) was run with different input uncertainties and the results averaged. The software contains a description of how each of the uncertainties listed in Table 2 were determined and used.

The low-energy cross-section of the ${}^{7}\text{Be} + p$ reaction is the most important quantity that must be determined more accurately in order to decrease the error in the predicted event rates in solar-neutrino experiments. The ${}^{8}\text{B}$ -neutrino flux that is measured by the Kamiokande³, Super-Kamiokande⁶, and SNO³⁰ experiments is, in all standard solar model calculations, directly proportional to the ${}^{7}\text{Be} + p$ cross-section. If the 1σ uncertainty in this cross-section can be reduced by a factor of two to 5%, then it will no longer be the limiting uncertainty in predicting the crucial ${}^{8}\text{B}$ -neutrino flux (cf. Table 2).

5. How large an uncertainty does helioseismology suggest?

Could the solar model calculations be wrong by enough to explain the discrepancies between predictions and measurements for solar-neutrino experiments? Helioseismology, which confirms predictions of the standard solar model to high precision, suggests that the answer is probably 'No'.

Figure 5 shows the fractional differences between the most accurate available sound speed measured by helioseismology³¹ and sound speed calculated with our best solar model (with no free parameters). The horizontal line corresponds to the hypothetical case in which the model predictions exactly match the observed values. The root mean square (rms) fractional difference between the calculated and the measured sound speeds is 1.1×10^{-3} for the entire region over which the sound speeds are measured, $0.05R_{\odot} < R < 0.95R_{\odot}$. In the solar core, $0.05R_{\odot} < R < 0.25R_{\odot}$ (in which about 95% of the solar energy and neutrino flux is produced in a standard model), the rms fractional difference between measured and calculated sound speeds is 0.7×10^{-3} .

Helioseismological measurements also determine two other parameters that help characterize the outer part of the Sun (far from the inner region in which neutrinos are produced): the depth of the solar convective zone (CZ), the region in the outer part of the Sun that is fully

Table 2. Average uncertainties in neutrino fluxes and event rates due to different input data. The flux uncertainties are expressed in fractions of the total flux, and the event-rate uncertainties are expressed in SNU. The 7 Be-electron capture rate causes an uncertainty of \pm 2% (ref. 44) that affects only the 7 Be-neutrino flux. The average fractional uncertainties for individual parameters are shown

Fractional uncertainty	<i>p-p</i> 0.017	³ He ³ He 0.060	³ He ⁴ He 0.094	$^{7}\text{Be} + p$ 0.106	<i>Z/X</i> 0.033	Opacity	Luminocity 0.004	Age 0.004	Diffuse
Flux				<u> </u>			-·· <u>-</u> · <u>·</u>		<u> </u>
p-p	0.002	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.002	0.003	0.003	0.0	0.003
<i>p-p</i> 7Be	0.0155	0.023	0.080	0.000	0.019	0.028	0.014	0.003	810.0
*В	0.040	0.021	0.075	0.105	0.042	0.052	0.028	0.006	0.040
SNUs									
C1	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.04	0.3
Ga	1.3	0.9	3.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.20	1.5

convective and the present-day surface-abundance by mass of helium $(Y_{\rm surf})$. The measured values, $R_{\rm cz} = (0.713 \pm 0.001)R_{\odot}$ (ref. 32), and $Y_{\rm surf} = 0.249 \pm 0.003$ (ref. 28), are in satisfactory agreement with the values predicted by the solar model BP98, namely, $R_{\rm cz} = 0.714R_{\odot}$, and $Y_{\rm surf} = 0.243$. However, we shall see below that precision measurements of the sound speed near the transition between the radiative interior (in which energy is transported by radiation) and the outer convective zone (in which energy is transported by convection) reveal small discrepancies between the model predictions and the observations in this region.

If solar physics were responsible for the solar-neutrino problems, how large would one expect the discrepancies to be between the solar model predictions and helioseismological observations? The characteristic size of the discrepancies can be estimated using the results of the neutrino experiments and scaling laws for neutrino fluxes and sound speeds.

All recently published solar models predict essentially the same fluxes from the fundamental p-p and pepreactions (amounting to 72.4 SNU in gallium experiments, cf. Table 1), which are closely related to the solar luminosity. Comparing the measured gallium rates and the standard predicted rate for the gallium experiments, the 'Be flux must be reduced by a factor N if the disagreement is not to exceed n standard deviations, where N and n satisfy $72.4 + (34.4)/N = 72.2 + n\sigma$. For a 1σ (3 σ) disagreement, N = 6.1 (2.05). Sound-speeds scale like the square root of the local temperature divided by the mean molecular weight and the Be-neutrino flux scales approximately as the 10th power of the temperature³³. Assuming that the temperature changes are dominant, agreement to within 1σ would require fractional changes of order 0.09 in sound speeds (3σ could be reached with 0.04 changes), if all model changes were in the temperature.* This argument is conservative because it ignores the B and CNO neutrinos which contribute to the observed counting rate (cf. Table 1) and which, if included, would require an even larger reduction of the ⁷Be flux.

I have chosen the vertical scale in Figure 5 to be appropriate for fractional differences between measured and predicted sound speeds that are of order 0.04 to 0.09, and that might therefore affect solar-neutrino calculations. Figure 5 shows that the characteristic agreement between the solar model predictions and helioseismological measurements is more than a factor of 40 better than would be expected if there were a solar model explanation of the solar-neutrino problems.

6. Fits without solar models

Suppose (following the precepts of Hata et al.³⁴, Parke³⁵, and Heeger and Robertson³⁶) we now ignore everything we have learned about solar models over the last 35 years and allow the important p-p, ⁷Be, and ⁸B fluxes to take on any non-negative values. What is the best fit that one can obtain to the solar-neutrino measurements assuming only that the luminosity of the Sun is supplied by nuclear fusion reactions among light elements (the so-called 'luminosity constraint'³⁷)?

The answer is that the fits are bad, even if we completely ignore what we know about the Sun; I quote the results from ref. 10.

If the CNO-neutrino fluxes are set equal to zero, there are no acceptable solutions at the 99% C. L. ($\sim 3\sigma$ result). The best-fit is worse if the CNO fluxes are not set equal to zero. All so-called 'solutions' of the solar-neutrino problems in which the astrophysical model is changed arbitrarily (ignoring helioseismology and other constraints) are inconsistent with the observations at much more than a 3σ level of significance. No fiddling of the physical conditions in the model can yield the minimum value, quoted above, that was found by varying the fluxes independently and arbitrarily.

Figure 3 shows, in the lower left-hand corner, the bestfit solution and the $1\sigma - 3\sigma$ contours. The 1σ and 3σ limits were obtained by requiring that $\chi^2 = \chi^2_{\min} + \delta \chi^2$, where for 1σ , $\delta \chi^2 = 1$ and for 3σ , $\delta \chi^2 = 9$. All of the standard model solutions lie far from the best-fit solution and even lie far from the 3σ contour.

Since standard model descriptions do not fit the solarneutrino data, we will now consider models in which

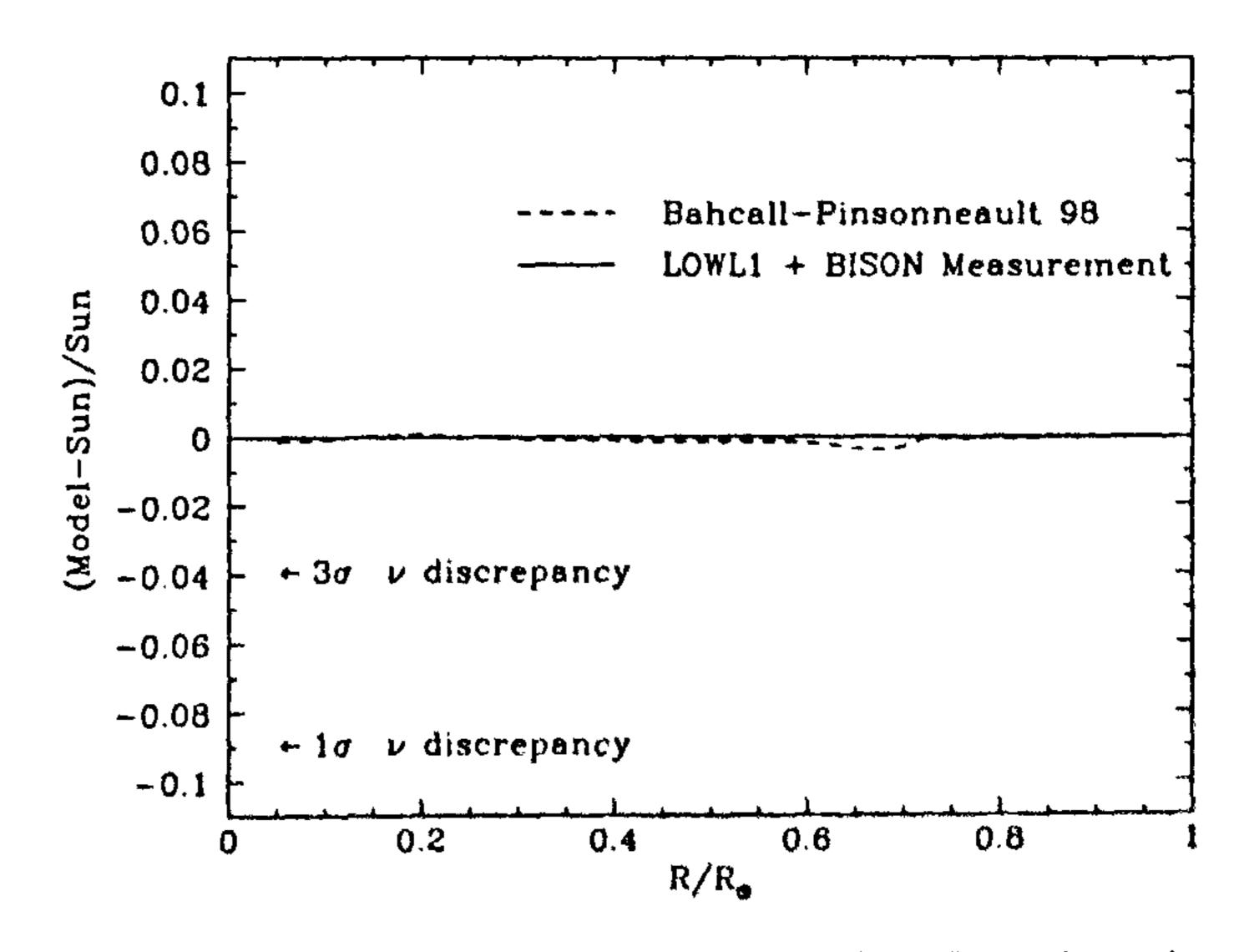


Figure 5. Predicted vs measured sound speeds. This figure shows the excellent agreement between the calculated (solar model BP98, Model) and the measured (Sun) sound speeds, a fractional difference of 0.001 rms for all speeds measured between $0.05R_{\odot}$ and $0.95R_{\odot}$. The vertical scale is chosen so as to emphasize that the fractional error is much smaller than generic changes in the model, 0.04 to 0.09, that might significantly affect the solar-neutrino predictions.

^{*}I have used in this calculation the GALLEX and SAGE measured rates reported by Kirsten and Gavrin at Neutrino 98. The experimental rates used in BP98 were not as precise and therefore resulted in slightly less stringent constraints than those imposed here. In BP98, we found that agreement to within 1σ with the then available experimental numbers would require fractional changes of order 0.08 in sound speeds (3σ) could be reached with 0.03 changes.)

neutrino oscillations change the shape of the neutrino energy spectra.

7. Neutrino oscillations

The experimental results from all five of the operating solar-neutrino experiments (chlorine, Kamiokande, SAGE, GALLEX, and SuperKamiokande) can be fit well by descriptions involving neutrino oscillations, either vacuum oscillations (as originally suggested by Gribov and Pontecorvo³⁸) or resonant matter oscillations (as originally discussed by Mikeyhev, Smirnov, and Wolfenstein (MSW)³⁹).

Table 3 summarizes the four best-fit solutions that are found in the two-neutrino approximation 10,25. Only the SMA MSW solution fits well all the data – including the recoil electron energy spectrum measured in the SuperKamiokande experiment – if the standard value for the hep production-reaction cross-section (${}^{3}\text{He} + p \rightarrow$ ⁴He + e^+ + v_e) is used¹⁰. However, for over a decade I have not given an estimated uncertainty for this crosssection⁴⁰. The transition matrix element is essentially forbidden and the actual quoted value for the production cross-section depends upon a delicate cancellation between two comparably sized terms that arise from very different and hard to evaluate nuclear physics. I do not see any way at present to determine from experiment or from first principles theoretical calculations a relevant, robust upper limit to the hep-production cross-section (and therefore the hep solar-neutrino flux).

The possible role of hep neutrinos in solar-neutrino experiments is discussed extensively in ref. 25. The most important unsolved problem in theoretical nuclear physics related to solar neutrinos is the range of values allowed by fundamental physics for the hep-production cross-section.

8. Discussion and conclusion

When the chlorine solar-neutrino experiment was first proposed⁴¹, the only stated motivation was '... to see into the interior of a star and thus verify directly the hypothesis of nuclear energy generation in stars'. This goal has now been achieved.

The focus has shifted to using solar-neutrino experiments as a tool for learning more about the fundamental characteristics of neutrinos as particles. Experimental effort is now concentrated on answering the question: What are the probabilities for transforming a solar v_e of a definite energy into the other possible neutrino states? Once this question is answered, we can calculate what happens to v_e 's that are created in the interior of the Sun. Armed with this information from weak interaction physics, we can return again to the original motivation of using neutrinos to make detailed, quantitative tests of

Table 3. Neutrino oscillation solutions

Solution	Δm ² (eV ²)	sin² 2 <i>0</i>
SMA	5 × 10 ⁻⁶	5×10^{-3}
LMA	2×10^{-5}	0.8
LOW	8×10^{-8}	0.96
VAC	8×10^{-11}	0.7

nuclear fusion rates in the solar interior. Measurements of the flavour content of the dominant low energy neutrino sources, p-p and ⁷Be neutrinos, will be crucial in this endeavour and will require another generation of superb solar-neutrino experiments.

Three decades of refining the input data and the solar model calculations has led to a predicted standard model event rate for the chlorine experiment, 7.7 SNU, which is very close to 7.5 SNU, the best-estimate value obtained in 1968 (ref. 42). The situation regarding solar neutrinos is, however, completely different now, thirty years later. Four experiments have confirmed the original chlorine detection of solar neutrinos. Helioseismological measurements are in excellent agreement with the standard solar model predictions and very strongly disfavour (by a factor of 40 or more) hypothetical deviations from the standard model that are required to fit the neutrino data (cf. Figure 5). Just in the last two years, improvements in the helioseismological measurements have resulted in a fivefold improvement in the agreement between the calculated standard solar model sound speeds and the measured solar velocities.

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