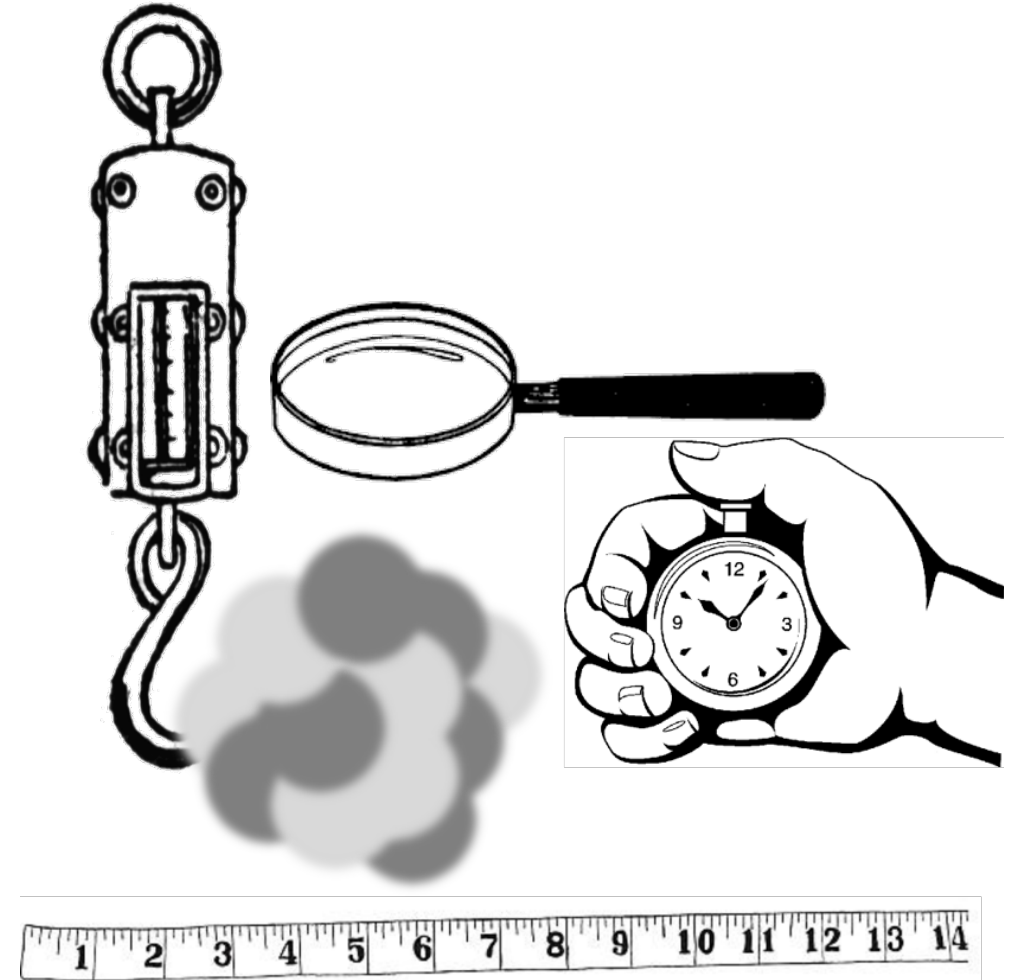


# Lecture 1: *Nuclear Properties*

- General descriptors of nuclei
- Nuclear phenomenology
- The nuclear landscape



# The Atomic Nucleus

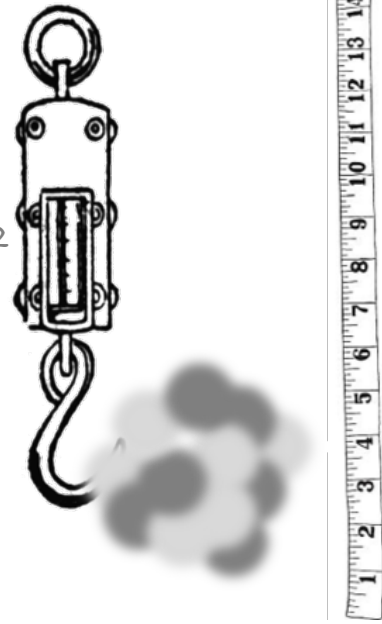


- A conglomeration of *nucleons*, a.k.a. neutrons and protons
- Convention for referring to a particular configuration, a.k.a *nuclide*
  - ${}^A_Z(\text{chemical symbol})_N$
  - $A$  = # of nucleons,  $Z$  = # of protons,  $N$  = # of neutrons.
  - The chemical symbol is from the periodic table that corresponds to  $Z$
  - Since  $A=Z+N$  and  $Z$  is indicated by the chemical symbol, more common notation is:  ${}^A\text{chemical symbol}$
  - For example, the most common type of carbon ( $Z=6$ ) has 6 neutrons:  ${}^{12}\text{C}$   
Con conversationally, you would call this “carbon twelve”
- Nuclides with the same  $Z$  but different  $N$  are *isotopes* (though this term is often used in lieu of nuclides)
- Nuclides with the same  $N$  but different  $Z$  are *isotones*
- Nuclides with the same  $A$  are *isobars*
- Nuclides with nicknames:
  - ${}^1\text{H}$  = proton,  ${}^2\text{H}$  = deuteron (d),  ${}^3\text{H}$  = triton (t),  ${}^4\text{He}$  =  $\alpha$ ,  ${}^3\text{He}$  = helion (rarely used)

An “m” after the mass-number of a nucleus indicates an isomer, a long-lived excited state. E.g.  ${}^{26m}\text{Al}$

# How big is a nucleus?

The definition of  $u$  being based on  $^{12}\text{C}$  means it is a valuable tool for high-precision mass measurements, e.g. C.Scheidenberger et al., Nuc. Phys. A 2002



## Phenomenological estimates:

- A nucleus's mass is roughly:  $M(Z,A) = A \cdot \text{amu}$ 
  - $1\text{amu} = \text{atomic mass unit} = u = 931.494\text{MeV}/c^2 \approx 1.66 \times 10^{-24}\text{g}$
  - The amu is defined such that  $M(^{12}\text{C}) \equiv 12u$
- A nucleus's <sub>(charge)</sub> radius is roughly:  $R(Z,A) = (1.2\text{fm}) \cdot A^{1/3}$ 
  - fm = femtometer (a.k.a. *fermi*) =  $10^{-15}\text{m}$
  - The radius of a nucleon is often referred to as  $r_0 = 1.2\text{fm}$
  - For the RMS radius, multiply by  $\sqrt{3/5}$

- Therefore, an estimate for the nuclear density is:

$$\bullet \rho = \frac{M}{V} = \frac{M}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} = \frac{(1u)A}{\frac{4}{3}\pi(1.2\text{fm})^3 A} \approx 0.14 \text{ nucleons}/\text{fm}^3$$

$$\bullet \text{ For fun, in terms of mass-density: } \rho = \frac{(1.66 \times 10^{-24}\text{g})A}{\frac{4}{3}\pi(1.2\text{fm})^3 A} \approx 2.3 \times \frac{10^{-25}\text{g}}{\text{fm}^3}$$

...which doesn't sound like much, but this is  $2 \times 10^{14}\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  (the Great Pyramid of Giza is only  $\sim 10^{12}$  grams)

Since  $A$  cancels in the  $\rho$  expression, the nuclear density is independent of the nuclear size, much as a liquid's density is independent of the size of the drop.

Partly inspired by this property, some basic nuclear calculations are based on this liquid drop analogy. (G. Gamow, Proc. Roy. Soc. A 1929, 1930)

# Nuclear Transmutation



- Rules for converting one nuclide (or nuclides) to another (or others)
  - *Charge conservation*:  $\sum q_{before} = \sum q_{after}$  (q from protons + positrons + electrons)
  - *Baryon conservation*:  $\sum A_{before} = \sum A_{after}$  (A from neutrons + protons)
  - *Lepton number conservation*:  $[N_{leptons} - N_{anti-leptons}]_{before} = [N_{leptons} - N_{anti-leptons}]_{after}$
- \* Transmutation likelihoods are impacted by energetics and spin/parity selection rules

## Two Types:

### • Reactions

- Multiple reactants create one or more products
- Notation:  $A+b \rightarrow c+D$  is written as  $A(b,c)D$ , where  $M(b) < M(A)$  and  $M(c) < M(D)$ 
  - E.g.  $^{12}\text{C} + \alpha \rightarrow ^{16}\text{O} + \gamma$  is  $^{12}\text{C}(\alpha, \gamma)^{16}\text{O}$  or even just  $^{12}\text{C}(\alpha, \gamma)$  and is called “carbon-twelve alpha gamma”

### • Decays

- $\alpha$ ,  $\beta^+$ ,  $\beta^-$ ,  $e^-$ -capture,  $\beta$ -delayed  $\gamma/p/\alpha/n$  emission, fission, cluster emission, prompt  $\gamma$
- Lose nucleons for all above except  $\beta$  decay,  $e^-$ -capture, and prompt  $\gamma$  (following a reaction)

*The first nuclear reaction intentionally made in the laboratory was  $^{14}\text{N}(\alpha, p)$  in 1919. (E. Rutherford, Nature 1935).*

*The first measured radioactive decay was  $\alpha$  decay from uranium. (H. Becquerel, Comptes Rendus 1896).*

# Nuclear Forces, mechanisms for binding & transmutation

- Fundamental forces of nature:

Force	Range (m)	Relative strength	Force carrier, X
Gravitational	$\infty$	$10^{-38}$	Graviton
Weak	$10^{-18}$	$10^{-5}$	$W^{\pm}, Z^0$
Electromagnetic	$\infty$	$\alpha \approx 1/137$	Photon
Strong	$10^{-15}$	1	Gluon, Pion

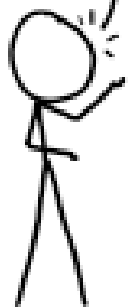
- The range comes from the uncertainty principle:
  - When converting reactant(s) to product(s), energy is spent on the mass of the force carrier:  $\Delta E \geq M_X c^2$
  - Violating energy conservation like this is only allowed due to the uncertainty principle:  $\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar/2$
  - And therefore the force carrier must be reabsorbed before:  $t \leq \hbar/(2\Delta E)$
  - Since a particle can't be moving faster than the speed of light,  $c$ , the furthest range a force can be mediated is:  $r \leq tc = \hbar c/(2\Delta E) = \hbar c/(2M_X c^2) = \hbar/(2M_X c)$
  - Thus, since factors of 2 are for chumps, the range of an interaction is defined as:  **$R \equiv \hbar/(M_X c)$**
  - Since the graviton and photon are massless,  $R = \infty$ .
  - For the weak force,  $M_X \sim 100 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ , so  $R_{\text{weak}} \sim 10^{-3} \text{ fm}$ .
  - Similarly, since  $M_{\pi} \sim 100 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ ,  $R_{\text{strong}} \sim 1 \text{ fm}$ .

*The trick for these calculations is that  $\hbar c \approx 197 \text{ MeV} \cdot \text{fm}$ .*

*Note force range relative to nucleon size.*

THERE ARE FOUR FUNDAMENTAL FORCES BETWEEN PARTICLES:  
(1) GRAVITY, WHICH OBEYS THIS INVERSE SQUARE LAW:

$$F_{\text{gravity}} = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{d^2}$$

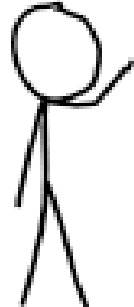


OK...

(2) ELECTROMAGNETISM, WHICH OBEYS THIS INVERSE-SQUARE LAW:

$$F_{\text{static}} = k_e \frac{q_1 q_2}{d^2}$$

AND ALSO MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS

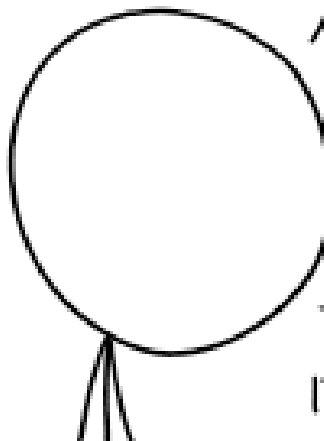


ALSO WHAT?

(3) THE STRONG NUCLEAR FORCE, WHICH OBEYS, UH...

...WELL, UMM...

...IT HOLDS PROTONS AND NEUTRONS TOGETHER.



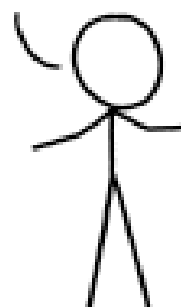
I SEE.

IT'S STRONG.

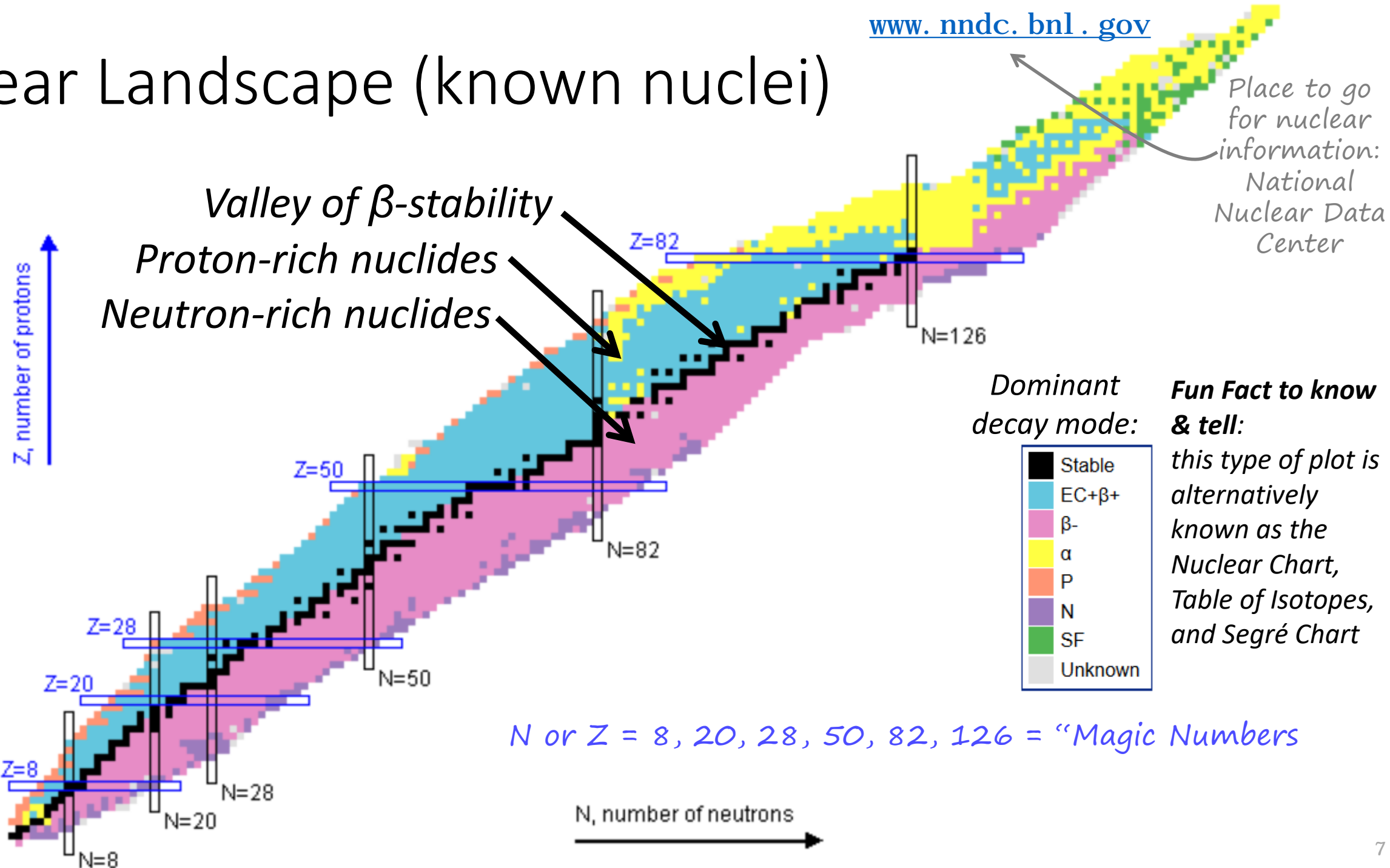
AND (4) THE WEAK FORCE. IT [MUMBLE MUMBLE] RADIOACTIVE DECAY [MUMBLE MUMBLE]

THAT'S NOT A SENTENCE. YOU JUST SAID 'RADIO-

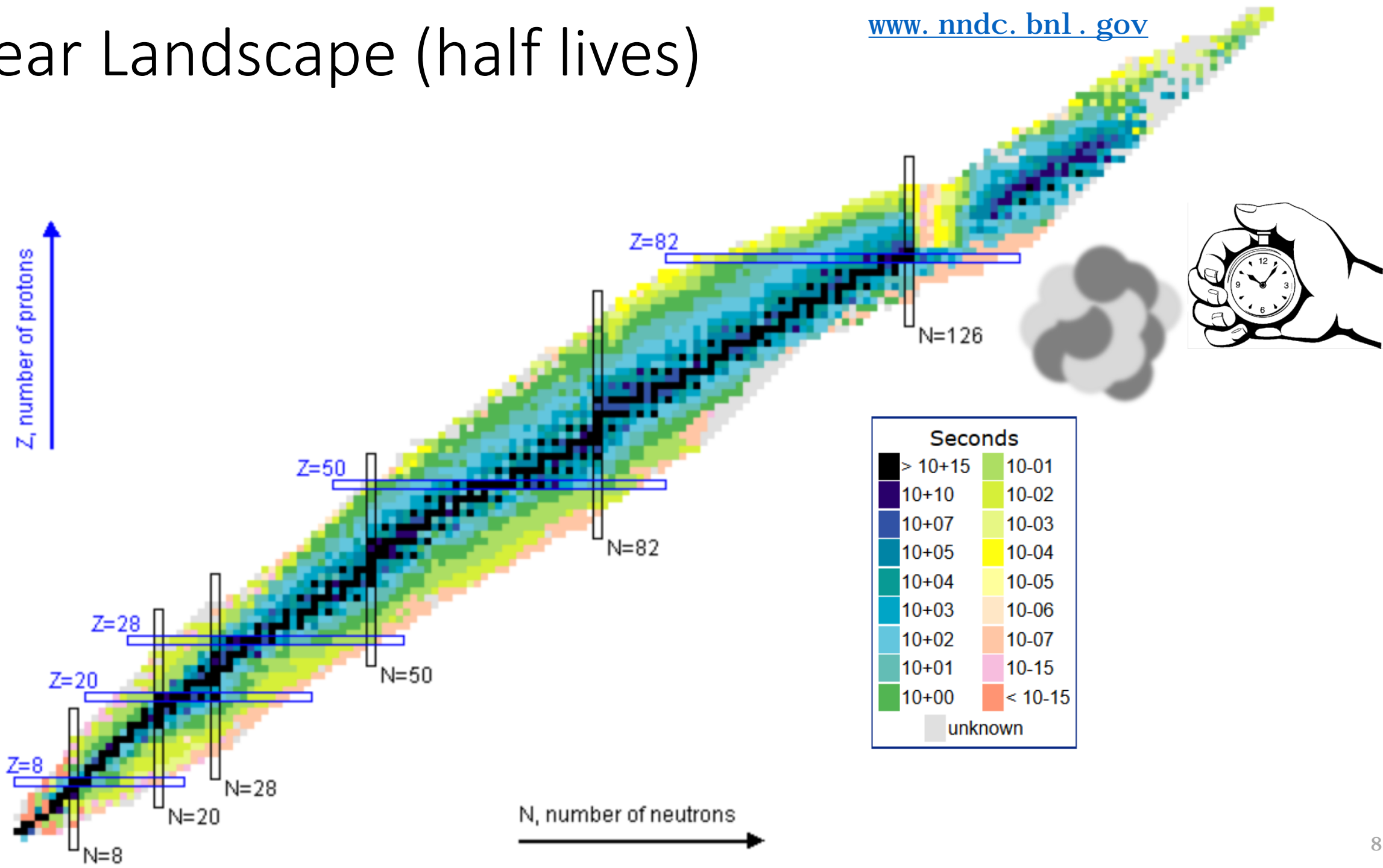
-AND THOSE ARE THE FOUR FUNDAMENTAL FORCES!



# Nuclear Landscape (known nuclei)

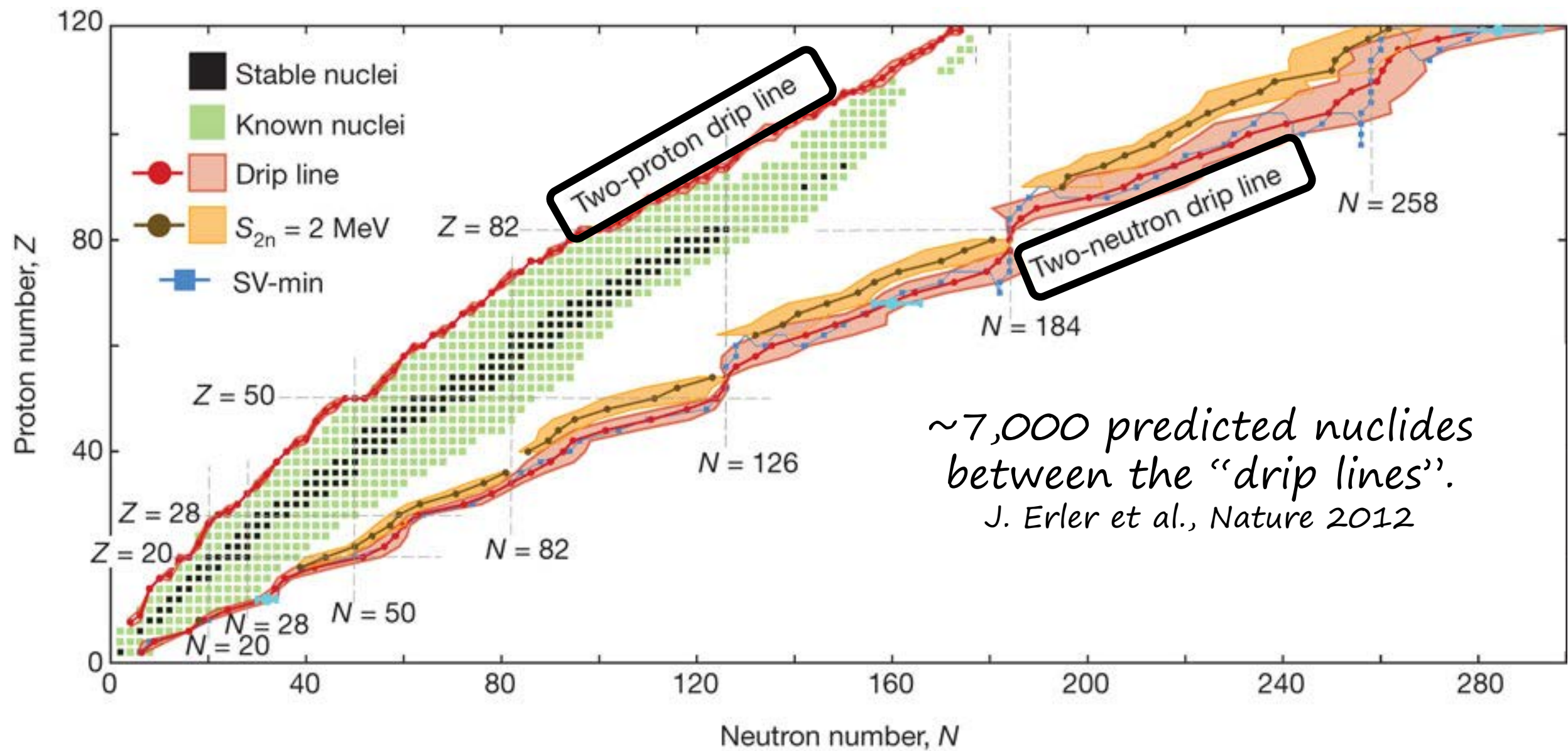


# Nuclear Landscape (half lives)



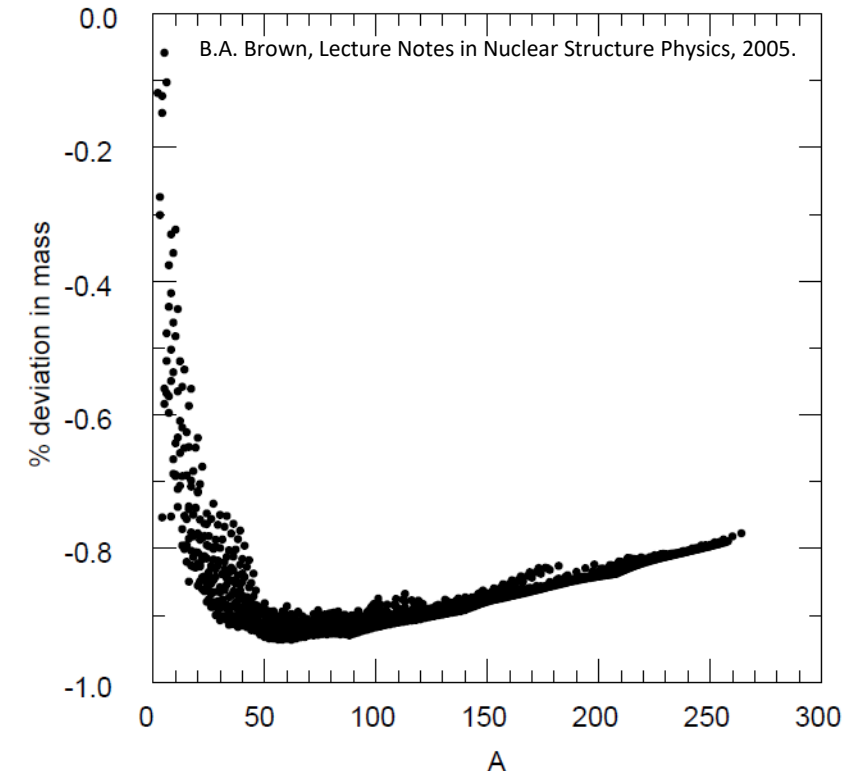


# Nuclear Landscape (predicted nuclei)



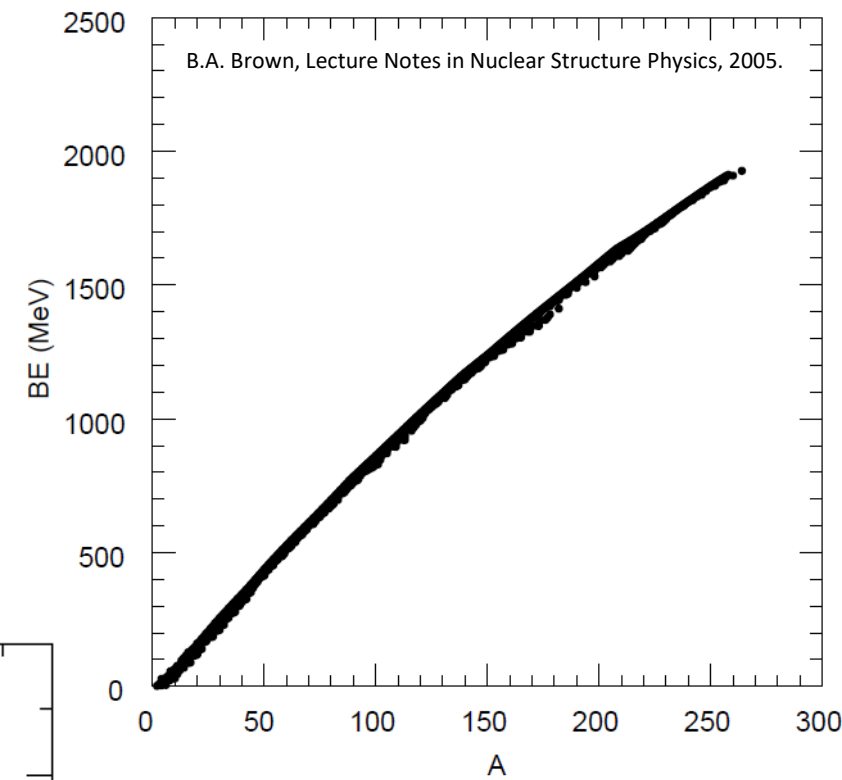
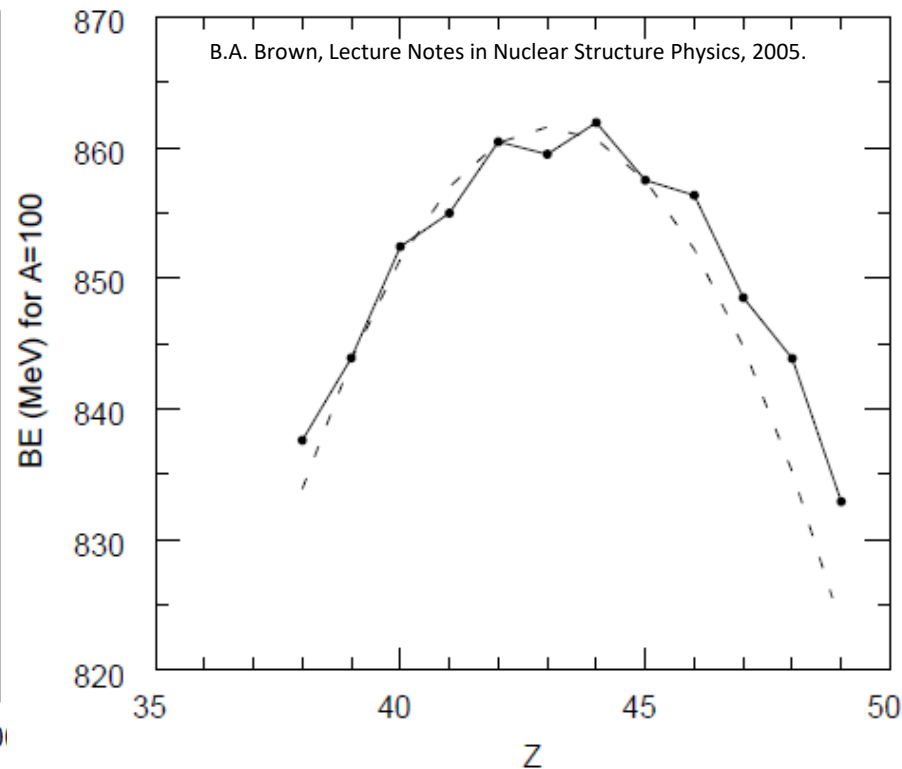
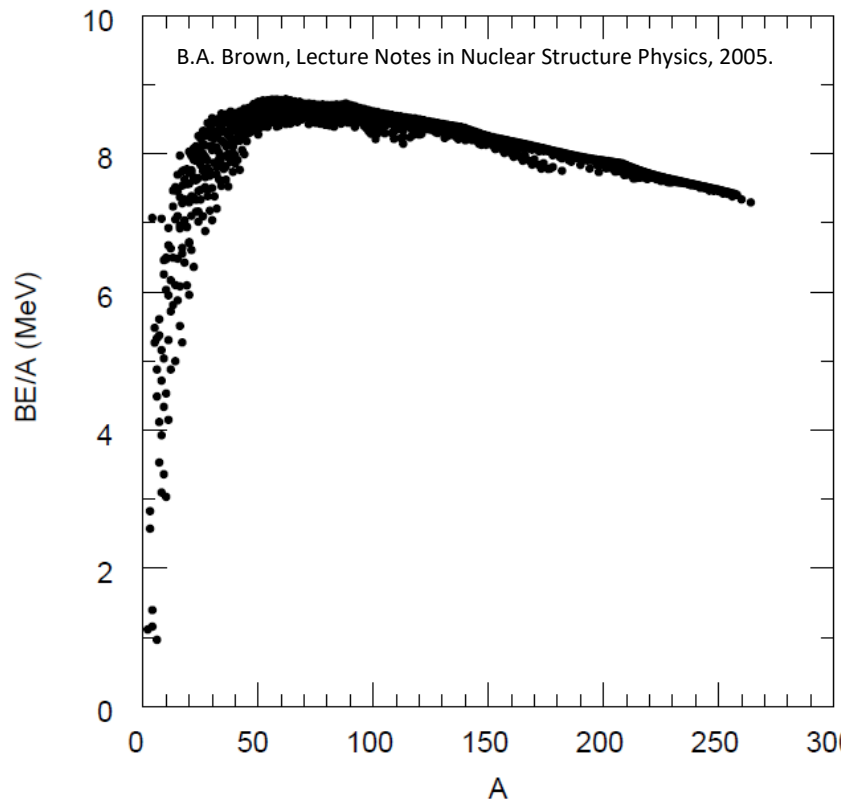
# Nuclear Binding Energy

- Early mass spectrometry showed that nuclear masses are (nearly) integer multiples of the hydrogen atom mass. (Coined the “whole number rule” (F. Aston, Nature 1919))
- However, high-precision work showed deviations on the sub-% level (F. Aston Nature 1924)
- This deviation is known as the “mass defect”, whereby the nuclear mass is a bit less than the sum of the constituent nucleon masses:
- Which is of course a result of Einstein’s postulate,  $E=mc^2$
- Nucleons within a nucleus are bound together, and this binding requires energy.
- The binding energy, BE, is paid-for via reduced mass.
- Indeed, the lower-energy state of a nucleus is the only reason nucleons cluster together at all.



# Nuclear Binding Energy

- The binding energy increases nearly linearly with  $A$ :
- It's not a surprise that more nucleons would lead to more binding, since nucleons will be prone to attraction via the strong force.
- As such, a more interesting quantity is  $BE/A$



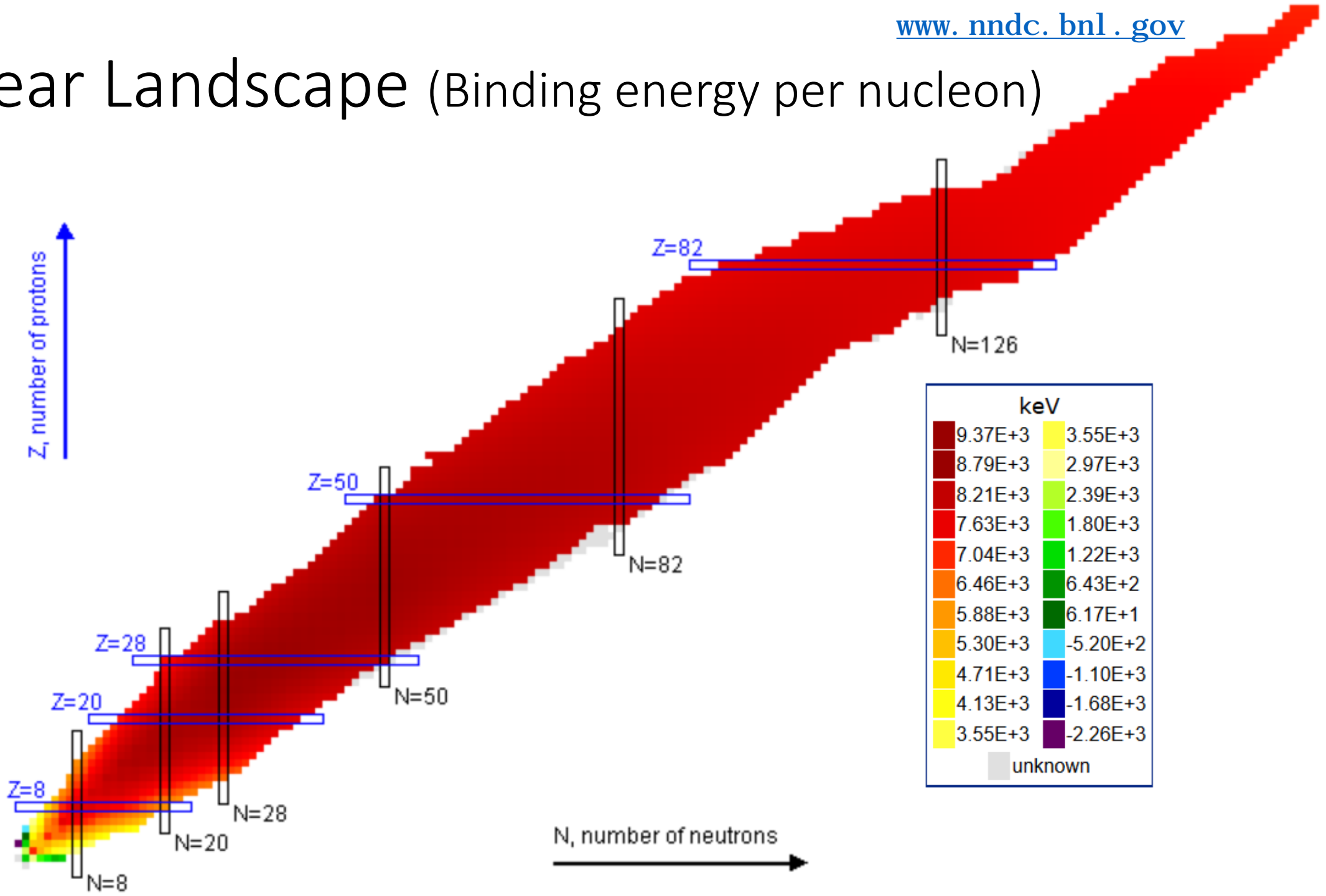
What are the key features you notice on the two left plots?

What do they imply about

- stability to decay?
- fusion?

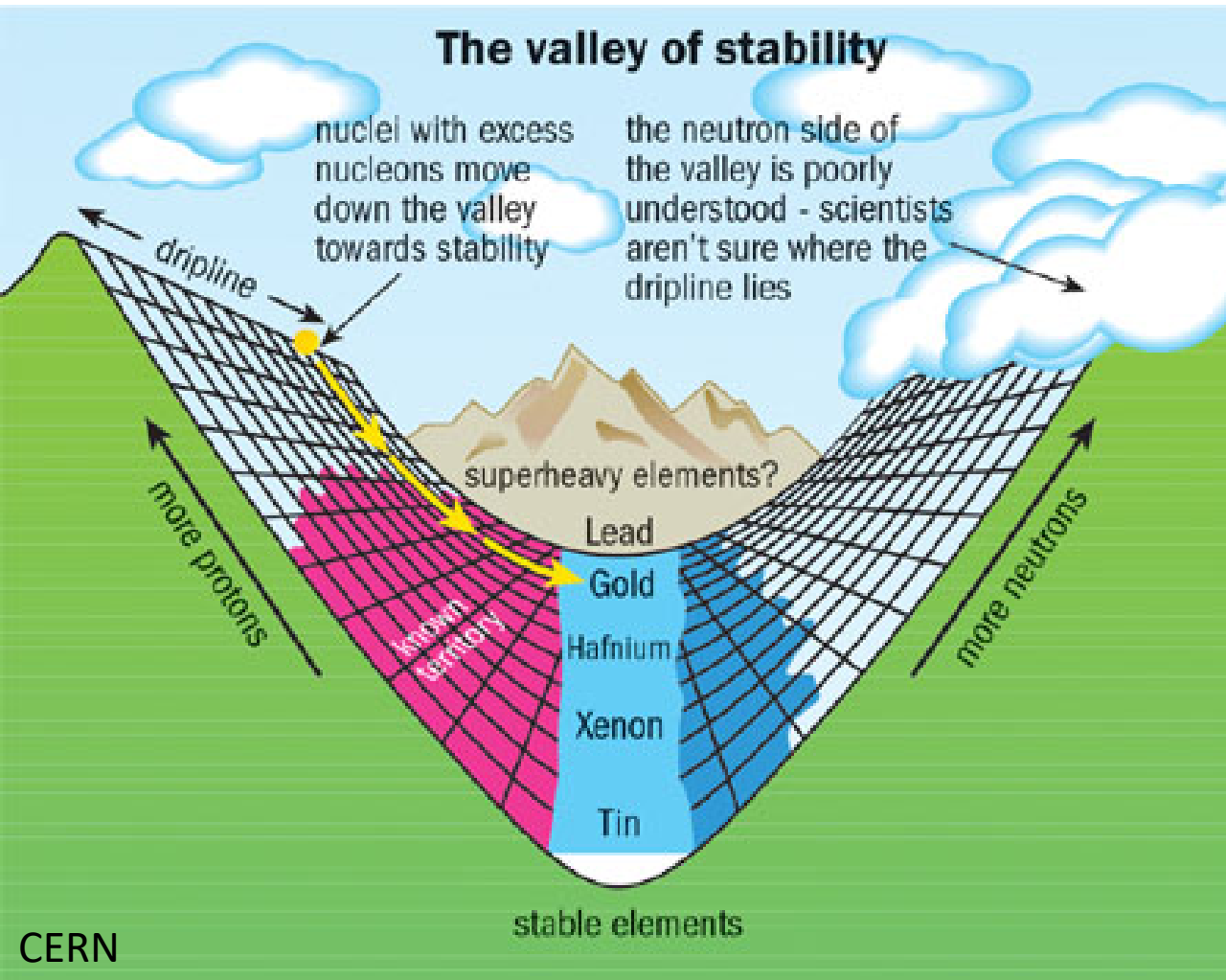
Why do nuclei other than the peak  $BE/A$  form at all?

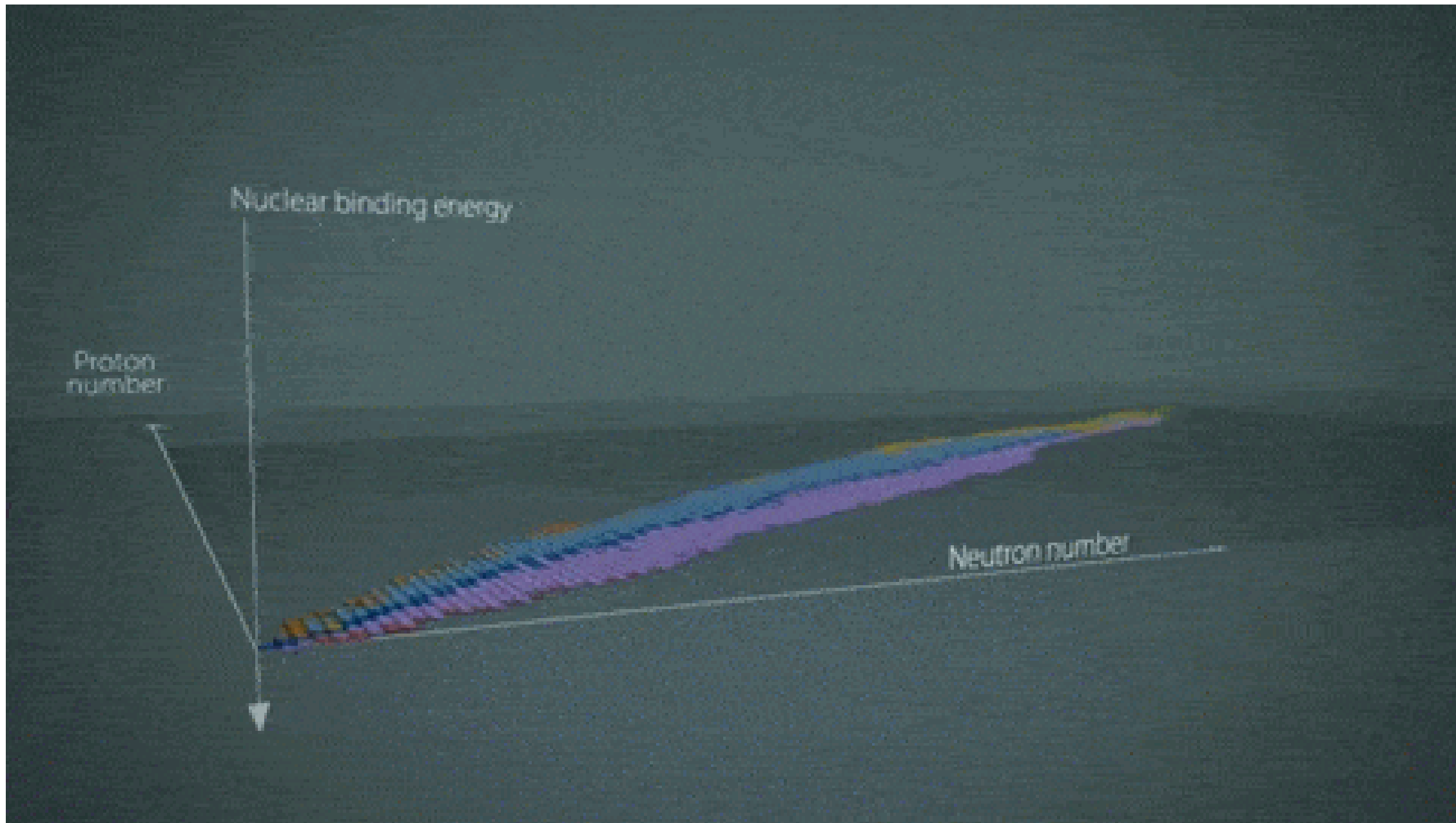
# Nuclear Landscape (Binding energy per nucleon)





# Binding Energy per nucleon: sort of a valley or half-pipe





F. Legrand & F. Durillon, [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UTOp\\_2ZVZmM](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UTOp_2ZVZmM)

# Aside on nuclear masses, atomic mass excess

- Rather than binding energy, “atomic mass excess” is more commonly used.
- The conversion can be accomplished with the following equations:

1.  $BE(Z,A) \equiv Z*(m_p + m_e) + N*m_n - M(Z,N)$

2.  $ME(Z,A) \equiv M(Z,N) - (Z+N)*m_u$

here  $M(Z,N)$  is the mass of a nucleus with  $Z$  protons and  $N$  neutrons,

$m_p = 938.272000 \text{ MeV}/c^2$  is the proton mass

$m_e = 0.51100 \text{ MeV}/c^2$  is the electron mass

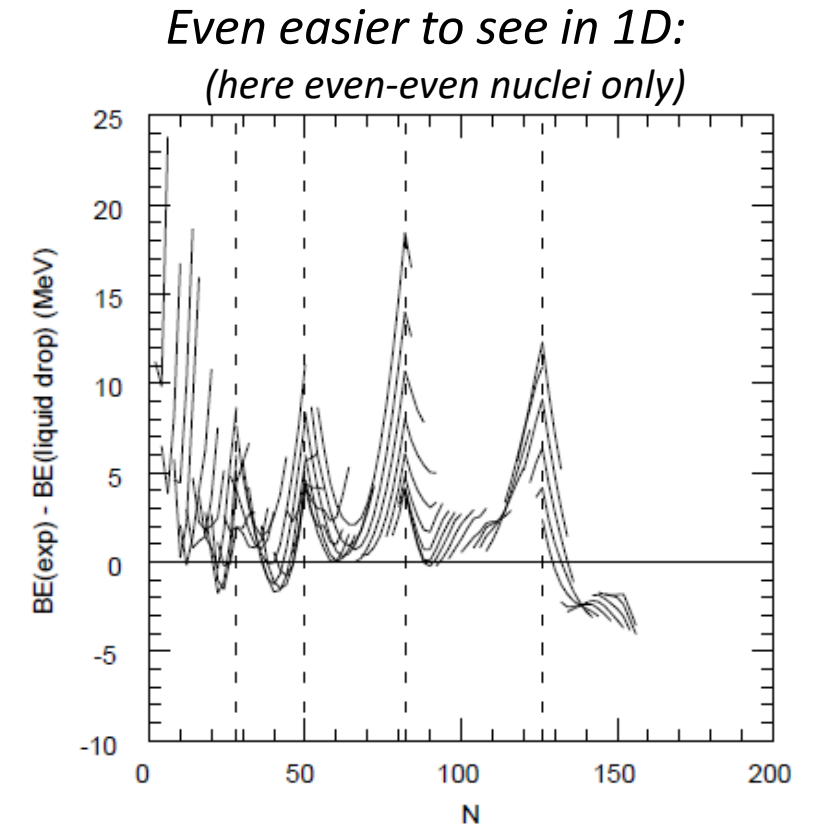
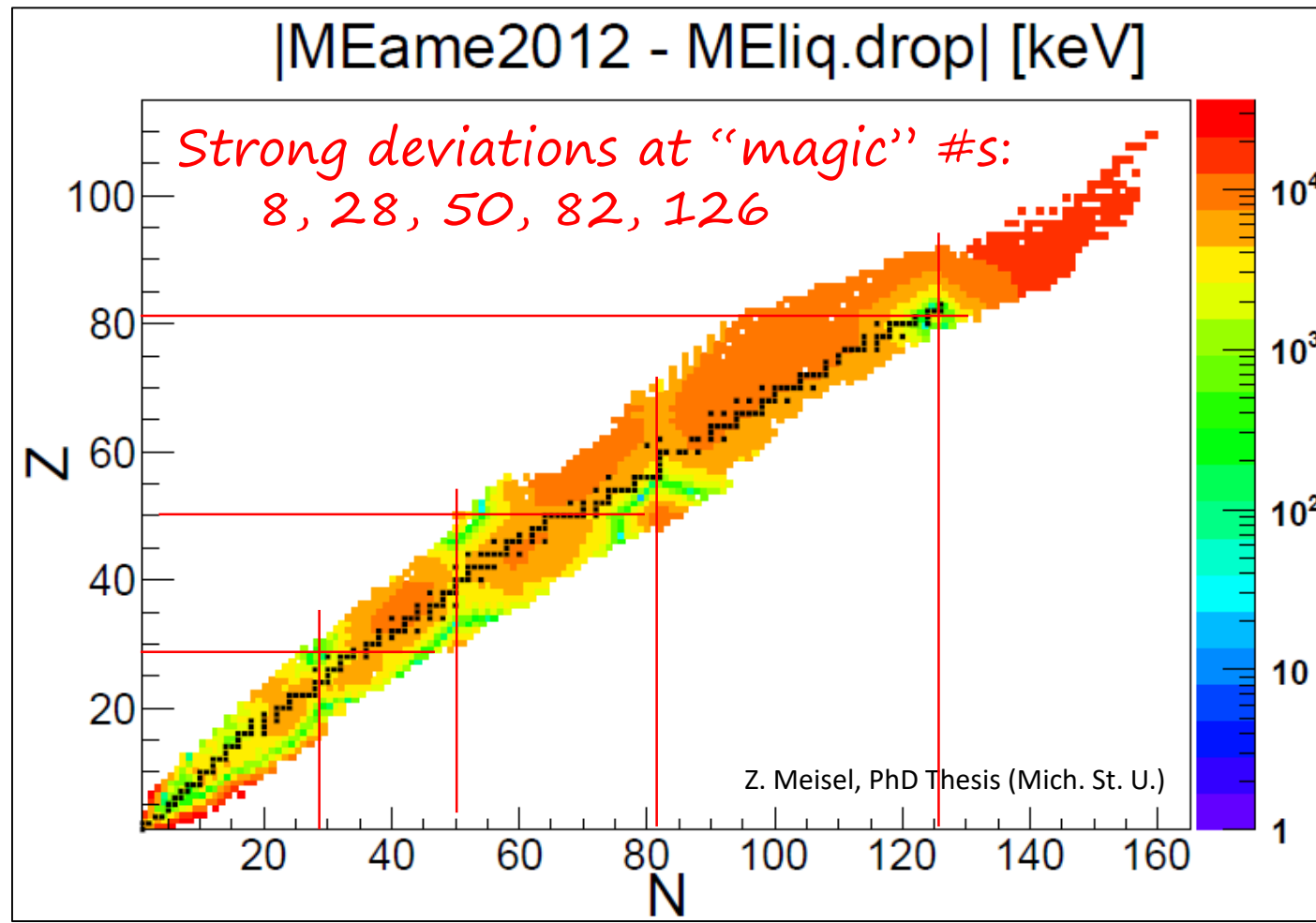
$m_n = 939.56533 \text{ MeV}/c^2$  is the neutron mass

$m_u = 931.494013 \text{ MeV}/c^2$  is the atomic mass unit

- Periodic evaluations are released for all known atomic masses, evaluated from a variety of experimental data by a group of noble souls. This is referred to as the “Atomic Mass Evaluation” or “AME”. The latest is from 2016 ([M. Wang et al. Ch. Phys. C 2017](#))

# Binding Energy & Magic Numbers

- Binding energy per nucleon looks like a pretty smooth surface, what happens if we fit a smooth function to it & plot the residual? (we'll worry about what this smooth function is next time)

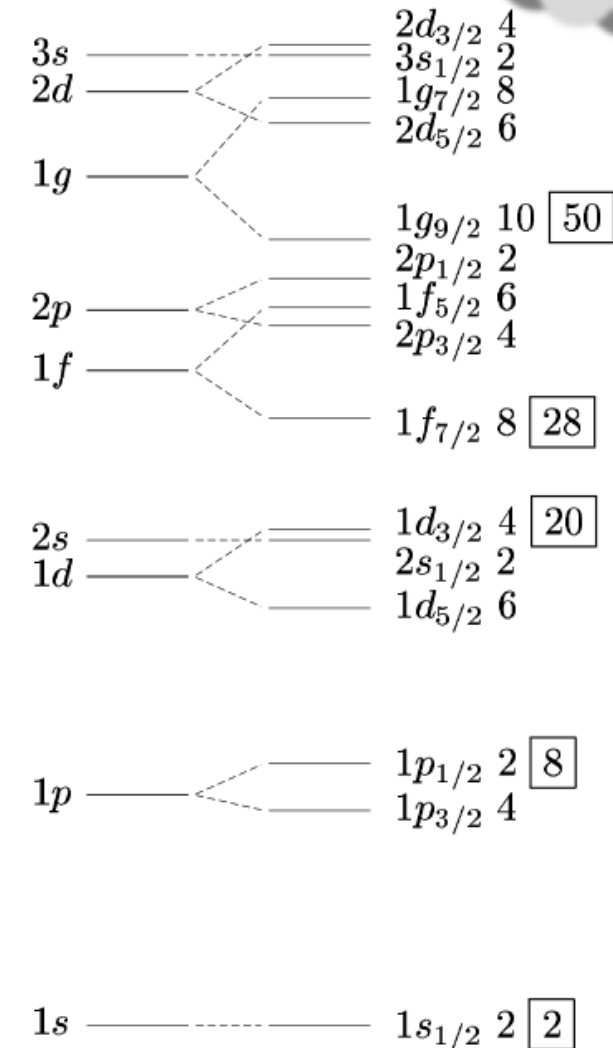




# Magic Numbers and Nuclear Structure

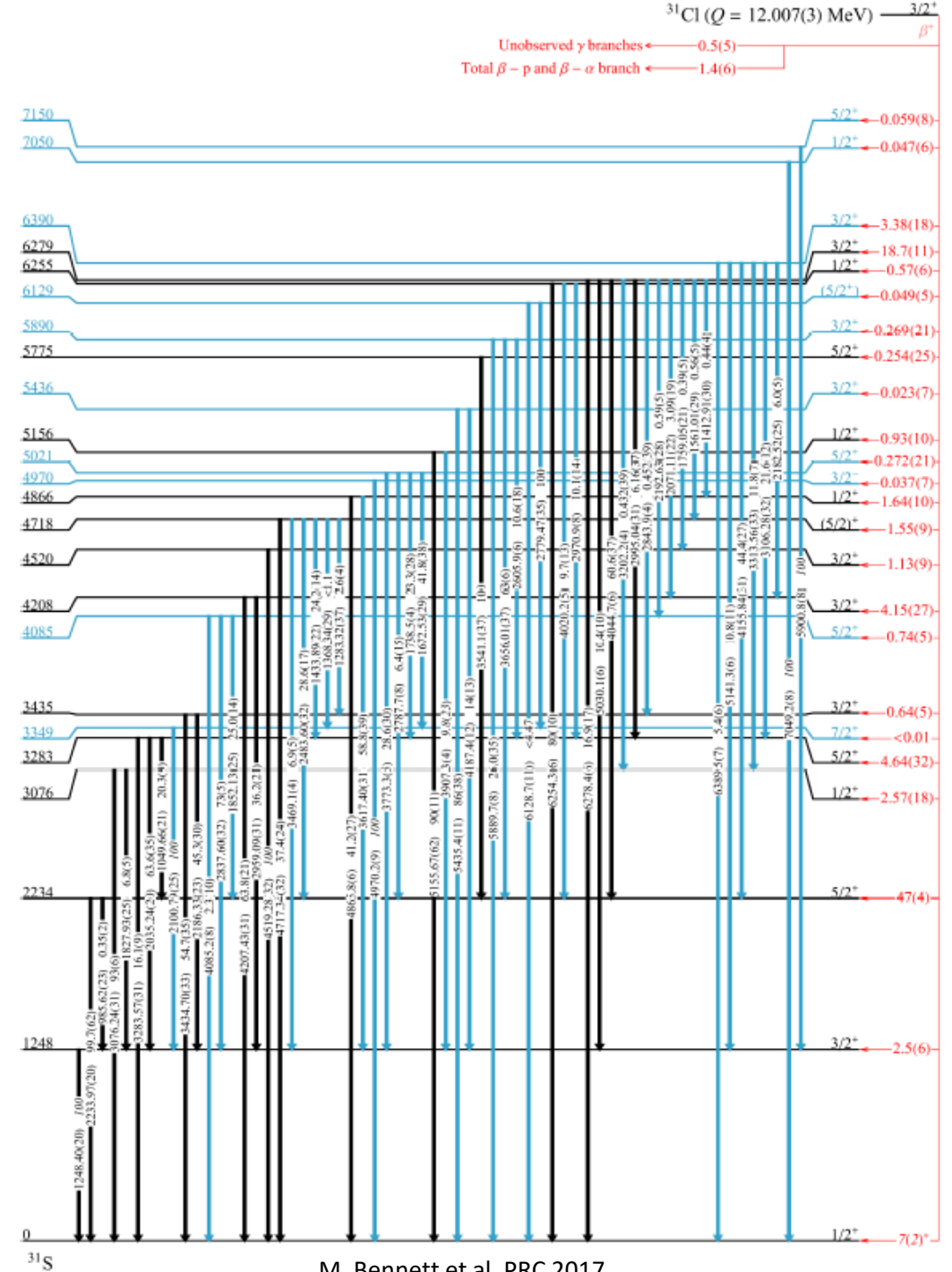


- Nucleons can only be combined in discrete configurations, signified as a “state”
- The lowest-energy state is the “ground state”.
- A nucleus populated in a higher-lying state, an “excited state”, will often  $\gamma$ -decay to de-excite to the ground state (though it may decay to a state of another nucleus).
- In the shell model (which we’ll get to in later weeks), the properties of a state are calculated by considering neutrons and protons filling orbitals, like electrons for an atom.
- These are called single-particle levels:
- Note the gaps at the magic numbers.  
(We’ll talk about how those come to be later)
- Exciting nucleons (or pairs) into other levels gives rise to excited states.



# Nuclear Excited States

- The example on the right is for  $^{31}\text{S}$ , where the levels shown were populated by  $\beta$ -decay from  $^{31}\text{Cl}$
- Note that the density of levels increases with excitation energy pretty dramatically.
- The only reason it doesn't keep increasing with excitation energy here is because, as we'll learn, this particular mechanism isn't suited for populating the higher lying states.
- Properties of the states include not only the excitation energy, but also
  - Width: related to time to decay via  $\gamma$  or particle emission
  - Spin: intrinsic angular momentum
  - Parity: related to symmetry of wave function



# Timeline of Selected Major Early Developments in Nuclear Physics

- 1896: Radioactivity discovered (uranium) (H. Becquerel, Comptes Rendus)
- 1905: Mass-energy equivalence proposed (A. Einstein, Annalen der Physik)
- 1911: Nuclear model of atom proposed (E. Rutherford, Phil. Mag.)
- 1913: Mass spectrometry invented (proton discovered) (J. Thomson, Proc. Phys. Soc. London)
- 1919: Isotope existence discovered (F. Aston, Nature)
- 1920: Nuclear transmutation proposed to power the sun (A. Eddington, The Observer)
- 1928:  $\alpha$ -decay theory & barrier penetration (1<sup>st</sup> application of QM to real world problem) (G. Gamow, Z. Phys.)
- 1929: Liquid drop model of nucleus proposed (G. Gamow, Proc. Roy. Soc. A)
- 1932: Neutron discovered (J. Chadwick, Nature)
- 1932: Nuclei proposed to be interacting nucleons (based on neutron discovery) (W. Heisenberg, Z. Phys.)
- 1932: Nuclear transmutation using a particle accelerator ( ${}^7\text{Li}(p,\alpha)\alpha$ ) (J. Cockroft & E. Walton, Proc. Phys. Soc. London)
- 1934: Theory of  $\beta$  decay (rejected from Nature & caused Fermi to switch to nuclear experiment) (E. Fermi, Z. Phys.)
- 1935: Semi-empirical mass formula developed (based on liquid drop) (C. Weizsäcker, Z. Phys)
- 1936: Fusion theory (based on liquid drop) (N. Bohr, Nature)
- 1937: Fission proposed (based on liquid drop) (N. Bohr & J. Wheeler, Science)
- 1939: Fission measured (O. Hahn & F. Strassmann, Die Naturwissenschaften)
- 1939: Fission theory (L. Meitner & O. Frisch, Nature)
- 1949: Magic number explanation (M. Goeppert-Mayer, Phys. Rev.)
- 1952: Compound nuclear reaction formalism (W. Hauser & H. Feshbach, Phys. Rev.)
- 1957: Comprehensive theory of nucleosynthesis (M. Burbidge, G. Burbidge, W. Fowler, F. Hoyle, Rev Mod Phys.)
- 1957: Parity violation discovered (C. Wu et al., Phys. Rev)

# Further Reading

- Chapters 1 & 2: Modern Nuclear Chemistry (Loveland, Morrissey, Seaborg)
- Chapters 1 & 2: Nuclear & Particle Physics (B.R. Martin)
- Chapter 1: [Lecture Notes in Nuclear Structure Physics \(B.A. Brown\)](#)