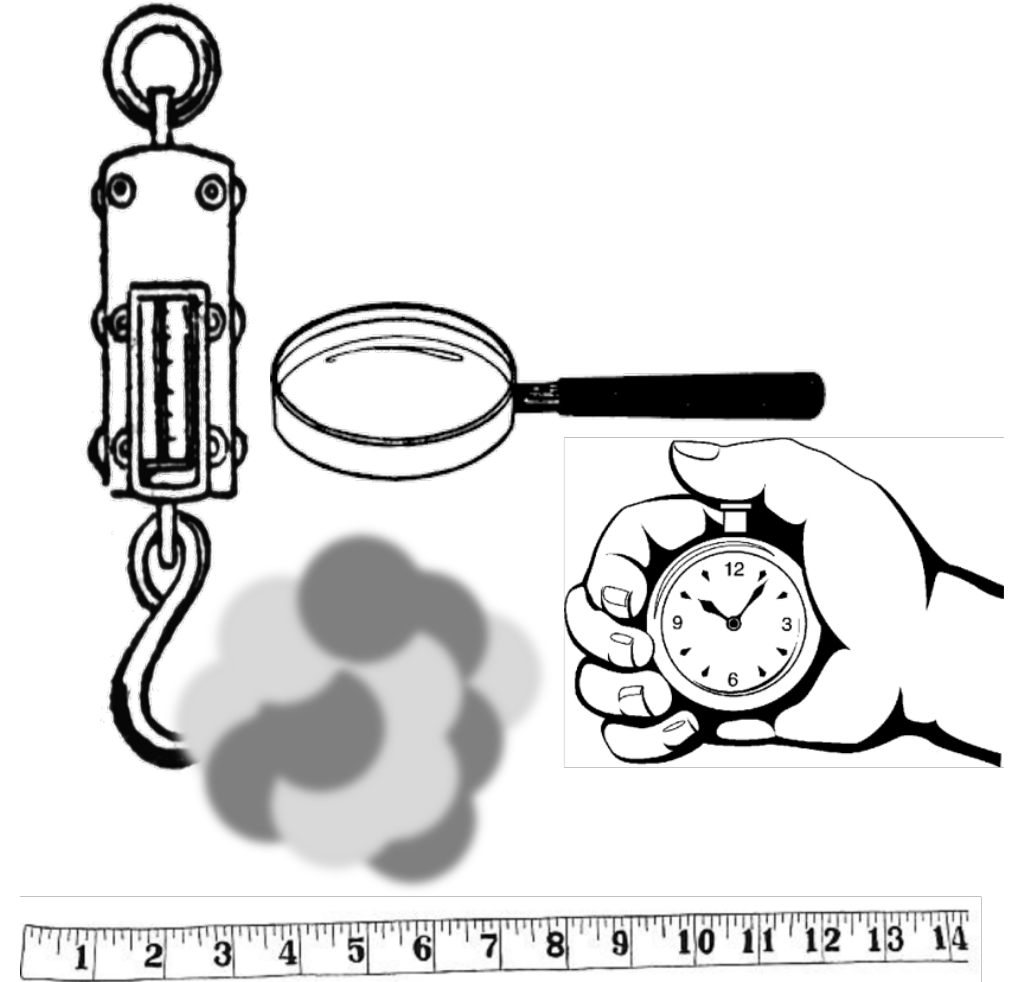


Lecture 1: *Nuclear Properties*

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



The Atomic Nucleus

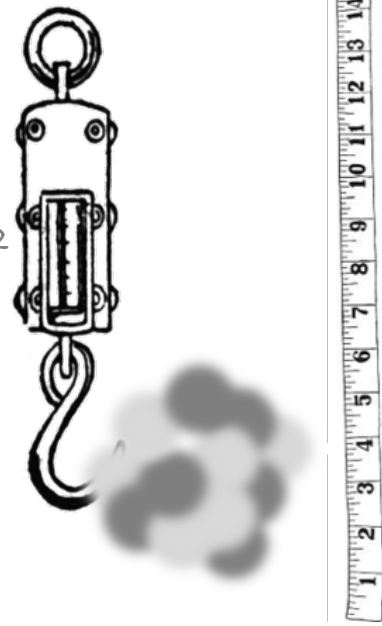


- A conglomeration of *nucleons*, a.k.a. neutrons and protons
- Convention for referring to a particular configuration, a.k.a *nuclide*
 - ${}^A_Z(\text{chemical symbol})_N$
 - A = # of nucleons, Z = # of protons, N = # of neutrons.
 - The chemical symbol is from the periodic table that corresponds to 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), ${}^4\text{He}$ = α , ${}^3\text{He}$ = helion (rarely used)

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

How big is a nucleus?

The definition of u being based on ^{12}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 _(charge) radius is roughly: $R(Z,A) = (1.2\text{fm}) \cdot A^{1/3}$
 - $\text{fm} = \text{femtometer (a.k.a. fermi)} = 10^{-15}\text{m}$
 - 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:

$$\bullet \quad n = \frac{\#}{V} = \frac{\#}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} = \frac{A}{\frac{4}{3}\pi (1.2\text{fm})^3 A} \approx 0.14 \text{ nucleons}/\text{fm}^3$$

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

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

Since A cancels in the ρ 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

The first nuclear reaction intentionally made in the laboratory was $^{14}\text{N}(\alpha, p)$ in 1919. (E. Rutherford, Nature 1935). Though his student Blackett was the first to understand that they were seeing (α, p) and not α -capture to disintegration (P. Blackett, Proc. R. Soc. A (1925))

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

The first measured radioactive decay was α 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	∞	10^{-38}	Graviton
Weak	10^{-18}	10^{-5}	W^{\pm}, Z^0
Electromagnetic	∞	$\alpha \approx 1/137$	Photon
Strong	10^{-15}	1	Gluon, Pion

- The range comes from the uncertainty principle:

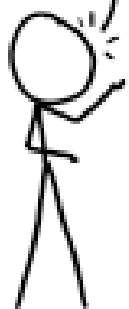
- When converting reactant(s) to product(s), energy is spent on the mass of the force carrier: $\Delta E \geq M_X c^2$
- Violating energy conservation like this is only allowed due to the uncertainty principle: $\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar/2$
- And therefore the force carrier must be reabsorbed before: $t \leq \hbar/(2\Delta E)$
- 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:

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

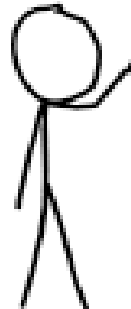


OK...

(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

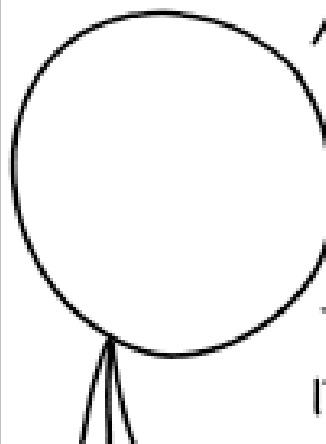


ALSO WHAT?

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

... WELL, UMM...

...IT HOLDS PROTONS AND
NEUTRONS TOGETHER.



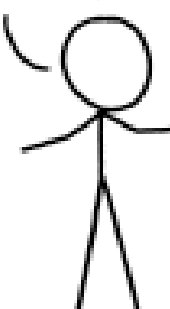
I SEE.

IT'S STRONG.

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

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

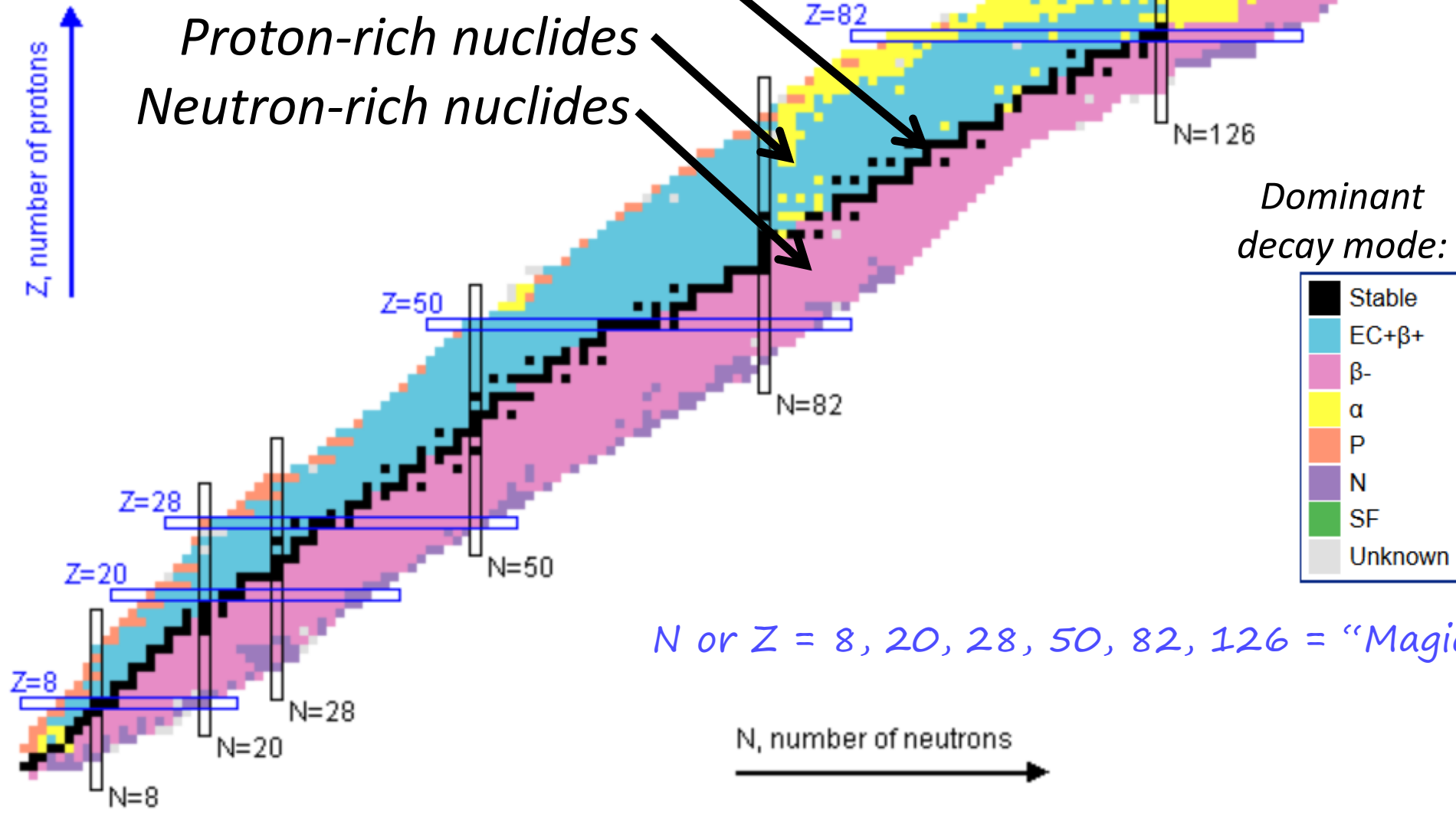
—AND THOSE ARE THE
FOUR FUNDAMENTAL
FORCES!



Nuclear Landscape (known nuclei)

www.nndc.bnl.gov

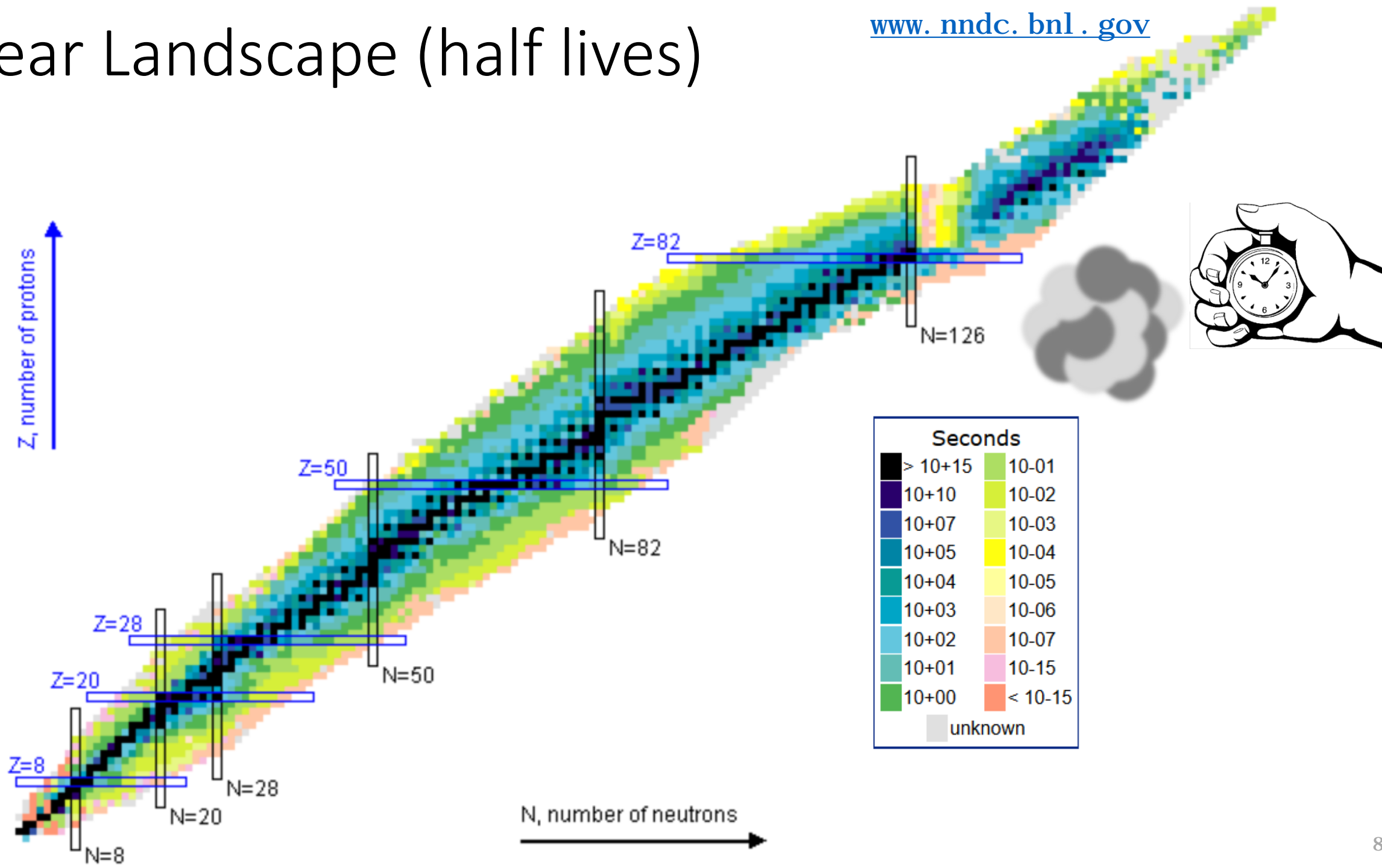
Place to go
for nuclear
information:
National
Nuclear Data
Center



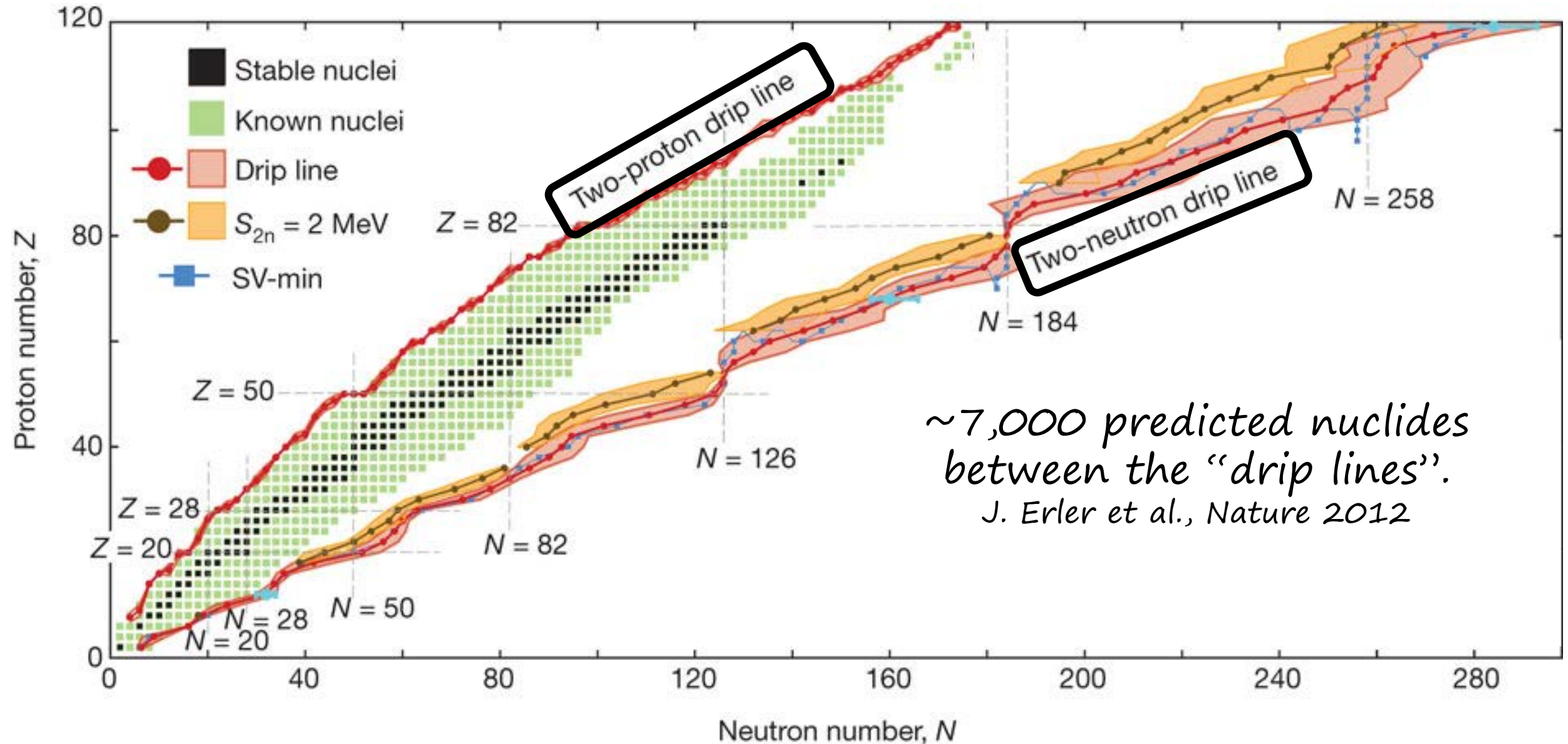
Fun Fact to know & tell:

this type of plot is
alternatively
known as the
Nuclear Chart,
Table of Isotopes,
and Segrè Plot

Nuclear Landscape (half lives)

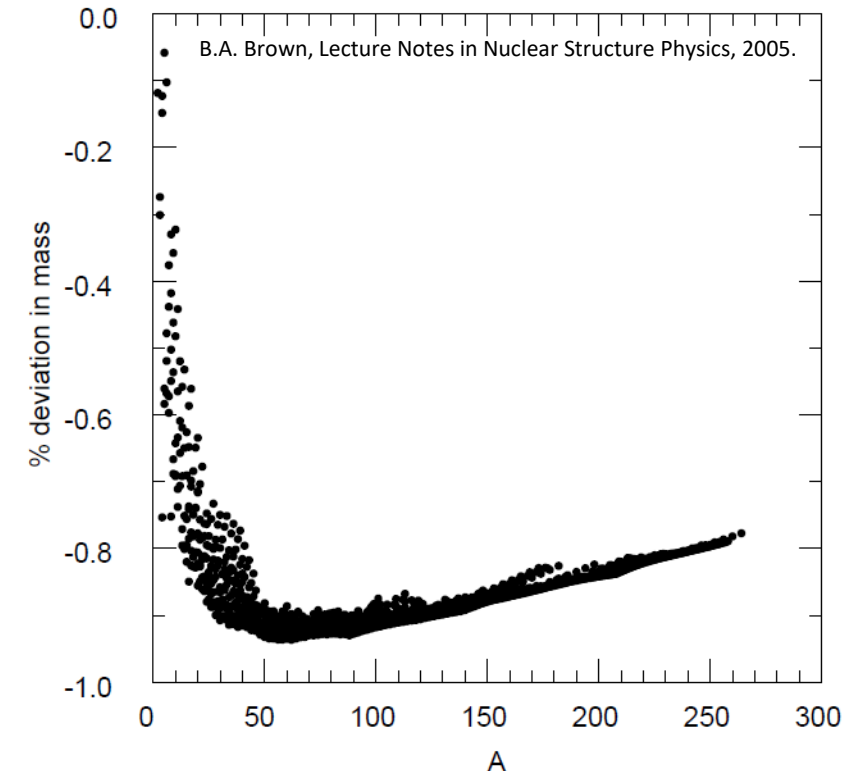


Nuclear Landscape (predicted nuclei)



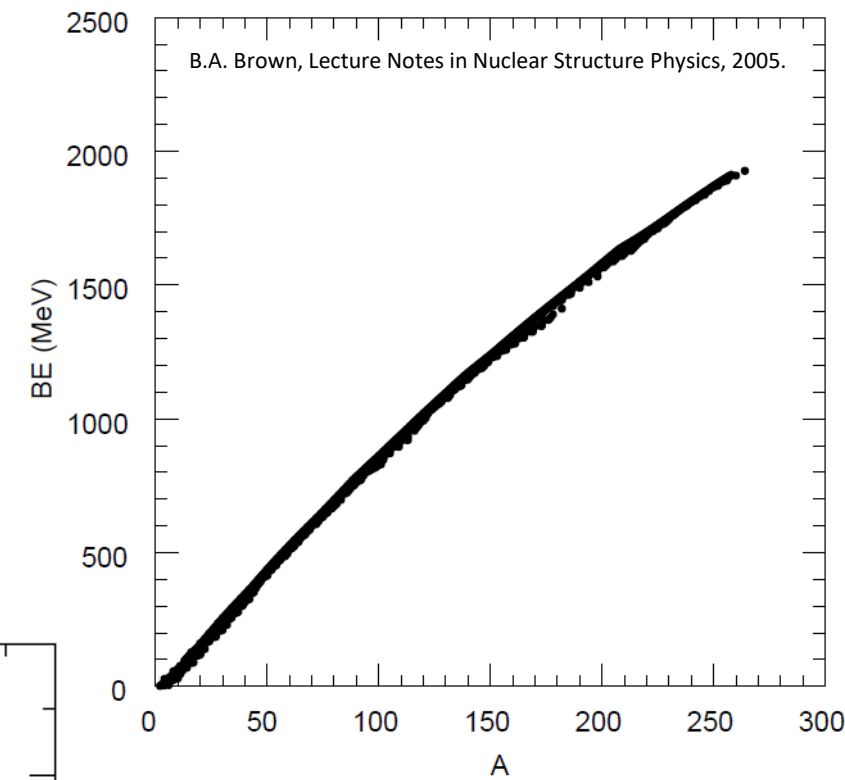
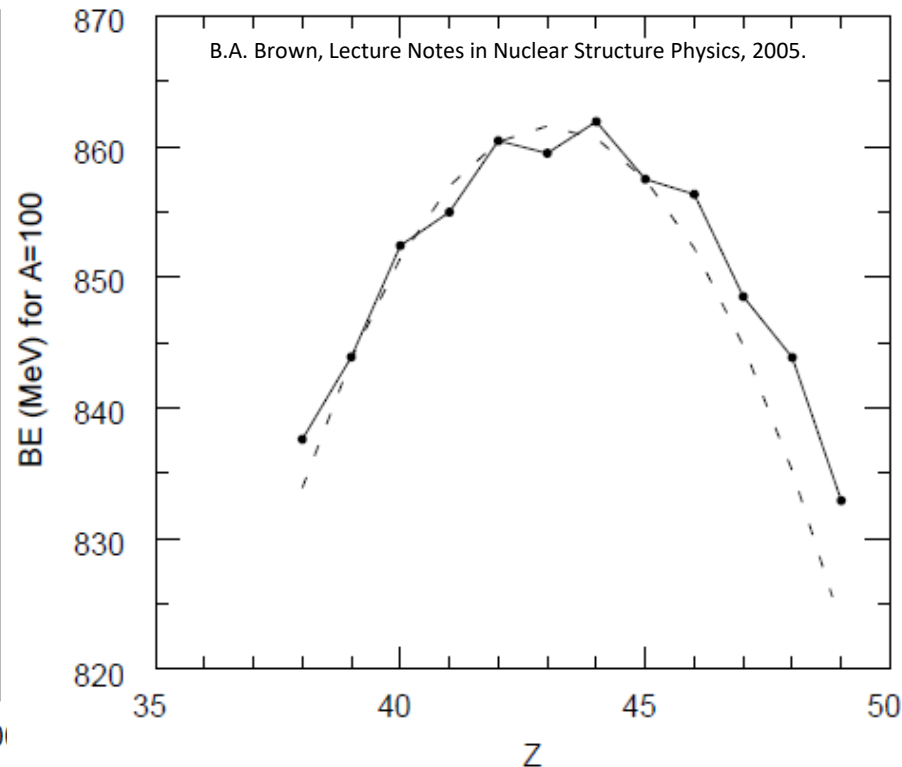
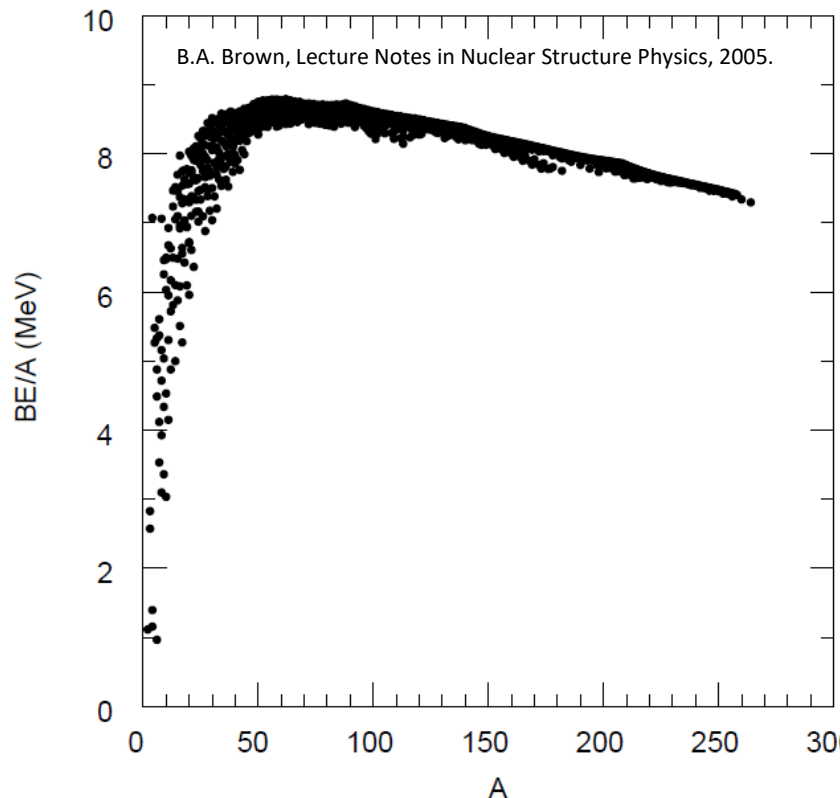
Nuclear Binding Energy

- 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



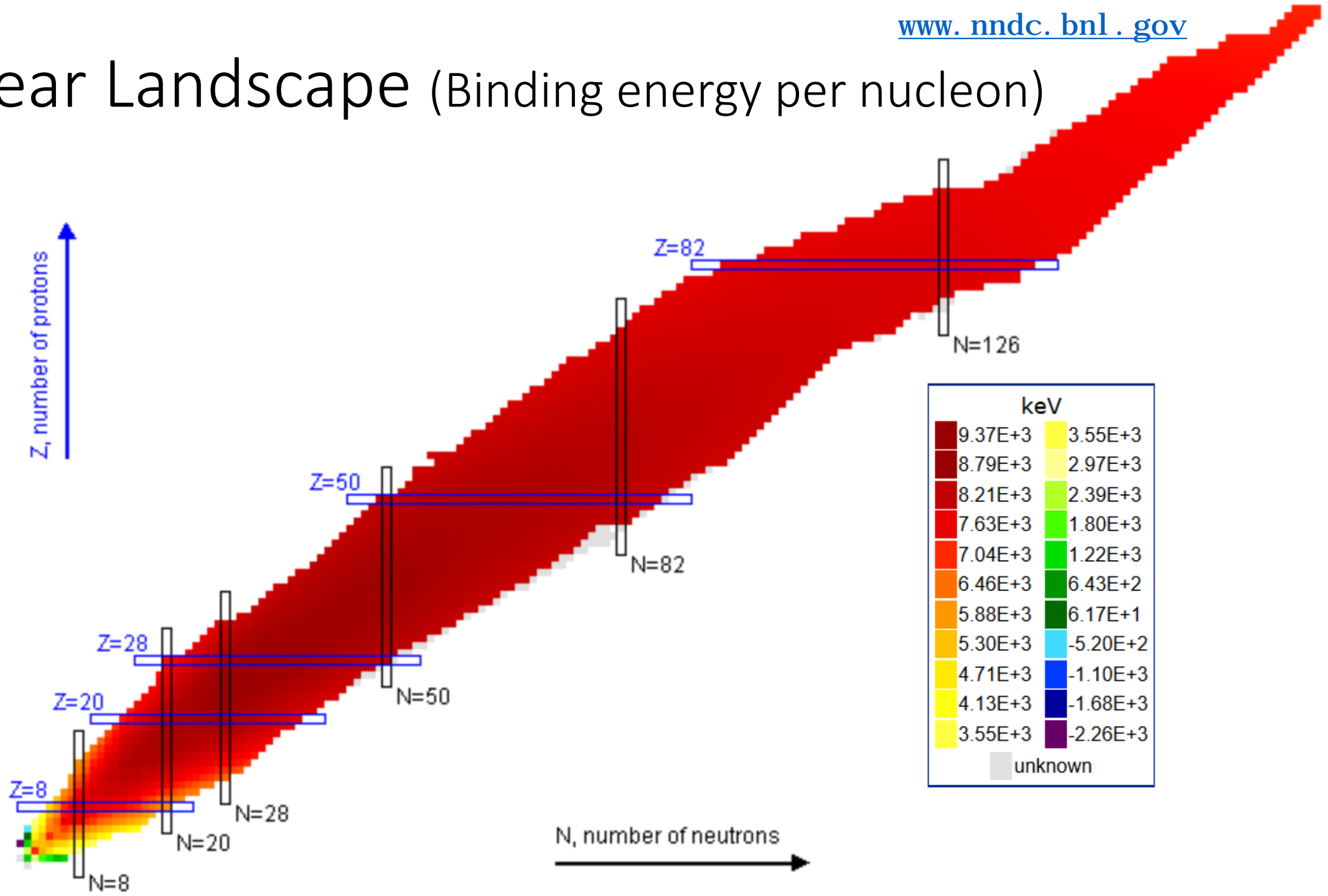
What are the key features you notice on the two left plots?

What do they imply about

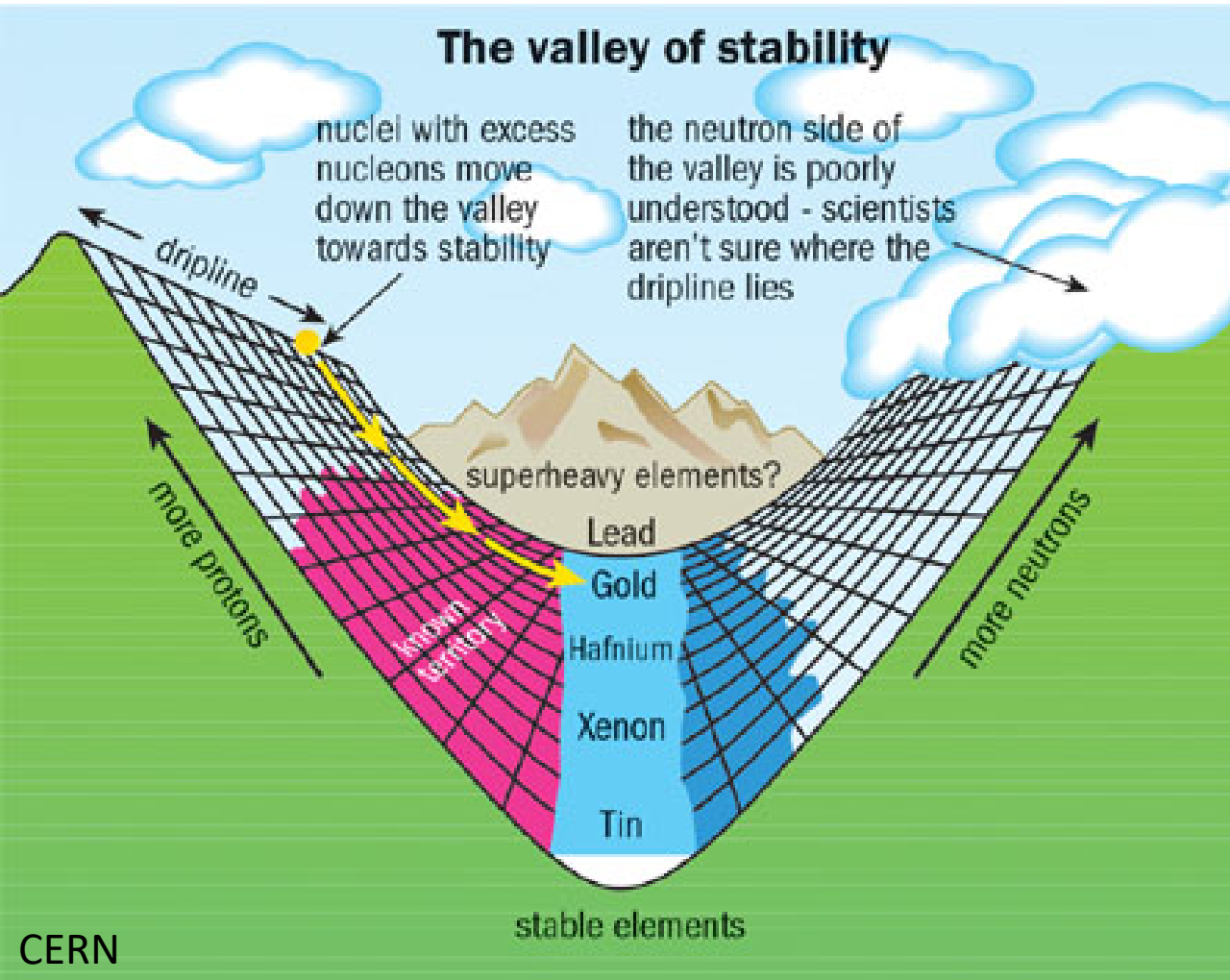
- stability to decay?
- fusion?

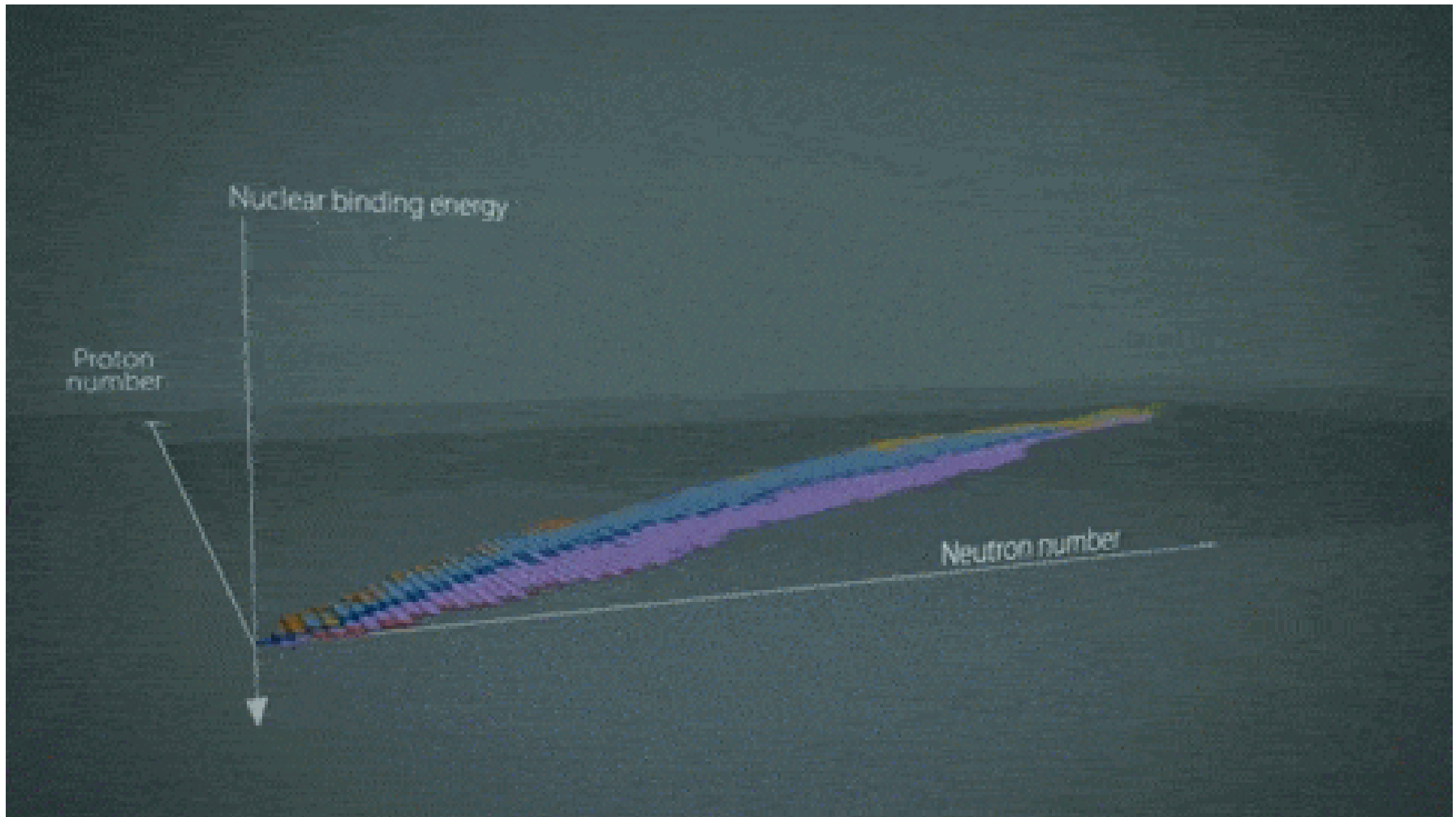
Why do nuclei other than the peak BE/A form at all?

Nuclear Landscape (Binding energy per nucleon)

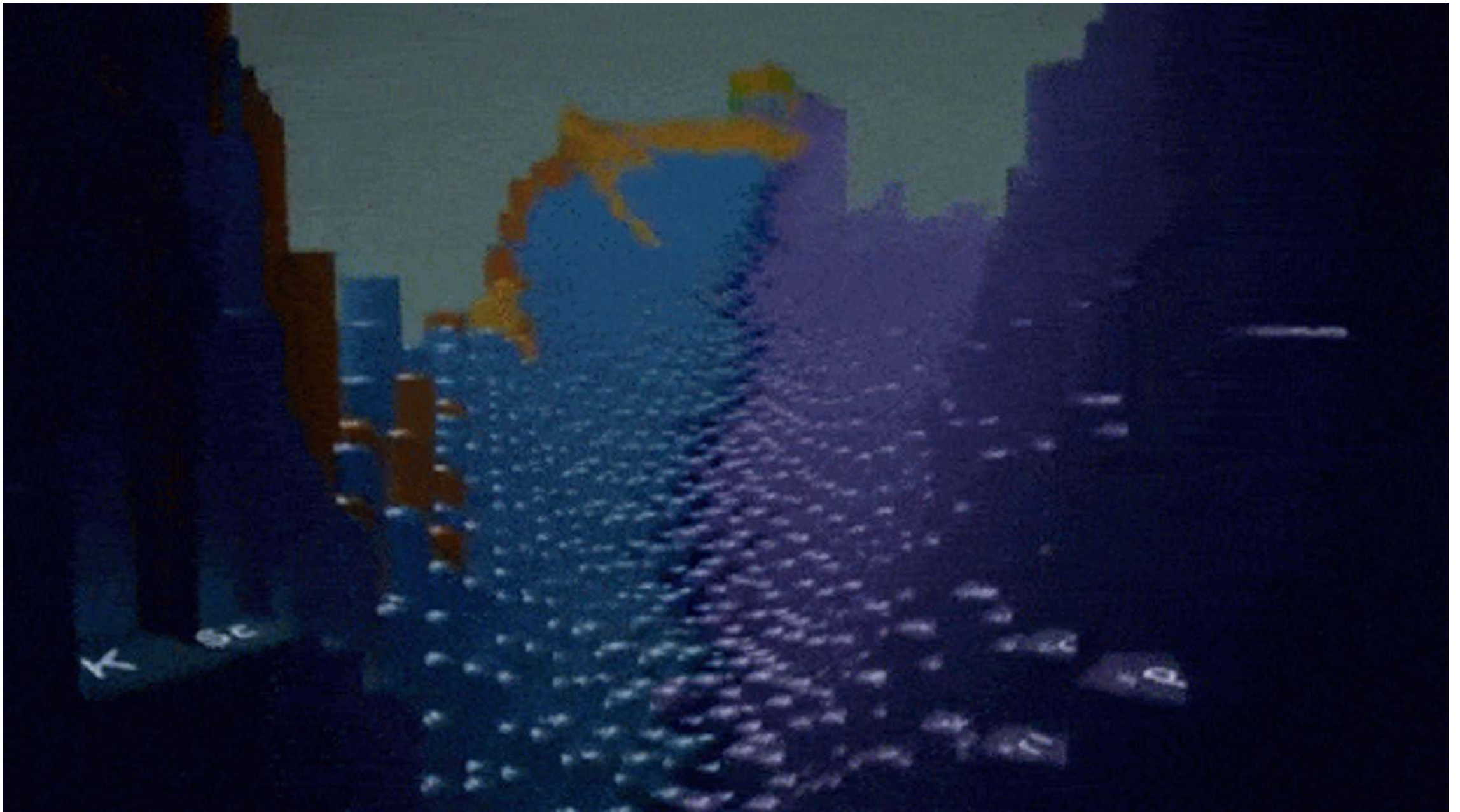


Binding Energy per nucleon: sort of a valley or half-pipe





F. Legrand & F. Durillon, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UTOp_2ZVZmM



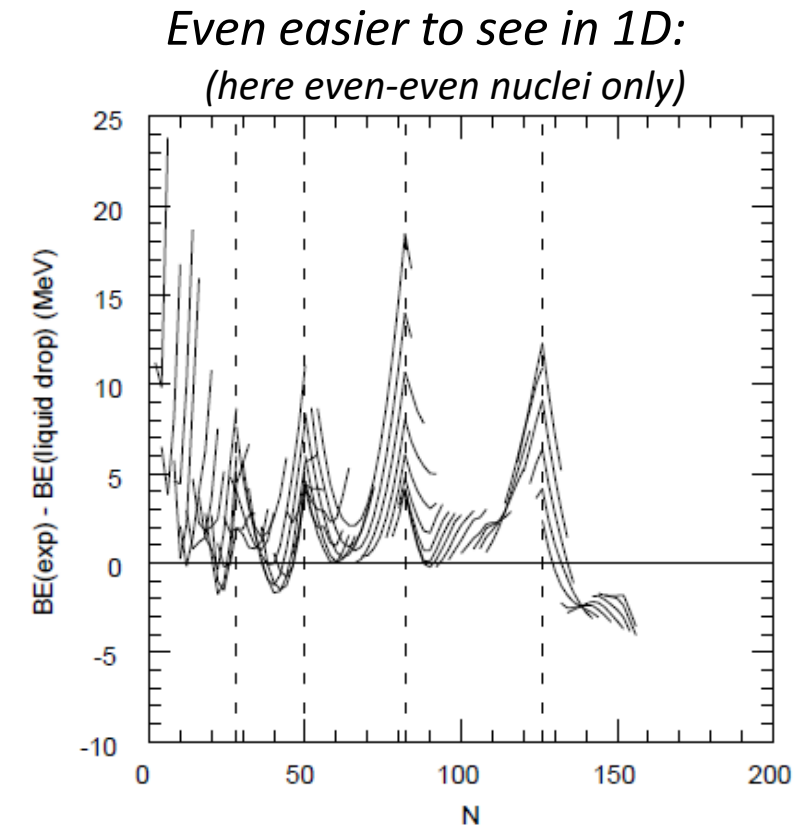
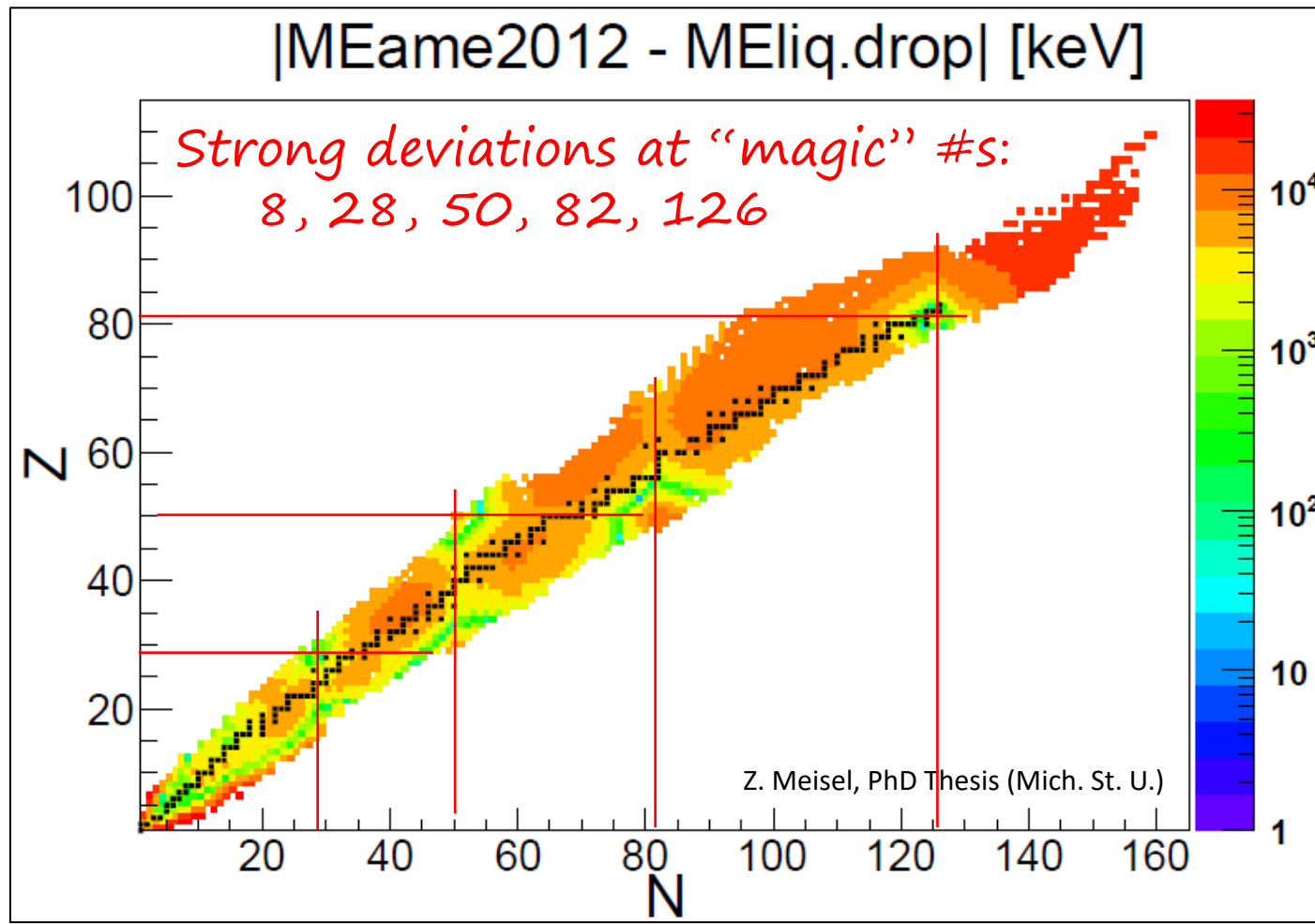
F. Legrand & F. Durillon, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UTOp_2ZVZmM

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. $ME(Z,A) \equiv M(Z,N) - (Z+N)*m_u$ *ME is is just the mass-defect with a minus sign*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 2020. ([W. J. Huang et al. Ch. Phys. C 2021](#))

Binding Energy & Magic Numbers

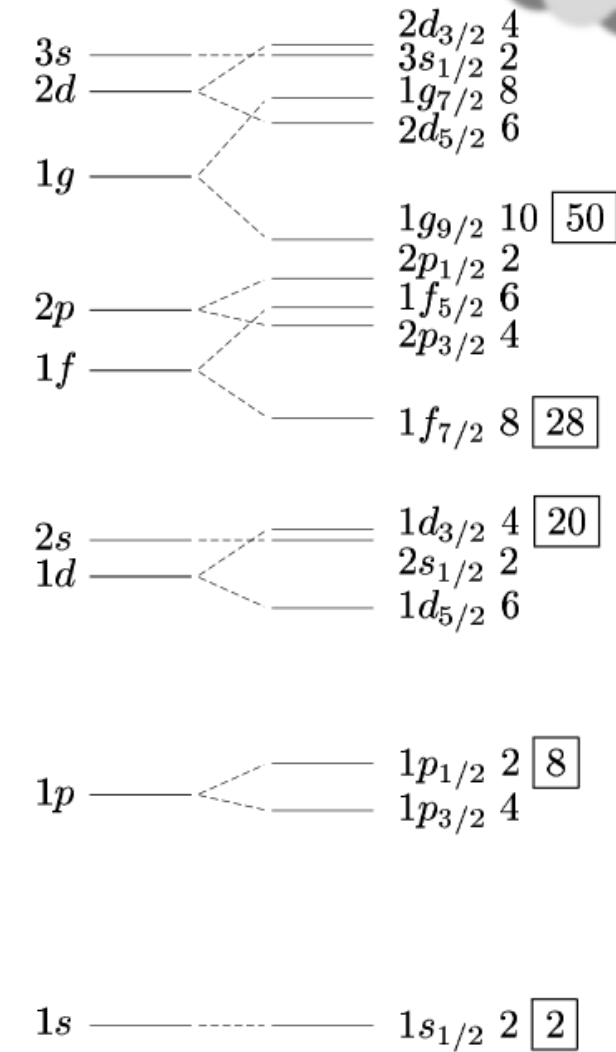
- Binding energy per nucleon looks like a pretty smooth surface, what happens if we fit a smooth function to it & plot the residual? (we'll worry about what this smooth function is next time)



Magic Numbers and Nuclear Structure

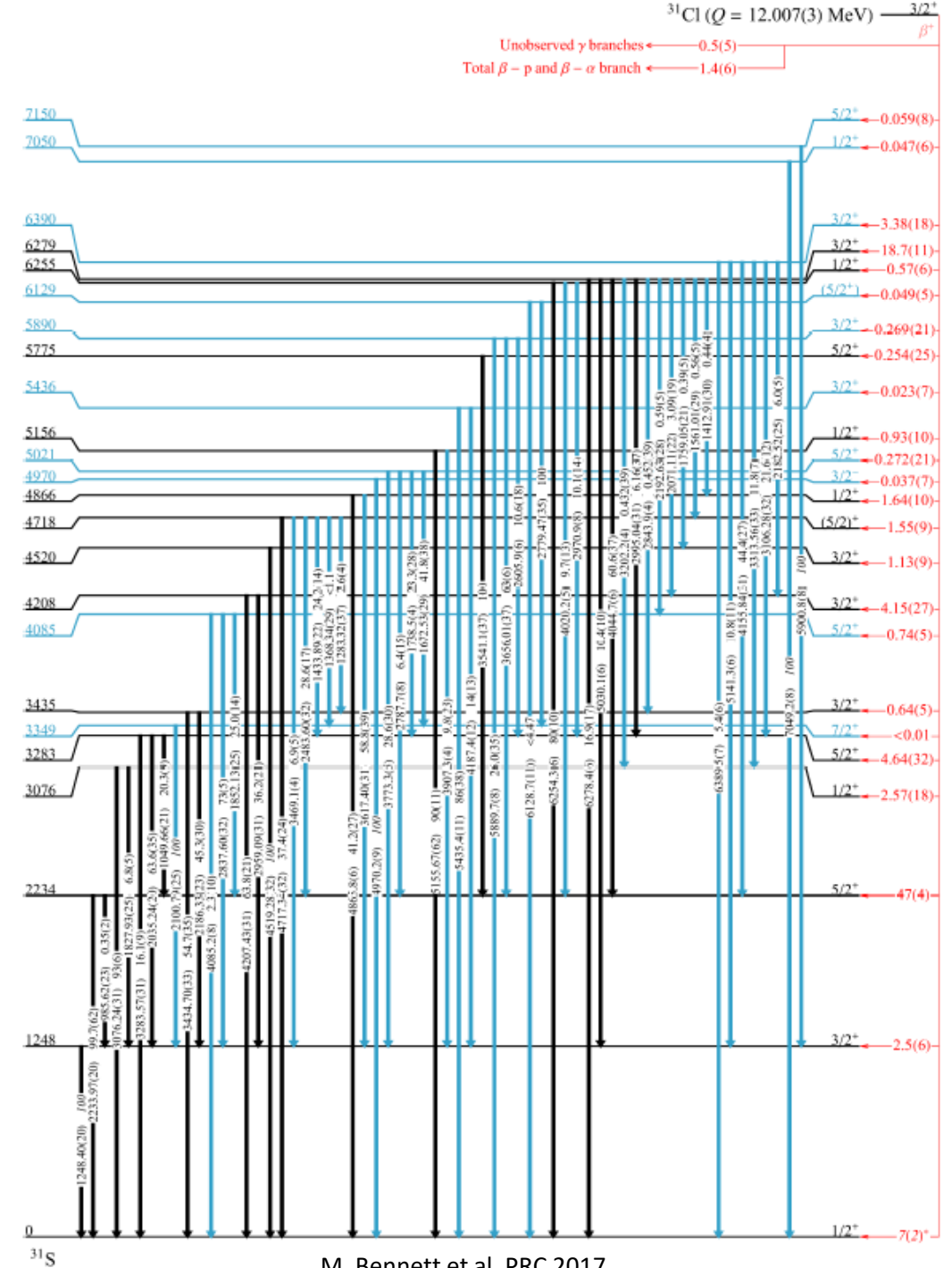


- Nucleons can only be combined in discrete configurations, signified as a “state”
- The lowest-energy state is the “ground state”.
- A nucleus populated in a higher-lying state, an “excited state”, will often γ -decay to de-excite to the ground state (though it may decay to a state of another nucleus).
- 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}S , where the levels shown were populated by β -decay from ^{31}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 γ 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: α -decay theory & barrier penetration (1st application of QM to real world problem) (G. Gamow, Z. Phys.)
- 1930: 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 β 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)
- 1939: Fission proposed (based on liquid drop) (N. Bohr & J. Wheeler, Phys. Rev.)
- 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 \(B.A. Brown\)](#)
- Chapters 1 & 2: [Handbook of Nuclear Chemistry \(free from campus VPN\)](#)