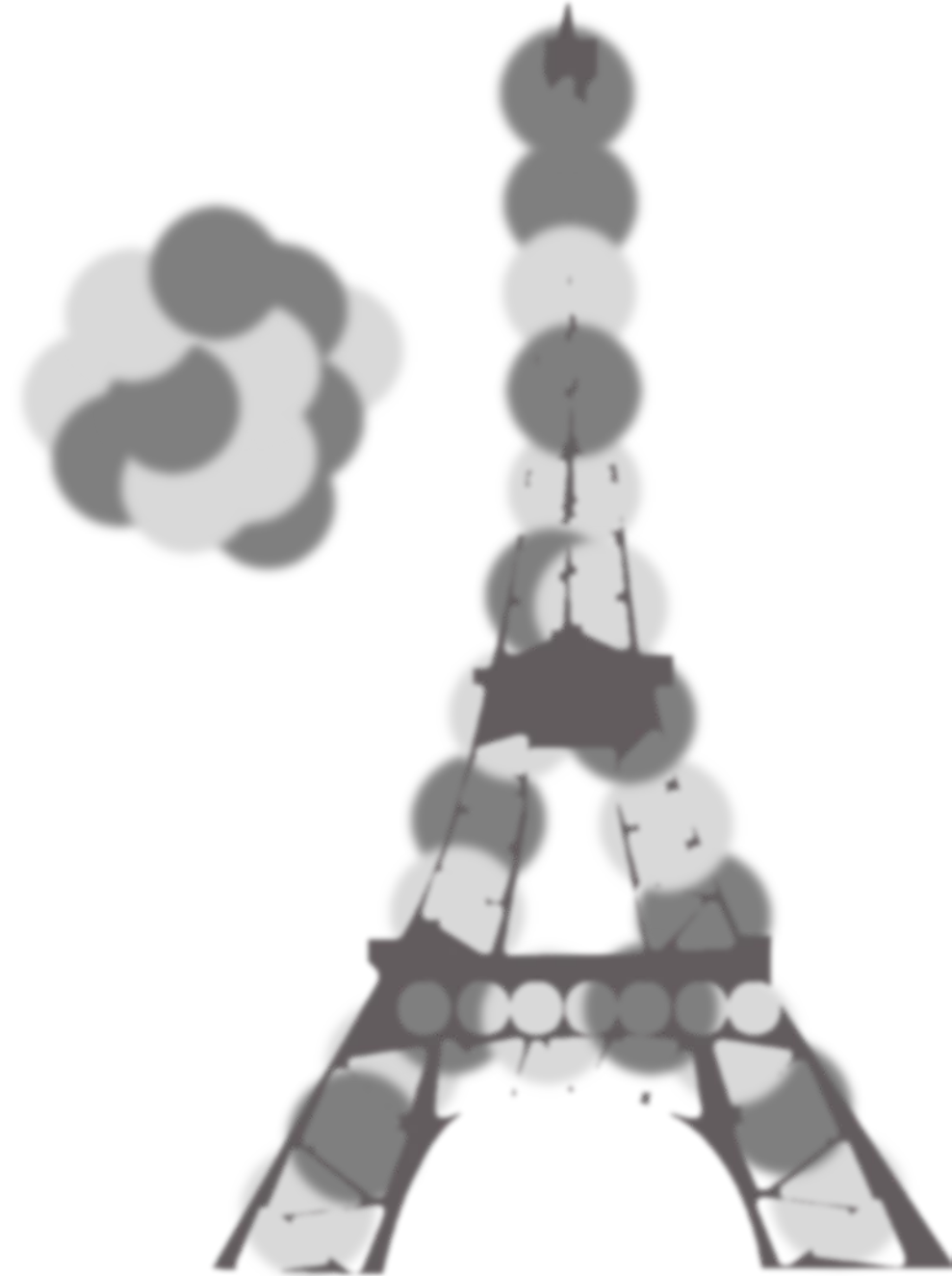
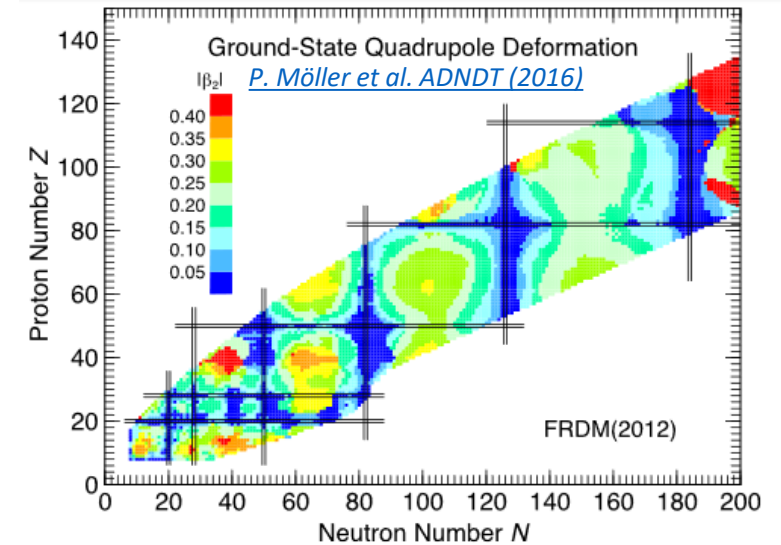
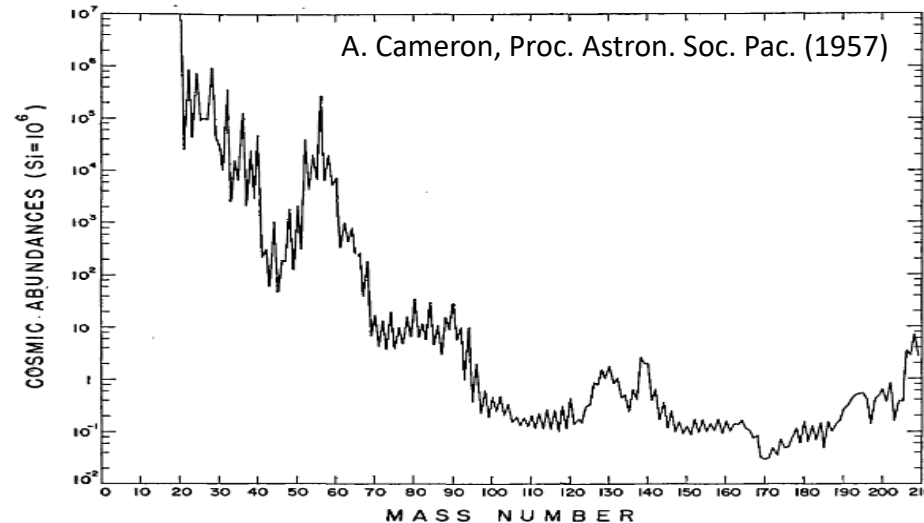
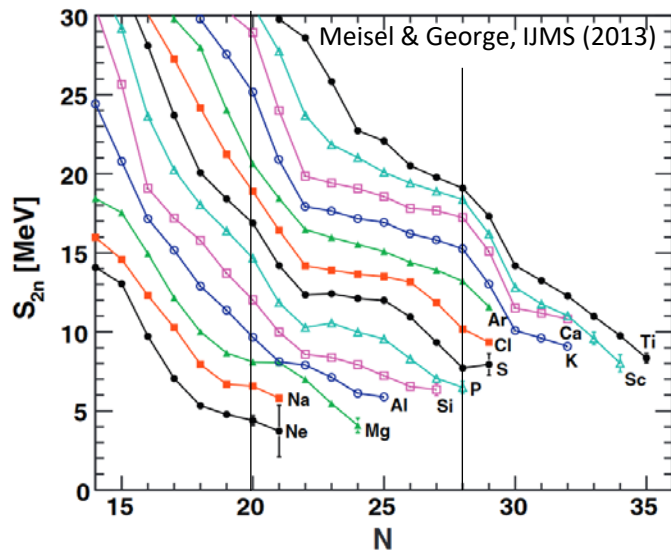
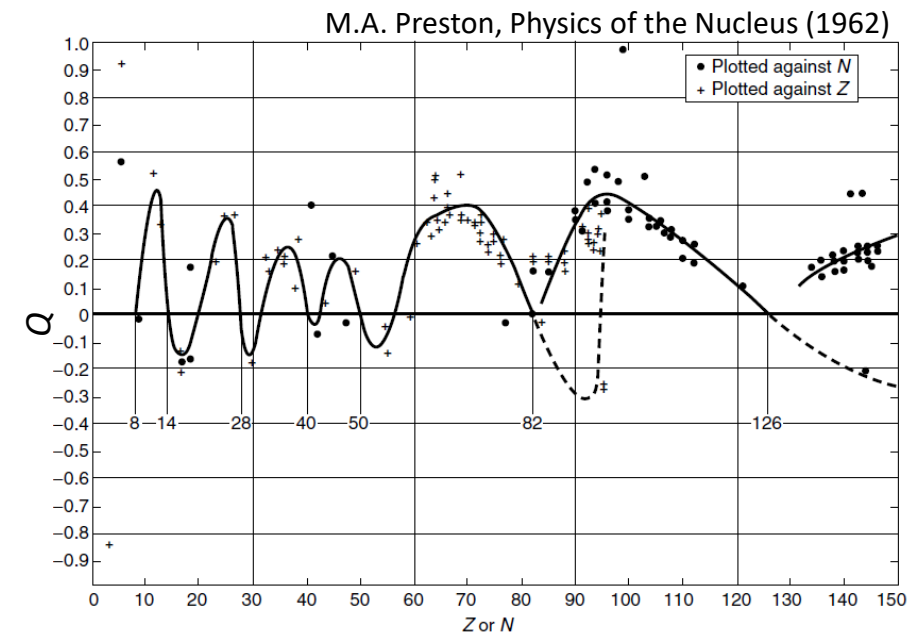
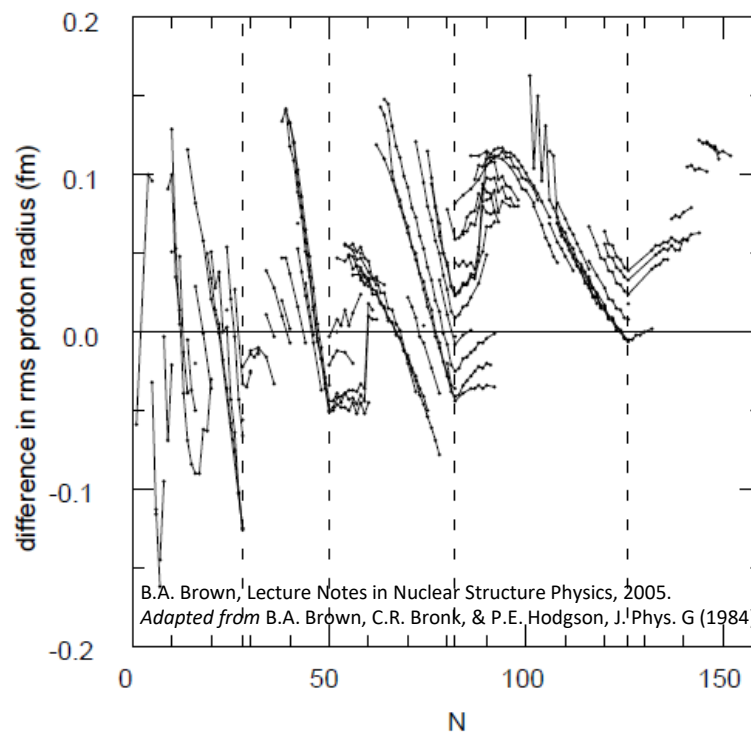
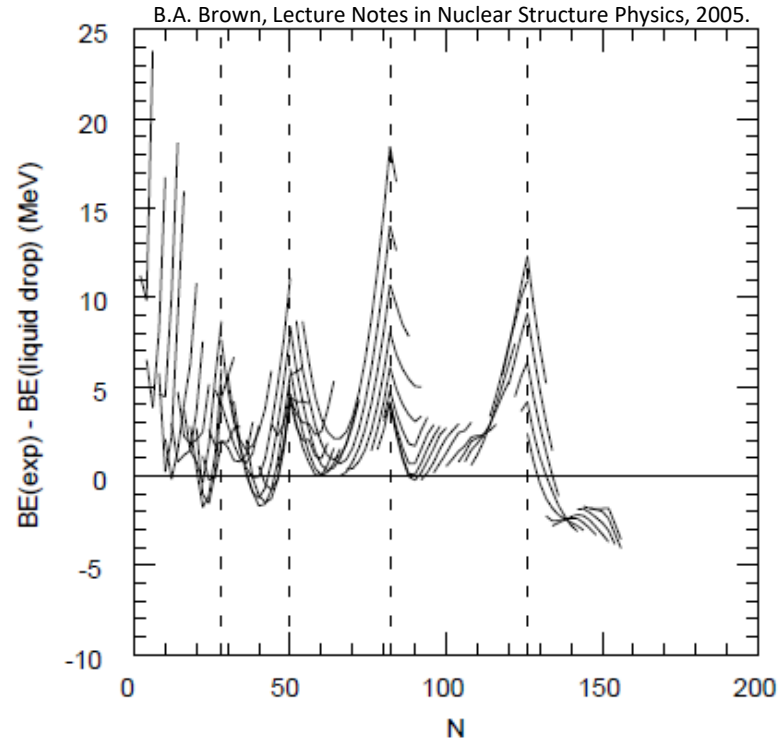


Lecture 3: *Nuclear Structure 1*

- Why structure?
- The nuclear potential
- Schematic shell model



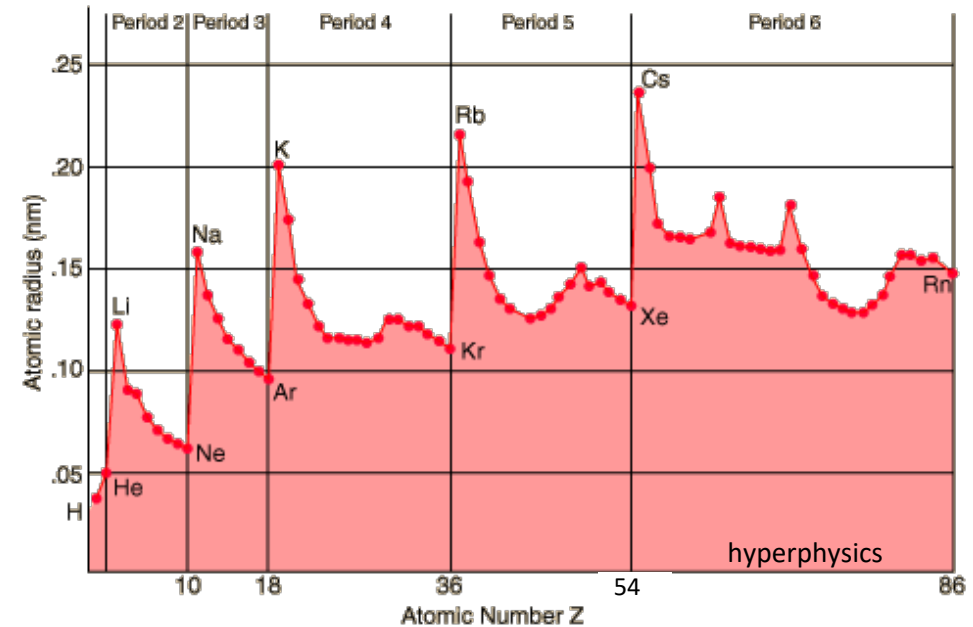
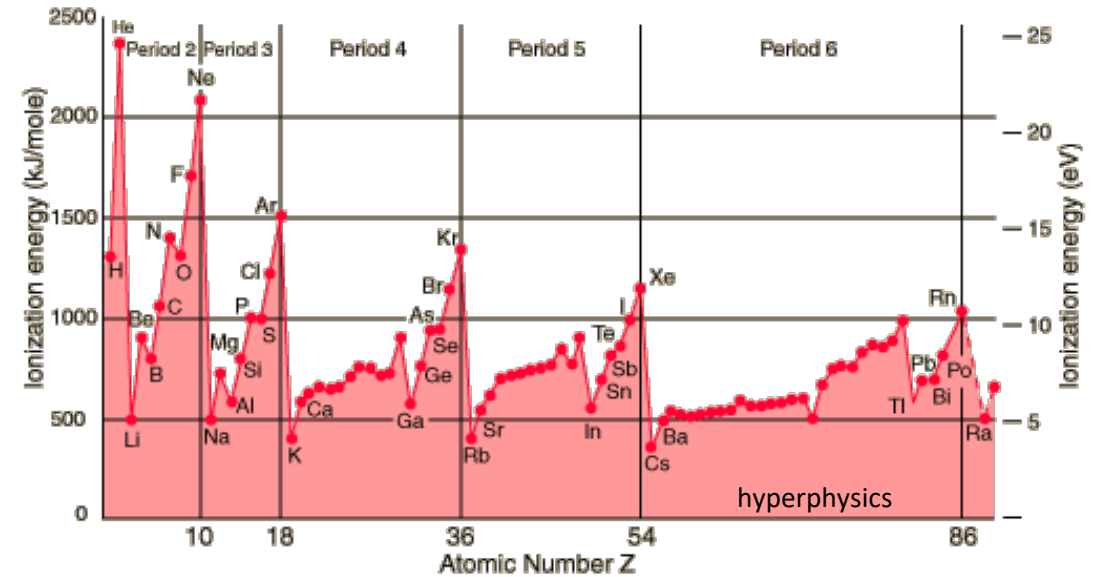
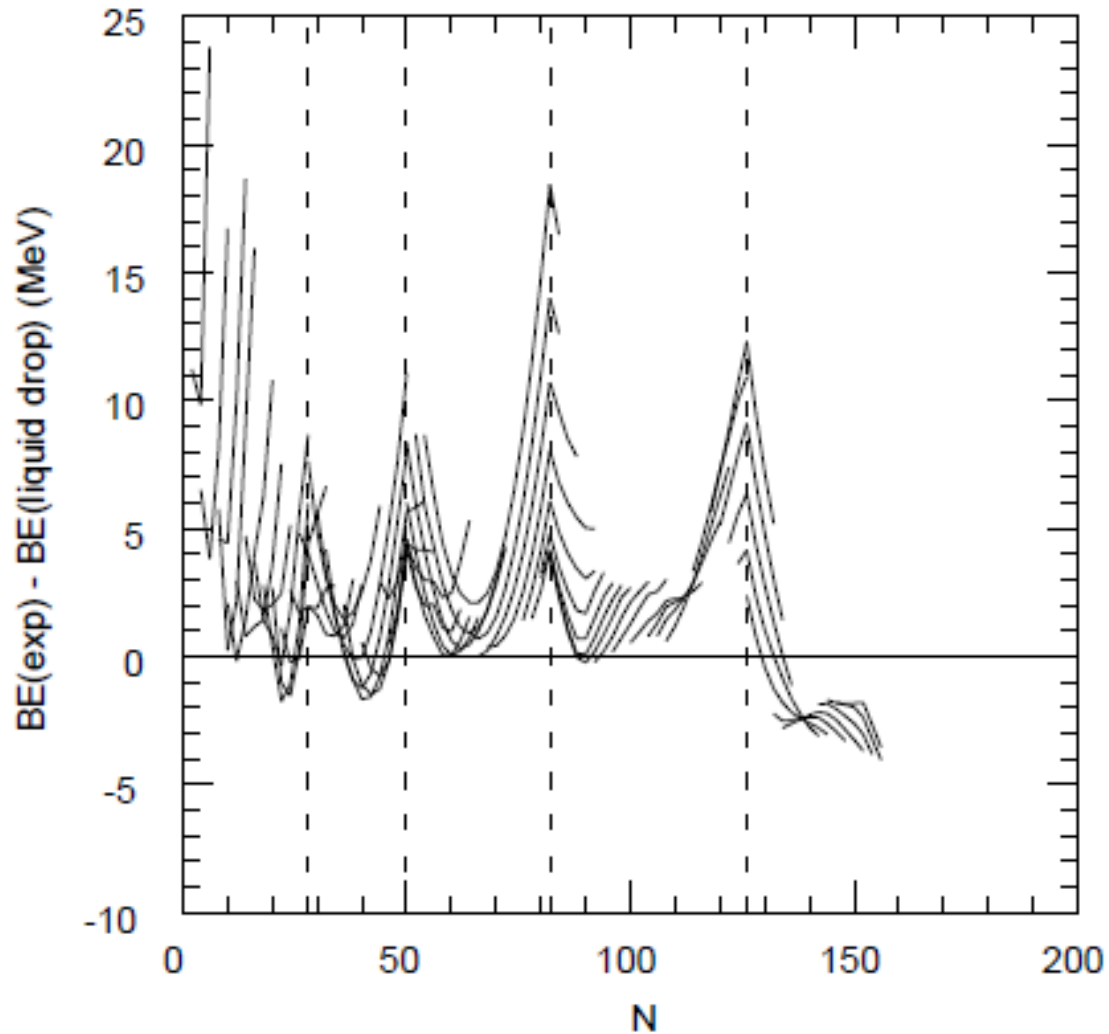
Empirically, several striking trends related to Z, N . *e.g.*



First magic number evidence compilation
by M. Göppert-Mayer Phys. Rev. 1948

...reminiscent of atomic structure

B.A. Brown, Lecture Notes in Nuclear Structure Physics, 2005.



Shell Structure

Atomic

- Central potential (Coulomb) generated by nucleus
- Electrons are essentially non-interacting
- Solve the Schrödinger equation for the Coulomb potential and find characteristic (energy levels) shells: *shells at 2, 10, 18, 36, 54, 86*

Nuclear

- No central object
...but each nucleon is interacted on by the other $A-1$ nucleons and they're relatively compact together
- Nucleons interact very strongly
...but if nucleons in nucleus were to scatter, Pauli blocking prevents them from scattering into filled orbitals. Scattering into higher-E orbitals is unlikely. i.e. there is no “weak interaction paradox”
- Can also solve the Schrödinger equation for energy levels (shells) ...but obviously must be a different potential: *shells at 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, 126*

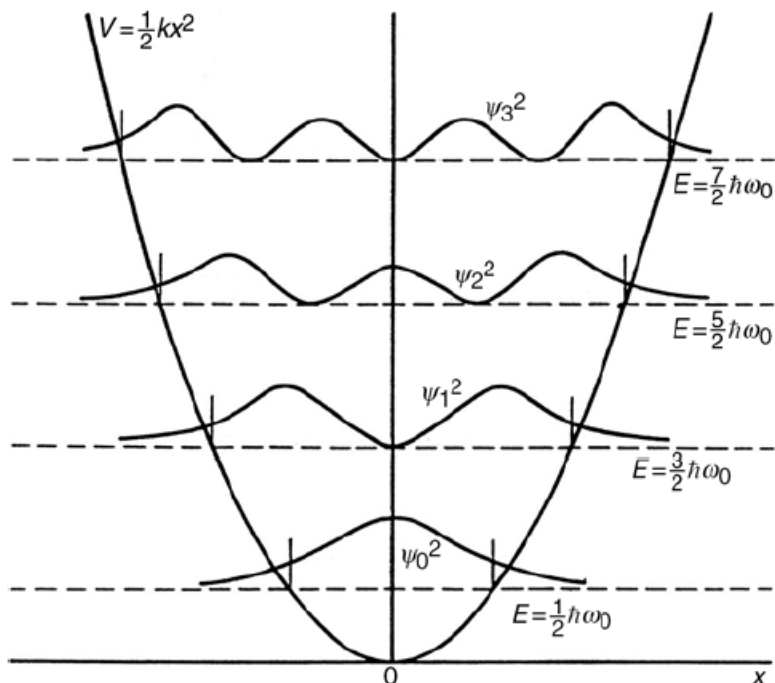
*...you might be discouraged by points 1 and 2 above, but, remember:
If it's stupid but it works, it isn't stupid.*

Calculating eigenstates of the system, a.k.a single particle levels

- The behavior of a quantum-mechanical system is described by the wave function ψ
- For a particle in some potential, we can solve for ψ using the Schrödinger equation,
 - $H\psi = E\psi$ a.k.a. $T\psi + V\psi = E\psi$ a.k.a. $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2\psi + V\psi = E\psi$ (in cartesian coordinates, $\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$)
- The solutions ψ are the eigenfunctions and their eigenvalues are the corresponding energy E
- As a bonus, when ψ can be expressed in terms of spherical harmonics, $\psi = R(r)Y'_m(\theta, \phi)$ we also get the angular momentum for that particular eigenfunction, and parity, since the function is either odd or even
- Mathematical challenges aside, to get any traction we obviously need to assume a potential V
- For a single nucleon in the field of a nucleus,
 - V should approximate the mean-field generated by all other nucleons
 - The solutions will be single-particle levels, i.e. discrete states the nucleon can occupy
- Since nucleons are indistinguishable, we only need to solve for the single-particle levels for a nucleon and then we can fill those levels (working in terms of increasing E) to generate a model to calculate the properties of our nucleus

First stab at the potential, V : The Harmonic Oscillator

- Based on some evidence (and logic) that nuclei aren't perfectly constant in density, Heisenberg (Z. Phys. 1935) posited that a parabolic potential could be assumed, conveniently allowing the adoption of the harmonic oscillator solutions *(one of the few analytically solved systems!)*
- This provides evenly spaced energy levels $n \geq 1$, with $E_n = (n - 1 + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega$.
- The corresponding angular momenta are $l = n - 1, n - 3, \dots \geq 0$. *i.e. only odd or even functions are allowed for each oscillator shell*
- The number of particles per angular momentum is $2(2l + 1)$ for $2l + 1$ projections & 2 spins
- So, the number of particles per level is:



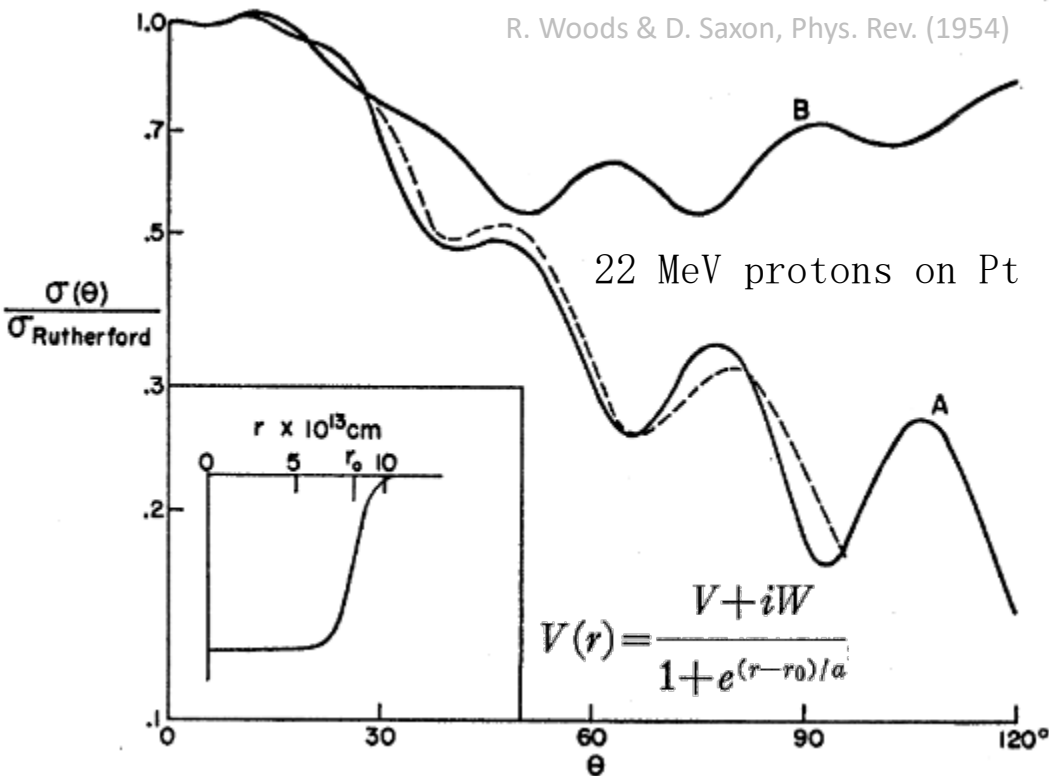
Loveland, Morrissey, & Seaborg, Modern Nuclear Chemistry (2006)

n	l	# per level	Cumulative
1	0	$2(2*0+1) = 2$	2
2	1	$2(2*1+1) = 6$	8
3	0,2	$2(2*0+1) = 2$ + $2*(2*2+1) = 10$ = 12	20
4	1,3	$2*(2*1+1) = 6$ + $2*(2*3+1) = 14$ = 20	40
5	0,2,4	$2*(2*0+1) = 2$ + $2*(2*2+1) = 10$ + $2*(2*4+1) = 18$ = 30	70

*Could the HO potential still be useful for some cases?
...can get the job done for light nuclei (e.g. [H. Guo et al. PRC 2017](#))
...but need to be careful, because can impact results ([B.Kay et al PRL 2017](#))*

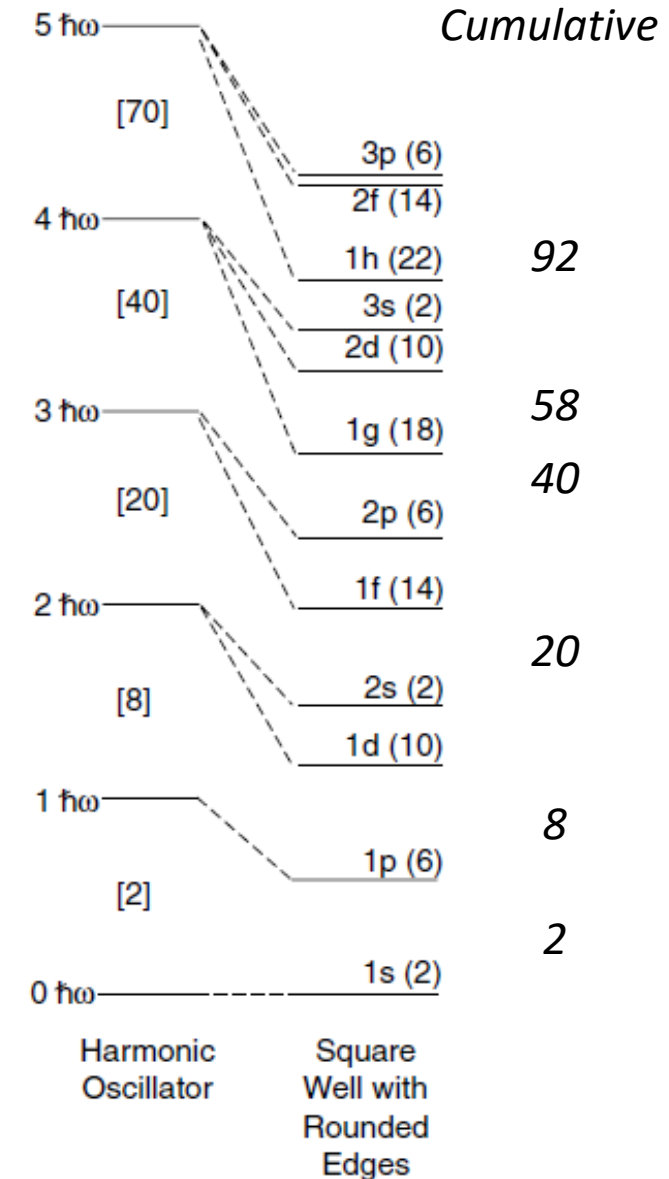
Move to an empirical potential: Woods-Saxon

- Since the nuclear interaction is short-range, a natural improvement would be to adopt a central potential mimicking the empirical density distribution
- This is basically a square well with soft edges, as described by the Woods-Saxon potential:



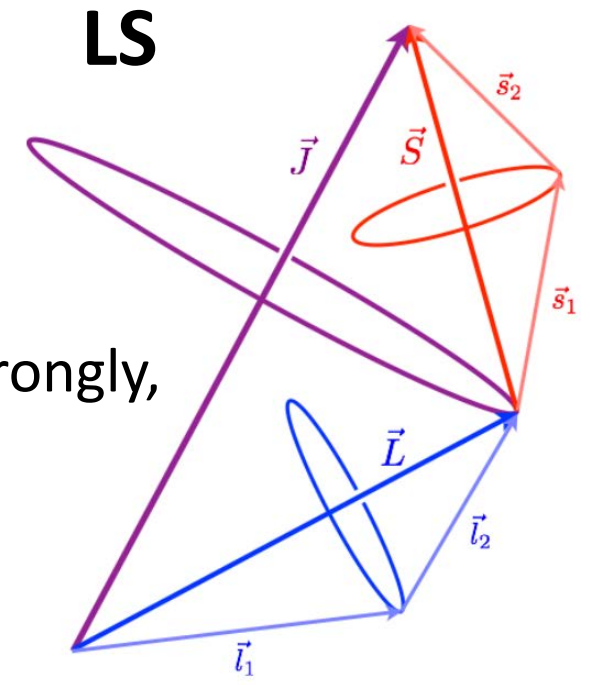
- Using the Woods-Saxon is a good idea because of commitment to reality... but we're no wiser as to the origin of the magic numbers

*Was this step completely useless?
No! It broke the degeneracy in ℓ*

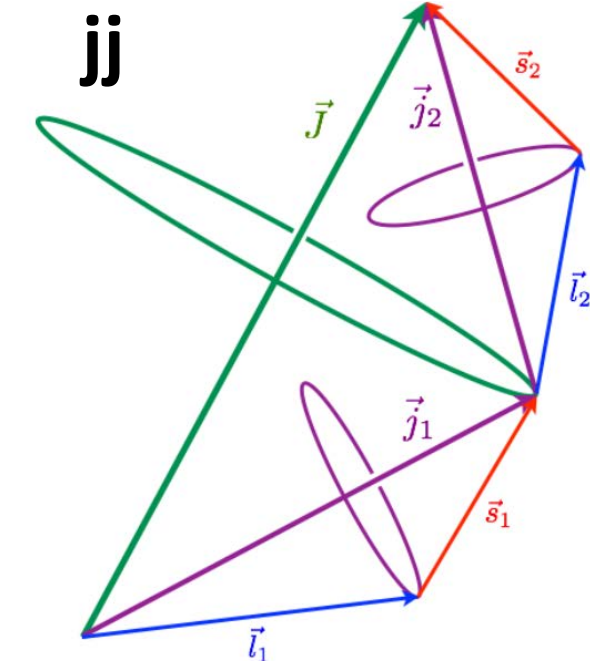


The missing link: the spin-orbit interaction

- Due to desperation or genius (or both) Maria Göppert-Mayer [Phys. Rev. February 1949] (and nearly simultaneously Haxel, Jensen, & Suess [Phys. Rev. April 1949]) posited that nucleon spin and orbital angular momentum interacted strongly, making j the good quantum number for a nucleon: $\vec{j} = \vec{l} + \vec{s}$
- Prior to this approach, angular momentum was coupled as is typically done for atoms, where $\vec{J} = \vec{L} + \vec{S}$, $\vec{L} = \sum_{nucleons} \vec{l}$, and $\vec{S} = \sum_{nucleons} \vec{s}$
 - This is “LS coupling”
- Positing that the spin-orbit interaction is stronger than spin-spin or orbit-orbit means that instead, $\vec{J} = \sum_{nucleons} \vec{j}$ and $\vec{j} = \vec{l} + \vec{s}$
 - This is “jj coupling”

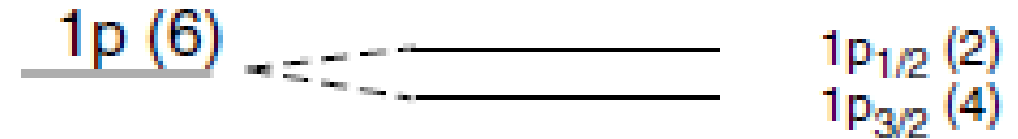


A. Kastberg, Lecture Notes Physique Atomique



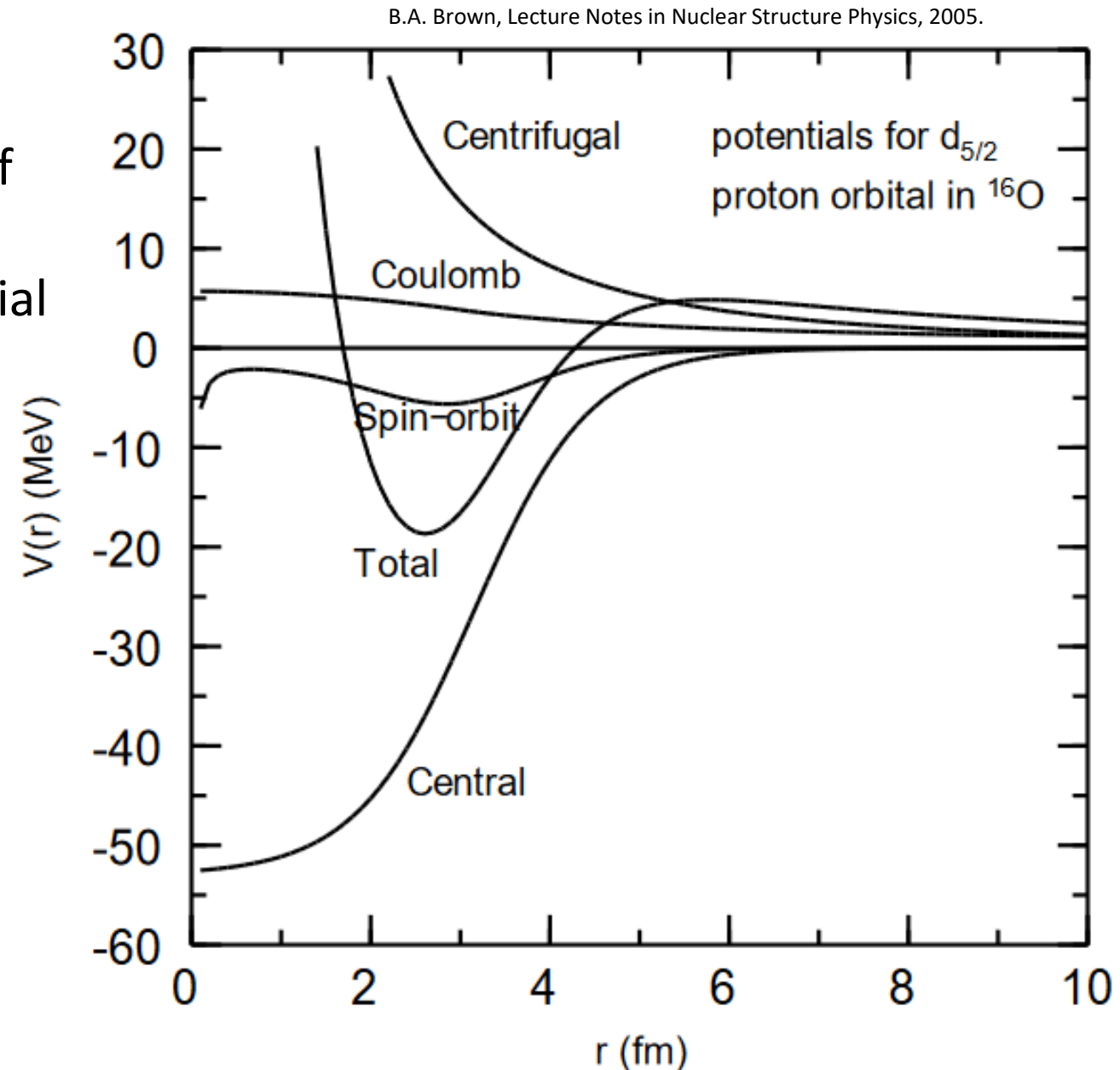
The missing link: the spin-orbit interaction

- Now, in considering a valence nucleon, we should calculate its j
- j can only take on values: $|l - s| \leq j \leq |l + s|$...so for our nucleons, $|l - \frac{1}{2}| \leq j \leq |l + \frac{1}{2}|$, i.e. l and s are either aligned ($l + s$) or anti-aligned ($l - s$)
 - For $l = 0$: $j = \frac{1}{2}$; $l = 1$: $j = \frac{1}{2} \text{ or } \frac{3}{2}$; $l = 2$: $j = \frac{3}{2} \text{ or } \frac{5}{2}$; $l = 3$: $j = \frac{5}{2} \text{ or } \frac{7}{2}$... etc.
- Each j has $2j + 1$ projections (a.k.a. # of protons or neutrons, depending which nucleon we're discussing)
 - i.e. 2 states for $j = \frac{1}{2}$, 4 states for $j = \frac{3}{2}$, 6 states for $j = \frac{5}{2}$, 8 states for $j = \frac{7}{2}$...etc.
- The spin-orbit interaction means there's a j -dependent part of the nuclear potential, so the levels corresponding to different j for some l will be split in energy.
- For nucleons, cases with aligned l and j are energetically favored, so, for example, $l = 1, j = \frac{3}{2}$ will be lower in energy than $l = 1, j = \frac{1}{2}$
- While we're at it, note the spectroscopic notation:
 - $l = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots = \text{"s"}, \text{"p"}, \text{"d"}, \text{"f"}, \text{"g"}, \text{"h"} \dots$



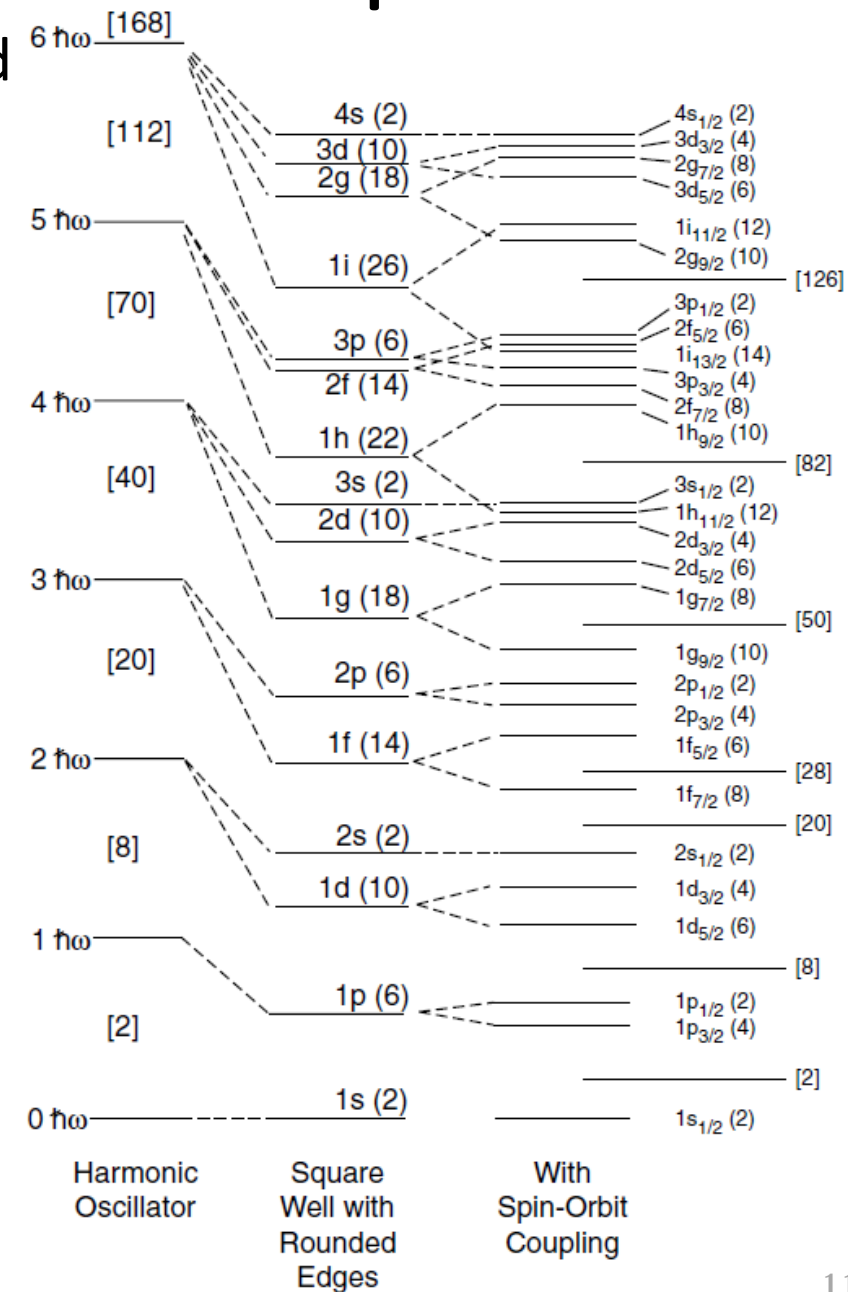
Result: the nuclear potential

- Nucleons within a nucleus can be treated as if they are
 - **Attracted** by a Woods-Saxon central potential
 - **Repelled** by a Coulomb potential from a charged sphere (if proton)
 - **Attracted or Repelled** if l and s are parallel or anti-parallel by the spin-orbit force (Peaks at surface)
 - **Repelled** by a centrifugal barrier (if the nucleon were to exit the nucleus, carrying away angular momentum $l > 0$)



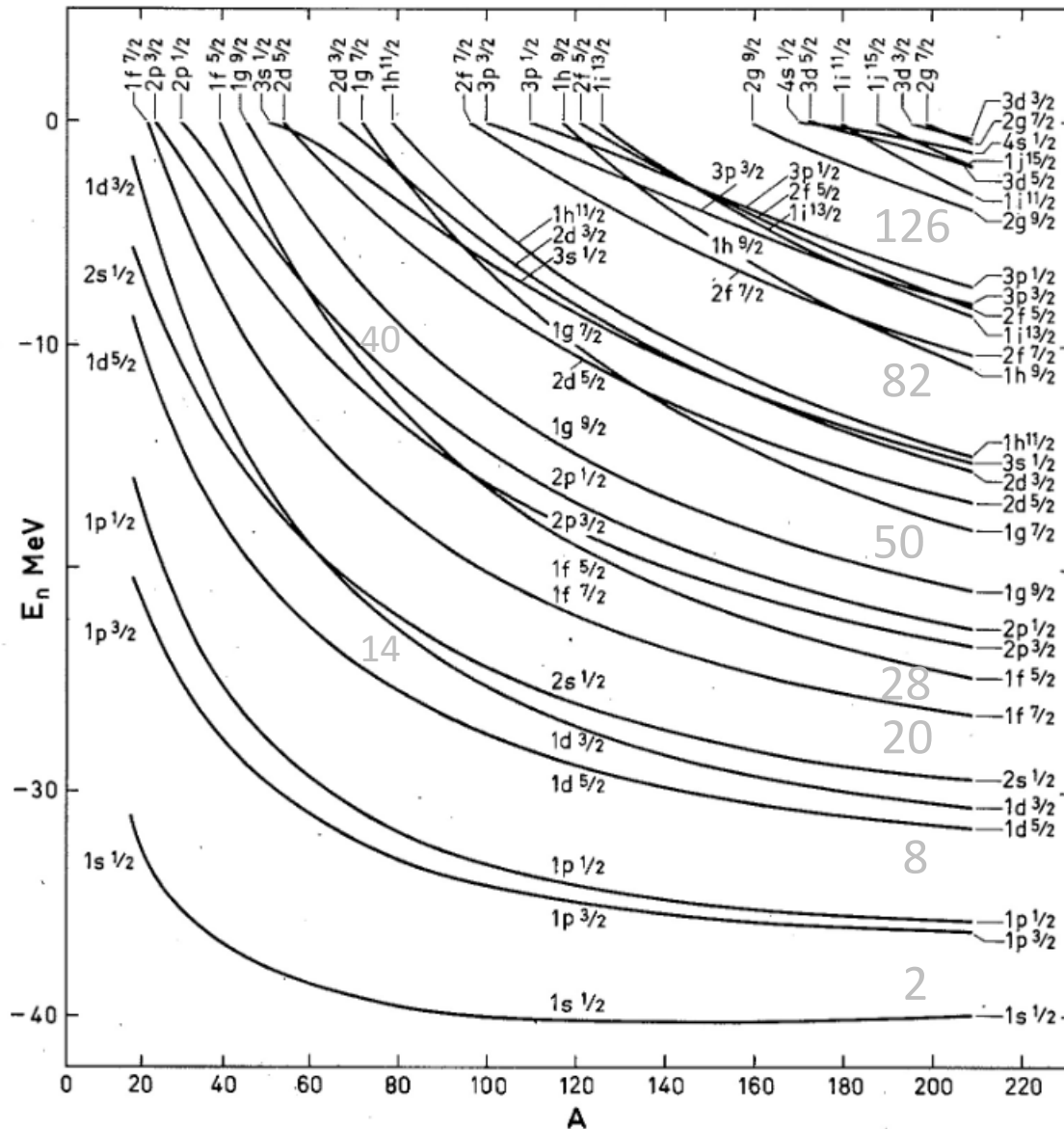
Putting it all together: “shells” from the nuclear potential

- Considering the nucleus as nucleons interacting in a mean-field potential, generated by the spatial distribution of all other nucleons, and each nucleon having a strong interaction between its orbital & spin angular momentum, properly predicts the magic numbers.
- Note that **neutrons and protons are considered separately**.
- When adding neutrons or protons to a nucleus, the lowest energy state will (generally) consist of filling each orbital as you go upward.
- The regions between the large gaps in nucleon energy are referred to as “shells”.
 - E.g. Between 8 and 20 neutrons (or protons) is the “sd-shell”, between 28 and 40 neutrons (or protons) is the “fp-shell”.
 - More exotic neutron-rich nuclides exist, so typically people are talking about the neutron shell
 - Nucleons can get excited into higher-lying states, so states above the ground-state are relevant in calculations



As a heads-up, level ordering doesn't follow a fixed set of rules

For stable, spherical nuclides:



Common form for the nuclear potential

- $V(r) = V_{central}(r) + V_{spin-orbit}(r)\vec{l} \cdot \vec{s} + V_{Coulomb}(r) + V_{centrifugal}(r)$

- $V_{central}(r) = V_{ce} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{r - R_{ce}}{a_{ce}}\right)} \right)$

- $V_{ce,protons} = V_0 + \frac{N-Z}{A} V_1$ or $V_{ce,neutrons} = V_0 - \frac{N-Z}{A} V_1$

- $V_{spin-orbit}(r) = V_{so} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{r - R_{so}}{a_{so}}\right)} \right)$

- $V_{Coulomb}(r) = \frac{Ze^2}{r}$ for $r \geq R_c$

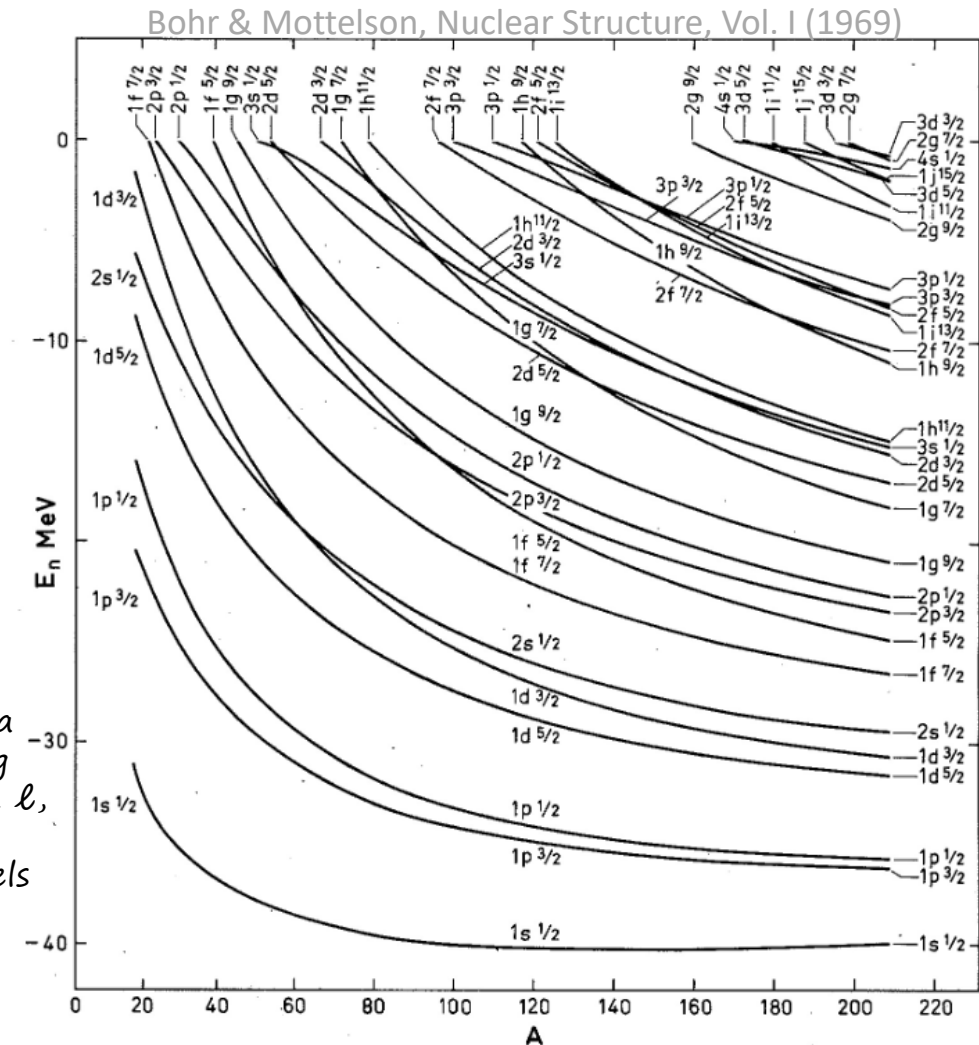
$$= \frac{Ze^2}{R_c} \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{r^2}{2R_c^2} \right)$$
 for $r \leq R_c$

- $V_{centrifugal}(r) = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu_{reduced}} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2}$ This is only relevant when a nucleon is removing/adding orbital angular momentum ℓ , so you would not use it to calculate single particle levels

- Typically, $R_{ce} = R_{so} = R_c = r_0 A^{1/3}$

- For $r_0 = 1.27 fm$, $a_{ce} = a_{so} = 0.67 fm$,

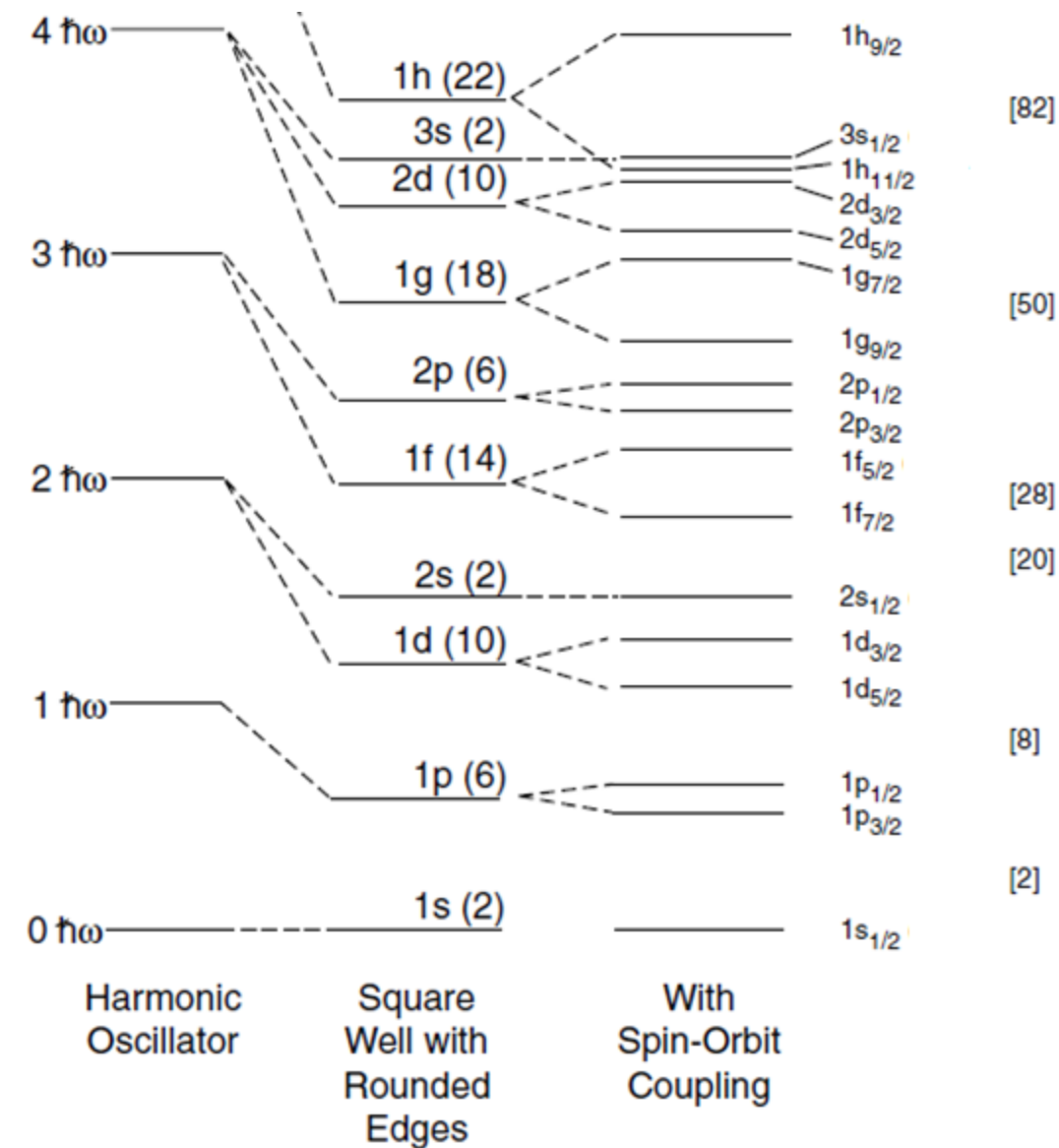
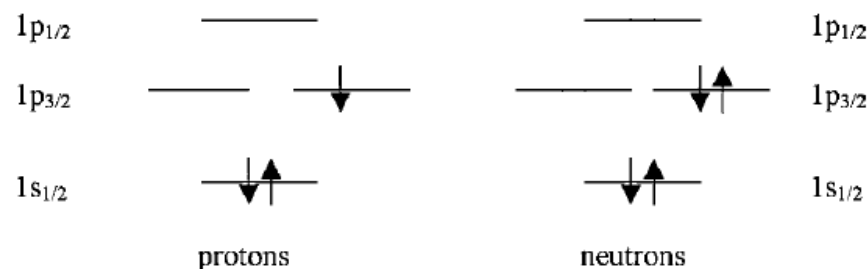
$V_0 = -55 MeV, V_1 = -33 MeV, V_{so} = -0.44 V_{ce}$, get neutron single-particle energies above



Filling the shells

Loveland, Morrissey, & Seaborg, Modern Nuclear Chemistry (2006)

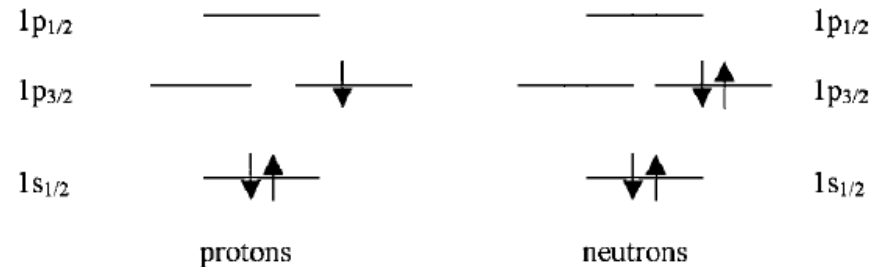
- We can construct a nucleus using our “shell model”:
 - A nucleon will go in the lowest-energy level which isn't already filled, i.e.
 - the largest angular momentum, j
 - for the lowest orbital angular momentum, l
 - for the lowest oscillator shell, n
 - $2j + 1$ protons or neutrons are allowed per level
 - Each level is referred to by its nlj
 - n by the # for the oscillator shell (convention either starts with 0 or 1)
 - l by spectroscopic notation ($s=0, p=1, d=2, f=3, \dots$)
 - j by the half-integer corresponding to the spin
- For example: ${}^7\text{Li}$ ($Z=3, N=4$)



Basic properties from the shell model: J^π

- Recall that, from the pairing hypothesis, nucleons pair & cancel spins.
- So, the unpaired nucleons determine the properties of a nucleus.
Unpaired nucleons sum to determine the spin & multiply to determine the parity

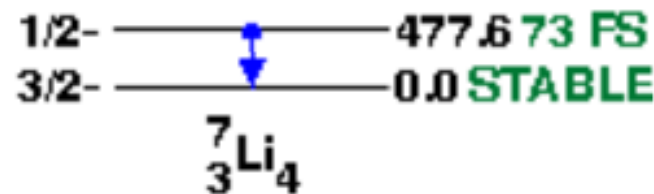
Revisiting ${}^7\text{Li}$:



- The only nucleon without a dance partner is the $1p_{3/2}$ proton; i.e. $J = 3/2$, $\pi = (-1)^1$
So, the ${}^7\text{Li}$ ground-state should be $J^\pi = \frac{3}{2}^-$
- What's the lowest energy excitation possible? (note pairing is strong)

Moving the $p_{3/2}$ proton up to $p_{1/2}$

- So, the first excited state of ${}^7\text{Li}$ should be $J^\pi = \frac{1}{2}^-$
- Compare to data:

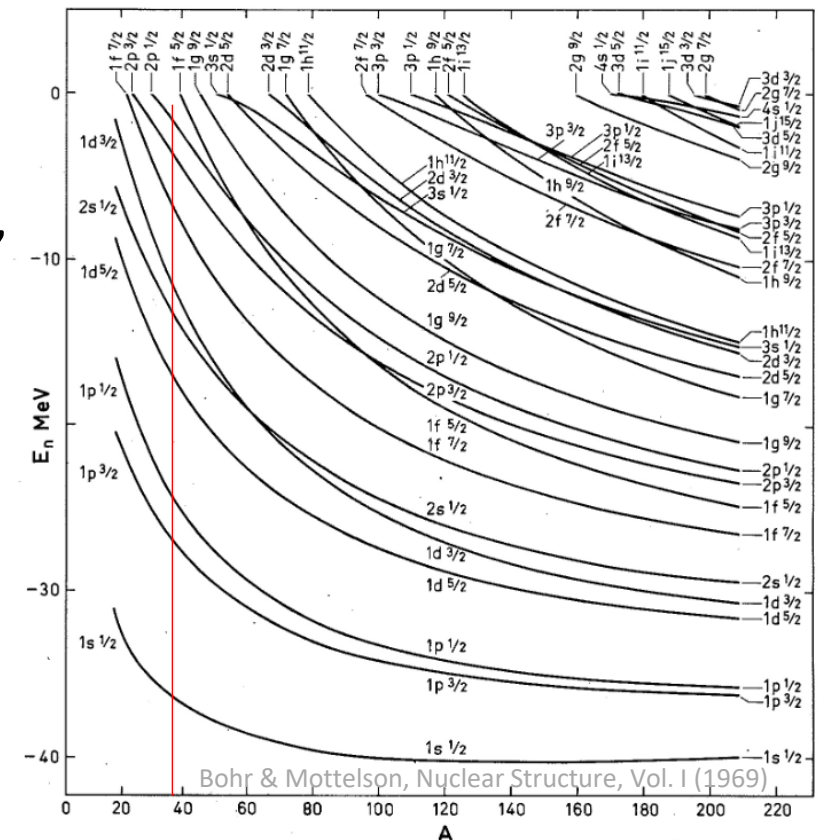
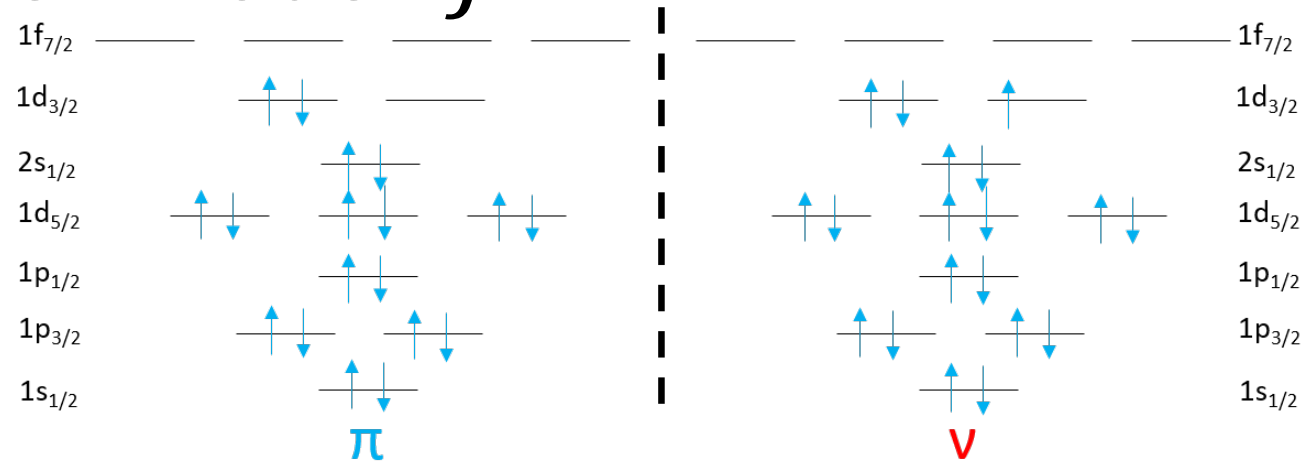


Basic properties from the shell model: J^π

- Now that we're feeling fat & sassy, let's try another case: ^{37}Ar
- Based on our shell-model, we expect the ground-state to be $3/2^+$...and it is!



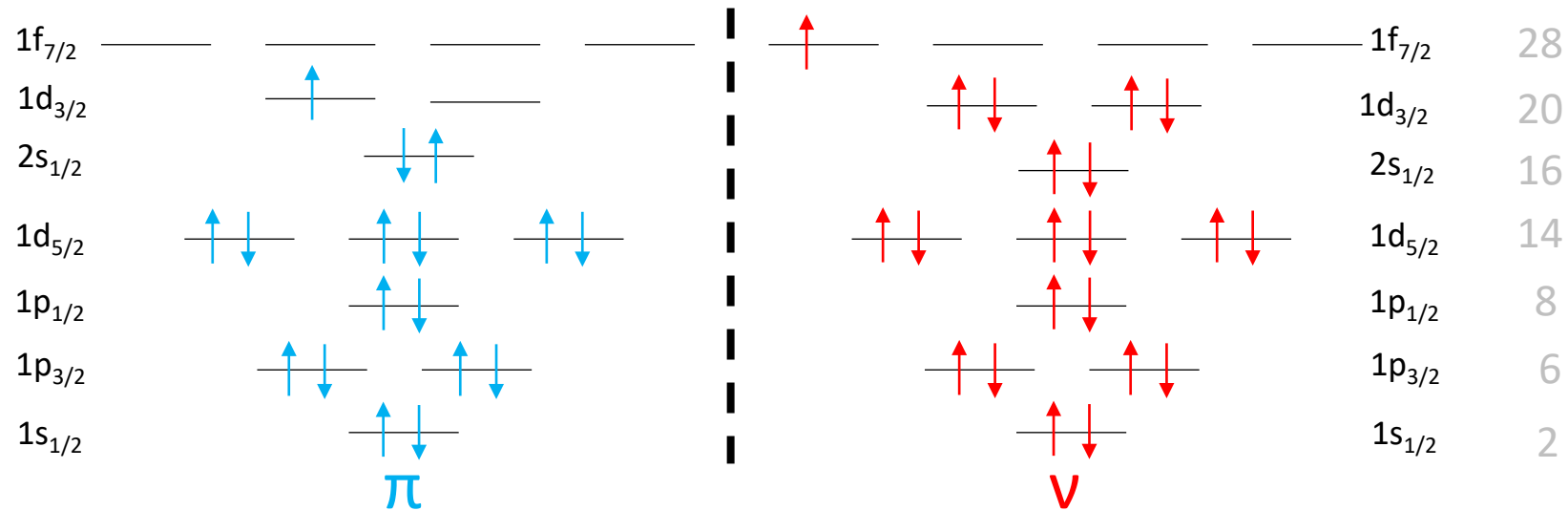
- Now for the first excited state, a logical thought would be the odd $d_{3/2}$ neutron would pop up to the $f_{7/2}$ level, creating a state with $7/2^-$
 - ...but the first excited state is $1/2^+$ (the 2nd x.s. is $7/2^-$)
- What happened?
 - We have to keep in mind pairing & energy-costs
 - The $2s_{1/2}$ - $1d_{3/2}$ gap is smaller than the $1d_{3/2}$ - $1f_{7/2}$ gap (for low A)
 - And, **pairing energy increases with the l of the level**



Bohr & Mottelson, Nuclear Structure, Vol. I (1969)

Basic properties from the shell model: J^π

- Looking at a more complicated case, ^{38}Cl (Z=17, N=21)



- 2 valence nucleons: one $d_{3/2}$ proton and one $f_{7/2}$ neutron
- Allowed couplings are $|j_1 - j_2| \leq J \leq |j_1 + j_2|$
- So for this case: $J = 2, 3, 4, 5$
- How do we decide which combination has the lowest energy?

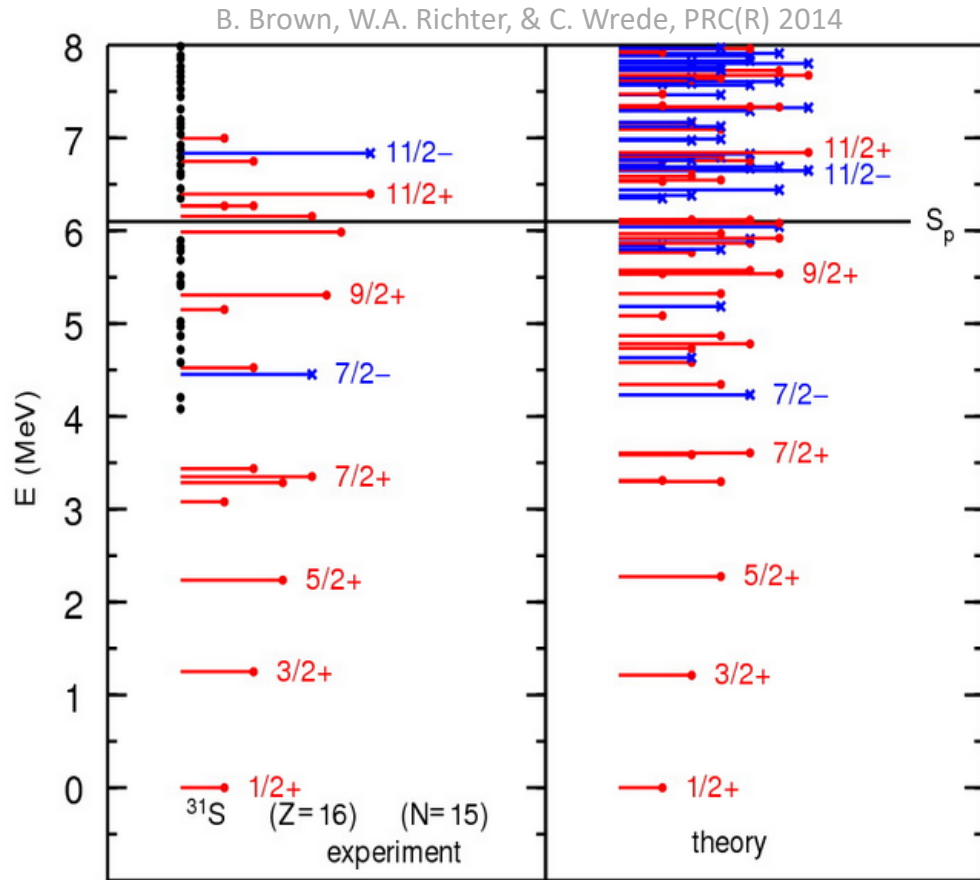
Using the descriptively named: “jj coupling rules for Odd-Odd nuclei” from Brennan & Bernstein (Phys. Rev. 1960)

Basic properties from the shell model: J^π for odd-odd

- For Odd-Z, Odd-N nuclides, need a method to determine which jj-coupling is the lowest energy
- An empirically-based set of rules was developed by Brennan & Bernstein (Phys. Rev. 1960)
- They noticed that, when coupling j , $j_1 = l_1 \pm s_1$ and $j_2 = l_2 \pm s_2$,
 - **Rule 1:** If ($j_1 = l_1 + s_1$ and $j_2 = l_2 - s_2$) or ($j_1 = l_1 - s_1$ and $j_2 = l_2 + s_2$), then $J = |j_1 - j_2|$
 - e.g. for a $d_{3/2}$ proton ($j_p = 2 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$) and a $f_{7/2}$ neutron ($j_n = 3 + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{7}{2}$), $J = \frac{7}{2} - \frac{3}{2} = 2$ **Ex: ^{38}Cl**
For this case, $\pi = \prod \pi_i = (-1)^2 * (-1)^3 = -$
 - **Rule 2:** If ($j_1 = l_1 + s_1$ and $j_2 = l_2 + s_2$) or ($j_1 = l_1 - s_1$ and $j_2 = l_2 - s_2$), then $J = |j_1 \pm j_2|$
 - e.g. for a $d_{5/2}$ proton ($j_p = 2 + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$) and a $d_{5/2}$ neutron ($j_n = 2 + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$), $J = \frac{5}{2} + \frac{5}{2} = 5$ **Ex: ^{26}Al**
For this case, $\pi = \prod \pi_i = (-1)^2 * (-1)^2 = +$
 - **Rule 3:** If one odd nucleon has been promoted (e.g. to an s-orbital to pair with a nucleon), leaving behind a “hole”, and the other odd nucleon stays a particle, then $J = j_1 + j_2 - 1$
 - e.g. for a $d_{3/2}$ proton hole ($j_p = \frac{3}{2}$) and a $f_{7/2}$ neutron ($j_n = \frac{7}{2}$), $J = \frac{7}{2} + \frac{3}{2} - 1 = 4$ **Ex: ^{40}K**
For this case, $\pi = \prod \pi_i = (-1)^2 * (-1)^3 = -$

**These don't always work...but when they don't, this can tell you something:
Either there's more than a single-particle level interaction going on,
or your particle(s)/hole(s) don't occupy the levels we naively assumed.
(e.g. S. Liddick et al. Phys. Rev. C 2004)*

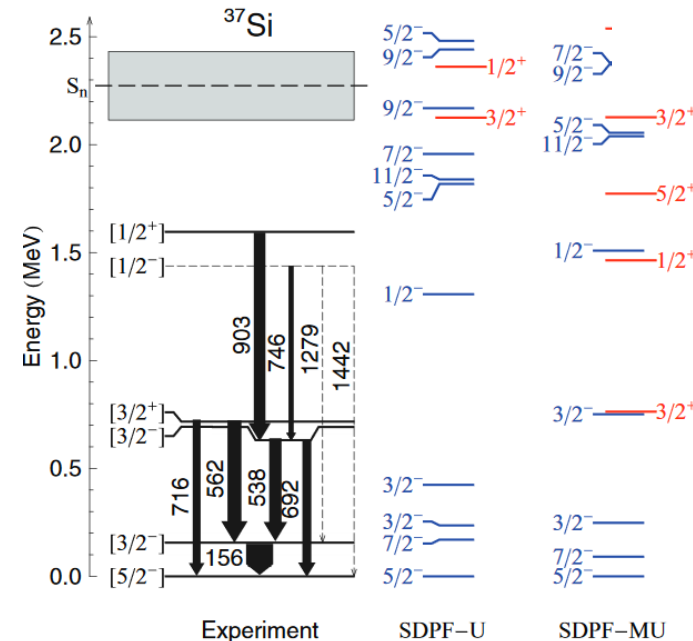
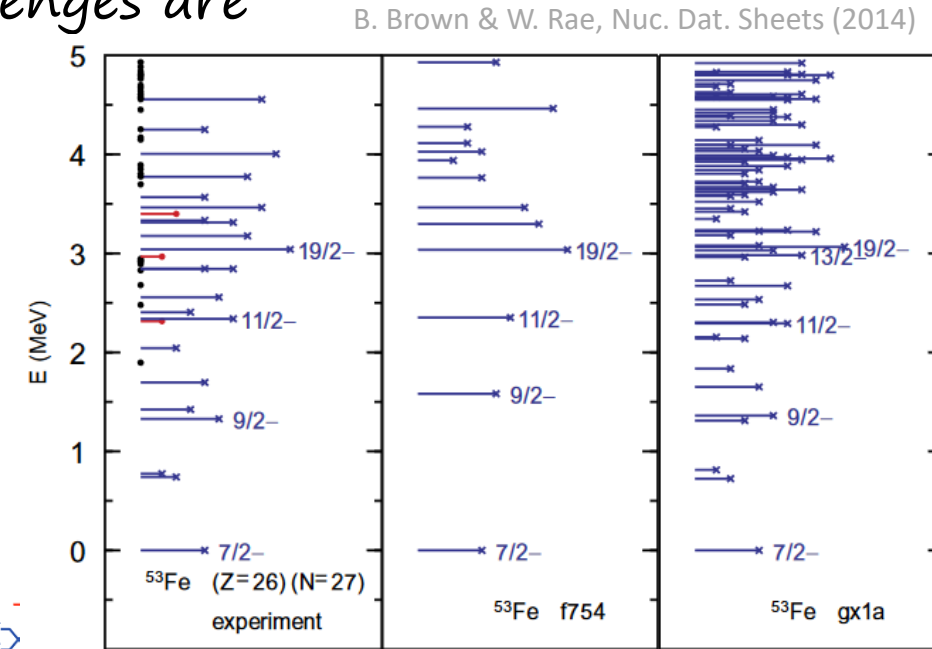
Shell-model is pretty good at predicting J^π (among other things)



...some major challenges are

including all the relevant levels in the calculation

and



S.R. Stroberg et al. Phys Rev. C (2014)

choosing a good interaction between nucleons

What else are J^π predictions good for? Magnetic dipole moments

- Recall that for a single particle, the magnetic dipole moment is: $\mu = jg_j\mu_N$
- After some fancy footwork, it can be shown that the Landé g-factor can be expressed as:
 - $$g_j = \left(\frac{j(j+1)+l(l+1)-s(s+1)}{2j(j+1)} \right) g_l + \left(\frac{j(j+1)-l(l+1)+s(s+1)}{2j(j+1)} \right) g_s$$
- Since spins cancel for paired nucleons, we might expect the magnetic dipole moment of a nucleus with 1-unpaired nucleon to be determined by that nucleon

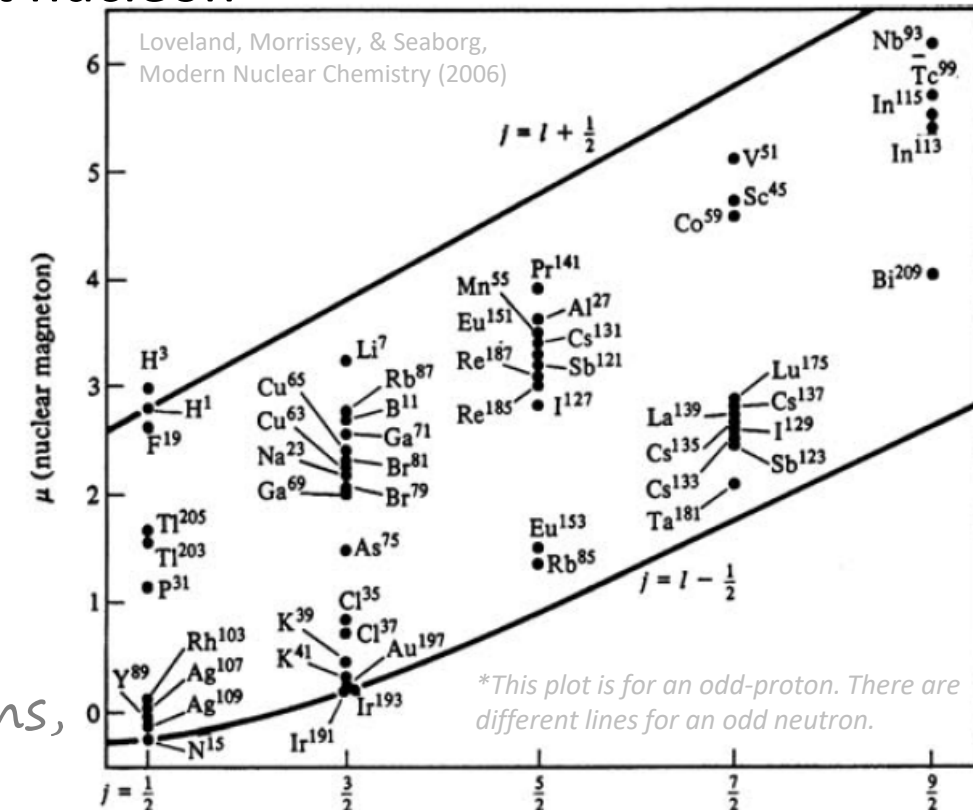
Expected values of μ are therefore:

- $\mu = jg_j = lg_l + \frac{1}{2}g_s$ for $j = l + \frac{1}{2}$
- $\mu = jg_j = j\left(1 + \frac{1}{2l+1}\right)g_l - j\left(\frac{1}{2l+1}\right)g_s$ for $j = l - \frac{1}{2}$
- Protons: $g_l = 1, g_s = 5.6$, Neutrons: $g_l = 0, g_s = -3.8$
- These boundaries are the “Schmidt lines”

(Th. Schmidt, Z.Phys. (1937))

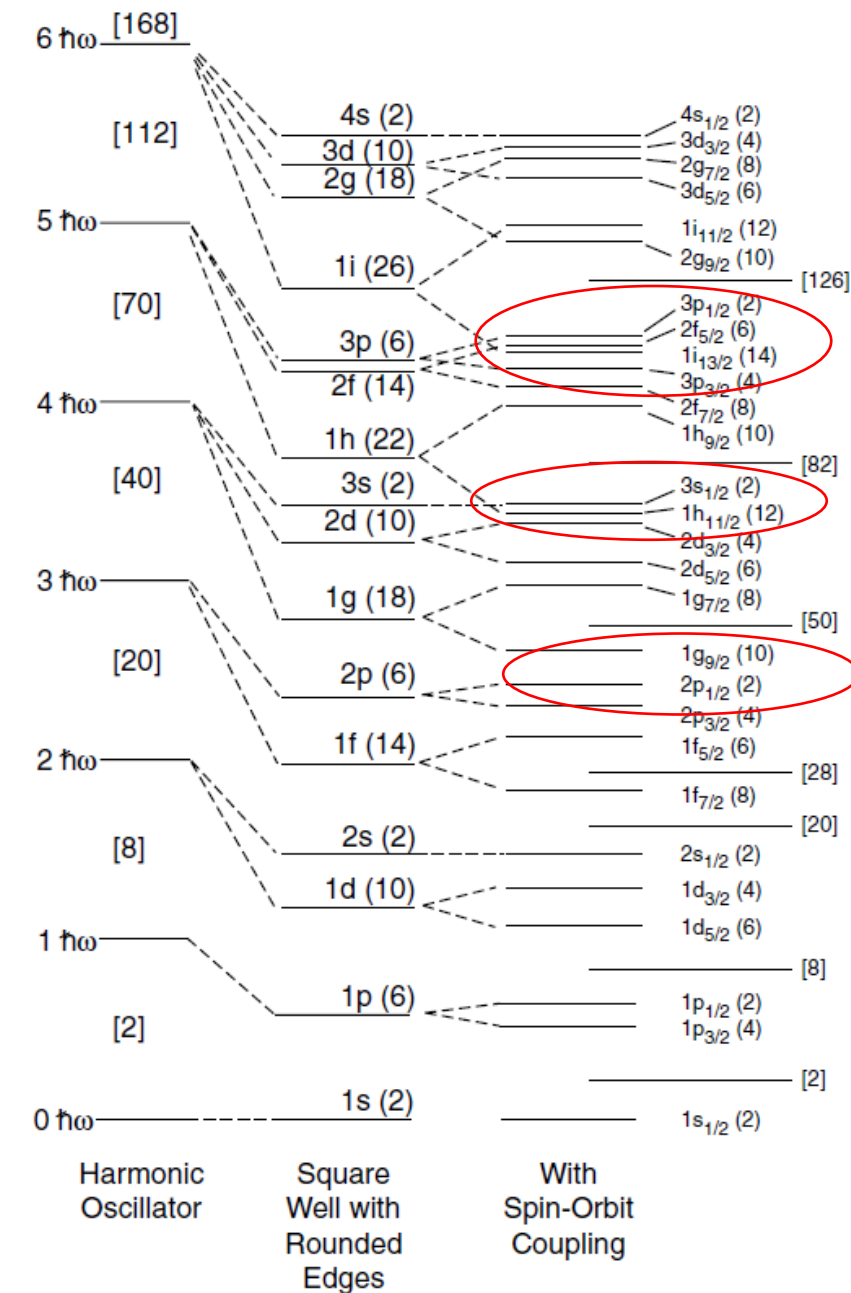
and nearly all measured g_j fall between these

As with excited state J^π 's, deviation between experiment & shell model predictions tell us something interesting is going on. E.g. mixing between single-particle occupations, polarization of the core, corrections to meson-exchange mediating the nuclear force ([G. Neyens, Rep. Prog. Phys. \(2003\)](#), J. Booten et al. Phys.Rev.C (1991))



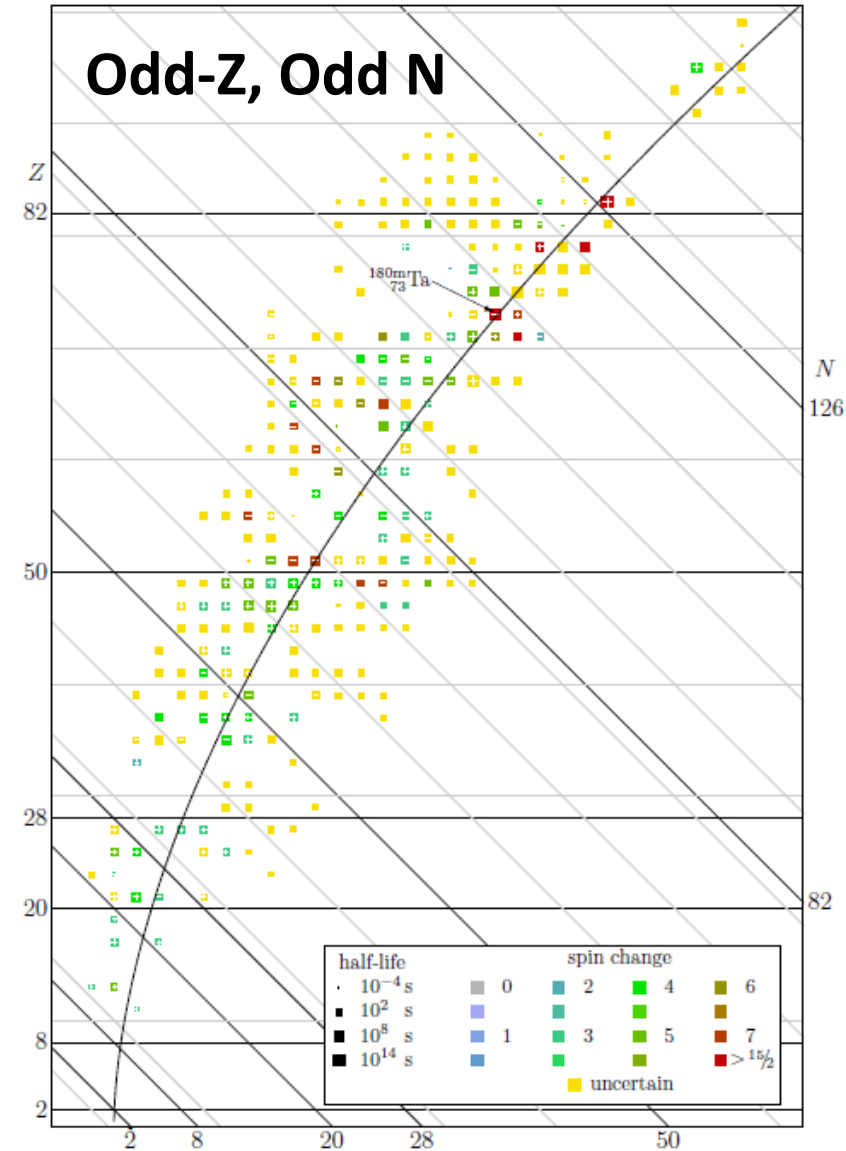
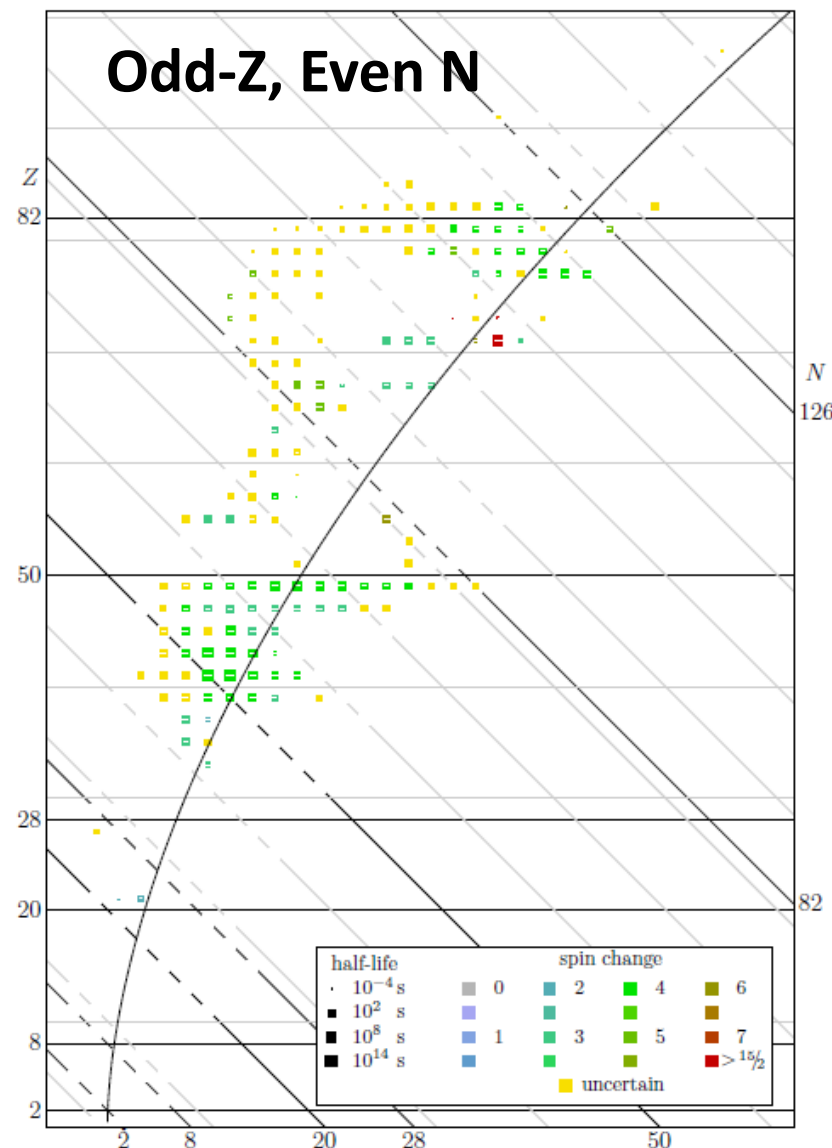
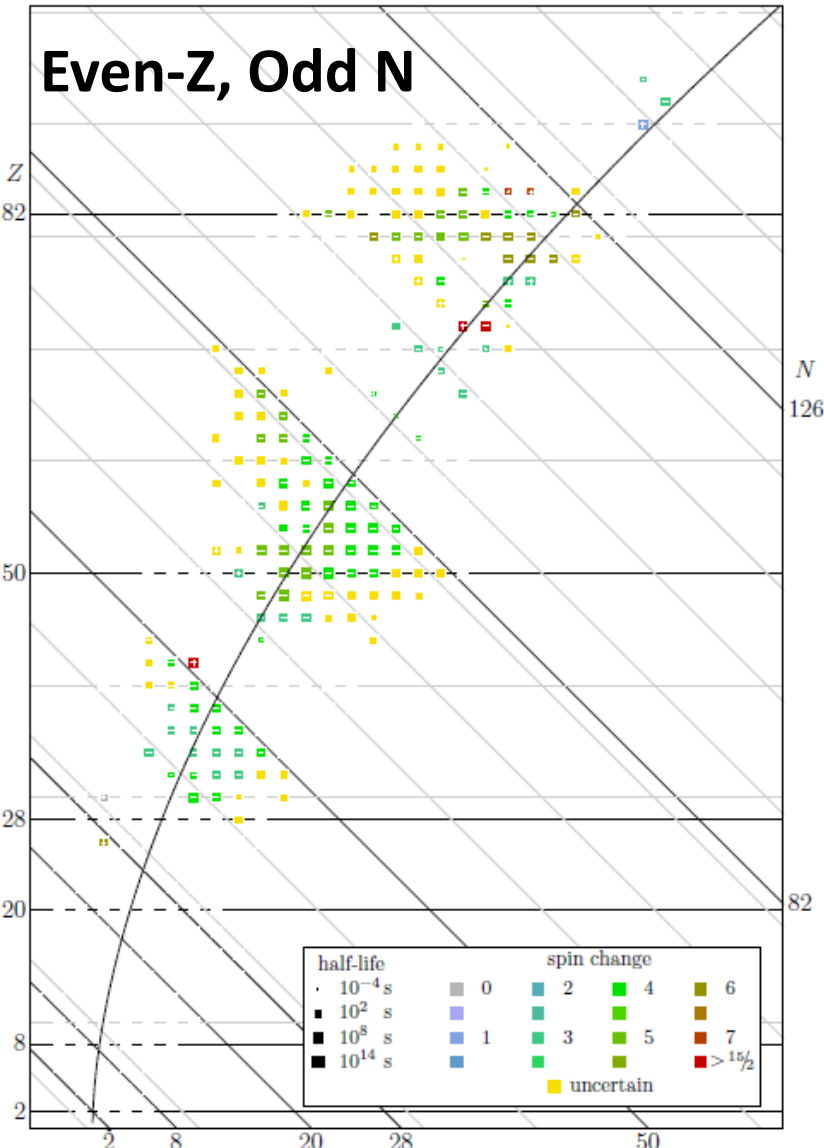
What else are J^π predictions good for? Isomers (long-lived x.s.)

- Most excited states decay via γ -emission in a matter of femto-seconds, but some stick around for many nanoseconds, milliseconds, seconds, or even universe lifetimes.
- These are meta-stable states, a.k.a. isomers
- The reason is γ -emission is suppressed, since it would require large angular momentum transfer
- So, where do we expect low-lying high- j excited states?
 - Where a large Δj exists between neighboring levels (thanks to the spin-orbit interaction) that are near the last single particle orbit.
 - Namely, below magic #'s 50, 82, 126
 - For these cases, we expect a parity change
 - Where multiple j are possible for the ground-state (but one is favored by the Brennan-Bernstein rules) and high- j single-particle levels are involved
 - Namely, odd-odd nuclei
 - For these cases, we don't expect a parity change



Isomers on the Nuclear Chart

L. van Dommelen, Quantum Mechanics for Engineers (2012)

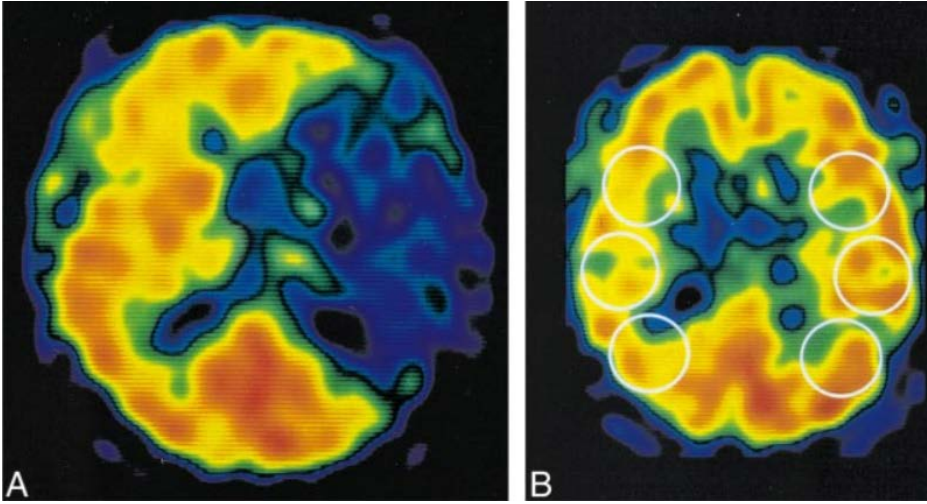


Special cases exist (mostly for higher- A nuclides) where even-even nuclei have isomers (e.g. M. Müller-Veggian et al., Z.Phys.A (1979))

Impact of Isomers (selected examples)

Medical Imaging

e.g. mapping blood flow in the brain with SPECT using ^{99m}Tc



K. Ogasawara et al. American Journal of Neuroradiology (2001)

Nuclear Energy Storage

Controlled energy storage and release using isomers and lasers was a hot topic for a while

...but it turns out to be really difficult.

P. Walker & J. Carrol, Physics Today (2005)

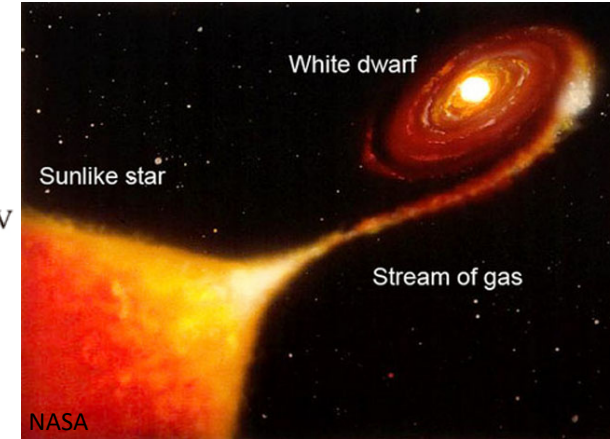
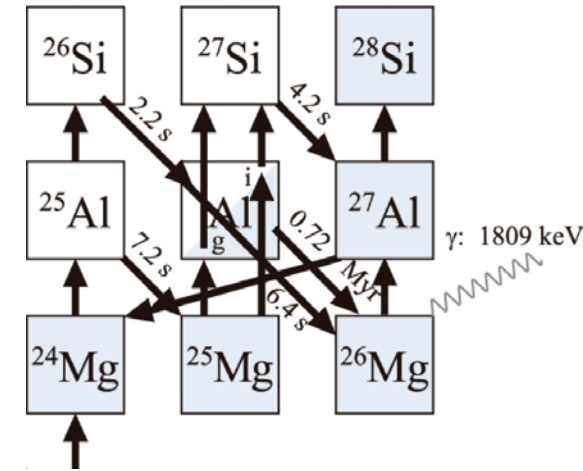
Recent theoretical work has found a possible avenue using dielectric cavities.

E. Tkalya PRL (2018)



Nuclear Astrophysics

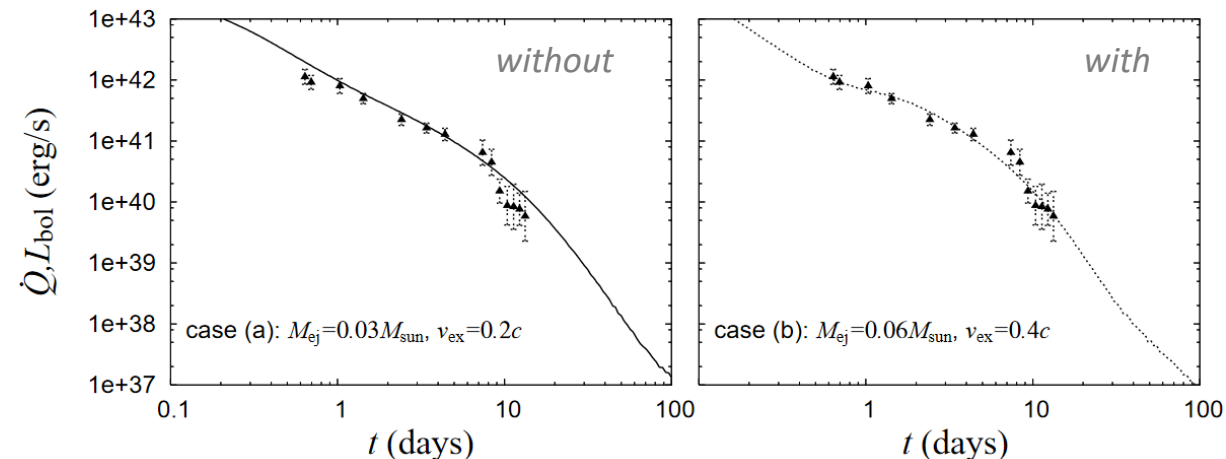
e.g. ^{26}Mg complicating nova nucleosynthesis calculations



J. José, Stellar Explosions (2015), G. Misch et al. ApJS (2021)

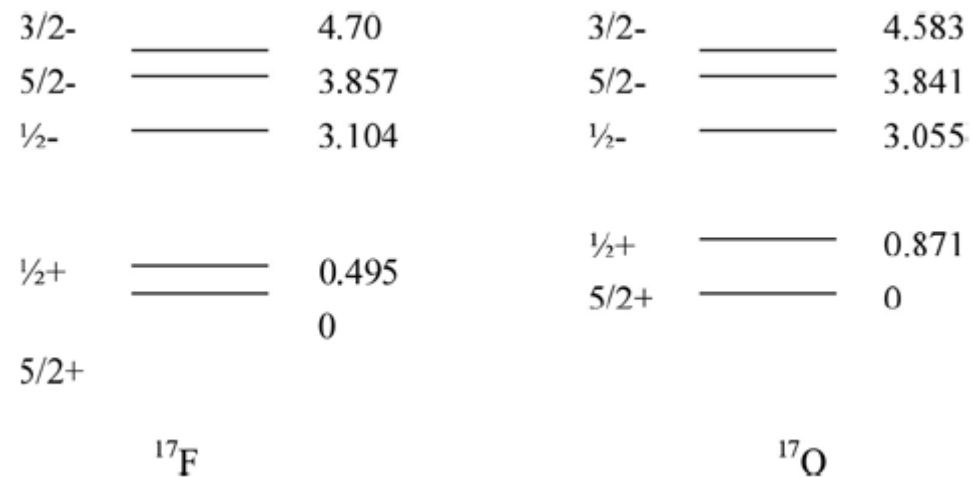
e.g. modifying NS merger ejecta conditions inferred from kilonova light curves

Fujimoto & Hashimoto MNRASL (2020)

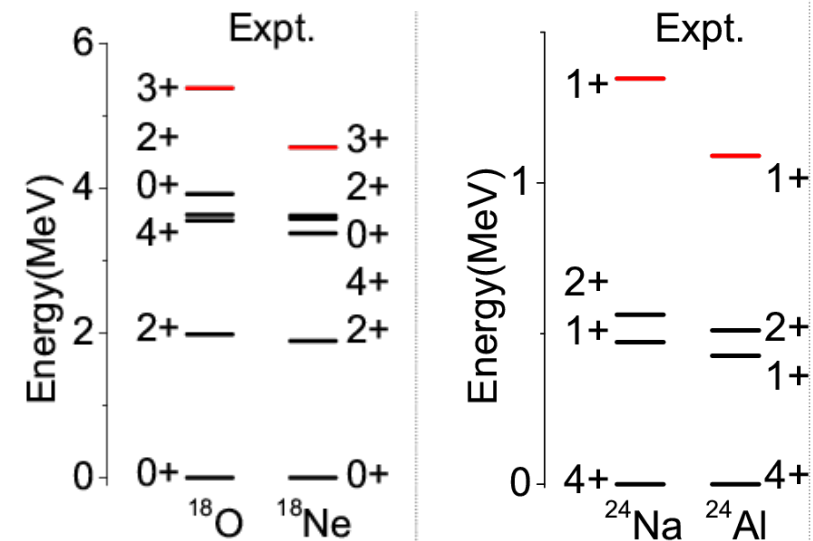


What else are J^π predictions good for? Mirror Nuclei

- Note that our methods to determine J^π didn't depend on whether we were working with protons or neutrons
- If we interchange N for Z, we will get the same answer
- Such pairs are called “mirror nuclei”
- When we examine the levels for mirror nuclei, correcting for the different Coulomb energy, we see a remarkable similarity
- E.g.



Loveland, Morrissey, & Seaborg, Modern Nuclear Chemistry (2006)



C. Yuan et al., Phys. Rev. C (2014)

- Such mirror symmetry is evidence for charge-independence of the nuclear force and a justification for the concept of isospin
- It's also handy when you need estimates for a nucleus you can't access when you can access its mirror (e.g. C.Akers et al. PRC 2016)*

The Shell Model:
It slices, it dices, it makes julienne fries!
What can't it do!?

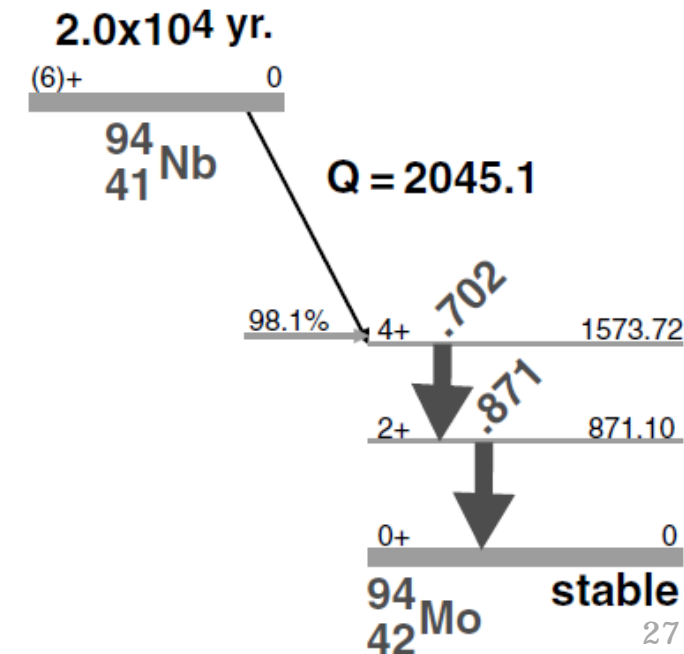
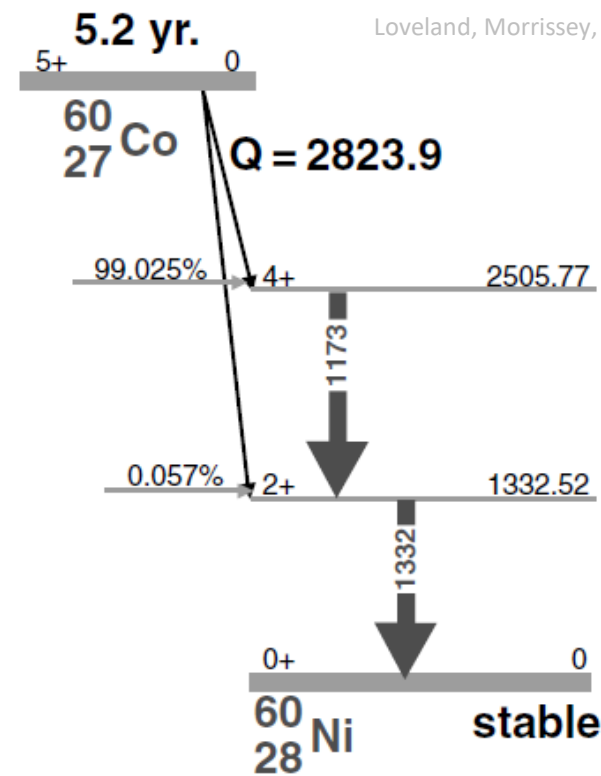


L. van Dommelen, Quantum Mechanics for Engineers (2012)

-
- Figure 1 displays four energy level diagrams for different nuclei, illustrating various nuclear structure phenomena. The y-axis represents energy (E) and the x-axis represents spin values.
- $^{47}_{22}\text{Ti}$ (Imperfect pairing):** Shows energy levels for various spin states. The diagram illustrates the effect of imperfect pairing on the energy levels.
 - $^{19}_9\text{F}$ (Wrong shell):** Shows energy levels for various spin states. The diagram illustrates the effect of a wrong shell on the energy levels.
 - $^{77}_{34}\text{Se}$ (Promotion):** Shows energy levels for various spin states. The diagram illustrates the effect of promotion on the energy levels.
 - $^{181}_{73}\text{Ta}$ (Nonspherical nucleus):** Shows energy levels for various spin states. The diagram illustrates the effect of a nonspherical nucleus on the energy levels.
- The spin values shown on the x-axis are: $0, -\frac{1}{2}, -1, -\frac{3}{2}, -2, -\frac{5}{2}, -3, -\frac{7}{2}, -4, -\frac{9}{2}, -5, -\frac{11}{2}, -6, -\frac{13}{2}, -7, -\frac{15}{2}, -\frac{17}{2}, -\frac{19}{2}, -\frac{21}{2}, -\frac{23}{2}, -\frac{25}{2}, -\frac{27}{2}, -\frac{29}{2}, -\frac{31}{2}, -\frac{33}{2}, -\frac{35}{2}, -\frac{37}{2}, -\frac{39}{2}, -\frac{41}{2}, -\frac{43}{2}, -\frac{45}{2}, -\frac{47}{2}, -\frac{49}{2}, -\frac{51}{2}, -\frac{53}{2}, -\frac{55}{2}, -\frac{57}{2}, -\frac{59}{2}, -\frac{61}{2}, -\frac{63}{2}, -\frac{65}{2}, -\frac{67}{2}, -\frac{69}{2}, -\frac{71}{2}, -\frac{73}{2}, -\frac{75}{2}, -\frac{77}{2}, -\frac{79}{2}, -\frac{81}{2}, -\frac{83}{2}, -\frac{85}{2}, -\frac{87}{2}, -\frac{89}{2}, -\frac{91}{2}, -\frac{93}{2}, -\frac{95}{2}, -\frac{97}{2}, -\frac{99}{2}, -\frac{101}{2}, -\frac{103}{2}, -\frac{105}{2}, -\frac{107}{2}, -\frac{109}{2}, -\frac{111}{2}, -\frac{113}{2}, -\frac{115}{2}, -\frac{117}{2}, -\frac{119}{2}, -\frac{121}{2}, 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-\frac{743}{2}, -\frac{745}{2}, -$

Shell Model Limitations:

- For example, nuclei have series of states that are spaced in energy and linked via transitions that can be described by a collective rotation/vibration of the nucleus.
- The rotational bands of even-even nuclei link the ground state to 2+, 4+, 6+, 8+, etc., excited states
- Another example is the inability to predict nuclear masses.
- Shell model potentials must be adjusted to reproduce the ground-state binding energy
- Some other approach, such as a collective model (e.g. the liquid drop model) is needed instead



How do I do actual shell-model calculations?

- Open-source codes include:
 - NuShellX: <http://www.garsington.eclipse.co.uk/>, which has a slightly more user-friendly version, [NuShellX@MSU](#), coupled to ENSDF nuclear data, that has a tutorial [here](#)
 - BigStick: <https://github.com/cwjsdsu/BigstickPublick>
 - Many others curated by the FRIB Theory Alliance: <https://fribtheoryalliance.org/content/Resources/codes.php>
- If you're a DIYer, Morton Hjorth-Jensen developed a [how-to guide](#)

Further Reading

- Chapter 6, Appendix E: Modern Nuclear Chemistry (Loveland, Morrissey, Seaborg)
- Chapters 7: Nuclear & Particle Physics (B.R. Martin)
- Chapters 6-8: [Lecture Notes in Nuclear Structure Physics \(B.A. Brown\)](#)
- Chapter 14, Section 12: [Quantum Mechanics for Engineers \(L. van Dommelen\)](#)
- Chapter 1, Section 6: Nuclear Physics of Stars (C. Iliadis)
- Chapter 11: The Atomic Nucleus (R. Evans)