

Nuclear physics

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Office hour: Wednesday 13-14, tell
me in advance if you are coming

Material

- B.R. Martin: Nuclear and Particle Physics
- J. Lilley: Nuclear Physics – Principles and Applications (Wiley, 2001)
- Some lecture notes by David Watts.
- Later on some slides from our local "neutron star expert", Stephan Rosswog

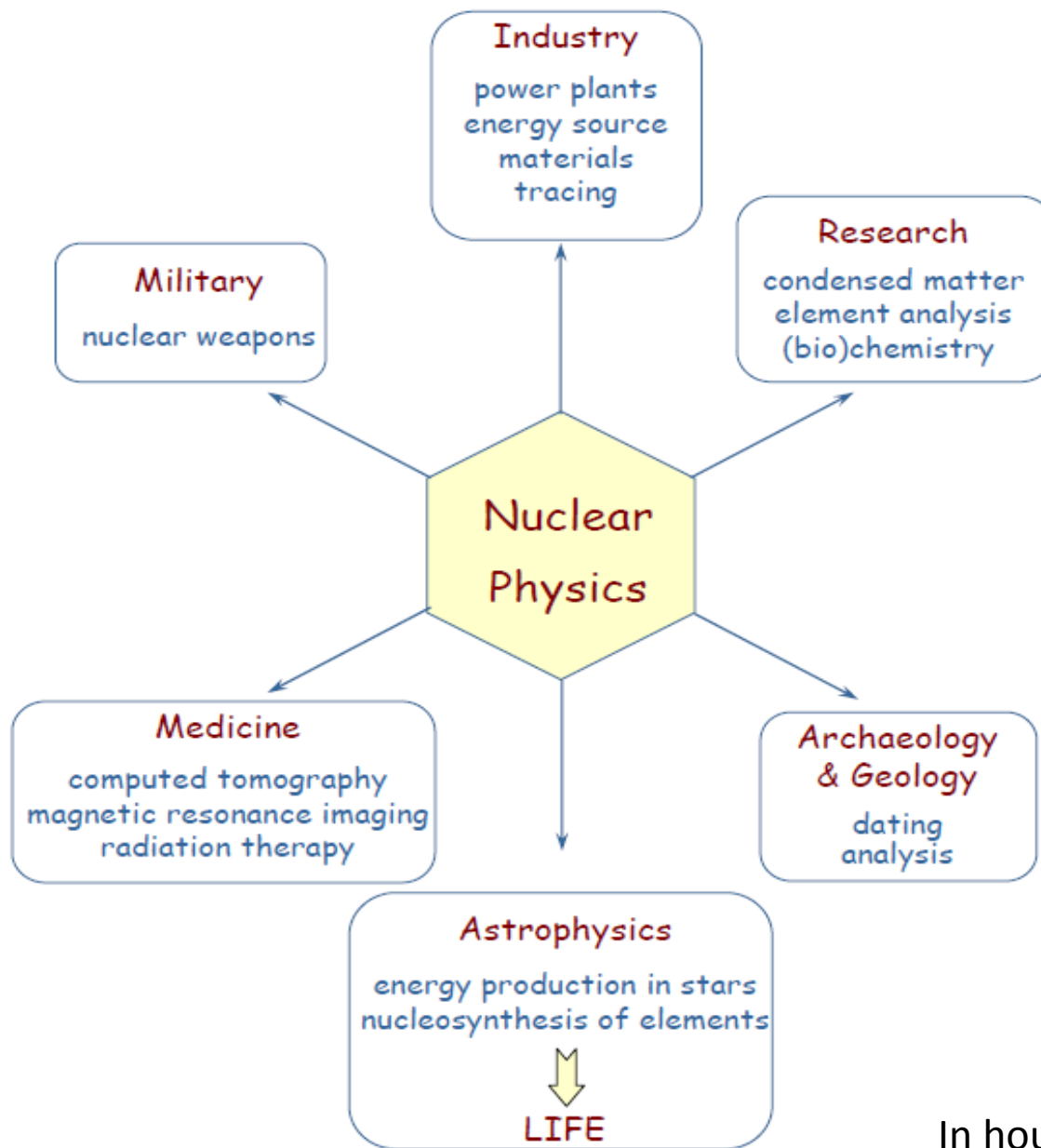
Practical issues

- Hand-in exercises will be distributed **October 2**, deadline will be **October 9**
- Nuclear physics raises a few questions related to research ethics, the discussion of which therefore will be part of the hand-in exercise.
- These will be also discussed in a seminar **October 9.**

Lecture 1: Nuclear shapes and sizes, the Bethe-Weizsäcker formula

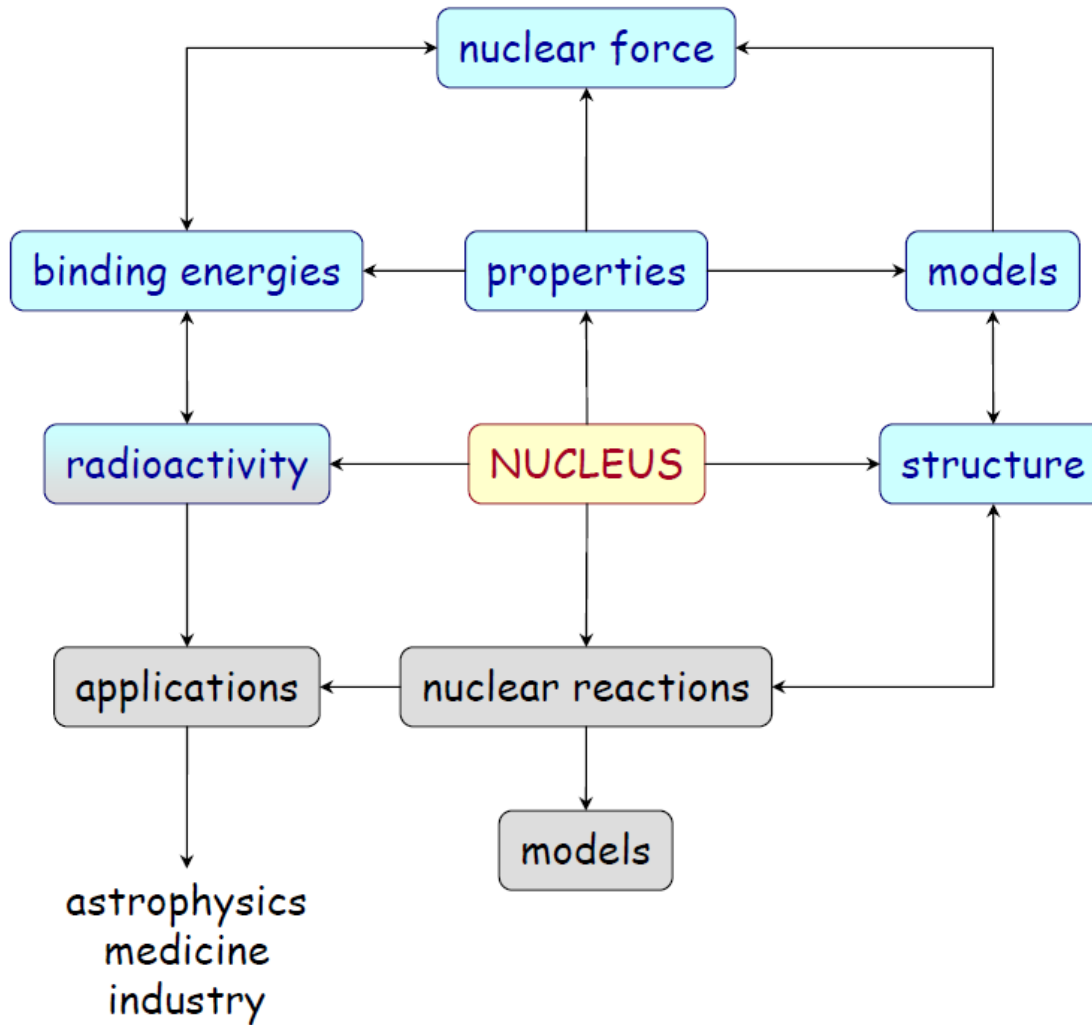
Nuclear- and Particle Physics

- Particle Physics: Two-body, or few body, mainly point-like
- Nuclear physics: Many-body
- In principle, it should be possible to calculate nuclear properties from Quantum Chromo Dynamics (strong force dominant in nuclei). In practice: semi-empirical and phenomenological models needed.

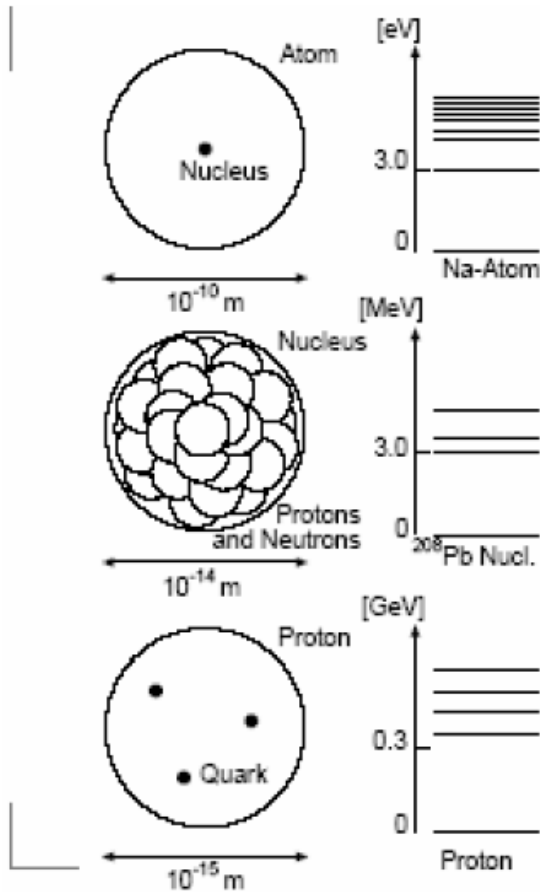


In house research:
searches for Dark Matter!

Course overview



Scales



Typical energy scale in nuclei (MeV) is much higher than in atomic case (eV)

Nuclei are dense objects: 1cm^3 has mass $\sim 2.3 \times 10^{11}$ kg (equivalent to 630 empire state buildings!!)

which quarks make the proton? Excited state of proton?
 10^{-10} , what kind of radiation?

Nuclear properties

Z – atomic number = the number of protons,

N – neutron number = the number of neutrons,

A – mass number = the number of nucleons, so that $A = Z + N$.

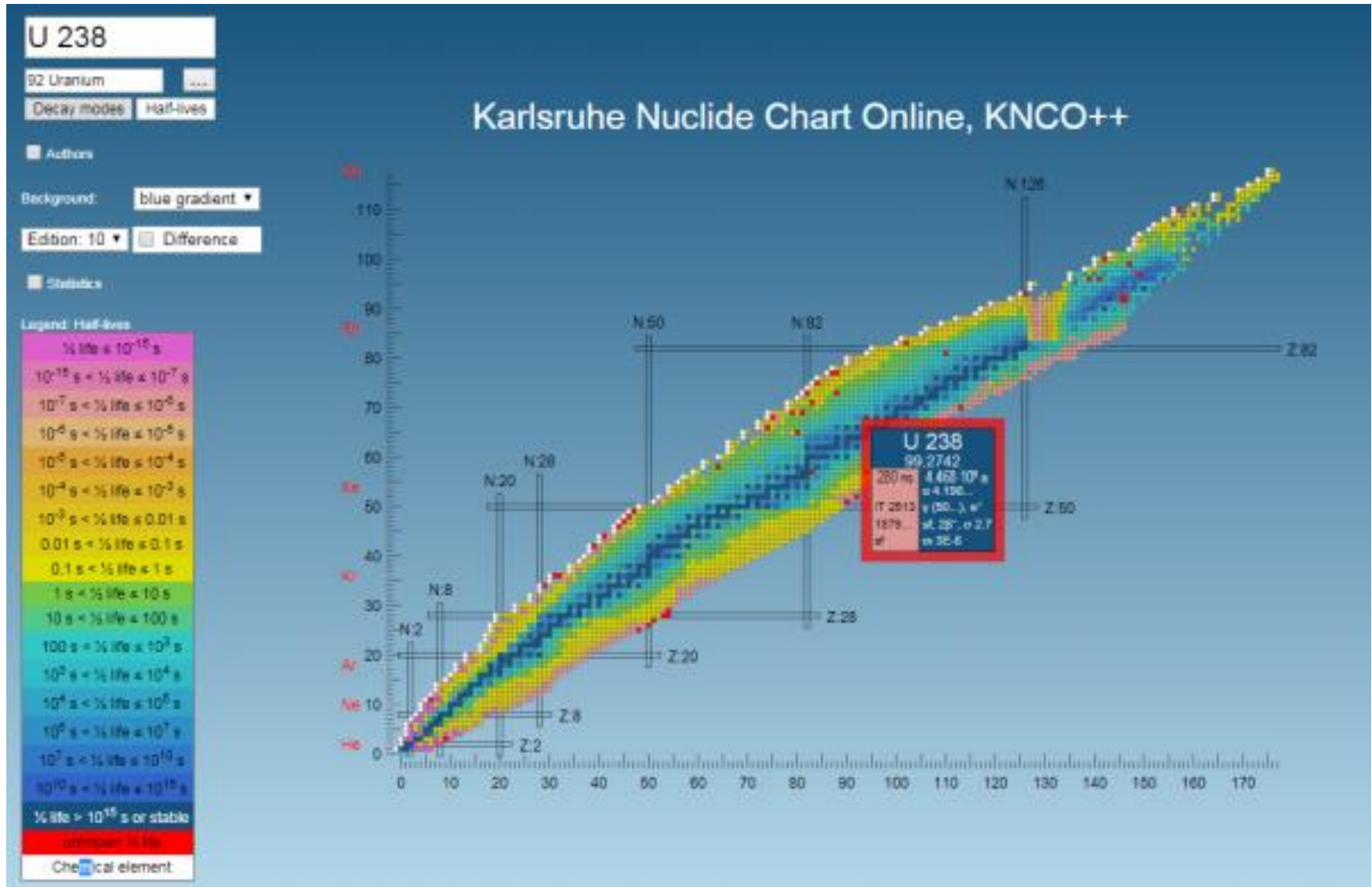


nuclides with the same mass number are called *isobars*,

nuclides with the same atomic number are called *isotopes*,

nuclides with the same neutron number are called *isotones*.

Nuclide chart:



What does it show?

Masses and binding energy

Mass:

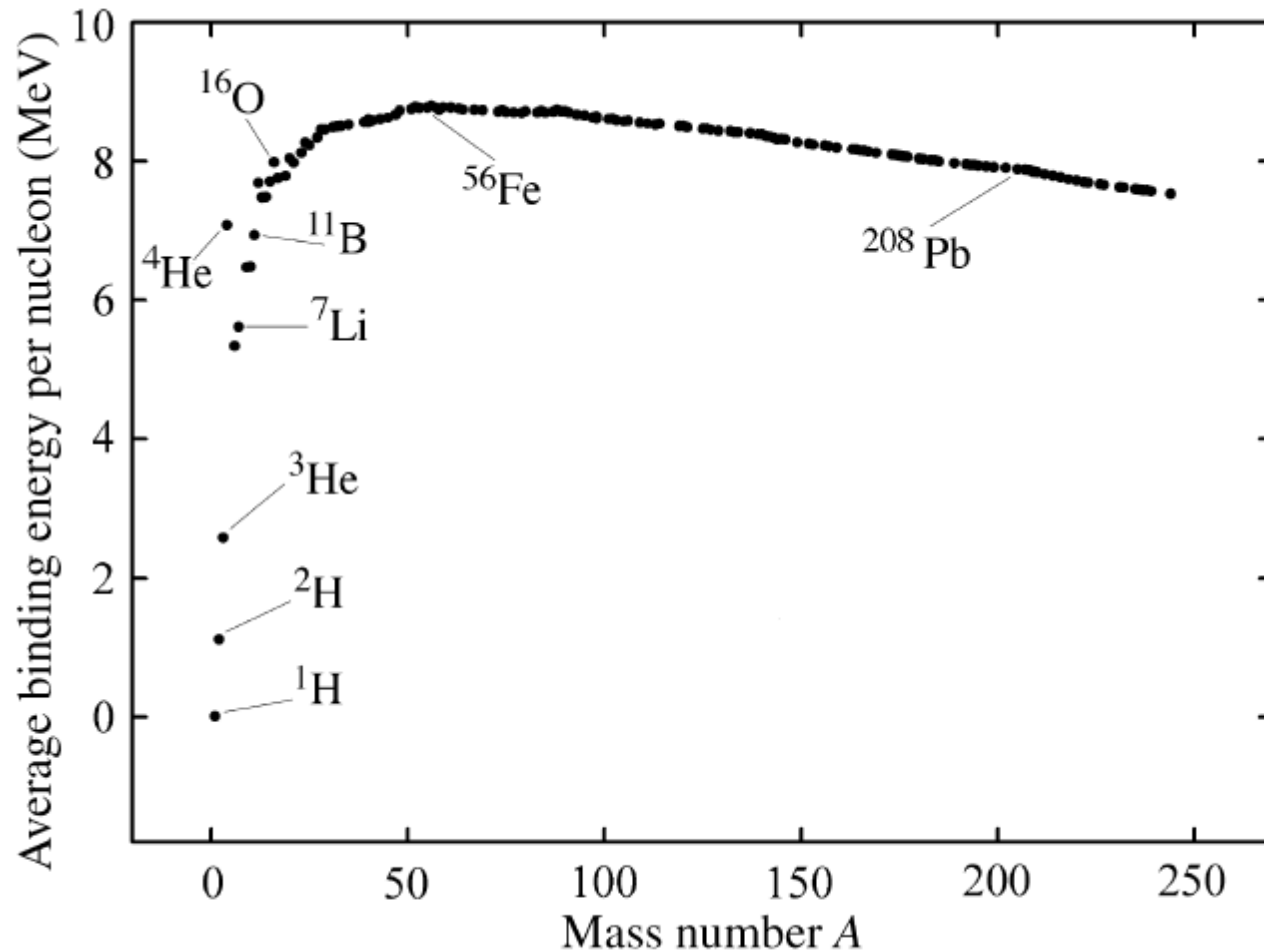
$$M(Z, A) < Z (M_p + m_e) + N M_n.$$

Mass deficit:

$$\Delta M(Z, A) \equiv M(Z, A) - Z (M_p + m_e) - N M_n$$

Binding energy:

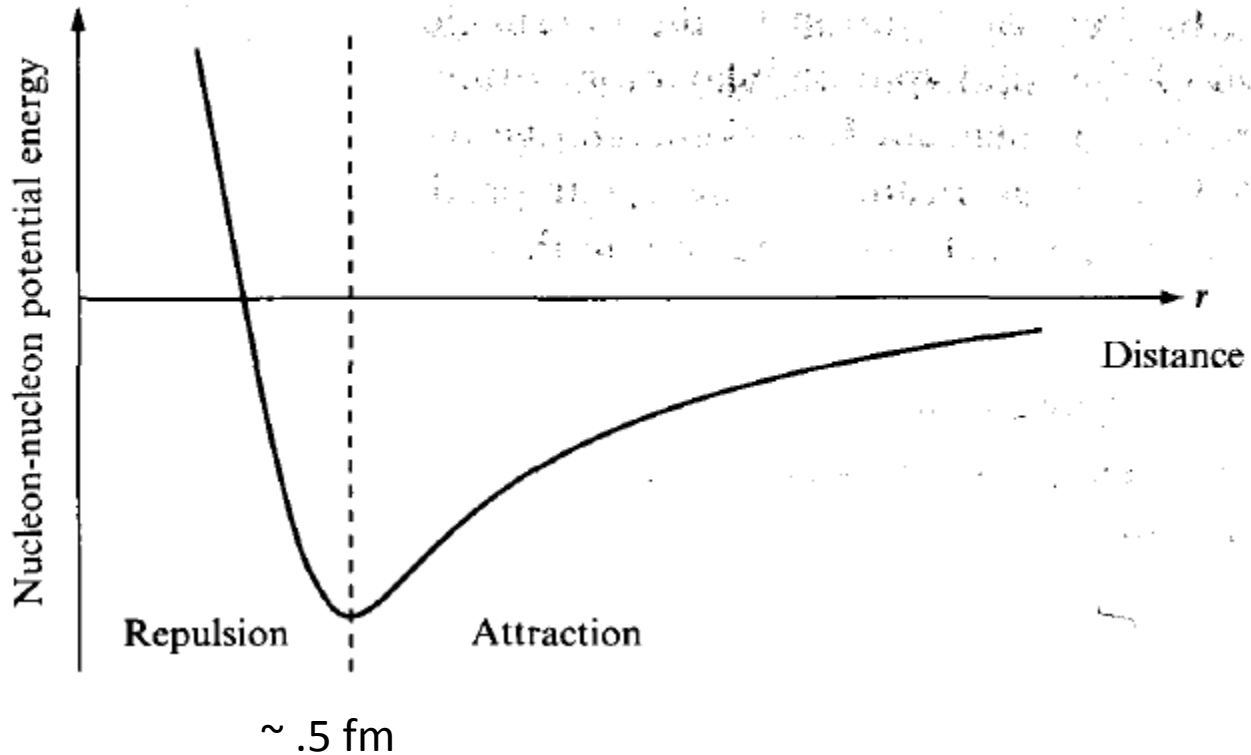
$$-\Delta M c^2$$



Martin, p 34:
mass
spectrometer

We will spend a significant part of our lectures on understanding this chart.

Nuclear force



+ spin dependent

Nuclear shapes and sizes

- Charge distribution

use electrons as probe \rightarrow point like particles, experience electromagnetic interaction only and not strong (nuclear) force,

- Mass distribution

use hadrons as probe \rightarrow strong force \rightarrow α -particle

What do we define as nuclear size?

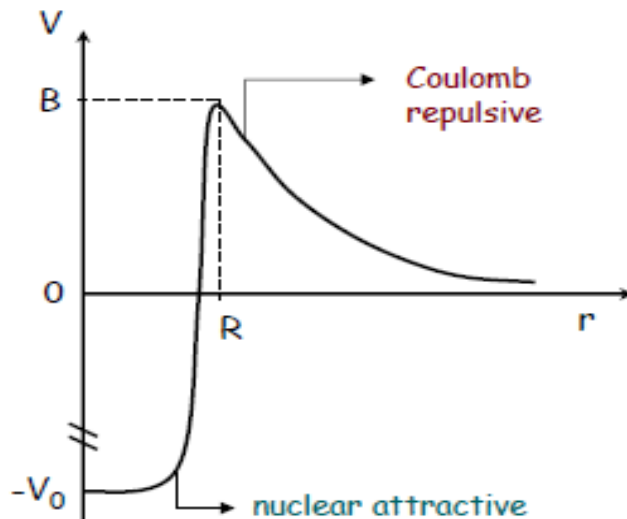
Consider the following:

- the nucleus has a net positive charge Ze (Z protons)
- take into account Coulomb + nuclear force

↓
extends to ∞
as $1/R^2$

↓
has short
($\sim 10^{-15}$ m) range

Resulting potential



Define:
barrier height B at a distance
from centre R :

$$B = \frac{Zze^2}{R}$$

for incident charge ze

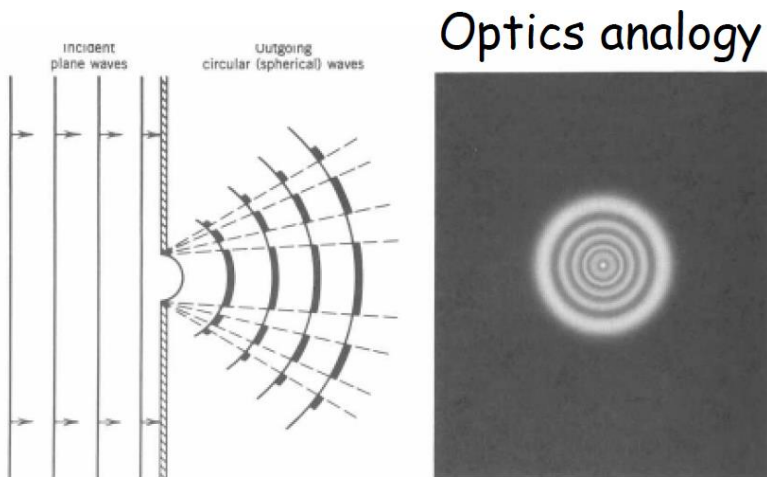
$R = \text{POTENTIAL RADIUS} \Rightarrow$ related to range of nuclear force

potential radius $>$ charge (or mass) radius

$\text{CHARGE RADIUS} \Rightarrow$ related to charge distribution

Electron scattering

Consider angular distribution:



$$E \sim pc \quad \Rightarrow \quad E = \frac{\hbar c}{\lambda} = \frac{197.3 \text{ MeV fm}}{0.5 \text{ fm}} \sim 400 \text{ MeV}$$

$p = h/\lambda$

assume nucleus behaves
as a circular disk

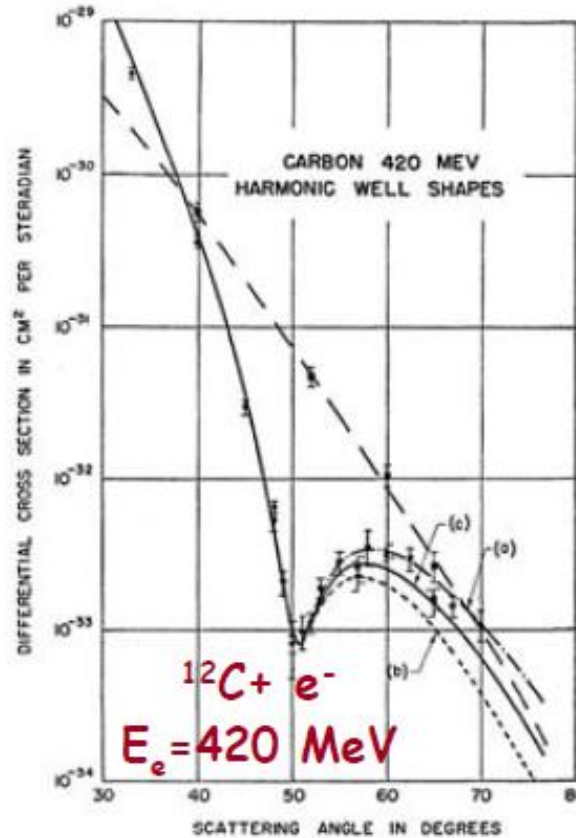


1st minimum at θ :

$$\sin \theta = \frac{1.22\lambda}{2R}$$

$R = \text{CHARGE RADIUS}$

Electron scattering



$$E = 420 \text{ MeV} \sim pc$$

$$\lambda = h/p \sim 3 \text{ fm}$$

$$\Theta = \sin^{-1} (1.22\lambda/d) = 50^\circ$$

for ^{12}C

$$R(^{12}\text{C}) = 2.5 \text{ fm}$$

Formula: 2.74 fm

In real life, the nucleus will not be a disk.

Rutherford cross-section and charge distribution.

p 27 in Martin
Tutorial today.

Spin0 point-like probe
charged point-like target

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\text{Rutherford}} = \frac{Z^2 \alpha^2 (\hbar c)^2}{4E^2 \sin^4(\theta/2)},$$

Including spin of electron:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\text{Mott}} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\text{Rutherford}} [1 - \beta^2 \sin^2(\theta/2)],$$

Including non-point like
nature of the target:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\text{expt}} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\text{Mott}} |F(\mathbf{q}^2)|^2. \quad \mathbf{q} \equiv \mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}'$$

Fourier transform of charge
distribution:

$$F(\mathbf{q}^2) = \frac{4\pi\hbar}{Ze q} \int_0^{\infty} r \rho(r) \sin\left(\frac{qr}{\hbar}\right) dr,$$

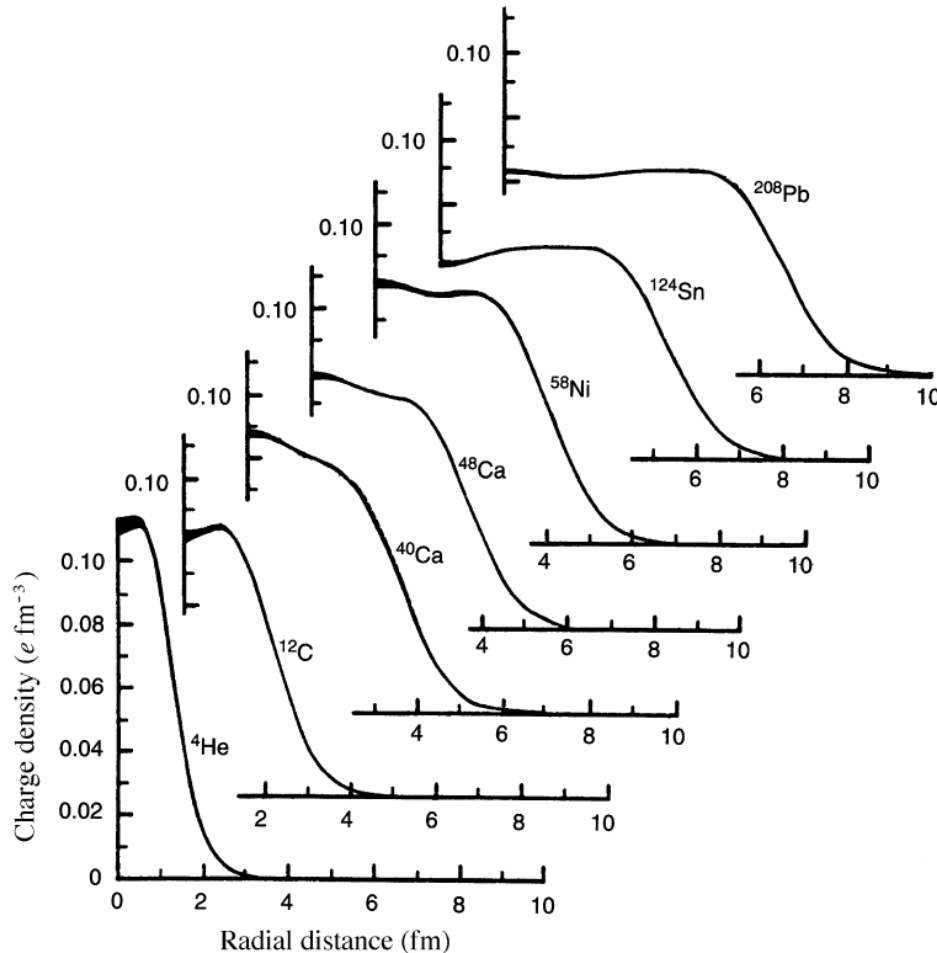
Example

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(r) &= \text{constant}, & r &\leq a \\ &= 0 & r &> a\end{aligned}$$

$$F(\mathbf{q}^2) = 3[\sin(b) - b\cos(b)]b^{-3},$$

$$b \equiv qa/\hbar.$$

Nuclear sizes



$$\rho(r) = \frac{\rho_0}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{r-R}{a}\right)}$$

R = Radius at half density
 a = diffuseness parameter
 $\rho_0 \sim$ central density

nuclei \sim const. density

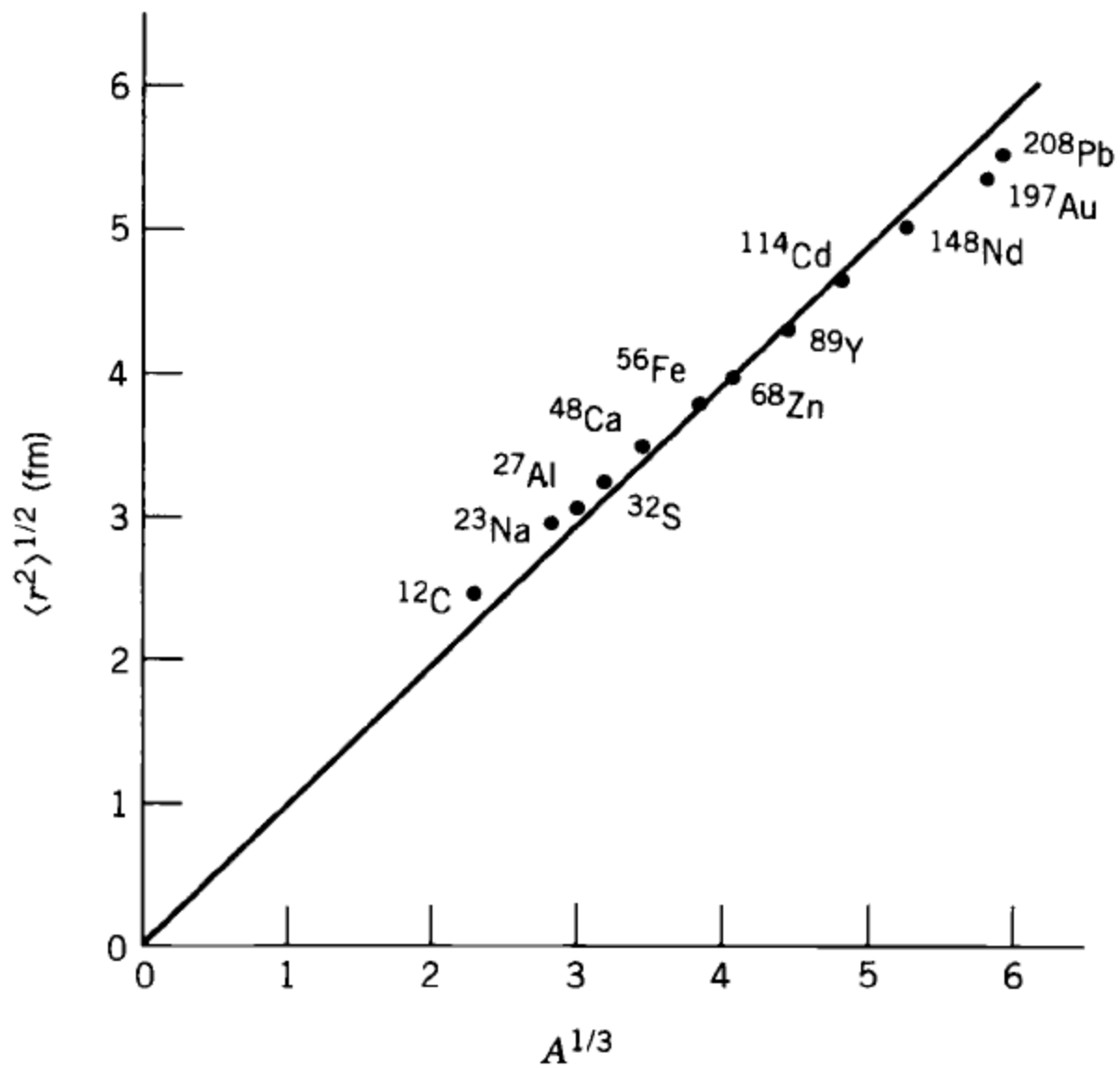
$$M = V \times \rho$$

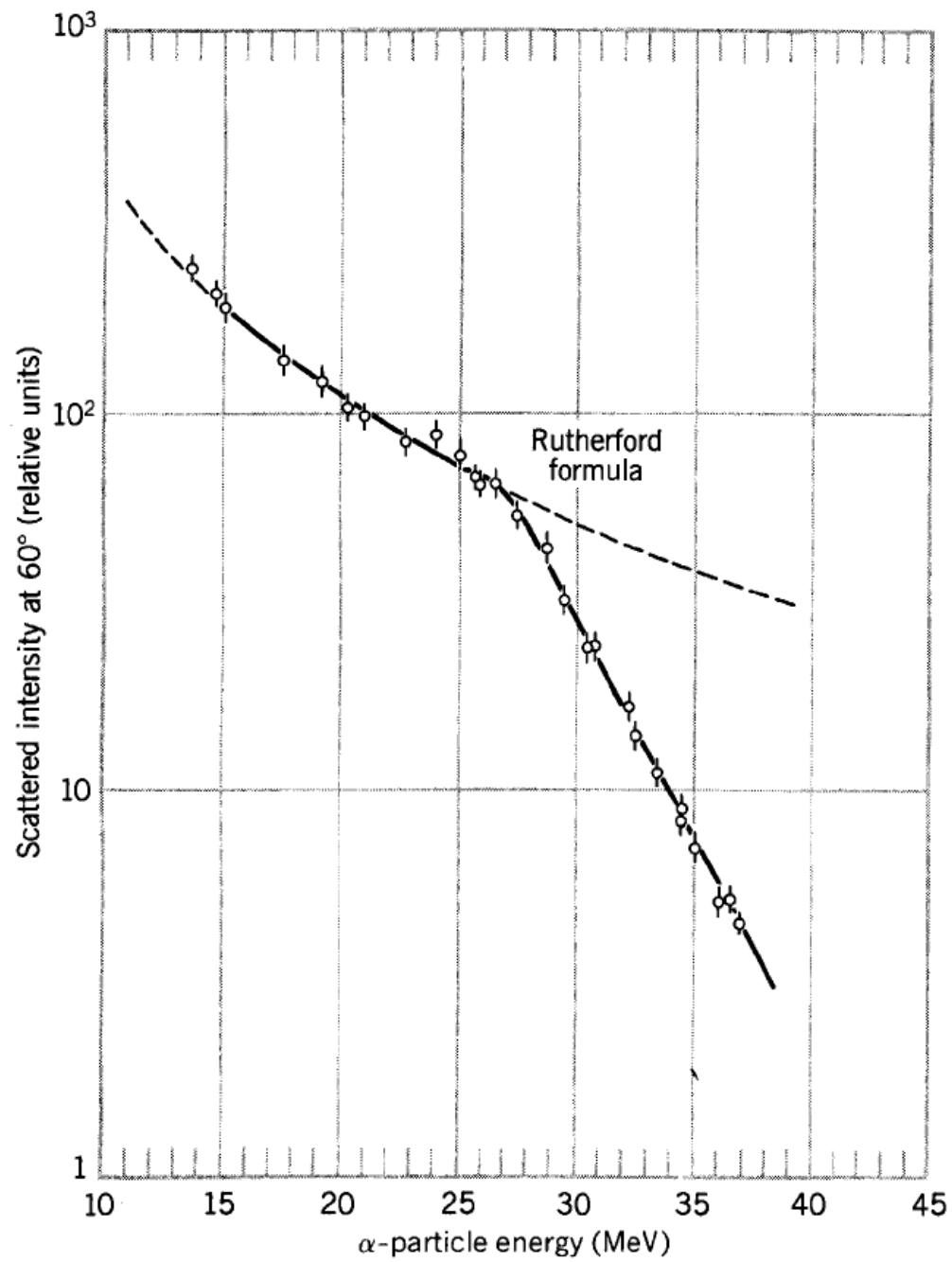
$$A = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho$$

$$R = r_0 A^{1/3}$$

$r_0 \sim 1,2$ fm

This scaling implies that the volume per nucleon is roughly constant – like in an incompressible fluid. This would not be the case if the strong force had infinite range





Bethe-Weizsäcker Mass Formula

C.v. Weizsäcker: "Zur Theorie der Kernmassen" (1935)

- aka Semi-Empirical Mass Formula

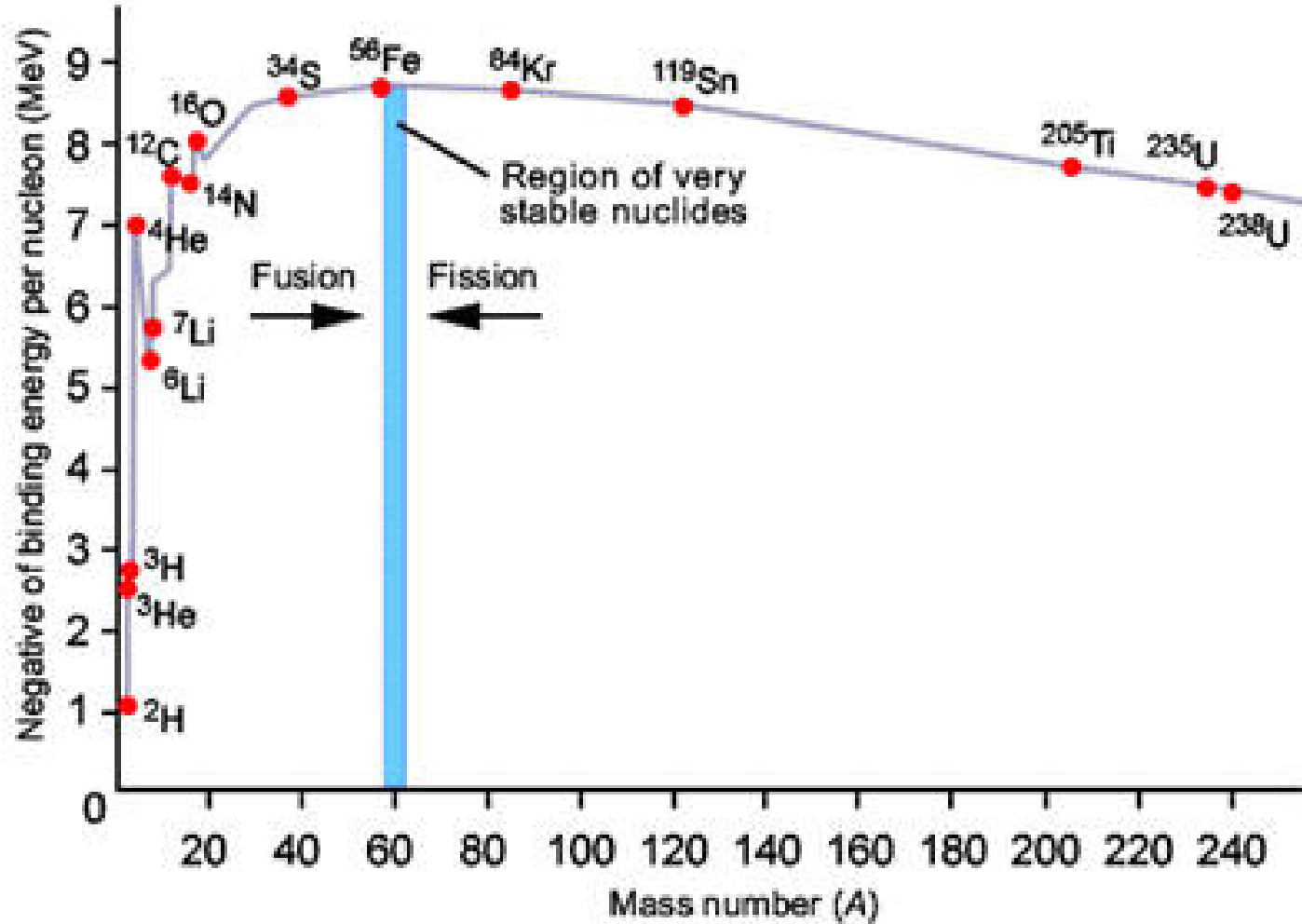


Hans Bethe (1906-2005)
Los Alamos badge



Carl Friedrich von Weizsäcker
(1912- 2007, rhs) Who is on the
left?

Binding energy



Bethe-Weizsäcker formula

- The Bethe-Weizsäcker formula provides a formula for the mass of nuclei, inspired by the "Liquid drop Model"

nucleus regarded as collection of neutrons and protons forming a droplet of incompressible fluid

$$M(Z, A) = \sum_{i=0}^5 f_i(Z, A).$$

Mass term

$$f_0(Z, A) = Z (M_p + m_e) + (A - Z)M_n.$$

Volume term

$$f_1(Z, A) = -a_1A.$$

Volume energy: Each nucleon only feels interaction of close neighbours due to short range of nuclear force - Gives a positive binding energy which is roughly the same for each nucleon

N.B: "-" sign → positive contribution to binding energy

Surface term

$$f_2(Z, A) = +a_2A^{\frac{2}{3}},$$

Surface correction: Nucleons near surface of nucleus surrounded by fewer nucleons and will therefore experience less attractive potential energy than those inside the nucleus. Compensate with a reduction in binding energy proportional to number of nucleons in nuclear surface



Coulomb term

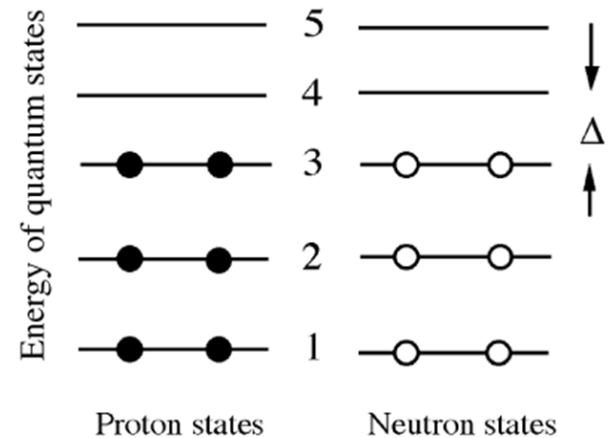
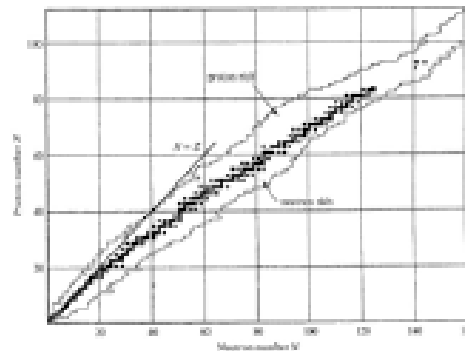
$$f_3(Z, A) = +a_3 \frac{Z(Z-1)}{A^{\frac{1}{3}}} \approx +a_3 \frac{Z^2}{A^{\frac{1}{3}}},$$

Coulomb energy: Nucleus has total charge Ze confined to a sphere of radius R . The resultant potential energy given by electrostatic theory $= \frac{3}{5} \frac{(Ze)^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 R}$

Assymetry term

$$f_4(Z, A) = +a_4 \frac{(Z - A/2)^2}{A}$$

Symmetry term:
 Stable light nuclei have $N \sim Z$ (i.e. $A \sim 2Z$). If A deviates from $2Z$ then binding energy is reduced.



Pairing term

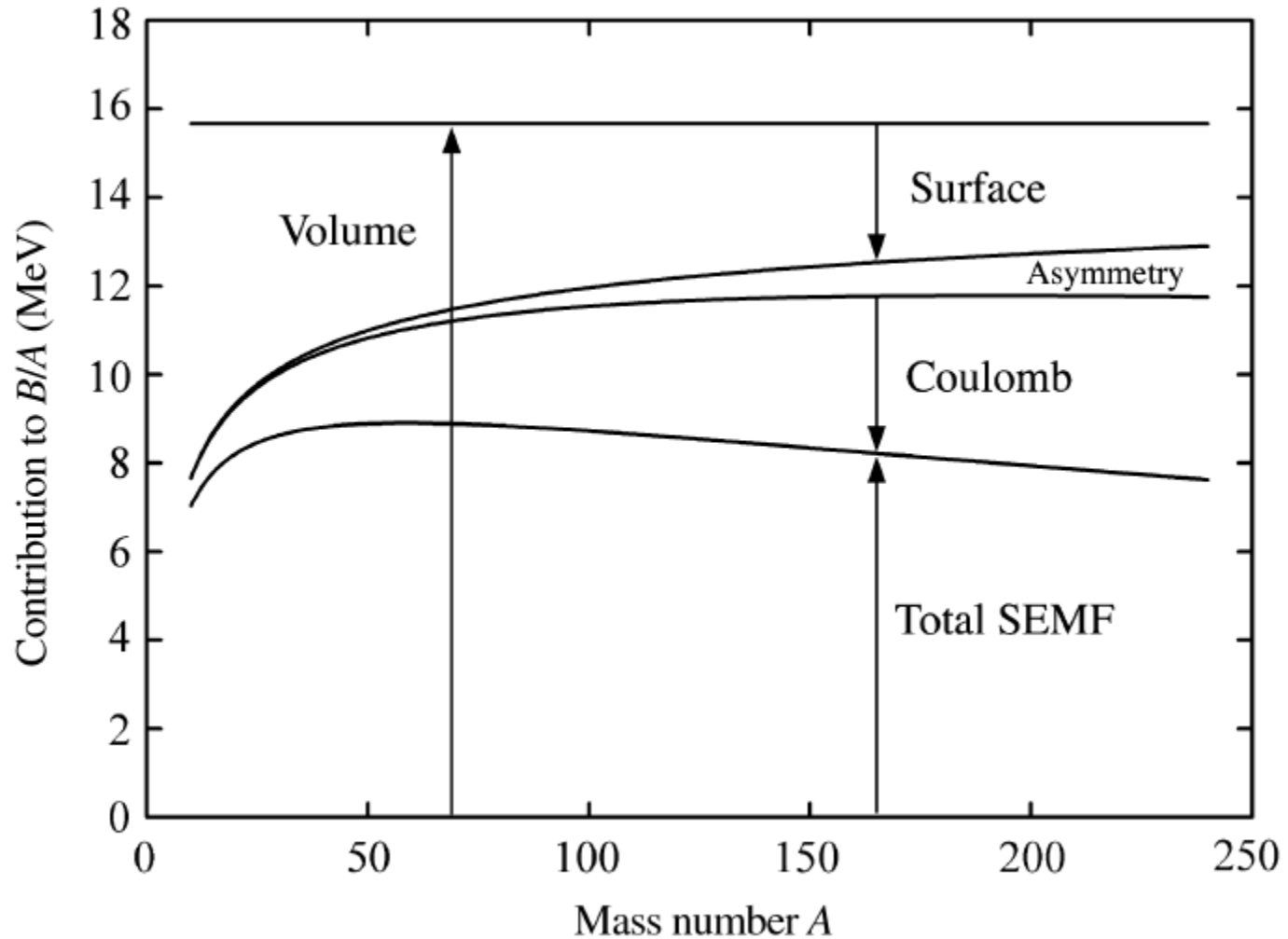
$$\begin{aligned}
 f_5(Z, A) &= -f(A), & \text{if } Z \text{ even, } A - Z = N \text{ even} \\
 f_5(Z, A) &= 0, & \text{if } Z \text{ even, } A - Z = N \text{ odd; or, } Z \text{ odd, } A - Z = N \text{ even} \\
 f_5(Z, A) &= +f(A), & \text{if } Z \text{ odd, } A - Z = N \text{ odd}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2.52}$$

Pairing term: Most stable nuclei have Z even and N even and therefore A even (even-even nuclei).

Increases binding for even-even nuclei and reduces for odd-odd.

Nuclear species	Number observed [stable + longlived ($T_{1/2} > 10^8\text{y}$)]
Odd-odd	6 + 4 = 10
Odd-even	51 + 3 = 54
Even-odd	55 + 3 = 58
Even-even	166 + 11 = 177
	<hr/> 278 + 21 = 299 <hr/>

Contributions to the binding energy



Summary

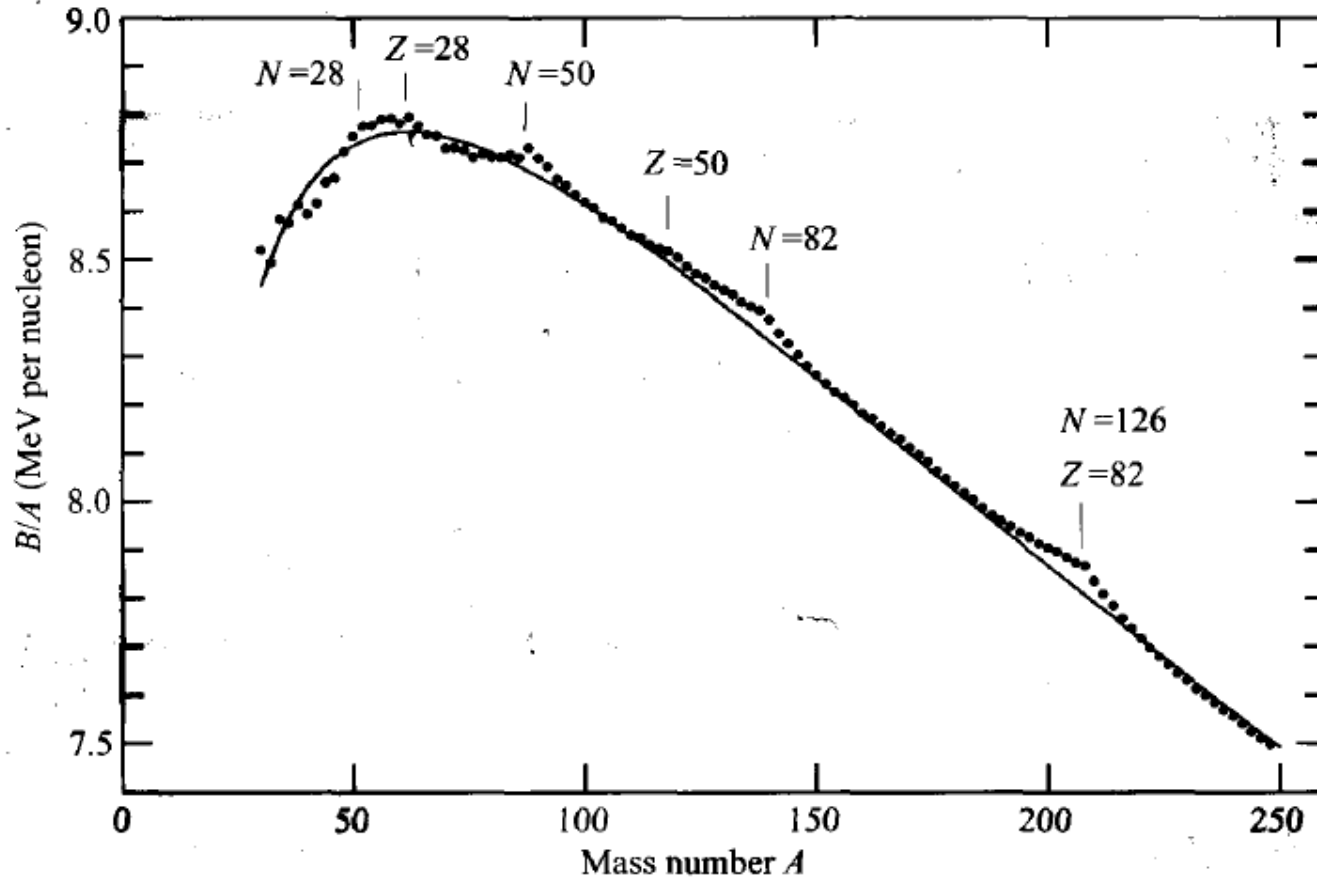
$$B(A,Z) = a_v A - a_s A^{2/3} - a_c \frac{Z^2}{A^{1/3}} - a_a \frac{(A - 2Z)^2}{A} + \delta(A,Z)$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_v &= 15.6 \text{ MeV} \\ a_s &= 17.2 \text{ MeV} \\ a_a &= 23.3 \text{ MeV} \\ a_c &= 0.70 \text{ MeV} \end{aligned}$$

Note (different notation used by MANY authors):

- change in notation for asymmetry term (x 4 for the coefficient)
- $\delta = f(A) = a_5 A^{-\frac{1}{2}}$

BW formula and magic numbers



Summary of today's lecture

- Unlike particle physics, nuclear physics considers multi-body, composite objects → phenomenological modelling → many applications.
- Typical sizes of nuclei: \sim fm,
Typical energies \sim MeV,
Typical densities: 10^{14} g/cm³

Summary of today's lecture

- The charge distribution (and size) of a nucleus can be experimentally determined by measuring the angular distribution of electron scattering
- The mass distribution can be determined by scattering of α particles (the original Rutherford scattering experiments)

$$R = r_0 A^{1/3}$$

$$r_0 \sim 1,2 \text{ fm}$$

Summary of today's lecture

- We started to talk about modelling the binding energy of nuclei.
- Nuclear models should be able to explain the (i) the dependence of binding energy on nuclear mass and (ii) nuclear reactions
- We discussed the Bethe-Weizsäcker formula, which is a parameterization of the binding energy as function of A with 4 free parameters.

Summary of today's lecture

- In next lecture ("Decays and Reactions") we will see how we can use the Bethe-Weizsäcker formula to predict the "valley of stability" → mass parabolas.
- We saw also that the B-W formula gives a good description of the binding energy, but there are features that we do not understand: e.g. magic numbers, This will lead us to consider corrections to the B-W formula