

8.1 - The nucleus

The atomic nucleus consists of protons and neutrons.

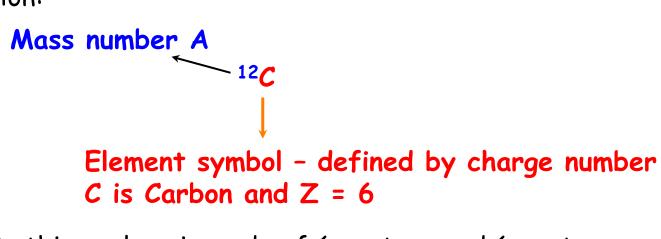
Protons and neutrons are called nucleons.

A nucleus is characterized by:

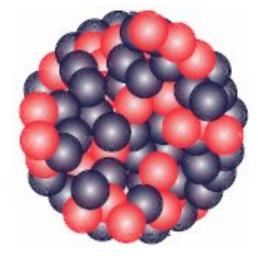
- A: Mass Number = number of nucleons
- Z: Charge Number = number of protons
- N: Neutron Number

Of course A=Z+N

Usual notation:



So this nucleus is made of 6 protons and 6 neutrons



Determines the element

Determines the isotope

8.1.1 - Nuclear physics

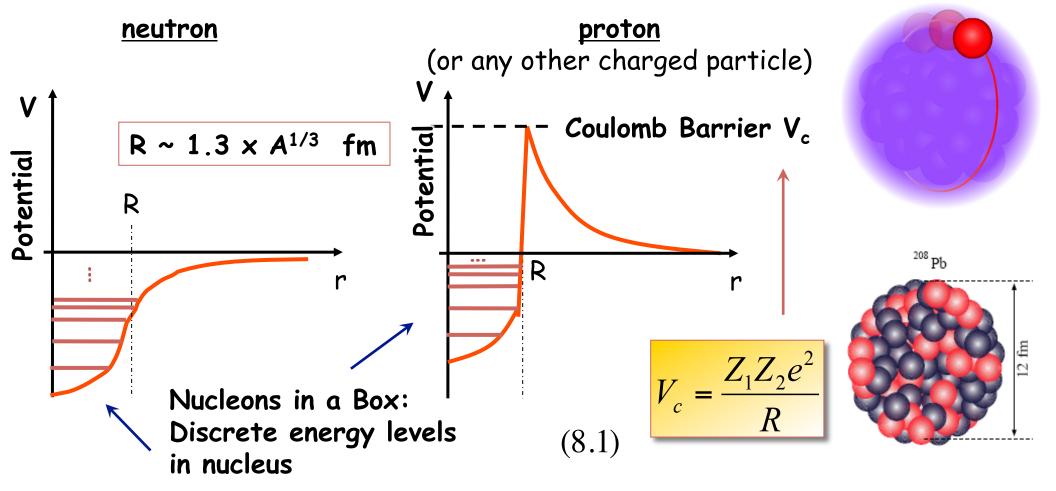
a. Nucleons size: ~1 fm

b. Nuclei

	Mass	Spin	Charge
Proton	938.272 MeV/c ²	1/2	+e
Neutron	939.565 MeV/c ²	1/2	0

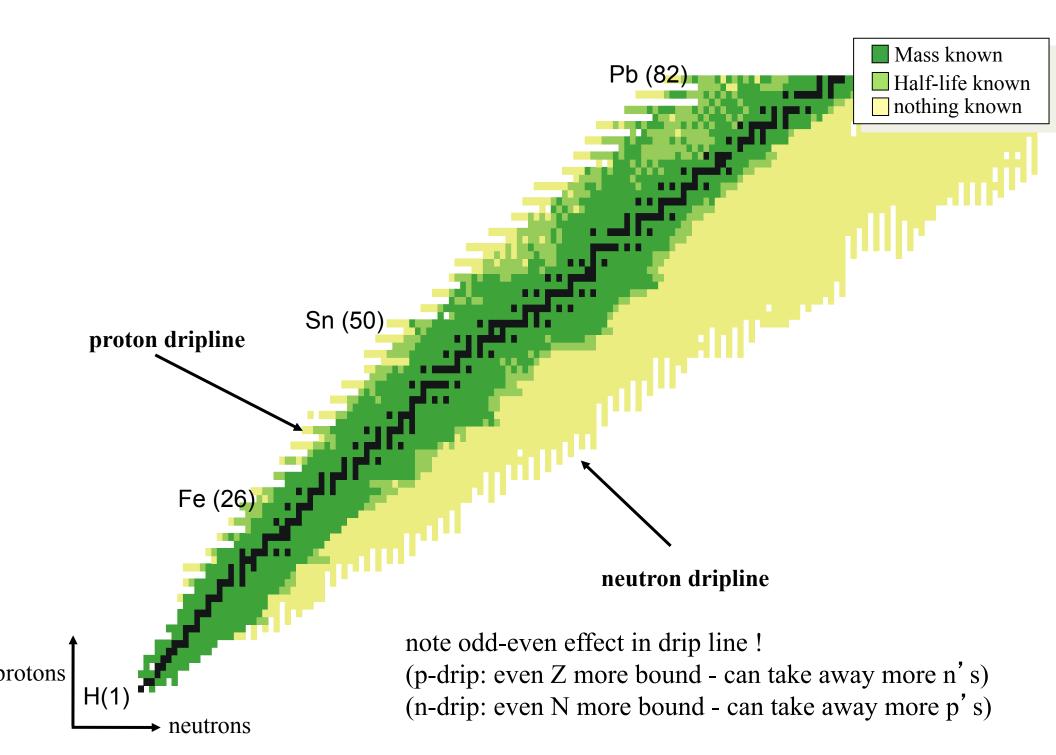
nucleons attract each other via the strong force (range ~ 1 fm)

a bunch of nucleons bound together create a potential for an additional :



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The Nuclear Chart



8.1.2 - Nuclear Masses and Binding Energies

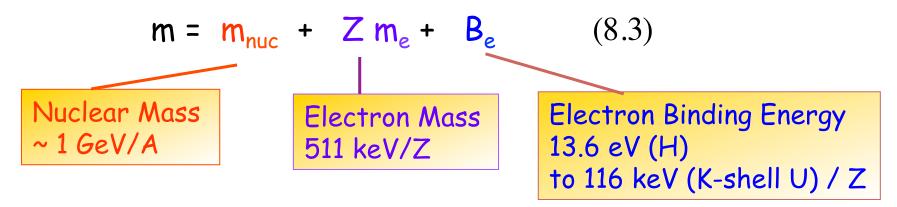
Energy that is released when a nucleus is assembled from neutrons and protons

$$m(Z,N) = Zm_{p} + Nm_{n} - B/c^{2}$$
 (8.2)

 m_p = proton mass, m_n = neutron mass, m(Z,N) = mass of nucleus with Z,N

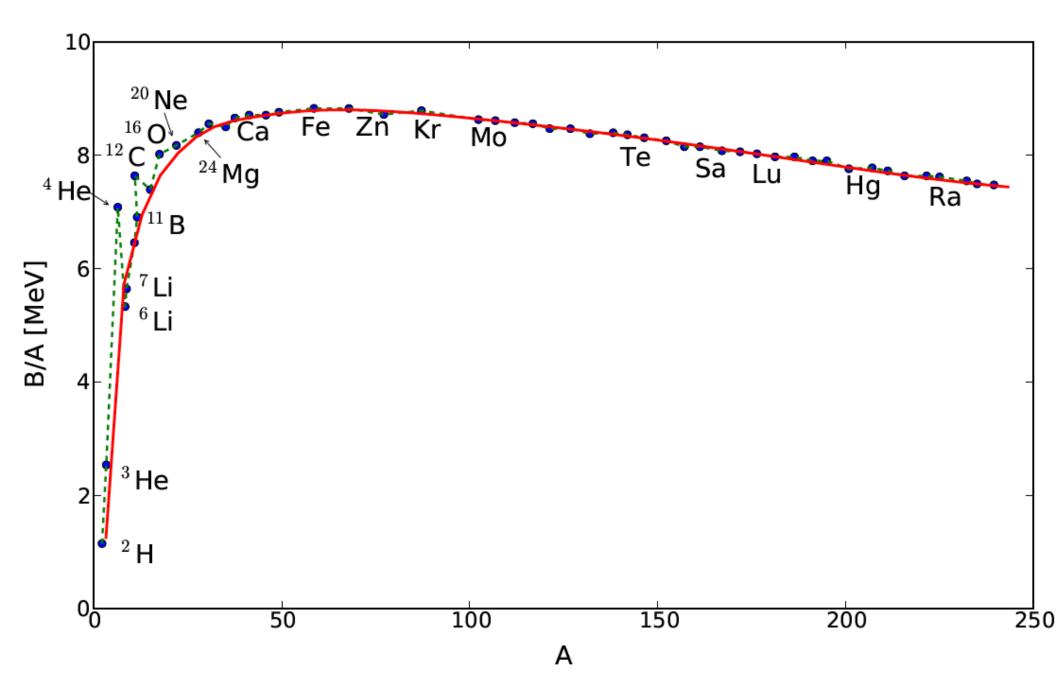
- B > 0
- With B the mass of the nucleus is determined.
- B is roughly ~ A

Masses are usually tabulated as atomic masses



Most tables give atomic mass excess
$$\Delta$$
 in MeV:
(definition: for ¹²C: $\Delta = 0$) $m = Am_u + \Delta / c^2$
(8.4)

Nuclear Masses and Binding Energies



The Liquid Drop Model binding energy / nucleon (MeV) Data Liquid drop model 2 Bethe-Weizsäcker formula 10 15 25 30 50 55 60 65 5 20 35 40 45 mass number A $B(Z, N, A) = a_V A - a_{Surf} A^{2/3} - a_{sym} \frac{(Z - N)^2}{A} + a_{Coul} Z(Z - 1) A^{-1/3}$

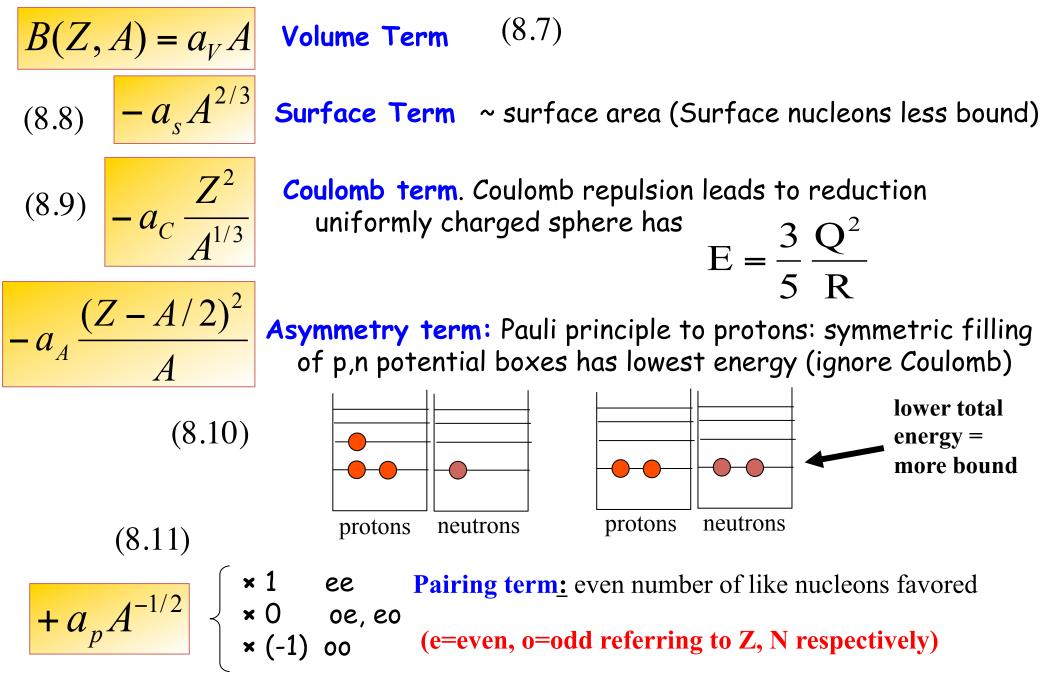
 $a_V = 15.85 \text{ MeV}, \quad a_{Surf} = 18.34 \text{ MeV}, \quad a_{Symm} = 23.21 \text{ MeV}, \quad a_{Coul} = 0.71 \text{ MeV}$

(8.5)

(8.6)

Understanding the Liquid Drop Model

Assumes incompressible fluid (volume ~ A) and sharp surface)



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Understanding the Liquid Drop Model

neglect asymmetry term (assume reasonable asymmetry) neglect pairing and shell corrections (see later) - want to understand average behavior

then

const as strong force has short range

~surface/volume ratio **favors large nuclei**

 $B/A = a_V - a_S \frac{1}{A^{1/3}} - a_C \frac{1}{A^{4/3}}$

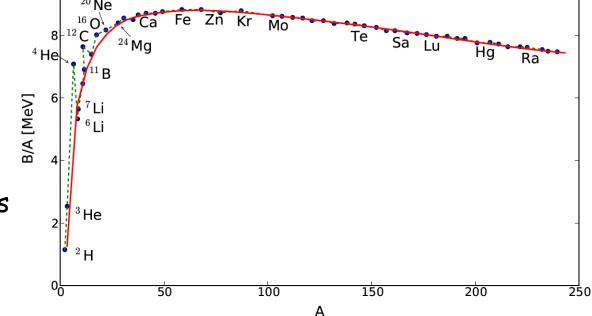
Coulomb repulsion has long range - the more protons the more repulsion favors small (low Z) nuclei

(8.12)

Maximum around ~ Fe

→ Fusion of light elements release nuclear energy

→ Fission of very heavy elements also release nuclear energy

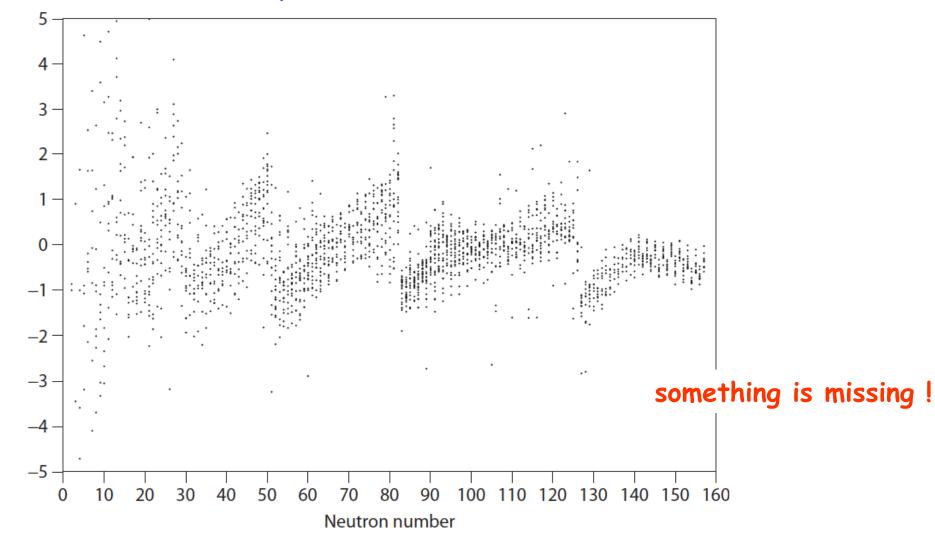


 Z^{\perp}

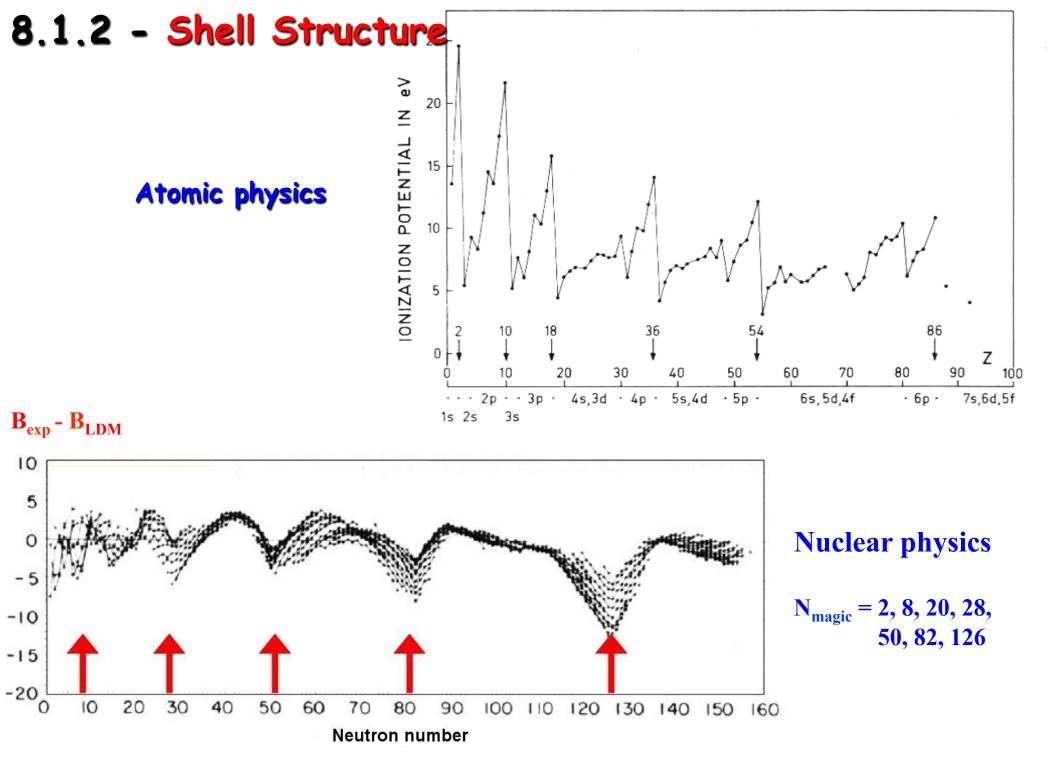
Fitting the Liquid Drop Model to Experimental Data

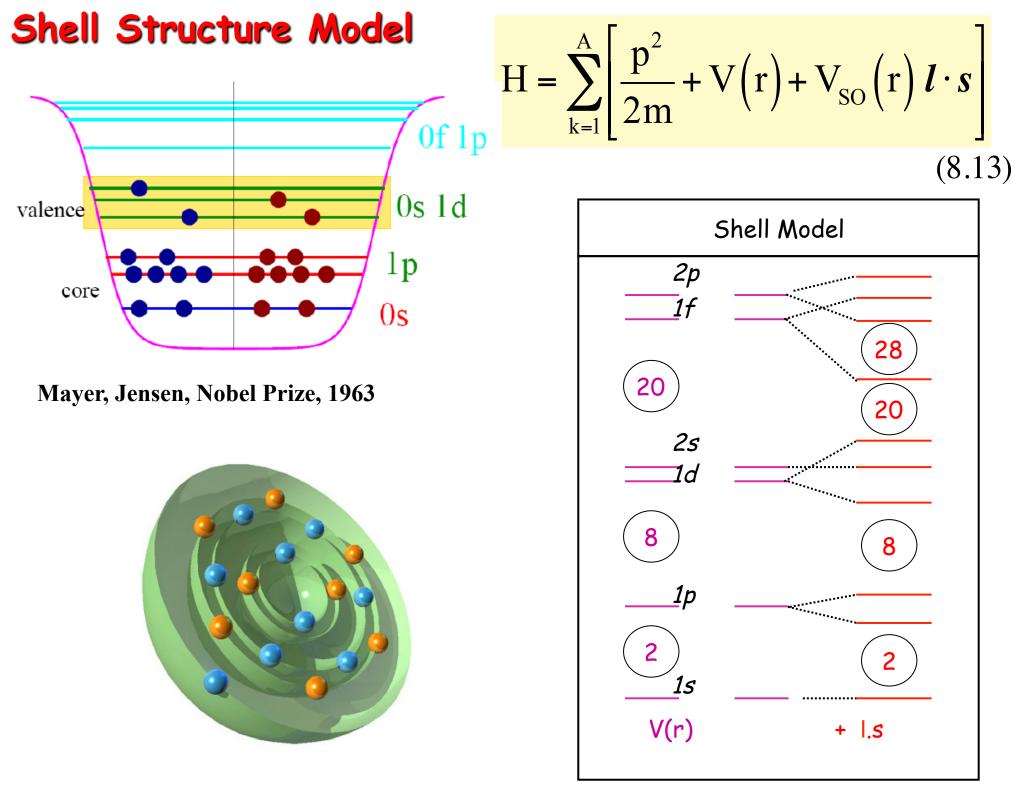
in MeV/c²	a _v	a _s	a _c	a _A	۵ _P
	15.85	18.34	0.71	92.86	11.46

Deviation (in MeV) to experimental masses:



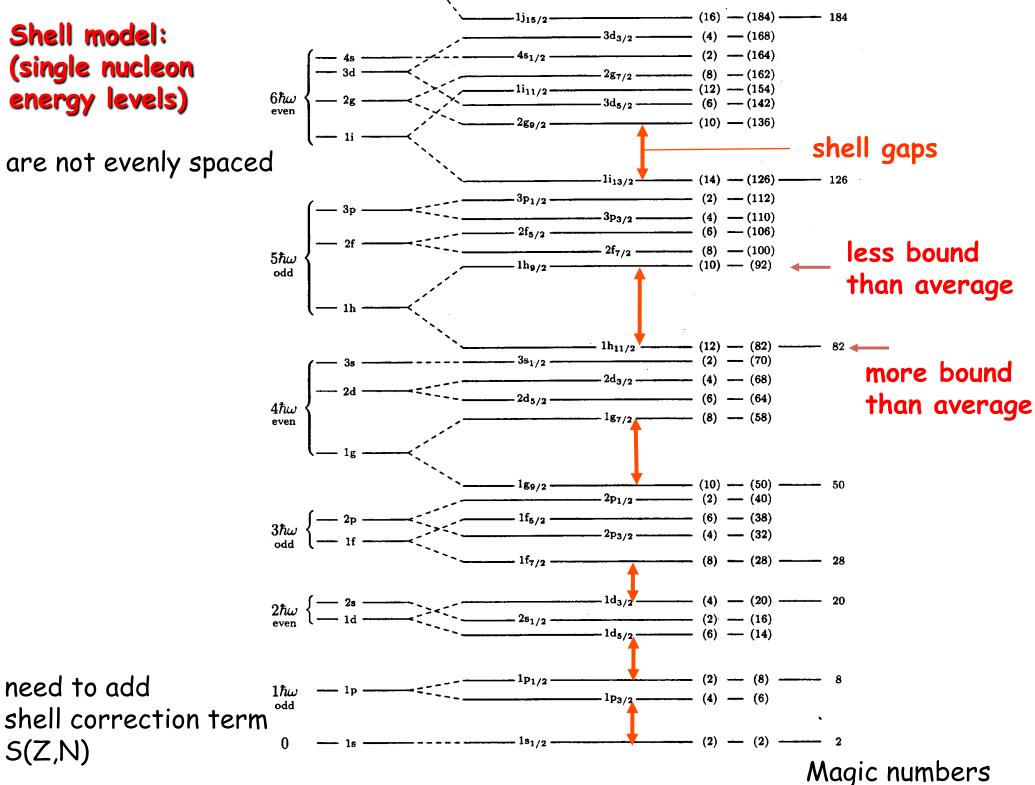
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Shell model: (single nucleon energy levels)

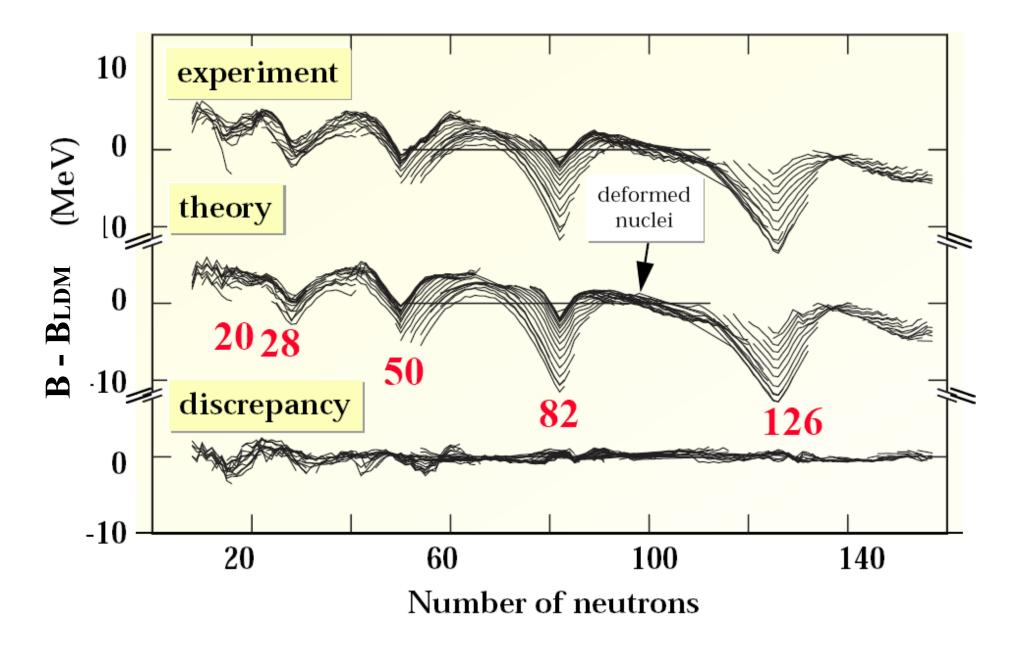
are not evenly spaced



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S(Z,N)

Liquid Drop Formula corrected with shell model



8.2 - Nuclear decay

a) Energy generation

nuclear reaction: $A + B \longrightarrow C$

if $m_A + m_B > m_C$ then energy $Q = (m_A + m_B - m_C)c^2$ is generated by reaction (7.14)

"Q-value" Q = Energy generated (>0) or consumed (<0) by reaction

b) Stability

if there is a reaction $A \longrightarrow B + C$ with Q > 0 (or $m_A > m_B + m_C$) then decay of nucleus A is energetically possible.

nucleus A <u>might</u> then not exist (at least not for a very long time)

Nuclear decay

Decay of A in B and C is possible if reaction $A \longrightarrow B + C$ has positive Q-value

BUT: there might be a barrier that prolongs the lifetime

Decay is described by quantum mechanics and is a pure random process, with a constant probability for the decay to happen in a given time interval.

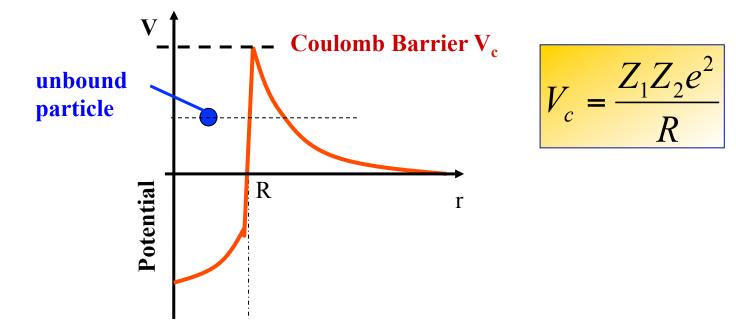
- N : Number of nuclei A (parent)
- $\lambda\,$: decay rate (decays per second and parent nucleus)

$$dN = -\lambda N dt \qquad \text{therefore} \qquad N(t) = N(t=0) e^{-\lambda t}$$
(8.15)
(8.16)
lifetime $\tau = 1/\lambda$

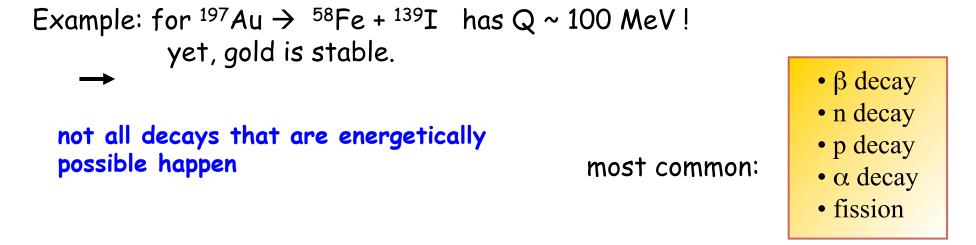
half-life $T_{1/2} = \tau \ln 2 = \ln 2/\lambda$ is time for half of the nuclei present to decay



for anything other than a neutron (or a neutrino) emitted from the nucleus there is a Coulomb barrier



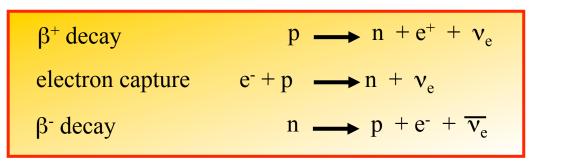
If that barrier delays the decay beyond the lifetime of the universe (~ 14 Gyr) we consider the nucleus as being stable.



8.2.1 - β decay

 $p \leftrightarrow n$ conversion within a nucleus via weak interaction

Modes (for a proton/neutron in a nucleus):



(8.17)

Electron capture (or EC) of atomic electrons or, in astrophysics, of electrons in the surrounding plasma

Q-values for decay of nucleus (Z,N)

with nuclear masseswith atomic masses $Q_{\beta^+} / c^2 = m_{nuc}(Z,N) - m_{nuc}(Z-1,N+1) - m_e = m(Z,N) - m(Z-1,N+1) - 2m_e$ $Q_{EC} / c^2 = m_{nuc}(Z,N) - m_{nuc}(Z-1,N+1) + m_e = m(Z,N) - m(Z-1,N+1)$ $Q_{\beta^-} / c^2 = m_{nuc}(Z,N) - m_{nuc}(Z+1,N-1) - m_e = m(Z,N) - m(Z+1,N-1)$

Note: $Q_{EC} > Q_{\beta+}$ by 1.022 MeV

Q-values with Δ values

$$m = Am_u + \Delta / c^2$$

Q-values for reactions that conserve the number of nucleons can also be calculated directly using the tabulated Δ values instead of the masses

Example: ${}^{14}C \rightarrow {}^{14}N + e + v_e$

$$Q / c^{2} = m_{14C} - m_{14N}$$

= $14m_{u} + \Delta_{14C} - 14m_{u} - \Delta_{14N}$ (8.20)
= $\Delta_{14C} - \Delta_{14N}$ (for atomic Δ 's)

Q-values with binding energies B

$$m(Z,N) = Zm_p + Nm_n - Bc^2$$
(8.21)

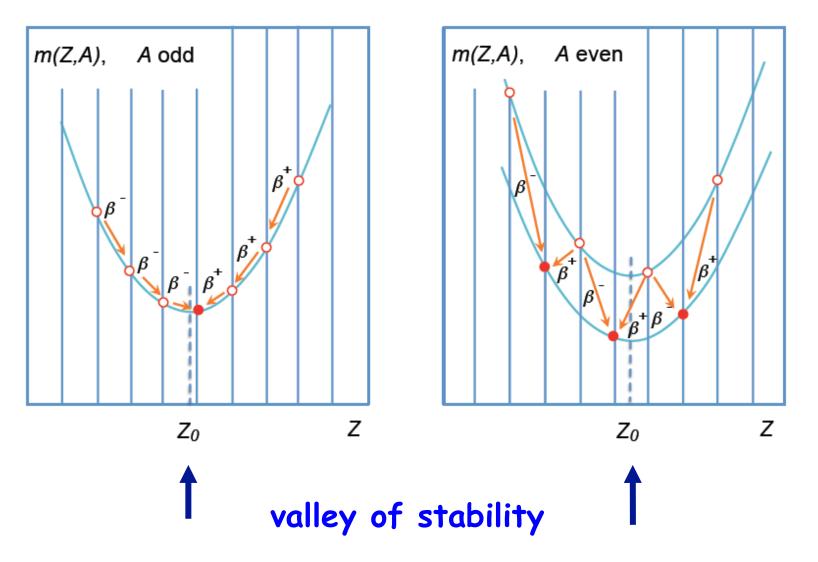
Q-values for reactions that conserve proton number and neutron number can be calculated using -B instead of the masses

β decay

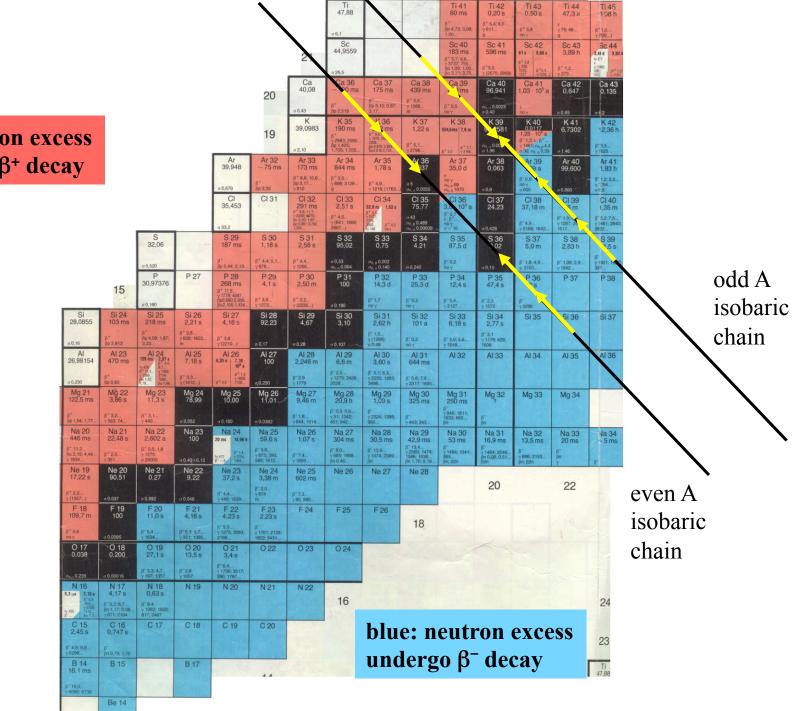
 β decay basically no barrier \rightarrow if energetically possible it usually happens

(except if another decay mode dominates)

therefore: any nucleus with a given mass number A will be converted into the most stable proton/neutron combination with mass number A by b decays



Typical part of the chart of nuclides



red: proton excess undergo β⁺ decay

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Ζ

Typical **B-decay** half-lives

- very near "stability" : occasionally Millions of years or longer
- more common within a few nuclei of stability: minutes days
- most exotic nuclei that can be formed: ~ milliseconds

