

Introduction to Nuclei – I

(The Discovery)

“The opposite of a correct statement is a false statement. But the opposite of a profound truth may well be another profound truth”

- Niels Bohr

The Atom (as we know it today)

ATOM is the smallest particle that characterizes a **chemical element**.

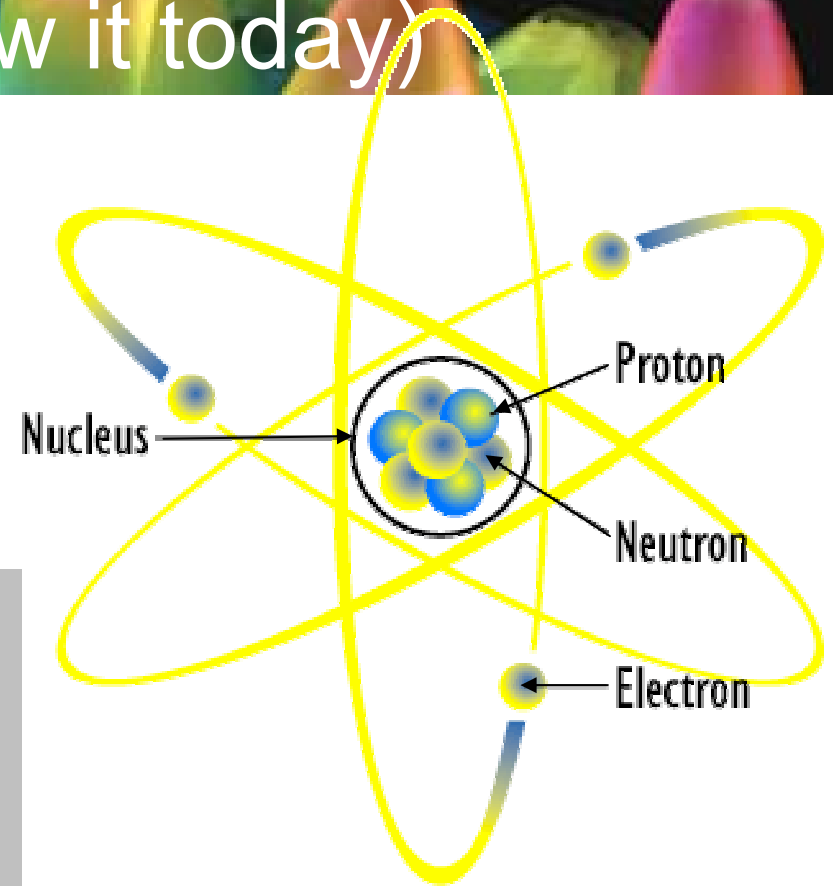
Periodic Table of the Elements

	I A																		0
1	H	II A																	2
2	Li	Be																	10
3	Na	Mg																	18
4	K	Ca	III B	IV B	V B	VI B	VII B	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII							36
5	Rb	Sr		Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
6	Cs	Ba		* La	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
7	Fr	Ra		+ Ac	Rf	Ha	106	107	108	109	110								

* Lanthanide
Series

+ Actinide
Series

58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71
Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103
Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr



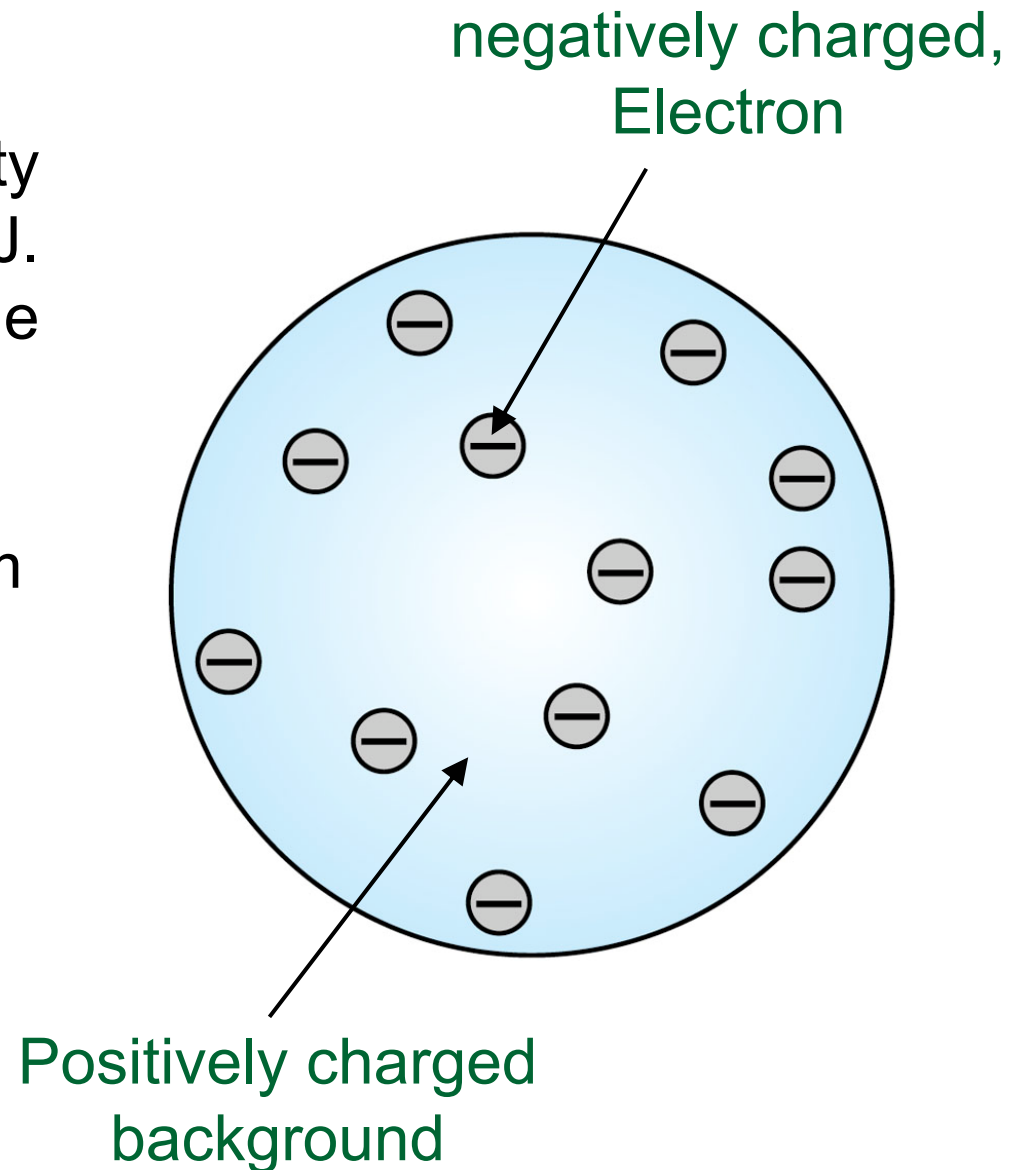
A heavy **NUCLEUS** with a **POSITIVE** electric charge surrounded by a swarm of much lighter particles, the **NEGATIVELY** charged **ELECTRONS**.

Atom in 1900

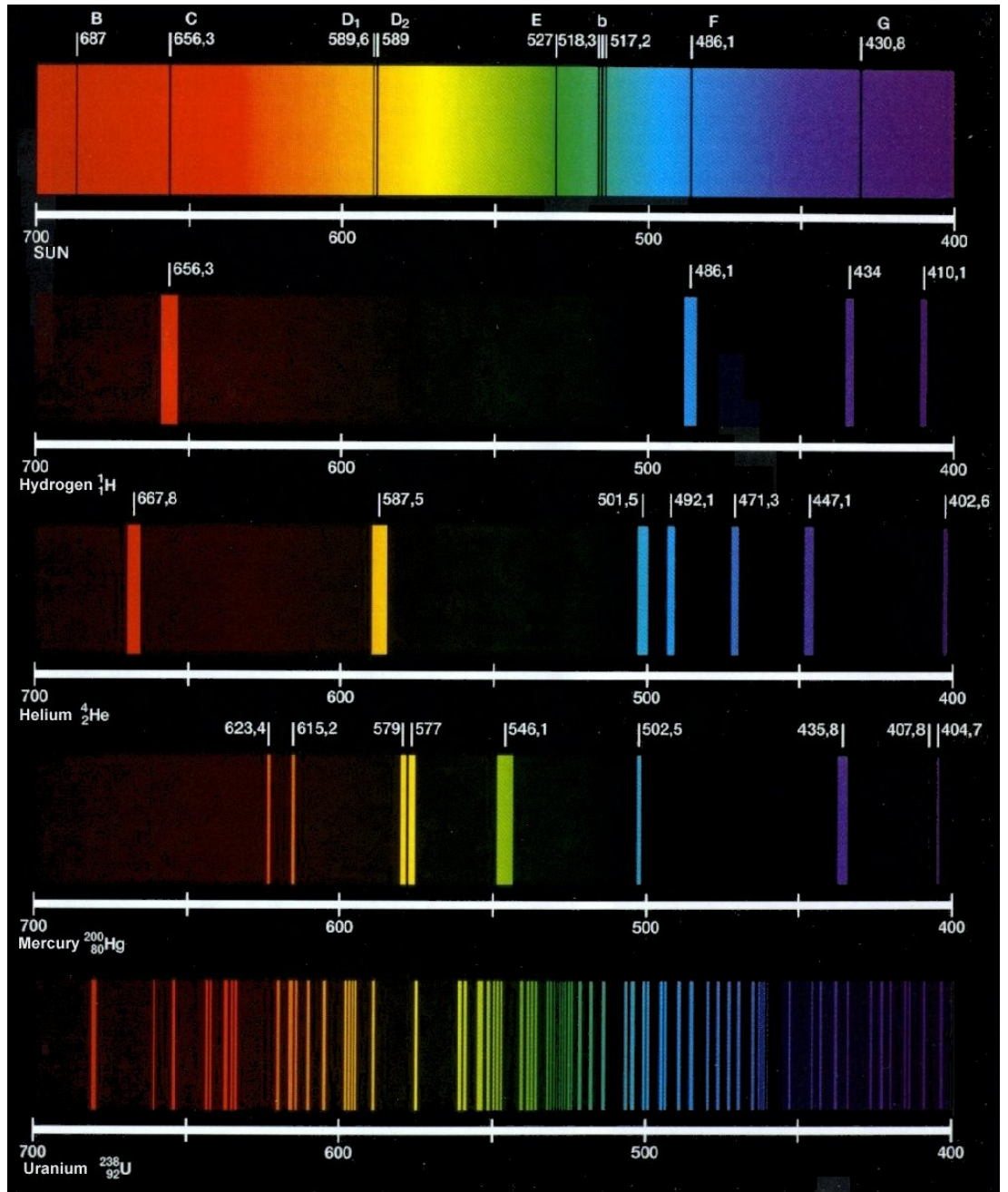
Amidst buzzing electricity and glowing tubes, J.J. Thomson discovered the electron (1897)

Proposes a model of Atom

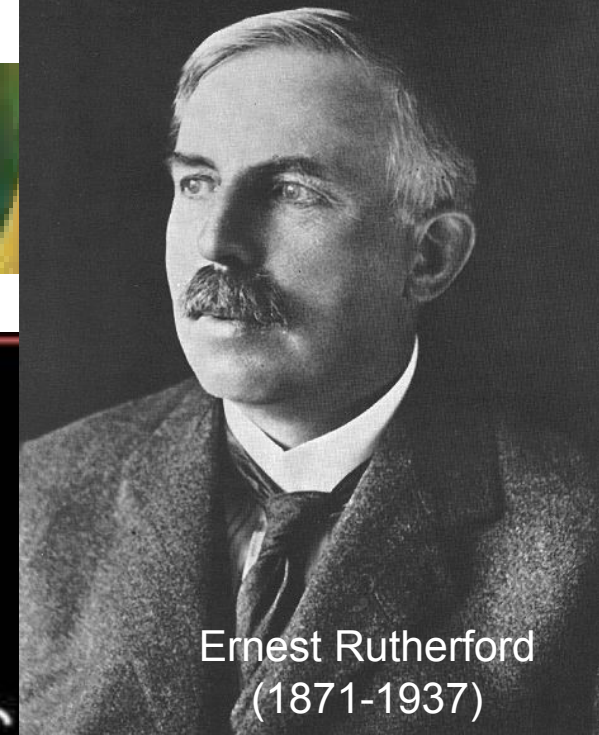
Thomson's "plum pudding" model



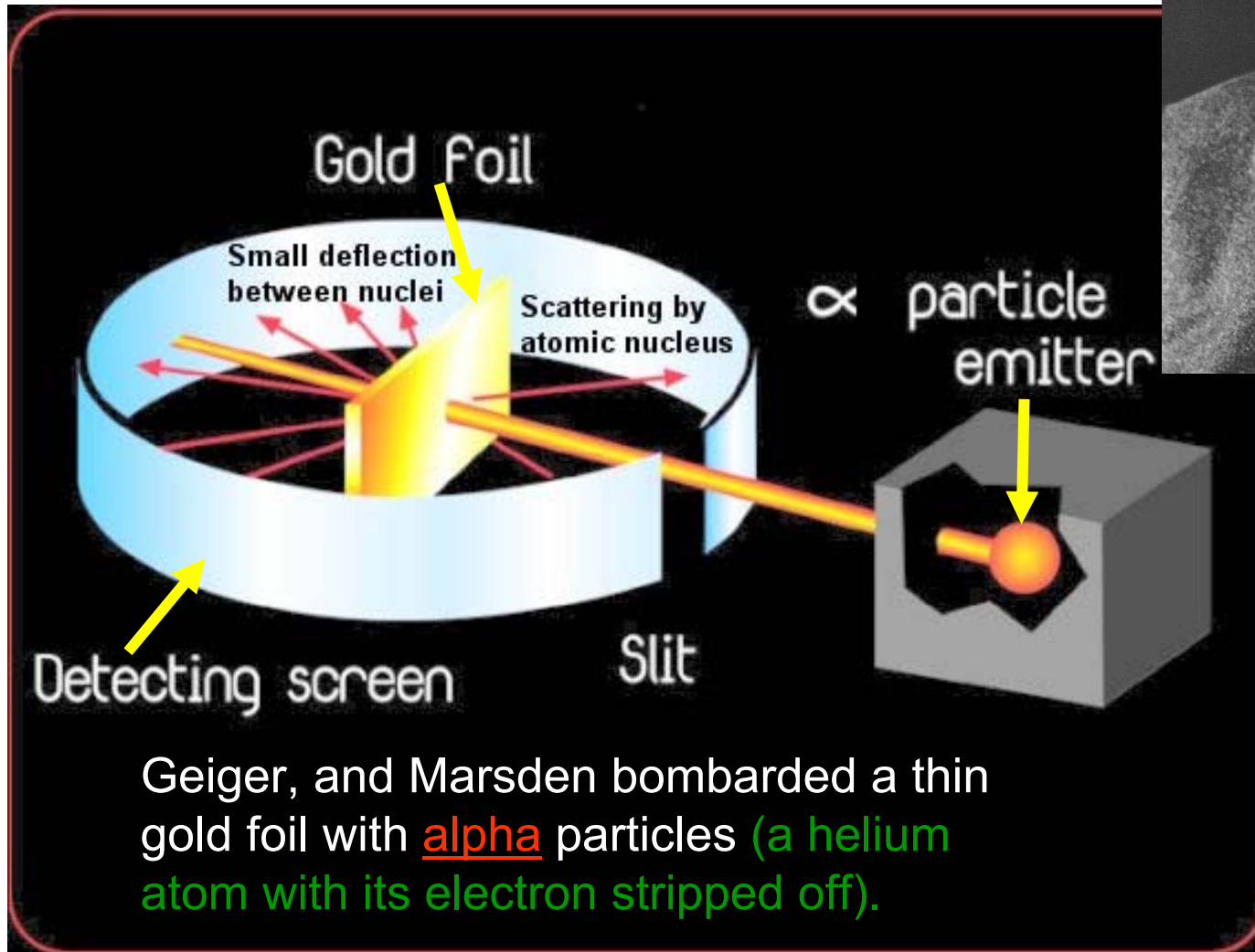
Century Physics



1909, The α scattering experiment (The dawn of Nuclear Physics)



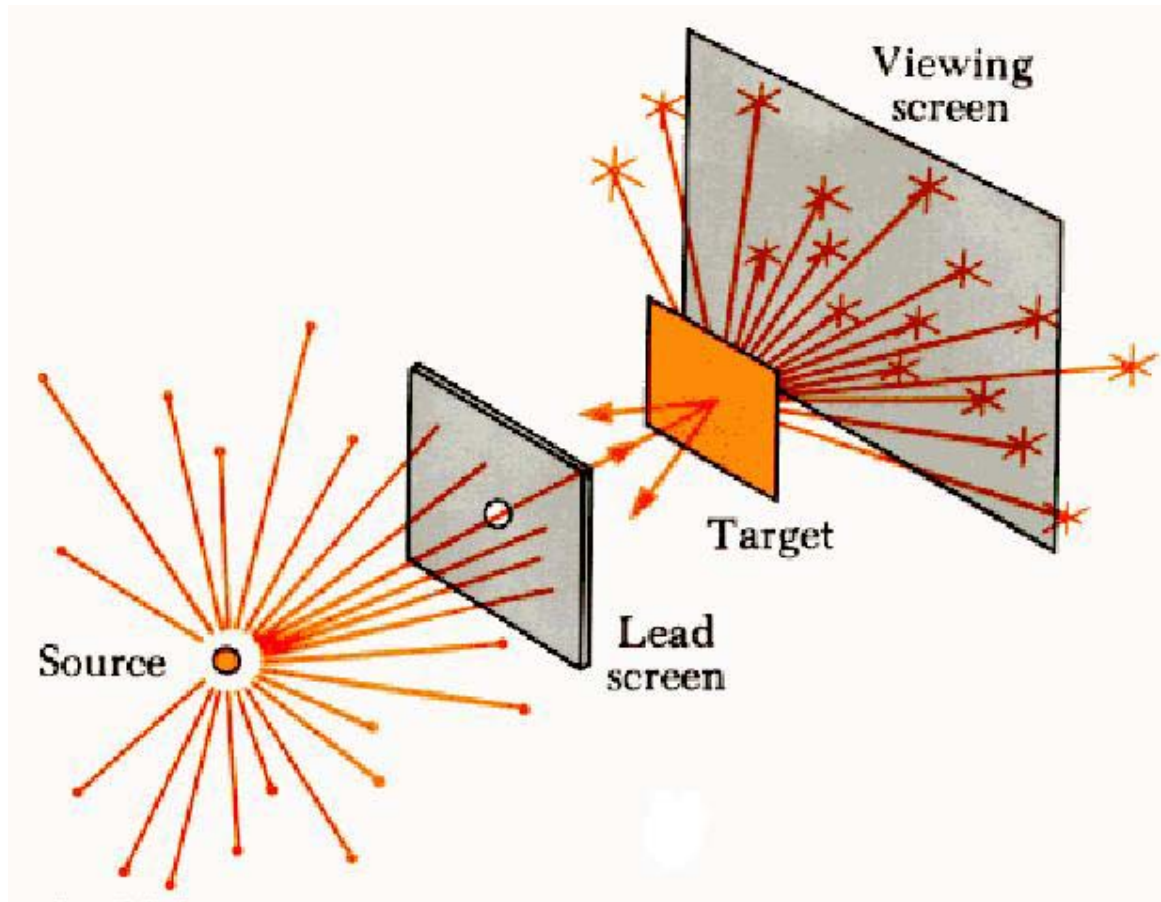
Ernest Rutherford
(1871-1937)



Rutherford's
Scattering
Experiment
(1909)

Experiment of Geiger and Marsden (1909)

A good number of α particles were scattered from thin gold-leaf targets at backward angles (greater than 90°) !



*“It was almost as incredible as if you
fired a 15-inch shell at a piece of
tissue paper and it came back and
hit you”*

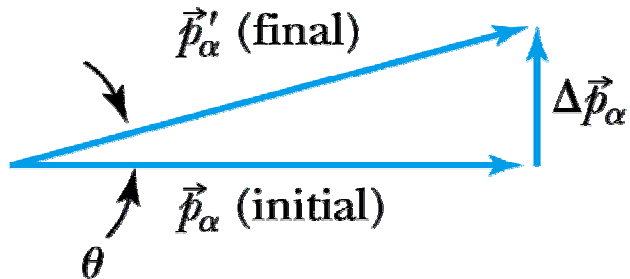
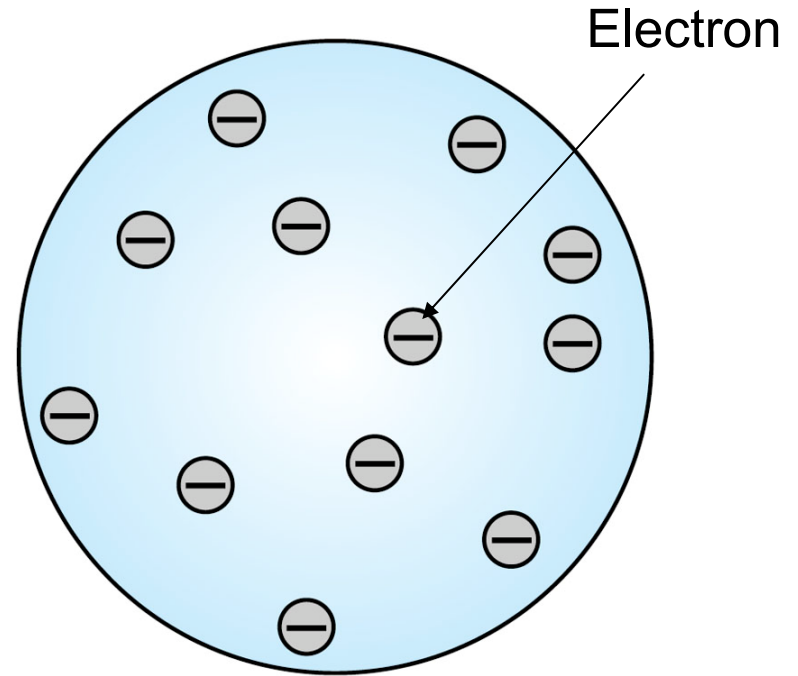


- E. Rutherford

What could have caused the α particles to scatter to such large angles ?

Could it be the electrons ?

Maximum scattering angle from electron — corresponding to the maximum momentum change.



$$\Delta p_{\max} = 2m_e v_{\alpha}$$

$$\theta_{\max} = \frac{\Delta p_{\alpha}}{p_{\alpha}} = \frac{2m_e v_{\alpha}}{M_{\alpha} v_{\alpha}} = 2.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ rad} = 0.016^{\circ}$$

too small!

Could it be the multiple scattering of electrons ?

If an α particle is scattered by N atoms: $\langle \theta \rangle_{\text{total}} \approx \sqrt{N} \theta$

N = the number of atoms across the thin gold layer, $t = 6 \times 10^{-7}$ m:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{\text{Number of molecules}}{\text{cm}^3} = [\text{Avogadro's no. (molecules/mol)}] \\ &\quad \times \left[\frac{1}{\text{gram - molecular weight}} \left(\frac{\text{mol}}{\text{g}} \right) \right] \left[\text{density} \left(\frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \right) \right] \\ &= \left(6.02 \times 10^{23} \frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{mol}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol}}{197 \text{ g}} \right) \left(19.3 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \right) \\ &= 5.9 \times 10^{22} \frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{cm}^3} = 5.9 \times 10^{28} \frac{\text{atoms}}{\text{m}^3} \end{aligned}$$

The distance between atoms, $d = n^{-1/3}$, is: $d = (5.9 \times 10^{28})^{-1/3} \text{ m} = 2.6 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$

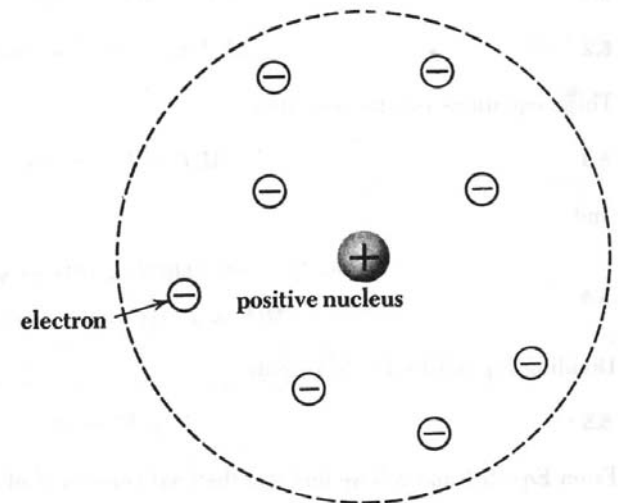
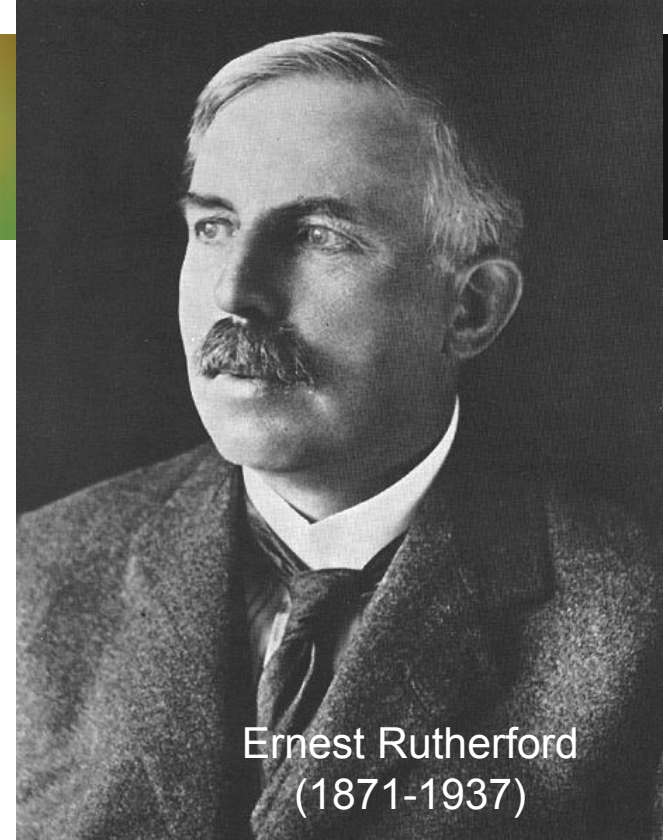
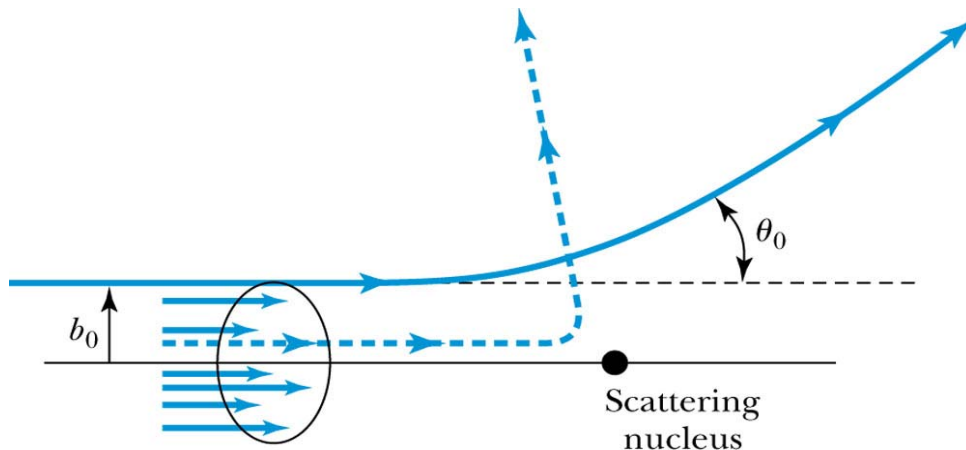
$$N = t / d = \frac{6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}}{2.6 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}} = 2300 \text{ atoms}$$

$$\langle \theta \rangle_{\text{total}} = \sqrt{2300} (0.016^\circ) = 0.8^\circ \quad \text{still too small!}$$

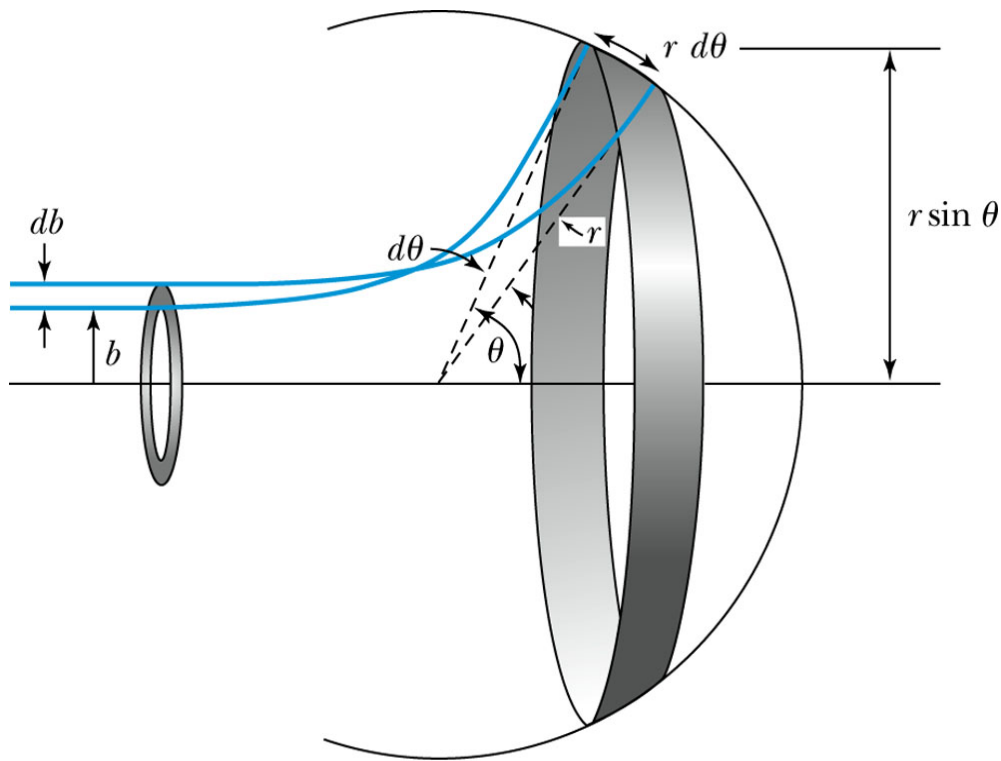
1911, Rutherford's Atomic Model (The Nucleus is born)

$\langle \theta \rangle_{\text{total}} = 6.8^\circ$ even if the α particle is scattered from all 79 electrons in each atom of gold.

Atom should have a positively charged core (**nucleus**) surrounded by the negative electrons - Rutherford

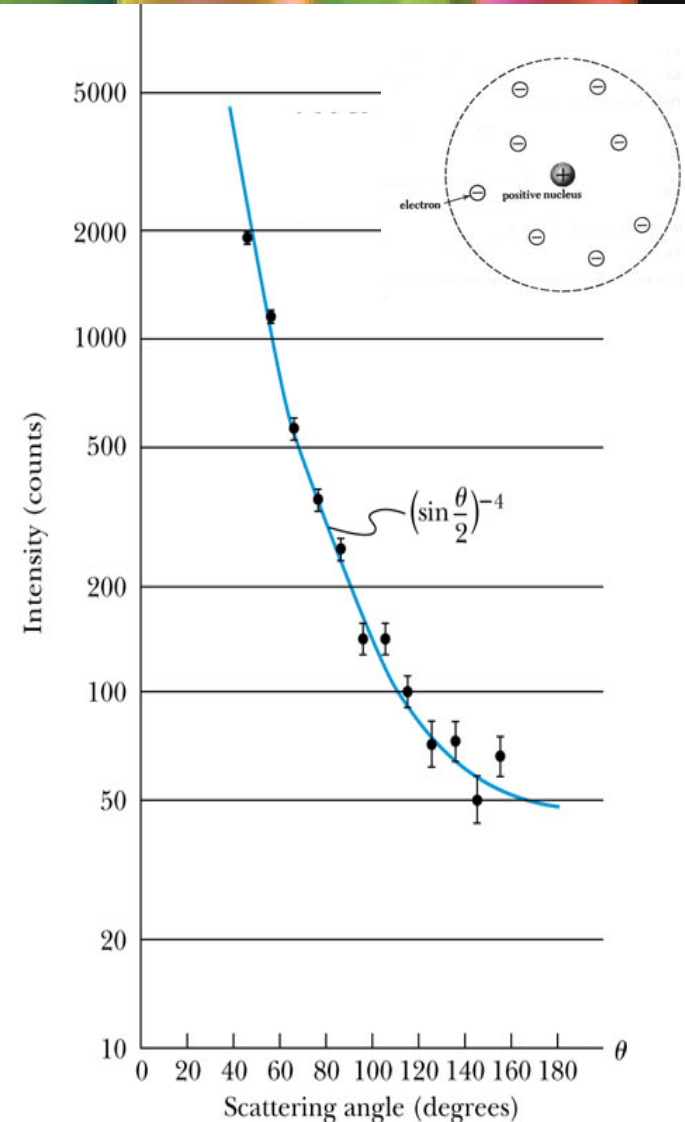


Rutherford's model can explain the experimental scattering data

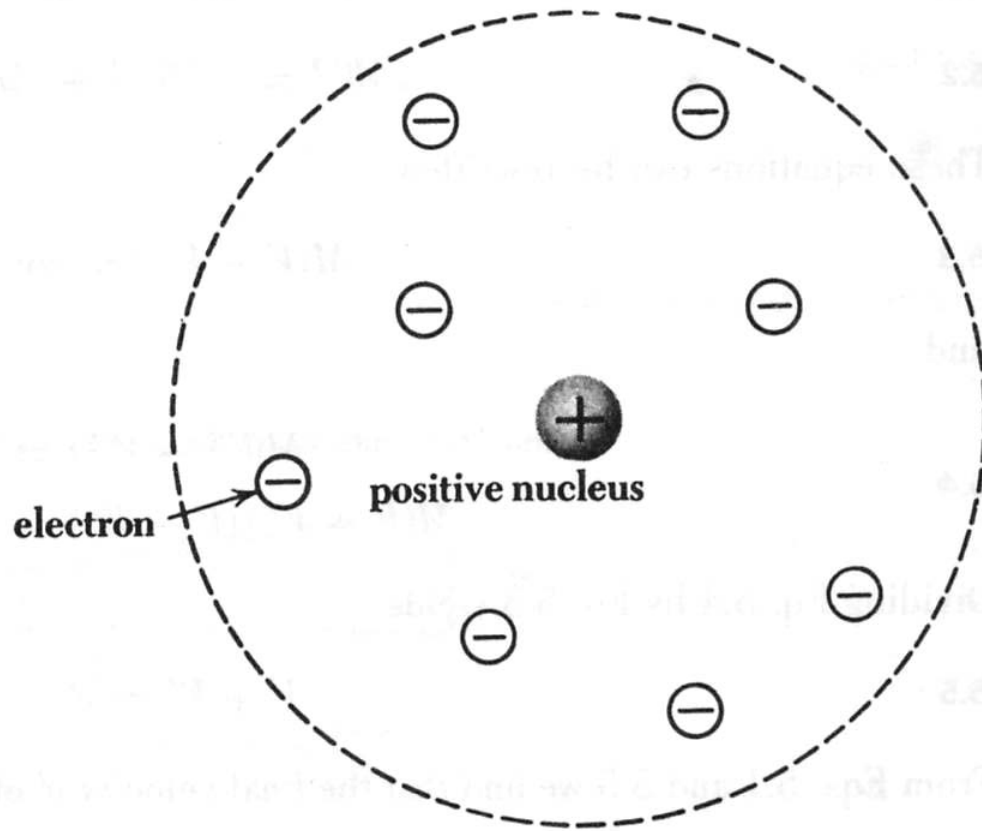


$$N(\theta) = \frac{N_i n t}{16} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \frac{Z_1^2 Z_2^2}{r^2 K^2 \sin^4(\theta/2)}$$

Rutherford's Scattering Formula

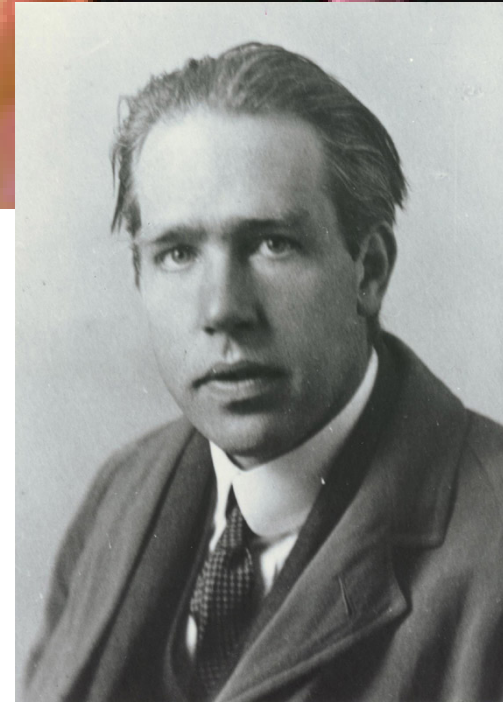
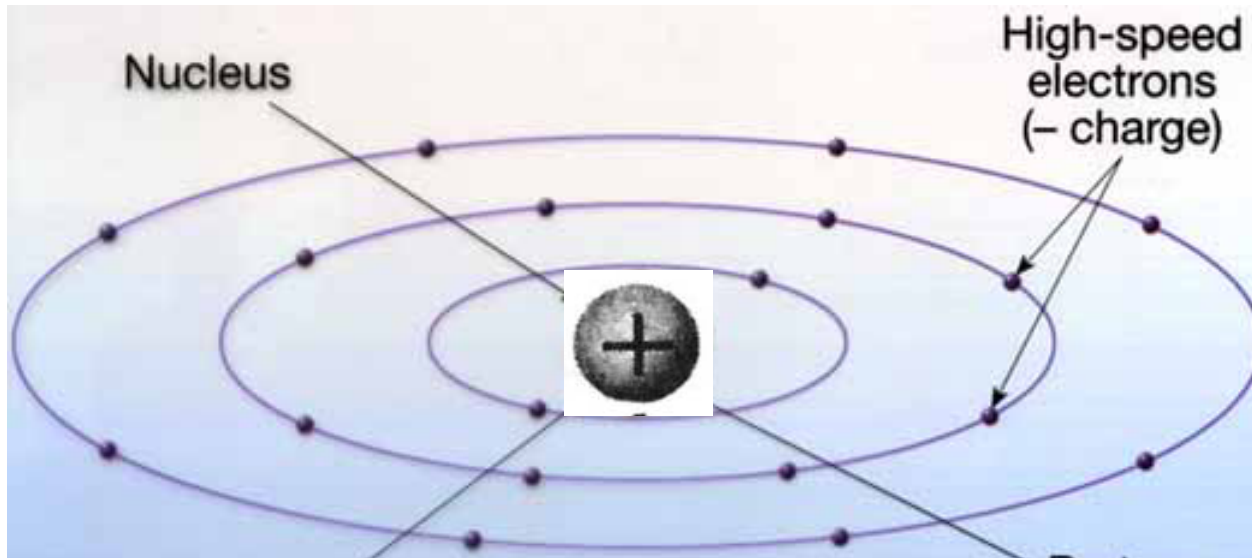


Structure of Atom in 1911



A positively charged core
Nucleus
surrounded by
Electrons.

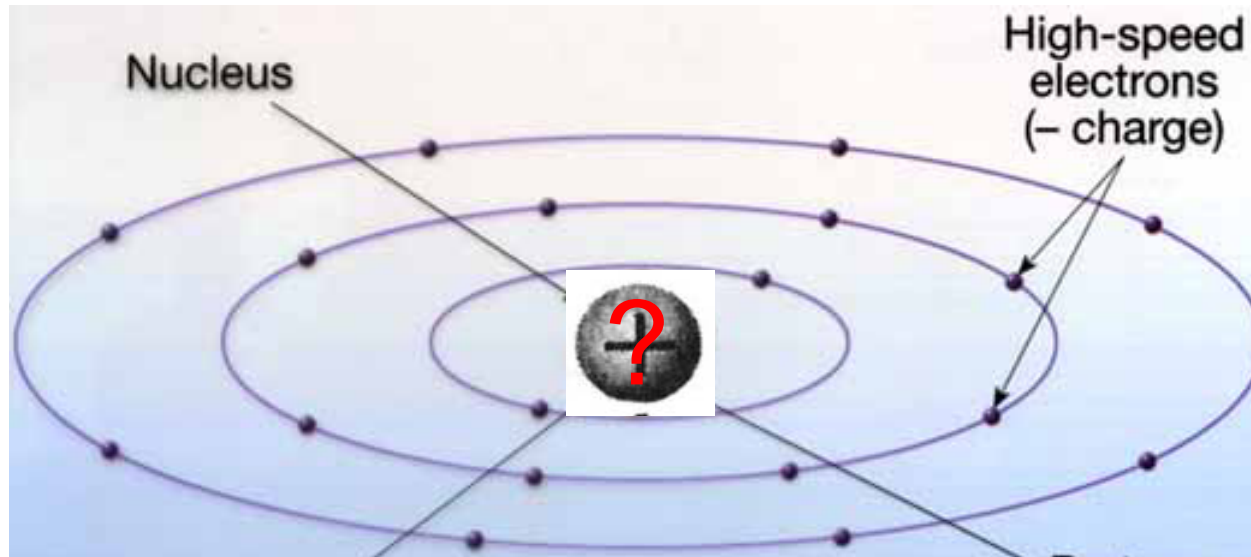
1915, Bohr put Thomson's electron into orbit (Planetary Model of the Atom)



Niels Bohr (1885-1962)

- Bohr's Planetary Model **could explain the Hydrogen Atom**
- Atomic Excitation by Electrons
- Quantum mechanical treatment and the Shell model of Atom
- Spin of the electron (Stern Gerlach experiment)
- Closed shell & Magic numbers : 2, 8, 20, 28, 50
- Pauli exclusion principle for the electrons
- Characteristic X-Ray's and Atomic Spectra,

Atomic Nucleus in 1915



What is the nucleus made of ?

What is its composition ?

Proton is discovered (1918)

(The philosopher's stone)

Alpha particle shot into Nitrogen gas.

Hydrogen nuclei detected in Scintillation detector.

Rutherford concluded that Nitrogen must contain hydrogen nuclei.

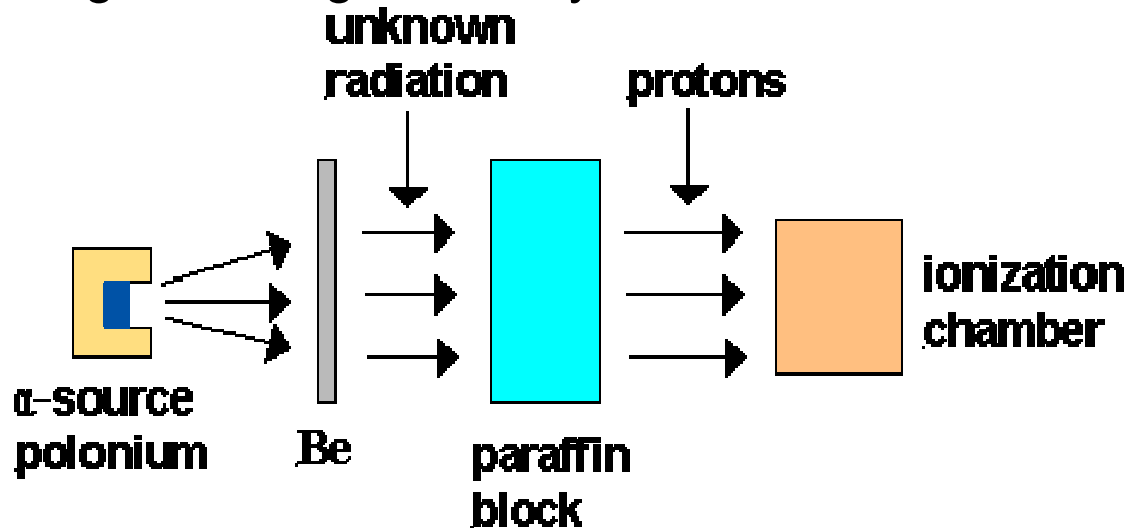
Suggested that the hydrogen nucleus, which was known to have Atomic number of 1, was an elementary particle.

Called this particle as, "Proton".

The discovery of Neutron (1932)

(The last piece of the puzzle)

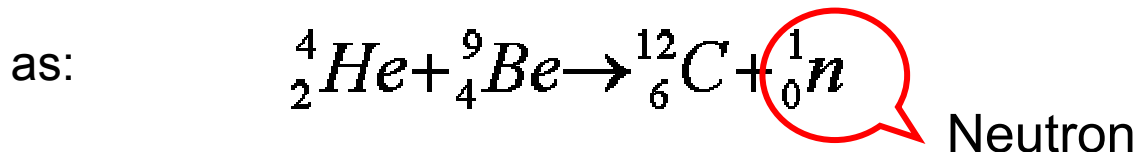
1930, Bothe & Becker, bombarded the element beryllium (Be) with alpha-particles. This reaction emitted a very penetrating neutral radiation. They thought it was gamma-rays.



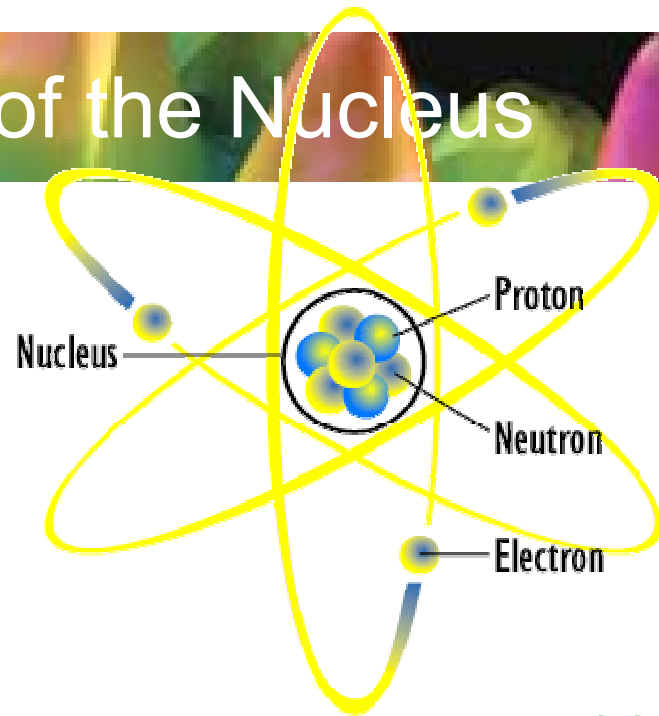
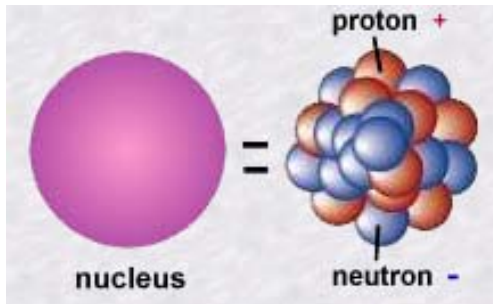
J. Chadwick proposed (1932) that the unknown radiation was a new type of particle – NEUTRON, - charge neutral & roughly the same mass as proton

Schematic of the Joliot's Experiment

Chadwick explained the process occurring in the experiment



The proton-neutron model of the Nucleus

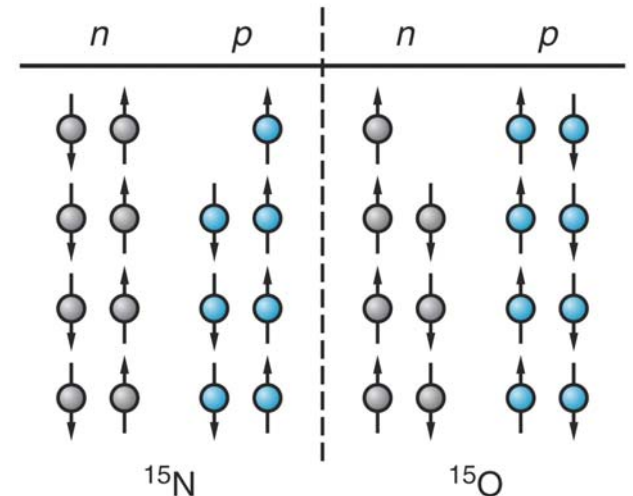


- The nucleus consists of **Protons** and **Neutrons**, together called **Nucleons**.
- The **number of Protons** in the nucleus is called the **Atomic number (Z)** of the nucleus.
- The **total number of Protons and Neutrons** in the nucleus is called the **Mass number (A)** of the nucleus.
- Each nucleus is represented as A_ZX
where x = element symbol (e.g., Na, Co, U), Z = Atomic number and A = Mass number.

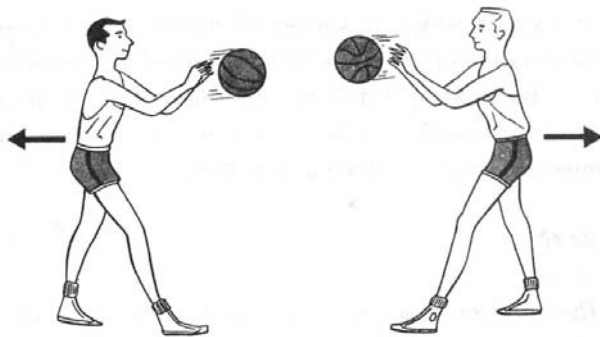
Is still the basic model of the atomic nucleus today.

Few Nuclear Terms

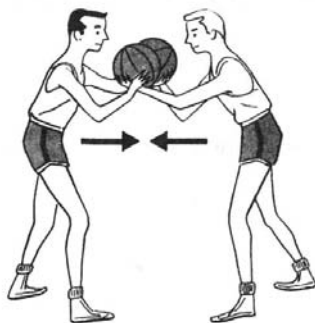
- Nuclides with the same **Z** are called Isotopes. They have the same chemical properties.
- Nuclides with the same **N** are called Isotones.
- Nuclides with the same **A** are called Isobars and have approximately the same mass.
- Nuclides with N and Z interchanged are called mirror nuclides.



What holds the nucleons in the nucleus together ?



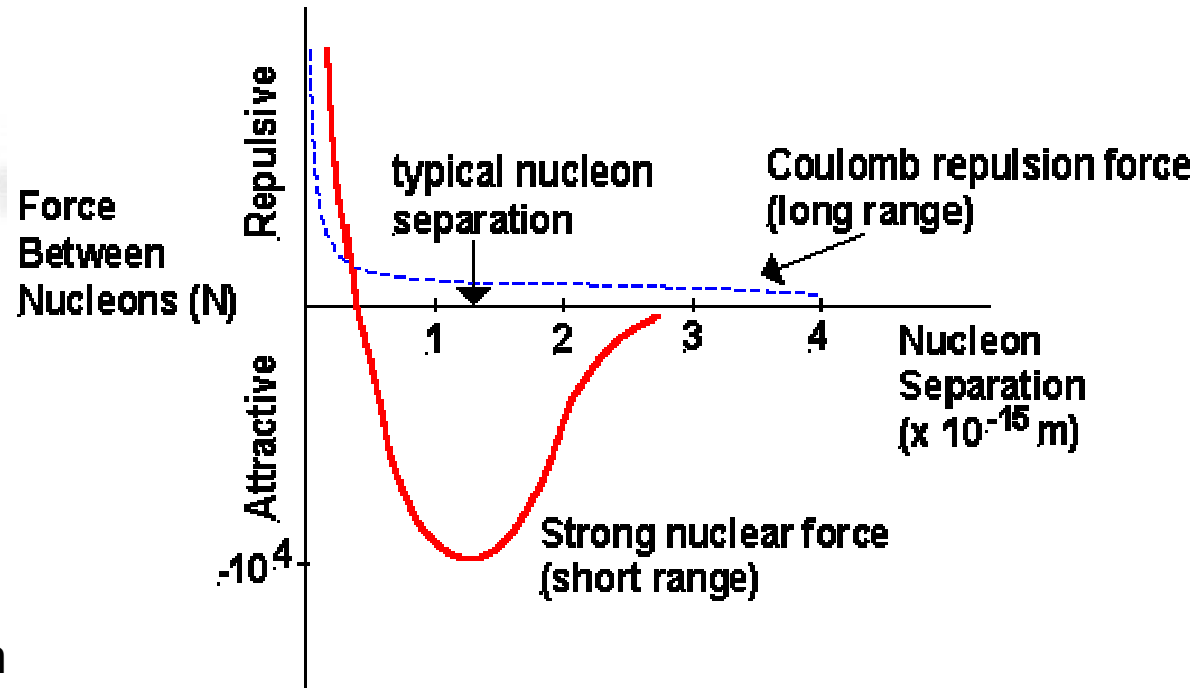
repulsive force due to particle exchange



attractive force due to particle exchange

Yukawa's theory of meson exchange, 1934

The Nuclear Force

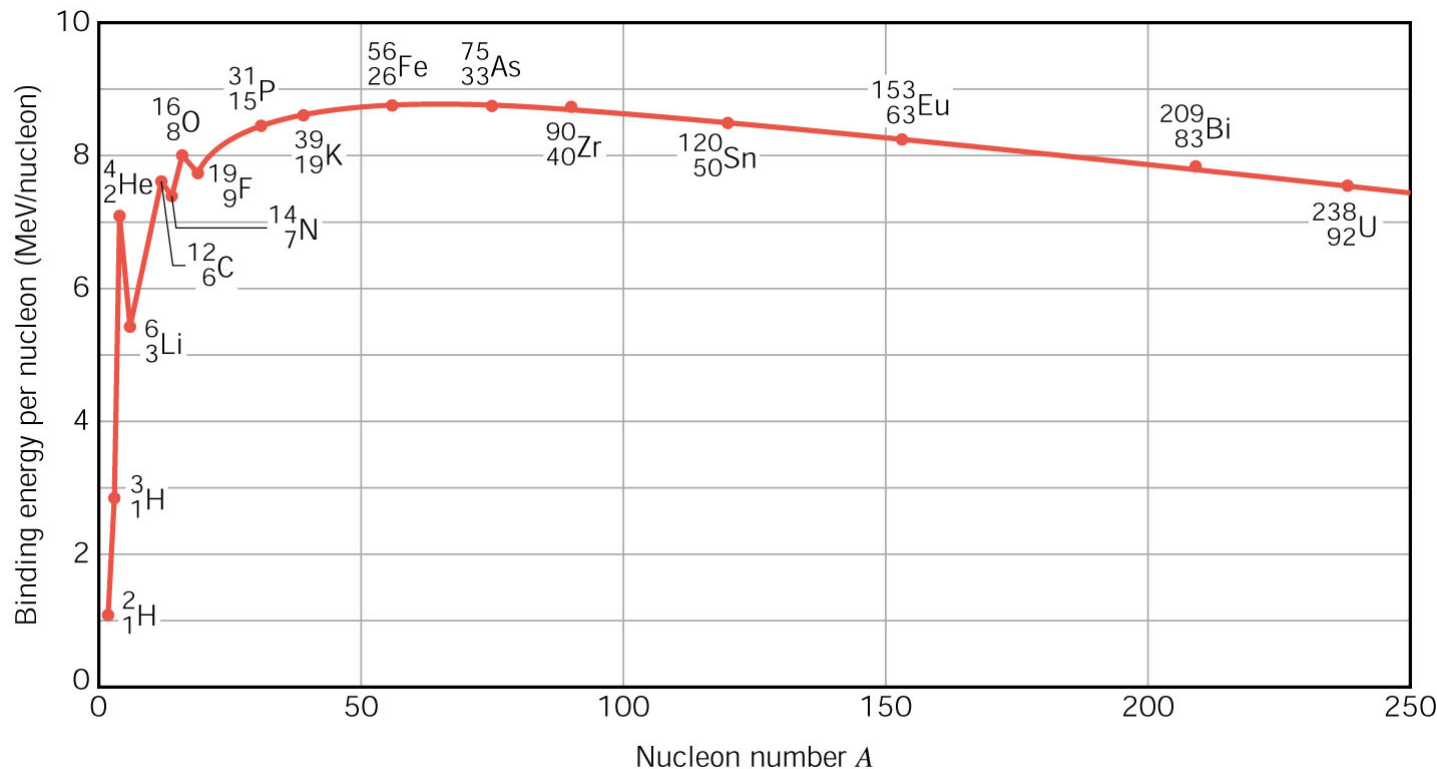


Binding energy of the nucleus

Energy required to break the nucleus into its constituent nucleons.

$$B = (Z m_p + N m_n - M)c^2$$

Greater the binding energy, more difficult it is to break a nucleus into its separate constituents



Semi-empirical Binding energy formula (V. Weizsacher, 1935)



The Liquid Drop Model (I)

- Goal: estimate the binding energy of a given nucleus with a “semi-empirical” model.
 - Nucleus = Collection of interacting particles in a liquid drop of nuclear matter

Symmetry term: in the absence of the Coulomb force, the nucleus prefers to have $N \approx Z$

$$B\left({}_Z^AX\right) = a_V A - a_A A^{2/3} - \frac{3}{5} \frac{Z(Z-1)e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} - a_S \frac{(N-Z)^2}{A} + \delta$$

Volume term:

The binding energy is approximately the sum of all the interactions between the nucleons.

Surface term:

Correction for the nucleons at the surface of the nucleus (interact with less neighbors)

Coulomb term:

Adding more protons increases the Coulomb repulsion within the nucleus

Pairing term

The Liquid Drop Model (II)

$$B\left({}^A_ZX\right) = a_V A - a_A A^{2/3} - \frac{3}{5} \frac{Z(Z-1)e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} - a_S \frac{(N-Z)^2}{A} + \delta$$

$$a_V = 14 \text{ MeV} \quad \text{Volume}$$

$$a_A = 13 \text{ MeV} \quad \text{Surface}$$

$$a_S = 19 \text{ MeV} \quad \text{Symmetry}$$

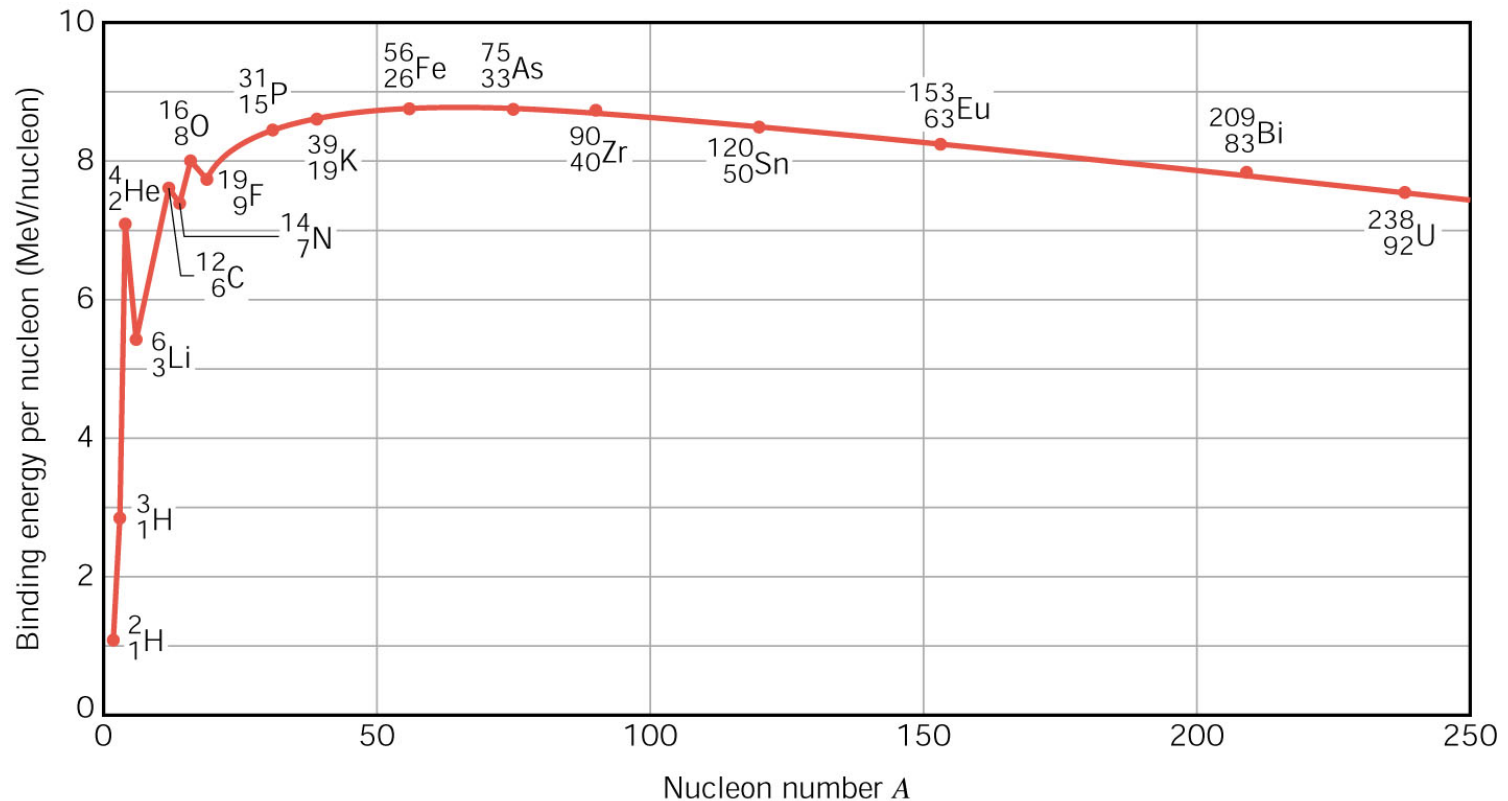
One can show that the Coulomb term can also be written (See example 12.5 p436):

$$E_c = 0.72 Z(Z-1) A^{-1/3} \text{ MeV}$$

$$\text{Pairing } \delta = \begin{cases} +\Delta & \text{for even-even nuclei} \\ 0 & \text{for odd-}A \text{ (even-odd, odd-even) nuclei} \\ -\Delta & \text{for odd-odd nuclei} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{With } \Delta = 33 A^{-3/4} \text{ MeV}$$

Liquid drop model cannot explain the fine structures in the Binding energy curves



Peaks appear in binding energy curve for nucleus with magic numbers of protons and/or neutrons, just like in electronic structure of electrons

Evidence for shell structure in the nucleus

The Shell Model of the Nucleus (1933, 1948)

Similar to that used in the electronic structure of atom
(Bartlett et al, 1933)

Could explain only the first 3 magic numbers 2, 8, 20

All efforts to explain the nucleus using shell model
abandoned

1948, M. Mayer, and independently Haxel, Jensen & Suess
revived the Shell model of nucleus

Growing evidence from experimental data for a shell like
structure of atomic nucleus

Spin-orbit coupling introduced

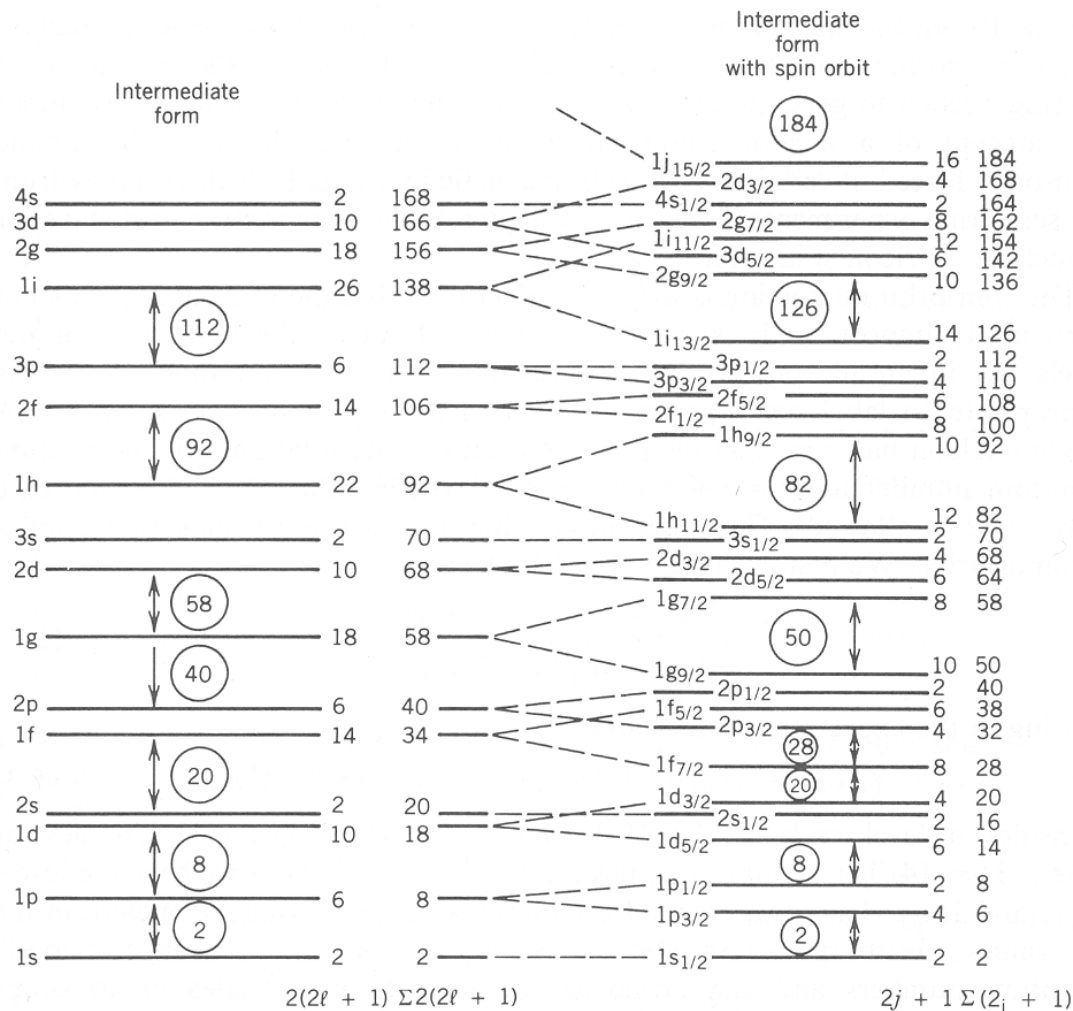
Could explain all the magic numbers



Maria Goppert-Mayer
(1906-1972)

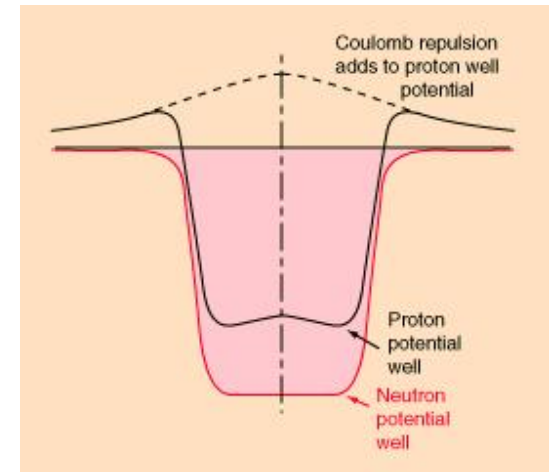
Spin-orbit coupling occurs when two motions are coupled together, such as the earth spinning on its axis as it orbits the sun. In an atom, the electron spins on an axis as it orbits the nucleus.

Shell Model of the Nucleus



Each proton or neutron in the nucleus feels an average force from the other nucleons.

This force can be modeled as a potential well.



Nuclear energy levels

Shell Model of the Nucleus

- The nucleons exist in certain energy levels within the nucleus,
- So-called magic numbers have been found: 2, 8, 20, 50, 82, 126 - isotopes containing these number of protons or neutrons have unusual stability in their structure.
- Nucleons can be excited to higher energy levels just like electrons in atoms. Gamma rays emitted.