

TFY4225 Nuclear and Radiation physics

1.) Basic concepts (Lilley Chap.1)

The Nuclei

Notation

The composition of a nucleus is often described using the notation:



X represents the atoms name. A is defined to be the mass number, Z is the atomic number and N is the neutron number.

It is of course sufficient to describe the nuclei by AX , since X automatically determines the letter Z, which was defined above to be the atom number.

Particle masses

Particle	Index	Mass
Neutron	m_n	$m_n = 1.008665u$
Proton	m_p	$m_p = 1.007276u$
Electron	m_e	$m_e = 0.000549u$

Where u is the atomic mass unit, and $1u \equiv \frac{1}{12}m({}^{12}C)$

Particle data

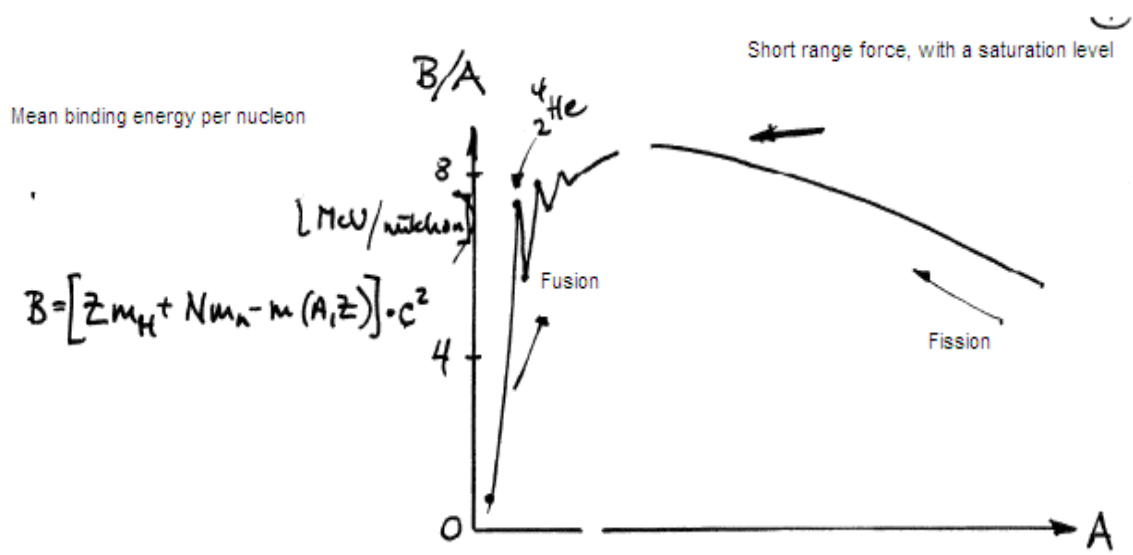
All of the three particles above are spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ fermions with non-zero magnetic moments μ_b . The neutron and the proton belong to the Baryon (composition of three quarks) family and the electron is a lepton.

Atomic mass of nucleus A_ZX

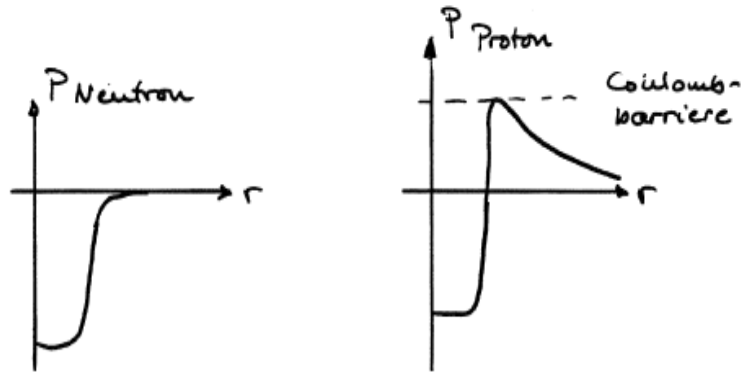
$$m(A, Z) = Zm_H + (A - Z)m_n - \frac{B}{c^2} \quad (1)$$

Where B represents the total binding energy of A_ZX . For this to be valid, one has assumed that the mean binding energy of the electrons in A_ZX is the same as in 1_1H . Mass excess of A_ZX is defined in atomic mass units(u) to be:

$$\Delta = m(A, Z) - A \quad (2)$$



The nuclear potential (Strong force)



The potential within a nucleus can be approximately modelled as an infinite spherical potential well where the potential is zero inside a given radius, and infinity outside it. This can be expressed as:

$$V = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } r \leq a \\ \infty, & \text{if } r > a \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Inserting 3 into the Schrödinger equation:

$$H\psi = E\psi \quad (4)$$

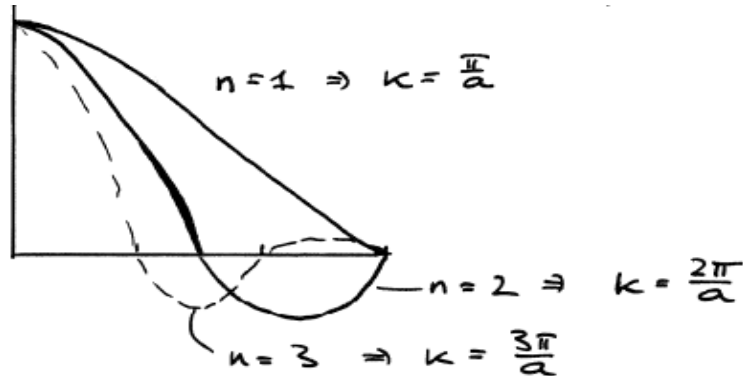
Assuming a separable wave function solution of the form $\psi = R(r) \cdot Y_l^m(\phi, \theta)$ where Y_l^m represents the spherical harmonics.

The radial part of the wave function $R(r) = j_l(kr)$, is a spherical Bessel function.

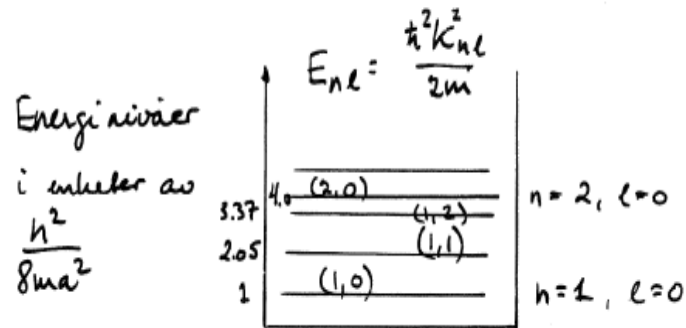
Boundary condition: $j_l(kr) = 0$ for $kr = ka$

$$l = 0 : j_0(kr) = \frac{\sin kr}{kr} \rightarrow j_0(ka) = 0 \text{ for } ka = n \cdot \pi. \text{ The wave function has its } n\text{'th zero at } r = a.$$

$$l = 1 : j_1(kr) = \frac{\sin kr}{(kr)^2} - \frac{\cos kr}{kr}$$



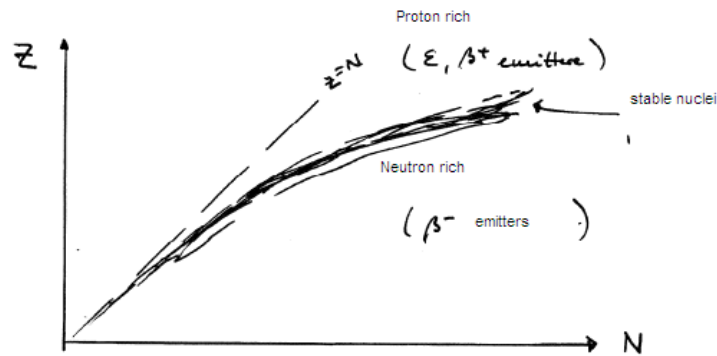
A centrifugal potential arises from the angular motion for $l \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ Energy levels $E = E_{nl}$. l is substituted with s,p,d,f for $l=0,1,2,3\dots$
 For each value of l we have $2l + 1$ values for the quantum number $m_l = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm l$



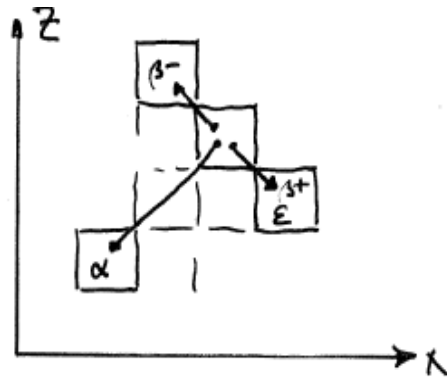
This simple model arranges the energy levels, E_{nl} , in the right order up to a nucleus size of $A=40$.

Stability and existence of nuclei

Chart of nuclides



Radioactivity



Spontaneous radioactive processes:

With or without a secondary gamma ray emission.

{	α β^- β^+ <i>electroncapture</i>
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$$\begin{aligned}
\underline{\alpha}: \quad & \text{Induced by strong interactions} \quad {}^A_Z X \rightarrow {}^{A-4}_{Z-2} X' + {}^4_2 \alpha, \quad Q_\alpha = c^2(m_P - m_D - m_{He}) = T_{x'} + T_\alpha \\
& \quad T_\alpha = \frac{Q_\alpha}{1 + \frac{m_\alpha}{m_{x'}}} \\
\underline{\beta^-}: \quad & \text{Induced by weak interactions} \quad {}^A_Z X \rightarrow {}^A_{Z+1} X' + \beta^- + \bar{\nu} \quad Q_{\beta^-} = c^2(m_P - m_D) = T_{x'} + T_{\beta^-} + T_{\bar{\nu}} \\
& \quad Q_{\beta^-} = (\Delta_P - \Delta_D), T_{x'} \simeq 0 \\
\underline{\beta^+}: \quad & \text{Induced by weak interactions} \quad {}^A_Z X \rightarrow {}^A_{Z-1} X' + \beta^+ + \nu \quad Q_{\beta^+} = c^2(m_P - m_D - 2m_e) = T_{x'} + T_{\beta^+} + T_\nu \\
& \quad Q_{\beta^+} = (\Delta_P - \Delta_D - 2m_e)c^2, T_{x'} \simeq 0 \\
\underline{\varepsilon}: \quad & \text{Induced by weak interactions} \quad {}^A_Z X + e^- \rightarrow {}^A_{Z-1} X' + \nu \quad Q_{EC} = (m_P - m_D)c^2 - E_B = T_\nu
\end{aligned}$$

Electron capture, where an electron is absorbed by the nucleus, is an energetically favorable process which is competing with the β^+ disintegration process. ε is followed by characteristic X-ray radiation.

$$\begin{aligned}
\underline{\gamma}: \quad & \text{Induced by E.M interactions} \quad {}^A_Z X^* \rightarrow {}^A_Z X + \gamma \quad Q_\gamma = (m_P - m_D)c^2 = T'_x + h\nu \\
& \quad T_{x'} \simeq 0
\end{aligned}$$

γ - and X-ray radiation are both secondary processes, which are characteristic of the final daughter nucleus after a disintegration.

The disintegration constant λ

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda \cdot N \Rightarrow N(t) = N(0)e^{-\lambda t} \quad (5)$$

In the equation above, one can see that λ represents a constant transition probability per unit time. $[\lambda] = s^{-1} = Bq$

A good argument supporting the assumed disintegration model in 5 is based on elementary time-dependent perturbation theory.

Radioactivity. Disintegration kinetics

Statistically defined variables:

Half-life $T_{\frac{1}{2}}, T_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} \simeq \frac{0.693}{\lambda}$

Mean life-time $\tau, \tau = \frac{1}{N_0} \int_0^\infty t \lambda N(t) dt = \frac{1}{\lambda}$

Activity $A, A = \lambda \cdot N$

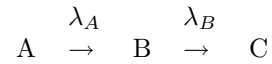
Specific activity SA $SA = \lambda \cdot n$ (n is the number of atoms per mass unit)

$$n = \frac{N_A}{A} \text{ where } N_A \text{ is Avogadro's number, and } A \text{ is the molar mass of the atom.}$$

1Bq is defined to be the amount of radio-nuclei you need of a specific isotope, to get one disintegration per second.

Disintegration chains

A disintegration chain appears when the daughter nucleus of the previous disintegration is unstable.



Using equation 5 in several steps, assuming that nucleus C is stable, this reaction becomes:

$$\frac{dN_A}{dt} = -\lambda_A \cdot N_A; \quad \frac{dN_B}{dt} = \lambda_A \cdot N_A - \lambda_B \cdot N_B; \quad \frac{dN_C}{dt} = \lambda_B \cdot N_B \quad (6)$$

Example:

C stable $\Rightarrow N_A + N_B + N_C = N_0$, initial values: $N_A(0) = N_0$; $N_B(0) = N_C = 0$
 \Rightarrow

$$N_B = \frac{\lambda_A N_A}{\lambda_B - \lambda_A} (e^{-\lambda_A t} - e^{-\lambda_B t}) \quad (\text{Correction: In this equation } N_A = N_A(0) = N_0)$$

$$N_A = N_0 e^{-\lambda_A t}$$

\Rightarrow

$$N_B = \frac{\lambda_A}{\lambda_B} N_0 (1 - e^{-\lambda_B t}) \text{ if } \lambda_A \ll \lambda_B$$

Permanent equilibrium for $t \gg 1/\lambda_B$ ($T_A \gg T_B$):

$$Q_B = \lambda_B N_B \rightarrow \lambda_A N_A = Q_A$$

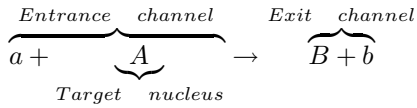
Transient equilibrium ($T_A > T_B$):

$$Q_B = \lambda_B N_B \rightarrow \frac{\lambda_A \lambda_B N_0}{\lambda_B - \lambda_A} e^{-\lambda_A t} = Q_A$$

$$Q_B \rightarrow \frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_B - \lambda_A} Q_A \text{ When } t \rightarrow \infty$$

No equilibrium ($T_A < T_B$)

Nuclear reactions



Energy released: $Q = (m_a + m_A - m_b - m_B)c^2$ $Q \begin{cases} > 0, \text{ exotherm, releases energy} \\ < 0, \text{ endotherm, absorbs energy} \end{cases}$

Scattering cross-section

Cross-section



Number of particles per second within $d\vec{\Omega}$:

$$dR = d\sigma \cdot \dot{\Phi} \text{ per target atom.}$$

Total cross-section:

$$\sigma = \int_{\Omega} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} d\Omega \text{ per target atom}$$

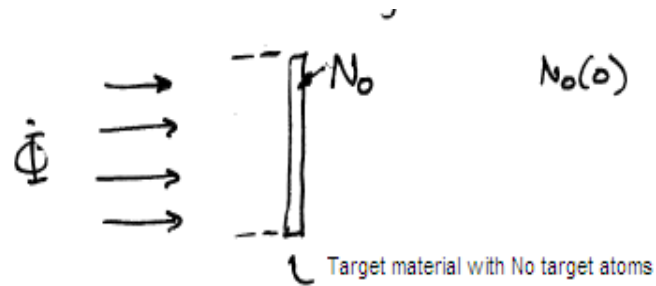
Total rate of particles for a target consisting of N particles:

$$R = \sigma N \cdot \dot{\Phi}$$

Where σ is commonly given in barns(b). $1\text{b}=10^{-28}\text{m}^2$

Examples:

Example: Production of isotopes by neutron capture



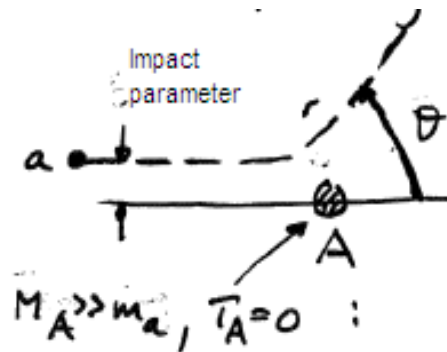
Production rate: $\frac{dN_0(t)}{dt} = -\sigma\Phi N_0$

The radioactive nuclei produced have a disintegration constant λ

Rate of change of produced nuclei: $\frac{dN_1(t)}{dt} = \sigma\Phi N_0(t) - \lambda N_1(t)$

Instantaneous radioactivity due to the produced nuclei: $A_1 = \lambda \cdot N_1$

Example: Rutherford scattering



Elastic scattering; Central-symmetric Coulomb potential.

Differential cross-section: $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left[\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{16\pi\epsilon_0 T_a} \right]^2 \frac{1}{\sin^4 \frac{\theta}{2}}$