

Nuclear Structure from Gamma-Ray Spectroscopy

2019 Postgraduate Lectures

Lecture 1: What we can learn about nuclear behaviour from gamma-ray spectroscopy



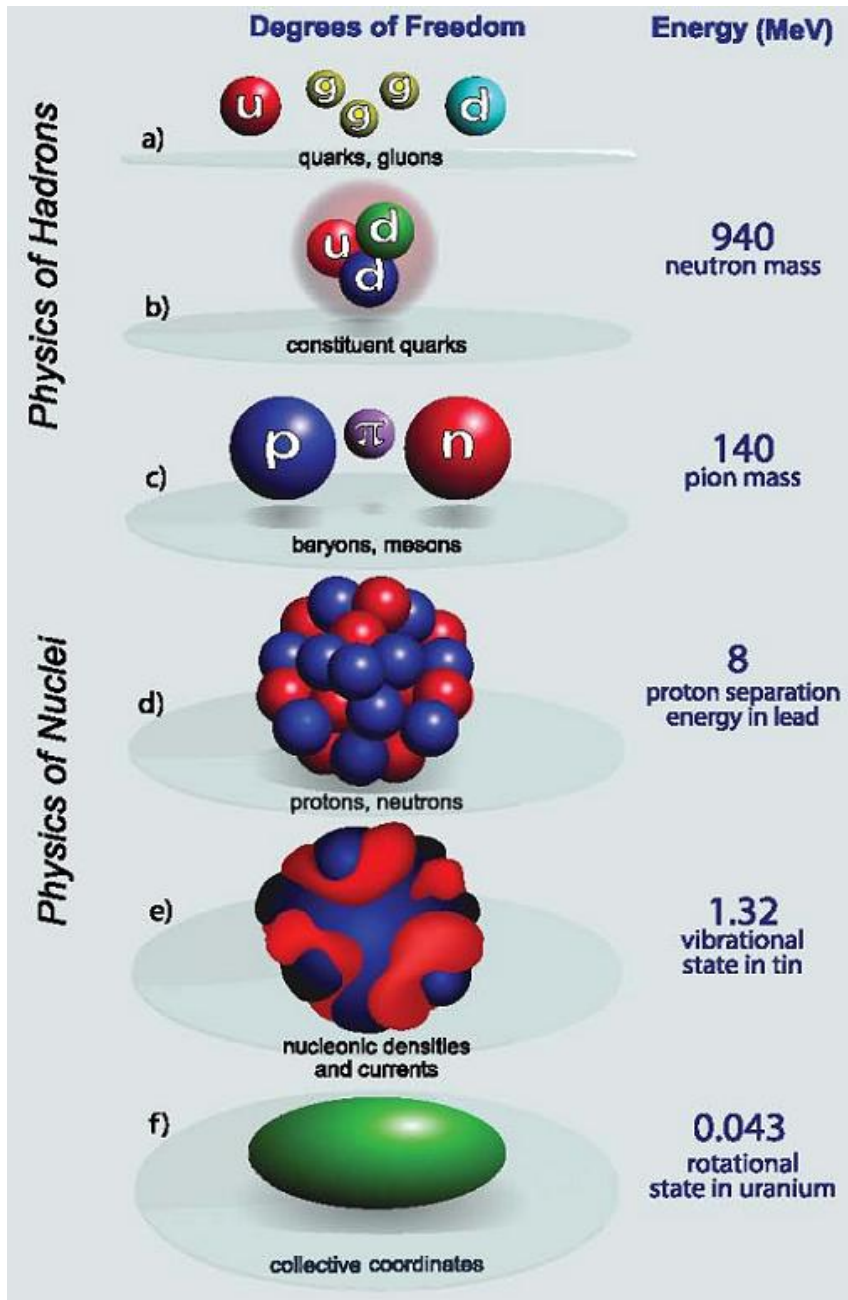
Nuclear Physics

- The nucleus is one of nature's most interesting quantal **few-body** systems
- It brings together **many** types of behaviour, almost all of which are found in **other** systems but which in nuclei **interact** with one another
- The major elementary excitations in nuclei can be associated with **single-particle** or **collective** modes
- While these modes can exist in isolation, it is the interaction between them that gives nuclear spectroscopy its **rich diversity**

The Nucleus is Unique!

- The nucleus is a unique ensemble of strongly interacting **fermions** (nucleons)
- Its large, yet **finite**, number of constituents controls the physics of this mesoscopic system
- Both single-particle (**out-of-phase**) and collective (**in-phase**) effects occur
- There is an analogy to a herd of wild animals. **Individual** animals may break out of the herd but are rapidly drawn back to the safety of the **collective**

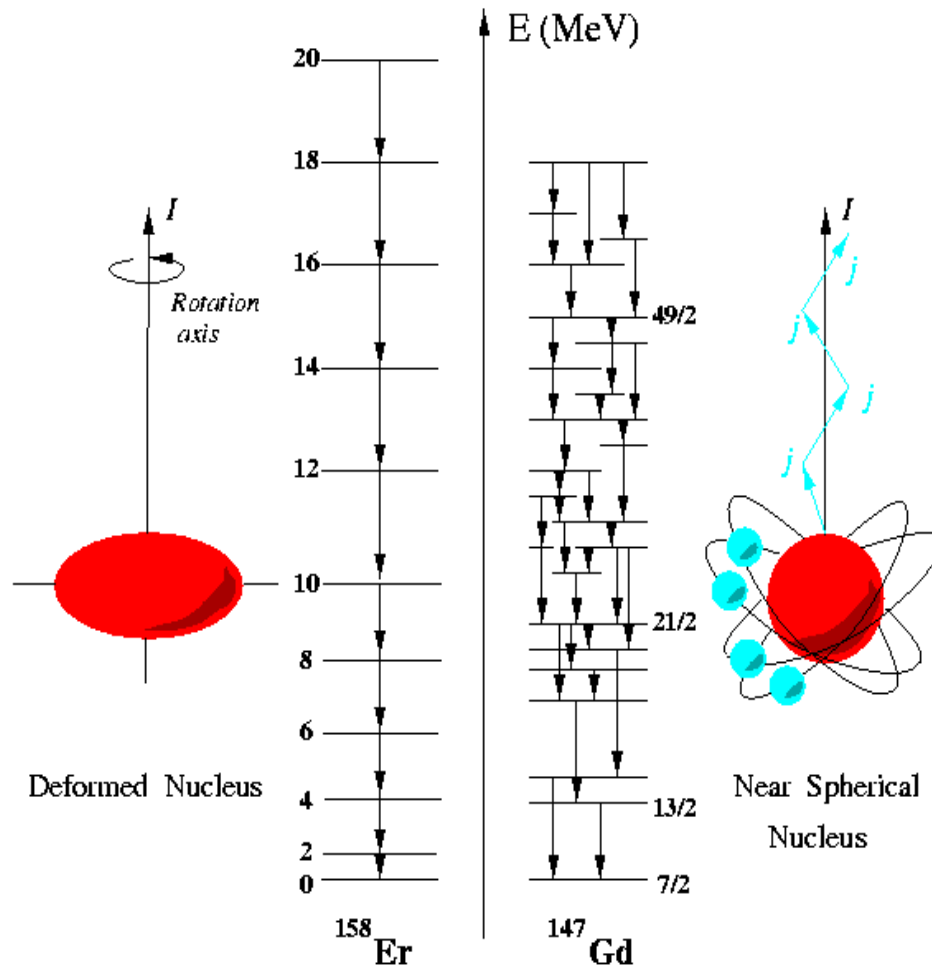
Building Blocks and Energy Scales



- Depending on energy and length scales, different constituents may be considered as the **building blocks** of the atomic nucleus



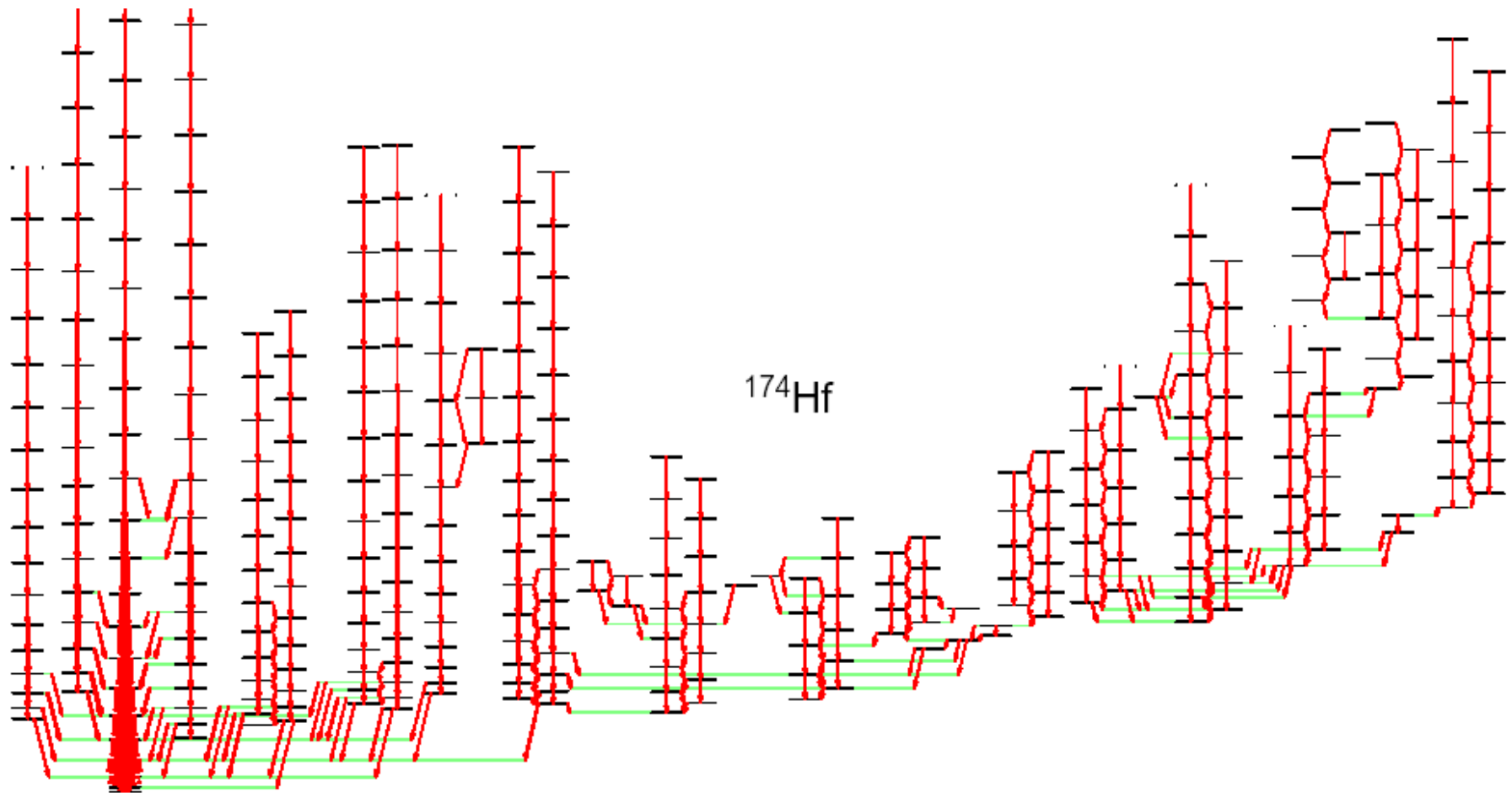
Generation of Angular Momentum



- There are two basic ways of generating high-spin states in a nucleus

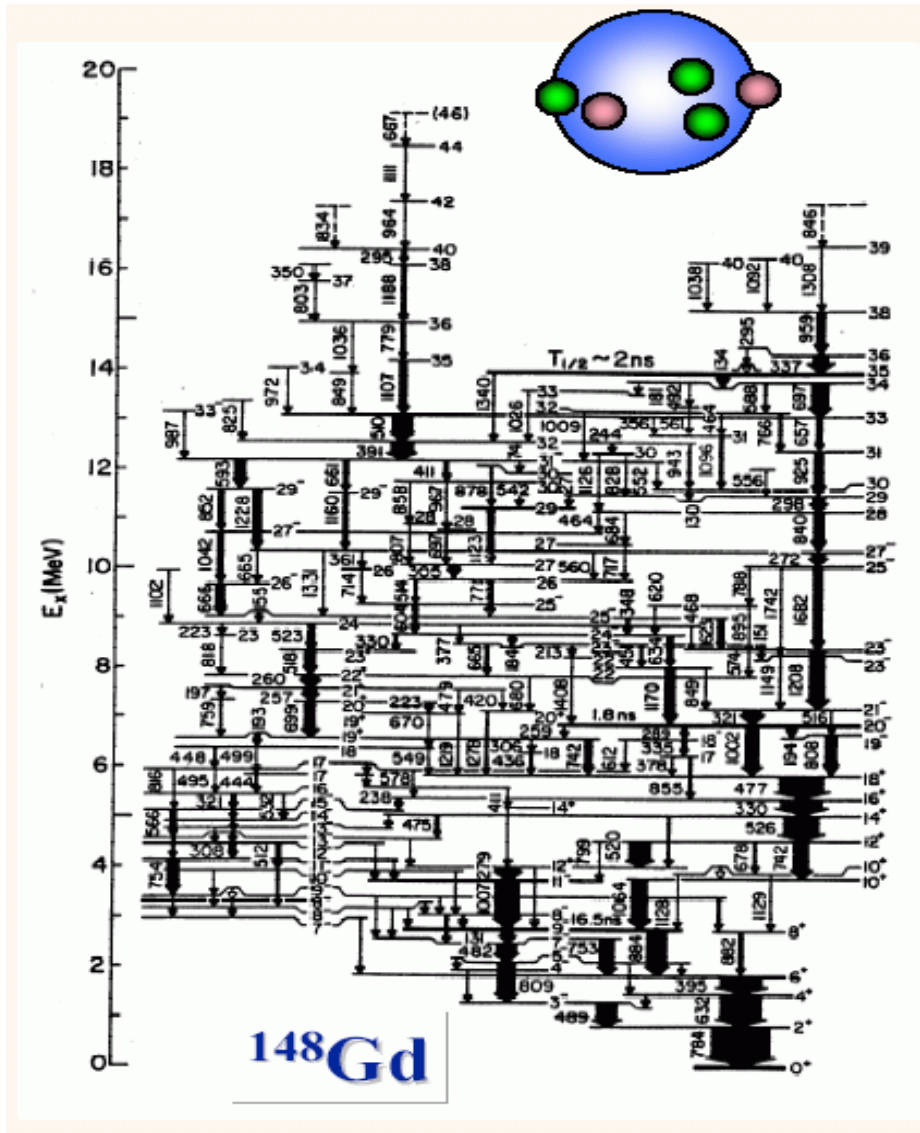
 1. **Collective** (in-phase) motions of the nucleons: vibrations, rotations etc
 2. **Single-particle** effects: pair breaking, particle-hole excitations. The individual spins of a few nucleons j_i generate the total nuclear spin

Collective Level Scheme



- This nucleus has 347 known levels and 516 gamma rays !

Noncollective Level Scheme



- ^{148}Gd is an example of a nucleus showing **single-particle** behaviour
- Complicated set of energy levels
- No regular features e.g. band structures
- Some states are isomeric

Do Nuclei Really Rotate?

- Should we talk about collective motion in nuclei?
- We need to identify **fast** and **slow** degrees of freedom
- For example, in molecules **electronic** motion is the **fastest**, **vibrations** are 10^2 times slower and **rotations** 10^6 times slower. These motions have very **different** time scales so the wavefunction can be separated into a product of the terms
- For nuclei the differences are much **smaller**. Collective and single-particle modes can perhaps be separated, but they will **interact** strongly !

Nuclear Deformation

- Shape parameterisation
- Quadrupole deformation, β and γ
- Triaxiality

Evidence for Deformation

1. Large electric quadrupole moments Q_0
2. Low-lying rotational bands ($E \propto I[I+1]$)

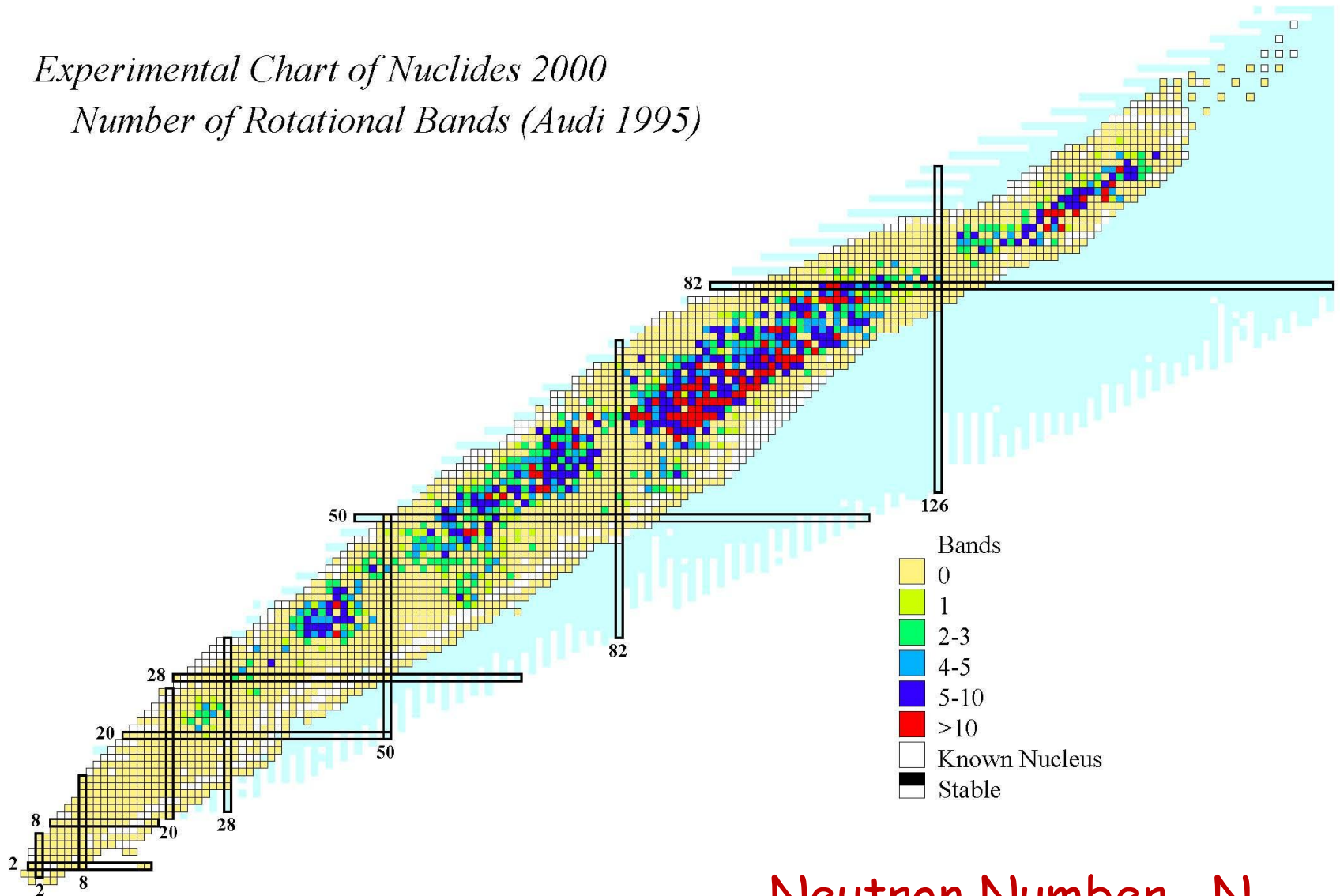
The origin of deformation lies in the long range component of the nucleon-nucleon residual interaction: a quadrupole-quadrupole interaction gives increased binding energy for nuclei which lie between closed shells if the nucleus is deformed. In contrast, the short range (pairing) component favours sphericity

Deformation: Rotational Bands

Experimental Chart of Nuclides 2000

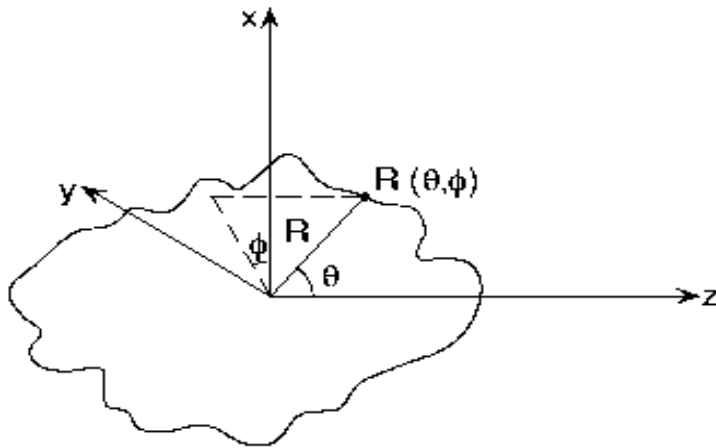
Number of Rotational Bands (Audi 1995)

Proton Number Z



Neutron Number N

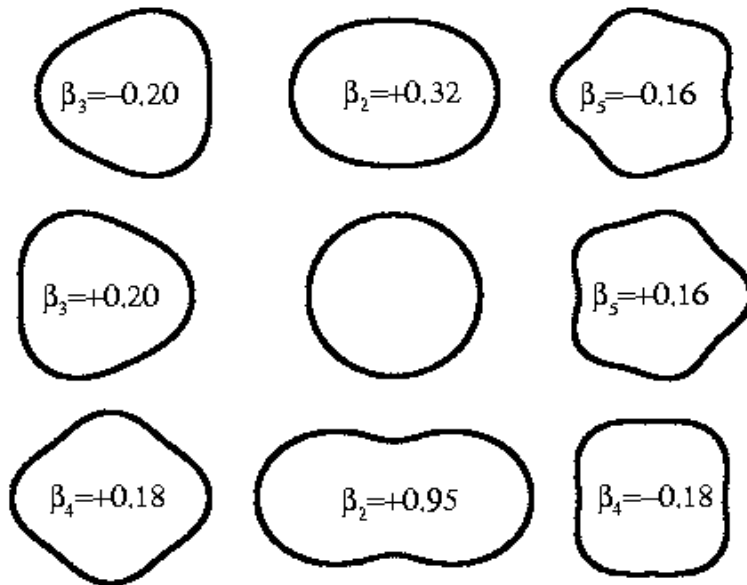
Simple Nuclear Shapes



- In the description of a 'drop' of nuclear matter with a sharp surface, the equipotential surface $R(\theta, \phi)$ can be expressed as a sum over spherical harmonics $Y_{\lambda\mu}(\theta, \phi)$:

$$R(\theta, \phi) = R_0 [1 + \sum_{\lambda} \sum_{\mu} a_{\lambda\mu} Y_{\lambda\mu}(\theta, \phi)]$$

- Here R_0 is the radius of a sphere and the $a_{\lambda\mu}$ coefficients represent distortions from the equilibrium spherical shape



Volume Conservation

- By integrating over the shape of the nucleus, the volume for small deformation is:

$$V \approx (4\pi/3) [1 + 3a_{00}/\sqrt{4\pi}] R_0^3$$

- To account for the incompressibility of nuclear matter we demand volume conservation under distortions and hence set $a_{00} = 0$
- A factor $C(a_{\lambda\mu})$ may be introduced to satisfy the conservation of volume more precisely:

$$R(\theta, \varphi) = C(a_{\lambda\mu}) R_0 [1 + \sum_{\lambda} \sum_{\mu} a_{\lambda\mu} Y_{\lambda\mu}(\theta, \varphi)]$$

Most Important Multipoles

- The $\lambda = 1$ term describes the displacement of the centre of mass and therefore cannot give rise to intrinsic excitation of the nucleus - ignore !
- The $\lambda = 2$ term is the most important term and describes quadrupole deformation
- The $\lambda = 3$ term describes octupole shapes which can look like pears ($\mu = 0$), bananas ($\mu = 1$) and peanuts ($\mu = 2, 3$)
- The $\lambda = 4$ term describes hexadecapole shapes

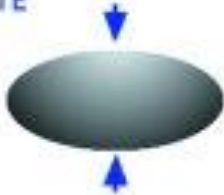
Variety of Shapes

$\lambda=0$
Sphere



$\lambda=2$
Quadrupoles

OBLATE



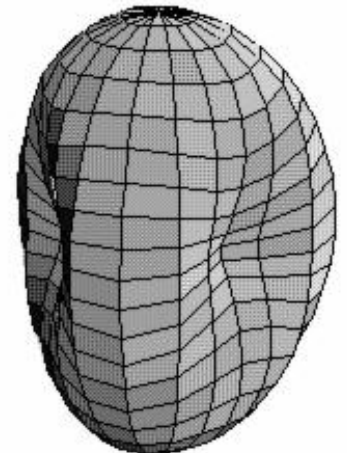
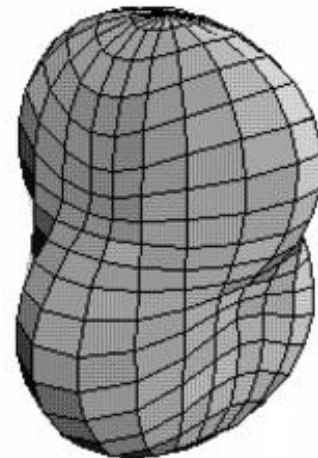
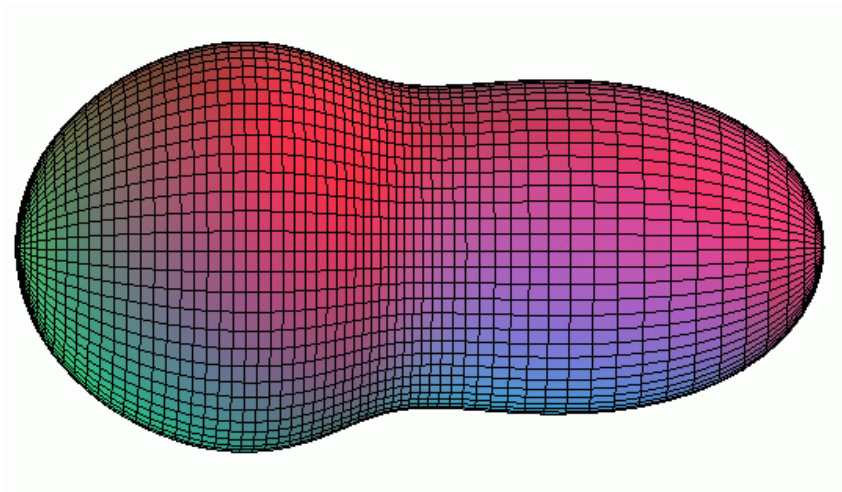
PROLATE



$\lambda=3$
Octupoles

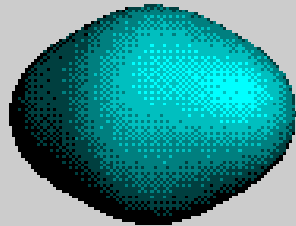


$\lambda=4$
Hexadecapoles

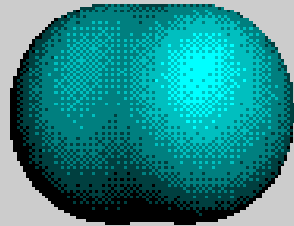


Theoretical Deformations

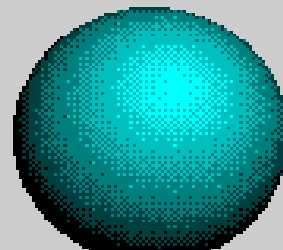
Nuclear ground-state shapes



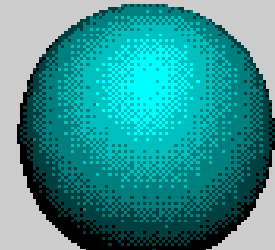
^{154}Sm



^{186}W

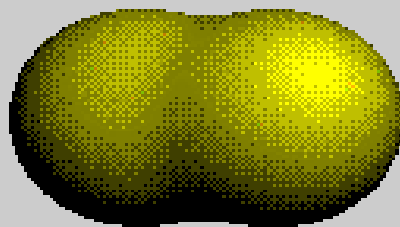


^{208}Pb



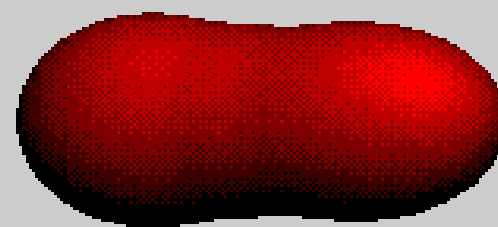
^{190}Pt

Isomeric
shape



^{240}Pu

Mass-asymmetric
saddle-point shape



^{232}Th

Tetrahedral Nuclei?

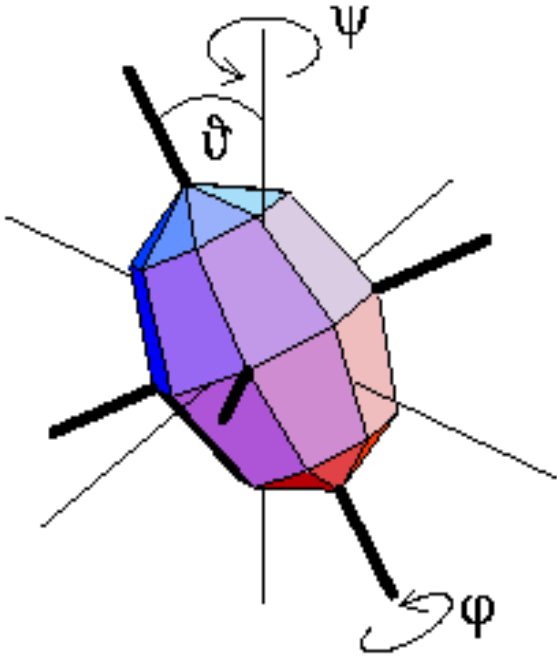
- The $\lambda = 3$ multipole describes octupole shapes
- Pear shapes (with axial symmetry) occur when

$$a_{30} = a_{20} \neq 0$$

- Nuclei with tetrahedral (and octahedral) symmetry have been predicted to occur when

$$a_{32} \neq 0 \text{ with } a_{30} = a_{20} \sim 0$$

Quadrupole Deformation



The **Euler** angles relate the intrinsic (nucleus) and lab frame axes

- The description of the nuclear shape simplifies if we make the principal axes of our coordinate system, i.e. (**x**, **y**, **z**), coincide with the nuclear axes (**1**, **2**, **3**)
- Then $a_{22} = a_{2-2}$, and $a_{21} = a_{2-1} = 0$
- The **two** independent coefficients a_{20} and a_{22} , together with the **three** Euler angles, then completely define the system
- The shape then simplifies to:

$$R = C R_0 [1 + a_{20} Y_{20} + a_{22} (Y_{22} + Y_{2-2})]$$

β_2 and γ Parameters

- An alternative parameterisation in the system of principal axes introduces the polar coordinates (β_2, γ) through the relations:

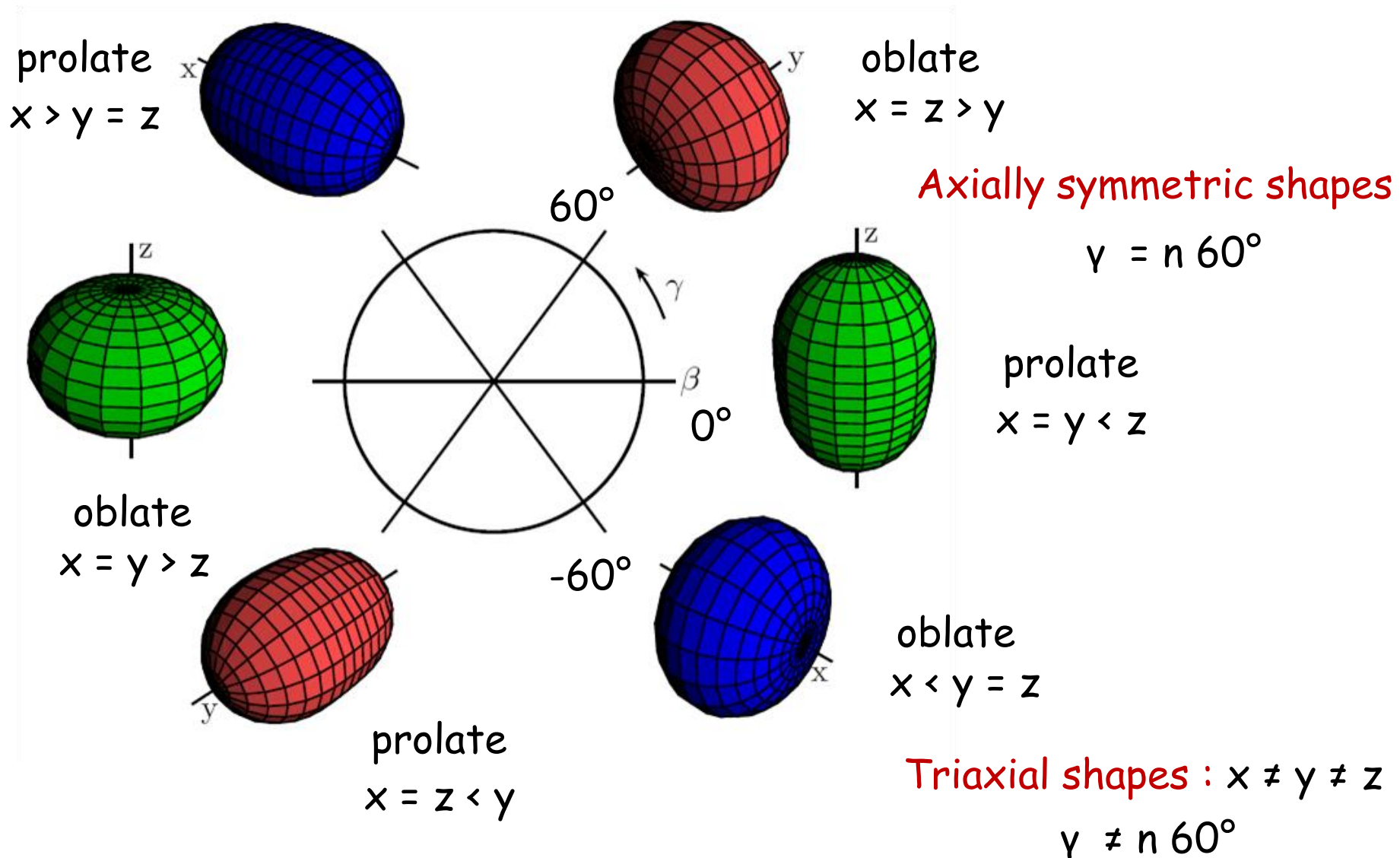
$$a_{20} = \beta_2 \cos \gamma \quad \text{and} \quad a_{22} = -1/\sqrt{2} \beta_2 \sin \gamma$$

- The parameter β_2 measures the total deformation:

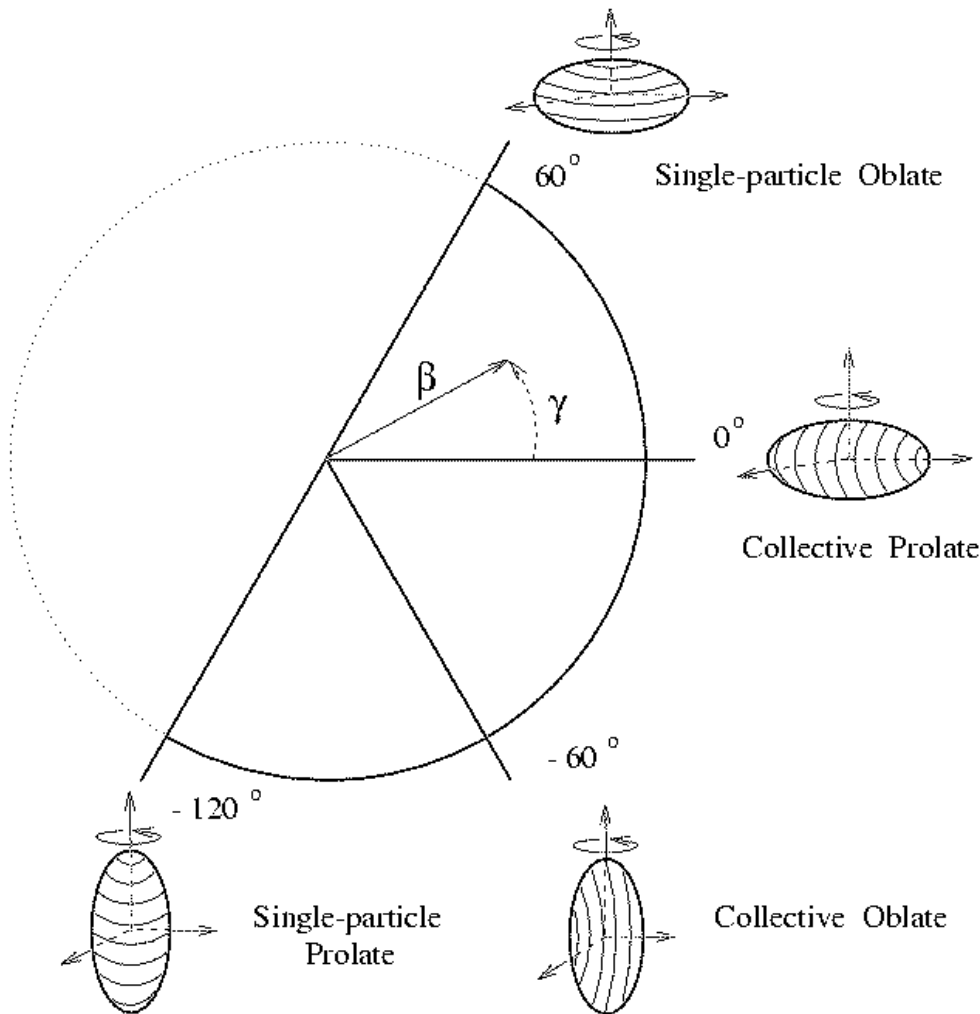
$$\beta_2^2 = \sum_{\mu} |a_{2\mu}|^2$$

- The parameter γ measures the lengths along the principal axes. For $\gamma = 0^\circ$, the shape is **prolate** with the z-axis as the (long) symmetry axis.

Quadrupole β_2 and γ Parameters



Lund Convention



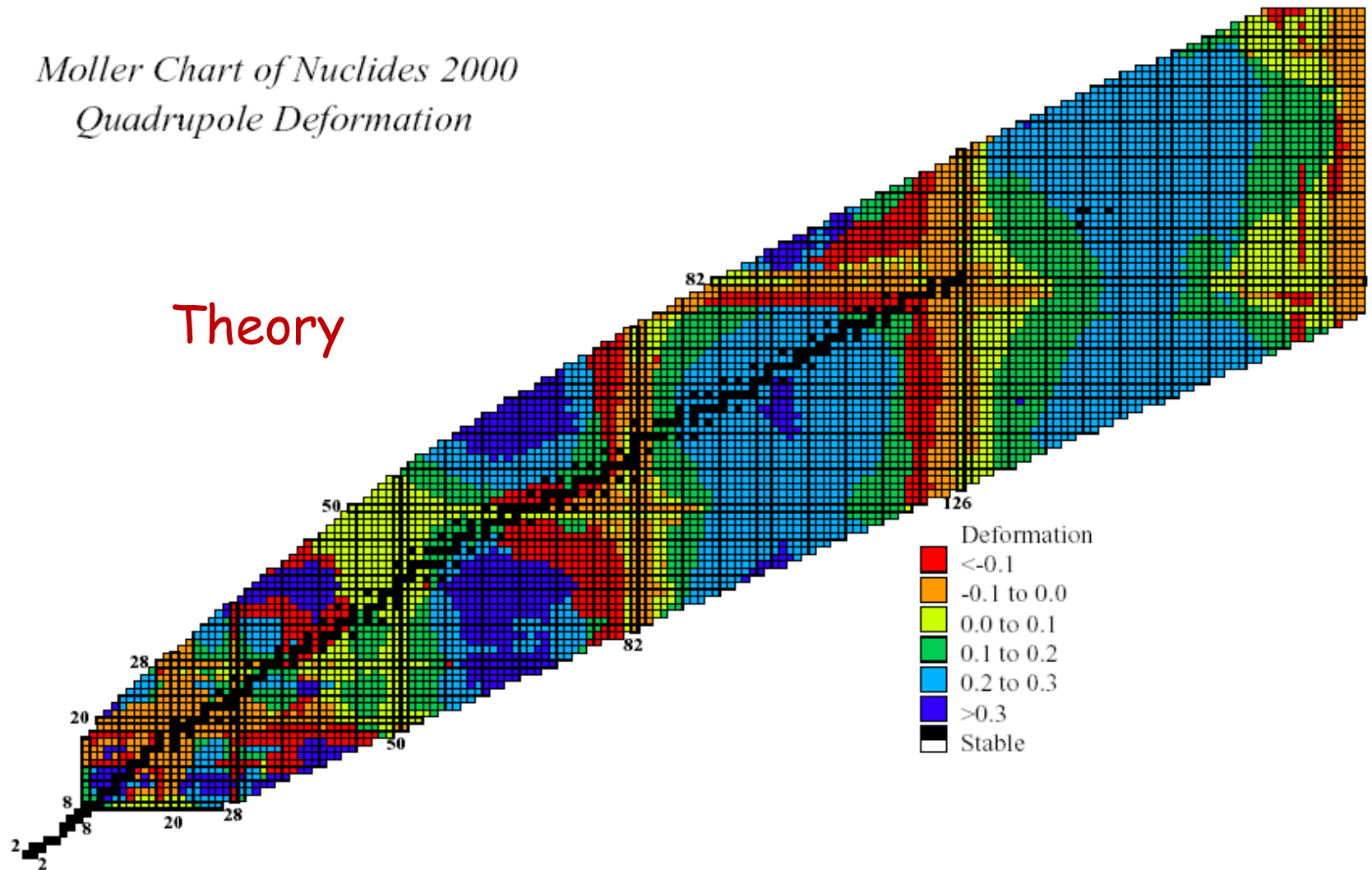
- In order to specify the triaxiality of a deformed quadrupole intrinsic shape, the range of γ values,

$0^\circ \leq \gamma \leq 60^\circ$ is sufficient

- However, in order to specify a cranked system, we need **three** times this range, corresponding to the **three** principal axes about which the system can be **cranked**

Deformation Systematics

Moller Chart of Nuclides 2000
Quadrupole Deformation



Approximate Value of β_2

- From an empirical fit to **E2** transition rates (not valid near closed shells) it is found:

$$T_\gamma(\text{E2}; 2^+ \rightarrow 0^+) = (4 \pm 2) \times 10^{10} Z^2 E_\gamma^4 A^{-1}$$

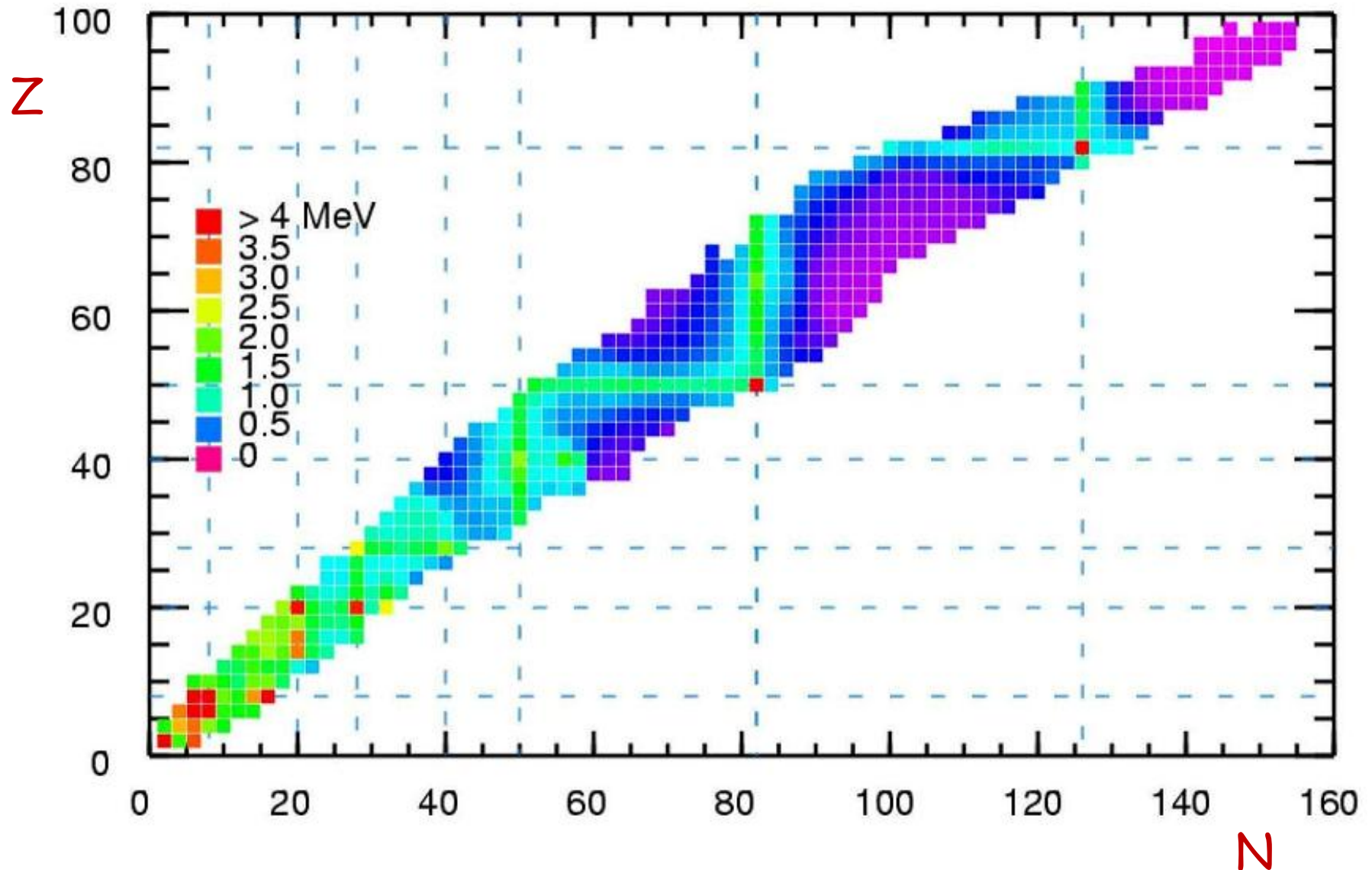
- This can be used for a '**Grodzins**' estimate of the quadrupole deformation parameter:

$$\beta_2 \approx \{ 1225 / [A^{7/3} E(2^+)] \}^{1/2}$$

with the 2^+ energy expressed in **MeV**

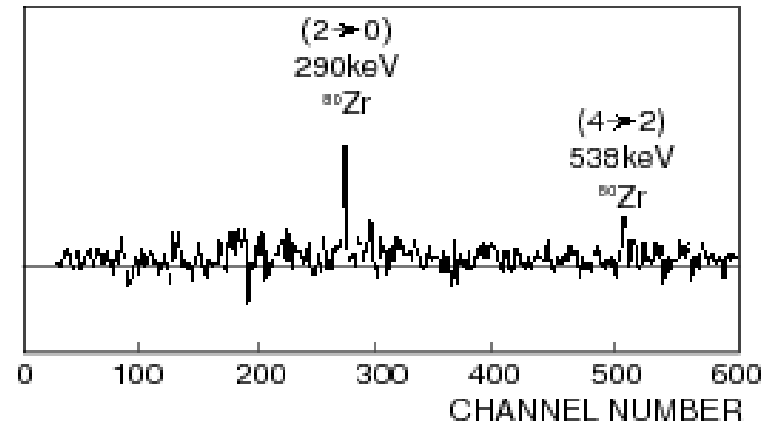
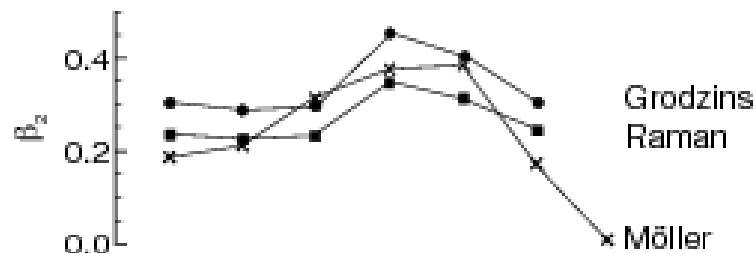
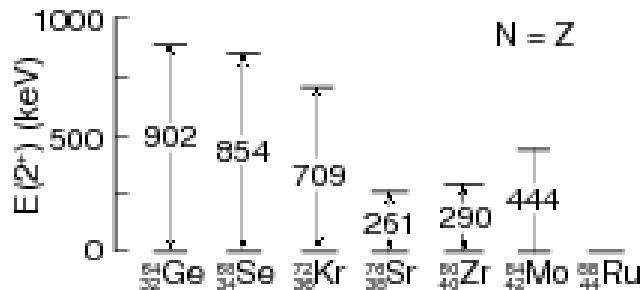
- The energy of the 2^+ state of an even-even nucleus hence gives an insight into the nuclear deformation. The lower the 2^+ energy, the larger is β_2 and also the nuclear **moment of inertia**

First 2^+ Energies



Structure Far From Stability

- Even one gamma ray can give an insight into nuclear behaviour, e.g. **deformation**



Triaxiality

- All three principal axes have different lengths:

$$R_x \neq R_y \neq R_z$$

i.e. 'short', 'long' and 'intermediate' axes

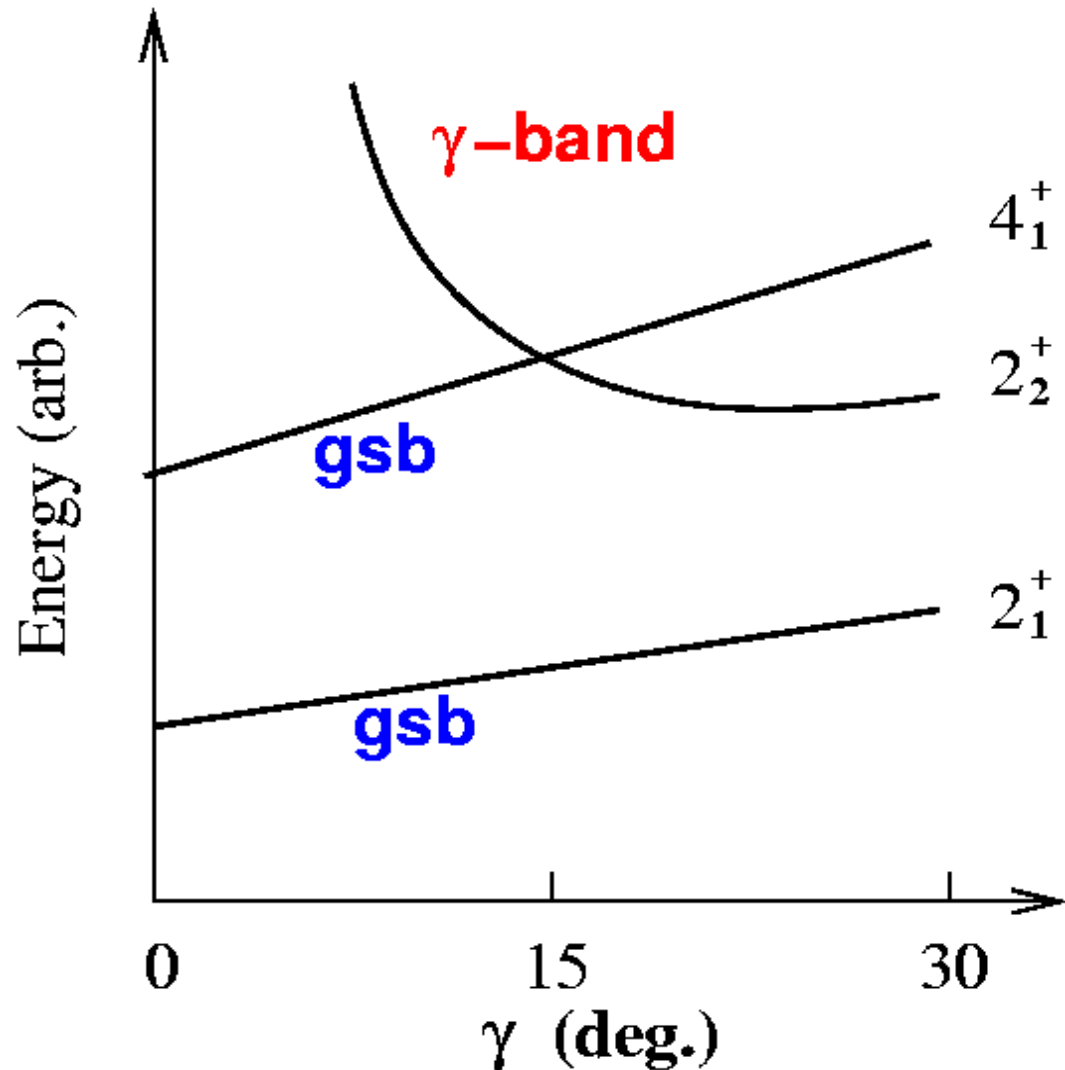
- There is no symmetry axis (however, there is reflection symmetry) so K is not a good quantum number
- The low-spin energy levels in even-even nuclei move around as a function of γ
- For $\gamma \neq 0^\circ$ an effective quadrupole deformation parameter may be defined:

$$\beta_{\text{eff}} = \beta \{ 4 \sin^2(3\gamma) / [9 - \sqrt{81 - 72 \sin^2(3\gamma)}] \}^{1/2}$$

Asymmetric Rotor Model

- The Asymmetric Rotor Model (**ARM**) investigates rigid triaxial shapes
- The energies of the first two 2^+ states are:
$$E(2^+) = (6\hbar^2/2\mathfrak{J}) \{9[1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 8/9 \sin^2(3\gamma)}] / 4 \sin^2(3\gamma)\}$$
- Hence from the experimental energies of the first 2^+ states, a value of $|\gamma|$ can be deduced
- The higher spin states of the **ground-state** and **γ -bands** move around in energy as γ changes
- Increasing γ tends to lower the energy levels of the **γ -band** relative to the ground-state band

ARM Energy Levels



- These are the lowest energy levels of an asymmetric rigid-rotor predicted by the ARM
- Note that the second 2^+ state falls below the first 4^+ state for $|\gamma| \geq 15^\circ$

More ARM Relations

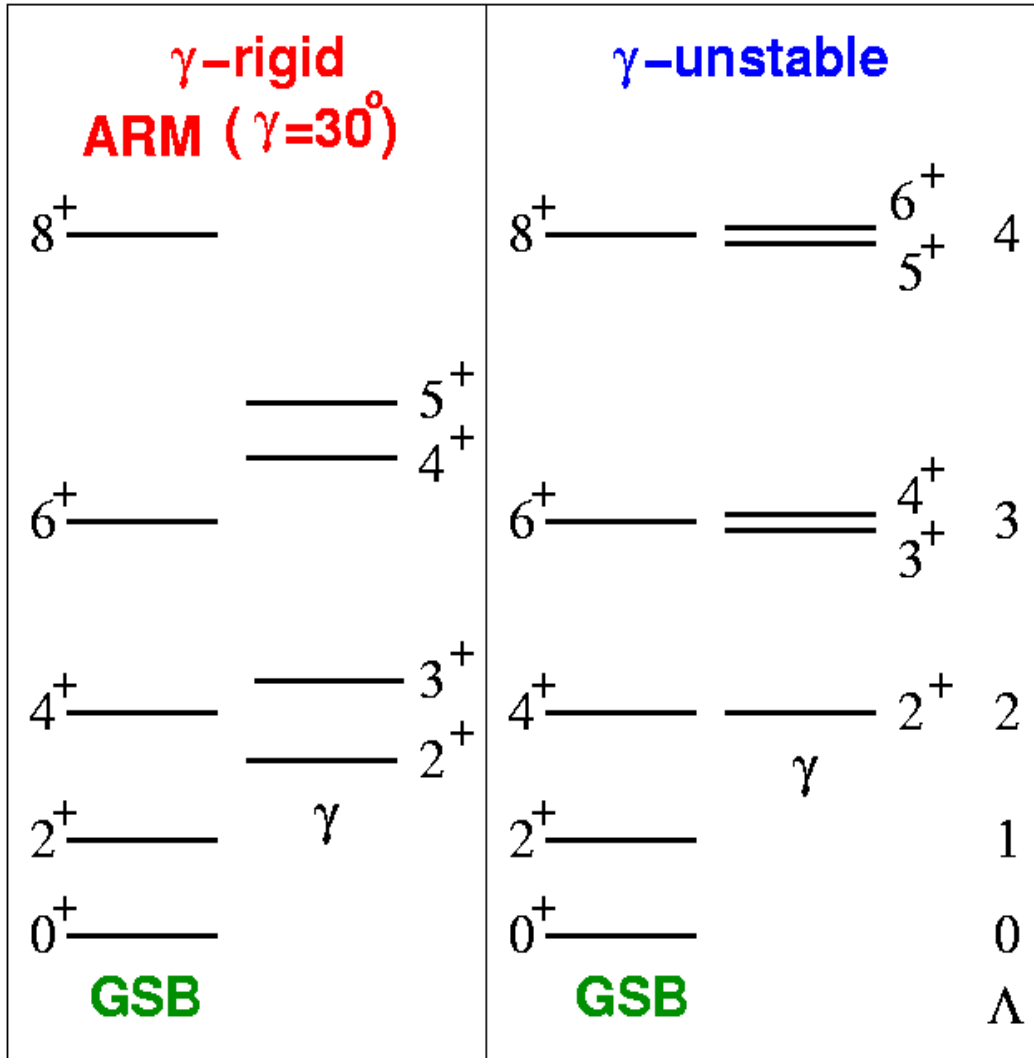
- For the odd-spin members of the γ band:

$$E(3^+) = E_1(2^+) + E_2(2^+) \quad \text{and} \quad E(5^+) = 4 E_1(2^+) + E_2(2^+)$$

- Percentage differences for $N = 76$ isotones:

<u>Nucleus</u>	<u>γ</u>	<u>R_3 (%)</u>	<u>R_5 (%)</u>
^{128}Te	26.6°	-1.21	
^{130}Xe	27.6°	+1.55	
^{132}Ba	26.3°	-0.98	
^{134}Ce	25.3°	-1.79	
^{136}Nd	25.7°	+0.38	+13.2
^{138}Sm	27.0°	+0.79	+18.7
^{140}Gd	26.8°	-2.53	+16.5

γ -rigidity or γ -softness?



- The ARM considers the rotation of a **rigid triaxial** shape
- The other extreme is a completely **flat** potential with respect to γ , with γ oscillating uniformly between $\gamma = 0^\circ$ (prolate) and $\gamma = 60^\circ$ (oblate)
- Since the average is $\gamma = 30^\circ$, we compare the two models at this value

Gamma-Band Staggering

- As γ increases, a staggering arises between the odd-spin and even-spin members of the band

- One way to measure this is to form the ratio:

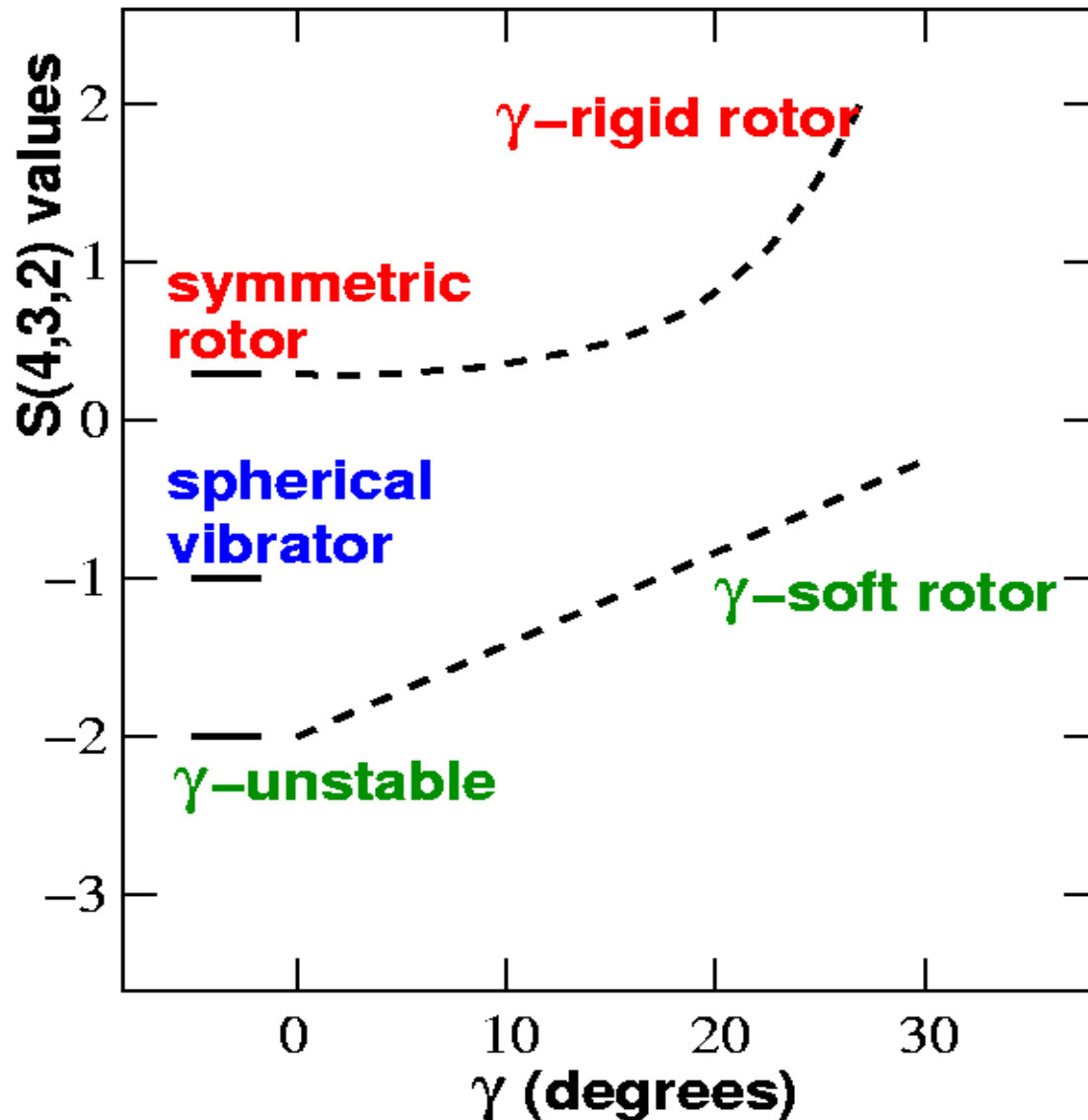
$$S(4,3,2) = \{ [E_2(4^+) - E_1(3^+)] - [E_1(3^+) - E_2(2^+)] \} / E_1(2^+)$$

- The energies, in units of $E_1(2^+)$, are:

<u>Model</u>	<u>$E_2(2^+)$</u>	<u>$E_1(3^+)$</u>	<u>$E_2(4^+)$</u>	<u>$S(4,3,2)$</u>
γ -rigid (30°)	2.0	3.0	5.67	+1.67
γ -unstable	2.5	4.5	4.5	-2.0

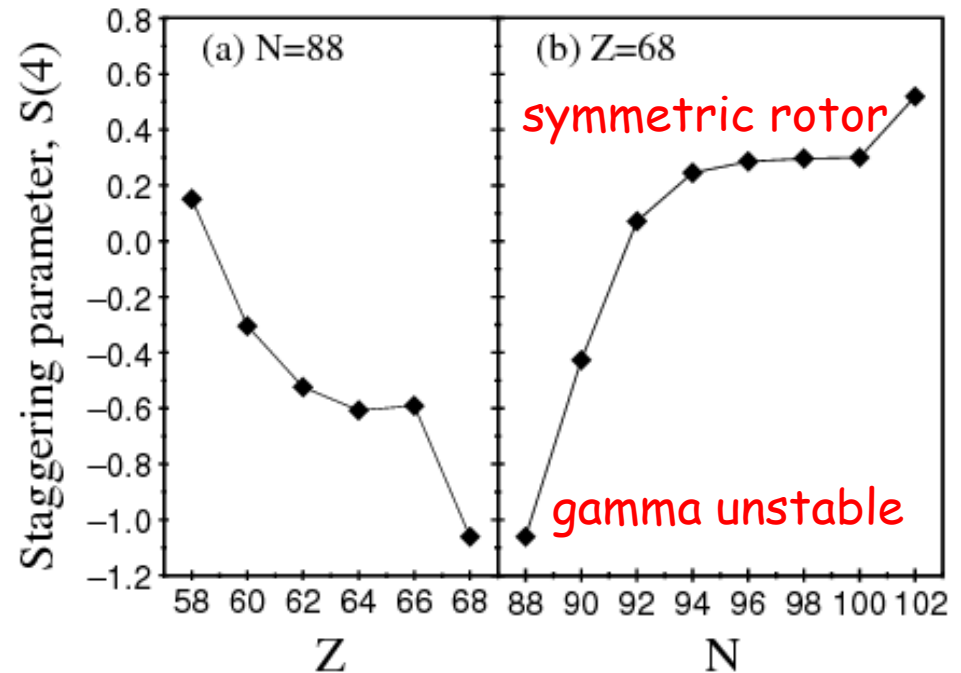
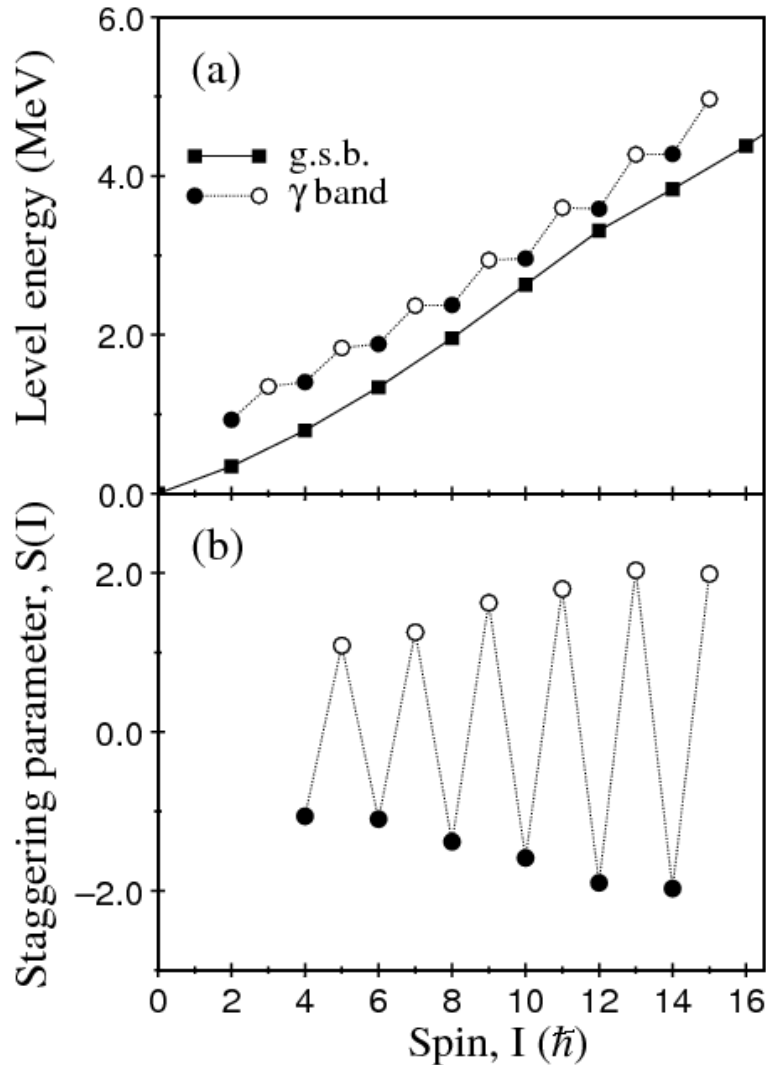
- Spherical Harmonic Vibrator: $S(4,3,2) = -1.0$
- Symmetric Rotor ($\gamma = 0^\circ$): $S(4,3,2) = +0.33$

$S(4,3,2)$ Ratios vs. γ



- The $S(4,3,2)$ values for various types of motion are shown here as a function of the γ deformation

Staggering in ^{156}Er



^{156}Er ($Z=68$, $N=88$) is a 'transitional' nucleus

Do Triaxial Nuclei Really Exist?

- Considerable effort has been made over the last twenty years to obtain conclusive evidence of (static) triaxial nuclear shapes
- These efforts have recently been intensified by the experimental evidence of chirality (handedness) and the wobbling (precession) mode in nuclei (discussed later)
- Triaxiality is an **essential prerequisite** for the manifestation of both of these effects in the atomic nucleus !

Vibrational Motion

- Spherical Harmonic Vibrator

Spherical Harmonic Vibrator

n=3 _____ $0^+, 2^+, 3^+, 4^+, 6^+$

n=2 _____ $0^+, 2^+, 4^+$

n=1 _____ 2^+

n=0 _____ 0^+

- A **dynamic** deformation
- We assume the nucleus is **spherical** in its ground state and the excited states are due to harmonic **oscillations** of the nuclear surface

- For a quadrupole vibration, the potential may be written:

$$V_{\text{vib}} = \sum_{\mu} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} C_2 |a_{2\mu}|^2 + \frac{1}{2} B_2 \left| \frac{da_{2\mu}}{dt} \right|^2 \right\}$$

where C_2 is a parameter representing the restoring potential and B_2 is associated with the mass carried by the vibration. This mode is possible since C_2 , determined by the surface tension, is low

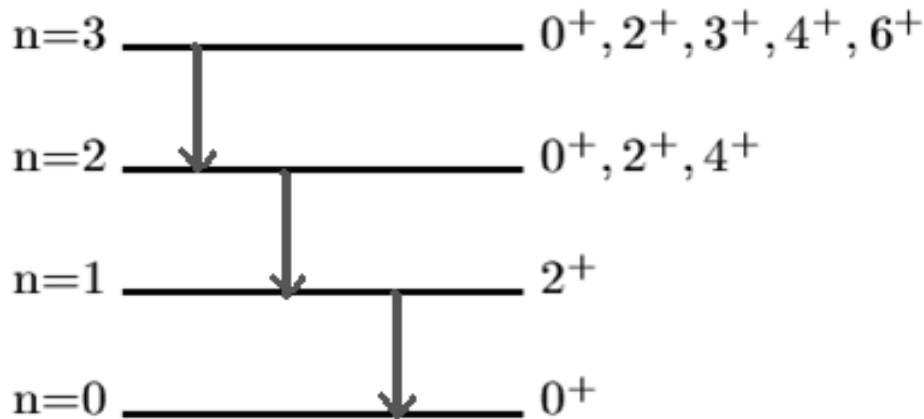
Vibrator Eigenvalues

- The eigenvalues of the spherical harmonic vibrator are:

$$E_n = E_0 + n \hbar \omega_2 \quad \text{with} \quad \omega_2 = \sqrt{C_2/B_2}$$

- E_0 represents the intrinsic and zero point motion of the oscillations
- The energy levels for different n are equally spaced
- Each phonon carries angular momentum 2 (Y_2) and has positive parity

Allowed Transitions



- For quadrupole vibrations, electromagnetic transitions are only allowed between states with:

$$\Delta n = \pm 1$$

- For an $E2$ transition:

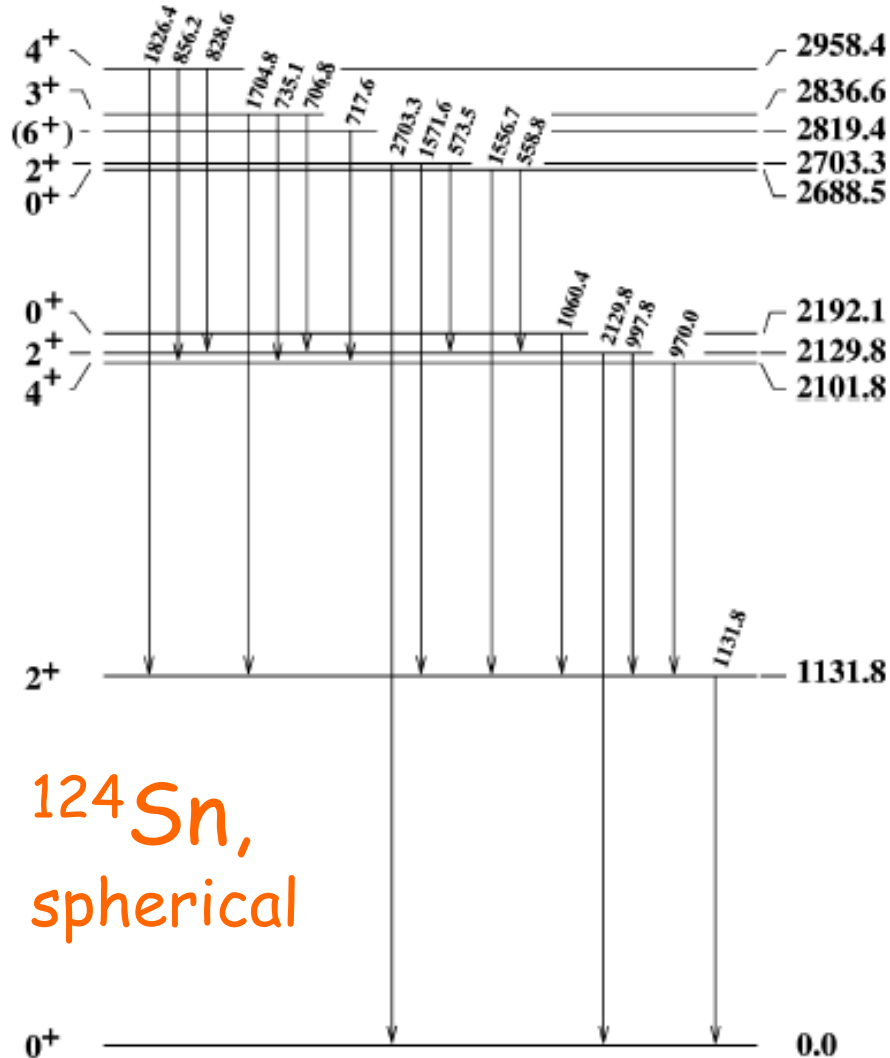
$$\langle I=2, n=1 || E2 || I=0, n=0 \rangle = \sqrt{5} Q_{\text{vib}} e$$

where Q_{vib} is calculated from the Liquid Drop Model:

$$Q_{\text{vib}} = (3ZR^2/4\pi) \sqrt{\hbar/2B_2\omega_2}$$

- The magnetic moment is constant for $\lambda = 2$ states and therefore $M1$ transitions are not allowed

Multiphonon Vibrational States



N = 3 (3 phonon)

N = 2 (2 phonon)

N = 1 (1 phonon)

N = 0

^{124}Sn ,
spherical

Octupole Vibrations

$n=2$ ——— $0^+, 2^+, 4^+, 6^+$

$n=2$ ——— $0^+, 2^+, 4^+$ $n=1$ ——— 3^-

$n=1$ ——— 2^+

$n=0$ ——— 0^+
quadrupole

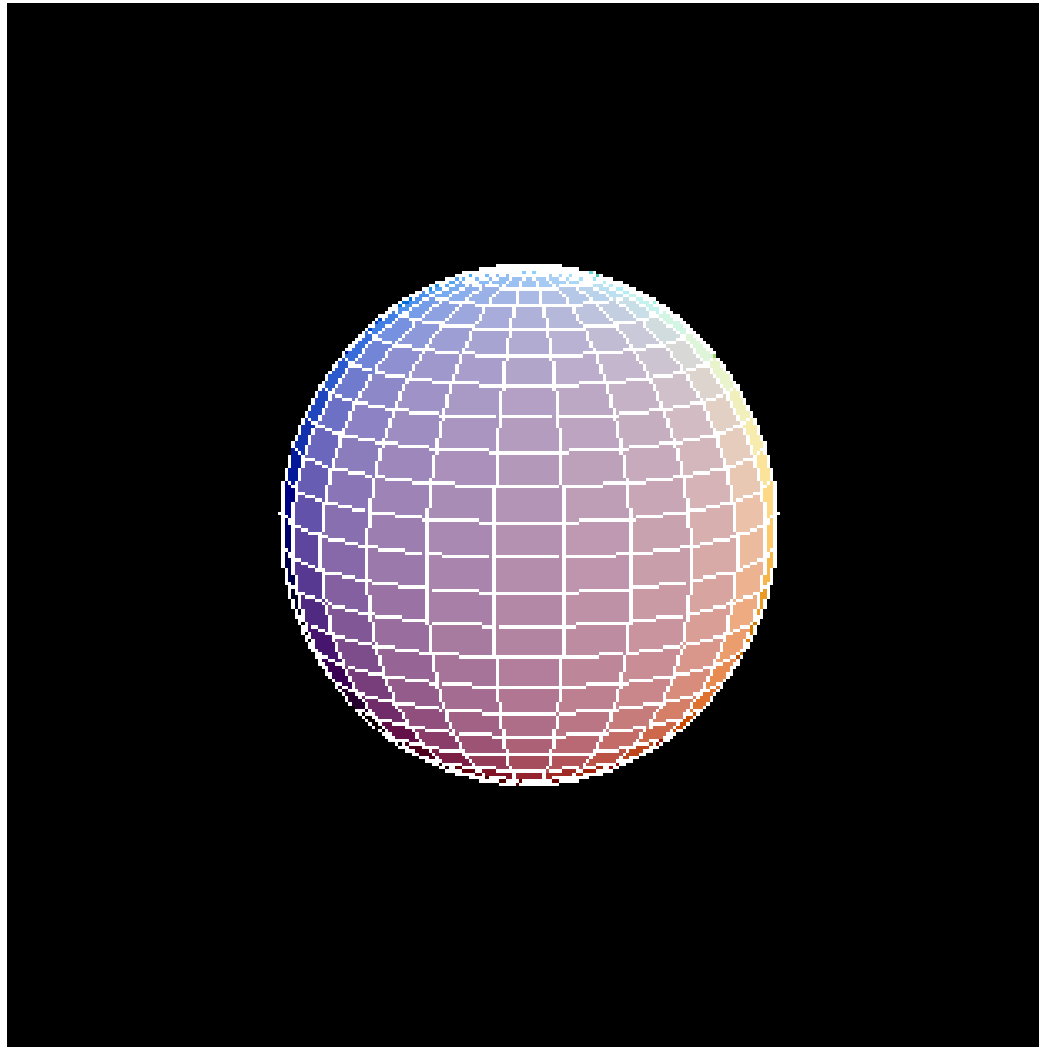
$n=0$ ——— 0^+
octupole

- For **octupole** vibrations, each phonon carries angular momentum **3** (Y_3) and **negative** parity

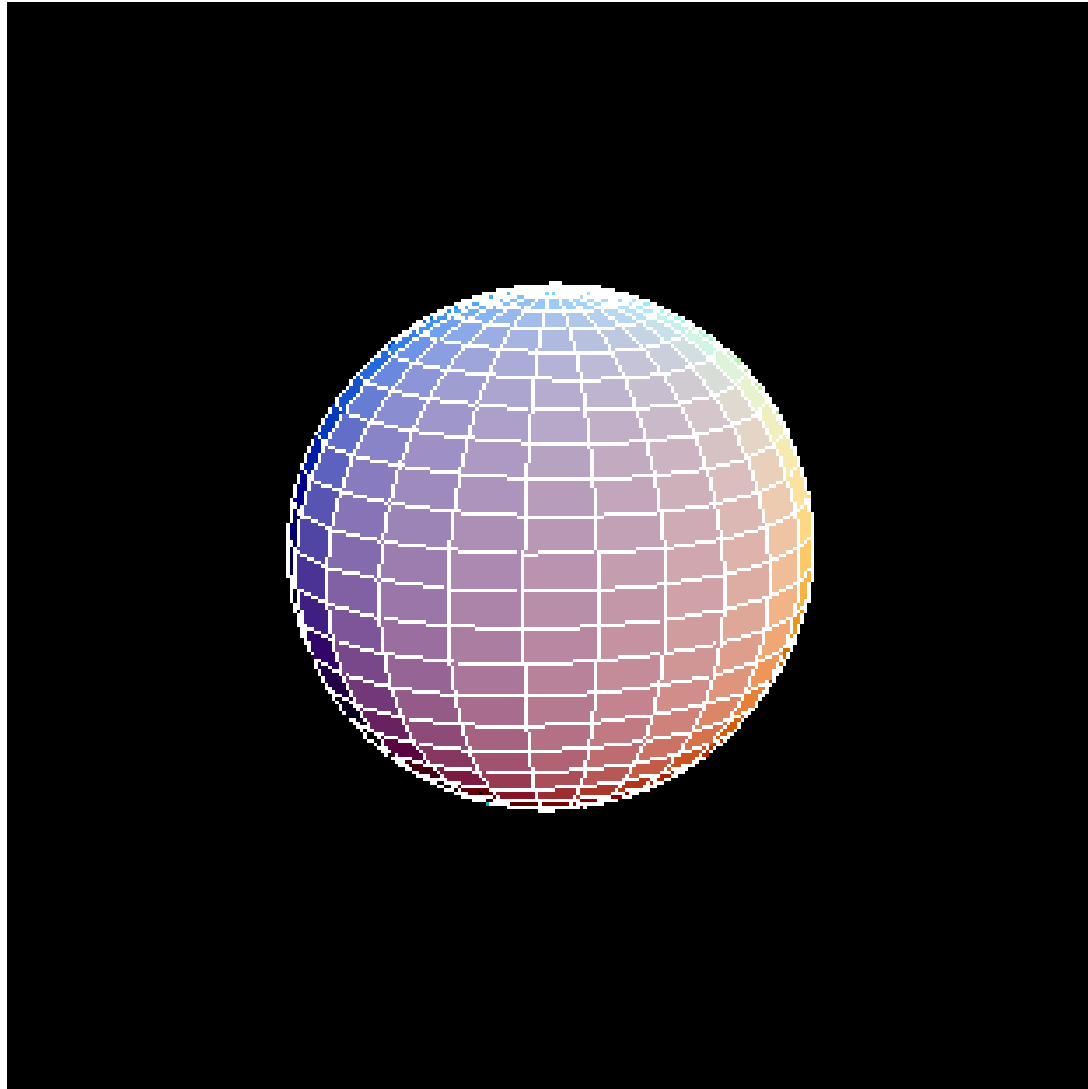
- The energy of the first excited state (**3^-**) is roughly twice the energy of the **quadrupole** case
- For real nuclei, an **anharmonic** oscillator is needed. This removes the degeneracy of the **$n = 2$** states (**$0^+, 2^+, 4^+$**) of the **quadrupole** vibrator. It also displaces the **$\lambda = 2$** and **$\lambda = 3$** states relative to each other

Vibrational Movies...

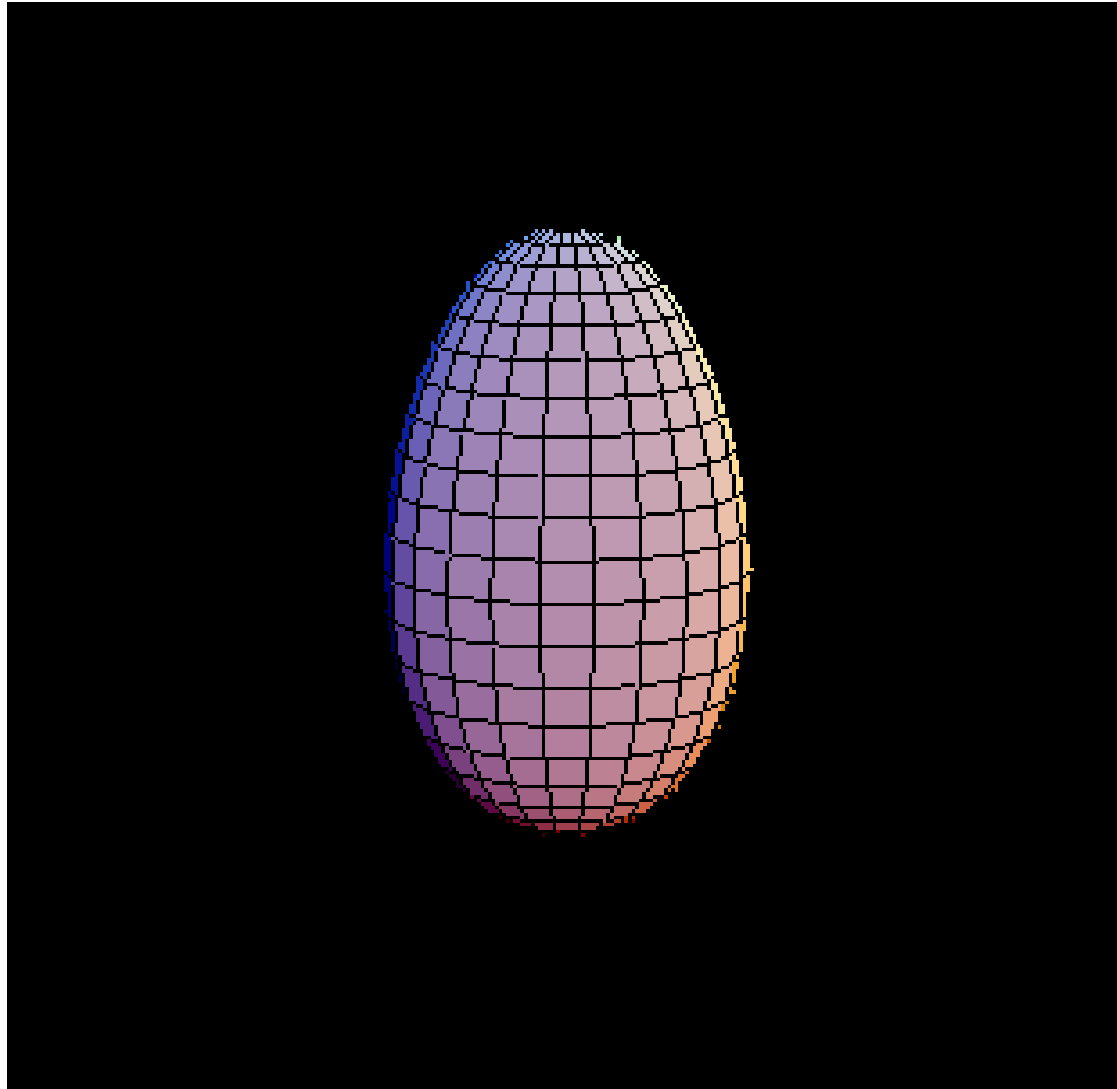
Beta (Y_{20}) Vibration



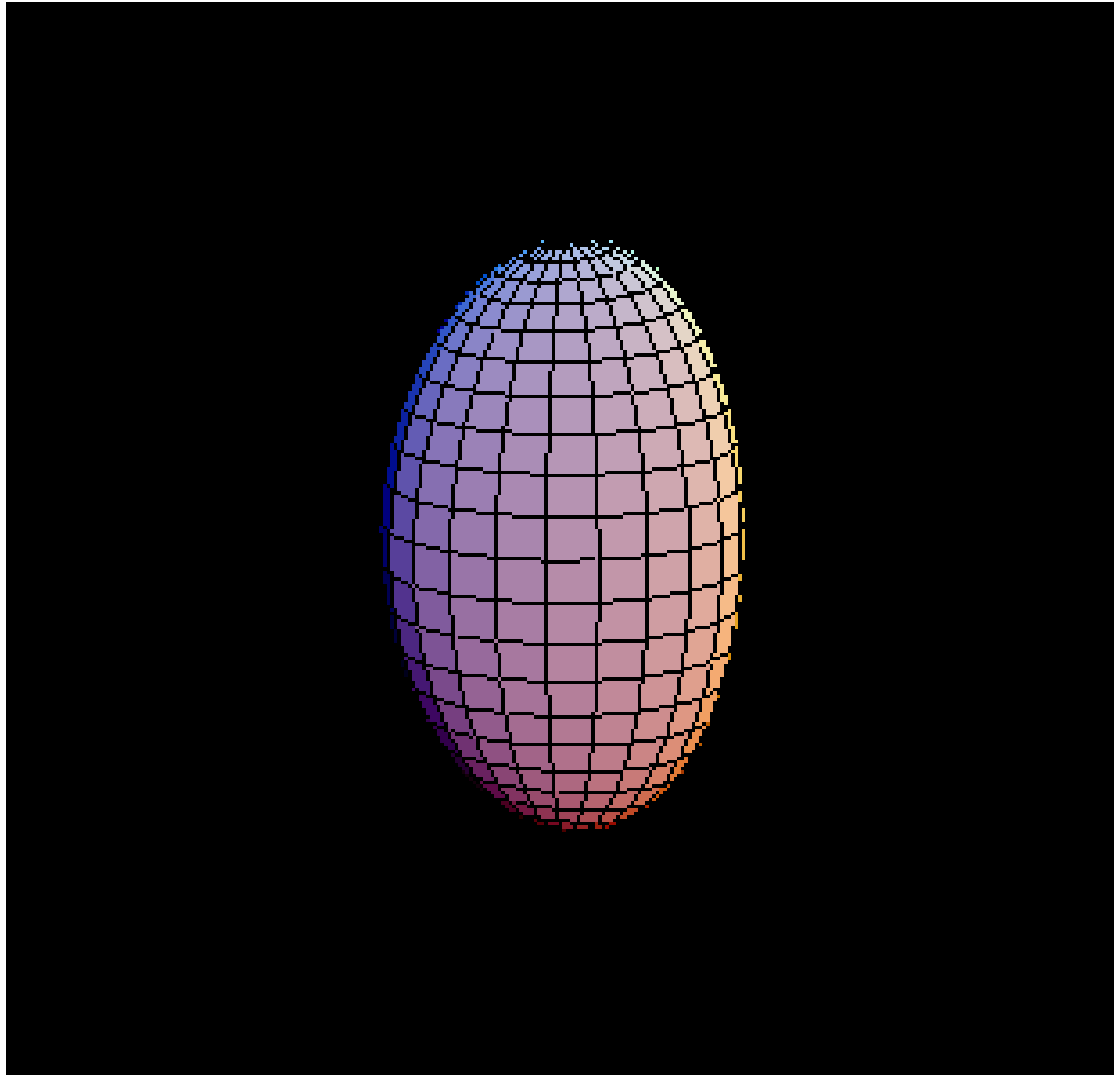
Gamma (Y_{22}) Vibration



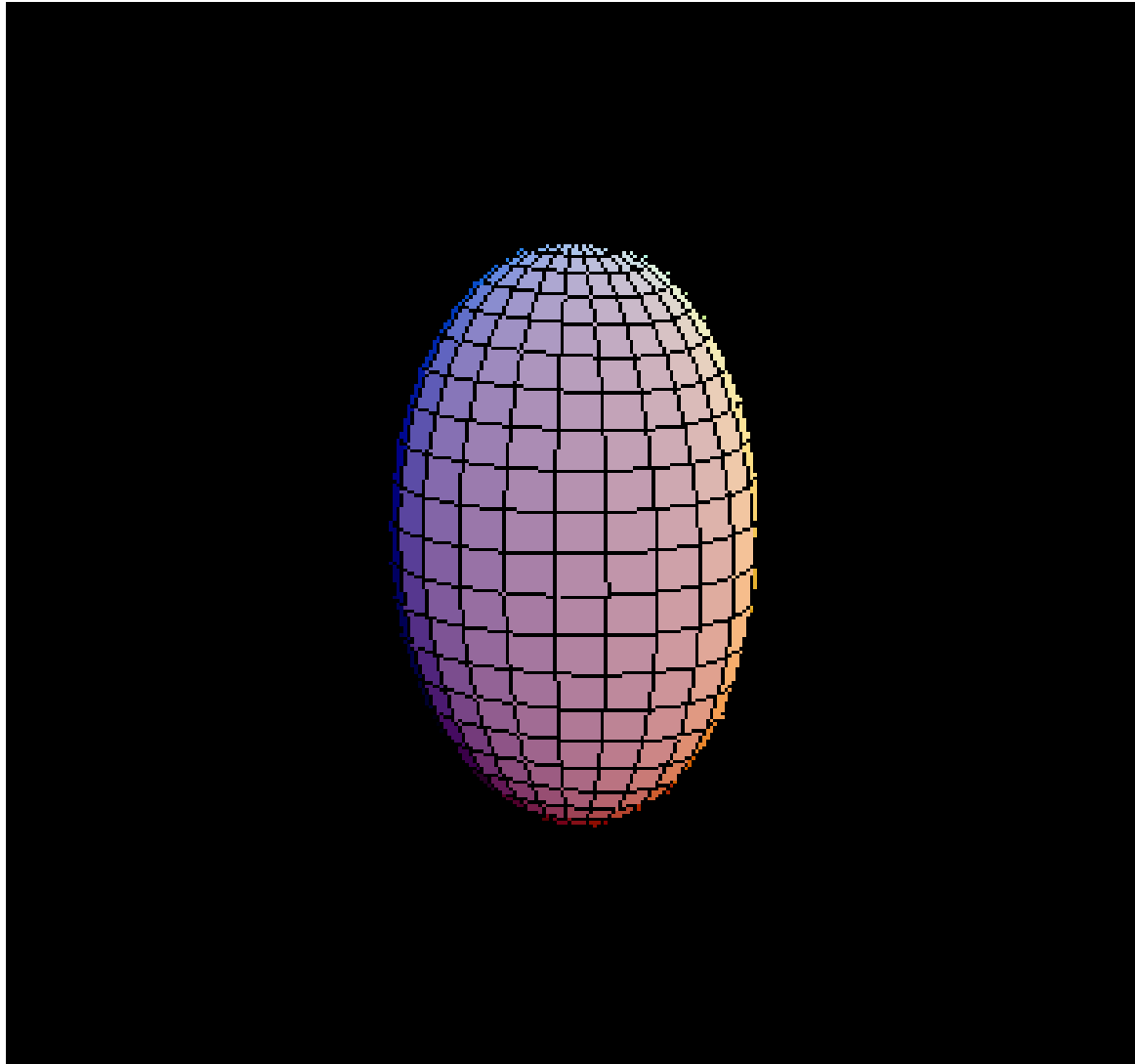
Octupole (Y_{30}) Vibration



Octupole (Y_{31}) Vibration



Octupole (Y_{32}) Vibration



Octupole (Y_{33}) Vibration

