#### Nuclear Structure from Gamma-Ray Spectroscopy

#### 2019 Postgraduate Lectures

Lecture 7: Broken Symmetries

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## Broken Symmetries

- Reflection Asymmetry: Octupole Bands
- Handedness: Chiral Bands
- Magnetic Rotation: Shears Bands
- Transitional Nuclei: Critical Points

## **Reflection Asymmetry**

If a nucleus is 'reflection asymmetric' (i.e. the odd multipole deformation parameters are non-zero, e.g. β<sub>3</sub> ≠ 0 is the most important) then the nuclear wavefunction in its intrinsic frame is not an eigenvalue of the parity operator:

$$\Psi^{2}(x, y, z) \neq \Psi^{2}(-x, -y, -z)$$

- If  $\beta_3 \neq 0$  for a nucleus it is said to possess octupole deformation
- The deformation can however be static,  $\langle \beta_3 \rangle \neq 0$ , or dynamic,  $\langle \beta_3 \rangle = 0$  (oscillating octopule shape)

#### Octupole Band Structures



## Octupole Vibrations in <sup>238</sup>U



This nucleus shows three octupole vibrational bands with different K values

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# Parity Splitting

- For a static octupole shape, the negative parity states are interleaved (midway between) with the positive parity states
- A measure of such a feature is the 'parity splitting', defined as:

$$\delta E = E(I)^{-} - \frac{1}{2} [E(I+1)^{+} + E(I-1)^{+}]$$

- This quantity generally decreases towards zero with increasing spin and suggests that rotation may stabilise the octupole shape
- A similar quantity is the difference in alignment:

$$\Delta i_x = i_x^- - i_x^+$$

### Octupole Vibration or Deformed?



 For an octupole vibrational phonon coupled to the positiveparity states:

For a static octupole deformation:

$$\Delta i_{\times} = 0$$

## Reflection (A)symmetry



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#### Electric Dipole Moment





 In a nucleus with octupole deformation, the centre of mass and centre of charge tend to separate, creating a non-zero electric dipole moment

Bands of opposite parity connected by strong E1 transitions occur

### Enhanced E1 Transitions

- In heavy nuclei, E1 strengths typically lie between 10<sup>-4</sup> and 10<sup>-7</sup> Wu
- In nuclei with octupole deformation, the E1 strengths can be much higher: 10<sup>-3</sup> 10<sup>-2</sup> Wu
- The intrinsic dipole moment of an octupole deformed nucleus is:

 $D_0 = C_{LD} A Z e \beta_2 \beta_3$ with the liquid drop constant  $C_{LD} = 0.0007$  fm

 In a Strutinsky type approach, macroscopic and microscopic effects can be considered and:
 D = D<sub>macro</sub> + D<sub>shell</sub>

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## Experimental Dipole Moments

- Experimental values of D<sub>0</sub> can be obtained by measuring B(E1)/B(E2) ratios, related simply to γ-ray energies and intensities
- The B(E1) reduced transition rate is: B(E1;I $\rightarrow$ I-1) = (3/4 $\pi$ ) e<sup>2</sup>D<sub>0</sub><sup>2</sup> |( I<sub>i</sub> K<sub>i</sub> 1 0 | I<sub>f</sub> K<sub>f</sub>)|<sup>2</sup>
- The B(E2) reduced transition rate is: B(E2;I $\rightarrow$ I-2) = (5/16 $\pi$ )  $e^2Q_0^2 |\langle I_i K_i 2 0 | I_f K_f \rangle|^2$
- Hence if Q<sub>0</sub> is known (e.g. from the quadrupole deformation β<sub>2</sub>) then a value for D<sub>0</sub> can be extracted, i.e:
  D<sub>0</sub> = √[5B(E1)/16B(E2)] Q<sub>0</sub>

#### Simplex Quantum Number

- The only symmetries for a rotating <u>reflection</u> <u>symmetric</u> nucleus are parity p and <u>signature</u> r
- For a <u>reflection asymmetric</u> shape (e.g. octupole) these are no longer good quantum numbers but the nucleus is invariant with respect to a combination of rotation of 180° about the x axis ( $R(\pi)$ ) and change of parity (P)
- The 'simplex' operator is defined as:

S = P R(
$$\pi$$
)<sup>-1</sup>

with eigenvalues:  $s = -pr = \pm i$ ,  $\pm 1$  ( $p = s \exp[i\pi I]$ )

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## Parity Doublets

- For K ≠ 0, four △I = 2 (E2) bands are formed based on states with K<sup>±</sup> and (K+1)<sup>±</sup>
- The simplex quantum number can be used to classify these structures
- For an even-even nucleus:
  - s = +1 describes states (0<sup>+</sup>), 1<sup>-</sup>, 2<sup>+</sup>, 3<sup>-</sup>, 4<sup>+</sup>...
  - s = -1 describes states (0<sup>-</sup>), 1<sup>+</sup>, 2<sup>-</sup>, 3<sup>+</sup>, 4<sup>-</sup>...
- For an odd-A nucleus:

s = +i describes states 1/2<sup>+</sup>, 3/2<sup>-</sup>, 5/2<sup>+</sup>, 7/2<sup>-</sup>,...

s = -i describes states 1/2<sup>-</sup>, 3/2<sup>+</sup>, 5/2<sup>-</sup>, 7/2<sup>+</sup>,...

## Parity Doublets in <sup>223</sup>Th



- The nucleus <sup>223</sup>Th shows parity doublets
- The two  $\Delta I = 2$  bands, shown to the left, are connected by strong E1 transitions and have simplex s = -i
- The two ∆I = 2 bands, to the right, have simplex s = +i
- M1 transitions also connect some of the bands

s = -i s = +i

## Octupole Magic Numbers



- Octupole correlations occur between orbitals which differ in both orbital (?) and total (j) angular momenta by 3
- Magic numbers occur at 34, 56, 88 and 134
- Nuclei with both proton and neutron numbers close to these are the best candidates to show octupole effects

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#### Rotational Invariance



From Kris Starosta (Michigan State University)

#### Space Inversion Invariance



From Kris Starosta (Michigan State University)

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## Chirality (Handedness)



 $|\Psi\rangle = |\Psi\rangle$ 

 $T|\Psi\rangle = |\langle \psi \rangle$ 

 $T|\Psi\rangle \neq |\Psi\rangle$ 

- 'I call any geometric figure, or group of points, <u>chiral</u>, and say it has <u>chirality</u>, if its image in a plane mirror, ideally realised, cannot be brought to coincide with itself' Lord Kelvin 1904
- Examples of chiral systems are found throughout nature and in several disciplines of science
- Axial vectors of angular momenta systems of opposite chirality are related by time reversal

#### Chiral Geometry



 Spontaneous chiral symmetry breaking can occur in triaxial doubly odd nuclei when there are three mutually perpendicular spin vectors of differing lengths that can form a left-handed or right-handed configuration

#### Odd-Odd Mass 130 Nuclei

- Region of triaxial shapes (x ≠ y ≠ z)
- Consider the  $\pi h_{11/2} v h_{11/2}$  configuration
- 1. The proton Fermi surface lies at the bottom of the  $h_{11/2}$  subshell: the proton single-particle j aligns along the <u>short</u> axis
- 2. The neutron Fermi surface lies at the top of the  $h_{11/2}$  subshell: the neutron single-particle j aligns along the long axis
- The irrotational moment of inertia is largest for γ = 30°: the core angular momentum aligns along the <u>intermediate</u> axis

#### Irrotational Moments of Inertia



- This diagram shows the variation of the moments of inertia  $\Im_k$ as a function of the triaxiality parameter y
- For a prolate nuclear shape ( $\gamma = 0^{\circ}$ ),  $\Im_1 = \Im_2$  and  $\Im_3 = 0$
- For  $\gamma = 30^\circ$ ,  $\Im_2$  reaches a maximum and this represents the 'most collective' shape

## Chiral Operator

• The chiral operator is a combination of time reversal and rotation by 180°:  $\hat{O} = TR_{v}(\pi)$ 

$$T R_{y}(\pi) \left| \right\rangle = T \left| \right\rangle = T \left| \right\rangle$$

The left-handed and right-handed systems are related to each other by this operator:

$$|L\rangle = \hat{O}|R\rangle$$
 and  $|R\rangle = \hat{O}|L\rangle$ 

- For a prolate nucleus, chiral symmetry is good:  $|R\rangle = |L\rangle$
- However, for the triaxial odd-odd case:  $|R\rangle \neq |L\rangle$

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#### Restoration of Chiral Symmetry

 Note that |R> and |L> are not solutions of the nuclear Hamiltonian in the lab frame and chiral symmetry must be restored by forming wavefunctions of the form (similar to the octupole case):

$$|+\rangle = (1/\sqrt{2}) [|R\rangle + |L\rangle]$$

$$|-\rangle = (i/J2) [|R\rangle - |L\rangle]$$

• This leads to the doubling of the states and the occurrence of two (near) degenerate  $\Delta I = 1$  bands of the same parity

#### Chiral Twin Bands



## Two near degenerate $\Delta I = 1$ bands of the <u>same</u> parity arise (cf octupole bands: two $\Delta I = 1$ bands of <u>opposite</u> parity)

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# Cranking Symmetries



- If the nuclear spin  $\underline{I}$  lies along one of the principal axes, one  $\Delta I = 2$  band arises
- If the spin lies in the plane defined by two principal axes, one  $\Delta I = 1$  band arises
- If the spin moves out of these planes, two degenerate ∆I = 1 bands occur (chiral twins)

## Magnetic Rotation



- In spherical lead nuclei, regular bands of intense M1 transitions have been found
- The valence proton and neutron orbitals lie perpendicular to each other and produce a magnetic moment vector that breaks the spherical symmetry of the system and allows 'magnetic' rotation

## Shears Mechanism



 In magnetic rotation, higher angular momentum is generated by the <u>reorientation</u> of the neutron and proton spin vectors

- Originally <u>perpendicular</u>, the vectors close like the blades of a pair of shears to generate the higher angular momentum states
- The B(M1) strength decreases with increasing spin as  $\mu_{\perp}$  decreases

#### Shears Systematics



## Antimagnetic Rotation



- Expected in weakly deformed nuclei
- In <sup>106</sup>Cd the spin is generated by closing the  $\pi g_{9/2}^{-1}$  vectors (  $j_{\pi}^{-1}$  bottom diagram )
- Each πg<sub>9/2</sub> hole combines with one vh<sub>11/2</sub> particle forming a pair of backto-back shears
- Note that the magnetic moment for this situation is zero, i.e.  $\mu_{\perp} = 0$

#### Antimagnetic Rotation in <sup>106</sup>Cd



 The yrast band appears to stop at 26<sup>+</sup> with a measured drop in B(E2) values, or collectivity (cf band termination)

#### Transitional Nuclei



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### Interacting Boson Model

- Bosons are constructed from fermion pairs
- Nuclear collective excitations are described in terms of N interacting s (l = 0) and d (l = 2) bosons
- Algebraic model based on U(6) group
- Limits:
  - SU(3) rotational
  - U(5) vibrational
  - O(6) gamma-unstable

#### Critical Point Symmetries

#### gamma soft



#### The Casten Triangle