

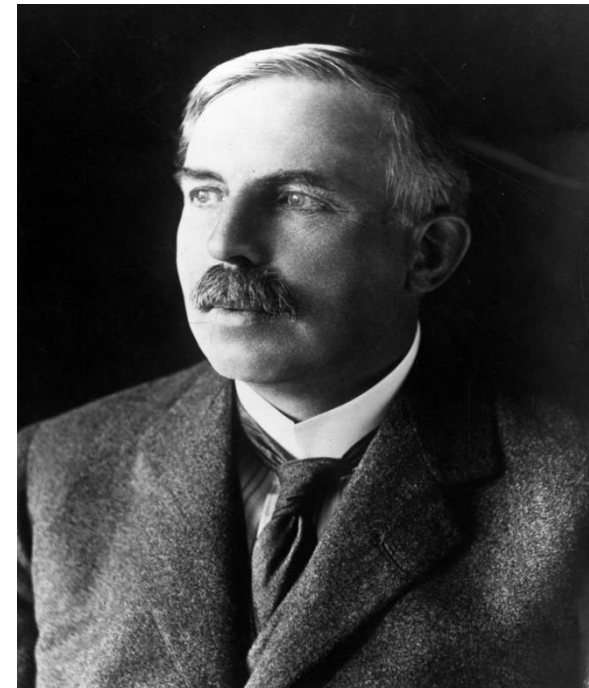
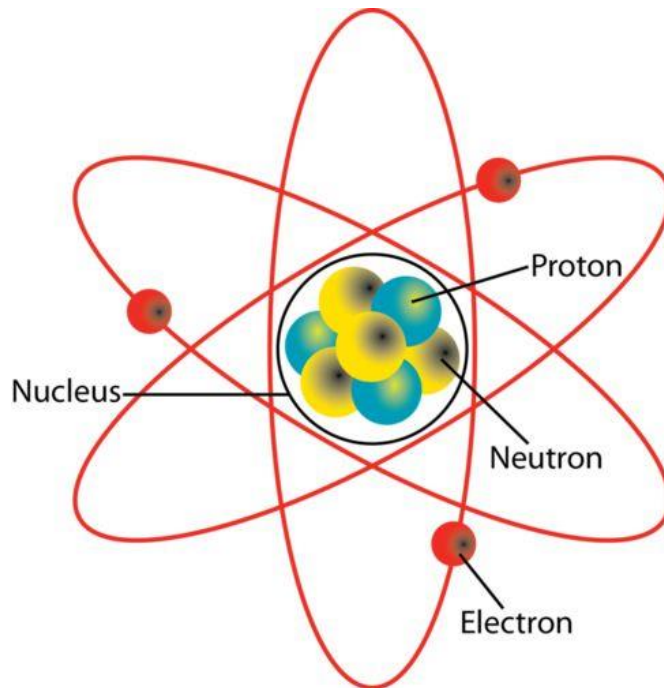


# MPM: 203 NUCLEAR AND PARTICLE PHYSICS

## UNIT –I: Nuclei And Its Properties

### Lecture-6

**By** Prof. B. K. Pandey, Dept. of Physics and Material Science





# Nuclear Electric Quadrupole Moment

- The quadrupole moment of charge distribution is given by
- $$Q = \frac{e}{2} (3 z^2 - r^2) \text{ -----(1)}$$
- This equation has been derived by classical considerations.
- When quantum Mechanics is applied the quadrupole moment receives a new definition which differs from classical definition in following aspect:
  1. The quadrupole moment is not taken about the body axis of  $I^*$  but about the axis of its maximum projected component  $m_I = I$ .
  2. The numerical expression  $\frac{1}{2}$  in the expression (1) disappears
  3. The probability density of proton at any position  $(x,y,z)$  within the nucleus is represented by  $|\psi|^2$  where  $\psi$  is the wavefunction at  $(x,y,z)$ . The quantum mechanical charge distribution is therefore continuous and can be represented by an average charge density  $\rho(x, y, z)$ .



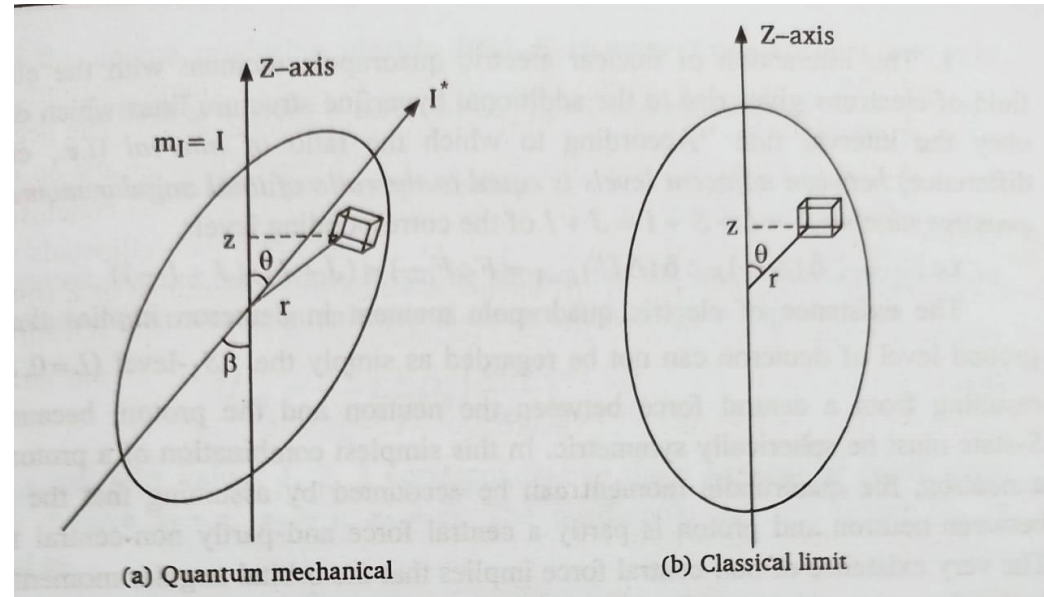
## Nuclear Electric Quadrupole Moment

- The Integral over the charge distribution is divided by the proton charge  $e$  which makes all nuclear quadrupole moments to possess the dimensions of  $m^2$  only.
- Thus if  $\rho$  is the nuclear charge density in the volume element  $d\tau$  at point  $(z, r)$  the nuclear quadrupole moment will be defined as the average of  $Q = \frac{1}{e} \int \rho (3z^2 - r^2) d\tau$ , taken about  $m_I = I$ .
- Since  $I^*$  is the precesses about I
- From the fig  $z = r \cos\theta$ , thus,  $Q = \frac{1}{e} \int \rho r^2 (3 \cos^2 \theta - 1) d\tau$
- This may be written as  $Q = \frac{1}{e} [\rho r^2 (3 \cos^2 \theta - 1)]_{av}$  -----(3)
- If  $\beta$  is the angle made by body axis with Z-axis in space, then



# Nuclear Electric Quadrupole Moment

- $\cos\beta = \frac{m_I}{I^*} = \frac{m_I}{\sqrt{I(I+1)}} \text{ -----(4)}$
- Where  $m_I$  is magnetic quantum number
- It can be shown that the effective value of the quadrupole moment is proportional to  $(3 \cos^2\beta - 1)$



Then the effective value of quadrupole moment  $Q (m_I)$  in the state  $m_I$  is related to the value of  $Q$  in the state  $m_I = I$  by

$$Q (m_I) = \frac{3 \cos^2\beta m - 1}{3 \cos^2\beta I - 1} Q = \frac{3m_I^2 - I(I+1)}{I(2I-1)} Q \text{ -----(5)}$$



## Nuclear Electric Quadrupole Moment

- From equation (5) it can be seen that the nuclei having  $I=0$  or  $I=1/2$  can exhibit no quadrupole moment
- More Physically by noting that for  $I=1/2$ ,  $\text{Cos}\beta_l = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$  and from symmetry consideration, the average value of  $(3 \cos^2 \theta - 1)$  in equation (3) becomes zero.
- This does not mean that nuclei with  $I = \frac{1}{2}$  have perfectly spherical distributions of charge about their body axis  $I^*$  but only that the maximum observable component of  $Q$  is zero.
- Finite quadrupole moment must exist only for nuclei having  $I \geq 1$ .



## PARITY

- Parity is a property of wave function describing the quantum mechanical system.
- In Quantum mechanics, the physical description of a nuclear particle is described by a wave function where  $\psi(x, y, z)$  which depends on position  $(x, y, z)$  and the spin  $(s)$  of the particle.
- The probability of finding the particle at position  $(x, y, z)$  and with a spin – orientation  $(s)$  is given by  $\psi^* \psi$  or  $|\psi|^2$ .
- Where  $|\psi|$  is the modulus of  $\psi$  and  $\psi^*$ , the complex conjugate of  $\psi$ .
- More correctly  $\psi(x, y, z, s)$  may be taken as product of two wave functions  $\psi_1(x, y, z)$  and  $\psi_2(s)$ , where  $\psi_1(x, y, z)$  depends only on space coordinates  $(x, y, z)$  and  $\psi_2(s)$  depends only on spin orientation.



## PARITY

- If the sign of the wave function  $\psi_1(x, y, z)$  does not change by reflection of particle through the origin, the parity of the particle is said to be even, but if the wave-function  $\psi_1(x, y, z)$  changes sign by reflection through the origin, the parity is said to be odd.
- Thus
- $\psi_1(x, y, z) = \psi_1(-x, -y, -z)$  represents even parity
- $\psi_1(x, y, z) = -\psi_1(-x, -y, -z)$  represents odd parity
- Equivalently
- $\psi_1(x, y, z, s) = \psi_1(-x, -y, -z, s)$  represents even parity
- $\psi_1(x, y, z, s) = -\psi_1(-x, -y, -z, s)$  represents odd parity



## PARITY

- A wave-function describing a number of particles can be written as the product of individual particles wave functions  $\psi = \psi_1 \psi_2 \psi_3 \psi_4$  .....or the linear combination of such product.
- Obviously, the parity of whole system is the product of parities of single particle wave function
- Since  $|\psi|^2$  is symmetric whether the parity is even or odd, the mass density and the charge density of the nuclei are always symmetric.
- It can be shown for no-relativistic system that the spatial part of wave-function  $\psi$ , on reflection of particle about the origin does not change sign if the angular momentum quantum number  $l$  is even but it changes sign if  $l$  is odd.





## PARITY

- Hence for a particle with an even value of angular momentum quantum number  $l$ , the parity is even and with an odd value of  $l$  the parity is odd.
- For a system of particles if the algebraic sum of the individual numerical values of  $l$  for all particles (i.e.  $\sum l_i$ ) is even, then parity is even but if  $\sum l_i$  is odd, the parity is odd.
- Accordingly a system containing an even number of odd parity particles and any number of even parity particles will have even parity; while a system containing an odd number of odd parity particles and any number of even parity particles will have an odd parity.
- To represent even parity the superscript (+) is used on total nuclear quantum number  $I$ , while superscript (-) on  $I$  represents odd parity.



## PARITY

- For example,  $l = 1^+$  denotes even parity for  ${}_1H^2$  while  $l = 7^-$  denotes odd parity ( for  ${}_{71}Lu^{176}$ ).
- In Quantum Mechanics the parity operator means a reflection operator about the plan of the symmetry, the eigen value equation is
- $P \psi = \lambda \psi$
- Where P is an operator acting on state  $\psi$  and  $\lambda$  is the eigen value.
- If P represents parity operator, then  $\lambda = \pm 1$ , so that
- $P \psi = (\pm 1)\psi$
- Thus, there are two eigen values of parity operator +1 and -1.
- The +1 eigen value correspond to even parity and -1 eigen value to odd parity.



## **PARITY**

- Parity is purely quantum mechanical concept and has no simple analogy in classical physics.
- The intrinsic parity of electron is arbitrary taken as even (or positive).
- From the experimental study of simple system, the parity of the proton, neutron and neutrino is same as that of electron, hence it is even,
- On the other hand  $\pi$  – meson is found to have odd intrinsic parity.



## **CHANGE OF PARITY**

- In nuclear processes the parity is normally conserved like total energy, linear momentum and angular momentum.
- In 1957 Lee and Yang has suggested that parity is not conserved in weak- interactions like beta-decay and muon decay.
- Thus parity may change in certain nuclear processes.
- The parity of nucleus changes whenever there is emission or absorption of photons or particles of odd total parity.
- Conversely if in any nuclear process the parity of system changes, it means that it has emitted or absorbed the photons or particles of odd total parity,



## Mass Defect and Packing Fraction

- The **atomic number**,  $Z$  (sometimes called the *charge number*), which equals the number of protons in the nucleus
- The **neutron number**,  $N$ , which equals the number of neutrons in the nucleus.
- The **mass number**,  $A$ , which equals the number of nucleons (neutrons plus protons) in the nucleus.

The isotopes of an element have the same  $Z$  value but different  $N$  and  $A$  values.

The natural abundances of isotopes can differ substantially. For example,  ${}^{11}_6\text{C}$ ,  ${}^{12}_6\text{C}$ ,  ${}^{13}_6\text{C}$ , and  ${}^{14}_6\text{C}$  are four isotopes of carbon. The natural abundance of the  ${}^{12}_6\text{C}$  isotope is about 98.9%, whereas that of the  ${}^{13}_6\text{C}$  isotope is only about 1.1%. Some isotopes do not occur naturally but can be produced in the laboratory through nuclear reactions. Even the simplest element, hydrogen, has isotopes:  ${}^1_1\text{H}$ , the ordinary hydrogen nucleus;  ${}^2_1\text{H}$ , deuterium; and  ${}^3_1\text{H}$ , tritium.



# Important Parameters

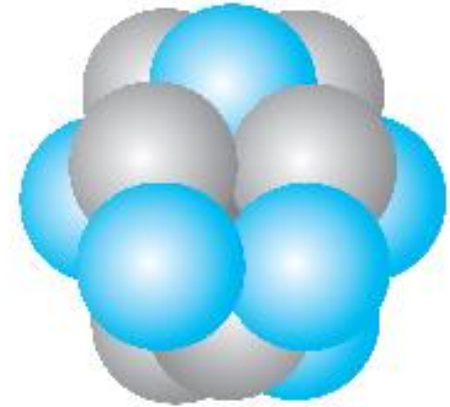
**Table 13.1** Masses of the Proton, Neutron, and Electron in Various Units

Particle	Mass		
	kg	u	MeV/c <sup>2</sup>
Proton	$1.672\ 623 \times 10^{-27}$	1.007 276	938.272 3
Neutron	$1.674\ 929 \times 10^{-27}$	1.008 665	939.565 6
Electron	$9.109\ 390 \times 10^{-31}$	$5.48\ 579\ 9 \times 10^{-4}$	0.510 999 1

$$r = r_0 A^{1/3}$$

**Table 13.2** Masses, Spins, and Magnetic Moments of the Proton, Neutron, and Electron

Particle	Mass (MeV/c <sup>2</sup> )	Spin	Magnetic Moment
Proton	938.28	$\frac{1}{2}$	$2.7928\mu_n$
Neutron	939.57	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-1.9135\mu_n$
Electron	0.510 99	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-1.0012\mu_B$



**Figure 13.3** A nucleus can be modeled as a cluster of tightly packed spheres, each of which is a nucleon.

The nuclear density is approximately  $2.3 \times 10^{14}$  times as great as the density of water ( $\rho_{\text{water}} = 1.0 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$ )!