

Experimental Nuclear Structure Part I



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Workshop on “Nuclear Structure and Decay
Data: Theory and Evaluation”, Trieste, Italy
April 4-15th, 2005

Argonne National Laboratory

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Outline

I) Lecture I: **Experimental nuclear structure physics**

- reactions used to populate excited nuclear states
- techniques used to measure the lifetime of a nuclear state
 - *Coulomb excitation, electronic, specific activity, indirect*
- techniques used to deduce J^π
 - *ICC, angular distributions, DCO ratios etc.*

II) Lecture II: **Contemporary Nuclear Structure Physics at the Extreme**

- spectroscopy of nuclear K-Isomers
- physics with large γ -ray arrays
- gamma-ray tracking – the future of the γ -ray spectroscopy

Have attempted to avoid formulas and jargon, and material covered by other lecturers – will give many examples

Please feel free to interrupt at any time!

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Some Useful Books

"Handbook of nuclear spectroscopy", J. Kantele, 1995
"Radiation detection and measurements", G.F. Knoll, 1989
"In-beam gamma-ray spectroscopy", H. Morinaga and T. Yamazaki, 1976
"Gamma-ray and electron spectroscopy in Nuclear Physics", H. Ejiri and M.J.A. de Voigt, 1989
"Techniques in Nuclear Structure Physics", J.B.A. England, 1964
"Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics Experiments", W.R. Leo, 1987
"Nuclear Spectroscopy and Reactions", Ed. J. Cerny, Vol. A-C
"Alpha-, Beta- and Gamma-ray Spectroscopy", Ed. K. Siegbahn, 1965
"The Electromagnetic Interaction in Nuclear Spectroscopy", Ed. W.D. Hamilton, 1975

Plenty of information on the Web



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Input from many colleagues

C.J. Lister and I. Ahmad, Argonne National Laboratory, USA
M.A. Riley, Florida State University, USA
I.Y. Lee, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, USA
D. Radford, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, USA
A. Heinz, Yale University, USA
C. Svensson, University of Guelph, Canada
G.D. Dracoulis and T. Kibedi, Australian National University, Australia
J. Simpson, Daresbury Laboratory, UK
E. Paul, University of Liverpool, UK
P. Reagan, University of Surrey, UK
and many others ...

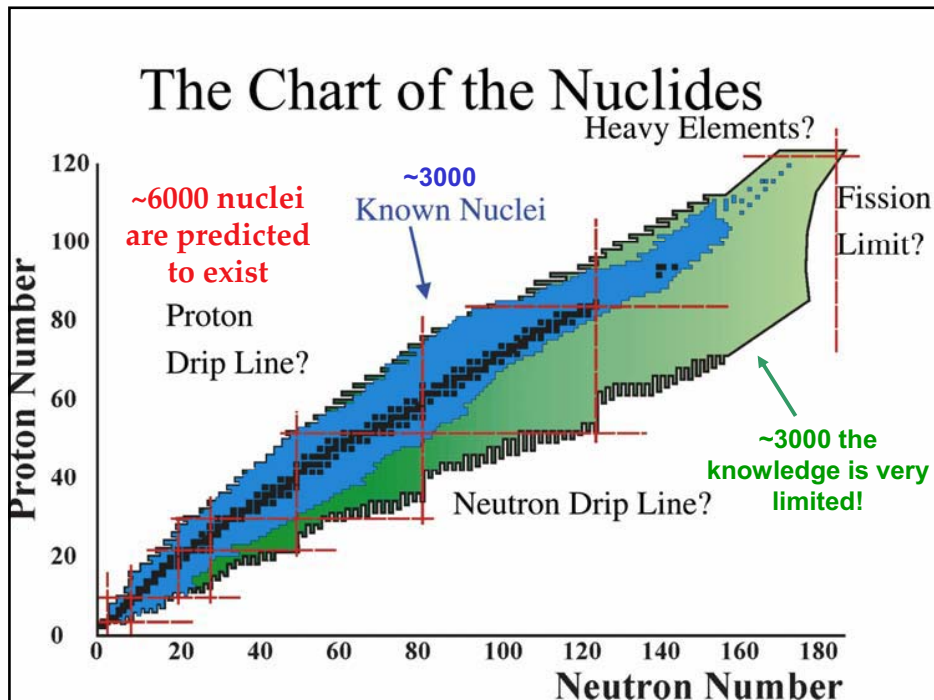


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Introduction

- 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
- The major **elementary excitations** in nuclei can be associated with **single-particle** and **collective** modes.
- While these modes can exist in **isolation**, it is the **interaction** between them that gives nuclear spectroscopy its **rich diversity**

So to summarize ...

NUCLEAR PHYSICS IS A BIG CHALLENGE

(because of **complicated forces**, energy scale, and sizes involved)

The challenge of **understanding** how nucleon-nucleon interactions build to create the mean field **or** how **single-particle motions** build **collective effects** like **pairing**, **vibrations** and **shapes**

NUCLEAR PHYSICS IS IMPORTANT

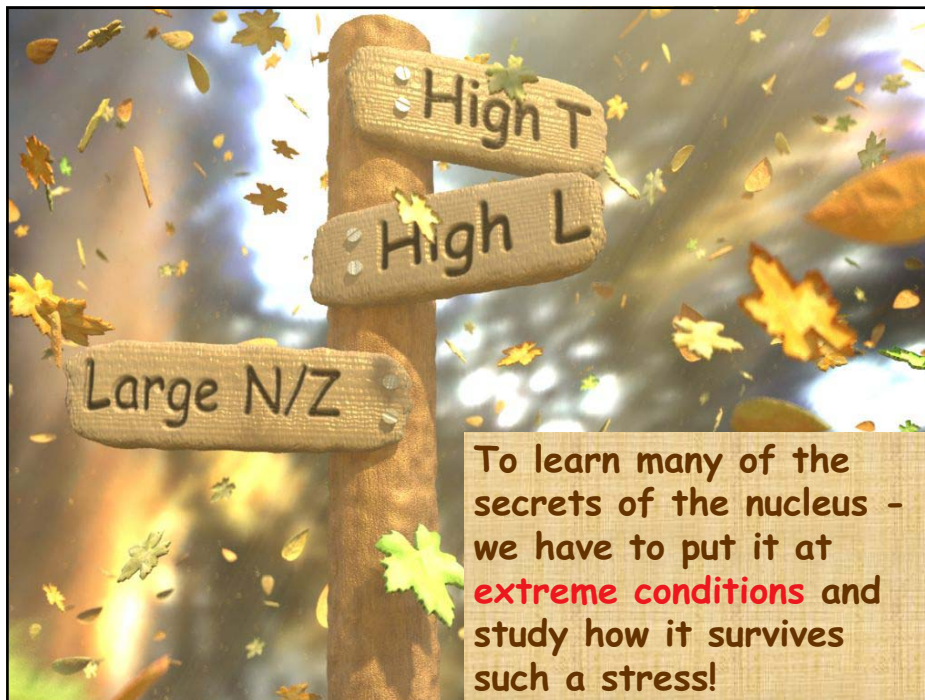
(intellectually, **astrophysics**, energy production, and security)

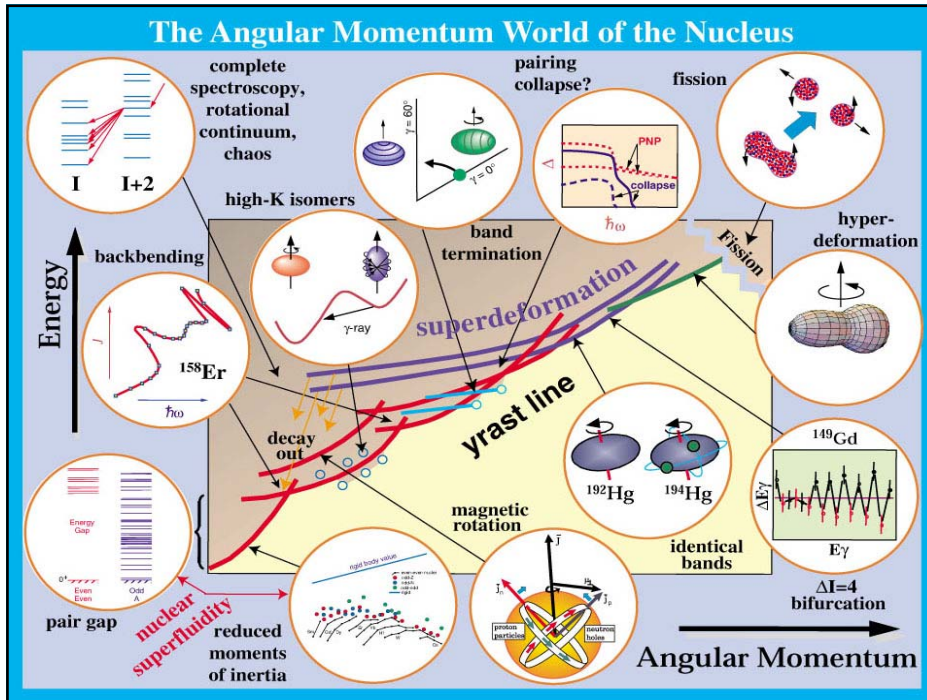
THIS IS A GREAT TIME IN NUCLEAR PHYSICS

(with new facilities just around the corner we have a chance to **make major contributions to the knowledge** - with **advances in theory** we have a great chance to **understand it all** - by compiling & evaluating data we have a chance to support various applications and to preserve the knowledge for future generations!)

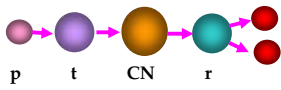


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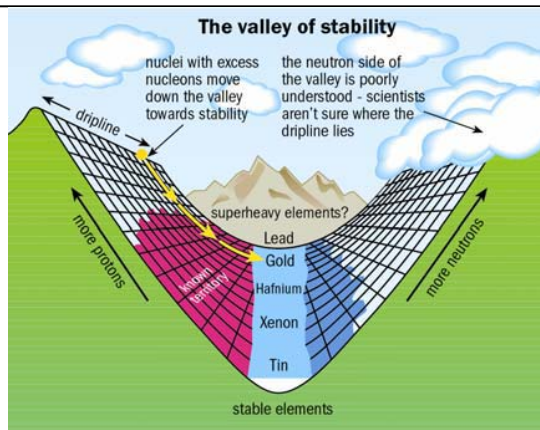


Nuclear Reactions – very schematic!



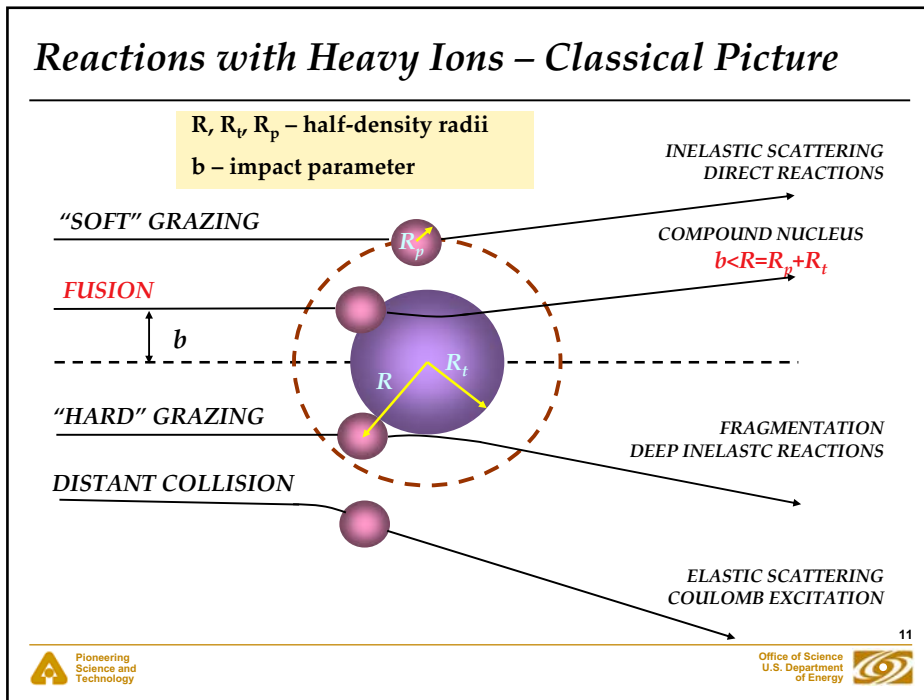
a multi-step process

- Gamma-ray induced
no Coulomb barrier
- Neutron induced
low-spin states
no Coulomb barrier
- Light charged particles,
e.g. p, d, t, α
Coulomb barrier
low-spin states



- Heavy Ions (1970 - ????)
 - high-spin phenomena
 - nuclei away from the line of stability

Reactions with Heavy Ions – Classical Picture



Heavy Ions at the Coulomb barrier

Many properties of the collision can be quite well estimated by just using conservation of momentum and energy.

$$E_{\text{cm}} = M_t / (M_b + M_t) E_{\text{lab}}$$

Energy scale on which fusion starts is determined by Coulomb barrier, V_{cb}

$$V_{\text{cb}} = (4\pi\epsilon)^{-1} Z_b Z_t e^2 / R = 1.44 Z_b Z_t / 1.16 [(A_b^{1/3} + A_t^{1/3}) + 2] \text{ MeV}$$

$$L_{\text{max}} = 0.22 R [\mu (E_{\text{cm}} - V_{\text{cb}})]^{1/2} \quad \hbar$$

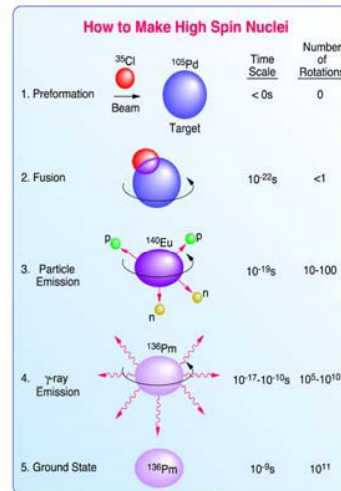
Excitation energy is usually lowered by Q-value and K.E. of evaporated particles

$$E_{\text{residue}}^* = E_{\text{cm}} + Q - \text{K.E.}$$

Velocity of center-of-mass frame, which is \sim velocity of fused residues

$$\beta_r^2 = 2 M_b c^2 E_{\text{lab}} / [(M_b + M_t) c^2]^2$$

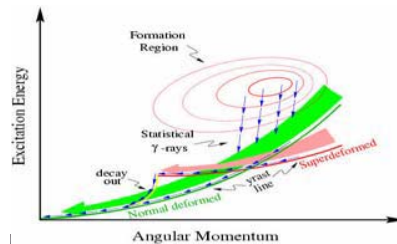
HI Fusion-Evaporation Reactions



Decay of the Compound Nucleus

□ In a typical HI fusion-evaporation reaction the final nucleus is often left with $L \sim 60$ - 80 hbar and $E_x \sim 30$ - 50 MeV

□ The excited nucleus cools off by emitting γ -rays - their typical number is quite large, usually 30 - 40 and the average energy is ~ 1 - 2 MeV - it is not a trivial task to detect all of them - the big advantage came with the large γ -ray arrays



Channel Selection for γ -ray spectroscopy

Detection of Light Charged Particles (α, p, n)

PLUS Efficient, flexible, powerful.....inexpensive.

MINUS Count-rate limited, Contaminant (Carbon etc, isotopic impurities) makes absolute identification of new nuclei difficult.

CROSS SECTION LOWER LIMIT $\sim 100 \mu\text{b}$ that is, $\sim 10^{-4}$

Detection of Residues in Vacuum Mass Separator

PLUS True M/q, even true M measurement. With suitable focal plane detector can be ULTRA sensitive. Suppresses contaminants.

MINUS Low Efficiency

CROSS SECTION LOWER LIMIT $\sim 100 \text{nb}$ that is $\sim 10^{-7}$

Detection of Residues in Gas Filled Separator

Improves efficiency of vacuum separators, at cost of mass information and cleanliness. In some cases (heavy nuclei) focal plane counters clean up the data for good sensitivity.



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Some Channel Selection Detectors



Argonne FMA
USA



Light charged-particle detector
Microball – 96 CsI with photo diodes

USA



Jyvaskyla
RITU

Europe



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Calculate Reaction Rates

Reaction Yield/sec. $Y = N_b N_t \sigma$

$$N_b = i_b / e q$$

with i_b = electric current in amps, q = charge state, $e = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ c}$

$$N_t = [N_a / A] \rho x$$

with N_a = Avagadros #, A = Mass # of tgt, ρ = density in g/cc, x = thickness (cm).

σ = Cross Section in cm^2 note 1 barn is 10^{-24} cm^2

Accumulated data: $D = Y \times \text{TIME} \times \text{Efficiency}$

Typical "far from stability" near barrier experiment may have:

$i_b = 100 \text{ nA}$, $q=10$, $A=100$, $\rho x = 10^{-3}$ & $\sigma=1 \text{ barn}$ - produces 3×10^5 reactions/sec

BUT

If partial cross section is 100 nb and efficiency is 10%..... rate is 10 /hour, 10 pb gives ~ 1 every 10 weeks!!!.....the present situation for producing the heavies elements.

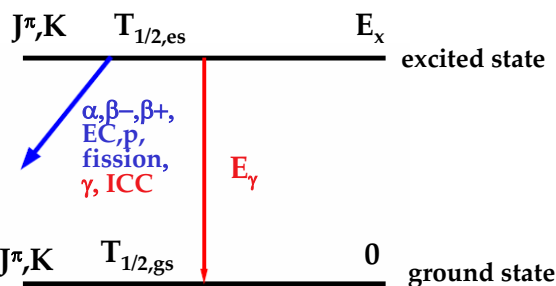
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The basic knowledge

What we want to know

- Excitation energy
- Quantum numbers and their projections
- Lifetime
- Branching ratios



How

- By measuring properties of signature radiations

stable or, $\alpha, \beta-, \beta+, \text{EC}, p, \text{cluster}, \text{fission}$

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What is Stable?

A surprisingly difficult question with a somewhat arbitrary answer!
CAN'T Decay to something else, BUT

CAN'T Decay is a Philosophical Issue

- ☐ Violation of some quantity which **we believe** is conserved such as Energy, Spin, Parity, Charge, Baryon or Lepton number, etc.

DOESN'T Decay is an Experimental Issue that backs up the beliefs

Specific Activity: $A = dN/dt = \lambda N$

Activity of 1 mole of material (6.02×10^{23} atoms) with $T_{1/2} = 10^9$ y ($\lambda = 2.2 \times 10^{-17}$ s) is ~ 0.4 mCi (1 Ci = 3.7×10^{10} dps) (or 13 MBq) a blazing source, so it is quite easy to set VERY long limits on stability.

Current limit on proton half-life, based on just counting a tank of water is $T_{1/2} > 1.5 \times 10^{25}$ yr.

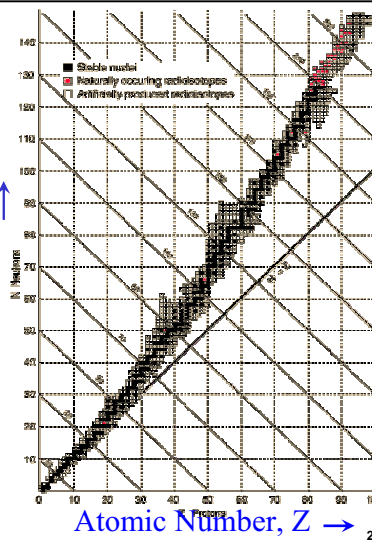


Stable Nuclei: Segre's Chart

~ 280 Nuclei have Half-lives $> 10^6$ years
So are (quite) stable against

- Decay of their constituents (p,n,e) $N \uparrow$
- Weak Decay (β^+ β^- and E.C.)
- α , p, n decays
- More complex cluster emission
- Fission

(Mostly because of energy conservation)



Mean Lifetime

$$f_{decay}(t) = \frac{Ae^{-\lambda t}}{\int_0^{\infty} Ae^{-\lambda t} dt} = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$$

Probability for decay of a nuclear state (normalized distribution function); λ – decay constant

$$P_n(t) = \int_0^t \lambda e^{-\lambda t'} dt'$$

Probability that a nucleus will decay within time t

$$1 - P_n(t) = 1 - \int_0^t \lambda e^{-\lambda t'} dt' = e^{-\lambda t}$$

Probability that a nucleus will remain at time t

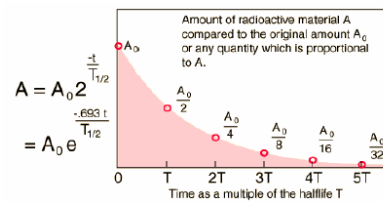
$$\langle t \rangle = \tau = \int_0^{\infty} t e^{-\lambda t} dt = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

The average survival time (mean lifetime - τ) is then the mean value of this probability

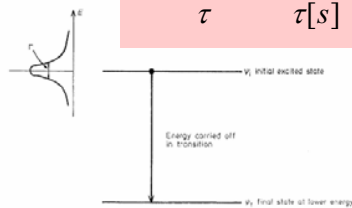
Half-life & Decay Width

$T_{1/2}$: the time required for half the atoms in a radioactive substance to disintegrate

relation between $\tau, T_{1/2}$ and λ $\tau = \frac{T_{1/2}}{\ln 2} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$



$$\Gamma = \frac{\hbar}{\tau} = \frac{6.58 \times 10^{-16}}{\tau[s]} \text{ [eV]}$$



$$\Gamma \propto |\langle \psi_1 | M | \psi_2 \rangle|^2$$

Determine the matrix element describing the mode of decay between the initial and final state

log ft values

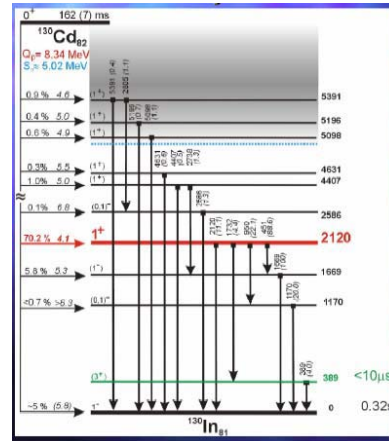
$$\log ft = \log f + \log t$$

$$t \equiv T_{1/2}^{\beta_i} = \frac{T_{1/2}}{BR_i} \quad \text{partial half-life of a given } \beta^- \text{ (}\beta^+, \text{EC) decay branch}$$

$$f \equiv f_{\beta} \equiv f_n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

statistical rate function (phase-space factor): the energy & nuclear structure dependences of the decay transition

Decay Mode	Type	log ft
β^-	allowed	$\log f_0^-$
β^-	1st-forb	$\log f_0^- + \log(f_1^- / f_0^-)$
EC+ β^+	allowed	$\log(f_0^{EC} + f_0^+)$



$f_0^-, f_1^-, \text{etc.}$ N.B. Gove and M. Martin, Nuclear Data Tables 10 (1971) 205

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Hindrance Factor in α -decay

$$|I_i - I_f| \leq L \leq |I_i + I_f|$$

$$\pi_i \pi_f = (-1)^L$$

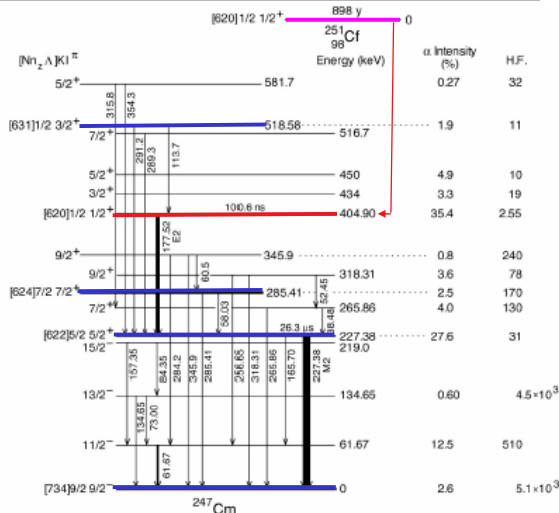
Strong dependence on L

L=0 - unhindered decay (fast)

$$HF_i = \frac{T_{1/2}^{Exp}(\alpha_i)}{T_{1/2}^{Theory}} = \frac{T_{1/2}^{Exp} / BR_i}{T_{1/2}^{Theory}}$$

$T_{1/2}^{Theory}$ M.A. Preston, Phys. Rev. 71 (1947) 865

$$t_{1/2}^{\alpha} = \ln 2 \frac{r_0^2}{2v} \frac{\mu^2 (H_f^2 + K_f^2) + \tan^2 \alpha_f (C_f^2 + S_f^2) + 2 \tan \alpha_f (C_f K_f - S_f H_f)}{\mu^2 \tan \alpha_f (H_f C_f + K_f S_f) Q} e^{-2Q}$$



I. Ahmad et al., Phys. Rev. C68 (2003) 044306

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γ -ray decay

$$|I_i - I_f| \leq L \leq |I_i + I_f|$$

$$\Delta\pi(EL) = (-1)^L \quad \Delta\pi(ML) = (-1)^{L+1}$$

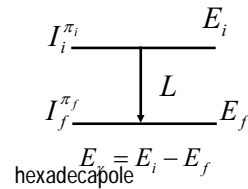
electric multipole

magnetic multipole

dipole

quadrupole

octupole



E1:L=1,yes	E2:L=2,no	E3:L=3,yes	E4:L=4,no	E5:L=5,yes
M1:L=1,no	M2:L=2,yes	M3:L=3,no	M4:L=4,yes	M5:L=5,no

$0^+ \xrightarrow{L=0!} 0^+$ <i>E0</i>	$2^- \xrightarrow{L=1,2\&3} 1^+$ <i>E1(M2, E3)</i>	$8^+ \xrightarrow{L=2\dots14} 6^+$ <i>E2(M3, E4...)</i>	$1^+ \xrightarrow{L=1} 0^+$ <i>M1</i>
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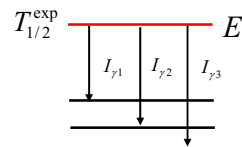
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Partial lifetime & Transition Probability

$$T_{1/2}^{\gamma} = T_{1/2}^{\text{exp}} \times \frac{\sum I_{\gamma_i} \times (1 + \alpha_{Ti})}{I_{\gamma}}$$

partial half-life



$$P_{\gamma}(XL : I_i \rightarrow I_f) = \frac{\ln 2}{T_{1/2}^{\gamma}} = \frac{8\pi(L+1)}{L[(2L+1)!!]^2} \left(\frac{E_{\gamma}}{\hbar c}\right)^{2L+1} B(XL : I_i \rightarrow I_f)$$

partial γ -ray Transition Probability

reduced Transition Probability

$$B(XL : I_i \rightarrow I_f) = \frac{|\langle I_f | M(XL) | I_i \rangle|^2}{2I_i + 1}$$

contains the nuclear structure information

Hindrance Factor in γ -ray decay

$$F_{W(N)} = \frac{B(XL)_{Theory}}{B(XL)_{Exp}} = \frac{T_{1/2}^{\gamma}(XL)_{Exp}}{T_{1/2}^{\gamma}(XL)_{Theory}}$$

Hindrance Factor: **Weisskopf (W)**: based on spherical shell model potential

Nilsson (N): based on deformed Nilsson model potential

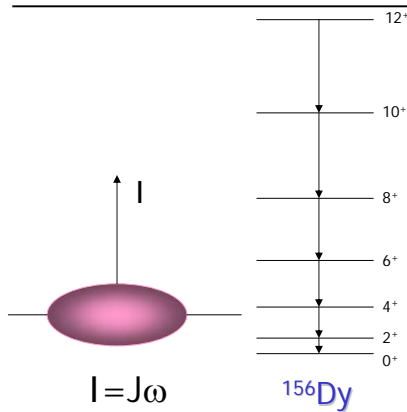
... usually an upper limit, but ...

EL	$B(EL)_W, e^2 fm^{2L}$	$T_{1/2}^{\gamma}(EL)_W, sec$	ML	$B(ML)_W, \mu_N^2 fm^{2L-2}$	$T_{1/2}^{\gamma}(ML)_W, sec$
E1	$0.06446A^{2/3}$	$6.762A^{-2/3}E_{\gamma}^{-3} \times 10^{-15}$	M1	1.7905	$2.202E_{\gamma}^{-3} \times 10^{-14}$
E2	$0.0594A^{4/3}$	$9.523A^{-4/3}E_{\gamma}^{-5} \times 10^{-9}$	M2	$1.6501A^{2/3}$	$3.100A^{-2/3}E_{\gamma}^{-5} \times 10^{-8}$
E3	$0.0594A^2$	$2.044A^{-2}E_{\gamma}^{-7} \times 10^{-2}$	M3	$1.6501A^{4/3}$	$6.655A^{4/3}E_{\gamma}^{-7} \times 10^{-2}$
E4	$0.06285A^{8/3}$	$6.499A^{-8/3}E_{\gamma}^{-9} \times 10^4$	M4	$1.7458A^2$	$2.116A^{-2}E_{\gamma}^{-9} \times 10^5$
E5	$0.06929A^{10/3}$	$2.893A^{-10/3}E_{\gamma}^{-11} \times 10^{11}$	M5	$1.9247A^{8/3}$	$9.419A^{-8/3}E_{\gamma}^{-11} \times 10^{11}$

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Quadrupole Deformation



deformed nucleus

$$B(E2) = \frac{8.16 \times 10^{13}}{E_{\gamma}^5 [keV] \tau_{\gamma} [ps]} [e^2 b^2]$$

$$B(E2; KI_i \rightarrow KI_f) = \frac{5}{16\pi} Q_0^2 \langle I_i K 20 | I_f K \rangle^2$$

(from collective models)

$$\beta_2 \approx -7 \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{80}} + \sqrt{\frac{49\pi}{80} + \frac{7\pi Q_0}{6eZr_0^2 A^{2/3}}}$$

$$\tau_{\gamma} [ps] = (1.58 \pm 0.28) \times 10^{14} E_{2_1^+}^{-4} [keV] Z^{-2} A^{2/3}$$

$$\beta_2 = \frac{466 \pm 41}{A \times \sqrt{E_{2_1^+} [keV]}}$$

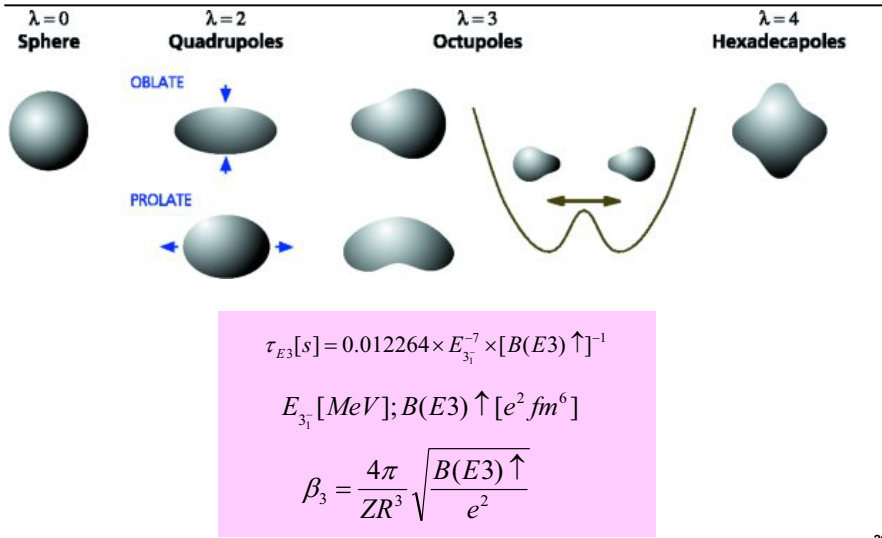
$$E_1 = \hbar^2 / 2J I(I+1)$$

$$B(E2) \sim 200 \text{ W.U.}$$

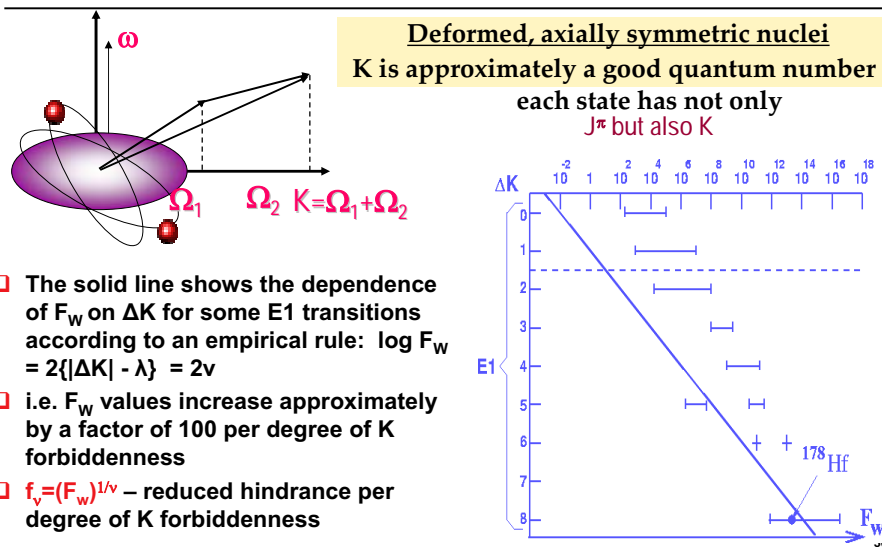
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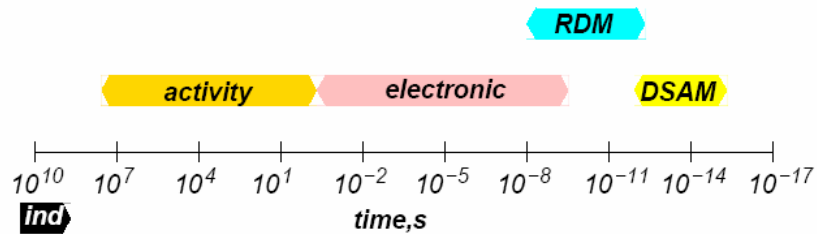
Octupole Deformation



K-forbidden decay



Experimental techniques



- Direct width measurements
- Inelastic electron scattering
- Blocking technique
- Mossbauer technique

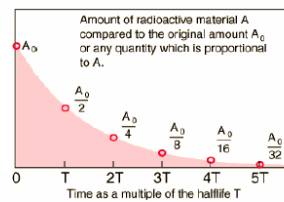
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Specific Activity

Time Range: a few seconds up to several years

$$A = \lambda N = \lambda N_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

- Statistical uncertainties are usually small
- Systematic uncertainties (dead time, geometry, etc.) dominate



usually want to follow at least $5 \times T_{1/2}$

Tag on specific signature radiations (α , β , ce or γ) in a "singles" mode



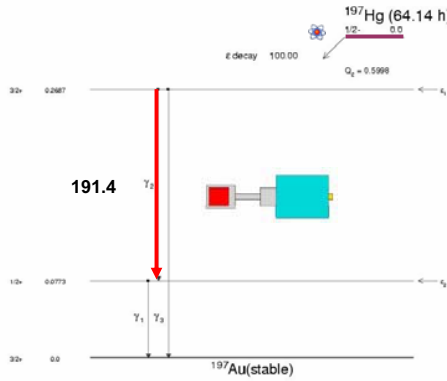
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Specific Activity: Example 1

PHYSICAL REVIEW C, VOLUME 63, 047307

Half-lives of Au, Hg, and Pb isotopes from photoactivation

K. Lindenberg, F. Neumann, D. Galaviz, T. Hartmann, P. Mohr, K. Vogt, S. Volz, and A. Zilges
Institut für Kernphysik, Technische Universität Darmstadt, Schlossgartenstraße 9, D-64289 Darmstadt, Germany



- More than 270 spectra were measured
- Followed $4 \times T_{1/2}$

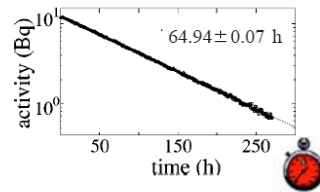
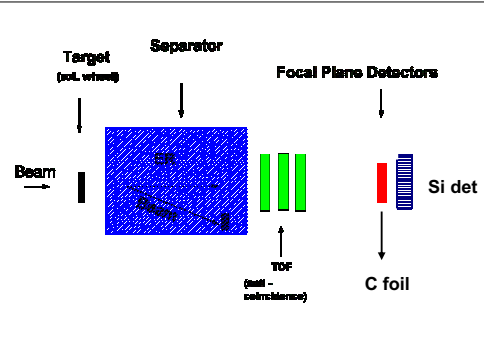
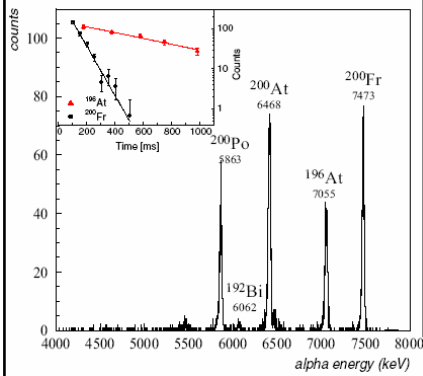


FIG. 3. Decay curve of ^{197}Hg at $E_\gamma = 191.4$ keV.

Specific Activity: Example 2



Isotope	Energy (keV)	$T_{1/2}$	Reference
^{200}Fr	7473(12)	49(4) ms	this work
	7500(30)	570^{+270}_{-140} ms	[4]
	7468(9)	19^{+13}_{-6} ms	[5]

1 GeV pulsed proton beam on 51 g/cm² ThCx target
 on-line mass separation (ISOLDE)/CERN

Very long-lived cases – Example 1

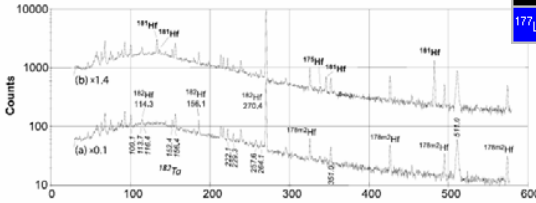
Time Range: longer than 10² yr

New Half-Life Measurement of ¹⁸²Hf: Improved Chronometer for the Early Solar System

C. Vockenhuber,^{1,*} F. Oberli,² M. Bichler,³ L. Ahmad,⁴ G. Quitté,² M. Meier,² A. N. Halliday,² D.-C. Lee,⁵ W. Kutschera,¹ P. Steier,¹ R. J. Gehrke,⁶ and R. G. Helmer⁶

$$A = \lambda N \quad T_{1/2} = \ln 2 \frac{N_{182}}{A_{182}}$$

the number of atoms estimated by other means, e.g. mass spectrometry



Material	Atomic abundance (%)						
	¹⁷⁴ Hf	¹⁷⁶ Hf	¹⁷⁷ Hf	¹⁷⁸ Hf	¹⁷⁹ Hf	¹⁸⁰ Hf	¹⁸² Hf
Helmer 1	≈ 0.0058	4.791	0.605	29.06	25.77	39.64	0.124
Helmer 2	≈ 0.00014	4.377	0.149	17.15	31.30	46.91	0.112
Natural	0.16	5.21	18.60	27.30	13.63	35.10	

TABLE II. The half-life of ¹⁸²Hf from the two measurements. All uncertainties are 1σ uncertainties.

Material	Method	Half-life (× 10 ⁵ yr)	Uncorrelated uncertainty (× 10 ⁵ yr)	Total uncertainty (× 10 ⁵ yr)
Helmer 1	Neutron activation + activity measurement	9.034	±0.241	±0.251
Helmer 2	Isotope dilution + activity measurement	8.896	±0.057	±0.082
	Weighted mean	8.904	±0.056	±0.088

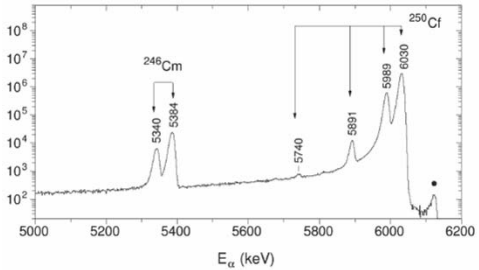
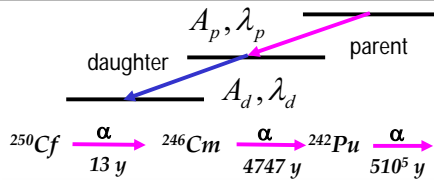


Very long-lived cases – Example 2

$$\frac{A_p(t)}{A_d(t)} = \frac{\lambda_d}{\lambda_d - \lambda_p} (1 - e^{-(\lambda_d - \lambda_p)t})$$

$$T_{1/2}(^{250}\text{Cf}) = 13.05 (9) \text{ y}$$

- Mass separated samples (1975!)
- Parent/daughter activity
- Alpha counting technique



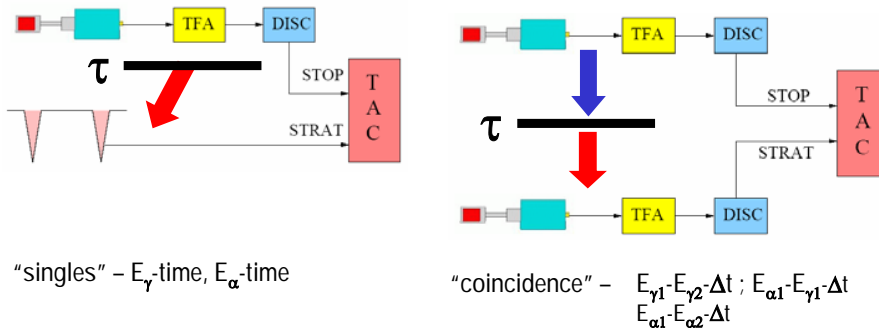
$T_{1/2} = 4747 (46) \text{ years}$ / Compared to values ranging from $T_{1/2} = 2300 \text{ up to } 6620 \text{ years}$



Electronic techniques

Time Range: tens of ps up to a few seconds

The "Clock" - TAC, TDC (START/STOP); Digital Clock

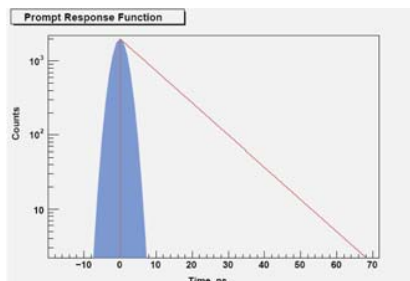


Difficulties at the boundary: e.g. for very short- and very long-lived cases!

Prompt Response Function

all detectors and auxiliary electronics show **statistical fluctuations** in the time necessary to develop an appropriate pulse for the "clock"

- depend on the **characteristics of the detectors**: e.g. **light output for scintillators, bias voltage, detector geometry, etc.**
- instrumental imperfections in the electronics** - e.g. **noise in the preamplifiers**



Some typical values

Detector	FWHM, ps
plastic scintillators	~100
BaF ₂	~100
Si	~200
Na(I)	~500
Ge	0.6-9 ns

Prompt Response Function: Ge detectors

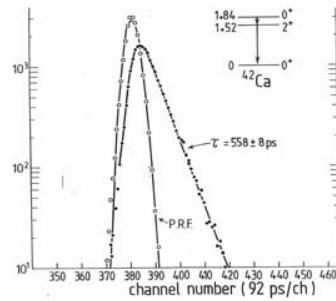
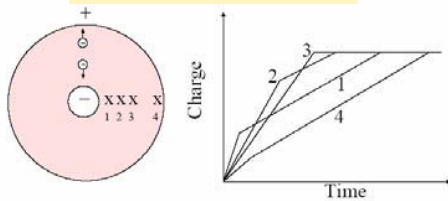
$$F(x, \lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t, \lambda) P(x-t) dt$$

$$f(t, \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} (t \geq 0) \text{ or } = 0 (t < 0) \quad \text{decay}$$

PRF

$$P(z) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(z/\sigma)^2}$$

a schematic illustration



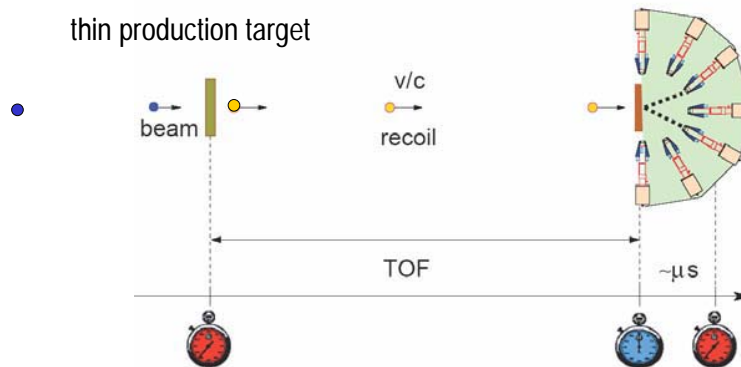
PRF depends on:

- the size of the detector
- the energy of the γ -ray

Recoil-shadow technique

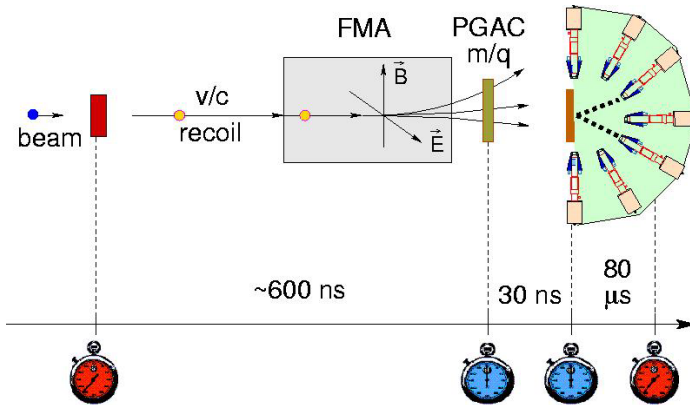
the shortest lifetime that can be measured is limited by the TOF

thin production target

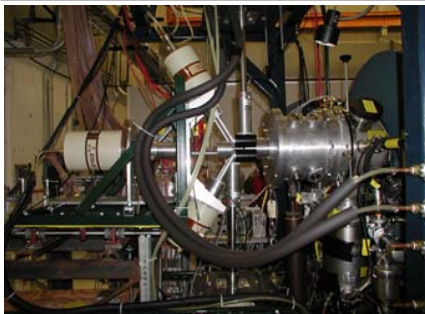


One example: ^{140}Dy experiment at ANL

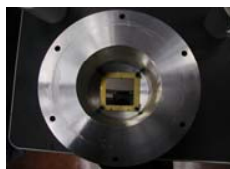
$^{54}\text{Fe} + ^{92}\text{Mo}$ @ 245 MeV
 $\alpha 2n$ channel, mass 140 only 5% from the total CS



Some of the equipments used ...



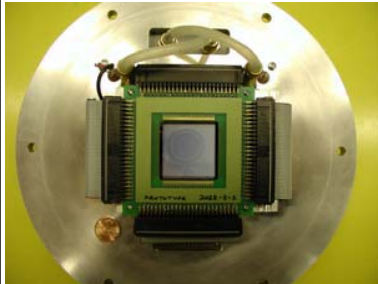
- 1 70% Gammasphere HpGe detector
- 4 25% Golf-club style HPGe detectors
- 2 LEPS detectors
- 1 2"x2" Large Area Si detector



2"x2" Si Detector

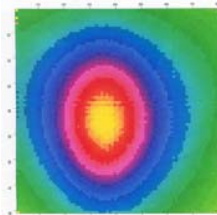


The Heart of RDT: the DSSD

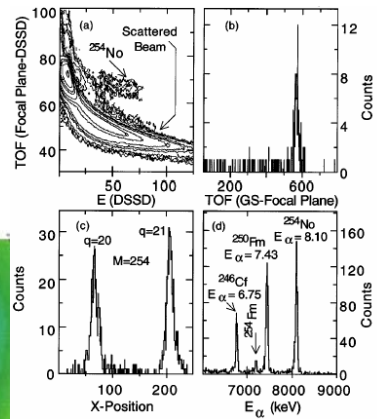


80 x 80 detector 300 μm strips,
Each with high, low, and delay line
amplifiers, for implant, and decay,
and fast-decay recognition.

Data from DSSD showing implant pattern
40 cm beyond the focal plane



$^{208}\text{Pb}(^{48}\text{Ca},2n)^{254}\text{No}$



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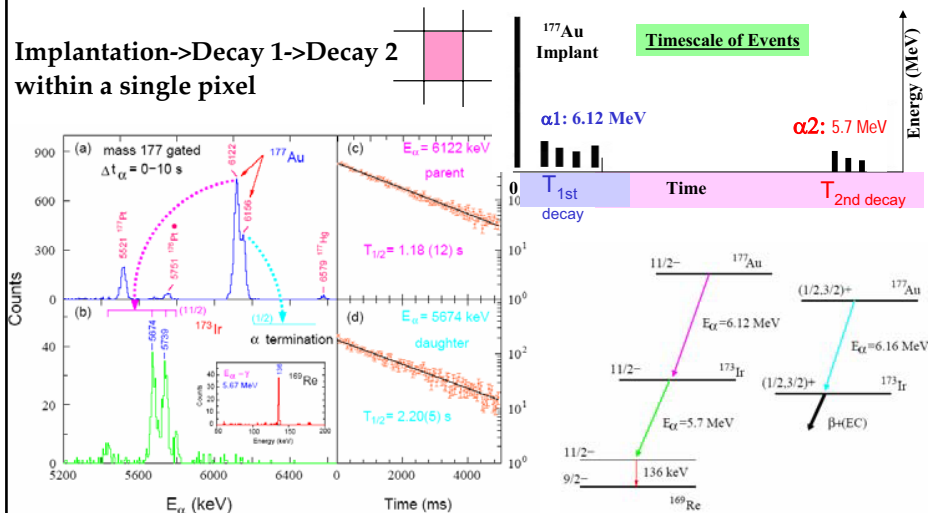
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α - α (parent-daughter) correlations

Implantation \rightarrow Decay 1 \rightarrow Decay 2
within a single pixel



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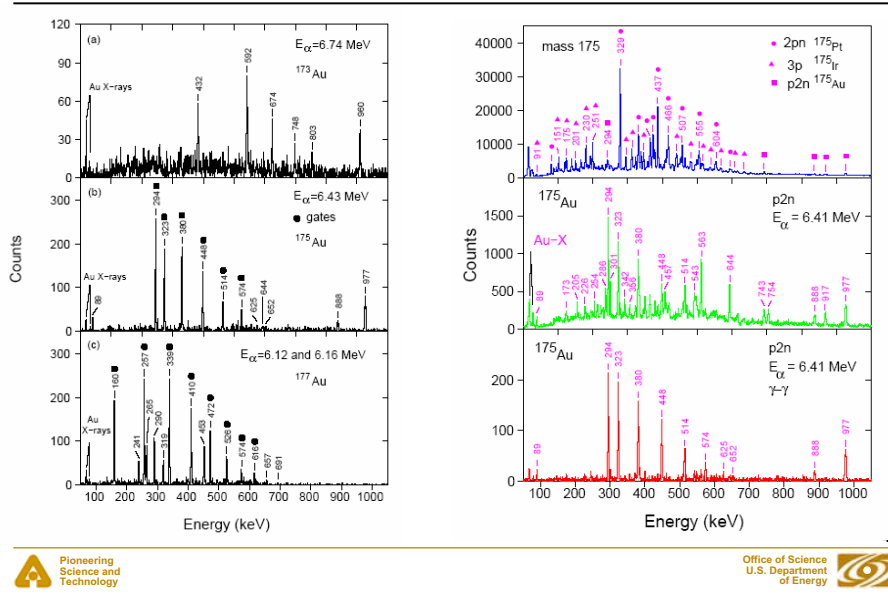
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Technology

F.G. Kondev et al. Phys. Lett. B528 (2002) 221

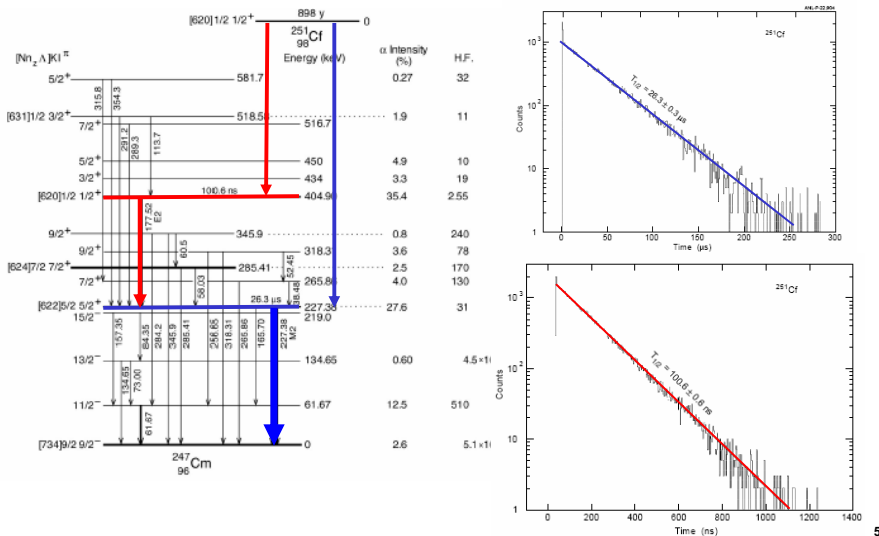
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of Energy



Odd-Z Au (Z=79) isotopes –sample spectra



α - γ correlations

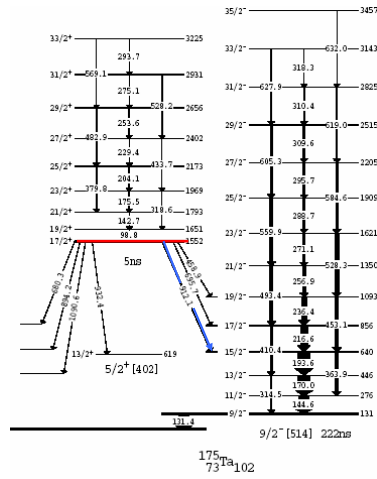
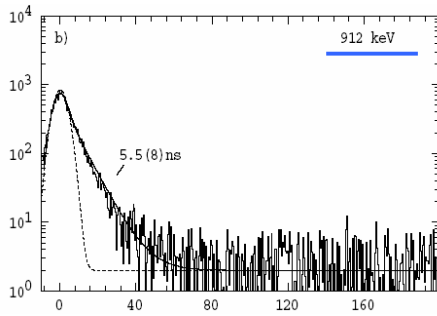


Pulsed beam: γ -time (short-lived)

The importance of PRF

In γ -time measurements PRF depends on E_γ for a single transition

^{175}Ta
 $^{170}\text{Er}(^{10}\text{B},5n)$



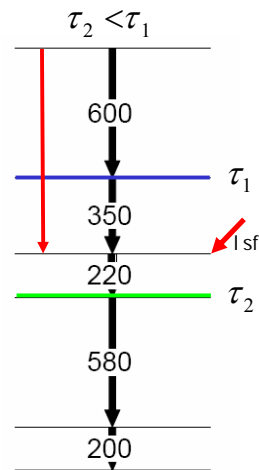
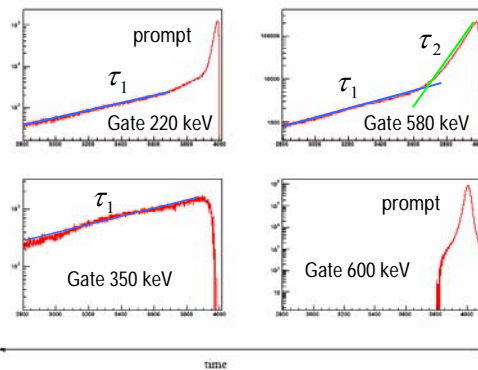
F.G. Kondev et al. Nucl. Phys. A601 (1996) 195



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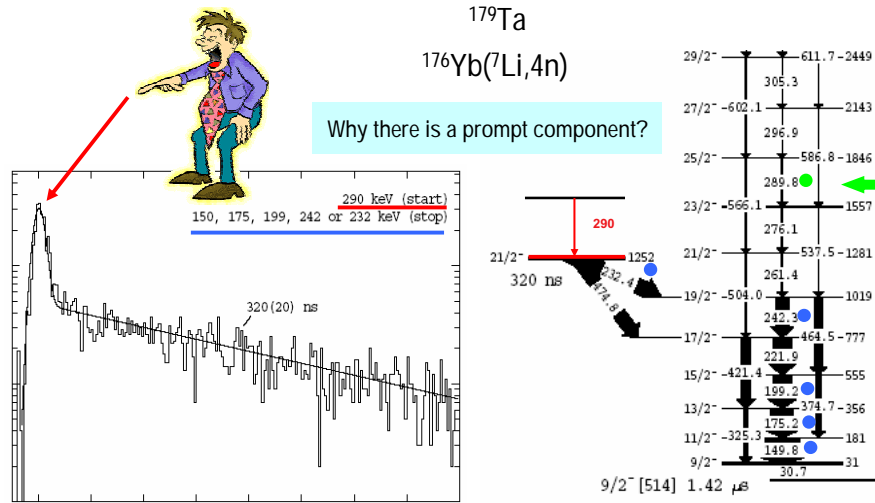
Limitations: Pulsed beam γ -time

- Complicated when more than one isomer is presented
- Complicated because of contaminations
- Limited time range – e.g. TAC (Ortec 567) – 3 ms
- Rate dependent time distortions



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γ - γ -time: decay of the 21/2- isomer in ^{179}Ta



F.G. Kondev et al. Nucl. Phys. A617 (1997) 91



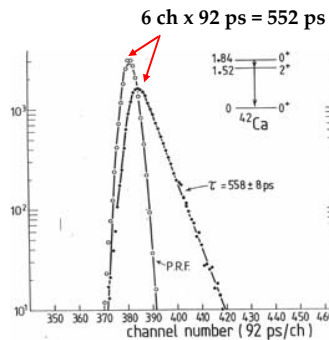
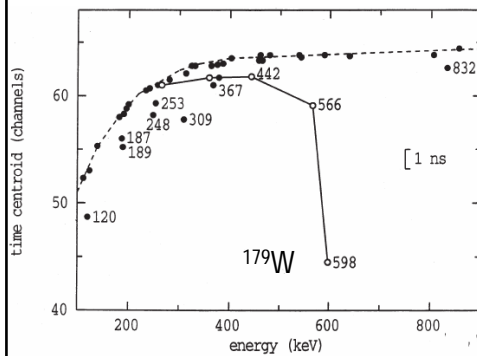
57

Centroid-shift technique: γ -time

Time Range: near PRF

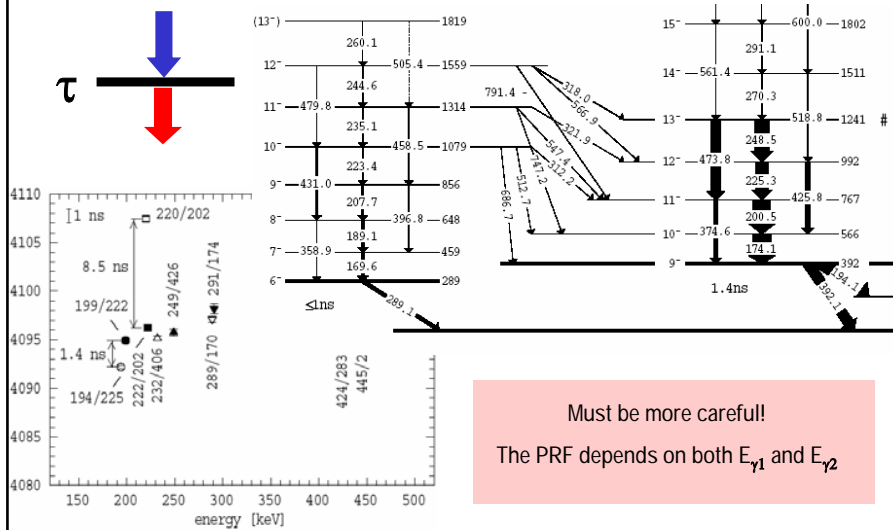
$$F(x, \lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t, \lambda) P(x-t) dt \quad M_r(F(t)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^r F(t) dt \quad \tau = M_1(F(t)) - M_1(P(t))$$

Introduced by Z. Bay, Phys. Rev. 77 (1950) 419



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Centroid-shift technique: γ - γ -time

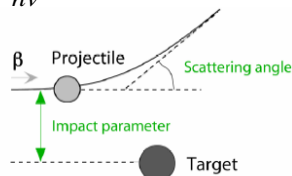


Coulomb excitations

Time Range: up to hundreds of ps

$$E < V_{cb}$$

$$\eta = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar v} \gg 1 \quad \begin{matrix} {}^{19}\text{F}(1 \text{ MeV}) \text{ on } {}^{238}\text{U} \eta \sim 1.6 \\ {}^{40}\text{Ar}(152 \text{ MeV}) \text{ on } {}^{238}\text{U} \eta \sim 130 \end{matrix}$$



Observables

- Number of gamma rays detected (N_γ)
- Number of beam particles detected (N_{beam})
- Energy of de-excitation gamma ray (E_γ)

Experimental results

- Coulomb excitation cross section (σ)
- Reduced transition probability $B(E2, \uparrow)$
- Energy of excited state

$$\sigma = \frac{N_\gamma}{\varepsilon} \frac{1}{N_{\text{target}} N_{\text{beam}}}$$

$$\sigma_{0 \rightarrow 2} \approx \left(\frac{Z_{\text{target}} e^2}{\hbar c} \right)^2 \frac{\pi}{e^2 b_{\text{min}}^2} B(E2, 0^+ \rightarrow 2^+)$$

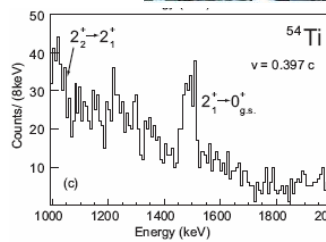
Details in: Winther and Alder, Nucl. Phys. A 319 518 (1979).

Intermediate energy Coulomb excitations

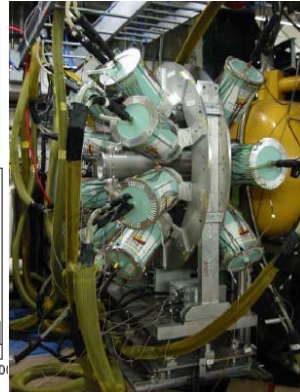
Primary beam: ^{76}Ge @ 130 MeV/nucl.
 Secondary beam: ^{54}Ti @ 88 MeV/nucl.
 $\beta=0.406$
 ^{197}Au target thickness: 257.67 mg/cm²
 $\Theta_{\text{max}} = 3.20^\circ$ (CM)
 Number of ^{54}Ti particles detected: 91.665E6

Measured for ^{54}Ti
 • $E_\gamma = 1497(4)$ keV
 • $\sigma(\theta < \Theta_{\text{max}}) = 83(15)$ mb
 • $B(E2, \uparrow) = 357(63)$ e²fm⁴

$\tau = 1.5(3)$ ps



SeGA
 (Segmented Germanium Array)—Eighteen
 32-fold segmented HP germanium
 detectors



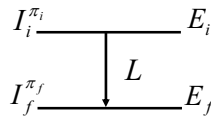
Deduction of Transition Multipolarity

Basic techniques

- Internal conversion electrons
- Angular distributions
- Angular correlations (DCO ratios)
- Gamma-ray polarization

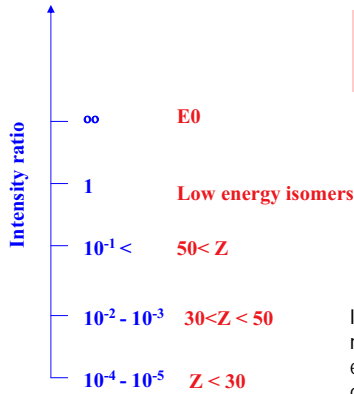
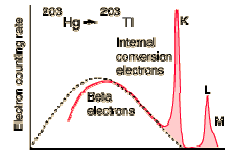
Internal conversion electrons

$$\alpha^{tot} = \frac{I_{ce}}{I_\gamma} = \alpha_K + \alpha_L + \alpha_M + \dots$$



$$E_\gamma = E_i - E_f$$

$$E_i = E_\gamma - B_i, i = K, L, \dots$$



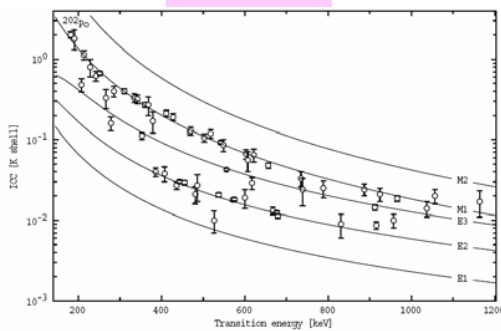
$$\alpha_K(EL) \propto Z^3 \left(\frac{L}{L+1} \right) \left(\frac{2m_e c^2}{E} \right)^{L+5/2}$$

Important for heavy nuclei, where inner electron shells are closer to the nucleus

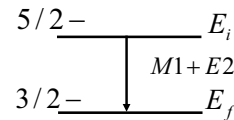
Important for low-energy transitions

Internal conversion electrons

Sensitive to L



allows deduction of the mixing ratios



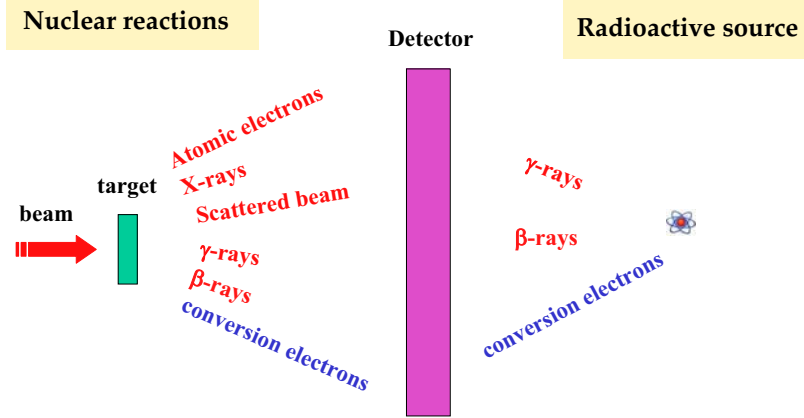
$$1 \leq L \leq 4 \quad M1, E2, M3, E4$$

$$\delta^2 = \frac{I_\gamma(E2)}{I_\gamma(M1)}$$

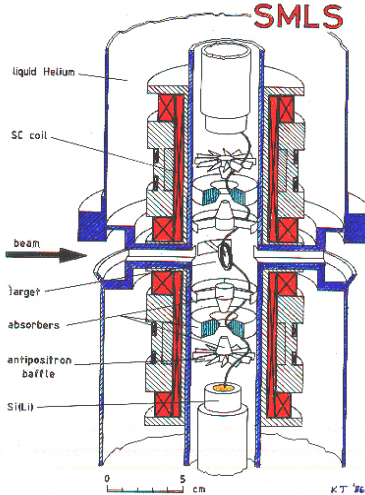
$$\alpha^{M1/E2} = \frac{\alpha_{M1} + \delta^2 \alpha_{E2}}{1 + \delta^2}$$

$$\delta^2 = \frac{\alpha_{M1} - \alpha^{exp}}{\alpha^{exp} - \alpha_{E2}}$$

Direct ICC measurements



Basic electron transporters

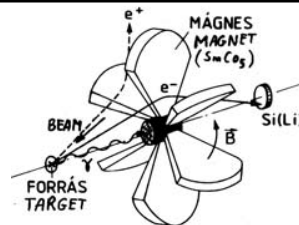


Superconducting solenoid

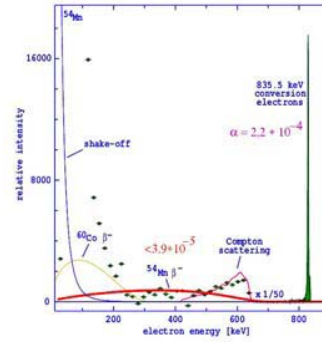
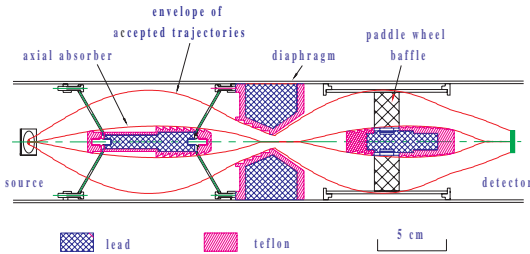
- Broad-range mode – 100 keV up to a few MeV
- Lens mode – finite transmitted momentum bandwidth ($\Delta p/p \sim 15-25\%$) – high peak-to-total ratio

Mini-orange (looks like a peeled orange)

- transmission > 20%
- small size and portability, but poorer quality



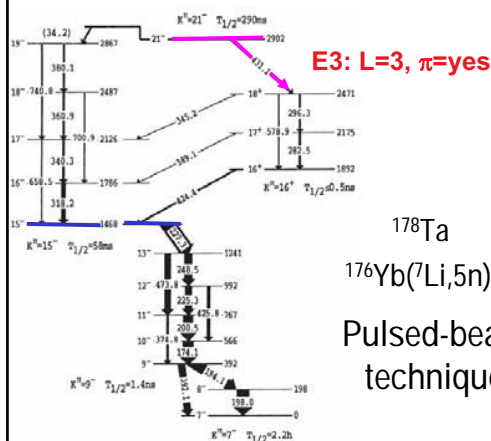
Superconducting Solenoid Spectrometer



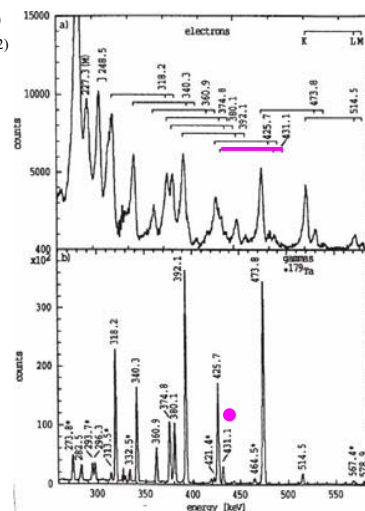
Conversion electron measurements

$\alpha_{K^c}(431) = 0.056(7)$
 $\alpha_{L^c}(431) = 0.033(4)$
 $\frac{K}{L}(431) = 1.7(2)$

$\alpha_{K^c}^{431} = 0.008(E1); 0.022(E2); 0.058(E3); 0.067(M1); 0.21(M2)$
 $\alpha_{L^c}^{431} = 0.001(E1); 0.006(E2); 0.032(E3); 0.010(M1); 0.040(M2)$
 $\frac{K}{L}(431) = 6.7(E1); 3.9(E2); 1.9(E3); 6.5(M1); 5.2(M2)$

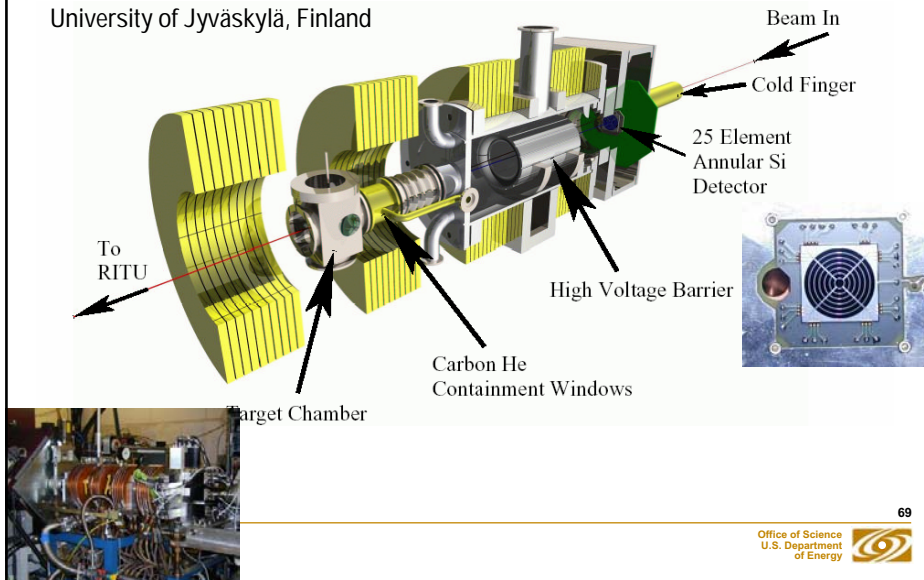


^{178}Ta
 $^{176}\text{Yb}(^7\text{Li}, 5n)$
 Pulsed-beam technique



The SACRED Electron Spectrometer

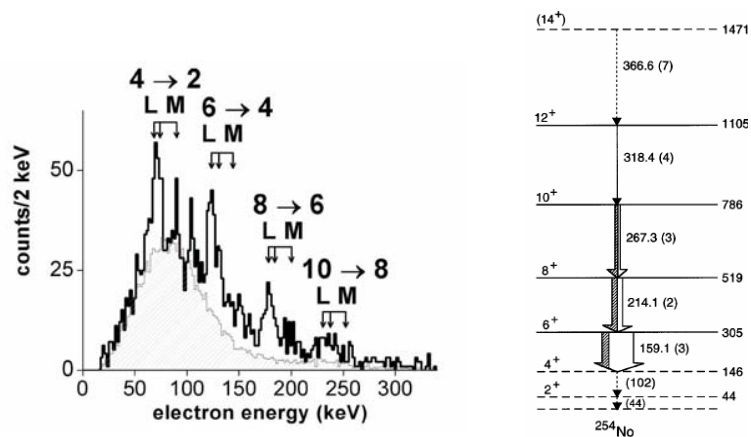
University of Jyväskylä, Finland



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U.S. Department
of Energy

Recoil-gated CE spectrum from $^{208}\text{Pb}(^{48}\text{Ca}, 2n)^{254}\text{No}$



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P.A. Butler et al., PRL 89 (2002) 202501

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U.S. Department
of Energy

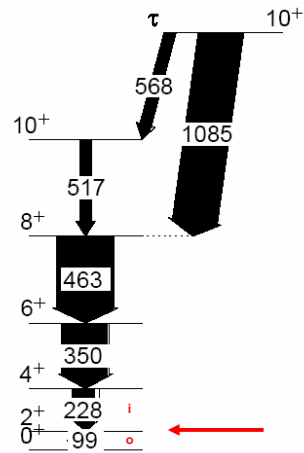
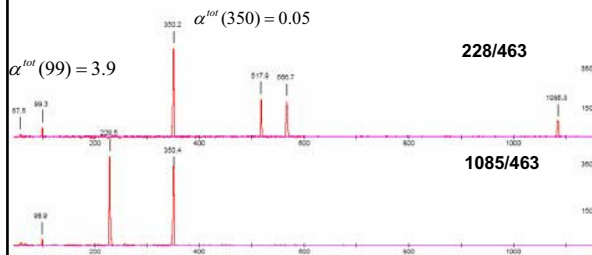
ICC from total intensity balances –example 1

Works well for γ -rays with energies below about 250 keV

In out-of-beam (or decay) coincidence data

$$I_{\gamma_i}^{tot} = I_{\gamma_i} \times (1 + \alpha_i^{tot}) \equiv I_{\gamma_o}^{tot} = I_{\gamma_o} \times (1 + \alpha_o^{tot})$$

$$\alpha_o^{tot} \equiv (I_{\gamma_i} \varepsilon_o / I_{\gamma_o} \varepsilon_i) \times (1 + \alpha_i^{tot}) - 1$$



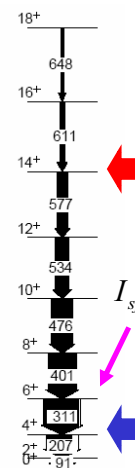
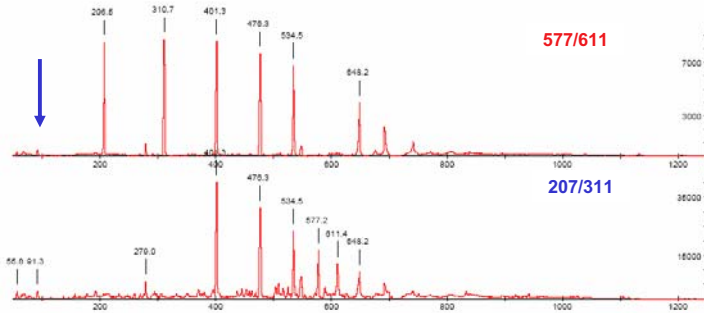
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ICC from total intensity balances –example 2

In-beam: only when gating from "above"

$$I_{\gamma_i}^{tot} = I_{\gamma_i} \times (1 + \alpha_i^{tot}) \equiv I_{\gamma_o}^{tot} = I_{\gamma_o} \times (1 + \alpha_o^{tot})$$

$$I_{\gamma_i}^{tot} = I_{\gamma_o}^{tot} + I_{sf}$$



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Angular Distributions

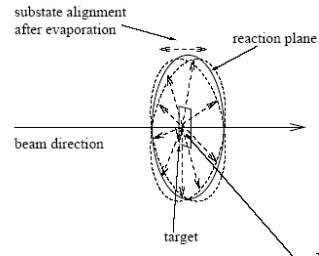
The gamma-rays emitted from nuclear reactions exhibit angular distributions:

$$W(\theta) = 1 + A_{22}P_2(\cos\theta) + A_{44}P_4(\cos\theta)$$

$$A_{22} = \alpha_2 A_2^{\max}; A_{44} = \alpha_4 A_4^{\max}$$

$$\alpha_k(J_i) = \rho_k(J_i) / B_k(J_i)$$

$$\rho_k(J) = \sqrt{(2J+1)} \times \sum_m (-1)^{J-m} \langle J, m, J-m | k 0 \rangle P_m(J)$$



The orientation of the nucleus will be slightly attenuated by the emission of evaporated particles (n,p,α) and γ-rays.

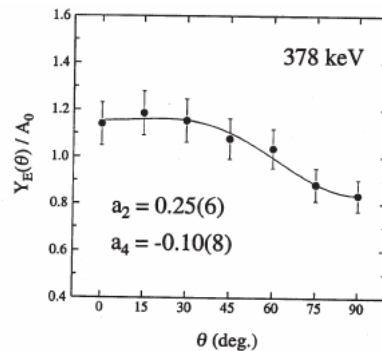
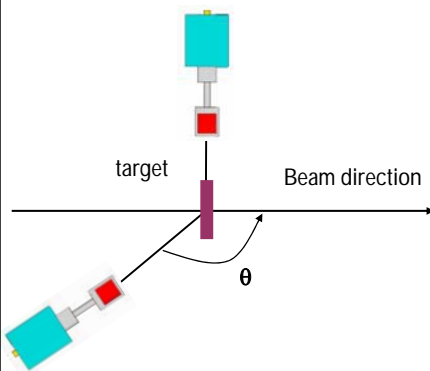
$$P_m(J) = \frac{\exp(-m^2 / 2\sigma^2)}{\sum_{m=-J}^J \exp(-m^2 / 2\sigma^2)}$$

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Angular Distributions: Experiment

Measure: the γ-ray yield as a function of θ



Using a single detector – “singles” mode – contaminants

Using a large gamma-ray array – “coincidence” mode - you must be careful!

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How to determine the mixing ratios?

I) If both A2 and A4 have been measured – see
E. Der Mateosian and A.W. Sunyar, ADNDT 13 (1974) 407

II) If only A2 has been measured (A4=0)

1) Determine the attenuation coefficient (α_2)
for known E2 transitions depopulating levels
of known spin (gs band in even-even nuclei)

$$\alpha_2 = A_2^{\text{exp}} / A_2^{\text{max}}$$

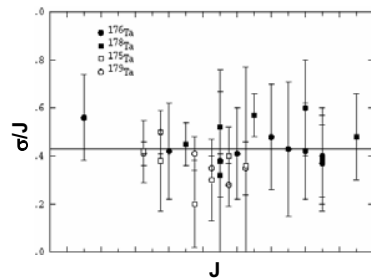
$$A_2^{\text{max}} = B_2 \times F_2$$

Tabulated in E. Der Mateosian and A.W. Sunyar, ADNDT 13 (1974) 391

2) For a given transition determine:

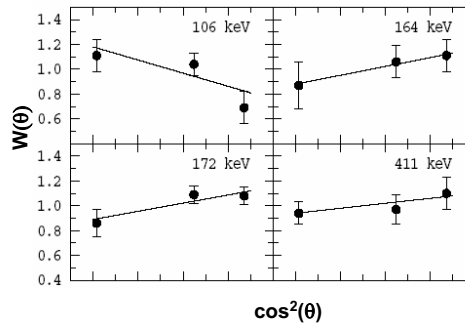
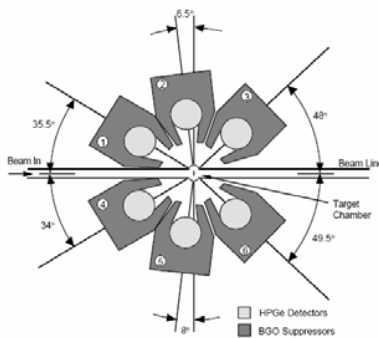
$$A_2^{\text{max}} = A_2^{\text{exp}} / \alpha_2$$

3) From E. Der Mateosian and A.W. Sunyar, ADNDT 13 (1974) 407 get δ



Angular Distributions: Example 1

^{175}Ta
 $^{170}\text{Er}(^{10}\text{B},5n)@64\text{ MeV}$



$172\gamma: \delta(\text{AD})=0.44 \pm 0.13 \pm 0.17; \delta(\text{RM})=0.54 \pm 0.05$

CAESAR array/Canberra (AUS)

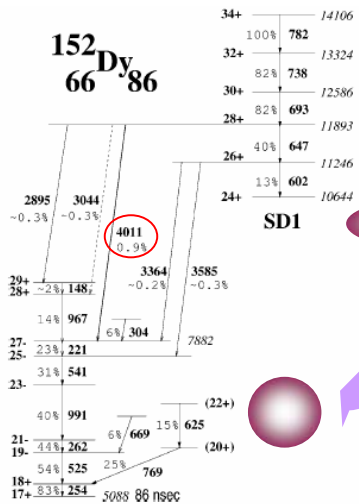
Angular Distributions: Example 2

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PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS

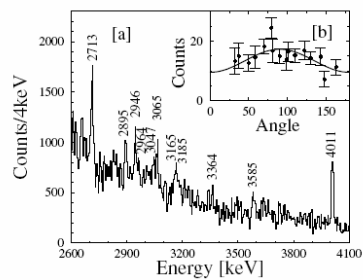
28 JANUARY 2002

$^{152}_{66}\text{Dy}_{86}$



Direct Decay from the Superdeformed Band to the Yrast Line in $^{152}_{66}\text{Dy}_{86}$

T. Lauritsen,¹ M.P. Carpenter,¹ T. Dossing,² P. Fallon,² B. Herskind,² R.V.F. Janssens,¹ D.G. Jenkins,¹ T.L. Khoo,¹ F.G. Koedev,¹ A. Lopez-Martens,⁴ A.O. Macchiavelli,³ D. Ward,³ K.S. Abu Saleem,³ I. Ahmad,¹ R. Clark,³ M. Cromaz,² J.P. Greene,¹ F. Hannachi,⁴ A.M. Heinz,¹ A. Korichi,⁴ G. Lane,³ C.J. Lister,¹ P. Reiter,^{1,5} D. Seweryniak,¹ S. Siem,² R.C. Vondracek,¹ and I. Wiedenhofer^{1,6}



$$A_2 = -0.35(12) \text{ and } A_4 = -0.02(16)$$

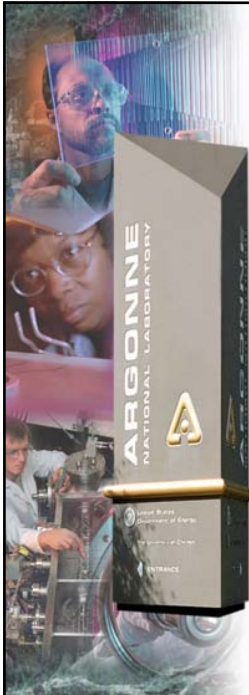


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Experimental Nuclear Structure Part II



Filip G. Kondev
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Workshop on “Nuclear Structure and Decay
Data: Theory and Evaluation”, Trieste, Italy

April 4-15th, 2005

Argonne National Laboratory

 A U.S. Department of Energy
Office of Science Laboratory
Operated by The University of Chicago

Outline

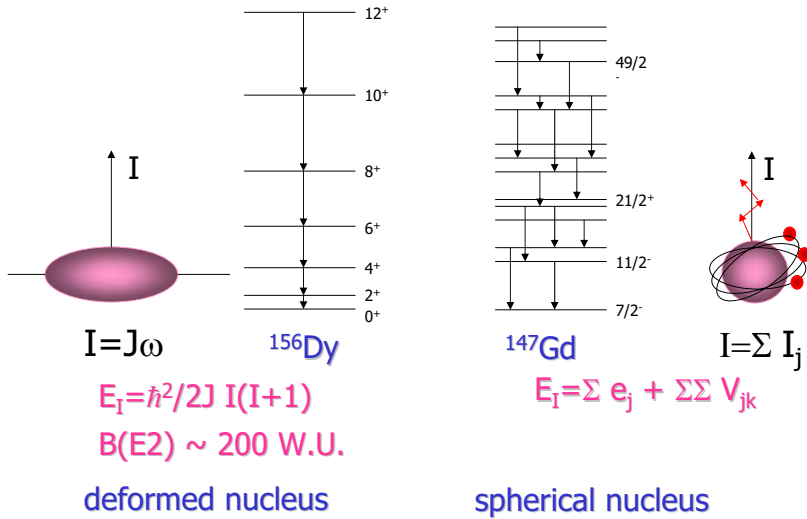
I) Lecture I: **Experimental nuclear structure techniques**

- reactions used to populate excited nuclear states
- techniques used to measure the lifetime of a nuclear state
 - Coulomb excitation, electronic, specific activity, indirect
- Techniques used to deduce J^π
 - ICC, angular distributions, DCO ratios, etc.

II) Lecture II: **Contemporary Nuclear Structure Physics at the Extreme**

- spectroscopy of nuclear K-Isomers
- physics with large γ -ray arrays
- gamma-ray tracking – the future of the nuclear γ -ray spectroscopy

Generation of Angular Momentum in Nuclei

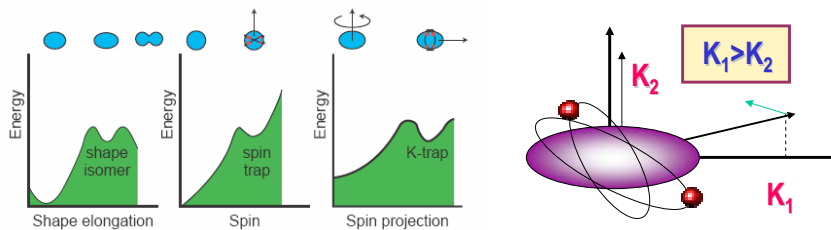


What is a Nuclear Isomer?

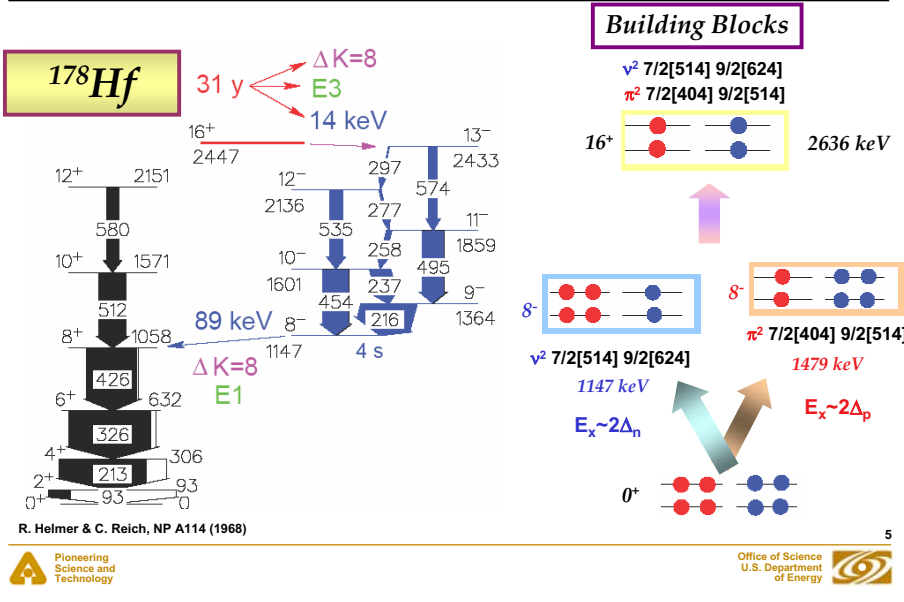
Nuclear Isomer – a long-lived excited nuclear state ($T_{1/2} > 1 \text{ ns}$) decays by emission of α , β , γ , p , fission, cluster

The first one discovered by O. Hahn in Berlin in 1921 – decay of ^{234}Pa (70 s) von Weizsacker, A. Bohr & B. Mottelson

$$1/\tau \sim E_\gamma^{2\lambda+1} |\langle \psi_f | \mathbf{T} | \psi_i \rangle|$$

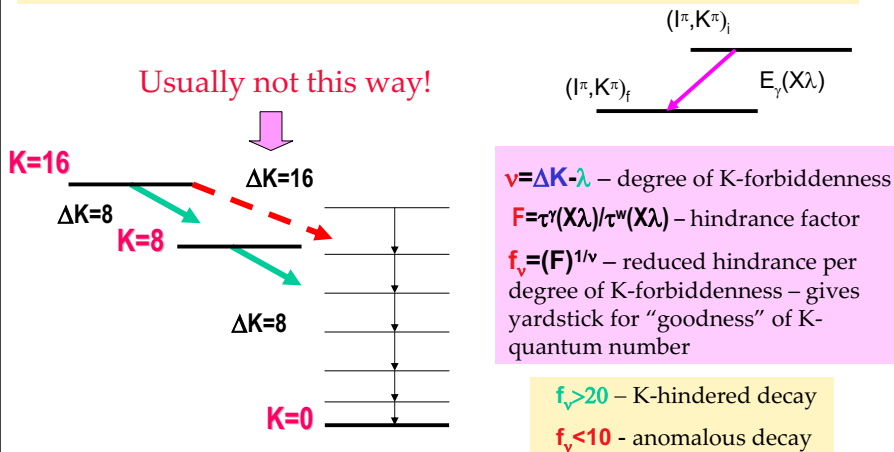


K-Isomers – the building blocks



K-Selection Rule and Reduced Hindrance

K-Isomer decay usually proceeds by minimizing ΔK

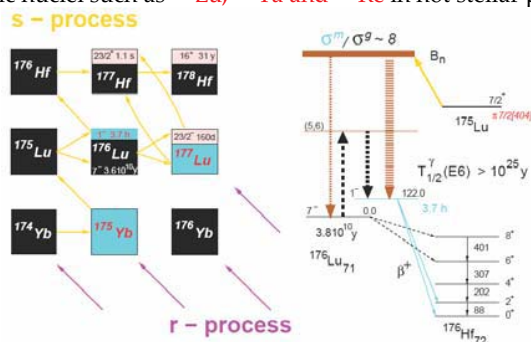


Why Studying Isomers?

- ❑ Powerful spectroscopy tool - highly selective “devices”
- ❑ Advanced physics
 - ✓ The mapping of intrinsic orbitals close to and remote from the Fermi surface providing an indirect probe of deformation and potentials used in mean-field descriptions.
 - ✓ The limits to the existence of high-K states, both at high excitation energy and as a function of proton and neutron number and the competition between collective and intrinsic excitation.
 - ✓ The question of the dilution of the K-quantum number due to both random interactions in regions of high-level density, and to chance degeneracies in regions of low level density.
 - ✓ As a seniority- and configuration-dependent probe of the major residual interactions in deformed nuclei, specifically pairing and spin-spin interactions.

Why Studying Isomers – cont.?

- ❑ Interesting astrophysical applications: stellar thermometers and chronometers
 - ✓ There is considerable interest in the role of nuclear structure effects (the precise disposition of excited states) and the possible role of the K-quantum number in the formation and possible photo-destruction of isomeric nuclei such as ^{176}Lu , ^{180}Ta and ^{186}Re in hot stellar processes.



Why Studying Isomers? – cont.

Applications

- Activation analysis
- Medicine
- Gamma-ray lasers/batteries?
- Transmutation of nuclear waste?

Exotic Studies

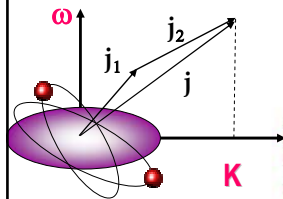
- Radioactive targets – high-spin/seniority, e.g. $^{178m2}\text{Hf}$, ^{177m}Lu
- Radioactive beams – the future of nuclear knowledge



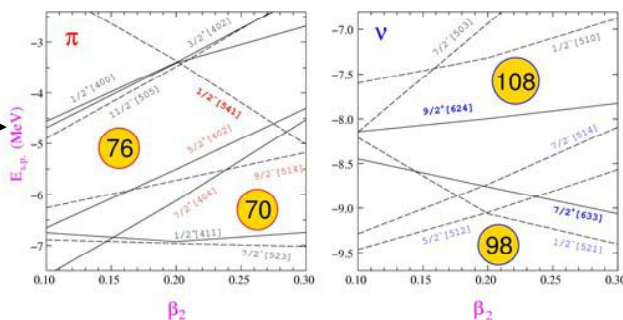
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K Isomers: Where to find them?

- Deformed nuclei with axially-symmetric shape



Mass 180 region : Yb (Z=70)-Ir(Z=77)



- High-K orbitals near the Fermi surface

π 5/2[402], 7/2[404], 9/2[514]
 ν 5/2[512], 7/2[514], 7/2[633], 9/2[624]

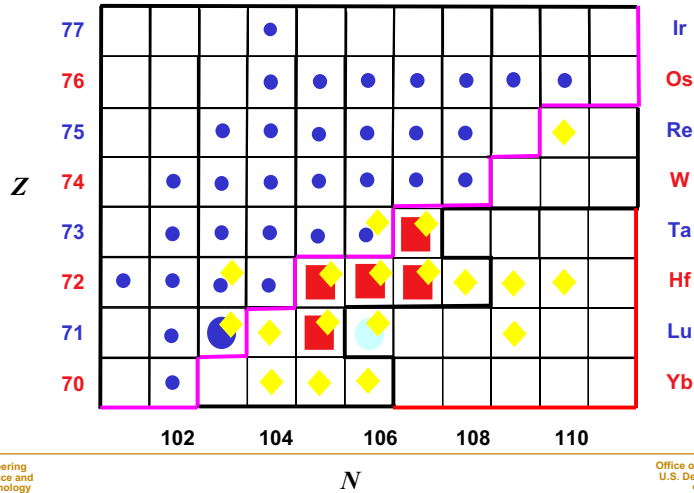


7-qp
 K=49/2



K-Isomers in the A~180 Region

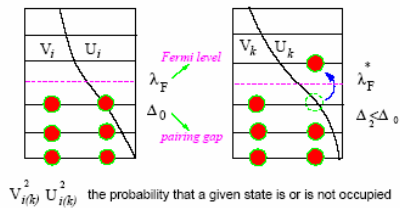
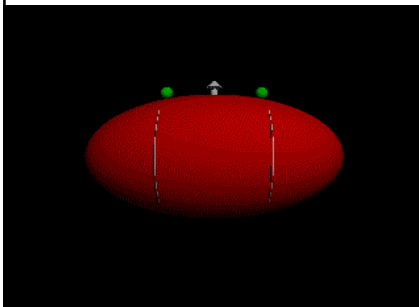
- Seniority 2 and higher
- $T_{1/2} < 1$ s (small) / $T_{1/2} > 1$ s (large)
- HI, xn – fusion evaporation
- ◆ Deep-inelastic collisions
- Incomplete fusion



Pairing Destruction in Nuclei

In general there are two anti-pairing mechanisms :

- (a) Coriolis anti-pairing – induced by the fast rotation
- (b) Blocking – occupation of level(s) by unpaired nucleon(s)



$V_i^2 U_i^2$ the probability that a given state is or is not occupied

uniform levels distribution

$$\Delta_v = [\Delta_0 (\Delta_0 - v/\rho)]^{1/2}$$

v – the number of blocked particles (seniority)

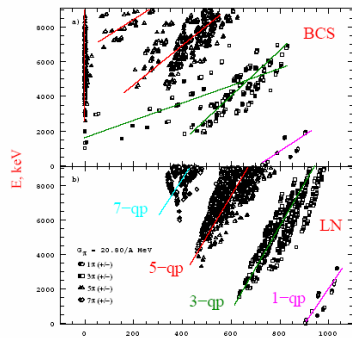
ρ – level density near the Fermi surface

$1/\rho \sim 300$ keV and $\Delta_0 \sim 900$ keV
 $v \sim 3$ $\Delta = 0$!

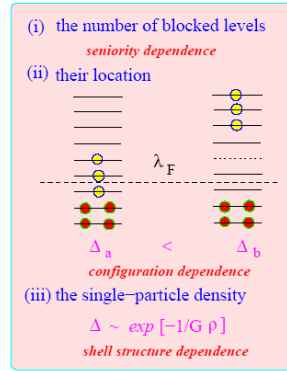
Pairing Gap & Seniority

illustrative example: blocked multi-quasiparticle calculations – protons $^{177}\text{Ta}_{104}$
 mean field – Nilsson potential
 pairing – BCS model
 LN model

LN: W. Nazarewicz et al. NP A512 (1990)
 W. Satula et al. NP A578 (1994)



Δ , keV
 (a) Has the pairing really gone?

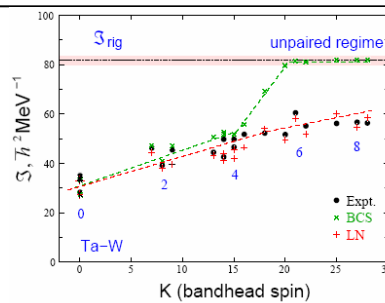
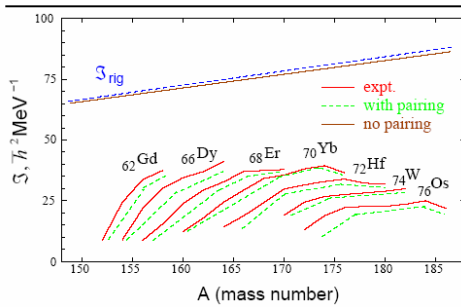


(b) How to prove it?

rotation of the MQP state comes to the rescue



Pairing & Moment of Inertia

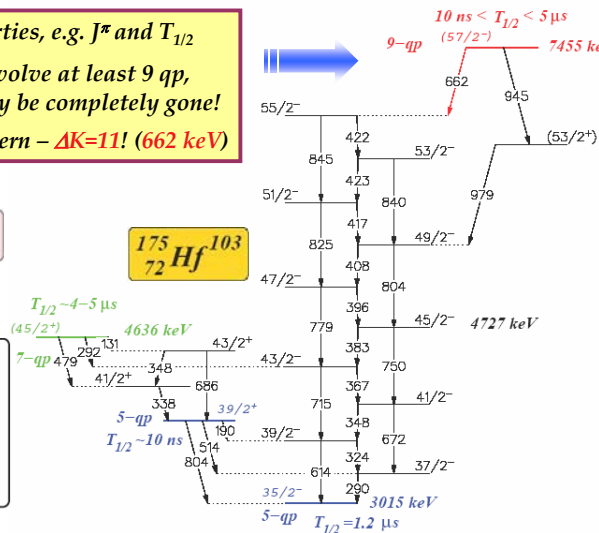
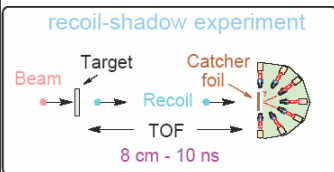
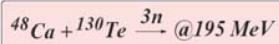


- **Implication:** yet higher seniority states would not show marked decrease in pairing
 G.D. Dracoulis et al., Phys. Lett. B419 (1998)
- **Is the rigid rotation a signature of quenched pairing?**
 Σ is smaller than Σ_{rig} due to shell effects
 S. Frauendorf et al., Phys. Rev. C61 (2000)
- **Needs an experimental confirmation !**



... at Extreme of Seniority – the case of ^{175}Hf

- ❑ Tentative quantum properties, e.g. J^π and $T_{1/2}$
- ❑ Exotic structure - must involve at least 9 qp, a case where the pairing may be completely gone!
- ❑ Unprecedented decay pattern – $\Delta K=11!$ (662 keV)



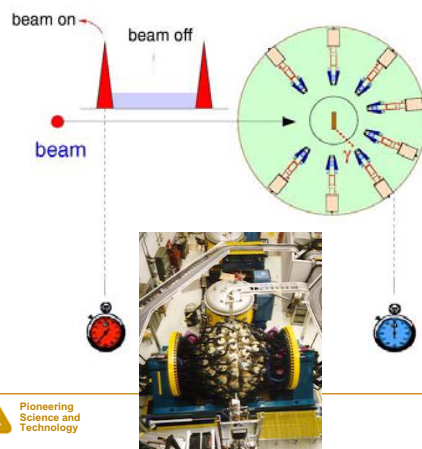
N.L. Gjorup et al., Z. Phys. A337 (1990)



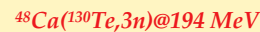
^{175}Hf Experiments at ANL and ANU/Canberra

Pulsed Beam Technique

- ❑ Well defined "clock"
- ❑ Sensitive to in-beam and decay events



ANL Experiment



- ❑ Pulsed beam & Gammasphere
1 ns on / 825 ns off
- ❑ Thin target
1 ns on / 82.5 ns off

Complementary Experiment at ANU

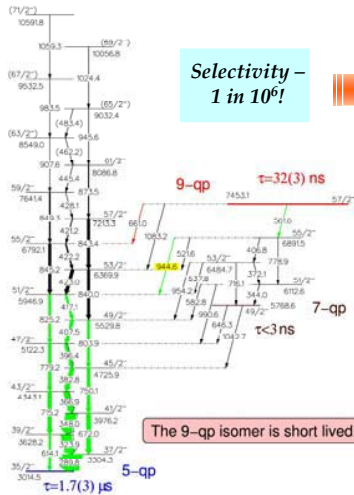


- ❑ Pulsed beam & CAESAR array
(8 CS Ge detectors)
4 μs on / 60 μs off

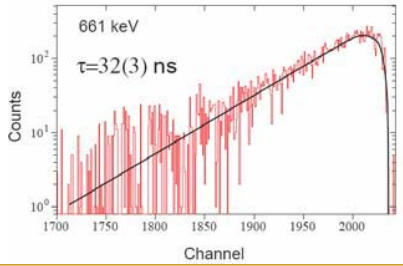
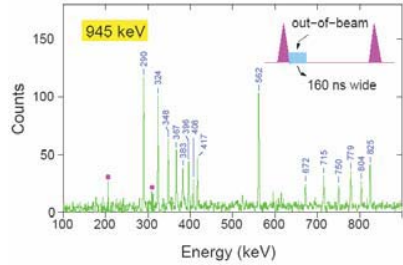


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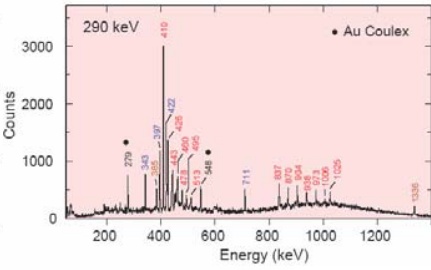
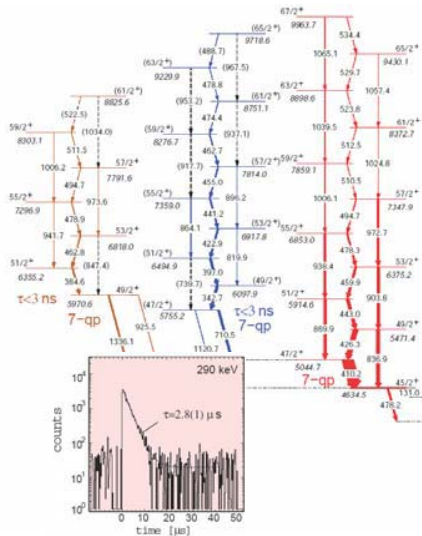
Decay of the 57/2- Isomer



Selectivity - 1 in 10⁶!



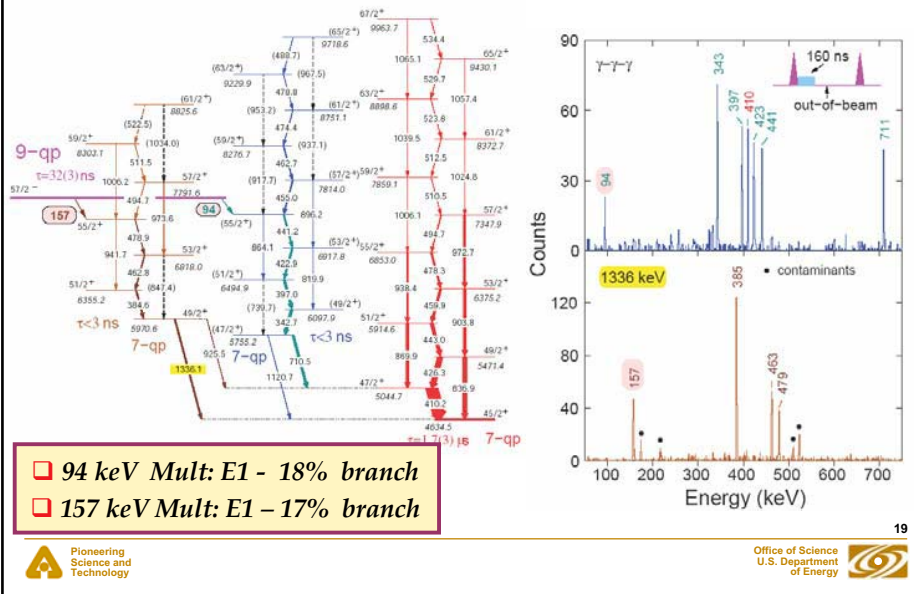
Structures above the 45/2+ Isomer



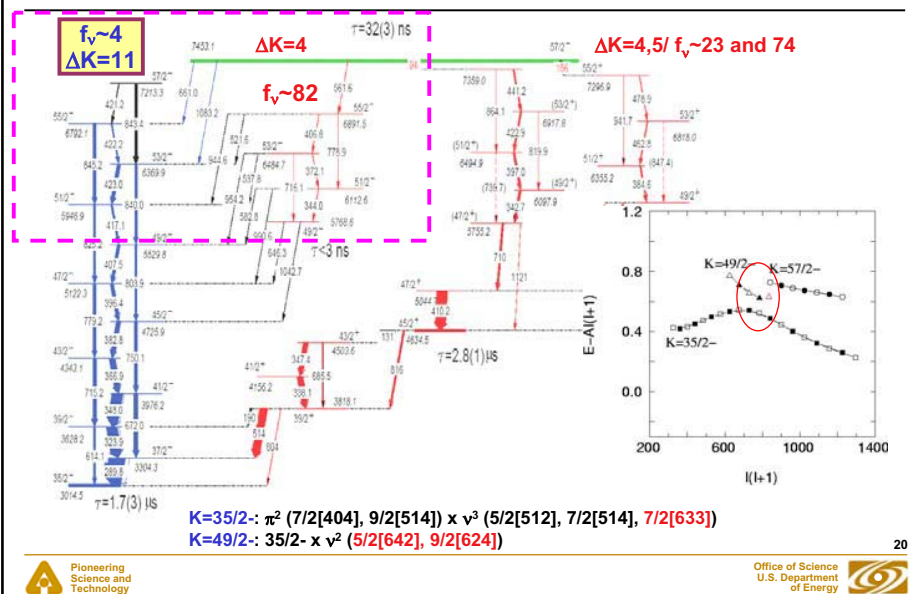
Above the 45/2+ Isomer

Gate

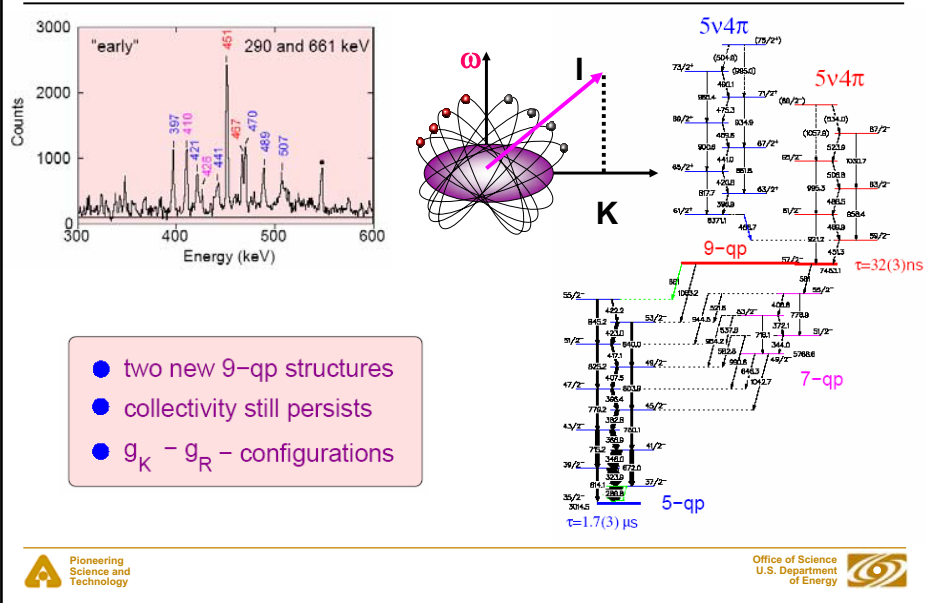
"Normal" Decay Branches



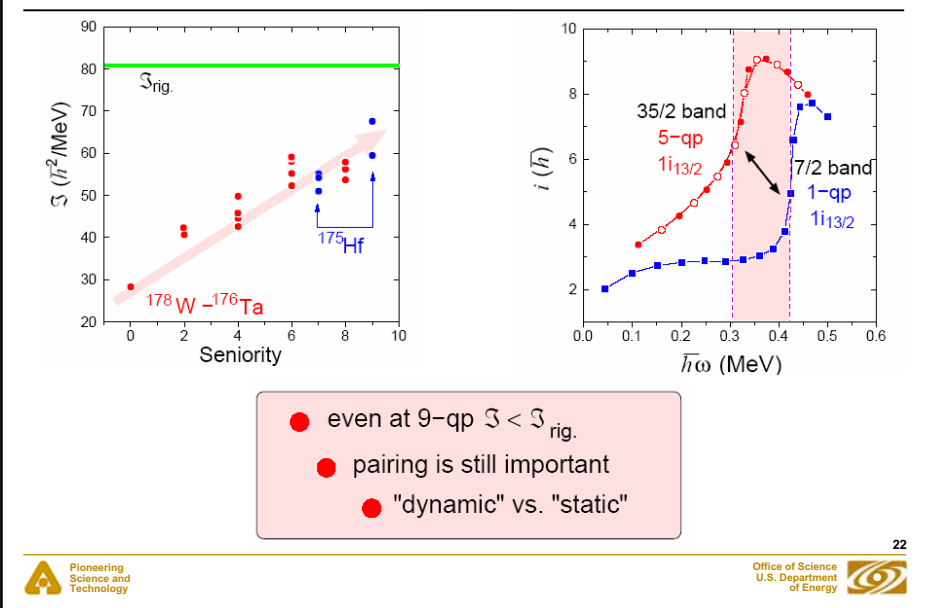
K-hindrances in the decay of the 57/2- Isomer



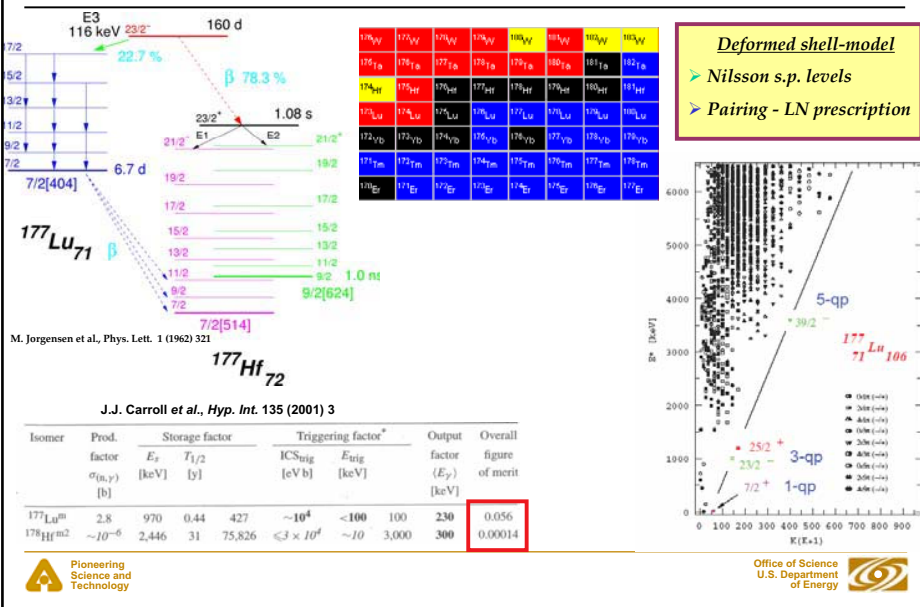
Rotation of the 57/2- Isomer



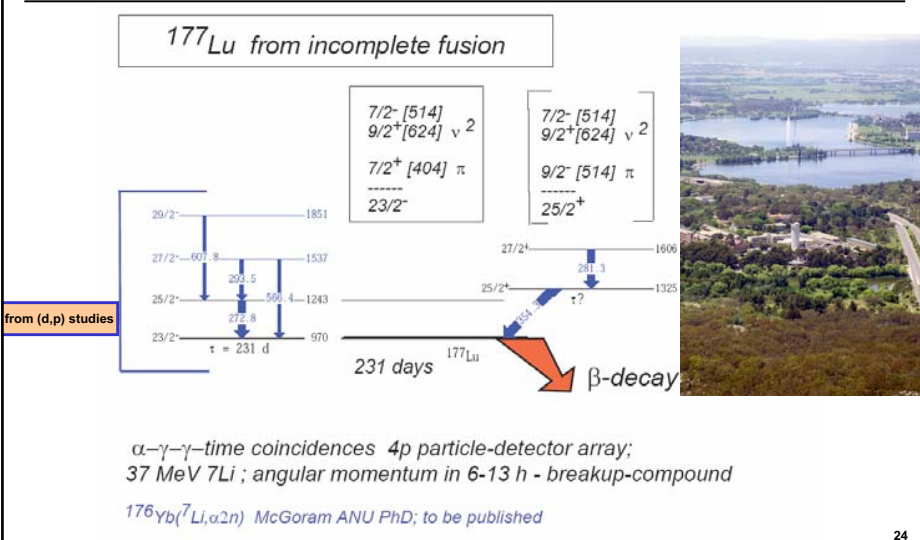
Has the Pairing Really Gone?



... at Extreme of Neutron number – the case of ^{177}Lu



Structures Above the $K^\pi=23/2^-$ isomer



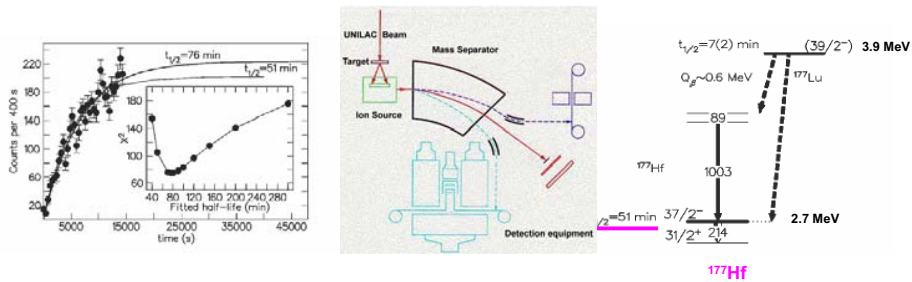
An evidence for a β -decaying isomer?

PHYSICAL REVIEW C 69, 024320 (2004)

Evidence for a high-spin β -decaying isomer in ^{177}Lu

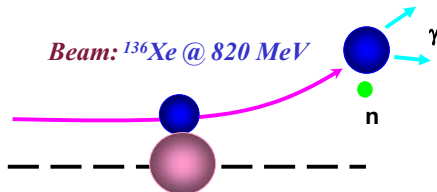
Sareh D. Al-Garni,^{1,*} P. H. Regan,^{1,†} P. M. Walker,¹ E. Roeckl,² R. Kirchner,² F. R. Xu,³ L. Batist,^{2,4} A. Blazhev,^{2,5}
 R. Borcea,² D. M. Cullen,^{6,7} J. Döring,² H. M. El-Masri,¹ J. Garces Narro,¹ H. Grawe,² M. La Commara,^{2,8} C. Mazzocchi,^{2,9}
 I. Mukha,^{2,10} C. J. Pearson,¹ C. Plettner,² K. Schmidt,² W.-D. Schmidt-Ott,¹¹ Y. Shimbara,¹² C. Wheldon,^{1,2,6} R. Wood,¹
 and S. C. Wooding^{1,2}

11.4 MeV/nucleon ^{136}Xe beam on ^{186}W target; thermal ion source; mass separation



Deep Inelastic Experiment at ANL

Pulsed beam & Gammasphere at ANL



Target: ^{176}Lu

enriched 50% (n. abd. 2.6%)

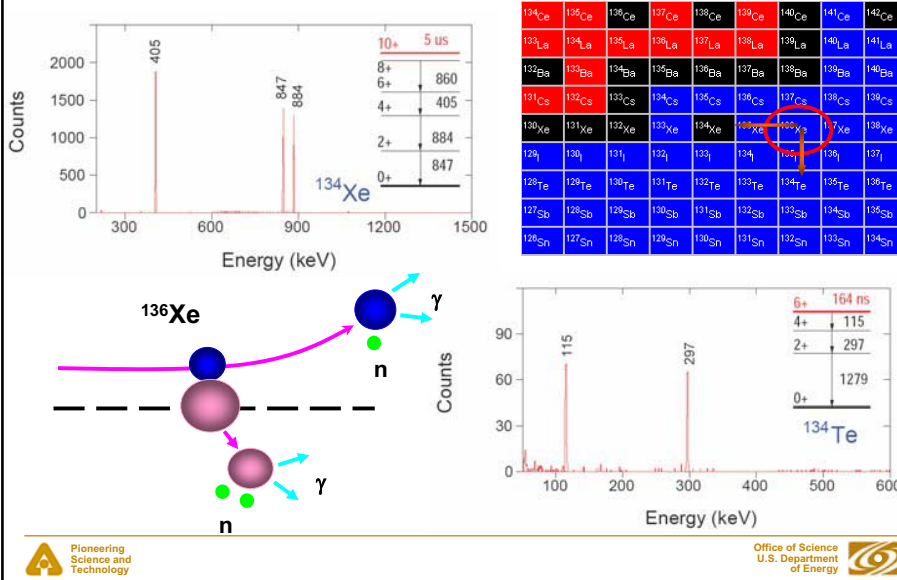
$J^\pi = 7^-$

Target: ^{175}Lu , ^{174}Yb

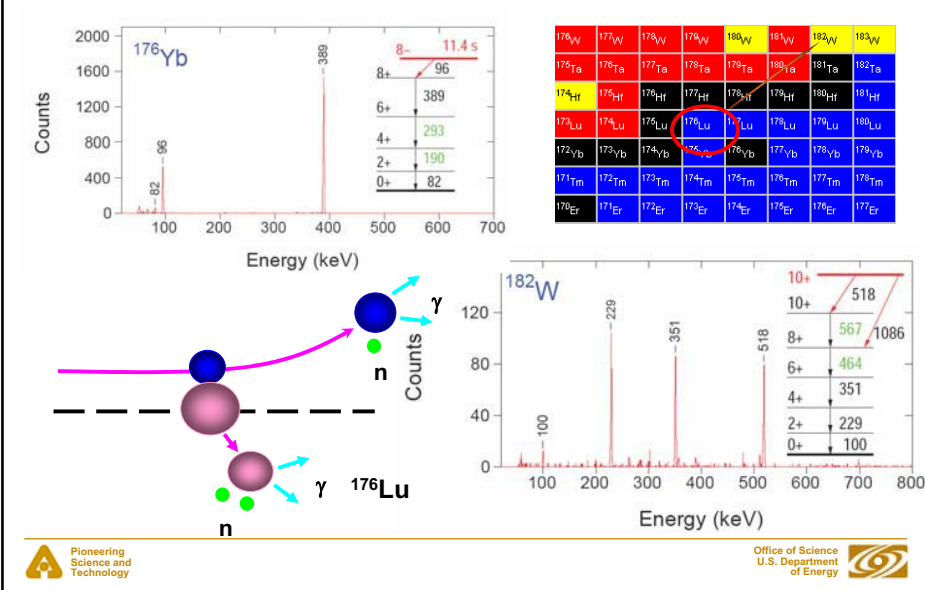
^{134}Ce	^{135}Ce	^{136}Ce	^{137}Ce	^{138}Ce	^{139}Ce	^{140}Ce	^{141}Ce	^{142}Ce
^{132}La	^{134}La	^{136}La	^{137}La	^{138}La	^{139}La	^{140}La	^{141}La	^{142}La
^{132}Ba	^{133}Ba	^{134}Ba	^{136}Ba	^{137}Ba	^{138}Ba	^{139}Ba	^{140}Ba	^{142}Ba
^{131}Cs	^{132}Cs	^{133}Cs	^{134}Cs	^{136}Cs	^{137}Cs	^{138}Cs	^{139}Cs	^{140}Cs
^{130}Xe	^{131}Xe	^{132}Xe	^{133}Xe	^{134}Xe	^{135}Xe	^{136}Xe	^{137}Xe	^{138}Xe
^{129}I	^{130}I	^{131}I	^{132}I	^{133}I	^{134}I	^{135}I	^{136}I	^{137}I
^{128}Te	^{129}Te	^{130}Te	^{131}Te	^{132}Te	^{133}Te	^{134}Te	^{136}Te	^{138}Te
^{127}Sb	^{128}Sb	^{129}Sb	^{130}Sb	^{131}Sb	^{132}Sb	^{133}Sb	^{134}Sb	^{135}Sb
^{126}Sn	^{127}Sn	^{128}Sn	^{129}Sn	^{130}Sn	^{131}Sn	^{132}Sn	^{133}Sn	^{134}Sn

^{178}W	^{177}W	^{176}W	^{175}W	^{180}W	^{181}W	^{182}W	^{183}W
^{175}Ta	^{176}Ta	^{177}Ta	^{178}Ta	^{179}Ta	^{180}Ta	^{181}Ta	^{182}Ta
^{174}Hf	^{175}Hf	^{176}Hf	^{177}Hf	^{178}Hf	^{179}Hf	^{180}Hf	^{181}Hf
^{173}Lu	^{174}Lu	^{175}Lu	^{176}Lu	^{177}Lu	^{178}Lu	^{179}Lu	^{180}Lu
^{172}Yb	^{173}Yb	^{174}Yb	^{175}Yb	^{176}Yb	^{177}Yb	^{178}Yb	^{179}Yb
^{171}Tm	^{172}Tm	^{173}Tm	^{174}Tm	^{175}Tm	^{176}Tm	^{177}Tm	^{178}Tm
^{170}Er	^{171}Er	^{172}Er	^{173}Er	^{174}Er	^{176}Er	^{177}Er	^{178}Er

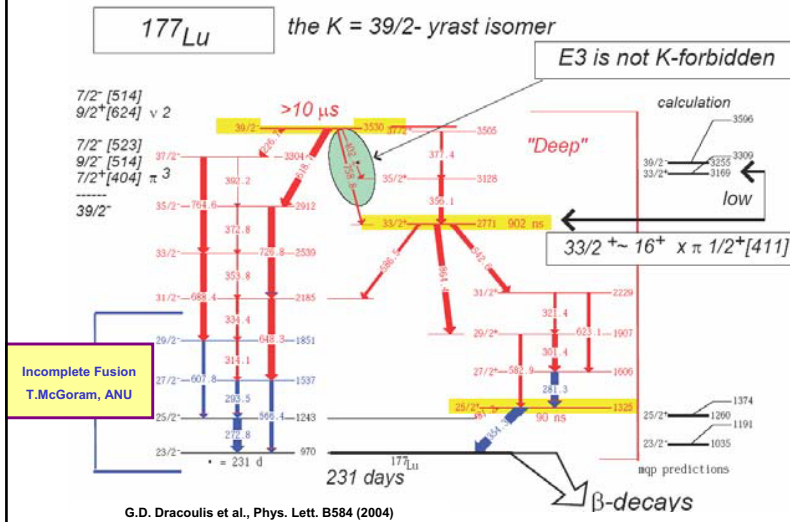
Projectile-like nuclei



Target-like nuclei



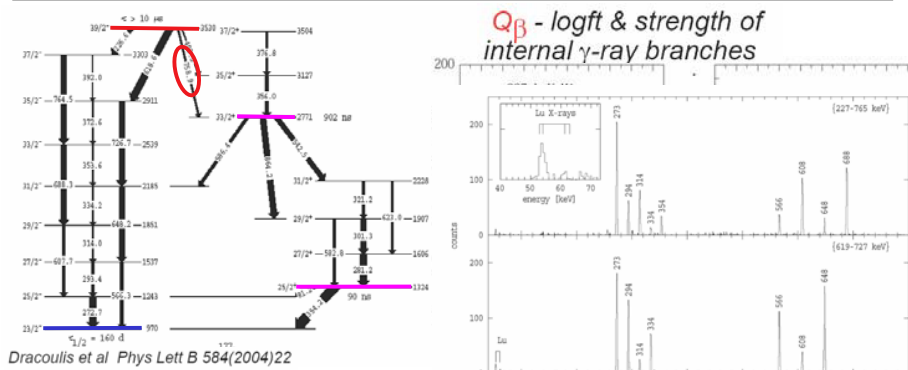
$K\pi=39/2^-$ isomer in ^{177}Lu



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Is this the claimed β -decaying isomer?

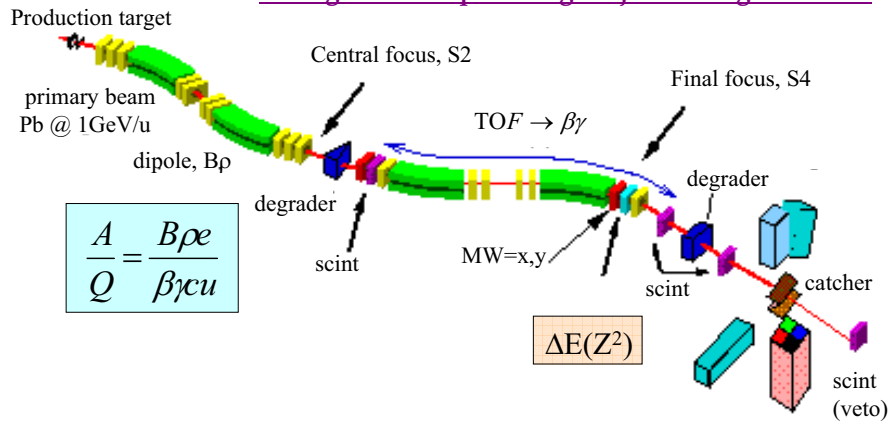


- $E_x=3.5 \text{ MeV}$ (3.9 MeV)
- unambiguous γ -ray decay signature (no such gammas in the spectrum)
- unprecedented transition strength for the 759 keV, non K -forbidden, $E3$ transition (10^9 ! times retarded compared to W.u. if $T_{1/2}=7 \text{ min}$)

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In-Flight Technique Using Projectile Fragmentation

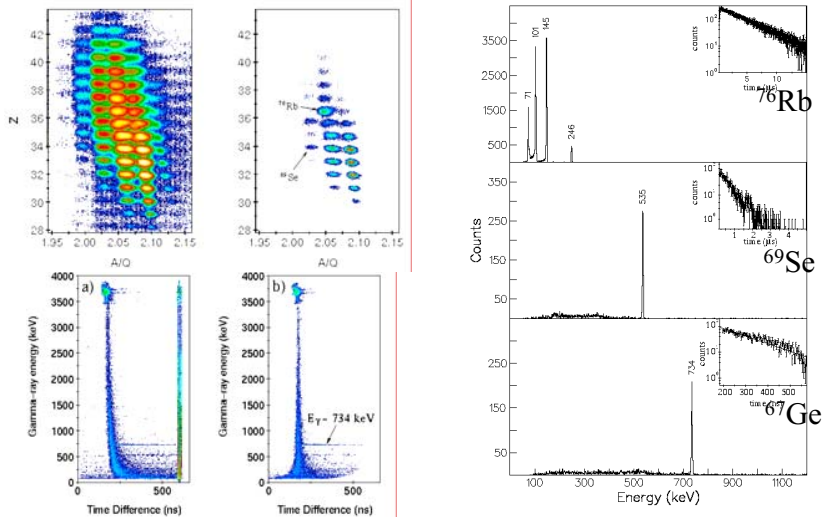


Use FRS@GSI or LISE3@GANIL to ID nuclei.
 Transport some in isomeric states (TOF ~ 300 ns).
 Stop and correlate isomeric decays with nuclei id.

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^{92}Mo fragmentation on ^{nat}Ni target



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C. Chandler et al. Phys. Rev. **C61** (2000) 044309

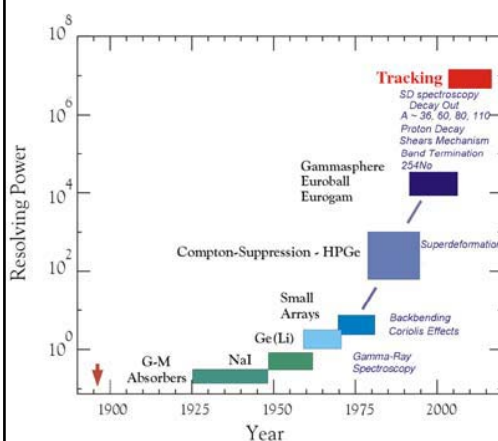


The future of γ -ray spectroscopy

- Historical perspective
- Principle of gamma ray tracking
- Physics opportunities
- Technical challenges
- Status of project

Gamma-ray Detector Development

Crucial to Nuclear Physics Research



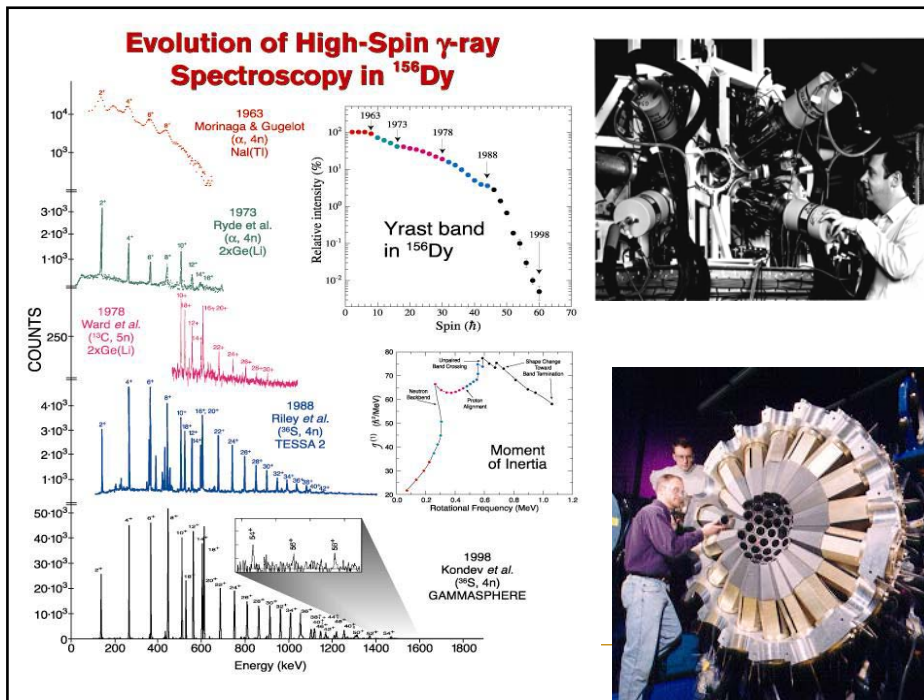
- Advances in detector technology have resulted in new discoveries.
- Innovations have improved detector performance.
 - Energy resolution
 - Efficiency
 - Peak-to-total ratio
 - Position resolution
 - Directional information
 - Polarization
 - Auxiliary detectors
- Tracking is feasible, will provide new opportunities and meet the challenges of new facilities.

$$R \sim \left[\frac{P}{T} \times \epsilon \times \frac{E_{spacing}}{\Delta E} \right]^n$$

Why gamma-ray arrays?

- ❑ High energy resolution $\Delta E_\gamma = 2.5 \text{ keV @ } 1.3 \text{ MeV}$
- ❑ Large P/T ratio ~60%
- ❑ Large photopeak efficiency 10% @ 1.3 MeV
- ❑ Good timing resolution <10 ns
- ❑ Wide energy range ~30 keV – 20 MeV
- ❑ Large solid angle ~ 4π
- ❑ High granularity high fold coincidences
- ❑ High resolving power ability to isolate a given sequence of γ rays

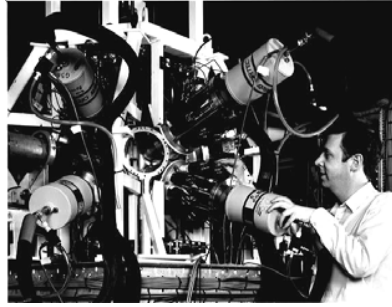
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Historical Perspective



~1980 states to spin ~30
naked Ge arrays



~1980-1982 TESSA
Escape suppressed array at NBI

1983 TESSA to Daresbury
Heavier Ion beams
6 ESS using NaI(Tl)
Channel selection included, 50 element
inner BGO ball

I ~ 1% sensitivity



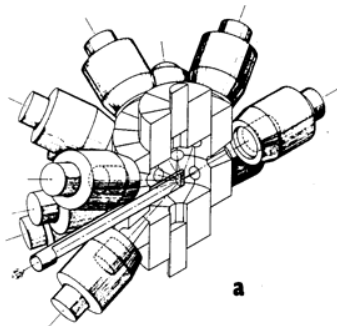
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of Energy



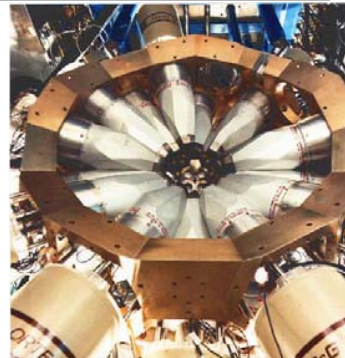
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Historical Perspective – era of large arrays



~1987
BGO replaces NaI(Tl)
HERA, TESSA3

I ~ 0.1% sensitivity



~1995
Large γ -ray arrays
Eurogam, Gasp,
Gammasphere, Euroball's
I ~ 0.001% sensitivity



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Technology

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U.S. Department
of Energy

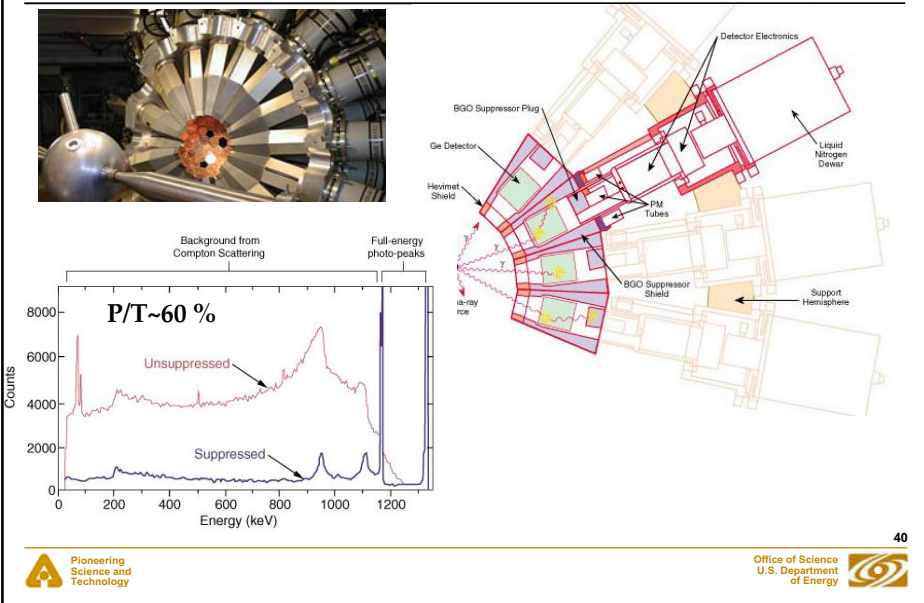


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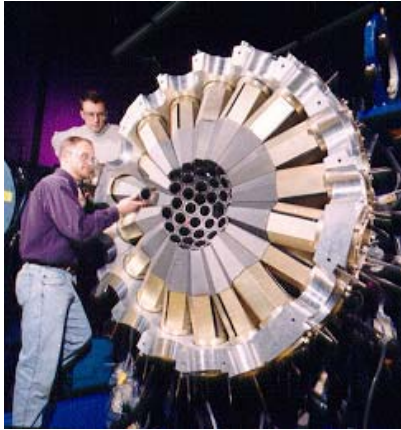
Interaction of gamma rays with matter

~ 100 keV ~1 MeV ~ 10 MeV γ -ray energy \rightarrow		
Photoelectric	Compton Scattering	Pair Production
Isolated hits	Angle/Energy	Pattern of hits
Probability of interaction depth	$E_{\gamma'} = \frac{E_{\gamma}}{1 + \frac{E_{\gamma}}{m_0 c^2} (1 - \cos\theta)}$	$E_{1st} = E_{\gamma} - 2 m_0 c^2$

Compton Suppression – improving the peak to background ratio



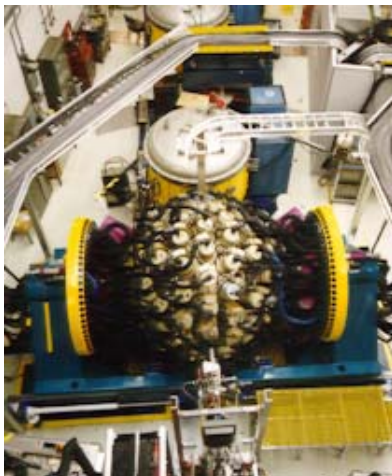
Gammasphere spectrometer



- ❑ A spectrometer with high detection sensitivity to nuclear electromagnetic radiation due to its high **resolution**, **granularity** and **efficiency**
- ❑ Consists of a spherical shell of **110 large volume HpGe detectors** each enclosed in a BGO shield
- ❑ Funded by DOE, US

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Gammasphere operation

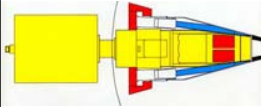


- ❑ From 1993 to 1997 GS was constructed and sited at the 88-Inch Cyclotron, LBNL
130 experiments
super deformation
- ❑ From 1998 to 2000 GS operated at ATLAS, ANL
101 experiments
nuclei far from stability
- ❑ From March 2000 till January 2002 at LBNL
- ❑ Since March 2002 till now GS is back at ANL

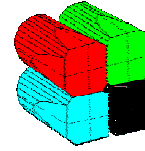
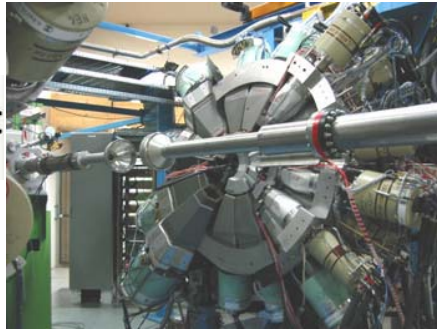
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Euroball

European collaboration
France, Denmark, Germany, Italy, Sweden and the UK

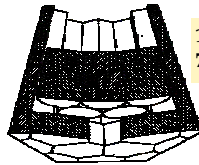


30 Large single crystal
Ge detectors



26 Clover Ge detectors
4 crystals per cryostat

239 Ge crystals
Suppression shields
Total peak efficiency $\sim 9.4\%$
Intensity limit $\sim 10^{-5}$



15 Cluster Ge detectors
7 encapsulated Ge crystals per cluster



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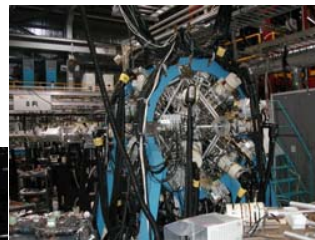
Gamma-ray arrays in US & Canada



Yrast Ball, Yale University
10 Clover
17 Ge



FSU Array, USA



CLARION, ORNL

8 π , TRIUMF
 ~ 100 Ge detectors



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Gamma-ray arrays in Europe

RISING,
GSI
JUROGAM,
JYFL

GASP,
INFN

EXOGRAM, Ganil
MINIBALL, REXISOLDE

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Australia, Asia & Africa

CAESAR, Australia
Afrodite, South Africa

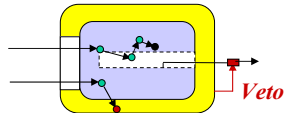
Smaller arrays operate in India, China and Japan

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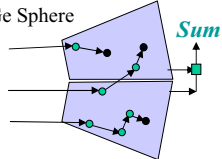
Gamma-ray Tracking Concepts

- Compton Suppressed Ge



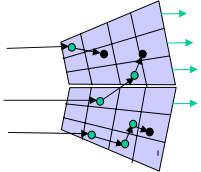
$N_{det} = 100$
Peak efficiency = 0.1
Efficiency limited

- Ge Sphere



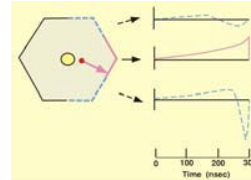
$N_{det} = 1000$ (summing)
Peak efficiency = 0.6
Too many detectors

- Gamma Ray Tracking

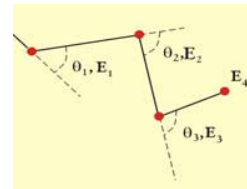


$N_{det} = 100$
Peak efficiency = 0.6
Segmentation

Pulse shape analysis in segments \rightarrow 3D position



Tracking of photon interaction points \rightarrow energy, position

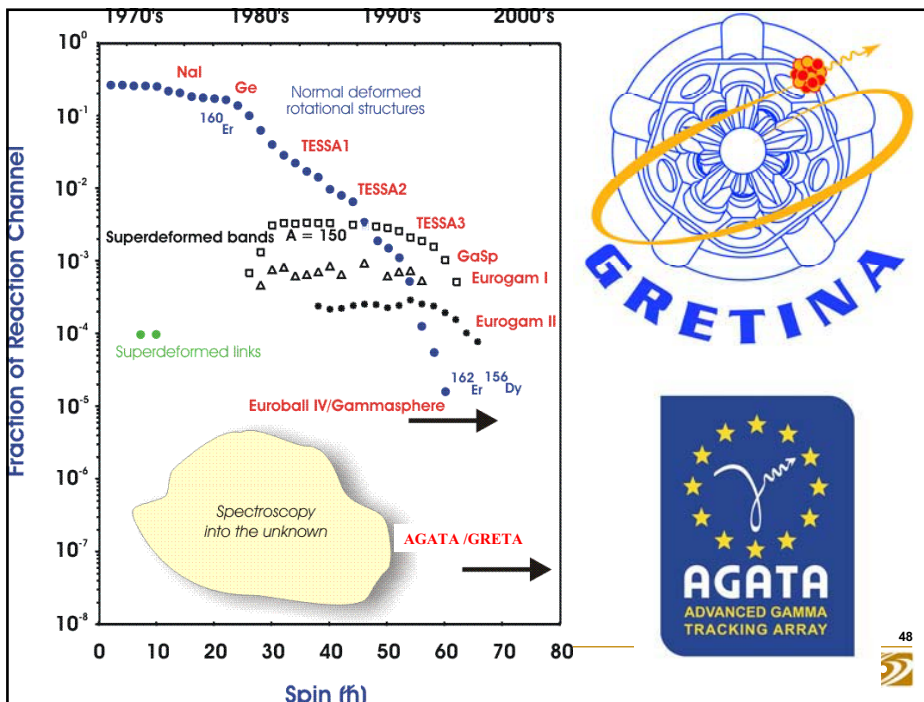


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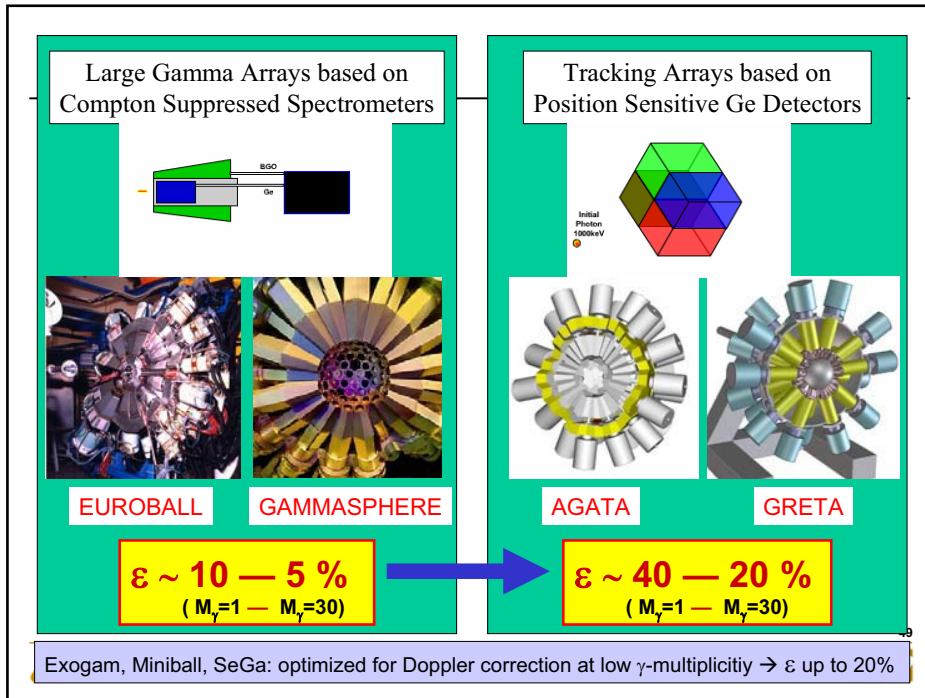
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of Energy



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GRETA/GRETINA




- **Resolving power: 10^7 vs. 10^4**
 - Cross sections down to ~ 1 nb
 - Most exotic nuclei
 - Heavy elements (e.g. $^{253}, ^{254}\text{No}$)
 - Drip-line physics
 - High level densities (e.g. chaos)
- **Efficiency (high energy) (23% vs. 0.5% at $E_\gamma=15$ MeV)**
 - Shape of GDR
 - Studies of hypernuclei
- **Efficiency (slow beams) (50% vs. 8% at $E_\gamma=1.3$ MeV)**
 - Fusion evaporation reactions
- **Efficiency (fast beams) (50% vs. 0.5% at $E_\gamma=1.3$ MeV)**
 - Fast-beam spectroscopy with low rates \rightarrow RIA
- **Angular resolution (0.2° vs. 8°)**
 - N-rich exotic beams
 - Coulomb excitation
 - Fragmentation-beam spectroscopy
 - Halos
 - Evolution of shell structure
 - Transfer reactions
- **Count rate per crystal (100 kHz vs. 10 kHz)**
 - More efficient use of available beam intensity
- **Linear polarization**
- **Background rejection by direction**

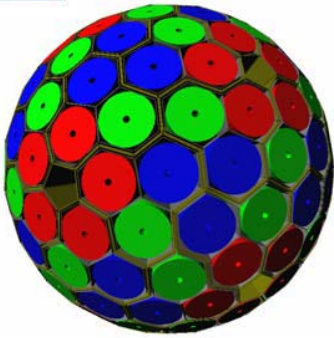
50






AGATA
(Advanced GAMMA Tracking Array)






Main features of AGATA

Efficiency: 40% ($M_\gamma=1$)	25% ($M_\gamma=30$)
today's arrays ~10% (gain ~4)	5% (gain ~1000)
Peak/Total: 55% ($M_\gamma=1$)	45% ($M_\gamma=30$)
today ~55%	40%
Angular Resolution: $\sim 1^\circ \rightarrow$	
FWHM (1 MeV, $v/c=50\%$) ~ 6 keV !!!	
today	~ 40 keV
Rates: 3 MHz ($M_\gamma=1$)	300 kHz ($M_\gamma=30$)
today 1 MHz	20 kHz




- 180 large volume 36-fold segmented Ge crystals in 60 triple-clusters
- Digital electronics and sophisticated Pulse Shape Analysis algorithms allow
- Operation of Ge detectors in position sensitive mode $\rightarrow \gamma$ -ray tracking




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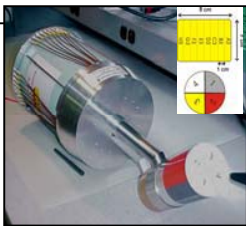
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Highly segmented Ge Detectors





MINIBALL

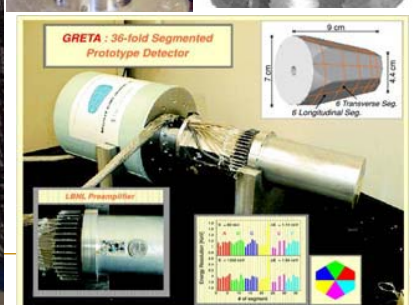
TRIPLE CLUSTER












GRETA : 36-fold Segmented Prototype Detector

9 cm
7 cm
14.5 cm
6 Transverse Seg.
6 Longitudinal Seg.



LIBR2 Preamplifier

Canisters AGATA and EUROBALL



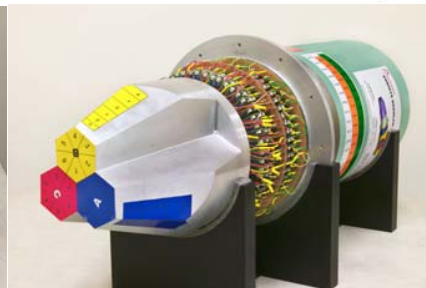
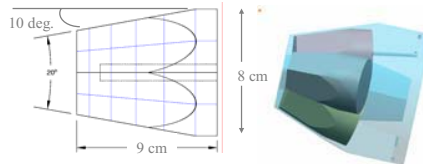
AGATA

EUROBALL



GRETINA Detectors

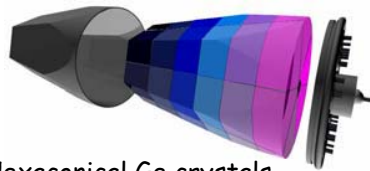
- Tapered hexagon shape
- Highly segmented $6 \times 6 = 36$
- Close packing of 3 crystals
- 111 channels of signal



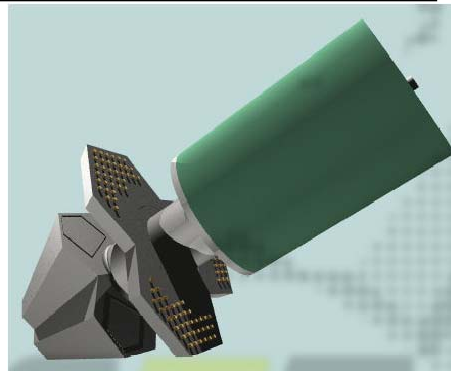
Received June 4, 2004

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AGATA Detectors



Hexagonal Ge crystals
 90 mm long
 80 mm max diameter
 36 segments
 Al encapsulation
 0.6 mm spacing
 0.8 mm thickness
 37 vacuum feedthroughs

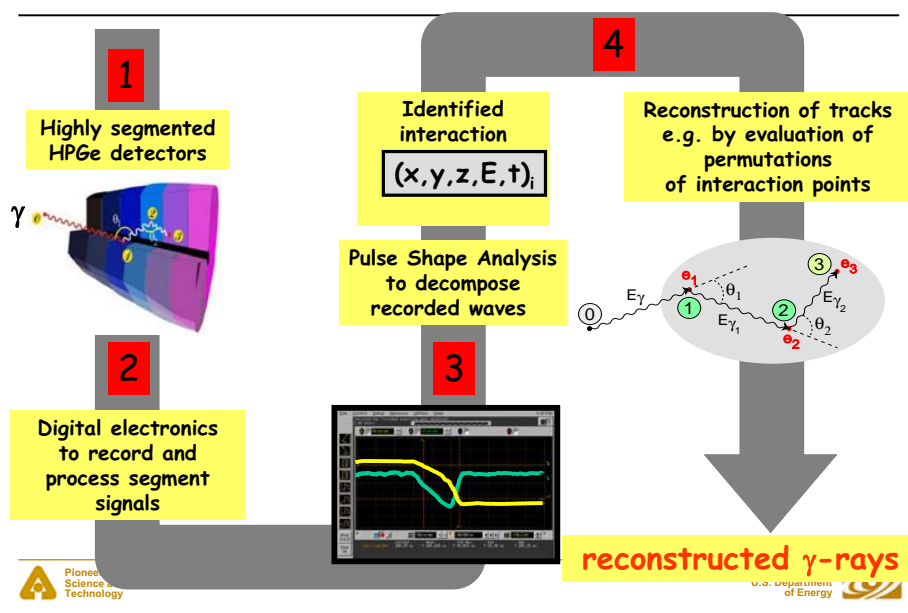


3 encapsulated crystals
 111 preamplifiers with cold FET
 ~230 vacuum feedthroughs
 LN₂ dewar, 3 litre, cooling power ~8 watts



55

Ingredients of γ -ray Tracking



In-beam test



target

beam

θ

Experiment

- LBNL 88" Cyclotron
- Prototype II detector
- $^{82}\text{Se} + ^{12}\text{C}$ @ 385 MeV
- ^{90}Zr nuclei ($\beta \sim 8.9\%$)
- 2055 keV ($10^+ \rightarrow 8^+$) in ^{90}Zr
- Detector at 4 cm and 90°
- Three 8-channels LBNL signal Digitizer modules (24 ch.)

Analysis

- Event building
- Calibration : cross talk
- Signal decomposition
- Doppler correction

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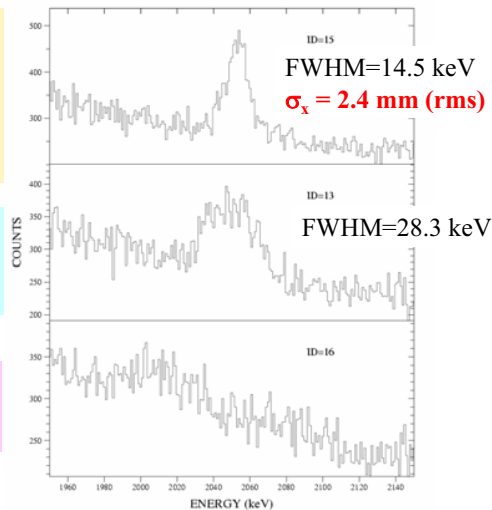


In-beam test Results

Doppler Corrected using first hit position determined by signal decomposition

Corrected using center of segment only

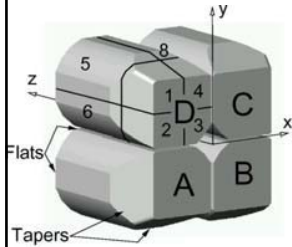
No correction



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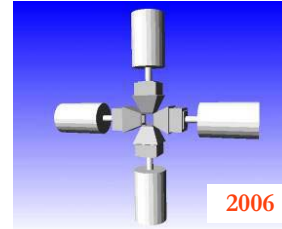
TIGRESS TRIUMF, CANADA



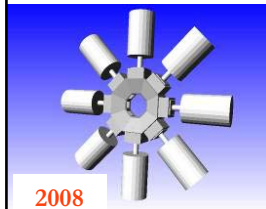
ISAC II

Nuclear Structure:

Evolution of Nuclear Shell Structure
 Pairing Correlation far from Stability
 Mirror Nuclei and Isospin Symmetry
 Coulomb Excitation with Bragg/PPAC
 Fusion Evaporation reactions with
 CsI(Tl) and neutron detector arrays



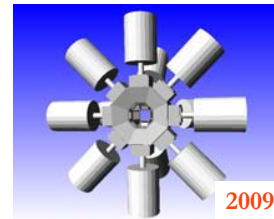
2006



2008

Nuclear Astrophysics:

Structure studies of astrophysically
 important states
 Transfer reactions with EMMA/Si Array



2009

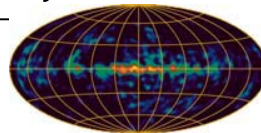


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Gamma Ray Lines of the Cosmos



Science Objective	Isotopes and Lines (MeV)
Understand Type Ia SN explosion mechanism and dynamics	^{56}Ni (0.158, 0.812 , ...) ^{56}Co (0.847 , 1.238 , ...) ^{57}Co (0.122)
Understand Core Collapse SN explosion mechanism and dynamics	^{56}Ni (0.158, 0.812 , ...) ^{56}Co (0.847 , 1.238 , ...) ^{57}Co (0.122), ^{26}Al (1.809 , 0.511)
Map the Galaxy in nucleosynthetic radioactivity	^{26}Al (1.809 , 0.511) ^{60}Fe , ^{60}Co (1.173 , 1.332) ^{44}Ti (0.068, 0.078, 1.16)
Map Galactic positron annihilation radiation	e^+e^- annihilation (0.511 , 3 photon continuum) SN Ia ^{56}Co positrons (0.511) ^{26}Al and ^{44}Ti positrons (0.511)
Understand the dynamics of Galactic Novae	^{13}N , ^{14}O , ^{18}F positrons (0.511) ^7Be (0.478), ^{22}Na (1.275 , 0.511)
Cosmic Ray Interactions with the ISM	^{12}C (4.4), ^{16}O (6.1), ^{20}Ne (1.634), ^{24}Mg (1.369 , 2.754), ^{28}Si (1.779), ^{56}Fe (0.847 , 1.238)
Neutron Star Mass-Radius	p-n (2.223)

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The Concept

Position sensitive gamma ray detectors have been under development for many years

- In Space Science
- In Medical Imaging
- In Basic Nuclear Research
- In Homeland Security and Verification.

Scintillator: NaI, CsI, LSO

Semi-conductor: Si, CdZnTe, CdTe

High Purity Germanium: offers the best energy resolution and timing for intermediate (40-2500 keV) radiation. Very large and efficient detectors can now be fabricated.

Key Question:

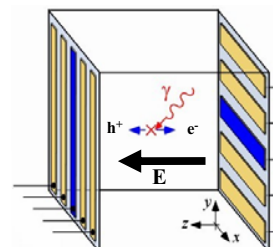
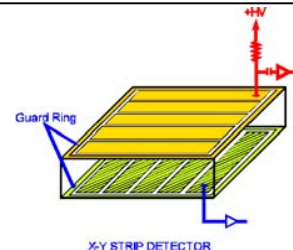
Can reliable, efficient, high resolution *position sensitive* germanium detectors be produced and incorporated into practical devices?

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Ge Strips Detectors – an excellent choice!

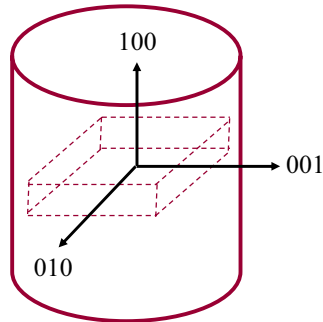
- based on the HpGe planar detector technology
- have orthogonal electrodes (strips) that provide position localization of the interactions
- operates like a conventional p-i-n diode
- pulse-shape analysis – the depth of the interactions



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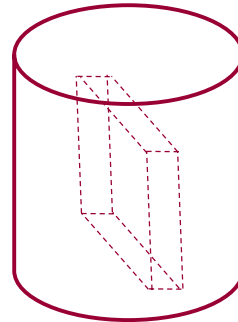
Technology: Wafer Selection



Across Boule

Uniform Impurities

LIMITED SIZE



Along Boule

LARGEST SIZE

Impurity Gradients

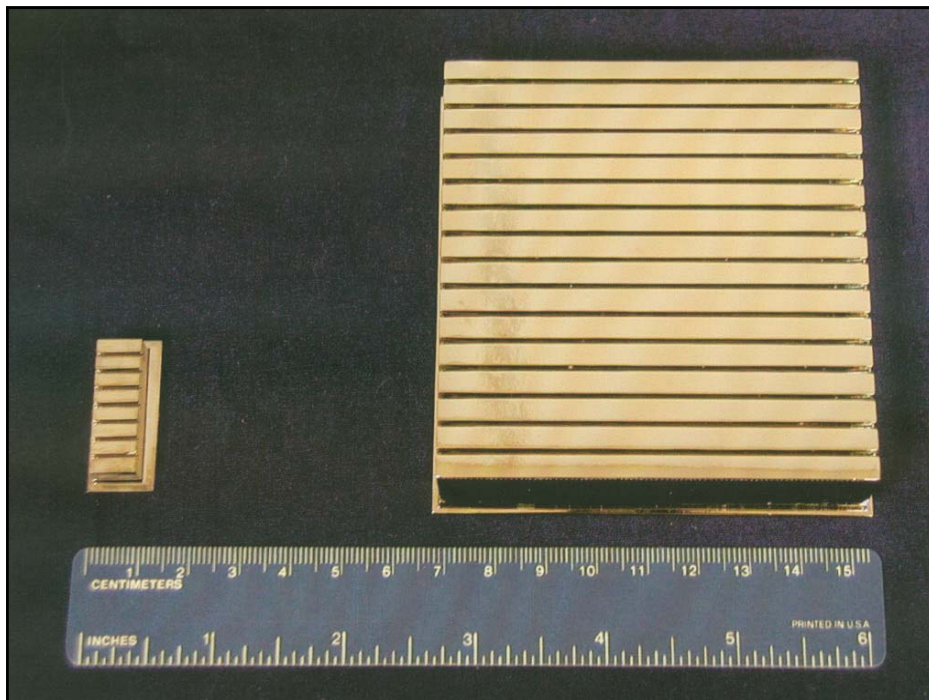
REAL NEED FOR FINANCING OF FACILITY TO GROW BIGGER BOULES.....(15cms)



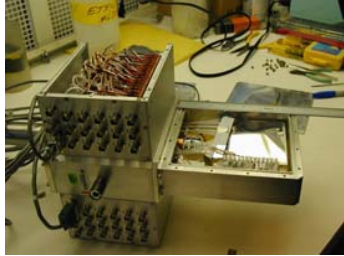
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ANL HpGe Strips Detector



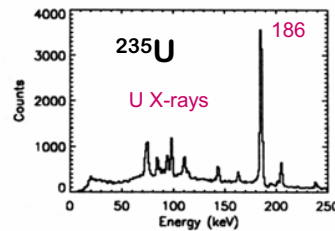
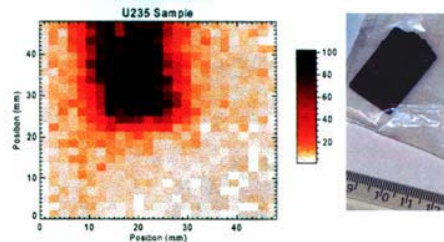
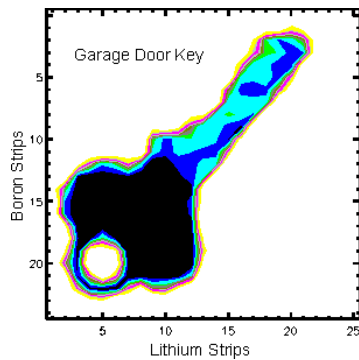
With the premier US germanium detector manufacturer, **Ortec**, we have built

- ❑ *the biggest* (~90 mm x 90 mm x 20 mm)
- ❑ *the best* (~1.0 keV at 122 keV, ~2.0 keV at 1.3 MeV)

Ge strips detector in the world!



2D Imaging Capabilities



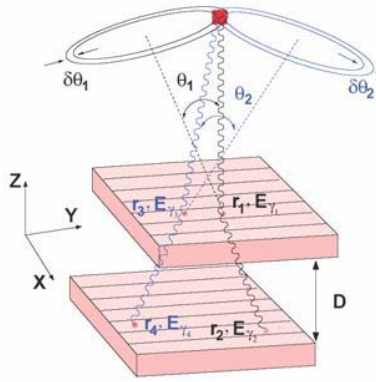
25 x 25 strip HpGeDSSD
60 keV γ -rays from ^{241}Am source

S.E. Inderhees et al., IEEE 43 (1996) 1467

Imaging and characterization 66



Compton Camera



- ### Concept
- ❑ Gamma ray Compton scatters in the first detector
 - ❑ Positions and energies of individual interactions enables to determine pathway of gamma ray in the detector – *gamma-ray tracking!*
 - ❑ Energies and positions define cone of incident angles (electron path is not measured)
 - ❑ Cones are projected on a plane or a sphere (one circle per event) for 2D or into a cube (one cone per event) for 3D imaging

$$\cos \theta_1 = [1 - m_e c^2 ((E_\gamma - E_{\gamma 1}) / E_\gamma E_{\gamma 1})]$$

$$E_\gamma = E_{\gamma 1} + E_{\gamma 2}$$

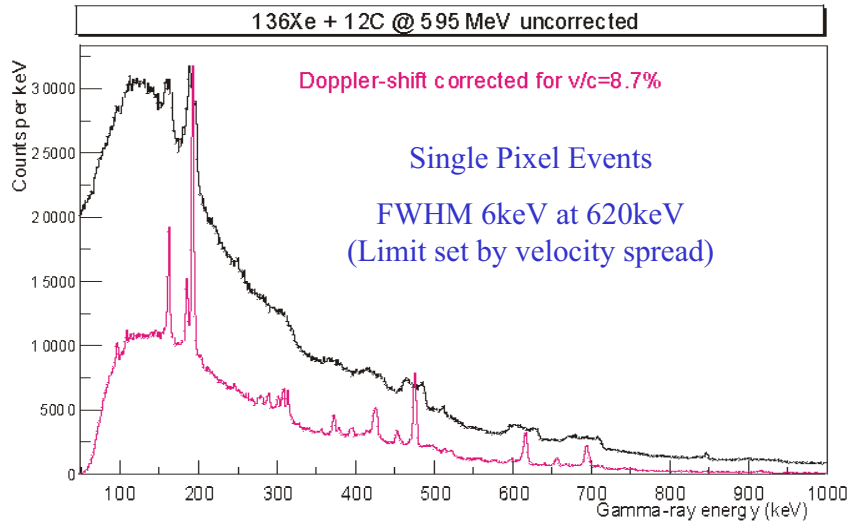


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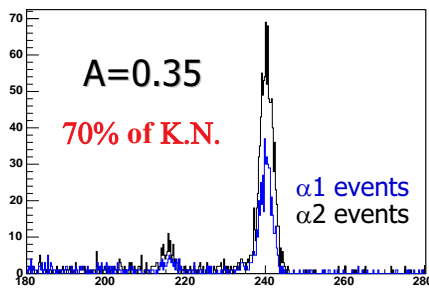
Compton Camera



Doppler Correction



Polarization in α - γ coincidences

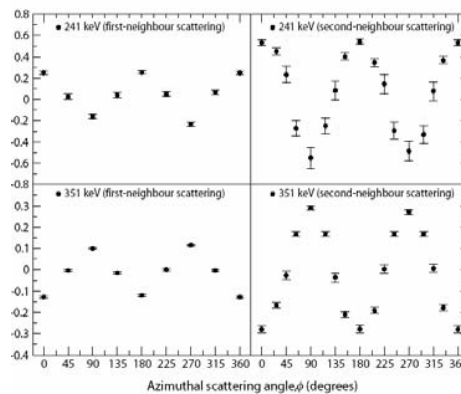


“Second Neighbor” analysis has even bigger asymmetry, and almost as much data.

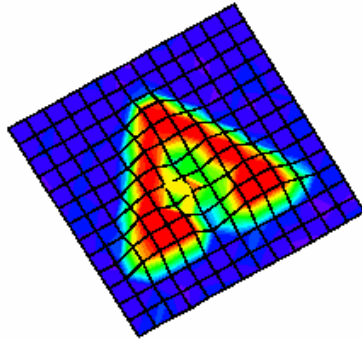
16 pixels vs. 4.

“Worlds Best” figure of merit

Vertical scatters in
 HpGeDSSD (Boron Side)
 ^{228}Th 240keV (0-2-0) correlation

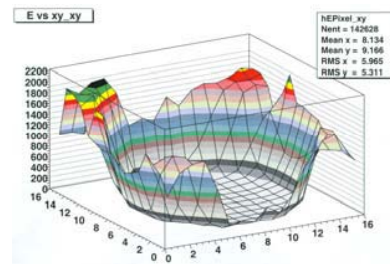


Imaging



Varying source-object-detector baseline can give large magnification
This image 5mm steel ball bearing

Direct Determination of materials by differential absorption



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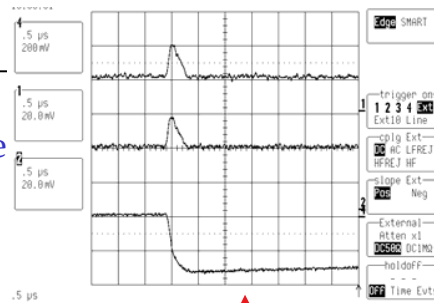
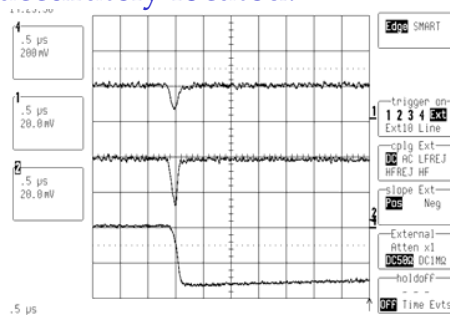
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Digital Signal Processing

Here lies the most exciting prospect. The drifting charge created by the gamma rays induces images that allows the interaction points to be accurately located.



Shallow (Close to Electrode)
Central

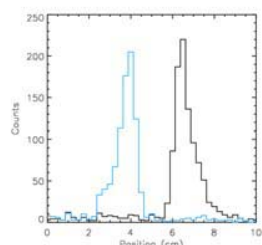
Deep (Far from Electrode)
Right Side

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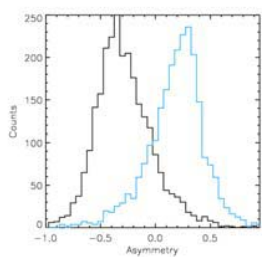
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Digital pulse processing



DEPTH
From front-back time
difference of charge
pulse arrival

1-2 mm
but depends on position



LATERAL
From asymmetry of
induced transient signals