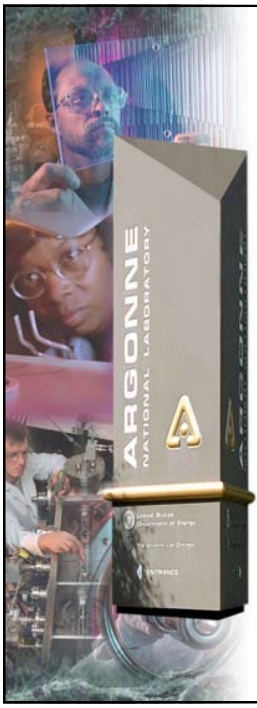

Experimental Nuclear Structure Part I

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 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!

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

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

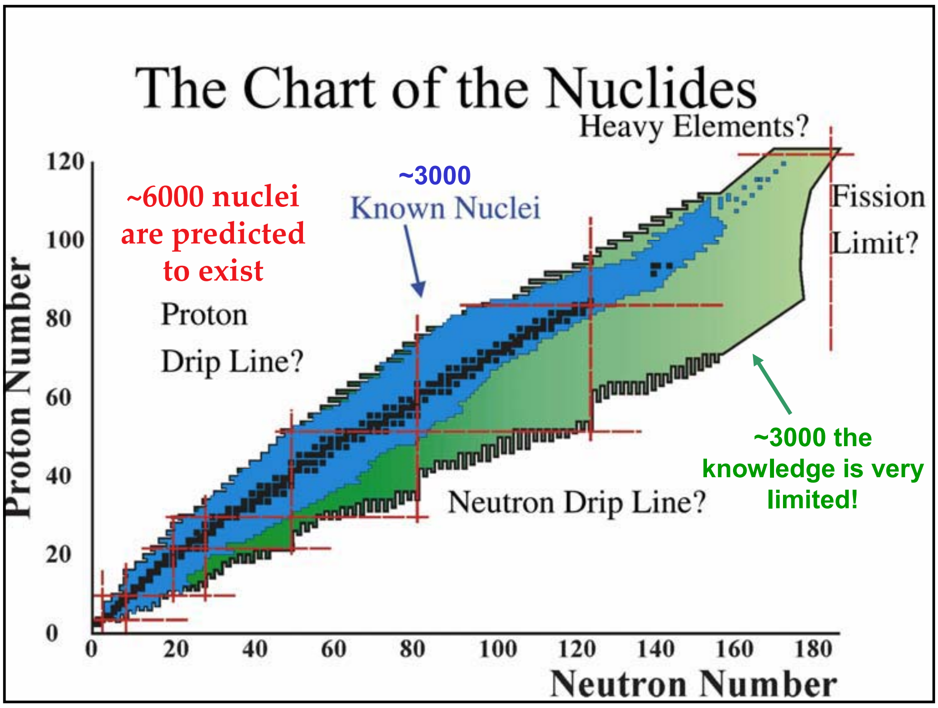
G.D. Dracoulis and T. Kibedi, Australian National University, Australia

J. Simpson, Daresbury Laboratory, UK

E. Paul, University of Liverpool, UK

P. Reagan, University of Surrey, UK

and many others …



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)

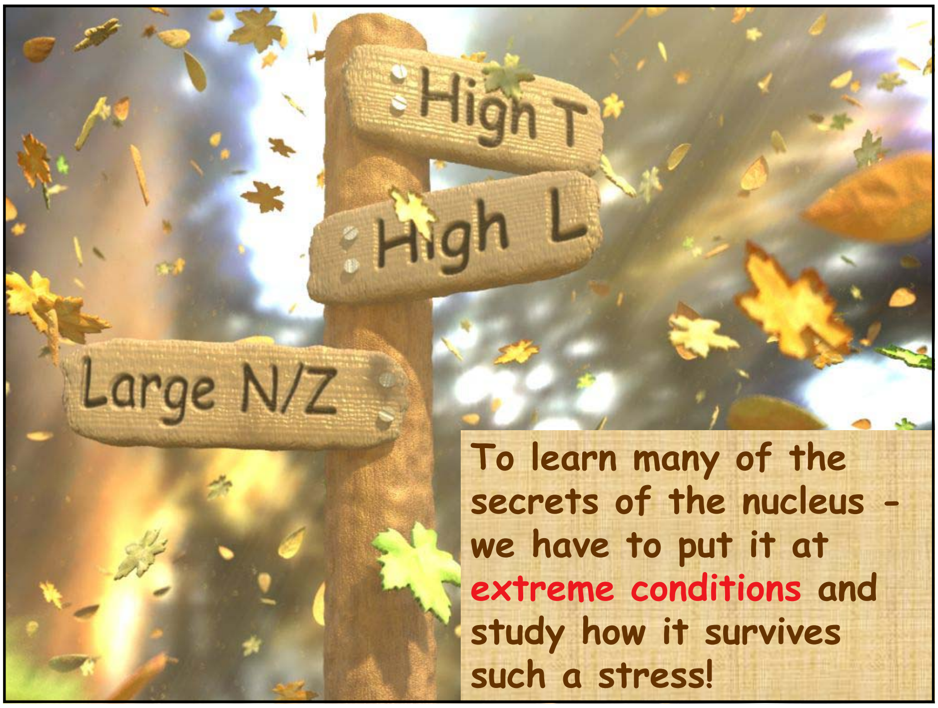
The challenge of understanding how nucleon-nucleon interactions build to create the mean field or how single-particle motions build collective effects like pairing, vibrations and shapes

NUCLEAR PHYSICS IS IMPORTANT

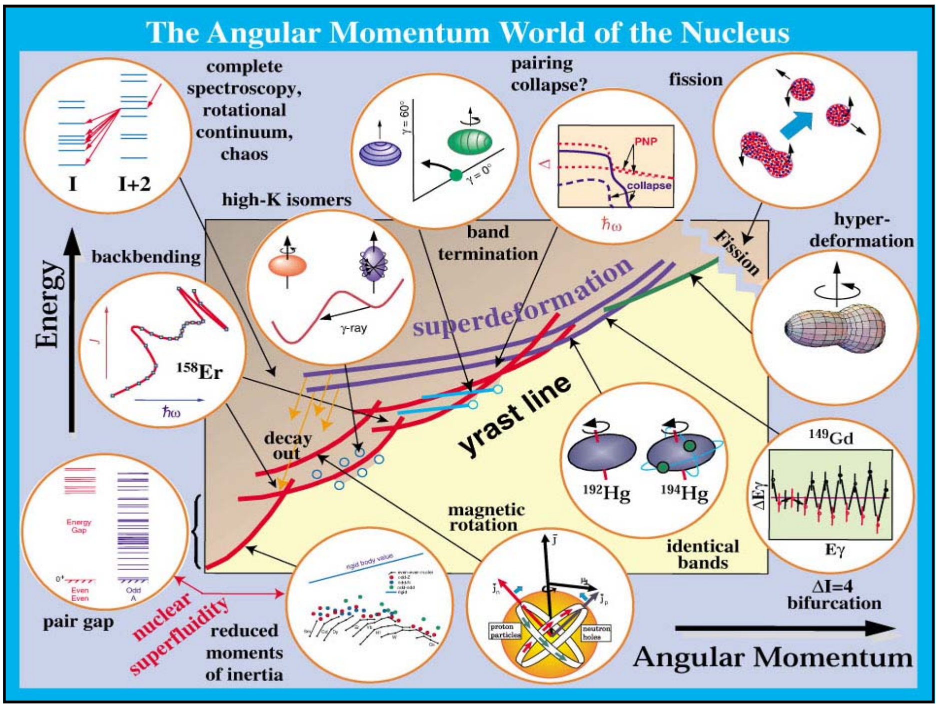
(intellectually, astrophysics, energy production, and security)

THIS IS A GREAT TIME IN NUCLEAR PHYSICS

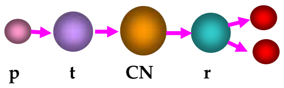
(with new facilities just around the corner we have a chance to make major contributions to the knowledge - with advances in theory we have a great chance to understand it all - by compiling & evaluating data we have a chance to support various applications and to preserve the knowledge for future generations!)



To learn many of the secrets of the nucleus - we have to put it at **extreme conditions** and study how it survives such a stress!



Nuclear Reactions – very schematic!

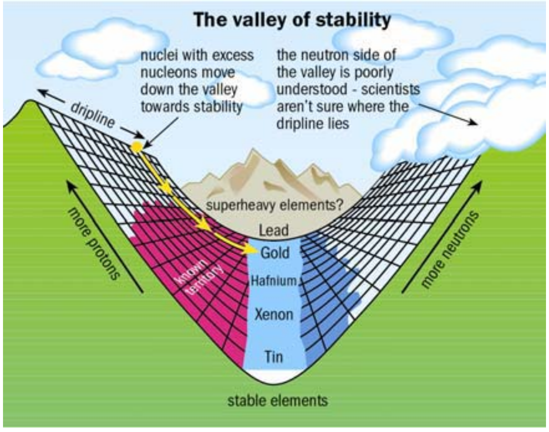


a multi-step process

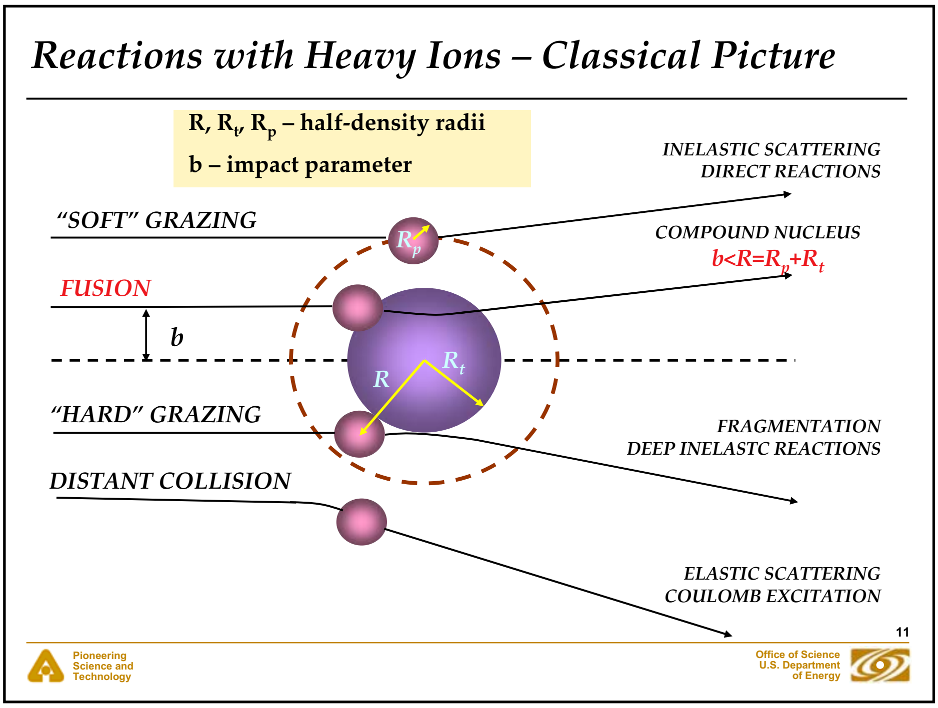
❑ Gamma-ray induced
no Coulomb barrier

❑ 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

R, R_t, R_p – half-density radii

b – impact parameter

"SOFT" GRAZING

FUSION

b

"HARD" GRAZING

DISTANT COLLISION

R_p

R

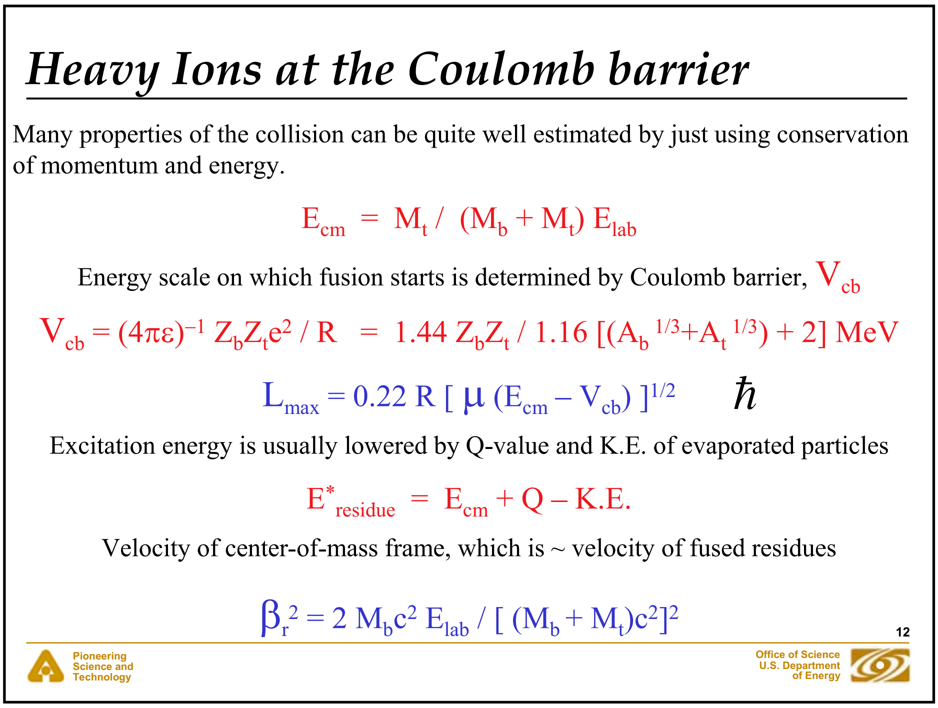
R_t

INELASTIC SCATTERING
DIRECT REACTIONS

COMPOUND NUCLEUS
$b<R=R_p+R_t$

FRAGMENTATION
DEEP INELASTC REACTIONS

ELASTIC SCATTERING
COULOMB EXCITATION



Heavy Ions at the Coulomb barrier

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

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

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

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

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

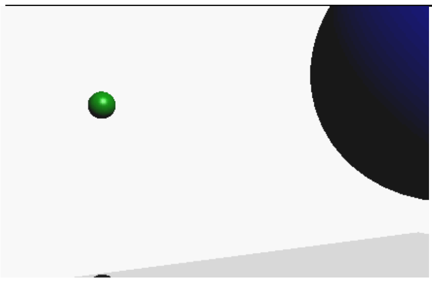
Excitation energy is usually lowered by Q-value and K.E. of evaporated particles

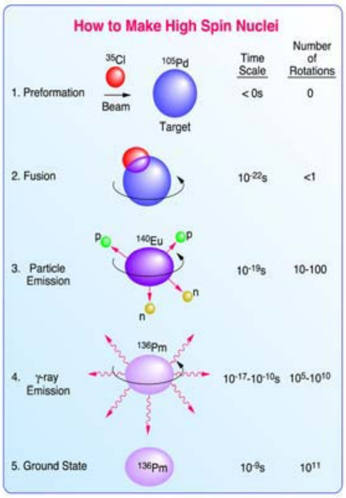
$$E^*_{residue} = E_{cm} + Q - K.E.$$

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

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

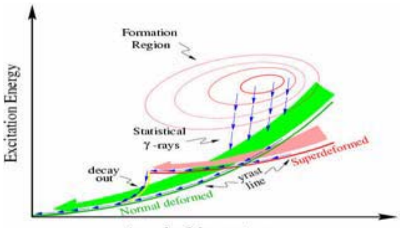
HI Fusion-Evaporation Reactions





Decay of the Compound Nucleus

- ❑ In a typical HI fusion-evaporation reaction the final nucleus is often left with L~60-80 hbar and E_x~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 ~100 μb that is, ~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.

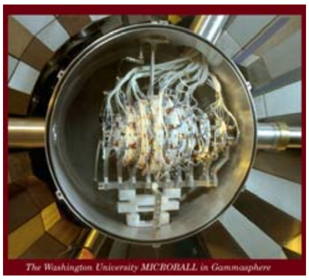
MINUS Low Efficiency

CROSS SECTION LOWER LIMIT ~100 nb that is ~10^{-7}

Detection of Residues in Gas Filled Separator

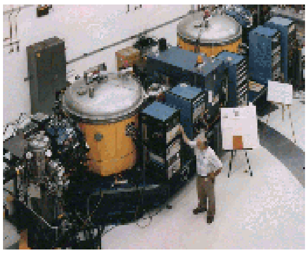
Improves efficiency of vacuum separators, at cost of mass information and clenliness. In some cases (heavy nuclei) focal plane counters clean up the data for good sensitivity.

Some Channel Selection Detectors



Argonne FMA

USA



Light charged-particle detector

Microball – 96 CsI with photo diodes

USA

Jyvaskyla
RITU

Europe

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, $e = 1.6\ 10^{-19}$ 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

Accumulated data: D = Y x TIME x Efficiency

Typical "far from stability" near barrier experiment may have:
i_b = 100 nA, q=10, A=100, $\rho x= 10^{-3}$ & σ=1 barn - produces 3×10^5 reactions/sec

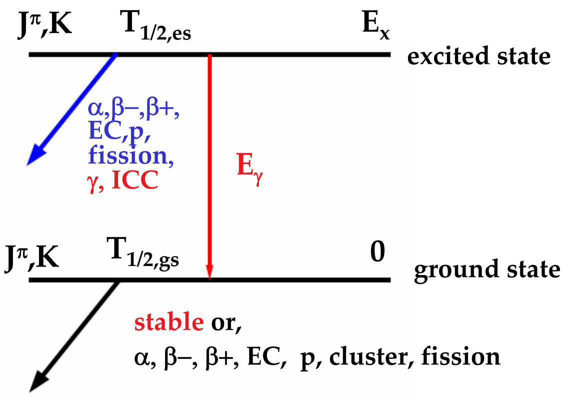
BUT

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.

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**

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)

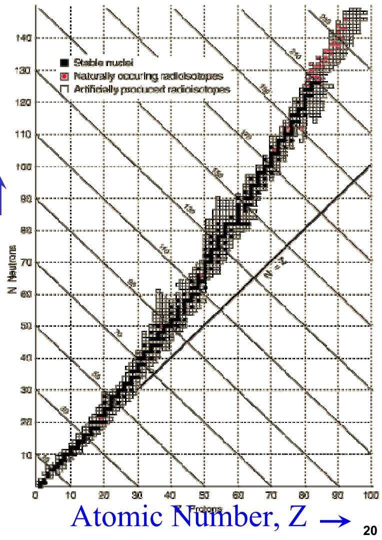
Weak Decay (β^+ β^- and E.C.)

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

$$<t> = \tau = \int_0^\infty te^{-\lambda t}dt = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

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

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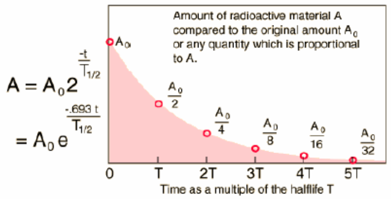
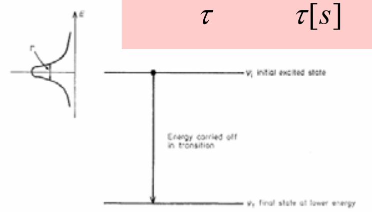
Half-life & Decay Width

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



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

$$\Gamma = \frac{\hbar}{\tau} = \frac{6.58\times10^{-16}}{\tau[s]} \quad \text{[eV]}$$



$$\Gamma \propto |<\psi_1 | M | \psi_2>|^2$$

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

log ft values

$$\boxed{\log ft = \log f + \log t}$$

$$t \equiv T_{1/2}^{\beta_i} = \frac{T_{1/2}}{BR_i}$$

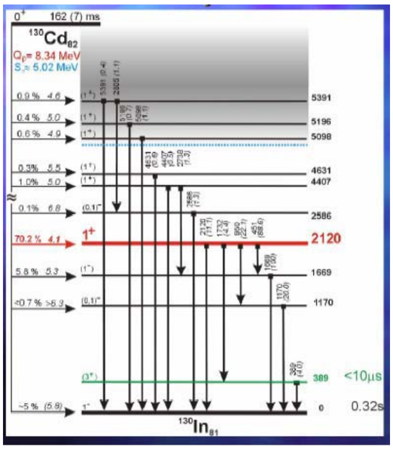
partial half-life of a given β⁻ (β⁺,EC) decay branch

$$f \equiv f_\beta \equiv f_n, n = 0,1,2...$$

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	$\log(f_0^{EC} + f_0^+)$

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



Hindrance Factor in α–decay

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

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

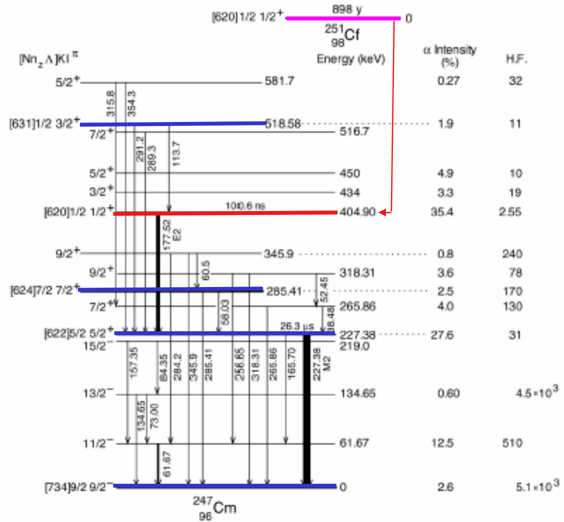
Strong dependence on L

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

$$t_{1/2}^{\alpha} = \ln 2 \frac{r_0}{2v} \frac{\mu^2(H_l^2 + K_l^2) + \tan^2\alpha_0(C_l^2 + S_l^2) + 2\mu\tan\alpha_0(C_l K_l - S_l H_l)}{\mu^2 \tan\alpha_0 (H_l C_l + K_l S_l) Q_l} e^{+2}$$



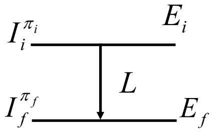
I. Ahmad et al., Phys. Rev. C68 (2003) 044306

γ–ray decay

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

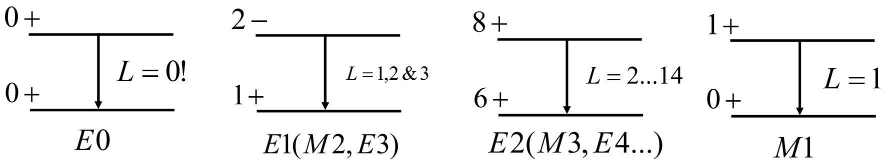
$$\Delta\pi(EL) = (-1)^L \qquad \Delta\pi(ML) = (-1)^{L+1}$$

electric multipole　　magnetic multipole



$E_\gamma = E_i - E_f$

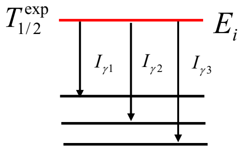
dipole	quadrupole	octupole	hexadecapole	
E1:L=1,yes	E2:L=2,no	E3:L=3,yes	E4:L=4,no	E5:L=5,yes
M1:L=1,no	M2:L=2,yes	M3:L=3,no	M4:L=4,yes	M5:L=5,no



Partial lifetime & Transition Probability

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

partial half-life



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

partial γ–ray Transition Probability　　reduced Transition Probability

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

contains the nuclear structure information

Hindrance Factor in γ–ray decay

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

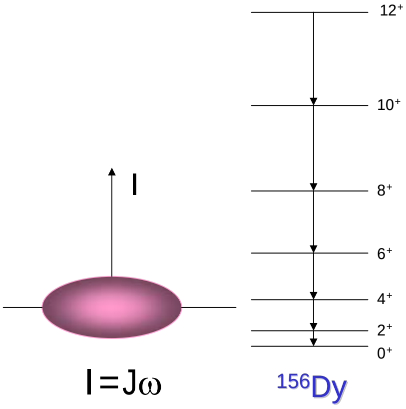
... usually an upper limit, but ...

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

Nilsson (N): based on deformed Nilsson model potential

EL	$B(EL)_W, e^2 fm^{2L}$	$T^{\gamma}_{1/2}(EL)_W$, sec	ML	$B(ML)_W, \mu_N^2 fm^{2L-2}$	$T^{\gamma}_{1/2}(ML)_W$, sec
E1	$0.06446A^{2/3}$	$6.762A^{-2/3}E_{\gamma}^{-3}\times10^{-15}$	**M1**	1.7905	$2.202E_{\gamma}^{-3}\times10^{-14}$
E2	$0.0594A^{4/3}$	$9.523A^{-4/3}E_{\gamma}^{-5}\times10^{-9}$	**M2**	$1.6501A^{2/3}$	$3.100A^{-2/3}E_{\gamma}^{-5}\times10^{-8}$
E3	$0.0594A^{2}$	$2.044A^{-2}E_{\gamma}^{-7}\times10^{-2}$	**M3**	$1.6501A^{4/3}$	$6.655A^{-4/3}E_{\gamma}^{-7}\times10^{-2}$
E4	$0.06285A^{8/3}$	$6.499A^{-8/3}E_{\gamma}^{-9}\times10^{4}$	**M4**	$1.7458A^{2}$	$2.116A^{-2}E_{\gamma}^{-9}\times10^{5}$
E5	$0.06929A^{10/3}$	$2.893A^{-10/3}E_{\gamma}^{-11}\times10^{11}$	**M5**	$1.9247A^{8/3}$	$9.419A^{-8/3}E_{\gamma}^{-11}\times10^{11}$

Quadrupole Deformation



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

B(E2) ~ 200 W.U.

deformed nucleus

$$B(E2) = \frac{8.16\times10^{13}}{E_{\gamma}^{5}[keV]\tau_{\gamma}[ps]}[e^2b^2]$$

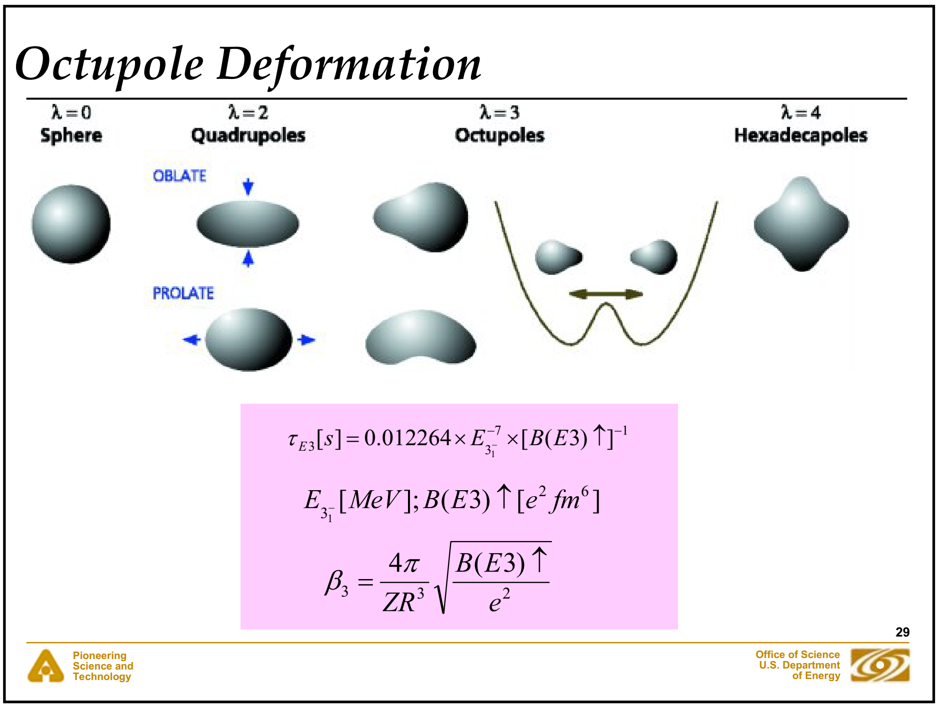
$$B(E2;KI_i \rightarrow KI_f) = \frac{5}{16\pi}Q_0^2\left\langle I_iK20\middle|I_fK\right\rangle^2$$

(from collective models)

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

$$\tau_{\gamma}[ps] = (1.58\pm0.28)\times10^{14}E_{2_1^+}^{-4}[keV]Z^{-2}A^{2/3}$$

$$\beta_2 = \frac{466\pm41}{A\times\sqrt{E_{2_1^+}[keV]}}$$

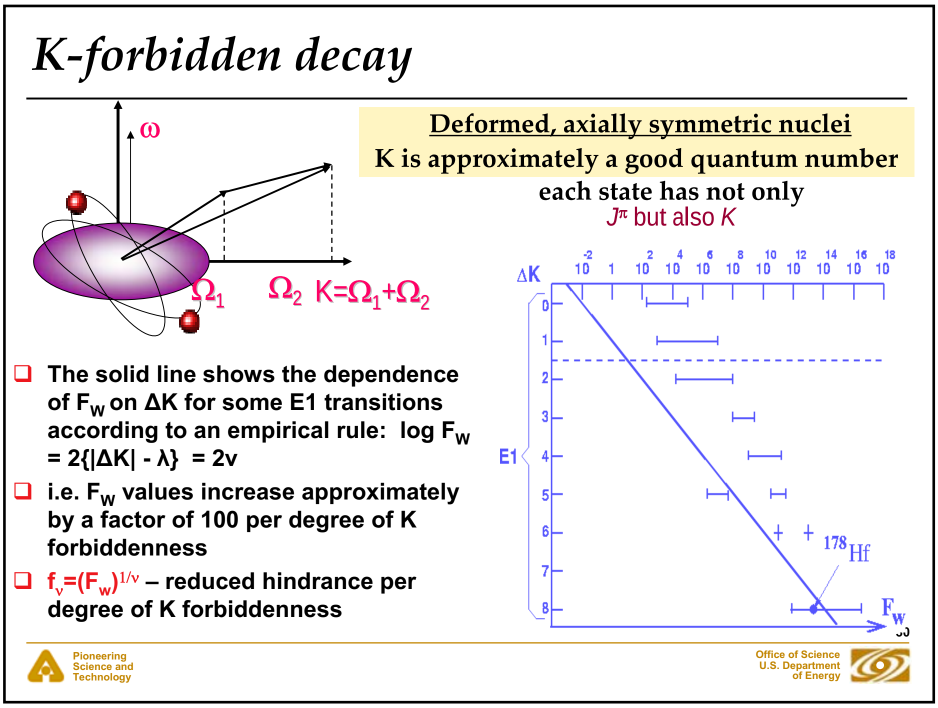


Octupole Deformation

$$\tau_{E3}[s] = 0.012264 \times E_{3_1^-}^{-7} \times [B(E3)\uparrow]^{-1}$$

$$E_{3_1^-}[MeV]; B(E3)\uparrow[e^2 fm^6]$$

$$\beta_3 = \frac{4\pi}{ZR^3}\sqrt{\frac{B(E3)\uparrow}{e^2}}$$



K-forbidden decay

Deformed, axially symmetric nuclei

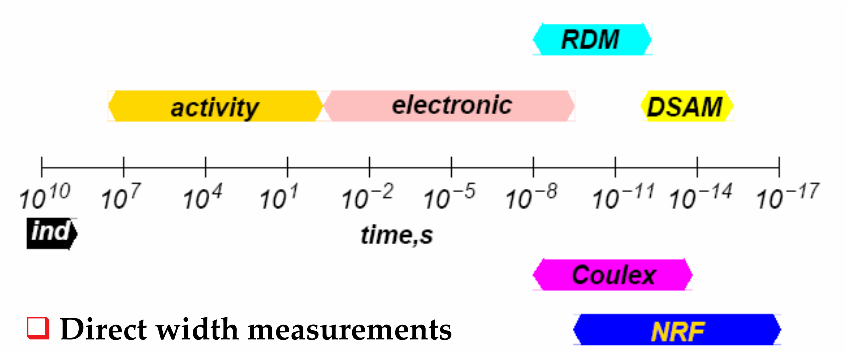
K is approximately a good quantum number

each state has not only

J$^\pi$ but also *K*

- **The solid line shows the dependence of F_W on ΔK for some E1 transitions according to an empirical rule: log F_W = 2{|ΔK| - λ} = 2v**
- **i.e. F_W values increase approximately by a factor of 100 per degree of K forbiddenness**
- **$f_v=(F_W)^{1/v}$ – reduced hindrance per degree of K forbiddenness**

Experimental techniques

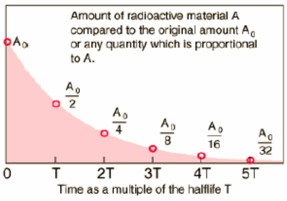


- **Direct width measurements**
- **Inelastic electron scattering**
- **Blocking technique**
- **Mossbauer technique**

Specific Activity

Time Range: a few seconds up to several years

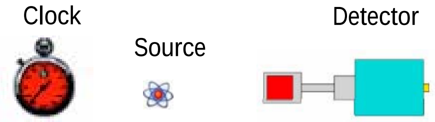
$$A = \lambda N = \lambda N_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

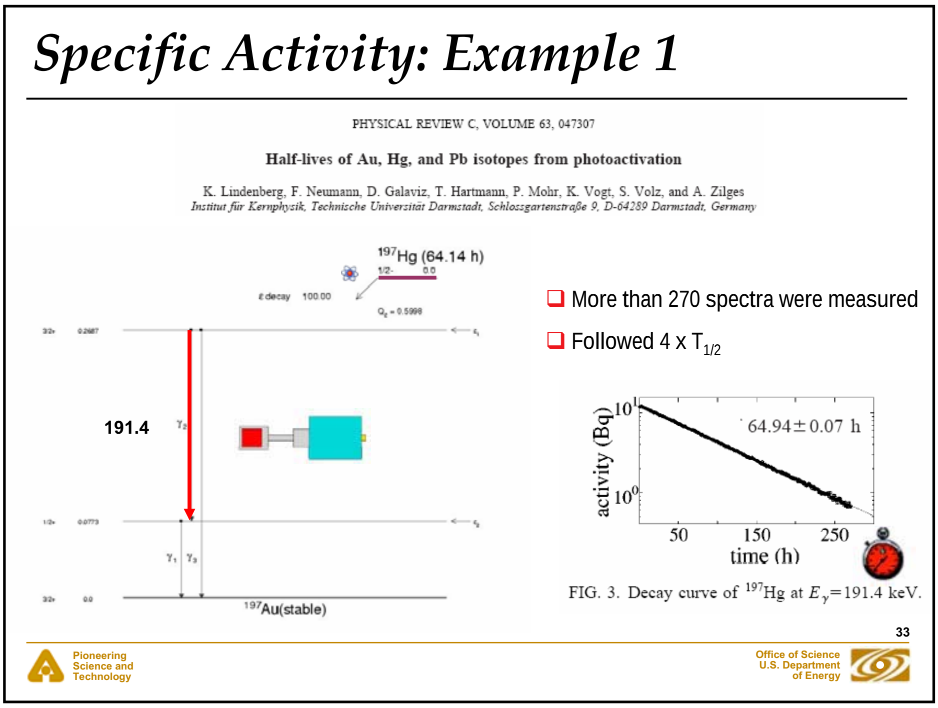


- Statistical uncertainties are usually small
- Systematic uncertainties (dead time, geometry, etc.) dominate

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

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





Specific Activity: Example 1

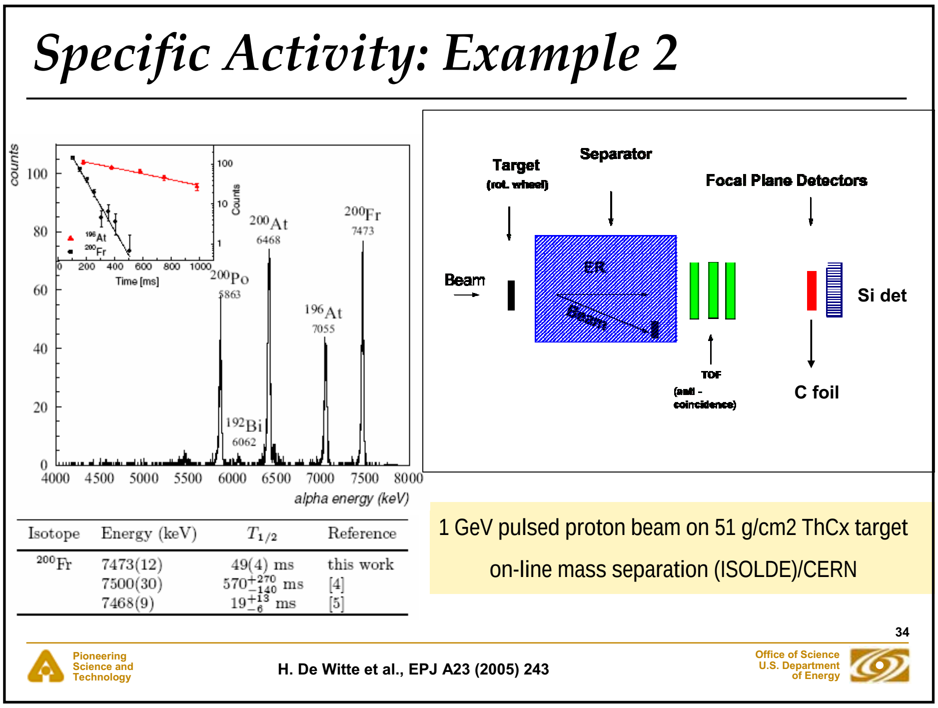
PHYSICAL REVIEW C, VOLUME 63, 047307

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 x $T_{1/2}$

FIG. 3. Decay curve of ^{197}Hg at $E_γ$=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

H. De Witte et al., EPJ A23 (2005) 243

Very long-lived cases – Example 1

Time Range: longer than 10^2 yr

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

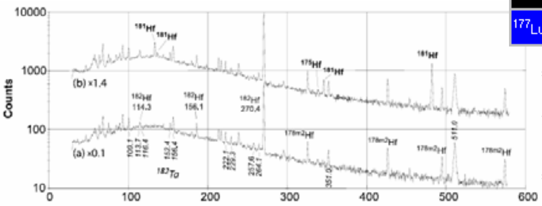
the number of atoms estimated by other means, e.g. mass spectrometry

VOLUME 93, NUMBER 17 PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS week ending 22 OCTOBER 2004

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

C. Vockenhuber,[1,*] F. Oberli,[2] M. Bichler,[3] I. 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. Helmer[6]

^{180}W	^{181}W	^{182}W	^{183}W	^{184}W	^{185}W	^{186}W
^{179}Ta	^{180}Ta	^{181}Ta	^{182}Ta	^{183}Ta	^{184}Ta	^{185}Ta
^{178}Hf	^{179}Hf	^{180}Hf	^{181}Hf	^{182}Hf	^{183}Hf	^{184}Hf
^{177}Lu	^{178}Lu	^{179}Lu	^{180}Lu	^{181}Lu	^{182}Lu	^{183}Lu



		Atomic abundance (%)					
Material	^{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	

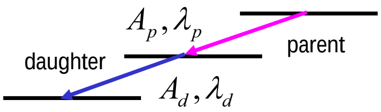
TABLE II. The half-life of ^{182}Hf from the two measurements. All uncertainties are 1σ uncertainties.

Material	Method	Half-life ($\times 10^6$ yr)	Uncorrelated uncertainty ($\times 10^6$ yr)	Total uncertainty ($\times 10^6$ yr)
Helmer 1	Neutron activation + activity measurement	9.034	±0.241	±0.251
Helmer 2	Isotope dilution + activity measurement	8.896	±0.057	±0.089
	Weighted mean	8.904	±0.056	±0.088

Very long-lived cases – Example 2

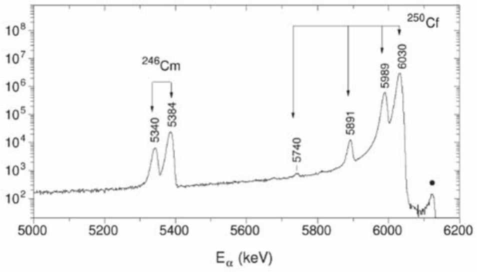
$$\frac{A_p(t)}{A_d(t)} = \frac{\lambda_d}{\lambda_d - \lambda_p}\left(1 - e^{-(\lambda_d - \lambda_p)t}\right)$$

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



$$^{250}Cf \xrightarrow[13\ y]{\alpha} {}^{246}Cm \xrightarrow[4747\ y]{\alpha} {}^{242}Pu \xrightarrow[510^5\ y]{\alpha}$$

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

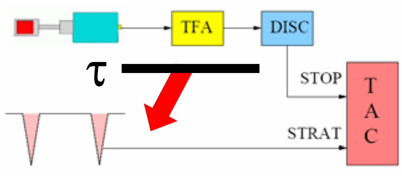


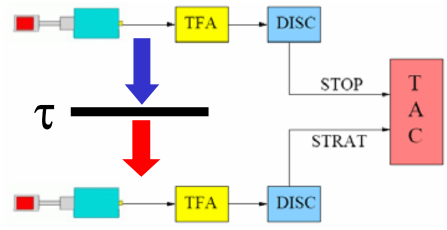
$T_{1/2}$ = 4747 (46) years / Compared to values ranging from $T_{1/2}$=2300 up to 6620 years

Electronic techniques

Time Range: tens of ps up to a few seconds

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





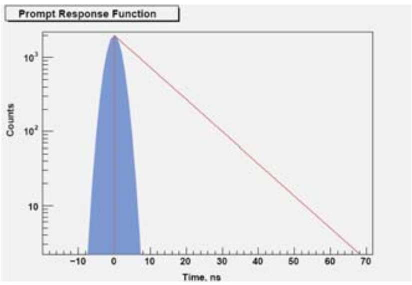
“singles” – E_γ-time, E_α-time

“coincidence” – $E_{\gamma1}$-$E_{\gamma2}$-Δt ; $E_{\alpha1}$-$E_{\gamma1}$-Δt
$E_{\alpha1}$-$E_{\alpha2}$-Δt

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

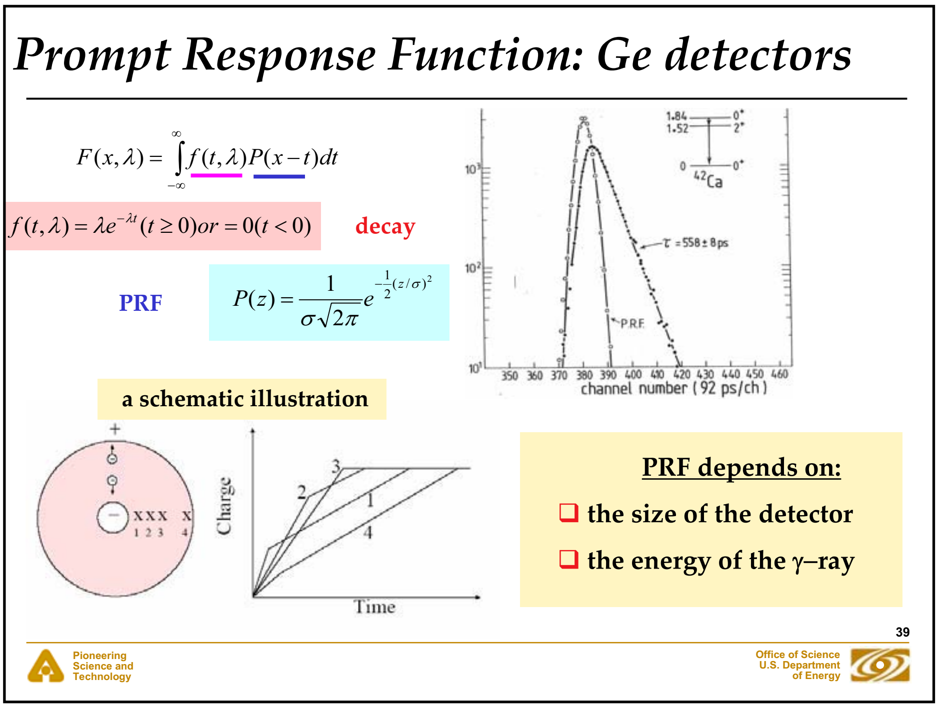
Prompt Response Function

- ❑ 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

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

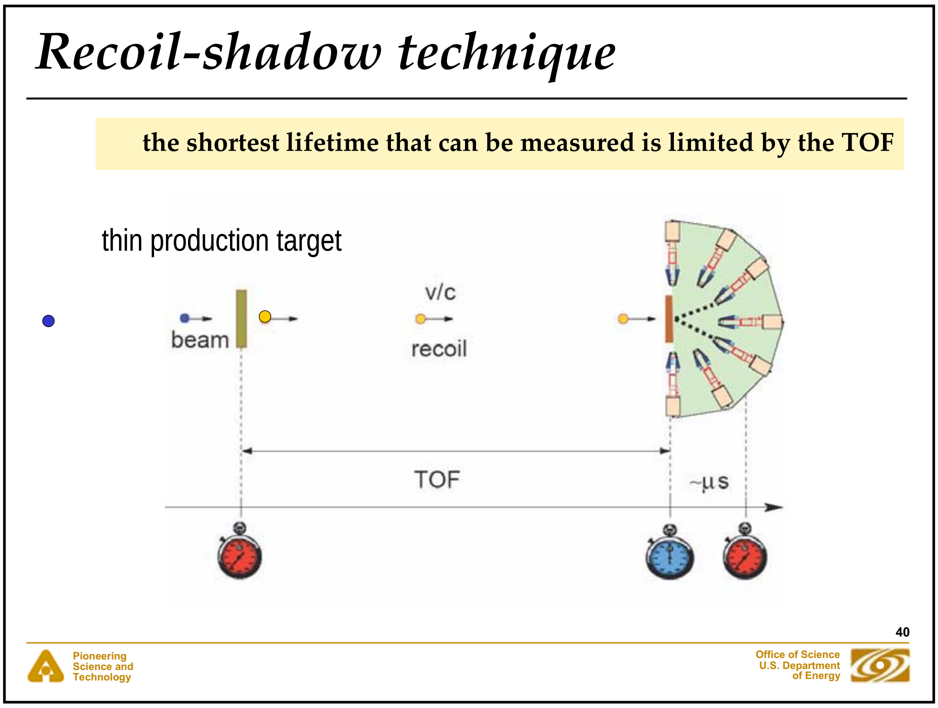
$f(t,\lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}(t \geq 0) or = 0 (t < 0)$ **decay**

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



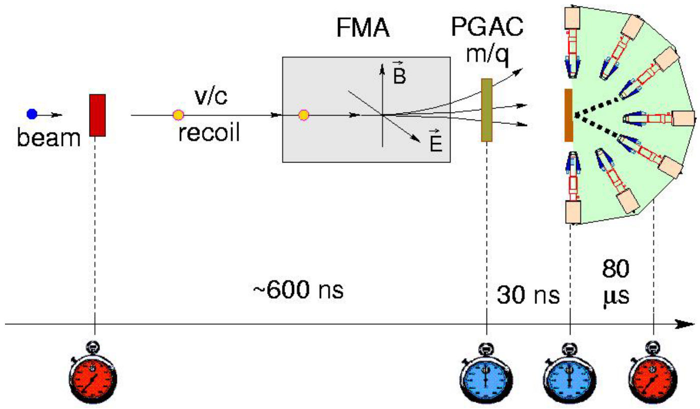
Recoil-shadow technique

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

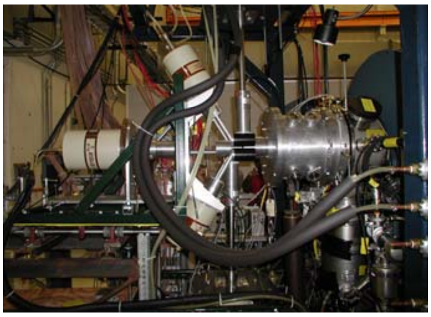
One example: ^{140}Dy experiment at ANL

^{54}Fe + ^{92}Mo @ 245 MeV

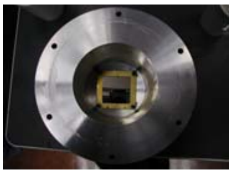
α2n channel, mass 140 only 5% from the total CS



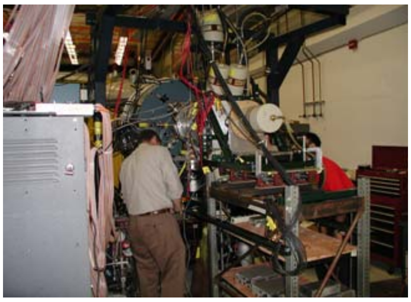
Some of the equipments used …

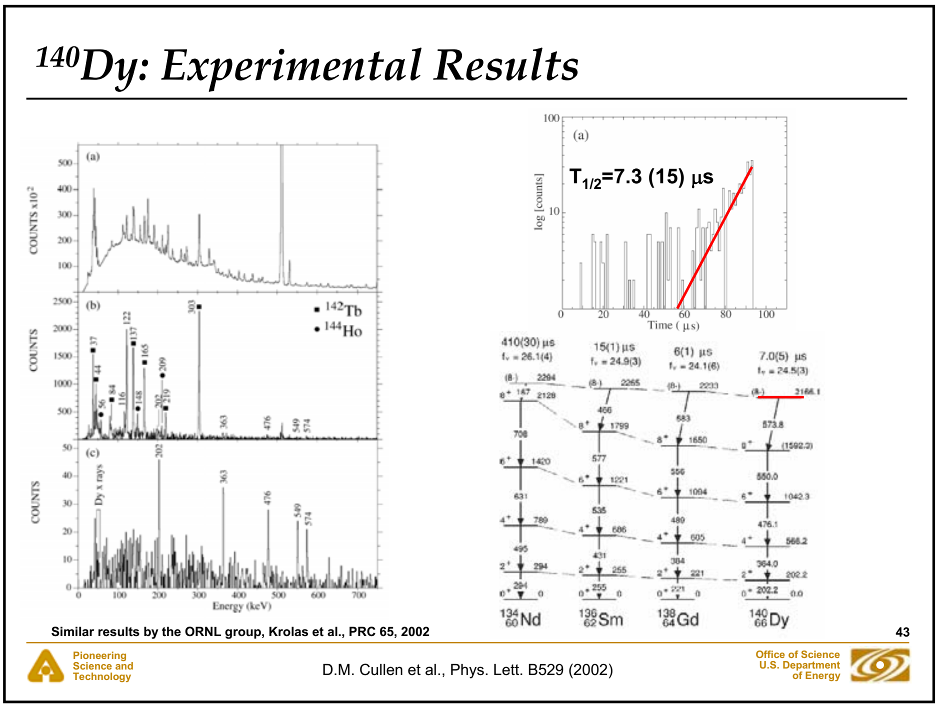


1 70% Gammasphere HpGe detector
4 25% Golf-club style HPGe detectors
2 LEPS detectors
1 2"x2" Large Area Si detector



2"x2" Si Detector





^{140}Dy: Experimental Results

Similar results by the ORNL group, Krolas et al., PRC 65, 2002

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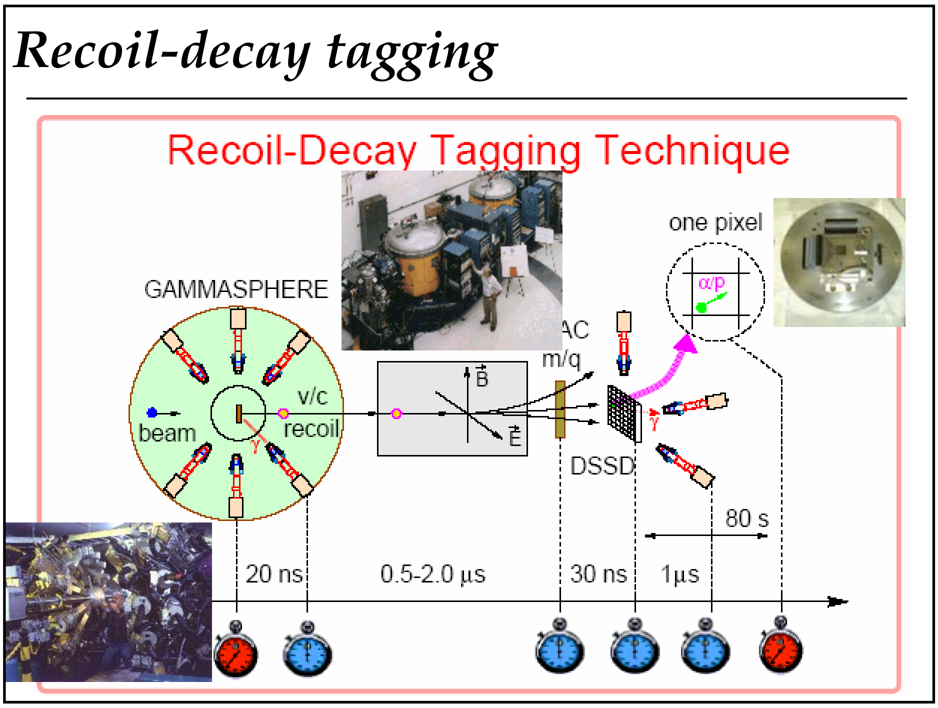
Pioneering Science and Technology

D.M. Cullen et al., Phys. Lett. B529 (2002)

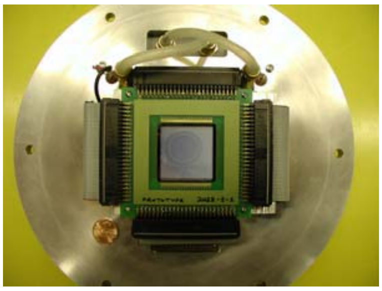
Office of Science U.S. Department of Energy



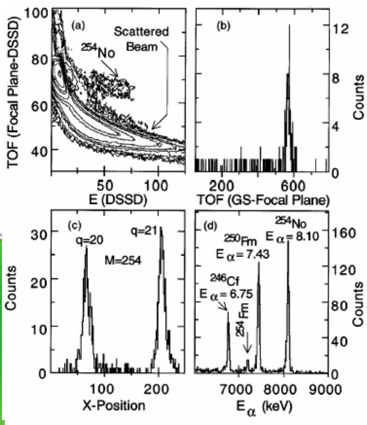
Recoil-decay tagging

Recoil-Decay Tagging Technique

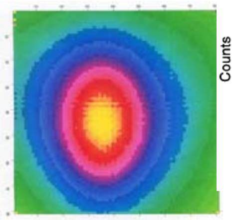
The Heart of RDT: the DSSD



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



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



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

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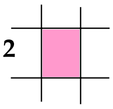
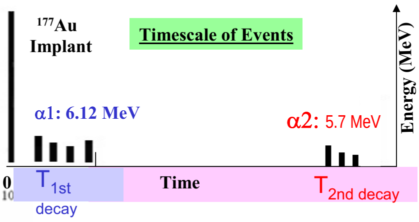
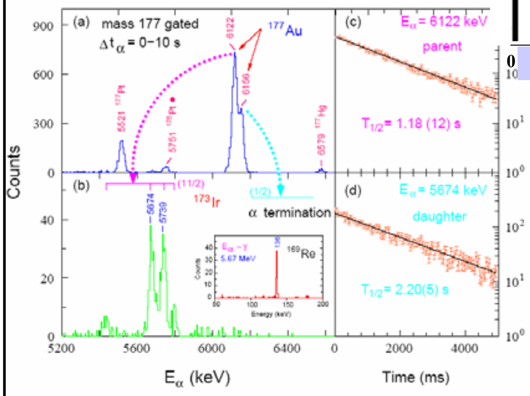
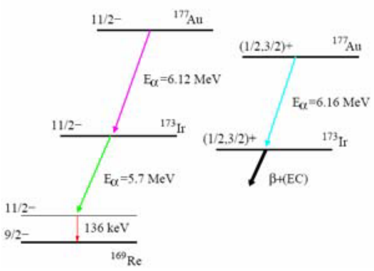
α–α (parent-daughter) correlations

Implantation->Decay 1->Decay 2 within a single pixel









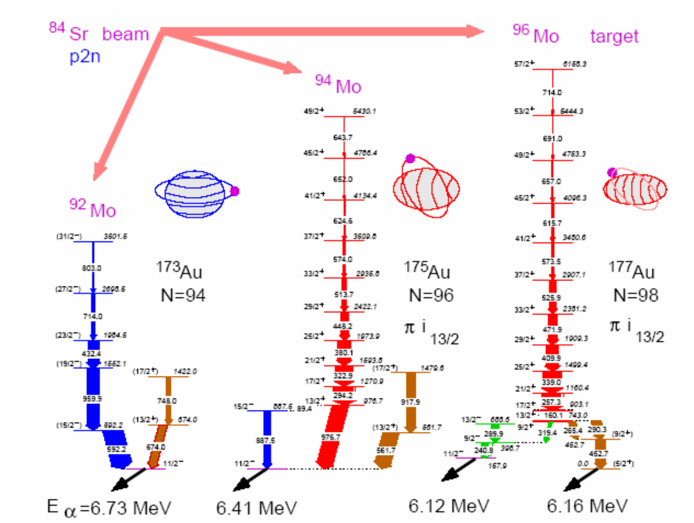
F.G. Kondev et al. Phys. Lett. B528 (2002) 221

Neutron deficient nuclei

Severe complications

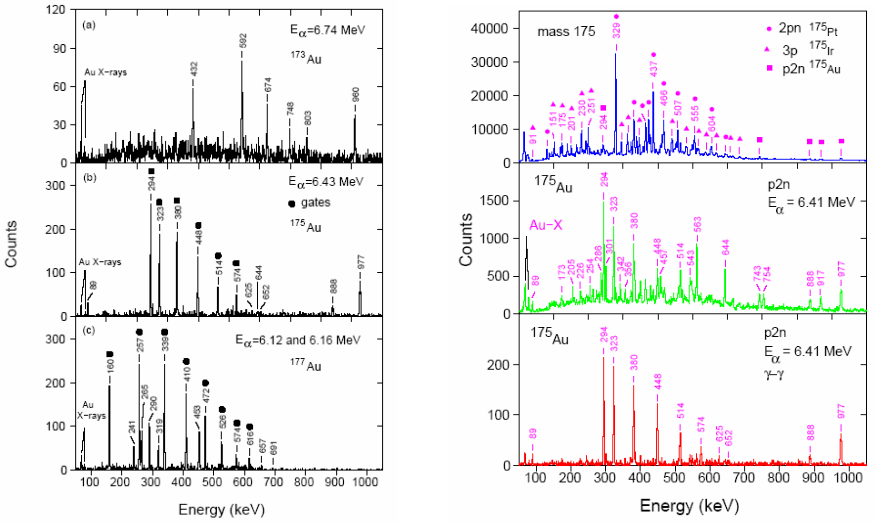
- Charged particle emission:
  - → The fusion-evaporation cross section is fragmented into many channels.
    - → It limits the absolute production.
- Fission process: *fissibility parameter* ~ Z^2/A
  - → Depletion of the high-*l* values.
    - → It limits the population of residues at high angular momentum.
  - → Huge, unwanted background.

Odd-Z Au (Z=79) isotopes

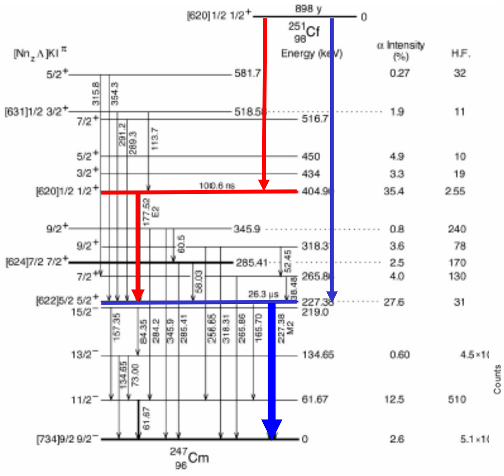


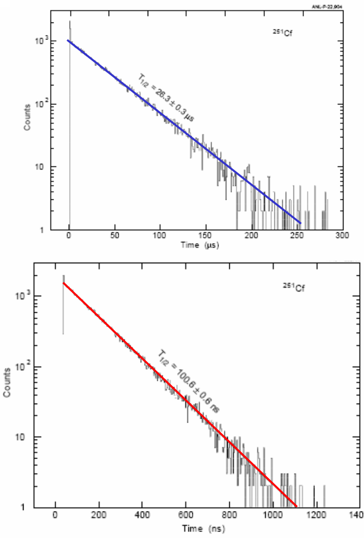
F.G. Kondev et al. Phys. Lett. B528 (2002) 221

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



α–γ correlations

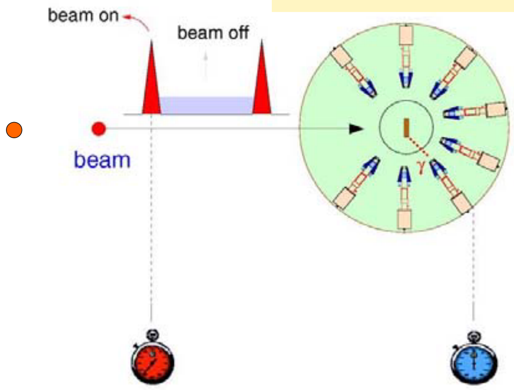




I. Ahmad et al., Phys. Rev. **C68** (2003) 044306

Pulsed beam technique

the shortest lifetime that can be measured is limited by the width of the pulsed beam



- ❑ **Less effective, but …**
  - ✓ **well defined "clock"**
  - ✓ **sensitive to in-beam and decay events**

- ❑ "singles": γ–time
- ❑ coincidence: γ–γ–time

the longest lifetime that can be measured is limited by the time interval between the beam pulses

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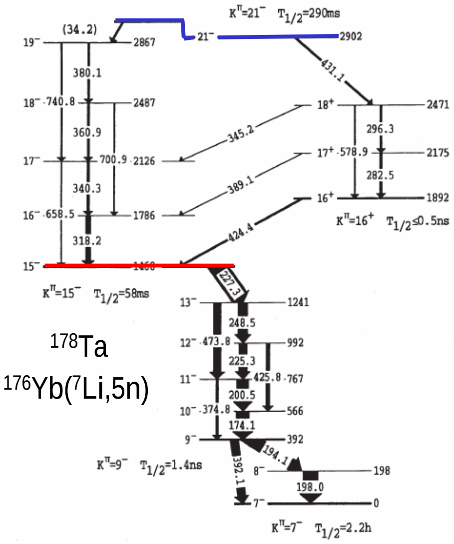
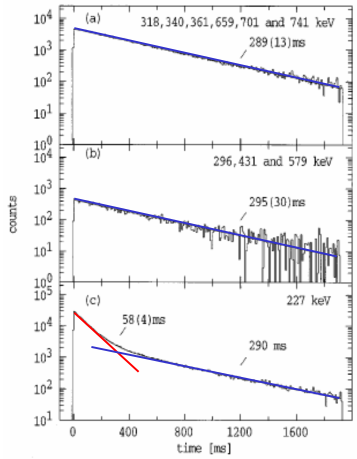
Pulsed beam: γ–time





reveals the time history of levels above the 58 ms isomer !

F.G. Kondev et al. Phys. Rev. C54 (1996) R459

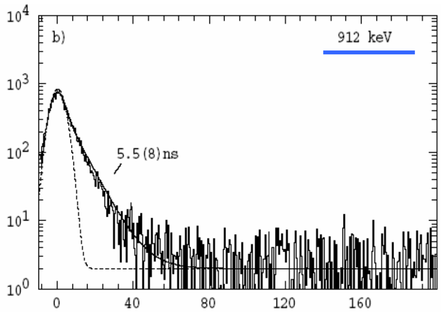
Pulsed beam: γ–time (short-lived)

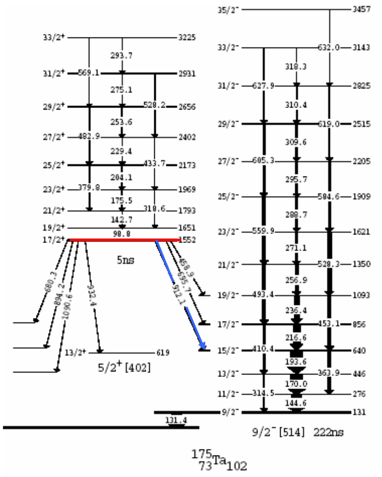
The importance of PRF

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

^{175}Ta

^{170}Er(^{10}B,5n)

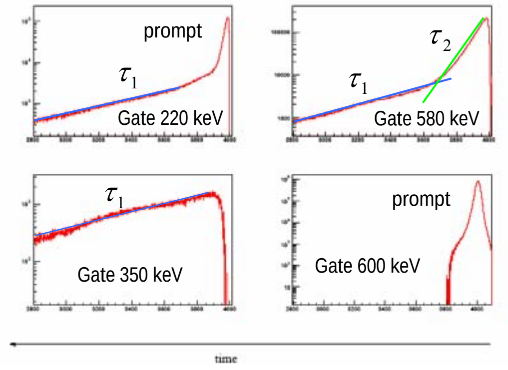


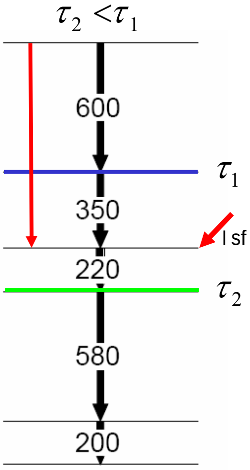


F.G. Kondev et al. Nucl. Phys. A601 (1996) 195

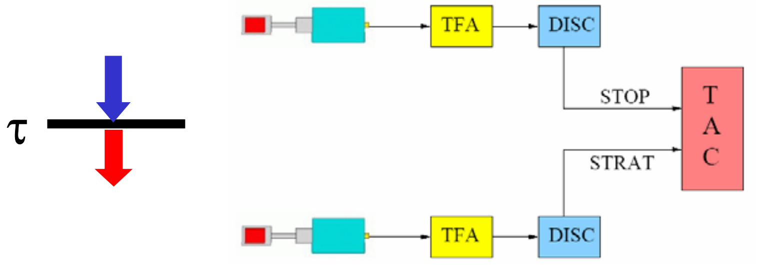
Limitations: Pulsed beam γ–time

- ☐ 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





Pulsed beam: γ–γ–time technique



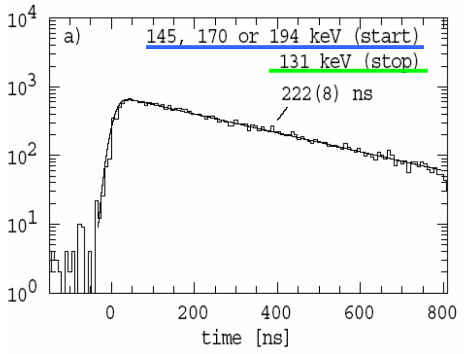
"coincidence" – $E_{\gamma1}$-$E_{\gamma2}$-Δt ; $E_{\alpha1}$-$E_{\gamma1}$-Δt

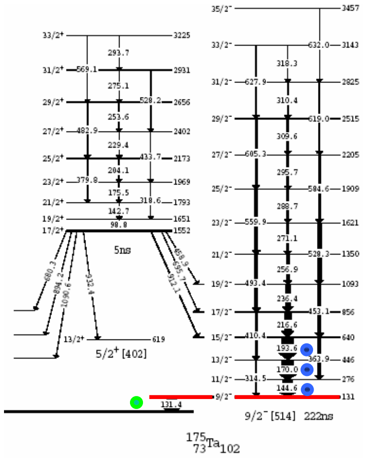
$E_{\alpha1}$-$E_{\alpha2}$-Δt

γ–γ–time: decay of the 9/2- isomer in ^{175}Ta

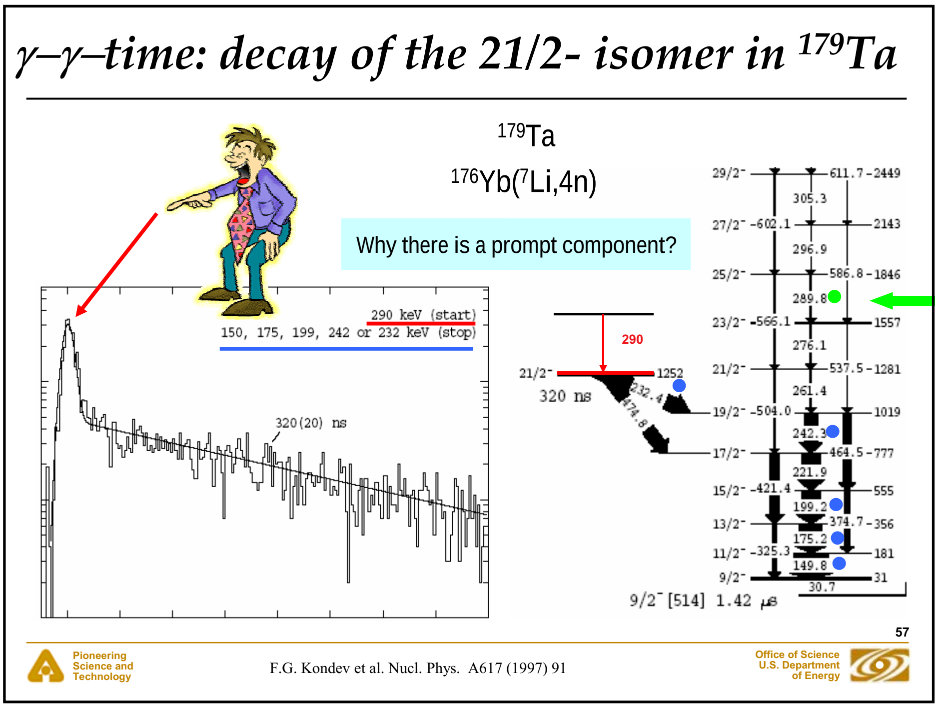
^{175}Ta

^{170}Er(^{10}B,5n)





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



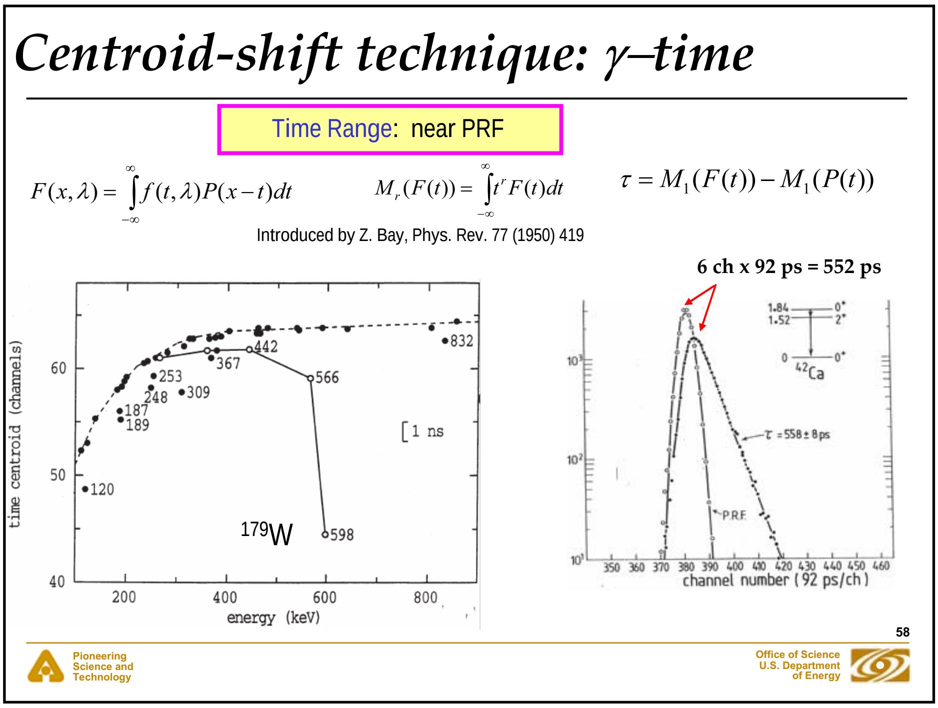
γ–γ–time: decay of the 21/2- isomer in ^{179}Ta

^{179}Ta

^{176}Yb(^{7}Li,4n)

Why there is a prompt component?

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



Centroid-shift technique: γ–time

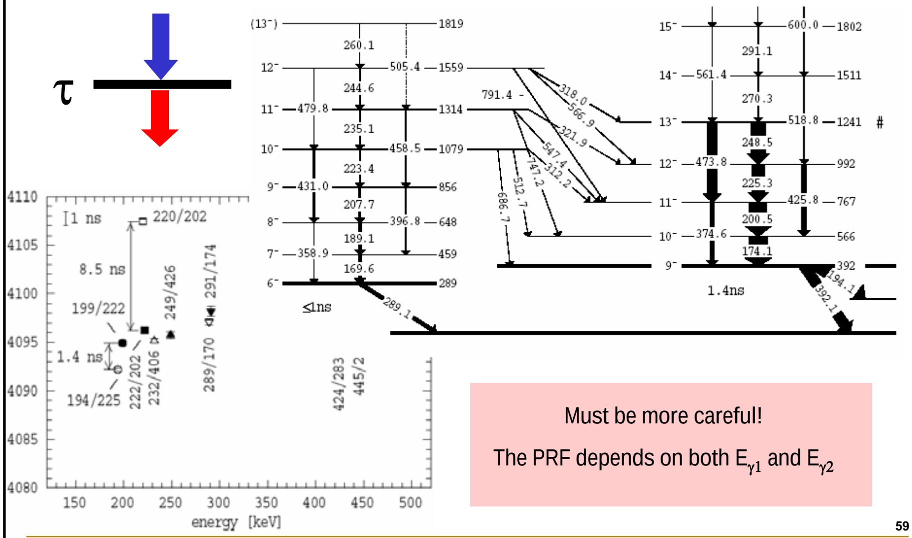
Time Range: near PRF

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

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

6 ch x 92 ps = 552 ps

Centroid-shift technique: γ–γ–time



Must be more careful!

The PRF depends on both $E_{\gamma 1}$ and $E_{\gamma 2}$

F.G. Kondev et al. Nucl. Phys. A632 (1998) 473

Coulomb excitations

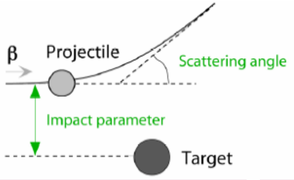
Time Range: up to hundreds of ps

$$E < V_{cb}$$

$$\eta = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{\hbar v} >> 1$$

^{19}F(1 MeV) on ^{238}U η~1.6

^{40}Ar(152 MeV) on ^{238}U η~130



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,↑)
- Energy of excited state

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

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

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

Intermediate energy Coulomb excitations

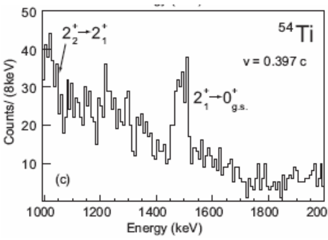
Primary beam: ^{76}Ge @ 130 MeV/nucl.
Secondary beam: ^{54}Ti @ 88 MeV/nucl.
β=0.406
^{197}Au target thickness: 257.67 mg/cm^2
Θ_{max} = 3.20° (CM)
Number of ^{54}Ti particles detected: 91.665E6

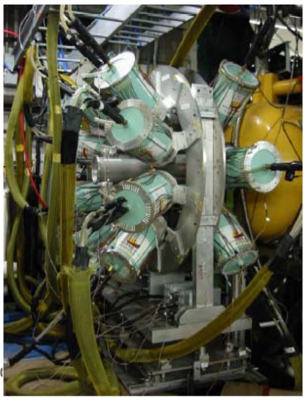
Measured for ^{54}Ti
- E_γ = 1497(4) keV
- $\sigma(\theta<\Theta_{max})$ = 83(15) mb
- B(E2, ↑) = 357(63) e^2fm^4

$\tau = 1.5(3)\, ps$

SeGA

(**Se**gmented **G**ermanium **A**rray)—Eighteen 32-fold segmented HP germanium detectors

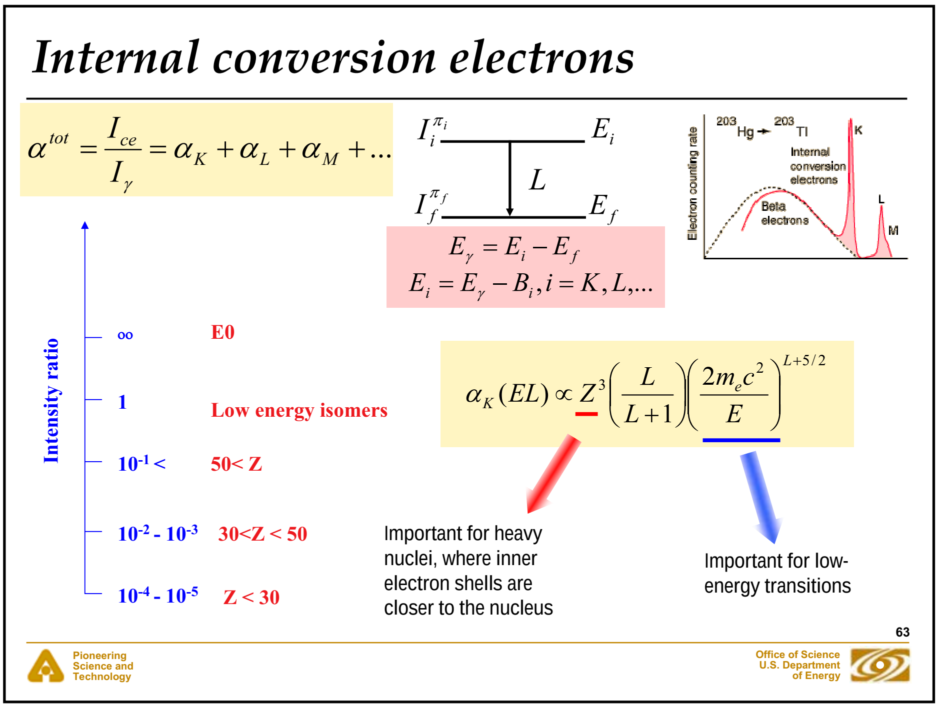




Deduction of Transition Multipolarity

Basic techniques

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



Internal conversion electrons

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

$$\begin{tikzcd} I_i^{\pi_i} \arrow[d, "L"] & E_i \\ I_f^{\pi_f} & E_f \end{tikzcd}$$

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

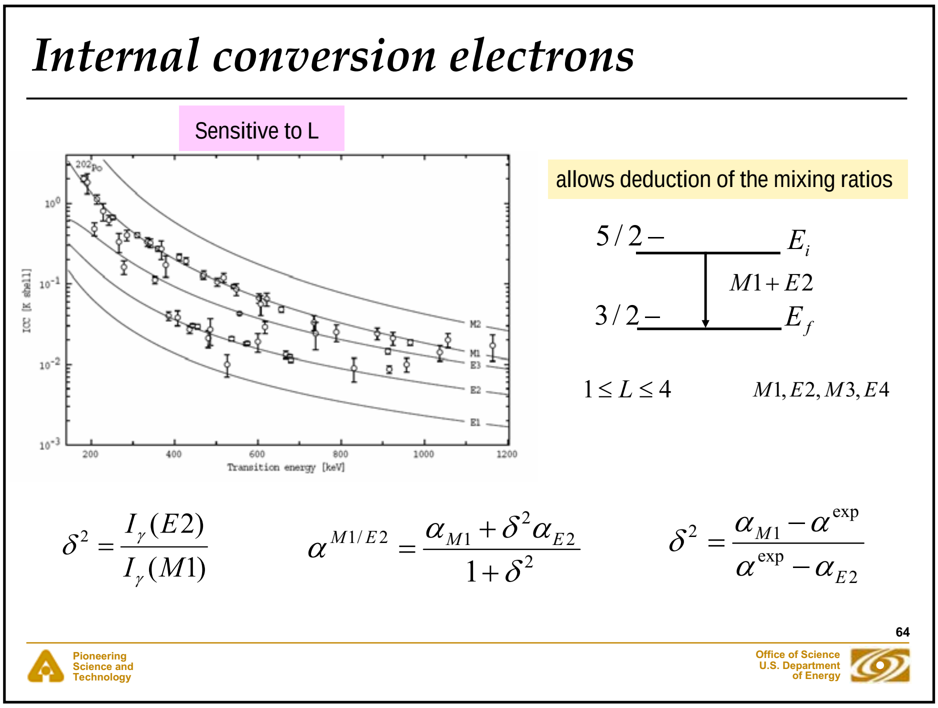
Intensity ratio

- oo — E0
- 1 — Low energy isomers
- 10^{-1} < — 50< Z
- 10^{-2} - 10^{-3} — 30<Z < 50
- 10^{-4} - 10^{-5} — Z < 30

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

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

Important for low-energy transitions



Internal conversion electrons

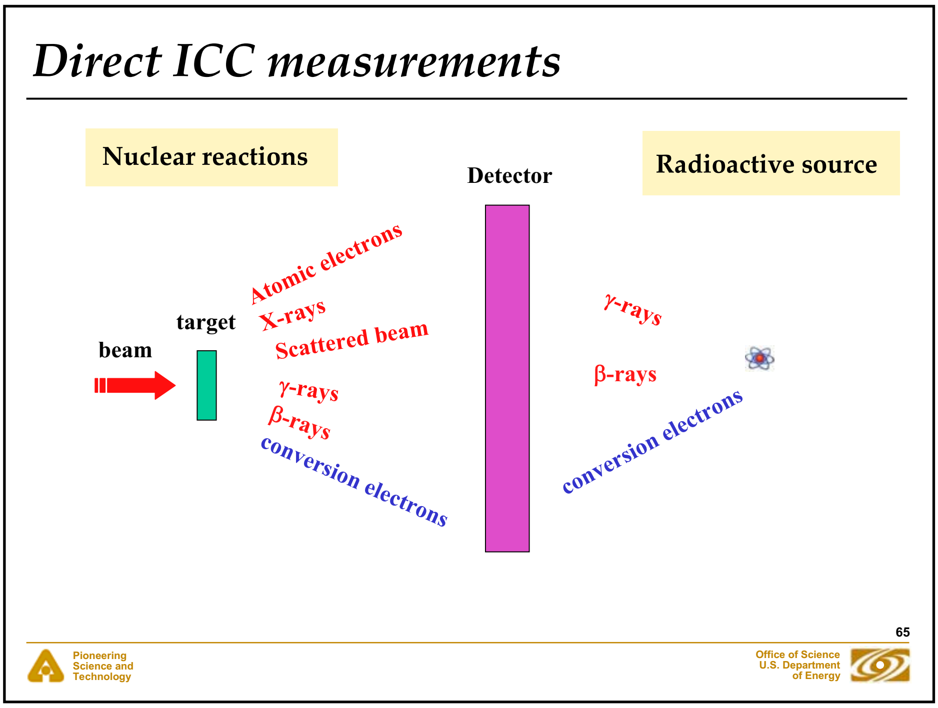
Sensitive to L

allows deduction of the mixing ratios

$$\begin{tikzcd} 5/2- \arrow[d, "M1+E2"] & E_i \\ 3/2- & E_f \end{tikzcd}$$

$1 \le L \le 4$ $M1, E2, M3, E4$

$$\delta^2 = \frac{I_\gamma(E2)}{I_\gamma(M1)} \qquad \alpha^{M1/E2} = \frac{\alpha_{M1} + \delta^2 \alpha_{E2}}{1+\delta^2} \qquad \delta^2 = \frac{\alpha_{M1} - \alpha^{\exp}}{\alpha^{\exp} - \alpha_{E2}}$$



Direct ICC measurements

Nuclear reactions

Detector

Radioactive source

beam

target

Atomic electrons

X-rays

Scattered beam

γ-rays

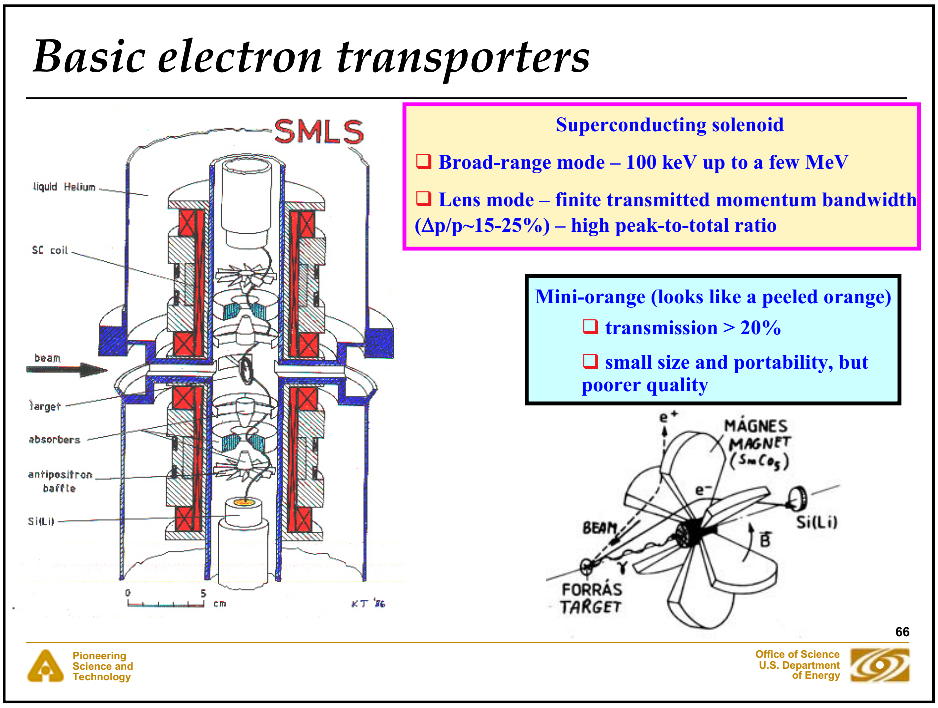
β-rays

conversion electrons

γ-rays

β-rays

conversion electrons



Basic electron transporters

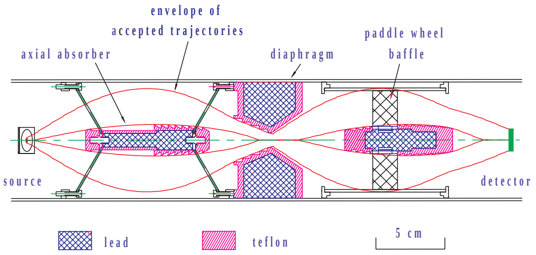
Superconducting solenoid

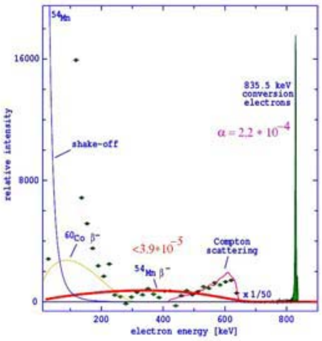
- ❑ **Broad-range mode – 100 keV up to a few MeV**
- ❑ **Lens mode – finite transmitted momentum bandwidth ($\Delta p/p$~15-25%) – high peak-to-total ratio**

Mini-orange (looks like a peeled orange)

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

Superconducting Solenoid Spectrometer





Conversion electron measurements

$\alpha_K(431) = 0.056(7)$

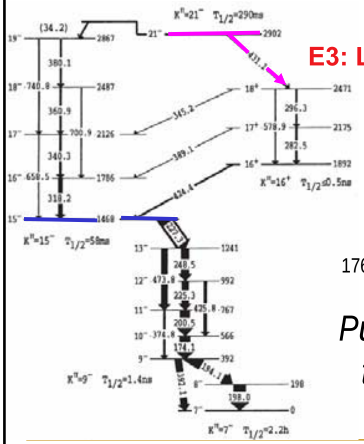
$\alpha_L(431) = 0.033(4)$

$\frac{K}{L}(431) = 1.7(2)$

$\alpha_K^{th}(431) = 0.008(E1);0.022(E2);0.058(E3);0.067(M1);0.21(M2)$

$\alpha_L^{th}(431) = 0.001(E1);0.006(E2);0.032(E3);0.010(M1);0.040(M2)$

$\frac{K}{L}(431) = 6.7(E1);3.9(E2);1.9(E3);6.5(M1);5.2(M2)$

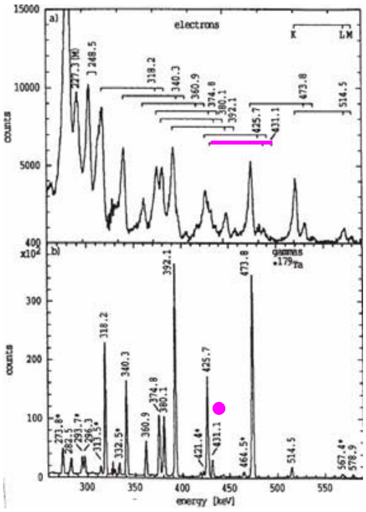


E3: L=3, π=yes

^{178}Ta

^{176}Yb(^{7}Li,5n)

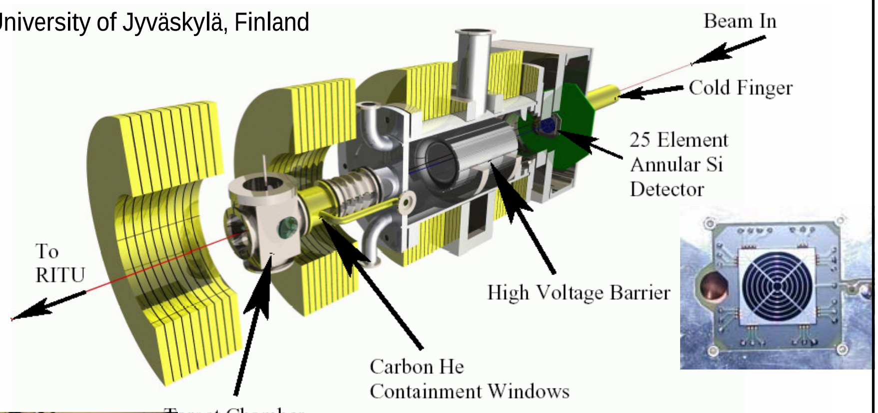
Pulsed-beam technique

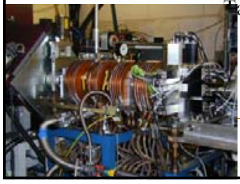


F.G. Kondev et al. Nucl. Phys. A632 (1998) 473

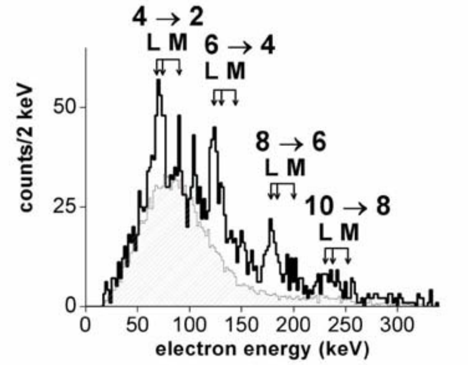
The SACRED Electron Spectrometer

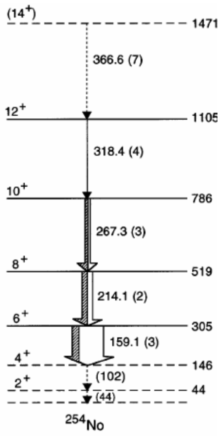
University of Jyväskylä, Finland



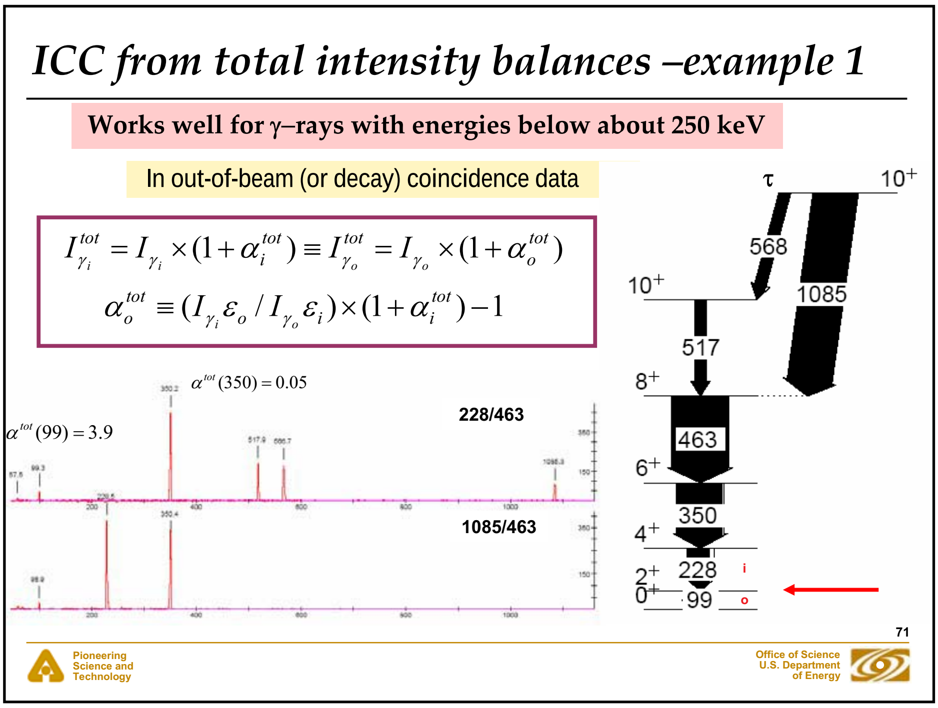


Recoil-gated CE spectrum from $^{208}Pb(^{48}Ca,2n)^{254}No$





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



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

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

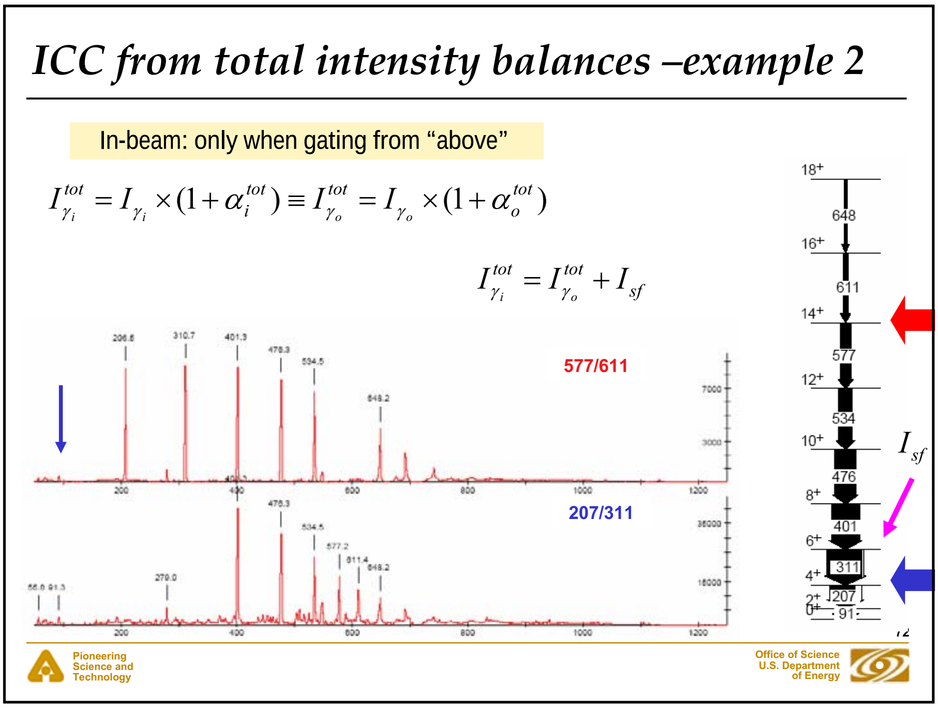
$$\alpha_o^{tot} \equiv (I_{\gamma_i}\varepsilon_o / I_{\gamma_o}\varepsilon_i)\times(1+\alpha_i^{tot})-1$$

$\alpha^{tot}(350) = 0.05$

$\alpha^{tot}(99) = 3.9$

228/463

1085/463



ICC from total intensity balances –example 2

In-beam: only when gating from “above”

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

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

577/611

207/311

I_{sf}

Angular Distributions

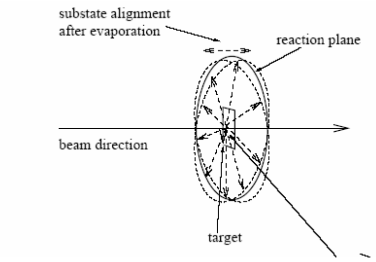
The gamma-rays emitted from nuclear reactions exhibit angular distributions:

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

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

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

$$\rho_k(J) = \sqrt{(2J+1)} \times \sum_m (-1)^{J-m} < J, m, J-m \mid k0 > P_m(J)$$

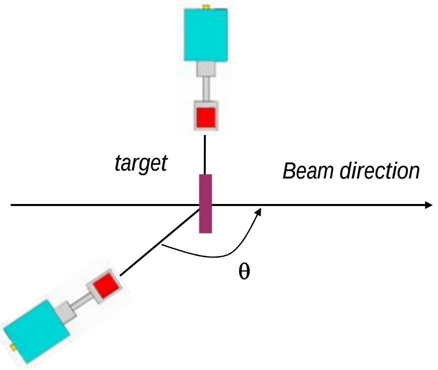


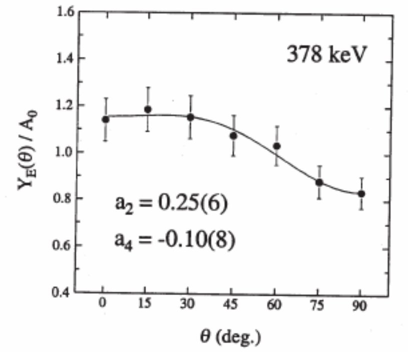
The orientation of the nucleus will be slightly attenuated by the emission of evaporated particles (n,p,α) and γ–rays.

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

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!

How to determine the mixing ratios?

I) <u>If both A2 and A4 have been measured – see</u>

E. Der Mateosian and A.W. Sunyar, ADNDT 13 (1974) 407

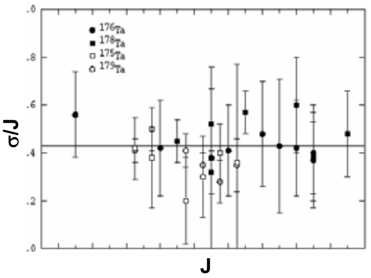
II) <u>If only A2 has been measured (A4~0)</u>

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

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

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

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



2) For a given transition determine:

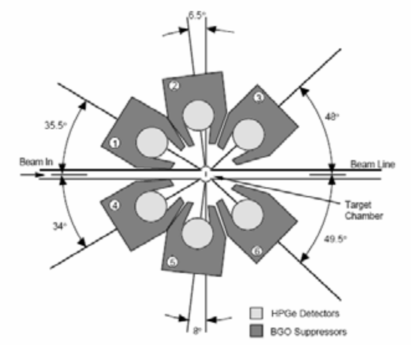
$$A_2^{\max} = A_2^{\exp} / \alpha_2$$

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

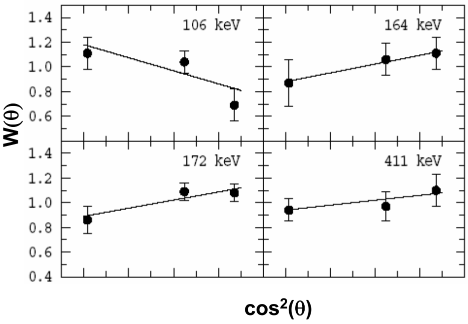
Angular Distributions: Example 1

^{175}Ta

^{170}Er(^{10}B,5n)@64 MeV

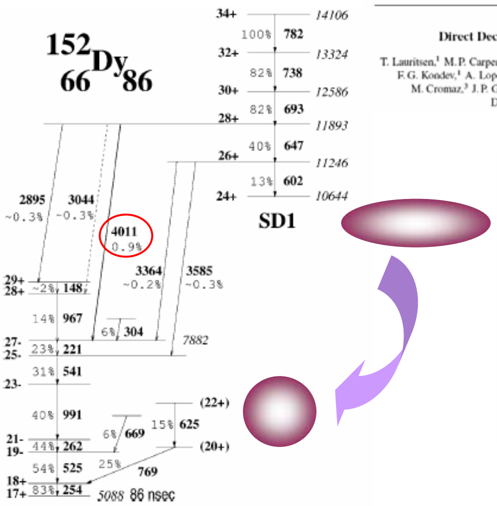


CAESAR array/Canberra (AUS)



172γ: δ**(AD)=0.44 -13+17;** δ**(RM)=0.54 -/+5**

Angular Distributions: Example 2



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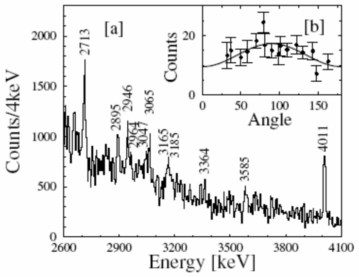
Direct Decay from the Superdeformed Band to the Yrast Line in $^{152}_{66}Dy_{86}$

T. Lauritsen,[1] M. P. Carpenter,[1] T. Døssing,[2] P. Fallon,[3] B. Herskind,[2] R. V. F. Janssens,[1] D. G. Jenkins,[1] T. L. Khoo,[1] F. G. Kondev,[1] A. Lopez-Martens,[4] A. O. Macchiavelli,[3] D. Ward,[3] K. S. Abu Saleem,[1] I. Ahmad,[1] R. Clark,[3] M. Cromaz,[3] 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,[1] R. C. Vondrasek,[1] and I. Wiedenhöver[1,6]



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