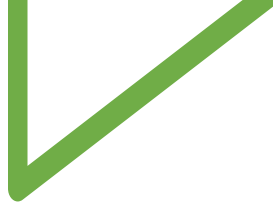
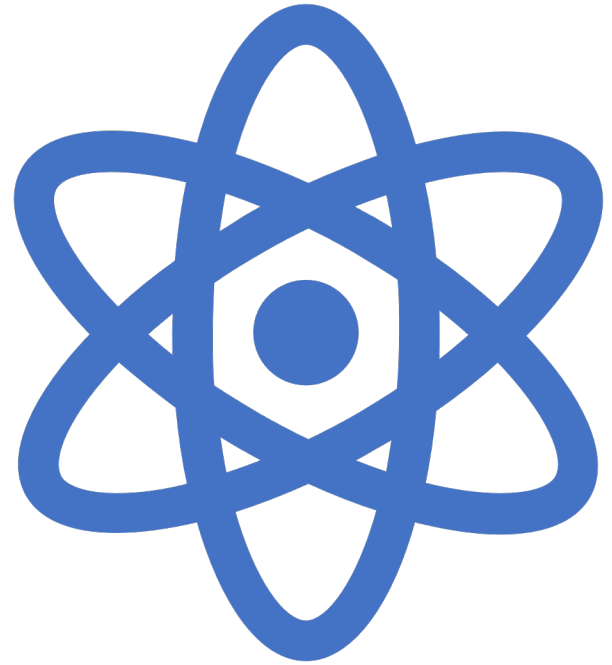
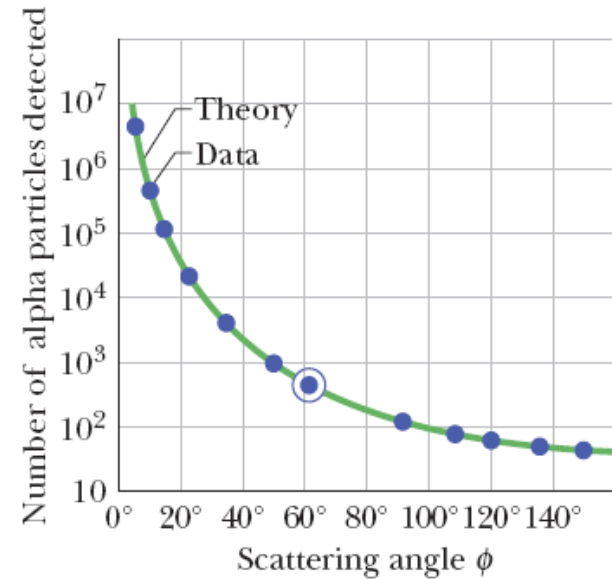
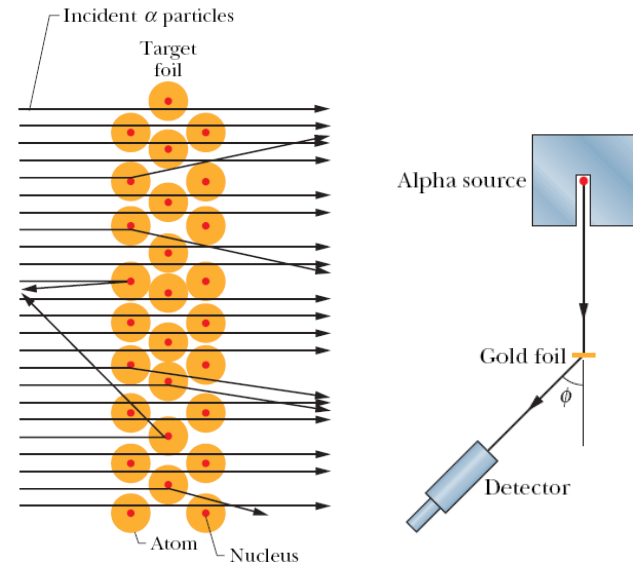


# **Nuclear Energy**



# Discovery of the Nucleus

In 1911 Ernest Rutherford proposed that the positive charge of the atom is densely concentrated at the center of the atom, forming its **nucleus**, and that, furthermore, the nucleus is responsible for most of the mass of the atom.



# Some Nuclear Properties

Nuclei are made up of protons and neutrons. The number of protons in a nucleus is called the **atomic number of the nucleus**, and is represented by the symbol **Z**; the number of neutrons is the **neutron number**, and is represented by the symbol **N**.

The total number of neutrons and protons in a nucleus is called its **mass number A**. Neutrons and protons, when considered collectively, are called **nucleons**.

Some Properties of Selected Nuclides

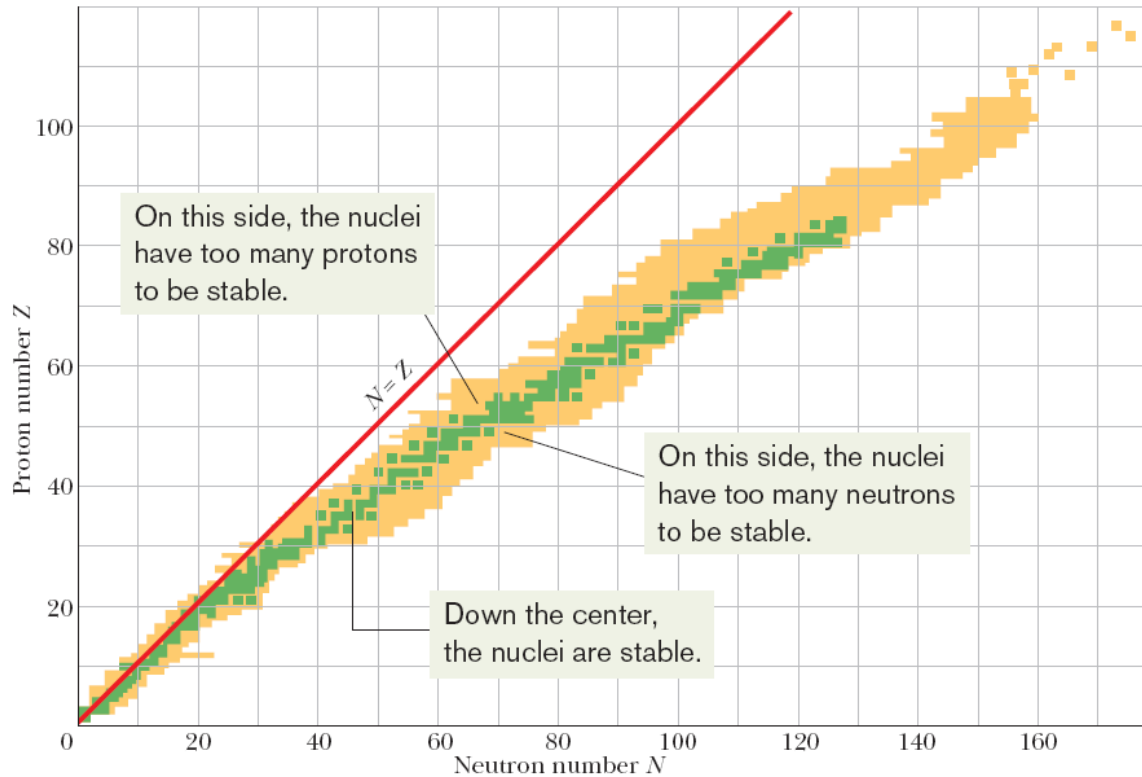
Nuclide	Z	N	A	Stability <sup>a</sup>	Mass <sup>b</sup> (u)	Spin <sup>c</sup>	Binding Energy (MeV/nucleon)
<sup>1</sup> H	1	0	1	99.985%	1.007 825	$\frac{1}{2}$	—
<sup>7</sup> Li	3	4	7	92.5%	7.016 004	$\frac{3}{2}$	5.60
<sup>31</sup> P	15	16	31	100%	30.973 762	$\frac{1}{2}$	8.48
<sup>84</sup> Kr	36	48	84	57.0%	83.911 507	0	8.72
<sup>120</sup> Sn	50	70	120	32.4%	119.902 197	0	8.51
<sup>157</sup> Gd	64	93	157	15.7%	156.923 957	$\frac{3}{2}$	8.21
<sup>197</sup> Au	79	118	197	100%	196.966 552	$\frac{3}{2}$	7.91
<sup>227</sup> Ac	89	138	227	21.8 y	227.027 747	$\frac{3}{2}$	7.65
<sup>239</sup> Pu	94	145	239	24 100 y	239.052 157	$\frac{1}{2}$	7.56

<sup>a</sup>For stable nuclides, the **isotopic abundance** is given; this is the fraction of atoms of this type found in a typical sample of the element. For radioactive nuclides, the half-life is given.

<sup>b</sup>Following standard practice, the reported mass is that of the neutral atom, not that of the bare nucleus.

<sup>c</sup>Spin angular momentum in units of  $\hbar$ .

# Some Nuclear Properties



# *Some Nuclear Properties*

- The nucleus, like the atom, is not a solid object with a well-defined surface.
- Although most nuclides are spherical, some are notably ellipsoidal.
- Electron-scattering experiments (as well as experiments of other kinds) allow us to assign to each nuclide an effective radius given by the equation to the right, where  $A$  is the mass number and  $r_0 = 1.2 \text{ fm}$ .

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

# Some Nuclear Properties

- Atomic masses are often reported in *atomic mass units*, a system in which the atomic mass of neutral  $^{12}\text{C}$  is defined to be exactly 12 u, where  $1 \text{ u} = 1.660\,538\,86 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$ .
- The mass number  $A$  of a nuclide gives such an approximate mass in atomic mass units. For example, the approximate mass of both the nucleus and the neutral atom for  $^{197}\text{Au}$  is 197 u, which is close to the actual atomic mass of 196.966 552 u.
- If the total mass of the participants in a nuclear reaction changes by an amount  $\Delta m$ , there is an energy release or absorption given by  $Q=mc^2$ .
- The atom's *mass excess*,  $\Delta$ , is defined by the equation on the right.
- Here,  $M$  is the actual mass of the atom in atomic units, and  $A$  is the mass number for that atom's nucleus.


$$\Delta = M - A$$

# Example Problem

Using the table below determine the effective radius and mass excess for hydrogen (H), krypton (Kr), and silver (Au).

Nuclide	$Z$	$N$	$A$	Stability <sup>a</sup>	Mass <sup>b</sup> (u)
<sup>1</sup> H	1	0	1	99.985%	1.007 825
<sup>7</sup> Li	3	4	7	92.5%	7.016 004
<sup>31</sup> P	15	16	31	100%	30.973 762
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<sup>239</sup> Pu	94	145	239	24 100 y	239.052 157

# Example Problem

Using the table below determine the effective radius and mass excess for hydrogen (H), krypton (Kr), and silver (Au).

Remember that

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

$$\Delta = M - A$$

For hydrogen:

$$r = (1.2 \times 10^{-15}) * (1)^{1/3} = 1.2 \times 10^{-15}$$

$$\Delta = 1.007825 - 1 = 0.007825$$

Nuclide	Z	N	A	Stability <sup>a</sup>	Mass <sup>b</sup> (u)
<sup>1</sup> H	1	0	1	99.985%	1.007 825
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<sup>239</sup> Pu	94	145	239	24 100 y	239.052 157



# Example Problem

Using the table below determine the effective radius and mass excess for hydrogen (H), krypton (Kr), and gold (Au).

Remember that

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

$$\Delta = M - A$$

For hydrogen:

$$r = (1.2 \times 10^{-15}) * (1)^{1/3} = 1.2 \times 10^{-15}$$

$$\Delta = 1.007825 - 1 = 0.007825$$

For krypton:

$$r = (1.2 \times 10^{-15}) * (84)^{1/3} = 5.26 \times 10^{-15}$$

$$\Delta = 83.911507 - 84 = -0.088493$$

For gold:

$$r = (1.2 \times 10^{-15}) * (197)^{1/3} = 6.98 \times 10^{-15}$$

$$\Delta = 196.966552 - 197 = -0.033448$$

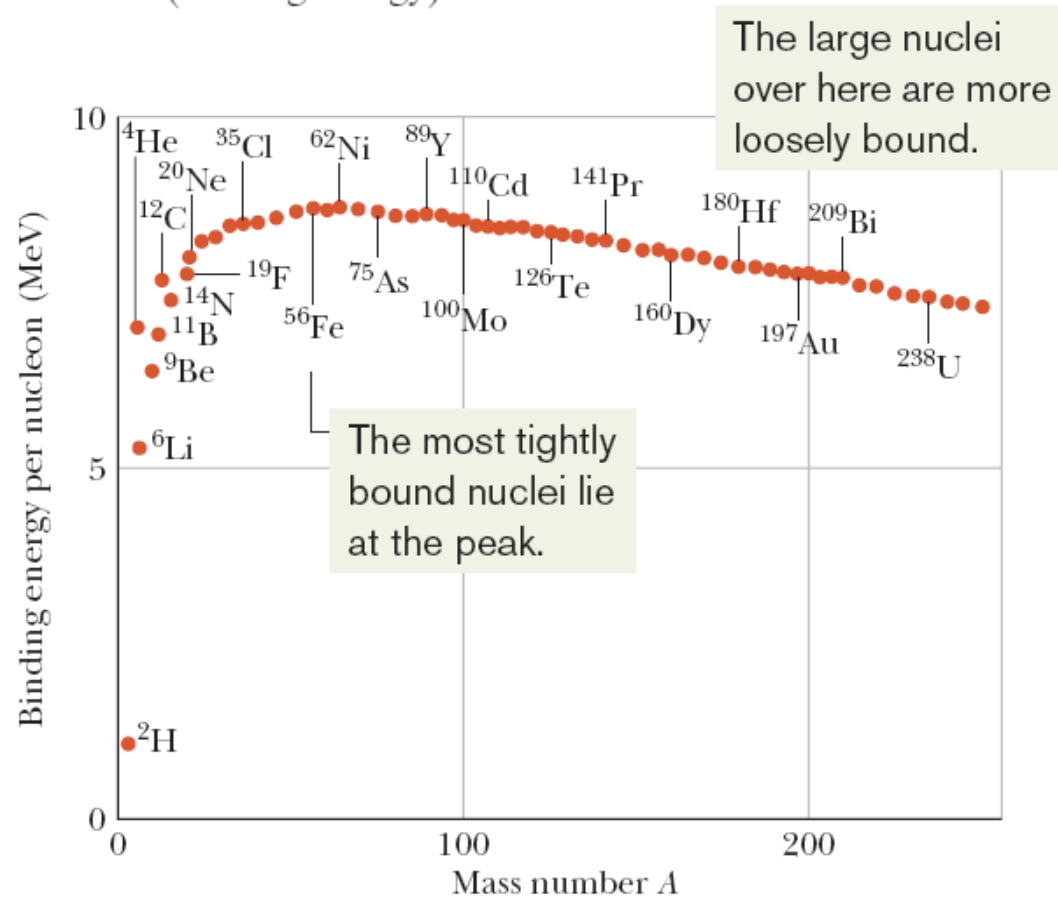
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# Nuclear Binding Energy

$$\Delta E_{\text{be}} = \Sigma(mc^2) - Mc^2 \quad (\text{binding energy}).$$

If the nucleus splits into two nuclei, the process is called **fission**, and occurs naturally with large high mass number nuclei.

If a pair of nuclei were to combine to form a single nucleus, the process is called **fusion**, and occurs naturally in stars.



# Radioactive Decay



There is absolutely no way to predict whether any given nucleus in a radioactive sample will be among the small number of nuclei that decay during the next second. All have the same chance.

The decay rate is defined as,

$$R = R_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad (\text{radioactive decay}),$$

The half life-time ( $T_{1/2}$ ) is the time at which both  $N$  and  $R$  have been reduced to one-half their initial values and  $\lambda$  is the decay energy.

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \tau \ln 2.$$

Here  $\tau$  is the **mean life-time**, which is the time at which both  $N$  and  $R$  have been reduced to  $e^{-1}$  of their initial values.

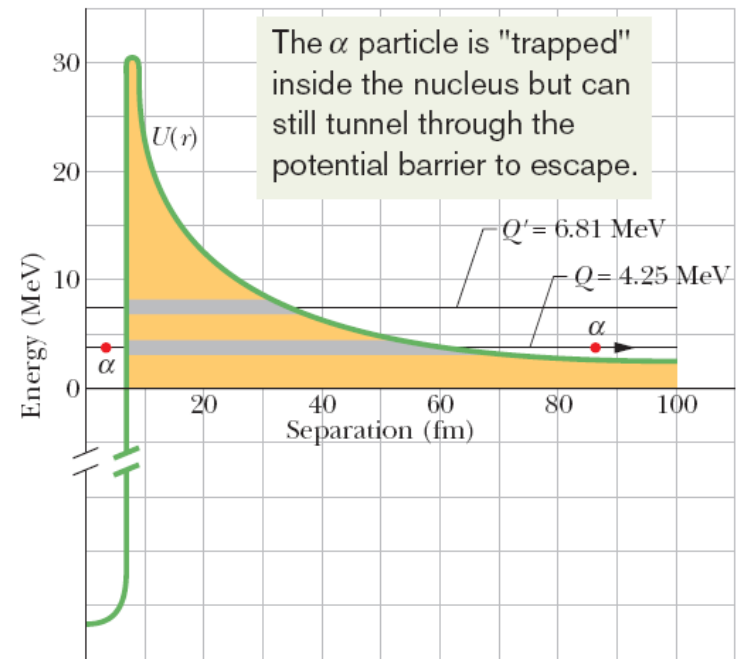
# Alpha Decay

When a nucleus undergoes **alpha decay**, it transforms to a different nuclide by emitting an alpha particle (a helium nucleus,  ${}^4\text{He}$ ). For example, when uranium  ${}^{238}\text{U}$  undergoes alpha decay, it transforms to thorium  ${}^{234}\text{Th}$ :



The **disintegration energy**,  $Q$ , for the decay above is 4.25.

The potential energy shown in the figure below is a combination of the potential energy associated with the (attractive) strong nuclear force that acts in the nuclear interior and a Coulomb potential associated with the (repulsive) electric force that acts between the two particles ( ${}^{234}\text{Th}$  and  ${}^4\text{He}$ ) before and after the decay has occurred.



# Beta Decay

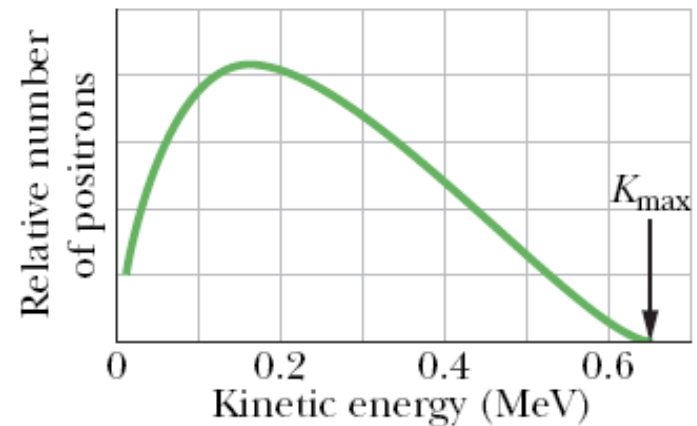
A nucleus that decays spontaneously by emitting an electron or a positron (a positively charged particle with the mass of an electron) is said to undergo **beta decay**. Like alpha decay, this is a spontaneous process, with a definite disintegration energy and half-life.

Examples:  $^{32}\text{P} \rightarrow ^{32}\text{S} + e^{-} + \nu$  ( $T_{1/2} = 14.3$  d). ( $\text{b}^{-}$  decay)

$^{64}\text{Cu} \rightarrow ^{64}\text{Ni} + e^{+} + \nu$  ( $T_{1/2} = 12.7$  h). ( $\text{b}^{+}$  decay)

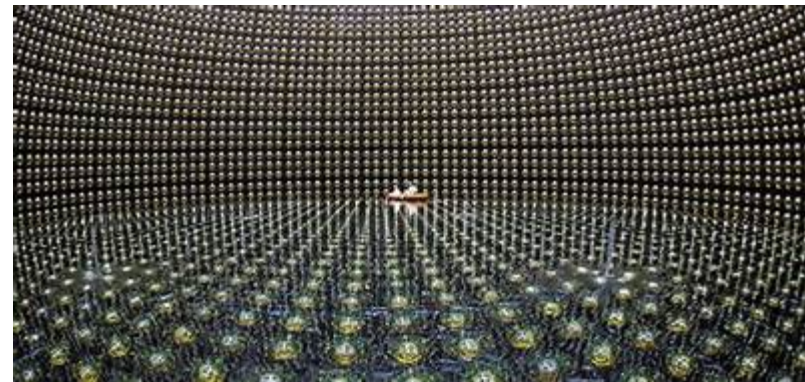
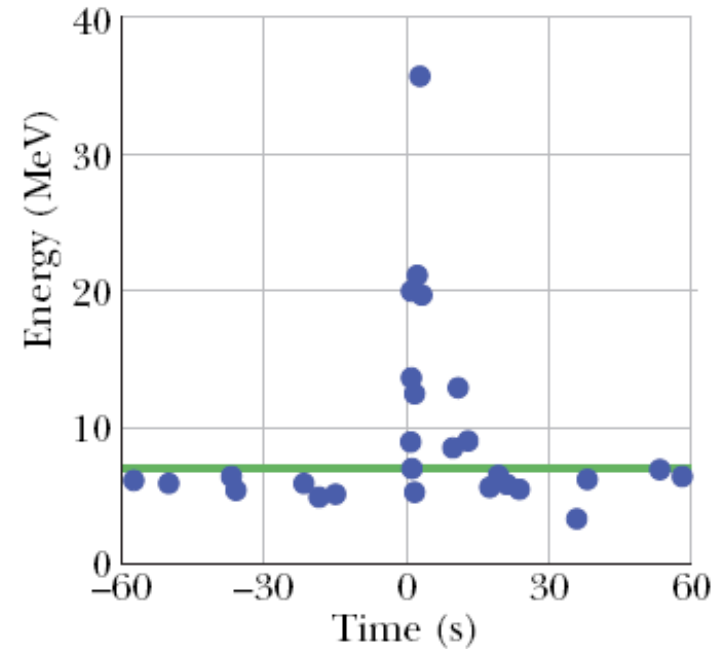
Here,  $\nu$  is a neutrino, a neutral particle which has a very small mass, that is emitted from the nucleus along with the electron or positron during the decay process.

In a beta decay the energy of the emitted electrons or positrons may range from zero up to a certain maximum  $K_{\text{max}}$  since, unlike the alpha decay, the  $Q$  energy is shared by two components.



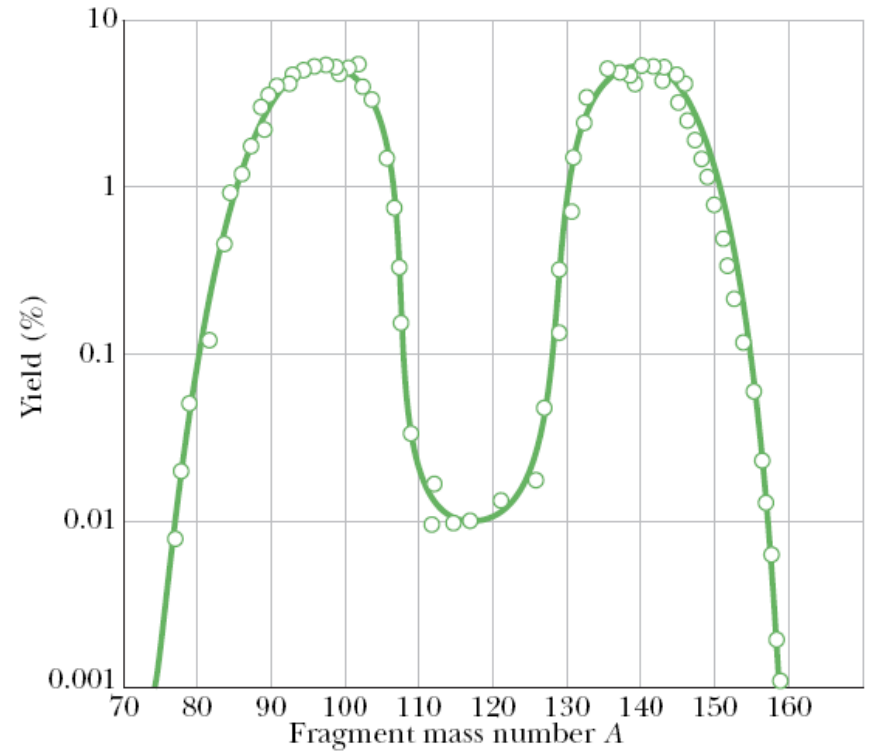
# *Beta Decay and the Neutrino*

- Wolfgang Pauli first suggested the existence of neutrinos in 1930.
- Billions of them pass through our bodies every second, leaving no trace.
- Despite their elusive character, neutrinos have been detected in the laboratory.



# Nuclear Fission

The most probable mass numbers, occurring in about 7% of the fission events, are centered around  $A \sim 95$  and  $A \sim 140$ .



# Nuclear Fission

The energy released by the fission,  $Q$ , is:  $Q = \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{total final} \\ \text{binding energy} \end{array} \right) - \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{initial} \\ \text{binding energy} \end{array} \right)$ .

$$Q = \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{final} \\ \Delta E_{\text{ben}} \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{final number} \\ \text{of nucleons} \end{array} \right) - \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{initial} \\ \Delta E_{\text{ben}} \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{initial number} \\ \text{of nucleons} \end{array} \right)$$

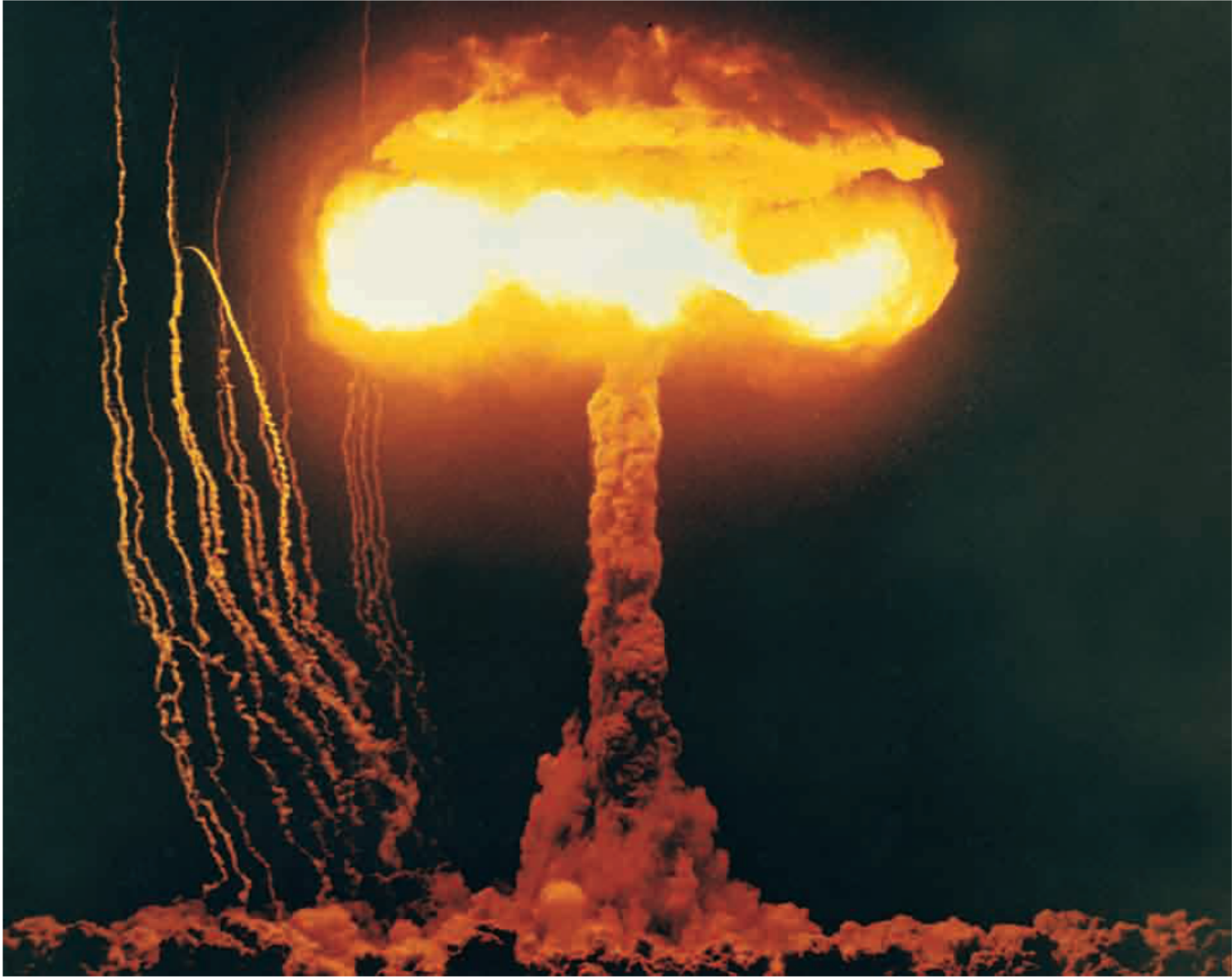
For a high-mass nuclide ( $A \sim 240$ ), the binding energy per nucleon is about 7.6 MeV/nucleon. For middle-mass nuclides ( $A \sim 120$ ), it is about 8.5 MeV/nucleon. Thus, the energy released by fission of a high-mass nuclide to two middle-mass nuclides is

$$Q = \left( 8.5 \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{nucleon}} \right) (2 \text{ nuclei}) \left( 120 \frac{\text{nucleons}}{\text{nucleus}} \right) - \left( 7.6 \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{nucleon}} \right) (240 \text{ nucleons}) \approx 200 \text{ MeV}.$$

## Test of the Fissionability of Four Nuclides

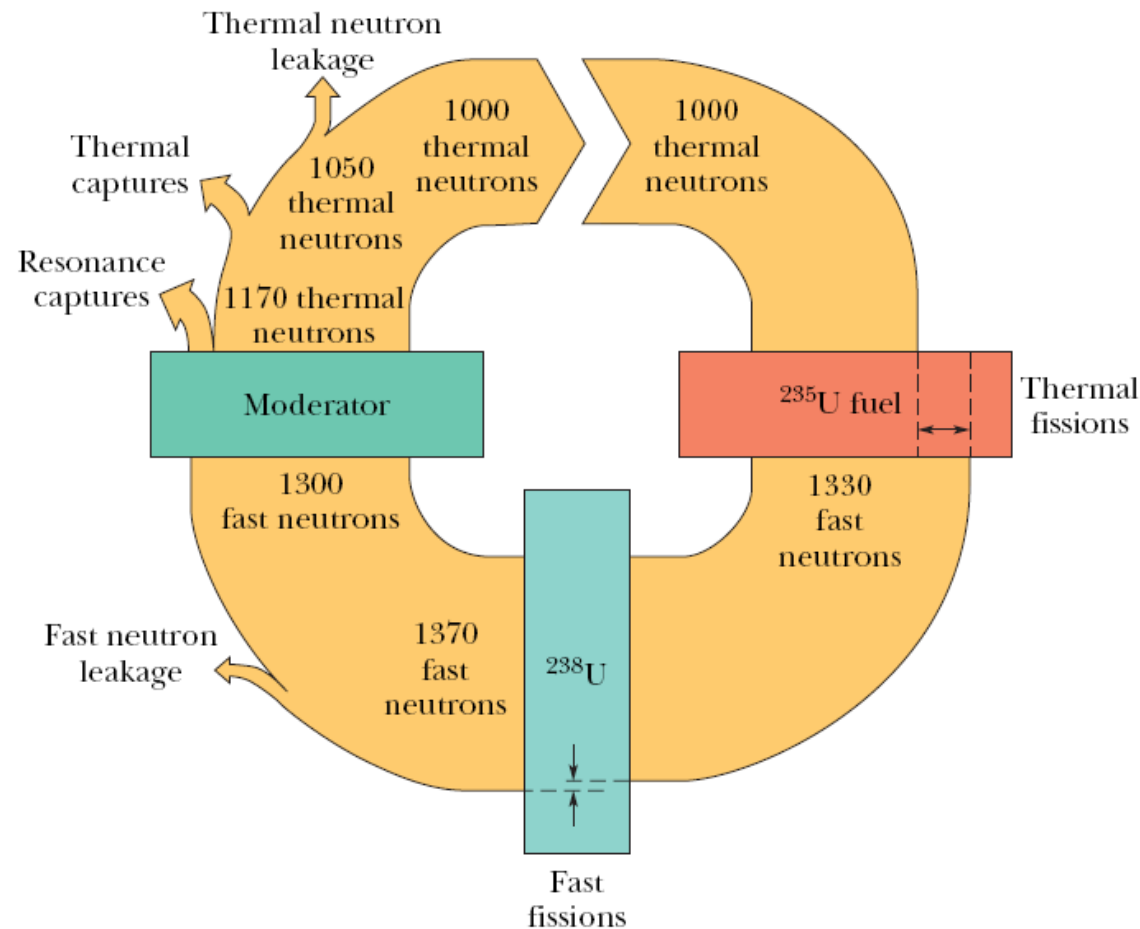
Target Nuclide	Nuclide Being Fissioned	$E_n$ (MeV)	$E_b$ (MeV)	Fission by Thermal Neutrons?
$^{235}\text{U}$	$^{236}\text{U}$	6.5	5.2	Yes
$^{238}\text{U}$	$^{239}\text{U}$	4.8	5.7	No
$^{239}\text{Pu}$	$^{240}\text{Pu}$	6.4	4.8	Yes
$^{243}\text{Am}$	$^{244}\text{Am}$	5.5	5.8	No





Courtesy U.S. Department of Energy

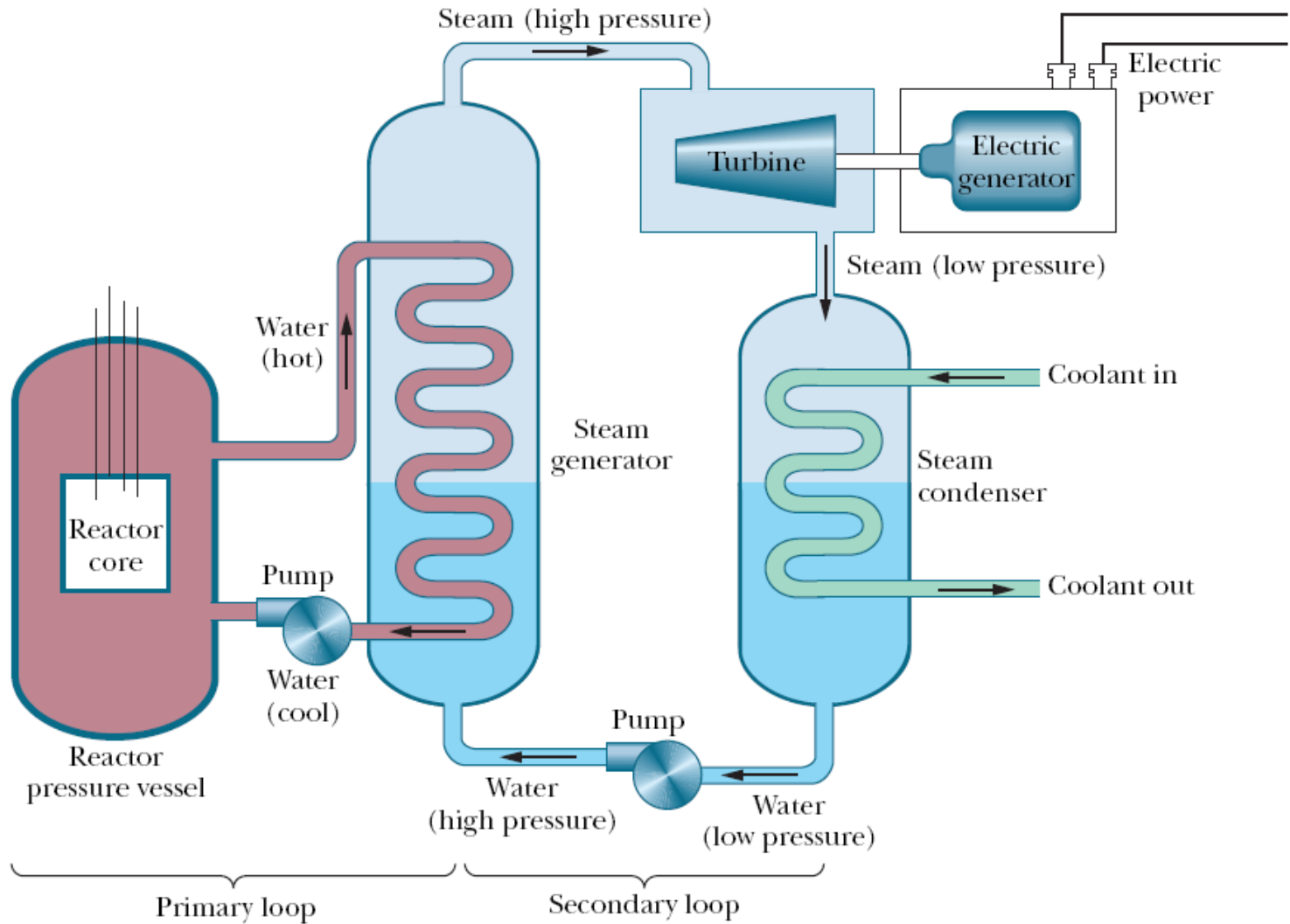
# Nuclear Reactors



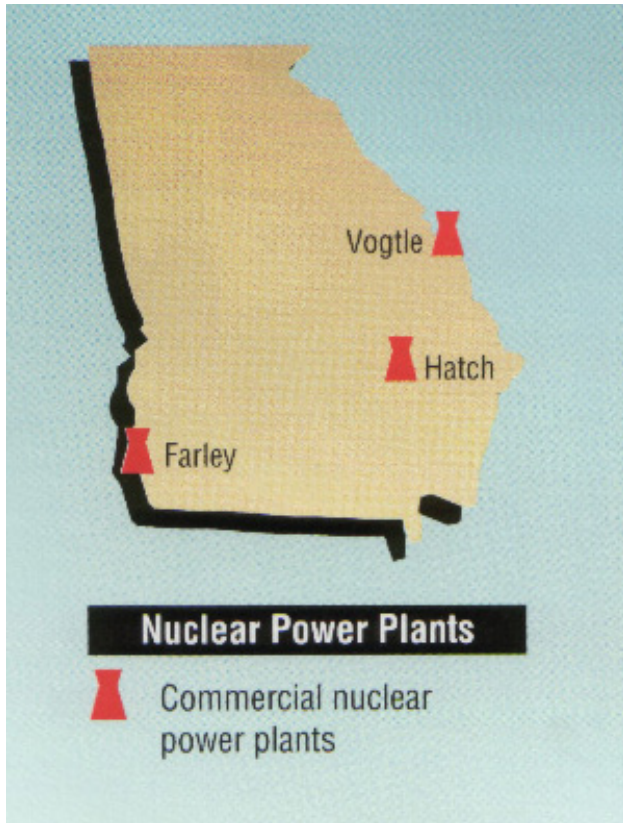
Three main difficulties stand in the way of a working reactor:

1. The Neutron Leakage Problem: Some neutrons produced by fission leak out from the reactor.
2. The Neutron Energy Problem: Fast neutrons are not as effective in producing fission as slower thermal neutrons.
3. The Neutron Capture Problem: Non-fission capture of neutrons

# *Nuclear Reactors*



# *Nuclear Reactors*



# *Nuclear Fusion*

For controlled terrestrial use one could consider two deuteron–deuteron (d-d), and one deuteron-tritium reactions:



Three requirements for a successful thermonuclear reactor can be considered:

1. High Particle Density
2. High Plasma Temperature
3. Long Confinement Time

For the successful operation of a thermonuclear reactor using the d-t reaction, it is necessary to have [Lawson's Criterion](#):

$$n\tau > 10^{20} \text{ s/m}^3.$$

# *Nuclear Fusion*

## 1. Magnetic Confinement

- a. A suitably shaped magnetic field is used to confine the hot plasma in an evacuated doughnut-shaped chamber called a *tokomak*. The magnetic forces acting on the charged particles that make up the hot plasma keep the plasma from touching the walls of the chamber.
- b. The plasma is heated by inducing a current in it and by bombarding it with an externally accelerated beam of particles. The first goal of this approach is to achieve *breakeven*, which occurs when the Lawson criterion is met or exceeded.
- c. The ultimate goal is *ignition*, which corresponds to a self-sustaining thermonuclear reaction and a net generation of energy.

## 2. Inertial Confinement

- a. A second approach, involves “*zapping*” a solid fuel pellet from all sides with intense laser beams, evaporating some material from the surface of the pellet. This boiled-off material causes an inward-moving shock wave that compresses the core of the pellet, increasing both its particle density and its temperature. The fuel is *confined* to the pellet and the particles do not escape from the heated pellet during the very short zapping interval because of their inertia .
- b. Laser fusion, using the inertial confinement approach, is being investigated in many laboratories in the United States and elsewhere.

# ***Tokomaks***

