Prof. Dr. Turan OLĞAR

Ankara University, Faculty of Engineering Department of Physics Engineering

If energetic particles from a reactor or accelerator (or even from a radioactive source) are allowed to fall upon an element, there is the possibility of a nuclear reaction taking place. The first such nuclear reactions were done in Rutherford's laboratory, using  $\alpha$  particles from a radioactive source.

Rutherford was able to observe a change or transmutation of nuclear species in the reaction done in 1919:

$$\alpha + {}^{14}_{7}N \rightarrow {}^{17}_{8}O + p$$

The first particle accelerator capable of inducing nuclear reactions was built by Cockcroft and Walton, who in 1930 observed the reaction

$$p + {}^7_3Li \rightarrow {}^4_2He + \alpha$$

The nucleus formed after bombardment is, in most cases, different from the target nucleus. Such a change of the target nucleus is a transmutation and the reaction itself is called a transmutation reaction.

The importance of the study of nuclear reactions lies in the fact that most of the information about the properties of the nucleus (such as the size, the charge distribution, and the nature of the nuclear forces) is obtained from these investigations. A typical nuclear reaction is written as

$$x + X \to Y + y \tag{1}$$

where x is the accelerated particle, X is the target (usually stationary in the laboratory), and Y and y are the reaction products. Usually, Y will be a heavy product that stops in the target and is not directly observed, while y is a light particle that can be detected and measured. Generally, x and y will be nucleons or light nuclei, but occasionally y will be a  $\gamma$  ray, in which case the reaction is called *radiative capture*.

An alternative and compact way of indicating the nuclear reaction represented by Eq. 1 is

$$X(x, y)Y \qquad (2)$$

We are interested in the study of nuclear reactions from two view points:

A: The conditions under which different reactions take place. In many case it is possible to predict the outcome of a nuclear reaction, but we shall limit ourselves to looking into the conditions necessary to start a nuclear reaction.

B: The determination of the probability of an incoming particle being absorbed by the target nucleus. This probability is called the cross section of a given nuclear reaction.

Let us assume that x and X are far apart and do not exert any force on each other. This implies that the system does not have any potential energy.

Let us say that long before the collision between the incoming particle, x, and the target nucleus, X, their rest masses are  $m_x$  and  $M_X$ , and their kinetic energies are  $K_x$  and  $K_X$ , respectively.

Thus the total energy,  $E_i$  of the initial system

$$E_{i} = K_{x} + m_{x}c^{2} + K_{x} + M_{x}c^{2} \qquad (3)$$

Similarly the final energy,  $E_f$ , of the system Y+y, long after the collision, is

$$E_{f} = K_{Y} + M_{Y}c^{2} + K_{y} + m_{y}c^{2} \qquad (4)$$

Because there are no external forces acting on the system, the final energy must be equal to the initial energy

$$E_f = E_i \tag{5}$$

or

$$K_{Y} + M_{Y}c^{2} + K_{y} + m_{y}c^{2} = K_{x} + m_{x}c^{2} + K_{X} + M_{X}c^{2}$$
(6)

$$\left[\left(K_{Y}+K_{y}\right)-\left(K_{X}+K_{x}\right)\right]=\left[\left(M_{X}+m_{x}\right)c^{2}-\left(M_{Y}+m_{y}\right)c^{2}\right]$$
(7)

The net change in the kinetic energy is called the *disintegration energy* or *Q*-value of the nuclear reaction,

$$Q = \left(K_{Y} + K_{y}\right) - \left(K_{X} + K_{x}\right)$$
(8)

Q is also equal to the change in the rest-mass energies given by

$$Q = (M_{X} + m_{x})c^{2} - (M_{Y} + m_{y})c^{2}$$
(9)

The Q value may be positive, negative, or zero. If Q>0 (m<sub>initial</sub> > m<sub>final</sub>) or K<sub>final</sub> > K<sub>initial</sub>) the reaction is said to be exoergic or exothermic; in this case nuclear mass or binding energy is released as kinetic energy of the final products.

When Q < 0 (m<sub>initial</sub> < m<sub>final</sub>) or K<sub>final</sub> < K<sub>initial</sub>) the reaction is said to be endoergic or endothermic, and initial kinetic energy is converted into nuclear mass or binding energy.

The changes in mass and energy must of course be related by the familiar expression from special relativity,  $\Delta E = \Delta mc^2$  - any change in the kinetic energy of the system of reacting particles must be balanced by an equal change in its rest energy.

In most experiments the target nucleus is initially at rest. In such cases

$$Q = (K_{Y} + K_{y}) - K_{x}$$
  
=  $(M_{X} + m_{x})c^{2} - (M_{Y} + m_{y})c^{2}$  (10)

In general, it is not easy to measure accurately the kinetic energy,  $K_Y$ , of the recoil nucleus. If we consider the conservation of momentum, it is possible to obtain an expression for the *Q*-value independent of  $K_Y$ .

Consider a particle x of mass  $m_x$  moving with velocity  $v_x$  that strikes the target nucleus, X, of mass  $M_X$  and whose velocity is zero, i.e., at rest. After the nuclear reaction, the recoil nucleus Y makes an angle  $\phi$  with the initial direction of x and has mass  $M_Y$  and velocity  $V_Y$ , while the particle y makes an angle  $\theta$  and has mass  $m_y$  and velocity  $v_y$ .

(See Fig. 4.1 in page 82 in Fundamentals of Nuclear Physics, by Atam P. Arya)

From the conservation of momentum, we get

$$m_x v_x = m_y v_y \cos \theta + M_y V_y \cos \phi$$
$$0 = m_y v_y \sin \theta - M_y V_y \sin \phi$$

or

$$M_{Y}V_{Y}\cos\phi = m_{x}v_{x} - m_{y}v_{y}\cos\theta \qquad (11)$$
$$M_{Y}V_{Y}\sin\phi = m_{y}v_{y}\sin\theta \qquad (12)$$

Squaring and adding Eqs 11 and 12, we get

$$M_{Y}^{2}V_{Y}^{2} = m_{x}^{2}v_{x}^{2} + m_{y}^{2}v_{y}^{2} - 2m_{x}m_{y}v_{x}v_{y}\cos\theta$$
(13)

Making use of the relations,

$$K_{x} = \frac{1}{2}m_{x}v_{x}^{2}, \quad K_{y} = \frac{1}{2}m_{y}v_{y}^{2} \quad and \quad K_{y} = \frac{1}{2}M_{y}V_{y}^{2}$$

in Eq. 13 and rearranging the terms, we get

$$K_{Y} = \frac{m_{x}}{M_{Y}} K_{x} + \frac{m_{y}}{M_{Y}} K_{y} - \frac{2}{M_{Y}} \left( m_{x} m_{y} K_{x} K_{y} \right)^{1/2} \cos\theta$$
(14)

The *Q*-value of the reaction with  $K_X = 0$  is given by Eq. 10  $Q = \left(K_Y + K_y\right) - K_x$ 

and substituting the value of  $K_Y$  from Eq. 14 into Eq. 10

$$Q = K_{y} \left( 1 + \frac{m_{y}}{M_{Y}} \right) - K_{x} \left( 1 - \frac{m_{x}}{M_{Y}} \right) - \frac{2}{M_{Y}} \left( m_{x} m_{y} K_{x} K_{y} \right)^{1/2} \cos \theta \qquad (15)$$

Eq. 15 is the general equation for the Q-value of a nuclear reaction. If the outgoing particles are observed at right angles to the direction of the incoming particles, i.e.,  $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ ,  $\cos 90^{\circ} = 0$  then Eq. 15 becomes

$$Q = K_{y} \left( 1 + \frac{m_{y}}{M_{Y}} \right) - K_{x} \left( 1 - \frac{m_{x}}{M_{Y}} \right)$$
(16)

This is equivalent to the case in which the target nucleus and, hence, the recoil nucleus are of infinite mass. Rewriting Eq.15, we can express the kinetic energy of the outgoing particle in the following form,

$$(M_{Y} + m_{y})K_{y} - 2(m_{x}m_{y}K_{x})^{1/2}\cos\theta\sqrt{K_{y}} - [K_{x}(M_{Y} - m_{x}) + M_{y}Q] = 0$$

Which is a quadratic in  $\sqrt{K_y}$ 

Solving it we get

$$\sqrt{K_{y}} = \frac{\sqrt{m_{x}m_{y}K_{x}}\cos\theta \pm \left\{ \left(m_{x}m_{y}K_{x}\cos^{2}\theta\right) + \left(M_{y} + m_{y}\right) \left[K_{x}\left(M_{y} - m_{x}\right) + M_{y}Q\right] \right\}^{1/2}}{\left(M_{y} + m_{y}\right)}$$
(17)

or

$$\sqrt{K_y} = a \pm \sqrt{a^2 + b} \tag{18}$$

where

$$a = \frac{\sqrt{m_x m_y K_x}}{\left(M_y + m_y\right)} \cos\theta \qquad \text{and}$$

$$b = \frac{K_x \left( M_y - m_x \right) + M_y Q}{\left( M_y + m_y \right)}$$

If the bombarding energy is almost zero, i.e.,  $K_x \cong 0$ , which happens in the case of reactions initiated by the capture of thermal neutrons, Eq. 17 reduces to

$$K_{y} = \frac{M_{y}Q}{\left(M_{y} + m_{y}\right)} \qquad \text{for} \quad Q \rangle 0$$

If Q>0 and  $M_Y > m_x$ , only one of the two solutions of  $K_y$ , obtained from Eq. 17 and 18, will be positive, and is given by

$$\sqrt{K_y} = a + \sqrt{a^2 + b}$$

In this case  $K_y$  does depend on the angle  $\theta$ .  $K_y$  has a maximum value for  $\theta = 0$ , minimum for  $\theta = 180^{\circ}$ , and for  $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ ,  $K_y = b$ 

$$K_{y} = \frac{K_{x} \left( M_{Y} - m_{x} \right) + M_{Y} Q}{\left( M_{Y} + m_{y} \right)}$$

We derived the expression for the Q-value of a nuclear reaction by considering the reaction to be taking place in the LAB coordinate system. The endoergic reaction is one for which the Q-value is negative. In this case some of the initial kinetic energy (equal to the

*Q-value* of the reaction) is converted into the rest-mass energy of the final products.

The minimum value of the energy required for an endoergic reaction to take place is the threshold energy.

For almost zero bombarding energies,  $K_x \cong 0$ , we get

 $a \cong 0$ , and  $b \cong M_Y Q/(M_Y + m_y)$ 

and because *Q* is negative, the quantity  $(a^2+b)$  is negative. This means that  $\sqrt{K_y}$  is an imaginary quantity, or  $K_y$  is negative, which does not have any physical meaning. Thus the endoergic reactions are not possible with this insufficient amount of kinetic energy.

As the energy  $K_x$  of the bombarding particle is increased, the reaction will become possible with a certain minimum value of  $K_x$  given by the condition  $a^2+b=0$ 

$$(K_x)_{\theta} = -Q \left[ \frac{M_Y + m_y}{\left( M_Y + m_y - m_x - \left( \frac{m_x m_y}{M_Y} \right) \sin^2 \theta \right)} \right]$$

If the outgoing particle of mass  $m_y$  is observed at  $\theta=0^0$ , this leads to

$$\left(K_{x}\right)_{\min} = -Q\left[\frac{M_{y} + m_{y}}{M_{y} + m_{y} - m_{x}}\right]$$

Using the relation

$$M_x + m_x = M_y + m_y + \frac{Q}{c^2}$$

we get

$$\left(K_{x}\right)_{\min} = -Q \left[\frac{M_{x} + m_{x} - \frac{Q}{c^{2}}}{M_{x} - \frac{Q}{c^{2}}}\right]$$

(18)

Because the energy equivalent of the mass,  $M_X$ , is usually very large as compared to Q, we may write Eq. 18 as

$$(K_x)_{\min} = -Q \left[ \frac{M_x + m_x}{M_x} \right] = -Q \left( 1 + \frac{m_x}{M_x} \right)$$
  
Threshold Energy =  $(K_x)_{\min} = |Q| \left( 1 + \frac{m_x}{M_x} \right)$  (19)

Thus we conclude that if the energy of the incident particles is equal to the threshold energy, the outgoing particles are emitted only in the direction  $\theta=0$  with energy given by the following

$$K_{y} = \left(K_{x}\right)_{threshold} \frac{M_{x}M_{y}}{\left(m_{y} + M_{y}\right)^{2}}$$

If the reaction reaches excited states of Y, the Q-value equation should include the mass energy of the excited state.

$$Q_{ex} = \left(M_X + m_x - M_{Y^*} - m_y\right)c^2$$
$$= Q_0 - E_{ex}$$

Where  $Q_0$  is the *Q*-value corresponding to the ground state of *Y*, and where we have used

$$M_{Y^{*}}c^{2} = M_{Y}c^{2} + E_{ex}$$

as the mass energy of the excited state ( $E_{ex}$  is the excitation energy above the ground state)

In the previous section, the laboratory coordinate system (LAB coordinate system) was used to explain the dynamics of nuclear reactions. But it is usually more convenient from the theoretical view point to use the center-of-mass coordinate system (CMCS). CMCS can be utilized to calculate the minimum energy required by the bombarding particle in order to start an endoergic nuclear reaction.

See Figure 4.2 in Page 85 in Fundamentals of Nuclear Physics by Atam P. Arya for illustration a collision in the LAB coordinate system as well as in the CMCS.

#### A. BEFORE COLLISION

If a particle of mass  $m_x$  has velocity  $v_x$  in the LAB coordinate system, while the particle of mass  $M_X$  is at rest, the velocity  $v_c$  of the center-of-mass of the system is given by

$$(m_{x} + M_{x})v_{c} = m_{x}v_{x} + M_{x}.0$$

$$v_{c} = \frac{m_{x}v_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{x}}$$
(1)

Let us denote the velocities of mass  $m_x$  and  $M_X$  in the CMCS by  $v_x$ ' and  $V_X$ 'respectively, where

$$v'_{x} = v_{x} - v_{c} = v_{x} - \frac{m_{x}v_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{x}} = \frac{M_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{x}}v_{x}$$
 (2)

and

$$V_{X}' = 0 - v_{c} = -\frac{m_{x}v_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{X}}$$
(3)

The kinetic energies, therefore, of the two particles before the collision in the CMCS are given by

$$K_{x}' = \frac{1}{2}m_{x}v_{x}'^{2} = \frac{1}{2}m_{x}\left(\frac{M_{x}}{m_{x}+M_{x}}v_{x}\right)^{2} = \left(\frac{M_{x}}{m_{x}+M_{x}}\right)^{2}K_{x}$$

(4)

(5)

and

$$K_{X}' = \frac{1}{2}M_{X}V_{X}'^{2} = \frac{1}{2}M_{X}\left(\frac{-m_{x}v_{x}}{m_{x}+M_{X}}\right)^{2} = \frac{m_{x}M_{X}}{\left(m_{x}+M_{X}\right)^{2}}K_{x}$$

The total energy  $K_i$  of the system before the collision in the CMCS is given by

$$K_{i}' = K_{x}' + K_{x}' = \left(\frac{M_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{x}}\right)^{2} K_{x} + \frac{m_{x}M_{x}}{\left(m_{x} + M_{x}\right)^{2}} K_{x} = K_{x}\left(\frac{M_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{x}}\right)$$
(6)

#### **B. AFTER COLLISION**

After the collision in CMCS, let  $v_y$  and  $V_y$  be the velocities of the masses  $m_y$  and  $M_y$ , respectively, and  $K_f$  be the total kinetic energy of the system.

From the conservation of momentum, we have

$$m_y v_y = M_Y V_Y \tag{7}$$

And the kinetic energies  $K_y$  and  $K_y$  of  $m_y$  and  $M_y$  in CMCS are

$$K'_{y} = \frac{1}{2} m_{y} v'_{y}^{2}$$
 (8)

$$K'_{Y} = \frac{1}{2}M_{Y}V_{Y}^{'2} = \frac{1}{2}M_{Y}\left(\frac{m_{y}v_{y}^{'}}{M_{Y}}\right)^{2} = \frac{m_{y}}{M_{Y}}K'_{y}$$
(9)

Thus the total kinetic energy  $K_f$  is given by

$$K_{f}' = K_{y}' + K_{Y}' = \frac{1}{2}m_{y}v_{y}'^{2} + \frac{1}{2}M_{Y}V_{Y}'^{2}$$
(10)

But we must have

$$K_{i}' = K_{f}' - Q$$
 (11)

Substituting for  $K_i$ ' from Eq. 6, we get

$$K_{x}\left(\frac{M_{X}}{m_{x}+M_{X}}\right) = K_{f}' - Q \implies K_{f}' = Q + K_{x}\left(\frac{M_{X}}{m_{x}+M_{X}}\right) = Q + K_{x}\left(1 - 1 + \frac{M_{X}}{m_{x}+M_{X}}\right)$$
(12)

or  $K'_{f} = Q + K_{x} \left( 1 - \frac{m_{x}}{m_{x} + M_{x}} \right)$  (13)

It is interesting to compare this expression for  $K_f$  with  $K_f$ , given by

$$K_f = Q + K_x \tag{14}$$

Using Eqs. 8, 9, 10 and 11, it can be shown that the kinetic energies  $K_y$  and  $K_y$  after the collision, in the CMCS are given by

$$K'_{y} = \frac{M_{Y}}{m_{y} + M_{Y}} \left[ Q + \left( 1 - \frac{m_{x}}{m_{y} + M_{Y}} \right) K_{x} \right]$$
(15)

and

$$K_{Y}' = \frac{m_{y}}{m_{y} + M_{Y}} \left[ Q + \left( 1 - \frac{m_{x}}{m_{y} + M_{Y}} \right) K_{x} \right]$$
(16)

#### THRESHOLD ENERGY FOR AN ENDOERGIC REACTION IN A CENTER-OF-MASS COORDINATE SYSTEM

From the conservation of momentum and energy, we can calculate the threshold energy for endoergic reactions. In the previous section, we used the laboratory coordinate system and involved lengthy calculations for this aim. Let us consider the reaction in the center-ofmass coordinate system.

For a particle of mass  $m_x$  approaching another particle of mass  $M_X$  at rest with a velocity v in the LAB coordinate system, the energy in the CMCS from Eq. 6 is

$$K_{i}' = \frac{1}{2} m_{red} v^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m_{x} M_{x}}{(m_{x} + M_{x})} \right) v^{2}$$
(17)

#### THRESHOLD ENERGY FOR AN ENDOERGIC REACTION IN A CENTER-OF-MASS COORDINATE SYSTEM

Thus the energy requirement in the CMCS for an endoergic reaction to take place will be

$$K_i \ge |Q| \tag{18}$$

or from Eq. 17

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{m_x M_x}{m_x + M_x} v^2 \ge |Q| \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} m_x v^2 \ge \frac{m_x + M_x}{M_x} |Q| \ge \left(1 + \frac{m_x}{M_x}\right) |Q| \qquad (19)$$

where  $(m_x v^2/2) = K_x$  is the kinetic energy of the particle x in the LAB coordinate system; therefore

$$K_x \ge \left(1 + \frac{m_x}{M_x}\right) |Q| \quad hence \quad Threshold \ energy = \left(K_x\right)_{\min} = \left(1 + \frac{m_x}{M_x}\right) |Q|$$
 (20)

### REFERENCES

- 1. Introductory Nuclear Physics. Kenneth S. Krane
- 2. Fundamentals of Nuclear Physics. Atam. P. Arya