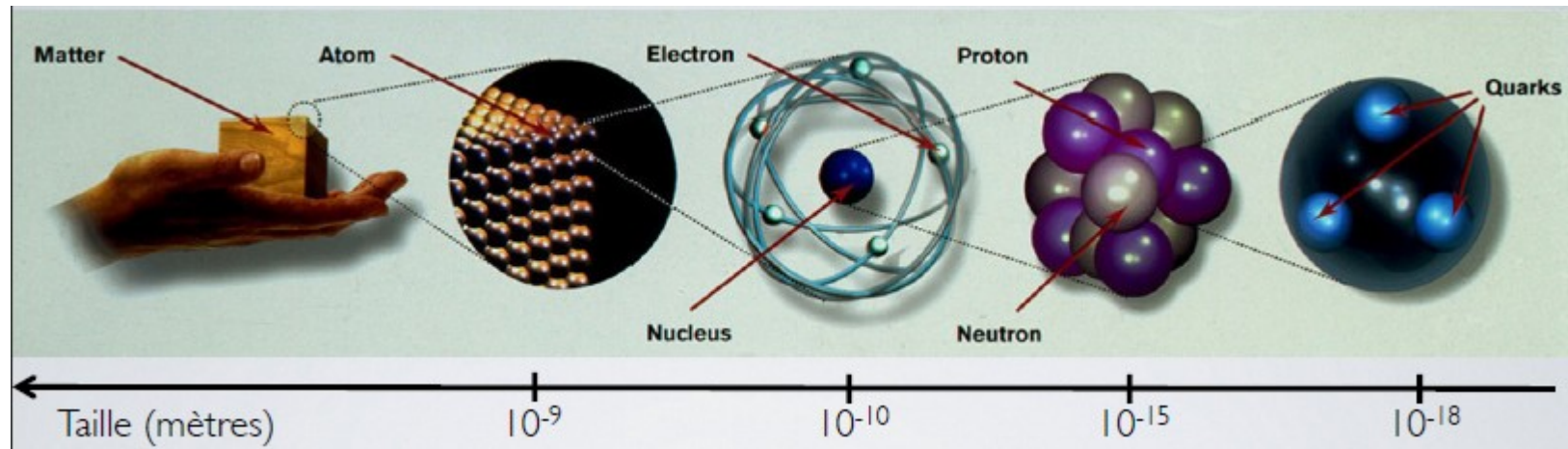
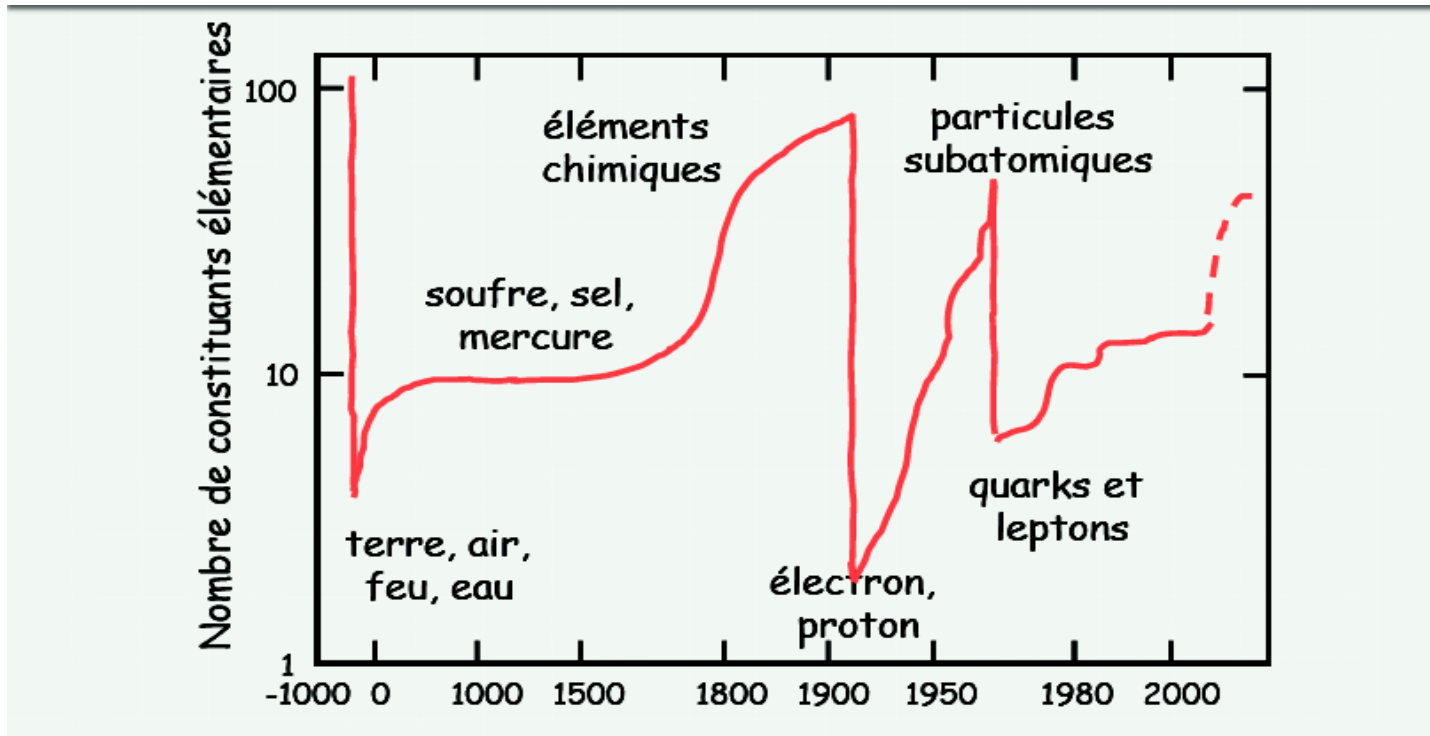


Particules élémentaires



Evolution du nombre de constituants élémentaires dans l'histoire :



Physique des hautes énergies

Ce que permet l'étude aux hautes énergies :

- sonder la matière à plus petite distance

$$E \propto 1 / \lambda$$



Louis
de Broglie

- créer de nouvelles particules à grande masse

$$E = M C^2$$



Albert
Einstein

- étudier les très hautes températures

$$E = K T^\circ$$



Ludwig
Boltzmann

Modèle standard

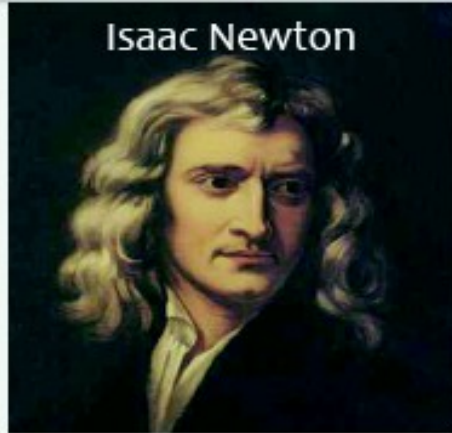
Classification des particules élémentaires :

quarks	+2/3	u up (1968)	c charm (1974)	t top (1995)
	-1/3	d down (1968)	s strange (1968)	b beauty (1977)
leptons	0	ν_e neutrino "e" (1956)	ν_μ neutrino "μ" (1962)	ν_τ neutrino "τ" (2000)
	-1	e⁻ électron (1897)	μ^- muon (1936)	τ^- tau (1974)
charge électrique		1^{ère} famille	2^{ème} famille	3^{ème} famille

On double le spectre avec les anti-particules

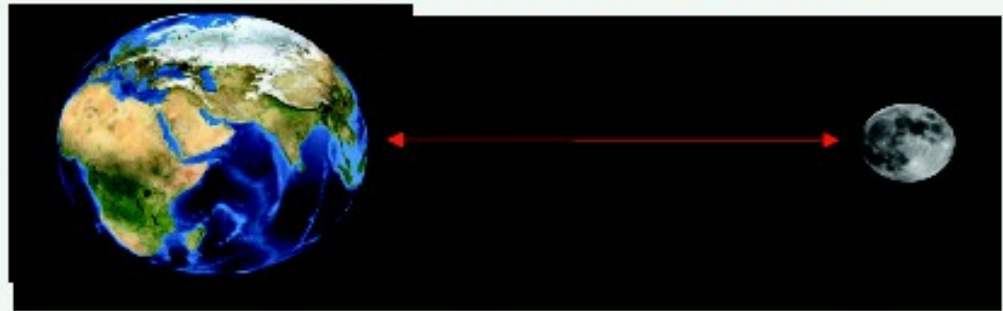
Modèle standard

Mécanisme d'interactions :

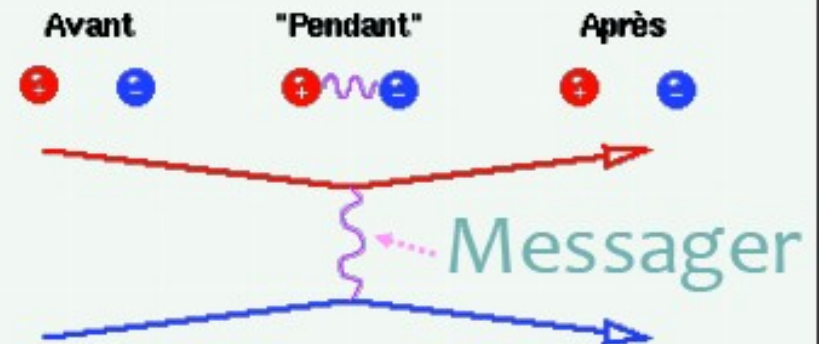


(1643-1727)

Vision « classique » :
Action instantanée à distance

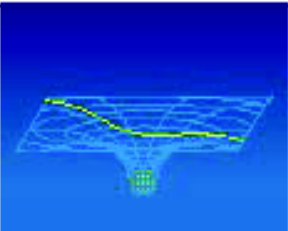





Vision « moderne » : échange de particules



Modèle standard

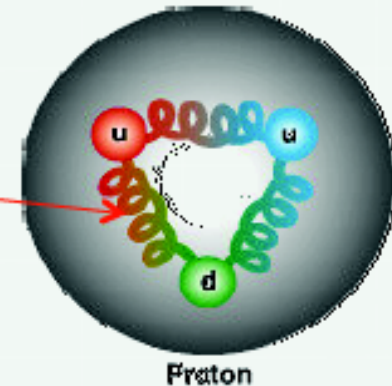
Classification des interactions fondamentales

	Force	Fermions	Bosons	Range	Charge	Relative intensity
	Gravitation Gravité, marées, trajectoire des planètes	Toutes les particules massives	graviton (?)	infinie	mass	10^{-39}
	Electromagnetique Presque tous les phénomènes de la vie courante	Leptons chargés et quarks	photon	infinie	Charge électrique	10^{-2}
	Forte Cohésion des noyaux atomiques	quarks	gluon	10^{-15} m	Charge de couleur	1
	Faible Radioactivité β , Soleil	leptons et quarks	W^+ , W^- , Z^0 bosons	10^{-18} m	Charge faible	10^{-7}

Modèle standard

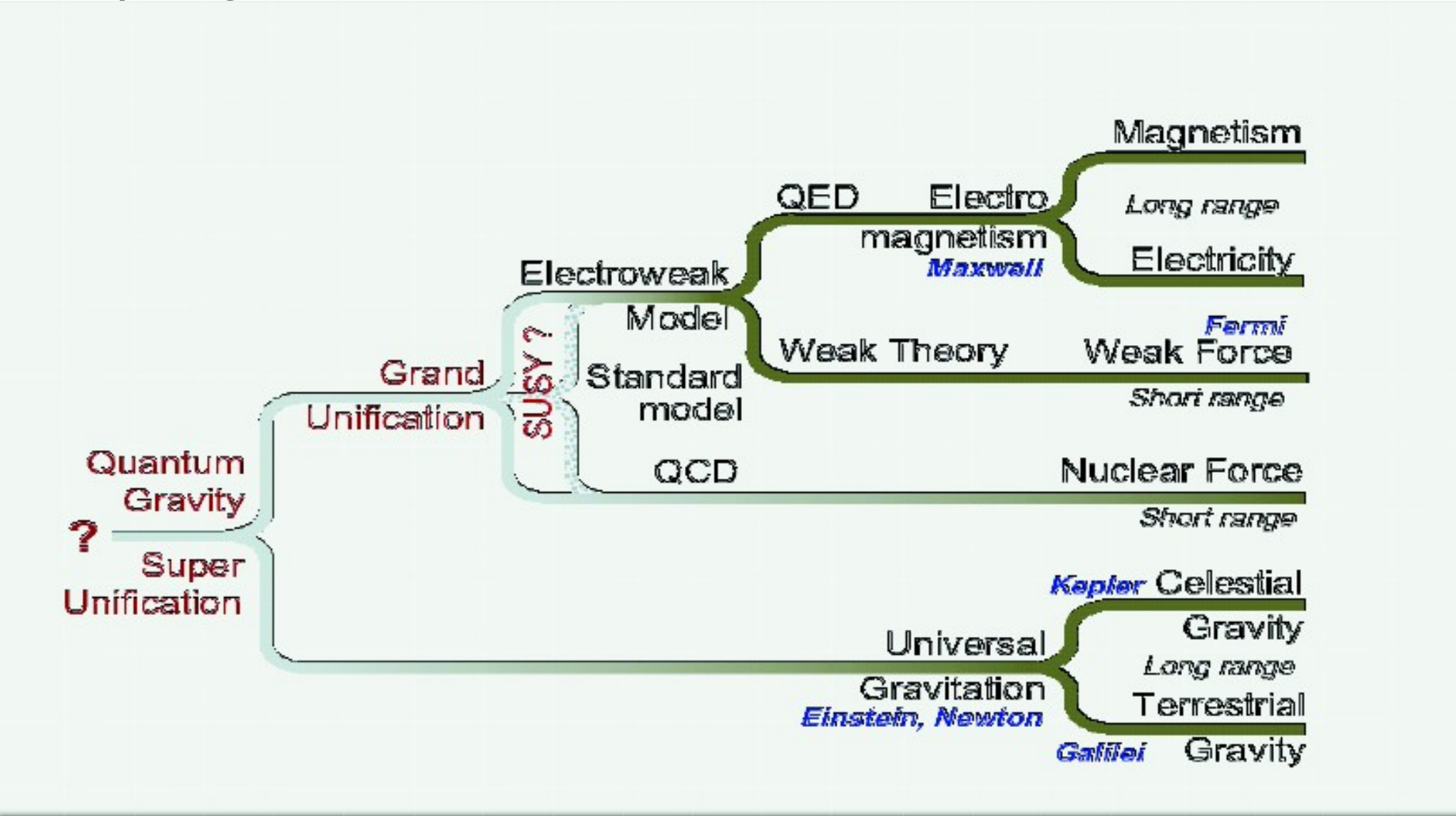
Quanta échangés : les bosons vecteurs

- Aux 4 forces fondamentales sont associés des « champs » qui remplissent l'espace. (par ex le champ électromagnétique pour la force électromagnétique).
- Ces champs sont **quantifiés**. Les « quanta » du champ sont des particules élémentaires appelées « bosons intermédiaires ».
 - Quanta de la **force électromagnétique**: photons
 - Quanta de la **force forte**: gluons
 - Quanta de la **force faible**: Bosons W et Z
 - Quanta de la **force gravitationnelle**: gravitons (toujours pas détectés)
- Tous ces bosons intermédiaires ont une masse nulle, sauf W et Z qui sont très massifs (environ 100 fois la masse du proton)

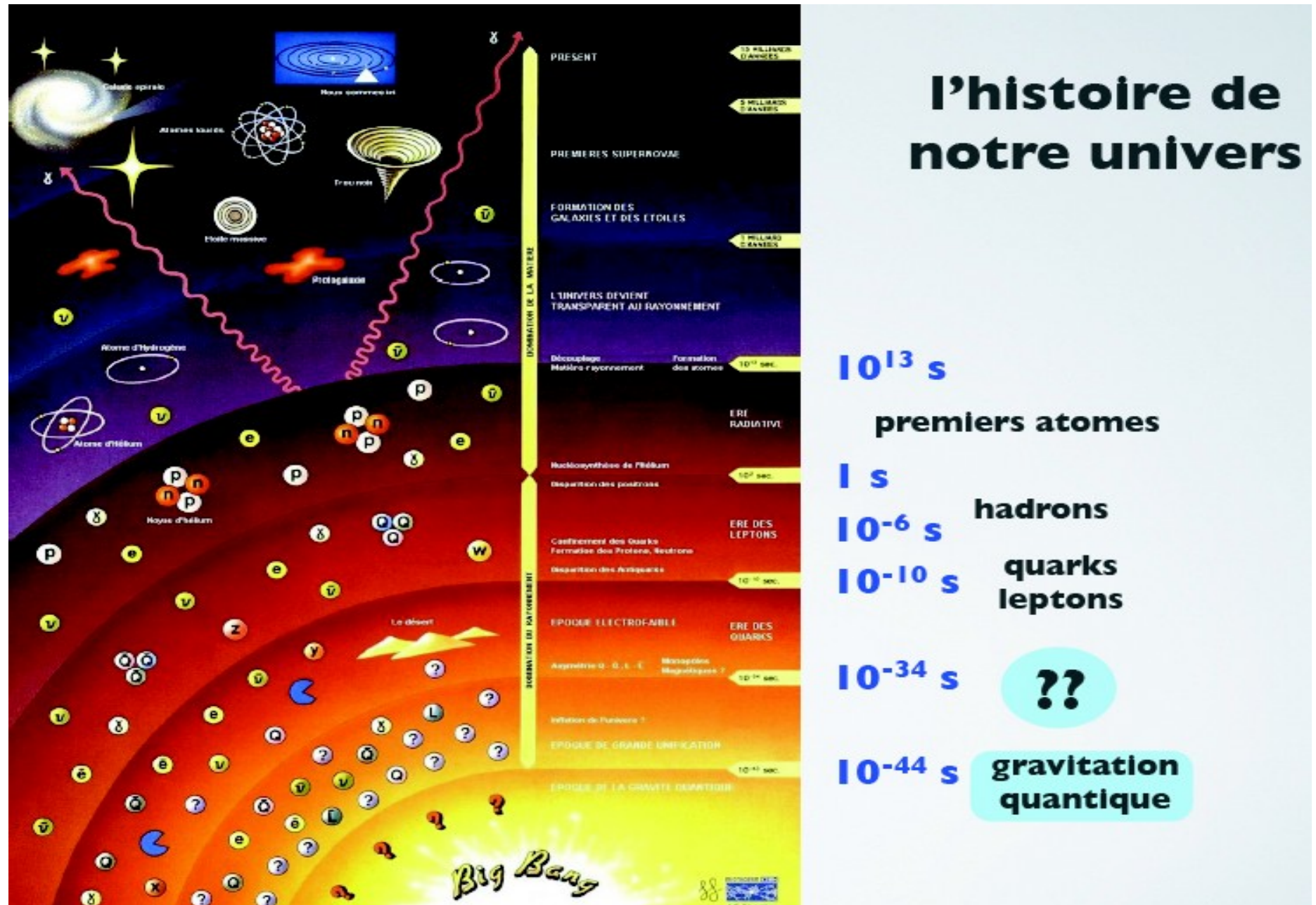


Au-delà du MS

Le paradigme de l'unification :



Du big-bang au big-crunch ?



Accélérateurs & détecteurs



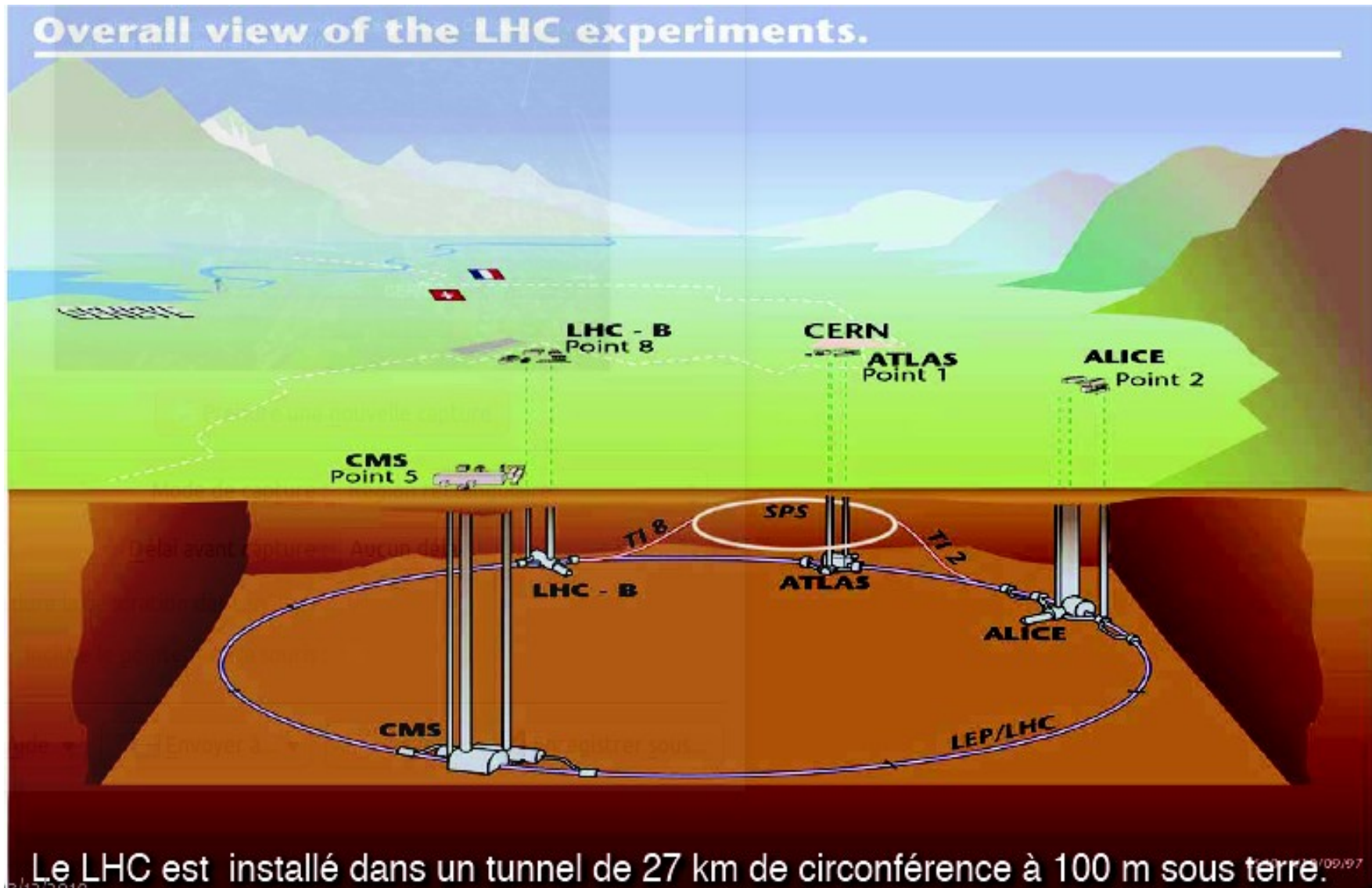
Le LHC du CERN

Le CERN (Centre Européen de Recherche Nucléaire) est situé à la frontière franco-suisse près de Genève.

Le plus grand accélérateur du monde, le Large Hadron Collider (LHC) vient d'entrer en opération en Mars 2010.

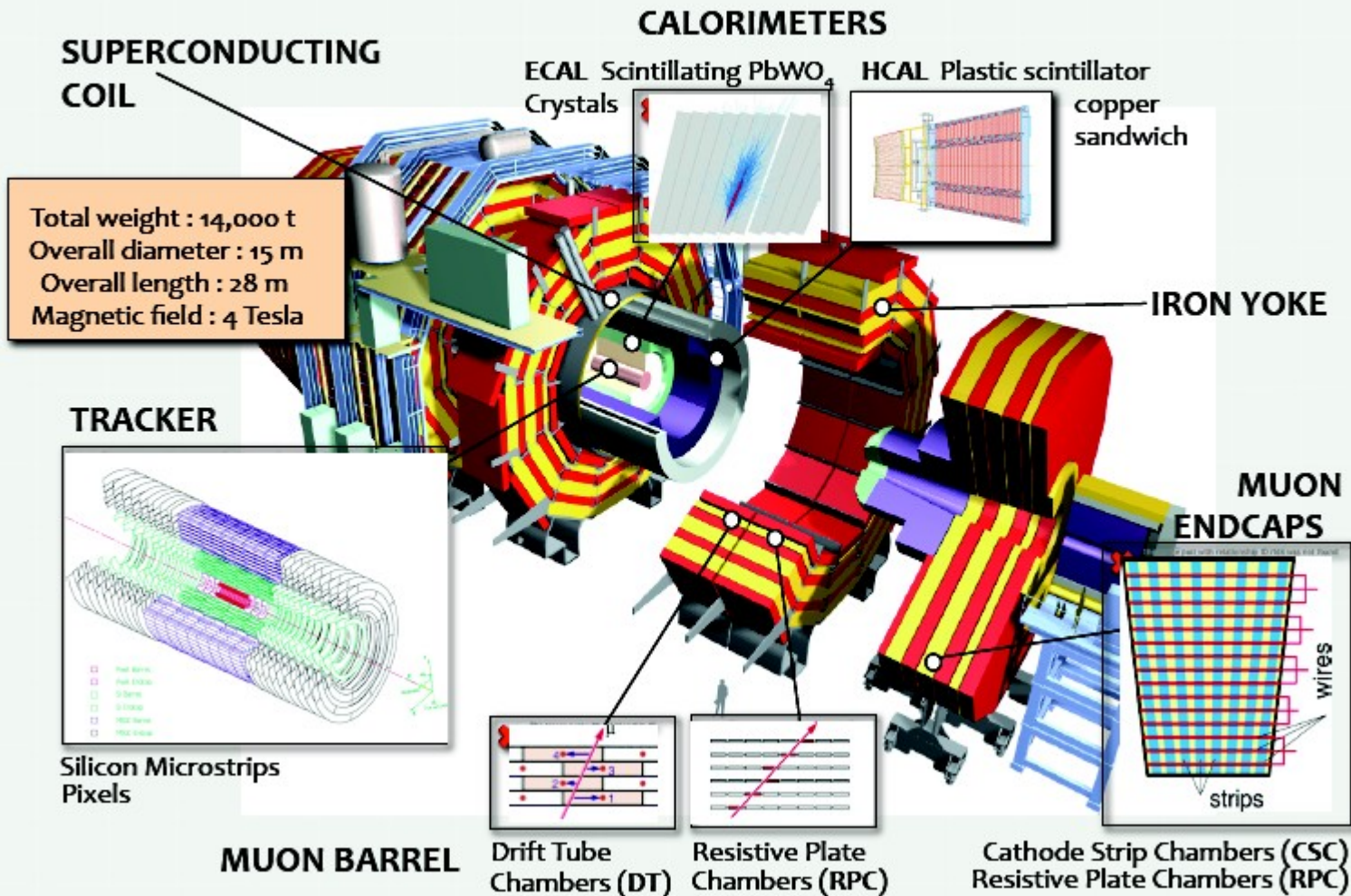


Accélérateurs & détecteurs

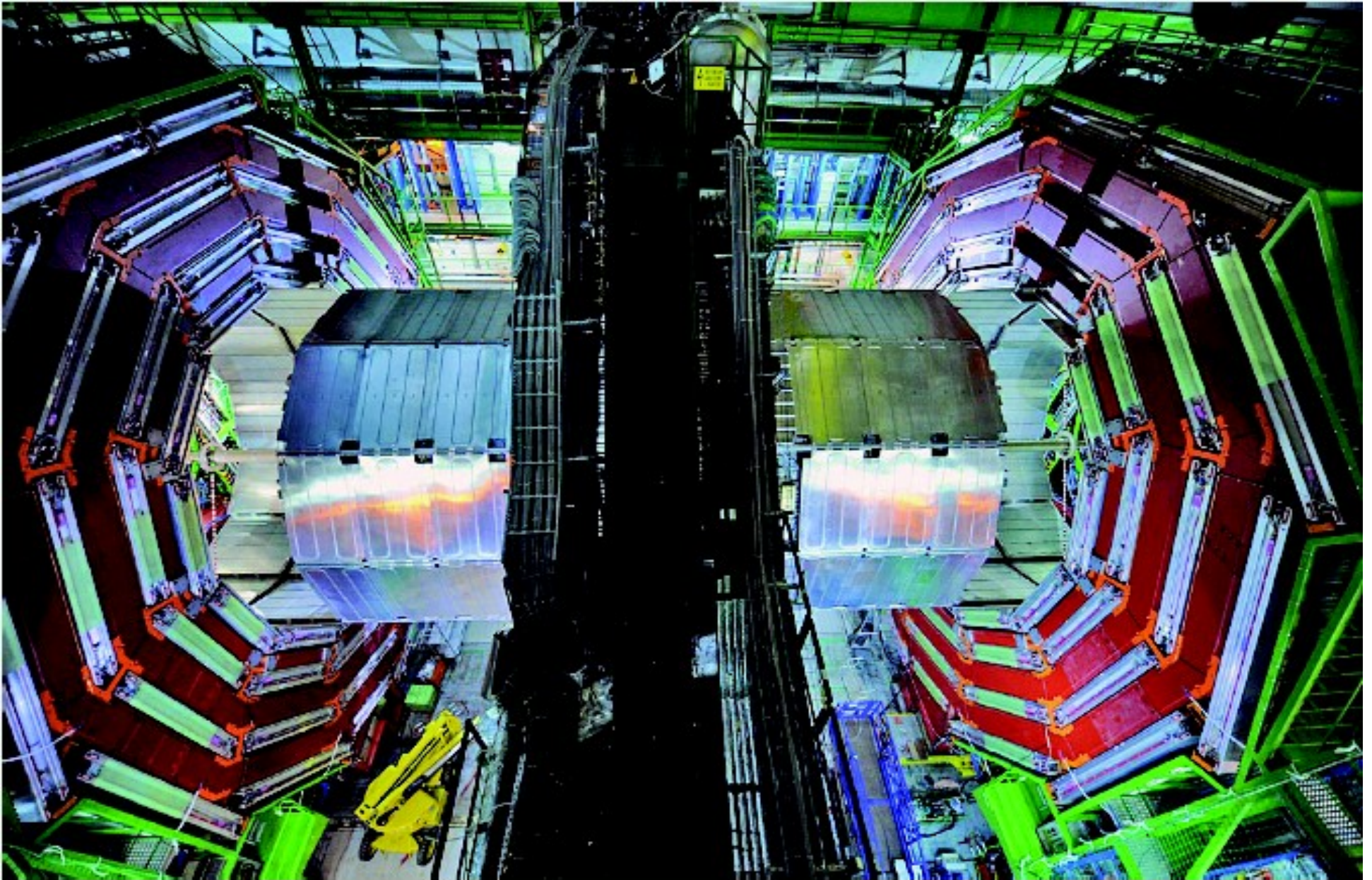


Accélérateurs & détecteurs

CMS



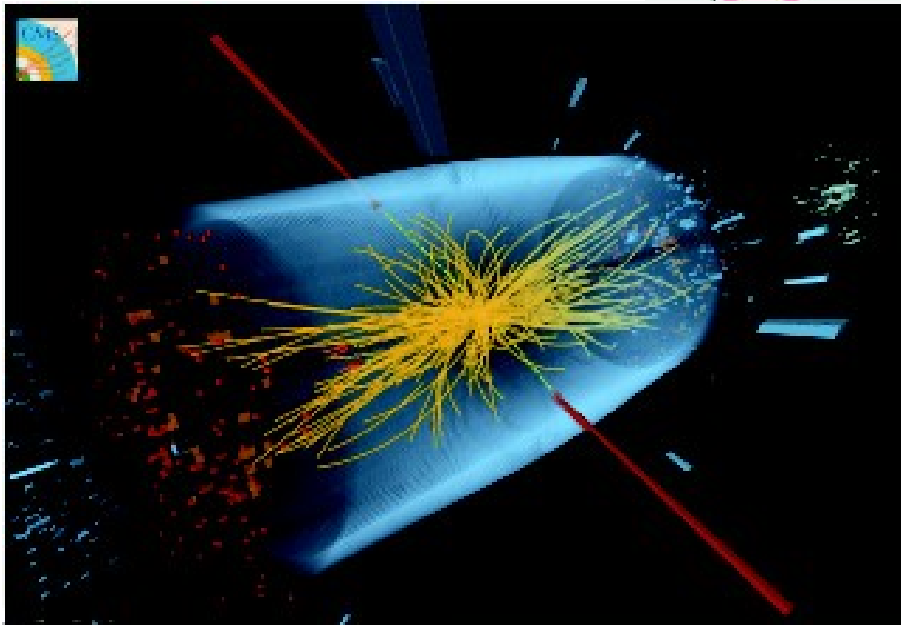
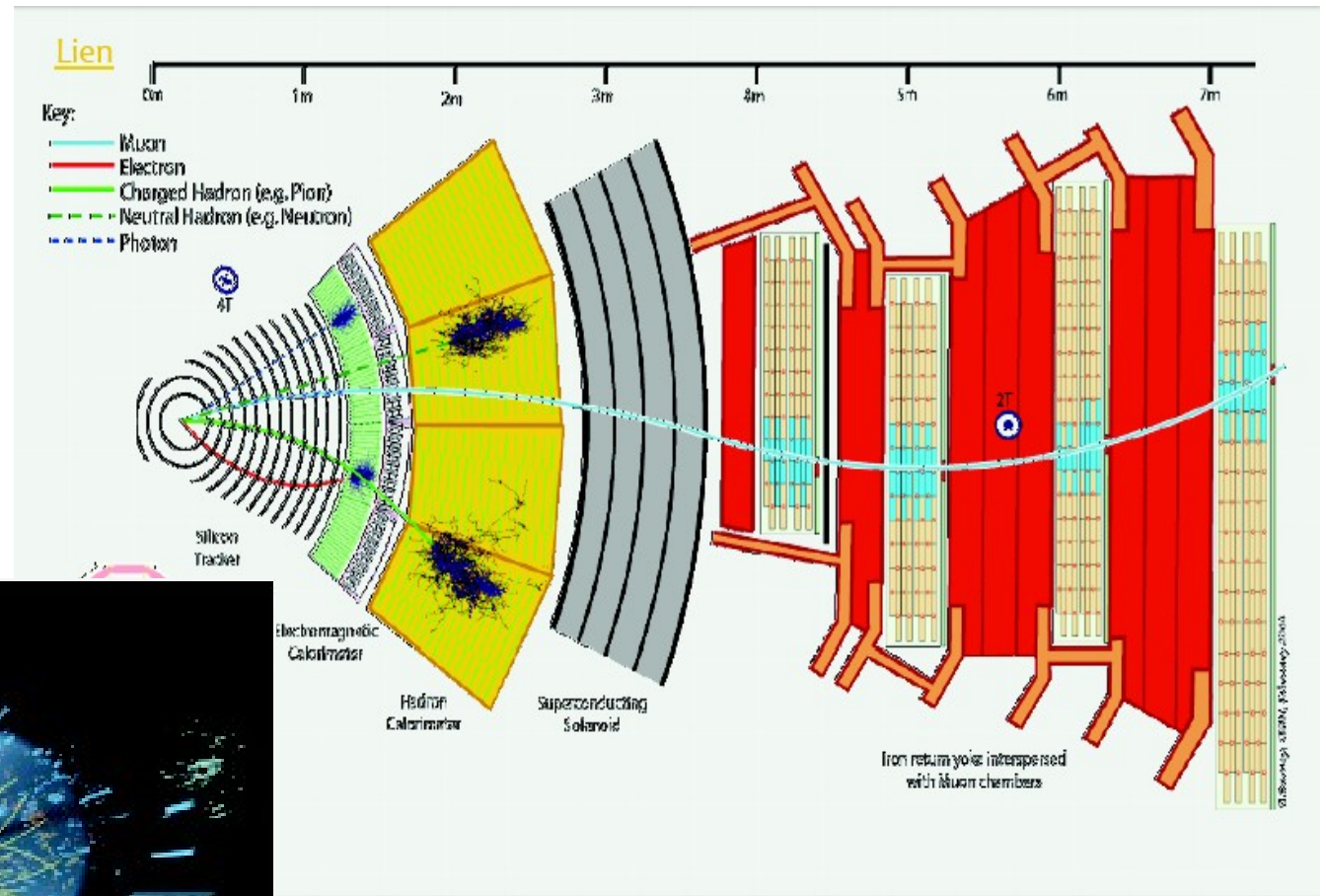
Accélérateurs & détecteurs



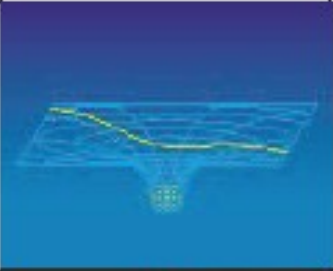



Accélérateurs & détecteurs



Accélérateurs & détecteurs



Physique Nucléaire

	Interaction	Fermions	Bosons	Portée	Charge	Intensité relative
	Gravitationnelle Pesanteur, les marées, les trajectoires des planètes...	toutes les particules	graviton (?)	infinie, décroît avec la distance	masse	10^{-39}
	Electromagnétique Quasiment tous les phénomènes de la vie courante	leptons chargés et quarks	photon	infinie, décroît avec la distance	électricité	10^{-2}
	Forte Cohésion des noyaux atomiques	quarks	gluon	10^{-15} m, croît avec la distance	couleur	1
	Faible Radioactivité beta, Soleil	leptons et quarks	boson (W^+ , W^- , Z^0)	10^{-18} cm	faible	10^{-7}

Physique Nucléaire

Group →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
↓ Period																		
1	1 H																	2 He
2	3 Li	4 Be											5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
3	11 Na	12 Mg											13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
4	19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
5	37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
6	55 Cs	56 Ba	* Lanthanoids	72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
7	87 Fr	88 Ra	** Actinoids	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Uub	113 Uut	114 Uuq	115 Uup	116 Uuh	117 Uus	118 Uuo
				57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	71 Lu
				89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No	103 Lr

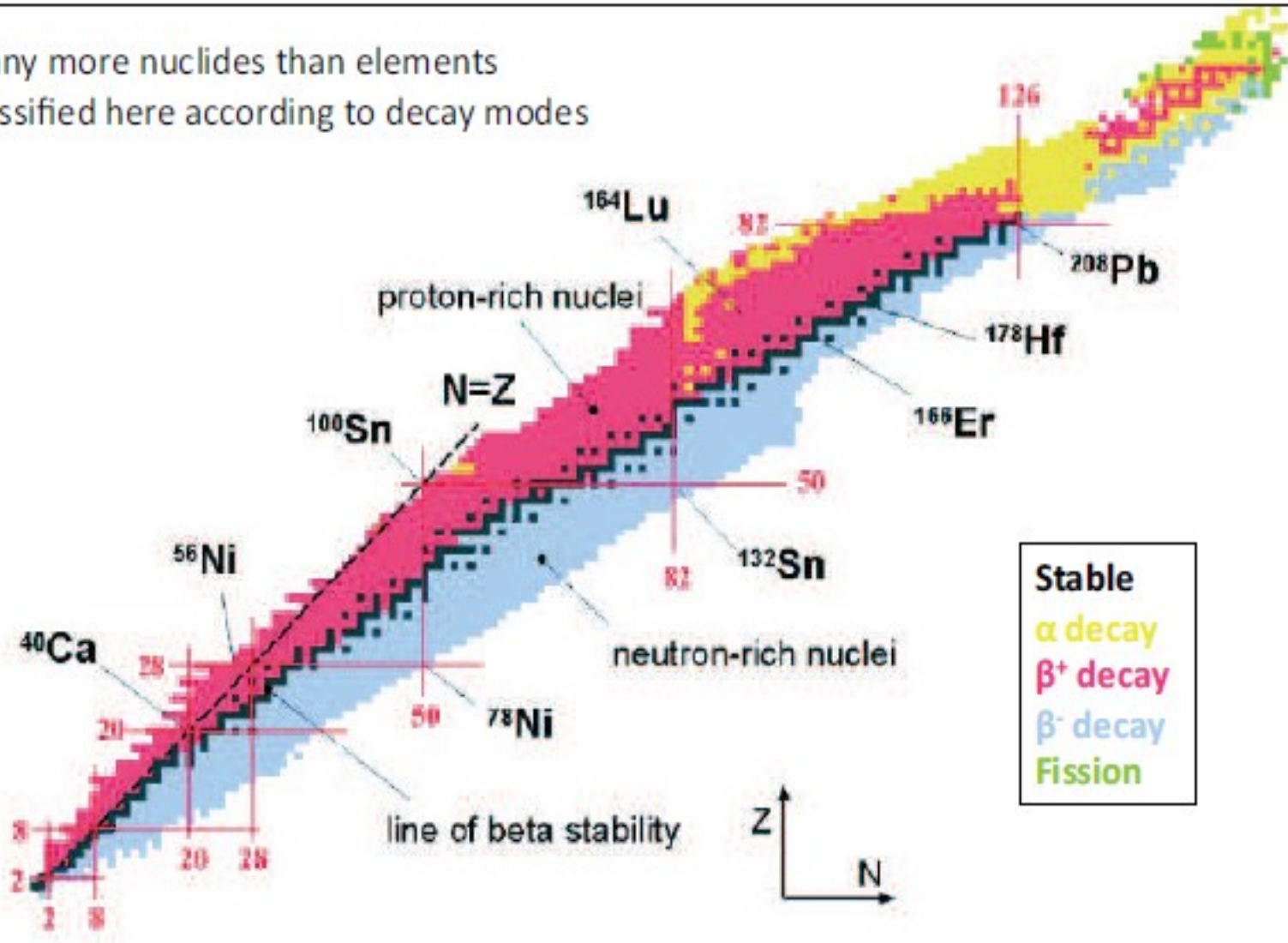
Atomic number colors show state at standard temperature and pressure (0 °C and 1 atm)

Borders show natural occurrence

Solids				Liquids	Gases	Unknown	Primordial	From decay	Synthetic	Undiscovered		
Metals							Metalloids			Nonmetals		Unknown
Alkali metals	Alkaline earth metals	Inner transition elements Lanthanides Actinides		Transition elements	Other metals		Other nonmetals		Halogens	Noble gases	Unknown	

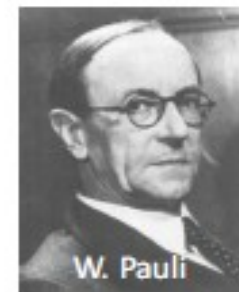
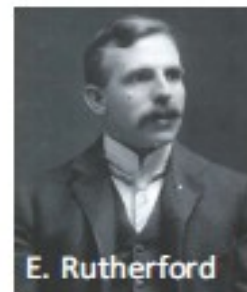
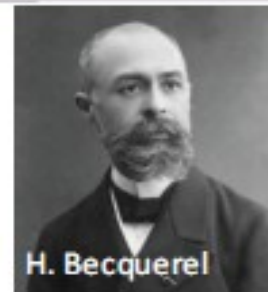
Charte des nucléides

Many more nuclides than elements
Classified here according to decay modes



Historique de la radioactivité

- **1895** : discovery of X-rays by Röntgen
- **1896** : discovery of the radioactivity of Uranium by Becquerel
- **1897** : discovery of electron by J. J. Thomson
- **1898** : discovery of the Radium by P. and M. Curie
- **1911** : discovery of the atomic Nucleus by E. Rutherford
- **1919** : discovery of the proton by E. Rutherford
- **1930** : discovery of the neutron by J. Chadwick
- **1930** : hypothesis of the neutrino by W. Pauli (discover in 1956 by F. Reines and C. Cowan)
- **1934** : discovery of artificial radioactivity by I. and F. Joliot-Curie



Energie de liaison

- The Binding Energy B is the energy required to split a nucleus into his constituents

$$m({}_Z^A\text{X})c^2 = Zm_p c^2 + Nm_n c^2 - B(A, Z)$$

- Convention : m stands for nucleus mass \neq M stands for neutral atom mass
- Binding energy is very important: gives information on
 - Forces between nucleons
 - Stability of nucleus
 - Energy released or required in nuclear decays or reactions
- If $B(A, Z) > 0$ the nucleus is bound. It is a necessary condition for the stability but not sufficient (as we will see later)

Energie de liaison

- It is often more convenient to use the Masses of the neutral atoms : $M(\frac{A}{Z}X)c^2 = m(\frac{A}{Z}X)c^2 + Zm_e c^2 - B(Ze)$
the binding energy of the electron is negligible with respect to the nuclear binding energy, so

$$M(\frac{A}{Z}X)c^2 = ZM(\frac{1}{1}H)c^2 + (A - Z)m_n c^2 - B(A, Z)$$

- Some numerical values :

- $M(^4\text{He}) = 3728.4 \text{ MeV}/c^2 \rightarrow B=28.30 \text{ MeV}$

- $M(^2\text{H})=1876.12 \text{ MeV}/c^2 \rightarrow B=2.22 \text{ MeV}$

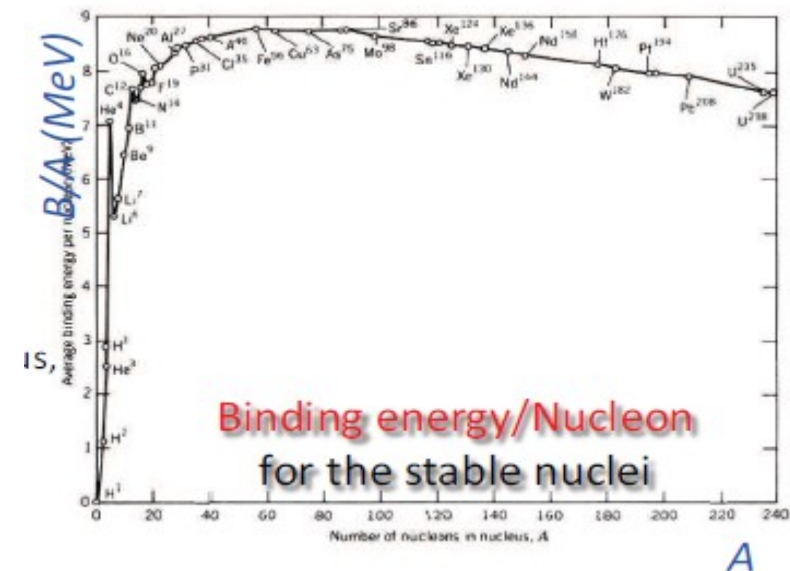
- $M(^{12}\text{C})=12u-6m_p-6m_n-6m_e = 92.16 \text{ MeV}=1.477 \cdot 10^{-11}\text{J}$

small value, but in one mole of ^{12}C , there is $8.9 \cdot 10^{12}\text{J}$ i.e. $2.5 \cdot 10^6 \text{ kWh}$!

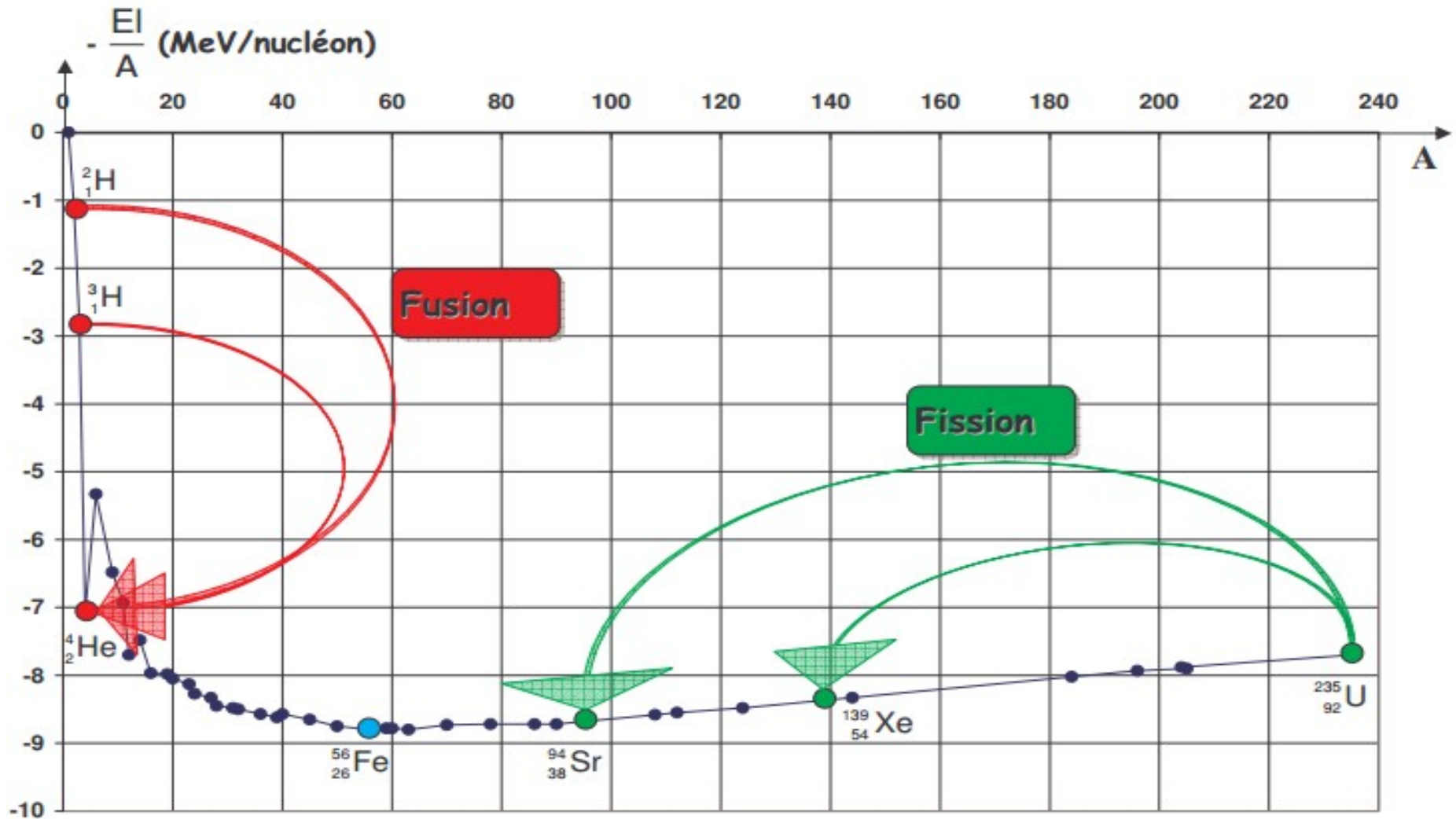
- Comparison of B/M for EM and strong nuclear force :

- In the atom H : $B/M = B/(m_p+m_e) \approx 1.4 \cdot 10^{-8}$

- In the nucleus ^{12}C : $B/M = B/(6m_p+6m_n) \approx 8.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$

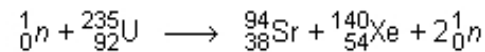


Energie de liaison



Energie de liaison

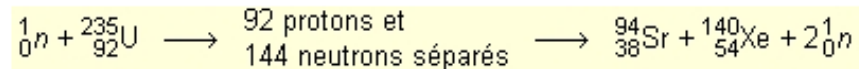
Exemple : Réaction de fission



calculons les énergies de liaison des noyau en MeV

$${}_{92}^{235}\text{U} : E_{I1} = 1\,784 ; \quad {}_{54}^{140}\text{Xe} : E_{I2} = 1\,161 ; \quad {}_{38}^{94}\text{Sr} : E_{I3} = 808$$

Pour calculer l'énergie libérée par la réaction, utilisons le schéma suivant :



Lors de la première étape, le système reçoit l'énergie E_{I1}

Lors de la deuxième étape, le système libère l'énergie $E_{I2} + E_{I3}$

La réaction de fission considérée libère l'énergie :

$$E = (E_{I2} + E_{I3}) - E_{I1} = 185 \text{ MeV}$$

Cette énergie libérée est égale à la perte d'énergie de masse ΔE lors de la réaction

Energie de séparation

Excès de masse

The separation energy S is the energy required to remove one nucleon (or a α particle) from a nucleus.

$$S/c^2 = \sum (\text{final masses}) - (\text{initial mass})$$

$$S_n = B(A, Z) - B(A - 1, Z)$$

$$S_p = B(A, Z) - B(A - 1, Z - 1)$$

$$S_\alpha = B(A, Z) - B(A - 4, Z - 2) - B(4, 2)$$

- Separation energy = extraction energy ($S > 0 \rightarrow$ energy cost)
- Even if a nucleus has $B(A, Z) > 0$, it will not be stable if there is a negative S_i

Another convenient way to express the atomic mass is to subtract the mean contribution of $A \times 1u$.

The mass excess Δ is defined the following way :

$$\Delta(A, Z) = M(A, Z) - A \times (1u)$$

The mass defect is the opposite of the mass excess.

Energie de réaction

Q-values

- Nuclear reaction : $a+X \rightarrow b+Y$ or $X(a,b)Y$

a : projectile

X : target

b, Y : emergent particles

- Q-value :

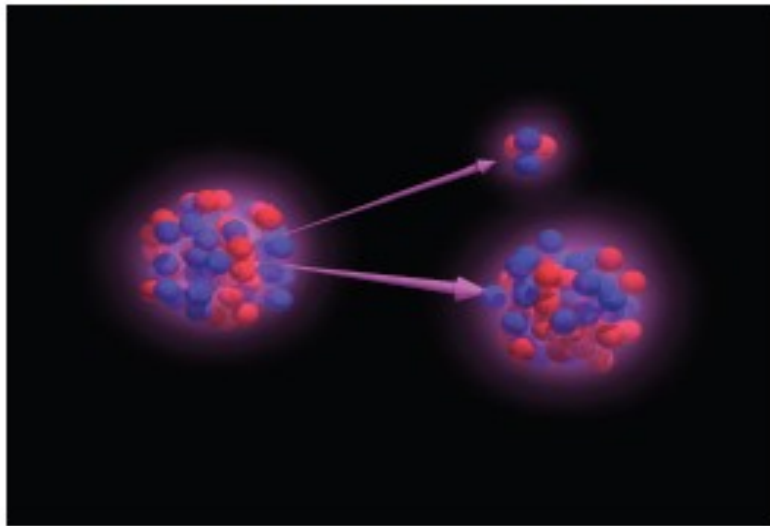
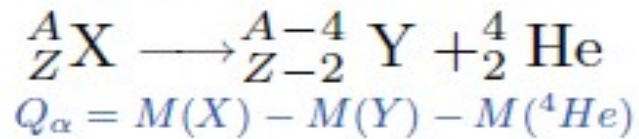
$$Q = \sum_i M_i c^2 - \sum_f M_f c^2$$

– $Q > 0 \rightarrow$ Exothermic reaction

– $Q < 0 \rightarrow$ Endothermic reaction

Modes de désintégration

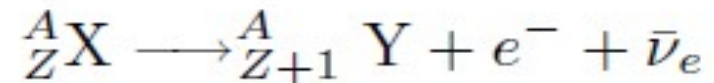
- α decay



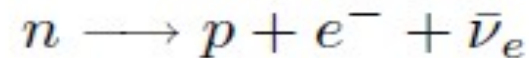
- γ decay $\frac{A}{Z}X^* \longrightarrow \frac{A}{Z}X + \gamma$

$$Q_{\gamma} = M(X^*) - M(X)$$

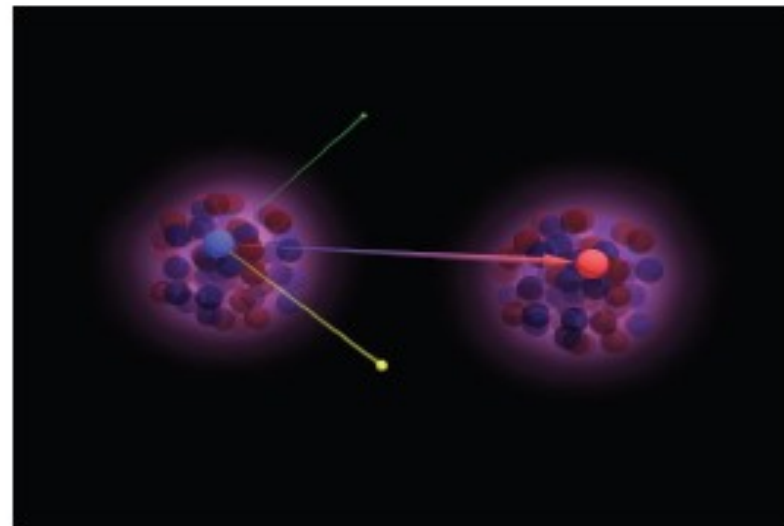
- β^- decay



At the nucleon level:



$$Q_{\beta^-} = M(X) - M(Y)$$



Modes de désintégration

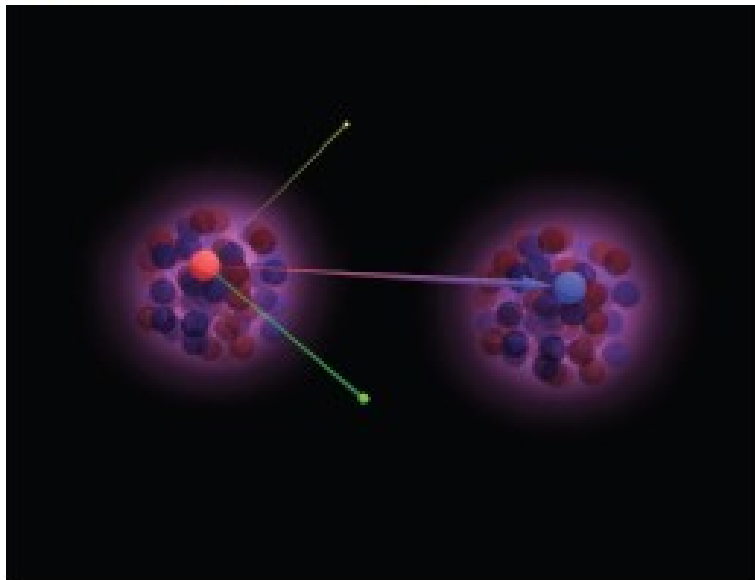
- β^+ decay



At the nucleon level:



$$Q_{\beta^+} = M(X) - M(Y) - 2m_e$$

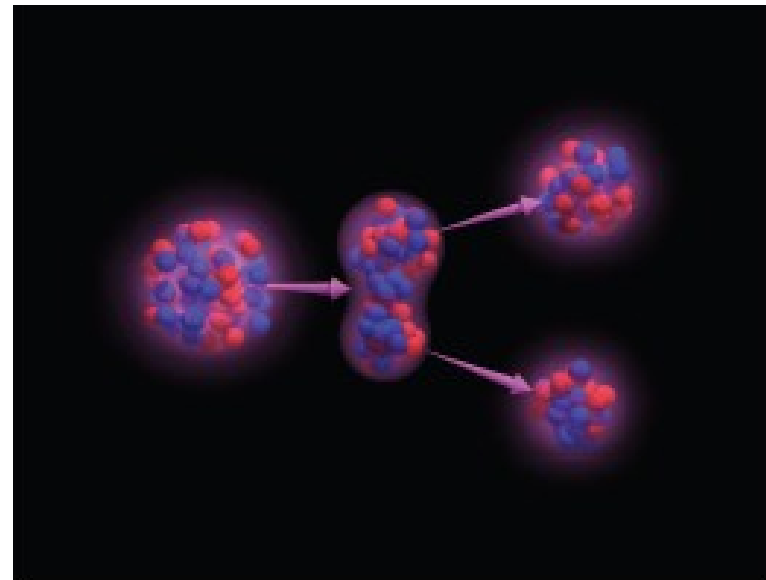


- Fission



Fission can be more complicated

$$Q_f = M(X) - M(Y) - M(W)$$



Loi de désintégration

- Number of nuclei remaining at time t :

$$N(t) = N(0) p(t) = N(0) e^{-\lambda t}$$

where $N(0)$ is the number of nuclei at time $t=0$

- Number of nuclei remaining after the lifetime τ :

$$\frac{N(\tau)}{N(0)} = e^{-\tau/\tau} = e^{-1} \simeq 36.8\%$$

- Half-life $T_{1/2}$ (or period): time over which 50% of the nuclei decay

$$\frac{N(T_{1/2})}{N(0)} = \frac{1}{2} = e^{-\lambda T_{1/2}} \implies T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = 0.693\tau$$

the radioactive periods have a wide range :

^{238}U	$T_{1/2}=4.5 \cdot 10^9$ years
^{226}Ra	$T_{1/2}=1617$ years

^{222}Rn	$T_{1/2}=3.8$ days
^{214}Po	$T_{1/2}=1.6 \cdot 10^{-4}$ s

Loi de désintégration

- **Rate of decays:**

$$-\frac{dN}{dt} = \lambda N(0)e^{-\lambda t} = \lambda N(t)$$

- **Activity:** number of decays per unit time at time t. This is the instantaneous decay speed.

$$A(t) = \left| \frac{dN}{dt} \right| = \lambda N(0)e^{-\lambda t} = \lambda N(t) = N(t)/\tau$$

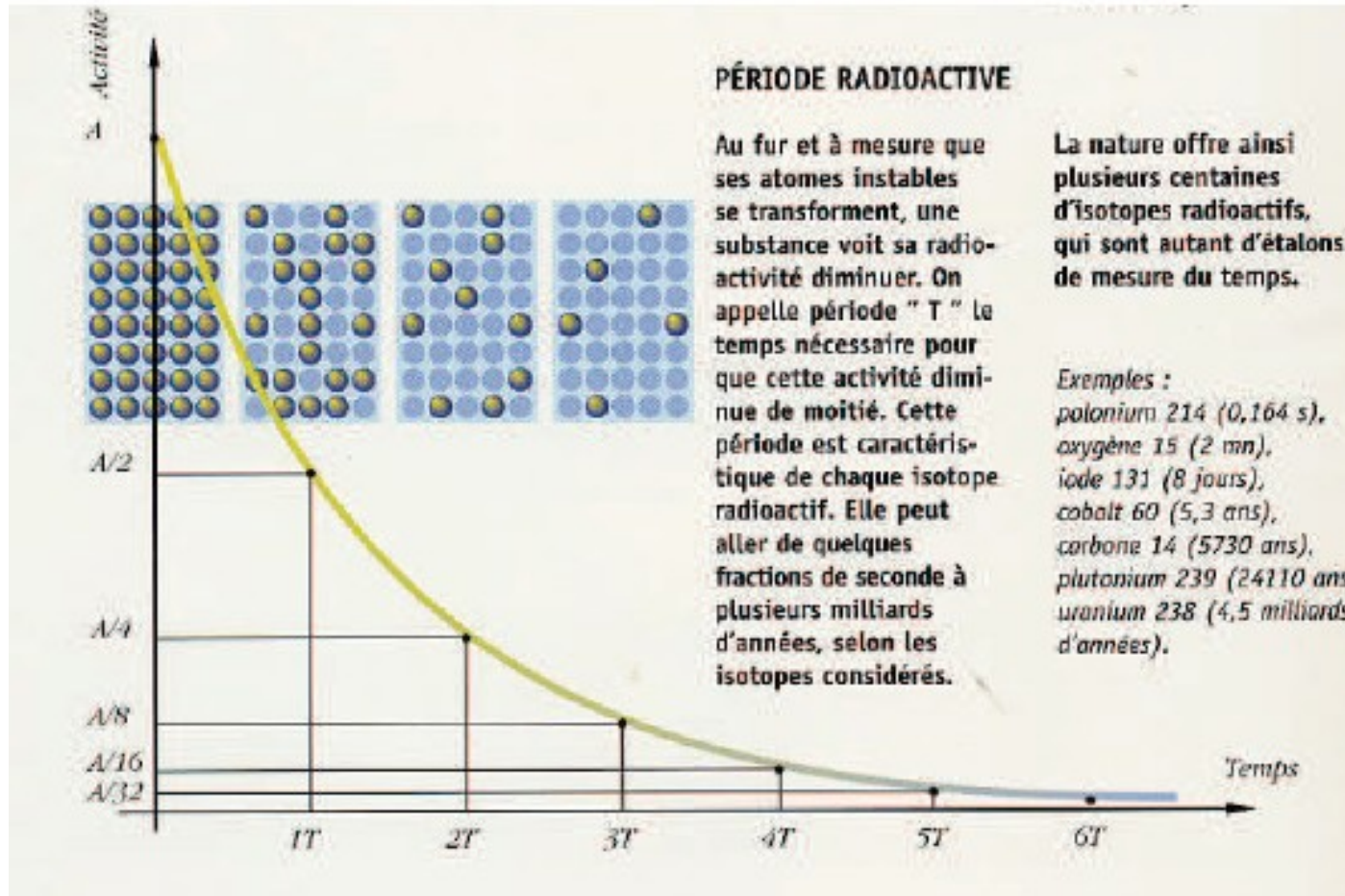
$$A(t) = \lambda N(0)e^{-\lambda t} = A(0)e^{-\lambda t}$$

- **Units of radioactivity:** defined as the number of decays per unit time = activity

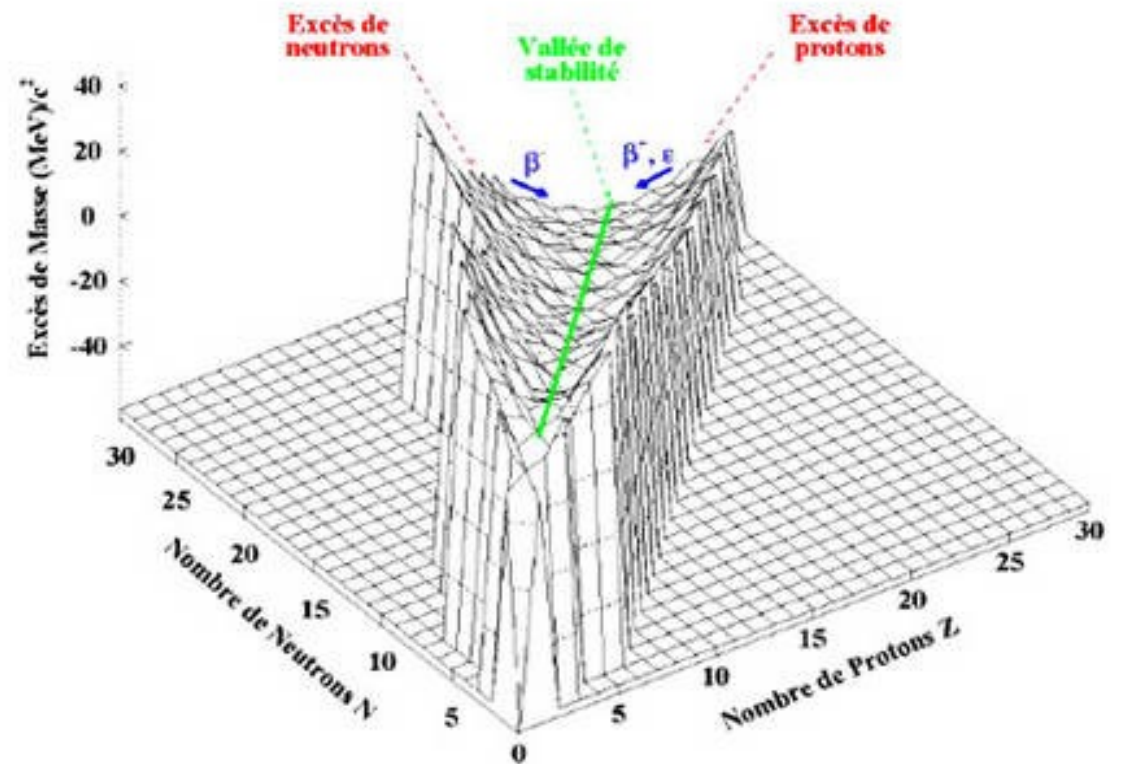
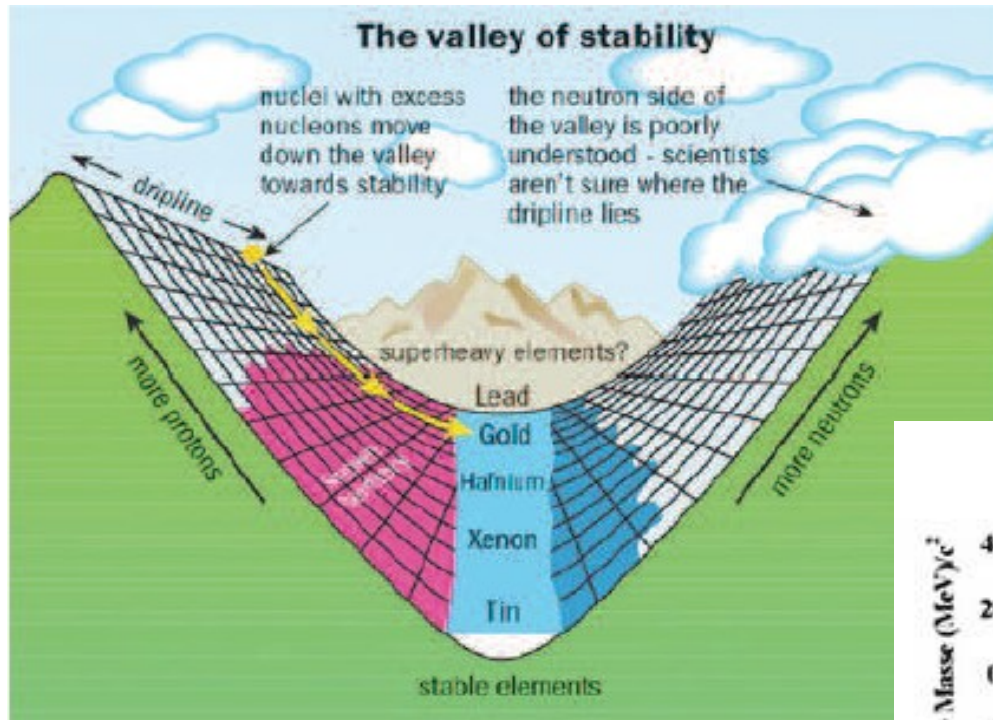
Becquerel (Bq) = 1 decay per second

Curie (Ci) = $3.7 \cdot 10^{10}$ decays per second (originally the activity of 1 gram of radium)

Loi de désintégration



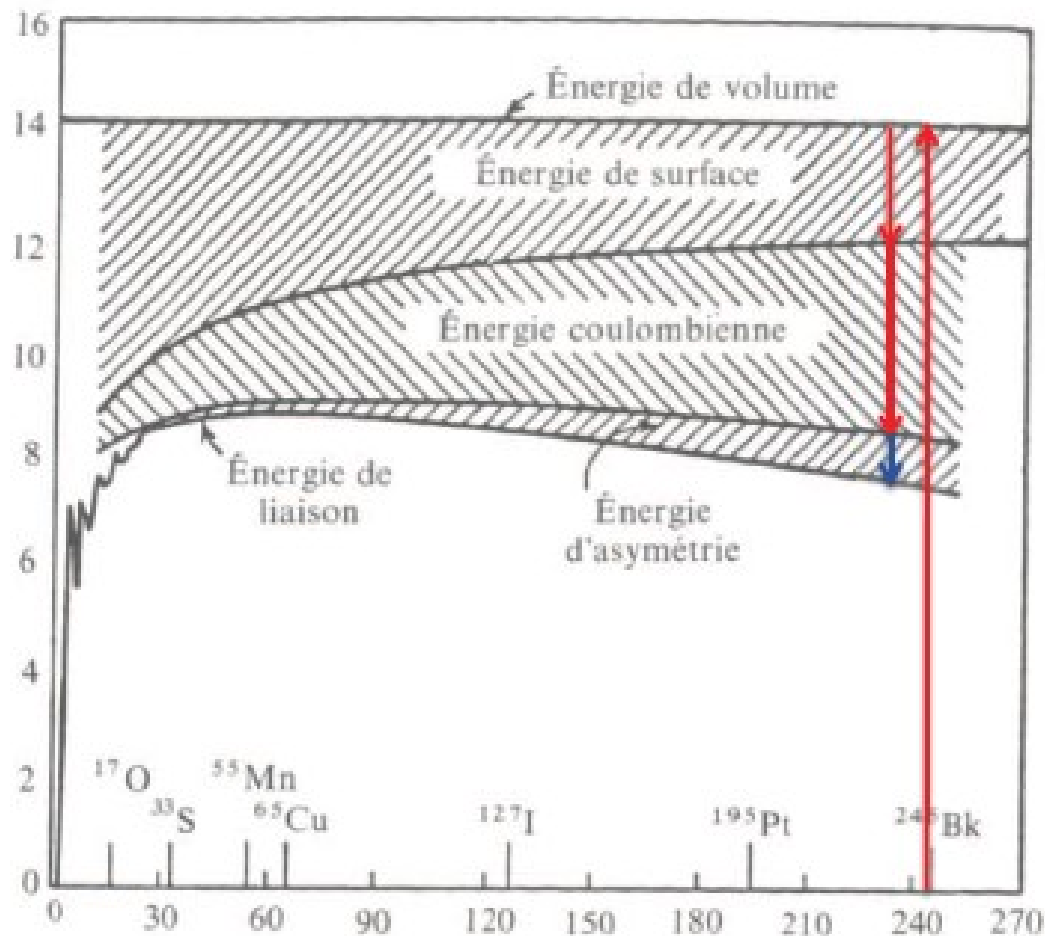
Vallée de stabilité



Modèle de la goutte liquide

Formule de masse

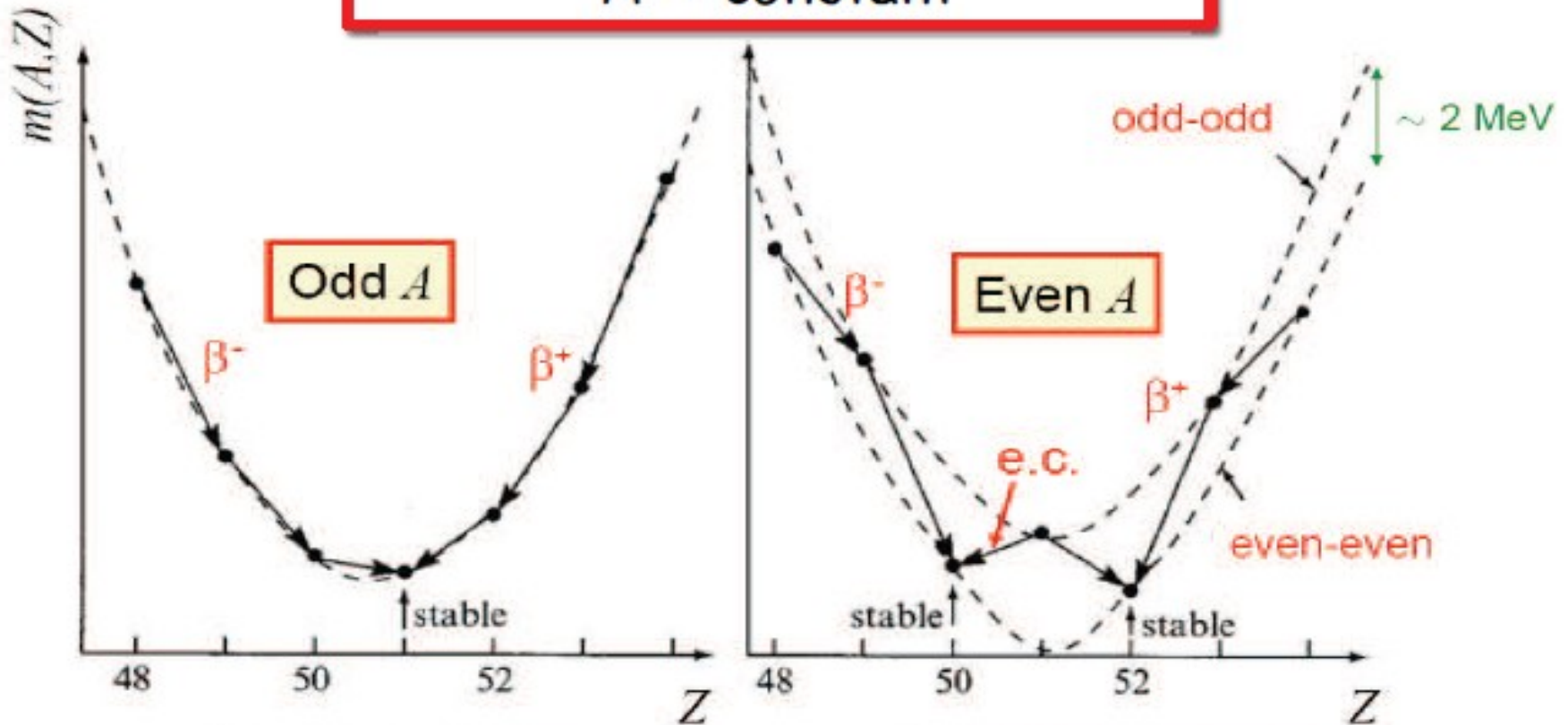
$$B(A, Z) = u_v A - u_s A^{2/3} - u_c \frac{Z^2}{A^{1/3}} - u_T \frac{(N-Z)^2}{A} + \delta$$



- This formula works well for the nuclei with $A > 20$.
- For the very light nuclei, the agreement is poor :
 - ✓ To few nucleons to allow a description in term of a drop a nuclear matter
 - ✓ predominance of shell effects

Application aux chaînes isobariques

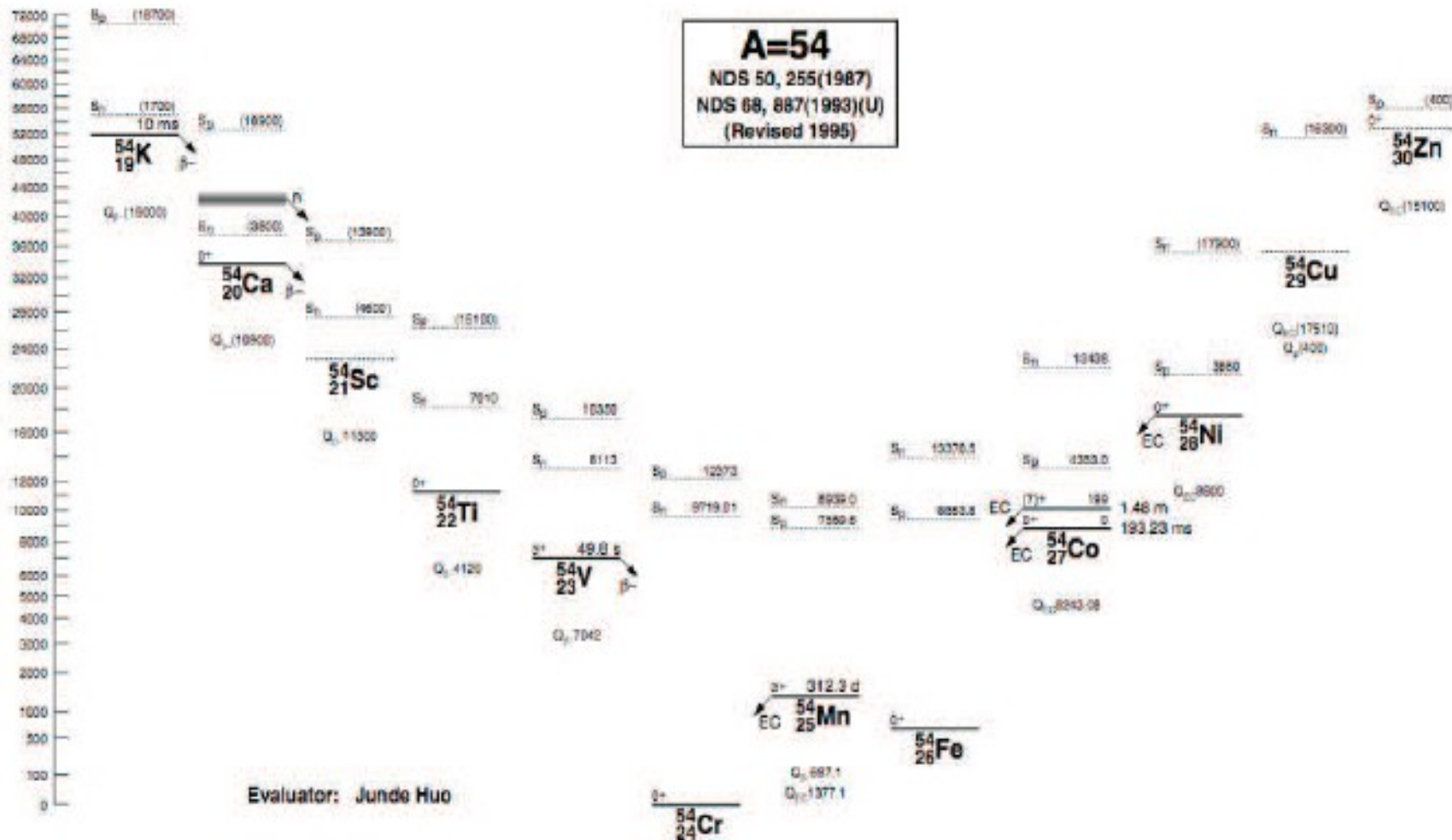
Examples of isobaric chains
 $A = \text{constant}$



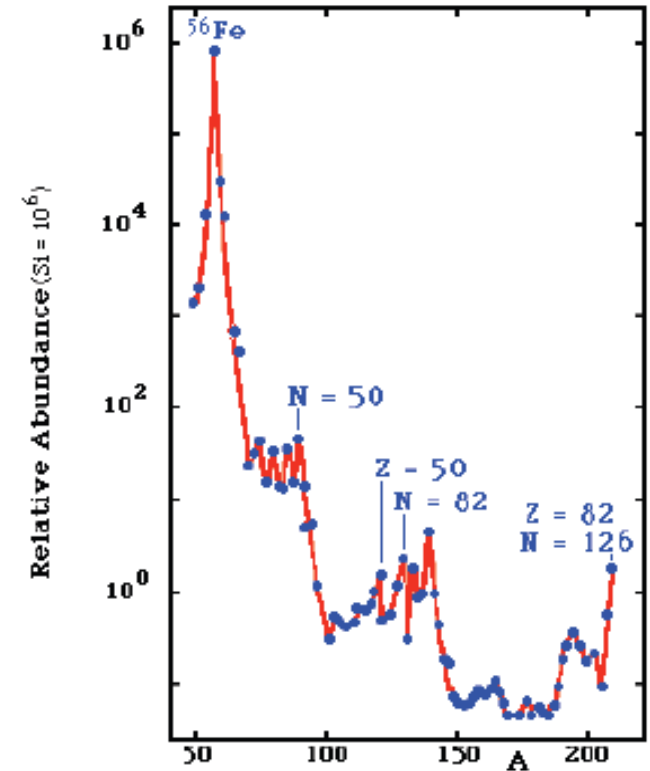
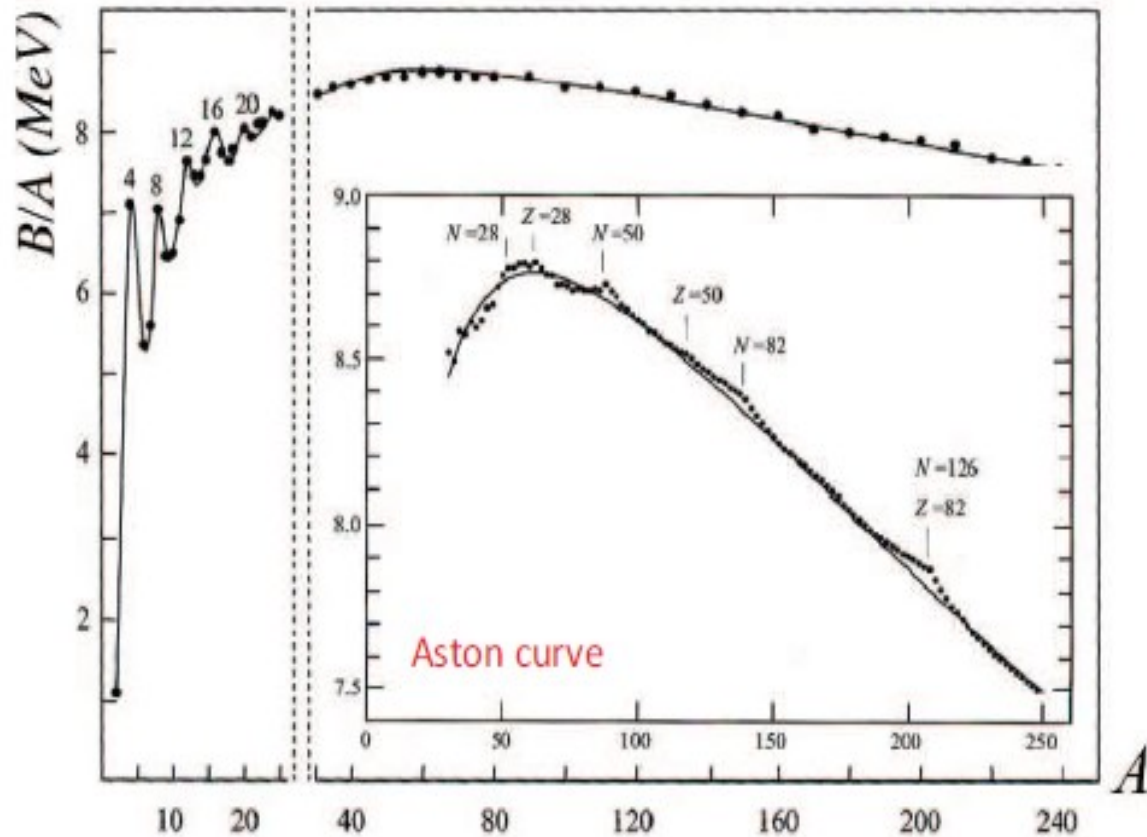
Usually only one isotope
stable against β -decay;
maybe two.

Typically two even-even
nuclides stable against β -
decay; no odd-odd ones.

Application aux chaînes isobariques



Nombres magiques



For some values of Z or N , nuclei are very stable and show significant departures from the average nucleus behavior (LDM model):

Z or $N = 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, 126$ “Magic numbers”

Modèle en couches

- Basic idea: solve Schrödinger equation $H_0\Psi = E\Psi$ with

$$H_0 = \sum_{\alpha=1}^A \left[T_{\alpha} + V(r_{\alpha}) + g\vec{L}_{\alpha} \cdot \vec{S}_{\alpha} \right]$$

- Treat each nucleon independently and solve A one-body problems, i.e. Solve A decoupled Schrödinger equations for the nuclear potential:

$$\left[T_{\alpha} + V(r_{\alpha}) + g\vec{L}_{\alpha} \cdot \vec{S}_{\alpha} \right] \psi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}_{\alpha}) = \epsilon_{\alpha} \psi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}_{\alpha})$$

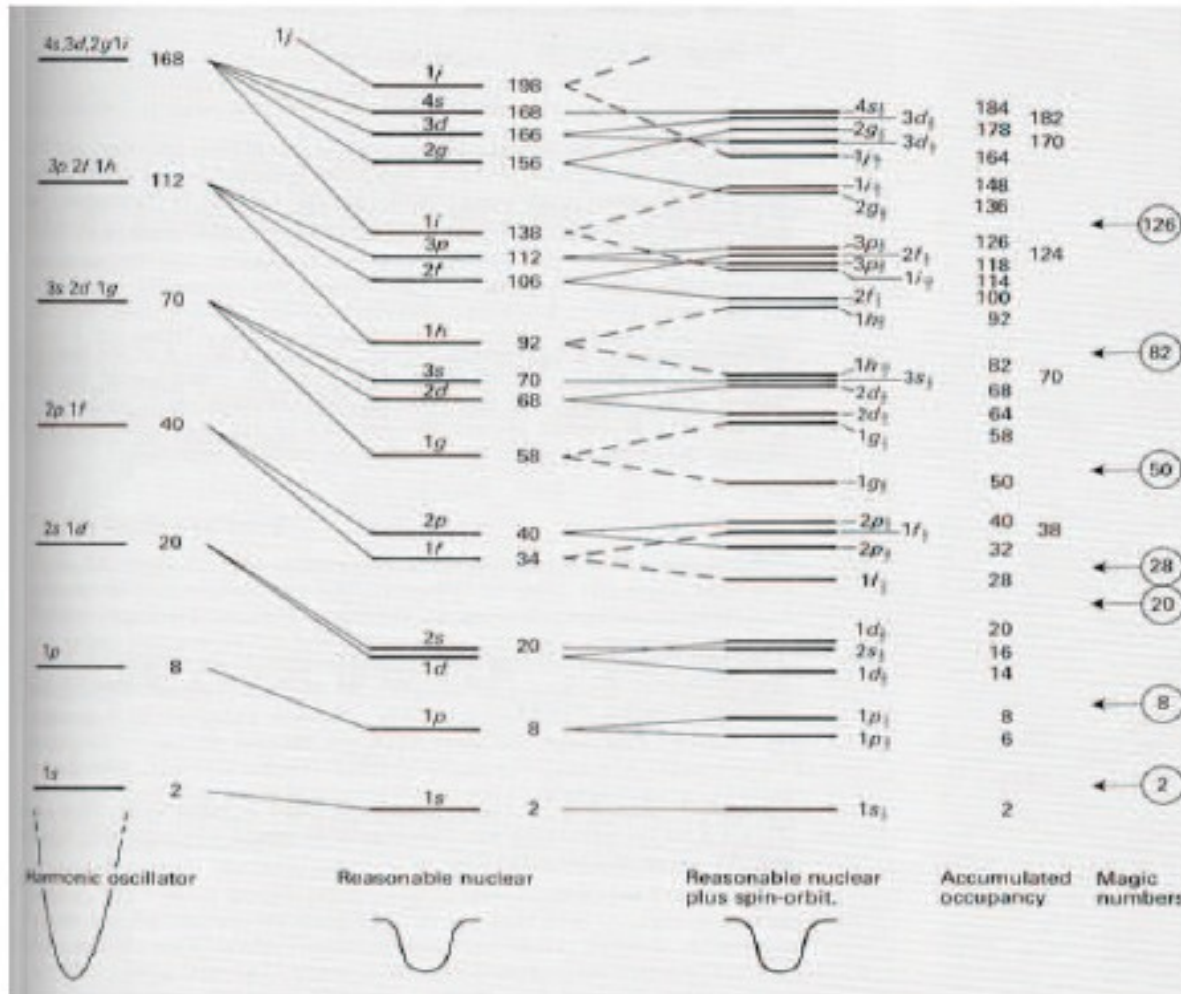
- $\psi_{\alpha}(\vec{r}_{\alpha})$: wavefunction of the nucleon α
- ϵ_{α} : Energy of the nucleon α

- For the nucleus:

$$E = \sum_{\alpha=1}^A \epsilon_{\alpha}$$

$$\Psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_A) = \left[\prod_{\substack{n=1 \\ \text{antisymmetric}}}^N \psi_n(\vec{r}_n) \right] \left[\prod_{\substack{p=1 \\ \text{antisymmetric}}}^Z \psi_p(\vec{r}_p) \right] \Rightarrow \text{Slater determinant}$$

Modèle en couches



Explain magic numbers:
2,8,20,28,50,82,126

Experimentally, after **82** protons and neutrons magic numbers differ:
 - p: **114** and **126**
 - n: **126** and **184**
 strong coulomb effect