

2.2 Simultaneous versus successive Cooper pair transfer in nuclei

Cooper pair transfer is commonly thought to be tantamount to simultaneous transfer. In this process a nucleon goes over through the NN -interaction v , the second one does it making use of the correlations with its partner (Fig. 2.2.1). Consequently, in the independent particle limit, simultaneous transfer should not be possible. Nonetheless, it remains operative. This is because the particle transferred through v is followed by a second one which profits of the non-orthogonality of the wavefunctions describing the single-particle motion in target and projectile (Fig. 2.2.2). This is the reason why this (non-orthogonality) transfer amplitude has to be subtracted from the previous one, representing a spurious contribution to simultaneous transfer arising from the overcompleteness of the basis employed. In other words, $T^{(1)}$ gives the wrong cross section, even at the level of simultaneous transfer, as it violates two-nucleon transfer sum rules. The resulting cancellation is quite conspicuous in actual nuclei, in keeping with the fact that Cooper pairs are weakly correlated systems (Fig. 2.2.3). This is the reason why, the successive transfer process in which v acts twice, is the dominant mechanism in pair transfer reactions (Fig. 2.2.2). While this mechanism seems antithetical to the transfer of strongly correlated fermion pairs (bosons), it probes, in the nuclear case, the same pairing correlations as simultaneous transfer does (App. 2.A). This is because, nuclear Cooper pairs (quasi-bosons) are quite extended objects, the two nucleons being (virtually) correlated over distances much larger than typical nuclear dimensions. In a two-nucleon transfer process this virtual property becomes real, the difference between the character of simultaneity and of succession becoming strongly blurred.

Appendix 1.D Pair transfer

The semiclassical two-nucleon transfer amplitudes fulfill, in the **independent particle limit**, the relations (?),

$$a_{sim}^{(1)} = a_{NO}^{(1)} \quad (2.A.1)$$

and

$$a_{succ}^{(2)} = a_{one-part}^{(1)} \times a_{one-part}^{(1)} \quad (2.A.2)$$

with

$$a + A \rightarrow f + F \rightarrow b + B, \quad (2.A.3)$$

corresponding to the product of two single nucleon transfer processes. On the other hand, in the **strong correlation limit** one can write, making use of the post-prior representation

$$\tilde{a}_{succ}^{(2)} = a_{succ}^{(2)} - a_{NO}^{(1)} \quad (2.A.4)$$

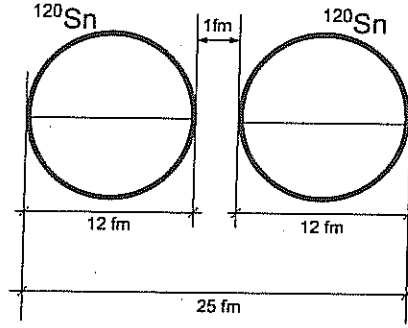


Figure 2.A.1: Schematic representation of two tin isotopes (radius $R_0 \approx 6$ fm) at the distance of closest approach in a heavy ion collision.

Answer

The order parameter can be also written as,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \alpha_0 &= \sum_{\nu, \nu' > 0} \langle BCS | a_{\nu}^{\dagger} | \text{int}(\nu') \rangle \langle \text{int}(\nu') | a_{\nu'}^{\dagger} | BCS \rangle \\
 &\approx \sum_{\nu, \nu' > 0} \langle BCS | a_{\nu}^{\dagger} \alpha_{\nu'}^{\dagger} | BCS \rangle \langle BCS | \alpha_{\nu'} a_{\nu}^{\dagger} | BCS \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{\nu, \nu' > 0} \langle BCS(A+2) | V(A+1) \alpha_{\nu} \alpha_{\nu'}^{\dagger} | BCS(A+1) \rangle \langle BCS(A+1) | \alpha_{\nu'} U_{\nu}(A) \alpha_{\nu}^{\dagger} | BCS(A) \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{\nu > 0} V_{\nu}(A+1) U_{\nu}(A), \quad (2.A.14)
 \end{aligned}$$

where the (inverse) quasiparticle transformation relation $a_{\nu}^{\dagger} = U_{\nu} \alpha_{\nu}^{\dagger} + V_{\nu} \alpha_{\bar{\nu}}$ was used. An example of the two-nucleon spectroscopic amplitudes associated with the reaction $^{124}\text{Sn}(p, t)^{122}\text{Sn}(\text{gs})$ is given in Table (2.B.1)

Appendix ~~2.B~~ Comments on the optical potential

As a rule, the depopulation of the entrance, elastic channel $\alpha(a, A)$ (see Fig. 2.B.1) is mainly due to one-particle transfer channels $\phi(f(=a-1), F(=A+1))$. Other

1.E

1.E.2 table
with UV BCS
and reprot.
ampl.
Covello

$nlj^a)$	2n spectr. ampls. $^{124}\text{Sn}(p,t)^{122}\text{Sn}(\text{gs})$		
	BCS ^{b)}	NuShell ^{c)}	$V_{\text{low-k}}^d)$
$1g_{7/2}$	0.44	0.63	
$2d_{5/2}$	0.35	0.60	
$2d_{3/2}$	0.58	0.72	
$3s_{1/2}$	0.36	0.52	
$1h_{11/2}$	1.22	-1.24	

Table 2.B.1: a) quantum numbers of the two-particle configurations $(nlj)_{J=0}^2$ coupled to angular momentum $J = 0$. b) $\langle \text{BCS} | P_v | \text{BCS} \rangle = \sqrt{2j_v + 1} U_v(A) V_v(A + 2)$ ($A + 2 = 124$) where $P_v = a_v^\dagger a_v$ ($v \equiv nlj$) (cf. ???). c) Two-neutron overlap functions obtained making use of the shell-model wavefunctions for the ground state of ^{122}Sn and ^{124}Sn and the code NuShell (?) (cf. also ?). The wavefunctions were obtained starting with a G matrix derived from the CD -Bonn nucleon-nucleon interaction ?. These amplitudes were used in the calculation of $^{124}\text{Sn}(p,t)^{122}\text{Sn}$ absolute cross sections carried out by I.J. Thompson (?).

1.E.1

aggiungere la
bibliografia

nel file
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està.

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Appendix 1, A

Lindemann criterion

3/01/13

(1)

The original Lindemann ^(Lindemann, 1910) criterion compares the atomic fluctuation amplitude $\langle \Delta r^2 \rangle^{1/2}$ with the lattice constant a of a crystal. If this ratio, which is defined as the disorder parameter Δ_L , reaches a certain value, fluctuations cannot increase without damaging or destroying the crystal lattice. The results of experiments and simulations show that the critical value for Δ_L for simple solids is in the range of 0.10 to 0.15, relatively independent of the type of substance, the nature of the interaction potential, and the crystal structure (Bilgram 1987; Löwen, 1994; Stillinger 1995). Applications of this criterion to an inhomogeneous finite system like a protein in its native state (aperiodic crystal, Schrödinger, 1944) requires evaluation of the generalized Lindemann parameter (Stillinger and Stillinger, 1990),

$$\Delta_L = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_i \langle r_i^2 \rangle / N}}{a'}$$

where N is the number of atoms and a' the most probable non-bonded near-neighbor ~~distance~~ distance, \vec{r}_i is the position of atom i , $\Delta r_i^2 = (\vec{r}_i - \langle \vec{r}_i \rangle)^2$, and $\langle \rangle$ denotes configurational

~~Lindemann, P.A. (1910) The calculation of molecular vibrational frequencies, Physik. Z., 11, 609-612~~

(at the conditions of measurement of simulations (e.g., biological) in which case $T \approx 310\text{ K}$, $\text{pH} \approx 7$, etc, etc) Δ_L^{int} averages. The dynamics as a function of the distance from the geometric center of the protein is characterized by defining interior Δ_L^{int} Linde mann parameter

$$\Delta_L^{\text{int}}(r_{\text{cut}}) = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i, r_i < r_{\text{cut}}} \langle \Delta r_i^2 \rangle / N}}{a'}$$

~~which~~ which is obtained by averaging over the atoms that are within a chosen cutoff distance, r_{cut} , from the center of mass of the protein.

Simulations and experimental data for a number of proteins, in particular Barnase, Myoglobin, Crambin and Ribonuclease A indicate $\Delta_L^{\text{int}} \approx 0.14$ as the critical value distinguishing between solid-like and liquid-like behaviour and $r_{\text{cut}} \approx 6\text{ \AA}$. As can be seen from Table 1, the interior of a protein is solid-like ($\Delta_L^{\text{int}} < 0.14$), while its surface is liquid-like ($\Delta_L^{\text{int}} > 0.14$) under physiological conditions. The beginning of thermal denaturation in the simulations appears to be related to the melting of its interior (i.e. $\Delta_L^{\text{int}} > 0.14$), so that the entire protein becomes liquid-like

Proteins	$\Delta_L (\Delta_L^{\text{int}} (6\text{ \AA})) (300\text{ K})$			
	MD simulations			X-ray data
	Barnase	Myoglobin	Crambin	Ribonuclease A
all atoms	0.21 (0.12)	0.16 (0.11)	0.16 (0.09)	0.16 (0.12)
backbone atoms only	0.16 (0.10)	0.12 (0.09)	0.12 (0.08)	0.13 (0.10)
side-chain atoms only	0.25 (0.14)	0.18 (0.12)	0.19 (0.10)	0.19 (0.13)

Table 1. The heavy-atom $\Delta_L (\Delta_L^{\text{int}})$ values for four proteins at 300 K (After Zhou et al (1999))

footnote

3/10/14 (2)_a

*) Fluctuations, classical (thermal) or quantal imply a probabilistic description, while one can only predict the odds for a given outcome of an experiment, probabilities themselves evolve in a deterministic fashion.

Lindemann ("disorder") parameter
for a nucleus

3/01/14 (3)

Making use of the harmonic oscillator approximation for the single-particle potential (cf. Fig. 2-22 Bohr and Mottelson, 1969), one can write (cf. Eq. (2-130) of the above reference),

$$\sum_{k=1}^A \langle r_k^2 \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{M\omega_0} \sum_{k=1}^A (N_k + \frac{3}{2}) = \frac{3}{5} AR^2,$$

where $A = N + Z$ is the nuclear mass number, while the nuclear radius $R = r_0 A^{1/3}$, with $r_0 = 1.2 \text{ fm}$. It is of notice that N_k is the oscillator principal quantum number associated with the state k (cf. Fig. 2-23 Bohr and Mottelson, 1969).

The average internucleon distance can be determined from the relation (Brink and Broglia, 2005, App. C)

$$a' = \left(\frac{AV}{A} \right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{\frac{4\pi}{3} R^3}{A} \right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{4\pi}{3} \right)^{1/3} \times 1.2 \text{ fm}.$$
$$\approx 2 \text{ fm}$$

Thus,


$$\Delta_L = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}} R}{2 \text{ fm}} \approx 2.3, \quad (A \approx 120).$$

While it is difficult to compare crystal, aperiodic finite crystal and atomic nuclei, arguably, the above value indicates that a nucleus is liquid-like. More precisely, it is made out of a non-Newtonian fluid, which reacts elastically to sudden sollicitations, and plastically to strain. In any case, one expects from $\Delta_L \approx 2.3$ that the ^{nuclear} mean free path is long, larger than nuclear dimensions.

4/1/14

(4)

Quantality parameter

In quantum mechanics, the zero-point kinetic energy, $\sim \hbar^2 / Ma^2$, involved in the localization of a particle within a volume of radius a implies that the lowest energy state, the particle may be delocalized because the potential energy gain of the ^{single} classical configuration  of fixed particles, which minimize U is overwhelmed by the quantal kinetic energy. Such delocalized quantal fluids ~~provide the basis for discussing~~ provide the basis for discussing the state of electrons in atoms, and metals, of the He atoms in the ground state of the He liquids (both fermionic ^3He , and bosonic ^4He), and the state of nucleons in the ground state of atomic nuclei, a (non-newtonian) quantum fluid.

The relative magnitude of the quantal kinetic energy of the localized state compared with the potential energy can be qualitatively characterized by the quantality parameter (Mottelson, 1998)

$$K = \frac{\hbar^2}{Ma^2} \frac{1}{|V_0|}$$

where M is the mass of the individual particles, while V_0 and a measure the strength of the attraction and the range corresponding to the minimum of the potential, respectively. When K is small, quantal effects are small and the lowest state of the system

is expected to have a crystalline structure, while for sufficiently large values of K , the system will remain a quantum fluid even in its ground state.

The values of the force parameters and the resulting quantality parameters for several condensed matter systems are collected in Table 2. For nuclei we have two sets. One associated with the bare NN-interaction (1S_0 channel),

$$a_0 \approx 1 \text{ fm} ; v_0 = -100 \text{ MeV},$$

and another with the induced pairing interaction

$$a_0 \approx R (= 1.2 A^{1/3} \text{ fm}) ; v_0 \approx -0.5 \text{ MeV}.$$

It is seen that the transition between quantum liquid and crystalline solid occurs at $K \approx 0.1$ (between He and H_2). Thus nuclei are expected to display a (non-newtonian) quantum liquid structure.

Constituents		M ^{a)}	a_0 (cm)	$ v_0 $ (eV)	K	phase T=0
³ He		3	$2.9(10^{-8})$	$8.6(10^{-4})$	0.19	liquid
⁴ He		4	$2.9(10^{-8})$	$8.6(10^{-4})$	0.14	liquid
H ₂		2	$3.3(10^{-8})$	$32(10^{-4})$	0.06	solid
²⁰ Ne		20	$3.1(10^{-8})$	$31(10^{-4})$	0.007	solid
nucleons	bare	1	$9(10^{-14})$	$100(10^6)^b$	0.5	liquid
	ind.	1	$60(10^{-14})$	$0.5(10^6)$	2.0	liquid

a) units of nucleon mass

b) 1S_0 NN - Argonne v_{14}

Table 2 Quantality parameter.
After Mottelson (1998)

4/01/13 ⑥

In keeping with the fact that K is of the order of 1 in the nuclear case, it is likely that mean field theory is applicable to the description of the nucleons in the ground state of the system. The marked variation of the binding energy per particle as a function of mass number ~~for~~ $A = N + Z$ for specific values of N and Z (magic numbers), testifies to the fact that nucleons in the nucleus display, in states ~~lying~~ lying close to the Fermi energy, a long mean free path as compared with nuclear dimensions ($R \approx 1.2 A^{1/3} \text{ fm} \approx 6-7 \text{ fm}$).

The results discussed above, namely that $K \ll 1$ ~~implies~~ implies localization, that is fixed relations between the constituents, and thus spontaneous symmetry breaking, while ~~for~~ $K \geq 0.14$ implies delocalization and thus homogeneity is an example of the fact that while potential energy always prefer special arrangements, fluctuations, classical or quantal, favour symmetry.

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A diagram showing a rectangular box labeled "Heat bath" at the bottom. Inside the box is a smaller rectangle containing a circle with a dot in the center, labeled "A". An arrow points from the circle towards the bottom-left corner of the inner rectangle, labeled a_1 . A curved arrow originates from the word "system" in a bubble at the top right and points to the inner rectangle.

Lindeman parameter

$$\frac{(\langle \Delta r^2 \rangle / N)^{1/2}}{a'}$$

$\langle \Delta r^2 \rangle$
thermal
(localization
and fluctuations)

quantal

fluctuating part

potential

classical

$$H = \underbrace{T}_{\text{fluctuating part}} + U$$
$$F = U - \underbrace{T S}_{\text{fluctuating part}}$$

classical mechs.

statist. mechs.

T : KE
 T : temp

Absurd to calculate the probability of an event by building trajectories and accumulating statistics, same as to calculate a transition probability in term of all the path integrals of Feynman.

Quantality parameter

$$K = \frac{\hbar^2}{M a^2} \frac{1}{|\nu_0|}$$

bare NN-interaction (1S_0 channel)

$$a_0 \approx 1 \text{ fm} ; \nu_0 = -100 \text{ MeV}$$

induced pairing interaction

$$a_0 \approx R (=1.2 A^{1/3} \approx 6 \text{ fm}) ; \nu_0 \approx -0.5 \text{ MeV}$$

Thus

$$K \approx \begin{cases} 0.4 & (\text{bare}) \\ 2.0 & (\text{induced}) \end{cases}$$