

Des noyaux sans neutrons

Aperçus sur les modèles en physique nucléaire avant 1932

Joël Pouthas

Institut de Physique Nucléaire
CNRS/IN2P3, Université Paris-Sud 11

pouthas@ipno.in2p3.fr

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Aperçus sur les modèles en physique nucléaire avant 1932

Joël Pouthas

Laboratoire de Physique Corpusculaire
ENSI Caen

pouthas@lpccaen.in2p3.fr

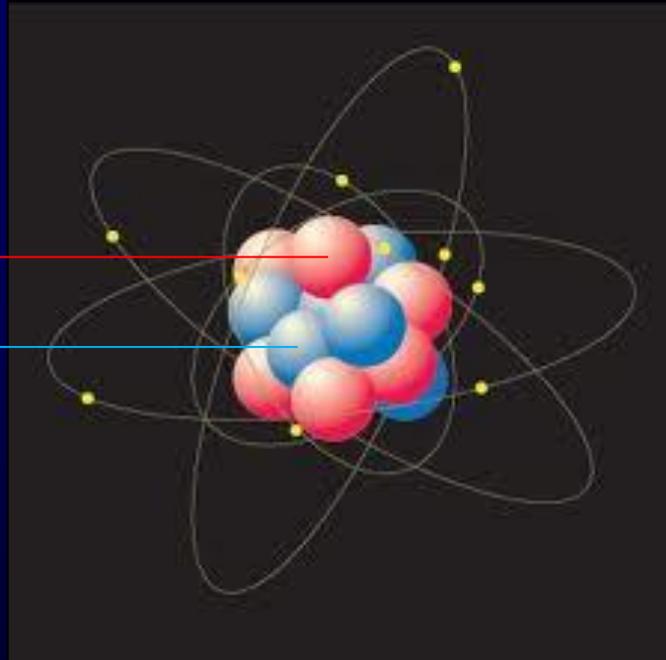
Atome

Noyau

Electrons

Protons

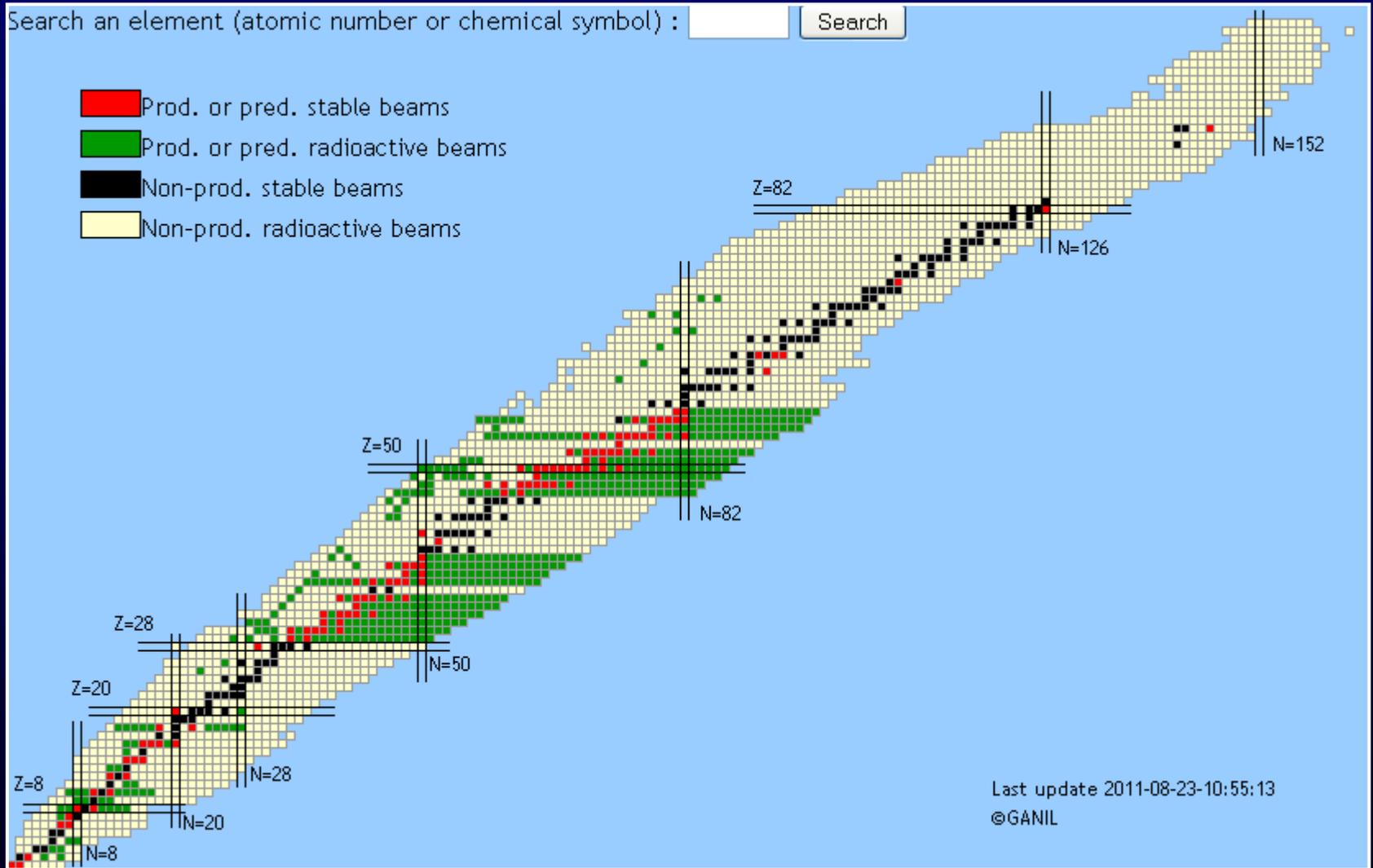
Neutrons



Noyau

... avant 1932

~~Z~~ nombre de protons



~~N~~ nombre de neutrons

Noyau

... avant 1932

Z

Numéro atomique de l'élément
Charge du noyau

Composants du noyau

Protons

Electrons

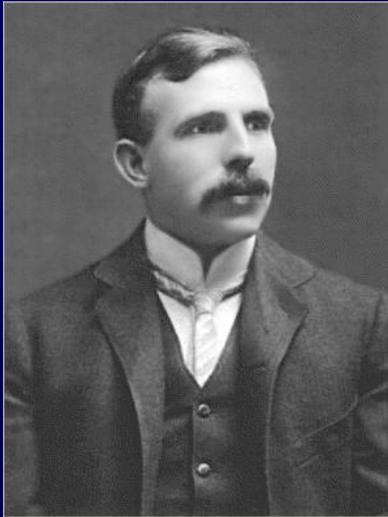
Autres ?

Bertrand Russel, *Analysis of Matter*, 1927

~~Z nombre de protons~~

Radioactivité

Ernest Rutherford



1871 Naissance à Nelson (Nouvelle Zélande)
Boursier au Nelson puis au Canterbury College
de Christchurch (N.Z.). B.A., M.A et B.Sc.

1895 Bourse pour le Cavendish de Cambridge

1898 Professeur à McGill, Montreal (Canada)

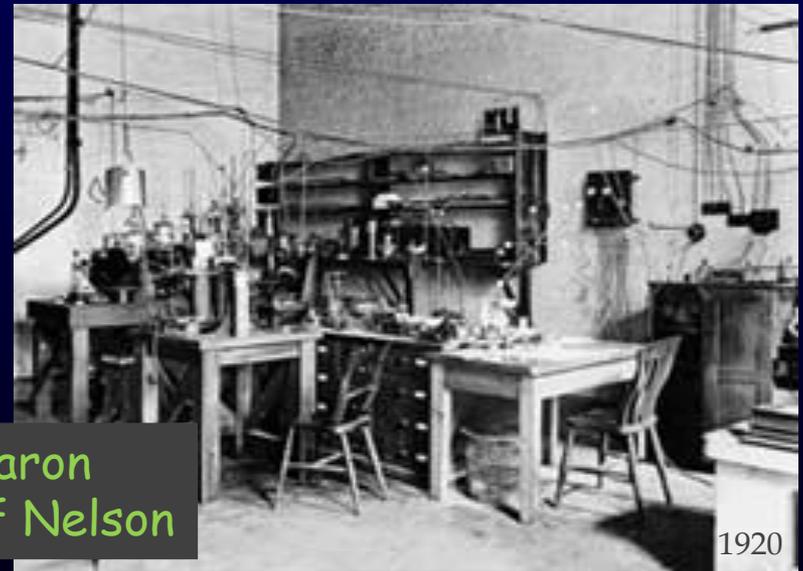
1908 Prix Nobel de chimie pour ses recherches sur la
désintégration des éléments et la chimie des substances radioactives

1907 Université de Manchester



1931 Baron
Rutherford of Nelson

1919 Cavendish Laboratory



1920

1937 Décès à Cambridge

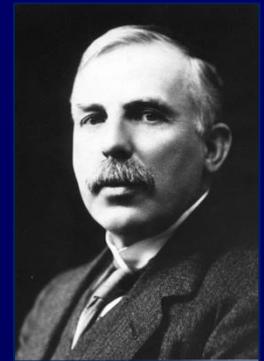
Rutherford 1920

BAKERIAN LECTURE : *Nuclear Constitution of Atoms*

By Sir E. Rutherford, F.R.S., Cavendish Professor of Experimental Physics,
University of Cambridge

(Received June 3, - Lecture delivered June 3, 1920.)

Rutherford 1920



BAKERIAN LECTURE : *Nuclear Constitution of Atoms*

Introduction

The conception of the nuclear constitution of atoms arose initially from attempts to account for the scattering of α -particles through large angles in traversing thin sheets of matter.*

To account for these results, it was found necessary to assume⁺ that the atom consists of a charged massive nucleus of dimensions very small compared with the ordinarily accepted magnitude of the diameter of the atom. This positively charged nucleus contains most of the mass of the atom, and is surrounded at a distance by a distribution of negative electrons equal in number to the resultant positive charge of the nucleus.

* Geiger and Marsden, 'Roy. Soc. Proc.,' A, vol. 82, p. 495 (1909)

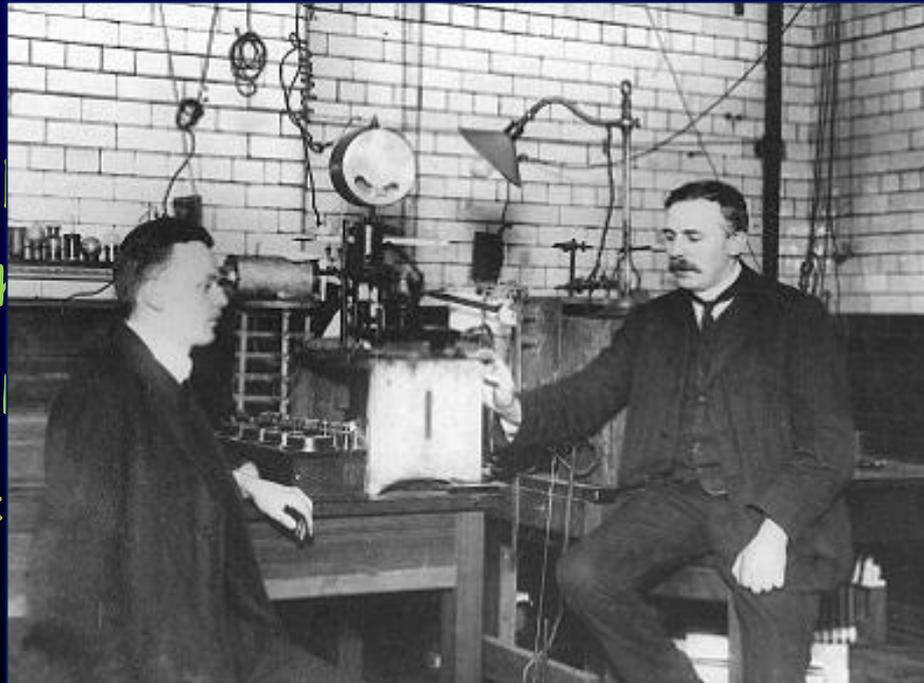
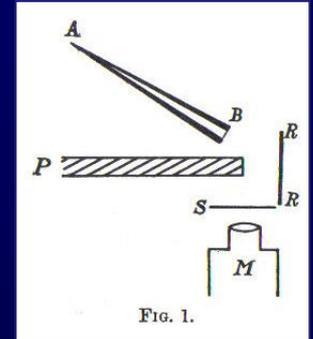
⁺ Rutherford, 'Phil. Mag.,' vol. 21, p. 669 (1911) ; vol. 27, p. 488 (1914)

Radioactivité

Utilisation des particules alpha comme sonde

Geiger et Marsden, 1909

On a Diffuse Reflexion of the α -Particles



Rut

TH

α and β

Struc

Scattering of α and β Particles by Matter. 673

Let angle POA = θ .
Let V = velocity of particle on entering the atom, v its velocity at A, then from consideration of angular momentum

$$pV = SA \cdot v.$$

From conservation of energy

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{N_0E}{SA}.$$

$$v^2 = V^2 \left(1 - \frac{b}{SA}\right).$$

Since the eccentricity is $\sec \theta$,

$$SA = SO + OA = p \operatorname{cosec} \theta (1 + \cos \theta)$$

$$= p \cot \theta / 2,$$

$$p^2 = SA(SA - b) = p \cot \theta / 2 (p \cot \theta / 2 - b),$$

$$\therefore b = 2p \cot \theta.$$

The angle of deviation ϕ of the particle is $\pi - 2\theta$ and

$$\cot \phi / 2 = \frac{2p}{b} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

This gives the angle of deviation of the particle in terms of b , and the perpendicular distance of the direction of projection from the centre of the atom.

For illustration, the angle of deviation ϕ for different values of p/b are shown in the following table:—

$p/b \dots$	10	5	3	1	5	25	125
$\phi \dots$	38° 7'	11° 54'	28°	53°	90°	127°	152°

§ 3. Probability of single deflection through any angle.

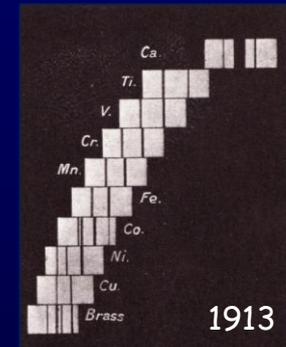
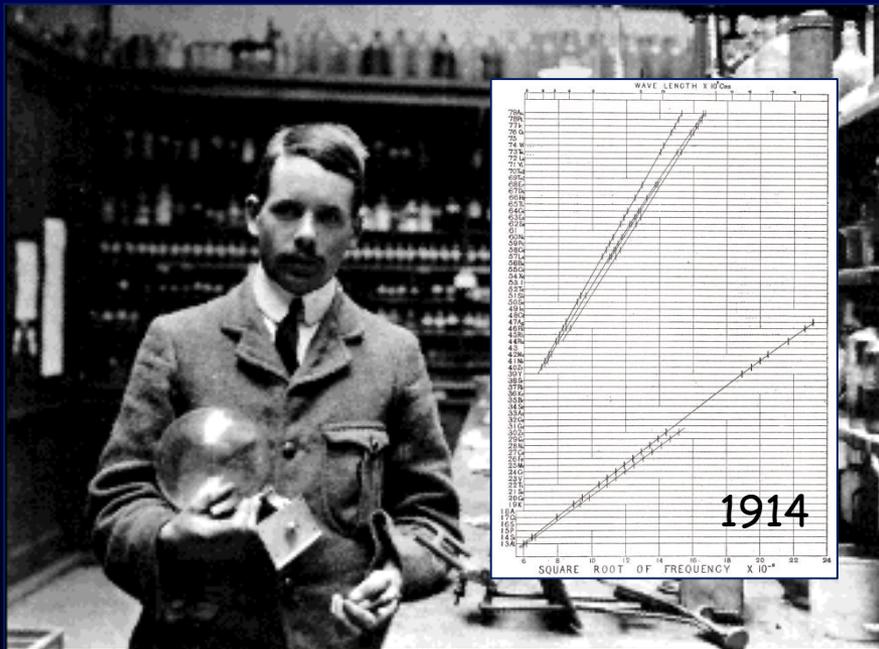
Suppose a pencil of electrified particles to fall normally on a thin screen of matter of thickness t . With the exception of the few particles which are scattered through a large angle, the particles are supposed to pass nearly normally through the plate with only a small change of velocity. Let n = number of atoms in unit volume of material. Then the number of collisions of the particle with the atom of radius R is nR^2t in the thickness t .

* A simple consideration shows that the deflection is unaltered if the forces are attractive instead of repulsive.

Rayons X

Diffraction par les atomes

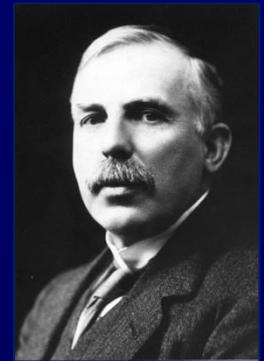
Van Laue , Braag (Père et fils) , Barkla
Moseley, 1913 , 1914



Every element from aluminum to gold is characterized by an integer N which determines its X-ray spectrum.

This integer N , the atomic number of the element, is identified with the number of positive units of electricity contained in the atomic nucleus.

Rutherford 1920



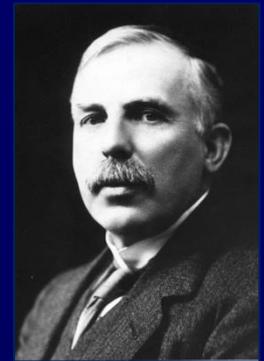
BAKERIAN LECTURE : *Nuclear Constitution of Atoms*

Introduction

Regarding the periodic classification of the elements, the atomic number, or its equivalent the nuclear charge, is of more fundamental importance than its atomic weight.

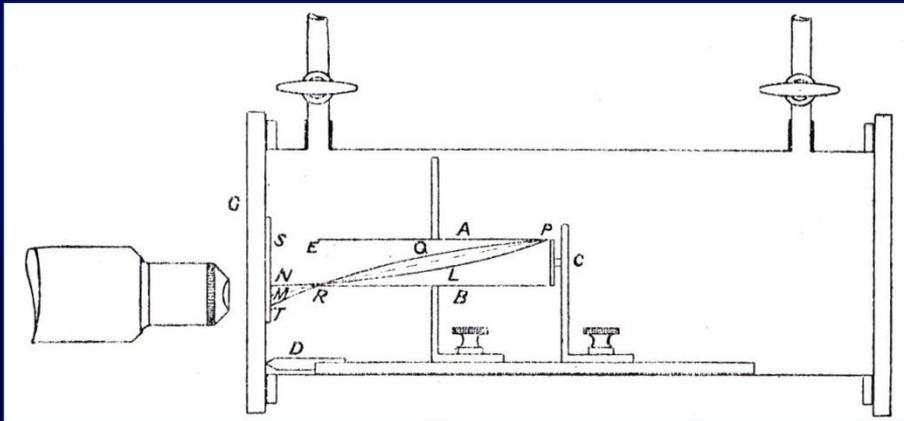
The dependence of the properties of an atom on its nuclear charge and not on its mass thus offers a rational explanation of the existence of isotopes in which the chemical and physical properties may be almost indistinguishable, but the mass of the isotopes may vary within certain limits.

Rutherford 1920



BAKERIAN LECTURE : *Nuclear Constitution of Atoms*

Long Range Particles from Nitrogen



The passage of α -particles through dry nitrogen gives rise to swift particles which closely resembled in brilliancy of the scintillations and distance of penetration hydrogen atoms set in motion by close collision with α -particles.

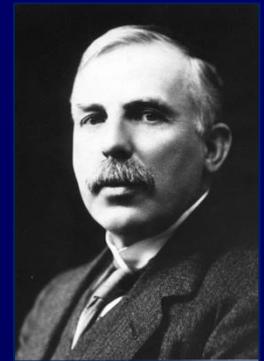
E. RUTHERFORD (1919)

Collisions of α Particles with Light Atoms

IV. An Anomalous Effect in Nitrogen

We must conclude that the nitrogen is disintegrated under the intense forces developed in a close collision with a swift α particle, and that the hydrogen atom which is liberated formed a constituent part of the nitrogen nucleus

Rutherford 1920

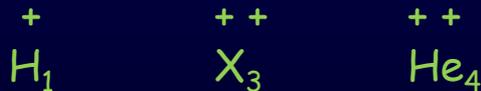


BAKERIAN LECTURE : *Nuclear Constitution of Atoms*

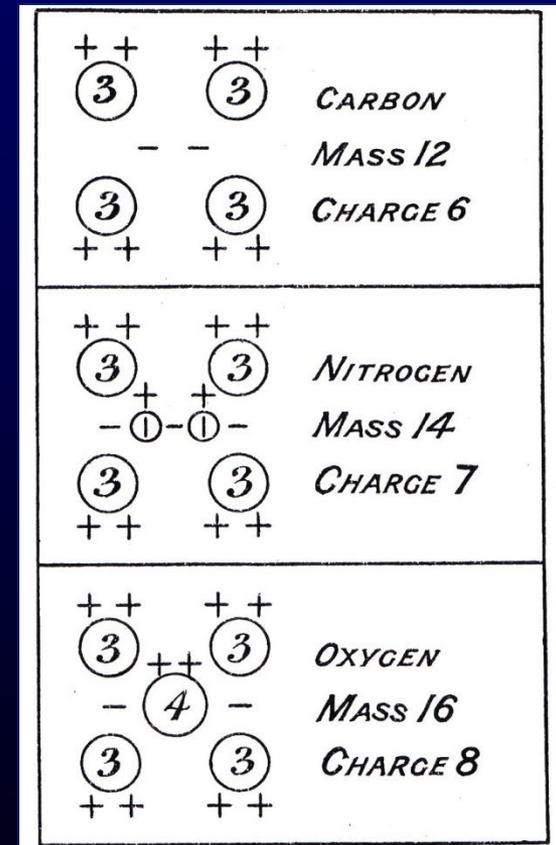
Constitution of Nuclei and Isotopes

In considering the possible constitution of the elements, it is natural to suppose that they are built up ultimately of hydrogen nuclei and electrons. On this view the helium nucleus is composed of four hydrogen nuclei and two negative electrons with a resultant charge of two.

We have seen that so far the nuclei of three light atoms have been recognized experimentally as probable units of atomic structure, viz.,



The carbon nucleus is taken to consist of four atoms of mass 3 and charge 2, and two binding electrons. The change to nitrogen is represented by the addition of two H atoms with a binding electron and an oxygen nucleus by the substitution of a helium nucleus in place of the two H atoms.

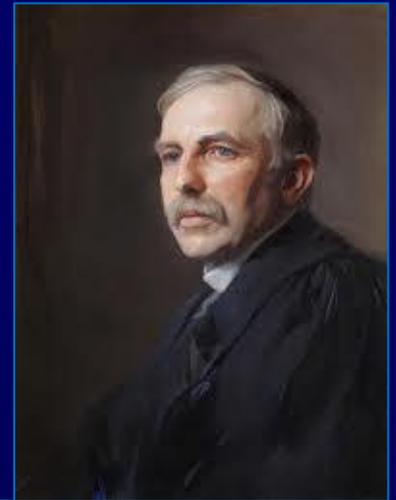


Rutherford 1929

Discussion on the Structure of Atomic Nuclei

Ernest Rutherford, F.W. Aston, J. Chadwick, C.D. Ellis,
G.Gamov, R.H. Fowler, O.W. Richardson, D.R. Hartree

Royal Society, London, February 7, 1929

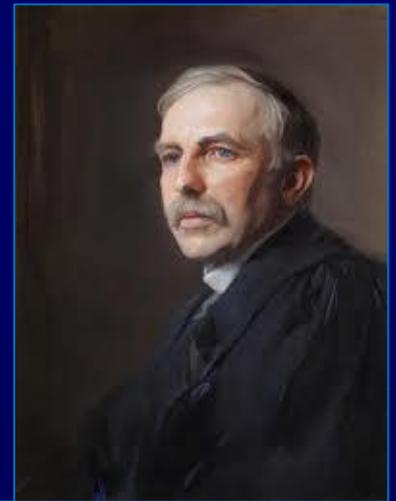


Rutherford 1929

Discussion on the Structure of Atomic Nuclei

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Royal Society, London, February 7, 1929



Trois méthodes expérimentales

1- Détermination précise des masses des isotopes

Aston

Proton Composant unitaire (masse ≈ 1) du noyau

2- Désintégration des éléments par bombardement avec des alphas

Chadwick

Constituant ultime du noyau : protons et électrons

Unités secondaires pour les éléments lourds : noyaux d'hélium

3- Etude des longueurs d'onde des rayons gamma

Ellis

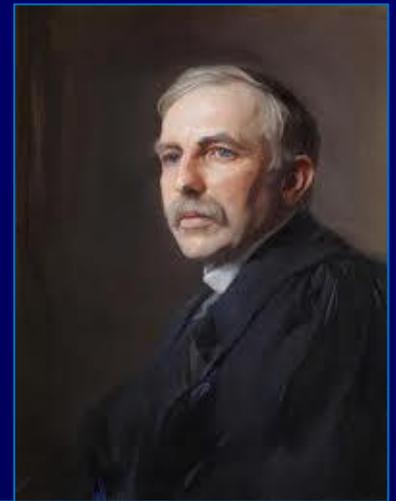
Informations sur les "modes de vibration" des particules composant le noyau

Rutherford 1929

Discussion on the Structure of Atomic Nuclei

Ernest Rutherford, F.W. Aston, J. Chadwick, C.D. Ellis,
G.Gamov, R.H. Fowler, O.W. Richardson, D.R. Hartree

Royal Society, London, February 7, 1929



Dr. Chadwick and I have been especially interested in recent years in the question of the dimensions of the nucleus and the laws of force which hold in its neighbourhood.

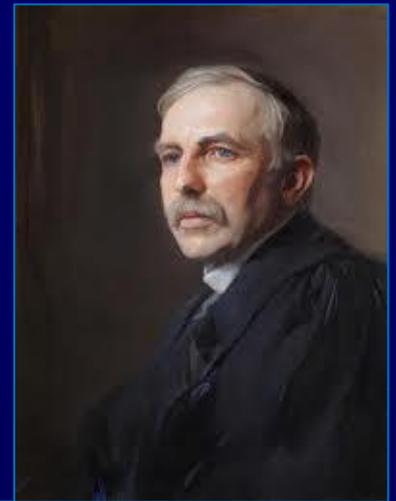
Observations of the scattering of α -particles by hydrogen and helium indicate that both the hydrogen and helium nucleus appear to be surrounded by a field of force unknown origin where the laws of force are quite abnormal.

Rutherford 1929

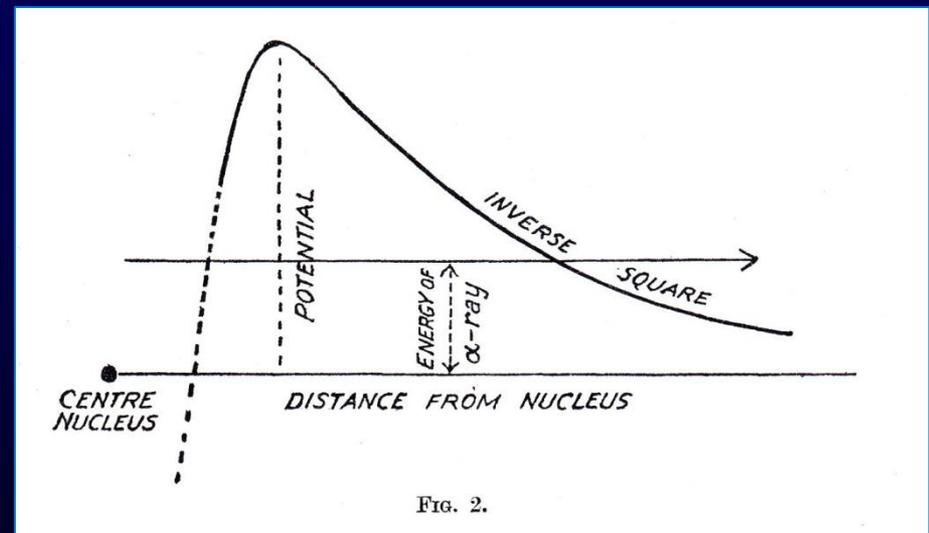
Discussion on the Structure of Atomic Nuclei

Ernest Rutherford, F.W. Aston, J. Chadwick, C.D. Ellis,
G.Gamov, R.H. Fowler, O.W. Richardson, D.R. Hartree

Royal Society, London, February 7, 1929



If we try to construct a nucleus on classical ideas and to make the model self-consistent, we are driven to the conclusion that whatever system of forces is adopted, the field of force round the uranium nucleus must consist of an attractive force at small distances and a repulsive force at large distances



Get further information by applying the wave mechanics ...

Rutherford



Niels Bohr



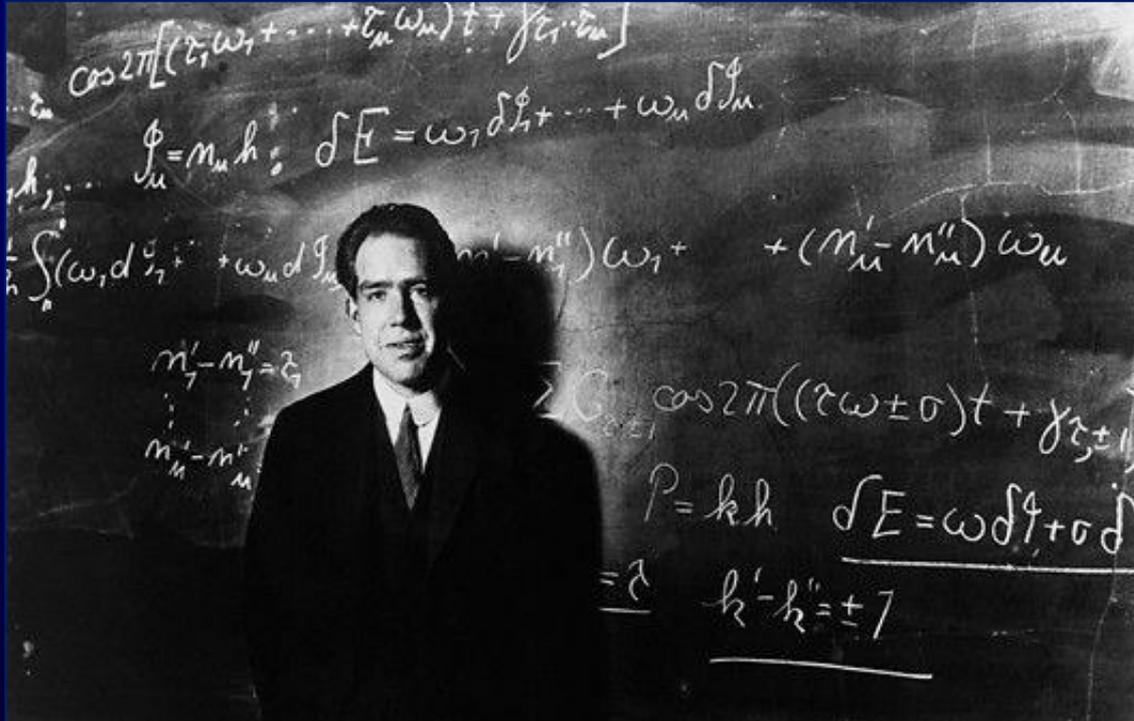
On the Constitution of Atoms and Molecules

Philosophical Magazine July 1913

Part II. - Systems containing only a Single Nucleus September 1913
Part III. - Systems containing Several Nuclei November 1913

Communicated by Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S.

Bohr 1913



On the Constitution of Atoms and Molecules

Philosophical Magazine July 1913

Part II. - Systems containing only a Single Nucleus

September 1913

Part III. - Systems containing Several Nuclei

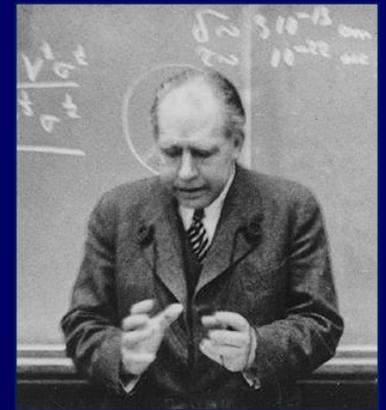
November 1913

Communicated by Prof. E. Rutherford, F.R.S.

Bohr 1930

Faraday Lecture

Delivered before the Fellows of the Chemical Society
At the Salters' Hall on May 8th, 1930



Chemistry and the Quantum Theory of Atomic Constitution

Constitution du noyau de l'atome

Preuves empiriques (charges, masses, radioactivité, désintégration)

→ Noyau est construit avec des protons et des électrons
(Pour les noyaux lourds, possibilités d'entités en particules α)

La formulation actuelle de la mécanique quantique échoue en grande partie

Difficultés avec les spins Azote 14 ... avec 21 particules

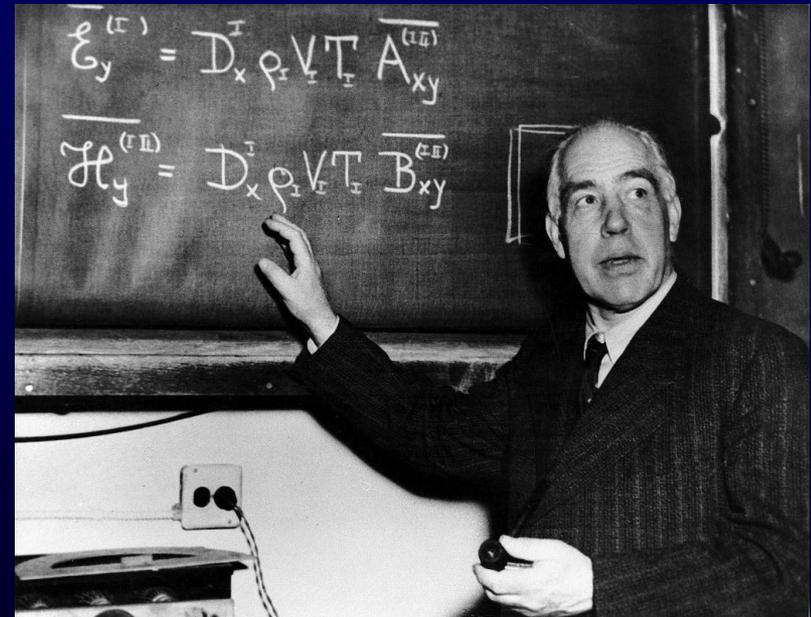
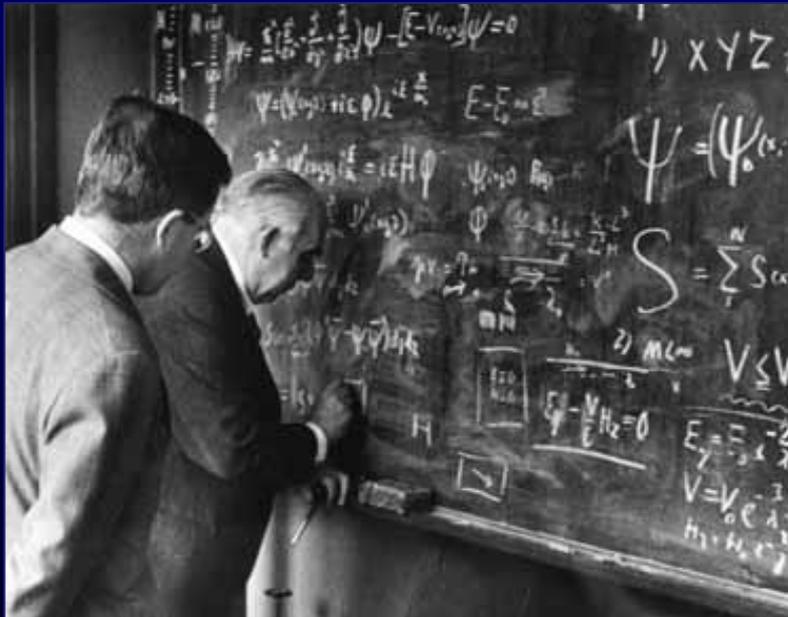
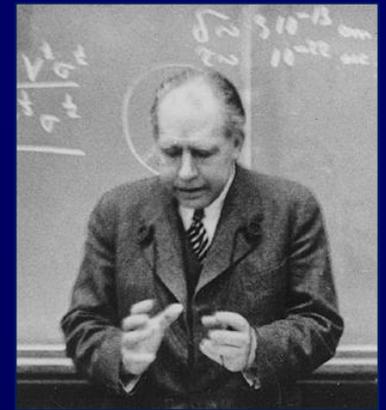
Problème des électrons intra-nucléaires

Taille. Charges négatives dans le noyau

Radioactivité β

Journal of the Chemical Society, 1932, pp 349-384

Niels Bohr



Niels Bohr



1930

Niels Bohr



1933

Niels Bohr





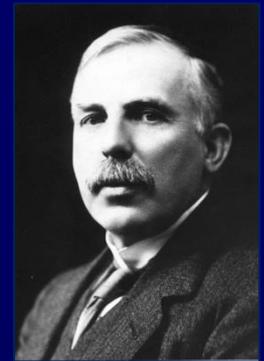
Convegno di Fisica Nucleare 1931



Reale Accademia d'Italia Alessandro Volta foundation

Rome , 11 au 18 octobre 1931

Rutherford 1920



BAKERIAN LECTURE : *Nuclear Constitution of Atoms*

Constitution of Nuclei and Isotopes

It seems very likely that one electron can also bind two H nuclei and possibly also one H nucleus. In the one case, this entails the possible existence of an atom of mass nearly 2 carrying one charge, which is to be regarded as an isotope of hydrogen. In the other case, it involves the idea of the possible existence of an atom of mass 1 which has zero nucleus charge.

On present views, the neutral hydrogen atom is regarded as a nucleus of unit charge with an electron attached at a distance, and the spectrum of hydrogen is ascribed to the movements of this distant electron. Under some conditions, however, it may be possible for an electron to combine much more closely with the H nucleus, forming a kind of neutral doublet.

If the existence of such atoms be possible, it is to be expected that they may be produced, but probably only in very small numbers, in the electric discharge through hydrogen, where both electrons and H nuclei are present in considerable numbers. It is the intention of the writer to make experiments to test whether any indication of the production of such atoms can be obtained under these conditions.

James Chadwick

1962

Some personal notes
on the
Search for the Neutron



Actes du X^{ème} Congrès International d'histoire des Sciences, Ithaca 1962
Réédition (revue par l'auteur) dans *Adventures in experimental physics*, 1972

Découverte du neutron

Allemagne (Berlin)

1930

W. Bothe et H. Becker

Bombardement du B et Be par les α du polonium

Mise en évidence d'un rayonnement très pénétrant... de type γ

France (Paris)

1931 (décembre)

I. Curie et F. Joliot

Etude de l'absorption de ce « rayonnement γ nucléaire »

1932 (18 janvier)

Ce rayonnement arrache des protons à des substances hydrogénées

Angleterre (Cambridge) 1932 (17 février)

J. Chadwick

Reprise et surtout interprétation des expériences par :

L'existence possible d'un neutron

Possible Existence of a Neutron

312

NATURE

[FEBRUARY 27, 1932

Letters to the Editor

[The Editor does not hold himself responsible for opinions expressed by his correspondents. Neither can he undertake to return, nor to correspond with the writers of, rejected manuscripts intended for this or any other part of NATURE. No notice is taken of anonymous communications.]

Possible Existence of a Neutron

It has been shown by Bothe and others that beryllium when bombarded by α -particles of polonium emits a radiation of great penetrating power, which has an absorption coefficient in lead of about 0.3 (cm.)^{-1} . Recently Mme. Curie-Joliot and M. Joliot found, when measuring the ionisation produced by this beryllium radiation in a vessel with a thin window, that the ionisation increased when matter containing hydrogen was placed in front of the window. The effect appeared to be due to the ejection of protons with velocities up to a maximum of nearly $3 \times 10^9 \text{ cm. per sec.}$ They suggested that the transference of energy to the proton was by a process similar to the Compton effect, and estimated that the beryllium radiation had a quantum energy of $50 \times 10^6 \text{ electron volts.}$

I have made some experiments using the valve counter to examine the properties of this radiation excited in beryllium. The valve counter consists of a small ionisation chamber connected to an amplifier, and the sudden production of ions by the entry of a particle, such as a proton or α -particle, is recorded by the deflexion of an oscillograph. These experiments have shown that the radiation ejects particles from hydrogen, helium, lithium, beryllium, carbon, air, and argon. The particles ejected from hydrogen behave, as regards range and ionising power, like protons with speeds up to about $3.2 \times 10^9 \text{ cm. per sec.}$ The particles from the other elements have a large ionising power, and appear to be in each case recoil atoms of the elements.

If we ascribe the ejection of the proton to a Compton recoil from a quantum of $52 \times 10^6 \text{ electron volts,}$ then the nitrogen recoil atom arising by a similar process should have an energy not greater than about 400,000 volts, should produce not more than about 10,000 ions, and have a range in air at N.T.P. of about 1.3 mm. Actually, some of the recoil atoms in nitrogen produce at least 30,000 ions. In collaboration with Dr. Feather, I have observed the recoil atoms in an expansion chamber, and their range, estimated visually, was sometimes as much as 3 mm. at N.T.P.

These results, and others I have obtained in the course of the work, are very difficult to explain on the assumption that the radiation from beryllium is a quantum radiation, if energy and momentum are to be conserved in the collisions. The difficulties disappear, however, if it be assumed that the radiation consists of particles of mass 1 and charge 0, or neutrons. The capture of the α -particle by the Be^9 nucleus may be supposed to result in the formation of a C^{12} nucleus and the emission of the neutron. From the energy relations of this process the velocity of the neutron emitted in the forward direction may well be about $3 \times 10^9 \text{ cm. per sec.}$ The collisions of this neutron with the atoms through which it passes give rise to the recoil atoms, and the observed energies of the recoil atoms are in fair agreement with this view. Moreover, I have observed that the protons ejected from hydrogen by the radiation emitted in the opposite direction to that of the exciting α -particle appear to have a much smaller range than those ejected by the forward radiation.

This again receives a simple explanation on the neutron hypothesis.

If it be supposed that the radiation consists of quanta, then the capture of the α -particle by the Be^9 nucleus will form a C^{13} nucleus. The mass defect of C^{13} is known with sufficient accuracy to show that the energy of the quantum emitted in this process cannot be greater than about $14 \times 10^6 \text{ volts.}$ It is difficult to make such a quantum responsible for the effects observed.

It is to be expected that many of the effects of a neutron in passing through matter should resemble those of a quantum of high energy, and it is not easy to reach the final decision between the two hypotheses. Up to the present, all the evidence is in favour of the neutron, while the quantum hypothesis can only be upheld if the conservation of energy and momentum be relinquished at some point.

J. CHADWICK.

Cavendish Laboratory,
Cambridge, Feb. 17.

NATURE [FEBRUARY 27, 1932

Prix Nobel 1935 J. CHADWICK

Cavendish Laboratory
Cambridge, Feb. 17

J. CHADWICK



Un noyau de protons et neutrons ?

Werner Heisenberg

Über den Bau der Atomkerne

Zeitschrift für Physik

- | | | |
|------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| I | Vol. 77, p. 1-11 | 19 juillet 1932 |
| II | Vol. 78, p. 156-164 | 21 septembre 1932 |
| III | Vol. 80, p.587-596 | 16 février 1933 |

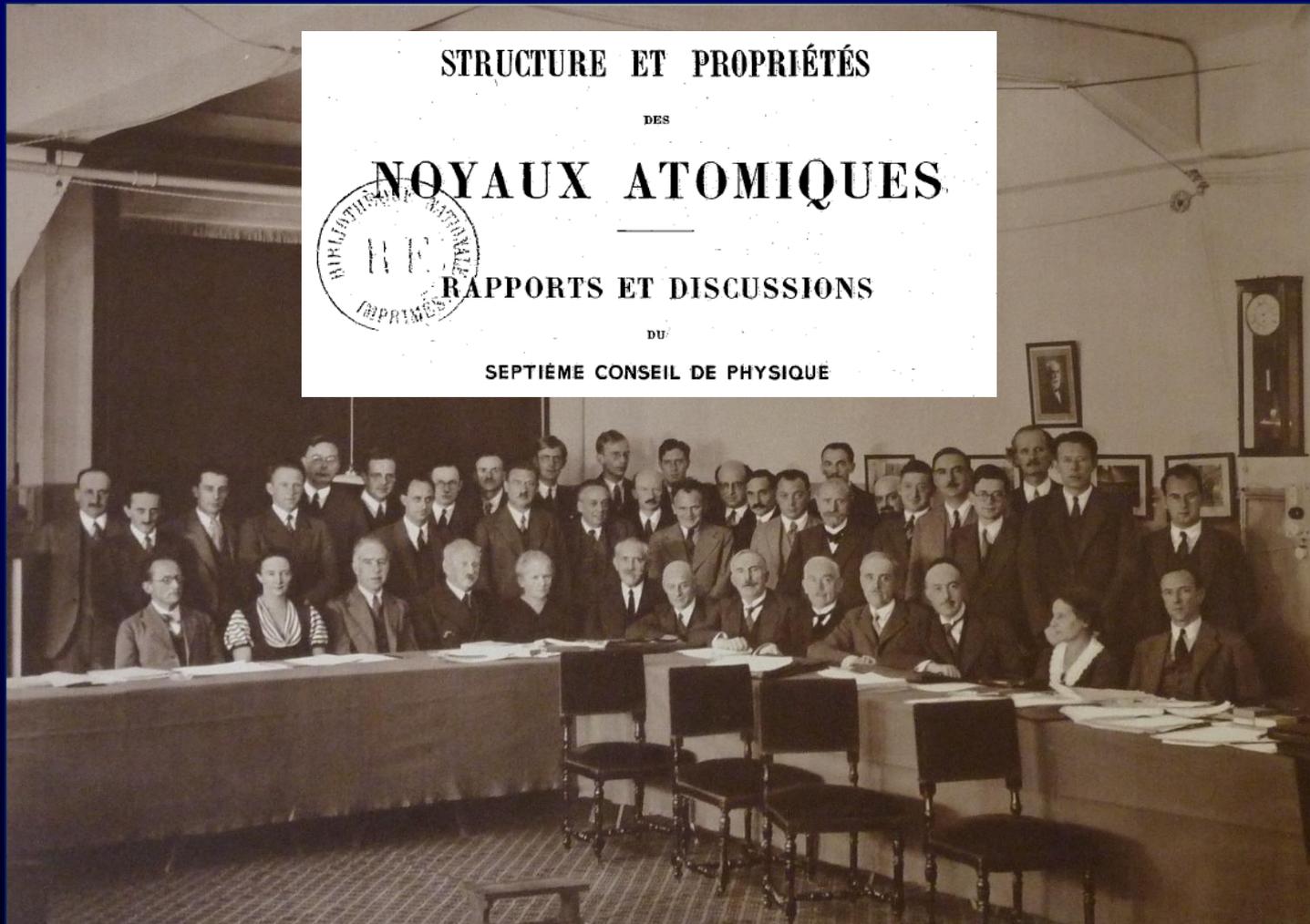


Un noyau de protons et neutrons ?



Bruxelles du 22 au 29 octobre 1933

Institut International de Physique Solvay



Bruxelles du 22 au 29 octobre 1933

Institut International de Physique Solvay

J. D. Cockcroft	La désintégration des éléments par des protons accélérés
J. Chadwick	Diffusion anormale des particules α Transmutation des éléments par des particules α Le neutron
M et M^{me} Joliot	Rayonnement pénétrant des atomes sous l'action des rayons α



Bruxelles du 22 au 29 octobre 1933

Institut International de Physique Solvay

P.A.M. Dirac

Théorie du positron

G. Gamov

L'origine des rayons γ

W. Heisenberg

Considérations théoriques générales
sur la structure du noyau



Bruxelles du 22 au 29 octobre 1933

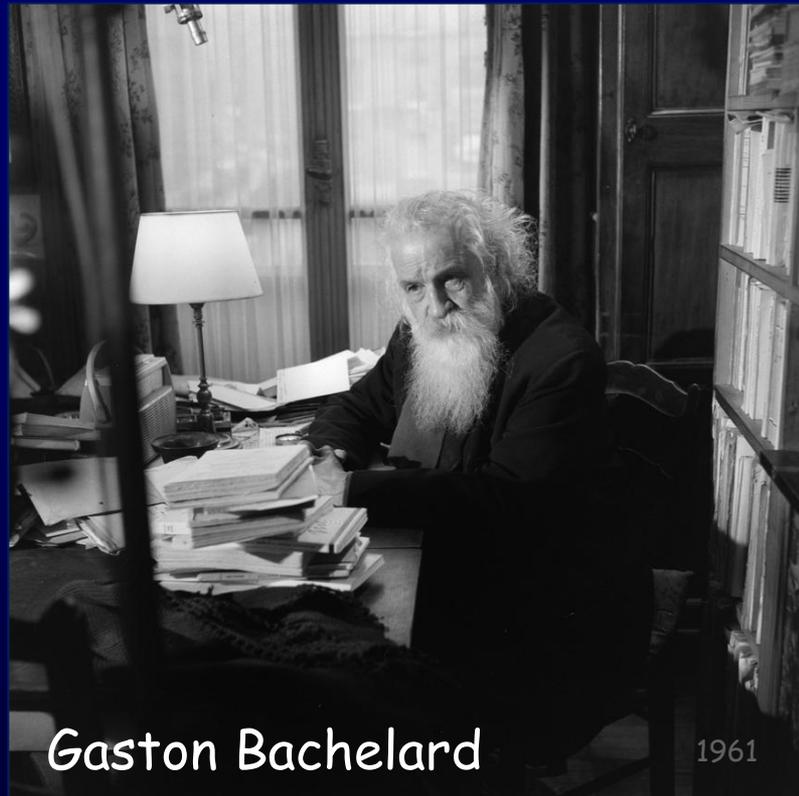
Institut International de Physique Solvay

W. Heisenberg

Considérations théoriques générales
sur la structure du noyau



Bruxelles du 22 au 29 octobre 1933



Gaston Bachelard

1961

Le nouvel esprit scientifique 1934

Plusieurs schémas de la structure du noyau sont compatibles avec cette hypothèse et s'obtiennent en introduisant comme constituants nucléaires à côté des particules α des neutrons, des protons et des électrons, ou seulement des neutrons et des protons. Ces schémas ont été discutés très complètement par Perrin (1), Iwanenko (2), Gapon (3), Bartlett (4) et Landé (5); il nous suffira dans ce rapport de montrer sur quelques noyaux atomiques choisis comme exemples les différences caractéristiques de ces divers schémas. (Nous employons ici les symboles noyau He = ${}^4_2\text{He}$, proton = ${}^1_1\text{H}$, neutron ${}^1_0\text{n}$, électron = ϵ^-).

TABLEAU I.

	1. Gamow.			2. F. Perrin.				3. Iwanenko-Gapon.			4.	
	${}^4_2\text{He}$.	${}^1_1\text{H}$.	ϵ^- .	${}^4_2\text{He}$.	${}^1_0\text{n}$.	${}^1_1\text{H}$.	ϵ^- .	${}^4_2\text{He}$.	${}^1_0\text{n}$.	${}^1_1\text{H}$.	${}^1_0\text{n}$.	${}^1_1\text{H}$.
${}^9_4\text{Be}$...	2	1	1	2	1	-	-	2	1	-	5	4
${}^{10}_5\text{B}$...	2	2	1	2	1	1	-	2	1	1	5	5
${}^{41}_{19}\text{K}$...	10	1	2	10	1	-	1	9	4	1	22	19
${}^{208}_{82}\text{Pb}$.	52	-	22	52	-	-	22	41	44	-	126	82

(1) F. PERRIN, *Soc. Franc. d. Physique*, t. 324, 1932, p. 96; *C. R. Acad. Sc.*, t. 194, 1932, p. 343; t. 194, 1932, p. 2211; t. 195, 1932, p. 236.

(2) D. IWANENKO, *Nature*, t. 129, 1932, p. 312.

(3) E. GAPON, *Zeis. f. Phys.*, t. 79, 1932, p. 676; t. 81, 1933, p. 419; t. 82, 1933, p. 404; E. N. G. et D. IWANENKO, *Naturw.*, t. 20, 1932, p. 792.

(4) J. BARTLETT, *Phys. Rev.*, t. 41, 1932, p. 370, cf. les travaux antérieurs de BARTON, *Phys. Rev.*, t. 35, 1930, p. 408; UREY, *Journ. Am. Chem. Soc.*, t. 53, 1931, p. 2872.

(5) A. LANDÉ, *Phys. Rev.*, t. 43, 1933, p. 620 et 624.

TABLEAU I.

	1. Gamow.			2. F. Perrin.				3. IwanenkoG-apon.			4.	
	${}^4_2\text{He.}$	${}^1_1\text{H.}$	$\epsilon^-.$	${}^4_2\text{He.}$	${}^1_0\text{n.}$	${}^1_1\text{H.}$	$\epsilon^-.$	${}^4_2\text{He.}$	${}^1_0\text{n.}$	${}^1_1\text{H.}$	${}^1_0\text{n.}$	${}^1_1\text{H.}$
${}^9_4\text{Be} \dots$	2	1	1	2	1	-	-	2	1	-	5	4
${}^4_5\text{B} \dots$	2	2	1	2	1	1	-	2	1	1	5	5
${}^41_19\text{K} \dots$	10	1	2	10	1	-	1	9	4	1	22	19
${}^{208}_{82}\text{Pb.}$	52	-	22	52	-	-	22	41	44	-	126	82

noyau He = ${}^4_2\text{He}$, proton = ${}^1_1\text{H}$, neutron ${}^1_0\text{n}$, électron = ϵ^-

