# Practical Nuclear Pendulum

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*The work elucidates the interplay between collective and single-particle excitations in nuclei and proposes a quantitative theoretical explanation. It has as such great potential to advance our understanding of nuclear structure. [11]*

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*Taking into account the Planck Distribution Law of the electromagnetic oscillators, we can explain the electron/proton mass rate and the Weak and Strong Interactions. Lattice QCD gives the same results as the diffraction patterns of the electromagnetic oscillators, explaining the color confinement and the asymptotic freedom of the Strong Interactions.*

## Contents

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## Preface

The fact that the neutron is slightly more massive than the proton is the reason why atomic nuclei have exactly those properties that make our world and ultimately our existence possible. Eighty years after the discovery of the neutron, a team of physicists from France, Germany, and Hungary headed by Zoltán Fodor, a researcher from Wuppertal, has finally calculated the tiny neutron-proton mass difference. The findings, which have been published in the current edition of Science, are considered a milestone by many physicists and confirm the theory of the strong interaction. As one of the most powerful computers in the world, JUQUEEN at Forschungszentrum Jülich was decisive for the simulation. [10]

The diffraction patterns of the electromagnetic oscillators give the explanation of the Electroweak and Electro-Strong interactions. [2] Lattice QCD gives the same results as the diffraction patterns which explain the color confinement and the asymptotic freedom.

The hadronization is the diffraction pattern of the baryons giving the jet of the color – neutral particles!

## Toward a practical nuclear pendulum

Researchers from Ludwig-Maximilians-Universitaet (LMU) Munich have, for the first time, measured the lifetime of an excited state in the nucleus of an unstable element. This is a major step toward a nuclear clock that could keep even better time than today's best atomic timekeepers.

Atomic clocks are the most precise chronometers we now have. These timekeepers are based on precise knowledge of the frequency of specific transitions between defined energy levels in the electron shells of certain atoms. Theoretical studies suggest that nuclear clocks that make use of analogous changes in the energy states of atomic nuclei could provide even more accurate frequency standards for timekeeping purposes. Research teams around the world are now exploring ways of turning this theoretical possibility into a practical reality.

Early last summer, physicists Dr. Peter Thirolf, Lars von der Wense and Benedict Seiferle at LMU's Chair of Medical Physics, in collaboration with colleagues in Mainz and Darmstadt, achieved a notable breakthrough in the quest to develop a functioning nuclear clock. In a paper published in the journal Nature, they reported the first experimental detection of a specific energy transition in the nucleus of a particular isotope of the element thorium (Th) that had been predicted decades ago. The nucleus of this unstable isotope, which has an atomic weight of 229, is the only nucleus known to have the properties required for the development of a practical nuclear clock.

With financial support from the EU-funded project nuClock, Thirolf, von der Wense and Seiferle have continued to characterize the energy transition in the 229Th nucleus, and have now succeeded in measuring the lifetime of the excited nuclear state. Their findings appear in the journal Physical Review Letters.

"This represents the direct experimentally determined value for the half-life of the excited state of the isotope 229Th," says Benedict Seiferle. The LMU team now plans to measure the energy of the transition itself. With these data in hand, it should be possible in the future to optically induce the transition in a controlled fashion with the help of an appropriately designed laser. [12]

## The intriguing interplay between collective and single-particle excitations in an exotic nucleus

Nuclear reactions are among the most important processes that drive our Universe. In our Sun nuclear fusion provides the energy for the sun to radiate. In more violent cosmic events neutron capture reactions are at the origin of the creation of the heavy chemical elements. On Earth, nuclear fission provides the energy in nuclear reactors and neutron induced transmutation processes hold the promise of a viable route to nuclear waste treatment. It is thus only understandable that scientists continuously strive to achieve a better understanding of what is going on inside nuclei. Given that nuclei are complex systems composed of many strongly interacting elementary particles this is a formidable task requiring excellent experimental data. A method of choice for the investigation of nuclear structure is the observation of highly energetic electromagnetic gamma radiation emitted in the course of nuclear reactions.

A pan-European collaboration of research teams has recently set up an ideal experimental set-up at the ILL to study the spectrum of gamma rays emitted in the course of nuclear reactions triggered by the capture of slow neutrons. During this so-called EXILL campaign a wealth of data could be accumulated. Using these data the collaboration has now published a fascinating paper on the nature of the nuclear excitations in 133Sb. The work elucidates the interplay between collective and single-particle excitations in nuclei and proposes a quantitative theoretical explanation. It has as such great potential to advance our understanding of nuclear structure.

The nucleus of 133Sb is particular interesting because its immediate neighbor 132Sn is a so-called double magic nuclide. Out of the 133 nucleons that compose the nucleus 133Sb, 132 are nicely wrapped up in a stable core of shells, to which a lone proton is added. The results presented in the paper show the intriguing interplay between collective vibrations of the core and the single particle excitations. Such hybridization phenomena are well known in all branches of physics and may be experienced even in daily life. Imagine the population of a large modern city commuting every day between the center and the suburbs. This highly collective periodic motion is induced by the interaction between the commuters, which resides in the obligation to work together in the center of town. In the nucleus such collective motions show up as oscillating deformations of the core. Now add to this system a tourist from a neighboring town keen on going to the museums. This "particular" individual interacts with the flow of commuters due to a number of constraints, one of them being the opening hours of the museums. Depending on the details of these interactions he or she will enhance to a more or less extended degree the collective flow. In the 133Sb nucleus the added proton experiences a similar situation, i.e. its changes of state cannot be seen in isolation but will be more or less coupled to the deformations of the nuclear core. [11]

## Exclusive production: shedding light with grazing protons

When two protons approaching each other pass close enough together, they can “feel” each other, similar to the way that two magnets can be drawn closely together without necessarily sticking together. According to the Standard Model, at this grazing distance, the protons can produce a pair of W bosons.

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As its name implies, the primary mission of the Large Hadron Collider is to generate collisions of protons for study by physicists at experiments such as CMS. It may surprise you to find out that the vast majority of protons accelerated by the LHC never collide with one another. Some of these fly-by protons, however, still interact with each other in such a way as to help physicists shed light on the nature of the universe.

The LHC accelerates bunches of protons, with more than 10 billion protons in each bunch, in opposite directions around the ring. As those protons arrive at a detector, such as CMS, magnets focus the beams to increase the density of protons and thus increase the chance of a coveted collision. Despite what seems like overwhelming odds, only a few of these protons actually collide with each other: tens to hundreds per each beam “crossing.” An even smaller fraction of the remaining protons pass close enough to other protons to “feel” each other, even if they do not directly collide.

Think of two toy magnets on a tabletop: A north end and a south end moved close enough to each other will rather firmly stick to each other. However, you can also move one magnet just close enough to the other that you can make it wiggle without drawing it all the way over. This exchange of energy is mediated by the exchange of photons, the carrier particle of the electromagnetic force.

Similarly, two protons in the LHC that get just the right distance from each other will exchange photons without colliding.

Now for the part that gets really interesting to particle physicists. The photons generated by these near-miss proton interactions can be billions of times more energetic than those of visible light, and as a result they carry enough energy to create particles in their own right. The Standard Model predicts the production of massive particles, such as pairs of W bosons, from these interacting photons without any of the additional activity that is seen in the messier proton-proton collision events. In a detector such as CMS, this pair of W bosons is said to be produced “exclusively.” However, “exclusive production” is an apt name in another way – creating a pair of W bosons from interacting photons is a rare occurrence in an even rarer sample of photons generated from near-miss proton interactions.

CMS scientists performed such a search for such W boson pairs emanating from interacting photons. In a data set consisting of 7- and 8-TeV collisions, 15 candidate events for this process were observed. While it may not seem like much, the expected background was considerably smaller, allowing the CMS team to claim that they have evidence of the process. (In the particle physics world, evidence is a three-standard-deviation departure from background, as explained here).

Furthermore, these results helped place stringent results on a number of models which predict a greater rate of this process. [10]

## Theory of the strong interaction verified

The findings, which have been published in the current edition of Science, are considered a milestone by many physicists and confirm the theory of the strong interaction. As one of the most powerful computers in the world, JUQUEEN at Forschungszentrum Jülich was decisive for the simulation.

The existence and stability of atoms relies heavily on the fact that neutrons are slightly more massive than protons. The experimentally determined masses differ by only around 0.14 percent. A slightly smaller or larger value of the mass difference would have led to a dramatically different universe, with too many neutrons, not enough hydrogen, or too few heavier elements. The tiny mass difference is the reason why free neutrons decay on average after around ten minutes, while protons - the unchanging building blocks of matter - remain stable for a practically unlimited period.

In 1972, about 40 years after the discovery of the neutron by Chadwick in 1932, Harald Fritzsch (Germany), Murray Gell-Mann (USA), and Heinrich Leutwyler (Switzerland) presented a consistent theory of particles and forces that form the neutron and the proton known as quantum chromodynamics. Today, we know that protons and neutrons are composed of "up quarks" and "down quarks". The proton is made of one down and two up quarks, while the neutron is composed of one up and two down quarks.

Simulations on supercomputers over the last few years confirmed that most of the mass of the proton and neutron results from the energy carried by their quark constituents in accordance with Einstein's formula E=mc2. However, a small contribution from the electromagnetic field surrounding the electrically charged proton should make it about 0.1 percent more massive than the neutral neutron. The fact that the neutron mass is measured to be larger is evidently due to the different masses of the quarks, as Fodor and his team have now shown in extremely complex simulations.

For the calculations, the team developed a new class of simulation techniques combining the laws of quantum chromodynamics with those of quantum electrodynamics in order to precisely deter-mine the effects of electromagnetic interactions. By controlling all error sources, the scientists successfully demonstrated how finely tuned the forces of nature are.

Professor Kurt Binder is Chairman of the Scientific Council of the John von Neumann Institute for Computing (NIC) and member of the German Gauss Centre for Supercomputing. Both organizations allocate computation time on JUQUEEN to users in a competitive process. "Only using world-class computers, such as those available to the science community at Forschungszentrum Jülich, was it possible to achieve this milestone in computer simulation," says Binder. JUQUEEN was supported in the process by its "colleagues" operated by the French science organizations CNRS and GENCI as well as by the computing centres in Garching (LRZ) and Stuttgart (HLRS). [9]

## Asymmetry in the interference occurrences of oscillators

The asymmetrical configurations are stable objects of the real physical world, because they cannot annihilate. One of the most obvious asymmetry is the proton – electron mass rate $M_p = 1840\ M_e$ while they have equal charge. We explain this fact by the strong interaction of the proton, but how remember it his strong interaction ability for example in the H – atom where are only electromagnetic interactions among proton and electron.

This gives us the idea to origin the mass of proton from the electromagnetic interactions by the way interference occurrences of oscillators. The uncertainty relation of Heisenberg makes sure that the particles are oscillating.

The resultant intensity due to n equally spaced oscillators, all of equal amplitude but different from one another in phase, either because they are driven differently in phase or because we are looking at them an angle such that there is a difference in time delay:

(1) $I = I_0 \sin^2 n\,\phi/2 \,/\, \sin^2 \phi/2$

If $\phi$ is infinitesimal so that $\sin\phi = \phi$, than

(2) $I = n^2 I_0$

This gives us the idea of

(3) $M_p = n^2 M_e$

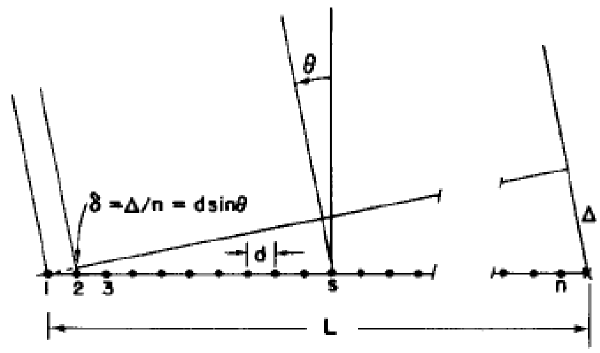



Fig. 30–3. A linear array of $n$ equal oscillators, driven with phases $\alpha_s = s\alpha$.

Figure 1.) A linear array of n equal oscillators

There is an important feature about formula (1) which is that if the angle $\phi$ is increased by the multiple of $2\pi$, it makes no difference to the formula.

So

(4) $d \sin \theta = m \lambda$

and we get m-order beam if $\lambda$ less than d. [6]

If d less than $\lambda$ we get only zero-order one centered at $\theta = 0$. Of course, there is also a beam in the opposite direction. The right chooses of d and $\lambda$ we can ensure the conservation of charge.

For example

(5) $2 (m+1) = n$

Where $2(m+1) = N_p$ number of protons and $n = N_e$ number of electrons.

In this way we can see the $H_2$ molecules so that 2n electrons of n radiate to 4(m+1) protons, because $d_e > \lambda_e$ for electrons, while the two protons of one $H_2$ molecule radiate to two electrons of them, because of $d_e < \lambda_e$ for this two protons.

To support this idea we can turn to the Planck distribution law, that is equal with the Bose – Einstein statistics.

## Spontaneously broken symmetry in the Planck distribution law

The Planck distribution law is temperature dependent and it should be true locally and globally. I think that Einstein's energy-matter equivalence means some kind of existence of electromagnetic oscillations enabled by the temperature, creating the different matter formulas, atoms molecules, crystals, dark matter and energy.

Max Planck found for the black body radiation

As a function of wavelength ($\lambda$), Planck's law is written as:

$$B_\lambda(T) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5}\frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda k_B T}} - 1}.$$

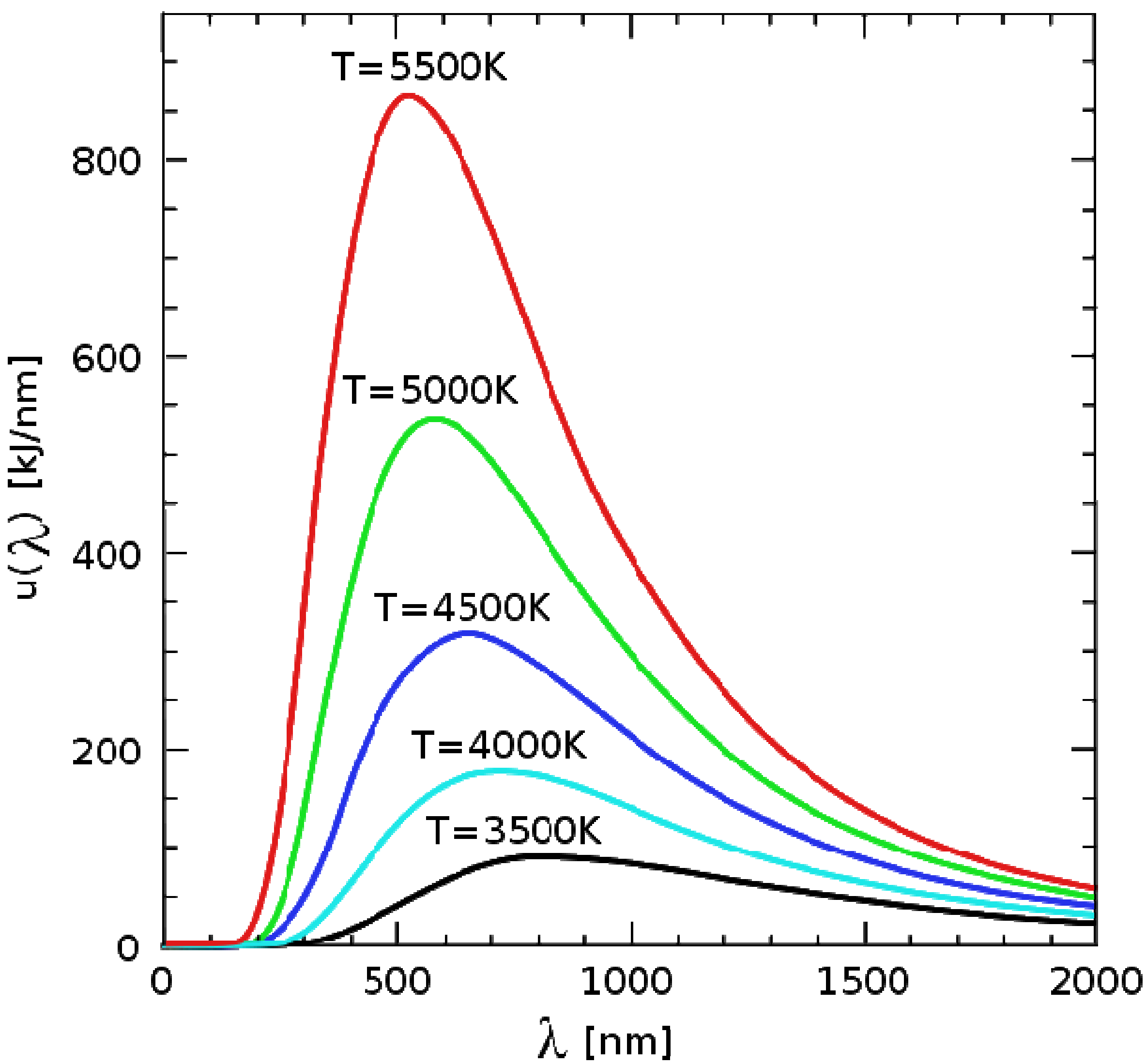



Figure 2. The distribution law for different T temperatures

We see there are two different $\lambda_1$ and $\lambda_2$ for each T and intensity, so we can find between them a d so that $\lambda_1 < d < \lambda_2$.

We have many possibilities for such asymmetrical reflections, so we have many stable oscillator configurations for any T temperature with equal exchange of intensity by radiation. All of these configurations can exist together. At the $\lambda_{max}$ is the annihilation point where the configurations are symmetrical. The $\lambda_{max}$ is changing by the Wien's displacement law in many textbooks.

(7) $$\lambda_{\max} = \frac{b}{T}$$

> where $\lambda_{max}$ is the peak wavelength, $T$ is the absolute temperature of the black body, and $b$ is a constant of proportionality called *Wien's displacement constant*, equal to $2.8977685(51)\times10^{-3}$ m·K (2002 CODATA recommended value).

By the changing of T the asymmetrical configurations are changing too.

## The structure of the proton

We must move to the higher T temperature if we want look into the nucleus or nucleon arrive to $d<10^{-13}$ cm. [2] If an electron with $\lambda_e < d$ move across the proton then by (5) 2 (m+1) = n with m = 0 we get n = 2 so we need two particles with negative and two particles with positive charges. If the proton can fraction to three parts, two with positive and one with negative charges, then the reflection of oscillators are right. Because this very strange reflection where one part of the proton with the electron together on the same side of the reflection, the all parts of the proton must be quasi lepton so $d > \lambda_q$. One way dividing the proton to three parts is, dividing his oscillation by the three direction of the space. We can order 1/3 e charge to each coordinates and 2/3 e charge to one plane oscillation, because the charge is scalar. In this way the proton has two +2/3 e plane oscillation and one linear oscillation with -1/3 e charge. The colors of quarks are coming from the three directions of coordinates and the proton is colorless. The flavors of quarks are the possible oscillations differently by energy and if they are plane or linear oscillations. We know there is no possible reflecting two oscillations to each other which are completely orthogonal, so the quarks never can be free, however there is asymptotic freedom while their energy are increasing to turn them to orthogonal. If they will be completely orthogonal then they lose this reflection and take new partners from the vacuum. Keeping the symmetry of the vacuum the new oscillations are keeping all the conservation laws, like charge, number of baryons and leptons. The all features of gluons are coming from this model. The mathematics of reflecting oscillators show Fermi statistics.

Important to mention that in the Deuteron there are 3 quarks of +2/3 and -1/3 charge, that is three u and d quarks making the complete symmetry and because this its high stability.

## The weak interaction

The weak interaction transforms an electric charge in the diffraction pattern from one side to the other side, causing an electric dipole momentum change, which violates the CP and time reversal symmetry.

Another important issue of the quark model is when one quark changes its flavor such that a linear oscillation transforms into plane oscillation or vice versa, changing the charge value with 1 or -1. This kind of change in the oscillation mode requires not only parity change, but also charge and time changes (CPT symmetry) resulting a right handed anti-neutrino or a left handed neutrino.

The right handed anti-neutrino and the left handed neutrino exist only because changing back the quark flavor could happen only in reverse, because they are different geometrical constructions, the u is 2 dimensional and positively charged and the d is 1 dimensional and negatively charged. It needs also a time reversal, because anti particle (anti neutrino) is involved.

The neutrino is a 1/2spin creator particle to make equal the spins of the weak interaction, for example neutron decay to 2 fermions, every particle is fermions with ½ spin. The weak interaction changes the entropy since more or less particles will give more or less freedom of movement. The entropy change is a result of temperature change and breaks the equality of oscillator diffraction intensity of the Maxwell–Boltzmann statistics. This way it changes the time coordinate measure and makes possible a different time dilation as of the special relativity.

The limit of the velocity of particles as the speed of light appropriate only for electrical charged particles, since the accelerated charges are self maintaining locally the accelerating electric force. The neutrinos are CP symmetry breaking particles compensated by time in the CPT symmetry, that is the time coordinate not works as in the electromagnetic interactions, consequently the speed of neutrinos is not limited by the speed of light.

The weak interaction T-asymmetry is in conjunction with the T-asymmetry of the second law of thermodynamics, meaning that locally lowering entropy (on extremely high temperature) causes the weak interaction, for example the Hydrogen fusion.

Probably because it is a spin creating movement changing linear oscillation to 2 dimensional oscillation by changing d to u quark and creating anti neutrino going back in time relative to the proton and electron created from the neutron, it seems that the anti neutrino fastest then the velocity of the photons created also in this weak interaction?

A quark flavor changing shows that it is a reflection changes movement and the CP- and T- symmetry breaking. This flavor changing oscillation could prove that it could be also on higher level such as atoms, molecules, probably big biological significant molecules and responsible on the aging of the life.

Important to mention that the weak interaction is always contains particles and antiparticles, where the neutrinos (antineutrinos) present the opposite side. It means by Feynman's interpretation that these particles present the backward time and probably because this they seem to move faster than the speed of light in the reference frame of the other side.

Finally since the weak interaction is an electric dipole change with ½ spin creating; it is limited by the velocity of the electromagnetic wave, so the neutrino's velocity cannot exceed the velocity of light.

# The Strong Interaction - QCD

## Confinement and Asymptotic Freedom

For any theory to provide a successful description of strong interactions it should simultaneously exhibit the phenomena of confinement at large distances and asymptotic freedom at short distances. Lattice calculations support the hypothesis that for non-abelian gauge theories the two domains are analytically connected, and confinement and asymptotic freedom coexist.
Similarly, one way to show that QCD is the correct theory of strong interactions is that the coupling extracted at various scales (using experimental data or lattice simulations) is unique in the sense that its variation with scale is given by the renormalization group. The data for αs is reviewed in Section 19. In this section I will discuss what these statements mean and imply. [4]

# Lattice QCD

**Lattice QCD** is a well-established non-perturbative approach to solving the quantum chromodynamics (QCD) theory of quarks and gluons. It is a lattice gauge theory formulated on a grid or lattice of points in space and time. When the size of the lattice is taken infinitely large and its sites infinitesimally close to each other, the continuum QCD is recovered. [6]

Analytic or perturbative solutions in low-energy QCD are hard or impossible due to the highly nonlinear nature of the strong force. This formulation of QCD in discrete rather than continuous space-time naturally introduces a momentum cut-off at the order $1/a$, where $a$ is the lattice spacing, which regularizes the theory. As a result, lattice QCD is mathematically well-defined. Most importantly, lattice QCD provides a framework for investigation of non-perturbative phenomena such as confinement and quark-gluon plasma formation, which are intractable by means of analytic field theories.

In lattice QCD, fields representing quarks are defined at lattice sites (which leads to fermion doubling), while the gluon fields are defined on the links connecting neighboring sites.

# QCD

QCD enjoys two peculiar properties:

- **Confinement**, which means that the force between quarks does not diminish as they are separated. Because of this, it would take an infinite amount of energy to separate two quarks; they are forever bound into hadrons such as the proton and the neutron. Although analytically unproven, confinement is widely believed to be true because it explains the consistent failure of free quark searches, and it is easy to demonstrate in lattice QCD.

- **Asymptotic freedom**, which means that in very high-energy reactions, quarks and gluons interact very weakly. This prediction of QCD was first discovered in the early 1970s by David Politzer and by Frank Wilczek and David Gross. For this work they were awarded the 2004 Nobel Prize in Physics.

There is no known phase-transition line separating these two properties; confinement is dominant in low-energy scales but, as energy increases, asymptotic freedom becomes dominant. [5]

## Color Confinement

When two quarks become separated, as happens in particle accelerator collisions, at some point it is more energetically favorable for a new quark-antiquark pair to spontaneously appear, than to allow the tube to extend further. As a result of this, when quarks are produced in particle accelerators, instead of seeing the individual quarks in detectors, scientists see "jets" of many color-neutral particles (mesons and baryons), clustered together. This process is called hadronization, fragmentation, or string breaking, and is one of the least understood processes in particle physics. [3]

## Electromagnetic inertia and mass

### Electromagnetic Induction

Since the magnetic induction creates a negative electric field as a result of the changing acceleration, it works as an electromagnetic inertia, causing an electromagnetic mass. [1]

### The frequency dependence of mass

Since $E = hv$ and $E = mc^2$, $m = hv / c^2$ that is the $m$ depends only on the $v$ frequency. It means that the mass of the proton and electron are electromagnetic and the result of the electromagnetic induction, caused by the changing acceleration of the spinning and moving charge! It could be that the $m_o$ inertial mass is the result of the spin, since this is the only accelerating motion of the electric charge. Since the accelerating motion has different frequency for the electron in the atom and the proton, they masses are different, also as the wavelengths on both sides of the diffraction pattern, giving equal intensity of radiation.

### Electron – Proton mass rate

The Planck distribution law explains the different frequencies of the proton and electron, giving equal intensity to different lambda wavelengths! Also since the particles are diffraction patterns they have some closeness to each other. [2]

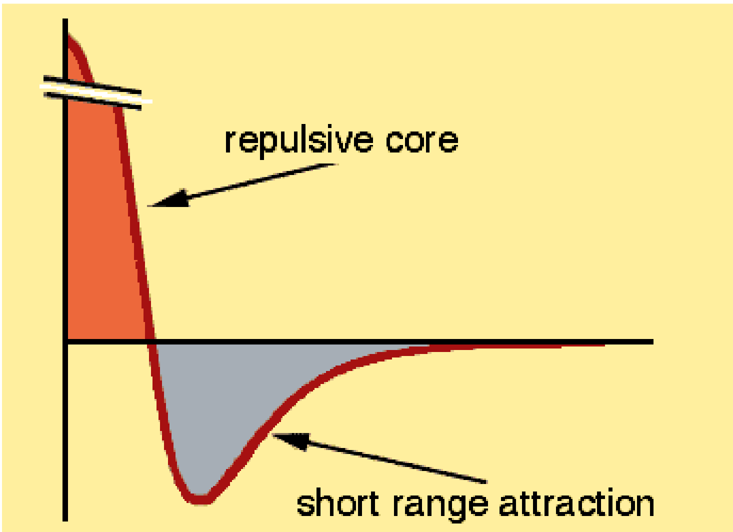
There is an asymmetry between the mass of the electric charges, for example proton and electron, can understood by the asymmetrical Planck Distribution Law. This temperature dependent energy distribution is asymmetric around the maximum intensity, where the annihilation of matter and antimatter is a high probability event. The asymmetric sides are creating different frequencies of electromagnetic radiations being in the same intensity level and compensating each other. One of these compensating ratios is the electron – proton mass ratio. The lower energy side has no compensating intensity level, it is the dark energy and the corresponding matter is the dark matter.

## The potential of the diffraction pattern

The force that holds protons and neutrons together is extremely strong. It has to be strong to overcome the electric repulsion between the positively charged protons. It is also of very short range, acting only when two particles are within 1 or 2 fm of each other.

1 fm (femto meter) = 10^{-15} m = $10^{-15}$ m = 0.000000000000001 meters.

The qualitative features of the nucleon-nucleon force are shown below.




There is an extremely **strong short-range repulsion** that pushes protons and neutrons apart before they can get close enough to touch. (This is shown in orange.) This repulsion can be understood to arise because the quarks in individual nucleons are forbidden to be in the same area by the Pauli Exclusion Principle.

There is a **medium-range attraction** (pulling the neutrons and protons together) that is strongest for separations of about 1 fm. (This is shown in gray.) This attraction can be understood to arise from the exchange of quarks between the nucleons, something that looks a lot like the exchange of a pion when the separation is large.

The density of nuclei is limited by the short range repulsion. The maximum size of nuclei is limited by the fact that the attractive force dies away extremely quickly (exponentially) when nucleons are more than a few fm apart.

Elements beyond uranium (which has 92 protons), particularly the trans-fermium elements (with more than 100 protons), tend to be unstable to fission or alpha decay because the Coulomb repulsion between protons falls off much more slowly than the nuclear attraction. This means that each proton sees repulsion from every other proton but only feels an attractive force from the few neutrons and protons that are nearby -- even if there is a large excess of neutrons.

Some "super heavy nuclei" (new elements with about 114 protons) might turn out to be stable as a result of the same kind of quantum mechanical shell-closure that makes noble gases very stable chemically. [7]

## Conclusions

The results of this work by Fodor's team of physicists from Bergische Universität Wuppertal, Centre de Physique Théorique de Marseille, Eötvös University Budapest, and Forschungszentrum Jülich open the door to a new generation of simulations that will be used to determine the properties of quarks, gluons, and nuclear particles. According to Professor Kálmán Szabó from Forschungszentrum Jülich, "In future, we will be able to test the standard model of elementary particle physics with a tenfold increase in precision, which could possibly enable us to identify effects that would help us to uncover new physics beyond the standard model." [9]

Lattice QCD gives the same results as the diffraction theory of the electromagnetic oscillators, which is the explanation of the strong force and the quark confinement. [8]

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