information about binding energies and to make isotopic assignments of resonances. The sum-coincidence spectra yield the results 6.16 ± 0.05 and 5.44 ± 0.09 MeV for the binding energies of W¹⁸² (21.2 eV) and W¹⁸⁶ (18.8 eV), respectively; these values are not in disagreement with the values 6.29 ± 0.04 and ≈ 4.8 MeV obtained in other

ways.⁴⁰ The maximum energy of the sum pulses observed in the spectrum for the 15,9-eV resonance is 6.30 ± 0.08 MeV. This energy implies that the resonance must be assigned to either W¹⁸⁰ or W¹⁸² . Similarly, a previously reported weak resonance at 75 eV must be assigned to either W^{180} or W^{182} .

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Atomic Masses from Gallium to Molybdenum*

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The 16-in. double-focusing mass spectrometer at the University of Minnesota has been employed to measure the atomic mass of 42 stable isotopes in the region *A —* 69 to 100. The standard error associated with these results is approximately 5 parts in 10⁸ . Improvements in the instrument are described that result in an increase of useful resolution of a factor of 2 to 3. A set of 64 radioactive masses is calculated from the stable mass data together with β -decay energies and nuclear reaction Q values. The resultant table of masses is used to calculate total nuclear binding energies, separation energies and pairing energies for a number of nuclei in the region near *N =* 50. The systematics of the separation energies display very smooth characteristics except at the shell closure. Neutron pairing energies show a marked decrease in value following the shell closure.

INTRODUCTION

THE 16-in. double-focusing mass spectrometer at
the University of Minnesota has been employed
in the past to measure atomic masses in several regions HE 16-in. double-focusing mass spectrometer at the University of Minnesota has been employed of the periodic table. Measurements of atomic masses for most of the stable isotopes with $A < 70$ have been reported.¹⁻⁵ In addition, krypton and xenon,⁶ lead and mercury⁷ masses have been measured. Operational difficulties in the mass spectrometer become progressively more apparent in measurements of heavy isotopes where maximum resolution is required. These difficulties necessitated the movement and reconstruction of the instrument.

The improved instrument has been employed to measure a number of stable masses for *A>70.* Mass doublets in the region from gallium through molybdenum are reported in this paper and the following paper⁸ reports results in the region from ruthenium through xenon.

The mass results have been employed to study the nuclear binding energy systematics in the region *Z = 31* to 42 and $N = 36$ to 58. These data include the $N = 50$ shell closure and also the possible $N = 40$ and $Z = 40$ subshell closure.

THE INSTRUMENT

The instrument employed for all previous measurements has been described in some detail elsewhere.⁹ The ion optics of the instrument are arranged to yield firstand second-order angle focusing and first-order velocity focusing at the fixed collector slit. Doublets are measured by the peak-matching method.

One of the recurring difficulties in the original instrument was the random modulation of the ion beam resulting from building vibrations and time-varying magnetic fields from nearby ac power lines. The modulation not only limited the maximum useful resolution of the mass spectrometer, but also limited the sweep frequency that could be employed.

To remove these difficulties, the instrument was rebuilt in a ground-floor room which had lower stray magnetic fields. The instrument was mounted on a 2-ton cast-iron surface plate. The use of the surface plate as an

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Mexico.
 **1 K. S. Quisenberry, T. T. Scolman, and A. O. Nier, Phys. Rev.

102, 1071** (1956).
 **2 T. T. Scolman, K. S. Quisenberry, and A. O. Nier, Phys. Rev.

102, 1076** (1956).

³ C. F. Giese and J. L. Benson, Phys. Rev. 110, 712 (1958).

⁴ K. S. Quisenberry, T. T. Scolman, and A. O. Nier, Phys. Rev.
 104, 461 (1956).

⁵ K. S. Quisenberry, C. F. Giese, and J. L. Benson, Phys. Rev.

^{107,} 1664 (1957).

⁶ H. E. Duckworth, in *Proceedings of the International Conference on Nuclidic Masses* (University of Toronto Press, Hamilton, 1960),

Chap. 7, p. 446. 7 J.L. Benson, R. A. Damerow, and R. R. Ries, Phys. Rev. 113, 1105 (1959),

⁸ R. A. Damerow, R. R. Ries, and W. H. Johnson, following paper, Phys. Rev. 132, 1673 (1963).
⁹ H. Hintenberger, *Nuclear Masses and Their Determination*

⁽Pergamon Press, Inc., London, 1957), Session VII, p. 185.

accurately plane reference surface greatly aided in the precise location of the various elements of the spectrometer. The spectrometer and surface plate are supported on four spring mounts, the resonant frequency of the supported mass being about 2 cps. This system then effectively isolates the spectrometer from the higher building vibration frequencies. In order to further minimize the effects of vibration, the spectrometer housing is mounted rigidly to the surface plate. Focusing adjustments are now made by moving the magnet on a track system. The modification also included redesign of several of the adjustable slits so as to give more precise control of the ion beam.

The changes made in the instrument have resulted in improved performance. The maximum usable resolution of the improved instrument is 2 or 3 times that of the original spectrometer. Other changes have considerably decreased the time necessary for focusing the instrument.

MEASUREMENTS

The mass spectrometer has the property that the mass of the ion collected is proportional to the resistance of a circuit element which determines the electric field in the instrument. Thus, one can show that the equation which relates doublet width to resistance is

$$
\Delta M = M \Delta R / R, \qquad (1)
$$

where ΔM is the doublet width, M is the mass of one member of the doublet which corresponds to resistance value *R*, and ΔR is the change in resistance necessary to cause the second ion group to be collected. By measuring known doublets, Eq. (1) may be shown to be correct to a high degree of accuracy.

In the past, this instrument was employed mainly to measure narrow doublets made up of a hydrocarbon comparison ion of known mass and an ion of unknown mass at the same mass number. For the mass region under consideration in this paper, these doublets have $\Delta M/M$ values of approximately 10⁻³. It has been shown that the instrument is capable of measuring wider doublets with sufficient accuracy to be worthwhile.⁶ One type of wide doublet is the doublet composed of two adjacent isotopes of the same element. Doublets of this sort are known as isotopic doublets and have been employed previously to supplement the hydrocarbon doublet data.

One of the difficulties that arises when hydrocarbon comparison ions are employed is caused by the rare isotope of carbon, C¹³. When the hydrocarbon $C_m^{\{12\}}H_n^{\{1\}}$ is used as a comparison ion, a satellite ion is also present, $C^{13}C_{m-1}^{12}H_{n-1}^{1}$. In the mass region considered in this paper, a resolution of about 1/50 000 is required to completely resolve the C¹³ satellite. Resolution of this instrument is defined as $\Delta M/M$ where ΔM corresponds to the width at half-height of an ion peak of mass *M.* The resolution values ranged from 1/60 000 to 1/200 000 during this period. Thus, the C¹³ satellite was at all times completely resolved.

TABLE I. Mass doublets.

	Mass	
	differenceb	
Doubletª	(mu)	Errore
$C_5H_9 - Ga^{69}$	144.852 7	24
$C_5H_{11}-Ga^{71}$	161.370 2	32
$C_5H_{10} - Ge^{70}$	154.0013	22
$\rm C_4H_8O-Ge^{70}H_2$	117.6161	18
$C_4H_8O - Ge^{72}$	135.4384	21
$C_4H_9O - Ge^{73}$	141.8784	21
$CS_2 - Ge^{74}H_2$	7.3140	14
$\frac{\text{CS}_2 - \text{Ge}^{76}}{\text{Ge}^{70}\text{H}_2 - \text{Ge}^{72}}$	22.741 6	15
	17.8213	17
$Ge^{72}H-Ge^{73}$	6.4439	13
$Ge^{73}H_2 - Ge^{74}H$	10.105 1	17
$\rm Ge^{74}H_2\!-\! Ge^{76}$	15.4250	17
$\rm C_3H_7O_2-As^{75} \ C_6H_2-Se^{74}$	123.009 8	26
	93.1738	38
$C_6H_4 - Se^{76}$	112.099 9	81
$C_6H_5 - Se^{77}$	119.2119	42
$C_6H_6 - Se^{78}$	129.6426	22
$C_6H_8 - Se^{80}$	146.068 5	29
$C_6H_{10}-Se^{82}$	161.545 0	46
$C_6H_8 - HBr^{79}$	136.4443	24
$C_6H_{10}-HBr^{81}$ Br ⁸¹ -HBr ⁸¹	154.1353	38
	990.1351	125
$C_6H_6 - Kr^{78}$	126.5843 ^d	36
$C_6H_8 - Kr^{80}$ $C_6H_{10} - Kr^{82}$	146.225 7 ^d 164.769 8 ^d	46
$C_6H_{11}-Kr^{83}$	171.946 8 ^d	34 34
$C_6H_{12} - Kr^{84}$	182.399 4 ^d	25
	198.9367 ^d	27
$C_6H_{14}-Kr^{86}$ Kr ⁸³ -Kr ⁸²	1000.647 9 ^d	120
$Kr^{84} - Kr^{83}$	997.371 6 ^d	120
$C_6H_{13}-Rb^{85}$	189.9276	39
	135.4178	27
$C_4H_7O_2 - Rb^{87}$ C ₆ H ₁₂ - Sr ⁸⁴	180.4708	26
$C_6H_{14}-Sr^{86}$	200.2649	36
	135.722 2	35
$C_4H_7O_2-Sr^{87}$ $C_4H_8O_2-Sr^{88}$ $Sr^{87}-Sr^{86}$	146.789 1	47
	999.6181	115
$Sr^{88} - Sr^{87}$	996.7396	116
$C_7H_5 - Y^{89}$	133.2470	34
	163.377 1	55
$C_4H_{10}O_2 - Zr^{90}$ $C_7H_7 - Zr^{91}$	149.143 1	44
$C_7H_8 - Zr^{92}$	157.5694	38
$C_7H_{10}-Zr^{94}$	171.9294	39
$\substack{C_7H_{12}-Zr^{96}\\Zr^{91}-Zr^{90}\\Zr^{92}-Zr^{91}}\\$	185.628 0	57
	1000.9420	116
	999.397 2	117
$C_7H_9-Nb^{93}$	164.0469	35
$C_7H_8 - Mo^{92}$	155.7900	32
$C_7H_{10}-Mo^{94}$	173.159 6	32
$C_7H_{11}-Mo^{95}$	180.2365	35
$C_7H_{12}-Mo^{96}$	189.2269	30
$C_5H_5O_2-M_0^{97}$	122.9376	23
	131.3754	28
$\frac{C_5H_6O_2-M_0^{98}}{C_7H_{16}-M_0^{100}}$ Mo ⁹⁵ -Mo ⁹⁴	217.7303	42
	1000.7572	122 124
$Mo^{96}-Mo^{95}$	998.838 5	123
$Mo^{97}-Mo^{96}$ $Mo^{98}-Mo^{97}$	1001.3463 999.3860	121

a Throughout this paper C, H, O, and S refer to C¹², H¹, O¹⁶, and S³²,

respectively.

In Mass differences are given in milliunits. All masses and mass differences

in this work are measured in a scale in which the atomic mass of C¹⁴ is

exactly equal to 12 units (symbol) u). The symbol mu

Metal ions for these measurements were obtained from a variety of sources. In two cases, gases were employed. These were hydrogen bromide and germanium tetrahydride. Pure metals were used for gallium, arsenic, and strontium. In the remaining cases, the following metallic compounds were employed: selenium dioxide, rubidium chloride, yttrium chloride, zirconium tetrachloride, niobium pentachloride, and molybdenum trioxide. Metals and metallic compounds were heated when necessary to obtain sufficient vapor pressure. Sample heating took place in a source furnace essentially the same as that previously described.³ Two baffles have been added between the sample and the ionization region to improve the vapor distribution.

RESULTS

The experimental mass doublet differences are presented in Table I. Both the narrow hydrocarbon-isotope doublets and the wide isotopic doublets are included in this table. The mass scale employed is the unified mass scale adopted by the International Union of Pure and Applied Physics in 1960. In this scale, the atomic mass of C¹² is exactly 12 units (symbol u). The errors listed are standard errors and refer to the last quoted figure. These errors are calculated from resistor uncertainties and the standard error of the mean of the original data. The details of the resistor error assignments may be found in an article by Quisenberry *et at}*

The doublet values of Table I are combined with the atomic masses of certain secondary mass standards in order to calculate atomic masses. Table II lists the atomic masses of the stable atoms in the mass region $69 \le A \le 100$. The secondary mass standards which were employed to calculate atomic masses from the doublet data are recorded in Table III. In some cases, the mass of a particular atom was overdeterminded by measurement of isotopic doublets in addition to the usual narrow hydrocarbon-isotope doublets. In these cases, a weighted least-squares adjustment was carried out on the data, and the best values found in this process are recorded as the results in Table II. The error associated with an atomic mass is the square root of the sum of the square of the error on the appropriate doublet value and the square of the error in the hydrocarbon reference mass. Whenever the least-squares adjustment was possible, the error on these atomic masses is just the error resulting from the least-squares calculation.

The final column of Table II provides a direct comparison between the present and other previous mass spectroscopic values. For comparison purposes, mass values were calculated from previous doublet results using the standard masses listed in Table III. The first half of this column contains the former Minnesota values determined by Collins *et aL¹⁰* on a smaller, less

TABLE II. Atomic masses computed from the doublet data of Table I together with a comparison with previous mass spectroscopic values.

^a The atomic masses are computed from the doublet values of Table I and ^a The atomic masses are computed from the doublet values of Table I and
the values of the secondary mass standards listed in Table III.
^b See Ref. 12,
^b See Ref. 10.
cale. They have been changed to comply to the new

This result is the weighted average of the two narrow Ge⁷² doublets listed

in Table I.

^t See Ref. 11.

^s N. R. Isenor, R. C. Barber, and H. E. Duckworth, Can. J. Phys. 38,

819 (1960).

precise mass spectrometer. These values have errors approximately 10 times larger than those of the present investigation. No systematic difference seems to be evident for the 28 atomic mass comparisons which can be made, since 14 of the former results are higher and

¹⁰ T. L. Collins, W. H. Johnson, and A. O. Nier, Phys. Rev. 94, 398 (1954). *

 \overline{a}

14 lower than the present work. Because of the comparatively large error of the previous results, the comparison of results is not particularly valuable as a test of the reliability of the present data.

Starting with strontium at $A = 84$, a comparison is made with the work carried out by Demirkhanov et al.¹¹ These results have errors that are about 5 times those quoted for the present results. A comparison of the 14 stable isotopic masses from Y^{89} to Mo^{100} reveals moderate agreement between the present results and the results of Demirkhanov. This order of agreement does not hold in the case of several of the strontium masses (Sr⁸⁶) and Sr⁸⁸) where the disagreement between the two results to more than 5 times their combined errors. Smaller disagreements occur at Zr⁹², Zr⁹⁶, and Nb⁹³. The reason for these discrepancies is unknown.

The present results are also compared with the values found in the Mass Table due to Konig *et al.¹²* The results of Konig represent "best" values from a least-squares adjustment of much of the available nuclear reaction and disintegration data, together with selected mass spectroscopic information. It should be mentioned that in the mass region from $A = 69$ to $A = 93$, the mass results of Collins *et al.*¹⁰ served as the mass spectroscopic input data for the least-squares adjustment of the Mass Table. The comparison of the present results with this table is quite good from $A = 73$ to $A = 88$. A particularly encouraging feature of this table is the fact that, with three exceptions, the table always adjusted the older Minnesota results of Collins in the right direction to agree with the more precise, present results. Until recently, precise mass information from $A = 88$ to $A = 100$ was not available. This is reflected in the poor agreement of the Mass Table results with the present work in this mass region. The discrepancies are particularly obvious for the zirconium and molybdenum

TABLE III. Secondary mass standards.

	Present value		Refer-
Standard	11	Error	ence
C^{12}	12.000 000 0		\mathbf{a}
\mathbf{H}^1	1.007 824 7		ь
$n^{\rm c}$	1.008 665 4		d
H ²	2.014 102 2		
N^{14}	14.003 073 1		θ
Ω ¹⁶	15.994 914 2		ь
S ₃₂	31.972 073 8		d
$^{\sim}$ 135	34.968 853 1	10	

a This is the definition of the C¹² mass scale.

^b See Ref. 5.
^o The symbol *n* stands for the neutron mass.
^d See Ref. 12.

a Calculated from the doublet data of Table I and the standard masses listed in Table III. These results serve as input data for the least-squares adjustment.

 $^{\rm b}$ These results and errors are the least-squares adjusted values.
© Adjusted data minus originally measured results (in microunits).

isotopes, where the mass table values also have very large errors.

Hydrocarbon mass unit doublets of the form $C_mH_n - C_mH_{n-1}$ were measured concurrently with the doublets of Table I in order to make a continuous check on the validity of the dispersion relation, Eq. (1). The average of these mass unit measurements, taken during the measurement of any one element, was used to calculate a value for the hydrogen atomic mass from Eq. (1) ; and this result was compared with the accepted value for hydrogen listed in Table III. The ratio of the accepted value of the hydrogen mass to the measured value of the hydrogen mass, as calculated from the mass unit doublet, is called the dispersion constant. Thus, when the mass unit measurements lead to results which agree on the average with the accepted mass of hydrogen, the dispersion constant is just equal to unity, and Eq. (1) is used as it stands. However, any deviation from the accepted value of hydrogen defines a dispersion constant different from unity. All doublets which are measured concurrently with this particular mass unit

^e See Ref. 2.
^f See Ref. 3.

¹¹ R. A. Demirkhanov, V. V. Dorokhov, and M. I. Dzkuya, Zh. Eksperim. i Teor. Fiz. 40, 1572 (1961) [translation: Soviet
Phys.—JETP 13, 1104 (1961)].
"L. A. König, J. H. E. Mattauch, and A. H. Wapstra, Nucl.
Phys. 31, 18 (1962).

^sThese results were calculated from the appropriate Q value and the masses listed in Table III.

¹ Series of numbers in this column refer to the page numbers of the Nuclear Data Sheets of Ref. 16.

² See Ref. 14.

" See Ket. 14.

["] A. J. Elwyn, H. H. Landon, S. Oleksa, and G. N. Glasoe, Phys. Rev.

112, 1200 (1958).

¹ R. L. Preston, H. J. Martin, Jr., and M. B. Sampson, Phys. Rev. 121,

¹⁷⁴¹ (1961).

¹⁷⁴¹ M. M. B. Sampson, 942 (1962).

^h N. S. Wall, Phys. Rev. 96, 664 (1954).

doublet are then corrected by the appropriate amount. Dispersion constants were determined for each element during this investigation and they ranged from 0.999 967 \pm 2 to 1.000 015 \pm 3. The average value of this constant for the entire block of measurements was $0.999997 \pm 2.$

The effect of the least-squares adjustment on the data where isotopic masses were overdetermined can be seen in Table IV. The second column lists the results which are calculated directly from the doublet data and which then serve as the input data for the adjustment. The third column contains the results of the least-squares process, while the last column records the difference between the adjusted value and the input data. It can be seen that the atomic masses change at most by 2 or 3 microunits, and these changes are always covered by the original errors. The adjusted errors on the atomic mass values generally remain the same or become one microunit smaller. The isotopic mass differences are generally adjusted by a larger amount, as in the case of strontium where the two isotopic mass differences are changed by 12 and 15 microunits. With the exception of the $Sr⁸⁷-Sr⁸⁶$ doublet, these adjustments are also covered by the original errors.

A comparison of mass differences determined both from mass spectroscopic measurements and from nuclear reaction energies is contained in Table V. This table records mass differences only when nuclear reactions connecting 2 stable atoms are available. The conversion factor between Q values and mass units is taken from Cohen¹³ and is given by 1 unit=931.476 ± 0.004 MeV.

The number of comparisons in this mass region which involve only 2 stable atoms is not very large, but the over-all agreement is quite good. The agreement is particularly good for recent precise nuclear reaction results. Particular mention should be made of the excellent agreement between the present results and the (n, γ) reaction results determined by Kinsey and Bartholomew.¹⁴ With the exception of the $Sr^{87}-Sr^{86}$ mass difference, all of these results agree with the present work within the combined errors. This comparison also verifies the gamma spectrum assignments made by Kinsey and Bartholemew when determining the groundstate Q values.

Nuclear reaction and disintegration energies are combined with the stable mass data of Table II in order to calculate the atomic masses of radioactive atoms. The results of such calculations are recorded in Table VI, which lists a final adopted mass for 65 radioactive atoms in the mass region from $A = 67$ to $A = 100$. A schematic view of this mass region, exhibiting the various paths by which the radioactive masses may be calculated from the stable atomic masses, is presented in Fig. 1. Several zinc masses from the 1961 Mass Table¹¹ were utilized to calculate some radioactive gallium masses.

As is evident from Fig. 1, some radioactive masses may be calculated from the stable masses in only one way, while others may be determined by several reaction paths. When only one such path is available, the final adopted value is just the calculated result, so this entry is included only in the final column. In the 25 cases where the radioactive mass can be calculated in more than one way, the result of each calculation is recorded in the second column. The final adopted value for such a radioactive mass is then the weighted average of the several individual results.

FIG. 1. Reaction scheme showing the stable nuclei whose atomic masses have been measured in this investigation. Solid circles represent stable nuclei, open circles represent radioactive nuclei, and connecting lines indicate available nuclear reaction and and connecting internet and the three crossed circles represent zinc
isotopes not measured in this work.

¹³ E. R. Cohen, Bull. Am. Phys. Soc. 7, 305 (1962).

¹⁴ B. B. Kinsey and G. A. Bartholomew, Can. J. Phys. 31, 1051 $(1953).$

Example 18 For comparison purposes, this column lists the results of the calculations
whenever more than one nuclear reaction was available for a particular iso-
tope. No entry is made in this column when only one react

In 15 of the 25 cases where several reactions were available to determine one radioactive mass, the results agree very well; see, for example, As74. When the several

¹ L. A. König, J. H. E. Mattauch, and A. H. Wapstra, Nucl. Phys. 28, 1

¹⁹⁶¹).

¹⁹⁶¹ See Ref. 15.

¹ See Ref. 12.

² This result is not included in the weighted average.

¹ D. M. Van Patter and Ward Whaling, R

independent reaction and disintegration energies combined with different stable atomic masses lead to these similar results, both the energy values and the mass

 τ_{γ}

values are confirmed. In the remaining 10 cases, different reaction paths lead to results that do not agree within the combined error. Several of these cases will now be discussed individually.

The energies of the gamma rays in the complex spectrum resulting from the gallium (n, γ) reaction were measured by Campion *et al.*,¹⁵ but the unambiguous assignment of the ground-state gamma energy of Ga^{72} was not possible. A listing of the unassigned gamma rays was given by these authors. An estimate of 7.1 MeV for the last neutron binding energy in Ga⁷² was given in the *Nuclear Data Sheets.¹⁶* This would suggest that the unassigned 6.971-MeV gamma corresponds to the groundstate reaction. However, this *Q* value leads to a Ga⁷² mass which differs by about 475 keV from the result calculated from the beta decay of Ga⁷² to Ge⁷². The level schemes for these 2 isotopes seem to be well known and thus we have chosen the beta disintegration energy in order to calculate the mass of Ga⁷². Assuming that result as correct, we have then assigned the 6.516-MeV gamma as the ground-state gamma for the $Ga^{71}(n,\gamma)Ga^{72}$ reaction.

The (γ,n) reactions for Rb⁸⁴ are available. This reaction is difficult to interpret because of the large nuclear spin change involved. The value by Tobin et al.¹⁷ determined by studying the reaction to the isomeric state of Rb⁸⁴ is preferred to the value by Geller *et al.ls* because of its agreement with the two well-known beta decays of Rb^{84} .

The positron decay energy of Y^{88} to Sr^{88} has been a controversial value for some time. Two distinct groups of results were found for this disintegration energy, and they are best represented by Ramaswamy *et al.¹⁹* who quotes the value 3442±31 keV, and by Rhode *et al.²⁰* who determined the value 3625 ± 10 keV. Two conflicting $Y^{89}(\gamma,n)Y^{88}$ reaction results were not previously helpful in resolving the discrepancy because of the large error in the mass values for Y^{89} . The recent and precise Sr⁸⁸(p,n)Y⁸⁸ reaction measured by Shafroth,²¹ however, gives a result which agrees closely with the disintegration energy of Rhode. In addition, the present mass determination of Y⁸⁹ permits a more precise calculation of Y^{88} from the two (γ,n) reactions. The mass result calculated from the *Q* value of Geller *et al.¹⁸* agrees reasonably well with the results due to Rhode and

Shafroth. The (γ, n) result of Chidley *et al.*²² is far outside the error of these values, and still further from the result of Ramaswamy's measurement. The final adopted value chosen here for the mass of Y^{88} is the weighted average of the three results due to Rhode, Shafroth, and Geller.

In the remaining cases where the agreement between the several possible calculations was not good, evidence did not seem to favor one value over another, so the final adopted value in these cases is just the weighted average.

NUCLEAR SYSTEMATICS

The atomic masses of stable and radioactive isotopes listed in Table II and Table IV may be employed to calculate the nuclear binding energies for various combinations of nucleons. In order to calculate the total nuclear binding energy (TNBE), the proper atomic mass value is substituted into Eq. (2)

$$
TNEE(Z,N) = ZM_{\rm H} + NM_{n} - zM_{N}^{A} - E_{b}(Z,N)/c^{2}, (2)
$$

where M_H is the hydrogen mass, M_n is the neutron mass, Z/M_N^A is the atomic mass of the atom with *Z* protons and N neutrons. The term $E_b(Z,N)$ is an estimate of the total electronic binding energy. The functional form of this relation was taken from Foldy.²³ The value ranged from 51 μ u for gallium to 104 μ u for molybdenum, with a stated accuracy of 10% . Consideration of the small binding energy of the electron in hydrogen was neglected in view of the much larger uncertainty in the value of $E_b(Z,N)$.

Values of the total nuclear binding energy are useful in the calculation of various binding energy quantities of interest in the study of nuclear systematics. One quantity which indicates the general tendency of nuclear binding is the average binding energy, $\text{TNBE}(Z,N)/A$. The binding energy of a given system of nucleons in a particular nucleus may be found by forming the appropriate difference between two total binding energy terms. As an example, the neutron separation energy and the proton separation energy are found from Eq. (3) and Eq. (4), respectively.

$$
S_n(Z,N) = \text{TNBE}(Z,N) - \text{TNBE}(Z,N-1), \quad (3)
$$

$$
S_p(Z,N) = \text{TNBE}(Z,N) - \text{TNBE}(Z-1,N). \quad (4)
$$

Table VII lists the total nuclear binding energy, the average nuclear binding energy, the neutron separation energy, and the proton separation energy in nuclei for which these quantities may be calculated from the present mass values.

In Fig. 2, the average nuclear binding energy for stable isotopes is plotted as a function of the mass number. The even- A points for each element are connected by a solid line and the *odd-A* points for all the elements are connected by a dashed line. The character-

¹⁵ P. J. Campion and G. A. Bartholomew, Can. J. Phys. 35,1361 (1957) .

¹⁶ *Nuclear Data Sheets*, compiled by K. Way *et al.* (Printing and Publishing Office, National Academy of Sciences–National Research Council, Washington 25, D. C., 1958–1961).
¹⁷ R. Tobin, J. McElhinney, and L. Cohen

^{(1958).}

¹⁸ K. N. Geller, J. Halpern, and E. G. Muirhead, Phys. Rev. **118,** 1302 (1960). 19 M. H. Ramaswamy and P. S. Tastram, Nucl. Phys. **19,** 243

^{(1960).} 20 J. I. Rhode, O. E. Johnson, and W. G. Smith, Phys. Rev. **129,** 815 (1963). 21 S. M. Shafroth, Nucl. Phys. **28,** 649 (1961).

²² B. G. Chidley, L. Katz, and S. Kowalski, Can T. Phys. 36, 407 (1958). 23 L. L. Foldy, Phys. Rev. 83, 397 (1951).

TABLE VII. Total nuclear binding energy, average binding energy per nucleon, and nucleon separation energies for those nuclei
between $A = 67$ and $A = 100$ where sufficient data is available.

A Total nuclear binding energy in milliunits. The mass equivalent of the electronic binding energy has been subtracted from the total atomic binding energy. Errors are not listed because, for most purposes, the difference

• Neutron separation energy in milliunits.

• The zinc masses were not measured in this investigation. In order to

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study the nuclear systematics of G

istic parabolic shape in the even-A curves for each element appear in this region as has been observed in other regions. The obvious change in the curve connecting odd-A points near $A = 89$ is a result of the shell closure at $N = 50$. There is an increase in the odd-A

curve in the region from $A = 79$ to $A = 89$. This rise does not appear at the shell closure at $N = 82^{24}$ or $N = 126.^{25}$

²⁴ W. H. Johnson, Jr., and A. O. Nier, Phys. Rev. 105, 1014
(1957).
²⁵ V. B. Bhanot, W. H. Johnson, and A. O. Nier, Phys. Rev. 120,
²⁵ V. B. N.

 $235(1960)$.

FIG. 2. Average binding energy per nucleon for stable isotopes.

A more detailed study of binding-energy systematics may be made by considering the neutron separation energy and the proton separation energy. Figures 3 and 4 plot the neutron separation energy as a function of the neutron number for even *N* and odd *N,* respectively. In each case, successive points for a particular element are connected by a straight line. The sharp discontinuity beyond $N = 50$ is shown in these graphs with greater precision than previously available. The generally smooth character of the curves on both sides of *N=50* is perhaps the most significant result inferred from these plots. The $N = 42$ data points for bromine and the $N = 40$ data point for gallium seem to contradict this smooth behavior. In the case of bromine, the assignment of a mass to the radioactive Br^{77} and Br^{76} may be in error. In the case of gallium, these is no obvious error in either mass used to calculate this separation energy. This value may indicate an anomaly at $N=40$. The \overline{S}_n values for germanium and selenium at *N*=40, however, show no particular anomaly.

Proton separation energies S_p have been plotted in Fig. 5 for even Z. A line connects data points of constant *N.* These curves indicate, as has been pointed out previously, that the closure of a neutron shell seems to have no effect on the proton separation energies. The variation of *Sp* for a given *N* value as a function of *Z* is also smooth. There is a persistent change in slope at $Z=40$

FIG. 3. Neutron separation energies for nuclei with an even number of neutrons,

FIG. 4. Neutron separation energies for nuclei with an odd number of neutrons.

for the four curves that have data points at both $Z=38$ and $Z=42$. As in the neutron data, this may be an indication of a slight change in nuclear structure near nucleon number 40.

The study of the systematics of the binding energy of the last pair of nucleons in a nucleus is worthwhile because stable masses with small experimental errors are employed in most cases in the calculation. Table VIII lists the value of the binding energy of the last pair of neutrons S_{2n} for even N nuclei. These data are plotted in Fig. 6 as a function of neutron number *N.* Values from the same element are connected by a line. Once again the shell closure at $N = 50$ is clearly visible. The smooth behavior of these curves for values on either side of *N=5Q* is clearly evident.

The values of the binding energy of the last pair of protons for even Z nuclei are listed in Table IX. These data are plotted in Fig. 7. Once again the smooth variation of these data with changes in *Z* is evident. These results also indicate a change in slope at $Z=40$. Because there are only two other values of *N* for which there are 3 data points for a given *N* value, the consistency of slope for values of *Z* other than 40 is difficult to demonstrate.

A number of pairing energies for neutron and proton pairs may also be calculated from the mass data. The pairing energy for the last pair of neutrons added to a

FIG. 5. Proton separation energies for nuclei with an even number of protons,

TABLE VIII. Binding energy and pairing energy of the last pair of neutrons for the listed isotopes.

TABLE IX. Binding energy and pairing energy of the last pair of protons for the listed isotopes.

^a Binding energy of the last pair of neutrons in milliunits.
^b Pairing energy of the last pair of neutrons in milliunits.

nucleus of Z protons and N neutrons is given by Eq. (5). $P_n(Z,N) = \text{TNBE}(Z,N) - 2\text{TNBE}(Z,N-1)$ $+\text{TNBE}(Z, N-2)$, (5)

FIG. 6. Binding energy of the last two neutrons.

^a Binding energy of the last pair of protons in milliunits.
^b Pairing energy of the last pair of protons in milliunits.

where N is even. The proton pairing energy P_p is defined
in a similar manner. For light nuclei Mayer and Jensen²⁶ have concluded that a correlation exists be-

FIG. 7. Binding energies of the last two protons.

 $\frac{26 \text{ M. G.}}{Nuclear Shell Structure (John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York. 1955).}$

FIG. 8. Neutron pairing energy.

tween the pairing energy and the *j* value of the odd nucleon of the pair, with larger pairing energies correlated to higher *j* values. In regions of high *j* values, one finds that it is energetically possible to have the pair occupy a high *j-*value state rather than to pair in the lower spin state of the preceding odd nucleon. This mechanism is used to explain the absence of the highest *j* values from the ground-state spins of odd nuclei.

Neutron and proton pairing energies that may be calculated from the present masses are listed in Tables VIII and IX, respectively. The *Pn* values are plotted in Fig. 8 as a function of *N.* Values from the same element are connected by a curved line. An attempt has been made to correlate the magnitude of these pairing energies with (a) the *j* value of the previous odd neutron and (b) with the *j* value which the pair is assumed to have according to the filling scheme of Mayer and Jensen.²⁶ Neither comparison produces very convincing results. The correlation between the value of *j* and the pairing energy is in some cases what Mayer and Jensen have suggested; in others, the opposite. The one positive statement that may be made is that the value of P_n decreases, rather strikingly, following the shell closure at $N=50$. The general tendency of the curves for each element is smooth, and in most instances continuously decreasing with increasing *N* to *N=50.* The character of the curves changes abruptly following *N =* 50. Beyond

FIG. 9. Proton pairing energy.

 $N = 50$, the P_n values are small, and for each element, are essentially constant for the region plotted. Note that there is nothing anomalous about the one value at $N=40$. Values of P_n for zinc from Quisenberry *et al.*¹ at $N = 40$ and $N = 38$ further strengthen this conclusion.

Figure 9 is an illustration of the proton pairing energy *Pp* as a function of Z. In this illustration, points with the same *N* value are connected by lines. An attempt to correlate the P_p with the *j* value for the pair is again not particularly fruitful. The P_p values at $Z=40$, with $j=\frac{1}{2}$ for this pair, appear to be lower than practically all other values in this region. A *j* value of $\frac{1}{2}$ occurs only at $Z=40$; values for other pairs in this region are all larger. Thus, in this instance, low P_p is correlated with low *j*. There are other instances, however, where this correlation is reversed. It is of interest to note that the value of P_p at $Z=40$ is so small. This may indicate a structure change near $Z=40$ that is not indicated at $N = 40.$

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