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β -decay studies for shape coexistence

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 β decay has played a key role in studies of shape coexistence throughout the nuclear chart. This has been mainly due to the sensitivity in γ -ray and conversion electron spectroscopy that can be achieved following the population of excited states by β decay. In some regions, the spectroscopic studies using β decay have been the first to suggest the presence of shape coexistence; in others, they have reinforced the suggestion and provided important spectroscopic data. The present work reviews some of the key regions, with a prime focus on the neutron-rich side of the valley of stability, where β -decay measurements have played an important role.

KEYWORDS

 β -decay, nuclear structure, nuclear spectroscopy, collective states, shape coexistence

1 Introduction

Studies of shape coexistence have been at the forefront of nuclear structure research for several decades and continue to capture a great deal of attention. Once believed to be a rather exotic phenomenon, the regions of the nuclear chart in which they have been discovered, or suggested, have grown significantly over the past few decades. Identifying shape coexistence in nuclei often begins with the observation of a specific pattern of states, or the appearance of states at an excitation energy that is unexpected. For example, observing a sequence of levels that approximately follow an I(I + 1) energy spacing in what is regarded as a spherical or weakly deformed nucleus can provide the first clue. Important follow-up experiments can then seek the in-band transitions and ideally measure transition rates. It is not uncommon for such deformed rotational structures to be found in spherical nuclei, in part due to the lower level density observed at low excitation energies in these nuclei compared to their well-deformed counterparts. The converse example, finding spherical or weakly deformed states in a nucleus with a well-deformed ground state, can be far more challenging. Exceptions to this can occur if the shape-coexisting states lie sufficiently low in energy that their presence is completely unexpected. Examples of this are the famous cases of $^{\rm 98}{\rm Sr}$ and $^{\rm 100}{\rm Zr}$ that will be discussed below.

A particular challenge in nuclear structure studies is that as the excitation energy increases, the low-energy in-band (intra-band) *E*2 transitions become progressively weaker and more difficult to observe due to the competition with the high-energy outof-band (inter-band) transitions. Considering competition with an inter-band *E*2 transition, we use the example of an intra-band transition of 200-keV energy *vs.* an inter-band transition of 1 MeV. The E_{γ}^{5} phase-space factor results in the intensity ratio of 3,125 in favour of the 1-MeV γ ray for the same value of the transition matrix element. Thus, even if the matrix element is an order of magnitude in favour of the intra-band transition, resulting in a *B*(*E*2) ratio of 100, the ratio of the γ -ray intensities would still favour the 1-MeV transition by a factor of 31. Further considering that the 200-keV γ ray would reside in a region of (generally) much higher background, the

problem of observing and identifying the intra-band transitions becomes obvious. In fusion-evaporation reactions, the background continuum present in a y-ray spectrum is generally a combination of Compton-scattered y rays and the statistical (or quasi-statistical) y rays from the compound nucleus. Although it varies from case to case, typically in γ -ray spectroscopy using such reactions, the minimum γ -ray branching ratio achieved is on the order of 1% of the most intense transition for any particular level. In contrast, y-ray spectroscopy, following β -decay, does not have the presence of the statistical y-ray continuum, and thus, the backgrounds are generally much lower. Furthermore, the definite Q-value for the decay results in a strong dependence of the backgrounds on the gating transition, and a judicious choice can effectively remove backgrounds from regions of interest in the resulting spectra. The result is that the observation of transitions with branching ratios on the order of 10^{-3} – 10^{-4} can be readily achieved. These weak, low-energy transitions are vital to unravel the structure and identify shape-coexisting structures. This is a point that will be seen in many of the studies cited below.

Since the firm determination of the nuclear shape can be challenging and requires, for example, detailed Coulomb excitation studies, the initial indications often come from the pattern of excited states and the y-ray decay properties of the levels. It is here that β -decay plays a vital role since γ -ray spectroscopy with large-scale detector arrays permit the observation of y-ray decays from even very weakly populated levels. Although there is no guarantee of completeness, modern y-ray spectrometers can provide the sensitivity to observe all states in a window of $\Delta I = \pm 1$ of the parent spin I_i up to high excitation energy, as allowed by the decay Q-value. Measurements using β -decay also provide the best opportunity to observe E0 transitions, again due to the lower background levels that can typically be achieved compared to in-beam studies. Particularly important in this regard have been measurements with low-spin parents that can have enhanced populations of 0⁺ states in the daughters, thus facilitating the observation of the $0^+ \rightarrow 0^+$ transitions.

The discovery and understanding of shape coexistence in many nuclei have been greatly aided by data from β -decay measurements, and this is especially true for neutron-rich nuclei. The present article, therefore, has its main focus on measurements involving β^- decay that have elucidated the presence or nature of shape coexistence in neutron-rich systems but also includes the Cd and Sn isotopes for which there has been much recent activity and with the Cd nuclei, especially, a radical shift in their interpretation. No claim for completeness of the literature is made; rather, a selection of examples is made of those the author finds as either compelling, highlighting the excellent quality of data that can be obtained, or demonstrate the progression of our understanding.

1.1 Nuclear shapes

When discussing the nuclear shape, the usual assumption is that the nucleus can be modelled as a liquid drop with the nuclear surface described as an infinite series of spherical harmonics

$$R(\theta,\phi) = R_0 \left(1 + \sum_{l\mu} \alpha_{l\mu}^* Y_{l\mu}(\theta,\phi)\right), \tag{1}$$

where R_0 is the radius of the nuclear surface in the spherical configuration, $Y_{l\mu}$ are the spherical harmonics of degree l, order μ , and $\alpha_{l\mu}$ are the (complex) time-dependent expansion parameters describing the deformation of the nuclear surface. The most important contribution to the departure from a spherical shape comes from quadrupole deformation, and the above infinite series is often reduced to the l = 2 term

$$R(\theta,\phi) = R_0 \left(1 + \sum_{\mu} \alpha_{2\mu}^* Y_{2\mu}(\theta,\phi)\right).$$
(2)

Equations 1, 2 describe the nuclear shape with an arbitrary orientation in space and can be transformed into the principal-axis frame using the Wigner rotation matrices, $D_{\nu\mu}^{J}(\alpha,\beta,\gamma)$, via Equation 3

$$a_{2\mu} = \sum_{\nu} D^2_{\nu\mu} (\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \alpha_{2\nu}, \qquad (3)$$

with the Euler angles (α, β, γ) chosen such that $a_{2\pm 1} = 0$. The commonly used deformation parameters β_2 and γ , which define the magnitude of the deformation and the deviations away from axiality, respectively, are defined in Equation 4

$$a_{20} = \beta_2 \cos \gamma, \quad a_{22} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \beta_2 \sin \gamma,$$
 (4)

with the restriction of $0 \le \beta$ and $0 \le \gamma \le \pi/3$ in order to not have the same quadrupole moments, and hence shapes, defined by a different set of coordinates.

1.2 Extracting shapes

In order to firmly identify shape-coexisting states, some key indicators are required. These indicators have been described in detail elsewhere (see, e.g., Ref. [1]), and those that can be extracted from β -decay studies will only be briefly outlined here.

As discussed above, locating states and determining their decays and spin-parities is a first requirement. Lifetime measurements of excited states provide an extremely important quantity since once determined, together with transition branching ratios, the reduced transition rate or B(E2) value can be found from Equation 5

$$B(E2 \downarrow; I_i \to I_f) = \frac{(9.527 \times 10^6) BR}{E_{\gamma}^5 A^{4/3} t_{1/2} (1+\alpha)} \times \left(\frac{\delta^2 (E2/M1)}{1+\delta^2 (E2/M1)}\right)$$
W.u., (5)

where *BR* is the total transition branching ratio (i.e., including both the γ -ray and conversion-electron fractions), E_{γ} is given in keV, *A* is the mass number, $t_{1/2}$ is the level half-life in *s*, and α is the total conversion coefficient for the transition. In the case of mixed *E*2/*M*1 transitions, the rate must be corrected for the transition mixing ratio $\delta(E2/M1)$. The correction for the conversion coefficient can be neglected if it is very small, and its impact is much less than the experimental uncertainties on the level lifetimes or branching ratios. In this work, the Weisskopf units (W.u.) are used throughout. Care must be used if converting from $B(E2 \downarrow)$ to $B(E2 \uparrow)$ as the two quantities are related by Equation 6

$$B(E2\uparrow) = \frac{2I_{upper} + 1}{2I_{lower} + 1}B(E2\downarrow), \tag{6}$$

where the notation on the level spins is obvious.

Once a B(E2) value has been determined, it can be related to an intrinsic quadrupole moment Q_0 via

$$B(E2; I_i K \to I_f K) = \frac{5}{16\pi} Q_0^2 \langle I_i K 20 | I_f K \rangle^2 e^2 b^2,$$
(7)

where the B(E2) value must be in units of e^2b^2 and a K quantum number (the projection of the angular momentum onto the nuclear symmetry axis) is assumed. Extracting an intrinsic quadrupole moment via Equation 7 builds in an assumption of the nuclear shape as being axially symmetric (and hence K being a good quantum number). It should be noted that the value extracted in this way, often referred to as the rotational limit, gives an overestimate of the actual quadrupole moment if the system possesses any softness or triaxiality. With Q_0 determined, it can be related to the deformation parameter β_2 via Equation 8

$$Q_{0} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{5\pi}} Z R_{0}^{2} \beta_{2} \left(1 + \frac{2}{7} \sqrt{\frac{5}{\pi}} \beta_{2} + \cdots \right)$$

$$\approx \frac{3}{\sqrt{5\pi}} Z R_{0}^{2} \beta_{2} (1 + 0.36 \beta_{2}).$$
(8)

Ideally, it is better to extract the rotationally invariant $\langle Q^2 \rangle$ and $\langle Q^3 \cos 3 \delta \rangle$ values that can be established using the Kumar–Cline sum rules [2–4]. In the principal-axis frame of the nucleus, the electromagnetic *E2* operator, $\hat{\mathcal{M}}'(E2)$, which is a rank-2 SO(3) tensor, has components that can be expressed using two parameters:

$$\mathcal{M}'(E2,\mu=0) = Q\cos\delta$$
$$\mathcal{M}'(E2,\mu=\pm 2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}Q\sin\delta.$$
(9)

The electromagnetic *E*2 matrix elements $\mathcal{M}(E2)$ measured in the laboratory frame can be related to those in the principal-axis frame by making use of the invariant property of the electric quadrupole tensor under rotational (SO(3)) transformations. The products of the *E*2 operators coupled to zero angular momentum are scalar quantities, and thus their expectation values can be expressed in terms of *Q* by

$$\frac{(-1)^{2I_i}}{\sqrt{2I_i+1}} \sum_j \langle I_i \| \mathcal{M}(E2) \| I_j \rangle \langle I_j \| \mathcal{M}(E2) \| I_i \rangle \begin{cases} 2 & 2 & 0\\ I_i & I_i & I_j \end{cases}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5} (2I_i+1)} \sum_j \langle I_j \| \mathcal{M}(E2) \| I_i \rangle^2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \langle Q^2 \rangle, \tag{10}$$

where {} is a 6*j* symbol. The sum formally extends over all states I_j that can be reached from the state in question I_i via a single E2 transition; however, typically, only a few key states contribute to it. Products of three quadrupole tensors coupled to angular momentum zero can also be formed that are used to extract $\sqrt{\frac{2}{35}}\langle Q^3 \cos 3 \delta \rangle$. However, this requires knowledge of not only the magnitudes but also the signs of the matrix elements which cannot be determined by β -decay.

Assuming identical charge and mass distributions, one can relate the Q^2 parameter to the deformation parameter β_2 by [5]

$$\langle Q^2 \rangle = q_0^2 \langle \beta_2^2 \rangle, \tag{11}$$

with $q_0 = \frac{3}{4\pi} ZeR_0^2$ and $R_0 = 1.2 A^{1/3}$ fm. The extraction of the $\langle Q^2 \rangle$ value depends only on squares of matrix elements, and thus any experimental technique that contributes spectroscopic data required to determine the $B(E2; I_i \rightarrow I_f)$ values can be brought to bear. Once the lifetime of a level is available, the measurement of a γ -ray branching ratio provides the $B(E\lambda)$ value for that transition. Thus, a β -decay measurement can be used to determine B(E2) values for previously unobserved transitions in this case. Care must be used, however, if the level lifetime is deduced from Coulomb excitation results, as is often the case in the evaluated data files. Here, depending on the details of the reaction and the analysis, the presence of a previously unobserved excitation pathway may modify the lifetime results extracted.

1.3 E0 transitions

The electric monopole, or E0, transition plays a very important role in studies of shape coexistence since the magnitude depends on the difference in the root-mean-square values of the charge radii between the initial and final states. The first application of E0 transition rates to shape coexistence appears in [6] in their study of shape coexistence in ¹¹⁶Sn. The operator for E0 transitions is given in Equation 12 [7]

$$\hat{M}(E0) = \sum_{i} e_i r_i^2, \qquad (12)$$

where the sum extends over the *A* bodies in the nucleus with their charges e_i and radial position r_i . *E*0 transitions are allowed only for $\Delta J = 0$ transitions and are sensitive to the changes in the nuclear charge-squared radii. The usual quantity quoted when referring to *E*0 transitions are the ρ^2 (*E*0) values, defined via Equation 13 [7]

$$\Gamma(E0) = \frac{1}{\tau(E0)} = \rho^2(E0) \sum_j \Omega_j(Z, \Delta E),$$
(13)

where $\Gamma(E0)$ is the partial width for the decay, $\tau(E0)$ is the partial lifetime, and $\Omega(Z, E_e)$ is the electronic factor that depends on the atomic number *Z* and the energy of the transition ΔE . The quantity $\rho(E0)$ is defined by Equation 14

$$\rho(E0) = \frac{1}{eR^2} \langle I_f | M(E0) | I_i \rangle \tag{14}$$

and carries all nuclear structure information. The expression typically used for the E0 operator in Equation 12 takes the leading order term only of the operator that can be more generally written as in Equation 15 [8]

$$\hat{M}(E0) = \sum_{i} e_i \left(r_i^2 - \sigma r_i^4 + \cdots \right).$$
(15)

The value for the parameter σ depends on the derivatives of the electron wave functions at the origin and has a slight dependence on the electronic shell of the originating electron and the transition energy, and a stronger dependence on the nuclear charge



Comparison of calculated ρ^2 (E0) values for the $0^+_2 \rightarrow 0^+_1$ transitions for the Zr isotopes (left) and the N = 82 isotones (right). The blue curves are the results of the 5DCH calculations using collective masses in the Inglis–Belyaev approximation and the E0 operator using only the first term in the expansion (the so-called standard (S) approximation). The burgundy colour also uses the standard E0 operator but with renormalised masses in the 5DCH calculation, and the green colour, the latter calculation but with the additional term in the E0 operator (labelled CW). The red points are the experimental values that were taken from [10]. Figure taken from [9].



 α_K conversion coefficient for Z = 50 for *M*1 (red) and *E*2 (blue) multipolarity as a function of the transition energy. At approximately 400 keV, the conversion coefficients are identical, implying no error in the extraction of the *E*0 component of the $J \rightarrow J$ transition due to incomplete knowledge of the *E*2/*M*1 mixing ratio δ . At 1 MeV, the difference in the α_K coefficients is approximately 20%. Adopting an average of the two coefficients leads to a 10% relative uncertainty on the *M*1 + *E*2 electron intensity to be subtracted from the total *K*-electron intensity. This will become the limiting factor for I_K (*E*0) when its magnitude is less than 10% of the total electron intensity.

distributions. In nearly all cases, $\sigma < 0.1$ and exceeding this value only in the heaviest nuclei (above Pb) and assuming an 1/r charge distribution. For the case of constant charge distribution and Z < 100, $\sigma < 0.1$ always. Recently [9], extensive beyond-mean-field calculations using the Gogny forces and the five-dimensional collective Hamiltonian explored the effect of using the expanded

*E*0 operator adopting $\sigma = 0.1$. Figure 1 shows the results of their calculations. As expected, the addition of the r^4 term in the operator reduces the magnitude of the ρ^2 (*E*0) values, although this may be considered an over-estimate of the impact since the actual value of σ for these particular cases is expected to be much smaller.

Within a two-state mixing model, $\rho^2(E0)$ can be expressed as

$$\rho^2(E0) = a^2 b^2 \left(\Delta \langle r^2 \rangle\right)^2 \frac{Z^2}{R^4},\tag{16}$$

where a^2 and b^2 are the square of the mixing amplitudes of the two states, $\Delta \langle r^2 \rangle$ is the difference in the mean-square charge radii, and $R = 1.2A^{1/3}$ fm. In the collective variables of the Bohr model, the operator is given by Equation 17 (keeping the lowest-order term in Equation 15) [11]

$$\hat{M}(E0) = \frac{3Z}{4\pi} \left(\frac{4\pi}{5} + \beta^2 + \frac{5\sqrt{5}}{21\sqrt{\pi}} \beta^3 \cos \gamma \right)$$
(17)

so that in a two-level mixing solution with deformation parameters (β_1, γ_1) and (β_2, γ_2) , the *E*0 strength is given by Equation 18 [7, 11]

$$\rho^{2}(E0) = \left(\frac{3Z}{4\pi}\right)^{2} a^{2} \left(1 - a^{2}\right) \left[\left(\beta_{1}^{2} - \beta_{2}^{2}\right) + \frac{5\sqrt{5}}{21\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\beta_{1}^{3} \cos \gamma_{1} - \beta_{2}^{3} \cos \gamma_{2}\right) \right]^{2}.$$
(18)

Although often the *E*0 transitions are interpreted as occurring between shape-coexisting shapes, they can arise in any situation where there is a difference in the $(\langle r^2 \rangle)^2$ values between two states. In the case of a spherical vibrator, for example, the nature of the *E*0 operator gives rise to a selection rule that *E*0 transitions are allowed for changes of the phonon number $\Delta N = 0, \pm 2$. For $0^+ (N = 2) \rightarrow 0^+ (N = 0)$, for example [7],

$$\rho^2 (E0) = \frac{2}{5} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi} Z \beta_{rms}^2 \right)^2, \tag{19}$$

where β_{rms}^2 in Equation 19 is the mean-square value of the amplitude of the surface vibration.



Portions of the γ -ray spectra observed at 0° (left) and 180° (right) with the ³¹Na aligned preferentially long the beam axis (0°) (top) or anti-aligned (180°) (bottom). Figure from [19].



The vast majority of measured ρ^2 (*E*0) values are between $J^{\pi} = 0^+$ states. For states with $J \neq 0$, *E*0 transitions can occur, but their extraction requires a subtraction of the *M*1 and *E*2 contributions. The intensity of the *K*-conversion electron line, for example, has

three contributions from the E0, M1, and E2 components and is given by Equation 20

$$I_K = I_K(E0) + I_K(M1) + I_K(E2)$$
(20)



Figure taken from [20].

and dividing by the γ -ray intensity, I_{γ} , yields Equation 21

$$\alpha_{K} (E0 + M1 + E2) = \frac{I_{K} (E0) + I_{K} (M1) + I_{K} (E2)}{I_{\gamma}}$$
(21)

and thus Equation 22 gives the E0 contribution to α_K

$$\alpha_{K}(E0) = \alpha_{K}(E0 + M1 + E2) - \frac{\alpha_{K}(M1) + \delta^{2}(E2/M1)\alpha_{K}(E2)}{1 + \delta^{2}(E2/M1)}.$$
(22)

An often used quantity is given in Equation 23

$$q_{K}^{2}(E0/E2) = \frac{I_{K}(E0)}{I_{K}(E2)}$$
(23)

and also using the standard E2 to M1 transition mixing ratio given in Equation 24

$$\delta^{2}(E2/M1) = \frac{I_{y}(E2)}{I_{y}(M1)}$$
(24)

results in Equation 25

$$\alpha_{K} (E0 + M1 + E2) = \frac{\alpha_{K} (M1) + \delta^{2} (E2/M1) (1 + q_{K}^{2} (E0/E2)) \alpha_{K} (E2)}{1 + \delta^{2} (E2/M1)},$$
(25)

with $\alpha_K(M1)$ and $\alpha_K(E2)$ the *K*-conversion coefficients for *M*1 and *E*2 multipolarities of the transition at energy E_{γ} , respectively. Although, in principle, the multipole mixing ratio $\delta(E2/M1)$ must be known, there are situations where this is not the case. For some combinations of *Z* and transition energy, the conversion

coefficients $\alpha_K(E2)$ and $\alpha_K(M1)$ are nearly identical. Figure 2 demonstrates this for the Z = 50 Sn isotopes; if $\delta(E2/M1)$ is known, the accuracy of the extraction of $\alpha_K(E0)$ can be improved, but unless very high statistics are obtained, lack of knowledge of δ may not be a limiting factor.

2 Studies of shape coexistence

2.1 The Mg isotopes and the N = 20 "island of inversion"

The region of nuclei surrounding the N = 20 Mg isotope ³²Mg has been the focus of many investigations for nearly five decades. The observation from mass measurements of an increase in the twoneutron separation energies appearing between ²⁹Na and ³¹Na was interpreted with the aid of Hartree-Fock calculations [12] that the Na isotopes appeared to have deformed ground states for ^{31,33}Na. Later measurements of the isotope shifts by laser spectroscopy indicated deformed ground state structures already setting in at 28 Na [13]. The presence of a low-lying 2_1^+ state in the neighbouring ^{32}Mg was first found in β -decay studies of ^{32}Na [14]. The energy of the 2^+_1 state was much lower than would be expected for a closed neutron shell at N = 20, and given the trends observed in the masses of the Mg isotopes, it had already been speculated that the ground state of ³²Mg was deformed. This region was coined the "island of inversion" (see, e.g., Ref. [15]), i.e., a region where the deformed intruder configuration based on particle-hole excitations lies below the spherical normal configuration. The original island was



mm-thick Si detector and a 4.5-mm-thick Si(Li) detector) vs. the energy in a second telescope for events with a total multiplicity ≥ 3 (β -particle and an $e^- + e^+$ pair) and a time delay of 16 ns with respect to the β -particle trigger. The line corresponds to a constant energy of 1688 (2) keV for the $e^- + e^+$ pair, as shown in Panel (**C**), used to establish an excited state 0_2^+ state at 2719 (3) keV. Panel (**B**) displays the time between the β -particle trigger and the $e^- + e^+$ pair showing the half-life of 19.4 (7) ns. Figure taken from [21].

suggested to be composed of the nine nuclei ³⁰⁻³²Ne, ³¹⁻³³Na, and ³²⁻³⁴Mg [15]. This region has since been expanded as additional data have been obtained, for example, the spin and magnetic moment of the ³¹Mg ground state are evidence of its intruder configuration [16]. As might be anticipated in a region with an inversion of configurations, shape coexistence should be manifested.

Measurements using the β - γ - γ -timing technique, following ³⁰Na decay by Mach *et al.* [17], found a lifetime of the 1788-keV 0⁺₂ state in ³⁰Mg of 3.9 (4) ns. This long lifetime was interpreted as resulting from the hindered nature of the transition from the purported intruder 0⁺₂ state to the 2⁺₁ state, where the latter is part of the normal shell model configuration [17]. From the intensity imbalance observed for the 1788-keV state, it was also hypothesized that an *E*0 branch existed. This *E*0 transition was later observed in a follow-up β -decay experiment with a value $10^3 \times \rho^2 (E0) = 26.2 (75)$ extracted, which is consistent with rather weak mixing between the two configurations that have a large difference in their deformations [18].

The intruder nature of the ³¹Na ground state results in the preferential population by β -decay of the intruder states in the daughter ³¹Mg. This was taken advantage of in a measurement at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility [19] to extend the level scheme of ³¹Mg and measure the β - γ angular correlations of spin-polarized ³¹Na. Figure 3 displays the γ -ray spectra taken with HPGe detectors placed at 0° (left) and 180° (right) with respect to the polarisation axis with ³¹Na having a net positive (aligned along 0°) or negative (aligned along 180°) asymmetry. The degree of asymmetry can be extracted and is sensitive to the spin of the levels, and all positive-parity states below the neutron-separation energy (2.3 MeV) were firmly assigned using such data, as shown in Figure 4. A deformed band based on the 1/2⁺ ground state, as well as a band based on the 3/2⁻ 220 keV level, were assigned. The bands were interpreted [19] in terms of the Nilsson model and assigned as the $\nu 1/2^+$ [200] and $\nu 1/2^-$ [330] orbitals, respectively, which appear at the Fermi surface for $\beta \approx 0.3 - 0.4$. At slightly higher energy, the 673-keV $3/2^+$ state is assigned as the 0p - 0h (referring to excitations



single β -decay electron or the 491-keV γ ray (attributed to timerandom coincidences with an intense transition in ^{67m}Co decay). The spectrum in red corresponds to signals from a subsequent event within 600 ns The peaks at 570 and 1,604 keV are conversion electrons, resulting from the decay of the first excited 0⁺ state to the ground state in ⁶⁸Ni. Panel **(C)** displays the γ -ray energy spectrum detected in coincidence with "stair-step" signals in the GeDSSD. Figure taken from [25].

of the core) spherical state. These results place ³¹Mg firmly within the island of inversion.

The above method was also applied to study ³⁰Mg [20]. A number of additional levels and transitions were proposed, and angular correlations were performed. Using γ - γ angular correlations, they affirmed the spin 0⁺ of the 1788-keV level. The β - γ angular correlations provided eight further spin-parity

assignments [20]. From their data, they proposed the level scheme, as shown in Figure 5, which includes grouping of levels into various configurations. A key finding was the assignment of the 3_1^+ level that would be expected for a $K = 2 \gamma$ band built on the deformed 0_2^+ state. In a Davydov model interpretation, the location of the K = 2 state relative to the 0_2^+ level was used to extract $\gamma \approx 24^\circ$ [20]. Very strong feeding of levels near 5 MeV permitted observation of, or stringent limits to be assigned, for their decays to the ground state and 0_2^+ bands. From the decay patterns, they could be assigned as having either a collective (deformed) or spherical characteristic, with the 1⁺ state considered a candidate for the *M*1 "scissors" mode [20]. These results were consistent with a number of other studies (for a summary, see Ref. [1]), in which the ³⁰Mg ground state has a predominately normal configuration.

A study [21] of ³⁴Si following the β -decay of ³⁴Al observed the $e^- + e^+$ pairs from a state at 2.719 (3) MeV that was assigned as the 0_2^+ state. The half-life extracted was 19.3 (7) ns, leading to the $10^3 \times \rho^2(E0) = 13(1)$. The data leading to these results are presented in Figure 6. The 02 state was interpreted as the deformed intruder state dominated by 2p - 2h components across the N = 20 neutron shell [21]. Weak mixing between the ground state and the 0⁺₂ state was deduced, with the intruder 0⁺ state having a deformation of $\beta_2 = 0.29$ (4). A recent study of the decay of ³⁴Mg and ³⁴Al performed at ISOLDE [22] took advantage of the preferential feeding of the two β -decaying states in ³⁴Al. The β -decay of ³⁴Mg led to the population of the 1⁺ state only of ³⁴Al, which then preferentially fed 0⁺ and 2⁺ states in ³⁴Si. Conversely, extracting the beam of ³⁴Al strongly favoured the ³⁴Al 4⁻ state, resulting in the population of higher-spin states in the ³⁴Si daughter. This work was followed by a precise new measurement of the $2^+_1 \rightarrow 0^+_1/2^+_1 \rightarrow 0^+_2$ branching ratio of 1779 (182) [22] vs. the previous result of 1380 (717) [21], resulting in $B(E2; 2^+_1 \rightarrow 0^+_2) = 7.2(31)$ W.u. strongly favouring its assignment as the 2^+ band member of the 0^+_2 state. Unfortunately, the 4⁺ band member has not yet been identified. These data place shape coexistence in ³⁴Si on a firm footing.

2.2 The Ni isotopes and the N = 40 "island of inversion"

Nuclei in the vicinity of N = 40 were first suggested to possess shape coexistence, following the observation in reaction studies [23, 24] of a 0^+_2 level at the low excitation energy of 1.77(4) MeV in ⁶⁸Ni. The β -decay of ⁶⁸Co was studied [25], and with the superior energy resolution of HPGe y-ray detectors and a Ge double-sided strip detector for conversion electrons, the 0^+_2 state was determined to be located at an excitation energy of 1605 (3) keV. Figure 7 displays the data used to measure the energy of the 0^+_2 state, as well as identifying the E0 transition to the ground state. The measured E0 strength of $10^3 \times \rho^2(E0) = 7.6(4)$ was deduced and interpreted as resulting from shape coexistence, with the 0^+_2 state as a deformed configuration involving both proton and neutron multiparticlemultihole configurations, and the spherical ground state. The excited states in ⁶⁸Ni have also been investigated in transfer reactions (see, e.g., Ref. [26]) and were used to support an interpretation of a predominantly $\nu(q_{9/2})^2$ characteristic for the 0_2^+ state but could not describe the magnitude of the 2_1^+ cross section. An earlier suggestion of the similarity of the situation of neutron



Portions of the *y*-ray spectrum obtained in the decay of ^{so}Co with a coincident condition with the $0_2^{+} \rightarrow 0_1^{+}$ *E*0 transition observed with a Ge doublesided strip detector. Panels **(B)** and **(C)** display expanded regions around the observed 430-keV $2_1^{+} \rightarrow 0_2^{+} \gamma$ ray and the region showing the lack of an observed 1515-keV $(2_3^{+}) \rightarrow 0_3^{+} \gamma$ ray. Figure taken from [28].

states in ⁶⁸Ni to the proton states in ⁹⁰Zr [27] – that the 0_1^+ and 0_2^+ states arise from the mixing of the $(g_{9/2})^2$ and $(p_{1/2})^2$ configurations-was qualitatively supported by the shell model calculations but discrepancies remained [26]. In a β -decay experiment [28] performed at the National Superconducting Cyclotron Laboratory (NSCL), the decays of ⁶⁸Fe and ⁷⁰Co were studied. The decay of 68Fe populated selectively the low-spin β -decaying state of ⁶⁸Co, which preferentially fed the low-spin states of the ⁶⁸Ni daughter. A key observation was of the 430keV $2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+$, shown in Figure 8, with a measured branching ratio of 0.12 (3)%. With the known lifetime of the 2^+_1 state, a $B(E2; 2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+) = 8.9(28)$ W.u. was determined [28], which was nearly a factor of 3 greater than the $B(E2; 2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+)$ value. This led the authors of [28] to conclude, through comparisons with both large-scale shell model and Monte Carlo shell model calculations, that the 0^+_2 and 2^+_1 states are the members of a shape-coexisting band, supporting some of the earlier interpretations [25]. The lifetime of the 0_3^+ state was also measured that yielded a rather small $B(E2; 0_3^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+) = 2.4(2)$ W.u.

The results from [25, 28, 29] lead to a different conclusion regarding the structure of ⁶⁸Ni than earlier interpretations [23, 24, 26, 27, 30], with the 0^+_2 level as either the head of a deformed band or as a mixture of $\nu (g_{9/2})^2 + \nu (fp)^2$ configurations upon which seniority-type states can be built. The arguments are outlined in

[1], and the conflicting interpretations are shown in Figure 9. Clearly, additional measurements that could elucidate the structure of ⁶⁸Ni are required, including new β -decay studies to confirm the existence of the 430-keV $2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+$ transition.

The half-life of the 0_3^+ level in ⁶⁶Ni was measured following the β -decay of ⁶⁶Co by Olaizola *et al.* [31]. The result, shown in Figure 10, of $t_{1/2} = 170(7)$ ps is considerably longer than the half-life reported in a plunger measurement by Leoni *et al.* [32] of 134 (9) ps. However, using either half-life leads to a small $B(E2; 0_2^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+)$ value on the order of 0.1 W.u. Both the LSSM calculations and MCSM calculations indicate multiple shape coexistence in ⁶⁶Ni with spherical, prolate, and oblate configurations occurring for the first four 0⁺ states. The hindered nature of the transition was taken as evidence for substantially different shapes of the states, leading to shape isomerism. Figure 11 displays the energy level systematics for the even–even Ni isotopes, with the states coloured-coded for their presumed shapes.

The region of shape coexistence has been extended steadily in the vicinity of ⁶⁸Ni. Pauwels *et al.* [33] used the β -decay of ⁶⁷Fe to propose that ⁶⁷Co had a spherical (7/2⁻) ground state and a deformed (1/2⁻) first excited state at 492 keV interpreted as a proton 1p-2h intruder configuration with a Nilsson configuration π 1/2⁻[321]. A similar interpretation was also suggested for the (1/2⁻) state at 1,095 keV in ⁶⁵Co combining information from



red-oblate), as assigned in [25, 28, 29]. The levels in black are interpreted as seniority-type levels as in [23, 24, 26, 30], where they were suggested to have significant components of the labelled configurations. Figure taken from [1].

deep-inelastic scattering reactions and β -decay of ⁶⁵Fe [34]. The decay of ⁶⁶Fe to ⁶⁶Co was studied by Liddick *et al.* [35], and they identified the ⁶⁶Co ground state as a proton intruder, with positive parity based on the strong β -feeding from the ⁶⁶Fe 0⁺ ground state. The β -decay of the mass 66 chain, ⁶⁶Mn-⁶⁶Fe-⁶⁶Co-⁶⁶Ni, was also investigated by Stryjczyk *et al.* [36] who employed MCSM calculations to understand the structures of the states in the daughter nuclei. The strong β -feeding from the deformed ⁶⁶Mn ground state to the 1⁺ state at 2874 keV in ⁶⁶Fe was taken as evidence of the latter's deformed characteristic. The ⁶⁶Fe ground state, on the other hand, had a rather diffuse shape in the MCSM calculations, and the 1⁺ ground state of ⁶⁶Co was weakly deformed, with the well-deformed configuration identified as a 1⁺₂ state observed at 982 keV, in contrast to the interpretation of [35].

Very recently, the N = 40 island of inversion was extended above Fe isotopes [37]. The β -decay of ⁷⁴Cu was studied with the GRIFFIN spectrometer at TRIUMF-ISAC, building on an extensive decay scheme that was developed at the Holifield radioactive beam facility using three clover HPGe detectors [38]. With the GRIFFIN array, which comprised 12 HPGe clover detectors, γ - γ angular correlations were performed that resulted in a significant revision of the ⁷⁴Zn level scheme. As shown in Figure 12, the 2099-keV level which had been favoured to have (4⁺) [38], was firmly assigned as 3^+ . Furthermore, additional y-ray transitions were observed that were key to assigning band structures; the 359-keV $2_3^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+$ transition and the 730-keV $2_3^+ \rightarrow 4_1^+$ transition unambiguously lead to a 2⁺ assignment for the level at 2148 keV. With these assignments, a modified level scheme, as shown in Figure 13, was constructed, where the transitions are labelled with their relative B(E2) values normalized to 1 for the highest energy transition from each level. The large relative values for the in-band transitions are consistent with the assigned structure of a " $K^{\pi} = 2^+$ " band and a $K^{\pi} = 0^+$ band. The results were interpreted with the aid of largescale shell model calculations, as well as beyond-mean-field calculations that indicated that the ground state band had, on average, a greater 2p - 2h content and a slightly more deformed and triaxial nature than the 0^+_2 band [37].

Finally, there have been two different β -decay experiments investigating the structure of ⁸⁰Ge [39, 40]. The first [39] was an experiment performed at the ALTO facility and used the decay of ⁸⁰Ga to study both the γ rays and conversion electrons emitted. A weak peak in the conversion-electron spectrum at 628 keV was observed that was attributed to an *E*0 transition in ⁸⁰Ge and placed as feeding the ⁸⁰Ge ground state. This result implied the existence of the 0⁺₂ state at only 639 keV, a dramatic lowering of the 0⁺₂ from 1,547 keV in ⁷⁸Ge, and shape coexistence in ⁸⁰Ge [39]. However, in a β -decay experiment performed at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility with the GRIFFIN array, no such transition was observed in spite of the increase in statistics [40]. This null result ruled out shape coexistence occurring at very low excitation energies in ⁸⁰Ge.

2.3 The *N* = 60 region

It had been suggested for some time that shape coexistence occurs in the N = 60 mass region [41], and the observation [42] in the β -decay of ¹⁰⁰Y of the 0⁺₂ level in ¹⁰⁰Zr at the low excitation energy of 331 keV supported this. This discovery was quickly followed by a measurement of the 0^+_2 lifetime [43] that determined $t_{1/2} = 3.37(30)$ ns. A lifetime measurement [44] using the β - γ - γ fast timing technique reported the lifetime of the 2^+_1 level to be 0.55 (2) ns, yielding $B(E2; 2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+ = 80(3)$ W.u., and also found [45] a considerably longer lifetime for the 0^+_2 level of 5.60(15) ns, leading to $10^3 \times \rho^2(E0) = 92(17)$ and $B(E2; 0^+_2 \rightarrow 2^+_1) = 13.3(10)$ W. u. These data were then used in a two-state-mixing calculation to determine the deformation parameters for the deformed groundstate band of $\beta_D = 0.34(1)$, and for the spherical configuration $\beta_{S} = 0.16$ (2). The ¹⁰⁰Zr lifetimes were in excellent agreement with measurements [46] performed in parallel using a y-y coincidence technique involving a small-crystal Ge detector and a BaF2 detector of 0.40 (8) ns (2_1^+) and 5.36 (23) ns (0_2^+) . At around the same time, studies of the β -decay of the deformed ⁹⁷Rb [47] suggested the presence of shape coexistence in the $N = 59^{97}$ Sr isotope. Rotational bands based on the $\nu 3/2[422]$ and $\nu 3/2[541]$ Nilsson orbitals were suggested at excitation energies of 585 keV and 648 keV, respectively, with lower-lying levels considered to be spherical. This was confirmed shortly thereafter [48] via lifetime measurements using the β - γ - γ technique. The lifetimes extracted



Data used to determine the lifetime of the 0_3^+ level in ⁶⁶Ni populated in the β -decay of ⁶⁶Co (left). A half-life of 170 (7) ps was determined. This result is considerably longer than the half-life from plunger measurements reported in [32], although the physics conclusions are unaltered. Transition rates deduced from the lifetime measurements compared with the large-scale shell model calculations using the LNPS interaction (right). The dashed lines indicate levels that were unobserved in the β -decay. The colour coding indicates the presumed spherical (black and blue), weakly deformed oblate (red), and highly deformed prolate (green). Figures taken from [31].



FIGURE 11

Excitation energy systematics for the even-even Ni isotopes showing yrast bands, three lowest 0^+ excited states, and their possible bands. The normal "shell model" states are indicated with black squares. The proton 2p - 2h states are shown with blue circles; for those observed to be populated strongly in proton-transfer reactions, dark blue is used, whereas those assigned based on calculations (which predict prolate shapes) are plotted with light-coloured circles and dotted lines. The super-deformed 4p - 4h state in ⁵⁶Ni is denoted with a magenta triangle. The 0^+ states with a presumed oblate shape are shown with red triangles, and the presumed spherical 0^+ states, with green diamonds. States for which the existing information is insufficient to characterize them and with a lack of theoretical guidance are marked with yellow stars. Figure taken from [1].

within the suggested $\nu 3/2$ [422] band, an example of which is shown for the $5/2^+ \rightarrow 3/2^+$ transition in Figure 14, established that the inband transitions were indeed enhanced and corresponded to an intrinsic quadrupole moment of $|Q_0| = 3.5$ (4) *eb*. The natures of the level structures in the N < 60 Zr isotopes were greatly speculated upon given the suggestion of shape coexistence in ⁹⁸Zr [41] and also the similarity of their structures with those of the Sr isotopes. New 0⁺ states were assigned [49] in ⁹⁸Zr in an





(Left) Examples of measured $\gamma - \gamma$ angular correlation functions $W(\theta)$, with θ the opening angle between the GRIFFIN detectors, and reduced χ^2 as a function of the arctangent of the E2/M1 mixing ratio δ for γ -ray cascades observed, following the β -decay of ⁷⁴Cu. The top panels are data for the $0_2^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$ and bottom panels for the $3_1^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$ cascades—the latter resulting in a reassignment of the level at 2,099 keV from (4⁺) [38] to 3⁺. (Right) Portions of γ -ray spectra observed in coincidence with the gating γ rays indicated in ⁷⁴Zn. Figures taken from [37].



experiment using mass-separated beams at the ILL to extract ⁹⁸Rb ions. The decay sequence, ⁹⁸Rb \rightarrow ⁹⁸Sr \rightarrow ⁹⁸Y, resulted in only the lowspin β -decaying state in ⁹⁸Y being populated from the ⁹⁸Sr spin 0⁺ parent. New *E*0 transitions of 423 keV and 564 keV were observed in the decay of ⁹⁸Y. These were placed as a cascade of *E*0 transitions from levels at 1859 keV and 1436 keV in ⁹⁸Zr, establishing them as the 0⁺₄ and 0⁺₃ states, respectively. Additionally, γ - γ angular correlation measurements [49] performed with mass-separated beams of fission products ⁹⁸Sr and ⁹⁸Y at the Jülich research reactor proved conclusively that the states were 0⁺. The half-lives



of these states were also measured, assuming that they are fed directly in the β -decay, with $t_{1/2} = 0.69(10)$ ns (0_3^+) and 0.24(10) ns (0_4^+) . The data permitted the extraction of the transition rates, and a two-state mixing model was assumed for the large $10^3 \times \rho^2 (E0) = 290(80)$ value determined for the $0_3^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+$ transition. With an assumption of maximal mixing and taking one configuration to be spherical, the deformed configuration must have $|\beta| > 0.21$ [49]. It should be noted that while the presence of large E0 strengths imply significant differences in root-mean-square values of the deformation β , the structure of the 0^+ states in 98 Zr remains contested. For example, [50]



the 371-keV $2_2^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+$ transition, leading to a B(E2) = 19(2) W. u. Figure taken from [59].



interpreted the 0_3^+ state as the head of a well-deformed band, with the 2_2^+ , 4_1^+ , and 6_1^+ states as band members. In contrast, [51] interpreted the 0_3^+ , 2_2^+ , and 4_1^+ states as a two-quasiphonon triplet of weakly deformed states and 6_1^+ as a three-quasiphonon state. The conversion electrons and *E*0 strengths in ⁹⁸Sr were re-investigated in [52], performing a two-state mixing analysis using the ρ^2 (*E*0) values, the *B*(*E*2) values for the $2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$, $0_2^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$, and $4_1^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+$ transitions, and the energies of the states, and found a solution that minimized the total χ^2 value that resulted in the unperturbed configurations to have $\beta_D = 0.38(1)$ and $\beta_S = -0.23(2)$, i.e., that the "spherical" configuration is actually an oblate structure. The Coulomb excitation results of [53, 54] that deduced a near-zero quadrupole moment for the 2^+_2 state $Q_s = +0.02^{+0.13}_{-0.12}$ eb, however, is consistent with a spherical state rather than one with oblate deformation.

In ⁹⁹Zr, data from a series [55–58] of ⁹⁹Y β -decay measurements performed at Jyväskylä, ISOLDE, and at the ILL were used to suggest rotational bands based on the $\nu 3/2$ [541] and $\nu 3/2$ [422] Nilsson orbitals with band heads at 575.5 keV and 724.3 keV, respectively



Spectra obtained from the EC/β^+ -decay of ¹⁰⁸In of the conversions electrons (top) and γ rays (bottom). The electron spectrum was obtained using a cooled Si(Li) detector and a magnetic lens of the Siegbahn–Slätis type [71]. The electron spectrum includes an offset of the *K*-binding energy to align the *K*-conversion peaks with the corresponding γ -ray peaks. Figure taken from [70].



FIGURE 18

Excitation energy systematics for the even-even Cd isotopes. The prolate ground state band is shown in black, with the presumed triaxial "intruder" band in blue and the oblate band in red where the shapes have been predicted in beyond-mean-field calculations [69, 70] for 110,112 Cd. The states in neighbouring isotopes suggested to have similar shapes are shown with the same colour scheme. For states that have tentative shape assignments, dotted lines and lighter colours are used. The 2^+_2 state, labelled as the " γ "-band head, is shown in green. Figure taken from Ref. [1].



(Left) Portion of the spectrum of *y* rays observed in coincidence with the 1630-keV $2_4^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+ y$ ray in ¹¹⁰Cd. The inset displays the expanded region near 400 keV, highlighting the 418-keV *y* ray. This was a newly observed *y* ray assigned as the in-band $4_5^+ \rightarrow 2_4^+$ transition with the extracted branching ratio 0.59 (5)%, leading to $B(E2; 4_5^+ \rightarrow 2_4^+) = 55(14)$ W. u. (Right) Portion of the spectrum of *y* rays observed in coincidence with the 1254-keV $0_4^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+ y$ ray in ¹¹²Cd. The inset displays the expanded region near 300 keV, highlighting the 285- and 360-keV *y* rays. The 285-keV *y* ray was assigned as the $2_5^+ \rightarrow 0_4^+$ in-band transition with the extracted branching ratio 0.079 (33)%, leading to $B(E2; 2_5^+ \rightarrow 0_4^+) = 34(15)$ W. u. Figures taken from [73].



[55]. A short time later [55], using a superior setup at Jyväskylä, part of the evidence used for the deformed interpretation, namely an enhanced transition connecting the 5/2⁻ and 3/2⁻ band members, was found to be questionable, and the transition connecting the 7/2⁻ and 5/2⁻ band members was concluded not to exist. However, later experiments have observed the 58-keV 5/2⁻ \rightarrow 3/2⁻ transition and reaffirmed the existence of the 3/2[541] band (see, e.g., Refs. [57, 58] that includes discussions of other structures in ⁹⁹Zr).

The nature of states in the Zr isotopes with N < 58 was probed in a ⁹⁴Y β -decay measurement [59] that discovered the $2^+_2 \rightarrow 0^+_2$ transition in ⁹⁴Zr, as shown in Figure 15. The extracted branching ratio of 0.150(6)% was combined with the level lifetime from DSAM measurements, following the $(n, n'\gamma)$ reaction resulting in $B(E2; 2_2^+ \rightarrow 0_2^+) = 19(2)$ W.u. This was the first firm determination of the shape coexistence scenario based on absolute B(E2) values for the even–even Zr isotopes.

The systematics of selected states in the Zr and Sr isotopic chains are shown in Figure 16; the states assigned to the spherical ground states for N < 60 and the deformed ground states for $N \ge 60$ and 0^+_2 and 0^+_3 , are shown. The results of a new experiment [60] performed with Gammasphere studying the β -decay of ¹⁰⁰Y discovered the 0^+_4 and 0^+_5 states at 1294.5 and 1774.0 keV, respectively, in ¹⁰⁰Zr, and also observed a 366.8 keV transition placed as the $2^+_3 \rightarrow 0^+_3$ transition, supporting the interpretation of







a rotational band proposed in [61]. New results are also reported [62] for ⁹⁸Zr from a β -decay experiment performed at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility with the 8π spectrometer. From γ - γ angular correlations, the 0_5^+ and 0_6^+ states were found at 2418 keV and 2749 keV, respectively, and many additional levels were identified as 2^+ states. Further studies are required to be able to identify the existence of possible bands built on these new 0^+ states.

2.4 The Cd isotopes

The stable Cd isotopes have been at the forefront of nuclear structure studies of shape coexistence for over 40 years. Early on [63], the even–even Cd nuclei were interpreted as having a level structure expected for spherical vibrators; however, an extra 2^+ state was discovered in the vicinity of the two-phonon triplet in ¹¹⁴Cd in an (n, γ) reaction [64]. An additional 0⁺ state, also close in energy to the



^{116m1}. Panel (**A**) displays the spectrum obtained from gating on the 734keV $0_3^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+ \gamma$ ray. The "scatter" feature results from Comptonscatter events from the 1097-keV γ ray. The γ -ray spectrum obtained by gating between energies 727 and 731 keV and between energies 738 and 742 keV are shown in (**B**) and (**C**), respectively. The 85-keV peak is notably absent. Figure taken from [91].

two-phonon triplet, was soon discovered in ¹¹³Cd(d, p) ¹¹⁴Cd reaction, as well as an extra 0⁺ and 2⁺ pair of states in the ¹¹¹Cd(d, p)¹¹²Cd reaction [65]. Although their natures were speculated upon for some years, it was not until 1977 in an experiment studying the β -decay of the ¹¹⁰In 7⁺ ground state that the rotational-like band based on the 1473-keV 0⁺₂ level was finally elucidated [66]. This was achieved by having

sufficient sensitivity for weak, low-energy transitions enabled through the use of Ge(Li) y-ray detectors with their superior energy resolution over previous investigations using NaI detectors [67]. Using results that had nearly simultaneously been obtained from the two-proton-transfer reaction (${}^{3}\text{He}, n$) [68], the rotational band was interpreted as being a 2p - 4h proton excitation, with the promotion of two $g_{9/2}$ protons into either $g_{7/2}$ or $d_{5/2}$ orbitals above the Z = 50 closed shell. It was also postulated at that time that a similar deformed rotational band occurred in ¹¹⁴Cd. Shortly thereafter, important information was obtained from conversion electron spectroscopy of ¹¹²Cd and ¹¹⁴Cd [69]. The data for ¹¹²Cd were obtained following the β -decay of ¹¹²In, whereas that for ¹¹⁴Cd were deduced from data obtained from a neutron capture reaction. With lifetimes deduced from in-beam studies [69], $10^3 \times \rho^2$ (E0) values were determined for the decay of the 0^+_2 and 0_3^+ states. The values for the $0_2^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+$ transitions, 37(11) and 30(8) for ¹¹²Cd and ¹¹⁴Cd, respectively, can be contrasted with the values of 0.48(11) and 1.7(2) for the $0^+_3 \rightarrow 0^+_1$ transition. For the $0^+_3 \rightarrow 0^+_2$ transition, the value in ¹¹²Cd, 8.1(19), is significantly larger than that for ¹¹⁴Cd at 0.41(9). Generally, these values were in line with the expectations of the vibrational model, where for $\Delta N = 2 E0$, transitions are allowed [7]. Alternatively, the $\rho^2(E0)$ values are also consistent with a shape coexistence scenario.

The Cd isotopes were systematically studied by the Jyväskylä group, as reported in [70], that included light-ion fusion–evaporation reactions and also the β -decay of 106,108,110 In. The In activities were produced through (p, n) reactions on foils of ^{106,108,110}Cd with their decays studied by both *y*-ray spectroscopy and conversion-electron spectroscopy. Although only singles measurements were performed, a number of conversion coefficients were extracted that included E0 transitions. The eand y-ray spectra for the decay of ¹⁰⁸In are shown in Figure 17, demonstrating the very high signal-to-background obtained. Specifically important were the observations of strong E0 transitions such as that at 1913 keV for 108Cd, as shown in Figure 17. In this study, the shape-coexisting intruder bands were assigned from ¹⁰⁶Cd through ¹²⁰Cd [70]. Figure 18 shows the current state of the excitation energy systematics where the presumed nature (outlined below) of the states is reflected in the colour coding [1].

A major step forward in the understanding of the structure of the Cd isotopes occurred with the combination of lifetimes determined from analysis of Doppler-shift data from $(n, n'\gamma)$ reaction and results from β -decay measurements performed at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility with the 8π spectrometer [72–74]. These β -decay studies reached a very high level of sensitivity for the observation of weak, low-energy y-ray branches between states at relatively high excitation energy. It was shown conclusively that the strong-mixing scenario, proposed decades earlier to explain the decay pattern of the 0^+_2 and 0^+_3 states [75], led to serious discrepancies for ¹¹⁰Cd [74]. The data, with some of the key coincidence spectra shown in Figure 19, further permitted the assignment of rotational bands built on excited 0⁺ states and the assignment of "K = 2" bands, as shown in Figure 20 for ¹¹²Cd. The y-ray transitions that were newly observed in those studies are highlighted in red. It is remarkable that despite how well studied both ¹¹⁰Cd and ¹¹²Cd were, many new transitions, and even states, were found. From a comparison of the experimental results to beyond-mean-field calculations, it was suggested that ^{110,112}Cd possessed multiple deformed shapes ranging from prolate,



Partial level scheme of ¹¹⁶Sn with the widths of the arrows proportional to the B(E2) values, with those from the 2529-keV level reflecting lower limits only, and that of the 165-keV transition as an upper limit. Figure taken from [91].



triaxial, and oblate [72, 73]. This is a major shift in the interpretation of the Cd isotopes, which had long been considered excellent examples—in fact often cited in textbooks — of spherical vibrational systems. A series of Coulomb excitation experiments

have been conducted with the aim of providing definitive answers to the shapes of excited states in ¹¹⁰Cd, early results of which have been published in [76].

A series of conversion electron measurements were performed by [77–79], following the β -decay of In parents. The measurements took advantage of Cd(p, n) reactions to produce the In activities and obtained very high signal-to-background ratios that enabled the observation, or set upper limits, of many *E*0 branches including those for $2^+_{2,3} \rightarrow 2^+_1$ transitions. The observations were interpreted taking into account configuration mixing within the proton–neutron interacting boson model (IBM-2) framework. A reasonable reproduction of the *E*0 strengths was obtained [78, 79], although the 2^+_3 states in ^{110,112,114}Cd were interpreted as having a mixed-symmetry characteristic rather than of intruder origin. A conversion electron study, following the β^+ /EC-decay of ¹¹⁰In, extracted a new *E*0 branch from the 4⁺ member of the intruder 0⁺₂ band [80]. The data, combined with that from [10], indicate that the shape-coexisting states continue to experience mixing with increasing spin in the bands.

Measurements of the β -decay of Ag isotopes extending into the neutron-rich Cd region were pursued at ORNL using the CARDS array [81] that consisted of three or four clover-type HPGe detectors in close geometry and the BESCA Si(Li) detector for conversion electrons, replacing one of the clover Ge detectors. A new β -decaying isomer was discovered in the ¹¹⁶Ag parent [82]. The key for its observation was the outstanding energy resolution achieved for the



excitation energies using K = 1/2. Figure taken from [99].

BESCA detector for conversion electrons. The β -decay of three states in ¹¹⁶Ag, the 0⁻ ground state, the newly found 48-keV 3⁺ state, and the 129-keV 6⁻ state, populated a wide spin range of levels in the ¹¹⁶Cd daughter. Despite the sensitivity achieved, the placement of the key 262-keV $2_3^+ \rightarrow 0_3^+ \gamma$ ray, which has been observed in one experiment only [83] with a reported branching ratio of 0.5% and used to establish the intruder band, could not be confirmed [84]. Rather, the β -decay measurement [84] reported a 2σ upper limit of 0.6%. In ¹²⁰Cd, the data obtained [85] from the decay of the 120 Ag, which includes the (0⁻, 1⁻) ground state and the 4⁽⁺⁾ and 7⁽⁻⁾ isomeric states, did not observe the decay of the previously assigned 0^+_2 at 1388.9 keV but did observe the decay of the higher-lying 0^+_2 state at 1744.9 keV. Furthermore, a previously unobserved γ ray was observed in coincidence with the 505.6-keV $2_1^+ \rightarrow 0_1^+ \gamma$ ray, as shown in Figure 21, but without any additional coincidences. These facts were used to remove the 1388.9-keV state from the level scheme and to establish a new level at 1136.0 keV that was assigned as the 0^+_2 state. This new assignment is reflected in the energy systematics shown in Figure 18. If this placement is confirmed, it would imply a dramatic drop in energy for the configuration that, in the lighter Cd isotopes, is suggested to be based on an oblate shape [72, 73].

Studies using the CARDS array were also performed for the decays of ^{124,126}Ag [86]. From their data for ¹²⁴Ag decay, they assigned a state at 1573.5 keV as the 0_2^+ state, using similar arguments as for the ¹²⁰Cd 0_2^+ state above. This may be the head of the "oblate" band; however, no higher-lying band members were assigned. A second excited 0^+ state was suggested at 1924.8 keV.

These new states would suggest that the 0_2^+ state in ¹²²Cd, a nucleus which has not been thoroughly studied since the early 1990s [87], remains undetected since it is currently assigned as a level at 1705 keV, and such a dramatic rise and fall of the excitation energy of the 0_2^+ state between ¹²⁰Cd and ¹²⁴Cd is unexpected.

New β -decay measurements have been initiated using the GRIFFIN spectrometer at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility that will include the study of ^{104,106}In decay and ^{112,116,118,120}Ag decay. The neutron-rich Ag isotopes, in particular, have multiple β -decaying states that can be separated somewhat via selective laser ionisation. The decay of ^{118,120}Ag will also be studied at the Jyväskylä facility that will offer the advantage of using the Penning trap mass spectrometer JYFLTRAP to achieve highly purified isomeric beams [88].

2.5 The Sn isotopes

The shape-coexisting states in the mid-shell Sn isotopes were first discovered through a series of (α , 2ny) reactions by [89] and have mostly been investigated through a variety of reaction studies. Of particular interest has been the two-proton-transfer studies [68] that observed large populations of the 0⁺₂ states in ^{114,116,118}Sn, as well as in α -particle transfer reactions ^{122,124}Te(d,⁶Li)^{118,120}Sn [90], that reveal the microscopic natures of the 0⁺₂ states having important proton-pair contributions. The energy level systematics is shown in Figure 22 for the even–even Sn isotopes. Of particular interest is that both the 0⁺₂ and 0⁺₃ states display the characteristic parabolic-shaped trend expected for shape-coexisting structures with the minimum at

the neutron mid-shell. The systematics plotted here use the 0^+_2 level as the intruder band head based on its strong population in the proton-transfer reactions.

The structure of the deformed intruder bands in ^{116,118}Sn has recently been investigated with β -decay at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility. In ¹¹⁶Sn, the decay of ^{116m1}In was used to seek weak, lowenergy transitions from the low-spin excited states, especially the 0⁺ and 2⁺ states. The collected data enabled the direct observation of the 85keV $2^+_2 \rightarrow 0^+_3$ transition that previously had its intensity indirectly inferred. This is shown in Figure 23. Due to the large Comptonscattering background that was present, the authors of [91] performed a careful investigation of its possible impact to contribute to the signal at 85 keV. As shown in Figure 23, the 85-keV peak is clearly due to a coincidence with the 734-keV $0_3^+ \rightarrow 2_1^+ \gamma$ -ray transition. The measured branching ratio for the 85-keV transition results in a B(E2) value of 100(8) W.u. that is a factor of 2.2(3) greater than the 355-keV $2^+_2 \rightarrow 0^+_2$ transition, leading to the suggestion that the 03 level should be identified as the intruder band head. This is shown in Figure 24. Interestingly, upper limits were established [92] and led to negligible E0 components in the $2^+_2 \rightarrow 2^+_1$ and $2^+_3 \rightarrow 2^+_1$ transitions, implying that the mixing of the intruder and spherical 2⁺ states must be very small.

A recent study [93] of the neighbouring nucleus ¹¹⁸Sn via the β^- decay of ¹¹⁸In was performed with the GRIFFIN spectrometer at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility. The measurement collected a very large statistical sample that resulted in significant revisions of relative intensities for decay of some levels, most notably for the 284-keV transition from the 2⁺₂ level that populates the 0⁺₂ state. This particular transition was shown to be part of a triplet of *y* rays at 285 keV, and its branching ratio for decay from the 2⁺₂ level was refined from 2.6(2)% down to 1.33(6)%, reducing *B*(*E*2; 2⁺₂ \rightarrow 0⁺₂) to 21(4) W.u. from its previously adopted 39(7) W.u [93]. However, the intruder band in ¹¹⁸Sn remained as previously assigned with the 0⁺₂ state as its band head.

The energy systematics presented in Figure 22 display a smooth dependence as a function of the neutron number, with the 0^+_2 and 0^+_3 states both displaying a parabolic dependence. If the band head in ¹¹⁶Sn is indeed the 0^+_3 state, this would imply a rather abrupt shift in the systematics. The authors of [91] performed a two-state mixing calculation and suggest that the unperturbed band head energy was 1944 keV. If this is adopted, it would still imply that the intruder band head has its minimum at ¹¹⁸Sn. With the close spacing of the 0^+_2 and 0^+_3 states in ¹¹⁴Sn, it is likely that the mixing would be large in this isotope as well and that one may expect the existence of a $2^+_2 \rightarrow 0^+_3$ transition in competition with the $2^+_2 \rightarrow 0^+_2$ transition as in ¹¹⁶Sn. Indeed, this scenario was considered by Spieker et al. [94] in their study of lifetimes using the $(p, p'\gamma)$ reaction. However, in the Cd (³He,n) reactions [68], from the location of the peaks in the time-of-flight spectra, it is the 0^+_2 state that appears to receive the strong population, rather than the 0^+_3 level (see Fig. 40 of Ref. [1]) in ^{116,118}Sn. In ¹¹⁴Sn, perhaps some sharing of the cross section between the 0^+_2 and 0^+_3 states could be postulated. These observations suggest a far more complex picture is required for the excited 0⁺ states in the Sn isotopes due to the contrasting conclusions from y-ray spectroscopy and reaction spectroscopy.

2.6 Neutron-rich Rh and Ag isotopes

Studies of neutron-rich odd-mass Rh [95–98] via the β -decays of Pd isotopes indicated the presence of intruder states and shape

coexistence. A parabolic-shaped pattern in the level energy systematics for the Rh isotopes is present (see Figure 25), and moreover, level lifetime measurements revealed enhanced B(E2) values for the in-band transitions. In ¹⁰⁹Rh, for example, an enhanced $B(E2; 1/2^+ \rightarrow 3/2^+) = 173(33)$ W.u. was determined [96], leading to a deformation $\beta_2 = 0.32(3)$. At this deformation, the $\pi 1/2$ [431] Nilsson orbital is close to the Fermi surface, which is consistent with the proposed band in [96]. Shape coexistence is also proposed [99] in the Ag isotopes that have been revealed in β -decay studies. Figure 26 shows the proposed states forming the $\pi 1/2$ [431] bands in ^{113,115}Ag. Unfortunately, these early studies have not been followed such that little additional information has been provided.

3 Summary

With the examples outlined above, it can be seen that β -decay has provided a wealth of information on shape coexistence. There are several key factors that lead to this. First, in many systems, β -decay measurements are the first experimental investigations to be applied. Second, the sensitivity provided by γ -ray and conversion-electron spectroscopy, following β -decay, is largely unmatched. This is due to both the general reduction in backgrounds present in the spectra compared to that in reaction studies and also the (typically) narrow spin range of states fed in the β -decay. Third, the aforementioned factors also greatly facilitate the use of fast-timing techniques based on β - γ - γ or γ - γ - γ triple coincidences. The lifetimes established are critical to firmly assign shape-coexisting structures through the use of B(E2)values and ρ^2 (E0) values.

Contemporary radioactive beam facilities are generating many new, interesting results for nuclei far from stability. At the very extremes, the ability to perform β -decay measurements with beam intensities on the order of 1 ion/s while still providing sufficient detail to extract physics results is a tremendous advantage. Although there is a concentrated focus on studies at the extremes, it is also important to make detailed investigations of nuclei close to, or on, the line of stability. It is these systems that can be probed by a large variety of reactions and techniques that act as the anchor for our understanding of nuclear structure. This is aptly demonstrated in the Cd isotopes, where the β -decay studies revealed many extremely weak y-ray transitions that, nonetheless, were highly collective in nature and resulted in an alternative interpretation being put forward in stark contrast to that proposed in many textbooks. Those results have sparked a number of new experimental programs at various laboratories worldwide to test the new interpretation. Although the outcome has yet to be determined, it underscores how "established" concepts of nuclear structure need to be continuously tested and that studies of nuclei in all locations on the nuclear chart are required to form a complete picture.

 β -decay studies will continue to provide data that are vital for a deeper understanding of shape coexistence. There has been an enormous increase in resolving power of the current generation of large-scale γ -ray spectrometer arrays over those used in the previous β -decay studies performed in the 1970s and 1980s. For example, at the TRIUMF-ISAC facility, for a decade (2003–2013), the 8π spectrometer, composed of 20 coaxial HPGe detectors that provided approximately 1% total photopeak efficiency at 1332 keV, was arguably the leading spectrometer dedicated to β -decay studies

and provided a huge increase in sensitivity and statistical quality compared to many of the earlier studies. The 8π spectrometer was replaced in 2014 by the GRIFFIN spectrometer, composed of 16 clover-type HPGe detectors and having approximately 10% total photopeak efficiency at 1332 keV, thus providing two orders of magnitude increase in y-y-coincidence efficiency. Furthermore, it has gained an enormous benefit from the use of a fully digital DAQ with a thirty-fold increase in data throughput compared to the 8π spectrometer. GRIFFIN, currently, is the world's leading spectrometer for β -decay spectroscopy, and much of its programme is dedicated to shape coexistence studies. The use of trap-assisted β -decay spectroscopy also offers much promise of providing exceptionally clean beams, with even the separation of various isomers in the parent nuclei. The continuous development of radioactive beam facilities, moreover, with improvements in beam intensities and qualities, coupled with advanced instrumentation will enable the advancement in the understanding of shape coexistence, and undoubtedly, new regions of shape coexistence will be discovered.

Author contributions

PG: writing-original draft and writing-review and editing.

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