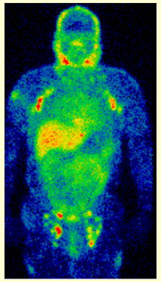
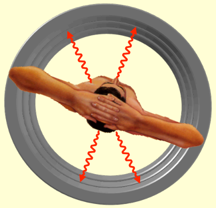
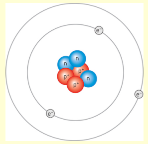




Nuclear radiation,

radioactive isotopes



Constituents of atoms

Particle	Symbol	Rest Energy (MeV)	Relative Charge*	Mass (kg)	Relative Mass (AMU)**
electron	e	0.51100	1-	9.11×10^{-31}	$5.4858\text{X}10^{-4}$
proton	p	938.272	0	$1.6726\text{X}10^{-27}$	1.0072765
neutron	n	939.566	1+	$1.6749\text{X}10^{-27}$	1.0086649

* electrons have an electric charge of -1.602×10^{-19} C
**The atomic mass unit is defined as 1/12 of the carbon (^{12}C)atom

Nuclear notation

Mass number
$A = Z + N$

$^{A}_{Z}X$

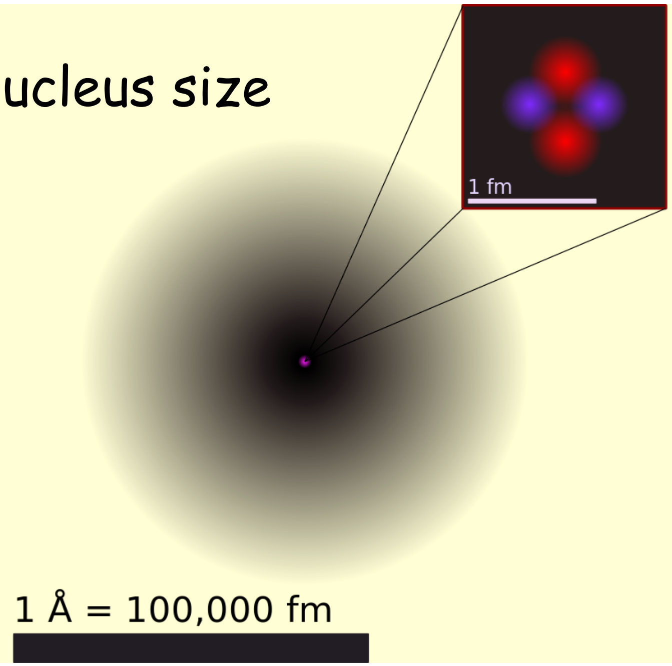
Chemical symbol for the element

Atomic number = Number of protons

$^{27}_{13}Al$

N = *number of neutrons*

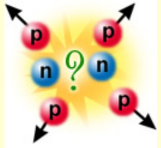
Nucleus size



Nuclear stability

- There are very large *repulsive electrostatic forces* between protons

  These forces should cause the nucleus to fly apart



- $\Delta M = [Zm_p + (A\text{-}Z)m_n] - M(A,Z)$ (?)

It must be that a different type of force exists within the nucleus

1911 Rutherford, Geiger and Marsden

Nuclear stability

$$\Delta M = [Zm_p + (A\text{-}Z)m_n] - M(A,Z)$$

Instead of two separate conservation laws, a single conservation law states that the sum of mass and energy is conserved. Mass does not magically appear and disappear at random. A decrease in mass will be accompanied by a corresponding increase in energy and vice versa.

$$\Delta E = \Delta Mc^2$$

Another, short-range force is present, called the *nuclear force* (Rutherford, 1911)

Nuclear stability

- Another, short-range force is present, called the *nuclear force* (Rutherford, 1911)

This is an attractive force that acts between all nuclear particles

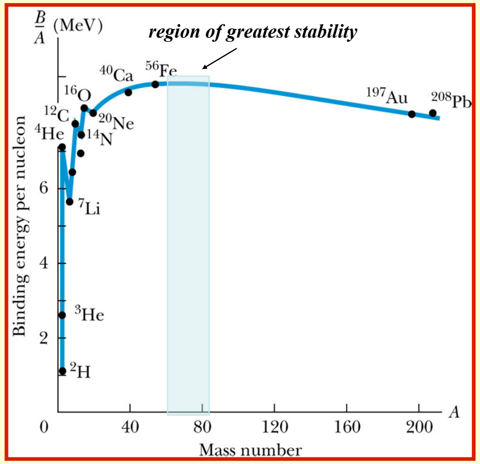
The nuclear attractive force is stronger than the Coulomb repulsive force at the short ranges within the nucleus

$$\Delta E = \Delta Mc^2$$

The nuclear force is
- independent of charge
- the range of action is extremely short (~fm)

Binding energy per nucleon

- The curve increases rapidly
- Sharp peaks for the even-even nuclides ${}^{4}_{2}He$, ${}^{12}_{6}C$, and ${}^{16}_{8}O$
- Maximum is around A=56



nucleon = proton or neutron

Nuclear stability

The balance of proton and neutron number

is extremely important for the stability of the nucleus

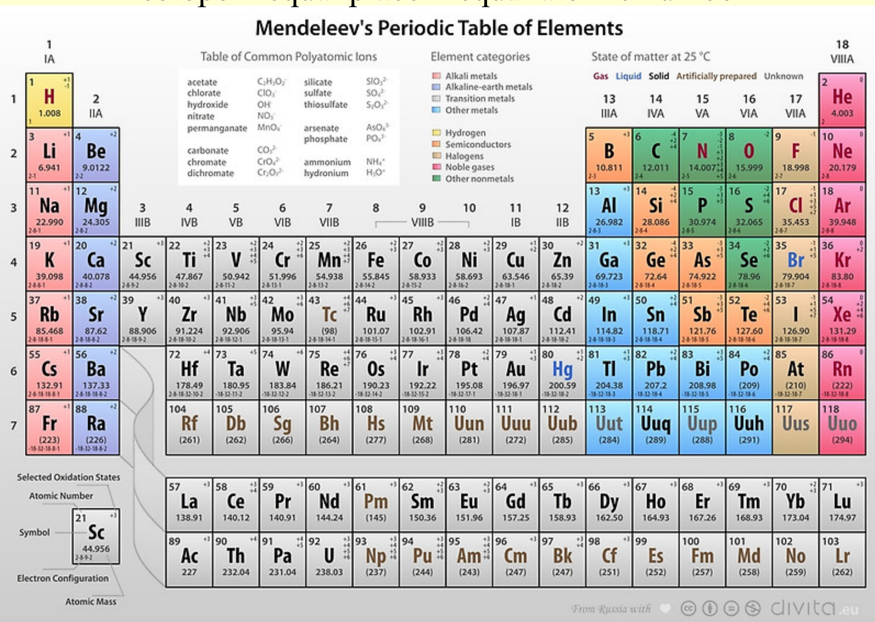
Isotopes

Greek ***isos topos = equal place***

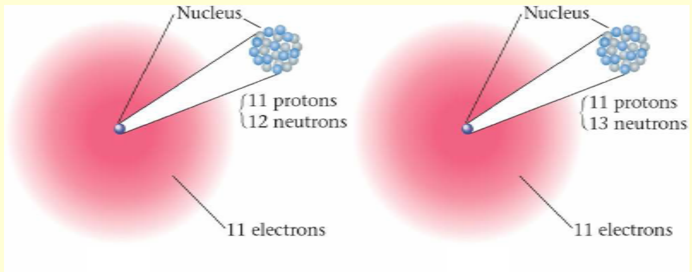
Isotopes of an element have nuclei with

- the same number of protons
- different numbers of neutrons
- different mass number

isotope = equal place = equal atomic number



Example of isotopes



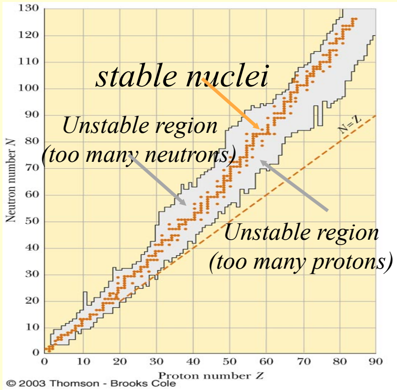
$^{23}_{11}Na$ $^{24}_{11}Na$

What is/are the stable combination(s)? 1:1 ?

Nuclear stability chart

- Light nuclei are most stable if
  N=Z
- Heavy nuclei are most stable when
  N > Z

  As the number of protons increase, the Coulomb force increases and so more nucleons are needed to keep the nucleus stable



- No nucleus is stable when Z > 83

Antoine Becquerel
1903 Nobel Prize in Physics
for discovering radioactivity

Image of Becquerel's photographic plate which has been fogged by exposure to radiation from a uranium salt. The shadow of a metal Maltese Cross placed between the plate and the uranium salt is clearly visible. (1896)

Radioactive decay

- *Radioactivity* is the spontaneous release of energy in the form of radioactive particles or waves
- Experiments suggested that radioactivity was the result of the decay, or disintegration, of unstable nuclei
- Three types of radiation can be emitted

  Alpha (α) particles

  Beta (β) particles

  Gamma (γ) rays (Rutherford 1896, see details later)

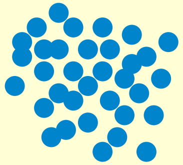
- The nuclides, as with most things in nature, want to be at their *lowest energy state* which is a stable nucleus.
- Radioactive decay occurs in nuclides where the *nucleus is unstable*.

•The nuclide reaches its stable state by undergoing radioactive decay.

Characteristics of radioactive decay

• it is *statistical process* ? individual disintegrations occur ***randomly***

• it results in a decrease over time of the original amount of the radioactive nuclei



decrease of the original amount of the radioactive nuclei over time

Activity : $$\Lambda = \left|\frac{dN}{dt}\right|$$

N: number of nuclei to be decayed

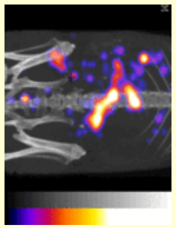
t: time

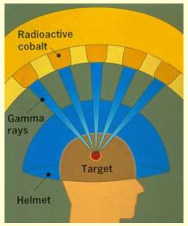
number of nuclei decayed in a unit time

measure: bequerel (Bq)
1Bq = 1 decay/sec

Typical activities in the practice

kBq,	***MBq,***	***GBq,***	***TBq***
natural background	*in vivo* diagnostics	laboratory practice	*therapy*





Radioactive decay law

Differential form $$\left|\frac{dN}{dt}\right| = -\lambda N$$

λ : decay constant (measure: 1/s)

constant for a certain isotope

Activity depends both on the
- size of the population of radioactive atoms
- type of the isotope

$$\left|\frac{dN}{dt}\right| = -\lambda N$$

Differential form

Solution of this equation yields

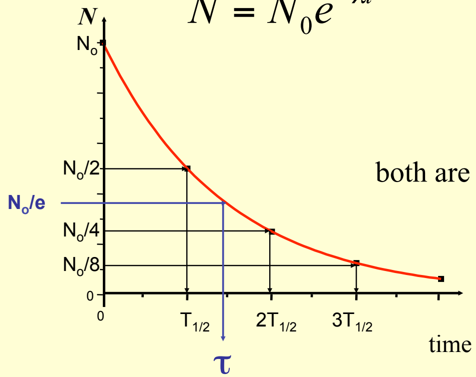
$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

Integral form

N_0 : number of radioactive nuclei at *$t = 0$,*
N : the number radioactive of nuclei remaining after a period *t*

Graphical representation

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

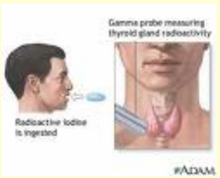


$T_{1/2}$: the half-life

τ : the mean life time

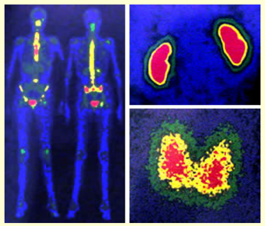
both are characteristic to the nuclei

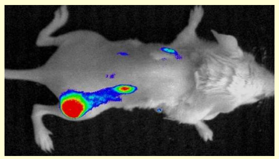
Half-lives in Medical Uses



Iodine - 131** (^{131}I) **- $T_{1/2}$ = 8 days
Thyroid treatment

Technetium-99m** (^{99m}Tc) **– $T_{1/2}$ = 6 hours
Isotope diagnostics





Gold-198** (^{198}Au) **- $T_{1/2}$ = 2.7 days
Tumor therapy

Further considerations

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

If t = $T_{1/2}$ $\Longrightarrow$ $N_0 / 2 = N_0 e^{-\lambda T_{1/2}}$

$$\lambda = \frac{\ln 2}{T_{1/2}} = \frac{0.693}{T_{1/2}}$$

If t = τ $\Longrightarrow$ $N_0 / e = N_0 e^{-\lambda \tau}$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\tau}$$

Definition of decay constant

Alteration of activity in time

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\Lambda = \lambda N$$

$$\Lambda = \Lambda_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

Specific activity : activity in a unit mass (Λ/m),

unit: Bq / kg

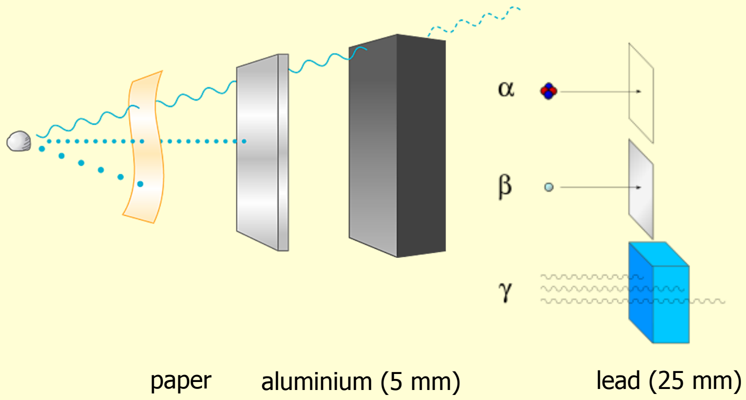
Characteristics of radioactive isotopes

Activity : depends both on the nucleus and the size of its population

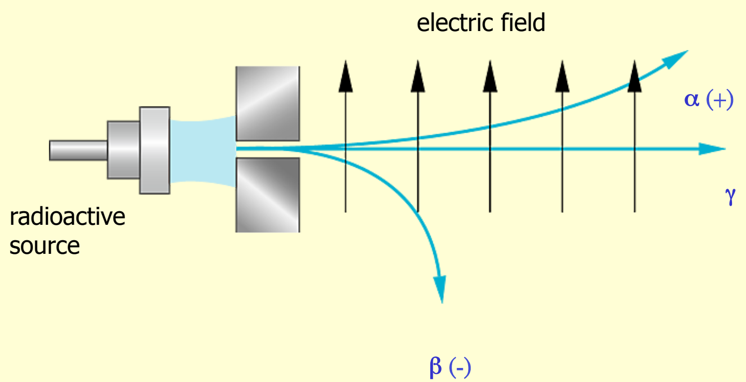
Half-life : physical parameter of each radioactive isotope

Type of radiation: physical characteristic of the nucleus

Types and nature of nuclear radiation

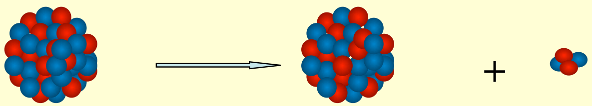


Deflection of radiation in electric field



Radiation from a radium source is split by an electric field.

α decay



parent nucleus *daughter nucleus* *α particle*

$${}^{A}_{Z}X \longrightarrow {}^{A-4}_{Z-2}Y + {}^{4}_{2}\alpha$$

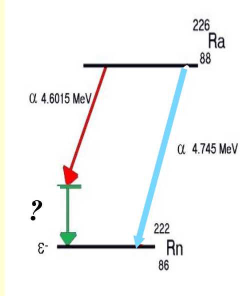
α particle is a nucleus of helium containing two neutrons and two protons

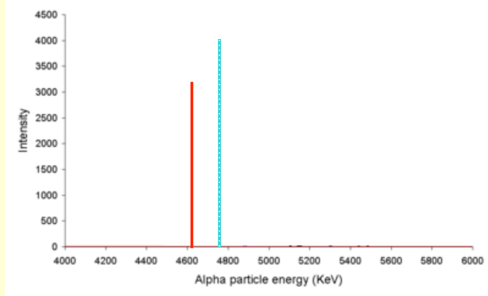
Heavy nuclei with mass numbers higher than 150 can disintegrate by emission of an α particle

example

$${}^{226}_{88}Ra \longrightarrow {}^{222}_{86}Rn + {}^{4}_{2}\alpha$$

Energy spectrum of α radiation

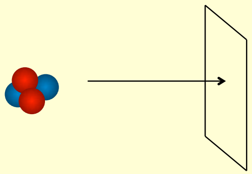




line spectrum

Energy is characteristic for the nucleus

Penetration depth of α particles



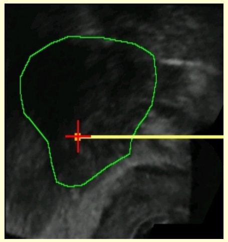
single sheet of paper

absorber	density	alpha range
air (STP)	1.2 mg/cm^3	3.7 cm
paper (20lb)	0.89 g/cm^3	53 μm
water (soft tissue)	1.0 g/cm^3	45 μm

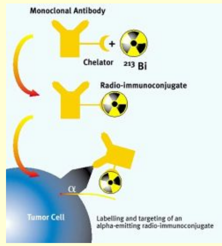
Medical application of α radiation

Diagnostics: none

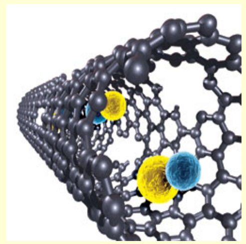
Targeted alpha **therapy** of cancer



Seed implantation by needle



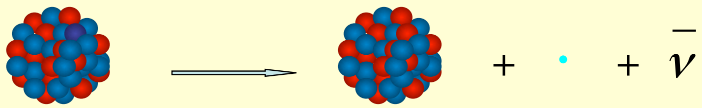
Monoclonal antibody



Carbon nano-tube

β decay

1. Neutron excess: β⁻ decay



parent nucleus *daughter nucleus*

$$ {}^{A}_{Z}X \longrightarrow {}^{A}_{Z+1}Y + e^{-} + \bar{\nu} $$

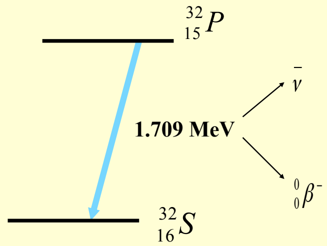
$$ {}^{1}_{0}n \longrightarrow {}^{1}_{1}p^{+} + {}^{0}_{0}\beta^{-} + \bar{\nu} $$

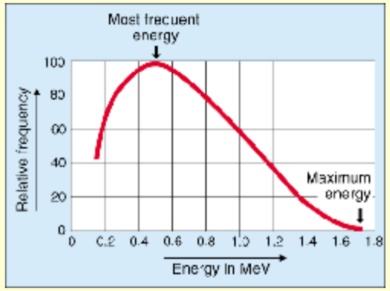
anti-neutrino

example

$$ {}^{131}_{53}I \longrightarrow {}^{131}_{54}Xe + {}^{0}_{0}\beta^{-} + \bar{\nu} $$

Energy spectrum of β radiation



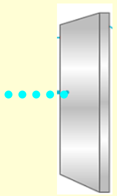


Energy distribution of the β- particles emitted during the β- decay of ^{32}P.

continuous spectrum

with maximum kinetic energy for the β particle

Penetration depth of β⁻ particles



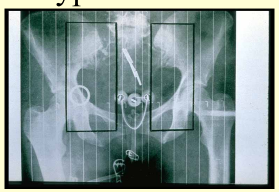
5 mm aluminum

absorber	*density*	*maximum beta range* (2.3 MeV)	*maximum beta range* (1.1 MeV)
air	1.2 mg/cm³	8.8 m	3.8 m
water (soft tissue)	1.0 g/cm³	11 mm	4.6 mm
aluminum	2.7 g/cm³	4.2 mm	2.0 mm
lead	11.3 g/cm³	1.0 mm	0.4 mm

Medical application of β⁻ radiation

Diagnostics: none

Targeted therapy: hyperthyroidism, thyroid and several other types of cancer

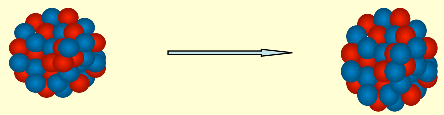


Brachytherapy: implants into the tumours

Endovascular irradiation

β decay

2. Proton excess: β^+ decay



$+ \cdot + \nu$

parent nucleus *daughter nucleus*

$${}^{A}_{Z}X \longrightarrow {}^{A}_{Z-1}Y + e^{+} + \nu$$

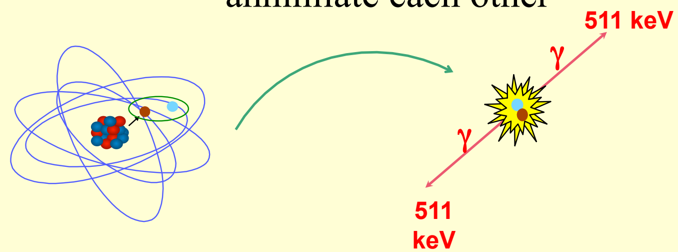
$${}^{1}_{1}p^{+} \longrightarrow {}^{1}_{0}n + {}^{0}_{0}\beta^{+} + \nu$$

neutrino

example

$${}^{11}_{6}C \longrightarrow {}^{11}_{5}B + e^{+} + \nu$$

Annihilation - particle-antiparticle pairs can annihilate each other



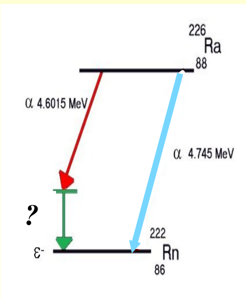
1. Conservation of momentum : two photons with opposite direction are produced

2. Energy balance:

$$m_e c^2 + m_p c^2 = 2\ hf$$

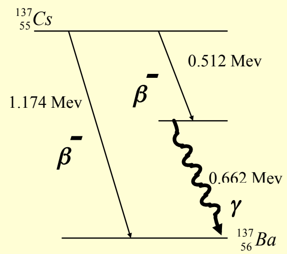
mass – energy equivalence

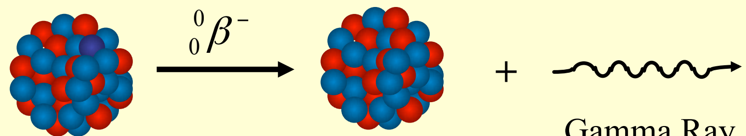
γ decay



Sometimes the newly formed isotopes (after α or β decay) appear in the excited stat.

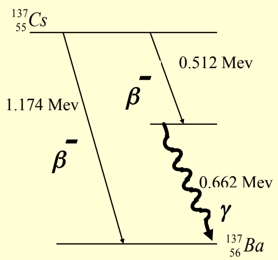
Excited nuclides have tendency to release the excess of energy by **electromagnetic radiation** - emission of gamma rays.

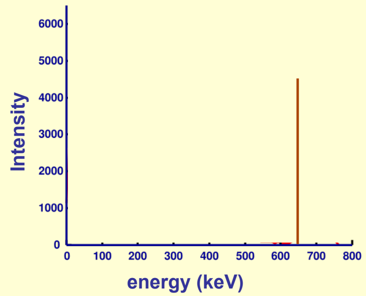




parent nucleus *daughter nucleus*

Energy spectrum of γ radiation

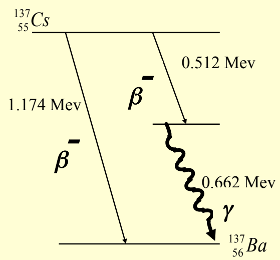


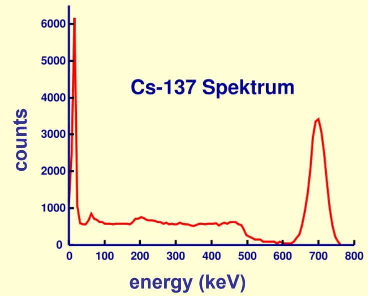


line spectrum

Energy is characteristic for the nucleus

Energy spectrum of γ radiation

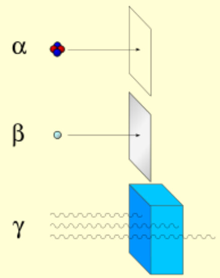




line spectrum

Energy is characteristic for the nucleus

Penetration depth of γ radiation



lead (25 mm)

Penetration distance is higher than that of α or β particles, but it is highly energy dependent.

Gamma rays can travel from 1 to 100s of meters in the air and can easily go right through people (~dm).

Timing of γ emission

Lifetime of the excited nucleus:

1.Prompt γ decay: ~ ***$10^{-13} – 10^{-18}$ s***

2. Isommeric transition: ≥ ***10^{-10} s***

Isomeric transition

Some excited states may have a half-lifes ranging

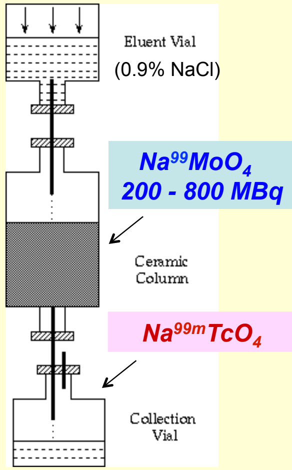
from hours up to more than 600 years

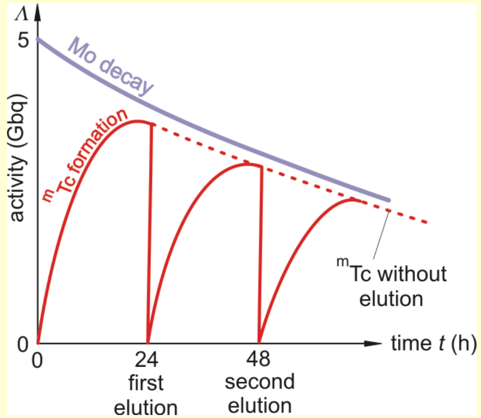
$$^{Am}_{Z}X \rightarrow {}^{A}_{Z}X + \gamma$$

$$^{99}_{42}Mo \rightarrow {}^{99m}_{43}Tc + \beta^{-} \rightarrow {}^{99}_{43}Tc + \gamma$$

$T_{1/2}$=67 hours $T_{1/2}$=6 hours

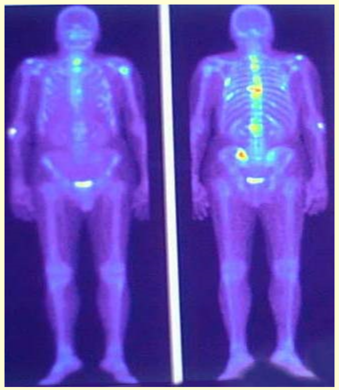
Technetium-99m generator





Medical application

Diagnostics: ideal for isotope diagnostics



Bone scan using ^{99m}Technetium labeled phosphate compound

Radionuclide	Compound	Organ	Function
$^{99}Tc^{m}$	sodium pertechnetate	brain	blood flow
$^{99}Tc^{m}$	coagulated albumin	lung	blood flow
$^{99}Tc^{m}$	colloidal suspension	liver	liver function
$^{99}Tc^{m}$	complex phosphate	bone	bone metabolisms
$^{99}Tc^{m}$	red blood cells	heart	blood circulation
^{123}I	iodide	thyroid	metabolisms
^{123}I	hippuran	kidneys	renal function
^{133}X	gas	lungs	ventilation

Question of the week

What is the origin of nuclear force?

Damjanovich, Fidy, Szöllősi: Medical Biophysics

I. 1.5
- 1.5.1
- 1.5.2
- 1.5.4

II.3.2
- 3.2.1
- 3.2.2
- 3.2.3
- 3.2.4