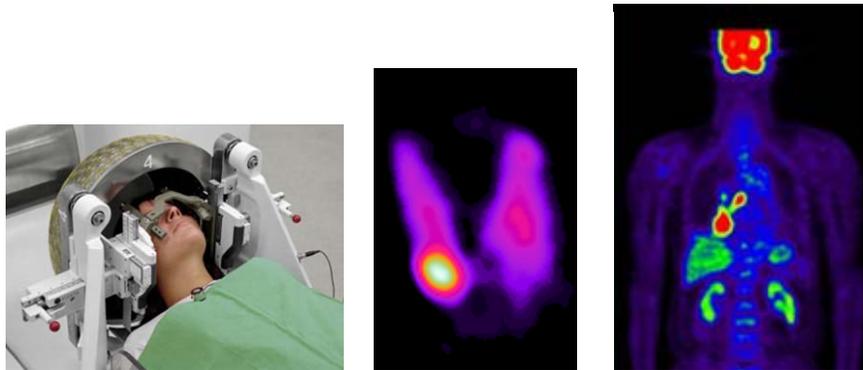


The atomic nucleus. Radioactivity. Nuclear radiations

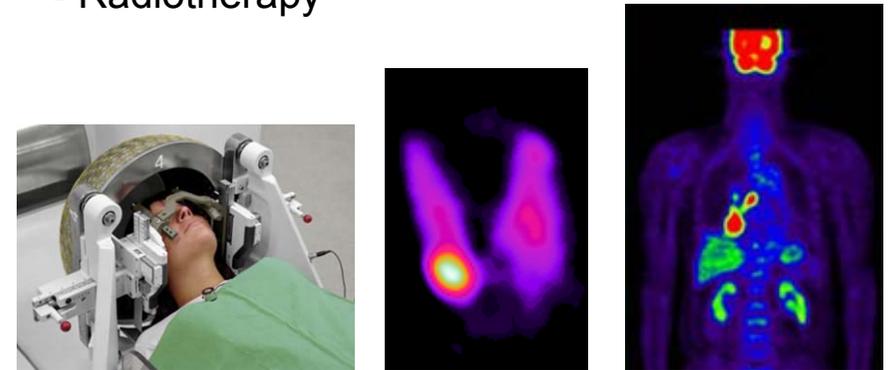
László Smeller



Why?

Medical applications of the nuclear radiation:

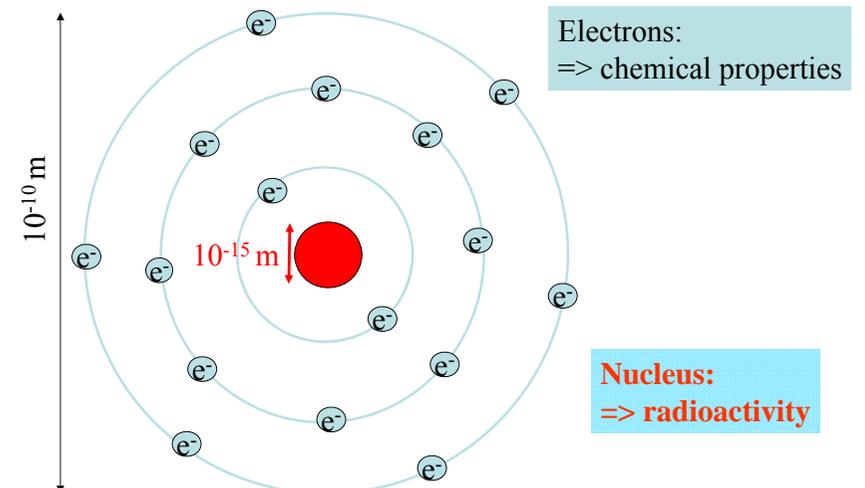
- Nuclear imaging
- Radiotherapy



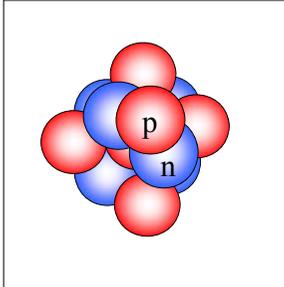
Length scale of the nature

m		
10^0	meter	men
10^{-3}	millimeter	size of letters you can read
10^{-6}	micrometer	size of a cell (e.g. erythrocyte) $\varnothing 7\mu\text{m}$
10^{-9}	nanometer	protein
10^{-10}	- angstrom	diameter of an atom, bond length H atom $\varnothing \approx 1$ angstrom (Å)
10^{-12}	picometer	wavelength of the X-ray
10^{-15}	femtometer	size of the nucleus

The electrons and the nucleus



Structure of the nucleus



Elementary charge = $1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

	charge	mass
proton	+1 e	1 atomic mass unit
neutron	0	1 atomic mass unit

A (mass number) = number of protons + number of neutrons
 Z (atomic number) = number of protons

99 **Tc**
 43

99 nucleon, 43 proton and 56 neutron

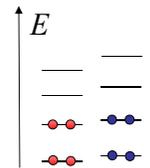
Stability of the nucleus

- Coulomb force: destabilization (electrostatic repulsion between the protons)

- Nuclear force: very strong attractive force acts only on short range (~fm) independent on the charge



- Quantized energy levels for the nucleus.
- Typical binding energy is in the MeV range $eV = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ J}$



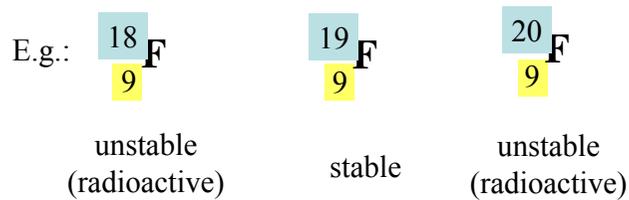
Isotopes

Variants of an element, where the

- number of protons is the same
- number of neutrons is different

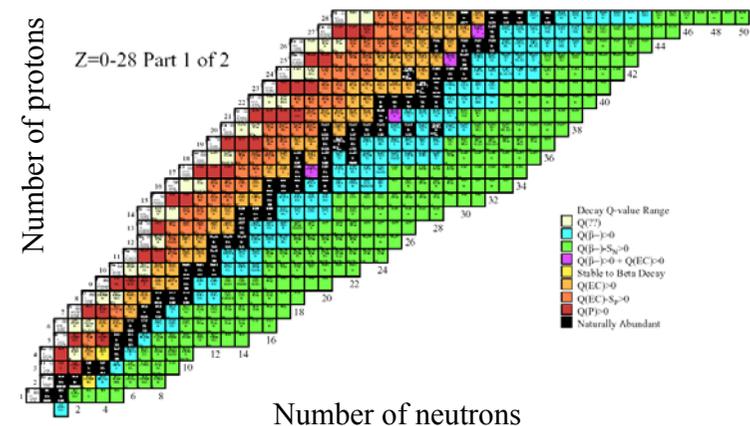


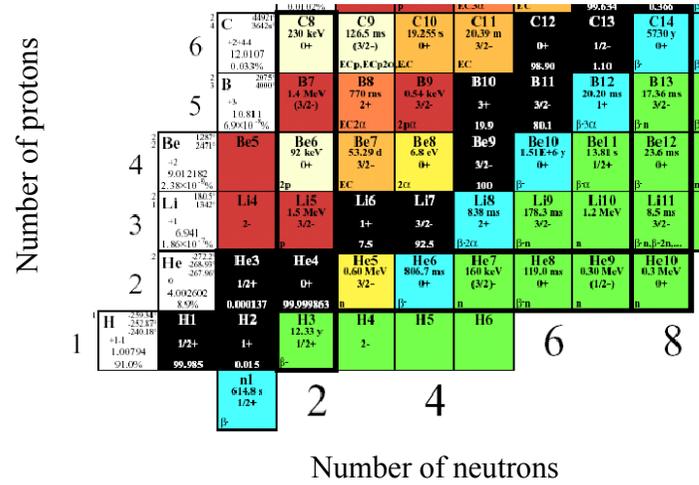
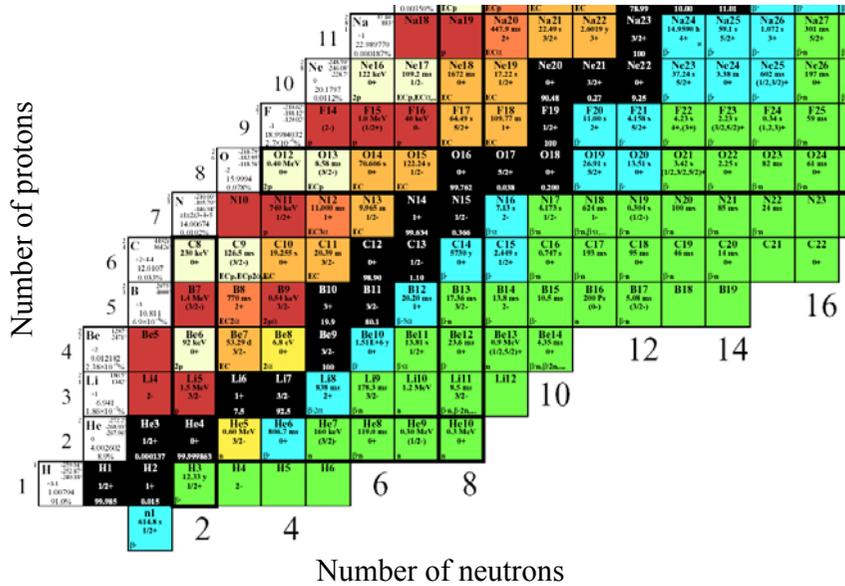
⇒ the chemical properties are identical.



isotope \leftrightarrow radioactive isotope

Table of isotopes



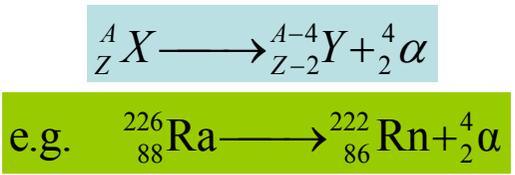


Radioactive decays and particles

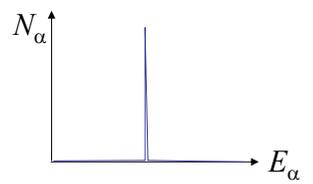
- α - decay α - particle = ${}^4_2\text{He}$ nucleus
- β^- - decay : β^- β^- particle = electron
- β^+ β^+ particle = positron
- Isomeric transition γ -ray
- K-electron capture characteristic x-ray photon

α - decay

α - decay: an α particle (${}^4\text{He}$ nucleus) will be emitted typical for the heavy atoms



Line spectrum
 $E_\alpha \sim \text{MeV}$



neutron surplus

β^- - decay

e.g.: ${}^{20}_9F$
 ${}^{32}_{15}P$
 ${}^{59}_{26}Fe$
 ${}^{131}_{53}I$

$${}^A_Z X \longrightarrow {}^A_{Z+1} Y + {}^0_{-1}\beta + \bar{\nu}$$

$${}^1_0 n \longrightarrow {}^1_1 p + {}^0_{-1}\beta + \bar{\nu}$$

remains in the nucleus leave the nucleus

e.g.: ${}^{32}_{15}P \longrightarrow {}^{32}_{16}S + {}^0_{-1}\beta + \bar{\nu}$

β^- -ray

$\bar{\nu}$

$\beta^- = {}^0_{-1}\beta = e^-$

continuous energy spectrum

proton surplus

β^+ - decay

e.g.: ${}^{11}_6C$
 ${}^{15}_8O$
 ${}^{18}_9F$
 ${}^{52}_{26}Fe$

$${}^A_Z X \longrightarrow {}^A_{Z-1} Y + {}^0_{+1}\beta + \nu$$

$${}^1_1 p \longrightarrow {}^1_0 n + {}^0_{+1}\beta + \nu$$

remains in the nucleus leave the nucleus

e.g.: ${}^{30}_{15}P \longrightarrow {}^{30}_{14}Si + {}^0_{+1}\beta + \nu$

β^+ -ray

ν

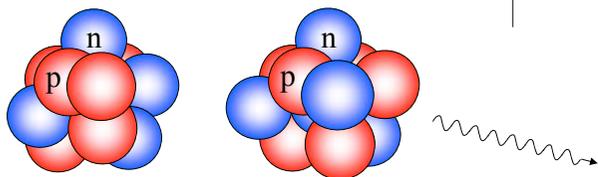
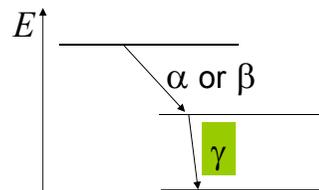
continuous energy spectrum

These isotopes must be produced artificially (e.g. in cyclotron)

Prompt γ -radiation

The daughter nucleus has an **energetically unfavoured** arrangement of nucleons.

The surplus energy will normally be emitted immediately (<ps) in form of the γ radiation



Atomic number, mass number are unchanged.

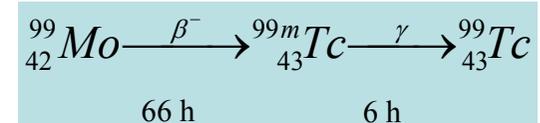
Isomeric transition

If the excited state of the daughter nucleus is metastable, the γ -radiation will be emitted later.

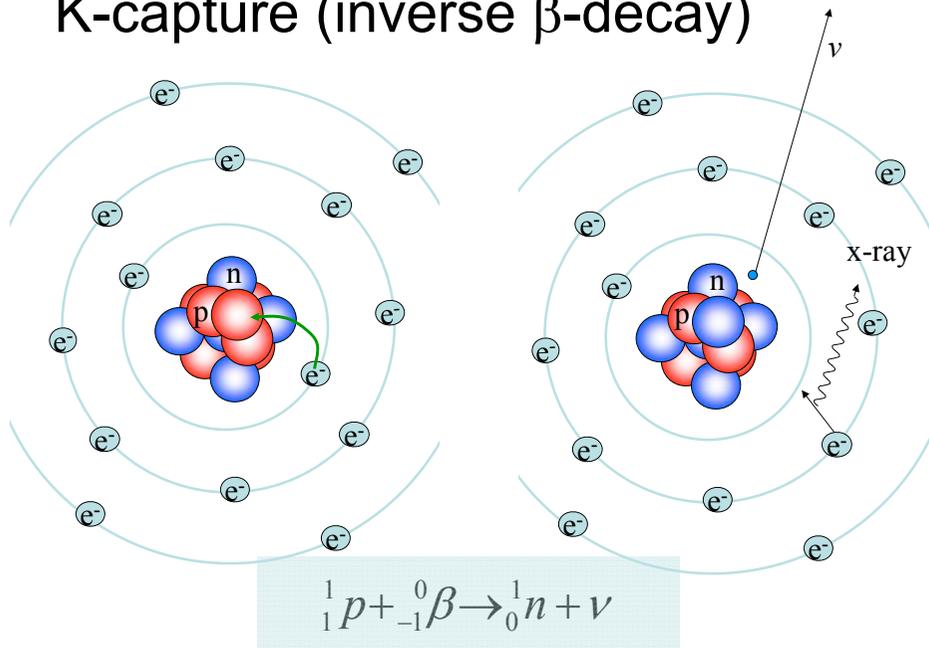
The parent and daughter atoms can be separated: the daughter atom emits **only γ -radiation!**

=> **Isotope diagnostics (nuclear imaging)**

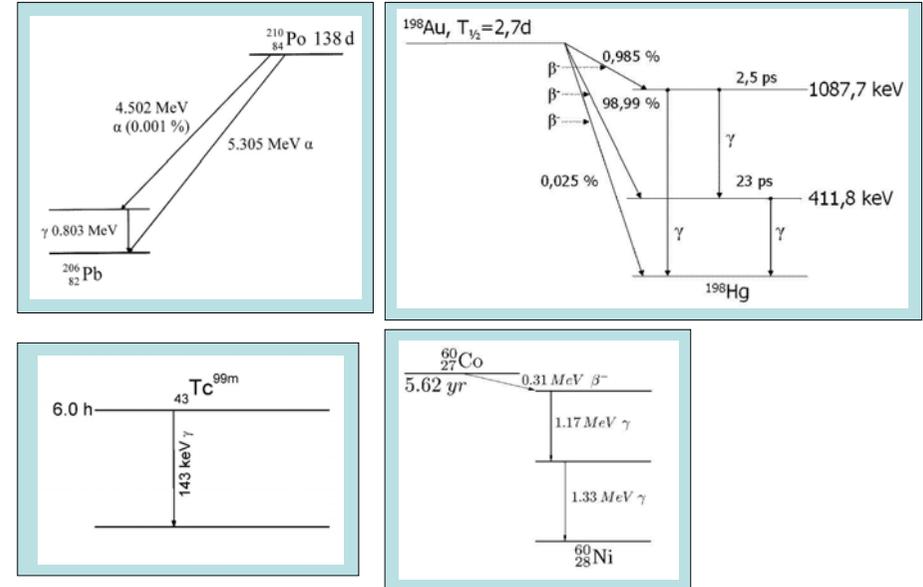
E.g.: ${}^{99m}_{42}Tc$



K-capture (inverse β -decay)



Some examples of the decay paths



Characteristics of radioactive decays in general

- activity characterizes the source
- half life time characterizes the speed of the decay*
- particle energy characterizes the radiation*

*depends on the type of the isotope

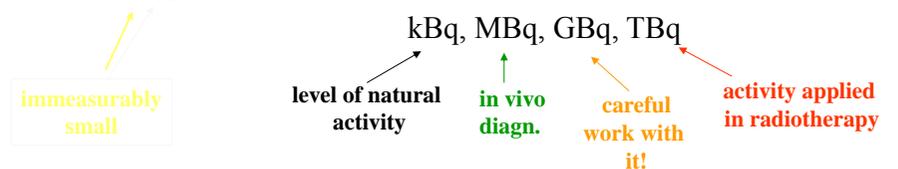
Activity (Λ)

$$\Lambda = \left| \frac{dN}{dt} \right| \quad \left(= \left| \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} \right| \right)$$

N = Number of undecayed atoms
 t = time
 ΔN = Number of decays during Δt time

Activity = number of decays in a unit time

unit: becquerel Bq
 1 Bq = 1 decay/sec



Law of radioactive decay

$$\Delta N = -\lambda N \Delta t \quad N: \text{Number of undecayed nuclei}$$

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N \quad \begin{array}{l} \lambda: \text{decay constant (probability of the decay [1/s])} \\ 1/\lambda = \tau \text{ average lifetime} \end{array}$$

Differential equation

solution:

$$N(t) = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{Exponential decrease}$$

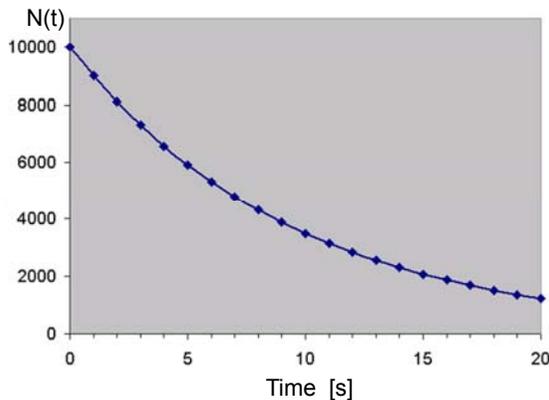
↑
number of undecayed atoms at $t=0$

An example

- At start: $N_0=10000$ (number of atoms)
 $\lambda=0.1 \text{ 1/s}$ (decay probability)
- after 1 sec: 9000 (10000x0.1=1000 decayed)
- after 2 sec: 8100 (9000x0.1=900 decayed)
- after 3 sec: 7290 (8100x0.1=810 decayed)
- after 4 sec: 6561 (7290x0.1=729 decayed)
-

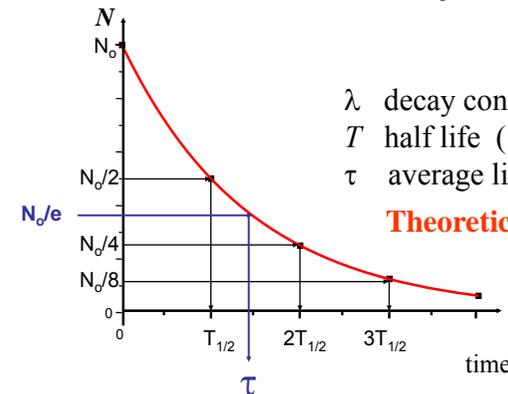
An example

- At start: $N_0=10000$ (number of atoms)
 $\lambda=0.1 \text{ 1/s}$ (decay probability)
- after 1 s: 9000
- after 2 s: 8100
- after 3 s: 7290
- after 4 s: 6561
-



Law of radioactive decay

$$N(t) = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} = N_0 2^{-\frac{t}{T}}$$

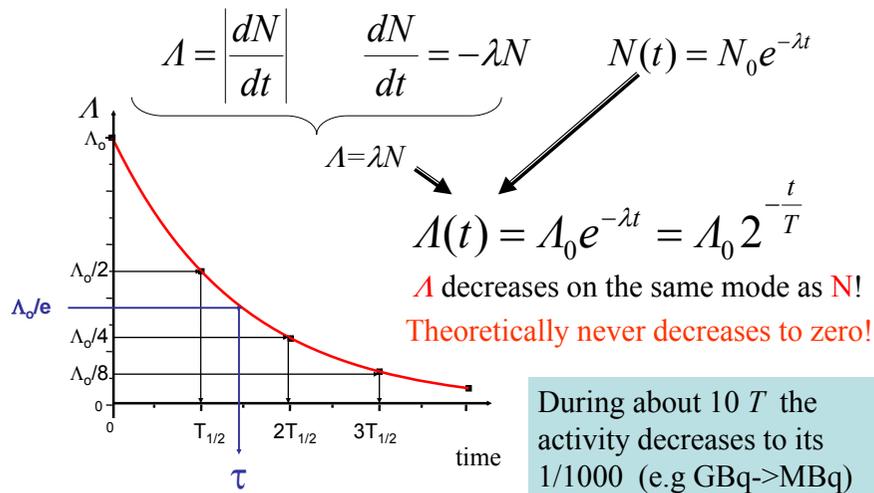


λ decay constant (probability of the decay)
 T half life ($T_{1/2}$)
 τ average lifetime

Theoretically never decreases to zero !

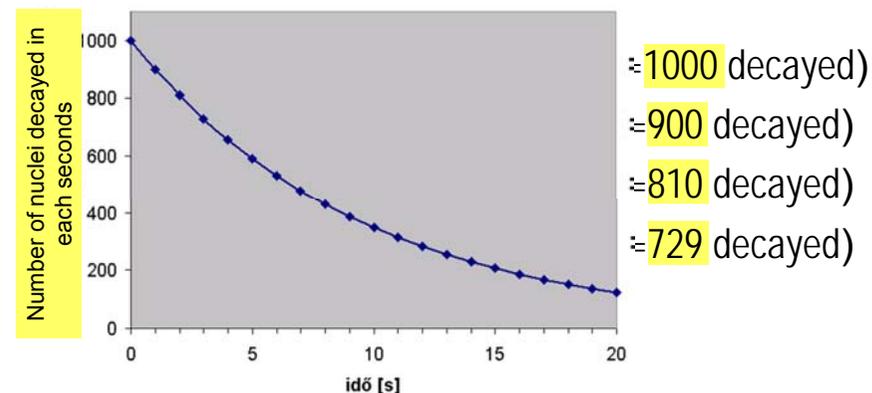
$$\lambda = \frac{\ln 2}{T} = \frac{0,693}{T}$$

Decrease of the activity as a function of time



An example

- At start: $N_0=10000$ (number of atoms)
 $\lambda=0.1 \text{ 1/s}$ (decay probability)



Few examples for half life

^{232}Th	$1.4 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ y}$
^{238}U	$4.5 \cdot 10^9 \text{ y}$
^{40}K	$1.3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ y}$
^{14}C	5736 y
^{137}Cs	30 y
^3H	12.3 y

^{60}Co	5.3 y
^{59}Fe	1.5 m
^{56}Cr	1 m (28 d)
^{131}I	8 d
$^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$	6 h
^{18}F	110 min
^{11}C	20 min
^{15}O	2 min
^{222}Th	2.8 ms

Don't learn these numbers!

Typical energy levels in the microworld

Excitation of the outer electrons

eV (aJ)

light



Electron transition between inner electrons

keV (fJ)

X-ray



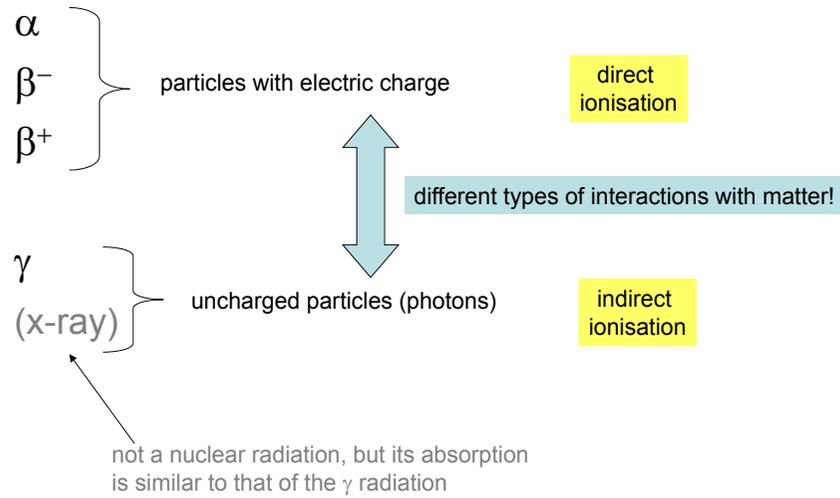
Transformation of the nucleus (decay)

MeV (pJ)

Nuclear radiation
 α, β, γ



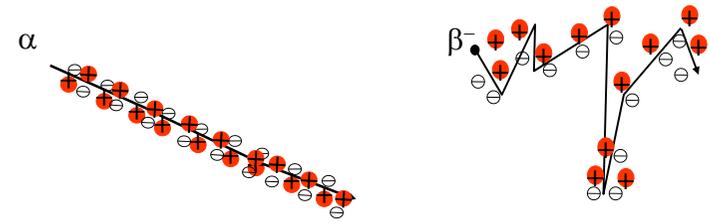
Absorption of the nuclear radiation



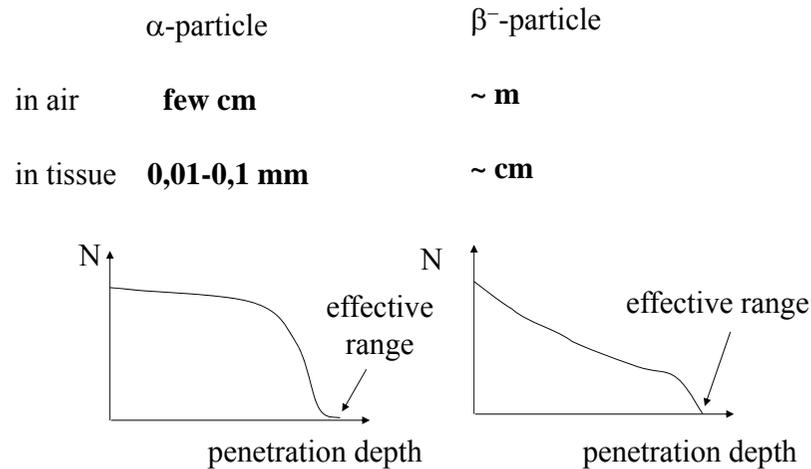
Absorption of the charged particles

Ionizing during the path => continuous decrease of the particle energy
 The energy after a given path length decreases to the thermal value

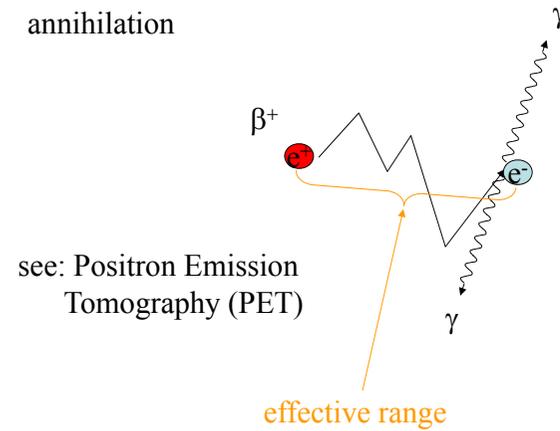
effective range



Effective range

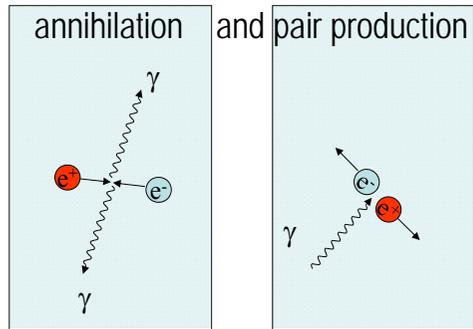
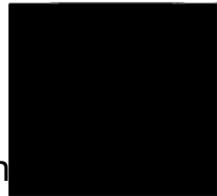


β^+ -radiation



Electron and positron

- particle - antiparticle
- same mass,
- charge: same value, but different

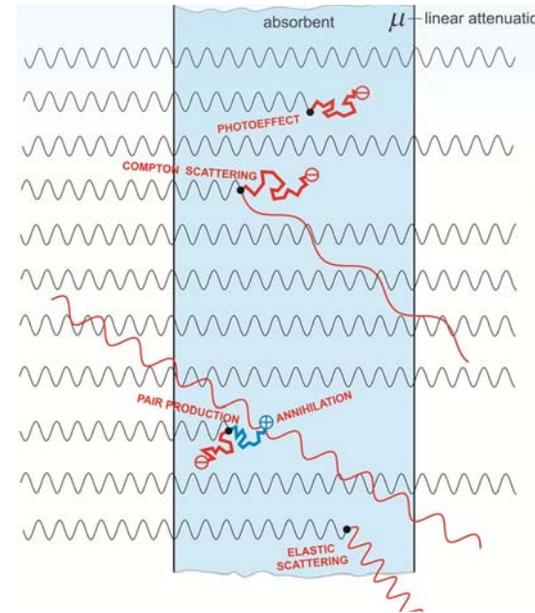


Einstein:
mass-energy
equivalence

$$E=mc^2$$

$$m_e c^2 = 511 \text{ keV} \approx 0.5 \text{ MeV}$$

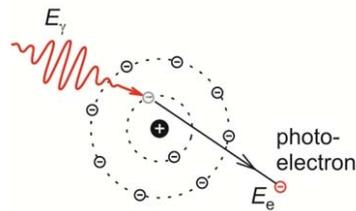
Absorption of the γ -radiation (and x-ray)



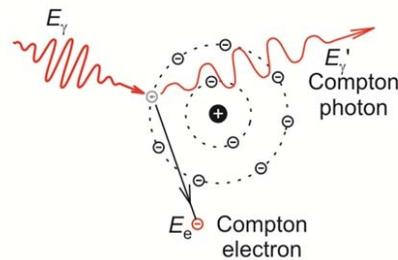
Absorption processes happen accidentally :

Photoeffect,
Compton-effect,
Pair production,
(elastic scattering)

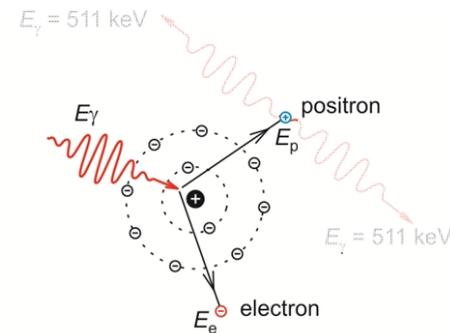
Photoeffect



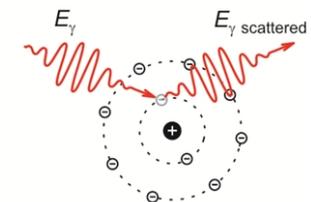
Compton effect Compton-scattering



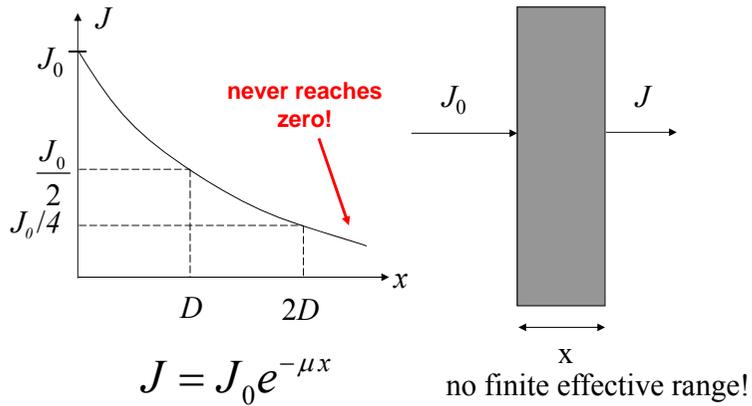
Pair production



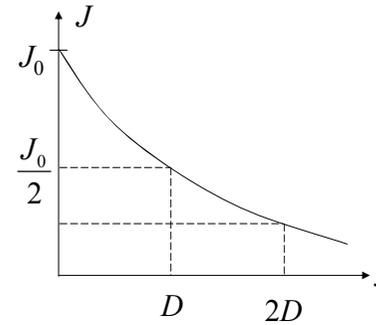
elastic scattering



Attenuation of the γ -radiation and x-ray



few rules of thumb: $x_{1/10} = 3,33 D$ $x_{1/1000} = 10 D$



$$J = J_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

μ : (linear) attenuation coefficient
its units are: 1/m, 1/cm

$\delta = \frac{1}{\mu}$ „penetration depth”
Intensity decreases to the e-th part (c.a. 37%)

μ (material, number of absorbing centers, energy of the radiation)
 $= \mu(\text{material}, \rho, E_{\text{photon}}) \sim \rho$

$$\mu_m = \frac{\mu}{\rho} \quad \text{mass attenuation coefficient}$$

Applications (attenuation)



Applications: isotopes and nuclear radiation

