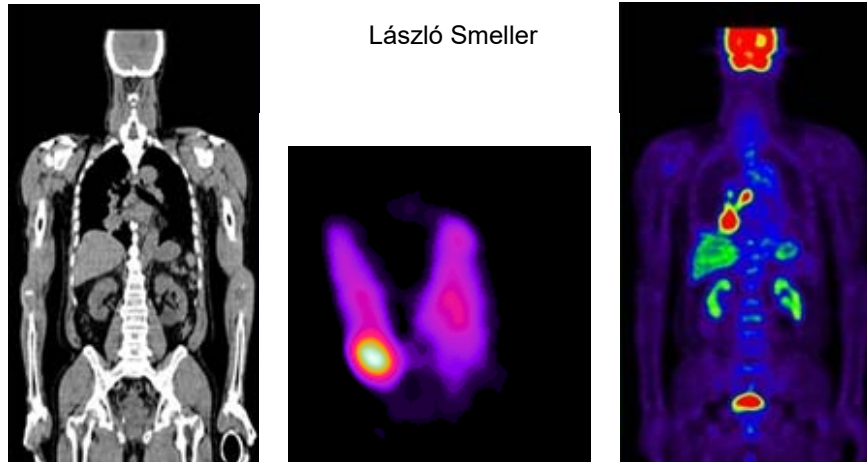
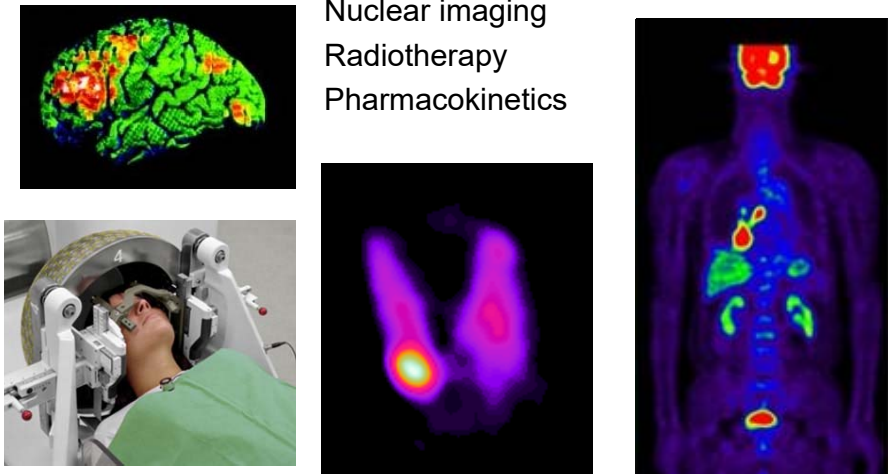


# The atomic nucleus. Radioactivity. Nuclear radiations






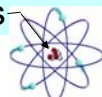


## Why?

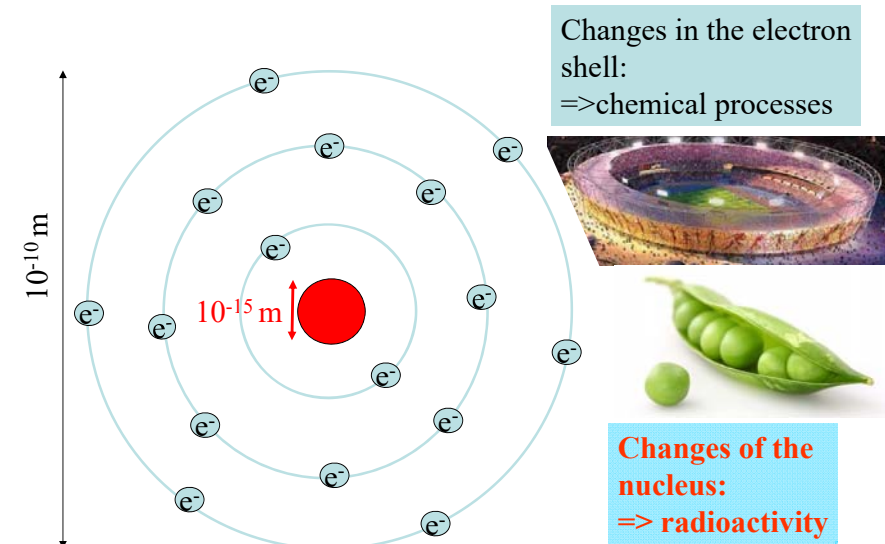
Medical/pharmaceutical applications of nuclear radiation:



## Length scale of the nature

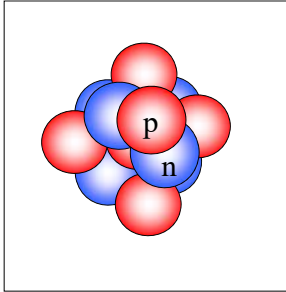
m		
$10^0$	meter	men 
$10^{-3}$	millimeter	letters you can read
$10^{-6}$	micrometer	size of a cell (e.g. erythrocyte)  $\varnothing 7\mu\text{m}$
$10^{-9}$	nanometer	protein 
$10^{-10}$	– angstrom	diameter of an atom, bond length H atom $\varnothing \approx 1$ angstrom (Å) 
$10^{-12}$	picometer	wavelength 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 nucleon, 43 proton and 56 neutron

99 Tc 43

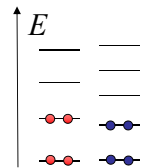
# Stability of the nucleus

- 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  $eV = 1,6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ J}$



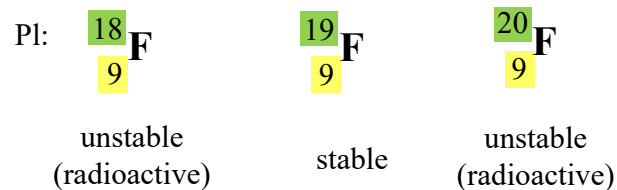
# Isotopes

Number of protons is the same

Number of neutrons is different

Variants of the same element

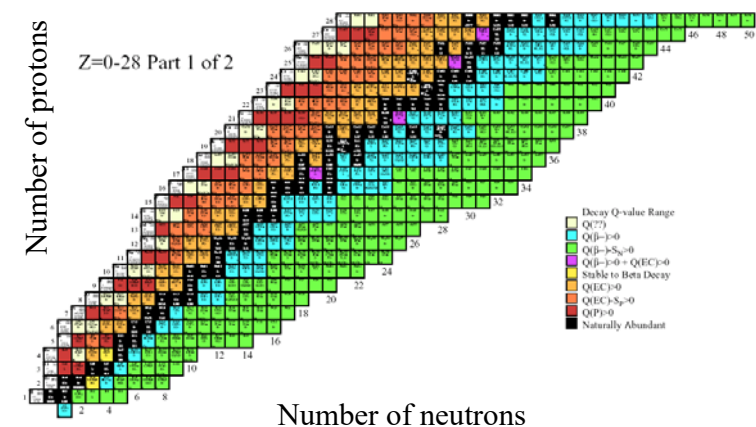
⇒ the chemical properties are identical.

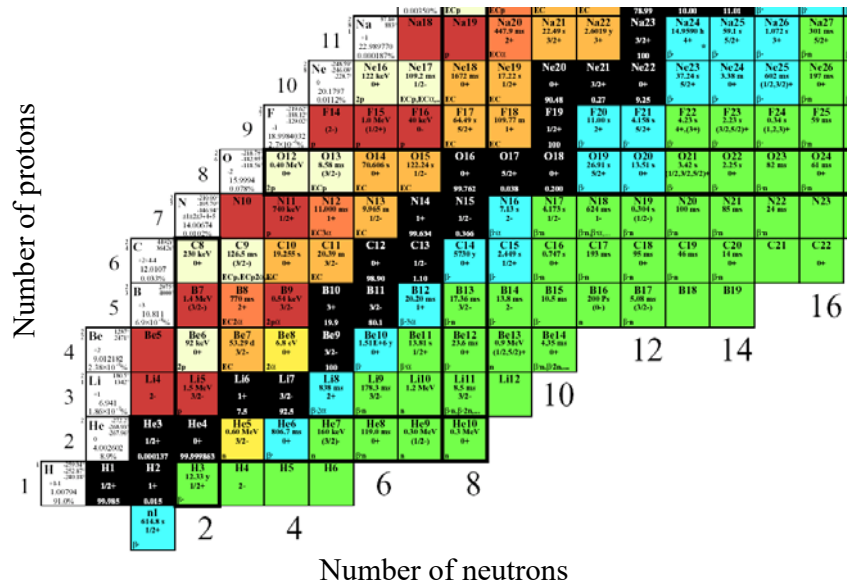


isotope  $\leftrightarrow$  radioactive isotope

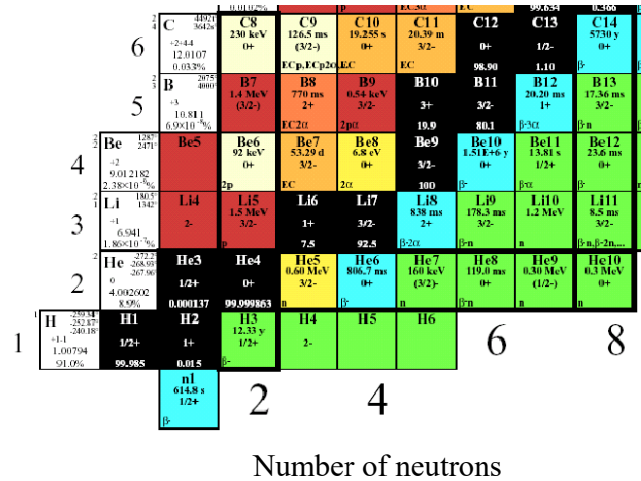


# Table of isotopes





Number of protons



## Radioactive decays and particles

$\alpha$  - decay       $\alpha$  - particle =  ${}^4_2\text{He}$  nucleus

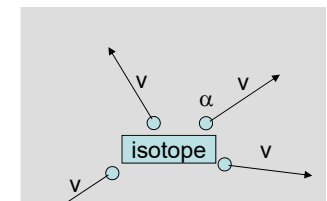
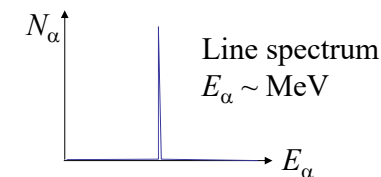
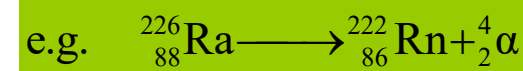
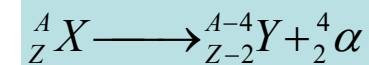
$\beta^-$  - decay :  $\beta^-$        $\beta^-$  particle = electron  
 $\beta^+$        $\beta^+$  particle = positron

Isomeric transition       $\gamma$ -ray

K-electron capture      characteristic x-ray photon

## $\alpha$ - decay

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



neutron surplus

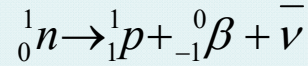
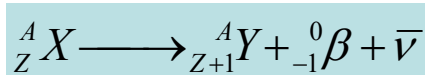
## $\beta^-$ - decay

e.g.:  $^{20}_{9}\text{F}$

$^{32}_{15}\text{P}$

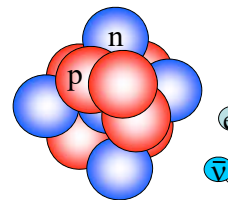
$^{59}_{26}\text{Fe}$

$^{131}_{53}\text{I}$



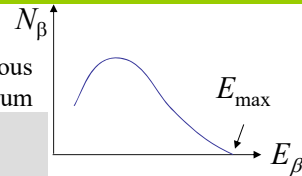
remains in  
the nucleus

leave the  
nucleus



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

continuous  
energy spectrum



proton surplus

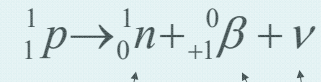
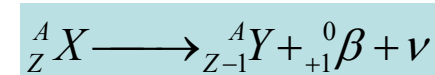
## $\beta^+$ - decay

e.g.:  $^{11}_6\text{C}$

$^{15}_8\text{O}$

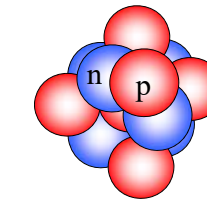
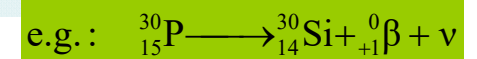
$^{18}_9\text{F}$

$^{52}_{26}\text{Fe}$



remains in  
the nucleus

leave the  
nucleus



$\beta^+$ -ray

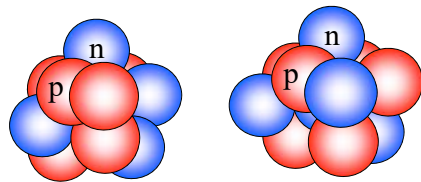
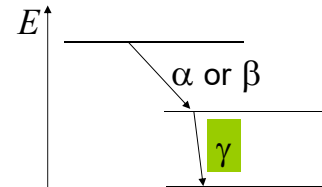
continuous energy spectrum

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

## Prompt $\gamma$ -radiation

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

The surplus energy will be  
immediately (ns) emitted in  
form of the  $\gamma$  radiation



Atomic number, mass number are unchanged.

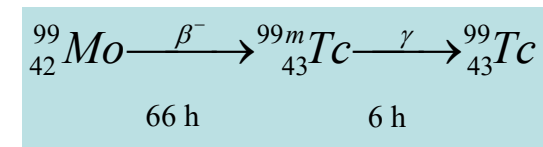
## Isomeric transition

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

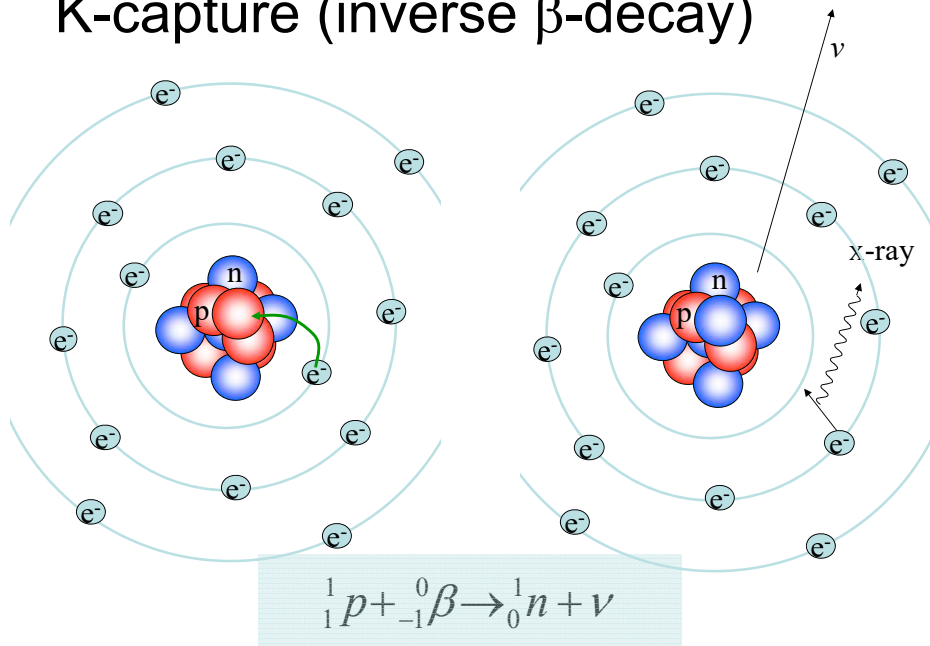
The parent and daughter atoms can be separated:  
the daughter atom emits **only  $\gamma$ -radiation!**

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

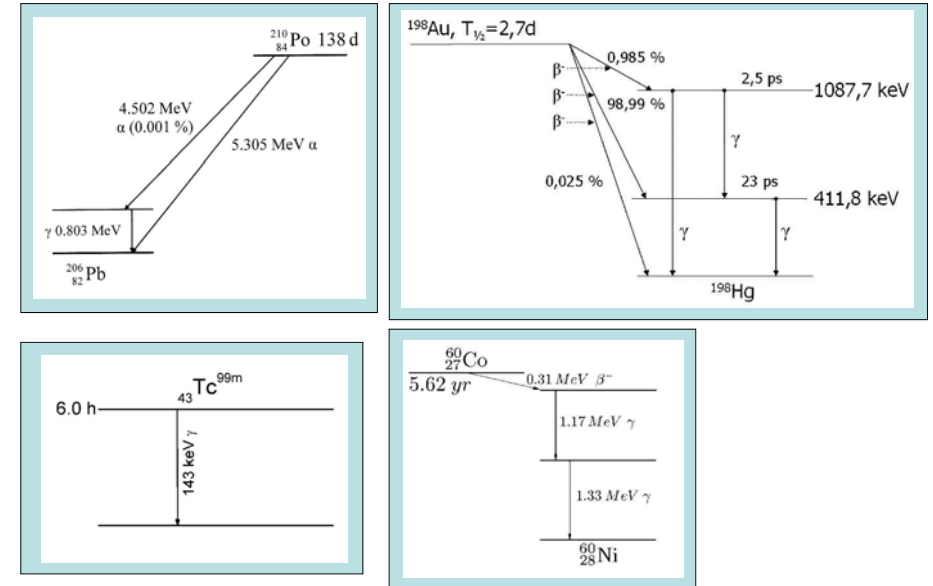
E.g.:  $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$



## K-capture (inverse $\beta$ -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 (depends on the type of the isotope)
particle energy	characterizes the radiation (depends on the type of the isotope)

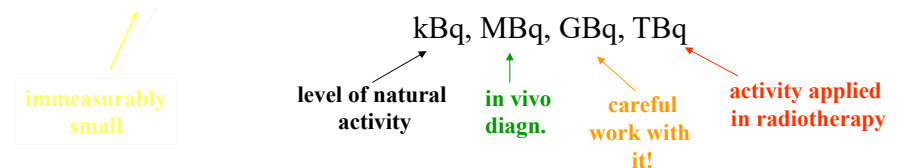
## Activity ( $\Lambda$ )

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

$N$  = Number of undecayed atoms  
 $t$  = time  
 $\Delta N$  = Number of decays during  $\Delta t$  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:

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

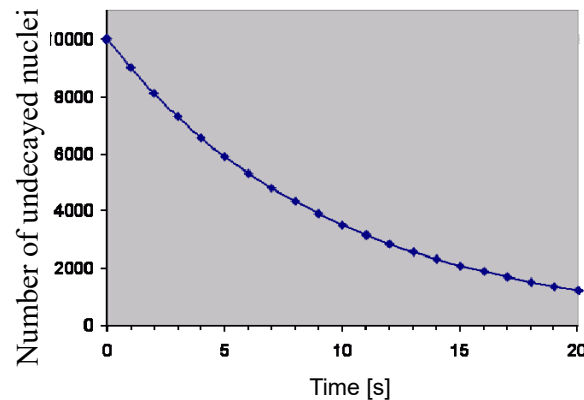
↑  
number of undecayed atoms at  $t=0$

## An example

- $N_0 = 10000 \quad \lambda = 0.1 \text{ } 1/\text{s}$
- 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)
- ....

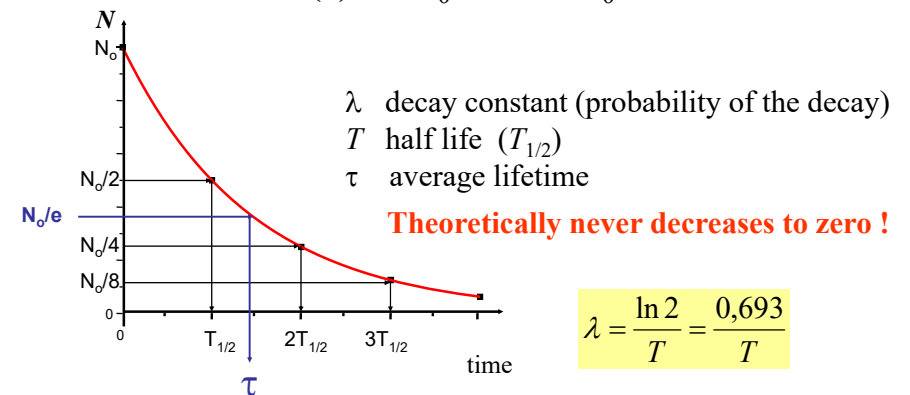
## An example

- $N_0 = 10000 \quad \lambda = 0.1 \text{ } 1/\text{s}$
- 1 sec 9000
- 2 sec 8100
- 3 sec 7290
- 4 sec 6561
- ....



## Law of radioactive decay

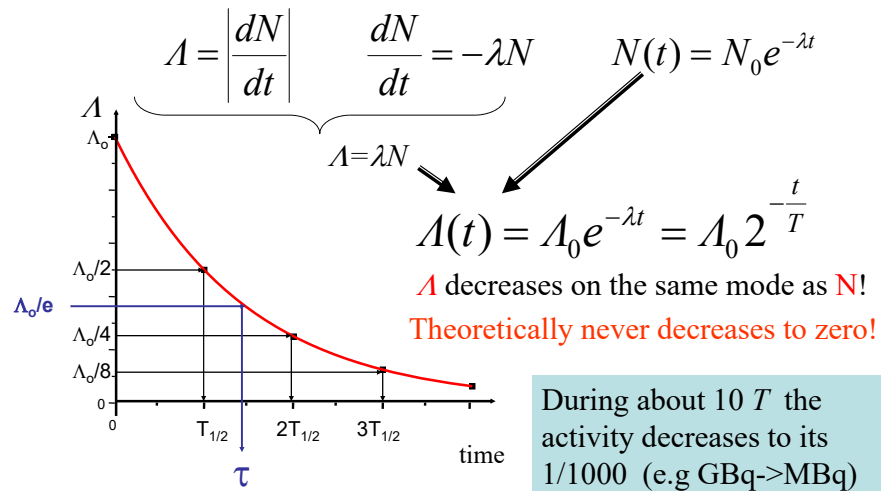
$$N(t) = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} = N_0 2^{-\frac{t}{T}}$$



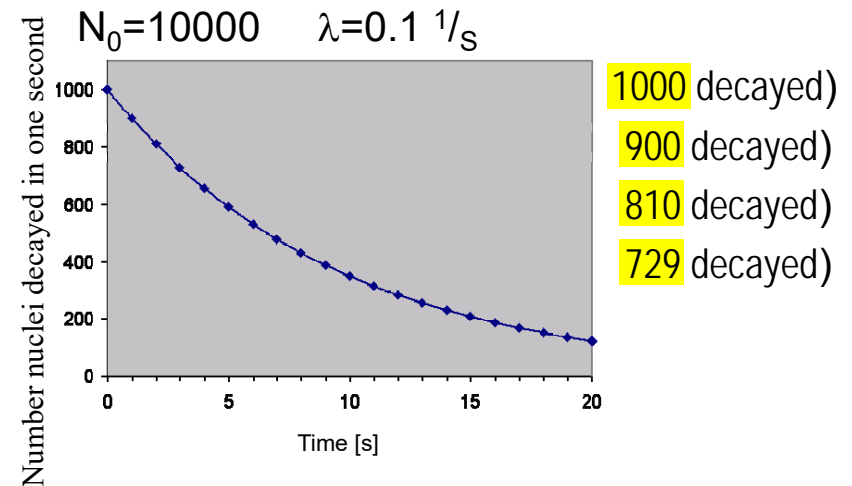
$$\lambda = \frac{\ln 2}{T} = \frac{0.693}{T}$$



## Decrease of the activity as a function of time



## Example



## Few examples for half life

$^{232}\text{Th}$	$1,4 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ y}$	$^{60}\text{Co}$	5,3 y
$^{238}\text{U}$	$4,5 \cdot 10^9 \text{ y}$	$^{59}\text{Fe}$	1,5 m
$^{40}\text{K}$	$1,3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ y}$	$^{56}\text{Cr}$	1 m (28 d)
$^{14}\text{C}$	5736 y	$^{131}\text{I}$	8 d
$^{137}\text{Cs}$	30 y	$^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$	6 h
$^3\text{H}$	12,3 y	$^{18}\text{F}$	110 min
		$^{11}\text{C}$	20 min
		$^{15}\text{O}$	2 min
		$^{222}\text{Th}$	2,8 ms

Don't learn these numbers!

## Typical energy levels in the microworld

Excitation of the outer electrons

eV (aJ)

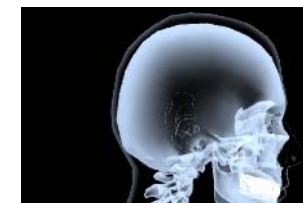
light



Electron transition between inner electrons

keV (fJ)

X-ray



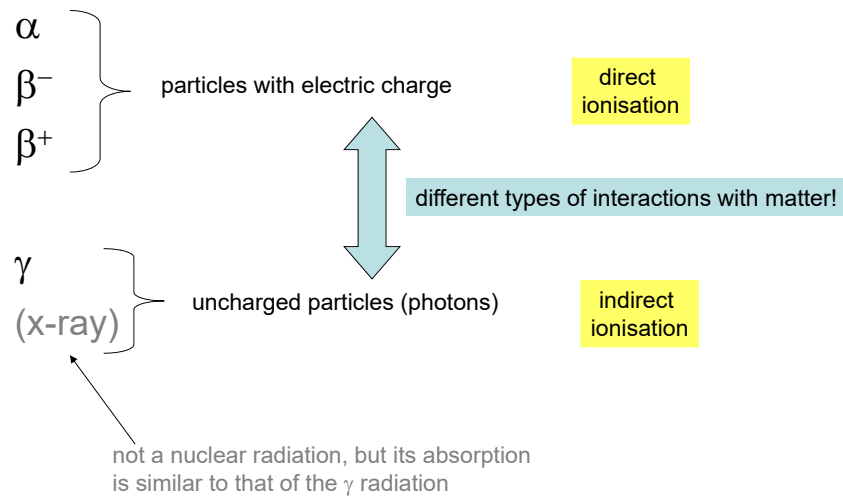
Transformation of the nucleus (decay)

MeV (pJ)

Nuclear radiation  
 $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$



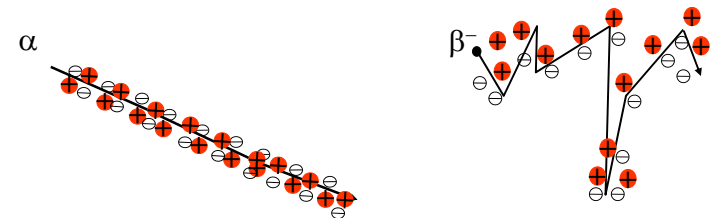
## Absorption of the nuclear radiation



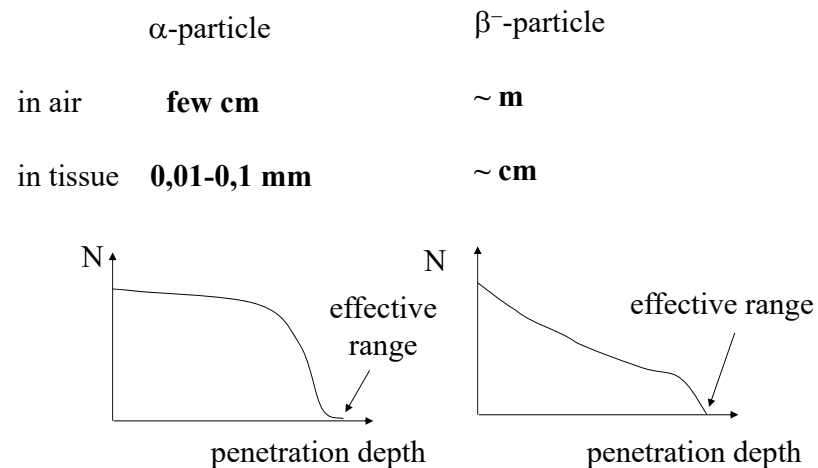
## Absorption of the charged particles

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

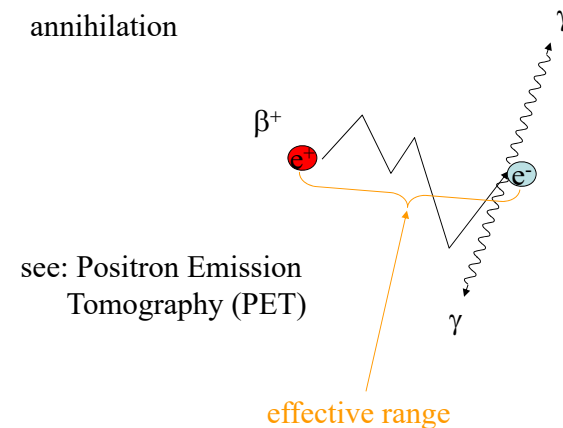
effective range



## Effective range



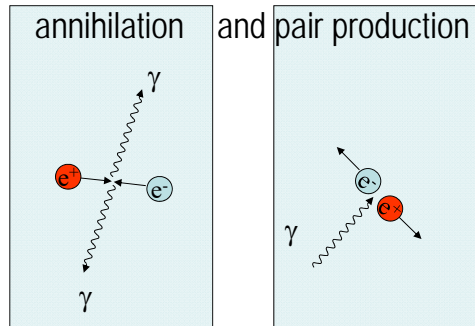
## $\beta^+$ -radiation





# Electron and positron

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

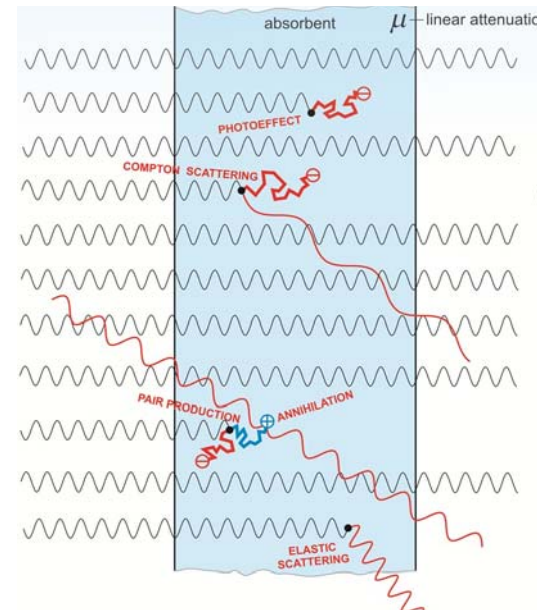


Einstein:  
mass-energy  
equivalence

$$E=mc^2$$

$$m_e c^2 = 511 \text{ keV} \approx 0,5 \text{ MeV}$$

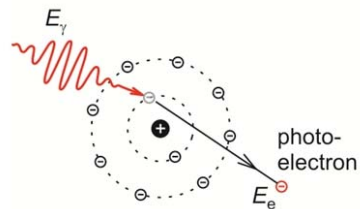
## Absorption of the $\gamma$ -radiation (and x-ray)



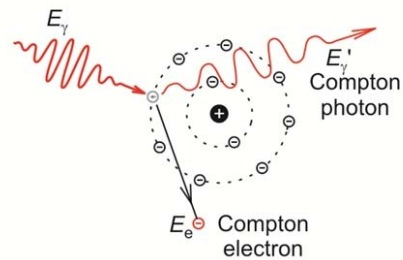
Absorption processes  
happen accidentally :

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

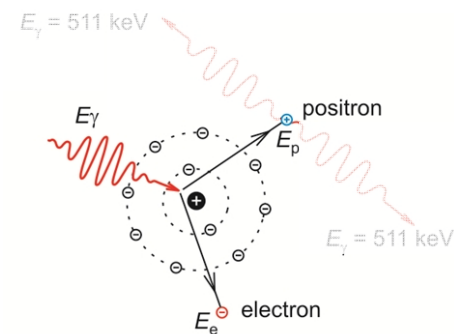
### Photoeffect



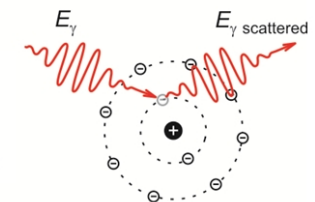
### Compton effect Compton-scattering



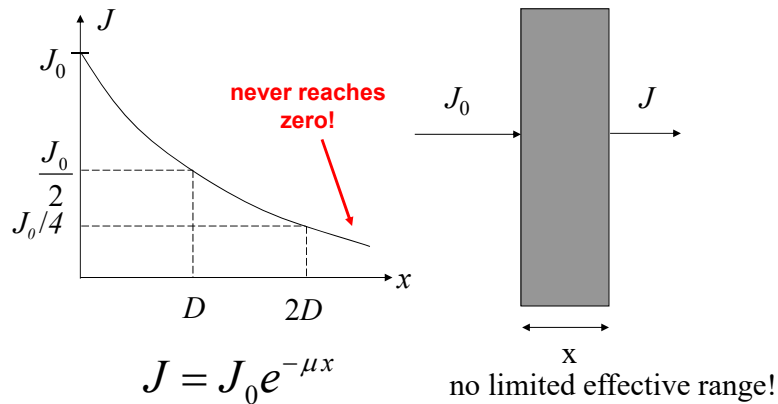
### Pair production



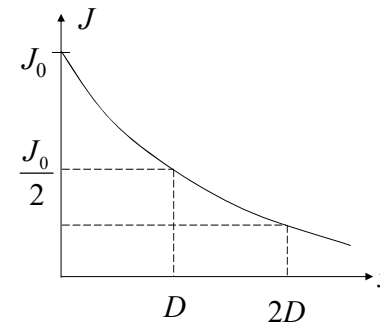
### elastic scattering



# Attenuation of the $\gamma$ -radiation and x-ray



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



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

$\mu$ : (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%)

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

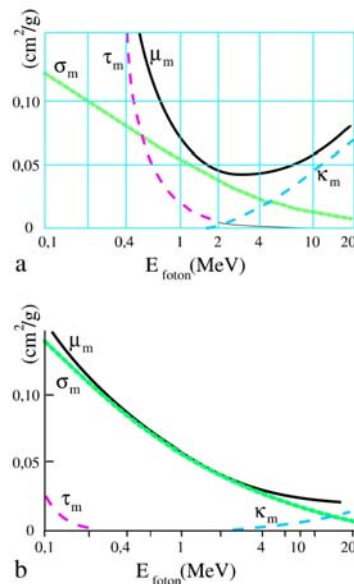
$$\mu_m = \frac{\mu}{\rho} \quad \text{mass attenuation coefficient}$$

mass attenuation coeff.

$$\mu_m = \frac{\mu}{\rho}$$

$$\mu_m = \tau_m + \sigma_m + \kappa_m$$

$$\tau_m = c \lambda^3 Z^3$$



## Applications (attenuation)



lead glass



protective apron

