

Banana Equivalent Dose

Bananas are a natural source of radioactive isotopes.

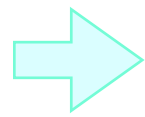
Eating one banana = 1
BED = $0.1 \mu\text{Sv}$ = 0.01
mrem



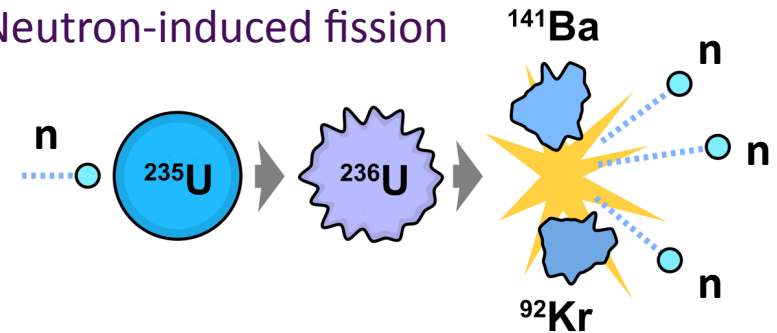
Number of bananas	Equivalent exposure
100,000,000	Fatal dose (death within 2 weeks)
20,000,000	Typical targeted dose used in radiotherapy (one session)
70,000	Chest CT scan
20,000	Mammogram (single exposure)
200 - 1000	Chest X-ray
700	Living in a stone, brick or concrete building for one year
400	Flight from London to New York
100	Average daily background dose
50	Dental X-ray
1 - 100	Yearly dose from living near a nuclear power station

Neutron radiation

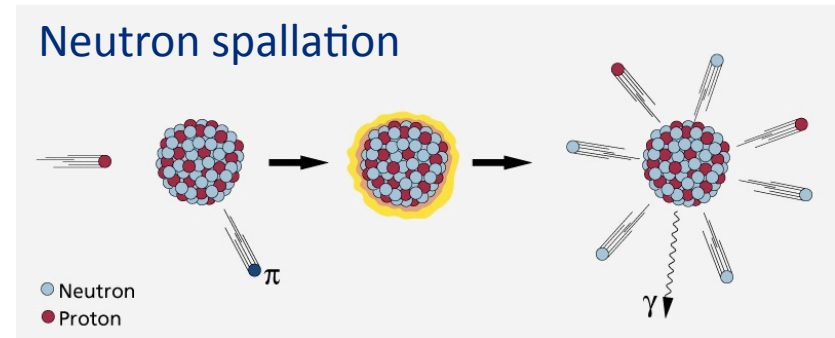
- Neutrons are components of atomic nucleus, zero electric charge, $m_n \approx m_p$
- Sources of neutron radiation:
 - interaction of cosmic radiation with the atmosphere
 - neutron emission during fission (e.g. in nuclear reactors)
 - particle accelerators (spallation sources, e.g. ISIS, SNS)
- Interaction with matter:
 - neutron capture (n is captured by a nucleus and α or γ is emitted)
 - elastic scattering (recoiling nuclei collide and produce charge or scintillation light that can be detected)



Neutron-induced fission



Neutron spallation



Hydrogen-rich materials make the best neutron shielding: e.g. water, polyethylene, paraffin wax, concrete

Neutron RBE

RBE figures set by the International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP):

ICRP Publication 92 (2003)

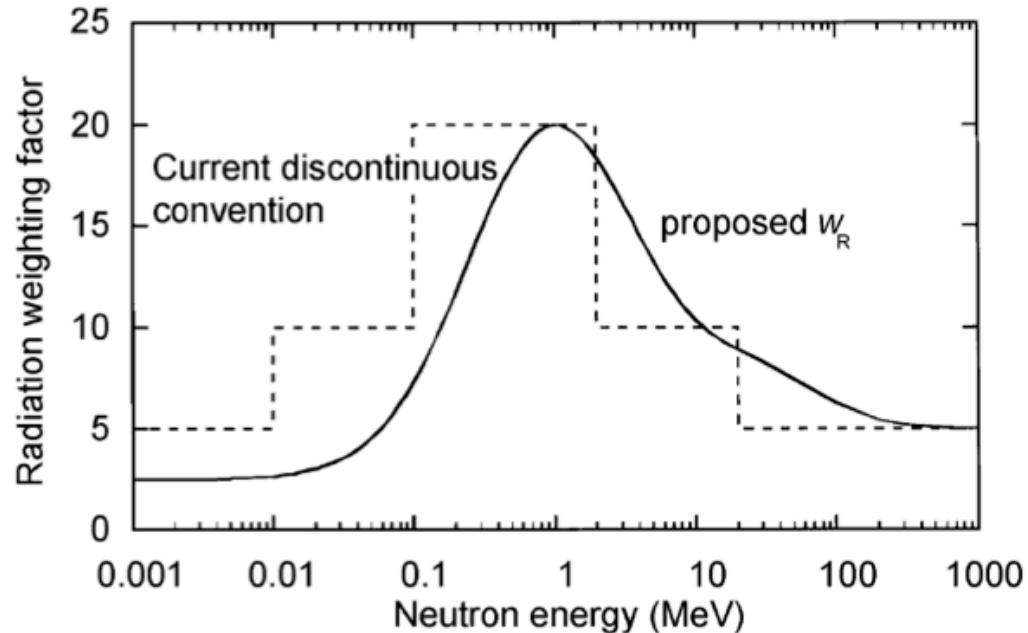


Fig. 1. The radiation weighting factor w_R for neutrons introduced in *Publication 60* (ICRP, 1991) as a discontinuous function of the neutron energy (- - -) and the proposed modification (—).

Radiation definitions and facts

- **Definitions:**

- **Radiation** - energy traveling in the form of particles or waves, for example: microwaves, radio waves, light, medical X-rays, alpha, beta, gamma radiation
- **Radioactivity** - a natural process through which unstable atoms of an element radiate excess energy in the form of particles or waves
- **Radioactive material** - material that emits radiation
- **Radioactive contamination** - radioactive material in unwanted places

- **Important facts:**

- Radiation is commonplace
- A person exposed to radiation does not become contaminated, except for neutron radiation which *can* induce radioactivity
- Contamination is the result of direct contact with removable radioactive material
- The distinction between harmful and safe depends on *quantity*. This is true about everything from paracetamol to arsenic
- Dose is important

Nuclear and Particle Physics

Part 2: Nuclei

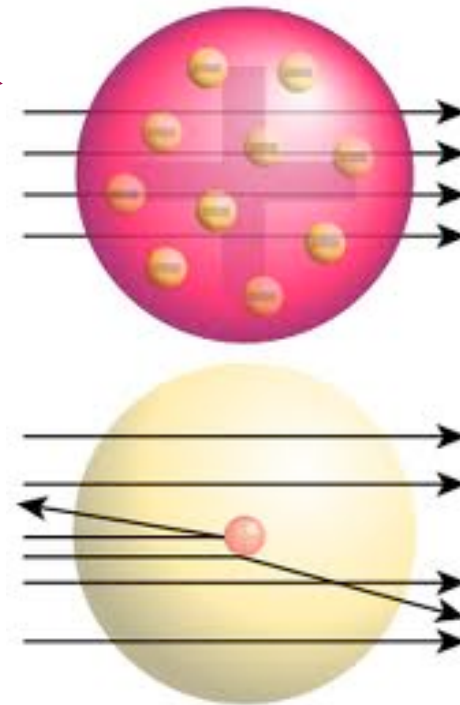
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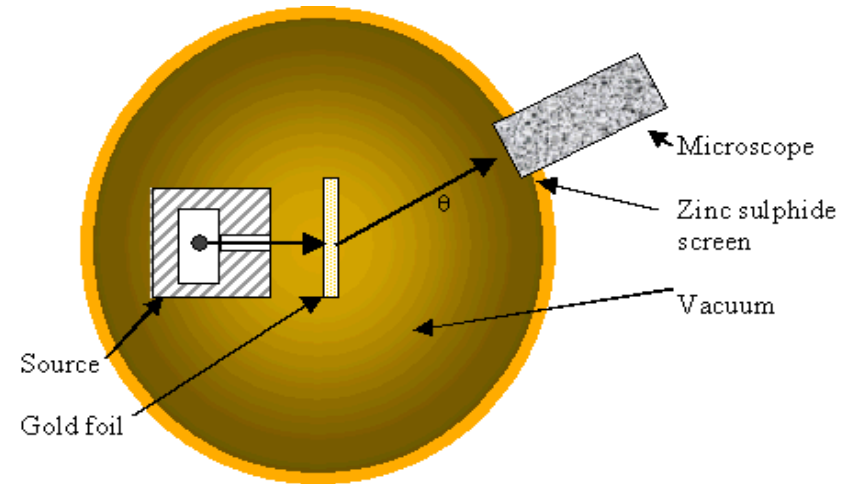
The discovery of the nucleus: Rutherford Scattering

- The Thomson model of the atom (the *plum pudding* model) assumed that electrons were embedded in a positive charge with an atomic size $\sim 10^{-10}\text{m}$
- Firing α -particles at Au foil Geiger and Marsden (1909) were expecting to see the alphas passing through and undergoing only a small amount of scattering.
- However, they observed an amazing result: **some of the alphas were scattered by very large angles up to almost 180°**



Rutherford Scattering

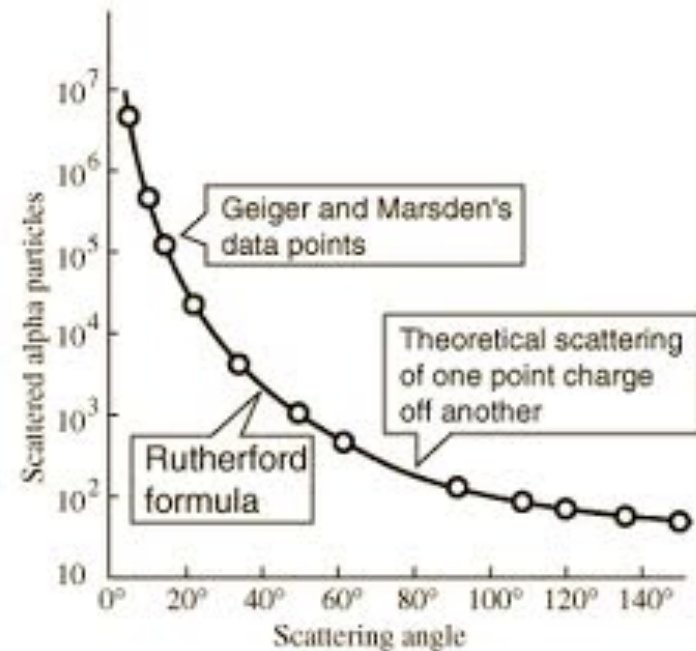
- Rutherford interpreted these results as the scattering of the alpha particle from a very small dense core of positive charge in the centre of the atom: the nucleus



Ernest Rutherford:

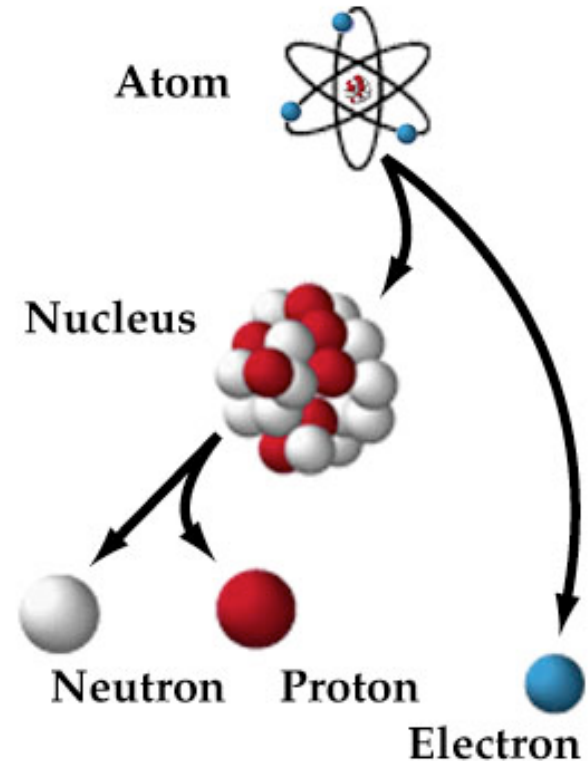
“it was quite the most incredible event that ever happened to me in my life. It was almost as incredible as if you had fired a 15-inch shell at a piece of tissue paper and it had come back and hit you”

- This was the basis for the Bohr model of the atom
- Chadwick later discovered the neutron

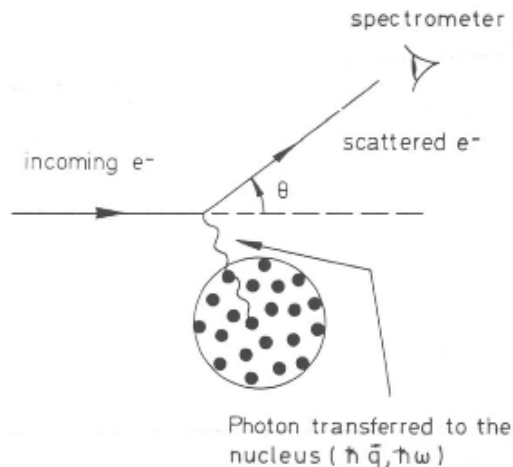
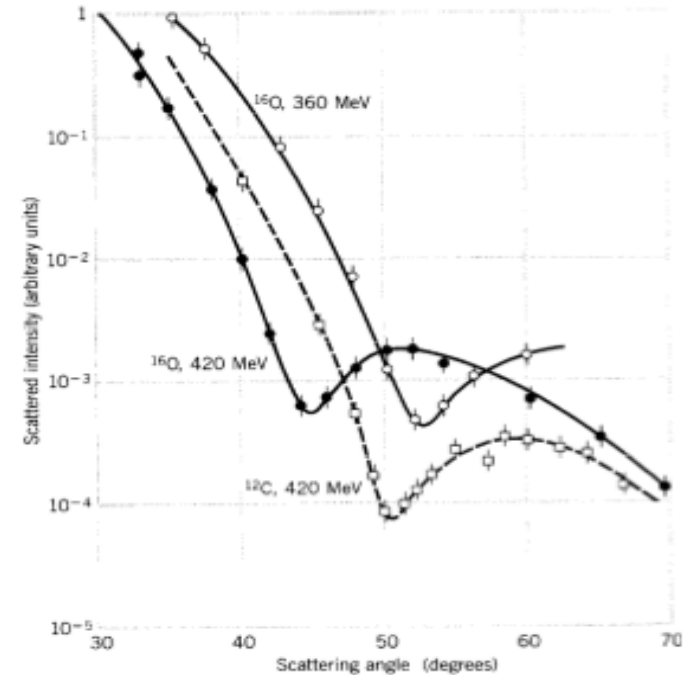
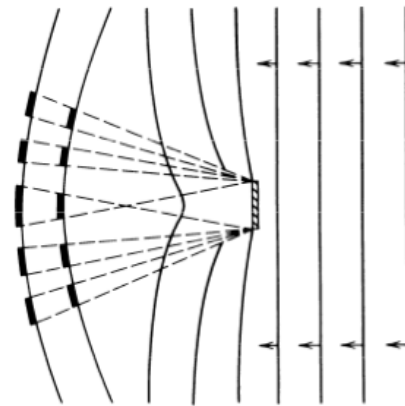
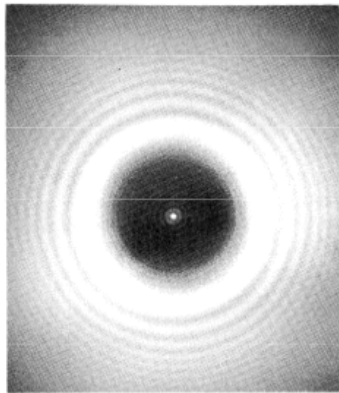


Atoms and nuclei

- **Atoms** are electrically neutral
 - Z electrons orbit a nucleus containing Z protons
 - Z is called the *atomic number* - and is the key to chemistry
 - Atomic size $\sim 10^{-10}\text{m}$
- **Nuclei** form the dense core of the atom – the nucleus
 - Consist of protons and neutrons
 - Size of the nucleus $\sim 10^{-15}\text{ m}$



Measuring nuclear radii



- To 'see' a nucleus requires very small wavelengths -> one can use electrons
- Scattering electrons off a nucleus produces a diffraction pattern
- Note that this measures the *charge radius* since the electron scattering off the nucleus is governed by electromagnetic interaction

Numerical example

De Broglie wavelength is given by

$$\lambda = h/p$$

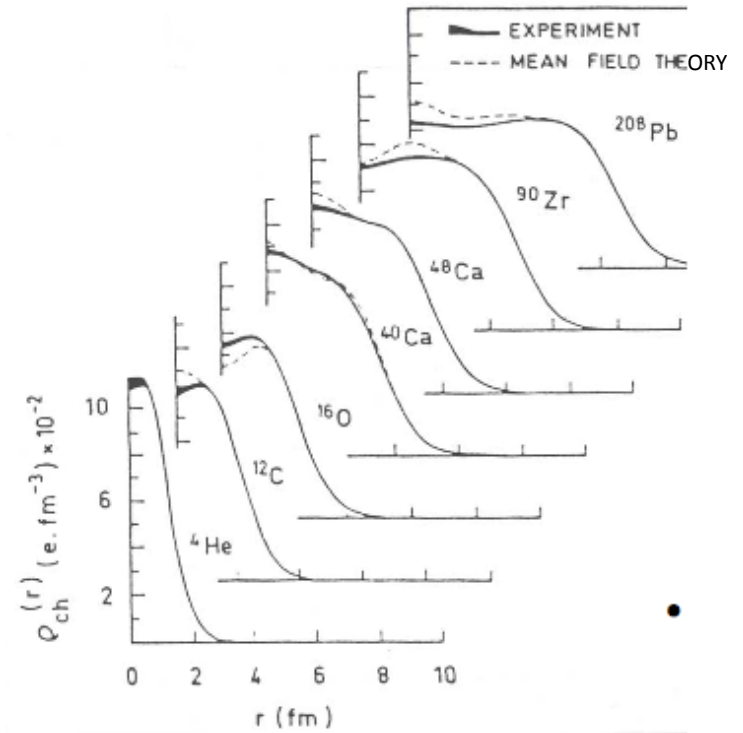
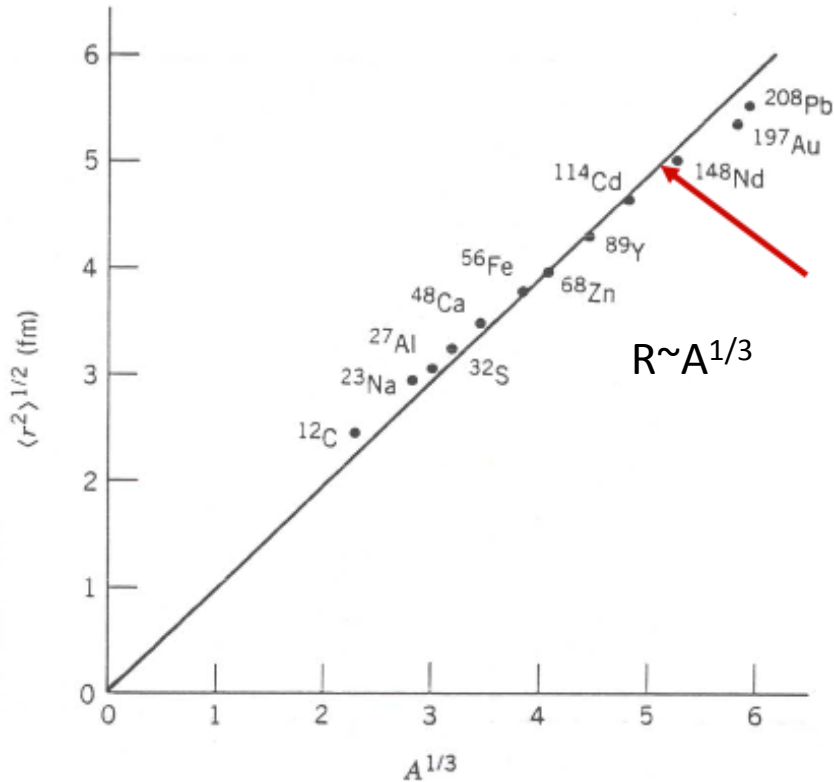
For an electron of 400 MeV energy, $p = 400 \text{ MeV}/c$

$$\lambda = (4.13 \times 10^{-21} \text{ MeV} \cdot \text{s} \times 3 \times 10^8) / 400 \text{ MeV}/c \approx 3 \text{ fm}$$

where $1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$

This is comparable with the size of the nucleus.

Nuclear charge radius



The central density is the same for all nuclei

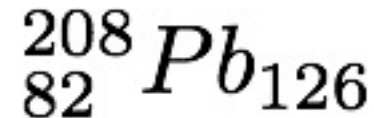
$$R = R_0 A^{1/3} \text{ where } R_0 = 1.2 \text{ fm}$$

Nuclear nomenclature



- X = chemical symbol
- Z = number of protons
- N = number of neutrons
 - (this often not quoted as it is redundant)
- A = mass number
 $A = Z + N$

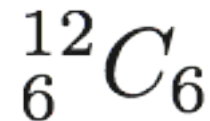
Lead-208:



82 protons

126 neutrons (= 208 - 82)

Carbon-12:



Some more nomenclature

- Isotopes:

- Nuclei with the same number of protons Z (same chemical element) but different numbers of neutrons



- Isotones:

- Nuclei with the same number of neutrons but different proton number



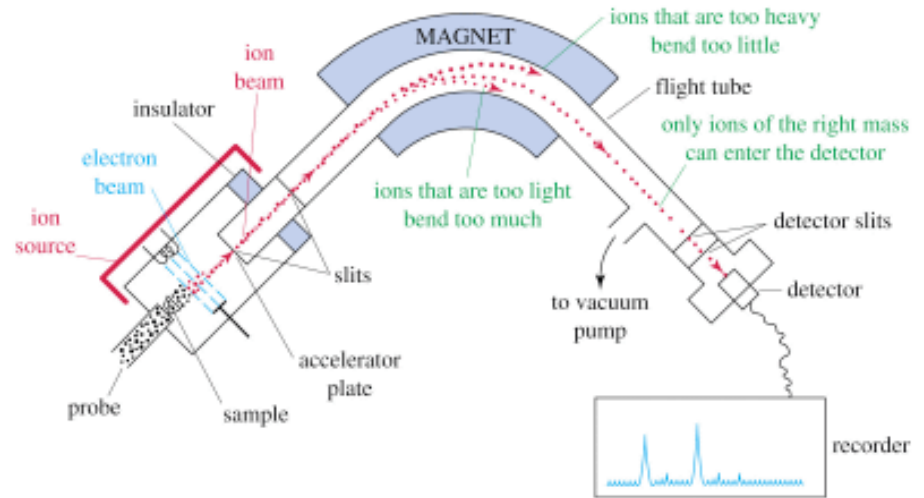
- Isobars:

- Nuclei with the same mass number but different numbers of protons and neutrons



Nuclear masses

- Nuclear masses
 - Are measured using mass spectrometers
 - Masses are measured in atomic mass units: u
 - ^{12}C is defined to be exactly $12.0u$



$$1u = 931.50 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

	Charge	Mass (u)	Mass (MeV/c^2)
Proton	+1e	1.00727647	938.280
Neutron	0	1.00866501	939.573
Electron	-1e	5.48580×10^{-3}	0.511003

Nuclear mass and binding energy

The mass of a nucleus can be written as :

$$m_N c^2 = m_A c^2 - Z m_e c^2 + \sum_{i=1}^Z B_e$$

Atomic mass
energy

Electron mass
energy

Electron binding
energy

Electron binding energy can be ignored compared to the atomic mass energy

Electronic binding energy/atomic mass energy
 $\sim 10\text{-}100\text{keV}/A \times 1000\text{MeV}$

How stable is a nucleus ?

Binding energy

- The binding energy, B , of a nucleus is the difference in mass energy between the free particles and the bound state
- This is related to the stability of nuclei, the greater the binding energy the more stable the nucleus
- It is often useful to look at binding energy/nucleon: B/A
i.e. the energy required to remove a nucleon from the nucleus, similar to atomic ionisation energy

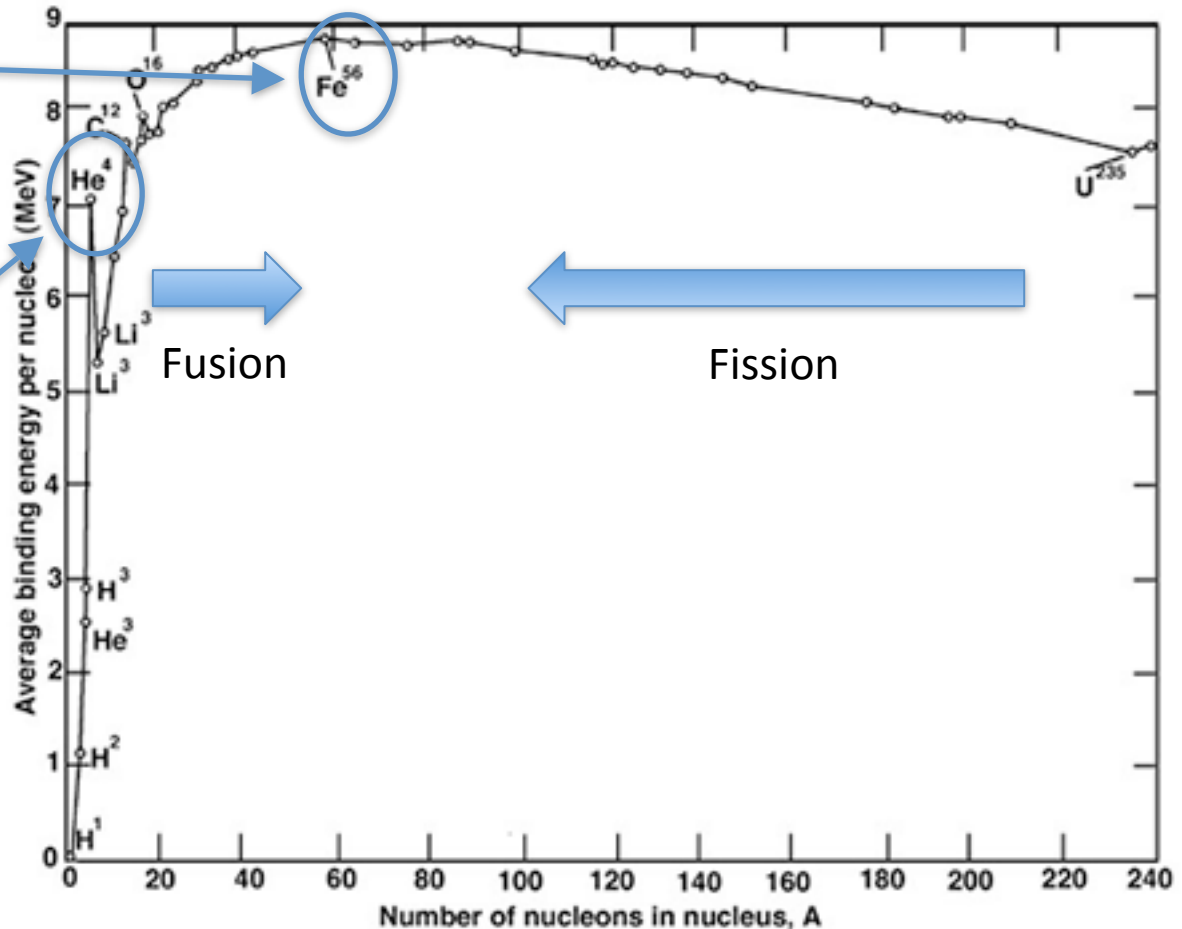
$$B = \left\{ \underbrace{Zm_p + Nm_n}_{\text{Free nucleons}} - \underbrace{\left[m\left({}^A X\right) - Zm_e \right]}_{\text{Bound state}} \right\} c^2$$

$$B = \left[Zm\left({}_1^1H\right) + Nm_n - m\left({}^A X\right) \right] c^2$$

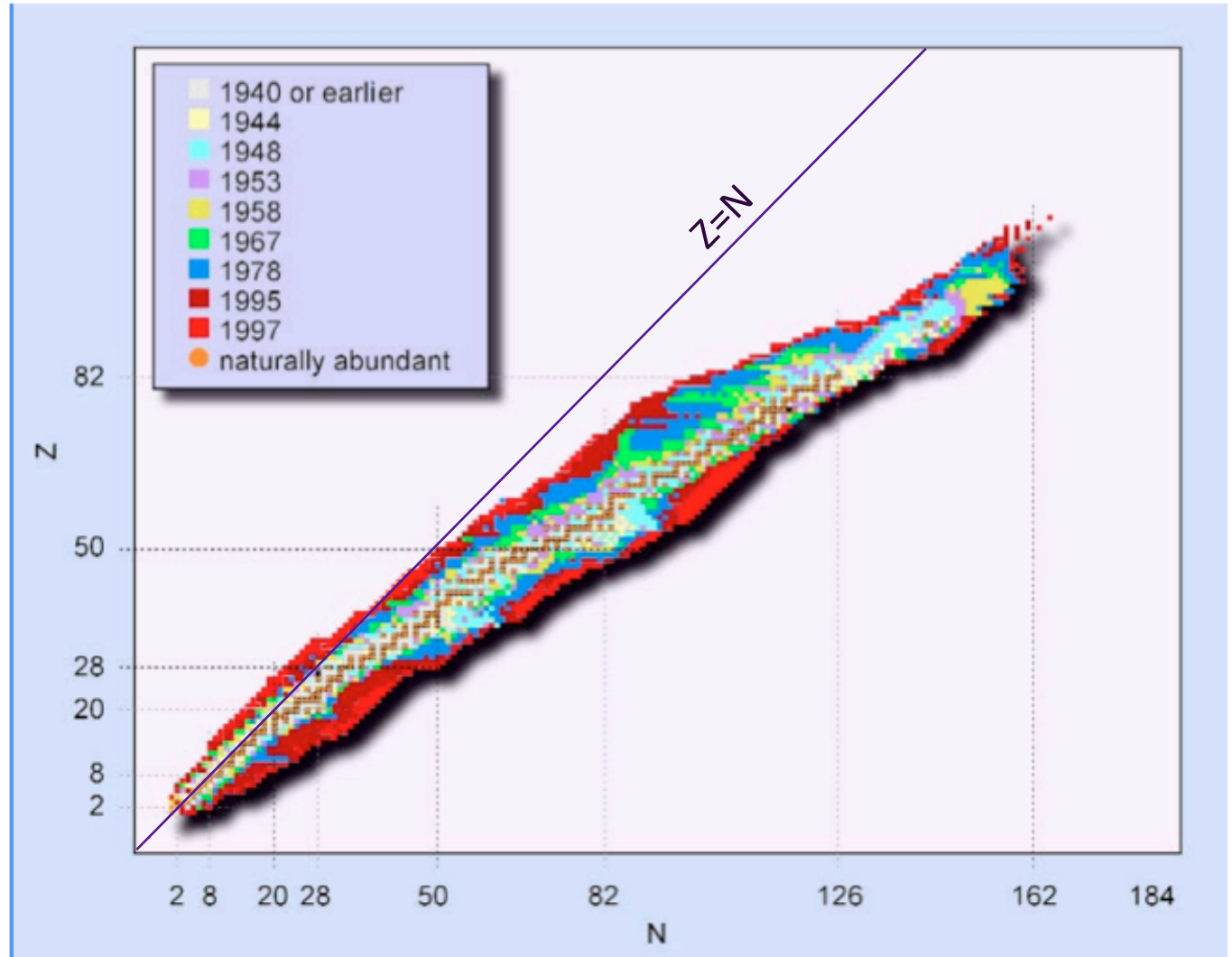
Binding energy per nucleon

Fe is the most stable nucleus

Light nuclei are not stable but ${}^4_2\text{He}$ – alpha particles are



What nuclei exist?



There are 214
stable nuclides,
up to $Z=82$ (Pb)

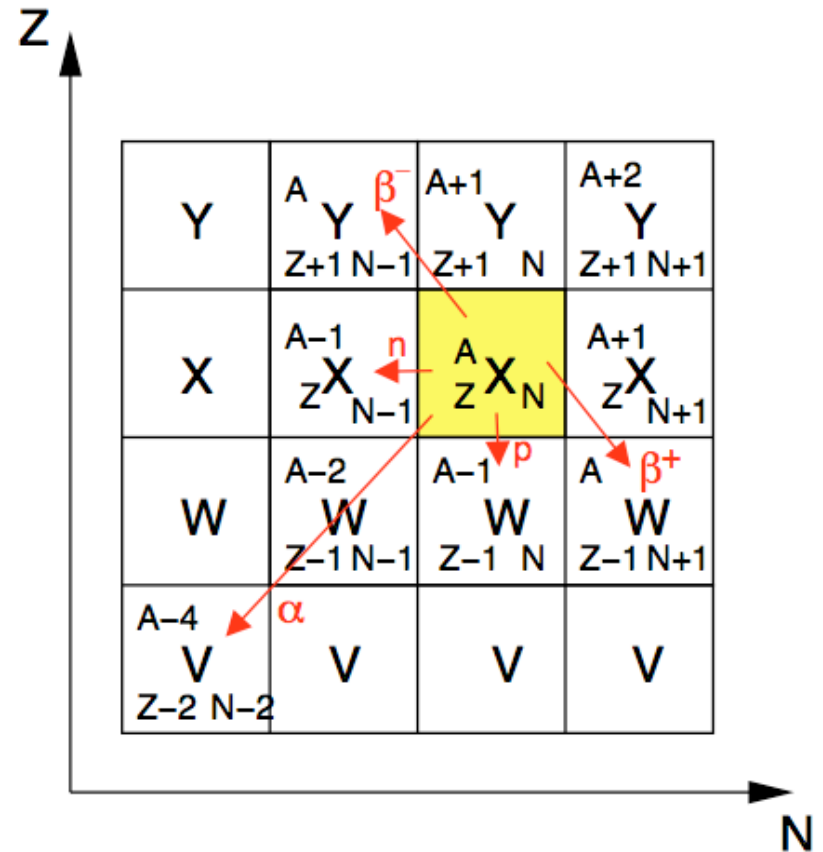
There are 3896
nuclides known
today

Nuclear decay and radioactivity

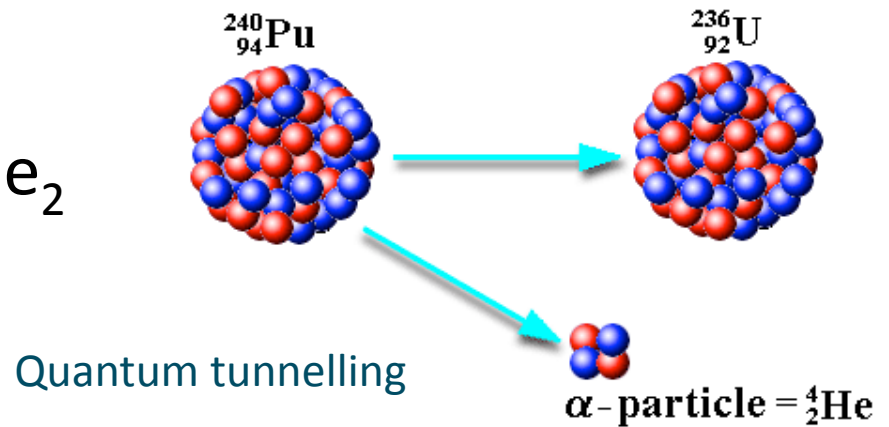
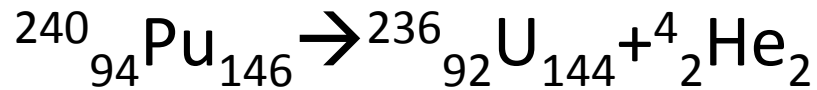
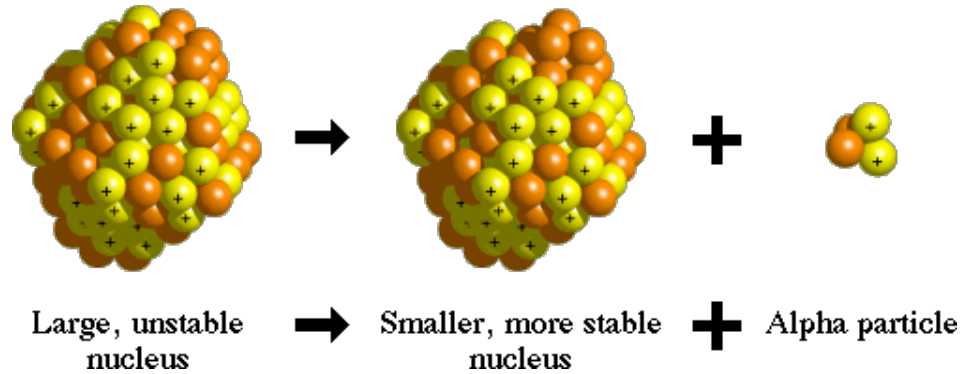
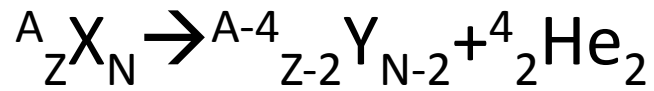
Change in nuclear state \Leftrightarrow Radiation

Nuclei decay via:

- α -decay
- β -decay
- γ -decay
 - nuclei have energy levels like atoms, γ -rays are emitted when an nucleus de-excites
 - does not change Z or N
- Nucleon emission
 - Emission of n or p, via a process similar to α -decay
- Spontaneous fission

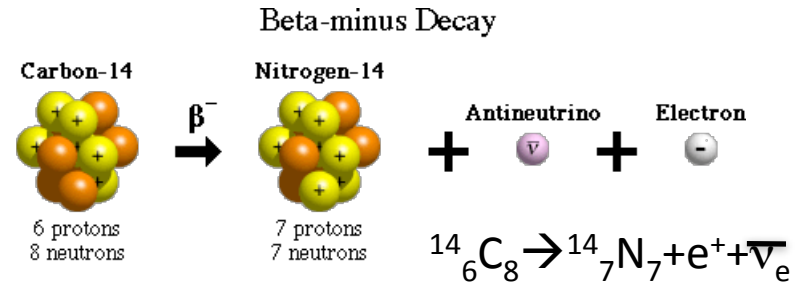
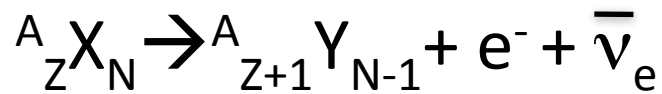


Alpha decay

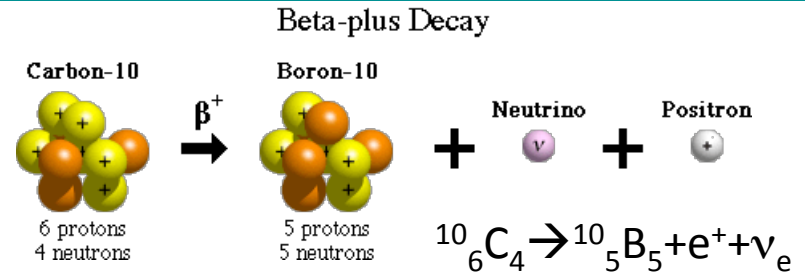


Beta decays

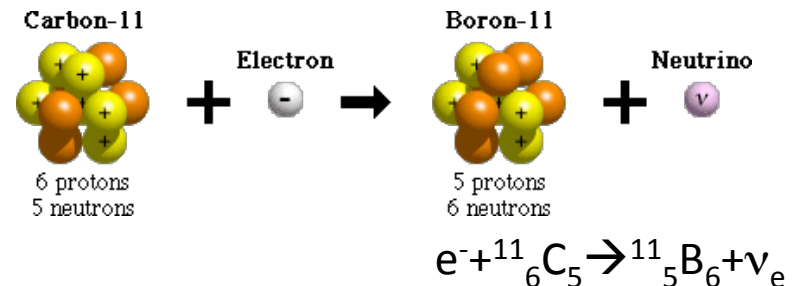
β^- -decay: $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}$



β^+ -decay: $p \rightarrow n + e^+ + \nu$

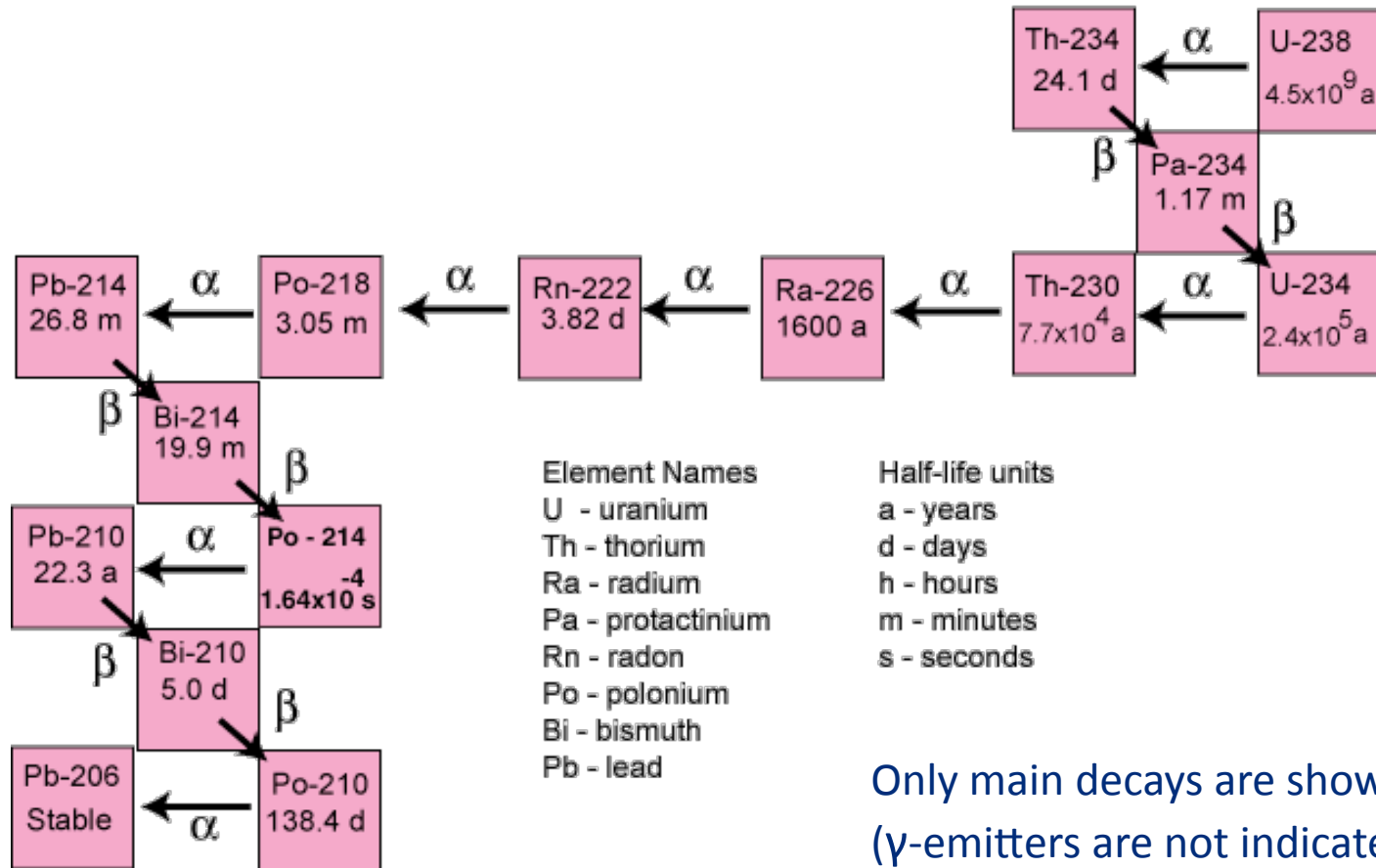


Electron capture: $e^- + p \rightarrow n + \nu$



The ^{238}U Decay Chain

Z = 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92

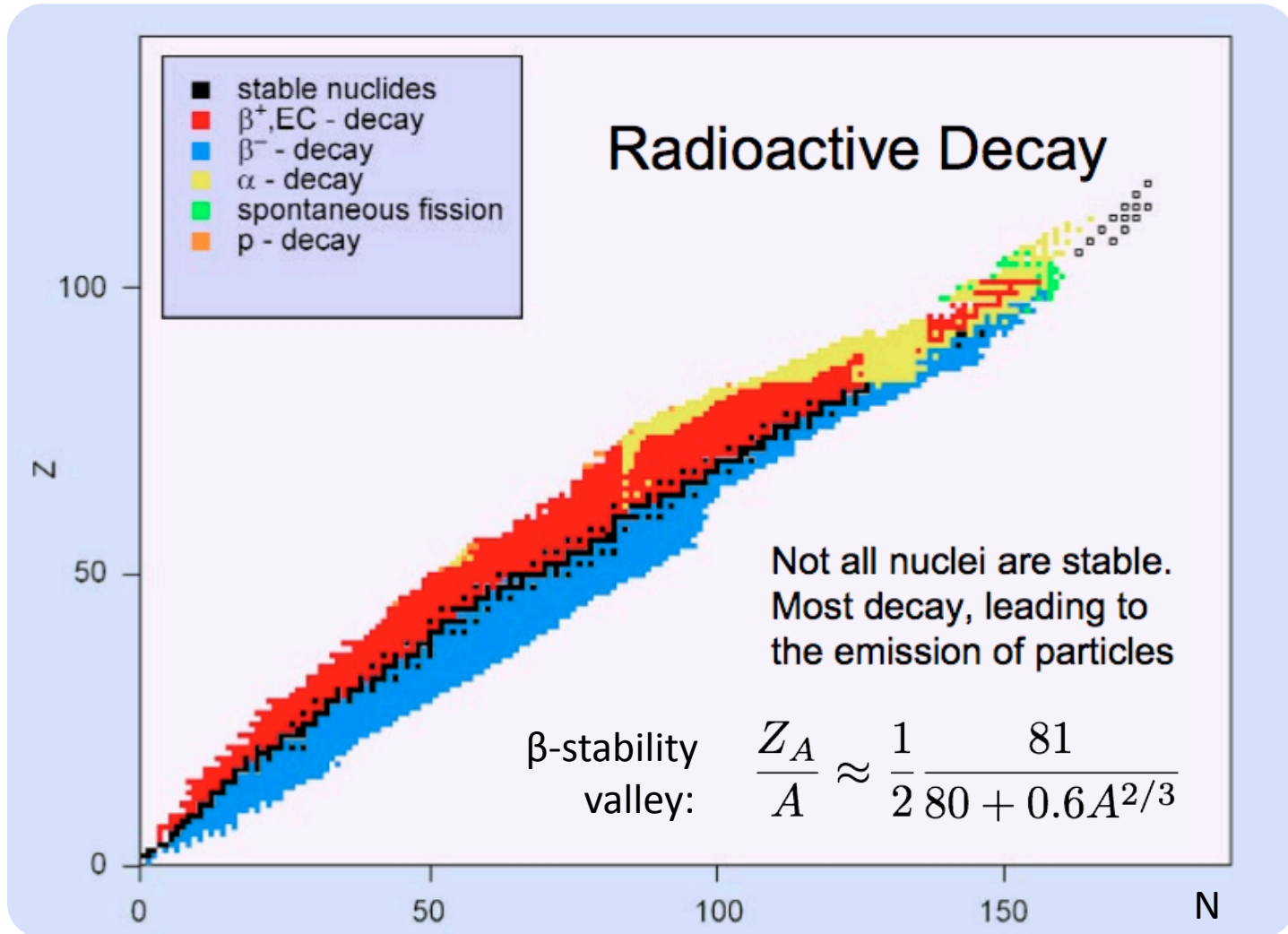


Element Names
 U - uranium
 Th - thorium
 Ra - radium
 Pa - protactinium
 Rn - radon
 Po - polonium
 Bi - bismuth
 Pb - lead

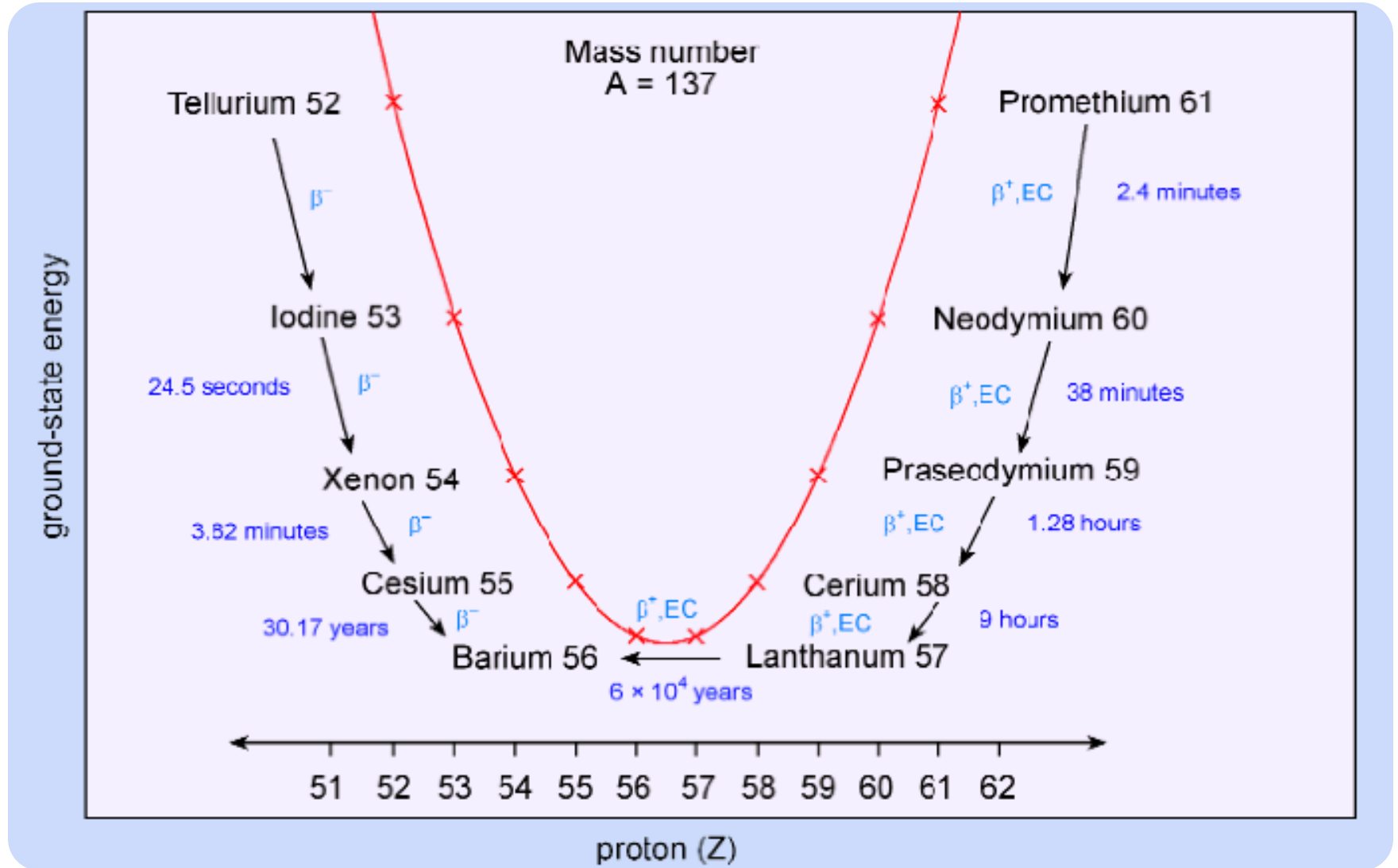
Half-life units
 a - years
 d - days
 h - hours
 m - minutes
 s - seconds

Only main decays are shown
 (γ -emitters are not indicated)

What nuclei exist



Stability



Beta-stability valley

Using the semi-empirical equation for the binding energy:

$$B_{tot}(Z,A) = a_v A - a_s A^{2/3} - a_c \frac{Z^2}{A^{1/3}} - a_a \frac{(A - 2Z)^2}{A}$$

$$M(Z,A) = Z \cdot M_p + (A - Z)M_n - B_{tot}(Z,A)$$

$$a_a \frac{(A - 2Z)^2}{A} = a_a \frac{A^2 - 4AZ + 4Z^2}{A} = a_a \left(A - 4Z + \frac{4Z^2}{A} \right)$$

$$M = A \left[M_n - a_v + \frac{a_s}{A^{1/3}} + a_a \right] + Z \left[M_p - M_n - 4Za_a \right] + Z^2 \left(\frac{a_c}{A^{1/3}} + \frac{4a_a}{A} \right)$$

This the equation of a parabola $M(Z) = a + bZ + cZ^2$

Minimising M:

$$\left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial Z} \right)_A = 0 = b + 2cZ_A$$

$$\frac{Z_A}{A} \approx \frac{1}{2} \frac{81}{80 + 0.6A^{2/3}}$$

