Nuclear Fuel Cycle 2013

Lecture 4: Interaction of Ionizing Radiation with Matter

Ionizing radiation

Radiation with energy > 100 eV

Ionize an atom < 15eV

Break a bond 1-5 eV

Typical decay energies

α: 4 - 9 MeV

β: 0.02 - 4 MeV

γ: 0.1 - 2 MeV

≈ 100 000 ionizations per decay

Radiation types

Protons and heavy ions (*e.g.* α-particles)

Electrons / positrons (β^- and β^+)

Photons (γ)

Neutrons

Absorption of ionizing radiation

- Interactions with the electrons of the absorber
- (Neutrons): Interactions with nuclei resulting in radioactive decay and
  High energy γ, resulting in pair production

Linear Energy Transfer (LET)

The energy lost per length unit

LET = -dE/dx

LET depends on the electron density of the absorber
(usually proportional to the physical density)

Radiation (3 MeV)	LET (keV/μm)	cm in air
Electron (e^-)	0.20	1400
Proton ($^{1}_{1}H^{+}$)	21	14
Deuteron ($^{2}_{1}H^{+}$)	34	8.8
α ($^{4}_{2}He^{2+}$)	180	1.7

Protons and heavy ions

The LET of protons and heavy ions follow the Bethe equation:

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi z^2 e^4}{m_e v^2} NZ \cdot \ln\left[\frac{2mv^2}{I}\right] \Rightarrow -\frac{dE}{dx} \propto \frac{z^2 e^4}{v^2}$$

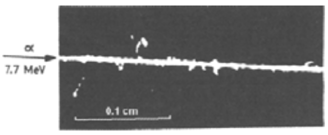
Z = absorber's atomic number
z = particle's atomic number
N = number of absorbing atoms per unit volume
v = Velocity
I = Ionization potential
m_e = electron mass
e = particle charge

α-particles

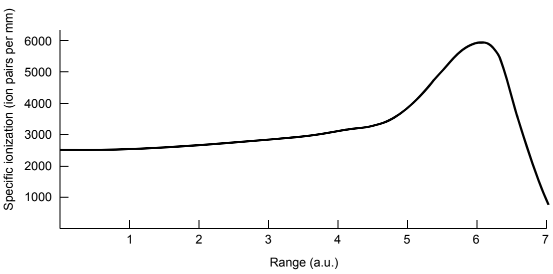
Heavy charged particle: $^{4}_{2}He^{2+}$

=> Interaction very strong (high LET)

Particles travels in a straight path, leaving a "spur" with lots of ionizations behind. The number of ionizations in an α–spur is in the order of 1 mol/liter



The Bragg curve (heavy charged particles)



β-particles (=electrons and positrons)

β-particles from nuclear decay have the same mass and velocity as orbital electrons and can lose much of the energy in one collision

When colliding with electrons β-particles are deflected and greatly scattered

Much higher velocity than alpha and protons
=> the range is longer

β-particles (=electrons/positrons)

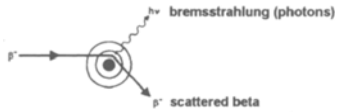
ionization

50% of the energy is lost by ionization and 50% by excitation

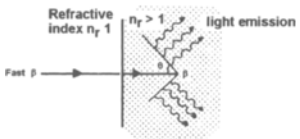
excitation

β-particles (=electrons/positrons)

bremsstrahlung



Čerenkov radiation



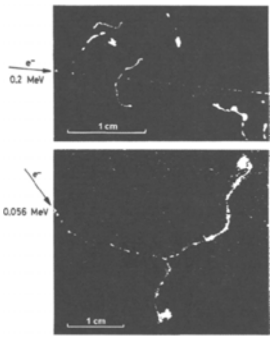
positron annihilation

Backscattering

β⁻-particles can scatter as much as 180° from the original direction.

This phenomena is called backscattering

Tracks from β⁻-particles



Normal energy β⁻

Meandering tracks

LET much lower

Low energy β⁻

γ-radiation

γ-photons have no mass or charge

⇒ Very little interaction with absorber

⇒ Long range

Unlike particles with mass, γ-photons loose all energy in one or two interactions.

γ-photons interacts with absorber in four different ways: coherent (Rayleigh) scattering, photoelectric effect, Compton scattering and pair production

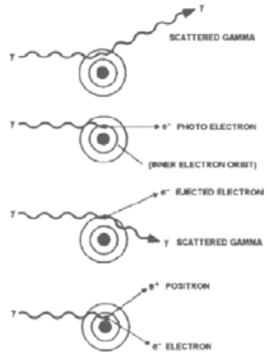
Interaction of γ-radiation

Coherent scattering (Rayleigh scattering)

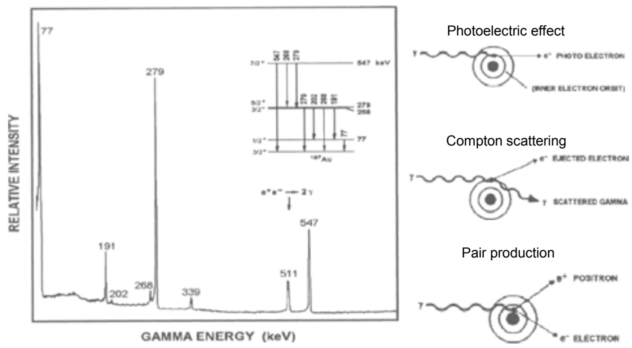
Photoelectric effect

Compton scattering

Pair production



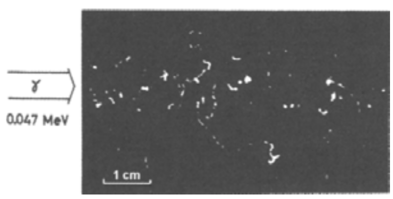
Gamma spectrum



Interaction of γ-radiation

Since a γ-photon can interact immediately and loose all energy or travel several cm before interacting the range is not possible to determine

But half-thickness can be determined



Neutrons

No charge, interaction with matter similar to that of gamma (scattering).

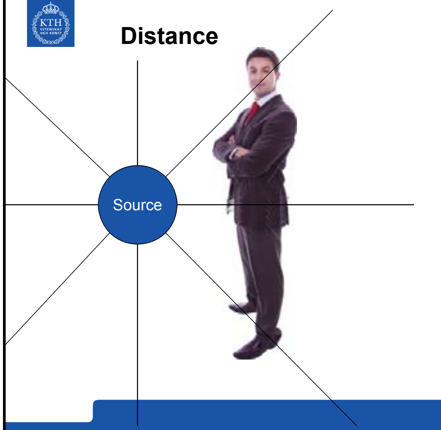
No range can be determined

Radiation shielding

Radiation	Relative penetration depth	Shielding	Range in water
α	1	Paper, skin	30-40 µm
β	100	3 mm Al	3-6 mm
γ	10 000	Concrete, Lead	-

Remember: The ability of a material to interact (=absorb energy) of a material is proportional to its (electron) density.

Distance



Dose decreases with square of distance due to geometric reasons

Absorbed dose

Unit: Gray. 1 Gy = 1 J/kg

Older unit: 1 Gy = 100 rad

$$D = \frac{dE_{abs}}{dm}$$

$$E_{abs} = E_{in} - E_{out}$$

- Dose rate: Gray/s. (absorbed dose/s)

Equivalent dose

Weights in the damage different radiation will do to tissue and organs (*i.e.* biologically significant)

Units: 1 J/kg = 1 Sv (Sievert)

Old unit: 1 Sv = 100 rem

Equivalent dose

The equivalent dose (H_T) to an organ or tissue is the sum of mean absorbed dose $D_{T,R}$ in T, multiplied by a weighing factor w_R for each type of radiation R.

$$H_T = \sum_R w_R D_{T,R}$$

Radiation type & energy	w_R
Photons, all energies	1
Electrons and muons, all energies	1
Neutrons of Energy E (MeV)	$5+17e^{\frac{-(\ln(2E))^2}{6}}$
Protons, energy > 2MeV	5
α, heavy nuclei	20

Effective Dose
(Effective Equivalent Dose)

Weights in the damage different radiation will do to specific tissues and organs (*radiation does different damage to different organs*)

Units: 1 J/kg = 1 Sv (Sievert)

Old unit: 1 Sv = 100 rem

Effective Dose

The equivalent dose is multiplied by a factor depending for each tissue/organ that is exposed to radiation

$$E = \sum_T w_T \sum_R D_{T,R}$$

Organ or tissue	w_T	Organ or tissue	w_T
Gonads	0.20	Liver	0.05
Bone marrow (red)	0.12	Esophagus (matstrupe)	0.05
Colon	0.12	Thyroid (Sköldkörtel)	0.05
Lung	0.12	Skin	0.01
Stomach	0.12	Bone surface	0.01
Bladder	0.05	Remainder	0.05
Breast	0.05		

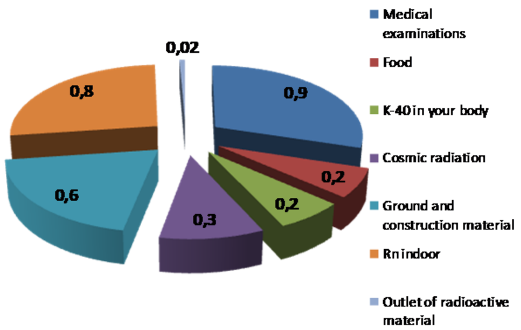
Recommended dose limits

Dose limits for persons working with ionizing radiation	
Period of time	Limits of effective dose (mSv)
Annual	50
Effective dose	150
Equivalent dose to the lens of the eye	500
Equivalent dose to the skin, hands, forearms, feet and ankles	500
In addition, for 5 consecutive years, Effective dose	100

Dose from different activities

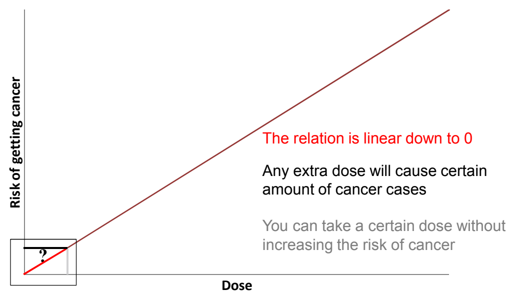
Activity	Dose [mSv]
Dental X-ray	0.005
Chest X-ray	0.02
Transatlantic flight	0.07
Nuclear power station worker average annual	0.18
CAT scan of head	1.4
Annual dose Sweden	3.0
CAT scan chest	6.6
Whole body CAT scan	10
Level at which changes in blood cells can readily be observed	100
Acute radiation effects	1000
Dose which within a month would kill 50% of those receiving the dose	5000

Annual doses in Sweden [mSv/year]



According to the Swedish Radiation Safety Authority

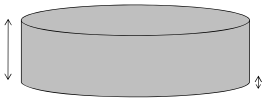
Dose vs risks



Example calculating dose rate

A 1 mm thick radiation source of $^{238}UO_2$ (ρ_{UO2} = 11 g·cm^{-3}) is used to irradiate water. Assume that the range in H_2O is 35 µm and calculate the dose rate in the water. Assume furthermore that the range in an absorber is proportional to the density, that for geometrical reasons only 25 % of the alpha particles will reach the water and that they have lost 50 % of their energy while traversing UO_2.

1mm



Range in UO_2=35/11=3.2 µm

Assume 1cm×1cm×3.2µm

V= 3.2×10^{-4} cm^3

$N_U = V\times\rho/M_{UO2}\times N_A = 7.85\times10^{18}$ atoms

$\lambda_U = \ln2/(4.5\times10^9\times365*24*3600) = 4.9\times10^{18}$ s^{-1}

A=Nλ=38.35 Bq

Only 25% will reach the water
=>A = 9.6 Bq

Example, continued

A = 9.6 Bq

3.2µm

Dose rate = Absorbed energy/kg,s

E_α=4.2 MeV = 6.73×10^{-13} J (1 eV = 1.602×10^{-19} J)
50% will be lost => E = 3.36×10^{-13} J

Volume of the water = 1cm×1cm×35µm=35×10^{-4} cm^3

Mass of the water ≈ 35×10^{-7} kg

Dose rate = A×E/m= 9.6 × 3.36×10^{-13} /35×10^{-7} = 9.2×10^{-7} Gy/s

Radiation chemistry

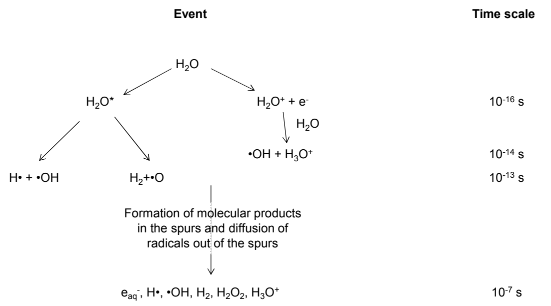
Radiation chemical yield

G-value: $G_X = \frac{d[X]}{dE_{abs}}$

<u>Unit</u>: mol/J

<u>Older unit</u>: number of molecules/100 eV

Water Radiolysis



LET (keV/µm) and G-values (µmol/J) for radiolysis of water

Radiation	LET	$G(H_2O)$	$G(H_2)$	$G(H_2O_2)$	$G(e_{aq}^-)$	G(H•)	G(HO•)	$G(HO_2\bullet)$
γ, β⁻	0.24	-0.43	0.047	0.073	0.28	0.062	0.28	0.0027
α	92	-0.294	0.115	0.112	0.0044	0.028	0.056	0.007

⇒ Different radiation types give different products

Radiation effects in nuclear reactors

Oxidation of metals

Brittleness (H_2)

Explosion ($H_2 + O_2$)

Workshop

Calculate tasks 3, 5, 8, 11, 13, 16

And be prepared to calculate on the whiteboard in front of the class.