

Part 1: Basic Radiation Physics

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Nuclear Medicine Physics for
Technologists

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Basic Radiation Physics - Introduction

- Radiation: Energy propagated through space in the form of waves or particles.
- Examples of Radiation:
 - Radiowaves
 - Visible light
 - Heat
 - X-rays



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Basic Radiation Physics - Introduction

- Radiation may be in the form of either *Particles* or *Waves*
- Depending on the amount of *Energy* transferred, Radiation may be classified as either *Ionizing* or *Non-Ionizing* Radiation
- For our purposes, we will use the term *Radiation* to refer to Ionizing radiation, unless specifically noted

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Basic Radiation Physics - Atomic Structure

- The structure of the atom is important in understanding the origins and nature of radiation and radioactivity
- Though the existence of the atom has long been speculated, the modern theory of the atom began to develop in the early 1900's
- The Bohr model of the atom is useful in illustrating the processes of nuclear and atomic transformations

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Basic Radiation Physics - Atomic Structure

- Classical atomic structure suggests that, in general, atoms consist of dense, positively-charged nucleus surrounded by a number of electrons some distance away
- Often referred to as the solar system model
 - First proposed by Rutherford
- Classical theory does not allow such a model
 - Electrons would gradually lose Kinetic Energy until pulled into nucleus

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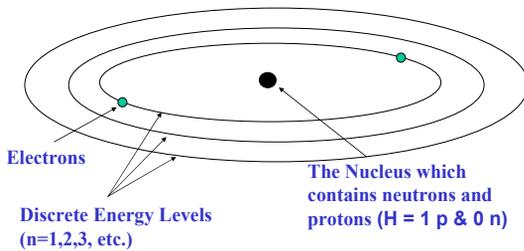
Basic Radiation Physics - Atomic Structure

- In 1913, Neils Bohr stated that the classical theory didn't apply to orbiting electrons
- Bohr based his theory on two postulates:
 - electrons can only occupy specific energy levels
 - an atomic electron can only change energy (i.e., give off or absorb) by changing from one level to another

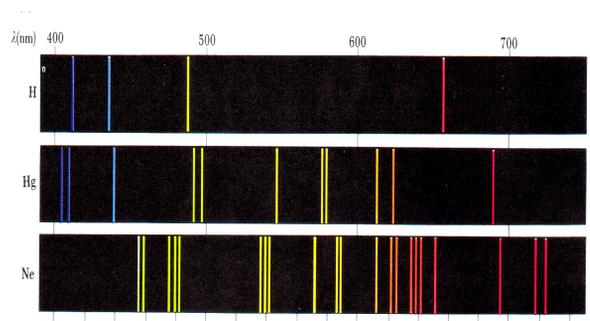
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- Bohr used the data on atomic spectra to support his theory of atomic structure
- Atomic spectra occurs when energy is transferred to an element causing it to radiate certain colors of light
 - (Neon signs (red light), Mercury (blue light), etc)
- Bohr was able to predict the sharp-line spectrum of Hydrogen

Bohr model of Hydrogen



- Bohr was able to demonstrate that orbital electrons possess discrete energy levels, and that when an electron changes from one energy level to another, the transition is accompanied by emission of electromagnetic radiation.



- What is electromagnetic radiation?
- Visible light, radiowaves, and UV-rays are all forms of radiation propagated as waves
- These are all examples of a more general classification of radiation known as the electromagnetic spectrum
- Electromagnetic (EM) waves transport energy and momentum from one source to a receiver

- EM waves travel at the speed of light in a vacuum
- Both the wavelength (λ) and frequency (f) are related by:
$$c = f\lambda$$
where c is the speed of light
- Einstein introduced the idea of *photons*, which he defined as small packets of energy

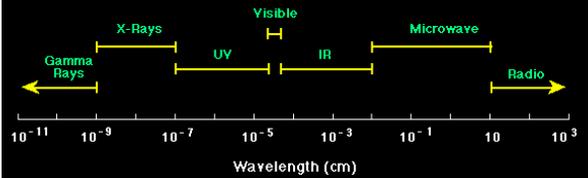
- These photons, which travel through space as waves, have energy (E) proportional to their frequency (f):
$$E = hf$$

where h is Planck's constant.

- It can be seen that as the frequency of the EM wave increases, so does the photon's energy
- Also, as frequency increases, wavelength decreases

– Visible light and gamma rays only differ by their wavelength

- Electromagnetic spectrum



- When energy is transferred to an orbital electron which exceeds the energy of the energy level, it will move to a higher energy level. The electron is in an *Excited* state
- If enough energy is transferred so that the electron is completely removed from the influence of the nucleus, the atom is said to be *Ionized*

- To move a electron from the ground state to the first excited state in Hydrogen, 10.2 eV would need to be imparted to the electron
- For an electron to move from the first excited state to the ground state, a 10.2 eV photon would be emitted
- E of the photon determines the wavelength, and, thus, the color (in the visible region)

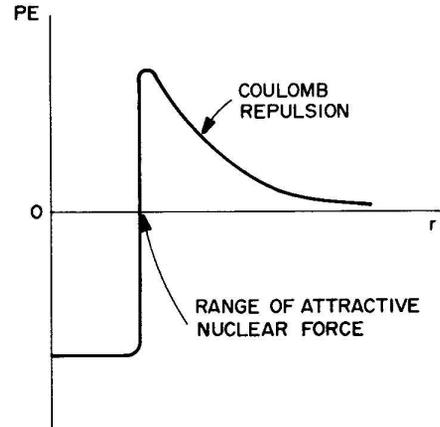
- Same process for all orbital electron energy level changes
- Hydrogen emission lines lie in visible and UV regions
- Photons emitted in such a process which possess enough energy to cause ionization are referred to as *x-rays*

- Bohr was successful only in developing theory for Hydrogen
- Modern quantum theory is based on electron clouds and wave functions rather than orbits
- Bohr model useful as simple presentation of the idea of discrete energy levels
- The idea of atomic particles possessing only discrete energies applies to nucleons as well as electrons

Basic Radiation Physics -
Atomic Structure

- Protons and Neutrons bound together inside the nucleus by the nuclear force
- Nuclear force strong enough to overcome the Coulomb repulsion at very close ranges ($\sim 10^{-15}$ m)
- Energy associated with Nuclear reactions on the order of 10^6 eV; about a million times greater than chemical reactions involving orbital electrons

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Atomic Structure

- $E=mc^2$
- $1 \text{ AMU} = 931.49 \text{ MeV}$
- Example, production of deuterium:



- Energy carried off by photon is 2.2245 MeV

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Atomic Structure

- The energy released was found by comparing the total masses on both sides of the equation

$$Q = \Delta m_n + \Delta m_{H-1} - \Delta m_{H-2}$$

$$Q = 8.0714 + 7.2890 - 13.1359 = 2.2245 \text{ MeV}$$

- Δm is the difference of the atomic mass number and the atomic mass in units of MeV ($\Delta = M - A$)

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Atomic Structure

- The energy required to separate nucleons is known as the *binding energy*. The binding energy of the deuteron is 2.2245 MeV.
- This represents the minimum energy required to be imparted to the nucleus in order to separate the nucleons

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Atomic Structure

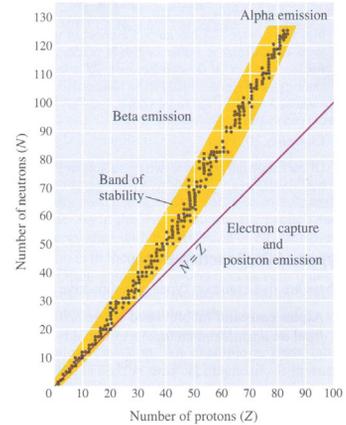
- The attraction of the nuclear force appears to about the same for all nucleons, whether p-p, n-n, or n-p
- In a nucleus, this force attracts protons to each other at the same time they repel each other through Coulomb repulsion
- Nuclei in which the nuclear force far exceeds the Coulomb repulsion are “stable”

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Atomic Structure

- There are about 400 stable nuclei
- Light nuclei are most stable when $N=Z$ (same number of protons as neutrons)
- Heavier nuclei are more stable when $N>Z$
- In order to compensate for the additional repulsion, a greater number of neutrons are needed to stabilize the nucleus
- Nuclides are unstable when $Z>83$

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Chart of the Nuclides

- The Periodic Table of the elements organizes the elements into groups based on their physical and chemical properties
- The Chart of the Nuclides was developed to describe the nuclear properties of a specific nuclide
- A *nuclide* is a specific nucleus defined by an atomic number and mass number

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Chart of the Nuclides

- The *atomic number* of an atom refers to the number of protons contained in the nucleus, and is denoted by Z
- The *mass number* of an atom refers to the total number of protons and neutrons in a nucleus and is denoted by A

$$\text{Mass Number} \rightarrow 238 \text{U}$$

$$\text{Atomic Number} \rightarrow 92 \text{U}$$

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Chart of the Nuclides

- The use of the term *radionuclide* simply indicates that the atom is radioactive
- Chart of the Nuclides, lists information related to both stable and radioactive species

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| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|----------------|--------------|-------------|--|--------|-------------|--------------|--|--|--------|--------|--|--|---------|-------------------------|--------|--|--------|--------|-------------|--|--|--|---------|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--|--------------|-------------|-------------|--|-------------|---------|----------------|--|-------------|----------------|--|--|--------|---------|--|
| <p>Chemical Element</p> <p>H</p> <p>1.00794</p> <p>Hydrogen</p> <p>(Z=1, 152)</p> <p>Stable</p> <p>Pd108</p> <p>26.46</p> <p>Atom Percent Abundance = 100%</p> <p>Thermal Neutron Capture Cross Sections in Barns: 338 (19+0), 338 (2+24E1)</p> <p>Followed by Resonance (Highly Leading to Isomeric γ Ground State)</p> <p>Isotopic Mass (Carbon-12 Scale)</p> <p>S38</p> <p>2.84 h</p> <p>Artificially Radioactive</p> <p>Symbol: Mass Number</p> <p>Half-Life</p> <p>Modes of Decay with Energy of Radiation in MeV for Alpha and Beta, with γ for Gamma</p> <p>β^- 50... 1943 (8...)</p> <p>E 2.94</p> <p>— Beta Disintegration Energy in MeV</p> | <p>— Symbol</p> <p>— Atomic Weight (Carbon-12 Scale)</p> <p>— Element Name</p> <p>— Thermal Neutron Absorption Cross Section in Barns Followed by Resonance Integral, in Barns</p> <p>— Even Z, Even N Nuclides Have Spin and Parity 0⁺</p> <p>— Symbol, Mass Number</p> <p>— Fission Product, Slow Neutron Fission of U235, U233 or Pu239</p> | <p>Displacement Caused by Nuclear Bombardment Reactions</p> <table border="1"> <tr> <td>$\alpha, 3n$</td> <td>$\alpha, 2n$</td> <td>α, n</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>p, n</td> <td>p, γ</td> <td>α, np</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>d, n</td> <td>t, n</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>p, pn</td> <td>Original Nucleus</td> <td>d, p</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>n, n</td> <td>n, n</td> <td>n, γ</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>t, np</td> </tr> <tr> <td>p, α</td> <td>n, t</td> <td>n, d</td> <td>n, p</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>γ, np</td> <td>γ, p</td> <td>γ, n</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>n, α</td> <td>n, np</td> <td>t, He</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>n, γ</td> <td>n, He</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>n, n</td> <td>n, pd</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> <p>t, p</p> | $\alpha, 3n$ | $\alpha, 2n$ | α, n | | p, n | p, γ | α, np | | | d, n | t, n | | | p, pn | Original Nucleus | d, p | | n, n | n, n | n, γ | | | | t, np | p, α | n, t | n, d | n, p | | γ, np | γ, p | γ, n | | n, α | n, np | t, He | | n, γ | n, He | | | n, n | n, pd | |
| $\alpha, 3n$ | $\alpha, 2n$ | α, n | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| p, n | p, γ | α, np | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | d, n | t, n | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | p, pn | Original Nucleus | d, p | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | n, n | n, n | n, γ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | t, np | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| | γ, np | γ, p | γ, n | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | n, α | n, np | t, He | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | n, γ | n, He | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | n, n | n, pd | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Naturally Occurring or Otherwise Available but Radioactive

Symbol, Mass Number - Spin and Parity
 Absolute Present Abundance - Half-Life

Modes of Decay: Order of Prevalence with Energy of Radiation in MeV for Alpha and Beta, and for Gamma.

Thermal Neutron Capture Cross Section, Followed by Resonance Integral.

Base Disintegration Energy Followed by Isotopic Mass

Member of Naturally Radioactive Decay Chain

Historical Symbol - Symbol, Mass Number - Half-Life

Modes of Decay and Energy in MeV for Alpha and Beta, and for Gamma.

Indicates Decay Mode Intensity (See Symbol List)

Isotopic Mass

Two Isomeric States: One Stable

Spin and Parity of Metastable State, 11.2⁺ - Spin and Parity of Ground State, 12⁺ - Symbol, Mass Number - Absolute Present Abundance

Modes of Decay with Energy of Radiation in MeV

Thermal Neutron Capture Cross Section in Barns Followed by Resonance Integral in Barns

Fission Product, Slow Neutron Reaction of U235 or Pu239

Base Ground State

Two Isomeric States: Both Radioactive

Spin and Parity of Metastable State - Spin and Parity of Ground State - Symbol, Mass Number - Half-Life

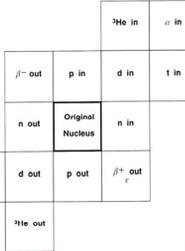
Modes of Decay and Energy in Order of Intensity - Indicates (Where Shown) Range of Energy Radiation

Base Ground State

Thermal Neutron Capture Cross Section in Barns Followed by Resonance Integral in Barns

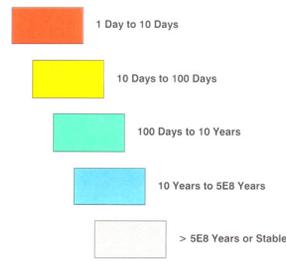
Radioactive in Isotopic Source - Radioactive g. Isotopic

Relative Locations of the Products of Various Nuclear Processes



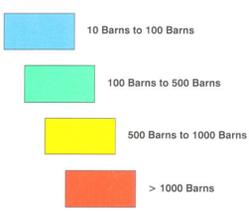
- Radiation and Decay**
- α alpha particle
 - β^- negative electron (beta decay)
 - β^+ positron
 - γ gamma ray
 - n neutron
 - p proton
 - d deuteron
 - t triton
 - e electron capture
 - IT isomeric transition
 - DR delayed radiation (see page 6)
 - SF spontaneous fission
 - E disintegration energy
 - e⁻ conversion electron
 - $\beta\beta$ double beta decay
 - C14 particle emission (C14 nuclide)
 - Ne neutrino emission (neon nuclide)

Colors Used for Half Lives (Appear in Upper Half of Nuclide Block)

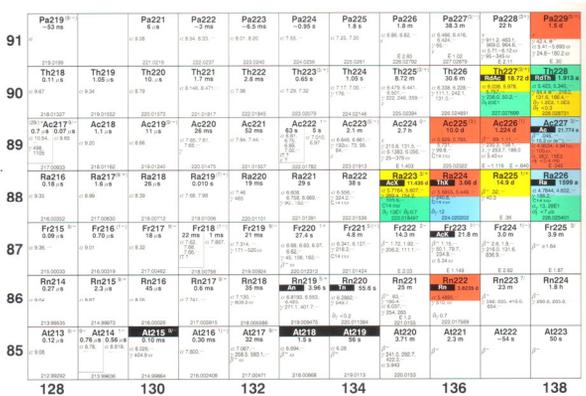
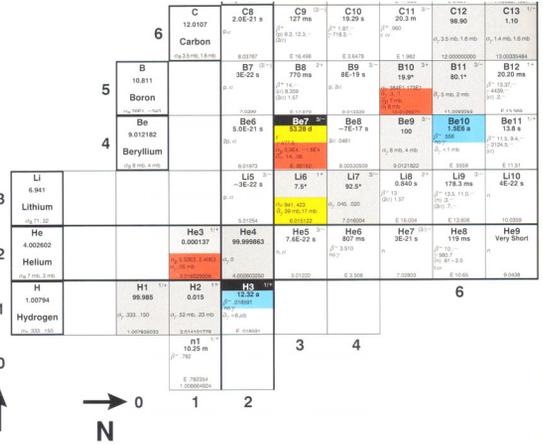


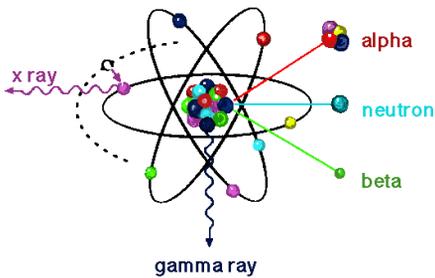
- Time**
- μ s microseconds (1.0E-6s)
 - ms milliseconds (1.0E-3s)
 - s seconds
 - m minutes
 - h hours
 - d days
 - a years

Colors Used for Neutron Absorption Properties (Appear in Lower Half of Nuclide Block)



- Other Symbols**
- ω absolute abundance less than 1%
 - $\omega\omega$ absolute abundance less than 1.0E-3%
 - $\omega\omega\omega$ absolute abundance less than 1.0E-6%
 - E indicates exponential format, e.g., 1.0E11a is 1.06×10^{11} years
 - m indicates assignment to metastable (m) and (g) states inconclusive
 - \uparrow indicates assignment of m_2 and m_1 states inconclusive
 - X unspecified number of particles of a given type emitted, e.g., γp
 - \blacktriangleleft nuclide formed as a product in fission

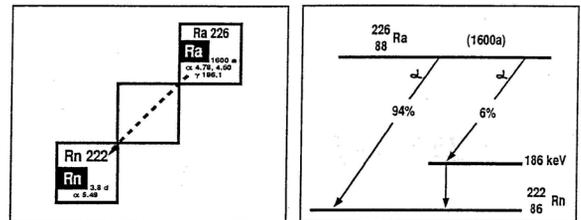
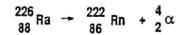
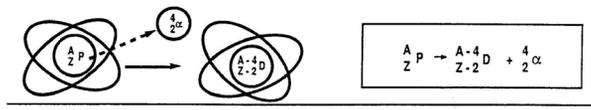




- *Radioactive Decay* is the process by which a nucleus will expel mass or energy in order to become more stable
- Five common types of decay:
 - Alpha Decay
 - Beta Decay
 - Positron Emission
 - Electron Capture
 - Gamma Emission

- Alpha decay occurs in nuclides where $Z > 83$
- Occurs when the n-p ratio is too low
- During *alpha* decay a particle, identical to the nucleus of a helium atom (both are made up of two neutrons and two protons), is ejected from the nucleus of the atom
- The atomic mass of the new nucleus decreases by 4 (Z decreases by 2)

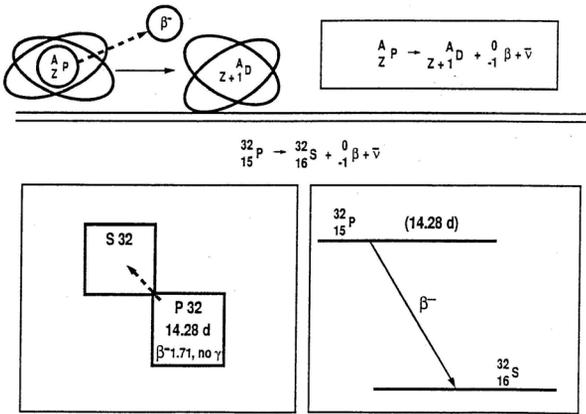
I. ALPHA DECAY



- Due to its relative high mass, alpha particles travel only short distances but cause many ionizations before stopping
- Alpha particles typically cannot penetrate the dead layer of skin on our bodies and can be stopped by a thin sheet of paper
- Due to this fact, they do not constitute an external radiation hazard

- Depending on the n-p ratio, a nucleus may undergo positron or beta emission
- Negative beta decay usually occurs in nuclei with surplus neutrons
- A neutron is transformed into a proton and a beta particle carries off the excess energy and charge

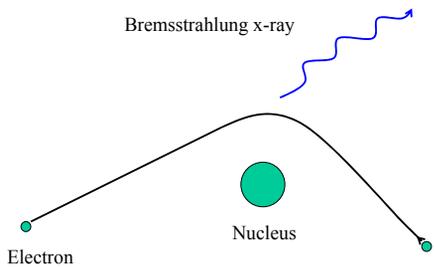
II. BETA MINUS (-) DECAY



Basic Radiation Physics - Beta Decay

- Depending on the energy of the beta particle, it may penetrate varying depths in different density materials
- Most beta particles will not penetrate the skin, but higher energy particles may
- Under certain circumstances, beta particles will cause the emission of bremsstrahlung radiation

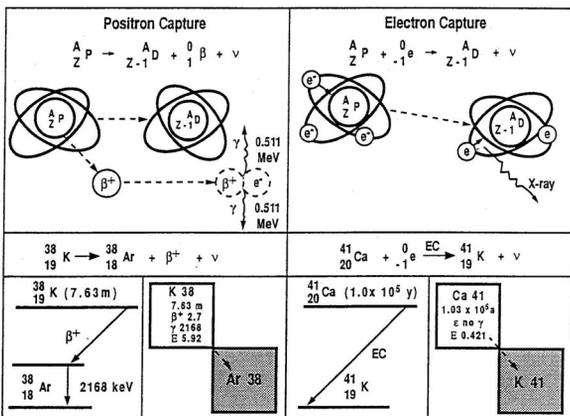
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Basic Radiation Physics - Positron Emission/Electron Capture

- Positron emission competes with Electron capture
- A proton is converted into a neutron and the excess charge energy carried off as positron
- or -
- A proton may capture an orbital electron and become a neutron
 - The vacancy will be filled by another orbital electron; the transition will emit an x-ray

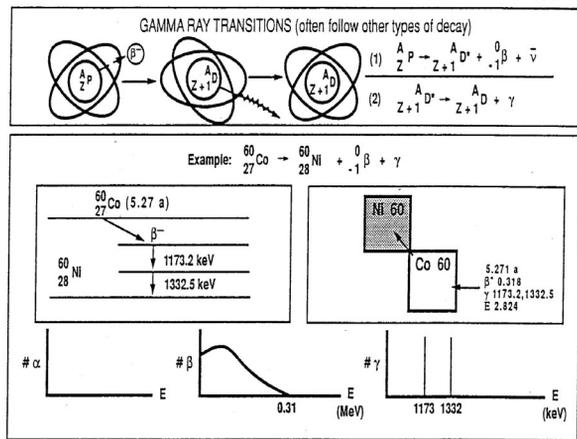
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Basic Radiation Physics - Gamma Emission

- Following different modes of decay, a gamma photon may be emitted as the nucleus sheds excess energy
- No change in number of protons or neutrons (no move on chart)
- Useful in radionuclide identification

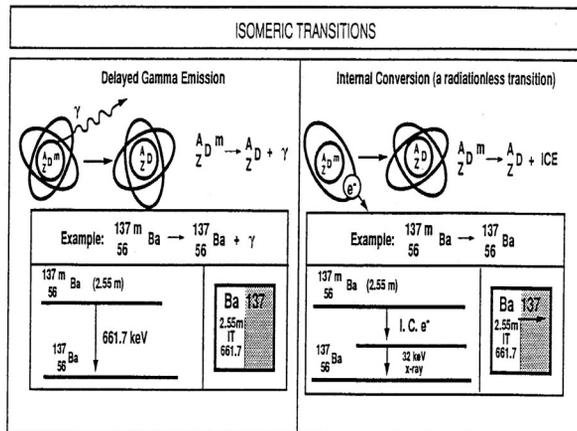
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Basic Radiation Physics -
Gamma Emission

- Certain nuclei may possess more than one nuclear state--called *Metastable state*
- Often half-lives vary greatly
 - ${}^{99}\text{Tc}$ (2.13×10^5 years) v. ${}^{99m}\text{Tc}$ (6.02 hours)
- Nuclides with metastable states are called *isomers*
- Isomeric transition: emission of a gamma ray when change in nuclear state

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| Type of Decay | Radiation | Equivalent process | Nuclear Change | | Usual Nuclear Condition |
|---------------|-------------------|---|----------------|----|-------------------------|
| | | | Z | M | |
| α | ${}^4_2\text{He}$ | | -2 | -4 | $Z > 83$ |
| β^- | ${}^0_{-1}\beta$ | ${}^1_0n \rightarrow {}^1_1p + \begin{matrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{matrix} \beta$ | +1 | 0 | N/Z too large |
| β^+ | ${}^0_1\beta$ | ${}^1_1p \rightarrow {}^1_0n + \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \beta$ | -1 | 0 | N/Z too small |
| EC | X-rays | ${}^1_1p + \begin{matrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{matrix} \beta \rightarrow {}^1_0n$ | -1 | 0 | N/Z too small |
| γ | ${}^0_0\gamma$ | | 0 | 0 | Excited Nucleus |

Basic Radiation Physics -
Types of Radiation

- Particles (protons, neutrons, electrons, and atomic nuclei) may obtain enough kinetic energy to travel through matter
- These particles may cause excitation and ionization
- Only those which transfer enough to cause an ionization are classified as ionizing radiation

Basic Radiation Physics -
Radioactivity and Units

- *Radioactivity* is a general term used to describe atoms that release this excess energy in the form of particles or radiation
- Radioactivity, or activity (A), is simply defined as the number of radioactive atoms (N) present times the radionuclide's transformation constant (λ)

$$A = N\lambda$$

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- The transformation constant is simply a value that represents the average time that elapses between transformations
- Each radionuclide has a unique transformation constant
- No known chemical or physical processes that can alter the transformation constant

- The *half-life* of a material is defined as the amount of time that will have elapsed when one-half of the original atoms remain
- Half-life is calculated using the transformation constant:

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

- The activity of a known radionuclide at any time can be calculated using the following formula:

$$A = A_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

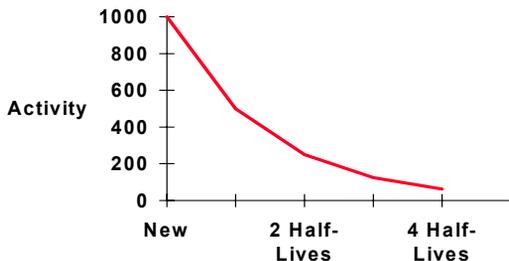
– where t is the time which elapsed since the initial activity (A_0) was known

- The SI unit of activity is the Becquerel (Bq)
 - The Bq is defined as one transformation per second
- $$Bq = \frac{1}{\text{sec}}$$
- The old unit of activity (still used in the U.S.) is the Curie (Ci)
 - One Ci is equal to 3.7×10^{10} transformations per second.

$$1Ci = 3.7 \times 10^{10} Bq$$

- *Exposure* refers to the amount of ionization produced in air by x- or gamma rays.
- The unit of exposure is the *roentgen* (R) and is defined as the sum of all charges of one sign produced in air when all the electrons liberated by photons in a mass of air are stopped.

$$1R = 2.58 \times 10^{-4} \frac{C}{kg}$$



- *Absorbed Dose* is the primary quantity used to describe energy absorbed per unit mass material from any kind of ionizing radiation in any target
- The unit of absorbed dose (D), or just dose, is the *gray* (Gy). The traditional unit is the *rad* and is defined as 100 erg/g

$$1\text{Gy} = \frac{1\text{J}}{\text{kg}} = \frac{10^7 \text{erg}}{10^3 \text{g}} = 10^4 \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{g}} = 100\text{rad}$$

- In order to convert from *exposure* in air to *absorbed dose* in air, one must know the energy needed in order to create an ion pair (W)
 - For air (at STP), W= 34 eV per ion pair (= 34 J/C).
- Absorbed dose in air from 1R exposure can be thus calculated:

$$1R = \frac{2.58 \times 10^{-4} \text{C}}{\text{kg}} \times \frac{34 \text{J}}{\text{C}} = 8.8 \times 10^{-3} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg}} = 0.88\text{rad}$$

- Just as this calculation demonstrates the difference between exposure in air and dose in air, similar calculations can be performed for dose for any material.
- It is very important to not confuse the idea of dose with exposure. Often these terms are used incorrectly and an incorrect idea is relayed.
- Exposure is defined for ionization (*charge*) in air; absorbed dose is defined for *energy* deposited in matter.
- Energy and charge are not the same thing!

- Different types of radiation interact differently with matter
- Different types of radiation cause different types of biological damage
 - *Not all radiation has the same biological effect, even for the same amount of absorbed dose!*
- The quantity of *Dose Equivalent* was introduced to account for the different biological effects

- The unit of *dose equivalence* (H) is the *sievert* (Sv)
 - formerly the *rem* (roentgen equivalent man), still used in the U.S.
- H attempts to account for the different effects of different radiation types by using a radiation quality factor, Q
 - The quality factor is a unique value that relates the radiation's relative biological effectiveness to a value that is multiplied by the absorbed dose

- Dose equivalence is calculated by multiplying the dose by the quality factor for the type of radiation delivering the dose:

$$H = QD$$

- (rem = rad x Q)

Basic Radiation Physics -
Interactions with Matter

- Charged particles interact constantly as they pass through matter
 - The principle types of charged particle interaction include ionization, excitation, and bremsstrahlung production
- Non-charged particles can interact through scattering reactions (elastic or inelastic), absorption, or spallation
 - will not be discussed here

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Interactions with Matter

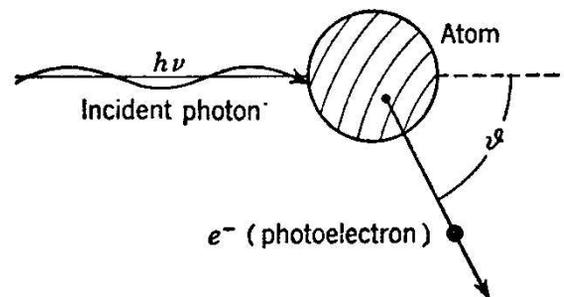
- Photon interact *indirectly* with matter
 - All ionization occurs after the photon has deposited its energy
- Three major ways photons interact and lose their energy are:
 - Photo-Electric Effect
 - Compton Scattering
 - Paired Production

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Basic Radiation Physics -
Photo-Electric Effect

- The *Photoelectric Effect* is an interaction between a photon and a tightly bound electron whose binding energy is equal to or less than the energy of the photon
- The photon is absorbed by the electron and, as a result of the added energy, is ejected from the atoms with KE equal to the difference between the original gamma ray energy and the electron's BE

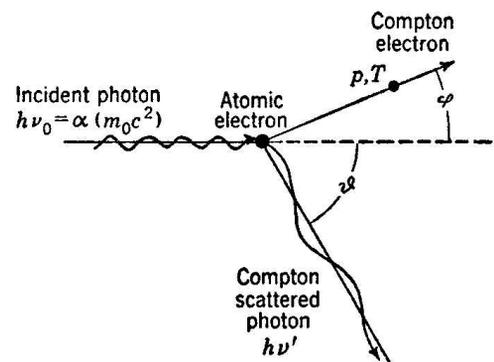
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Basic Radiation Physics -
Compton Scattering

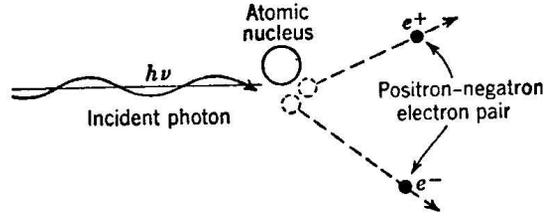
- *Compton Scattering* occurs when a photon interacts with a loosely bound outer-shell electron
- The electron will absorb the photon, but will emit another photon at a lower energy
- The incident photon energy is now shared between the scattered photon and electron

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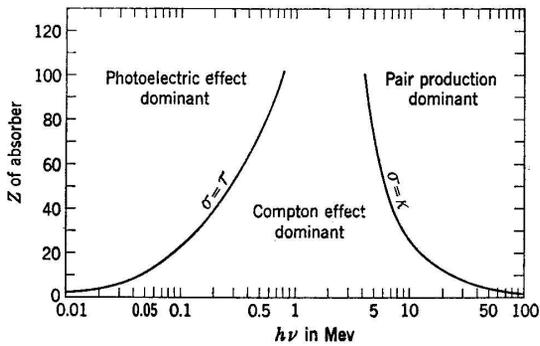


Basic Radiation Physics -
Paired Production

- In order for a *Paired Production* interaction to occur, the photon energy must exceed 1.02 MeV (rest mass of two electrons)
- As the photon approached the nucleus of an atom, it completely disappears
- The energy absorbed is then expressed by the emission of an electron-positron pair.
- Any remaining energy will be distributed between the two particles as kinetic energy.



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Basic Radiation Physics -
Sources of Radiation

- Natural and Man-made sources of radiation
- Natural sources divided into different categories:
 - Cosmic
 - Terrestrial

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Sources of Radiation Exposure to the US Population

