

NE585
NUCLEAR FUEL CYCLES
Nuclear engineering basics
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Learning objectives

Demonstrating fundamental concepts in nuclear physics

Analyzing decay data to identify radionuclides

Summarizing different decay mechanisms

Book – Chapter 2

Learning nodes

Relativity

Atomic structure

Binding energy

Q-value

Radioactivity

Chart of the nuclides

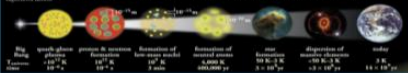
Decay chains

Half life

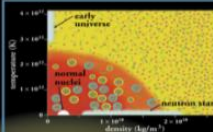
Nuclear Science

Expansion of the Universe

²After the Big Bang, the universe expanded and cooled. At about 10^{-6} second, the universe consisted of a soup of quarks, gluons, electrons, and neutrinos. As time passed, the temperature of the Universe fell below 10^{12} K. At this point, quarks combined into protons, neutrons, and electrons. As time went by, the temperature continued to drop. At about 10^8 K, the soft light from the early universe was released. Soft light means that these low-energy waves could not form ionized atoms. Due to gravity, clumps of atoms contracted into stars, where hydrogen and helium found their most massive chemical elements. Exploding stars transformed some of the most massive elements and dispersed them into space. Our world was formed from supernova debris.



Nuclear Science is the study of the structure, properties, and interactions of the atomic nuclei. Nuclear scientists calculate and measure the masses, shapes, sizes, and decays of nuclei as well as in collisions. They ask questions, such as: Why do nucleons stay in the nucleus? What configurations of protons and neutrons are possible? What happens when nuclei are transformed or nuclei interact? What is the origin of the nuclei found on Earth?



Phases of Nuclear Matter

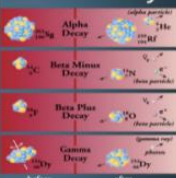
Nuclear matter can exist in several phases. When collisions create nuclei, individual protons and neutrons may evaporate from the nuclear fluid. At sufficiently high temperatures or densities, a gas of nucleons (and background) forms; the even more extreme conditions, individual nucleons may cease to have meaningful identities, merging into the quark-gluon plasma (yellow background). Current data provide hints that physicists have glimpsed the quark-gluon plasma.

Unstable Nuclei

Stable nucleides form a narrow white band on the Chart of the Nuclides. Scientists produce unstable nucleides for three different reasons and study their decay, thereby learning about the structure of nuclear constituents. In its present form, this chart contains about 2500 different nucleides. Nuclear theory predicts that there are at least 4000 more to be discovered with $Z \leq 118$.



Radioactivity

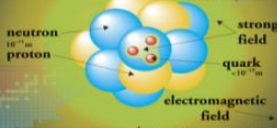


Relative energy transforms a machine by converting different particles to **alpha** beams. The machine receives a ²³⁸U nucleus, an **alpha** particle, to beta decay. The machine either sends an electron and antimatter for a positron and antimatter or captures an atomic electron and emits a neutrino. A positron is the same as the antiparticle of the electron. Antimatter is composed of antiparticles. Both **alpha** and beta beams change the original machine into a machine of a different chemical element. In **gamma** decay, the machine loses its internal energy by emitting a photon, a **gamma** ray. This does not modify the chemical properties of the atom.

The Nucleus

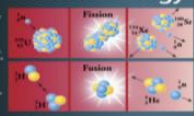
At the center of this story is a nuclear fission bomb

The Nucleus
($1-10 \times 10^{-14}$ m)



Nuclear reactions release energy when the total mass of the products is less than the mass of the masses of the initial nuclei. The "lost mass" appears as kinetic energy of the products ($E = mc^2$). In fission, a massive nucleus splits into two major fragments that usually emit one or more neutrons. In fusion, two massive nuclei combine to form a more massive nucleus plus one or more excited particles—neutrons, protons, photons or alpha particles.

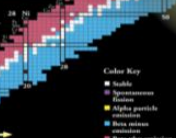
Nuclear Energy



In the early stages of stellar evolution of our sun and other stars, hydrogen fuses to form helium, releasing energy in the form of photons (light) and neutrinos. During the later stages of stellar evolution, more reactive nuclei slip in and beyond neutrinos are accelerated by fusion. By measuring the number of neutrinos that come from the Sun, scientists recently have demonstrated that neutrinos must have a mass greater than zero.

Chart of the Nuclides

The Chain of the Nucleides presents in graphic form all known nuclei with atomic number, Z , and mass number, N . Each nucleide is represented by a firm outline according to its predominant decay mode. Magic numbers (2 or $Z = 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82$ and 126) are indicated by a triangle on the chart. They correspond to major shell shells and show regions of greater nuclear stability, evenness.



Color Key

- Stable
- Spontaneous fission
- Alpha particle emission
- Beta minus emission
- Beta plus emission or electron

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Applications



Radioactive Dating

Recently, increasing radioactive isotopes, such as ^{14}C , are used to date objects once living, such as wood. It has a ratio of isotopes found in organisms discovered. For example, wood found recently, it (1000 years ago).



Smoke Detectors

Many smoke detectors use a small amount of the alpha emitter ^{241}Am to ionize the air. Smoke entering the detector reduces the current and sets off the alarm.



Open Exploration
 Students used alpha particles to study chemical elements from Mendelev's table. The Rutherford alpha particle experiment was used to study elements and chemical arrangements in a laboratory setting.



Nuclear Reactors

Nuclear reactors use the fission of ^{235}U or ^{239}Pu nuclei to generate electric power. Reactors and most other nuclear applications generate radioactive waste; disposal of this waste is a subject of intense concern.



Magnetic Resonance Imaging
Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) relies on the magnetic properties involving the magnetic field of a nucleus in the local chemical environment. This technique eventually maps the density of hydrogen to produce three-dimensional images of the human body.

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Relativity

We apply energy from nuclear reactions and radiation interactions with matter

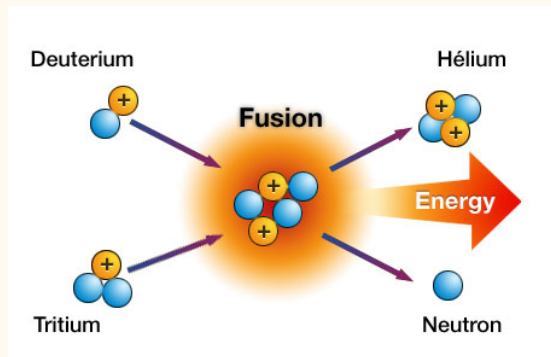
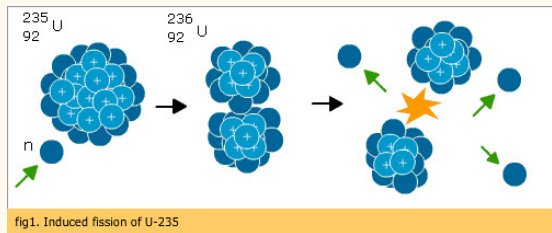
$$E_{REST} = m_0 c^2 \quad (1)$$

$$E = mc^2 \quad (2)$$

Rest mass energy for an electron – 0.511 *MeV*

Save that for later

Energy released or energy injected



Determine the energy of a fusion neutron that is not at rest

$$m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)}} \rightarrow E = mc^2 \quad (3)$$

With $v = 5.2 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}$, that is about $0.17c$; not negligible

So we have to compute the not rest mass

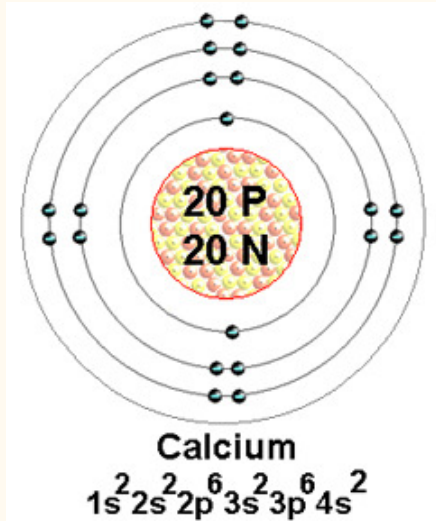
$$m_0(n) = 1.674927211 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

Fusion neutron at that speed has $E = 14.5 \text{ MeV}$

For relativistic calculations use MeV

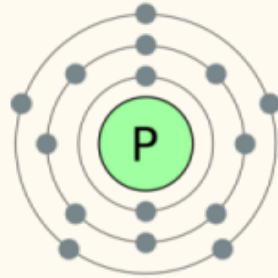
Atomic structure

The shell model describes how subatomic particles are arranged



15: Phosphorus

2,8,5



$${}^A_Z Q_{A-Z} = {}^{235}_{92} U_{143}$$

Binding energy

There are four fundamental forces of interaction

Gravity – Obvious

Strong nuclear – Holds the nucleus together

Electromagnetic – Basically electrons & magnetism

Weak nuclear – Changes the flavor of quarks

To blow out a nucleus, a lot of energy is needed

Would it be constant or variable per nucleus?

Why would you want to blow out the nucleus?

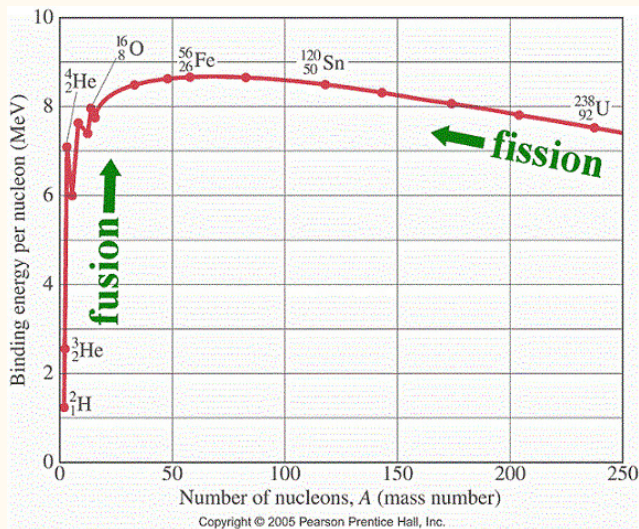
$$\Delta m = (A - Z)m_n - Zm_p - M \quad (4)$$

$$\Delta m({}_{94}^{239}\text{Pu}) = 1759 \text{ MeV} = 7.40 \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{nucleon}} \quad (5)$$

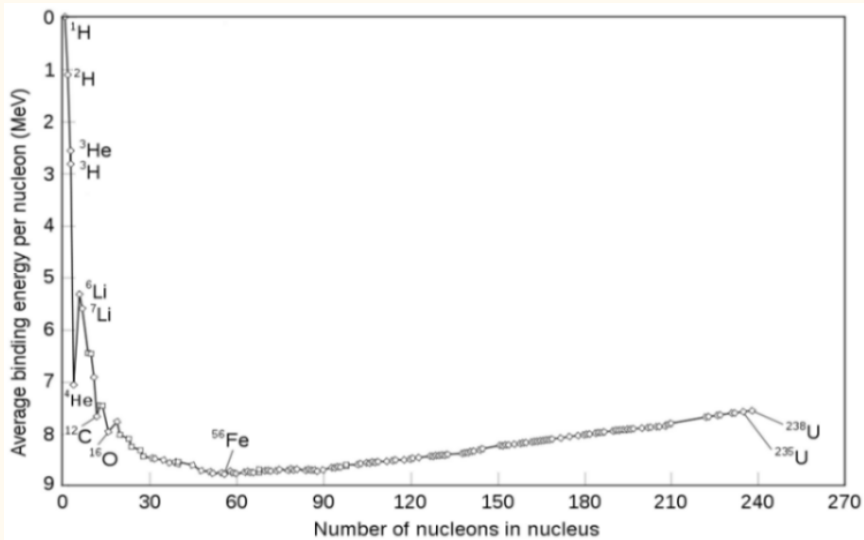
This energy corresponds to a velocity of 0.88c

$$931.5 \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{amu}}$$

Binding energy is used to compare atomic stability, reaction energy, probability of fission/fusion

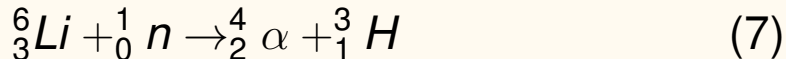


Light nuclei get more stable by fusion; heavy nuclei get more stable by fission



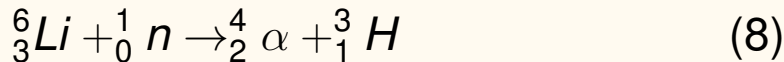
Q-value

The Q-value for a reaction indicates energy requirements



- (1) Conservation of nucleons
- (2) Conservation of charge
- (3) Conservation of momentum
- (4) Conservation of energy

Compute the Q value for this reaction



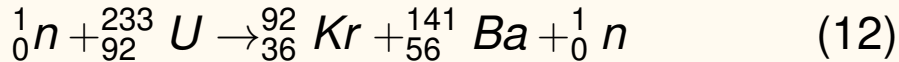
$$Q = [(M_{\text{Li}} + M_{\text{n}}) - (M_{\alpha} + M_{\text{H}})]c^2 \quad (9)$$

$$Q = 4.78 \text{ MeV} \quad (10)$$

$$Q > 0 \rightarrow ?$$

$$Q < 0 \rightarrow ?$$

What is the energy of fission from thorium and uranium fuel cycles?



For comparison, burning a carbon atom releases 4 eV

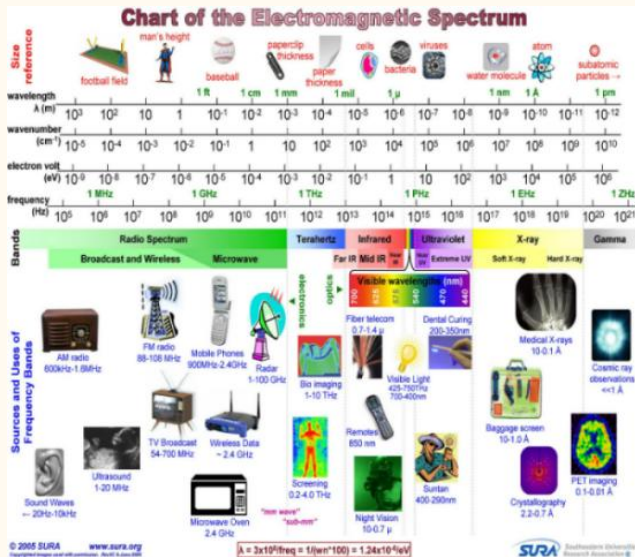
Radioactivity

Scientists in late 1800s made discoveries which would change the course of science, medicine, and history in the 20th Century

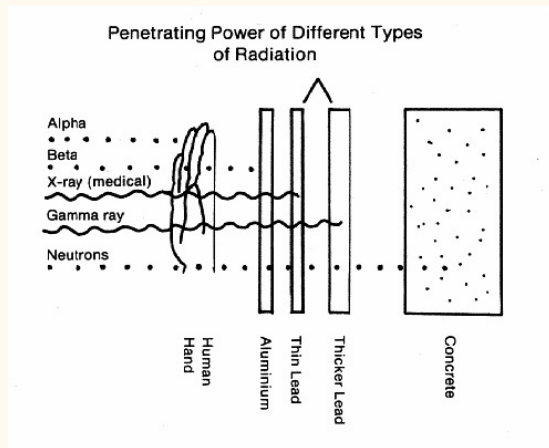
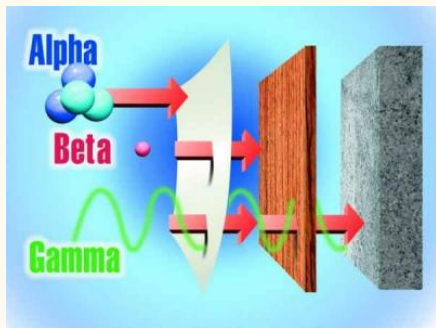


The Nobel Prize in Physics 1903 was divided, one half awarded to Antoine Henri Becquerel *"in recognition of the extraordinary services he has rendered by his discovery of spontaneous radioactivity"* the other half jointly to Pierre Curie and Marie Curie, née Sklodowska *"in recognition of the extraordinary services they have rendered by their joint researches on the radiation phenomena discovered by Professor Henri Becquerel"*.

Radiation is energy as particles or electromagnetic waves, like sunshine



Radiation is energy as particles or electromagnetic waves



Radiation is energy as particles or electromagnetic waves

Charged particles are –

- protons (+)
- alpha (++)
- beta (+/-)
- heavy ions (varying)
- U, Pu (3+, 4+, 5+, 6+)

Neutrons have no charge, but are also ionizing

Ionizing rays are x-rays, g-rays, cosmic rays

Ernest Rutherford discovered the three main kinds of radioactive decay (Chemistry Nobel 08)

Radioactivity

Alpha Decay
Before: $^{263}_{106}\text{Sg}$
After: $^{259}_{104}\text{Rf}$ + ^4_2He (alpha particle)

Beta Minus Decay
Before: $^{14}_6\text{C}$
After: $^{14}_7\text{N}$ + e^- (beta particle) + $\bar{\nu}_e$

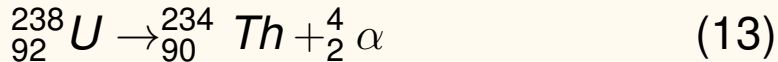
Beta Plus Decay
Before: $^{18}_9\text{F}$
After: $^{18}_8\text{O}$ + e^+ (beta particle) + ν_e

Gamma Decay
Before: $^{152}_{66}\text{Dy}$
After: $^{152}_{66}\text{Dy}$ + photon (gamma ray)

before after

*Radioactive decay transforms a nucleus by emitting different particles. In **alpha** decay, the nucleus releases a ^4_2He nucleus—an alpha particle. In **beta** decay, the nucleus either emits an electron and antineutrino (or a positron and neutrino) or captures an atomic electron and emits a neutrino. A positron is the name for the antiparticle of the electron. Antimatter is composed of anti-particles. Both alpha and beta decays change the original nucleus into a nucleus of a different chemical element. In **gamma** decay, the nucleus lowers its internal energy by emitting a photon—a gamma ray. This decay does not modify the chemical properties of the atom.*

Alpha particle decay is the ejection of a helium atom from a heavy nucleus

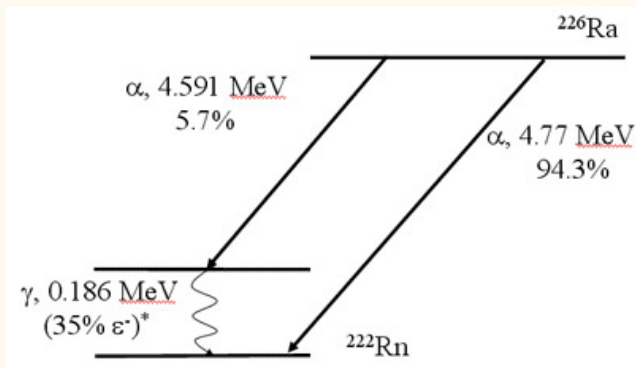


$$Q = 4.268 \text{ MeV} \quad (14)$$

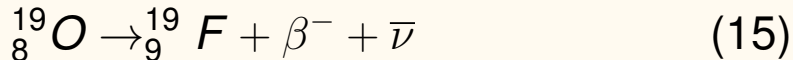
Sometimes nucleus decays to excited state and then emits a gamma ray (for any kind of radiation)

Discrete energy spectrum

Some % decay at certain energy

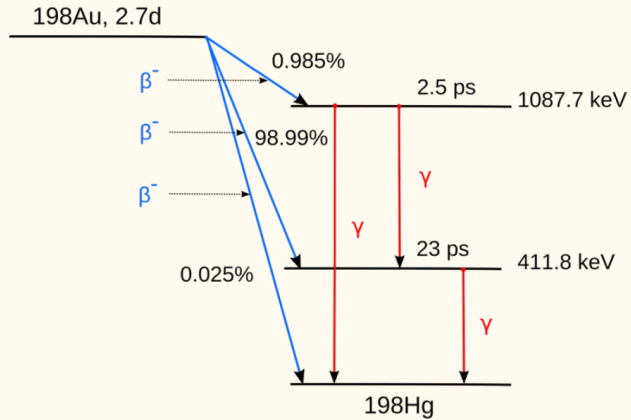


β^- particle decay occurs for unstable nuclei with excessive neutrons

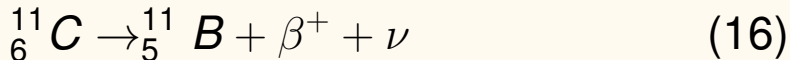


The neutron is converted to a proton and a beta negative (electron) and anti-neutrino (momentum) are ejected

Sometimes nucleus decays to excited state and then emits a gamma ray (for any kind of radiation)

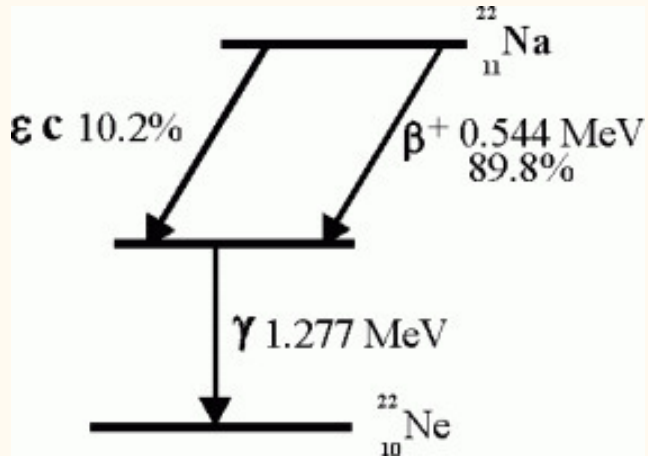


β^+ particle decay occurs for unstable nuclei with deficient neutrons

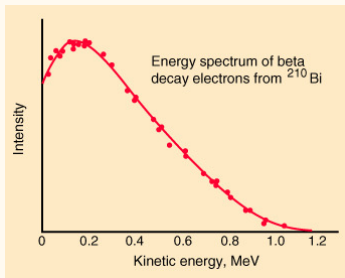


The proton is converted to a neutron and a beta positive (positron) and neutrino (momentum) are ejected

Sometimes nucleus decays to excited state and then emits a gamma ray (for any kind of radiation)



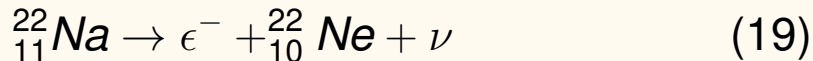
In both forms of beta decay, the energies are exhibited by a continuous energy spectrum



$$\overline{E}(\beta^-) = 0.3E_{MAX} \quad (17)$$

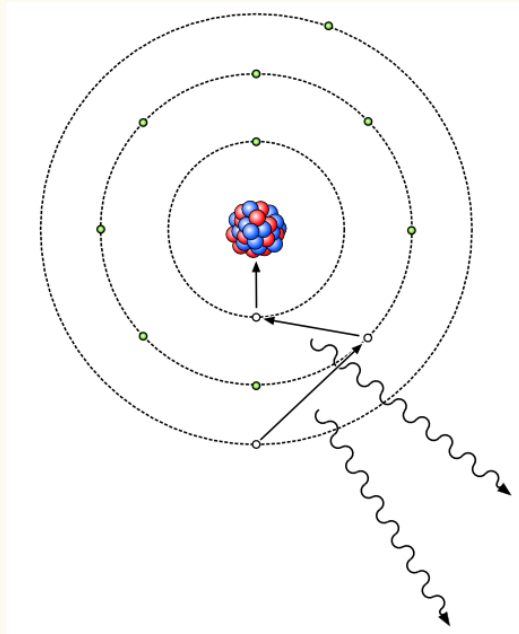
$$\overline{E}(\beta^+) = 0.4E_{MAX} \quad (18)$$

Electron capture also occurs for unstable nuclei with deficient neutrons

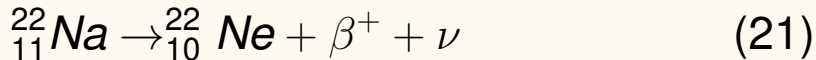
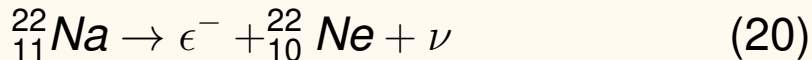


The K shell electron (not free) is absorbed by the nucleus to convert the proton to a neutron

Sometimes nucleus decays to excited state and then emits a gamma ray (for any kind of radiation)



Electron capture and β^+ are competing processes



$$Q = 2.842 \text{ MeV} \quad (22)$$

$Q > 1.022 \text{ MeV}$ positron favored

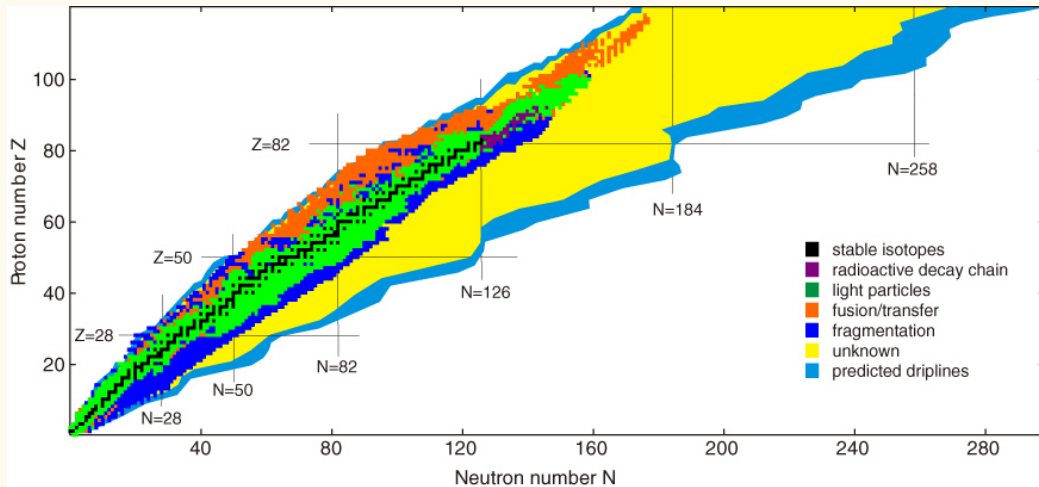
$Q < 1.022 \text{ MeV}$ electron capture favored

Why?

γ -ray emission is not a decay mode, but superfast de-excitation of the nucleus

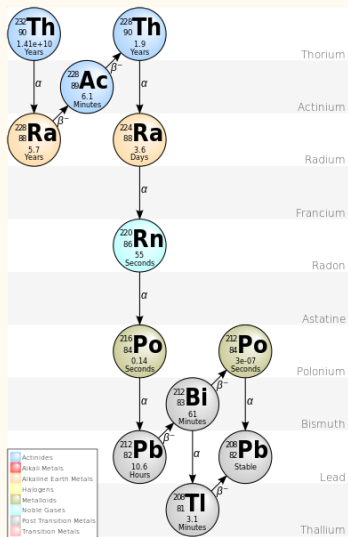
Interactions of gamma rays with matter is a very important branch of nuclear physics

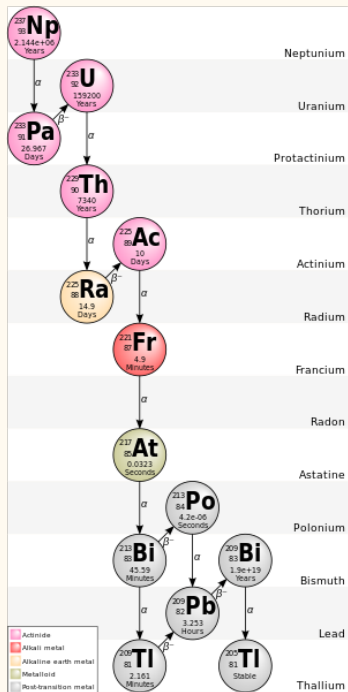
Chart of the nuclides

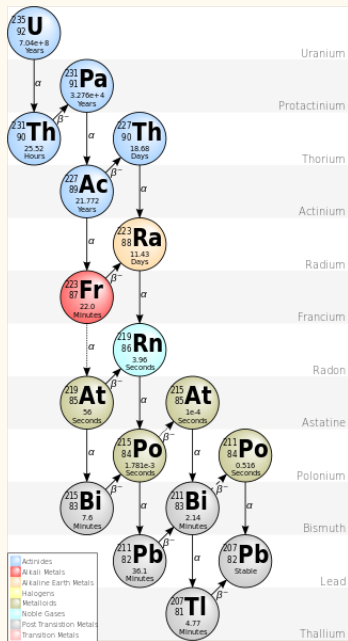


Ra 224 3.66 d α 5.6854 5.4486... γ 241..., C14 σ 12.0	Ra 225 14.8 d β^- 0.3, 0.4 γ 40 e^-	Ra 226 1600 a α 4.7843, 4.601... γ 186... C14 σ 12.8 $\sigma_f < 5E-5$
Fr 223 21.8 m β^- 1.1... α 5.34 γ 50, 80, 235...	Fr 224 3.3 m β^- 2.6, 2.8... γ 216, 132, 837 1341...	Fr 225 4.0 m β^- 1.6... γ 182, 32, 225 200...
Rn 222 3.825 d α 5.48948... γ (510) σ 0.74	Rn 223 23.2 m β^- γ 593, 417, 636 655...	Rn 224 1.78 h β^- γ 261, 266...

Decay chains







Half life

A radioactive isotope decays with a unique characteristic time

Decay is stochastic, characterized by Poisson distribution

So the decay of any one radionuclide cannot be predicted

The probability per time that a nucleus will decay is a constant

Decay is described by a Poisson process

Occurrences are randomly distributed in time

What is the 'occurrence' here?

Homogeneous, long term decay rate is constant

$$\mu \equiv \lambda \Delta t \quad (23)$$

$$P(n) = e^{-\mu} \cdot \frac{\mu^n}{n!} \quad (24)$$

What is the expected value and variance of the distribution?

A radioactive isotope decays with a unique characteristic time

$n(t)$ atoms at t have decayed in dt

$$\lambda n(t) dt \quad (25)$$

The number of atoms that decay on average in the interval $t, (t + dt)$ can be expressed as –

$$-dn(t) = \lambda n(t) dt \quad (26)$$

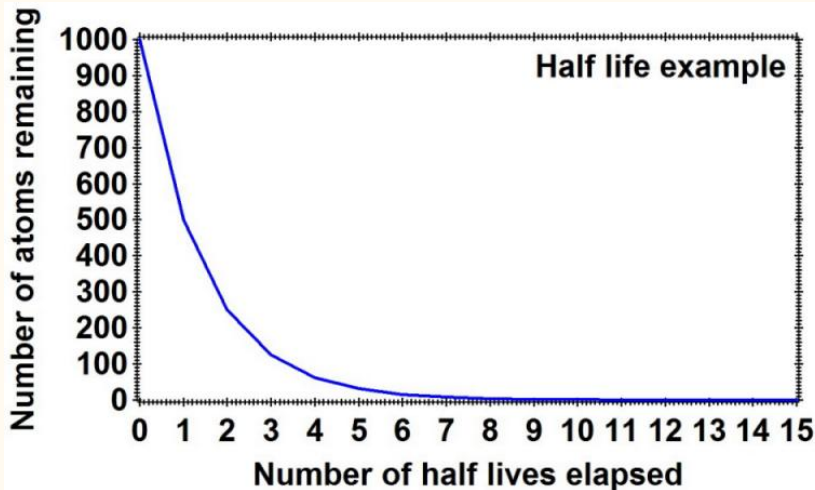
You should be able to solve this for $n(0) = n_0$

Radionuclides are characterized by half life

$$t_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} \quad (27)$$

Half life can be derived from the decay law

A radionuclide is 'negligible' after 10 half-lives have elapsed



Why would this be important?

How was half-life discovered?

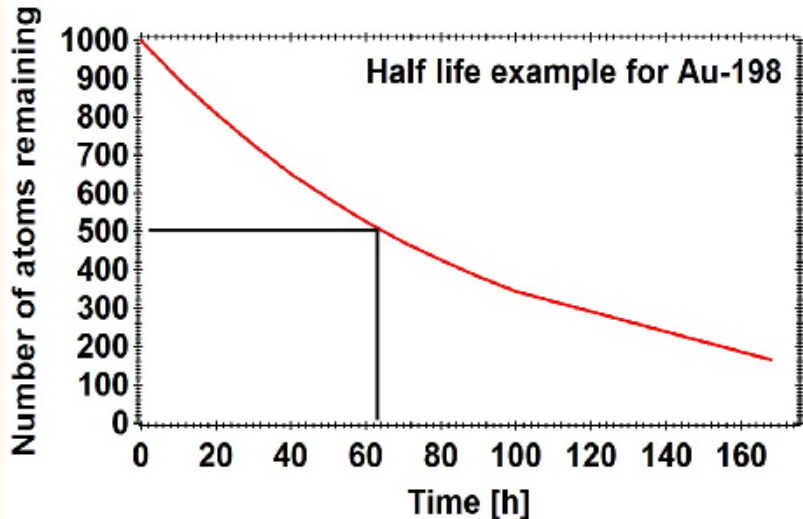
Rutherford discovered alpha and beta particle decay

In the course of, he noticed that there was a characteristic time

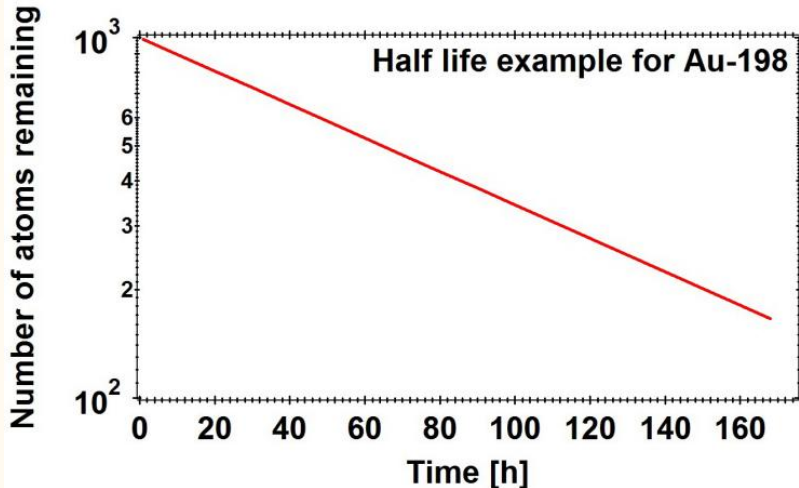
Basically observed decay time was the same for each atom

Experiments with thorium led to the discovery of radon

Then observing the radon gas led to the decay/half-life (65 s)



Engineers like straight lines



Slope of the line is the decay constant

