

## Nuclear Reactions

- Result from transformations in the nucleus
- Involve protons and neutrons
- Often result in *transmutation* into more stable elements
  
- **Participants:**

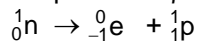
Energy	Type	Symbol(s)	Charge	Mass (g/particle)
Low	Alpha	${}^4_2\text{He}$ , ${}^4_2\alpha$	+2	$6.65 \times 10^{-24}$
Intermediate	Beta	${}^0_{-1}\text{e}$ , ${}^0_{-1}\beta$	-1	$9.11 \times 10^{-28}$
High	Gamma	${}^0_0\gamma$ , $\gamma$	0	0
Intermediate	Positron	${}^0_{+1}\beta$	+1	$9.11 \times 10^{-28}$

1

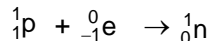
## Nuclear Reactions

**How the heck do we get an electron ( $\beta$ -particle) out of (or in to) the nucleus???**

- Conversion of a neutron to a proton  $\rightarrow \beta$  emission



- Conversion of a proton to a neutron  $\rightarrow e^-$  capture



**Balancing Nuclear Reactions:**

- Total number of **nucleons** (protons and neutrons) remains the same on both sides of the arrow.
- Total mass remains the same (matter isn't created or destroyed)

**Examples:**

Alpha emission from  ${}^{226}\text{Ra}$ :

Beta emission from  ${}^{214}\text{Pb}$ :

Electron Capture by  ${}^{41}\text{Ca}$ :

2

## Why Do Nuclear Reactions Occur?

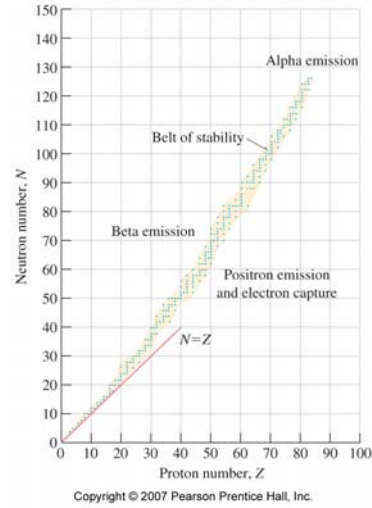
- Reactions occur as the nucleus tries to reach a stable neutron:proton ratio
  - “Peninsula of Stability”
- Ratio depends on "size" of nucleus
  - Balance between proton repulsion and size
  - Reactions continue until stable n:p ratio is reached

**TABLE 25.2** Magic Numbers for Nuclear Stability

Number of Protons	Number of Neutrons
2	2
8	8
20	20
28	28
50	50
82	82
114	126
	184

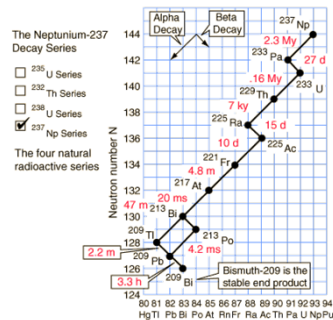
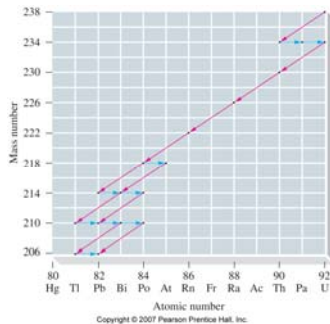
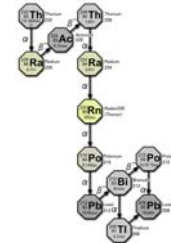
**TABLE 25.3** Distribution of Naturally Occurring Stable Nuclides

Combination	Number of Nuclides
Z even-N even	163
Z even-N odd	55
Z odd-N even	50
Z odd-N odd	4



## Radioactive Decay

- All nuclei of atomic number  $> 83$  are unstable
  - Undergo spontaneous decay
  - Merge into one of three (four?) decay series
    - Uranium, thorium, actinium (*neptunium?*)
    - $^{238}\text{U}$ ,  $^{232}\text{Th}$ ,  $^{235}\text{U}$ ,  $^{237}\text{Np}$



## Energy Changes in Nuclear Reactions

Something must hold the nucleus together.

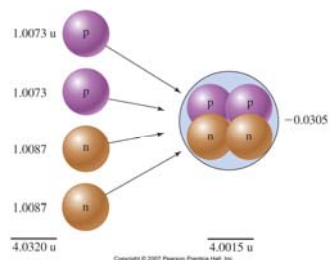
- Nuclear Binding Energy: generally huge!
- Nucleus + Nucleon  $\rightarrow$  New Nucleus reaction is typically exothermic.

Energy comes as a result of the *mass defect*:

- During nuclear synthesis, the mass of the new nucleus is always smaller than the masses of the component nucleons.
- This small, "missing mass" is apparently converted to energy ( $E = mc^2$ ).
- Because  $c$  is so large ( $3 \times 10^8$  m/s) even a small mass defect gives rise to tremendous energy.

$$1\text{MeV} = 1.6022 \times 10^{-13}\text{J}$$

$$\sim 10^{-10}\text{J per amu mass defect}$$



5

## Kinetics of Radioactive Decay:

Nucleus  $\rightarrow$  New Nucleus + Radiation

- Decay follows first-order rate law

$$\ln\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right) = -\lambda t$$

- Often talk about *half-life*,  $t_{1/2} = 0.693/\lambda$ 
  - Time needed for half of the material to undergo decay. (Time for  $N \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}N_0$ )
- Half-Lives vary from fractions of a second to millions of years.

TABLE 25.1 Some Representative Half-Lives

Nuclide	Half-Life <sup>a</sup>	Nuclide	Half-Life <sup>a</sup>	Nuclide	Half-Life <sup>a</sup>
${}^1_1\text{H}$	12.26 y	${}^{40}_{19}\text{K}$	$1.25 \times 10^9$ y	${}^{214}_{84}\text{Po}$	$1.64 \times 10^{-4}$ s
${}^{14}_6\text{C}$	5730 y	${}^{80}_{35}\text{Br}$	17.6 min	${}^{222}_{86}\text{Rn}$	3.823 d
${}^{15}_8\text{O}$	$8.7 \times 10^{-3}$ s	${}^{90}_{38}\text{Sr}$	27.7 y	${}^{226}_{88}\text{Ra}$	$1.60 \times 10^3$ y
${}^{23}_{12}\text{Mg}$	21 h	${}^{131}_{53}\text{I}$	8.040 d	${}^{234}_{90}\text{Th}$	24.1 d
${}^{32}_{15}\text{P}$	14.3 d	${}^{137}_{55}\text{Cs}$	30.23 y	${}^{238}_{92}\text{U}$	$4.51 \times 10^9$ y
${}^{35}_{16}\text{S}$	88 d				

<sup>a</sup>s, second; min, minute; h, hour; d, day; y, year.

6

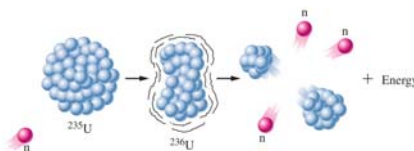
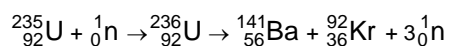
## Radiocarbon Dating: Application of Decay Kinetics

- $^{14}\text{C}$  concentration (activity) in living material is essentially constant. (15 dpm/g carbon)
  - $^{14}\text{C}$  is continually being produced in the upper atmosphere.
  - $^{14}\text{C}$  is continually being consumed by living organisms in the carbon cycle.
  
- Once the living organism dies,  $\beta$ -decay causes the activity to decrease. ( $t_{1/2} = 5730$  years).
  - First-order kinetics tells us how long the decay process has been occurring.
  
- **Example:** A wooden Japanese garden statue from the Kamakura period had a carbon-14 activity of 12.9 dpm/g in 1990. What is the approximate age of the statue?

7

## Alternative Energy Sources: Fission

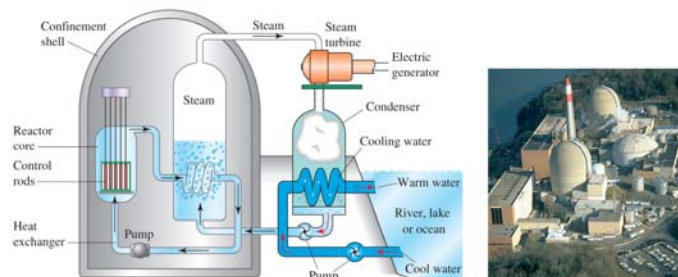
- **Fission Reactions:** "Splitting" the nucleus.



- **Tremendous** energy release ( $2 \times 10^{10}$  kJ/mol!!!)
  - This energy is transferred to heat in nuclear power plant.
- Production of 3 neutrons/mol leads to **chain reaction**
  - Provided *critical mass* is retained.

8

## Fission Reactor – Based Power



- Control rods (neutron absorbers) are used to regulate reaction.
- Requires uranium that is enriched in  $^{235}\text{U}$  (<1% naturally)
  - Breeder Reactors: convert abundant, nonfissile  $^{238}\text{U}$  to fissile material.
- Produces highly radioactive waste.
  - Much with long half-life

9

## Alternative Energy Sources: Fusion

- Several potential reactions, such as
 
$${}^2_1\text{H} + {}^3_1\text{H} \rightarrow {}^4_2\text{He} + {}^1_0\text{n}$$

$${}^2_1\text{H} + {}^2_1\text{H} \rightarrow {}^3_2\text{He} + {}^1_0\text{n}$$
- Potential for a tremendous amount of energy
  - Lots of deuterium in the ocean!
  - Enough potential energy for 1,000,000 years!
  - So what's the holdup?!?
- Requires tremendous amount of heat and pressure to sustain
  - ~10,000,000 K (hot!)
  - Need to maintain and contain plasma
- Not radiation-free. Neutrons have to go somewhere!
  - But much less waste than fission

10

## Monitoring Exposure to Radiation

rad = "radiation absorbed dose":  
energy absorbed per gram of material.

rem = "radiation equivalent man":  
accounts for varying effects of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  radiation.

$$\text{rem} = \text{rad} \times \text{quality factor}$$

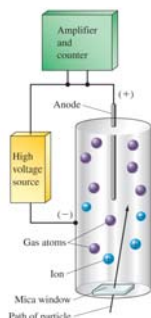


TABLE 25.4 Radiation Units<sup>a</sup>

Unit	Definition
<b>Radioactive decay:</b>	
Becquerel, Bq	$\text{s}^{-1}$ (disintegrations per second)
Curie, Ci	An amount of radioactive material decaying at the same rate as 1 g of radium ( $3.70 \times 10^{10} \text{ dis s}^{-1}$ ) 1 Ci = $3.70 \times 10^{10}$ Bq
<b>Absorbed dose:</b>	
Gray, Gy	One gray of radiation deposits one joule of energy per kilogram of matter
Rad	1 rad = 0.01 Gy
<b>Equivalent dose:</b>	
Sievert, Sv	1 Sv = 100 rem
Rem	1 rem = 1 rad $\times$ Q The quality factor, Q, is about 1 for X rays, $\gamma$ rays, and $\beta^-$ particles; 3 for slow neutrons; 10 for protons and fast neutrons; and 20 for $\alpha$ particles

<sup>a</sup>SI units are shown in blue. Sources of  $\alpha$  radiation are relatively harmless when external to the body and extremely hazardous when taken internally, as in the lungs or stomach. Other forms of radiation (X rays,  $\gamma$  rays), because they are highly penetrating, are hazardous even when external to the body.

Copyright © 2007 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.

11

## Applications of Nuclear Chemistry

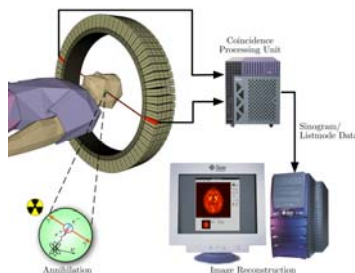
### Medical Applications

- PET Scans
- Radiotracers
- Cancer therapy

### Fundamental Applications

- Reaction mechanisms
- Chemical structures
- Chemical analysis
  - Neutron activation analysis:

[http://www.metmuseum.org/special/set\\_in\\_stone/index.asp](http://www.metmuseum.org/special/set_in_stone/index.asp)



12