

# Nuclear Chemistry

So far only impt. factor in rx's. has been the number & arrangement of  $e^-$   
- Nucleus didn't matter

## Nuclear Reactions

- changes in matter that originate in the nucleus

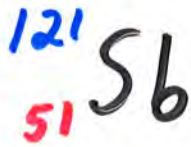
## Review

nucleus contains protons & neutrons  
nucleons

## Symbol

mass no. (p+n) → A  
atomic no. (p) Z  
← chemical symbol

Diff. isotopes of an element are now impt. & are distinguished by mass no.



antimony-121



antimony-123

A nucleus can undergo change in several ways:

Some nuclei are unstable & spontaneously emit particles & electromagnetic radiation.

Radioactivity - The spontaneous emission from the nucleus of the atom

Radioisotope - Isotopes that are radioactive

## 1) Radioactivity

3 common types:  $\alpha$   $\beta$   $\gamma$

2 less common

a) Alpha Particles,  $\alpha^{2+}$  or  $\alpha$

helium-4 nucleus,  ${}^4_2\text{He}^{2+}$  or  ${}^4_2\text{He}$

- omit  $2+$  charge bec. nuclear rx's do not depend on chemical form



Note: Conservation of nucleons

$$238 = 234 + 4 \quad \text{mass}$$

$$92 = 90 + 2 \quad \text{charge}$$

Polonium-210 undergoes  
 $\alpha$ -emission.

What is the product nucleus?

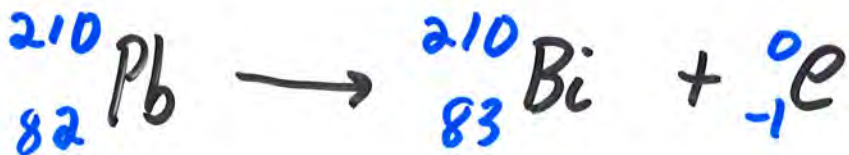
## b) Beta Particles, $\beta$ ( $\beta^-$ )

high energy electrons  ${}^0_{-1}e$  ( ${}^0_{-1}\beta$ )

superscript 0 - small mass compared to (other) nucleons

subscript -1 - neg. charge, opposite of proton

$\beta$  emission has effect of converting a neutron into a proton



**Note:** conservation of nucleons & charge

### c) Gamma Rays, $\gamma$

Not particles - electro mag.

radiation of very short wavelength  
 $\sim 10^{-12} \text{ m}$

$\gamma$  - no mass, no charge

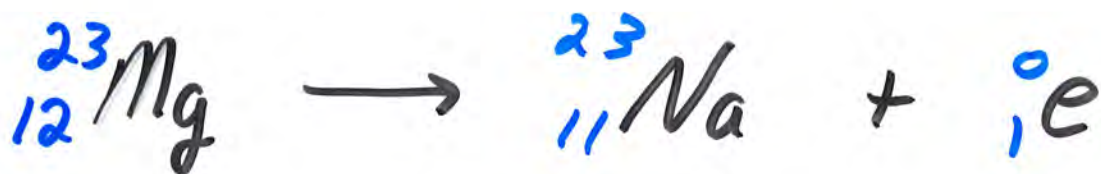
Accompanies other radioactive emission

- the energy given off when excited states of products convert to ground state

#### d) Positrons, ${}^0_1e$ ( $\beta^+$ )

same mass as an electron  
but positive charge

${}^0_1e$  - arises from conversion  
of proton into a neutron



Positrons have very short  
lifetimes - collides w. an  
 $e^-$  & is annihilated,  
producing gamma rays



## e) Electron Capture, EC

X-rays

Nucleus captures an inner-orbital  $e^-$

- has effect of converting a proton to a neutron



photon is emitted when another orbital  $e^-$  drops to the lower level, filling the vacancy.



	Helium nucleus	Proton	Neutron	Electron	Positron	Photon
symbol	4 He 2	1 p 1	1 n 0	0 e -1	0 e 1	0 $\gamma$ 0
mass	4	1	1	0	0	0
charge	2+	1+	0	1-	1+	0
particle	<b>alpha</b>			<b>beta</b>		<b>gamma</b>
effect of loss	mass down 4, atomic number down 2 2 n, 2 p $\longrightarrow$			no mass $\Delta$ , at. number up 1 n $\longrightarrow$ p *	no mass $\Delta$ , at. number down 1 p $\longrightarrow$ n *	no mass $\Delta$ , no at. number change
occurs most often	elements above at. no. 83 (high mass, high at. no.)			<u>belt</u> above - above belt of stability (n>p)	below belt of stability (n $\approx$ p) *	burst of light from excited state

Mass of particle lower, Energy of particles higher, penetrating power greater  $\longrightarrow$  (Slingshot out of nucleus)

\* If electron is captured, same effect as positron loss -  
occurs more often as at. number increases

## 2) Nuclear Stability

Which nuclei are radioactive & how do they decay?

### Observations

1. Largest stable nucleus is  $^{209}_{83}\text{Bi}$

Nuclei w  $Z > 83$  (+  $A > 209$ )  
tend to undergo  $\alpha$  emission.

Reduces  $A$  by 4 +  $Z$  by 2

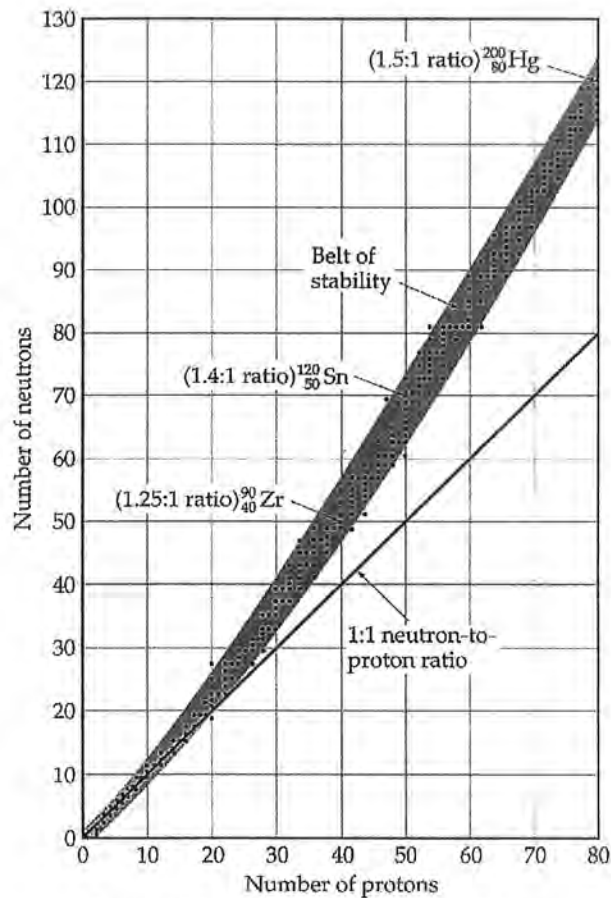
2. Nuclei w. 2, 8, 20, 50, 82 or  
126 (for  $n$ ) protons or neutrons  
are more stable

- not radioactive

"magic numbers"

- closed nuclear shells

# Trends of nuclear stability



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1. Isotopes with 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, or 82 protons and/or 0, 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, or 126 neutrons:

- Suggests that nuclei, like electrons reside in orbitals
- Examples of “extra” stable isotopes:  ${}^{208}\text{Pb}$ ,  ${}^{118}\text{Sn}$ ,  ${}^4\text{He}$

2. Nuclei with even #n and/or #p tend to be stable:

Number of Stable Isotopes	Protons	Neutrons
157	Even	Even
53	Even	Odd
50	Odd	Even
5	Odd	Odd

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3. Rate of radioactive decay is NOT affected by:

- Temperature
- Pressure
- Physical state
- Chemical state (i.e. elemental  ${}^{235}\text{U}$  and  ${}^{235}\text{UF}_6$  decay at same rate)

3. Stability can be correlated  
w. neutron/proton ratio

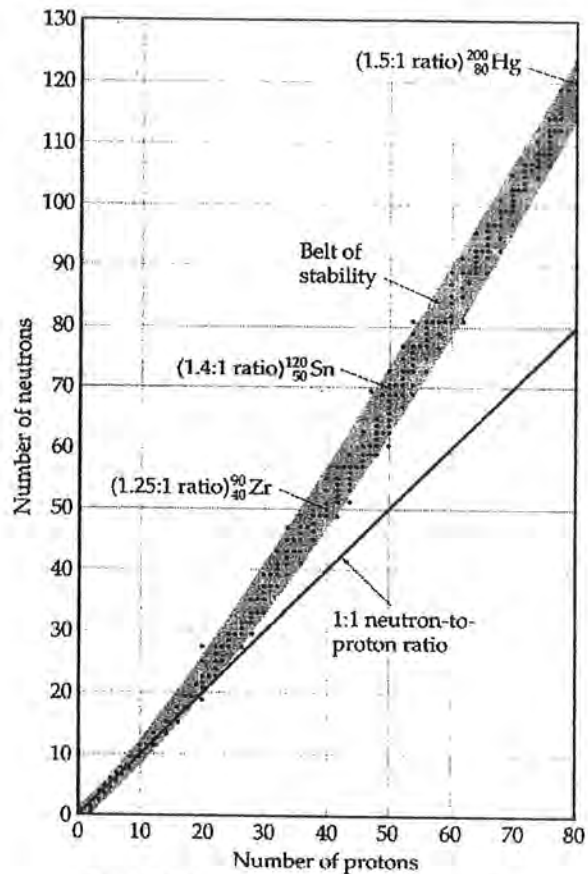
For light elements find  $N/p \approx 1$

Heavier elements contain more  
neutrons than protons

$${}_{83}^{209}\text{Bi} \quad N/p = 1.5$$

Nuclei that lie outside this  
zone of stability undergo  
nuclear transformations that  
bring them into or closer  
to this zone

# “Belt” of stable isotopes



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## Typical radioactive decay patterns:

### 1. Isotopes with $\#n:\#p >$ belt are radioactive:

- Tend to undergo beta decay (emission)
- Results in increase in  $\#p$  due to decay of neutron
- Ex:  $^{14}\text{C} \rightarrow ^{14}\text{N} + e^-$

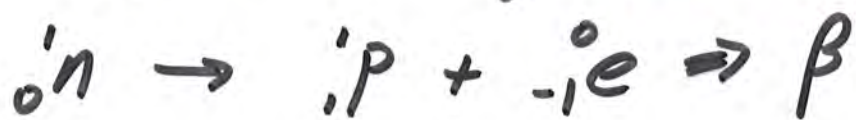
### 2. Isotopes with $\#n:\#p <$ belt are radioactive:

- Tend to undergo  $e^-$  capture or positron emission
- Results in increase in  $\#n$  due to loss of proton
- Ex:  $^{118}\text{Xe} \rightarrow ^{118}\text{I} + ^0_1e$

### 3. All isotopes with $\geq 84$ protons are radioactive:

- Tend to undergo alpha decay (emission)
- May lead to isotopes of cases 1 and 2
- Ultimately, a stable isotope is obtained and the decay stops

A nucleus w. too high  $n/p$  ratio  
(to left + above line) can lower  
ratio by emitting  $\beta$  particle.



$$n/p = 1.3$$

$$n/p = 1$$

light,  $n/p$  should be  $\approx 1$

${}^{14}_7N \Rightarrow$  one of the 5  
stable odd-odd.

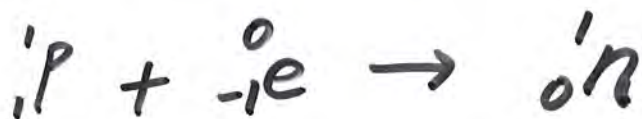
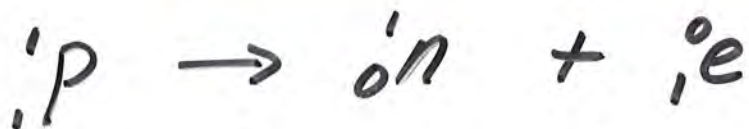


lose  $n$ , gain  $p$   
- move closer to  
stability zone

A nucleus w. too low n/p ratio  
(to rt. + below line) needs opposite  
process.



$\therefore$  either positron emission  
or electron capture



$\beta^+$  more common for lighter nuclei



$$n/p = 0.82 \quad n/p = 1$$

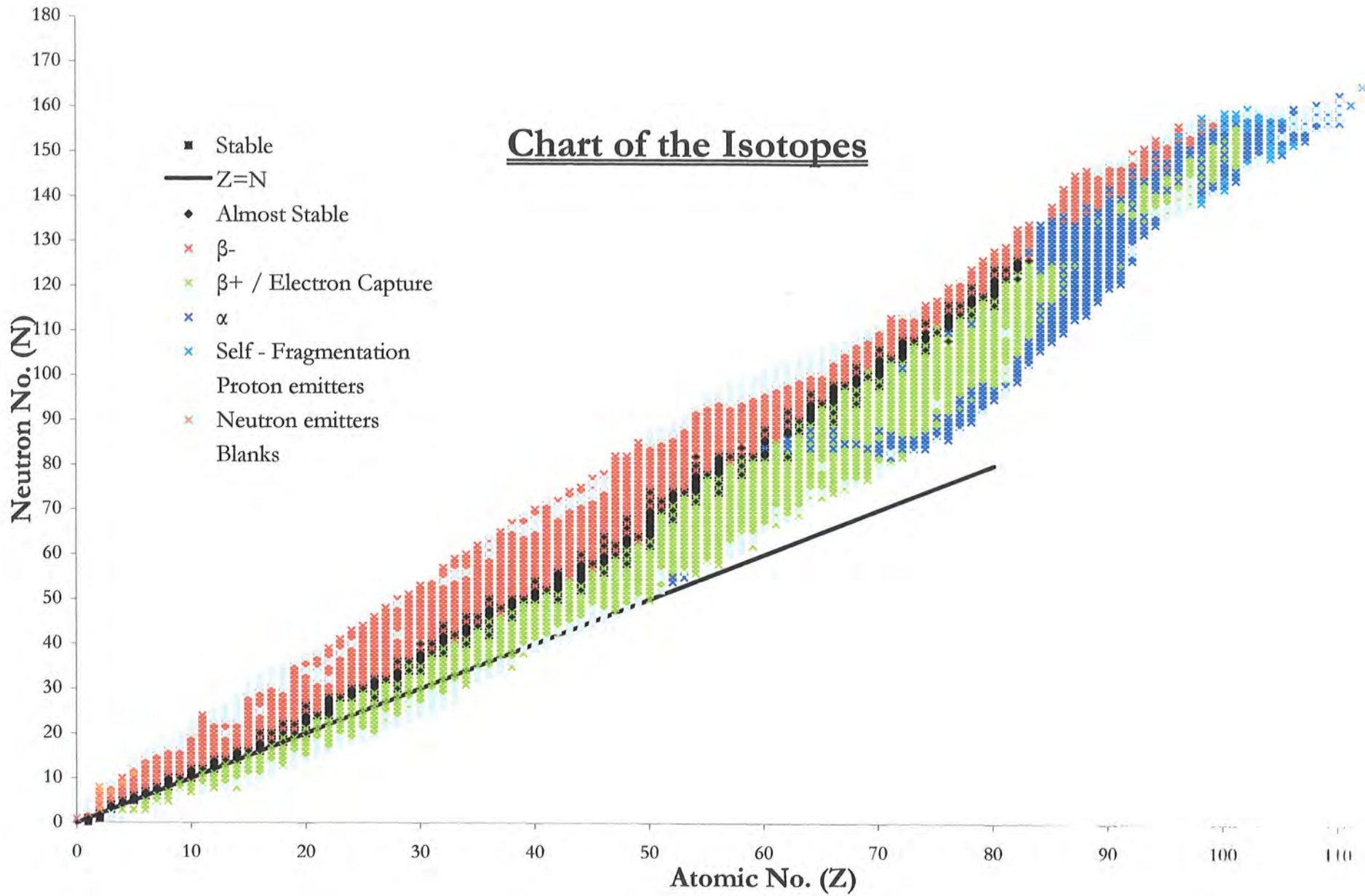
E.C. more common for heavier nuclei



$$n/p = 1.26$$

$$n/p = 1.30$$

# Chart of the Isotopes

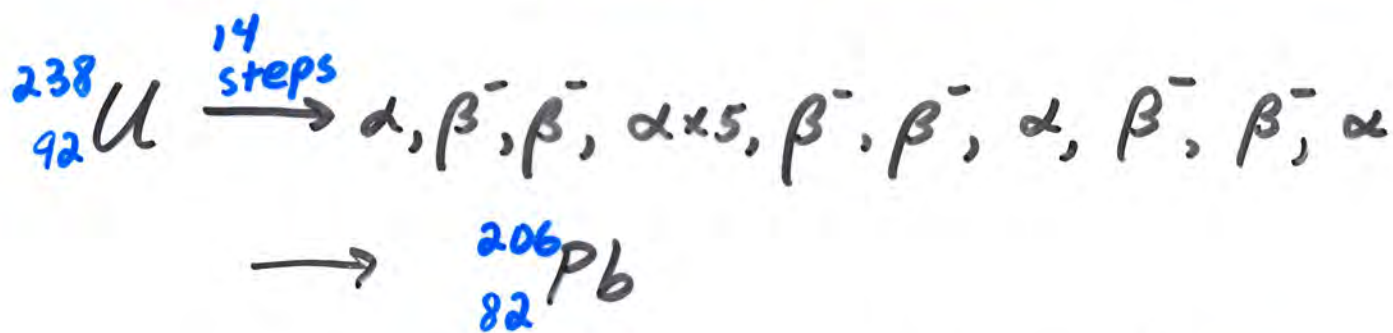




# a) Radioactive Series or Nuclear Disintegration Series

Some nuclei cannot gain stability in a single step

∴ Series of emissions occur until a stable nucleus is achieved.



$$8\alpha \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} A: -32 \\ Z: -16 \end{matrix}$$

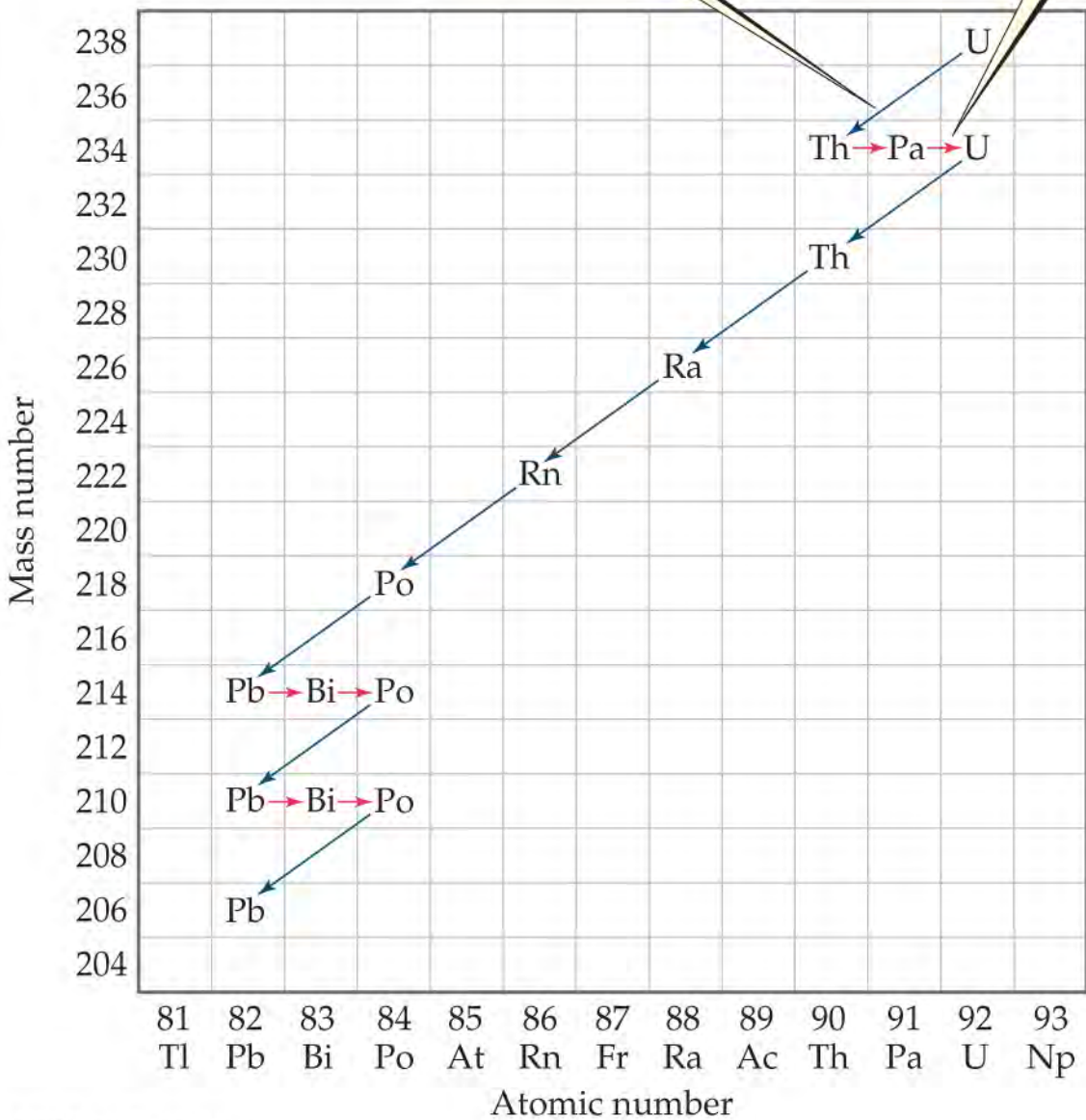
$$6\beta \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} A: -0 \\ Z: +6 \end{matrix}$$



These 3 series occur in nature

Each blue arrow represents decay by alpha emission

Each red arrow represents decay by beta emission



### 3) Artificial Transmutations

Conversion of 1 atom into another

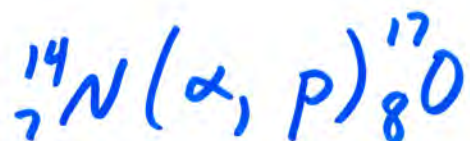
Natural radioactivity ( $\alpha$  &  $\beta$ )  
transforms one nucleus into another

Also, can be accomplished artificially

Rutherford, 1919 : 1<sup>st</sup> successful  
artificial trans.



Represent conversion by listing,  
in order: target nucleus,  
bombarding particle, ejected  
particle, product nucleus



Other possible projectiles:  
neutrons; deuterons,  $d$  ( ${}^2_1\text{H}$ ); protons,  $p$

In some cases product nucleus is unstable + decays.

### a) Transuranium Elements

Follow U in periodic table  
- prepared by bombardment tech.  
(not naturally occurring)

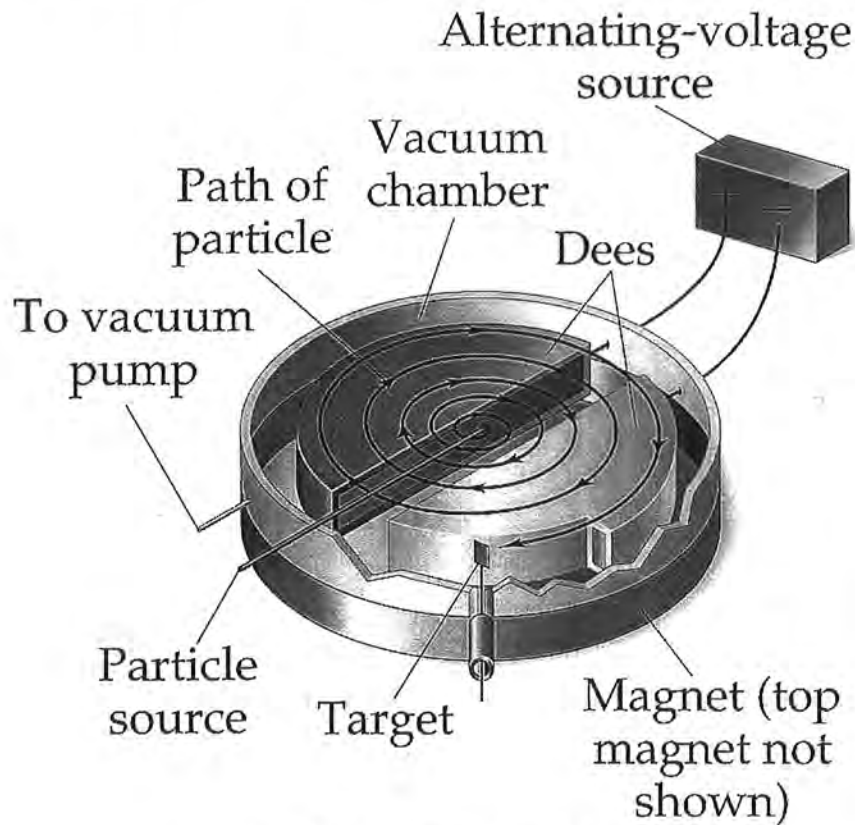


Target nucleus can be artificial  
so synthesis takes several steps

# Nuclear reactions: “Atom smashers”



Can take place in a “cyclotron”:



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Large hadron collider at CERN



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Another method of getting atoms of highest at. no.

- Bombardment using nuclei (projectile) of more massive elements than H, He



e.g. dubnium,  $Z=105$



#### 4) Rates of Radioactive Decay

Rates are 1<sup>st</sup> order

- Depend only on amt. of  
material

**Not** affected by chemical  
form, temp., pressure

- property that is both  
useful and harmful

useful - dependable, constant source

harmful - can't get rid of it

- loses activity at its  
own rate

Recall from kinetics,

First-order rate law is,

$$\text{rate} = \frac{-d[A]}{dt} = k[A]$$

or

$$\ln \frac{[A]_t}{[A]_0} = -kt$$

$$\ln \frac{N_t}{N_0} = -kt$$

$N \equiv$  # of nuclei of a particular radioisotope

If we know a rate (decay) constant,  $k$ , we can determine fraction remaining at any time



A very useful time is the half-life

- the time req. for half the sample to decay

If time is  $t_{1/2}$ ,

$$\ln \frac{\frac{1}{2}N_0}{N_0} = -k t_{1/2}$$

$$-0.693 = -k t_{1/2}$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

For  ${}_{38}^{90}\text{Sr}$ ,  $t_{1/2} = 28.8 \text{ yr}$

$$k = \frac{0.693}{t_{1/2}} = 2.41 \times 10^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$$

$$\frac{2.41 \times 10^{-2}}{\text{yr}} \times \frac{1 \text{ yr}}{365 \text{ d}} \times \frac{1 \text{ d}}{24 \text{ hr}} \times \frac{1 \text{ hr}}{3600 \text{ s}} = 7.63 \times 10^{-10} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

Rates of decay are expressed in terms of half-life

- A constant for a given isotope

Anything from fractions of a second to billions of years

e.g.  $\frac{1}{2}$ -life of strontium-90 is 28.8 yr



After 28.8 yr,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of sample  ${}_{38}^{90}\text{Sr}$  has been converted to yttrium.

Another 28.8 yr (total of 57.6 yr)  $\Rightarrow$   $\frac{1}{4}$  original

${}_{38}^{90}\text{Sr}$  is possible product of nuclear fission of  ${}_{92}^{235}\text{U}$  - used in nuclear weapons + reactors

# Rates of radioactive decay

Radioactive decay follows first order kinetics:

$$\ln[A]_t - \ln[A]_0 = -kt$$

$$t_{1/2} = 0.693/k$$

TABLE 21.4 The Half-lives and Type of Decay for Several Radioisotopes

	Isotope	Half-life (yr)	Type of Decay
Natural radioisotopes	$^{238}_{92}\text{U}$	$4.5 \times 10^9$	Alpha
	$^{235}_{92}\text{U}$	$7.0 \times 10^8$	Alpha
	$^{232}_{90}\text{Th}$	$1.4 \times 10^{10}$	Alpha
	$^{40}_{19}\text{K}$	$1.3 \times 10^9$	Beta
	$^{14}_6\text{C}$	5715	Beta
Synthetic radioisotopes	$^{239}_{94}\text{Pu}$	24,000	Alpha
	$^{137}_{55}\text{Cs}$	30	Beta
	$^{90}_{38}\text{Sr}$	28.8	Beta
	$^{131}_{53}\text{I}$	0.022	Beta

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Radioactive decay rates are not affected by T, P, physical state, or compound state

1950's : Nuclear weapons testing  
in atm

- radioactive clouds containing  
 $^{90}\text{Sr}$  which settled on grass  
& ingested by cows.

Shows up in milk -  
acts like Ca  
 $\Rightarrow$  incorporated in bone

$\beta^-$  emitter for rest of life  
( $3 t_{1/2}$ 's = 87 yr)

$\beta^-$  stopped by 4-10 mm of  
living cells

- Internal damage : bone cancer  
leukemia