

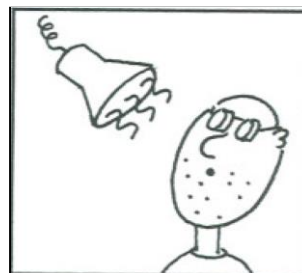
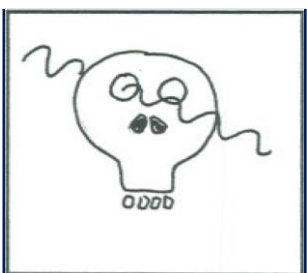
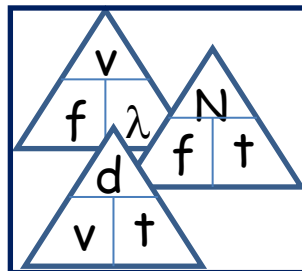
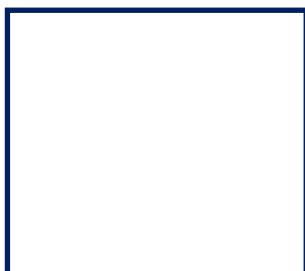
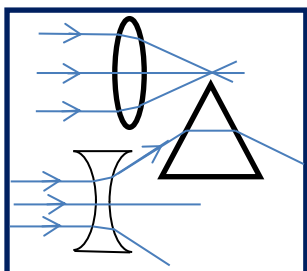
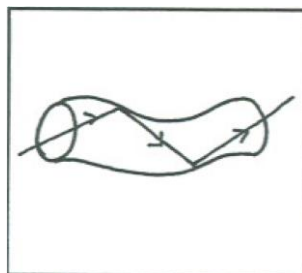
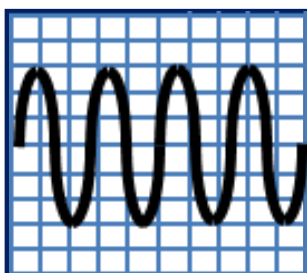
Cumbernauld
Academy

Physics

Name

Waves and Radiation Summary

Part 1 Waves



Waves and Radiation

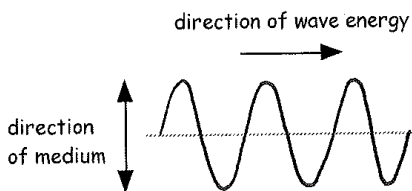
A - Waves

All waves transfer energy.

Some waves require a medium to travel through including water and others like light can travel through a vacuum, which has no particles to travel through.

There are 2 different types of waves, which are transverse waves and a longitudinal waves.

Transverse waves

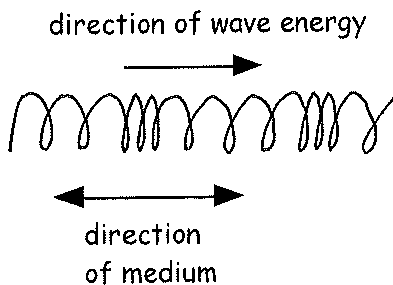


In transverse waves the particles of the medium vibrate at right angles to the direction of the wave energy transfer.

Examples include

tidal waves, light, water, radio, microwave,

Longitudinal Waves



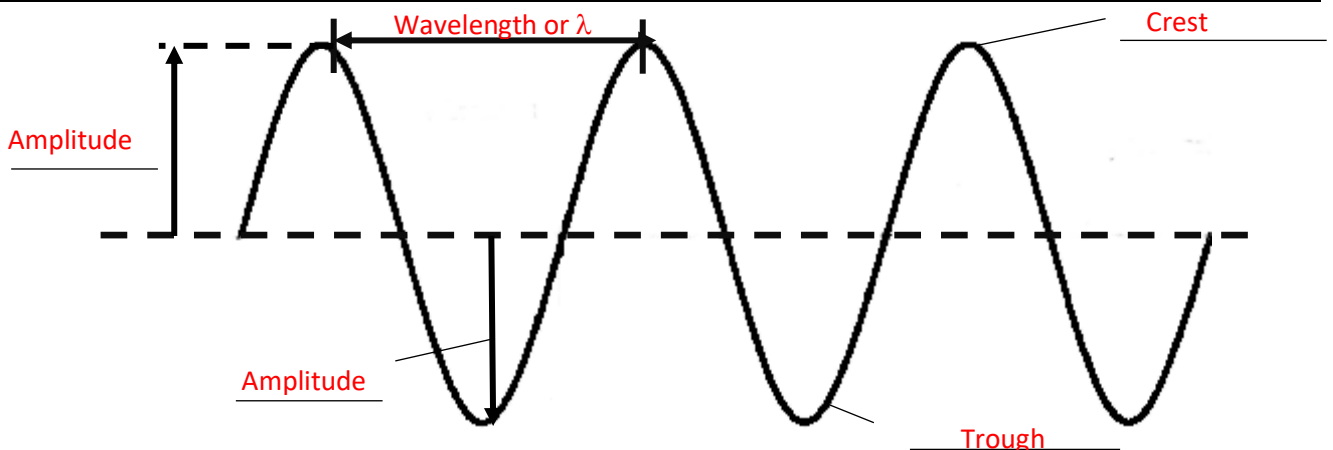
In longitudinal waves the particles of the medium vibrate in the same direction as the wave energy transfer.

An example of a longitudinal waves is sound.

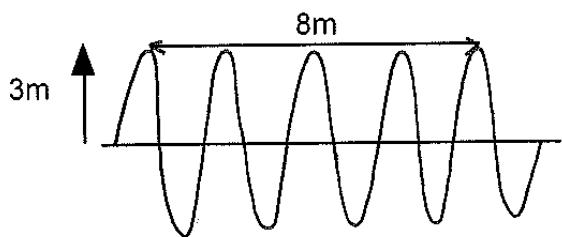
Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 8 Questions 1-6

Wave Words

Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Definition	Unit	Unit Symbol
crest		Highest point on a wave		
trough		Lowest point on the wave		
frequency	f	Number of waves that pass a point in <u>one</u> second.	Hertz	Hz
period	T	Time for a wave to pass a <u>point</u> .	second	s
wavelength	λ	Distance from one point on a wave to the same <u>point</u> on the next wave.	metre	m
amplitude		Size of maximum disturbance from the zero position.	metres	m
speed	v	Distance travelled by a wave in <u>one</u> second.	metres per second	ms ⁻¹ or m/s



Example 1 - Below is a diagram representing a water wave.



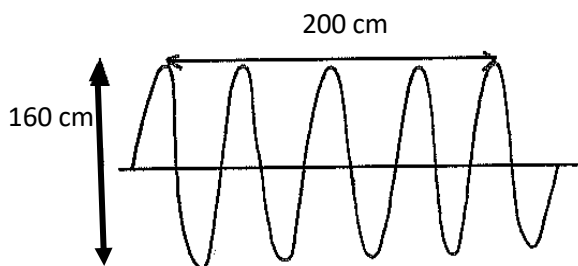
(a) What is the amplitude of the water wave?

Amplitude = 3 m

(b) What is the wavelength of the water wave?

Wavelength = $\frac{8}{4} = 2 \text{ m}$

Example 2 - Below is a diagram representing a sound wave.



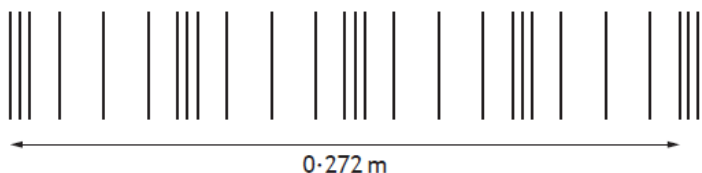
(a) What is the amplitude of the sound wave?

Amplitude = $\frac{160}{2} = 80 \text{ cm}$

(b) What is the wavelength of the sound wave?

Wavelength = $\frac{200}{4} = 50 \text{ cm}$

Example 3 - Calculate the wavelength this longitudinal wave.



$\lambda = \frac{0.272}{4}$

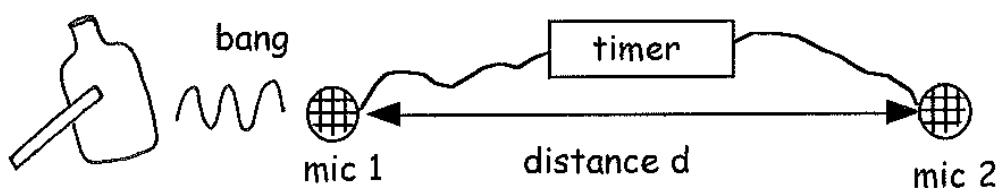
$\lambda = 0.068 \text{ m}$

Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 9 Questions 1-10

Speed of Sound in Air

To measure the speed of sound connect 2 microphones to a timer.

Measure the distance between the microphones using a metre stick.



Make a loud sound.

When the sound gets to microphone 1 the timer starts and when the sound gets to microphone 2 the timer stops.

Speed of sound = $\frac{\text{distance between mic 1 and mic 2}}{\text{time to travel from mic 1 to mic 2}}$

The speed of sound in air is 340 m s⁻¹.

The speed of light in air is 300 000 000 ms⁻¹ or 3 x 10⁸ m s⁻¹

Light is much faster than sound.

Examples that show the speed of light is faster than the speed of sound include:

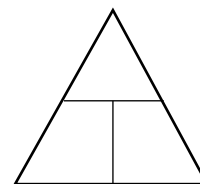
Thunder and lightning - in a thunder storm sound and light are created at exactly the same time. We see the lightning first because the light signal travels faster than the sound, so it gets to us first.

Fireworks, golfer hitting a ball at a distance,

Speed, distance and time.

$$\text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}}$$

$$v = \frac{d}{t}$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
distance	d	metres	m
time	t	seconds	s
speed	v	metres per second	m/s or m s ⁻¹

Example - What distance would a sound wave travel in 0.6s?

$d = d$ $t = 0.6s$ $v = 340 \text{ m s}^{-1}$	$d = vt$ $d = 340 \times 0.6$ $d = 204 \text{ m}$
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Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 2 Q1-5 (4) + Page 3 Questions 1-10 (5)

Scientific Notation

2,300,000	= 2.3 x 10 ⁶	4,560,000,000	= 4.56 x 10 ⁹
300,000,000	= 3 x 10 ⁸	806,000	= 8.06 x 10 ⁵
0.005	= 5 x 10 ⁻³	0.000 000 047	= 4.7 x 10 ⁻⁸

Prefixes

Using prefixes makes writing big and small numbers much easier.

Prefix	Symbol	Factor	Scientific Notation
nano	n	0.000 000 001	10 ⁻⁹
micro	μ	0.000 001	10 ⁻⁶
milli	m	0.001	10 ⁻³
kilo	k	1 000	10 ³
mega	M	1 000 000	10 ⁶
giga	G	1 000 000 000	10 ⁹

Another common prefix that is used is cm. To convert from cm to m, divide by 100.

4 km	= 4 x 1000	or 4 x 10 ³ m	5.7 cm	= 5.7 ÷ 100	or 5.7 x 10 ⁻² m
12.6 Mm	= 12.6 x 1 000 000	or 12.6 x 10 ⁶ m	6.2 ms	= 6.2 ÷ 1000	or 6.2 x 10 ⁻³ s
5.23 Gm	= 5.23 x 1 000 000 000	or 5.23 x 10 ⁹ m	40 μs	= 40 ÷ 1 000 000	or 40 x 10 ⁻⁶ s

Example Calculate the time, in microseconds, for light to travel 2.5 km?

$$t = t$$

$$d = 2.5 \text{ km} = 2.5 \times 10^3 \text{ m}$$

$$v = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$d = vt$$

$$t = \frac{d}{v}$$

$$t = \frac{2.5 \times 10^3}{3 \times 10^8}$$

$$t = 0.0000083 \text{ s}$$

$$t = 8.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$$

$$t = 8.3 \mu\text{s}$$

Converting time to seconds

Time, quite often, needs to be converted into seconds.

$$\text{ms} = \quad \div 1000 \quad \text{or} \times 10^{-3} \text{ s} \qquad \text{e.g } 5.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$$

To convert

Minutes to seconds	x No of minutes by 60
Hours to seconds	x No of hours by 60 then by 60
Days to seconds	x No of days by 24 then by 60 then by 60
Years to seconds	x No of years by 365 then by 24 then by 60 then by 60

Example Calculate the distance light would travel in 1.7 minutes?

$$d = d$$

$$t = 1.7 \text{ mins} = 102 \text{ s}$$

$$v = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$d = vt$$

$$d = 3 \times 10^8 \times 102$$

$$d = 3.06 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}$$

Ultrasound

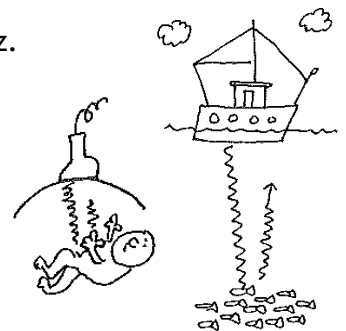
Humans can hear sound waves with frequencies between 20 and 20 000 Hz.

Sounds with a frequency above 20 000 Hz are called ultrasound.

Reflections

The reflection of waves, including sound and ultrasound, can be used to:

- detect the depth of the sea bed
- detect shoals of fish
- detect walls or other obstacles when vehicles are reversing
- detect cracks in metal objects like plane wings
- build up pictures of the inside of the body e.g. unborn baby



By using the total time between the signal being transmitted and received the total distance can be calculated. From this the distance between the object and the transmitter can be calculated by dividing the total distance by two. The same idea can be applied to echoes from buildings or walls.

Example

The diagram shows a girl standing at a fireworks display.

There is a tall building nearby.

The firework explodes, the girl hears two bangs 0.6s apart.

Calculate the distance between the girl and the building?



$$\begin{aligned}d &= d \\t &= 0.6 \text{ s} \\v &= 340 \text{ m s}^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Distance} \\d &= vt \\d &= 340 \times 0.6 \\d &= 204 \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

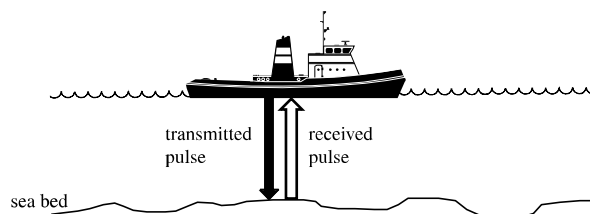
Distance between the girl and the building

$$d = \frac{204}{2} = 102 \text{ m}$$

Example

The depth of the seabed is measured using pulses of ultrasound. The ultrasound is transmitted by a stationary ship. The ultrasound is reflected from the seabed as shown.

One pulse of ultrasound is received back at the ship 0.3s after being sent out.



(a) (i) Use the data sheet to find the speed of the ultrasound in the water.
 1500 m s^{-1}

(ii) Calculate the depth of the sea bed.

$$\begin{aligned}d &= d \\t &= 0.3 \text{ s} \\v &= 1500 \text{ m s}^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Distance} \\d &= vt \\d &= 1500 \times 0.3 \\d &= 450 \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

Depth of the seabed

$$d = \frac{450}{2} = 225 \text{ m}$$

(b) The ship then sailed into shallower water.

How does the time to transmit and receive a pulse of ultrasound compare to 0.3 s now?

The time has decreased e.g. 0.1 s

Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 5 Questions 11-18 + Page 16 Questions 1-8

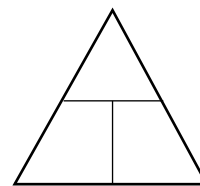
Frequency

Frequency is the number of waves that pass a point in one second.

From this we can write the following equation.

$$\text{frequency} = \frac{\text{Number of waves}}{\text{time in seconds}}$$

$$f = \frac{N}{t}$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
frequency	f	Hertz	Hz
Number of Waves	N	waves	waves
time	t	seconds	s

Example 1 600 waves pass a point in 2 minutes. What is the frequency?

$$N = 600 \text{ waves}$$

$$t = 2 \text{ mins} = 2 \times 60 = 120 \text{ s}$$

$$f = f$$

$$f = \frac{N}{t}$$

$$f = \frac{600}{120}$$

$$f = 5 \text{ Hz}$$

Example 2 The frequency of water waves is 0.5 Hz.

Calculate the number of water waves that pass a point in 1 min 20 seconds.

$$f = 0.5 \text{ Hz}$$

$$N = N$$

$$t = 1 \text{ min } 20 \text{ s} = 80 \text{ s}$$

$$f = \frac{N}{t}$$

$$N = ft$$

$$N = 0.5 \times 80$$

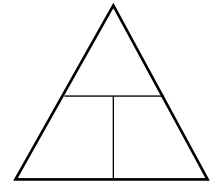
$$N = 40 \text{ waves}$$

Speed, Frequency and Wavelength

The equation that relates speed, frequency and wavelength is

$$\text{speed} = \text{frequency} \times \text{wavelength}$$

$$v = f \lambda$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
speed	v	metres per second	m/s or m s ⁻¹
frequency	f	Hertz	Hz
wavelength	l	metres	m

Example 1 A sound wave has a frequency of 12 kHz.

(a) What is the wavelength of the sound wave?

$$f = 12 \text{ kHz} = 12 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$$

$$v = 340 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda \text{ metres}$$

$$v = f\lambda$$

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{340}{12 \times 10^3}$$

$$\lambda = 0.0283 \text{ m}$$

(b) Calculate the time it will take the sound wave to travel 6.8 km?

$$t = t \text{ seconds}$$

$$v = 340 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$d = 6.8 \text{ km} = 6.8 \times 10^3 \text{ m}$$

$$d = vt$$

$$t = \frac{d}{v}$$

$$t = \frac{6.8 \times 10^3}{340}$$

$$t = 20 \text{ s}$$

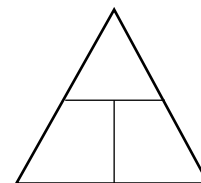
Period of a wave

The period of a wave is the time it takes for one wave to pass a point, (or be produced).

From the frequency of a wave the period of a wave can be calculated.

$$\text{Period of a wave} = \frac{1}{\text{frequency}}$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
Period of a wave	T	seconds	s
frequency	f	Hertz	Hz

Example 1 A wave is produced in a time of 0.2 s. What is the frequency of the wave?

$$T = 0.2 \text{ s}$$

$$f = f$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

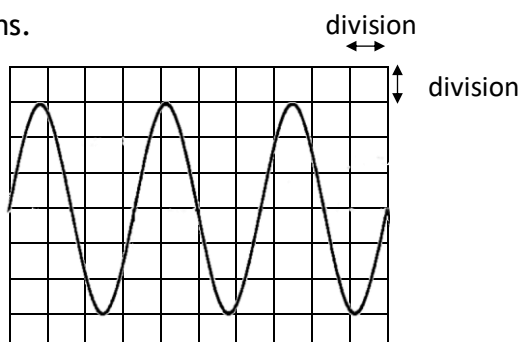
$$f = \frac{1}{T}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{0.2}$$

$$f = 5 \text{ Hz}$$

Example 2 The diagram below shows a wave on an oscilloscope screen.

Each division is 5.00 ms.



(a) What is the period of the wave?

$$3 \text{ waves} = 10 \text{ divisions} = 10 \times 5 \text{ ms} = 50 \text{ ms}$$

$$1 \text{ wave} = \frac{50}{3} = 16.7 \text{ ms}$$

(b) What is the frequency of the wave?

$$T = 16.7 \text{ ms} = 16.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$$

$$f = f$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

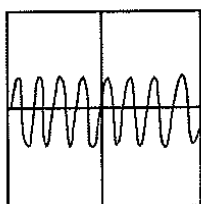
$$f = \frac{1}{T}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{16.7 \times 10^{-3}}$$

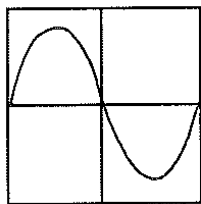
$$f = 59.9 \text{ Hz}$$

Sound waves on an oscilloscope screen - 4 and 5

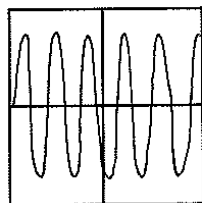
An experiment was set up to investigate sound waves. A signal generator was connected to a loudspeaker. An oscilloscope is now connected across the loudspeaker. The traces obtained by different sounds are shown.



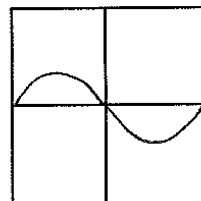
Quiet / loud
High / low
frequency sound



Quiet / loud
High / low
frequency sound



Quiet / loud
High / low
frequency sound



Quiet / loud
High / low
frequency sound

The frequency of the sound affects the pitch of the sound.

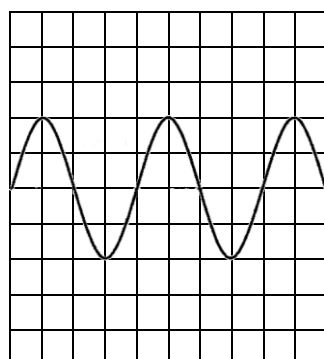
e.g. High pitch = high frequency, Low pitch = low frequency

The loudness of the sound affects the amplitude of the sound

e.g. quiet sound = small amplitude, Loud sound = large amplitude

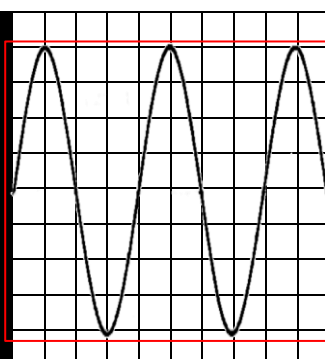
Example A waveform is shown in Figure 1. Complete Figure 2, 3 and 4.

Figure 1



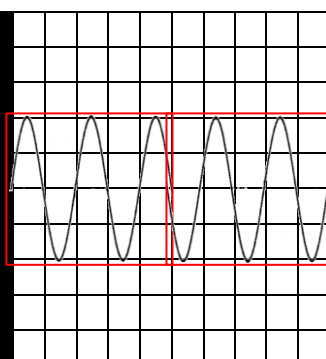
How many waves are in Figure 1 above?

Figure 2



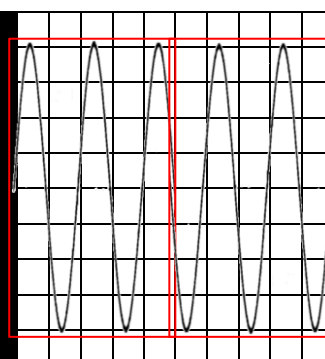
Draw a waveform above that has double the amplitude of Figure 1.

Figure 3



Draw a waveform above that has double the frequency of Figure 1.

Figure 4



Draw a waveform above that has double the frequency and amplitude of Figure 1.

Sound Level (Loudness) - 4

The larger the amplitude the louder the sound.

Sound level or loudness is measured in units called decibels or dB for short.

Quiet conversations is 50 dB. Danger level is 80 dB.

A loud disco is 110 dB. Loud sounds can damage your hearing.

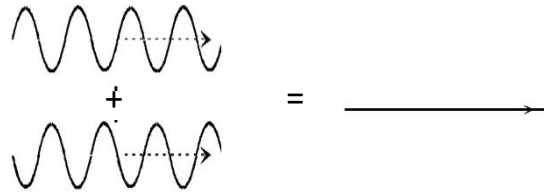
Wearing ear protectors will protect your hearing.

Noise pollution is any sound which can ruin your environment.



Noise Cancellation - 4

Noise cancelling headphones are being used more and more. These cancel out the sounds from the environment and are used by lots of different people including road workers and pilots. This reduces the chances of damage to the persons hearing and a better quality of sound, if listening to music.



Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 15

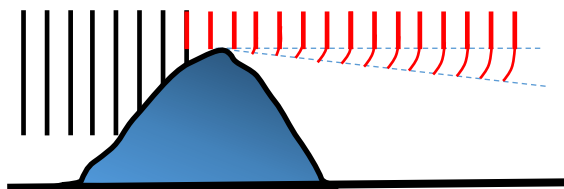
Questions 1-5

Diffraction

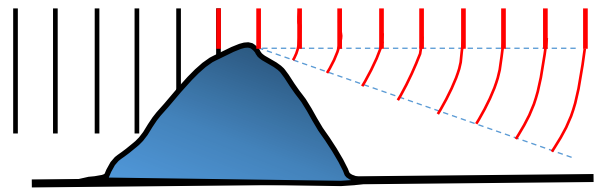
Diffraction is the ability of a wave to bend round corners. All waves will diffract to some extent around an obstacle placed in their way.

The shorter the wavelength, the less the wave will diffract.

The longer the wavelength, the more the wave will diffract.



short wavelength



long wavelength

A wave with a wavelength of 4m will diffract more than a wave with a wavelength of 2m.

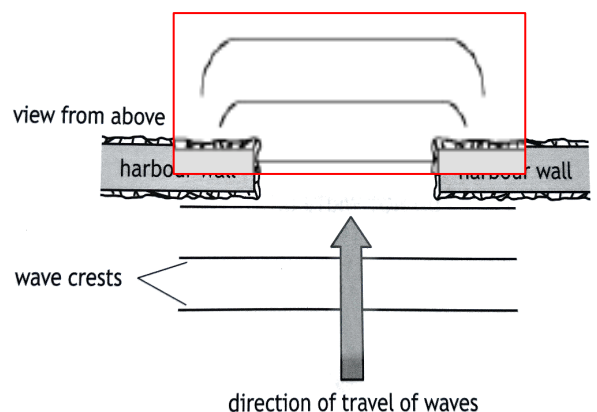
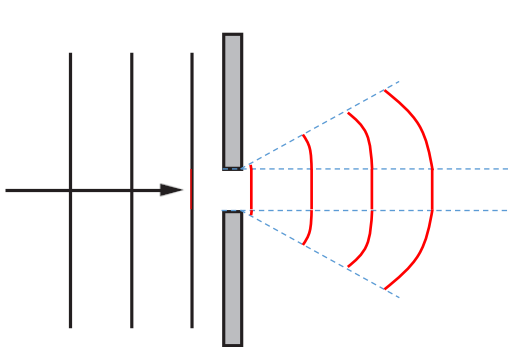
A wave of frequency 1000 Hz will diffract less than a wave of frequency 50 Hz.

Radio waves diffract more than TV waves, because Radio waves have a longer wavelength.

When water waves meet a gap they also diffract. The smaller the gap the more diffraction there is.

Before and after the barrier there is no change to the

- wavelength,
- frequency or
- speed, since $v=f\lambda$.



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Questions 1-5

B - Electromagnetic Spectrum

Electromagnetic Family

The electromagnetic spectrum describes a range, or family, of waves which

- transfer energy,
- are transverse waves,
- travel at 300 000 000 ms^{-1}
- all diffract.

The diagram below represents the electromagnetic spectrum.

Radio	TV	Micro waves	Infrared radiation	Visible light	Ultraviolet	X-rays	Gamma radiation
-------	----	-------------	--------------------	---------------	-------------	--------	-----------------

Low f
Long λ
Low E

R_O_YG_B_IV

High f
Short λ
High E



Radio waves have the longest wavelength. Gamma rays have the shortest wavelength and therefore the highest frequency. Violet light has a shorter wavelength than red light. As the frequency of the wave increase the wave has more Energy. In the spectrum the waves which diffract the most are Radio waves because they have a longest wavelength.

Example A ray of infrared radiation has a wavelength of 1400 nm. What is its frequency?

$$\lambda = 1400 \text{ nm} = 1400 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$v = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$f = f$$

$$v = f\lambda$$

$$f = \frac{v}{\lambda}$$

$$f = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{1400 \times 10^{-9}}$$

$$f = 2.14 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$$

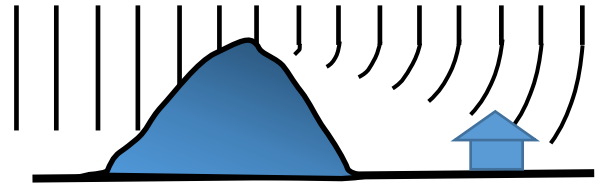
Electromagnetic Family -

The electromagnetic spectrum is split into several bands, according to its wavelength (or frequency). Different bands of the spectrum require different detectors and have different applications.

Applications - 4 and 5

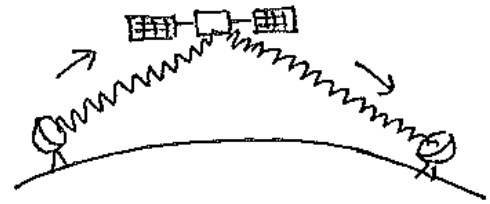
1. **Radio and TV** waves have long wavelengths and therefore can diffract round hills and buildings. This makes them ideal for carrying radio and TV programmes to your house.

Detector - aerial



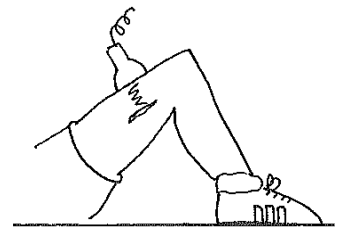
2. **Microwaves** are used to carry signals up to a satellite in space.

Detector - aerial



3. **Infrared** radiation is the scientific name for heat. In medicine it can be used in heat treatment to speed up the healing of damaged muscle tissue. In industry it can be used to dry paint. Rescue service use thermal imaging cameras to find people in dark or smoky places.

Detector - photodiode or thermometer

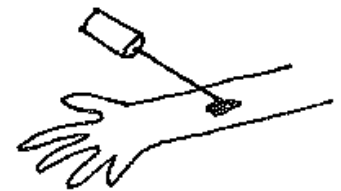


4. **Visible Light** is made up of different colours/wavelengths. Red has a longer wavelength than blue light. A concentrated beam of visible light of one colour is called Laser.

It can be used to:

- remove birth marks,
- remove tattoos,
- kill cancerous tumours.

Detector - photodiode, human eye or photographic film.



Example The frequency of a microwave is 2870 MHz. Calculate its wavelength.

$$f = 2870 \text{ MHz} = 2870 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$$

$$v = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda$$

$$v = f\lambda$$

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{2870 \times 10^6}$$

$$\lambda = 0.105 \text{ m}$$

Example Calculate the time it would take ultraviolet radiation to travel 980 km?

$$t = t$$

$$v = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$d = 980 \text{ km} = 980 \times 10^3 \text{ m}$$

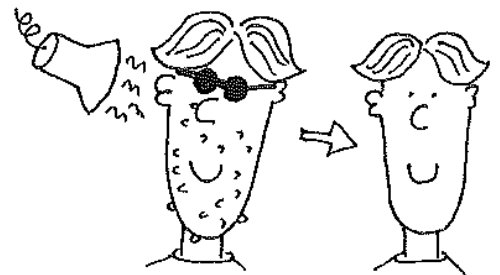
$$d = vt$$

$$t = \frac{d}{v}$$

$$t = \frac{980 \times 10^3}{3 \times 10^8}$$

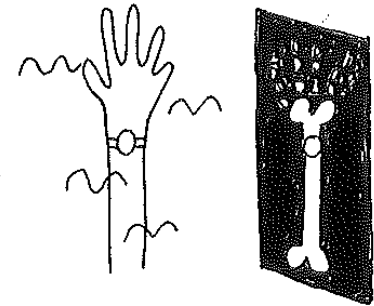
$$t = 0.00327 \text{ s}$$

5. Most of the **ultraviolet** radiation we are exposed to comes from the **Sun**. It gives us our **tan** in summer, but too much can **cause** the skin or even worse cause skin **cancer**. UV radiation can be used to treat skin conditions like **acne**. Special fluorescent **chemicals** can be painted on important items as **security** markings. These markings only show up under **Ultraviolet** radiation.



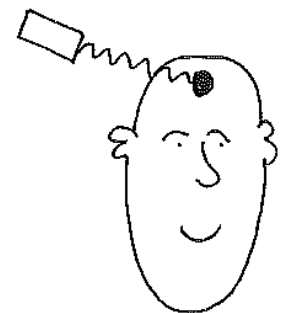
Detector - **photodiode** or photographic **film**.

6. **X-rays** can be used to **detect** **broken** bones. X-rays pass through most tissue and cause photographic film to turn **black**. However X-rays are absorbed by **bones** in your body. Photographic film behind the bones stay **clear**. This allows X-ray **photos** to be taken of your body. Computer Aided Tomography (CAT) or CT scanner allow pictures of **parts**, or sections, of your body to be taken. This allows a more **detailed** image to be built up. They can also use the slices to create a **3D** image.



Detector - photographic **film**,

7. **Gamma Rays** can be used to kill **cancerous** cells in your body. Chemicals emitting gamma radiation can be **injected** into your blood stream. A gamma camera detects the **gamma** radiation being emitted by the chemical and creates an image of **blood** flow in your body. This is called a **Tracer**.



Detector - Photographic film or **Geiger** - Müller tube.

Summary

Band	Source	Detector(s)	Applications	decreasing wavelength ↓
Radio	Electronic device	Aerial	Communication (radio broadcast) MRI Scanners	
TV	Electronic device	Aerial	Communication (TV broadcast)	
Microwave	Electronic device, microwave oven, mobile phones	Aerial	Communication (Satellite broadcast/TV) Mobile phone communication Wi-Fi, Radar, GPS	
Infrared	Sun, warm objects	Photodiode	Night vision, thermograms, remote control	
Visible Light	Sun, light bulbs, lasers, LEDs	Photodiode, Photographic film, the eye	Eye sight, photography, lasers e.g surgery	
Ultraviolet	Sun, gas discharge lamps	Photodiode, Photographic film, Fluorescent dye	Security markings (fluorescence), treat skin conditions, sterilization of medical instruments	
X-rays	X-ray tube, very fast electrons hitting a metal	Photographic film	Radiographs (internal images of patients/objects) Radiotherapy (treatment of cancer)	
Gamma	Rocks, radioactive nuclei decaying	Photographic film, Geiger- Muller tube	Treatment of cancer, radioactive tracers	

Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet

- ***Page 23*** ***Questions 1-7 (4) Questions 8-10 (5)***
- ***Page 25*** ***Questions 1-15***

Light

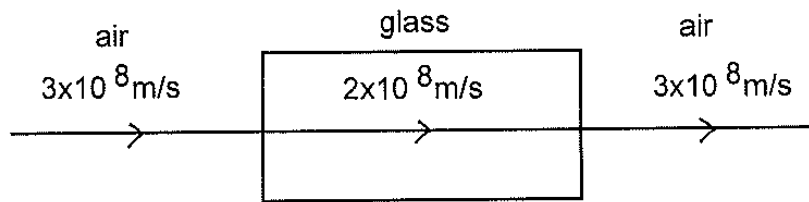
Light is an electromagnetic wave that is visible to the human eye.
Light travels in straight lines.

Refraction of Light

Refraction is the process which occurs when light passes from one medium into another, which causes a change in

- Wave speed
- Wavelength
- direction (where the angle of incidence is greater than 0°)

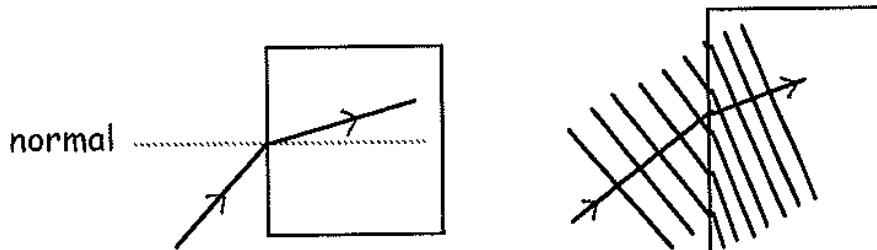
Refraction of light happens when the light passes into a different medium of different density. (e.g air into glass)



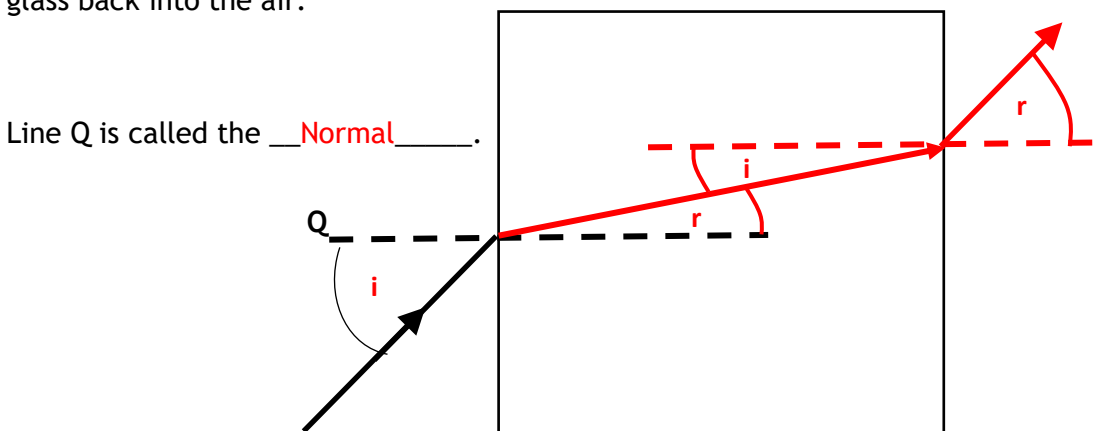
A special line is drawn in ray diagrams called the Normal. This line is drawn at right angles, or 90° , to the block. This line is very important because

- all angles are measured from the normal to the ray of light.

If the light travels at an angle of incidence greater than 0° to the normal, from one medium into another, its direction also changes as shown below.



Below is a diagram that represents a ray of light travelling from air into a glass block then from the glass back into the air.



Label the angle of incidence (i) and angle of refraction (r) on the diagram above.

When light moves from a

- **less** dense medium in to a **more** dense medium the light refracts **towards** the normal.
- **more** dense medium in to a **less** dense medium the light refracts **away** from the normal.

	Air → Glass Less dense → more dense	Glass → Air More dense → less dense
Refraction direction	Towards the normal	Away from the normal
Wavelength	Decreases	Increases
Speed	Decreases	Increases

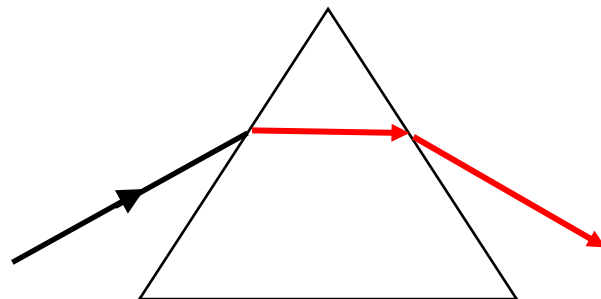
Triangular prism

When light is directed through different shapes and materials the rules above still apply.

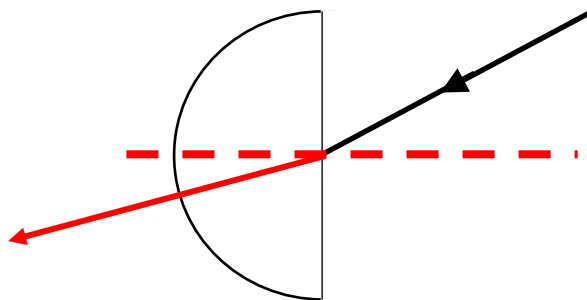
When white light is directed into a triangular prism, you get to see all the colours that make up white light.

R_O_Y G _B_IV

Each **colour** of light refracts by a different amount.



Semi-circular glass block

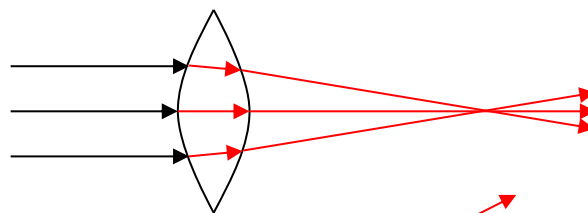


Lenses

Lenses are used in all sorts of things from cameras, to optical telescopes and glasses. There are two lenses that are very helpful:

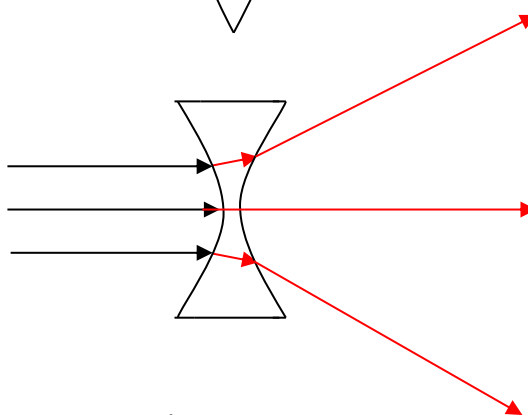
Convex Lens or Converging lens

Without a lens, if the rays of light meet **beyond** the **retina**, a Convex lens is used to correct **long** sight.



Concave lens or Diverging lens

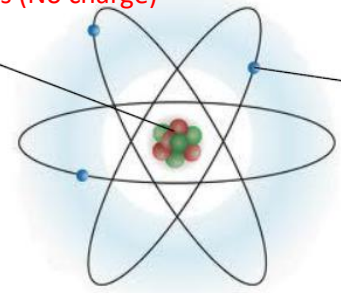
Without a lens, if the rays of light meet **before** the **retina**, a Concave lens is used to correct **short** sight.



C - Nuclear Radiation

Nucleus

Protons (+ve) and
Neutrons (No charge)



Electrons

-ve charge

The Atom - Revision

An atom is the basic unit of matter.

An atom has a nucleus made up of positive protons and Neutrons which have no charge.

The Nucleus contains nearly all of the mass of the atom and has an overall positive charge.

Around the nucleus of the atom are orbiting electrons which have a negative charge and are much lighter than protons or neutrons.

As an atom gets bigger it has more protons, neutrons and electrons.

Most atoms are electrically neutral because they have equal numbers of positive protons and negative electrons.

Isotopes are atoms of the same element with different numbers of neutrons in the nucleus.

Some isotopes are stable and some unstable. The nuclei of unstable isotopes undergo radioactive decay and emit **nuclear radiation**.

Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 31

Questions 1

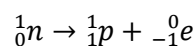
Nuclear Radiation

Small atoms are stable because they have fairly similar numbers of protons and neutrons. However very big atoms like Uranium have a big imbalance. Uranium-235 has 92 protons and 143 neutrons. To become more stable the nucleus can eject 3 types of radiation. We call these 3 types of NUCLEAR radiation, because they come from the Nucleus of the atom.

Radiation	Symbol	Picture	Nature	Nucleus symbol
Alpha	α		2 <u>protons</u> and 2 <u>neutrons</u> or Helium Nucleus	${}^4_2\text{He}$
Beta	β		A fast moving <u>electron</u> .	${}_{-1}^0e$ or ${}_{-1}^0\beta$
Gamma	γ		An <u>electromagnetic</u> wave.	

If there are no electrons in the nucleus, where does this beta particle come from?

A neutron turns into a proton and an electron and the electron is released as a Beta particle.



Nuclear Decay

A material that contains radioactive atoms is called a source.

When a source has emitted radiation we say that it has decayed.

This diagram shows a radioactive nucleus decaying by emitting an alpha particle.



radioactive atom

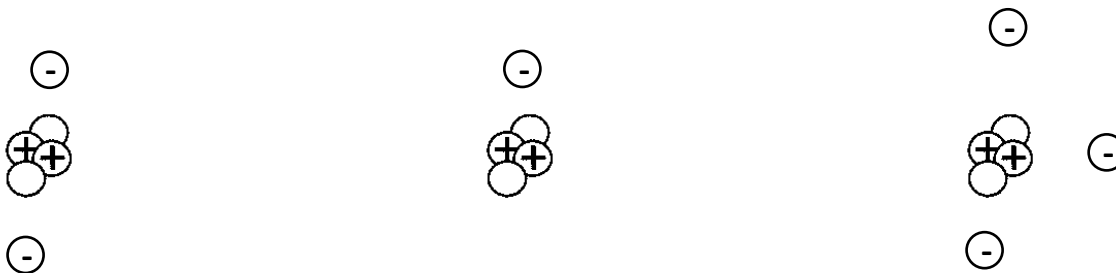
radioactive atom decaying

Gamma emission can also happen when either beta or gamma radiation has been emitted.

Ionisation

Ionisation is when an atom loses or gains an electron.

When ionisation takes place on a neutral atom the atom becomes charged.



Neutral atom

2 +ve protons

And

2 -ve electrons

Overall charge - 0

Positive ion

2 +ve protons

and

1 -ve electron

Overall charge - **+1**

Negative ion

2 +ve protons

and

3 -ve electrons

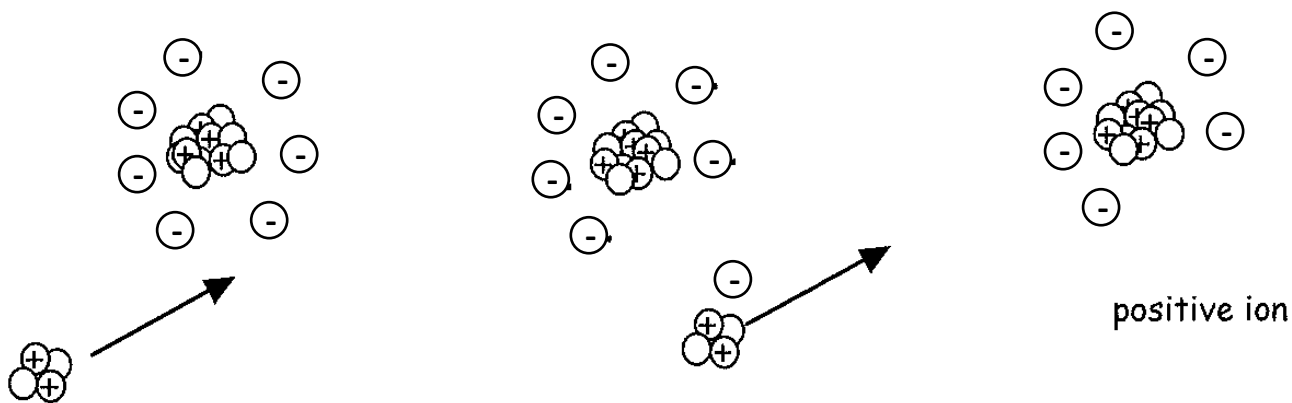
Overall charge - **-1**

Alpha, Beta and gamma radiation all cause ionisation. They all cause different amounts of ionisation.

Alpha particles **cause the most ionisation** because they are the biggest of the three nuclear radiations. Alpha has a positive charge and it can attract the electrons from an atom without actually colliding with it.

Beta and Gamma cause much less ionisation.

The diagram below shows a neutral atom being ionised by an **Alpha** particle.



Radiation is dangerous to humans because it can damage healthy cells by **ionising** the atoms which make up the cells. A group of damaged cells is called a **tumour**.

It is important to measure the exposure to radiation. Detectors of radiation rely on ionisation to detect the radiation including **Geiger**-Müller tubes, photographic **film** badges, spark counters, scintillation counters and cloud chambers.

Radiation causes photographic film to turn **black**.

Absorption

When a material stops a radioactive particle or wave moving we say it has **absorbed** the radiation. The table below shows what the limits of penetration are for alpha, beta and gamma radiation.

Type	Range in air	Absorbed by	Diagram
Alpha Particles	a 2 cm	thin sheet of paper	
Beta Particles	a 2 metres	2-3 mm of Aluminium	
Gamma radiation	infinity	thick lead or thick concrete	

Activity

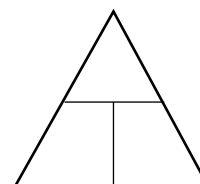
Activity is the number of nuclear disintegrations (decays) per second.

Activity is measured in Becquerels or Bq for short.

One Becquerel is one decay per second.

$$\text{Activity} = \frac{\text{No. of disintegrations (decays)}}{\text{time in seconds}}$$

$$A = \frac{N}{t}$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
Activity	A	Becquerels	Bq
Number of decays	N	decays	decays
time	t	seconds	s

Example A radioactive source emits 2400 alpha particles in 3 minutes. What is its activity?

$$N = 2400$$

$$t = 3 \text{ minutes} = 3 \times 60 = 180 \text{ s}$$

$$A = A$$

$$A = \frac{N}{t}$$

$$A = \frac{2400}{180}$$

$$A = 13.3 \text{ Bq}$$

Background Radiation

Background radiation is the radiation which is around us all the time.

Background radiation can come from natural sources or artificial sources.

Source	Natural	Artificial
Cosmic rays	✓	
Rocks and soil	✓	
Human body	✓	
Medical use e.g X-rays		✓
Fallout from weapons testing		✓
Nuclear waste		✓
Nuclear accidents e.g Chernobyl, Fukushima		✓

Background count can be measured using Geiger - Müller tube and a counter.

When measuring the activity of an unshielded source it is important that the background count is measured. The background count must then be subtracted from all readings taken.

Half-Life

Half-life is the time for the activity to half.

The activity of a source decreases with time.

Half Life - Experiment Description.

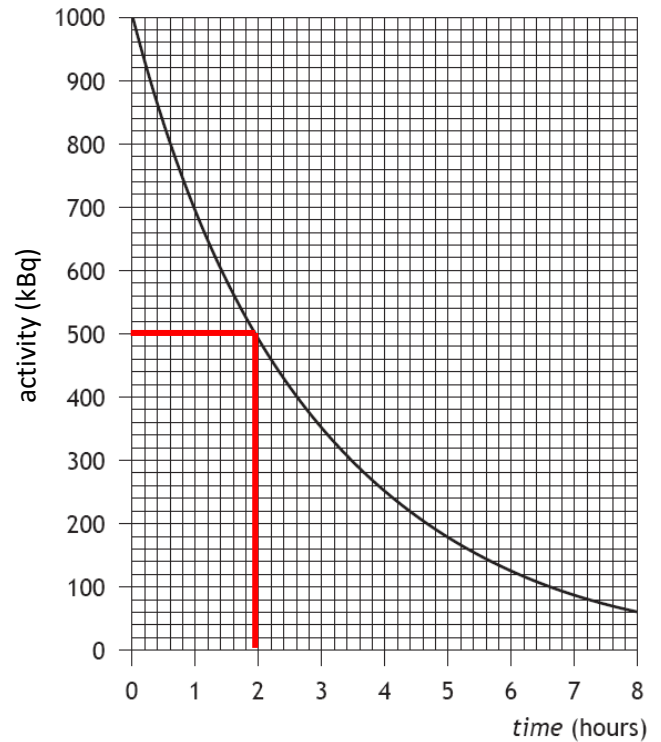
The half-life of a radioactive material can be determined experimentally as follows:

- Connect a Geiger-Müller tube to a counter and measure the count rate.
- Measure the background count rate
- Measure the count rate due to the source at regular intervals
- Subtract the background count from each of these values to determine the corrected count rate
- Draw a graph of corrected count rate against time.
- Determine the time taken for the corrected count rate to half.

The graph shows how the activity of a radioactive material varies with time.

Determine the half-life of this radioactive source.

2 hours



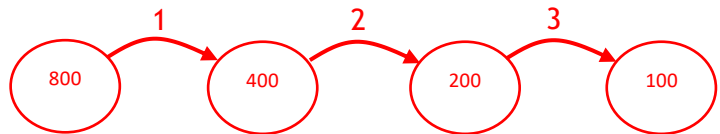
Example The activity of a source is 800 kBq and its half-life is 2 days.

What is the activity after 6 days?

$A = 800 \text{ kBq}$

half-life = 2 days

Number of half-lives = $\frac{\text{Total Time}}{1 \text{ half life}} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$



$A_{6 \text{ days}} = 100 \text{ kBq}$

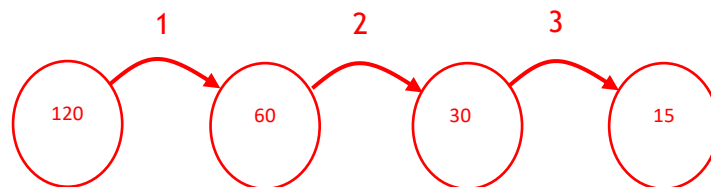
Example - The activity of a source is 120 MBq. 12 years later the activity is 15 MBq.

What is the half-life of the source?

$A_{\text{beginning}} = 120 \text{ MBq}$

$t = 12 \text{ years}$

$A_{\text{end}} = 15 \text{ MBq}$



3 half lives = 12 years

1 half life = $\frac{12}{3} = 4 \text{ years}$

Fractional Activity

Sometimes instead of talking about the actual activity after a period of time we can describe the source as having a certain fraction of its activity left.

- After 1 half-life the original activity will have decreased to half.
- After 2 half-lives the original activity will have decreased to a quarter.
- After 3 half-lives the original activity would have decreased to an eighth and so on.

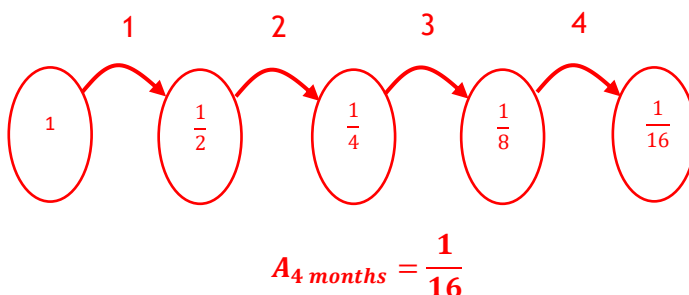
Example The half-life of a source is 1 month.

What fraction of the activity is left after 4 months?

Half-life = 1 month

Total time = 4 months

$$\text{Number of half-lives} = \frac{\text{Total Time}}{1 \text{ half life}} = \frac{4}{1} = 4$$



Waves and Radiation Problem Booklet - Page 37

Questions 1-25

Biological Effect of Radiation

Radiation can kill or damage living things. As a result it is important to measure the exposure to radiation.

The biological effect of radiation depends on three factors, the:

- absorbed dose
- type of radiation
- type of tissue absorbing the radiation.

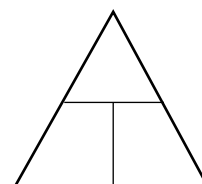
Absorbed Dose - D

Absorbed dose is the energy absorbed by 1 kg of mass absorbing material.

Absorbed dose is measured in Grays or Gy for short.

$$\text{Absorbed dose} = \frac{\text{Energy Absorbed}}{\text{mass of tissue}}$$

$$D = \frac{E}{m}$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
Absorbed dose	D	Grays	Gy
Energy absorbed	E	Joules	J
mass	m	kilogrammes	kg

Example A 75 kg scientist absorbs 0.41J of radiation. What is the absorbed dose?

$$m = 75 \text{ kg}$$

$$E = 0.41 \text{ J}$$

$$D = D$$

$$D = \frac{E}{m}$$

$$D = \frac{0.41}{75}$$

$$D = 0.0055 \text{ Gy}$$

$$D = 5.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Gy}$$

Equivalent dose - H

The equivalent dose is a measure of the **biological harm** that the radiation has on a tissue.

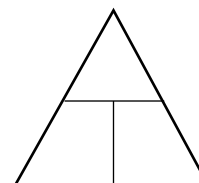
The equivalent dose is measured in Sieverts or Sv for short.

The equivalent dose takes into account the absorbed dose and the type of radiation the tissue has been exposed to.

To calculate the equivalent dose a radiation weighting factor, w_R , is used. Each type of radiation causes a different amount of ionisation and therefore has a different weighting factor.

$$\text{Equivalent dose} = \text{Absorbed dose} \times \text{weighting factor}$$

$$H = D w_r$$



Quantity	Quantity Symbol	Unit	Unit Symbol
Absorbed dose	D	Grays	Gy
Equivalent dose	H	Sieverts	Sv
Weighting factor	w_r	--	--

The only way to compare biological harm is to work out the total equivalent dose.

A list of weighting factors can be found on the data sheet for different types of radiation.

Example A tissue receives an absorbed dose of 0.15 mGy of alpha particles.

Calculate the equivalent dose the tissue receives?

$$D = 0.15 \text{ mGy} = 0.15 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Gy}$$

$$w_r = 20$$

$$H = H$$

$$H = D w_r$$

$$H = 0.15 \times 10^{-3} \times 20$$

$$H = 0.003 \text{ Sv}$$

Example A sample of body tissue is irradiated by 2 different types of radiation X and Y.

The radiation weighting factor and the absorbed dose for each radiation is shown.

Type of radiation	Radiation weighting factor	Absorbed dose (μGy)
X	10	5
Y	5	2

What is the total equivalent dose received by the tissue?

$$w_r = 10$$

$$D = 5 \mu\text{Gy}$$

$$H = H$$

$$H = D w_r$$

$$H = 5 \times 10$$

$$H = 50 \mu\text{Sv}$$

$$w_r = 5$$

$$D = 2 \mu\text{Gy}$$

$$H = H$$

$$H = D w_r$$

$$H = 5 \times 2$$

$$H = 10 \mu\text{Sv}$$

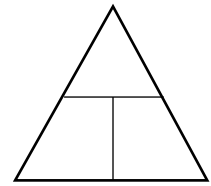
$$H_{\text{total}} = 50 \mu\text{Sv} + 10 \mu\text{Sv} = 60 \mu\text{Sv}$$

Equivalent Dose Rate - \dot{H}

The equivalent dose rate, \dot{H} , is the rate at which the equivalent dose is received by the tissue. Equivalent dose rate is usually measured in mSv y⁻¹ or Sv h⁻¹.

$$\text{Equivalent dose rate} = \frac{\text{Equivalent dose}}{\text{time}}$$

$$\dot{H} = \frac{H}{t}$$



Example When working with a radioactive source a technician is exposed to an equivalent dose rate of 2.5×10^{-6} Sv h⁻¹.

The technician works with the source for 1900 hours over a year.

What is the Equivalent dose the technician is exposed to?

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{H} &= 2.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Sv h}^{-1} \\ t &= 1900 \text{ hours} \\ H &= H \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{H} &= \frac{H}{t} \\ H &= \dot{H} \times t \\ H &= 2.5 \times 10^{-6} \times 1900 \\ H &= 4.75 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Sv} \end{aligned}$$

Comparing Risk

By calculating the equivalent dose the biological harm can be found for different types of radiation. The table below shows the equivalent dose an average person receives each year from different sources.

Source	Natural/Artificial	annual equivalent dose (μSv)
Rocks and soil	N	800
Carbon and Potassium in the body	N	370
Cosmic rays from space	N	300
Medical - X rays , CT scans,..	A	250
Fallout from weapons testing	A	10
Nuclear waste	A	2

The total equivalent dose is still very small and will cause very little harm to the average person.

However from the table above, humans are at a greater biological risk from natural

sources than from artificial sources.

Nuclear Safety precautions

When using radioactive sources it is necessary to observe certain safety precautions. For example:

- limit the time of exposure
- use shielding e.g. store sources in a labelled lead lined container
- increase the distance between you and the source e.g. use tongs or forceps
- point sources away from the body (especially the eyes)
- wash hands after use

Nuclear Safety Limits

There are safety limits for the public and for those that work in the radiation industries in terms of the annual effective equivalent dose.

- | | |
|--|---------|
| • Average annual background radiation in the UK | 2.2 mSv |
| • Average effective <u>safety</u> limit for a member of the public | 1 mSv |
| • Average effective <u>safety</u> limit for a radiation worker | 20 mSv |

Applications

Radiation is used in medicine:

- as a tracer. A gamma source can be injected into your body and used as a radioactive tracer to study the flow of blood around the body.
- to kill cancer cells. High energy gamma rays can be directed at the tumour, or an alpha source can be placed next to the tumour, to kill the cancerous cells.
- to sterilise medical equipment. Radiation can be used to kill bacteria on medical equipment.

Radiation can also be used in other applications including:

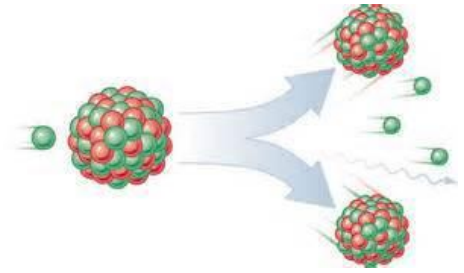
- to generate electricity in power stations.
- in a smoke detector. Alpha radiation is used to detect if there are smoke particles in the room or not.
- to sterilise food. Gamma radiation can be used to kill bacteria on the food and increase its shelf life.
- to detect the thickness of paper and foil. Beta radiation can be used to ensure the paper or foil is the right thickness.
- to detect flow rate of liquids in pipes.

Types of Nuclear Reaction

There are two different types of nuclear reaction, **Nuclear Fission** and **Nuclear Fusion**.

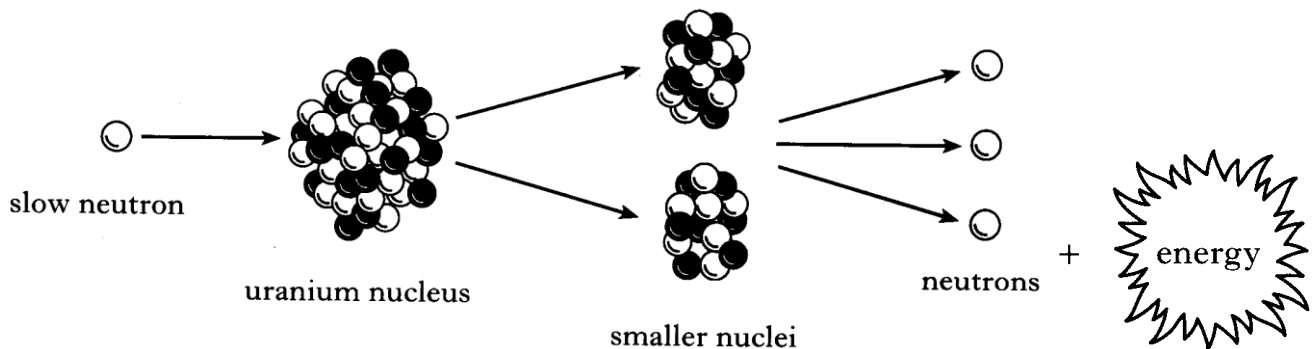
Nuclear Fission

In Nuclear Fission, a nucleus of large mass number is split into nuclei of smaller mass number with the release of energy and two or three neutrons.



The neutrons that are produced can split further nuclei and cause a chain reaction.

Importantly the total mass of the particles after the reaction is less than the mass of the particles before the reaction. This lost mass is turned into heat energy.

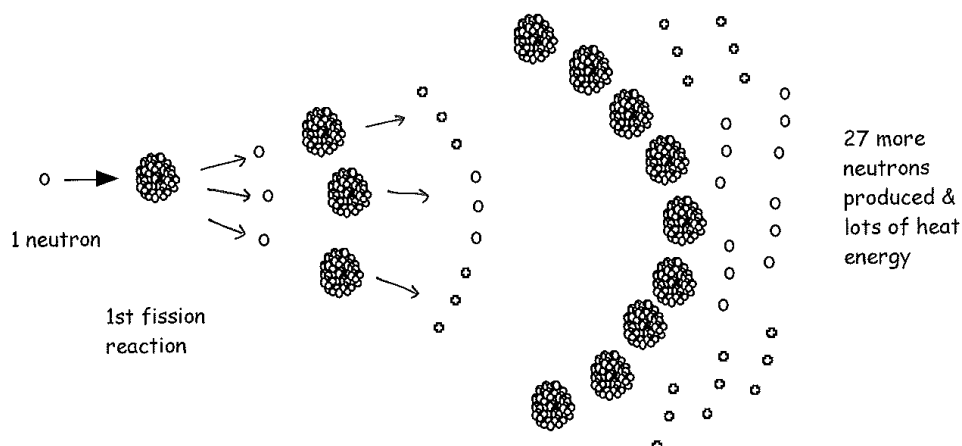


The smaller nuclei in this example are called daughter products or fission fragments.

Chain Reaction

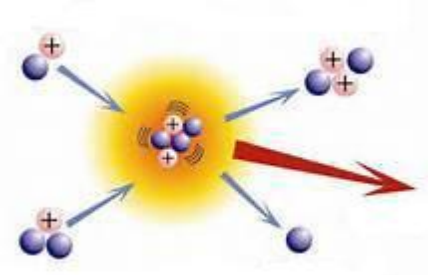
The 3 neutrons which are released above cause 3 more Fission reactions which produce 9 more neutrons which causes 9 more fission reactions. This is called a chain reaction and as a result a huge amount of kinetic energy is created in a short period of time. The kinetic energy is changed into heat.

In a nuclear power station a neutron is introduced to start the chain reaction.



Nuclear Fusion

In Nuclear Fusion nuclei of smaller mass number join/recombine to form a nucleus of larger mass number with the release of energy.



As in a Nuclear fission reaction, the mass of the particles after the reaction is less than the mass of the particles before the reaction. This lost mass is turned into energy.

Development of this technology has resulted in magnetic fields being used to keep the hot fusion fuel in the form of a plasma. As a result, there has been a lot of research on how to keep the plasma contained. The issue is the plasma has to have a temperature of several tens of millions of degrees which makes containment very difficult. The first generating fusion power plant is scheduled to begin operation in 2035 in France.

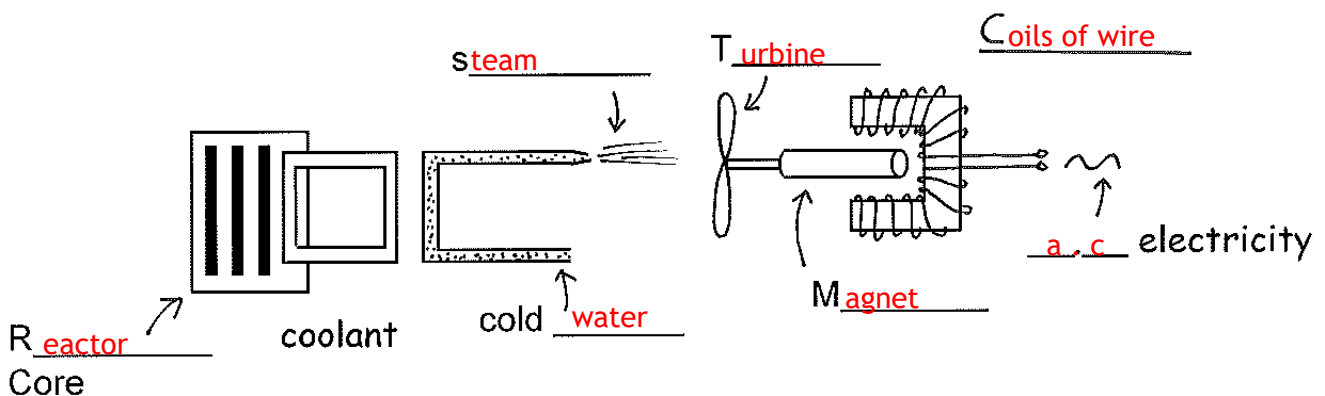
Nuclear fusion generates a vast amount of energy from a small amount of fuel and does not produce nuclear waste. Nuclear fusion is the process by which the sun produces energy. Nuclear fusion is extremely difficult to control.

Nuclear Power stations

In Nuclear power stations today, Nuclear Fission is used to generate electricity.

During Nuclear Fission the heat energy produced is used to produce electricity in the following way:

1. A fluid called coolant flows through the reactor core and absorbs the heat energy. The coolant then becomes warm.
2. The coolant then passes near pipes containing cold water.
3. The cold water absorbs the heat energy from the coolant and is turned into super-heated steam. The steam turns the turbine blades.
4. The turbine blades turn a magnet inside a coil of wire.
5. The moving magnet causes, or induces, and electric current in the coil.



Nuclear Fission - Advantages

1. The fission process produces no greenhouse gases which are partly responsible for global warming.
2. The supply of electricity is very reliable.
3. A small amount of fuel creates a large amount of electricity.

Nuclear Fission - Disadvantages

1. The fission reaction produces nuclear waste which remains dangerous for hundreds of years. This is very dangerous.
2. Nuclear waste has to be stored safely for a long time.
3. Although normally very safe, catastrophic failure due to earthquakes, tsunamis or terrorism could cause dangerous emissions of radiation into the atmosphere and water supply.
4. Nuclear power stations are expensive to build and expensive to decommission once they have come to the end of their working lives.

Nuclear Fusion - Advantages

1. The fusion reaction is a very clean process. It does not produce greenhouse or radioactive waste.
2. The fuel is a type of hydrogen atom which is plentiful in sea water.

Nuclear Fusion - Disadvantages

1. The fusion process requires temperatures similar to the core of the Sun to fuse the nuclei together. Creating temperatures this high is very difficult and expensive.

If scientists can get fusion working at lower temperatures then we will have clean, cheap and a renewable source of energy.

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