

Understanding Radiation

This section introduces the general reader to some basic concepts of radioactivity and an understanding of the radiation emitted as radioactive materials decay to a stable state. To better comprehend the radiological information in the Site Environmental Report (SER) it is important to remember that not all radiations are the same and that different kinds of radiation affect living beings differently.

This appendix includes discussions on the common sources of radioactivity in the environment, types of radiation, the analyses used to quantify radioactive material, and how radiation sources contribute to radiation dose. Some general statistical concepts are also presented, along with a discussion of radionuclides that are of environmental interest at BNL. The discussion begins with some definitions and background information on scientific notation and numerical prefixes used when measuring dose and radioactivity. The definitions of commonly used radiological terms are found in the Technical Topics section of the glossary, Appendix A, and are indicated in boldface type here only when the definition in the glossary provides additional details.

RADIOACTIVITY AND RADIATION

All substances are composed of atoms that are made of subatomic particles: protons, neutrons, and electrons. The protons and neutrons are tightly bound together in the positively charged nucleus (plural: nuclei) at the center of the atom. The nucleus is surrounded by a cloud of negatively charged electrons. Most nuclei are stable because the forces holding the protons and neutrons together are strong enough to overcome the electrical energy that tries to push them apart. When the number of neutrons in the nucleus exceeds a threshold, then the nucleus becomes unstable and will spontaneously “decay,” or emit excess energy (“nuclear” energy) in the form of charged particles or electromagnetic waves. Radiation is the excess energy released by unstable atoms. Radioactivity and radioactive refer to the unstable nuclear property of a substance (e.g., radioactive uranium). When a charged particle or electromagnetic wave is detected by radiation-sensing equipment, this is referred to as a radiation event.

Radiation that has enough energy to remove electrons from atoms within material (a process called ionization) is classified as ionizing radiation. Radiation that does not have enough energy to remove electrons is called nonionizing radiation. Examples of nonionizing radiation include most visible light, infrared light, microwaves, and radio waves. All radiation, whether

ionizing or not, may pose health risks. In the SER, radiation refers to ionizing radiation.

Radioactive elements (or radionuclides) are referred to by name followed by a number, such as cesium-137. The number indicates the mass of that element and the total number of neutrons and protons contained in the nucleus of the atom. Another way to specify cesium-137 is Cs-137, where Cs is the chemical symbol for cesium in the Periodic Table of the Elements. This type of abbreviation is used in the SER.

SCIENTIFIC NOTATION

Most numbers used for measurement and quantification in the SER are either very large or very small, and many zeroes would be required to express their value. To avoid this, scientific notation is used, with numbers represented in multiples of 10. For example, the number two million five hundred thousand (two and a half million, or 2,500,000) is written in scientific notation as 2.5×10^6 , which represents “2.5 multiplied by (10 raised to the power of 6).” Since even “ 2.5×10^6 ” can be cumbersome, the capital letter E is substituted for the phrase “10 raised to the power of ...” Using this format, 2,500,000 is represented as 2.5E+06. The “+06” refers to the number of places the decimal point was moved to the left to create the shorter version. Scientific notation is also used to represent numbers smaller than zero, in which case a

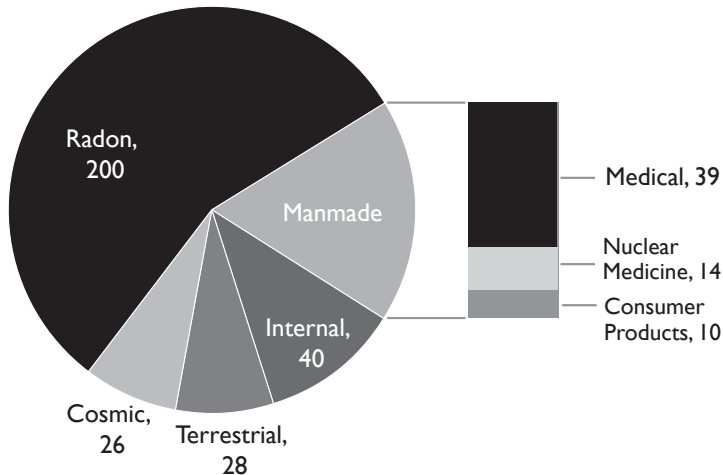


Figure B-1. Typical Annual Radiation Doses from Natural and Man-Made Sources (mrem). Source: NCRP Report No. 93 (NCRP 1987)

minus sign follows the E rather than a plus. For example, 0.00025 can be written as 2.5×10^{-4} or 2.5E-04. Here, “-04” indicates the number of places the decimal point was moved to the right.

NUMERICAL PREFIXES

Another method of representing very large or small numbers without using many zeroes is to use prefixes to represent multiples of ten. For example, the prefix *milli* (abbreviated m) means that the value being represented is one-thousandth of a whole unit; 3 mg (milligrams) is 3 thousandths of a gram or E-03. See Appendix C for additional common prefixes, including *pico* (p), which means trillionth or E-12, *giga* (G), which means billion or E+09, and *tera* (T), which means trillion, E+12.

SOURCES OF IONIZING RADIATION

Radiation is energy that has both natural and manmade sources. Some radiation is essential to life, such as heat and light from the sun. Exposure to high-energy (ionizing) radiation has to be managed, as it can pose serious health risks at large doses. Living things are exposed to radiation from natural background sources: the atmosphere, soil, water, food, and even our own bodies. Humans are exposed to ionizing radiation from a variety of common sources, the most significant of which follow.

Background Radiation – Radiation that occurs naturally in the environment is also called background activity. Background radiation consists

of cosmic radiation from outer space, radiation from radioactive elements in soil and rocks, and radiation from radon and its decay products in air. Some people use the term background when referring to all non-occupational sources commonly present. Other people use natural to refer only to cosmic and terrestrial sources, and background to refer to common man-made sources such as medical procedures, consumer products, and radioactivity present in the atmosphere from former nuclear testing. In the SER, the term natural background is used to refer to radiation from cosmic and terrestrial radiation.

Cosmic – Cosmic radiation primarily consists of charged particles that originate in space, beyond the earth’s atmosphere. This includes ionizing radiation from the sun, and secondary radiation generated by the entry of charged particles into the earth’s atmosphere at high speeds and energies. Radioactive elements such as hydrogen-3 (tritium), beryllium-7, carbon-14, and sodium-22 are produced in the atmosphere by cosmic radiation. Exposure to cosmic radiation increases with altitude, because at higher elevations the atmosphere and the earth’s magnetic field provide less shielding. Therefore, people who live in the mountains are exposed to more cosmic radiation than people who live at sea level. The average dose from cosmic radiation to a person living in the United States is approximately 26 mrem per year. (For an explanation of dose, see *effective dose equivalent* in Appendix A. The units *rem* and *sieverts* also are explained in Appendix A.)

Terrestrial – Terrestrial radiation is released by radioactive elements that have been present in the soil since the formation of the earth. Common radioactive elements that contribute to terrestrial exposure include isotopes of potassium, thorium, actinium, and uranium. The average dose from terrestrial radiation to a person living in the United States is approximately 28 mrem per year, but may vary considerably depending on the local geology.

Internal – Internal exposure occurs when radionuclides are ingested, inhaled, or absorbed through the skin. Radioactive material may be incorporated into food through the uptake of terrestrial radionuclides by plant roots. People can

ingest radionuclides when they eat contaminated plant matter or meat from animals that have consumed contaminated plants. The average dose from food for a person living in the United States is about 40 mrem per year. A larger exposure, for most people, comes from breathing the decay products of naturally occurring radon gas. The average dose from breathing air with radon byproducts is about 200 mrem per year, but that amount varies depending on geographical location. An EPA map shows that BNL is located in one of the regions with the lowest potential radon risk.

Medical – Every year in the United States, millions of people undergo medical procedures that use ionizing radiation. Such procedures include chest and dental x-rays, mammography, thallium heart stress tests, and tumor irradiation therapies. The average doses from nuclear medicine and x-ray examination procedures are about 14 and 39 mrem per year, respectively.

Anthropogenic – Sources of anthropogenic (man-made) radiation include consumer products such as static eliminators (containing polonium-210), smoke detectors (containing americium-241), cardiac pacemakers (containing plutonium-238), fertilizers (containing isotopes from uranium and thorium decay series), and tobacco products (containing polonium-210 and lead-210). The average dose from consumer products to a person living in the United States is 10 mrem per year (excluding tobacco contributions).

COMMON TYPES OF IONIZING RADIATION

The three most common types of ionizing radiation are described below.

Alpha Radiation – An alpha particle is identical in makeup to the nucleus of a helium atom, consisting of two neutrons and two protons. Alpha particles have a positive charge and have little or no penetrating power in matter. They are easily stopped by materials such as paper and have a range in air of only an inch or so. However, if alpha-emitting material is ingested, alpha particles can pose a health risk inside the body. Naturally occurring radioactive elements such as uranium emit alpha radiation.

Beta Radiation – Beta radiation is composed

of particles that are identical to electrons.

Therefore, beta particles have a negative charge. Beta radiation is slightly more penetrating than alpha radiation, but most beta radiation can be stopped by materials such as aluminum foil and plexiglass panels. Beta radiation has a range in air of several feet. Naturally occurring radioactive elements such as potassium-40 emit beta radiation. Some beta particles present a hazard to the skin and eyes.

Gamma Radiation – Gamma radiation is a form of electromagnetic radiation, like radio waves or visible light, but with a much shorter wavelength. Gamma rays are emitted from a radioactive nucleus along with alpha or beta particles. Gamma radiation is more penetrating than alpha or beta radiation, capable of passing through dense materials such as concrete. Gamma radiation is identical to x-rays except that x-rays are more energetic. Only a fraction of the total gamma rays a person is exposed to will interact with the human body.

TYPES OF RADIOLOGICAL ANALYSES

The amount of radioactive material in a sample of air, water, soil, or other material can be assessed using several analyses, the most common of which are described below.

Gross alpha – Alpha particles are emitted from radioactive material in a range of different energies. An analysis that measures all alpha particles simultaneously, without regard to their particular energy, is known as a gross alpha activity measurement. This type of measurement is valuable as a screening tool to indicate the total amount but not the type of alpha-emitting radionuclides that may be present in a sample.

Gross beta – This is the same concept as that for gross alpha analysis, except that it applies to the measurement of gross beta particle activity.

Tritium – Tritium radiation consists of low-energy beta particles. It is detected and quantified by liquid scintillation counting. More information on tritium is presented in the section Radionuclides of Environmental Interest, later in this appendix.

Strontium-90 – Due to the properties of the radiation emitted by strontium-90 (Sr-90), a special analysis is required. Samples are

chemically processed to separate and collect any strontium atoms that may be present. The collected atoms are then analyzed separately. More information on Sr-90 is presented in the section Radionuclides of Environmental Interest.

Gamma – This analysis technique identifies specific radionuclides. It measures the particular energy of a radionuclide’s gamma radiation emission. The energy of these emissions is unique for each radionuclide, acting as a “fingerprint” to identify it.

STATISTICS

Two important statistical aspects of measuring radioactivity are uncertainty in results, and negative values.

Uncertainty – Because the emission of radiation from an atom is a random process, a sample counted several times usually yields a slightly different result each time; therefore, a single measurement is not definitive. To account for this variability, the concept of uncertainty is applied to radiological data. In the SER, analysis results are presented in an $x \pm y$ format, where “x” is the analysis result and “ $\pm y$ ” is the 95 percent “confidence interval” of that result. That means there is a 95 percent probability that the true value of x lies between $(x + y)$ and $(x - y)$.

Negative values – There is always a small amount of natural background radiation. The laboratory instruments used to measure radioactivity in samples are sensitive enough to measure the background radiation along with any contaminant radiation in the sample. To obtain a true measure of the contaminant level in a sample, the background radiation level must be subtracted from the total amount of radioactivity measured. Due to the randomness of radioactive emissions and the very low concentrations of some contaminants, it is possible to obtain a background measurement that is larger than the actual contaminant measurement. When the larger background measurement is subtracted from the smaller contaminant measurement, a negative result is generated. The negative results are reported, even though doing so may seem illogical, because they are essential when conducting statistical evaluations of data.

Radiation events occur randomly; if a radioactive sample is counted multiple times, a spread, or distribution, of results will be obtained. This spread, known as a Poisson distribution, is centered about a mean (average) value. Similarly, if background activity (the number of radiation events observed when no sample is present) is counted multiple times, it also will have a Poisson distribution. The goal of a radiological analysis is to determine whether a sample contains activity greater than the background reading detected by the instrument. Because the sample activity and the background activity readings are both Poisson distributed, subtraction of background activity from the measured sample activity may result in values that vary slightly from one analysis to the next. Therefore, the concept of a minimum detection limit (MDL) was established to determine the statistical likelihood that a sample’s activity is greater than the background reading recorded by the instrument.

Identifying a sample as containing activity greater than background, when it actually does not have activity present, is known as a Type I error. Most laboratories set their acceptance of a Type I error at 5 percent when calculating the MDL for a given analysis. That is, for any value that is greater than or equal to the MDL, there is 95 percent confidence that it represents the detection of true activity. Values that are less than the MDL may be valid, but they have a reduced confidence associated with them. Therefore, all radiological data are reported, regardless of whether they are positive or negative.

At very low sample activity levels that are close to the instrument’s background reading, it is possible to obtain a sample result that is less than zero. This occurs when the background activity is subtracted from the sample activity to obtain a net value, and a negative value results. Due to this situation, a single radiation event observed during a counting period could have a significant effect on the mean (average) value result. Subsequent analysis may produce a sample result that is positive. When the annual data for the SER are compiled, results may be averaged; therefore, all negative values are retained for reporting as

well. This data handling practice is consistent with the guidance provided in the Handbook of Radioactivity Measurements Procedures (NCRP 1985) and the Environmental Regulatory Guide for Radiological Effluent Monitoring and Environmental Surveillance (DOE 1991). Average values are calculated using actual analytical results, regardless of whether they are above or below the MDL, or even equal to zero. The uncertainty of the mean, or the 95 percent confidence interval, is determined by multiplying the population standard deviation of the mean by the $t_{(0.05)}$ statistic.

RADIONUCLIDES OF ENVIRONMENTAL INTEREST

Several types of radionuclides are found in the environment at BNL due to historical operations.

Cesium-137 – Cs-137 is a fission-produced radionuclide with a half-life of 30 years (after 30 years, only one half of the original activity level remains). It is found in the worldwide environment as a result of past aboveground nuclear weapons testing and can be observed in near-surface soils at very low concentrations, usually less than 1 pCi/g (0.004 Bq/g). Cs-137 is a beta-emitting radionuclide, but it can be detected by gamma spectroscopy because its decay product, barium-137m, emits gamma radiation.

Cs-137 is found in the environment at BNL mainly as a soil contaminant, from two main sources. The first source is the worldwide deposition from nuclear accidents and fallout from weapons testing programs. The second source is deposition from spills or releases from BNL operations. Nuclear reactor operations produce Cs-137 as a byproduct. In the past, wastewater containing small amounts of Cs-137 generated at the reactor facilities was routinely discharged to the Sewage Treatment Plant (STP), resulting in low-level contamination of the STP and the Peconic River. In 2002/2003, under the Environmental Restoration Program, sand and its debris containing low levels of Cs-137, Sr-90, and heavy metals were removed, assuring that future discharges from the STP are free of these contaminants. Soil contaminated with

Cs-137 is associated with the following areas that have been, or are being, addressed as part of the Environmental Remediation Program: former Hazardous Waste Management Facility, Waste Concentration Facility, Building 650 Reclamation Facility and Sump Outfall Area, and the Brookhaven Graphite Research Reactor (BGRR).

Strontium-90 – Sr-90 is a beta-emitting radionuclide with a half-life of 28 years. Sr-90 is found in the environment principally as a result of fallout from aboveground nuclear weapons testing. Sr-90 released by weapons testing in the 1950s and early 1960s is still present in the environment today. Additionally, nations that were not signatories of the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty of 1963 have contributed to the global inventory of fission products (Sr-90 and Cs-137). This radionuclide was also released as a result of the 1986 Chernobyl accident in the former Soviet Union.

Sr-90 is present at BNL in the soil and groundwater. As in the case of Cs-137, some Sr-90 at BNL results from worldwide nuclear testing; the remaining contamination is a by-product of reactor operations. The following areas with Sr-90 contamination have been or are being addressed as part of the Environmental Remediation Program: former Hazardous Waste Management Facility, Waste Concentration Facility, Building 650 Reclamation Facility and Sump Outfall Area, the BGRR, Former and Interim Landfills, Chemical and Glass Holes Area, and the STP.

The information in SER tables is arranged by method of analysis. Because Sr-90 requires a unique method of analysis, it is reported as a separate entry. Methods for detecting Sr-90 using state-of-the-art equipment are quite sensitive (detecting concentrations less than 1 pCi/L), which makes it possible to detect background levels of Sr-90.

Tritium – Among the radioactive materials that are used or produced at BNL, tritium has received the most public attention. Approximately 4 million Ci (1.5E+5 TBq) per year are produced in the atmosphere naturally (NCRP 1979). As a result aboveground weapons testing in the 1950s and early 1960s in the United

States, the global atmospheric tritium inventory was increased by a factor of about 200. Other human activities such as consumer product manufacturing and nuclear power reactor operations have also released tritium into the environment. Commercially, tritium is used in products such as self-illuminating wristwatches and exit signs (the signs may each contain as much as 25 Ci [925 GBq] of tritium). Tritium also has many uses in medical and biological research as a labeling agent in chemical compounds, and is frequently used in universities and other research settings such as BNL and the other national laboratories.

Of the sources mentioned above, the most significant contributor to tritium in the environment has been aboveground nuclear weapons testing. In the early 1960s, the average tritium concentration in surface streams in the United States reached a value of 4,000 pCi/L (148 Bq/L; NCRP 1979). Approximately the same concentration was measured in precipitation. Today, the level of tritium in surface waters in New York State is less than one-twentieth of that amount, below 200 pCi/L (7.4 Bq/L; NYSDOH 1993). This is less than the detection limit of most analytical laboratories.

Tritium has a half-life of 12.3 years. When an atom of tritium decays, it releases a beta particle, causing transformation of the tritium atom into stable (nonradioactive) helium. The beta radiation that tritium releases has a very low energy, compared to the emissions of most other radioactive elements. In humans, the outer layer of dead skin cells easily stops the beta radiation from tritium; therefore, only when tritium is taken into the body can it cause an exposure. Tritium may be taken into the body by inhalation, ingestion, or absorption of tritiated water through the skin. Because of its low energy radiation and short residence time in the body, the health threat posed by tritium is very small for most exposures.

Environmental tritium is found in two forms: gaseous elemental tritium, and tritiated water or water vapor, in which at least one of the hydrogen atoms in the H₂O water molecule

has been replaced by a tritium atom (hence, its shorthand notation, HTO). Most of the tritium released from BNL sources is in the form of HTO, none as elemental tritium. Sources of tritium at BNL include the reactor facilities (all now non-operational), where residual water (either heavy or light) is converted to tritium via neutron bombardment; the accelerator facilities, where tritium is produced by secondary radiation interactions with soil and water; and facilities like the Brookhaven Linac Isotope Producer (BLIP), where tritium is formed from secondary radiation interaction with cooling water. Tritium has been found in the environment at BNL as a groundwater contaminant from operations in the following areas: Current Landfill, BLIP, Alternating Gradient Synchrotron, and the High Flux Beam Reactor. Although small quantities of tritium are still being released to the environment through BNL emissions and effluents, the concentrations and total quantity have been drastically reduced, compared with historical operational releases as discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

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