

APPENDIX A
RADIATION

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This appendix presents basic facts concerning radiation. The information is intended as a basis for understanding the dose associated with releases from DOE/PORTS, not as a comprehensive discussion of radiation and its effects on the environment and biological systems. *The McGraw-Hill Dictionary of Scientific and Technical Terms* defines radiation and radioactivity as follows.

radiation — (1) The emission and propagation of waves transmitting energy through space or through some medium; for example, the emission and propagation of electromagnetic, sound, or elastic waves. (2) The energy transmitted through space or some medium; when unqualified, usually refers to electromagnetic radiation. Also known as radiant energy. (3) A stream of particles, such as electrons, neutrons, protons, alpha particles, or high-energy photons, or a mixture of these (McGraw-Hill 1989).

radioactivity—A particular type of radiation emitted by a radioactive substance, such as alpha radioactivity (McGraw-Hill 1989).

Radiation occurs naturally; it was not invented but discovered. People are constantly exposed to radiation. For example, radon in air, potassium in food and water, and uranium, thorium, and radium in the earth’s crust are all sources of radiation. The following discussion describes important aspects of radiation, including atoms and isotopes; types, sources, and pathways of radiation; radiation measurement; and dose information.

A.1 ATOMS AND ISOTOPES

All matter is made up of atoms. An atom is “a unit of measure consisting of a single nucleus surrounded by a number of electrons equal to the number of protons in the nucleus” (American Nuclear Society 1986). The number of protons in the nucleus determines an element’s atomic number, or chemical identity. With the exception of hydrogen, the nucleus of each type of atom also contains at least one neutron. Unlike protons, the number of neutrons may vary among atoms of the same element. The number of neutrons and protons determines the atomic weight. Atoms of the same element with a different number of neutrons are called isotopes. In other words, isotopes have the same chemical properties but different atomic weights. Figure A.1 depicts isotopes of the element hydrogen.

Another example is the element uranium, which has 92 protons; all isotopes of uranium, therefore, have 92 protons. However, each uranium isotope has a different number of neutrons. Uranium-238 (also denoted ²³⁸U) has 92 protons and 146 neutrons; uranium-235 has 92 protons and 143 neutrons; uranium-234 has 92 protons and 142 neutrons.

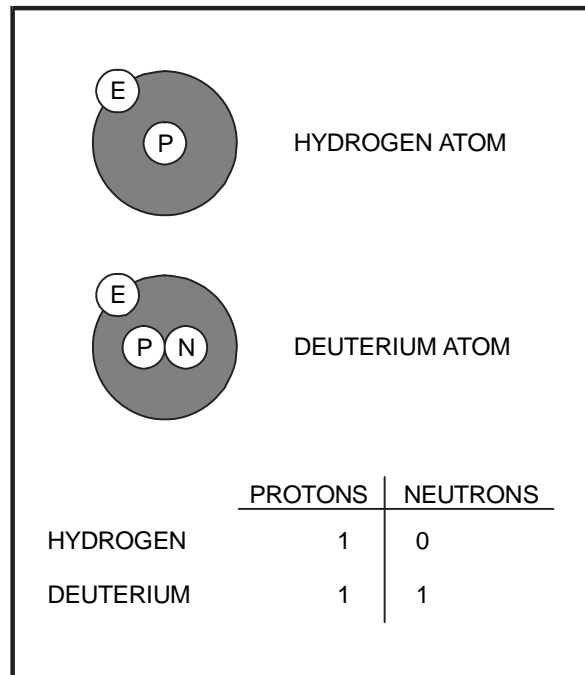


Figure A.1. Isotopes of the element hydrogen

Some isotopes are stable, or nonradioactive; some are radioactive. Radioactive isotopes are called radioisotopes, or radionuclides. In an attempt to become stable, radionuclides “throw away,” or emit, rays or particles. This emission of rays and particles is known as radioactive decay. Each radionuclide has a “radioactive half-life,” which is the average time that it takes for half of a specified number of atoms to decay. Half-lives can be very short (less than a second) or very long (millions of years), depending on the radionuclide. Appendix C presents the half-lives of radionuclides of interest at PORTS.

A.2 RADIATION

Radiation, or radiant energy, is energy in the form of waves or particles moving through space. Visible light, heat, radio waves, and alpha particles are examples of radiation. When people feel warmth from the sunlight, they are actually absorbing the radiant energy emitted by the sun.

Electromagnetic radiation is radiation in the form of electromagnetic waves; examples include gamma rays, ultraviolet light, and radio waves. Particulate radiation is radiation in the form of particles; examples include alpha and beta particles. Radiation also is characterized as ionizing or nonionizing radiation by the way in which it interacts with matter.

A.2.1 Ionizing Radiation

Normally, an atom has an equal number of protons and electrons; however, atoms can lose or gain electrons in a process known as ionization. Some forms of radiation can ionize atoms by “knocking” electrons off atoms. Examples of ionizing radiation include alpha, beta, and gamma radiation.

Ionizing radiation is capable of changing the chemical state of matter and subsequently causing biological damage and thus is potentially harmful to human health. Figure A.2 shows the penetrating potential of different types of ionizing radiation.

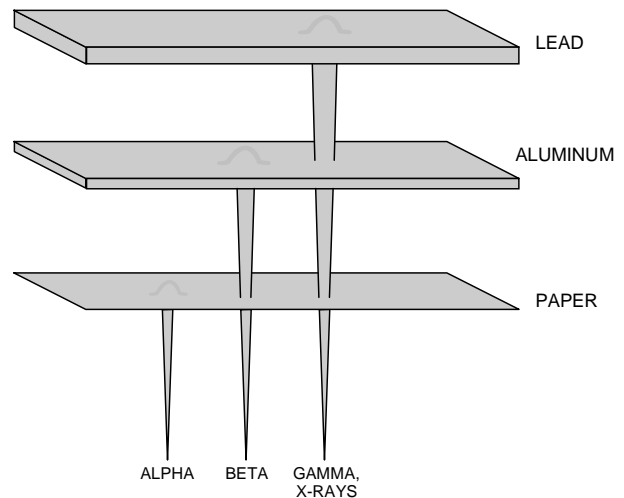


Figure A.2. Penetrating power of radiation.

A.2.2 Nonionizing Radiation

Nonionizing radiation bounces off or passes through matter without displacing electrons. Examples include visible light and radio waves. Currently, it is unclear whether nonionizing radiation is harmful to human health. In the discussion that follows, the term radiation is used to describe ionizing radiation.

A.3 SOURCES OF RADIATION

Radiation is everywhere. Most occurs naturally, but a small percentage is human-made. Naturally occurring radiation is known as background radiation.

A.3.1 Background Radiation

Many materials are naturally radioactive. In fact, this naturally occurring radiation is the major source of radiation in the environment. Although people have little control over the amount of background radiation to which they are exposed, this exposure must be put into perspective. Background radiation remains relatively constant over time; background radiation present in the environment today is much the same as it was hundreds of years ago.

Sources of background radiation include uranium in the earth, radon in the air, and potassium in food. Background radiation is categorized as cosmic, terrestrial, or internal, depending on its origin.

A.3.1.1 Cosmic radiation

Energetically charged particles from outer space continuously hit the earth's atmosphere. These particles and the secondary particles and photons they create are called cosmic radiation. Because the atmosphere provides some shielding against cosmic radiation, the intensity of this radiation increases with altitude above sea level. For example, a person in Denver, Colorado, is exposed to more cosmic radiation than a person in Death Valley, California.

A.3.1.2 Terrestrial radiation

Terrestrial radiation refers to radiation emitted from radioactive materials in the earth's rocks, soils, and minerals. Radon (Rn); radon progeny, the relatively short-lived decay products of radium-235 (^{235}Ra); potassium (^{40}K); isotopes of thorium (Th); and isotopes of uranium (U) are the elements responsible for most terrestrial radiation.

A.3.1.3 Internal radiation

Radioactive material in the environment can enter the body through the air people breathe and the food they eat; it also can enter through an open wound. Natural radionuclides that can be inhaled and ingested include isotopes of uranium, thorium, radium, radon, polonium, bismuth, and lead in the ^{238}U and ^{232}Th decay series. In addition, the body contains isotopes of potassium (^{40}K), rubidium (^{87}Rb), and carbon (^{14}C).

A.3.2 Human-made Radiation

Most people are exposed to human-made sources of radiation. Examples include consumer products, medical sources, and fallout from atmospheric atomic bomb tests. (Atmospheric testing of atomic weapons has been suspended in the United States and most parts of the world.) Also, about one-half of 1% of the U.S. population performs work in which radiation in some form is present.

A.3.2.1 Consumer products

Some consumer products are sources of radiation. In some of these products, such as smoke detectors and airport X-ray baggage inspection systems, radiation is essential to the performance of the device. In other products, such as television and tobacco products, the radiation occurs incidentally to the product function.

A.3.2.2 Medical sources

Radiation is an important tool of diagnostic medicine and treatment, and, in this use, is the main source of exposure to human-made radiation. Exposure is deliberate and directly beneficial to the patients exposed. Generally, medical exposures from diagnostic or therapeutic X-rays result from beams directed to specific areas of the body. Thus, all body organs generally are not irradiated uniformly. Radiation and radioactive materials are also used in a wide variety of pharmaceuticals and in the preparation of medical instruments, including the sterilization of heat-sensitive products such as plastic heart valves. Nuclear medicine examinations and treatment involve the internal administration of radioactive compounds, or radiopharmaceuticals, by injection, inhalation, consumption, or insertion. Even then, radionuclides are not distributed uniformly throughout the body.

A.3.2.3 Other sources

Other sources of radiation include fallout from atmospheric atomic bomb tests; emissions of radioactive materials from nuclear facilities such as uranium mines, fuel processing plants, and nuclear power plants; emissions from mineral extraction facilities; and the transportation of radioactive materials.

A.4 PATHWAYS OF RADIATION

Radiation and radioactive materials in the environment can reach people through many routes (see Figure A.3). Potential routes for radiation are referred to as pathways. For example, radioactive material in the air could fall on a pasture. The grass could then be eaten by cows, and the radioactive material on the grass would be present in the cow's milk. People drinking the milk would thus be exposed to this radiation. Or people could simply inhale the radioactive material in the air. The same events could occur with radioactive material in water. Fish living in the water would be exposed; people eating the fish would then be exposed to the radiation in the fish. Or people swimming in the water would be exposed.

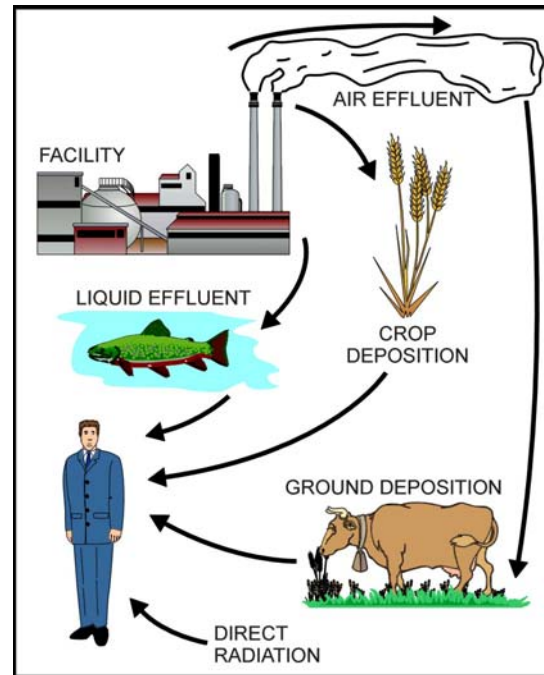


Figure A.3. Possible radiation pathways.

A.5 MEASURING RADIATION

To determine the possible effects of radiation on the environment and the health of people, the radiation must be measured. More precisely, its potential to cause damage must be determined.

A.5.1 Activity

When measuring the amount of radiation in the environment, what is actually being measured is the rate of radioactive decay, or activity. The rate of decay varies widely among the various radionuclides. For that reason, 1 gram of a radioactive substance may contain the same amount of activity as several tons of another material. This activity is expressed in a unit of measure known as a curie (Ci). More specifically, 1 Ci = 3.75E+10 (37,000,000,000) atom disintegrations per second (dps). In the international system of units, 1 dps = 1 becquerel (Bq). Table A.1 provides units of radiation measure and applicable conversions.

Table A.1. Units of radiation measures

Current System	International System	Conversion
curie (Ci)	Becquerel (Bq)	1 Ci = 3.7 x 10 ¹⁰ Bq
rad (radiation absorbed dose)	Gray (Gy)	1 rad = 0.01 Gy
rem (roentgen equivalent man)	Sievert (Sv)	1 rem = 0.01 Sv

A.5.2 Absorbed Dose

The total amount of energy absorbed per unit mass as a result of exposure to radiation is expressed in a unit of measure known as a rad. In the international system of units, 100 rad equals 1 gray (Gy). In terms of human health, however, it is the effect of the absorbed energy that is important, not the actual amount.

A.5.3 Dose Equivalent

The measure of potential biological damage caused by exposure to and subsequent absorption of radiation is expressed in a unit of measure known as a rem. One rem of any type of radiation has the same total damaging effect. Because a rem represents a fairly large dose, dose is expressed as a millirem (mrem) or 1/1000 of a rem. In the international system of units, 100 rem equals 1 sievert (Sv); 100 mrem equals 1 millisievert (mSv). Specific types of dose equivalents are defined as follows:

- **dose equivalent** – The product of the absorbed dose (rad) in tissue and a quality factor. Dose equivalent is expressed in units of rem (or sievert) (1 rem = 0.01 sievert).
- **committed dose equivalent** – The calculated total dose equivalent to a tissue or organ over a 50-year period after known intake of a radionuclide into the body. Contributions from external dose are not included. Committed dose equivalent is expressed in units of rem (or sievert).
- **committed effective dose equivalent** – The sum of the committed dose equivalents to various tissues in the body, each multiplied by an appropriate weighting factor. Committed effective dose equivalent is expressed in units of rem (or sievert).

- **effective dose equivalent** – The sum of the dose equivalents received by all organs or tissues of the body after each one has been multiplied by the appropriate weighting factor. The effective dose equivalent includes the committed effective dose equivalent from internal deposition of radionuclides and the effective dose equivalent attributable to sources external to the body.
- **collective dose equivalent/collective effective dose equivalent** – The sums of the dose equivalents or effective dose equivalents of all individuals in an exposed population within a 50-mile (80-km) radius, expressed in units of person-rem (or person-sievert). When the collective dose equivalent of interest is for a specific organ, the units would be organ-rem (or organ-sievert). The 50-mile distance is measured from a point located centrally with respect to major facilities or DOE program activities.

A.6 DOSE

Many terms are used to report dose. Several factors are taken into account, including the amount of radiation absorbed, the organ absorbing the radiation, and the effect of the radiation over a 50-year period. The term “dose” in this report includes the committed effective dose equivalent and effective dose equivalent attributable to penetrating radiation from sources external to the body.

Determining dose is an involved process using complex mathematical equations based on several factors, including the type of radiation, the rate of exposure, weather conditions, and typical diet. Basically, ionizing radiation is generated from radioactive decay, or activity. People absorb some of the energy to which they are exposed. This absorbed energy is calculated as part of an individual’s dose. Whether radiation is natural or human-made, its effects on people are the same.

A.6.1 Comparison of Dose Levels

Table A.2 presents a scale of dose levels. Included is an example of the type of exposure that may cause such a dose or the special significance of such a dose. This information is intended to familiarize the reader with the type of doses individuals may receive.

A.6.1.1 Dose from cosmic radiation

The average annual dose received by residents of the United States from cosmic radiation is about 27 mrem (0.27 mSv) (National Council on Radiation Protection 1987). The average annual dose from cosmic radiation received by residents in the Portsmouth area is about 50 mrem (0.50 mSv).

A.6.1.2 Dose from terrestrial radiation

The average annual dose received from terrestrial gamma radiation is about 28 mrem (0.28 mSv) in the United States. This dose varies geographically across the country (National Council on Radiation Protection 1987); typical reported values are 16 mrem (0.16 mSv) at the Atlantic and Gulf coastal plains and 63 mrem (0.63 mSv) at the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains.

A.6.1.3 Dose from internal radiation

Short-lived decay products of radon are the major contributors to the annual dose equivalent for internal radionuclides (mostly ^{222}Rn). They contribute an average dose of about 200 mrem (2.00 mSv) per year. This dose estimate is based on an average radon concentration of about 1 pCi/L (0.037 Bq/L) (National Council on Radiation Protection 1987).

Table A.2. Comparison and description of various dose levels

Dose level	Description
1 mrem (0.01 mSv)	Approximate daily dose from natural background radiation, including radon
2.5 mrem (0.025 mSv)	Cosmic dose to a person on a one-way airplane flight from New York to Los Angeles
10 mrem (0.10 mSv)	Annual exposure limit, set up by the U.S. EPA, for exposures from airborne emissions from operations of nuclear fuel cycle facilities, including power plants and uranium mines and mills
46 mrem (0.46 mSv)	Estimate of the largest dose any off-site person could have received from the March 28, 1979, Three Mile Island nuclear power plant accident
50 mrem (0.50 mSv)	Average yearly dose from cosmic radiation received by people in the Portsmouth area
66 mrem (0.66 mSv)	Average yearly dose to people in the United States from human-made sources
100 mrem (1.00 mSv)	Annual limit of dose from all DOE facilities to a member of the public who is not a radiation worker
110 mrem (1.10 mSv)	Average occupational dose received by U.S. commercial radiation workers in 1980
244 mrem (2.44 mSv)	Average dose from an upper gastrointestinal diagnostic X-ray series
300 mrem (3.00 mSv)	Average yearly dose to people in the United States from all sources of natural background radiation
1-5 rem (0.01-0.05 Sv)	U.S. EPA protective action guideline calling for public officials to take emergency action when the dose to a member of the public from a nuclear accident will likely reach this range
5 rem (0.05 Sv)	Annual limit for occupational exposure of radiation workers set by the Nuclear Regulatory Commission and DOE
10 rem (0.10 Sv)	The Biological Effects of Ionizing Radiations V report estimated that an acute dose at this level would result in a lifetime excess risk of death from cancer of 0.8% (Biological Effects of Ionizing Radiation 1990)
25 rem (0.25 Sv)	U.S. EPA guideline for voluntary maximum dose to emergency workers for non-lifesaving work during an emergency
75 rem (0.75 Sv)	U.S. EPA guideline for maximum dose to emergency workers volunteering for lifesaving work
50-600 rem (0.50-6.00 Sv)	Doses in this range received over a short period of time will produce radiation sickness in varying degrees. At the lower end of this range, people are expected to recover completely, given proper medical attention. At the top of this range, most people would die within 60 days

Adapted from Savannah River Site Environmental Report for 1993, Summary Pamphlet, WSRC-TR-94-076, Westinghouse Savannah River Company, 1994.

The average dose from other internal radionuclides is about 39 mrem (0.39 mSv) per year, most of which can be attributed to the naturally occurring isotope of potassium, ⁴⁰K. The concentration of radioactive potassium in human tissues is similar in all parts of the world (National Council on Radiation Protection 1987).

A.6.1.4 Dose from consumer products

The U.S. average annual dose received by an individual from consumer products is about 10 mrem (0.10 mSv) (National Council on Radiation Protection 1987).

A.6.1.5 Dose from medical sources

Nuclear medicine examinations, which involve the internal administration of radiopharmaceuticals, generally account for the largest portion of the dose received from human-made sources. The radionuclides used in specific tests, however, are not distributed uniformly throughout the body. In these cases, comparisons are made using the concept of effective dose equivalent, which relates exposure of organs or body parts to one effective whole-body dose. The average annual effective dose equivalent from medical examinations is 53 mrem (0.53 mSv), including 39 mrem (0.39 mSv) for diagnostic X-rays and 14 mrem (0.14 mSv) for nuclear medicine procedures (National Council on Radiation Protection 1989). The actual doses received by individuals who complete such medical exams are much higher than these values, but not everyone receives such exams each year (National Council on Radiation Protection 1989).

A.6.1.6 Doses from other sources

Small doses received by individuals occur as a result of radioactive fallout from atmospheric atomic bomb tests, emissions of radioactive materials from nuclear facilities, emissions from certain mineral extraction facilities, and transportation of radioactive materials. The combination of these sources contributes less than 1 mrem (0.01 mSv) per year to the average dose to an individual (National Council on Radiation Protection 1987).

A comprehensive U.S. EPA report of 1984 projected the average occupational dose to monitored radiation workers in medicine, industry, the nuclear fuel cycle, government, and miscellaneous industries to be 105 mrem (1.05 mSv) per year for 1985, down slightly from 110 mrem (1.10 mSv) per year in 1980 (Kumazawa et al. 1984).