

# Radioactivity and Production of Radionuclides

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# **Decay of Radioactivity & Radionuclide Production**

- Activity
- Exponential decay
- Half-life
- Specific activity
- Parent-daughter mixtures and radionuclide generators
  - secular equilibrium
  - transient equilibrium
  - no equilibrium
- Production mechanisms
  - neutron activation
  - nuclear fission byproducts
  - accelerator-produced

Activity = number of nuclei that decay per unit time

As t increases, N (# undecayed nuclei) and A decreases

## Radioactivity (ABR core study guide 17.c.i(a)-(b))

Consider a sample of radioactive material. The fractional change in the number of radioactive atoms during some short time,  $\Delta t$ , is linearly related to the time interval. The constant of proportionality is called the **decay constant** for the radionuclide:

$s^{-1}$

Probability of a nucleus decaying per unit time

$$\frac{\Delta N}{N} = -\lambda \Delta t$$

$$\text{Activity (Bq)} = \left| \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} \right| = \lambda N, \text{ where } 1 \text{ Bq} = 1 \text{ decay/second}$$

Bq = becquerel

$$\text{Activity (Ci)} = \lambda N / (3.7 \times 10^{10}) \quad (\text{Ci} = \text{Curies})$$

$$1 \text{ mCi} = 3.7 \times 10^7 \text{ dps} = 37 \text{ MBq}$$

## Exponential Decay (ABR core study guide 17.c.i(b) and 17.c.iii)

Use calculus to solve for the number of radioactive atoms remaining in the sample as a function of time. (Integrate both sides of equation.)

$$\frac{dN}{N} = -\lambda dt$$

$$\ln(N) - \ln(N_0) = -\lambda t,$$

where  $N_0$  = initial number

$$\ln(N/N_0) = -\lambda t$$

$$N(t) = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

Thus:

$$A(t) = A_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$A = \lambda N$$

This proof shows that radioactive decay is exponential decay ---> this leads to the half-life concept

## Half-Life (ABR core study guide 17.c.i(b) and 17.c.iii)

The half-life is the time required for the radioactivity to decay to half of its initial value:

$$\frac{1}{2} A_o = A_o e^{-\lambda t_{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} = e^{-\lambda t_{1/2}}$$

$$\ln(1/2) = -\lambda t_{1/2}$$

$$\ln(2) = \lambda t_{1/2}$$

$$t_{1/2} = \ln(2)/\lambda \sim 0.693/\lambda$$

For a fast rate of decay :  
lambda is large, t(1/2) is short

(The **average** lifetime =  $1/\lambda$  .)

## Specific Activity and Tracer Principle (ABR core study guide 17.c.ii)

The **specific activity** is the ratio of the radioisotope's activity to the total mass of the same element or compound (Bequerels per gram).

The **carrier-free specific activity (CFSA)** is the highest possible specific activity of a radionuclide, i.e. with no “cold” carrier present.

CFSA is inversely related  
to half-life

$$\text{CFSA}(\text{Bq/g}) \sim 4.8 \times 10^{18}/(A t_{1/2}), \text{ where}$$

$A$  = mass number of the radionuclide or compound,

$t_{1/2}$  = half-life in days.

(Note: Easier to get high specific activity  
for short half-life nuclides.)

$$\text{CFSA}(\text{Ci/g}) \sim 1.3 \times 10^8/(A t_{1/2}), \text{ in old units.}$$

## Specific Activity and Tracer Principle (ABR core study guide 17.c.ii)

### Requirements of ideal tracers:

1. Tracer behavior should be as close as possible to that of the natural substance
2. Mass of tracer should not alter underlying physiologic process
  - rule of thumb: mass of tracer  $< 0.01 \times$  mass of endogenous compound
3. Specific activity high enough to permit imaging or blood counting without violating conditions 1 and 2.
4. Any isotope effect should be negligible (or quantitatively predictable).

Example: What is the mass of 10 mCi of  $\text{H}_2^{15}\text{O}$ ? (typical activity injected for PET)

- $t_{1/2}$  of  $^{15}\text{O}$  is 2 minutes = 0.001389 days, and the molecular weight of  $\text{H}_2^{15}\text{O}$  is 17.
- $\text{CFSA} = 1.3 \times 10^8 / (17 \times .001389) = 5.5 \times 10^9 \text{ Ci/g}$ .
- A more typical specific activity might be 10% of the CFSA  $\sim 5.5 \times 10^8 \text{ Ci/g}$ .
- $10 \text{ mCi} = 0.01 \text{ Ci}$ , so mass =  $0.01 \text{ Ci} / 5.5 \times 10^8 \text{ Ci/g} = 18.2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ g} = 18.2 \text{ pg}$ .
- **18.2 pg -- diluted throughout the whole body -- is clearly a trace amount.**

## Radionuclide Equilibrium (Parent-Daughter Mixtures) (ABR core study guide 17.c.iv)

Complicated situation: parent radionuclide gives rise to new daughter radioactivity, even as the daughter's activity decays.

Activities are described completely by **Bateman equations**.

Approximations of interest:

- **secular equilibrium** ( $T_p \gg T_d$ ), e.g. Ra-226  $\rightarrow$  Rn-222

$$A_d(t) \approx A_p(t)(1 - e^{-\lambda_d t}) \times B.R. \quad (1620 \text{ y} \gg 4.8 \text{ d})$$

- **transient equilibrium** ( $T_p > T_d$ ), e.g. Mo-99  $\rightarrow$  Tc-99m

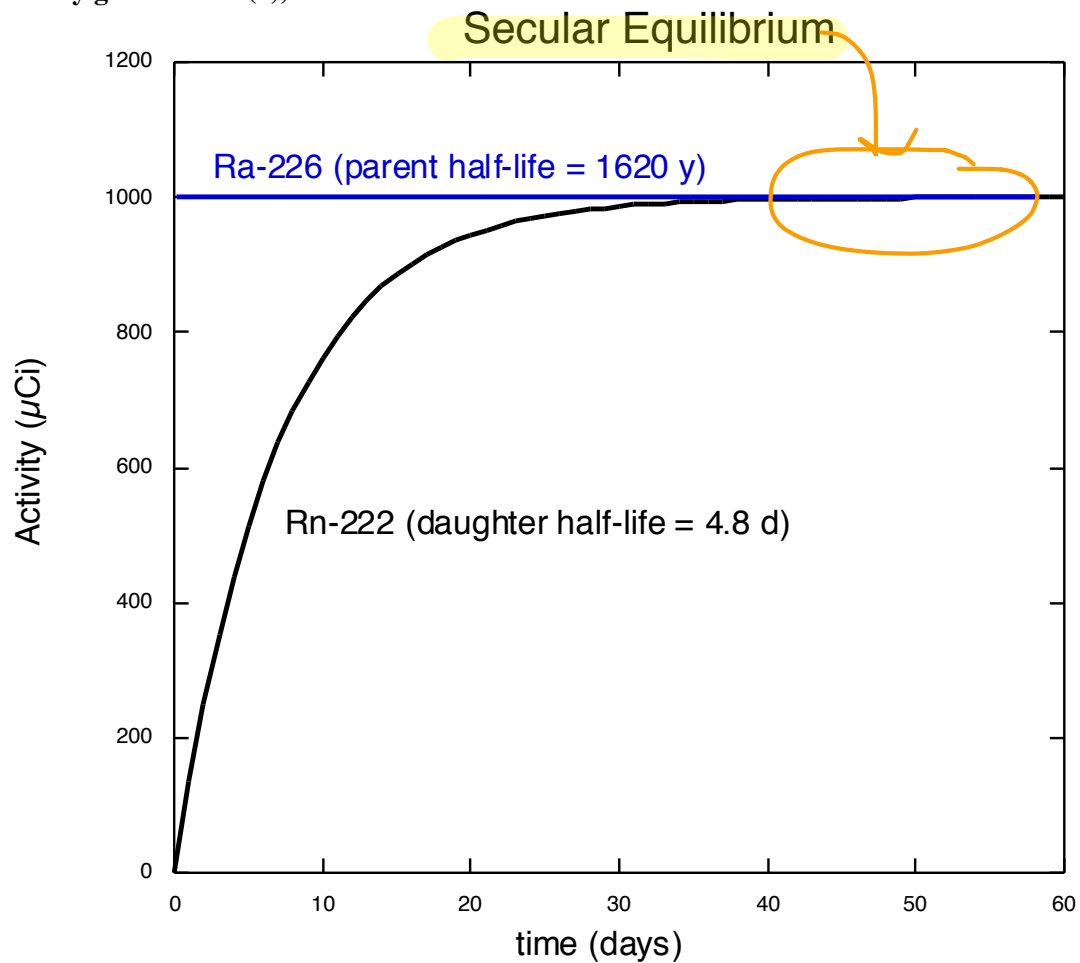
$$\frac{A_d}{A_p} = \left[ \frac{T_p}{T_p - T_d} \right] \times B.R. \quad (66 \text{ h} > 6 \text{ h})$$

- **no equilibrium** ( $T_d > T_p$ ), e.g. Te-131m  $\rightarrow$  I-131

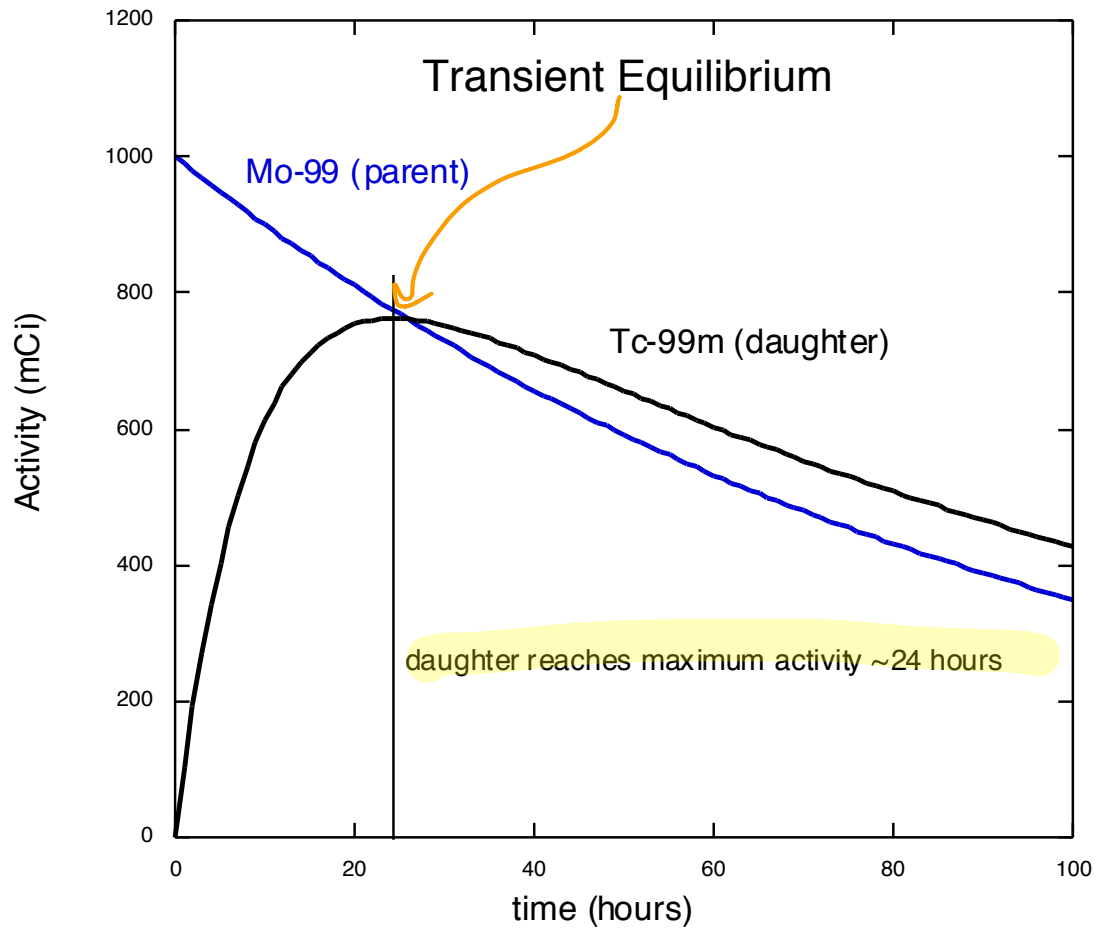
parent goes away, daughter decays (30 h < 8 d)



(ABR core study guide 17.c.iv(a))



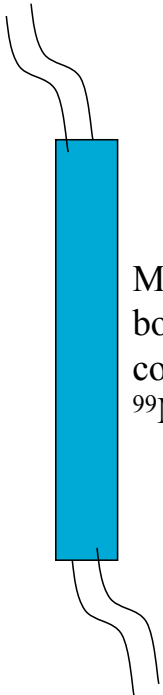
(ABR core study guide 17.c.iv(a))



(ABR core study guide 17.c.iv(b))

### Mo-99 / Tc-99m Generator (transient equilibrium)

inject saline



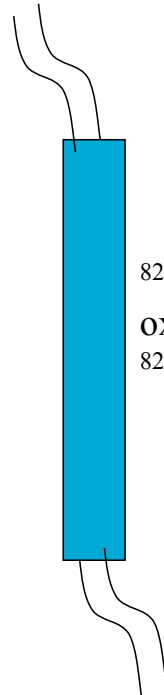
Molybdate ions,  $^{99}\text{MoO}_4^{2-}$   
bound to an alumina ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ )  
column.  
 $^{99}\text{Mo } t_{1/2} = 66 \text{ h}$ ;  $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc } t_{1/2} = 6 \text{ h}$

Collect  $^{99\text{m}}\text{TcO}_4^-$  (pertechnetate) in eluate

- Check for alumina ( $<10 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ) and Mo-99 breakthrough ( $<0.15 \mu\text{Ci Mo-99 / mCi Tc-99m}$ )

### Sr-82 / Rb-82 Generator (secular equilibrium)

inject saline



$^{82}\text{Sr}$  adsorbed on a stannic  
oxide ( $\text{SnO}_2$ ) column.  
 $^{82}\text{Sr } t_{1/2} = 25.6 \text{ d}$ ;  $^{82}\text{Rb } t_{1/2} = 75 \text{ s}$

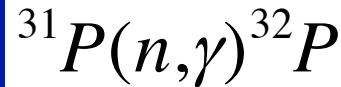
Collect  $^{82}\text{RbCl}$  in eluate

- Check Sr-82  $< 0.02 \text{ kBq}$  and Sr-85  $< 0.2 \text{ kBq}$  per MBq of Rb-82 administered

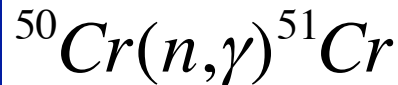
## Radionuclide Production: Neutron Activation

- In a nuclear reactor, fission reactions break apart U-235 into multiple “fission fragments” and release lots of neutrons.
- The neutrons can be used to irradiate various targets, which are placed inside the reactor. The targets absorb neutrons to become “activated”.

1. P-32 production  
(14.3 day  $t_{1/2}$ )



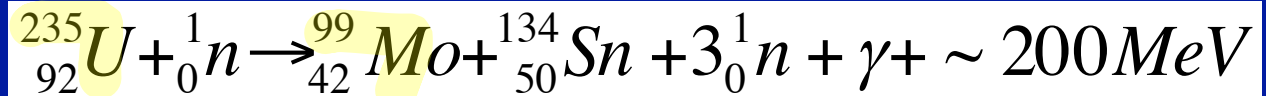
2. Cr-51 production  
(27.8 days  $t_{1/2}$ )



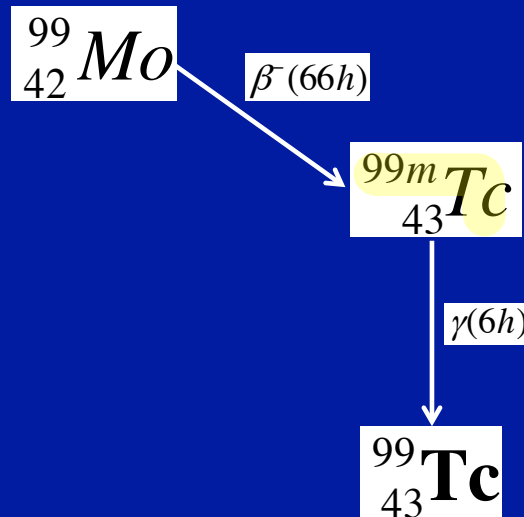
## Radionuclide Production: Fission Byproducts

### 1. Generator Production of Tc-99m (many uses)

In nuclear reactor:

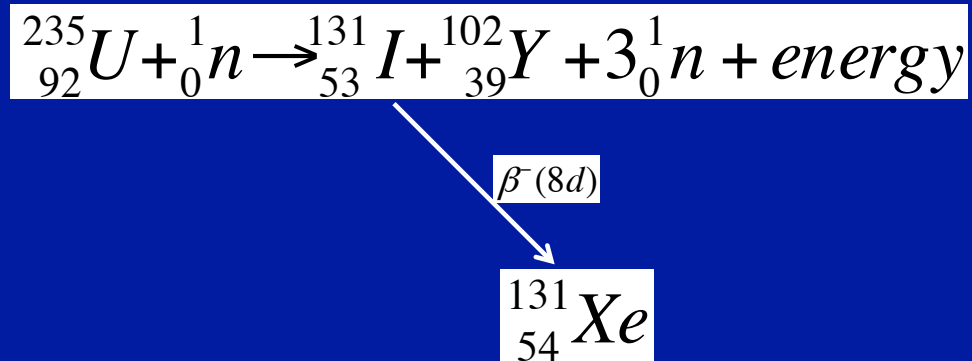


In generator:



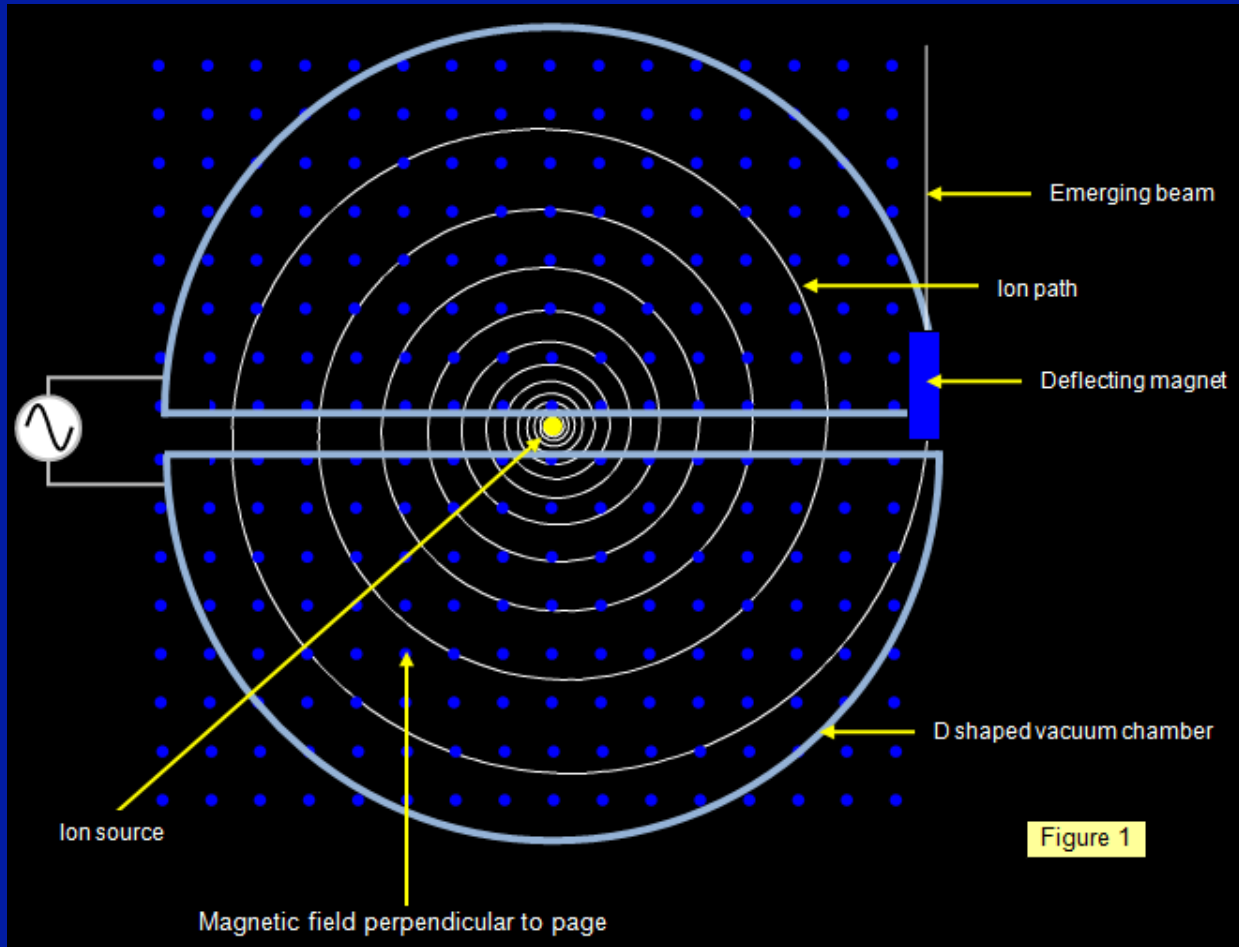
## Radionuclide Production: Fission Byproducts

### 2. I-131 Production (used for thyroid imaging + therapy):



### 3. Xe-133 is another fission byproduct (lung vent imaging)

## Cyclotron: Principle of Operation



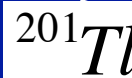
## Radionuclide Production: Cyclotron Produced

### 1. Thallium-201:

- myocardial perfusion
- tumor imaging



EC(9.4h)



EC(73h)



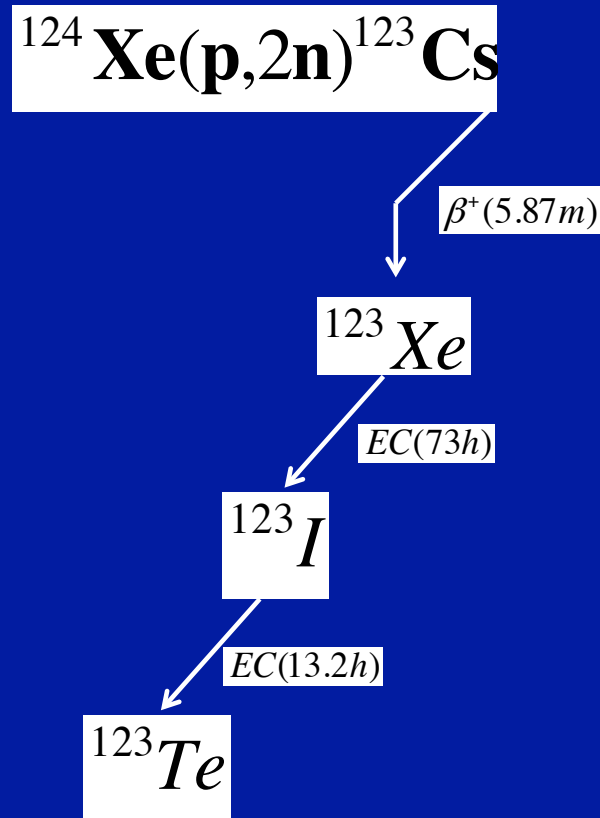
Image mercury x-rays



## Radionuclide Production: Cyclotron Produced

### 2. I-123:

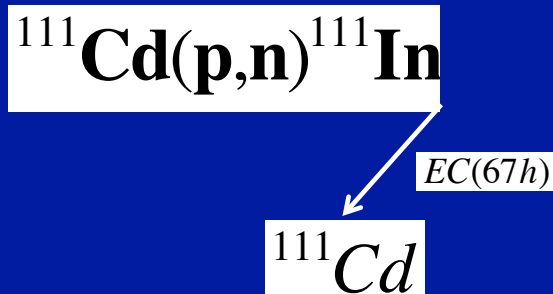
- thyroid imaging
- MIBG imaging



## Radionuclide Production: Cyclotron Produced

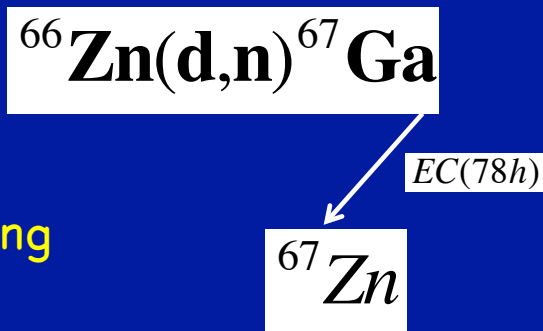
### 3. In-111:

- octreotide
- WBCs



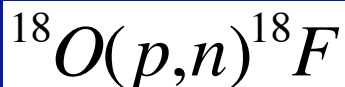
### 4. Ga-67:

- lymphoma and
- infection imaging



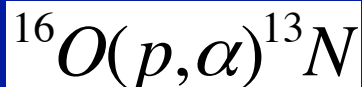
## Radionuclide Production: Cyclotron Produced PET Tracers

5. F-18 (e.g., FDG):



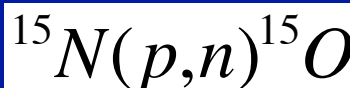
(110 min)

6. N-13 (e.g., ammonia):



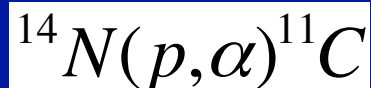
(10 min)

7. O-15 (water)



(2.0 min)

8. C-11 (e.g., acetate)



(20.4 min)