

## 15.4: Biological Effects of Radiation

### Learning Objectives

- Describe the biological impact of ionizing radiation.
- Define units for measuring radiation exposure.
- Explain the operation of common tools for detecting radioactivity.
- List common sources of radiation exposure in the U.S.

The increased use of radioisotopes has led to increased concerns over the effects of these materials on biological systems (such as humans). All radioactive nuclides emit high-energy particles or electromagnetic waves. When this radiation encounters living cells, it can cause heating, break chemical bonds, or ionize molecules. The most serious biological damage results when these radioactive emissions fragment or ionize molecules. For example, alpha and beta particles emitted from nuclear decay reactions possess much higher energies than ordinary chemical bond energies. When these particles strike and penetrate matter, they produce ions and molecular fragments that are extremely reactive. The damage this does to biomolecules in living organisms can cause serious malfunctions in normal cell processes, taxing the organism's repair mechanisms and possibly causing illness or even death (Figure 15.4.1).

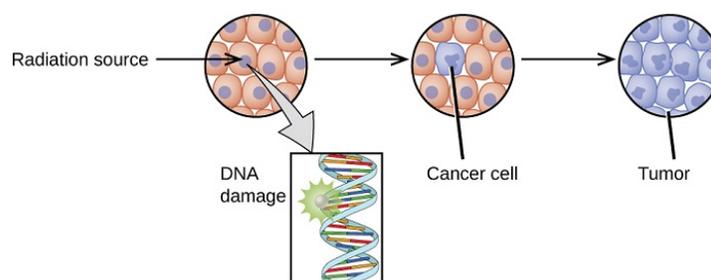


Figure 15.4.1: Radiation can harm biological systems by damaging the DNA of cells. If this damage is not properly repaired, the cells may divide in an uncontrolled manner and cause cancer.

A diagram is shown which has a white sphere followed by a right-facing arrow and a large sphere composed of many smaller white and green spheres. The single sphere has impacted the larger sphere. A right-facing arrow leads from the larger sphere to a pair of smaller spheres which are collections of the same white and green spheres. A starburst pattern lies between these two spheres and has three right-facing arrows leading from it to two white spheres and a circle full of ten smaller, peach-colored circles with purple dots in their centers. An arrow leads downward from this circle to a box that contains a helical shape with a starburst near its top left side and is labeled "D N A damage." A right-facing arrow leads from this circle to a second circle, with nine smaller, peach-colored circles with purple dots in their centers and one fully purple small circle labeled "Cancer cell." A right-facing arrow leads to a final circle, this time full of the purple cells, that is labeled "Tumor."

### Ionizing vs. Nonionizing Radiation

There is a large difference in the magnitude of the biological effects of nonionizing radiation (for example, light and microwaves) and ionizing radiation, emissions energetic enough to knock electrons out of molecules (for example,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  particles,  $\gamma$  rays, X-rays, and high-energy ultraviolet radiation) (Figure 15.4.2).

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Figure 15.4.2: Lower frequency, lower-energy electromagnetic radiation is nonionizing, and higher frequency, higher-energy electromagnetic radiation is ionizing.

Energy absorbed from nonionizing radiation speeds up the movement of atoms and molecules, which is equivalent to heating the sample. Although biological systems are sensitive to heat (as we might know from touching a hot stove or spending a day at the beach in the sun), a large amount of nonionizing radiation is necessary before dangerous levels are reached. Ionizing radiation, however, may cause much more severe damage by breaking bonds or removing electrons in biological molecules, disrupting their structure and function. The damage can also be done indirectly, by first ionizing  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (the most abundant molecule in living organisms), which forms a  $\text{H}_2\text{O}^+$  ion that reacts with water, forming a hydronium ion and a hydroxyl radical:

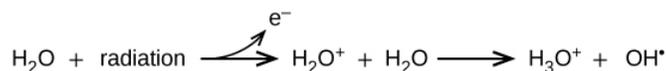


Figure 15.4.3.



Since it is about eight times more dense than air, radon gas accumulates in basements and lower floors, and slowly diffuses throughout buildings (Figure 15.4.5).

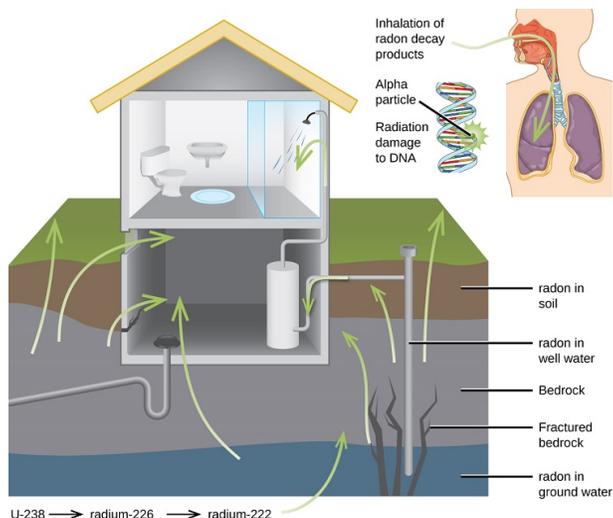


Figure 15.4.5: Radon-222 seeps into houses and other buildings from rocks that contain uranium-238, a radon emitter. The radon enters through cracks in concrete foundations and basement floors, stone or porous cinderblock foundations, and openings for water and gas pipes.

A cut-away image of the side of a house and four layers of the ground it rests on is shown, as well as a second cut-away image of a person's head and chest cavity. The house is shown with a restroom on the second floor and a basement with a water heater as the first floor. Green arrows lead from the lowest ground layer, labeled "radon in ground water," from the third ground layer, labeled "Bedrock" and "Fractured bedrock," from the second layer, labeled "radon in well water," and from the top layer, labeled "radon in soil" to the inside of the basement area. In the smaller image of the torso, a green arrow is shown to enter the person's nasal passage and travel to the lungs. This is labeled "Inhalation of radon decay products." A small coiled, helical structure next to the torso is labeled "alpha particle" on one section where it has a starburst pattern and "Radiation damage to DNA" on another segment.

Radon is found in buildings across the country, with amounts dependent on location. The average concentration of radon inside houses in the US (1.25 pCi/L) is about three times the level found in outside air, and about one in six houses have radon levels high enough that remediation efforts to reduce the radon concentration are recommended. Exposure to radon increases one's risk of getting cancer (especially lung cancer), and high radon levels can be as bad for health as smoking a carton of cigarettes a day. Radon is the number one cause of lung cancer in nonsmokers and the second leading cause of lung cancer overall. Radon exposure is believed to cause over 20,000 deaths in the US per year.

## Measuring Radiation Exposure

Several different devices are used to detect and measure radiation, including Geiger counters, scintillation counters (scintillators), and radiation dosimeters (Figure 15.4.6). Probably the best-known radiation instrument, the Geiger counter (also called the Geiger-Müller counter) detects and measures radiation. Radiation causes the ionization of the gas in a Geiger-Müller tube. The rate of ionization is proportional to the amount of radiation. A scintillation counter contains a scintillator—a material that emits light (luminesces) when excited by ionizing radiation—and a sensor that converts the light into an electric signal. Radiation dosimeters also measure ionizing radiation and are often used to determine personal radiation exposure. Commonly used types are electronic, film badge, thermoluminescent, and quartz fiber dosimeters.

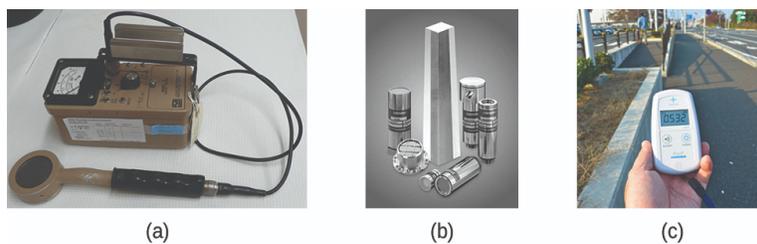


Figure 15.4.6: Devices such as (a) Geiger counters, (b) scintillators, and (c) dosimeters can be used to measure radiation. (Credit c: modification of work by “osaMu”/Wikimedia commons.)

Three photographs are shown and labeled “a,” “b” and “c.” Photo a shows a Geiger counter sitting on a table. It is made up of a metal box with a read-out screen and a wire leading away from the box connected to a sensor wand. Photograph b shows a collection of tall and short vertical tubes arranged in a grouping while photograph c shows a person’s hand holding a small machine with a digital readout while standing on the edge of a roadway.

A variety of units are used to measure various aspects of radiation (Table 15.4.1). The SI unit for rate of radioactive decay is the becquerel (Bq), with  $1 \text{ Bq} = 1$  disintegration per second. The curie (Ci) and millicurie (mCi) are much larger units and are frequently used in medicine ( $1 \text{ curie} = 1 \text{ Ci} = 3.7 \times 10^{10}$  disintegrations per second). The SI unit for measuring radiation dose is the gray (Gy), with  $1 \text{ Gy} = 1 \text{ J}$  of energy absorbed per kilogram of tissue. In medical applications, the radiation absorbed dose (rad) is more often used ( $1 \text{ rad} = 0.01 \text{ Gy}$ ;  $1 \text{ rad}$  results in the absorption of  $0.01 \text{ J/kg}$  of tissue). The SI unit measuring tissue damage caused by radiation is the sievert (Sv). This takes into account both the energy and the biological effects of the type of radiation involved in the radiation dose.

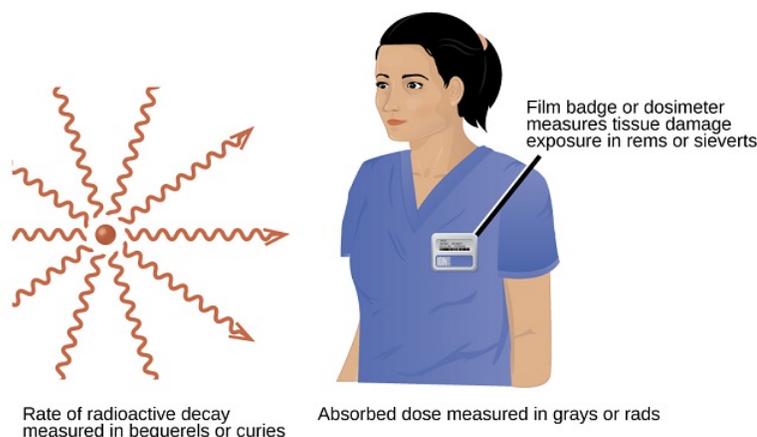
Table 15.4.1: Units Used for Measuring Radiation

Measurement Purpose	Unit	Quantity Measured	Description
<i>activity of source</i>	becquerel (Bq)	radioactive decays or emissions	amount of sample that undergoes 1 decay/second
	curie (Ci)		amount of sample that undergoes $3.7 \times 10^{10}$ decays/second
<i>absorbed dose</i>	gray (Gy)	energy absorbed per kg of tissue	$1 \text{ Gy} = 1 \text{ J/kg}$ tissue
	radiation absorbed dose (rad)		$1 \text{ rad} = 0.01 \text{ J/kg}$ tissue
<i>biologically effective dose</i>	sievert (Sv)	tissue damage	$\text{Sv} = \text{RBE} \times \text{Gy}$
	roentgen equivalent for man (rem)		$\text{Rem} = \text{RBE} \times \text{rad}$

The roentgen equivalent for man (rem) is the unit for radiation damage that is used most frequently in medicine ( $1 \text{ rem} = 1 \text{ Sv}$ ). Note that the tissue damage units (rem or Sv) includes the energy of the radiation dose (rad or Gy), along with a biological factor referred to as the RBE (for relative biological effectiveness), that is an approximate measure of the relative damage done by the radiation. These are related by:

$$\text{number of rems} = \text{RBE} \times \text{number of rads} \quad (15.4.1)$$

with RBE approximately 10 for  $\alpha$  radiation, 2(+) for protons and neutrons, and 1 for  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  radiation.



Rate of radioactive decay measured in becquerels or curies

Absorbed dose measured in grays or rads

Film badge or dosimeter measures tissue damage exposure in rems or sieverts

Figure 15.4.7: Different units are used to measure the rate of emission from a radioactive source, the energy that is absorbed from the source, and the amount of damage the absorbed radiation does. (CC by 4.0; OpenStax)

Two images are shown. The first, labeled “Rate of radioactive decay measured in becquerels or curies,” shows a red sphere with ten red squiggly arrows facing away from it in a 360 degree circle. The second image shows the head and torso of a woman wearing medical scrubs with a badge on her chest. The caption to the badge reads “Film badge or dosimeter measures tissue damage exposure in rems or sieverts” while a phrase under this image states “Absorbed dose measured in grays or rads.”

### ✓ Example 15.4.1: Amount of Radiation

Cobalt-60 ( $t_{1/2} = 5.26 \text{ y}$ ) is used in cancer therapy since the  $\gamma$  rays it emits can be focused in small areas where the cancer is located. A 5.00-g sample of Co-60 is available for cancer treatment.

- What is its activity in Bq?
- What is its activity in Ci?

#### Solution

The activity is given by:

$$\text{Activity} = \lambda N = \left( \frac{\ln 2}{t_{1/2}} \right) N = \left( \frac{\ln 2}{5.26 \text{ y}} \right) \times 5.00 \text{ g} = 0.659 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{y}} \text{ of } ^{60}\text{Co} \text{ that decay}$$

And to convert this to decays per second:

$$\begin{aligned} 0.659 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{y}} \times \frac{\text{y}}{365 \text{ day}} \times \frac{1 \text{ day}}{24 \text{ hours}} \times \frac{1 \text{ h}}{3,600 \text{ s}} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol}}{59.9 \text{ g}} \times \frac{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ atoms}}{1 \text{ mol}} \times \frac{1 \text{ decay}}{1 \text{ atom}} \\ = 2.10 \times 10^{14} \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}} \end{aligned}$$

(a) Since  $1 \text{ Bq} = 1 \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}}$ , the activity in Becquerel (Bq) is:

$$2.10 \times 10^{14} \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}} \times \left( \frac{1 \text{ Bq}}{1 \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}}} \right) = 2.10 \times 10^{14} \text{ Bq}$$

(b) Since  $1 \text{ Ci} = 3.7 \times 10^{11} \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}}$ , the activity in curie (Ci) is:

$$2.10 \times 10^{14} \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}} \times \left( \frac{1 \text{ Ci}}{3.7 \times 10^{11} \frac{\text{decay}}{\text{s}}} \right) = 5.7 \times 10^2 \text{ Ci}$$

### ? Exercise 15.4.1

Tritium is a radioactive isotope of hydrogen ( $t_{1/2} = 12.32 \text{ years}$ ) that has several uses, including self-powered lighting, in which electrons emitted in tritium radioactive decay cause phosphorus to glow. Its nucleus contains one proton and two neutrons, and the atomic mass of tritium is 3.016 amu. What is the activity of a sample containing 1.00mg of tritium (a) in Bq and (b) in Ci?

**Answer a**

$$3.56 \times 10^{11} \text{ Bq}$$

**Answer b**

$$0.962 \text{ Ci}$$

## Effects of Long-term Radiation Exposure on the Human Body

The effects of radiation depend on the type, energy, and location of the radiation source, and the length of exposure. As shown in Figure 15.4.8 the average person is exposed to background radiation, including cosmic rays from the sun and radon from uranium in the ground (see the Chemistry in Everyday Life feature on Radon Exposure); radiation from medical exposure, including CAT scans, radioisotope tests, X-rays, and so on; and small amounts of radiation from other human activities, such as airplane flights (which are bombarded by increased numbers of cosmic rays in the upper atmosphere), radioactivity from consumer products, and a variety of radionuclides that enter our bodies when we breathe (for example, carbon-14) or through the food chain (for example, potassium-40, strontium-90, and iodine-131).

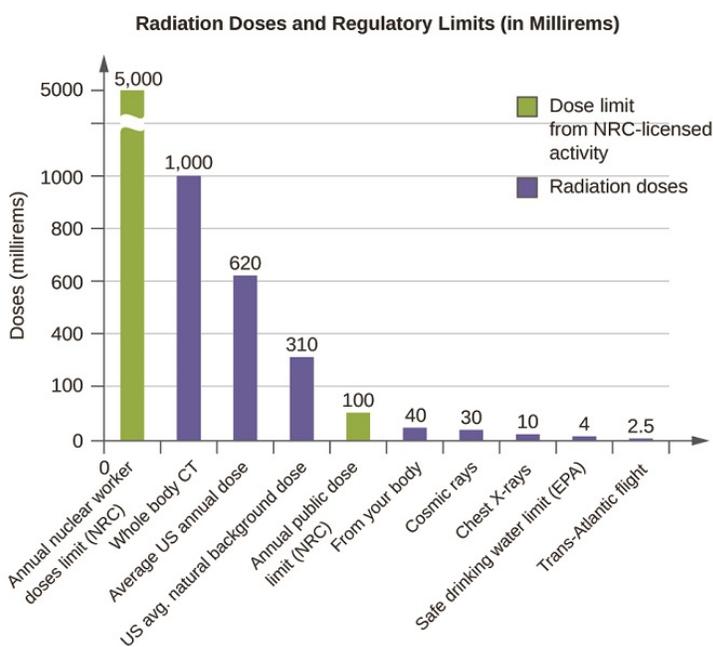


Figure 15.4.8: The total annual radiation exposure for a person in the US is about 620 mrem. The various sources and their relative amounts are shown in this bar graph. (source: U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission).

A bar graph titled “Radiation Doses and Regulatory Limits, open parenthesis, in Millirems, close parenthesis” is shown. The y-axis is labeled “Doses in Millirems” and has values from 0 to 5000 with a break between 1000 and 5000 to indicate a different scale to the top of the graph. The y-axis is labeled corresponding to each bar. The first bar, measured to 5000 on the y-axis, is drawn in red and is labeled “Annual Nuclear Worker Doses Limit, open parenthesis, N R C, close parenthesis.” The second bar, measured to 1000 on the y-axis, is drawn in blue and is labeled “Whole Body C T” while the third bar, measured to 620 on the y-axis, is drawn in blue and is labeled “U period S period Natural Background Dose” while the fifth bar, measured to 100 on the y-axis and drawn in red reads “Annual Public Dose Limit, open parenthesis, N R C, close parenthesis.” The sixth bar, measured to 40 on the y-axis, is drawn in blue and is labeled “From Your Body” while the seventh bar, measured to 30 on the y-axis and drawn in blue reads “Cosmic rays.” The eighth bar, measured to 4 on the y-axis, is drawn in blue and is labeled “Safe Drinking Water Limit, open parenthesis, E P A, close parenthesis” while the ninth bar, measured to 2.5 on the y-axis and drawn in red reads “Trans Atlantic Flight.” A legend on the graph shows that red means “Dose Limit From N R C dash licensed activity” while blue means “Radiation Doses.”

A short-term, sudden dose of a large amount of radiation can cause a wide range of health effects, from changes in blood chemistry to death. Short-term exposure to tens of rems of radiation will likely cause very noticeable symptoms or illness; a dose of about 500 rems is estimated to have a 50% probability of causing the death of the victim within 30 days of exposure. Exposure to radioactive emissions has a cumulative effect on the body during a person’s lifetime, which is another reason why it is important to avoid any unnecessary exposure to radiation. Health effects of short-term exposure to radiation are shown in Table 15.4.2

Table 15.4.2: Health Effects of Radiation

Exposure (rem)	Health Effect	Time to Onset (Without Treatment)
5–10	changes in blood chemistry	—
50	nausea	hours
55	fatigue	—
70	vomiting	—
75	hair loss	2–3 weeks
90	diarrhea	—
100	hemorrhage	—
400	possible death	within 2 months
1000	destruction of intestinal lining	—
	internal bleeding	—
	death	1–2 weeks
2000	damage to central nervous system	—
	loss of consciousness	minutes
	death	hours to days

It is impossible to avoid some exposure to ionizing radiation. We are constantly exposed to background radiation from a variety of natural sources, including cosmic radiation, rocks, medical procedures, consumer products, and even our own atoms. We can minimize our exposure by blocking or shielding the radiation, moving farther from the source, and limiting the time of exposure.

## Summary

We are constantly exposed to radiation from a variety of naturally occurring and human-produced sources. This radiation can affect living organisms. Ionizing radiation is the most harmful because it can ionize molecules or break chemical bonds, which damages the molecule and causes malfunctions in cell processes. It can also create reactive hydroxyl radicals that damage biological molecules and disrupt physiological processes. Radiation can cause somatic or genetic damage, and is most harmful to rapidly reproducing cells. Types of radiation differ in their ability to penetrate material and damage tissue, with alpha particles the least penetrating, but potentially most damaging, and gamma rays the most penetrating.

Various devices, including Geiger counters, scintillators, and dosimeters, are used to detect and measure radiation, and monitor radiation exposure. We use several units to measure radiation: becquerels or curies for rates of radioactive decay; gray or rads for energy absorbed; and rems or sieverts for biological effects of radiation. Exposure to radiation can cause a wide range of health effects, from minor to severe, including death. We can minimize the effects of radiation by shielding with dense materials such as lead, moving away from the source of radiation, and limiting time of exposure.

## Footnotes

- 1 Source: US Environmental Protection Agency

## Glossary

### becquerel (Bq)

SI unit for rate of radioactive decay; 1 Bq = 1 disintegration/s.

### curie (Ci)

Larger unit for rate of radioactive decay frequently used in medicine; 1 Ci =  $3.7 \times 10^{10}$  disintegrations/s.

### Geiger counter

Instrument that detects and measures radiation via the ionization produced in a Geiger-Müller tube.

**gray (Gy)**

SI unit for measuring radiation dose; 1 Gy = 1 J absorbed/kg tissue.

**ionizing radiation**

Radiation that can cause a molecule to lose an electron and form an ion.

**millicurie (mCi)**

Larger unit for rate of radioactive decay frequently used in medicine; 1 Ci =  $3.7 \times 10^{10}$  disintegrations/s.

**nonionizing radiation**

Radiation that speeds up the movement of atoms and molecules; it is equivalent to heating a sample, but is not energetic enough to cause the ionization of molecules.

**radiation absorbed dose (rad)**

SI unit for measuring radiation dose, frequently used in medical applications; 1 rad = 0.01 Gy.

**radiation dosimeter**

Device that measures ionizing radiation and is used to determine personal radiation exposure.

**relative biological effectiveness (RBE)**

Measure of the relative damage done by radiation.

**roentgen equivalent man (rem)**

Unit for radiation damage, frequently used in medicine; 1 rem = 1 Sv.

**scintillation counter**

Instrument that uses a scintillator—a material that emits light when excited by ionizing radiation—to detect and measure radiation.

**sievert (Sv)**

SI unit measuring tissue damage caused by radiation; takes energy and biological effects of radiation into account.

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