Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 4

Plan for This Session

Turn in RE1

Announcements

Questions

News

Module 2: Nuclear Weapons

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 4

Announcements

(1) Please report possible problems with electronic submission to me!

(2) Reading assignments for today (could be subject to a pop quiz in Monday's writing lab!).

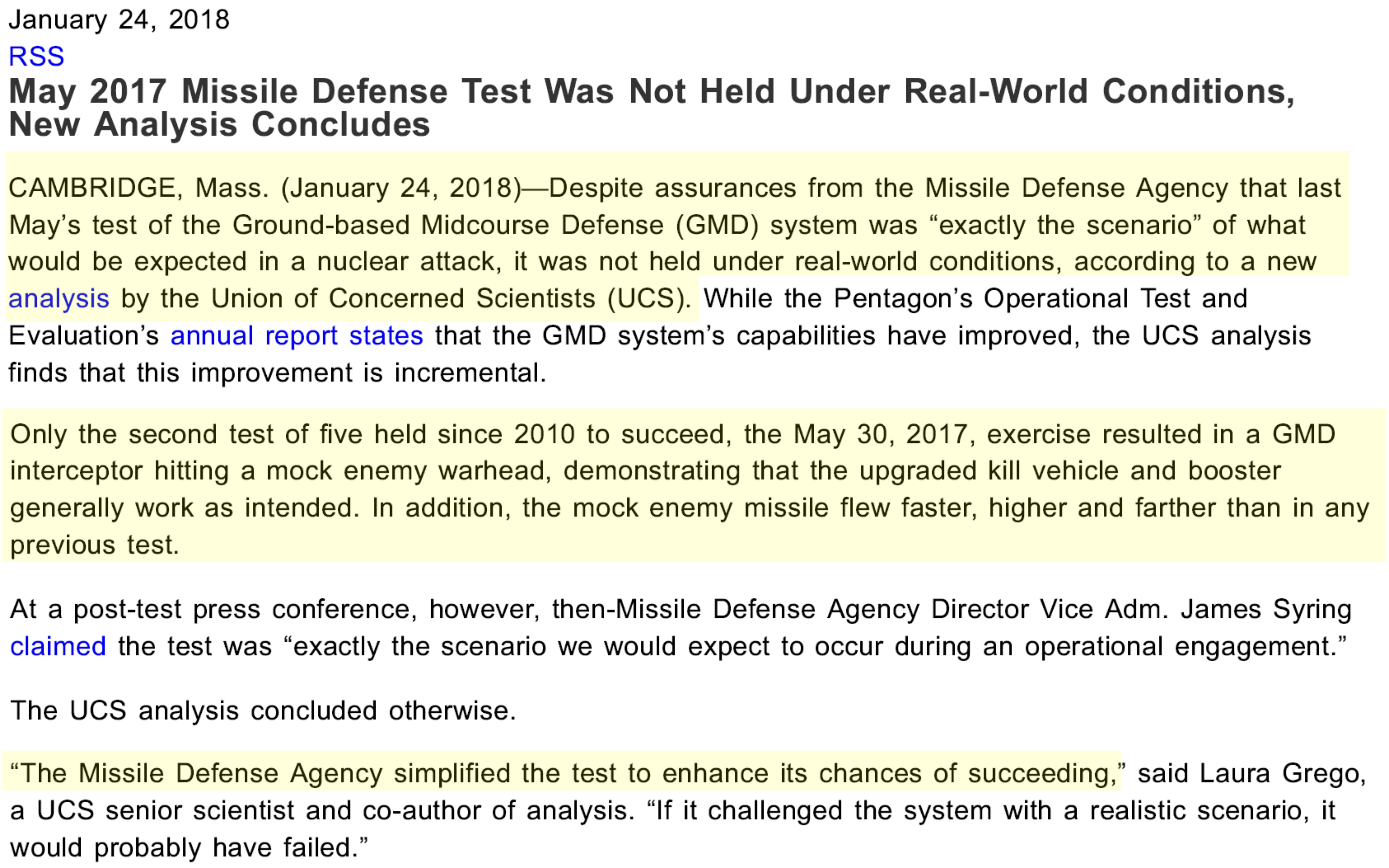
- The Physics and Technology of Nuclear Explosive Materials
- Use of Reactor Grade and Weapon Grade Plutonium in Nuclear Explosives
https://courses.physics.illinois.edu/phys280/sp2018/reading.html

(3) Please read the essay prompts prior to the writing labs. Make sure to ask your TA in case you have questions concerning a prompt. Next prompt RE2v1!

News

Union of Concerned Scientists
Science for a healthy planet and safer world

Ballistic Missile Defense



January 24, 2018

RSS

May 2017 Missile Defense Test Was Not Held Under Real-World Conditions, New Analysis Concludes

CAMBRIDGE, Mass. (January 24, 2018)—Despite assurances from the Missile Defense Agency that last May's test of the Ground-based Midcourse Defense (GMD) system was "exactly the scenario" of what would be expected in a nuclear attack, it was not held under real-world conditions, according to a new analysis by the Union of Concerned Scientists (UCS). While the Pentagon's Operational Test and Evaluation's annual report states that the GMD system's capabilities have improved, the UCS analysis finds that this improvement is incremental.

Only the second test of five held since 2010 to succeed, the May 30, 2017, exercise resulted in a GMD interceptor hitting a mock enemy warhead, demonstrating that the upgraded kill vehicle and booster generally work as intended. In addition, the mock enemy missile flew faster, higher and farther than in any previous test.

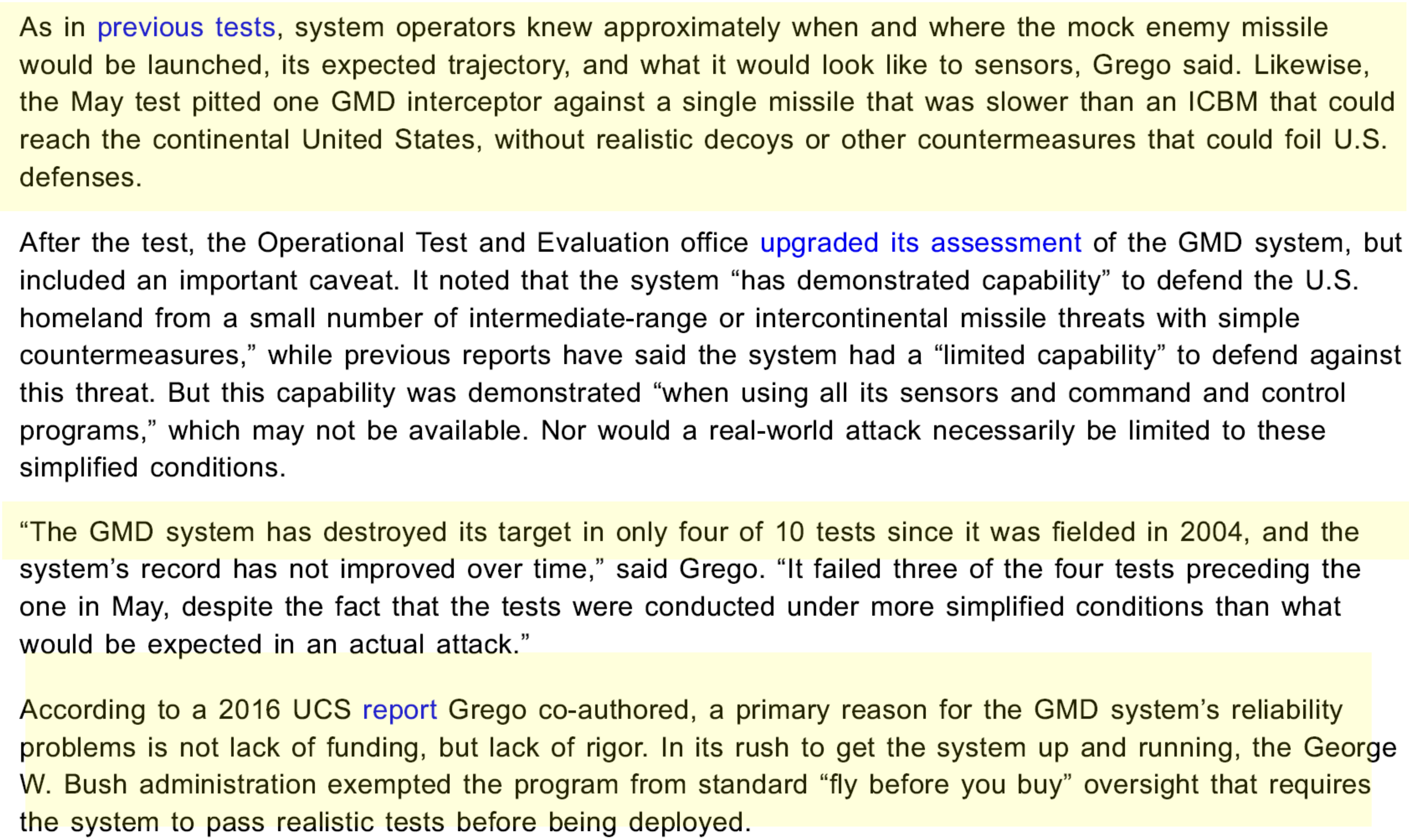
At a post-test press conference, however, then-Missile Defense Agency Director Vice Adm. James Syring claimed the test was "exactly the scenario we would expect to occur during an operational engagement."

The UCS analysis concluded otherwise.

"The Missile Defense Agency simplified the test to enhance its chances of succeeding," said Laura Grego, a UCS senior scientist and co-author of analysis. "If it challenged the system with a realistic scenario, it would probably have failed."

News: Union of Concerned Scientists Ballistic Missile Defense

Science for a healthy planet and safer world



As in previous tests, system operators knew approximately when and where the mock enemy missile would be launched, its expected trajectory, and what it would look like to sensors, Grego said. Likewise, the May test pitted one GMD interceptor against a single missile that was slower than an ICBM that could reach the continental United States, without realistic decoys or other countermeasures that could foil U.S. defenses.

After the test, the Operational Test and Evaluation office upgraded its assessment of the GMD system, but included an important caveat. It noted that the system "has demonstrated capability" to defend the U.S. homeland from a small number of intermediate-range or intercontinental missile threats with simple countermeasures," while previous reports have said the system had a "limited capability" to defend against this threat. But this capability was demonstrated "when using all its sensors and command and control programs," which may not be available. Nor would a real-world attack necessarily be limited to these simplified conditions.

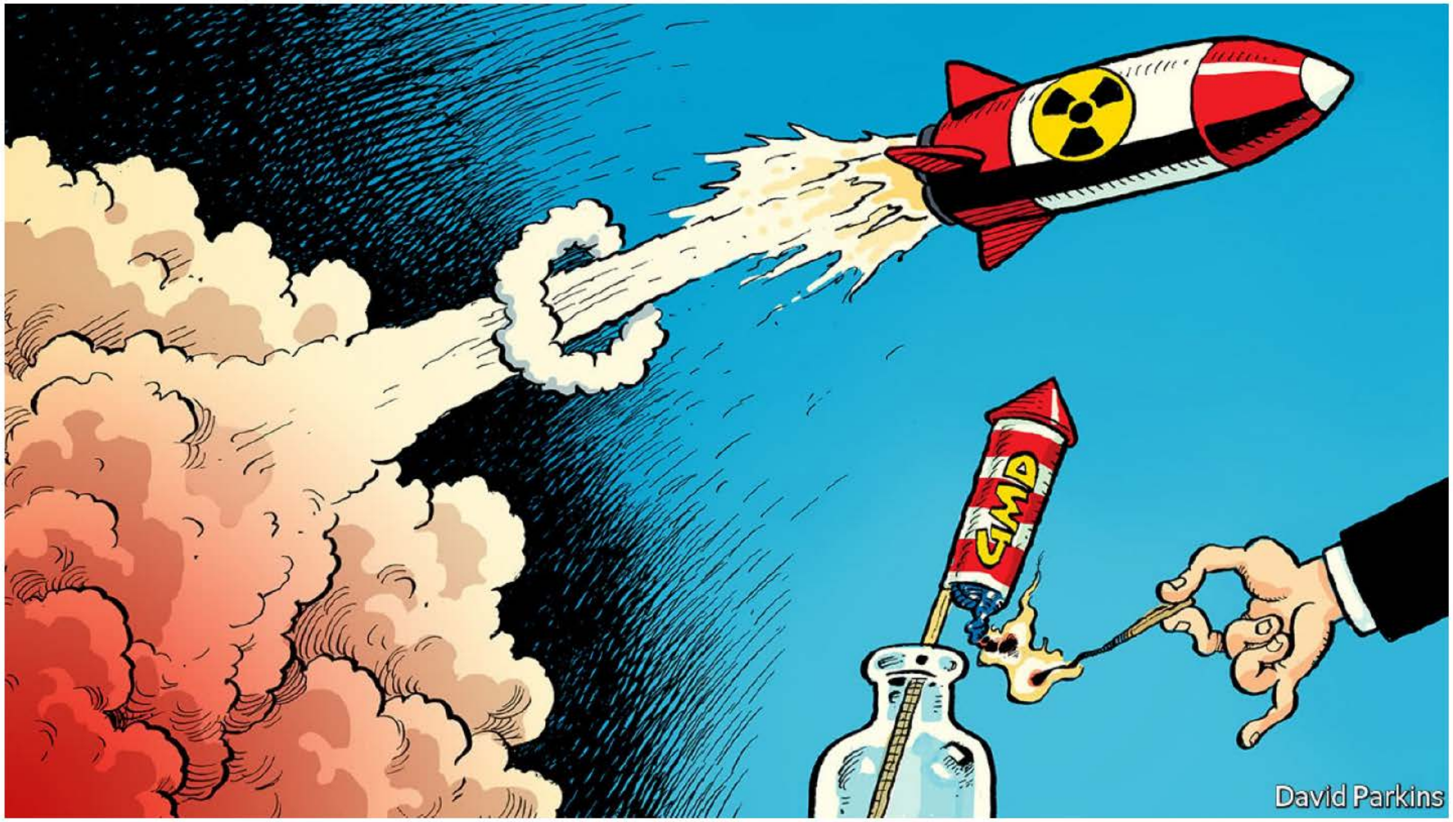
"The GMD system has destroyed its target in only four of 10 tests since it was fielded in 2004, and the system's record has not improved over time," said Grego. "It failed three of the four tests preceding the one in May, despite the fact that the tests were conducted under more simplified conditions than what would be expected in an actual attack."

According to a 2016 UCS report Grego co-authored, a primary reason for the GMD system's reliability problems is not lack of funding, but lack of rigor. In its rush to get the system up and running, the George W. Bush administration exempted the program from standard "fly before you buy" oversight that requires the system to pass realistic tests before being deployed.

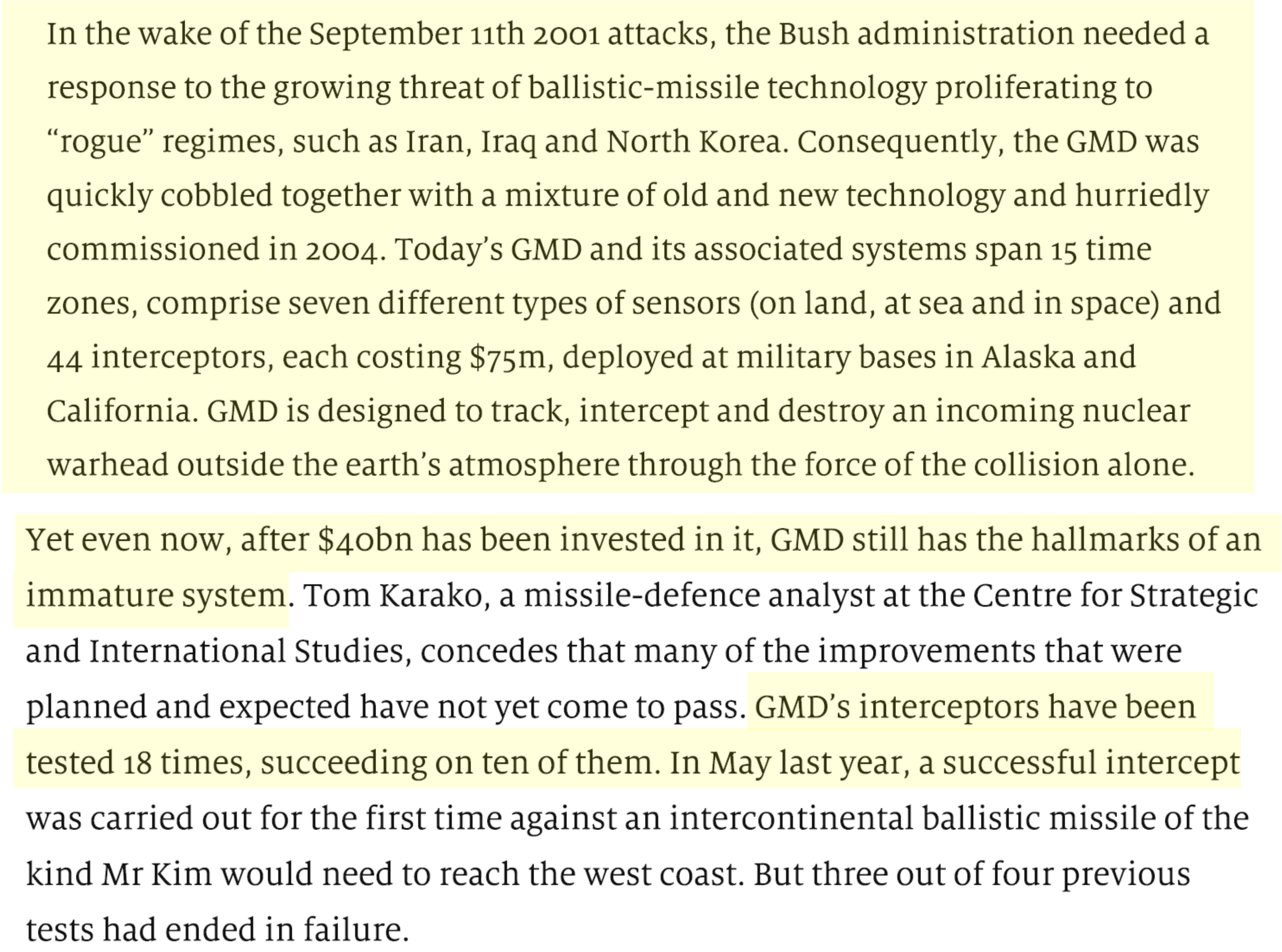
News: The Economist Ballistic Missile Defense

There is no guaranteed defence against ballistic missiles—yet

Someone ought to explain this to the commander-in-chief



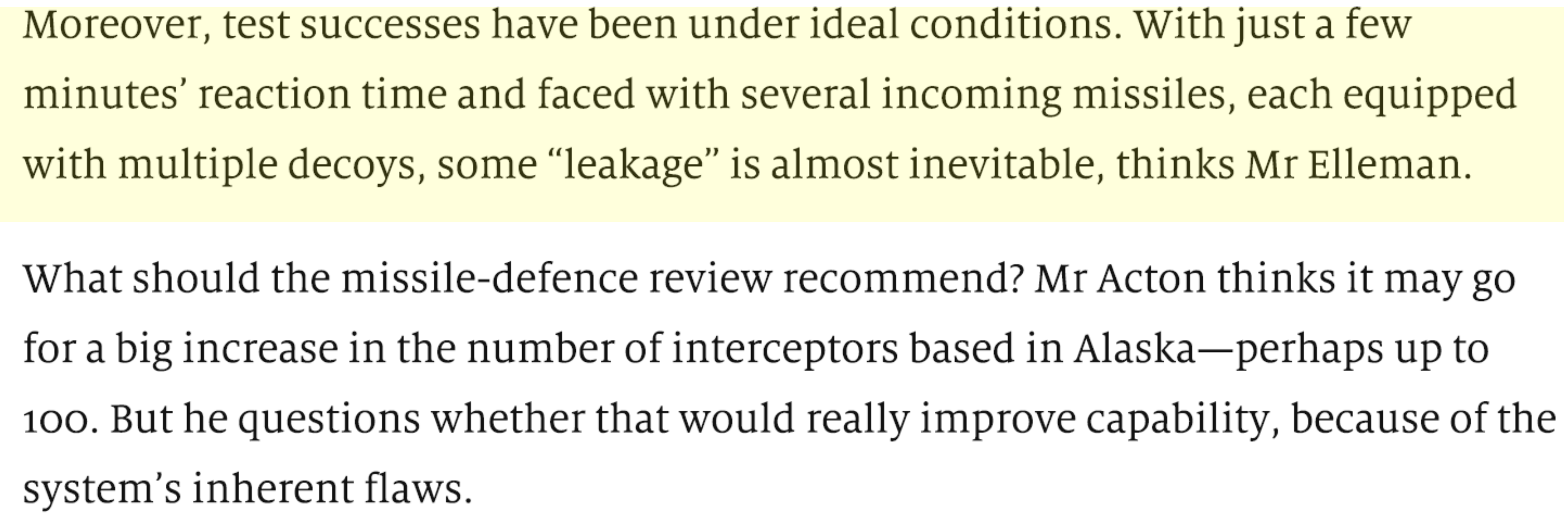
News: The Economist Ballistic Missile Defense



In the wake of the September 11th 2001 attacks, the Bush administration needed a response to the growing threat of ballistic-missile technology proliferating to "rogue" regimes, such as Iran, Iraq and North Korea. Consequently, the GMD was quickly cobbled together with a mixture of old and new technology and hurriedly commissioned in 2004. Today's GMD and its associated systems span 15 time zones, comprise seven different types of sensors (on land, at sea and in space) and 44 interceptors, each costing $75m, deployed at military bases in Alaska and California. GMD is designed to track, intercept and destroy an incoming nuclear warhead outside the earth's atmosphere through the force of the collision alone.

Yet even now, after $40bn has been invested in it, GMD still has the hallmarks of an immature system. Tom Karako, a missile-defence analyst at the Centre for Strategic and International Studies, concedes that many of the improvements that were planned and expected have not yet come to pass. GMD's interceptors have been tested 18 times, succeeding on ten of them. In May last year, a successful intercept was carried out for the first time against an intercontinental ballistic missile of the kind Mr Kim would need to reach the west coast. But three out of four previous tests had ended in failure.

News: The Economist Ballistic Missile Defense



Moreover, test successes have been under ideal conditions. With just a few minutes' reaction time and faced with several incoming missiles, each equipped with multiple decoys, some "leakage" is almost inevitable, thinks Mr Elleman.

What should the missile-defence review recommend? Mr Acton thinks it may go for a big increase in the number of interceptors based in Alaska—perhaps up to 100. But he questions whether that would really improve capability, because of the system's inherent flaws.

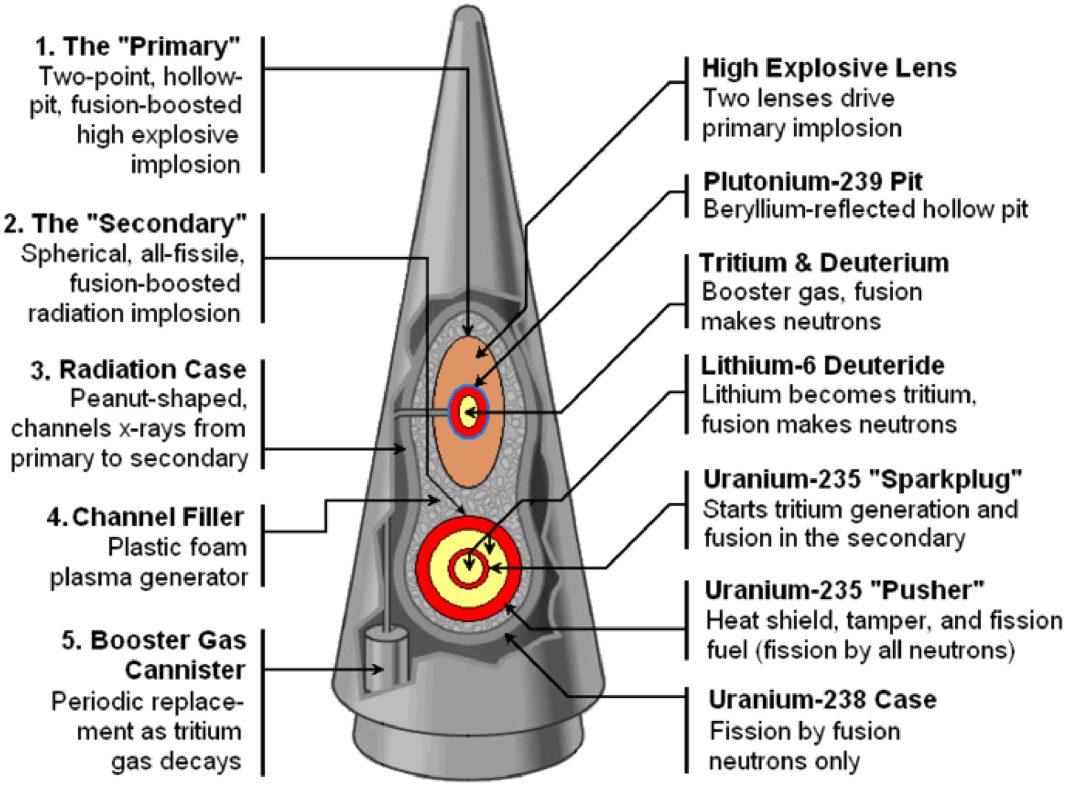
Physics/Global Studies 280

Module 2: Nuclear Weapons

Physics of Nuclear Weapons

Why should we be interested in the basic physics and design of nuclear weapons?

W88 Warhead for Trident D-5 Ballistic Missile



Physics of Nuclear Weapons

A basic understanding of the nuclear physics and design of nuclear weapons is helpful in developing informed opinions about —

- How easy or difficult is it for countries or non-state groups to develop nuclear weapons?
- Are there any important secrets left ?
- Is it significantly more difficult to develop a thermonuclear weapon (“H-bomb”) than a fission weapon?
- What is the likelihood of the U.S. making a “breakthrough” in nuclear weapon design?
- What are the likely costs and benefits of nuclear testing?
- What are status and costs for missile defense programs?

Physics of Nuclear Weapons

Topics covered in this module —

- Atoms and nuclei
- Fission and fusion
- Nuclear reactors and nuclear bombs
- Fission weapons (“A-bombs”)
- Thermonuclear weapons (“H-bombs”)
- Production of nuclear explosive material (NEM)
- Implications for nuclear testing and proliferation

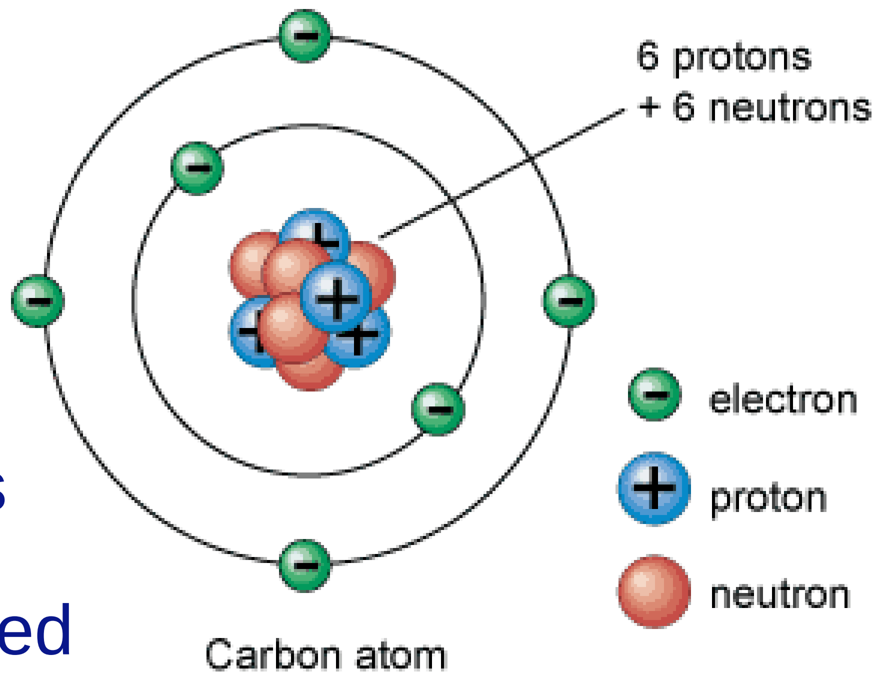
Do not be concerned. This is by far the most technical part of the course. We will not use math!

It’s important to know about this material, and the remainder of the course will be far less technical.

Physics of Nuclear Weapons

Atoms and Nuclei

Atomic Nature of Matter



Carbon atom

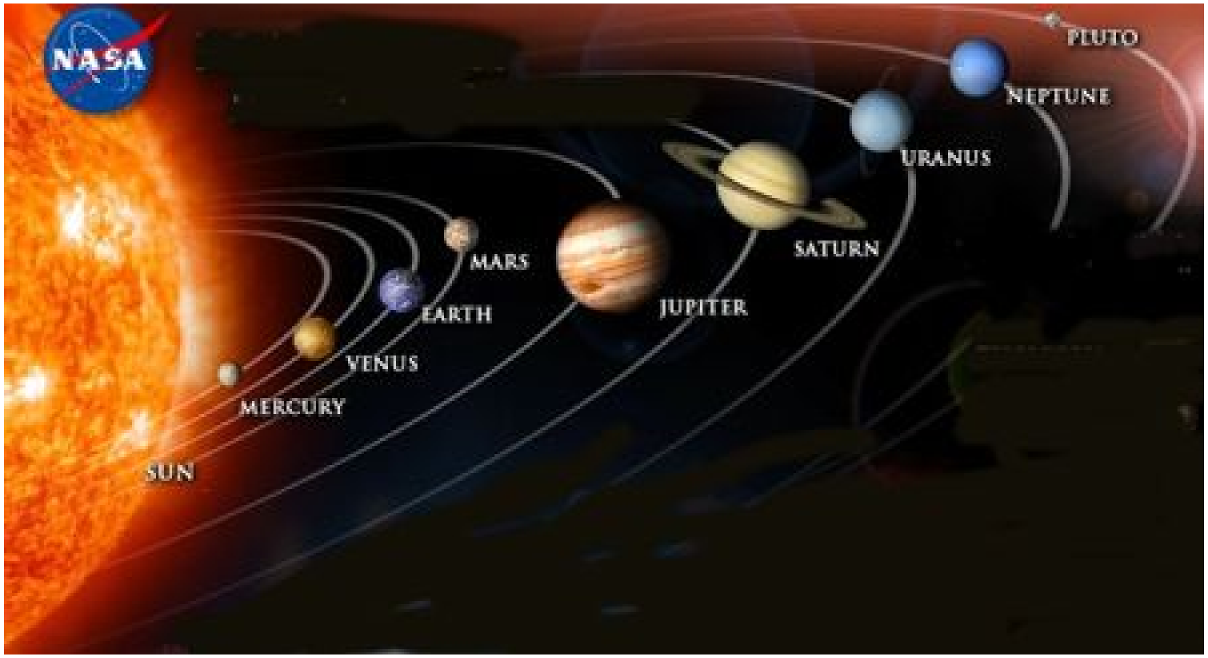
- All matter on earth is made of atoms
- Atoms have a tiny nucleus surrounded by a very much larger electron cloud
- Every nucleus is composed of protons and neutrons; both are called “nucleons”
- Protons and neutrons are made of smaller particles: quarks (this fact is unimportant for nuclear weapons)

Fundamental Forces of Nature – 1

Nature has four basic forces that govern the structure of Matter —

1. Gravitational force (structure of planetary systems and galaxies)

- Always attractive, weakest but first to be discovered
- Strength decreases as $1/r^2$ (“long-range”, r -> distance between objects)



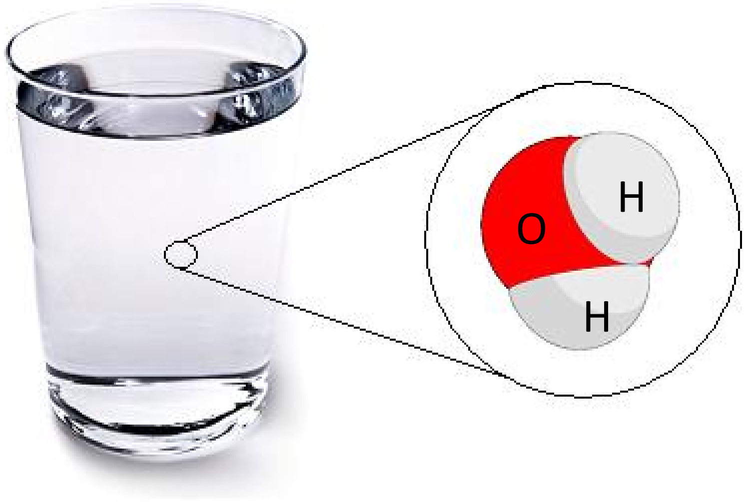
Gravity:
Relative Strength

10^{-41}

Fundamental Forces of Nature – 2

2. Electromagnetic force **(structure of atoms and molecules)**

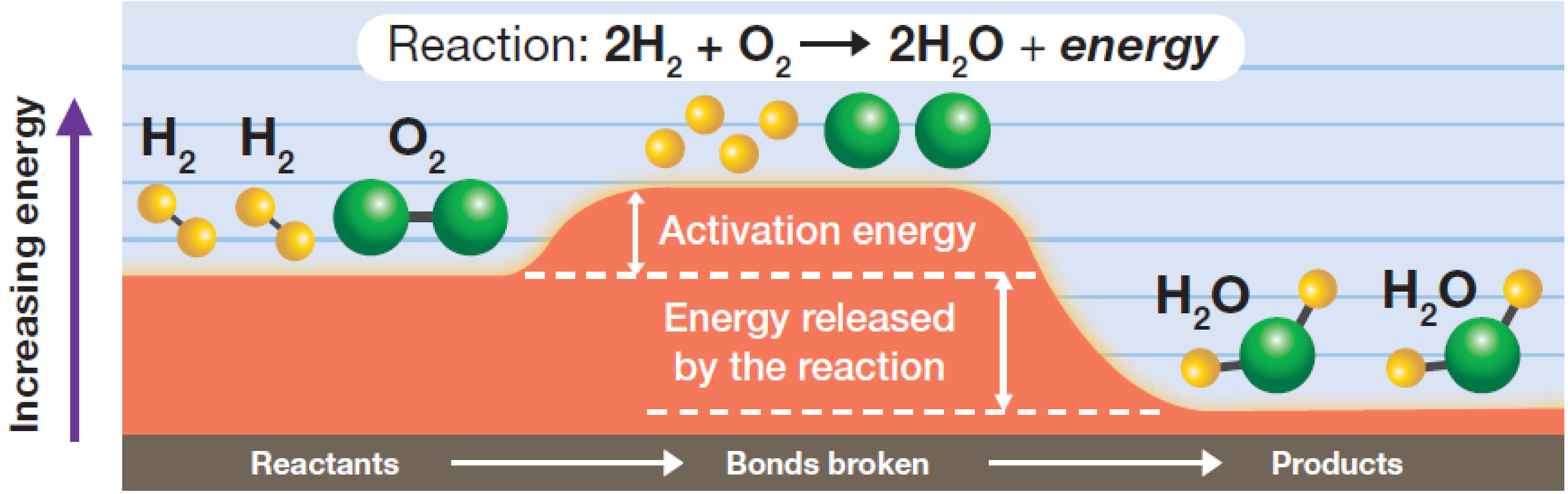
- Can be attractive or repulsive
- Classical electrical force decreases as $1/r^2$ (“long-range”)
- Described by the theory of electromagnetism, developed in the late 19th Century
- The quantum theory of electromagnetism is called Quantum Electrodynamics



Electromagnetic Force
Relative Strength

1

Energy Released by Electromagnetic Reactions between Atoms and Molecules



We use electromagnetic energy from chemical bounds frequently:

wood fire
car engine
coal electrical power plant
explosives

Electromagnetic Energy Stored in Chemical Bounds

Lecture Question

Consider that the binding energy of an electron in a hydrogen atom is about 10 eV. How much energy do You estimate can be gained by forming a H_2O molecule ?

A	0.01 eV
B	0.1 eV
C	5 eV
D	100 eV
E	1000 eV

1 eV is a unit for energy: ”electron-volt”. It corresponds to a very small amount of energy: 1 eV = 1.6×10^{-19} Joule

We will use this energy units “eV” to be able to compare energy released in atomic reactions to energy released in nuclear processes.

eV is a unit suitable to measure energy levels involve in atomic & nuclear reactions

Electromagnetic Energy Stored in Chemical Bounds

Lecture Question Answer

Consider that the binding energy of an electron in a hydrogen atom is about 12 eV. How much energy do You estimate can be gained by forming a H_2O molecule ?

A	0.01 eV
B	0.1 eV
C	**5 eV**
D	100 eV
E	1000 eV

1 eV is a unit for energy: "electron-volt". It corresponds to a very small amount of energy: 1 eV = 1.6×10^{-19} Joule

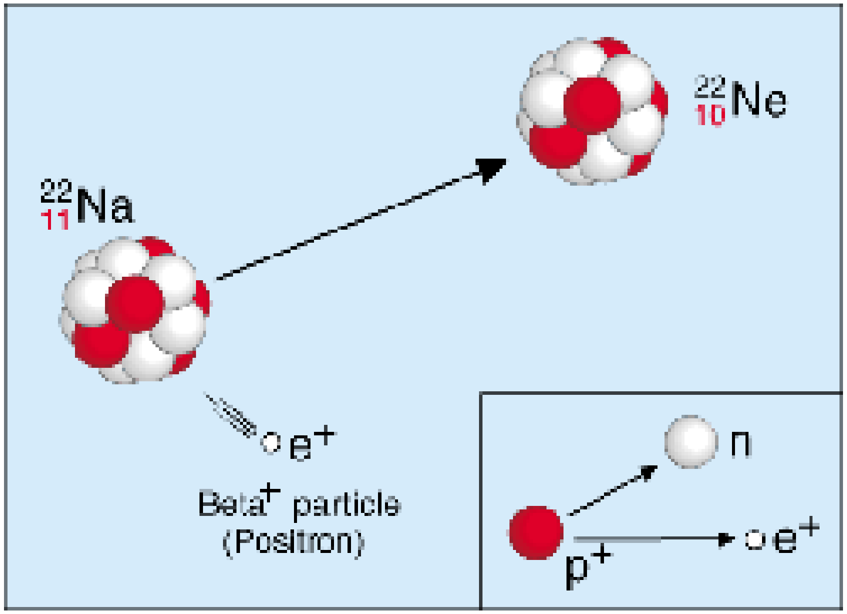
Hydrogen-Oxygen reactions are highly explosive – much energy is released due to the large number of atoms involved!

Fundamental Forces of Nature – 3

3. Weak nuclear force (radioactivity)

- Extremely short range (smaller than the diameter of a nucleon), responsible for radioactive beta decay
- No classical approximation: a quantum mechanical description is required

Radioactive Decay of a Sodium Nucleus into a Neon Nucleus (used in PET scanners in hospitals)



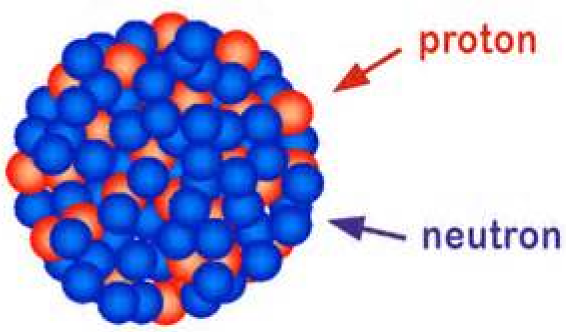
Weak Nuclear Force:
Relative Strength

10^{-7}

Fundamental Forces of Nature – 4

4. Strong nuclear force (“strong force”) (structure of nuclei)

- The strongest known force, it holds protons and neutrons together in the atomic nucleus
- Short-range (reaches approximately the diameter of a proton, vanishes at larger distance)
- Has no classical approximation, a quantum description is required
- The quantum theory of the strong force is called Quantum Chromodynamics
- Nuclear binding energies are about 1,000,000 times larger compared to atomic binding energies



Uranium Nucleus

Strong force binds 235
protons and neutron into
the large Uranium-235 nucleus

Strong Nuclear Force
Relative Strength

100

Nuclear Energy Stored in Nuclei

Lecture Question

The binding energy of each proton and neutron in a Uranium nucleus is about 7.5 MeV (Mega eV = Million eV). There are 235 protons and neutrons in U-235.

After a nuclear fission reaction the binding energy of each proton and neutron in the two fission daughter nuclei is about 8.4 MeV.

How much energy do you estimate can be gained by a nuclear reaction splitting one Uranium nucleus with 235 protons and neutrons in to two daughter nuclei?

1MeV = 1,000,000 eV

A	0.02MeV
B	0.2 MeV
C	2 MeV
D	20 MeV
E	200 MeV

Nuclear Energy stored in Nuclei

Lecture Question Answer

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How much energy do you estimate can be gained by a nuclear reaction splitting one Uranium nucleus with 235 protons and neutrons in to two daughter nuclei?

A 0.02MeV
B 0.2 MeV
C 2 MeV
D 20 MeV
E 200 MeV

1MeV = 1,000,000 eV

Compare energy release from:
1 nuclear fission reaction: 200,000,000 eV
1 atomic reaction: 5 eV

Annual US Electricity Consumption:

How much coal or uranium fuel would be needed to generate the annual electricity consumed in the US?

About 2,200,000,000 tons of coal or 220 Million truck loads

➔ energy taken from electromagnetic force fields in chemical bounds

About 5,000 tons of Uranium fuel or 500 truck loads

➔ energy taken from nuclear force fields inside nuclei

“Nuclear fire” burns ~ 1 million times hotter than “chemical fire”

Fundamental Forces of Nature – Summary

Luke, the Force is Strong with you …

… yeah, all four!

…

Gravitation keeps me on the ground

…

Electromagnetism holds my
Molecules and atoms together.

…

The strong force forms nuclei and
the weak force makes them decay.

Nuclear Forces and Chemical Reactions

Lecture Question

Do the two nuclear forces play a significant role in chemical reactions?

A Yes, chemical reactions between atoms depend on the number of protons held by the strong nuclear force inside the nucleus.

B No, the range of the nuclear forces does not reach beyond the surface of the nucleus and therefore cannot impact atomic processes or the chemistry between two atoms.

C For neutrons, no, as they don’t carry electric charge, for protons, yes, as they do carry electric charge.

Nuclear Forces and Chemical Reactions

Lecture Question Answer

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Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 4

Lecture Question

What was (approximately) the maximum number of nuclear weapons in the U.S. and Soviet Union had during the Cold War and when was the maximum reached?

A	55,000 in 1995
B	70,000 in 1985
C	70,000 in 1980
D	55,000 in 1975
E	90,000 in 1985

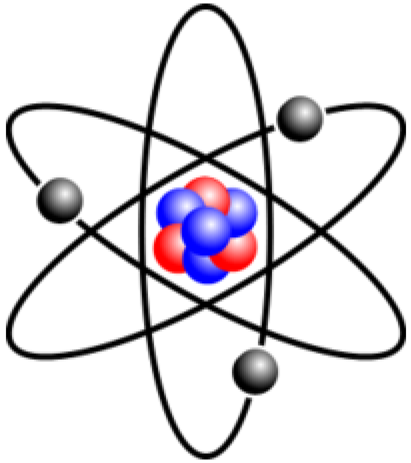
Lecture Question Answer

What was (approximately) the maximum number of nuclear weapons in the U.S. and Soviet Union had during the Cold War and when was the maximum reached?

A	55,000 in 1995
B	**70,000 in 1985**
C	70,000 in 1980
D	55,000 in 1975
E	90,000 in 1985

Atoms and Nuclei

Lithium-Atom



Sizes of atoms and nuclei

- The size of an *atom* is defined by the extent of its electron cloud : ~ 10^{-10} m
- The size of a *nucleus* is defined by the size of a nucleon ~ 10^{-15} m and the number of nucleons it contains.

$$\text{Size of an Atom: } r_{atom} \approx 10^{-10}\,\mathrm{m} = 0.1\ \mathrm{nm}$$

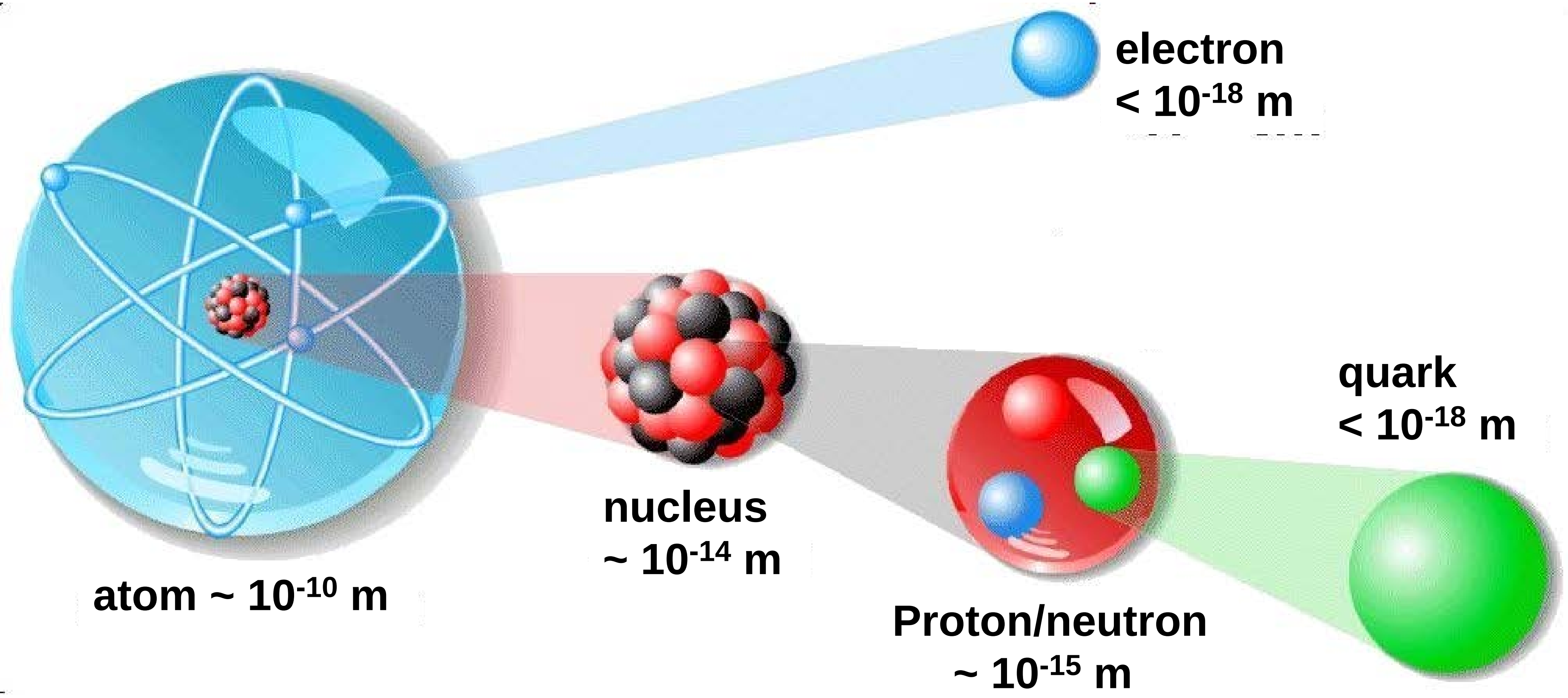
$$\text{Size of a nucleus} : r_{nucleus} \approx 10^{-14}\,\mathrm{m} = 0.0001\ \mathrm{nm}\ ,$$

$$1.0\ \mathrm{nm} = 1 \text{ billionth of a meter}$$

Masses of Protons and Neutrons compared to Electrons

$m_p \approx m_n \approx 10^{-27}$ kg, $m_p = 1836\, m_e \approx 2000\, m_e$

Atomic Structure and Length Scales



electron
$< 10^{-18}$ m

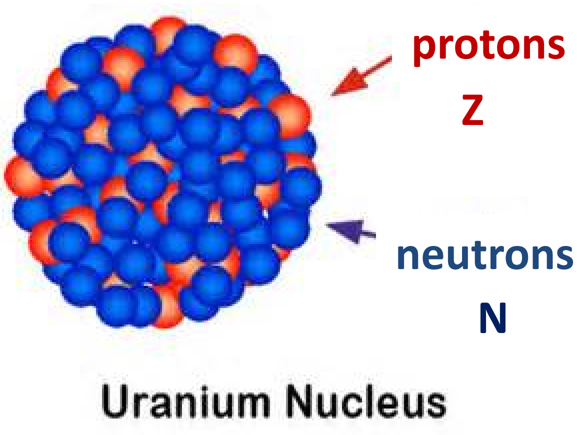
quark
$< 10^{-18}$ m

nucleus
$\sim 10^{-14}$ m

atom $\sim 10^{-10}$ m

Proton/neutron
$\sim 10^{-15}$ m

Atomic Nuclei



- A given atomic nucleus ("nuclide") is specified by

  —its number of protons (denoted *Z* – always an integer) and

  —its number of neutrons (denoted *N* – always an integer)

- Protons and neutrons are both called "nucleons".
- *Z* is called the "proton number" or "atomic number".
- *N* is called the "neutron number".
- The total number $N+Z$ of nucleons in the nucleus is denoted *A* and is called the "atomic weight" of the nucleus: $A = Z + N$

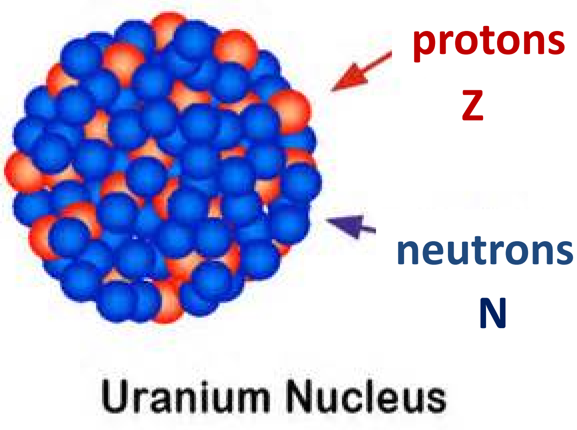
Chemical Properties of Atoms

- The **chemical properties of an atom** (i.e., to what other atoms it can bind to form molecules and compounds, with what strengths, and in what geometries) **are determined by the number of electrons** in its electron cloud.

- The electron cloud of **a *neutral* atom has *Z* electrons**: the positive charge of the *Z* protons in its nucleus is *exactly* offset by the negative charge of *Z* electrons in its electron cloud.

- **The mass of an atom is determined by the total number $A = N + Z$ of the nucleons in its nucleus**, because the mass of a proton is almost equal to the mass of a neutron and both are about 2,000 times more than the mass of an electron. Recall A is called the "atomic weight" of the atom.

Atoms with Different Nuclei:
Isotopes and Isotones



Several notations are in common use for nuclides –

$$ {}^{A}X = {}^{A}_{Z}X_{N} = {}^{A}X_{Z} = X(A) $$

Here X is the chemical symbol

Isotopes are different nuclides with the same number of *protons* —

- *Z* is the same for all, but *N* varies
- **All isotopes of a particular element are chemically indistinguishable**
- Examples: $ {}^{238}_{92}U = {}^{238}U = U(238)\ ,\ \ {}^{235}_{92}U = {}^{235}U = U(235) $

Isotones are different nuclides with the same number of *neutrons*

- *N* is the same for all, but *Z* varies
- Isotones are nuclei of different chemical elements

Can Pu or U Isotopes be Separated through Chemical Analysis?

Lecture Question

A reactor core contains Uranium Isotopes ${}^{238}_{92}U$, ${}^{235}_{92}U$ and Plutonium Isotopes ${}^{239}_{94}Pu$, ${}^{240}_{94}Pu$. Most of the material is ${}^{238}_{92}U$ which cannot be used for nuclear weapons. Which statement is correct?

- A ${}^{235}_{92}U$ can be extracted from the material using chemical analysis
- B ${}^{239}_{94}Pu$ and ${}^{240}_{94}Pu$ can be extracted together using chemical analysis
- C Once extracted from the core, ${}^{239}_{94}Pu$ and ${}^{240}_{94}Pu$ can be separated using chemical analysis

Can Pu or U Isotopes be Separated through Chemical Analysis?

Lecture Question Answer

A reactor core contains Uranium Isotopes $^{238}_{92}U$, $^{235}_{92}U$ and Plutonium Isotopes $^{239}_{94}Pu$, $^{240}_{94}Pu$. Most of the material is $^{238}_{92}U$ which cannot be used for nuclear weapons. Which statement is correct?

A $^{235}_{92}U$ can be extracted from the material using chemical analysis

B $^{239}_{94}Pu$ and $^{240}_{94}Pu$ can be extracted together from the material using chemical analysis

C Once extracted from the core, $^{239}_{94}Pu$ and $^{240}_{94}Pu$ can be separated using chemical analysis

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 4

Lecture Question

${}^{239}_{94}$Pu nuclei consist of

A	94 neutrons + 239-94=145 protons
B	94 protons + 239-93=145 neutrons
C	94 protons + 239 neutrons
D	94 neutrons + 239 protons

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 4

Lecture Question Answer

$^{239}_{94}$Pu nuclei consist of

A 94 neutrons + 239-94=145 protons

B 94 protons + 239-93=145 neutrons

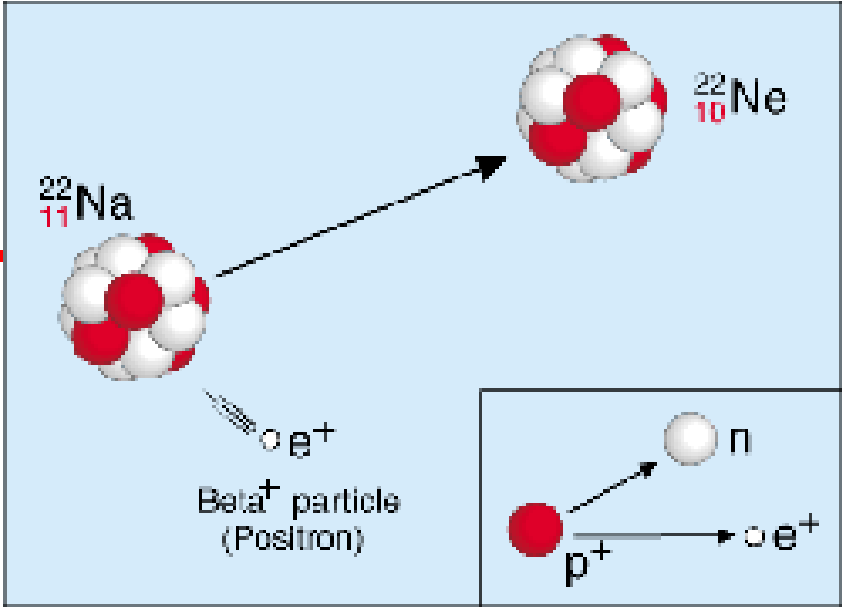
C 94 protons + 239 neutrons

D 94 neutrons + 239 protons

Facts About Naturally Occurring Chemical Elements

- 91 chemical elements are found in nature
- 82 of these have one or more stable isotopes
- 9 of these have only unstable isotopes and decay radioactively
- Hydrogen (H) is the lightest element ($Z = 1$)
- Every naturally occurring element beyond Bismuth ($Z = 83$) has only unstable isotopes
- Uranium (U) is the heaviest element ($Z = 92$)
- Only 91 elements are found in nature because the element Technetium ($Z = 43$) decays quickly and is not found in nature.
- Over 20 *transuranic* ($Z > 92$) elements have been created in the laboratory; all their isotopes are unstable

Radioactivity



Radioactivity is a *spontaneous* process in which one nuclide changes into another, either a different isotope of the original chemical element or a different chemical element, *without any outside influence*.

All radioactive decays are *probabilistic:* the exact moment at which a given nuclide will decay cannot be predicted.

The lifetime of a given radioactive nuclide is described by its *half life* $\tau_{1/2}$ or, equivalently, its *mean life* = 1.44 $\tau_{1/2}$

There are Four Types of Radioactive Decay

1. Alpha decay

Parent —> Daughter + alpha particle (^{4}He)

2. Beta decay

Parent —> Daughter + electron (+ anti-neutrino)

Parent —> Daughter + anti-electron (+ neutrino)

3. Gamma decay

Parent —> Daughter + gamma-ray

4. Spontaneous fission

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 5

Plan for This Session

- Announcements
- Questions
- Module 2: Nuclear weapons cont'd

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 5

Announcements About The Course

RE2v1 will be due Thursday, 2-1

- o printed copy (in class) + electronic submission (**1pm**)

- o prompt is posted on course web-page
  http://courses.physics.illinois.edu/phys280/sp2018/assignments/re2v1.html

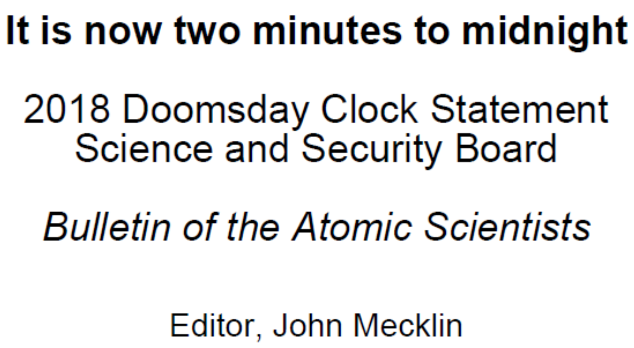
- o follow all instructions stated in the student handbook

Questions About The Course

News

“Bulletin of the Atomic Scientist has Moved Doomsday Clock” to 2 Minutes to Midnight

Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists

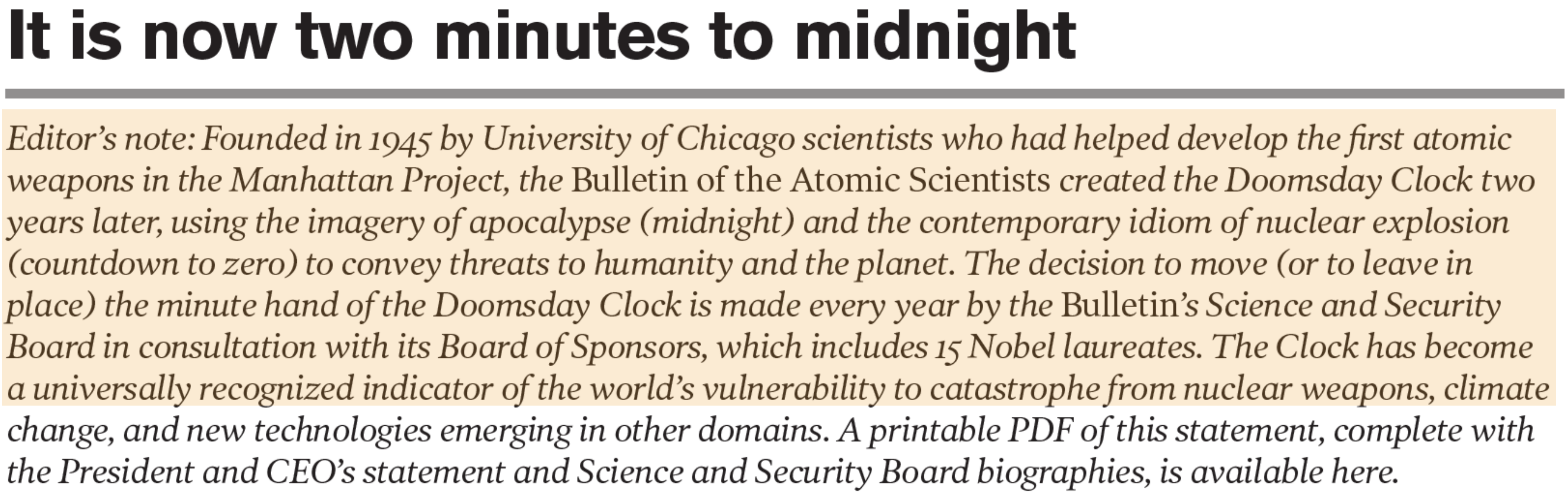


It is now two minutes to midnight

2018 Doomsday Clock Statement
Science and Security Board

Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists

Editor, John Mecklin



It is now two minutes to midnight

Editor’s note: Founded in 1945 by University of Chicago scientists who had helped develop the first atomic weapons in the Manhattan Project, the Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists *created the Doomsday Clock two years later, using the imagery of apocalypse (midnight) and the contemporary idiom of nuclear explosion (countdown to zero) to convey threats to humanity and the planet. The decision to move (or to leave in place) the minute hand of the Doomsday Clock is made every year by the* Bulletin’s *Science and Security Board in consultation with its Board of Sponsors, which includes 15 Nobel laureates. The Clock has become a universally recognized indicator of the world’s vulnerability to catastrophe from nuclear weapons, climate change, and new technologies emerging in other domains. A printable PDF of this statement, complete with the President and CEO’s statement and Science and Security Board biographies, is available here.*

News

“Bulletin of the Atomic Scientist has Moved Doomsday Clock” to 2 Minutes to Midnight

Bulletin
of the
Atomic
Scientists

To: Leaders and citizens of the world
Re: Two minutes to midnight
Date: January 25, 2018

In 2017, world leaders failed to respond effectively to the looming threats of nuclear war and climate change, making the world security situation more dangerous than it was a year ago—and as dangerous as it has been since World War II.

The greatest risks last year arose in the nuclear realm. North Korea’s nuclear weapons program made remarkable progress in 2017, increasing risks to North Korea itself, other countries in the region, and the United States. Hyperbolic rhetoric and provocative actions by both sides have increased the possibility of nuclear war by accident or miscalculation.

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In South Asia, Pakistan and India have continued to build ever-larger arsenals of nuclear weapons.

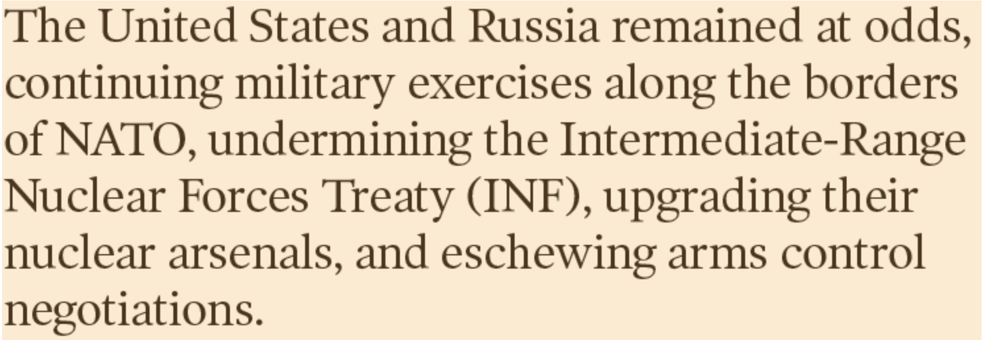
And in the Middle East, uncertainty about continued US support for the landmark Iranian nuclear deal adds to a bleak overall picture.

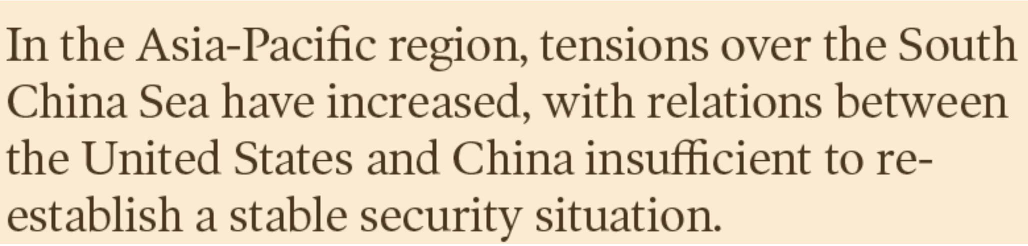
To call the world nuclear situation dire is to understate the danger—and its immediacy.

On the climate change front, the danger may seem less immediate, but avoiding catastrophic temperature increases in the long run requires urgent attention now. Global carbon dioxide emissions have not yet shown the beginnings of the sustained decline towards zero that must occur if ever-greater warming is to be avoided. The nations of the world will have to significantly decrease their greenhouse gas emissions to keep climate risks manageable,

News

"Bulletin of the Atomic Scientist has Moved Doomsday Clock" to 2 Minutes to Midnight


The United States and Russia remained at odds, continuing military exercises along the borders of NATO, undermining the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty (INF), upgrading their nuclear arsenals, and eschewing arms control negotiations.


In the Asia-Pacific region, tensions over the South China Sea have increased, with relations between the United States and China insufficient to re-establish a stable security situation.

News

REUTERS

Chinese military paper urges increase in nuclear deterrence capabilities

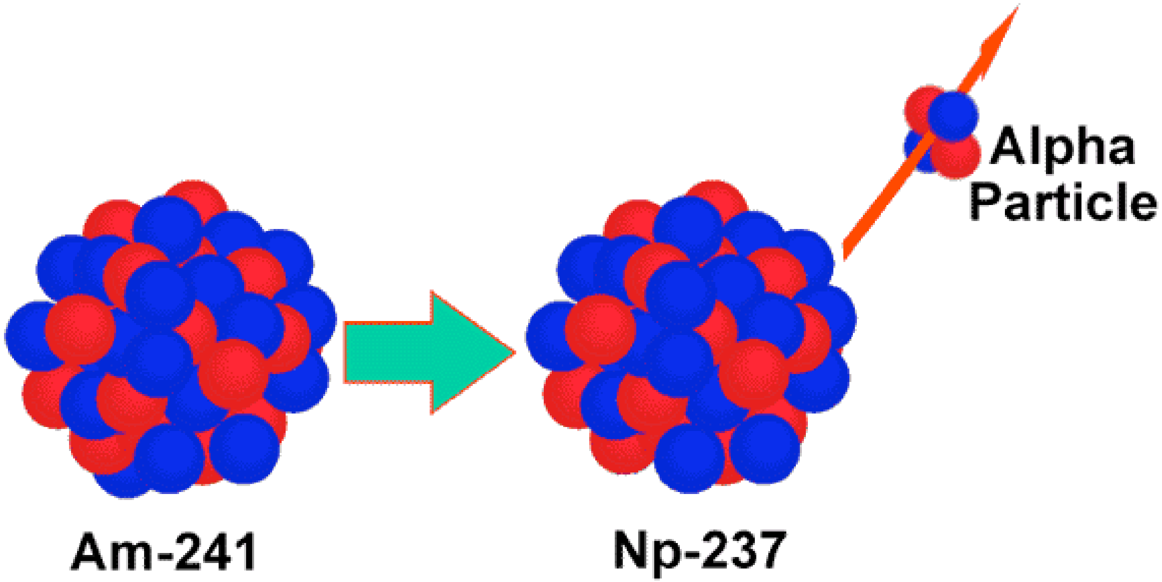
#WORLD NEWS JANUARY 30, 2018 / 4:19 AM / UPDATED 7 HOURS AGO

BEIJING (Reuters) - China must strengthen its nuclear deterrence and counter-strike capabilities to keep pace with the developing nuclear strategies of the United States and Russia, the official paper of the People's Liberation Army (PLA) said on Tuesday.

U.S. President Donald Trump's administration may be pursuing the development of new nuclear weaponry and could explicitly leave open the possibility of nuclear retaliation for major non-nuclear attacks, according to a draft of a pending Nuclear Posture Review leaked by the Huffington Post.

This "unprecedented" move by the United States, combined with continuous quality improvements of nuclear arsenals in both the U.S. and Russia, means that both countries place greater importance on deterrence and real combat usability, the commentary in the PLA Daily said.

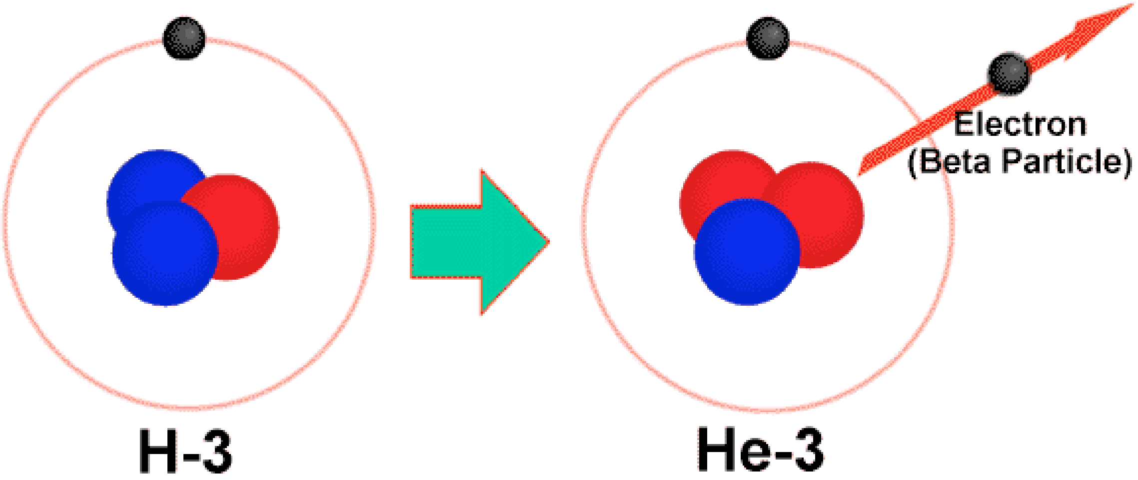
Illustration of Alpha Decay



Americium as 95 protons and 136 neutrons

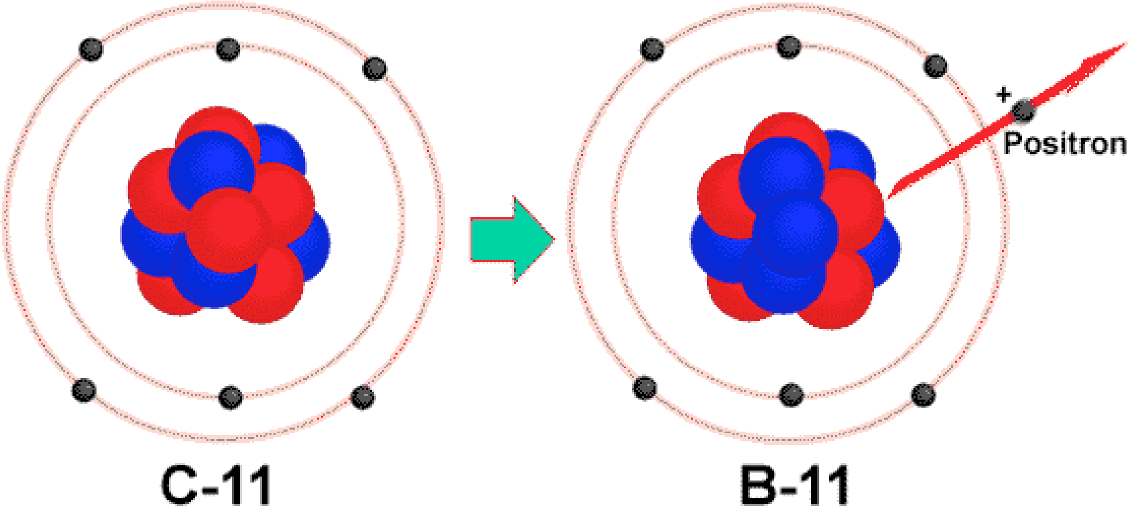
An alpha particle is a helium nucleus and has 2 protons and 2 neutrons

Illustration of Negative Beta Decay (Electron Emission)



Tritium is a hydrogen isotope and decays into He-3, a helium isotope
Negative Beta Decay increases Z !

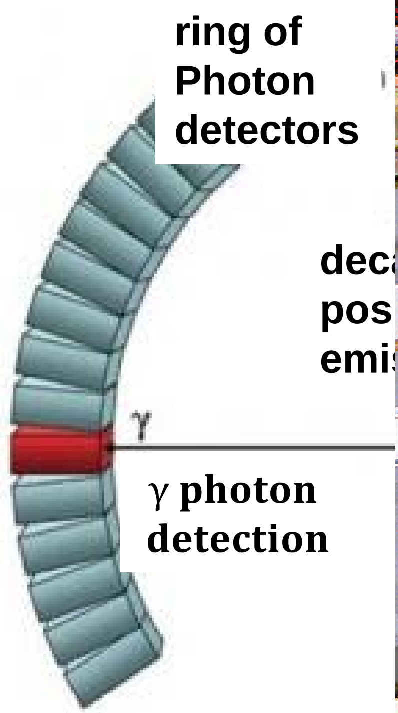
Illustration of Positive Beta Decay (Positron Emission)

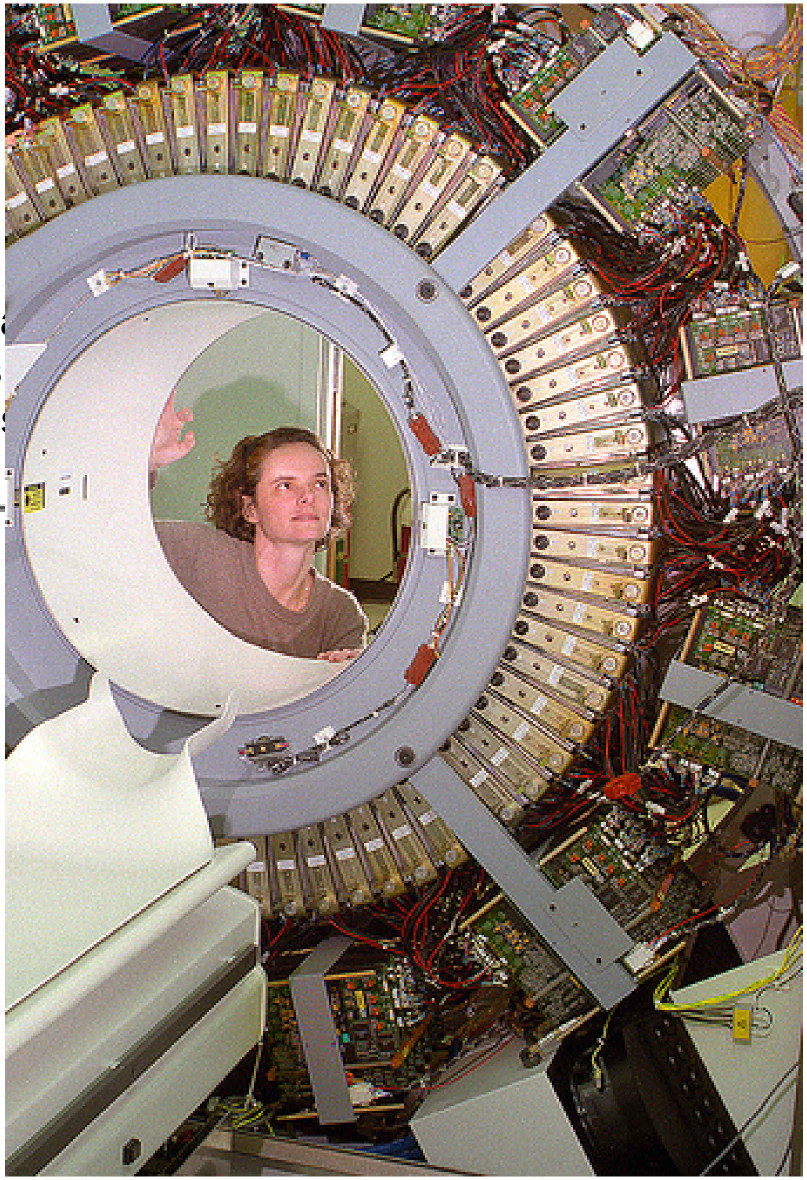


The positron from a positive beta decay is the anti-particle to the electron!

Positive Beta Decay decreases Z !

Use of Anti-Electrons, the Positron in Positron Emission Tomography, PET





Positron emitting radioactive isotopes and gamma rays from Electron-positron annihilation are used for medical imaging

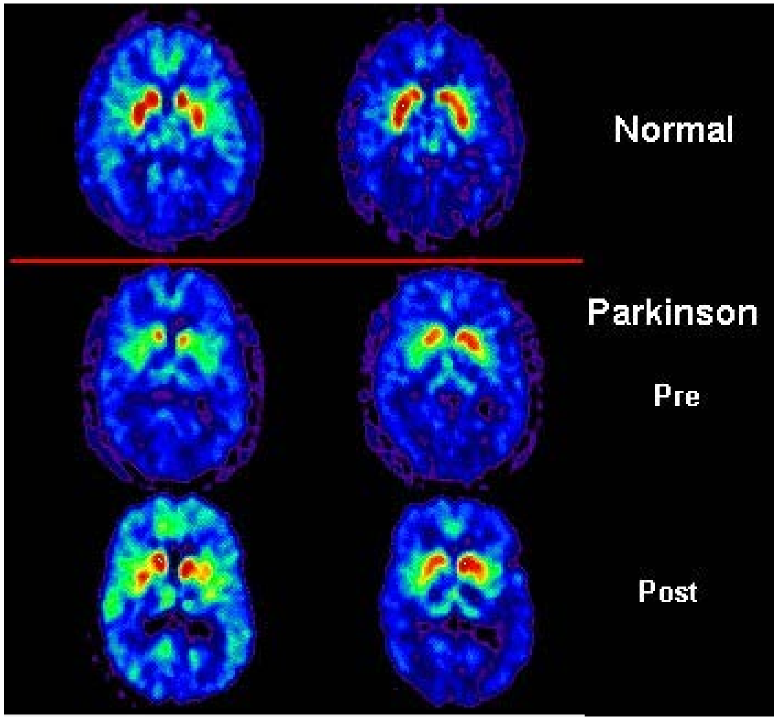
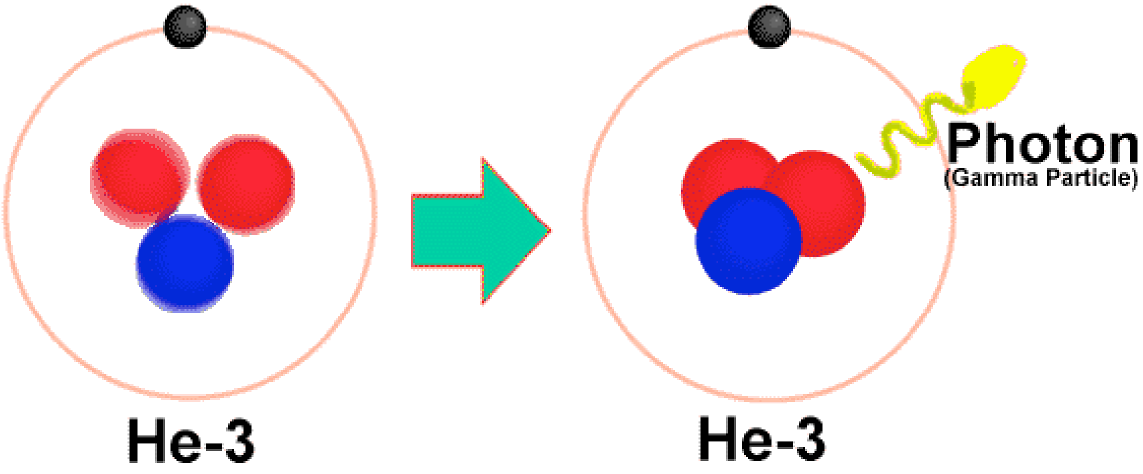
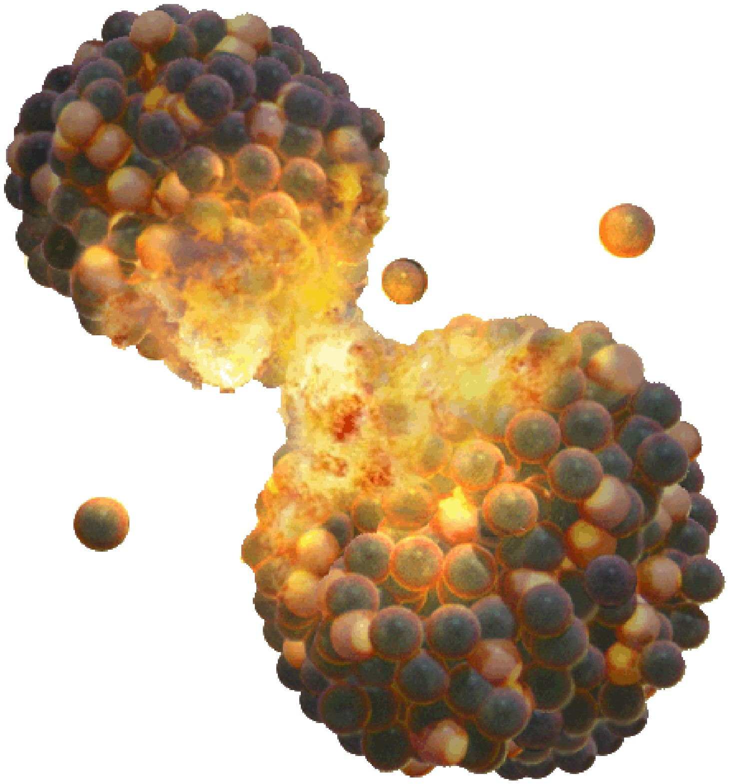


Illustration of Gamma-Ray Emission



If a nucleus is in a higher energy (excited) state it returns to a lower energy state by emitting a photon.

Illustration of Spontaneous Fission of a Californium, Cf-252 Nucleus



Fission: a large nucleus splits into two daughter nuclei. In the process a small number of neutrons are emitted.

Fission and Fusion

The Two Types of Fission

Spontaneous fission —

- The process in which an *isolated* nucleus undergoes fission, “splitting” into two smaller nuclei, typically accompanied by emission of one to a few neutrons
- The fission fragments are typically unequal in mass and highly radioactive (β^- and γ)
- Energy is released in the form of kinetic energy of the products and as excitation energy of the (radioactive) fission fragments

Induced fission —

- The process in which capture of a neutron causes a nucleus to become unstable and undergo fission
- The fission fragments are similar to those for spontaneous fission

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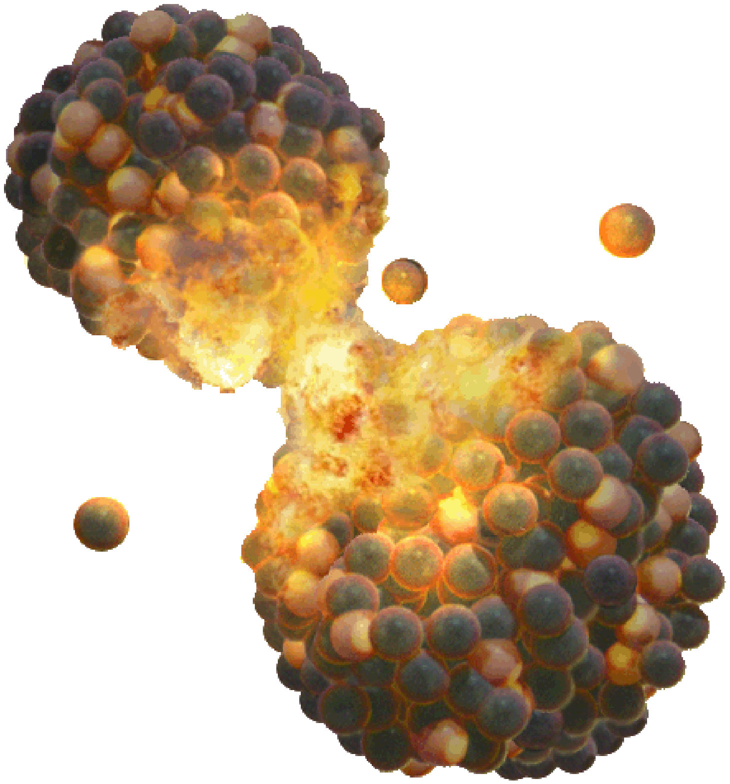
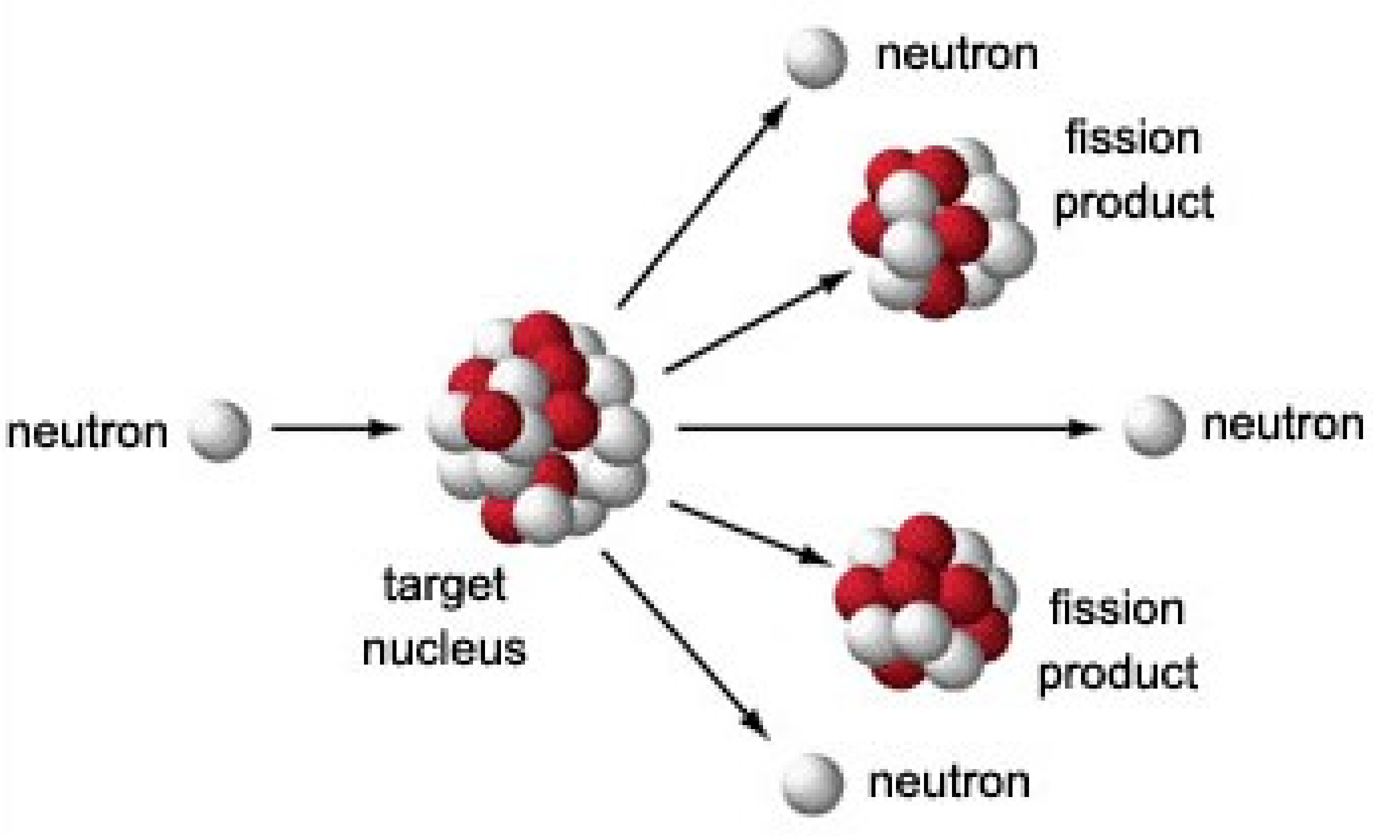
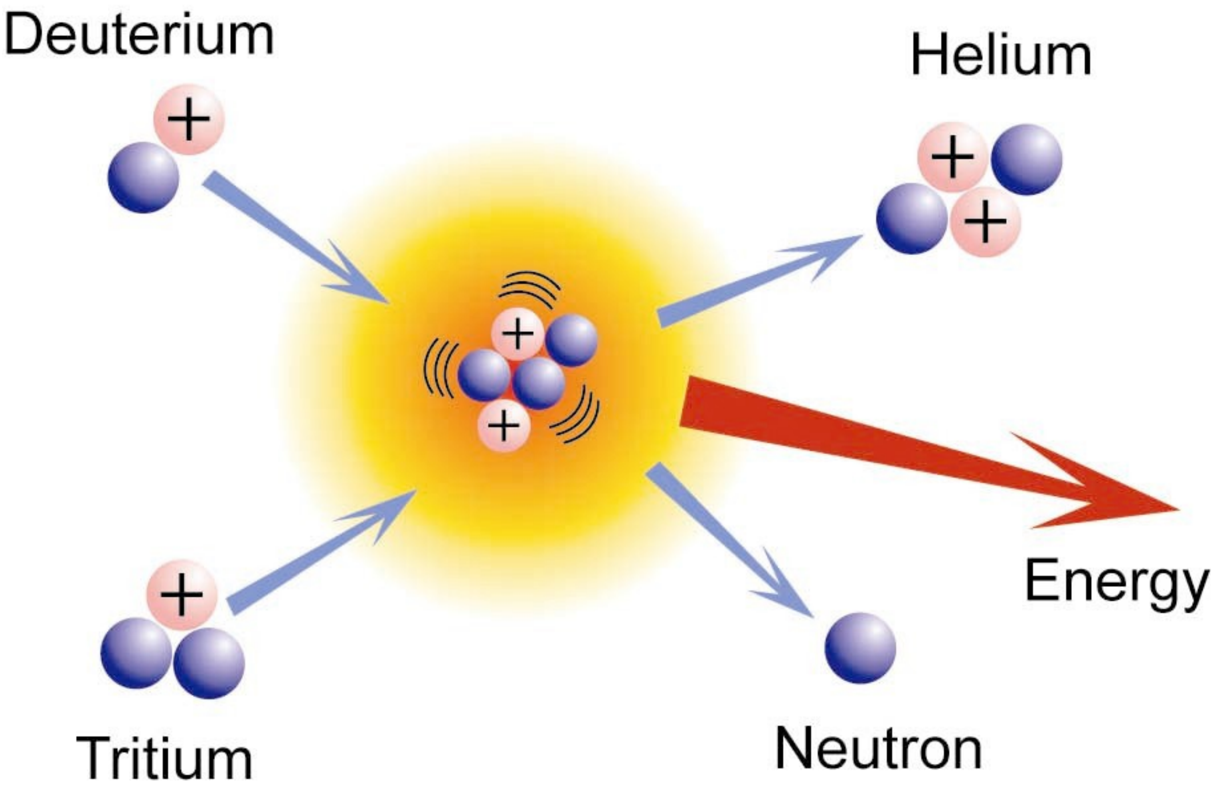


Fission: a large nucleus splits into two daughter nuclei. In the process a small number of neutrons are emitted.

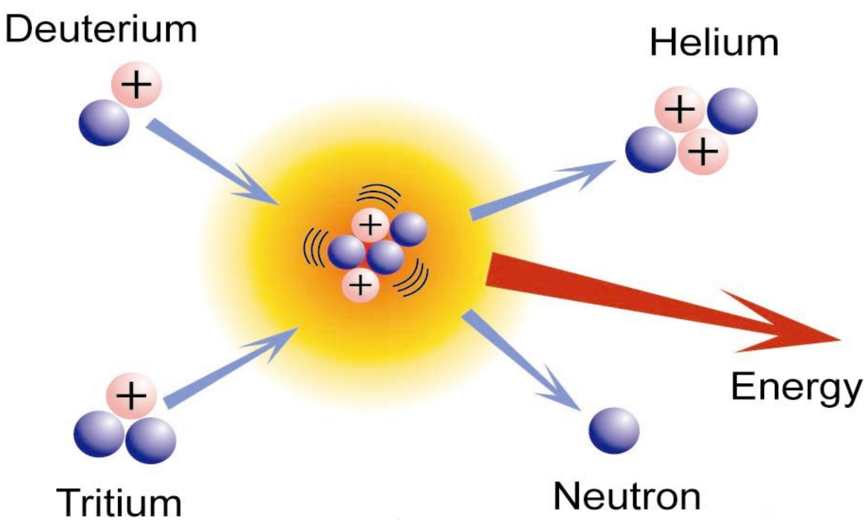
Induced Fission



Fusion

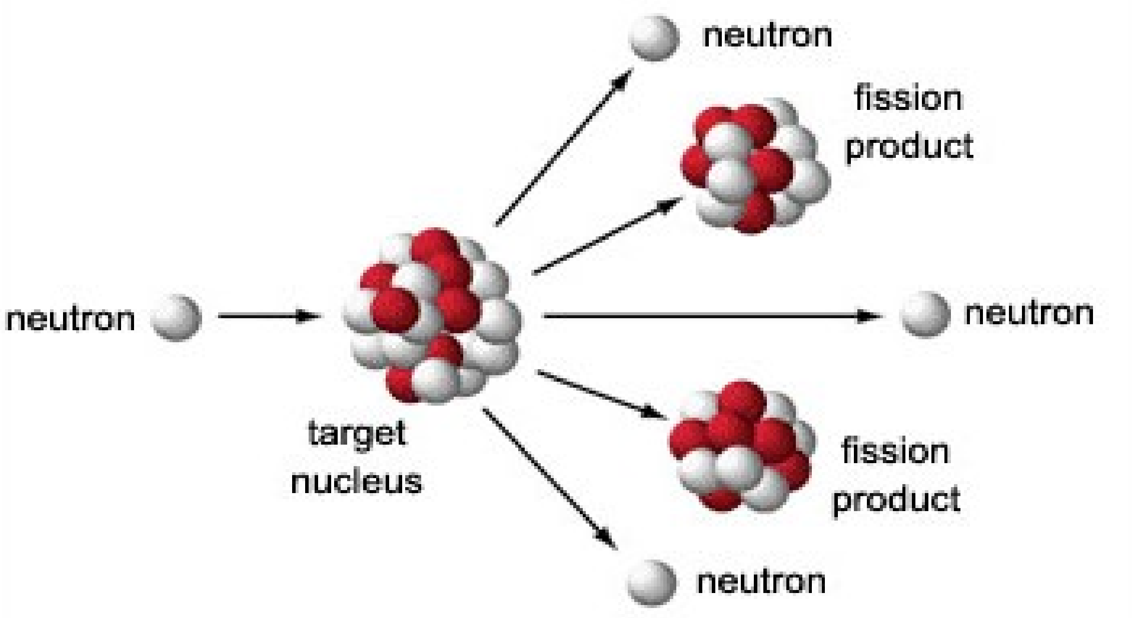


Why can both, Fission and Fusion Reactions Yield Energy ?

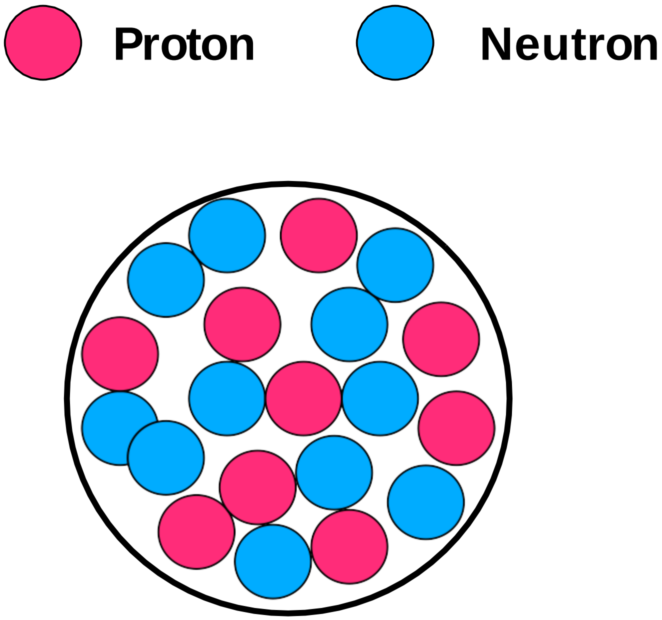


Fusion

Fission



Binding Energy of Nucleons in a Nucleus



Nucleus: *N*, *Z*

(1) Attractive nuclear force between nearest neighbor nucleons (short range)

(2) Repulsive electric forces between all protons (long range)

Competition between (1) and (2) determine **total binding energy of a nucleus B_T:**

$$B_T = \underbrace{\text{const} \times (N + Z)}_{\text{Nuclear Force}} - \underbrace{\text{const} \times Z^2}_{\text{Electrical Force}}$$

Nuclear Binding Energy is the source of nuclear energy utilized in nuclear reactors and released in nuclear bomb explosions !

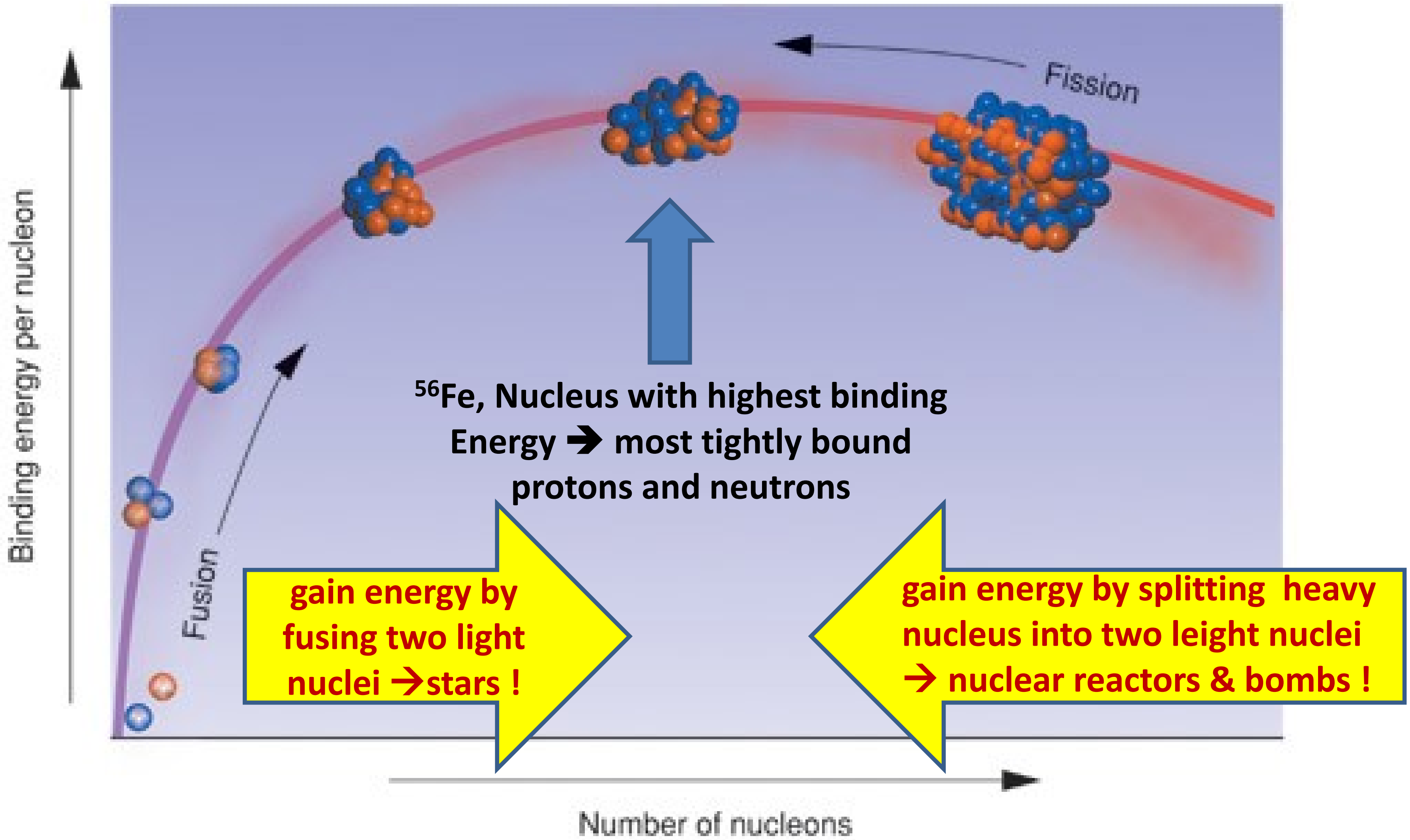
The Binding Energy Per Nucleon

- The easiest way to understand how fission and fusion liberate energy is by considering the *average binding energy B* of the nucleons in a nucleus —

$$B \equiv \frac{B_T}{A} = \frac{B_T}{(Z+N)}$$

- A graph of *B (binding energy)* vs. *A (atomic weight)* is called “the curve of the binding energy”
- A nuclear reaction that increases the binding energy of nucleons in the nucleus is “exothermic” and releases energy.

The Curve of Binding Energy (Important)



^{56}Fe, Nucleus with highest binding Energy ➔ most tightly bound protons and neutrons

gain energy by fusing two light nuclei →stars !

gain energy by splitting heavy nucleus into two leight nuclei → nuclear reactors & bombs !

Nuclides Important for Fission Bombs

Heavy elements (high Z) —

$^{238}_{92}U = {}^{238}U = U(238)$ * * *

$^{235}_{92}U = U(235)$ * * *

$^{233}_{92}U = U(233)$ *

$^{239}_{93}Np = Np(239)$

$^{239}_{94}Pu = Pu(239)$ * * *

$^{240}_{94}Pu = Pu(240)$ * *

*, **, *** denotes increasing importance

Nuclides Important for Fusion Bombs

Light elements (low Z) —

$^{1}_{1}H$ = P (proton)

$^{2}_{1}H$ = D (deuteron), stable ***

$^{3}_{1}H$ = T (triton), unstable ***

$^{4}_{2}He$ = He(4) = α (alpha particle), very stable

$^{3}_{2}He$ = He(3) , stable (indirectly relevant to NWs) *

$^{6}_{3}Li$ = Li(6) , stable **

$^{7}_{3}Li$ = Li(7), stable (no relevance to NWs)

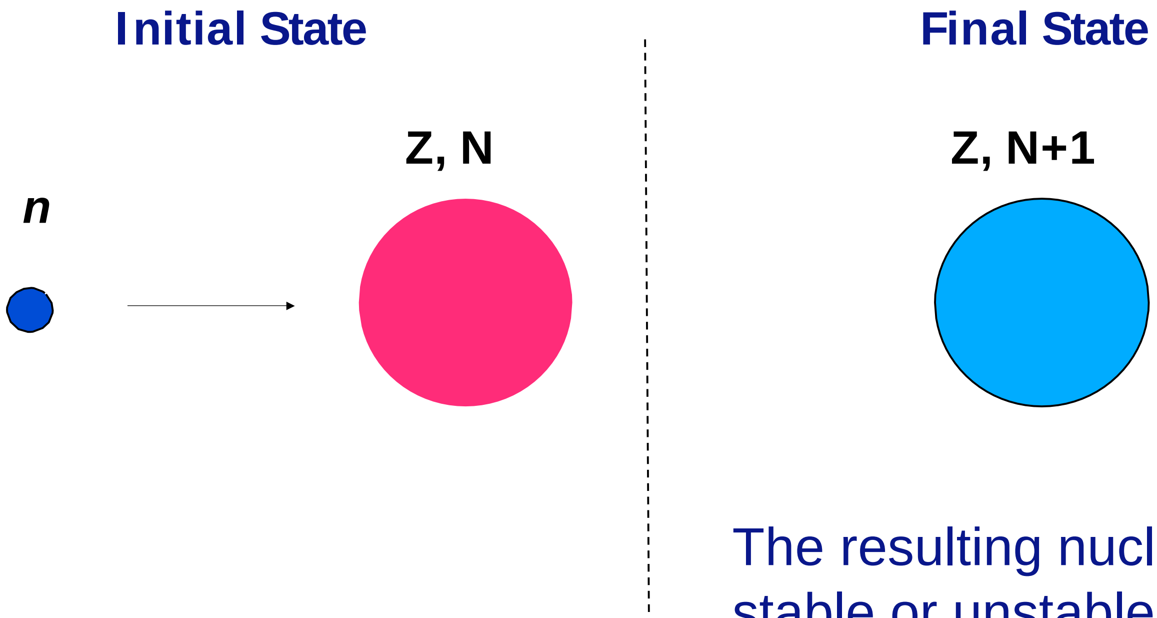
$^{9}_{4}Be$ = Be(9) stable (lighest metal) *

*, **, *** denotes increasing importance

The Neutron –
Similar to Proton but without Electric Charge

- The discovery of the neutron in 1932 was the single most important discovery in nuclear physics after the discovery of the nucleus itself.
- Until the neutron was discovered, physicists could not understand nuclei, in particular how A could be greater than Z.
- The discovery of the neutron made it possible to understand for the first time that $A = Z + N$ and could therefore be greater than Z.
- Neutrons are not repelled by the positive charge of a nucleus and therefore can approach and penetrate a nucleus without having to overcome an electrical energy barrier.
- The nuclear force between neutrons and protons, and between neutrons and nuclei, is generally attractive. Hence if a neutron gets close enough, it will be attracted by and become bound to a nucleus.
- Neutron bombardment of nuclei quickly became a tool for probing the structure of nuclei and the properties of the nuclear force.

Neutron Capture



Initial State

Final State

Z, N

n

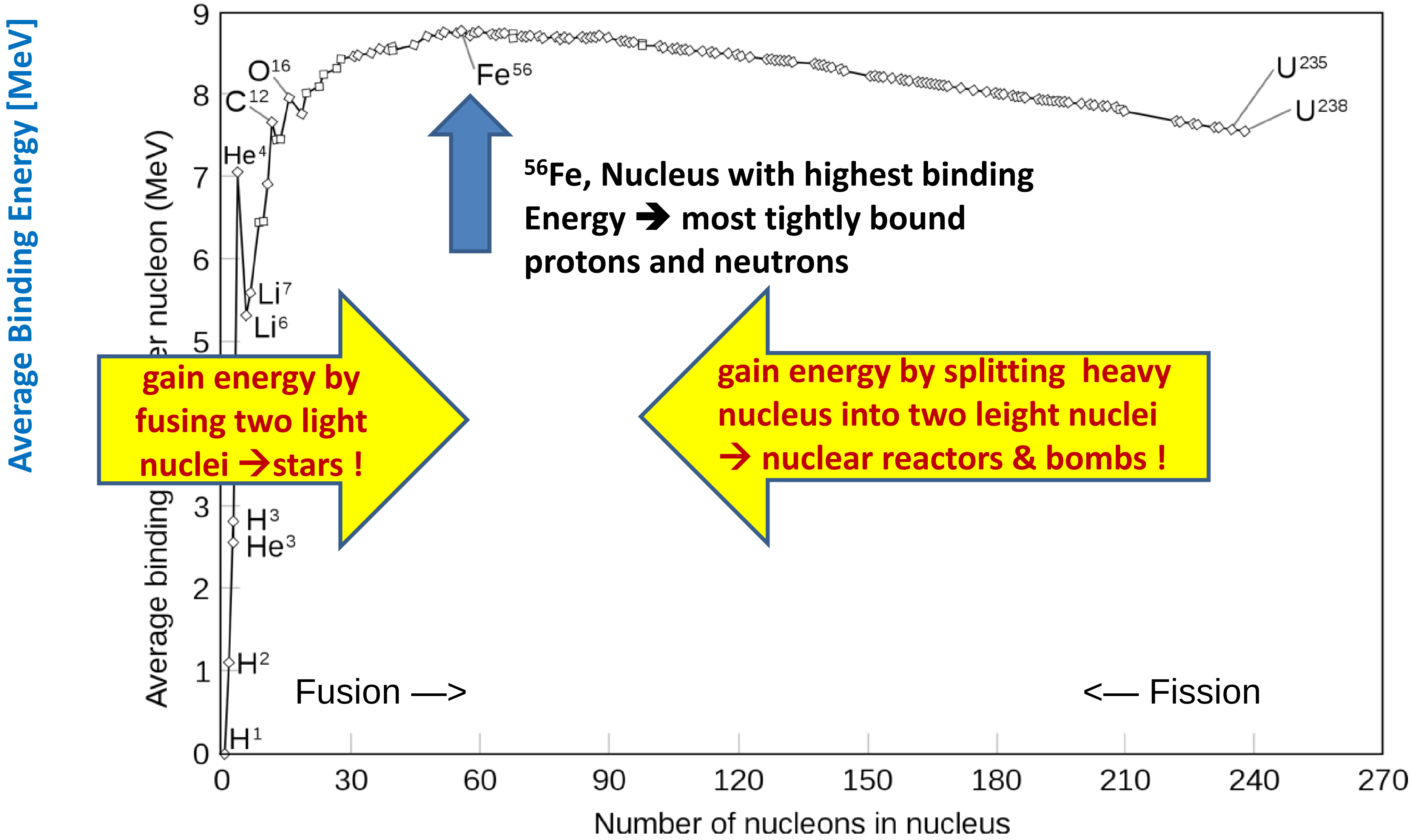
Z, N+1

The resulting nucleus may be stable or unstable.

If unstable, we call this process *neutron activation*. It typically results in a β-decay.

$$ {}^{1}_{0}n + {}^{238}_{92}U \rightarrow {}^{239}_{92}U \rightarrow {}^{239}_{93}Np + e^{-} + \overline{\nu}_{e} $$

Average Nucleon Binding Energy ➔ Amount of Energy Released if 1 Neutron is Captured in Nucleus



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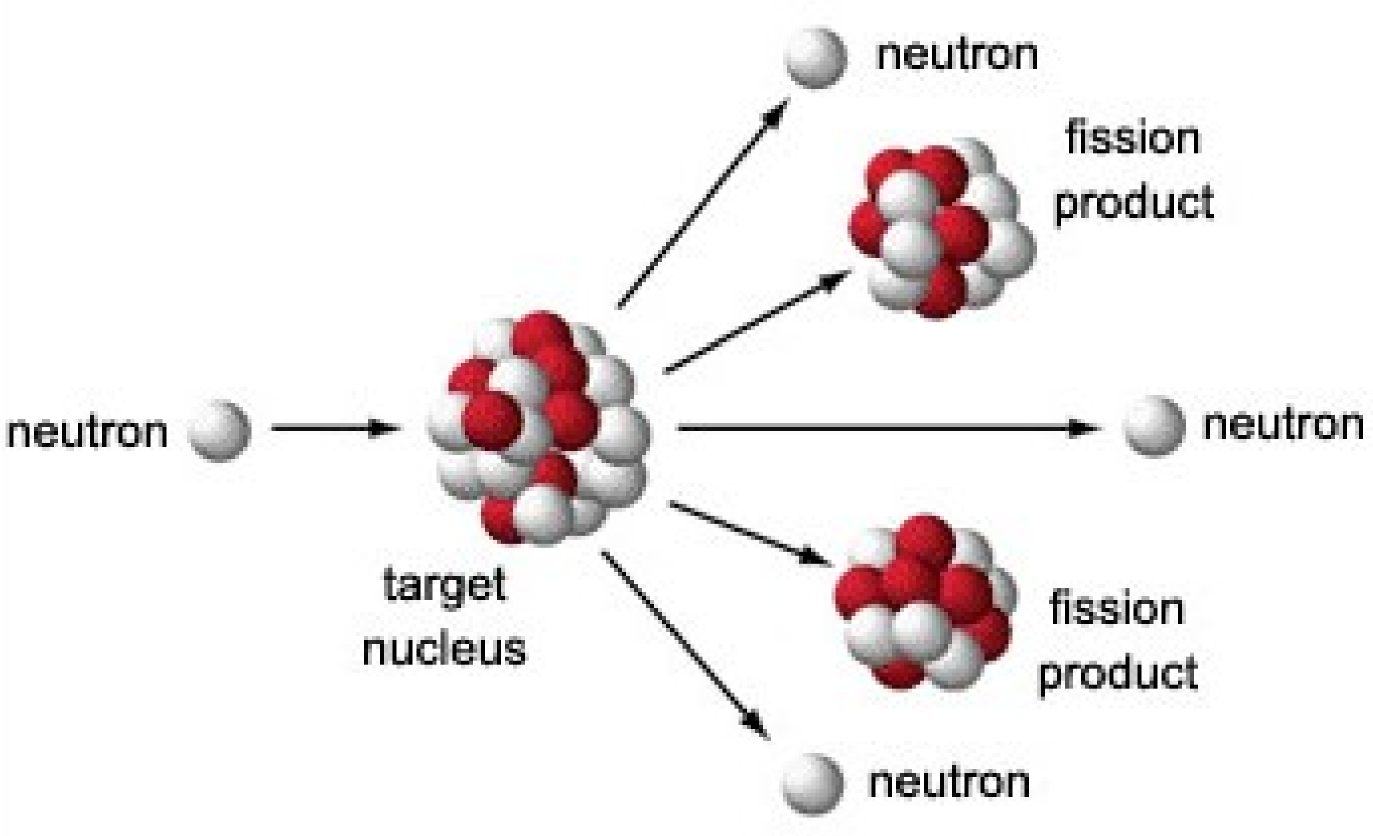
Induced Fission – 1



Induced Fission – 2

The discovery of induced fission was a great surprise!

Many groups studying neutron capture by Uranium had induced fission without realizing what was happening.

Lise Meitner, a brilliant Jewish scientist who had fled from Germany to the Netherlands in 1938, was the first person to understand what was happening in the experiments.

Unfortunately, *she was not included* in the Nobel Prize awarded for the discovery!

Element 109, Meitnerium, is named in her honor.

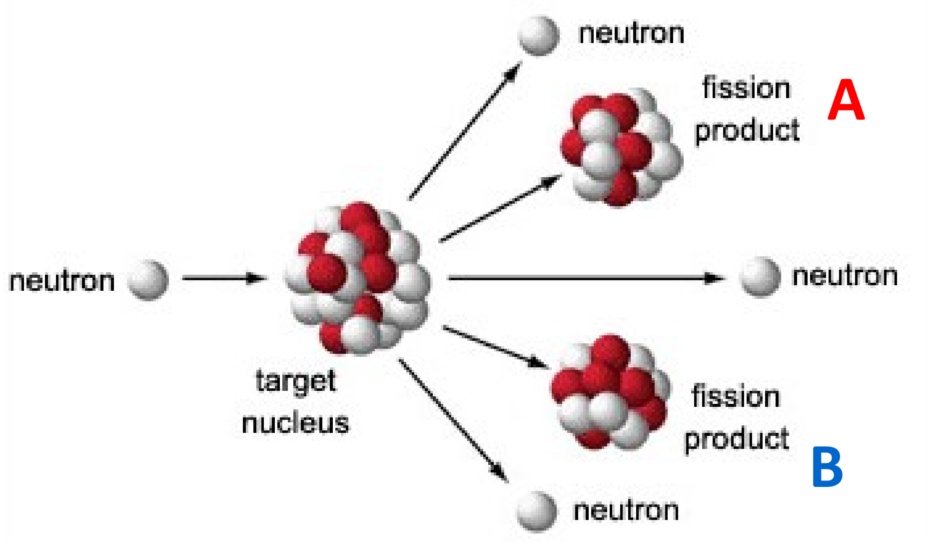
Lise Meitner’s Concept of Fission

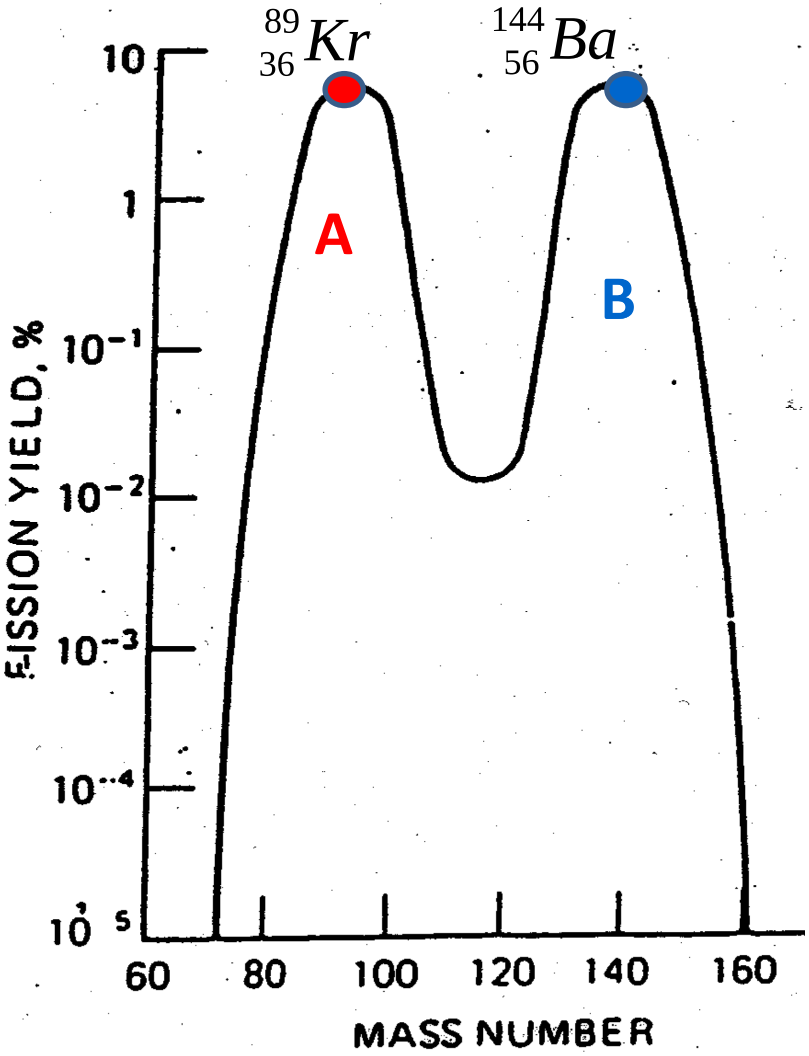
parent nucleus

daughter nuclei

deformation of parent nucleus

Distribution of Fission Fragment Masses



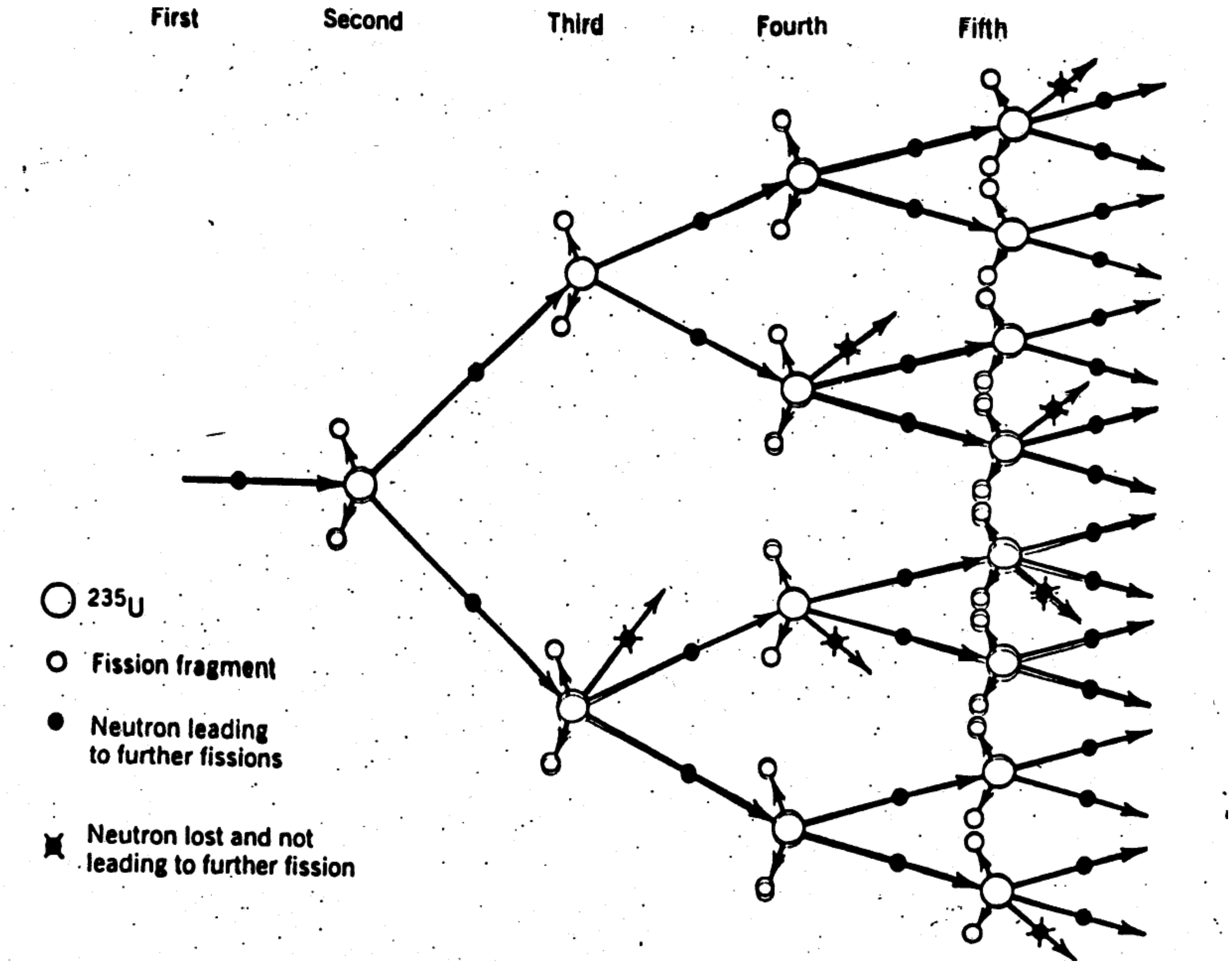


$$^{235}_{92}U \rightarrow {}^{144}_{56}Ba + {}^{89}_{36}Kr + 3n + 177\,MeV$$

Induced Fission – 3

- Soon after it was realized that induced fission itself produces neutrons, many scientists realized that
  - —a nuclear fission chain reaction might be possible
  - —the energy released would be many thousands of times greater than the energy released by chemical reactions
  - —a fission reactor (steady chain reaction) might be possible
  - —a fission bomb (explosive chain reaction) might also be possible
- There was great fear in the Britain and the U.S. that Germany would be the first to develop a nuclear bomb
- British scientists played important early roles in showing that a nuclear bomb was possible
- The U.S. was slow to start, but eventually became the center of nuclear bomb development (the Manhattan Project)

Chain Reaction



Physics of Nuclear Weapons

Nuclear Reactors and Nuclear Bombs

What Is a Critical Configuration?

A critical configuration is an assembly of fissionable nuclear material in an arrangement for which the rate of fissions in the assembly is steady.

The rate of fissions in the assembly will be steady if, on average, the neutrons released in each fission event initiate one new fission event.

The quantity of a given nuclear material needed to produce a steady rate of fissions depends on —

- The average number of neutrons released by each fission
- The fraction of the neutrons released that cause a subsequent fission

These depend on the composition, density, chemical form, etc., of the nuclear material and its arrangement (geometry, surroundings, etc.).

What is the “Neutron Multiplication Factor” R?

The number of neutrons released by each fission that cause a subsequent fission in a configuration of nuclear material depends on what fraction —

- Escape from the system
- Are captured but do not cause a fission
- Are captured and cause a fission

The ratio R of the number of neutrons present in fission generation *n* + 1 to the number present in fission generation *n* is called the *neutron multiplication factor* of that nuclear material configuration.

If R < 1, the configuration is *subcritical* and the rate of fissions in it will die out (usually quickly) as time goes on. Such a configuration is of little use.

If R = 1, the configuration is *critical* and the rate of fissions in it will remain the same as time goes on. Such configurations are used in nuclear reactors.

If R > 1, the configuration is *supercritical* and the rate of fissions in it will grow exponentially (usually quickly) with time. Such configurations are used in nuclear bombs.

Nuclides Useful in Nuclear Reactors Versus Useful in Fission Bombs

Nuclear reactors require nuclides that can be fissioned by neutrons of any energy. Such nuclides are called "fissile".

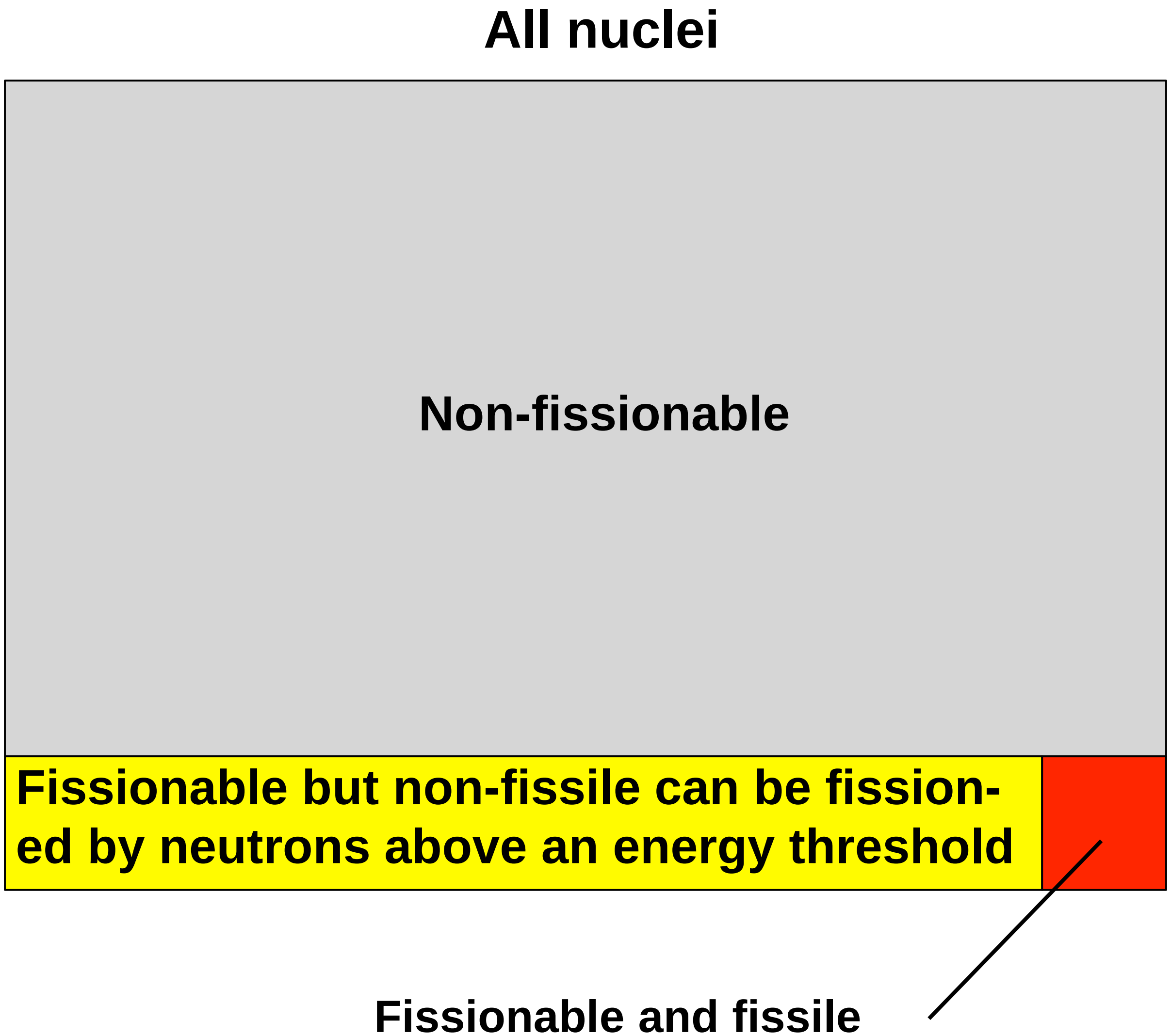
The reason is that in a nuclear reactor, the neutrons emitted by fission events lose most of their kinetic energy (i.e., "slow down") by interacting with surrounding material before inducing a further fission.

A steady chain reaction can be created under these circumstances if fissile nuclides are used.

Nuclides that can be fissioned only by neutrons with energies above a certain threshold energy are called "fissionable but not fissile".

Fissionable but not fissile nuclides cannot be used in a nuclear reactor but some can be used in nuclear bombs.

Relationship of Non-fissionable, Fissionable, Fissile, and Non-fissile Nuclides



All nuclei

Non-fissionable

Fissionable but non-fissile can be fissioned by neutrons above an energy threshold

Fissionable and fissile can be fissioned by neutrons of any energy

Neutron-Induced Fission Probability As a Function of the Incoming Neutron Energy for Three Important Nuclides

From: Los Alamos Primer, Robert Serber (Manhattan Project, ~1943)

Secret Codes: 25 = U(235), 28 = U(238), 49 =Pu(239)

FISSION CROSS-SECTIONS 15

Fission Probability

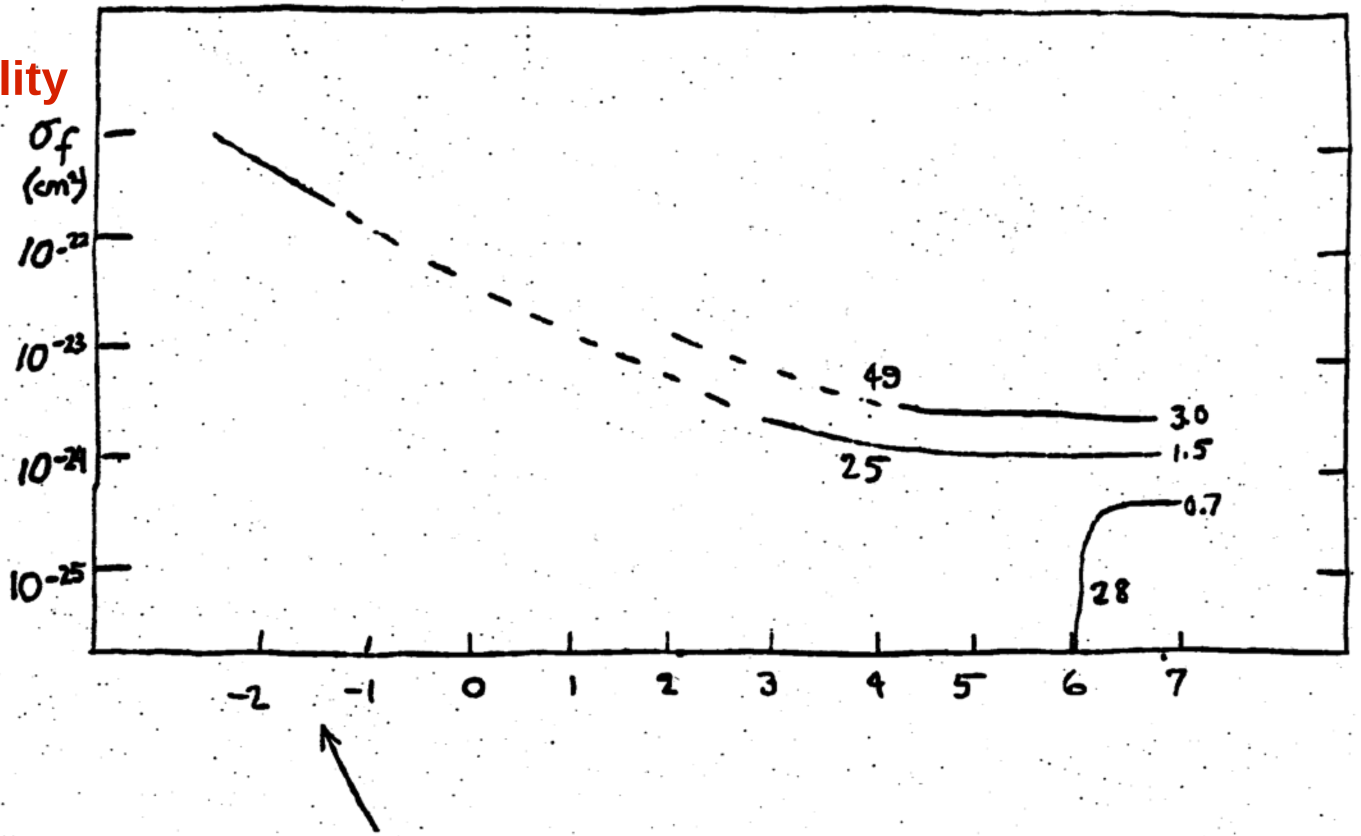


Fig. 1

What Are Nuclear-Explosive Nuclides?
What Is Nuclear-Explosive Material?

Nuclear-explosive *nuclide* —in a configuration with suitable quantity, purity, and geometry—can support an explosive (exponentially growing) fast-neutron fission chain reaction.

“Fast” neutrons are fission-produced neutrons that have not been slowed by interacting with their environment.

Nuclear-explosive *material (NEM)* is a mixture of various nuclear-explosive nuclides and other nuclides that—in a configuration with suitable quantity, purity, and geometry—can support a fast-neutron fission chain reaction.

Nuclear-explosive material can be used to create a nuclear bomb.

Some Nuclear-Explosive Nuclides Are Not Fissile

Whether nuclides are capable of supporting a *slow-neutron chain reaction* (i.e., whether they are *fissile*) is not directly relevant to whether they can support a fast-neutron chain reaction.

However, the underlying physics is such that —

- All fissile nuclides are nuclear-explosive
- Some nuclides that are not fissile are nuclear-explosive

Fissionable but non-fissile nuclides cannot be used in a nuclear reactor, but some can be used to create nuclear-explosive material.

For example, the even-numbered isotopes of Plutonium — most importantly Pu-238, Pu-240, and Pu-242 — are *not* fissile but *are* nuclear explosive nuclides.

Fertile Nuclides → Breed Nuclear Explosive Nuclides

Fertile Nuclides can be used to “breed” Nuclear Explosive Nuclides in Nuclear Reactors. The NEM then are harvested through chemical reprocessing of the reactor fuel. Example, Uranium-238:

fertile nuclide

$${}^{1}_{0}n + \boxed{{}^{238}_{92}U} \rightarrow {}^{239}_{92}U$$

neutron capture

$${}^{239}_{92}U \rightarrow {}^{239}_{93}Np + e^{-} + \overline{\nu}_{e}$$

Beta-decay

$${}^{239}_{93}Np \rightarrow \boxed{{}^{239}_{94}Pu} + e^{-} + \overline{\nu}_{e}$$

Beta-decay

nuclear explosive nuclide

Definitions of Fission and Nuclear Materials Summary – Important !

- ***Nuclear fission*** is the breakup of a heavy nucleus, such as uranium, into two medium-weight nuclei. Fission is usually accompanied by emission of a few neutrons and γ-rays.
- A ***fissionable nuclide*** is one that can be fissioned by bombardment with neutrons.
- A ***fissionable but non-fissile nuclide*** is one that can be fissioned only by neutrons with energies above a certain threshold energy.
- A ***fissile nuclide*** is one that can be fissioned by neutrons of any energy; in fact, the lower the neutron's energy, the greater the probability that it will cause the nuclide to fission.
- ***Nuclear-explosive material*** is a mixture of nuclides that can support an explosive fast-neutron chain reaction.
- ***Fertile material*** is a mixture of nuclides that are transformed into fissile nuclides by capturing a neutron.

Examples of Fissile, Fissionable but Non-fissile, and Fertile Nuclides (Important)

U-235 and Pu-239 are *fissile*

- *Neutrons of any energy can cause fission*
- Hence a slow-neutron chain reaction is possible
- A fast-neutron chain reaction is also possible

U-238 and Th-232 are *fissionable but not fissile;* both are *fertile*

- *Only neutrons with energies above a threshold energy can cause fission*
- For, e.g., U-238, only ~ 25% of the neutrons emitted have energies above the threshold energy for causing fission
- Hence a fast-neutron chain reaction is impossible
- A slow-neutron chain reaction is also impossible, because the energies of slow neutrons are below the threshold energy for inducing fission

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 6

Plan for This Session

Announcements:

Peer Review: you will receive a prompt by Friday at noon to peer review another student's essay. This will count for 10% of your v2 grade. Peer Reviews are due Monday at 6 p.m through the assignment upload server.

Location of essays to be reviewed:

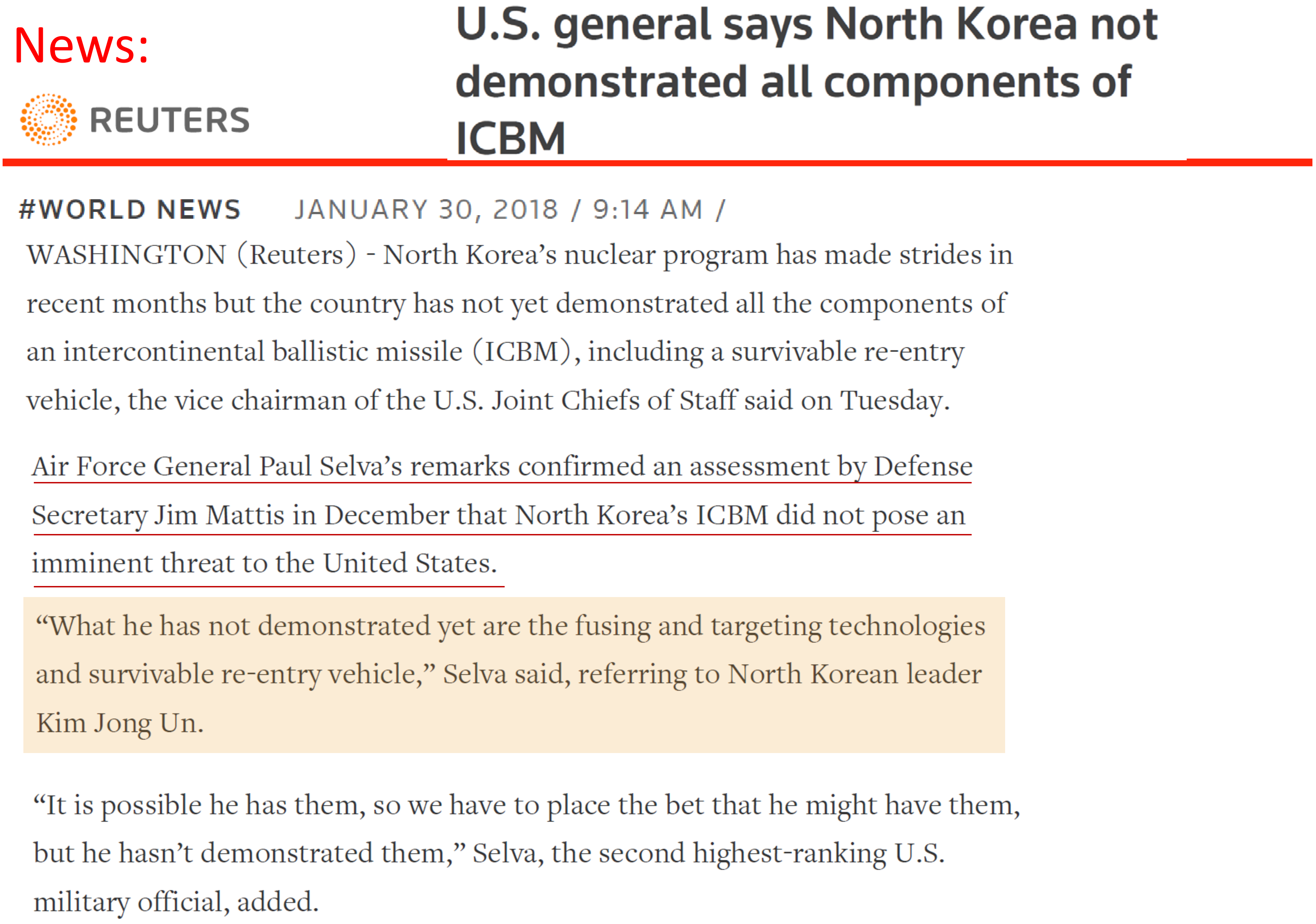
https://courses.physics.illinois.edu/phys280/secure/assignments/RE2v1/OnTime/

WL11	Reviewer	Reviewee
	jjflore3	pzukows2
	jang51	jjflore3
	kulchit2	jang51
	mrogals2	kulchit2
	seidner2	mrogals2
	rshanle2	seidner2
	jlstein3	hmatz2
	pzukows2	nnshah8

Questions

Module 2: Nuclear weapons cont'd

News:



REUTERS

U.S. general says North Korea not demonstrated all components of ICBM

#WORLD NEWS JANUARY 30, 2018 / 9:14 AM /

WASHINGTON (Reuters) - North Korea’s nuclear program has made strides in recent months but the country has not yet demonstrated all the components of an intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM), including a survivable re-entry vehicle, the vice chairman of the U.S. Joint Chiefs of Staff said on Tuesday.

Air Force General Paul Selva’s remarks confirmed an assessment by Defense Secretary Jim Mattis in December that North Korea’s ICBM did not pose an imminent threat to the United States.

> “What he has not demonstrated yet are the fusing and targeting technologies and survivable re-entry vehicle,” Selva said, referring to North Korean leader Kim Jong Un.

“It is possible he has them, so we have to place the bet that he might have them, but he hasn’t demonstrated them,” Selva, the second highest-ranking U.S. military official, added.

How to Produce a Nuclear Explosion

A nuclear explosion can be produced by the rapid assembly of NEM into a configuration that will sustain a fast-neutron chain reaction.

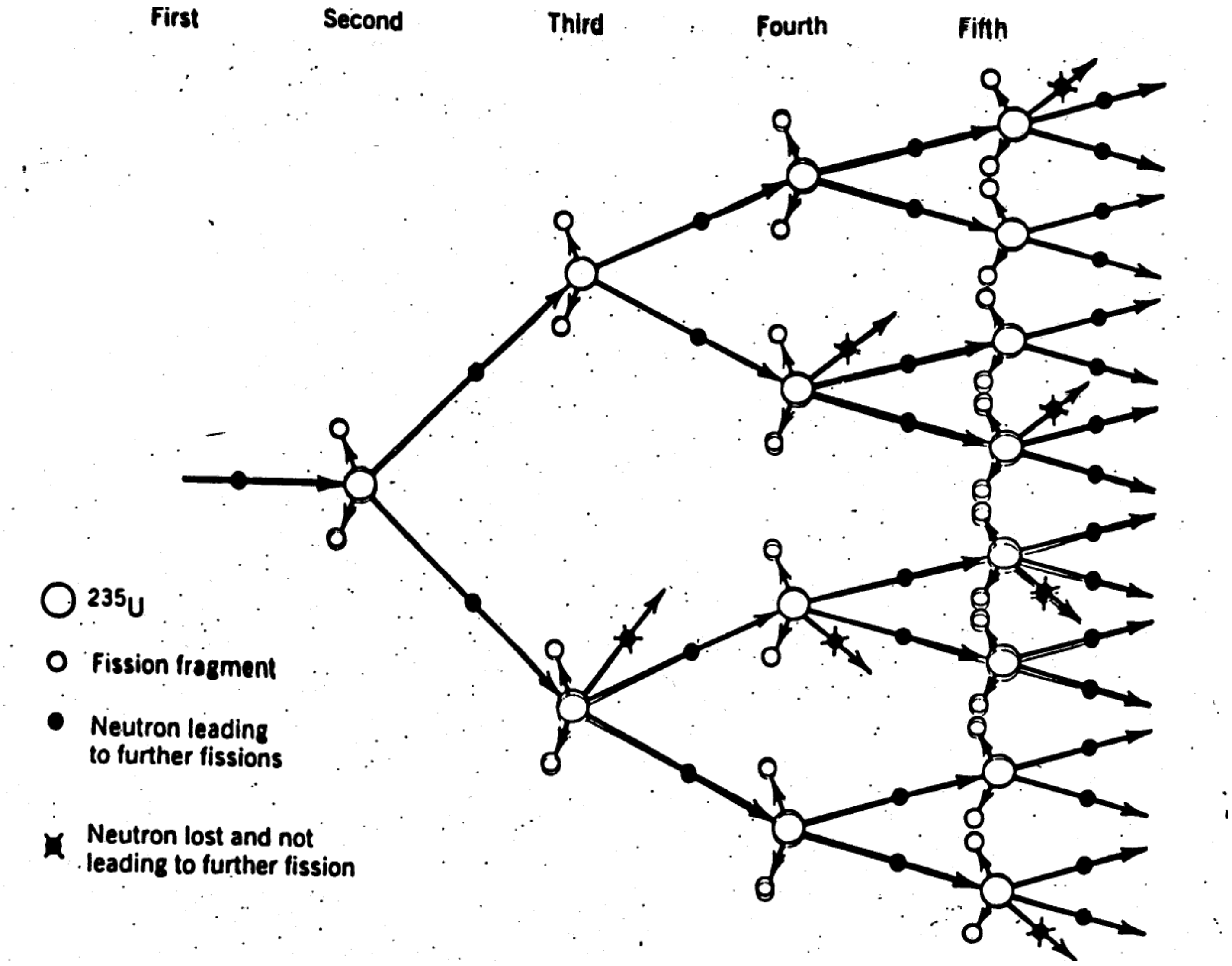
To sustain a fast-neutron chain reaction, on average at least one of the several energetic neutrons released per fission must be “productively” captured, i.e., it must produce another fission following its capture.

To be productive, the neutron must cause a fission before it is unproductively captured or escapes from the configuration.

To produce a nuclear explosion, the fast neutrons from each “generation” of fissions must produce *more* fast neutrons in the next “generation”.

Such a configuration is “prompt supercritical” and will explode.

Explosive Chain Reaction: Generations



Number of Fissions When a Nuclear Weapon is Exploded

Generation	Fissions in the generation	Energy released
1	$2^0 = 1$	
2	$2^1 = 2$	
3	$2^2 = 2 \times 2 = 4$	
4	$2^3 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$	
5	$2^4 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 16$	
10	$2^9 = 512$	
30	$2^{29} = 5.3 \times 10^8$	
70	$2^{69} = 5.9 \times 10^{20}$	0.025% of Yield
79	$2^{78} = 3.0 \times 10^{23}$	12% of Yield
80	$2^{79} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$	25% of Yield
81	$2^{80} = 1.2 \times 10^{24}$	50% of Yield
82	$2^{81} = 2.4 \times 10^{24}$	100% of Yield

Each generation lasts about 1 “shake” = 10^{-8} sec = 1/100,000,000 sec.

All 82 generations last 82 x 10^{-8} sec = 0.8 x 10^{-6} sec ≈ 1 microsecond.

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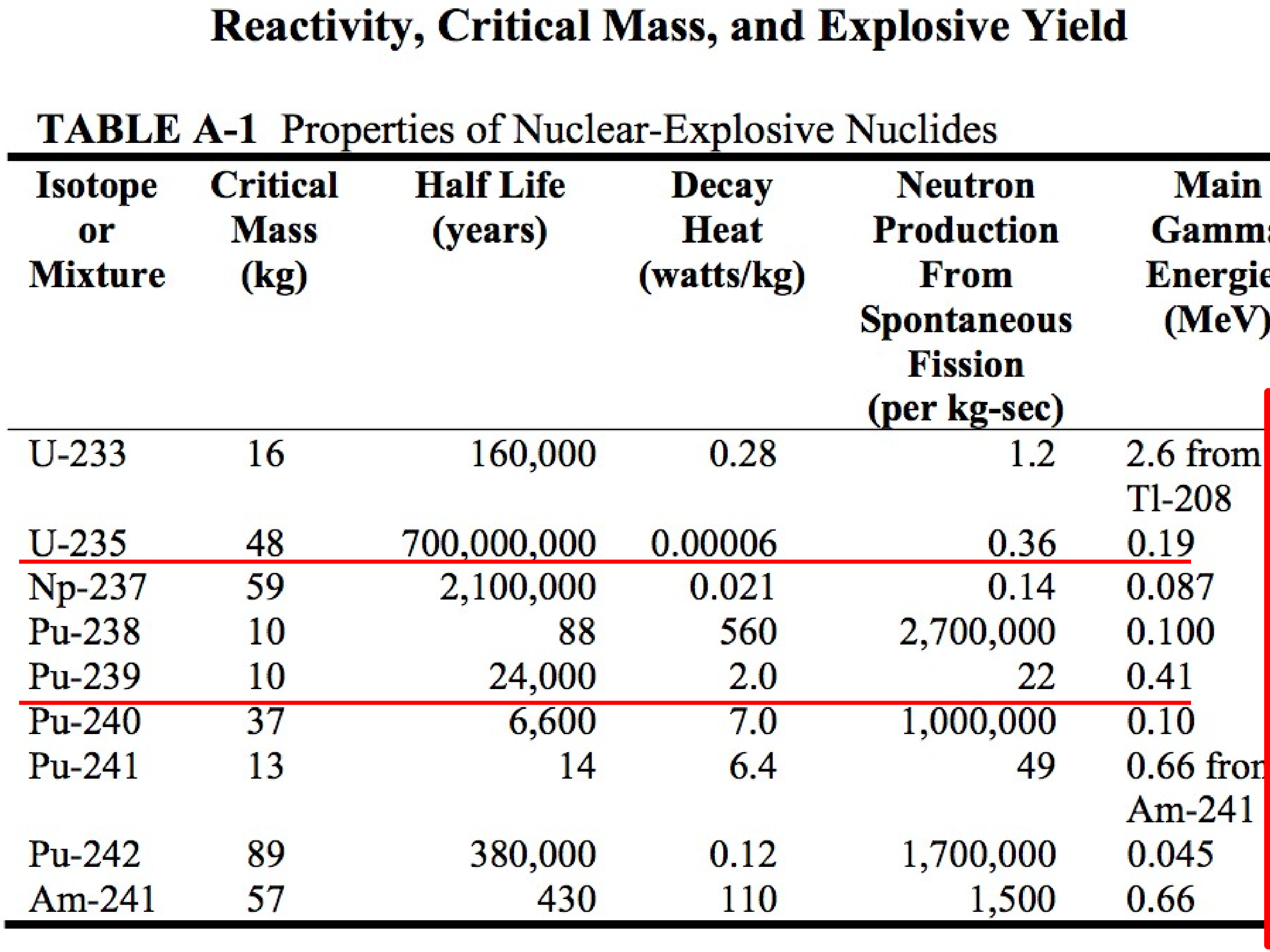
81	$2^{80} = 1.2 \times 10^{24}$	50% of Yield
82	$2^{81} = 2.4 \times 10^{24}$	100% of Yield

88% of total Yield (explosive energy) are released in the 3 final generations of chain reactions!

Each generation lasts about 1 "shake" = 10^{-8} sec = 1/100,000,000 sec.

All 82 generations last 82 x 10^{-8} sec = 0.8×10^{-6} sec ≈ 1 microsecond.

Properties of Nuclear Explosive Nuclides



Reactivity, Critical Mass, and Explosive Yield

TABLE A-1 Properties of Nuclear-Explosive Nuclides

Isotope or Mixture	Critical Mass (kg)	Half Life (years)	Decay Heat (watts/kg)	Neutron Production From Spontaneous Fission (per kg-sec)	Main Gamma Energies (MeV)
U-233	16	160,000	0.28	1.2	2.6 from Tl-208
U-235	48	700,000,000	0.00006	0.36	0.19
Np-237	59	2,100,000	0.021	0.14	0.087
Pu-238	10	88	560	2,700,000	0.100
Pu-239	10	24,000	2.0	22	0.41
Pu-240	37	6,600	7.0	1,000,000	0.10
Pu-241	13	14	6.4	49	0.66 fror Am-241
Pu-242	89	380,000	0.12	1,700,000	0.045
Am-241	57	430	110	1,500	0.66

Properties are important for usage of NEN in nucl. weapons:

- heat from rad. Decay
  ➔ requires cooling
- radiation from rad. Decay
  ➔ must control damage to personal and materials
- neutrons from spontaneous fission ➔ early trigger of chain reaction

Properties of Nuclear Explosive Materials

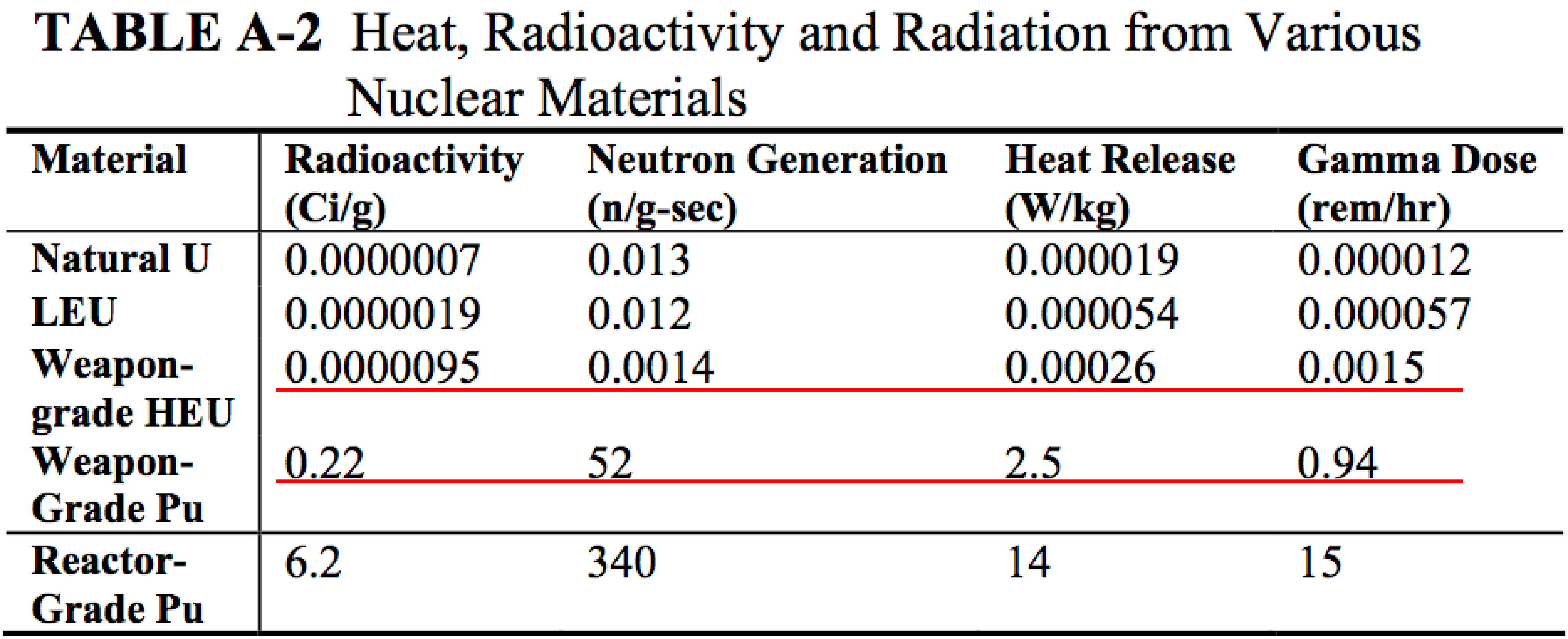


TABLE A-2 Heat, Radioactivity and Radiation from Various Nuclear Materials

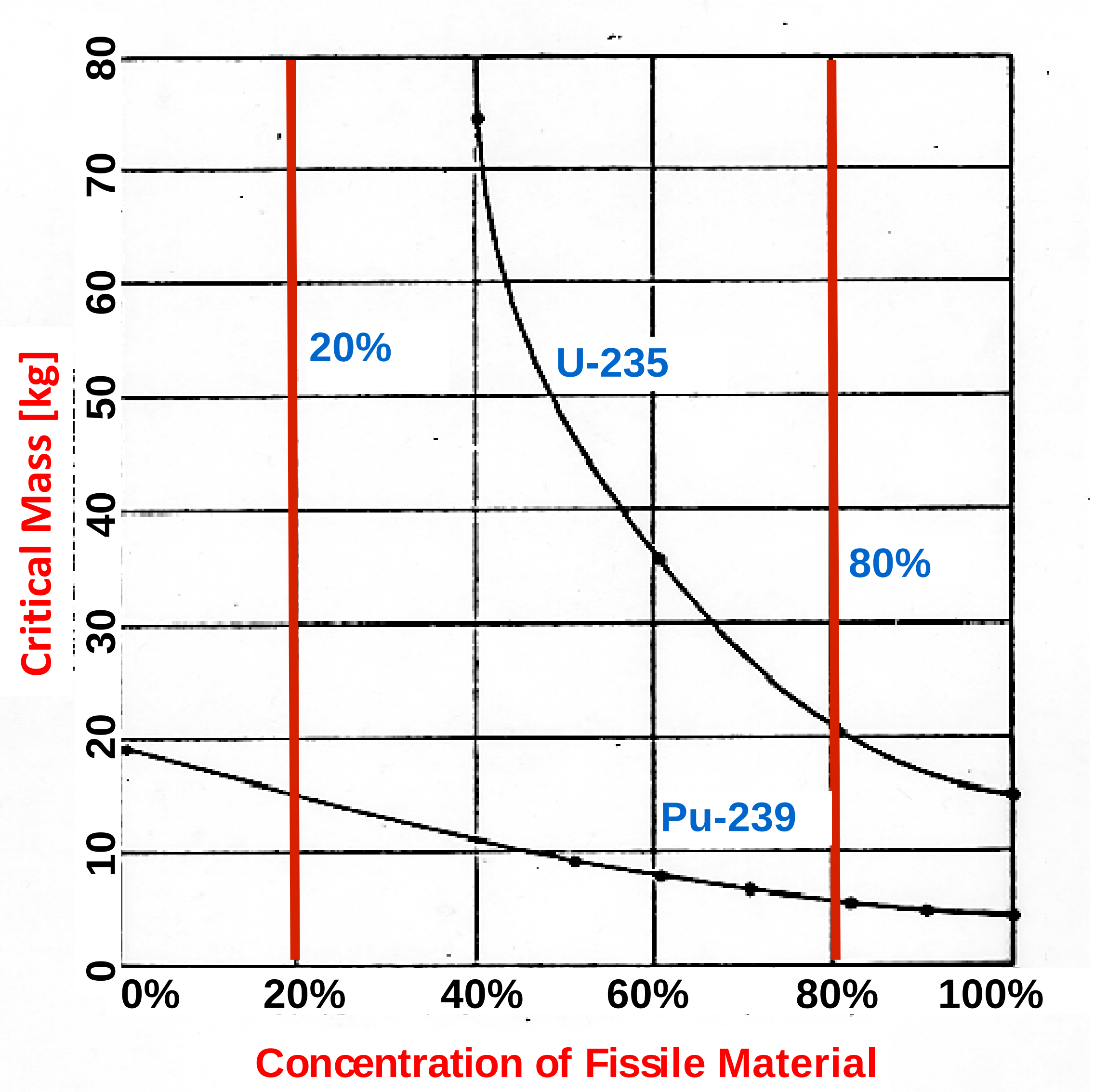
Material	**Radioactivity (Ci/g)**	**Neutron Generation (n/g-sec)**	**Heat Release (W/kg)**	**Gamma Dose (rem/hr)**
Natural U	0.0000007	0.013	0.000019	0.000012
LEU	0.0000019	0.012	0.000054	0.000057
Weapon-grade HEU	0.0000095	0.0014	0.00026	0.0015
Weapon-Grade Pu	0.22	52	2.5	0.94
Reactor-Grade Pu	6.2	340	14	15

Properties are important for usage of nuclear explosive materials in nuclear weapons:

- heat from rad. Decay ➔ requires cooling
- radiation from rad. Decay ➔ must control damage to personal and materials
- neutrons from spontaneous fission ➔ early trigger of chain reaction

Reducing the Fast-Neutron Critical Mass – 1

Critical Mass versus the Concentration of the Fissile Material



Reducing the Fast-Neutron Critical Mass – 2

Dependence on the Density ρ of the Fissile Material

Let m_C be the critical mass. Then

$$\frac{m_c(\rho)}{m_c(\rho_0)} = \left(\frac{\rho_0}{\rho}\right)^2$$

where ρ_0 is normal density and ρ is actual density

Example: $\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} = 2, \quad \frac{m_c(\rho)}{m_c(\rho_0)} = \frac{1}{4}$ ⇒ Increasing the density by a factor 2 reduces the critical mass by a factor 4!

Reducing the Fast-Neutron Critical Mass – 3

- A reflector surrounding a configuration of fissile material will reduce the number of neutrons that escape through its surface
- The best neutron reflectors are light nuclei that have have no propensity to capture neutrons
- The lightest practical material is Beryllium, the lightest strong metal
- Heavy materials (e.g., U-238) sometimes used instead to reflect neutrons and “tamp” explosion

Mass Required for a Given Technology

kg of Weapon-Grade Pu for Technical Capability				kg of Highly Enriched U for Technical Capability		
Low	Medium	High	Yield (kt)	Low	Medium	High
3	1.5	1.0	1	8	4	2.5
4	2.5	1.5	5	11	6	3.5
5	3.0	2.0	10	13	7	4.0
6	3.5	3.0	20	16	9	5.0

For P280, we assume 6 kg of Pu-239 and 16 kg of HEU are required.

Physics of Nuclear Weapons

Fission Weapons (“A-bombs”)

Important Concepts

- Induced vs. spontaneous fission
- Critical vs. supercritical configurations
- Neutron multiplication factor
- Explosive chain reaction
- Nuclear-explosive materials

First Let’s Discuss Chemical Bombs

Simulated road side bomb attack with chemical explosive

How to Make a Chemical Explosion – 1

Explosive —

- Mixture of fuel and oxidizer (e.g., TNT)
- Close proximity of fuel and oxidizer can make the chemical reaction very rapid

Packaging —

- To make a bomb, fuel and oxidizer must be confined long enough to react rapidly and (almost) completely
- A sturdy bomb case can provide confinement
- Bomb case fragments can also increase damage

Ignition —

- Via flame or spark (e.g., a fuse or blasting cap)
- Started by lighting the fuse or exploding the cap

How to Make a Chemical Explosion – 2

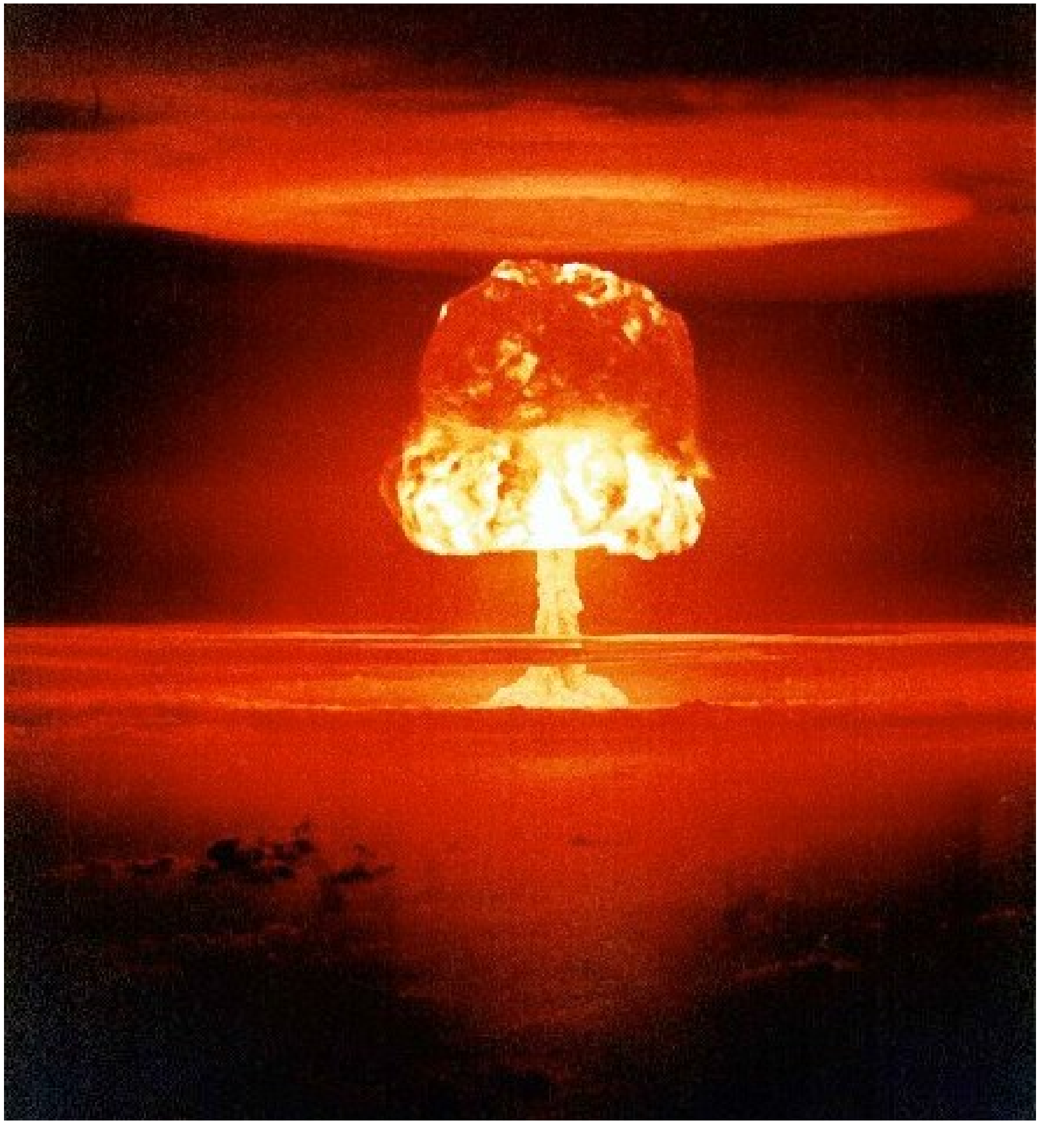
Stages —

- Explosive is ignited
- Fuel and oxidizer burn (chemically), releasing ~ 5 eV per molecule
- Hot burned gases have high pressure, break bomb case and expand

Energy released goes into —

- Light
- Blast wave (strong sound wave and air motion)
- Flying shrapnel
- Heat

Now Let's Discuss Nuclear Bombs



Thermonuclear explosion in the Pacific (Castle-Romeo, 11 Mt)

How to Make a Nuclear Explosion

Key steps required to create a fission explosion —

- Collect at least a critical mass of NEM (*be sure to keep the material in pieces, each with a subcritical mass!*)
- Quickly assemble the pieces into a single supercritical mass
- Initiate a fast-neutron chain reaction in the assembled mass
- Hold the assembly together until enough of it has fissioned

Additional steps required to create a thermonuclear (two-stage) explosion —

- Assemble as much fusion fuel as desired
- Arrange the fusion fuel near the fission bomb in such a way that the X-rays produced by the exploding NEM compress and heat the fusion fuel until it reacts

Energy Released By a Single Fission (Details)

n + (fissile nucleus) → (fission fragments) + (2 or 3 n's)

Energy Distribution (MeV)	
Kinetic energy (KE) of fission fragments	~ 165*
Energy of prompt gamma-rays	7*
KE of prompt neutrons	5
KE of beta-rays from fragments	7
E of gamma-rays from fragments	6
E of neutrinos from fragments	10
Total	~ 200

*Only this 172 MeV is counted in the explosive "yield" of nuclear weapons

Energy Yields of Nuclear Weapons – 1

- The *yield* of a nuclear weapon is defined (roughly) as *the total energy it releases when it explodes*
- The energy release is quoted in units of the energy released by a ton of TNT
  - —1 kiloton (kt) = 1 thousand tons of TNT
  - —1 Megaton (Mt) = 1 million tons of TNT
- For this purpose the energy of 1 kt of TNT is defined as 10^{12} Calories = 4.2 x 10^{12} Joules

Energy Yields of Nuclear Weapons – 2

Fission weapons (“A-bombs”) —

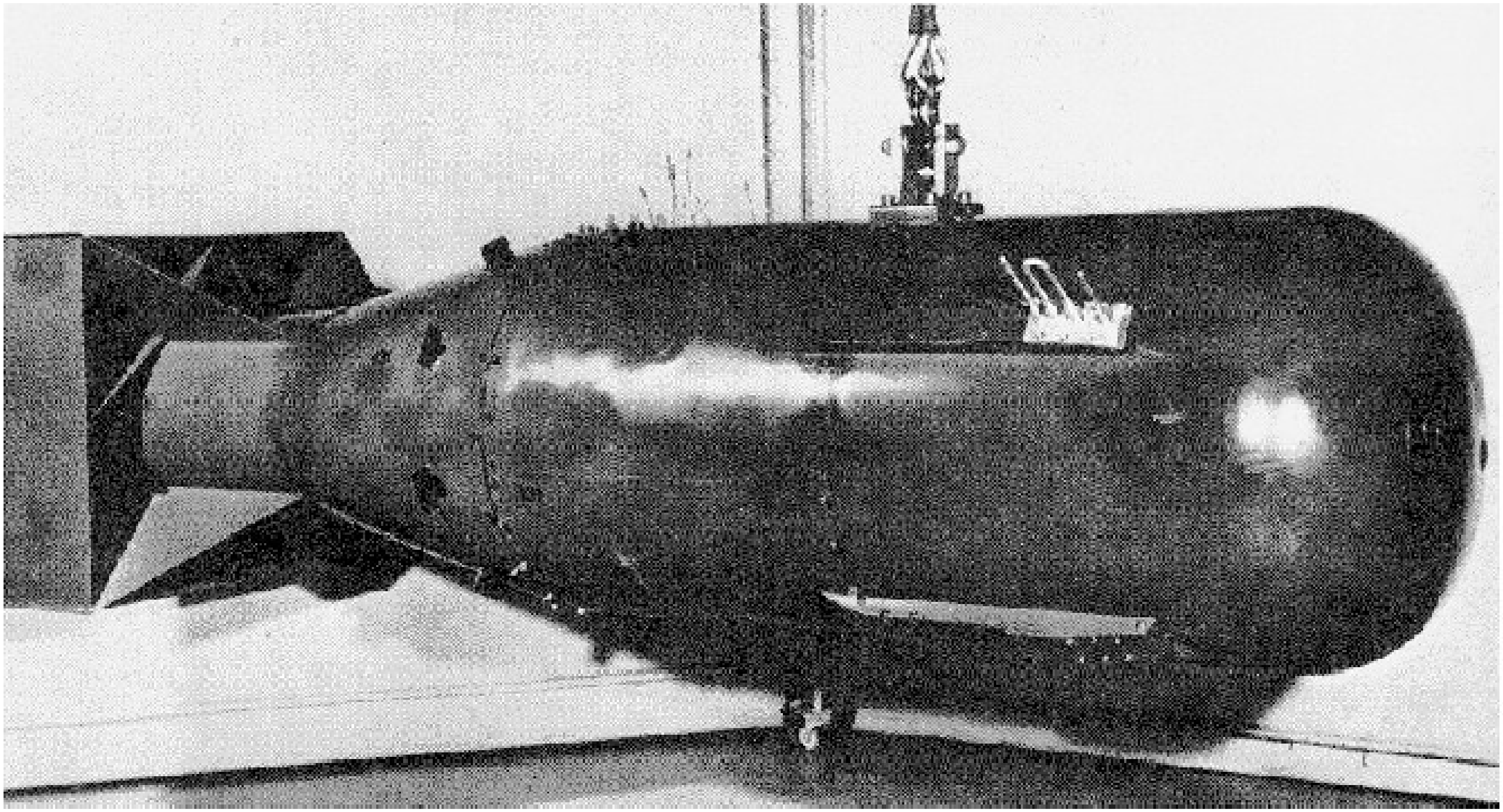
- Theoretical maximum yield-to-weight ratio: 8,000 tons TNT = 8 kt TNT from 1 lb. of NEM (~ 10,000,000 times as much per lb. as TNT)
- Difficult to make weapons larger than few 100 kt (Yields of tested weapons: 1–500 kt)

Thermonuclear weapons (“H-bombs”) —

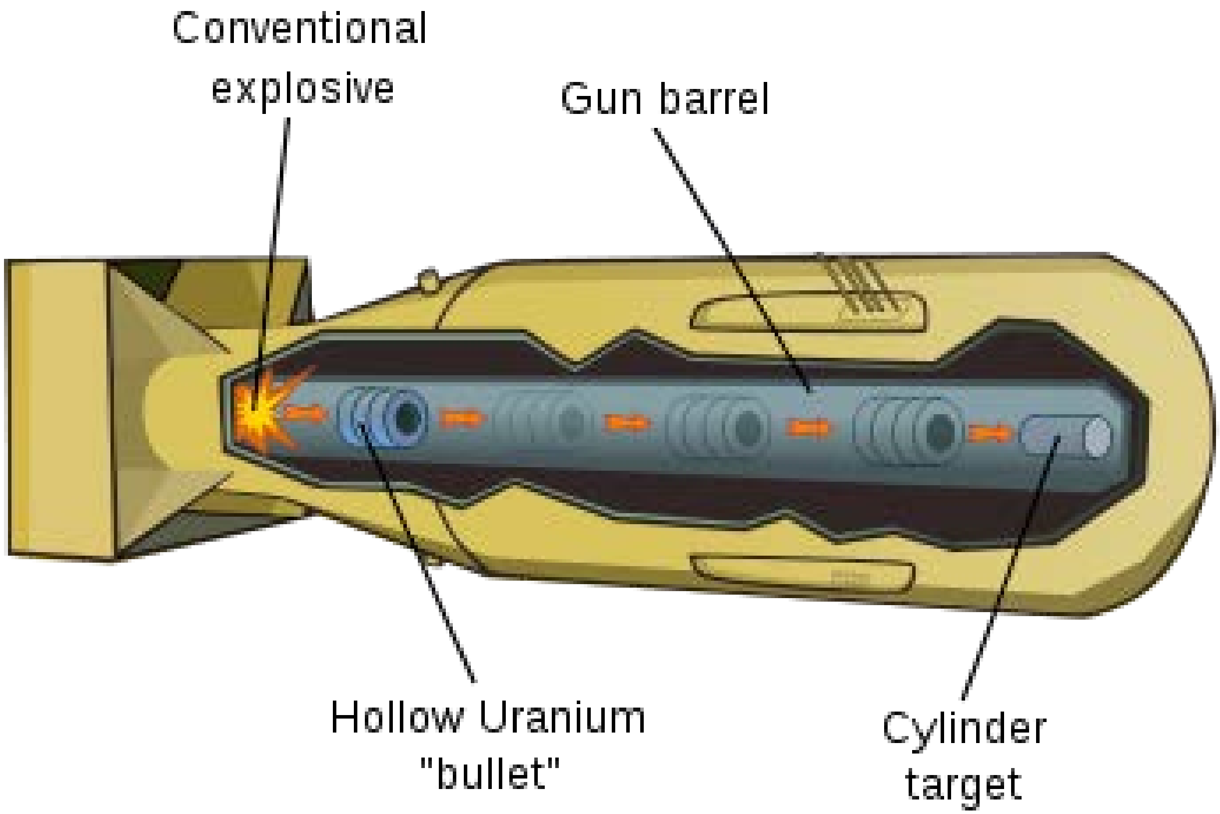
- Theoretical maximum yield-to-weight ratio: 25 kt TNT from 1 lb. of fusion material (~ 3 times as much per lb. as fission weapons)
- There is no fundamental limit to the size of a thermonuclear weapon

Fission Weapons – Gun Type

Little Boy



Fission Weapons – Gun Type

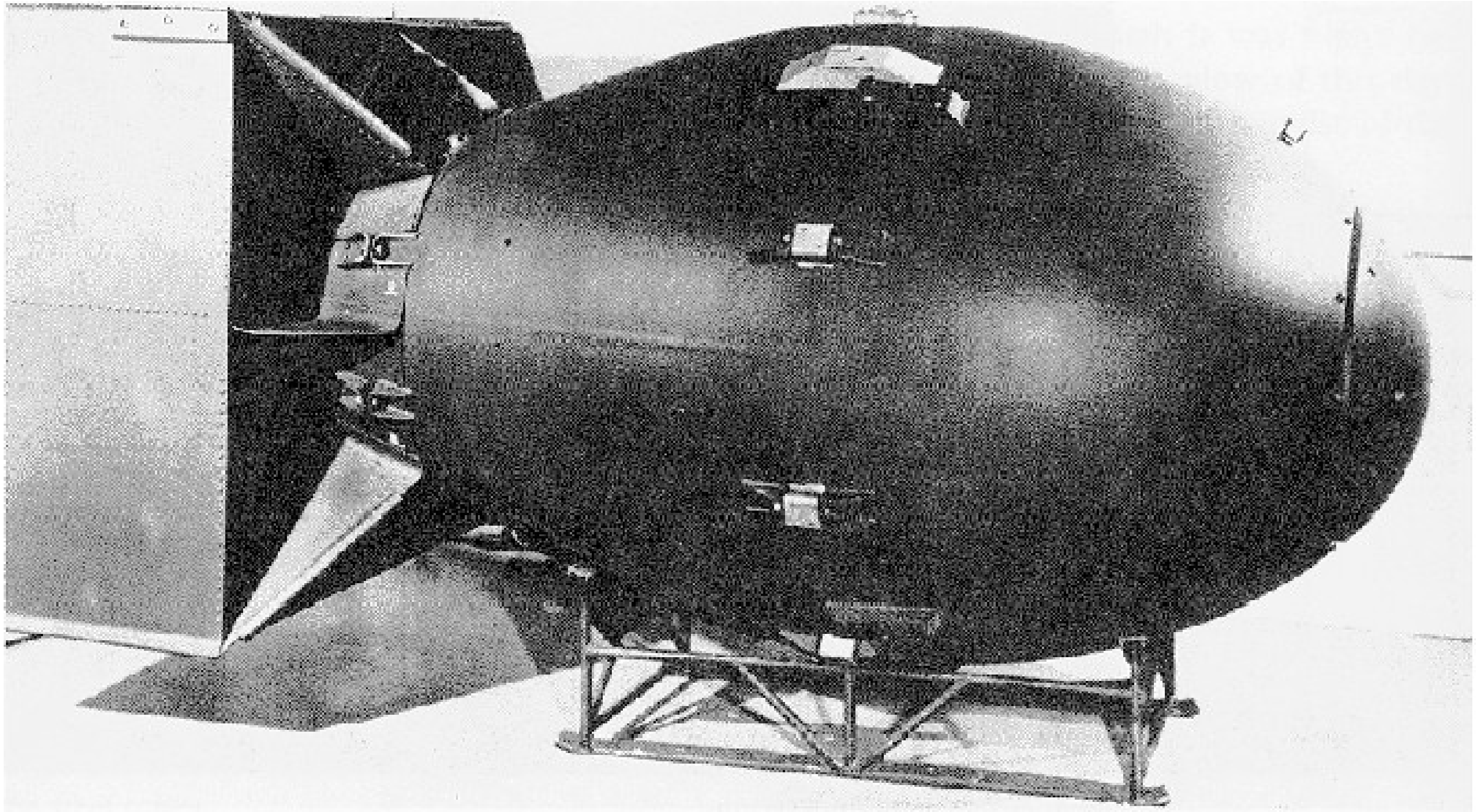


Works only with HEU

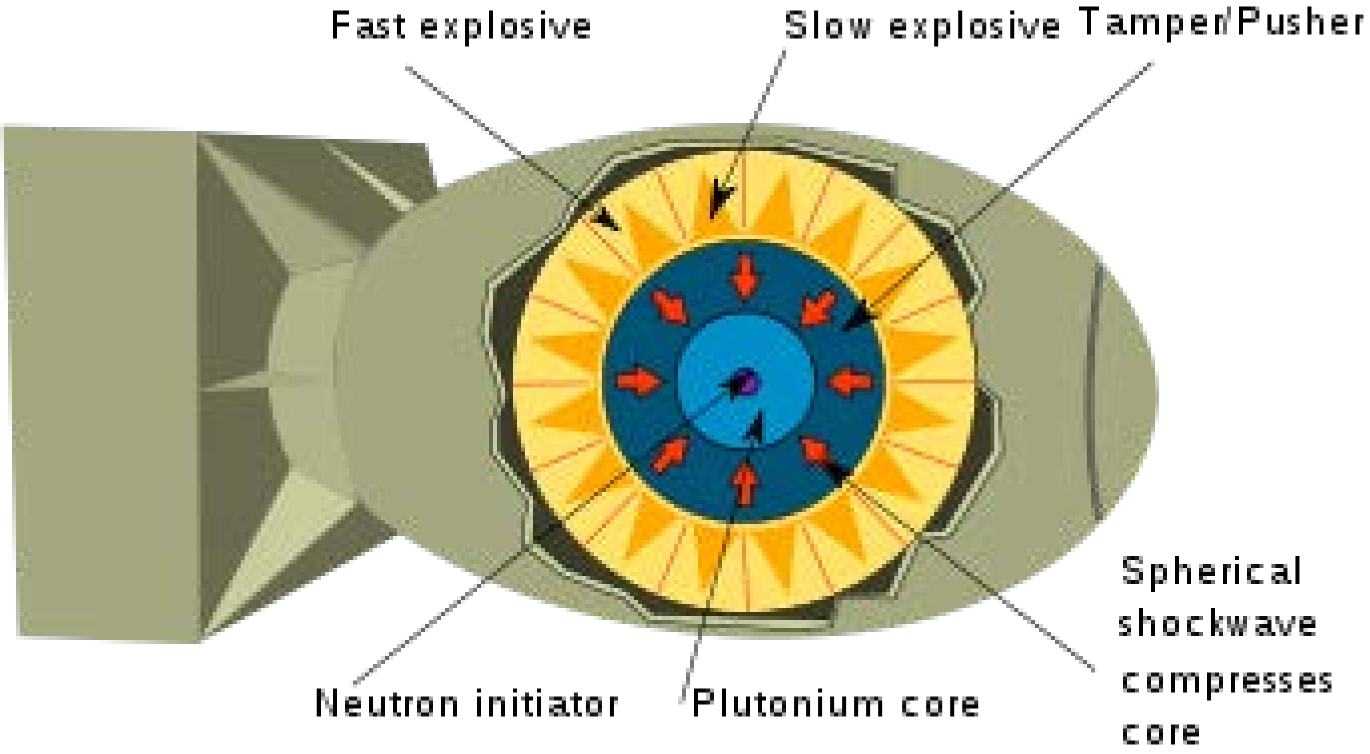
(relevant today mostly for non-state groups)

Fission Weapons – Implosion Type

Fat Man

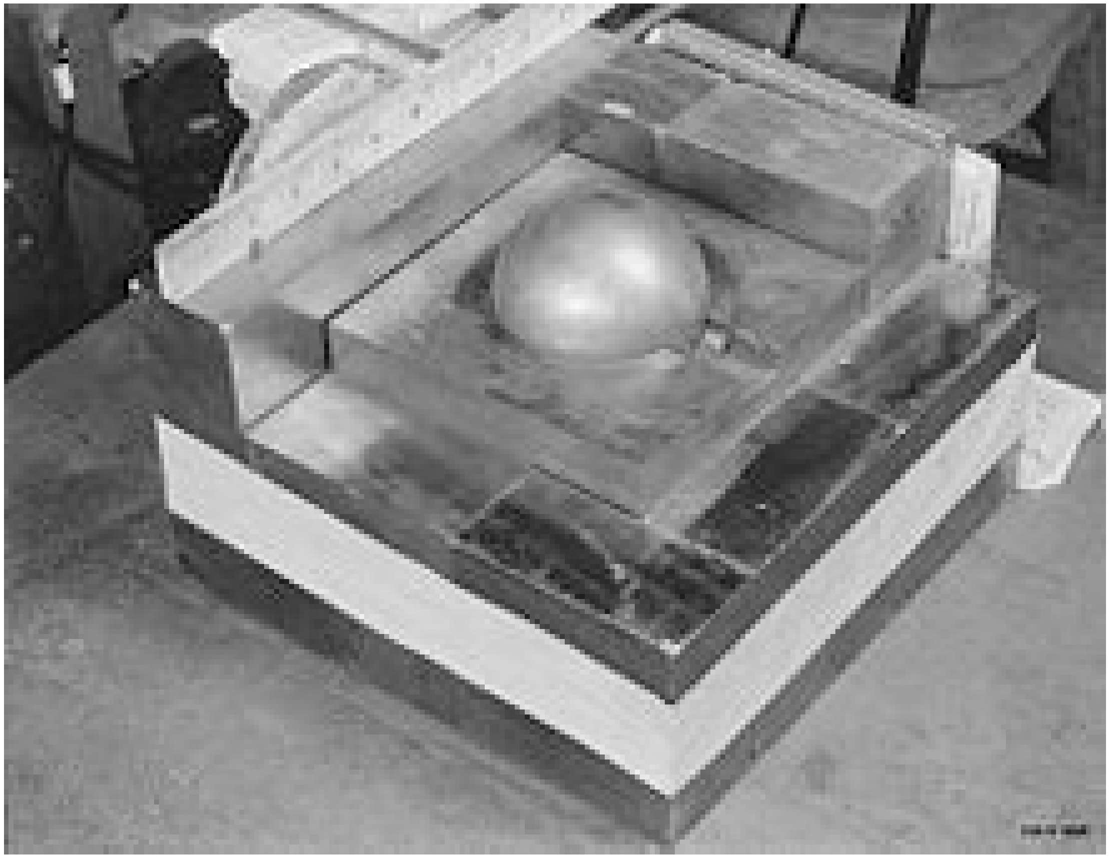


Fission Weapons – Implosion Type



Fission Weapons – Implosion Type

Plutonium Sphere (“Pit”)



Initiating a Fission Explosion – 1

- Quickly assemble a *prompt supercritical configuration* of nuclear-explosive material and, at the instant of maximum compression (maximum density)…
- Introduce *millions* of neutrons to initiate millions of chain reactions
- Chain reactions will continue until the increasingly hot nuclear-explosive material expands sufficiently to become *subcritical*

Initiating a Fission Explosion – 2

Timing is everything —

- If initiation occurs too early (*before* the moment of maximum supercriticality), the yield will be low (a “fizzle”)
- If initiation occurs too late (*after* the moment of maximum supercriticality), the configuration will have re-expanded and the yield will be less than the maximum yield
- Even if the initiator fails, there are always stray neutrons around that will trigger a chain reaction and produce an explosion—but the yield will be unpredictable
- In a nuclear war, neutrons from a nearby nuclear explosion may cause pre-initiation in a nuclear weapon—this is referred to as “over-initiation” (weapon designers seek to design weapons that will not suffer from this effect)

Physics/Global Studies 280: Session 7

Plan for This Session

Announcements

- ➔ RE2v2 due Thursday 2-8 at beginning of class
- ➔ peer reviewed papers available at

http://courses.physics.illinois.edu/phys280/secure/assignments/RE2v1-review/

Grading peer review: peer review is worth 10% of RE2v2
maximum grade from RE2v2 without
peer review: 95%, with peer review
105%. 5% will be extra credit!

- ➔ Belfer Center Internships for Student Associates

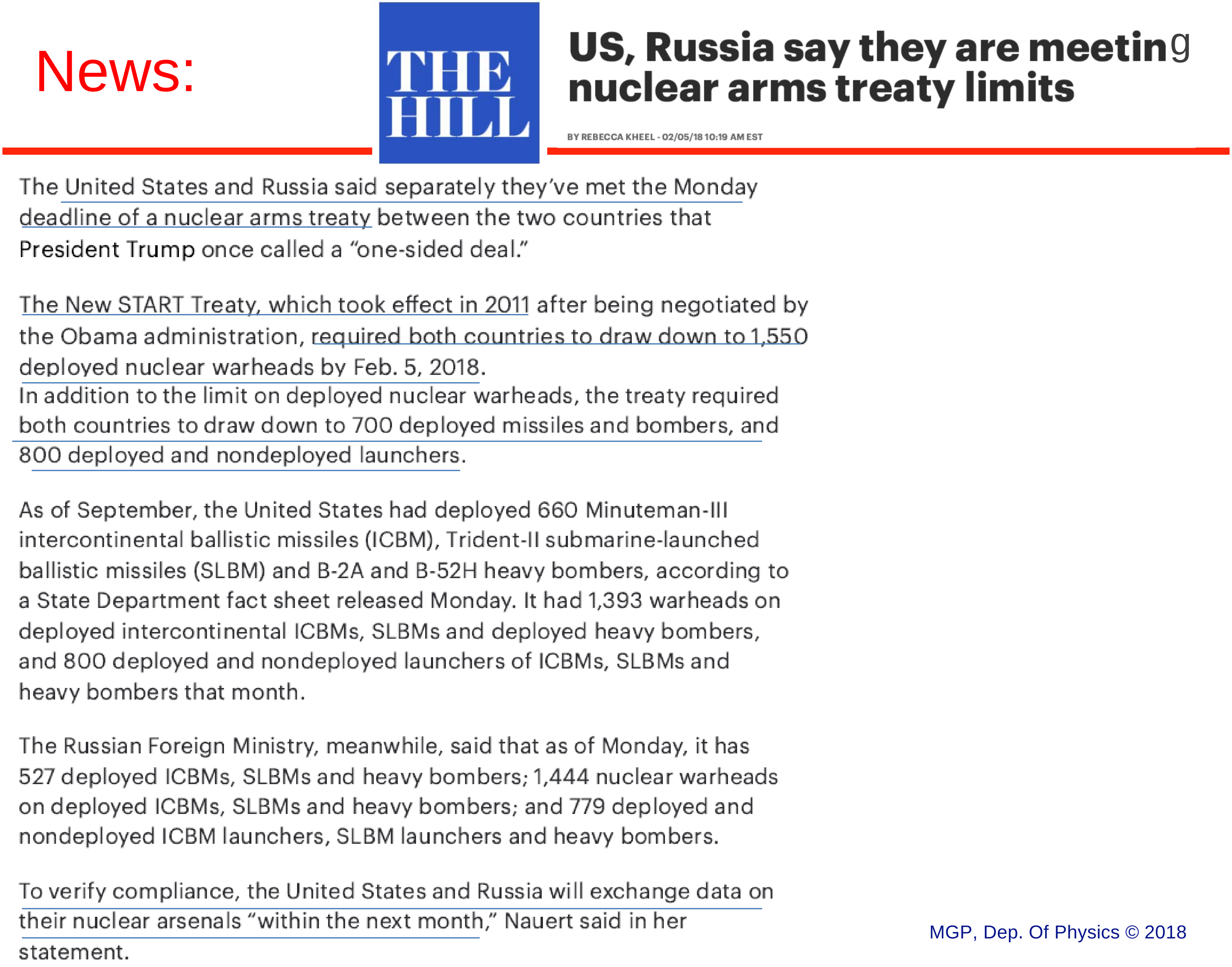
http://acdis.illinois.edu/2018/02/05/seeking-student-associates-for-internship-opportunity/

News

Questions

Module 2: Nuclear weapons (conclusion)

News:



THE HILL

US, Russia say they are meeting nuclear arms treaty limits

BY REBECCA KHEEL - 02/05/18 10:19 AM EST

The United States and Russia said separately they've met the Monday deadline of a nuclear arms treaty between the two countries that President Trump once called a "one-sided deal."

The New START Treaty, which took effect in 2011 after being negotiated by the Obama administration, required both countries to draw down to 1,550 deployed nuclear warheads by Feb. 5, 2018.

In addition to the limit on deployed nuclear warheads, the treaty required both countries to draw down to 700 deployed missiles and bombers, and 800 deployed and nondeployed launchers.

As of September, the United States had deployed 660 Minuteman-III intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBM), Trident-II submarine-launched ballistic missiles (SLBM) and B-2A and B-52H heavy bombers, according to a State Department fact sheet released Monday. It had 1,393 warheads on deployed intercontinental ICBMs, SLBMs and deployed heavy bombers, and 800 deployed and nondeployed launchers of ICBMs, SLBMs and heavy bombers that month.

The Russian Foreign Ministry, meanwhile, said that as of Monday, it has 527 deployed ICBMs, SLBMs and heavy bombers; 1,444 nuclear warheads on deployed ICBMs, SLBMs and heavy bombers; and 779 deployed and nondeployed ICBM launchers, SLBM launchers and heavy bombers.

To verify compliance, the United States and Russia will exchange data on their nuclear arsenals "within the next month," Nauert said in her statement.

Physics of Nuclear Weapons

Thermonuclear Weapons (“H-Bombs”)

Fusion Nuclear Reactions (Basics)

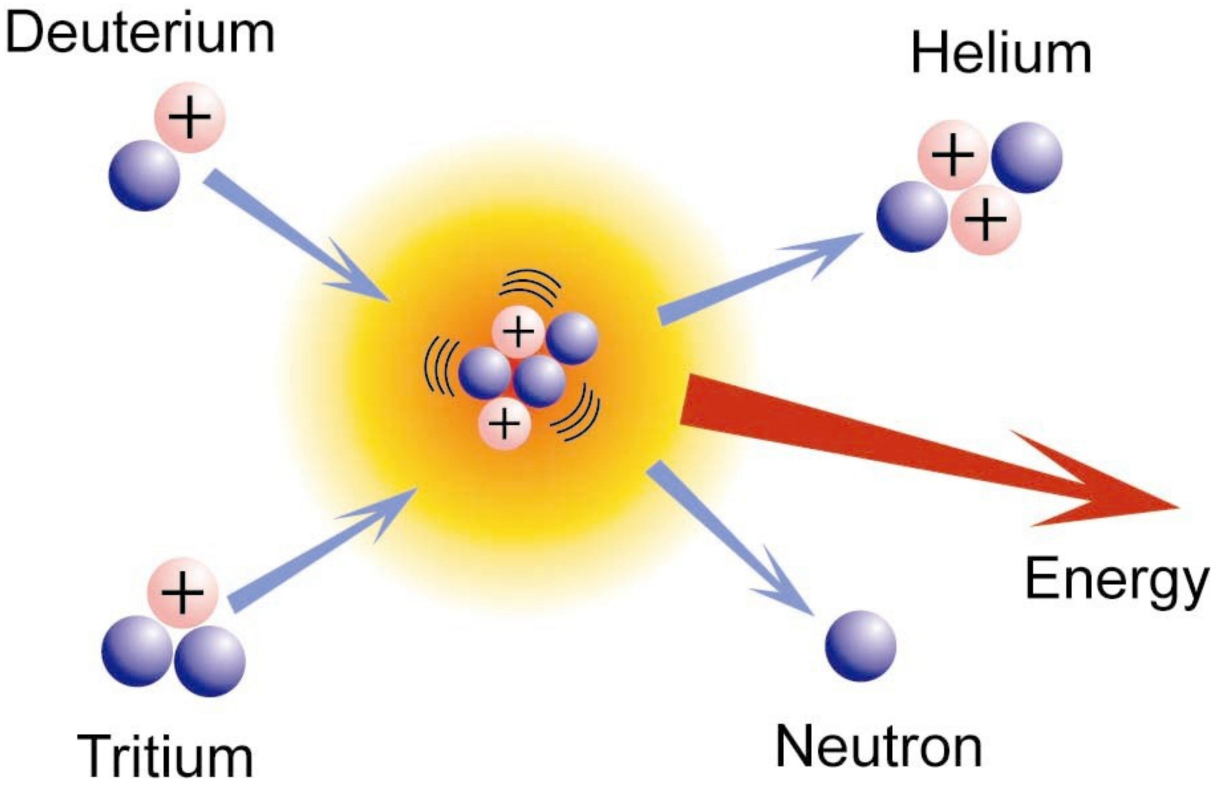
Fusion: a nuclear reaction in which two nuclides combine to form a single nuclide, with emission of energetic particles or electromagnetic radiation —

- gamma rays (EM radiation from the nucleus)
- neutrons
- occasionally other nuclear particles

Particles involved:

- deuteron (D)
- triton (T)
- He-4 (alpha)
- neutron (n)

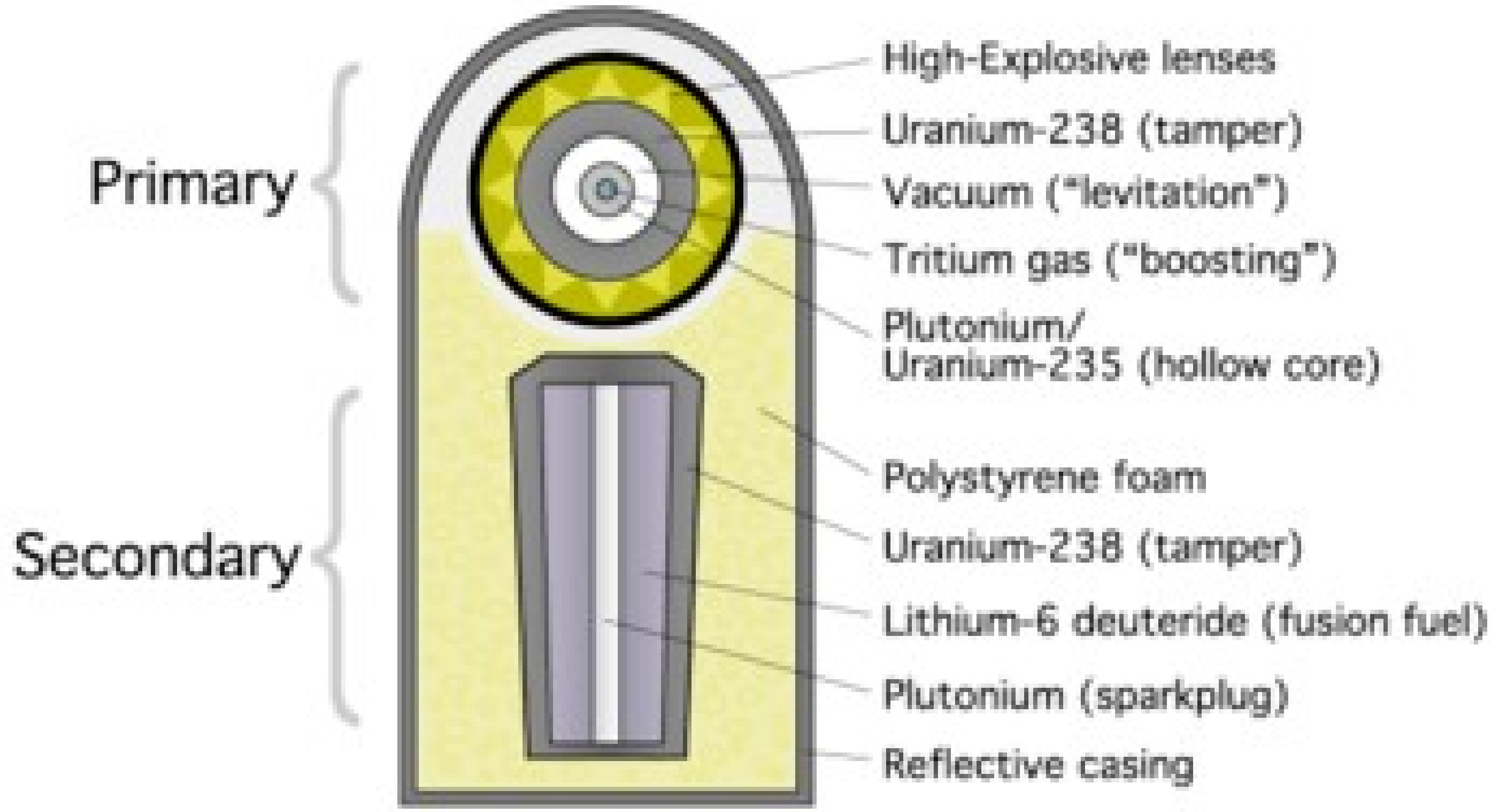
Example Fusion Nuclear Reaction



Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 1

- Theoretical analysis showed that the original design proposed by Edward Teller was unworkable
- Andrei Sakarov proposed a workable “boosted fission” design, the so-called “layer-cake” design (it was not a true thermonuclear weapon but was deliverable by an aircraft)
- Stanislaw Ulam came up with a new idea that Teller improved, the so-called “Ulam-Teller design”
- In this design, X-rays from the primary interact with the secondary, compressing and heating the secondary
- Several designs are possible, but we will assume a simple “P280 design” for essays and exams

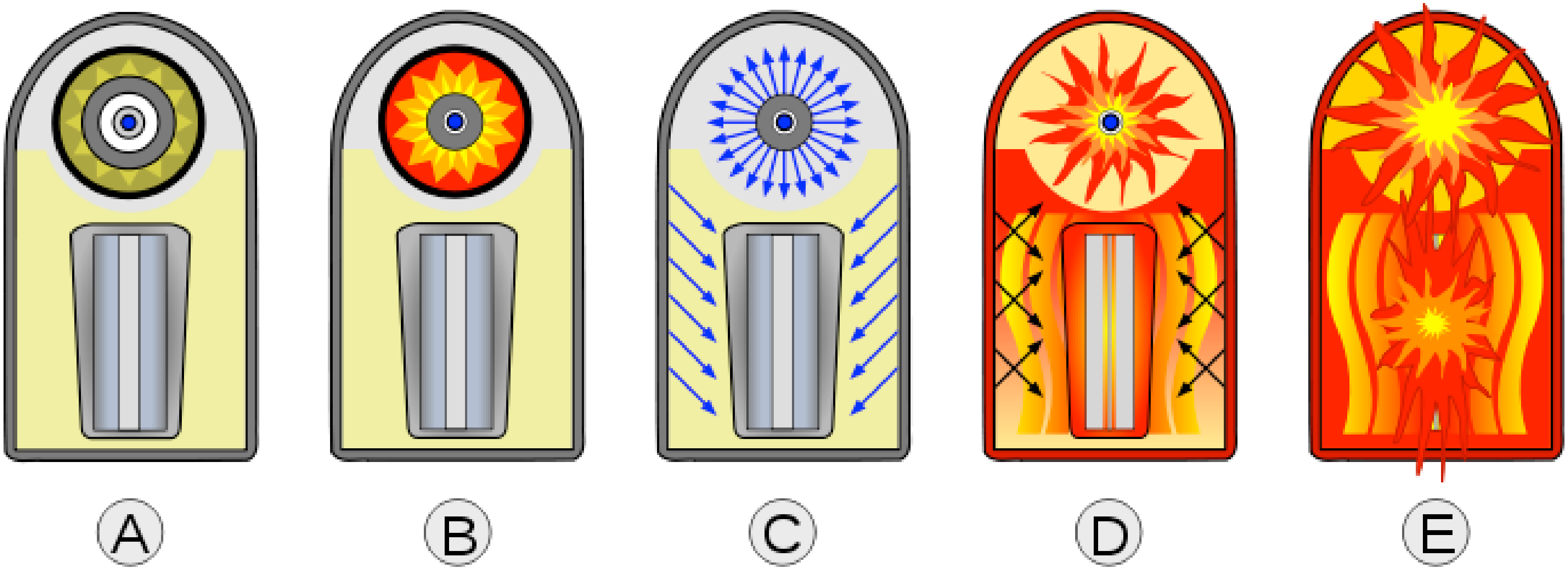
Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 2



From "The Secret that Exploded"
by Howard Morland, Random House, 1981

Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 3

Sequence of events —



From “The Secret that Exploded”
by Howard Morland, Random House, 1981

Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 4

- Modern thermonuclear weapons have two stages:
  - the primary (mostly fission)
  - the secondary (fusion+fission)

  Fissions during the second stage are produced by high-energy neutrons from the fusion reactions and greatly increase the yield ("fission-boosted fusion")

- The secondaries of deliverable bombs use ^{6}Li-D to make T+D

- Burning grows quickly, but not geometrically (exponentially): the fusion burn is not a chain reaction

Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 5

- X-rays from the ‘primary’ compress and heat the ‘secondary’, causing thermonuclear fusion of T + D
  - Radiation pressure is not important
  - Ablation (blow off) of surface material is the dominant heating and compressive effect
- There in no fundamental limit to the yield that is possible from a fusion secondary
  - The Soviets conducted an atmospheric test with a yield of 50 Mt – (Tsar test, October 30th 1960)
  - The U.S. concluded that this particular design was capable of releasing 100 Mt

Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 6

- Making a 50 Mt device makes no military/economic sense. Historic example served propaganda purposes.
- U.S. developed and fielded H-bombs with yields up to 9 Mt
- As ballistic missile accuracies improved, the maximum yield of deployed US weapons dropped to 1 Mt or less, allowing an increase in the area of death and destruction (explained later)
- All the States that developed fission bombs and sought to develop true thermonuclear bombs succeeded in doing so

Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapons – 7

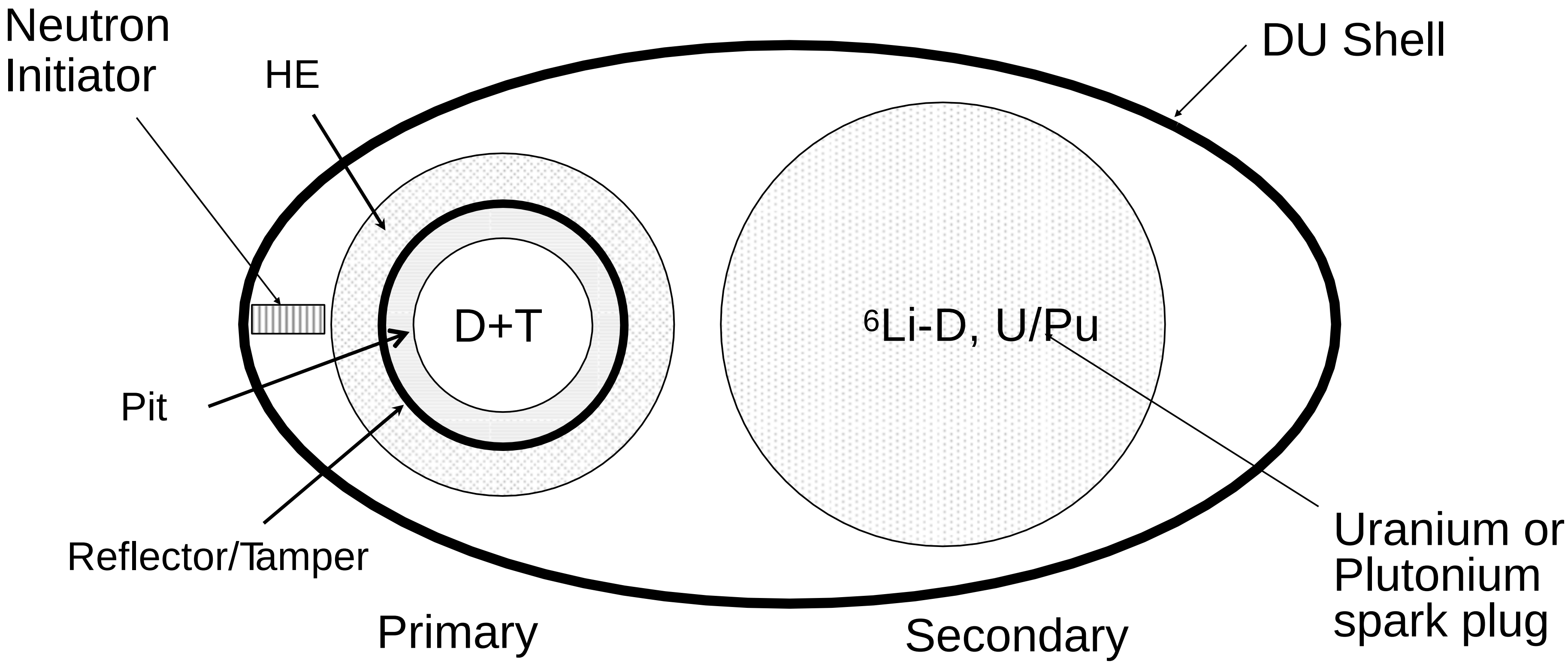
HEU, DU, natural U, or Pu are used to increase the yield —

- During the thermonuclear burn, vast numbers of energetic neutrons are present in the secondary
- These neutrons will fission HEU, DU, or natural U (or Pu) in the fusion packet or the bomb case
- These fissions release additional energy, increasing the yield
- They also make the bomb much “dirtier”, i.e., it will produce much more radioactive fallout

Balance of Energy Release from Two-Stage Nuclear Weapons - 8

- There is fission and a small amount of fusion in a (boosted) primary
- There is lots of fusion and fission in the secondary (which is understood to include the DU shell)
- The yield Y_p of the primary may be 10 kiloton (kt)
- The yield Y_s of the secondary can range from a few100 kt to a few Mt
- Overall, approximately
  - 50% of the energy released comes from fission
  - 50% of the energy released comes from fusion

Two-Stage Nuclear Weapon (“P280 Design”) Important



Y_P = primary yield, Y_S = secondary yield, $Y = Y_P + Y_S$ = total yield

Components of a Two-Stage (Thermonuclear) Weapon and Their Functions - Important

Fission trigger —

- HE lenses + tamper + fissile core

Fusion fuel packet —

- X-rays heat and implode the fusion packet
- At high enough temp. and density the fusion packet burns
- Contributes ~ 50% of the yield of a high-yield weapon
- The fusion reaction produces many fast neutrons (~ 10–20 times as many as fission reactions)

Uranium components —

- Inside and surrounding the fusion fuel
- Fissions when irradiated by fast neutrons
- Contributes ~ 50% of the yield of a high-yield weapon
- Numerous fission products makes such weapons “dirty”

Lecture Question

How is ^{6}LiD used as fusion fuel in a two stage thermo nuclear weapon?

A) **Under pressure and heat the Li nucleus fuses with the nucleus of the Deuterium, a Deuteron**

B) **^{6}Li captures a neutron and splits into a Triton and a He nucleus. The Triton is the Tritium nucleus and fuses with a Deuteron.**

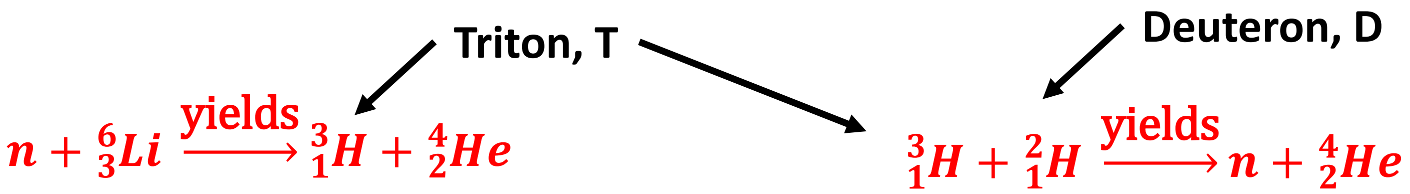
C) **Under pressure and heat the Deuteron captures a neutron forming a Triton. The Triton fuses with a Deuteron.**

Lecture Question Answer

How is ^{6}LiD used as fusion fuel in a two stage thermo nuclear weapon?

- **A) Under pressure and heat the Li nucleus fuses with the nucleus of the Deuterium, a Deuteron**
- **B) ^{6}Li captures a neutron and splits into a Triton and a He nucleus. The Triton is the Tritium nucleus and fuses with a Deuteron.**
- **C) Under pressure and heat the Deuteron captures a neutron forming a Triton. The Triton fuses with a Deuteron.**

^{6}LiD



Triton, T

Deuteron, D

$$n + {}^{6}_{3}Li \xrightarrow{\text{yields}} {}^{3}_{1}H + {}^{4}_{2}He$$

$$ {}^{3}_{1}H + {}^{2}_{1}H \xrightarrow{\text{yields}} n + {}^{4}_{2}He$$

(I) preparation of fusion fuel

(II) fusion reaction

Another Example for Important Reactions with Light Nuclides : Initiators

Example of a simple initiator —

- Mixture of Polonium (Po) and Lithium (Li)
  - —Polonium has several radioactive isotopes

    Po-218 → Pb-214 + α
    Po-216 → Pb-212 + α
    Po-210 → Pb-206 + α
  - —High probability nuclear reaction

    α + Li-7 → B-10 + n
- Essential to keep Po and Li separate until desired time of initiation

  Aluminum foil is perfect

  Pure Li-7 is not required

  Be-9 can be used instead of Li-7

Technologies Needed for “Weaponizing” a Nuclear Device

Technologies needed to make a nuclear *weapon* —

- Technology to produce nuclear-explosive material (NEM)

- Casing and electronics technology
- Detonator technology
- High-explosive (HE) technology
- Initiator technology
- Nuclear assembly technology

- Secure transport, storage, and control
- A delivery system

Additional Materials and Knowledge Needed to Make a Two-Stage Nuclear Weapon

- The basic materials required for the ‘secondary’ (Li-6 and D) are widely available
- The geometry of the ‘secondary’ is not critical
- Compression and ignition of the ‘secondary’ is described by *radiation-hydrodynamics* —
  - Electromagnetic radiation moves at the speed of light
  - A uniform distribution of radiant energy is quickly achieved
  - All the matter behaves as a fluid at the high temperatures and pressures involved and hence is described by hydrodynamics
  - Large, fast computers are required to simulate the explosion accurately

B-61 Bomb

Making a Nuclear Warhead That Can Be Delivered By a Missile – 1

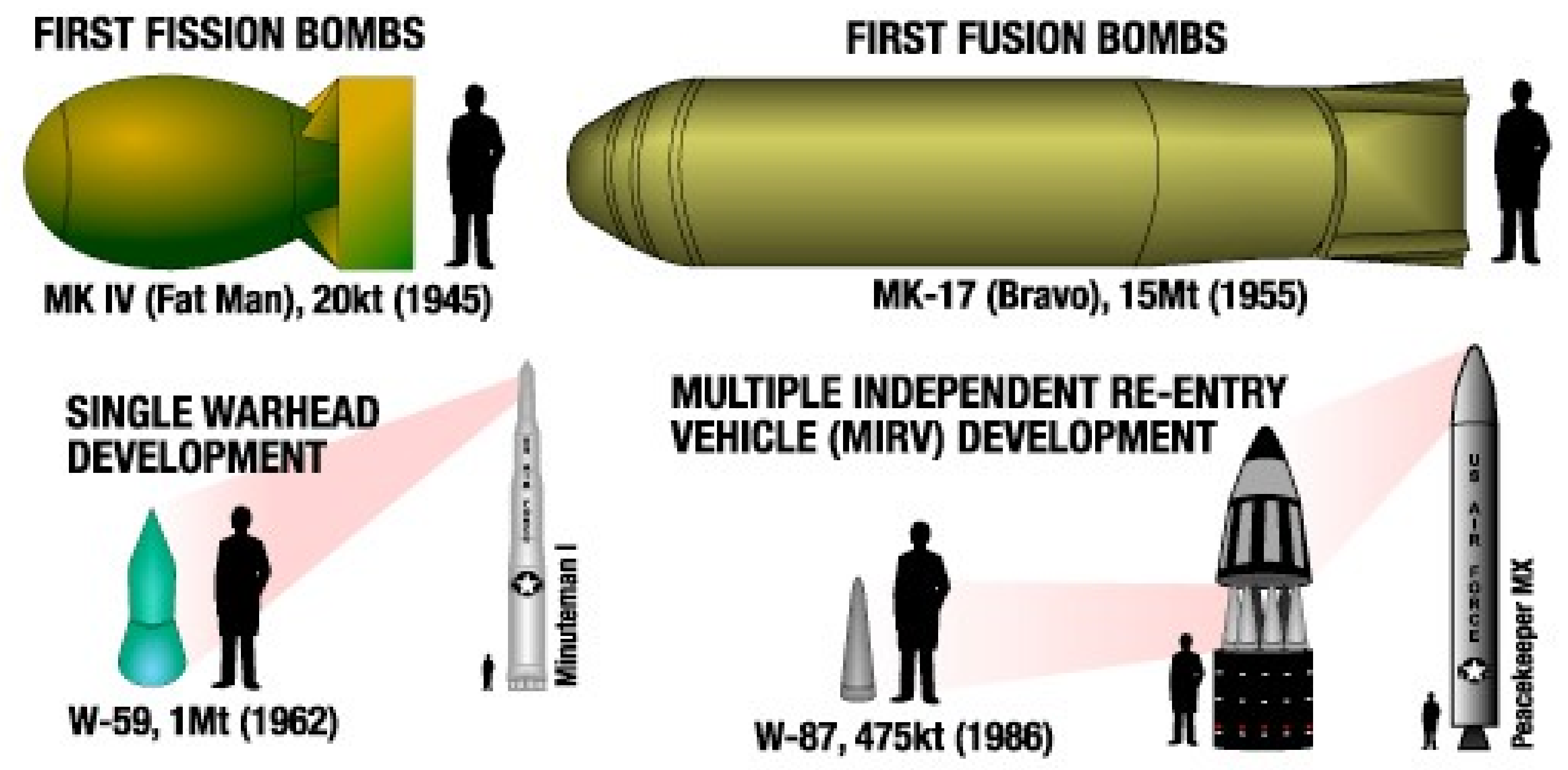
Physics and Engineering Requirements

The physics package, fusing, and re-entry shroud must be —

- Small enough to fit inside the missile’s diameter
- Light enough for the missile to be able to deliver it
- Able to survive the intense vibrations at lift-off
- Able to survive through maximum dynamic stress
- Able to survive accelerations and vibration during staging
- Able to survive buffeting, deceleration, and very high temperatures as the warhead re-enters the atmosphere at hypersonic speeds

Making a Nuclear Warhead That Can Be Delivered By a Missile – 2

Miniaturizing Massive Death and Destruction



Lecture Question

Which Statement is correct for most modern two stage weapons (prior to detonation)?

- **A) Deuterium and Tritium are present as fusion fuel both in the primary and secondary stage**
- **B) LiD is present as fusion fuel in both stages**
- **C) There is only fission in the primary stage and LiD is present as fusion fuel in the secondary stage**
- **D) There is only fission in the primary stage and Deuterium and Tritium are present as fusion fuel in the secondary stage**
- **E) Deuterium and Tritium are present as fusion fuel in the primary stage and LiD in the secondary stage**

Lecture Question Answer

Which Statement is correct for most modern two stage weapons (prior to detonation)?

- A) Deuterium and Tritium are present as fusion fuel both in the primary and secondary stage
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Lecture Question

What is the biggest technology challenge in making nuclear weapons?

A) **Critical assembly and related technologies (eg. high speed explosives)**
B) **Ballistic missile technology**
C) **Production of NEM**
D) **Super computer technology for simulations of nuclear explosions and ballistic missile flight**
E) **Production of fusion fuel**

Lecture Question Answer

What is the biggest technology challenge in making nuclear weapons?

- **A) Critical assembly and related technologies (eg. high speed explosives)**
- **B) Ballistic missile technology**
- **C) Production of NEM**
- **D) Super computer technology for simulations of nuclear explosions and ballistic missile flight**
- **E) Production of fusion fuel**

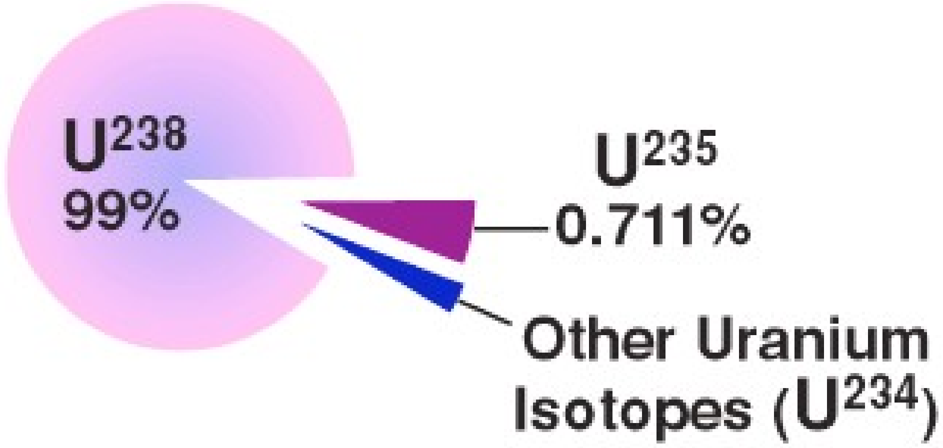
Production of Nuclear Explosive Material

Enrichment of U-235

Creation and ***Separation*** of Pu-239

Enrichment of Uranium Is Required to Make a Nuclear Bomb

- Natural uranium is
  - 99.3% U-238 (which is fissionable but not fissile)
  - 0.7% U-235 (which is fissile)



Enrichment of Uranium Is Required to Make a Nuclear Bomb

- Natural uranium must be *enriched* in U-235 to make a nuclear explosion (but not for use in some nuclear reactors).
- A nuclear explosion can be produced by uranium enriched to 20% or more U-235. Such uranium is called “weapons-usable”.
- Uranium enriched to more than 80% U-235 is called “weapons-grade”.
- Uranium enriched to more than 90% U-235 is preferred for nuclear weapons.

Enriching Uranium – Overview

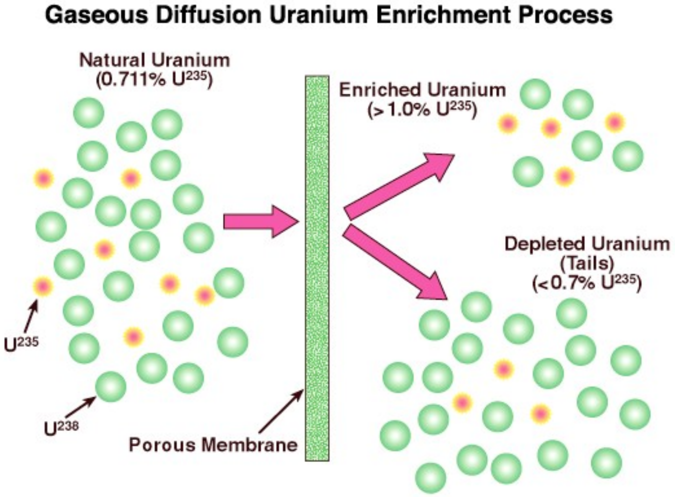
There are 4 main uranium enrichment techniques:

- Gaseous diffusion isotope separation
- Electromagnetic isotope separation
- Gas centrifuge isotope separation (currently preferred)
- Molecular laser isotope separation (now being perfected, a serious proliferation threat)

All four depend in one way or another on the different masses of U-238 and U-235.

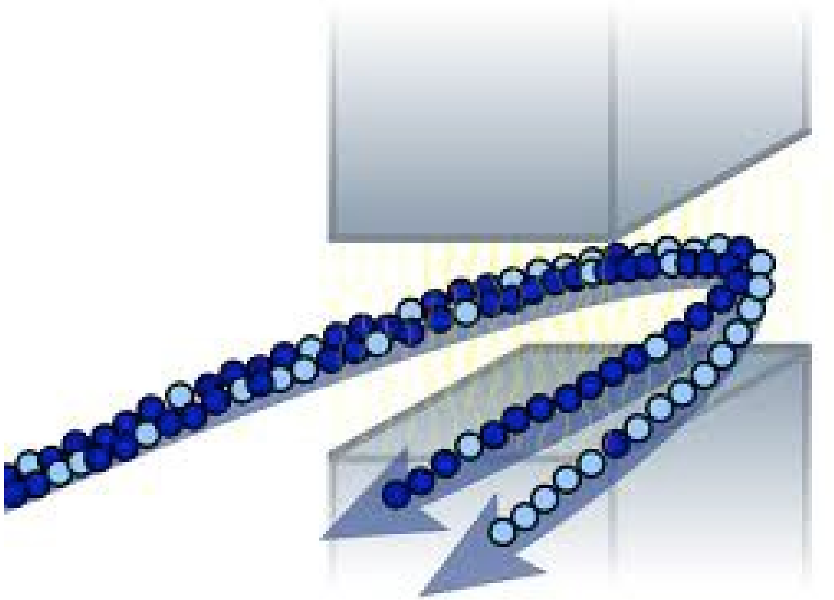
Enriching Uranium – Details 1

- Gaseous diffusion isotope separation
  - —Developed at Oak Ridge National Laboratory, TN during WW II Manhattan Project
  - —Uses high pressures to drive diffusion of uranium hexaflouride (UF_6) gas through semi-permeable membranes
  - —Thousands of stages are required: the enrichment factor in a single stage is typically ~1.004



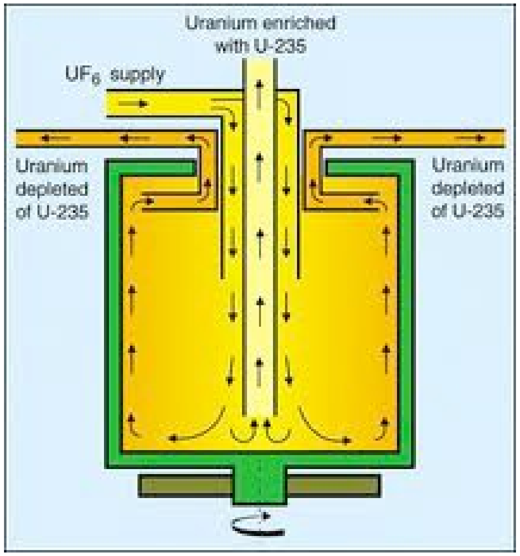
Enriching Uranium – Details 2

- Electromagnetic isotope separation
  - —Calutrons (California cyclotrons)
  - — Manhattan Project
  - —Basically a high-throughput mass spectrometer that sorts atoms by their charge to mass ratios (q/m); 2–3 stages are adequate



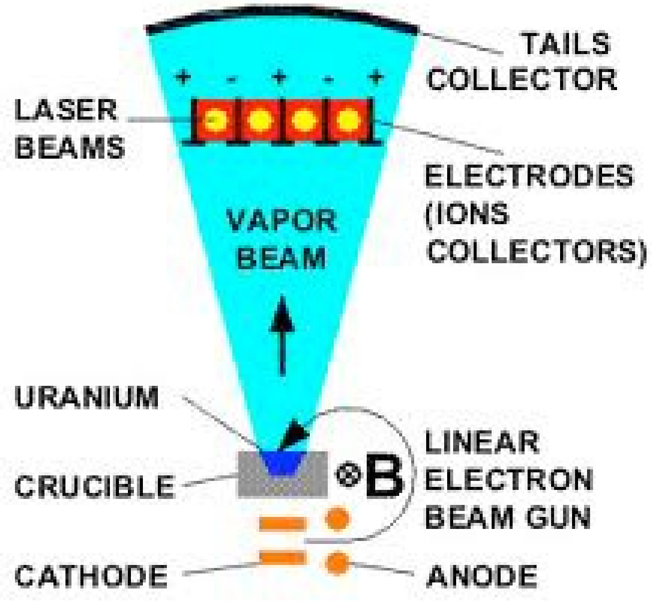
Enriching Uranium – Details 3

- Gas centrifuge isotope separation
  - — Massive version of centrifuges used in science and medicine
  - — Feed stock is uranium hexaflouride (UF_6) gas
  - — Compact, easy to hide, and energy efficient; 40-90 stages
  - — Requires high strength materials (Al, Fe)
  - — Has become bomb proliferators’ technology of choice



Enriching Uranium – Details 4

- Molecular laser isotope separation
  - — High-tech and compact (only 1 to 3 stages required)
  - — Based on (very small) differences of molecular energy levels of UF_6 for U-238 vs. U-235
  - — End of Cold War and nuclear reactor industry initially killed the market for this technology but it is now being revived
  - — Even more of a proliferation danger than gas centrifuges



Plutonium Is Created in Nuclear Reactors

The fissile nuclide Pu-239 can be created by bombarding U-238 with neutrons in a nuclear reactor —

- U-238 + n → Pu-239 (via a two-step process)

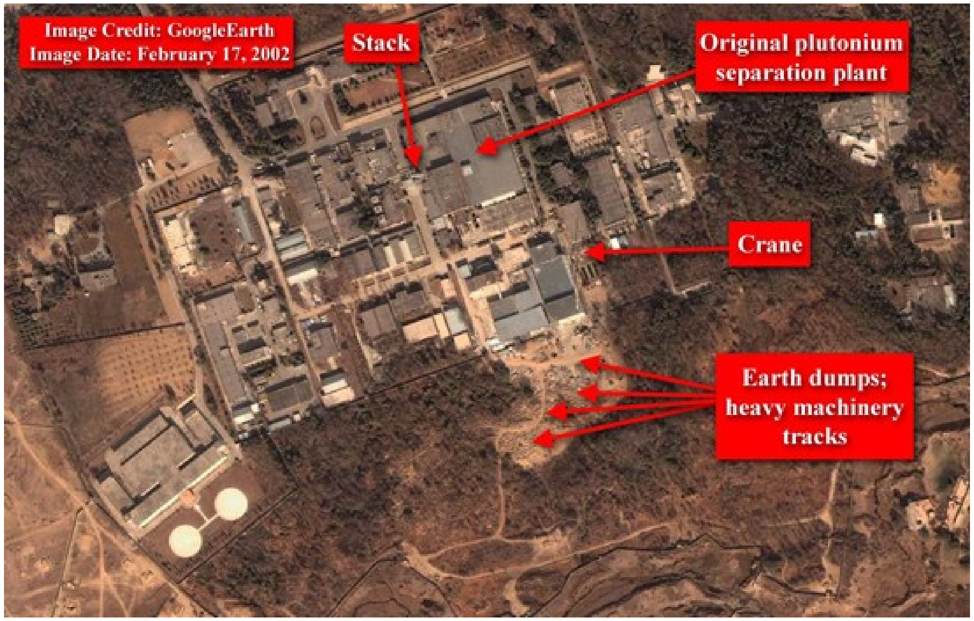
  (non-fissile) (fissile)


N Reactor, Hanford, WA


Reactor, Yongbyon, NK

Plutonium Must Then Be Chemically Separated from Uranium and Other Elements

224-B Plutonium Separation Plant, Hanford, WA, 1985



Plutonium Separation Plant Rawalpindi, Pakistan, Feb 2002

Plutonium is extracted from the uranium fuel rods by first dissolving the rods to form a slurry and then extracting the trace amounts of plutonium in the slurry by chemically processing the slurry.

Producing a Nuclear Explosion Using Plutonium – 1

- **Virtually any combination of plutonium isotopes can be used to make a nuclear weapon.**
- Not all combinations, however, are equally convenient or efficient.
- Pu-239 is produced when the most common isotope of uranium, U-238, absorbs a neutron and then quickly decays to plutonium.
- Pu-239 is the most useful isotope for making nuclear bombs. It is produced in varying quantities in virtually all operating nuclear reactors.

Producing a Nuclear Explosion Using Plutonium – 2

- As fuel in a nuclear reactor is exposed to longer and longer periods of neutron irradiation, heavier isotopes of plutonium build up, as some of the plutonium absorbs additional neutrons, creating Pu-240, Pu-241, and so on.

- Pu-238 also builds up from a chain of neutron absorptions and radioactive decays starting from U-235.

- Plutonium with substantial quantities of Pu-238, Pu-240, Pu-241, Pu-242 is called “high burn-up” or “reactor-grade” plutonium.

- High burn-up plutonium can approach ~ 40% Pu-239, ~ 30% Pu-240, ~ 15% Pu-241, and ~ 15% Pu-242.

Producing a Nuclear Explosion Using Plutonium – 3

Producing a nuclear explosion is much easier if the plutonium is “weapon-grade” (defined as more than 93% Pu-239).

Producing a nuclear explosion is more difficult using reactor-grade plutonium —

- It is impractical to separate Pu-239 from Pu-240 (it has never been done on a large scale)
- Pu-240 and heavier Pu isotopes are highly radioactive (“hot”) and hence difficult to handle
- This radioactivity is likely to cause pre-initiation, producing a “fizzle” rather than a full-yield explosion

Even so, a bomb *can* be made using reactor-grade Pu. The U.S. tested such a bomb in 1962 to demonstrate this.

Producing a Nuclear Explosion Using Plutonium – 4

- Because of the preference for relatively pure Pu-239 for making bombs, **when a reactor is used specifically for creating weapons plutonium, the fuel rods are removed and the plutonium is separated from them after a relatively brief period of irradiation**. The resulting “low burn-up” plutonium has a higher concentration of Pu-239.

- However, brief irradiation is very inefficient for power production. Hence, **in power reactors the fuel is left in the reactor much longer, producing “high burn-up” ("reactor grade") plutonium, which is less suitable for bombs**.

A Nuclear Explosion Can Be Produced Using Reactor-Grade Plutonium – 1

Use of reactor-grade plutonium complicates bomb design for several reasons. One of the most important is that Pu-240 has a high rate of spontaneous fission and therefore will continually produce many background neutrons.

- In a well-designed nuclear explosive using weapons-grade plutonium, a pulse of neutrons is released to start the chain reaction at the optimal moment, but there is some chance that a background neutron from spontaneous fission of Pu-240 will set off the reaction prematurely. This is called "pre-initiation”.
- With reactor-grade plutonium, the probability of pre-initiation is very large. Pre-initiation can substantially reduce the explosive yield, since the weapon may blow itself apart earlier, cutting short the chain reaction that releases energy.

A Nuclear Explosion Can Be Produced Using Reactor-Grade Plutonium – 2

- However, calculations demonstrate that ***even if pre-initiation occurs at the worst possible moment*** (when the material first becomes compressed enough to sustain a chain reaction), ***the explosive yield of even a relatively simple device similar to the Nagasaki bomb would likely be about 1—3 kilotons*.**
- While this yield is referred to as the "fizzle yield", a 1-kiloton bomb would still have a radius of destruction roughly one-third that of the Hiroshima weapon, making it a horrendous weapon.
- Regardless of how high the concentration of troublesome isotopes is, the yield would not be less than this. With a more sophisticated design, weapons could be built with reactor-grade plutonium that would be assured of having higher yields.

A Nuclear Explosion Can Be Produced Using Reactor-Grade Plutonium – 3

In short, *it would be quite possible for a potential proliferator to make a nuclear explosive from reactor-grade plutonium using a simple design that would be assured of having a yield in the range of one to a few kilotons, or more if a more advanced design were used*.

Hence theft of separated plutonium, whether weapons-grade or reactor-grade, poses a grave security risk.

Categories of Nuclear Explosive Materials (Very Important)

- Uranium —
  - –LEU: < 20% U-235
  - –Weapons-usable HEU: > 20% U-235
  - –Weapons-grade HEU: > 80% U-235

- Plutonium —
  - –Reactor-grade: < 80% Pu-239 (e.g., light-water)
  - –Fuel-grade: 80% to 93% Pu-239
  - –Weapons-grade: > 93% Pu-239

Nuclear Weapon Design

- Is a solved problem (technology is mature)
- No significant design changes for ~ 25 years
- Little more can be learned from additional testing
- Purposes of testing —
  - Proof of design (“proof testing”)
  - System optimization
  - Weapon effects tests

    [Testing is not useful for establishing reliability]
- Weapons can be tested using non-nuclear tests
- Uncertainties are introduced by “improvements” and replacement of old parts with new parts