

called the **multiplication factor**, f . For a self-sustaining chain reaction, we must have $f \geq 1$. If $f < 1$, the reactor is “subcritical.” If $f > 1$, it is “supercritical” (and could become dangerously explosive). Reactors are equipped with movable **control rods** (good neutron absorbers like cadmium or boron), whose function is to absorb neutrons and maintain the reactor at just[†] barely “critical,” $f = 1$.

Nuclear reactors have been built for use in research and to produce electric power. Fission produces many neutrons and a “research reactor” is basically an intense source of neutrons. These neutrons can be used as projectiles in nuclear reactions to produce nuclides not found in nature, including isotopes used as tracers and for therapy. A “power reactor” is used to produce electric power. The energy released in the fission process appears as heat, which is used to boil water and produce steam to drive a turbine connected to an electric generator (Fig. 31–7). The **core** of a nuclear reactor consists of the fuel and a moderator (water in most U.S. commercial reactors). The fuel is usually uranium enriched so that it contains 2 to 4 percent $^{235}_{92}\text{U}$. Water at high pressure or other liquid (such as liquid sodium) is allowed to flow through the core. The thermal energy it absorbs is used to produce steam in the heat exchanger, so the fissionable fuel acts as the heat input for a heat engine (Chapter 15).

Critical reaction

Types of nuclear reactor

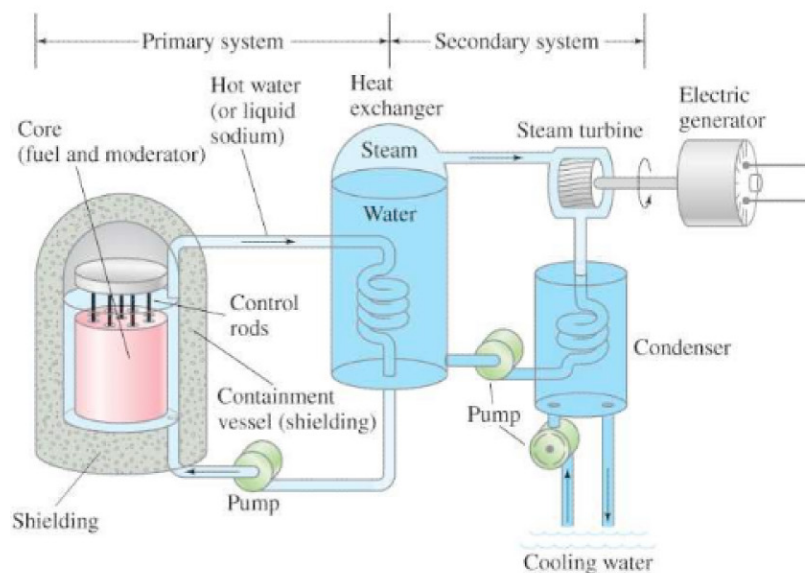


FIGURE 31–7 A nuclear reactor. The heat generated by the fission process in the fuel rods is carried off by hot water or liquid sodium and is used to boil water to steam in the heat exchanger. The steam drives a turbine to generate electricity and is then cooled in the condenser.

There are problems associated with nuclear power plants. Besides the usual thermal pollution associated with any heat engine (Section 15–12), there is the serious problem of disposal of the radioactive fission fragments produced in the reactor, plus radioactive nuclides produced by neutrons interacting with the structural parts of the reactor. Fission fragments, like their uranium or plutonium parents, have about 50% more neutrons than protons. Nuclei with atomic number in the typical range for fission fragments ($Z \approx 30$ to 60) are stable only if they have more nearly equal numbers of protons and neutrons (see Fig. 30–2). Hence the highly neutron-rich fission fragments are very unstable and decay radioactively. The accidental release of highly radioactive fission fragments into the atmosphere poses a serious threat to human health (Section 31–4), as does possible leakage of the radioactive wastes when they are disposed of.

[†]The release of neutrons and subsequent fissions occur so quickly that manipulation of the control rods to maintain $f = 1$ would not be possible if it weren't for the small percentage ($\approx 1\%$) of so-called **delayed neutrons**. They come from the decay of neutron-rich fission fragments (or their daughters) having lifetimes on the order of seconds—sufficient to allow enough reaction time to operate the control rods and maintain $f = 1$.

Delayed neutrons