

## Laboratory Exercise A

(Wednesday 14-19)

### Interaction between Radiation and Matter

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KJM 5900 Autumn 2004

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## Overview Laboratory Exercise A

### Title: Introduction to radioactivity

#### Learning goals:

- To understand the relationship between amount of radioactive material and desintegrasjon rate.
- To understand the relationship between count rate and desintegrasjon rate.
- To understand the uncertainty in measured number of counts and be able to calculate the uncertainty in numbers derived from such numbers.
- Be able to use a radioactivity detector.
- To know and understand the basic principles for work with open radioactive sources.
- Be able to conduct contamination checks.

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## Basic Principle of Detection

• Almost all radioactivity detectors are based on detection of the ionisations and/or excitations caused either directly or indirectly.

• This principle can easily be illustrated with an electroscop:

- Two metal foils are charged with the same polarity -they will repel each other.
- Ionisation in the gas will de-charge the metal foils.

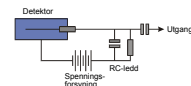


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## Gas Filled Detectors

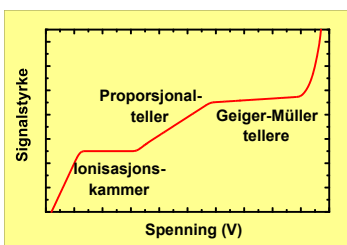
- An electric potential difference is created between the detector chamber and the centre electrode
- Radiation hitting the gas in the detector will ionise the gas. I.e. ions and electrons are created along the path of the radiation track.
- If the potential difference is big enough, negative ions and electrons will be separated from positive ions. Thus, a current will flow through the circuit consisting of the detector and the external electronics.



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## Types of Gas-Filled Detectors

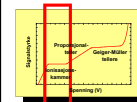


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## Ionisation Chamber

- The current created by the radiation is very small and huge amplification is necessary.
- Ionisation chambers can not count single events (e.g. one  $\beta$  particle). The current is much too weak for this to be possible.
- As  $\alpha$  particles generates substantially more ion pair than a  $\beta$  particle, ionisation chambers is best suited for  $\alpha$ -detection.

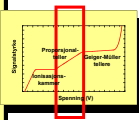


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## Proportional Counters

- At a certain voltage the ions will start to ionise other gas molecules. I.e. secondary ionisations will occur.
  - These secondary ions will also be accelerated and might again ionise still other molecules.
  - In this way amplifications of the order of  $10^6$  can be achieved.
- The signal is strong enough to enable the operation of such detectors as counters. I.e. each separate incident in the detector is counted.
- The output signal is proportional to the amount of energy in each radiation event.

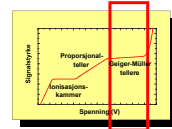


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## Geiger-Müller Detectors

- If the voltage is increased even more, not only secondary ionisations will occur but also excitations of the gas which causes UV emissions.
- These UV rays will start ionisations at places in the detector chamber which so far have not been ionised.
  - This will give rise to new cascades of ionisations.
  - Thus, the detector will produce very strong output signals.



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## Geiger-Müller Detectors, cont.

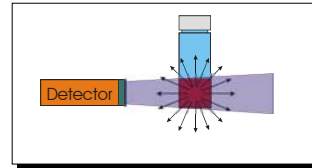
- However, the generation of new cascades will continue for ever after the first event.
- This was originally solved by turning the detector off for a short while after each event.
- Today, the GM detectors have additions of special gases which acts as quenchers, i.e. they terminate the generation of the secondary events after a short while.
- A GM-detector is very sensitive, but do not have the ability to distinguish between events with different energies.

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## Radioactivity Counting

- The ratio between the amount of radioactivity emitted from the source and counted by the detector is given by the *detector efficiency,  $\epsilon$* .



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## Counting uncertainty

- The Poisson distribution describes random events.
- The likelihood of getting a given value  $x$  is given by

$$P(x) = \frac{\bar{x}^x e^{-\bar{x}}}{x!}$$

provided the population (number of nuclei) is large.

- For the Poisson distribution, the standard deviation is given by

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\bar{x}}$$

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## Propagation of Errors

- Assume you have measured  $x$  and  $c$  is a constant, then

$$x \pm \sigma \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_c = x \times c \\ \sigma_c = \sigma \times c \end{cases}$$

- Assume you have measured  $x$  and  $y$ , then

$$\begin{cases} x \pm \sigma_x \\ y \pm \sigma_y \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} z = x \pm y \\ \sigma_z = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} \end{cases}$$

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## Two important examples

● You have measured the background equal to 1293 counts for 600 s.  
? What is the background, with uncertainty, in cpm?

● You then measured a sample for 300 s. The number of counts was 3651.  
? What is the count rate, with uncertainty, in cpm?  
? What is the net count-rate?