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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

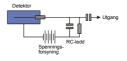
- Almost all radioactivity detectors are based on detection of the ionisations and/or excitations cased either directly or indirectly.
- This principle can easily be illustrated with an electroscope:
 - Two metal foils are charged with the same polarity -they will repel each
- Ionisation in the gas will de-charge the metal foils.



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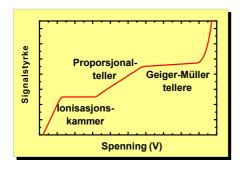
Gas Filled Detectors

- 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

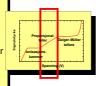
- The current created by the radiation is very small and huge amplification is necessary.
- lonisation chambers can not count single events (e.g. one β particle). The current is much to weak for this to be possible.
- As α particles generates substantially more ion pair than a β particle, ionisation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



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Proportional Counters

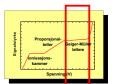
- At a certain voltage the ions will start to ionise other gas molecules. I.e. secondary ionisations will occur.
- These secondary ions will also be accelerated and might again ionise still other molecules.
- ► In this way amplifications of the order of 10⁶ can be achieved.
- The signal is strong enough 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 raise to new cascades of ionisations.
- Thus, the detector will produce very strong output signals.



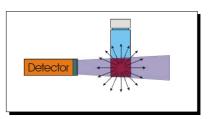
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Geiger-Müller Detectors, cont.

- 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.

Radioactivity Counting

ullet The ratio between the amount of radioactivity emitted from the source and counted by the detector is given by the detector efficiency, ϵ .



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Counting uncertainty

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

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

provided the population (number of nuclei) is large.

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

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

Propagation of Errors

 Assume you have measured x and c is a contant, 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

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

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?

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