

# *Experiment 10: Absorption of $\beta$ and $\gamma$ Rays*

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*Office Hour: Mondays, 5:30PM-6:30PM @ Pupin 1216*

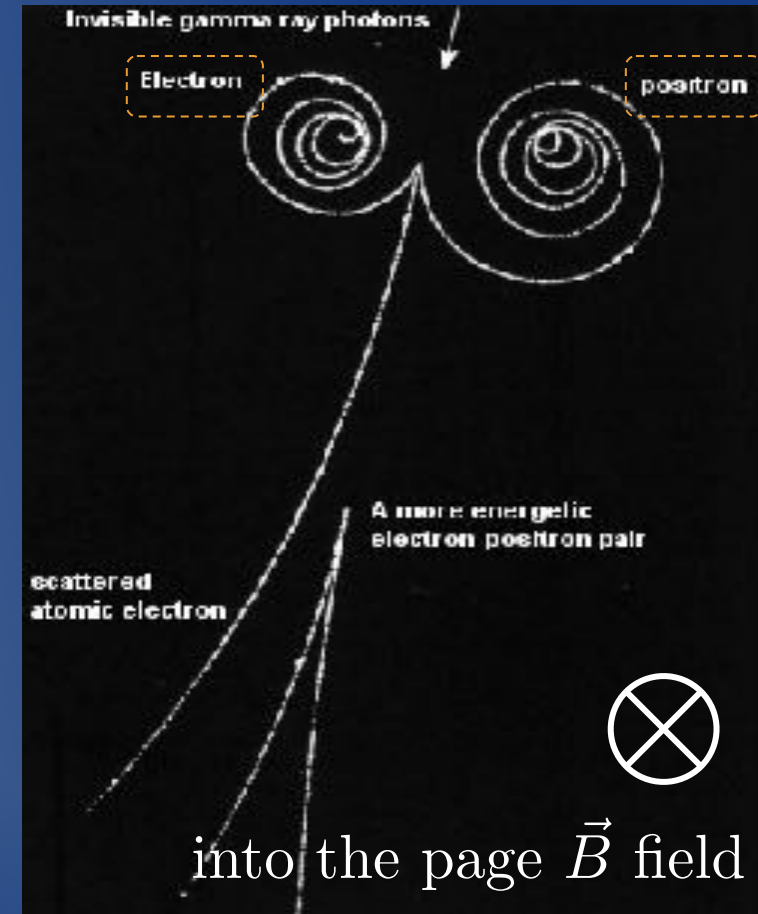
**INTRO TO EXPERIMENTAL PHYS-LAB  
1493/1494/2699**

# Introduction

- ***Background:***
  - Radioactivity and nuclear decay ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ )
- ***The experiment:***
  - Detecting  $\beta$  rays: the Geiger-Müller counter
  - Finding the plateau region (optimal voltage)
- ***Counting statistics:***
  - Poisson statistics
- ***Measurements:***
  - Estimating background
  - Determining  $\beta$ -rays range and energy
  - Determining  $\gamma$ -rays absorption coefficient and energy

# Radioactivity

- Radioactivity is a purely quantum mechanical phenomenon
- **Radioactivity** = the tendency for nuclei to spontaneously split apart into several **lower mass** pieces
- By 1900's it was known that unstable particles can emit three types of particles:
  - $\alpha$ -particles: +2 electric charge,  $\sim 4$  proton masses
  - $\beta$ -particles:  $\pm 1$  electric charge,  $1/1800$  mass of the proton
  - $\gamma$ -rays: no electric charge, very energetic



*Recall that by placing the particles in magnetic fields, one can tell the sign of charge of particle.*

# Why does radioactive decay occur?

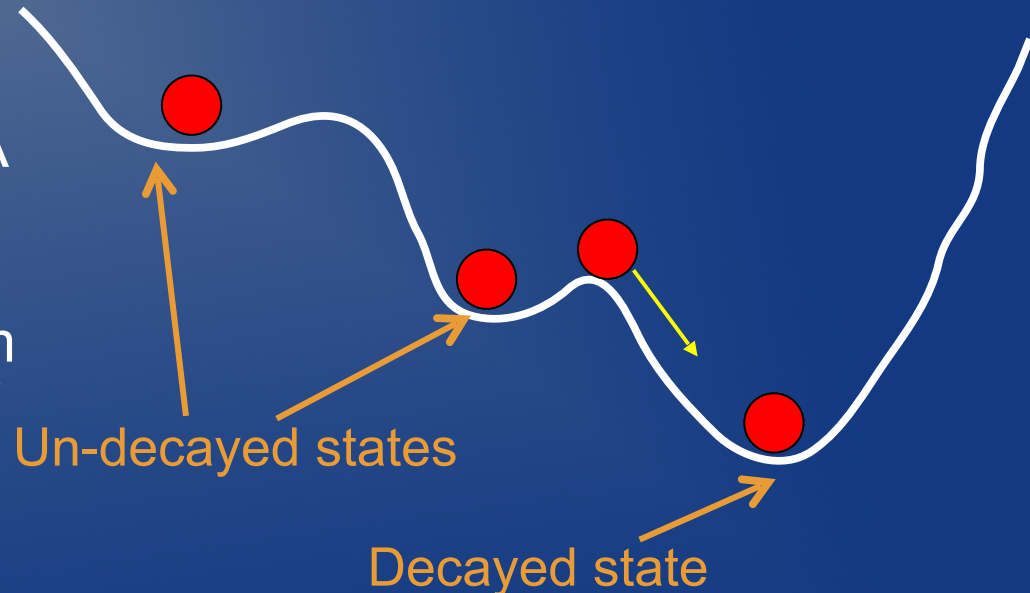
- ***Simplest picture:***

- Like a ball rolling down the hill, an atom will go radioactive decay to minimize its energy



- **But more complex...**

- There are many ***local minima***. A nucleus might “sit” in a local minimum for quite some time before **tunneling** (due to quantum effects) to the global minimum of its energy



# A new kind of interaction

- *How can you stick two protons together if they repel because of Coulomb force?*
- *How can a proton and a neutron stick together if only one of them is electrically charged?*
- *Why isn't the electron involved in the dynamics of a nucleus?*
- ***What makes nuclei stick together then?***

# A new kind of interaction

- *How can you stick two protons together if they repel because of Coulomb force?*
  - *New force needs to be attractive and stronger than Coulomb*
- *How can a proton and a neutron stick together if only one of them is electrically charged?*
  - *New force is independent of electric charge*
- *Why isn't the electron involved in the dynamics of a nucleus?*
  - *New force is short range ~ size of the nucleus ~  $10^{-15}$  m*
- ***What makes nuclei stick together then?***

# A new kind of interaction

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- *Why isn't the electron involved in the dynamics of a nucleus?*
  - *New force is short range ~ size of the nucleus ~  $10^{-15}$  m*
- ***What makes nuclei stick together then?***
  - ***The Strong Nuclear Force***

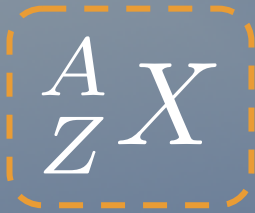
# Minimizing the potential: $\alpha$ decay

- Inside a nucleus there is a competition between the repulsive electric force (protons are likely charged) and the attractive strong force
- For **light nuclei** the strong interaction dominates, and the attractive force causes individual protons and neutrons to *bind*.
  - **Nuclear fusion:** *i.e.*  $4\text{H} \longrightarrow \text{He} + \text{other stuff}$
  - Fusion occurs at high temperatures and densities, *i.e.* core of star
- For **large nuclei** with many protons, electromagnetic repulsion is large and can overcome the attractive strong force
  - **Nuclear fission:** nucleus fragments into smaller nuclei
  - ***Alpha decay:*** nucleus decay and ejects an He nucleus



# Alpha decay ( $\alpha$ )

- **Isotopes:**

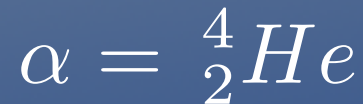


$X$  = element  
(e.g. Pu, Au, C, etc..)

$A$  = # neutrons + protons

$Z$  = # of protons (atomic number)

- **Alpha particle:** It is nothing more than a bare Helium nucleus (2 protons + 2 neutrons):



- **Example:**  ${}^{240}_{94}\text{Pu} \rightarrow {}^{236}_{92}\text{U} + \alpha$

- *Note that:*

- (1) the number of nucleons is always conserved ( $A=240$  before and  $A=236+4$  after)
- (2) charge is always conserved ( $Z=94$  before and  $Z=92+2$  after)



# Minimizing the potential: $\beta$ decay

- **Special relativity** tells us that mass is equivalent to energy:

$$E = mc^2$$

- Can think of mass as type of potential energy. The nucleus will try to minimize it
- The masses of the proton and of the neutron are:

$$M_{\text{neutron}} = 939.56 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$M_{\text{proton}} = 938.27 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

- A neutron will minimize its energy by **decaying into a proton**, which has lower mass!
- Is it enough? Are we satisfying all the conservation laws?



# Minimizing the potential: $\beta$ decay



- What **conservation laws** are needed to balance this reactions?
- **Charge conservation:**  $Q = 0$  on left and  $Q = +1$  on right
  - Conclusion: Need a **negatively** charged particle on right
- **Energy conservation:**  $\Delta E = m_p c^2 - m_n c^2 = -1.29 \text{ MeV}$ 
  - Must be a light, charged particle.
- The best candidate to fulfill both requirements is clearly the **electron!**



# Minimizing the potential: $\beta$ decay

- Is this what is observed in nature?  $n \longrightarrow p + e^{-}$
- **No!** Experiments showed that only two particles in the final state are not enough to explain the data

- **The missing brick was the *neutrino / anti-neutrino*:**



- Today we know that neutrinos are required in  $\beta$ -decays to conserve the total **lepton number ( $L$ )**:
  - $L = +1$  for electrons and neutrinos
  - $L = -1$  for positrons and anti-neutrinos.
- Neutrinos are effectively massless and very weakly interacting.

# Minimizing the potential: $\beta$ decay

- For any given atomic mass (A), there is an “optimal” ratio of protons to neutrons:
  - About 1n:1p for light elements (e.g. C-12 has 6p, 6n)
  - About 3n:2p for heavier elements (e.g. U-238 has 92p, 146n)
- Too many neutrons  $\longrightarrow$  they will tend to decay into protons until the optimal ratio is achieved



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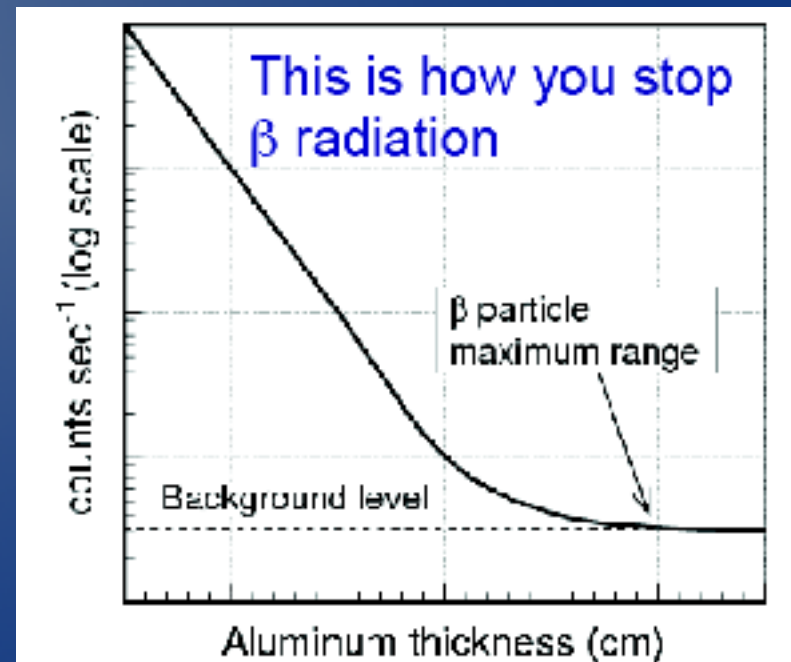
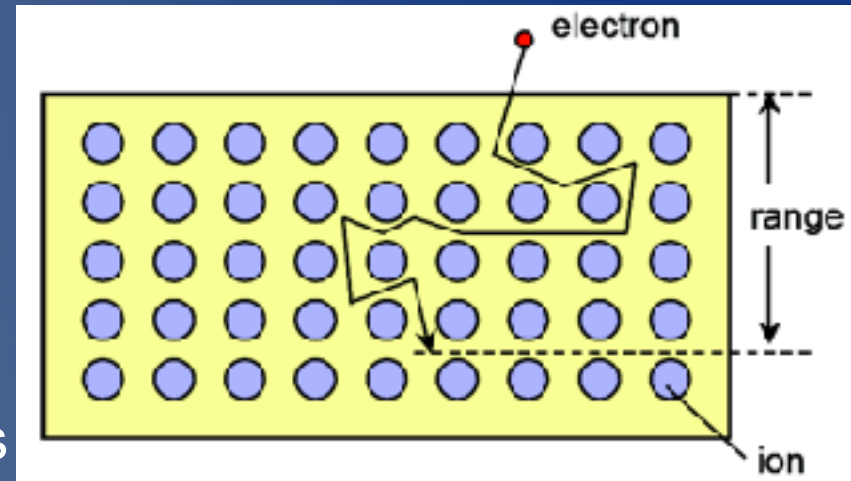


- **NOTE:** this last decay cannot happen in vacuum because the proton is lighter than the neutron!

# Interaction of $\beta$ 's with matter

- Possible ways for the  $\beta$ 's to lose energy are:
  1. Inside a material of density  $\rho$ , energetic  $\beta$ 's are **deflected by ions** (Coulomb repulsion)
  2. The  $\beta$  kicks one of the electrons of the material out (ionization) and hence undergo **multiple scattering**
- Because of this, the  $\beta$ 's can travel through up to a **max range**. An empirical formula for it is:

$$r = \frac{0.412 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}}{\rho} \left( \frac{E}{1 \text{ MeV}} \right)^{1.29}$$



# Minimizing potential: $\gamma$ decay

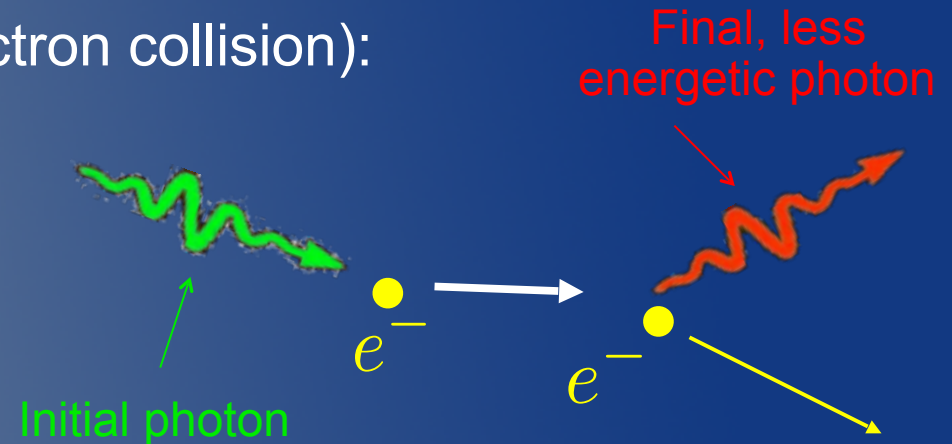
- Just like atoms, a nucleus has **energy levels**
  - One ground state, many excited states. It can be found in any of them
- Transitions between nuclear states are precisely analogous to electronic transitions in atoms, just at **much higher energy!**
  - Atomic transitions in e.g. Hydrogen:
    - Distance between levels  $\sim$  size of atom  $\sim 10^{-9}$  m
    - Energy of emitted photons  $\sim$  visible light  $\sim$  few eV
  - Nuclear transitions:
    - Distance between levels  $\sim$  size of nucleus  $\sim 10^{-15}$  m
    - Energy of photons  $\sim$  gamma rays  $\sim$  around MeV
- Just like electronic transitions, nuclear transitions are characterized by **sharp spectral lines** corresponding to the emission of photons with well defined wavelengths

# Interaction of $\gamma$ 's with matter

- Interaction of gamma rays with matter is governed by three processes:

## 1. **Compton scattering** (photon-electron collision):

Incoming photon transfers energy to electron. No minimum energy required for photon.



1. **Photoelectric effect:** photon hits an atom and kicks one of the electrons out. Minimum energy required (because atomic levels are quantized)
2. **Pair production:** The photon converts into a electron-positron pair. Minimum energy required (at least two the mass of the electron  $\sim 1.022$  MeV). Not of interest for this experiment



# Interaction of $\gamma$ 's with matter

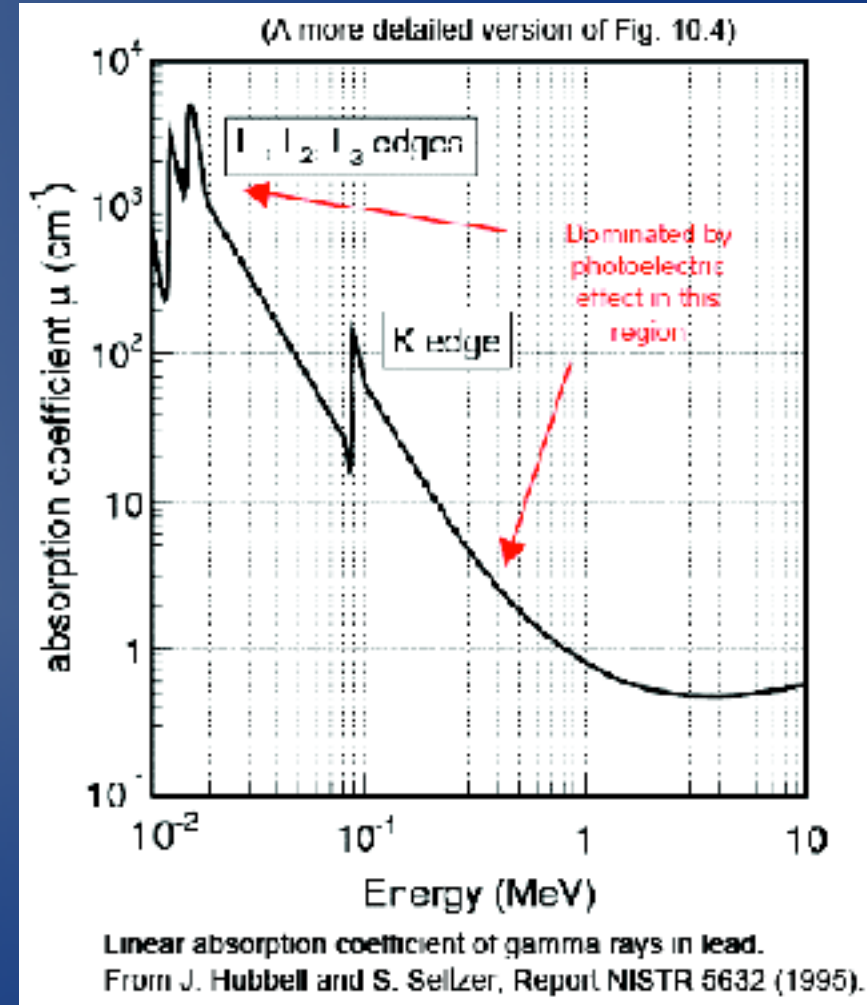
- There is no such a thing as a sharp range for  $\gamma$ 's
- However, one can describe the number of photons ( $dN$ ) absorbed while traveling a distance  $dx$  in material as:

$$dN = -\mu N dx$$

# of  $\gamma$ 's absorbed  $\rightarrow$   $dN$ 
# of initial  $\gamma$ 's  $\rightarrow$   $N$ 
Linear absorption coeff.  $\rightarrow$   $\mu$

- The expected number of photons emerging from a material of thickness  $x$  then **decreases exponentially** with  $x$ :

$$N(x) = N_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

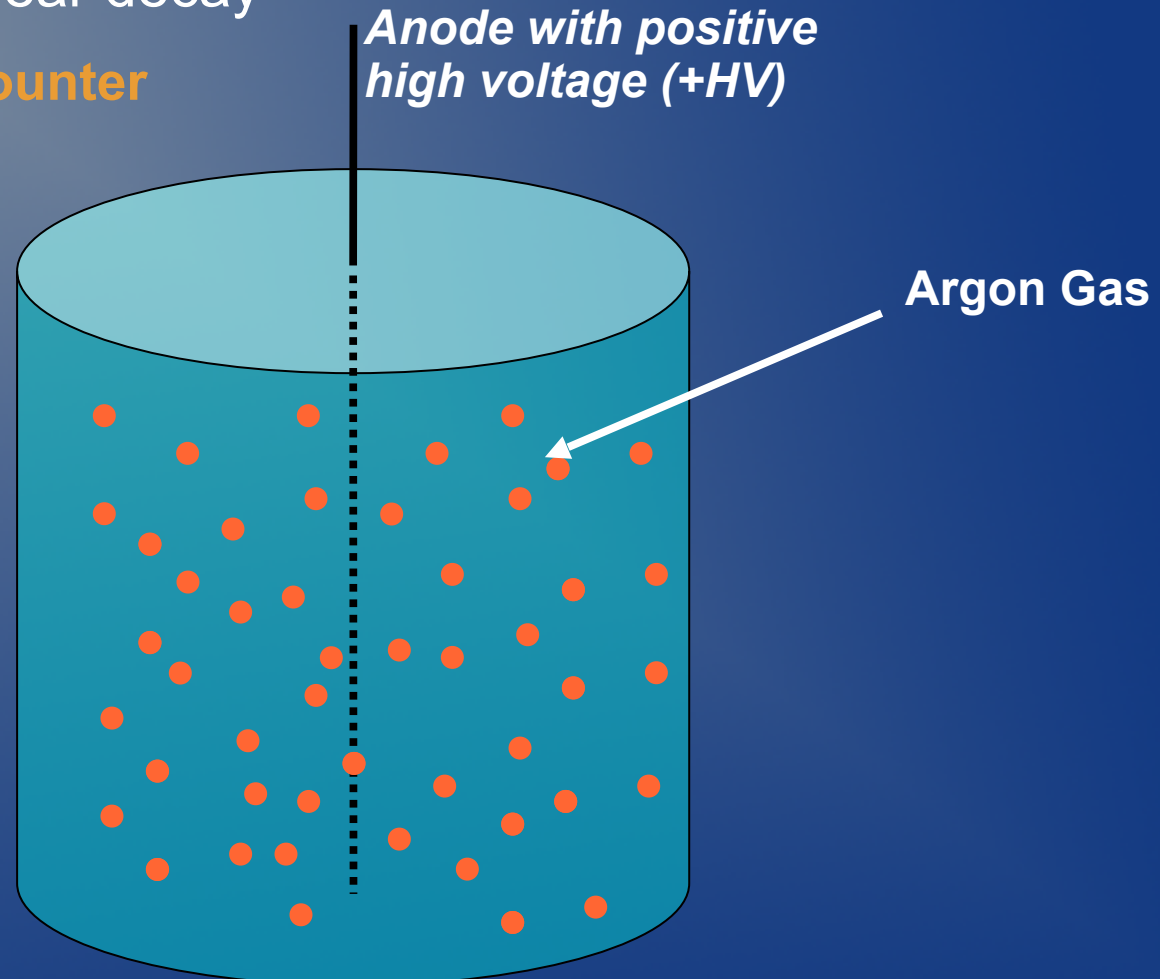


# *The Experiment*

# Detecting $\beta$ rays: the Geiger-Müller

- Question: how can we detect  $\beta$ -rays?
- As mentioned they are nothing more than electrons emitted by a nucleus after a nuclear decay

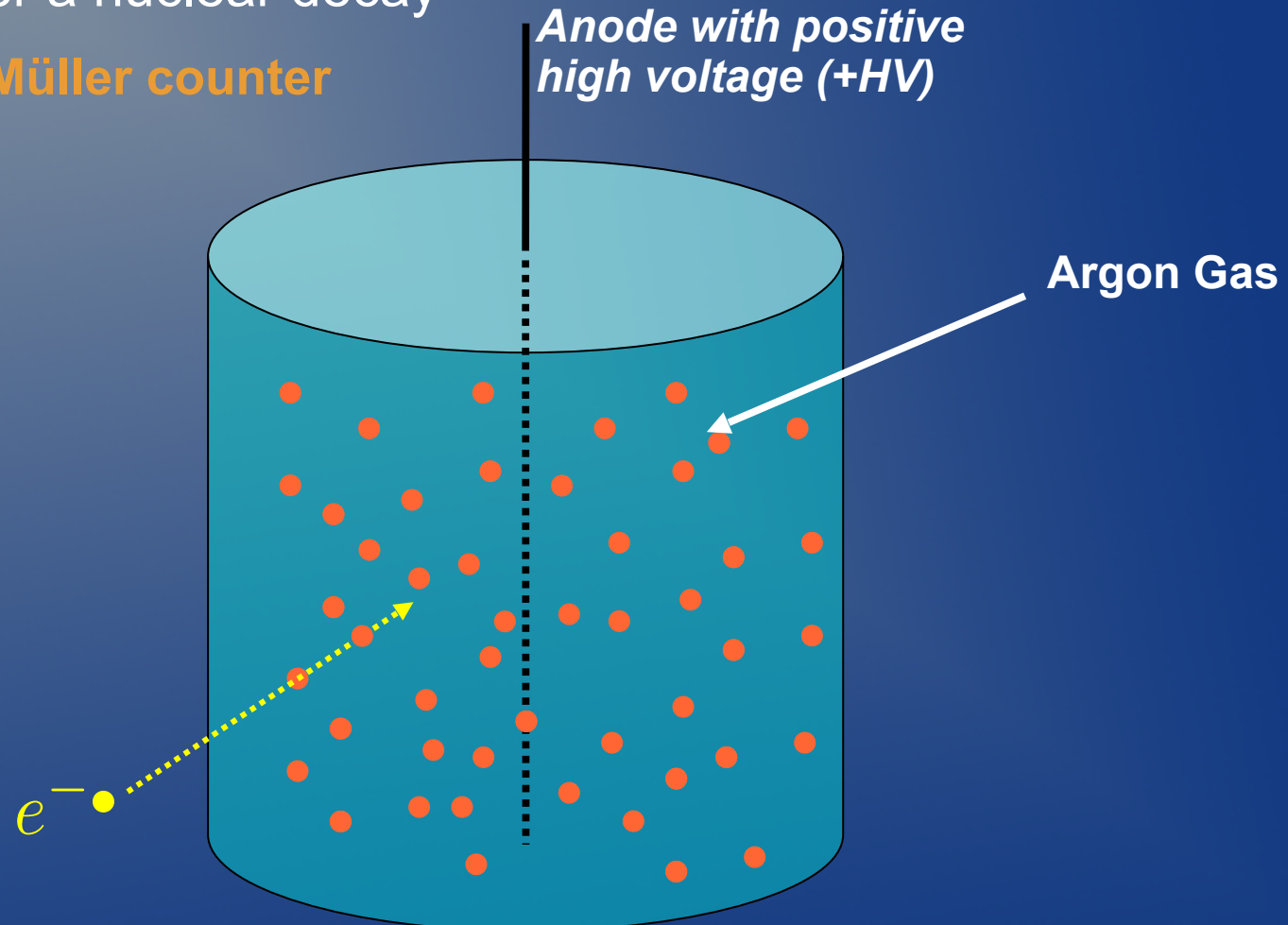
Geiger-Müller counter



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## Geiger-Müller counter



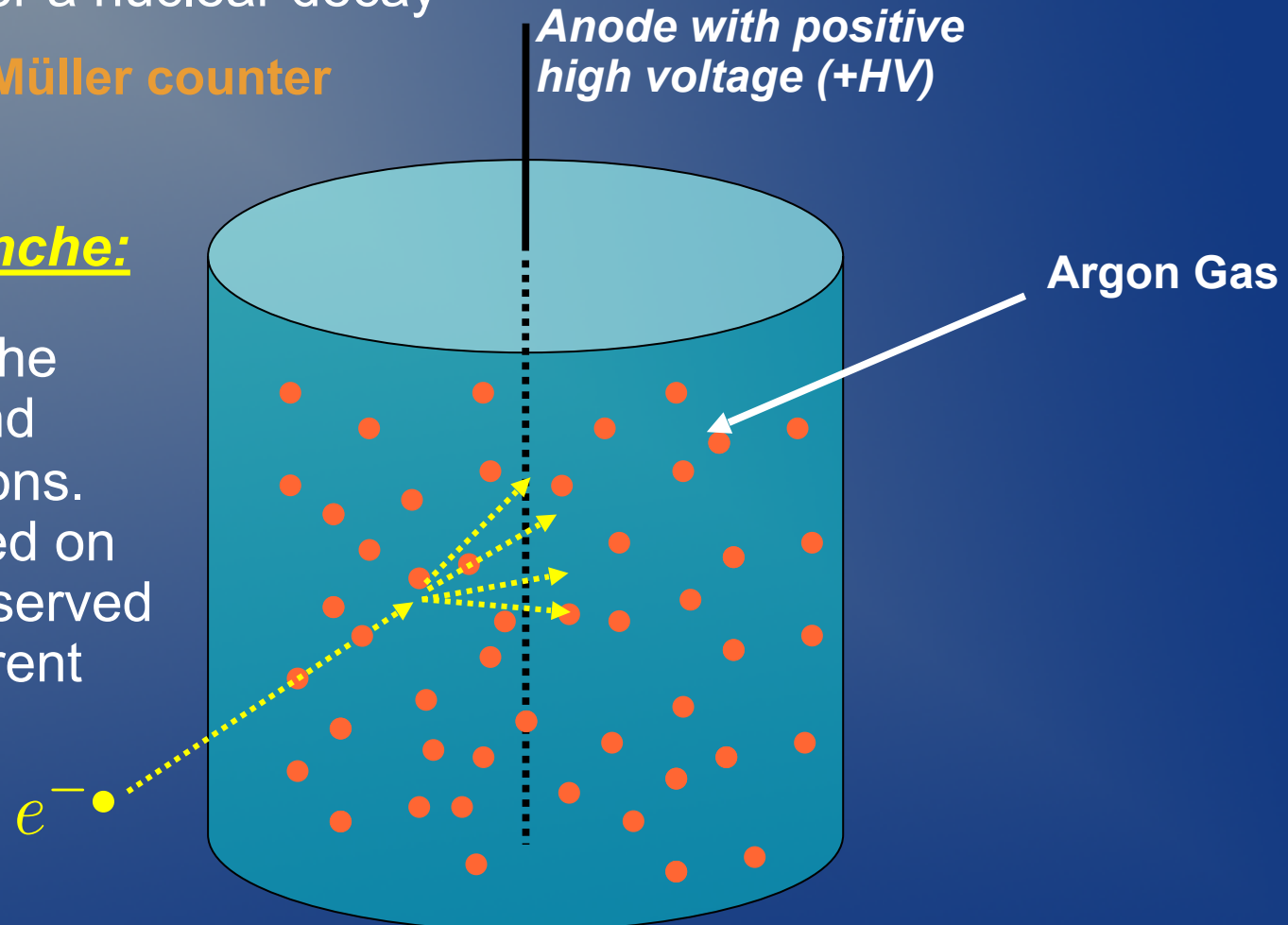
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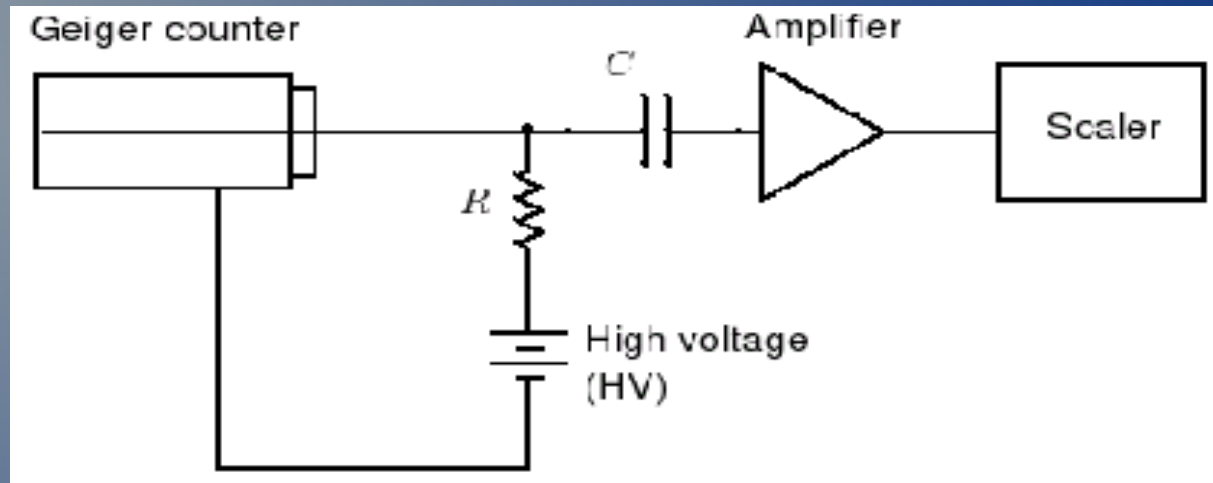
## Geiger-Müller counter

### Townsend avalanche:

The electron hits the atoms of Argon and emits other electrons. These are collected on the anode and observed as a non-zero current



# Experimental setup



# Scaler and high voltage supply



Voltage control

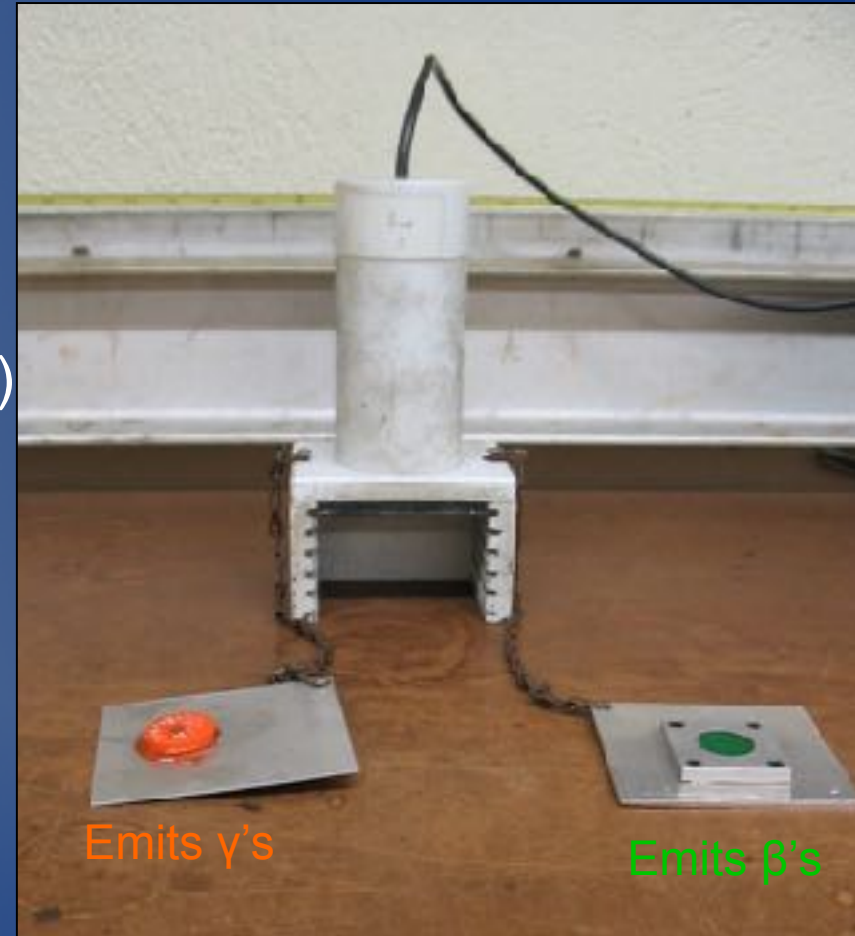
counter

Pre-set duration of the counting

Start, stop and reset

# Geiger counter with sources

- Attached to the Geiger counter are two low radiation level sources
  - **Green:** source of  $\beta$ 's (thallium – Tl)
  - **Orange:** source of  $\gamma$ 's (Cesium – Cs)
- When not in use, **cover sources with lead**. This will prevent them from contributing to the background
- **SAFETY NOTE:** Please do not eat/drink during lab. Wash hands when you're finished.



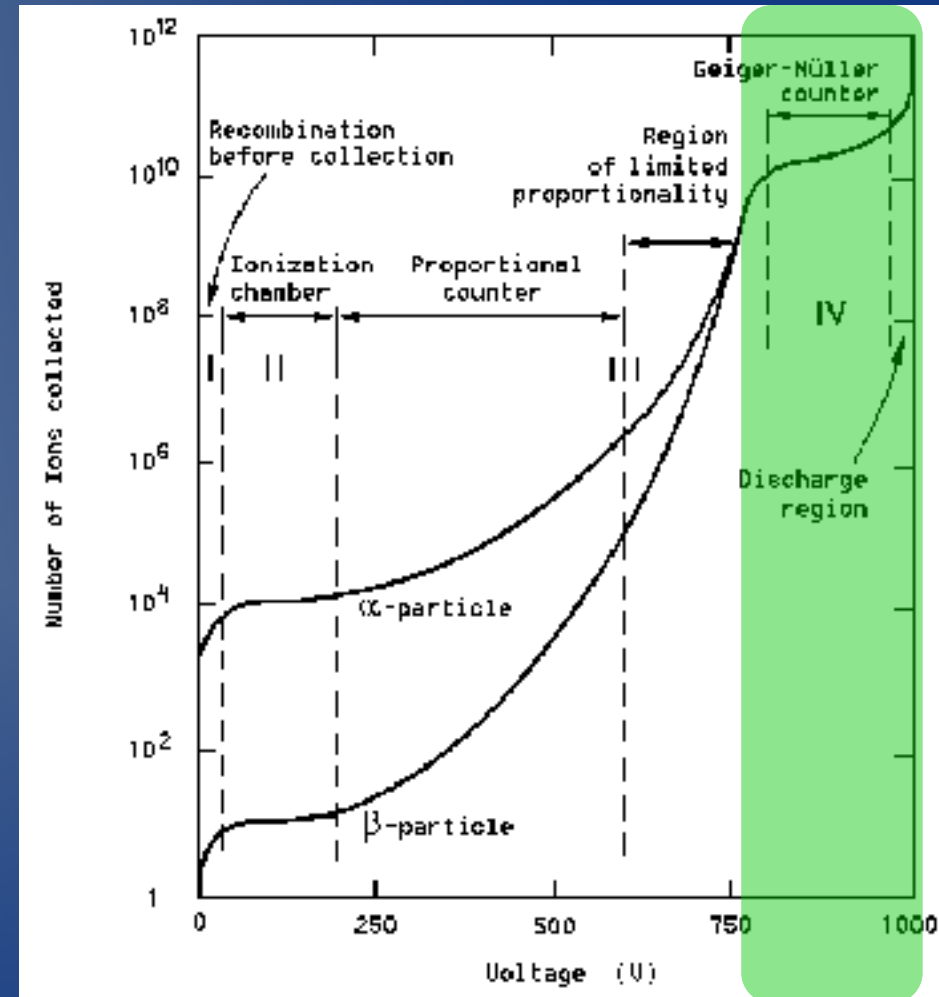


# Main goals

- This week experiment can be divided in essentially three parts:
- **Part 1:** Preliminary set up
  - Determine the optimal working voltage for the Geiger counter
  - Determine the background counting
- **Part 2:** Thallium
  - Measure the range of the emitted  $\beta$  particles
  - Estimate their maximum energy
- **Part 3:** Cesium
  - Measure the linear absorption coefficient for the  $\gamma$  rays
  - Compute their energy and compare with expectation

# Part 1: the plateau

- The first thing you need to do is to look for the value of the voltage (V) for which the Geiger-Müller is stable. This is called the *plateau*
- In this region the counter will be **less affected by random fluctuation of the voltage generator**
- Procedure:
  1. Place the source under the tube and start increasing the voltage in steps of 20 V
  2. At each step count for 15 seconds
  3. When the counting changes by **less than 10% over a range of 100 V** you found the plateau



# Counting statistics: Poisson distribution

- In this experiment you will “count stuff”, *i.e.* number of  $\beta/\gamma$  passing through the counter
- Basic idea for parts 1 and 2:
  - Put source and some absorbing material under Geiger tube.
  - During some pre-set time interval count the number of particles emitted by the source
  - Plot count rate (counts/time) vs. absorber thickness
- Complication: Radioactive decay is a *genuinely random process*. Repeating a trial in the exact same conditions will result in slightly different counts.
- Question: How do we quantify the random fluctuations of the counting? What kind of distribution do they follow?

# Counting statistics: Poisson distribution

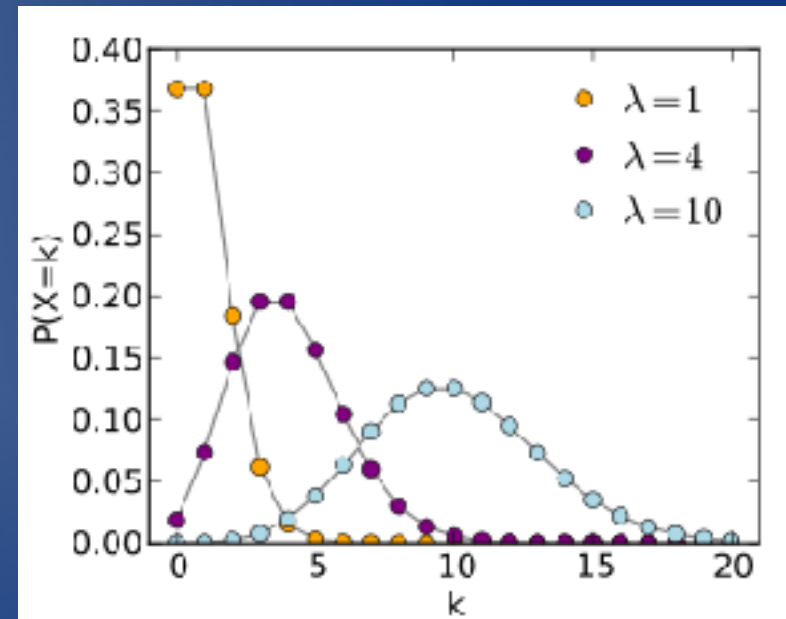
- When the output of your measure is a count the fluctuations cannot follow a Gaussian distribution. In fact, for example, a count can never be a negative number
- It turns out that they follow the so-called **Poisson distribution**:

$$P_{\lambda}(N) = \frac{\lambda^N e^{-\lambda}}{N!}$$

- The fluctuations from the mean value ( $\lambda$ ) are given by:

$$\sigma_N = \sqrt{N}$$

- This will be the error on each measure!



# Obtaining precise measurements

- We want to be as precise as possible, so **keep relative errors small**.
- Clearly to have small relative errors we need to have a high number of counts
- Examples:

$$N = 1000; \quad \sigma_N = \sqrt{1000} = 31.6;$$

Relative error:  $\sigma_N/N = 0.03 = 3\%$  (Not too bad)

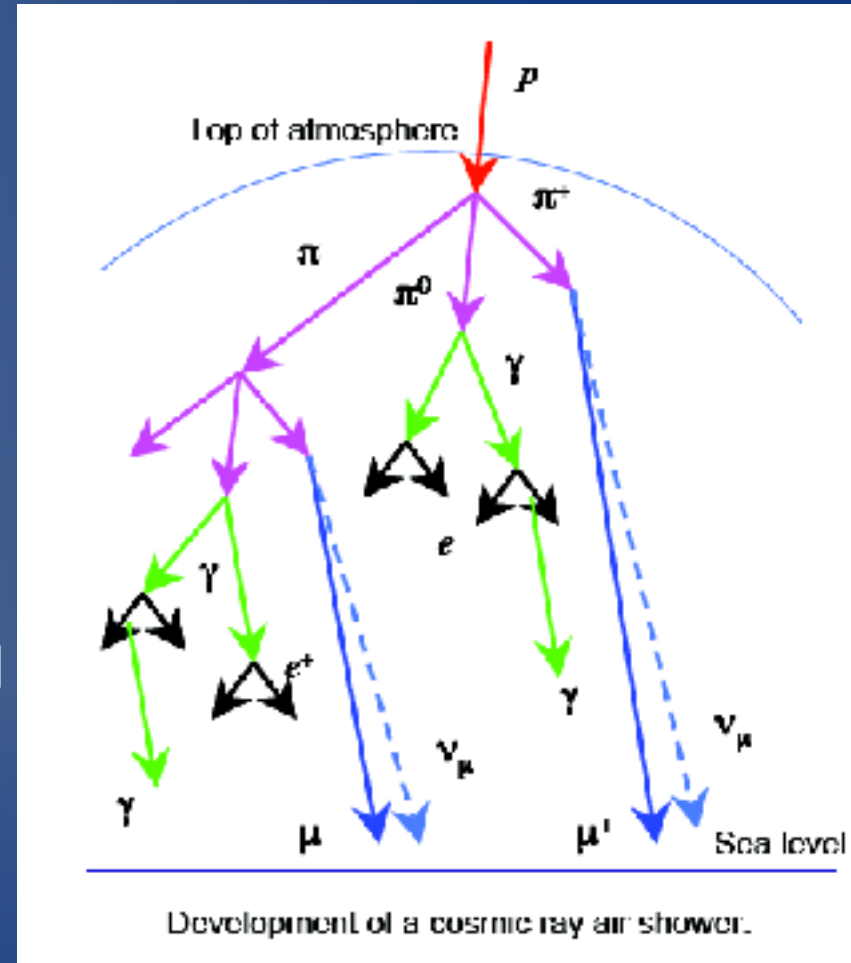
$$N = 10^6; \quad \sigma_N = \sqrt{10^6} = 1000;$$

Relative error:  $\sigma_N/N = 0.001 = 0.1\%$  (Excellent)

- Therefore: longer count  $\longrightarrow$  higher count  $\longrightarrow$  smaller relative error
- You will have to **find a compromise between small errors and reasonable counting time**

# Measurement of background

- When there are no sources, you will observe counts anyway! Why?
- Two main sources of **background**:
  - **Cosmic ray showers** from atmosphere
  - **Sources nearby**
- To estimate the background:
  - Place sources far from the counter and try to screen them with lead
  - Count for a certain amount of time
- **Record the background count and its uncertainty**

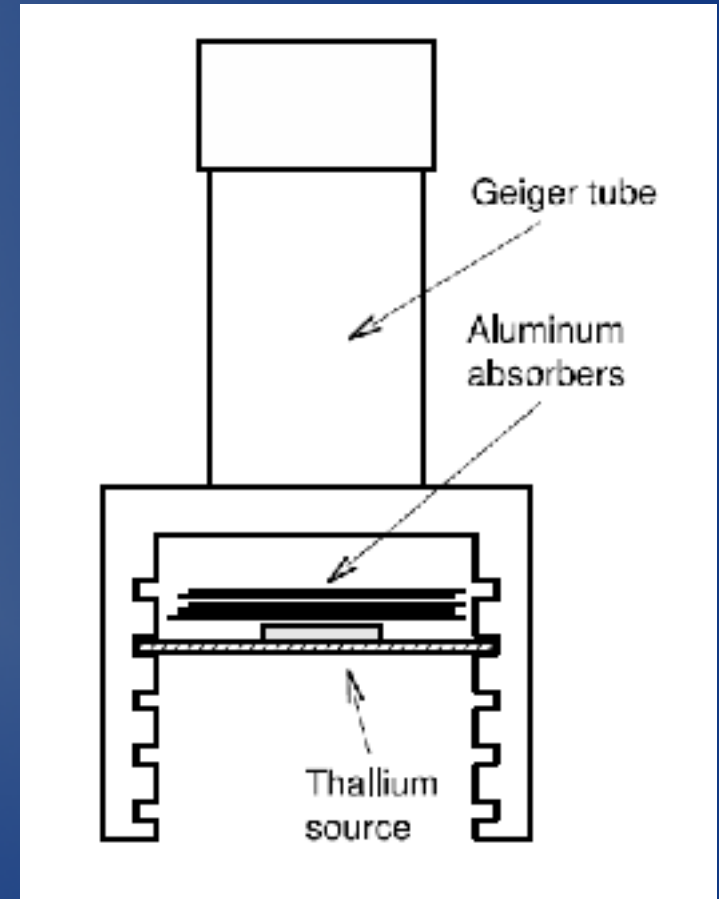


# Part 2: Thallium

- Use a unstable isotope of Thallium-204 to generate **beta particles**:



- Place an **Aluminum absorber** between Thallium source and Geiger tube and take counts for a **fixed amount of time (same as background!)**
- Record the counts (with errors!) as a function of the number of Aluminum foils
- Given the thickness of each foil record counts vs. total thickness



# Part 2: Thallium

- Make a semi-log plot of your counts vs. thickness data
- On the same plot report also the background
- When the counts are ***statistically compatible*** with the background **determine the range of the  $\beta$  particles**
- Recall the equation for the range:

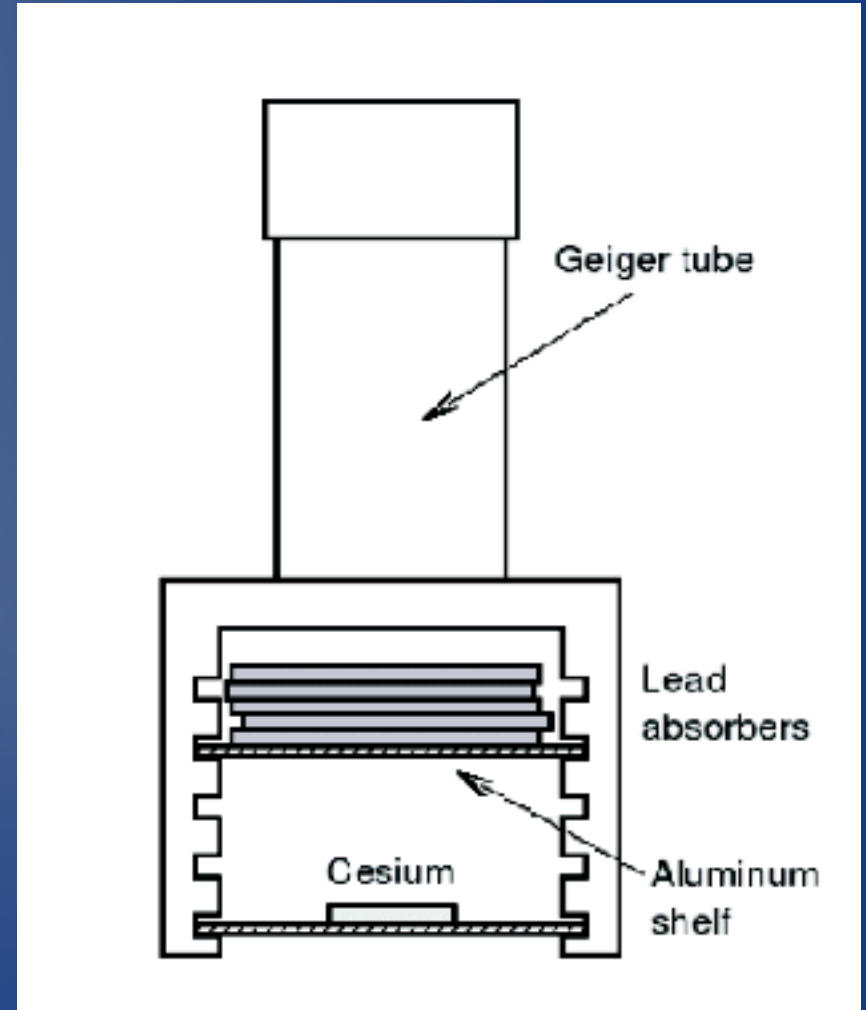
$$r = \frac{0.412 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}}{\rho} \left( \frac{E}{1 \text{ MeV}} \right)^{1.29}$$

- Given the density of the Aluminum,  $\rho = 2.702 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , and the experimental range **find the energy of the  $\beta$ 's**
- Compare with expected  $E = 0.765 \text{ MeV}$

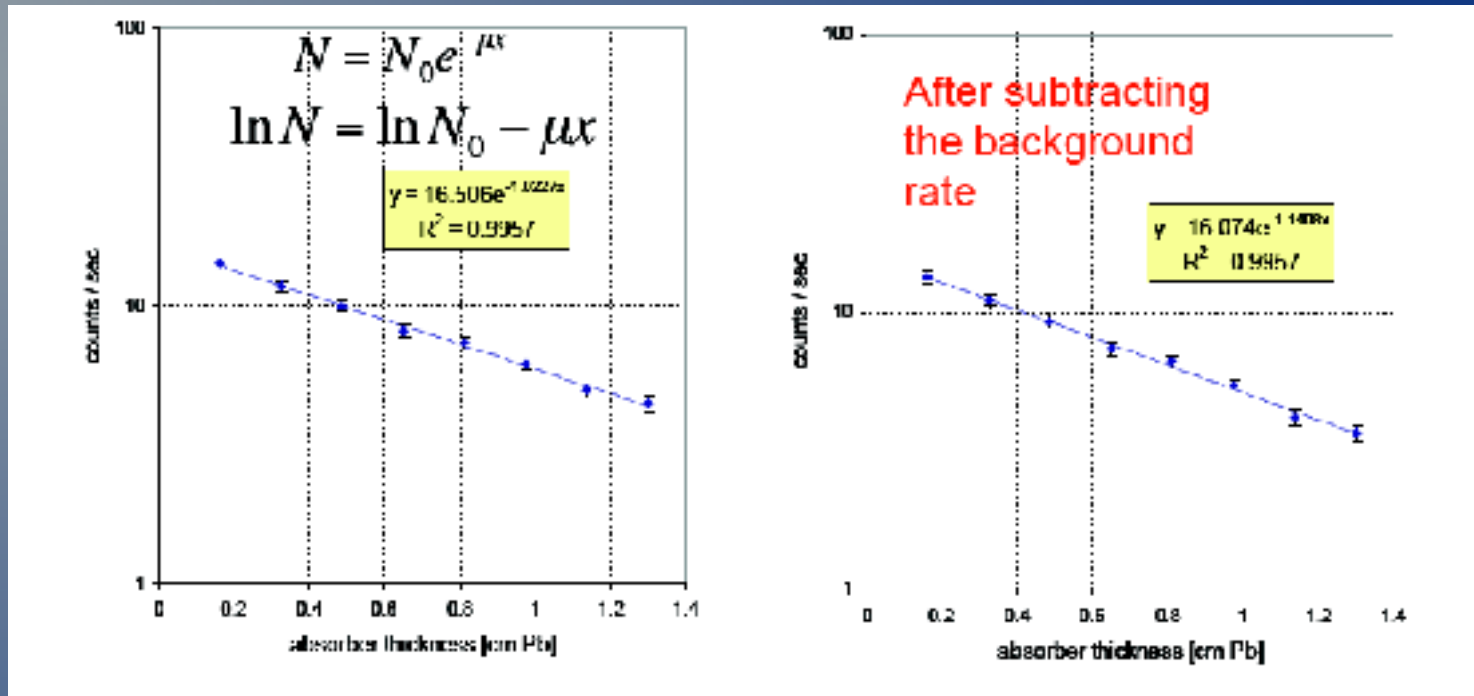


# Part 3: Cesium

- Place the source of Cesium-137 on the last shelf of the Geiger
- Every time **add one lead absorber (as far away as possible from the source) and record counts vs. thickness**
- The thickness should be measured with a caliper
- Take a reasonable number of data
- **NOTE:** The counts will never go to zero!



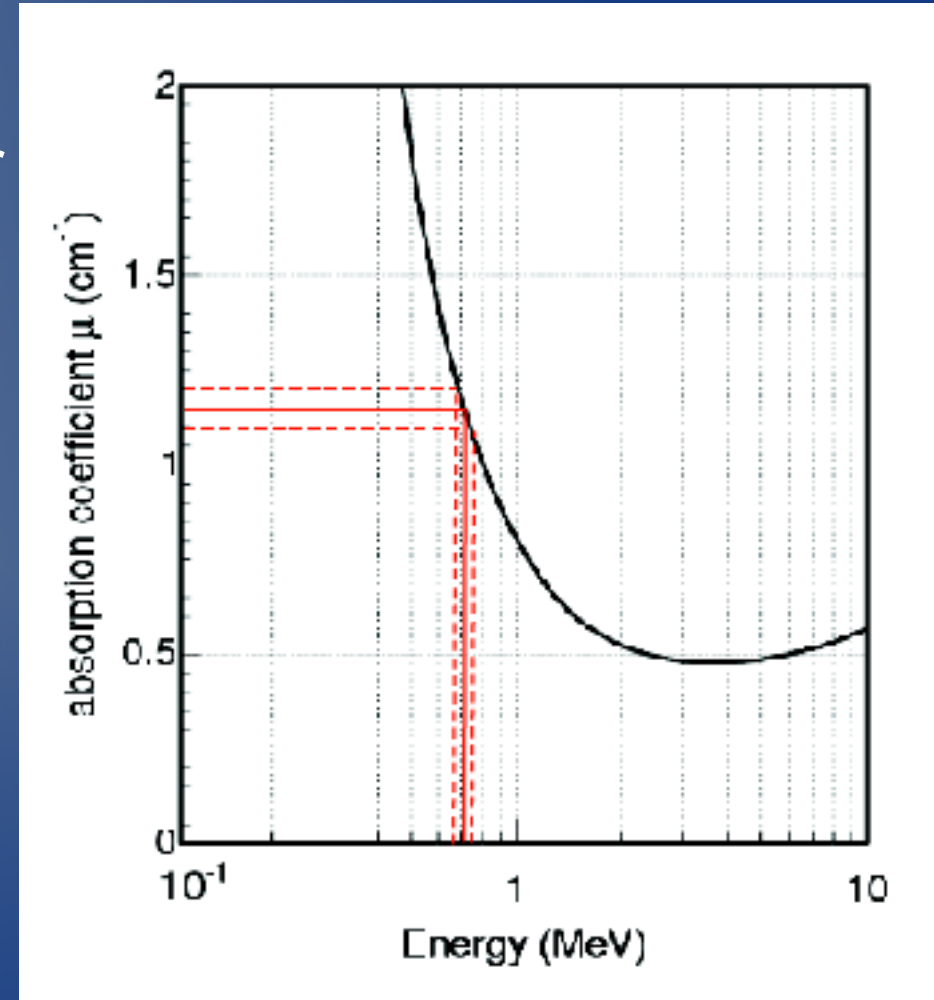
# Part 3: Cesium



- From every count subtract the background
- Make again a semi-log plot and compute the slope of the best fit line
- This will be your **coefficient of linear absorption,  $\mu$**

# Part 3: Cesium

- Figure 10.4 of the lab manual give the energy vs.  $\mu$  curve for  $\gamma$  rays
- Given the experimental coefficient of absorption **find the energy of the emitted photons**
- Compare with the accepted value for photons emitted by Cs-137,  $E_\gamma = 0.662$  MeV



# Tips

- How to handle the radioactive sources: the levels of radiation emitted by these sources are extremely low, comparable to those that we experience every day. **So do not be afraid!** Just, please, do not eat the source...
- To make your life simpler it is better if, for a fixed source, you **perform the counting always over the same time interval (including background count)**
- REMEMBER: Do not wait for the counts of the Cesium to drop below the background. It will never happen!
- Re-measure the background often to make sure it does not fluctuate too much!

