

Measurement of β -ray spectra

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Abstract

Using a thin lens magnetic spectrometer, we measure the momentum spectrum of electrons emitted as β^- rays from a radioactive source of ^{137}Cs . The detected momentum of the radiated electrons is defined by the spectrometer's adjustable magnetic lens current and k a proportionality constant dependent on the geometry of the apparatus. The magnetic field of the lens is varied by changing the current passing through the lens coil which has the effect of modifying the trajectories of the electrons, focusing electrons with specific momenta onto the detector allowing us to measure their intensity. By converting the measured momentum to energy we are able to fit our data to a linear model based on the Fermi-Kurie plot. We find that the value of the kinetic energy of the nuclear transition is $T = 0.514 \pm 0.05$ MeV which is in agreement with the accepted value of $T = 0.512$ MeV[1].

1 Introduction

When Henri Becquerel first observed β -radiation, he determined that the observed radiated particle satisfied the same mass-to-charge ratio as the electron, discovered in 1897 by J.J Thompson[2].

Later experimental results showed that β -rays are detected with a continuous range of kinetic energies up to a maximum value[3]. The discovery of a continuous distribution of electron kinetic energies rather than a discrete predictable value led Wolfgang Pauli to propose in 1930 that the observed violation of conservation laws must be due emission of a yet unknown particle.

In 1934 Enrico Fermi called this apparently massless and undetectable particle the "neutrino", developing an advanced theory of beta decay. The neutrino was finally experimentally observed 1956.[4]

The process we currently know as β^- decay describes a neutron in a parent nucleus desintegrating into a proton in a daughter nucleus, an electron and an antineutrino.

In a β^- event, both nuclides (nuclear species) have the same number of nucleons. This means that the daughter nucleus will not experience a substantial change in kinetic energy (recoil) due to the decay event. Leaving most of the desintegration energy available to be carried-off by the leptons as kinetic energy.

A parent nucleus has a given initial energy w . The available kinetic energy of the system is equal to the decrease in mass energy due to the creation of the radiated leptons. In relativistic units:

$$T = w - 1, \quad (1)$$

The observable count of β^- -electrons n as a function of energy is described by the Kurie-Fermi Theory of β^- decay.

2 Background Theory

In this experiment we measure the momentum spectrum of emitted β -rays from a radioactive source of ^{137}Cs

into an excited state of ^{137}Ba . This transition occurs with a probability of 94.6% at a maximum energy value $T = 0.512$ MeV.[1].

A set of electrons with a specific momentum range is focused onto the spectrometer detector, while electrons outside this range undergo chromatic aberration.

The use of coordinates of momentum instead of energy in β -ray spectroscopy is partly due to the fact that it is the momentum of the focused electrons that is rigorously proportional to the axially symmetric magnetic field.[5, 6] In our experimental setup, the magnetic field is proportional to the adjustable current I_{lens} going through the lens coils. The definition for the momentum of emitted electrons is:

$$p = e\rho B, \quad (2)$$

where B is the magnetic field strength, e is the electron charge, ρ is the gyroradius of the electrons due to B .

The magnetic rigidity P is a measure of the momentum of electrons[7]:

$$P = B\rho, \quad (3)$$

From this relation and the above definition of the momentum of electrons, we write:

$$p = kI_{lens}, \quad (4)$$

k is a constant determined by the geometry of the spectrometer alone[5].

2.1 K-peak Calibration

To calibrate the observed momentum distribution we use electrons emitted with a characteristic well-defined kinetic energy[1]. These electrons are named conversion electrons. In this experiment we study the most probable energy transition from ^{137}Cs to ^{137}Ba . In this transition ^{137}Ba is in an excited state. One way for the daughter atom to lose energy is by transferring the excess energy directly to an orbital electron[1].

The orbital will most likely be the K-shell since it is the lowest energy orbital. A higher energy group event is much rarer (probability of 6%), therefore little error is made by assuming that the peak is due to the K line only.[1].

The constant k in (3) is determined by calibrating the observed spectrum to the well-known K-conversion peak with kinetic energy $T_k = 624.21$ keV. In relativistic units, the calibration calculation is as follows: we write equation (1) in terms of the momentum p_k

$$T_k = \sqrt{p_k^2 + 1} - 1, \quad (5)$$

$$\therefore p_k = \sqrt{(T_k + 1)^2 - 1}, \quad (6)$$

from equation (4)

$$kI_k = \sqrt{(T_k + 1)^2 - 1}, \quad (7)$$

$$\therefore k = \frac{\sqrt{(T_k + 1)^2 - 1}}{I_k}, \quad (8)$$

is the proportionality constant we are after.

2.2 Kurie–Fermi theory

The standard method for determining end-points of *beta*–ray groups and for examining the degree of forbidden-ness of the transitions[1] is known as the Kurie plot. The observed maximum value in the Kurie–Fermi plot represents the count of electrons that take the maximum possible kinetic energy whilst the antineutrinos carry close to zero kinetic energy from the transition.

The Kurie–Fermi plot may be written as:

$$n(p) = K_1 F(Z, w) p^2 (w_0 - w^2) S_n(w), \quad (9)$$

where K_1 is an arbitrary constant, p is the electron’s momentum, $F(Z, w)$ is the Fermi function (which accounts for coulomb attraction between the electron and the daughter nucleus). Z is the charge of the daughter nucleus, w_0 is the decay energy, and w is the total transition energy and $S_n(w)$ is known as the shape factor.

In our analysis we use a modified Fermi function: $G = \frac{pF(Z=55, w)}{w}$. We find The value of this function using an interpolation method based on a data set provided in the additional resources of the experimental script.

In order to use this relation to obtain the transition energy, we are told linearise the Kurie plot. Written in terms of the interpolated fermi function, we write the linear kurie plot as:

$$\sqrt{\frac{n(p)}{p^2 w G S_n(w)}} = K_2 (w_0 - w)^2, \quad (10)$$

The shape factor alters the shape of the spectrum depending on the level of “forbiddenness” of a transition. It is determined by the amount of orbital angular momentum, L , carried away by the electron-neutrino pair, as well as their linear momenta)[8].

We obtain an expression for the shape factor from Siegbahn, reference[6]:

$$S_n = w^2 - 1 + (w_n - w)^2, \quad (11)$$

The shape factor increases the precision of the result as the order increases. The zeroth order linear Kurie plot is found by calculating

$$\sqrt{\frac{n(p)}{p^2 w G}} = K_2 (w_0 - w)^2, \quad (12)$$

where the transition is allowed: $S_0(w) = 1$.

We proceed to find the zeroth order energy transition w_0

$$w_0 = \frac{c}{-K_2}, \quad (13)$$

After we have obtained w_0 we can iteratively repeat the previous analysis. From this we obtain higher order w_n and S_n values. We use the results from the iteration to find a convergent value for T the transition energy.

3 Method

Our experimental apparatus is a thin magnetic-lens spectrometer. The operation of β spectrometers depends on the behaviour of electrons subject to magnetic fields.

The spectrometer is aligned parallel to the horizontal component of the Earth’s magnetic field, Then the horizontal component of the field does not affect the electron paths. The vertical component is nullified by an adjustable bias coil current from a pair of Helmholtz coils.

The magnetic field of the spectrometer lens is varied by changing the current passing though the lens coils. Modifying a cone of electron trajectories diverging from the source along the spectrometer’s axis, causing them to spiral around the axis of the instrument towards detector[1].

3.1 Constant time vs constant counts

The counting controls of the experimental apparatus can be defined by the user. For constant time, the best estimation for the uncertainty in the number of counts n is \sqrt{n} [1] due to the poissonian nature of radioactive decay. The fractional uncertainty in counts is $\frac{\sqrt{n}}{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$. Fractional uncertainty is a preserved quantity. Therefore the uncertainty in time is $\Delta t = \frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}$.

From this result we note that with both methods we are able to pre-determine the fractional uncertainty for a data point. But an obvious constraint from choosing the constant counts method is that the allotted time for the experiments is not as easily monitored as with constant time. Given the possible time constraint. The counting controls are set to constant time. The interval used to count events is defined by trying to maintain the uncertainty in the count as less than 5 percent.

$$\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{1}{20}, \quad (14)$$

$$\therefore n \leq 400, \quad (15)$$

From an earlier attempt at the experimental data acquisition we learned that the maximum time interval $t = 600s$ yielded $n \approx 2000$ counts. A simple calculation comparing the count ratios yields the time interval $t = 360s$ as the upper bound for our constant time interval.

3.2 Background radiation

After we obtain the raw spectrum n_{raw} as a function of the lens current. The first processing step is to correct our data from the background radiation count. The 4 measurements of the background radiation counts are added, averaged and the average is subtracted from the raw count.

3.3 Resolution

In a magnetic spectrometer with fixed geometry and variable B the resolution

$$R = \frac{\Delta(B\rho)}{B\rho}, \quad (16)$$

is constant (in this experiment $R = (2 - 3\%)$). Where $\Delta(B\rho)$ is a measure of the accepted momentum band (Δp). When plotting the momentum distribution it is necessary to divide the number of counts $n(p)$ at each current setting by the corresponding current in order to get the correct form of the spectrum[6].

$$n(I) = \frac{n_{net}}{I_{lens}}, \quad (17)$$

3.4 Experimental procedure

Firstly, Decide what range and increments of lens current are adequate to resolve the momentum spectrum. Then, using the experimental control interface:

1. Calibrate the magnetic field probe. Coordinates of the probe must be set to: (400, 190)
2. Null Earth's magnetic field: Disable the lens current. Enable the bias coil current and increase this current until all displayed field values are as close to zero as possible. Note: (the x-component of the field will remain large compared to the other components.)
3. Set counting controls to either constant time or constant counts. Specify time interval or expected counts.
4. Background rate count: Close the source shutter. With the lens current disabled, proceed to run the experiment and count the background radiation (repeat this step 4 times).

After these steps are finalised we can start acquiring β^- radiation data from our source of ^{137}Cs .

3.5 Data acquisition algorithm

1. Enable the lens coil current.
2. Set the shutter status to open.
3. Run the experiment.
4. Increase the lens coil current. Repeat steps (3-4) until reaching the maximum value of the coil current range.

4 Results

The experimental parameters used are as follows: The lens current range is set from 0A to 3.6A Increments of 0.1A are chosen. To minimise earth's magnetic field we set the bias coil current to $I = 0.7167 \pm 0.0005$ Counting controls were set to constant time: The intervals $t = 360\text{s}$.

4.1 The momentum spectrum

We calibrate the measured spectrum by using the conversion peak energy T_k . Using equation (10) we proceed to find the constant of proportionality in equation (5).

Table I. K-peak parameters and uncertainties.

I_k	1.89
$u(I_k)$	0.05
k	1.05
$u(k)$	0.03

Table II. Corrected count, momentum, energy data and uncertainties. To be used in linear Kurie Plot, We compute the relativistic energy value from the momentum $w = \sqrt{p^2 + 1}$.

n	u(n)	p [mc]	u(p) [mc]	$w[mc^2]$	$u(w)[mc^2]$
1612	20	0.73	0.02	1.24	0.02
1441	20	0.83	0.02	1.30	0.02
1318	18	0.94	0.03	1.37	0.02
1291	16	1.04	0.03	1.44	0.03
1040	15	1.15	0.03	1.52	0.03
798	14	1.25	0.03	1.60	0.03
589	13	1.36	0.04	1.68	0.04
356	12	1.46	0.04	1.77	0.04
190	11	1.57	0.04	1.86	0.04
62	10	1.67	0.04	1.95	0.04

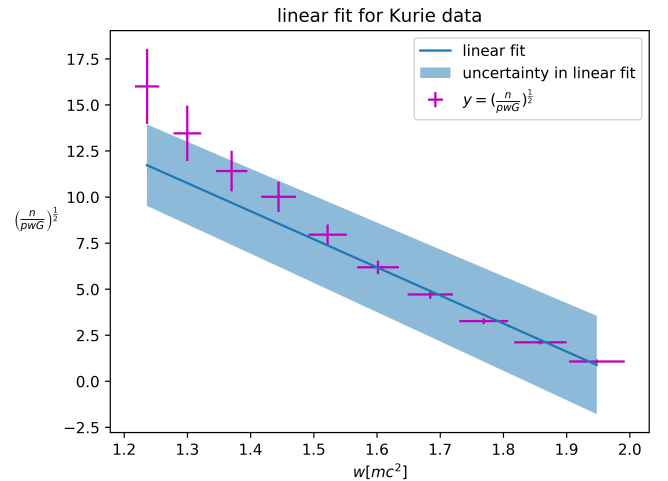


Figure 1: Linear fit was obtained using the curve_fit optimisation algorithm from the Scipy library.

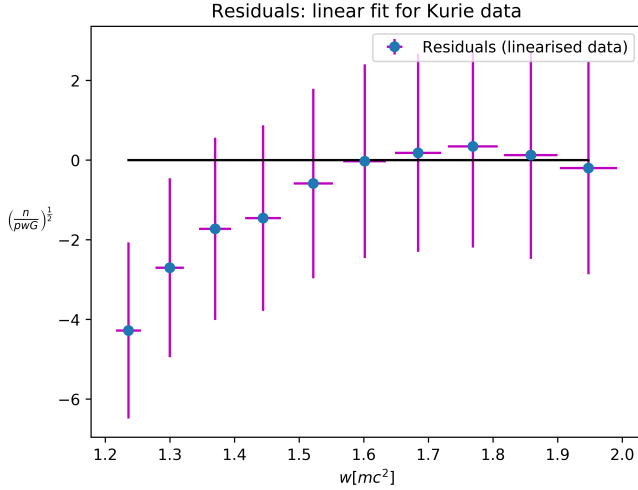


Figure 2: Linear fit residuals for optimised Kurie plot data.

In equation (14) we defined a zeroth order fit for the Kurie Plot. $S_0 = 1$ Using an optimised fitting algorithm we determine the optimal parameters for this linear fit. From these parameters and equation (15) we find $w_0 = 1.03 \pm 0.04$ MeV.

Using w_0 we calculate higher order approximations of shape factor S_n which in turn increases the order and accuracy of w_n . Finally we find that $T = 0.514 \pm 0.05$ MeV. This value is $\sigma = 0.04$ away from true result $T = 0.512$ MeV.

5 Discussion

The dominant problem in our analysis is the process by which we obtained the value of the proportionality constant k . It unlikely that we have found the true value I_k . The value of I_k was simply set to the correspond-

ing current measured for the apparent conversion peak. Since there are only 2 data points visible in our conversion peak a better method would have been to create a lorentzian fit for the data. Unfortunately we were not able to write code and perform this fit adequately so the naive method remained.

Our experimental execution and the theoretical framework of *beta*-decay we use in this report ignores the mass of the neutrino. We hypothesize that the fact that the electrons are emitted with specific momentum ranges is likely closely related to the varying mass of emitted neutrinos.

There are three neutrino flavor states and three discrete neutrino masses with different values (they do not correspond uniquely to the three flavors). A neutrino created with a specific flavor has an associated specific quantum superposition of all three mass states[9].

It is presently known that neutrinos oscillate between different flavors during flight. This oscillation occurs because the three mass state components of the produced flavor travel at different speeds. This means that relative phase shifts between their wave packets develop. Their interaction with the detectors determines how their wave packets combine to produce a varying superposition of three flavors[9].

6 Conclusion

Using a magnetic spectrometer we measure the energy spectrum of electrons emitted as β radiation from a ^{137}Cs source. Our investigation focuses in determining the relationships between the spectrometer's lens current, electrons' momenta and their energy. We find that the value of the kinetic energy of the nuclear transition is $T = 0.514 \pm 0.05$ MeV which is in agreement with the accepted value of $T = 0.512$ MeV.

References

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09/08/20 08:50:21 /home/ana/Documents/uni/PHS3000/code/betarays.py

```
1 # PHS3000
2 # Betarays - Radioactive decay of Cs - 137
3 # Ana Fabela, 08/09/2020
4 import monashspa.PHS3000 as spa
5 from scipy.interpolate import interp1d
6 import numpy as np
7 import pandas as pd
8 import pytz
9 import matplotlib
10 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
11 from pprint import pprint
12 import scipy.optimize
13
14 plt.rcParams['figure.dpi'] = 150
15
16 # Globals
17 hbar = 1.0545718e-34 # [Js]
18 c = 299792458 # [m/s]
19 mass_e = 9.10938356e-31 # [kg]
20 eV = 1.602176634e-19 # [J]
21 MeV = 1e6 * eV
22 keV = 1e3 * eV
23 rel_energy_unit = mass_e * c**2 # to convert SI into relativistic or viceversa
24
25
26 # Desintegration energy
27 # Cs-137 disintegrates by beta minus emission to the excited state of Ba-137 (94.6 %)
28 theory_T = 0.5120 * MeV
29 theory_T_rel = theory_T / rel_energy_unit
30 theory_w_0_rel = theory_T_rel + 1
31 p_0_rel = np.sqrt(theory_w_0_rel**2 - 1)
32
33 data = spa.betaray.read_data(r'beta-ray_data.csv')
34
35 def csv(data_file):
36     # extracting valid data from csv file
37     j = 0
38     for row in data:
39         # print(f'{j=}')
40         if row[0] == pd.Timestamp('2020-08-18 10:26:00+10:00',
41 tz=pytz.FixedOffset(360)):
42             valid_data = data[j:]
43             continue
44             j+=1
45
46     background_count_data = []
47     count = []
48     lens_current = []
49     u_lens_current = []
50     for row in valid_data:
51         if row[3] == 'Closed':
52             # print(row[3])
53             background_count_data.append(row)
54             continue
55             count.append(row[5])
56             lens_current.append(row[6])
57             u_lens_current.append(row[7])
58
59     # make lens current an np.array
60     lens_current = np.array(lens_current)
61     return background_count_data, count, lens_current, u_lens_current
62
63 def correct_count(background_count_data):
```

```

64     # correcting our data by removing avg background count and adjusting it for
    spectrometer resolution (3%)
65     background_count = []
66     for row in background_count_data:
67         background_count.append(row[5])
68     avg_background_count = np.mean(background_count)
69     # print(f"We want to subtract the background count from our data
    {avg_background_count=}")
70     # calculating fractional uncertainty in total background count (delta_t = 24 min)
71     total_background = np.sum(background_count)
72     u_avg_background_count = np.sqrt(total_background) / 4
73
74     # uncertainty in the corrected count
75     background_corrected_count = count - avg_background_count
76
77     #####
78     # I chose the uncertainty in the count to be 15 counts
79     u_background_corrected_count = np.sqrt(15**2 + u_avg_background_count**2)
80     #####
81
82     # As per Siegbahn [9] correction for spectrometers resolution
83     correct_count = background_corrected_count / lens_current
84     u_correct_count = correct_count * np.sqrt((u_background_corrected_count /
    background_corrected_count)**2 + (u_lens_current / lens_current)**2)
85
86     # print(f'\n{total_background=:.0f}')
87     # print(f'{avg_background_count=:.0f}')
88     # print(f'{u_avg_background_count=:.0f}')
89
90     # print(f'\ncorrect counts:{correct_count[8:18]}')
91     # print(f'uncertainty:{u_correct_count[8:18]}')
92
93     return correct_count, u_correct_count
94
95 def compute_k(lens_current):
96     # Finding constant of proportionality in  $p = kI$ 
97     # calibration peak (K) index of k peak is i=20
98     T_K = 624.21 * keV / rel_energy_unit
99     I_k = lens_current[20]
100    k = np.sqrt((T_K + 1)**2 - 1) / I_k
101    # defining appropriate uncertainty for our k peak
102    u_I_k = 0.1 / 2
103    u_k = k * (u_I_k / lens_current[20])
104    # print(f'{T_K=:.3f} mc^2')
105    # print(f'{k=:.3f}')
106    # print(f'{u_I_k=:.3f}')
107    # print(f'{u_k=:.3f}')
108    return k, u_k
109
110 def compute_p_rel(lens_current, k, u_k):
111     # The momentum spectrum (relativistic units)
112     p_rel = k * lens_current
113     u_p_rel = p_rel * np.sqrt((u_k / k)**2 + (0.0005 / lens_current)**2)
114     dp_rel = p_rel[1]-p_rel[0]
115     # print(f'\np :{p_rel[8:18]}')
116     # print(f'uncertainty:{u_p_rel[8:18]}')
117     # print(f'dp :{dp_rel}')
118     return p_rel, u_p_rel, dp_rel
119
120 def interpolated_fermi(p_rel):
121     #  $G = (p_{rel} * F(z=55, w_{rel})) / w_{rel}$ 
122     fermi_data = spa.betaray.modified_fermi_function_data
123     return interp1d(fermi_data[:,0], fermi_data[:,1], kind='cubic')(p_rel)
124
125 def compute_w(p_rel):
126     # KURIE/Fermi PLOT

```

```

127     w_rel = np.sqrt(p_rel**2 + 1) # relativistic energy units
128     u_w_rel = u_p_rel[8:18]
129     # print(f'\n{w_rel=}')
130     # print(f'{u_w_rel=}')
131     return w_rel, u_w_rel
132
133
134 def f(x, m, c):
135     # linear model for optimize.curve_fit()
136     return m * x + c
137
138 def compute_S_n(x, opt_w_n, u_opt_w_n):
139     # shape factor from Siegbahn
140     S_n = x**2 - 1 + (opt_w_n - x)**2
141     u_S_n = np.sqrt((2 * u_x * x)**2 + (2 * np.sqrt(u_opt_w_n**2 + u_x**2) * (opt_w_n -
x))**2)
142     return S_n, u_S_n
143
144 def LHS(S_n, u_S_n):
145     # left hand side of our linearised relation
146     y = np.sqrt(correct_count[8:18] / (p_rel[8:18] * x *
interpolated_fermi(p_rel[8:18]) * S_n))
147     u_y = (y / 2) * np.sqrt((u_correct_count[8:18] / correct_count[8:18])**2 + (2 *
(u_p_rel[8:18] / p_rel[8:18])**2 + (u_interpolated_fermi /
interpolated_fermi(p_rel[8:18]))**2 + (u_S_n / S_n)**2)
148     return y, u_y
149
150 def optimal_fit(f, x, y, u_y):
151     # linear fit
152     # unpack into popt, pcov
153     popt, pcov = scipy.optimize.curve_fit(f, x, y, sigma=u_y, absolute_sigma=False)
154     # To compute one standard deviation errors on the parameters use
155     perr = np.sqrt(np.diag(pcov))
156
157     # optimal parameters
158     opt_K_2, opt_intercept = popt
159     u_opt_K_2, u_opt_intercept = perr
160     # print(f"\noptimised gradient {opt_K_2:.3f} ± {u_opt_K_2:.3f}")
161     # print(f"optimised intercept {opt_intercept:.3f} ± {u_opt_intercept:.3f}")
162
163     optimised_fit = f(x, opt_K_2, opt_intercept)
164     # uncertainty in linear model f given optimal fit
165     u_f = np.sqrt((x * u_opt_K_2)**2 + (u_opt_intercept)**2)
166     # return optimal parameters
167     return opt_K_2, opt_intercept, u_opt_K_2, u_opt_intercept, optimised_fit, u_f
168
169 def iterative_solve(x, w_n, u_w_n):
170     # using our results to find T
171     T = (w_n - 1) * rel_energy_unit
172
173     # print("\nHenlo, this is the start of the while loop")
174     while True:
175         old_T = T
176         S_n, u_S_n = compute_S_n(x, w_n, u_w_n)
177         yn, u_yn = LHS(S_n, u_S_n)
178         K_2, intercept, u_K_2, u_intercept, optimised_fit, u_f = optimal_fit(f, x, yn,
u_yn)
179
180         # using our results to find new w_n
181         w_n = intercept / - K_2
182         u_w_n = np.sqrt((u_K_2 / K_2)**2 + (u_intercept / intercept)**2) * w_n
183
184         # new T in SI units
185         T = (w_n - 1) * rel_energy_unit
186
187         # print(f"T = {T / MeV} MeV")

```

```

188         # print(f"old_T = {old_T / MeV} MeV\n")
189
190         if abs(T - old_T) < 1e-10 * MeV:
191             break
192         # print("\nthis is the end of the while loop, yay bai.")
193
194         u_T = (w_n - 1) * u_w_n / w_n * rel_energy_unit
195         return T, u_T, yn, u_yn, optimised_fit, u_f
196
197     def compare(T, u_T):
198         # comparison to theory
199         diff = 0.512 * MeV - T
200         how_many_sigmas = diff / u_T
201         print(f"\nEXPECTED RESULT T = {theory_T / MeV :.3f} MeV")
202         print(f"(optimised) T = {T / MeV:.3f} ± {u_T / MeV:.2f} MeV")
203         # print(f"difference {diff:.3f}")
204         print(f"number of  $\sigma$  away from true result: {abs(how_many_sigmas):.3f}")
205
206
207
208
209     ##### Calling our functions #####
210
211     # open, read and dissect data file
212     background_count_data, count, lens_current, u_lens_current = csv(data)
213
214     # find constant k
215     k, u_k = compute_k(lens_current)
216
217     # correct background count (accounting for background and resolution (3%))
218     correct_count, u_correct_count = correct_count(background_count_data)
219
220     # find momentum spectrum
221     p_rel, u_p_rel, dp_rel = compute_p_rel(lens_current, k, u_k)
222
223
224
225
226     # our sliced data linearised
227     x, u_x = compute_w(p_rel[8:18])
228
229     # uncertainty in interpolated fermi
230     u_interpolated_fermi = np.sqrt((u_p_rel[8:18] / p_rel[8:18])**2 + (u_x / x)**2) *
        interpolated_fermi(p_rel[8:18])
231
232     # LINEARISED KURIE WITH RESOLUTION CORRECTION
233     y = np.sqrt(correct_count[8:18] / (p_rel[8:18] * x * interpolated_fermi(p_rel[8:18])))
234     u_y = (y / 2) * np.sqrt((u_correct_count[8:18] / correct_count[8:18].clip(min=1))**2 +
        (2 * (u_p_rel[8:18] / p_rel[8:18])**2) + (u_interpolated_fermi /
        interpolated_fermi(p_rel[8:18]))**2)
235
236     # first order fit
237     opt_K_2, opt_intercept, u_opt_K_2, u_opt_intercept, optimised_fit, u_f = optimal_fit(f,
        x, y, u_y)
238     # using our parameters to find opt_w_0
239     opt_w_0 = opt_intercept / - opt_K_2
240     u_opt_w_0 = np.sqrt((u_opt_K_2 / opt_K_2)**2 + (u_opt_intercept / opt_intercept)**2) *
        opt_w_0
241     print(f" w_0 = {opt_w_0 * rel_energy_unit / MeV:.3f} MeV")
242     print(f"u(w_0) = {u_opt_w_0 * rel_energy_unit / MeV:.3f} MeV")
243
244     # ITERATIVE ANALYSIS using Shape factor (higher order fits)
245     T, u_T, yn, u_yn, optimised_fit, u_f = iterative_solve(x, opt_w_0, u_opt_w_0)
246
247     # final comparison to theoretical value T = 0.512 MeV
248     compare(T, u_T)

```



```

249
250
251
252
253 ##### plots #####
254
255 # OPTIMISED FIT PLOT and residuals plot
256 plt.figure()
257 plt.errorbar(
258     x, yn, xerr=u_p_rel[8:18], yerr=u_yn,
259     marker="None", linestyle="None", ecolor="m",
260     label=r"$y = (\frac{n}{p \ w \ G})^{\frac{1}{2}}$", color="g", barsabove=True
261 )
262 plt.plot(
263     x, optimised_fit, marker="None",
264     linestyle="-",
265     label="linear fit"
266 )
267 plt.fill_between(
268     x, optimised_fit - u_f,
269     optimised_fit + u_f,
270     alpha=0.5,
271     label="uncertainty in linear fit"
272 )
273 plt.title("linear fit for Kurie data")
274 plt.xlabel(r"$w \ [mc^2]$" )
275 plt.ylabel(r"$\left ( \frac{n}{p \ w \ G} \right )^{\frac{1}{2}}$", rotation=0,
276     labelpad=18)
277 plt.legend()
278 spa.savefig('Kurie_linear_data_plot.png')
279 # plt.show()
280
281 residuals = optimised_fit - yn
282 plt.figure()
283 plt.errorbar(
284     x, residuals, xerr=u_p_rel[8:18], yerr=u_f,
285     marker="o", ecolor="m", linestyle="None",
286     label="Residuals (linearised data)"
287 )
288 plt.plot([x[0], x[-1]], [0,0], color="k")
289 plt.title("Residuals: linear fit for Kurie data")
290 plt.xlabel(r"$w \ [mc^2]$" )
291 plt.ylabel(r"$\left ( \frac{n}{p \ w \ G} \right )^{\frac{1}{2}}$", rotation=0,
292     labelpad=18)
293 plt.legend()
294 spa.savefig('linear_residuals_Kurie_linear_data.png')
295 # plt.show()
296 ##### plots #####

```