

# Lab report

## K223 Nuclear $\gamma$ - $\gamma$ Angular Correlations

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### 1 Introduction

### 2 Theory

**Anisotropy** of photon distribution would not be present, if there is thermal equilibrium among states. But equilibrium is not achieved in cascaded  $\gamma$ - $\gamma$ , since the state of firstly emitted (firstly detected) photon constraints the angular momentum distribution of intermediate state because of angular momentum conservation[1].

**Angular correlation** of gamma rays of multipole moments  $L_{1,2}$  from  $\gamma$ - $\gamma$  cascade  $I_i \rightarrow I \rightarrow I_f$  is defined as

$$W(\theta) = 1 + \sum_{k=2, \text{ even}}^{k_{\max}} A_{kk} P_k(\cos \theta) \quad (2.1)$$

with  $A_{kk}$  (known given the information of nucleus) coefficients,  $P_k(\cos \theta)$  the Legendre polynomials, and  $k_{\max} = \min(2I, 2L_1, 2L_2)$ [2].

**Coefficient**  $A_{kk}$  is determined, generally with mixed multipole components  $L'_n$  and  $L_n$  ( $n = 1, 2$ ), by

$$A_{kk} = A_k(L_1 L'_1 I_i I) A_k(L_2 L'_2 I_f I) \quad (2.2)$$

$$A_k(L_n L'_n I_{i,f} I) = \frac{F_k(L_n L_n I_{i,f} I) + 2\delta_1(\gamma) F_k(L_n L'_n I_{i,f} I) + \delta_1^2(\gamma) F_k(L'_n L'_n I_{i,f} I)}{1 + \delta_1^2(\gamma)} \quad (2.3)$$

$$F_k(LL'I'I) = (-1)^{I'+I-1} [(2L+1)(2L'+1)(2I+1)(2k+1)]^{1/2} \times \begin{pmatrix} L & L' & k \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \left\{ \begin{matrix} L & L' & k \\ I & I & I' \end{matrix} \right\} \quad (2.4)$$

$$\delta_1(\gamma) = \frac{\langle I | L'_1 \pi'_1 | I_{i,f} \rangle}{\langle I | L_1 \pi_1 | I_{i,f} \rangle} \quad (2.5)$$

with round brackets being  $3j$ -symbols and curly brackets  $6j$ -symbols[2]. Their value can be easily found tabulated, e.g. in [3] and [4].  $\delta_n(\gamma)$  quantifies the mixing of two multipole moments and should be determined by some other methods. If we assume  $L'_n = L_n + 1$  (this is reasonable because of selection rules), then there are 7 quantum numbers to nail down the coefficients:  $I_i, I, I_f, \delta_{1,2}, L_{1,2}$ [2].

**Example** with  $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 0$   $\gamma$ - $\gamma$  cascade. Since the first and last states are of spin 0, the multiplicities of emitted photon must be 1 (whether it is electrical or magnetic depends on the parity of the quantum states). Thus  $k_{\max} = 2$ .

$$W(\theta) = 1 + A_{22} P_2(\cos \theta) \quad (2.6)$$

Since the photon can only have these multipole moments, there is no mixing, i.e.  $L = L'$ . The angular correlation coefficient can be calculated, it is given in [2]

$$W(\theta) = 1 + 0.1020 \cdot \frac{1}{2} (3 \cos^2 \theta - 1) = 0.949 + 0.153 \cos^2 \theta \quad (2.7)$$

Plot of this angular correlation can be found in figure 1.

**Hyperfine structure** can have influence on the angular correlation, since with quantization axis along the direction of first photon the first photon will cause transitions among the  $m$ -states. Thus in the end, the direction of second photon is altered [2].

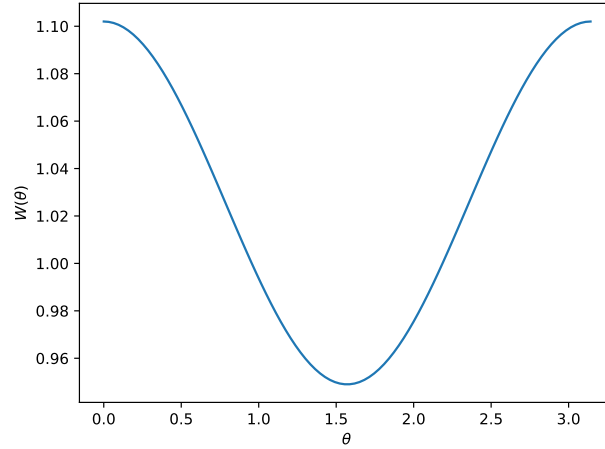


Figure 1: Angular correlation of hypothetical 010 cascade

**Information** can be obtained from measurement of  $\gamma$ - $\gamma$  angular correlations (without extranuclear perturbation): spin angular momenta of excited states, the multipole orders, and the relative multipole composition of radiative transitions[5]. With extranuclear perturbation, we can in addition extract  $g$ -factor and quadrupole momentum of intermediate state. Internal fields of solids, liquids, and metal crystals can be investigated. And some changes in atomic shell is possible to study [2].

## 3 Experimental setups

### 3.1 Key components

**Scintillation detector** is used to detect ionizing radiation in general. Here we have gamma radiation. The purpose of scintillator is to lower photon energy via photoelectric effect, Compton scattering, and pair production [6]. It is then connected to photomultiplier tube (PMT) to generate signals.

**Fast-slow coincidence** is the technique to measure the ionizing radiation separately. The "slow" part will determine the energy of incoming radiation. And the "fast" part is used to measure the time as precisely as possible, since the photomultiplier will be brought to saturation and the height of the pulse is not proportional to radiation energy any more [8]. [How exactly configure the fast and slow part? By adjusting the voltage?](#)

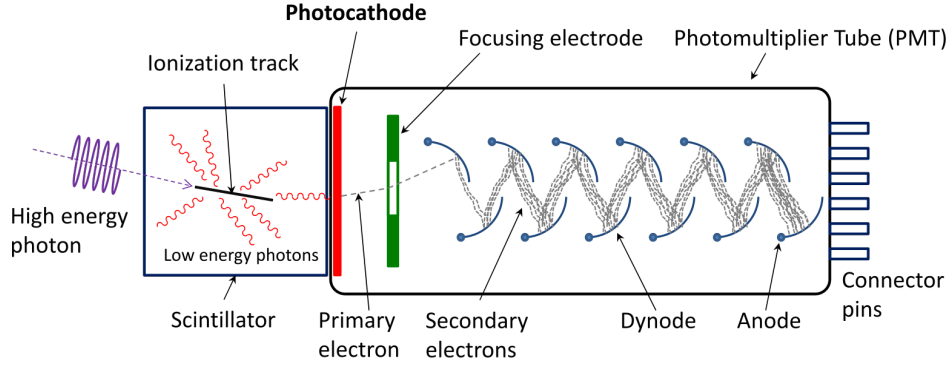


Figure 2: Scintillator with PMT [7]

**SCA** stands for single channel analyzer. Basically it is advanced version of simple discriminator, as one can set both upper-level (ULD) and lower-level discriminator (LLD) for SCA. It reads the input pulse and check whether it is within the preset limits or not. If it is, SCA will produce a uniform digital signal. When applied to PMT, the height of pulse corresponds to energy of radiation. If SCA is built in after PMT, we are essentially picking out photons within the SCA window. Thus the name [9].

Simple discriminator outputs logic signal right after input goes higher than threshold. Since SCA also needs to check the ULD, it will produce output after maximal amplitude. There are two modes: non-timing and timing SCA. Non-timing SCA generates output right after the input comes back to the LLD, i.e. after its peak. It will create the so-called "time walk" meaning that logic output will differ in time, even though the inputs are simultaneous but of different height. Timing SCA, on the other hand, outputs logic signal as soon as the input hits its maximum [9].

**CFD** stands for constant fraction discriminator. As its name suggests, it gets triggered at some preset fraction of maximal amplitude, in order to reduce "walk". In simplest form, CFD works by splitting input signals, inverting one of them, and adding delay to the other. In the end, by combining these two together, we get logic signal with minimal walk [10].

**TAC** stands for time-to-amplitude converter, which outputs pulse with amplitude proportional to time difference between start and end signals.

**Time resolution** of fast coincidence unit is  $< 100$  ns on any single input and  $< 1 \mu\text{s}$  on the coincidence output [11].

**Expected Spectrum** of  $^{60}\text{Co}$  would predominantly consists of 0.31 MeV  $\beta$ -line and 1.1732 MeV, 1.3325 MeV  $\gamma$ -line [12]. Its  $\gamma$ -spectrum can be found in 3, where one can see two clear peaks corresponding to the  $\gamma$ -radiations and some background because of various effects, like pair production (higher  $E$ ), Compton scattering (mid  $E$ ), and photoelectric effect (low  $E$ ) [6].

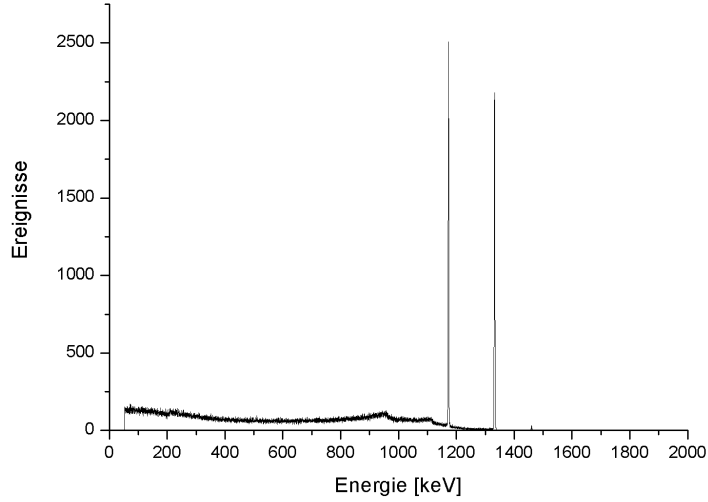


Figure 3:  $^{60}\text{Co}$   $\gamma$ -spectrum [13]

## 4 Task for preparation

### 4.1 Which distances to pick?

Obviously, the count (rate) should be proportional to the solid angle ignoring the anisotropy of radiation. This assumption should not bring too much influence to the results, as long as the size of detection is accounted for in final analysis as (systematic) error. In [2], true count rate is given by

$$N_i^t(\theta) = Mp_i\Omega_i\epsilon_i \quad (4.1)$$

with  $M$  the number of nuclear integrations per unit time,  $p_i$  the probability that this integration is selected,  $\Omega_i$  is solid angle in unit  $4\pi$ , and  $\epsilon_i$  the detector efficiency. According to formula of solid angle, it means that

$$N_i^t(\theta) \propto \frac{1}{r_i^2} \quad (4.2)$$

Follow the same principle, true number of coincidence can be written as [2]

$$C^t(\theta) = Mp_1p_2\Omega_1\epsilon_1\Omega_2\epsilon_2\epsilon_c K(\theta) \quad (4.3)$$

where  $\epsilon_c$  is the efficiency of coincidence unit and  $K(\theta)$  is the directional correlation function.  $K(\theta)$  is basically the "measured" version of  $W(\theta)$ , i.e. what we have in the real world. The coincidence rate is then  $C^t(\theta)/N_1^t(\theta)$  thus

$$\frac{C^t(\theta)}{N_1^t(\theta)} \propto \frac{1}{r_2^2} \quad (4.4)$$

The angular "asymmetry" is represented as the coefficients  $A_{kk}$ . With correction factor, we write

$$A_{kk} = \frac{A_{kk}^{\text{exp}}}{Q_{kk}} \quad (4.5)$$

And it can be calculated by [2]

$$Q_{kk} = Q_k(1)Q_k(2) \quad (4.6)$$

$$Q_k(i) = \frac{J_k(i)}{J_0(i)} \quad (4.7)$$

$$J_k(i) = \int_0^{\pi/2} \epsilon_i(E, \alpha) P_k(\cos \alpha) \sin \alpha \, d\alpha \quad (4.8)$$

$$\epsilon(E, \alpha) = 1 - \exp\{-\tau(E)X(\alpha)\} \quad (4.9)$$

with  $\tau(E)$  the total absorption coefficient and  $X(\alpha)$  the distance traversed in the crystal.

The correction factor will certainly affect the error of angular correlation function, e.g. for (2.6)

$$\delta W(\theta) = \left| \frac{P_2(\cos \theta)}{Q_{kk}} \right| \delta(A_{22}^{\text{exp}}) \quad (4.10)$$

According to table in [2],  $h = 10$  cm would provide the most precise measurement, since the  $Q_i$ 's are closer to 1. So in the actual experiment, one can try to measure the event rate in a short time period. Then the distance should be chosen, so that enough data will be taken in the given time but still have maximal precision.

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