



# Standard Practice for High-Resolution Gamma-Ray Spectrometry of Water<sup>1</sup>

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## 1. Scope

1.1 This practice covers the measurement of gamma-ray emitting radionuclides in water by means of gamma-ray spectrometry. It is applicable to nuclides emitting gamma-rays with energies greater than 45 keV. For typical counting systems and sample types, activity levels of about 40 Bq are easily measured and sensitivities as low as 0.4 Bq are found for many nuclides. Count rates in excess of 2000 counts per second should be avoided because of electronic limitations. High count rate samples can be accommodated by dilution, by increasing the sample to detector distance, or by using digital signal processors.

1.2 This practice can be used for either quantitative or relative determinations. In relative counting work, the results may be expressed by comparison with an initial concentration of a given nuclide which is taken as 100 %. For quantitative measurements, the results may be expressed in terms of known nuclidic standards for the radionuclides known to be present. This practice can also be used just for the identification of gamma-ray emitting radionuclides in a sample without quantifying them. General information on radioactivity and the measurement of radiation has been published (1,2).<sup>2</sup> Information on specific application of gamma spectrometry is also available in the literature (3-5). See also the referenced ASTM Standards in 2.1 and the related material section at the end of this standard.

1.3 *This standard does not purport to address the safety concerns, if any, associated with its use. It is the responsibility of the user of this standard to establish appropriate safety and health practices and determine the applicability of regulatory limitation prior to use.*

<sup>1</sup> This practice is under the jurisdiction of ASTM Committee D19 on Water and is the direct responsibility of Subcommittee D19.04 on Methods of Radiochemical Analysis.

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<sup>2</sup> The boldface numbers in parentheses refer to a list of references at the end of this standard.

## 2. Referenced Documents

### 2.1 ASTM Standards:<sup>3</sup>

D1066 Practice for Sampling Steam

D1129 Terminology Relating to Water

D2777 Practice for Determination of Precision and Bias of Applicable Test Methods of Committee D19 on Water

D3370 Practices for Sampling Water from Closed Conduits

D3648 Practices for the Measurement of Radioactivity

D4448 Guide for Sampling Ground-Water Monitoring Wells

E181 Test Methods for Detector Calibration and Analysis of Radionuclides

## 3. Terminology

3.1 *Definitions*—For definitions of terms used in this practice, refer to Terminology D1129. For terms not defined in this practice or in Terminology D1129, reference may be made to other published glossaries.

## 4. Summary of Practice

4.1 Gamma ray spectra are measured with modular equipment consisting of a detector, high-voltage power supply, preamplifier, amplifier and analog-to-digital converter (or digital signal processor), multichannel analyzer, as well as a computer with display.

4.2 High-purity germanium (HPGe) detectors, p-type or n-type, are used for the analysis of complex gamma-ray spectra because of their excellent energy resolution. These germanium systems, however, are characterized by high cost and require cooling. Liquid nitrogen or electromechanical cooling, or both, can be used.

4.3 In a germanium semiconductor detector, gamma-ray photons produce electron-hole pairs. The charged pair is then collected by an applied electric field. A very stable low noise preamplifier is needed to amplify the pulses of electric charge

<sup>3</sup> For referenced ASTM standards, visit the ASTM website, www.astm.org, or contact ASTM Customer Service at service@astm.org. For *Annual Book of ASTM Standards* volume information, refer to the standard's Document Summary page on the ASTM website.

resulting from gamma photon interactions. The output from the preamplifier is directly proportional to the energy deposited by the incident gamma-ray. These current pulses are fed into an amplifier of sufficient gain to produce voltage output pulses in the amplitude range from 0 to 10 V.

4.4 A multichannel pulse-height analyzer is used to determine the amplitude of each pulse originating in the detector, and accumulates in a memory the number of pulses in each amplitude band (or channel) in a given counting time. Computerized systems with stored programs and interface hardware can accomplish the same functions as hardwired multichannel analyzers. The primary advantages of the computerized system include the capability of programming the multi-channel analyzer functions and the ability to immediately perform data reduction calculations using the spectral data stored in the computer memory or mass storage device. For a 0 to 2-MeV spectrum, 4000 or more channels are typically needed in order to fully utilize a germanium detector's excellent energy resolution.

4.5 The distribution of the amplitudes (pulse heights) of the pulses can be separated into two principal components. One of these components has a nearly Gaussian distribution and is the result of total absorption of the gamma-ray energy in the detector. This peak is normally referred to as the full-energy peak or photopeak. The other component is a continuous one lower in energy than that of the photopeak. This continuous curve is referred to as the Compton continuum and is due to interactions wherein the gamma photons deposit only part of their energy in the detector. These two portions of the curve are shown in Fig. 1. Other peaks, such as escape peaks, backscattered gamma rays or X rays from shields, are often superimposed on the Compton continuum. Escape peaks will be present when gamma-rays with energies greater than 1.02 MeV are emitted from the sample. The positron formed in pair production is usually annihilated in the detector and one or both of the 511-keV annihilation quanta may escape from the detector without interaction. This condition will cause single or

double escape peaks at energies of 0.511 or 1.022 MeV less than the photopeak energy. In the plot of pulse height versus count rate, the size and location of the photopeak on the pulse height axis is proportional to the number and energy of the incident photons, and is the basis for the quantitative and qualitative application of the spectrometer. The Compton continuum serves no useful purpose in photopeak analysis and must be subtracted when peaks are analyzed.

4.6 If the analysis is being directed and monitored by an online computer program, the analysis period may be terminated by prerequisites incorporated in the program. If the analysis is being performed with a modern multichannel analyzer, analysis may be terminated when a preselected time or total counts in a region of interest or in a specified channel is reached. Visual inspection of a display of accumulated data can also be used as a criterion for manually terminating the analysis on either type of data acquisition systems.

4.7 Upon completion of the analysis, the spectral data are interpreted and reduced to include activity of Bq (disintegration per second) or related units suited to the particular application. At this time the spectral data may be inspected to identify the gamma-ray emitters present. This is accomplished by reading the channel number from the *x*-axis and converting to gamma-ray energy by multiplying by the appropriate keV/channel (system gain). In some systems the channel number or gamma-ray energy in keV can be displayed for any selected channel. Identification of nuclides may be aided by catalogs of gamma-ray spectra and other nuclear data tabulations (3,6-8).

4.7.1 Computer programs for data reduction have been used extensively although calculations for some applications can be performed effectively with the aid of a scientific calculator. Data reduction of spectra taken with germanium spectrometry systems is usually accomplished by integration of the photopeaks above a definable background (or baseline) and subsequent activity calculations using a library which includes data such as nuclide name, half-life, gamma-ray energies, and absolute gamma intensity.

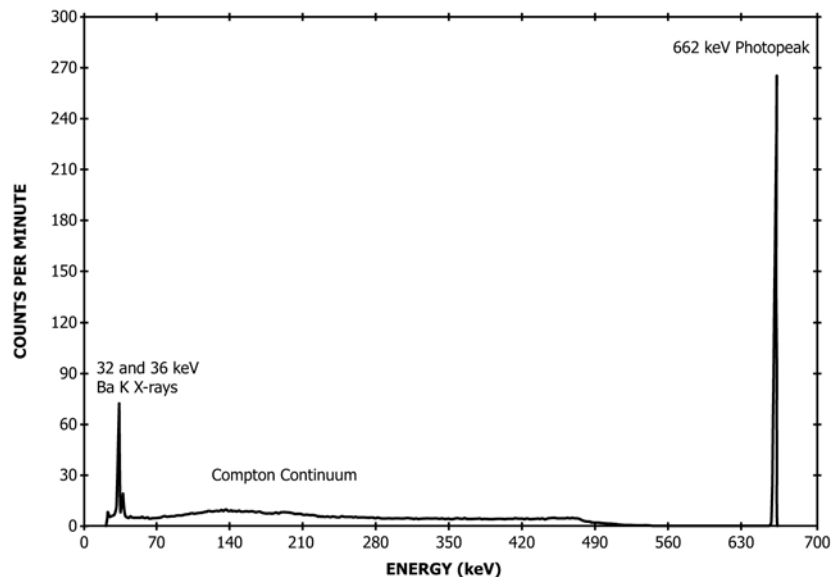


FIG. 1 Cesium-137 Spectrum

## 5. Significance and Use

5.1 Gamma-ray spectrometry is of use in identifying radionuclides and in making quantitative measurements. Use of a semiconductor detector is necessary for high-resolution measurements.

5.2 Variation of the physical geometry of the sample and its relationship with the detector will produce both qualitative and quantitative variations in the gamma-ray spectrum. To adequately account for these geometry effects, calibrations are designed to duplicate all conditions including source-to-detector distance, sample shape and size, and sample matrix encountered when samples are measured.

5.3 Since some spectrometry systems are calibrated at many discrete distances from the detector, a wide range of activity levels can be measured on the same detector. For high-level samples, extremely low-efficiency geometries may be used. Quantitative measurements can be made accurately and precisely when high activity level samples are placed at distances of 10 cm or more from the detector.

5.4 Electronic problems, such as erroneous deadtime correction, loss of resolution, and random summing, may be avoided by keeping the gross count rate below 2000 counts per second ( $s^{-1}$ ) and also keeping the deadtime of the analyzer below 5 %. Total counting time is governed by the radioactivity of the sample, the detector to source distance and the acceptable Poisson counting uncertainty.

## 6. Interferences

6.1 In complex mixtures of gamma-ray emitters, the degree of interference of one nuclide in the determination of another is governed by several factors. If the gamma-ray emission rates from different radionuclides are similar, interference will occur when the photopeaks are not completely resolved and overlap. If the nuclides are present in the mixture in unequal portions radiometrically, and if nuclides of higher gamma-ray energies are predominant, there are serious interferences with the interpretation of minor, less energetic gamma-ray photopeaks. The complexity of the analysis method is due to the resolution of these interferences and, thus, one of the main reasons for computerized systems.

6.2 Cascade summing may occur when nuclides that decay by a gamma-ray cascade are analyzed. Cobalt-60 is an example; 1172 and 1333-keV gamma rays from the same decay may enter the detector to produce a sum peak at 2505 keV and cause the loss of counts from the other two peaks. Cascade summing may be reduced by increasing the source to detector distance. Summing is more significant if a well-type detector is used.

6.3 Random summing is a function of counting rate and occurs in all measurements. The random summing rate is proportional to the total count squared and the resolving time of the detector. For most systems random summing losses can be held to less than 1 % by limiting the total counting rate to 2000 counts per second ( $s^{-1}$ ). Refer to Test Methods E181 for more information.

6.4 The density of the sample is another factor that can effect quantitative results. Errors from this source can be

avoided by preparing the standards for calibration in solutions or other matrices with a density comparable to the sample being analyzed.

## 7. Apparatus

7.1 *Gamma Ray Spectrometer*, consisting of the following components:

### 7.1.1 *Detector Assembly*:

7.1.1.1 *Germanium Detector*—The detector may have a volume of about 50 to 150  $cm^3$ , with a full width at one-half the peak maximum (FWHM) less than 2.2 keV at 1332 keV, certified by the manufacturer. A charge-sensitive preamplifier using low noise field effect transistors should be an integral part of the detector assembly. A convenient support should be provided for samples of the desired form.

7.1.1.2 *Shield*—The detector assembly may be surrounded by an external radiation shield made of a dense metal, equivalent to 102 mm of lead in gamma-ray attenuation capability. It is desirable that the inner walls of the shield be at least 127 mm distant from the detector surfaces to reduce backscatter. If the shield is made of lead or a lead liner, the shield may have a graded inner shield of 1.6 mm of cadmium or tin lined with 0.4 mm of copper, to attenuate the 88-keV Pb X-rays. The shield should have a door or port for inserting and removing samples.

7.1.1.3 *High Voltage Power/Bias Supply*—The bias supply required for germanium detectors usually provides a voltage up to 5000 V and up to 100  $\mu A$ . The power supply should be regulated to 0.1 % with a ripple of not more than 0.01 %. Line noise caused by other equipment should be removed with rf filters and additional regulators.

7.1.1.4 *Amplifier*—An amplifier compatible with the preamplifier and with the pulse-height analyzer shall be provided.

### 7.1.2 *Data Acquisition and Storage Equipment*:

7.1.2.1 *Data Acquisitions*—A multichannel pulse-height analyzer (MCA) or stand-alone analog-to-digital-converter (ADC) under software control of a separate computer, performs many functions required for gamma-ray spectrometry. An MCA or computer collects the data, provides a visual display, and outputs final results or raw data for later analysis. The four major components of an MCA are the ADC, the memory, control, and input/output. More recently, digital signal processors (DSP) can directly amplify and digitize signals from the preamplifier, replacing individual amplifier and ADC components. The ADC digitizes the analog pulses from the amplifier. These pulses represent energy. The digital result is used by the MCA to select a memory location (channel number) which is used to store the number of events which have occurred with that energy. Simple data analysis and control of the MCA is accomplished with microprocessors. These processors control the input/output, channel summing over set regions of interest, and system energy calibration to name a few examples.

7.1.2.2 *Data Storage*—Because of the use of microprocessors modern MCAs provide a wide range of input and output (I/O) capabilities.