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# 1 Theoretical Background

In this section we will introduce all the theoretical background needed to perform the experiment and gain some intuition about the underlying physics and experimental aspects of Mößbauer spectroscopy.

## 1.1 The Doppler Effect

The ability to adjust the radiated energy emitted by the source, to match the energy levels of the absorber lies at the heart of resonant spectroscopy. In this experiment we use a radioactive source, which emits photons with the energy  $E_\gamma = 14.4 \text{ keV}$ . To measure the absorption spectrum of the absorber material (Iron and stainless steel) the absorber is moved relatively to the source, such that the radiation emitted by the source gets Doppler shifted for the moving absorber. The Doppler effect shifts the frequency of electromagnetic radiation by

$$f_r = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{v}{c}}{1 + \frac{v}{c}}} f_s, \quad (1)$$

where  $v$  is the relative speed with which the receiver moves away from the source and  $c$  is the speed of light. Expanding eq. (1) to first order in the relative speed one obtains

$$f_r \approx \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right) f_s. \quad (2)$$

Now using the photon energy  $E_\gamma = h f$  one obtains

$$E_{\gamma,r} = \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right) E_{\gamma,s}, \quad (3)$$

where Planck's constant  $h$  cancels on both sides. Note however, that  $v$  is positive if the receiver moves away from the source and  $v$  is negative, when it moves towards the source. So concluding the energy of the photon emitted by the source is shifted by  $\Delta E = \frac{v}{c} E_0$  and the sign depends on the direction of propagation of the receiver.

## 1.2 Gamma Radiation

In this subsection we briefly introduce the mechanisms which lead to gamma radiation in this experiment. First and foremost gamma radiation is just high energetic electromagnetic radiation which arises from the radioactive decay of excited atomic nuclei. The photons, which are used in this experiment, come from a radioactive cobalt source, which decays via the mechanisms shown in fig. 1. Other than the used gamma decay there are also two more gamma decays which contribute in this experiment as background, due to Compton scattering, as discussed in section 1.3.

## 1.3 Interaction of Electromagnetic Radiation and Matter

For every experiment it is necessary to understand the background processes that contaminate the data. Since in this experiment electromagnetic radiation is used to investigate the energetic

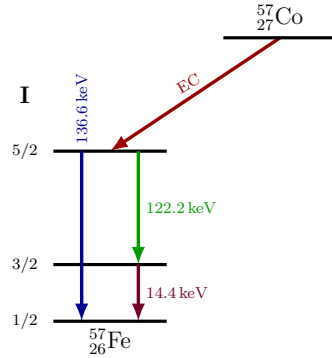


Figure 1: In this figure a simplified decay scheme of  $^{57}\text{Co}$  is shown. The cobalt decays via electron capture to an excited state of  $^{57}\text{Fe}$ . This excited state decays to the ground state via the radiation of high energy photons.

properties of two materials it is important to understand how this radiation interacts with matter. The three main mechanisms are the photoelectric effect, Compton scattering and pair production. The absorption coefficient is plotted against the photon energy in fig. 2 to illustrate the contribution of the different mechanisms to the total absorption, in dependence of the photon energy.

**Photoelectric Effect** The photoelectric effect describes the extraction of an electron out of its bound state by a photon. The resulting free electrons are called photoelectrons. The energy of a photoelectron is given by  $E_e = E_\gamma - E_B$ , where  $E_B$  is the binding energy of the electron in its orbit. This holds since the photon in the photoelectric effect get fully absorbed by the shell electron. This is also the reason why this process does not contribute to the underground in this experiment, it only reduces the signal.

**Pair Production** Pair production describes the scattering event  $\gamma + Z \rightarrow Z + e^+ + e^-$ , where  $Z$  represents an atom with atomic number  $Z$ . This process is due to energy conservation only possible for photons with an energy of  $E_\gamma \geq 2 \cdot m_e c^2 = 1.022 \text{ MeV} c^2$ . Above this energy the pair production mechanism gets more and more important as seen in fig. 2. Within the energy regime of the radiation used in this experiment this effect has no influence at all.

**Compton Scattering** The most dominant background for this experiment is caused by Compton scattering of high energy photons. Which is caused due to the fact that the photon is not absorbed instantly but scattered while changing the frequency. As seen in fig. 1, there are two decay modes in which high energy photons with  $E_\gamma > 14.4 \text{ keV}$  get produced. The frequency of these photons can be lowered to 14.4 keV by repeated Compton scattering.

**Attenuation of Gamma Radiation** The absorbers used in this experiment are covered with acrylic glass. Therefore, it is of interest to know how much of the radiation is absorbed in these

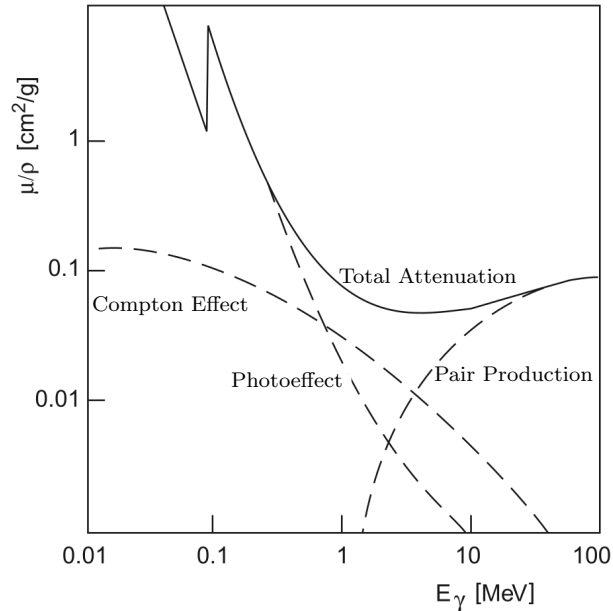


Figure 2: In this picture the photon absorption coefficient  $\mu/\rho$  is plotted against the photon energy. The three main interaction mechanisms between light and matter are displayed – Photoelectric Effect, Compton Effect and Pair Production. The picture is taken from the textbook of B.Povh [11]

layers of acrylic glass. This attenuation can be quantified by the exponential attenuation law

$$T := \frac{I}{I_0} = \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\rho} \cdot \rho d\right), \quad (4)$$

where  $I$  is the intensity,  $I_0$  is the incident intensity,  $\rho$  is the density of the absorber material and  $d$  the thickness of the absorber.

## 1.4 The Mößbauer Effect

The central phenomenon of this experiment is the Mößbauer effect, which describes the “recoilless emission”<sup>1</sup> of gamma rays from a nucleus confined in a crystal lattice. It is somewhat instructive to first discuss a classical two body decay. So lets assume a resting nucleus of mass  $m$ , which is in an energy state with energy  $E_2$ , decays to a lower energy state with energy  $E_1$  by emission of a photon with frequency  $f$ . The conservation of momentum and energy reads

$$0 = \frac{hf}{c} + mv,$$

$$E_2 = E_1 + hf + \frac{mv^2}{2}.$$

<sup>1</sup>The term “recoilless” is somewhat misleading, since the crystal as a whole is always recoiling after the emission of a photon. In the literature the Mößbauer effect is also called “photon emission without transfer of energy to internal degrees of freedom of the lattice” [3]

Solving this set of equations for the frequency of the photon one yields

$$hf = (E_2 - E_1) - \frac{h^2 v^2}{2mc^2} =: E_0 - R,$$

where  $R$  is the recoil energy of the nucleus. Therefore the photon energy is  $E_\gamma < E_0$ , because some of the energy from the decay gets absorbed as recoil of the nucleus. If however the excited nucleus is bound within a crystal lattice, there is a non-vanishing probability<sup>2</sup> for the emission of a photon without excitation of a vibrational mode of the crystal lattice (phonon) which would absorb a part of the decay energy  $E_0$ . The recoil energy of the whole lattice can be neglected, since  $m_{\text{Nucleus}} \ll M_{\text{Lattice}}$ . So the defining property which needs to be known to compute the probability for the emission of a photon with  $E_\gamma \approx E_0$  is the phonon spectrum of the lattice, to which the nucleus is confined. There are two simple models, which make a prediction about the phonon spectrum. These models are introduced very briefly in the following paragraphs.

**Einstein Model** In the Einstein model each atom is assumed to be bound in an harmonic potential. Furthermore the harmonic potentials of all nuclei has the same natural frequency  $\omega_E$  (also called eigenfrequency), therefore the atoms vibrate independently which is a strong physical restriction which gets relaxed in the Debye model. The Einstein model allows the description of the heat capacity of the crystal at high temperatures. For a complete discussion of the model see e.g. H. Meyers, Introductory Solid State Physics [8].

**Debye Model** The Debye model assumes the frequency spectrum to be that of an elastic continuum. It therefore describes atomic vibrations as phonons in a box. In contrast to a free photon gas confined to a box, there is a maximum frequency for phonons since there is only a finite amount of vibrating atoms in the lattice. The Debye model allows the description of the heat capacity at the low temperature and high temperature limits, but deviated from the observed behavior for intermediate temperatures.

#### 1.4.1 Debye-Waller Factor

To quantify the incidence of “recoilless” nuclear transitions the fraction of “recoilless” emissions of photons can be used. This fraction is called the Debye-Waller factor  $f$ . The Debye-Waller factor of the source can be computed via

$$f_S = \frac{\dot{N}(\infty) - \dot{N}(0)}{\dot{N}(\infty)} \left( 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}T_A\right) J_0\left(\frac{1}{2}i T_A\right) \right)^{-1}, \quad (5)$$

where

$$J_0(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos(x \sin(\tau)) d\tau \quad (6)$$

and  $T_A$  is the effective absorber thickness. A detailed discussion about these expressions is found in [6].

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<sup>2</sup>The Mößbauer effect is of purely quantum-mechanical nature. For a self-contained discussion based on basic quantum mechanical principles we recommend [3]

## 1.5 Line Width of Spectral Lines

The natural line width of emission/absorption lines is related to the life-time of the state by

$$\Gamma_{\text{nat.}} = \frac{\hbar}{\tau}, \quad (7)$$

where  $\gamma_{\text{nat.}}$  is the full width at half maximum of the absorption/emission peak,  $\tau$  is the lifetime of the state and  $\hbar$  is the reduced Planck constant. This can be heuristically justified by the energy-time uncertainty

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar. \quad (8)$$

## 1.6 Isomer Shift

The energy levels of an atomic nucleus are dependent on exterior electric and magnetic fields like the ones generated by the electron shell of the atom. If for example the atom is confined in a lattice, the electron density of the atom may change a little and thus also the energy level of the state of the nucleus. If now source and absorber are slightly different in their chemical composition of the lattice, the energy states of the nuclei in the absorber and source are shifted differently with respect to each other. Therefore, the isomer shift is also called chemical shift. This effect will be observed by a slight shift of the resonances from the expected positions.

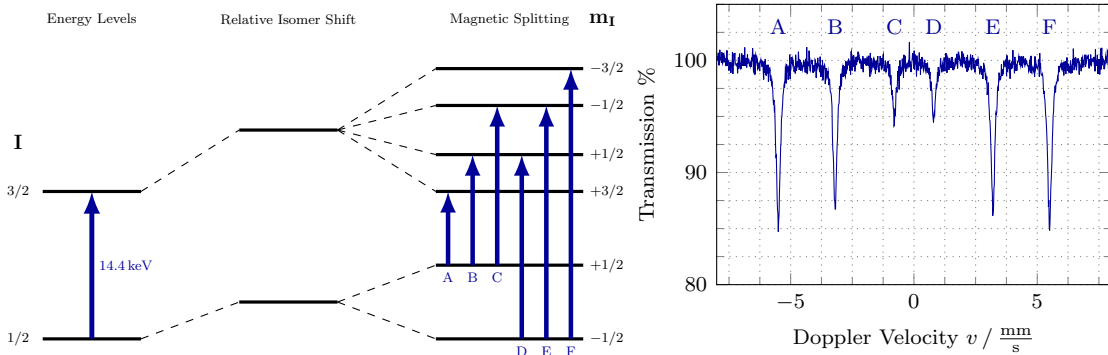


Figure 3: Energy Level diagram and expected Mößbauer spectrum illustrating the magnetic level-splitting in  $^{57}\text{Fe}$  nuclei states. Note that the displayed data is not actual measurement data but generated to sketch the signal we expect to see.

## 1.7 Hyperfine Splitting of Nuclei States

In absence of any exterior fields a nucleus can be described by fermionic particles confined in an effective spherical symmetric single particle potential, like a Wood-Saxon potential. Such an Hamiltonian has degenerate eigenenergies. If now a magnetic field is applied, like the one generated by the electron shell, the angular degeneracy is lifted. This lifting of degeneracy is closely related

to the fact that the spherical symmetry of the Hamiltonian is broken, since there is now a preferred direction for the angular momentum given by the quantum number  $I$ . So the states which were “ $2I + 1$ ”-fold degenerate are now splitted due to their different magnetic quantum number  $m_I$ , which is the  $z$ -axis projection of the angular momentum. The energy shift is given by

$$E_{\text{HF}} = \frac{\mu m_I B}{I},$$

where  $\mu$  is the magnetic moment  $m_I$  is the magnetic quantum number assigned to the state,  $B$  is the absolute value of the exterior magnetic field and  $I$  is the spin quantum number. So the photons which would excite a state specified by  $(E_1, I_1, m_{I_1})$  to a state specified by  $(E_2, I_2, m_{I_2})$  needs to have the energy

$$E_\gamma = (E_2 - E_1) + E_{\text{Iso.}} - \left( \frac{\mu m_{I_2}}{I_2} - \frac{\mu m_{I_1}}{I_1} \right) B, \quad (9)$$

where  $E_1, E_2$  are the energies of the degenerate  $I_1, I_2$  states and  $E_{\text{Iso.}}$  is the energy of the relative isomer shift between source and absorber. To decide which transitions are possible one finds for dipole order in perturbation theory the selection rules:  $\Delta I = \pm 1$  and  $\Delta m_I = 0, \pm 1$ . The transitions of interest and the expected spectrum in this experiment are displayed in fig. 3.



## 2 Experimental Setup

In this section we will introduce the setup used in this experiment. The main setup is shown in fig. 4, it consists of a high precision engine, which is able to run at very precise velocities. This engine moves a mount on which the different absorbers can be placed. In this experiment we used an iron and a stainless steel absorber. The  $^{57}\text{Co}$  source is fixed in the setup and cannot be moved. Additionally there is a special mount for additional sources, which are used for calibration. At the other end of the setup there is a scintillator detector to detect the gamma radiation. We will now briefly discuss the functionality of a scintillator.

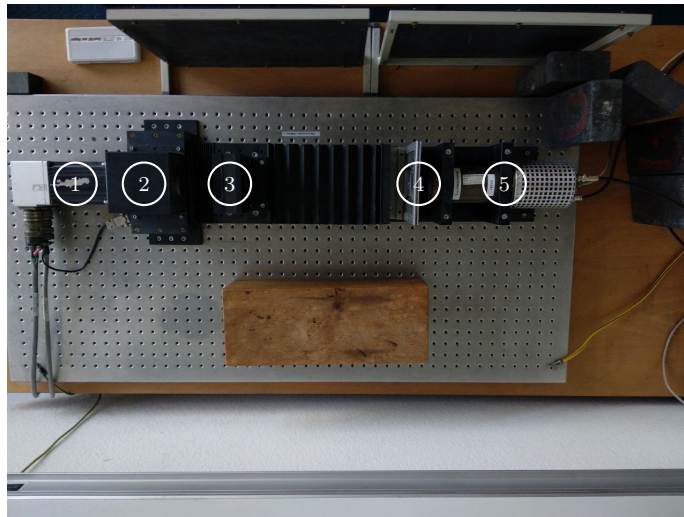


Figure 4: In this figure the actual setup used in this experiment is shown. (1) High precision engine to move the absorber, (2)  $^{57}\text{Fe}$  Source, (3) Mount for radio active sources for calibration and the absorber, (4) Mount for Aluminium/Plexiglas shielding, (5) Scintillator detector.

### 2.1 Scintillator

In this experiment one scintillator is used to detect high energy photons, so called gamma radiation. There are two different types of scintillating materials, organic and inorganic ones. Inorganic scintillators consist of doped crystals. When ionizing radiation hits the scintillator an electron is excited from the valence band into the conduction band. When this excited electron decays back into the valence band it emits photon. Since the crystal is doped, the photon will not be reabsorbed by the scintillator and can leave the material and then be detected. In organic scintillators the detectable photons are produced when molecular states are excited and decay again, usually these photons are in the ultra violet frequency range.

**Photomultiplier** In the scintillator the high energy photons get absorbed and produce a number of secondary photons with lower energy which can be detected. Therefore a photomultiplier is used.

The photons produced in the scintillator get directed towards a photo cathode by using a light guide. There one or more electrons gets extracted via the photoelectric effect. These electrons are then accelerated towards a dynode where secondary electrons are released. This is iterated multiple time generating more and more electrons until a measurable signal is produced. This process is sketched in fig. 5

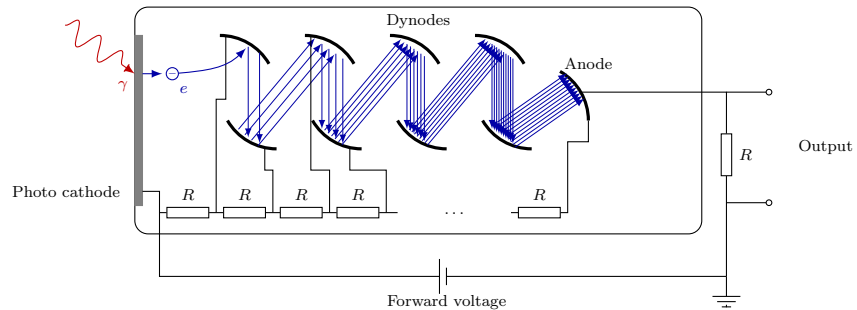


Figure 5: In this figure the functionality of a photomultiplier is sketched.

## 2.2 NIM Modules

In this experiment several nuclear instrumentation standard (NIM) modules are used for signal processing. As shown in fig. 7 In this experiment we used a multi channel analyzer (MCA), a single channel analyzer (SCA) and a linear gate. The single channel analyzer was used as a discriminator. We set an upper and a lower boundary on the signal, such that the SCA only returns a positive signal if a photon within the set window is detected (The goal is to filter for  $E_\gamma \approx 14.4$  keV photons.). This logical signal is put into the linear gate along with the amplified signal from the photomultiplier and then fed into the MCA if the SCA and the amplifier give a signal simultaneously. The wiring is displayed in fig. 6.

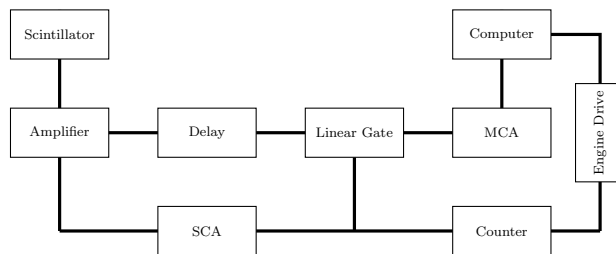


Figure 6: In this figure a schematic setup of the NIM modules is shown to illustrate how we connected the individual modules.

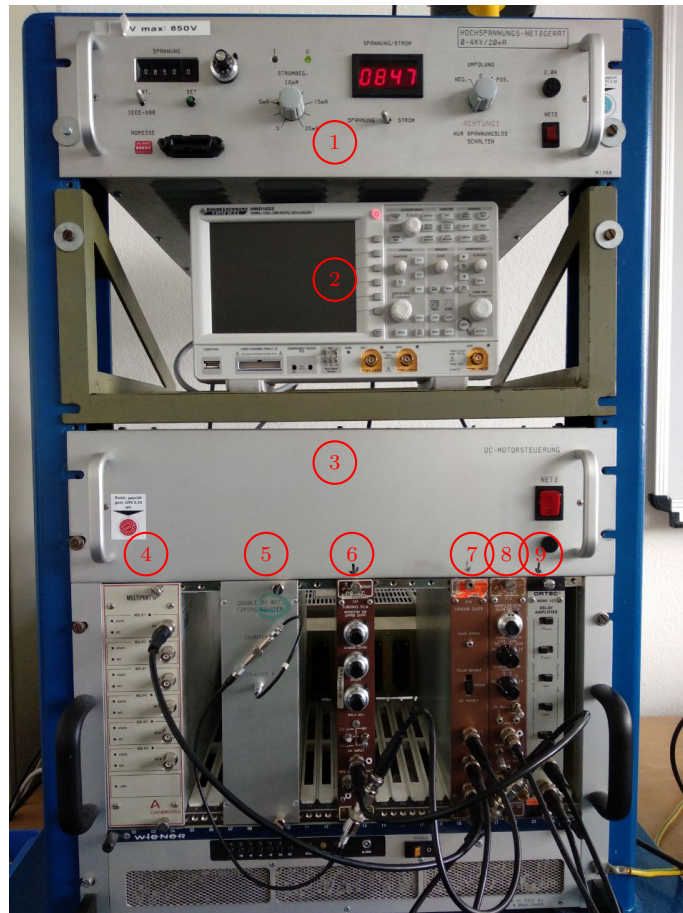
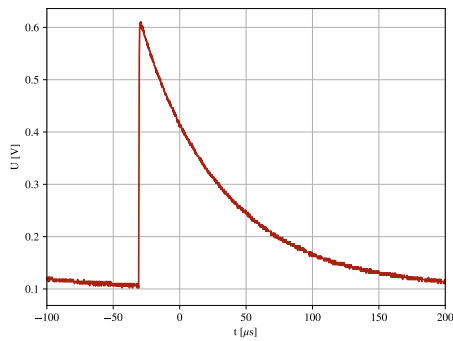


Figure 7: In this figure the electronic devices used in this experiment are shown. (1) High voltage supplier for the photomultiplier, (2) Oscilloscope to show the signals of the NIM devices, (3) Voltage supply for the engine, (4) Multi channel analyzer (MCA), (5) Counter, (6) Timing single channel analyzer (SCA), (7) Linear gate, (8) Amplifier, (9) Delay.

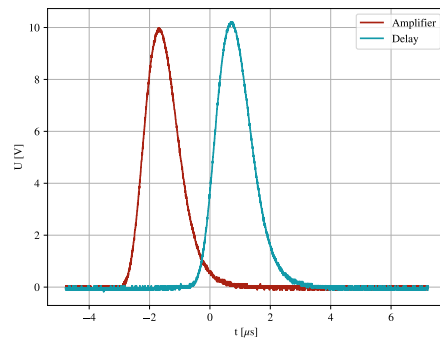
### 3 Procedure

The goal of the experiment is the measurement of absorption spectra of stainless steel and iron. This is done by moving the absorber in front of a 14.4 keV source, so we can make use of the Doppler effect. As the source does not only emit photons of the right energy the setup has to be calibrated and set to a proper energy window.

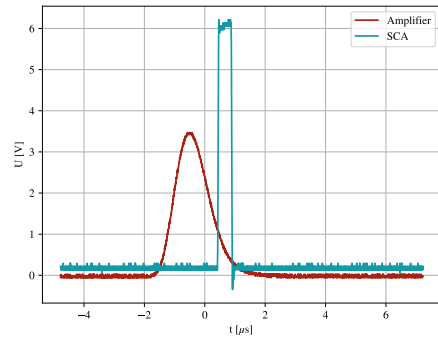
**Analysis of the Setup** The absorption spectrum is measured by a scintillator and passed through different components to create a computer readable signal with proper settings. While connecting the components following the scheme shown in fig. 6 an oscilloscope was used to check the signal after every step.



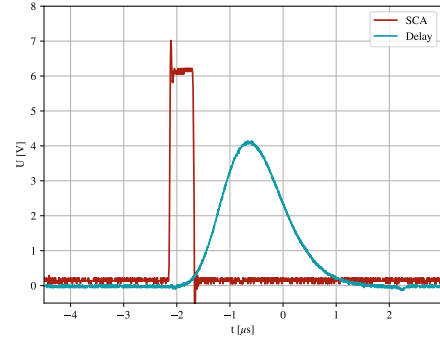
(a) Signal of the preamplifier located behind the photomultiplier.



(b) Amplified signal in comparison to the delayed signal.



(c) The output of the amplifier triggers a logical yes in the SCA.



(d) The delayed signal that passed the linear gate that was opened due to the logical yes of the SCA.

Figure 8: Path of the signal through the used setup.

In fig. 8 the signal after the steps is shown. The exponential decay in the preamplifier originates

from the discharge of a capacitor. Afterwards the signal gets amplified and shaped to a Gaussian and is splitted into two signals. One signal is delayed with a delay unit and we can see, that the signals are of the same shape but shown an offset. The other output of the amplifier is lead to a SCA and triggers a logical yes. The signal of the SCA is connected to a linear gate, which opens for a given logical yes and lets the delayed amplifier signal pass.

**Calibration of the MCA** The signal that passes the described signal is lead to a MCA and the different energies are assigned to bins. As for the later measurements we are only interested in detecting photons with 14.4keV we need to be able to determine the bin that corresponds to that energy. This is done by calibrating the MCA with help of five known spectra lines that were measured, so we could determine the bin in the MCA that corresponds to the known energy of the measured spectrum.

This calibration measurement was done twice. First with a small Corse Gain which gives a good overview of the spectra and a second one with a higher Corse Gain, that was used for the later measurements.

With help of these calibrations the SCA-discriminator window was set so that only photons in the desired energy range pass, we found an upper bound of 2.10 and a lower bound of 1.10 for a Corse Gain of 100.

**Background** To determine the count rate that originates by Compton scattering of the absorber the count rate for different thicknesses of aluminium were measured. The sledge with the absorber was at rest during this measurement and the stainless steel absorber was used, as for the later calculations this is the probe for which the absolute count rate is of great interest. Nevertheless this can also be used for the iron absorber as the background should be the same.

Furthermore the attenuation of gamma radiation by acrylic glass was determined by measuring the count rate without an absorber, but acrylic glass inserted in the thickness of the acrylic glass that wraps the absorber.

**Mößbauer Spectroscopy** After the calibration and the background measurements the spectra of stainless steel and iron were measured. The absorber was placed on the sledge and a **LabView** software was used to set velocity ranges and start and stop the measurement. The measurement times, as well as the clustering density of the velocities were chosen as a compromise between accuracy and time.

## 4 Analysis

### 4.1 Energy Calibration

For the measurements of the iron and the stainless steel spectra a sensitive energy window needs to be determined. In this analysis the calibration with a Coarse Gain set to 100 is shown, but it was only used for error estimation on the chosen window as it was measured in the end of the experiment. On the first day of the experiment a calibration for a Coarse Gain of 20 was recorded and the window of the experiment was set by eye with help of that calibration.

To find a window the Multi Channel Analyser is calibrated, so the position of the 14.4 keV peak can be determined. For this calibration five different probes were measured and the channel that corresponds to the  $K_{\alpha}$  decay peak with the energies listed in the instruction [1] was determined by fitting a Gaussian function of the form

$$G(x) = A \exp\left(-\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) + C.$$

$A$  is the amplitude,  $\mu$  the position of the maximum,  $\sigma$  the variance and  $C$  the offset. The fits are shown in fig. 15 and the fit parameters that lead to the linear regression can be found in table 3.

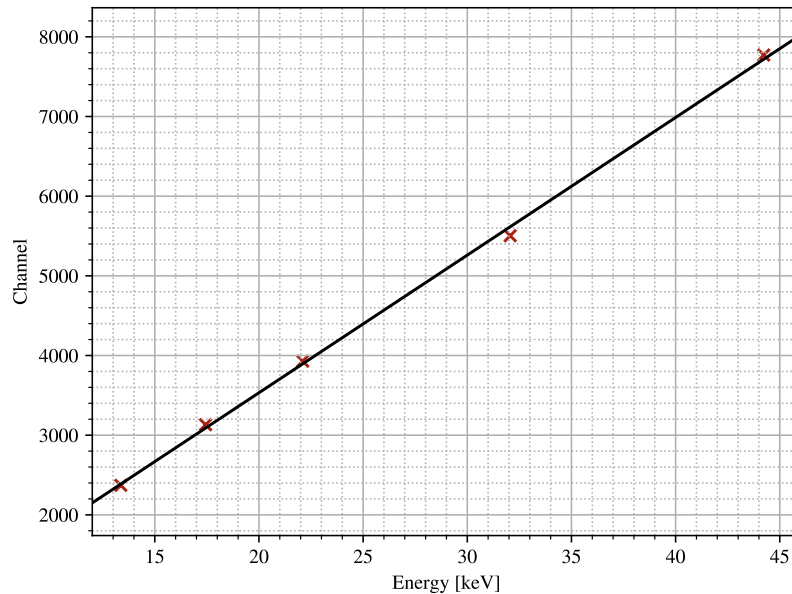


Figure 9: Linear regression to determine the relation between channel and energy. The shown points correspond to the five different probes that were used for calibration (see fig. 15)

The found positions were plotted against the corresponding energy and a linear regression was performed which yields

$$f(E) = (173 \pm 3) \text{ Channel/keV} \cdot E - (77 \pm 89) \text{ Channel}. \quad (10)$$

The fit looks as expected, the offset normally should be zero but this is fulfilled within the uncertainty which is rather big due to the very few data points. This fit can now be used to determine the channel for 14.4 keV would fall and we find  $\text{Channel}_{14.4} \approx 2414 \pm 46$ .

Anyways this calculated channel was not used to determine the window, as the amplification was changed after the first calibration and it was not certain if there would be enough time for a second calibration. To determine the window the  $K_{\alpha}$ -line of Rubidium was used. With help of the first calibration it was possible to determine the position of that peak and it was possible to follow that peak to the higher Corse Gain. Therefore for the new amplification a window was chosen with regard to that peak, as it is rather close to the Cobalt peak we later measure. Afterwards the Cobalt-spectrum for this window was looked at and the window was adjusted a little. This results in the peak that is shown in fig. 10. Later, after the second calibration was performed the energy the peak corresponds to was calculated with the inverse of eq. (10) and we found  $E_{\text{Co}} = (13.99 \pm 0.02) \text{ keV}$ , so the window was chosen around the right peak, but we note that the window is much wider than it needs to be to satisfy the uncertainty of the calibration, so this might lead to higher noise in the later measurements. Nevertheless it is also not recommended to choose a really narrow window, as this might cut of too much data and yield bad statistics.

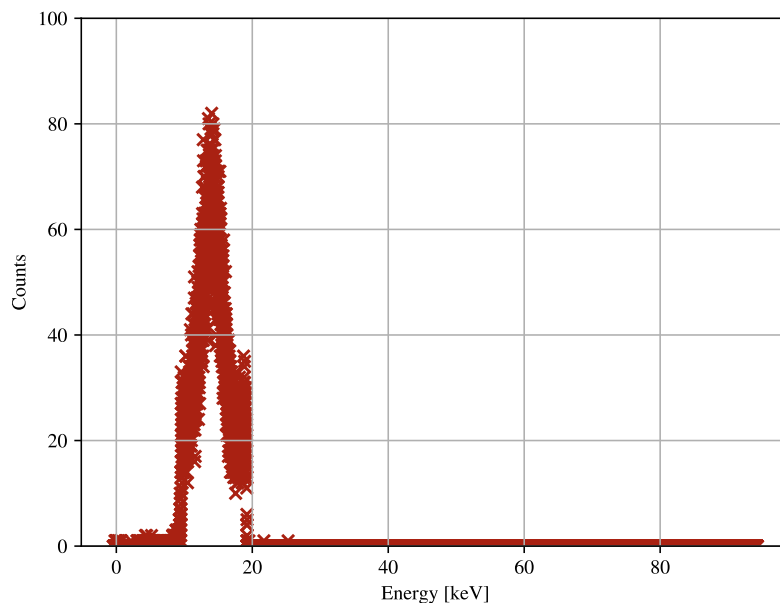


Figure 10: Measured Cobalt spectrum after the window was set. The energies are calculated with help of the second calibration.

## 4.2 Compton Background

With the set window of the SCA the Compton background was measured. The window just counts photons with an energy around the searched 14.4 keV, but due to the Compton effect the higher Cobalt energies 136 keV and 122 keV can be decreased and measured in the window. As these photons do not correspond to the absorption that should be measured this background needs to be determined and subtracted. The background was determined by measuring the count rates for different thicknesses of aluminium in front of the scintillator for the stainless steel absorber. The stainless steel absorber was chosen as the absolute count rate is of interest for determining the Debye-Waller factor which is done for stainless steel and not of great interest for the iron absorber as for that case we are only interested in the position of the peaks. The aluminium shielding will absorb the 14.4 keV photons and for a thickness of about 1 mm around 90 % of the photons are absorbed. The higher energy photons are not effected this much by the aluminium and around 95 % of the photons can pass a thickness of 1 mm. Due to the different reactions on increasing aluminium thickness a double exponential function can be observed when plotting the count rate against the aluminium thickness.

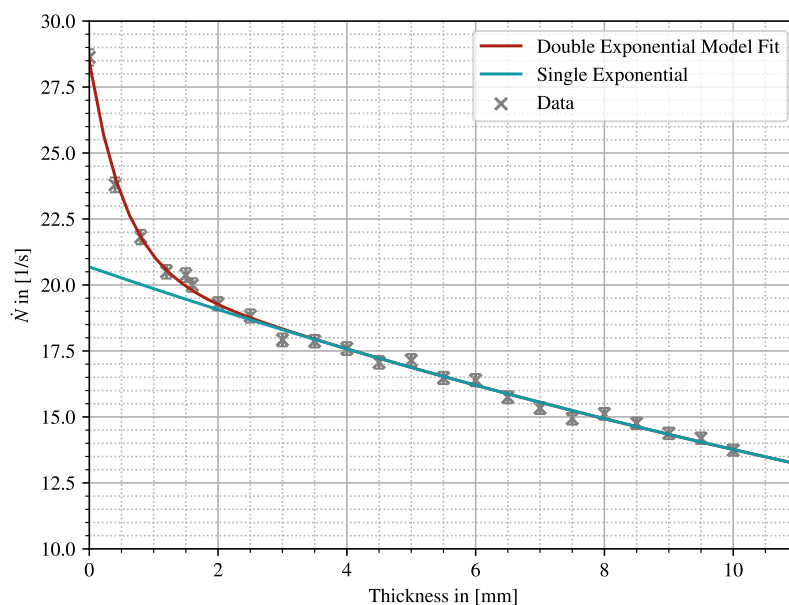


Figure 11: Measurement of the count rate for different thicknesses of aluminium and the stainless steel absorber. The fit of a double exponential function is shown, as well as the slower decaying part that is extrapolated to zero. The count rate of the slower part at zero corresponds to the Compton offset.



As the data taken by the MCP are absolute counts the count rate is determine by

$$\dot{N} = \frac{N}{t}$$

$$s_{\dot{N}} = \frac{\sqrt{N}}{t},$$

where for the error on the count rate a normal Poisson error was applied. The taken data is shown in fig. 11 and a double exponential was fitted to the data

$$\dot{N}(d) = A \exp(-\mu d) + B \exp(-\nu d).$$

The slower decaying part of this double exponential corresponds to the Compton part and is shown separately and extrapolated to an absorber thickness of zero. With the extrapolation to zero the count rate of the Compton background can be determine to

$$\dot{N}_{\text{Compton}} = B = (20.68 \pm 0.17) \text{ Counts/s.}$$

### 4.3 Acrylic Glass

Both absorbers are fixed between two acrylic glass plates that also absorb gamma radiation. Thus the absolute count rate is reduced, so to determine the Debye-Waller factor this dampening needs to be determined, so the measurement can be cleared by this background. This was done by measuring the count rate with two acrylic glass plates, but without an absorber, as well as a clean measurement of the count rate without anything inserted. The absorption in acrylic glass follows the Beer-Lambert law and is depended on the thickness of the glass  $d = (2.00 \pm 0.02) \text{ mm}$ , the density  $\rho_{\text{a.g.}} = 1.19 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3}$  and the attenuation coefficient  $\mu/\rho(E = 14.4 \text{ keV}) \approx 1.101 \frac{\text{cm}^2}{\text{g}}$  [1] that has been extrapolated by the given data. The effect of this dampening can be calculated using these material constants by

$$\dot{N}(d) = \dot{N}_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\rho} \rho_{\text{a.g.}} d\right) = \dot{N}_0 R(d).$$

$R(d)$  is the dampening factor that can be calculated analytically with the given formula as well as with the measured count rates by

$$R_{\text{exp.}} = \frac{\dot{N}(d)}{\dot{N}_0},$$

where  $\dot{N}_0$  is the count rate without absorber of acrylic glass. The experimental measurement gives  $R_{\text{exp.}} = 0.837 \pm 0.007$  and the analytical calculation gives  $R_{\text{ana.}} = 0.77 \pm 0.04$ , where both errors were calculated with Gaussian error propagation. The values do not completely match but are of the same magnitude, for the later calculations the experimental dampening factor is used as this is expected to match the experimental behaviour and all uncertainties are well defined and not dependend from extrapolating some given data to the needed energy.

#### 4.4 Measurements of Stainless Steel

The measurements of the stainless steel absorber were done in a velocity range from circa  $-2 \frac{\text{mm}}{\text{s}}$  to  $2 \frac{\text{mm}}{\text{s}}$  and with varying measurement times. For each measurement the count rate  $\dot{N}_{\text{meas.}}$  was calculated with its error, again a Poisson error was used. Afterwards the count rate was cleared by the Compton background and the absorption due to the acrylic glass. First the rate is cleared by the Compton background so only the rate created by the photons of interest, so the 14.4 keV photons, remain. Afterwards this new rate is weighed with the damping factor due to the acrylic glass, as this factor has just been measured or calculated for this energy. Thus the new cleared count rate is given by

$$\dot{N} = \frac{\dot{N}_{\text{meas.}} - \dot{N}_{\text{Compton}}}{R_{\text{exp.}}} \quad (11)$$

The error on this was propagated with Gaussian error propagation and the measured count rate without its background is shown in the plot fig. 12.

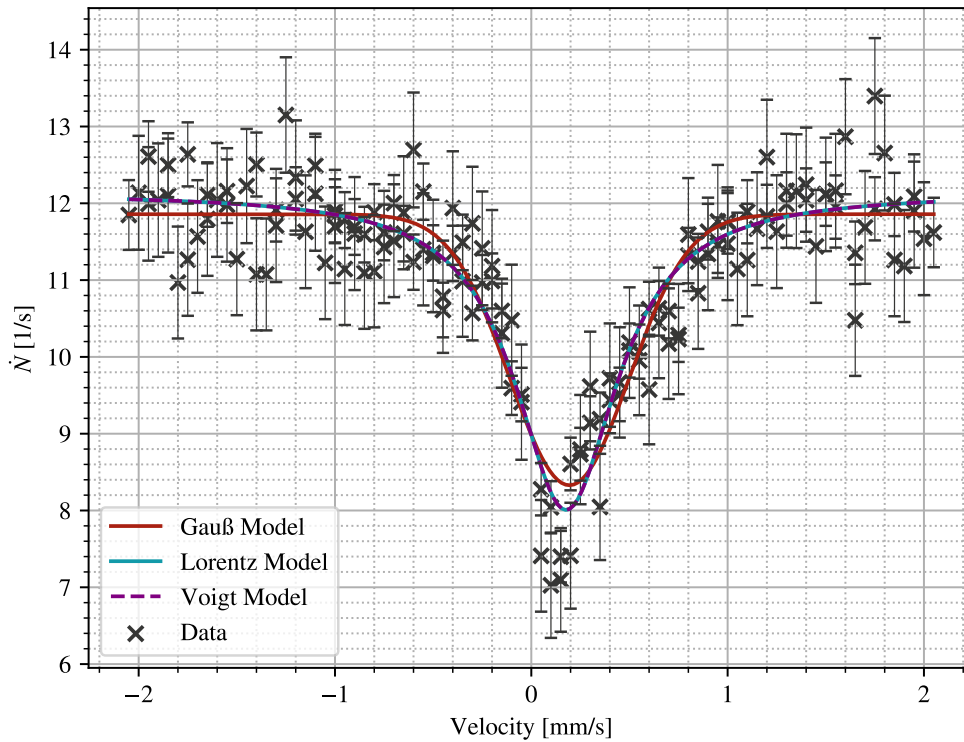


Figure 12: Absorption spectrum of stainless steel. Three different models were fitted to the data.

The measured rate (see fig. 12) shows the expected behaviour. We can see one dip in the count rate that is roughly located around zero and has the shape of a Lorentzian or a Gauss function. For an absorption spectrum we would expect a negative Lorentzian, so a function of the form

$$\dot{N}_L(v) = \frac{A\gamma}{\pi} \frac{1}{(v - v_0)^2 + \gamma^2} + C$$

is fitted to the data. Here  $A$  is the amplitude (here expected to be negative),  $\gamma$  gives the width of the peak,  $v_0$  describes the position of the peak and  $C$  is the offset.

Statistical effects in the measurements like changes in the temperature, a varying sledge velocity or variations in the detection follow a Gauss distribution. This can be used to check whether the fluctuation has a higher effect on the measurement than the absorption we actually want to measure by also fitting a Gauss function and checking whether this function satisfies the data more than the expected Lorentzian. The fit function is given by

$$\dot{N}_G = \frac{A}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(v - v_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) + C.$$

here  $\sigma$  corresponds to the standard deviation and the other parameters fulfill the same purpose as in the Lorentzian.

Last a combination of these two things can be taken into account. This makes sense, as the statistical effects effect every point in the measurement and even though they might not be high enough to completely disturbed the measurement it might be nice to take it into account in the fit function. This combination of both attributes is given by the convolution of a Gauss and a Lorentzian and called a Voigt profile and given by

$$\dot{N}_V = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(v'; \sigma) L(v - v'; \gamma) dv'.$$

As this Voigt profile does not have a nice analytical expression the function `voigt_profile` from the Python package `scipy.special` was used.

Table 1: Fit parameters for all three fit functions for the measurement of stainless steel.

	Gauss fit	Lorentz fit	Voigt profile
$v_0$ [mm / s]	$0.194 \pm 0.012$	$0.177 \pm 0.010$	$0.177 \pm 0.010$
$\sigma$ [mm / s]	$0.303 \pm 0.013$		$0 \pm 53$
$\gamma$ [mm / s]		$0.319 \pm 0.019$	$0.32 \pm 0.03$
$A$ [1 / s]	$-3.5 \pm 0.6$	$-4.1 \pm 0.3$	$-4.1 \pm 0.3$
$C$ [1 / s]	$11.86 \pm 0.06$	$12.14 \pm 0.07$	$12.14 \pm 0.08$

The fit parameters are shown in table 1 and a visualisation of the fits is given in fig. 12. We can see that all the fitted functions describe the data quite well, but the Lorentzian model achieves a better description of the depth of the data. To find a description for the fit quality the reduced  $\chi^2$  was calculated and we find  $\chi_G^2 = 0.94$  and  $\chi_L^2 = \chi_V^2 = 0.82$ . For all fits this value is quite low, this is most probably due to the rather high errors. Nevertheless the agreement between data and fit seems okay but to decide for one or another fit a hypothesis test with one model against the other would need to be performed. Furthermore data with lower errors, so longer measurement times is desired.

**Conversion from Velocity to Energy** The Mößbauer effect can be used to determine small shifts in energies. To do so the measured velocities have to be connected to energies and this is done with help of the Doppler shift and we find

$$E(v) = E_0 \frac{v}{c}, \quad (12)$$

where  $E_0$  is the initial photon energy  $E_0 = 14.4 \text{ keV}$  and  $c$  is the speed of light. The error on this conversion is the error on the velocity scaled with the factor  $E_0/c$ .

#### 4.4.1 Isomeric Shift

The isomeric shift is a small shift in the energy of the ground state or the excited state and shows in the measurements as a velocity offset of the measured dip. The isomeric shift depends on the electronic charge distribution around the nucleus that can be different in emitter- and absorber material. Thus the emitted energy does not perfectly match the required absorption energy which can be compensated by the moving sledge. To calculate the isomeric shift it is therefore possible to use the determined position of the peak, which has an offset of zero and convert this velocity to an energy via eq. (12). For the three different fits this yields

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{iso, G}} &= (9.3 \pm 0.6) \text{ neV} \\ E_{\text{iso, L/V}} &= (8.5 \pm 0.5) \text{ neV} \end{aligned}$$

#### 4.4.2 Effective Absorber Thickness

For the calculation of the Debye-Waller factor the effective absorber thickness  $T_A$  is needed. It can be calculated with help of the material parameters of the stainless steel absorber [1] via

$$T_A = f_A n_A \beta \sigma_0 d_A. \quad (13)$$

The needed parameters are (taken from [1]):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{absorber thickness : } d_A &= 25 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \\ \text{number of iron atoms per m}^3 : n_A & \\ \text{proportion of Fe}^{56} \text{ iron : } \beta &= 0.022 \\ \text{cross section : } \sigma_0 & \\ \text{Debye-Waller factor of the absorber : } f_A &= 0.8 \end{aligned}$$

The cross section can be calculated as given in [6] with

$$\sigma_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left( \frac{hc}{E_{\text{iron}}} \right)^2 \left( \frac{2I_e + 1}{2I_g + 1} \right) \frac{1}{1 + \alpha},$$

where  $E_{\text{iron}} = 14.4 \text{ keV}$ .  $I_e = 3/2$  and  $I_g = 1/2$  are the contributing spin states and  $\alpha = 8.58 \pm 0.18$  [2] the conversion coefficient. The calculation of the cross section yields

$$\sigma_0 = (2.46 \pm 0.05) \cdot 10^{-22} \text{ m}^2.$$

The number of iron atoms is calculated with the Avogadro constant  $N_A$ , the density of iron  $\rho_{\text{Fe}} = 7.89 \cdot 10^6 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{m}^3}$  [9], the molar mass  $m_{\text{Fe}} = 55.8 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}$  and the proportion of iron that is used in the stainless steel absorber  $p = 0.70 \pm 0.05$  [1] via

$$n_A = \frac{N_A \rho_{\text{Fe}}}{M_{\text{Fe}}} p = (5.9 \pm 0.4) \cdot 10^{28} \frac{1}{\text{m}^3}.$$

Combining these results and inserting in eq. (13) gives

$$T_A = 6.4 \pm 0.5.$$

During all the steps the errors have been calculated with Gaussian error propagation.

#### 4.4.3 Debye-Waller Factor

With the calculation of the effective absorber thickness and the results of the fits the Debye-Waller factor of the source can be calculated. The Debye-Waller factor is the fraction of recoilless emitted or absorbed photons and can be calculated by [6]

$$f_S = \frac{\dot{N}(\infty) - \dot{N}(0)}{\dot{N}(\infty)} \left( 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}T_A\right) J_0\left(\frac{1}{2}iT_A\right) \right)^{-1}.$$

$J_0$  is the Bessel-function of zeroth order and the count rates are given by the fit parameters.  $\dot{N}(\infty)$  is the rate without absorption, so it is given by the offset  $C$  of our fit and the difference  $\dot{N}(\infty) - \dot{N}(0)$  is the amplitude  $A$  of the fit, as we are not actually interested in the depth at zero, but at the minimum, so at zero plus isomer shift. With this the equation can be rewritten and we can also use the fit parameters and their errors to calculate an error for the Debye-Waller factor:

$$f_S = \frac{A}{C} \left( 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}T_A\right) J_0\left(\frac{1}{2}iT_A\right) \right)^{-1}$$

and

$$s_{f_S} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial C}\right)^2 s_C^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial A}\right)^2 s_A^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial T_A}\right)^2 s_{T_A}^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial C}\right) \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial A}\right) s_{AC} **2},$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial A}\right) &= \frac{f_S}{A} \\ \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial C}\right) &= -\frac{f_S}{C} \\ \left(\frac{\partial f_S}{\partial T_A}\right) &= -\frac{A}{C} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}T_A\right) J_0\left(\frac{1}{2}iT_A\right) + \frac{1}{2}i\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}T_A\right) J_1\left(\frac{1}{2}iT_A\right)\right)}{\left(1 - \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}T_A\right) J_0\left(\frac{1}{2}iT_A\right)\right)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

The errors on the fit parameters  $s_A$ ,  $s_C$  and  $s_{AC}$  are taken from the covariance matrix as the root of the corresponding diagonal entry for the uncorrelated uncertainties and the square root of the

correlated entry for  $s_{AC}$ . For the three different fits this calculation of the Debye-Waller factor of the source results in

$$f_{S,G} = 0.39 \pm 0.02$$

$$f_{S,L} = 0.44 \pm 0.02$$

$$f_{S,V} = 0.44 \pm 0.04.$$

#### 4.4.4 Lifetime of the 14.4 keV State in Fe<sup>57</sup>

The natural line width  $\Gamma$  of a state is connected to its lifetime by  $\tau = \hbar/\Gamma$  but this relation can not be directly applied in this experiment. The finite size of the emitter and the absorber cause an overlap between emission and absorption spectra, so the line width is increased and a correction factor has to be introduced as shown in [5, 7].

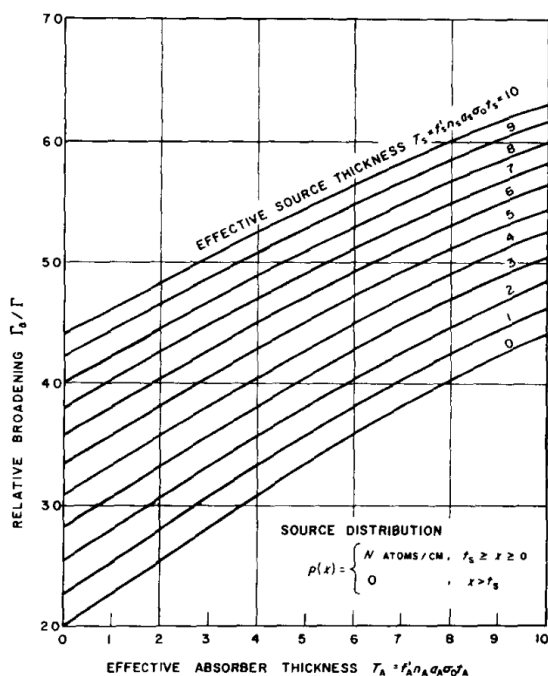


Figure 13: Relative line broadening of the Mößbauer absorption due to the absorber and source thickness. The values on the vertical axis range from 2 to 7, but are noted with a space as a separator.

Taking a look at fig. 13 we can see that for effective absorber and source thickness approaching zero the relative broadening approaches 2, so the observed line width is twice the natural line width of the Mößbauer spectrum, so the line width of the source adds up with the line width of the absorption spectrum. The effective absorber thickness has been calculated in section 4.4.2 and we found  $T_A = 6.4 \pm 0.5$  for a thickness of  $d_A = 25 \mu\text{m}$ . In [1] an estimation for the thickness of the source is given with  $d_S \approx 100 \text{ \AA}$ , so if the other parameters needed to calculate the effective

source thickness are of the same magnitude, the effective source thickness will be very small and can be approximated by  $T_S \approx 0$ . For this case the formula of Visscher [5] can be used to calculate a correction factor

$$W = 2(1.01 + 0.145T_A - 0.0025T_A^2), \quad \text{for } 4 \leq T_A \leq 10$$

$$s_W = 2(0.145T_A - 0.005T_A^2)s_{T_A}.$$

This calculation yields

$$W = 3.68 \pm 0.10.$$

The corrected line width can now be calculated by

$$\Gamma_{\text{corr.}} = \frac{\Gamma_0}{W}$$

and this corrected line width can be inserted in the known formula  $\tau = \hbar/\Gamma_{\text{corr.}}$ . For the Gauss fit the line width has to be calculated out of the fit parameters and is given by the Full-Width-Half-Maximum, so  $\Gamma_G = FWHM_G = 2\sqrt{2\ln(2)}\sigma$  and the error scales with the same factor. For the Lorentz fit the line width is given by the width of the fit, so  $\gamma$ , for the Voigt profile only the width of the Lorentz part has to be used. The observed values are

$$\tau_{\text{Fe, G}}^{57} = (71 \pm 4) \text{ ns}$$

$$\tau_{\text{Fe, L}}^{57} = (158 \pm 11) \text{ ns}$$

$$\tau_{\text{Fe, V}}^{57} = (158 \pm 16) \text{ ns},$$

and the errors on these values were propagated with Gauss through the whole procedure.

## 4.5 Measurements of Iron

Besides measuring the lifetime or the Debye-Waller factor the Mößbauer effect can also be used to investigate hyperfine structure splitting, as the resolution of the data is rather fine. To do so the stainless steel absorber was replaced with an iron absorber and measurements for different velocities and different measurement times were performed. The rates and the errors were calculated same as for the stainless steel absorber and the data was cleared by its background, again using eq. (11).

The taken data is shown in fig. 14 and it shows the expected behaviour with six dips roughly symmetrized around a small offset of zero. To determine the position of the peaks a Gauss and a Lorentz both constructed as a sum of six single Gauss or Lorentz functions were fitted to the data, the fit parameters are shown in table 4. Again due to the high noise and errors in the data the reduced  $\chi^2$  is rather low, and we find  $\chi_G^2 \approx \chi_L^2 = 0.82$ . As the positions of the peaks do not vary significantly for the two models only the calculation with the Lorentz parameters is shown here.

The velocities where the dips are located can be converted to energies with the Doppler shift. These energies then indicate the shift due to the hyperfine splitting and are shown in table 2.

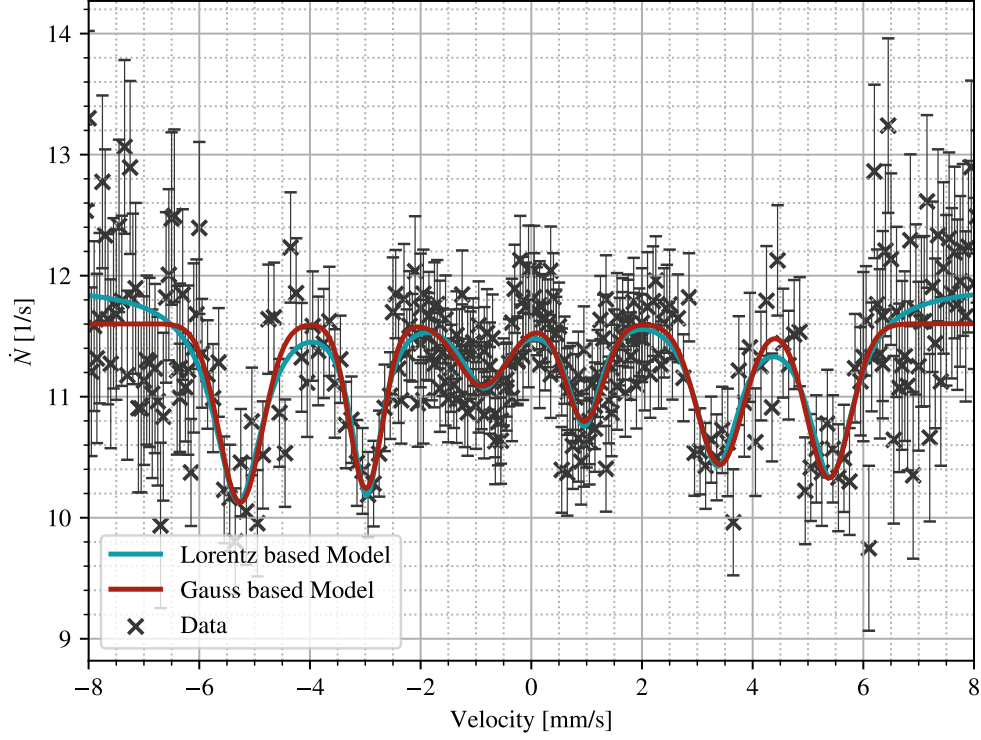


Figure 14: Absorption spectrum of iron. Two models were fitted to the data.

Table 2: Location of the dips as taken from the fit parameters in terms of a velocity and converted to energies.

Dip	$\Delta E_{\text{HFS}}[\text{mm/s}]$	$\Delta E_{\text{HFS}}[\text{neV}]$
1	$-5.29 \pm 0.06$	$-254 \pm 3$
2	$-2.97 \pm 0.04$	$-143 \pm 2$
3	$-0.85 \pm 0.08$	$-41 \pm 4$
4	$0.96 \pm 0.05$	$46 \pm 2$
5	$3.36 \pm 0.07$	$162 \pm 3$
6	$5.41 \pm 0.07$	$260 \pm 3$



### 4.5.1 Isomeric shift

Again the energies are shifted from a symmetry around zero by an offset. The energies that are observed due to the hyperfine splitting are symmetrical, so if there was not an isomeric shift the sum of positions of a dip and its counterpart on the other side would be zero. For an existing isomeric shift this sum gives the shift, so the sum of the three dipoles with their corresponding other were calculated:

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{iso},16} &= E_1 + E_6 \\ E_{\text{iso},25} &= E_2 + E_5 \\ E_{\text{iso},34} &= E_3 + E_4. \end{aligned}$$

All three shifts should give the same, so the mean of the three isomeric shifts is calculated and we obtain

$$\bar{E}_{\text{iso}} = (10 \pm 3) \text{ neV}.$$

The error on this value was propagated from the error on the fit.

### 4.5.2 Magnetic Moment and Magnetic Field

When the energies are corrected by the isomeric shift they can be connected to the hyperfine splitting and we find

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 - \bar{E}_{\text{iso}} &= (\mu_e - \mu_g)B_z \\ E_2 - \bar{E}_{\text{iso}} &= \left(\frac{1}{3}\mu_e - \mu_g\right)B_z \\ E_3 - \bar{E}_{\text{iso}} &= \left(-\frac{1}{3}\mu_e - \mu_g\right)B_z \\ E_4 - \bar{E}_{\text{iso}} &= -\left(-\frac{1}{3}\mu_e - \mu_g\right)B_z \\ E_5 - \bar{E}_{\text{iso}} &= -\left(\frac{1}{3}\mu_e - \mu_g\right)B_z \\ E_6 - \bar{E}_{\text{iso}} &= -(\mu_e - \mu_g)B_z \end{aligned}$$

and by subtracting the corresponding energies a system of equations can be found

$$\begin{aligned} E_{16} &= E_1 - E_6 = 2(\mu_e - \mu_g)B_z \\ E_{25} &= E_2 - E_4 = 2\left(\frac{1}{3}\mu_e - \mu_g\right)B_z \\ E_{34} &= E_3 - E_5 = 2\left(-\frac{1}{3}\mu_e - \mu_g\right)B_z, \end{aligned}$$

that can be solved for the magnetic field  $B_z$  and the magnetic moment  $\mu_e$ . Solving the system of equations gives

$$\begin{aligned} B_z &= -\frac{E_{34} - E_{25}}{4\mu_g} \\ \mu_e &= \frac{3\mu_g(E_{34} - E_{25})}{E_{34} + E_{25}} \end{aligned}$$

and the error is calculated with Gaussian error propagation what gives

$$s_{B_z} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{4\mu_g}\right)^2 s_{E_{34}}^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4\mu_g}\right)^2 s_{E_{25}}^2 + \left(\frac{E_{34} - E_{25}}{4\mu_g^2}\right)^2 s_{\mu_g}^2}$$

$$s_{\mu_e} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{6\mu_g E_{34}}{(E_{34} - E_{25})^2}\right)^2 s_{E_{25}}^2 + \left(\frac{6\mu_g E_{25}}{(E_{34} - E_{25})^2}\right)^2 s_{E_{34}}^2 + \left(\frac{3(E_{34} - E_{25})}{E_{34} + E_{25}}\right)^2 s_{\mu_g}^2},$$

and the errors on  $E_{34}$  and  $E_{25}$  are calculated straight out of the fit.  $\mu_g$  is the magnetic moment of the ground state of  $\text{Fe}^{57}$  and given by  $\mu_g = 0.09044 \pm 0.00007\mu_N$  [12] with  $\mu_N = 3.15245 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{\text{eV}}{\text{T}}$  the nuclear momentum [10].

Inserting the measured energies in the equations gives

$$B_z = (34 \pm 2) \text{ T}$$

$$\mu_e = (-4.75 \pm 0.15) \frac{\text{neV}}{\text{T}} = (-0.151 \pm 0.005)\mu_N.$$

## 5 Summary and Discussion

**Calibration** First of all the MCA was calibrated and a channel-energy-relation was determined with help of five known absorbers. The relation is linear and a fit gives

$$f(E) = (173 \pm 3) \text{ Channel/keV} \cdot E - (77 \pm 89) \text{ Channel.}$$

With help of a first calibration the SCA window was set and checking the result with help of the second calibration shows the maximum of the Cobalt peak at  $E_{\text{Co}} = (13.99 \pm 0.02) \text{ keV}$ , but also shows a rather big energy window. Therefore the setup of the window is satisfactory and the energy of interest is going to pass through, but it will have to be considered as a reason for noise in the data.

**Background Measurements** For the fixed energy window the Compton background was determined for the stainless steel absorber with help of Aluminium shielding. Extrapolation of the slower decaying part of a double exponential fit gives the offset

$$\dot{N}_{\text{Compton}} = B = (20.68 \pm 0.17) \text{ Counts/s.}$$

Adding to that the attenuation of acrylic glass was determined, as both absorbers are inserted in two layers of acrylic glass. This has been done with theoretical calculations using material constants and with help of a measurement. The calculations and measurement give

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\text{exp.}} &= 0.837 \pm 0.007 \\ R_{\text{ana.}} &= 0.77 \pm 0.04. \end{aligned}$$

These two background measurements now were used to clear the following data from its background, for the dampening factor the experimental value was used. The reasoning for this decision is, that even though the error is higher, this value should represent the experiment with higher certainty, as the same setup was used to determine this value that is going to be used for the later measurements.

### 5.1 Stainless Steel

The spectrum of stainless steel has been recorded for different velocities and measuring times and a Poisson error has been applied on the count rates. The data was cleared by its background by subtracting the Compton background and taking the dampening into account. Afterwards three different fits, a Gaussian, a Lorentzian and a Voigt-fit were applied. Because of the high error of the data and the rather high noise it was not possible to determine the best model for the data with a simple  $\chi^2$ -test and one would need to perform a hypothesis test with one model against the other to quantify the models. As it was not possible to determine the best model with the done calculations the different parameters that were calculated for stainless steel were calculated for all models.

**Isomeric Shift** The isomeric shift was calculated out of the offset of the data and the velocity offset was converted to an energy with help of the Doppler effect. The calculated isomeric shifts are

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{iso, G}} &= (9.3 \pm 0.6) \text{ neV} \\ E_{\text{iso, L/V}} &= (8.5 \pm 0.5) \text{ neV.} \end{aligned}$$

**Effective Absorber Thickness** The effective absorber thickness, needed to calculate the Debye-Waller factor was determined with material parameters and we found

$$T_A = 6.4 \pm 0.5.$$

**Debye-Waller Factor** The Debye-Waller factor describes the fraction of recoilless emitted or absorbed photons and was calculated out of the fit parameters for offset and amplitude. The calculated factors are

$$\begin{aligned} f_{S,G} &= 0.39 \pm 0.02 \\ f_{S,L} &= 0.44 \pm 0.02 \\ f_{S,V} &= 0.44 \pm 0.04. \end{aligned}$$

**Lifetime** The lifetime of the 14.4 keV state in  $\text{Fe}^{57}$  was determined out of the fitted line width given by the *FWHM* of the peak. To take the absorber thickness into account the formula of Visscher was used to calculate a correction factor to the line width. The calculation with help of the fit parameters and the theoretically calculated effective absorber thickness gives

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{\text{Fe},G}^{57} &= (71 \pm 4) \text{ ns} \\ \tau_{\text{Fe},L}^{57} &= (158 \pm 11) \text{ ns} \\ \tau_{\text{Fe},V}^{57} &= (158 \pm 16) \text{ ns}. \end{aligned}$$

The literature value found in [4] gives  $\tau_{\text{Fe}}^{57} = 141 \text{ ns}$ , so the Lorentzian and the Voigt-fit give a sensitive estimation for the lifetime, but the Gaussian model underestimates the lifetime. This was expected, as the lifetime depends on the width of the function and one difference between the Gaussian and Lorentzian model is, that the Lorentzian model gives a sharper peak, so the width is affected by the choice of the model. Anyways much more data with longer measurement times is needed so it is possible to decide for one model.

## 5.2 Iron

The absorption spectrum of iron was measured with the same setup, but for a wider velocity range. Again the data was cleared by the background and the error was determined as an Poisson error. To determine the positions of the dips a sum of Gaussian functions and a sum of Lorentzians were fitted to the data. Again the quality of the model could not be determined with help of a  $\chi^2$ -test, but as we are only interested in the position of the peaks for the following calculations and both fits show the same behaviour in this context it was decided to only show the calculations with help of the Lorentzian here. This decision also makes sense, as the Lorentzian is the expected model from the physical point of view.

**Isomeric Shift** The positions of the six dips were determined in terms of velocities as the fit parameters and converted to energies with help of the Doppler shift. As the absorption spectrum shows a symmetry around zero apart from the isomeric shift it can be calculated by summing up the mirrored peaks. For higher certainty the mean of the three values was determined and we obtain

$$\bar{E}_{\text{iso}} = (10 \pm 3) \text{ neV}.$$

**Magnetic Moment and Magnetic Field** By relating the energies to the magnetic fields and the magnetic moment of the excited and ground state, the magnetic field and the magnetic moment can be calculated out of the fit parameters. Solving a system of equations and inserting the fit parameters gives

$$B_z = (34 \pm 2) \text{ T}$$

$$\mu_e = (-4.75 \pm 0.15) \frac{\text{neV}}{\text{T}} = (-0.151 \pm 0.005) \mu_N.$$

Literature values for these two measurements are  $B = 33 \text{ T}$  for the magnetic field at 300 K [4] and  $\mu_e = -0.1549 \pm 0.0002 \mu_N$  [10]. Both of these values lie within  $1\sigma$  of our measurements, which also shows that the choice of the model is not of huge relevance for this measurement, as the calculation only depends on the position of the peak and both models yield comparable results for that parameter.

### 5.3 Estimation of Errors

During the whole experiment and analysis the estimation of errors is rather unpleasant and some further measurements are desired in order to be certain about the results. First of all a smaller energy window in the SCA would be of interest, this might yield better results as there is less background but also can lead to longer measurement times as interesting events might be accidentally cut off.

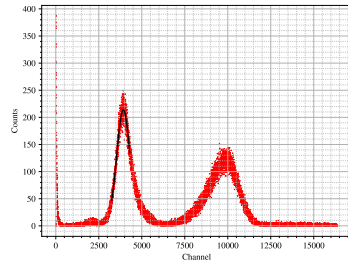
Furthermore it is of interest to perform all measurements, so background and the absorption spectra with longer measurement times, as the error in the used plots results from a combination of different quite high counting errors. The smaller errors might also lead to a decision which model fits the data better, as for high errors the difference between a Gaussian and a Lorentzian model is too small.

Apart from that it would be nice to take more data, so measure for more different velocities, but also perform the same measurement more often, so possible statistic effects cancel out.

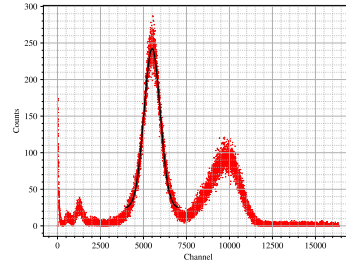
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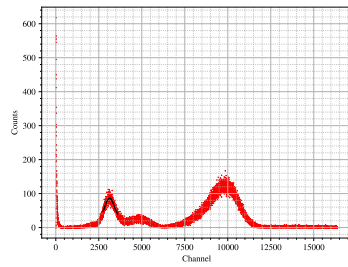
# A Analysis



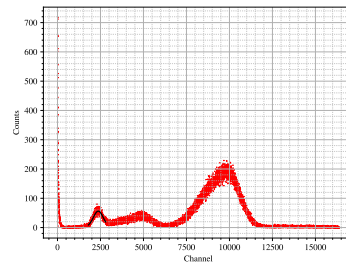
(a) Spectrum of Ag



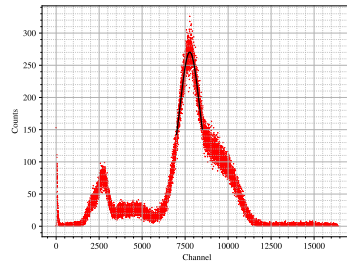
(b) Spectrum of Ba



(c) Spectrum of Mo



(d) Spectrum of Rb



(e) Spectrum of Tb

Figure 15: Spectra of different radioactive sources used to calibrate the MCA

Table 3: Calibration energy of the different measured probes with the channel they fill in the MCP. This data was taken with the later used Corse Gain of 100.

Probe	Energy [keV]	Channel
Ba	32.06	$5503 \pm 1$
Ag	22.1	$3929 \pm 2$
Mo	17.44	$3132 \pm 3$
Rb	13.37	$2371 \pm 2$
Tb	44.23	$7771 \pm 2$

Table 4: Fit parameters of the Lorentz fit to the data of the iron spectrum. The offset is the same for all dips, as this parameter was not fitted separately.

Dip	$v_0$ [mm / s]	$\gamma$ [mm / s]	$A$ [1 / s]	$C$ [1 / s]
1	$-5.29 \pm 0.06$	$0.55 \pm 0.11$	$-3.0 \pm 0.6$	$11.93 \pm 0.10$
2	$-2.97 \pm 0.04$	$0.35 \pm 0.07$	$-1.7 \pm 0.3$	$11.93 \pm 0.10$
3	$-0.85 \pm 0.08$	$0.57 \pm 0.16$	$-1.3 \pm 0.4$	$11.93 \pm 0.10$
4	$0.96 \pm 0.05$	$0.40 \pm 0.08$	$-1.2 \pm 0.3$	$11.93 \pm 0.10$
5	$3.36 \pm 0.07$	$0.51 \pm 0.12$	$-2.2 \pm 0.5$	$11.93 \pm 0.10$
6	$5.41 \pm 0.07$	$0.51 \pm 0.12$	$-2.4 \pm 0.5$	$11.93 \pm 0.10$

## B Python-Code

### Calibration

```

1  """
2  In this module the MCP calibration is performed.
3  """
4
5  from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
6  import numpy as np
7  from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
8
9  # This handles the used fonts in the plot to make it more or less consistent
10 # with the standard latex font.
11 plt.rcParams['mathtext.fontset'] = 'stix'
12 plt.rcParams['font.family'] = 'STIXGeneral'
13 plt.rcParams['mathtext.rm'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans'
14 plt.rcParams['mathtext.it'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:italic'
15 plt.rcParams['mathtext.bf'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:bold'
16
17
18 def gauss(x: float, mu: float, sigma: float, amp: float, off: float) -> float:
19     """
20     Gauss function used to fit data.
21
22     x: x-Position
23     mu: Mean
24     sigma: Standard Deviation

```



```

25     amp: Amplitude
26     off: Offset on y-Axis
27     """
28     return amp * np.exp(-(x - mu)**2/(2 * sigma**2)) + off
29
30
31 def linear(x: float, m: float, c: float) -> float:
32     """
33     Linear function used to fit data.
34
35     x: x-Value
36     m: slope
37     c: Offset
38     """
39     return m * x + c
40
41
42 # Name of data
43 PROBES = ["ba", "ag", "mo", "rb", "tb"]
44
45 # Container for raw data
46 CHANNELS = [[] for _ in range(len(PROBES))]
47 COUNTS = [[] for _ in range(len(PROBES))]
48
49 MUS = []
50 SIGMAS = []
51 S_MUS = []
52 S_SIGMAS = []
53
54 INIT_BA = [5500, 500, 270, 0]
55 INIT_AG = [4000, 500, 3000, 0]
56 INIT_MO = [3100, 300, 100, 0]
57 INIT_RB = [2400, 200, 70, 0]
58 INIT_TB = [7700, 200, 300, 0]
59 INITS = [INIT_BA, INIT_AG, INIT_MO, INIT_RB, INIT_TB]
60
61 LIM_BA = (4000, 7000)
62 LIM_AG = (3250, 4300)
63 LIM_MO = (2750, 3600)
64 LIM_RB = (1800, 2800)
65 LIM_TB = (7000, 8500)
66 LIMITS = [LIM_BA, LIM_AG, LIM_MO, LIM_RB, LIM_TB]
67
68 GAUSS_X = []
69 GAUSS_Y = []
70
71 # Read data
72 for i in range(len(PROBES)):
73     with open("./cal_at100/" + PROBES[i] + ".TKA", "r") as data:
74         lines = data.read().split("\n")
75         for j, line in enumerate(lines[1:-1]):
76             COUNTS[i].append(float(line))
77             CHANNELS[i].append(j)
78
79     popt, pcov = curve_fit(gauss, CHANNELS[i][LIMITS[i][0]:LIMITS[i][1]],
80                           COUNTS[i][LIMITS[i][0]:LIMITS[i][1]], p0=INITS[i])
81
82     MUS.append(popt[0])

```

```

83     SIGMAS.append(popt[1])
84
85     S_MUS.append(np.sqrt(pcov[0][0]))
86     S_SIGMAS.append(np.sqrt(pcov[1][1]))
87
88     xx = np.linspace(CHANNELS[i][LIMITS[i][0]], CHANNELS[i][LIMITS[i][1]], 100)
89     yy = gauss(xx, *popt)
90     GAUSS_X.append(xx)
91     GAUSS_Y.append(yy)
92
93
94 for i in range(5):
95     plt.scatter(CHANNELS[i], COUNTS[i], color="red", marker="x", s=0.5)
96     plt.plot(GAUSS_X[i], GAUSS_Y[i], color="black", label="Gauss")
97     plt.minorticks_on()
98     plt.grid(which="minor", linestyle=":")
99     plt.grid(which="major", linestyle="-")
100    plt.xlabel("Channel")
101    plt.ylabel("Counts")
102    plt.savefig("calibration" + str(PROBES[i]) + ".pdf")
103    plt.clf()
104
105
106 ENERGIES = [32.06, 22.10, 17.44, 13.37, 44.23] # keV
107
108 # Linear regression for calibration
109 popt, pcov = curve_fit(linear, ENERGIES, MUS)
110
111 xx = np.linspace(min(ENERGIES) - 2, max(ENERGIES) + 2, 100)
112 yy = linear(xx, *popt)
113
114 print("energies = " + str(ENERGIES))
115 print("mus = " + str(MUS))
116 print("s_mus = " + str(S_MUS))
117
118 plt.scatter(ENERGIES, MUS, color="#A92112", marker="x")
119 plt.plot(xx, yy, color="black")
120 plt.minorticks_on()
121 plt.errorbar(ENERGIES, MUS, yerr=S_MUS, fmt="none",
122             capsize=2.5, ecolor="#817F7F")
123 plt.grid(which="minor", linestyle=":")
124 plt.grid(which="major", linestyle="-")
125 plt.xlim(12, 46)
126 plt.xlabel("Energy [keV]")
127 plt.ylabel("Channel")
128 plt.show()
129 # plt.savefig("linreg_calibration.pdf")
130
131 print("Steigung: m = ", str(popt[0]), " channel/keV")
132 print("Steigung: m = ", str(np.sqrt(pcov[0][0])), " channel/keV")
133 print("Offset : c = ", str(popt[1]), " channel")
134 print("Offset : c = ", str(np.sqrt(pcov[1][1])), " channel")
135
136 # Save fit parameter to file
137 # with open("cal.txt", "w") as cal:
138 #     calpar = "Slope [channel/keV]\t Offset [channel]\n" + \
139 #             str(popt[0]) + "\t" + str(popt[1])
140 #     cal.write(calpar)

```

## Compton Background

```
1 """
2 This module contains code to extract the compton background from
3 a aluminum shielding measurement.
4 """
5
6 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
7 import numpy as np
8 from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
9 import os
10
11 # This handles the used fonts in the plot to make it more or less consistent
12 # with the standard latex font.
13 plt.rcParams['mathtext.fontset'] = 'stix'
14 plt.rcParams['font.family'] = 'STIXGeneral'
15 plt.rcParams['mathtext.rm'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans'
16 plt.rcParams['mathtext.it'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:italic'
17 plt.rcParams['mathtext.bf'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:bold'
18
19
20 def double_exp(x: float, A: float, alpha: float,
21               B: float, beta: float) -> float:
22     """
23     Function to perform a model fit:
24         f(x) = A exp(alpha * x) + B exp(beta * x)
25     """
26     return A * np.exp(alpha * x) + B * np.exp(beta * x)
27
28
29 def exp(x: float, A: float, alpha: float) -> float:
30     """
31     Function to plot exponential fit:
32         f(x) = A exp(alpha * x)
33     """
34     return A * np.exp(alpha * x)
35
36
37 # Get data names NOTE: Beware if the directory structure changes!
38 TMP = os.popen("ls").read()
39 DATA_NAMES = TMP[0:-1].split("\n")[0:-2]
40
41 # Initialize container for data
42 DATA = [list() for _ in range(len(DATA_NAMES))]
43 TIMES = list()
44
45 for i, name in enumerate(DATA_NAMES):
46     with open(name, "r") as doc:
47         lines = doc.read().split("\n")
48         TIMES.append(float(lines[0]))
49         for line in lines[2:-1]:
50             DATA[i].append(float(line))
51
52 CPERSEC = [sum(data)/time for data, time in zip(DATA, TIMES)]
53 S_CPERSEC = [np.sqrt(sum(data))/time for data, time in zip(DATA, TIMES)]
54 THICKNESS = [float(name.split("mm")[0]) for name in DATA_NAMES]
55
56 popt, pcov = curve_fit(double_exp, THICKNESS, CPERSEC, sigma=S_CPERSEC)
57 xx = np.linspace(min(THICKNESS) - 1, max(THICKNESS) + 1, 60)
```

```

58 yy = double_exp(xx, *popt)
59
60 yy_singl_exp = exp(xx, popt[2], popt[3])
61
62 plt.scatter(THICKNESS, CPERSEC, marker="x", color="#817F7F", label="Data")
63 plt.errorbar(THICKNESS, CPERSEC, yerr=S_CPERSEC, fmt="none",
64             capsize=2.5, ecolor="#817F7F")
65 plt.plot(xx, yy, color="#A92112", label="Double Exponential Model Fit")
66 plt.plot(xx, yy_singl_exp, color="#129AA9", label="Single Exponential")
67 plt.minorticks_on()
68 plt.grid(which="minor", linestyle=":")
69 plt.grid(which="major", linestyle="-")
70 plt.xlabel("Thickness in [mm]")
71 plt.ylabel(r"$\dot{N}$ in [1/s]")
72 plt.xlim(0, 11)
73 plt.ylim(10, 30)
74 plt.legend()
75 plt.savefig("compton.pdf")
76
77 print("Fit values \n -----")
78 print("A = " + str(popt[0]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov[0][0])))
79 print("alpha = " + str(popt[1]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov[1][1])))
80 print("B = " + str(popt[2]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov[2][2])))
81 print("beta = " + str(popt[3]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov[3][3])))

```

## Acrylic Glass

```

1  """
2  Program used to calculate the dampening of acrylic glass
3  """
4
5  import numpy as np
6
7  def read_data(filename: str) -> list:
8      with open(filename, "r") as data:
9          list = []
10         raw_data = data.read()
11         lines = raw_data.split("\n")
12         for line in lines[:-1]:
13             list.append(float(line))
14         return list
15
16
17 # calculate dampening with experimental values
18
19 PLEXI_DATA = read_data("plexi_without_ssteel.TKA")
20 CLEAN_DATA = read_data("../compton_background/0.0mm.TKA")
21 CLEAN_DATA = read_data("../calibration/cobalt_data/cobalt_first_wincut.TKA")
22
23 PLEXI_TIME = PLEXI_DATA[0]
24 CLEAN_TIME = CLEAN_DATA[0]
25
26 PLEXI_COUNTS = np.sum(PLEXI_DATA[2::])
27 CLEAN_COUNTS = np.sum(CLEAN_DATA[2::])
28
29 PLEXI_RATE = PLEXI_COUNTS / PLEXI_TIME
30 CLEAN_RATE = CLEAN_COUNTS / CLEAN_TIME

```

```

31
32 s_plexi_rate = np.sqrt(PLEXI_COUNTS) / PLEXI_TIME
33 s_clean_rate = np.sqrt(CLEAN_COUNTS) / CLEAN_TIME
34
35 damp = PLEXI_RATE / CLEAN_RATE
36
37 s_damp = np.sqrt((s_plexi_rate / CLEAN_RATE)**2 + (PLEXI_RATE * s_clean_rate /
38                 (CLEAN_RATE**2))**2)
39
40
41
42 # calculate theoretical dampening
43
44 D_PLEXI = 0.2 # cm
45 S_D = 0.0002 # cm
46 RHO_PLEXI = 1.19 # g / (cm)**3
47 ATTEN_COEFF = 1.1 # (cm)**2 / g
48 S_ATTEN = 0.2 # (cm)**2 / g
49
50 r_calc = np.exp(- ATTEN_COEFF * RHO_PLEXI * D_PLEXI)
51 s_r = r_calc * np.sqrt((RHO_PLEXI * D_PLEXI * S_ATTEN)**2 +
52                       (ATTEN_COEFF * RHO_PLEXI * S_D)**2)
53
54 print("experimental dampening factor r = " + str(damp) + " +- " + str(s_damp))
55 print("theoretical dampening factor r = " + str(r_calc) + " +- " + str(s_r))

```

## Stainless Steel

```

1 """
2 This module is used to analyse the data measured using the
3 stainless steel absorber.
4 """
5
6 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
7 import numpy as np
8 from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
9 from scipy.special import voigt_profile
10 from scipy.special import jv
11
12 # This handles the used fonts in the plot to make it more or less consistent
13 # with the standard latex font.
14 plt.rcParams['mathtext.fontset'] = 'stix'
15 plt.rcParams['font.family'] = 'STIXGeneral'
16 plt.rcParams['mathtext.rm'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans'
17 plt.rcParams['mathtext.it'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:italic'
18 plt.rcParams['mathtext.bf'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:bold'
19
20
21 def gauss(x: float, mu: float, sigma: float, amp: float, off: float) -> float:
22     """
23     Gauss function used to fit data.
24
25     x: x-Position
26     mu: Mean
27     sigma: Standard Deviation
28     amp: Amplitude
29     off: Offset on y-Axis

```

```

30     """
31     return (amp / (np.sqrt(2*np.pi) * sigma)) *\
32            np.exp(-(x - mu)**2/(2 * sigma**2)) + off
33
34
35 def lorentz(x: float, x0: float, gamma: float, A: float, C: float) -> float:
36     """
37     Lorentz function used to fit data.
38
39     x: x-Value
40     x0: Position of Maximum
41     gamma: Width of the Peak
42     A: Amplitude
43     C: Off-set
44     """
45     return (A * gamma / np.pi) * ((x - x0)**2 + gamma**2)**(-1) + C
46
47
48 def voigt(x: float, x0: float, gamma: float,
49          s0: float, A: float, C: float) -> float:
50     """
51     Voigt function wrapper used to fit data.
52
53     x: x-Value
54     x0: Position of Maximum
55     gamma: Width of the lorentz part
56     s0: Width of the gaussian part
57     A: Amplitude
58     C: Off-set
59     """
60     return A * voigt_profile((x - x0), s0, gamma) + C
61
62
63 # def chi_square_g(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt):
64 #     chi = 0
65 #     for x, y in zip(x_data, y_data):
66 #         chi += (y - gauss(x, *popt))**2 / gauss(x, *popt)
67 #     return chi / 4
68
69 def chi_square_g(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt, yerr):
70     chi = 0
71     for x, y, err in zip(x_data, y_data, yerr):
72         chi += (y - gauss(x, *popt))**2 / err**2
73     return chi / (len(x_data) - 4)
74
75
76 def t_gauss(x_data, y_data, popt):
77     abw = []
78     for x, y in zip(x_data, y_data):
79         abw.append(y - gauss(x, *popt))
80     mean = np.mean(abw)
81     std = np.std(abw)
82     return mean / std
83
84 def t_lorentz(x_data, y_data, popt):
85     abw = []
86     for x, y in zip(x_data, y_data):
87         abw.append(y - lorentz(x, *popt))

```

```

88     mean = np.mean(abw)
89     std = np.std(abw)
90     return mean / std
91
92 def t_voigt(x_data, y_data, popt):
93     abw = []
94     for x, y in zip(x_data, y_data):
95         abw.append(y - voigt(x, *popt))
96     mean = np.mean(abw)
97     std = np.std(abw)
98     return mean / std
99
100 # def chi_square_l(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt):
101 #     chi = 0
102 #     for x, y in zip(x_data, y_data):
103 #         chi += (y - lorentz(x, *popt))**2 / lorentz(x, *popt)
104 #     return chi / 4
105
106 def chi_square_l(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt, yerr):
107     chi = 0
108     for x, y, err in zip(x_data, y_data, yerr):
109         chi += (y - lorentz(x, *popt))**2 / err**2
110     return chi / (len(x_data) - 4)
111
112
113 # def chi_square_v(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt):
114 #     chi = 0
115 #     for x, y in zip(x_data, y_data):
116 #         chi += (y - voigt(x, *popt))**2 / voigt(x, *popt)
117 #     return chi / 5
118
119
120 def chi_square_v(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt, yerr):
121     chi = 0
122     for x, y, err in zip(x_data, y_data, yerr):
123         chi += (y - voigt(x, *popt))**2 / err**2
124     return chi / (len(x_data) - 5)
125
126 COUNT_OFFSET = 20.684847 # 1/s
127 OFFSET_ERR = 0.170814 # 1/s
128
129 R_EXP = 0.837
130 S_R = 0.008
131
132 # Get raw data
133 VEL = list()
134 COUNTS = list()
135 TIME = list()
136 for i in ["1", "2", "3", "4"]:
137     with open("ssteel_" + i + ".txt", "r") as doc:
138         lines = doc.read().split("\n")
139         for line in lines[0:-1]:
140             entries = line.split("\t")
141             VEL.append(float(entries[0].replace(',','.')))
142             COUNTS.append(float(entries[2].replace(',','.')))
143             TIME.append(float(entries[1].replace(',','.')))
144
145 # Calculate counting rates NOTE: Go from ms to s

```

```

146 RATES = [(c/(t/1000) - COUNT_OFFSET) / R_EXP for c, t in zip(COUNTS, TIME)]
147 # Calculate counting rate errors
148 S_RATES_BETW = [np.sqrt((np.sqrt(c)/(t/1000))**2 + OFFSET_ERR**2) for c, t in
149                 zip(COUNTS, TIME)]
150 S_RATES = [np.sqrt((s_x / R_EXP)**2 + (x * S_R / R_EXP**2)**2) for x, s_x in
151            zip(RATES, S_RATES_BETW)]
152
153 # Sort the data by velocity
154 DATA = list(zip(VEL, RATES, S_RATES))
155 DATA = sorted(DATA, key=lambda tup: tup[0])
156
157 # Split the data
158 VEL = [d[0] for d in DATA]
159 RATES = [d[1] for d in DATA]
160 S_RATES = [d[2] for d in DATA]
161
162 # Gauss Fit
163 INITS_G = [0.15, 0.2, -4, 31]
164 popt_g, pcov_g = curve_fit(gauss, VEL, RATES, p0=INITS_G, sigma=S_RATES)
165 xx_g = np.linspace(min(VEL), max(VEL), 200)
166 yy_g = gauss(xx_g, *popt_g)
167
168 # Lorentz Fit
169 INITS_L = [0.15, 0.2, -4, 31]
170 popt_l, pcov_l = curve_fit(lorentz, VEL, RATES, p0=INITS_L, sigma=S_RATES)
171 xx_l = np.linspace(min(VEL), max(VEL), 200)
172 yy_l = lorentz(xx_l, *popt_l)
173
174 # Voigt Fit
175 INITS_V = [0.15, 0.1, 0.1, -4, 31]
176 popt_v, pcov_v = curve_fit(voigt, VEL, RATES, p0=INITS_V, sigma=S_RATES)
177 xx_v = np.linspace(min(VEL), max(VEL), 200)
178 yy_v = voigt(xx_v, *popt_v)
179
180 # plt.plot(VEL, RATES)
181 plt.plot(xx_g, yy_g, label="Gauss Model", color="#A92112")
182 plt.plot(xx_l, yy_l, label="Lorentz Model", color="#129AA9")
183 plt.plot(xx_v, yy_v, label="Voigt Model", color="purple", linestyle="dashed")
184 plt.scatter(VEL, RATES, marker="x", label="Data", color="#363635")
185 plt.errorbar(VEL, RATES, yerr=S_RATES, fmt="none",
186              capsize=2.5, elinewidth=0.5, ecolor="#363635")
187
188 plt.ylabel(r"$\dot{N}$ [1/s]")
189 plt.xlabel("Velocity [mm/s]")
190 plt.minorticks_on()
191 plt.grid(which="minor", linestyle=":")
192 plt.grid(which="major", linestyle="--")
193 plt.legend(loc=3)
194 plt.savefig("steel.pdf")
195 # plt.show()
196
197 print("Gauss fit: \n -----")
198 print("mean = " + str(popt_g[0]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_g[0][0])))
199 print("sigma = " + str(popt_g[1]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_g[1][1])))
200 print("amp = " + str(popt_g[2]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_g[2][2])))
201 print("offset = " + str(popt_g[3]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_g[3][3])))
202 print("chi = " + str(chi_square_g(VEL, RATES, popt_g, S_RATES)))
203 print("t = " + str(t_gauss(VEL, RATES, popt_g)))

```



```

204 print("")
205 print("Lorentz fit: \n -----")
206 print("mean = " + str(popt_l[0]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_l[0][0])))
207 print("sigma = " + str(popt_l[1]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_l[1][1])))
208 print("amp = " + str(popt_l[2]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_l[2][2])))
209 print("offset = " + str(popt_l[3]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_l[3][3])))
210 print("chi = " + str(chi_square_l(VEL, RATES, popt_l, S_RATES)))
211 print("t = " + str(t_lorentz(VEL, RATES, popt_l)))
212 print("")
213 print("Voigt fit: \n -----")
214 print("pos of max lorentz = " + str(popt_v[0]) + " +- " +
215       str(np.sqrt(pcov_v[0][0])))
216 print("width lorentz = " + str(popt_v[1]) + " +- " +
217       str(np.sqrt(pcov_v[1][1])))
218 print("width gauss = " + str(popt_v[2]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_v[2][2])))
219 print("amp = " + str(popt_v[3]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_v[3][3])))
220 print("offset = " + str(popt_v[4]) + " +- " + str(np.sqrt(pcov_v[4][4])))
221 print("chi = " + str(chi_square_v(VEL, RATES, popt_v, S_RATES)))
222 print("t = " + str(t_voigt(VEL, RATES, popt_v)))
223
224
225 # calculate isomeric shift
226
227 def v_to_E(v: float) -> float:
228     """
229     Takes sledge velocity and return energy
230     """
231     E_GAMMA = 14.4e3 # eV
232     SPEED_OF_LIGHT = 2.99792e8 # m / s
233     return E_GAMMA * v*10**(-3) / SPEED_OF_LIGHT
234
235
236 print("=====")
237 print("isomeric shift [eV] \n-----")
238 print("gauss model: E_iso = " + str(v_to_E(popt_g[0])) + " +- " +
239       str(v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_g[0][0])))
240 print("lorentz model: E_iso = " + str(v_to_E(popt_l[0])) + " +- " +
241       str(v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_l[0][0])))
242 print("voigt model: E_iso = " + str(v_to_E(popt_v[0])) + " +- " +
243       str(v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_v[0][0])))
244
245 # effective absorber thickness
246
247 d_a = 25e-6 # m
248 beta = 0.022
249 f_a = 0.8
250 rho_fe = 7.87e6 # g / (m)**3
251 m_fe = 55.8 # g / mol
252 p_ssteel = 0.7
253 n_A = 6.022e23 # 1 / mol
254 SPEED_OF_LIGHT = 2.99792e8 # m / s
255 E_GAMMA = 14.4e3 # eV
256 h = 4.136e-15 # ev s
257 alpha = 8.58
258 s_alpha = 0.18
259
260 number_of_iron = n_A * rho_fe * p_ssteel / m_fe
261 s_noi = n_A * rho_fe * 0.05 / m_fe

```

```

262
263 cross_section = (1 / (2 * np.pi)) * (h * SPEED_OF_LIGHT / E_GAMMA)**2 * \
264                 (4 / 2) * (1 / (1 + alpha))
265
266 s_cs = cross_section * (s_alpha / (1 + alpha)**2)
267
268 T_A = f_a * number_of_iron * beta * cross_section * d_a
269 s_TA = np.sqrt((f_a * s_noi * beta * cross_section * d_a)**2 +
270               (f_a * number_of_iron * beta * s_cs * d_a)**2)
271
272
273 print("\n effective absorber thickness \n -----")
274 print("number of iron = " + str(number_of_iron) + " +- " + str(s_noi))
275 print("cross section = " + str(cross_section) + " +- " + str(s_cs))
276 print("absorber thickness = " + str(T_A) + " +- " + str(s_TA))
277
278 # debye-waller factor
279
280
281 def debye_waller(A: float, C: float):
282     """
283     Calculates the fucking debye waller factor for given shit.
284     A: Amplitude of Fit (Lorenz / Gauss)
285     C: Offset of Fit
286     """
287     return (- A / C) * (1 / (1 - np.exp(- 0.5 * T_A) * jv(0, 0.5j * T_A)))
288
289 def debye_error(A: float, C: float, s_A: float, s_C: float, s_AC: float):
290     """
291     Calculate a beautiful error....
292     Kill me.
293     """
294     dfda = debye_waller(A, C) / A
295     dfdc = debye_waller(A, C) / C
296     dfdt = (0.5 * np.exp(- 0.5 * T_A) * jv(0, 0.5j * T_A) + 0.5j *
297            np.exp(- 0.5 * T_A) * jv(1, 0.5j * T_A)) /\
298            (1 - np.exp(- 0.5 * T_A) * jv(0, 0.5j * T_A))**2
299     return np.sqrt((dfda * s_A)**2 + (dfdc * s_C)**2 + (dfdt * s_TA)**2 + 2 *
300                  dfda * dfdc * s_AC)
301
302
303 print("\n=====")
304 print("Debyeeee waller lorentz = " + str(debye_waller(popt_l[2], popt_l[3])) +
305       " +- " + str(debye_error(popt_l[2], popt_l[3], np.sqrt(pcov_l[2][2]),
306                               np.sqrt(pcov_l[3][3]), pcov_l[2][3])))
307 print("Debyeeee waller gauss = " + str(debye_waller(popt_g[2], popt_g[3])) +
308       " +- " + str(debye_error(popt_g[2], popt_g[3], np.sqrt(pcov_g[2][2]),
309                               np.sqrt(pcov_g[3][3]), pcov_g[2][3])))
310 print("Debyeeee waller voigt = " + str(debye_waller(popt_v[3], popt_v[4])) +
311       " +- " + str(debye_error(popt_v[3], popt_v[4], np.sqrt(pcov_v[3][3]),
312                               np.sqrt(pcov_v[4][4]), pcov_v[3][4])))
313
314
315 # calculate lifetime
316
317 def lifetime(sigma: float):
318     correction = 2 * (1.01 + 0.145 * T_A - 0.0025 * T_A**2)
319     return v_to_E(sigma) / correction

```

```

320
321
322 def lifetime_err(sigma: float, sigma_err: float):
323     correction = 2 * (1.01 + 0.145 * T_A - 0.0025 * T_A**2)
324     s_c = 2 * (0.145 - 0.005 * T_A) * s_TA
325     return np.sqrt((v_to_E(sigma) * s_c / correction**2)**2 +
326                   (v_to_E(sigma_err) / correction)**2)
327
328
329 def lifetime_seconds(lifetime: float):
330     return h / (2 * np.pi * lifetime)
331
332
333 def lifetime_sec_err(life: float, lifeerror: float):
334     return (h * lifeerror) / (2 * np.pi * life**2)
335
336
337 print("\n=====")
338
339 print("correction factor = " + str(2 * (1.01 + 0.145 * T_A - 0.0025 * T_A**2))
340       + " +- " + str(2 * (0.145 - 0.005 * T_A) * s_TA))
341 print("lifetime gauss = " + str(lifetime(2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*popt_g[1])) + " +- "
342       +
343       str(lifetime_err(2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*popt_g[1], 2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*np.
344             sqrt(pcov_g[1][1]))) + "eV")
345 print("lifetime gauss = " + str(lifetime_seconds(lifetime(2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*
346             popt_g[1]))) + " +- " +
347       str(lifetime_sec_err((lifetime(2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*popt_g[1])),
348             lifetime_err(2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*popt_g[1], 2*np.sqrt(2*np.log(2))*np.
349             sqrt(pcov_g[1][1])))) + "s")
350 print("lifetime lorentz = " + str(lifetime(popt_l[1])) + " +- " +
351       str(lifetime_err(popt_l[1], np.sqrt(pcov_l[1][1]))) + "eV")
352 print("lifetime lorentz = " + str(1e9 * lifetime_seconds(lifetime(popt_l[1]))) + "
353       +- " +
354       str(1e9 * lifetime_sec_err((lifetime(popt_l[1])),
355             lifetime_err(popt_l[1], np.sqrt(pcov_l[1][1])))) + "ns")
356 print("lifetime voigt = " + str(lifetime(popt_v[1])) + " +- " +
357       str(lifetime_err(popt_v[1], np.sqrt(pcov_v[1][1]))) + "eV")
358 print("lifetime voigt = " + str(1e9 * lifetime_seconds(lifetime(popt_v[1]))) + " +-
359       " +
360       str(1e9 * lifetime_sec_err((lifetime(popt_v[1])),
361             lifetime_err(popt_v[1], np.sqrt(pcov_v[1][1])))) + "ns")
362
363 print(len(VEL))

```

## Iron

```

1 """
2 This module is used to analyse the hyperfine spectrum of iron. Two different
3 models for peak-position-estimation are fitted to the data.
4 """
5
6 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
7 import numpy as np
8 from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
9 from scipy.special import voigt_profile
10

```

```

11 SINGLE_FIT = False
12
13 # This handles the used fonts in the plot to make it more or less consistent
14 # with the standard latex font.
15 plt.rcParams['mathtext.fontset'] = 'stix'
16 plt.rcParams['font.family'] = 'STIXGeneral'
17 plt.rcParams['mathtext.rm'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans'
18 plt.rcParams['mathtext.it'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:italic'
19 plt.rcParams['mathtext.bf'] = 'Bitstream Vera Sans:bold'
20
21
22 def gauss(x: float, mu: float, sigma: float, amp: float, off: float) -> float:
23     """
24     Gauss function used to fit data.
25
26     x: x-Position
27     mu: Mean
28     sigma: Standard Deviation
29     amp: Amplitude
30     off: Offset on y-Axis
31     """
32     return (amp / (np.sqrt(2*np.pi) * sigma)) * \
33         np.exp(-(x - mu)**2/(2 * sigma**2)) + off
34
35
36 def monster_gauss(x,
37                 mu1, mu2, mu3, mu4, mu5, mu6,
38                 s1, s2, s3, s4, s5, s6,
39                 a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6,
40                 off):
41     """
42     Six added gaussian distributions to fit to the data.
43     """
44     output = gauss(x, mu1, s1, a1, 0) + \
45         gauss(x, mu2, s2, a2, 0) + \
46         gauss(x, mu3, s3, a3, 0) + \
47         gauss(x, mu4, s4, a4, 0) + \
48         gauss(x, mu5, s5, a5, 0) + \
49         gauss(x, mu6, s6, a6, 0) + off
50     return output
51
52
53 def lorentz(x: float, x0: float, gamma: float, A: float, C: float) -> float:
54     """
55     Lorentz function used to fit data.
56
57     x: x-Value
58     x0: Position of Maximum
59     gamma: Width of the Peak
60     A: Amplitude
61     C: Off-set
62     """
63     return (A * gamma / np.pi) * ((x - x0)**2 + gamma**2)**(-1) + C
64
65
66 def monster_lorentz(x,
67                   mu1, mu2, mu3, mu4, mu5, mu6,
68                   s1, s2, s3, s4, s5, s6,

```

```

69             a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6,
70             off):
71     """
72     Six added lorentz distributions to fit to the data.
73     """
74     output = lorentz(x, mu1, s1, a1, 0) +\
75             lorentz(x, mu2, s2, a2, 0) +\
76             lorentz(x, mu3, s3, a3, 0) +\
77             lorentz(x, mu4, s4, a4, 0) +\
78             lorentz(x, mu5, s5, a5, 0) +\
79             lorentz(x, mu6, s6, a6, 0) + off
80     return output
81
82 def chi_square_g(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt, yerr):
83     chi = 0
84     for x, y, err in zip(x_data, y_data, yerr):
85         chi += (y - monster_gauss(x, *popt))**2 / err**2
86     return chi / (len(x_data) - 4)
87
88
89 def chi_square_l(x_data: list, y_data: list, popt, yerr):
90     chi = 0
91     for x, y, err in zip(x_data, y_data, yerr):
92         chi += (y - monster_lorentz(x, *popt))**2 / err**2
93     return chi / (len(x_data) - 4)
94
95 COUNT_OFFSET = 20.684847 # 1/s
96 OFFSET_ERR = 0.170814 # 1/s
97
98 R_EXP = 0.837
99 S_R = 0.008
100
101 # Get raw data
102 VEL = list()
103 COUNTS = list()
104 TIME = list()
105 for i in ["1", "2", "3", "4", "5"]:
106     with open("iron_" + i + ".txt", "r") as doc:
107         lines = doc.read().split("\n")
108         for line in lines[0:-1]:
109             entries = line.split("\t")
110             VEL.append(float(entries[0].replace(',','.')))
111             COUNTS.append(float(entries[2].replace(',','.')))
112             TIME.append(float(entries[1].replace(',','.')))
113
114 # Calculate counting rates NOTE: Go from ms to s
115 RATES = [(c/(t/1000) - COUNT_OFFSET) / R_EXP for c, t in zip(COUNTS, TIME)]
116 # Calculate counting rate errors
117 S_RATES_BETW = [np.sqrt((np.sqrt(c)/(t/1000))**2 + OFFSET_ERR**2) for c, t in
118                 zip(COUNTS, TIME)]
119 S_RATES = [np.sqrt((s_x / R_EXP)**2 + (x * S_R / R_EXP**2)**2) for x, s_x in
120            zip(RATES, S_RATES_BETW)]
121
122 # Sort the data by velocity
123 DATA = list(zip(VEL, RATES, S_RATES))
124 DATA = sorted(DATA, key=lambda tup: tup[0])
125
126 # Split the data

```

```

127 VEL = [d[0] for d in DATA]
128 RATES = [d[1] for d in DATA]
129 S_RATES = [d[2] for d in DATA]
130
131 # Get size of data
132 # print("Number of total data points: ", len(VEL))
133
134 # LET THE FITTING BEGIN \(\o_o)/
135 # =====
136
137 # PEAK 1
138 INIT1 = [-5.25, 0.5, -2, 30.25]
139 # PEAK 2
140 INIT2 = [-3, 0.2, -1, 30.25]
141 # PEAK 3
142 INIT3 = [-0.6, 0.2, -1, 30.25]
143 # PEAK 4
144 INIT4 = [0.6, 0.2, -1, 30.25]
145 # PEAK 5
146 INIT5 = [3, 0.2, -1, 30.25]
147 # PEAK 6
148 INIT6 = [5.25, 0.5, -2, 30.25]
149 INITS = [INIT1, INIT2, INIT3, INIT4, INIT5, INIT6]
150
151 if SINGLE_FIT:
152     # Initialize Container
153     POPT_G = []
154     PCOV_G = []
155     XX_G = []
156     YY_G = []
157     for i in range(6):
158         # Perform model fit
159         popt_g, pcov_g = curve_fit(gauss, VEL, RATES,
160                                   p0=INITS[i], sigma=S_RATES)
161         POPT_G.append(popt_g)
162         PCOV_G.append(pcov_g)
163
164         # Save plot data
165         xx = np.linspace(min(VEL), max(VEL), 100)
166         XX_G.append(xx)
167         YY_G.append(gauss(xx, *popt_g))
168
169 # Monster model fit
170 # =====
171 MONSTER_INIT = [i[0] for i in INITS] + \
172                [i[1] for i in INITS] + \
173                [i[3] for i in INITS] + [30]
174
175 popt_gm, pcov_gm = curve_fit(monster_gauss, VEL, RATES,
176                               p0=MONSTER_INIT, sigma=S_RATES)
177 popt_lm, pcov_lm = curve_fit(monster_lorentz, VEL, RATES,
178                               p0=MONSTER_INIT, sigma=S_RATES)
179
180 xx_gm = np.linspace(min(VEL) - 2, max(VEL) + 2, 950)
181 yy_gm = monster_gauss(xx_gm, *popt_gm)
182
183 xx_lm = np.linspace(min(VEL) - 2, max(VEL) + 2, 950)
184 yy_lm = monster_lorentz(xx_lm, *popt_lm)

```

```

185
186 # Plot single gauss models
187 if SINGLE_FIT:
188     for i in range(6):
189         plt.plot(XX_G[i], YY_G[i])
190
191 # Plot data
192 plt.scatter(VEL, RATES, marker="x", color="#363635", label="Data")
193 plt.errorbar(VEL, RATES, yerr=S_RATES, fmt="none",
194             capsize=2.5, elinewidth=0.5, ecolor="#363635")
195
196 # Plot monster lorentz model
197 plt.plot(xx_lm, yy_lm, color="#129AA9",
198         label="Lorentz based Model", linewidth=2)
199
200 # Plot monster gauss model
201 plt.plot(xx_gm, yy_gm, color="#A92112",
202         label="Gauss based Model", linewidth=2)
203
204 plt.minorticks_on()
205 plt.grid(which="minor", linestyle=":")
206 plt.grid(which="major", linestyle="-")
207 plt.ylabel(r"$\dot{N}$ [1/s]")
208 plt.xlabel("Velocity [mm/s]")
209 plt.xlim(-8, 8)
210 plt.legend(loc=3)
211 plt.savefig("iron.pdf")
212 # plt.show()
213
214 # Start calculating isomeric shift
215
216
217 def v_to_E(v: float) -> float:
218     """
219     Takes sledge velocity and return energy
220     """
221     E_GAMMA = 14.4e3 # eV
222     SPEED_OF_LIGHT = 2.99792e8 # m / s
223     return E_GAMMA * v*10**(-3) / SPEED_OF_LIGHT
224
225
226 print("Position of the dips\n=====")
227 for i in [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]:
228     print("Gauss Dip " + str(i + 1) + ": (" + str(popt_gm[i]) + " +- "
229         + str(np.sqrt(pcov_gm[i][i])) + ") mm / s")
230     print("Gauss Dip " + str(i + 1) + ": (" + str(v_to_E(popt_gm[i] * 1e9)) + " +- "
231         + str(v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_gm[i][i]) * 1e9)) + ") neV")
232 print("\n=====\n")
233 for i in [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]:
234     print("Lorentz Dip " + str(i + 1) + ": (" + str(popt_lm[i + 18]) + " +- "
235         + str(np.sqrt(pcov_lm[i + 18][i + 18])) + ") mm / s")
236     print("Lorentz Dip " + str(i + 1) + ": (" + str(v_to_E(popt_lm[i] * 1e9)) + " +-
237         + str(v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_lm[i][i]) * 1e9)) + ") neV")
238
239 ENERGIES_G = [v_to_E(popt_gm[i]) for i in [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]]
240 S_ENERGIES_G = [v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_gm[i][i])) for i in [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]]
241 ENERGIES_L = [v_to_E(popt_lm[i]) for i in [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]]

```

```

242 S_ENERGIES_L = [v_to_E(np.sqrt(pcov_lm[i][i])) for i in [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]]
243
244 print("chi = " + str(chi_square_g(VEL, RATES, popt_gm, S_RATES)))
245 print("chi = " + str(chi_square_l(VEL, RATES, popt_lm, S_RATES)))
246 # Isoshifts
247
248 ISO_16_G = ENERGIES_G[0] + ENERGIES_G[5]
249 ISO_25_G = ENERGIES_G[1] + ENERGIES_G[4]
250 ISO_34_G = ENERGIES_G[2] + ENERGIES_G[3]
251 ISO_16_L = ENERGIES_L[0] + ENERGIES_L[5]
252 ISO_25_L = ENERGIES_L[1] + ENERGIES_L[4]
253 ISO_34_L = ENERGIES_L[2] + ENERGIES_L[3]
254
255
256 S_ISO_16_G = np.sqrt(S_ENERGIES_G[0]**2 + S_ENERGIES_G[5]**2)
257 S_ISO_25_G = np.sqrt(S_ENERGIES_G[1]**2 + S_ENERGIES_G[4]**2)
258 S_ISO_34_G = np.sqrt(S_ENERGIES_G[2]**2 + S_ENERGIES_G[3]**2)
259 S_ISO_16_L = np.sqrt(S_ENERGIES_L[0]**2 + S_ENERGIES_L[5]**2)
260 S_ISO_25_L = np.sqrt(S_ENERGIES_L[1]**2 + S_ENERGIES_L[4]**2)
261 S_ISO_34_L = np.sqrt(S_ENERGIES_L[2]**2 + S_ENERGIES_L[3]**2)
262
263 MEAN_ISO_G = (ISO_16_G + ISO_25_G + ISO_34_G) / 3
264 MEAN_ISO_L = (ISO_16_L + ISO_25_L + ISO_34_L) / 3
265
266 S_MEAN_ISO_G = np.sqrt(S_ISO_16_G**2 + S_ISO_25_G**2 + S_ISO_34_G**2) / 3
267 S_MEAN_ISO_L = np.sqrt(S_ISO_16_L**2 + S_ISO_25_L**2 + S_ISO_34_L**2) / 3
268
269 print("\n Isomeric shifts \n=====")
270 print("Gauss : " + str(MEAN_ISO_G * 1e9) + " +- " + str(S_MEAN_ISO_G * 1e9) +
271       " neV")
272 print("Lorentz : " + str(MEAN_ISO_L * 1e9) + " +- " + str(S_MEAN_ISO_L * 1e9) +
273       " neV")
274
275 # calc B field
276 E_16_G = ENERGIES_G[0] - ENERGIES_G[5]
277 E_25_G = ENERGIES_G[1] - ENERGIES_G[4]
278 E_34_G = ENERGIES_G[2] - ENERGIES_G[3]
279 E_16_L = ENERGIES_L[0] - ENERGIES_L[5]
280 E_25_L = ENERGIES_L[1] - ENERGIES_L[4]
281 E_34_L = ENERGIES_L[2] - ENERGIES_L[3]
282
283 MU_N = 3.15245e-8
284 MU_G = 0.09044 * 3.15245e-8 # eV / T
285 S_MU_G = 0.00007 * 3.15245e-8 # eV / T
286
287 B_GAUSS = - (E_34_G + E_25_G) / (4 * MU_G)
288 B_LORENZ = - (E_34_L + E_25_L) / (4 * MU_G)
289
290 # calculate B error
291
292 dbd34 = B_GAUSS / E_34_G
293 dbd25 = B_GAUSS / E_25_G
294 dbdmu = B_GAUSS / MU_G
295
296 dbd34_L = B_LORENZ / E_34_L
297 dbd25_L = B_LORENZ / E_25_L
298 dbdmu_L = B_LORENZ / MU_G
299

```



```

300 S_B_GAUSS = np.sqrt(dbd34**2 * S_ISO_34_G**2 + dbd25**2 * S_ISO_25_G**2 +
301                      dbdmu**2 * S_MU_G**2)
302
303 S_B_LORENZ = np.sqrt(dbd34_L**2 * S_ISO_34_L**2 + dbd25_L**2 * S_ISO_25_L**2 +
304                      dbdmu_L**2 * S_MU_G**2)
305
306 # calculate magnetic moment
307
308 MU_E_GAUSS = (3 * MU_G * (E_34_G - E_25_G)) / (E_34_G + E_25_G)
309 dmud34 = (6 * MU_G * E_25_G) / (E_34_G + E_25_G)**2
310 dmud25 = - (6 * MU_G * E_34_G) / (E_34_G + E_25_G)**2
311 dmudmu = MU_E_GAUSS / MU_G
312
313 S_MU_E_GAUSS = np.sqrt(dmud34**2 * S_ISO_34_G**2 + dmud25**2 * S_ISO_25_G**2 +
314                      dmudmu**2 * S_MU_G**2)
315
316 MU_E_LORENZ = (3 * MU_G * (E_34_L - E_25_L)) / (E_34_L + E_25_L)
317 dmud34_L = (6 * MU_G * E_25_L) / (E_34_L + E_25_L)**2
318 dmud25_L = - (6 * MU_G * E_34_L) / (E_34_L + E_25_L)**2
319 dmudmu_L = MU_E_LORENZ / MU_G
320
321 S_MU_E_LORENZ = np.sqrt(dmud34_L**2 * S_ISO_34_L**2 +
322                      dmud25_L**2 * S_ISO_25_L**2 +
323                      dmudmu_L**2 * S_MU_G**2)
324
325 print("\n Magnetic field and moment\n=====")
326 print("Gauss")
327 print(" B = (" + str(B_GAUSS) + " +- " + str(S_B_GAUSS) + ") T")
328 print(" MU_E = (" + str(MU_E_GAUSS) + " +- " + str(S_MU_E_GAUSS) + ") eV / T")
329 print(" MU_E in MU_N = (" + str(MU_E_GAUSS / MU_N) + " +- "
330       + str(S_MU_E_GAUSS / MU_N) + ") MU_N")
331 print("Lorentz")
332 print(" B = (" + str(B_LORENZ) + " +- " + str(S_B_LORENZ) + ") T")
333 print(" MU_E = (" + str(MU_E_LORENZ) + " +- " + str(S_MU_E_LORENZ)
334       + ") eV / T")
335 print(" MU_E in MU_N = (" + str(MU_E_LORENZ / MU_N) + " +- "
336       + str(S_MU_E_LORENZ / MU_N) + ") MU_N")

```

## C Lab Notes

### Mößbauer - effect

1) Getting to know the setup

Preamp: preamp.csv

amplifier: trc02.csv

compare amp + delay amp: trc03.csv <sup>delay</sup> trc04.csv <sup>amp</sup>

amp & SCA: trc05.csv <sup>SCA</sup> trc06.csv <sup>amp</sup>

linear gate & SCA: trc07.csv <sup>SCA</sup> trc08.csv <sup>l.g.</sup>

2) K $\alpha$ -lines for calibration

Tb: tb.TKA

Ba: ba.TKA

Ag, Mo,

Calibration measurements @ 20 Coarse Gain

→ relevant peak identified. Use to determine discriminator window for CG = 100

→ upper bound 2,10 } only use for CG  
lower bound 1,10 } 100

Thoughts about errors:

→ counting:  $\Delta N = \sqrt{N}$

measured until at least

1600 counts, then

$\sqrt{N}/N = 0,025$

for 2500  $\sqrt{N}/N = 0,02$

### 3) Compton - background I

- long measurement
- measurements for several thicknesses of Aluminium

-> film can container: thickness, length

-> NOT USED LATER, ABSORBER MISSING

### 4) Compton - background II

Steel - Absorber

- measurement without aluminium
- -"- several thicknesses aluminium

- all approx. 300s -> okayish error

- film can container thickness

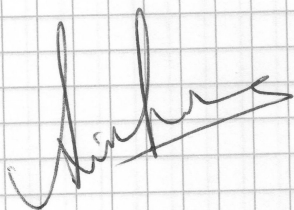
### 5) Acrylic - Glass

- with and without steel - absorber

- approx. 300s, dicke (2x)  $d = (2.00 \pm 0.02)$   
mm

### 6) Moessbauer - spectra

- both absorbers
- different times, steps and range



14/Apr/2021