

ESTIMATION OF THE STRENGTH OF A RADIOACTIVE SOURCE

by

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I. INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

This thesis is concerned with the estimation of the strength of a radioactive source when decay is rapid so that the usual assumption of a Poisson distribution of counts is not applicable. We distinguish two main cases according as the background radiation is small or large.

In the former case the common procedure of simply subtracting off a constant background radiation is adequate. If the background radiation is neglected altogether the method of maximum likelihood may be used to estimate both source strength and decay-constant for counts taken at any arbitrary times. The large-sample variances and covariances of these estimates are obtained and the procedure is illustrated on an actual set of experimental results. Some comparisons are made with simpler estimates.

When the background radiation is large it is clearly not altogether appropriate to apply a simple constant subtractive correction to the observed counts. The random fluctuations in the background radiation should be taken into account. It is not difficult to determine the exact distribution of counts as a sum of two independent variates, one a binomial and one a Poisson variate. However, this distribution is difficult to handle and a normal approximation with the same mean and variance will often suffice. Problems of estimation are nevertheless difficult in this case. We draw attention

to a procedure due to Tandberg [6] who considered the problem of obtaining a single optimum count; that is to say, he determined the time interval which would give best results if only a single count is taken. Such an optimal time exists because if counting is delayed too long the background radiation will swamp the results. The method of maximum likelihood applied in conjunction with the assumption of normality of total counts is compared with the Tandberg procedure in a numerical example, where the difference turns out to be unimportant. The possibility of taking two counts is also considered and the source strength is estimated by a least squares approach.

Attention has been concentrated in this thesis on problems caused by the rapid decay of the radioactive source. Other commonly encountered complications, such as the geometry of the counter and corrections for the dead period of the counter, have been ignored in the present study.

II. ESTIMATION WHEN BACKGROUND RADIATION IS NEGLIGIBLE

2.1 The Law of Radioactive Decay

The number of radioactive atoms of a given isolated species which is not simultaneously regenerated by any process decreases exponentially with time.

The disintegration law common to all radioactive processes is normally written

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N \quad , \quad (2.1.1)$$

where N is the number of radioactive atoms present at time t , and λ is the disintegration constant characteristic of the radio-isotope considered: λ is expressed in reciprocal time units, e.g., if t is in seconds, λ is in units of sec.^{-1} , and if t is in minutes λ is in min.^{-1} .

Equation (2.1.1) may be integrated to give

$$N_t = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad ,$$

where N_0 is the number of atoms present at any arbitrary zero time and N_t is the number remaining after the lapse of a further time interval t .

2.2 Estimation for a Rapidly Decaying Substance

From the law of radioactive decay it follows that in a time-interval t , a radioactive atom will decay with probability

$$p = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} \quad .$$

Thus the distribution of the number of emissions is binomial

(p, N_0) . If the decay is slow p will be small and a Poisson approximation to the binomial can be used. Here we will retain the exact binomial distribution.

Suppose now that z_i ($i=1,2,\dots,k$) particles are counted at times t_i . Let p_i denote the probability that a particle radioactive at time t_{i-1} will decay in the time-interval (t_{i-1}, t_i) . Then

$$p_i = 1 - e^{-\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})}$$

We have, writing q_i for $1-p_i$,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} f(z_1) &= \binom{N_0}{z_1} p_1^{z_1} q_1^{N_0 - z_1}, \\ f(z_2|z_1) &= \binom{N_0 - z_1}{z_2} p_2^{z_2} q_2^{N_0 - z_1 - z_2}, \\ &\dots\dots\dots, \\ f(z_k|z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots, z_{k-1}) &= \binom{N_0 - z_1 - z_2 - \dots - z_{k-1}}{z_k} p_k^{z_k} q_k^{N_0 - \sum_{i=1}^k z_i}. \end{aligned} \right\} (2.2.1)$$

Putting $Z = \sum_{i=1}^k z_i$ and $Z_r = \sum_{i=1}^r z_i$ ($r=1,2,\dots,k$), we have on multiplying together equations (2.2.1), that the joint density function of z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k , is

$$L = \frac{N_0!}{(N_0 - Z)!} \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i^{z_i} q_i^{N_0 - Z_i}}{z_i!}, \quad (2.2.2)$$

where $p_i = 1 - e^{-\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})}$ and $q_i = 1 - p_i$.

Hence

$$\log L = c + \log N_0! - \log(N_0 - Z)! + \sum_{i=1}^k z_i \log[1 - e^{-\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})}] - \sum_{i=1}^k (N_0 - Z_i) \lambda(t_i - t_{i-1}), \quad (2.2.3)$$

where $c = - \sum_{i=1}^k \log z_i!$.

2.2.1 Estimation of N_0 for known λ .

Differentiating (2.2.3) with respect to N_0 we obtain

$$\frac{d \log L}{d N_0} = \frac{d \log N_0!}{d N_0} - \frac{d \log (N_0 - Z)!}{d (N_0 - Z)} \frac{d (N_0 - Z)}{d N_0} - \lambda t_k.$$

Thus the maximum likelihood estimate \hat{N}_0 is the solution of the equation

$$\Psi(\hat{N}_0) - \Psi(\hat{N}_0 - Z) = \lambda t_k, \quad (2.2.4)$$

where $\Psi(x) \equiv d \log x! / dx$ is tabulated by Davis [2] for $x < 450$. For large x one can use the asymptotic formula

$$\Psi(x) = \log x - \frac{1}{2x} - \frac{B_2}{2x^2} - \frac{B_4}{4x^4} - \dots - \frac{B_{2r}}{(2x^2)^r} - \dots, \quad (2.2.5)$$

where the B's are the Bernoulli numbers $B_2 = 1/6$, $B_4 = -1/30$, $B_6 = 1/42$, etc.

A simpler estimate N_0^* is obtained from the fact that z is binomial with probability parameter $1 - e^{-\lambda t_k}$, viz.,

$$N_0^* = \frac{Z}{1 - e^{-\lambda t_k}} \quad . \quad (2.2.6)$$

This estimate is clearly unbiased and follows also directly from the law of radioactivity

$$N_{t_k} = N_0 e^{-\lambda t_k} \quad ,$$

since $N_{t_k} = N_0 - Z$. N_0^* may be used as a first estimate of N_0 to facilitate the solution of (2.2.4).

Actually Z is sufficient for N_0 , since the likelihood function L of (2.2.2) factors into

$$L = \frac{N_0!}{(N_0 - Z)!} \prod_{i=1}^k q_i^{N_0} \cdot \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i^{z_i} q_i^{-z_i}}{z_i!} \quad ,$$

the first factor being a function of N_0 and Z only, while the second factor is a function of the observations only. Consequently there is no point in finding the m.l. estimate in this case since N_0^* is optimal, being that function of Z which is unbiased for N_0 . There are, in general, no sufficient statistics in the following two cases.

2.2.2 Estimation of λ for known N_0 .

On differentiating (2.2.3) with respect to λ we have

$$\frac{d \log L}{d \lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{z_i}{p_i} \frac{d p_i}{d \lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^k (N_0 - Z_i)(t_i - t_{i-1})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{z_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) e^{-\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})}}{1 - e^{-\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})}} - N_0 t_k \\
 &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^k Z_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{z_i(t_i - t_{i-1})}{e^{\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})} - 1} - N_0 t_k \\
 &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^k Z_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \quad . \quad (2.2.7)
 \end{aligned}$$

This equation may be solved numerically for λ . A first approximation to λ is minus the slope of the regression line of $\log(N_0 - Z_i)$ on t_i .

If counts are made at equal intervals we may take $t_i = it$ when (2.2.7) simplifies to

$$\frac{d \log L}{d \lambda} = t \left(\frac{Z}{e^{\lambda t} - 1} - A \right) ,$$

where $A = kN_0 - \sum_{i=1}^k Z_i$. Setting $d \log L/d\lambda$ equal to zero we obtain

$$e^{\hat{\lambda}t} = \frac{Z + A}{A} ,$$

or $\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{t} [\log(Z+A) - \log A]$, is the maximum likelihood estimate of λ .

2.2.3 Simultaneous estimation of λ and N_0 .

We now have to solve simultaneously the equations

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial N_0} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \lambda} = 0,$$

that is, equations (2.2.4) and (2.2.7).

Those equations can be solved by Newton's iterated method for two variables or by the Gauss-Seidel method. A first approximation to λ is minus the slope of the regression line of $\log \bar{z}_i$ on $t_i - \frac{1}{2}(t_i - t_{i-1})$, where \bar{z}_i is the average count during the time interval $(t_i - t_{i-1})$. This approximation comes directly from the law of radioactive decay. If we draw a histogram against time, we will have an exponential curve. The midpoint of each time interval will be $t_i - \frac{1}{2}(t_i - t_{i-1})$ and points on the curve represent the average count.

If counts are made at equal time-intervals the equations reduce to

$$\psi(\hat{N}_0) - \psi(\hat{N}_0 - Z) = k\lambda t$$

$$\text{and } \hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{t} \left[\log \left(Z + k\hat{N}_0 - \sum_{i=1}^k Z_i \right) - \log \left(k\hat{N}_0 - \sum_{i=1}^k Z_i \right) \right].$$

The numerical solution is illustrated by an example in Section 2.3.

2.2.4 Large-sample variances and covariances of the maximum likelihood estimators.

The second partial derivatives of $\log L$ with respect to the parameters N_0 and λ are

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial N_0^2} = \psi''(N_0) - \psi''(N_0 - Z),$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial N_0 \partial \lambda} = -t_k \quad ,$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \lambda^2} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{z_i (t_i - t_{i-1})^2 e^{\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})}}{(e^{\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})} - 1)^2} \quad . (2.2.8)$$

Hence the elements of the information matrix can be found on taking expectations. We have

$$\begin{aligned} i_{11} &= E\left(-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial N_0^2}\right) = E[\psi'(N_0 - Z) - \psi'(N_0)] \\ &= E\left[\sum_{j=0}^{Z-1} \frac{1}{(N_0 - j)^2}\right] \\ &= \sum_{Z=1}^{N_0} \binom{N_0}{Z} (1 - e^{-\lambda t_k})^Z (e^{-\lambda t_k})^{N_0 - Z} \sum_{j=0}^{Z-1} \frac{1}{(N_0 - j)^2} \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Setting $1+r = e^{\lambda t_k}$ we obtain (cf. Fisher, 1940, [3])

$$\begin{aligned} i_{11} &= (1+r)^{-N_0} \left\{ N_0 r \frac{1}{N_0^2} + \frac{N_0(N_0-1)}{2} r^2 \left[\frac{1}{N_0^2} + \frac{1}{(N_0-1)^2} \right] \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{N_0(N_0-1)(N_0-2)}{6} r^3 \left[\frac{1}{N_0^2} + \frac{1}{(N_0-1)^2} + \frac{1}{(N_0-2)^2} \right] \\ &\quad \left. + \dots \right\} \\ &= \frac{r}{N_0} + \frac{r^2}{2N_0(N_0-1)} + \frac{4r^3}{6N_0(N_0-1)(N_0-2)} + \dots \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{N_0} \frac{r^j}{j} \frac{(j-1)! (N_0-j)!}{N_0!} \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Also

$$i_{12} = i_{21} = E\left(-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial N_0 \partial \lambda}\right) = t_k \quad .$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} E(z_i) &= E(Z_i) - E(Z_{i-1}) \\ &= N_0(e^{-\lambda t_{i-1}} - e^{-\lambda t_i}) \quad , \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} i_{22} &= E\left(-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \lambda^2}\right) \\ &= N_0 \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(t_i - t_{i-1})^2 e^{-\lambda t_{i-1}}}{[e^{-\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})} - 1]} \end{aligned}$$

The large-sample variances and covariances follow an inversion of the information matrix

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} i_{11} & i_{12} \\ i_{21} & i_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad ,$$

being the elements of I^{-1} . To estimate them the m.l. estimates of N_0 and λ are substituted for the unknown parameters. This procedure is also illustrated in the example of the following section.

2.3 Numerical Example

2.3.1 Estimation of N_0 and λ for Indium.

The data of counts were taken in the VPI Physics Department by John Rogers in 1957. Assume that subtracting off a

constant background radiation is adequate.

The first estimate for λ is minus the slope of the regression line Y on X, by the Table I.

$$S_{xx} = 3,892,174.07 \quad ,$$

$$SP_{xy} = -720.8264 \quad ,$$

$$\frac{SP_{xy}}{S_{xx}} = -.000185 \quad ,$$

giving $\lambda = .000185$.

Now we have two equations (2.2.4) and (2.2.7) and two unknowns to solve for. In this example we used the Gauss-Seidel method.

A first estimate of λ is $\lambda_0 = .000185$, and from Table II, we obtain $t_k = 1670$, $Z = 648,573$ and $\sum_{i=1}^k z_i (t_i - t_{i-1}) = 616,722,570$.

Equation (2.2.6) now gives a first estimate N_{00} of N_0 as

$$N_{00} = N_0^* = \frac{648,573}{1 - e^{-1670\lambda}} \quad . \quad (2.3.1)$$

From equation (2.2.7) we have

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^{27} \frac{z_i (t_i - t_{i-1})}{\lambda (t_i - t_{i-1}) - 1} - N_0 1670 + 616,722,570 \quad ,$$

and similarly $\partial^2 \log L / \partial \lambda^2$ from (2.2.8).

Using Newton's iterative method for one variable we can solve for λ from

$$\lambda_{r+1} = \lambda_r - \frac{f(\lambda_r)}{f'(\lambda_r)}$$

Table I

Time in sec.	Count per 10 sec.	B		Y log B.	$t_i - t_{i-1}$	X $t_i - \frac{1}{2}(t_i - t_{i-1})$
		Count	Count - Bg.			
10	5102	5052		8.5275	10	5
30	4736	4686		8.4523	20	20
50	4472	4422		8.3943	20	40
70	4612	4562		8.4255	20	60
90	4369	4319		8.3708	20	80
110	4368	4318		8.3705	20	100
130	4363	4313		8.3694	20	120
150	4323	4273		8.3601	20	140
170	4334	4284		8.3626	20	160
190	4450	4400		8.3894	20	180
210	4223	4173		8.3364	20	200
230	4270	4220		8.3476	20	220
260	4135	4085		8.3151	30	245
290	4217	4164		8.3342	30	275
320	4360	4310		8.3687	30	305
350	4347	4297		8.3657	30	335
380	4219	4169		8.3354	30	365
410	4258	4208		8.3447	30	395
470	4311	4261		8.3573	60	440
530	4211	4161		8.3335	60	500
590	4216	4166		8.3347	60	560
710	4129	4079		8.3136	120	650
830	4026	3976		8.2880	120	770
950	3826	3776		8.2364	120	890
1070	3851	3801		8.2430	120	1010
1370	3638	3588		8.1854	300	1220
1670	3421	3371		8.1230	300	1520
Σ				225.1851		10805

Table II

$t_i - t_{i-1}$	z_i	Z_i
10	5052	5052
20	9372	14424
20	8844	23268
20	9124	32392
20	8638	41030
20	8636	49666
20	8626	58292
20	8546	66838
20	8568	75406
20	8800	84206
20	8346	92552
20	8440	100992
30	12255	113247
30	12492	125739
30	12930	138669
30	12891	151560
30	12507	164067
30	12624	176691
60	25566	202257
60	24966	227223
60	24996	252219
120	48948	301167
120	47712	348879
120	45312	394191
120	45612	439803
300	107640	547443
300	101130	648573
Σ	1670	648573

$$\text{where } f(\lambda_r) = \left(\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \lambda} \right)_{\lambda=\lambda_r},$$

$$\text{and } f'(\lambda_r) = \left(\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \lambda^2} \right)_{\lambda=\lambda_r}.$$

To start with, N_{00} was substituted for N_0 in these formulae. The iterations for λ were done on an IBM 650 computer until the difference between successive λ 's was less than 5×10^{-7} . With this value of λ a new estimate N_{01} was obtained from equation (2.3.1). The procedure was repeated until sufficient accuracy for both λ and N_0 was attained. The final values, which are the required maximum likelihood estimates, came out to be

$$N_0 = 2,388,887 \qquad \lambda = .000189678 .$$

These may be compared with the first estimates

$$N_{00} = 2,439,178 \qquad \lambda = .000185 .$$

2.3.2 Variance-covariance matrix.

We have estimates

$$\hat{\lambda} = .000189678$$

$$\hat{N}_0 = 2,388,887 .$$

The information matrix is

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} i_{11} & i_{12} \\ i_{21} & i_{22} \end{bmatrix} .$$

We obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 i_{11} &= \frac{r}{N_0} + \frac{r^2}{2N_0(N_0-1)} + \frac{4r^3}{6N_0(N_0-1)(N_0-2)} + \dots + \dots \\
 &= \frac{.372324}{2,388,887} + \frac{(.372324)^2}{2(2,388,887)(2,388,886)} + \dots + \dots \\
 &\sim .15585657 \times 10^{-6}
 \end{aligned}$$

where $r = e^{\lambda t_k} - 1 = e^{.31676226} - 1 = .372324$

$$i_{12} = i_{21} = t_k = 1670$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 i_{22} &= N_0 \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(t_i - t_{i-1})^2 e^{-\lambda t_{i-1}}}{(e^{\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1})} - 1)} \right) \\
 &= (2.388887)(7.545457) \times 10^{12} .
 \end{aligned}$$

The variance-covariance matrix is the inverse of the information matrix. We obtain,

$$I^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 8.812261 \times 10^8 & -.816437 \times 10^{-2} \\ -.816437 \times 10^{-2} & 7.619585 \times 10^{-12} \end{bmatrix} .$$

III. ESTIMATION WHEN BACKGROUND RADIATION IS NOT NEGLIGIBLE

3.1 Exact Distribution of Counts

So far we have ignored the presence of background radiation. If this is small there is little harm in merely adjusting each count for the background radiation, assumed constant throughout the experiment and determined separately. Such a procedure was used in the example of Section 2.3. In this chapter we will attempt to take into account the random fluctuations of the background radiation.

If x is the number of particles emitted by the source, then the distribution $f(x)$ of x is binomial, and if y is the number of particles in the background radiation, then y has a Poisson distribution $g(y)$, say. Thus the distribution which we are dealing with will be $h(z)$, where $z=x+y$.

The exact distribution of z is

$$h(z) = \sum_{x=0}^z f(x)g(z-x) = \sum_{y=0}^z f(z-y)g(y) \quad ,$$

since $f(x)$ and $g(y)$ are independent of each other.

The distribution of x is binomial with

$$E(x) = N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t}) \quad ,$$

$$\text{Var}(x) = N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} \quad ,$$

$$\text{and } f(x) = \binom{N_0}{x}(1 - e^{-\lambda t})^x(e^{-\lambda t})^{N_0-x} \quad x=0,1,2,\dots,N_0 \quad .$$

The distribution of y is Poisson

$$g(y) = e^{-bt} \frac{(bt)^y}{y!} , \quad y=0,1,2,\dots$$

Thus $h(z)$ can be written as

$$h(z) = \sum_{x=0}^{\min(z, N_0)} \binom{N_0}{x} p^x (1-p)^{N_0-x} e^{-bt} \frac{(bt)^{z-x}}{(z-x)!} ,$$

$$z=0,1,2,\dots$$

where $p=(1-e^{-\lambda t})$.

$$\text{Also } E(z) = N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t}) + bt \text{ and } \text{Var}(z) = N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + bt .$$

3.2 Estimation of Source Strength

3.2.1 The problem of measuring the intensity of a radioactive source in the presence of background radiation was discussed by J. Tandberg [6].

With his method of estimating N_0 , supposing we have an unknown number N_0 of impulses, the decay-constant λ and the background of b impulses per minute being known, we shall get during t minutes x impulses from the source with

$$\mu_x = N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t}) ,$$

$$\sigma_x = [N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t}]^{\frac{1}{2}} ,$$

and y impulses from the background with

$$\mu_y = bt ,$$

$$\sigma_y = [bt]^{\frac{1}{2}} .$$

Thus we have during t minutes a total number of impulses, with

$$\mu = N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})+bt \quad ,$$

$$\sigma = [N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t}+bt]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad .$$

An unbiased estimate of N_0 is therefore given by

$$N_0^* = \frac{Z - bt}{1 - e^{-\lambda t}} \quad . \quad (3.2.1)$$

3.2.2 Estimate from normalization of exact distribution.

Since $f(x)$ and $g(y)$ are binomial and Poisson distributions, we will now assume that $h(z)$ is approximately normally distributed with $E(z) = N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})+bt$ and $\text{Var}(z) = N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + bt$.

Then the distribution of z will be

$$h(z) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sigma} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (z-\mu)^2 \right] \quad .$$

Using the method of maximum likelihood to estimate N_0 , we have

$$\text{Log } h(z) = c - \frac{1}{2} \ln \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (z-\mu)^2 \quad ,$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial N_0} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + \frac{(z-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^4} (1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$+ \frac{(z-\mu)(1-e^{-\lambda t})}{\sigma^2} \quad .$$

Set this equal to zero and obtain

$$e^{-\lambda t} = \frac{(z-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} e^{-\lambda t} + 2(z-\mu) \quad ,$$

$$e^{-\lambda t} = \frac{[z - N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t}) - bt]e^{-\lambda t}}{N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + bt} + 2[z - N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t}) - bt] .$$

For simplification let us call, $e^{-\lambda t} = w$, $(1 - e^{-\lambda t}) = a$, and $bt = d$. Let us solve for N_0 , and obtain the following equation.

$$N_0 = \frac{-(w^2 + w - 2wz + 2wd + 2d) + [(w^2 + w - 2wz + 2wd + 2d)^2 - 4(2w)(2wd - wz - 2dz + 2d^2)]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{4wa} \quad (3.2.2)$$

To show how close $h(z)$ is to a normal distribution, let us find the coefficients γ_1 and γ_2 ,

where
$$\gamma_1 = \frac{k_3}{(k_2)^{3/2}} \quad , \quad \gamma_2 = \frac{k_4}{(k_2)^2} .$$

Clearly $k_{x2} = N_0pq$, and $k_{y2} = bt$. From Kendall and Stuart [4] we obtain also

$$\begin{aligned} k_{x3} &= N_0pq(q-p) \quad , \quad k_{x4} = N_0pq(1-6pq) \\ k_{y3} &= bt \quad , \quad k_{y4} = bt . \end{aligned}$$

Since $f(x)$ and $g(y)$ are independent of each other we can get

$$\begin{aligned} k_{z2} &= k_{(x+y)2} = k_{x2} + k_{y2} = N_0pq + bt \quad , \\ k_{z3} &= N_0pq(q-p) + bt \quad , \\ k_{z4} &= N_0pq(1-6pq) + bt \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_1 &= \frac{N_0pq(q-p) + bt}{(N_0pq + bt)^{3/2}} \quad , \\ \gamma_2 &= \frac{N_0pq(1-6pq) + bt}{(N_0pq + bt)^2} . \end{aligned}$$

Clearly γ_1 and γ_2 tend to zero if at least one of N_0 and t tends to infinity.

3.3 The Tandberg Procedure for Obtaining a Single Optimal Count

A problem in measuring the intensity of a radioactive source by means of a Geiger-Müller tube arises in determining the optimum period of counting time. This determination will depend of course, on the average life of the radioactive source and the intensity of the background interference. If the counting were carried on for a long period of time, the background fluctuations would certainly cause confusion. For a very short series, on the other hand, the fluctuations of the source itself may easily predominate and the result will accordingly be uncertain.

In order to obtain the least erroneous value of N_0 we will set out to find the time t^* for which the mean relative fluctuation

$$\frac{[N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + bt]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t})}$$

is a minimum. Let us denote the square of this expression by $G(t)$, and differentiate $G(t)$ with respect to t .

$$\begin{aligned} G(t) &= \frac{N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + bt}{N_0^2(1 - e^{-\lambda t})^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{N_0} \left[\frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{1-e^{-\lambda t}} + \frac{bt}{N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})^2} \right] . \end{aligned}$$

$$G'(t) = \frac{1}{N_0} \left[\frac{(1-e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t}(-\lambda) - e^{-\lambda t}(e^{-\lambda t})\lambda}{(1-e^{-\lambda t})^2} + \frac{(1-e^{-\lambda t})^2 b - 2bt(1-e^{-\lambda t})\lambda(e^{-\lambda t})}{N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t})^4} \right] .$$

Set this equal to zero, and transforming the equation we get,

$$N_0(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})^2 [(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})e^{-\lambda t^*}(-\lambda) - (e^{-\lambda t^*})(e^{-\lambda t^*})\lambda] + (1-e^{-\lambda t^*})^2 b - 2b\lambda t^*(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})e^{-\lambda t^*} = 0 ,$$

$$N_0\lambda(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})^2 [-(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})e^{-\lambda t^*} - (e^{-\lambda t^*})(e^{-\lambda t^*})] = b[2\lambda t^*(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})e^{-\lambda t^*} - (1-e^{-\lambda t^*})^2]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{N_0\lambda}{b} &= \frac{(1-e^{-\lambda t^*}) [2\lambda t^*e^{-\lambda t^*} - (1-e^{-\lambda t^*})]}{(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})^2(-e^{-\lambda t^*})} \\ &= \frac{2\lambda t^*e^{-\lambda t^*} - (1-e^{-\lambda t^*})}{(1-e^{-\lambda t^*})(-e^{-\lambda t^*})} \\ &= e^{\lambda t^*} - \frac{2\lambda t^*}{1 - e^{-\lambda t^*}} . \end{aligned}$$

By inspection of the second derivative of $G(t)$, t^* corresponds to a minimum of $G(t)$.

3.4 Comparison of Two Methods of Estimation for Optimal Counting Time

If following Tandberg we denote λt^* by θ we may regard θ as the optimum time of counting, expressed in terms of the

average life ($1/\lambda$) of the radioactive substance.

Now N_0 represents the initial intensity of the source, corrected for the effect of the background. Thus the quotient $N_0\lambda/b$ may be considered as the relative initial intensity of the radioactive source in terms of that of the background. The graph in Fig. 1 gives the relation between $N_0\lambda/b$ and θ for small values of θ . If we consider a numerical example with radioactive indium, for which $\lambda = 0.01274 \text{ min.}^{-1}$, having an initial activity equal to the background, it will be seen that it is of no use to continue the measurement longer than $\theta = 1.6$ or about 2 hours. An extended counting of impulses would give results of decreasing accuracy.

As a numerical example, let us take $\lambda = 0.01274$, and $\lambda t^* = \theta = 1.6$ from Fig. 1, and take $N_0^*\lambda = b$.

Then using (3.2.1)

$$N_0^* = \frac{z - bt^*}{1 - e^{-\lambda t^*}} = \frac{z - N_0^*\lambda t^*}{1 - e^{-\lambda t^*}} .$$

Let us take $z = 100$, and solve for N_0^* .

$$\lambda t^* = \theta = 1.6 \text{ gives } t^* = 125.5887 ,$$

$$N_0^*(1 - e^{-\lambda t^*}) = z - N_0^*\lambda t^* ,$$

$$N_0^*(1 - e^{-\lambda t^*}) + N_0^*\lambda t^* = z ,$$

$$N_0^*(1 - e^{-\lambda t^*} + \lambda t^*) = z ,$$

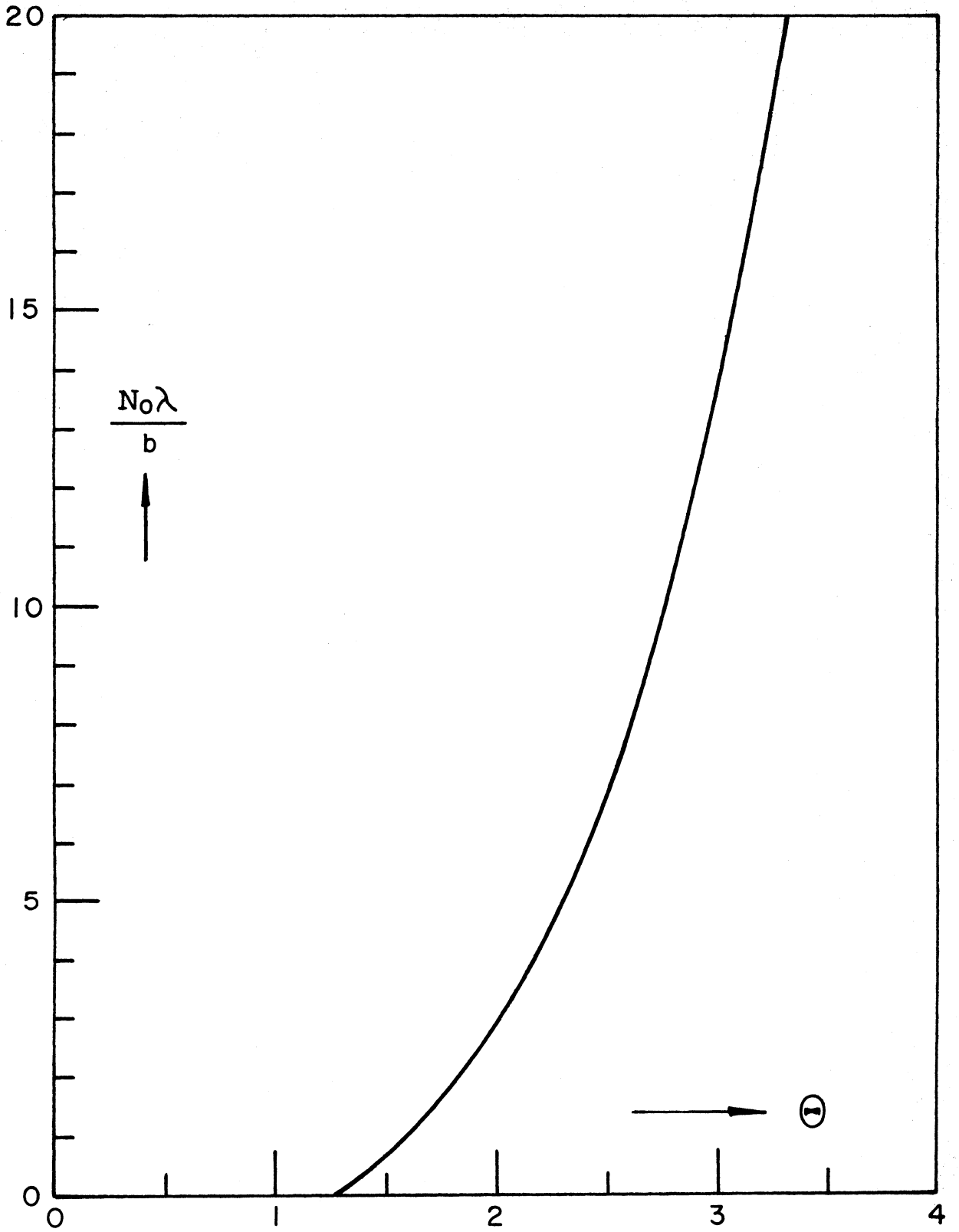


Fig. 1

$$\begin{aligned} N_0^* &= \frac{z}{1 - e^{-\lambda t^*} + \lambda t^*} \\ &= \frac{100}{1 - e^{-1.6} + 1.6} \\ &= 41.7014 \quad . \end{aligned}$$

$$N_0^* \lambda = b^* = (41.7014)(0.01274) = 0.531276 \quad .$$

Let us use this b^* , put it into equation (3.2.2), and solve for N_0 . We find

$$\hat{N}_0 = 41.5910 \quad .$$

Further investigation with different values of θ show that estimating N_0 by Tandberg's method and maximum likelihood leads to almost the same results.

Table III shows the estimation of N_0 for different values of θ .

Table III

$N_0^* \lambda$	$\lambda t = \theta$	t	N_0^*	\hat{N}_0
2b	1.88	147.5667	55.9503	55.8643
3b	2.1	164.8352	63.3874	63.3111
5b	2.3	180.5338	73.5456	73.4607
15b	3.1	243.328	86.0807	86.0605

Assumed $z = 100$

3.5 Estimation When Two Counts Can be Made

Now let us consider the case when two counts are made at equal time-intervals, z_1 for the interval $(0,t)$, z_2 for $(t,2t)$.

To estimate N_0 , we minimize the following expression with respect to N_0

$$S = (\underline{z} - \underline{\mu})' V^{-1} (\underline{z} - \underline{\mu}) ,$$

where

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix} ,$$

and

$$V^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{22} & -\sigma_{12} \\ -\sigma_{12} & \sigma_{11} \end{bmatrix} .$$

Thus

$$S = \frac{1}{\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2} [(z_1 - \mu_1)^2 \sigma_{22} - 2(z_1 - \mu_1)(z_2 - \mu_2) \sigma_{12} + (z_2 - \mu_2)^2 \sigma_{11}] ,$$

where

$$\mu_1 = E(z_1) = E(x_1 + y_1) = N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t}) + bt = N_0 p + bt ,$$

$$\mu_2 = E(z_2) = E(x_2 + y_2) = N_0[(1 - e^{-2\lambda t}) - (1 - e^{-\lambda t})] + b(2t - t)$$

$$= N_0 e^{-\lambda t} (1 - e^{-\lambda t}) + bt$$

$$= N_0 p q + bt ,$$

$$\sigma_{11} = N_0(1 - e^{-\lambda t})e^{-\lambda t} + bt = N_0pq + bt \quad .$$

To evaluate σ_{22} , consider $E(x_1^2)$. Let us call probability of decay in interval t_1 , p and $q = 1-p$. Call probability of decay in interval $(t, 2t)$ p_2 and $q_2 = 1-p_2$ respectively.

$$E(x_1^2) = N_0pq + (N_0p)^2 \quad .$$

Then

$$E(x_2^2 | x_1) = E[(N_0 - x_1)p_2q_2 + (N_0 - x_1)^2p_2^2] \quad .$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} E(x_2^2) &= (N_0 - N_0p)p_2q_2 + (N_0^2 - 2N_0^2p + N_0pq + N_0^2p^2)p_2^2 \\ &= N_0qp_2q_2 + N_0^2q^2p_2^2 + N_0pqp_2^2 \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{22} &= E(x_2^2) - N_0^2p^2q^2 + bt \\ &= N_0qp_2q_2 + N_0^2q^2p_2^2 + N_0pqp_2^2 - N_0^2p^2q^2 + bt \\ &= N_0(qp_2q_2 + pqp_2^2) + N_0^2(q^2p_2^2 + p^2q^2) + bt \quad . \end{aligned}$$

But $p_2 = 1 - e^{-\lambda(2t-t)} = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} = p$, $q_2 = q$.

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{22} &= N_0(q^2p + p^3q) + N_0^2(q^2p^2 - p^2q^2) + bt \\ &= N_0pq(q + p^2) + bt \\ &= N_0A + bt \quad , \end{aligned}$$

where $A = pq(1 - pq)$.

Now we must find the expression for σ_{12} in order to differentiate S.

$$\text{Var}(z_1 + z_2) = \sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + 2\sigma_{12} .$$

But

$$\text{Var}(z_1 + z_2) = N_0(1 - e^{-2\lambda t}) e^{-2\lambda t} + 2bt .$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{12} &= \frac{1}{2}[N_0(1 - e^{-2\lambda t}) e^{-2\lambda t} + 2bt - \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22}] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}[N_0(1 - e^{-2\lambda t}) e^{-2\lambda t} - N_0pq - N_0pq(1 - pq)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}N_0[(1 - q^2)q^2 - pq - pq + p^2q^2] \\ &= - N_0p^2q . \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating S with respect to N_0 we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial S}{\partial N_0} &= \frac{1}{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial N_0} [(z_1 - \mu_1)^2\sigma_{22} - 2(z_1 - \mu_1)(z_2 - \mu_2)\sigma_{12} \\ &\quad + (z_2 - \mu_2)^2\sigma_{11}] + [(z_1 - \mu_1)^2\sigma_{22} - 2(z_1 - \mu_1)(z_2 - \mu_2)\sigma_{12} \\ &\quad + (z_2 - \mu_2)^2\sigma_{11}] \frac{\partial (\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2)}{\partial N_0} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial (z_1 - \mu_1)^2\sigma_{22}}{\partial N_0} = -2(z_1 - \mu_1)\sigma_{22}p + (z_1 - \mu_1)^2A = -2z_1p\sigma_{22}$$

$$+ 2\mu_1p\sigma_{22} + z_1^2A - 2z_1\mu_1A + \mu_1^2A$$

$$-2 \frac{\partial (z_1 - \mu_1)(z_2 - \mu_2)\sigma_{12}}{\partial N_0} = -2[-p(z_2 - \mu_2)\sigma_{12} - pq(z_1 - \mu_1)\sigma_{12}$$

$$- (z_1 - \mu_1)(z_2 - \mu_2)p^2q]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 2z_2 p \sigma_{12} - 2p \sigma_{11} \sigma_{12} + 2z_1 p q \sigma_{12} \\
 &\quad - 2\mu_1 p q \sigma_{12} + 2z_1 z_2 p^2 q - 2z_1 \sigma_{11} p^2 q \\
 &\quad - 2z_2 \mu_1 p^2 q + 2\mu_1 \sigma_{11} p^2 q
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial (z_2 - \mu_2)^2 \sigma_{11}}{\partial N_0} &= -2(z_2 - \sigma_{11}) \sigma_{11} p q + (z_2 - \sigma_{11})^2 p q = -2z_2 p q \sigma_{11} \\
 &\quad + 2p q \sigma_{11}^2 + z_2^2 p q - 2z_2 \sigma_{11} p q + \sigma_{11}^2 p q
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial (\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2)^{-1}}{\partial N_0} = - \frac{1}{(\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2)^2} z [\sigma_{22} p q + \sigma_{11} A + 2\sigma_{12} p^2 q]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &[\sigma_{11} \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{12}^2] [-2z_1 p \sigma_{22} + 2\mu_1 p \sigma_{22} + z_1^2 A - 2z_1 \mu_1 A + \mu_1^2 A + 2z_2 p \sigma_{12} \\
 &\quad - 2p \sigma_{11} \sigma_{12} + 2z_1 p q \sigma_{12} - 2\mu_1 p q \sigma_{12} + 2z_1 z_2 p^2 q \\
 &\quad - 2z_1 \sigma_{11} p^2 q - 2z_2 \mu_1 p^2 q + 2\mu_1 \sigma_{11} p^2 q - 2z_2 p q \sigma_{11} \\
 &\quad + 3p q \sigma_{11}^2 + z_2^2 p q - 2z_2 \sigma_{11} p q]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &- [\sigma_{22} p q + \sigma_{11} A + 2\sigma_{12} p^2 q] [z_1^2 \sigma_{22} - 2z_1 \mu_1 \sigma_{22} + \mu_1^2 \sigma_{22} - 2z_1 z_2 \sigma_{12} \\
 &\quad + 2z_1 \sigma_{11} \sigma_{12} + 2z_2 \mu_1 \sigma_{12} - 2\mu_1 \sigma_{11} \sigma_{12} \\
 &\quad + z_2^2 \sigma_{11} - 2z_2 \sigma_{11}^2 + \sigma_{11}^3] = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

The equation $\partial S / \partial N_0 = 0$ reduces to the following quartic for N_0 :

$$\begin{aligned}
 &N_0^4 p^5 q^4 (1+q) + N_0^3 2(bt) p^4 q^2 (2+q+q^3) + N_0^4 [-2z_1 bt p^4 q^2 (2-q^2 p) \\
 &\quad - z_1^2 p^3 q^4 (1-pq) - 2z_1 z_2 p^4 q^4 - 2z_2 bt p^4 q^2 (2+pq) - z_2^2 p^3 q^4]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &+(bt)^2 p^3 q(5+10q-3q^2-3q^3+4q^4-q_5)] \\
 &+N_0[-4z_1(bt)^2 p^2 q(1-q^2)-2bt p^2 q^3(z_1^2+z_2^2)-4z_2(bt)^2 p^3 q(1+q) \\
 &+2(bt)^3 p^2(1+4q+q^2-2q^3)] \\
 &+[-2z_1(bt)^3 p(1-q^2)-2z_2(bt)^3 pq(1-q^2)+2z_1 z_2(bt)^2 p^2 q \\
 &-z_1^2(bt)^2 pq-z_2^2(bt)^2 pq(1-pq)+(bt)^4 p(2+2q-q^2 q^3)] = 0
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{3.5.1}$$

For our numerical example we have $z_1 = 60$, $z_2 = 45$

$$q = e^{-\lambda t} \text{ where } t = 60, \lambda = .01274 .$$

Equation (3.5.1) becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
 .0030N_0^4 + 2.7226N_0^3 + 285.2945N_0^2 - 4,721.8225N_0 \\
 - 1,198,955.8408 = 0 .
 \end{aligned}$$

Inspection of this equation tells us that it has one positive root and three negative roots. Solving for N_0 we get

$$N_0 = 57 .$$

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ABSTRACT

This thesis is concerned with the estimation of the strength of a radioactive source when decay is rapid so that the usual assumption of a Poisson distribution of counts is not applicable. We distinguish two main cases according as the background radiation is small or large.

In the former case the common procedure of simply subtracting off a constant background radiation is adequate. If the background radiation is neglected altogether the method of maximum likelihood may be used to estimate both source strength and decay-constant for counts taken at any arbitrary times. The large-sample variances and covariances of these estimates are obtained and the procedure is illustrated on an actual set of experimental results.

When the background radiation is large their randomness should be taken into account. The exact distribution of counts is the sum of two independent variates, one a binomial and one a Poisson. However, a normal approximation with the same mean and variance will often suffice. We draw attention to a procedure due to Tandberg who considered the problem of obtaining a single optimum count. The method of maximum likelihood applied in conjunction with the assumption of normality of total counts is compared with his method in a numerical example. The possibility of taking two counts is also considered and the source strength is estimated by a least squares approach.