



Designation: **D3084 – 05 (Reapproved 2012) D3084 – 20**

Standard Practice for Alpha-Particle Spectrometry of Water¹

This standard is issued under the fixed designation D3084; the number immediately following the designation indicates the year of original adoption or, in the case of revision, the year of last revision. A number in parentheses indicates the year of last reapproval. A superscript epsilon (ϵ) indicates an editorial change since the last revision or reapproval.

1. Scope

1.1 This practice covers the processes that are required to obtain well-resolved alpha-particle spectra from water samples and discusses associated problems. This practice is generally combined with specific chemical separations, mounting techniques, and counting instrumentation, as referenced.

1.2 The values stated in SI units are to be regarded as standard. No other units of measurement are included in this standard.

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

1.4 *This international standard was developed in accordance with internationally recognized principles on standardization established in the Decision on Principles for the Development of International Standards, Guides and Recommendations issued by the World Trade Organization Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT) Committee.*

2. Referenced Documents

2.1 *ASTM Standards:*²

[C859 Terminology Relating to Nuclear Materials](#)

[C1163 Practice for Mounting Actinides for Alpha Spectrometry Using Neodymium Fluoride](#)

[D1129 Terminology Relating to Water](#)

[D3648 Practices for the Measurement of Radioactivity](#)

[D3865 Test Method for Plutonium in Water](#)

[D3972 Test Method for Isotopic Uranium in Water by Radiochemistry](#)

[D7282 Practice for Set-up, Calibration, and Quality Control of Instruments Used for Radioactivity Measurements](#)

[D7902 Terminology for Radiochemical Analyses](#) [ASTM D3084-20](#)

<https://standards.iteh.ai/catalog/standards/sist/2a7395af-76b9-41db-bc0e-193e399e726b/astm-d3084-20>

3. Terminology

3.1 For definitions of terms used in this practice, refer to Terminologies [D1129](#) and [C859](#). For terms not found in these terminologies, reference may be made to other published glossaries ([1](#), [2](#)).³ *Definitions:*

3.1.1 For definitions of terms used in this standard, refer to Terminologies [D1129](#), [D7902](#), and [C859](#). For terms not found in these terminologies, reference may be made to other published glossaries ([1](#), [2](#)).³

4. Summary of Practice

4.1 Alpha-particle spectrometry of radionuclides in water (also called alpha-particle pulse-height analysis) has been carried out by several methods involving magnetic spectrometers, gas counters, scintillation spectrometers, nuclear emulsion plates, cloud chambers, absorption techniques, and solid-state counters. Gas counters, operating either as an ionization chamber or in the proportional region, have been widely used to identify and measure the relative amounts of ~~different α -emitters~~ different alpha-emitters. However, more recently, the solid-state counter has become the predominant system because of its excellent resolution and compactness. Knoll ([3](#)) extensively discusses the characteristics of both detector types.

¹ This practice is under the jurisdiction of ASTM Committee [D19](#) on Water and is the direct responsibility of Subcommittee [D19.04](#) on Methods of Radiochemical Analysis. Current edition approved ~~June 1, 2012~~ [July 1, 2020](#). Published ~~August 2012~~ [July 2020](#). Originally approved in 1972. Last previous edition approved in ~~2005~~ [2012](#) as ~~D3084 – 05~~ [D3084 – 05 \(2012\)](#). DOI: ~~10.1520/D3084-05R12~~ [10.1520/D3084-20](#).

² For referenced ASTM standards, visit the ASTM website, www.astm.org, or contact ASTM Customer Service at service@astm.org. For *Annual Book of ASTM Standards* volume information, refer to the ~~standard's~~ [Document Summary](#) page on the ASTM website.

³ The boldface numbers in parentheses refer to ~~the~~ [list of references](#) at the end of this ~~document~~ [standard](#).

4.2 Of the two gas-counting techniques, the pulsed ionization chamber is more widely used as it gives much better resolution than does the other. This is because there is no spread arising from multiplication or from imperfection of the wire such as occurs with the proportional counter.

4.3 The semiconductor detectors used for alpha-particle spectrometry are similar in principle to ionization chambers. The ionization of the gas by α -particles gives rise to electron-ion pairs, while in a semiconductor detector, electron-hole pairs are produced. Subsequently, the liberated ~~charges~~charges are collected by an electric field. In general, silicon detectors are used for alpha-particle spectrometry. These detectors are *n*-type base material upon which gold is evaporated or ions such as boron are implanted, making an electrical contact. A reversed bias is applied to the detector to reduce the leakage current and to create a depletion layer of free-charge carriers. This layer is thin and the leakage current is very low. Therefore, the slight interactions of photons with the detector produce no signal. The effect of any interactions of beta particles with the detector can be eliminated by appropriate electronic discrimination (gating) of signals entering the multichannel analyzer. A semiconductor detector detects all alpha particles emitted by radionuclides (approximately 2 to 10 MeV) with essentially equal efficiency, which simplifies its calibration.

4.4 Semiconductor detectors have better resolution than gas detectors because the average energy required to produce an electron-hole pair in silicon is 3.5 ± 0.1 eV (0.56 ± 0.02 aJ) compared with from 25 to 30 eV (4.0 to 4.8 aJ) to produce an ion pair in a gas ionization chamber. Detector resolution, defined as peak full-width at half-maximum height (FWHM), is customarily expressed in kiloelectron-volts. The FWHM increases with increasing detector area, but is typically between 15 and 60 keV. The background is normally lower for a semiconductor detector than for an ionization chamber. Silicon detectors have four other advantages compared to ionization chambers: they are lower in cost, have superior stability, have higher permissible counting rates, and have better time resolution for coincidence measurements. However, the semiconductor detector requires sophisticated electronics because of the low charge that is generated by the incident α -particle in the detector. Low-noise and high-stability, charge-sensitive preamplifiers are used prior to the detection, analog-to-digital conversion, and storage of the voltage pulse by a multichannel analyzer. The counting is nearly always performed in a vacuum chamber so that the α -particles will not lose energy by collisions with air molecules between the source and the detector.

4.5 A gridded pulse-ionization chamber was developed by Otto Frisch for high-resolution alpha spectrometry. The unit consists of a standard ionization chamber fitted with a collimator between the source and the collector plate and a wire grid to shield the collector from the effects of positive ions. The resolution of a gridded Frisch-grid pulse ionization chamber is~~ranges~~ from 35 to 100 keV for routine work. The detector parameters that affect resolution are primarily the following: statistical variations in the number of ion pairs formed at a given alpha energy, the variation in rise time of pulses, and the effects of positive ions. An advantage of gridded ionization chambers is their ability to count large-area sources with good efficiency.

4.6 There are two reasons for collimating a sample in a gridded ionization chamber. When thick-sample sources are encountered, the alpha-particles emitted at a large solid angle would show an energy degradation upon ionization of the gas. The effect leads to tailing of the alpha-particle spectrum. This problem is reduced significantly by use of the collimator. Secondly, when the nucleus following ~~an α -particle~~an α -particle emission does not decay to a ground state, the γ -rays that may be produced are usually highly converted, and the conversion electrons ionize the gas. The special mesh-type collimators stop the conversion electrons and collimate the source simultaneously.

4.7 A more recently developed measurement method is photon-electron-rejecting alpha liquid-scintillation spectrometry. The sample is counted in a special liquid-scintillation spectrometer that discriminates electronically against non-alpha-particle pulses. The resolution that can be achieved by this method is 250 to ~~300 keV~~300 keV FWHM. This is superior to conventional liquid-scintillation ~~counting~~counting but inferior to silicon detectors and gridded pulse-ionization chambers. An application of this method is given in Ref (4).

5. Significance and Use

5.1 Alpha-particle spectrometry can ~~either~~ be used either as a quantitative counting technique or as a qualitative method for informing the analyst of the purity of a given sample.

5.2 The method may be used for evaporated alpha-particle sources, but the quality of the spectra obtained will be limited by the absorbing material on the planchet and the surface finish of the planchet.

6. Interferences

6.1 There can be interferences due to tailing or spillover from one spectral region of interest into another, or to impurities in the tracer, if any.

6.2 The resolution, or ability to separate alpha-particle peaks, will depend on the quality of the detector, the pressure inside the counting chamber, the source-to-detector distance, the instrumentation, and the quality of the source. If peaks overlap, a better spectrometer or additional chemical separations will be required.

7. Apparatus

- 7.1 *Alpha Particle Detector*, either a silicon semiconductor or a Frisch-grid pulse-ionization chamber.
- 7.2 *Counting Chamber*, to house the detector, hold the source, and allow the detector system to be evacuated.
- 7.3 *Counting Gas*, for ionization chamber, typically a 90 % argon–10 % methane mixture, and associated gas-handling equipment.
- 7.4 *Pulse Amplification System*, possibly including a preamplifier, amplifier, postamplifier, pulse stretcher, and a high-voltage power supply, as directed by the quality and type of detector employed.
- 7.5 *Multichannel Pulse-Height Analyzer*, including data readout equipment. This is now often computer based.
- 7.6 *Vacuum Pump*, with low vapor-pressure oil and preferably with a trap to protect the detector from oil vapors.

8. Source Preparation

8.1 The technique employed for preparing the source should produce a low-mass, uniformly distributed deposit that is on a very smooth surface. The three techniques that are generally employed are electrodeposition, microcoprecipitation, and evaporation. The first two usually are preferred. Fig. 1 compares the alpha-particle spectrum of an electrodeposited source with that of an evaporated source.

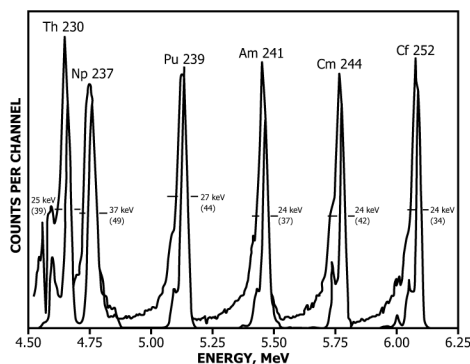
8.1.1 Electrodeposition of ~~alpha-emitters~~ alpha-emitters can provide a sample with optimum resolution, but quantitative deposition is not necessarily achieved. Basically, the ~~alpha-emitter~~ alpha-emitter is deposited from solution on a polished stainless steel or platinum disk, which is the cathode. The anode is normally made from platinum gauze or a spiralled platinum wire, which often is rotated at a constant rate. Variants of this technique may be found in Refs (5) and (6). See also Test Method D3865. Polonium can be made to deposit spontaneously from solution onto a copper or nickel disk (7).

8.1.2 Micro-coprecipitation of actinide elements on a rare-earth fluoride, often neodymium fluoride, followed by filtration on a specially prepared membrane-type filter (see ~~Test Method Practice C1163~~) also produces a good-quality source for alpha-particle spectrometry. The microgram quantity of precipitant only slightly degrades spectral resolution.

8.1.3 The evaporation technique involves depositing the solution onto a stainless steel or platinum disk. The liquid is applied in small droplets over the entire surface area so that they dry separately, or a wetting agent is applied, which causes the solution to evaporate uniformly over the entire surface. The total mass should not exceed ~~10 μg/cm~~ 10 μg/cm², otherwise self-absorption losses will be significant. In addition, the alpha-particle spectrum will be poorly resolved, as evidenced by a long lower-energy edge on the peak. This tailing effect can contribute counts to lower energy alpha peaks and create large uncertainties in peak areas. Alpha sources that are prepared by evaporation may not adhere tenaciously and, therefore, can flake causing contamination of equipment and sample losses.

9. Calibration

9.1 Calibrate the counter by measuring ~~alpha-emitting~~ alpha-emitting radionuclides that have been prepared by one of the techniques described in Section 8. All standards should be traceable to the SI through a national metrology institute such as the National Institute of Standards and Technology and in the case of nonquantitative mounting, standardized on a 2π or 4π alpha-particle counter. Precautions should be taken to ensure that significant impurities are not present when standardizing the alpha-particle activity by non-spectrometric means. The physical characteristics of the calibrating sources and their positioning relative to the detector must be the same as the samples to be counted. A mixed radionuclide standard can be counted to measure simultaneously the detector resolution and efficiency, and the gain of the multichannel analyzer. Check the instrumentation frequently for consistent operation. Perform background measurements regularly and evaluate the results at the confidence level desired.



NOTE 1—Inner curve: nuclides separated on barium sulfate and then electrodeposited.

NOTE 2—Outer curve: carrier-free tracer solution evaporated directly.

FIG. 1 Resolution Obtained on Six-Component Mixture

9.2 See Practice [D7282](#) for additional information about setup, calibration, and quality control of nuclear counting instruments, including alpha-particle spectrometers.

10. Procedure

10.1 The procedure of analysis is dependent upon the radionuclide(s) of interest. A chemical procedure is usually required to isolate and purify the radionuclides. See Test Methods [D3865](#) and [D3972](#). Additional appropriate chemical procedures may be found in Refs (7-10). A source is then prepared by a technique in accordance with Section 8. Measure the radioactivity of this source in an alpha spectrometer, following the manufacturer's operating instructions. The counting period chosen depends on the sensitivity required of the measurement and the degree of uncertainty in the result that is acceptable (see Section 12).

10.2 Silicon detectors will eventually become contaminated by recoiling atoms unless protective steps are taken. Controlling the air pressure in the counting chamber so that 12 µg/cm² of absorber is present between the source and the detector will cause only a 1-keV resolution loss; however, the recoil contamination will be reduced by a factor greater than 500. Recoiling atoms can also be reduced electrically (11). Ruggedized detectors can be cleaned to a limited degree.

10.3 A silicon detector can also become contaminated by rapid venting of the vacuum chamber when a microprecipitated source is present. Many systems now control the venting rate automatically; however, older systems might require careful operation of the venting knob to avoid dispersing small amounts of the precipitate throughout the chamber.

10.4 The measurement of an alpha-emitting nuclide is based on the counts observed in a spectral peak resulting from the nuclide's alpha-particle emissions in a specified range of energies or channels, called a *region of interest*. Typically, the peak area is estimated from the total counts observed in that region of interest, with a correction for the measured background counts in the same region. Ideally, the region of interest includes virtually 100 % of all the emitted alpha-particles, or a well-estimated fraction of them; however, tailing and spillover may reduce this fraction and may also produce interferences in other regions of interest.

10.5 Qualitative identifications sometimes can be made even on highly degraded spectra. By examining the highest energy value, and using the energy calibration (keV/channel) (keV per channel) of the pulse-height analyzer, alpha-particle emitters may be identified. Fig. 2 shows a typical spectrum with very poor resolution.

11. Calculation

11.1 Analyze the data by first integrating the area under the alpha peak to obtain a gross count for the alpha emitter. When the spectrum is complex and alpha peaks add to each other, corrections for overlapping peaks will be required. Some instrument manufacturer's computer software can perform these and other data-analysis functions.

11.2 The preferred method for determination of chemical recovery is the use of another isotope of the same element (examples: polonium-208 to trace polonium-210, plutonium-236 to trace plutonium-239, and americium-243 to trace americium-241). Add a known activity of the appropriate isotope(s) to the sample at the beginning of the analysis, perform the appropriate chemical separations, mount the sample, and measure it by alpha-particle spectrometry. The chemical yield is directly related to the reduction in the activity of the added isotope.

11.2.1 When the recovery factor/chemical yield is determined by the addition of a tracer, calculate the gross radioactivity/activity concentration, C_{AC} , of the analyte in becquerels per litre (Bq/L) as follows:

11.2.1.1 *Radiotracer Net Counts: Tracer Net Count Rate and Associated Standard Uncertainty:*

$$R_{NT} = \frac{C_{ST}}{t_s} - \frac{C_{BT}}{t_B} - R_{IT} \tag{1}$$

$$N_T = G_T - B_C - I \tag{1}$$

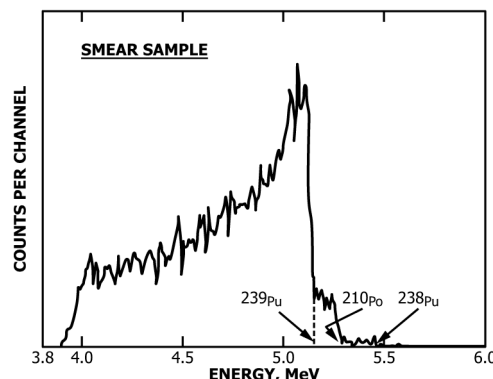


FIG. 2 Poor Resolution Alpha-Spectrum Containing Minor Components at Higher Energies

$$\sigma_{NT} = \left[G_T + I + B \times \left(\frac{t_S}{t_B} \right)^{2^{1/2}} \right] \quad (2)$$

$$u(R_{NT}) = \sqrt{\frac{C_{ST} + 1}{t_S^2} + \frac{C_{BT} + 1}{t_B^2} + u^2(R_{IT})} \quad (2)$$

where:

- N_T = net counts in the tracer region of interest,
- G_T = gross counts in the tracer region of interest,
- B_C = background counts in the region of interest corrected for sample count time,
- σ_{NT} = one-sigma uncertainty of the net tracer counts,
- B = uncorrected background counts in the region of interest,
- I = imprurity counts in the analyte's region of interest,
- t_S = sample analysis time, s, and
- t_B = background analysis time, s.

- R_{NT} = net count rate in the tracer region of interest, s^{-1} ,
- C_{ST} = gross counts in the tracer region of interest,
- C_{BT} = background counts in the tracer region of interest,
- R_{IT} = impurity (interference) count rate in the tracer region of interest, s^{-1} ,
- t_S = sample analysis time, s,
- t_B = background analysis time, s,
- $u(R_{NT})$ = standard uncertainty of the net tracer count rate, s^{-1} , and
- $u(R_{IT})$ = standard uncertainty of the impurity count rate, s^{-1} .

NOTE 1—Estimation of R_{IT} and $u(R_{IT})$ is beyond the scope of this practice.

11.2.1.2 Analyte Net Count Rate and Associated Standard Uncertainty:

$$R_N = \frac{C_S}{t_S} - \frac{C_B}{t_B} - R_I \quad (3)$$

$$u(R_N) = \sqrt{\frac{C_S + 1}{t_S^2} + \frac{C_B + 1}{t_B^2} + u^2(R_I)} \quad (4)$$

where:

- R_N = net count rate in the analyte region of interest, s^{-1} ,
- C_S = gross counts in the analyte region of interest,
- C_B = background counts in the analyte region of interest,
- R_I = impurity (interference) count rate in the analyte region of interest, s^{-1} ,
- $u(R_N)$ = standard uncertainty of the analyte net count rate, s^{-1} , and
- $u(R_I)$ = standard uncertainty of the impurity count rate, s^{-1} .

NOTE 2—Estimation of R_I and $u(R_I)$ is beyond the scope of this practice.

NOTE 3—It is common for printed analysis reports to display the net counts, $R_N t_S$, the gross counts, C_S , and the count-time-corrected background counts, $R_B t_S$, instead of the corresponding count rates, which are often quite low.

11.2.1.3 Analyte Net Counts: Combined Chemical Yield and Counting Efficiency and Associated Relative Standard Uncertainty:

$$YE = \frac{R_{NT}}{A_T \cdot I_T \cdot DF_T} \quad (5)$$

$$N = G - B_C - I \quad (3)$$

$$\sigma_N = \left[G + I + B \times \left(\frac{t_S}{t_B} \right)^{2^{1/2}} \right] \quad (6)$$

$$u_r(YE) = \sqrt{u_r^2(R_{NT}) + u_r^2(A_T) + u_r^2(I_T)} \quad (6)$$

where:

- N = net sample counts in the analyte's region of interest,
- σ_N = one-sigma uncertainty of the net analyte counts,
- G = gross sample counts in the analyte's region of interest, and
- I = impurity (interference) counts in the analyte's region of interest.

- YE = combined chemical yield and efficiency factor (counts per disintegration),
- A_T = activity of the tracer at its reference date, Bq,
- I_T = alpha-emission probability estimated for the tracer region of interest,
- DF_T = decay factor for the tracer from its reference date to the midpoint of the sample counting period,

- $u_r(YE)$ = relative standard uncertainty of the combined chemical yield and efficiency factor,
 $u_r(A_T)$ = relative standard uncertainty of the tracer activity, equal to $u(A_T) / A_T$, and
 $u_r(I_T)$ = relative standard uncertainty of the tracer's alpha-emission probability, equal to $u(I_T) / I_T$.

11.2.1.4 *Combined Fractional Recovery and Counting Efficiency: Analyte Activity Concentration (Bq/L) and Combined Standard Uncertainty:*

$$AC = \frac{R_N}{YE \cdot V \cdot I \cdot DF} \quad (7)$$

$$RE = N_T / (A_T \times t_s \times D_T) \quad (5)$$

$$\sigma_{RE} = \frac{\left[\sigma_{GT}^2 + \sigma_B^2 \times (t_s / t_B)^2 + I + N^2 \times \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{A_T}}{A_T} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{t_s}}{t_s} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{D_T}}{D_T} \right)^2 \right] \right]^{1/2}}{A_T \times t_s \times D_T} \quad (8)$$

$$u_c(AC) = \frac{\sqrt{u^2(R_N) + R_N^2(u_r^2(YE) + u_r^2(V) + u_r^2(I))}}{YE \cdot V \cdot I \cdot DF} \quad (8)$$

where:

- RE = combined fractional recovery and efficiency term, c/d,
 A_T = activity of tracer at reference date, Bq,
 D_S = sample decay fraction from time of sample collection to midpoint of counting period,
 σ_{D_S} = uncertainty in the sample decay fraction,
 σ_{D_T} = uncertainty in the tracer's decay fraction,
 D_T = tracer decay fraction from tracer's reference date to the midpoint of sample counting period,
 σ_{RE} = uncertainty in the combined fractional recovery and efficiency term, c/d,
 σ_{A_T} = uncertainty in the activity of the tracer on tracer reference date, Bq,
 σ_{GT} = G_T and
 σ_B^2 = B :

- AC = analyte activity concentration, Bq/L,
 V = sample aliquot volume, L,
 I = alpha-emission probability estimated for the analyte region of interest,
 DF = decay factor for the analyte from the activity reference date to the midpoint of the sample counting period,
 $u_c(AC)$ = combined standard uncertainty of the analyte activity concentration, Bq/L,
 $u_r(V)$ = relative standard uncertainty of the volume equal to $u(V) / V$, and
 $u_r(I)$ = relative standard uncertainty of the alpha-emission probability for the analyte region of interest, equal to $u(I) / I$.

NOTE 4—If the uncertainty of the decay factor DF is significant, calculate the relative standard uncertainty $u_r(DF)$ using Eq 14 and include its square in Eq 8 and Eq 18.

11.2.1.4 *Analyte Concentration (Bq/L):*

$$C = \frac{N}{RE \times t_s \times V \times D_S} \quad (7)$$

$$\sigma_C = \frac{\left[\sigma_N^2 + N^2 \times \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{t_s}}{t_s} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{RE}}{RE} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{D_S}}{D_S} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_V}{V} \right)^2 \right] \right]^{1/2}}{RE \times t_s \times V \times D_S} \quad (8)$$

where:

- C = nuclide concentration, Bq/L,
 σ_C = total propagated uncertainty of the nuclide concentration, Bq/L,
 V = sample volume, L, and
 σ_V = uncertainty in the volume, L.

11.2.2 When there is no practical radiotracer-tracer is available for the element of interest, an experimentally determined nominal chemical recovery yield factor can be applied to a series of sample sets. The nominal chemical recovery factor yield is determined by analyzing a group of samples to which a known quantity of the alpha-emitting nuclide of interest (or a radioisotope of the element of interest) is added in accordance with the procedure. The recovery yield should be greater than 50 % and the standard deviation of the measurements should not exceed 5 %. For this nominal recovery factor yield to be applicable, the recovery of matrix quality control samples processed within a given set of samples (<20) should be within ± 10 % of the nominal recovery yield factor. When the recovery of the matrix quality control sample falls outside this range or when a different person performs the analysis, the nominal chemical recovery factor yield should be reestablished by processing another group of spiked standard samples.

11.2.3 When utilizing the nominal ~~chemical recovery yield~~ approach, the terms *REYE* of Eq 5 and $\sigma_{u_{REY}}(YE)$ of Eq 6 must be redefined as Eq 9 and Eq 10. In this case, *REYE* is defined as the product of the nominal ~~chemical recovery term~~ yield factor and the absolute alpha detector efficiency and $\sigma_{u_{REY}}(YE)$ is the ~~propagated combined relative standard uncertainty~~ of this product.

$$RE = NRF \times E_{FD} \quad (9)$$

$$\sigma_{RE} = RE \times \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{NRF}}{NRF} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{EFD}}{E_{FD}} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (10)$$

$$YE = NYF \cdot \varepsilon \quad (9)$$

$$u_r(YE) = \sqrt{u_r^2(NYF) + u_r^2(\varepsilon)} \quad (10)$$

where:

- NRF* = fractional nominal chemical recovery factor,
- E_{FD} = fractional detector efficiency,
- σ_{NRF} = uncertainty in *NRF*, and
- σ_{EFD} = uncertainty in E_{FD} .

- NYF* = fractional nominal chemical yield factor,
- ε = fractional detector efficiency,
- $u_r(NYF)$ = relative standard uncertainty of *NYF*, equal to $u(NYF)/NYF$, and
- $u_r(\varepsilon)$ = relative standard uncertainty of ε , equal to $u(\varepsilon)/\varepsilon$.

11.3 If desired, calculate the net ~~radioactivity~~ activity concentration, $\varepsilon AC'$, of the analyte in becquerels per litre (Bq/L) by:

$$C' = C - R \quad (11)$$

$$AC' = AC - AC_B \quad (11)$$

and:
and

$$\sigma_{C'} = (\sigma_C^2 + \sigma_R^2)^{1/2} \quad (12)$$

$$u_c(AC') = \sqrt{u_c^2(AC) + u_c^2(AC_B) - 2u(AC, AC_B)} \quad (12)$$

where:

- R* = reagent blank correction, Bq/L, measured on one or more analyte-free samples of equivalent volume as the sample, and
- $\sigma_{\bar{R}}$ = total propagated uncertainty of *R*.

AC_B = reagent blank correction, Bq/L, measured on one or more analyte-free samples of equivalent volume as the sample, and

- $u_c(AC')$ = combined standard uncertainty of AC' , Bq/L,
- $u_c(AC_B)$ = combined standard uncertainty of AC_B , Bq/L, and
- $u(AC, AC_B)$ = covariance of the measured activity concentrations *AC* and AC_B , for example, due to the use of the same background correction or nominal yield estimate or the same tracer solution in both measurements.

NOTE 5—The covariance $u(AC, AC_B)$ is typically negligible as long as *AC* and AC_B are calculated using different background measurements, in which case the term $-2u(AC, AC_B)$ may be omitted from Eq 12. If the same measured background count rate C_B/t_B is used for both, estimate $u(AC, AC_B) \approx ((C_B + 1)/t_B^2)/(D \times D_B)$, where *D* and D_B are the denominators from Eq 7 used to calculate *AC* and AC_B , respectively.

11.4 Some ~~alpha-particle-emitting~~ alpha-emitting nuclides, such as polonium-210, have half-lives sufficiently short that significant decay can occur between the sample collection time, or the time of chemical separation, and the measurement time, making the decay factor *DF* significantly different from 1. To calculate *the DF* activity at an earlier (reference) time, for use in the equations above, use the following equation:

$$A_o = A \times e^{0.69315 \Delta t / T_{1/2}} \quad (13)$$

$$DF = e^{-\lambda(t_1 - t_0)} \quad (13)$$

where:

- A_o = disintegration rate at the reference time,
- A* = disintegration rate at the time of measurement,
- 0.69315 = approximate natural logarithm of 2,

- Δt = elapsed time between measurement and reference times, and
- $T_{1/2}$ = half-life of the radionuclide, in the same time unit as Δt .

λ = decay constant for the analyte, equal to $(\ln 2) / T_{1/2}$,