AMS OF ⁴¹Ca USING THE CaF₃ NEGATIVE ION

PETER W KUBIK and DAVID ELMORE*

Nuclear Structure Research Laboratory, University of Rochester Rochester, New York 14627

High-intensity ion sources are now capable of producing negative molecular ion beams of Ca of $>2\mu$ A (Middleton *et al*, 1989). This and the advanced status of ⁴¹Ca AMS at several laboratories (Pennsylvania, Argonne National Laboratory, Rochester, Munich, Weizmann Institute) have revived interest in ⁴¹Ca ($T_{1/2} = 1.0 \times 10^5$ yr (Mabuchi *et al*, 1974)) as a possible dating tool (Yamaguchi, 1963; Raisbeck & Yiou, 1979; Kubik *et al*, 1986).

Prerequisites for measuring a radioisotope like 41 Ca with AMS are high sensitivity and low background. Using the CaH $_3$ molecule from the ion source, the background can be $<1\times10^{-15}$ for 41 Ca/Ca (Middleton *et al*, 1989) and the beam currents are high enough (a few μ A) (Middleton *et al*, 1989) to measure samples with ratios of 41 Ca/Ca between 10^{-14} and 10^{-15} . However, the preparation and storage of high quality CaH $_2$ samples is not an easy task; sample preparation is best done by a specialist located at the AMS facility. We therefore searched for a different Ca compound with high ion source output and low background in the detector, but with a simpler preparation chemistry.

A mass spectrum of a CaF₂ sample (Urban, Korschinek & Nolte, 1986) showed a surprising similarity with the mass spectrum of a CaH₂ sample (Raisbeck *et al*, 1981). This and the known suppression of potassium from KH₃ molecules (Raisbeck *et al*, 1981) led us to the investigation of CaF₃. We used our Scanning Hiconex ion source (General Ionex Corp, Newburyport, Massachusetts) with an irradiated commercial grade CaF₂ sample. We mixed CaF₂ and Ag in a ratio of 1:4 by weight to insure good heat conductivity for steady beam currents.

The 41 K counting rate in the detector from 41 CaF₃ injected into the tandem was lower by at least 10^4 compared to injected 41 CaF₄, a reduction factor which is similar to the rejection of 41 K when using CaH₂ samples due to the presence of 41 KHD. Another critical factor in reducing the background generated by 41 K counts in the detector is how well we can differentiate between 41 Ca and 41 K by measuring several energy loss ΔE and energy E values for nuclear charge Z identification. At a terminal voltage of 10 MV creating 74 MeV mass 41 ions we achieved our usual good separation of ca 5×10^5 with our gas detector using $4 \Delta E$ signals and the energy signal.

We have used a NEC high-intensity ion source (SNICS) with CaH_2 and CaF_2 samples. Typically, $1-2\mu A$ of CaH_3 and $0.7-1\mu A$ of CaF_3 could be produced. With a similar type ion source, Middleton *et al* (1989) could

^{*}Present address: Department of Physics, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana 47907

produce $5-10\mu A$ of CaH_3 , so $2\mu A$ of CaF_3 should be possible with that ion source. Disadvantages of using heavy molecules like CaF_3 are 1) relatively high terminal voltages (10 MV or more) are needed to have enough ion energy for the Z identification in the final detector, and 2) the Coulomb explosion that the molecules undergo in the terminal stripper reduces the transmission through increased emittance. Our measured transmission (including stripper yield for charge state 7) was only 2% using a foil stripper, but we think this can be improved with a gas stripper and other improvements already made to our tandem.

The chemical preparation of samples whether they are bones, rocks or meteorites is straightforward. Samples are dissolved in appropriate acids and the Ca is precipitated as CaO₂O₄ which is converted into CaO by heating at high temperatures. CaO is dissolved in diluted HCl and subsequently Ca is precipitated as CaF₂ by adding HF. After centrifuging, this precipitate is washed several times with distilled water, and then dried in an oven for several hours. CaF₂ is mixed with silver before loading it into a sample holder. This simple procedure will make it possible for an investigator to prepare the samples at his home lab and then send or bring them for the AMS measurements.

Several conclusions can be drawn from this work. KF₃ shows a very strong suppression relative to the KF ion. The beam currents are currently lower than what we can produce from CaH₂, but this might not be a restricting factor for some applications with relatively high ⁴¹Ca/Ca ratios. Ratios of 10⁻¹² instead of 10⁻¹⁵ can be expected in meteorites (Paul et al, 1985; Kubik et al, 1986; Korschinek et al, 1987). Here, 41Ca can be used for exposure history studies and, because of its smaller half-life compared to ^{36}Cl (T_{1/2} = 301,000 yr), can help to determine the terrestrial ages of meteorites in the gap between ¹⁴C and ³⁶Cl. Other applications for which the use of CaF₂ might be advantageous are the use of ⁴¹Ca as a neutron monitor in uranium ore deposits or as a biological tracer in humans. In this latter application, we could pre-label bones with an oral dose of ⁴¹Ca, then monitor the release of ⁴¹Ca for many years without the biological damage that would occur from shorter-lived isotopes such as 45,47Ca. It is clear from the recent results of 41Ca in terrestrial surface samples (Middleton et al, 1989) with ratios barely above 10⁻¹⁵, that, for these, it is necessary to use CaH₂ because of the higher beam currents available.

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