## APPLICATION OF SILICON SURFACE BARRIER

DETECTORS TO NEUTRON SPECTROSCOPY

by

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## INTRODUCTION

## Statement of the Problem

Experimental measurement of the energy spectrum of fast neutrons from monoenergetic and multienergetic neutron sources is a problem which has confronted scientists since the discovery of the neutron in 1932 by Chadwick. Several techniques have been devised for obtaining this information; however, the equipment requirements, time required in taking the measurements, and in some cases the accuracy of the results justifies continuing investigations of the problem.

Determination of the neutron spectrum at points of interest in an operating nuclear reactor places even more stringent requirements on the size of the detecting equipment, its ability to discriminate against gamma rays and other reaction products. and its general response characteristics. The research reported in this work was undertaken to investigate the performance of a relatively simple neutron detection system operating in a reactor environment. The proposed system could also be used for spectrum measurements of monoenergetic sources. The potentially useful range of the system to be discussed is from 0. 15 to 2.15 Mev.

## General Discussion of Detection System

The detection system discussed in this work consists of a  $\mathtt{Li}^\mathbb{6}$ F "converter" foil (  $155 \mu$ gm/cm<sup>2</sup> of Li<sup>6</sup>F deposited on a 0.020 inch aluminum plate ), a silicon surface-barrier semiconductor detector, a chargesensitive preamplifier, a linear amplifier, and a 400 channel analyzer. The system is shown schematically in Figure 1 and the components are described in Appendix A.



Figure 1. Schematic drawing of detection system

Neutrons of any energy, incident on the "converter" foil, take part in the  $Li^6$  (n,T) He<sup>4</sup> reaction; but the combined energy of triton and alpha particle depends on the incident neutron energy. Since momentum considerations permit only one of the two product particles from a given reaction to reach the detector, it is necessary to selectively detect one particle for study. Tritons produced in the reaction were chosen to be detected by the semiconductor detector. The current pulses produced in the detector are amplified and fed to the 400 channel analyzer where they are sorted and stored in the appropriate channel with pulses of the same magnitude. The counts stored in any given channel represent the total number of counts produced by tritons of a given energy. The alpha particles produced by the  $Li^6$  (n.T) He<sup>4</sup> reaction are prevented from reaching the detector by an aluminum "catcher" or absorber foil placed between the  $Li^{6}F$  foil and the detector. Above a neutron energy of  $\sim$  2.0 Mev, protons from the

 $\text{Al}^{27}$ (n,p)Mg<sup>27</sup> reaction in the aluminum converter plate and grid assembly will provide an unwanted contribution.

The output of the 400 channel analyzer, after background effects are eliminated, is then an energy spectrum of tritons resulting from the  $\text{Li}^{6}$ (n,T)He<sup>4</sup> reaction. If the Q-value for this reaction, its cross section as a function of neutron energy, and the detection system geometry are known, the energy spectrum of the neutrons that produced the triton spectrwn can be calculated. The Q-value of a nuclear reaction is the mass difference (in energy units) between the reactants and the products of the reaction and is 4.78 Mev for the  $Li^{6}(n,T)He^{4}$  reaction.

The energy of the triton produced in a reaction initiated by a neutron of a given energy is dependent on the angle between its direction of travel and that of the incident neutron. In this work, the physical size of the neutron source (fission foil) and the  $Li^{6}F$  foil, and the distance separating them limits the angle at which the neutrons can be incident on the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil. A grid system is placed between the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil and the detector to act as a collimator for the scattered tritons. Thus, the maximum triton scattering angle is known, and the maximum and minimum triton energies resulting from a neutron of given energy can be calculated.

A surface-barrier semiconductor detector was chosen as the detecting element for this work. Detectors of this type have a high energy resolution for detection of charged particles yet have a low sensitivity for interaction with neutrons and gamma rays.

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History of Semiconductor Nuclear Particle Detectors

The first use of a semiconductor junction device for nuclear particle detection was reported by McKay (20) in 1949. His work indicated that the p-n junction in germanium could be used to detect alpha particles, thet the collection time for the charge was quite small, and that the energy required to produce an electron-hole pair in germanium was no more than 3 electron volts. In 1950, Orman et al. (23) did similar work again using germanium p-n barriers as counters. This early work was with detectors of very small effective area and the energy resolution was poor. In 1956, Mayer and Gossick (19) made a small area (6  ${\rm nm}^2$ ) germanium surface-barrier diode which operated at room temperature with rather poor energy resolution, i.e. about 17%. They found the pulse height from this type detector to be proportional to the alpha energy. As early as 1958, semiconductor nuclear particle detectors utilizing the germanium junction at reduced temperatures were being used extensively in nuclear research.

The use of the p-n junction in silicon for detection of nuclear particles was reported in 1959 by McKenzie and Bromley (21) and Mayer (18). These devices, while having the same general operational characteristics as the germanium detectors, had the advantage of more satisfactory operation at room temperature.

## Use of semiconductor detector in neutron spectroscopy

The use of semiconductor detectors as the detecting element in neutron spectrometers was first reported in 1961 by Love and Murray (17). The system used involved a 150  $\mu$  gm/ cm<sup>2</sup> layer of Li<sup>6</sup>F sandwiched between two surf ace-barrier detectors. The electronics system was designed to sum the energy of the alpha particle and triton emitted simultaneously from the

 $\text{Li}^{6}(\text{n,T})\text{He}^{4}$  reaction. The output signal was then the sum of the neutron energy  $(\mathbb{E}_{n})$  and the Q-value for the reaction. The reported resolution was 300 *Kev* full width at half maximum (FWEK) for their detection system.

This design of detector was modified by Dearnaley et al. (5) to make use of the  $He^{3}(n,p)H^{3}$  reactions. This system utilized two surface-barrier detectors mounted parallel to each other and enclosed in a small steel case which could be filled with  $He^3$  gas at pressures up to 3 atmospheres. A coincidence type electronics system was utilized which summed the proton and triton energy. The coincidence requirement eliminated any counts due to the  $He^3$  recoil. The reported efficiency for this system was about  $10^{-5}$ for 2 Mev neutrons and the energy resolution was 150 Kev FWHM.

Potenza and Rubbino have reported development of neutron spectrometers for use with isotropic neutron sources (24) and neutrons from nuclear reactions and in collimated beams  $(25)$ . All of these systems use the elastic scattering of protons as the converting reaction and utilize a single silicon surface-barrier detector as the detecting element. These systems were used to measure neutron energies above 2 Mev. The best resolution attained by any of the three systems (at 2 Mev neutron energy) was about 23% for the system designed for use with isotropic sources. That is. the proton spectrum produced by a monoenergetic source of 2 Mev neutrons would have a FWHM of about 0.46 Mev. In all systems, the resolution decreased with reduction in neutron energy below 2 Nev.

A system for reactor flux measurements has been reported by Furr and Runyon (12). This system also uses the elastic scattering of protons as the converting reaction and a single silicon surface-barrier detector as the detecting element. This system had a reported resolution of 50% for

neutrons of *0.75* Mev energy and about 10% for neutrons of 2 Mev energy. The resolution below 0.75 Mev dropped rapidly as the neutron energy decreased.

other Techniques for Neutron Spectrum Measurements

In addition to the nuclear-reaction method and the recoil-nucleus method as discussed previously incorporating semiconductor detectors, other techniques exist for making neutron spectrum measurements. The most common methods are emulsions. scintillation detectors, and time-offlight.

As discussed in Price (26, p. 352), emulsions utilizing proton recoil are suitable for neutron spectrum measurements in the energy range from about 0. 5 to 15 Mev. The lower limit is specified by the short range of the proton tracks while the upper limit is specified by the emulsion thickness. The lower limit can be reduced by loading the emulsion with a material having a positive Q-value for neutron reaction. Li<sup>6</sup> is an example.

The principle disadvantage of the emulsion method is the length of time required to analyze the data.

Scintillation detectors used in this application utilize the converting material as a constituent of the scintillator.  $I_1^O$  is the most widely used converting material. Firk et al. (9) have reported the use of a system of this type. The peak produced by thermal neutrons had a resolution of 25%. The resolution for peaks produced by monoenergetic neutrons of higher energy is generally poorer than that for thermal neutrons as can be seen from experimental results published by Murray (22).

This behavior is opposite to that of the surface-barrier detector system.

The use of scintillation detectors for neutron spectroscopy is further limited by their high gamma-ray sensitivity. The principle advantage of this method is the high efficiency attainable.

The time-of-flight technique offers the capability of very good energy resolution but requires a pulsed source of fast neutrons. Firk et al. (10) have reported use of a system which had a total resolution of 40 Kev for neutrons of 2 Mev energy. This system was used to measure neutron energies from 0.5 to 15 Mev.

This technique can, in general, be used to measure neutron energies from thermal to several Mev.

## OPERATIONAL ASPECTS OF SILICON SURFACE-BARRIER DETECTORS

The general features of a silicon surface-barrier detector are shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Representation of silicon surface-barrier detector

The bulk material is n-type silicon. On one surface of the bulk material a high density of p-type states is induced with a resulting formation of a p-n junction. On either side of this junction a space charge region or depletion region of high resistivity is set up by diffusion of the electrons from the n-type region into the p-type region and holes from the p-type region into the n-type region. The detection of charged particles takes place in this depletion region.

A charged particle entering the sensitive region of the detector must pass through the thin gold electrode deposited on the surface of the detector. The thickness of this electrode in terms of energy lost by the incident particle is called the window thickness of the detector. The electrode on the back side of the detector is of the nonrectifying type and is bonded to the crystal by a conducting silver paste.

## Construction Techniques

Techniques for preparation of surface-barrier detectors are described by several authors including Blankenship and Borkowski (2). Although the various methods differ slightly. they all involve the following essential steps. Zone refined crystals of silicon are cut to the desired size and are smoothed by polishing with submicron-size aluminum oxide or diamond powder. The surface is cleaned by chemically etching with a solvent such as CP4. The p-type surface layer is then allowed to form spontaneously on the n-type silicon by oxidation of the chemically etched surface. This process takes place at room temperature in 12-36 hours and should be conducted in a clean, dust free atmosphere. Maintaining a dust free atmosphere helps to keep foreign materials which may be sources of impurities away from the p-type surface. Following formation of the p-n junction, the edges of the silicon wafer are covered with some type of insulating material (ORTEC uses a ceramic) to prevent breakdown of the junction at the edges of the wafer upon application of an electric field. Electrical contact is made to the p-type surface layer by evaporation of gold in a vacuum usually to 20-50  $\mu$  gm/ cm<sup>2</sup> in weight. The thickness of gold is not critical and is usually determined by the intended use of the detector. i.e. it would be advantageous to have a thin film of gold for very highly ionized particles such as fission products. Electrical contact is made to the back of the crystal by bonding the crystal to a thin metal plate by use of conducting silver paste. Electrical contact to the front surface-barrier layer is made through a fine gold wire or strip bonded to the gold film by the silver paste.

## Formation of Surface-Barrier p-n Junction

The formation of the depletion or space-charge region results from diffusion *of* the majority carriers when the n-type and p-type materials are brought together. The electrons from the n-type material diffuse *<sup>r</sup>*toward the n-type material. Diffusion occurs because *of* the tendency of the carriers to spread to regions of lower density. This diffusion builds up a space-charge region formed on one side by filled electron acceptor sites not accompanied by the required number of holes for zero net charge locally, and on the other side by positively charged empty donor sites not accompanied by equal numbers of electrons in the conduction band required to produce zero net charge. This is illustrated in Figure 3 which represents the band structure as a function of position through a surfacebarrier detector. As seen in Figure 3a, a potential difference referred to as the barrier-height potential builds up with the formation of the space-charge. The equilibrium value of this barrier height  $(V_0)$  is related to the relative density of holes on the two sides of the junction by the expression

$$
V_o = \frac{KT}{e} \qquad \ln \qquad \left(\frac{p_p}{p_n}\right) \tag{1}
$$

where KT is the thermal energy, e is the electronic charge, and  $p_p$  and  $p_n$ are the hole concentrations in p-type and n-type materials respectively. Typical values of *V0* are of the order of *0.5* volts. Application of an external bias positive on the n side and negative on the p side extends the space-charge region as shown in Figure 3b.



Conduction Band

Valence Band



 $(a)$ 

Conduction Band

•

Valence Band

(b)

Figure 3. Band structure as a function of position through a surfacebarrier detector. (a) no applied bias (b) with reverse bias

The characteristics of the space-charge region can be derived following the approximations of Dearnaley and Northrop  $(6, p. 127)$ . Figure 4 shows the p-n system characteristic of surface-barrier devices and defines the nomenclature for derivation of the space-charge relationships.



Figure  $4$ . Definition of nomenclature for derivation of space-charge relationships

The assumptions made by Dearnaley are the following:

- a. All acceptors in the p-type region are ionized up to  $x_1$ , and all donors in the n-type region are ionized up to  $x_0$ .
- b. Beyond  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  the electric field is assumed to be zero.

c. The presence of acceptors in the n- type region and of donors in the p-type region is neglected.

By Poisson's relation, in the n-type region

$$
\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = -\frac{4 \pi n_n e}{K_n}
$$
 (2)

and in the p-type region

$$
\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = \frac{4 \pi p_0 e}{k_0}
$$
 (3)

where  $K_{\text{o}}$  is the dielectric constant of silicon and n is the electron concentration in n-type region. Considering the n-type region, successive integrations using the above boundary conditions yields

$$
\frac{dV}{dx} = -\frac{4\pi e n_n}{H_0} (x - x_0)
$$
 (4)

and

$$
V(x) = -\frac{2 \pi e n_n}{K_0} (x^2 - 2x x_0) + V_j
$$
 (5)

When  $x = x_0$ ,  $V(x) - V_j = V_n$  and the above equation becomes

$$
x_o^2 = \frac{v_n \, \text{K}_o}{2 \pi r_n \, \text{e}} \tag{6}
$$

Similarly the extension into the p region is found to be

$$
x_1^2 = \frac{v_p K_o}{2 \pi p_p e}
$$
 (7)

On the basis of the model used, the excess charge in the n-type material is equal and opposite to that in the p-type region since the field is confined to the space-charge region in this approximation. Therefore,

> $n_n x_o = p_p x_1$ (8)

and the depletion region is seen to penetrate the two regions in the inverse ratio of their ionized impurity states. For surface-barrier detectors  $p_p$  /  $n_n \gg 1$  and as a result the depletion region exists almost completely in the n-type region. The square of the depletion region width is then approximately

$$
x_0^2 = \frac{(v_0 + v_a) K_0}{2 \pi r_n e}
$$
 (9)

where  $V_o$  is given by Equation 1 and  $V_a$  is the externally applied voltage. If all the donors in the space- charge region are ionized, the

$$
1\!4
$$

resistivity of the material is

$$
\rho = \frac{1}{n_n e \mu_n} \tag{10}
$$

where  $\mu_n$  is the electron mobility in the n-type region. Substitution of Equation 10 into Equation 9 yields for the depletion region width

$$
x_o = \left[\begin{array}{c c c c c c c} K_o \mu_n & \rho (v_o + v_a) \frac{1}{2} & \text{(11)}
$$

Thus it is seen, the depletion region width for a given resistivity detector is a direct function of the applied voltage.

## Electron-Hole Production in Semiconductors

When a charged particle passes through a solid medium, it loses its energy through interactions with the electrons in the medium. If the medium is a semiconductor material, this interaction results in the formation of electron-hole pairs, i.e., an electron, originally in the valence band or possible some lower lying occupied electronic band, is excited to the conduction band or some higher unoccupied band leaving at the point of interaction a net positive charge or hole. For silicon, the average value of energy required to produce an electron-hole pair, (designated as  $\epsilon$ ), has been found by Mayer (18), to be 3.50 ev. As far as is known,  $\epsilon$  is independent of both the mass and energy of the charged particle.

If the charged particle has mass  $M_p$  and energy  $E_p$ , the maximum energy

 $(E_{max})$  that can be transferred to an electron of mass  $m_e$  is given by

$$
E_{\text{max}} = \frac{\mu \text{ m}_e M_p}{\left(m_e + M_p\right)^2} E_p \tag{12}
$$

If  $M_{p} \gg m_{e}$ , and since even for a proton M = 1836  $m_{e}$ , the maximum energy transfer becomes approximately

$$
E_{\text{max}} \cong \frac{4 \, m_{\text{e}} \, E_{\text{p}}}{M_{\text{p}}} \tag{13}
$$

which will be about 2.9 Kev for a  $4$  Mev triton. Since the width of the energy gap in silicon is 1.106 electron volts, it is seen that these energy loss processes can lift electrons from the valence band or lower lying occupied energy bands to the conduction band or higher lying unoccupied bands, and holes are found in bands which are normally filled with electrons. During the transition from the excited states, many more electron- hole pairs are produced with the average energy required for production of each pair being the  $\epsilon$  discussed previously. The total number of electron-hole pairs produced by a given charged particle is thus directly proportional to the energy of the particle. If an electric field is being applied to the semiconducting material during this time, the electron in the conduction band will move under the influence of the field, and likewise, the hole will be passed from atom to atom. This transfer of charge within the mediwn can be used as an indication of the amount of energy deposited within the mediwn if the average energy required to produce an electron-hole pair is known.

#### Charge Collection

To illustrate how the electrons and holes are collected within the detector and the resulting pulse is formed, consider the counting circuit shown in Figure *5.* 



Figure *5.* Schematic drawing of detector circuit

The signal in the circuit external to the detector builds up as the electrons and holes are swept out of the depletion region by the electric field present. Each electron contributes a current ev / d when moving with a velocity v in the counter and produces an identical current in the external circuit. The signal is made up of current pulses from both electrons and holes, and any electron causes a charge to flow in the external circuit  $\int \frac{dv}{dt} dt$  integrated over the total path of the carrier. If the carrier traverses the counter completely, the limits of integration are zero and  $d / v$ , and the integral reduces to e. If the carrier drift length  $\lambda$  is less than the specimen dimension, the charge flowing in the external circuit is reduced proportionately to  $e \lambda / d$ . The transit time for each of

the carriers is given by

$$
\Upsilon_c = \frac{d}{\mu \epsilon} \tag{14}
$$

where  $\mu$  is the mobility of the carrier being considered and  $\epsilon = \frac{v_a}{a}$  , d i.e. the electric field strength in the depletion region.

In a detector in which there is no trapping or recombination, a particle which generates a total of N ion pairs at a distance x from the negative electrode will give a total charge of Ne flowing through the external circuit. Of this, the holes will contribute a charge  $q_h = \frac{Nex}{1 + e^x}$ in a time  $\Upsilon_h = \frac{x}{x}$  and the electrons will contribute a charge  $q_e = N$ e  $\frac{d-x}{dx}$  in a time  $\tau_a = \frac{d-x}{dx}$ d  $\mathcal{M}_{n}$  E d

#### Window Thickness

As can be seen from Figure 2  $(p, 8)$ , a particle must pass through an insensitive region or window before it reaches the depletion region of a surface-barrier detector. Particles lose energy in passing through this window, and an account must be made of this. For surface-barrier detectors, Dearnaley and Whitehead (7) have found that the window thickness is essentially the thickness of gold film required to provide electrical contact with the p-type material. The thickness of this gold film is 20 to 50  $\mu$ gm/ cm<sup>2</sup> by weight. This small window thickness for surfacebarrier detectors is one of their principle advantages over other kinds of semiconductor detectors such as the diffused junction and ion-drifted

types.

This is especially true when the detector is being used for energy measurements of highly ionized particles. The detector used in this work is specified by the manufacturer to have a dead layer of thickness not exceeding  $\mu_{0,\text{Ugm}}/ \text{cm}^2$ . This corresponds to an energy loss of 20 Kev for a *5.5* Mev alpha particle.

#### Sensitivity to Gamma Rays

Interaction of gamma rays with silicon and the surrounding material results in the production of Compton electrons, photoelectrons, and electron-positron pairs. The cross section for these processes is proportional to  $\frac{Z}{Z}$   $\int$  ln  $\frac{2 E_s}{Z}$  $E_{\chi}$  . 51 Mev  $Z^2$  ( E<sub>x</sub> -1.02 Mev ) respectively, where E<sub>δ</sub> is gamma ray energy in Mev and z is the atomic number of the material in which the processes are taking place. Because of the low atomic number of silicon, the photoelectric process and pair-production are unfavored. In the case of a shallow barrier such as a surface-barrier, the sensitive volume is so thin that electrons lose negligible energy before escaping from it and thus gamma rays produce only small pulses with low efficiency. The size of the pulses produced by gamma interaction makes it easy to discriminate against them.

## Sensitivity to Neutrons

Neutrons can produce pulses in surface-barrier detectors by undergoing charged-particle reactions with the silicon itself. The known reactions, their Q-values, percentage abundance of the various isotopes of silicon, and the reaction cross section at various neutron energies are shown in Table 1. This data is from Dearnaley  $(4)$ .

Of the known reactions, the  $Si^{28}$  (n,p)  $Al^{28}$  reaction is the most significant due to the high abundance of  $Si^{28}$  and the relatively large cross section for the reaction. Its effect in producing background counts must be considered when doing counting in the presence of high energy neutrons. The probability of neutron reactions in the gold window, resulting in the release of charged particles, is extremely small due to the large "coulomb" barrier of the gold nucleus.



Table 1. Neutron reactions in silicon

#### Energy Resolution

The resolution of a detection system is a measure of the extent to which monoenergetic particles produce pulse heights or charge pulses of a single value. The degree of uniformity of pulse heights is usually described by the quantity  $W_{\frac{1}{2}}$ , the full width at half maximum (FWHM). The quantity  $\mathbb{W}_{\frac{1}{2}}$  is calculated as

$$
W_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\Delta h_1}{h_{\max}} \times 100\%
$$
 (15)

where  $h_{max}$  is the pulse height corresponding to the maximum in the curve and  $\triangle h_{\frac{1}{2}}$  is the pulse height interval between the points at which one half of the maximum occurs.

The several factors which affect the energy resolution of semiconductor detectors have been grouped into three categories by Price (26, p.249). These are the statistics of electron-hole formation, the detector and amplifier noise, and miscellaneous other effects to be discussed later.

The contribution of the statistics of electron- hole formation to the spreed in pulse height, expressed in terms of energy, is given by

$$
W_1 = 2.36 \, \xi_{E_p} \tag{16}
$$

where  $\frac{c}{E}$  is the standard deviation in the amount of energy dissipated in p the detector by a particle of known energy  $(E_p)$ . This can also be written as

$$
W_1 = 2.36(N)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 2.36(E_p \epsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$
 (17)

where  $\epsilon$  is the energy required on the average to produce an electronhole pair and N is the number of ion pairs formed, i.e.,  $E_p$  / $\epsilon$  on the average for each particle of energy  $E_n$ .

In this work, the detector and amplifier noise and the miscellaneous effects are determined experimentally as one contribution to the detection system energy resolution. This is discussed later.

#### Radiation Damage

Significant deterioration of the properties of semiconductor detectors is produced by extensive irradiation. Interaction of the nuclear radiation with the nuclei of the semiconductor causes atoms to be displaced from their equilibrium positions leaving vacancies and interstitial atoms in the lattice. These imperfections act as trapping centers for the charge carriers, i.e., an electron originally in the conduction band can fall into a trapping center located between the valence and conduction bands of silicon. The electron will remain at the trapping site for a finite time and then go back into the conduction band. A similar process takes place for holes. These trapping centers cause an increase in the charge-carrier generation and a reduction in the charge- carrier lifetime. The resulting changes in detector properties include increased pulse rise time, 101ver charge collection efficiency, and decreased resolution due to increased leakage current.

The effect of fast (fission) neutrons on surface-barrier detectors has been reported by Klingensmith (16). In his work, seven silicon surface-barrier detectors were exposed to a  $u^{235}$  fission neutron spectrum, and the damage effects were observed by measuring changes in the detector

response to Pu<sup>239</sup> alpha particles. After an exposure of  $\sim$ 3 x 10<sup>11</sup> neutrons/ $cm^2$  the low energy side of the alpha peak showed a secondary peak. With increasing dose, the original peak broadened but maintained a constant pulse height while the secondary peak decreased in pulse height and became very broad. The total counting rate remained constant with the counts being shared between the two peaks. After  $2 \times 10^{12}$ 2 neutrons/cm , the original single peak response was no longer evident. Over the range of dose from  $10^{12}$  to  $10^{13}$  neutrons/cm<sup>2</sup>, the reverse current of the detectors, i.e. the current flowing across the depletion-region in the absence of ionizing radiation, increased by an order of magnitude. The resistivities characteristic of the detectors involved in this work were high (3000 ohm - cm, n-type) and the bias voltages were low (6 volts) so that the collecting field was low and the effects of the trapping centers may be expected to be particularly noticeable.

Dearnaley (4) exposed several detectors of around 1000 ohm - cm silicon to a high flux of *5.5* Nev alphas and studied the effects of the resulting damage. After 10<sup>8</sup> alphas/cm<sup>2</sup> a slight decrease in reverse current was observed at a detector bias of 2 volts. The detector resolution began to deteriorate after 2 x 10 alphas/cm<sup>2</sup> and multiple peaking  $\frac{11}{2}$  2<br>was evident. After 10 alphas/cm the resolution in the different detectors had deteriorated from 1.5% (undamaged) to between 6% and 15% at 2 volts bias. At a bias of 20 volts, the resolution increased to only 3-4% and multiple peaking was never apparent.

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## DETECTION SYSTEM ANALYSIS

The detection of any nuclear particle requires that the particle undergo some type of interaction with the detection element. For charged particles being detected by semiconductor detectors, this process involves the production of electron-hole pairs *as* the particle loses its energy in passing through the semiconductor material. The mechanism primarily responsible for the energy loss by the particle is the interaction of the coulomb fields of the particle with those of the bound electrons of the absorber. Since neutrons have no charge there will be no coulomb forces with orbital electrons. As a result, the detection and determination of the energy of neutrons requires a secondary reaction in which the neutron interacts with a given nuclide and produces a charged particle whose energy is dependent on the neutron energy. In this work, the  $\text{Li}^6(n, T)\text{He}^4$ reaction was used. The relevant Q-value is 4.78 Mev.

The  $Li^6(n,T)He^4$  reaction takes place in a "converter foil" of  $Li^6F$ . This foil is  $155 \text{ }\mu\text{ cm/cm}^2$  thick of 300  $\text{mm}^2$  surface area and is deposited. on an aluminum disk 0.020 inches thick. The cross section for this reaction as a function of neutron energy is shown in Figure 6.

The particles produced in the  $\text{Li}^6(n,T) \text{He}^4$  reaction are collimated by a grid assembly of aluminum such that only those particles which are scattered within certain angular limitations will reach the detector. At the center of the grid is an aluminum foil  $(4.83 \text{ mg/cm}^2)$  which acts as a filter for these particles, i.e., it passes the tritons after reducing their energy by a known amount but effectively absorbs all alpha particles . While the foil does not completely stop high energy alpha particles, it



Neutron Energy (Mev)



s::: 0 Sect: Cross

reduces their energy to the point that they are not in the energy range of interest.

## Detection System Geometry

The fission plate, "comerter" foil, grid with alpha particle "catcher", and the detector are positioned as shown in Figure 7. The fission plate is 1 inch in diameter, 0. 020 inches thick and is located 2 inches from the  $H^{6}F$  "converter" foil. The "converter" foil is separated from the detector surface by 0. 135 inches of which 0. 123 inches is occupied by the grid. The grid is constructed of two disks of 0.060 inch aluminum through which have been drilled 51 matching holes of 0. 082 inch diameter. The aluminum "catcher" foil is placed between the two halves of the grid. The web of the grid reduces the useful area of the detector from 300  $mm^2$  to 174  $mm^2$ .

The system geometry is in part dictated by the dynamics of the  $\text{Li}^{6}(n,T)$ He<sup>4</sup> reaction, i.e., it is necessary to limit the angle at which tritons can be scattered (with respect to the direction of neutron travel) and still be detected in order that the system resolution chosen can be limited to acceptable values. It will be shown that the energy of the scattered triton is dependent on the scattering angle in the center-ofmass system which in turn depends on the scattering angle in the laboratory system. From Figures 7 and 8 it is seen that the maximum angle at which a triton can be scattered in the laboratory system and still be detected by this system is *55* degrees.



Figure 7. Detection system geometry



Scale:  $10$ " =  $1$ "

Figure 8. Detail of grid hole

Dynamics of the  $Li^6(n,T)He^4$  Reaction

The dynamics of the  $Li^6(n,T)He^4$  reaction are governed by the laws of conservation of energy and momentum. The following treatment is similar to that of Keepin and Roberts (15). Interaction of the neutron with the  $L_1^6$  atom produces a  $Li^7$  compound nucleus which disintegrates to form an alpha-particle and a triton of energies  $E_{\infty}$  and  $E_{p}$  respectively. The particle energies are considered to be entirely kinetic since there are no excited states of tritium in the energy range of interest.

The reaction as it would appear in the center-of-mass coordinate system and in the laboratory coordinate system is shown in Figures 9a and 9b respectively. A comparison of Figure 9b with Figures 7 and 8 reveals that  $\phi$  has a maximum value of  $55^{\circ}$ .



(a) Center of mass system Figure 9. Dynamics of the  $Li^6(n,T)He^4$  reaction (b) Lab system

The energy available for distribution between disintegration products in the center-of-mass system is

$$
E_{dp} = E_n + Q - \left[\frac{m_n}{m_n + M}\right] E_n
$$

where  $m_n$  is the neutron mass and M the mass of the Li<sup>6</sup> nucleus. The remaining energy, *of* magnitude

$$
\begin{bmatrix} m_n \\ m_{n+1} \\ m_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} E_n
$$

goes into the kinetic energy of the center-of-mass. The alpha-particle and the triton divide the energy  $E_{dp}$  in their inverse mass ratio and their respective momenta are given by

$$
P_{\infty}^{\dagger} = P_{T}^{\dagger} = \left[ \frac{2 m_{\infty} m_{T}}{m_{\infty} + m_{T}} \left( \frac{M E_{T}}{m_{T} + M} + Q \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$
(18)

Motion of the center-of-mass in the laboratory system adds, in effect, the components  $\triangle P_{\infty}$  ,  $\triangle P_{T}$  , and  $\triangle P_{n}$  whose magnitudes are given by the particle mass times the velocity *of* the center-of-mass.

The relationship between the triton scattering angle in the centerof-mass system and in the laboratory system is seen from Figure 9b to be

$$
\tan \phi = \frac{P_{\text{T}} \sin \phi_{\text{o}}}{P_{\text{T}} \cos \phi_{\text{o}} + \Delta P_{\text{T}}}
$$
 (19)

Again from the geometry as seen in Figure 9b, we have the vector relation

$$
\overline{P_T} = \overline{P_T'} + \overline{\triangle P_T}
$$
 (20)

The triton energy is then given by

$$
E_T = \frac{1}{2m_T} \left[ \left( P_T' \right)^2 + \left( \Delta P_T \right)^2 + 2 P_T' \Delta P_T \cos \phi_0 \right]
$$

From Equation 21 it is seen that for a neutron of a given energy, the triton can have a range of values of energy depending on the angle between the direction of the incident neutron and the direction in which the triton is scattered from the point of the  $Li<sup>7</sup>$  nucleus disintegration in the center-of-mass system. If the neutron energy is to be found from experimental measurements of triton energies, it is necessary to limit the triton scattering angle in order that the neutron energy can be determined within known limits. In this system, the triton scattering angle is limited by the geometry of the experiment to be less than  $\phi = 55^\circ$  in the lab system ( or less than  $\phi_0$  in the center-of-mass system ). Since the range of triton energies is dependent on  $\phi_{\alpha}$ , this angle must be calculated. Equation 19 is used for this purpose. When  $\phi$  o is known for each incident neutron energy, it is possible to calculate the range of permitted triton energies due to the system geometry and the dynamics of the Li<sup>6</sup>(n, T)He reaction. The results of these calculations are shown in Table 2. As seen in Table 2, a 0.15 Mev neutron can produce a detectable triton whose energy will be in the range from J.00 to J.11 Mev corresponding to values of  $\phi_{o}$  of 57.9° and 0° respectively. Since the neutron can be incident to the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil at any angle between 0 and 22 degrees and the triton can be scattered at any angle between 0 and 33.0 degrees in the laboratory system, it is assumed the most probable triton energy will be the mean of the maximum and minimum allowed values of 3.055 Mev

(21)

Neutron Energy (Mev)	$\phi$ (degrees)	$\phi$ . (degrees)	$(P_T^{'})^2$ $x 10^{+29}$	$(\triangle P_T)^2$ $\times 10^{+31}$	$2P_T\Delta P_T$ $x 10^{+30}$	$2P_T^{\prime \Delta}P_T \cos \phi_0$ $x 10^{+30}$	$(E_T)$ <sub>min</sub> (Mev)	$\left(\textbf{E}_{_{\!\textbf{T}}}\right)_{\!\!\textbf{max}}$ (Mev)	
0.150	55	57.90	4.520	1.467	5.145	2.730	3.000	3.110	
0.200	55	58.10	4.540	1.965	5.975	3.160	3.041	3.194	
0.258	55	58.25	4.590	2.522	6.800	3.580	3.100	3.270	
0.270	55	58.30	4.600	2.635	6.960	3.650	3.110	3.290	
0.300	55	58.50	4.625	2.940	7.360	3.840	3.140	3.355	ξ
0.350	55	58.80	4.660	3.405	7.980	4.140	3.182	3.396	
0.400	55	59.25	4.700	3.920	8.590	4.395	3.230	3.460	
0.565	55	60.00	4.820	5.530	10.320	5.160	3.362	3.650	
0.600	55	60.25	4.860	5.870	10.600	5.300	3.400	3.700	
1.100	55	61.60	5.240	10.810	15.070	7.160	3.784	4.240	
1.500	55	62.50	5.560	14.720	18.100	8.350	4.080	4.660	
2.000	55	63.50	5.960	19.600	21.600	9.640	4.440	5.150	
2.150	55	63.90	6.080	21.150	22.670	9.990	4.560	5.300	

Table 2. Range of triton energies permitted by system geometry and  $\text{Li}^6(n, \text{T})\text{He}^4$  reaction dynamics

for a 0. 15 Mev neutron.

It is noted, the selection of 55 degrees as the maximum permissible triton scattering angle is the result of a compromise between the energy resolution and the efficiency of this detection system.

## Triton Energy Losses

A triton produced in the "converter" foil loses energy in that foil, in air, in the aluminum "catcher" foil, and in the gold layer on the detector surface prior to reaching the sensitive volune of the detector. After leaving the converter foil, the triton must travel through 0.186  $mg/cm<sup>2</sup>$  of air, 4.83 mg/cm<sup>2</sup> of aluminum, 0.23 mg/cm<sup>2</sup> of air, and then pass through the gold layer on the detector surface.

Triton energy losses in the "converter" foil and in the detector "window" are small (i.e.  $\sim$  3.5%) compared to the energy losses in the air and the aluminum and are not accounted for in this analysis.

Triton energy losses in air and aluminum were determined using curves of dE/dx vs triton energy for the respective media. These curves are shown in Figures 10 and 11. Figure 10 was drawn from data presented by Aron et al. (1). Figure 11 was dravm from data presented by Wolke et al. (28) and Kahn (14).

For energy losses in air, the value of dE/dx was assumed constant during the energy loss process and thus the reduction in triton energy was calculated as the product of dE/dx in Kev/mg/cm<sup>2</sup> (at the appropriate value of triton energy) and the density thickness of the air in mg/cm<sup>2</sup>. The error due to this assumption being  $\sim 0.9$  Kev for tritons produced by thermal neutron interaction.

Triton energy losses in aluminum were calculated assuming the rate of energy loss to be linear during the energy loss process, i.e., the value of dE/dx was assumed to be of the form

$$
+\frac{dE_T}{dx} = mE_T^{\dagger} + b \tag{22}
$$

where  $dE_p$  is the average rate of energy loss by the triton in the aluminum  $\alpha$ <sup>x</sup> "catcher" foil,  $E_T$  is the appropriate triton energy, m is the slope of the appropriate part of the curve shown in Figure 11, and b is the intercept of the straight line (of slope m) with the ordinate at 0 triton energy.

This assumption was necessitated by the fact that the conventional energy loss equations are not valid in this low range of triton energies, and it was necessary to use experimentally determined energy loss data.

The values of  $m_r$ ,  $E_T^*$  and b were determined for each value of neutron energy as follows:

- 1. The triton energy just prior to its entering the "catcher" foil was taken to be the mean of its maximum and minimum values calculated considering system geometry effects minus its energy loss in passing through 0. 060 inches of air.
- 2. Using this value of triton energy and the value of  $dE/dx$ corresponding to it, an initial calculation of triton energy loss was made assuming the triton to be normally incident to the "catcher" foil.
- 3. m was then determined by drawing a straight line through the points on Figure 11 corresponding to the triton energy just prior

 $-$  dE/dx (Kev/mg/cm  $^2$ 



Figure 10. Specific energy loss of tritons (in air) vs triton energy
$-{\rm dE}/{\rm d}x$  (  ${\rm Kov}/{\rm mg}/{\rm cm}^2$  )  $\propto$  10  $^{-2}$ 



Figure 11. Specific energy loss of tritons (in aluminum) vs triton energy

 $\frac{3}{2}$ 

to entering and just after leaving the "catcher" foil.

4. b was found by extrapolating this line to zero triton energy.

5.  $E_n$  was taken to be the mean energy of the triton during its passage through the "catcher" foil.

The results of energy loss calculations in the air and in the "catcher" foil are shown in Table 3.

#### Detection System Efficiency

Calculations of the efficioncy of this detection cystem for detection of neutrons of chosen energy are based on data presented by Goldberg et al. (13). This volume presents differential scattering cross section data as a function of triton scattering angle in the center-of-mass system at various neutron energies. Figure 12 shows a sample plot of this data for neutron energy of 0. 30 Mev. Similar curves are given by Goldberg et al. (13) for neutron energies of 0.15, 0.20, 0.258, 0.27, 0. 35, 0. 40, 0. 565, 0. 60, 1. 10, 1. 5, 2.0, and 2.15 Mev. The data presented for each value of neutron energy is normalized to correspond to the cross section vs neutron energy curve shovm in Figure 6. Thus, the cross section for triton scattering into a solid angle of 4 *Tr* ster adians for a given neutron energy is just tho value of cross section found in Figure 6 for that same neutron energy. By graphical integration of curves such as Figure 12, it is possible, knowing the triton scattering angle, to calculate the effective cross section for triton scattering into any given angle.

Neutron Energy (Mev)	Triton Energy (Mev) dx	$dE$ (air) (Kov/mg/cm <sup>2</sup> )	Energy loss in $\overline{2}$ 0.186 mg/cm of air (Mev)	Energy loss $\overline{c}$ in 4.83 mg/cm of Aluminum (Mev)	$\frac{dE}{dx}$ (air) (Kev/mg/cm)	Energy loss in 0.23 $mg/cm2$ of air (Mev)	Triton Energy (Mev)	
Thermals	2.730	246	0.0460	1.020	332	0.0764	1.588	
0.150	3.055	231	0.0430	0.955	300	0.0690	1.988	
0.200	3.112	228	0.0424	0.940	296	0.0680	2.062	
0.258	3.180	225	0.0418	0.913	282	0.0650	2.160	
0.270	3.200	224	0.0416	0.910	280	0.0645	2.184	
0.300	3.232	222	0.0413	0.906	278	0.0640	2.221	
0.350	3.289	221	0.0411	0.892	270	0.0620	2.289	37a
0.400	3.345	219	0.0407	0.879	266	0.0610	2.369	
0.565	3.506	212	0.0394	0.846	252	0.0580	2.562	
0.600	3.550	210	0.0390	0.840	251	0.0576	2.609	
1.100	4.012	193	0.0359	0.770	228	0.0525	3.142	
1.500	4.370	180	0.0335	0.723	210	0.0483	3.565	
2.000	4.795	170	0.0316	0.684	193	0.0444	4.035	
2.150	4.930	169	0.0314	0.680	188	0.0433	4.167	
Thermals No Al	2.730	246	0.1020			* thickness of air = 0.416 mg/cm		

Table 3. Triton energy loss calculations

37a



Differential scattering cross section for tritons from the  $Li^0(n,T)He^4$  reaction. Neutron energy is 0.30 Mev. Figure 12.

For this system, the triton scattering angle in the laboratory system was taken to be 18.4 degrees. This represents the case where the neutron reaction in the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil takes place on the axis of one of the grid holes and the resulting triton is scattered at an angle of 18.4 degrees from this axis. This is the largest angle at which the triton can be scattered from the selected point and still be detected by the detector (see Figure 8). The corresponding angle in the center-of-mass system can be calculated using Equation 19. It is seen that this angle ( in the center-of-mass system ) is dependent on the energy of the incident neutron.

If the cross section for triton scattering into the allowed scattering angle is known, the fraction  $f(E)$  of incident neutrons of a given energy which produce tritons that ara detected can be calculated from the following equation,

$$
\hat{r}(E) = N dx \quad \sigma(\phi_0) \tag{23}
$$

where N is the number of Li<sup>6</sup> atoms/cm<sup>3</sup> in the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil, dx is the linear thickness of the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil, and  $\sigma$  (  $\phi_o$  ) is the effective cross section determined above. For the  $\overline{\text{Li}}^6$ F foil used in this work, N and dx were calculated to be 6.26 x 10<sup>22</sup> atoms/cm<sup>3</sup> and 5.96 x 10<sup>-5</sup>cm respectively.

Table 4 lists values of  $\phi$ <sub>o</sub>,  $\sigma$ ( $\phi$ <sub>o</sub>), and f(E) as calculated for the neutron energies of interest in this work.

It should be noted that the efficiencies calculated as discussed above are only relative efficiencies. Neutrons incident on the Li  $\overset{6}{\mathrm{F}}$  foil at angles other than 90° will travel a greater distance in the foil and thus have a greater probability of interacting with  $\overline{L}^6$  and yielding a detectable triton. Since the fission neutrons are emitted from the fission plate isotropically, the relative number of neutrons incident on the Li F foil at any given angle will be the same for all neutron energies.

Sinco relative efficiencies provide the desired information, absolute detection system efficiencies have not been calculated.

Neutron Energy (Mov)	$\phi_{\sf o}$ (degrees)	$\sigma$ ( $\phi$ ) (millibarns)	f(E) (x 10')
0.15	19.90	055.8	2.080
0.20	20.00	124.0	4.620
0.258	20.20	184.0	6.850
0.270	20.25	170.0	6.350
0.300	20.35	132.0	4.910
0.350	20.50	083.8	3.130
0.400	20.70	084.6	3.160
0.565	20.95	027.2	1.015
0.600	21.00	028.8	1.072
1.100	21.50	029.0	1.084
1.500	21.90	025.2	0.940
2.000	22.25	014.9	0.555
2.150	22.40	012.1	0.491

Table 4. Relative detection system efficiency

## Energy Resolution

The energy resolution of this detection system is dependent on five separate factors. These are:

- a. Electronic noise in the detector, preamplifier, amplifier, and analyzer system.
- b. Variations in triton energy losses in the  $\tilde{L}^6$ F foil.
- c. Variations in triton energy losses in air and in the aluminum

"catcher" foil.

- d. The background contribution from such other sources as gamma rays.
- e. Variations in triton energies permitted by the geometry of the detection system.

The effect of the first four factors on the total resolution of the system can be determined experimentally while the effect of the system geometry must be accounted for analytically.

#### Calibration of the detection system

Prior to the experimental determination of the effect of the above listed factors on the total resolution of the system, the energy calibration of the detection system was performed. That is, the channel in which the pulse produced by a given energy particle will be stored, was determined. The energy width of each channel was also found.

The detection system used in this work was calibrated using a source of monoenergetic alpha-particles,  $(\text{Am}^{241}$ ,  $E_c = 5.477$  Mev) and a voltage pulse generator. A schematic drawing of the circuit used is shown in Figure 13.

The output of the pulse generator was fed through a one picofarad capacitor (inside the preamplifier housing) to the preamplifier. The generator pulses are passed through the preamplifier and linear amplifier at the same time as pulses from the detector. Calibration consists of detecting alpha particles of known energy with the detector and simultaneously adjusting the amplitude of the pulses from the pulse generator until the respective spectrum peaks fall in the same channel of the





analyzer. Controls on the pulse generator permit the pulser output to be normalized to the alpha particle energy, i.e., the pulser settings can be adjusted so that the alpha particle energy is set directly on the dial of the pulse generator. Thus, any other particle energy can be read from the dial settings when the pulse generator output is adjusted to fall in the same channel as the pulse from the particle. This absolute calibration makes detailed knowledge of circuit gain, etc. unnecessary.

The width of each channel was determined by observing the output of the pulse generator at two different settings (each setting corresponding to a given energy particle). The equivalent energy difference between the two pulser settings divided by the number of channels between the resulting peaks yielded the channel width. As adjusted for these experiments, the multichannel analyzer channel width was found to be 8.9 Kev.

#### Effect of electronic noise on total system resolution

Counts Per Channel

The contribution to the total resolution of the system due to electronic noise was determined by observing the full width at half maximum of a peak produced by the pulse generator. The circuit shown in Figure 13 was used. A plot of this data is shown in Figure 14 where the FWHM is seen to be 52 Kev. The output of the pulse generator when fed directly into the linear amplifier (preamplifier, detector, and power supply not included in the circuit) yielded an essentially "one-channel" profile.



Figure 14. Energy resolution of pulse generator output (see Appendix C. Table 7 for data)

6 Effect of triton energy losses in Li F foil \_2!! total sYstem resolution

The effect on the energy resolution of triton energy losses in the  $^{6}_{14}$  F foil was determined by counting only thermal neutrons and observing the FWHM of the resulting triton peak. The same detector geometry as seen in Figure 7 was maintained here with the exception that no aluminun "catcher" foil was in place. In the absence of the "catcher" foil, both tritons and alpha particles were detected. The energy of the particles, i.e. , 2. 73 Mev for tritons and 2. *05* Mev for alpha particles caused the respective peaks to be separated and thus permitted the analysis of the triton peak. The triton peak is plotted on Figure 15 and the FWHM was found to be *75* Kev.

### Effect of triton energy loss variations in the "catcher" foil on the total system resolution

This effect was determined by putting the aluminum "catcher" foil in place and again observing the FWHM of the triton peak produced by detecting only thermal neutrons. This data is plotted on Figure 16 and the FWHM was found to be 148 Kev. It is noted that the value of FWHM shown in Figure 16 includes the contribution due to electronic noise and energy losses in the  $Li<sup>6</sup>F$  foil as well as that due to energy loss variations in the "catcher" foil. In the subsequent analysis, the resultant effect of the above three resolution factors will be considered as a single contribution to the total resolution of this detection system. It is assumed that this contribution is constant for the neutron energies of interest in this work.

The contribution from gamma radiation, if large enough, will render the derived distribution statistically meaningless.





Figure 15. Energy resolution of triton peak produced by thermal neutrons (see Appendix C, Table 8 for data)

## Contribution to total system resolution of system geometry

Counts Per Channel

As can be seen from Equation 21, the energy of the triton resulting from the  $\text{Li}^{6}(n, T)$ He<sup>4</sup> reaction is dependent on the neutron energy and the angle (in the center-of-mass system) at which the triton is scattered with respect to the direction of travel of the incident neutron. For neutrons of a given energy, the triton energy will range from the value calculated when  $\phi_o = 0^\circ$ , to that calculated when  $\phi_o$  is the maximum as



Counts Per Channel

Channel Number

Figure 16. Energy resolution of triton peak produced by thermal neutrons with "catcher" foil in place (see Appendix C, Table 9 for data)

allowed by the detection system geometry. To permit a determination of the effect of this variation in triton energy on the FWHM of a triton peak at any given neutron energy, it was assumed that the distribution of triton energies for monoenergetic neutrons would have a shape similar to the normal (Gaussian) distribution. From Price (26, p. 58) the FWHM is then 2.36  $\omega$  where  $\omega$  is the standard deviation of the pulse height distribution or, in this case, the triton energy distribution. From the characteristics of the normal distribution function,  $\omega$  is here taken to be 1/6 of the total triton energy spread,  $\triangle E_{\eta}$ . Table 5 shows the FWHM determined by this method for each of the chosen values of neutron energy.

#### Total resolution of detection system

The total resolution (FWHM) of this detection system is thus the sum of the two "partial" widths determined above. If there is no correlation between the uncertainties in the determination of neutron energy for the individual "partial" widths, and if each has a Gaussian distribution in amplitude. the total width (FWHM) can be determined by the following quadratic form,

$$
\mathcal{L} = \sqrt{\sum \mathcal{L}_l^{2}} \tag{24}
$$

where  $\delta$  is the total system resolution and  $\delta_i$  represents the i "partial" widths.

Rybakov and Sidorov (27), in their treatment of this subject, note that this method of combining partial widths does not introduce any significant error even when the distribution of uncertainties is not Gaussian.

The total resolution of this detection system excluding background for each value of neutron energy is shown in Table 6. Results are included for the system with and without the "catcher" foil.

Figure 17 shows a plot of the total system resolution as a function of neutron energy.



 $\sim 10^{11}$ 

Table 5. System geometry contribution to total resolution

 $\epsilon$ 



 $\sim 10^{-10}$ 







Figure 17. Total detection system resolution vs neutron energy

 $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}$  Resolution

#### EXPERIMENTAL EQUIPMENT AND PROCEDURE

The experimental equipment incorporated into this detection system was selected in an effort to develop a low cost neutron spectrometer requiring a minimum of electronic apparatus and yet having satisfactory resolution and efficiency characteristics as compared to other methods. The system under discussion, utilizing a single semiconductor detector, satisfies these requirements.

The principle disadvantage of a system of this type is that all effects of gamma rays and charged-particle reactions other than the Li $^6$ (n,T)He $^4$  reaction must be eliminated either by shielding the detector (in the case of gamma rays) or by doing background runs. In the coincidence systems, for example, these effects are eliminated electronically. The cost of the coincidence type spectrometer system, however, is a significant consideration.

The principle experimental objective was to demonstrate the ability of the proposed detection system to resolve the fission spectrum of U-235 in the energy range from 0.15 to 2.15 Mev. Determination of the effects produced by gamma rays and fast neutron induced charged-particle reaction was also of prime significance.

The source of fast neutrons was a fission foil of uranium  $93\%$ enriched in U-235. The energy spectrum of prompt neutrons released as a result of thermal fission of U-235 is well known and is given, for example, in Etherington (8, p. 7-91).

Calibration of the detection system and experimental determination of the various resolution effects have been described in the section on

detection system analysis and are not repeated here.

The apparatus which was used for the initial experimental runs is shown in Figure 18.



Fission Foil Holding Device Detector with Li<sup>6</sup>F Foil, Grid and "Catcher" Foil

Figure 18. Apparatus for initial runs inside thermal column

The box, constructed of 0.031 inch sheet aluminum, provided fixed system geometry. To reduce the thermal neutron flux at the location of the "converter" foil and detector, the box was covered with 0.030 inch cadmium, excepting a 1 inch diameter hole of the location of the fission foils.

Prior to doing experimental work with the detection system in the

reactor, two reactor runs were made to determine reactivity effects introduced by placing fission foils in the thermal column of the UTR-10. An initial run was made with the cadmium covered box (no fission foils) placed in the opening normally occupied by the central stringer of the thermal column at a distance of 26 inches from the "south" core tank. The location of the box relative to the core is shown in Figure 19.



Figure 19. Relative location of UTR-10 thermal colunm and "south" core tank

The control rod positions and moderator inlet and outlet temperatures were recorded with the reactor power level at 1 watt. A subsequent run was made under identical conditions as during the first run except that two fission foils were attached to the front of the cadmium covered box. At the same power level of 1 watt, it was found that all control rod position readings and moderator temperature readings were the same as for the previous run, indicating that the fission foils (10 grams total mass) had a negligible effect on the reactivity of the UTR-10 reactor.

Investigation of System Operation Inside the Thermal Column The initial experimental run in the thermal column was made using the apparatus shown in Figure 18. The fission plate, "converter" foil, grid with "catcher" foil, and detector were positioned as shown in Figure 7. The detector was covered with 0.030 inch cadmium. The box was placed in the opening normally occupied by the central stringer of the thermal column at a point 32 inches from the "south" core tank. That portion of the opening between the box and the core tank was filled with graphite. With the reactor power level at 300 watts, data was taken for a 10 minute period. A plot of the results is shown in Figure 20.

It is seen that the triton peak from thermal neutron reactions 1n the "converter" foil is located in channel number 71 (i. e. 1. 80 Mev). From the triton energy loss calculations and the calibration data, this peak was expected to fall in or slightly below channel number 45. The resolution of this triton peak was also much worse than had been expected.

These results could be explained if the neutron flux at the detector location included a significant high energy component. That is,

Counts Per Channel



Channel Number

Figure 20. Plot of results obtained with detection system inside thermal column at point 32 inches from "south" core tank (see Appendix C, Table 10 for data)

a significant fraction of the neutrons at this point in the thermal column had not yet been completely thermalized and the detector was indicating this.

The apparatus was then modified as shown in Figure 21. The alternating layers of 0.125 inch plexiglas and 0.030 inch cadmium were intended to moderate and then capture epi-cadmium neutrons that passed through the cadmium surrounding the aluminum box. The apparatus was



Figure 21. Modification of apparatus incorporating two alternating layers of plexiglas and cadmium. Items from left to right inglude the fission foil holding device, fission foil, Li<sup>6</sup>F "converter" foil, grid with "catcher" foil, detector, and cadmium covered box with modification.

positioned 46 inches from the core tank, i.e. (withdrawn a further 14 inches into the thermal column), to determine if the assumption of incomplete thermalization could explain the results found previously. Using one fission foil, data was taken for 15 minutes at a reactor power level of 600 watts. The results obtained were very similar to those obtained previously. i.e. the peak was located in channel number 72 and no improvement in resolution was noted. An additional run was then made without fission foils. Counting was done for 8 minutes at a power level of 600 watts. No improvement in peak location or resolution was found.

The apparatus was then relocated at the end of the thermal column where effects due to incomplete thermalization would be minimized and data taken.

Since a fraction of the incident thermal neutrons will pass through the fission foils and reach the converter, it is necessary to subtract such contributions to obtain a meaningful fission spectrun measurement. A foil of lead and cadmium having the same thermal neutron absorbing and scattering properties as the fission foils was made (for details see Appendix B). The thermal neutron contribution was eliminated by making identical runs using first the fission foils and then the lead-cadmium foil and identifying the difference as being due to fission neutrons.

# Investigation of System Operation at the End of the Thermal Colunm

The apparatus was positioned with respect to the thermal column and and the thermal column door as shown in Figure 22.

To evaluate the resolution of the system in this new position, the reactor was brought to a power level of 5000 watts and the pulse generator

55b



Figure 22. Position of apparatus for measurements at end of thermal column

was pulsed during the counting period. The FWHH of the peak obtained was nearly 3 times as great as that obtained when the reactor was at zero power. Figure 23 shows the results of this run. The pulse generator was then pulsed (120 pulses per second for 1.5 minutes) at



Channel Number

Resolution of pulse generator output at reactor power levels Figure 23. of 0 and 5000 watts (see Appendix C, Table 13 for data)

levels corresponding to 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, and 4.04 Mev particle energy at reactor power levels of 0, 100, 500, 1000, and 2500 watts respectively. The peaks obtained from these runs are shown in Figure 24.

It was evident at this point that the location of the thermal triton peak and the poor resolution of this peak was due in part to gamma radiation rather than entirely to epi-cadmium neutrons. That is, the gamma rays incident on the detector were producing a strong background of small charge pulses. When a pulse from the detector or pulse generator was superimposed on this background, there was a certain probability of the



Channel Number

Resolution of pulser peaks at different reactor power levels Figure 24. with apparatus positioned as shown in Figure 22 (see Appendix C. Table 14 for data)

two pulses being produced at the same time. When this happened, the pulse from the detector or pulse generator appeared to be larger in magnitude than was expected. This variation in magnitude of the primary pulses was responsible for the resolution effects observed.

Subsequent runs were then made with the apparatus in the same position but shielded from gamma radiation from the core by a lead brick positioned as shown in Figure 25. The pulse generator was again pulsed (120 pulses per second for 1 min.) at levels corresponding to 2.08, 2.54, J . 08, and J . 50 Mev particle energy at reactor power levels of 0, *500,*  1000. and 5000 watts respectively. The resulting peaks are shown in Figure 26. There was no significant change between the resolution obtained at corresponding power levels with and without the lead brick.

It was then postulated that the  $(n, \gamma)$  reaction in cadmium was responsible for the resolution effects. The absorption of a thermal neutron in cadmium occurs with the release of a gamma ray with energy in excess of 9 Mev. To eliminate this reaction, all the cadmium that had been used in the system was removed and boral (which produces an alpha particle) was substituted as the thermal neutron absorbing material. The boral used, in sheet form, was 0.125 inch total thickness of which 0.040 inches (0.020 inch cladding on each side) is aluminum. The center portion of the sandwich is a mixture of 35 weight per cent  $B_1C$  aluminum.



Figure 25. Position of lead shielding with apparatus at end of thermal column



Channel Number

Figure 26. Resolution of pulser peaks at different reactor power levels with apparatus shielded as shown in Figure 25 (see Appendix C, Table 15 for data)

The first experimental run using boral was made with the apparatus as shown in Figure 27. The apparatus was positioned at the end of the thermal column as shown in Figure 25. The pulse generator was pulsed (120 pulses per second for 1 minute) at levels corresponding to  $2.08$ ,  $2.54$ , 3.08, and 3.50 Mev particle energy at reactor power levels of 0, 500, 1000, and 5000 watts respectively. The resulting peaks are shown in Figure 28.

The peak resulting from detection of thermal neutrons at a reactor power level of 5000 watts is also plotted on Figure 28, and it is seen to fall where it was expected, i.e. channel number 51 for a threshold setting



Figure 27. Apparatus with boral being used instead of cadmium

of 110.

Final modification of the apparatus consisted of adding additional boral and lead shielding. The apparatus then appeared as shown in Figure 29.

Three experimental runs were made to determine the ability of this detection system to resolve the fission spectrum in the energy range from . 15 to 2.15 Mev. The first was made using 2 fission foils. The converter foil, grid and "catcher" foil were positioned as shown before. Data was



Channel Number

Figure 28. Resolution of pulser peaks with boral substituted for cadmium (see Appendix C, Table 16 for data)



Figure 29. Detection system apparatus as used for final measurements

taken for 53 minutes at a reactor power level of 4000 watts. The second or background run was made with the lead- cadmium foil substituted for the fission foils. Data was again taken for 53 minutes at a power level of 4000 watts. The difference in the data from these two runs was due to the effects of the fission neutrons. The third run was made using 2 fission foils, however, the  $Li^{6}$ F "converter" foil was removed and replaced with an 18 mil foil of aluminum. The purpose of this run was to eliminate the counts due to both fast neutron reactions in the detector itself, and charged- particle reactions in the surrounding material. The information from this run indicated that the results of the two preceeding runs ineluded a large component due to reactions other than those taking place in the Li<sup>6</sup>F foil. Data obtained for the three runs is shown in Figure 30.

Subsequent investigation using a Po-Be neutron source (yielding neutrons with energies from approximately 2 to 10 Mev) indicated that fast neutron reactions in the detector itself were negligible compared to reactions involving the aluminum in the grid and "converter" foil. Apparently, in the presence of neutrons with energy above the threshold for the  $\text{Al}^{27}(\text{n,p})\text{Mg}^{27}$  reaction, the high background associated with the present design makes spectrum measurements difficult if not impossible.

175 150  $\Theta$ foils foil  $\oplus$  $\Box$ Ð Results using Fo- $\frac{11}{2021}$ foil with 125 Rosul foils foil back present.  $100$ 75 đ. 50 ò 25  $\circ$ 90 140 190 340 240 290

Channel Number

Figure 30. Results of final experimental runs (see Appendix C, Tables 17, 18, 19 for data)

Counts Per Channel

#### RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

A detection system has been designed which, on the basis of the current analysis, appears suitable for measurement of neutron energies in the range from 0.15 to 2.15 Mev. This energy range is below that in which the cross section of the  $A1^{27}(n,p)Mg^{27}$  reaction becomes significant. For monoenergetic neutrons the total resolution (FWHM) of the system was calculated to be 0. 086 Mev at 0.15 Mev and 0.30 Mev at 2.15 Mev. For spectrum measurements of neutrons of energies between 0.15 and 2.15 Mev the resolution (FWHM) is reduced to 0.154 Mev at 0.15 Mev and 0. 327 Mev at 2. 15 Mev.

A statistically significant experimental verification of the operation of the triton detection system using a fission neutron source failed due to the high proton background arising from high energy neutron (above 2 Mev) reactions in the aluminum incorporated into the system. The upper limit of the detection system capability depends on the threshhold and yield of neutron reactions involving system materials and leading to the production of charged particles.

Use of the system in a reactor environment would be suitable only if sufficient gamma ray shielding could be provided for the semiconductor detector. Gamma rays decrease the resolution of the system and their presence can be tolerated to the extent that the resolution is not effected significantly.

Use of materials, (excepting the "converter" foil) which yield charged particles in the energy range from 1.98 to  $4.17$  Mev as a result of fast neutron reactions, must be minimized. The limits of the above energy

range correspond to the detected energy of tritons resulting from reactions produced by 0.15 and 2.15 Mev neutrons. Materials which must be carefully selected include the backing material for the ''converter" foil, the collimating grid and "catcher" foil, and all materials included in the detector itself.

The energy resolution of the system could be improved considerably at low neutron energies by using a different linear amplifier, e.g. ORTEC Model No. 201. The electronic noise in the system used in this work contributes 52 Kev to the total system resolution. This could be reduced to approximately 15 Kev FWHM by utilizing a linear amplifier designed specifically for use with the preamplifier used in this work.

The efficiency of the system could be improved by a factor of 3 without appreciably reducing the total system resolution, assuming that better electronic equipment as discussed above was employed. The increase in efficiency would be due to an incroese in the thickness of the "converter" foil. The foil used in this work  $(155 \text{ Mgm/cm}^2)$  contributes approximately 23 Kev to the FWHM of the triton peak resulting from thermal neutrons.

Triton energy losses in the aluminum "catcher" foil and in air, as determined experimentally for tritons resulting from thermal neutron reactions, are in good agreement with the calculated energy losses. From Figures 15 and 16 it is seen that the triton peak was shifted 120 channels when the "catcher" foil was inserted into the grid. For a channel width of 8.9 Kev this represents a triton energy loss of 1.06 Mev. The difference in detected triton energy with and without the "catcher" foil (Table 3) was calculated to be 1.04 Mev.

Use of the aluminum "catcher" foil contributes approximately 73 Kev to the FWHM of the triton peak.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

It would be highly desirable to test this detection system using monoenergetic neutrons at several different energies within the energy range for which it was designed. This would yield experimental values for the resolution of the system as a function of neutron energy. In addition, this would provide a means of checking the triton energy loss calculations for neutrons above thermal energy. The  $Li^7(p,n)Be^7$  and  $T(p,n)He^3$  reactions are both suitable for generation of neutrons with energies in the range from 0.15 to 2.15 Mev.

As is seen from Equation 11, the thickness of the depletion region for semiconductor detectors is dependent on the magnitude of the applied voltage and resistivity of the detector material. Cederlund et al. (3) have used this characteristic of these detectors as a means of discriminating between alpha-particles and protons. It would be of interest to determine if this method could be used to discriminate between alpha-particles and tritons. If so, the "catcher" foil could be eliminated from the system with a resulting increase in the total resolution of the system.

An alternate method of discriminating between tritons and alphaparticles would be to use pulse shape discrimination. Different charged particles in the process of being stopped in semiconductor detectors produce pulses of different shapes. Suitable electronic systems can detect these different pulse shapes and thus discrimination can be accomplished. Funsten (11) has demonstrated the usefulness of this method.

Further investigations using a fission spectrum should be made. This
would require use of a different backing material for the "converter" foil and different materials for the grid and "catcher" foil. Use of a thicker  $L1^{6}$ F foil in conjunction with better electronics would also be an improvement over the current design.

A more detailed analysis of the efficiency of the system could be completed in order that absolute measurements of the number of neutrons at each energy could be made. The current analysis of efficiency is on a relative basis only.

#### SYMBOLS EMPLOYED

- electronic charge  $\Theta$
- ê - electric field strength
- $E_{\rm sc}$ - alpha-particle energy
- $\mathbb{E}_{\text{dp}}$ - energy available to the disintegration products of the  $Li^{6}(n,T)He^{4}$  reaction
- $E_{X}$ - gamma ray energy
- $\mathbb{E}_{\text{max}}$ - maximum energy that can be transferred to an electron in the semiconductor material by a charged particle of mass M and energy Ep
- $E_n$ - neutron energy
- energy of unspecified charged particle  $E_{\alpha}$
- triton energy  $E_{\rm T}$
- fraction of neutrons of a given energy incident on the  $\text{Li}^6$ F  $f(E)$ foil which result in a detectable triton
- $\Delta h_2^1$  pulse height interval between the points at which one-half of the maximum occurs
- pulse height corresponding to the maximum in the curve h<sub>max</sub>
- K - Boltzman constant
- $\mathfrak{m}_{o\!\!\mathbb{C}}$ - mass of alpha-particle
- electron mass  $m_{\alpha}$
- $m_\Omega$ - mass of neutron
- $\texttt{M}_{\texttt{p}}$ - mass of unspecified charged particle
- mass of triton  $m_{\tau}$
- N - total number of electron-hole pairs produced by an incident charged particle
- $n_{n}$ - electron concentration in n-type semiconductor material
- $n_{\rm p}$ - electron concentration in p-type semiconductor material

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- $\sum$  macroscropic absorption cross section
- $\sigma$  microscopic absorption cross section

 $\sum$ <sub>s</sub> - macroscopic scattering cross section

- *c5"s*  microscopic scattering cross section
- $\sigma(\phi_o)$  cross section for Li<sup>6</sup>(n, T)He<sup>4</sup> reaction yielding a triton which is detected. Conditions are specified in definition of  $\Theta$ .
- $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ - transit time for charge carriers
- $\Theta$ - maximum angle in the laboratory system into which triton can be scattered and still be detected. This assumes the neutron is incident normal to the Li<sup>O</sup>F foil and the reaction takes place on the axis of a grid hole.

 $\Theta_{\mathbf{o}}$ in terms of center-of-mass system of coordinates

 $\frac{1}{2}$  is standard deviation in number of electron-hole pairs produced in semiconductor detectors by charged particle of energy  $E_p$ 

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### APPENDIX A

#### Equipment List

Detector ...................ORTEC<sup>\*</sup> Model No. NHD300 CO, Surface-barrier ı. type: Area = 300 mm<sup>2</sup>, Resistivity = 3000 ohm-cm 2. Power Supply ........... ORTEC Model No. 106, Serial No. 49 Preamplifier ........... OFTE Model No. 105, Serial No. 190 3.

Linear Amplifier ........ RIDL. This device was an integral part of 4. the 400 channel analyzer.

5. 400 Channel Analyzer..... RIDL Model No. 34-12B. Serial No. 84611 C Pulse Generator.........RIDL Model No. 47-7, Serial No. 50E8429  $6.$ Alpha-particle source ...  $Am^{24}E_c = 5.477$  Mev, Prepared by ORTEC  $7.$ Fission Foils ..........1 inch diameter, 0.020 inch thick, 93% 8. enriched in U-235

<sup>\*</sup> Oak Ridge Technical Enterprises Corporation

#### APPENDIX B

#### Discussion of Lead-Cadmium Foil

The lead-cadmium foil used in this work was designed to replace two of the 1 inch diameter, 0.020 inch thick fission foils. The appropriate cross section and density data, used in making the calculations to determine the amounts of lead and cadmium needed in the foil, are listed below.

Cd  $\sum_{n}$  = 114 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\sum_{s}$  = 0.325 cm<sup>-1</sup>, density = 8.65  $\frac{gm}{cm^3}$ Pb  $\sum_{a}$  = 0.006 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\sum_{s}$  = 0.363 cm<sup>-1</sup>, density = 11.35 gm  $\sigma_{\rm a}$  = 683 barns,  $\sigma_{\rm g}$  = 10 barns, density = 19  $\frac{\rm gm}{\rm cm^3}$  $\pi^{235}$  $\sigma_s = 2.7$  barns,  $\sigma_s = 8.3$  barns, consity = 19  $\frac{cm}{cm}$ 

The amounts of lead and cadmium required in the foil were determined as follows:

- 1. The macroscopic absorption and scattering cross sections were calculated for the fission foils. The calculated values were  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$  = 30.860 cm<sup>-1</sup> and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$  = 0.480 cm<sup>-1</sup>.
- The total absorption and scattering cross sections of the two  $2.$ fission foils was calculated by multiplying the volume of the foils by  $\sum_{n}$  and  $\sum_{n}$  respectively. The total absorption cross section was calculated to be  $15.90$  cm<sup>2</sup> and the total scattering cross section was calculated to be  $0.247$  cm<sup>2</sup>.

3. The amount of cadmium required to provide the same total absorption

cross section as the two fission foils was calculated to be  $0.1395$   $cm^3$  or 1.164 gms. It was assumed that lead would make no contribution to the absorbing proporties of the foil.

- 4. The contribution of 1. 164 gms of cadmium to the total scattering cross section of the foil was calculated to be 0.0452  $cm^2$ .
- *5.* The difference between the total scattering cross section of the fission foils and the contribution to this provided by the cadmium was calculated to be 0.2018  $cm^2$ .
- 6. The amount of lead required to provide this total scattering cross section was calculated to be *0.556* cm' or 6. 32 gzns.

The lead-cadmium foil was made by melting the appropriate mass ratio of lead and cadmium and pouring the melt into a graphite mold. The 1 inch diameter foil was then machined until the total mass required (6.32 gms of lead  $+1.164$  gms of cadmium=7.484 gms) was attained.

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## APPENDIX C

## Data

# Table 7. Energy resolution of pulse generator output





Table 8. Energy resolution of triton peak produced by thermal neutrons



Table 9. Energy resolution of triton peak produced by thermal neutrons with "catcher" foil in place

82



Table 10. Results obtained with detection system inside thermal column at point 32 inches from "south" core tank



 $\sim$  10

Table 11. Results obtained with detection system inside thermal column at point 46 inches from "south" core tank (Used one fission foil)

84

 $\sim$  100

 $\overline{a}$ 



Table 12. Results obtained with detection system inside thermal column at



ila 196<br>Norge<br>Molital

 $T = 100$ 

Table 13. Resolution of pulse generator output at reactor power levels of 0 and *5000* watts



Table 14. Resolution of pulser peaks at different reactor power levels<br>with apparatus positioned as shown on Figure 22



Table 15. Resolution of pulser peaks at different reactor power levels<br>with apparatus shielded as shown on Figure 25



Table 16. Resolution of pulser peaks with boral substituted for cadmium



Table 17. Results of run using 2 fission foils, "converter" foil, grid and "catcher" foil



Table 18. Results of run using lead-cadmium foil, "converter" foil, grid



Table 19. Results of run using 2 fission foils, 0.018 inch aluminum, grid and "catcher" foil