### STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF SPECTRA FROM

### THE $(n, \gamma)$ REACTION

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### STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF SPECTRA FROM

### THE (n, Y) REACTION

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by

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Some general results applicable to complicated  $\$ spectra are derived. These involve the mathematical simplification of a system response, as well as an investigation of some statistical properties of data. The technique is applicable to all spectra with distributed features. This work involves a study of the gamma radiation spectra following thermal neutron capture in 15 nuclides in the mass range  $28 \le A \le 204$ . Invoking a statistical model of the nucleus allows a determination of nuclear temperature and level spacing from the spectra. On the basis of the model and the spectral multiplicity we assign absolute intensities to spectroscopic data. The results are found to agree with previously reported values based upon other data and methods.

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## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Since the goal of scientific investigation is to extract information from experimental results, it is appropriate that this work deal with both a method of extraction and the information itself. The result of any measurement can be regarded as a random variable sampled from the applicable distribution, and therefore any quantitative information that is sought is a value of a parameter of a distribution. It is shown that new and relevant information can be extracted from observed spectral fluctuations through the application of descriptive statistical methods.

The present study concerns itself with gamma radiation spectra. The term spectrum, which has come to denote many different phenomena, is here used to describe the experimental results. In this case the spectrum represents a definite relationship between the intensity of gamma radiation and the energy of the gamma radiation. A simple way of presenting such results is by means of a graph.

The observed spectra result from the absorption of neutrons of low kinetic energy by assemblages of nuclei. Each interaction releases a large amount of internal energy, which is usually emitted by the produced nucleus as gamma radiation. Characteristic of the radiation sources under study is their discrete nature. This is a consequence of the fact that the internal energy of a . particular kind of nucleus can assume only certain discrete values, and the radiations represent transitions between such allowable energy levels. Therefore a large number of distinct gamma rays, distributed in energy in a discontinuous mannex, are expected to be present.

An examination of a spectrum of the radiation emitted by a nuclide of low mass shows this to be true. Such data contain distinct maxima in some energy regions. These peaks have been found to be the manifestation of nearly monoenergetic gamma rays. In the case of the Ge(Li) pair spectrometer used in this study, the shape of the peaks can be approximated to Gaussian distributions. When a peak is known to represent a monoenergetic gamma ray, the inverse of its width in appropriate units is.termed the resolving power of the experimental system. The total spectral distribution resulting from a monoenergetic gamma ray is known as as the system response. We shall consider a spectrum to consist of the linear superposition of many such response functions, arising from an equal number of gamma rays of appropriate energy and intensity.

The development of the Ge(Li) spectrometer has yielded an order of magnitude improvement in resolving power over previously applicable techniques (1). This allows greater precision and accuracy in the energy determinations of known gamma radiations,

as well as the observation of lower intensity gamma, rays previously masked by other peaks nearby. In complicated spectra the ratio of the average spacing between peaks and their average width becomes small, and a point is reached at which discrete features can no longer be recognized. The spectrum contains apparently random fluctuations from which no information has as yet been extracted. A system with a higher resolving power would, of course, enable the observation of discrete peaks in such an energy region of the spectrum.

Technical difficulties associated with increasing the system resolving power led us to investigate other possible methods of extracting information from spectra. From a statistical viewpoint we treat a spectrum as an ensemble of peaks, randomly distributed in energy and intensity. A mathematical relationship is found between the observed spectral fluctuations and parameters describing the distributions of these variables. Assumptions concerning the forms of the distributions are made and justified. Estimates of forma ray intensity and spacing are obtained directly from spectral data.

The precision of the information obtainable is directly related to the resolving power of the system and the total-number. of events contained in the observed spectrum. Data were collected using the best available high resolution detector associated with a sophisticated electronic system. Therefore tabulations of the observed gamma radiations are also presented. Discrete gamma

ray energies were obtained graphically because of difficulties associated with computational approaches (2).

Information obtained via the analysis of the observed spectral fluctuations can be related to the nuclear temperature, a parameter in a statistical description of the nucleus. Determinations of nuclear energy level density can also be made. The present application of the statistical method of extracting information from spectra is, to date, unique.

The measurement of nuclear parameters is a contribution of this work. It should be emphasized, however, that the applicability of the statistical technique is not limited to the analysis of gamma radiation spectra. Many other kinds of data may be treated. Seismic signals, or the output of a device which measures density in a droplet containing blood cells, are examples totally unrelated to the present study. A criterion of the experimental results is that they be, or may be treated as, distributed variables. The form of the distributions is then used to obtain estimates of some parameters describing the data. It is expected that the technique will be applied to obtain new information from experimental results and to reduce the tedium of some data reduction methods.

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#### CHAPTER 2

#### GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this chapter we first define the nature of the complex spectra to which the analysis has been applied. Some areas of nuclear physics involved, and some general observations that were made, are indicated. This is followed by the discussion of some theoretical ramifications. We conclude with a short survey of related work.

#### NATURE OF THE COMPLEX SPECTRA UNDER STUDY 5

A nuclear reaction is said to occur when a projectile, i, is incident on a target, T, and the products, P and f, are formed<sup>(3)</sup>. This is written

T + i + f + P

or

and the second second second

#### T(i,f)P

where T and P are nucleons or groups of nucleons. Each can have a kinetic and internal excitation energy. The i and f can be nucleons, groups of nucleons, or electromagnetic radiation. A nuclear reaction involves all forces known to exist in nature  $^{(4)}$ . Knowledge of the strong interaction can be increased by applying theories concerning gravitational, weak, and electromagnetic interaction to the study of nuclear reactions.

We have chosen to study complex gamma radiation spectra of odd-odd nuclides following the capture of a thermal neutron by a nucleus:

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 $A_Z^N(n,\gamma)A_Z^{N+1}$ .

This reaction can be considered to take place in two steps<sup>(5)</sup>; the absorption of the neutron, and the emission of gamma radiation.

The McMaster University nuclear reactor is of the pool type, and uses enriched <sup>235</sup>U as fuel. Thermal neutrons are neutrons in thermal equilibrium with the moderator at ordinary temperatures. This implies a Maxwellian energy distribution with a mean energy of 1/40 eV. At a nominal operating power of 2 megawatts, the thermal neutron flux in the region of the reactor core is about  $10^{13}$  n/cm<sup>2</sup> sec. Higher energy (resonant and fission) neutrons are also present. However this flux is lower -  $\sim 10^{12}$  n/cm<sup>2</sup>sec. This, combined with the fact that the probability of neutron induced reactions other than (n,  $\gamma$ ) is small; is the reason that the (n,  $\gamma$ ) interaction predominates.

When a neutron is absorbed by a nucleus the excitation energy of the system is equal to the binding energy of the neutron plus its kinetic energy. This binding energy, or neutron separation energy, is referred to as the Q value of the  $(n,\gamma)$  reaction, and is usually of the order of 6-8 MeV. In the case of thermal capture the kinetic energy of the neutron can therefore be neglected. The system deexcites via the emission of one or more gamma radiation quanta. Many decay modes are possible. Their relative probability is described by Fermi's golden rule of time dependent perturbation\_theory:

$$\Gamma(i,f) = \frac{2\pi}{R} |\langle f|0|i \rangle|^2 \rho_f.$$
 (2.1)

Here i and f represent the initial and final states of the system, known to be discrete. The symbol  $\rho_{f}$  represents the density of final states available to the system. An electromagnetic operator, 0, provides the representation for the interaction between the initial and final states.

The function  $\Gamma(i,f)$  is a partial width. Through the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, it is proportional to the transition probability and therefore the intensity of the transition. The radiation spectrum represents the intensities and energies of all the transitions for all possible decay modes. Its complexity increases with the number of available states of the system, which happens in the following instances:

- 1. As A, the nucleon number, increases
- 2. Away from the well known 'magic numbers' of the shell model of the nucleus <sup>(6)</sup>

3. For odd-neutron odd-proton systems, where two unpaired nucleons exist.

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An observed spectrum reflects not only the true spectrum but also certain properties of the data acquisition system. We limit our discussion to the observation of gamma radiation spectra.

A 'true' spectrum consists of a distribution of n gamma rays of energy  $\gamma_i$  in m channels of mean energy  $E_j$ . It may be represented by a column vector T:

Similarly the observed spectrum may be represented by a column vector, S. These vectors are related by the response, now represented by a square m×m matrix R, such that

S = RT (2.3)

If the inverse of R exists, the true spectrum can be found,  $^{(8)}$  viz.

 $T = R^{-1} S$ .

Sales and the second

Limitations of this method include the difficulty of determining and inverting R, and statistical fluctuations that are magnified to large errors<sup>(2)</sup>. In Chapter 5 we indicate how these difficulties can be circumvented.

The observation of a gamma ray of energy E' depends

on the probability of its interaction with the detector. We used a Ge(Li) detection device, and therefore, the interactions of radiation with germanium is of interest. These interactions are normally described as cross sections of various types. The photoelectric, Compton effect, and pair production cross sections are well known <sup>(9)</sup>. Each of these contributes a component to the response R(E,E'), which depends on the energy, and the type of spectrometer used.

It is possible to simplify R experimentally by associating the Ge detector with a pair detection device. Such a configuration is known as a pair spectrometer  $\binom{10}{7}$ .

#### NUCLEAR MODELS AND LEVEL DENSITY

A model is a conceptual artifact introduced strictly as an aid to understanding complex behaviour. It need have no physical significance whatsoever, and its limitations should always be remembered. Models are only useful insofar as they correspond to reality - they may be questioned, restricted, or invalidated by experiment <sup>(9)</sup>.

Nuclear reactions are generally characterized by one of two extreme models the statistical model or Compound Nucleus, or the Direct Reaction model<sup>(4)</sup>. Which description best applies depends on many factors. There are processes, viz. the evidence for doorway states, that do not fall into either category, but somewhere in between. The time taken

for the interaction is a critical parameter. Since this is long ( $\sim 10^{-16}$  sec) for the (n,  $\gamma$ ) reaction, it is generally accepted that the interaction is adequately described by the statistical model. For a detailed description of these models the reader is referred to Ericson's excellent review article<sup>(11)</sup>. Suffice it to state here that the statistical description applies to equilibrium systems, which means that no phase relations exist between formation and decay modes of the system. Decay modes depend only on the parameters describing the equilibrium system.

We call the system formed by the absorption of a thermal neutron by a nuclide a compound nucleus  $^{(4)}$ . The description of the compound nucleus with respect to level density is of interest, since, through equation (2.1), this information governs its decay modes. A thermodynamic approach dating back to 1937<sup>(12)</sup> forms the foundation for all level density theory to date. Depending on the assumptions made most theories fall into one of two generally recognized classes - Bethe's free Fermion gas model, and a constant nuclear temperature model first suggested by Bohr<sup>(13)</sup>.

Bethe<sup>(12)</sup> considers the nucleus as a system of independent Fermions, ignoring residual interactions. The observed rapid increase in level density with excitation energy leads to the deduction that the levels represent the excitation of many nucleons, instead of just one nucleon. That the energies



of many single particle Fermion states can be added is assumed. The problem of calculating the density of levels then becomes combinatorial, familiar in statistical mechanics. This results in a level density of the form

 $\rho(E) = Cexp(\sqrt{E}).$  (2.4)

A more detailed calculation yields the result (14),

$$\rho(E) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{12} \frac{\exp(2\sqrt{aE})}{A^{1/4}E^{5/4}},$$

where E is the excitation energy of the nucleus, and a is a parameter related to the spacing of the single Fermion states. This formalism has been extended by  $Bloch^{(15)}$ , Cameron<sup>(16)</sup>, and Newton<sup>(17)</sup> who include shell model effects by assuming a shell model potential with no residual interactions.

The second, referred to as the constant temperature approach, refined by Ericson<sup>(18)</sup>, considers a nucleon pairing interaction. This is suggested by the energy gap between the ground and first excited states of even-even nuclides. Existence of correlations between nucleon pairs implies a second order phase transition. Again using thermodynamical arguments, the nuclear temperature is expected to remain constant during this phase transition<sup>(19)</sup>. The theory indicates that the results should be valid to an excitation energy of 15-18 MeV, well beyond the range of energy con-

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(2.5)

sidered here <sup>(20)</sup>. A simple Taylor expansion of the entropy function leads to a level density of the form

$$\rho(E) = \rho_{O} \exp(E/T)$$
. (2.6)

According to the detailed compilation of Gilbert and Cameron<sup>(14)</sup>, nature tends to favour Ericson's constant temperature model.

We now introduce the dependence of level density on spin and parity. These quantities are of interest since they relate to the nature of the transitions between nuclear states. The foregoing results did not depend on them, a consequence of the thermodynamical nature of the derivations.

The result -

$$\rho(E,J,\pi) = \frac{(2J+1)\rho(E)}{4\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma^3} \exp(-J(J+1)/(2\sigma^2)) \qquad (2.7)$$

which incorporates spin and parity with the above indicated level densities, is due to Bethe<sup>(12)</sup>.

Positive and negative parity levels are assumed to exist in equal number. This is seen to be reasonable by considering the combination of many single particle states. The spin dependence is also statistically derived. The distribution of j values of the single particle wave functions is assumed to obey a simple Fermi gas prediction. The Central Limit theorem <sup>(21)</sup> is then invoked to obtain the distribution of J. The dispersion parameter is also known as the spin cut-off factor,  $\sigma^{(22)}$ , which is related to nuclear well information. We now return to the concept of complex spectra. The nuclear density models that have been introduced predict the existence of distributions of states which are described by distributions of wave functions. These wave functions may be used to derive more explicit forms of the transition probabilities associated with radiation <sup>(23)</sup>. The well known Weisskopf estimates for partial radiation widths <sup>(24)</sup> were calculated assuming single particle states, and the appropriate electromagnetic operator. We use the Moszkowski estimates <sup>(25)</sup>, which are in fact very similar in value and form, but more recent:

$$\Gamma (E1) = 1.0 \times 10^{14} A^{2/3} E^{3} sec^{-1}$$
  

$$\Gamma (E2) = 7.4 \times 10^{7} A^{4/3} E^{5} sec^{-1}$$
  

$$\Gamma (M1) = 2.9 \times 10^{13} E^{3} sec^{-1}$$
  

$$\Gamma (M2) = 8.4 \times 10^{7} A^{2/3} E^{5} sec^{-1}.$$

When E is expressed in MeV, A is the mass of the nuclide under consideration, the coefficients are defined in such a manner as to yield the transition probability in transitions per second.

The nature of the radiation possible between states of the nucleus depends on selection rules related to the values of the angular momentum (spin) and parity of the states involved. The description of the nuclear states by means of nuclear wave functions also accounts for the fluctuations in the partial widths. This was described by

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(2.8)

Porter and Thomas (26), who indicated that the distribution of partial widths could be expected to follow a chi-squared distribution of one degree of freedom.

#### RELATED WORK

In conclusion, much of the foregoing theory has been developed as a result of the study of radiation following the  $(n,\gamma)$  reaction. Some predictions of workers such as Blatt and Weisskopf<sup>(3)</sup> and Porter and Thomas<sup>(26)</sup> were undoubtedly based on the magnetic pair spectrometer work of Kinsey and Bartholomew<sup>(27)</sup>. As technology advanced, precision improved and increasingly finer structure became resolvable. Multiparameter measurements allowed the identification of prominent gamma cascades.

Recent years have seen the accumulation of huge quantities of ever more precise spectroscopic gamma radiation data. Bartholomew et al. (28) have contributed greatly to the work by increasing the availability of the results via ( their excellent compilations. The work of Rasmussen (29) is particularly impressive because of the large number of pair spectrometer results which he tabulated. Although numerous other investigators are active in this field (30, 31), and some results have been improved upon over those obtained by Rasmussen, no one has attempted to cover such a large mass range in such great detail. However the automated method of data reduction which he used did not preclude the inclusion

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of some spurious data, nor obviate the possibility of omission of some results. The compilations of Gilbert and Cameron<sup>(14)</sup> of existing data in order to fit it to available level density theory, associated with an excellent review article, represents the most comprehensive level density information available to date. Baba<sup>(32)</sup> has recently calculated the level spacings of many nuclides. A review of theoretical approaches to level density has been provided by Ericson<sup>(11)</sup>. Further work relevant to this effort includes the theses of L. B. Hughes<sup>(33)</sup> and D. D. Slavinskas<sup>(8)</sup>. Hughes obtained the spectra of 10 odd-odd nuclides, and determined the nuclear temperatures as functions of mass number. Slavinskas presented a mathematical approach to data reduction through the inversion of calculable response functions.

Work less relevant than the above to this work, yet related to it in some way, has been done by the following:

Muelhause<sup>(34)</sup> was the first to measure multiplicites of gamma ray spectra, in 1949. He used a coincidence detection system, and deduced the multiplicity from the counting rates of 30 nuclides.

Draper and Springer<sup>(35)</sup> derived spectral multiplicities as a function of neutron capture in various resonances. A neutron time-of-flight apparatus and a comparison with a reported multiplicity was involved.

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Johnson and Hintz<sup>(36)</sup> studied fluctuations in proton and alpha spectra. Values of nuclear temperature and the variance of the level spacing distribution are obtained.

Many workers, including Yost  $^{(37)}$ , Berqvist and Starfelt  $^{(38)}$ , Paulsen  $^{(22)}$ , Sarantites  $^{(39)}$ , Hillman and Grover  $^{(40)}$ , Sperber  $^{(41)}$ , Troubetzkoy  $^{(42)}$ , Huizenga and Vandenbosch  $^{(43)}$ , and Vonach  $^{(44)}$  have conducted investigations of various aspects of the statistical model of the nucleus by means of theoretical calculations. The calculations of von Egidy  $^{(45)}$ , who obtains gamma ray spectra and distributions of spectral quantities, are in some respects similar to those presented in this work.

The quality of the data continues to improve. The analysis presented here accounts for all features of the spectrum, resolved or not. This allows for new tests of existing theories. Data is compared to the constant temperature level density model, and nuclear temperatures are reported. Spectral shapes are compared with predictions of a statistical model, and multiplicities are estimated.

#### CHAPTER 3

#### EXPERIMENT

The gamma radiation spectra of 17 nuclides following the thermal neutron capture were obtained. Calibration of the detection system was via the  ${}^{14}N(n,\gamma){}^{15}N$  reaction. The gamma radiation data used was that reported in Marion's  ${}^{(46)}$  compilation, and is reproduced in Appendix 4. This appendix is also a data bank containing some of the present observations in both graphical and tabular forms. We refer to these results throughout the remainder of this work.

A chronological summary of the experiments is given in Table 3.1. This list does not include numerous background and calibration runs. The complexity of the spectrum is indicated. Simple refers to spectra such as N with fewer than 10 observable transitions, whereas complex refers to spectra such as Rh where below ~5 MeV most features are unresolved.

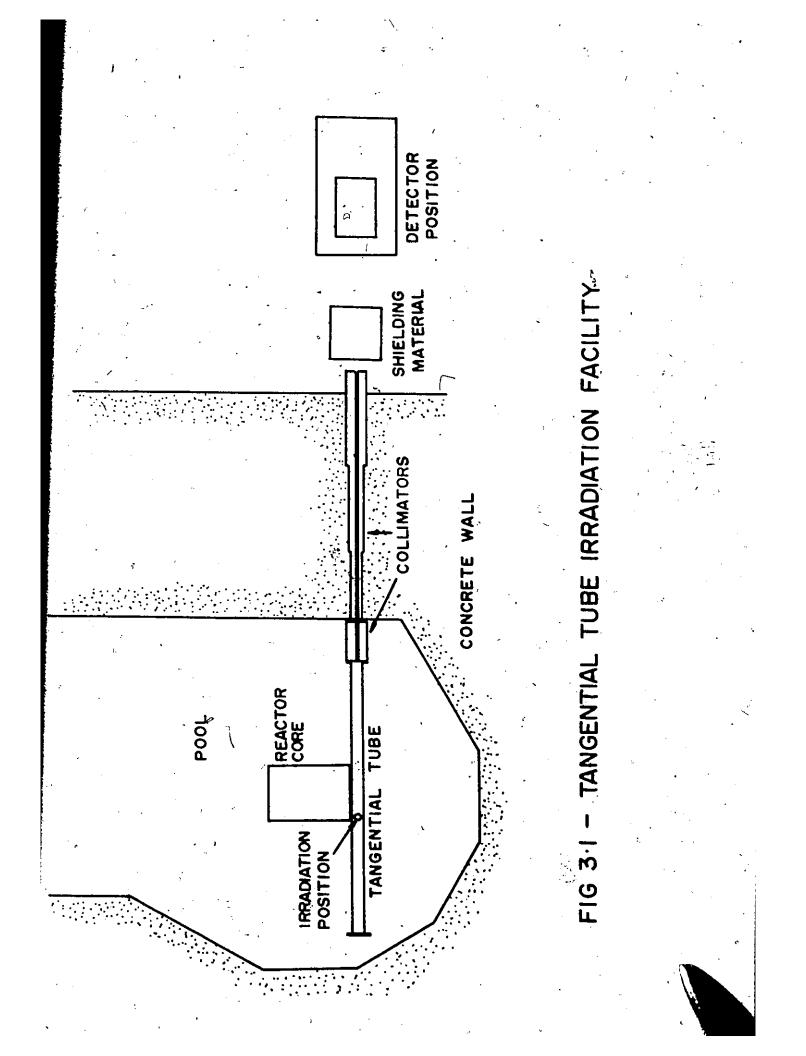
A pool type reactor provides great flexibility for experiments requiring high neutron fluxes, since experimental configurations near the core can be changed almost at will. Only activities and heat produced in samples and equipment, the displacement of water as a moderator, and a means of observing the reaction - i.e. via beam tubes - need be considered in experimental design.

### TABLE 3.1

s	Summary of experiments					
SPECTRUM	RUN TIME (hours)	COMPLEXITY	COMMENTS			
76 <sub>As</sub>	280	Complex	3 runs, different backgrounds, different systems of sample changing methods			
204 <sub>T1</sub>	139	Intermediate	Anomalous spectrum - well spaced high energy peaks - not much intensity <4 MeV			
56 <sub>Mn</sub>	70	Intermediate				
41 Ar	14	Simple				
.104 <sub>Rh</sub>	106	Complex				
60 Co	<b>55</b>	Intermediate				
134 Cs	88	Complex				
198 . Au	138	Complex	,			
28 <sub>Al</sub>	282	Intermediate	Stabilized on spectral peaks			
<sup>64</sup> Cu	290	Intermediate	Separated isotope			
116 <sub>In</sub>	134	Complex	Separated isotope - introduction or rabbit tube			
<sup>46</sup> Sc	65	Intermediate	Data used to confirm spectral properties			
110 Ag	76	Complex	Separated isotope			
186 <sub>Re</sub>	83	Complex	Separated isotope			
13 <sub>C</sub>	3.1	Simple				
29 <sub>Si</sub>	3.5	Simple				
15 <sup>.</sup> N	12.4	Simple				
	76 Da	гув	2			

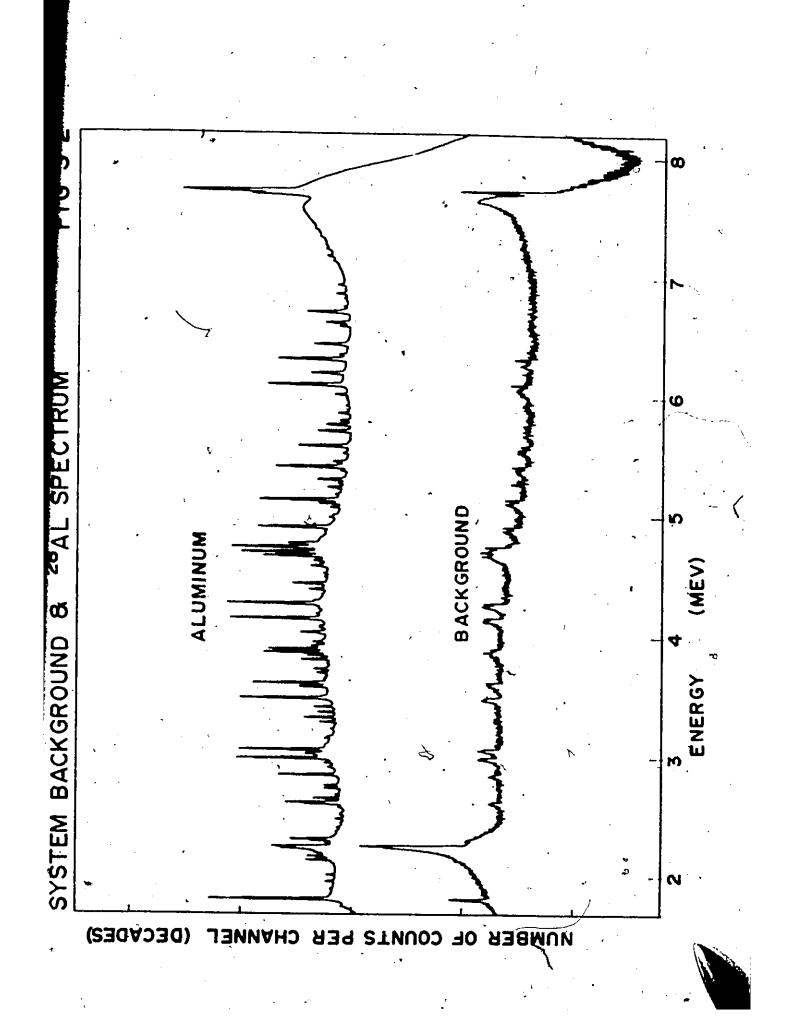
Gamma radiation spectra following the capture of thermal neutrons may be studied in various ways, depending on target placement (47). A neutron beam may be extracted from the reactor. The target is placed in the beam and the detector is placed adjacent to it. This method offers flexibility and few hazards, but obtains low count rates and low signal/noise ratios. Coincidence measurements between various gamma radiation quanta of a decay mode are possible. However the simplification of the response of a detector via mechanisms such as pair production is normally impractical, since such a technique is most effective when the radiation field surrounding the primary detector is low. This is difficult to accomplish using the external target configuration since much shielding material is required at the gamma ray energies involved.

An experimental configuration having complementary characteristics to the external target scheme was used. It is illustrated in Fig. 3.1. Placing the sample in a high neutron flux area near the reactor core allows the extraction of a relatively intense, well collimated gamma radiation beam. In an effort to reduce neutron damage to the detector by neutrons scattered from the target, and to reduce the number of low energy photons, the detector was shielded by 18" of borated wax, 24" of wax, and 1/8" of lead. With such shielding and with the available neutron flux and detector,



a sample size of approximately 50 mmb. (milli-mole-barns) was found to be suitable. In the case of powder samples with high thermal neutron cross sections, such as  $^{185}$ Re, an effort was made to reduce the amount of self-shielding<sup>(5)</sup> by mixing it with some reactor grade graphite powder. This was also done with samples which were in short supply or small in volume, such as  $^{109}$ Ag or  $^{63}$ Cu, in order to ensure that they were visible to the detector.

Physically, the facility consists of a 3" aluminum tube supported on two fixed stands. There are collimators in the pool and the wall which define a 1 cm. diameter beam external to the reactor. The sample of interest was placed, in a reactor grade graphite container when necessary, at the end of the reactor core remote from the detection apparatus. In order to observe radiation originating in the core that is Compton scattered from the sample it must be scattered through an angle greater than 90 degrees. Radiation of this type could therefore not have an energy greater than 511 kev<sup>(48)</sup>. For normal runs the tube was evacuated to a pressure of 10<sup>-3</sup> torr, in order to reduce contribution to the spectrum caused by the presence of air. A constant background was present during all experiments. This was determined from runs with the tube empty, and was attributed largely to capture in the aluminum of the tube and the reactor structure, and the hydrogen of the water. Figure 3.2 shows a background spectrum as well as the <sup>28</sup>Al spectrum for com-



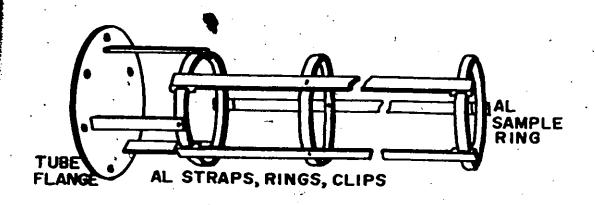
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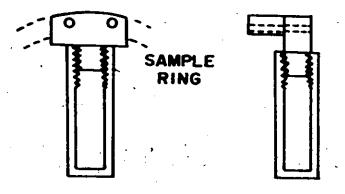
Materials used in the construction of in pool type experiments must not react with the pool water nor deteriorate in areas of high neutron flux. Radio isotopes produced by the nuclear reactions should be minimal or have suitably short half lives so that health hazards are minimized. An aluminum alloy, 65 st, is suitable. Activities produced are 2.3 min <sup>28</sup>Al, and some Fe and Mn which are added to the aluminum in order to allow it to be machined. This grade of aluminum is used for all parts in high neutron flux areas. Gaskets in high neutron flux areas are made of lead, the only significant activity produced being <sup>209</sup> Pb, a 3.3 minute pure  $\beta^-$  emitter. In areas outside of the neutron flux plastics (PVC), rubber, and stainless steel may be used, which are also non corrosive, cheaper, and more easily worked than State and aluminum.

Several improvements were made to the facility in order to effect more rapid, convenient, and safe sample changes. Two methods are described, and pertinent details are illustrated in Figures 3.3A and 3.3B.

The first method involves removal of the tangential tube from the reactor pool by means of long stainless steel cables attached to the tube ends. Another tube with a sample already placed in it replaces the first in order to effect a sample change. The graphite sample container is

SAMPLE POSITIONING

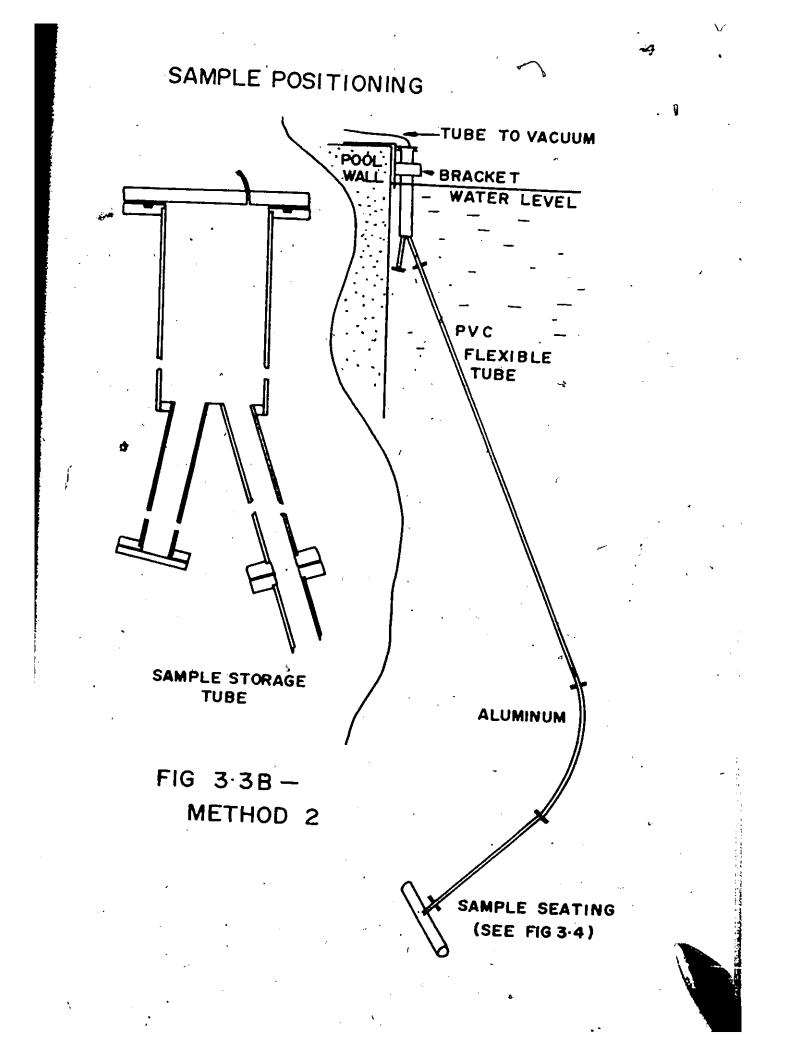




### GRAPHITE SAMPLE CONTAINER

FIG 3.3A - METHOD I



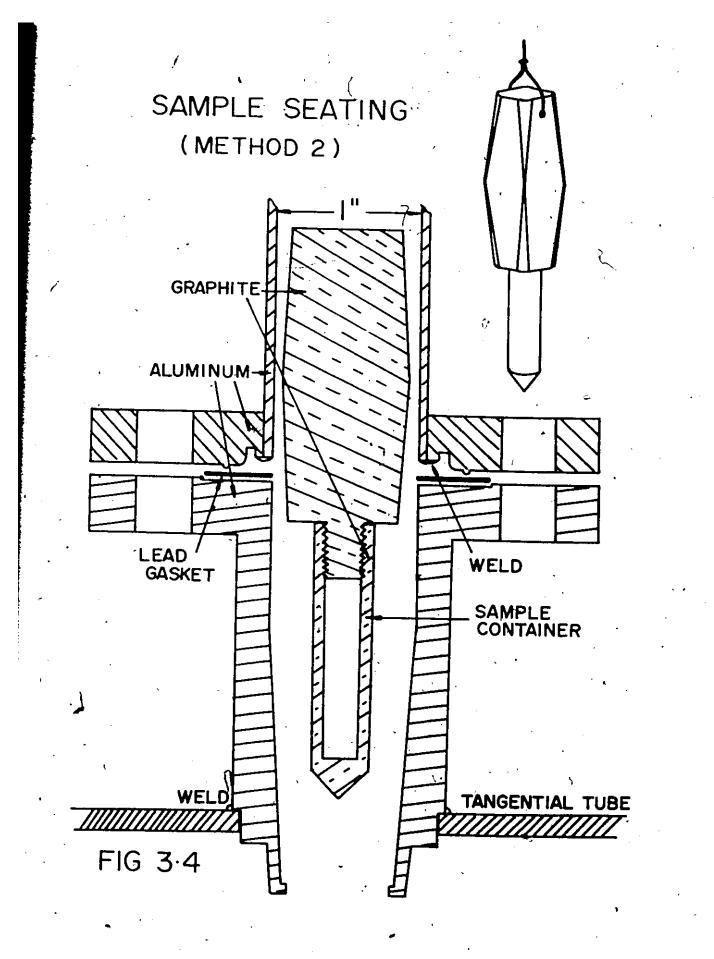


fastened to an aluminum ring which is used to centre the sample in the tangential tube. This ring is clipped to a strap arrangement which is fastened to the end flange of the tube. The clips allow for a minimum of handling of the sample, and reduces the storage requirements of irradiated samples considerably over previous methods.

After a short cooling period in the reactor pool, samples are usually still quite radioactive. To allow for a longer cooling time, three such tubes are in operation. Since the reactor core must be moved for a sample change, this procedure involves approximately one hour of "reactor down" time.

In order to further simplify sample handling and reduce health hazards as well as reactor down time, a second method of changing samples was devised (Fig. 3.3B). The sample is lowered to the irradiation position via a 1" I.D. 'rabbit' tube connected to the tangential tube. Fig. 3.4 shows the sample holder and indicates the seating method used to position the samples.

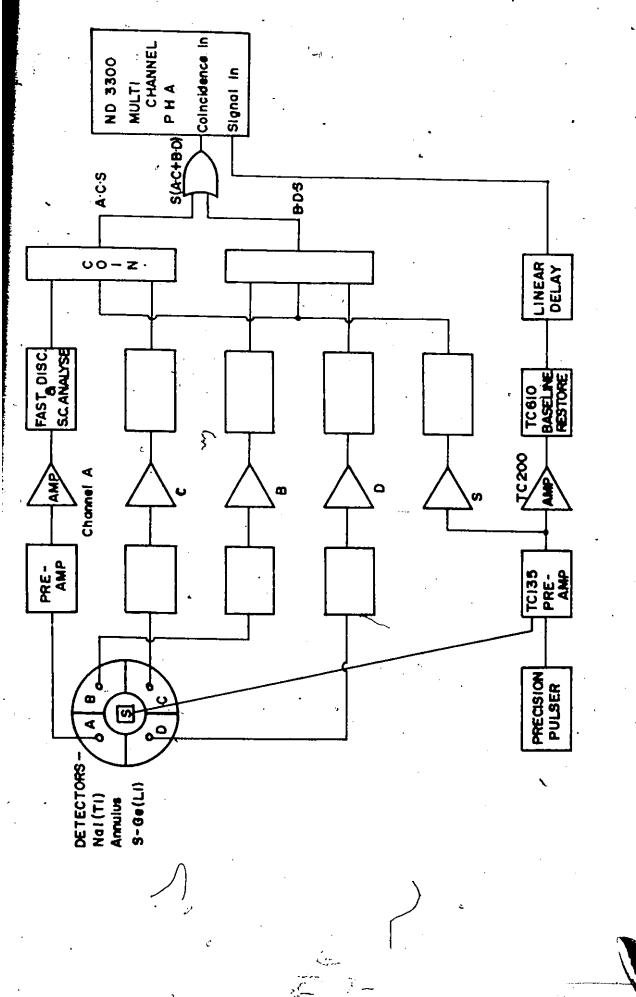
Sample changes are effected by flooding the whole system with N<sub>2</sub> gas to atmospheric pressure. The upper flange is removed and the sample is withdrawn by means of a nylon cord attached to it. Normally it can be stored immediately in the storage side of the upper chamber, since sufficient shielding is provided for the safe handling of most activities



encountered. Another sample is then lowered to the irradiation position. After a suitable cooling period in the storage side, a specially designed lead gasket is placed on top of the flange of the upper chamber. The sample can be removed remotely from the storage chamber to the shielded container for disposal. Samples can be changed in approximately 10 minutes. The configuration of the materials adjacent to the core is not changed significantly by a target change. Therefore a shutdown of the reactor is not necessary during such a procedure.

The measurements were made using a pair spectrometer (10). Such an instrument consists of several detectors, amplifiers, and associated electronic circuits. A detected photon is accepted for analysis only if its interaction with a high resolution main detector is via pair production. A schematic of the system is shown in Fig. 3.5.

A germanium semiconductor diode manufactured in this laboratory<sup>(49)</sup> served as the main radiation detector. Its active volume was estimated to be 18 cc. Cooled to liquid nitrogen temperatures, it was mounted in a cryostat of special design. This enabled it to be surrounded by a NaI annular detector 15.2 cm. long with an outside diameter of 23 cm. Since annihilation photons are correlated at 180°, the annulus was optically split into quadrants, each with its own photomultiplier. Logic circuitry was used to enable the system only when a pair production event was detected.



SPECTROMETER SCHEMATIC PAIR l <u>ы</u> 1 FIG

:

This involves the detection of an event in the central detector, and the simultaneous detection (within the resolution time of the system of  $\sim$  80 nsec.) of a pair of 511 keV annihilation photons in opposite quadrants of the annulus.

A Tennelec TCl35 charge sensitive preamplifier was used in conjunction with a Tennelec TC200 main amplifier in order to shape the pulses from the Ge(Li) detector. This signal was presented to a 4K ramp ADC of high linearity of a Nuclear Data 3300 pulse height analyzer with 16K of memory. Output was via CRT display, typewriter, plotter, or CDC-compatible magnetic tape.

System stability with respect to gain changes and zero shifts is of great importance in the present instance, where experimental runs of long duration were undertaken. It has been observed (50) that such changes can cause 2-4 keV shifts in the positions of spectral features. Difficult to trace, causes of instabilities that have been pointed out include changes in temperature, humidity, line voltage, and the electronics. A precision pulser with the facility to provide peaks at the high and low ends of the spectrum was used in an effort to overcome this problem (51). This signal was injected into the TCl35 preamplifier at the second stage of preamplification. A Nuclear Data series 3300 digital spectrum stabilizer associated with the ADC therefore provided stability from this preamplifier stage to the converter.

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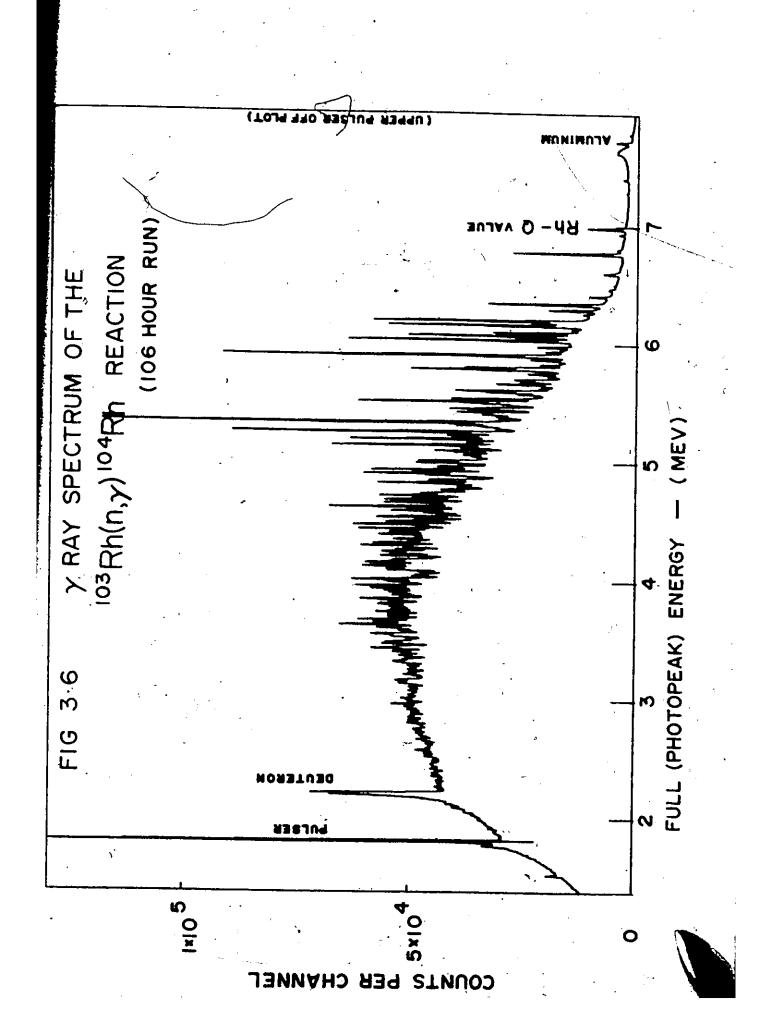
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Instabilities prior to this stage were reduced by maintaining the preamplifier and the detector connector in a controlled atmosphere of dry nitrogen gas. Stability of this system was high, since no resolution deterioration could be detected when data accumulated for days were compared to those accumulated over one hour.

With a target of typical size, 50 mmb., the spectrometer rate was  $\sim$  180 events/sec. The rate in the central detector\_was, however, much higher, since most events have no detectable 511 keV annihilation photons associated with them. Scattering and other processes, as well as a measured greater abundance of low energy photons, contributed further to this rate. Under these conditions the use of a Tennelec TC610 baseline restorer contributed a noticeable improvement in system resolution. Optimum system resolution of  $\sim$  8 keV at 4 MeV or  $\sim$  11 keV at 8 MeV was obtained at a detector bias voltage of 2200 v, using monopolar pulses. For the total duration of the experiments, no significant deterioration in the detection system was observed.

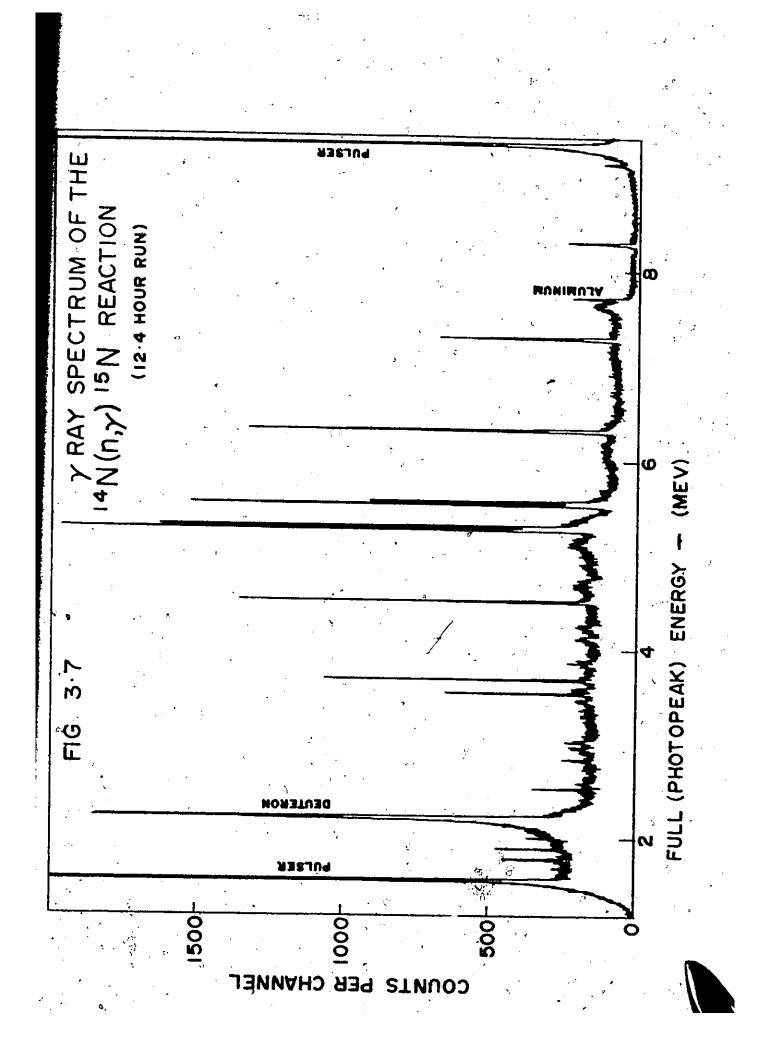
Figure 3.6 presents a portion of the gamma ray spectrum following the capture of thermal neutrons in rhodium. The pulser peaks are evident, as are the deuteron and aluminum ground state transitions, the most prominent features of the tube Background. An example of a complex spectrum, we see that although the resolution of the system is high, the





line density in the region from 2-4 MeV is so high that few individual peaks can be resolved. A conventional approach to the analysis of such a spectrum yields a loss in observed features due to the overlapping of peaks (resolution effects) and their low intensity (threshhold effects). However, it is to be noted that although individual peaks are not discernable, the observed fluctuations are not of the statistical or  $\sqrt{n}$ type<sup>(8)</sup>. This is apparent from the number of counts per data channel of the spectrum. Where non-statistical fluctuations are observed, they may be attributed to the superpositioning of several or many peaks.

Another typical spectrum, that following the capture of thermal neutrons in  $^{14}$ N, is reproduced in Fig. 3.7. Although some of the foregoing comments with respect to rhodium apply here also, we note that the fluctuations here are statistical. The paucity of transitions is real, since the product nucleus has few energy levels between which gamma ray transitions can occur <sup>(52)</sup>. In such an instance, an experiment of longer duration will serve only to reduce statistical fluctuations. We hypothesize all features of the system response (other than the Gaussian shaped second escape peak) to be slowly varying functions of energy. These additional features are evident as wide distributions both at a higher energy and at a lower energy than the peak. Therefore no additional information would be gained by a longer experiment,



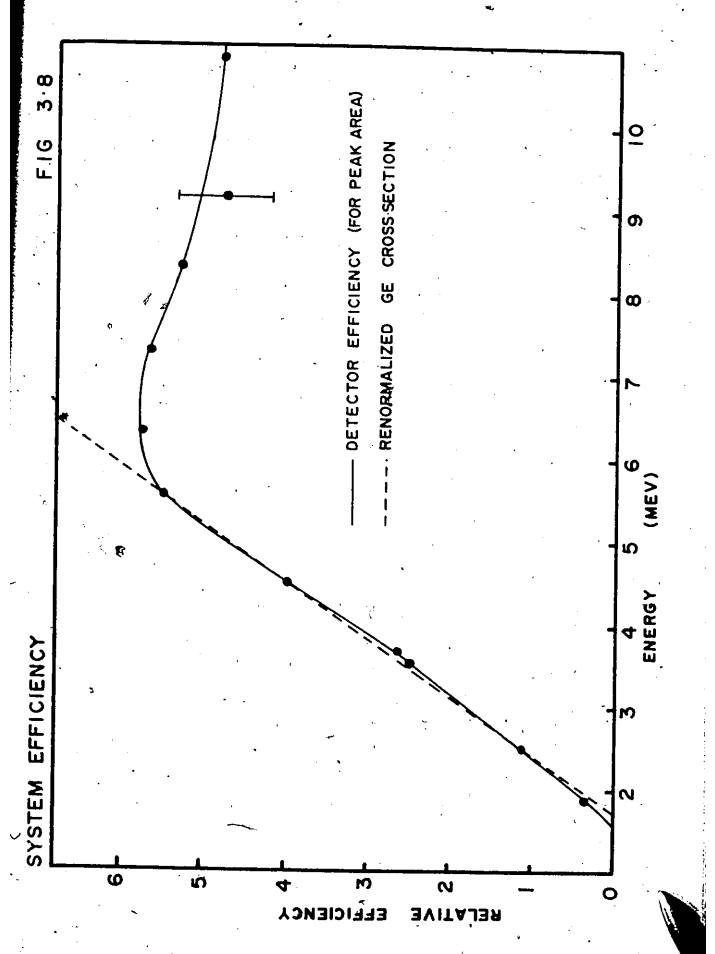
other than greater statistical accuracy. The method of obtaining the response function from this spectrum as well as from the spectra of  $^{29}$ Si and  $^{41}$ Ar is described in Chapter 5.

Its successful use by other workers  $^{(53)}$  led us to use the nitrogen data for the gamma ray transitions compiled by Marion  $^{(46)}$  as a calibration for the system. This confirmed , that the non-linearity of the ADC was small indeed - the energy-channel relationship was fitted most satisfactorily by a quadratic, which was, typically,

$$E(CH) = 1.1846 + 2.0157 \times \frac{CH}{1000} + .07405 \times (\frac{CH}{1000})^2$$

where E is in MeV when CH is expressed as the channel, number of the experiment. Slight gain changes resulting from rate effects were taken into account by monitoring the Al and D ground state transitions, and the coefficients were adjusted accordingly. It has been shown <sup>(53)</sup> that the total error introduced by this transformation is normally distributed with a  $\sigma \sim .2$  keV.

The relative efficiency of the spectrometer was also found using Marion's (46) data. This has been plotted in Fig. 3.8. Also shown is the pair production cross section for germanium. At the outset these curves might be expected to be identical in form. However, several considerations dictate that this should not be so:



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- 1. The hardening of the gamma beam by the interpositioning of shielding materials between the target and detector.
- The finite size of the detector, and other characteristics such as its inactive volume.
- 3. Considerations such as random addition and the escape of Bremsstrahlung photons, which are discussed in Chapter 5.

The relative efficiency curve was also empirically fitted to a quadratic, however in this case three regions were considered:

Eff(E) =  $\begin{cases} .1E^{2} + .7E - 1.2 & 2 < E \le 5 \\ -.4E^{2} + 5.3E - 11.7 & 5 < E \le 7 \\ .05E^{2} - 1.15E + 11.4 & 7 < E \le 11 \end{cases}$ 

This function describes the system efficiency for the peak area,as opposed to peak height. The energy E is expressed in MeV.

The resolution of the system is just that of the Ge(Li). central detector. Resolution limitations are placed by such considerations as surface leakage currents and fluctuations in the number of electron-hole pairs (54) created by a gamma ray of energy E. The latter involves the Fano factor (55)which is given by

$$F = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

where n is the number of electron-hole pairs produced, and

 $\sigma^2$  is the variance in this yield. If  $\varepsilon$  is the energy required to create an electron-hole pair, then for a gamma ray of energy E

Using the full width at half the maximum of the peak as a criterion, the energy resolution is then given by:

 $n = \frac{E}{c}$ .

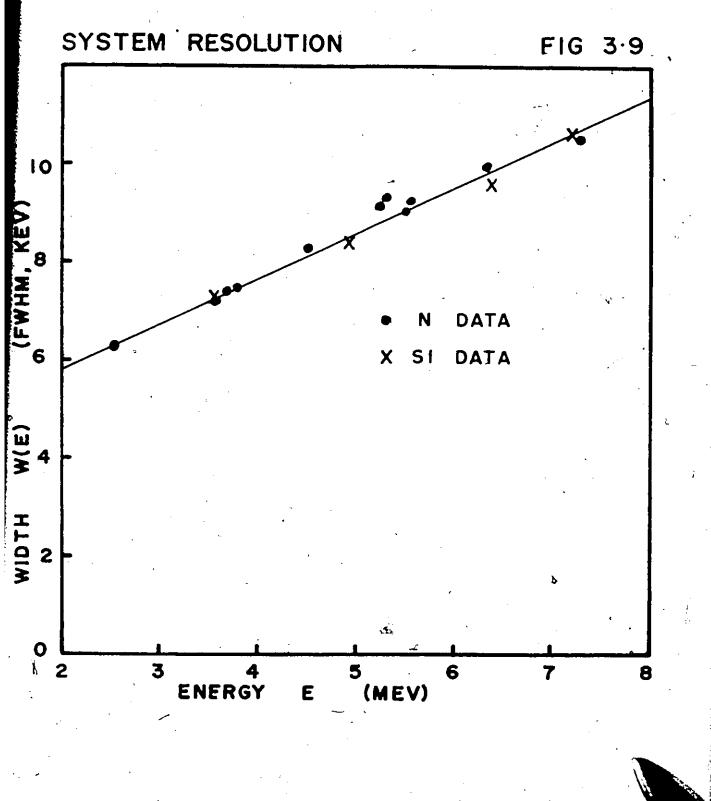
FWHM = 2.35  $\sigma = 2.35 \sqrt{\epsilon E/\epsilon}$ 

For most Ge(Li) counters the Fano factor varies between .05 and .1<sup>(56)</sup>, and  $\varepsilon = 2.8$  eV for germanium.<sup>36</sup> Therefore on the basis of statistical effects only, the best possible resolution obtainable by a Ge(Li) detector is ~ 2.4 keV at 4 MeV, and ~ 3.5 keV at 8 MeV. Factors other than statistical contributed to resolution defects in the counter used in this study. These include surface leakage currents, poor charge collection and fluctuations in the baseline that were not compensated for by the baseline restorer. An adequate representation of the system resolution was found to be

W(E) = 3.95 + .934E

as shown in Fig. 3.9. W is the FWHM of the peak in keV when E is expressed in MeV.

These relationships were used in the following statistical analysis as well as in the tabulations of Appendix 4.



#### CHAPTER 4

A SIMPLE STATISTICAL MODEL OF THE NUCLEUS

In order to evaluate the utility of the information we plan to extract from the spectra under study we introduce a simple statistical model of the nucleus. Its basic components are a nuclear level density distribution and an estimate of gamma ray transition probabilities. Under certain assumptions results may be analytically obtained. When this is impossible we resort to a computational technique which allows the inclusion of existing level density information. This method also allows for a variation of the forms of the basic components of the model. A summary of some additional information which may be obtained from this description is given in Appendix 3.

# ANALYTICALLY OBTAINABLE RESULTS

Some aspects of the statistical model are mathematically very easily formulated. We consider Ericson's constant nuclear temperature model<sup>(11)</sup> for the level density, namely

$$\rho(E) = \rho_{c} \exp(E/T)$$
 (2.6)

Below some arbitrary energy Q (the neutron separation energy or 'Q' value for the  $(n,\gamma)$  reaction), there are M discrete nuclear levels:



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$$M = \int_{0}^{Q} \rho(E) dE = \rho_{0} T(\exp(Q/T) - 1) . \qquad (4.1)$$

From a combinatorial approach the total number of possible transitions N between levels is given by

$$N = M(M-1)/2$$
.

(4.2) That the continuous level density is consistent with this can be seen by performing

 $\int_{0}^{U} \left[ \int_{0}^{E} \rho(E') dE' \right] \rho(E) dE$ 

This integral represents all transitions between levels at E and E', and yields, using equation (4.1), a value of  $M^2/2$  which is in agreement with equation (4.2).

The derivation of a relationship between the energy and density of transitions using the statistical model is no more If  $E_{\gamma} = E - E'$ , the gamma ray transition energy, complex. we write  $n(E_v)$ , the number of transitions per unit energy as

$$\begin{pmatrix} i & n(E_{\gamma}) = \int_{-E_{\gamma}}^{Q} \rho(E) \rho(E-E_{\gamma}) dE \\ E_{\gamma} & E_{\gamma} \\ = \int_{E_{\gamma}}^{Q} \rho(2E/T) \exp(-E_{\gamma}/T) dE$$

$$= \frac{\rho_0^2 T}{2} \exp(-E_{\gamma}/T) \{\exp(2Q/T) - \exp(2E_{\gamma}/T)\}$$

Therefore

$$n(E_{\gamma}) = \rho_0^2 T \exp(Q/T) \sinh((Q-E_{\gamma})/T). \qquad (4.3)$$

The correctness of this result is confirmed by per-

 $N = \int_{-\infty}^{\Omega} n(E_{\gamma}) = M^2/2,$ 

again in agreement with equation (4.2)

Through equation (4.3) the statistical model therefore predicts a relationship between the transition density and the nuclear temperature.

## COMPUTER CALCULABLE RESULTS

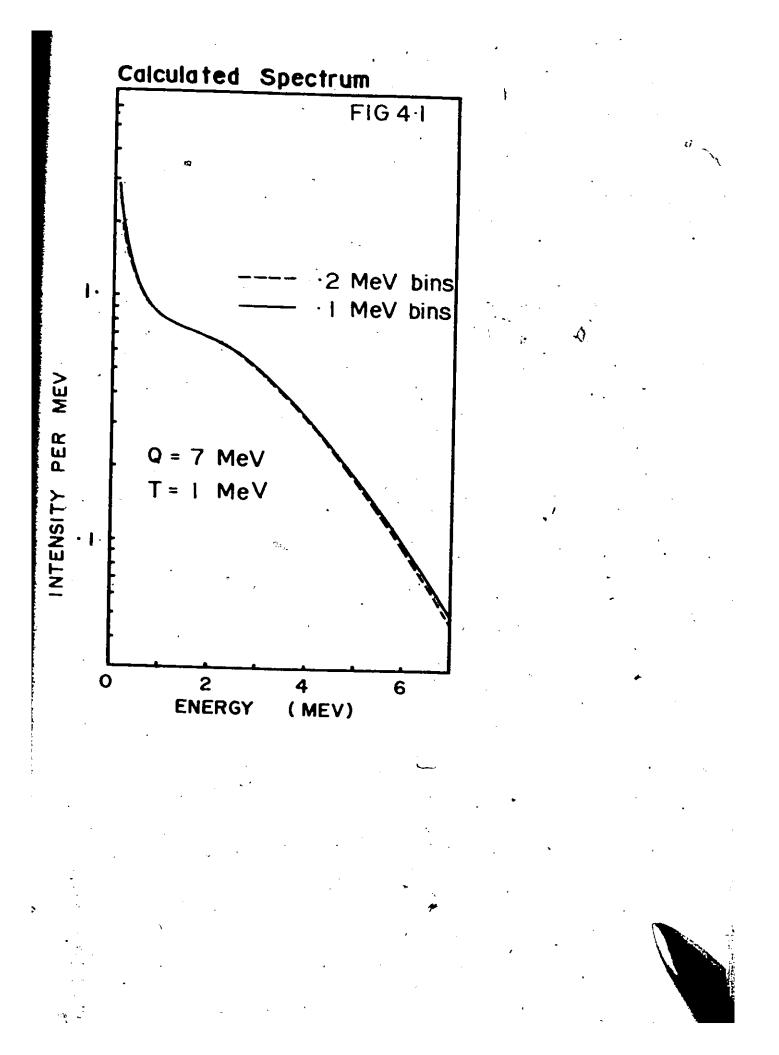
A continuation of the analytical calculation shows that such an approach to the calculation of spectral shapes involves a multiple integral over a number of variables equal to the number of levels below Q. This is because the intensity of a transition depends on the population of the initial state, which depends on the populations of all the states above it.

Fortunately the advent of large scale, high speed computers allows us to calculate spectra to as great-an accuracy as desired. Several workers <sup>(37,38,42)</sup> have achieved varying degrees of success in performing such calculations. We have chosen to digitize the energy level density into

bins of arbitrary and equal energy width. Figure 4-1 indicates the result of calculations for different bin sizes. A greater accuracy requires smaller bins and therefore more computational effort. We define a level density D(E,S,P) and a population T(E,S,P) for each bin. Bins are labelled by E, a number proportional to energy, S, a spin and P, a parity The form of D is given by the level density theory index. assumed and can be modified when the levels are known. An estimate for transition probability is then introduced,  $\Gamma(\Delta E, \Delta S, \Delta P)$ , as well as X(E, S, P), a factor proportional to the intensity leaving a bin, similar to a branching ratio. T and X are introduced in order to reduce the computational effort required to calculate the actual spectrum. The spectral intensity S of energy  $E_v$  is then just

 $S(E_{\gamma}) = \sum \sum \{D_{i} \cdot D_{f} \cdot T_{i} \cdot X_{i} \cdot \Gamma(E_{\gamma}, \Delta S, \Delta P)\}. (4.4)$ energy spin such that parity  $E_{i} - E_{f} = E_{\gamma}$ 

The subscripts i and f in the above equation are used to label the initial and final energy bins. Appendix 3 indicates some other distributions which may be calculated using the above formalism.



#### CHAPTER 5

#### TREATMENT OF DATA

Complex spectra are discussed in the light of a conventional method of analysis, in order to motivate a statistical approach to their reduction. The data obtained from the gamma spectrometer are simplified by a consideration of the system response.

# RESOLUTION LOSSES

All the spectra obtained were analysed conventionally. The tabulations of the energy and amplitude of spectral features appear in Appendix 4.

In general a detection system may be classed as to whether it is paralyzable or non-paralyzable (57). If  $\sigma$  is the time required to analyse an event, or the 'dead time' of the system, then a non-paralyzable system can accept no events while it is 'busy'. However in the paralyzable case, although events occuring while the system is busy are not detected, they extend the length of the dead time. An <u>ADC</u> behaves as a member of the former class, whereas a Geiger Müller tube is paralyzable.

We now consider the experimenter as a detection system for the peaks and their amplitudes in complex spectra. What is usually considered to be a time domain is now energy. We select the  ${}^{46}$ Sc results and focus our attention on the

energy range 2260-6750 keV, because the apparent transition density is constant in this region. Since we are interested in investigating the relationship between the apparent loss in number of peaks and the resolution of the system, one of these variables must be studied as a function of the other.

As a starting point we tabulated the number of transitions observed in this energy region, and found the energy resolution of the system. For the purposes of a model, averages over the region of interest were considered. The resolution of the observed spectrum was then degraded by means of convolving a Gaussian function with it. It may be shown <sup>(21)'</sup> that the convolved data is equivalent to the data that would be observed by a system with poorer resolution. The number of transitions observed and the average energy resolution in this region were also obtained for several of these convolved spectra.

Now for the paralyzable model, it can be shown<sup>(57)</sup>

that

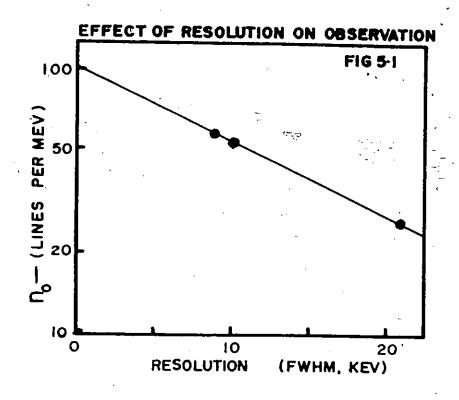
 $n_{o} = ne^{-k\sigma n}$ 

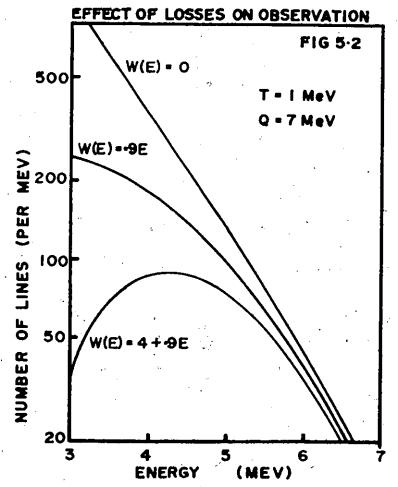
where n is the observed peak density

n is the true peak density

σ is the resolution (FWHM).

This approach yields a value of k = 0.621, which is physically realistic. Fig. 5.1 shows the number of transitions observed as a function of the system resolution. If we use









this result to extrapolate to  $\sigma = 0$ , we obtain the result n = 103 transitions/MeV. The number actually observed was 57 transitions/MeV. Therefore it appears that even for  $\gamma_{1}$ spectra of moderate complexity, such as scandium, only a fraction of the number of components actually present are observed.

In Fig. 5.2 the functions of Chapter 4 are used to plot the transition density. The result for a nuclide with Q = 7 MeV, a nuclear temperature of 1 MeV, and a  $\rho_0 = 200$  is presented. A typical curve, the actual data, and the ultimate curve obtainable with present statistically limited detectors are shown. If one considers the non-paralyzable model it is found that k increases with increasing losses. Although this model may have some physical reality, the data do not support it.

In the following section we describe the detector response function.

#### RESPONSE SIMPLIFICATION

As was seen in Chapter 3, the use of a pair spectrometer simplifies the response function R(E,E') from a complex one by discriminating against all but the pair production events. Ideally, R(E,E') is simplified to the second escape peak - a delta function observed at an energy E' - 1022 keV. Realistically, defects and noise in the detector and electronics degrade the delta function to a Gaussian peak of finite width. Furthermore, previously negligible contributions to the response function now become observable.

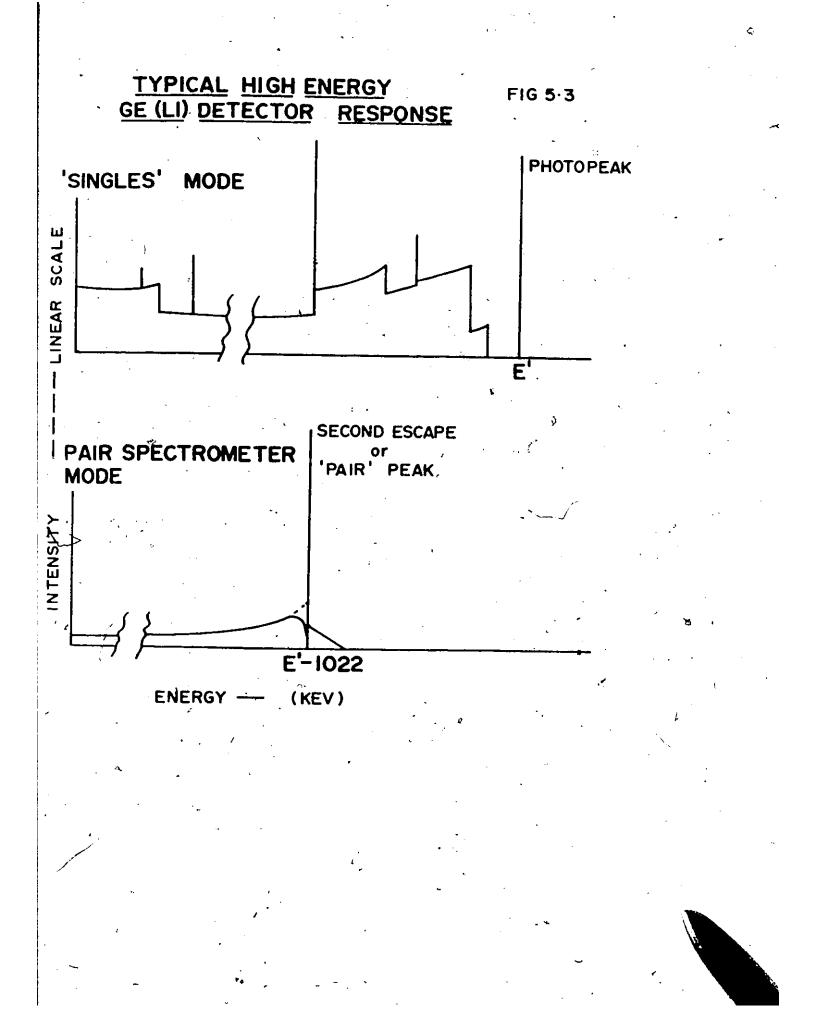


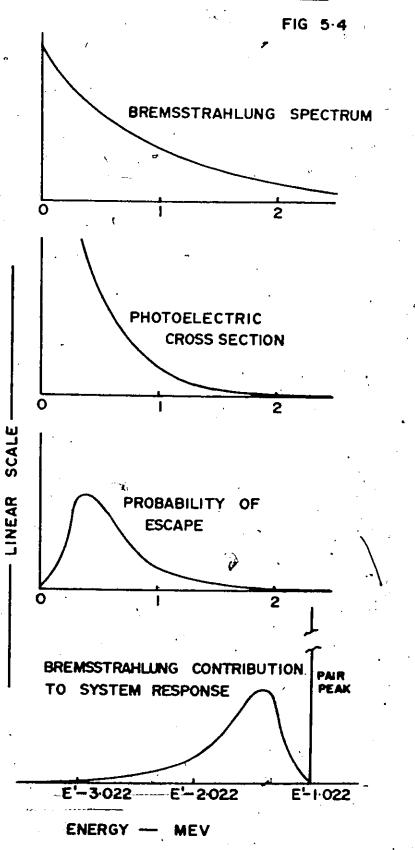
Figure 5.3 shows a comparison between the response of a pair spectrometer and that of the same detector used without the restrictions imposed by the pair spectrometer circuits. It should be noted that throughout this work we adopt the practice of shifting the energy scale by assigning the full energy or 'photopeak' energy to the second escape peak. Where significant, the appropriate energy correction for the recoil of the nucleus is made. We now proceed to account for some of the observed features in the pair spectrometer response.

Bremsstrahlung<sup>(58)</sup> or braking radiation, is electromagnetic radiation which is created by accelerating charges. In pair production the electron-positron pair has a kinetic energy which is transformed by collision to an electric charge consisting of electrons and 'holes'. This state is reached in a time which is very short compared to the time required for charge collection. The negative acceleration of charges which is required to attain this state is accompanied with the production of bremsstrahlung. It is the escape of one or more bremsstrahlung photons from the detector which accounts for the feature of the response shown in Fig. 5.4. It can also be shown that the escape of an electron from the active volume of the central detector before all of its energy has been dissipated may account for a flat distribution below the energy of the second escape peak.

36

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# BREMSSTRAHLUNG



MCMANTER LITURETISTET FIELD

'The remaining features of the observed response are ramifications of conditions which may, under ideal circumstances, be controlled. Finite temporal resolution normally results in a chance or singles component to the spectrum. This was not observed, and therefore the effect was negligible. The random addition of low energy events in the data acquisition system, avoidable by reducing the count rate, is manifest. When two events occur in an interval short compared to the decay time of the pulses which represent then in the data acquisition system, the amplitude of the second pulse may appear greater than it is. This is a result of the addition of the low frequency components of the first to the amplitude of the second. Sophisticated circuits in the amplifier system such as a baseline restore circuit do not entirely compensate for this effect. Random addition is experimentally indistinguishable from some The detection of non-511 keV events by the other effects. Nal scintillator is an example. Conditions were such that events less than 511 keV in energy would in fact trigger the coincidence circuits. Such an event might result from the Compton scattering of an annihilation photon within the Ge detector, or it might be a bremsstrahlung photon. In any case all these effects, labelled as random adding, displace events to a higher energy in the spectrum.

The response of the system thus has three natural components. Each of these may be represented by a response

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matrix such that their matrix product is equal to the total response matrix. Equation (2.3) may therefore be written as:

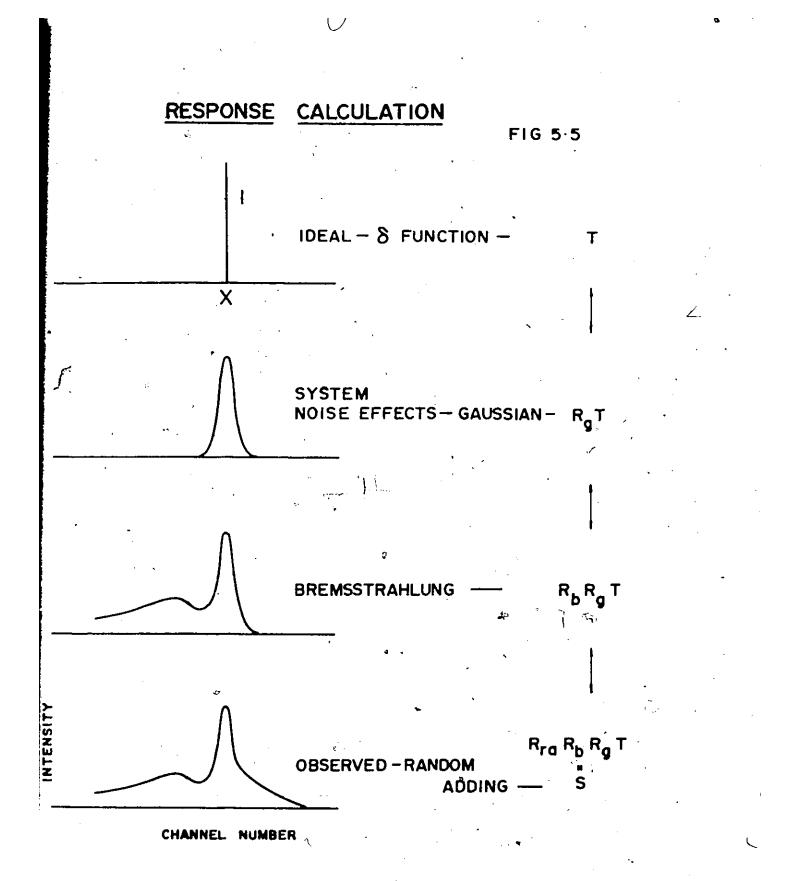
 $S = R_{ra} = R_{b} = R_{g}$ 

The action of  $R_g$  on T, the observed spectrum, represents the degradation of the resolution to a Gaussian. The action of  $R_b$  represents the contribution of the bremsstrahlung and the electron escape to the response. The action of  $R_{ra}$  represents random adding effects.

Of these three matrices  $R_{rd}$  and  $R_b$  can be adequately represented by functions involving nine parameters and two variables. The functions were found entirely empirically, and the parameters were optimized using a non-linear least squares computer fitting technique. Since convergence was slow and difficult, not all the parameters were allowed to vary at the same time. Figure 5.5 illustrates a typical idealized shape for the response at channel x to a gamma ray of intensity I. It also indicates the sequence of the calculation. The relation between energy and the channels of the experiment has been indicated in Chapter 3.

The effect of random addition is to displace events from a channel into some channel j, where j > i. The  $R_{ra}$  is therefore an upper triangular matrix. In Appendix 1 the exact equivalence between multiplication by the inverse of a triangular matrix and a convolution approach requiring much less computational effort is detailed.





In a like manner the effect of bremsstrahlung and electron escape is to displace events from channel i to channel j where j<i. Therefore  $R_b$  may be represented by a lower triangular matrix. The multiplication of the spectrum by the inverse of  $R_g$  was not carried out. This is because of an amplification of statistical errors that is associated with this operation<sup>(2)</sup>. We therefore simplify the spectrum to the extent that it consists of a distribution of Gaussian peaks:

Simplified spectrum =  $R_b^{-1}R_{ra}^{-1}S = R_g^{T}$ .

We define the efficiency of the system to be the efficiency for the detection of double escape events. The peak is considered before any response corrections are made. Note that each response correction can be made to either eliminate events not in the peak from the spectrum, or include these events in the peak. For both the bremsstrahlung and random addition corrections, the former was done.

Random adding and bremsstrahlung contributions to the response can be considered as long range correlations, whereas the Gaussian peak and statistical fluctuations are short range. Since the response simplifications involved only the long range correlations, it was found that the above operations could be carried out using 10 channel (20,15 KeV) increments.

In practice, the technique allows a determination of the low frequency components of the spectrum consisting of the bremsstrahlung and random adding events. The spectrum containing solely Gaussian 'pair' peaks is obtained by subtraction of these components from the observed spectrum.

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#### CHAPTER 6

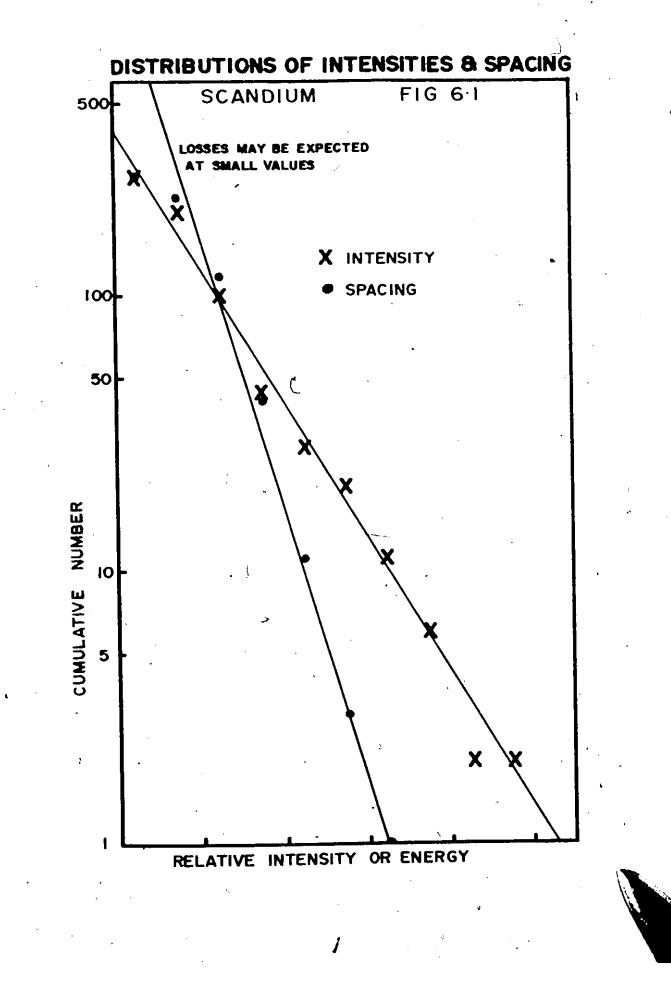
### STATISTICAL DESCRIPTION OF PEAKS

An application of the calculation indicated in Chapter 5 reduces the complexity of the system researce to a single Gaussian peak. Short range correlations between neighbouring data channels, such as the shape of these Gaussian peaks and statistical fluctuations, are not significantly affected. In the present chapter we develop a technique to account for all features, whether resolved or not, in the simplified spectrum. The notions of a peak density and average peak amplitude are considered.

#### GENERAL

As a starting point, some statistical properties of spectra were investigated. We focussed our attention on the distribution of spacings between gamma rays and the distribution of amplitudes of these transitions. We considered spectra of intermediate complexity, where it was assumed most peaks could be resolved. Amplitude distributions of these spectra were also plotted. In order to correct for any gradual variation across the spectrum, each value of the parameter was divided by a local average of that parameter, taken over seven neighbouring values. Results for scandium, which were

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typical, are indicated in Fig. 6.1 and may be seen to be exponential for both the spacing and amplitude distributions. The integrals of the distributions are presented. We assume that this result is general, and would be obtained also from spectra of greater complexity if spectrometers of appropriate resolution and efficiency were available.

In such spectra the peaks are no longer all resolved. The mechanisms by which they are lost may be identified as overlapping or resolution and insufficient intensity or statistical. However it is noted that in regions where no features can be resolved, short range correlations exist leading to a variance which is greater than what would be predicted from statistical considerations alone.

The exponential distribution of spacings between gamma transitions indicates that the number of spectral components, m, that fall within a given interval of the spectrum follows a Poisson distribution (59).

$$P(m) = \frac{N^m}{m!} e^{-N}$$
 (6.1)

Here N is the average number of components in the interval. Furthermore since the amplitudes of the components are also exponentially distributed we write the distribution of the total intensity I arising from m components as

$$P_{m}(I) = \frac{I}{I_{o}} \left(\frac{I}{I_{o}}\right)^{m-1} \frac{e^{-I/I_{o}}}{(m-1)I} \quad (\text{for } m \ge 1)$$
$$P_{o}(I) = \delta(I)$$

3

(6.2)



where  $\delta(I)$  is the Dirac delta function<sup>(7)</sup>. This follows immediately from a convolution of m exponential probability distributions. In the above I<sub>o</sub> represents the average intensity of a spectral component.

We combine these results to give

$$P_{mN}(I) = \frac{1}{I_{o}} \left(\frac{I}{I_{o}}\right)^{m-1} \frac{N^{m}}{(m-1) \text{ im } I} \exp(-N - \frac{I}{I_{o}})$$
(for  $m \ge 1$ ) (6.3)

which is the probability of observing a total intensity I in a given interval from m spectral components, as a function of average peak density N. Since I can arise from many values of m even when N and  $I_0$  are fixed, we must sum over the m's.

In order to properly consider m = 0 and I = 0, we have two regions, and denote  $x = I/I_0$ :

$$(1) \quad x = 0 \qquad \neg ($$

From equations (6.1) and (6.2) we have for the total probability

$$P_{N}(C) = e^{-N}(1 + \frac{N}{I_{O}})$$

which arises from m = 0 and m = 1. We get no contribution from m > 1 since by equation (6.2) the probability of zero intensity with more than one component is zero.

(2) x > 0

We have contributions due to  $m \ge 1$ :

$$P_{N}(x) = \frac{1}{I_{o}} [Nexp(-x-N) + \frac{xN^{2}}{2I} exp(-x-N) + \frac{x^{2}N^{3}}{2I_{3}I} exp(-x-N) + \dots]$$

$$= \frac{N}{I_{o}} exp(-N-x) [1 + \frac{xN}{2!} + \frac{x^{2}N^{2}}{2I_{3}I} + \dots + \frac{x^{N}N^{n}}{n!(n+1)I} + \dots]$$
To examine some of these distributions it is convenient to scale the independent axis. Since  $x = I/I_{o}$  we can replace  $x$  by  $x = \alpha N$ . Then we have
$$P_{N}(\alpha) = \frac{N}{I_{o}} exp(-N(1+\alpha)) [1 + \frac{\alpha N^{2}}{2I} + \frac{\alpha^{2}N^{4}}{2I_{3}I} + \dots + \frac{\alpha^{n}N^{2n}}{n!(n+1)!} + \dots] (6.4)$$
Figure 6.2 shows this result as a surface. The distribution describes the intensity expected in an interval when N features are expected to be present there. The value of  $\alpha = I/NI_{o}$  is the ratio of the actual total intensity to the mean total intensity. As expected, the most probable value of this ratio tends to 1 as N increases. For small N, the density tends to resemble an exponential function, a reflection of the exponential distribution of the intensity of individual features. For Iarge N, the density function appears to approach a Gaussian distribution, which may be regarded as a consequence of the convolution of a large number of exponential distributions. (The plotting program for Figure 6.2 was developed <sup>(60)</sup> at the MCMaster University Computing Centre).

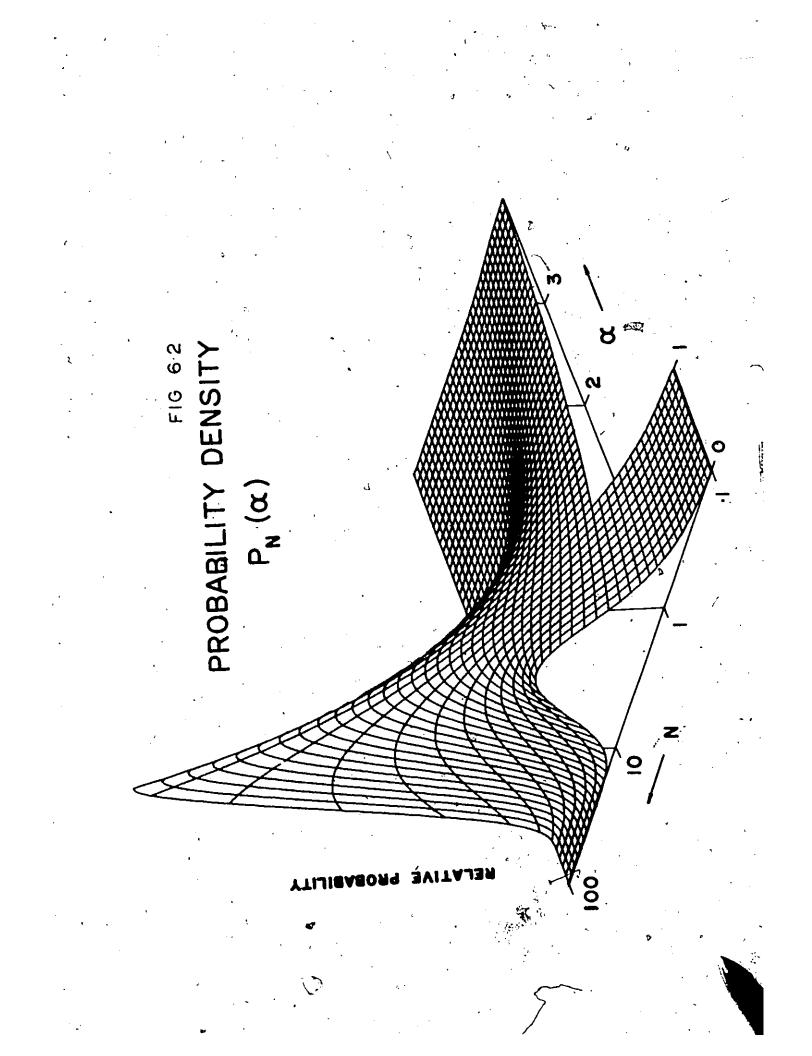
# TRANSITION DENSITY

We now proceed to determine whether a relationship between discrete and statistical spectral properties can be found. More explicitly, we seek a relationship between the

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peak density or average intensity of a peak and some statistically determinable quantities, such as the variance of the spectrum.

Let us consider a spectrum, digitized by the ADC. Each interval or channel is small compared to the width of the Gaussian peak of the system response. It contains a number representing the number of events detected following a reaction. This number is proportional to the time of the experiment, the number of photons of the appropriate energy, and the efficiency of the detection system. It is easy to correct for the relative efficiency, as was indicated in Chapter 3. The time of the experiment is also relative, and of no interest provided it is long enough. That is to say the probability density function of the number of events in an isolated channel is Poisson,  $P(N_c)$ , where  $N_c$  is the average number of counts, or expectation value of the number of counts, in the channel. Therefore the standard deviation in the number of counts is  $\sqrt{N_{c}}$ , so that the relative error can be made as small as desired by making N large enough. This is accomplished by choosing the length of time of the experiment appropriate to the counting statistics desired.

At this point we emphasize the distinction between the statistical variance of the spectrum, which can be made as small as desired, and the variance of the spectrum. The former has been described. The latter refers to the distri-

bution of the means, N<sub>c</sub>, of many intervals or channels.

We shall treat each channel of the spectrum as an interval in which an intensity I is measured. From the spectrum it is simple to calculate various quantities such as the average intensity per channel, the variance per channel, and the higher order moments. These same quantities may also be calculated as expectation values using the probability density function introduced in the previous section. Initially, we assume an ideal or delta function response of the detection system. This implies that if a spectral component falls in an interval, all of the intensity associated with it falls in that interval, and is evenly distributed within it. We next consider a realistic Gaussian response function. Then only a part of the intensity associated with the components whose centroids fall within the interval contributes to the intensity in the interval. Moreover, all intervals near the interval of interest contribute an amount to its intensity. (\* For convenience, we use the notation for the expectation value

$$\langle f(I) \rangle = \sum_{m} \int_{I} f(I) P_{mN}(I) dI .$$
 (6.5)

In Appendix 2 we derive some results involving this expectation formula, including the moments of I:

$$<1> = 1$$
  
 $<1> = NI_0$   
 $<1^2>= N(N+2)I_0^2$ 

where, again, N is the average number of features per interval,

and  $I_0$  is their average intensity. Then, for an ideal or delta function response, we have

$$\langle mean \rangle = \langle I \rangle = NI_{O}$$
 (6.6)

In the case of a Gaussian response we must consider contributions to the intensity in the interval of interest from components whose centroids fall outside of this interval, as well as components whose centroids fall within it. This may be accomplished by considering a normalized Gaussian function:

$$G(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} \exp(-x^2/2\sigma^2)$$
 (6.8)

This Gaussian is digitized into intervals or channels of the same width, say  $\Delta$ , where  $\sigma >> \Delta$ :

 $G_{i} = \int_{x_{i}-\Delta/2}^{x_{i}+\Delta/2} G(x) dx . \qquad (6.9)$ 

Here  $x_i = i\Delta$  and  $-\infty < i<\infty$ .

Let us label the interval of interest with the index j=0. Then intervals of all j,  $-\infty < j < \infty$ , will contribute to the total intensity in the j=0 interval. Now the expectation values of

of the quantities calculated is independent of the interval under consideration, since they are described by the same probability density function. Therefore in the case of a Gaussian function we have

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 g = 
$$\sum_{n} G_{n} < I>$$
=  *$\sum_{n} G_{n}$* 

We now list some further useful relationships involving the digitized Gaussian function

 $= NI_{O}$ 

$$\sum_{n}^{\infty} G_{n} = 1 \quad (\text{normalization})^{\ell}$$

$$\sum_{n}^{\infty} G_{n}^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G^{2}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi} \sigma}$$

$$\sum_{n}^{\infty} \sum_{n}^{\infty} G_{n}^{n} G_{p} = \sum_{n}^{\infty} \sum_{n}^{\infty} G_{n}^{n} G_{p} - \sum_{n}^{\infty} G_{n}^{2}$$

n≠p n p

 $= 1 - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi} \sigma}$ 

Let us now evaluate the expectation value of the variance.

g = <(
$$\Sigma G_n I - \langle I \rangle$$
)<sup>2</sup>>  
= <(( $\Sigma G_n I$ )<sup>2</sup>-2( $\Sigma G_n I$ )*+*<sup>2</sup>)>  
= <(( $\Sigma G_n I$ )<sup>2</sup>-2( $\Sigma G_n I$ )*+*<sup>2</sup>)>  
n****

(6.10)

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In the evaluation of the first term, involving the square of a series, care must be taken to distinguish between  $\langle I^2 \rangle$  and  $\langle I \rangle^2$ . For clarification we include a subscript on the I

$$\langle (\Sigma \ G_{n}I_{n})^{2} \rangle$$

$$= \langle (\Sigma \ \Sigma \ G_{n}I_{n}G_{p}I_{p}) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (\Sigma \ G_{n}^{2}I_{n}^{2} + \Sigma \ \Sigma \ G_{n}G_{p}I_{n}I_{p}) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (\Sigma \ G_{n}^{2}I_{n}^{2} + (\Sigma \ \Sigma \ G_{n}G_{p}I_{n}I_{p}) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (\Sigma \ G_{n}^{2}I_{n}^{2} + (\Sigma \ \Sigma \ G_{n}G_{p}I_{n}I_{p}) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (\Sigma \ G_{n}^{2}I_{n}^{2} + (\Sigma \ \Sigma \ G_{n}G_{p}I_{n}I_{p}) \rangle$$

Therefore

$$\langle \text{variance} \rangle_{g}^{2} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{I}^{2} \rangle}{2\sqrt{\pi} \sigma} + \langle \mathbf{I} \rangle^{2} (\mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi} \sigma}) - \langle \mathbf{I} \rangle^{2}$$

$$= \frac{N(N+2)\mathbf{I}_{o}^{2}}{2\sqrt{\pi} \sigma} - \frac{N^{2}\mathbf{I}_{o}^{2}}{2\sqrt{\pi} \sigma}$$

$$= \frac{N\mathbf{I}_{o}^{2}}{\sqrt{\pi} \sigma}$$

$$(6.11)$$

We can now evaluate N, the transition density, in the case of both a delta function and a Gaussian response. We write <variance> as V and <mean> as M.

The delta function response

. . . .

(6.12)

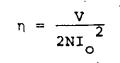
The Gaussian response

 $N = \frac{2M^2}{V}$ 

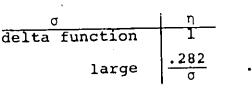
 $N \stackrel{\scriptscriptstyle L}{=} \frac{M^2}{\sqrt{\pi} \sigma V}$ 



dependent of the observation of any discrete spectral features. We now consider the effect of relaxing the requirement that  $\sigma >> \Delta$ . This means that the second moment of the Gaussian  $\Sigma G_n^2$  is no longer given by equation (6.10). If we define



from the foregoing we have



We calculate, for width  $\sigma$  expressed in terms of interval units

σ	n	$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}\sigma}$
.5	.516	.56
1.0	.271	.282

We see that for  $\sigma = \Delta$  the approximation is reasonable, and improves as  $\sigma$  increases. In this work  $\sigma \sim 2\Delta \rightarrow 3\Delta$  where  $\Delta$  was taken to be the width of one channel of the spectrum.

Eor a response function width less than the interval length, the delta function description of the spectrum applies. This may be exploited in order to obtain a measure of the width of the spectral features. The variance is computed in two ways, labelled 1 and 2. Method one corresponds to a long interval compared to the width - the features are considered as delta functions. Method two corresponds to a short interval compared to the width - the features are considered as Gaussian distributions. Since the theory indicates that N, the density must be independent of the method, we have

$$N = \frac{2M_{1}^{2}}{V_{1}} = \frac{M_{2}^{2}}{\sqrt{\pi} \sigma V_{2}}$$

 $\sigma = \frac{v_1}{2\sqrt{\pi} v_2}$ 

Now  $M_1 = M_2$ . Therefore

may be used to obtain the width of spectral features, here considered as Gaussians.

Care must be taken that the units are correct. If we call the basic interval a channel, we note the dimensions of the foregoing quantities.

[N] - peaks/interval [I<sub>0</sub>] - counts/peak [σ] - interval/units [M] - counts/interval [V<sub>1</sub>] - counts<sup>2</sup>/interval-peak [V<sub>2</sub>] - counts<sup>2</sup>/interval<sup>2</sup>-peak

It may be seen that these units are consistent.

As mentioned earlier, in order to obtain the variance of the spectrum there is always a statistical variance which must be subtracted from the total variance which is calculated. In all cases under study the statistical variance was at most two orders of magnitude less than the spectral variance.

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# ERROR CONSIDERATIONS

We use the propagation of error result from statistical theory to determine the error in  $N^{(21)}$ :

$$\sigma_{\rm N}^2 = \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial M}\right)^2 \sigma_{\rm M}^2 + 2\left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial M}\right) \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial V}\right) \sigma_{\rm MV}^2 + \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial V}\right)^2 \sigma_{\rm V}^2\right\rangle . \quad (6.13)$$

Since, in the case of the delta function response,

$$N = \frac{2M^2}{V}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\partial N}{\partial M} = \frac{4M}{V} = \frac{2}{\Gamma_0}$$
$$\frac{\partial N}{\partial V} = -\frac{2M^2}{V^2} = -\frac{1}{2\Gamma_0^{2/3}} = -\frac{1}{2\Gamma_0^{2/3}}$$

The required variances are calculated in Appendix 2.

$$\sigma_{M}^{2} = 2NI_{O}^{2}$$

$$\sigma_{MV}^{2} = 6NI_{O}^{3}$$

$$\sigma_{V}^{2} = (8N^{2} + 13N)I_{O}^{4}$$

Therefore

$$\sigma_{\rm N}^2 = \frac{4}{I_0^2} (2NI_0^2) - \frac{1}{I_0^3} (6NI_0^3) + \frac{1}{4I_0^4} (8N^2 + 13N) I_0^4$$
$$= 2N^2 + \frac{21}{4} N .$$

The relative error is therefore given by.

$$\frac{\sigma_{\rm N}}{\rm N} = \sqrt{2 + \frac{21}{4\rm N}}$$
 (6.14)

So for a large number of peaks in a single interval; we have

 $\frac{\sigma_N}{N} \sim \sqrt{2}$ .

This is the error associated with the calculation of the level density assuming a delta function system response. An examination of the result of the previous section indicates that the effect of the introduction of the finite Gaussian response is to reduce the variance, V. For convenience let us define a factor, k, in the result for the transition density.

 $N = \frac{kM^2}{V}$  (6.15)

If this is to represent the result obtained using the delta function response, k = 2; if it represents exponentially distributed Gaussians of width  $\sigma$ ,  $k = 1/\sqrt{\pi} \sigma$ . Since the variance of the spectrum is in effect damped, we expect a similar reduction in the relative error in the transition density in going from the delta function to the Gaussian response. This can be made more plausible by a consideration of how the damping of the variance arises - it results from an averaging of the intensity contributions from several neighbouring intervals. Since the amount of effort required in considering the Gaussian response has been found to be disproportionate to the results obtainable, we continue to limit our error discussion to the delta function response. It may be regarded as the 'worst possible' limit.

The determination of N from the spectrum can be made



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more precise by considering a number of adjacent intervals of the spectrum. If N and  $I_c$  are not expected to change in L such intervals, we can determine the average values of these quantities over this record length. From elementary statistics we therefore have a relative error in the mean of L such intervals of

$$\frac{\sigma_{\rm N}}{{\rm N}\sqrt{\rm L}} \qquad (6.16)$$

This result may also be derived by considering sums over the number of intervals, L, in the previous derivation for a single interval. We now tabulate typical relative errors for record lengths consisting of 1 and 100 intervals.

		£.								
	N	.01	.1	<u>`1</u>	10	100	00			
one interval:	UN N	24	7.4	2.7	1.54	1.43	1.41			
L=100: ·	<sup>σ</sup> N N√L	2.4	.74	.27	.154	.143	.141	•		

In this work it was found expedient to consider a record length consisting of 100 intervals. For all but the simplest spectra under study, this assured that the record length contained at least one peak. An estimate of the peak density per channel and the average intensity per peak was obtained for each record. Since the number of peaks were also summed over the whole spectrum, and the errors involved in each determination are independent, we may assume that the relative



error introduced into the sum based on the statistical distribution of spectral features is also given approximately by result (6.16). Then L is the total number of intervals considered, which depends on the interval length and the energy range over which the calculation applies.

In the calculation of N from the spectral data there are other factors which must be examined. The  $M^2$  and V statistics in equation (6.12) are calculated by a consideration of L intervals of data. Since L is finite in this work, there exists the possibility of a biasing of the result due to the distributions of these quantities.

A Monte Carlo investigation was therefore conducted. This confirmed the existence of a bias. As expected, although N varied from .05 to 3.0, the bias remained constant, depending only upon the record length. Table 6.1 shows the result of the analysis. The bias factor, B(L), is defined such that

 $N_{\infty} = N_{L} B(L)$ 

where  $N_{\infty}$  is the true value of N which would be obtained for an infinite record length. A total record of 1000 channels was used and four runs were done for each value of N and each value of L. The value of  $\sigma$  ranged from 2 to 6 interval units. The case of distributed delta functions was also considered. An examination of the variance of the results led to estimate of the error in the bias factor of 10%.





Bias Factor

L	Bias Factor (Monte Carlo)	$B(L) = 1 + \frac{4}{\frac{.4}{\sigma} L - 2}$
25	2.23	2.33
50	1.50	. 1.50
100	1.23	1.22
250	1.085	1.083
1000	1.04	1.04

An attempt to justify the bias factor observed is now made. The distribution in the mean intensity, M, is given by equation (6.4). For large values of N (see Fig. 6.2) we may consider this distribution to be normal. In such a case the distribution of  $M^2$  may be approximated by a  $\chi^2$  distribution. Similarly the distribution of V may be assumed to be close to a  $\chi^2$  distribution.

In principle, when the distributions of  $M^2$  and V are known, the distribution in the ratio may be found. In this case the calculation must take into account the correlation which undoubtedly exists between  $M^2$  and V. Since in addition precise knowledge of these density functions is unavailable, the value of the result of such an effort is difficult to assess. However, an illustration of the effect of the distributive nature of the variables is given.

Let us consider the distribution in V for a constant value of  $M^2$ . In this case we have, for a delta function system response,

$$N_{\infty} = \langle \frac{2M^2}{V} \rangle = 2M^2 \langle \frac{1}{V} \rangle$$

However, the value of V which we calculate from the data is  $\langle V \rangle$ . Therefore

$$N_{L} = \frac{2M^2}{\langle V \rangle}$$

and

$$B(L) = \langle \frac{1}{V} \rangle \langle V \rangle$$
.

If we assume V to be distributed as a  $\chi^2$  distribution with f degrees of freedom, we have  $^{(59)}$ 

$$P(V)d(\frac{V}{2}) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{f}{2})} (\frac{V}{2})^{\frac{f}{2}} - \frac{1}{e} - \frac{V}{2} d(\frac{V}{2}).$$

Therefore

$$B(L) = \int \frac{1}{V} P(V) d(\frac{V}{2}) \times \int VP(V) d(\frac{V}{2})$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\Gamma(\frac{f}{2})}} \int (\frac{V}{2})^{\frac{f}{2}} - \frac{2}{e} - \frac{V}{2} d(\frac{V}{2}) \times \frac{2}{\Gamma(\frac{f}{2})} \int (\frac{V}{2})^{\frac{f}{2}} e^{-\frac{V}{2}} d(\frac{V}{2})$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(\frac{f}{2} - 1)}{\Gamma(\frac{f}{2})} \times \frac{\Gamma(\frac{f}{2} + 1)}{\Gamma(\frac{f}{2})}$$

 $= 1 + \frac{2}{f-2}$ 

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This result may be taken to represent the bias factor obtained because of the distribution in V. As noted previously, many other considerations should be applied to the calculation of the bias factor.

Let us associate f with the number of records, L.

$$B(L) = 1 + \frac{4}{L-2}$$

obtains a reasonable empirical fit to the results of the Monte Carlo calculation where the delta function system response was assumed.

We now choose to apply this result to the case of a distribution of Gaussian functions by postulating the existence of another damping factor similar to the k introduced for the variance (equation (6.15)). We assume that the transition to this case may be neglected if most of the intensity associated with the Gaussian function may be assumed to fall within the interval of interest. This could happen if the interval length,  $\Delta$ , is made large compared to  $\sigma$ , for then we have seen that the delta function analysis applies. For a fixed record length we must therefore postulate a reduction in the effective value of L. A reasonable value to assume for this new value of L is

 $L_{g} = \frac{\beta}{\sigma} L$ 

The value of the damping factor,  $\beta$ , was empirically

found to be .4. On the basis of the foregoing discussion, a first order calculation obtains a value of .32 for  $\beta$ . In view of the number of assumptions made, these values are consistent. The values of the fit to the Monte Carlo calculation are also presented in Table 6.1.

# CHAPTER 7 RESULTS

A simplification of the response of the gamma ray spectrometer to a Gaussian function facilitates a statistical description of the spectrum in terms of a peak density and average peak amplitude. The peak density is related to the nuclear temperature. A knowledge of the Q value of the reaction then leads to a value for the multiplicity of the spectrum. Combined with the total relative intensity, the multiplicity allows us to calculate the absolute intensity of special features. We conclude with a comparison of s-wave level density data with values of level density obtained in this work.

## NUCLEAR TEMPERATURE

Ericson's constant temperature model of the nucleus (11) expresses the density of status as

 $\rho(E) = \rho_0 \exp(E/T)$ where T is called the nuclear temperature. An interpretation of this parameter is attempted here.

In classical thermodynamics temperature is related

(2.6)

to the average kinetic energy per particle. The well known result

is obtained by integrating the energy distribution

$$dn = B\sqrt{2E} \exp(-E/kT) dE$$
 (7.1)

derived by Maxwell<sup>(61)</sup>. The imposition of quantum mechanical constraints on the system led to the derivation of an energy distribution of the form

$$dn = C \exp(-E/kT) dE$$
 (7.2)

due to Boltzmann. Equations (7.1) and (7.2) describe the distribution in energy of particles of an assemblage, such as molecules of a gas, or nucleons of a nucleus. The B, C, k, and T are constants, with k, the Maxwell-Boltzmann constant, defined in such a way that T is the thermodynamic temperature in degrees Kelvin.

The reason for the label nuclear temperature becomes clear by a comparison of equations (2.6) and (7.2). Equation (7.2) represents an energy density in the same way that (2.6) represents a level density - the roles of T are analogous. The analogy breaks down, however, when we try to relate nuclear temperature to an average kinetic energy per nucleon. Nuclear temperature is no more than a measure of the rate of increase of level density with energy ; the thermodynamic temperature of a nucleus is given by equation (7.2). Nuclear temperature need not be a constant, as can be seen by comparing Bethe's (12) level density description (equation (2.4)) with equation (7.2).

That the transition density and the rate of change in transition density with photon energy are related to the nuclear temperature was indicated in Chapter 4:

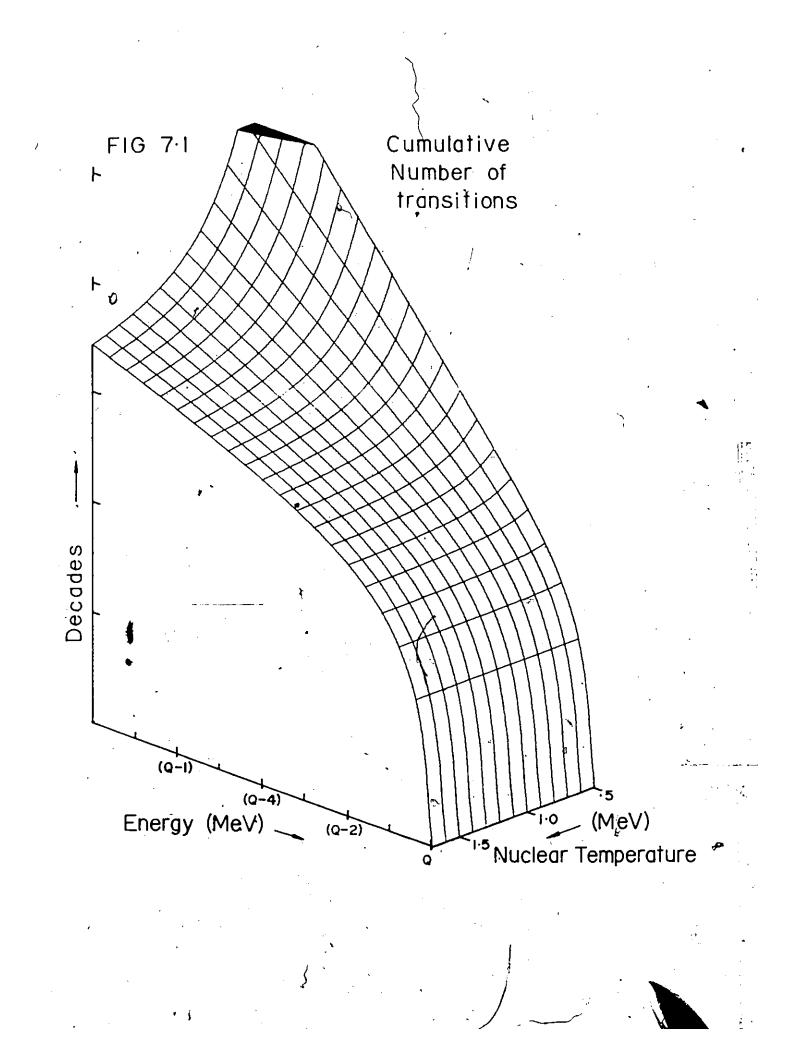
$$n(E_{\gamma}) = \rho_0^2 T \exp(Q/T) \sinh((Q-E)/T).$$
 (4.3)

By integrating this result from some energy E to the Q value, we obtain the result

$$N(E) = \rho_0^2 T^2 \exp(Q/T) \{\cosh((Q-E)/T) - 1\}, \qquad (7.3)$$

the cumulative number of transitions between energy E and the Q value. Fig. 7.1 shows this result as a family of curves for a range of values of T usually encountered. Note that it is the integral that is presented, in order to facilitate the comparison of this result with actual data. The ordinate of the plot is the number of transitions with an energy between Q and the energy represented by the abscissa. The energy is given with respect to Q. The plotted curves are independent of Q and  $\rho_0$ , since these appear as multiplicative factors, and have been omitted for convenience of normalization. In the case of real data, the slope of the cumulative number of transition curve depends only on T, and its intercept with the E=0 axis is  $\frac{\rho_0^2 T^2}{2} \exp(\frac{2\pi}{T})$  A consideration of this



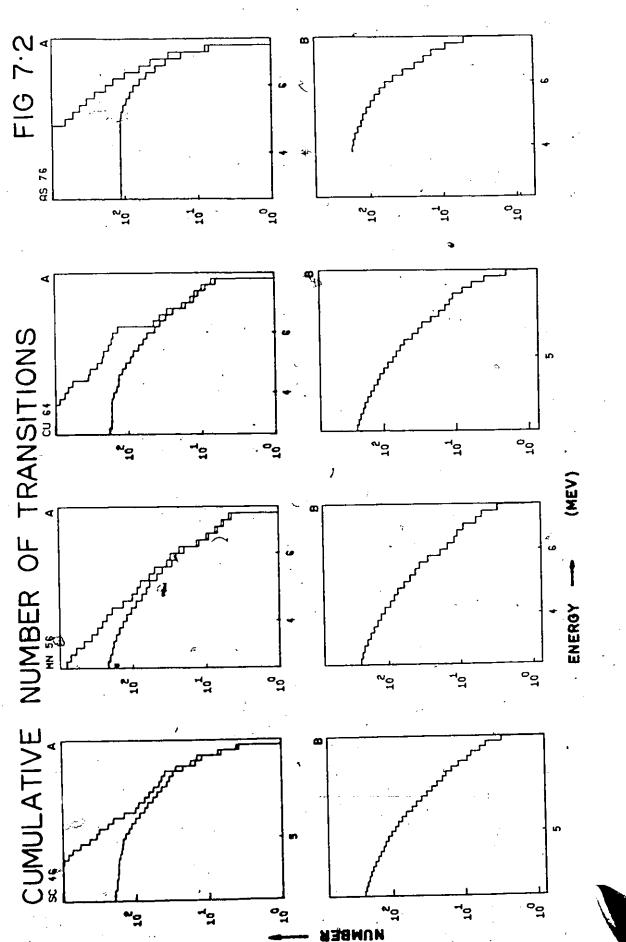


cumulative number of transition curve of a nuclide therefore allows a determination of the parameters T and  $\rho_0$  of Ericson's model for the nuclear level density.

Figures 7.2A and B show a comparison of the cumulative number of transition curves for several of the nuclides under study. The upper plots, labeled A, represent the results of the statistical calculation. The 'losses' formalism introduced in Chapter 5 is used to obtain the lower of the two curves in A. These may be compared directly with the respective figures B, which indicate the result of conventional observations. A complete set of the data is given in Appendix 4.

A least squares fit of our data to an exponential function yielded values of nuclear temperature and zero level spacing,  $\rho_0$ . The range of the fit was  $2.4 \le \le (Q-1)$  MeV. The lower limit was determined by the efficiency of the detection system and the presence of the deuteron transition. The upper limit was (Q-1) MeV since above this energy equation (7.3) begins to deviate significantly from an exponential form. The values of the nuclear temperatures obtained using this method are summarized in Table 7.1. Also shown are the results of some other workers.

The errors in our determination are difficult to assess, because the sources of error are so numerous. These include the background radiation contributed by the facility, the calculation of the response function, and the assumption of



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Table	7-1
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Spectrum	T (MeV) present work	T (MeV) L.B.H. (33)	T (MeV) G.& C. (14)	Q (MeV) present	v (number/cascade) present calculated
<sup>28</sup> Al	4.5	1.5	1.5	7.7253	2.92
46 <sub>SC</sub>	1.12	-	1.35	8.7647	3.94
56 <sub>Mn</sub>	.96	1.6	1.06	7.2703	3 #80
<sup>60</sup> co	.86	1.4	1.14	7.4920	4.03
<sup>64</sup> Cu	.98	1.0	.995	7.9152	3.94
76 As	.55	-	-	7.3277	4.98
104 <sub>Rh</sub>	.53	.74	.60	6.9983	4.93
110 Ag	.43	- 8	-	6.8066	5.48
116 <sub>In</sub>	.40	_	. –	6.5608	5.65
<sup>134</sup> Cs	.51	·	.53	5.890`4	4.98
<sup>186</sup> Re	.36	-	-	6.1796	- 6.04
198 Au	.52	.62	.53	6 51.09	4.74
<sup>204</sup> T1	.44	.75	-	6.6557	5.31

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Nuclear Temperature, 'Q' value, and Multiplicity



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the statistical model of the compound nucleus. The results of three independent experiments using  $^{76}$ As as a target, and several partial runs compared to the total run using a  $^{104}$ Rh source, indicate that 10% in the nuclear temperature, and a factor of two in the level spacing, is a reasonable estimate of the errors involved.

The choice of the constant temperature model is arbitrary. It was contingent only on the requirement that the model provide reasonable agreement with observation. That such agreement exists has been indicated. Significant deviation between results obtained from the data and analytical curves obtained from the model would indicate a deficiency in the latter. The comparison should then be applied to a different model.

#### MULTIPLICITIES

The term multiplicity describes the average number of transitions in a gamma ray cascade when a nucleus de-excites. Since an excited compound nucleus has many decay modes available to it, this number can have a considerable range of values, but is usually reported to be of the order of 3-5 for most nuclides <sup>(43)</sup>. The multiplicity may be considered to provide a constraint to theories. It is given by

 $v = \int S(E) dE.$ 

which is the integral of the spectrum, S(E), when suitable

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(7.4)

normalization is adopted.

When non-gamma decay modes are available, the multiplicity can be less than one. Such is in fact the case for boron. De Juren and Rosenwasser  $^{(62)}$  reported a value for the multiplicity of  $^{10}$ B of .935. Draper and Springer  $^{(35)'}$  reported the multiplicities of spectra following neutron capture in several resonances of several targets.

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In theoretical analyses the multiplicity is sometimes considered a free parameter. This is not so in our calculation, where it is a consequence of the model. Calculated values of multiplicity are in agreement with those of other workers<sup>(34,35)</sup>. Figure 7.3 summarizes the relationship between values of multiplicity, Q, and T.

These results assume the level density to be adequately described by equation (2.6) <sup>(11)</sup> and uses Moszkowski's estimates <sup>(25)</sup> for the transition probabilities. We can therefore estimate the multiplicity solely on the basis of a knowledge of T and Q. Values of v for some of the nuclides under study are also given in Table 7.1.

In this calculation the spin and parity distributions of all states were assumed to be those indicated by Bethe (equation (2.7)). This is equivalent to assuming no specific knowledge of any state, including capture or ground. However, in most cases, at least some of this information is available<sup>(63)</sup>. In fact, multiplicity is of interest since it can be related

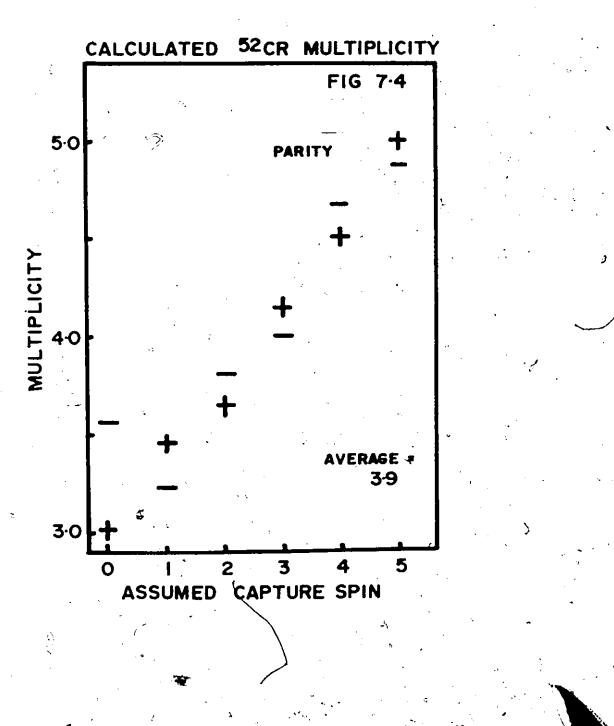
FIG 7.3 ņ •, (MEV) CALCULATED GAMMA RAY MULTIPLICITY Q = 8 ME< ဖ I.0 NUCLEAR TEMPERATURE ÷ ю О MULTIPLICITY 9 ۱ŋ ŝ

to the difference in spin and parity between states of the compound nucleus. For example, the greater the difference in spin between the capture and ground states of a nuclide, the greater the average number of gamma rays per cascade. A preliminary investigation has been conducted as to the feasibility of using this result to identify or restrict the value of the spin and parity of compound nuclear states.

The computer code described in Chapter 4 and in Appendix 3 was used to calculate the multiplicity of a spectrum as a function of spin and parity of the capture state of a reaction. An example to which the analysis was applied was the reaction

 ${}^{51}v(p,\gamma){}^{52}cr$  .

The product nucleus,  ${}^{52}$ Cr is an even-even nucleus which exhibits. the well known vibrational level scheme  ${}^{(4)}$ . Resonances above the proton separation energy are widely spaced, so that capture may be attributed to a definite compound nuclear state. It is hoped that the ratios of intensities of the transitions between the low lying vibrational states will yield further information about the character of the capture states. All known level energies, spins and parities  ${}^{(64)}$  were included in the calculation. The results of the calculation for  ${}^{52}$ Cr are shown in Fig. 7.4. An investigation at the McMaster University tandem accelerator indicated that the restriction of the spin values of resonances is feasible by this method.



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## ABSOLUTE INTENSITY

As was noted in Chapter 3, the relative efficiency of the system was obtained from a consideration of the  $^{15}$ N spectrum. Experimentally, no effort was made to obtain the absolute intensities of the radiative transitions. Present uncertainties in the knowledge of the absolute neutron flux, the neutron cross sections of the nuclides under study, the geometry of the experiment, and the relative efficiency of the system at gamma radiation energies less than 2 MeV dictate that the results of any such determination be unreliable. At best the absolute intensity determination is an extremely difficult problem. The compilation of (n,  $\gamma$ ) results by Bartholomew et al. <sup>(28)</sup> indicates that discrepancies of factors of two between the results of different workers are quite common.

It was therefore decided to present values of the absolute intensities that might be expected, based on the assumption of the statistical model. Let us examine some possibilities. Consider S(E) to be a probability density function, Then, using equation (7.4), we have

$$\overline{E} = \frac{O}{Q} = S(E) dE$$

$$= \frac{O}{\sqrt{Q}} = \frac{Q}{\sqrt{\gamma}},$$

$$\int S(E) dE$$

$$O$$

E S(E) dE = Q

so that

(7.5)

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We now write

S(E) = kS'(E)

where S is the absolute intensity, S' is the relative intensity as calculated via the relative system efficiency, and k is a constant to be determined.

We therefore have

 $k \int_{-\infty}^{Q} s'(E) dE = v$   $k \int_{-\infty}^{Q} Es'(E) dE = Q.$ 

The integrals in (7.6) may be partially determined, since from our calculation we obtain S' for  $E \ge 2.4$  MeV. We choose to extrapolate'S'(E) to zero energy by assuming its form to be determined by the statistical model as discussed in Chapter 4. Values of k obtained in this way were used to calculate most of the intensities presented in Appendix 4.

It is of interest to compare the present discrete data with those of Rasmussen<sup>(29)</sup>. As a figure of merit we have chosen to calculate the fraction of gamma rays observed in the spectrum:  $E = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{r} E_{i} I_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{r} E_{i} I_{i}}$ 

The sum is taken over all gamma rays of energy  $E_i$  and intensity  $I_i$  above 2.4 MeV in energy. Note that a high energy gamma ray contributes more to this sum than a low energy gamma ray of the same intensity. The same fraction,  $F_R$ , was computed for



(7.6)

Table	7	•	2
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Intensity	Comparison

Spectrum	F	(29) F <sub>R</sub>	R <sup>.</sup>	R <sub>R</sub> (29)	' . •
Al	, .55	. 49	.1.80	1.60	÷ .
Sc	· <b>.</b> 57	.64	1.82	1.56	
Mn	.92	.79、	1.39	1.32, /	
Co	•.64	.64 🔿	1,42	1.39	• <sup>,</sup>
Cu	. 99	.85	1.28	1.18	
As	.21	.23	1.29	1.33	• •
Rh	, .12	.16	1.40	- 1.43	
Ag	.13	.18	1.43	1.50	,
.In	.08	.08	1.50	1.46	•
C	.10	.17	1.35	1.35	~
Re	.07	-	1.19	· · -	
Au	.36	.40	1.25	1.22	<b>.</b> •
Tl	.37	.31	1.26	1.26	,

**e**=

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Rasmussen's data, over the same energy range. The results are presented in Table 7.2. Differences in F and  $F_R$  may be attributed to different detectors and therefore 'resolution losses', as well as the absolute nature of the measurement. This is further discussed in Chapter 8. In order to remove the effect of the absolute nature of the intensities we have also calculated the ratio

$$R = Q \frac{\Sigma I_{i}}{\Sigma I_{i}E_{i}}$$
(7.

where the sums,  $I_i$  and  $E_i$  are as above in equation (7.6). The ratio R is independent of the normalization and therefore reflects other differences. It may be expected to be correlated with v, since equation (7.7) reduces to (7.5) if all intensity is included in the sum. Results of this calculation are also presented in Table 7.2. When compared on this basis, the present data agree well with the work of Rasmussen.

# ENERGY LEVEL SPACINGS

We offer a comparison between the s-wave state density  $^{(14)}$  and the level density derived from the gross gamma ray spectrum. At the outset one might expect these quantities to be related. The errors from both determinations are quite large and are not easily assessed. For simplicity we shall assume both to have factor of 2 errors. The data used are given in Table 7.3.

Because of the wide dynamic range and the uncertainty

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Table 7.3 📍	/
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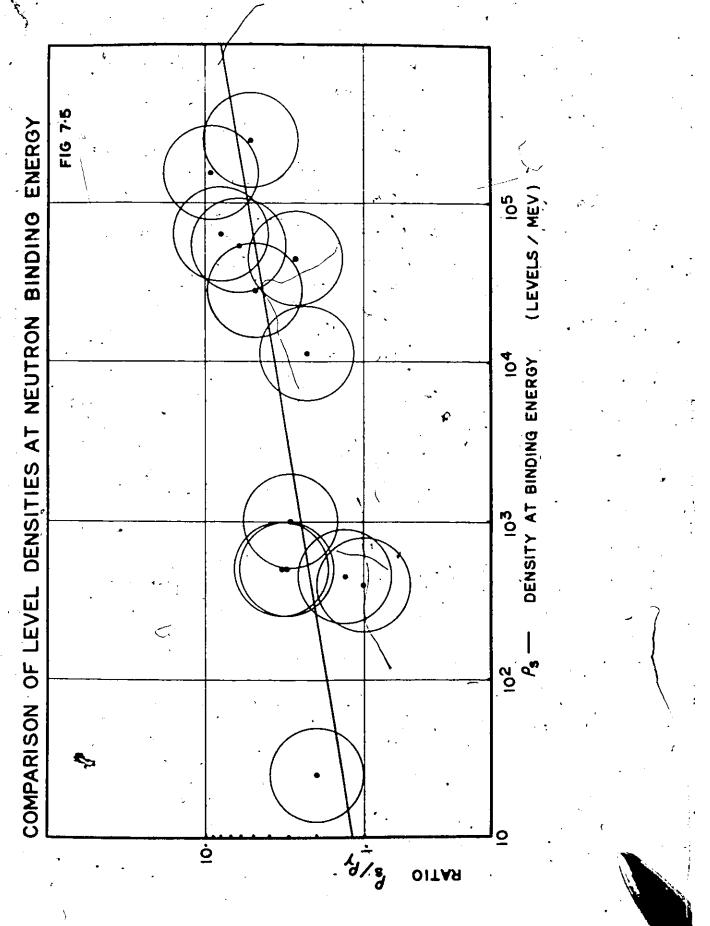
Level Density

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Spectrum	ρ <sub>γ</sub> (levels/MeV) present	ρ <sub>8</sub> G.£ C (14)
Al	12.5 . ,	25
Sc	330	440
Mn	165	500
Co	400	• 400
Cu	350	1000
As	5000	11500
Rh	6000	28500
Ag	17000	45000
In	17000	154000
Cs	9000	54000
Re .	50000	250000
Au	8000	62000
Tl	• 150	500
•	*.	<i>.</i> .

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of the functional arrangement that may exist we chose to fit

 $\log(\text{Ratio}) = a \log \rho_s + G_s$ .

The s-wave determination of the density is indicated by  $\rho_{\rm s}$ . The ratio is that of the s-wave level density to the level density  $\rho_{\gamma}$  at E = Q, as determined in this work. The data are shown in Fig. 7.5

The result found is

 $\rho_{\gamma} = 1.09^{+.5}_{-.35} \rho_{\rm B}^{0.84\pm.05}$ 

A priori one might have expected that these quantities would be directly proportional in the manner

 $\rho_{v} = f(J)\rho_{g}^{X}$ 

where f(J) takes into account the weighting associated with the levels populated via the two processes. Normally one would expect that f(J) would be in the range 1+3. The power x is expected to be unity. The results obtained are remarkably close to these expectations. This is even more remarkable. when one (considers that the density ranges over four orders of magnitude.

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### CHAPTER 8

## CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

A new technique of extracting information from complex spectra has been introduced. We have attempted to demonstrate that the number of features in an energy interval of a spectrum may be determined without losses. A statistical study has yielded a spectral description in terms of a peak density and an average amplitude. Conditions limiting the natures of the spectra that may be studied are not particularly restrictive. The system response must be either local,or, its reduction to such a response must be possible. Features must be distributed in their position.

The response function of the pair spectrometer used to obtain the data has been empirically determined. A suitable mathematical description of this response allowed its simplification to a single Gaussian peak. Such a response satisfies the conditions for the foregoing technique. The complex gamma ray spectra of 17 nuclides following the capture of thermal neutrons have also been conventionally analysed. Spectroscopic data is tabulated in Appendix 4.

The statistical analysis is independent of whether features are resolved or not. In a study of the gamma radiation

spectrum following neutron capture in rhodium, for example, peak densities of 10000 features per MeV have been encountered.' Distributions in parameters of the response features, such as peak width or amplitude, do not invalidate the technique, although these distributions must be known locally in the spectrum. The statistical description of several complex spectra has been obtained, and is presented here. A comparison with a constant temperature model of the compound nucleus obtains agreement with previous level density data determined using different methods.

The most practical form of statistical description of the spectrum has been found to be the 'cumulative number of transitions'. This is a function of the gamma ray energy which represents the total number of peaks observed above that energy, independent of intensity. A simple statistical model for the nuclear level density allows the calculation of some parameters from this description. The nuclear temperature and level spacing of the constant temperature model are reported. The present analysis indicates that spectra varying greatly in complexity may all be satisfactorily described by Ericson's <sup>(11)</sup> constant temperature model of the nucleus.

In addition the model allows a calculation of the spectral shape when a suitable estimate for the gamma ray transition probability is made. The nuclear temperature

determined here, as well as known energy data, was utilized in a calculation of the multiplicity of the spectra. This estimate of the multiplicity was used in conjunction with a relative system efficiency to determine the absolute intensities of the gamma ray transitions.

The transition density analysis is quite independent of system efficiency. Only the resolution of the detector is of importance, and this is the major source of error in the results here. The intensity analysis, however, depends also on a knowledge of the relative efficiency. On this basis, and on the basis of the assumption of a statistical model, errors in the intensities may be relatively large. We note however that the comparison included in Chapter 7 of the results obtained for copper, silver, and indium, may not be realistic since separated isotopes were used in this work.

The discrete data presented in Appendix 4 does not list several weak lines which were attributable to aluminum, iron, nitrogen and chlorine contaminants present in the sample or system. The argon spectrum shows several manganese lines this is a result of the spectrum being taken following the failure of the manganese sample. No effort has been made to eliminate from the listings gamma transitions following inelastic scattering, except where it was obvious, such as for carbon. In the case of nitrogen, silicon, and argon, the calculation reducing the response to a Gaussian clearly indicates that

**,7,6** 

the response function determined here is reasonable. An examination of the results of the thallium spectrum calculation reveals that the anomalous  $bump^{(65)}$  is most likely entirely due to observable transitions.

To suggest refinements in the method of the experiment is not really relevant at this point, since the technique was designed to overcome some experimental shortcomings. General suggestions with regard to the calculational technique are equally irrelevant, since it is implicitly claimed to be optimal. However to those who may consider a study similar to the present one, the following is proferred:

(a) The determination of the response function might have been more accurate had the runs of simple spectra, from which it was obtained, been longer.

(b) No deterioration of peak resolution was observed for the duration of the experiment. Such deterioration would have been important only insofar as it might indicate a change in the long range components of the response function. For more accurate results the spectrometer response should be monitored regularly by means of a standard spectrum.

(c) The background in the facility was relatively high, and has been considerably reduced. An internal collimator has been installed, and an aluminum window has been eliminated



from the gamma beam. This means that the matrix inversion rechnique would represent a smaller perturbation to the raw data since random addition is reduced.

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This work may be expanded with a greater emphasis on the intensity analysis. Distributions of spectral features, here obtained from the spectra themselves, could be investigated with the aid of a simple cascade model of the nucleus based on the model presented here. This approach will allow a test of gamma ray transition probability theory in complex spectra. Such work would be useful, since as the complexity of spectra under study increases, the effect of spectral fluctuations becomes less important.

It is hoped that the collective technique of describing spectra and the matrix inversion response simplification may lend itself to other areas of study. These could include the reduction of proton or X-ray spectra of nuclear physics. Investigators in other disciplines such as chemistry may find other applications for the present analysis. The statistical description of spectral features such as gamma ray transitions presents an alternate approach to the conventional tabulations of data. It is useful in describing unresolved peaks, and yields a crude upper limit to the number of peaks that an experimenter can hope to observe with an ideal spectrometer with infinite resolving power at an infinite cost, available in the year infinity.

### APPENDIX 1

### MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

In this section we prove that the convolution of a spectrum represented by a vector with a suitable function can be exactly equivalent to its multiplication by the inverse of a response matrix. The response matrix must be triangular, either upper or lower. The proof offered here is for a lower triangular matrix. An upper triangular matrix may be dealt with in a similar manner. The form of the convolution function is indicated.

The concept of elementary matrices is well known to mathematicians (66). It provides a powerful and elegant method for certain matrix proofs, such as the following.

## ELEMENTARY MATRICES

We define an elementary matrix, E<sub>ij</sub>(c), which is a matrix identical to the unit (diagonal) matrix except that the element in row i and column j is replaced by c. For example,

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$$E_{21}(-a_{21}) = \begin{bmatrix} -a_{21} \\ 0 \\ . \\ . \\ . \end{bmatrix}$$

is a particular elementary matrix.

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(A1.1)

Premultiplication of any matrix A by  $E_{ij}(c)$  shows that the effect of  $E_{ij}(c)$  corresponds to a simple row operation, i.e. row i is replaced by itself plus the product of c and row j. This is indicated as

$$r_i + r_i + cr_j$$

If we call the matrix formed by the action of  $E_{ij}(c)$ on A a new matrix  $A_1$ , the matrices A and  $A_1$  are said to be row equivalent. This is written

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{r_i} + \mathbf{r_i} + \mathbf{cr_j} \end{array}$$

Since the inverse row operation is just

$$r_{j} + r_{j} - cr_{j}$$

we see that

$$E_{ij}(-c)A_{1} = A.$$

Operating on this equation with E (c) we have

$$E_{ij}(c)E_{ij}(-c)A_{1} = E_{ij}(c)A = A_{1}$$

Therefore

$$E_{ij}(c)E_{ij}(-c) = I.$$

We have therefore found the inverse of the elementary matrix:

$$(E_{ij}(c))^{-1} = E_{ij}(-c)$$
.

# TRIANGULAR MATRIX WITH UNIT DIAGONAL

Consider a triangular matrix, A, of the form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ a_{21} & 1 & & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 1 & & \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & \cdot & 1 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & 1 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & 1 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a_{n,n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$
(A1.3)

It is well known that simple elementary row operations will reduce this to the unit matrix, I. In terms of the elementary matrices, this is written

$$\frac{E_{n,n-1}(-a_{n,n-1})E_{n,n-2}(-a_{n,n-2})E_{n-1,n-2}(-a_{n-1,n-2})E_{n,n-3}(\dots\times)}{\dots E_{31}(-a_{31})E_{21}(-a_{21})A} = I.$$
 (A1.4)

The underlined groups of operations may be considered to correspond to matrices of a simple form which are related to the form of the convolution function.

We write

$$A_{j} = \frac{\pi}{i=j+1,n} E_{ij}(a_{ij}).$$

If, for j=n,  $A_n = I$ , then

(The elementary matrices referring to different rows of one

 $A_{j}^{-1} = \pi E_{ij}^{(-a_{ij})}$ 

column commute, since the order in which elements in a column are made zero is irrelevant.)

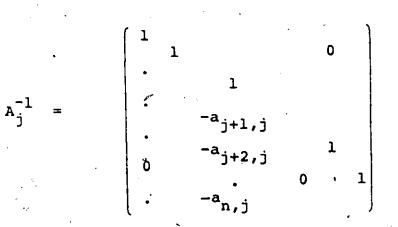
Equation (Al.4) can now be written as

$$A_n^{-1}A_{n-1}^{-1}A_{n-2}^{-1} \dots A_1^{-1}A = I.$$

Therefore

$$A^{-1} = A_{n}^{-1}A_{n-1}^{-1}A_{n-2}^{-1} \cdots A_{1}^{-1}$$

where explicitly



It may be seen that a matrix multiplication by a series of matrices of this form is equivalent to convolving the spectrum with a function indicated by equation (Al.5). GENERAL TRIANGULAR MATRIX

<sup>a</sup>33

Consider A to be of the form

 $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \\ a_{32} \end{bmatrix}$ 

A

(A1.6)

(A1.5)

The proof follows as in the previous section. Each elementary matrix argument is now divided by the diagonal element of that column. In addition it can be seen that a factor a<sub>ij</sub> must be taken out of the matrix each time a column j is made zero by elementary row operations. (See equation (Al.4)). This is so that the right hand side of equation (Al.4) becomes a unit, not a diagonal matrix.

We then have, in analogy with equation (A1.5),

-a<sub>n,j</sub>/a<sub>jj</sub>

Since this is the inverse, the factor  $a_{ij}$  appears as  $1/a_{jj}$ . Taking out  $1/a_{jj}$  as a common factor gives

(A1.8)

(A1.7)

The convenience and simplicity of this method is a consequence of the similarity between this matrix, which represents one step of a convolution, and the total response matrix, represented by equation (Al.6). Note that the matrices  $A_j^{-1}$  do not commute. Therefore the order of summation involved in the convolution is critical, and is opposite in the case of an upper triangular matrix.

We again consider the equation

S ≖ RT

(2.3)

where S and T are the vectors representing the observed and true spectra respectively, and R is the response function, here represented by a matrix. The matrix inversion and multiplication is then indicated as

 $T = R^{-1}S$ 

while the convolution can be indicated as

where  $t_i$  and  $s_i$  are elements of the vector and  $q_{ij}$  are elements of the convolution function, the values of which are obtained directly from R, as suggested by equation (Al.8).

In Chapter 5 it was suggested that the response correction can be made either to include events not in the peak into the peak, or to eliminate events not in the peak from the spectrum. The former is equivalent to a normalization condition. A constant number of events in the spectra S and T is equivalent to the requirement that the sum of any column of the response matrix be one. This may be seen to be equivalent to the requirement that the sum of the convolution function at any point be one. If such is not the case, events may be eliminated from the spectrum.

We have attempted to show the equivalence between the inversion and multiplication of a vector by a triangular matrix, and the convolution of this vector by a function indicated by equation (Al.8). This is motivated by the fact that the computational effort required for the latter is very much less. The effort is proportional to the number of elements which must be summed, which depends on the range or extent of the response of the system under consideration.

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# APPENDIX 2 STATISTICAL DERIVATIONS

In Chapter 6 we present the probability density function:

$$P_{mN} = \frac{1}{I_{o}} \left(\frac{I}{I_{o}}\right)^{m-1} \frac{N^{m}}{(m-1) ImI} \exp\left(-N - \frac{I}{I_{o}}\right). \quad (6.3)$$

This/result expresses the probability of an intensity I being present in an interval of the spectrum. The number of components actually present, their average intensity, and the average number expected in the interval are given by m,  $I_o$ , and N.

We now calculate some results which are used in Chapter 6, using the formula for the expectation:

$$f(I) > = \sum_{m} \int f(I) P_{mN}(I) dI . \qquad (6.5)$$

The form of  $P_{mN}$  (I) indicates that this expression may be evaluated by first considering the integral over I, and then the sum over m.

We write

$$P_{m}(I) = \frac{1}{I_{o}} \left(\frac{I}{I_{o}}\right)^{m-1} \frac{1}{(m-1)I} e^{-I/I_{o}}$$

and again make the substitution  $x = I/I_0$ . Therefore we have, for the moments of  $P_m(I)$ :

 $\int_{0}^{\infty} P_{m}(I) dI = \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{m-1}e^{-x}}{(m-1)I} dx = 1$ 

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} I P_{m}(I) dI = I_{0} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{m} e^{-x}}{(m-1)!} dx = I_{0}^{m} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{m} e^{-x}}{m!} dx = I_{0}^{m}$$

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} I^{2} P_{m}(I) dI = I_{0}^{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{m+1} \frac{e^{-x}}{(m-1)I} dx = I_{0}^{2} m(m+1) \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{m+1}e^{-x}}{(m+1)I} dx = I_{0}^{2} m(m+1) \int_{0}^{\infty$$

Similarly it follows that

$$I^{3}P_{m}(I)dI = I_{o}^{3}/m(m+1)(m+2)$$

and

$$I^{4}P_{m}(I)dI = I_{0}^{4}m(m+1)(m+2)(m+3)$$

We now consider the sum over m, for which we need  $P(m) = \frac{N^{m} e^{-N}}{m!} \cdot (6.1)$ 

This represents the probability of having m components in an interval, when the average number is N. We compute the sums:

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} P(m) = \sum \frac{N^{m}e^{-N}}{m!} = e^{-N} \sum \frac{N^{m}}{m!} = e^{-N}e^{N} = 1$$

$$\Sigma \text{ mP}(\text{m}) = \Sigma \text{mN}^{\text{m}} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} = N \frac{\Sigma N^{m+1}}{m!} e^{-N} = N$$

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$$\Sigma m^{2} p(m) = \Sigma m^{2} N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} = \Sigma \{m(m-1) \frac{N^{m} e^{-N}}{m!} + m N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} \}$$

$$= N^{2} + N$$

$$\Sigma m^{3} p(m) = \Sigma m^{3} N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} = \Sigma \{m(m-1) (m-2) N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} + (3m^{2} - 2m) N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!}$$

$$= N^{3} + 3N^{2} + N$$

$$\Sigma m^{4} p(m) = \Sigma m^{4} N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} = \Sigma \{m(m-1) (m-2) (m-3) N^{m} \frac{e^{-N}}{m!} + (6m^{3} - 11m^{2} + 6m) \frac{N^{m} e^{-N}}{m!}\}$$
  
= N<sup>4</sup> + 6 (N<sup>3</sup> + 3N<sup>2</sup> + N) - 11 (N<sup>2</sup> + N) + 6N  
= N<sup>4</sup> + 6N<sup>3</sup> + 7N<sup>2</sup> + N.

Now combining the above results we obtain

$$<1> = 1$$

$$<1> = I_{0} \Sigma mp(m) = I_{0}N$$

$$<1^{2} = I_{0}^{2}\Sigma m(m+1)p(m) = I_{0}^{2}(N^{2}+N+N) = I_{0}^{2}(N^{2}+2N)$$

$$<1^{3} = I_{0}^{3}\Sigma(m(m+1)(m+2)p(m)) = I_{0}^{3}\Sigma(m^{3}+3M^{2}+2m)p(m) = I_{0}^{3}(N^{3}+6N^{2}+6N)$$

$$<1^{4} = I_{0}^{4}\Sigma(m(m+1)(m+2)(m+3)p(m)) = I_{0}^{4}\Sigma(m^{4}+6m^{3}+11m^{2}+6m)p(m)$$

$$= I_{0}^{4}(N^{4} + 12N^{3} + 36N^{2} + 13N)$$

We use these results in the following calculation, where  $M = NI_0$  and  $V = 2NI_0^2$ .

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$$\sigma_{V}^{2} = \langle (1-M)^{2}-V \rangle^{2} \rangle$$

$$= \langle (1^{2} - 2MI + M^{2} - V)^{2} \rangle \text{ (where we write } M^{2} - V = B)$$

$$= \langle 1^{4} + 4M^{2}I^{2} + B^{2}-4MI^{3} + 2BI^{2}-4MBI \rangle$$

$$= \langle 1^{4} \rangle -4M \langle 1^{3} \rangle + (4M^{2}+2B) \langle 1^{2} \rangle -4MB \langle 1 \rangle + B^{2}$$

$$= (N^{4}+12N^{3}+36N^{2}+13N-4N^{4}-24N^{3}-24N^{2}+6N^{4}+8N^{3}-8N^{2}-4N^{4}+8N^{3}$$

$$+ N^{4}-4N^{3}+4N^{2})I_{O}^{4}$$

$$= (8N^{2}+13N)I_{O}^{4}$$

$$\sigma_{MV}^{2} = \langle ((I-M)^{2}-V) (I-M) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (I^{2}-2MI+M^{2}-V) (I-M) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (I^{2}-2MI+M^{2}-V) (I-M) \rangle$$

$$= \langle (I^{3}-2MI^{2}+M^{2}I-VI-MI^{2}+2M^{2}I-M^{3}+MV) \rangle$$

$$= \langle I^{3} \rangle -3M \langle I^{2} \rangle + (3M^{2}-V) \langle I \rangle -M^{3}+MV \rangle$$

 $= \{N^{3}+6N^{2}+6N-3N^{3}-6N^{2}+3N^{3}-2N^{2}-N^{3}+2N^{2}\}I_{0}^{3}$  $= 6NI_{0}^{3}$ 

Naturally, as shown in Chapter 6 (equation (6.7)),

$$\sigma_{\rm M}^2 = 2 {\rm NI}_0^2$$
.

These results are used in the error analysis of Chapter 6.



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# APPENDIX 3

## SPECTRAL CALCULATIONS

We summarize some of the results that were obtained during the development of the scheme adopted in Chapter 4.

Any spectral calculation requires the knowledge of energy levels and transition probabilities. We recognize two different methods of solving the problem. A continuous level density is assumed, with an option of inserting information about discrete levels where this is known. Alternatively a Monte Carlo technique may be used to construct a set of diacrete levels. Note that any form of level density may be used in the calculations described here. We adopt the level density and transition probability of equations (2.6) and (2.8).

### DISCRETE LEVELS

A consideration of random matrices led Wigner (67) to surmise the form of the distribution of spacings between two nuclear levels of the same spin J. It is of the form

 $P(D) = \frac{\pi}{2\overline{D}^2} \exp(-\frac{\pi D^2}{4\overline{D}^2}).$ 

Here D is the spacing, and  $\overline{D}$  is the average spacing. Although theoretically not entirely correct<sup>(68)</sup> this distribution agrees well with observation<sup>(69)</sup>.

At any energy, a nucleus has a distribution of spins (equation (2.7)). This is equivalent to the superposition of several mono-spin descriptions. The result is to randomize the level distribution.

We therefore construct a level scheme of a hypothetical nucleus by sampling level spacings from an exponential distribution. Each level is then assigned a spin and a parity by sampling from the appropriate distributions. As in Chapter 4, starting from the capture state we calculate the intensity from successive levels to all levels below them. At this point we have the option of introducing the fluctuations reported by Porter and Thomas <sup>(26)</sup>. This may be done by multiplying the calculated intensity of a transition by a factor sampled from a  $\chi^2$  distribution. In our work we approximate this distribution by an exponential distribution.

This technique allows a study of effects of the spacing distribution and Porter-Thomas fluctuations on intensity. It also indicates the effects of fluctuations in levels of the spectral shape. Populations of various states as a function of spin and parity of capture and ground states may be calculated.

The actual fluctuations in level density and transition probability limit the usefulness of this method in predicting shapes of spectra of real nuclides with few energy levels. For large numbers of levels, the effects of the samplings were found to average out. Since this was the case

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for most of the complex spectra under study, the continuous scheme presented in Chapter 4 was adopted. The discrete scheme served to confirm the exponential natures of the gamma ray spacing distribution and of the gamma ray intensity and distribution.

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### CONTINUOUS SCHEME

For a large number of levels (greater than about 100) the computational effort required for the discrete calculation becomes prohibitive. The method described in Chapter 4 was therefore introduced. The calculation of spectral shape is there described. Other functions of potential interest may also be calculated using this formulation. This description allows the inclusion of spin-parity considerations, as well as known level information in the calculation of transition density functions.

The transition density may be calculated by consi-

$$n(E_{\gamma}) = \sum \sum_{\substack{\text{onergy spin}\\\text{such that parity}\\E_{i} - E_{f} = E_{\gamma}}} \sum_{\substack{\text{blue}\\\text{$$

The average intensity per gamma ray is then just

$$I_{O}(E_{\gamma}) = \frac{S(E_{\gamma})}{n(E_{\gamma})}$$

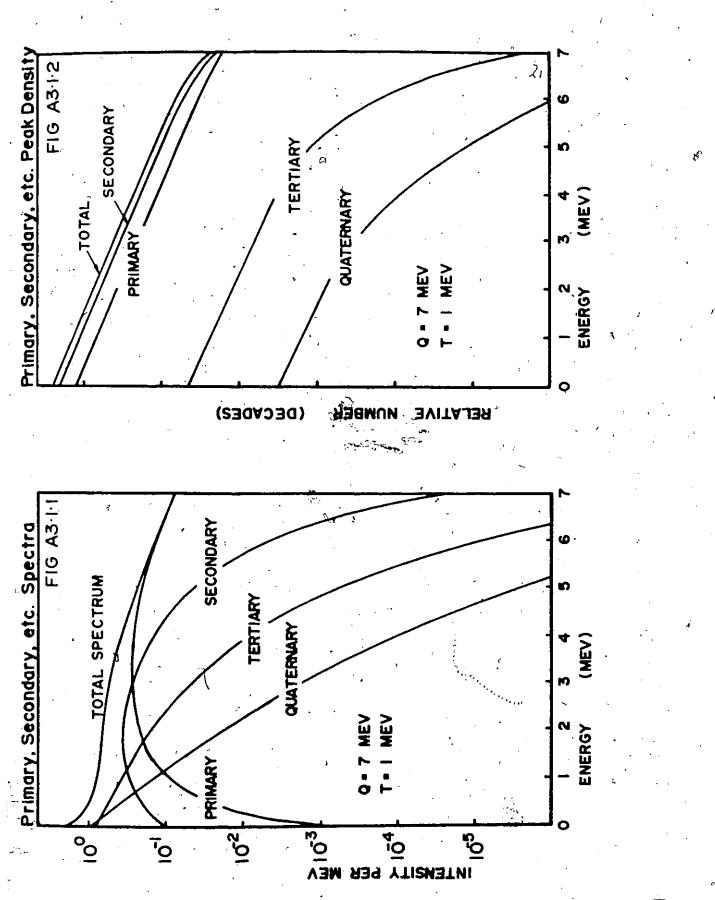
where  $S(E_{\gamma})$  is given by equation (4.4).

A primary gamma ray transition is one which connects the capture state with any state in the compound nucleus. A secondary gamma ray connects any level population produced by a primary gamma ray to a level of lower energy. A cascade is a number of discrete transitions connecting the capture state of a compound nucleus to its ground state.

Spectra of primary, secondary, tertiary, etc. gamma rays may be simply obtained. This is done by including a subscript in the population, T which keeps a record of the number of transitions required to contribute each portion of the population of the set of levels in a particular bin. Such a decomposition of a spectrum into components is shown in Fig. A3.1. These curves may be used as an aid to constructing decay schemes. The possibility of high energy secondary gamma transitions is indicated. Such transitions were in fact observed in the spectrum following the  ${}^{27}$ Al(n,  $\gamma$ ) ${}^{28}$ Al reaction  ${}^{(53)}$ .

In the same way that the total transition density may be obtained using this approach, the transition density of primary, secondary, etc. gamma rays may be calculated. The average intensity per gamma ray of the primary, secondary, transitions follows also.

The number of transitions in a cascade may also be of interest. For example, a 2-fold coincidence experiment is insensitive to single transitions, a 3-fold coincidence



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experiment is insensitive to 2 prep cascades, etc. Such information may also be useful in the fitting of transitions into decay schemes.

The sequential nature of the calculation offers no simple a priori method of determining the number of gamma rays of a cascade. We construct all possible cascades of the desired number of transitions. A simple algorithm was developed in order to assure that all possible combinations were included in the calculation.

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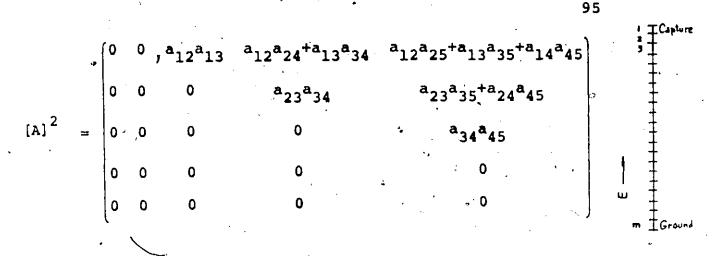
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 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\ 0 & a_{23} & a_{24} & a_{25} \\ 0 & a_{34} & a_{35} \\ - & 0 & - & 0 & a_{45} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 

We consider the element subscripts to be labels of the energy bins in which the levels are situated. Each element therefore can represent an intensity of a gamma transition, and all possible transitions between bins are represented. The upper right hand element connects the capture and ground states.

In the special case of the 5 bins we write the square of a 5×5 matrix.

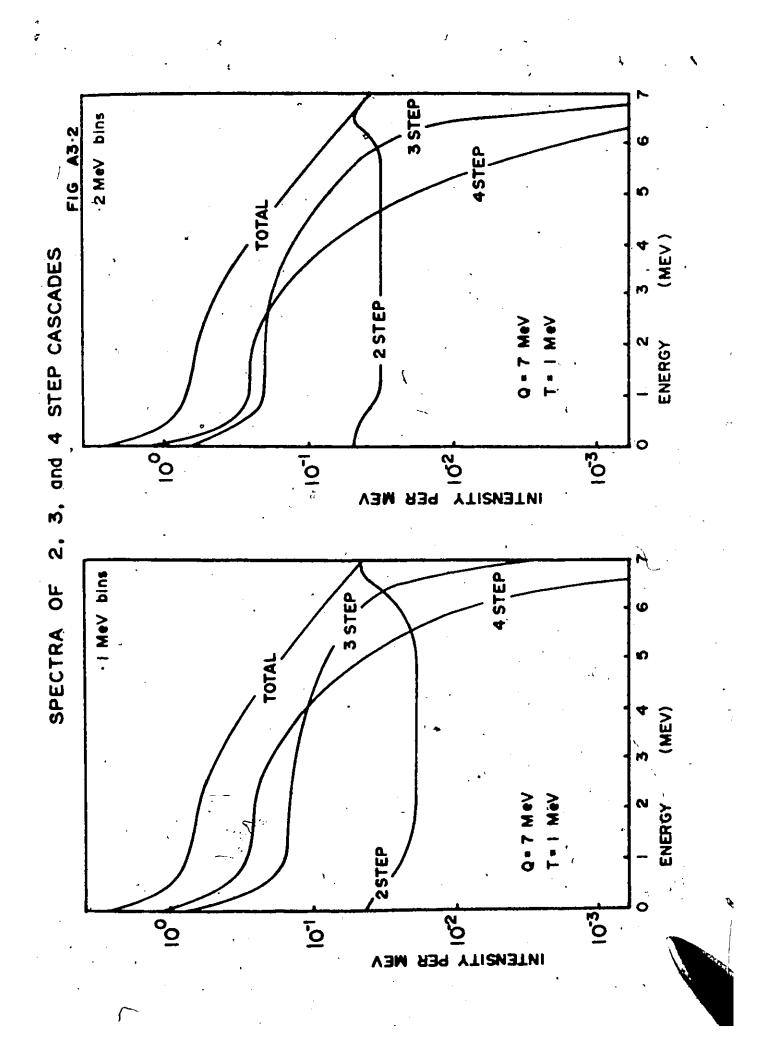


It may be seen that the elements of this matrix represent all possible 2 step transitions between all possible bins. Similarly the n<sup>th</sup> power of matrix A gives all the n step cascades between all the bins. Therefore all possible n step cascades between the capture and ground states are listed as the indices of the upper right hand side element in the matrix A raised to the n<sup>th</sup> power.

It should be kept in mind that these results are bin dependent. This is obvious when a purely continuous density is considered - there will be an infinite number of transitions in each cascade before the ground state is reached. That it is reached in fewer steps is a consequence of the digitization of the density, and a consideration of only transitions between bins. The calculation indicated by Fig. A3.2 will be quantitatively correct if the bin width near the ground state is of the order of the level spacing near the ground state. It is for this reason that two bin sizes are illustrated.

In all other calculations the effect of the bins is negligible. As the number of bins increases, the intensity contributed by these cascades to the multiplicity of the spectrum approaches zero.

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## APPENDIX 4

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## SPECTRAL DATA

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In this section we present first tabulations of observed transitions, followed by plots of the observed We have chosen to order the data according to mass spectra. The senergy scale has been shifted by 1.022 MeV, so number. that the second escape peaks are labeled with the full energy of the gamma transition involved. The tabulations were obtained from the spectral data by a judicious method of subjectively evaluating correlations in the contents of neighbouring and near neighbouring channel locations. The statistical error in the determination of peak centroids approaches zero. However it is estimated that in favourable cases an error in locating the centroid position of approximately .1 channels corresponding to a relative energy uncertainty of .2 keV, was introduced by the subjective nature of the judgement. This estimate is based on a careful study of the technique involving the centroid determination of peaks in computer generated spectra.

The foregoing method was not adopted until several non subjective methods had been considered. These involved computer fits of functions using various techniques. Gaussian distributions of varying width and linear components were attempted using both linear and non-linear fitting techniques. Rejection of these methods was based on poor convergence, a disproportionate amount of computer effort required, difficulty in obtaining initial values of some parameters of the fitted function and failure or difficulty with closely spaced features.

As noted in Chapter 7, relative intensity calibration is via the  $^{15}N$  spectrum, and absolute intensities were obtained by adjusting the spectral multiplicity to that predicted by the model calculations of Chapter 4.

The spectral data is followed by a pictorial representation of the result of the calculation described in Chapter 5. Five plots are presented for each spectrum. The graphs are actually histograms showing the sums of data in 10 channels of the spectrum. From the top of the page, we show

(a) the system background appropriate for the experiment,

(b) the 'raw' result of the experiment,

(c) the result of the experiment corrected for background ,

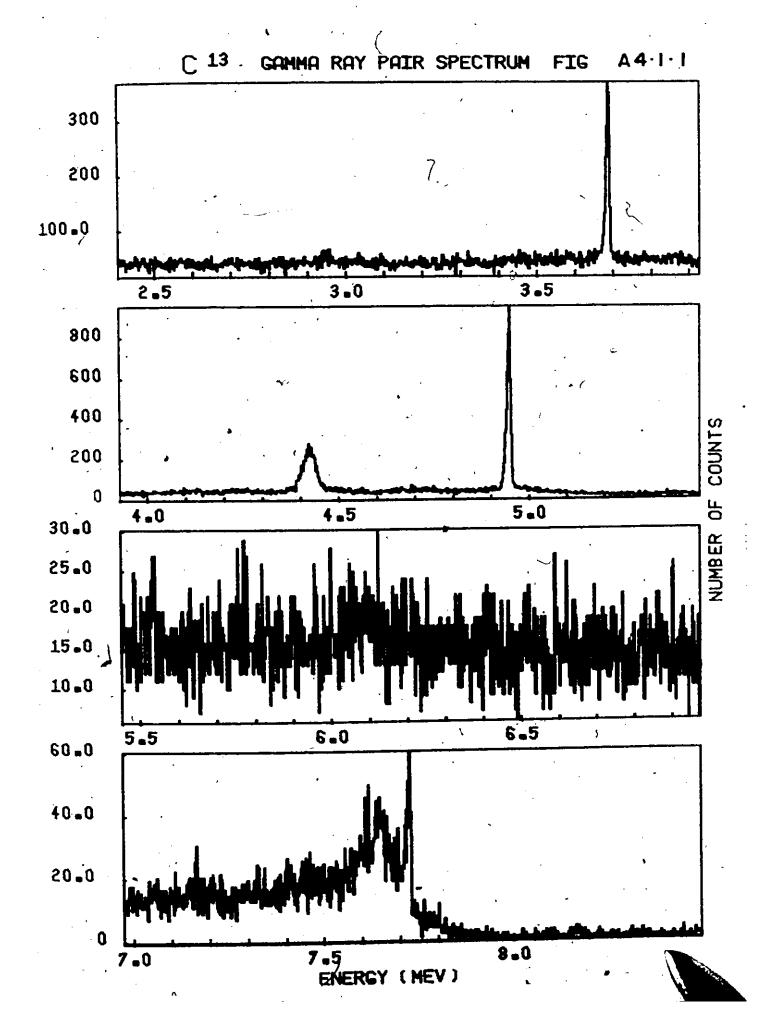
(d) the spectrum corrected for random addition, and

(e) the final result, comprised of only the second escape peak contributions to the system response.

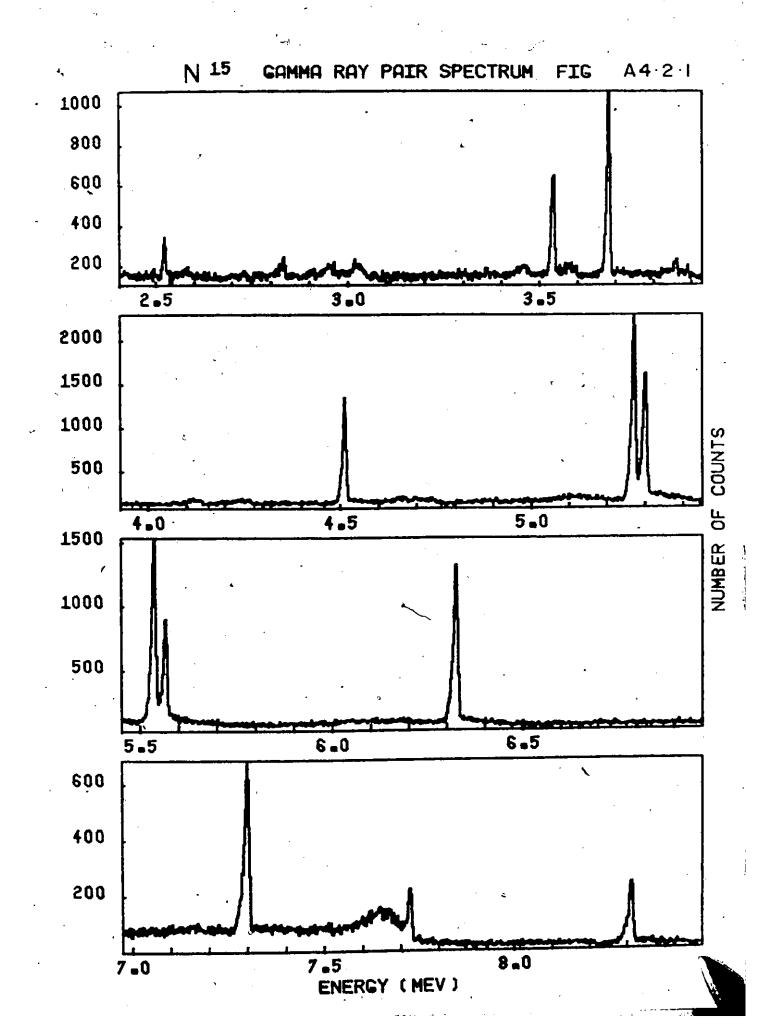
Finally, for each spectrum where the statistical description of the spectrum was deemed reasonable (error discussions in Chapter 6), we include the result of the analysis. Histograms indicating the average number of counts per peak, the transition density, the cumulative number of transitions, and the cumulative (integral) of the total corrected intensity are presented.

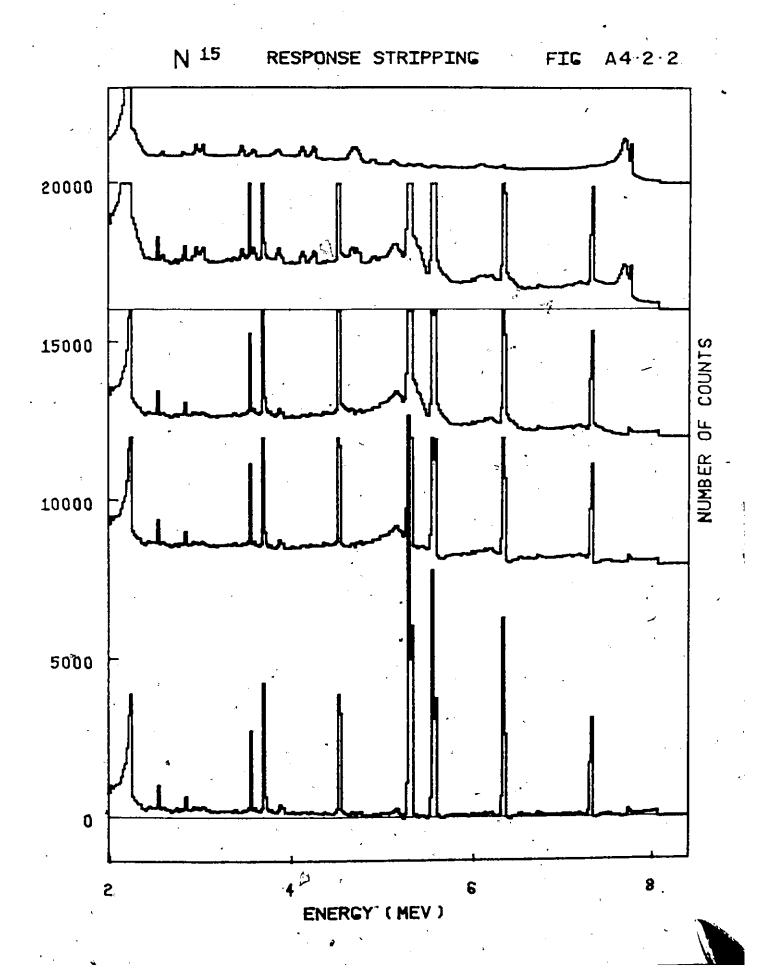


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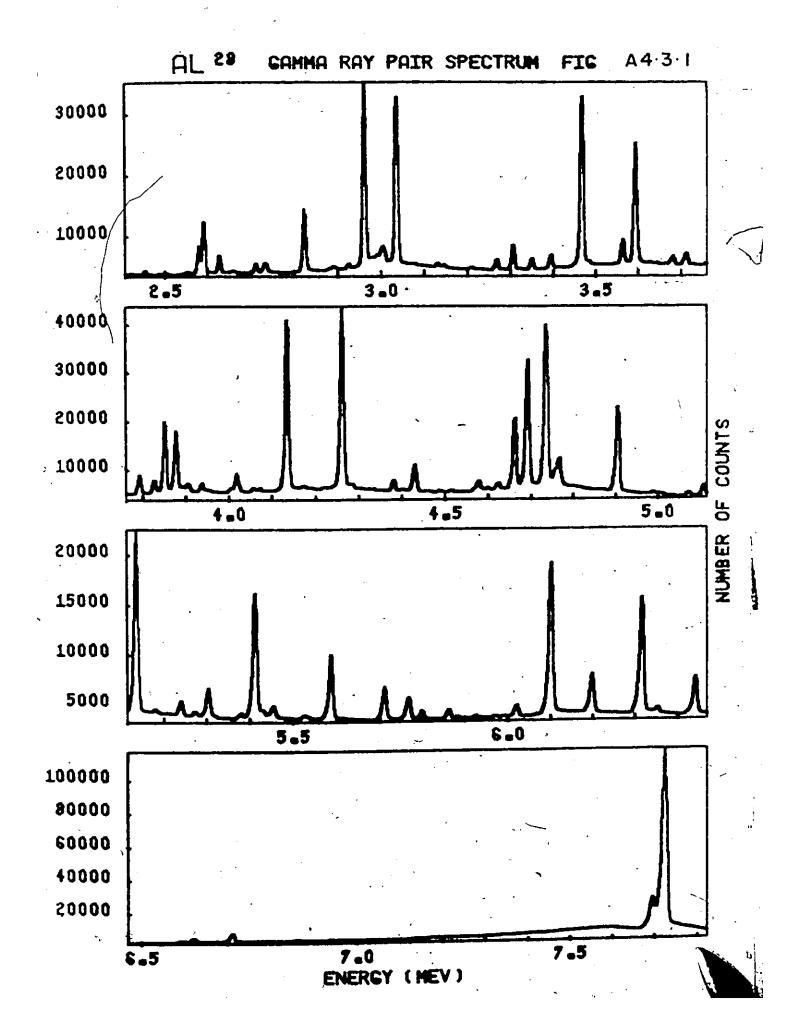
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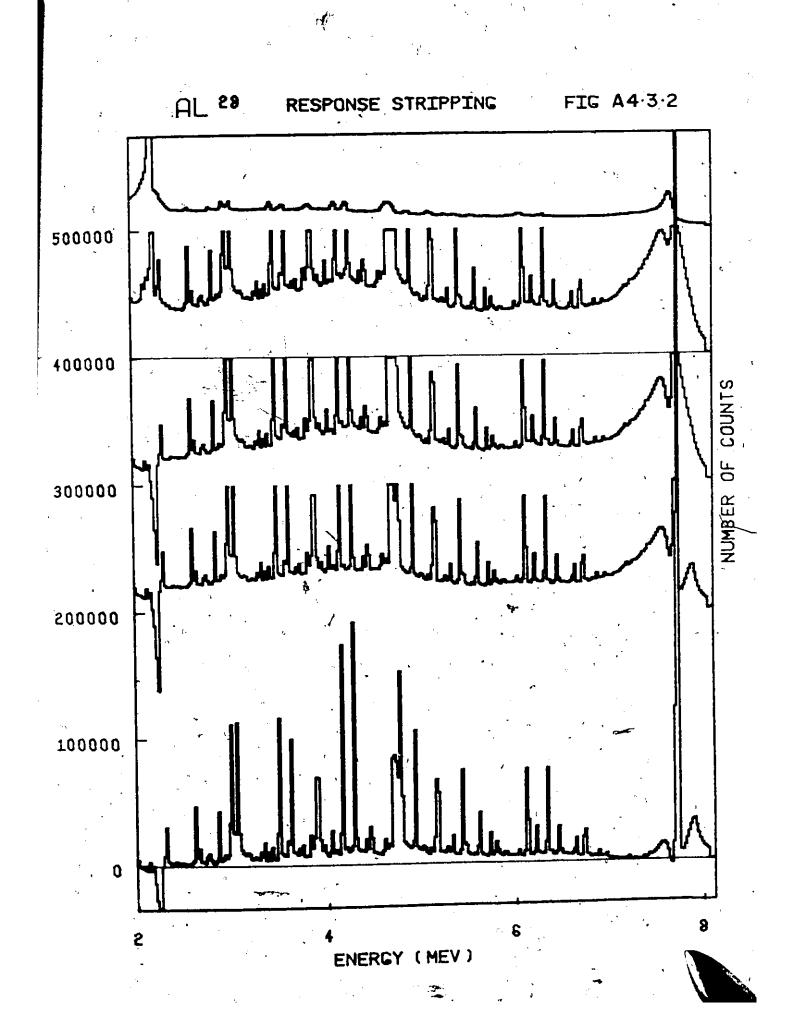
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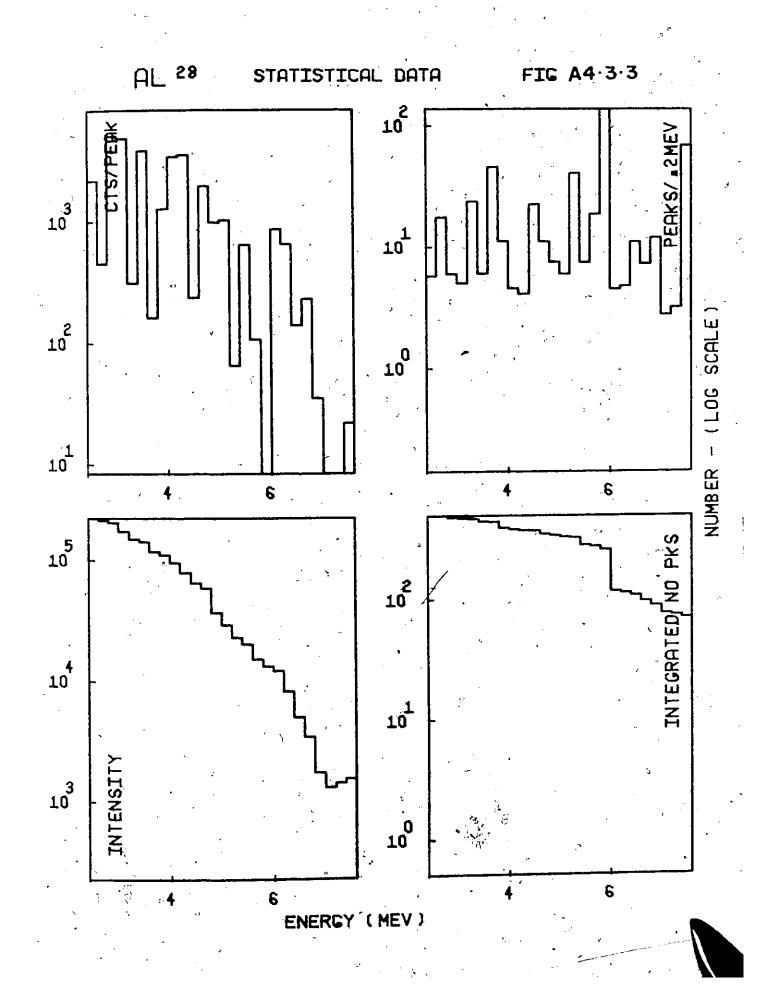
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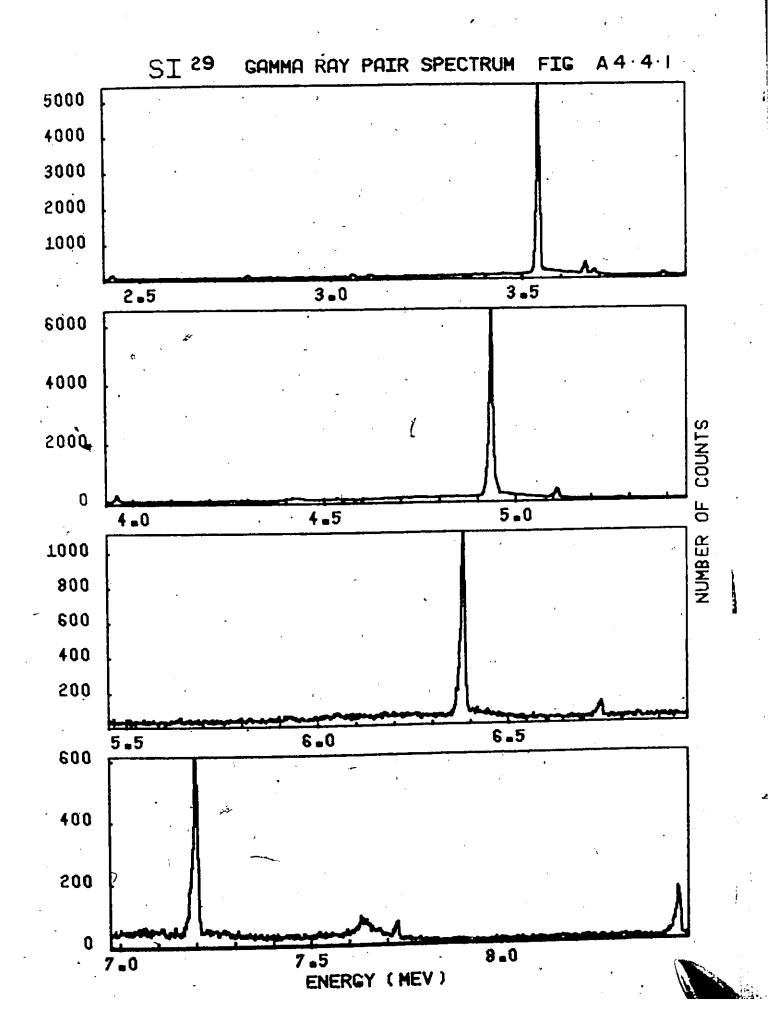
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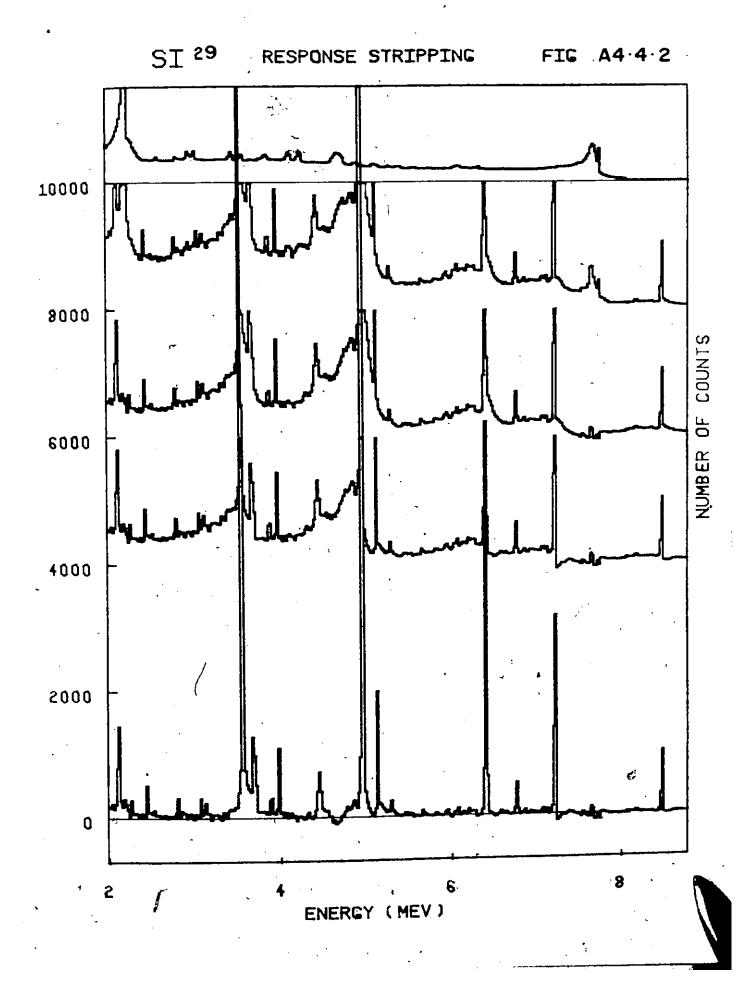


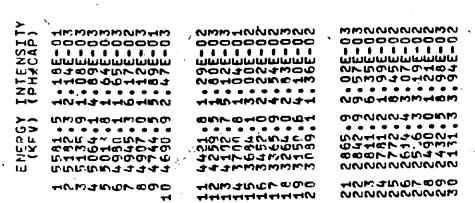




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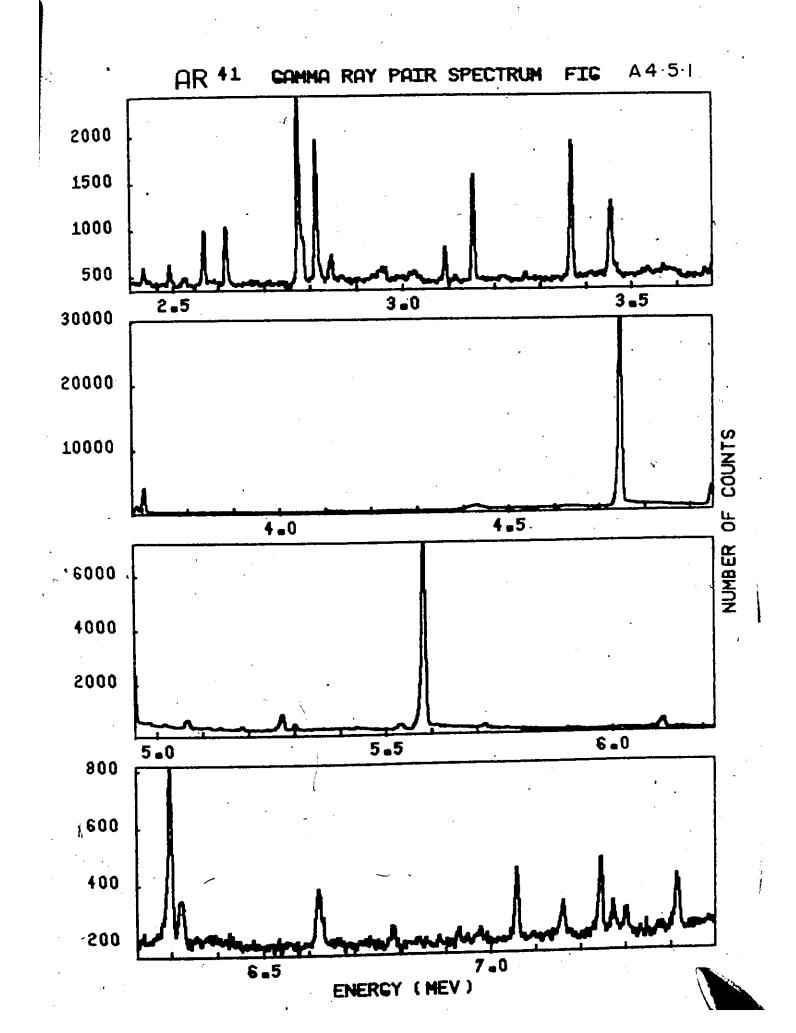
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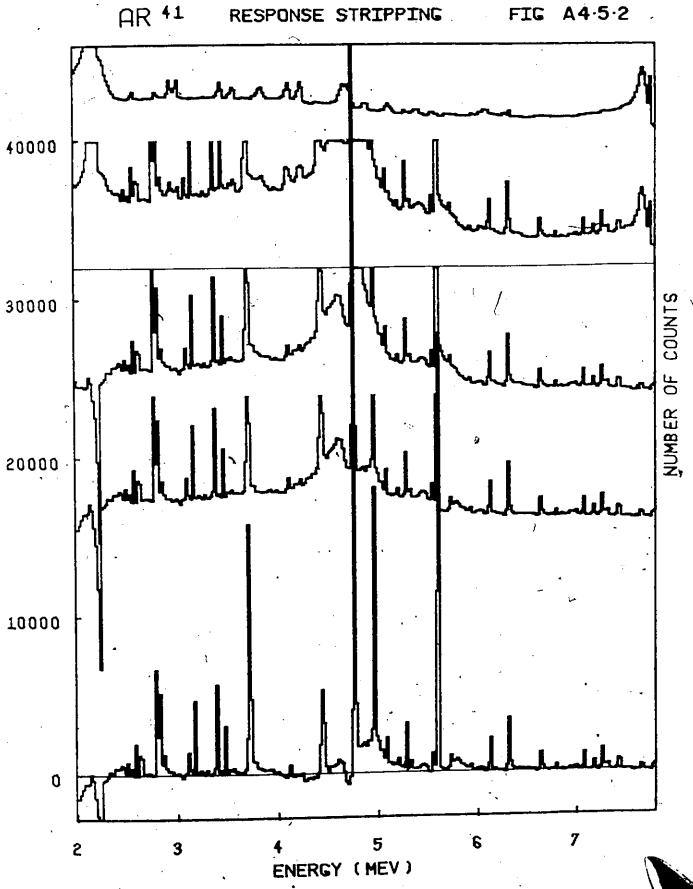
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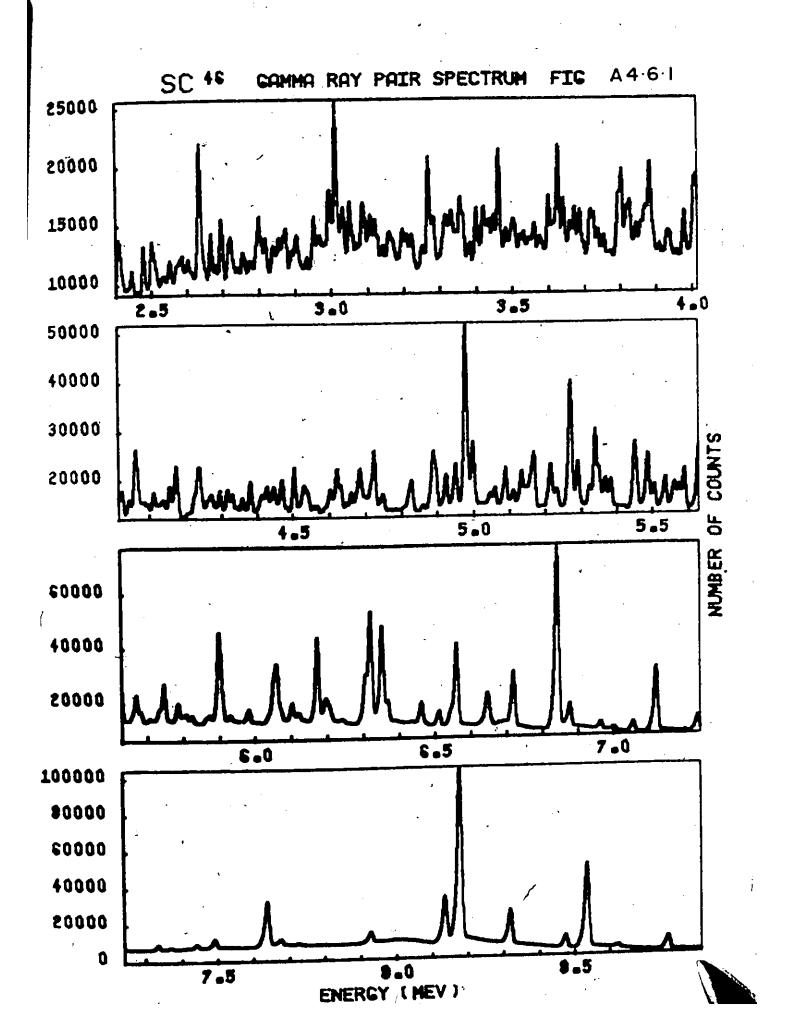
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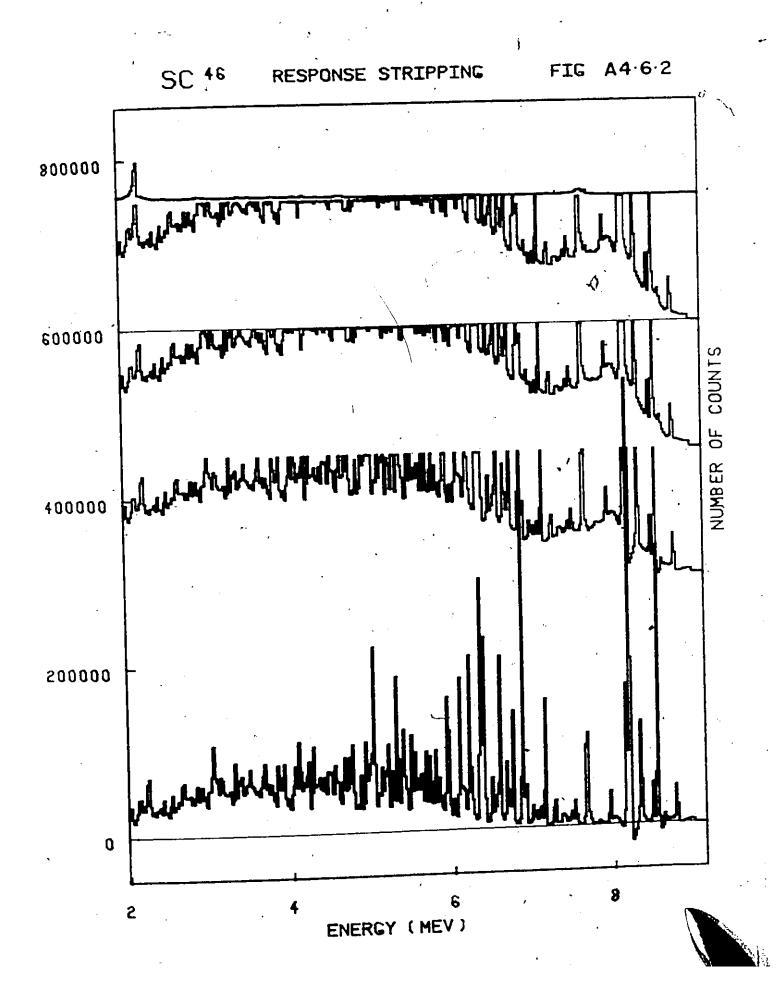
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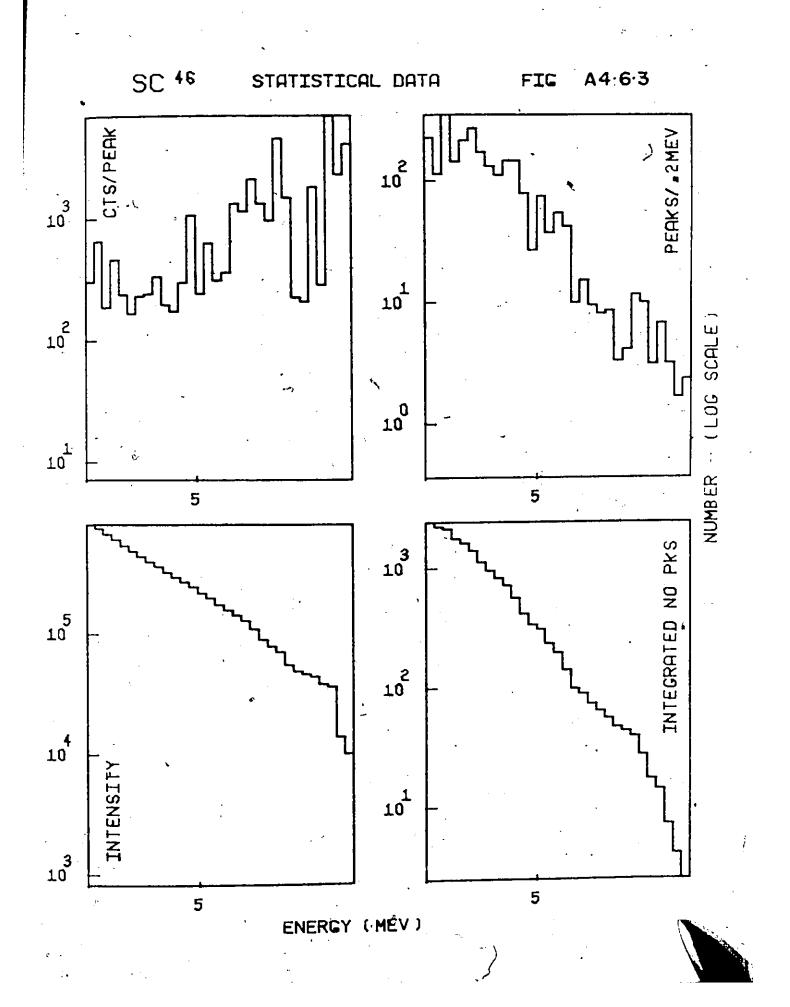
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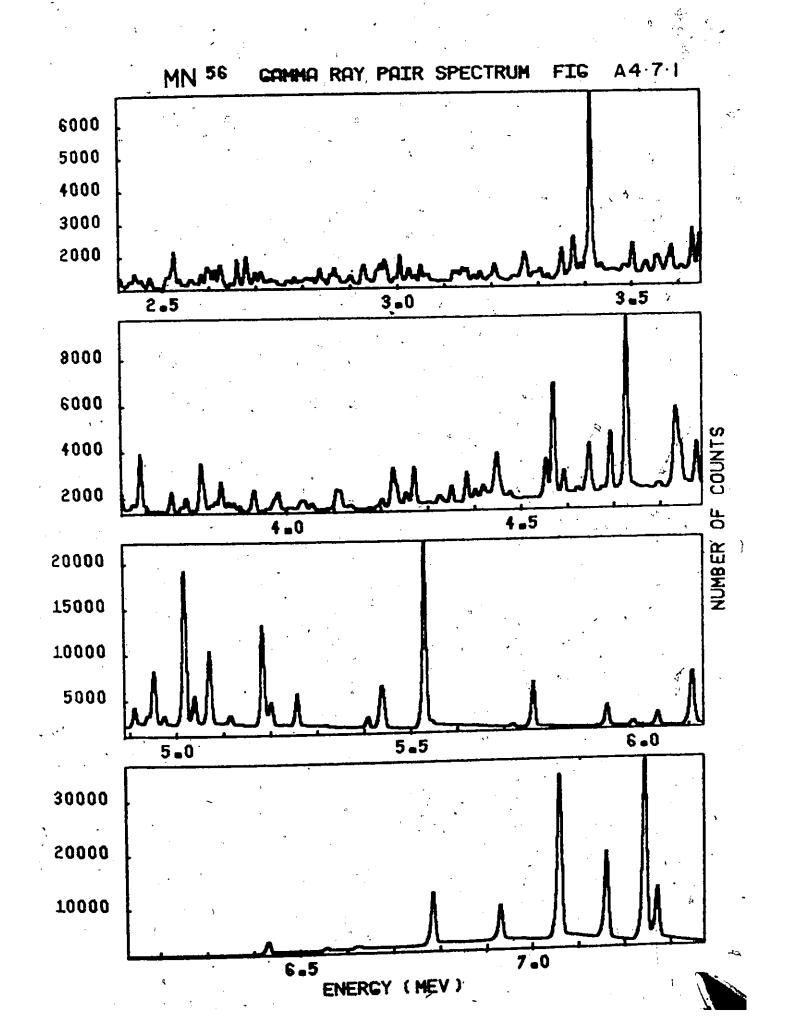
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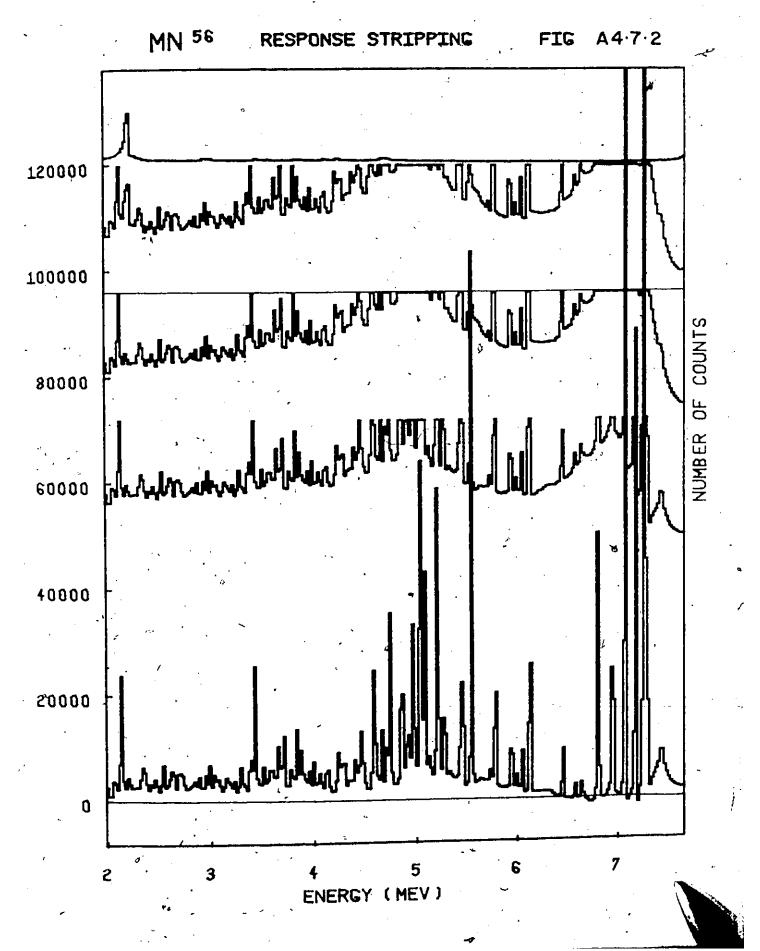
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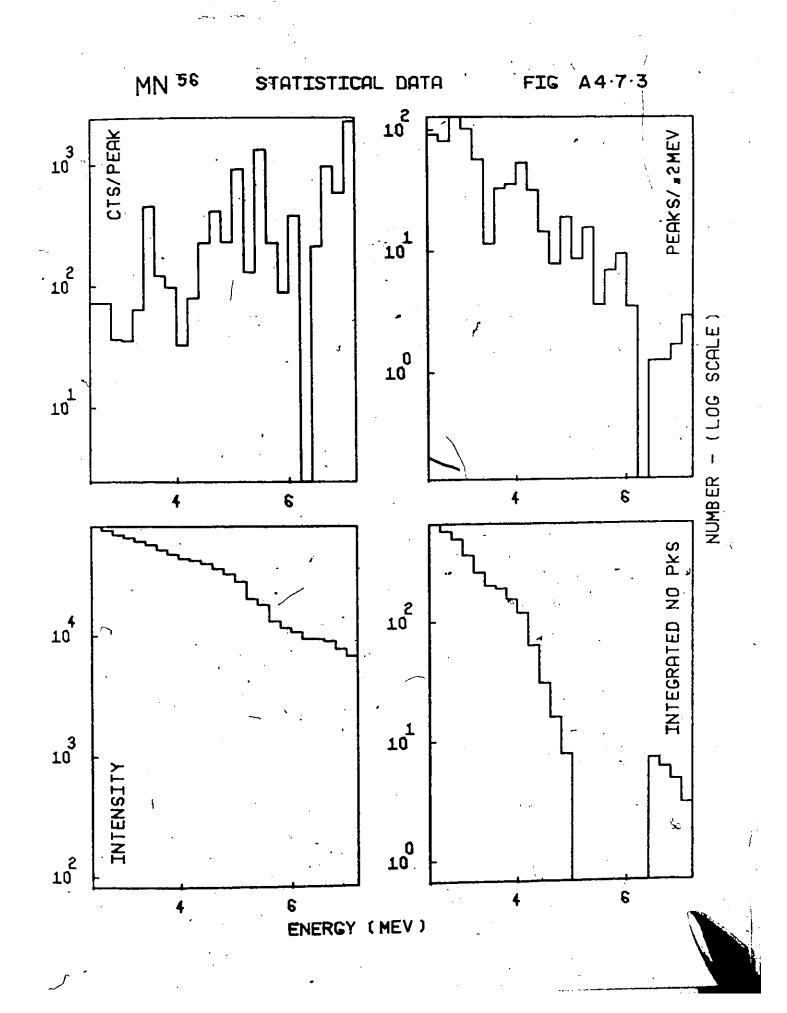
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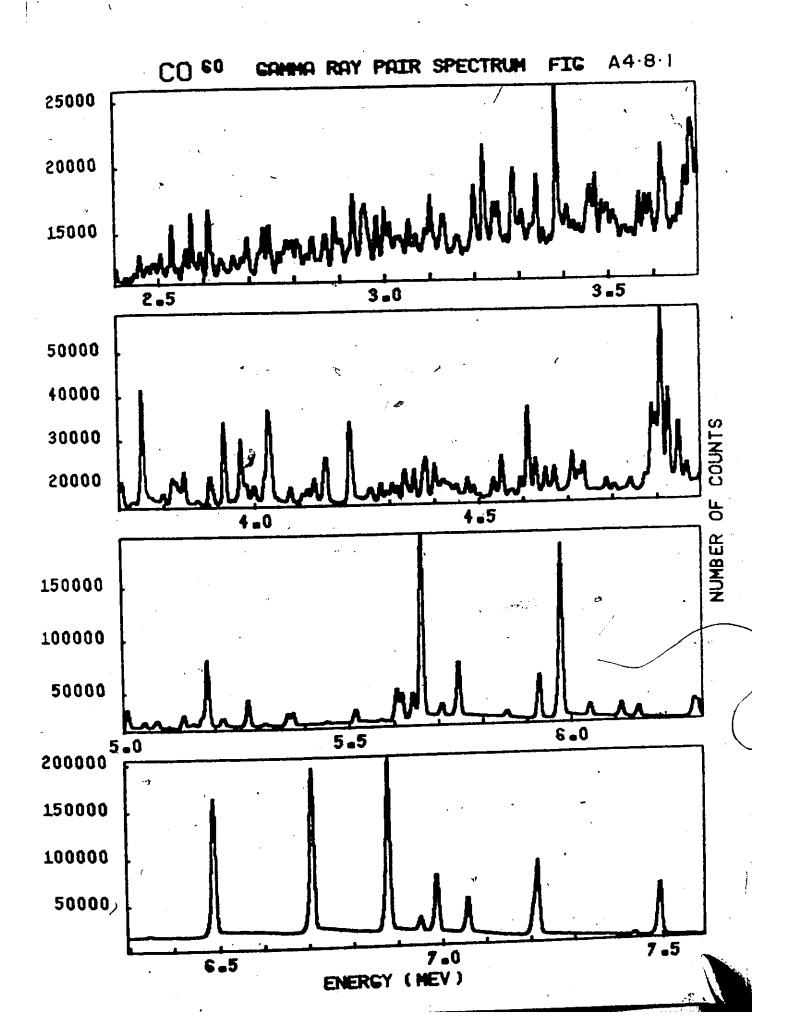
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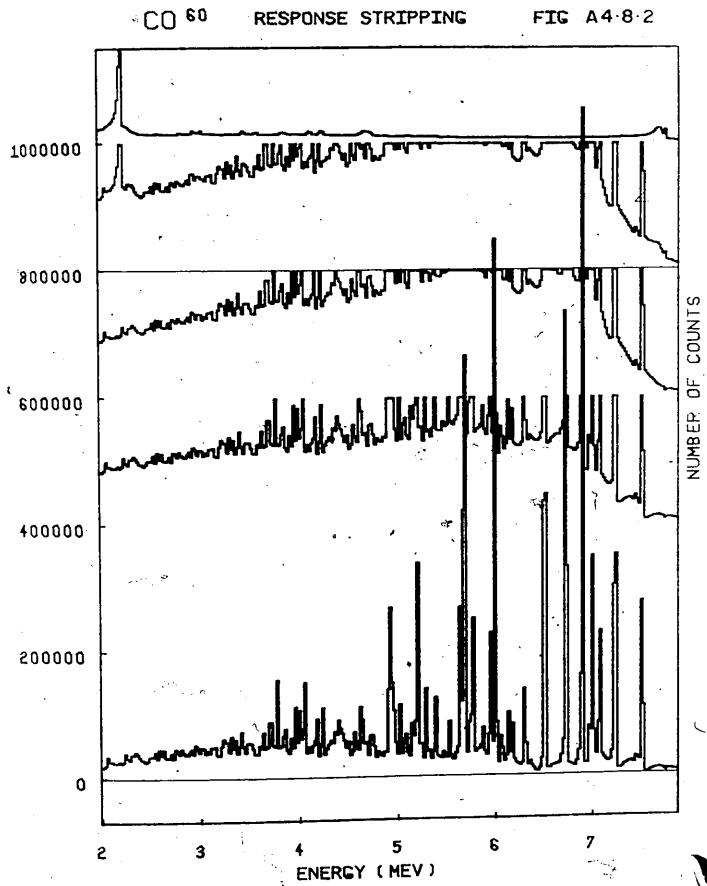
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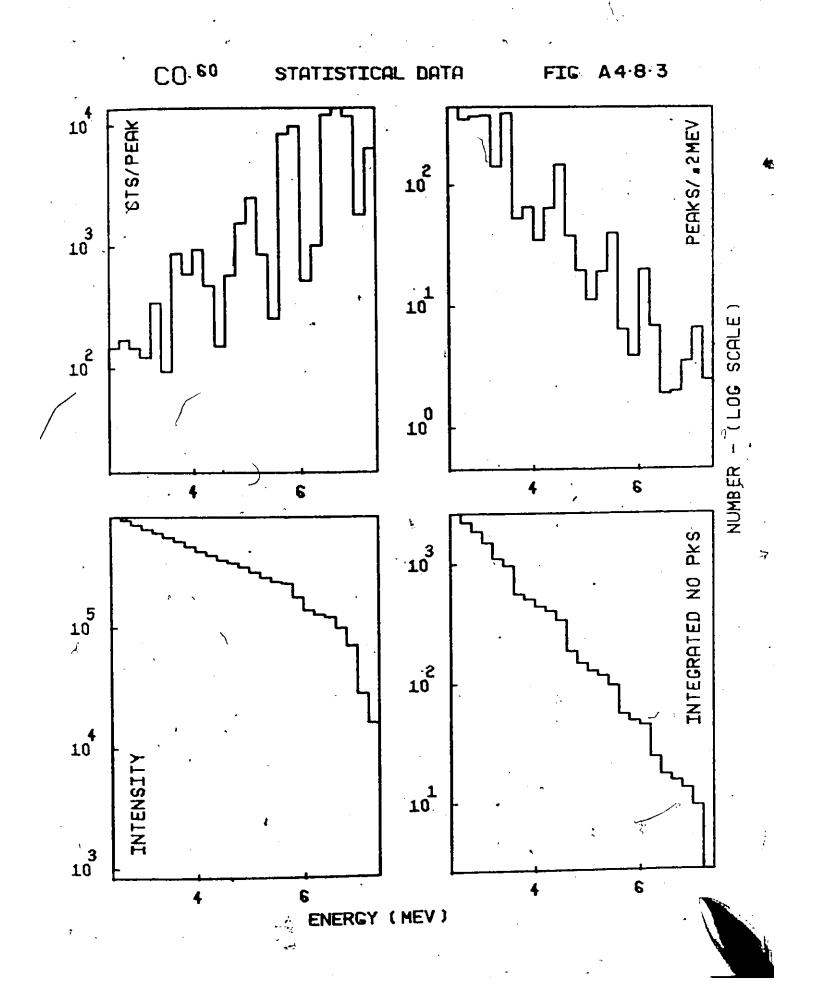
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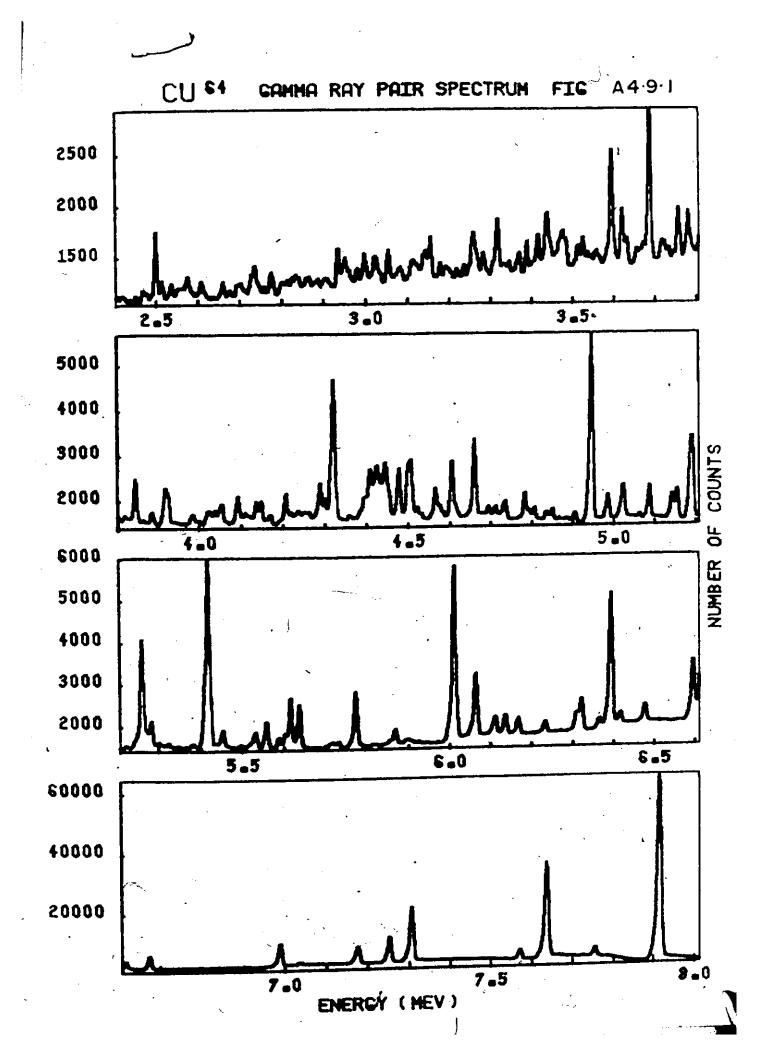
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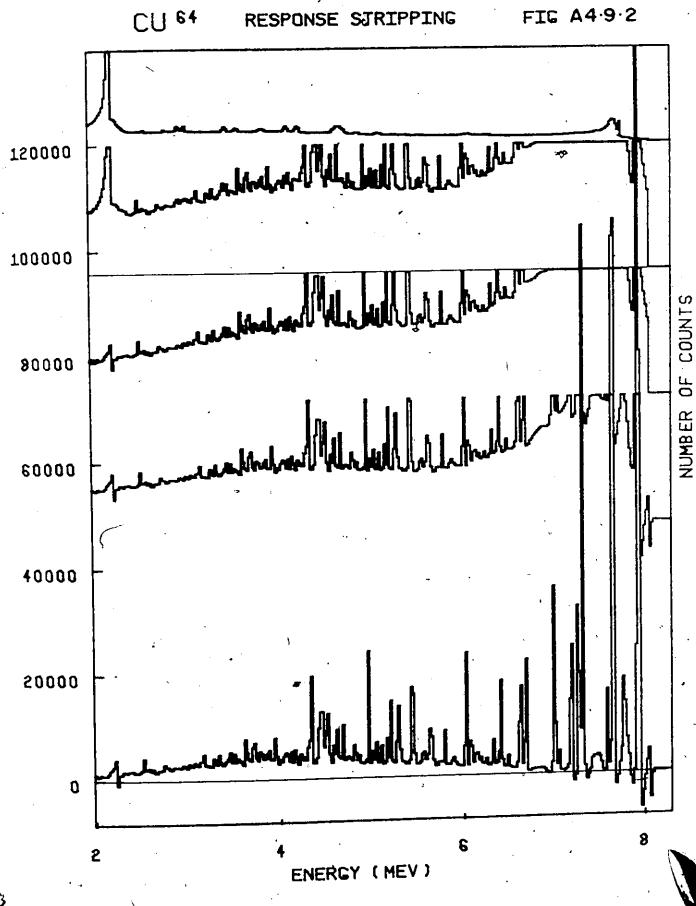
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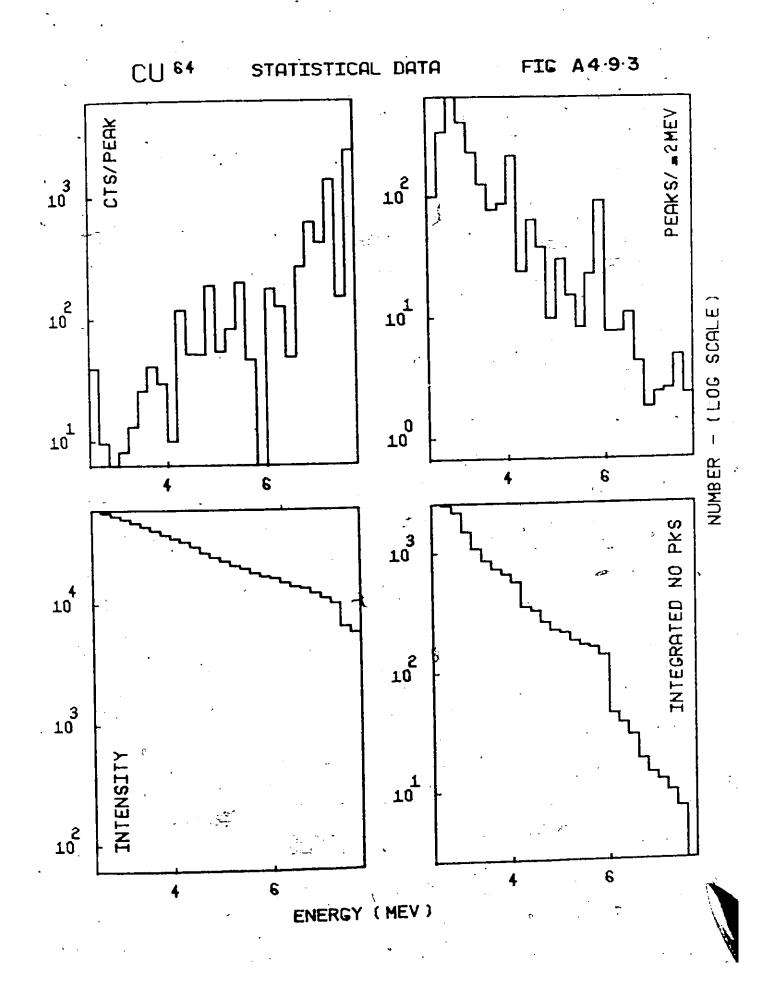
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|             | <b>えこでみららてののつ</b><br>ここここここここのです<br>ままれれれれれれれ  | 4444444444<br>808888888<br>4083888888                                     | 4444444444<br>333334444444<br>40193006000                            | 444444444<br>1999,999,999<br>1999,999,999<br>1999,999,999   |
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**TABLE A4.10** \* \* \* \* 76 AS \*\*\*\*

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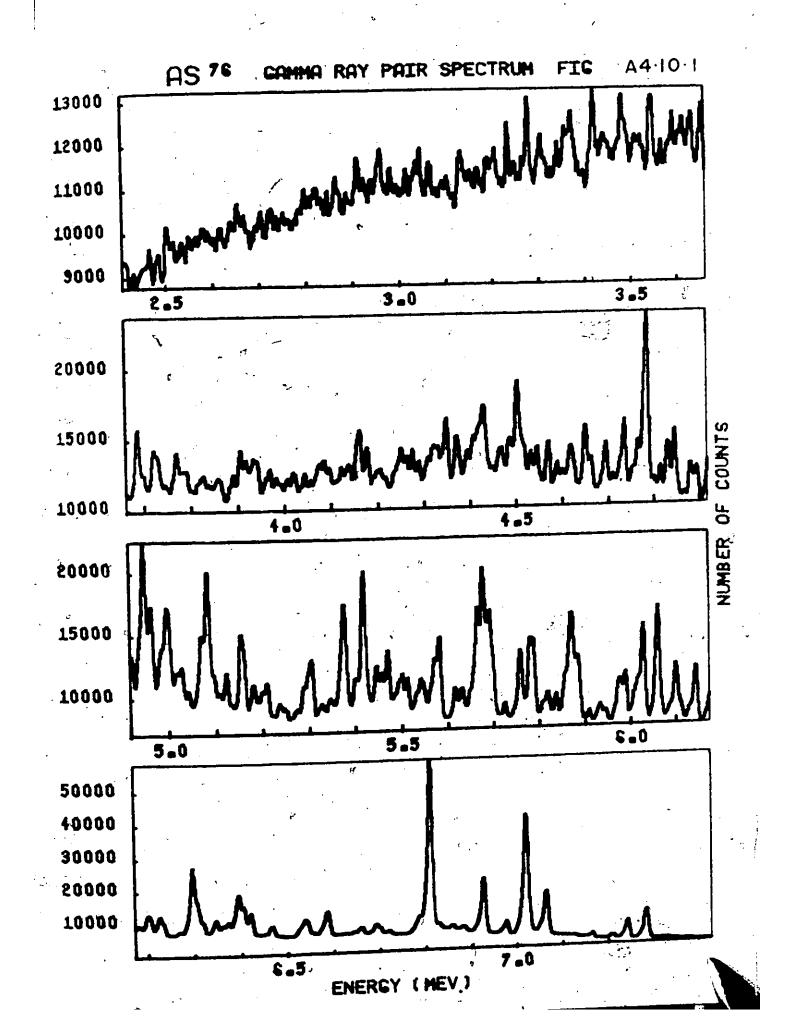
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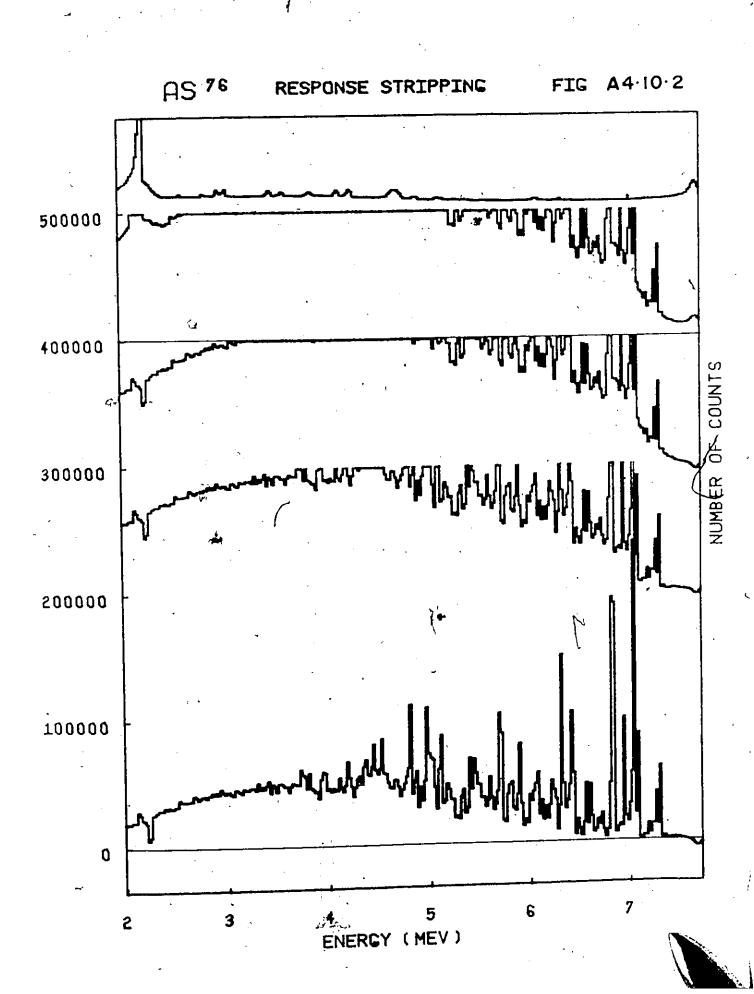
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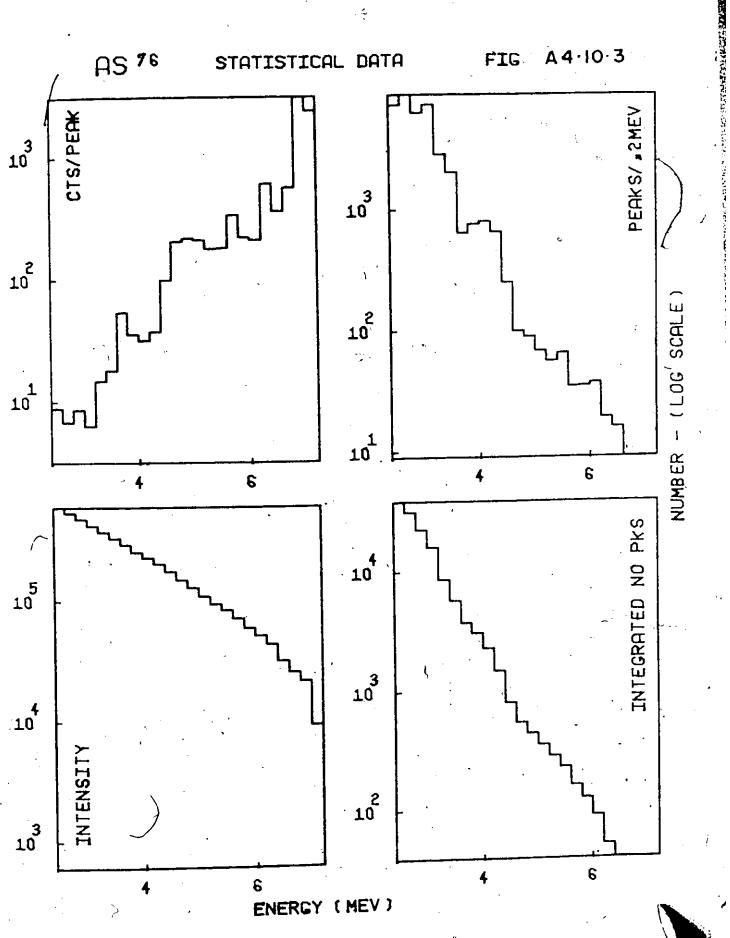
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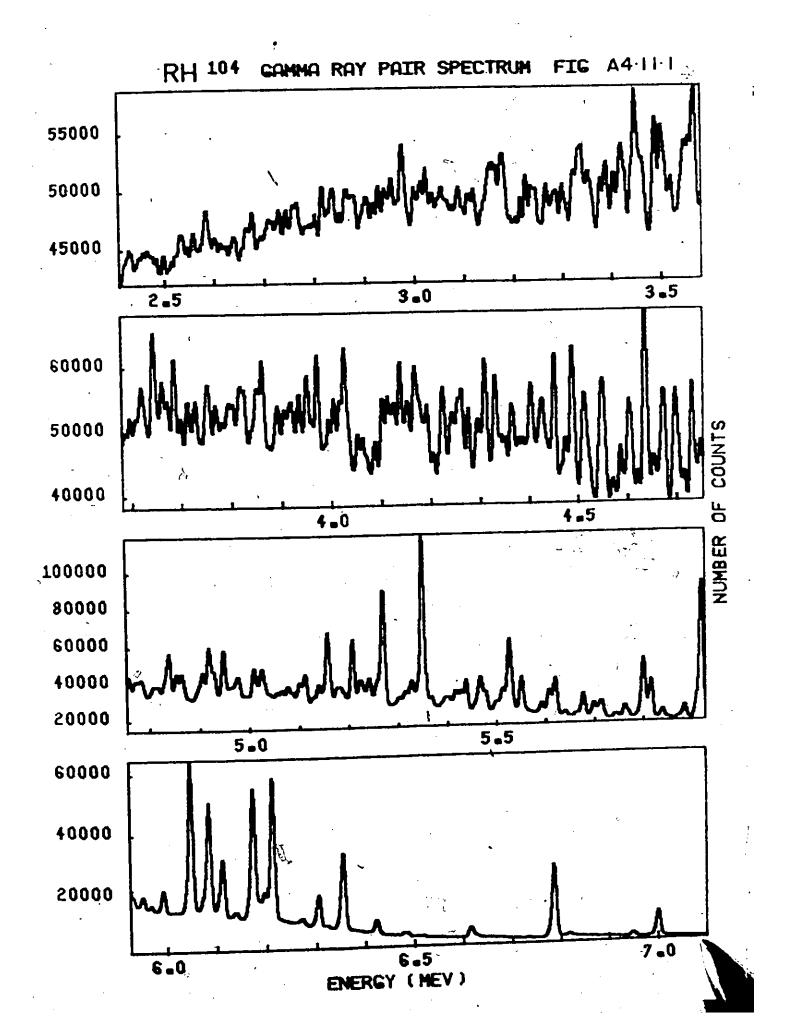
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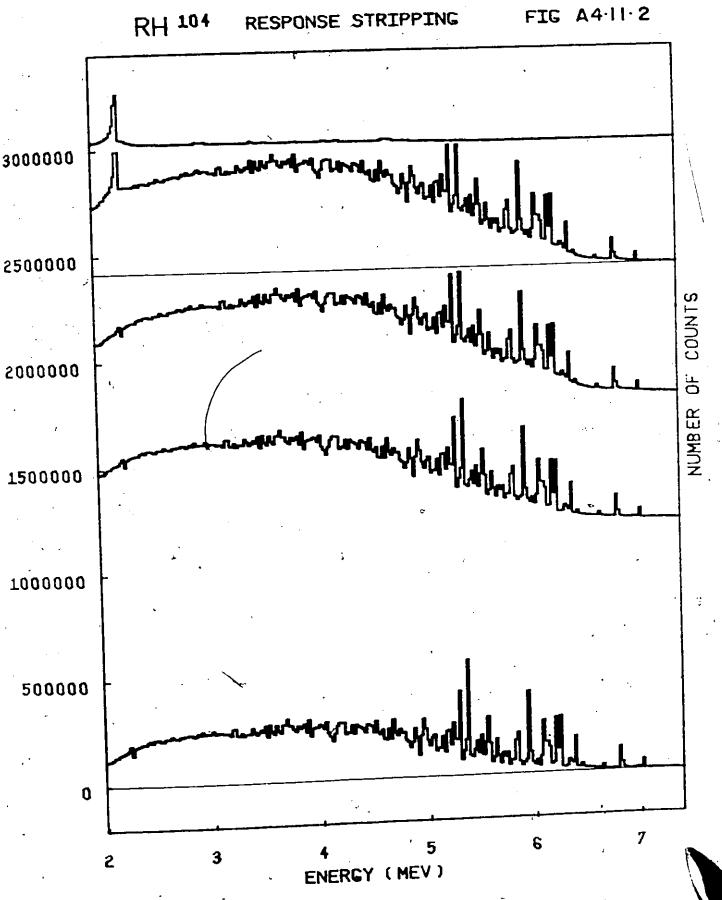
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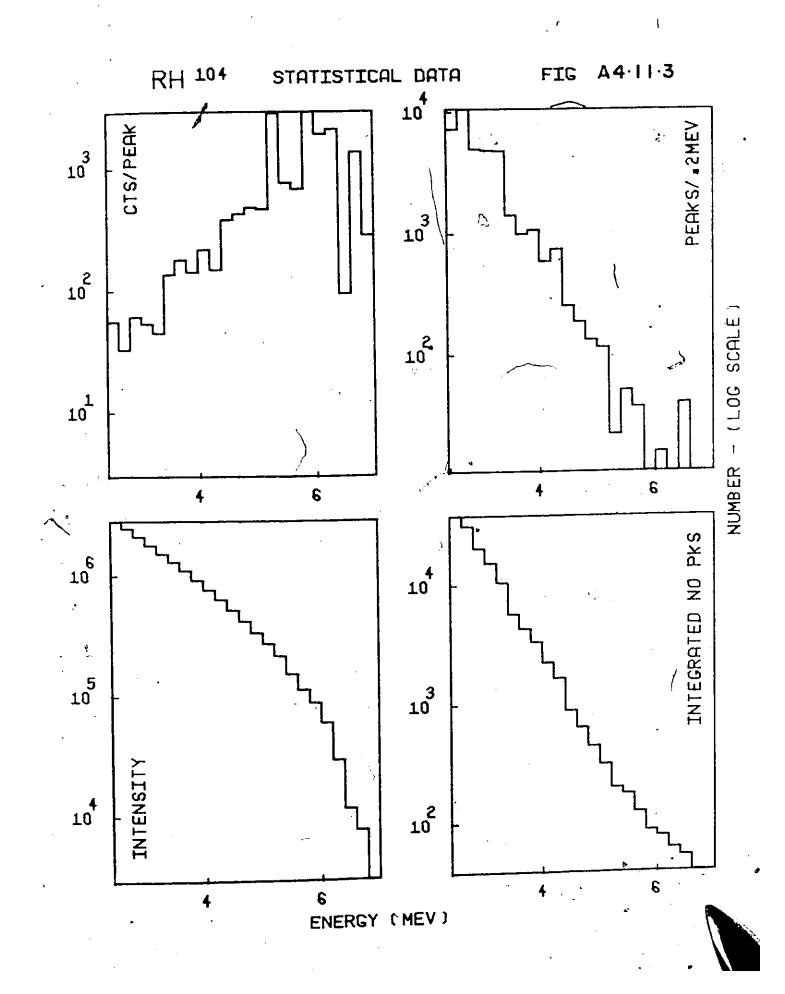
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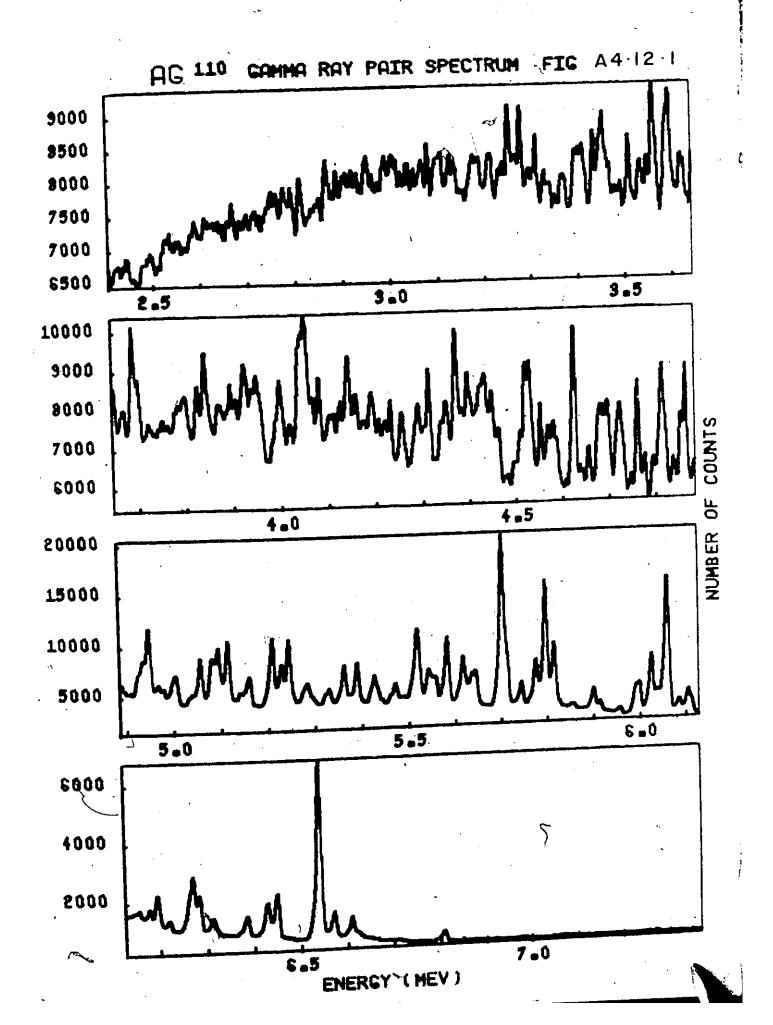
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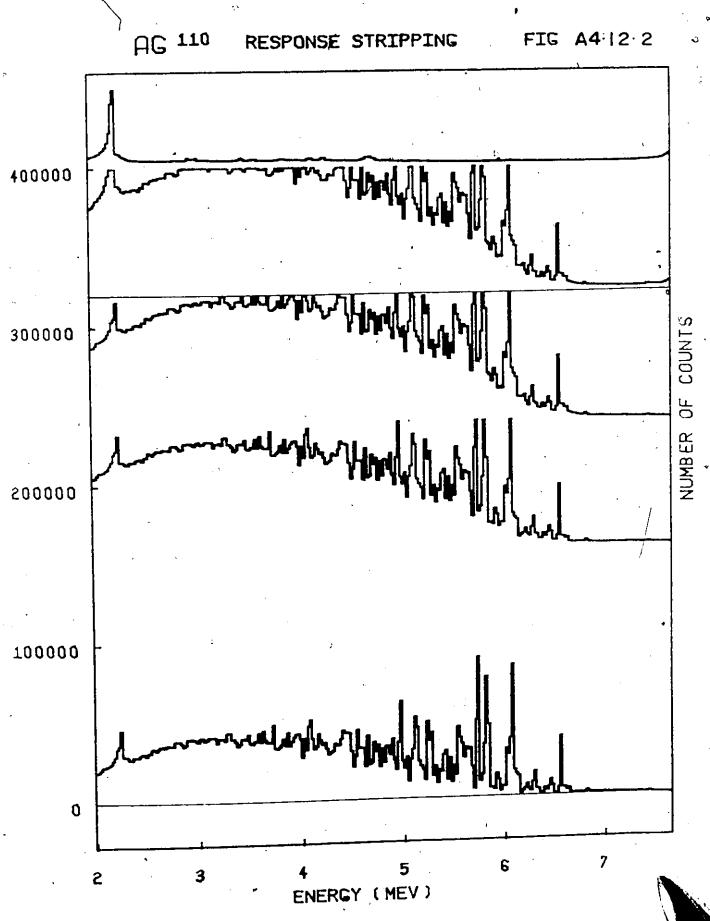
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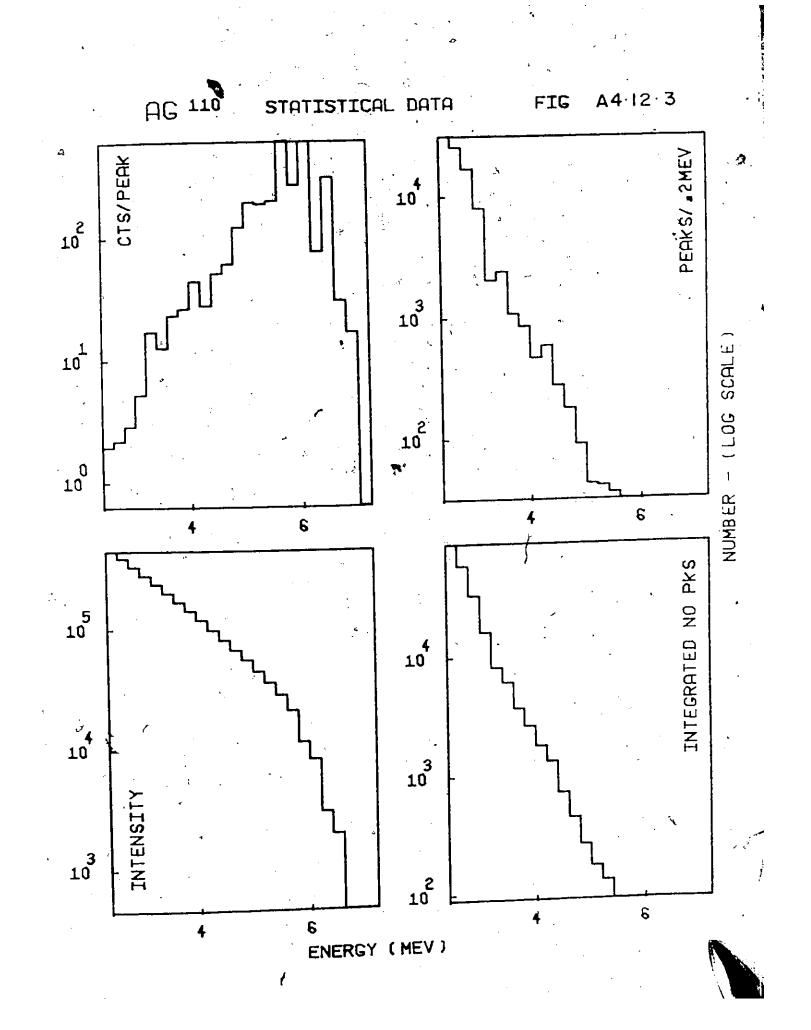
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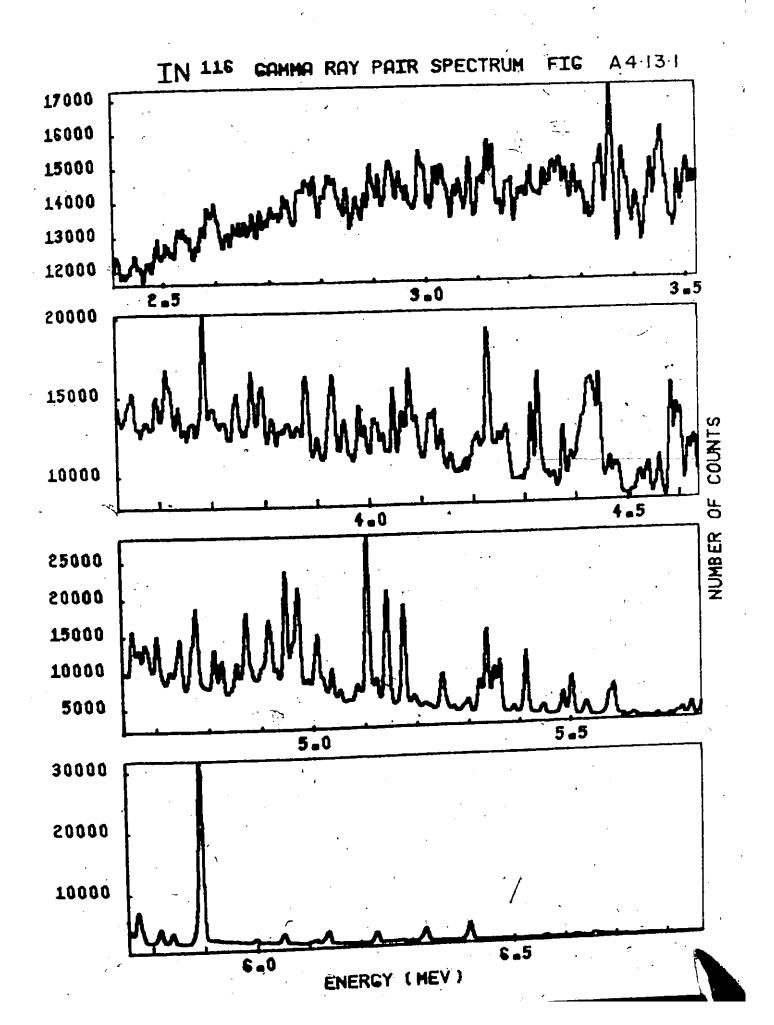
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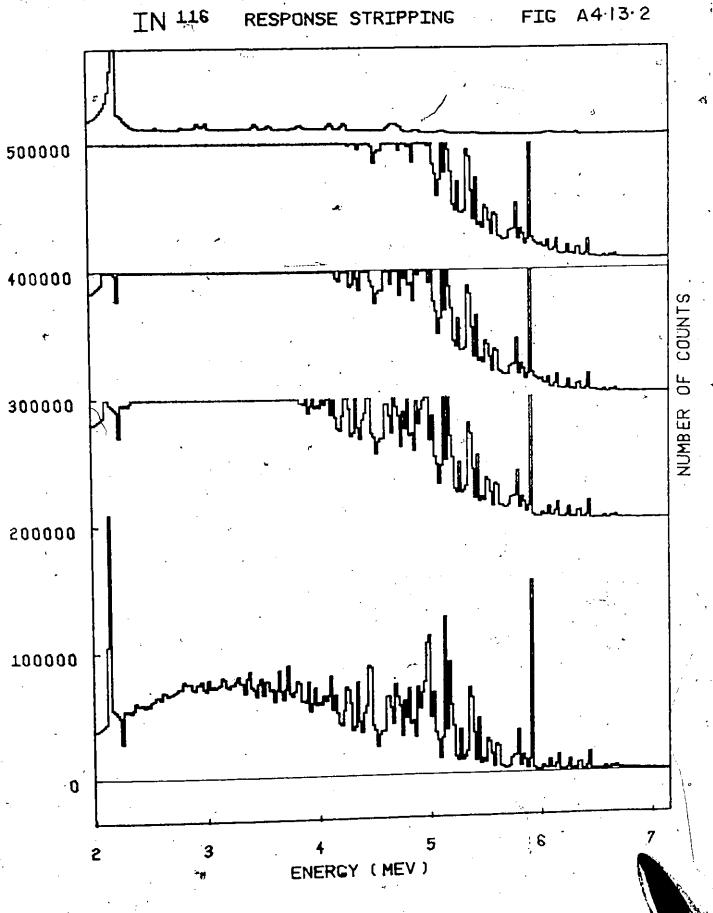
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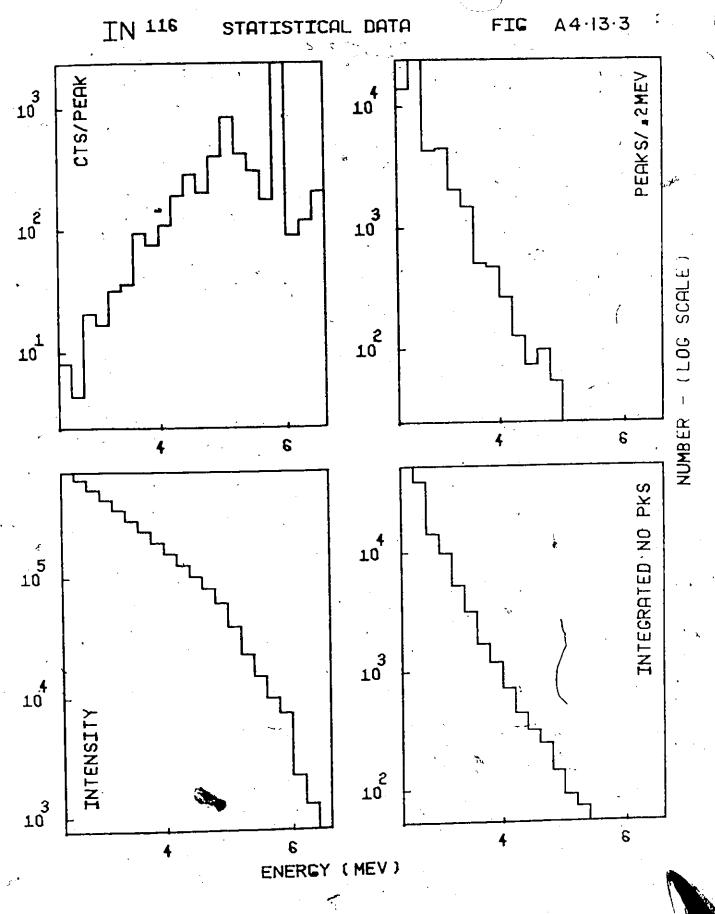
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A4.13.2 RESPONSE STRIPPING FIG

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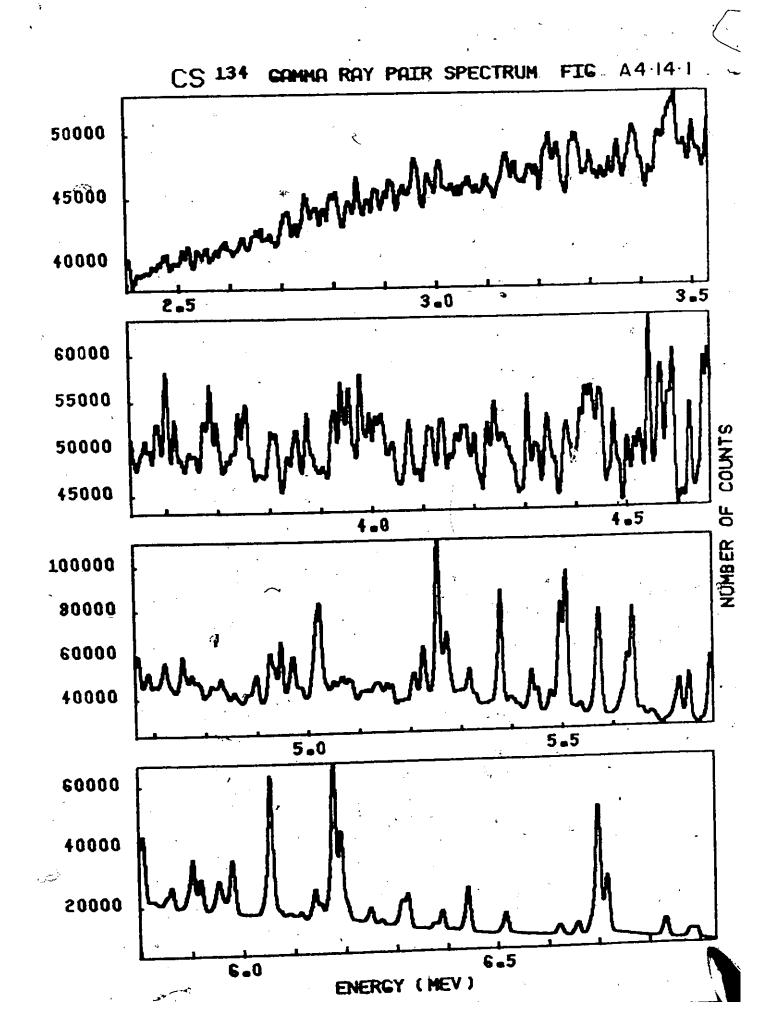
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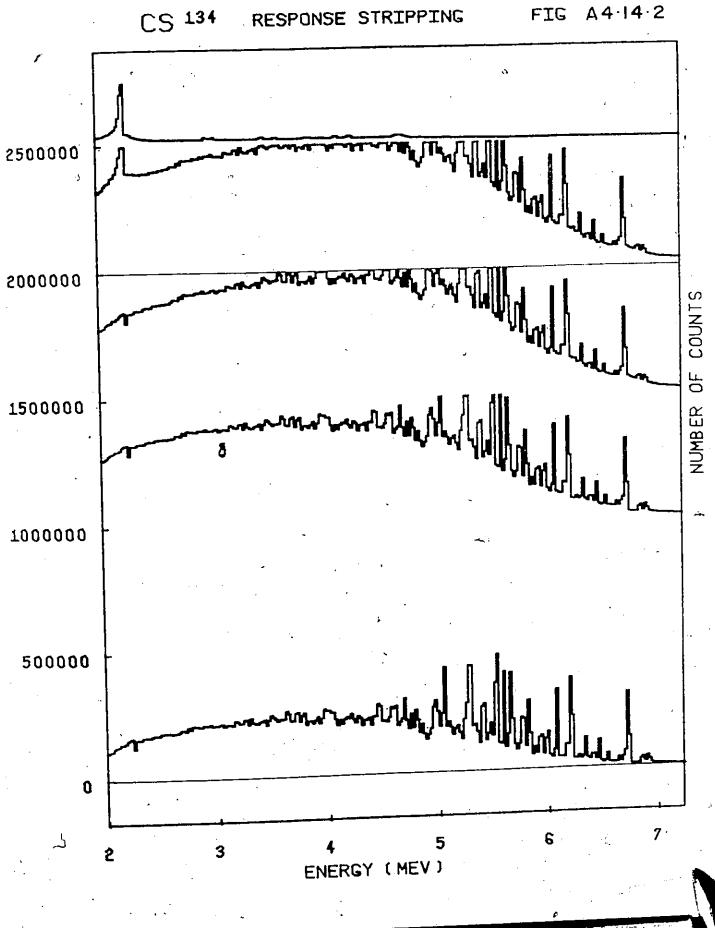
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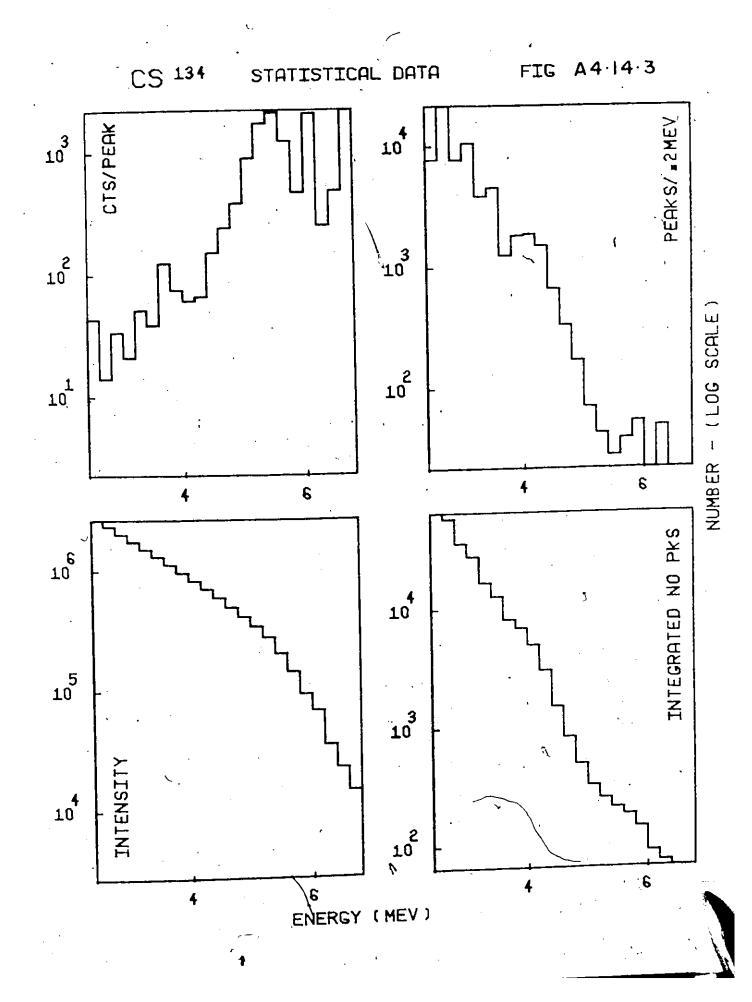
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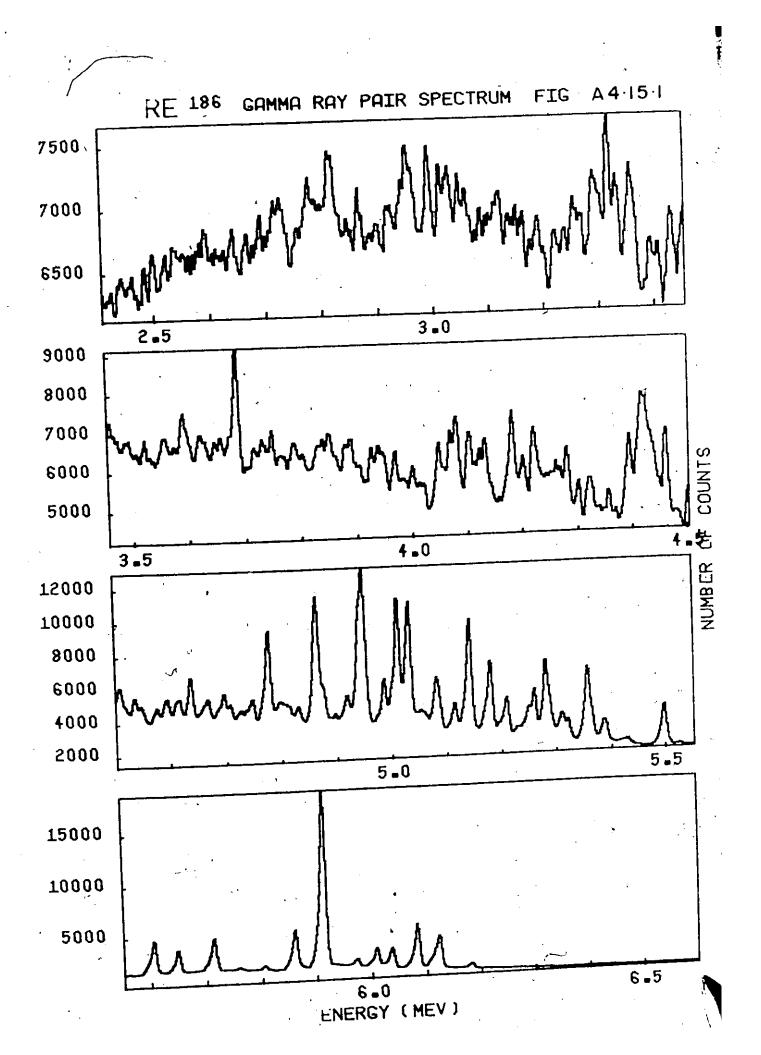
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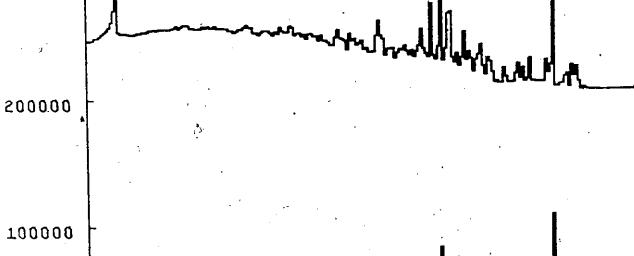
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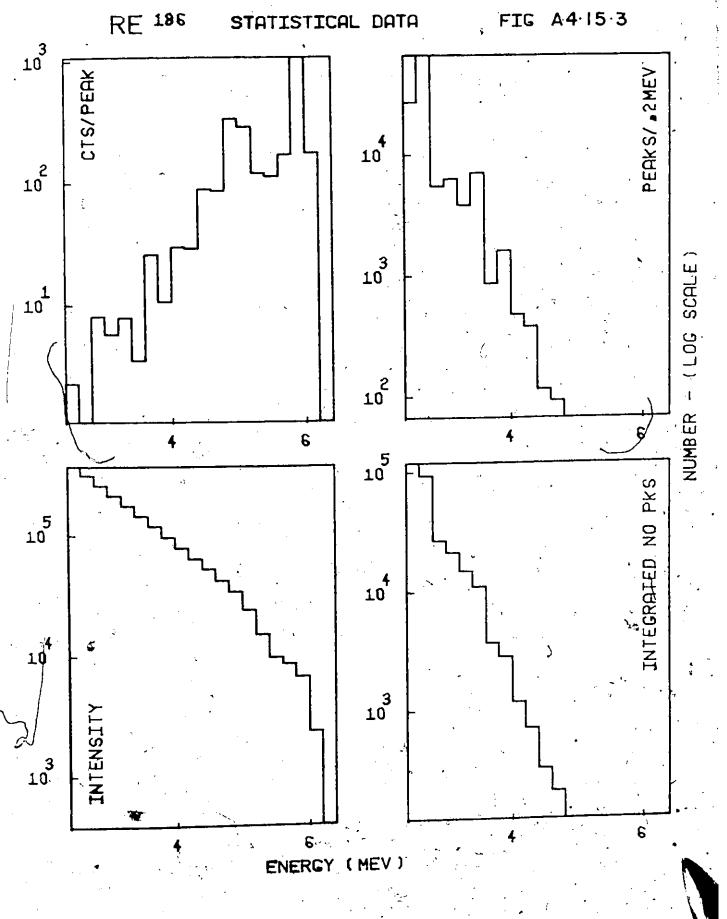


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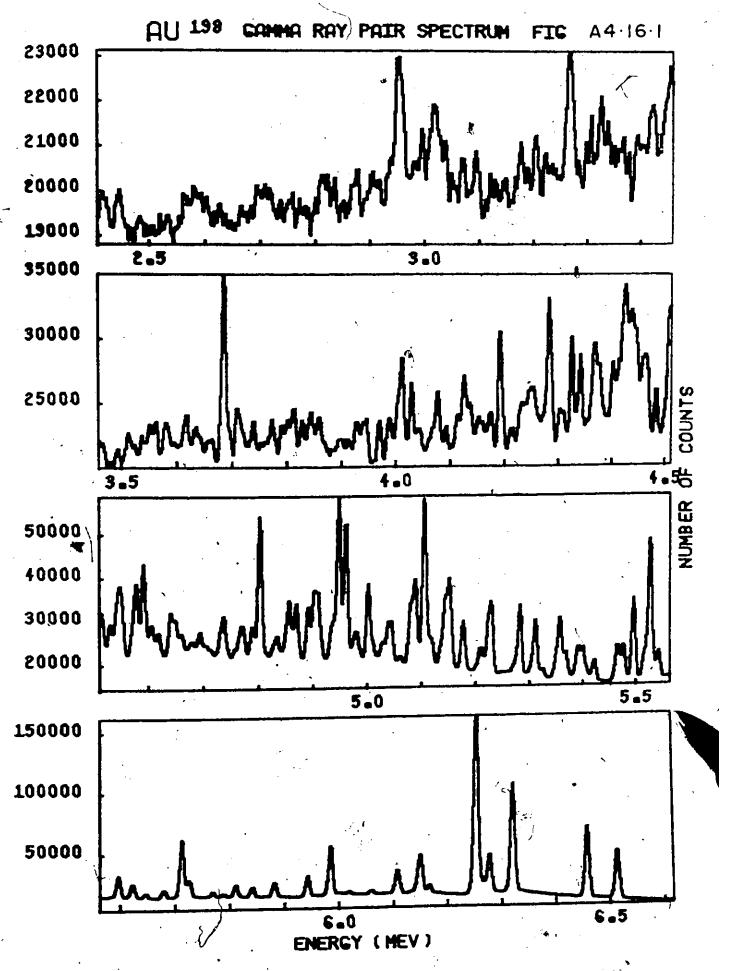
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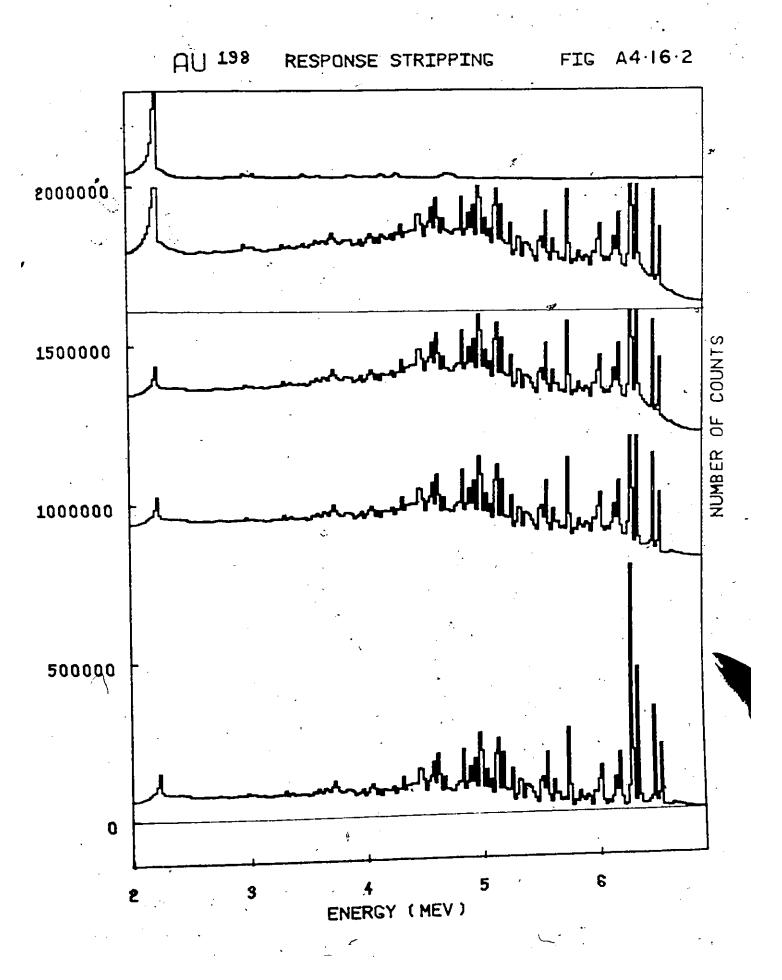
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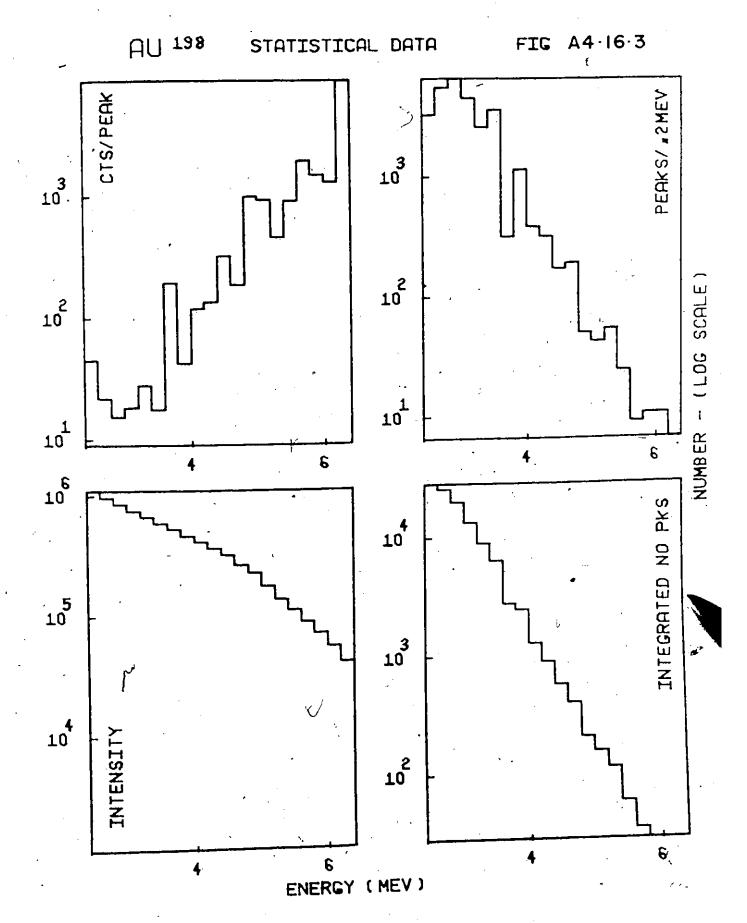
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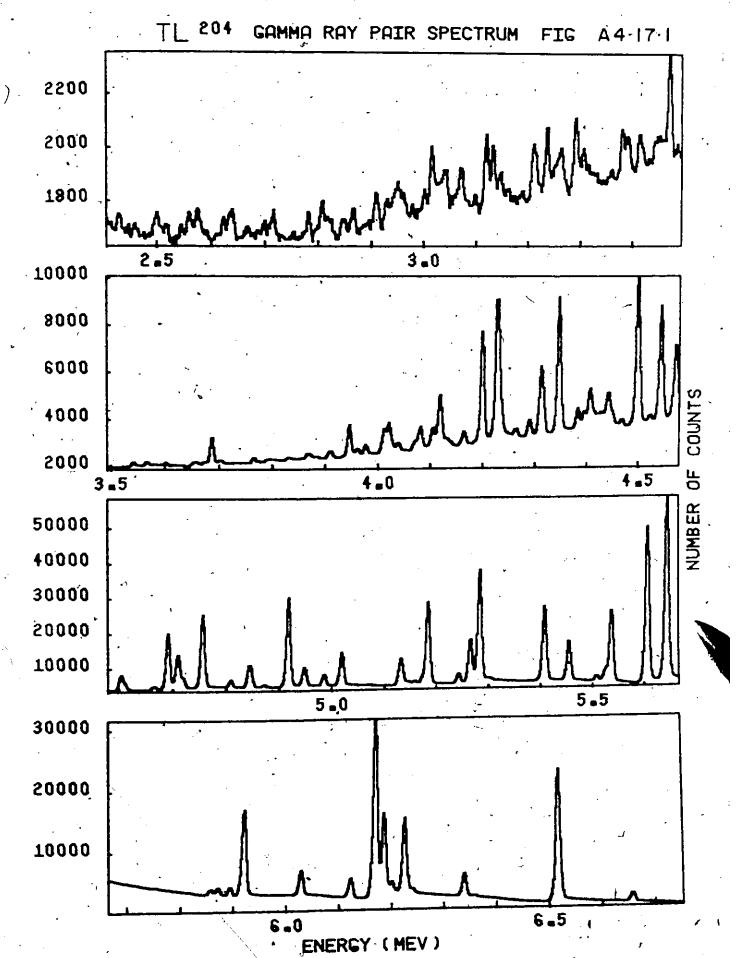
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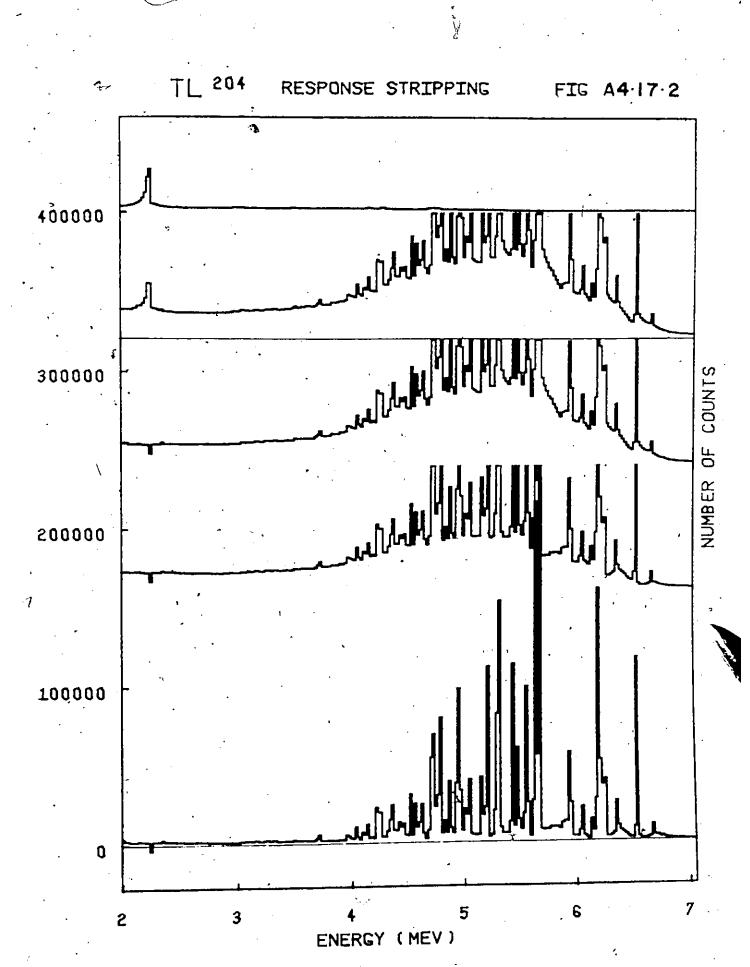
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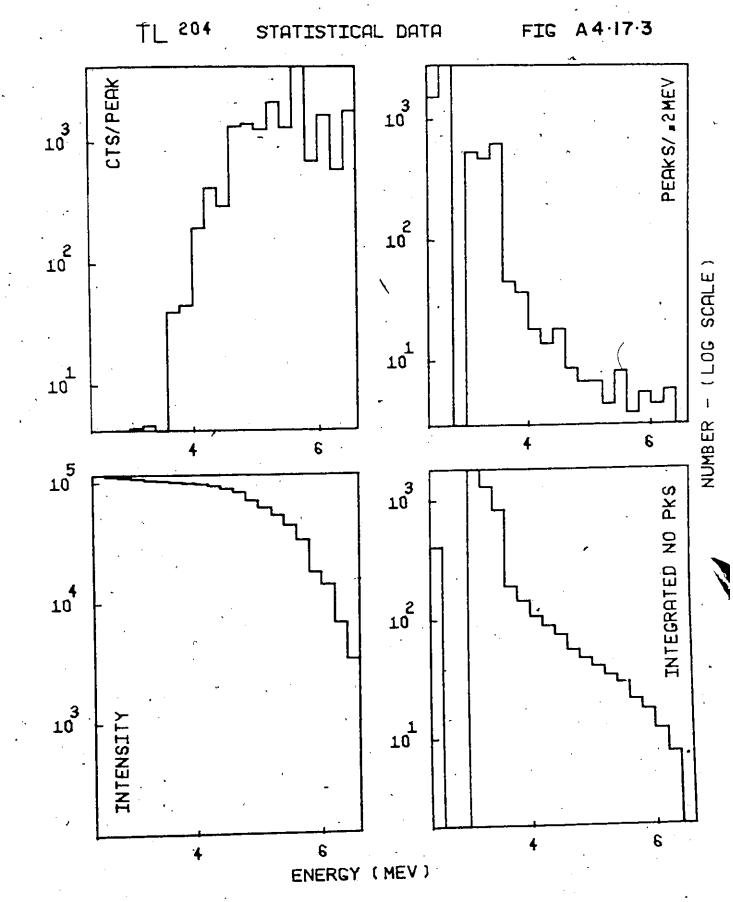
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