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Project 2.2

GAMMA RATE VERSUS TIME

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Issuance Date: February 24, 1959

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(14) NA
(15) NA
(16) NA
(17) NA
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(6) USA (19) WT---913

OPERATION CASTLE---PROJECT 2.2

Report to the Scientific Director

(1) GAMMA RATE VERSUS TIME (U)

(10) by Peter Brown and
Gerald Carp.

U. S. Army Signal Engineering
Laboratories
Fort Monmouth, N. J.

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GENERAL SHOT INFORMATION

	Shot 1	Shot 2	Shot 3	Shot 4	Shot 5	Shot 6
DATE	1 March	27 March	7 April	26 April	5 May	14 May
CODE NAME (Unclassified)	Bravo	Romeo	Koon	Union	Yankee	Nectar
TIME*	06:40	06:25	06:15	06:05	06:05	06:15
LOCATION	Bikini, West of Charlie (Namu) on Reef	Bikini, Shot 1 Crater	Bikini, Tare (Eninman)	Bikini, on Barge at Intersection of Arcs with Radii of 6900' from Dog (Yurochi) and 3 Statute Miles from Fox (Aomoen).		Eniwetok, IVY Mike Crater, Flora (Elugelab)
TYPE	Land	Barge	Land	Barge	Barge	Barge
HOLMES & NARVER COORDINATES	N 170,617.17 E 76,163.98	N 170,635.05 E 75,950.46	N 100,154.50 E 109,799.00	N 161,698.83 E 116,800.27	N 161,424.43 E 116,688,15	N 147,750.00 E 67,790.00

* APPROXIMATE

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ABSTRACT

The objective of Project 2.2 was to measure initial- and residual-gamma rates as a function of time at various distances from high-yield thermonuclear detonations.

Initial-gamma rate versus time was measured at fixed distances from ground zero. In particular, measurements were made of the effect on initial-gamma rate caused by the passage of the shock front from ground zero through the detector station.

Residual-gamma rate versus time was measured to provide gamma-radiation time-intensity data, which give information both on fallout rate of arrival and gamma-field-decay rate during the 36-hour period after the detonation.

Scintillation detectors were used in making measurements. The instrument stations were self-contained---the only outside facilities required were timing signals to turn on the stations at a predetermined time prior to the detonation.

Data obtained indicate that the expanding fireball and the passage of the shock front from ground zero through the detector station had a marked effect on the initial-gamma rate---hence on the integrated exposure. The initial-gamma rate reached its first peak immediately after the detonation, decreased slowly, began to rise slowly, and then increased rapidly to a second peak (which was about the same value as the first peak). After reaching the second-peak value, the initial-gamma rate decreased rapidly to zero.

The slow decrease in initial-gamma rate was attributed to the natural decay of the fission products; the slow rise, to the expanding of the fireball and approach of the shock front; and the rapid increase, to the passage of the shock front through the detector station. These effects were also evidenced in the integrated exposure both prior and subsequent to the arrival of the shock front. The average velocity of the shock front was found to decrease rapidly with distance from ground zero.

The decay exponent from the residual contamination and fallout varied with distance and direction from ground zero, and its absolute value increased rather abruptly several hours after the detonation. This abrupt increase is attributable to the presence of short-lived isotopes in the residual contamination and fallout.

The measurements made by Project 2.2 of initial-gamma radiation exposures from thermonuclear devices of high yield are in good agreement with data from "The Nuclear Radiation Handbook," AFSWP 1100, (Reference 9) (see Figure 4.1).

It appears that the initial-gamma radiation is of negligible significance, because blast and thermal effects in the same distance range are so great by comparison that survival would be possible only if personnel were disposed inside blast- and thermal-proof bunkers.

ABSTRACT

[redacted]

This report is one of the reports presenting the results of the 34 projects participating in the Military Effects Tests Program of Operation Castle, which included six test detonations. For readers interested in other pertinent test information, reference is made to WT-934, "Summary Report of the Commander, Task Unit 13, Programs 1-9," Military Effects Program. This summary report includes the following information of possible general interest: (1) an overall description of each detonation, including yield, height of burst, ground zero location, time of detonation, ambient atmospheric conditions at detonation, etc., for the six shots; (2) discussion of all project results; (3) a summary of each project, including objectives and results; (4) a complete listing of all reports covering the Military Effects Tests Program.

[redacted]

FOREWORD

This report is one of the reports presenting the results of the 34 projects participating in the Military Effects Tests Program of Operation Castle, which included six test detonations. For readers interested in other pertinent test information, reference is made to WT-934, "Summary Report of the Commander, Task Unit 13, Programs 1-9," Military Effects Program. This summary report includes the following information of possible general interest: (1) an overall description of each detonation, including yield, height of burst, ground zero location, time of detonation, ambient atmospheric conditions at detonation, etc., for the six shots; (2) discussion of all project results; (3) a summary of each project, including objectives and results; (4) a complete listing of all reports covering the Military Effects Tests Program.

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Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of Project 2.2 were to measure initial- and residual-gamma rates as a function of time at various distances from high-yield thermonuclear detonations.

Prior to Castle, little data had been obtained on the effect of the shock front from high-yield thermonuclear devices on gamma rate and gamma exposure. Project 2.2 was designed to make accurate determination of gamma rates and exposures to be expected at various times and distances from high-yield thermonuclear devices. Comparisons with data obtained from smaller-yield devices may lead to extrapolation factors that would permit more-accurate predictions of radiation levels and dosage over a wide range of yields.

Initial-gamma rate versus time was determined at various fixed distances from ground zero; particularly, the effect on initial-gamma rate caused by the passage of the shock front from ground zero through the detector station.

Residual-gamma rate versus time was measured to provide gamma-radiation time-intensity data, which give information both on fallout rate of arrival and gamma-field-decay rate during the 36-hour period after the detonation.

1.2 BACKGROUND

Predictions of the initial-gamma radiation from high-yield thermonuclear devices had previously been based on [illegible] relatively low-yield devices or from [illegible] Operation Ivy data (References 1 and 2). Operation Ivy [illegible] devices did not follow the relatively [illegible] devices. For devices up to 100 kt, [illegible] scales linearly with yield; for high-yield devices [illegible] radiation scales [illegible] yield. This [illegible] of initial-[illegible] radiation [illegible] ly to the hydrodynamic effect. The passage of the shock front from the detonation point through the detector station resulted in a [illegible]

of the absorption medium, and produced a consequent change in the shape of the gamma-rate-versus-time curves during this period.

1.3 THEORY

The gamma radiation emitted from a nuclear detonation may be divided into two portions: initial and residual radiation. The residual portion may include radiation both from fallout and from neutron-induced activity.

1.3.1 Initial-Gamma Radiation. For devices with yields of less than 100 kt, in which the hydrodynamic effect is small, the initial radiations are divided approximately as shown in Table 1.1 (from Reference 4). The

TABLE 1.1 ENERGY PARTITION AMONG INITIAL RADIATIONS FOR FISSION-TYPE DEVICES

From Reference 4

Mechanism	Percent of Total Fission Energy	Total Energy per Fission
		Mev
Prompt Neutrons	4.0	8
Prompt Gammas*	4.0	8
Fission Product Gammas	2.7	5.4
Fission Product Betas	2.7	5.4
Fission Product Neutrinos	5.5	11
Delayed Neutrons	0.1	0.2

*Mostly absorbed in the device

major contributions to initial-gamma radiation are from the fission-product gammas and from the gamma radiation from neutron capture by N^{14} (n,γ) in the high-explosive components and in air. The prompt gammas are nearly all absorbed in the device itself and are of little significance outside the device. The fission-product gammas predominate at close distances (Reference 4). The N^{14} (n,γ) gammas become increasingly important at greater distances, and eventually become the major contributor. Figure 1.1 shows the contribution from fission-product gammas and N^{14} (n,γ) for a 1-kt surface burst. With respect to time, the N^{14} (n,γ) radiation is essentially emitted within 0.2 second; the fission-product gammas, however, continue to contribute for the first 30 seconds.

For thermonuclear devices, it is necessary to consider the interaction of neutrons from the fusion process with N^{14} in addition to gamma radiation from fission-product gammas. The radiation due to the fusion process may vary over wide limits, depending on the design of the device. For a given yield, the number of neutrons available may be ten times as great for fusion as for fission, and therefore a large contribution to gamma radiation exposure may be due to the N^{14} (n,γ) reaction in a thermonuclear device (Reference 3).

1.3.2 Residual-Gamma Radiation. The residual-gamma radiation consists of fission-product radiation from fallout and radiation from neutron-

induced activity. The decay rate of the residual radiation from fallout will follow approximately the expression:

$$I_t = I_1 t^{-1.2}$$

and

$$r = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} I_t \, dt = 5I_1 \left(t_1^{-0.2} - t_2^{-0.2}\right) \qquad (1.1)$$

Where: I_t = exposure rate at time t

I_1 = exposure rate at unit time

t = time

r = exposure between times t_1 and t_2, where $t_1 \geq 10$ seconds

It is expected that the decay of the residual radiation will vary wit weapon design. For example, the presence of Np^{239} would tend to decrease the absolute value of the decay exponent for a period of time.

1.3.3 Absorption in Air. The absorption of unscattered gamma radiation in homogeneous air is exponential with distance. From a point source of monoenergetic radiation, the variation of intensity with distance is expressed as:

$$I_D = \frac{I_0 \exp(-\mu D)}{4\pi D^2} \qquad (1.2)$$

Where: I_D = intensity at distance D

I_0 = source intensity

μ = total linear absorption coefficient (this coefficient generally decreases with increasing gamma energy)

D = distance

The absorption coefficient μ in Equation 1.2 is applicable for a narrow-beam geometry, and a correction should be made for field conditions where the detector is approximately a point element. This is done by adding a buildup factor B to Equation 1.2 to account for the scattered radiation that will be detected. Buildup factors for different energies

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and distances have been calculated (Reference 5), and some values are shown in Table 1.2. For omnidirectional detectors, the expression is:

$$I_D = \frac{I_0 B \exp(-\mu D)}{4\pi D^2} \tag{1.3}$$

1.3.4 Hydrodynamic Effect. As shown in Section 1.3.3, the attenuation of gamma radiation is highly dependent on the amount of absorber between the source and the detector. For devices of less than 100-kt

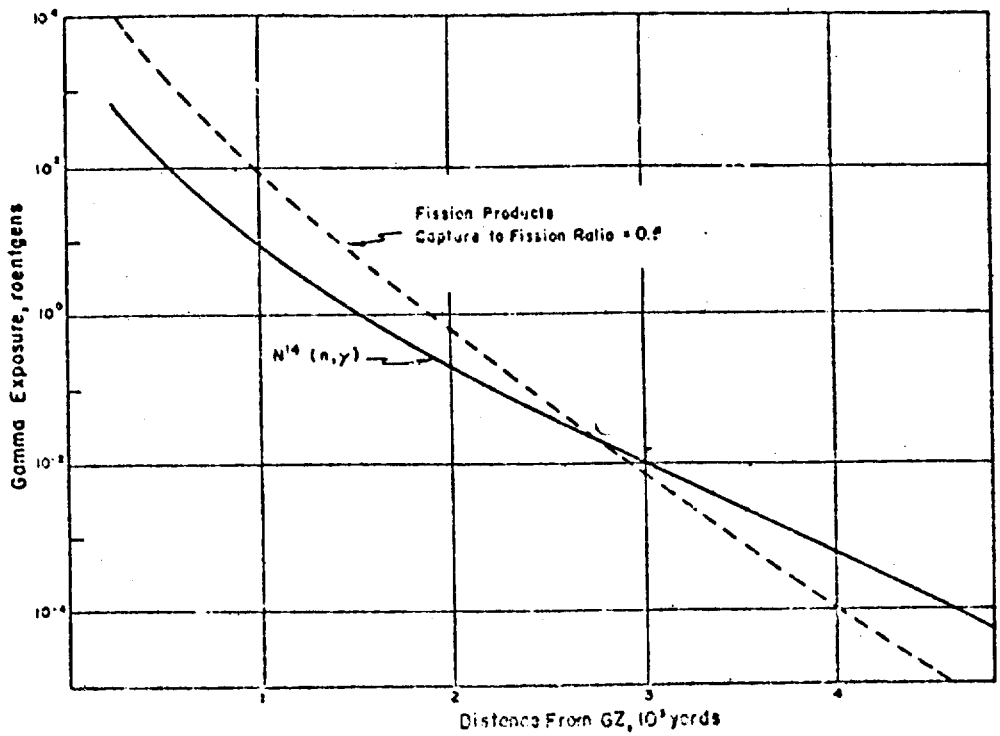

Figure 1.1 Gamma exposure versus distance for a 1-kt surface burst. This illustration shows the contribution from fission-product gammas and N^{14} (n,γ).

yield, essentially all of the initial-gamma radiation is emitted before the shock front can produce an appreciable change in the effective absorption of the air between source and detector. For high-yield devices, the velocity of the shock front is sufficiently high to produce a strong enhancement of a large percentage of the initial-gamma radiation (Reference

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6). The higher the yield, the larger is this percentage. A simplified treatment of the hydrodynamic effect follows.

Assuming a sphere of volume V_0, radius R, and filled with a gas of density ρ_0 and mass M, then

$$M = V_0\rho_0 = \frac{4\pi R^3\rho_0}{3} \tag{1.4}$$

Let the gas be compressed into a shell with thickness ΔR (R remaining constant). The new gas volume is expressed as V_1 with a density of ρ_0 ($V_1 = 4\pi R^2 \Delta R$). The mass has not changed; thus

$$M = V_0\rho_0 \doteq 4\pi R^2 \Delta R\rho_1 \qquad (\Delta R << R)$$

$$\frac{4\pi R^3\rho_0}{3} \doteq 4\pi R^2 \Delta R\rho_1 \tag{1.5}$$

$$\Delta R\rho_1 \doteq \frac{R\rho_0}{3} \tag{1.6}$$

Equation 1.6 indicates that a ray originating in the center of the sphere would traverse only a third as much of the mass in the shell model

TABLE 1.2 CALCULATED BUILD-UP FACTORS

The build-up factor (B) given here is the factor B_r ($\mu_0 D$, E_0) as computed by the Nuclear Development Associates for AFSWP (Reference 5).

Energy (E_0)	Build-up Factor, B		
	1,000 yards	1,500 yards	3,000 yards
Mev			
1	16.2	29.3	~55
3	3.85	5.35	10.2
4	2.97	4.00	7.00
10	1.70	2.01	2.90

as it would in the homogeneous model. The result would be an enhancement of radiation. Once the shell of material in the shock front passes the detector, an even-greater enhancement should result.

As previously stated, the N^{14} (n,γ) component of initial radiation is essentially emitted within 0.2 second. Since it takes at least one second for the shock front to reach a detector at a distance of 7,000 feet (even for devices in the order of 6 Mt), the N^{14} (n,γ) component is not significantly enhanced. The fission-product gammas continue to contribute during the first 30 seconds; therefore, this radiation is strongly enhanced by the shock wave.

Chapter 2
PROCEDURE

2.1 INSTRUMENTATION

A low-sensitivity system was used for measuring high-initial- and high-residual-gamma radiation rates. For measuring lower residual-gamma radiation rates from fallout, the instrumentation was of high sensitivity. (See Appendix for circuit theory of the instrumentation.)

2.1.1 Low-Sensitivity System. The detecting element was a stilbene crystal mounted in a graphite block for electron equilibrium. This crystal assembly was installed inside a blast-resistant housing at the top of a light pipe. The crystal output passed through the light pipe and was detected by a 1P21 photomultiplier tube. This tube was used in a 100-percent feed-back circuit, which held the anode current nearly constant (regardless of the incident light) by reducing the photomultiplier-tube dynode voltage. The gain of the tube was approximately a direct function of the antilog of the dynode voltage. In this manner, a useful dynamic range of about 10^9 was realized.

Two different recording systems were used to take advantage of the wide dynamic range of the instrument. Initial-gamma rates from 10^3 r/hr to 10^9 r/hr were recorded by a high-speed recorder, which was capable of resolving to 0.01 second with a recording time to 20 minutes. This recorder, manufactured by the Sanborn Company, Cambridge, Massachusetts, used heat-sensitive paper and a hot-wire stylus. It was found to be well-suited to recording under the adverse conditions encountered during nuclear tests, since it was virtually free of the troubles that may arise with ink and photographic recorders.

Initial-gamma rates from 0.20 r/hr to 10^4 r/hr with low resolution over a long-time period were recorded by a Bristol recording millivoltmeter. This recorder used smoked paper, had a running time of about 24 hours, and a time resolution that was proportional to the running time (1 minute at the start and 5 minutes at the end of 24 hours).

A double station, consisting of two detectors, one with a low- and one with a high-resolution recording system, covered the range from 0.2 r/hr to 10^9 r/hr and recorded useful data from 0.01 second to 24 hours.

2.1.2 High-Sensitivity System. The detecting element was an anthracene crystal mounted in a graphite block for electron equilibrium and attached to the window of a 5819 photomultiplier tube. This tube, like the 1P21 mentioned in Section 2.1.1, was used in a 100-percent feed-back circuit, and the anode current was kept virtually constant. Its gain was approximately a direct function of the antilog of the dynode voltage.

Therefore, it was possible to plot the incident light, or gamma radiation, as a function of the dynode voltage.

All electronics were mounted inside a light-aluminum housing for protection from weather, thermal influences, and small blast pressures. The output was recorded on a Bristol recording millivoltmeter, which recorded gamma rates from 0.2 r/hr to 10^4 r/hr for a period from 1 minute to 24 hours.

For field installations, the instrumentation systems described in Sections 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 were mounted inside standard 55-gallon steel drums imbedded in concrete. Figure 2.1 is a block diagram of the detector systems.

2.1.3 Special Detector System. A special detector system was designed and constructed to determine the effects of high-gamma rates and

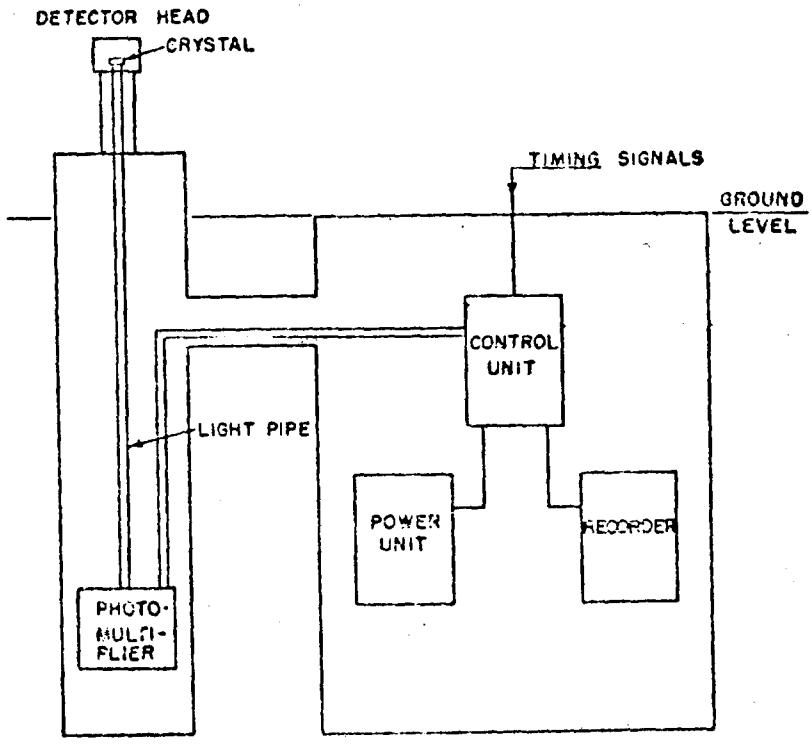

Figure 2.1 Block diagram of a typical detector system. The detecting element is either a stilbene or an anthracene crystal depending on whether it is part of a low- or a high-sensitivity system.

cumulative exposures on the crystal detecting element. Two low-sensitivity detector heads were employed: one in normal usage and the second covered with a 5-inch-thick layer of lead shot to attenuate the gamma radiation reaching the crystal by a factor of about 100. The "normal" head detected

the incident gamma rate, while the lead-covered one detected 1/100 of this rate, and also received only 1/100 of the total exposure.

To calibrate the station with the normal head, the first method was used as described in Section 2.2.1. This required the placement of a density-four neutral filter between the crystal and the photomultiplier tube of the normal station to increase the range to 10^3 r/hr. The lead-covered head required only a density-two neutral filter, inasmuch as the lead covering served to attenuate the incident gamma radiation by a factor of 100 (equivalent to a density-two filter).

If the two detector heads track, the crystals are not being differentially affected by gamma rates and cumulative exposures. If the detectors do not track, it is an indication that there is a rate or cumulative exposure dependence of the system or a significant change in the spectral quality of incident radiation. In the event that scintillation crystals are shown to be neither rate nor dosage dependent, the assumption may be made that a nearly linear extrapolation of low-intensity calibration can be performed.

2.2 CALIBRATION

2.2.1 High-Intensity Calibration. Calibration for high rates was based on the assumption that the light output of the scintillation crystal is a linear function of the incident radiation at least up to 10^3 r/hr.

Two techniques were used to calibrate the high-level instruments. In the first method, the detector head was calibrated from 0.2 r/hr to 10^4 r/hr, using an 88-curie Co^{60} source. To extend the range of the instrument to 10^3 r/hr, a density-four neutral filter was placed between the crystal and the photomultiplier tube. Effectively, the system would then measure radiation from about 0.2 x 10^4 r/hr to 10^3 r/hr.

It was necessary to put shielding around the photomultiplier tube, since it was sensitive to radiation. The purpose of the shielding was to attempt to attenuate the incident gamma radiation on the photomultiplier by the same order of magnitude as the neutral density filter attenuates the light from the crystal. (This was not possible in the field, as the amount of scatter radiation striking the photomultiplier through the light pipe precluded an attenuation factor greater than 10^3.)

In the second high-intensity calibration method, the detector head was first calibrated from 0.2 r/hr to 10^4 r/hr using an 88-curie Co^{60} source. The crystal was then replaced by a light source of the same spectral quality as the stilbene crystal output. The output of this light source could be varied in known increments. A plot was made of this output versus the relative incident luminous flux. The calibration curve thus obtained was then normalized to the curve obtained with radiation and was found to track very closely up to the maximum of 10^4 r/hr (Figure 2.2). Because of the agreement between the light and the radiation calibrations at the low levels, the light calibration was used as a basis for extrapolating the radiation calibration curves up to 10^3 r/hr.

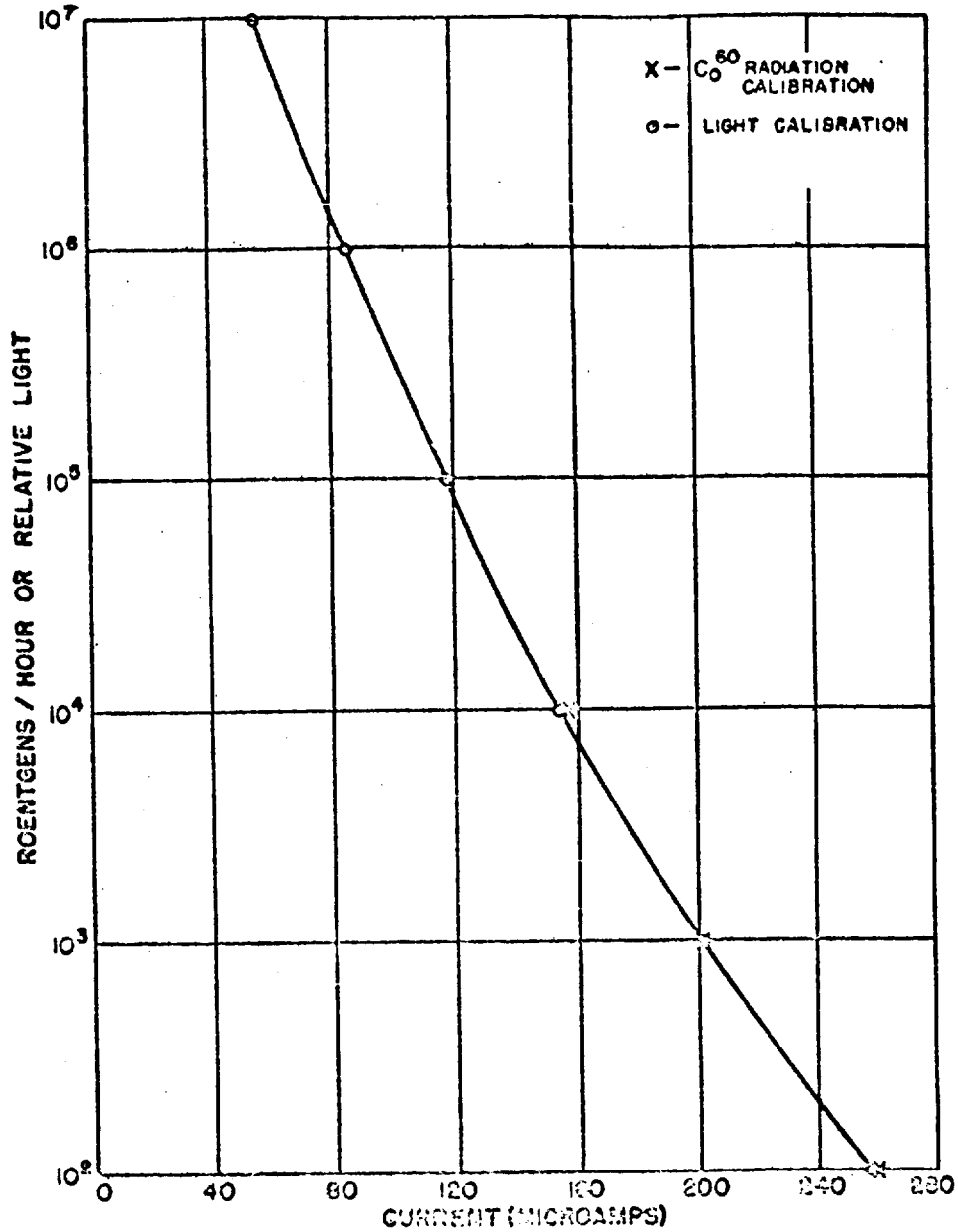

Figure 2.2 Calibration curve for the second high-intensity calibration method. It represents plots of the radiation rate and relative light versus detector output.

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TABLE 2.1 INSTRUMENTATION FOR EACH SHOT

Station Number	Island Location	Range from Zero	Description
		feet	
Shot 1:			
220.08	Oboe	83,762	Single high-sensitivity unit
220.10	Able	6,400	Two low-sensitivity units
220.11	Charlie	7,206	Two low-sensitivity units
220.12	Dog	41,372	Two low-sensitivity units with one detector head shielded with Pb
220.13	Easy	45,279	Single high-sensitivity unit
220.14	Peter	82,645	Single high-sensitivity unit
221.01	William	61,719	Single high-sensitivity unit
221.02	Yoke	54,480	Single high-sensitivity unit
221.03	Zebra	50,598	Single high-sensitivity unit
221.04	Alfa	49,432	Single high-sensitivity unit
221.05	Bravo	47,590	Single high-sensitivity unit
Shot 2:			
220.08	Oboe	~83,800	Single high-sensitivity unit
220.12	Dog	~41,400	Single high-sensitivity unit
220.14	Peter	~82,700	Single high-sensitivity unit
Shot 3:			
220.08	Oboe	16,778	One low- and one high-sensitivity unit
220.09	Roger	7,511	One low- and one high-sensitivity unit
220.12	Dog	69,112	Single high-sensitivity unit
220.14	Peter	11,779	One low- and one high-sensitivity unit
Shot 4:			
220.06	Fox	13,501	One low- and one high-sensitivity unit
220.07	George	15,579	One low- and one high-sensitivity unit
220.12	Dog	7,171	Two low-sensitivity units
220.13	Easy	9,602	One high-sensitivity unit
Shot 5:			
None			
Shot 6:			
Unnumbered	Alice	~18,000	Two portable high-sensitivity units

2.2.2 Low-Intensity Calibration. The low-level detectors for measuring fallout were calibrated directly with an 88-curie Co^{60} source.

2.2.3 Energy Dependence. Both the anthracene and stilbene detector systems gave approximately linear response over the energy range from 100 kev to 5 Mev. The postoperation laboratory recalibration of the anthracene and stilbene detectors that was originally planned could not be done.

2.3 SHOT PARTICIPATION

Table 2.1 summarizes the location, range, and types of instrumentation used in each of the shots.

TABLE 3.1 GAMMA RADIATION DATA

Station	Type	Distance to Ground Zero	Azimuth	Gamma Exposure: Prior to Arrival of Shock Front		Gamma Exposure: Subsequent to Arrival of Shock Front		Integrated	Maximum Rate	Decay Exponent x ($R_t = R_1 t^{-x}$)	Comments
		feet	deg min	r	Percent of Integrated	r	Percent of Integrated		r/hr		
Shot 1:											
220.11 Charlie	High Intensity	7,206	83 24	9,900	---	---	---	9,900 (0.9 sec)	6×10^7	---	Initial radiation received to time of arrival of shock front. Residual detector destroyed.
220.03 Ohoe	Fallout	83,762	138 45	---	---	---	---	133 (0.25 to 20 hr)	34	0.81 (1 to 18 hr)	
220.12 Dog	Fallout	41,372	92 28	---	---	---	---	3,735 (0.25 to 20 hr)	1,000	1.35 (3 to 10 hr) 2.1 (10 to 24 hr)	
Shot 3:											
220.12 Dog	Fallout	63,112	83 24	---	---	---	---	51 (0.33 to 15 hr)	24	1.28 (1 to 12 hr)	
		feet	deg min	r	Percent of Integrated	r	Percent of Integrated		r/hr		
Shot 4:											
220.12 Dog	High Intensity	7,171	5 34	7.2 (0.02 to 1.3 sec)	6.4	12,421 (1.3 to 20 sec)	93.6	13,263 (0.02 to 20 sec)	7.2×10^8	---	Initial radiation received in entirety. Residual records destroyed by water.
220.06 Fox	High Intensity	13,501	48 11	10.5 (0.02 to 4.5 sec)	11	80.6 (4.5 to 25 sec)	89	91.1 (0.02 to 25 sec)	5.2×10^6	---	Initial radiation received in entirety. Residual records destroyed by water.
220.07 George	Fallout	15,579	64 47	---	---	---	---	1,237 (Res) (0.033 to 10 hr)	620 (Res)	1.39 (2 to 6 hr) 1.61 (7 to 10 hr)	Residual radiation recorded. Initial too low to record accurately but probably on the order of 10^7 r/hr.

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decay exponent x, in the expression $I_t = I_1 t^{-x}$, was found to change from about 1.35 during the period H + 3 to H + 10 hours to about 2.1 during the next fourteen hours.

Figure 3.2 shows that at Station 220.08, fallout started to build up about 15 minutes after the detonation and reached a maximum rate of 34 r/hr. The integrated exposure was 133 r during the first 24 hours. The decay exponent was 0.81 for the period H + 1 to about H + 18 hours.

Because of the unexpected high yield of Shot 1, the instrumentation sustained serious damage. Low-sensitivity Station 220.10 on Able was destroyed by blast. Fallout Stations 221.05 on Bravo, 221.04 on Alfa,

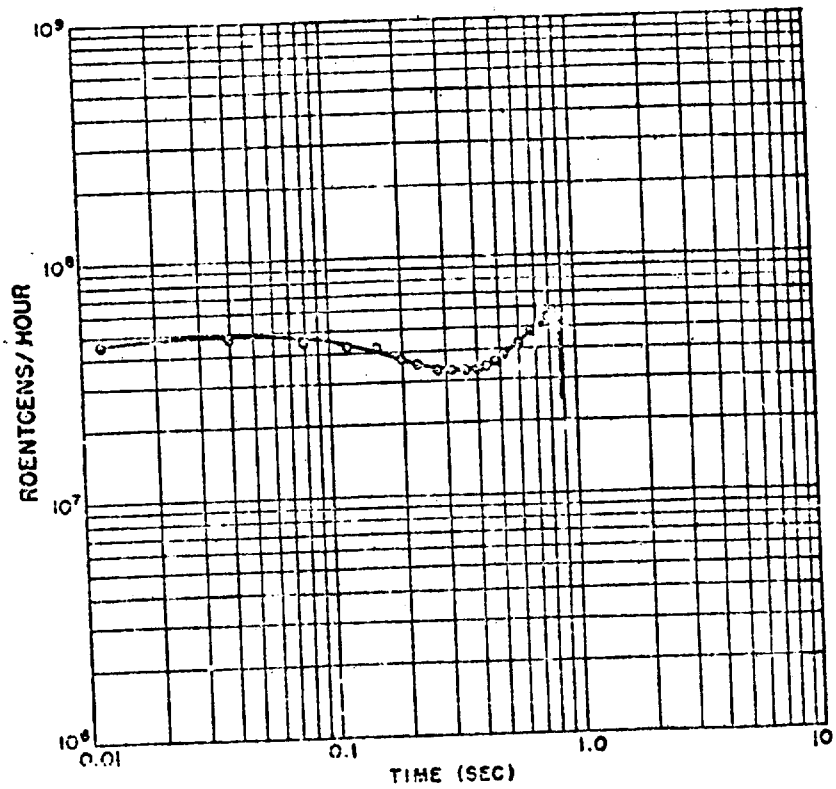

Figure 3.1 Initial-gamma rate versus time for Shot 1, Station 220.11 on Charlie. This station was 7,206 feet from ground zero.

221.03 on Zebra, 221.02 on Yoke, and 221.01 on William either were struck by missiles or inundated by water. These stations did not provide reliable records.

3.1.2 Shot 2. Instrument stations at Able and Charlie were destroyed by high overpressures from Shot 1; therefore, Shot 2 could not be instrumented for close-in initial-gamma-rate measurements. Fallout from

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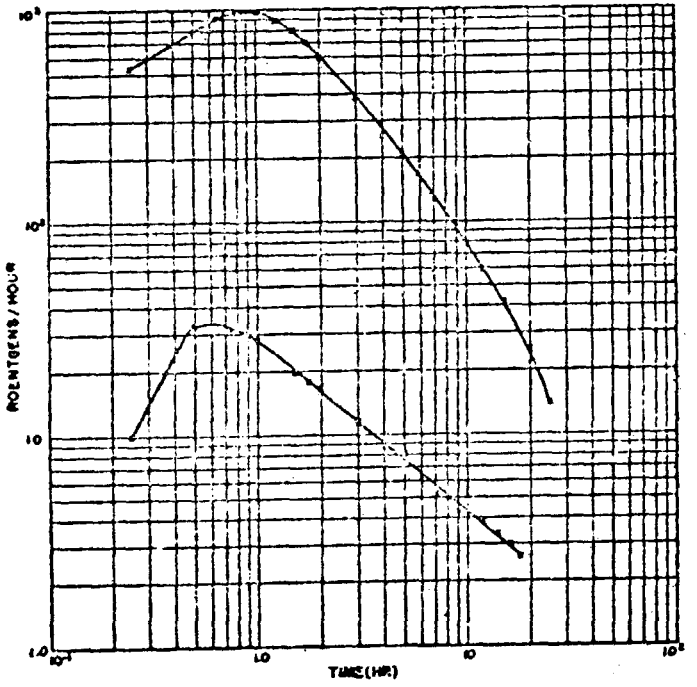

Figure 3.2 Residual-gamma rate versus time for Shot 1, Stations 220.12 on Dog, upper curve, and 220.06 on Oboe, lower curve. These stations were 41,372 feet and 83,742 feet from ground zero, respectively.

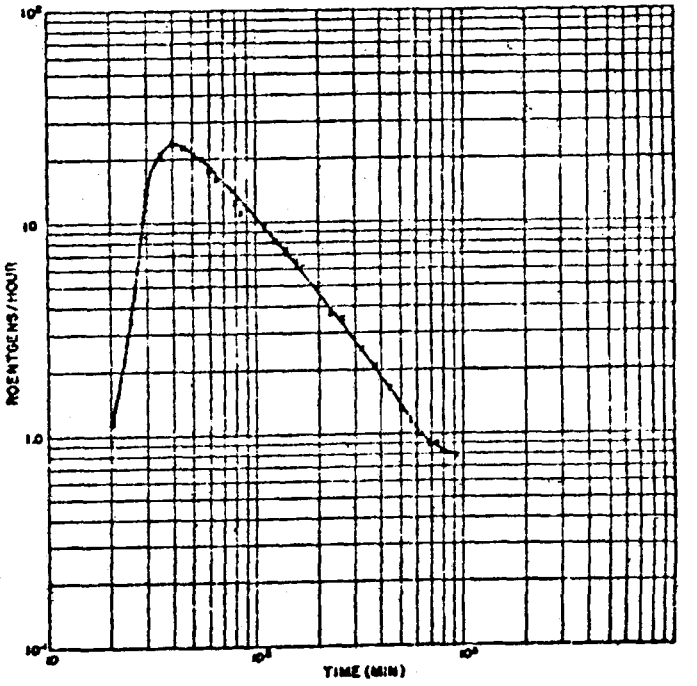

Figure 3.3 Residual-gamma rate versus time for Shot 3, Station 220.12 on Dog. This station was 69,112 feet from ground zero.

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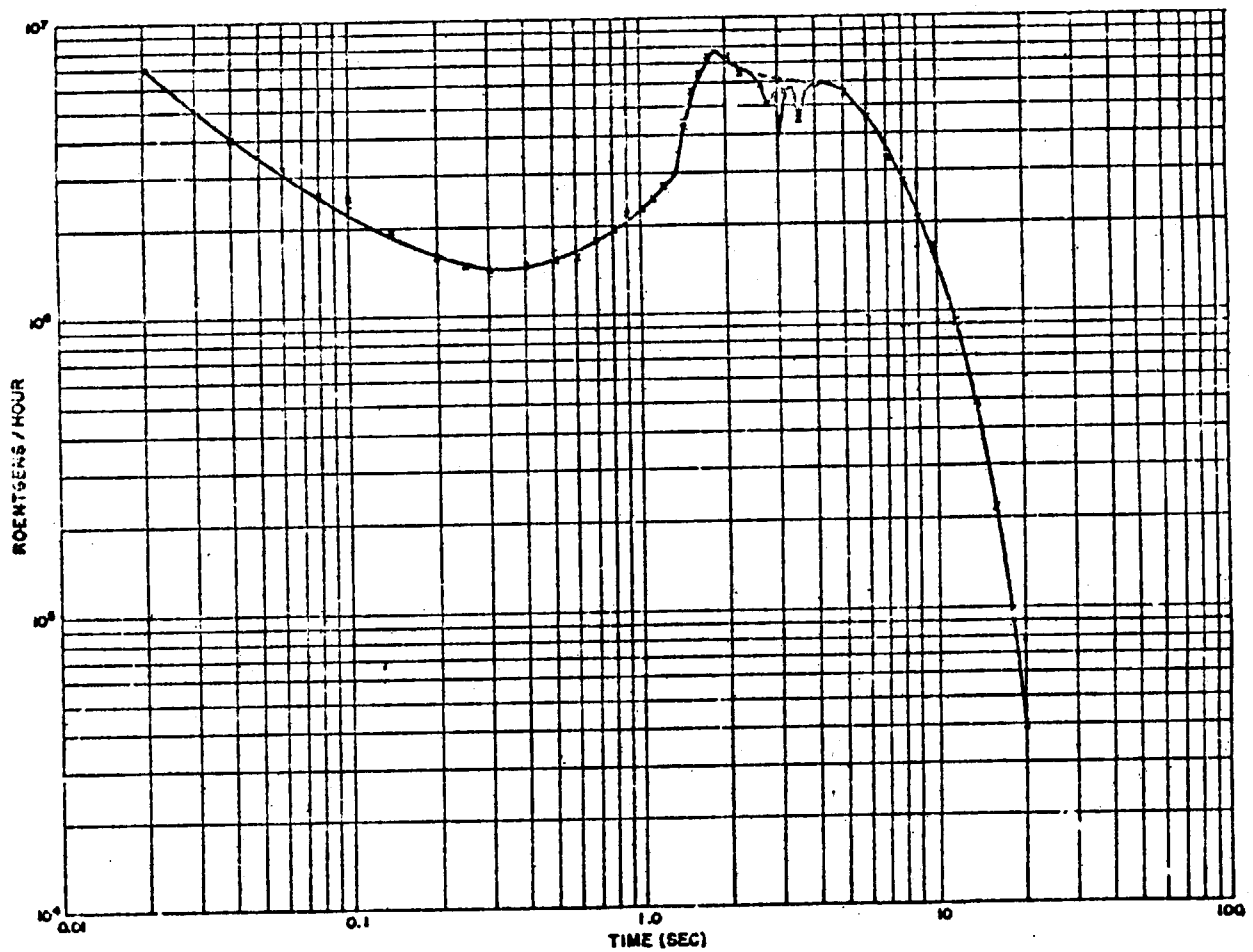

Figure 3.4 Initial-gamma rate versus time for Shot 4, Station 220.12 on Dog. This station was 7,171 feet from ground zero.

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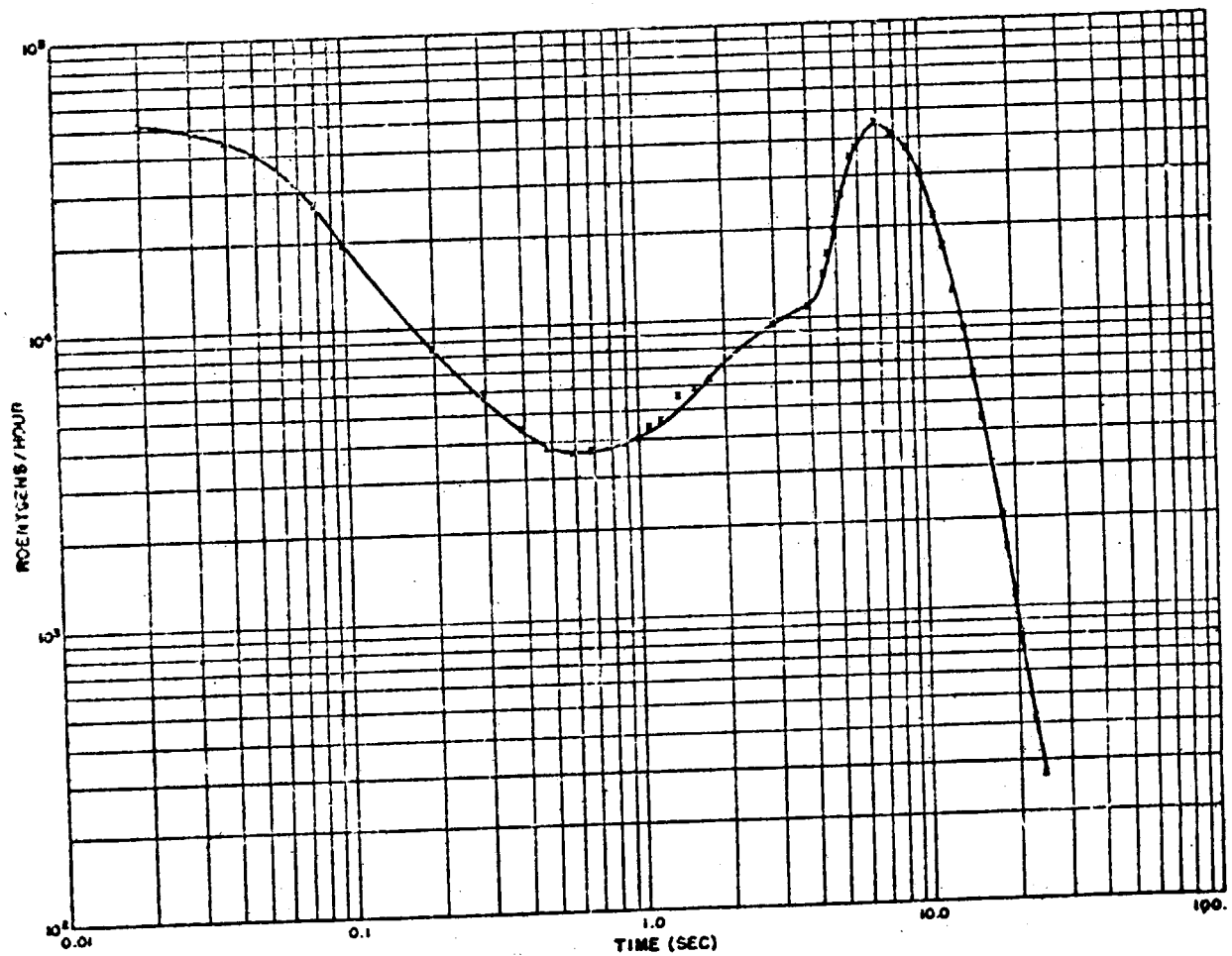

Figure 3.5 Initial-gamma rate versus time for Shot 4, Station 220.06 on Fox. This station was 13,501 feet from ground zero.

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Shot 2 was of such a low level compared to existing background that fallout stations on Oboe, Dog, and Peter did not obtain good records.

3.1.3 Shot 3. No initial-gamma rate data were obtained because of the unexpected low yield of Shot 3. Fallout Station 220.12 on Dog provided a good record (see Figure 3.3). Fallout started to build up about 20 minutes after the detonation and reached a maximum of 24 r/hr. Integrated exposure was 51 r in the first 15 hours. The decay exponent was 1.28 for the period H + 1 to H + 12 hours.

3.1.4 Shot 4. Figure 3.4 (Station 220.12 on Dog) shows that the initial-gamma rate first dropped in magnitude, then increased slowly from 0.4 to about 1.2 seconds, and then increased relatively rapidly to a value of 7.2×10^6 r/hr, approximately the same as the original rate at time of detonation. The slow increase appears to be the combined result of the expansion of the fireball and the approach of the shock front toward the detector station. The rapid increase was caused by the passage of the shock front through the detector station.

Figure 3.5 (Station 220.06 on Fox) shows the same phenomena as Figure 3.4. The expanding fireball and the approach of the shock front cause a slow increase in the gamma rate from 0.7 to 4.48 seconds. Passage of the shock front through the detector station causes an abrupt increase to about 4.5×10^1 r/hr, after 7 seconds. This peak is about the same as the original rate at time of detonation.

The record obtained from Station 220.07 on George shows an initial-gamma spike and the arrival of the shock front 5.86 seconds later. However, the deflection was too small to permit the readout of a time history of the initial gamma. From Shot 4 data, the average velocities of the shock front between ground zero and Dog, Fox, and George are computed to be about 5,100, 3,000, and 2,600 ft/sec, respectively.

Residual-gamma rate versus time is plotted in Figure 3.6 (Station 220.07 on George). Fallout reached a peak value of 620 r/hr, and the recorded exposure of the first 10 hours after detonation was 1,237 r. During the period H + 2 to H + 6 hours, the decay exponent was 1.39, and from H + 7 to H + 10 hours it was 1.61.

These figures represent the data as read; no correction for air density has been made. The relative air density for the Castle events is 0.9.

3.2 DATA CORRELATION

3.2.1 Integrated Exposure Rate Versus Total Exposure. The dosages obtained by integrating the curves of Figures 3.2 and 3.6 have been compared to dosage measurements made by the National Bureau of Standards (NBS) type photographic dosimeters on Project 2.1 at the same station locations (Reference 8). The results are summarized in Table 3.2. Because the gamma rates obtained are valid at a sufficient number of medium-distance stations where exposure did not exceed 10^4r, it may be assumed that the results are also valid at close-in stations where the total ex-

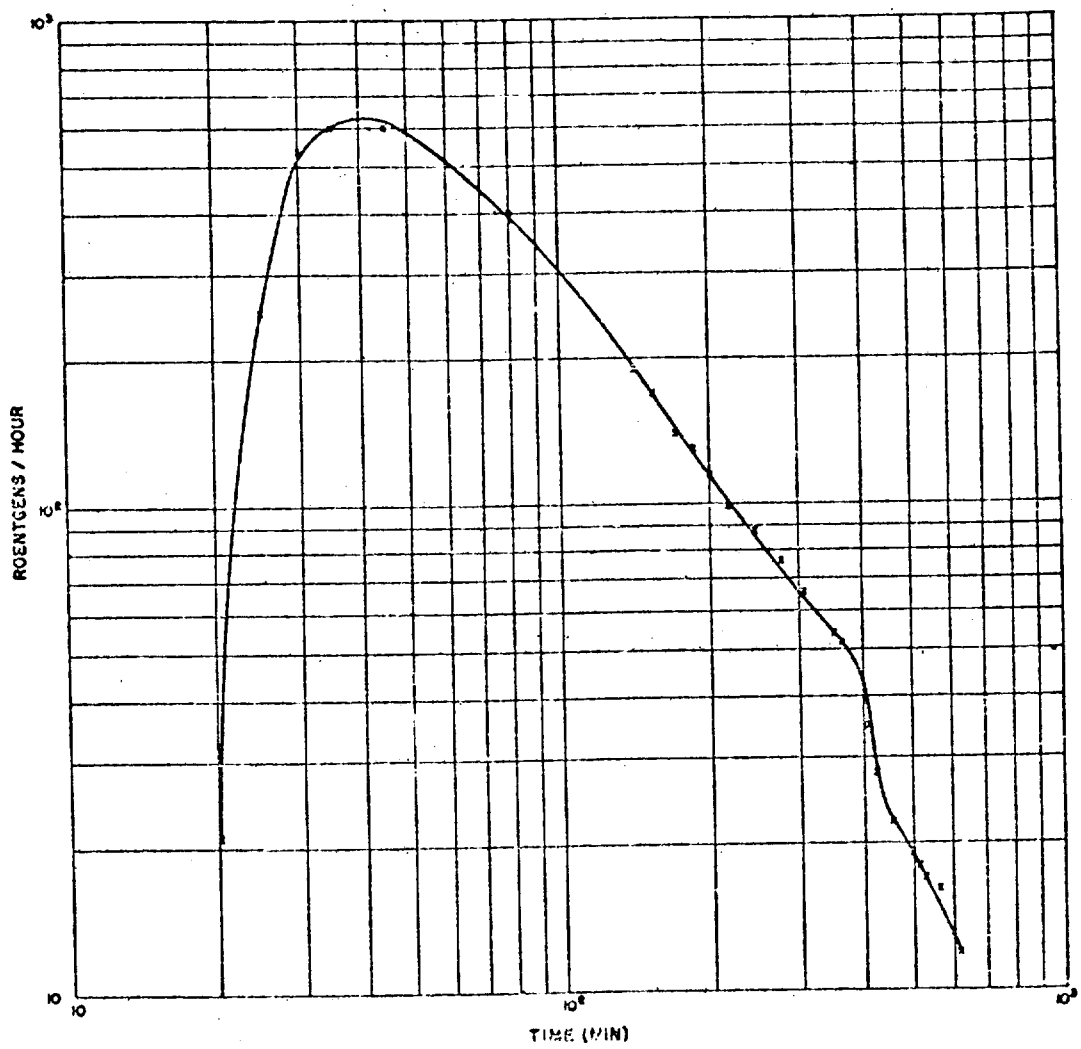

Figure 3.6 Residual-gamma rate versus time for Shot 4, Station 220.07 on George. This station was 15,5[illegible] feet from ground zero.

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posure was less than 10^5 r. This assumption is based on data showing that the response of scintillation-type crystals is not adversely affected by total exposures of less than 10^5 r (Reference 7).

3.2.2 Special Detector System. The data from Station 220.11 on Charlie, Shot 1, showed that the two heads did not track. This was attributed to the presence of scattered radiation that entered the shield-

TABLE 3.2 GAMMA RADIATION DOSAGE

Comparison of dosage measurements made with NBS type photographic dosimeters on Project 2.1 and dosage measurements at same ranges made by scintillation detectors on Project 2.2.

Distance to Ground Zero	Project	Station	Dose	Time
feet			r	hr
Shot 1:				
83,762	2.1	210.23	180	H + 82
	2.2	220.08	133	H + 20
41,372	2.1	210.12	6,000	H + 78
	2.2	220.12	3,735	H + 20
Shot 4:				
15,579	2.1	210.21	2,060	H + 104
	2.2	220.07	1,237	H + 10

ed area through the light pipe. The sensitivity of the photomultiplier tube to radiation required the presence of shielding to attenuate the radiation in the same order of magnitude as the neutral-density filter. When it proved impractical to increase the shielding, the use of neutral-density filters to increase the detector's upper limit was abandoned for remaining shots.

Chapter 4
CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were reached, based on the empirical results of Project 2.2, and on collateral data obtained from other Castle projects:

The passage of the shock front from ground zero to and through the detector station has a marked effect on the initial-gamma radiation rate for high-yield weapons. The percentage of total-initial-gamma-radiation exposure received prior and subsequent to the arrival of the shock front was found to be a function of the distances from ground zero.

Initial-gamma radiation is of negligible significance since blast and thermal effects in the same range of distances are so great that survival would be possible only if personnel were disposed inside blast- and thermal-proof bunkers.

The rate of decay of the residual field radiation from fallout was found to vary with distance and direction from ground zero. The rate of decay increases rather abruptly several hours after the detonation. This may be attributed to the presence of short-lived isotopes in the residual contamination and to fractionalization of fallout materials.

Figure 4.1 indicates that Project 2.2 measurements of initial-gamma radiation exposures from thermonuclear devices of high yield are in good agreement with data from "The Nuclear Radiation Handbook," AFSWP 1100. It should be noted, however, that the Castle Project 2.2 data was one of the sources used in the preparation of the prediction curves of that handbook.

Chapter 3
RESULTS and DISCUSSION

3.1 GENERAL

Figures 3.1 to 3.6 are plots of gamma rate versus time at various distances from ground zero.

Examination of the figures makes apparent the effect of the shock-front passage between ground zero and the detector station during the initial-gamma radiation. After the passage of the shock front, the initial-gamma rate rose almost to the same value as it was at the time of detonation.

Table 3.1 summarizes the gamma-radiation data for the stations used during Shots 1, 3, and 4. The extensive instrumentation originally planned was not followed because of the unexpected loss of most of the equipment stored on Tare during Shot 1. Out of a total of 30 low- and 5 high-sensitivity instruments, only seven of the former and two of the latter were salvaged for succeeding shots.

3.1.1 Shot 1. Figure 3.1 shows initial-gamma rate versus time for Station 220.11 on Charlie. The increase in rate from 0.35 to 0.9 second was apparently caused by the expanding fireball and the approach of the shock front toward the detector station. The shock front arrived at the detector station at 0.9 second. The average velocity of the shock front between ground zero and the detector station was computed to be about 8,000 ft/sec. No further data were obtained because the station was destroyed by missiles at that time.

The special detector system at Station 220.11 on Charlie was designed to determine the rate or cumulative exposure dependence of the crystal detecting elements, as well as to measure the initial-gamma rate. Records obtained showed that the two detector heads did not track. However, it was determined that this was not due to a rate or dosage dependence of the crystals, but rather to scattered gamma radiation entering through the light pipe and striking the photomultiplier tube in the station without a shield around the detector head. Since a density-four neutral filter was placed between the crystals and the photomultiplier tube to increase the range to 10^6 r/hr, the effect of the scattered radiation entering through the light pipe was to multiply the direct effect of gamma radiation on the photomultiplier by several orders of magnitude. Because of this, the record went off scale immediately and gave no true indication of the gamma rate. The station with the shielded detector head provided a good record, because the lead shielding effectively attenuated the gamma radiation that reached the phototube by a factor of 100.

Figure 3.2 plots residual-gamma rate versus time for Stations 220.12 and 220.08. The graph shows that at Station 220.12, fallout started to build up 15 minutes after the detonation and reached a maximum rate of 10^3 r/hr. The integrated exposure for the first 24 hours was 3,735 r. The

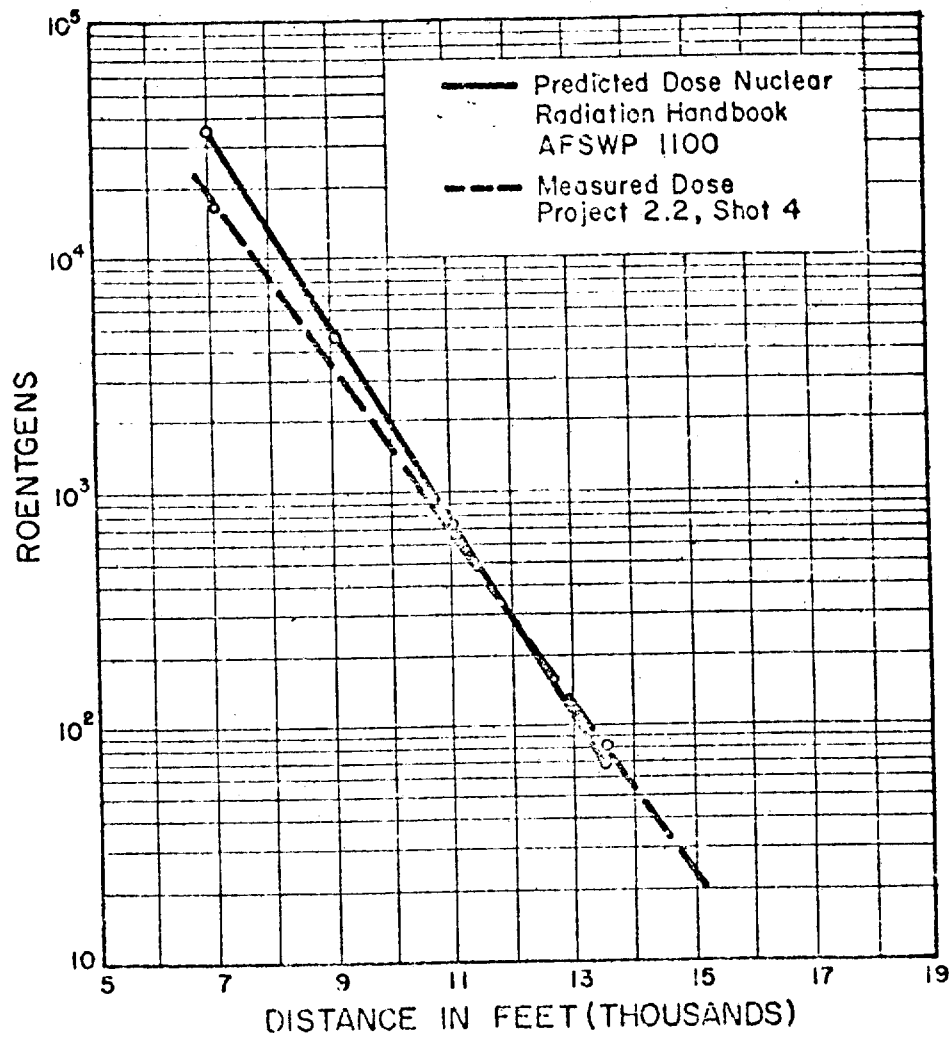

Figure 4.1 Initial-gamma dose versus distance. Comparison of dose measured on Shot 4 with dose computed by method given in The Nuclear Radiation Handbook, AFSWP 1100. Yield 7.0 Mt. Relative air density 0.9.

Appendix

THEORY OF INSTRUMENT OPERATION

Fulfillment of the objectives of this project required an instrument of known operational characteristics in very-high radiation fields, and with an extremely large dynamic range. The former requirement indicated that a scintillation detector would be best suited; the latter led to the choice of a feed-back circuit that kept the photomultiplier-tube anode current substantially constant and thus prevented fatigue of the photocathode under high flux.

The photomultiplier dynode voltage is developed across the cathode resistor of a cathode follower, whose input signal is derived from the photomultiplier anode current (Figure A.1). An increase in the incident luminous flux on the photocathode tends to increase the photomultiplier-

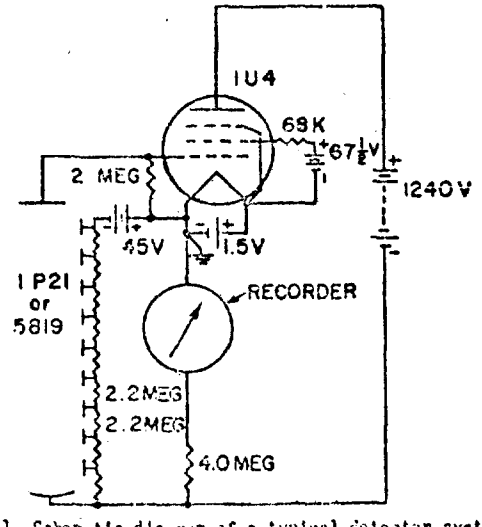

Figure A.1 Schematic diagram of a typical detector system. High-intensity measurements were made with a 1P21 photomultiplier tube whereas fallout measurements were made with a 5819-type tube.

tube anode current. Increased anode current presents a negative signal to the control tube, increasing the impedance of that tube and lowering the voltage across the photomultiplier-tube dynodes. Since the amplification of the photomultiplier tube is a function of dynode voltage, the lowered dynode voltage will cause a decreased anode current. An equilibrium condition is reached at a point where a small increase in photomultiplier anode current decreases the dynode voltage and the gain of the tube to a value that is just enough to keep the anode current at the new level of higher-incident light flux. The output is taken from the cathode of the control tube and fed to a recording voltmeter.

The range of anode-current variation can be calculated for a given control tube and feedback resistor. If the control tube has a grid bias of 5 volts (that is, the tube cuts off at

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-5 volts), and the feed-back resistor is 100 megohms, the maximum value of the anode current I_a is given by:

$$I_a = \frac{E}{R} = \frac{5}{10^8} = 5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ amperes } (0.05\ \mu a)$$

Thus, in a typical circuit the photomultiplier-tube anode current cannot exceed 0.05 μa, and at this value of current there is no danger of photocathode fatigue. Since this was a 100-percent feed-back circuit, it was virtually independent of control-tube characteristics and depended only on the photomultiplier-tube characteristic and the value of the feed-back resistor. The response curve of the instrument closely followed the photomultiplier tube's gain characteristic for varying dynode voltage.

The tube complement included a 1U4 as control, a 1P21 photomultiplier in the low-sensitivity (high-intensity measurements) system, and a 5819 photomultiplier for fallout measurements (high-sensitivity system). Although the rated plate-to-filament voltage of the 1U4 was exceeded by a factor of ten, no difficulties were experienced if filaments were allowed to warm up before applying the plate voltage. A 45-volt battery applied a constant voltage between anode and ninth dynode of the photomultiplier, since the latter is most stable when operated with a constant voltage between those points.

No variation in instrument characteristics could be detected when the control tubes were replaced. This was true even when tubes were tried with different characteristics (such as the 1T4) but similar pin connections. This substantiates the theory that in this 100-percent feed-back circuit, the photomultiplier-tube characteristic is independent of the control-tube parameters. The dynamic range of the instrument is approximately 10^3. When the extreme value of dynamic range is not required, the recorder may be adjusted to operate over a portion of the range, thus providing an expanded scale over the region of interest. For example, in some locations where a dynamic range of 10^2 was sufficient, the recorder was adjusted to operate over this portion of the instrument's output. A more-accurate recording was provided by making these adjustments.

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136 Commander, Field Command, AFSWP, Sandia Base, Albuquerque, N. Mex.
137 Commander, Field Command, AFSWP, Sandia Base, Albuquerque, N. Mex. ATTN: FCTG
138-142 Commander, Field Command, AFSWP, Sandia Base, Albuquerque, N. Mex. ATTN: FCWT
143 Commander, JTF-7, Arlington Hall Station, Arlington 12, Va.
144 U.S. Documents Officer, Office of the United States National Military Representative - SHAPE, APO 55, New York, N.Y.

ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION ACTIVITIES

145-147 U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, Technical Reports Library, Washington 25, D.C. ATTN: Mrs. J. M. O'Leary (For DMA)
148-149 Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, Report Library, P.O. Box 1663, Los Alamos, N. Mex. ATTN: Helen Redman
150-154 Sandia Corporation, Classified Document Division, Sandia Base, Albuquerque, N. Mex. ATTN: H. J. Smyth, Jr.
155-157 University of California Radiation Laboratory, P.O. Box 808, Livermore, Calif. ATTN: Clovis G. Craig
158 Weapon Data Section, Technical Information Service Extension, Oak Ridge, Tenn.
159-195 Technical Information Service Extension, Oak Ridge, Tenn. (Surplus)

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