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HIGH DOSE RATE ELECTRON BEAM TESTING

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SECTION 1 INTRODUCTION

The test program described below was designed to investigate test methods for both real time and post exposure electrical characterization of semiconductor components exposed to high dose rate ($\geq 10^{12}$ rad(Si)/s) Flash X Ray (FXR) electron beam sources. To accomplish this, a test program was developed to investigate methods of testing the devices when exposed in air, vacuum, and partial vacuum with inter-comparisons with photon exposure results. The e-beam results should correlate directly with the photon results. The test devices were exposed at facilities having substantially different outputs with respect to beam current, electron energy and output pulse width, in order to assess any machine parameter effects on the applicable test methods.

The methodology utilized to vary the dose rate at the test part location was investigated. These included the variation in drift chamber length (under high vacuum conditions, the dose at the end of the drift chamber decreases with increasing length), the variation of the chamber gas pressure (the e-beam transport efficiency varied as a function of chamber pressure) and the variation of aperture size (the apertures restrict the amount of beam current transported down the drift chamber). Finally, dosimetry methods were investigated using copper foil thermocouple and thermistor colorimeters and thermoluminescent dosimeters (TLD's) to cover the dose range of 1 Krad(Si) to $\sim 10^6$ rad(Si).

The program was performed jointly with personnel from AWRE of the United Kingdom, Sandia National Laboratory and Mission Research Corporation. The subject of this report is limited to the beam transport, dosimetry

techniques, the IN916 diode radiation response, and the test techniques utilized at the Harry Diamond Laboratories HIFX and SNLA Hermes facilities.

At the HIFX facility, the devices were exposed in the bremsstrahlung mode in air at atmospheric pressure, the electron beam mode in air at atmospheric pressure and the electron beam mode in high and partial vacuum. Both electron beam aperturing and the variation of the electron beam drift chamber pressure and length were used to vary the dose exposure levels. The primary photocurrent was recorded over a dose rate range of 3×10^{10} rad(Si)/s to 6×10^{12} rad(Si)/s.

The devices were exposed in the bremsstrahlung and partial vacuum e-beam mode at the Hermes facility. Electron aperturing and drift chamber pressure variation were utilized to vary the dose exposure levels. The photo response was recorded over a dose rate range of 3.4×10^{11} to 10^{12} rad(Si)/s.

In addition a brief section discussing the electron beam transport in a gaseous medium is included in an attempt to explain the differences (dose versus pressure responses) observed at the HIFX and Hermes facilities.

SECTION 2 DOSIMETRY

The object of dosimetry is to quantitatively describe a radiation environment. If it is to be useful, a description of the radiation environment must be relevant to the radiation effect being studied. The calorimeters described here were specifically designed for comparison with ionization-induced primary photocurrent in silicon solid-state devices (such as diodes). These thin calorimeters determine the dose by measuring the temperature rise in a small piece of copper. Since the temperature rise can be converted to energy deposition (dose) by the specific heat of copper, the measurement is a direct determination of the average dose in the sample independent of the type of radiation particle or its energy.

Copper was selected because of its good sensitivity, its ease of construction, and the availability of materials. Two types of calorimeters were utilized. One type used a Chromel Alumel thermocouple to measure the temperature rise in the copper and the other type utilized a thermistor as the temperature sensing element. In addition, thermoluminescent dosimeters (TLD's) were also utilized during the program as a cross correlation. A discussion of the calorimeters and a comparison with the TLD results is presented below.

CONSTRUCTION

Several factors were taken into account in the design of the calorimeters. They were suspended by styrofoam blocks and the temperature sensing element was attached with a small amount of thermally conductive epoxy. The copper foil was ≈ 0.6 cm diameter disc. The calorimeter

measurements at the HIFX facility utilized a 2.54×10^{-3} cm thick foil while the later measurements performed at the Hermes facility included three thicknesses of foil (2.5×10^{-3} cm, 1.5×10^{-2} cm and 2.8×10^{-2} cm).

THEORY

Radiation incident upon copper block manifests itself as a temperature rise which can be converted to energy deposition (dose) by the specific heat of copper. The measurement is a direct determination of the average dose in the sample, independent of the type of radiation particle or its energy, and is traceable to NBS standards (NBS Circular 500, Part 1, 1952). The specific heat capacity for copper is 0.092 cal/g/°C at 25°C. This can be directly converted to 3.85×10^4 rad(Cu)/°C by using the conversion factor 4.19×10^7 erg/cal and 100 erg/g-rad. The response of the chromel-alumel thermocouple at room temperature is $40 \mu\text{V}/^\circ\text{C} \pm 1 \mu\text{V}/^\circ\text{C}$. Therefore, the response of our copper calorimeter is 964 rad(Cu)/ μV . The thermistor calorimeter is calibrated against the thermocouple calorimeter and its sensitivity is dependent on the resistance value of the thermistor selected and the measuring circuit. Table 1 lists the comparisons between the thermocouple calorimeter response and the thermistor calorimeter response for HIFX shot number 3022 through 3038. It can be seen from the data that large variations in the thermistor sensitivity exist. This is due to temperature variations in the value of the thermistor resistance which results in a different R vs T response at different temperatures. The ratio of resistance change per unit temperature change divided by the resistance remains approximately constant. Fortunately the sensitivity of the thermocouple calorimeters was sufficient to allow dose measurements down to $\approx 1 \times 10^3$ rad(Si). The thermistor calorimeters were ≈ 370 times more sensitive than the thermocouple calorimeters, resulting in a calibration factor of 2.6 rad(Cu)/ μV .

To be useful for the characterization of silicon semiconductor devices, it is necessary to convert from rad(Cu) to rad(Si). An expression

Table 1. Comparison between the thermocouple and thermistor calorimeter responses for HIFX shot numbers 3022 through 3038. Thermocouple amplifier sensitivity 200x thermistor amplifier sensitivity.

Shot Number	Thermocouple Calorimeter response (rad(Si)/ inch)	Thermistor Calorimeter response rad(Si)/inch
3022	4.25×10^3	2.3×10^3
3023	↓	2.1×10^3
3024		2.2×10^3
3025		2.3×10^3
3026		2.4×10^3
3027		2.4×10^3
3028		
↓	No Data	
3031		
3032	4.25×10^3	3×10^3
3033	↓	2.5×10^3
3034		1.8×10^3
3035		2.6×10^3
3036		3.0×10^3
3037		2.1×10^3
3038		1.8×10^3

$$\begin{aligned} X &= 2.3 \times 10^3 \\ \sigma &= 0.4 \times 10^3 \end{aligned}$$

describing the energy loss by inelastic collision of electrons is given by equation 1 (Ref. 1) for $E \gg m_0 c^2$,

$$\frac{-dE}{dx} = \frac{2\pi N e^4 Z}{m_0 c^2} \left[\log \left(\frac{E^3}{2m_0 c^2 I^2} \right) + \frac{1}{8} \right] \quad (1)$$

where x = path length in centimeters,
 N = number per cubic centimeter = (Avogadro's # x density ÷ atomic weight),
 e = electronic charge = 1.6×10^{-19} coulombs,
 Z = atomic number,
 E = the electron energy (kinetic),
 $m_0 c^2$ = electron rest mass energy $\sim 5.1 \times 10^5$ eV,
 I = the mean excitation potential = 276 eV for copper,
and I = 150 eV for silicon.

Converting the energy loss per cm to energy loss per g/cm^2 we obtain

$$\frac{-dE}{dx'} = \frac{2\pi N e^4 Z}{m_0 c^2 \rho} \left[\log \left(\frac{E^3}{2m_0 c^2 I^2} \right) + \frac{1}{8} \right] \quad (2)$$

where x' is the path length in g/cm^2 and ρ = density of the material in gm/cm^3 . Since $N = Av \rho / A$ where Av is Avogadro's number and A is the atomic weight we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{-dE}{dx'} &= \frac{2\pi Av \rho e^4 Z}{A m_0 c^2 \rho} \left[\log \left(\frac{E^3}{2m_0 c^2 I^2} \right) + \frac{1}{8} \right] \\ &= K \frac{Z}{A} \left[\log \left(\frac{E^3}{2m_0 c^2 I^2} \right) + \frac{1}{8} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

1. Experimental Nuclear Physics, Vol. 1, E. Segre, John Wiley & Sons, 1953.

Therefore using

$$\begin{aligned}Z(\text{Cu}) &= 29 \quad , \\Z(\text{Si}) &= 14 \quad , \\A(\text{Cu}) &= 63.54 \quad , \text{ and} \\A(\text{Si}) &= 28.09 \quad , \text{ and}\end{aligned}$$

using an average energy of 5 Mev we obtain

$$\frac{\left. \frac{dE}{dx'} \right|_{\text{Cu}}}{\left. \frac{dE}{dx'} \right|_{\text{Si}}} = 0.866 \quad (4)$$

or 1 rad(Si) \approx 1.155 rad(Cu).

An analysis of the heat transfer characteristics between the copper calorimeter and its environment is essential for the design of any calorimetry system. The heat transfer problem can be divided into three distinct phenomena - convection, radiation and conduction.

Convection currents can be substantially eliminated by surrounding the copper disc with styrofoam. Thus, this mode of heat transfer can be reduced to negligible levels when compared to the other modes.

The heat loss by radiation is described by the Stephen-Boltzman relation:

$$H = \epsilon \phi A (T^4 - T_0^4), \quad (5)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon &= \text{emissivity of copper} \approx 0.05, \\ \phi &= \text{Stephen-Boltzman constant} = 1.36 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cal/cm}^2 \text{-}^\circ\text{K}^4 \text{-s}, \\ T &= \text{the absolute temperature of the calorimeter after exposure,} \\ T_0 &= \text{the absolute temperature of the environment, and} \\ A &= \text{the total area of the sensing element} = .6 \text{ cm}^2.\end{aligned}$$

The temperature rise for a ~ 45 Krad radiation pulse is $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$. Therefore the steady state rate of heat flow per unit time is $\sim 3 \times 10^{-6}$ cal/s using 273°K for T_0 and 274°K for T .

The transport of heat along a thermal gradient by intermolecular collision is called conductive heat transfer and is given by Fourier's law as

$$H = -K_{th} A \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}, \quad (6)$$

where

H = rate of heat flow (cal/s),

x = length of heat path (cm),

A = cross sectional area available for the flow (cm^2),

∂T = the temperature gradient ($^\circ\text{C}/\text{cm}$), and

K_{th} = thermal conductivity coefficient [$(\text{cal-cm})/(\text{cm}^2\text{-s-}^\circ\text{C})$].

This equation applies to the temperature sensing element lead wires and also the trapped air between the copper element and the external ambient.

For the chromel-alumel wires used

$$A = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2,$$

$$K_{th} = .041 \text{ cal-cm/cm}^2\text{-s-}^\circ\text{C},$$

$$\partial x = 0.6, \text{ and}$$

$$\partial T = 1^\circ\text{C}.$$

Therefore, the total heat flow through the leads is, $H \sim 4.5 \times 10^{-7}$ cal/s for a one degree C temperature rise. Similarly, for the trapped air,

$$A = 0.6 \text{ cm}^2,$$

$$K_{th} = 5.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cal-cm/cm}^2\text{-s-}^\circ\text{C},$$

$$\partial x = .12 \text{ cm},$$

$$\partial T = 1^\circ\text{C},$$

and the heat loss $H \approx 2.9 \times 10^{-4}$ cal/s, again for a 1°C temperature rise. It is clear from the above that the dominant heat loss mechanism at least for small dose exposures (≈ 50 Krad) is the trapped air.

The theoretical time constant for the calorimeter is given by

$$\tau = \frac{Sh \rho V}{H} \quad , \quad (7)$$

where Sh is the specific heat ($.09$ cal/cm- $^\circ\text{C}$) ρ is the density of copper (8.9 g/cm 3), V is the volume (8×10^{-4} cm 3) of the copper disc, and H is the heat loss rate (cal/s) for a 1°C ΔT . This yields a thermal time constant of $\tau = 2$ s for the 1 mil foil calorimeter, $\tau = 12$ for a 6 mil foil and 22 s for an 11 mil foil.

A typical high chart speed for 1 mil foil thermocouple response is shown in Figure 1 for Hermes shot number 18233. It is evident from this figure that there are multiple (at least two) thermal decay time constants. The slow decay response was subtracted from the background signal and the initial response decayed with $\tau \approx 0.4$ s. This is faster than the calculated value of 2 s from above and indicates that the peak of the calorimeter response is the correct point to measure. It is believed that the slow component of the thermal decay is caused by the close proximity of the calorimeters to a large amount of aluminum. The aluminum also rises in temperature and the heat loss from calorimeter foil is reduced due to the reduced ΔT . Therefore for longer times the calorimeters will decay as the nearby aluminum decays.

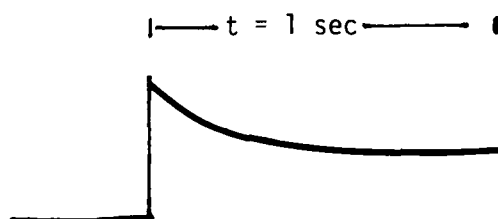


Figure 1. A typical high speed, 1 mil foil, thermocouple response from Hermes shot #18233.

A comparison between the 1 mil and 6 mil foil calorimeter responses and decays was also performed. These results are tabulated in Table 2 and shown in Figure 2. As can be seen there is very good agreement between the peak response of both the foils, further indication that the correct dose is obtained if the peak in the response is read. On a few of the earlier calorimeter records, the noise precluded an accurate measurement of the peak response. Therefore the later data (Table 2) were used to establish the ratio between the peak response and the 1 s response so that the peak response of the earlier noisy data could be obtained from the 1 s response point.

Table 2. Comparison between the 1 mil calorimeter and 6 mil calorimeter response at Hermes. Calorimeters spaced 0.25 cm.

Shot #	Front Calorimeter Dose (rad(Si)) (1 mil, $\tau' \approx 6$ s)*	Rear Calorimeter Dose (rad(Si)) (6 mil, $\tau' \approx 20$ s)*	Ratio F/R
18242	16.8 K	15.6 K	1.08
18243	12 K	13.0 K	.93
18244	14.9 K	14.9 K	1.0
18245	14.9 K	13.9 K	1.07
18246	15.4 K	15.8 K	.97
18247	12 K	11.5 K	1.04
18248	12.5 K	12.5 K	1.00
18249	63.4 K	60 K	1.06
18250	78.7 K	78.7 K	1.00
18251	142 K	125 K	1.14
			$\bar{x} = 1.03$
			$\sigma = 0.06$

$$* \tau' = - \left(\ln \frac{x_0}{x_1} \right)^{-1}$$

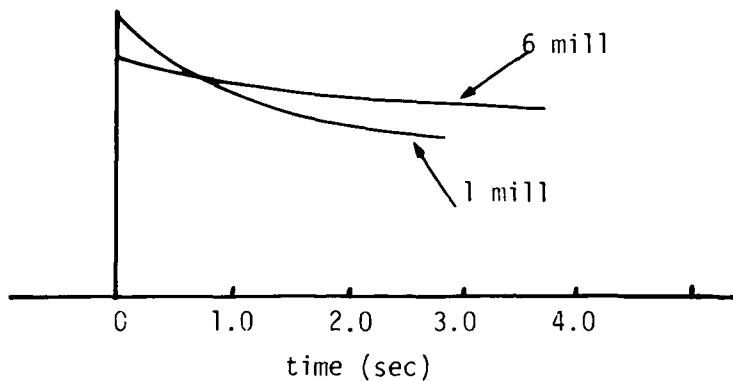


Figure 2. Calorimeter response for a 1 mil and 6 mil foil calorimeter. Hermes shot #18241.

The beam uniformity was measured at the HIFX and Hermes facilities using an array of nine calorimeters arranged in a cross pattern. At the HIFX facility, the beam uniformity was measured at the 15 cm position and at the 160 cm position. These results are shown in Figure 3 where the dose is in rads(Si). A similar measurement was performed at the Hermes facility and these results are shown in Figure 4. As can be seen from these figures, reasonable uniformity, at least on a relatively large scale, was obtained for the operating parameters listed.

A careful comparison between the calorimeter response and the TLD's was performed at the Hermes facility for shot numbers 18242 through 18266. The geometry of the test setup is shown in Figure 5. The results of this comparison are shown plotted in Figure 6 where the average calorimeter dose in rad(Si) is plotted against the average TLD reading. As can be seen the results agree quite well and indicate that a strong correlation can be obtained when they are placed in very close proximity. A summary of the average TLD responses versus the average copper calorimeter response for the HIFX facility tests and for the Hermes facility test are listed in Tables 3 and 4 respectively. These results do not correlate nearly as well and indicate that large spacial variations probably exist in the electron beam field as well as in the gamma ray field since the TLD's were located approximately 1 to 2 cm from the test part center position.

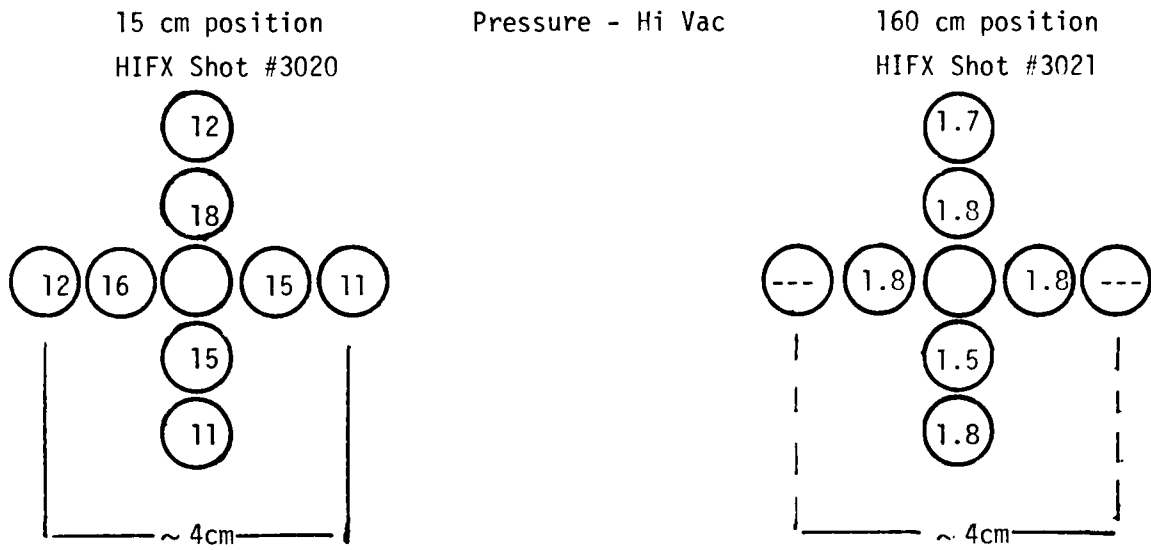


Figure 3. Beam uniformity measurement at the HIFX facility (dose in rad(Si) x 10⁴).

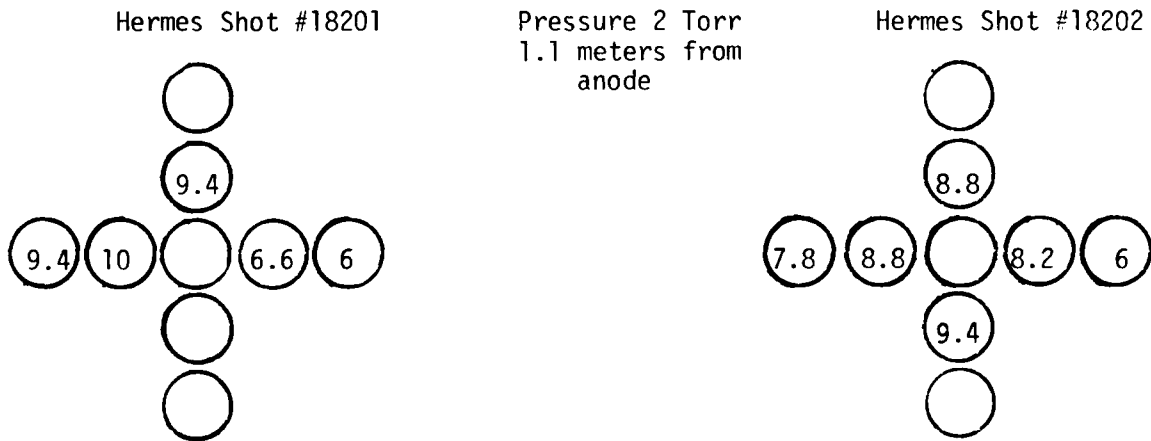


Figure 4. Beam uniformity measurement at the Hermes facility (dose in rad(Si) x 10⁴).

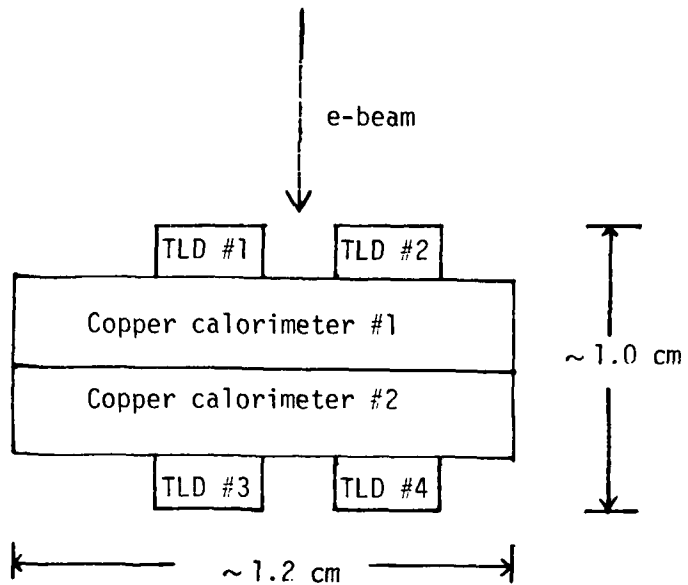


Figure 5. Schematic diagram of the test configuration for Hermes Shot #'s 18242 through 18266.

Table 3. Comparison of copper calorimeter response to the TLD response at HIFX.

Shot #	Copper Calorimeter Dose rad(Si)	TLD Dose rad(Si)
3021	1.6×10^4	1.7×10^4
3032 + 3033	956	743
3034	722	1.1×10^3
3035 + 3036	1.9×10^3	1.9×10^3
3037	2.4×10^3	2.9×10^3
3038	2.0×10^3	2.9×10^3
3040	2.0×10^4	2.4×10^4

Corrected copper dose $F_c = 1.155$
vs TLD's for shots 18242 through
18266 with $D(\text{Cu}) \leq 100\text{K}$

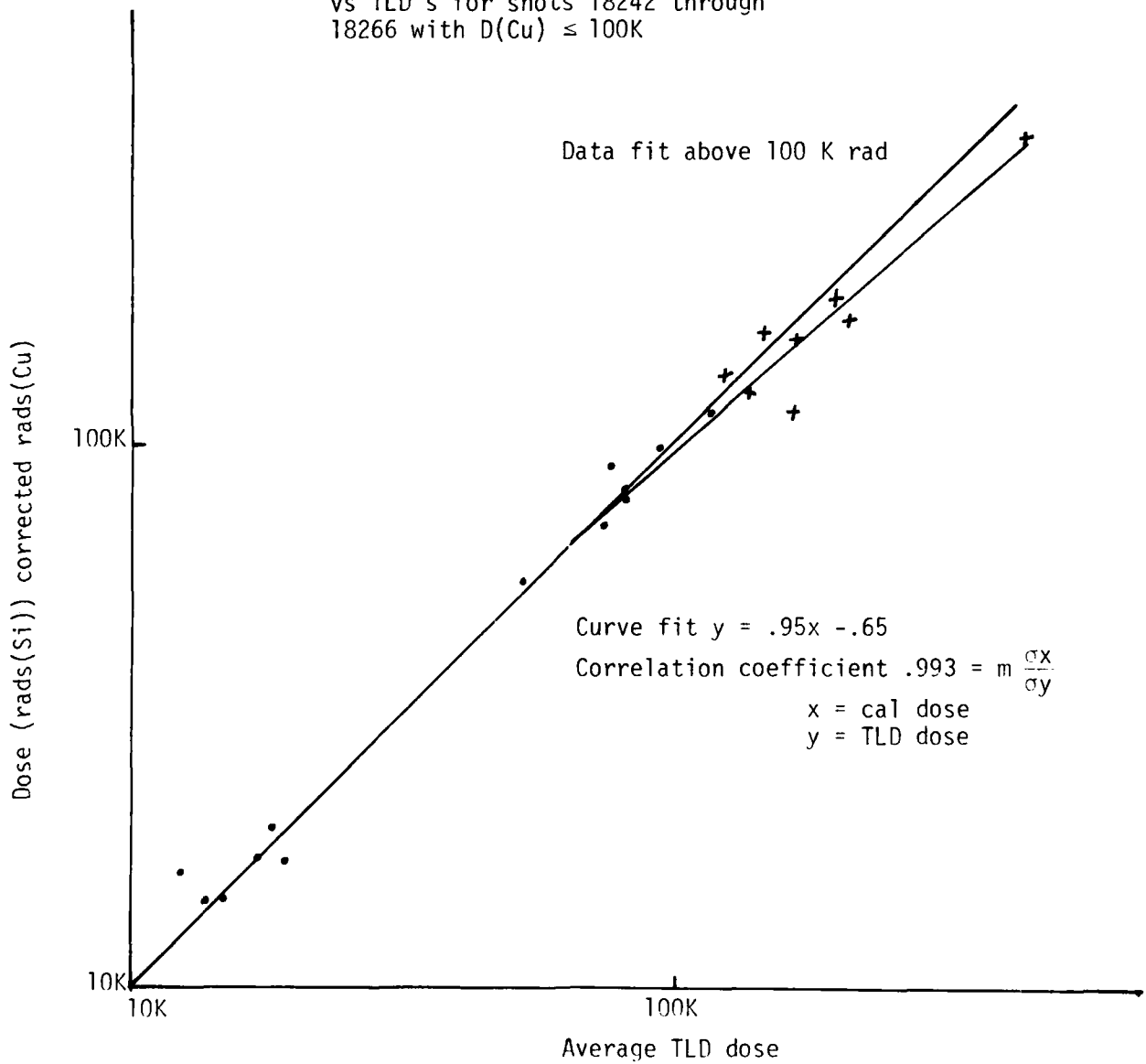


Figure 6. Comparison between TLD response and the copper calorimeter response.

Table 4. Comparison of copper calorimeter response to the TLD response at Hermes

Shot #	Copper Calorimeter Dose rad(Si)	TLD Dose rad(Si)
18213	5.6×10^4	1.4×10^5
18215	1.3×10^5	2.3×10^5
18216	2.5×10^4	5×10^4
18219	1.2×10^5	2.4×10^5
18220	1.8×10^5	3.6×10^5
18221	1.1×10^5	1.9×10^5
18223	2.1×10^5	3.5×10^5
18224	2.2×10^5	3.8×10^5
18225	9.1×10^4	2.9×10^5
18226	8.5×10^4	2.4×10^5
18227	4.8×10^5	1.2×10^5
18229	8.3×10^4	1.9×10^5
18230	6.6×10^4	1.4×10^5
18231	1.1×10^5	1.7×10^5
18232	5.0×10^4	6.2×10^4
18233	2.3×10^4	2.7×10^4
18234	3.3×10^4	3.1×10^4
18235	3.1×10^4	2.6×10^4
18236	1.4×10^4	1.2×10^4
18237	2.1×10^5	2.5×10^5
18238	6.1×10^4	6×10^4
18239	1.2×10^5	2.1×10^5

Table 4. (continued)

Dose	Copper Calorimeter Dose rad(Si)	TLD Dose rad (Si)
18240	1.6×10^5	2.0×10^5
18241	1.1×10^5	2.9×10^5
18242	1.9×10^4	1.7×10^4
18243	1.4×10^4	1.5×10^4
18244	1.7×10^4	1.7×10^4
18245	1.6×10^4	1.2×10^4
18248	1.4×10^4	1.3×10^4
18249	7.1×10^4	7.4×10^4
18250	9.1×10^4	7.4×10^4
18252	1.2×10^5	1.2×10^5
18253	1.4×10^5	1.7×10^5
18254	1.1×10^5	1.4×10^5
18255	1.0×10^5	1.6×10^5
18256	1.4×10^5	--
18257	1.5×10^5	2.1×10^5
18258	1.7×10^4	1.8×10^4
18259	7.1×10^4	8.0×10^4
18260	--	--
18261	1.0×10^5	1.2×10^5
18262	3.2×10^5	4.3×10^5
18263	--	--
18264	4.9×10^4	5.2×10^4
18265	8.5×10^4	9.1×10^4
18266	1.6×10^5	2.0×10^5

To summarize, acceptable dose measurements can be performed at high intensities if the dosimeters are placed in close proximity to the device under test by using either calorimeters or TLD's. To adequately determine the dose for highly diverging beams, devices should be instrumented with dosimeters front and rear.

SECTION 3 ELECTRON BEAM TRANSPORT

Several methods and combinations were utilized to vary the test part dose exposure. These included varying the electron drift chamber length (at HIFX only), varying the beam aperture size, and varying the drift chamber pressure for the e-beam exposure tests. For the photon mode tests, the converter to test part distance was varied.

The variation of aperture size for HIFX is shown in Figure 7 and for Hermes in Figure 8. These show a decrease in dose with decreasing aperture size with the exception of the Hermes four inch aperture. The shots using the four inch aperture were anomalous low output double hump shots. The variation in dose with increasing drift chamber length at HIFX showed a weak inverse length dependence. The dose decreased from 6.4×10^4 rads(Si)/pulse for a 15 cm drift chamber length to 1.8×10^4 rad at the 160 cm position at high vacuum and no aperture. The gamma dose vs. distance for the Hermes facility is shown in Figure 9 and decreases with distance as expected.

The technique of varying the drift chamber pressure to accomplish variations in test part dose exposures was utilized at both the HIFX and the Hermes facilities as the primary method of dose variation. The responses measured at the HIFX facility are shown in Figure 10 and the response measured previously at the Hermes facility is shown in Figure 11. As can be seen from these figures, the responses at the two facilities are different. The HIFX response was the lowest in high vacuum, peaked at ~ 0.5 Torr and decreased for increasing pressures to 85 Torr. It was also observed that if the pressure in the HIFX drift chamber was maintained by

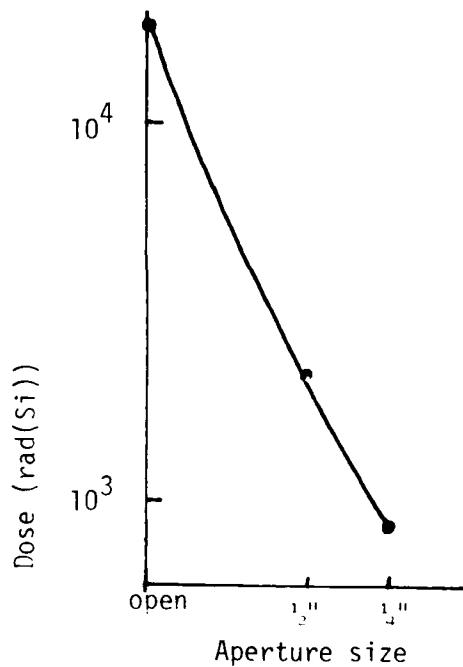


Figure 7. Dose variation vs aperture for HIFX-HiVac-160 cm position.

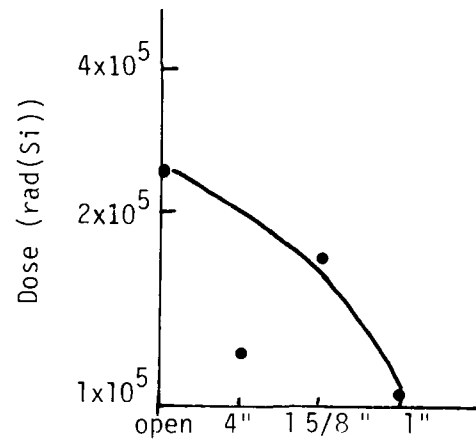


Figure 8. Dose variation vs aperture size for Hermes.

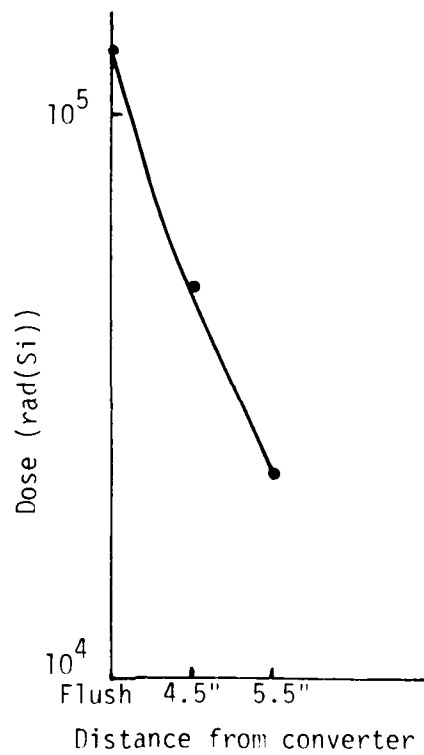


Figure 9. Hermes gamma dose vs distance.

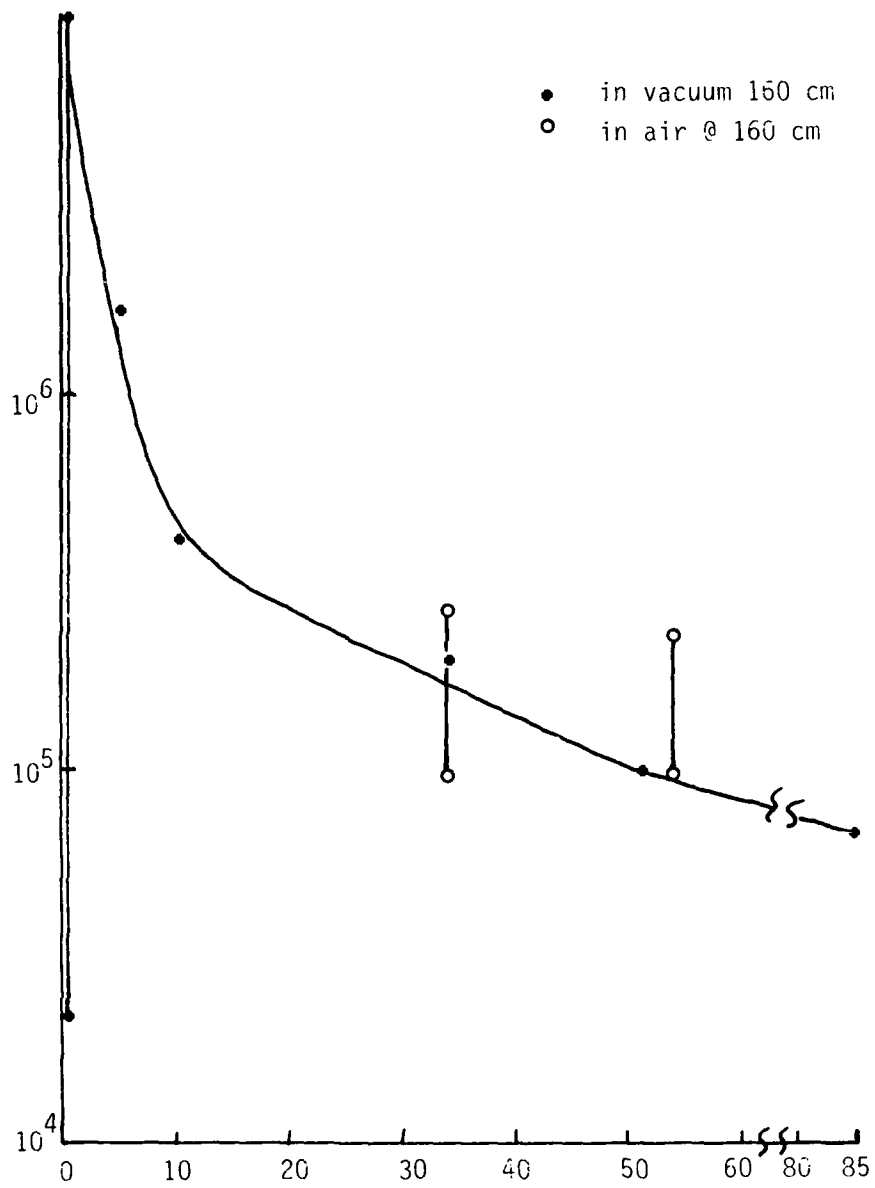


Figure 10. HIFX dose response vs. pressure.

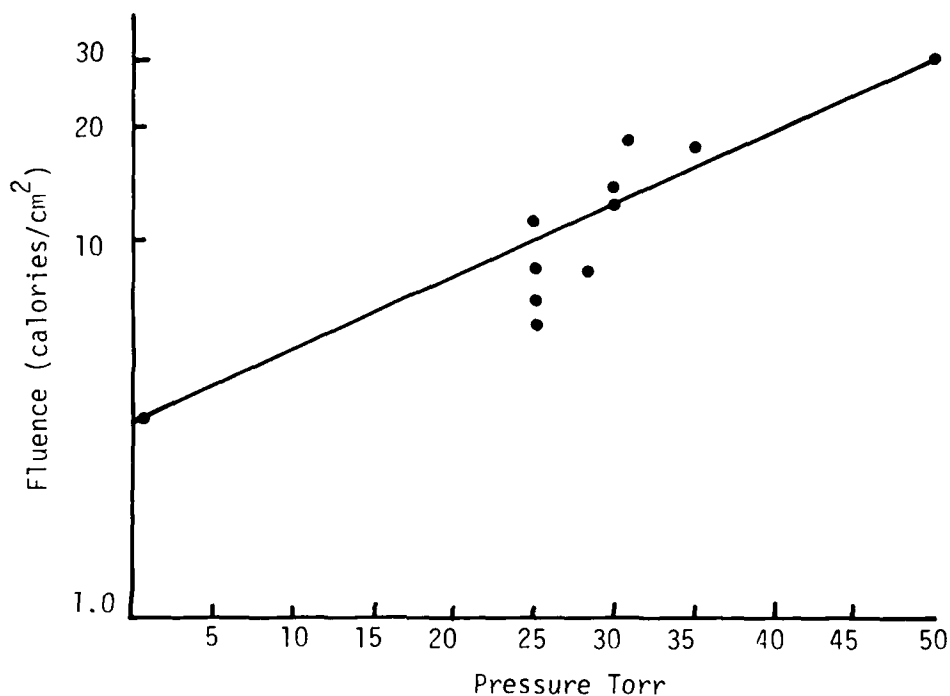


Figure 11. Hermes beam transport response vs pressure (from Sandia data shot #'s 17671 through 17680 + 17668).

sealing off the chamber, as opposed to pumping against a steady leak, that the dose on subsequent shots increased substantially. (These are the vertical bars in Figure 10). The Hermes response increased from 2 Torr (the lowest pressure operated at for Hermes) at higher pressures. In addition, at the HIFX facility, the diode was tested at atmospheric pressure air behind a thin drift chamber window as well as inside the drift chamber. Similar diode responses were obtained by both methods (see the Diode Test Section) however testing outside of a thin window proved to be more convenient and eliminated the problems of partial vacuum, air ionization interferences (caused by the 50V diode test bias level) when the diode was mounted inside the drift chamber.

To account for the observed differences in dose vs pressure at the Hermes and HIFX facilities, the effects of the electron beam propagation parameters on the beam propagation were examined and are presented below.

The radial electrostatic forces on an electron at the outer edge of a paraxial electron beam of length l , which is much greater than the beam diameter is given by,

$$F_r = q E_r = \frac{q I}{2\pi \beta a} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} \quad (8)$$

where q = electronic charge (1.6×10^{-19} coulombs),
 E_r = radial electric field in volts per meter,
 β = v/c ,
 I = electron beam current,
 a = the electron beam diameter,
 μ_0 = permeability of free space, and
 ϵ_0 = permittivity of free space.

The radial electrostatic force on an electron at the outer edge of a column of ions is the negative of equation 8 since the electrostatic force is attractive. Therefore, the net Coulombic force on an outer edge electron is given by,

$$F_r = \frac{q I}{2\pi \beta a} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} (1 - f), \quad (9)$$

where we have defined the quantity f to be the ratio of ion to electron densities. When $f = 1$ the beam is space charge neutralized.

Similarly, the radial magnetic force on an outer electron due to the magnetic field of the electron beam is given by,

$$F_r = - \frac{q \beta I}{2\pi a} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} \quad (10)$$

The net force (electrostatic and magnetic), per electron, on an outer edge electron can be expressed as,

$$\frac{F_{\text{net}}}{\text{electron}} = \frac{I}{2\pi a\beta} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} (\beta^2 - 1 + f). \quad (11)$$

Since the electron drift chambers utilized was only partially evacuated, the electron beams would also scatter outwardly. An expression for the worst case RMS scattering angle (θ), traversing a scattering material of thickness t (in gm/cm^2) which is thin compared to the electron range, is given by equation 12 below where E_s is 21.2 Mev (the characteristic energy for scattering in air), t' is in units of 36.5 gm/cm^2 and p is the electron momentum.

$$\langle \theta^2 \rangle = \frac{E_s^2 t'}{(pv)^2} \quad (\text{Ref. 1}) \quad (12)$$

Therefore using $\rho = 1.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ g/(cm}^3 \text{ Torr)}$ for the density of air we obtain

$$\langle \theta \rangle = \frac{4.6 \cdot 10^4 \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \sqrt{t' P}}{2 m_0 c^2} \quad (13)$$

where P is in Torr, t' (the thickness of the scattering media) in meters and pv is equal to $\beta^2 E$. The angle theta ($\langle \theta \rangle$) represents the RMS scattering angle for a gaussian distribution of the incident beam (see Figure 12).

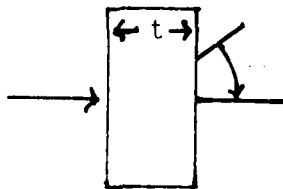


Figure 12. The geometry for multiple scattering through a foil of thickness t .

An electron exiting a scatterer at an angle, θ , will have a radial component of velocity as well as an axial component. Therefore, the equivalent force which acted on the electron to accelerate it to its final radial velocity can be calculated. It is evident from Figure 12 that the radial component of velocity is the axial component times the $\tan \theta$. Therefore

$$v_r = v_z \tan \theta \quad (14)$$

the equivalent force, $F = ma = m dV/dt$ where $dV = V_r$ and $dt =$ the time of flight through the scattering medium. If we assume relativistic electrons and small angles of θ then $\Delta t = \ell/c$ where ℓ is the length of the chamber and c is the velocity of light. Therefore,

$$F = \beta m \frac{v_z \tan \theta}{\ell/c} \approx \frac{m c v_z \tan \theta}{\ell} \quad (15)$$

Rearranging terms we obtain, for the equivalent scattering force,

$$F_s = \frac{m_0 c^2 \beta^2 \tan \theta}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \ell} \approx \frac{m_0 c^2 \beta^2 \theta}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \ell} \quad (16)$$

where $\tan \theta \approx \theta$ for small θ was used. Using Equation 13 for θ we obtain

$$F_s \sim 4.6 \times 10^4 \sqrt{P/\ell} \text{ ev/meter.} \quad (17)$$

Therefore the net total force on an outer edge electron due to Coulomb, magnetic and the equivalent scattering forces can be expressed as

$$F_{\text{net}} = \frac{I}{2\pi a \beta} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0}} (\beta^2 - 1 + f) - \frac{m_0 c^2 \beta^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \ell} \\ = \left(\frac{60 I}{a \beta} (\beta^2 - 1 + f) - 4.6 \times 10^4 \sqrt{P/\ell} \right) \text{ ev/meter.} \quad (18)$$

It is of interest to assess the machine parameter effects on the net force as expressed in Equation 18. The parameters in Equation 18, which have a strong machine dependence are f (the ratio of ion to electron density), I (the beam current), $m_0 c^2 / \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$ (the mean electron energy) and l (the drift chamber length).

To calculate the pressure at which space charge neutralization occurs ($f = 1$ in Equation 18) early enough in the pulse ($Q \approx 0.1 Q_{\max}$) to affect transport, the number of ions produced as a function of pressure must be known.

The density of electrons in the drift chamber is given by

$$n_e \approx \frac{I f}{q c v} \quad (19)$$

and the total number of electrons to pass through the drift chamber is given by

$$n_t = \frac{I}{q} t_{pw} \quad (20)$$

where t_{pw} is the pulse width.

The number of ions generated is given by the stopping power in air times the density of air divided by the energy loss per ion pair, times the total number of electrons (n_t) times the chamber length. Therefore the ion density is given by

$$n_i = \frac{n_i}{v} = S_p \cdot 4.8 \times 10^{-2} \frac{P \cdot n_t}{v} \quad (21)$$

where $S_p = 1.9 \times 10^2$ eV m^2/g for Hermes and 1.6×10^2 eV m^2/g for HIFX, P is the drift chamber pressure in Torr, l is the drift chamber length in

meters and n_t is given by equation 20 above. This results in the expression for f of

$$f = \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_e} = 4.8 \times 10^{-2} S_p t_{pw} c \quad (22)$$

Therefore $f = 137$ P for Hermes where $t_{pw} \approx 50$ ns and $f = 58$ P for HIFX where $t_{pw} \approx 25$ ns. If we add requirement that the beam becomes space charge neutral at $Q = 0.1 Q_{max}$ we obtain space charge neutralization at ≈ 0.07 Torr for Hermes and ≈ 0.17 Torr for HIFX.

At higher pressures (after space charge neutralization is achieved) the effects of beam scattering can become significant. For comparison purposes, using a pressure of 100 Torr for both facilities, we obtain an equivalent scattering force of 4.6×10^5 eV/meter for Hermes ($\ell = 1$ meter) and 3.6×10^5 eV/meter for HIFX ($\ell = 1.6$ meter). Although this force is small in comparison to the magnetic force, it causes the beam to diverge. The magnetic force confines diverging electrons into spiral paths (which increases the path length and hence the effects of scattering) but does not provide any focusing action on the beam. These differences could explain the differences recorded at the HIFX and Hermes facilities.

In summary, these tests have demonstrated that dose variations can be conveniently and reliably achieved by variation of the drift chamber pressure. The techniques of variation of drift chamber length and aperture variation are less convenient and can be time consuming.

DIODE TEST

The purpose of the diode test was to provide a test device of minimal complexity to validate the test methods and the dosimetry methods used for the various environments at the two facilities. The 1N916 is a high frequency diffused diode of simple rectangular geometry and is therefore an ideal device for this purpose.

It is desirable to completely shield the test circuit from the radiation. However, this requires long connecting leads to the device under test which introduces parasitic inductance and capacitance forming a resonant circuit. If the resonance is excited by the rise time of the photo current response (which follows the rise time of the radiation pulse), then the circuit will oscillate. Such a response obtained at HIFX is shown in Figure 13. This required shortening the connecting leads to such a degree that minimal circuit shielding was possible at HIFX. Therefore, it was found necessary to reduce the radiation induced interference signal by using a back-to-back transformer configuration as shown in Figure 14. At the Hermes facility, the rise time of the radiation pulse was longer allowing longer connecting leads and some circuit shielding. The Hermes rise time was approximately 2.5 times longer than the HIFX rise time. However, the back-to-back transformer configuration was also utilized at the Hermes facility.

A pair of diode responses obtained at HIFX are shown in Figure 15. As can be seen the two signals are not symmetrical, as would be the case in the absence of an interference. A differential amplifier was used to cancel the interference and a typical response is shown in Figure 16 which shows the photo current on the vertical axis ($I = 1A$) and the time on the horizontal axis. The photo charge is then obtained by measuring the area under the curve, ($I \cdot t = Q$ in Coulombs) and dividing by two.

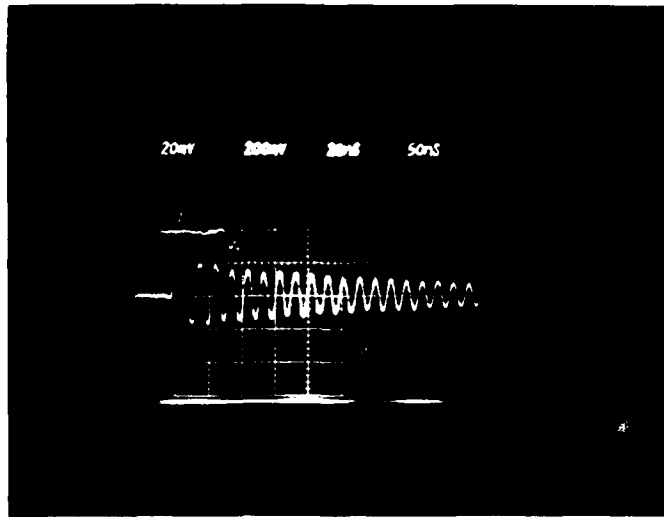


Figure 13. Photo response for a long lead measurement circuit.

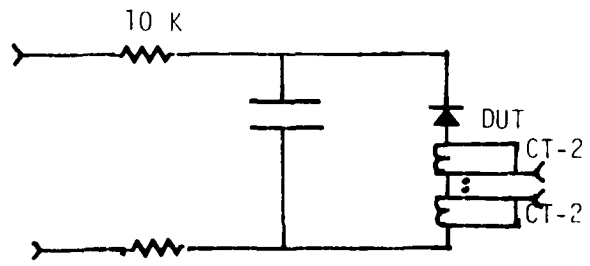


Figure 14. Double CT-2 test circuit.

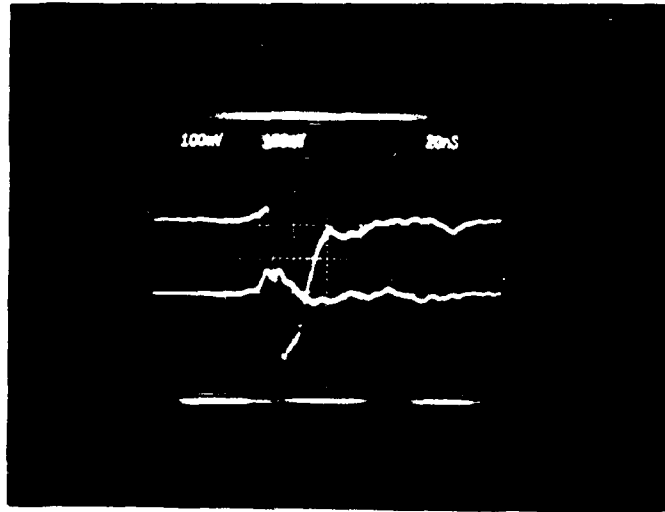


Figure 15. Double transformer outputs for HIFX shot #3031. Upper trace is transformer 1 and the lower trace is transformer 2.

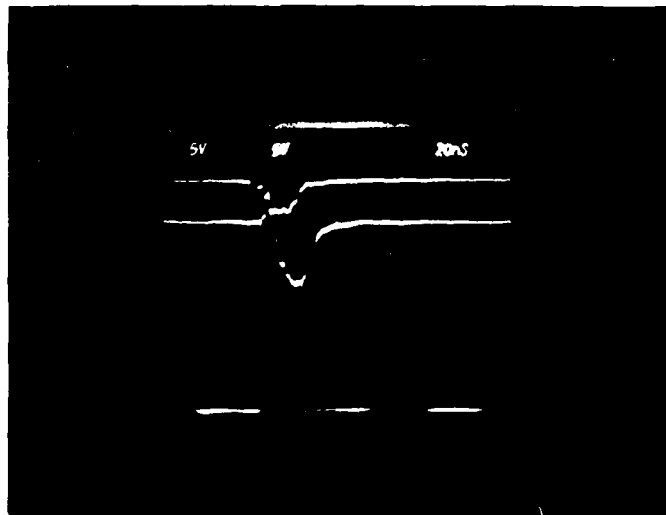


Figure 16. Differential photo response for HIFX shot #3052 (lower trace).

It was also found that to avoid large error signals coupled into the test device that ground planes were required between the device under test and any dielectric materials. The dielectrics charge up and noise could be capacitively coupled to the device under test. For these tests, the calorimeters were mounted in plastic holders and had to be isolated in this manner. When the devices were tested in the gamma mode, the cables required shielding in order to minimize their contribution to the observed response. A short coax cable will have a radiation response similar to a fast diode. In addition, a dummy diode (open) was used as an indicator of air ionization and cable-current contributions to the signal.

A determination of the expected photo response for the 1N916 device is useful. The U.K. personnel measured the photo response at $\approx 1.4 \times 10^{-12}$ Coulombs/rad(Si). The photo response of a 1N914 diode which is similar to the 1N916 (except for twice the junction capacitance) has an average photo response of 1×10^{-12} Coulomb/rad(Si). It is also useful to calculate the theoretical response from the physical parameters of the diode. This was done using a measured junction area of 2.6×10^{-4} cm², an assumed background doping density of 4×10^{15} (from the 100 V breakdown and a leakage current of 10 na at 50 V). The calculated value was 2.4×10^{-12} Coulomb/rad(Si) which is in the ball park of the other estimations.

The photo response versus dose (in rad(Si)) obtained at the HIFX and Hermes facilities is shown in Figure 17. The best linear straight line fit for the centrally weighted data, resulted in an average photo response of 1.5×10^{-12} Coulomb/rad(Si) with a correlation factor of 0.98. This is in good agreement with the predicted response.

Data excluded from the response were those obtained with an unshielded thermocouple feedthrough for the dose measurements and those data obtained at bias levels other than 50 V.

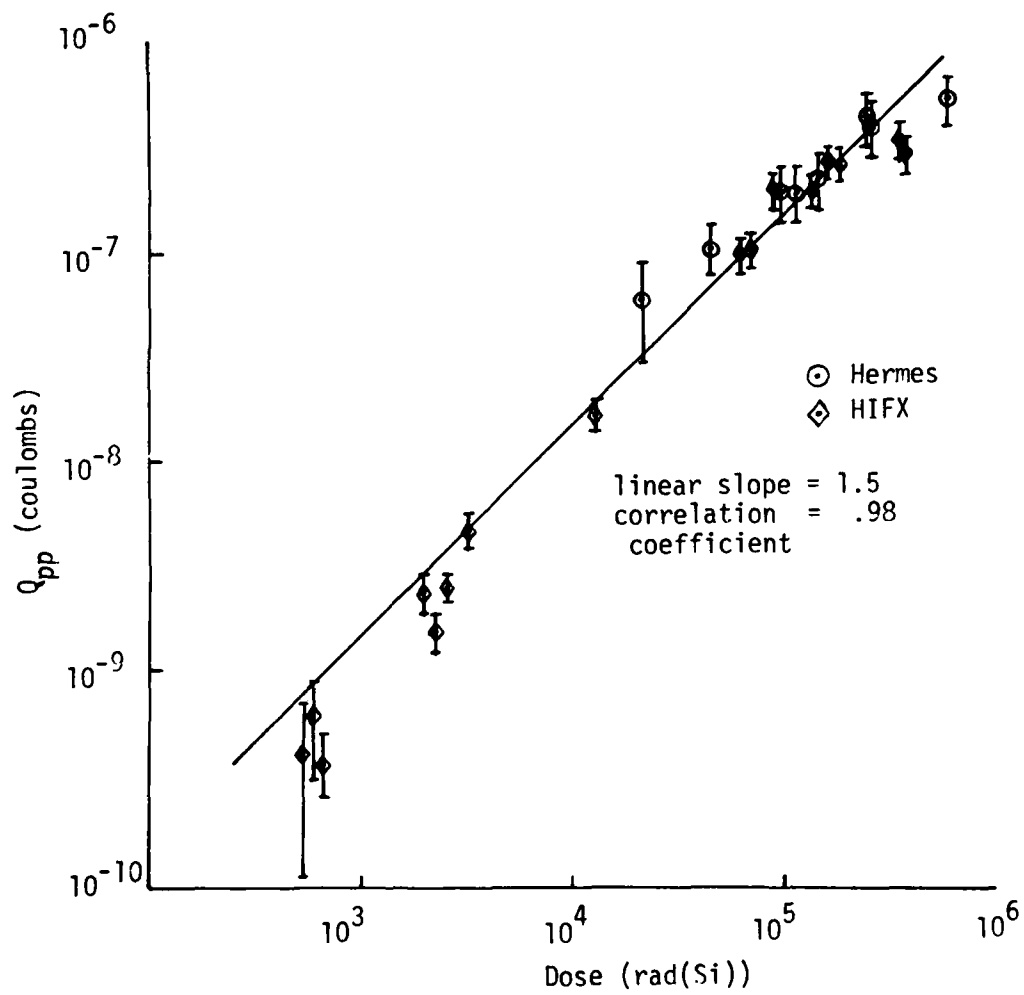


Figure 17. Summary plot of the Hermes and HIFX photo response.

In addition the e-beam results obtained at HIFX where the diode was mounted inside the drift chamber agreed quite well with those e-beam data obtained with the diode mounted outside the thin window. These results are tabulated in Table 5 for each type of exposure.

Table 5. Diode response for electron beam exposure in partial vacuum and atmospheric pressure air.

HIFX Shot #	Q_{pp}/rad	Exposure Environment
3044	1.2×10^{-12}	Atmospheric Air
3045	2×10^{-12}	
3046	2.1×10^{-12}	
3048	1.5×10^{-12}	
3049	1.8×10^{-12}	
	$\bar{X} = 1.8 \times 10^{-12}$ $\sigma = 0.47 \times 10^{-12}$	
3051	1.3×10^{-12}	Partial Vacuum
3052	1.5×10^{-12}	
3053	2.6×10^{-12}	
3054	1.4×10^{-12}	
	$\bar{X} = 1.7 \times 10^{-12}$ $\sigma = 0.6 \times 10^{-1}$	

SECTION 4

CONCLUSIONS

This program has demonstrated test techniques and methods for high dose rate testing using FXR machines operated in the e-beam mode. It was found that the dose measured by either TLD's or calorimeters were in agreement if the devices were positioned in close proximity to each other. It was also found that the e-beam irradiated diode response agreed with the photon irradiated diode response. In addition, concerning the diode tests, it was shown that the results obtained when the diode was mounted inside the drift chamber (partial vacuum) or high vacuum agreed with the results obtained outside the drift chamber at atmospheric pressure. Since the atmospheric pressure measurements are more easily performed (they do not require vacuum feedthroughs) and are less subject to air ionization interference signal, they are preferred.

Finally, it was demonstrated that a convenient method of dose variation was accomplished by varying the drift chamber pressure, which changes the beam propagation parameters. This method is more convenient than changing aperture or the drift chamber length.

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